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#### 1 Tree-ring isotopes from Araucaria araucana as useful proxies for climate reconstructions

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#### 32 Abstract

33

34 Tree-ring width (TRW) chronologies have been widely and long-time used to reconstruct past climate 35 variations in the Andes in South America. The use of tree-ring isotopic chronologies is still not 36 widespread in this region although they have proved to be very efficient climate proxies. Araucaria 37 araucana (Molina) K. Koch is a conifer tree species with some multi-century-old individuals that offers an excellent opportunity to measure stable carbon ( $\delta^{13}$ C) and oxygen ( $\delta^{18}$ O) isotopes in 38 39 cellulose from long tree-ring records. Here, we explore whether current or stored carbohydrates are 40 used for A. araucana radial growth and we assess the potential of a tree-ring isotopic record of to 41 study past climate variability. Eleven A. araucana cores from a dry and high-elevation forest at the 42 northern border of Patagonia, Argentina (38°55'S, 70°44'W) were selected for stable isotopes 43 analyses. The strong correlation between the isotopic composition of the first and second parts of

the same ring, but also the strong relationships between  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O records with climate 44 45 parameters of the current growing season such as temperature, show that tree-rings are built mostly 46 with carbohydrates produced during the current growing season with little or no supply from storage 47 or reserves. This finding leads to reconsidering the interpretation of the legacy effect (i.e. ecological 48 memory effects) based on the previously described strong negative correlation between A. araucana 49 TRW chronologies and previous growing season temperature and suggests a dependence of radial 50 tree growth on the level of development of organs. Regarding climate sensitivity, the A. araucana 51 tree-ring  $\delta^{13}$ C chronology is strongly related to current summer temperature (r = 0.82, p < 0.001), 52 vapour pressure deficit (VPD; r = 0.79, p < 0.001), precipitation (r = -0.53, p < 0.001) and SPEI2 (r = -0.53, 53 0.73, p < 0.001). These strong relationships support the use of  $\delta^{13}$ C of *A. araucana* tree-ring cellulose 54 to reconstruct past temperature variations at regional scale in relation with large-atmospheric 55 drivers of climate variability such as the Southern Annular Mode. The A. araucana tree-ring  $\delta^{18}$ O 56 chronology is also correlated with temperature (r = 0.42, p < 0.01) and VPD (r = 0.45, p < 0.01) of the 57 winter preceding the growing season. This suggests that trees are using water from precipitation 58 infiltrated in the soil during the previous recharge period (autumn-winter). The weak correlations of  $\delta^{18}$ O with current summer atmospheric conditions and the decoupling between  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C, may 59 be due to a high rate of oxygen exchange between sugars and xylem water (Pex) during cellulose 60 61 synthesis, which dampens evaporative isotopic fractionation.

62 Keywords: Araucaria araucana,  $\delta^{13}$ C,  $\delta^{18}$ O, tree-ring width, carbohydrates 63

64 1 Introduction

65

Tree-rings have made an important contribution to our understanding of climatic variations over the last centuries and millennia in the Andes (Boninsegna et al., 2009; Villalba et al., 2003). Climatesensitive *Polylepis tarapacana* in the Altiplano in South America provide the highest-elevation treering chronologies worldwide spanning for centuries to millennia (Morales et al., 2012). Even closer to

70 the Equator at 11° S, but with shorter time span, *Polylepis rodolfo-vasquezii* have also shown climate 71 sensitivity, in particular with growing season temperature (Requena-Rojas et al., 2020). Further south 72 in the Central Andes in Chile (32°S - 36°S), centennial oscillations in precipitation were inferred from 73 millennium-long records of Austrocedrus chilensis (Le Quesne et al., 2006, among others). Tree-ring 74 records have also provided substantial insight into regional temperature and precipitation variations 75 in northern Patagonia from recent centuries to the last millennium. Millennium-long chronologies 76 from Fitzroya cupressoides have been used to reconstruct past temperature variations on both sides 77 of the Northern Patagonian Andes (Lara et al., 2020, among others), while precipitation variability in 78 this region have largely been based on moisture-sensitive Araucaria araucana - A. chilensis 79 chronologies (Boninsegna et al., 2009 and references therein, Hadad et al., 2021). 80 During the past two decades, several studies have measured stable carbon and oxygen isotopic composition in tree-ring cellulose ( $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O respectively) from various tree species in the South 81 82 American Andes such as Nothofagus pumilio (Grießinger et al., 2018; Lavergne et al., 2017a, 2017b, 83 2016; Tognetti et al., 2014), Nothofagus betuloides (Meier, 2019); A. chilensis (Roig et al., 2006), F. 84 cupressoides (Lavergne et al., 2018, 2017a, 2016; Urrutia-Jalabert et al., 2015c); P. tarapacana 85 (Rodriguez-Caton et al., 2021), A. araucana (Arco Molina et al., 2019). These isotopic records 86 exhibited significant correlations with local climate and/or hemispheric patterns of climate variability 87 such as the Southern Annular Mode and ENSO. These strong links indicate that  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies are useful tools for reconstructing past climate and environmental conditions, as well as 88 89 past atmospheric dynamics in the South America sector of the Southern Hemisphere. 90 The carbon and oxygen data have also been used to determine if the tree-ring cellulose was 91 originated from current or stored carbohydrates (Kimak and Leuenberger, 2015; Kress et al., 2009). 92 The remobilization of stored carbohydrates is frequently observed in deciduous trees, in particular 93 during the formation of earlywood (Helle and Schleser, 2004). Although they do not generally rely on 94 reserves for initiating their growth, evergreen species can also show a strong carbon carry-over effect

95 (*Pinus kesiya* and *Pinus armandii*; Fu et al., 2017). When tree-rings are formed with both remobilized
96 stored material and current assimilates, the tree-ring cellulose δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>13</sup>C usually hold complex
97 and mixed information about the environmental conditions during the current growing season and
98 previous periods of carbohydrates production (Helle and Schleser, 2004; Kagawa et al., 2006).
99 Therefore, it is essential to determine the origin of the carbohydrates used for growth prior to
100 undergoing isotope-based climate reconstructions.

