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Terrain's steepness governs sensitivity of urban oak forests to climate variability

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23 over the last 135 years. Additionally, linear mixed-effects models (LMMs) were
24 applied to the site-specific characteristics such as slope steepness, altitude a.s.l., soil
25 type, soil mechanical composition, soil pH, forest type and coefficient of soil
26 saturated hydraulic conductivity, to identify which of them exert a significant
27 influence on studied trees' sensitivity to precipitation and temperature. Our results
28 showed that the frequency of negative or positive pointer years in *Q. robur* growth
29 coincides with extremely dry or wet years. The precipitation amount falling from the
30 dormant period to the early growing season emerges as the key factor for *Q. robur*
31 trees' radial growth. The trees' sensitivity to this factor was found to be significantly
32 influenced by the slope steepness. Our findings contribute valuable insights into the
33 complex interplay between urban heterogeneity, climatic factors, and the climatic
34 sensitivity of *Q. robur* in urban areas. This research contributes to a deeper
35 understanding of urban forests' dynamics, proposing management strategies for
36 slope stability, soil water retention, and natural tree regeneration.

37 **Keywords:** pedunculate oak, urban woodland, tree-ring width, slope, urban ecology

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Urban forests, comprising trees in streets, parks, gardens, and remnants of
41 natural old-growth forests, provide a wide range of ecosystem services. These
42 services include recreation, reduction of air pollution (Akbari, 2002; Nowak et al.,
43 2018), carbon sequestration (Nowak and Crane, 2002), preservation of biodiversity
44 (Alvey, 2006), protection against soil erosion, mitigation of rain water runoff

45 (Bartens et al., 2009), and improvement of urban climatic conditions through cooling
46 and shading effect (Ellison et al., 2017; Lindén et al., 2016).

47 In general, the heterogeneity of the urban environment results in highly
48 diverse microsite conditions influencing trees' functionality and viability, which can
49 either weaken (Chen et al., 2011; Gillner et al., 2013) or strengthen (Schneider et al.,
50 2022; Wilde and Maxwell, 2018) the climatic signals compared to nearby rural areas.
51 Indeed, urban forests face significant stresses and disturbances particularly in
52 comparison to suburban forests primarily due to human activities, forest
53 fragmentation, and difference in local temperature and soil-water availability
54 (Grimm et al., 2008; Wilde and Maxwell, 2018; Zhang and Brack, 2021). The
55 heterogeneity of the city structure induces uneven temperatures in the cities and in
56 particular, contributes to the formation of "heat islands"; this is leading to shifts in
57 vegetation phenology (Li et al., 2019; Zhang and Brack, 2021) and alterations in
58 tree-growth rates (Pretzsch et al., 2017). In addition, the effects of global climate
59 change, such as temperature rising, precipitation redistribution in the season, and
60 more frequent drought events have led to the decline of urban forests and an
61 increased risk of trees mortality (Marchin et al., 2022; Romagnoli et al., 2018).
62 Despite these challenges, individual trees might also benefit from urban conditions,
63 in particular urban forest management and reduced competition for light (Wilde and
64 Maxwell, 2018).

65 The local or site conditions have been shown to affect trees' growth and their
66 responses to climate in forests in a broad ecological context (Klisz et al., 2023;
67 Kostić et al., 2021; Lévesque et al., 2014; Ordóñez and Duinker, 2015). The local

68 hydrology, soil-water availability, and depth of soil water table are considered key
69 that alter the climatic signal present in tree-growth series (Sass-Klaassen and
70 Hanraets, 2006). Specific disturbances including soil compaction, root and crown
71 damage etc. in the urban environment may also reduce trees' sensitivity to
72 temperature and precipitations (Gillner et al., 2013; Helama et al., 2009), potentially
73 lowering their ability to respond to climate variations. In contrast, Schneider et al.
74 (2022) reported that the presence of impervious surfaces and a high density of
75 buildings in urban forests could increase trees' demand for soil moisture, thereby
76 enhancing their climatic response. Therefore, the investigation of the local physical-
77 chemical factors' influence on trees' growth-to-climate relationships can provide
78 valuable insight into urban forest care.

79 In the field of dendrochronology, it has long been recognized that the
80 sensitivity of trees to precipitation and drought can be influenced by the complex
81 topography of their growth environment (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990). Trees that
82 grow on ridges and slopes capture stronger climatic signals compared to those at
83 lower-lying sites (Fritts, 1976). This impact of topography on trees' climate
84 sensitivity varies among species and is closely tied to their growth rate (Mayoral et
85 al., 2019) and growth strategy (Fekedulegn et al., 2003). For instance, conservative
86 species tend to be less sensitive to their position within the landscape, in contrast to
87 site-specific and exploitative species (Fekedulegn et al., 2003). Meanwhile,
88 topographic control on the climate sensitivity of trees' species can be quite
89 prominent as well, particularly as it was found for *Quercus robur*, pedunculate oak,
90 in steppe environments (Grytsan, 2000; Netsvetov et al., 2021). Trees in lower

91 positions may struggle with cold air drainage at the beginning of the growing season
92 (Grytsan, 2000), leading to positive growth-to-temperature correlations that are not
93 discernible in trees at higher sites (Netsvetov et al., 2021).

94 Our study aims to assess the sensitivity of *Q. robur*, a foundational species of
95 European broadleaved forests, to climate variability and to identify the
96 environmental factors contributing to the sensitivity of this species in urban areas.
97 We hypothesize that this sensitivity is heterogeneous across all sites within the city,
98 as the climatic signal is influenced by site-specific conditions, including topography,
99 soil properties, and forest type. The magnitude and stability of *Q. robur*'s response
100 to climatic factors, such as precipitation and temperature, are expected to vary
101 depending on these local environmental conditions. To test this hypothesis, we
102 analyzed ring-width chronologies from dominant and co-dominant *Q. robur* trees
103 across nine urban forests in Kyiv, with varying habitat conditions, and used Linear
104 Mixed-Effects Models (LMME) to evaluate the influence of these varying
105 environmental factors on growth-climate relationships.

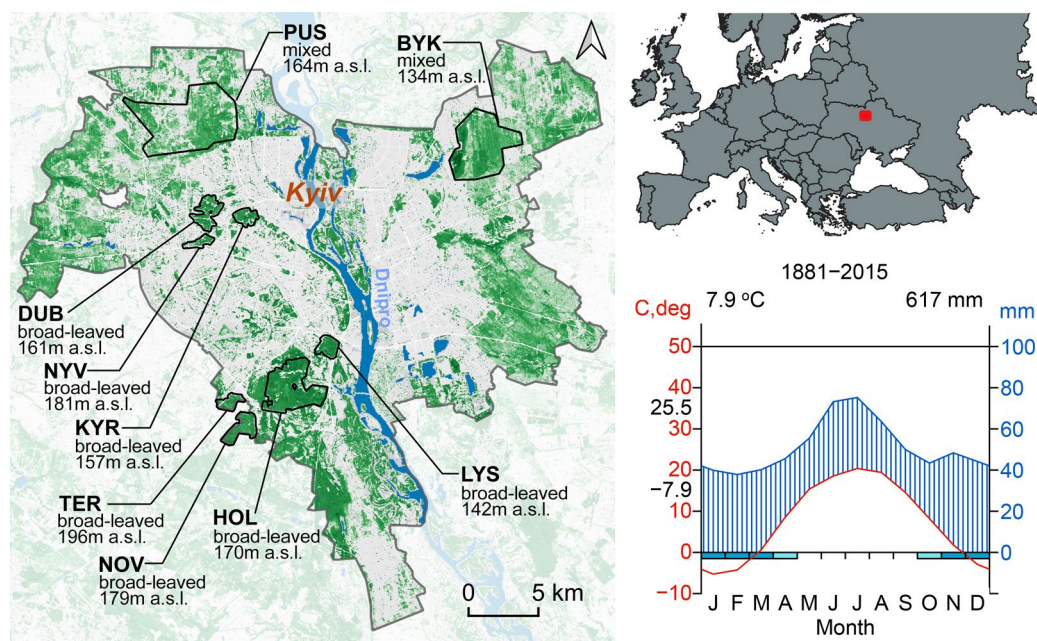
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107 **2. Materials and methods**

108 *2.1. Study sites*

109 The study was performed in urban forests within Kyiv City, Ukraine.
110 Although these forests were not situated immediately near buildings, they were
111 frequently visited by city residents. The chosen nine study sites were characterized
112 by the dominance of mature *Q. robur* trees, either in broadleaved forests or co-
113 dominant in mixed forests (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Soil characteristics, including soil

114 type and mechanical composition, were obtained from the Soil Map of Ukraine,
 115 accessible on the European Soil Data Centre (Krupskiy et al., 1977), and interactive
 116 agricultural maps of Ukraine (Grachov, 2023). Topographic features were extracted
 117 from digital elevation models in QGIS (2024). Specifically, the average elevation
 118 (in meters above sea level) and slope (in degrees) of the studied sites were extracted.
 119 This allowed us to consider the impact of surface topography on microclimate and
 120 growth conditions.



