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On the 'divergence problem' in northern forests: A review of the tree-ring evidence and possible causes

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2 **On the 'Divergence Problem' in Northern Forests:**

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5 **A Review of the Tree-Ring Evidence and Possible**
6 **Causes**

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1 **Abstract**

2
3 An anomalous reduction in forest growth indices and temperature sensitivity has been
4 detected in tree-ring width and density records from many circumpolar northern latitude
5 sites since around the middle 20th century. This phenomenon, also known as the
6 "divergence problem", is expressed as an offset between warmer instrumental
7 temperatures and their underestimation in reconstruction models based on tree rings. The
8 divergence problem has potentially significant implications for large-scale patterns of
9 forest growth, the development of paleoclimatic reconstructions based on tree-ring
10 records from northern forests, and the global carbon cycle. Herein we review the current
11 literature published on the divergence problem to date, and assess its possible causes and
12 implications. The causes, however, are not well understood and are difficult to test due to
13 the existence of a number of covarying environmental factors that may potentially impact
14 recent tree growth. These possible causes include temperature-induced drought stress,
15 nonlinear thresholds or time-dependent responses to recent warming, delayed snowmelt
16 and related changes in seasonality, and differential growth/climate relationships inferred
17 for maximum, minimum and mean temperatures. Another possible cause of the
18 divergence described briefly herein is 'global dimming', a phenomenon that has
19 appeared, in recent decades, to decrease the amount of solar radiation available for
20 photosynthesis and plant growth on a large scale. It is theorized that the dimming
21 phenomenon should have a relatively greater impact on tree growth at higher northern
22 latitudes, consistent with what has been observed from the tree-ring record. Additional
23 potential causes include "end effects" and other methodological issues that can emerge in
24 standardization and chronology development, and biases in instrumental target data and

1 its modeling. Although limited evidence suggests that the divergence may be
2 anthropogenic in nature and restricted to the recent decades of the 20th century, more
3 research is needed to confirm these observations.

4

5 **Keywords:** Tree Rings, Dendrochronology, Divergence, Paleoclimate, Reconstructions

6

7 **1. Introduction**

8 Tree rings are a critically important proxy for reconstructing the high resolution
9 climate of the past millennium and are the dominant data type in most large scale
10 hemispheric reconstructions [e.g. Mann et al. 1999; Esper et al. 2002; D'Arrigo et al.
11 2006]. The statistical calibration and verification of tree-ring based reconstructions
12 have made the science of dendrochronology perhaps the most rigorous of those available
13 in this regard. Such records are invaluable for placing recent climatic changes in a long-
14 term context, which can aid considerably in the detection of anthropogenic change.

15 A number of recent tree-ring studies have addressed the 'divergence problem' in
16 northern forests. It is defined herein as the tendency for tree growth at some previously
17 temperature-limited northern sites to demonstrate a weakening in mean temperature
18 response in recent decades, with the divergence being expressed as a loss in climate
19 sensitivity and/or a divergence in trend (Jacoby and D'Arrigo 1995, Briffa et al. 1998a
20 and b, Vaganov et al. 1999, Barber et al. 2000, Briffa 2000, Jacoby et al. 2000, Wilson
21 and Luckman 2003, Briffa et al. 2004, D'Arrigo et al. 2004a, Wilmking et al. 2004 and
22 2005, Driscoll et al. 2005, Büntgen et al. 2006). Divergence-related studies have
23 investigated what appears to be a widespread shift in the ecophysiology of tree growth

1 response to climate, at least for many sites within the higher latitudes of the Northern
2 Hemisphere (Briffa et al. 1998a and b). This problem is rather distinct from the forest
3 decline issue identified at many temperate sites beginning in the 1960s, which was
4 determined to be caused by a stress syndrome partly linked to air pollution (e.g., Cook et
5 al. 1987; Wilson and Elling 2004; E. Cook, TRL-LDEO, pers. comm.).

6 Herein we provide an overview of key studies published on the divergence
7 problem to date and describe their varying assessments of the nature, spatial extent and
8 possible causes of shifts in tree growth sensitivity identified in tree-ring data over the
9 recent period. Despite the considerable efforts documented thus far to understand the
10 divergence phenomenon, there is still substantial uncertainty regarding its possible
11 causes. This uncertainty is largely due to the fact that there are a variety of potential
12 environmental forcing factors, both climatic and non-climatic, natural and anthropogenic,
13 that have covaried with each other over the twentieth century and which could potentially
14 impact radial growth in the manner that has been observed. Possible explanations for the
15 divergence which have been proposed by various researchers are reviewed herein, along
16 with discussion of some of the complexities involved in evaluating this problem.
17 Significant implications of the divergence problem are also reviewed, including impacts
18 of this phenomenon on the ability to reconstruct large-scale temperatures from tree rings,
19 and to directly place recent anthropogenic changes in a long-term context with prior
20 natural variations. We also introduce the first attempt to purposely develop a
21 "divergence-free" Northern Hemisphere temperature reconstruction up to 2000 (Wilson
22 et al. submitted.).

1 The paper is organized as follows: **Section 1** provides an introduction to the
2 divergence problem, **Section 2** presents an overview of published case studies which
3 describe evidence of divergence on varying spatial scales, **Section 3** addresses the
4 implications of the divergence on the generation of large-scale temperature
5 reconstructions using tree rings, **Section 4** addresses possible causes of the divergence,
6 and **Section 5** provides the discussion and conclusions.

7

8

9 **2. Tree-Ring Studies of Decreased Temperature Sensitivity**

10

11 **Northwestern North America**

12 Declines in temperature sensitivity (divergence effects) have been described in
13 several local to regional scale studies, the first of which was published only a decade ago
14 in the mid 1990s. A number of these studies focused on tree-ring sites in Alaska and
15 vicinity. For example, Jacoby and D'Arrigo (1995; and see Taubes, 1995), in the first
16 study to note this problem, observed that ring width and maximum latewood density
17 chronologies from elevational and latitudinal treeline white spruce (*Picea glauca*) sites in
18 interior and northern Alaska had a weakened temperature signal in recent decades. They
19 theorized that this weakened response in trees previously limited by temperature might
20 be caused by decreased temperature limitation and related moisture stress due to
21 pronounced recent warming in Alaska (Arendt et al. 2002). In support of this theory, an
22 increased correlation was found with local precipitation data and the Alaskan tree-ring
23 records over recent decades, while precipitation levels also declined during this interval.
24 Consistent with these observations, a time-dependent relationship between tree growth

1 and precipitation (evaluated using the Kalman filter - Visser and Molenaar 1990) first
2 became significant after the 1960s.

