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Spatiotemporal variability of stone pine (*Pinus pinea* L.) growth response to climate across the Iberian Peninsula

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Abstract

Climate warming and increasing aridity have impacted diverse ecosystems in the Mediterranean region since at least the 1970s. *Pinus pinea* L. has significant environmental and socio-economic importance for the Iberian Peninsula, so a detailed understanding of its response to climate change is necessary to predict its status under future climatic conditions. However, variability of climate and uncertainties in dendroclimatological approach complicate the understanding of forest growth dynamics. We use an ensemble approach to analyze growth-climate responses of *P. pinea* trees from five sites along a latitudinal gradient in Spain over time. The growth responses to April-June precipitation totals were stronger in the north than in the south. Since the 1950s, the sensitivity of growth to April-June precipitation increased in the north and decreased in the south. Meteorological drought usually started in May in the southern sites, but in June-July in the northern sites. The water deficit in the southern sites is thus greater and more limiting for tree growth, and this likely accounts for the lower growth sensitivity during these months. Our results indicate that *P. pinea* has a high degree of plasticity, suggesting the species will withstand changing climatic conditions. However, growth response to drought regimes varies among *P. pinea* populations, suggesting that different populations have different capacities for acclimation to warmer and drier climate, and this may influence future vegetation composition.

Keywords: climate change; dendroecology; growth plasticity; Mediterranean; tree rings; drought

1. Introduction

Climate forecasts for the Mediterranean region indicate there will be an increase of temperature, decrease of rainfall, longer dry spells, more frequent heat waves, and more heavy precipitation events, all of which will exacerbate the existing problems of soil loss and desertification (Kovats et al., 2014). Significant changes in climate and related social dynamics, such as land use and food production, migration, and social conflicts, make the Mediterranean region a major climate change "hotspot" (Giorgi, 2006; Scheffran and Battaglini, 2011). The Iberian Peninsula, located in the western sector of the Mediterranean basin, has diverse climatic conditions: the northern zones have a Eurosiberian climate, and large parts of the peninsula have a Mediterranean-type climate, with warm summers and cold winters in the center and hot summers and mild winters in the south. The Iberian Peninsula has become drier in recent decades, and research indicates this change will continue (Pérez and Boscolo, 2010). There is evidence that climate change has already impacted forest ecosystems in this region. These impacts include shifts in species distributions and phenology (Peñuelas et al. 2002), decreases of growth, at least in the southern provenances and at lower edges of species altitudinal ranges (Jump et al. 2006; Martín-Benito et al. 2010), reductions of non-wood forest products (Büntgen et al. 2015a), stand decline processes and increased mortality (Carnicer at al. 2011; Natalini et al., 2016), and increased disturbances such as pests and fires (Hódar et al., 2003; Pausas, 2004). Distribution shifts of tree species are also expected for the future (Benito-Garzón et al. 2008).

Pinus pinea L. is an important tree species of Iberian Mediterranean forests. This species occurs throughout southern Europe and the eastern and southern Mediterranean coasts, and is native to the Iberian Peninsula (Martínez and Montero, 2004). *P. pinea* forests in Spain have considerable socio-economic value and, because of the easy access to areas where it grows (for the most part flat terrains at low elevations), it is exposed to human disturbances. Most *P. pinea* forests in Spain originated from plantations during the 20th century. These forests occupy more than 500,000 ha and are managed as multifunctional forests that provide timber, biomass, non-wood forest products (especially pine "nuts"), soil protection, sand dune stabilization, biodiversity refuge, space for public and recreational activities, and carbon sequestration (Montero González et al. 2004). It is necessary to understand the effects of climate change on the ecology of *P. pinea* forests to assess the adaptive capacity of this species and to develop management programs that ensure the conservation of this environmentally and socio-economically important species.

P. pinea tree ring data can provide accurate information about the relationships between growth and climate (Campelo et al., 2006). Natalini et al. (2015) studied *P. pinea* tree ring growth in relation to climate

change in southern Iberian Peninsula. In particular, they focused on temporal shifts of growth-climate relationships and increasing high-frequency variability and synchrony of growth in different populations as common responses to drier and warmer climate. However, trees also have diverse responses to climate depending on site-specific conditions (e.g. De Luis et al., 2013; Mazza et al., 2014). In fact, P. pinea grows under very different environmental conditions (Montero González et al. 2004), and variable growth responses to climate may be therefore expected across its geographical distribution range. The range of climatic conditions to which a species is adapted potentially determines its capacity to acclimate to future climatic conditions, and this should be considered when investigating the effects of climate change on forest dynamics (Tardif et al., 2003). For a proper assessment of growth-climate relationships, tree-ring detrending procedures also must be carefully considered. In particular, detrending curves with different degree of flexibility enhance the climatic signal and remove the non-climatic variance at different frequencies, and their suitability depends on the frequency domain of the tree-ring series (Helama et al., 2004). Moreover, uncertainties in growth-climate relationships can derive from the climate data, especially the choice of climate parameters and the lack of homogeneity of meteorological records (Frank et al., 2007; Büntgen et al., 2015b). Therefore, the spatiotemporal variability of species' response to climate, and the influence of different dendroclimatological approaches, make the assessment of climaterelated forest growth dynamics more complex.