121

122 **Fig. 1.** The Kyiv city map with sampling sites (left), red square indicates the location
 123 of Kyiv city in Eastern Europe (top right panel) and Walter–Lieth climate diagram
 124 (bottom right panel)

125

126 The four studied sites namely Holiivo (HOL), Novosilky (NOV), Teremky
 127 (TER), and Lysa Hora (LYS) represent old-growth oak-hornbeam forests located in
 128 the southern part of Kyiv, growing on light gray and gray podzolized soils. The
 129 origin of these forests remains debatable, however, the cartographic evidence and

130 the estimated age of some oak individuals suggest that a continuous forest massif
 131 already existed in this area in the XVII century (Netsvetov and Prokopuk, 2016).
 132 Altitudes range from 142 to 196 meters above sea level (m a.s.l.), and slopes vary
 133 between 2.7 and 6.7 degrees at these sites (Table S1).

134

135 **Table 1**

136 Sampling sites description

Site ID	Lat. (°N)	Lon. (°E)	No. of trees/ cores	Age mean* (years)	D _{1.3} ** mean± standard deviation (cm)	H**mean ± standard deviation (m)
HOL	50.359460	30.487721	32/64	227	106.3±20.04	23.9±3.03
NOV	50.343167	30.471227	19/44	164	89.6±10.23	24.0±1.57
TER	50.358710	30.446891	14/29	162	91.4±16.72	22.2±1.96
LYS	50.395951	30.550082	14/29	180	102.3±21.57	20.7±3.29
PUS	50.529865	30.383690	25/56	157	80.7±11.36	24.4±3.58
BYK	50.492626	30.685047	25/58	106	69.2±9.24	21.3±2.43
KYR	50.477596	30.469133	11/25	151	94.6±18.62	18.8±3.09
NYV	50.462650	30.423561	11/23	154	105.0±13.29	19.5±2.50
DUB	50.475405	30.421242	20/40	174	100.1±12.89	23.6±2.65

137 *The mean cambial age of the studied trees is given as of 2015

138 **Mean stem diameter at 1.3 m above ground level (D_{1.3}) and height (H) were
 139 calculated from studied trees measurements

140

141 Pushcha Vodytsia (PUS) and Bykivnianskyi (BYK) sites are managed pine-
142 oak forests in the northwest and northeast of the city, respectively, with soils
143 classified as sod medium-podzolic loamy sand and sod weakly-podzolic sandy loam.
144 These forests have been planted in areas that were originally covered by natural pine
145 and pine-oak forests (Didukh and Aloskina, 2012). The relief in most of this area
146 is plain and the mean altitude ranges from 134 m in the BYK to 164 m a.s.l. in PUS
147 (Table S1). Until the 1970s, the north and south parts of the city were sparsely built
148 up.

149 The stands in Kyrylivskyi Hay Park (KYR), Dubky Park (DUB), and Nyvky
150 Park (NYV) represent hornbeam-oak forests situated in the central part of Kyiv. The
151 parks' stands are remnants of the typical deciduous forests that covered Kyiv's
152 territory several centuries ago (Havryliuk and Rechmedin, 1956). The soils in these
153 sites correspond to sod medium-podzolic loamy sand. The mean altitude varies from
154 157 m to 181 m a.s.l. and the terrain is characterized by ravines and beams with a
155 mean slope of 4.1 to 6.8 degrees at these sites (Table S1).

156

157 *2.2. Climatic data*

158 The climate in the study area is moderately continental, with mild winters and
159 warm summers. Over the study period of 1881–2015, the average annual air
160 temperature in Kyiv was 7.9°C. Monthly mean temperatures varied from –7.9°C in
161 January to 25.5°C in July. The average total annual precipitation value was 617 mm,
162 with a maximal of 75 mm occurring in July, and a minimum of 38 mm in February
163 (bottom-right plot at Fig. 1). In general, during the last decades climatic data show

164 a well-known rising temperature trend and no long-term change in precipitation in
165 Kyiv (Netsvetov et al., 2018). The daily temperature and precipitation observations
166 for the city were obtained from the European Climate Assessment dataset (Cornes
167 et al., 2018).

168

169 *2.3. Wood sampling*

170 Wood samples were collected from visually healthy trees during autumn–
171 winter seasons spanning 2015 to 2019. At sites where undamaged mature *Q. robur*
172 trees were scarce, a minimum of 11 trees were sampled. A total of 171 dominant or
173 co-dominant pedunculate oak trees were cored at breast height using 5 mm Haglöf
174 increment borer. At least two increment cores per tree were collected. For each tree
175 geographical coordinates were recorded and stem diameter at breast height and tree
176 height were measured (Table 1).

177

178 *2.4. Chronology development and pointer years analysis*

179 Air-dried tree cores were prepared by affixing them to wooden supports,
180 followed by successive sanding using increasingly fine-grained paper and high-
181 resolution scanning at 3200 dpi using an Epson V37 scanner. Tree ring widths were
182 measured with an accuracy of 0.01 mm utilizing the AxioVision (Carl Zeiss)
183 software. Tree-ring widths series were cross-dated both within stems and among
184 trees at each site using years of maximum and minimum growth as a benchmark.

185 To reduce non-climatic effects, we detrended the raw tree ring series using a
186 cubic smoothing spline curve with a wavelength of 0.67 series duration (Cook and

187 Peters, 1981; Speer, 2010). Site-level residual chronologies of ring width indices
188 (RWI) were built by calculating robust means for the standardized ring-width series
189 prewhitened with a first-order autoregressive model (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990).
190 The chronologies cross-dating quality was checked with COFECHA software
191 (Holmes, 1983) and the ‘dplR’ package (Bunn, 2010) in R (R Development Core
192 Team, 2022).

193 For each site, we computed the standard deviation (SD) and the mean
194 sensitivity (ms) to estimate the high-frequency variability of raw and detrended tree
195 ring series. We also calculated the first-order autocorrelation coefficient (AR1) to
196 identify relationships with previous growing season and the mean correlations
197 between series from the same tree (rbar.wt) to estimate the quality of cross-dating
198 for raw data; the mean correlation between trees (rbar.bt) for detrended
199 chronologies. To assess chronologies’ confidence, we computed the expressed
200 population signal (EPS), the signal-to-noise ratio (snr), and the subsample signal
201 strength (sss), using the ‘dplR’ package (Bunn, 2010) within R.

202 To identify years of extreme tree growth, both positive and negative
203 deviations, we employed the bias-adjusted standardized growth change approach
204 (BSGC) to the detrended tree ring series (Buras et al., 2022). The BSGC method
205 also discerns the period of deflection, indicating the years when growth continued
206 to deviate after an extreme event. In addition, we calculated the frequency of pointer
207 years considering the BSGC results from all studied sites. This frequency (fi) was
208 calculated using the formula:

209
$$f_i = (n_i / N - 1) * 100\%$$

210 where f_i represents the frequency, n_i is the number of sites with pointer years
211 of the same sign, and N is the total number of studied sites. The determination of
212 pointer years was proceeded using the ‘dendRoLAB’ package (Buras et al., 2022) in
213 R, focusing on the common period of detrended individual tree-ring series (1955–
214 2015).

215

216 *2.5. Trees’ climate sensitivity assessment*

217 To evaluate the sensitivity of *Q. robur* growth to climatic variables, we
218 employed a double-moving window technique (Netsvetov et al., 2023; Prokopuk et
219 al., 2022). The first window, spanning 31 years, was moved through the study period
220 (1881–2015) in one-year steps. The second window analyzed daily climatic data
221 using the `daily_response` function from the ‘dendroTools’ package in R (Jevšenak
222 and Levanič, 2018). This method allowed us to identify the strongest correlations
223 between tree growth and climate variables and to track the stability and duration of
224 these relationships over time.

225 We applied the `daily_response` function 104 times for each site-specific tree-
226 ring series: 104 times for temperature data and 104 times for precipitation data. This
227 corresponds to the 104 overlapping 31-year windows within the study period. While
228 there are technically 105 possible windows ($105 = 2015 - 1881 + 1 - 31 + 1$), the first
229 year (1881) is used only to provide climatic conditions influencing tree growth in
230 the following year (1882). This approach ensures that each window accounts for
231 both current and previous season climatic influences, providing a comprehensive
232 assessment of climate impacts on tree growth.

233 Each matrix generated by the `daily_response` function represents one 31-year
234 window and one climatic variable (either temperature or precipitation). In these
235 matrices, columns represent each day of the year, rows denote different window
236 widths (in days), and cells contain the correlation coefficients between ring width
237 time series and the 31-year period of daily climatic variables.

238 We then analyzed these 104 matrices for each combination of site chronology
239 and climate variable using the Full-Duration at Half-Maximum (FDHM) method
240 (Netsvetov et al., 2023; Weik, 2000). This method helps identify the most significant
241 climate-to-growth patterns, focusing on peaks that exceed a 25% threshold to
242 determine the duration and stability of these effects.

243 Additionally, we conducted the analysis using a fixed 1955–2015 window,
244 which represents the common period for all individual chronologies. The results
245 were then used to explore growth-climate relationships based on site characteristics
246 (see the next chapter).

