

1 **Large-scale atmospheric circulation enhances the Mediterranean East-**
2 **West tree growth contrast at rear-edge deciduous forests**

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26 populations, Mediterranean Basin

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33 **Highlights**

- 34 • General growth reduction in rear-edge Mediterranean deciduous populations.
- 35 • Western populations display a stronger growth decrease than eastern populations.
- 36 • Summer climate has gained importance for growth during the last three decades.
- 37 • The recent strengthening of the SNAO imparts an east-west dipole to summer climate
- 38 • Atmospheric circulation patterns may be determinant in future forest persistence

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40

41 **Abstract**

42 Overlaid to a general reduction of European beech and sessile oak tree growth over the recent
43 decades in the Mediterranean Basin, tree-ring records from western Mediterranean
44 populations display a stronger growth decrease than eastern populations. We investigate here
45 to what extent the impact of sustained atmospheric circulation patterns in summertime **can**
46 explain the observed spatial patterns of tree growth. We use Canonical Correlation Analysis,
47 a statistical method that identifies the coupled patterns **that are optimally correlated** between
48 two multivariate **data sets**. A general change in growth trends, shifting from a general
49 increase during the period 1950-1981 to a decrease during the last three decades, can be
50 attributed to increasing summer temperatures, which exert a dominant and negative influence
51 on growth in both tree species across sites. However, summer precipitation has gained
52 importance for growth, coinciding with the intensification of the geographical polarity in
53 climate conditions across the Mediterranean Basin. This intensification during the last three
54 decades can be traced back to a strengthening of the Summer North Atlantic Oscillation
55 (SNAO), which imparts an east-west dipole to summer climate in this region. Under
56 predicted persistent stronger SNAO in the future, western populations would face harsher
57 summer conditions than central and eastern rear-edge populations, due to **decreasing**
58 precipitation and **increasing** temperatures in the west Mediterranean Basin. These results
59 evidence the determinant role that changes in the atmospheric circulation patterns may play
60 in the persistence of rear-edge temperate deciduous forests in the near future.

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64 **1. Introduction**

65 The Mediterranean Basin (MB) constitutes a major ecotone between dry and wet climates
66 where most of the European boreal and temperate tree species meet their southern
67 distribution limit (the so-called rear-edge; Ellenberg, 1996; Hampe and Petit, 2005). At these
68 latitudes, summer is usually the most challenging period for tree growth due to the
69 combination of high temperatures and low precipitation, leading to xeric conditions and high
70 evaporative demands (Mitrakos, 1980). Populations located at the rear edges are more
71 exposed to the negative effects of forthcoming climate change since the conditions for tree
72 growth are currently at the limit of species' tolerance (Hampe and Petit, 2005).

73 A large number of dendroecological studies have addressed the impact of changes in climate
74 on tree growth of temperate species at the rear edge of their natural distribution in Europe.
75 Some of those studies reported growth increases during the last decades (e.g., Bascietto et al.,
76 2004; Tegel et al., 2014), while others described growth declines associated to summer
77 drought stress (Peñuelas and Boada, 2003; Jump et al., 2006; Macias et al., 2006; Granier et
78 al., 2007; Piovesan et al., 2008, Chen et al., 2015), despite evidences of a positive impact of
79 rising CO₂ concentrations on intrinsic water use efficiency in Mediterranean tree populations
80 (Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011; Peñuelas et al., 2011; Saurer et al., 2014; Camarero et al., 2015).
81 The variety of results obtained so far might be partly due to the different time spans covered
82 by the different studies, the diverse sources of climate data used (i.e. stations versus gridded
83 products), the influence of micro-environmental conditions and land use changes (Motta et
84 al., 2006). Furthermore, climate variations associated with geographical features such as
85 elevation, lead to substantial differences in terms of radial growth (Cailleret and Davi, 2011;
86 Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2014) and climate signal (Gutiérrez, 1988; Piovesan et al., 2005; Di
87 Filippo et al., 2007) in Mediterranean mountains. Thus, an accurate selection of forests at the

88 limits of the specie's tolerance becomes crucial when aiming at assessing climate impacts on
89 rear-edge populations.

90 The ensemble of climate change projections from the Coupled Model Intercomparison
91 Project Phase 3 and Phase 5 (CMIP3 and CMIP5) mostly agree that during the next century
92 the MB will experience drying, particularly during summer (Christensen et al., 2007; Giorgi
93 and Lionello, 2008; Kirtman et al., 2013) as well as increases in frequency and severity of
94 extreme droughts, hot extremes, and heat waves (Fink et al., 2004; Pal et al., 2004; Schär et
95 al., 2004; Seneviratne et al., 2006). This may trigger forest die-back at rear-edge populations
96 and force temperate and boreal species to migrate to higher altitudes or latitudes in order to
97 cope with the increase in temperatures and changes in precipitation (Gates, 1993; Allen and
98 Breshears, 1998; Thuiller et al., 2005; Lenoir et al., 2008; Falk and Hempelmann, 2013).

99 Recent changes in climate may be related to internal dynamics of the system, particularly at
100 regional scales (Deser et al., 2012), or may be a response to changes in natural or
101 anthropogenic external forcings (Ottera et al., 2010; Myhre et al., 2013), or a combination of
102 both (i.e., atmospheric patterns of internal variability could also be influenced by external
103 forcing; Miller et al., 2006). The link between climate, direct external forcing (e.g.,
104 volcanism, increase in atmospheric concentration of CO₂) and tree growth has been
105 investigated at regional scales (e.g., Saurer et al., 2014). However, the association between
106 climate, atmospheric circulation patterns and tree growth at the MB has been mostly analysed
107 at local scales (e.g., Piovesan and Schirone, 2000; Camarero, 2011; Piraino and Roig-Juñet,
108 2014; Esper et al., 2015; Rozas et al., 2015).

109 Understanding the link between tree growth, climate and the atmospheric circulation may
110 lead to untapped sources of predictability of tree growth under forthcoming climate change
111 scenarios. This is particularly relevant on areas of heightened susceptibility to climate change

112 such as the MB. Therefore, this paper addresses the relative role of internal variability on the
113 increasing harshness in summer conditions affecting tree growth of two rear-edge temperate
114 broadleaf deciduous species in the MB during the last decades.