3 It is important to note that standard temperature measurements, as obtained from
4 meteorological data are not always sufficient to represent the tree's thermal
5 environment, as trees can integrate the effects of other factors such as soil temperature,
6 soil moisture and insolation (Tranquillini 1979, Kozlowski et al. 1991, Jacoby and
7 D'Arrigo 1995). Declines in soil moisture availability may cause drying out of the active
8 (top) soil layers and root zone, seeping off shallow moisture and contributing to more
9 rapid snow melt and runoff, further enhancing tree growth sensitivity to moisture effects
10 (Jacoby and D'Arrigo 1995).

11 **Figure 1** updates the earlier Jacoby and D'Arrigo (1995) analysis for the whole of
12 Alaska by comparing a large scale composite tree-ring series derived using the Regional
13 Curve Standardization (RCS) method (the mean of CSTA, SEW, NWA, WRA and
14 CNTA, D'Arrigo et al. 2006 - see **Fig. 4B** for locations and full names of these sites) with
15 June-July mean temperatures (**Figs. 1A, B**) and July-August precipitation (**Fig. 1C**)
16 averaged over the region bounded by the latitude/longitude coordinates 60-70°N/170-
17 140°W. These two seasonalized parameters represent the mean optimal response of the
18 Alaskan tree-ring composite series to climate. The relatively high correlations (~0.5 - 0.6)
19 with June-July temperatures in the early 20th century weaken until there is little coherence
20 with temperature in the recent period (**Fig. 1B**). Even if the series are transformed to 1st
21 differences where coherence is marginally greater, this weakening in signal is still
22 observed, with the correlations over the 1910-1969 and 1970-2002 periods being 0.62 (p
23 = 0.0000) and 0.31 ($p = 0.08$) respectively, and is therefore not solely related to trend

1 differences between the time series. Concurrent with this decrease in response to
2 temperature, correlations with precipitation are weakly negative in the early 20th century,
3 but rise until they are significantly positive (~0.3 - 0.4) in the late 20th century. These
4 large scale results for Alaska are consistent with the earlier findings of Jacoby and
5 D'Arrigo (1995; which were based partly on the same tree-ring data but with a common
6 period ending in 1990 rather than ~2000), as well as with some other Alaskan studies
7 cited below (some with overlapping data; including Davi et al. 2003, D'Arrigo et al.
8 2005).

9 In another tree-ring study for Alaska, but utilizing samples taken from sites with
10 differing ecological features, Barber et al. (2000) investigated ring widths (raw
11 measurements and indices), density and isotopic (¹³C) records from 20 closed canopy,
12 productive upland white spruce stands in the interior boreal forest zone of Alaska. At
13 such sites, trees are typically more complacent and less responsive to temperature than at
14 the alpine and latitudinal treeline sites investigated by Jacoby and D'Arrigo (1995).
15 Despite this difference in site type and overall climate sensitivity, Barber et al. (2000)
16 also concluded that temperature-induced drought stress was the cause of divergence at
17 their sites, with the greatest declines in temperature sensitivity found in the faster-
18 growing trees. They based these conclusions on a comparison of their tree-ring data with
19 a climate index of combined temperature and precipitation. This index revealed
20 unprecedented adverse (warm, dry) conditions in interior Alaska in the late 20th century
21 that was believed to have broad applicability for northern boreal forests of western North
22 America. Note that Barber et al. (2000) included raw measurements of tree growth rates,

1 which likely have more direct implications than standardized tree-ring indices for the
2 global carbon cycle and related modeling of large-scale forest growth variability

3 Lloyd and Fastie (2002) found that growth declines were widespread in an
4 analysis of tree-ring records from eight alpine and latitudinal treeline sites in Alaska.
5 After ~1950, warmer temperatures were associated with decreased tree growth in all but
6 the wettest region, the Alaska Range. Negative responses to temperature were found
7 that were widespread across Alaska's boreal forests. Growth declines were more
8 common at the warmer and drier locations, leading these authors to conclude that drought
9 stress may have accompanied the increased warming of these forests in recent decades.
10 D'Arrigo et al. (2004b, 2005) evaluated ring width and density data for the Seward
11 Peninsula, Alaska, a region also studied by Lloyd and Fastie (2002), although overall the
12 trees in the latter data set were considerably younger than in the former. Using correlation
13 and regression analysis, the Seward Peninsula ring width data of D'Arrigo et al. (2005)
14 showed a decline in temperature sensitivity after ~1970. The density data at these same
15 sites (D'Arrigo et al. 2004a) also showed divergence, with a decrease in positive
16 correlation with May-August temperatures beginning around 1950 that became more
17 noticeable after ~1970. This density data set was used to reconstruct Nome, Alaska May-
18 August temperatures (most reliable from ~AD 1630-1970) based on a 1909-1950
19 calibration period. The reconstruction was truncated after 1970 due to the weakened
20 recent signal (D'Arrigo et al. 2004b).

21 Davi et al. (2003) detected a decline in temperature sensitivity and tree growth
22 after ~1970 in ring width data from elevational treeline sites in the Wrangell mountain
23 region of southeastern Alaska. This decline coincided with warming in the instrumental

1 temperature data, and was attributed to probable drought stress for at least one of the sites
2 studied. Partly as a result, a formal temperature reconstruction could not be developed
3 from these ring width data. However, maximum latewood density records from these
4 same sites did not appear to show such a decline, and were used successfully to
5 reconstruct warm season (July-September) temperatures for the region back to AD 1593.

