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1 **Spatiotemporal patterns of tree growth as related to carbon isotope fractionation in**  
2 **European forests under changing climate**

3

4 **Running head:** Ecophysiology of forest growth in Europe

5

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75 assistance.

76 **Abstract**

77 *Aim*

78 To decipher continent-wide spatiotemporal patterns of forest growth dynamics and their  
79 associations with carbon isotope fractionation processes inferred from tree rings as modulated  
80 by climate warming in Europe.

81

82 *Location*

83 Europe and North Africa (30–70°N, 10°W–35°E).

84

85 *Time period*

86 1901–2003.

87

88 *Major taxa studied*

89 Temperate and Euro-Siberian trees.

90

91 *Methods*

92 We characterize changes in the relationship between tree productivity and carbon isotope  
93 fractionation over the 20<sup>th</sup> century using a European network. Using indexed tree-ring widths  
94 ( $TRW_i$ ), we assess shifts in the temporal coherence of radial growth (synchrony) for five forest  
95 ecosystems (Atlantic, Boreal, cold continental, Mediterranean and temperate). We also examine  
96 whether  $TRW_i$  shows increased coupling with leaf-level gas exchange, inferred from indexed  
97 carbon isotope discrimination in tree-ring cellulose ( $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ), through enhanced stomatal  
98 regulation in response to amplified drought stress spreading northwards.

99

100 *Results*

101 We find spatial autocorrelation for  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  extending over up to 1,000 km among forest  
102 stands. However, growth synchrony is not uniform across Europe, but increases along a  
103 latitudinal gradient concurrent with decreasing temperature and evapotranspiration.  
104 Latitudinally-structured relationships between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  (changing from negative to  
105 positive as latitude increased) point to drought impairing carbon uptake via stomatal regulation  
106 of water losses as the main mechanism underlying synchronous forest growth in continental  
107 Europe below 50°N. At the turn of this century, warming-induced effects on leaf physiology  
108 increased synchrony in tree growth among European forests to unprecedented levels over the  
109 last century.

110

111 *Main conclusions*

112 Increased growth synchrony from the first to the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in  
113 Mediterranean, temperate and cold continental forests, together with a tighter relationship  
114 between TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$ , indicate increasing drought effects on productivity across Europe.  
115 Such recent tendency towards exacerbated moisture-sensitive forest growth could override a  
116 positive effect of enhanced leaf intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, resulting in forthcoming  
117 declines in forest carbon gain continent-wide.

118

119

120 **Keywords:** carbon isotopes, climate change, dendroecology, drought stress, European forests,  
121 latitudinal gradients, *Pinus*, *Quercus*, stomatal control, tree rings

## 122 **Introduction**

123 Understanding the physiological mechanisms underlying variations in forest productivity is a  
124 key priority in global change research. Factors such as tree age, forest structure and  
125 management, nutrient availability, pollution and disturbance regimes influence the carbon  
126 budget of forested areas. During the last decades, however, climate change and increased  
127 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (atmCO<sub>2</sub>) have largely altered the growth of natural forests (Nabuurs et al.,  
128 2013). To explore these dynamics, research efforts have been mainly confined to local  
129 ecosystems, with some representative woody species and their interactions examined at small  
130 spatial scales (Pivovarov et al., 2016). This approach is hampered by site-dependent effects and  
131 limited representativeness of environmental conditions. A comprehensive understanding of tree  
132 functioning is urgently needed across broad regions in order to assess the potential and limits  
133 of forest carbon uptake globally (Chown, Gaston, & Robinson, 2004). Through the analysis of  
134 meaningful functional traits (Violle, Reich, Pacala, Enquist, & Kattge, 2014), the interpretation  
135 of spatiotemporal patterns of forest growth variability can provide comprehensive insights into  
136 the environmental responses that may change forest's services for carbon storage in the next  
137 decades (Anderegg et al., 2016).

138 The mechanisms and processes influencing forest productivity are extremely variable  
139 (Gibert, Gray, Westoby, Wright, & Falster, 2016). Despite such complexity, regionally  
140 coherent multispecies responses have been linked to global change effects on forest ecosystems  
141 using tree-ring networks (Babst et al., 2013; Shestakova et al., 2016). Dendroecological studies  
142 rely on the presence of common signals archived in tree populations, which are often derived  
143 from ring-width series reflecting variations in environmental factors (Fritts, 2001).  
144 Alternatively, stable isotopes are proxies of ecophysiological traits that are valuable to assess  
145 plant carbon and water relations at large spatiotemporal scales (Werner et al., 2012; Frank et  
146 al., 2015). In particular, the carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) of tree rings reflect more  
147 directly the complex array of physiological responses to environmental conditions than classical  
148 dendrochronological traits such as ring-width (Treydte et al., 2007; Gessler et al., 2014). The  
149 ratio of the heavy to light carbon isotopes ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) of organic matter depends on factors  
150 affecting CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation, which is mainly controlled by photosynthetic rate ( $A$ ) and stomatal  
151 conductance ( $g_s$ ) (Farquhar, Ehleringer, & Hubick 1989). Hence, the interannual variation in  
152  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  can be evaluated and retrospectively related to leaf-level physiological processes (e.g.,  
153 Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011; Shestakova, Aguilera, Ferrio, Gutiérrez, & Voltas, 2014). This is  
154 especially relevant in temperate forests thriving under near-optimal conditions, where tree  
155 growth patterns may not be informative of climate variability, but stable isotopes have been

156 shown to be sensitive to environmental variables (Hartl-Meier et al., 2015). Indeed, much  
157 complementary information can be gained by analysing carbon isotopes in addition to ring-  
158 widths (Cernusak & English, 2015), which together provide relevant evidence on how trees  
159 respond to climate change and increasing  $\text{atmCO}_2$  (Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011; Saurer et al.,  
160 2014).

161 In drought-prone environments, tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  can be mainly related to the stomatal  
162 control of  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes into the leaf, integrating any environmental variable affecting stomatal  
163 conductance (Gessler et al., 2014). Under such conditions, radial growth and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  are bound  
164 together by two factors: stomatal regulation and water availability. However,  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  is also  
165 affected by changes in photosynthetic activity associated with irradiance, phenology, nutritional  
166 stresses or N deposition when water becomes less limiting (Livingston et al., 1998). By  
167 combining ring-width and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ , information can be gained on the array of tree performances  
168 that underlie biogeographical interactions, as these traits share spatial responses to drought  
169 events (Voelker, Meinzer, Lachenbruch, Brooks, & Guyette, 2014).

170 In the present study, we attempt to characterize the degree of dependence of stem growth  
171 on photosynthetic carbon isotope fractionation across European forests using a unique tree-ring  
172 network (Treydte et al., 2007). So far, only the isotope data of this network have been analysed,  
173 but not radial growth, nor the relationship between the two parameters. We used 20  
174 chronologies from old trees comprising conifers (*Pinus*) and oaks (*Quercus*) spanning the 20<sup>th</sup>  
175 century and ranging from Mediterranean to Boreal latitudes (37°N to 69°N). Indeed, latitudinal  
176 gradients are extremely relevant for the analysis of large-scale patterns of trait variability and  
177 their relationships with ecosystem functioning (Violle et al., 2014). We hypothesise that, on a  
178 continental scale, (i) the temporal coherence of radial growth in forest trees is geographically  
179 structured, with more synchronous growth to be found among cold-limited, high latitude forests  
180 than among drought-prone, low-latitude forests (Shestakova et al., 2016); (ii) these patterns of  
181 synchrony are linked to the relative significance of carbon assimilation and stomatal control on  
182 growth determination, as reflected by relationships between ring-widths and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ ; and (iii)  
183 warming-induced drought stress triggers a tighter stomatal control of water losses which, in  
184 turn, enhances synchrony in low latitude forests owing to more coordinated physiological  
185 reactions to climate. On the basis of the joint analysis of radial growth and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ , the assessment  
186 of spatiotemporal tree responses to environmental changes may improve our understanding of  
187 growth and physiology changes experienced by European forests throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

