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**Structural attributes, tree-ring growth and climate sensitivity of *Pinus nigra* Arn. at high altitude: Common patterns of a possible treeline shift in the central Apennines (Italy)**

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1 **Title:** Structural attributes, tree-ring growth and climate sensitivity of *Pinus nigra* Arn. at high  
2 altitude: common patterns of a possible treeline shift in the central Apennines (Italy).

3

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27 **Abstract**

28 European black pine (*Pinus nigra* ssp. *nigra* Arnold) encroachment at increasing elevation has been  
29 analysed at four treeline ecotones of the central Apennines (Italy). The study sites are located along  
30 a North-South gradient of 170 km across Marche and Abruzzo regions in the Central Italy. The  
31 aims of this study were: i) to detect possible common patterns of structural attributes of black pine  
32 regeneration at the treeline ecotone; ii) to date the seedlings germination and iii) to assess the  
33 climate influence on the pine upward encroachment process also using intra-annual density  
34 fluctuations (IADFs) in tree-rings. We sampled 658 encroached black pine trees above the current  
35 treeline to the mountain top. All individuals were mapped and their basal stem diameter, total  
36 height, annual height increments and other structural attributes measured. One increment core was  
37 extracted from stem base of most samples for cambial age determination and detection of intra-  
38 annual density fluctuations (IADF). At two sites we also extracted cores at DBH from forest trees to  
39 assess climate-growth relationships of black pine. We used multivariate analysis (PCA) to explore  
40 the correlation structure of the main tree attributes, regression analysis to relate radial and height  
41 increment and dendroclimatic analysis to assess the influence of climate on tree growth and IADF  
42 formation.

43 Most black pine trees were located at high altitude and their structural attributes were similar at the  
44 four sites where the pine encroachment process started between 30 and 40 years ago featuring  
45 similar germination peaks and growth patterns. Black pine is particularly sensitive to maximum  
46 temperatures and IADF occurred in mid-late summer with highest frequency peaks between 2003  
47 and 2004. The pine encroachment process, besides the differences of environmental features and  
48 land use histories of the four study sites, appears synchronic and spatially diffused. Consistent tree-  
49 growth dynamics and the species adaptation to a warming climate are signals envisaging a possible  
50 treeline upward shift.

51

52

53 **Keywords**

54 European black pine, Apennines, spatial patterns, tree rings, IADF, climate change.

55

56 **Introduction**

57 Temperature values have increased globally over the last century and it is considered the main  
58 driver controlling treeline formation and dynamics around the world (Körner, 2007). Nonetheless  
59 treeline advancement is not a worldwide homogeneous phenomenon and at some sites temperature  
60 it is not the dominant limiting factor (Holtmeier and Broll, 2007). Treeline physiognomy seems also  
61 to control treeline position and dynamics (Harsch et al. 2009). Harsch and Bader (2011) refer to  
62 four treeline primary forms: 1) diffuse, 2) abrupt, 3) island and 4) krummholz and they found that  
63 treeline advancement occurred mainly with diffused physiognomy. This form responds better to  
64 climate warming, whereas other forms are controlled mainly by dieback and seedling mortality. The  
65 influence of temperature can also be masked by interactions with other factors such as precipitation  
66 (Daniels and Veblen, 2003; Wang et al., 2006) or cold-induced photo inhibition (Danby and Hik,  
67 2007a). Treeline advancement can also be affected by slope aspect (Karlsson et al., 2007),  
68 interspecific interaction (Harsch et al., 2009), physical or geomorphic local conditions (Zhang et al.,  
69 2009) and also various anthropogenic disturbances. Treeline locations in relatively undisturbed sites  
70 are directly influenced by growing season temperatures and indirectly by altitude, latitude,  
71 topography and seed dispersal (Kot et al., 1996). Undisturbed treelines are rare in European  
72 mountains, shaped for centuries by human land-use (Dirnböck et al., 2003). In most cases it is very  
73 difficult to disentangle the climate from the land-use signal in the assessment of vegetation changes  
74 (Gehrig-Fasel et al., 2007). This appears to be the case of the Italian Alps (Motta and Nola, 2001)  
75 and even more of the Apennines where severe human pressure and climate change have co-occurred  
76 over a very long time span. Treeline ecotones in the Apennines are seldom used as baselines for  
77 measuring climate change because of their long history of anthropogenic disturbance. During the  
78 Holocene, Apennines treelines were lowered for transforming high altitude forests into grazing

79 areas for herbivores, first wild and later domestic. However livestock pressure has largely decreased  
80 over the last 50-60 years and a temperature increase over the last 30-35 years has been recorded in  
81 many sites of the region (Brunetti et al., 2006).

82 Moreover, the typical “abrupt” physiognomy (Harsch et al., 2011) of the local treelines and the life  
83 history traits of the dominant tree species, such as *Fagus sylvatica*, have most likely slowed down  
84 the expansion process (Stanisci et al., 2005; Pezzi et al., 2008; Gallucci et al., 2010). Other treeline  
85 species in the Apennines are *Pinus leucodermis* and *Pinus nigra* subsp. *laricio* diffused in the  
86 southern ranges, and *Pinus nigra* subsp. *nigra* that is expanding in the central limestone sites  
87 (Piermattei et al., 2012).

88 Along the Apennines range treeline forms are mainly abrupt and diffuse. European beech (*Fagus*  
89 *sylvatica*) forests tend to form abrupt treeline between 1600-2000 m a.s.l. with very little or no  
90 advancement (Stanisci et al., 2005; Pezzi et al., 2008; Gallucci et al., 2010).

91 Diffuse treelines are less common but more dynamic for the presence of pine forests between 1600  
92 to 2200 m a.s.l.: *Pinus leucodermis* and *Pinus nigra* subsp. *laricio* at the southern sites, *Pinus nigra*  
93 subsp. *nigra* at some central sites.

94 At some central Apennines sites we observed spontaneous pine encroachment above the current  
95 treelines mainly formed by European black pine (*Pinus nigra* subsp. *nigra*) plantations for slope  
96 erosion control (Piermattei et al., 2012). Black pine regenerates abundantly within its optimal  
97 altitude range (500-1600 m a.s.l.), but its scattered presence at higher altitudes (1700-2100 m a.s.l.)  
98 seems a recent phenomenon in the Apennines (Richardson, 2000; Piermattei et al., 2012). In the  
99 Balkan mountains *P. nigra* is well adapted to extreme xeric sites, steep, rocky slopes and highly  
100 erodible soils where growth conditions for other tree species are unsuitable (Poljanšek et al., 2012).

