Tellus (2008), 60B, 771–781
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TELLUS

# Climatic significance of tree-ring width and $\delta^{13}C$ in a Spanish pine forest network

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(Manuscript received 31 July 2007; in final form 6 June 2008)

#### ABSTRACT

This paper examines tree-ring width and  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies from a network of five Iberian pine forests to determine their sensitivity to climate variability under different site conditions. Interseries comparisons revealed better and more homogenous agreement among  $\delta^{13}C$  records than among tree-ring width series of the different sites. This suggests that  $\delta^{13}C$  ratios may preferentially record large-scale climatic signals, whereas ring-width variations may reflect more local factors. A negative relationship was found between ring-width and  $\delta^{13}C$ . As inferred from response function analyses, ring-width and  $\delta^{13}C$  showed significant relationships with climate. The analyses of different sites and species revealed unshared tree-ring width responses to summer temperature and precipitation, whereas all  $\delta^{13}C$  series were highly sensitive to current year summer precipitation and, to a lesser extent, to current summer temperature. A strong summer precipitation signal seems to dominate the  $\delta^{13}C$  of trees growing under Mediterranean climate, even when the mean climatic site conditions do not indicate distinct summer drought. Therefore,  $\delta^{13}C$  values reflect precipitation variability during the summer season better than tree-ring widths. This demonstrates that  $\delta^{13}C$  from tree-rings can be a very useful tool for climatic reconstruction in the Mediterranean region, especially when climate-growth relationships are weak.

## 1. Introduction

Tree-rings are a valuable source of long-term information about environmental change. As tree growth is affected by climate variation, past climate is frequently reconstructed from changes in annual ring-widths or wood density. However, the  $^{13}C/^{12}C$  ratio of tree-ring cellulose is also a useful proxy to assess past climate variability (e.g. Hemming et al., 1998; McCarroll and Pawellek, 2001; Helle et al., 2002; Helle and Schleser, 2004), soil water content (e.g. Panek and Goldstein, 2001), water-use efficiency (e.g. Matzner et al., 2001; Ponton et al., 2001) or hydraulic properties of the water-conducting system of stems and branches (Panek, 1996). Until recently, there have been few studies comparing and combining environmental information from  $\delta^{13}C$  of tree-ring cellulose and ring-widths (Robertson et al., 1997a,b; Gagen et al., 2004, 2006).

Mean annual temperature over Europe increased by about 0.8 °C during the 20th century. Larger warming was observed over the Iberian Peninsula (IPCC, 2001), where the 1980–95

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DOI: 10.1111/j.1600-0889.2008.00370.x

period was characterized by intense droughts, producing serious damage to several woody species (Peñuelas et al., 2001). Changes in the variability of tree growth to changing climatic conditions among conifer forests have been previously reported in Spain (e.g. Tardif et al., 2003; Macias et al., 2006; Andreu et al., 2007). However, dendroclimatological studies using stable isotopes are particularly rare from the Iberian Peninsula (Ferrio et al., 2003; Ferrio and Voltas, 2005). In the literature, lowfrequency variations in  $\delta^{13}$ C of tree-ring series from the late 19th and 20th century have been generally linked with physiological responses to increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, in conjunction with declining in  $\delta^{13}$ C values of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. Feng, 1998), whereas high frequency fluctuations in  $\delta^{13}$ C have been related to climatic variables (Feng and Epstein, 1995; Hemming et al., 1998; Tang et al., 1999). Here, we present chronologies of tree-ring width and  $\delta^{13}$ C from a network of Spanish forests for the last two centuries. We investigated the particular value of carbon isotope analysis by assessing the nature and strength of the climatic signal recorded in ring-width and  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies.

Our study was carried out on the Iberian Peninsula with three pine species located at the edge of their phytogeographical distribution area: *Pinus sylvestris* L., *P. uncinata* Ramond ex.

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DC and *P. nigra* Arnold subsp. *salzmannii*. The first two species are of Eurosiberian origin and grow at the southern and western limit of their distribution. The latter, a typical Mediterranean pine species, grows at its western boundary (Blanco et al., 1997). The selected sites were chosen because tree species show a particular susceptibility to climatic variations, modified by site ecology, at the boundary of their geographical distribution (Fritts, 1976).

The sites are located quite far from each other and are characterized by different atmospheric circulation patterns and related precipitation regimes: Atlantic, continental and Mediterranean. Hence, different responses of ring-width and  $\delta^{13}$ C were expected between the sites and species. Species-dependent responses were addressed by studying different species (*P. sylvestris* and *P. uncinata*) from two nearby forest stands of the Urbión range.

Considering current climatic conditions and previous studies on tree-ring width series (Tardif et al., 2003; Macias et al., 2006; Andreu et al., 2007), we wanted to evaluate the common macroclimatic signal shared by the  $\delta^{13}$ C and ring-width series of a network of forests. Specifically, the aims of this investigation were: (1) to compare ring-width and  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies from different pine species of five forests, growing under different climatic influences, and (2) to assess the nature and strength of climatic signals recorded in the tree-ring width and  $\delta^{13}$ C series.