188  
189



## 190 **Materials and methods**

### 191 *Tree-ring network*

192 We used a tree-ring dataset from the pan-European network ISONET (European Union, EVK2-  
193 2001-00237), which is comprised of 20 sites and provides a comprehensive coverage of the  
194 biogeographic conditions that are found across Europe into northern Africa (Treydte et al.,  
195 2007) (Table 1). Sites consist of old-grown forests (mean age =  $454 \pm 196$  years [SD]) from the  
196 two main genera in Europe (*Pinus* and *Quercus*) plus *Cedrus atlantica* (Morocco). The forests  
197 originate from semiarid (Mediterranean basin), humid temperate (western-central Europe), cold  
198 continental (north-central Europe) and subarctic (Fennoscandia) climates (Table 1). The  
199 sampled trees are temperate (*Quercus petraea*, *Q. robur*) and Euro-Siberian (*Pinus nigra*, *P.*  
200 *sylvestris*, *P. uncinata*) taxa, with sites distributed across most of their climatic ranges (Table 1).  
201 Sampled stands spread along broad latitudinal (from 32°58'N to 68°56'N) and altitudinal (from  
202 5 m to 2,100 m a.s.l.) gradients, with high-elevation sites concentrated in southern Europe.  
203 Conifers are the dominant species in unmanaged cold Boreal or Mediterranean zones (i.e., high-  
204 latitude or high-elevation sites), whereas oaks are mainly found in humid western and central  
205 European lowlands. The distance between sites varies from about 50 km up to 4,500 km.

206 Increment cores were extracted from numerous trees at each site (Table S1), and tree  
207 rings were cross-dated and measured following standard dendrochronological procedures  
208 (Cook & Kairiukstis, 1990). As a proxy for above-ground woody biomass accumulation, basal  
209 area increment (BAI) for each stand was calculated as the bi-weight site mean of BAI of  
210 individual ring-width series. Temporal trends in the BAI chronologies were estimated through  
211 the slope ( $b$ ) of the linear regression of BAI records on time. Indexed tree-ring width ( $TRW_i$ )  
212 and carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ) chronologies were obtained by high-pass filtering  
213 and autocorrelation removal (see Appendix 1 in Supporting Information). Details on tree-ring  
214 network characteristics can be found in Appendix 2. The indexed ring-width and isotope  
215 chronologies were used as input for statistical analyses. The study period was 1901–2003.

216

### 217 *Analysis of spatial variability of tree growth*

#### 218 Spatial structure of tree-ring traits and climatic signals across Europe

219 The temporal coherence of tree-ring signals ( $TRW_i$ ,  $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ) among sites was characterized to  
220 determine how far such coherence extends over Europe. To this end, correlation coefficients ( $r$ )  
221 between pairs of chronologies, calculated over the period 1901–2003, were regressed on their  
222 geographic distance using a negative exponential function for both  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$ . The  
223 modified correlogram technique (Koenig & Knops, 1998) was also employed to characterize

224 the spatial autocorrelations in the network. To this end, the statistical significance of the  
225 pairwise correlations among chronologies was calculated within classes located 500 km apart.  
226 Chronologies located farther than 2,500 km apart were combined into a single class. Hence, six  
227 classes were defined ranging from <500 to >2,500 km. To evaluate the geographic extent of  
228 synchrony in climate factors, the same analysis was performed for mean annual temperature  
229 and precipitation.

230

### 231 Temporal coherence of ring-width signals

232 The investigation of common  $TRW_i$  variability among chronologies (growth synchrony,  $\hat{a}$ ) was  
233 performed through variance-covariance (VCOV) modelling following Shestakova et al. (2014,  
234 2018) (Appendix 3.1). This approach is suited to test the presence of contrasting tree-ring  
235 patterns in pre-established groups of chronologies, where particular groups can be defined  
236 based on existing knowledge (Shestakova et al., 2018). Here, the 20 chronologies were  
237 classified into four groups according to membership to a particular climate type following the  
238 Köppen climate classification (Köppen & Geiger, 1936): Boreal (*Dfc*), cold continental (*Dfb*),  
239 humid temperate (*Cfb*) and Mediterranean (*Csb*) (Table 1). In turn, the humid temperate climate  
240 was split into Atlantic (for western Europe chronologies) and temperate (for central Europe  
241 chronologies) types. These two groups originated as the result of constraining the maximum  
242 distance among sites at the group level to 1,000 km (i.e., the spatial range of coherent tree-ring  
243 signals as inferred from correlograms). Therefore, five different groups were defined. Each  
244 group consisted of a number of neighbouring forest stands ( $\geq 3$ ) that ensured a solution to mixed  
245 model estimates.

246 A number of variance-covariance (VCOV) models accommodating between- and  
247 within-group variability were tested and compared using Akaike and Bayesian information  
248 criteria for model selection, which favour parsimonious models (Burnham & Anderson, 2002).  
249 The VCOV models were broad evaluation (denoting common synchrony across groups),  
250 narrow evaluation (corresponding to a banded main diagonal matrix denoting perfect  
251 asynchrony between groups), unstructured (a completely general covariance matrix),  
252 compound symmetry (a matrix having constant variance and covariance) and variants of a  
253 Toeplitz structure (a matrix allowing for different (co)variances depending on the relative  
254 proximity or neighbourhood among groups). These models are described in detail in Table S2.  
255 Afterwards, estimates of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) were derived using the best VCOV model for  
256 the entire period (1901–2003) (Shestakova et al., 2018). The evolution of changes in  $\hat{a}$  was also  
257 studied for successive 50-year segments lagged one year by fitting the same VCOV models.

258 The best fitting model was independently selected for each segment. This was done to  
259 characterise shifts in common  $TRW_i$  variability over time potentially related to instability in  
260 the relationship between tree growth and climate factors at the high-frequency domain.  
261 Significant trends were determined by using the non-parametric Kendall  $\tau$  rank correlation  
262 coefficient.

263

#### 264 Relationships between radial growth and carbon isotope discrimination

265 The temporal (yearly) association between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  (hereafter,  $r_Y$ ) was investigated at  
266 the group level through a bivariate mixed-effects model (Appendix 3.2) (Shestakova et al.,  
267 2017). Broadly speaking, this approach estimates the extent by which  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ,  
268 measured on the same set of chronologies, contain overlapping information as a result of plant  
269 processes related to carbon uptake and water use. Hence, the relevance of a physiological  
270 attribute ( $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ) as determinant of regional forest growth is quantified by estimating how much  
271 of  $TRW_i$  variability across chronologies is associated with the variability of isotopic records.  
272 We argue that this quantification is relevant for studying the variable role of a putative  
273 physiological tracer of productivity across large areas. The bivariate analysis was performed  
274 for the entire period (1901–2003). We also evaluated the changes in  $r_Y$  between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$   
275 chronologies for successive 50-year segments lagged one year.

276

#### 277 *Meteorological data*

278 Monthly mean temperature, precipitation and potential evapotranspiration were used for  
279 climate characterization. Meteorological variables were obtained from the nearest grid point to  
280 each site of the high-resolution climate dataset (Climatic Research Unit, CRU TS 3.21; Harris,  
281 Jones, Osborn, & Lister, 2014). CRU provides climate series on a  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  grid-box basis,  
282 interpolated from meteorological stations across the globe, and extends back to 1901. However,  
283 it should be noted that climate data mainly originate from low-elevation stations. This leads to  
284 remarkable differences in elevation between stations and sampling sites in mountainous  
285 Mediterranean areas. To account for this discrepancy, we applied lapse rate adjustments to the  
286 CRU dataset for the Mediterranean sites ( $<45^\circ N$ ) following Gandullo (1994). Potential  
287 evapotranspiration was estimated from CRU records using the Hargreaves method (Hargreaves  
288 & Samani, 1982).

