

1 **No systematic effects of sampling direction on climate-growth**
2 **relationships in a large-scale, multi-species tree-ring data set**

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55 **Highlights**

- 56 • Direction-specific climate signals were investigated using cores from 22 sites.
- 57 • International (10 countries), multi-species (8 species) tree-ring network.
- 58 • Signal strength, climate correlations and Principal Component Gradient Analysis.
- 59 • No systematic directional bias introduced in high-pass filtered ring-width series.
- 60 • Directional effects negligible for sites within forests in flat terrain.

61 **Abstract**

62 Ring-width series are important for diverse fields of research such as the study of past
63 climate, forest ecology, forest genetics, and the determination of origin (dendro-
64 provenancing) or dating of archeological objects. Recent research suggests diverging
65 climate-growth relationships in tree-rings due to the cardinal direction of extracting the

66 tree cores (i.e. direction-specific effect). This presents an understudied source of bias
67 that potentially affects many data sets in tree-ring research.

68 In this study, we investigated possible direction-specific growth variability based on an
69 international (10 countries), multi-species (8 species) tree-ring width network
70 encompassing 22 sites. To estimate the effect of direction-specific growth variability on
71 climate-growth relationships, we applied a combination of three methods: An analysis of
72 signal strength differences, a Principal Component Gradient Analysis and a test on the
73 direction-specific differences in correlations between indexed ring-widths series and
74 climate variables.

75 We found no evidence for systematic direction-specific effects on tree radial growth
76 variability in high-pass filtered ring-width series. In addition, direction-specific growth
77 showed only marginal effects on climate-growth correlations. These findings therefore
78 indicate that there is no consistent bias caused by coring direction in data sets used for
79 diverse dendrochronological applications on relatively mesic sites within forests in flat
80 terrain, as were studied here. However, in extremely dry, warm or cold environments, or
81 on steep slopes, and for different life-forms such as shrubs, further research is
82 advisable.

83 **Keywords**

84 Tree-rings; Directional Growth; Climate Signal; Dendro-provenancing; Principal
85 Component Gradient Analysis; Correlation Analysis

86 **1 Introduction**

87 Tree-ring records provide valuable data for various scientific disciplines. For example,
88 tree-rings are used in paleoclimatology, as a proxy for reconstructing past climate
89 (Hughes et al., 2011); in ecology, for investigating stand dynamics (Amoroso et al.,
90 2017; Schweingruber, 1996); and in history and archaeology, for dating of artifacts and
91 wooden construction elements as well as for analyzing past usage of timber resources
92 (Bleicher and Harb, 2015; Eissing and Dittmar, 2011).

93 Tree growth is dependent on environmental, climatic and biotic factors (Cook and
94 Kairiukstis, 1990). Through careful sampling design and selection of appropriate
95 statistical methods, certain growth signals in ring-width series may be selectively
96 enhanced (Fritts, 1976; Sullivan and Csank, 2016). In dendro-climatology, for example,
97 the climatically-related environmental signal is of primary importance. Thus, sampling is
98 commonly conducted on trees growing at the species distributional margins where the
99 desired climatic factor is assumed to limit tree-growth, for example, growing-season
100 temperature in cold environments or precipitation in dry environments (Fritts, 1976;
101 Klesse et al., 2018). In addition, statistical detrending is used to remove the age-size-
102 related trend (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990; Melvin and Briffa, 2008; Peters et al., 2015).
103 To amplify growth signals shared by a tree population and averaging out individual-
104 specific noise, mean site tree-ring width chronologies are calculated (Cook and
105 Kairiukstis, 1990). Often, this approach leads to absolutely higher correlations between
106 climate variables and master chronologies in comparison to climate correlations at the
107 individual tree level (Carrer, 2011; Galván et al., 2014).

108 A recent study by Fang et al. (2015) suggested the potential for inadvertent sampling
109 bias due to commonly-used sampling procedures such as coring individual trees from
110 random or 'ad hoc' radial directions. Their results provided evidence for diverging
111 climate-growth relationships between ring-width series from the same tree cored from
112 different cardinal directions for *Pinus tabuliformis* Carrière and *Picea purpurea* Mast.
113 Thus, mean site chronologies might enhance an already biased climate signal if they
114 were based on a low replication and/or samples that were taken with a systematic
115 preference for an azimuth coring direction. For example, most standard sampling
116 protocols recommend extracting tree cores at positions where the trunk is perpendicular
117 to the slope and parallel to the contour line (Speer, 2010; Yang et al., 2018). Such
118 sampling protocols seek to avoid reaction wood. At the same time, certain cardinal
119 directions of the stem are favored systematically. Consequently, if direction-specific
120 climate-growth relationships exist, conventional sampling protocols seeking to avoid
121 reaction wood may unintentionally produce biased chronologies. Therefore, potentially
122 all dendro-ecological and dendro-climatological data sets that were obtained following
123 such standard sampling protocols might be affected.

124 Increment cores taken from historical and archeological contexts may be particularly
125 sensitive to potential direction-specific bias. This is because, for historical and
126 archaeological wood, the original orientation of the corresponding tree can generally not
127 be determined. Moreover, multiple cores from different – preferably orthogonal –
128 directions are rarely extractable due to the limited accessibility of construction timber in
129 buildings and the artefact-status of wooden archeological objects. Consequently, if
130 direction-specific effects on growth variability and climate-growth relationships exist,

131 biased chronologies could result. Hence, investigations of direction-specific effects are
132 needed to quantify the bias possibly affecting historic and archaeological data sets that
133 form the backbone of millennia-long chronologies used for climate reconstructions and
134 dendro-provenancing (Bridge, 2012; PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013).

135 The within- and between-tree sources of noise have been studied from the onset of
136 dendrochronological research (Fritts, 1976). However, systematic investigations of intra-
137 individual growth variability in trees are rare, partly because of the considerable effort
138 needed for collecting sufficient samples to assess tree-growth along the whole stem
139 (Babst et al., 2018; Duncker and Spiecker, 2008). In contrast, growing evidence of
140 direction-specific radial growth was recently documented for several shrub species
141 (Buras and Wilmking, 2014; Shetti et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018). Moreover, Gričar et
142 al. (2006) showed that heating and cooling of stem sections can affect cambial activity
143 and cell differentiation in *Picea abies* (L.) H. Karst, which may result in direction-specific
144 growth variability if temperature differences between different stem-parts would prevail
145 over several years (but see Buras and Wilmking, 2014 for an elaborated discussion).
146 Changing climatic responses have been documented in stem disk mean chronologies
147 taken at different heights (Chhin et al., 2010). Besides the investigation of Fang et al.
148 (2015), to our knowledge, there exists no other study that reported direction-specific
149 climate-growth relationships in trees among samples taken at the commonly-sampled
150 height of 1.3 m (diameter at breast height).

151 Potential direction-specific climate-growth relationships could prove problematic,
152 especially if the year-to-year variability was affected. In addition to being the focus of
153 climatological research, high-frequency growth signals – representing the year-to-year

154 variability – are critical for dendro-provenancing analyses (Gut, 2018). Diverging
155 direction-specific climate-growth relationships, as observed by Fang et al. (2015), thus
156 may result in direction-specific biases that could affect I) the chronologies used for
157 millennia-long climatic reconstructions (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013), II) the local
158 reference chronologies used for dendro-provenancing and III) the site chronologies
159 established for dendro-ecological studies.

160 Given the possibly wide-ranging impact on tree-ring research, we here examine the
161 potential for differences in growth variability and climate signals due to the azimuth
162 orientation of tree increment coring. We use tree increment cores from an international
163 tree-ring network that was designed to answer the following research questions:

- 164 1. Is there evidence for direction-specific high-frequency growth variability in our data
165 set?
- 166 2. Are systematic direction-specific differences in climate-growth relationships present
167 in our data set?

168 **2 Material and methods**

169 **2.1 Tree-ring and climate data**

170 To assess possible direction-specific climate signals across different sites and species,
171 the last author of this study (A. Buras) released an international call for contributing tree-
172 ring data in autumn 2017 via the Association of Tree-Ring research (ATR). The sampling
173 followed a uniform design to reduce investigator bias and ensure that cores were

174 sampled systematically regarding the cardinal direction of the stem. The specifications of
175 the sampling design were: i) 15 trees per site, ii) sampled for two cores from the
176 southern and eastern direction of the stem, iii) collected within a forest, not closer than
177 100 m to the nearest forest edge of iv) homogeneous, ideally mono-specific forests on v)
178 preferably flat terrain to avoid any potential confounding effects from reaction wood in
179 trees growing on slopes. In addition, for each sampled tree, tree height and diameter at
180 breast height (DBH) were recorded.

181 All sites met the criteria ii, iii, and v, but at seven sites (THPA, GBPS, REPS, RAPS,
182 AVPN, DPPS, UKPA) less than 15 (minimum twelve) trees were sampled for east- and
183 south-facing increment cores due to the occurrence of wounds or other irregularities and
184 at five sites (OMPS, GBPS, NIPS, CRPG, TLPM) few individuals (in total less than 10%
185 of standing trees) of other tree species were observed. However, since these sites did
186 not reveal differing results in our analyses, we assume possible associated effects to be
187 negligible. All European sites represent managed forests, but the two sites from Canada
188 were located in naturally-grown forests. No data on tree height exists for the sites HCQC
189 and HEQP. For RAPS, DBH was not measured.

190 Sample preparation, cross-dating and measurement of total ring-widths, as well as
191 quality control of ring-width chronologies, were done following standard
192 dendrochronological procedures (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990; Grissino-Mayer, 2001;
193 Speer, 2010). Following this protocol, the final data set encompassed 22 sites covering
194 8 tree species (Table 1, Fig. 1, Fig. 2).

195 For the series of monthly temperature averages, the 0.5°-gridded CRU TS3.10 data set
196 was used (Harris et al., 2014). For monthly precipitation sums, the 0.5°-gridded GPCC
197 data set was used (Schneider et al., 2016). Tree-ring, climate and tree meta data were
198 analyzed with the statistical software R version 3.5.1 (R Core Team, 2018).

