

1 *Article*

2 **Leaf senescence exhibits stronger climatic responses during warm than during**  
3 **cold autumns**

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20 **A warmer world could extend growing seasons for plants. Changes in spring**  
21 **phenology have been studied, yet autumn phenology remains poorly understood.**  
22 **Using >500,000 phenological records of four temperate tree species between 1951 and 2013**  
23 **in Europe, we show that leaf senescence in warm autumns exhibits significantly**  
24 **stronger climate responses, with a higher phenological plasticity, than in cold autumns,**  
25 **indicating a nonlinear response to climate. The onset of leaf senescence in warm autumns was**  
26 **delayed due to the stronger climate response, primarily caused by nighttime warming.**  
27 **However, daytime warming, especially during warm autumns, imposes a drought stress**  
28 **which advances leaf senescence. This may counteract the extension of growing season under**  
29 **global warming. These findings provide guidance for more reliable predictions of plant**  
30 **phenology and biosphere-atmosphere feedbacks in the context of global warming.**

31 Plant phenology, the timing of periodic developmental events, influences carbon, water, nutrient  
32 cycling, fitness and distribution of tree species, trophic interactions, and community structures<sup>1-3</sup>.  
33 Under global warming, advanced spring phenology has been widely reported in recent decades<sup>1,4</sup>.  
34 Contrary to spring phenology, autumn phenology responses to climate warming are inconsistent,  
35 with advanced and delayed trends as well as no response having been reported<sup>5</sup>; the mechanisms  
36 of the complex climatic responses of autumn phenology remain poorly understood<sup>1,6</sup>. Consequently,  
37 current tree phenology models often fail to simulate and predict autumn phenological changes<sup>7,8</sup>.  
38 This leaves the ability of the models to forecast responses of growing season length and biosphere–  
39 atmosphere feedbacks under future climatic scenarios in doubt<sup>9</sup>.

40 In addition to temperature, autumn phenology has been found to be influenced by other  
41 environmental cues, i.e., photoperiod, precipitation, and solar radiation<sup>5,10,11</sup>. In particular,  
42 photoperiod provides a more consistent and reliable signal of seasonality than the other climatic

43 factors. Accordingly, when trees rely on photoperiodic cues to signal the arrival of autumn, leaf  
44 senescence would be expected to show no or limited climatic responses<sup>12</sup>. For example, plants in  
45 cold regions with frequent frosts track photoperiod to determine the growth cessation in autumn<sup>12</sup>  
46 in order to reduce the risk of frost damage<sup>13</sup>. However, whether photoperiodic sensitivity and  
47 climatic responses of plant phenology are consistent under different autumn conditions remains  
48 unclear. Using >500,000 records of leaf senescence timing of four temperate tree species monitored  
49 *in situ* between 46 °N and 55 °N during 1951-2013 in Europe (Supplementary Fig. 1), we  
50 investigated and compared the effects of climatic factors on the onset of leaf senescence in years  
51 with warm and cold autumn seasons.

## 52 **Climatic response in cold and warm autumns**

53 The concept of climatic sensitivity has been widely used to quantify and predict the climatic  
54 responses of plant phenology under global warming<sup>14</sup>. To investigate the difference in the climatic  
55 responses of leaf senescence under cold and warm conditions, we calculated the climatic  
56 sensitivities of leaf senescence in cold and warm autumns at cold and warm sites (G1-G4). The  
57 classification of the cold and warm sites was based on their latitudes and elevations (see Methods),  
58 representing a temperature gradient from the coldest (G1) to the warmest (G4) sites  
59 (Supplementary Table 1). The cold and warm autumns were identified by comparing whether mean  
60 daily maximum temperature ( $T_{\max}$ , °C) during the period 1st August – 31st October of each year  
61 and site group was below or above its long-term average for 1951-2013, respectively.

62 In order to calculate the climatic sensitivities, we first used partial correlation analysis to  
63 calculate the optimal pre-season length for each combination of climatic factor, species, and site  
64 group. The optimal pre-season was defined as the period before the onset of leaf senescence with  
65 the highest absolute partial correlation coefficient<sup>14,15</sup> between leaf senescence dates and the

66 particular climatic factor for the period of 1951-2013. The length of the optimal preseason ranged  
67 from 8 to 120 days across different species, consistent with earlier results of both spring and autumn  
68 phenology<sup>4,14,24</sup>(Supplementary Fig. 2). Ridge regression reduces the variance of regression  
69 coefficients and improves the estimations when multicollinearity occurs<sup>16,17</sup>, as was the case in  
70 this work. We first calculated the average of each climatic factor during the optimal preseason and  
71 those of leaf senescence dates at each site group for each species. Then, ridge regression models  
72 were applied to calculate the climatic sensitivities of leaf senescence for daily maximum  
73 temperature ( $T_{\max}$ , °C), daily minimum temperature ( $T_{\min}$ , °C), daily sunshine duration (hour), and  
74 daily precipitation (mm) in cold and warm autumns. In all models, normalized anomalies of  
75 response and predictor variables were used to calculate the climatic sensitivities, which were then  
76 used in the comparisons of the effects of different climatic factors on leaf senescence in cold and  
77 warm autumn seasons<sup>18</sup>. Positive and negative sensitivities indicate delayed and advanced  
78 senescence, respectively.

79 We found that average climatic sensitivities of leaf senescence to  $T_{\min}$ , sunshine duration  
80 and precipitation during 1951-2013 were significantly higher in warm than in cold autumns across  
81 the four studied species ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig. 1a). Furthermore, the climatic sensitivities of leaf  
82 senescence to  $T_{\max}$  were significantly more negative in warm than in cold autumns ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig.  
83 1a and Supplementary Fig. 3a), i.e., leaf senescence advanced more in warm than in cold autumns  
84 with the increase in  $T_{\max}$ . In order to assess the extent to which the climatic factors influence the  
85 onset of leaf senescence in cold and warm autumns, without considering the direction of the effect  
86 (delay or advance), the concept of climatic signal, defined as the absolute value of climatic  
87 sensitivity, was introduced. We found that climatic signals were significantly stronger in warm  
88 than in cold autumns ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig. 1b and Supplementary Fig. 3b). To further test the generality

89 of this finding, we collected records of five additional species and examined their climatic  
90 responses of leaf senescence in cold and warm autumns. As with the four initial species, the average  
91 climatic signals of all of the five additional species were significantly higher in warm than in cold  
92 autumns ( $P < 0.01$ , Supplementary Fig. 4). These results suggest that leaf senescence exhibited  
93 significantly stronger climatic response in warm than in cold autumns.

