



1	Modelling tree-ring cellulose $\delta^{18}O$ variations of two temperature-sensitive tree						
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### 29 ABSTRACT

Oxygen isotopes in tree-rings ( $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ ) are widely used to reconstruct past climates. However, the 30 complexity of climatic and biological processes controlling isotopic fractionation is not vet fully 31 32 understood. Here, we use the MAIDENiso model to decipher the variability of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  of two temperature-sensitive species of relevant paleoclimatological interest (Picea mariana and 33 Nothofagus pumilio) and growing at cold high-latitudes in North and South America. In this first 34 modelling study on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values in both northeastern Canada (53.86°N) and western Argentina 35 (41.10°S), we specifically aim at: 1) evaluating the predictive skill of MAIDENiso to simulate 36  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values, 2) identifying the physical processes controlling  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  by mechanistic modelling 37 and, 3) defining the origin of the temperature signal recorded in the two species. Although the 38 linear regression models used here to predict daily  $\delta^{18}$ O of precipitation ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub>) may need to be 39 improved in the future, the resulting daily  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values adequately reproduce observed (from 40 weather stations) and simulated (by global circulation model)  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series. The  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values of 41 the two species are correctly simulated using the  $\delta^{18}O_P$  estimation as MAIDENiso input, although 42 some offset in mean  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels is observed for the South American site. For both species, the 43 variability of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series is more likely linked to the effect of temperature on isotopic 44 45 enrichment of the leaf water rather than on the isotopic composition of the source water. We show that MAIDENiso is a powerful tool for investigating isotopic fractionation processes but 46 47 that the lack of a denser isotope-enabled monitoring network recording oxygen fractionation in 48 the soil-vegetation-atmosphere compartments limits our capacity to decipher the processes at play. This study proves that the eco-physiological modelling of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values is necessary to 49 interpret the recorded climate signal more reliably. 50

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52 **Keywords:** MAIDENiso model,  $\delta^{18}$ O, tree-ring, *Nothofagus pumilio*, *Picea mariana* 

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#### 56 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Oxygen isotopes in tree rings ( $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ ) are increasingly used as indicators of past climatic 57 changes in temperate areas (Cernusak and English, 2015; Hartl-Meier et al., 2014; Saurer et al., 58 59 2008). They have been widely used to reconstruct past atmospheric conditions such as air 60 temperature (Naulier et al., 2015), drought (Labuhn et al., 2016), precipitation amount (Rinne et 61 al., 2013), isotopic composition of precipitation (Danis et al., 2006), relative air humidity (Wernicke et al., 2015), cloud cover (Shi et al., 2012), and even atmospheric circulation patterns 62 63 (Brienen et al., 2012). This diversity of climatic targets possibly reconstructed based on oxygen 64 isotopes hints at the challenge of understanding the complexity of the climatic and biological processes that control isotopic fractionation of oxygen in trees (Treydte et al., 2014). 65 Uncertainties arise because different poorly measured factors influence  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values. Isotopic 66 signals in tree-rings cellulose are strongly influenced by isotopic signature of soil water taken up 67 68 by the roots and by evaporative and physiological processes occurring at the leaf level and during downstream metabolism (Barbour et al., 2005; Gessler et al., 2014). Thus, a comprehensive 69 approach that embraces existing mechanistic understanding of the fractionation processes 70 71 involved is required.

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Few isotopic process-based models have been developed to investigate the mechanistic rules 73 governing the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  variations (Guiot et al., 2014): the Péclet-modified Craig-Gordon model 74 75 (Kahmen et al., 2011) and the Roden's model (Roden et al., 2000) are able to estimate, at a daily 76 time step, the  $\delta^{18}$ O values of soil and xylem waters, and the isotopic fractionation occurring in the 77 leaves due to evapotranspiration. Versions of these models are integrated in more complete forest 78 ecophysiological models simulating the ensemble of forest water and carbon fluxes: (1) 79 MAIDEN (Modeling and Analysis In DENdroecology) (Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2015; Misson, 80 2004), which contains the isotopic module MAIDENiso (Danis et al., 2012) and (2) MUSICA 81 (Ogée et al., 2003, 2009). Both are accounting for important post-photosynthetic factors and are 82 able to link photosynthesis and carbohydrate allocation to stem growth.

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In this paper, we use the MAIDENiso model to decipher the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  variability in American temperature-sensitive species (*Picea mariana* in northeastern Canada and *Nothofagus pumilio* in western Argentina). The selected sites are of special interest for paleoclimatology given that their





 $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  chronologies carry strong temperature signals. A summer temperature reconstruction was 87 already developed at the North American site (Gennaretti et al., 2017a; Naulier et al., 2015) and a 88 calibration study conducted at the South American one highlighted the strong potential of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ 89 90 values to reflect variations in summer-autumn temperatures over a large region south of 38°S (Lavergne et al., 2016). However, up to now, the climate- $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  relationships were analysed 91 using a black box approach based on linear models. Here, we specifically aim at: 1) evaluating 92 the predictive skill of MAIDENiso to simulate  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values, 2) identifying the physical 93 processes controlling  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  by mechanistic modelling and, 3) defining the origin of the 94 temperature signal recorded in the two species. 95