199 **2.2 Preprocessing and signal strength statistics**

200 Given our research question, high-frequency growth variability was the focus of this
201 study. Hence, autoregressive models were fit to the individual ring-width series as
202 derived from the increment cores. The optimal model was chosen as the model that
203 minimized Akaike's Information Criterion (i.e. the default settings of the autoregressive
204 detrending method implemented in the 'dplR' package, Bunn et al., 2018; Bunn, 2008).
205 The resulting series of autoregressive residuals were divided by the mean of the
206 residuals to obtain white noise residual ring-width indices (RWI) with a mean of 1. As a
207 measure of direction-specific signal strength, we computed the mean inter-series
208 Gleichläufigkeit (\overline{glk} , Buras and Wilmking, 2015; Eckstein and Bauch, 1969) as well as
209 the mean inter-series correlation (\overline{r} , Wigley et al., 1984) pooled by southern and eastern
210 cores. To avoid possible series-length effects, all computations were conducted over the
211 common overlap period of the respective site chronologies. Both statistics were
212 calculated over all possible pairwise comparisons of a respective cardinal direction
213 subset. To bolster robustness, the Spearman's rank sum correlation coefficient was
214 used for all correlation analyses in this study (Best and Roberts, 1975; Hollander et al.,
215 2015).

216 Besides direction-specific between-series synchronicity, we considered two additional
217 methodological approaches to assess possible direction-specific growth signals: i)
218 direction-specific aggregation of growth signals, and ii) direction-specific climate-growth
219 relationships, which are described in sections 2.3 and 2.4, respectively.

220 **2.3 Principal Component Gradient Analysis**

221 The *Principal Component Gradient Analysis* (PCGA) was proposed by Buras et al.
222 (2016) as a means of detecting subpopulation growth-signals in tree-ring time-series
223 populations. The method is based on the *Principal Component Analysis* (PCA, Mardia et
224 al., 1979; Venables and Ripley, 2002) but focuses on interpreting the polar-
225 transformation of the loadings of the first two principal components (PC1 and PC2) to
226 identify subpopulations of time-series on respective PCGA-plots (Buras et al., 2016).

227 A PCGA-plot relies on the loadings (arrows) of the typical PCA biplot (e.g. Gower and
228 Hand, 1996). Each of these arrows is representable by the polar transformation
229 (i.e. angle and distance to the origin) of the PC1 and PC2 loadings calculated for the
230 respective time-series (Buras et al., 2016). Based on the polar angles, the underlying
231 time-series are ranked, i.e. sorted with respect to one of the two marginal arrows (Buras
232 et al., 2016). Consequently, one of the two extreme arrows is assigned the rank one,
233 whereas the other is ranked last. The remaining time-series are distributed in between in
234 dependence of their differences in polar angles to the series with the rank one. Distinct,
235 visual groupings of vectors indicate subpopulation signals, provided that PC1 and PC2
236 explain a reasonable ratio of the variance of the total time-series population.

237 In the context of this study, PCGA was used to assess the possible occurrence of two
238 direction-specific subpopulations of RWI series (i.e., eastern and southern cores) at
239 each site. To quantitatively identify significant direction-specific growth differences, the
240 angles of the polar coordinates were tested at each site for significant location shifts
241 (from the non-parametric mean rank) via a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (Bauer, 1972;
242 Hollander et al., 2015). A paired test was feasible, because for each individual tree, an
243 eastern and southern core were sampled, i.e. the observations were paired. To account
244 for the multiplicity of tests, the p -values were adjusted by controlling the false discovery
245 rate (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

246 **2.4 Climate correlation analysis**

247 Diverging direction-specific climate-growth relationships were studied based on a
248 correlation analysis. This analysis comprised three steps: Firstly, mean site chronologies
249 were computed from the individual, autoregressive residual series to obtain one master
250 chronology per site representative of the corresponding annual average RWI value.
251 Based on these master chronologies, monthly climate correlations (Spearman, see
252 above) were evaluated over a period comprising previous year April to current year
253 October. By investigating climate-correlations to the master chronologies, we ensured
254 that our data set comprised chronologies that are sensitive to climate. If in this step only
255 insignificant climate-correlations were detected, the investigation of direction-specific
256 effects would be rendered obsolete. We considered mean monthly temperature (temp),
257 monthly precipitation sum (prec), and the Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration
258 Index (SPEI, Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010) as meaningful climate parameters. The SPEI
259 was integrated over three different time-windows: 1, 3 and 6 months (SPEI1, SPE3,

260 SPEI6). This accounts for short- and long-term effects of water availability on tree-
261 growth (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2012). For each site, we identified the climate variable(s)
262 with significant correlations to the site chronologies.

263 Secondly, individual RWI of tree-cores were correlated to the climate variables. The
264 resulting correlation coefficients for respective eastern and southern cores were squared
265 (r^2). The r^2 of a univariate linear regression specifies the variance explained by the
266 regressor (Stock and Watson, 2011). Thus, in our context, r^2 allows for roughly
267 estimating the effect of a given RWI series on a potential reconstruction of the respective
268 climate variable. Hereon, the direction-specific differences in r^2 were investigated via a
269 Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, which tested the pooled individual differences for eastern
270 and southern cores. Consequently, the test allowed for identifying significant mean
271 differences between eastern and southern cores' r^2 ($\Delta r^2 = r_{East}^2 - r_{South}^2$).

272 Thirdly, the Δr^2 was calculated for each site and visualized with a heatmap. That is, a
273 positive Δr^2 indicates a higher explained variance of eastern cores, whereas a negative
274 Δr^2 indicates a higher explained variance of southern cores. This difference in Δr^2
275 allows for roughly estimating the effect of the potential direction-specific bias introduced
276 in a potential climate reconstruction. There was a total of 2090 Wilcoxon Signed-Rank
277 tests on Δr^2 . Hence, the p -values were adjusted by controlling the false discovery rate
278 (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

279 **3 Results**

280 **3.1 Differences in signal strength**

281 Generally, direction-specific differences in signal strength were very small and
282 distributed unsystematically (Fig. 3). The mean difference in \bar{r} between eastern and
283 southern core chronologies (eastern minus southern) was 0.01 (range -0.07 to 0.13).
284 The number of sites that exhibited a lower \bar{r} for eastern cores was equal to the number
285 of sites with a lower \bar{r} for southern cores (ratio 0.5). For \overline{glk} , the mean difference was
286 0.004 (range -0.03 to 0.06). In addition, the number of sites that showed a lower \overline{glk} for
287 eastern cores than for southern cores almost equaled the number of sites, which
288 showed the opposite (ratio 0.45).

289 **3.2 Direction-specific differences according to PCGA**

290 The ratio of variance explained by PC1 and PC2 was on average 0.56 (range 0.35 to
291 0.77). The ratio was ≤ 0.5 for only 6 sites (i.e., ABPA, DPPS, GAPA, JAPS, REPS and
292 ROQR), with only one site (DPPS) below 0.4 (Fig. 4).

293 The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests detected no significant ($p \leq 0.05$) shifts in the polar
294 angles of the PCGA ranks. Moreover, the PCGA-plots showed no distinct visual
295 groupings of the PCGA ranks (Fig. 4).

296 **3.3 Direction-specific differences in climate-growth correlations**

297 At least one climate variable with a significant ($p \leq 0.05$) correlation to the master
298 chronology was detected per site (Fig. A1). Generally, chronologies were positively

299 correlated with current summer precipitation and current summer SPEI1 to SPEI6, and
300 negatively with summer temperature (Fig. A1).

301 Direction-specific differences (Δr^2) in climate-growth relationships were insignificant
302 according to the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests (Fig. 5). The mean Δr^2 per site were rather
303 small (25% quantile: -0.01; 75% quantile: 0.01; range: -0.06 to 0.09) and showed no
304 systematic distribution (Fig. 5).

305 **4 Discussion**

306 **4.1 Multi-national data set shows no evidence of direction-specific** 307 **tree-ring bias**

308 Using a large, multi-species data set with samples derived from sites predominantly
309 representing Europe, we found no evidence for bias due to the cardinal direction of
310 coring. We found virtually no differences between the signal strength statistics for
311 eastern and southern core-chronologies, respectively. Furthermore, the PCGA provided
312 no evidence for direction-specific growth variability. None of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank
313 tests detected any significant shifts in the polar coordinates. Moreover, the PCGA plots
314 showed no clear visual separation, compared to plots in Buras et al. (2018); Rehschuh
315 et al. (2017). Finally, the absolute differences in climate correlations were marginal
316 (cf. Results), and the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests detected no significant, direction-
317 specific differences in Δr^2 . These results corroborate the reliability of many existing tree-
318 ring data sets used in several important fields of research. These results further indicate
319 that conventional sampling protocols (two cores at diameter at breast height) do not

320 introduce any notable direction specific bias in ring-width chronologies. Although many
321 of our sites were mesic and on flat terrain by design (to reduce confounding factors), the
322 large number of sites (22) tested across many countries likely captured a relatively wide
323 range of conditions. Nevertheless, sampling in more extreme environments may show
324 different results.

325 **4.2 Direction-specific growth in previous research**

326 The sites studied by Fang et al. (2015) were dominated by *Pinus tabuliformis* and *Picea*
327 *purpurea* and mostly located on summits and near cliffs within the semi-arid Chinese
328 Loess Plateau. At such sites, trees are presumably more exposed to environmental
329 factors (e.g. drought stress) than trees at the forest interior (Fritts, 1976; Schweingruber,
330 1996). Thus, trees might have been more affected by unequal direction-specific
331 exposure to wind and solar radiation than the forest-interior trees studied here.
332 Moreover, if the lack of shade from neighboring trees and the prevailing wind direction
333 are reasonably stable in time, they should result in diverging medium- (3-10 years) to
334 low-frequency (>10 years) growth signals (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990). However, these
335 medium- to low-frequency signals are removed by high-pass filtering as used in our
336 study. The high-frequency growth signal is linked to yearly weather conditions (Cook and
337 Kairiukstis, 1990; Fritts, 1976). For direction-specific year-to-year growth variability to
338 consistently occur, climatic factors would need to divergently drive yearly radial tree-
339 growth depending on the cardinal direction over the course of several decades. Thus,
340 while factors like different shading and wind exposition possibly cause direction-specific
341 growth to occur in the mid- to low-frequency, the high-frequency signal seems to be
342 largely unaffected by direction-specific growth variability. Still, in extreme environments,

343 direction-specific effects on the high-frequency growth signal are possible (Buras and
344 Wilmking, 2014; Fang et al., 2015).

345 For certain shrub species growing in cold tundra ecosystems or forming alpine tree lines,
346 direction-specific growth signals have been reported (Buras and Wilmking, 2014; Shetti
347 et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018). However, the latter signals were not related to cardinal
348 directions (i.e. geographic exposition). These deviating signals were most likely caused
349 by micro-environmental conditions (Buras and Wilmking, 2014), which may also have
350 been a cause for direction-specific growth in the summit and near-cliff stands studied by
351 Fang et al. (2015).