247

248 *2.6. Linear mixed-effects models*

249 We conducted linear mixed-effects models (LMM) to identify the local
250 environmental variables influencing trees' growth and sensitivity to climate
251 variations. We quantified trees' sensitivity to climate by considering the squared
252 coefficient of correlation (R-squared) between RWI and climatic variables, i.e.
253 temperature and precipitations. R-squared values were included in LMM as the
254 response variable.

255 Physical-chemical characteristics of sites as well as forests types (Table S1)
256 were tested as explanatory variables (fixed-effect parameters); sites IDs were
257 included as a random-effect parameter. Fixed-effect parameters were progressively
258 introduced in the initial restricted model, or null model, which initially contained
259 only the random effect.

260 The best model was selected based on the corrected Akaike Information
261 Criterion (AICc), and its effectiveness was compared with those of the null-model.
262 Models with the AICc value lower than AICc of the null-model were considered to
263 have the influence on trees' sensitivity to climate. The calculations were carried out
264 using the 'lme4' package (Bates et al., 2015) in R.

265

266 *2.7. Sensitivity to drought*

267 The site-series sensitivity to drought was assessed employing the superposed
268 epoch analysis SEA (Chree, 1913) implemented in the 'dplR' package in R (Bunn,
269 2010). Extreme drought events were identified based on years when the standardized
270 precipitation-evapotranspiration index (SPEI) dropped to -2 or lower (McKee et al.,
271 1993; Paulo et al., 2012). We focused on the SPEI1-SPEI6 indices, representing the
272 aggregated interval from April to September, coinciding with the warmest period in
273 the season and *Q. robur* wood formation (Lahoiko et al., 2019) (Fig. S3).

274 Subsequently, we used the mean ring width and RWI identified in SEA to
275 assess the significance of their deviation from corresponding lag+1 years, i.e.
276 randomly selected years served as a baseline to evaluate whether tree growth in
277 drought years significantly deviated from mean growth. We then evaluated the

278 dependence of the deviation magnitude on the most influential factor identified in
279 the LMM. Additionally, we utilized the maximum and minimum SPEI indices
280 during the period of the *Q. robur* wood formation for a chi-squared test. This test
281 enabled computation of the statistical significance of matches between the frequency
282 of pointer years and extreme drought or wet events, $\text{SPEI} \leq -2.0$ and $\text{SPEI} \geq 2.0$
283 respectively. All statistical analyses were conducted using R 3.6.3 (R Development
284 Core Team, 2022).

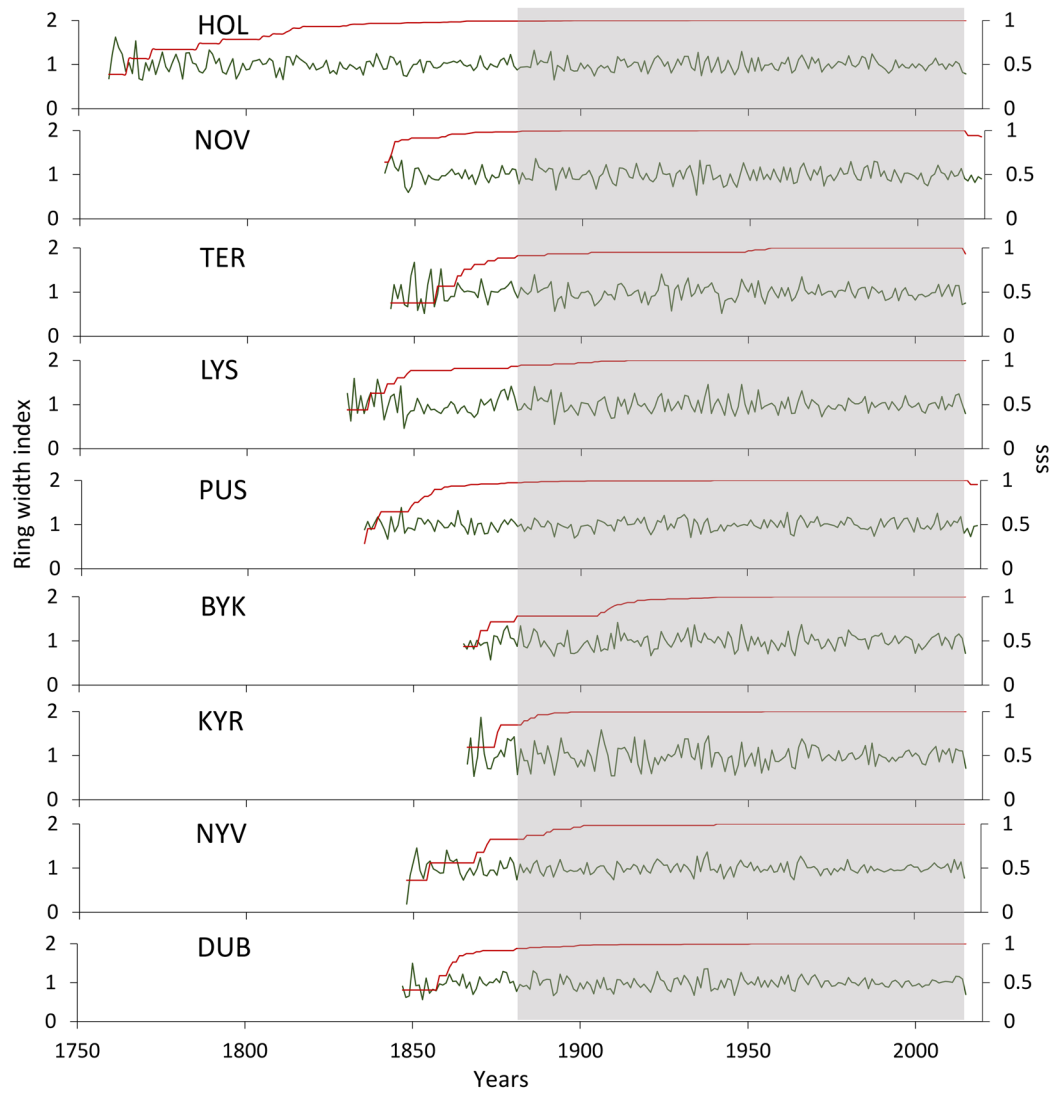
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286 **3. Results**

287 *3.1. Chronology statistics*

288 We established nine mean and residual tree-ring chronologies for the studied
289 urban forests. The temporal span of these chronologies ranged from 152 years at the
290 BYK and KYR sites to 259 years at the HOL site (Fig. 2, S1). The mean age of the
291 trees across all sites in 2015 varied accordingly, from 106 years in BYK to 227 years
292 in HOL (Table 1).

293 The age-related growth trend is evident across many trees (Fig. S1). Older
294 trees, such as those found at HOL, exhibit lower growth rates, reflected in the
295 corresponding mean ring width. During the study period from 1881 to 2015, the
296 widest mean ring width was observed in BYK (2.93 ± 1.158 mm), while the
297 narrowest was found in HOL (1.80 ± 0.591 mm) (Table 2).



298

299

300

301

302

Fig. 2. Detrended chronologies (RWI) for each study site (see Table 1 for site ID code meaning). The red lines in the right panel indicate the subsample signal strength values and the shadowed rectangles point the studied period 1881–2015

303 **Table 2**

304 The chronologies descriptive statistics for the period 1881–2015

Site ID	MRW (mm)	SD (mm)	AR1	rbar.bt	rbar.wt	EPS	snr	sss	ms
HOL	1.80	0.591	0.688	0.388	0.666	0.952	19.9	>0.993	0.226
NOV	2.17	0.724	0.657	0.447	0.696	0.940	15.7	>0.989	0.248
TER	2.42	0.862	0.673	0.330	0.614	0.851	5.7	>0.911	0.246
LYS	2.26	0.991	0.728	0.402	0.691	0.899	8.8	>0.933	0.262
PUS	2.31	0.950	0.753	0.263	0.658	0.899	8.9	>0.975	0.247
BYK	2.93	1.158	0.720	0.414	0.684	0.928	12.9	>0.780	0.252
KYR	2.60	1.159	0.659	0.556	0.619	0.926	12.6	>0.847	0.299
NYV	2.55	0.911	0.730	0.298	0.572	0.811	4.3	>0.825	0.210
DUB	2.45	0.863	0.679	0.376	0.650	0.917	11.0	>0.941	0.237

305 MRW is the mean ring width, SD is the standard deviation, AR1 is the first-order
306 autocorrelation coefficient, rbar.bt is the mean interseries correlation between all series from
307 different trees, rbar.wt is the mean correlations between series from the same tree over all trees,
308 EPS is the expressed population signal, snr is the signal-to-noise ratio, sss is the subsample signal
309 strength, ms denotes the mean sensitivity. For site IDs, see Table 1.

310

311 A mixed-effects linear model revealed that forest types, most of soil
312 properties, and topographical factors (see Table S1 and Table S2) did not have
313 significant predictive capacity for tree growth variation. However, the model
314 incorporating both soil mechanical composition and mean tree age demonstrated the
315 best and only significant predictive performance for tree growth, explaining about
316 31% of the total growth variation across sites, based on marginal R-squared.