289 Bootstrapped correlations between  $TRW_i$  or  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  chronologies and monthly  
290 temperature, precipitation and the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI3,  
291 a 3-month integrated drought index; Vicente-Serrano, Beguería, & López-Moreno, 2010) were

292 computed over the period 1901–2003 to examine site-specific responses to climate. To assess  
293 the temporal stability of these responses, the same analysis was conducted for the split 1901–  
294 1950 and 1951–2003 periods. To ensure that results were driven by local climate rather than by  
295 long-term trends (e.g., global warming), the climatic series exhibiting a linear trend over time  
296 were detrended by fitting a straight line and keeping the residuals of these linear fits or,  
297 otherwise, simply differencing from the mean. Climate relationships were analysed from the  
298 previous October to the current September of tree-ring formation.

299

### 300 *Analysis of biogeographical patterns of tree performance*

301 To characterize the spatial patterns of tree growth and its dependence on  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ , changes in  
302 growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) and in the relationship between  $\text{TRW}_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  ( $r_Y$ ) were evaluated as a  
303 function of biophysical variables through simple correlations. We used geographic (latitude,  
304 longitude and elevation) and climatic records (mean annual temperature [MAT], mean annual  
305 precipitation [MAP] and potential evapotranspiration [PET]; period 1901–2003) averaged  
306 across sites for every group. It should be noted that climatic records in the network strongly  
307 depended on geographic location: MAT decreased linearly with increasing latitude ( $r = -0.61$ ,  
308  $P < 0.01$ ) and longitude (or distance inland from the Atlantic Sea) ( $r = -0.50$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), but it  
309 was not related to elevation. Similarly, PET was negatively related to latitude ( $r = -0.84$ ,  
310  $P < 0.001$ ) and longitude ( $r = -0.58$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), and positively to elevation ( $r = 0.45$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ).  
311 MAP was also positively related to elevation ( $r = 0.45$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). The stability of these  
312 relationships was assessed through correlation analysis for the split 1901–1950 and 1951–2003  
313 periods.

314

## 315 **Results**

### 316 *Site-level growth trends and responses to climate*

317 Eleven sites showed positive BAI trends and one site showed a negative BAI trend (slope  $b$ ,  
318  $P < 0.05$ ) for the period 1901–2003, while no significant trend was detected for seven sites  
319 (Table 1). Growth acceleration was observed at all oak sites and at three pine sites from mid  
320 and high latitudes, whereas growth significantly declined in a Mediterranean site. High summer  
321 temperatures enhanced growth in Fennoscandia, whereas summer drought often constrained  
322 growth at central and southern latitudes (as indicated by negative correlations with summer  
323 temperature and positive correlations with summer precipitation and SPEI3) (Fig. S1a–c). In  
324 addition, the positive growth responses to high winter temperatures observed at some mid- and  
325 low-latitude sites suggested co-limitation by cold winters and dry summers. In comparison,

326 more clear-cut climate signals were shared by  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  records, which were especially associated  
327 with summer temperatures (negatively) and summer precipitation and SPEI3 (positively)  
328 (Fig. S1d–f).

329

### 330 *Spatial consistency of tree-ring signals*

331 Naturally, the correlations between pairs of chronologies for  $\text{TRW}_i$  decreased with increasing  
332 distance between sites. This effect accounted for 29% variability of inter-site correlation  
333 coefficients if subject to exponential decay (Fig. 1a). The highest correlations were found  
334 between *Quercus* stands from central Europe and between *Pinus* stands from north-eastern  
335 Europe ( $r \geq 0.30$ ). Significant spatial autocorrelation was recorded up to 1,000 km, with a mean  
336 correlation of 0.22 and 0.12 for sites within distances of 0–500 and 501–1,000 km, respectively  
337 (Fig. 1c). A Principal Component Analysis performed on  $\text{TRW}_i$  returned five principal  
338 components (PCs) that accounted for 50% of the total variance. The first PC, which explained  
339 12.9% of variance, had positive loadings for all chronologies, except for one Iberian site with  
340 *P. sylvestris* and the Moroccan site with *C. atlantica* (Fig. S2). The highest PC1 loadings  
341 corresponded to western and central European chronologies, indicating larger growth  
342 similarities compared to peripheral chronologies, located farther away from each other. The  
343 second PC, which explained 11.0% of variance, was also related to the geographic location of  
344 chronologies: positive PC2 loadings corresponded to south-western chronologies, while north-  
345 eastern chronologies had negative loadings (Fig. S2). The remaining three PCs accounted for  
346 <10% of variance and showed mixed spatial signals, indicating species-specific differences and  
347 the influence of local conditions on tree growth.

348 For  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  chronologies, we found an exponential decrease in coherence with distance  
349 between chronology pairs accounting for 28% variability of inter-site correlation coefficients  
350 (Fig. 1b). Significant spatial autocorrelations were recorded up to 1,000 km (Fig. 1d). Similarly,  
351 the analysis of spatial autocorrelation in climate parameters revealed that the common signal  
352 declined with distance (Fig. S3a,b) and extended >2,500 km for MAT (linear function) and up  
353 to 1,000 km for MAP (decay function) (Fig. S3c,d). There was also a significant negative  
354 association between the most distant sites (>2,500 km) for MAP.

355

### 356 *Tree growth synchrony across Europe*

357 The five climate groups identified across the network consisted of three to five chronologies  
358 sharing temporal growth patterns (Fig. 2). A heterogeneous Toeplitz with two bands was the  
359 best model for the period 1901–2003, indicating covariation between neighbouring groups only

360 (Table S3). Growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) varied considerably among groups, ranging from  $0.06 \pm 0.01$   
361 (Mediterranean) to  $0.36 \pm 0.06$  (Boreal) (mean  $\pm$  SE) (Fig. 3a). The  $\hat{a}$  values were unrelated to  
362 the average distance between sites at the group level, with groups showing the lowest and  
363 highest  $\hat{a}$  having inter-site distances of  $785 \pm 118$  km and  $913 \pm 119$  km (mean  $\pm$  SE),  
364 respectively. In addition, the variable number of chronologies at the group level did not  
365 influence  $\hat{a}$ . At the between-group level, the highest  $\hat{a}$  was found between Boreal and cold  
366 continental forests ( $0.11 \pm 0.02$ ), with progressively decreasing common signals between  
367 neighbours observed southwards (Fig. 3b).

368 Differences in synchrony among groups were geographically structured and related to  
369 latitude ( $r = 0.96$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and longitude ( $r = 0.89$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), but not to elevation (Fig. S4). At  
370 the site level, however, there were strong associations between latitude and longitude ( $r = 0.65$ ,  
371  $P < 0.01$ ), latitude and elevation ( $r = -0.59$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), and longitude and elevation ( $r = -0.44$ ,  
372  $P < 0.10$ ). To check for geographic consistency in these synchrony gradients across Europe, we  
373 examined an independent, larger dataset of ring-width chronologies obtained from the  
374 International Tree-Ring Data Bank (Grissino-Mayer & Fritts, 1997) having the same species  
375 representation ( $n = 80$ ; 52 *Pinus* chronologies and 28 *Quercus* chronologies) (Appendix 4). In  
376 this case, we also detected a strong latitudinal gradient in  $\hat{a}$  (Fig. S5). Consequently, we  
377 assumed that this trend was essentially independent of the particular tree-ring network under  
378 consideration. The observed geographic gradient in growth synchrony was also analysed in  
379 relation to the potential climatic drivers of forest performance across Europe. Notably, climate  
380 variables explained most geographic variation in  $\hat{a}$  among groups (Fig. S6). We found strong  
381 negative relationships between  $\hat{a}$  and PET, followed by MAP and MAT, which are consistent  
382 with a gradual decrease in evapotranspirative demand and temperature with increasing latitude.