The purpose of this study is to provide a better understanding of climate-related *P. pinea* forest growth dynamics in Spain. We hypothesize that the species-specific growth response to climate varies over space and time in association with climatic spatial variability and temporal changes. To test our hypothesis, we examined growth-climate relationships and their variability over time in climatologically distinct sites along a latitudinal gradient in Spain. We tested the suitability of different tree-ring detrending methods and we used a comprehensive set of climatic parameters and climate data sources to check for uncertainties in climate data that could influence the assessment of growth-climate relationships. Finally, we discuss the observed variability of growth response to climate and its potential implications in Iberian *P. pinea* forest dynamics.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling sites

The sampling sites are along a latitudinal gradient in Spain and present different environmental conditions (Figure 1, Table 1). Two sites ("Carrascal" – hereinafter CAR -- and "Viana de Cega" – VIA) are in the province of Valladolid on the "Meseta Norte" (northern Spain), one site ("Hoyo de Pinares" -- HOY) is in

the province of Ávila (Central Spain), on the "Sistema Central" mountain range, and two sites ("Hinojos" - HNJ -- and "Valverde" -- VAL) are in the province of Huelva, Southwestern Spain. The Meseta Norte is a vast plateau of Tertiary and Quaternary deposits with altitudes of ~600 to ~900 m a.s.l., where P. pinea grows within nemoro-Mediterranean vegetation, i.e. transitional areas where evergreen sclerophyll and deciduous broad-leaf forests occur (Allué et al., 1990). The Sistema Central is composed of Paleozoic and Mesozoic granitic rocks with patches of Cenozoic sediments, runs in an ENE-WSW direction (between the Meseta Norte to the north and the Meseta Sur to the south). Here, several peaks are higher than 2000 m a.s.l., and P. pinea grows at 600-1000 m a.s.l. within Mediterranean and nemoro-Mediterranean vegetation. VAL is on the southernmost limit of the "Sierra Morena" mountain range, HNJ is on the coastal zone of the Baetic depression (alluvial plain of the Guadalquivir river), and both have Tertiary and Quaternary deposits and low elevations (under 300 m). In this area, vegetation is Mediterranean including the most xeric P. pinea forests of Spain. In Carrascal and Viana de Cega, they are on flat terrains and are managed as protection forests (with an important function of fixing continental fossil dunes) and for production of timber and pine nuts. In Hinojos and Valverde del Camino, P. pinea forests are on flat terrains, they are primarily managed for timber production and nowadays biomass, and secondarily for pine nuts. Silvicultural measures for productive functions typically involve thinning and pruning for improving wood production and crown development. In Hoyo de Pinares, P. pinea trees grow on a southfacing slope within less disturbed protection forests, where productive functions are not important. The sampled stands in VIA, HOY, VAL and HNJ are pure, even-aged, single-canopied P. pinea stands, and the stand in CAR is a single-cohort stratified mixture, with a dominant storey of P. pinea trees and a lower storey of Quercus ilex L. subsp. ballota [Desf.] Samp. and Juniperus thurifera L. Climatic conditions are similar between the two northern sites (VIA and CAR) and between the two southern sites (VAL and HNJ), but differ along the latitudinal gradient. Annual precipitation and mean temperature are 404 mm and 12°C in CAR, 357 mm and 12°C in VIA, 548 mm and 11°C in HOY, 525 mm and 17°C in VAL, 527 mm and 18°C in HNJ (climate values calculated over the period 1950-2013 using the E-OBS gridded climate dataset).

2.2 Tree-ring chronologies

All samples (2 cores per tree) were extracted with an increment borer at breast height from the largest dominant or co-dominant trees. The cores were glued onto wooden mounts and sanded along the transverse sections to make the rings visible. Tree ring widths were measured with a stereomicroscope and a LINTABTM table connected to a TSAP-WinTM tree ring analysis system (Rinntech[®]). Ring width curves were plotted for visual inspection and cross-dated by determination of the coefficient of parallel variation (*Gleichlaeufigkeit*, Glk;

see Speer, 2010, p. 108), *t*-value, and cross-date index (CDI) using TSAP-WinTM software. The cross-dating was verified using COFECHA (Grissino-Mayer, 2001).