317 The AR1 values, which represent the dependence of the current year's growth
318 on the previous year's growth, ranged from 0.66 at PUS to 0.75 at NOV. This
319 indicates a significant degree of growth consistency across all studied forests, with
320 NOV showing the strongest year-to-year dependence.

321 The $r_{bar.bt}$ varied across sites, with the highest value recorded at KYR (0.56),
322 suggesting a more consistent growth response among trees at this site. Conversely,
323 PUS exhibited the lowest correlation (0.26), indicating greater growth variability
324 between individual trees. The $r_{bar.wt}$ values ranged from 0.60 at NYV to 0.71 at
325 BYK, indicating a moderate level of correlation within trees across all sites.

326 The snr , a measure of the strength of the environmental signal in the tree-ring
327 data, was highest at HOL (19.9) and lowest at NYV (4.3). This suggests that the
328 HOL site has a much stronger, more consistent environmental influence on tree
329 growth compared to the NYV site.

330 The lowest ms , which reflects the year-to-year growth variability, was
331 recorded at NYV (0.21), suggesting relatively stable environmental conditions. In
332 contrast, KYR exhibited the highest sensitivity (0.30), implying a greater
333 responsiveness of trees to climatic variations.

334 EPS values, which measure the strength of the common signal across trees at
335 each site or the representativeness of the sampled trees, exceeded 0.85 in all
336 chronologies except for NYV (EPS = 0.81). Similarly, the subsample signal strength
337 (sss) exceeded 0.85 in all sites except BYK (sss = 0.78) and NYV (sss = 0.83),
338 indicating that these two sites may have more variability in the tree-ring signals or
339 weaker sample coherence.

340

341 *3.2. Pointer years' analysis*

342 Using BSGC method on detrended tree-ring chronologies, we identified
343 negative and positive pointer years, as well as deflected periods, especially in recent
344 years (Fig. S2). Specific years stood out as notably unfavorable for tree growth,
345 including 1963, 1964 and 2015, when negative pointer years or deflected periods
346 were detected almost in all studied forests (Fig. S3). In contrast, 1966 and 1980 were
347 years in which tree growth significantly increased at most locations. Growth
348 depression was observed only in 1 to 4 sites, in 1956 (BYK, and KYR), 1959 (LYS),
349 1972 (HOL, NOV, LYS, and NYV), 1986 (LYS, KYR, and DUB), 1988 (PUS),
350 1992 (TER), 2002 (NOV), and 2014 (HOL, and TER). In contrast, growth release
351 was observed at some sites, in 1960 (NOV, and DUB), 1962 (PUS, BYK, NYV, and
352 DUB), 1969 and 1984 (HOL), 1987 (HOL, NOV, and KYR), 1997 (LYS), 2001
353 (PUS), 2006 (NOV), 2007 (TER, and PUS), 2008 (LYS), and 2012 (LYS, and
354 NYV).

355

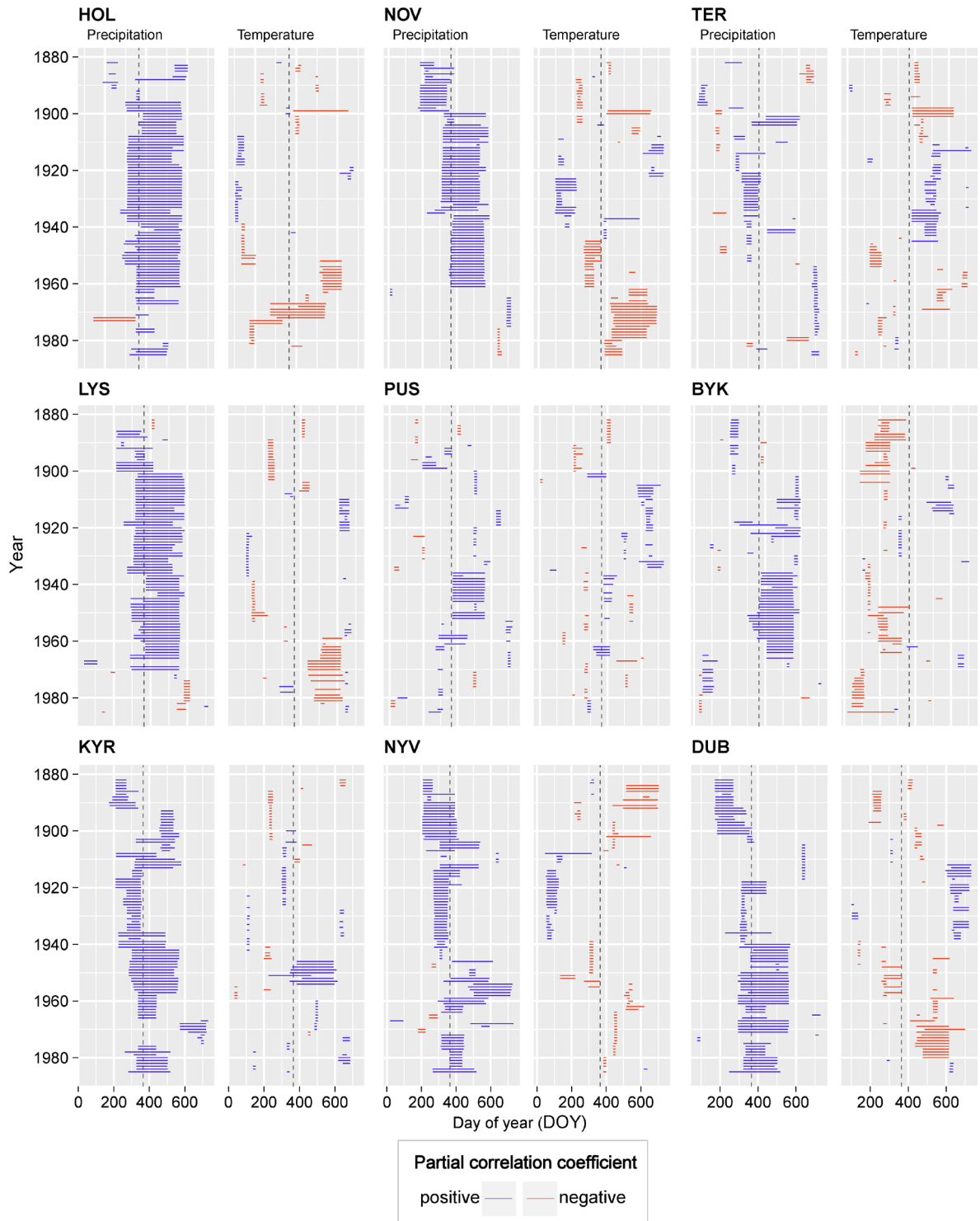
356 *3.3. Climatic sensitivity of Quercus robur*

357 The use of a 31-year-wide moving window in daily partial correlation analysis
358 allowed us to establish a temporal stability pattern of climate sensitivity of *Q. robur*
359 in urban forests. A site-specific precipitation signal for oak chronologies was
360 corroborated. Specifically, trees in KYR, NYV, DUB, and HOL sites showed long-
361 term patterns of precipitation sensitivity that occurred from the dormant period to

362 early growing season (Figs. 3, S4 and Table 3). In contrast, on LYS and NOV sites,
363 the precipitation signal was prominent but not during the recent decades. Finally, in
364 TER, PUS, and BYK sites, trees displayed a weak or shifting relationship with
365 precipitation variability.

366 Moreover, in nearly all studied sites, the response of trees growth to
367 temperature was unstable for the overall study period (Figs. 3 and S5). The
368 correlation between growth and temperature inverted, shifting from positive to
369 negative in all study sites over the study period. Nevertheless, our analysis revealed
370 that high temperature reduced growth in the second half of the studied period in
371 HOL, NOV, and NYV, or during recent decades in TER, LYS, and DUB. Notably,
372 only BYK showed a relatively stable temperature- growth pattern, albeit interrupted
373 in several short periods.

374



375

376 **Fig. 3.** Temporal changes in climate relationships across study period (vertical
 377 dashed lines indicate the crossing between the previous and current year) per site:
 378 left panel, with precipitations, right panel with temperature. Horizontal lines
 379 represent the duration of the climatic predictors of growth within each 31-year time
 380 window. The labels on the vertical axes are the first years of each time windows.
 381 For site IDs, see Table 1

382 The calculated percentage of the strongest pattern of *Q. robur* climate-growth
 383 relationship revealed that the most stable positive correlation with precipitation
 384 varied from 26 % (TER) to 74 % (HOL) during the study period (Table 3, Fig. S4).
 385 The application of FDHM exhibited the most prominent patterns of positive
 386 correlation with precipitation, which occurred from the autumn of the previous year
 387 to the summer of the current season. An exception was TER site where only
 388 precipitation of the current year had a positive impact on *Q. robur* growth (Fig. S4).
 389 In contrast, the most stable negative temperature impact on *Q. robur* growth was
 390 identified from 13.5 % (TER) to 39.4 % (BYK) of all negative temperature
 391 correlations. The strongest temperature signal was revealed in BYK and NYV
 392 exhibited negative patterns, while TER showed a positive one (Fig. S4).