94 To test the robustness of our results, we calculated the climatic sensitivity for each climatic  
95 factor based on a fixed preseason in autumn (1st August to 31st October). Consistent with the result  
96 based on the optimal preseason, we observed significantly stronger climatic responses of autumn  
97 leaf senescence in warm than in cold autumns also when using the fixed preseason ( $P < 0.001$ ,  
98 Supplementary Fig. 5). Because previous studies reported autumn phenology is influenced by  
99 spring phenology<sup>19,20</sup>, we further accounted for the effects of spring leaf unfolding using a joint  
100 modelling approach, where both spring leaf unfolding dates and climatic factors were incorporated  
101 into the ridge regression models. In all species, leaf unfolding dates had positive effects on leaf  
102 senescence dates (Supplementary Fig. 6a), indicating delayed leaf senescence with delayed leaf  
103 unfolding, and vice-versa. This is consistent with previous findings<sup>19,20</sup>. After accounting for the  
104 effects of spring phenology, leaf senescence of all species still showed significantly stronger  
105 climatic responses in warm than in cold autumns ( $P < 0.01$ , Supplementary Fig. 6b).

### 106 **Phenological plasticity in cold and warm autumns**

107 We compared the plasticity of autumn leaf senescence in each species at each site group between  
108 cold and warm autumn seasons based on the coefficient of variation (CV) of leaf senescence. In  
109 accordance with the stronger climatic responses found in warm than in cold autumns, a  
110 significantly higher phenological plasticity, as indicated by a higher CV, was observed in warm

111 than in cold autumn seasons ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig. 2). In addition, the onset of leaf senescence occurred  
112 later in warm than in cold autumns (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 7).

113 Limited climatic responses, with a lower plasticity of phenological events, is expected when  
114 trees are under a strong photoperiodic control<sup>12</sup>. We found such conservative climatic responses  
115 and reduced plasticity of leaf senescence in cold, but not in warm, autumn seasons (Figs. 1 and 2).  
116 On one hand, before leaf senescence, trees need to assimilate sufficient carbohydrate and nutrients  
117 for overwintering and budburst during the following spring<sup>10</sup>. The accumulated GDD was  
118 significantly higher in warm than in cold autumns across all of the site groups ( $P < 0.001$ , Fig. 4).  
119 Under the favorable conditions, trees may therefore prefer to delay leaf senescence and increase  
120 carbon uptake in warm autumns<sup>10</sup>, especially in warmer sites. This is supported by the observed  
121 later onset of leaf senescence in warm autumns (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 7). On the other  
122 hand, trees also need to harden sufficiently early to avoid frost damage<sup>21</sup>. As a compensating factor,  
123 photoperiod may act as a safety mechanism for trees to avoid too late leaf senescence to reduce the  
124 risk of frost in cold autumns. This may explain why, compared to warm autumns, the onset of leaf  
125 senescence showed a lower phenological plasticity (Fig. 2) and occurred earlier (Fig. 3 and  
126 Supplementary Fig. 7) in cold autumns.

### 127 **Effects of daytime and night-time warming**

128 Among all of the climatic factors analyzed, the mean climatic signal was highest for  $T_{\max}$ , and  
129 second highest for  $T_{\min}$  ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 5a). This is in accordance with the earlier findings of stronger  
130 influence of daytime than nighttime temperature on spring phenology<sup>22</sup>. However, it is noteworthy  
131 that here climatic sensitivities of  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  were negative and positive, respectively (Fig. 5b).  
132 This indicates that the onset of leaf senescence was advanced by daytime warming, but it was  
133 delayed by nighttime warming. Wu et al.<sup>15</sup> recently observed advanced leaf senescence caused by

134 daytime warming in regions with continental climates. A possible explanation for the observed  
135 advanced leaf senescence by daytime warming is drought stress<sup>15,23</sup>. To test this hypothesis, we  
136 calculated the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI), which considers effects  
137 of both precipitation and potential evapotranspiration on drought severity<sup>24</sup>, and examined the  
138 effect of drought stress on the onset of leaf senescence. The averaged SPEI was positive in cold  
139 autumn seasons, but negative in warm autumn seasons (Supplementary Fig. 8). This indicated drier  
140 environmental conditions in warm autumn seasons. We further observed a significant effect of  
141 drought stress on the onset of leaf senescence, with a stronger effect in warm autumns ( $P < 0.001$ ,  
142 Supplementary Table 2). This suggests that a higher daytime temperature may increase evaporative  
143 demand and impose a drought stress on tree growth, especially in warm autumns, and eventually  
144 advance autumn leaf senescence<sup>10,15</sup>.

145         Among the four studied species, leaf senescence advanced by daytime warming was greater  
146 in *Fagus sylvatica* L. and *Quercus robur* L. than in *Aesculus hippocastanum* L. and *Betula pendula*  
147 Roth (Fig. 1a). This is possibly due to a difference in the drought tolerance among species<sup>25,26</sup>.  
148 Accordingly, under drought stress, onset of leaf senescence is less likely to advance in a species  
149 with a high drought tolerance than in a species with a low drought tolerance. However, the  
150 physiological mechanisms behind the species-specific climatic response of leaf senescence remain  
151 to be tested experimentally. Using the simulated climate data by Community Earth System Model  
152 (CESM) Large Ensemble (CESM-LENS) ([http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-](http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-projects/LENS/)  
153 [projects/LENS/](http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-projects/LENS/))<sup>27</sup>, we investigated the trends in the  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  in the autumn season (1st August-  
154 31st October) during 2021-2050 in Europe. We found both average  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  showed  
155 significant increases through the years of 2021-2050 ( $P < 0.001$ , Supplementary Fig. 9). Therefore,  
156 drought-induced advance of leaf senescence might continue in the future decades. This may

157 counteract the delayed leaf senescence and offset the extension of growing season duration in  
158 Europe.

