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Interactive climate factors restrict future increases in spring productivity of temperate trees

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1	Interactive climate factors restrict future increases in spring productivity of temperate
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27 Abstract

28 Climate warming is currently advancing spring leaf-out of temperate trees, enhancing net 29 primary productivity (NPP) of forests. However, it remains unclear whether this trend will 30 continue, preventing for accurate projections of ecosystem functioning and climate feedbacks. 31 Several eco-physiological mechanisms have been proposed to regulate the timing of leaf 32 emergence in response to changing environmental cues, but the relative importance of those 33 mechanisms remains unclear. Here, we use 727,401 direct phenological observations of 34 dominant European forest trees to examine the dominant controls on leaf-out. Using the emerging mechanisms, we forecast future trajectories of spring arrival and evaluate the 35 36 consequences for forest carbon dynamics. By representing hypothesized relationships with autumn temperature, winter chilling, and the timing of spring onset we accurately predicted 37 38 reductions in the advance of leaf-out. There was a strong consensus between our empirical 39 model and existing process-based models, revealing that the advance in leaf-out will not exceed 40 2 weeks over the rest of century. We further estimate that, under a "business-as-usual" climate-41 scenario, earlier spring arrival will enhance NPP of temperate forests by ~0.2 Gt per year at the 42 end of the century. In contrast, previous estimates based on a simple degree-day model range 43 around 0.8 Gt. As such, the expected NPP of temperate forests is drastically reduced in our 44 updated model relative to previous estimates – by a total of ~25 Gt over the rest of the century. 45 These findings reveal important environmental constraints on the productivity of broadleaf deciduous trees and highlight that shifting spring phenology is unlikely to slow the rate of 46 47 warming by offsetting anthropogenic carbon emissions.

48

Keywords: Climate change, Phenology, Spring leaf-out, Carbon cycle, Terrestrial carbon sink,
Temperate forests

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53 Introduction

54 Shifts in the timing of annual growth cycles in temperate trees have direct impacts on global biogeochemical cycles (Keenan et al., 2014; Richardson et al., 2010), species distribution 55 56 patterns (Chuine, 2010), and ultimately feedback to the climate system by affecting the atmospheric carbon budget (Richardson et al., 2013). There is broad consensus that warming 57 58 trends over the past decades have led to an earlier arrival of spring leaf emergence in Northern 59 Hemisphere temperate trees, a trend that is enhancing global primary productivity under climate change (Keenan et al., 2014; Menzel & Fabian, 1999; Zohner & Renner, 2014). Depending on 60 species and location, leaf emergence has advanced by 3-8 days for every degree increase in air 61 62 temperature (Cook et al., 2012; Menzel & Fabian, 1999; Zohner & Renner, 2014). However, a 63 growing body of evidence suggests that this past trend cannot be used to predict future 64 responses, because other environmental factors may constrain the future advances in spring 65 phenology (Laube et al., 2014; Polgar et al., 2014; Zohner et al., 2016, 2017). Aside from spring temperature, most temperate trees rely on additional factors, including winter chilling and day-66 67 length, that are likely to become limiting in the future (Laube et al., 2014; Polgar et al., 2014; 68 Zohner et al., 2016, 2017). Yet, a lack of information about the existence, or relative importance 69 of these drivers translates to high uncertainty in model predictions of future forest phenology 70 (Basler, 2016). Given that each day advance in spring leaf unfolding of deciduous trees 71 translates to an increase in net ecosystem carbon uptake of 4.5 gC m⁻² (Keenan et al., 2014), 72 untangling these mechanisms is critical for improving confidence in future climate projections. 73 Three main factors — autumn temperatures (Fu et al., 2014; Heide, 2003), winter 74 chilling (Laube et al., 2014; Luedeling et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2010; Zohner et al., 2017), and

day length (Heide, 1993b, 1993a; Körner & Basler, 2010) — have been proposed to control
spring leaf-out by modulating the amount of warming that trees require to leaf-out. These
factors serve trees as a safety mechanism to prevent precocious leaf-out in case of an early
warm spell when the risk of nightly freezing is still high (Körner & Basler, 2010; Zohner, Mo,

Renner, et al., 2020; Zohner, Mo, Sebald, et al., 2020). Each of these factors is therefore likely
to counteract the advances in spring onset under a warming climate. Specifically, as the climate
warms, the accumulated warming required for leaves to emerge is expected to increase because:
(i) warmer autumn temperatures delay the initiation of dormancy (Fu et al., 2014; Heide, 2003);
(ii) warmer winters lead to reduced chilling accumulation (Fu et al., 2015; Zohner & Renner,
2014); and (iii) days at spring onset are becoming shorter (Fu et al., 2019a; Heide, 1993b;
Vitasse & Basler, 2013; Zohner & Renner, 2015) (Fig. 1).

86 The potential effects of these separate environmental drivers have been identified 87 using controlled climate chamber experiments with pot plants or twig cuttings (Laube et al., 88 2014; Polgar et al., 2014; Zohner et al., 2016). These studies provide valuable mechanistic 89 insights, but they do not necessarily reflect the behavior of mature trees under natural growing 90 conditions (Vitasse, 2013). Although the inclusion of these hypothesized mechanisms can 91 improve the performance of mechanistic phenological models, the exact nature, and relative 92 importance, of these mechanisms remains untested under natural conditions (Fu et al., 2019a). 93 As such, we cannot represent these mechanisms in global biogeochemical models to predict the 94 consequences for future temperate forest productivity. Parameterizing phenological models and 95 translating their effects into global biogeochemical models requires direct empirical evidence 96 about the effects of these dominant environmental drivers in mature trees exposed to real-world 97 changes in natural environmental conditions (Chen et al., 2016).