#### 2. Material and methods

Five forest stands were sampled on the Iberian Peninsula (Fig. 1). One *Pinus nigra* stand located in the southeast (*pn*Caz), two *P. sylvestris* forests in the north and the northwest (*ps*Urb and *ps*Lil, respectively), and two *P. uncinata* forests in the north and northeast (*pu*Urb and *pu*Ped, respectively). *Ps*Urb and *pu*Urb are located only 10 km away from each other, allowing for assessment of species-specific responses to similar climatic conditions. Sampling focused on the oldest natural forest stands in the area. Site characteristics are described in Table 1. At each site, more than fifteen trees were cored with an increment borer at around 1.30 m stem height. At least four cores were taken from each tree: two for building ring-width chronologies and two for isotope analyses.

#### 2.1. Ring-width chronologies

Cores were sanded until wood cells were clearly visible under the microscope (Stokes and Smiley, 1968). All samples were visually cross-dated following the procedures described by Yamaguchi (1991) to avoid miscounting by missing (locally absent) or false (multiple) rings. After cross-dating, the ring-widths were measured with an accuracy of 0.01 mm using an ANIOL semi-automatic device (Aniol, 1983). The resulting series underwent a cross-dating quality control, using the statistical program COFECHA (Holmes, 1983).

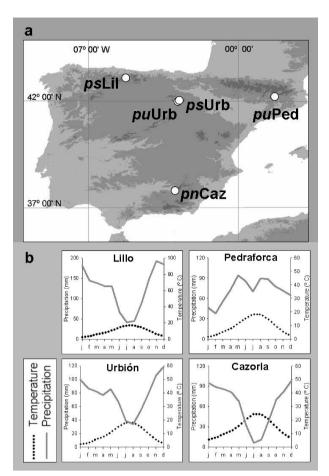


Fig. 1. Geographical locations of the study sites in the Iberian Peninsula (a) and ombrotermic climate diagrams of each region (b).

Individual ring-width series were standardized to make them comparable (Fritts, 1976). Standardization was accomplished using the program TURBOARSTAN, the windows version of ARSTAN (Cook, 1985). First a power transformation of raw series was applied to stabilize variance (Cook and Peters, 1997; Helama et al., 2004). Second, the series were detrended by negative exponential or linear fitting. These conservative methods were applied to remove age-related trends. Third, an autoregressive model was applied to remove autocorrelation, resulting in white-noise indices series. A robust mean, which reduces variance and bias caused by extreme values, was computed at the end of each step (Cook and Briffa, 1990). In this way, standard chronologies 'stdc' (detrended; Fig. 2), and residual chronologies 'res<sub>c</sub>' (detrended without autocorrelation) were obtained. The reliable time span of the chronologies was determined by the Expressed Population Signal criteria (EPS > 0.85, Wigley et al., 1984). Descriptive statistics calculated using COFECHA and ARSTAN software are presented to allow comparisons among sites (Table 2). All the chronologies had an EPS exceeding the commonly accepted minimum value of 0.85, except for psUrb std<sub>c</sub>, which showed a slightly lower value.

Site Species Site code Latitude Longitude Altitude (m a.s.l.) Stand density Range Aspect Slope Cazorla Pinus nigra pnCaz Betic 37°48′ N 02°57′ W 1800 SW 15° Open forest Pinar de Lillo Pinus sylvestris *ps*Lil Cantabrian 43°03′ N 05°15′ W 1600 NW 28° Mainly open forest Pedraforca Pinus uncinata puPed Pre-Pyrenees 42°14′ N 01°42′ E 2100 NE 36° Open forest Urbión Pinus sylvestris *ps*Urb Iberian 42°00′ N 02°49′ W 1750 NE 230 Closed forest

02°45′ W

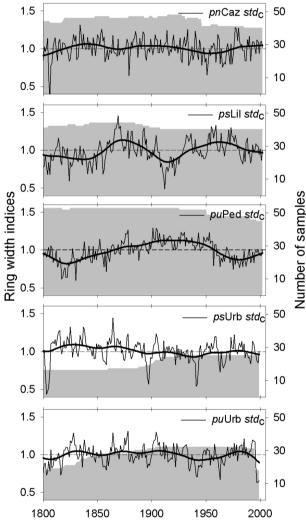
1950

41°58′ N

Table 1. Characteristics of the study sites.

Pinus uncinata

Urbión



*pu*Urb

Iberian

Fig. 2. Standard ring-width chronologies 'stdc' (black lines). Fifty-year smoothing splines fitted on stdc (thick grey lines) are depicted to show long-term fluctuations. Sample depths are shown as grey areas (right axis).

#### 2.2. Isotope chronologies

For pnCaz, psLil and puPed, eight cross-dated samples from four different trees were selected (at least two cores per tree), whereas for psUrb and puUrb, eight trees were selected (one core per tree; Table 3). For each site, tree-rings were separated

and pooled year by year (Leavitt and Long, 1984; Treydte et al., 2001).  $\alpha$ -cellulose was extracted to avoid isotope variations due to varying compositions of wood components such as lignin (Wilson and Grinsted, 1977) or resins, which show a systematically different isotopic signature. The extraction of cellulose employed acetic acid, sodium chlorite and sodium hydroxide (Sohn and Reiff, 1942; Loader et al., 1997). The  $\alpha$ -cellulose was homogenized in two different ways: psUrb and puUrb samples were ground with an ultra centrifugation mill (Retsch ZM1, mesh size of 0.5 mm), whereas samples from pnCaz, psLil and puPed were homogenized with an ultrasonic device developed at the Forschungszentrum Jülich GmbH, Germany, providing a higher sample throughput. Carbon isotopes were measured by combusting  $\alpha$ -cellulose to  $CO_2$  in an elemental analyser (Fisons NA 1500 NC) coupled via an open split to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Micromass Optima) operated in continuous flow mode. The precision was generally better than 0.1\%. The isotope signature expressed as  $\delta^{13}$ C is given in the delta notation, relative to the standard V-PDB (IAEA, 1995):