## 159 **Conclusion**

160 Using a long-term and large-scale dataset of field observations in Europe, we demonstrated that:  
161 (1) climatic response of leaf senescence was significantly stronger in warm than in cold autumns,  
162 and (2) the onset of leaf senescence was delayed by nighttime warming, but was advanced by  
163 daytime warming. These findings provide important guidance for the understanding of complicated  
164 climatic responses of plants' autumn phenology in the context of global climate change. Our results  
165 can be used to facilitate more reliable predictions of the timing of autumn phenological events, and,  
166 as a result, biosphere-atmosphere feedbacks under future climatic scenarios. However, further  
167 studies should experimentally investigate the physiological mechanisms behind the species-  
168 specific climatic responses in controlled environments and examine whether the observed  
169 nonlinear climatic response of autumn phenology also exists in other parts of Northern Hemisphere,  
170 including Asia and North America.

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235

## 236 **Methods**

### 237 **Leaf phenology and climate data**

238 The leaf senescence dataset was obtained from the Pan European Phenology (PEP) network  
239 (www.pep725.eu), which provides an open access to *in situ* phenology records across central  
240 Europe<sup>28</sup>. The leaf senescence dates, expressed as the day of year (DOY), were defined according  
241 to the BBCH (Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und CHEmische Industrie) code. Most  
242 of the records used in the study are from between the 46<sup>th</sup> and 55<sup>th</sup> parallels (Supplementary Fig.  
243 1). Because records of PEP725 network may include erroneous data points, median absolute  
244 deviation (MAD) method (Leys et al., 2013) was used to identify and exclude outliers<sup>14,29,30</sup>. MAD  
245 is a robust alternative to the standard deviation measure of the central tendency in a dataset. For a  
246 dataset with values of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_i$ , the MAD is defined as follows:

$$247 \quad \text{MAD} = \text{median} (|X_i - \text{median}(X)|).$$

248 Using a conservative criterion, any data point deviating more than 2.5 times MAD was considered  
249 as an outlier and removed from the dataset before the analyses<sup>31</sup>. In this way, we selected 547,000  
250 records of leaf senescence during 1951-2013 from approximately 10,000 sites between 46°N and  
251 55°N across all nine temperate tree species examined. The primary analysis focused on four species:  
252 *Betula pubescens* Ehrh. (Downy birch), *Fagus sylvatica* L. (European beech), *Quercus robur* L.  
253 (European oak), *Aesculus hippocastanum* L. (Horse chestnut). An additional five species were  
254 examined in supplementary analysis: *Sorbus aucuparia* L. (Mountain ash), *Acer platanoides* L.  
255 (Norway maple), *Betula pendula* Roth (Silver birch), *Tilia cordata* Mill. (Small-leaved lime), early  
256 cultivar of *Prunus avium* (L.) L. (Wild cherry (early)), and late cultivar of *Prunus avium* (L.) L.  
257 (Wild cherry (late)). Note that the two cultivars of *Prunus avium* (L.) L. were examined separately.

258 Gridded daily maximum temperature ( $T_{\max}$ , °C), minimum temperature ( $T_{\min}$ , °C) and  
259 precipitation (mm) data between 1951 and 2013 with a spatial resolution of 0.25° were downloaded  
260 from the database E-OBS (<http://ensembles-eu.metoffice.com>). Because gridded solar radiation  
261 dataset with 0.25° spatial resolution was only available since 1980, the daily measured sunshine  
262 duration (hours) dataset between 1951 and 2013 obtained from E-OBS database was used to  
263 account for the effect of solar radiation on leaf senescence. In addition, daily measured temperature  
264 and precipitation datasets between 1951 and 2013 were downloaded from E-OBS database. In the  
265 E-OBS climate database, the quality of the observations is classified into valid, suspect, or missing.  
266 We used only the values classified as valid in the data analysis.

267 To investigate differences in the climate-phenology relationship in cold and warm regions,  
268 we divided the phenological observation sites into four groups based on their latitudes and  
269 elevations: elevation > 300 m a.s.l. and latitude > 51 °N (G1), elevation > 300 m a.s.l. and latitude  
270 < 51 °N (G2), elevation < 300 m a.s.l. and latitude > 51 °N (G3), and elevation < 300 m a.s.l. and  
271 latitude < 51 °N (G4). The four groups represent a temperature gradient from the coldest (G1) to  
272 the warmest (G4) sites (Supplementary Table 1). We also tried other grouping criteria (e.g.,  
273 elevation <100 or 200 m) and obtained similar results.

274 Among the nine selected species, there were approximately 517, 000 records for *Aesculus*  
275 *hippocastanum* L., *Betula pendula* Roth, *Fagus sylvatica* L., and *Quercus robur* L. These records  
276 accounted for 95% of all of the records and were also well-distributed across the four site groups.  
277 In contrast, the records of other five species were more limited and only distributed across one or  
278 two site groups. We therefore mainly present results based on the four widely distributed species  
279 with massive records in this study. The results of the additional other five species were used to test  
280 the generality of the results found from the more representative abovementioned four species.