101 Tree sexual maturity is reached at 15-40 years and the large seed crops are produced at 2-5 year  
102 intervals (Isajev et al., 2004). Pollen dispersal and pollination occur from May to June and seed  
103 maturation takes place in spring or early summer, about 13 months after pollination. The seeds are

104 completely mature between September and November and they are wind-dispersed when the cones  
105 open from December to April of the following growing season (Van Haverbeke, 1990).  
106 The objectives of this study are: (1) to detect possible common spatial patterns of structure and  
107 growth attributes of black pine regeneration at the treeline ecotones at four limestone sites of the  
108 central Apennines; (2) to date the tree establishment and to check the existence of spatio-temporal  
109 patterns along the whole encroachment area; (3) to assess possible relationships of tree-ring growth  
110 and intra-annual density fluctuations (IADF) with some climate variables. This study is based on  
111 previous works showing that: i) the pine upward shift followed a recent synchronic wave of  
112 germination peaks occurred between 1996 and 2000; ii) decreasing livestock grazing as well as  
113 climate warming over the last few decades are major drivers of the black pine expansion at high-  
114 elevation in the central Apennines (Piermattei et al., 2012).

115

## 116 **Materials and methods**

### 117 *Study area*

118 We sampled four treeline ecotones in the central Apennines (Italy) along a 170 km North-South  
119 gradient across Marche (Mt. Acuto, ACU and Mt. Vettore, VET) and Abruzzo (Mt. San Franco,  
120 SFR and Mt. Sirente, SIR) regions (Fig. 1 and Tab. 1). Meteorological data for climate  
121 classification were retrieved from the nearest weather stations for the period 1961–1990 (Tab. 2).  
122 Drought are common in July and August and precipitation peaks occur in autumn and early spring.  
123 Snowfalls are more common and abundant in late winter (February and March), but snow  
124 permanence on the ground is limited and discontinuous.

125 According to the Rivas-Martinez bioclimatic classification, all sites have a temperate oceanic  
126 macrobioclimate; ACU, VET and SIR show a low supra-temperate while SFR an upper  
127 supratemperate bioclimate. ACU features a low hyperhumid and VET, SFR and SIR an upper  
128 humid ombrotype (Rivas-Martinez and Rivas-Saenz, 2009).

129 All sites are on calcareous bedrocks but they differ in some physiographic or landscape attributes  
130 (e.g. peak and treeline elevation, slope aspect and angle, geomorphology) (Fig.2).

131 ACU is the Apennine site where we first observed the upward dynamics of the black pine  
132 encroachment. It has the lowest elevation but is on a northern slope with an abrupt coppiced beech  
133 treeline forest ranging between 1350 and 1450 m a.s.l. The seed bank, is a residual pine plantation  
134 located at 300 m a.s.l. down slope.

135 At VET the peak elevation is the highest; the treeline is abrupt, on a S-SE slope at 1500-1600 m  
136 a.s.l., formed by extensive black pine plantations and a few scattered patches of the previous beech  
137 forest at the least accessible sites. *Carex humilis* and *Sesleria* spp. dominate the higher elevation  
138 limestone grasslands.

139 At SFR the treeline is also abrupt and formed by an extensive black pine plantation, but on a SW  
140 slope. At SIR pine encroachment occurs on a W-SW gentle sloping and heavily pastured karst  
141 plateau ranging between 1700 to 2200 m a.s.l. No evident treeline is present nearby and beech  
142 forests are at much lower elevation below the grazed area. Even though seeders or residual pine  
143 plantations are very scattered and far away from the sampled sites, black pine natural regeneration  
144 is dispersed along the entire slope gradient.

145 At the four sites grazing histories appear different but very difficult to reconstruct due to lack of  
146 continuous and reliable data. In the central Apennines grazing season varied locally according to  
147 climate and site conditions, but is mainly from May to mid-October and rarely intensive, due to  
148 low productivity of these grasslands. Livestock is mainly cows, sheep and more recently horses, but  
149 loads decreased up to 50% in the last 40 years due to the increasing abandonment of rural and  
150 mountain areas (Pinto-Correia, 1993, Dullinger et al., 2003, Freléchoux et al., 2007).

151 Cows, sheep and horses are all selective feeders and their preferences are influenced by several  
152 foliage attributes (digestibility, shoot biomass, fibre content, nutrient concentrations, level of toxic  
153 secondary compounds and spiniess) and are highly dependent on what else is available. Pine  
154 needles contain terpenes, which make the foliage distasteful and not particularly attractive during



155 the summer when better options are available. Pines can be browsed in winter time when deciduous  
156 trees or seedlings are leafless and other vegetation is either unpalatable or covered by snow  
157 (Andrews et al., 2000). However no winter grazing is reported for these areas. Goats can cause  
158 browsing damage and even death to pine seedlings (Zamora et al., 2001, Torrano and Valderrabano,  
159 2005) but there is no record of goat rearing in the studied areas, at least during the twentieth  
160 century. Horses can cause seedlings uprooting or other mechanical damage, but there is no evidence  
161 of interference with their germination.

162

### 163 *Tree structural attributes*

164 The field data were collected between 2005 and 2012. At ACU, VET and SFR we sampled all the  
165 black pine individuals present from the treeline upward. At SIR due to the larger number of trees  
166 present across the slope we sampled within a virtual altitudinal transect from 1700 m a.s.l. upward.  
167 All sampled areas had a surface comprised between 50 and 120 ha. We mapped all the pines with a  
168 Trimble GeoXH GPS device for a total of 658 individuals (72 at ACU, 181 at VET, 254 at SFR and  
169 151 at SIR). For each tree we recorded the following attributes: basal stem diameter, tree height,  
170 crown depth, length of stem internodes, needle age (expressed as the number of years of their  
171 permanence on the tree branches), tree vigour (according to five classes based on stem and crown  
172 damage: 1, no damage; 2, minor damage; 3, medium damage; 4, major damage; 5, dead). To  
173 explore the correlation structure of the eight variables (tree structural attributes) and to highlight  
174 underlying differences between the four sites, we applied a principal component analysis (PCA)  
175 using the PC-ORD 6 statistical package. The statistical significance of the ordination analysis was  
176 tested by the Monte Carlo permutation method based on 10000 runs with randomized data.

177

### 178 *Tree ring analysis*

179 For the pine trees growing above the treeline a basal increment core was extracted from individuals  
180 with basal stem diameter > 4 cm. At VET and SFR, the two sites with a treeline pine forest (Fig. 2),

181 we also extracted two opposite cores at breast height from dominant pine trees selected along the  
182 forest edges.

183 We collected 429 cores from encroaching trees and seedlings (68 ACU, 150 VET, 112 SFR and 99  
184 SIR) and 70 cores from treeline forest trees (20 at VET and 50 at SFR). All cores were mounted on  
185 wooden supports and thoroughly polished with progressively finer sandpaper. Tree-ring width  
186 measurement, at 0.01 mm accuracy, was provided by the semi-automatic LINTAB system and  
187 WinTSAP (Rinntech).

188 At the four sites the short time series of encroaching pines were visually crossdated. Given their  
189 high variability for most individuals we averaged their annual radial increments and compared to  
190 their annual height increment by means of regression analysis, in order to assess the influence of  
191 other factors.