To represent the important phenological mechanisms into larger biogeochemical models, we need unifying evidence for the strength and direction of these ecological parameters. Empirically testing the influence of these environmental constraints is also vital for avoiding overparameterization in global biogeochemical models, which need to rely on simple sub-models to represent plant physiological processes. To date, dynamic global vegetation models, such as LPJ-GUESS, cannot reflect the complex dynamics that are represented in specialized phenology models. As such, they can only account for spring phenology using a

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simple degree-day-chilling relationship, neglecting the important physiological mechanisms that are likely to restrict the advance of spring phenology in the future. These models are thus likely to vastly overestimate the advances in spring phenology over the rest of the century. Addressing this huge source of uncertainty necessitates that we generate simple empirical parameters for the combined roles of autumn temperature, winter chilling and day length.

110 In this study, we aim to bridge the gap between specialized phenological models and 111 global vegetation models by developing a simple, empirical model to evaluate the key 112 mechanisms represented in process-based models. Using a massive in situ database of forest 113 leaf-out observations, we determine the interactive effects of autumn temperature, winter 114 chilling and spring day-length variation on thermal requirements to leaf-out in mature temperate 115 forest trees. We then use the observed relationships to train statistical predictions of future 116 spring arrival. By comparing this empirical model performance with all available process-based 117 models from the phenological literature, we show that it adequately reflects the dominant 118 drivers of spring phenology, and predicts spring leaf-out with as much accuracy as existing 119 mechanistic models. In addition, we use forecasts of future temperatures to project the future 120 changes in spring phenology under two climate change scenarios ("CO₂ stabilization" scenario, 121 RCP 4.5 and "business-as-usual", RCP 8.5). With high confidence in our 'simple' empirical 122 model performance, we could then use the calculated coefficients to train a global dynamic 123 vegetation model to more accurately reflect the future changes in spring phenology. Ultimately, 124 this big-data approach enables us to test the effects of interacting climate drivers, benchmark 125 model projections, and evaluate how these mechanisms influence global dynamic vegetation 126 model predictions of future phenology and global net primary productivity (NPP).

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131 Methods

132 Data set. In situ observations of leaf-out date were obtained from the Pan European Phenology 133 network (Templ et al., 2018), which provides open-access phenological data for Europe (mainly 134 Germany, Switzerland, and Austria). We selected leaf-out records of 9 common temperate tree 135 species (7 deciduous angiosperms, 1 deciduous conifer, 1 evergreen conifer) at 4,165 sites (see 136 Fig. S1 for site locations). For the seven angiosperms, leaf-out was defined as the date when 137 unfolded leaves, pushed out all the way to the petiole, were visible on the respective individual 138 (BBCH 11, Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie). For the two conifers Larix decidua and Picea abies leaf-out was defined as the date when the first 139 140 needles started to separate ("mouse-ear stage"; BBCH 10).

Information on temperature parameters was derived from a gridded climatic data set 141 142 of daily minimum and maximum temperatures at 0.5° spatial resolution (approximately 50 km) 143 (Beer et al., 2014). We additionally tested the CRU/NCAR dataset 144 (https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/ncep/) which also contains daily minimum and maximum temperatures at 0.5° spatial resolution and obtained very similar results (R^2 for degree-days 145 146 extracted from ref (Beer et al., 2014) vs. CRU/NCAR dataset = 0.94). Future predictions of 147 daily maximum and minimum temperatures were based on two different climate warming 148 scenarios (RCP 4.5 and 8.5) (Beer et al., 2014).

149 Data cleaning. Following (Vitasse et al., 2017), we removed (i) leaf-out dates that deviated 150 from an individual's median more than 3 times the median absolute deviation (moderately 151 conservative threshold), (ii) leaf-out dates for which the accumulated degree-days deviated 152 from an individual's median degree-days more than 3 times the median absolute deviation, and 153 (iii) individuals, for which the standard deviation of phenological observations across years was 154 higher than 15. This data cleaning removed 10% of the data, resulting in a total of 24,650 time-155 series and 727,401 phenological observations (individuals x years), with a median time-series 156 length of 29 years (minimally 15 years, maximally 63 years).

157 Environmental parameters. Accumulated warming to leaf-out was calculated as the growing 158 degree-days (using 5°C as base temperature) from 1 January until the date of leaf unfolding. 159 We also tested a temperature threshold of 0 °C, which produced very similar results. Here, we 160 only report the results using the threshold of 5 °C. To calculate degree-days, we approximated 161 hourly temperature values with a sine curve based on daily maximum (T_{max}) and minimum 162 temperatures (T_{min}) [equation 1], subtracted 5 (base temperature) from each value, then set all 163 values below the base temperature to zero (because negative development is biologically not 164 possible), and finally calculated the mean of all 24 values for each day, weighting day-time 165 values (= time when sun is above the horizon) 3 times more than night-time values. This 166 weighting was done because the effect of day-time temperature on leaf unfolding is ~3 times 167 higher than that of night-time temperature (Fu et al., 2016; Piao et al., 2015).