352 Consequently, direction-specific growth could occur in extreme environments. Previous
353 studies often focused on diverging growth along the stem rather than on direction-
354 specific growth. For example, Chhin et al. (2010) found changing climatic responses in
355 stem disk mean chronologies taken at different heights and Gričar et al. (2006) showed
356 that heating and cooling of stem sections can affect cambial activity and cell
357 differentiation in *Picea abies*. Thus, research focusing on extremely dry or cold
358 environments could contribute to a more complete assessment of direction-specific
359 growth. In addition, direction-specific climate signals may be investigated in frequencies
360 other than the high-frequency time domain.

361 **4.3 Constraints and limitations of our study**

362 The objective of our study was to evaluate the size of direction-specific climate signals in
363 high-pass filtered RWI series. Instead of stacking several statistical methods, we chose
364 an approach that focuses on the direct assessment of differences in climate correlations

365 and signal strength. We argue that these differences suffice for estimating the relevance
366 of potential direction-specific growth for climate reconstructions. Moreover, this approach
367 is less prone to the problem of interpreting data derivatives that result when chaining
368 several multivariate analyses in a sequence, i.e. using the output of an analysis as direct
369 input to the next analysis. Such chaining risks a stepwise disconnection from the original
370 signal differences present in the raw or detrended data, which in turn can lead to a loss
371 of interpretability of the results. Nonetheless, there are several limitations to our study.

372 **4.3.1 Analysis related limitations**

373 For certain sites (i.e., ABPA, DPPS, GAPA, JAPS, REPS and ROQR) the PC1 and PC2
374 explained less than 50% of the variance. Therefore, additional PCs may have also held
375 meaningful information. However, each of these additional PCs explained an even lower
376 percentage of variance. Moreover, the implementation of polar coordinates in three
377 dimensions is not easily solved. Thus, we restricted our analyses to PC1 and PC2,
378 which explained a relatively high portion of variance for most of the sites.

379 The PCGA plots showed no clear visual separation. The two-colored PCGA plot is
380 suboptimal for visualizing the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, which tests for significant
381 shifts in angles between the pairs of PCGA vectors from the same tree. If the vector
382 pairs have a systematic order, i.e. the eastern is always above or below the southern in
383 the fan of vectors, respectively, the paired test detects significant shifts. It is impossible
384 to visualize these shifts with only two colors, one for each group of eastern and southern
385 cores. Plots with colored vectors specific to the individual tree would overcome this
386 limitation. In addition, a specific line type could be used to indicate if a vector represents

387 a southern or eastern core. However, such plots quickly become fairly complex and may
388 confuse observers (Fig. A4). Thus, and because no significant shifts in polar coordinates
389 were detected, such plots are not shown here.

390 We used gridded climate data (0.5°) as data from nearby meteorological stations was
391 available just for a minority of sites. The gridded data sets only approximately represent
392 the actual climatic conditions at the sites. Thus, the respective climate-growth
393 relationships could have been underestimated for sites that lie in areas with high micro-
394 climatic variability.

395 **4.3.2 Material/sampling related limitations**

396 While there was not always equal representation of species across sites, there is
397 evidence that this does not bias our results. Some species were represented by several
398 sites with differing ecological conditions (e.g. *Pinus sylvestris* L.), whereas for other
399 species we have studied only one site (e.g. *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco). Yet,
400 the well-represented species (e.g. *Pinus sylvestris* L.) showed no clear evidence for
401 systematic direction-specific growth variability. In addition, the geographic and ecological
402 gradients covered by our study were vast, albeit biased towards Europe. Bearing the two
403 Canadian sites in mind, we speculate that a wider spatial coverage (i.e., the sampling of
404 more sites) across the Northern Hemisphere would probably not reveal any direction-
405 specific biases for relatively mesic sites within flat terrain forests.

406 We only investigated two cores per tree. Nevertheless, the two major factors that
407 potentially drive direction-specific climate signals in our study area, i.e. solar radiation

408 from the south and wind from the west (for European sites in flat terrain mainly), should
409 have been detectable by coring the southern and eastern sides of the stem only.

410 As stated above, we acknowledge that direction-specific growth variability and climate
411 signals might occur in extreme environments. Here, we concentrated on flat terrain
412 forest sites. On slopes, direction-specific growth is influenced by reaction wood, which is
413 a factor that is potentially difficult to quantify. The formation of reaction wood is thought
414 to primarily influence the mid- to low-frequency growth signal (Duncker and Spiecker,
415 2008). Still, the high-frequency might be affected by reaction wood formation, especially
416 if the physical strain on a stem changes abruptly. In such cases, the climatic effects and
417 the effects related to reaction wood formation are difficult to distinguish and quantify
418 separately (Speer, 2010). Thus, we focused on sites in flat terrain to test the hypothesis
419 of direction-specific climate signals in the high-frequency growth signal of ring-width
420 series.

421 Finally, the majority of sites represent managed, largely mono-specific forests. It remains
422 to be tested using other data sets, whether our findings are representative for naturally-
423 grown, multi-species forests. However, the two naturally-grown sites in Canada with few
424 individuals of co-dominant tree species revealed similar results as managed European
425 forests. Thus, these results suggest that direction-specific climate signals probably are
426 also negligible for naturally-grown sites similar to the two Canadian sites.

427 **5 Conclusions**

428 This study found no evidence for systematic direction-specific radial growth in high-pass
429 filtered ring-width series. The climate correlations investigated were largely unaffected
430 by direction-specific effects. Hence, the potential for direction-specific bias in ring-width
431 data sets used by the diverse fields of tree-ring research (e.g. the establishment of
432 reference chronologies for dendro-provenancing and millennia-long chronologies for
433 climate reconstructions) seems negligible. At least this appears to be the case for sites
434 that feature similar site conditions to those studied here, i.e. that lie at the forest interior
435 on comparably moderate sites under relatively mesic conditions. Nevertheless, the
436 cardinal direction of core extraction should be documented to control for micro-
437 environmental factors such as the formation of reaction wood due to exposure to a
438 prevailing wind-direction and/or slope inclination.

439 Direction-specific growth could prove to be more pronounced at extreme (cold or dry)
440 sites, where trees and shrubs are more exposed to severe weather conditions. Thus, the
441 possible consequences of direction-specific growth on dendrochronological studies in
442 extreme environments would make an excellent avenue for future research to evaluate
443 methodologies and data sets at species margins.

444 **Data availability**

445 The tree-ring and meta data sets are available upon request.

446 **Author contribution statement**

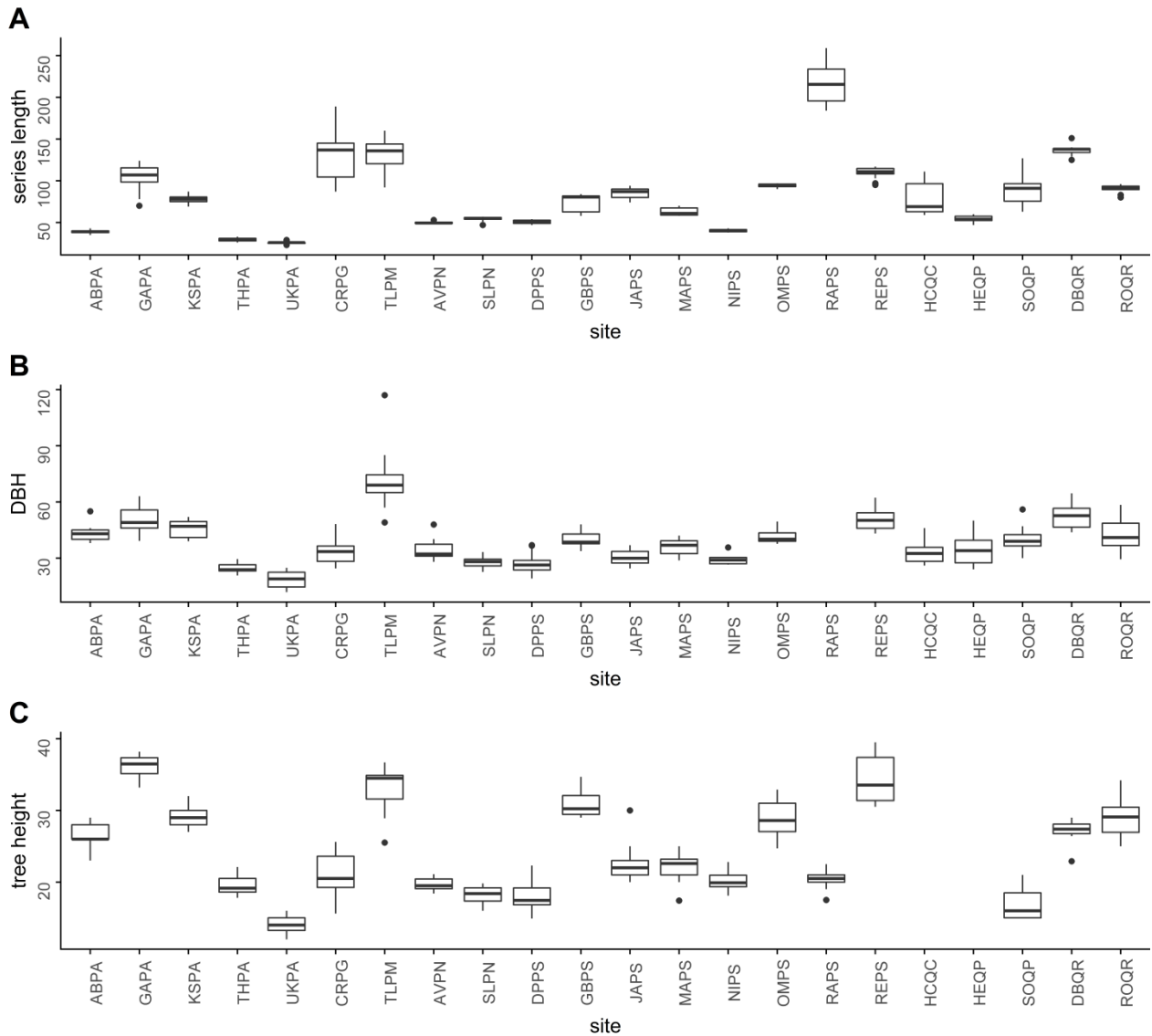
447 The scientific concept and research question of this study was developed in
448 collaboration by A. Buras and U. Gut. The latter also conducted the bulk of the analyses
449 presented here. A. Buras initiated the tree-ring data network. Both together have worked
450 on the submitted manuscript. All other members of the network are listed alphabetically
451 as co-authors, with the exception of Ute Sass-Klaassen, who hosted the first network
452 workshop at Wageningen University and Research. These co-authors contributed to the
453 article by providing tree-ring data sets and valuable feedback at various stages of data
454 analyses as well as commenting on the final manuscript version before submission. We
455 are very grateful for the financial support provided by the Association of Tree-ring
456 Research (ATR), which allowed the implementation of a network-internal statistical
457 workshop.