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#### 97 2. DATA AND METHODS

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### 2.1. Sampling sites and tree-ring data

Two high-latitude American native species were studied here: 1) Picea mariana (Mill. B.S.P.; 99 100 black spruce), which is a conifer widely distributed over the American boreal forest (Viereck and Johnston, 1990); and 2) Nothofagus pumilio (Poepp. et Endl. Krasser; lenga), which is a 101 102 deciduous species dominating the high-elevation forests along the Patagonian Andes from 35°S to 55°S (Donoso, 1981; Schlatter, 1994). We selected two sites of P. mariana in the centre of the 103 Quebec-Labrador Peninsula in northeastern Canada (L01 and L20; from 53°51'N-72°24'W to 104 54°33'N-71°14'W, ~480 m elevation; see Gennaretti et al. (2014) and Naulier et al. (2014) for 105 106 details) and three sites of N. pumilio in northern Patagonia, western Argentina (NUB, ALM and CHA; from 41°09'S-71°48'W to 41°15'S-71°17'W, 1270-1610 m elevation; see Lavergne et al. 107 108 (2016, 2017) for details). Climate in northeastern Canada is mostly continental and subarctic with short, mild and wet summers and long, cold and dry winter. Total annual precipitation averages 109 825 mm with up to 46% falling during the growing season in summer (June to September) 110 (Naulier et al., 2014). In western Argentina, precipitation is largely concentrated from late fall to 111 112 early spring followed by a drier and mild period during summer and early fall (López Bernal et al., 2012). 113

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Four trees per site were collected for both species. The selection of the samples and analytical procedure for  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  measurements were described in Lavergne et al. (2016) and Naulier et al.





117 (2014). The developed  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  chronologies covered the 1950-2005 and 1952-2011 periods at the 118 northeastern Canadian and western Argentinian sites, respectively. For each species, the 119 chronologies obtained at the different stands being significantly inter-correlated (Figure 1), we 120 chose to combine them and to develop one isotopic chronology for each of the two species.

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### 2.2. Modelling oxygen isotopes in tree-ring cellulose with MAIDENiso

123 MAIDENiso is a process-based model that can simulate in parallel phenological and 124 meteorological controls on photosynthetic activity and carbon allocation. It explicitly allocates 125 carbohydrates to different carbon pools (leaves, stem, storage and roots) on a daily basis using phenological stage-dependent rules. It also simulates the fractionation of carbon and oxygen 126 isotopes during growth processes. In particular, it estimates at a daily time step  $\delta^{18}$ O values of 127 soil water and xylem water, the isotopic fractionation occurring in the leaves due to 128 129 evapotranspiration and the biochemical fractionation during cellulose formation. It uses as input 130 daily maximum and minimum temperature (°C), precipitation (cm/day), atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (ppm) and  $\delta^{18}$ O values of precipitation ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> in ‰). 131

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In this study, the calculation of the daily  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  in tree-ring cellulose (‰) is based on the (Danis et al., 2012)'s formulation of the Craig-Gordon model (Craig and Gordon, 1965):

# 135 $\delta^{18}O_{TR} = (1 - f_o) \cdot [\epsilon^* + \epsilon_k \cdot (1 - h_{air}) + h_{air} \cdot \delta^{18}O_V + (1 - h_{air}) \cdot \delta^{18}O_{XW}] + f_o \cdot \delta^{18}O_{XW} + \epsilon_0 \quad (1)$

136 This equation summarizes how  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  is determined by:

- 137 (i) the  $\delta^{18}$ O of the source (xylem) water ( $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$ ), which is computed by averaging the 138  $\delta^{18}O_{SW}$  values of the different soil layers weighted by the volume of water taken up by 139 the roots in each layer. The isotopic effects of water mixing and soil evaporation on 140 the  $\delta^{18}O_{SW}$  values of the different soil layers are computed by a mass and isotopic 141 balance (Danis et al., 2012). It is worth noting that no fractionation occurs during 142 water uptake by roots (Wershaw et al., 1966), neither during the transport of water 143 from the roots to the leaves.
- 144 (ii) the <sup>18</sup>O enrichment of the leaf water due to transpiration is described by 145 ( $\epsilon^* + \epsilon_k \cdot (1 - h_{air}) + h_{air} \cdot \delta^{18}O_V + (1 - h_{air}) \cdot \delta^{18}O_{XW}$ ) after (Craig and Gordon, 1965), where:





146	a. $\epsilon^*$ is the equilibrium fractionation due to the change of phase from liquid water to					
147	vapour at the leaf temperature (fixed at 21.4°C, the temperature threshold for					
148	maximum carbon assimilation, $\varepsilon^*$ is 9.65‰ (Helliker and Richter, 2008)),					
149	b. $\epsilon_k$ is the kinetic fractionation due to the diffusion of vapour into unsaturated air					
150	through the stomata and the leaf boundary layer,					
151	c. $h_{air}$ is the relative humidity of the evaporating air mass estimated from daily air					
152	temperature ( $T_{air}$ ; °C; mean of the maximum and minimum air temperatures), and					
153	the dew point temperature (T <sub>r</sub> ; °C) (Running et al., 1987),					
154	d. $\delta^{18}O_V$ is the atmospheric water vapour calculated assuming a precipitation-vapour					
155	isotopic equilibrium (see below);					
156	(iii) the biochemical fractionations $(\varepsilon_0)$ due to oxygen exchange between carbonyl groups					
157	(C = O) in the organic molecules and water (DeNiro and Epstein, 1979; Farquhar et					
158	al., 1998).					
159	(iv) the dampening factor $f_o$ reflecting the exchange of the oxygen atoms between sucrose					
160	and xylem water during cellulose synthesis in the xylem cells of tree rings.					
161	As previously evoked (i), $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$ of Eq. 1 depends on $\delta^{18}O_{SW}$ and thus on $\delta^{18}O_P$ values. However,					
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164	Firstly, a linear model was used to estimate the daily values of $\delta^{18}O_P$ and subsequently $\delta^{18}O_V$					
165	based on the primary drivers of their temporal variability (Dansgaard, 1964; Horita and					
166	We solowski, 1994), that are air temperature ( $T_{air}$ ; °C) and precipitation at the corresponding site					
167	(P; mm):					
168	$\delta^{18}O_P = a \cdot T_{air} + b \cdot P + c \tag{2}$					
169	$\delta^{18}O_V = \delta^{18}O_{P} \cdot \epsilon^*_{Tair} $ (3)					
170	with $\epsilon^*_{Tair}$ the fractionation due to the change of phase from liquid water to vapour at the mean air					
171	temperature. The coefficients a and b were allowed to vary over a plausible range (or prior range)					
172	in the calibration process together with other MAIDENiso parameters, while coefficient $c$ was					
173	fixed to a likely value (see Table 1 and section 2.4). This estimated set of data is referred in the					
174	following as the estimated $\delta^{18}O_P$ dataset.					





Secondly, we run the model with the series of the daily  $\delta^{18}O_P$  derived from two general 175 176 circulation models (GCM) with different spatial resolutions and enough available data at our site locations: 1) the MUGCM model (Noone and Simmonds, 2002) forced by varying sea surface 177 178 temperature (SST) from the HadISST data set for the 1950-2003 period ( $2^{\circ}\times 2^{\circ}$  resolution; extracted at http://paos.colorado.edu/~dcn/SWING/database.php; hereafter referred as MUGCM 179  $\delta^{18}O_P$  dataset), and 2) the LMDZ5A model (Hourdin et al., 2013; Risi et al., 2010) with the 180 181 horizontal winds guided by those of the NCEP20 reanalysis for the 1950-2008 period (Compo et al., 2011) (2.5°×3.75° resolution; hereafter referred as LMDZ-NCEP20  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> dataset). 182 183 The final  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  time series are the annual average of the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  daily values (Eq. 1) weighted by 184 the daily simulated stand Gross Primary Production (GPP), assuming a proportional allocation of 185

186 carbon to the trunk. For the northeastern Canadian sites, the GPP simulated by MAIDENiso was optimized using observations from an eddy covariance station (see Gennaretti et al. (2017a)). 187 Unfortunately, such observations were not available for N. pumilio, therefore the 188 189 parameterization obtained for the GPP of *P. mariana* was also used for the western Argentinian 190 sites but constraining the simulations with phenological observations extracted from the 191 literature. For example, to respect the annual cycle of the leaf area index (LAI) for N. pumilio 192 (Magnin et al., 2014; Rusch, 1993), we used in MAIDENiso a seasonal LAI annual cycle with a 193 development of leaves (LAI increase) between October and November, a maximum LAI (set at 5 194 leaf area/ground area) from November to April a decreasing LAI (leaf fall) between April and 195 May, and finally a leafless period (null LAI) from June to September (Magnin et al., 2014; Rusch, 1993). Furthermore, based on the finding that  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  annual time series were more 196 correlated to climate variables of specific months of the growing season (Lavergne et al., 2016), 197 we also computed  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  annual values by weighting the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  daily values (Eq. 1) with 198 synthetic GPP time series maximizing the correspondence between observations and simulations. 199 200

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## 2.3. Meteorological and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> data

At the western Argentinian sites, we did not have long daily records of observed climate data. Therefore, daily minimum–maximum temperature and precipitation data were derived from the 20th Century Reanalysis V2c (Compo et al., 2011) provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL (2°×2° resolution, <u>https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.20thC\_ReanV2c.html</u>). The





206 temperature daily time series of the reanalysis were corrected in order to respect the monthly 207 mean values detected at Bariloche, the nearest meteorological station from our sampling sites (~48 km from the sites, 41°12' S-71°12' W, 840 m asl; Servicio Meteorológico Nacional, 208 209 Argentina). The resulting maximum and minimum temperature series, covering the 1952-2011 210 period, fit well with the daily local temperature data from La Almohadilla (ALM) site (41°11'S, 211 71°47'W, 1410 m asl; data measured by dataloggers and provided by IANIGLA) available over 212 the 2002-2012 period (r = 0.74, p < 0.001; Figure SM1). For the northeastern Canadian sites, climate data were obtained from the gridded interpolated Canadian database of daily minimum-213 214 maximum temperature and precipitation covering the 1950-2005 studied period  $(0.08^{\circ} \times 0.08^{\circ})$ 215 resolution, (Hutchinson et al., 2009); http://cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/projects/3/4). In addition to these data 216 we also used for both the western Argentinian and northeastern Canadian sites modelled daily 217 data from the GCMs described above (see Table 2 with the input data used for each tested 218 configuration).