The stands in the study sites are subjected to forestry treatments that affect growth trends and may mask the climatic signals stored in the ring width measurements. To remove the non-climatic growth variance from the ring-width measurements, we applied 2 detrending techniques: a negative exponential curve (NEXP), and a cubic smoothing spline with 50% frequency-response cutoffs at 30 years (SP30). The NEXP removes the agerelated trends and retain other low-frequency variability, allowing the detection of low-frequency climatic signals, while the SP30 removes the low-frequency variance and enhances the high-frequency climatic signal (Helama et al., 2004; Cook et al., 1990a). To obtain dimensionless tree ring series and to remove the heteroscedasticity, tree ring indexes were annually calculated for each individual series as ratios between the raw ring width measurement and the corresponding statistical fit (Cook et al., 1990a). The final mean chronology of each site was computed as a bi-weight robust mean of the indexed series, which removes the effects of outliers (Cook et al., 1990b). To assess the strength of the site chronologies we used the expressed population signal (EPS), which is a measure of the confidence of a mean chronology in expressing the population-level signal (Briffa and Jones, 1990). To verify the stability of the chronology signal strength over time, we computed the EPS for each site using 30-year windows lagged by 15 years along the mean ring-width chronology.

2.3 Climate data

A composite database of meteorological parameters from different climate data sources was created to check for uncertainties in climate data and to develop a robust assessment of climate variability. Specifically, we used 6 climate parameters (precipitation, self-calibrating Palmer Drought Severity Index [scPDSI], diurnal temperature range [DTR], and maximum, minimum, and mean temperature), from 6 climate data sources (3 meteorological stations and 3 gridded datasets) (Table S2). The scPDSI is suitable to assess growth sensitivity and has been widely used in dendroclimatological studies (e.g. Cook et al., 2015). The scPDSI improves upon the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) by maintaining a consistent behavior of the index over diverse climatological regions, thus making spatial comparisons of the drought index values on large scales more meaningful (van der Schrier et al., 2006). The DTR is a metric used in climate change studies and is linked to cloud cover (Karl et al., 1993). Since cloud cover controls solar radiation, that influences terrestrial temperatures and soil moisture, the DTR can be an appropriate hydroclimatic metric to study tree growth (Gimeno et al., 2012; Büntgen et al., 2013).

The meteorological station records were obtained from the European Climate Assessment Dataset project (ECAD, Klok and Klein Tank, 2008; http://eca.knmi.nl). We used homogenized meteorological records from three stations: "Valladolid-Villanubla", which was the closest station to CAR and VIA, "Ávila", the closest station to HOY, and "Huelva", the closest station to HNJ and VAL. The ECAD does not provide any other station to characterize separately the climate conditions of the two northernmost sites (VIA and CAR) nor of the two southernmost sites (HNJ and VAL) (see "Meteorological station data" in Supplementary Material).

The sources of the gridded data were: (*i*) the E-OBS v11.0 dataset by the EU-FP6 project ENSEMBLES (Haylock et al., 2008; hereinafter "E-OBS"); (*ii*) the CRU scPDSI 3.21 (van der Schrier et al., 2006) and (*iii*) the CRU TS3.23 (Harris and Jones, 2014) by the Climatic Research Unit, University of East Anglia, UK (hereinafter "CRU") (see Table S2). The E-OBS provides climate data with higher geographical resolution, but the CRU covers a longer period (see Table S2); therefore, we used the CRU to study the long-term climatic changes, and we included the E-OBS to have more detailed information about site-specific climate. For each gridded dataset, we selected the closest grid point to each study site through the KNMI Climate Explorer (http://climexp.knmi.nl). There was a distinct grid point for each study site.

We computed monthly sums of precipitation and monthly averages of scPDSI, DTR and maximum, minimum, and mean temperatures. Hence there was a total of 62 sets of monthly resolved climate data (Table S1).

The monthly climate values were very similar between CAR and VIA and between HNJ and VAL (compared using the gridded datasets), but varied with latitude. Therefore, we distinguished three climatic regions: the north (including CAR and VIA), the centre (HOY) and the south (VIA and HNJ). A climate diagram was produced for each climatic region by averaging per year the monthly values of precipitation and temperature within the common period of the climate datasets. To study the temporal variability of climate in each region, climate diagrams were also produced for two successive time windows by dividing the common period of the datasets into two sub-periods of equal length. In the climate diagrams, all months with P less than 2T (where P is mm of total precipitation and T is mean temperature in Celsius degrees) were classified as "dry".