SW

10°

Closed forest

$$\delta^{13}C_{sample} = \left[ \frac{(^{13}C/^{12}C)_{sample}}{(^{13}C/^{12}C) \text{ V-PDB}} - 1 \right] \times 1000 \text{ in per mil(\%o)}$$
(1)

All  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies (raw data) show a decreasing trend attributed to the rise of  $^{13}C$ -depleted atmospheric  $CO_2$  due to fossil fuel burning and deforestation since industrialization (Fig. 3). The main goal of this study was to assess the climatic signal of these series. Hence, this non-climatic trend related to changes in atmospheric  $\delta^{13}C$  was removed from the raw  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies. To obtain the corrected  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies ( $\delta^{13}C_c$ ), we subtracted for each year the annual changes in  $\delta^{13}C$  of atmospheric  $CO_2$ , obtained from ice cores and direct measurements (Leuenberger, 2007). Similar to dendrochronological procedures, an autoregressive (AR) model was applied using the program FMT from the DPL software (Holmes, 1992) resulting in autocorrelation-free tree-ring  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies ( $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ ). Table 3 shows the main statistics of the raw data, as well as  $\delta^{13}C_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$  data.

#### 2.3. Comparison among sites and proxies

To assess the interseries relationships, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for the 20th century (1901–1999)

Table 2. Mean correlation of the tree ring-width chronologies calculated using COFECHA software for the period 1800–2002.
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				$std_{c}$		res <sub>c</sub>		EPS (1901-1999)		
Site ID	Time-span	Trees/radii	Mean correlation	$\overline{MS_x}$	AC1	$\overline{MS_x}$	AC1	Tree/radii	std <sub>c</sub>	res <sub>c</sub>
pnCaz	1800-2002	29/53	0.682	0.14	0.60	0.16	0.00	24/36	0.925	0.957
psLil	1800-2002	21/44	0.594	0.11	0.69	0.13	0.03	19/40	0.876	0.89
puPed	1800-2003	21/53	0.591	0.08	0.67	0.10	-0.01	19/45	0.902	0.906
<i>ps</i> Urb	1800-1999	15/25	0.579	0.09	0.73	0.11	0.07	12/20	0.764	0.854
<i>pu</i> Urb	1800-1999	17/32	0.571	0.09	0.64	0.11	0.01	9/16	0.844	0.878

Note: Mean Sensitivity  $(MS_x)$ , a measure of the inter-annual variability, first-order autocorrelation (AC1) for  $std_c$  and  $res_c$  and the Expressed Population Signal statistic (EPS) were calculated for the period 1901–1999, using the ARSTAN software.

Table 3. Statistics of raw, corrected ( $\delta^{13}C_c$ ) and without autocorrelation ( $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ )  $\delta^{13}C$  tree-ring chronologies.

Site		Trees/	R	Raw δ <sup>13</sup> C	C (‰)				$\delta^{13}C_c$ (	(‰)			$\delta^{13} \text{C.AR}_{c}$	(‰)
ID	Time-span		Mean ± SD	Min	Max	Range	PAC1	Mean ± SD	Min	Max	Range	PAC1	$\overline{\text{Mean} \pm \text{SD}}$	PAC1
pnCaz	1800-2002	4/9	$-21.38 \pm 0.62$	-22.9	-20.4	2.46	0.81	$-20.95 \pm 0.35$	-22.0	-20.2	1.75	0.43	$0.98 \pm 0.32$	0.06
<i>ps</i> Lil	1800-2002	4/10	$-22.53 \pm 0.63$	-24.2	-21.1	3.05	0.51	$-22.11 \pm 0.52$	-23.5	-21.0	2.46	0.32	$0.92 \pm 0.49$	-0.05
<i>pu</i> Ped	1800-2002	4/8	$-22.35 \pm 0.56$	-24.3	-21.0	3.32	0.47	$-21.93 \pm 0.45$	-23.2	-20.6	2.64	0.15	$0.94 \pm 0.45$	-0.13
<i>ps</i> Urb	1900-1999	8/8	$-23.55 \pm 0.58$	-24.9	-22.5	2.36	0.66	$-22.86 \pm 0.37$	-24.0	-21.9	2.05	0.21	$1 \pm 0.36$	0.01
<i>pu</i> Urb	1800-1999	8/8	$-21.91\pm0.82$	-24.5	-20.3	4.27	0.83	$-21.5\pm0.5$	-23.0	-20.2	2.85	0.57	$1 \pm 0.39$	-0.02

Minimum (Min); Maximum (Max); First order partial autocorrelation (PAC1).

among the ring-width chronologies ( $std_c$  and  $res_c$ ) and the corrected  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies ( $\delta^{13}C_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ ). The analysed period represents the common time span among the chronologies, due to the shorter length of the psUrb  $\delta^{13}C$  chronology that started in 1900. Moreover, four Principal Component Analyses (PCAs) were computed to evaluate the shared variance among the different chronologies ( $std_c.PCA$ ,  $res_c.PCA$ ,  $\delta^{13}C_c.PCA$ ,  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c.PCA$ ). Additionally, to define the relationship between both proxies, two PCAs were computed among the series with autocorrelation ( $std_c-\delta^{13}C_c.PCA$ ) and without autocorrelation ( $res_c-\delta^{13}C.AR_c.PCA$ ).