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Data on the atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration were derived from the Mauna Loa station over the 1958-2012 period (Keeling et al. (1976); http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/). For the 1950-1957 years, we extrapolated atmospheric  $CO_2$  data using the trend and seasonal cycle observed in the observations over the subsequent 10-years period (1958-1967).

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## 2.4. Estimation of parameters influencing $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$

We used a Bayesian method for the simultaneous calibration of the various MAIDENiso parameters specific to the study species and site. A set of 50 plausible blocks of parameters (posterior values) was selected according to the method described in Gennaretti et al. (2017a) using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling (Table 1). The following prior plausible ranges were considered:

1) the prior ranges of the *a* and *b* coefficients in the equation of the daily  $\delta^{18}O_P$  (Eq. 2) were selected in order to get  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values for each site consistent with the measured monthly local values from the nearest stations of the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP), and with the simulated daily values from the LMDZ-NCEP20 model and from the MUGCM model (see Table 1),





- 236 2) the range for the biochemical fractionation factor  $\varepsilon_0$  was chosen between 24‰ and 30‰
- (+27±3‰ after DeNiro and Epstein (1981); Sternberg (1989); Yakir and DeNiro (1990)), 237
- 3) the range for the kinetic fractionation  $\varepsilon_k$ , which has been set to 26.5% in Farquhar et al. (1989) 238
- 239 but that can vary over larger ranges (Buhay et al., 1996), was taken between 10‰ and 30‰ here,
- 240 4) the range for the dampening factor  $f_o$  was allowed to vary between 0.3 and 0.5 following 241 Saurer et al. (1997).
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243 We tested the sensitivity of the MAIDENiso model to the calibrated parameters by modifying 244 them within their respective prior calibration range. To control the robustness of the calibrated 245 parameters, we performed the calibration of these parameters over two equal length intervals (1950-1977 and 1978-2005 for P. mariana; 1952-1981 and 1982-2011 for N. pumilio) keeping 246 247 the second half for independent validation of the parameters estimates. Once the model was 248 calibrated for the two species, the MAIDENiso's performance to simulate P. mariana and N. pumilio  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  interannual data was evaluated using the correlation coefficients (r) and the root 249 mean square errors (RMSE) between observed and simulated values. 250

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## 252 253

# 2.5. Disentangling leaf-level fractionation processes and source water influences on $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ signature

- To define the relative contributions to the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  signature of the isotopic signal of the source 254 water (xylem water) and of the fractionation processes due to transpiration taking place in the 255 256 leaves, we designed two experimental simulations with MAIDENiso based on Eq. 1:
- 257 1) to quantify the influence of the variability of the isotopic composition of the xylem water on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ , we compared the reference simulations to those where the relative humidity 258  $(h_{air})$  and the isotopic composition of atmospheric vapour ( $\delta^{18}O_V$ ) were assumed to be 259 constant. The constant values for  $h_{air}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_V$  were defined as the averages of the 260 respective MAIDENiso outputs ( $h_{air} = 0.62$  and 0.9, and,  $\delta^{18}O_V = -26.28\%$  and -17.34%, 261 respectively for northeastern Canada and western Argentina; the XW source experiment 262 263 simulation hereafter),
- 264 2) to quantify the influence of the isotopic enrichment of the leaf water due to transpiration on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ , we compared the reference simulations to those where the  $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$  series were 265 assumed to be constant. The constant value for  $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$  was estimated as the average of 266





- 267 the  $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$  MAIDENiso outputs ( $\delta^{18}O_{XW} = -13.81\%$  and -7.03%, respectively for 268 northeastern Canada and western Argentina; the Leaf\_water\_enrichment\_driven 269 experiment simulation hereafter).
- 270 Comparison between the experimental and reference simulations (i.e. using the optimal values of
- 271 the parameters) was achieved through the calculation of the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$ .
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### 273 **3. RESULTS**

# 274 **3.1. Estimated versus modelled and observed** $\delta^{18}O_P$ values

275 The modelled  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series from the GCM models are similar to the GNIP datasets, with mean 276 values ranging from -12‰ to -8‰ over June-September in northeastern Canada (Figure SM2A) 277 and from -7‰ to -3‰ over December-April at the western Argentinian sites (Figure SM2B). In general,  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series from LMDZ-NCEP20 model in western Argentina are slightly displaced 278 279 toward higher values (+1‰) in comparison with the GNIP and MUGCM data. The estimated  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> values based on plausible values of coefficients *a* and *b* agree well with those of the models 280 and observations in northeastern Canada. For the western Argentinian sites, they are 2-3‰ lower 281 282 from April to October, i.e. late spring-early autumn (Figure SM2).