6 Another analysis examined four elevational treeline white spruce ring-width
7 chronologies from sites in the Lake Clark National Park and Preserve on the Alaskan
8 Peninsula, southern Alaska (Driscoll et al. 2005). The climate of this region is strongly
9 influenced by coastal effects related to the Aleutian Low pressure cell and the North
10 Pacific Ocean (Driscoll et al. 2005). Since around the 1940s, annual average temperatures
11 at this location have increased (by $\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) and mean annual precipitation has decreased
12 (by ~ 5 cm). While two of the tree-ring sites displayed an internally consistent, positive
13 growth response to increasing April-July temperatures after 1950, the other two sites each
14 contained two sub-populations showing varying growth responses. In both cases, one
15 subpopulation diverged from historical temperature data after 1950, while the other
16 showed increased growth consistent with recent warming. Driscoll et al. (2005) attributed
17 the growth declines to late growing season temperature-induced drought stress that, due
18 to microsite differences, may only be operating on some of the trees studied (also see
19 discussion of Wilmking et al. 2004, 2005 below). Driscoll et al. (2005) concluded that,
20 due to the existence of possible drought and other (anthropogenic) stresses in recent
21 years, assumptions about the temporal stability of climate response may need to be re-
22 evaluated for many northern sites.

1 A divergence between temperature and tree growth was also investigated at an
2 elevational treeline temperature-sensitive white spruce site (Twisted-Tree-Heartrot Hill;
3 TTHH) in the Yukon Territory, not far from some of the Alaskan sites noted above
4 (D'Arrigo et al. 2004a). The trees at this location, when compared with local climate data
5 for Dawson, Yukon Territory, appeared to have reached a temperature threshold due to
6 recent warming. The positive ring-width/temperature relationship weakened such that a
7 pre-1965 linear model systematically overpredicted tree rings at this site from 1965-1999.
8 A nonlinear model showed an inverted U-shaped relationship between this chronology
9 and summer temperatures. This model was used to compute optimal average
10 temperatures of 12.4°C for July and 10.0°C for August; these two optima were
11 consistently exceeded since the 1960s. The decreased sensitivity and growth decline
12 observed at TTHH were interpreted to signify that tree growth can be negatively affected
13 when temperatures warm beyond a physiological threshold, even at treeline limits
14 (Kramer and Kozlowski 1979, Kozlowski et al. 1991, Hoch and Korner 2003).

15 Here we take the opportunity to expand upon and clarify the interpretation of
16 D'Arrigo et al. (2004a). D'Arrigo et al. (2004a) utilized a version of the Dawson
17 instrumental temperature record that had been adjusted for inhomogeneities (Global
18 Historical Climate Network (GHCN), V. 2; Peterson and Vose 1997). These adjusted
19 data were considered to be more appropriate than unadjusted data, in part because they
20 better reflect the warming trend of the 20th century observed at other stations in this
21 general region (David Easterling, NOAA National Climate Data Center, Lucy Vincent,
22 Environment Canada, pers. comms. 2004). However, the corrected Dawson station data
23 from the Historical Canadian Climate Database (HCCN, Vincent and Gullett, 1999) have

1 less pronounced positive trends than the GHCN version used in D'Arrigo et al. (2004a).
2 **Figure 2** illustrates the differences between these climate records which have been
3 corrected from the same unadjusted data. The apparent disparity between these time
4 series suggests a somewhat more cautious interpretation than that stated by D'Arrigo et
5 al. (2004a). If the HCCN version is closer to reality, then the divergence at the TTHH
6 site would still be present but considerably weakened, and the estimates of threshold
7 optima would need to be modified accordingly. However, the overall conclusion would
8 still be the same: i.e. that there is a divergence between tree growth and temperature at
9 this site in the recent period (D'Arrigo et al. 2004a). This analysis helps illustrate an
10 important consideration in evaluating tree growth response to climate and potential
11 divergence: i.e. that in the far north, meteorological stations are typically sparse and
12 short, and often located some distance from, and at different (typically lower) elevations
13 than the tree-ring sites. Differences in elevation are important because they can cause
14 decoupling of climatic conditions at the tree and meteorological sites, making
15 comparisons difficult. There can also be difficulties with homogenization since there are
16 typically few meteorological records available from a given region for comparison.
17 Thus, it can be hard to generate reliable local tree-climate models in many northern areas
18 due to the lack of good climatic data near the tree locations.

19 Wilson and Luckman (2003) detected a decrease in sensitivity of both ring-width
20 and maximum density upper treeline chronologies in the southern Canadian Cordillera.
21 They noted also, however, significant differences in trend between summer mean
22 (Tmean), maximum (Tmax) and minimum (Tmin) temperatures in the region over the
23 last few decades with a greater absolute rate of increase in mean and minimum

1 temperatures. They therefore developed a superior reconstruction of maximum
2 temperatures (versus mean temperatures) which showed no loss of sensitivity or
3 divergence in the recent period. They hypothesized that in general, trees from
4 temperature limited environments (i.e. upper and high latitudinal treelines) may be more
5 strongly influenced by summer daytime temperatures than night-time temperatures.
6 Therefore, in regions where there is a marked difference in trend between nighttime and
7 daytime temperatures, there could be resulting calibration problems if mean temperatures
8 are the focus predictand data set. **The consideration of Tmax, Tmean and Tmin,**
9 **which can themselves covary with both cloud cover/available radiation and**
10 **precipitation for a particular location, is one example of how multiple varying**
11 **environmental factors impact tree growth, and how the impacts of such factors can**
12 **be difficult to tease apart.** Youngblut and Luckman (in press), for an area to the south
13 of TTHH (the site studied by D'Arrigo et al. 2004a), have partly tested the hypothesis of
14 Wilson and Luckman (2003) by developing a reconstruction of summer maximum
15 temperatures that shows no loss of temperature sensitivity in the tree-ring width records.
16 They suggested that this difference from the TTHH site discussed above may be
17 explained by a weaker warming trend at their southwest Yukon study sites compared to
18 locations further north.