383

#### 384 *Temporal changes in growth synchrony*

385 The synchrony patterns changed markedly across Europe over the 20<sup>th</sup> century.  $\hat{a}$  increased at  
386 low and mid latitudes (i.e., in Atlantic, Mediterranean and temperate forests), whereas it  
387 decreased at high latitudes (especially in Boreal, but also in cold continental forests) (Fig. 4a).  
388 Such divergent geographic trends weakened the relation between  $\hat{a}$  and biogeographic factors,  
389 resulting in less geographically- and climatically-dependent  $\hat{a}$  values across the continent after  
390 1950 (Fig. S4, S6). At the between-group level, different trends were observed depending on  
391 the particular group combination. For neighbouring groups, we found a substantial decrease in  
392 synchrony between Boreal and cold continental forests, whereas synchrony remained steady or  
393 increased for other group combinations (Fig. 4b). A modest, albeit sizeable common signal

394 emerged among the more geographically distant group pairs after 1960 ( $\hat{a} \approx 0.05-0.10$ ) (Fig. 4c).  
395 In fact, synchrony among forest types strongly converged across Europe in the second half of  
396 the century. In contrast, we did not find changes in synchrony patterns of climate parameters  
397 (MAT, MAP) throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century (results not shown). This led us to discard the  
398 possibility that the observed changes in growth synchrony had been driven by concomitant  
399 fluctuations in synchrony of climate factors.

400

#### 401 *Tree growth patterns as related to isotopic signals*

402 The temporal variability shared by TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  ( $r_Y$ ) was investigated at the group level. We  
403 found very different, geographically-structured relationships between these traits. The  
404 association was mainly positive (for Atlantic, cold-continental and temperate forests) or very  
405 positive (for Mediterranean forests), being significantly negative for Boreal forests (Fig. 5),  
406 hence following a latitudinal gradient ( $r = -0.96$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. S7). Conversely,  $r_Y$  was non-  
407 significant for neither longitude nor elevation (Fig. S7). In addition,  $r_Y$  was correlated to climate  
408 variables at the group level, with the strongest positive association found for both PET and  
409 MAP (Fig. S8).

410 The association between TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  changed markedly across Europe throughout  
411 the 20<sup>th</sup> century.  $r_Y$  turned from negative to non-significant in Boreal forests, and changed from  
412 non-significant to positive in cold-continental (recently), temperate and Mediterranean forests  
413 (Fig. 6). As a result, TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  mainly became positively related across Europe. The  
414 latitudinal pattern of  $r_Y$  was also stronger in the second than in the first half of the century  
415 (Fig. S7). This relationship became more dependent on PET after 1950 (Fig. S8).

416

#### 417 **Discussion**

418 This study yields evidence for geographically-structured patterns of forest growth and its  
419 associations with carbon isotope fractionation processes across Europe. Common tree growth  
420 and physiology were shared by stands spread up to 1,000 km. This outcome provides a general  
421 indication on the geographical extent by which climate factors influence tree performance  
422 continent-wide; indeed, no other environmental driver is likely to act on the same spatial scale  
423 at the high-frequency domain (Fritts, 2001).

424

#### 425 *Geographic structure and climatic controls of tree-ring signals in European forests*

426 Differential growth responses to climate were evident across the network, with temperature-  
427 sensitive growth at northern latitudes, precipitation-sensitive growth at central-southern

428 latitudes, and mixed signals in temperate and high-elevation European forests (Babst et al.,  
429 2013). Conversely, the extent of common climate signals present in carbon isotopes suggests a  
430 tight stomatal control of water losses and, indirectly, photosynthetic activity during summer  
431 across most of Europe (Cullen, Adams, Anderson, & Grierson, 2008). These results suggest a  
432 partial de-coupling between leaf- and stem-level processes (Jucker et al., 2017). They are  
433 consistent with current evidence supporting that carbon allocation patterns change with  
434 increasing temperature and this change varies between tree species from different biomes and  
435 functional groups (Way & Oren, 2010). Details on the nature and magnitude of carbon isotope  
436 signals across the network have been reported by Treydte et al. (2007).

437

### 438 *Interpreting ring-width patterns continent-wide*

439 Our results show a marked geographical organization of 20<sup>th</sup>-century growth patterns across  
440 Europe. The most conspicuous changes in synchronous tree growth occurred along a north–  
441 south gradient, with  $\hat{a}$  increasing northwards concurrent with a thermal gradient of decreasing  
442 temperature and reduced evapotranspiration (Babst et al., 2013). This agrees with our  
443 hypothesis of more synchronous growth in cold-limited, high-latitude forests owing to the  
444 greater spatial homogeneity of temperature effects on tree growth in northern Europe (Düthorn,  
445 Schneider, Günther, Gläser, & Esper, 2016). It contrasts with the more geographically complex  
446 drought events occurring in central and southern Europe (Orlowsky & Seneviratne, 2014),  
447 hence resulting in substantially less synchronous growth patterns (Shestakova et al., 2016).

448 Notably,  $\hat{a}$  increased after 1950 except in Fennoscandia, which weakened the northward  
449 trend of enhanced synchrony observed during the preceding period. This outcome suggests  
450 warming-induced climatic forcing spreading across central and southern Europe, irrespective  
451 of species and local site conditions, thus enhancing synchrony through common tree sensitivity  
452 to such emergent exogenous factor (Fig. S9). It is in line with previous findings on recent high-  
453 frequency adjustments of ring-width patterns in response to amplified drought effects on growth  
454 in temperate and semiarid regions (Latte, Lebourgeois, & Claessens, 2015; Shestakova et al.,  
455 2016). In contrast, climate warming would progressively mitigate low-temperature constraints  
456 on tree performance occurring in Boreal forests (Düthorn et al., 2016). This leads to an  
457 increasing importance of local (stand-level) effects on tree growth over time, hence triggering  
458 regional asynchrony (but see Shestakova et al., 2016). We interpret these phenomena as a sign  
459 of increasing drought effects on forest growth dynamics expanding northwards across Europe,  
460 which are concurrent with temperature trends across the study area (+0.15 to +0.35°C decade<sup>-1</sup>  
461 between 1960 and 2015) (EEA, 2016).



462

463 *Carbon isotope fractionation relates to spatial patterns of forest growth in Europe*

464 We investigated the physiological mechanisms underlying geographically-structured temporal  
465 growth variability through bivariate random-effects modelling of the common temporal signal  
466 present in  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$ . This approach is appropriate for investigating exogenous constraints  
467 on forest growth and physiology acting over large (continental) climate gradients, because site-  
468 level impacts on tree-ring traits (e.g., differential management, competition, soil depth and  
469 fertility, etc.) are set aside explicitly from the analysis.

470 The positive relationships between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  at low and mid latitudes suggest  
471 that stomatal limitation of leaf carbon assimilation is a key mechanism controlling tree growth  
472 synchrony south of 50°N in Europe (Fig. 5). Therefore, leaf-level physiology and tree growth  
473 are driven, to a relevant extent, by water stress at about half of the study area (including e.g.,  
474 France, Austria and south of Germany and Poland) during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Conversely, the  
475 negative relationship between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  in Fennoscandia indicates that photosynthesis  
476 was constrained by low temperatures/sunshine hours (Gagen et al., 2011). At cool, moist sites  
477 the main control over water-use efficiency is assimilation rate, which can be limited by either  
478 enzyme activity (photon flux) or enzyme production (leaf temperature or nitrogen availability).  
479 These limitations would increase  $\Delta^{13}C$  at the expense of decreased carbon uptake, hence  
480 reducing radial growth. Although our results must be weighed against the limited spatial  
481 representativeness of the sampling network, they allow delineating broad geographical trends  
482 that so far have been difficult to ascertain continent-wide, partly due to the unsystematic and  
483 sparse nature of data collection (Saurer et al., 2014). Besides, the observed trends agree with  
484 previous studies performed across smaller areas showing strong positive ring-width vs.  $\Delta^{13}C$   
485 correlations for trees growing under water-limited conditions, but weak correlations at wetter  
486 and colder sites (Voelker et al., 2014; del Castillo, Voltas, & Ferrio, 2015).