To our knowledge, only two studies conducted on *A. araucana* have included tree-ring stable isotopes as diagnostic tools.  $\delta^{13}$ C was used, indeed, to estimate the evolution of intrinsic water use efficiency (iWUE) and evaluate the physiological response of this species to climate change and the increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations by Arco Molina et al. (2019). Recently, Puchi et al. (2021) studied *A. araucana* stands in Northern Patagonia and showed that tree-ring isotopes and anatomical traits could be combined to identify stands at risk of drought-induced dieback .

107 The present study was conducted in northwestern Patagonia where trees from a dry and high-108 elevation forest were targeted to study the use of current assimilation carbon or stored carbohydrates in *A. araucana*, as well as the potential of their  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C tree-rings as climate 109 110 proxies. Specifically, we first determined the origin (current or prior year) of carbohydrates used for tree radial growth by analyzing the influence of previous and current year conditions on the isotopic 111 112 signature in the cellulose and measuring intra-ring variations. Second, we compared the conclusions 113 derived from the isotopes with those drawn from the growth patterns and proposed an integrative explanation for apparently incompatible findings. Finally, we debated on the strength of the climate 114 115 signal and the spatial representativeness of the relationships between tree-ring isotopic 116 compositions and climate parameters. Thus, we tested whether the use of C and O isotope ratios 117 could provide new climatic information in addition to that recorded by the conventional 118 dendroclimatic approach based on tree-ring widths.

119 120

# 2 Materials and Methods

121 A.araucana is an emblematic tree in the northern Patagonian forest from Argentina and Chile, 122 encompassing a latitudinal three-degree range from 37°20'S to 40°20'S approximately (Veblen et al., 123 1995). In Argentina, A. araucana is confined along the Andes mountains between 38°40'S and 39°20'S in the province of Neuquén. A. araucana is adapted to highly contrasting environments 124 125 growing from very humid (4000 mm/year at some Chilean sites) to dry environments (e.g. ~500 126 mm/year) (Veblen, 1982; Veblen et al., 1995). It forms monospecific stands, but it is often associated 127 with Nothofagus antarctica and N. pumilio, mostly on south-facing slopes at elevations between 128 1000 and 1400 m a.s.l. (Veblen et al., 1995). Mixed stands with A. chilensis, Lomatia hirsuta and 129 other shrub species are recorded at ecotonal environments with the Patagonian steppe in the 130 eastern distribution sector (Burns, 1991, 1993). 131 2.1. Tree species and study site 132 133 134 Trees from A. araucana were sampled at Sainuco, a site located in a dry and high-elevation location 135 for the species, and supposedly sensitive area in the northwestern of Patagonia. The Sainuco 136 sampling site (SAI, 38°55'S, 70°44'W) is located at 1660 m a.s.l elevation on a southeast-facing slope at the northern portion of the Sierra de Catán Lil, 57 km east of the main Andes divide (Fig. 1a). The 137 soil is from the Andisol order (del Valle, 1998). At Sainuco, A. araucana forms a monospecific, open 138 139 stand (Fig. 1b), mostly composed by mature individuals with a density of about 100 trees per hectare. 140 The lack of young trees is likely due to cattle feeding on fallen seeds (Burns, 1991). The annual mean 141 temperature and total precipitation at Sainuco are 8.4 ± 0.4 °C and 516 ± 94 mm, respectively, over 142 the period 1974-2014 (See Meteorological data section; CRU TS 4.3 database, Harris et al., 2020). 143 Regarding climate seasonality, lower temperatures occurred from May to August when most of the 144 precipitation is received (Fig. 1c).

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#### 2.2 Sample collection and preparation

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148 Cores from A. araucana at the Sainuco site were taken in November 2015 and processed at the 149 Instituto Argentino de Nivología, Glaciología y Ciencias Ambientales (IANIGLA CONICET), Mendoza, 150 Argentina. Initially used for ring width dendrochronological analyses, cores were mounted and 151 sanded following Stokes and Smiley (1968), visually crossdated using the Yamaguchi (1991) approach. Ring widths were measured to the nearest 0.001 mm, and the computer program COFECHA (Holmes, 152 153 1983) was used to detect measurement and dating errors. The individual tree-ring width timeseries 154 were computed to generate a regional *A. araucana* ring width chronology (Mundo et al., 2012). 155 Regarding the calendar dating, as in the Southern Hemisphere the growing season straddles two 156 calendar years each annual ring was assigned to the year in which ring formation started following 157 the Schulman's convention (1956). The transition from the previous to the current biological year 158 takes place between April and September, i.e. mid fall to early spring.

159 The oldest 10 trees, with ages ranging between 240 and 546 years old were selected for the isotopic 160 analyses. At the Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement (LSCE, Gif-sur-Yvette, 161 France), the mounted cores were peeled off using hot water and dried for several hours at ambient 162 air. For each core, forty-one annual rings (1974 - 2014) were split using a scalpel, and the  $\alpha$ -cellulose 163 was extracted from the wood of each ring sample following the chemical procedure described by 164 Leavitt and Danzer (1993). In order to quantify the intra-ring variability of the isotopic compositions 165 of oxygen and carbon, an additional core (named 'intra-core' hereafter) with wide rings was selected 166 and earlywood and latewood were cut and analyzed separately over the 1950-2014 period. Since the 167 transition from earlywood to latewood in *A. araucana* tree-rings is very gradual and consequently difficult to situate unambiguously, we divided the rings into two parts: the first portion 168 169 corresponding to the first three quarters of the ring (F3/4) and the second portion to the last fourth 170 (L1/4), as shown in figure 2. Therefore, the wood did not strictly correspond to early- and latewood

but nevertheless reflected successive phases during the growth period. These parts were weighted,
processed and analyzed in the same way as the complete rings of the other 10 samples. The L1/4
sample of 1998 was lost during cellulose extraction due to very small amount of wood.