115 We present a statistical analysis of tree-ring width chronologies and meteorological data
116 based on Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA). CCA allows extracting pairs of spatial
117 patterns of tree-growth variability and summer climate that have an optimal time correlation.
118 The use of this multivariate technique helps to separate the systematic variations from noise,
119 thus favoring the minimization of local-effects (i.e., forest management) and smaller scale
120 processes that may obscure the common climate signal. The geographical patterns of tree
121 sensitivity to summer climate identified by the CCA were then used to infer atmospheric
122 circulation patterns that give rise to the observed patterns in tree growth during the last six
123 decades.

124 **2. Methods**

125 **2.1 Study sites**

126 The study was conducted using a newly developed network composed by 12 European beech
127 (*Fagus sylvatica* L., beech hereafter) and nine Sessile oak (*Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl;
128 oak hereafter) sites distributed across the southernmost limit of their natural distribution area
129 in Europe (see details in Supplementary Table1). Beech is a shade-tolerant species with a low
130 tolerance to drought and requires a certain degree of atmospheric humidity to survive. Oak is
131 considered a warmth- and medium light-demanding species in the context of temperate
132 forests and assumed to be more resistant to drought than beech (Aranda et al., 2005). The
133 studied forests were carefully selected in areas where summer conditions (high temperature
134 and relatively low precipitation) are potentially limiting tree growth. Differences in

135 macroclimatic conditions can be recognized in Figure 1: the Iberian Peninsula (western
136 populations) and the Italian Peninsula (central populations) are generally drier than the sites
137 located in eastern MB, which are wetter and milder. Overall, the two sites located in Slovenia
138 (B_S11 and O_S11) have the mildest summer, while the forests in the Iberian Peninsula
139 endure the driest and hottest summers among the 21 sites.

140 Beech and oak were dominant or co-dominant species in all sampled forests. Most of the
141 beech sites were pure stands and only B_Sp1 and B_S11 were mixed beech-oak forests. In
142 B_Sp1 beech was mixed with *Q. pyrenaica* Willd. and *Q. petraea*, whereas B_S11 was mixed
143 with *Q. petraea* in the latter. Similarly, the majority of oak forests were pure stands, or mixed
144 with other oaks species in O_Sp2 (*Q. pubescens* Willd.) and in Q_It2 and Q_It3 (*Q. cerris*
145 L.). Although all sites suffered from logging in the past, there were no logging activities in
146 the selected forests for the last 40-50 years (many of them are protected areas nowadays)
147 except for B_S11 and O_S11 where logging still sparsely takes place.

148 **2.2 Sampling**

149 A field campaign was carried out during summers of 2013 and 2014 across Spain, Italy,
150 Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania in order to develop a homogeneous and up-to-date tree-ring
151 network of marginal forests (Supplementary Table1). From each of the 21 sites sampled, 20
152 dominant or isolated trees of different adult age classes (i.e., individuals at least 80 years old
153 to avoid the juvenile effect, except for O_sp2, where the minimum age was 65) were selected
154 and two cores per tree were extracted with an increment borer. Samples were visually cross-
155 dated and measured with an accuracy of 0.01 using a Linntab 6 (RINNTECH) measuring
156 device. Tree-ring width series were processed using dplR (Bunn, 2008) and according to
157 standard dendrochronological procedures described in Cook and Kairiukstis (1990).
158 Individual tree-ring series were standardized by fitting a negative exponential function to the

159 raw series in order to remove age-related trends (Cook, 1987). This relatively stiff
160 standardization emphasizes inter-annual variations but also keeps multi-decadal scale
161 wavelengths in the final chronology (Cook et al., 1995). A master chronology using a bi-
162 weight robust mean which reduces bias caused by extreme values was built for each site. This
163 set of chronologies is called standard chronologies (*std*). Additionally, a second set of
164 chronologies (*res*) was generated by subtracting the long-term linear trends from the standard
165 chronologies using a linear regression.

166 **2.3 Climate data**

167 Climate data from local stations were not available for all sampled sites and therefore, a high-
168 resolution and homogenized gridded daily data set of climate variables over Europe (termed
169 E-OBS, Haylock et al., 2008) was used for investigating the climate-growth relationships.
170 Monthly summer (June, July and August) temperature means and mean daily precipitation
171 were downloaded for the 1°x1° grid-cells surrounding every sampled site. Additionally, the
172 850mb geopotential height field of the NCEP/NCAR meteorological reanalysis and the
173 Summer NAO index based on the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis sea-level pressure reconstruction
174 were used to identify the summer circulation anomalies linked to tree growth.

175 The strength and temporal stability of the influence of climate on tree growth over the last six
176 decades was investigated by splitting the records into two equally long sub-periods: 1950-
177 1981 and 1982-2012. This split approximately matches the described periods of prominent
178 global changes in climate which may have enhanced regime shifts (Reid et al., 2016)

179 **2.4 Statistical analysis: PCA and CCA**

180 For computational reasons, it is advisable to prefilter the data with a Principal Component
181 Analysis (PCA) prior to the Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) (Bretherton et al., 1992;

182 not to be **confused** with Canonical Correspondence Analysis, also frequently applied in
183 ecology). The PCA was applied to extract the main **patterns** of variability from the set of tree-
184 ring width chronologies (TRW) and summer meteorological variables at the sampling sites:
185 June-to-August mean temperature (Ts) and June-to-August total precipitation (Ps).

186 The calculated principal components of the tree-ring chronologies were linked to the climate
187 variables by using CCA. CCA, similarly to PCA, decomposes multivariate variables as a sum
188 of patterns whose amplitude is described by an associated time series. Given two multivariate
189 variables, in this case two sets of PCs derived from chronologies and meteorological records,
190 CCA identifies pairs of patterns (one **pattern** for each **multivariate** variable) for which the
191 associated canonical time series have the highest possible correlation. The statistical
192 interpretation of CCA is, therefore, that **one** pair of **canonical** patterns tend to appear
193 simultaneously in **each** set of variables, **i.e. they tend to co-variate**. This **co-variability** is
194 summarized by the canonical correlation coefficient, which is the correlation between the
195 corresponding canonical time series (von Storch and Zwiers, 1999).