487

488 *Strengthening of  $\Delta^{13}C$ -growth relationships in response to climate change*

489 The geographical structure of tree growth relationships with carbon isotope fractionation  
490 processes varied during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Alongside the increase in growth synchrony observed  
491 at the temperate, cold-continental and Mediterranean groups, a change from non-significant to  
492 positive correlations suggests intensified drought impacts on tree physiology since 1950 (Saurer  
493 et al., 2014). Such warming-induced drought effects influencing stomatal regulation have been  
494 shown insufficient to decrease 20<sup>th</sup>-century transpiration, as alternative factors (e.g., lengthened  
495 growing seasons or increased leaf area) counterbalance the impacts of leaf-level gas exchange

496 processes on whole-tree physiology (Frank et al., 2015). Indeed, we found evidence of growth  
497 enhancement across Europe, but mainly in oaks originating from moist temperate climates in  
498 low-elevation stands. For conifers, growth stimulation was observed in some of the cold-limited  
499 sites, while growth decline was found in drought-constrained Mediterranean mountains. In  
500 high-latitude and high-elevation sites, the increasing growth trend could be produced by a raise  
501 in photosynthetic rates, which is likely driven by a combination of rising CO<sub>2</sub>, temperature and  
502 surface radiation. However, drought stress seems to override a positive effect of enhanced leaf  
503 intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the Mediterranean region, resulting in no change or decline  
504 in productivity (Andreu-Hayles et al., 2011).

505 In Fennoscandia, the negative ring-width dependence on  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  vanished after 1950,  
506 which suggests that an earlier photosynthetic limitation of growth driven by low temperatures,  
507 high cloudiness or both factors has attenuated in recent decades. In the western Mediterranean,  
508 this dependence changed abruptly from zero to nearly one after 1970. Previously, growth  
509 synchrony among the group chronologies was absent, rendering a null signal shared by ring-  
510 width and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ . After 1950, a common growth signal was low but relevant: this signal was  
511 essentially related to  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  fluctuations, resulting in a highly positive correlation. Although this  
512 correlation implies a tight stomatal control of common radial growth in high-mountain  
513 Mediterranean forests, the limited number of chronologies and the sudden change in tree  
514 performance between periods might question this interpretation. A recent study carried out in  
515 Iberian mountain forests allows the downscaling of our results to a local area (Shestakova et  
516 al., 2017). These authors reported that multispecies tree growth at about 1,500 m is more  
517 dependent on a tighter stomatal control of water losses (inferred from  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) since the 1980s,  
518 hence resembling lower elevation stands. These results reinforce our view, although more data  
519 supporting this evidence are still needed on a regional scale. Unfortunately, studies on long-  
520 term shifts in radial growth related to switches of the main environmental limitations to  
521 photosynthetic carbon gain are still scarce (Voelker et al., 2014).

522 To conclude, we have reported forest shifts from temperature- to moisture-sensitive  
523 growth spreading northwards continent-wide and associated to latitudinal changes in tree  
524 dependence on carbon isotope fractionation processes. Leaf-level physiology and radial growth  
525 of trees are ultimately linked via carbon allocation strategies. Common signals imprinted in  
526 ring-width and stable isotopes have been broadly reported, either along geographical gradients  
527 (i.e., phenotypic plasticity; del Castillo et al., 2015), over time (i.e., temporal covariation;  
528 Voelker et al., 2014; Shestakova et al., 2017; this work) or at the intraspecific level (i.e., genetic  
529 correlation; Fardusi et al., 2016). These evidences support (direct or indirect) effects of carbon

530 uptake processes on above-ground growth. On the other hand, carbohydrates are used for  
531 various other processes than growth (e.g., maintenance, respiration, reproduction) and carbon  
532 availability is seldom considered to limit tree growth (Palacio, Hoch, Sala, Körner, & Millard,  
533 2014; but see Wiley & Helliker, 2012), which suggests that the relationship between  
534 productivity and stable isotopes may not be straightforward (Jucker et al., 2017). Alternative  
535 physiological mechanisms related to above-ground growth may interact with photosynthetic  
536 processes; for example, a critical turgor disrupting cell growth or the appearance of hydraulic  
537 constraints under drought (Sperry, 2000), or the weakening of meristematic growth under low  
538 temperatures (Rossi et al., 2016). These mechanisms would need to be carefully assessed  
539 against stable isotope signals.

540         Together with climate change, the increasing  $\text{atmCO}_2$  may have played a role in the  
541 observed shift in growth synchrony and the stronger relation between  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\text{TRW}_i$ .  
542 Disentangling the relative effects of climate and  $\text{CO}_2$  fertilization on spatially structured tree-  
543 ring information is challenging because both low- and high-frequency signals overlap  
544 impacting on tree physiology, carbon allocation and above- and below-ground growth.  
545 Additional factors interacting with climate change and  $\text{atmCO}_2$  such as increasing nutrient  
546 limitations (Jonard et al., 2015) or atmospheric deposition (de Vries, Dobbertin, Solberg, van  
547 Dobben, & Schaub, 2014) should also be considered. A previous study on the same tree-ring  
548 network demonstrated that  $\text{CO}_2$  fertilization has increased water-use efficiency of European  
549 forests in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Saurer et al., 2014). However, these increments were not spatially  
550 uniform and, notably, the strongest increase was reported in response to summer drought for  
551 temperate forests in central Europe, an area in which we observe large increases in growth  
552 synchrony. These findings definitely point to an increasing impact of water stress spreading  
553 northwards across European forests. Therefore, this research demonstrates that broad-scale  
554 climatic variation jointly influences tree ecophysiology and productivity in previously  
555 unrecognized ways, and sheds more light on the ecological implications of ecosystem  
556 functioning under the new climate conditions.

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729

### 730 **Data Accessibility Statement**

731 The tree-ring data used in this study are available upon request from the authors. Contact Emilia  
732 Gutiérrez ([emgutierrez@ub.edu](mailto:emgutierrez@ub.edu)) for ring-width chronologies and Gerhard Helle ([ghelle@gfz-](mailto:ghelle@gfz-potsdam.de)  
733 [potsdam.de](http://gfz-potsdam.de)) for carbon isotope records.

734

### 735 **Biosketch**

736 Tatiana A. Shestakova is a post-doctoral researcher at the Woods Hole Research Center,  
737 Falmouth, MA (USA). Her research interests include dendroecology, stable isotope  
738 biogeochemistry and climate change impacts on natural forest ecosystem. Particularly, she  
739 works on designing efficient inference tools and algorithms based on mixed modelling  
740 principles to understand the processes underlying the complexity and diversity in tree response  
741 patterns to environmental forcing and how these patterns are spatially structured across  
742 biogeographical gradients.

743

744 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

745

746 Figure 1. Spatial patterns of indexed tree-ring traits across Europe for the period 1901–2003:  
747 **(a, c)** indexed tree-ring width (TRW<sub>i</sub>), **(b, d)** indexed carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$ ).  
748 *(Left panels)* Pairwise correlations of tree-ring chronologies as a function of geographical  
749 distance. The patterns are summarized by regressing the correlation coefficients ( $r$  values)  
750 involving pairs of chronologies ( $y$ -axis) on their corresponding distance ( $x$ -axis) by using  
751 negative exponential functions ( $y = be^{-cx}$ ). Different dot colors indicate pairwise correlations  
752 within and between functional groups as follows: conifers (green), oaks (orange), and mixed  
753 conifer–oak (blue). Asterisks after the coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) indicate level of  
754 significance ( $***P < 0.001$ ). *(Right panels)* Spatial structure of tree-ring traits across European  
755 forests. The spatial autocorrelation in the tree-ring network was characterized for six  
756 consecutive distance classes (listed on the  $x$ -axis). Mean  $r$  values and their statistical  
757 significance ( $P$ ) within each distance class were estimated from 1,000 randomizations.  
758 Significant correlation coefficients ( $P < 0.05$ ) are indicated by an asterisk.

759

760 Figure 2. Geographical distribution of sites, definition of groups of chronologies and synchrony  
761 in radial growth at group level. Each dot identifies a chronology ( $n \geq 20$  trees) according to the  
762 codes shown in Table 1 (oak codes are shown in italics). Each colored encircled area identifies  
763 a group of chronologies belonging to a particular climate type (see Table 1) that are separated  
764 in pairs up to 1,000 km (see Fig. 1d for the distance threshold where significant radial growth  
765 patterns are shared among chronologies). The corresponding growth synchrony at the group  
766 level ( $\hat{a}$ ) is shown within a rectangle. At least three neighbouring sites form a group (total  
767 number of groups,  $n = 5$ ).  $\hat{a}$  values are estimated using indexed ring-width chronologies for the  
768 period 1901–2003 as described in Appendix 3.1 (Supporting Information).