## 281 **Climatic sensitivity and climatic signal**

282 In order to calculate climatic sensitivities of each species to each climatic factor, we first used  
283 partial correlation analysis to calculate the optimal length of pre-season of each climatic factor for  
284 each species at each site group. For each climatic factor, the optimal pre-season was defined as the  
285 period before the onset of leaf senescence with the highest absolute partial correlation coefficient  
286 <sup>14,15</sup> between leaf senescence dates and corresponding climatic factors during 1951-2013 (with 8-d  
287 steps). Using the period corresponding to the optimal length of pre-season, we then calculated the  
288 climatic sensitivity as the slope of a ridge regression<sup>16,17</sup> between the onset of leaf senescence  
289 (DOY) and the averaged climatic factor during the pre-season period for each species at a site group.  
290 The climatic sensitivity was calculated in this way for the daily maximum temperature ( $T_{\max}$ , °C),  
291 daily minimum temperature ( $T_{\min}$ , °C), daily sunshine duration (hour), and daily precipitation (mm).  
292 Positive and negative sensitivities indicate delayed and advanced senescence, respectively.  
293 Climatic signal was defined as the absolute value of climatic sensitivity. It indicates the extent to  
294 which the climatic factor influences the onset of leaf senescence, without considering the direction  
295 of the effect (delay, advance).

296 In addition to the full data set used, the results of climatic sensitivities are reported  
297 separately for species and for site groups, and for years with cold and warm autumn seasons. The  
298 seasons were classified into cold and warm ones based on whether mean daily  $T_{\max}$  during the  
299 autumn season (1st August – 31st October) of the particular year at the particular site was below  
300 or above its long-term average for 1951 – 2013, respectively.

301 Multicollinearity is a problem when two or more predictors in multiple regression models  
302 are highly correlated<sup>16</sup>. The estimated regression coefficients based on ordinary least square  
303 regression can be unreliable when multicollinearity occurs<sup>16</sup>. By adding a penalty parameter in the

304 model, ridge regression reduces the variance of regression coefficient and produces more reliable  
305 estimates<sup>17</sup>. In order to take into account the potential multicollinearity between climatic factors,  
306 ridge regressions were therefore used in the calculations of climatic sensitivity<sup>16,17</sup>. The spatial  
307 resolution of sunshine duration dataset was too coarse to obtain the sunshine duration hours for  
308 each site. To address this, we averaged climatic data, including  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$ , precipitation and  
309 sunshine duration, and leaf senescence dates for each site group (G1-G4), and analyzed the effect  
310 of the averaged climatic factors on autumn leaf senescence. A total of 128 models were applied to  
311 calculate the climatic sensitivities, one for each combination of site group, species, and season type  
312 (4 climate factors  $\times$  4 climate groups  $\times$  4 species  $\times$  2 season types). The response variable was the  
313 mean leaf senescence date, the predictors were the averaged climatic factors during the optimal  
314 pre-season of each species at each site group. Normalized anomalies of climatic factors and leaf  
315 senescence dates were used in all of the models when calculating the climatic sensitivities, which  
316 were then used for comparing the effects of different climatic factors on the onset of leaf senescence  
317 in cold and warm autumns in different species and different site groups<sup>18</sup>. To test the robustness of  
318 our results, we calculated the climatic sensitivity also based on a fixed pre-season in autumn (1st  
319 August to 31st October) for each climatic variable. We also addressed the effects of spring  
320 phenology on autumn leaf senescence in cold and warm autumns via a joint modelling approach where  
321 both spring leaf unfolding dates and climatic factors were incorporated into the ridge regression  
322 models. Both the response variables and the predictors were normalized also in these models.

323           Due to the coarse spatial resolution of sunshine duration dataset, we could not analyze  
324 the effects of all of the four climatic factors on leaf senescence at the site level. To address this, we  
325 performed an additional analysis using the climatic data that could be obtained for each site (see  
326 Supplementary Fig. 10). Specifically, we first excluded the outliers deviating more than 2.5 times

327 MAD and selected sites with at least 40 years records of leaf senescence between 1951 and 2013.  
328 Second, we used the bilinear interpolation method to extract the daily  $T_{\max}$ , daily  $T_{\min}$ , and daily  
329 precipitation between 1951 and 2013 for each site using the “raster” package<sup>32</sup> in R version 3.6.1<sup>33</sup>.  
330 After determining the optimal preseason length of climatic factors, we calculated the mean  
331 temperature and precipitation during the optimal preseason for each year at each site. Finally, we  
332 obtained year-to-year normalized anomalies (relative to average year) of both climatic variables  
333 and leaf senescence dates, and calculated climatic signals in cold and warm autumns for each  
334 species at each site using ridge regressions.

335 Linear mixed models are widely used to analyze hierarchical data, because they allow  
336 inclusion of both fixed and random effects<sup>34</sup>. By pooling all of the species at different site groups,  
337 a linear mixed model was used to examine the difference in climatic sensitivity or climatic signal  
338 between cold and warm autumn seasons. In the linear mixed model, the response variable was  
339 climatic sensitivity or signal, the fixed effect was autumn season type (a categorical variable with  
340 two levels: cold and warm autumn), with random intercepts among species. Tukey's HSD  
341 (Honestly Significant Difference) test is a common post-hoc test used to compare the means  
342 between groups based on the studentized range distribution<sup>35</sup>. Here Tukey's HSD test followed by  
343 linear mixed model was used to examine the differences in climatic signals among the climatic  
344 factors addressed.

### 345 **Growing degree days**

346 Based on the following equation, we calculated the growing degree days (GDD) to assess the  
347 climatic forcing in cold and warm autumns at different site groups:

$$348 \quad GDD = \left[ \frac{(T_{\max} + T_{\min})}{2} \right] - T_{base} \quad \text{Eq. (1),}$$



349 where  $GDD = 0$  when  $(T_{max}+T_{min})/2 < T_{base}$ . Based on Eq. (1), we calculated the accumulated  
350  $GDD5$  ( $T_{base} = 5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and  $GDD10$  ( $T_{base} = 10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) during the optimal preseason<sup>36</sup> of leaf senescence.  
351 These calculations were carried out separately for years with cold and warm autumns. Linear mixed  
352 models were used to examine the difference in the accumulated  $GDD5$  and  $GDD10$  between years  
353 with cold and warm autumns. The response variable was  $GDD5$  or  $GDD10$ , the fixed effect was  
354 autumn season type (a categorical variable with two levels: warm and cold) with random intercepts  
355 among species.