## 2.4. Climate relationships

Pearson correlation and response function analyses were performed using the program DENDROCLIM2002 (Biondi and Waikul, 2004) to quantify the climate-growth and the climate- $\delta^{13}$ C relationships. Response functions (Fritts, 1976) were used to avoid the problem of multi-colinearity, i.e. interdependence commonly found in multi-variable sets of meteorological data. The tree-ring records were expressed as functions of a set of meteorological data (predictors), computing stepwise multiple regressions after the orthogonalization of the predictors by PCAs. Thus, response function coefficients are multivariate estimates from a principal component regression model. The significance of the calculated Pearson correlation coefficients, as well as the

response function partial regression coefficients was computed based on 1000 bootstrapped iterations, obtained by random extraction with replacement from the initial data set (Guiot, 1991). The use of bootstrap techniques allowed the estimation of 95% probability confidence intervals by means of a virtual increase of sample size. The analysed period of tree growth was from July of the previous to October of the current year.

The meteorological data used in this study correspond to mean monthly temperature and total precipitation from 1931 to 2003. These data belong to a Spanish gridded data set ( $25 \times 25$  km gridbox) created by the Instituto Nacional de Meteorologia (INM). The nearest grid-box data were selected for each site, choosing the same set for psUrb and puUrb due to their proximity.

# 3. Results

#### 3.1. Relationship among chronologies

Table 4 shows Pearson correlation coefficients among  $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C_c$  for the 20th century. Few significant relationships were found among  $std_c$ , except for the highly significant correlation between psUrb and puUrb (r = 0.669; p < 0.01), the two sites located close to each other. This was the only case where  $std_c$  reached higher values than the corresponding  $\delta^{13}C_c$ . All the other correlations among  $\delta^{13}C_c$  were higher and significant. The correlation between psLil and puUrb turned out to be an

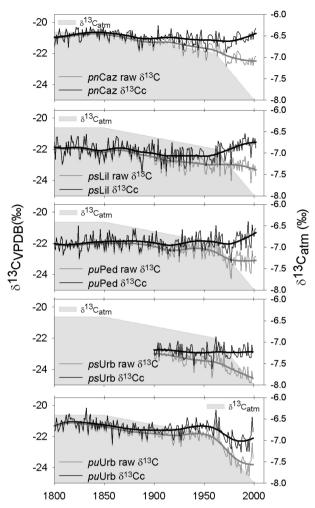


Fig. 3. Raw  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies (grey lines) and corrected  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies " $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>c</sub>" (black lines), see methodology for details, Fifty-year smoothing splines fitted on the raw  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies (thick grey lines) and  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>c</sub> (thick black lines) are depicted to show long-term fluctuations. The  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>atm</sub> decrease according to Leuenberger 2007 is indicated shown by the grey area (right axis).

unusual case because it showed non-significant values between  $std_c$  and significant negative coefficients between  $\delta^{13}C_c$ . The  $\delta^{13}C_c$  mean correlation (0.268  $\pm$  0.18) was higher than the  $std_c$  (0.156  $\pm$  0.22).

All Pearson correlation coefficients were higher among  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> than among  $res_c$  (Table 5), except for two cases. As above, correlation between psUrb and puUrb was higher for  $res_c$  than for  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>. The same was found between psLil and puUrb. A higher mean correlation with a smaller standard deviation (SD) was also found for  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> (0.367  $\pm$  0.08) in comparison with  $res_c$  (0.324  $\pm$  0.17).

Table 6 shows that the first and the second principal components (PC1 and PC2, respectively) were significant in *std<sub>c</sub>*.PCA,

 $res_c$ .PCA and  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>c</sub>.PCA, whereas only PC1 was significant in  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>.PCA. On one hand, the highest explained variance was attained by  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>.PC1 (49.4%) followed by  $res_c$ .PC1 (47.5%), indicating the highest sensitivity to a common climate signal of these types of chronologies.

On the other hand,  $std_c$ - $\delta^{13}C_c$ .PCA and  $res_c$ - $\delta^{13}C$ .AR<sub>c</sub>.PCA showed four and three significant PCs, respectively. Figure 4 illustrates the relationships between both kinds of parameters depicting the scatter plot of the PC1 and PC2 loadings. The PC1 shows positive and negative loadings for  $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C_c$ , respectively (Fig. 4a). Similarly, res<sub>c</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> also show positive and negative loadings with PC1 (Fig. 4b). There is a clear segregation of the two types of chronologies (width and  $\delta^{13}$ C) along the PC1s, which explains about the 30% of the variance. Pearson correlations between both proxies at each site (Table 7) confirm the negative relationship: all correlations were negative except one, most being low and not significant. Despite the significance of other PCs, we focused on PC1, the maximum percentage of common variance shared by all the involved chronologies because shared growth variability can be interpreted as a common response to regional climate.