393

394 **Table 3**

395 Duration and percentage of the strongest patterns of climate-growth relationships.

396 For site IDs, see Table 1.

Site ID	Precipitation positive			Precipitation negative			Temperature positive			Temperature negative		
	first DOY	last DOY	percent	first DOY	last DOY	percent	first DOY	last DOY	percent	first DOY	last DOY	percent
HOL	3 1 1	56 7	74.0	8	247	1.9	104	135	21.2	394	5 5 5	17.3
NOV	3 1 6	55 8	59.6	8	653	9.6	101	151	17.3	229	6 3 6	22.1
TER	6 8 9	69 9	26.0	107	130	8.7	458	527	27.9	133	5 7 1	13.5
LYS	3 1 0	55 7	69.2	406	592	9.6	612	658	19.2	422	6 1 8	17.3
PUS	3 7 3	55 9	30.8	6	400	6.7	377	668	19.2	199	3 9 6	15.4

BYK	3 7 0	56 9	38.5	28	42	6.7	103	570	10.6	190	2 5 1	39.4
KYR	2 9 0	45 8	70.2	0	0	0	104	642	18.3	224	2 4 5	21.2
NYV	2 7 0	40 6	62.5	181	284	3.9	55	111	23.1	304	5 2 0	26
DUB	3 0 7	50 3	52.9	0	0	0	622	683	21.2	444	5 8 7	23.1

397

398 Among the various sites conditions and characteristics studied, terrain slope
399 was the only factor that could be used as proxy of trees sensitivity to precipitations
400 amount (Table 4), as revealed by the LMM modeling and AICc criterion
401 comparisons. Meanwhile, for temperature sensitivity, no factor showed a higher
402 predictive potential than the null model.

403

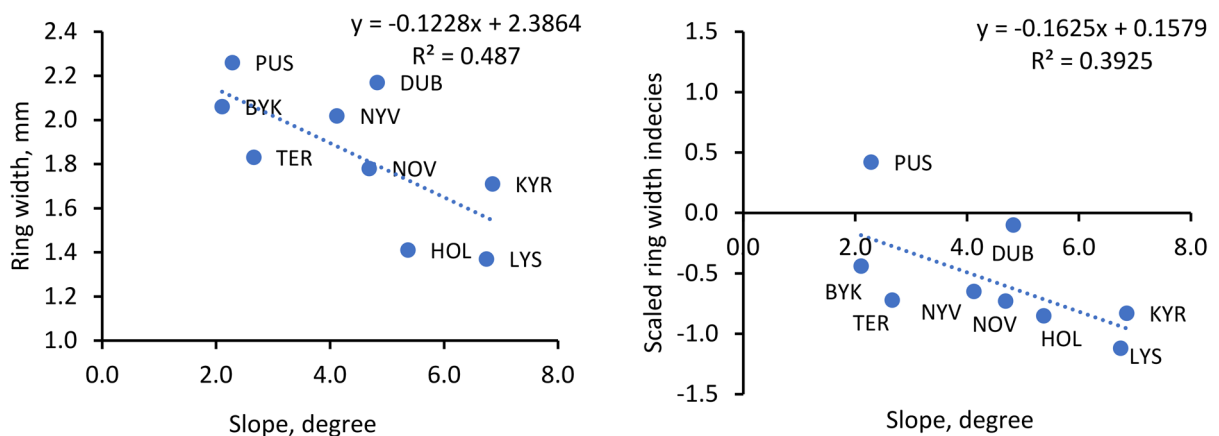
404 *3.4. Sensitivity of trees to extreme drought*

405 From 1955 to 2015, extreme droughts, as indicated by the SPEI1-6 index from
406 April to September, were observed in Kyiv in 1959, 1964, 1975, 1979, 2001, 2002,
407 2009, 2010, and 2015. The negative slope of the regression line in the left plot of
408 Fig. 4 demonstrates a negative relationship between terrain slope and mean ring
409 width, indicating that as the slope increases, mean ring width tends to decrease. The
410 R-squared value suggests that nearly 49% of the variability in mean ring width
411 during drought years can be explained by the terrain's slope.

412 Similarly, the right plot in Fig. 4 shows a negative relationship between slope
413 and standardized ring-width indices (RWI), indicating that trees on steeper slopes
414 also experience reduced growth during drought, even after adjusting for baseline

415 growth trends. The R-squared value suggests that about 39% of the variability in
 416 standardized growth indices during droughts, as calculated in SEA, can be attributed
 417 to the terrain's slope.

418 Not all pointer years or deflected periods defined by the BSGC method
 419 matched with the seasonal dry or wet conditions expressed by SPEI (Fig. S3);
 420 however, a chi-squared test confirmed that the frequency of negative pointer years
 421 and extreme drought events, as well as the frequency of positive pointer years and
 422 extremely wet years, were not independent ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that significant
 423 tree growth anomalies, both positive and negative, are strongly associated with
 424 extreme climatic events, even though not every pointer year strictly coincides with
 425 an SPEI-defined drought or wet period.



426
 427 **Fig. 4.** The response of the mean ring width (left) and scaled RWI (right) on extreme
 428 droughts depending on site-mean slope. The dashed lines show linear regression.

429 For site IDs, see Table 1

430

431 **Table 4**

432 Evaluation of the sites' characteristics determining urban forests sensitivity to
 433 precipitation and temperature. Linear mixed-effects models were used for assessing
 434 which factors were important in the trees' growth to climate relationship. The
 435 corrected second-order Akaike Information Criterion and the difference delta are
 436 presented. Bold characters indicate the model that performs better than the null
 437 model

Explanatory variables	Precipitation		Temperature	
	AICc	Δ AICc	AICc	Δ AICc
Null model	-448.4	0	-557.5	0
Slope	-452.7	-4.3	-556.2	1.3
Altitude	-448.0	0.4	-557.1	0.4
Soil type	-444.4	4.0	-552.3	5.2
Soil mechanical composition	-445.1	3.3	-554.5	3.0
Soil Ph	-446.6	1.8	-556.2	1.3
Forest type	-447.1	1.3	-555.7	1.8
Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity	-446.7	1.7	-555.7	1.8

438

439 The ecosystem services and benefits provided by urban forests are
 440 significantly influenced by tree dimensions, as larger trees have a greater potential
 441 for carbon sequestration, air quality improvement, and urban cooling (Mailloux et
 442 al., 2024; Prokopuk, 2019; Stephenson et al., 2014). In Kyiv, the radial growth rate
 443 of *Q. robur* is consistent with those reported in other urban and suburban forests

444 across Europe, including floodplain forests in Ukraine and Poland (Kalbarczyk et
445 al., 2018; Netsvetov et al., 2019, 2018), mixed forests in Latvia (Matisons et al.,
446 2013) and broadleaved forests in Moldova and Germany (Friedrichs et al., 2008;
447 Roibu et al., 2020; Scharnweber et al., 2011). This consistency suggests that *Q.*
448 *robur* can maintain a similar growth rate in diverse local environments within its
449 range in Central and Eastern Europe.

450 At the local scale, diverse conditions within the urban environment can either
451 facilitate or hinder tree growth. For instance, factors such as air pollution, soil
452 compaction, water availability, heat island effects, and proximity to infrastructure
453 can significantly influence growth patterns (Escobedo et al., 2011; Nechita et al.,
454 2021). Muscas et al. (2023) further emphasize that trees in park-like sites are less
455 impacted by urban stressors compared to those planted along streets, highlighting
456 the importance of less altered site-specific conditions for tree growth. Our findings
457 indicate that the mean tree age, combined with soil mechanical composition, are the
458 strongest predictors of the total growth variation of *Q. robur* in Kyiv. While the
459 influence of age on growth dynamics is well-known (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990),
460 soil mechanical composition likely affects growth through its impact on water
461 retention, drainage capacity, and nutrient availability (Sheppard et al., 2001). Other
462 local factors, such as soil characteristics, were not significant predictors in our study,
463 possibly due to relatively low variability between sites or their covariation, which
464 may obscure their individual effects.

465 Tree growth in urban ecosystems is significantly impacted by severe drought
466 linked to climate change (Nitschke et al., 2017), and this is evident in the forests of

467 Kyiv, as highlighted by the pointer year analysis. Droughts were the primary driver
468 of negative growth responses in *Q. robur* over the past five decades. The BSGC
469 method identified 1963, 1964, and 2015 as negative pointer years, corresponding to
470 periods of extreme droughts in Eastern Europe (Spinoni et al., 2015; Vicente-
471 Serrano et al., 2010). In 2015, reduced tree ring widths were observed across all
472 study sites, with significant growth depression recorded in seven of them (78%),
473 coinciding with high summer temperatures and dry conditions that affected central-
474 eastern Europe (Hoy et al., 2017).

475 In addition, the BSGC method identified 1966 as a positive pointer year in
476 seven sites (78%) and 1980 in six sites (67%). The SPEI indices indicated “near-
477 normal” moisture conditions in Kyiv during the 1966 growing season, which alone
478 does not fully explain the simultaneous growth increase observed across the sites.
479 This suggests that the growth surge may be a resilience response to the recurrent
480 droughts experienced in previous years (Figs. S2 and S3). A similar pattern of
481 increasing *Q. robur* growth after drought has been observed in the steppe region
482 (Netsvetov et al., 2021). In 1980, the “very wet” spring and autumn conditions led
483 to an increase in *Q. robur* growth (Fig. S3), pointing to the importance of water
484 availability for the species' development in Kyiv's urban forests.