769

770 Figure 3. Growth synchrony across Europe. Patterns of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) at the within-  
771 group level for the entire period 1901–2003 **(a)**. Patterns of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) at the  
772 between-group level for the entire period 1901–2003 **(b)**. All calculations are based on indexed  
773 ring-width chronologies. Groups sorted latitudinally from north to south. Error bars denote  
774 standard errors.

775

776 Figure 4. Temporal trends in growth synchrony at within- and between-group levels for the  
777 period 1901–2003. Growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) is estimated for 50-year periods lagged by 5 year

778 following Eqs. 5 and 6 as described in Appendix 3.1 (Supporting Information). All calculations  
779 are based on indexed ring-width ( $TRW_i$ ) chronologies. For the sake of visual clarity, the  
780 estimates of  $\hat{a}$  are represented separately for pairs of chronologies belonging to the same group  
781 (i.e., within-group level) **(a)**, and for pairs of chronologies belonging to different groups (i.e.,  
782 between-group level) for neighbouring **(b)** and non-neighbouring chronologies **(c)**. Grey lines  
783 denote the SE. Note the change in scale of the Y-axis between panels.

784

785 Figure 5. Geographical patterns of the relationship between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  chronologies  
786 across Europe. The correlations at the group level ( $r_Y$ ) are estimated for the entire period 1901–  
787 2003. Significant associations are depicted with an asterisk ( $P < 0.10$ ). Error bars denote  
788 standard errors.

789

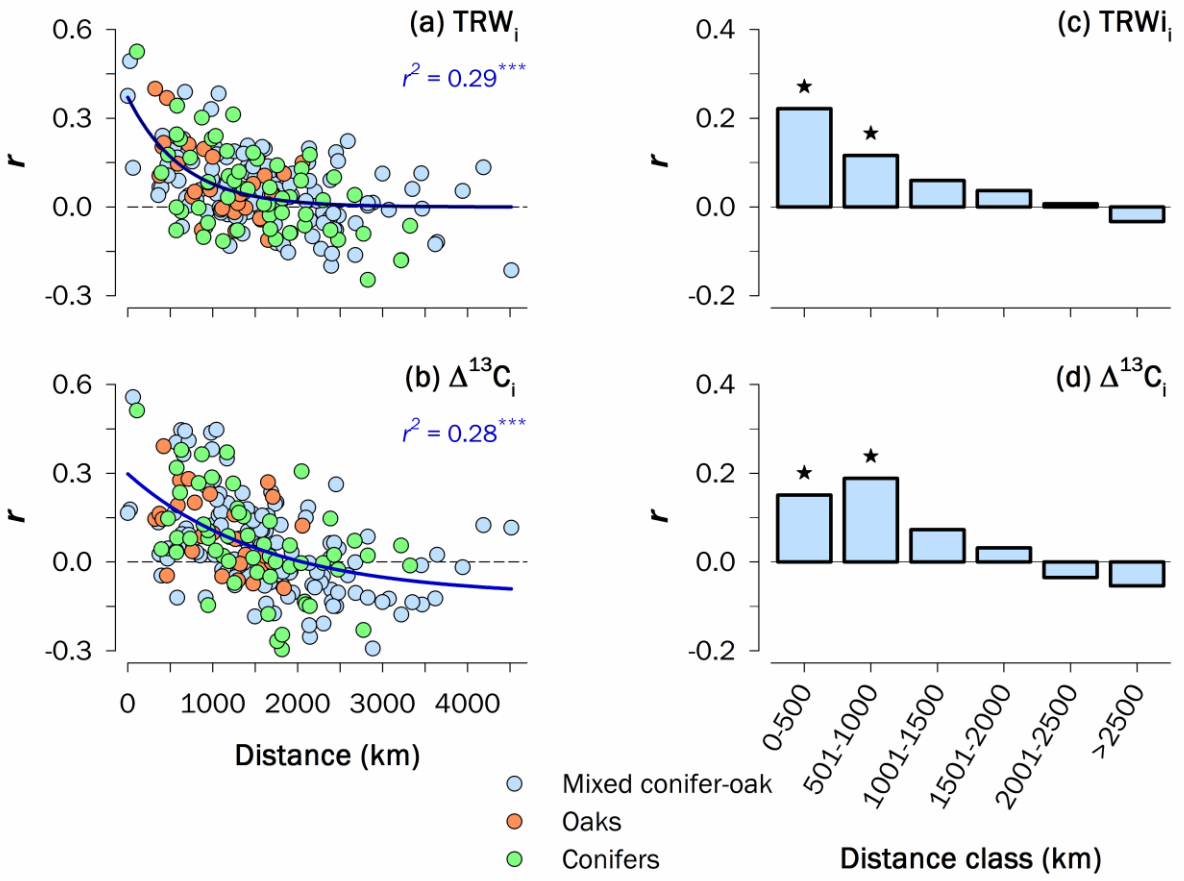
790 Figure 6. Temporal trends in associations between  $TRW_i$  and  $\Delta^{13}C_i$  chronologies at the group  
791 level for the period 1901–2003. The correlations ( $r_Y$ ) are estimated for 50-year periods lagged  
792 by 5 year following Eq. 7 as described in Appendix 3.2 (Supporting Information). All  
793 calculations are based on indexed ring-width ( $TRW_i$ ) and carbon isotope ( $\Delta^{13}C_i$ ) chronologies.  
794 Grey lines denote the SE of  $r_Y$ . Significant correlations (correlation coefficients with 90%  
795 confidence intervals not embracing zero) are depicted as filled dots.

796

797 **Table 1.** Geographical features and climatic characteristics of the sampling sites. Sites are sorted latitudinally  
798 Climate parameters were obtained based on CRU TS 3.21 data over the period 1901–2003. See Meteorological  
799 Methods for details. Climate types were estimated using the Köppen classification (Köppen & Geiger, 1936).