192 The ring widths series from the trees at the treeline were visually and statistically checked for  
193 measurement errors and crossdated. Each tree-ring series was standardized using the software  
194 ARSTAN (Cook, 1985). Since all series are around 20 to 50 years we applied a spline function with  
195 a 50% frequency response of 10 years to emphasize higher inter-annual frequency variance (Cook  
196 and Peters, 1981). The indexed series were then averaged in the two mean site chronologies and  
197 used for the following dendroclimatic analysis.

198 Climate-growth correlations were calculated using monthly maximum, minimum and mean  
199 temperatures and total precipitation data obtained from a  $0.5 \times 0.5$  degree spatial grid  
200 (<http://climexp.knmi.nl/>) subjected to homogeneity tests and adjustments (Van Oldenborgh, 1999,  
201 Van Oldenborgh & Burgers, 2005). The selected climate series, correspond to the closest grid point  
202 to the two locations (VET and SRF).

203 We used DENDROCLIM 2002 (Biondi and Waikul, 2004) with 1000 replications to compute the  
204 bootstrapped correlations for the period 1954-2009 at VET and 1966-2009 at SFR. Independent  
205 monthly climate variables (T max, T min, T mean and P) were sequenced in a biological year from  
206 April of the year prior to growth (t-1) to October of the year of growth (t).

207 On the tree-ring series of encroaching pines, we recorded presence and frequency of intra-annual  
208 density fluctuations (IADF). These are considered tree-ring anomalies or false rings (Wimmer,  
209 2002) and appear after a significant alteration of cambial activity due to withdrawal of normal radial  
210 growth, featuring either production of latewood-type cells in the earlywood or earlywood-type cells  
211 in the latewood (Fritts, 1976). IADF are mainly climate driven and can be useful indicators of tree  
212 adaptation to changing environmental conditions (Vieira et al., 2009, De Luis et al., 2007, 2011).  
213 The annual frequency of IADF in the tree ring series ( $F$ ), was first calculated with the ratio (Osborn  
214 et al., 1997):

$$215 \quad F = N/n$$

216 where  $N$  is the number of trees where IADF were present in a given year, and  $n$  is the number of  
217 observed trees. Since changing the samples depth can generate a bias in the variance of the  
218 frequency series an adjusted IADF frequency has been computed as follows:

$$219 \quad f = Fn^{0.5}$$

220 where  $f$  is the stabilized IADF frequency (Osborn et al., 1997).

221 We assessed the influence of climate on the tree ring series IADF frequency with a nonparametric  
222 Spearman correlation analysis. We used mean annual temperature and total precipitation values  
223 from the gridded climate data, which have been used to calculate some climatic and bioclimatic  
224 indices as the Aridity Index (AI – De Martonne, 1926), the Rain Factor (RF – Lang et al., 1976) the  
225 annual Ombrothermic Index (OI), the Ombrothermic Index of the two warmest months (OI2), and  
226 the Ombrothermic Index of the warmest quarter (OI3), (Rivas-Martinez et al., 1999).

227

## 228 **Results**

### 229 *Tree structural attributes*

230 Tree size of encroached individuals is highly variable at the four study sites: the diameter at stem  
231 base ranged from 0.5 to 55 cm (mean 9 cm, std.dev 7.5); the tree height ranged from 0.12 to 8.4 m  
232 (mean value 1.4 m and std.dev 1.3). The smallest trees in diameter and height were recorded at

233 SFR, the largest ones at SIR (Tab. 3). Mean age was very similar at all sites and varied between 12  
234 to 19 years. Most pine trees were located between 1700 and 1800 m a.s.l. and the highest elevation  
235 (2155 m a.s.l.) was reached at SIR. At ACU treeline and mountain peak altitudes are lower and  
236 therefore most trees grow between 1500 and 1600 m a.s.l. However no correlation was found  
237 between age and altitude at the 4 sites (Fig. 3).

238 The planted pines growing at the treeline margin have different size and age. The mean diameter  
239 and mean height at VET and SFR are respectively 38.5 cm ( $SD \pm 7.7$ ) and 10.8 m ( $SD \pm 6.1$ ) and  
240 28.5 cm ( $SD \pm 1.3$ ) and 10.2 m ( $SD \pm 2.5$ ).

241 The multivariate ordination analysis (PCA) on tree structural attributes revealed a high within-site  
242 variability (Fig. 4). However the short distance in the ordinal environment between the centroids of  
243 the four sites suggested minor differences among sites, confirmed also by the high overlay of their  
244 convex hulls. SIR and VET are very similar due to the higher share of larger and older saplings,  
245 whereas SFR displayed a different pattern for the larger percent of younger trees. The needle age  
246 (Nee) appeared positively related to tree vigour, but both these variables were not correlated to tree  
247 size. Globally the first two principal components were significant ( $p < 0.001$ , Monte Carlo test) and  
248 accounted for a cumulative 67.08% of the total variation (Table 4). PC1 described variations of tree  
249 size (diameter and height) and age, whereas PC2 expressed a gradient of tree health or vigour.

250

### 251 *Growth patterns*

252 The cambial age frequency distribution revealed that pine recruitment started slightly earlier  
253 (around 1974) at SFR, SIR and VET than at ACU (in 1981). In all sites, the cambial age frequency  
254 approximated a normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk  $W > 0.5$ ), typical of even-aged processes, with  
255 maximum peaks between 1992 and 2002. A later period (1998-2003) of maximum recruitment was  
256 recorded at SFR (Fig. 5). The positive and significant correlation obtained by regression analysis of  
257 radial and height mean increments suggested the presence of a common growing pattern at all sites

258 (Fig. 6). ACU and VET regression lines have steeper slopes. ACU shows also the most fitted linear  
259 pattern ( $r = 0.74$ ).

260 We used respectively 38 and 20 series to build site chronologies of planted pines growing at the  
261 treeline margin at SFR and VET. The two time series have similar trends and are well  
262 synchronized. Mean cambial age at DBH is 41 yrs ( $SD \pm 9.73$ ) at VET and 36 yrs ( $SD \pm 9.98$ ) at  
263 SFR. This large within-site variability may be largely attributed to different planting phases.

264

#### 265 *Climate influence on tree growth*

266 *Pinus nigra* responses to climate at the two treeline forests are variable and somehow controversial  
267 (Fig. 7). The only common response at both sites is the negative and significant correlation with  
268 May precipitation. At SFR alone June precipitation has a positive influence on tree-ring growth. At  
269 VET maximum temperatures have a positive effect in May (t) and a negative one in July (t-1). At  
270 SFR pine is globally more sensitive to temperatures, in fact maximum, mean and minimum ones all  
271 influenced tree-ring growth. Positive correlation was found for both maximum temperature in  
272 March of the current year (t) and April of the previous year (t-1).