Winter chilling, reflecting the sum of chilling from 1 October until the mean leaf-out date of each individual, was calculated in two ways (either temperatures below 5 °C, or between 0 - 5 °C) to reflect two possibilities proposed in the literature (Coville, 1920; Fu et al., 2015; Hunter & Lechowicz, 1992). Temperature (T_{hour}) at any time of the day (*time_day*) was simulated with a sine curve based on daily maximum (T_{max}) and minimum temperatures (T_{min}) using the following equation:

174

175
$$T_{hour} = \frac{(T_{max} - T_{min})}{2} * \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{12} * time_{day} - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{(T_{max} + T_{min})}{2}$$
(1)

176

This allowed us to calculate the daily proportion of chilling, rather than using a simple
presence/absence classification based on daily mean temperatures (e.g., (Fu et al., 2015)).
Multiple studies have reported that temperatures slightly above freezing are most effective in
satisfying chilling requirements and assume that effective chilling temperatures range between
0 °C and 5 °C (Coville, 1920; Vitasse et al., 2017):

182

(2)

183
$$Chill_{hour} = 1$$
 if $0 \le T \le 5$

185where chilling (*Chill_{hour}*) at any given time of the day depends on the temperature (*T*).186We then calculated daily chilling proportions, e.g., a day in which in 75% of the time187temperatures are between 0°C and 5 °C translates to 0.75 chilling days.188In addition, we calculated winter chilling including all temperatures below or equal to1895 °C (Fu et al., 2015) as:

190

$$191 \quad Chill_{hour} = 1 \quad if \ T \le 5 \tag{3}$$

192

To calculate the timing of spring onset for each year, we first needed to define a date reflecting the onset of spring warming. To do so, for each site and species combination, we calculated the average degree-days accumulating before leaf-out. Spring onset (SO) each year was then defined as the day length at the date when the average degree-days to leaf-out at the respective site were reached (Forsythe et al., 1995). SO thus reflects how early spring warming occurred each year.

199

200 SO =
$$24 - \frac{24}{\pi} \cos^{-1} \left[\frac{\sin \frac{0.8333\pi}{180} + \sin \frac{L\pi}{180} \sin \varphi}{\cos \frac{L\pi}{180} * \cos \varphi} \right]$$
 (4)

201

202
$$\varphi = \sin^{-1} \left(0.29795 * \cos \theta \right)$$
 (5)

203

$$204 \quad \theta = 0.2163108 + 2 * tan^{-1}(0.9671396 * tan (0.00860 * (DOY - 186))) \tag{6}$$

205

where *L* is the latitude of the phenological site and DOY is the day of year when the averagedegree-days to leaf-out at each site were reached.

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To infer information on autumn temperatures in the year preceding leaf unfolding, we calculated the mean temperatures of the months September and October, September– November, or October and November for each year.

For each species and site, we also analysed the relationship between spring temperatures and leaf-out dates (Fig. S9). Spring temperature for each year and individual was defined as the average temperature during the 60 days prior to the average leaf-out date of an individual.

215

216 Analysis. To test for the importance of autumn temperatures, winter chilling, and spring day-217 length on warming required to leaf-out at each site, we applied univariate regression models 218 over time at the individual-level (Fig. 2). To visualize the correlations for each species, we 219 removed noise that is due to between-site variation using mixed effects models (R-package 220 lme4) [Fig. S2]. We calculated chilling in two ways (equations 2 and 3), and, in all nine species, 221 the effect of chilling on the amount of warming required to leaf-out was significantly higher 222 when choosing the second option (all temperatures $\leq 5^{\circ}$ C satisfy chilling requirements; Fig. 223 2b). To remove possible covariate effects of day-length, we also applied partial correlation 224 analyses between winter chilling and spring warming and obtained similar results, i.e., in all 225 nine species, partial correlation coefficients were higher when using all temperatures $\leq 5^{\circ}$ C to 226 calculate winter chilling. Similarly, we tested which temperature period in autumn best predicts 227 the amount of warming required to leaf-out, and for each time-series, the autumn temperature 228 period that yielded the highest correlation coefficient was chosen for multivariate modelling.

We used breakpoint analysis (Richardson et al., 2018), based on the residual sums of squares, to test whether the effect of the timing of spring onset or winter chilling on required accumulated warming is linear or whether the observed response is flattening beyond a threshold. In 70% and 76% of all time-series, a linear model was preferred over a breakpoint model for the effect of the timing of spring onset or winter chilling, respectively, on required 234 accumulated warming. For the 30% and 25% of time series in which a breakpoint was inferred, 235 we investigated whether steeper slopes are preferred with an earlier arrival of spring warming 236 or decreasing chilling. For the timing of spring onset, a steeper slope at earlier dates was 237 preferred for only 15% of pixels, while the opposite pattern also was preferred for 15% of 238 pixels. For chilling, a steeper slope under low chilling was only inferred for 13% of pixels, 239 while the opposite pattern was inferred for 11%. We thus rejected the hypothesis that the effect 240 of the timing of spring onset or winter chilling on the amount of warming required to leaf-out 241 is non-linear, i.e., increases with earlier arrival of spring warming or decreasing chilling.

242 After we had chosen the best autumn period and chilling model for each species, we 243 modelled individual warming requirements using multivariate linear models. Sixteen models 244 were tested against each other (Fig. S3a). The models always included winter chilling and day-245 length as fixed effects. Additionally, we either included or excluded autumn temperatures as 246 explanatory variable. We also tested for an interaction term between day-length and winter 247 chilling, because day-length and chilling cues can interact, with long days substituting for 248 insufficient chilling and vice versa (Vitasse & Basler, 2013; Zohner & Renner, 2015). We also 249 tested models including chilling and the timing of spring onset as exponential terms (which did 250 not affect model precision and projections; Figs. S5 and S6). In addition to our multivariate 251 model (hereafter referred to as *full model*), we applied a *chilling model* (which has previously 252 been implemented in the LPJ-GUESS dynamic global vegetation model), in which the amount 253 of warming required to leaf-out is solely affected by winter chilling (equation 7), and a *null* 254 *model*, in which leaf-out is solely driven by spring warming (degree-day accumulation) to test 255 for the importance of these individual mechanisms.