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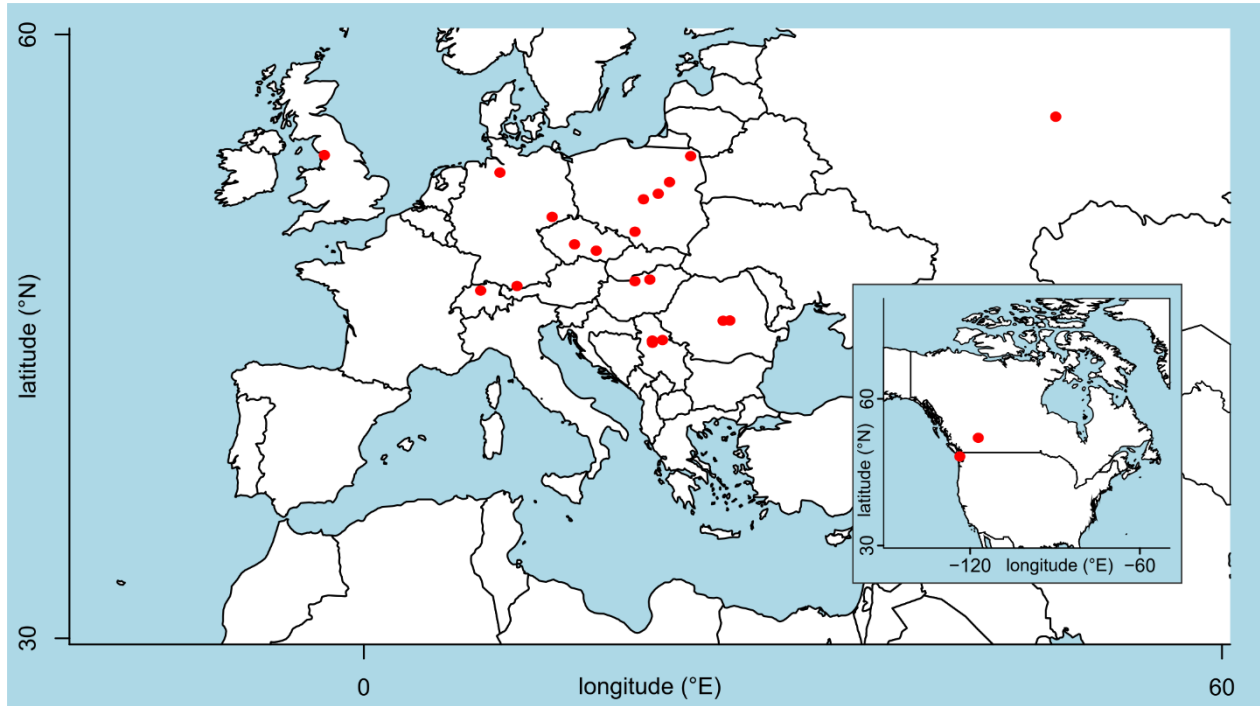
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473 Spanish Ministry of Economy, Industry and Competitiveness, Spain) and LESENS
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475 **Figures**



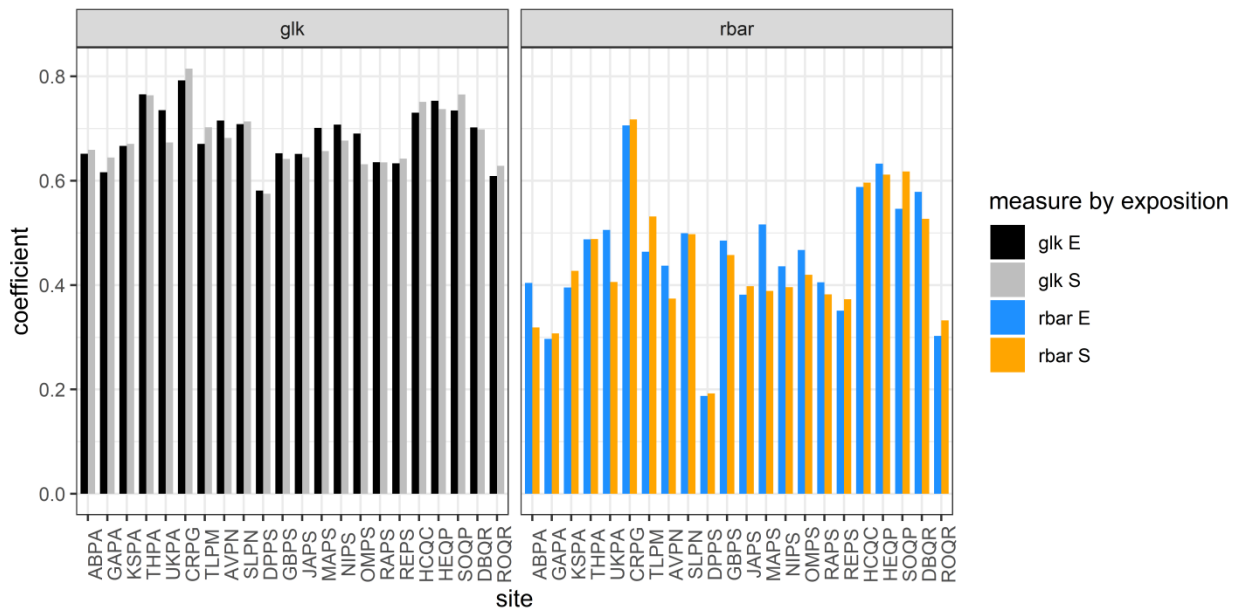
476

477 *Fig. 1: Descriptive statistics of the studied sites. A: Length of ring-width series in years*
 478 *(per tree only the longer series among the eastern and southern core series was*
 479 *included). B: Diameter at breast height (DBH) in cm. C: Tree height in m. Sites are*
 480 *sorted by species. The last two letters of the site abbreviations provide the species*
 481 *abbreviations (see Table 1).*



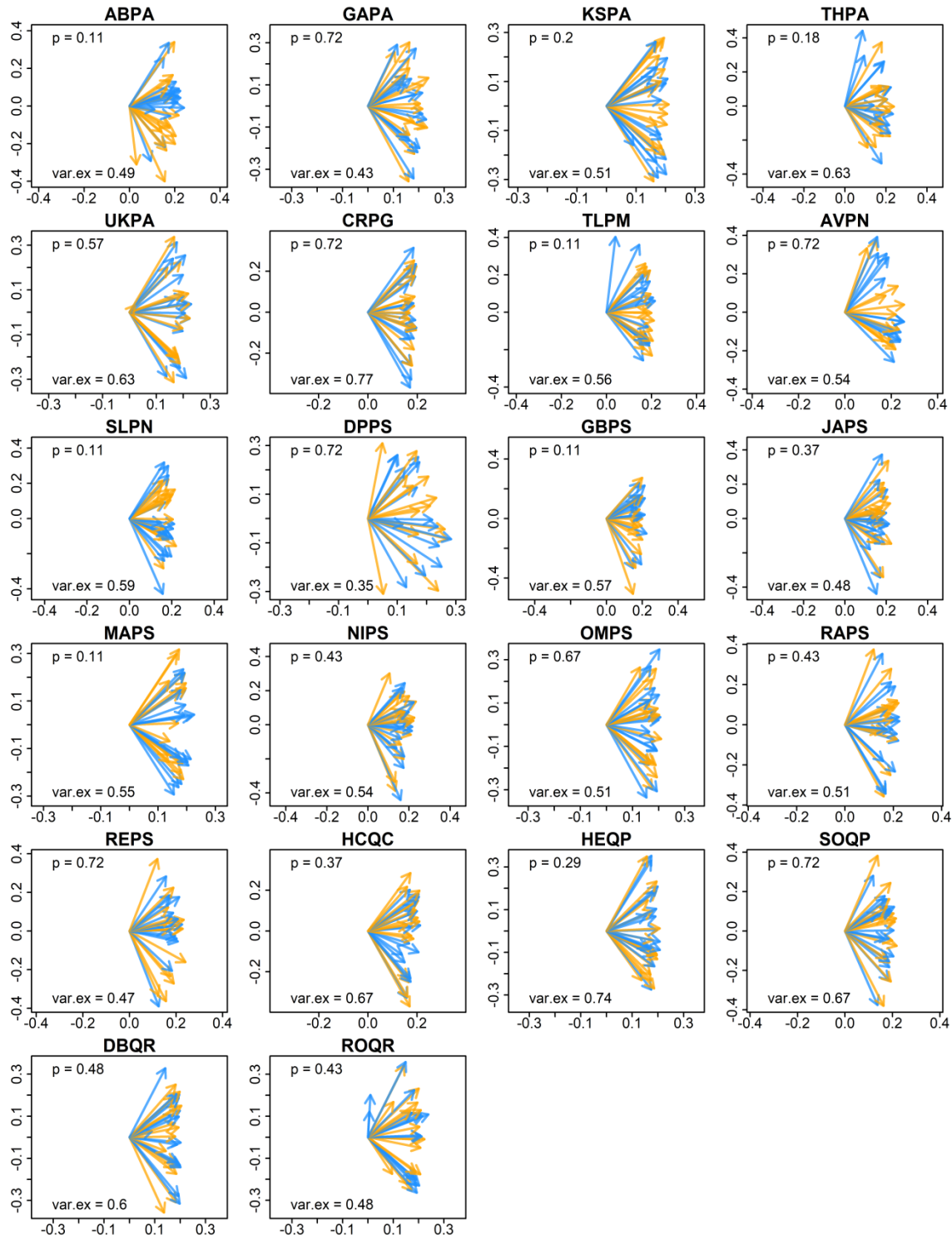
482

483 *Fig. 2: Geographical location of the study sites (red points) in Europe. Moreover, the*
 484 *study includes two sites located in Canada (inset map). For more meta data see Table*
 485 *1.*



