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# 1 PATTERN OF XYLEM PHENOLOGY IN CONIFERS OF COLD ECOSYSTEMS AT 2 THE NORTHERN HEMISPHERE

- 3 **Running head**: xylem phenology across cold forest ecosystems
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- 38 **Type of paper**: primary research article

#### ABSTRACT

The interaction between xylem phenology and climate assesses forest growth and productivity 41 42 and carbon storage across biomes under changing environmental conditions. We tested the hypothesis that patterns of wood formation are maintained unaltered despite the temperature 43 changes across cold ecosystems. Wood microcores were collected weekly or biweekly 44 throughout the growing season for periods varying between 1-13 years during 1998-2014 and 45 cut in transverse sections for assessing the onset and ending of the phases of xylem 46 differentiation. The dataset represented 1321 trees belonging to 10 conifer species from 39 47 sites in the Northern hemisphere and covering an interval of mean annual temperature 48 exceeding 14 K. The phenological events and mean annual temperature of the sites were 49 50 related linearly, with spring and autumnal events being separated by constant intervals across the range of temperature analysed. At increasing temperature, first enlarging, wall-thickening 51 and mature tracheids appeared earlier, and last enlarging and wall-thickening tracheids 52 occurred later. Overall, the period of wood formation lengthened linearly with the mean 53 annual temperature, from 83.7 days at -2 °C to 178.1 days at 12 °C, at a rate of 6.5 days °C<sup>-1</sup>. 54 April-May temperatures produced the best models predicting the dates of wood formation. 55 Our findings demonstrated the uniformity of the process of wood formation and the 56 importance of the environmental conditions occurring at the time of growth resumption. 57 Under warming scenarios, the period of wood formation might lengthen synchronously in the 58 cold biomes of the Northern hemisphere. 59

#### **INTRODUCTION**

62 Perennial plants synchronize their physiological processes with local climate according to a trade-off between maximization of resource acquisition and damage avoidance due to harsh 63 environmental conditions (Chuine, 2010, Nord & Lynch, 2009). In temperate and cold 64 ecosystems of the Northern hemisphere, the cyclical reactivation and termination of the 65 physiological activity of meristems has a distinct annual pattern that is described by the 66 phenology of buds, flowers and cambium (Delpierre et al., 2015). Their activity is mainly 67 68 concentrated in a well-defined period of time between spring and autumn, when temperatures are favourable for growth and reproduction, while it stops or slows down during winter. 69

Phenology is a dynamic and sensitive biological process that has been demonstrated to vary at 70 both short and long time scales according to the current weather (Gruber et al., 2010, Swidrak 71 et al., 2011) and increasing temperatures (Chmielewski & Rötzer, 2001, Menzel et al., 2006). 72 The phenological events change according to the clinal variation of environmental factors, 73 74 with the growing season shortening at higher latitudes and altitudes (Jyske et al., 2014, Moser 75 et al., 2010). Despite the species-specific variations and ecotypic adaptations to local conditions, latitudinal and altitudinal patterns in phenology may also be found across biomes. 76 77 However, at hemispheric scale, the mere geographical location becomes meaningless because the effects of water bodies and changes in elevation on mesoclimatic conditions can modify 78 79 the predictable relationships between geographical coordinates and timing of growth. Accordingly, Rossi et al. (2011) showed that the milder thermal conditions close to big lakes 80 or the lower temperatures experienced by trees of high altitudes affected xylem phenology 81 82 irrespective of the latitude of the sites. Temperature is one of the main driving forces for plant growth in terrestrial ecosystems, and interacts with photoperiod in defining the timings of 83 growth resumption (Körner & Basler, 2010). Temperature-based models should therefore be 84

able to provide more intrinsic growth predictions than the models based on latitude or altitude,
which merely describe a geographical variation invariable over time.