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### **3.2.** Sensitivity of the model to the calibrated parameters

Most of the calibrated parameters have an influence on the correlations between observed and 285 simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series and/or on the mean levels of the simulated series (Figure 2). The 286 temperature and precipitation dependences of  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values (respectively a and b) have the 287 strongest influence on correlations. Increasing a and b values increase the mean  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels, 288 289 most strongly in western Argentina than in northeastern Canada (Figure 2). Changes in the dampening factor ( $f_o$ ) and in the biochemical fractionation ( $\varepsilon_0$ ) have almost no effect on 290 correlation, but their increase induces significant decrease of the mean levels of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series. 291 Finally, increasing the kinetic fractionation ( $\varepsilon_k$ ) leads to lower correlations and to higher mean 292 levels of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  (Figure 2). 293

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# 295 **3.3. MAIDENiso performance in reproducing observed** $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ series

296 Split-period verifications of the calibrated relationships for *P. mariana* and *N. pumilio* when 297 using estimated  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series from Eq. 2 indicate that the calibration over either the first half or the





298 second half periods provide similar posterior densities of the calibrated parameters than the ones 299 obtained when calibrating over the whole periods (Figure SM3). One exception is observed in the calibration of coefficient a in northeastern Canada over the two half periods, where the posterior 300 301 densities of a are different from the one obtained by calibrating over the entire period. Over the entire periods, observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series are significantly correlated in northeastern 302 Canada (r = 0.56, p < 0.01 and RMSE = 0.67; Figure 3A) and in western Argentina (r = 0.48, p < 303 0.01 and RMSE = 0.63; Figure 3C). The correlation between observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ 304 series are slightly improved when we used synthetic daily GPP (r = 0.62 and r = 0.52, p < 0.01, 305 respectively for northeastern Canada and western Argentina; Figure 3B and 3D). It is worth 306 noting that the mean levels of the simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series for the Argentinian sites are lower than 307 those of the observations (offset of around -2.5%; Figure SM4). The series were therefore 308 309 corrected to respect the mean values detected in the observations (Figure 3C and 3D). In contrast, 310 the correlations between observation and simulation considerably decrease when we used modelled  $\delta^{18}O_P$  from MUGCM models or LMDZ-NCEP20 reanalysis data. They only reach 311 r = 0.13 (p > 0.05) to 0.23 (p < 0.05) in northeastern Canada and r = 0.23 to 0.26 (p < 0.05) in 312 313 western Argentina, respectively (Figure 4).

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3.4. Influence of source water and leaf water isotopic enrichment to the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  signature 315 The relative contributions to the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  signature of the isotopic signal of the source (xvlem) 316 water and of the <sup>18</sup>O enrichment of the leaf water due to transpiration were investigated. In both 317 regions, the Leaf water enrichment experimental simulations are more highly related to the 318 reference one (R<sup>2</sup> centred on 0.9 and 0.95, respectively for northeastern Canada and western 319 Argentina; Figure 5) than the XW source ones ( $R^2$  centred on 0.65 and 0.8, respectively for 320 northeastern Canada and western Argentina). This suggests that, with the model, the variability of 321  $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$  has a weaker influence on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  variations than the changes of the leaf water isotopic 322 enrichment do. Notably, P. mariana in northeastern Canada appears to be more sensitive to both 323 324 influences than N. pumilio in western Argentina (Figure 5). Caution should be made here since 325 these results are limited upstream by the performance of the regressions.

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#### 328 4. DISCUSSION

## 329 **4.1. Precipitation** $\delta^{18}O_P$ variations and estimation

Although the regression models used to predict daily  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values are likely too simplistic, the 330 resultant monthly averaged values adequately reproduce the distribution of the observed (from 331 332 GNIP stations) and modelled (by GCMs) monthly  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series in northeastern Canada. In western Argentina, the distribution of monthly  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values is also well reproduced but the 333 334 amplitude of variation of the predicted values is too high, leading to simulated values lower than the measured ones during the colder months. The temporal  $\delta^{18}O_P$  variations are positively related 335 336 to air temperature given the positive coefficient a. In agreement with the simple Rayleigh distillation model (Dansgaard, 1964), as air temperature decreases, the specific humidity at 337 saturation decreases, and water vapour condenses. H<sub>2</sub><sup>18</sup>O condenses preferentially, the residual 338 339 water vapour gets more and more depleted as condensation proceeds. In the Tropics, the relative 340 abundance of <sup>18</sup>O in the meteoric water has been observed to decrease with increasing amount of precipitation and/or relative humidity leading to a decrease in  ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$  ratio in a high amount of 341 precipitated water (Rozanski et al., 1993). In extra-tropical regions,  $\delta^{18}O_P$  may also correlate with 342 343 precipitation amount (negative coefficient b), since both variables depend on the meteorological 344 conditions.