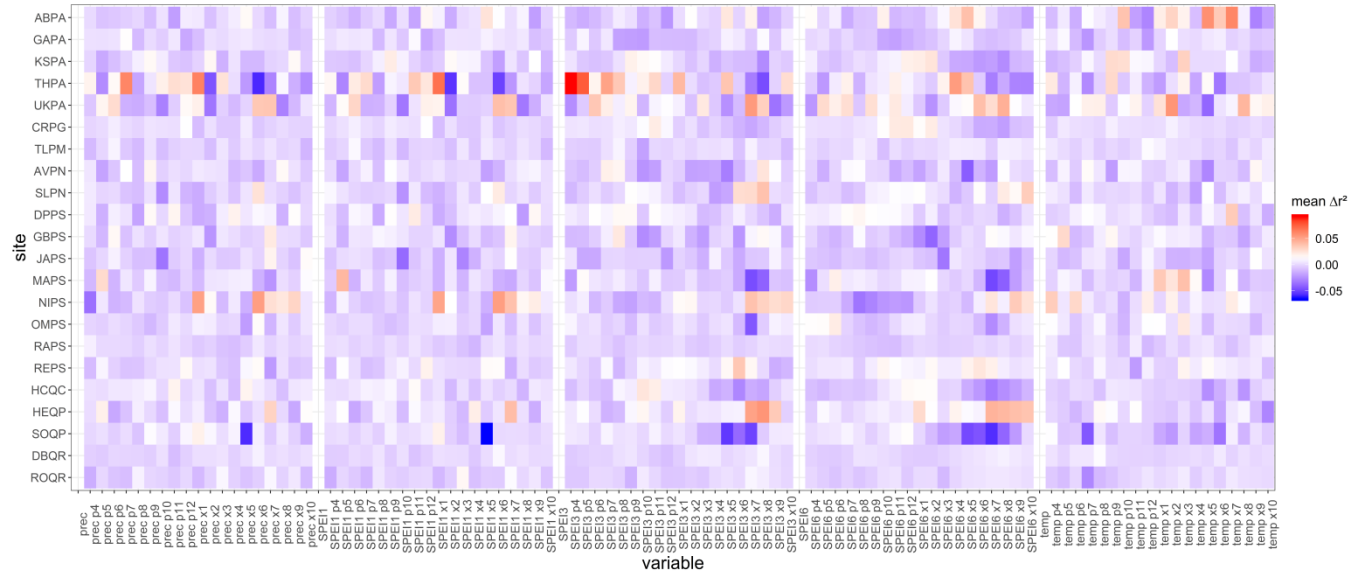
486

487 *Fig. 3: Direction-specific differences in signal strength between eastern (E) and southern*
 488 *(S) tree cores per site (abbreviations Table 1). Measures are Gleichläufigkeit (glk) and*
 489 *mean inter-series correlation (rbar). Sites are sorted by species.*



490

491 *Fig. 4: Direction-specific differences in growth variability according to PCGA. P: p-value*
 492 *of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests. Var.ex: Ratio of variance explained by PC1 and PC2.*
 493 *Orange arrows refer to southern, blue arrows to eastern tree cores. Sites are sorted by*
 494 *species (abbreviations Table 1).*



495

496 *Fig. 5: Mean Δr^2 between eastern and southern cores climate-growth correlations per*
 497 *site and climate variable. None of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests on Δr^2 was significant*
 498 *($p \leq 0.05$) after adjusting for the multiplicity of tests. SPEI is the Standardized*
 499 *Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index, temp is mean monthly temperature, prec is total*
 500 *monthly precipitation. A 'p' preceding the number of the month (x-axis labels) denotes*
 501 *previous year observations of the respective climate variable. An 'x' preceding the*
 502 *number of the month denotes current year observations. Sites are sorted by species*
 503 *(abbreviations Table 1).*

504

505 **Tables**

506 *Table 1: Meta data summary for all sites and species included in the study. Sites are sorted by country. Latitude and*
 507 *longitude in decimal degrees. N: Number of trees for which an eastern and a southern core was sampled; 1st yr, Last yr: First*
 508 *and last year of the common overlap period shared by all ring-width series of a site; M.s.length: Mean series length in years*
 509 *(calculated across eastern and southern cores); M.DBH: Mean diameter at breast height in cm; M.height: Mean tree height in*
 510 *m. Temp: Mean annual temperature in °C; Prec: Mean yearly precipitation sums in mm.*

Country	Site	Abbrev.	Species	Latitude	Longitude (-W, +E)	N	1st yr	Last yr	M.s.length	M.DBH	M.height	Temp	Prec
Canada	Cline River	CRPG	<i>Picea glauca</i> (Moench) Voss	52.000	-116.507	15	1940	2017	121	34	21	-2.1	664
Canada	Thetis Lake	TLPM	<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> (Mirb.) Franco	48.462	-123.465	15	1928	2017	129	72	33	9.3	720
Czech Republic	Košetice	KSPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	49.566	15.091	15	1962	2017	75	45	29	7.8	626
Czech Republic	Soběšice	SOQP	<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl.	49.250	16.610	15	1984	2014	87	40	17	8.1	569
Germany	Garmisch	GAPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	47.494	11.065	15	1963	2017	97	51	36	3.1	1051
Germany	Niederhaverbek	NIPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	53.132	9.875	15	1984	2017	40	29	20	8.7	743
Germany	Tharandt	THPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	50.929	13.526	14	1997	2017	28	25	20	8.0	788
Hungary	Puspokszilagy	HCQC	<i>Quercus cerris</i> L.	47.752	19.302	15	1966	2017	77	34	NA	9.2	596
Hungary	Kerecsend	HEQP	<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl.	47.815	20.354	15	1977	2015	52	35	NA	9.8	583
Poland	Gleboki Brod	GBPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	53.950	23.210	14	1966	2017	73	40	31	6.9	564
Poland	Jaworzno	JAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	50.194	19.315	15	1964	2017	82	30	22	8.2	731
Poland	Magdalenka	MAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	52.080	20.941	15	1970	2017	62	36	22	8.2	542
Poland	Ostrow	OMPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	52.660	21.730	15	1960	2017	92	42	29	7.8	584
Poland	Rogów	ROQR	<i>Quercus robur</i> L.	51.806	19.911	15	1950	2016	86	42	29	8.1	585
Romania	Dumbravita	DBQR	<i>Quercus robur</i> L.	45.769	25.478	15	1903	2017	132	52	27	7.6	716
Romania	Reci	REPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	45.816	25.943	14	1959	2016	107	50	34	7.8	665
Russia	Raifa	RAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	55.909	48.733	14	1900	1981	202	NA	20	3.9	527
Serbia	Avala	AVPN	<i>Pinus nigra</i> J.F.Arnold	44.672	20.541	12	1977	2017	49	34	20	12.0	642
Serbia	Deliblatski Pesak	DPPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	44.811	21.239	14	1976	2017	50	27	18	11.7	641
Serbia	Stepin Lug	SLPN	<i>Pinus nigra</i> J.F.Arnold	44.748	20.531	15	1976	2017	53	28	18	12.0	642
Switzerland	Albisboden	ABPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	47.269	8.525	15	1990	2017	37	43	27	8.3	1435
United Kingdom	North England	UKPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	54.000	-2.400	14	1998	2017	25	18	14	8.6	1273