196 **In this analysis, the CCA is applied to the principal components (PCs) of the TRW and the**
197 **climate variables (Ts, Ps) previously calculated. There is no theoretical rule to establish the**
198 **optimal number of PCs per variable to be included in the CCA. Here, following von Storch**
199 **and Zwiers (1999), we explored the spectrum of explained variances of PCs of each variable.**
200 **Usually, this spectrum quickly flattens after a certain number of PCs, after which the**
201 **cumulative explained variance grows much more slowly. This was the level of PCA-**
202 **truncation chosen here and the number of PCs included ranged from 2 to 5 (Supplementary**
203 **Table2)**

204 **In order to disentangle the connection between tree growth and summer climate that is due to**
205 **long-term trends from that due to the coherent interannual-to-decadal variability, we have**

206 considered different CCA cases. In one case, we use the standard series (std_CCA), whereas
207 in the second case we used the residuals after subtracting the long-term trend of the original
208 time series (res_CCA). For the latter case, the long-term linear trends of the climate data and
209 of the tree-ring chronologies were subtracted using a linear regression for the period 1950-
210 2012. The CCA were carried out in two periods (1950-1981 and 1982-2012) to investigate
211 whether the links between these variables may have changed through time. The choice of a
212 linear detrending in time versus more complicated functional forms is dictated by the length
213 of the records, which does not allow to clearly discriminate between a linear fit and non-
214 linear fit. The residual records after linearly detrending do not display clear or significant
215 long-term autocorrelations at decadal lags, as it should be expected if the underlying long-
216 term trends could be represented by higher order polynomials in time.

217 To identify the atmospheric circulation anomalies that may explain the temperature and
218 precipitation variations linked to TRW, we calculated the correlation pattern between the
219 TRW canonical time series and the NCEP/NCAR 850mb geopotential height field. The
220 residual canonical axes (res_CCA) were chosen since the long-term trend is generally weak
221 compared to the interannual and decadal variations in geopotential height.

222 **3. Results**

223 ***3.1 Growth trends and temporal patterns***

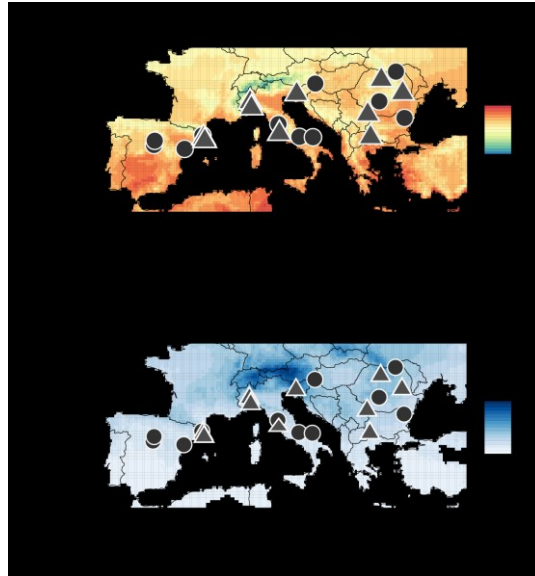
224 Tree growth has generally decreased in the rear-edge beech forest since 1950s, whereas in
225 rear-edge oak forests changes in growth have been more variable (Figure 2; Supplementary
226 Figure 3). A closer look at the two equally long periods covering the last six decades
227 considered in this study, revealed differences in growth trends between the two (Fig. 2;
228 Supplementary Table1). For the period 1950-1981, most of the beech and oak chronologies

229 displayed positive growth trends, though not all of them were significant ($p < 0.05$). In the case
230 of beech, 67% of the trends were positive (33% significant) and 33% were negative (17%
231 significant), whereas for oak, 67% of the trend were positive (44% significant) and no
232 significant negative growth trends were observed.

233 During the period 1981-2012, concurrent with a general increase in temperature
234 (Supplementary Figure 1), most of the sites displayed negative growth trends (83% and 67%
235 for beech and oak, respectively) though not all of them were significant. For beech, 83% of
236 the trends were negative (42% significant), while for oak 67% of the trends were negative
237 (22% significant) (Fig. 2). Remarkably, no significant positive growth trends were found
238 during this period, either in beech or in oak sites.

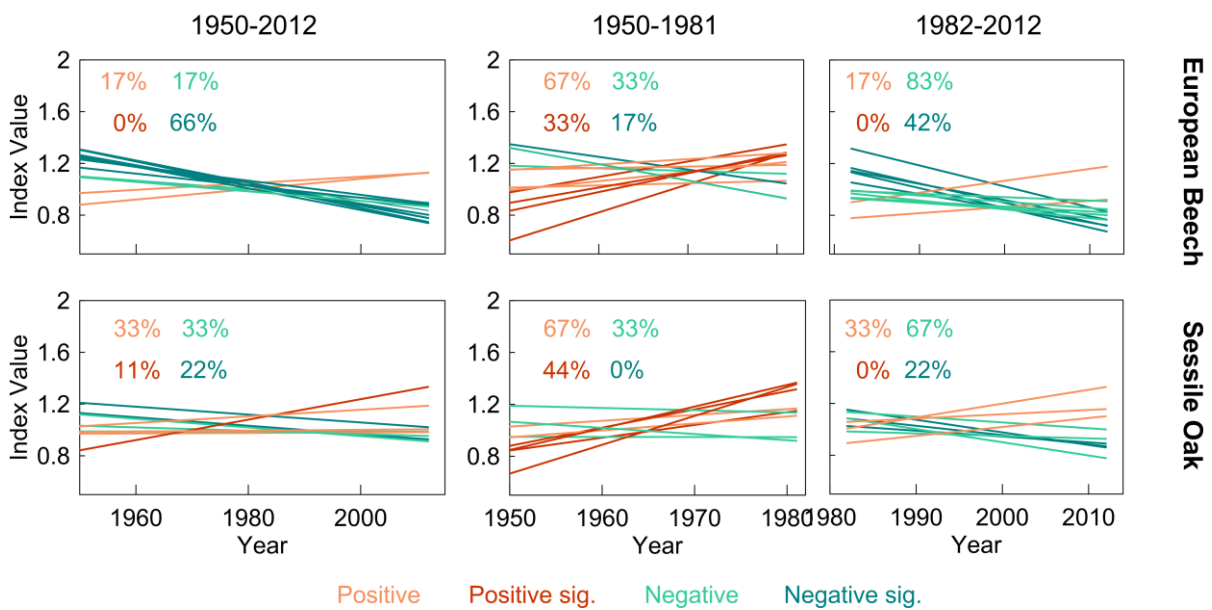
239 Overall, the Eastern sites of both species displayed a lower amount of significant negative
240 growth trends during recent decades than western and central MB stands (Supplementary
241 Table 1, Supplementary Figure 3). This geographical pattern of tree growth was further
242 supported by the results of the PCA performed with the 21 chronologies for the period 1950-
243 2012 (Supplementary Figure 2), which did not reveal a clear species-specific or altitudinal
244 pattern but rather displayed east-west gradients for both PC1 and PC2.