19

20 **Eurasian Continent and Vicinity**

21 Temperature-sensitive chronologies have been developed from larch (*Larix spp.*
22) trees on the Taymir Peninsula, Siberia, the northernmost conifers on the globe (Jacoby
23 et al. 2000). These trees exhibited a loss of thermal response of ring widths since ~ 1970,

1 and tree-ring/climate regression models were weakened if they included data from 1971-
2 1989. Calibration and verification models were thus truncated in 1970 for the Jacoby et
3 al. (2000) analysis. The Taymir trees were, however, found to be reliable recorders of
4 temperature prior to 1970. A reconstruction based on the Taymir tree-ring data indicates
5 significant warming in the middle 20th century, consistent with meteorological records
6 for the region (Jacoby et al. 2000). Another long ring width chronology from the Taymir
7 Peninsula does not, however, describe any divergence from temperatures, based on a
8 recent review of tree-ring data from this region (Naurzbaev et al. 2002). However, these
9 latter authors do state that, since the 1960s, the warming seen in Northern Hemisphere
10 temperatures is absent in their reconstructed Taymir temperature record (although this
11 may simply reflect a difference between local and large-scale temperature trends).

12 Using a data set of tree-ring width and density chronologies from the Siberian
13 Arctic combined with a mechanistic model of tree growth, Vaganov et al. (1999)
14 identified a link between decreased temperature sensitivity and an increasing trend in
15 winter precipitation since the 1960s. They concluded that this positive trend resulted in
16 delayed melting of snowpack and a delayed growing season, and that these delays could
17 explain the divergence they observed in these trees. This shift may have resulted in
18 slower growth rates and reduced temperature-tree growth correlations. Vaganov et al.
19 (1999) suggested that such changes in winter precipitation should be considered a
20 possible cause for shifts in the timing of spring greening of high latitude forests observed
21 in remote sensing vegetation data (e.g., Myneni et al. 1997) and for the changing role of
22 the Siberian subarctic forests in the global carbon cycle. This study illustrates the point

1 that changes in seasonality and non-linear interactions between tree growth and climate
2 variables must be considered in evaluating recent growth changes.

3 The recent portion of an 896-year composite Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) tree-
4 ring width chronology based on 208 living and historic wood samples from three
5 subalpine valleys in the Swiss Alps was shown to have an unstable response to
6 temperature and precipitation (Büntgen et al. 2006). These findings were based on
7 moving 51-year correlations with long instrumental temperature data dating back to 1760,
8 and precipitation data dating back to 1858. Along with other subalpine spruce
9 chronologies for the region (e.g., Frank and Esper 2005, Büntgen et al. 2006), these
10 shifts in response were thought to indicate increased late-summer drought stress,
11 coincident with recent warming trends. While significant similarities were found between
12 this chronology and regional and large-scale temperature reconstructions for the centuries
13 prior to ~1900, the relationship with large-scale temperatures in the 20th century is
14 weakly negative (Büntgen et al. 2006). By comparison, an increasing response to
15 precipitation was observed over the 1858-2002 common period, particularly during warm
16 intervals. Due to this mixed signal, a dendroclimatic reconstruction could not be
17 developed (Büntgen et al. 2006). It should be noted that Wilson and Topham (2004)
18 developed a 500-year high elevation spruce summer temperature proxy for the Bavarian
19 Forest/Austrian Alps region which expressed no sensitivity decrease in the recent period,
20 suggesting that the results of Büntgen et al. (2006) may be regionally specific. In addition
21 to drought stress, Büntgen et al. (2006) suggested that cloud cover changes, temperature-
22 related threshold effects or trend differences between minimum, maximum and mean
23 temperatures were possible contributing factors. These authors noted that other, non-

1 spruce chronologies for the region tend to show more stable correlations during the 20th
2 century, one indication that there are likely to be species-specific differences in response
3 to divergence-related factors. Büntgen et al. (2006) did not, however, consider pollution
4 effects, despite Wilson and Elling (2004) showing productivity loss and climate/growth
5 response change related to local SO₂ emissions in low elevation spruce and fir
6 chronologies in the neighboring Bavarian Forest. However, this latter study was not
7 strictly a divergence issue *per se*. as the low elevation tree-ring chronologies were
8 interpreted as precipitation proxies. However, the study did highlight the potential
9 influence of anthropogenic pollution on tree response to climate that needs to be also
10 considered when addressing the 'divergence problem'.

11 Long-term changes in climate sensitivity were identified for elevational treeline
12 *Larix decidua* (European larch) sites in northern Italy, when these ring width
13 chronologies were compared to long climate records available from 1800-1999 (Carrer
14 and Urbinati 2006). Correlation and response function analyses were used to assess
15 consistency over time in the climate-growth relationships at these sites. Carrer and
16 Urbinati (2006) found significant, time-dependent shifts in climate sensitivity between
17 the 19th vs. 20th centuries, and suggested that these shifts could represent a deviation
18 from the uniformitarian principle traditionally applied to dendroclimatology. 20th century
19 warming was believed to trigger a shift in temperature sensitivity via a type of threshold
20 mechanism, as described elsewhere (e.g. D'Arrigo et al. 2004a, Wilmking et al. 2004,
21 2005; and see below). However, the climatic shifts described in Carrer and Urbinati
22 (2006) are not necessarily a general feature of tree growth in the European Alps (e.g.,
23 Wilson and Topham 2004, Frank and Esper 2005, Büntgen et al. 2006, in press-a). Other

1 studies that have identified dynamic, time-dependent shifts in tree growth response to
2 climate (although not necessarily declines in overall climate sensitivity per se) include
3 Solberg et al. (2002) and, for North America, Biondi (2000).

4 A weakened temperature sensitivity in ring-width data from Hinoki cypress
5 (*Chamaecyparis obtusa*) trees in central Japan was observed after ~1962 (Yonenobu and
6 Eckstein 2006). They were unable to verify their temperature/tree growth model after this
7 time, as no significant correlations were found in the post-1962 period. However, they
8 did develop a reconstruction for early spring (Feb-Apr) temperatures based on an earlier
9 (1900-61) period of calibration. Similar to results by Wilson and Elling (2004),
10 Yonenobu and Eckstein (2006) suggested that anthropogenic SO₂ emissions might be the
11 cause of the divergence at this location, and perhaps for other sites in Japan as well.
12 Elsewhere in Asia, Brauning and Mantwill (2004) found a weakened climate signal over
13 recent decades in a density data set for Tibet, one of the few such data sets for this
14 parameter for lower latitudes, and suggested that this weakening in response might have
15 resulted from divergence-related factors.