### 356 **Phenological plasticity**

357 We calculated the coefficient of variation (CV) of leaf senescence dates to indicate the plasticity  
358 of autumn leaf senescence for each species at each site group during years with cold and warm  
359 autumn seasons. A total of 32 CV values were obtained to quantify the autumn phenological  
360 plasticity, one for each of the combinations of 4 site groups  $\times$  4 species  $\times$  2 season types. A linear  
361 mixed model was used to test the mean difference of the CV between the years with warm and cold  
362 autumn seasons. The response variable was the CV of leaf senescence dates, the fixed effect was  
363 autumn season type (a categorical variable with two levels: warm and cold) with random intercepts  
364 among species.

### 365 **Effects of drought on leaf senescence**

366 The Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI), which considers effects of both  
367 precipitation and potential evapotranspiration on drought severity<sup>24</sup>, was calculated to examine the  
368 effects of drought stress on the onset of leaf senescence. The mean SPEI during the autumn season  
369 (1st August – 31st October) across different site groups was selected to examine the effects of  
370 drought on leaf senescence. A linear mixed model was used to test the effects of drought on the

371 timing of leaf senescence during years with cold and warm autumn seasons. The response variable  
372 was the leaf senescence DOY, the predictor variables were the SPEI and the type of the season (a  
373 categorical variable with two levels: warm and cold autumn season), with random intercepts among  
374 site groups. Both response variable and predictors were normalized in the models.

375 Using the simulated climate data by Community Earth System Model (CESM) Large  
376 Ensemble (CESM-LENS) (<http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/projects/community-projects/LENS/>)<sup>27</sup>, we  
377 investigated the trends in the averaged  $T_{\max}$  and  $T_{\min}$  in autumn (1 August-31 October) under  
378 RCP8.5 scenario<sup>37</sup> during 2021-2050 in Europe to project the effect of drought on the onset of leaf  
379 senescence under future climate scenarios.

#### 380 **Data availability**

381 Phenology data are available from the Pan European Phenology (PEP) network ([www.pep725.eu](http://www.pep725.eu)).  
382 Climate data can be downloaded from E-OBS site: <http://ensembles-eu.metoffice.com>.

#### 383 **Code availability**

384 The codes used for data processing and analysis in this study are available on Figshare:  
385 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12291245.v6>.

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416 **Author contributions**

417 L.C., J.L. and Z.L. designed this research. L.C. and Z.L. performed the data analysis. L.C. drafted  
418 the paper with the inputs of H.H., S. R., N.G.S., Z.L., S.P., G.F., J.G. and J.L. All authors  
419 contributed to the interpretation of the results and approved the final manuscript.

420 **Competing interests**

421 The authors declare no competing interests.

422 **Figure legends**

423 **Fig. 1** Climatic responses of leaf senescence of four temperate tree species in Europe during 1951-  
424 2013. (a) Climatic sensitivity, (b) climatic signal, with the results given separately for warm (red)  
425 and cold (blue) autumn seasons, based on whether mean  $T_{\max}$  during the autumn season from 1st  
426 August to 31st October of the particular year was above or below its long-term average for 1951 –  
427 2013, respectively. Climatic sensitivities were calculated for daily maximum temperature ( $T_{\max}$ ,  
428 °C), daily minimum temperature ( $T_{\min}$ , °C), daily sunshine duration (Sun, hours), and daily  
429 precipitation (Prec, mm) during the optimal pre-season (see Methods for details). Climatic signal,  
430 the absolute value of climatic sensitivity, indicates the extent to which climatic factors influence  
431 leaf senescence without considering the direction of the effect (delay, advance). The averaged  
432 climatic signal represents the mean of the four climatic factors. The climatic sensitivities and  
433 signals reported were calculated using normalized response and predictor variables. Length of each  
434 box indicates the interquartile range, the horizontal line inside each box the median, and the bottom  
435 and top of the box the first and third quartiles, respectively. The black points outside the boxes  
436 represent outliers. The four temperate tree species addressed are *Aesculus hippocastanum* L.,

437 *Betula pendula* Roth, *Fagus sylvatica* L. and *Quercus robur* L. The asterisks in (b) indicate  
438 significant differences between cold and warm autumns ( $P<0.05$ ).

439  
440 **Fig. 2** Coefficient of variation (CV) of the leaf senescence onset day of four temperate tree species  
441 in Europe during 1951 – 2013. (a) Averaged over the four species and all observation sites and (b)  
442 separately for each species at different phenological observation site groups. The site groups  
443 represent a climatic gradient from cold (G1) to warm (G4) observation sites (see Supplementary  
444 Table 1). The results are presented separately for cold (blue) and warm (red) autumn seasons (1st  
445 August – 31st October), based on whether mean daily  $T_{\max}$  during the autumn season of the  
446 particular year was below or above its long-term average for 1951 – 2013, respectively. Total  
447 number of CV values is equal to 32 (4 species  $\times$  4 site groups  $\times$  2 season types). In (a), the length  
448 of each box indicates the interquartile range, the horizontal line inside each box the median, and  
449 the bottom and top of the box the first and third quartiles, respectively. The black points outside  
450 the boxes represent outliers. The four temperate tree species addressed are *Aesculus hippocastanum*  
451 L., *Betula pendula* Roth, *Fagus sylvatica* L., and *Quercus robur* L. The asterisks in (a) indicate  
452 significant differences between cold and warm autumns ( $P<0.05$ ).