174

#### 175 2.3 Measurement of carbon and oxygen isotopes in tree-rings

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177 The isotopic compositions of oxygen and carbon of tree-ring cellulose were simultaneously obtained 178 by high temperature pyrolysis (HTP) in a high temperature conversion elemental analyzer (TC-EA, 179 Thermo Scientific) coupled to a mass spectrometer (IRMS, IsoPrime). To correct for potential instrumental drifts, a cellulose standard (Whatmann © CC31) was analysed every three samples in 180 181 each sequence of analysis. The analytical precisions of the instrument were within 0.20 ‰ and 0.10 182 ‰ for oxygen and carbon, respectively, based on the standard uncertainty of the mean. HTP was 183 shown to be a suitable and reliable proceeding for the determination of the isotopic composition of 184 carbon in cellulose simultaneously during the analysis of oxygen ratios. Although an isotope effect 185 related to the non-statistical conversion of the organic carbon to CO may alter the results for carbon 186 (Knöller et al., 2005), we prevented this issue by adjusting the results from the HTP using a 187 combustion-pyrolysis regression previously obtained with pairs of measurements as proposed in 188 Woodley et al. (2012). Therefore, the adjusted carbon values were equivalent to the values that 189 would have been obtained using combustion.

190 The oxygen and carbon isotopic compositions were expressed as  $\delta$  ( $\delta^{13}$ C for carbon and  $\delta^{18}$ O for 191 oxygen), in per mill (‰):

192 
$$\delta = (R_{cell}/R_{STD} - 1) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

where  $R_{cell}$  is the oxygen isotope ratio (<sup>18</sup>O /<sup>16</sup>O) of cellulose referring to  $R_{STD}$ , the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (Coplen, 1996), or the carbon isotope ratio (<sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C) of cellulose referring to  $R_{STD}$ , the Vienna Pee-Dee Belemnite (Coplen, 1996).

196	The $\delta^{13}$ C records show a decreasing trend over time due to the decrease in $\delta^{13}$ C of atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub>
197	since the beginning of industrialization. Therefore, the measured $\delta^{13}C$ were corrected for this
198	anthropogenic isotopic effect using the standard $\delta^{13}$ C correction model from Dombrosky (2020).
199	Hereafter, the physiological and (paleo-)climatic interpretations were made on the basis of these
200	corrected $\delta^{13}$ C values.

201

202

#### 2.4 Chronology development

203

The individual  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C series were averaged to generate isotopic site chronologies, hereafter 204 205  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  chronologies (data in Supplementary Material).

206 Several descriptive statistics were calculated to assess the coherence between individual series and 207 the final quality of the chronologies: r (Pearson correlation coefficient), CI (Confidence Intervals), 208 RBAR (mean Pearson correlation coefficient among tree-ring series within a chronology; Briffa, 1995) 209 and EPS (Expressed Population Signals; Wigley et al., 1984). EPS enables to assess how well a mean 210 chronology based on a finite number of series represents the hypothetical perfect chronology 211 consisting of an infinite number of series (Wigley et al., 1984). Cl was calculated for each year 212 according to the following equation:

213 
$$CI = t \times (SD/\sqrt{N})$$
 (2)

214 Where SD is the standard deviation, N is the number of individual series and t is the two-tailed 215 Students' t value at 95 % confidence.

216

217 2.5 Meteorological data 218

We used the climate data (1973 and 2015) from the two nearest grid points to our sampling site
taken from CRU TS 4.3 gridded database (70.75°W - 38.75°S and 70.75°W - 39.25°S; Harris et al.,
2020; https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/). From these gridded points regional monthly
maximum and minimum temperatures (T<sub>max</sub>, T<sub>min</sub> in °C), precipitation (PRE, in mm) and actual vapour
pressure (AVP, in hPa) were retrieved. The monthly vapour pressure deficit (VPD<sub>max</sub>) was calculated
as the difference between the monthly saturated vapour pressure (SVP<sub>max</sub>) and the AVP. SVP<sub>max</sub> was
calculated with the Teten (1930)'s equation:

226 
$$SVP = 6.108 \times exp(17.27 \times T / 237.3 + T)$$
 (3)

227 Where T is T<sub>max</sub> in Celsius degree, and SVP is in kPa.

VPD<sub>mean</sub> was calculated using SVP<sub>mean</sub> (average of SVP<sub>max</sub> and SVP<sub>min</sub>). Its variations are very similar to
 those of VPD<sub>max</sub> (correlation coefficient of 0.97). For coherency with T<sub>max</sub>, VPD<sub>max</sub> is used and
 discussed in this paper.

231 We also extracted the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI), to compare our 232 results with a drought index (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010; https://spei.csic.es/), and the monthly photosynthetically active radiation flux (PAR, in W/m<sup>2</sup>) from the NASA/GEWEX Surface Radiation 233 234 Budget Release 3.0 dataset (https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/project/SRB). We present in this paper the most significant results which were obtained with SPEI calculated on a two-month timescale (SPEI2). 235 236 From ERA5 (ECMWF's fifth generation atmospheric global climate reanalysis covering the period 237 January 1950 to the present; Hersbach et al., 2020; 238 https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-239 means?tab=form), we extracted atmospheric maximum temperature at 2 meters above ground level 240 (T2m, in K) and surface pressure 850 mb (SLP, in Pa). We also used the Southern Annular Mode 241 (SAM) index from ERA5 (difference between slp40 and slp65) because the SAM is the main mode of 242 climate variability at high latitudes in the Southern Hemisphere (Garreaud et al., 2013).