17 **Large-Scale Hemispheric Studies**

18 In an analysis of eight selected tree-ring sites across the circumpolar northern
19 latitudes, Wilmking et al. (2005) determined that individual cores from each of these sites
20 could be sorted into groups of positive and negative "responders" with regards to their
21 direction of response to recent temperature trends. They suggested that this disparity
22 might be due to microsite factors (e.g., slope, aspect, depth to permafrost) that cause
23 some trees to be more drought-stressed than others, even those from the same site (see

1 also Driscoll et al. 2005). The negative responders were negatively correlated (or only
2 weakly positively correlated) to recent warming, likely due to moisture stress, whereas
3 the positive responders still reacted as expected to warmer temperatures. Thus, they
4 argued that screening of cores has the advantage of potentially enhancing the common
5 climatic signal of interest at a given site, which is an ultimate goal of dendroclimatology
6 (e.g., Esper et al. 2003). Pisaric et al. (2006) utilized similar methods to explain recent
7 growth trends and intrasite differences in the Mackenzie Delta region of Canada.

8 In the largest-scale analysis yet conducted to examine the extent of the divergence
9 problem in northern forests, a data set of over 300 tree-ring width and density records
10 from across the circumpolar northern latitudes was examined by Briffa et al. (1998a and
11 b, 2004). Although not strictly from treeline sites, these data were considered to
12 represent cool, moist locations in the northern boreal forests. Divergence became
13 widespread across this region beginning in the second half of the 20th century (Briffa et
14 al. 1998a and b). Although also present in the ring width data, divergence was most
15 clearly evident in the density data. These authors stressed that the apparent large-scale
16 nature of the decline requires a large-scale explanation, and proposed recent changes in
17 levels of ozone and ultraviolet (UV-B) radiation, or solar radiation, as possible causes
18 (Briffa et al. 1998a and b; and see Bradley and Jones 1992). This topic is addressed more
19 fully below (see **Section 4, Causes**).

20 This section presented an overview of key studies regarding the divergence
21 problem that has recently been identified in formerly temperature-sensitive northern tree-
22 ring data for North America and Eurasia ranging in spatial scales from individual sites to
23 the circumpolar Arctic, IDespite these various cited efforts, additional physiological

1 and other analyses are needed to improve our understanding of the complex interactions
2 between climate and environmental/biological factors (e.g., genetics, soil moisture
3 availability, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations) that can impact photosynthesis and tree
4 growth on individual tree, site and larger spatial scales. These studies also illustrate that
5 one must consider non-linearities, threshold effects and time-varying aspects of growth
6 response to climate and forcing with regards to the divergence issue (e.g., Jacoby and
7 D'Arrigo 1995, D'Arrigo et al. 2004a, Wilmking et al. 2004; 2005; Carrer and Urbinati
8 2006). Much more work is needed in this regard.

9 10 **3. Implications for Hemispheric-Scale Proxy Temperature** 11 **Reconstructions**

12
13 The divergence problem has important consequences for the utilization of tree-
14 ring records from temperature-limited boreal sites in hemispheric-scale proxy
15 temperature reconstructions (Jones et al. 1998, Mann et al. 1999, Briffa 2000, Briffa et al.
16 2001, Esper et al. 2002, Cook et al. 2004a, Moberg et al. 2005, D'Arrigo et al. 2006,
17 Hegerl et al. 2006). The principal difficulty is that the divergence disallows the direct
18 calibration of tree growth indices with instrumental temperature data over recent decades
19 (the period of greatest warmth over the last 150 years), impeding the use of such data in
20 climatic reconstructions. Consequently, when such data are included, a bias is imparted
21 during the calibration period in the generation of the regression coefficients. Residuals
22 from such regression analyses should thus be assessed for biases related to divergence, as
23 this bias can result in an overestimation of past temperatures and an underestimation of
24 the relative magnitude of recent warming (Briffa et al. 1998a and b).

1 As a result of the divergence problem, attempts to directly estimate large-scale
2 temperatures for the recent period in dendroclimatic reconstructions have generally not
3 been successful (Briffa et al. 1998a and b, Briffa 2000, Briffa et al. 2001, Esper et al.
4 2002, D'Arrigo et al. 2006, see **Figure 3**). The inability of many reconstruction models
5 to verify in the recent period has compelled a number of researchers to eliminate recent
6 decades from their calibration modeling, effectively shortening the available periods for
7 direct calibration and verification testing between tree rings and climate (e.g., Briffa et al.
8 2001, Cook et al. 2004a, Rutherford et al. 2005, D'Arrigo et al. 2006). Another
9 alternative is to use an empirical correction for the divergence effect (e.g., Briffa 1992,
10 Osborn et al. submitted, *Global and Planetary Change*). Compounding the problem is that
11 many of the tree-ring records available for use in such reconstructions have been sampled
12 at different times over the past few decades, so that their common period does not extend
13 through to the present. This results in weaker replication of the recent period, just when
14 stronger replication is most needed to address the divergence issue. Updating of these
15 chronologies, many of which are from remote locations, is ongoing but requires
16 considerable effort and resources. These difficulties serve to impede a robust comparison
17 of recent warming during the anthropogenic period with past natural climate episodes
18 such as the Medieval Warm Period or MWP (Esper et al. 2005).

19 Any theory seeking to explain the observed divergence of northern forests (see
20 **Section 4, Causes**, below) will need to account for the absence of decreased climate
21 sensitivity at some northern tree-ring sites. One notable example is a millennial-length
22 tree-ring width record of Siberian pine (*Pinus sibirica*) from Mongolia (Sol Dav), which
23 demonstrates a pronounced positive response to warming in recent decades (Jacoby et al.