Wood in trees consists of the xylem cells produced by the cambium in order to build the 87 hydraulic transport system, store substances and ensure mechanical support. Cambial cells 88 divide repeatedly and generate cell derivatives that differentiate physiologically and 89 morphologically until final maturity (Rossi et al., 2012). The process of wood formation, or 90 xylogenesis, lasts from a few weeks to several months, according to species and individual 91 92 growth rate, and, more specifically, to climate (Rathgeber et al., 2011, Schmitt et al., 2004, Treml et al., 2015, Vieira et al., 2015). This wide variation in wood formation demonstrates 93 the high plasticity of trees in adapting their growth processes to local environmental 94 conditions. 95

Trees capture atmospheric carbon dioxide and convert it to structural carbohydrates while 96 building new cells. Wood formation is one of the strongest carbon sinks in trees, making 97 xylogenesis a major process of long-term carbon sequestration and accumulation in terrestrial 98 systems. During the growing season, the outermost wood is composed of a pool of 99 differentiating and mature cells that are interconnected by a sequence of fixed events 100 (Delpierre et al., 2015, Rossi et al., 2012). At mid and high latitudes and altitudes, the annual 101 amount of wood production is determined by the growth rate and length of the period 102 favourable for cell division and maturation (Cuny et al., 2012, Rathgeber et al., 2011, Rossi et 103 al., 2014). Although rate and duration of wood formation change with tree species, 104 identifying the timings and climatic conditions driving wood formation is an essential step in 105 106 understanding the dynamics of tree growth and forest productivity at a hemispheric scale.

An extensive dataset from 1321 trees belonging to 10 species was compiled containing intra-107 annual data on wood formation and temperature collected by the authors in 39 plots with 108 similar methods during 1998-2014. The dataset was collected from temperate to northern 109 boreal sites on three continents, ranging from Southern Italy to Northern Finland and Canada, 110 from low altitudes in France and Slovenia to high ones on the Alps, Bohemian Massif in the 111 Czech Republic and Tibetan Plateau in China (Fig. S1). The sites represented temperate to 112 boreal forests, and treeline ecotones, including the highest treeline of the North hemisphere on 113 the Tibetan Plateau. The aim of the study was to compare wood formation over broad 114 geographical scale by testing the hypothesis that the timings of xylem phenology in conifers 115 change according to the variation of the temperature of the sites across temperate and boreal 116 forest ecosystems. 117

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

# 120 Site selection and sampling

The air temperature and xylem phenology data were collected in 39 sites located at different altitudes and latitudes of nine countries in North-America, Europe and Asia (Table 1). The sites consisted of permanent plots representing temperate-cold to boreal conifer stands. In each site, from one to 24 adult trees with upright and injury-free stems were selected for sampling. Trees with polycormic stems, partially dead crowns, reaction wood or evident damage were avoided. In each site, 1-3 coniferous species were monitored, for a total of ten species for the whole study.

The trees were monitored during 1998-2014, the number of years ranging from one to 13 per 128 129 site, throughout the growing season from March-April to October-December, according to the climatic conditions of the sites (Table 1). Wood microcores were collected weekly, or 130 occasionally biweekly, at breast height  $(1.3\pm0.3 \text{ m})$  on the stem using surgical bone sampling 131 needles or a Trephor (Rossi et al., 2006a). The samples contained mature and developing 132 xylem of the current year, the cambial zone and adjacent phloem, and at least one previous 133 134 complete tree ring. The microcores were stored in solutions of propionic or acetic acid mixed with formaldehyde or ethanol at 5 °C. 135

The microcores were dehydrated with successive immersions in ethanol and D-limonene, and embedded in paraffin or glycol methacrylate, with the exception of samples from Switzerland, which were not embedded. The microcores were cut with rotary or sledge microtomes in transverse sections of 10-30  $\mu$ m thick (Gruber *et al.*, 2010, Moser *et al.*, 2010, Rossi *et al.*, 2006a). The sections were simple-stained with cresyl violet acetate or double-stained with

safranin and astrablue, and examined under bright-field and polarized light (Moser *et al.*,

- 142 2010, Rossi *et al.*, 2006b).
- 143 Table 1: Sites, species and years included in the analysis. The name of each site is associated
- 144 with the country reported in the form of the alpha-2 code according to the International
- 145 Organization for Standardization (ISO 3166). Species are reported with the following
- 146 acronyms: ABAL, Abies alba; ABBA, Abies balsamea; ABGE, Abies georgei; LADE, Larix
- 147 *decidua*; PCAB, *Picea abies*; PCMA, *Picea mariana*; PICE, *Pinus cembra*; PILE, *Pinus*
- 148 *leucodermis*; PISY, *Pinus sylvestris*; PIUN, *Pinus uncinata*.