245



246 **Figure 1** Location of the 12 European beech (black circles) and **nine** Sessile Oak (black triangles)
 247 rear-edge forests. Symbols are superimposed to the mean summer temperature for the period 1950-
 248 2012 (upper map) and mean daily summer precipitation for the same period (bottom map).

249



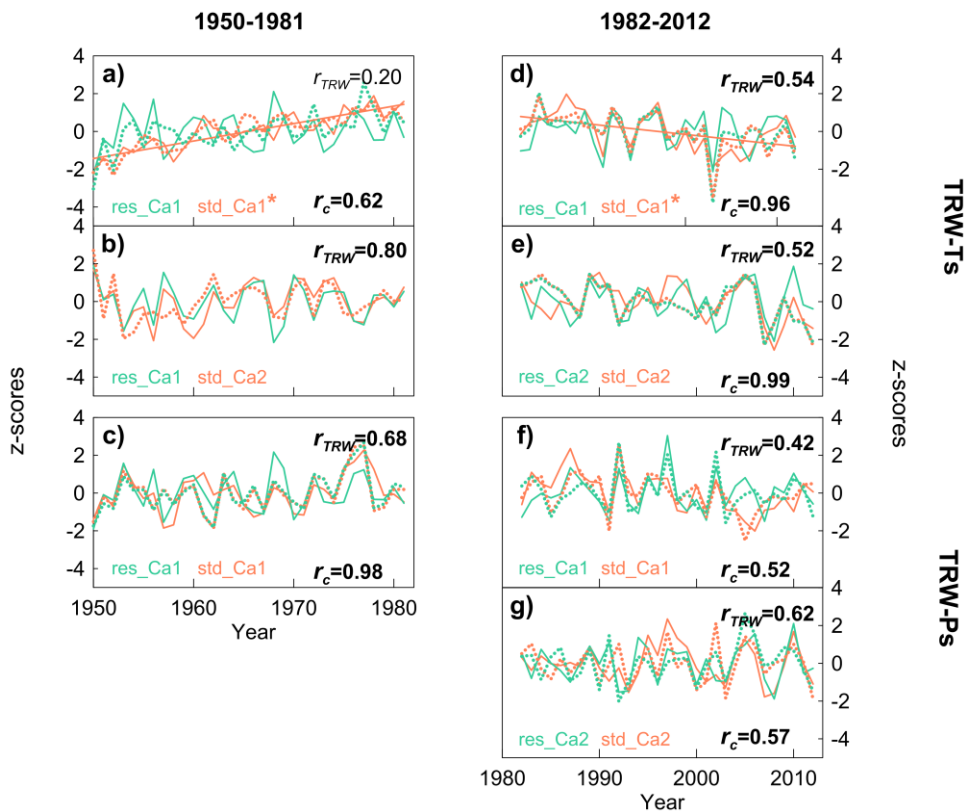
250

251 **Figure 2.** Growth trends during the **full period 1950-2012 (left panel)** and **the two subperiods 1950-**
 252 **1981 (middle panel)** and **1982-2012 (right panel)** for European beech and Sessile Oak. Colours
 253 indicate sign and significance of the growth trends: positive non-significant (light orange), positive
 254 significant (dark orange), negative non-significant (light green), negative significant (dark green).

255 Percentage of *chronologies* in each *growth-trend* group is also shown. Linear trends were fitted on
 256 the *std* chronologies.

257 **3.2 CCA with and without long-term trends**

258 The results of the CCA are interpreted in pairs of canonical axes (Table 1). Each pair is
 259 composed of one spatial pattern of each of the variables included in the analysis. For the
 260 analysis with TRW and summer temperature, each canonical pair consist of one pattern of
 261 TRW chronologies and one pattern of summer temperature. Analogously, for the analysis of
 262 tree-ring width and summer precipitation each canonical pattern consist of a TRW pattern
 263 and a precipitation pattern. These paired patterns are those that have the highest possible
 264 temporal correlation, which measures the degree of co-variability between the patterns of the
 265 variables.



266

267 **Figure 3.** Comparison of the significant pairs of canonical axes derived from the *std_CCA*
268 and *res_CCA* for the two periods 1950-1981 (left panel) and 1982-2012 (right panel). Tree-
269 ring width (continuous lines) and climate-variable (dashed lines) significant canonical axes
270 (*Ca*) derived from the analysis with summer temperature (TRW-Ts; panels a-b, d-e) and
271 summer precipitation (TRW-Ps; panels c, f-g) are shown. Pearson's correlation values
272 between the tree-ring canonical axes (r_{TRW}) and the climate canonical axes (r_c) derived from
273 *res* and *std* analysis are shown. Bold numbers indicate significance at 95% level. Linear
274 trends are superimposed to the canonical axis when significant. * indicates significant trend
275 at 99% level.

276 The CCA was performed for the early period 1950-1981 between summer temperature (Ts)
277 or precipitation (Ps) and the set of TRW in two settings: with and without long-term trends
278 (*std_CCA* and *res_CCA*, respectively). These analyses revealed three canonical pairs (two
279 pairs related to summer temperature and one pair related to summer precipitation) and two
280 pairs (one related summer temperature and one related to summer precipitation),
281 respectively (Table 1). The canonical correlations and the percentage of explained variance
282 were similar in the analyses with summer precipitation (TRW-Ps) when including or
283 excluding the long-term trends. In contrast, for the analysis with summer temperature (TRW-
284 Ts), the amount of explained variance by the *std_CCA* was much larger (44%) than the same
285 analysis without long-term trends *res_CCA* (17%). The canonical correlations were also
286 higher for the *std_CCA* pairs ($r_{Ca1}=0.83$ and $r_{Ca2}=0.46$, respectively) than for *res_CCA* pair
287 ($r_{Ca1}=0.48$).

288 The visual comparison of the canonical time series derived from *std_CCA* and *res_CCA*,
289 showed a clear difference in trend for the leading mode TRW-Ts (significant for *std_CCA*
290 but not for *res_CCA*) (Figure 3a), whereas the rest of canonical time series were similar in

291 trend (Figure 3b-c). Thus, long-term trends were confined into the leading canonical mode
292 TRW-Ts of std_CCA, being the rest of significant pairs of canonical axes similar to those of
293 res_CCA. All correlation values between significant axes can be found in the Supporting
294 material (Supplementary Table 3 for TRW axes and Supplementary Table 4 for climate
295 variable axes).