1 1996, D'Arrigo et al. 2001). The trees at Sol Dav, based on ecological considerations and
2 comparisons with instrumental temperatures, do not appear to be sensitive to moisture
3 stress (but see Wilmking et al. 2005, who identified, for Sol Dav, a small subset of cores
4 with a weaker temperature signal and less positive recent trend). A few more recently
5 generated chronologies for Mongolia do show limited evidence of decreased sensitivity
6 (Jacoby et al. submitted, *Quat. Res.*). It should also be noted that Mongolia lies south of
7 the zone of greatest divergence indicated by Briffa et al. (1998a and b). Other published
8 examples of temperature-sensitive tree-ring records that do not appear to show evidence
9 of divergence or loss of sensitivity are: Szeicz and MacDonald (1994); Biondi et al.
10 (1999); Kirchhefer (2001); Wilson and Luckman (2002); Cook et al. (2003); Wilson and
11 Topham (2004); Salzer and Kipfmueller (2005); Büntgen et al. (2005, and in press, a and
12 b); Frank and Esper (2005b); Wilson et al. (2007); Youngblut and Luckman (in press).
13 There are also additional studies that indicate increases in forest growth productivity and
14 radial growth in some areas of Europe (Rolland et al. 1998, Spiecker 1999).

15 Perhaps one of the main problems with many existing millennial length tree-ring
16 based reconstructions of Northern Hemisphere temperatures is that a number of their
17 constituent chronologies show divergence against local temperatures in the recent period
18 and therefore, it is not surprising that some divergence is noted during calibration of
19 Northern Hemisphere temperatures. **Figure 3** presents three mainly ring-width based
20 reconstructions (Briffa 2000; Esper et al. 2002; D'Arrigo et al. 2006) of extra-tropical NH
21 temperatures after they had been scaled to the instrumental data. Divergence is noted
22 after the mid 1980s in each record, although the degree of underestimation is variable
23 between the series. The series, generated using the RCS detrending method (Briffa 2000,

1 Esper et al. 2002 and D'Arrigo et al. 2006), better track the increasing trend in the
2 instrumental data (1970-1992 - $0.28^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{decade}$) at $\sim 0.20^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{decade}$, compared to, for
3 example, the more traditionally detrended (STD) version of D'Arrigo et al. (2006) which
4 barely shows any trend over this period. This difference may be related to an end effect
5 bias from the detrending of the raw tree-ring data (Melvin 2004; and see Causes below).

6 Wilson et al. (submitted) hypothesized that the use of "divergence-free"
7 chronologies (at local/regional scales) may be the only way to develop large-scale, valid
8 temperature reconstructions through the recent period. **Figure 5** presents a new
9 temperature reconstruction for the Northern Hemisphere (hereafter WNH2006) that
10 utilizes 15 (see **Figure 4A** for locations) tree-ring based proxy series that express no
11 divergence effects, based on modeling with local gridded data (Wilson et al. submitted).
12 WNH2006 extends from 1750-2000, is completely independent from previous Northern
13 Hemisphere temperature reconstructions (i.e. no data overlap), and was developed
14 exclusively to test whether a "divergence-free" Northern Hemisphere temperature
15 reconstruction could be derived if appropriate unbiased (i.e. showing no divergence at the
16 local scale) tree-ring proxies were used. It should be noted, however, that this
17 "divergence-free" reconstruction includes sites at lower latitudes than the more typically
18 northern treeline locations used in previous reconstructions (**Fig. 4**). WNH2006 models
19 recent warming reasonably well, a general improvement upon earlier reconstruction
20 attempts (**Fig. 3**), but despite the warmest decade in the series being 1989-1998, it still
21 underestimates temperature values over the recent period. Between 1970 and 2000, the
22 linear increase in instrumental temperatures is $0.32^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{decade}$ (**Fig. 5**), compared with
23 $0.18^{\circ}\text{C} / \text{decade}$ in WNH2006. Wilson et al. (submitted) discuss many possible reasons

1 why it is so difficult to track recent trends in large scale temperatures, even when using
2 tree-ring series that express no divergence at the local/regional scale, and suggest that (1)
3 more data and sites are needed, (2) care must be taken in identifying the optimal target
4 seasonal parameter (i.e. annual vs. summer) and (3) that further work needs to explore the
5 hypothesis (see earlier) that calibration should target maximum daytime temperatures
6 (Wilson and Luckman 2003). If WNH2006 is calibrated against extra-tropical (20-90°N)
7 May-August maximum temperatures, no divergence is noted over the recent period
8 (Wilson et al. submitted).

9 Other important issues to consider in evaluating the divergence problem are
10 whether or not this phenomenon is unprecedented over the past millennium, and to what
11 extent it is spatially constrained to northern latitude (boreal) forests. A recent analysis by
12 Cook et al. (2004a) suggests that the divergence is restricted to the recent period and is
13 unique over the past thousand years. It is thus likely to be anthropogenic in origin. Cook
14 et al. (2004a) utilized a fourteen chronology ring width data set used previously to model
15 low-frequency temperature variability for the past millennium (Esper et al. 2002). The
16 data from these fourteen sites were split into northern (eight boreal sites, 55-70°N), and
17 southern (six temperate sites, 30-55°N) groups. While the northern group, which broadly
18 corresponds to the region considered most sensitive to divergence by Briffa et al. (1998a
19 and b), shows a significant recent downturn, the southern group does not and is more
20 consistent with recent warming trends. Prior to recent decades, the subgroups track each
21 other reasonably well back in time until around the MWP, when replication and sample
22 size are relatively low and the reconstructed temperatures are less certain. Thus, Cook et
23 al. (2004a) concluded that at no time prior to the 20th century (at least until the MWP)