By contrast to more complex phenological models, the starting date of degree-day accumulation was not fitted to the observed data and instead fixed to the first day of the year, allowing for easy incorporation into large-scale vegetation models. This also ensures that the *null model* (warming-only model) is not confounded by other factors because fitting a starting 260 date of degree-day accumulation implicitly accounts for winter chilling and/or day-length by261 determining when plants become susceptible to spring warming.

All models were fitted separately to individuals, because we were interested in temporal patterns within individuals (rather than spatial patterns among individuals), and spring warming, day-length, and chilling requirements differ among individuals (Zohner et al., 2018).

265

266 Process-based phenological models

We ran 17 parameterized process-based phenological models from the literature to test the overall performance of our *full model* against existing models. We used the R-package PHENOR (Hufkens et al., 2018) to calibrate the models. Model parameters were optimized using the GenSA algorithm (Xiang et al., 2013), combining both the Boltzmann machine and faster Cauchy machine simulated annealing approaches for fast optimizations (Tsallis & Stariolo, 1996). According to (Hufkens et al., 2018), the number of iterations was set to 40,000 with a starting temperature of 10,000.

274

275 Model evaluation

276 To judge the performance of phenological models, previous studies relied either solely on root-277 mean square errors (RMSEs) of observed vs predicted leaf-out dates (Basler, 2016; Fu et al., 278 2012; Vitasse et al., 2018) or additionally evaluated model predictions by comparing predicted 279 (in the y-axis) vs observed (in the x-axis) leaf-out dates (Delpierre et al., 2009; Hufkens et al., 280 2018; Schaber & Badeck, 2003). However, such regression to evaluate models is incorrect, 281 leading to erroneous estimates of the slope and intercept (Piñeiro et al., 2008). Especially in 282 directional models such as spring phenological projections, where future climate conditions 283 will lead to ever earlier occurrence dates, models need to be evaluated by analyzing intercept 284 and slope components of observed (in the y-axis) vs predicted dates (in the x-axis). To do so, 285 we conducted Wald-test based comparisons (Fox, 2016) using the linearHypothesis function in

286 the R-package car, allowing us to test for each individual site whether the slopes and intercepts 287 of observed vs. predicted leaf-out dates differ significantly from 1 and 0, respectively (Fig. 288 4a,b). For each species, we also obtained the overall model fit (R^2 values) and RMSEs for observed versus predicted values (Figs. 3c, 4c, and S4). Next, we applied 10-fold cross-289 290 validations (M. Stone, 1974), and tested whether projected leaf-out dates capture (i) observed 291 temporal trends and (ii) the observed sensitivity of leaf-out dates to spring temperatures (Figs. 292 3a,b, S5, and S6). To calculate temperature sensitivity trends based on time-series, we had to 293 remove noise that is due to between-site variation. This was done by adjusting the data using 294 mixed effects modelling available through the R-package lme4.

295

296 Future projections of spring onset

297 To examine how the analysed ecological mechanisms influence future projections of spring 298 leaf-out, we extrapolated the timing of spring leaf-out until 2100 using two future climate 299 scenarios ("CO₂ stabilization" scenario, RCP 4.5 and "business-as-usual", RCP 8.5; Fig. S7). 300 Specifically, for each scenario, we ran statistical extrapolations of future leaf-out dates, based 301 on the seven best-performing phenology models, including our *full model*, and the simple *null* 302 model accounting solely for temperature accumulation. Future projections of daily minimum 303 and maximum temperatures came from (Beer et al., 2014) (Fig. S7). Emissions in the RCP 4.5 304 climate scenario peak around 2040 and then decline. In the RCP 8.5 climate scenario emissions 305 continue to rise throughout the 21st century.

306

307 Land-surface flux projections

We used LPJ-GUESS, a dynamic global vegetation model (Smith et al., 2014), to simulate the effects of shifting spring phenology on temperate forest net primary productivity (NPP). LPJ-GUESS represents vegetation growth and dynamics using a mixture of plant functional types that respond to forcing from the climate (temperature, precipitation, incoming shortwave radiation), atmospheric CO_2 mixing ratios and soil type. The successional structure of vegetation is simulated using multiple (here ten) replicate patches in each grid cell, which are subject to stochastic processes of establishment and mortality. Photosynthesis, respiration, stomatal conductance and phenology in LPJ-GUESS are simulated on a daily time step.

Limitations in availability of the necessary driving data and requirements for parsimony to operate at large-scales mean that common process-based phenological models cannot easily be incorporated into global vegetation models such as LPJ-GUESS. Instead, in common with most other such models (Clark et al., 2011; Krinner et al., 2005), spring phenology was represented by an exponential relationship between growing degree-days to leaf-out and the length of the chilling period (*chilling model*). In LPJ-GUESS the relationship was formulated as follows (Sykes et al., 1996):

323

$$324 \quad \text{GDD}^\circ = \alpha + \beta e^{-\kappa C} \tag{7}$$

325

326 where C is the length of the chilling period and α , β , and κ are constants specific to plant 327 functional types.