296 The same analysis conducted for the period 1982-2012 revealed four significant pairs of
297 canonical axes for both std_CCA and res_CCA: two related summer temperature and one
298 related to summer precipitation. The amounts of explained variance were higher than in the
299 previous period. The two significant pairs of axes TRW-Ts explained 39% and 27% of
300 variance for std_CCA and res_CCA, respectively, whereas the two TRW-Ps explained 32%
301 and 27% of variance, respectively (Table 1). In contrast to the previous period, where the
302 std_CCA and res_CCA analysis revealed a different behavior regarding the long-term trends
303 of the leading TRW-Ts mode, all canonical time series in std_CCA and res_CCA displayed
304 high similarities (Figure 3). This can be seen in the significant correlations between the tree-
305 ring axes derived from both analyses (r_{TRW} in Fig. 3) and the correlation between the climate
306 axes derived from both analyses (r_C in Fig. 3).

307 ***3.3 Linking tree growth and summer climate during 1950-1981***

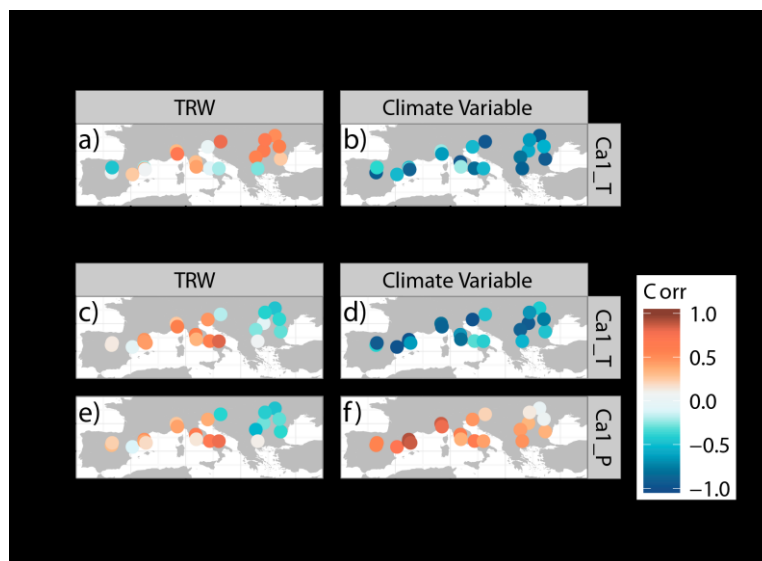
308 The statistical similarities and differences found among the canonical time series were also
309 visible in the canonical patterns of Figure 4. A canonical pattern is composed by the
310 correlation between the canonical time series and the time series of each variable at one
311 particular site. The comparison of a pair of canonical patterns (i.e., TRW and summer
312 temperature) reveals the sign of the climate influence on tree growth and the geographical
313 gradient of such influence.

314

CCA pair	1950-1981				1982-2012			
	TRW-Ts		TRW-Ps		TRW-Ts		TRW-Ps	
	std	res	std	res	std	res	std	res
r_{Ca1}	0.83**	0.48*	0.57*	0.50*	0.70**	0.62**	0.73**	0.72**
r_{Ca2}	0.46*	0.32	0.41	0.41	0.54*	0.46*	0.56*	0.60**
$r^2(\%)$	44%	17%	17%	14%	39%	27%	32%	27%

315

316 **Table 1** Output of the canonical correlation analysis (CCA) performed for each subperiod. Analyses
 317 performed using the PCs derived from tree-ring chronologies (TRW) and summer temperature (Ts) or
 318 summer precipitation (Ps) for the standard (std) and residual series (res). The correlations of each
 319 canonical pair of axis are shown (r_{Ca1} , r_{Ca2}) as well as the total explained variance (r^2). (*) and
 320 (***) indicates significance at 95% and 99% level, respectively.



321

322 **Figure 4.** Canonical patterns corresponding to the period 1950-1981 for every significant pair of
 323 canonical axes. **a-b)** leading significant pair of tree-ring width (TRW) and summer temperature (Ts)
 324 from the std_CCA; **c-d)** significant pair of TRW-Ts from the res_CCA; **e-f)** significant pair of TRW-
 325 Ps from the res_CCA. The rest of canonical patterns corresponding to the significant axes of the
 326 std_CCA can be found in Supplementary Figure 4.

327 In line with the differences found in the canonical axes in Fig 3a, the leading mode of the
328 std_CCA and res_CCA related to summer temperature (Fig. 4a-b and c-d, respectively)
329 displayed different canonical patterns. The tree-ring patterns derived from the leading mode
330 of std_CCA (Fig. 4a) showed a positive sign at eastern and most of the central MB sites and
331 the corresponding canonical patterns for temperature (Fig. 4b) displayed a negative sign at all
332 sites. The interpretation of these pair of patterns is that higher temperatures were generally
333 detrimental to tree growth in eastern and central MB. In contrast, the leading tree-ring
334 canonical pattern of the res_CCA (Fig. 4c) encapsulated a gradient in the east-west direction,
335 with a positive sign particularly in the central MB and negative sign in the eastern MB,
336 whereas the canonical patterns for temperature (Fig. 4d) displayed a negative sign at all sites.
337 The interpretation is that tree growth at the western and central (eastern) MB was negatively
338 (positively) influenced by higher temperatures at interannual-to-decadal timescales. This
339 gradient is similar to that described by the second tree-ring canonical pattern of std_CCA (see
340 Supplementary Figure 4c-d). Therefore, the impact of summer temperature on tree growth
341 was generally negative for all sites in a multidecadal perspective but at interannual time
342 scales the influence of summer temperature was positive at the eastern sites and negative at
343 the central and western sites.