				Altitude			Number
ID	Site	Latitude	Longitude	(m a.s.l.)	Study years	Species	of trees
SYG	CN-Sygera Mountain	29°39'N	94°42'E	3850	2007-2009	ABGE	5
POL	IT-Pollino	39°54'N	16°12'E	2053	2003-2004	PILE	10
SUS	IT-Val di Susa	45°3'N	6°40'E	2030	2003-2004	LADE, PICE, PIUN	15
PAN	SI-Panska reka	46°0'N	14°40'E	400	2009-2012	PCAB	6
MEN	SI-Menina Planina	46°16'N	14°48'E	1200	2009-2012	PCAB	6-8
N22	CH-Lötschental-N22	46°22'N	7°46'E	2150	2007-2008	LADE	4
N08	CH-Lötschental-N08	46°23'N	7°45'E	800	2008	LADE, PCAB	8
N16	CH-Lötschental-N16	46°23'N	7°45'E	1300	2007-2008	LADE, PCAB	8
N13	CH-Lötschental-N13	46°23'N	7°45'E	1350	2007-2008	LADE, PCAB	8
N19	CH-Lötschental-N19	46°23'N	7°46'E	1900	2007-2008	LADE, PCAB	8
S16	CH-Lötschental-S16	46°24'N	7°45'E	1300	2007-2008	LADE, PCAB	8
S19	CH-Lötschental-S19	46°24'N	7°45'E	1900	2007-2008	LADE, PCAB	8
S22	CH-Lötschental-S22	46°24'N	7°44'E	2150	2007-2008	LADE	4
SVT	IT-San Vito di Cadore	46°26'N	12°13'E	1000	2003	PCAB	1
5T1	IT-Cinque Torri 1	46°27'N	12°8'E	2085	2001-2005	LADE, PCAB, PICE	15
5T3	IT-Cinque Torri 3	46°27'N	12°8'E	2085	2004-2005	LADE, PCAB, PICE	15
5T2	IT-Cinque Torri 2	46°28'N	12°8'E	2156	2002-2005	LADE, PCAB, PICE	11

				Altitude			Number
ID	Site	Latitude	Longitude	(m a.s.l.)	Study years	Species	of trees
TIM	AT-Patscherkofel-timberline	47°12'N	11°27'E	1950	2007	PICE	6
TRE	AT-Patscherkofel-treeline	47°12'N	11°27'E	2110	2007	PICE	6
KRU	AT-Patscherkofel-krummholz	47°12'N	11°27'E	2180	2007	PICE	5
DRY	AT-Tschirgant dry-mesic	47°14'N	10°50'E	750	2007-2012	LADE, PCAB, PISY	5-24
SIM	CA-Simoncouche	48°13'N	71°15'W	338	2002-2014	ABBA, PCMA	5-20
ABR	FR-Abreschviller	48°21'N	7°4'E	430	2007-2009	ABAL, PCAB, PISY	13-14
WAL	FR-Walscheid	48°22'N	7°5'E	370	2007-2009	ABAL, PCAB, PISY	14-15
ARV	CA-Arvida	48°26'N	71°9'W	80	1999-2000	ABBA	18
GRD	FR-Grandfontaine	48°29'N	7°9'E	643	2007-2009	ABAL, PCAB, PISY	15
AMN	FR-Amance	48°44'N	6°19'E	270	2006-2007	ABAL	15-20
BER	CA-Bernatchez	48°51'N	70°20'W	611	2002-2014	PCMA	5-10
MIS	CA-Mistassibi	49°43'N	71°56'W	342	2002-2014	РСМА	5-10
L23	CA-Liberal 23	49°58'N	72°30'W	380	1998-2000	ABBA	10
L24	CA-Liberal 24	49°58'N	72°30'W	430	1998-2001	ABBA	5-10
DAN	CA-Camp Daniel	50°41'N	72°11'W	487	2002-2014	РСМА	5-10
LH1	CZ-Lucní Hora-timberline	50°42'N	15°39'E	1310	2010-2012	PCAB	6-10
LH2	CZ-Lucní Hora-treeline	50°43'N	15°40'E	1450	2010-2012	PCAB	6-9
MIR	CA-Mirage	53°47'N	72°52'W	384	2012-2013	РСМА	10
RUO	FI-Ruotsinkylä	60°12'N	25°0'E	60	2008-2010	PCAB, PISY	8-10
HYY	FI-Hyytiälä	61°53'N	24°18'E	181	2008	PCAB, PISY	6
KIV	FI-Kivalo	66°12'N	26°23'E	140	2009	PCAB	5
VAR	FI-Värriö	67°30'N	29°23'E	390	2009	PISY	4