Spatial correlation patterns between the Sainuco isotopic chronologies and T<sub>max</sub>, SPEI2, PRE, T2m and
 SLP 850 mb were obtained for the interval 1974-2014 using the KNMI Climate Explorer web
 application (https://climexp.knmi.nl/).

246

## 247 3 Results

248

The RBAR and EPS values for the  $\delta^{13}$ C series were 0.22 and 0.74, respectively. For the  $\delta^{18}$ O series, 249 250 these statistics were equal to 0.54 and 0.92, which shows a greater shared variance among the  $\delta^{18}$ O individual series (Fig. 3). For 10 trees, the CI were 0.49 % and 0.66 % for  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  chronology and 251  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  chronology respectively. Over 1974-2014, for the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  chronologies, the average 252 and standard deviations (SD) were -20.09 ± 0.69 ‰ and 30.44 ± 0.94 ‰, respectively, and the trends 253 254 were both positive (+0.002 and +0.015 ‰), but not significant at 95 % confidence level. The one-lag 255 autocorrelation coefficients were 0.20 (non-significant (ns), n = 41) and 0.31 (p < 0.05, n = 41) for carbon and oxygen respectively, indicating that  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  was slightly more affected by past 256 physiological and/or environmental conditions than  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ . The  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  chronologies were 257 258 not significantly correlated to one another (r = -0.23, ns, n = 41). Over 1950-2014, the  $\delta^{13}$ C chronologies obtained for F3/4 ( $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$ ) and L1/4 ( $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$ ) showed slightly 259 positive, but non-significant trends (Fig. 4), and were positively and strongly correlated with each 260 other (r = 0.71, p < 0.001, n = 64; Fig. 5). The correlation coefficient between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$  (r = 261 262 0.51, p < 0.001, n = 41) was larger than between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.46, p < 0.01, n = 40). The isotopic composition of the whole rings, hereafter  $\delta^{13}C_{WR}$ , was calculated as the sum of  $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$  and 263  $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$ , weighted by the mass of cellulose chemically extracted from the F3/4 and L1/4.The 264 correlation coefficient between  $\delta^{13}C_{WR}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  was 0.52 (p < 0.001, n = 40), which equals the 265 266 mean value of the correlation coefficients between the individual  $\delta^{13}$ C series and  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>SAI</sub>.

The two  $\delta^{18}$ O series obtained for F3/4 ( $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$ ) and L1/4 ( $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$ ) showed also slightly positive 267 trends, but not-significant (Fig. 4). The correlation between  $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$  was the same as the 268 one between  $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.70, p < 0.001, n = 64). The correlation between  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and 269  $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$  (r = 0.68, p < 0.001, n = 41) was similar to the correlation between  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$  (r = 270 0.65, p < 0.001, n = 40; Fig. 5). The isotopic composition of the whole rings, hereafter  $\delta^{18}$ Owr, was 271 calculated as the sum of  $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$  and  $\delta^{13}O_{L1/4}$ , weighted by the mass of cellulose chemically extracted 272 from the F3/4 and L1/4. The correlation coefficient obtained between  $\delta^{18}O_{WR}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  was 0.71 (p 273 274 < 0.001, n = 40). Interannual variations in the  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O of F3/4 and L1/4 were consistent with 275 those of the average Sainuco chronologies (Fig. 4).

The correlation coefficient of current year  $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$  with current year  $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.71, p < 0.001, n = 64) was higher than with previous year  $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.34, p <0 .01, n = 64, Fig. 5). Similarly, the correlation of current year  $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$  with current year  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.70, p < 0.001, n = 64) was higher than with previous year  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$  (r = 0.51, p < 0.001, n = 64).

Using linear regressions, we assessed trends in T<sub>max</sub>, VPD<sub>max</sub>, SPEI2 and PRE from 1974 to 2014. We found an increasing trend in T<sub>max</sub> particularly during December-January (+0.9°C, i.e. around +0.2°C per decade) and VPD<sub>max</sub> (+1.2 hPa, i.e. +0.3 hPa per decade) for the same period, and consistent decreasing ones in SPEI2 and PRE (-60 mm in annual average, i.e. -15 mm per decade) (Fig. 1d).

Correlation analyses were performed between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and the climate data. The monthly 284 correlations of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  with  $T_{max}$ , VPD<sub>max</sub>, SPEI2 and PRE are shown in figure 6. The most 285 significant relationship between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and climate was with December-January T<sub>max</sub> of the current 286 287 growing season (r = 0.82, p < 0.001, n = 41; Fig. 7). There was also a significant positive correlation between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and VPD<sub>max</sub> over the same period (r = 0.79, p < 0.001, n = 41; Fig. 7), consistently with 288 289 the fact that T<sub>max</sub> is involved in the calculation of VPD<sub>max</sub>. We also recorded a significant negative 290 correlation between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and January SPEI2 (i.e. calculated over December-January) during the current growing season (r = -0.73, p < 0.001, n = 41; Fig. 7). A negative correlation was evidenced 291

between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and December PRE of the current growing season (r = -0.53, p < 0.001, n = 41). A positive correlation was found between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and SAM in November-December of the current growing season (r = 0.39, p < 0.05, n = 41).  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  did not show significant relationships with any monthly meteorological data from current or previous growing seasons. In contrast, it was positively related to  $T_{max}$  (May-June; r = 0.42, p < 0.01, n = 41) and VPD<sub>max</sub> (June-August; r = 0.45, p < 0.01, n = 41) of autumn-winter of the preceding growing season.