485 Site-specific conditions, whether natural or artificially altered, not only
486 directly influence tree growth but also modulate their sensitivity to climatic factors,
487 either mitigating or amplifying these effects. For instance, urban environments can
488 enhance trees' responses to temperature fluctuations, particularly during summer
489 heatwaves and in areas impacted by the urban heat island effect (Esperon-Rodriguez

490 et al., 2022; Schneider et al., 2022; Wilde and Maxwell, 2018). In natural forests at
491 the southern margin of the species' range, the negative impact of high winter
492 temperatures is exacerbated by local waterlogging conditions (García-González and
493 Souto-Herrero, 2023). In contrast, in the steppe zone, convergent topographic
494 position creates locally favorable conditions, making early-season temperatures
495 beneficial for tree growth (Netsvetov et al., 2021).

496 In recent decades, a global reduction in the sensitivity of tree species to
497 temperature, a divergence problem, has been observed and is attributed to the
498 increasing impact of drought, pollution, micro-site conditions, and urban heat islands
499 (Büntgen et al., 2009; Cook et al., 2004). This phenomenon is particularly
500 pronounced in the Northern Hemisphere and has been registered in both coniferous
501 species (Büntgen et al., 2006; Wilmking et al., 2005; Wilson et al., 2007) and
502 deciduous species (Nechita et al., 2019). This trend is further supported by our
503 findings in Kyiv's urban forests, where tree growth sensitivity to temperature appears
504 inconsistent (see Fig. 3), although not significantly influenced by site conditions
505 (Table 4).

506 However, in Kyiv, hillslope degree significantly influenced trees' radial
507 growth sensitivity to precipitation, whereas other site characteristics, including soil
508 type, had weaker predictive power than a null model. This finding contrasts with
509 previous studies that identified local soil properties as the primary factor governing
510 drought sensitivity in *Q. robur* (Buras et al., 2020; Kostić et al., 2021) and other
511 species (Rehshuh et al., 2017; Rigling et al., 2001). The discrepancy could be
512 attributed to the greater variability in soil types and fertility in these studies,

513 particularly in marginal southern populations where climate interacts with a diverse
514 range of soil conditions, from highly fertile to infertile soils (Kostić et al., 2021).

515 Another specificity in our findings is that while soil mechanical composition
516 explains growth rate variability across sites, it does not account for the effect of
517 precipitation. Soil mechanical composition determines baseline growth conditions
518 by influencing root development, nutrient availability, and aeration (Malamy, 2005),
519 thereby setting the potential growth rate of trees at each site. However, variations in
520 soil mechanical composition between sites may not fully explain differences in how
521 trees respond to short-term changes in precipitation. This may be particularly
522 relevant in landscapes with varied topography, such as hill slopes, where factors like
523 slope steepness and aspect have a strong influence on water runoff and retention,
524 thereby modulating tree sensitivity to precipitation (Hoylman et al., 2019).

525 Our results show that *Q. robur* sensitivity to precipitation variations and
526 extreme drought episodes increases with slope steepness (Fig. 4). In general, the
527 steeper the slope, the more pronounced the trees' sensitivity to water deficit. Trees
528 located on the highest and/or steepest slopes tend to exhibit enhanced drought
529 sensitivity or increased leaf defoliation, as observed in several broadleaved species,
530 including *Q. rubra* and *Q. prinus* (Hawthorne and Miniati, 2018) and *Q. ilex* (López-
531 Ballesteros et al., 2023). Slope, along with aspect, significantly influences
532 microclimate and hydrology by affecting factors such as vapor pressure deficit, wind
533 speed, radiation exposure, evaporative fluxes, cold air drainage, and overland water
534 flow (Thorntwaite, 1953; Gritsan, 2000; Sherratt, 2005; Dobrowsky, 2011;
535 Hoylman et al., 2019; Camarero et al., 2023). In our study, substantial variation in

536 aspect within sites precluded a detailed analysis of its effects, so we focused
537 specifically on the influence of slope.

538 Steeper slopes limit soil-water recharge, leading to rapid surface water flow
539 rather than infiltration into the soil (Gritsan, 2000; Dietrich and Perron, 2006).
540 Additionally, surface water runoff contributes to erosion and the loss of topsoil
541 (Hurst et al. 2012), thereby diminishing the soil's water retention capacity. Another
542 crucial element related to slope is that shallow subsurface flow occurs less frequently
543 and persistently on steeper slopes than on gentle slopes or at other topographic
544 positions (Hoylman et al., 2019; Rempe and Dietrich, 2014).

545 Given *Q. robur*'s sensitivity to drought and the increasing frequency of
546 drought episodes in Kyiv, integrating species distribution models into urban forest
547 management policies is important. Based on the IPCC's climate projections under
548 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways 485 and 245, as well as general circulation models
549 (Dyderski et al., 2018; Puchałka et al., 2024), *Q. robur*'s natural distribution range
550 is expected to shift northwards, with its southern boundary potentially moving
551 towards the Kyiv region by 2060–2080. This projected range contraction
552 underscores the need for proactive management strategies in Kyiv that prioritize
553 slope stabilization and enhance water retention to mitigate soil erosion and ensure
554 the long-term health and resilience of urban forests.

555 Our findings, along with insights from other studies, suggest several practical
556 implications for managing urban forests under these changing conditions. Limiting
557 public access to steep slopes can help reduce soil compaction and erosion caused by
558 foot traffic, thereby preserving soil structure and improving water retention

559 (Buchwał and Rogowski, 2010; Matulewski, 2024). Establishing designated
560 pathways for visitors, similar to those used in protected dune forests (Gouguet, 2018)
561 and mountain forests (Barros et al., 2013), can effectively manage movement and
562 reduce soil erosion on vulnerable slopes. These pathways are essential for
563 maintaining natural hydrology and preventing the degradation of soil and vegetation.

564 In addition, minimizing intensive management activities on slopes, such as
565 removal of organic debris, and instead leaving fallen branches and leaf litter on the
566 forest floor, can reduce soil erosion and promote humus accumulation. This
567 approach supports the natural regeneration process (Pemán et al., 2017), contributing
568 to a more resilient urban forest ecosystem. Implementing soil conservation practices,
569 such as mulching and maintaining native vegetation on slopes, can further enhance
570 soil moisture retention and reduce surface runoff, thereby stabilizing the
571 microclimate and increasing the soil's capacity to endure periods of water deficit.

572 Collectively, these practices will not only protect the health and stability of
573 trees in city environments but also enhance the ecological integrity and aesthetic
574 value of urban green spaces, aligning with the One Health concept (Prata et al., 2022)
575 and contributing to public wellness and community resilience.

576

577 **5. Conclusions**

578 In this study, we evaluated the sensitivity of *Quercus robur* tree ring growth
579 to climate in nine urban forests with distinct site-specific conditions in Kyiv city.
580 The novelty of our study lies in demonstrating how slope steepness influences the
581 climate sensitivity of urban forests. *Q. robur* trees are increasingly vulnerable to

582 climate changes, particularly on steeper slopes where water stress is heightened due
583 to rapid runoff and reduced soil moisture retention. This finding suggests that
584 management strategies should be optimized to account for both the tree species and
585 the specific topographic conditions.

586 Our study's practical implications for urban forestry management include
587 limiting public access to steep slopes, creating designated pathways to manage
588 visitor movement, and minimizing intensive management activities to promote
589 natural regeneration, help reduce the vulnerability of urban forests to climate-
590 induced stress, and maintain ecological stability in the face of changing climate
591 conditions.