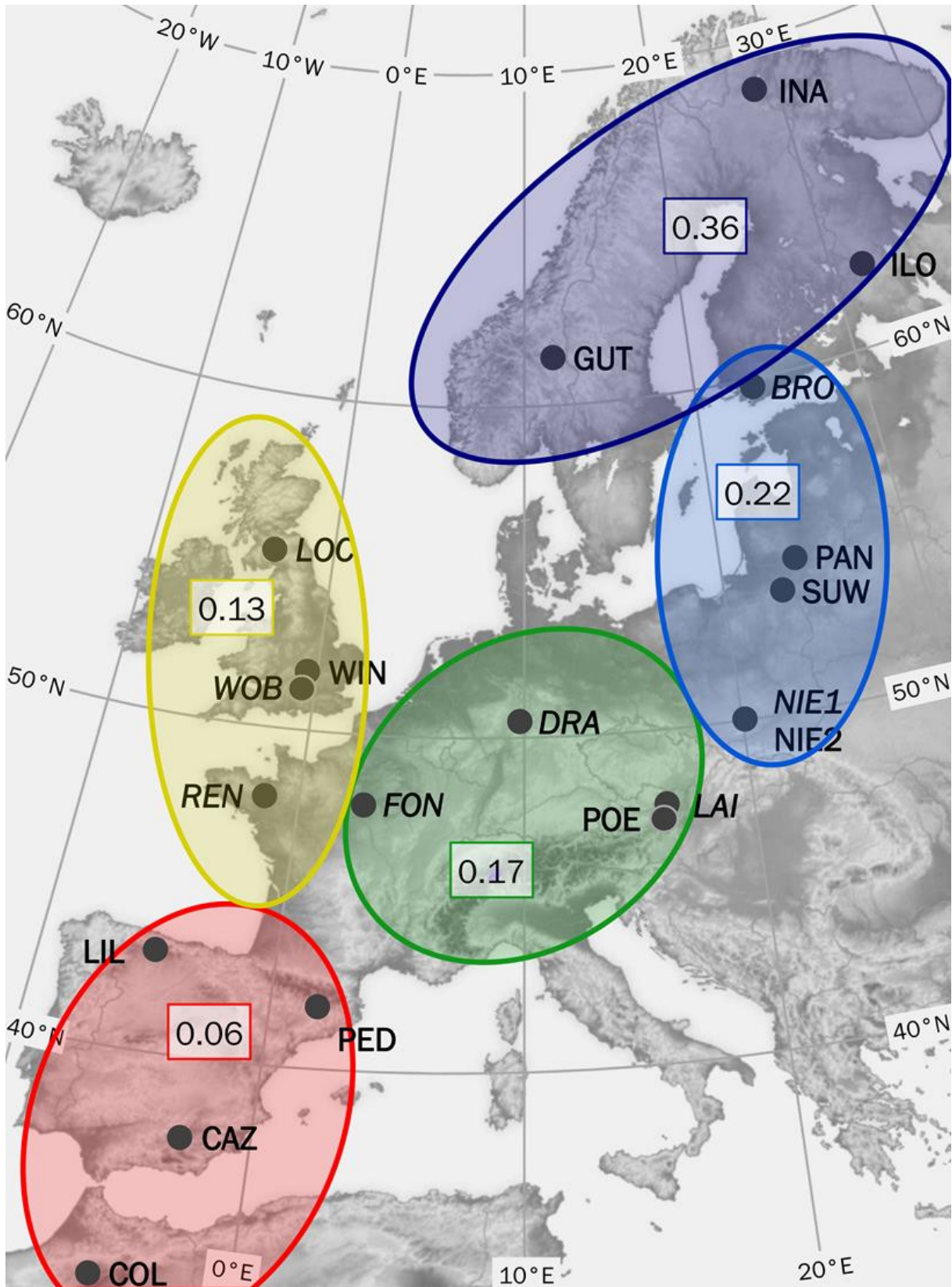
No	Country	Site name	Code	Species	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Elevation (m)	MAT (°C)	MAP (mm)	PET (mm)	MA
1	Finland	Kessi, Inari	INA	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	68.93	28.42	150	−1.2	432	413	Ap
2	Finland	Sivak., Ilomantsi	ILO	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	62.98	31.27	200	2.2	573	515	Ap
3	Norway	Gutuli	GUT	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	62.00	12.18	800	0.7	586	512	Ap
4	Finland	Bromarv	BRO	<i>Quercus robur</i>	60.00	23.08	5	4.9	568	562	Ap
5	UK	Lochwood	LOC	<i>Quercus robur</i>	55.27	−3.43	175	7.4	1517	589	
6	Lithuania	Panemunės Silas	PAN	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	54.88	23.97	45	6.6	634	672	A
7	Poland	Suwalki	SUW	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	54.10	22.93	160	6.7	619	686	A
8	UK	Woburn Abbey	WOB	<i>Quercus robur</i>	51.98	−0.59	50	9.5	709	724	A
9	Germany	Dransfeld	DRA	<i>Quercus petraea</i>	51.50	9.78	320	7.7	723	677	A
10	UK	Windsor	WIN	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	51.41	−0.59	10	9.5	763	738	A
11	Poland	Niepolomice, Gibiel	NIE1	<i>Quercus robur</i>	50.12	20.38	190	8.0	676	674	Ap
12	Poland	Niepolomice, Gibiel	NIE2	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	50.12	20.38	190	8.0	676	674	Ap
13	France	Fontainebleau	FON	<i>Quercus petraea</i>	48.38	2.67	100	11.5	608	861	M
14	France	Rennes	REN	<i>Quercus robur</i>	48.25	−1.70	100	11.1	733	786	A
15	Austria	Lainzer Tiergarten	LAI	<i>Quercus petraea</i>	48.18	16.20	300	9.6	654	792	M
16	Austria	Poellau	POE	<i>Pinus nigra</i>	47.95	16.06	500	8.3	815	762	Ap
17	Spain	Pinar de Lillo	LIL	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	43.07	−5.25	1600	5.1	1505	688	Ju
28	Spain	Massis de Pedraforca	PED	<i>Pinus uncinata</i>	42.23	1.70	2100	3.9	1299	692	Ju
19	Spain	Sierra de Cazorla	CAZ	<i>Pinus nigra</i>	37.80	−2.95	1816	8.9	712	1014	M
20	Morocco	Col du Zad	COL	<i>Cedrus atlantica</i>	32.97	−5.07	2200	10.4	717	1163	A

800 Abbreviations: MAT, mean annual temperature; MAP, mean annual precipitation; PET, potential evapotranspiration; BAI, basal area  
801 \* $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ . The significance of BAI trends is assessed using the Mann-Kendall non-parametric test which accounts for  
802 autocorrelation (Hamed & Rao, 1998)



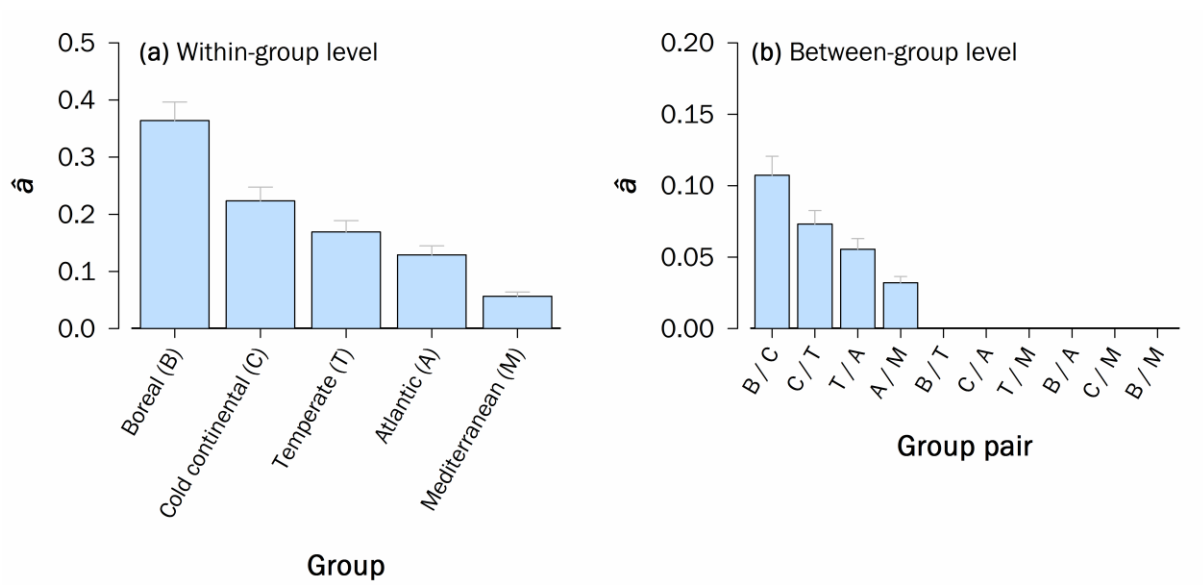
803

804 **Figure 1**



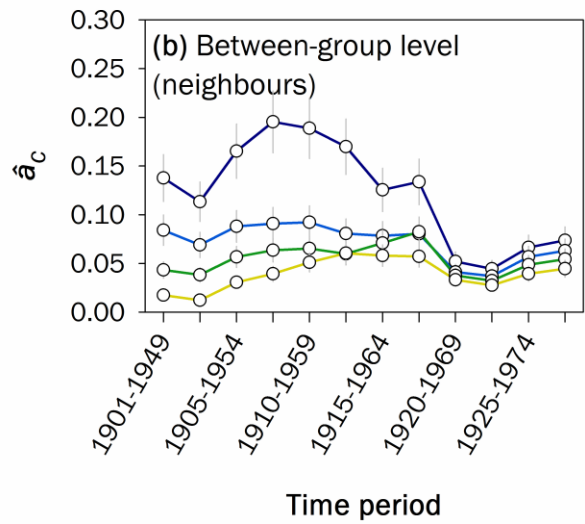
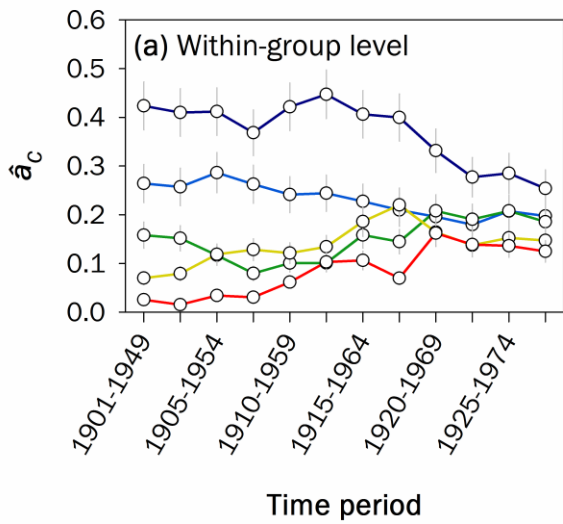
805