328

329 Based on our empirical findings we replaced this equation by the following (*full model*):

330

331
$$GDD^{\circ} = \alpha + \beta C + \gamma D + \delta CD$$
 (8)

332

where C is the length of the chilling period, D is the timing of spring warming, CD is the interaction between chilling and the timing of spring warming, and α , β , γ , and δ are coefficients specific to plant functional types (table S1). The length of the chilling period was defined as the number of days <5°C from 1 October, the timing of spring warming was defined relative to a degree-day threshold (table S1). We calculated a specific spring onset for each functional type 338 because, the needleleaf summergreen species Larix decidua, for example, flushes earlier than 339 many broadleaf summergreen trees. Three functional types of trees (BSI, broadleaved 340 summergreen shade-intolerant; BST, broadleaved summergreen shade-tolerant; NS, 341 needleleaved summergreen) were present in our species sampling. Following (Niinemets & 342 Valladares, 2006), Fagus sylvatica and Tilia cordata were treated as shade tolerant, Aesculus 343 hippocastanum, Alnus glutinosa, Betula pendula, Fraxinus excelsior, and Ouercus robur as 344 shade intolerant. Leaf-out phenology of Picea abies was not included in LPJ-GUESS because, 345 in evergreen species, onset of photosynthetic activity in spring is not dependent on the flushing 346 of new buds. In addition to the deciduous plant functional types described above, LPJ-GUESS 347 simulations also included a temperate needleleaved evergreen tree, a boreal needleleaved 348 evergreen shade-tolerant tree, a boreal needleleaved evergreen shade-intolerant tree and a C3 349 grass (Smith et al., 2014), with the distributions of each functional type governed by model-350 internal processes of competition. All simulations were run as potential natural vegetation (i.e. 351 without land management) and the outputs were masked and rescaled to current temperate 352 forest area as defined by (Hansen et al., 2013).

353 Daily climate forcing data came from the r1i1p1 ensemble member of the IPSL-354 CM5A-LR model from CMIP5 (Taylor et al., 2012) for 1850-2099 following the RCP 8.5 355 scenario, bias-corrected to 1960-1999 WATCH climate (Hempel et al., 2013), as prepared for 356 the ISI-MIP2 project. Atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratios were as prescribed for the RCP 8.5 357 scenario of CMIP5 and N deposition data was taken from Lamarque et al., (Lamarque et al., 358 2013). Simulations were spun-up for 500 years using recycled, detrended 1850-1879 climate, 359 and 1850 atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratio and N deposition. They were then run under fully 360 transient environmental forcings from 1850-2099. The spatial resolution was 0.5° x 0.5°. In 361 total four simulations were conducted: simulations with the original and updated phenology 362 algorithms, and two further simulations in which, for each of the algorithms, leaf out dates from 363 2010 onwards were forced by mean 2001-2010 daily temperatures in each grid cell, so as to

provide a baseline from which to identify the effects of the phenology algorithm on the carboncycle.

366

367 Results

368 The environmental drivers of spring leaf-out

Our linear univariate models showed that, while autumn temperatures had a relatively minor effect, both winter chilling (P < 0.001; Correlation coefficient = 0.4 - 0.5) and day-length (P < 0.001; Correlation coefficient = 0.5 - 0.7) had consistent negative effects on accumulated warming required to leaf-out across all species (Figs. 2 and S2). When chilling was calculated using all temperatures below 5°C, the model outperformed an equivalent model in which effective chilling temperatures range between 0 and 5°C (Fig. 2b).

The best-performing multivariate model (lowest AIC and highest R^2) included chilling and the timing of spring onset as fixed effects and an interaction between winter chilling and the timing of spring onset (Figs. 3 and S3a). Across all species, this *full model* adequately predicted the accumulated warming required to leaf-out across 727,401 observations over 63 years (average R² and RMSE = 0.5 and 5.5, respectively; Figs. S3a and S4a).

On average, across all species, observed leaf-out dates advanced by 3.8 ± 0.1 days per each degree increase in air temperature. The *full model* performed well in predicting this temperature sensitivity, predicting 3.7 ± 0.2 days/°C. In contrast, the *chilling* and *null model* over-estimated leaf emergence, predicting 4.9 ± 0.2 and 6.3 ± 0.2 days/°C, respectively (Fig. 3b).

385

386 *Evaluating phenology model performance*

Compared to all existing phenology models, our empirical model performed well in predicting leaf emergence over the last 15 years of leaf-out observations, explaining over 50% of the variation in spring leaf emergence over 727,401 observations. This was only marginally 390 worse explanatory power than the best available phenology models (see RMSE values in Fig. 391 4c). Our *full model* also showed high model-accuracy, with predictions fitting close to the 1:1 392 line in predicted vs. observed plots (Fig. 4c). As such, the intercept and slope components of 393 observed vs. predicted comparisons of leaf-out dates for our *full model* were among the least 394 likely to differ from 1 and 0, respectively, with a significant (P < 0.05) deviation only found for 395 <2% of sites (Fig. 4 a,b). Four of the other process-based models showed an equally low 396 proportion of significant sites with exceptionally high model accuracy. Model accuracy was 397 slightly lower for 11 models (2–6% significant sites), while the remaining 4 models all 398 performed considerably worse (13-88% significant sites) [Fig. 4 a,b]. The best-performing 399 model was the M1 model both in terms of model explanatory power and accuracy.

400

401 Future projections of spring leaf-out

402 For both climate scenarios, the seven best models (including our *full model*) gave very 403 similar future predictions, estimating a $\sim 60\%$ reduction in the phenological response rates to 404 global warming compared to what would be expected if spring warming was the sole driver of 405 leaf-out phenology (i.e., the null model) [Fig. 4d]. While the null model predicted 25-days 406 earlier leaf unfolding by the end of the 21st century under a "business-as-usual" scenario, the 407 best-performing models estimated advances of only 11 days. Our full model projected similar 408 responses for all species, with the exception of Fagus sylvatica (Fig. S8), which is expected to 409 advance leaf-out dates less than the other species because pronounced chilling and day length 410 constraints (Fig. 2) cause a lower temperature sensitivity (3.0 days/°C) compared to the other 411 study species (Figs. S6 and S9).