Moreover, we calculated the departures of the climate data from the average of the last 30 years of the climate datasets. The values so obtained for the months April, May, June, July, August, and September (AMJJAS) were averaged per year. AMJJAS were used following previous tree ring studies (*e.g.* Büntgen et al., 2007; Nicault et al., 2008; Galván et al., 2014) and taken as a general time window comprising months in which high temperatures and water deficit significantly influence Mediterranean tree growth (*e.g.* de Luis et al., 2013, Seim et al., 2014). Subsequently, the AMJJAS time series were plotted for each region to study the temporal

trends. Moreover, correlations between the AMJJAS series of different climate data sources were computed to examine the discrepancies among the different climate data sources.

2.4 Analysis of growth-climate relationship

The relationships of growth with climate were analyzed with bootstrapped correlation and response functions, which remove the multicollinearity between climatic variables (Zang and Biondi, 2015), using the standardized tree ring chronologies and the climate datasets. We applied an ensemble approach (Büntgen et al., 2012) to assess how *P. pinea* growth response varies with climate in space and time, and to evaluate how the assessment of growth-climate relationships can be influenced by the choice of tree-ring detrending methods, climate data sources and climate parameters. This approach was accomplished in three successive steps:

- Growth-climate correlations were computed for each site using all monthly resolved climate datasets and standardized tree ring chronologies. Unsuitable tree ring detrending methods, and climate data sources that generated uncertainties in the growth-climate relationships, were excluded from the analyses. Moreover, we identified the climate parameters which best explained tree growth.
- We examined the spatial variability of growth-climate correlations and response functions in association with the spatial variability of climate.
- 3) Correlations and response functions were computed over two successive time periods by dividing the common period between tree-ring and climate data into two sub-periods of equal length to examine the temporal shifts of the growth response to climate and their connection with climate change.

A total of 240 correlation analyses were performed (Table S3).

3. Results

3.1 Tree-ring chronologies

The number of cross-dated ring width measurement series per site ranged from 38 (19 trees, in HOY and 5) to 52 (26 trees, in VIA). The oldest trees were in HOY and the youngest in CAR, and the ranges of the chronologies were: 43-94 years in CAR, 102-144 years in VIA, 75-228 years in HOY, 91-139 years in VAL, and 69-150 years in HNJ (Table 2). These differences in chronology length within each stand were due to the uneven distances between the pith and the innermost cross-dated ring, rather than the age structure of the stands (which are even-aged). The EPS value for each site and consistently was above the minimum threshold of 0.85 back to ~1880 in CA, VIA, HNJ and VAL, and above 0.85 back to 1842 in HOY (Figure 3).

3.2 Influence of detrending methods on growth-climate relationships and uncertainties from climate data

There were discrepancies between the NEXP chronologies and the SP30 chronologies, especially in VIA and HNJ, while CAR and HOY the agreement between the detrending methods was greater (Figure 2B). The discrepancies were due to non-climatic growth releases (in the 2000s in VIA and in the 1960s in HNJ) that were not removed by the NEXP curve. The highest between-site correlations were found with the SP30 detrending method between CAR and VIA and between VAL and HNJ (Table 3). Therefore, the SP30 enhanced the climatic signal and confirmed the existence of three distinct dendroclimatic signals, one in the north (common to CAR and VIA), one in the center (HOY), and one in the south (common to VAL and HNJ).

The effects of different detrending methods were also visible in the growth-climate correlation patterns. In particular, the growth-climate correlations obtained with the NEXP chronologies differed from those obtained with the SP30 chronologies in VIA, VAL and HNJ (Figures S2, S4 and S5). On the other hand, the similarities between VIA and CAR and between VAL and HNJ were higher when we applied the SP30 (compare Figures S1 with S2, and S4 with S5), supporting the notion of similar growth response within each region.

Uncertainties in the assessment of growth-climate relationships occurred when we used different climate data sources. In particular, growth-climate correlation patterns differed within HOY, VAL and HNJ when we used temperature data from meteorological stations (Figures S3, S4, d, S5). Notably, the AMJJAS series computed using meteorological station records had disagreements with the other climate data sources (Table S4). In particular, the correlations were low (~0.50) for the mean temperature series in the south and even lower (≤ 0.3) for the minimum temperature series in the south and center (Table S4).

Consequently, because the NEXP detrending method was less appropriate to remove the non-climatic variance from the tree ring chronologies and the uncertainties mainly derived from the use of meteorological station data, we only considered the results obtained with the gridded climate data and the SP30 chronologies.

3.3 Climate variability

The climate diagrams of the three climatic regions show different patterns (Figure 4). In the south, the winters were mild and most precipitation was during winter; in the northern and central sites, the winters were cold and the maximum of precipitation was during spring and autumn. In the north, there was a more delayed onset of meteorological droughts than in the south. Moreover, meteorological droughts in the south lasted longer and were more intense due to higher temperatures and less precipitation.