Spatial correlation analyses were conducted between the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and the mean December-January 298 299 T<sub>max</sub> (Fig. 8a), January SPEI2 (Fig. 8b) and December PRE (Fig. 8c) across the region from 30°S to 57°S 300 and from 78°W to 60°W. Significant correlations were observed over a large area in the southern 301 South America, positive with  $T_{max}$  and negative with SPEI2 and PRE. This is consistent with previous 302 results based on monthly correlations (see above). At a larger scale from 20°N – 80°S and from 160°E 303 - 30°W, December-January T2m from the ERA5 reanalyses (Fig. 8d) was also significantly correlated 304 with the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  record and positively over the Southern tip of the South American continent and in 305 the Pacific around 80°W, and negatively between 50°S and 60°S in the Pacific around 120°W and on 306 the West Antarctic coasts (Bellingshausen and Amundsen seas). The spatial correlation between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and December SLP exhibits a similar pattern in December (Fig. 8e). 307

308

### 309 4 Discussion

310

4.1 Which carbohydrates is the cellulose of *A. araucana* rings built with?
In *A. araucana*, latewood represents about 10-22 % of the ring (Falcon-Lang, 2000), but the transition
between early and latewood is gradual (Díaz-Vaz, 1984; Tortorelli, 1956) and the precise separation
of the two tissues is problematic. Therefore, in order to determine the intra-annual isotopic
signature, the cutting at the third fourth of each ring, in order to generate F3/4 and L1/4 series

317 approximately informs about the earlywood and latewood sections, respectively. The strong link 318 between the isotopic records of the first and second parts of the rings (r = 0.7 for both  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O) 319 suggests that the two portions were formed from sugars synthesized in the same growing season. 320 Due to the thinness of the rings, this intra-core experiment was conducted on one core only (having 321 above average wide rings). The conclusion drawn above must therefore be taken with caution and 322 should be ideally supported by similar tests on other trees. However, the significant correlations between  $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$ ,  $\delta^{13}C_{F1/4}$ ,  $\delta^{13}C_{WR}$  ( $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$ ,  $\delta^{18}O_{F1/4}$ ,  $\delta^{18}O_{WR}$ ) with the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  ( $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$ ) demonstrate that 323 324 the core selected for intra-annual analyses exhibited an intra-ring isotopic pattern very likely shared 325 by the other trees of the same stand.

The positive relationships between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and climate parameters of the current growing season also 326 327 suggest that the A. araucana tree-rings in the Sainuco site are mostly formed with current 328 carbohydrates with little use of the previous year reserves for early season wood formation. 329 Evergreen trees can form xylem cells in early spring using carbohydrates produced by 'old' needles grown in previous years, and from old and new needles afterwards (Barbour et al., 2002; Dickmann 330 331 and Kozlowski, 1970; Glerum, 1980; Rathgeber, 2020). They are less dependent on their reserves to 332 start their growth than deciduous species and therefore less likely to use them (Kozlowski, 1992). The evidence presented above indicates that A. araucana trees from Sainuco likely do not rely on stored 333 carbohydrates for the onset of the growing season. They thus fit the pattern most commonly 334 335 observed among evergreen trees. Note that these findings cannot be extrapolated to all A. araucana 336 populations. Indeed, as already stressed, the intra-ring results being obtained on one single tree 337 cannot be generalised. In addition, in a general way, the photosynthates (current or stored) selected 338 for early growth may not only depend on the species, but also on the environment. The influence of 339 environmental conditions can be illustrated with a study of two populations of F. cupressoides growing on both sides of the Andes. Different possible use of reserves in the two populations were 340 pointed out based on significant correlations between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and previous and current summer 341 342 temperature in the Chilean wet stands (Urrutia-Jalabert et al., 2015c), while only current summer

temperature was significant in the Argentinian drier sites (Lavergne et al., 2017a). More studies are
needed to elucidate if the humidity site conditions can be the most important factor determining the
use of carbohydrates during the current or previous year.

346 Importantly, as tree-ring cellulose seems to be mostly formed with current photosynthates, the 347 isotopic signal, which thus represents essentially the environmental conditions of the current 348 growing season, can be extracted without the need for conducing intra-annual cuts in the tree-ring 349 samples.

350

# 4.2 Does the functioning of *A. araucana* based on isotopic chronologiesagree with that derived from tree-ring widths?

353

354 The regional tree-ring width (TRW) reference chronology for the Argentinean network of A. araucana 355 sites (Mundo et al., 2012) is negatively correlated with summer temperature from the previous 356 growing season (TRW versus  $T_{DJF}$ : r = -0.50, p < 0.001, n = 41), and to a lesser extent, with the current 357 season temperature (r = -0.32, p < 0.05, n = 0.41). These dependencies are consistent with the 358 inverse and one-year lagged relationships between the TRW of A. araucana and summer 359 temperatures evidenced in several Patagonian sites (Hadad et al., 2014; Hadad and Roig, 2016; 360 Muñoz et al., 2013; Villalba, 1995), a pattern which emerges with most of the gymnosperms in 361 Northern Patagonia (Lara et al., 2020; Lavergne, 2016; Villalba, 1990; Villalba et al., 1998, 1996). 362 In terms of growth, the performance of trees may depend, at least partially, on reserves made the 363 previous years. It may also rely on structures from the past (needles, buds, roots, sapwood) which 364 may be several-year old and carry some information on conditions of the periods when they were 365 built (Zweifel and Sterck, 2018). Indeed, as described hereafter, these past structures may be the 366 sites where hormones essential for xylem cell formation are produced (Butto et al., 2020). 367 Xylogenesis can be divided into several steps, including cell enlargement, which is the most

368 important for radial growth. This step is regulated by phytohormones (notably auxin indole-3-acetic 369 acid; IAA; Taiz and Zeiger, 2002), produced in the primordia and young developing leaves, roots or 370 seeds (Brumos et al., 2018; Davies, 2010; Ljung et al., 2005; Zhao, 2010). The limitation of the 371 formation of young developing leaves and fine roots leads to a weaker hormone production whose 372 action is necessary for radial growth (Dünser and Kleine-Vehn, 2015; Majda and Robert, 2018; 373 Scheuring et al., 2016). This internal regulation may explain the correlation between TRW and the 374 climatic conditions of the previous year that affect hormone production sites. As osmotic pressure is 375 the driving force behind cell enlargement (Cuny and Rathgeber, 2014), the rate of increase in cell size 376 depends on the water status of the tree, which is itself determined by the physical conditions of the 377 air and soil. The correlations between TRW and the climatic conditions of the current year (Mundo et al., 2012) likely reflect this dependence. 378