806 **Figure 2**



807

808 **Figure 3**



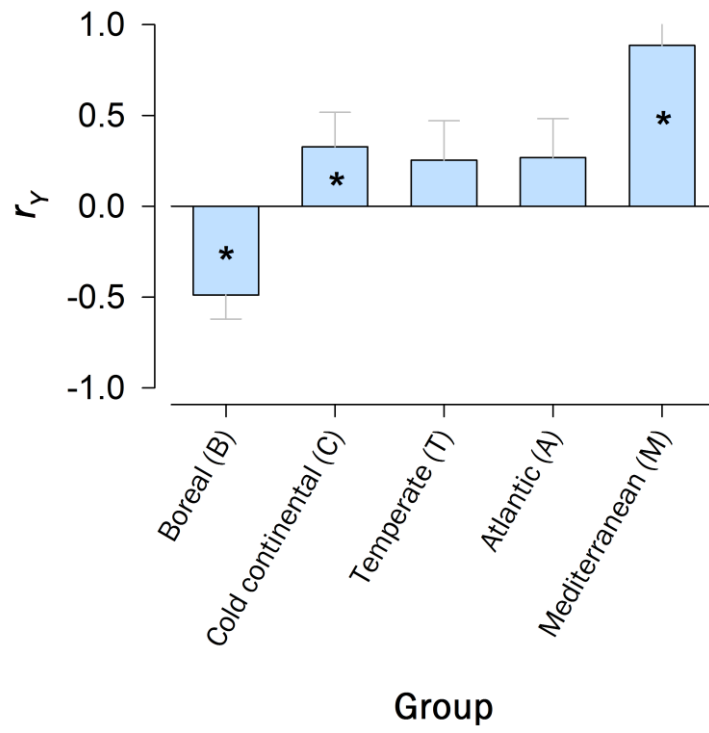
- Boreal (B)
- Cold continental (CC)
- Temperate (T)
- Atlantic (A)
- Mediterranean (M)

- B/CC
- CC/T
- T/A
- A/M

809

810 **Figure 4**

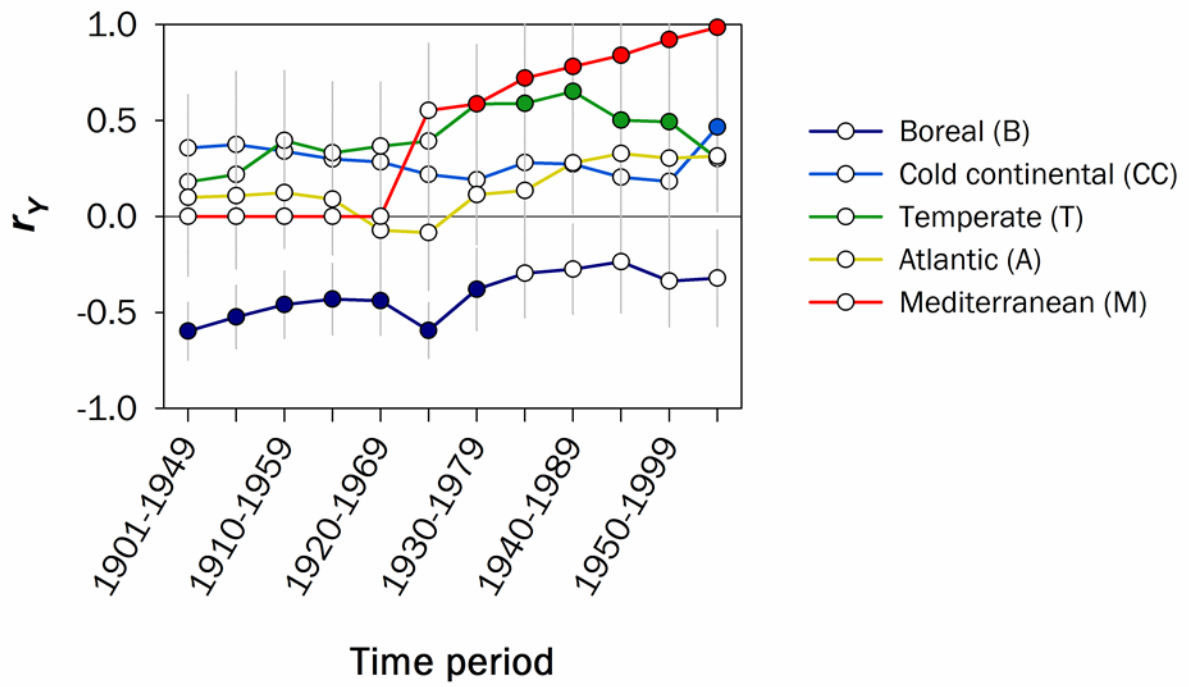




811

812 **Figure 5**

813



814

815 **Figure 6**

816 **Supporting Information**

817

818 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

819 **Appendix 1.** Field sampling and tree-ring measurements.

820 **Appendix 2.** Tree-ring chronology characteristics.

821 **Appendix 3.** Random modelling analysis.

822 **Appendix 4.** Further evaluation of geographical trends in growth synchrony across Europe.

823 **Table S1.** Dendrochronological characteristics of the study sites.

824 **Table S2.** Description of variance-covariance (VCOV) models accommodating between- and  
825 within-group variability.

826 **Table S3.** Results of variance-covariance models for synchrony analysis.

827 **Figure S1.** Climate signals at the site level for TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  for the period 1901–2003.

828 **Figure S2.** Principal component analysis performed on 20 indexed ring-width chronologies  
829 distributed across Europe and northern Africa for the common period 1901–1998.

830 **Figure S3.** Spatial patterns of climate signals (mean annual temperature, MAT; mean annual  
831 precipitation, MAP) across Europe for the period 1901–2003.

832 **Figure S4.** Geographical patterns of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) at the group level for the entire  
833 period 1901–2003 and change in  $\hat{a}$  for two consecutive periods (1901–1950 and 1951–2003).

834 **Figure S5.** Geographical patterns of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) for chronologies obtained from the  
835 International Tree-Ring Data Bank (ITRDB) dataset for the period 1901–2003.

836 **Figure S6.** Climatic patterns of growth synchrony ( $\hat{a}$ ) at the group level for the entire period  
837 1901–2003 and change in  $\hat{a}$  for two consecutive periods (1901–1950 and 1951–2003).

838 **Figure S7.** Geographical patterns of the relationship between TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  chronologies  
839 across Europe for the entire period 1901–2003 and for two consecutive periods (1901–1950  
840 and 1951–2003).

841 **Figure S8.** Climatic patterns of the relationship between TRW<sub>i</sub> and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_i$  chronologies across  
842 Europe for the entire period 1901–2003 and for two consecutive periods (1901–1950 and  
843 1951–2003).

844 **Figure S9.** Trends in climate parameters: mean annual temperature (MAT) and mean annual  
845 precipitation (MAP) at the group level.