The intensity and duration of meteorological droughts increased over time (Figure 4). Specifically, from the "early" (1950-1980) to the "late" (1981-2011) period, the number of dry months (*i.e.* P < 2T) increased from 3 (Jul-Sep) to 4 (Jun-Sep) in the north and from 2 (Jul-Aug) to 3 (Jul-Sep) in the central region. In the south, the number of dry months was 5 (May-Sep) during both periods, but drought intensity increased due to higher temperatures from May to August and less precipitation during June (Figure 4).

The AMJJAS scPDSI series showed different patterns of droughts before 1980 in the three regions, but the droughts in the early 1980s and mid 1990s were similar (Figure 5). The long-term trends of temperature were similar in all regions, with a warm period from the 1940s to 1960s and an increase of temperature during the last 40 years, although only the north and center had increases in DTR (Figure 5).

3.4 Growth response to climate variability

We can distinguish the patterns of growth-climate relationships by latitude. In particular, the growthclimate correlations in the northern sites had similar bimodal patterns (CAR and VIA in Figure 6). In particular, there were positive correlations with precipitation from the previous October/November to January and from April to June; the correlations with temperature were positive from December to February and negative from May to June/July. There were similar correlation patterns in HOY (Figure 6). A distinct growth-climate response pattern occurred in the south (VAL and HNJ in Figure 6). In particular, there were positive correlations with precipitation from November to January, but these correlations were not significant during spring and absent during summer. There were positive correlations with temperature in the south during winter, but only for mean and minimum temperatures, and these were absent during spring/summer.

The growth-climate relationships were unstable over time and had distinct temporal changes along the latitudinal gradient. In the northern sites, the bimodal patterns in the growth-climate correlations were more marked during the "late" (1981-2011) than the "early" (1950-1980) period. Specifically, in the "late" period the correlation with precipitation in spring was greater and the correlation with temperatures in May/June was more negative (Figures 7, 8). There were similar changes in the center (although there was a loss of positive correlation with precipitation during June, Figure 9). In the southern sites the correlation with precipitation in spring was low during both periods, and the growth response to precipitation in June was significant during the "early" period but absent during the "late" period (Figures 10, 11) Moreover, there was a marked increase of positive correlations with precipitation and mean/minimum temperatures in autumn/winter (Figures 10, 11).

The correlations with the scPDSI and DTR reflected the overall patterns observed with precipitation and temperature data (Figures S6, S7), The response function analysis led to a lower number of statistically

significant coefficients, but confirmed the overall patterns and temporal changes of growth-climate relationships found with the bootstrapped correlation analysis (Figures 6-11, Figures S6, S7).

4. Discussion

4.1 Influence of detrending methods on growth-climate relationships, uncertainties from climate data and choice of climate parameters

The dendroclimatic signal was not properly assessed using the NEXP method in VIA, VAL and HNJ. The NEXP is a parametric method which retains low-frequency growth variance (other than the age-related one) which can be a proxy of long-term climatic changes (Esper et al., 2002). In this sense, it can be referred to as a "conservative" detrending method (Cook et al., 1990a; Biondi and Qeadan, 2008). Nevertheless, conservative methods are suitable for wood specimens from sites with minimal ecological and anthropogenic disturbances, which are preferred for climatic reconstructions (Schweingruber et al., 1990). In contrast, the goodness-of-fit is reduced in managed forests and shade-tolerant interior-forest trees, where stand dynamics produce stochastic perturbations in growth trends (Piovesan et al., 2005; Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2011). In such cases, non-climatic noise is better removed by data-adaptive detrending curves (Cook et al., 1990a). Growth releases due to thinning can be found in tree-ring samples from Iberian P. pinea productive forests, and in fact were evident in VIA and HNJ. In these two cases, growth pulses could be wrongly interpreted as climate-induced if conservative methods were used, thus the tree-ring series are better filtered by flexible curves that extract the middle/high-frequency climatic signal. Notably, the NEXP and SP30 chronologies were comparable in CAR and HOY, where the silviculture-induced noise is absent, although the NEXP estimated lower ring indexes in HOY during the 1920s and 1930s, that probably reflect droughts occurred in these decades (Figure 2) and may suggest the extraction of low-frequency climatic signals. However, we applied the SP30 method in all sites to obtain the same type of climatic information for a coherent spatial comparison of growth responses.

A possible explanation of the uncertainties arisen from the meteorological records can be the uneven quality of instrumental measurements over time, which actually causes biases in tree-ring based climate reconstructions (Dessen and Bücher, 1995; Frank et al., 2007; Dorado Liñán et al., 2012; Büntgen et al., 2015b). The uncertainties are also partly explained by the location of the stations. Indeed, differences in temperatures and humidity can be expected from the different elevation between the stations and the study sites, in particular between "Ávila" and HOY and between "Huelva" and VAL (a difference of around 240 m in both cases). However, there were no closer stations with long-term records, and our analysis indicated that the available

meteorological station data are somewhat inappropriate for calibrating tree-ring proxy data in these sites. The grid boxes constituted the most suitable source of information about site-specific climate available for our study.