Removal of autocorrelation from the tree-ring series resulted in higher correlation coefficients. All correlations were higher among  $res_c$  (Table 5) than among  $std_c$  (Table 4), raising the mean correlation from 0.156 ( $std_c$ ) to 0.324 ( $res_c$ ). The  $std_c$ .PC1 explained lower variance than the  $res_c$ .PC1 (Table 6). Generally, correlation coefficients among  $\delta^{13}C_c$  (Table 4) also increased after autocorrelation removal (Table 5). The mean correlation increased from 0.268 ( $\delta^{13}C_c$ ) to 0.367 ( $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ ). However, changes in the correlation coefficients between  $\delta^{13}C_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$  after removal of autocorrelation were found to be smaller than between  $std_c$  and  $res_c$ . The  $\delta^{13}C_c$ .PC1 explained less variance than the  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ .PC1 (Table 6).

# 3.2. Climate relationships

Significant correlation and response function partial regression (RF) coefficients were found between both tree-ring proxies and climate. For each site, similar but not identical, responses were found for  $std_c$  and  $res_c$ , as well as for  $\delta^{13}C_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$  (results not shown). However, no distinct pattern was found among sites regarding which series, with  $(std_c/\delta^{13}C_c)$  or without autocorrelation ( $res_c/\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>), showed the highest correlation with meteorological data. For example, at the pnCaz site, resc and  $\delta^{13}C_c$  achieved the highest values versus temperature and precipitation, whereas at the psLil site, a more heterogeneous picture emerged. In the latter case, the highest correlations with temperature were found with  $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C_c$ , but the highest correlations with precipitation were found using  $res_c$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>. PuPed, psUrb and puUrb also revealed mixed behaviour, depending on the standardization method and the meteorological variables chosen.

Table 4. Pearson correlation coefficients among  $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}C_c$  of different sites from 1901 to 1999.

std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	p	n Caz	р	s Lil	pu	Ped Ped	p.	s Urb	ри	Urb
$mean \pm SD$ $0.156 \pm 0.22$	mean $\pm$ SD <b>0.268</b> $\pm$ 0.18	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	$std_{c}$	$\delta^{13}C_c$	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	$std_c$	$\delta^{13}C_c$	$std_{c}$	$\delta^{13}C_c$
pn	Caz	1	1	0.038	0.250*	-0.022	0.325**	0.244*	0.346**	0.218*	0.223*
ps	Lil			1	1	-0.126	0.364**	0.200*	0.374**	0.013	-0.204*
ри	Ped					1	1	0.141	0.360**	0.189	0.255*
ps	Urb							1	1	0.670**	0.384**
pu Urb										1	1

Numbers in bold indicate the highest or more significant coefficients between each pair of correlations.

Table 5. Pearson correlation coefficients among res<sub>c</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> of different sites from 1901 to 1999.

res <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}$ C.AR <sub>c</sub>	p	pn Caz		ps Lil		pu Ped		ps Urb		pu Urb	
$mean \pm SD$ $0.324 \pm 0.17$	$mean \pm SD$ $0.367 \pm 0.08$	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	$std_c$	$\delta^{13}C_c$	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	std <sub>c</sub>	$\delta^{13}C_c$	
pn	Caz	1	1	0.275**	0.310**	0.019	0.309**	0.296**	0.321**	0.227*	0.303**	
ps	s Lil			1	1	0.197	0.349**	0.387**	0.456**	0.348**	0.251*	
ри	Ped					1	1	0.365**	0.439**	0.439**	0.465**	
<i>ps</i> Urb								1	1	0.682**	0.466**	
pu Urb										1	1	

Numbers in bold indicates the highest coefficients between each pair of correlations.

*Table 6.* Number of chronologies involved in each PCA performed among chronologies and the variance explained (%) by each significant PC from 1901 to 1999.

PCAs	N° chronologies	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
$std_{c}$	5	37.4	23.1	ns	ns
res <sub>c</sub>	5	47.5	20.6	ns	ns
$\delta^{13}C_c$	5	42.5	24.2	ns	ns
$\delta^{13}$ C.AR <sub>c</sub>	5	49.4	ns	ns	ns
$std_{\rm c}$ - $\delta^{13}{ m C}_{ m c}$	10	25.3	17.7	16.9	10.0
$res_{\rm c}$ - $\delta^{13}{ m C.AR}_{\rm c}$	10	29.3	21.1	10.1	ns

ns = non significant

To assess the nature and strength of the climatic signal recorded in width and  $\delta^{13}$ C tree-ring chronologies, considering similar frequency domain, we can either use  $res_c$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> (annual frequency) or  $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>c</sub> (annual and lower frequencies). Although removing autocorrelation did not result in a clearer climatic signal for all the chronologies,  $res_c$  versus  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> were chosen for further detailed exploration because all the residual chronologies ( $res_c$ ) achieved a reliable EPS for the studied period (Table 2), and the variance explained by the PC1 was higher (Table 6).