#### 150 Phenological data

151 A common protocol of tracheid classification was followed at all sites in order to obtain comparable data. In each sample, the number of tracheids in the radial enlargement, 152 secondary cell-wall thickening, and mature phases were counted along one to three radial 153 154 tracheid rows. Enlarging tracheids were composed of a thin primary wall but had a radial diameter at least twice that of a cambial cell (Rossi et al., 2006b). Discrimination between 155 enlarging and wall thickening tracheids was based on birefringence of the secondary cell wall 156 157 under polarized light (Abe et al., 1997). No birefringence was observed in enlarging tracheids, which lack a secondary wall. Colour changes from violet to blue (simple cresyl violet acetate 158 staining) or from blue to red (double safranin astra-blue staining) indicated the termination of 159 160 lignification. Absence of cytoplasm and a complete colour change over the whole cell wall marked the end of lignification and tracheid maturity (Gričar et al., 2005). 161

The mean number of tracheids in each developmental phase at each sampling date was used to 162 assess the onset and ending of the xylem differentiation phases. In spring, when at least one 163 tangential row of tracheids was observed in the enlarging, wall thickening or mature phase, 164 the phase was considered to have begun. In late summer, when no tracheids were observed in 165 a differentiation phase, wood formation was considered complete. Xylem phenology was 166 represented by the dates corresponding to (1) the first enlarging tracheid, (2) first wall-167 thickening tracheid, (3) first mature tracheid, (4) last enlarging tracheid, and (5) last wall-168 thickening tracheid. The timings of xylem phenology, computed as day of the year (DOY), 169 and the total number of tracheids in a radial row produced annually were calculated for each 170 171 tree, site and year. Tracheid production was assessed by fitting the Gompertz sigmoid curve to the total number of new tracheids produced during the year and estimating the upper 172 asymptote of the function (Deslauriers et al., 2008). Fifty-seven out of 1321 trees (4.3% of all 173

tree-year combinations) were excluded from the analyses because the function produced noasymptote or the tracheid production was anomalous.

#### **176 Temperature data**

Temperature data were collected from sensors fixed at 2-3 m from the soil in shielded weather 177 stations installed in a forest gap beside or close to the sampled trees. Temperature was 178 recorded hourly or sub-hourly by dataloggers, and daily mean, minimum and maximum 179 values were calculated. In Finland, the data from the closest weather station maintained by the 180 Finnish Meteorological Institute were used for each site. The datasets covered the entire year. 181 However, in the case of occasional missing values, temperatures were estimated by using time 182 series available from one or more weather stations located in the proximity of the sites and 183 with similar climatic conditions. 184

## 185 Statistical analyses

A cluster analysis using the average linkage method was used for assessing the distance
between the study sites based on the monthly mean temperatures. The distance between two
clusters was the arithmetic mean distance between groups, which were represented by the
sites.

A random-effects analysis of variance was performed to isolate the proportion of variation accounted by the factors site, species, tree and year in the studied variables (phenological events and tracheid production). The analysis included the Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) method of the NESTED procedure in SAS (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC), which allowed to process data with nested (hierarchical) structure originating from an unbalanced design.

The dates of xylem phenology were modelled by Generalized Linear Models (GLM) using the 196 DOY of each event (onset and cessation) as dependent variable, and the mean annual 197 temperature at each site and the five phases of xylem phenology as quantitative and 198 classification variable, respectively. The statistical significance of the differences between the 199 slopes of regressions was tested by orthogonal contrasts. Before and after the fitting, the 200 201 distributions of the input data and residuals were checked for normality. GLM was performed using the SAS software. The model was also tested with the weekly mean temperatures as 202 203 independent variables and using a bootstrap procedure with 10,000 replications. Only temperatures occurring before or during the growing period were analysed. 204

#### RESULTS

#### **Temperature across sites** 207

During the study years, the mean annual temperature across the studied sites ranged by more 208 209 than 14 K, from -2.3 °C in MIR (Canada) to 12.0 °C in PAN (Slovenia). All sites had a cold winter, with the mean daily temperatures below zero for periods varying between 20 days in 210 France (WAL and AMN) and 180 days in Finland (KIV) and Canada (BER). In three sites, 211 VAR (Finland), DAN (Canada), and MIS (Canada), the mean temperature remained below 0 212 °C for more than 190 days. The coldest episodes were observed in Canada (DAN and MIR), 213 with absolute minimum temperatures below -47 °C. The warmest winters occurred in PAN 214 (Slovenia), WAL (France) and N08 (Switzerland), where absolute minimum temperatures 215 reached -7.6 °C. The absolute maximum temperatures ranged between 19.7 °C in Austria 216 (KRU) and 37.1 °C in Slovenia (MEN and PAN).