The results of the linear regressions show comparatively lower influence of precipitation on  $\delta^{18}O_P$ 345 in western Argentina than in northeastern Canada (Table 1). This suggests that the imprint of the 346 precipitation amount on  $\delta^{18}O_P$  in western Argentina is low and that  $\delta^{18}O_P$  variations are mainly 347 348 controlled by seasonal changes in temperature, which is in agreement with (Rozanski et al., 349 1995). However, due to the strong west-to-east precipitation gradient in this region (orographic rain shadow), large  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> variations occur over short distances (Rozanski et al., 1995; Smith and 350 351 Evans, 2007; Stern and Blisniuk, 2002). Therefore, the daily precipitation dataset extracted from 352 the gridded reanalysis data, which has a low spatial resolution (>200 km), may not represent the daily variations in precipitation at a local scale faithfully. Therefore, the model may 353 underestimate the contribution of precipitation on  $\delta^{18}O_P$  variability in this particular area. 354 355

Contrastingly, in northeastern Canada, both temperature and precipitation amount equally control the  $\delta^{18}O_P$  variations. The high amount of precipitation falling in summer (~46%) should have a strong effect and decrease the  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values in the condensed water, while high temperatures





counteract this effect by increasing this ratio. Before reaching northeastern Canada, the air masses pushed by the dominant westerly winds discharge most of their humidity over the land, leading to a depleted  $\delta^{18}O_P$  signal at our sites (for the same reason,  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values at L20, which is located 110 km North-East of L01, are ~1‰ lower). Interestingly, the  $\delta^{18}O_P$  signal in northeastern Canada is comparatively more depleted than in western Argentina. It is worth noting that the resolution of the gridded meteorological dataset used here is relatively high (~10 km), which means that the local processes are likely well represented.

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# 367 **4.2. Relative performance in modelling** $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ values

The simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series based on daily  $\delta^{18}O_{P}$  estimation from the regression models 368 reproduce the observations better than the ones based on  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values derived from GCMs 369 (Figure 4). This is in part due to the greater number of parameters to optimize, as the calibration 370 371 process can more easily find a solution that fits the observations better. This may however reflect error compensations especially in western Argentina where the estimated annual variability of 372  $\delta^{18}O_P$  is too large. Conversely in northeastern Canada, the annual variations of  $\delta^{18}O_P$  that are 373 374 estimated, simulated by GCMs and observed are in good agreement (Figure SM2). Although 375 isotope-enabled atmospheric global models reproduce reasonably well the global distribution of 376 the mean annual isotope contents of the modern precipitation and their seasonality (Risi et al., 377 2010), results at specific sites, especially in mountainous regions such as at our western Argentinian site, can be less accurate (Figure SM2; see the offset between GNIP and LMDZ-378 NCEP20). Ideally, daily  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> long-term records from meteorological stations in the study region 379 380 should be used as an input of MAIDENiso. Simulations from high-resolution regional circulation models, such as REMOiso which has a  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$  (~55 km) horizontal resolution (Insel et al., 381 2013; Sturm et al., 2007, 2005), may produce reliable local  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> values. Such dataset has proven 382 to be quite helpful with MAIDENiso in the Fontainebleau forest (France) (Danis et al., 2012). 383 However, up to now, measured or REMOiso  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> datasets in our regions of study do not exist. 384 which is the case for most regions of the world. Therefore, we recommend that daily GNIP 385 sations are set up in various forested ecosystems and that high resolution simulations of  $\delta^{18}O_P$  are 386 387 performed in wider regions.





The modelling of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values based on the estimation of  $\delta^{18}O_{P}$  is relatively more accurate for 389 390 northeastern Canada than for western Argentina (Figure 3). As the mean levels of the measured  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values are high at the western Argentinian sites (mean value of about 30%), the Bayesian 391 optimization tends to increase the biochemical  $(\varepsilon_0)$  and kinetic  $(\varepsilon_k)$  fractionations as well as the 392 coefficient a, while reducing the dampening factor  $(f_a)$  to reach more representative mean levels 393 of the  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  simulation. But still, these levels are too low in comparison with the observations 394 395 (about 2.5% lower; Figure SM4). When the posterior value of a calibrated parameter is limited to 396 the upper bound of the prior range of plausible values, as it is the case at the western Argentinian sites for a, b and  $\varepsilon_0$  (Figure SM3), it means that either the prior range is too narrow, or the model 397 398 is inadequate, or some important process is not considered in the model. Here, the estimation of the prior ranges of both coefficients a and b were based on observed (GNIP stations) and 399 simulated (GCMs)  $\delta^{18}O_P$  values. Therefore, we expect their respective ranges to be consistent 400 with local processes. When the prior range of a is extended to higher values in the optimization 401 402 process, observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  mean levels in western Argentina are better matching. However, in this case, the distribution of  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>P</sub> values is shifted toward higher values, advocating 403 for unrealistic estimated  $\delta^{18}O_P$  variations. 404

405 One other possibility is that the prior range of  $\varepsilon_0$  is too narrow. In accordance with DeNiro and Epstein (1981), Sternberg (1989) and Yakir and DeNiro (1990), the biochemical fractionation  $\varepsilon_0$ 406 407 is assumed here to be lower than 30%. However, a recent study has demonstrated that this 408 parameter, nearly constant between 20 to 30°C, increases at lower temperatures to values of 31‰ 409 (Sternberg and Ellsworth, 2011). During the growing season, maximum temperatures can reach 20°C in western Argentina and 30°C in northeastern Canada, which suggests that the high mean 410  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels in N. pumilio may be due to biochemical fractionation higher than 30% due to 411 temperature generally lower than 20°C. However, when the prior range of  $\varepsilon_0$  is extended to 31% 412 in the optimization process, the mean  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels of N. pumilio are still too low in comparison 413 with the observations. These results advocate for the existence of other processes, which can 414 explain this offset in mean levels in Argentina. For example, higher soil water evaporation than 415 modelled by MAIDENiso should lead to less negative  $\delta^{18}O_{SW}$  (and therefore  $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$ ), which 416 could explain the high mean levels of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  in Argentina. Caution should be exercised with such 417 418 an interpretation since other species living in similar conditions as N. pumilio in western Argentina show comparatively lower mean  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels than N. pumilio (i.e., Fitzroya 419





*cupressoides*; see Lavergne et al. (2016)). The ongoing monitoring and evaluation of isotopic processes based on synchronous measurements of vapour, precipitation, soil water and xylem water will certainly help understanding the high mean levels observed in Argentina, and increasing the representation of the involved processes in MAIDENiso.