344 Concerning the link between the TRW and precipitation, the canonical TRW pattern was
345 characterized by high positive values in the Central Mediterranean, low positive values in the
346 West and negative values in the East (Fig. 4e) The associated precipitation pattern displayed
347 a similar structure, with the same sign (Fig. 4f), indicating that higher precipitation was
348 linked to stronger tree growth particularly at the central MB, whereas summer rain is linked
349 to reduced growth in eastern MB. Since the canonical patterns related to precipitation derived

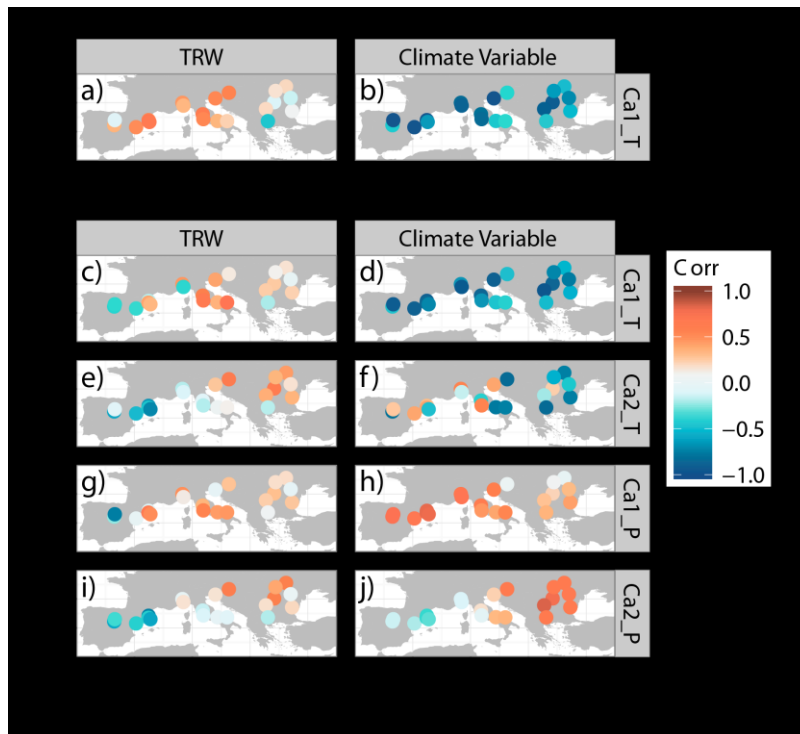
350 from std_CCA and res_CCA are very similar, only the patterns derived from the res_CCA
351 are shown in Fig. 4.

352 **3.4 Linking tree growth and summer climate during 1982-2012**

353 In accordance with the correlation between the time series described above, the leading
354 pattern of the std_CCA (Fig 5a-b) presented similar information as the leading pattern of the
355 analysis without long-term trends (res_CCA; Fig 5c-d).

356 Both patterns of TRW related to temperature (Fig 5c-d) illustrated similar negative impact of
357 summer temperature in the Italian Peninsula, whereas in the case of res_CCA, they differed
358 in the sign of the summer temperature effect in the western Mediterranean. Since the
359 canonical patterns are very similar, only the ones derived from res_CCA are shown. The rest
360 of the patterns derived from std_CCA can be found in the Supplementary Figure 5. The
361 second canonical pattern related to summer temperature describes a geographical dipole of
362 tree growth, evident in the res_CCA (Fig. 5 e-f).

363



364

365 **Figure 5.** Canonical patterns corresponding to the period 1982-2012 for every significant pair of
 366 canonical axes. **a-b)** leading significant pair of tree-ring width (TRW) and summer temperature (Ts)
 367 from the *std_CCA*; **c-d)** first significant pair of TRW-Ts derived from *res_CCA*; **e-f)** second
 368 significant pair of TRW-Ts derived from *res_CCA*; **g-h)** first significant pair of TRW and summer
 369 precipitation (Ps); **i-j)** second significant pair of TRW_Ps. The rest of canonical patterns
 370 corresponding to the significant axes of the *std_CCA* can be found in Supplementary Figure 5.

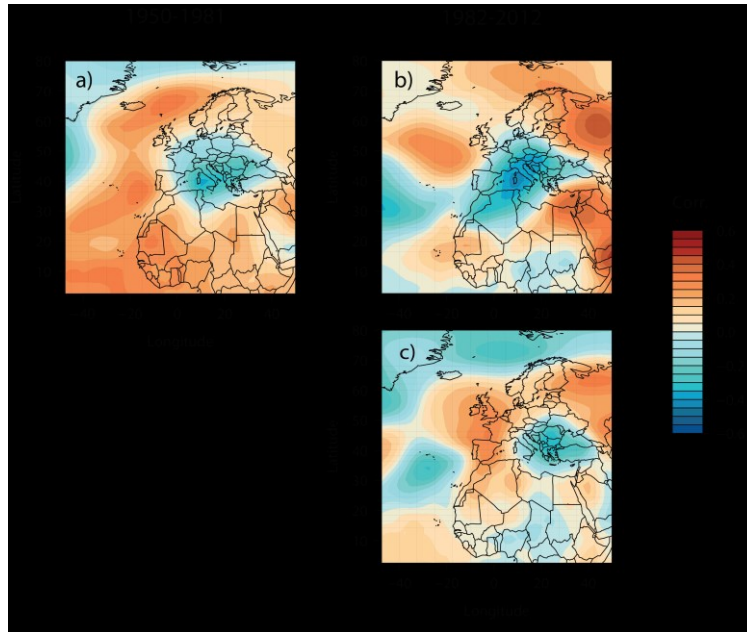
371

372 **The canonical axes related to summer precipitation** reproduced similar canonical patterns as
 373 those described by the analysis with summer temperature. The first pair (Fig. 5g-h)
 374 encapsulated a gradient similar to the first pattern related to summer temperature (Fig. 5 c-d),
 375 with values of TRW anomalies stronger in the central Mediterranean. The second pair of
 376 canonical patterns related to summer precipitation (Fig. 5i-j), which only appeared significant
 377 in the later period, described the same geographical dipole pattern as the second mode related
 378 to temperature (Fig. 5e-f). According to this canonical pattern, summer precipitation

379 positively influenced tree growth at eastern and western sites and no clear effect is observed
380 on the central MB populations. In this climatic configuration, dry summers (detrimental to
381 tree-growth) in the west correspond to favorable years in the east and vice versa.

382 **3.5 Links to atmospheric circulation**

383 The correlation between the TRW canonical time series and the field of geopotential height
384 allowed identifying the atmospheric circulation linked to the canonical patterns of summer
385 temperature and summer precipitation, which are almost identical in most of cases. The link
386 between tree growth and summer climate in the MB was essentially explained by a single
387 mode of atmospheric cyclonic circulation during the first period of study and by two modes
388 during the second period. During the period 1950-81, the leading circulation mode was
389 centred on the MB and linked to higher precipitation and lower temperatures in the Italian
390 peninsula, to northerly advection in the Western Mediterranean and to southerly advection in
391 the Eastern Mediterranean (Fig. 6a). The leading pattern related to summer precipitation
392 represented the same cyclonic circulation as the pattern related to summer temperature
393 (Supplementary Figure 6a). This leading pattern of cyclonic circulation became more
394 pronounced and displaced towards the western MB basin during the period 1982-2012 (Fig.
395 6b; Supplementary Figure 6b). The new (second) geopotential height pattern in the latter
396 period represents cyclonic circulation centered in the eastern half of the basin and linked to
397 higher summer precipitation and lower summer temperatures (Fig. 6c; Supplementary Figure
398 6c).