The sites were grouped in three main clusters based on the monthly mean temperatures 218 extracted from the time series available (Fig. 1). The first cluster included 10 sites from 219 Canada and northern Finland. At these sites, the monthly mean temperatures ranged between -220 221 20 and 20 °C, representing continental conditions, with short warm summers and long cold winters. The second cluster was represented by nine sites, with monthly mean temperatures 222 223 varying between -5 and 20 °C. These were the warmest sites of the dataset, and were located 224 in Central Europe and at the lower Alpine altitudes. The European southern boreal sites and treeline and timberline sites were included in the third cluster, representing 20 sites with a 225 narrower range of monthly mean temperature than those observed in the first cluster. The sites 226 227 of the third cluster were characterized by low winter temperatures and cool summers (Fig. 1).

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Figure 1: Dendrogram generated by a cluster analysis based on the monthly temperatures of the 39 study sites. The left panel shows the frequency distributions of the temperatures of the three main clusters.

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## 233 Variance partition

The contribution of site, species, tree and year to the total variance in the five phases of xylem phenology and annual total production of tracheids differed according to two main patterns (Fig. 2). First, the species accounted for a high proportion of variation (40.0-48.2%) in the variables related to spring events, i.e. the dates of the first enlarging, wall-thickening and mature tracheids. The site explained between 25.0 and 32.9% of the variance in the spring events, with the lowest percentage (25.0%) being estimated for the first enlarging tracheid. In the spring events, the percentage of the variance accounted for by the factors tree and yearwas clearly lower, and ranged between 10.9 and 15.7% (Fig. 2).

In the phenological events occurring in autumn, as well as the total number of tracheids, a
lower proportion of the variation was accounted for by species (6.1-27.9%), with a
substantially higher variance related to the differences among individual trees (27.1-37.5%).
The differences between years in the radial number of tracheids explained only 1.5% of the
variance, indicating a small inter-annual variation in tracheid production (Fig. 2).



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Figure 2: Variance partition of the studied variables (phenological events and cell
production) estimated with the Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) method.

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## 251 Model definition and application

Two divergent patterns were observed between the phenological events and mean annual

temperature of the sites (Fig. 3). With increasing temperature, first enlarging, wall-thickening

and mature tracheids appeared earlier, and last enlarging and wall-thickening tracheids

255 occurred later. GLM was able to adequately fit the dataset and produced a highly significant

F-value (Table 2). The R<sup>2</sup> indicated that 92% of the variance was taken into account by the 256 model. A detailed examination of each phenological event demonstrated that all trends were 257 linear within the thermal range analysed, thus the use of GLM was appropriate. The slopes of 258 regressions were statistically different from zero, as well as the interaction term phenology  $\times$ 259 temperature, indicating that the slopes of regressions changed according to the phenological 260 phases (Table 2). Tests for contrasts revealed that the regressions could be separated in two 261 homogeneous groups. The first one involved the regressions representing spring events: the 262 dates of first enlarging, wall-thickening and mature cells. Between these three regressions, 263 there was no difference in slope (p>0.05). The second group involved the regressions fitting 264 autumnal events, the ending of cell enlargement and lignification, with slopes that were not 265 statistically different (p>0.05). Overall, spring and autumnal events had statistically different 266 slopes (p<0.0001). 267

Table 2: Results of the Generalized Linear Models (GLM) relating xylem phenology with the
 mean annual temperature of the sites, with the phenological events and phases being used as
 covariates, respectively.

	Regressors			Model		
Source of variation	Type I SS	F-value	Р	F-value	Р	$\mathbb{R}^2$
Phenological event (PE)	2223393.5	3059.7	< 0.0001			
Mean temperature (MT)	23467.5	129.1	< 0.0001	1441.0	< 0.0001	0.92
Interaction PE×MT	109320.9	150.4	< 0.0001			



Figure 3: Variation in xylem phenology according to the mean annual temperature of the
sites. Regression lines represent the predicted values estimated by Generalized Linear Models
(GLM). Each differentiation phase is characterized by 204 observations representing the
different site × year × species combinations.