273 All IADF detected in encroached trees are earlywood-type cells in the latewood band near the ring  
274 closing border (Fig. 8), revealing that cambial activity first decreased or stopped during early  
275 summer and then recovered during late summer and early autumn. IADF frequency distributions are  
276 not globally homogenous: at ACU and VET values are higher and the curves have approximately  
277 normal shapes; at SFR values are much lower and distributed along the entire time span; at SIR the  
278 distribution pattern is irregular showing an increasing trend in the last years. Nonetheless maximum  
279 peaks are synchronic, occurring in 2003 at VET and SFR, and in 2004 at ACU and SIR (Fig. 9).

280 The correlation analysis between IADF annual frequency and climatic variables showed similar  
281 pattern especially for ACU and SIR; at SFR all values obtained are not statistically significant.

282 Mean annual temperature is significantly and positively associated ( $\rho > 0.4$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) at all the sites  
283 except for SFR (Table 5). Annual precipitation is negatively and significantly correlated only at

284 ACU and SIR. The climatic and bioclimatic indices (OI, OI2, AI and RF) were negatively and  
285 significantly correlated to IADF frequency at ACU, VET and SIR sites.

286

## 287 **Discussion**

288 In the central Apennines *Pinus nigra* encroachment of abandoned pastures is a widespread and  
289 continuous process at mid-slope elevation (up to 1500 m a.s.l.), enhanced by the nearby abundant  
290 seed sources provided by nearby pine plantations. Less common is the irregular advancement of  
291 black pine trees above the current treeline, as observed at the four study sites. Here most trees are  
292 growing between 1700 and 1800 m a.s.l. whereas some have unexpectedly trespassed the threshold  
293 of 2000 m a.s.l. (2090 m at VET and 2155 m at SIR) (Fig.3).

294 Structural attributes at the four sites showed a high *within-site* and a low *between-site* variability.  
295 The former can be related to the large extension of the sampled areas due to the scattered  
296 distribution of the pine individuals, and to the numerous limiting growth factors at high altitude,  
297 such as extreme climate conditions, irregular topography, shallow soil, rock fall, debris flow and  
298 land use changes (Holtmeier and Broll, 2005). In these conditions the presence of safer sites  
299 enhanced growth performance and also cone production (Piermattei et al., 2012). At SIR, given the  
300 more favourable topographic conditions of a moderate sloping karst plateau, trees have a larger  
301 mean size. Furthermore geomorphic related disturbances are less frequent here compared to the  
302 other sites, all with steeper slopes. This was confirmed by the significant lower percentage of  
303 severely damaged (by rock or debris fall) trees recorded at SIR.

304 Nonetheless the between-site variability is very low, suggesting that the structural and tree-growth  
305 variables are globally very similar (Fig. 4). In this study the tree vitality was not correlated to size  
306 and age of trees, therefore we may assume that their vigour loss or mortality are mainly controlled  
307 by external factors.

308 Site features and grazing histories are different at the four treeline ecotones, therefore the strong  
309 overall similarity exhibited by the PCA supports the influence of a major common driver to the

310 encroachment process. Since the same hypothesis was posted in a preliminary study concerning  
311 only two sites (ACU and VET) (Piermattei et al., 2012) we believe that the similar outcomes  
312 obtained in a wider study area provide further evidence of an overall climate control on the pine  
313 upward shift.

314 This hypothesis is also supported by the synchronic pattern of the pine pioneering encroachment  
315 above the treeline initiated 30-40 years ago at all sites. Tree-ring dating confirmed that pine  
316 germinations begun not later than 1974 at three sites except ACU, where started not later than 1981.  
317 Cambial age frequency distribution curves have similar trends with modal peaks between 1992 and  
318 2003 decreasing in the following years, especially at ACU. At VET and SFR the presence of  
319 extensive pine plantations provided a larger seed supply and a more abundant dissemination. At  
320 ACU and SFR seed was provided by fewer and distant parental trees at lower elevation,  
321 strengthening the role of wind as a dispersal vector and a crucial driver to guarantee the pine  
322 pioneering process. The seeds of black pine are very light and wind-scattered by secondary  
323 dispersion, a step-wise process that favours seed transport at long distance and higher altitude  
324 (Johnson and Fryer, 1992; Greene and Johnson, 1997).

325 At the treeline the most limiting factor to height growth is the low temperature (Körner, 2007),  
326 reducing the meristematic activity regardless of the photoassimilate abundance (Rossi et al., 2007).  
327 In our sites, despite their different altitudes and microsite conditions, the correlation between mean  
328 radial and height increments is positive and significant suggesting that tree growth is consistent in  
329 both directions, scarcely affected by other external factors and possibly controlled by climate.

330 Summer drought is very likely to affect radial growth, not only in Mediterranean species (Cherubini  
331 et al., 2003). In xeric sites of Austria the growth of *Pinus nigra* is mainly controlled by spring-  
332 summer moisture availability (Strumia et al., 1997; Leal et al., 2007). In drought sensitive areas of  
333 the Mediterranean basin, European black pine tree-ring growth is mainly influenced both by  
334 summer precipitation and temperature (Fernandez et al., 1996, Lebourgeois, 2000), but contrasting

335 effects with lack of correlation are also reported in south-western Spain (Martin-Benito et al.,  
336 2008).

337 The sensitivity to temperature and precipitation of planted pines at VET and SFR is variable and  
338 somehow controversial (Fig. 7). The negative correlation of May precipitation (often snow at that  
339 altitudes) at both sites could be related to their direct effect in shortening the growing season and  
340 possibly reducing the amount of incoming solar radiation and of the photoassimilate produced. The  
341 positive effect of June precipitation at SFR can be explained with its more southern location and the  
342 warmer aspect (SW) of the slope.

343 The positive responses to spring maximum temperatures (March at SFR and May at VET) can  
344 suggest their crucial role at the beginning of the growing season, but with delayed effects according  
345 to local climate differences, warmer and more xeric at SFR than VET.

346 In the central Apennines the length of the growing season can change yearly, starting from April to  
347 June and ending between October and November. A warmer start can reactivate earlier the  
348 cambium prolonging the period of earlywood production (Gricar et al., 2006; Rossi et al., 2008)  
349 before summer drought conditions could occur. This effect appears more pronounced at SFR both  
350 during the year of tree-ring formation [March (t)] and prior to it [April (t-1)]. The negative  
351 correlation of July (t-1) Tmax at VET is likely related to the indirect and lagged effect of high  
352 temperature on increasing evapotranspiration. The tree-ring formation is limited more by the  
353 previous year July Tmax than by the current ones, which is reasonable in a xero-thermic treeline  
354 location where wood formation can withdraw during the warmest and driest month.

355 The IADFs and other anatomical features can also be used to assess the climate influence on tree  
356 growth patterns (Novak et al., 2013). Several studies showed a relationship between IADF  
357 formation and climate (Wimmer et al., 2000; Rigling et al., 2001; Campelo et al., 2006; De Micco  
358 et al., 2007; Novak et al., 2013).

359 In our samples the IADFs are mainly located within the latewood portion of the ring (Vieira et., al  
360 2009, De Luis et al., 2011, Novak et al., 2013) indicating the occurrence of resumed favorable



361 conditions after a summer stress which reactivated cambial activity toward the end of growing  
362 season (De Luis et al., 2011; Camarero et al., 2010; Novak et al., 2013).