412

413 Changes in temperate forest productivity

The standard LPJ-GUESS model (including a simple chilling–degree-day function to
 predict spring phenology) estimated that, under a "business-as-usual" climate-scenario, earlier

spring arrival will enhance NPP of temperate forests by ~0.8 Gt carbon per year at the end of the century, resulting in a total increase of cumulative spring NPP of 37 Gt carbon over the rest of the century. In contrast, the updated model, including the new empirically-derived information about the ecological constraints on spring phenology (table S1), estimated that earlier spring arrival will enhance NPP of temperate forests by only ~0.2 Gt per year at the end of the century, resulting in a total increase of only 12 Gt over the rest of the century (Figure 5).

422

423 **Discussion**

424 Our analyses show that, across all nine tested species, winter chilling and the timing of 425 spring onset have consistent negative effects on the accumulated warming required to leaf-out 426 (Figs. 2 and S2). In line with previous studies (Heide, 1993b; Vitasse & Basler, 2013; Zohner 427 et al., 2016), European beech showed the strongest sensitivity to chilling and the timing of 428 spring onset (Fig. 2b, c), but the limiting effects of both variables were consistent across all 429 temperate tree species. As such, although spring warming is likely to increase over the rest of 430 the century, the reductions in winter chilling and the timing of spring onset are likely to 431 constrain the advance in spring leaf emergence over the rest of the century. These limiting 432 mechanisms may be an important safety strategy against precocious leaf development under 433 future spring climates that overall will be warmer but also more variable, counterintuitively 434 increasing trees' risk of late frost damage to their young leaves in many Eurasian temperate 435 forests (Zohner, Mo, Renner, et al., 2020). In those regions where late frost risk is strongly 436 increasing with climate change, conservative, late-flushing species or populations with 437 pronounced chilling and daylength requirements will be least likely to experience leaf frost 438 damage during spring (Vitasse et al., 2018; Zohner, Mo, Sebald, et al., 2020).

While our findings suggest that the timing of the onset of spring warming, represents a strong control on leaf emergence across all nine studied tree species (see Fu *et al.* (2019b) for a more detailed test of this relationship), it remains unclear what is ultimately driving this 442 relationship. A possible explanation for the negative relationship between the amount of 443 warming required to leaf-out and the 'earliness' of spring onset is day length. Yet, experimental 444 studies revealed that only in a few species, such as Fagus sylvatica, does day length have an 445 effect on spring leaf-out timing (Laube et al., 2014; Zohner et al., 2016). It is therefore also 446 possible that the time effect we detect here could ultimately be driven by mechanisms other 447 than day length, such as time *per se* (sensed through an internal clock) or changes in spectral 448 light composition (Brelsford & Robson, 2018). Our results do not give mechanistic insights that 449 would allow us to disentangle the mechanisms by which plants sense the time of the year, but 450 they provide important evidence that both winter chilling and the timing of the onset of spring 451 warming modulate the amount of warming required to leaf-out, thereby restricting future 452 advances in leaf emergence under climate change.

453 In contrast to previous suggestions (Fu et al., 2015; Vitasse et al., 2017; Vitasse & 454 Basler, 2013), our results suggest that below-zero temperatures are effective in fulfilling 455 chilling requirements. The model in which chilling was calculated using all temperatures below 456 5°C outperformed an equivalent model in which effective chilling temperatures ranged between 457 0 and 5°C (Fig. 2b). Our results further show that autumn temperatures have a negligible effect 458 on next year's leaf-out dates (Fig. 2a). Yet, autumn temperatures might be of increasing 459 importance in the future if continued autumn warming will further delay the initiation of 460 dormancy, thereby leading to a reduction in winter chilling.

To predict the amount of warming required for each tree to leaf-out, we ran multivariate models, including all three factors (autumn temperature, winter chilling, and the timing of spring onset) and the interactions between them. The best model included chilling and the timing of spring onset as fixed effects, and an interaction between winter chilling and the timing of spring onset (Fig. S3a). This interaction term is supported by experimental studies showing that winter chilling can substitute for day length and *vice versa* (Heide, 1993b, 1993a; Laube et al., 2014; Zohner et al., 2016; Zohner & Renner, 2015). The coefficients in these empirical 468 models reveal parameters for each of the dominant environmental drivers of spring phenology469 that are necessary for predicting changes in leaf-out over time.

470 To test for the importance of these ecological mechanisms, we compared the predictions 471 of our *full model* (including spring warming, timing of spring onset, and winter chilling) against 472 similar empirical models that lack these mechanisms. Specifically, we compared the 473 performance of our *full-model* to a simple "*null model*", which included only spring warming, 474 and a "chilling model" (see equation 7) – including spring warming and winter chilling – which 475 has previously been implemented in the LPJ-GUESS dynamic global vegetation model. Our 476 *full model* performed well in predicting the observed temperature sensitivity of 3.8 ± 0.1 days 477 per each degree increase in air temperature, predicting 3.7 ± 0.2 days/°C. In contrast, because 478 they lack the ecological mechanisms that might restrict future advances in spring leaf-out, the 479 chilling and null model over-estimated leaf emergence, predicting temperature sensitivities of 480 4.9 ± 0.2 and 6.3 ± 0.2 days/°C, respectively (Fig. 3b). The inclusion of all three mechanisms 481 therefore vastly improved model accuracy, but more importantly, this reduced the over-482 estimation of spring leaf-emergence in extremely warm years (Fig. 3a). This demonstrates that 483 the combined roles of winter chilling, the timing of spring onset, and spring warming need to 484 be accounted for in predictions of future tree phenology and productivity.