453  
454 **Fig. 3** Average leaf senescence dates of four temperate tree species at different phenological  
455 observation site groups in Europe during 1951 – 2013. The site groups represent a climatic gradient  
456 from cold (G1) to warm (G4) observation sites (see Table S1). The results are presented separately  
457 for cold (blue) and warm (red) autumn seasons (1 August – 31 October), based on whether mean  
458 daily  $T_{\max}$  during the autumn season of the particular year was below or above its long-term average  
459 for 1951-2013, respectively. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. The four temperate tree

460 species addressed are *Aesculus hippocastanum* L., *Betula pendula* Roth, *Fagus sylvatica* L., and  
461 *Quercus robur* L.

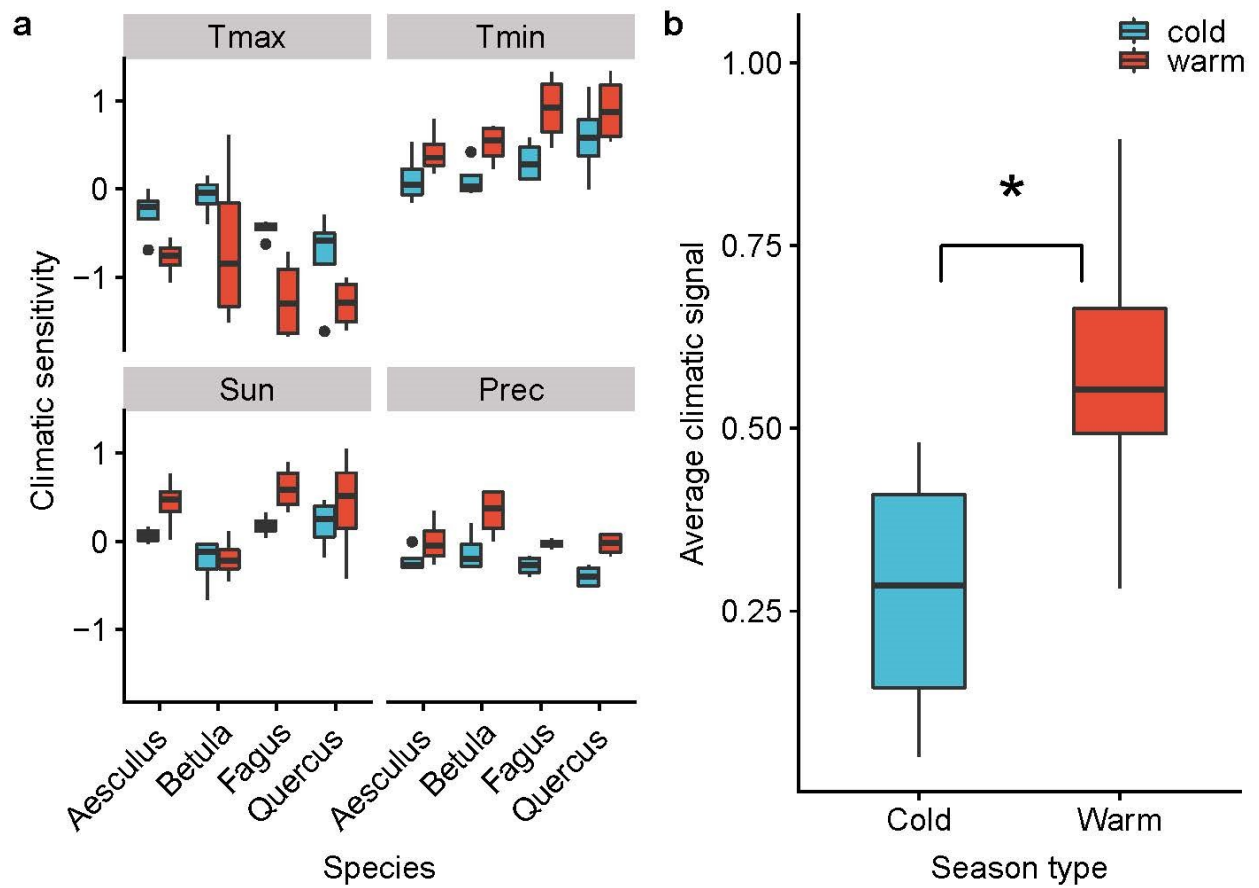
462  
463 **Fig. 4** Growing degree days (GDD) at different site groups in Europe during 1951 – 2013. The site  
464 groups represent a climatic gradient from cold (G1) to warm (G4) observation sites (see Table S1).  
465 The results are presented separately for cold (blue) and warm (red) autumn seasons (1st August –  
466 31st October), based on whether mean daily  $T_{\max}$  during the autumn season of the particular year  
467 was below or above its long-term average for 1951 – 2013, respectively. The growing degree days  
468 were calculated based on the optimized pre-season of leaf senescence. (a) GDD5 and (b) GDD10  
469 represent accumulated GDDs calculated with base temperatures  $T_{\text{base}} = +5$  °C and  $T_{\text{base}} = +10$  °C,  
470 respectively. Different letters indicate significant differences between site groups based on Tukey's  
471 honest significant difference (HSD) test ( $P < 0.05$ ).

472  
473 **Fig. 5** Climatic responses of leaf senescence of four temperate tree species in Europe during 1951-  
474 2013. (a) Climatic sensitivity and (b) climatic signal. Climatic signal is defined as the absolute value  
475 of climatic sensitivity. Unlike climatic sensitivity, climatic signal does not address direction of the  
476 effect of climatic factor on leaf senescence. The values of both indicators are calculated for daily  
477 maximum temperature,  $T_{\max}$  (days per °C), daily minimum temperature,  $T_{\min}$  (days per °C), daily  
478 sunshine duration, Sun (days per h), and daily precipitation, Prec (days per mm) during the optimal  
479 pre-season (see Methods for details). The climatic sensitivities reported were calculated using  
480 normalized response and predictor variables. Length of each box indicates the interquartile range,  
481 the horizontal line inside each box the median, and the bottom and top of the box the first and third  
482 quartiles, respectively. The black points outside the boxes represent outliers. The four temperate

483 tree species addressed are *Aesculus hippocastanum* L., *Betula pendula* Roth, *Fagus sylvatica* L.,  
484 and *Quercus robur* L. Different letters indicate significant differences among the climatic factors  
485 based on Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test ( $P < 0.05$ ).