399

400 **Figure 6.** Spatial patterns of correlations of significant canonical axes with the field of 850mb
 401 geopotential height (NCEP/NCAR). The canonical axes related to tree ring-width (TRW) derived from
 402 the residual analysis (res_CCA) with summer temperature are used. **a)** field correlation of the leading
 403 canonical mode of TRW and summer temperature for the period 1950-1981; **b-c)** field correlation of
 404 the first and second significant canonical modes of TRW and summer temperature for the period
 405 1982-2012, respectively. The spatial patterns of correlations of the significant canonical axes derived
 406 from TRW and summer precipitation can be found in Supporting Information.

407 **4. Discussion**

408 **4.1 Growth of rear-edge deciduous forests at the MB is not increasing**

409 In temperate and boreal forests, rising temperatures and the increasing concentration of
 410 atmospheric CO₂ have been found to stimulate growth (e.g., Salzer et al., 2009; Pretzsch et
 411 al., 2014), most likely due to the lengthening of the growing season (Menzel and Fabian,
 412 1999; Menzel et al., 2006) and the CO₂ fertilization effect (Luo et al., 2006; Huang et al.,
 413 2007; Bonan, 2008; Guiot et al., 2010). However, the potential positive effects of climate
 414 change on tree growth are not so evident at the MB (Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011; Peñuelas et

415 al., 2011). The 21 marginal deciduous populations considered in the present study show a
416 general reduction in growth during the last three decades. Beech stands displayed a decrease
417 in growth more often than oak stands, which can be related to the lower drought tolerance of
418 beech: under drought stress, since oak usually maintains higher stomatal conductance and
419 higher photosynthetic rates than beech (Raftoyannis and Radoglou, 2002; Aranda et al., 2005;
420 Pretzsch et al., 2012). However, and despite these species-specific ecophysiological
421 particularities, the sensitivity of the studied populations to summer climate was found here to
422 be more related to their geographical location than to the tree species.

423 Thus, the results of this study support the hypothesis that site effects prevail over the
424 phylogenetic determinism at the rear-edge populations (see Cook et al., 2001). The position
425 in the east-west gradient within the rear-edge network seemed to be more determinant for tree
426 growth than other geographical features such as altitude. Overall, western populations
427 displayed more significant negative growth trends than eastern populations and these growth
428 trends were mainly confined to the leading mode related to temperature. This indicates that
429 summer temperature might be the main contributor to decreasing long-term growth trends,
430 whereas the contribution of summer precipitation was restricted to interannual-to-decadal
431 variations. However, differences observed in the sign of correlation when comparing
432 canonical patterns with and without long-term trends revealed that some trends were likely
433 not related to summer temperature (i.e., eastern MB populations during the period 1950-
434 1981) and might result from climate variations in a slightly different season from the one
435 considered in this study (i.e., early summer; Piovesan et al., 2005; Di Filippo et al., 2010;
436 Rozas, 2015), or from management activities (growth release as a consequence of tree
437 harvesting).

438 ***4.2 Increasing relevance of summer climate for tree growth***

439 The increase in the variance explained by the canonical analysis **between the two** subperiods
440 evidenced the enhancement of the summer climate influence on tree growth during recent
441 decades (Anderegg et al., 2012; Allen et al., 2015).

442 Summer temperature has been a dominant driver of tree growth during the last six decades,
443 **whereas summer precipitation gained a more prominent role since 1980s, as shown by the**
444 **increase in the explained variance. Furthermore, the similarity of the significant canonical**
445 **axes obtained from the std_CCA and res_CCA also revealed an increased (decreased)**
446 **relevance of interannual and decadal (multidecadal) variations of summer climate in tree**
447 **growth. However, the effect of summer climate at the different locations has changed through**
448 **time. Summer temperature exerted an opposite effect** in eastern (positive) and western
449 (negative) MB **until the 1980s, pointing to high temperature-induced growth limitation in the**
450 **western (Rebetez et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2013; Allen et al., 2015) but not in the eastern**
451 **sites. From 1980 onwards,** summer temperature has generally been detrimental for tree-
452 growth in the rear-edge deciduous forests, concurrent with the higher amount of negative
453 growth trends discussed above. Similarly, summer precipitation has also exerted a polarized
454 influence on tree growth **until the 1980s, positive (negative) on western and central (eastern)**
455 **MB populations. The positive effect of summer precipitation on growth at the central and**
456 **western populations most likely relates to the alleviation effect produced by an increased**
457 **water availability under high summer air temperatures (Farquhar, 1978). However, under a**
458 **non-moisture or temperature limiting context (i.e., eastern MB during 1950-1981), a surplus**
459 **of water can be even counterproductive for tree growth due to the waterlogging-induced soil**
460 **anoxic conditions that affects the mineral nutrition of trees in multiple ways (Kreuzwieser et**
461 **al., 2004; Kreuzwieser and Gessler, 2010) or because several consecutive days of cloudy**
462 **weather can reduce the amount of sunlight available for photosynthesis (Alton, 2008).**

463 The effect of summer precipitation on tree growth has been more spatially variable since
464 1980s, including non-significant effects for some populations. Higher temperatures and more
465 intense drought are known to induce stomata closure at all canopy levels (Sp_1, Aranda et al.,
466 2000), and they may also have forced trees to modify their phenology and start growing
467 earlier in spring (Piovesan et al., 2005; Di Filippo et al., 2010; Shestakova et al., 2016). High
468 temperatures are known to even promote a summer quiescent period in other tree species at
469 the MB (i.e., Gutiérrez et al., 2011), which could explain the unresponsiveness of some sites
470 to summer precipitation.