363 The IADFs frequency in all sites, except SFR, are somehow correlated to climatic conditions,  
364 positively with mean annual temperatures and negatively with annual precipitation. Increasing  
365 temperature can cause a higher evapotranspiration, induce water stress and altering cambial activity  
366 by anticipating the production of latewood cells. Increasing precipitation, especially in summer,  
367 allows trees to avoid summer dormancy and to conclude normally the seasonal growth as confirmed  
368 by the OI2 and OI3, that are indexes calibrated on precipitation of the two warmest months and of  
369 the warmest quarter.

370 Maximum peaks of IADFs frequency at VET and SFR occurred in 2003, the warmest year of the  
371 last century (Beniston, 2004) and in 2004 at ACU and SIR. We did not find any significant  
372 correlation between IADFs frequency and elevation but with tree size and radial increment. Other  
373 studies found that the presence of IADFs is higher in younger trees (Vieira et al., 2009; Novak et al.  
374 2013) and in trees with wider rings (Villalba and Veblen, 1994; Rigling et al., 2001; Copenheaver et  
375 al., 2006; De Luis et al., 2007). It has been also proved that younger trees have usually a longer  
376 growing season (Rossi et al., 2008) and that they respond faster to changing environmental  
377 conditions (Villalba and Veblen, 1994).

378

## 379 **Conclusions**

380 The encroachment of *Pinus nigra* above the current treeline is a recent non-linear natural process  
381 observed in the central Apennines, that we measured at four representative sites. This secondary  
382 succession, which induced pine seedling establishment at unexpected high elevations, appears  
383 controlled by at least three different co-occurring factors: i) the presence of local seed sources of  
384 European black pine, a highly pioneering species, ii) the decreased livestock grazing pressure and  
385 possibly, iii) the climate warming trend. Pine seeds were provided by near and also distant parental  
386 trees in extensive or residual plantations. Suitable colonizing space was made available with the

387 declining grazing pressure throughout the last 40-50 years, especially where herbaceous species  
388 were not too competitive. Finally the climate warming, recorded in the area, seemed to have  
389 favoured the upward expansion of pine seedlings (Piermattei et al., 2012).

390 The *Pinus nigra* encroachment appears in general as a successional wave featuring synchronic  
391 major peaks between 1995 and 2000, and a general decrease in the following years. The overall  
392 similarity of the tree structural and growth attributes at all sites is counterbalanced by a high within-  
393 site variability. Tree-ring growth and IADF frequency seem to confirm the suitability of the species  
394 to a changing environment. The results also suggest the overall influence of a climatic driver to the  
395 black pine upward shifting process. The research will continue on additional sites and with more  
396 detailed geostatistical and tree-ring analyses for assessing the ascending dynamics of the treeline  
397 ecotones and the specific contribution of climate change.

398

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554

555 **Tables**556 **Table 1.** Main physiographic characteristics at the four study sites.

557

	Acuto (ACU)	Vettore (VET)	San Franco (SFR)	Sirente (SIR)
Latitude	43° 27' N	42° 81' N	42° 45' N	42° 15' N
Longitude	12° 42' E	13° 26' E	13° 38' E	13° 60' E
Peak elevation (m a.s.l.)	1668	2476	2132	2348
Slope aspect	N - NW	S - SE	W - SW	W - SW
Treeline elevation (m a.s.l.)	1350-1450	1600	1450-1600	-
Treeline forest type	Beech coppiced forest	Black pine plantation	Black pine plantation	-

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561 **Table 2.** Meteorological data (mean annual temperature and annual precipitation) for the period  
562 1961-1990 obtained from the local weather stations nearest to the four study sites.

563

Sites	Meteorological station (name, altitude, coordinates)	Mean Annual Temperature (°C)	Annual Precipitation (mm)
ACU	Fonte Avellana (689 m a.s.l.) 43°28'N-12°40'E	11.6	1210
VET	Montemonaco (987 m a.s.l.) 42°53'N-13° 19'E	11.1	1708
SFR	Campotosto (1430 m a.s.l.) 42°33'N, 13°22'E	7.8	994
SIR	Aquila (685 m a.s.l.) 42°22'N-13°21'E	11.7	732

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566 **Table 3.** Summary statistics of main tree structural attributes at the four study sites. M = mean; SD  
 567 = standard deviation; D = diameter at stem base; H = tree height; H\_In = mean internode length;  
 568 Age = cambial age at stem base.

569

Sites	Trees (n)	D (cm)		H (cm)		H_In (cm)		Age (yrs)	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
ACU	60	6.8	2.5	100.2	40.9	6.8	1.8	12	3.2
VET	147	6.1	3.7	100.8	61.8	8.5	3.1	11	5.4
SFR	192	4.7	3.6	72.7	54.1	6.9	2.7	10	3.3
SIR	69	7.7	4.8	114.9	67.0	8.0	2.4	12	4.5
<i>Total</i>	<i>468</i>	<i>5.9</i>	<i>3.9</i>	<i>91.3</i>	<i>59.4</i>	<i>7.5</i>	<i>2.8</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>4.3</i>

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586 **Table 4.** Principal component loadings for the first two principal components at the four sites.

587 Loadings greater than 0.4 are indicated in bold.

588

	Axis	
	PC1	PC2
<i>% of variance</i>	46.68	20.40
<i>Cum. % of variance</i>	46.68	67.08
<i>p</i>	0.0001	0.0001
Stem diameter ( <b>D</b> )	<b>0.488</b>	-0.091
Tree height ( <b>H</b> )	<b>0.492</b>	-0.163
Cambial age ( <b>Age</b> )	<b>0.405</b>	0.207
Age by internodes ( <b>Age_I</b> )	<b>0.463</b>	0.080
Needle age ( <b>Nee</b> )	-0.076	<b>-0.596</b>
Vigour ( <b>Vig</b> )	-0.118	<b>-0.596</b>
Mean internode distance ( <b>H_In</b> )	0.350	-0.326
Crown shape ( <b>Cro</b> )	-0.005	-0.315

589

590

591 **Table 5.** Correlation coefficients (Spearman's  $\rho$ ) between IADF annual frequency and climatic  
 592 variables at the four study sites. T = mean annual temperature, P = annual precipitation, OI =  
 593 Ombrothermic Index, OI2 = Ombrothermic Index of the two warmest months, OI3 = Ombrothermic  
 594 Index of the warmest quarter, RF = Rain Factor, AI = Aridity Index. Significant values are  
 595 indicated in bold character (\* =  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ ) .