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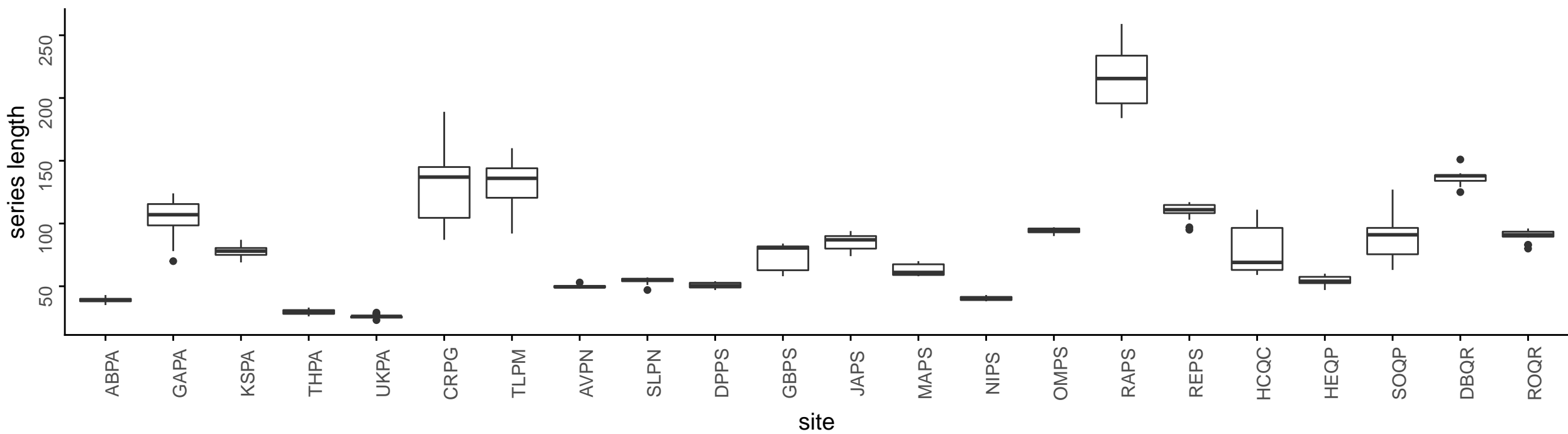
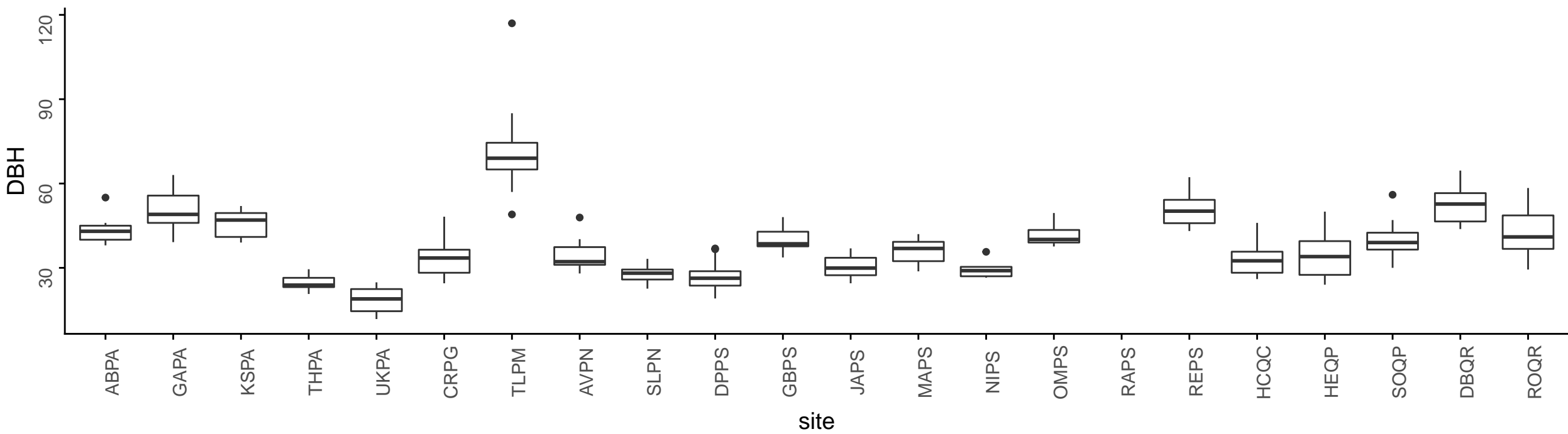
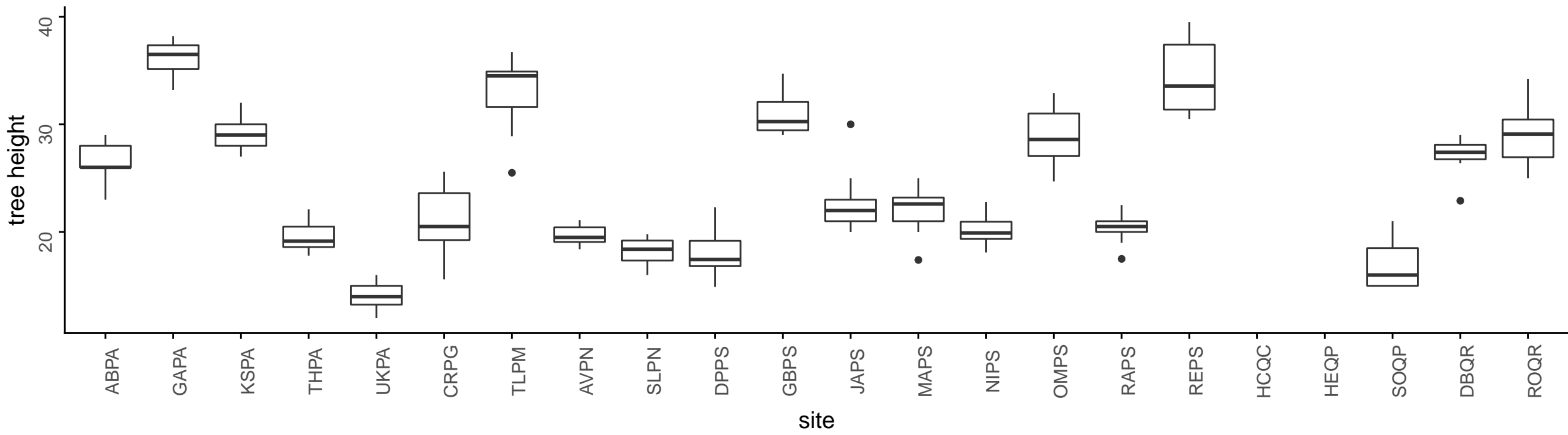
A**B****C**

Fig. 1: Descriptive statistics of the studied sites. A: Length of ring-width series in years (per tree only the longer series among the eastern and southern core series was included). B: Diameter at breast height (DBH) in cm. C: Tree height in m. Sites are sorted by species. The last two letters of the site abbreviations provide the species abbreviations (see Table 1).

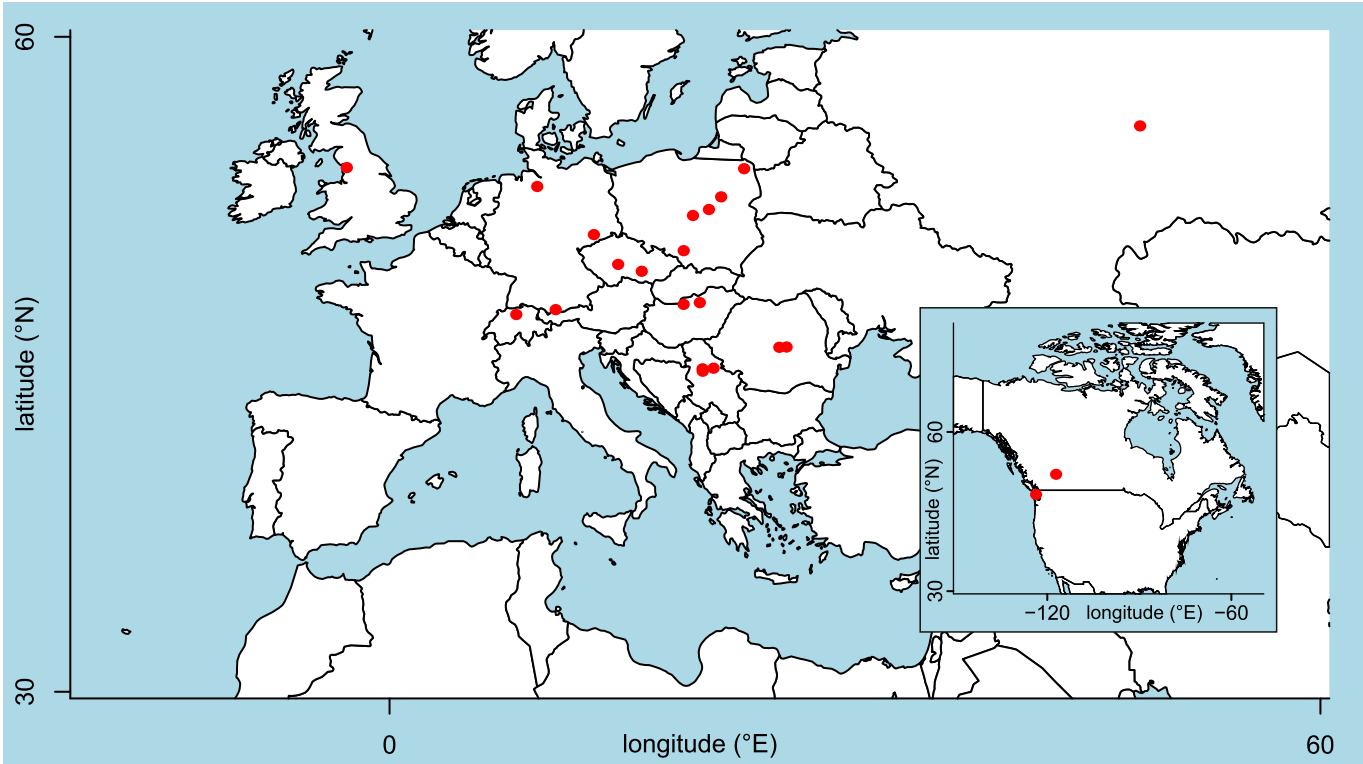


Fig. 2: Geographical location of the study sites (red points) in Europe. Moreover, the study includes two sites located in Canada (inset map). For more meta data see Table 1.

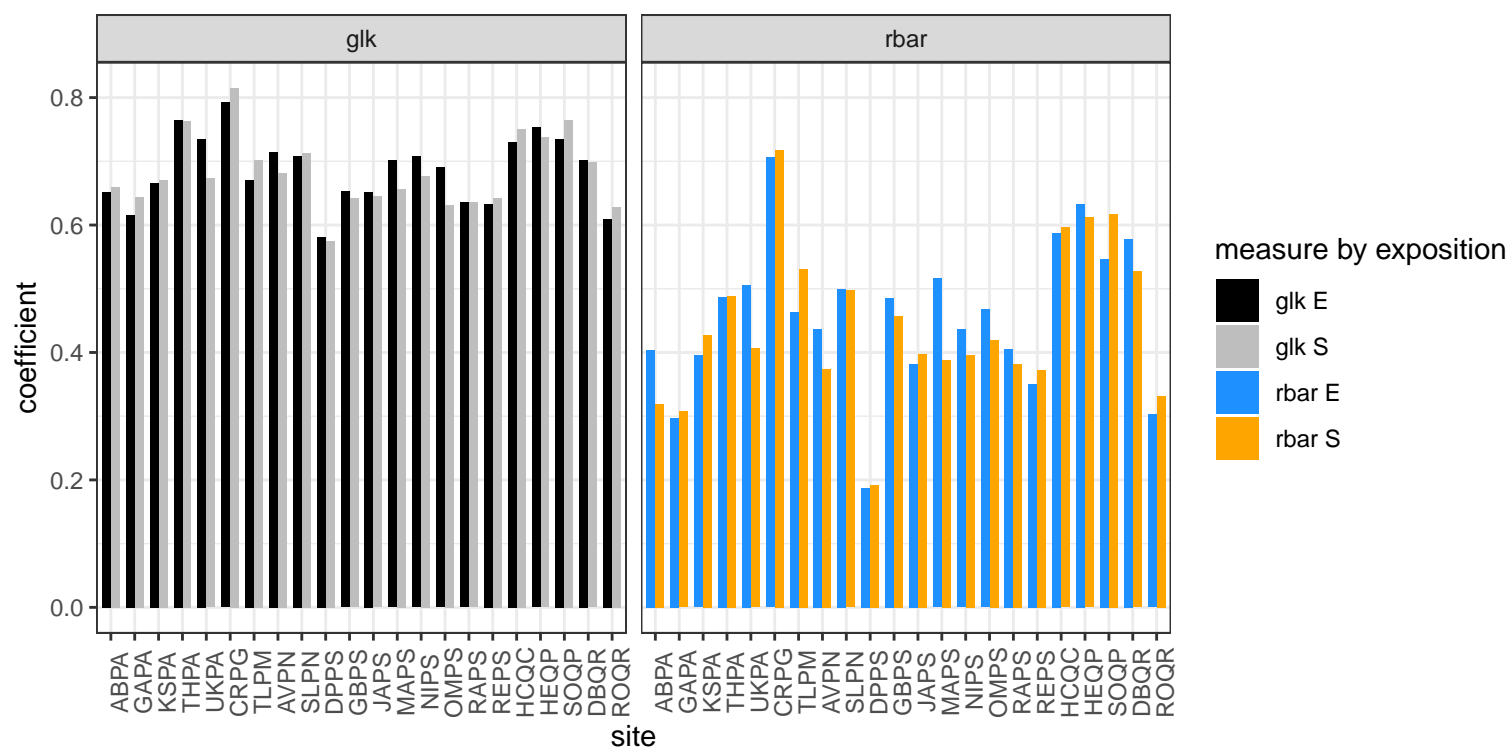


Fig. 3: Direction-specific differences in signal strength between eastern (E) and southern (S) tree cores per site (abbreviations Table 1). Measures are Gleichläufigkeit (glk) and mean inter-series correlation (\bar{r}). Sites are sorted by species.