Our results show that TRW, proxy of xylogenesis, and  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ , proxy of assimilations (see Rodriguez-379 380 Caton et al., 2021), are controlled by different climate conditions. While the regional TRW chronology 381 shows that the radial growth is controlled mainly by the previous summer temperature, the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ 382 indicates that the cellulose is mostly derived from current carbohydrates with very limited or even no 383 use of reserves. These two facts can be reconciled if we consider that the legacy effect, which 384 induces a lagged-correlation between TRW and temperature, is not due to the direct use of reserves 385 for growth, but linked to the development of organs formed in the past, controlling the production of 386 IAA growth hormone (Butto et al., 2020). The correlation of  $\delta^{13}$ C with current conditions reflects the 387 fact that the majority of biomass, including cellulose, is contained in secondary cell walls formed during the second step of xylogenesis (Rathgeber et al., 2016; Zhong and Ye, 2009), very likely with 388 389 current year carbohydrates in the case of *A. araucana*.

Both the regional TRW and the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  records are good proxies for temperature reconstruction but the correlation between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and the meteorological parameter is the strongest (-0.5 versus 0.8 for temperature), possibly because of the absence of legacy effects on the carbon signature. A stronger

relation with climate over the calibration period (1974-2014) likely leads to more accurate reconstructions by application of the transfer functions (i.e. equations linking  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  with climate signals, Appendix A). This advantage favors the use of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  over TRW for reconstructing past temperature or other strongly related parameters like VPD<sub>max</sub>.

397

4.3 Why are the C and O isotopic compositions in *A. araucana* tree-ringsrelated to climate?

400

401 Consistently with rings formed with current season photosynthates, the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  are 402 strongly related to several climate parameters along the current year. In the following lines we 403 develop the possible physiological mechanism behind these patterns.

404 The strong relationship between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and current summer VPD<sub>max</sub> (December-January, r = 0.79) is 405 likely due to the control of stomatal conductance at the leaf level by VPD<sub>max</sub>. Indeed, trees adjust the 406 opening of their stomata according to VPD<sub>max</sub> and try to avoid as much as possible critical water 407 tension in their xylem network (Running, 1976). Stomatal conductance not only regulates water loss 408 but also the flux of  $CO_2$  from the outside air to the substomatal cavity. Therefore, together with the 409 activity of the Rubisco enzyme, stomatal conductance controls CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the substomatal 410 cavity, which in turn, controls carbon discrimination in C3 plants. The larger the VPD<sub>max</sub>, the lower the 411 CO<sub>2</sub> substomatal concentration and the carbon isotope discrimination. The VPD<sub>max</sub> influence may also 412 work through the evaporation of water from the surficial layers of the soil, affecting tree water status 413 and, thus, stomatal conductance (Grossiord et al., 2020).

414 The  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  is also strongly related to the summer  $T_{max}$  (December-January, r = 0.82). The temperature 415 signal in  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  may reflect the influence of temperature on VPD<sub>max</sub> and in turn, of this variable on 416 stomatal conductance. Indeed, as expressed in equation 3, SVP increases exponentially with 417 temperature. As AVP does not generally increase at the same rate as temperature, warmer

418 conditions induce increased VPD<sub>max</sub>, and decreased carbon isotope discrimination. The discrimination 419 is also affected by the activity of the Rubisco enzyme. The more active the enzyme, the greater the 420 carbon removal from the sub-stomatal cavity and the lower the isotopic discrimination. In C3 plants, 421 the rate of photosynthesis does not depend much on temperature under current atmospheric 422 conditions (Berry and Bjorkman, 1980). However, the catalytic activity of Rubisco decreases 423 (increases) under conditions of low (high) light intensity (Mott and Woodrow, 2000). PAR correlates 424 positively with summer  $T_{max}$  (December-January, r = 0.55, p < 0.01, n = 25; not shown). Thus, the 425  $\delta^{
m 13}$ C<sub>SAI</sub>-temperature link may be reinforced by the light-regulated activity of Rubisco. The dependence of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  on temperature reflects a chain of causality rather than a direct effect of temperature on 426 427 stomatal conductance and Rubisco activity.

The negative relations of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  with PRE (December, r = -0.53) and SPEI2 (January, r = -0.73) during 428 the growing season may be indirect and result from the dependence of these meteorological 429 430 parameters on air saturation with water. Indeed, the higher the VPD<sub>max</sub>, the less likely is water 431 condensation and therefore precipitation, but the higher is SPEI2 (r = 0.80, p < 0.001, n = 41 between 432 PRE and SPEI2 in December-January).  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  may also be related to summer PRE through the effect of 433 soil water content on stomatal conductance. However, the low December PRE is unlikely to 434 contribute significantly to soil moisture, and the relationship between PRE (from December or yearly) 435 and soil moisture can be complex. Only soil moisture monitoring could help clarifying the relation between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and PRE. 436

The  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  is positively correlated with  $T_{max}$  (May-June, r = 0.42) and VPD<sub>max</sub> (June-August, r = 0.45) of the late autumn and winter before the growing season. The  $\delta^{18}O$  in soil water, which trees tap from, depends on the history of the air masses that provide moisture, including rainout driven by temperature variations, and evaporation at soil level (Sprenger et al., 2016). The pumping of water occurs without isotopic fractionation (Bariac et al., 1990; Dawson and Ehleringer, 1993; Rothfuss and Javaux, 2017). At the leaf level, evaporative fractionation, a temperature-dependent process, induces