424

The better fit between observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values obtained with specific forms of 425 426 synthetic distributions of daily GPP for northeastern Canada and western Argentina (Figure 3) 427 suggests differential limiting factors in the two regions. The synthetic bimodal distribution of daily GPP with maxima in spring and autumn, as simulated in western Argentina, is often 428 429 observed in a diversity of ecosystems such as in the Mediterranean environments (Baldocchi et 430 al., 2010; Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2015). After the activation of the photosynthesis in early spring, 431 increasing temperatures tend to be optimal for tree growth. However, in a modelling study, 432 Lavergne et al. (2015) have shown that the influence of temperature on N. pumilio's growth 433 becomes negative once a temperature threshold (soil moisture) is exceeded. Therefore, we 434 assume that after reaching a threshold of temperature and soil moisture summer conditions, tree 435 growth is not favoured, leading to a decrease of primary productivity. However, when 436 temperature starts to decline and soil water supply tends to increase with increasing precipitation 437 events, tree growth increases again until the end of the growing season. In contrast, because 438 precipitation is more abundant in summer (June to September) in northeastern Canada (Naulier et 439 al., 2014), high summer temperatures should be always beneficial to tree-growth if enough soil 440 water is available. Therefore, in agreement with GPP-derived eddy covariance data from the 441 Fluxnet network (see Gennaretti et al. (2017a)), a better fit between observations and simulations 442 is observed when using a unimodal rather than a bimodal GPP distribution. Monitoring of tree 443 physiology, environmental conditions and wood cell formation will provide a more detailed 444 representation of the complex biological and ecological processes operating in Patagonia, 445 allowing us to run the MAIDENiso model with better constraints.

446

# 447 **4.3.** What is the main origin of the temperature signal recorded in $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ ?

The investigation of the relative contributions of the isotopic composition of the source (xylem) water and of the <sup>18</sup>O enrichment of the leaf water by transpiration on the simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  reveals that the variability of the former has a weaker influence on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  variations than that of the





latter in North and South America. Therefore, the temperature signal recorded in  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  series 451 452 more likely reflects the effect of temperature on isotopic enrichment of the leaf water rather than 453 on the isotopic composition of the source water. At the leaf-level, air temperature has a strong 454 effect on the relative humidity and therefore on the vapour pressure deficit (VPD), i.e. the 455 difference between the saturation vapour pressure and the actual vapour pressure, which 456 modulates the transpiration (Barbour, 2007). Thus, the imprint of the ambient air temperature on 457 the fractionation processes occurring during transpiration is preferentially recorded in the treerings of the two species. Furthermore, both the isotopic signature of the xylem water and of the 458 459 fractionation processes occurring at the evaporation sites of the leaves have comparatively higher influence on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  in *P. mariana* than in *N. pumilio*. This is probably due to the lower amplitude 460 of the day-by-day variations of the relative humidity in western Argentina (SD = 5%) versus in 461 462 northeastern Canada (SD = 16%) that translates into a weaker influence of  $h_{air}$  variations and therefore of leaf-level isotopic fractionation processes on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values in western Argentina 463 than in northeastern Canada. These results highlight the potential of MAIDENiso model to better 464 465 refine the origin of the climatic signal recorded in the oxygen isotopic signature in the tree-rings 466 of different species.

467

#### 468 **5. CONCLUSION**

469 Here, by using MAIDENiso model, we provided a mechanistic overview of the climatic and 470 biological processes controlling oxygen isotopic fractionation in two American temperature-471 sensitive tree species. Firstly, we have shown that using regression-based rather than modelbased  $\delta^{18}O_P$  estimates as inputs increases the predictive skills of our simulations, although this 472 may be at the price of error compensations. Secondly, our study reveals that the variability of the 473 isotopic composition of the source (xylem) water has a weaker influence on  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  variations 474 than that of the <sup>18</sup>O enrichment of the leaf water by transpiration. Finally, these findings suggest 475 that the imprint of temperature recorded in  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  of the two species is likely related to the effect 476 477 of temperature on isotopic enrichment of the leaf water. The isotopic monitoring of water within 478 the soil-vegetation-atmosphere compartments in future work will certainly provide the input and 479 control data necessary to better constrain MAIDENiso. Our study demonstrates that the ecophysiological modelling of  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  values is necessary and likely the only approach to accurately 480 interpret the recorded climate signal. Based on the calibrations of MAIDENiso presented here, 481