592

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600

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Table S1

The site-specific characteristics of studied forests

Site ID	Slope mean \pm standard deviation (degree)	Altitude mean \pm standard deviation (m)	Soil type	Soil mechanical composition	Soil pH	Forest type	Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity (cm/s)
HOL	5.4 \pm 3.96	170 \pm 20.1	light gray and gray podzolized soils; dark gray podzolized soils	sandy	up to 4.5 extremely acidic	broadleaved	0.00051 moderetly high
NOV	4.7 \pm 3.09	179 \pm 11.9	light gray and gray podzolized soils; sod medium-podzolic loamy sand soils; sod mainly gleyed sandy, loamy-sandy and sandy soils with humous sands soils	sandy	up to 4.5 extremely acidic	broadleaved	0.00051 moderetly high
TER	2.7 \pm 1.65	196 \pm 3.3	light gray and gray podzolized soils; sod medium-podzolic loamy sand soils; sod mainly gleyed sandy, loamy-sandy and sandy soils with humous sands soils	sandy	up to 4.5 extremely acidic	broadleaved	0.00051 moderetly high
LYS	6.7 \pm 4.62	142 \pm 14.7	light gray and gray podzolized soils; dark gray	sandy	up to 4.5 extremely acidic	broadleaved	0.00051 moderetly high

PUS	2.3± 1.54	164± 15.2	podzolized soils sod medium- podzolic loamy sand soils	loam- sandy	4.5-5.0 very strong acidic	mixed	0.00051 moderately high
BYK	2.1± 1.55	134± 17.6	sod medium- podzolic loamy sand soils; sod weakly- podzolic sandy loam soils; sod mainly gleyed sandy, loamy- sandy and sandy soils with humous sands soils	loam- sandy	4.5-5.0 very strong acidic	mixed	0.00163 high
KYR	6.8± 3.44	157± 14.7	sod medium- podzolic loamy sand soils	sandy- loam	4.5-5.0 very strong acidic	broadleaved	0.0004 moderately high
NYV	4.1± 2.81	181± 10.1	sod medium- podzolic loamy sand soils	sandy- loam	4.5-5.0 very strong acidic	broadleaved	0.0004 moderately high
DUB	4.8± 3.39	161± 12.4	sod medium- podzolic loamy sand soils	sandy- loam	4.5-5.0 very strong acidic	broadleaved	0.0004 moderately high

Table S2

Comparison of linear mixed-effects models with different combinations of ring width predictors based on AIC Values

Model	df	AIC
Null Model (random effect)	3	994.49
age + soil mechanical composition	4	799.3173
age + soil type	6	989.07
age + forest type	4	982.75
age + pH	4	986.42
age + altitude	4	985.4
age + slope	4	985.95
soil type + soil mechanical composition	5	804.86
soil type + forest type	6	990.07
soil type + pH	5	992.6
soil type and altitude	6	990.22
soil type + slope	6	991.86
age + soil mechanical composition + pH	4	799.3173
age + soil mechanical composition + altitude	5	799.3089
age + soil mechanical composition + slope	5	800.2733
age + soil mechanical composition + forest type	4	799.3173

According to the results of the MANOVA test, adding any additional third component to a model already incorporating age and soil mechanical composition does not result in a statistically significant improvement in the model's explanatory power or efficiency.

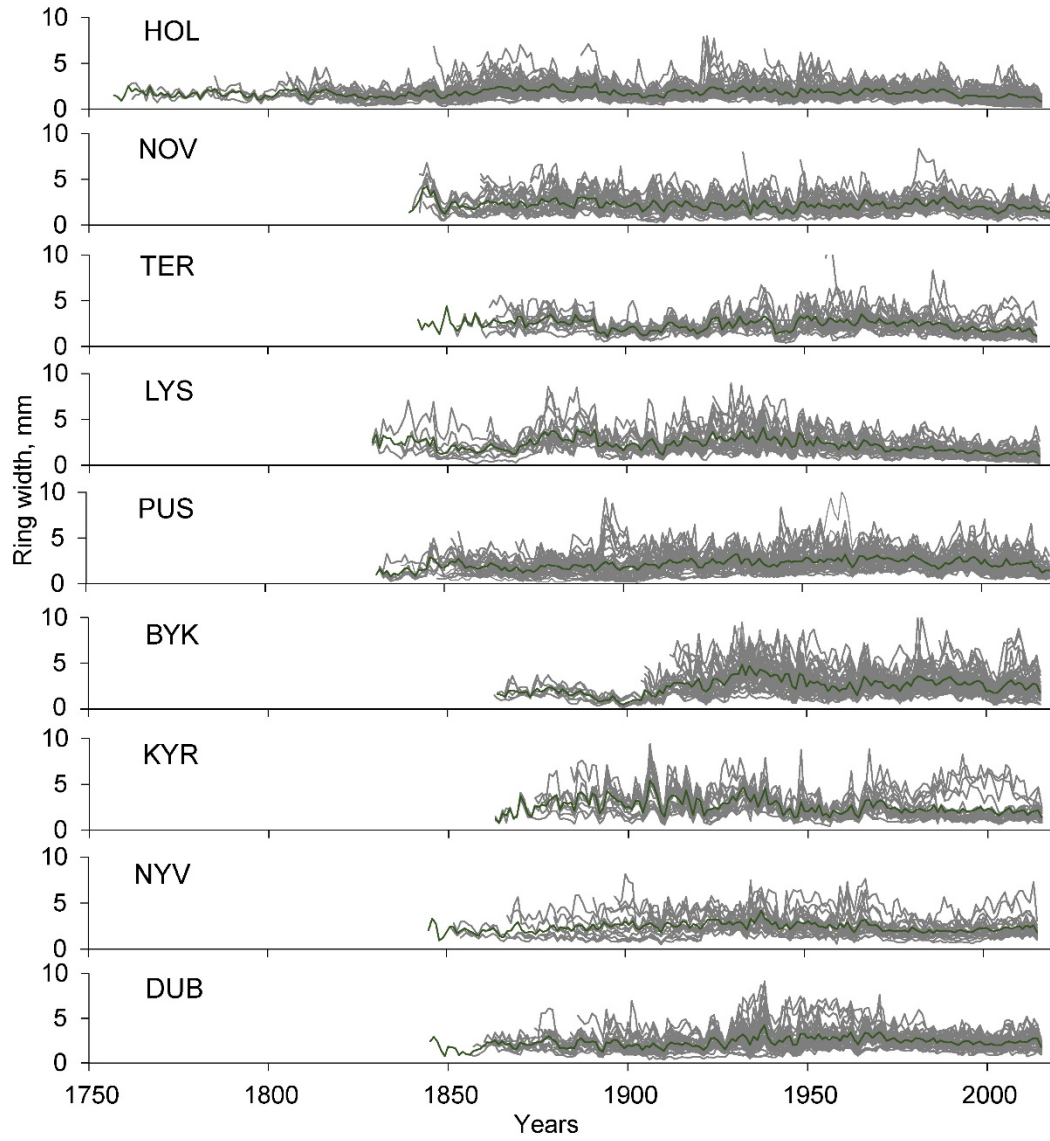


Fig. S1. Raw chronologies for each study site (see Table 1 for site ID code meaning)

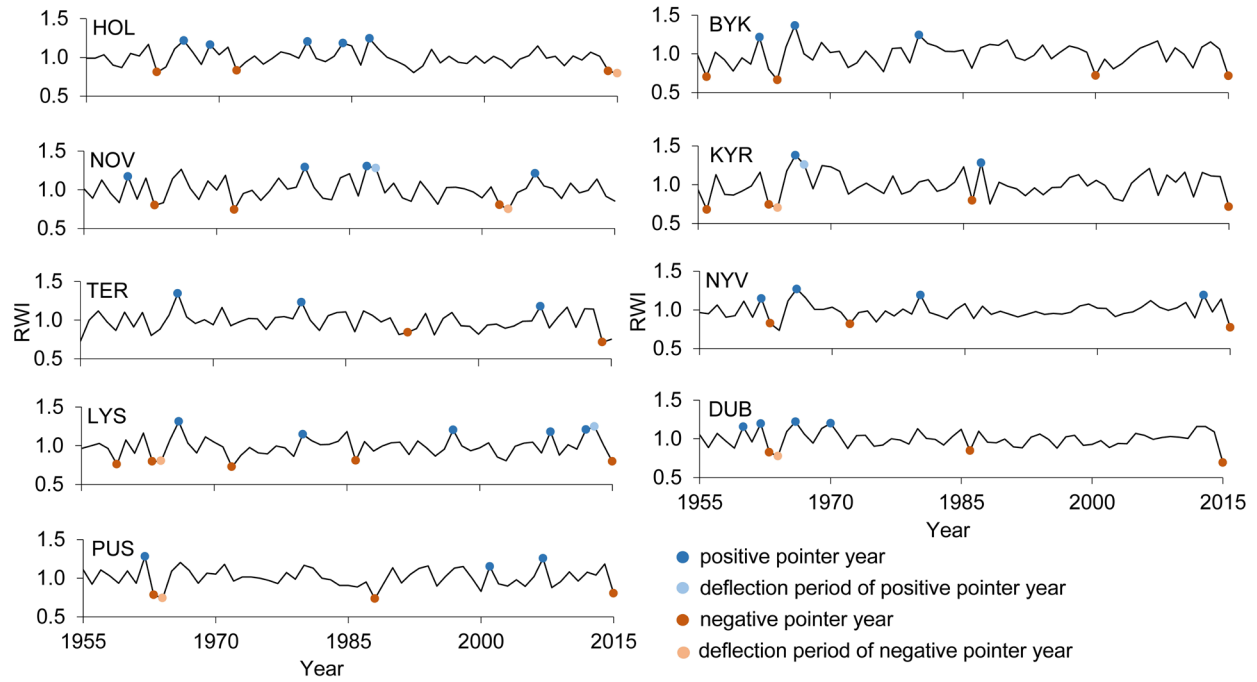


Fig. S2. The negative and positive pointer years with the following deflection period detected by the BSGC method