The relationships between tree ring chronologies and scPDSI reflect the suitability of this metric for dendroclimatological studies in the southern Europe (Cook et al., 2015). However, the combined use of precipitation and temperature data provided clearer seasonal patterns of statistically significant correlation values, permitting a better dendroecological comparison between sites. The DTR provided meaningful results, reinforcing its potential use to calibrate tree-ring proxy data. Negative growth response to DTR may refer to cloud-free sky, associated with high DTR, which generally boosts temperatures and reduces soil moisture, at least during the warm seasons, but the possible negative effects of atmospheric brightening on forest productivity needs further studies (Büntgen et al., 2013).

4.2 Spatiotemporal variability of climate

The three studied regions all have a Mediterranean macroclimate that is characterized by hot and dry summers. However, there were also climatic differences among the sites. The annual distribution of precipitation varied among regions, and the duration and intensity of meteorological droughts was greater at lower latitudes. The lower amount of rainfall during spring and summer in the southern sites is related to the dominant atmospheric circulation patterns in southern Spain (Romero et al., 1999). Furthermore, winter temperatures in the northern and central regions were lower, attributable to the "sub-continental" type of the Mediterranean climate which characterizes the supra-Mediterranean belt in central-northern Spain (Rivas-Martinez, 2007; Olano et al., 2012). In the central region, the annual precipitation is higher and the meteorological droughts are shorter than in the northern sites, due to humid winds from the Atlantic Ocean through the Tagus river valley, which lead to more frequent precipitation events (see Benito et al., 2003, and Figure 69 in AEMET-IM, 2011). The greater precipitation amount of this area is also associated with the higher elevation (Rodriguez-Puebla et al., 1998).

The dry periods during the 1980s and 1990s (scPDSI series in Figure 5) and the increase of temperature since the 1980s (Figure 5) occurred in all three regions. This confirms the existence of a large-scale climate change process characterized by increasing temperature and aridity, in line with previous findings in the Iberian Peninsula (Pérez and Boscolo, 2010). However, there were different dynamics in the drying process in the three study regions (Figure 4). In the northern and central regions, meteorological droughts increased in intensity and duration because of higher temperature and lower rainfall from June to September. In the south, meteorological droughts did not change in duration but increased in intensity due to higher temperature from May to August and

decreased precipitation during June. Our observations indicate that our three study regions, although affected by a common macroclimate and by similar climate change processes, have different climate dynamics at the local level (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2004).

4.3 Spatiotemporal variability of growth-climate relationships

The differences in the duration and intensity of meteorological droughts among the study regions can explain the differences in tree growth sensitivity during the late spring and early summer. During this period, the moisture conditions were more limiting in the south, so the precipitation-related signal strength was lower in this region than in the other sites. This may indicate lower rates of wood formation under water deficit during spring/summer (Vieira et al., 2014). Moreover, the stronger growth response to spring precipitation in CAR, VIA and HOY may also be due to the spring maximum rainfall in these areas. In the northern and central sites, growth sensitivity to May/June temperature was also greater than in the southern sites. In fact, during late spring and early summer, an increase of temperature without an increase of precipitation can negatively affect cambial activity, and this underlies the sensitivity of ring formation to high temperature in this period of the year (de Luis et al., 2011; Martin-Benito et al., 2013).

Differences in additional factors other than climate, especially soils, probably influence growth rates and forest productivity in our study sites (Bravo-Oviedo and Montero, 2005). However, when stand dynamics were removed with appropriate tree ring detrending methods, the chronology signals were noticeably similar between sites of a same climatic region (north and south), despite the geological and edaphic differences. Therefore, non-climatic site-specific ecological characteristic barely influenced the assessment of dendroclimatic signals and did not affect our dendroecological comparison between regions.