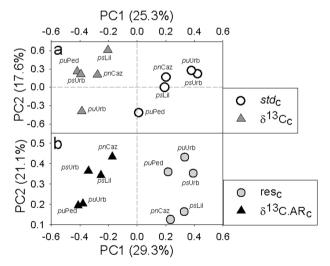


Fig. 4. Scatter plot of PC1 and PC2 loadings of the PCA performed for the width and  $\delta^{13}$ C tree-ring chronologies from 1901 to 1999: a) with autocorrelation ( $std_c$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>c</sub>); b) without autocorrelation ( $res_c$  and  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub>).

# 3.3. Res<sub>c</sub>-climate relationships

Figure 5 shows correlation and RF coefficients found between *res*<sub>c</sub> and meteorological data. Non-common relationships among

<sup>\*</sup>p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01.

p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01.

Table 7. Pearson correlation coefficients between width ( $std_c$  or  $res_c$ ) and  $\delta^{13}C$  ( $\delta^{13}C_c$  or  $\delta^{13}C$ .AR<sub>c</sub>) tree-ring chronologies at each site from 1901 to 1999.

	pnCaz	psLil	<i>pu</i> Ped	<i>ps</i> Urb	<i>pu</i> Urb	Mean $\pm$ SD
$std_{\rm c}$ vs $\delta^{13}{\rm C}_{\rm c}$	0.050	-0.026	$-0.183$ $-0.205^{a}$	-0.169	-0.394**	$-0.144 \pm 0.17$
$res_{\rm c}$ vs $\delta^{13}{\rm C.AR}_{\rm c}$	-0.016	-0.126		-0.130	-0.274*	$-0.150 \pm -0.07$

<sup>\*</sup>p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01.

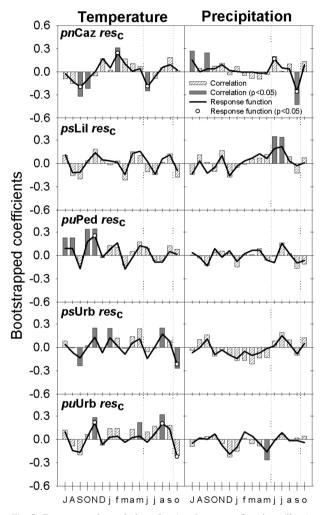


Fig. 5. Bootstrapped correlations (bars) and response functions (lines) performed between  $res_c$  and meteorological data from 1932 to 1999 (psUrb and puUrb) or to 2002 (pnCaz, psLil, puPed). Uppercase: prior year months; lowercase: current year months. Significant correlation and response function coefficients (p < 0.05) are indicated with grey bars and white circles, respectively.

the sites with their corresponding meteorological data sets were found. PnCaz from southern Spain revealed significant RF coefficients with previous September (-0.195), current February (0.243) and June temperature (-0.190), as well as current June precipitation (0.165). However, the highest correlation (-0.425)

and RF coefficients were found between ring-width and current September precipitation. PsLil, in the northwest, showed significant positive correlations with June and July precipitation of the current growing period (0.343 and 0.337, respectively). PuPed located in the northeast only showed significant positive correlation coefficients with temperature prior to the year of ring formation (July: 0.227; August: 0.227; October: 0.335; November: 0.343), with November also being significant in RF analysis. PsUrb revealed a significant correlation with temperature of previous September (-0.238) and November (0.248), as well as with current January (0.242), August (0.247) and October (-0.271), with a significant RF coefficient only in October. Finally, puUrb revealed a significant correlation with temperature of previous November (0.280), current May (0.216) and August (0.320), as well as precipitation of current May (-0.265), and also showing significant RF coefficients for temperature of previous November and current August and October.

# 3.4. $\delta^{13}C.AR_c$ -climate relationships

Figure 6 shows correlation and RF coefficients established between the  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> and meteorological data. During summer months, all  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies displayed significant negative correlations with summer precipitation of the current year: pnCaz (July: -0.362), psLil (June: -0.306; July: -0.325), puPed (June: -0.428; July: -0.472), psUrb (June: -0.311; July: -0.299; August: -0.465) and puUrb (July: -0.225). Accordingly, the corresponding RF coefficients were found to be significant in many cases (Fig. 6). In addition, all  $\delta^{13}$ C.AR<sub>c</sub> showed significant positive correlation coefficients with summer temperatures of the current year: pnCaz (September: 0.263), psLil (July: 0.243), puPed (June: 0.341; July: 0.385; August: 0.385), psUrb (June: 0.212; August: 0.266) and puUrb (August: 0.272). The two sites, psUrb and puUrb, located only 10 km away from each other, did not respond equally, showing different patterns of significance in their variables.

#### 4. Discussion

# 4.1. Common variability

All trees in a stand will be affected similarly by the same set of climatically related environmental variables, as well as by

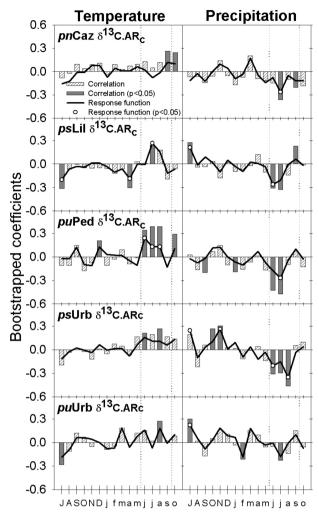


Fig. 6. Bootstrapped correlations (bars) and response functions (lines) performed between  $\delta^{13}\text{C.AR}_{\text{c}}$  and meteorological data from 1932 to 1999 (psUrb and puUrb) or to 2002 (pnCaz, psLil, puPed). Uppercase: prior year months; lowercase: current year months. Significant correlation and response function coefficients (p < 0.05) are indicated with grey bars and white circles, respectively.