471 ***4.3 SNAO-like patterns have enhanced geographical differences in summer climate during*** 472 ***recent decades***

473 According to our results, the link between summer climate and tree growth during the last six
474 decades at rear-edge populations in the MB can be largely explained by the main cyclonic
475 circulation patterns related to summer temperature variability described by Xoplaki et al.
476 (2003). The leading pattern correspond to the first canonical mode of Xoplaki et al. (2003)
477 who reported a positive phase of summer air temperature variability associated with blocking
478 conditions, subsidence and stability related to warm Mediterranean summers. A cooling
479 phase pattern was dominant during the period 1950-81 and exerted a prevailing influence on
480 broadleaf forests in Italy, where cyclonic conditions lead to more rain and lower summer
481 temperatures that positively influenced tree growth, and opposite effects in eastern and in
482 western MB forests. In addition, the synoptic maps of correlations of the first significant
483 canonical axes with geopotential height show a spatial coherence with the long-term
484 reconstruction of Mediterranean drought variability (cf. Fig. 6b with Figs. 6-7 in Cook et al.
485 2016), with a north-south antiphasing in the eastern basin that becomes more pronounced in
486 the recent period. This leading pattern of cyclonic circulation became more pronounced in

487 recent decades, but displaced towards the central-western MB basin during the period 1982-
488 2012 where the impact of climate variation was most severe also in terms of forest dieback
489 (e.g. Di Filippo et al. 2010).

490 During recent decades, a new significant geopotential height pattern of North Mediterranean
491 summer climate has appeared, consisting of an east-west seesaw that show a strong similarity
492 to the second circulation pattern described by Xoplaki et al. (2003). This second pattern is
493 linked to lower temperatures and higher precipitation in the eastern MB and northerly air
494 advection in the western Europe including the MB. The east-west polarity observed in tree
495 growth is not due to different climate drivers governing tree growth on eastern and on
496 western MB (e.g., Seim et al., 2015) but to an east-west climate dipole (i.e., when the summer
497 climate is harsher in the western MB, conditions are cooler in the eastern and vice versa).
498 This pattern bears some resemblance to the spatial pattern usually ascribed to the Summer
499 North Atlantic Oscillation (SNAO; Hurrel and Folland, 2002; Folland et al., 2009; see also
500 Supplementary Figure 7) although in our analysis we considered the three summer months
501 and not only July and August as in Folland et al. (2009). However, since the west sector of
502 this dipole includes the Mediterranean SW Europe, an area not reported in other studies (e.g.
503 Trouet et al. 2012), further studies are needed to fully evaluate the role of the SNAO.

504 High SNAO is generally associated with positive (negative) summer temperature anomalies
505 in western (eastern) MB (Folland et al., 2009, see also Supplementary Figure 8) and wetter
506 conditions over southern Europe, particularly in the central and eastern MB (Folland et al.,
507 2009; Bladé et al., 2012a). Thus, under the global warming and during high phases of SNAO,
508 tree growth may be less limited in the eastern than in western MB due to cooler summer
509 temperatures and higher precipitation. Such a dipole pattern might be further enhanced during
510 negative phases of the East-Atlantic pattern (Bastos et al., 2015). The net effect of the SNAO

511 on the central MB (Italian Peninsula) is less distinct, probably due to its location at the
512 interface between western and eastern MB.

513 The strengthening of the relationships between interannual variations of the SNAO-like
514 pattern and tree growth during the last decades is consistent with the reported higher values
515 of the SNAO index since the 1970s compared to previous decades (Folland et al., 2009,
516 Supplementary Figure 8). In fact, the SNAO has become a dominant atmospheric dynamical
517 pattern for summer precipitation during the last three decades, particularly over eastern MB
518 (Bladé et al., 2012a).

519 ***4.4 Implications for forest modelling***

520 Our results show that variability linked to SNAO has gained a larger relevance in regional
521 summer climate leading to an east-west see-saw summer climatic gradient mirrored by the
522 tree response to climate. Although the predicted SNAO trend sign over the 21st century is
523 being debated (Bladé et al., 2012b; Cattiaux et al. 2013; Hanna et al., 2015), the spatially
524 heterogeneous impact of the SNAO implies that under more frequent high SNAO phases, the
525 persistence and survival of marginal deciduous forests may diverge in the future between the
526 western and the central/eastern MB. While western MB may suffer from the combined effect
527 of higher summer temperatures and no increase in summer precipitation, eastern MB forests
528 may benefit from temperatures cooler than in the west and from sustained summer rain that
529 alleviates the evaporative demand. The geographical location of the Italian peninsula in the
530 transition between eastern-western MB hampers an evaluation of SNAO net effects on the
531 forests of this region. Distinguishing the effects due to vapor pressure deficit from those due
532 to drought (water potentials) is difficult, but trees growing under both drought and high
533 temperatures are more prone to die (Adams et al., 2009). Therefore, if the frequency of higher
534 SNAO phases continue in the future as in the recent decades, forests on western MB could be

535 more susceptible to dieback phenomena than forest in eastern MB. Indeed, forest dieback has
536 been more often reported in western and central than eastern MB in recent decades (i.e.,
537 Allen et al., 2010).

538 An accurate prognosis of how the forests will respond to changes in climate at the MB
539 depends to a great extent on the ability of the climate models to simulate future climate
540 trends. However, climate models from the CMIP3 do not reproduce the east-west
541 geographical polarity described by the observational records (Bladé et al., 2012a, 2012b;
542 Kelley et al., 2012; Barkhordarian et al., 2013) and also visible in some long-term
543 paleorecords (i.e., Dermody et al., 2012; Roberts et al., 2012; Mensing et al., 2016). The
544 latest generation of climate models (CMIP5) did not show improvements in this regard
545 (Baker and Huang, 2014). As a consequence, the MB is generally simulated as a homogenous
546 domain instead of showing an east-west pattern of summer climate. The reasons for this
547 contrast of simulations *versus* observations is unclear (i.e., whether climate trends are a result
548 of anthropogenic forcing or multidecadal internal variations). However, the shortcoming in
549 the projections of summer climate changes may propagate into simulations of future species
550 distribution or tree growth that use simulated climate data (i.e., Keenan et al., 2011).

551 Our results also revealed that multidecadal variations were not only related to changes in
552 summer climate and, thus, other factors potentially giving rise to multidecadal variations and
553 long-term growth trends such as climate variation in other seasons or competition among
554 trees, should eventually also be taken into account.

555 Future projections of tree growth and species distribution models in the MB should take into
556 consideration the differences in the regional climate trends as well as the underlying causes.
557 Accurate projections of forest growth are relevant not only as a climate impact but also as a
558 factor contributing to climate change, since changes in forest coverage and species

559 composition may also feed-back onto further altering circulation and precipitation patterns by
560 contributing to changes in temperature and energy gradients (Swann et al., 2012).

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