- the next step involves inverse modelling approaches to perform paleoclimatic reconstructions in
  North and South America that are less biased by the complex and nonlinear interactions between
- 484 climate, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and tree growth as recommended by Boucher et al. (2014).
- 485

## 486 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

- 487 A.L. has been supported by a Research associate/Lecturer position at the Aix-Marseille 488 University (France). F.G. has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 489 research and innovation program under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie grant agreement No 490 656896. We acknowledge all data providers: the Instituto Argentino de Nivología, Glaciología y 491 Ciencias Ambientales (IANIGLA, Argentina) for providing the daily temperature data from La 492 Almohadilla site; the National Meteorological Service from Argentina for providing the monthly 493 temperature data from Bariloche meteorological station (Argentina); the Department of Natural 494 Resources Canada for providing the daily climatic data used for Quebec; the US Department of 495 Energy, Office of Science Biological and Environmental Research (BER) and the National 496 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Climate Program Office for providing the daily 497 climatic data used for Argentina; and the SWING project for providing the daily  $\delta^{18}O_P$  data from 498 MUGCM model.
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# **Tables and Figures**

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701 **Table 1** Definition of sensitive parameters. The posterior medians and 90% confidence intervals

are also shown.

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Parameter	Definition	Unit	Parameter type (prior range)	Values with 90% posterior confidence intervals
$f_o$	Dampening factor	NA	Calibrated (0.3 to 0.5)	0.36 [0.31; 0.46] (Arg.) 0.41 [0.32; 0.48] (Q.)
ε <sub>0</sub>	Biochemical fractionation	%0	Calibrated (24 to 30)	29.99 [29.93; 30] (Arg.) 26.81 [24.74; 28.04] (Q.)
ε <sub>k</sub>	Kinetic fractionation	%0	Calibrated (10 to 30)	28.86 [18.25; 29.96] (Arg.) 17.20 [11.16; 26.34] (Q.)
а	Temperature dependence of $\delta^{18}O_P$	NA	Calibrated (0.2 to 0.5 for Arg. and 0 to 0.38 for Q.)	0.50 [0.49; 0.50] (Arg.) 0.31 [0.25; 0.37] (Q.)
b	Precipitation dependence of $\delta^{18}O_P$	NA	Calibrated (-0.3 to 0 for Arg. and -0.39 to 0 for Q.)	-0.009 [-0.15; 0] (Arg.) -0.22 [-0.35; -0.14] (Q.)
С	Intercept of $\delta^{18}O_P$	‰	Fixed	-10.0 (Arg.) -11.9 (Q.)

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707 Table 2 Climate input data for all tested simulations708

	Daily Tmin and Tmax	Daily P	Daily $\delta^{18}O_P$	CO <sub>2</sub>	
<b>Configuration 1</b>	Canadian database/ NOAA-CIRES d	Linear regression	Mauna		
Configuration 2	Canadian database / NOAA-CIRES dataset	MUGCM data		Loa	
Configuration 3	LMDZ-NCEP20 data				

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Figure 1 Tree-ring  $\delta^{18}$ O time series (‰) at the three sites in Argentina (NUB, ALM and CHA in dark grey) and two sites in Quebec (L01 and L20 in dark grey; single trees in light grey). The bold black lines are the averaged values. The mean inter-site correlation coefficients are r = 0.60, p < 0.05 and r = 0.80, p < 0.01 in the South and North American sites, respectively.







Figure 2 Dependence of the correlation coefficients between observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$ 718 series (panels A), and of the mean simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  levels (‰) (panels B) as a function of the 719 range of calibrated parameters a, b,  $f_o$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  for the 50 simulations performed. In black are the 720 721 tests with the sites from Quebec and in red the oneswith the Argentinean sites. The vertical lines 722 are the values of a plausible block of parameters retained in the MCMC optimization. The horizontal dashed lines are their respective 90% confidence interval calculated with 50 723 724 simulations (see Table 1). The horizontal dot lines in panel B are the mean values of the observed  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}.$ 725







Figure 3 Comparison between observed (red or green) and simulated (grey)  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  chronologies in Quebec (A and B) and Argentina (C and D), respectively, using GPP (in gC.m<sup>-2</sup>.day<sup>-1</sup>) simulated by MAIDENiso (A and C) or synthetized for maximizing correlations (B and D). The simulations are based on estimated  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series. The 50 different simulations inferred from the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains are in dark grey. The ± 1 root mean square error (RMSE) range is represented in light grey. The mean correlation coefficients are significant at 99% level (\*\*).







- 736 Figure 4 Comparison of the densities of probability of the coefficient of correlation (R) between observed and simulated  $\delta^{18}O_{TR}$  chronologies in Quebec and Argentina when the simulations are
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- based on  $\delta^{18}O_P$  series estimated by the regression model or from the MUGCM and LMDZ-738
- 739 NCEP20 models.
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Figure 5 Density distributions of the coefficients of determination  $(R^2)$  between the reference

- simulations and the: 1) XW\_source experiment simulation ( $\delta^{18}O_V$  and  $h_{air}$  set as constant, black)
- and, 2) Leaf\_water\_enrichment\_driven experiment simulation ( $\delta^{18}O_{XW}$  set as constant, green) in
- 746 Quebec (bold line) and Argentina (dashed line).



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