486

487 Figure 1

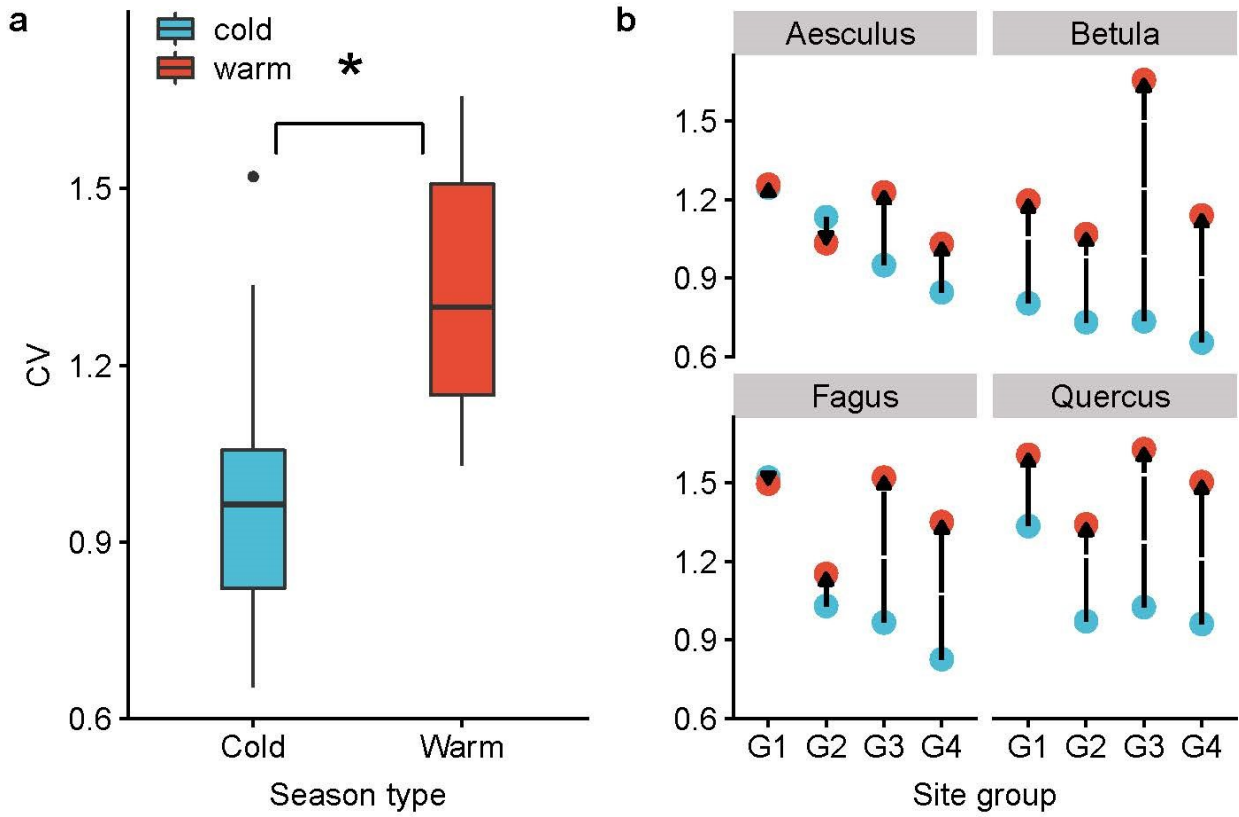


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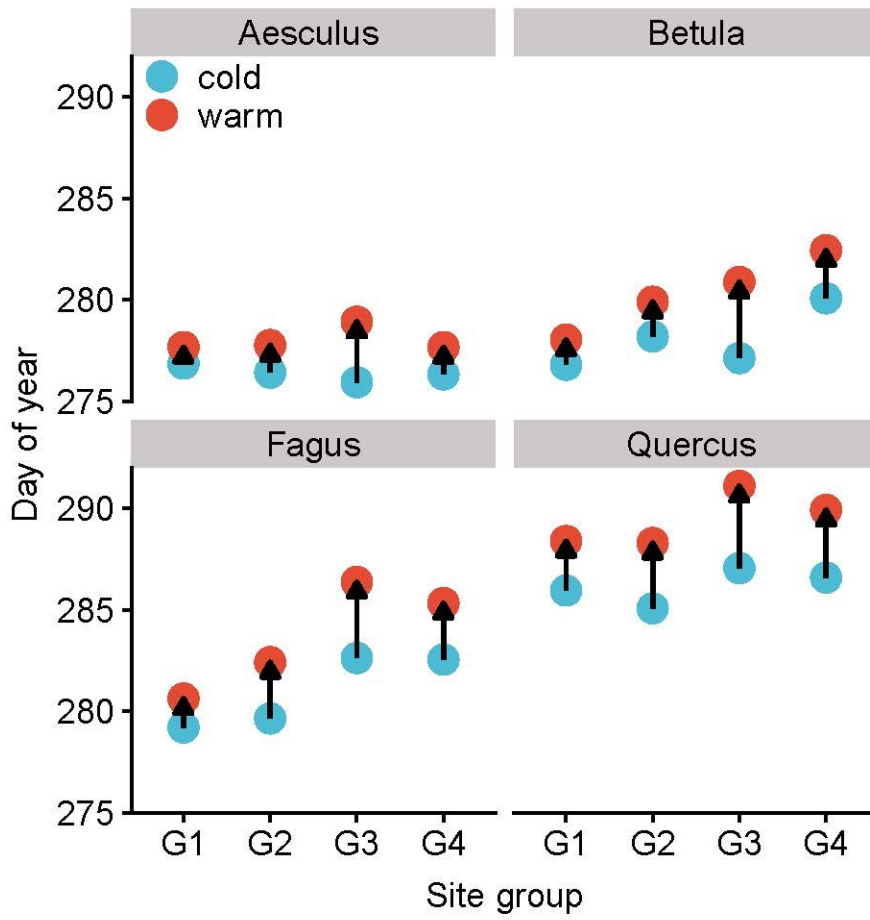
490 Figure 2