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The residuals of the model were well distributed around zero, and no clear pattern or tendency was observed (Fig. S2). Heteroscedasticity was low, with a variance of residuals constant across the thermal range. The standard deviation of residuals increased gradually during the growing season, with the higher variability observed for autumnal events (Fig. S2). The studentized residuals exceeding the 95% confidence interval (the range between -2 and 2) were less than 5% for spring events, but increased to 5.8 and 11.7% for the ending of cell enlargement and lignification, respectively.

The period of wood formation lengthened linearly with the mean annual temperature of the site (Fig. 4). Cell enlargement lasted 48 days at -2 °C, and 134 days at 12 °C, increasing by 6.1 days °C<sup>-1</sup>. Secondary wall formation lasted from 70.0 to 158.5 days, on average 23.5 days more than cell enlargement. Overall, the period of xylem differentiation (including cell enlargement and secondary wall formation) ranged from 83.7 to 178.1 days, and increased by
6.5 days °C<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4). Along the thermal gradient, the slopes of the three regressions
representing cell enlargement, secondary wall formation and xylem differentiation were not
statistically different (p>0.05).



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Figure 4: Duration of wood formation according to the mean annual temperature of the sites.
Regression lines and grey areas represent the predicted values and their 95% confidence
interval estimated by Generalized Linear Models (GLM), respectively. Xylem differentiation
includes the two phases of cell enlargement and secondary wall formation.

297

#### 298 Xylem phenology and weekly temperature

The GLM performed with weekly temperatures produced results similar to the model using annual temperature. However, the variance accounted for changed according to the period of the year considered (Fig. S3). On average,  $R^2$  ranged between 88 and 92%. The higher values were concentrated in spring, between the end of March and end of May. After this period,  $R^2$ showed an abrupt reduction that lasted until September. The 95% confidence intervals

- 304 calculated by the bootstrap replications demonstrated that spring and summer temperatures
- produced models with statistically different  $R^2$  (Fig. S3). These findings persisted basically
- 306 unchanged when using averages at daily to monthly scales, although only results with weekly
- 307 averages are described and reported in this paper.

#### DISCUSSION

# 310 Xylem phenology and temperature

There is a long-standing assumption that temperature is one of the main driving forces for 311 plant growth in terrestrial ecosystems, but hemispheric comparisons of the dynamics of xylem 312 formation are still scarce. This study quantitatively demonstrated the thermal constraints to 313 xylem phenology by describing the effects of an interval in the mean annual temperature 314 exceeding 14 K on the growth period of trees. Unlike the geographical coordinates, the mean 315 annual temperature of the sites represents one, common, and biologically-meaningful 316 variable, allowing this study to describe the variability in xylem phenology of conifer species 317 318 over three continents and across a wide range of ecosystems. These findings are in general agreement with previous climate-driven models based on temperature, rather than latitude or 319 altitude, which were able to simulate biological phenomena such as treeline position at global 320 scale (Paulsen & Körner, 2014). 321

Within the range of temperature analyzed, all phases of beginning and ending of wood 322 formation were linearly related to the mean annual temperature. This confirmed the main 323 324 trends observed along altitudinal (Moser et al., 2010) and latitudinal (Rossi et al., 2014) gradients, although with some differences. In the Swiss Alps, there was a departure from the 325 326 linear trend for the phases related to the ending of tracheid formation at 1350 m a.s.l., i.e. the 327 lower altitudinal distribution of European larch (Larix decidua Mill.) (Moser et al., 2010), which may be associated with a reduced availability of water combined with warm conditions 328 in June-July. When plotted with the temperatures of the growing season, Rossi et al. (2014) 329 330 also found that the relationship between the ending of tracheid enlargement in black spruce [Picea mariana (Mill.) BSP] and the growing season temperature was non-linear because of 331 the disproportionate tracheid production of black spruce in the southernmost part of its 332

distribution. Despite the microclimatic effects or local growth dynamics, and regardless of the species considered, this study assessed the linear relationship between temperature and the phenology of xylem growth at wide geographic scale. Thus, it is possible that non-linear trends occur due to multiple environmental effects (i.e. interaction with drought), or under extreme thermal conditions not included in this study. Moreover, the potential changes in sensitivity of trees to the temperature, and long-term adaptation of ecotypes to local climates should be taken into account when interpreting the results of prediction models.