443 the isotopic enrichment of leaf water and the subsequent sugars (Cernusak et al., 2016; Gonfiantini 444 et al., 1965). Although exchanges between organic oxygen and xylem water oxygen occur during 445 cellulose synthesis, the isotopic composition of cellulose, which derives from that of sugars, also presents an enriched character (e.g. Barbour and Farquhar, 2004). Thus, the relation of  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  with 446 T<sub>max</sub> reflects the role of temperature in rainout history and/or in evaporative fractionation. The fact 447 that the highest relation between  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and temperature was found during the austral winter 448 before the growing season suggests that the  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  likely depends more on the winter  $\delta^{18}O_{precipitation}$ 449 than on summer evaporative fractionation. The dependence on winter  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{precipitation}}$  makes sense as 450 winter is the rainy season and very probably the water recharge period in the soil. The link between 451  $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$  and the previous-year  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$ , the significant autocorrelation at 1-year lag of  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  (r = 0.31, 452 p < 0.05), and the dependence of  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  on climate parameters of the autumn-winter preceding the 453 growing season, do not contradict the conclusion drawn with  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  on the use for growth of the 454 455 current sugars. Indeed, in seasonally dry environments like Sainuco, trees may rely largely on tightly 456 bound pore water infiltrated during the previous recharge period (autumn-winter) for their water supply during the dry growing season (Brooks et al., 2009). Unfortunately, there are no  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{precipitation}}$ 457 records long enough available in the region to be compared with our  $\delta^{18} O_{\text{SAI}}$  data. 458

459 In dry environments, trees tend to close their stomata to avoid losing water excessively and being at 460 risk of embolism. The low  $\delta^{18}$ O sensitivity to summer VPD observed at Sainuco could thus reflect a 461 strong reduction of stomatal conductance in response to low soil moisture. However, this conclusion is not in agreement with the results obtained with carbon which are not in favor of stomatal closure 462 463 but rather of a modulation of the stomatal conductance (by VPD). Cheesman and Cernusak (2016) compared leaf and trunk  $\delta^{18}O_{cellulose}$  in trees along an aridity gradient. They found that leaf  $\delta^{18}O_{cellulose}$ 464 465 demonstrated a strong climatic signal all along the gradient whereas trunk  $\delta^{18}O_{cellulose}$  was not 466 influenced by summer variables at dry sites. They explained the decoupling between leaf and trunk 467 isotopic composition by an increase, with decreasing humidity, of the rate of oxygen exchange

between sugars and xylem water ( $P_{ex}$ ) during cellulose synthesis. Szejner et al. (2020) also evidenced experimentally an enhancement of the proportion of the oxygen exchanged between sugars and source water with decreasing relative humidity. At the dry Sainuco site, the lack of significant relations between current climate variables and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  may be ascribed to a high  $P_{ex}$  reinforcing the source signal and dampening the climate signal.

The combined analysis of carbon and oxygen isotope compositions can be used to clarify the interpretation of carbon discrimination assuming that a positive correlation between the two ratios reflect a regulation of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  by stomatal conductance rather than rubisco activity (Roden and Farquhar, 2012; Scheidegger et al., 2000). However, this dual-isotope approach is fully valid if the  $\delta^{18}O$  of the source water of the trees is constant. As the variations of  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  here seem to mirror those of the source, possibly because P<sub>ex</sub> has a high value, the dual-isotope approach is not applicable.

480 The  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  captured variations in summer temperature, precipitation and SPEI2 over a large area of 481 Patagonia, south of  $\approx$  33°S (Fig. 8a, b and c). Yet, these different climate parameters are mainly 482 influenced by the SAM (Garreaud et al., 2013, 2009; Garreaud and Aceituno, 2007; Villalba et al., 483 2012). This mode of variability describes the north-south movements of westerly winds and is related 484 to pressure anomalies between mid and high-latitudes in the Southern Hemisphere. In its negative 485 phase, the wind belt moves equatorward bringing cold and wet air masses to mid-latitudes of the 486 South American continent. In its positive phase, the belt moves southward, and the mid and high-487 latitudes of South America face high pressure, warmth and low humidity. At Sainuco latitude, SAM 488 therefore exerts some control on temperature, pressure and humidity. The correlation between  $\delta^{13}$ C 489 at Sainuco and the SAM index are rather low, probably because  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  is influenced by a variety of 490 factors, including local effects. However, the spatial correlations of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  with temperature at 2m 491 and high pressure on a hemispheric scale show the characteristic annular SAM pattern (Fig. 8d and

492 e). Our results are in line with those of Lavergne et al. (2017a) who found a positive and significant 493 correlation between  $\delta^{13}$ C and December-February SAM.

494 At mid-latitudes, temperature variations may not only be influenced by the SAM, but also by the El 495 Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) located at lower latitudes in the Pacific Ocean (Garreaud et al., 496 2009). During normal meteorological conditions in the South Pacific, the trade winds drive the warm 497 surface waters westward. During an El Niño event, warm surface waters flow back eastward due to 498 weakening trade winds promoting higher surface water temperatures along the South American 499 coast. So, the influence of ENSO on regional climate in South America can be assessed through the 500 analysis of the correlations between proxy records and sea surface temperature (SST) in the equatorial Pacific. Here, we found no significant association between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and SST indicating that 501 502 the influence of ENSO on climate in the study area is weak or masked by local effects.

503

504

# 5 Conclusions and perspectives

505

Variations in tree-ring width of *A. araucana* trees fit well into a broad spatial pattern of negative correlations with summer temperature. Radial growth of *A. araucana* is controlled in the first order by thermometric conditions in the previous year. Our results show that the carbon of the rings is mostly assimilated during the current growing season, which indicates that growth is not directly mediated by the accumulation of reserves. We thus hypothesize that temperature in year n-1 influences growth during year n by affecting the development of organs (needles, roots, etc.) where growth hormones are produced.