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Site	T	P	OI	OI2	OI3	RF	AI
ACU	<b>0.603**</b>	<b>-0.557**</b>	<b>-0.618**</b>	<b>-0.448**</b>	<b>-0.507*</b>	<b>-0.609**</b>	<b>-0.588**</b>
VET	<b>0.459**</b>	-0.327	<b>-0.415*</b>	<b>-0.447**</b>	-0.329	<b>-0.358*</b>	<b>-0.358*</b>
SFR	0.167	-0.205	-0.218	-0.036	-0.056	-0.212	-0.208
SIR	<b>0.492*</b>	<b>-0.433**</b>	<b>-0.472**</b>	<b>-0.502**</b>	<b>-0.570**</b>	<b>-0.465**</b>	<b>-0.440**</b>

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610 **Figure captions**

611

612 **Figure 1.** Location of the four study areas in the Marche (ACU, VET) and Abruzzo (SFR, SIR)  
613 regions, in the Central Italy.

614

615 **Figure 2.** Landscape view of the treeline ecotones at the four study sites of Central Apennines: a)  
616 Mt. Acuto (ACU); b) Mt. Vettore (VET); c) Mt. San Franco (SFR); d) Mt. Sirente (SIR).

617

618 **Figure 3.** Scatter plot and regression lines of elevation and age of pine trees at the four treeline  
619 sites.

620

621 **Figure 4.** Principal component analysis of structural attributes surveyed at the four treeline  
622 ecotones. Full line arrows represent tree descriptors: D = diameter at root collar; H = tree height;  
623 H\_In = mean height of internodes; Age = cambial age; Age\_In = estimated age by number of  
624 internodes; Cro = crown shape; Vig = tree vigour; Nee: years of permanence of needles on the  
625 branch stem. Grey symbols indicate sampled trees at each site (triangles: ACU; circles: SFR;  
626 squares: VET; diamonds: SIR), black symbols are the centroids of all the trees at the same site.  
627 Grey polylines are convex hulls indicating the maximum surface area occupied by trees belonging  
628 to the same site. The first and second principal component were significant ( $p < 0.001$ , Monte Carlo  
629 test) and accounted respectively for 46.7% and 20.4% of the total amount of variation.

630

631 **Figure 5.** Frequency distribution (in %) of sampled individuals according to their cambial age. Age  
632 was determined from increment cores extracted at the lowest possible height at the stem base of  
633 pine trees having diameter  $\geq 4$  cm (68 cores extracted at ACU, 150 at VET, 112 at SFR and 99 at  
634 SIR).

635

636 **Figure 6.** Scatter plot of mean radial and mean height increments at four study sites (black circles:  
637 ACU; white squares: VET; grey triangles: SFR; white circles: SIR). The  $R^2$  values are respectively  
638 0.55, 0.52, 0.31, 0.26, all significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

639

640 **Figure 7.** Correlation functions between mean tree-ring indexed chronologies and total monthly  
641 precipitation and mean monthly maximum temperatures for the previous (small letters) and current  
642 (capital letters) growth year. Standardized coefficients were obtained by dividing the mean  
643 correlations by their standard deviations after the bootstrap replications. They express the  
644 significance of monthly parameters. Black horizontal lines are the  $p < 0.05$  significance thresholds  
645 (Student  $t \pm 1.96$ ).

646

647 **Figure 8.** Intra-Annual Density Fluctuations (IADF) within the latewood of encroached *Pinus nigra*  
648 in two different samples and in two different years: A) IADF type L with earlywood-like cells  
649 within the latewood; B) IADF type  $L^+$  with earlywood-like cells between latewood and earlywood  
650 of the following tree ring (Campelo et al., 2013).

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652 **Figure 9.** Yearly distributions of stabilized IADF frequencies at the four study sites.

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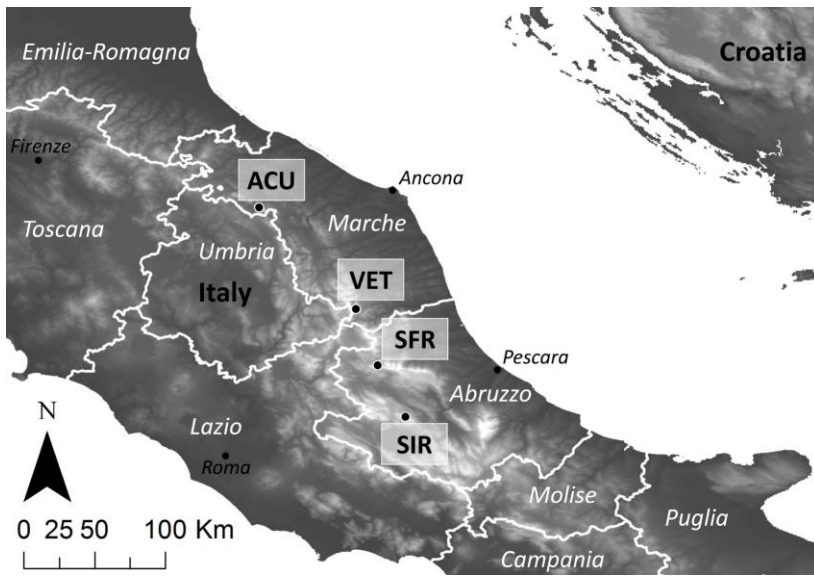
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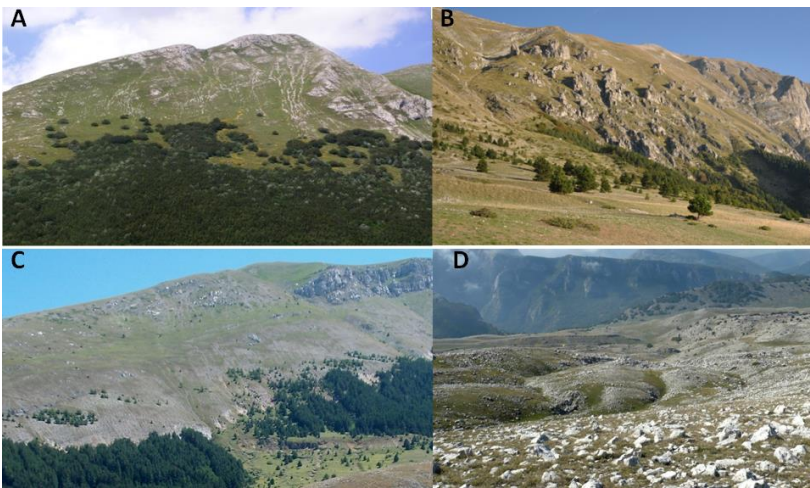