#### **340** Time window of xylem phenology

341 Under the coldest conditions, the duration of cell enlargement was estimated at 46±5 (mean±95% CI) days. The period length is comparable with the minimum duration of 342 cambium activity of six weeks reported for Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris L.) at the Northern 343 treeline (Schmitt et al., 2004). The minimum length of the growing season, defined in 344 literature as the period allowed for the physiological activity of trees, was indicated by 345 346 measurements and modelling at 90-94 days (Körner & Paulsen, 2004, Paulsen & Körner, 2014). In our study, xylem required at least 83±5 (mean±95% CI) days to complete the 347 maturation of all tracheids produced by cambium. Conifers reactivate some physiological 348 processes such as photosynthesis before cell division in the cambium (Goodine *et al.*, 2008), 349 and at high latitudes the gap between onset of photosynthesis and wood formation can exceed 350 two months (Bäck et al., 2013, Jyske et al., 2014). The shorter period of wood formation 351 compared with photosynthesis may support the hypothesis that tree survival in these cold-352 limited environments is controlled by sink limitation, i.e. limited demand of carbohydrates for 353 354 growth rather than carbon assimilation in regions with low mean annual temperatures (Guillemot et al., 2015, Körner, 1998, Leuzinger et al., 2013). However, trees also have large 355 reserves of carbohydrates, which could substantially affect the link between photosynthetic 356

production and tracheid formation. Moreover, before the onset of tracheid formation, both the
stored and newly assimilated carbon may also be directed to other growing sinks, e.g., shoots,
needles and secondary phloem (Gričar *et al.*, 2014, Jyske *et al.*, 2015, Richardson *et al.*, 2015,
Schiestl-Aalto *et al.*, 2015).

361 The sites with the warmest annual temperature were located at the lower elevations in Slovenia, France, Switzerland and Austria. These sites are close to the lower distribution limit 362 of larch, Norway spruce [Picea abies (L.) Karst.] and silver fir (Abies alba Mill.), where cell 363 364 division lasted up to 134 days and the whole period of wood formation reached 178 days. In the case of reduced summer precipitation, trees in these regions experience water stress during 365 the growing season. The dataset included a dry-mesic site in Austria (called DRY in Table 1), 366 where soil water availability can be a limiting factor for growth during summer (Swidrak et 367 al., 2011). Although growth resumption in this site is still strictly related to spring 368 temperatures (Swidrak et al., 2011), the effects of water constraint appeared clearly at the 369 ending of tracheid differentiation, which occurred earlier than in other sites with similar mean 370 annual temperatures. It is thus likely that the observed linear pattern might not be maintained 371 for warmer annual temperatures because other environmental factors may play a role in 372 affecting the dynamics of xylem phenology and should be taken into account if applying the 373 model under warming scenarios (Delpierre et al., 2015, Gruber et al., 2010). 374

# 375 The process of wood formation

In longitudinal data, the sequence of phenological events are represented by the changes in traits or attributes in the same individuals over time (Fitzmaurice *et al.*, 2009). Commonly, the sequence of events is serially correlated (Gourieroux & Jasiak, 2007), as also previously demonstrated for the phases of bud (Rossi & Bousquet, 2014) and cambium (Rossi *et al.*, 2012) phenology. A certain phenological phase can only take place after the previous one has
occurred. Consequently, delays or advancements of phenological events lead to delay or
advancements in the successive events. The correlation between phenological events reveals
the interconnection of the differentiation phases and the uniqueness and consistency of the
process of wood formation.

The constant interval between the phases of wood formation, which are characterized by the 385 parallel regression lines, is maintained across ecosystems and species, and under the entire 386 387 range of the thermal conditions analysed (Fig. 3). These findings could suggest two possible hypotheses. First, the rate of tracheid differentiation, here represented by the phases of 388 enlargement and wall thickening of the first and last formed tracheids, is insensitive to 389 temperature. But this hypothesis is counterintuitive and conflicting with previous studies, 390 particularly those related to the process of wall formation (Cuny et al., 2015). Second, the 391 gradual advancement of phenological events with annual temperature most likely reflects the 392 dynamics of spring warming and autumnal cooling across ecosystems. As previously 393 demonstrated (Rossi et al., 2008, Swidrak et al., 2011), beginning and ending of growth arise 394 under similar thermal conditions, which however occur in different moments at latitudes and 395 altitudes on a global scale. 396