513  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  is strongly linked to several climatic parameters of the current summer. In particular, it has an 514 exceptionally strong correlation with temperature. This dependence results from the indirect effect 515 of temperature on stomatal conductance (via VPD<sub>max</sub>), possibly reinforced by the effect of insolation 516 (correlated to temperature) on enzymatic activity. The strong  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ -temperature correlation makes

517 possible and promising the use of the cellulose  $\delta^{13}$ C from A. araucana tree-rings at Sainuco to 518 reconstruct past temperature variations in this poorly documented area of Northern Patagonia. The variations of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and summer temperature, which is under the influence of the SAM, are 519 520 consistent over large areas of southern South America. This pattern confirms the interest of  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ 521 for understanding past climate on a regional scale. 522 Variations in tree-ring  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  appear to be controlled primarily by variations in source  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  possibly 523 because the rate of oxygen isotopic exchange between source water and sugars during cellulose 524 synthesis is high. This assumption could be reinforced by comparing the isotopic composition of the

525 *A. araucana* tree-rings with the  $\delta^{18}$ O in precipitation simulated by climate models. A better

526 understanding of the causes of variation of  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  may thus lead to the possibility of tracing the

527 origin of air masses in relation to the modes of climate variability.

528

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535

# 536 Appendix A: Transfer functions

537

• Between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and the average value of December-January maximum temperature:

539  $T_{max DJ} = 4.06 \ \delta^{13}C_{SAI} + 105.56; r^2 = 0.67$  Eq. (A.1)

• Between  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and the average value of December-January maximum vapour pressure 541 deficit (VPD<sub>max</sub>):

542	$VPD_{max DJ} = 6.68 \ \delta^{13}C_{SAI} + 157.50; r^2 = 0.62$ Eq. (A.2)
543	- Between $\delta^{13}C_{\text{SAI}}$ and the average value of November-January Standardised Precipitation-
544	Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI2)
545	SPEI2 <sub>DJ</sub> = -3.75 $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ – 75.77; r <sup>2</sup> = 0.53 Eq. (A.3)
546	
547 548	Figures Captions
549	Fig. 1: a) Location of the Sainuco site in western Argentina. b) Picture of the Sainuco site. c)
550	Umbrothermal diagram of monthly mean temperature and total precipitation data from September
551	to August between 1974 and 2014. d) Climate data from 1974 to 2014 for maximum temperature
552	$(T_{max})$ and vapour pressure deficit (VPD <sub>max</sub> ) averaged from December to January, and yearly
553	Standardised Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index 2 (SPEI2) and precipitation (PRE, $p > 0.05$ ). The
554	dotted lines represent the linear trends for the data; their equations and the significance of the slope
555	(p-value) are provided.
556	Fig. 2: Sub-division of the rings into the F3/4 and L1/4 portions on a 5-mm diameter A. araucana
557	core. Growth direction is indicated by the white arrow and scale bar is presented on the low-right
558	corner.
559	Fig. 3: Annual variations of $\delta^{13}$ C individual series (grey), $\delta^{13}$ C <sub>SAI</sub> (blue) (upper graph) and $\delta^{18}$ O series
560	(grey) and $\delta^{18} O_{\text{SAI}}$ (green) (lower graph) from 1974 to 2014. The blue and green dotted lines
561	represent the linear trends for $\delta^{\rm 13}C_{\text{SAI}}$ and $\delta^{\rm 18}O_{\text{SAI}}.$
562	Fig. 4: Upper graph, annual variations of $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ (solid black line) from 1974 to 2014, $\delta^{13}C_{F3/4}$ (solid
563	light grey line), $\delta^{13}C_{L1/4}$ (solid dark grey line) and $\delta^{13}C_{WR}$ (dot-dashed black line) from 1950 to 2014.
564	Lower graph, annual variations of $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$ (solid black line) from 1974 to 2014, $\delta^{18}O_{F3/4}$ (solid dark grey

565 line),  $\delta^{18}O_{L1/4}$  (solid light grey line) and  $\delta^{18}O_{WR}$  (dot-dashed black line) from 1950 to 2014. The red 566 dotted lines represent the linear trends for  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$ .

Fig. 5: Sketch of the relationships based on correlation coefficients (r) among the intra-core isotopic timeseries (F3/4, L1/4, lower panel), as well as between the intra-core timeseries and the isotopic value for the Sainuco site chronologies ( $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$ , upper panel). n is the current year and n-1 the previous year.

Fig. 6: Correlation coefficients between the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  and  $\delta^{18}O_{SAI}$  chronologies and regional monthly maximum temperature (T<sub>max</sub>), maximum vapor pressure deficit (VPD<sub>max</sub>), Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index 2 (SPEI2) and Precipitation (PRE) from September of the previous growing season (pSep) to April of the current growing season (Apr) from 1974 to 2014. Red dashed lines represent the 99% confidence limits.

576 Fig. 7: Comparisons of temporal variations in *A. araucana*  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  (solid black line) at Sainuco,

577 northern Patagonia with (upper) regional mean (December-January) maximum temperature (T<sub>max</sub>),

578 (middle) mean (December-January) maximum vapor pressure deficit (VPD<sub>max</sub>) and (bottom) January

579 Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI2, calculated over December-January

580 corresponding to January) over the common interval 1974 – 2014 (41 years). To facilitate the

581 comparison with SPEI2, the  $\delta^{13}C_{SAI}$  variations are shown inverted. The correlation coefficients

582 between records are also indicated.

Fig. 8: Field correlation maps over 1974-2014 between the δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>SAI</sub> chronology (yellow dot) and a)
 December-January T<sub>max</sub> in, b) January SPEI2 c) December PRE, d) December-January T2m and e) in
 December SLP 850 mb.

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