The capacity of *P. pinea* trees to establish site-specific relationships with the local climate may be explained by the plasticity of this species. The genetic variability of *P. pinea* is low (Fallour et al., 1997; Vendramin et al., 2008; Pinzauti et al., 2012). However, this is a widespread species that grows under diverse environmental conditions, indicating that genetic variability does not entirely explain its adaptability (Vendramin et al., 2008; Soto et al., 2010). In fact, the successful adaptation of *P. pinea* seems to depend largely on the variability of phenotypic traits, which is high in this species (Mutke et al., 2010, 2013; Sánchez-Gómez et al., 2011; Sáez-Laguna et al., 2014). Thus, phenotypic plasticity may explain the observed variability of the growth response to climate in different regions, that could suggest the capacity of *P. pinea* to adapt the annual distribution of cambial activity depending on site-specific climatic conditions. Tree-ring analysis and xylogenesis indicate plastic cambial activity in *Pinus halepensis* (de Luis et al., 2011, 2013), an ecologically

similar species that also has little genetic variability (Soto et al., 2010). However, experimental data on xylogenesis of *P. pinea* to verify plastic cambial activity are still very scarce (Luz et al., 2014)

The growth-climate correlations in our sites varied over the study period. This reflects the nonstationary nature of growth responses to climate (Carrer and Urbinati 2006) which can be interpreted as physiological plasticity that enables an individual to acclimate to changing conditions (Meyers and Bull, 2002). In fact, individual trees can alter their physiology in response to environmental changes (Walther et al., 2002; Rossi et al., 2011). In our study sites, climatic changes over time drove the shift of the growth-climate response patterns, as also reported in other tree-ring studies (Martín-Benito et al., 2010; Latte et al., 2015). This suggests an adjustment of growth physiology during the life of trees in response to a warmer and drier climate, as discussed in a previous study (Natalini et al., 2015). However, the response shifts observed in the present study also seem to be mediated by site-specific climate dynamics. In fact, the increased growth response to spring precipitation (and the increased sensitivity to temperature in May) in the northern and central sites appear linked to the higher spring rainfall during the "late" period in these regions. There were different changes in the south, where spring precipitation did not increase and growth response to climate was always low in this season. Hence, in this region, the climate change-related risk of water deficit during spring is higher and induces a distinct response in growth physiology. In the south there was also a significant decrease of the positive correlation with precipitation in June, which may be linked to the marked increase in drought intensity in this month in this region. These findings indicate that temporal changes and spatial variability in climate simultaneously influence tree growth and the acclimation response.

The plasticity of plant species may play an important role in future vegetation dynamics following climate change (Nicotra et al., 2010). Based on our results, we suggest that *P. pinea* in northern sites have some capacity to resist a future increase of drought by adjusting cambial activity and thus becoming more similar to trees in southern sites (which are currently adapted to drier conditions). On the other hand, the southern populations may already be approaching or exceeding their ecological limit, and their persistence under future conditions may be threatened. This could be in agreement with predicted vegetation dynamics. In fact, global warming induces spatial shifts in the ecological ranges of plant species (Walther et al., 2002), and in Spain this will likely lead to a northward shift of the distribution of tree species (Benito-Garzón et al. 2008; Pardos et al., 2015). Alternatively, the southern *P. pinea* populations could acclimate by activating the cambium during winter if winter temperatures continue increasing (Prieto et al., 2004). In fact, maintaining cambial activity during winter is an adaptive trait that some Mediterranean trees show in certain precipitation and temperature conditions (Cherubini et al., 2003). For instance, previous research in Portuguese stands of *Pinus pinaster*, a species

ecologically close to *P. pinea*, indicates some cambial activity during winter, although evidences are restricted to coastal (oceanic) zones during mild winters (Vieira et al., 2014). The tree-ring growth response of *P. pinea* during winter, also previously reported in Spain and Italy (de Luis et al., 2009; Mazza et al., 2014; Natalini et al., 2015), may reflect that this species can be physiologically active during winter (Pardos et al., 2010). In fact, cells in differentiation during winter have been observed in *P. pinea* in coastal areas of central Portugal, although this needs further investigation (Luz et al., 2014). There is no basis for making further speculations about future changes in cambial activity for trees in our southern sites because there is no species-specific experimental evidence in drier locations which could be used for such predictions. However, our results suggests that the species' plastic response to warmer and drier climate can vary among populations, and some measure of such variable plasticity should be considered in long-terms forecasts of vegetation dynamics (Alla and Camarero, 2012).

5. Conclusions

The study regions had similar Mediterranean macro-climates and were all affected by the long-term increases of temperature and aridity. However, climatic patterns and climate change dynamics were not uniform among sites. The *P. pinea* growth response to climate changed over time in response to climate change, but this varied in space according to site-specific climatic conditions. The variable growth-climate relationships suggested that *P. pinea* can adapt to a range of climatic conditions, and will be able to acclimate to temporal variations in climate. Few studies have investigated the plasticity of plants from a dendrochronological perspective (de Luis et al., 2013). In this context, the present study provides a tree ring-based assessment of the plastic growth response of *P. pinea* to climate variability in Spain. Our results do not support or contradict the persistence of *P. pinea* near its xeric distribution limit under future warmer and drier climate, but they indicate that the species' plasticity can be crucial for prediction of vegetation dynamics under climate change scenarios.