1 was there a separation between the north and south groups that was at all comparable to
2 that found after around 1950. One caveat, however, is that these analyses were based on a
3 rather small number of tree-ring records. Another is that the southern group included tree-
4 ring data that may contain a purported CO₂ fertilization signal (e.g., LaMarche et al.
5 1984, Graybill and Idso 1993). If present, such a signal might impart an exaggerated
6 estimate of the extent of north vs. south growth divergence. However, the existence of a
7 CO₂ fertilization signal remains very uncertain at present. Note also that the Sol Dav,
8 Mongolia record, which shows evidence of pronounced recent warming (see above), was
9 included in the southern group. Furthermore, end effect issues (see elsewhere in this
10 study) can also complicate an exercise such as this one. One final point of note is that
11 greater uncertainty exists in the earlier part of this record, and in other reconstructions,
12 during the MWP, when sample size and replication are typically low (Cook et al. 2004a,
13 D'Arrigo et al. 2006). Previously, Briffa et al. (1998a) conducted a similar analysis of
14 their large-scale tree-ring data set for northern latitudes. As found by Cook et al. (2004a),
15 Briffa et al. (1998a) discovered less divergence in the more southern regions, with
16 declines in common variance with temperature of 5-12% vs. over 30% for some northern
17 regions. Some of these more southern sites may have been less temperature-limited than
18 those at the very limits of survival at treeline. Considerably more such research is needed,
19 however, before we can conclude unequivocally that the recently observed divergence
20 phenomenon is unique over the past thousand years.

21

22 **4. Possible Causes of Tree Growth Divergence**

1 We have discussed a number of factors that can potentially impact climate
2 sensitivity on local to regional scales and cause or simulate divergence effects (e.g.,
3 *Moisture stress*: Jacoby and D'Arrigo 1995, Barber et al 2000, Lloyd and Fastie 2002,
4 Büntgen et al. 2006; *Complex non-linear or threshold responses*: Vaganov et al. 1999,
5 D'Arrigo et al. 2004a; *Local pollution*: Wilson and Elling 2004, Yonenobu and Eckstein
6 2006, *Differential response to maximum and minimum temperatures*: Wilson and
7 Luckman 2002, 2003, Youngblut and Luckman (in press); and *Detrending end effects*
8 Melvin 2004; see below) . The observation that the divergence phenomenon appears
9 confined to recent decades strongly suggests an anthropogenic cause (Cook et al. 2004a).
10 Its widespread nature may also imply a cause that is hemispheric to global in scale,
11 possibly related to (likely anthropogenic) air pollution effects (Briffa et al. 1998a and b).
12 Focusing on their density data set for circumpolar northern latitudes, Briffa et al. (2004)
13 proposed that falling stratospheric ozone concentration is a possible cause of the
14 divergence, since this observed ozone decline has been linked to an increased incidence
15 of ultraviolet (UV-B) radiation at the ground. They cited limited, experimental evidence
16 (e.g., Tevini 1994) of a deleterious impact of enhanced UV-B radiation on the
17 photosynthetic process of some higher plants that may result in decreased tree
18 productivity (Briffa et al. 1998a and b, 2004). They performed what they referred to as a
19 preliminary investigation of the potential role of stratospheric ozone in the recent density
20 changes. Satellite ozone data since 1979 demonstrated a decline over the entire land area
21 north of 40°N, but with large interannual variability. Briffa et al. (2004) correlated these
22 ozone data with residuals from regression analyses of the density data with instrumental
23 temperatures, and found marginally significant correlations for some northern regions.

1 However, as they note, these results are far from conclusive and more research is needed
2 if a definitive ozone-tree growth link is to be established.

3
4 Another possible cause of the divergence, which may be taking place in concert
5 with the decline in ozone and other anthropogenic related changes mentioned previously,
6 is global dimming (Abakumova et al. 1996, Gilgen et al. 1998, Stanhill and Cohen 2001,
7 Liepert 2002). Here we briefly examine the possibility that the divergence problem is at
8 least partly caused by this phenomenon, but note that this topic will be addressed more
9 fully elsewhere. Global dimming is defined as a measured decline in solar radiation
10 reaching the ground, which has been observed since the beginning of routine
11 measurements over approximately the past half century (Stanhill and Cohen 2001). The
12 identified causes are a combination of cloud changes and air
13 pollution (e.g., Russak 1990, Liepert 2002). The combination of more
14 cloud water and more aerosols effectively decreases incoming
15 solar radiation (Cohen et al. 2004, Liepert et al., 2004). It is estimated
16 that the average amount of sunlight reaching the ground has
17 declined by 4-6% over 1961-1990, although the estimated effects can
18 vary from region to region (Stanhill and Cohen 2001, Liepert 2002, Che
19 et al. 2005), and there can be considerable disagreement between
20 instrumental measurements at the ground and satellite estimates of
21 surface solar radiation (e.g. Xia et al. 2006). A decline in solar
22 radiation of this magnitude can potentially have a profound impact
23 on climate, the hydrological cycle (Liepert et al. 2004), and
24 ecosystems worldwide (Stanhill and Cohen 2001).

1 Dimming affects the full spectrum of solar radiation,
2 including those wavelengths critically important for
3 photosynthesis and plant growth (Tranquilini 1979, Kozlowski et al.
4 1991). Although termed global, the changes in solar radiation
5 associated with dimming nevertheless appear to be highly variable in
6 spatial extent, magnitude and even sign. Continuous data sets are not
7 available for many locations, and are missing from many areas of the tropics and
8 Southern Hemisphere. There has been some indication of a recovery since around 1990
9 (Wild et al. 2005, 2007) due to efforts to reduce air pollution in industrialized countries.
10 This recovery (termed "brightening") indicates a slowing down or leveling off of air
11 pollution growth rates. Although this recovery is not present at all locations, it indicates
12 that the dimming has not continued to decline globally.

13 There is some support for the theory that dimming may have its greatest impact
14 on tree growth at northern latitudes, where the greatest decline in tree-growth/temperature
15 sensitivity has been observed. For example, Stanhill and Cohen (2001) analyzed an
16 Arctic data base that showed a highly significant ($p < 0.0001$) annual reduction of 3.7%
17 per decade in solar radiation at many Arctic sites in North America, Scandinavia and
18 Eastern Siberia. A related consideration is that Arctic haze, especially in winter
19 and spring, can lead to persistent incursions of polluted air due to
20 the stable climate of high northern latitudes. The attenuation of
21 sunlight by aerosol particles increases with the increasing path of
22 the sunlight at higher zenith angle in the north. Such concentrated
23 pollution can thus lead to significant radiative forcing and impacts
24 on ecosystems in far northern areas (Stanhill and Cohen 2001).