662 Fig.1



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664 Fig.2



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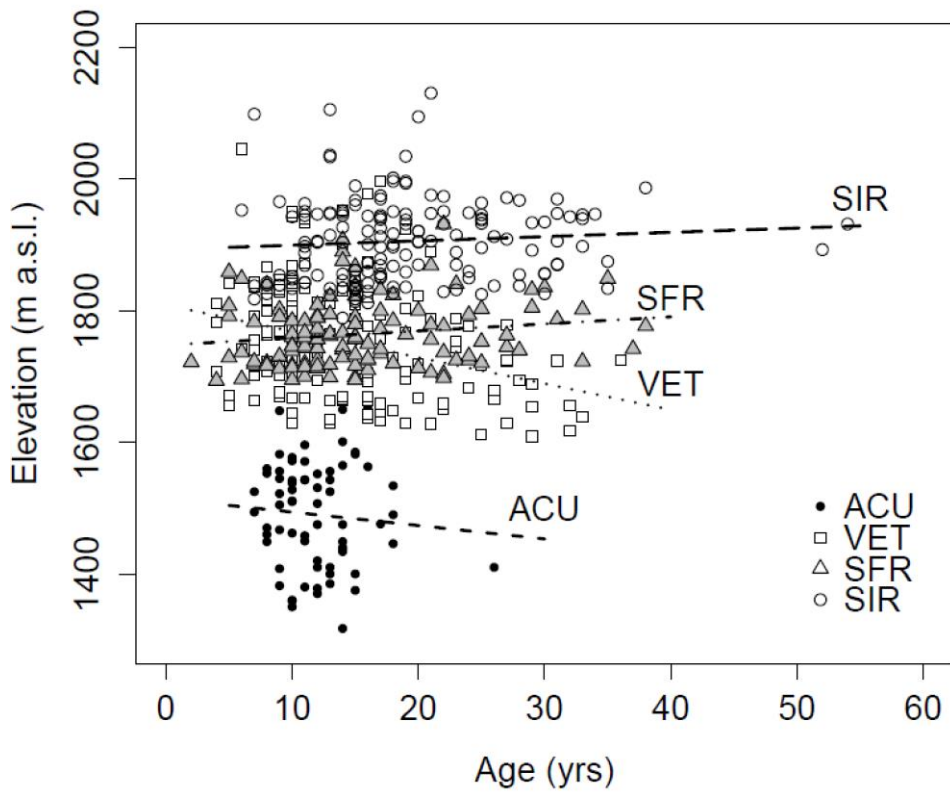
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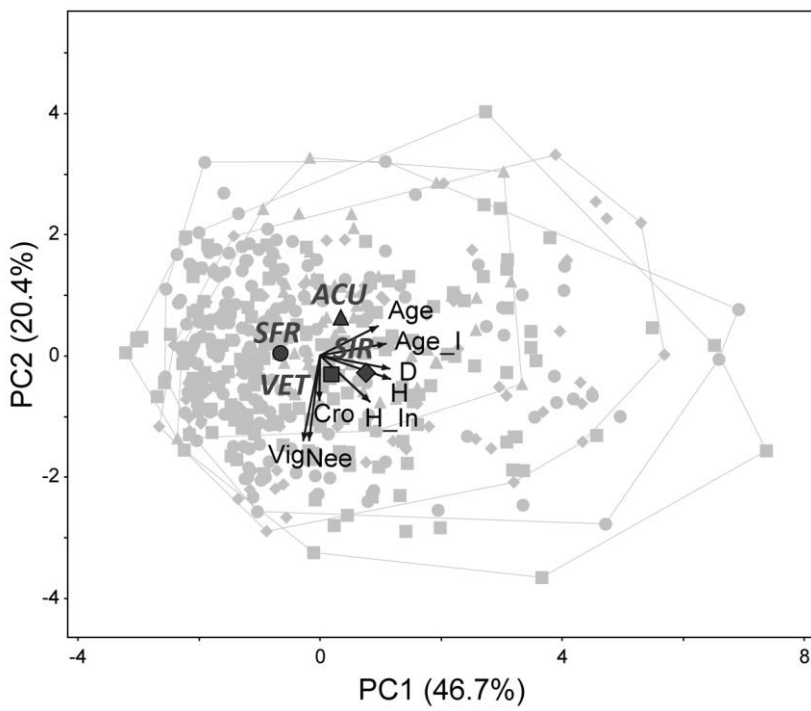
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674 Fig.3



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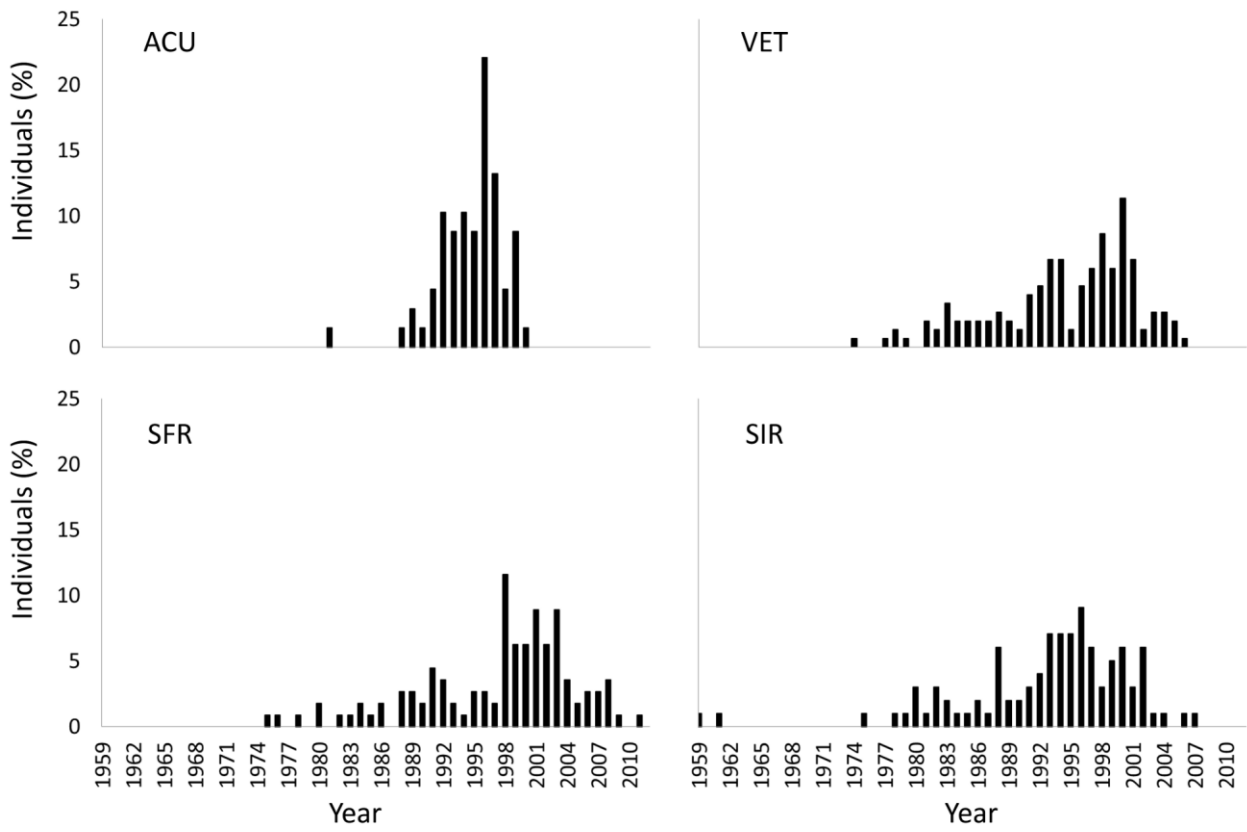
676 Fig.4