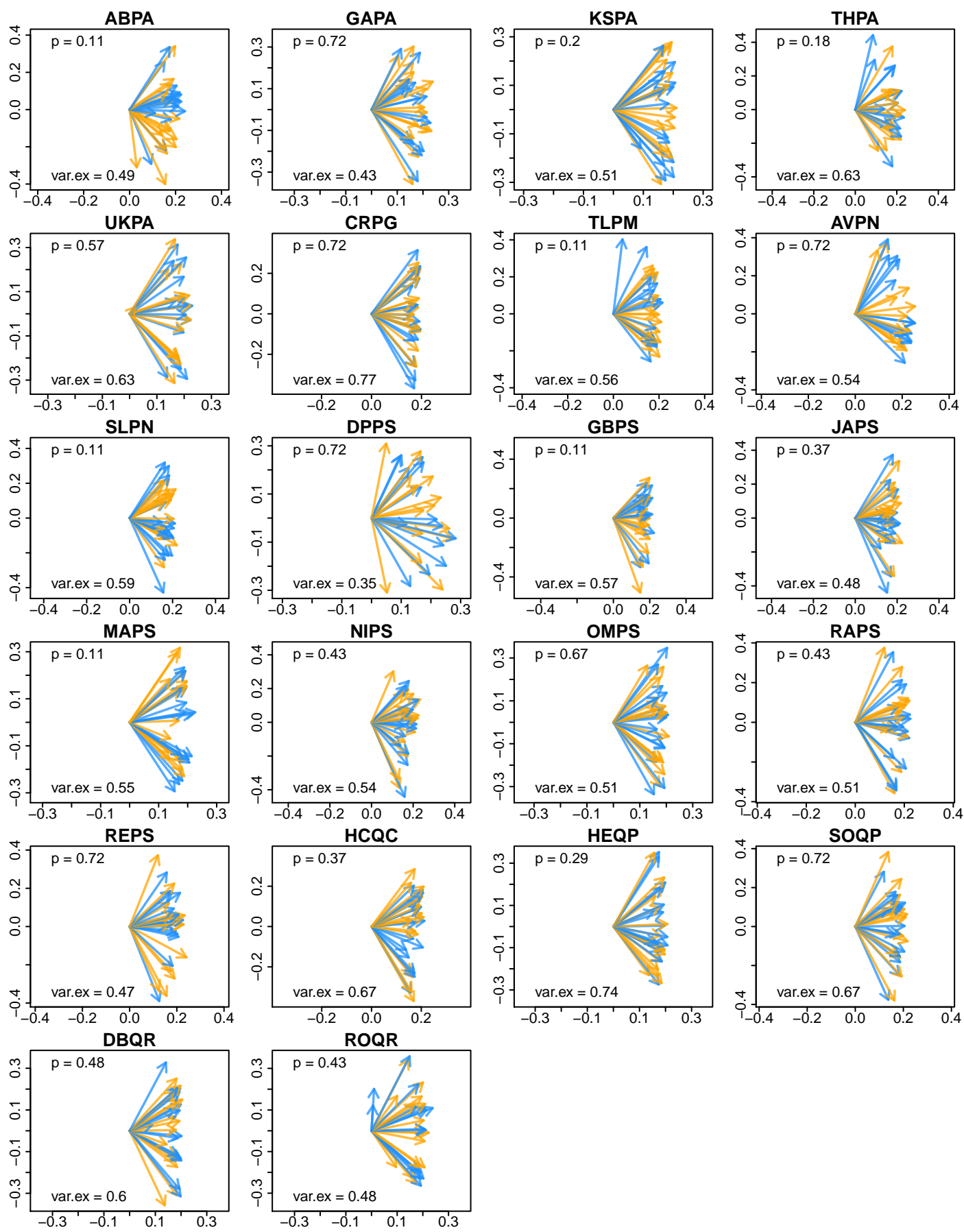


Fig. 4: Direction-specific differences in growth variability according to PCGA. P: *p*-value of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests. Var.ex: Ratio of variance explained by PC1 and PC2. Orange arrows refer to southern, blue arrows to eastern tree cores. Sites are sorted by species (abbreviations Table 1).

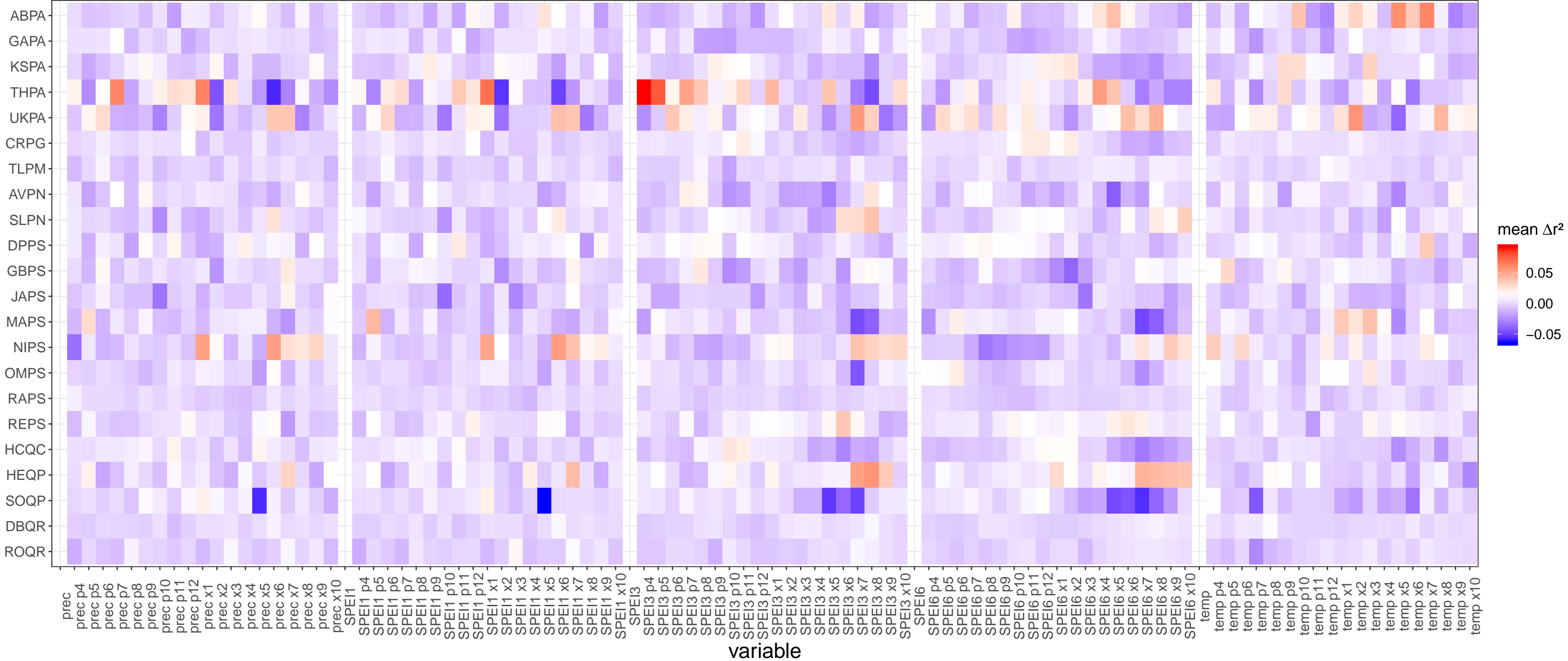


Fig. 5: Mean Δr^2 between eastern and southern cores climate-growth correlations per site and climate variable. None of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests on Δr^2 was significant ($p \leq 0.05$) after adjusting for the multiplicity of tests. SPEI is the Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index, temp is mean monthly temperature, prec is total monthly precipitation. A 'p' preceding the number of the month (x-axis labels) denotes previous year observations of the respective climate variable. An 'x' preceding the number of the month denotes current year observations. Sites are sorted by species (abbreviations Table 1).

Country	Site	Abbrev.	Species	Latitude	Longitude (-W, +E)	N	1st yr	Last yr	M.s.length	M.DBH	M.height	Temp	Prec
Canada	Cline River	CRPG	<i>Picea glauca</i> (Moench) Voss	52.000	-116.507	15	1940	2017	121	34	21	-2.1	664
Canada	Thetis Lake	TLPM	<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> (Mirb.) Franco	48.462	-123.465	15	1928	2017	129	72	33	9.3	720
Czech Republic	Košetice	KSPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	49.566	15.091	15	1962	2017	75	45	29	7.8	626
Czech Republic	Soběšice	SOQP	<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl.	49.250	16.610	15	1984	2014	87	40	17	8.1	569
Germany	Garmisch	GAPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	47.494	11.065	15	1963	2017	97	51	36	3.1	1051
Germany	Niederhaverbek	NIPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	53.132	9.875	15	1984	2017	40	29	20	8.7	743
Germany	Tharandt	THPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	50.929	13.526	14	1997	2017	28	25	20	8.0	788
Hungary	Puspokszilagy	HCQC	<i>Quercus cerris</i> L.	47.752	19.302	15	1966	2017	77	34	NA	9.2	596
Hungary	Kerecsend	HEQP	<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl.	47.815	20.354	15	1977	2015	52	35	NA	9.8	583
Poland	Gleboki Brod	GBPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	53.950	23.210	14	1966	2017	73	40	31	6.9	564
Poland	Jaworzno	JAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	50.194	19.315	15	1964	2017	82	30	22	8.2	731
Poland	Magdalenka	MAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	52.080	20.941	15	1970	2017	62	36	22	8.2	542
Poland	Ostrow	OMPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	52.660	21.730	15	1960	2017	92	42	29	7.8	584
Poland	Rogów	ROQR	<i>Quercus robur</i> L.	51.806	19.911	15	1950	2016	86	42	29	8.1	585
Romania	Dumbravita	DBQR	<i>Quercus robur</i> L.	45.769	25.478	15	1903	2017	132	52	27	7.6	716
Romania	Reci	REPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	45.816	25.943	14	1959	2016	107	50	34	7.8	665
Russia	Raifa	RAPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	55.909	48.733	14	1900	1981	202	NA	20	3.9	527
Serbia	Avala	AVPN	<i>Pinus nigra</i> J.F.Arnold	44.672	20.541	12	1977	2017	49	34	20	12.0	642
Serbia	Deilblatski Pesak	DPPS	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	44.811	21.239	14	1976	2017	50	27	18	11.7	641
Serbia	Stepin Lug	SLPN	<i>Pinus nigra</i> J.F.Arnold	44.748	20.531	15	1976	2017	53	28	18	12.0	642
Switzerland	Albisboden	ABPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	47.269	8.525	15	1990	2017	37	43	27	8.3	1435
United Kingdom	North England	UKPA	<i>Picea abies</i> (L.) H.Karst.	54.000	-2.400	14	1998	2017	25	18	14	8.6	1273