# 397 Model interpretation and application

The underlying physiological mechanisms that drive the activity of cambium and tracheid differentiation are not considered by the regression analysis presented in this paper. Thus, the resulting statistical model remains a simple, albeit hemispheric, description of the changes in xylem phenology with annual temperature of the site, but lacks deterministic tree functioning (Delpierre *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, the annual temperature was chosen as predictor for the

model, although thermal thresholds or heat sums of shorter time windows, or interaction with 403 other factors such as photoperiod may be considered to depict some specific phenological 404 phases rather better (Körner & Basler, 2010, Rossi et al., 2008, Schiestl-Aalto et al., 2015, 405 Swidrak et al., 2011). Nevertheless, from a practical point of view, the model represents a tool 406 for demonstrating the annual time window of wood formation in temperate and cold 407 408 ecosystems around the Northern hemisphere. The model is based on mean annual temperature that is largely accessible or easily computed by spatial interpolation from nearby weather 409 stations, even in remote areas where daily data are generally unavailable. 410

There is no solid explanation for using the annual mean temperature to describe a biological 411 phenomenon, such as wood formation, that is discontinuous during the year. However, annual 412 413 mean temperature sufficiently summarized the local climate in cold to temperate regions, and the thermal conditions occurring during wood formation. When reducing the time window of 414 temperatures to shorter periods, April and May resulted in the highest variance accounted for 415 by the model in describing xylem phenology. The models using spring temperatures produced 416  $R^2$  similar to those with annual temperatures. April and May, the two months with the highest 417 relationship with xylem phenology, match the timing of growth resumption, which is 418 associated with the spring increase in temperature (Deslauriers *et al.*, 2008). The pattern of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 419 also suggests that spring warming may have the greatest impacts on xylogenesis at global 420 scale. A lower R<sup>2</sup> with the temperatures occurring in summer and autumn was observed, as 421 well as a marked increase of the contribution of the factor tree to the total variance of the 422 latest phases of xylem phenology and tracheid production. The increasing dispersion of the 423 residuals during late summer and autumn confirmed this pattern (Fig. S2). Although 424 knowledge on the phenological phases of late summer is still insufficient to depict a common 425 rule (Delpierre et al., 2015), there is general agreement that the ending of xylogenesis should 426

427 also be related to other environmental (Swidrak *et al.*, 2011) and endogenous (Rossi *et al.*,
428 2012, Treml *et al.*, 2015) factors.

In temperate and cold regions of the world, trees synchronize the activity of meristems with 429 local climate, concentrating the timings of wood formation within a time window between 430 spring and autumn, when temperature is habitually favorable for growth. This study analyzed 431 an extensive dataset containing intra-annual data on wood formation from sites at mid and 432 high altitudes and latitudes covering an interval of mean annual temperature exceeding 14 K. 433 434 The timings of wood formation increased linearly according to the local temperature at a rate of 6.5 days °C<sup>-1</sup>. In warmer sites, spring events (first enlarging, wall-thickening and mature 435 tracheids) appeared earlier, while autumnal events (last enlarging and wall-thickening 436 437 tracheids) occurred later. Under the range of thermal conditions analysed, the phases of onset and ending of tracheid differentiation were separated by constant intervals, demonstrating the 438 uniformity of the wood formation process in conifer species across ecosystems. The spring 439 temperatures were associated with models showing the higher variance accounted for. This 440 demonstrated the importance of the environmental conditions occurring at the time of growth 441 resumption in defining the dynamics of wood formation in temperate and cold regions of the 442 Northern hemisphere. According to the pattern observed in this study and in absence of water 443 stress during the growing season, under warming scenarios xylem phenology might lengthen 444 445 synchronously in cold biomes regardless of species and sites.

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# SUPPORTING INFORMATION CAPTIONS

**Fig. S1:** Location of the study sites.

555	Fig. S2: Studentized residuals of the Generalized Linear Models (GLM) relating the dates of
556	xylem phenology with the mean annual temperature of the sites. Residuals are plotted for each
557	level of the covariate in the model. STD indicates the standard deviation of residuals. The
558	range between -2 and 2 represents the 95% confidence interval of the Studentized residuals.
559	Each differentiation phase is characterized by 204 observations representing the different site
560	$\times$ year $\times$ species combinations.

Fig. S3: R<sup>2</sup> of the Generalized Linear Models (GLM) relating the dates of xylem phenology
with the weekly temperature of the sites. The grey area represents the 95% confidence interval
estimated by 10,000 bootstrapped replications.