common exogenous non-climatic factors associated with stand wide disturbances, such as fire, disease or logging (Cook, 1990). However, when similarities in growth variation are strong and spatially extensive, it is assumed that climate is related to the external agents that are forcing the observed pattern of common variability among trees, because no other environmental factors are likely to act on the same range in space, time and frequency domains (Hughes et al., 1982). Hence, on a broader scale, the common variability shared by the five chronologies across the Iberian Peninsula is most likely due to climate, as confirmed using a network of thirty-eight ring-width chronologies by Andreu et al. (2007). In a similar frequency domain, correlations among the  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies were found to be higher than between the ring-width series. Accordingly, the higher variance explained

by PC1s of PCAs performed with the  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies showed that  $\delta^{13}$ C variations at different sites were more similar than ring-width variations. The same finding was described by Saurer et al. (1995), who also suggested climate as the main cause of the strong similarities between  $\delta^{13}$ C series from two sites. Hence, the higher and more homogenous agreement found among the carbon isotope records in comparison with ring-widths suggests that  $\delta^{13}$ C ratios may better record large-scale climatic signals than ring-width variations. Furthermore, the highest correlation found between ring-width chronologies was from the sites located close to each other (psUrb and puUrb). In contrast, the correlation coefficient between the two  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies from the same sites was lower. This correlation coefficient was similar to coefficients found for correlations between  $\delta^{13}$ C series from distant sites; therefore, our results indicate that the ring-width proxy may be more affected by local factors, whereas  $\delta^{13}$ C values may contain a wider spatial climatic signal. By examining high-frequency variability, Gagen et al. (2004) found that  $\delta^{13}$ C series from subalpine French Alps are less sensitive to local conditions than growth proxies (latewood width and maximum density). Studies by Robertson et al. (1997a,b) also demonstrated that significant climate signals are contained in isotopic proxies of tree-rings from Finland and England, whereas ring-widths contained little or no such information.

# 4.2. Ring-width and $\delta^{13}C$ relationship

Correlations and the PC1s revealed a negative relationship between ring-widths and  $\delta^{13}$ C values (Table 7; Fig. 4). Although the interannual variability of both parameters is related to climatic variations, the same set of climate variables can lead to opposite signs, with regard to the two proxies. Warm and dry summers normally produce narrow rings (less growth), but give rise to high  $\delta^{13}$ C values due to a strong reduction of the stomatal aperture for preventing unnecessary water loss. In dry conditions, discrimination against the heavier stable carbon isotope (13C) during photosynthetic uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> is lower, leading to higher  $\delta^{13}$ C values in tree-rings (Francey and Farquhar, 1982; Hemming et al., 1998). Thus, long and severe droughts generally correspond to narrow rings and less negative  $\delta^{13}$ C values. However, the assessment of the climatic signal recorded in these series revealed that ring-width and  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies contain different climatic information (see sections below).

# 4.3. Climatic signal and frequency domain

The autoregressive modelling was considered by Cook et al. (1990) as a technique that removes noise or non-climatic variability from tree-ring series, when common exogenous non-climatic variance is not present in a stand. Our results highlight a higher agreement among chronologies after removing autocorrelation (due to an enhancement of the current year climatic signal), finding higher correlations among  $res_c$  than among

 $std_c$ , as well as among  $\delta^{13}C$ .AR $_c$  than among  $\delta^{13}C_c$ . Robertson et al. (1997a, b) also reported that both ring-width and  $\delta^{13}C_c$  indices record high-frequency common forcing better than lower-frequency forcing.

Although our chronologies showed higher similarities without autocorrelation, we did not distinguish patterns concerning which series, with or without autocorrelation, correlate better with meteorological variables, finding a wide range of responses depending on sites, frequency domain and meteorological variables. Some authors (e.g. Roberston et al., 1997a,b; Treydte et al., 2001) used the same statistical treatment for meteorological series as for tree-ring chronologies to compare the same frequency domain. However, in this work, we used raw meteorological data without applying any detrending or filtering to preserve the original temporal structure of these series. This could be one of the reasons for the heterogeneous picture found, since the highest agreement between local meteorological series and tree-ring series can be in a different frequency domain, depending on sites and kind of tree-ring proxy. Another possible explanation is that whereas common variance among chronologies is related to macroclimate, our meteorological variables represent local climate.