Table 1: Meta data summary for all sites and species included in the study. Sites are sorted by country. Latitude and longitude in decimal degrees. N: Number of trees for which an eastern and a southern core was sampled; 1st yr, Last yr: First and last year of the common overlap period shared by all ring-width series of a site; M.s.length: Mean series length in years (calculated across eastern and southern cores); M.DBH: Mean diameter at breast height in cm; M.height: Mean tree height in m. Temp: Mean annual temperature in °C; Prec: Mean yearly precipitation sums in mm.

Appendix A: Supplementary online material

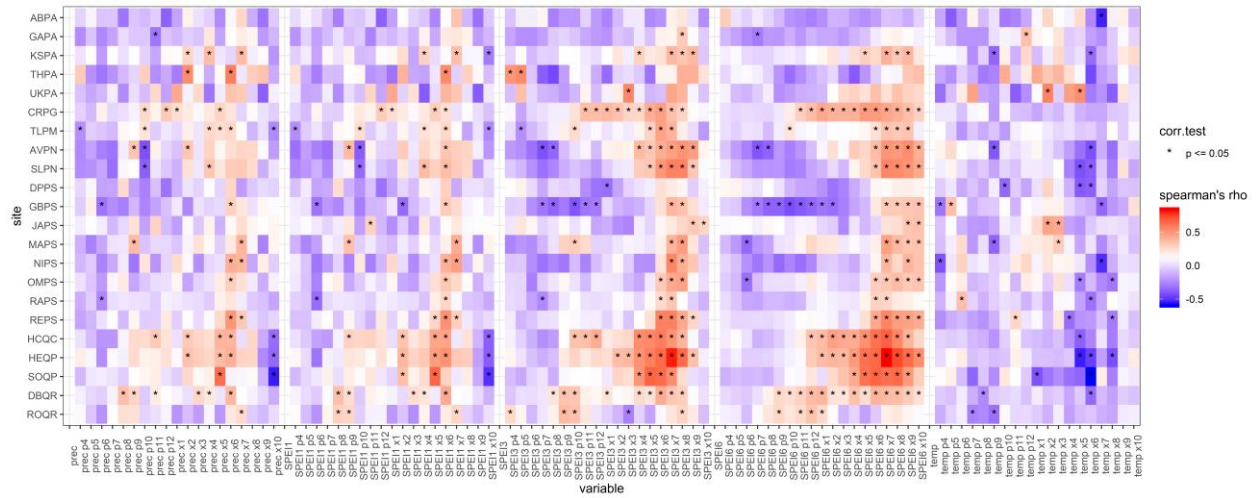


Fig. A1: Heatmap of coefficients calculated for correlations between climate variables and site master chronologies. Sites are sorted by species. For abbreviations see article.

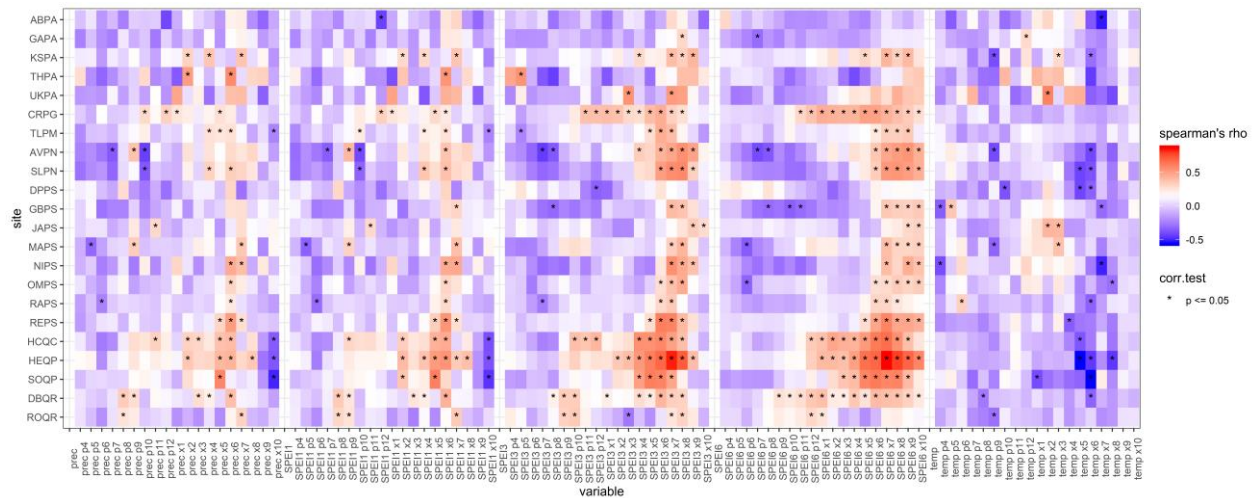


Fig. A2: Heatmap of coefficients calculated for correlations between climate variables and eastern core chronologies. Sites are sorted by species. For abbreviations see article.

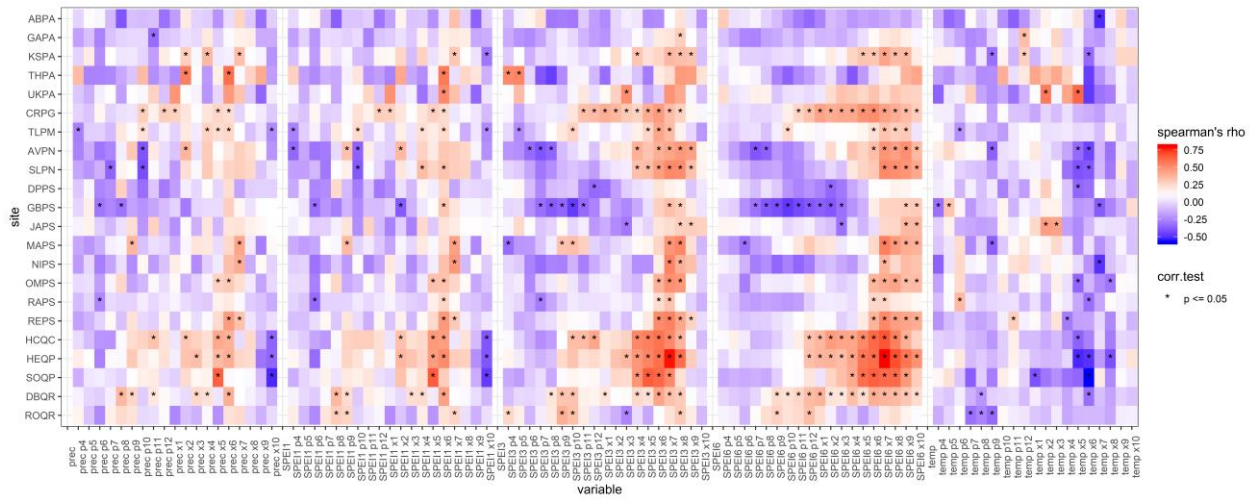


Fig. A3: Heatmap of coefficients calculated for correlations between climate variables and southern core chronologies. Sites are sorted by species. For abbreviations see article.

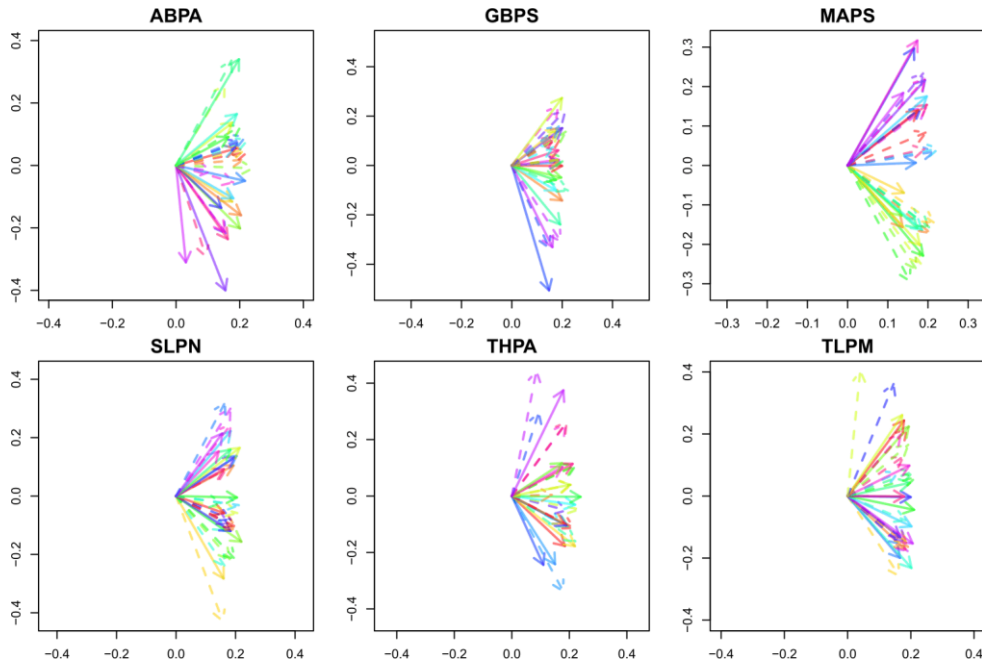


Fig. A4: Examples for visualizing the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test (p -values on Fig. 4). One color per individual tree with eastern cores as dashed arrows and southern cores as solid arrows. Ratio of variance explained by PC1 and PC2 as on Fig. 4 in article.