485 We also compared the performance of our full model against 17 process models from 486 the literature to evaluate whether our full empirical model is capturing the mechanisms in 487 existing state-of-the-art phenology models (Fig. 4). We stress that, even though some of these 488 models are called "ecodormancy models" (suggesting that they solely consider spring warming 489 as a factor), all of these models at least implicitly account for winter chilling- / day length-490 induced endodormancy release by fitting specific starting dates of degree-day accumulation to 491 the data (we therefore refer to them as explicit or implicit endodormancy models hereafter). 492 Although fitting a specific starting date of degree-day accumulation cannot reflect the gradual 493 transition from endo- to ecodormancy (see e.g., Fig. 2 in Zohner & Renner (2015)), these 494 models all directly or indirectly represent the ecological mechanisms that we have evaluated in495 our *full model*.

496 By accurately representing the three dominant factors regulating spring leaf-out, our 497 simple empirical model performed as well as the best-performing phenology models. In doing 498 so, our statistical approach can provide a benchmark, revealing which mechanistic models are 499 most accurately representing the eco-physiological mechanisms regulating spring leaf-out. 500 Compared to all existing phenology models, our empirical model had only marginally worse 501 explanatory power than the best available phenology models (Fig. 4c) and excelled in terms of 502 model-accuracy (intercept and slope components of observed vs. predicted leaf-out dates; Fig. 503 4 a,b). Four of the other process-based models showed an equally high model accuracy, with 504 the M1 model performing best. This high predictive accuracy of the top 4 process-based models 505 is in direct contrast with previous studies, which suggested low performance across all 506 phenology models (Basler, 2016). This distinction is likely to arise from our focus on model 507 accuracy (i.e. slope estimates) rather than model fit (i.e. root mean squared error), and the test 508 if predicted values (in the x-axis) reflect observations (in the y-axis), not vice versa (Piñeiro et 509 al., 2008) (see Methods).

510 Our simple empirical model was trained on current climate conditions, which can lead 511 to uncertainties in future projections if environmental conditions fall outside the model training 512 range. Yet, as expected from the high predictive accuracy of the top models, the seven best 513 models gave very similar future predictions, with our *full model* and the best-performing M1 514 model representing the same leaf-out trajectories (Fig. 4d). Compared to our null model, in 515 which spring warming was the sole driver of leaf-out phenology, the top models estimated a 516 $\sim 60\%$ or 14 days reduction in the phenological responses to global warming (Fig. 4d). This 517 demonstrates that, despite different parameters and assumptions, there is a broad consensus 518 among phenology models – including our *full model*. As such, our simple regression model 519 can serve to provide basic parameters that can easily be incorporated into large-scale vegetation

520 models and Earth system models to project future terrestrial vegetation carbon dynamics. More 521 complex phenological models rely on spatially-explicit parameter-optimization algorithms to 522 account for endodormancy release. Capturing the spatial variation across temperate forests 523 would require large amounts of spatially-uniform phenological data to train these models. Such 524 data does not currently exist and would require a huge coordinated sampling effort. In contrast, 525 our regression model offers a highly parsimonious approach, reflecting the main mechanisms 526 triggering spring phenology without the limitations of model overparameterization. This 527 approach can therefore provide projections of increased veracity without inflating structural 528 uncertainty, which remains the main cause of divergence in vegetation model projections 529 (Nishina et al., 2015). Our model can thus provide the empirical relationships that are needed 530 to underpin future projections of temperate spring phenology, and its impacts on terrestrial 531 vegetation carbon dynamics.

532 To finally comprehend how our leaf-out predictions will affect future projections of 533 NPP, we used a dynamic global vegetation model (LPJ-GUESS). Previously, spring phenology 534 was implemented as a function of degree-days and winter chilling (see *chilling model* in Figs. 535 3, 4, and 5) (Sykes et al., 1996). We parameterized the phenology algorithm using the 536 empirically-derived relationships with the timing of spring onset, and the updated estimates of 537 winter chilling (table S1). These changes drastically reduced the projected increases in 538 temperate forest productivity over the rest of this century. Specifically, the standard LPJ-539 GUESS model (including chilling-only) estimates that cumulative temperate forest NPP will 540 increase over the rest of the century by a total of 37 Gt carbon as a result of earlier spring onset. 541 However, the updated model, including the new empirically-derived information about the 542 ecological constraints on spring phenology estimates an increase of only 12 Gt over the same 543 time period (Figure 5). These differences highlight the need for an improved representation of 544 plant phenology when predicting vegetation dynamics and the terrestrial carbon cycle. The high 545 predictive accuracy of state-of-the-art phenology models we detect here demonstrates that it is

possible to adequately represent the main environmental drivers of phenology and future efforts
should thus be directed toward integrating these relevant drivers within boreal, temperate, and
tropical ecosystems in global vegetation models.

549

550 **Conclusions**

551 Our big data approach enables us to test the effects of the three main ecological factors -winter 552 chilling, day-length, and spring warming – that regulate the timing of spring leaf emergence in 553 temperate forest trees. A simple statistical model reflecting these interactive ecological drivers 554 performed as well as the best existing phenology models at predicting spring leaf-out over 555 24,650 individual time series, highlighting that these mechanisms are critical for representing 556 future changes in spring leaf-out. Although spring warming is likely to increase over the rest of 557 the century, the reductions in winter chilling and an earlier timing of spring warming are likely 558 to constrain the future advances in spring leaf emergence. Our statistical model reveals unifying 559 parameters that can be used to represent these important phenological mechanisms in larger 560 biogeochemical models. By representing this information into a global dynamic vegetation 561 model, we find that the expected increases in temperate forest NPP over the rest of the century 562 are substantially reduced relative to previous expectations, which could lead to a reduction in 563 NPP of 0.6 Gigatons carbon per year at the end of the 21st century. These results have direct 564 implications for future climate projections, highlighting that forest productivity will be 565 increasingly constrained by factors aside from air temperature in the future.