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492

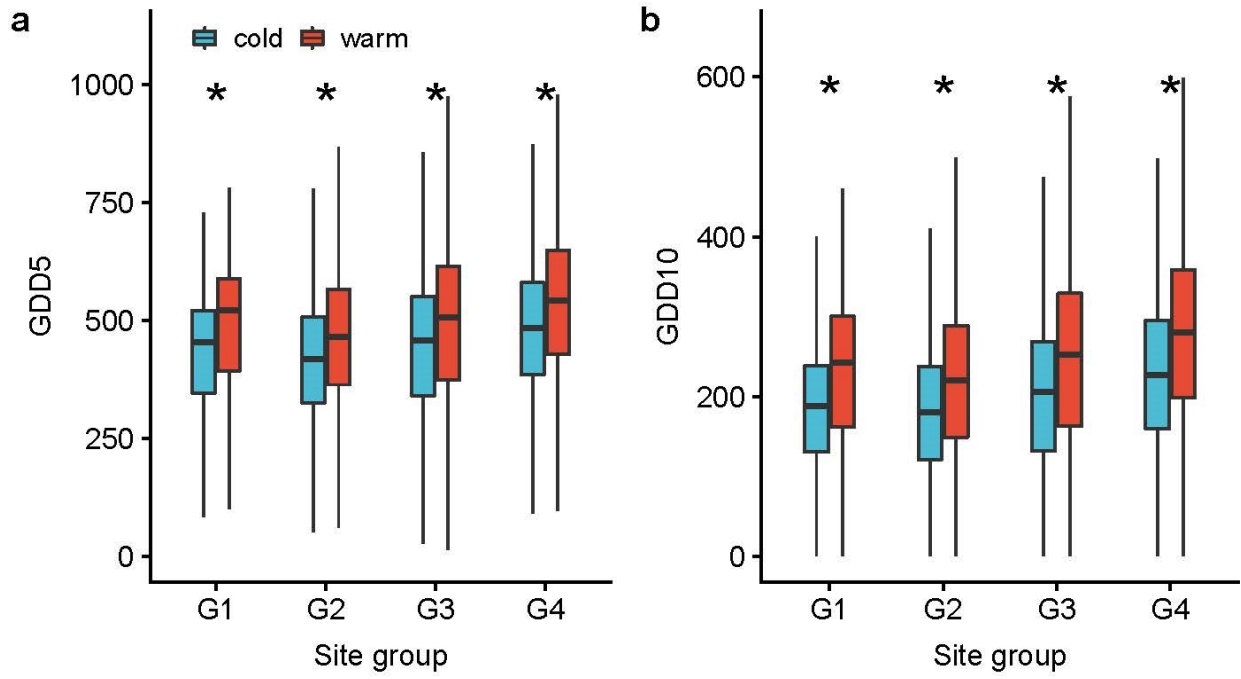
493 Figure 3



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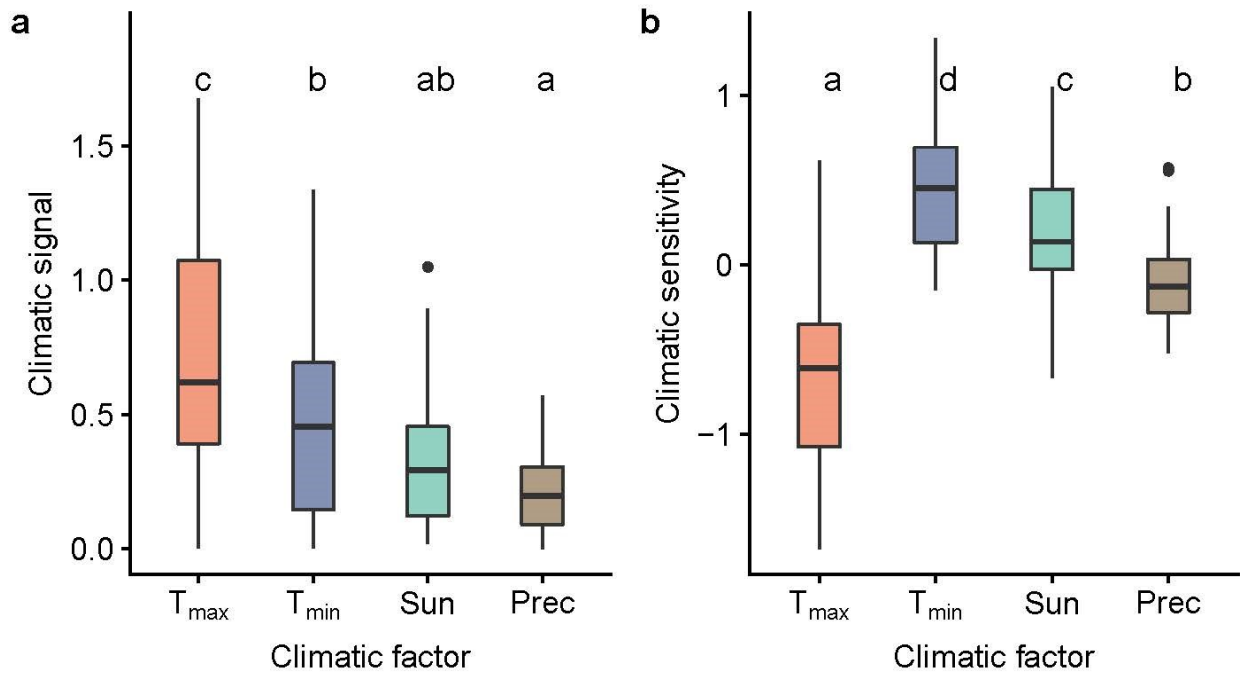
496 Figure 4



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498

499 Figure 5



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