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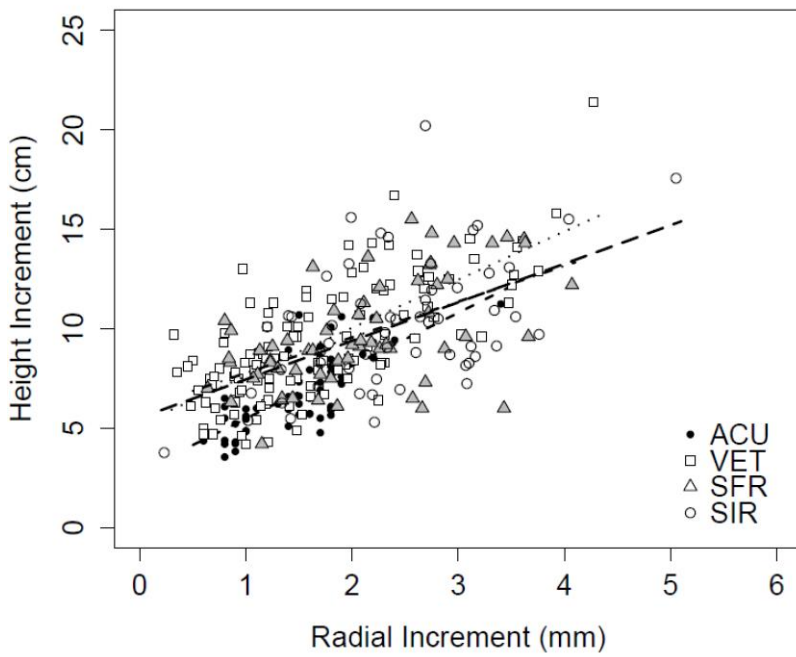
679 Fig.5



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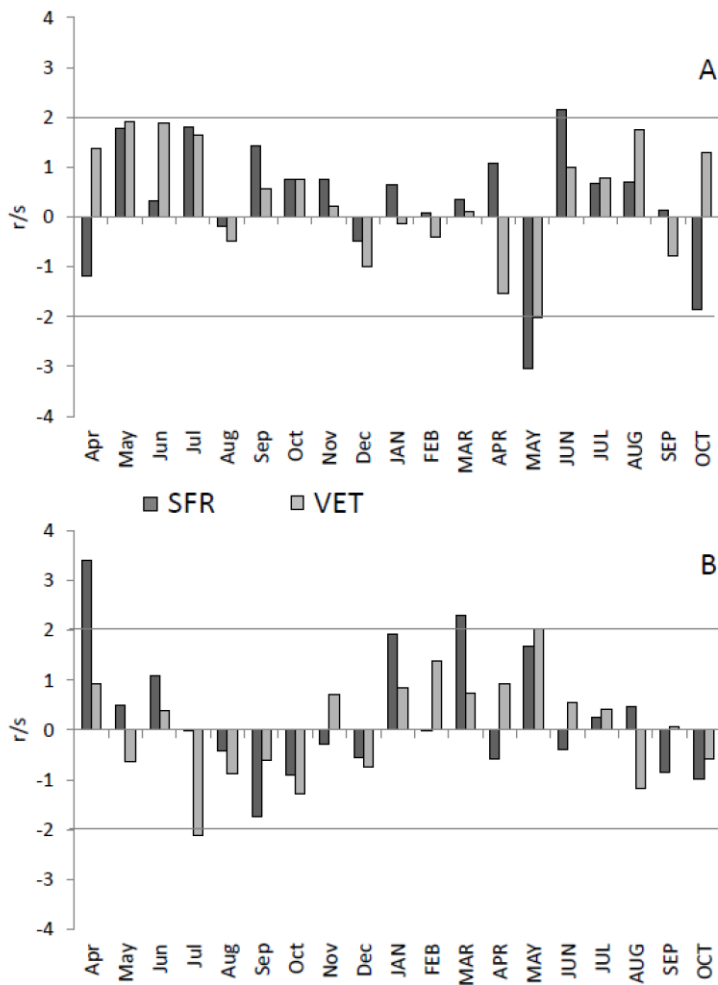
682 Fig.6



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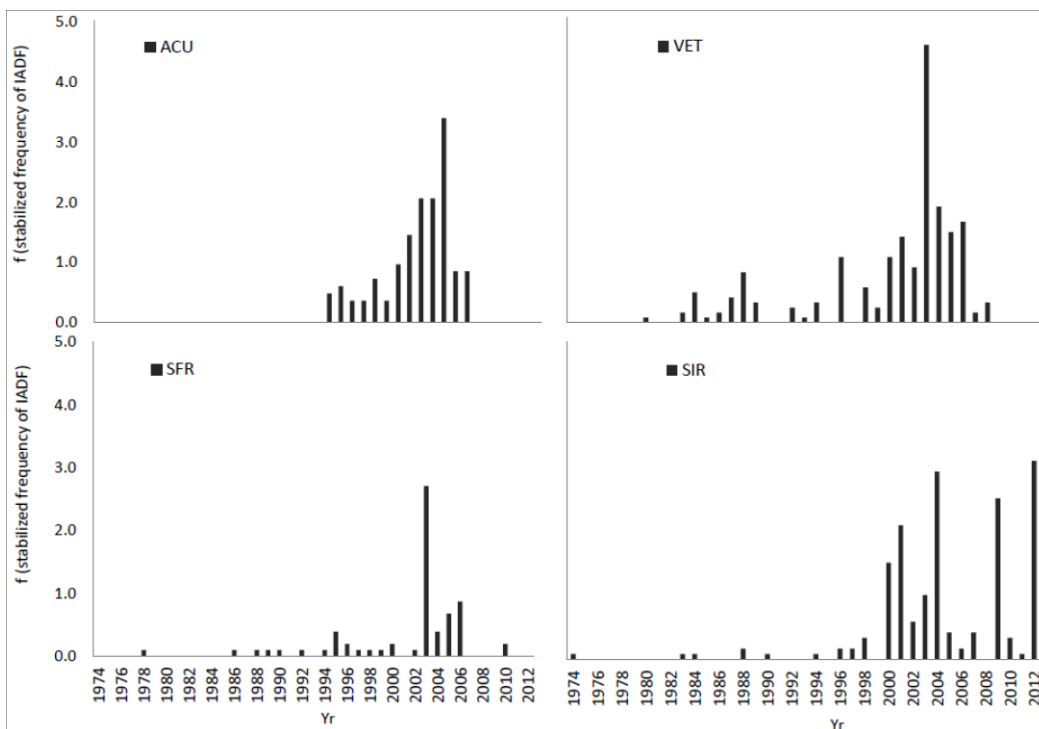
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685 Fig.7



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687 Fig.8



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