566

567 Data deposition statement

All data used for this study is freely available through the Pan European Phenology project(www.PEP725.eu).

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796	Author contributions
797	The study was conceived and developed by CMZ. Statistical analysis was performed by LM
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799	with assistance from TWC. All other authors reviewed and provided input on the manuscript.
800	
801	Competing interest declaration
802	The authors declare that there are no competing interests.
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806 Figure captions

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808 Figure 1 | Testing for interactive climate effects on the timing of spring leaf-out. a, In the 809 full model (green), the amount of warming required to leaf-out is directly affected by winter 810 chilling and the timing of spring onset (day length when spring warming occurs). In addition, 811 winter chilling interacts with the timing of spring onset and autumn temperatures affect winter 812 chilling accumulation. In the Null model (red), leaf-out is solely driven by spring warming. b-813 d, The interactive effects among climate factors should lead to an increase in warming 814 requirements under warmer autumns (b), reduced chilling (c), and an earlier spring onset (d). 815 e, Under cold spring conditions, leaf-out should occur earlier than expected from the *Null model* 816 because long days and long chilling reduce the amount of warming required to leaf-out; under 817 warm spring conditions, leaf-out should occur later than expected from the *Null model* because 818 short days and short chilling increase the amount of warming required to leaf-out. 819

820 Figure 2 | The effects of autumn temperature (a), winter chilling (b), and the timing of 821 spring onset (c) on accumulated warming required to leaf-out. Pearson correlation 822 coefficients (± 2 standard errors) are shown for each parameter. **a**, The mean temperatures of 823 the months October and November, September to November, or September and October were 824 used to calculate autumn temperatures. b, Two different temperature ranges were used to 825 calculate winter chilling: all temperatures below 5°C (red) or temperatures between 0°C and 826 5°C (turquoise). c, The relationship between the timing of spring onset (day length when spring 827 warming occurs) and accumulated warming required to leaf-out. Number of analysed time-828 series per species: Aesculus hippocastanum, 3703; Alnus glutinosa, 1841; Betula pendula, 829 3663; Fagus sylvatica, 3091; Fraxinus excelsior, 2178; Larix decidua, 2644; Picea abies, 2942; 830 *Quercus robur*, 3152; *Tilia cordata*, 1436.

831

Figure 3 | Leaf-out date predictions based on the empirical relationships between required accumulated warming and autumn temperature, winter chilling, and the timing of spring

onset (see Figure 1). a, b, Observed and empirically modelled leaf-out dates using 10-fold
cross-validations in response to year (a) and spring temperature (b) averaged across all nine
study species (observed leaf-out = black lines; *full model* = green lines; *chilling model* = blue
lines; *Null model* = red lines). See Figs. S5 and S6 for species-specific plots. Loess smoothing
curves in b) are based on random-effects models to control for differences among sites. c,
Observed versus predicted leaf-out dates of the *full model*, the *chilling model*, and the *Null*

840 *model*. Solid lines show linear regression fit, dashed lines show the 1:1 line. For the *chilling* 841 *model* and the *Null model*, the intercept differed significantly from 0 and the slope differed from 842 1 (P < 0.05). To standardize among sites, observed and predicted leaf-out dates are shown as 843 anomalies, i.e., as deviation from the mean observed leaf-out date at each site.

844

845 Figure 4 | Model evaluation and future projections of Central European leaf-out dates. a-846 **c**, Model comparison of the three empirical models applied in this study (green = *full model*, 847 blue = *chilling model*, red = *Null model*) and 17 process-based models from the literature. **a**, 848 Significance values reporting whether the slope of observed versus predicted leaf-out dates 849 differs from 1. Numbers above indicate the percentages of sites for which the model slopes 850 were significantly (P < 0.05) smaller (= overprediction) or larger than 1 (= underprediction). **b**, 851 Significance values reporting whether the intercept of observed versus predicted leaf-out dates 852 differs from 0. Numbers above indicate the percentages of sites for which the model intercepts 853 were significantly larger (= overprediction) or smaller than 0 (= underprediction). c, Root-854 mean-square errors of models. The dashed line shows the average RMSE expected under a 855 Null-model where leaf-out dates do not differ among years. d, Future leaf-out projections (15-856 year moving averages for nine species) under the RCP 8.5 climate-scenario, based on the seven 857 best performing models and the Null model. The grey area indicates one s.e. either side of the 858 mean. Right panel shows estimated advances in leaf-out by the end of the 21st century (2080– 859 2100) compared to the average leaf-out dates between 1990–2010 according to the full model 860 (green) and the Null model (red).

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862 Figure 5 | Effects of leaf-out changes in Northern Hemisphere temperate forests on net primary productivity (NPP). a, Annual forest NPP (above 23°N latitude) over the 21st 863 864 century, simulating spring leaf-out times with the *chilling model* (solid blue line) or the *full* 865 model (solid green line). Dashed lines show the baselines assuming no leaf-out changes in the 866 future (phenology fixed at years 2001-2010). b, Increases in NPP that are solely caused by leaf-867 out shifts simualted with the *chilling model* and the *full model*. Arrows in a) and b) show the 868 cumulative difference in NPP between the standard LPJ-GUESS model (including the *chilling* 869 model) and the updated model (including our full model). c, Differences in average leaf-out 870 times of Northern Hemisphere temperate forests simualted with the *chilling model* and the *full* 871 model. Plant functional types: NS, needleleaved summergeen; BS, broadleaved summergreen 872 (either shade tolerant or intolerant).

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259x116mm (300 x 300 DPI)



fig. 3

191x131mm (300 x 300 DPI)



fig. 4

176x236mm (300 x 300 DPI)



fig. 5

94x162mm (300 x 300 DPI)