# 4.4. Climatic sensitivity of width and $\delta^{13}C$ tree-ring chronologies

Growth at the southernmost site pnCaz was constrained by water stress during late summer and early autumn of the preceding year, as shown by the negative relationship with previous September and October temperature and the positive correlation with previous July and September precipitation. Warm late summers can prolong the growing season, limiting the formation of metabolic reserves and consequently affecting radial growth in the following year (Fritts, 1976). Growth also showed a positive response to warm February, which might cause an early beginning of the growing season. Water stress seemed to start early at pnCaz, the driest site studied (see ombrotermic climate diagram in Fig. 1b), with significant response for the month of June. Similar results were reported for *P. nigra* in the southeast of Spain (Richter and Eckstein, 1991), except for the negative relationship found with September precipitation. However, Ferrio et al. (2003) found the only significant (negative) relationship for September between precipitation and radial growth in Iberian Quercus ilex. These results can be considered a typical ring growth response to summer droughts and rainy spring and autumn seasons under Mediterranean climatic conditions. P. sylvestris growth in the northwest of Spain (psLil) also seems to be sensitive to the lack of water during summer (June-July), but not to high temperatures. The influence of the Atlantic climate seems to ameliorate the growth conditions, lowering the high summer temperatures and/or lowering the atmospheric evaporative demand. Growth at the other stands did not respond to summer drought, being only sensitive to temperature. However, interesting differences exist among them. Tree-ring growth at the other P. sylvestris site (psUrb) and at the nearby P. uncinata stand (puUrb) was mainly limited by low temperatures (positive relationships with May and August temperatures) due to a higher continental climate influence. This influence was stronger for puUrb located at a higher altitude (Table 1). Here, growth was limited by low May temperature (positive effect) in conjunction with high precipitation (negative effect) because late spring snows may delay the starting of the growing season. Finally, P. uncinata trees from puPed site were neither sensitive to current year precipitation nor to current year temperature. This site, located on a northeast-facing slope of the Pedraforca mountain in the pre-Pyrenees, receives ample precipitation from moist air masses evolving from the Mediterranean Sea. Nevertheless, a positive response to summer and autumn temperatures of the previous year was found. The positive response to November temperature of the preceding year shared by the two P. uncinata sites has also been reported in the Pyrenees (Tardif et al., 2003).

The negative response to summer rainfall detected in all  $\delta^{13}$ C records showed that  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies were highly sensitive to precipitation. To a lesser degree,  $\delta^{13}$ C records were also sensitive to temperature, but this response was weaker and less homogenous among sites. The differences found in the  $\delta^{13}$ C response between the two nearest chronologies (psUrb and puUrb) may be due to species-specific and/or aspect differences of the stands and require further study.

High (less negative)  $\delta^{13}C$  values reflect low concentrations of  $CO_2$  in the intercellular air spaces of the needles, which can be due to low stomatal conductance (related to air relative humidity and antecedent rainfall) and/or high photosynthetic rates (related to temperature and photon flux) (McCarroll and Pawellek, 2001). Although the contribution of each process cannot be resolved from the current data set, the variability of  $\delta^{13}C$  was probably controlled by stomatal conductance (i.e. vapour pressure deficit) at all the studied sites because of the higher sensitivity of  $\delta^{13}C$  to summer precipitation than to summer temperature. Water availability appeared as a strong and consistent control variable for tree-ring  $\delta^{13}C$  in all the studied stands, in agreement with the spatially broad and homogeneous common signal shared by our  $\delta^{13}C$  chronologies.

Our findings are consistent with studies from other Mediterranean or semi-arid sites. Ferrio and Voltas (2005) showed that the  $\delta^{13}$ C of Iberian *P. halepensis* was highly-dependent on water availability.  $\delta^{13}$ C of Australian grasstrees and conifers (Swanborough et al., 2003) and  $\delta^{13}$ C of Californian conifers (Feng and Epstein, 1995) were shown to be inversely correlated with rainfall, whereas studies in southwestern North America also confirm a strong influence of moisture on tree-ring  $\delta^{13}$ C (Leavitt and Long, 1989; Leavitt et al., 2002).  $\delta^{13}$ C of latewood cellulose from pine trees growing in dry subalpine environments in French Alps provide a powerful proxy measure of past changes in summer moisture stress, the strongest signal

being the total precipitation of July and August (Gagen et al., 2004).

In summary, each ring-width chronology investigated in this study showed its own particular relationship with climate, depending on varied stand features and local climatic conditions, whereas all the  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies shared a negative response to current year summer precipitation, as well as a positive response to current summer temperature (though the latter was less pronounced). This seems to indicate that a strong summer precipitation signal is recorded in the  $\delta^{13}$ C of trees growing under Mediterranean climate, even when the mean climatic site conditions do not indicate distinct summer drought (i.e. at Pedraforca site, puPed).

Hence,  $\delta^{13}$ C values reflect precipitation variability during the summer season better than tree-ring widths. This demonstrates that  $\delta^{13}$ C from tree-rings can be a useful tool for assessing spatial and temporal climate variability in the Mediterranean region.  $\delta^{13}$ C proxy records can fill the spatial gaps that exist between more local reconstructions from ring-width chronologies. Furthermore,  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies can provide high-quality climate reconstructions at sites where climate-growth relationships are weak.

# 5. Acknowledgments

We are very grateful to Oriol Bosch, Montse Ribas, Elena Muntán, Mariano Barriendos, Carlos Almarza, Pedro Antonio Tíscar, Marc Filot, Markus Leuenberger, Bruno Schull and Heinz Vos for their help during sampling, laboratory work and manuscript preparation. This research was funded by EU project ForMAT (Contract ENV4-CT97 = 0641), EU project ISONET (Contract EV K2 = 2001-00237) and EU FP6 project Millennium (GOCE 017008). The authors acknowledge the three anonymous referees for their suggestions that helped to improve the original version of the paper.

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