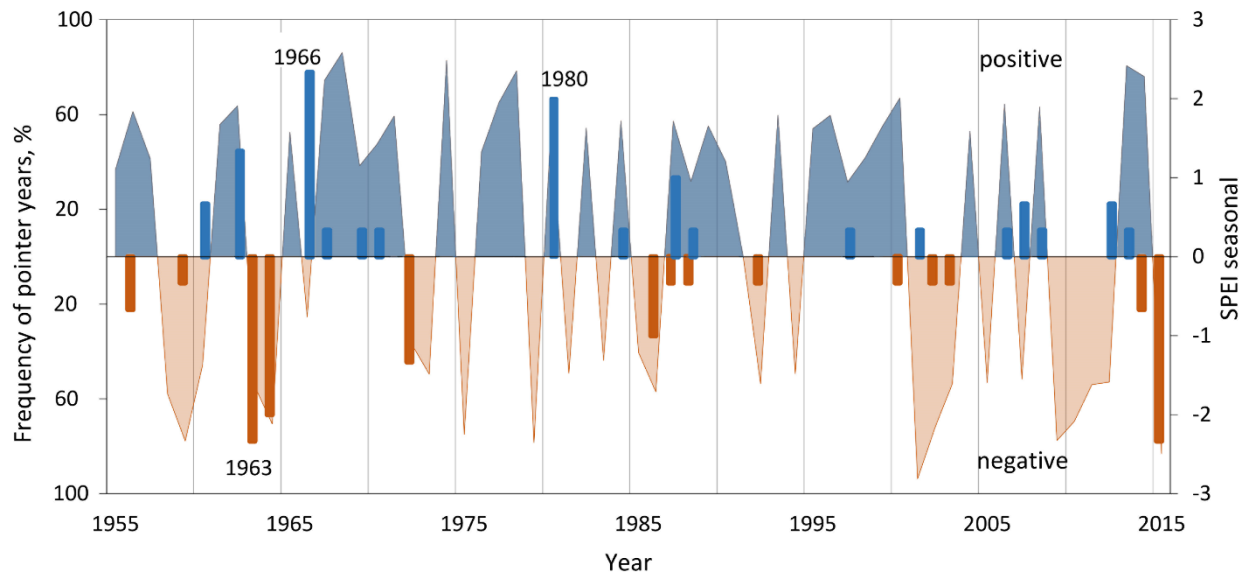


Fig. S3. The negative and positive pointer years frequency throughout studied forests (bars) and values of minimum and maximum seasonal SPEI indices, i.e. from April to September (shaded area)

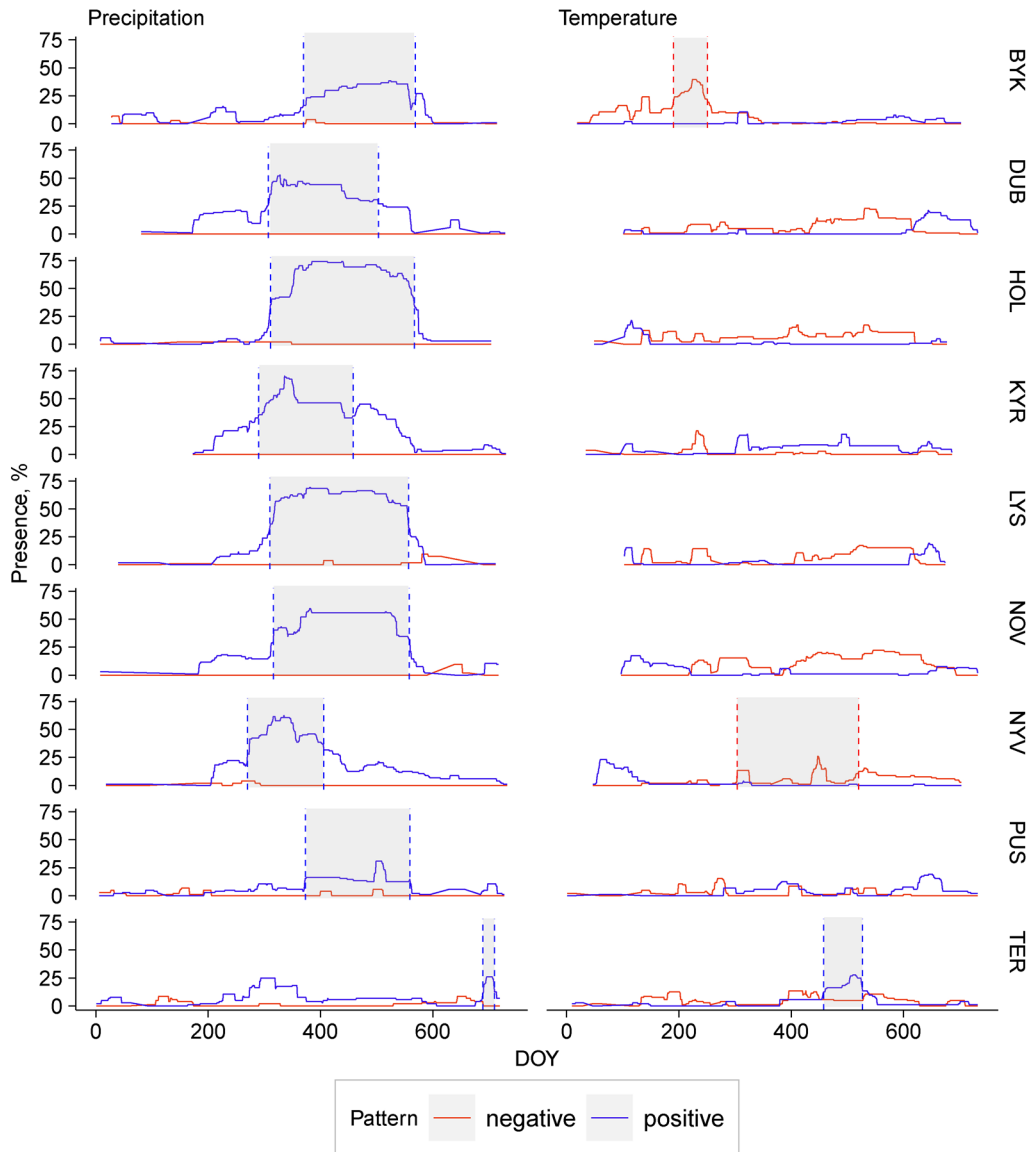


Fig. S4. The presence (%) of each day of a dendrochronological year (DOY) in the most influential patterns of the climate-to-growth relationships occurred in the 104 matrices of 31-yr consecutive time-windows from 1882 to 2015 (see Fig. 3). Shaded areas highlight the full duration at half maximum (FDHM) obtained from the presence distribution's peak exceeded the threshold of 25 %

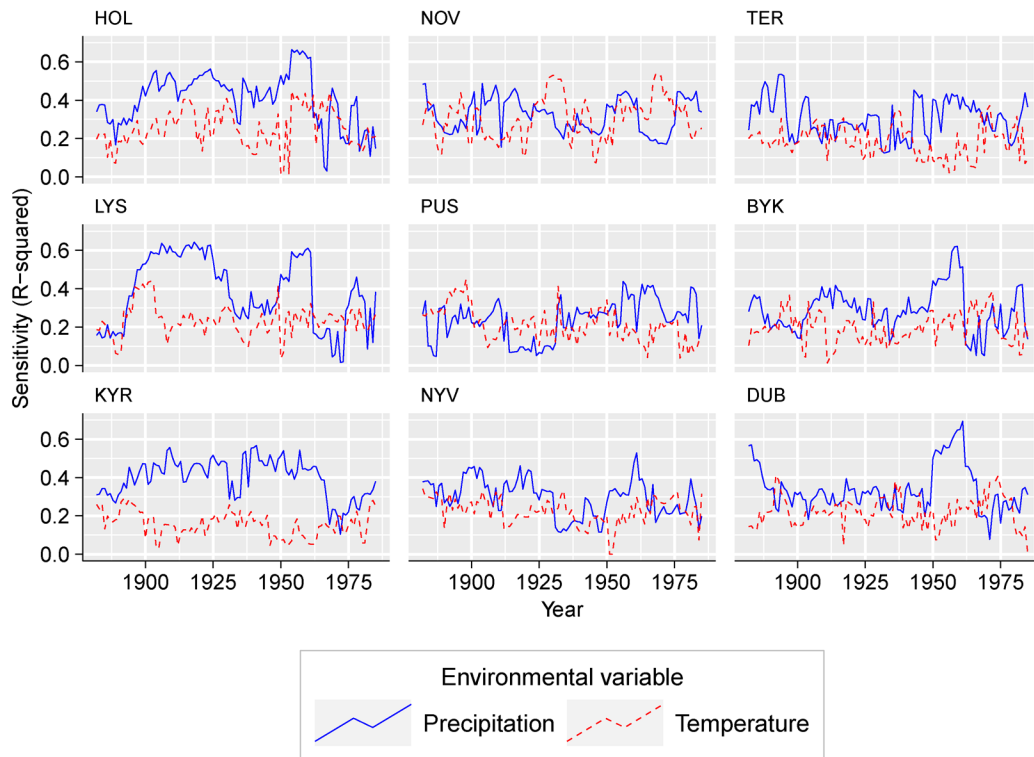


Fig. S5. Line graph presenting changes of trees' climatic sensitivity extracted as R-squared from a simple linear model with RWI as a response variable and temperature or precipitation as the predictors. Climatic variables were aggregated into optimal sequences for each time window