The dendroecological approach to climate-related forest growth dynamics requires a careful evaluation of the most suitable tree-ring detrending methods and climate data. There are no universally valid detrending methods, because chronologies from different stands, especially from managed stands, show different nonclimatic perturbations, which determine the appropriate method and the type of climate signal that can be extracted. Uncertainties in growth-climate correlations can be related to climate data, thus the type, quality, sources and geographical validity of climate data should also be screened. To study the variability of climate and tree growth response in managed stands of our study areas, the most appropriate approach involved flexible splines and gridded climate data. We suggest that an ensemble approach, involving the evaluation of

dendroclimatological procedures, and comparing species' responses across diverse site-specific climatic conditions and time periods, can enhance our understanding of forest growth dynamics.

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 Table 1. Site locations and characteristics.

| | Carrascal | Viana de Cega | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino | Hinojos |
|----------------------------|--|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|
| Latitude [°N] | 41.59 | 41.47 | 40.51 | 37.53 | 37.28 |
| Longitude [°W] | 4.33 | 4.72 | 4.38 | 6.78 | 6.39 |
| Elevation [m a.s.l.] | 880 | 710 | 890 | 260 | 80 |
| Soils (FAO classification) | Cambisols | Arenosols | Leptosols | Luvisols | Cambisols/Regosols |
| Slope [%] | 0 | 0 | 50-60 | 0 | 0 |
| Species composition | Mixed (P. pinea-Quercus ilex- Juniperus thurifera) | Pure (P. pinea) | Pure (P. pinea) | Pure (P. pinea) | Pure (P. pinea) |
| Mean tree height [m] | 10 | 17 | 19 | 18 | 18 |
| Mean tree diameter [cm] | 45 | 50 | 75 | 65 | 70 |

Table 2. Characteristics of tree ring chronologies at the different sites. Chronology length refers to the longest cross-dated individual tree series in each site. A chronology length with " \geq 10 trees" refers to the interval with a minimum of 10 cross-dated individual tree series. The mean growth rate refers to the average ring width over each chronology. Standard chronology refers to the mean ring index chronology calculated as ratios and detrended with a negative exponential curve (NEXP), or cubic smoothing splines with 50% frequency-response cutoffs at 30 years (SP30). EPS>0.85 indicates the period covered by the chronologies with an Expressed Population Signal greater than 0.85.

| | | | Carrascal | Viana de Cega | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino | Hinojos |
|----------------------------|------------------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| No. of trees | | 22 | 26 | 19 | 20 | 19 | |
| Chronology leng (years) | gth | | 1921-2014 (94) | 1871-2014 (144) | 1787-2014 (228) | 1873-2011 (139) | 1863-2012 (150) |
| Chronology leng (years) | gth with ≥ 10 tre | ees | 1931-2014 (84) | 1877-2014 (138) | 1844-2014 (171) | 1888-2011 (124) | 1874-2012 (139) |
| Mean series leng | gth (years) | | 77 | 130 | 172 | 120 | 127 |
| Mean growth rat | te (mm) | | 2.28 | 1.52 | 1.74 | 2.08 | 2.04 |
| Raw ring width series | | 0.616 | 0.867 | 0.609 | 0.844 | 0.765 | |
| autocorrelation | Standard chronologies | NEXP SP30 | 0.203 0.070 | 0.638 0.268 | 0.541 0.311 | 0.600 0.444 | 0.673 0.259 |
| EPS>0.85 | | 1925-2014 | 1873-2014 | 1842-2014 | 1881-2011 | 1866-2012 | |

Table 3. Correlation coefficients between sites using the mean standard chronologies after detrending with a negative exponential curve (NEXP), or cubic smoothing splines with 50% frequency-response cutoffs at 30 years (SP30). Correlations were calculated over the common interval with at least 10 trees (1931-2011).

| (NEXP) | Carrascal | Viana de Cega | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino |
|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| Viana de Cega | 0.45 | | | |
| Hoyo de Pinares | 0.24 | 0.35 | | |
| Valverde del Camino | 0.48 | 0.29 | 0.13 | |
| Hinojos | 0.21 | 0.14 | 0.14 | 0.26 |
| | | | | |
| (SP30) | Carrascal | Viana de Cega | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino |
| (SP30) Viana de Cega | Carrascal 0.63 | Viana de Cega | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino |
| (SP30) Viana de Cega Hoyo de Pinares | Carrascal 0.63 0.38 | Viana de Cega 0.41 | Hoyo de Pinares | Valverde del Camino |
| (SP30) Viana de Cega Hoyo de Pinares Valverde del Camino | Carrascal 0.63 0.38 0.47 | Viana de Cega 0.41 0.52 | Hoyo de Pinares 0.40 | Valverde del Camino |