1 Additional support of the dimming theory as a cause of the divergence is that
2 northern forests are stressed not only by low temperatures per se, but by a short
3 growing season. In fact, the season of radial growth can be as short
4 as four weeks at some northern sites (e.g., Giddings 1941), although
5 more recent satellite and other observations suggest greening and
6 possibly an increase in length of the growing season in many
7 northern areas (e.g. Myneni et al. 1997). Thus, such (relatively
8 cloudy) forests may be some of the most light-limited on the globe
9 and hence the most sensitive to impacts of decreasing solar
10 radiation (e.g., Stanhill and Cohen 2001). By contrast, light is not as
11 typically limiting to plant growth at lower latitudes and many
12 areas of the Southern Hemisphere. In these latter locations,
13 photosynthesis and plant growth are more likely to be limited by
14 factors other than solar radiation, and light levels would need to
15 decline substantially to cause a measurable shift in growth and
16 climate response (Stanhill and Cohen 2001). In more drought-prone
17 regions where plant productivity is limited by moisture stress, small
18 declines in solar radiation may have little or no impact on growth
19 relative to the moister, cooler forests in the far north, as decreases
20 in solar radiation can actually benefit tree growth via decreased
21 water use and evapotranspiration (Stanhill and Cohen 2001). Such
22 considerations may help explain why the divergence appears to be
23 concentrated primarily at temperature-limited northern sites, even

1 if such hemispheric to global scale phenomena as dimming or ozone
2 and associated cloud effects turn out to be the primary causes.

3 There can also be methodologically-induced uncertainties due to the type of
4 standardization and chronology development applied (e.g., composite vs. individual
5 detrending, use of power transformation, etc.) and calibration method and period used.
6 Such so-called "end effect" issues can introduce uncertainties in evaluating tree growth
7 variations over recent decades (Cook and Peters 1997). It has been suggested that end
8 effects resulting from the detrending process in tree-ring standardization may exaggerate
9 recent growth declines in tree-ring chronologies and reconstructions (e.g., D'Arrigo et al.
10 2004a), and estimates of the magnitude of divergence, mainly at local scales (see Melvin
11 2004 for a detailed discussion of these and related topics; K. Briffa and T. Melvin,
12 Climatic Research Unit, pers. comm., 2006). Trees from different age classes can also
13 vary in their response to environmental factors (Szeicz and MacDonald 1994). Another
14 complication is that there may be an upward bias in surface
15 thermometer temperature measurements in recent years related to
16 heat island effects (Hoyt 2006). There can also be biases in
17 identifying optimal target seasons for modeling of tree growth and
18 climate (D. Frank, WSL, pers. comm. 2006). Other uncertainties, as
19 noted earlier, relate to the quality (e.g., raw vs. homogenized and
20 rural vs. urban) and quantity (sparseness) of instrumental station
21 measurements in areas where many of the tree-ring sites affected by
22 divergence are located (mainly at remote high northern latitudes
23 or high elevations).

24

1

2 **5. Discussion and Conclusions**

3

4 We have presented an overview of the currently available
5 literature regarding the divergence problem observed in tree rings
6 over recent decades. This phenomenon has been described on a range
7 of spatial scales, and appears to be largely confined to northern
8 forests (e.g., Briffa et al. 1998a, Cook et al. 2004a). However, the
9 relative scarcity of ring width and density records from the lower
10 mid latitudes, tropics and Southern Hemisphere precludes making
11 definitive conclusions about the spatial extent of this phenomenon,
12 and more research is needed to more fully evaluate the extent of
13 the divergence problem worldwide. Some studies show a greater
14 divergence effect in data based on the density parameter (e.g., Briffa
15 et al. 1998a and b), and, in a few smaller scale studies (e.g., for
16 Alaska), there may be a greater effect, or at least a comparable
17 effect, on ring width (e.g., Jacoby and D'Arrigo 1995, Davi et al. 2003,
18 D'Arrigo et al. 2004b, 2005). Other studies show no divergence at all
19 (e.g., Szeicz and MacDonald 1994, Jacoby et al. 1996, Biondi et al. 1999, D'Arrigo et al.
20 2000 and 2001, Kirchhefer 2001, Wilson and Luckman 2002, Cook et al. 2003, Davi et
21 al. 2003 (for density), Wilson and Topham 2004, Frank and Esper 2005b, Salzer and
22 Kipfmüller 2005, Büntgen et al. 2006, in press a and b, Wilson et al. (2007) Youngblut
23 and Luckman (in press)). Note however that some of these cited studies
24 are not strictly based on data from the far north. Other more

1 southern, drought-stressed sites also do not show evidence of
2 divergence - e.g., Cook et al. (2004b). The density parameter may be particularly
3 sensitive to changes in solar radiation (e.g., dimming), as appears to be the case following
4 volcanic events (e.g., Jones et al. 1995). Alternatively, density variations may reflect
5 non-linear response to cooler conditions at the end of the growing season (Neuwirth et al.
6 2004). The relative scarcity of density data sets as compared to ring
7 width (but see Briffa et al. 1998a) precludes a more definitive
8 evaluation of the differential response of these two parameters to
9 divergence effects. This is particularly the case for lower
10 latitudes (one exception is Brauning and Mantwill 2004).

11 There has been expressed concern that the divergence problem
12 challenges the uniformitarianism assumption in tree rings (e.g., National Research
13 Council 2006). However, if the divergence is in fact anthropogenic in origin then it will
14 only directly impact reconstructions within the past few decades. Some evidence suggests
15 that this is the case, and that the divergence is limited, and unique to this recent period
16 (Briffa et al. 1998a, Cook et al. 2004a). Nevertheless, there are still significant
17 implications for the development of dendroclimatic reconstructions, as we have noted in
18 this paper. For example, reconstructions based on northern tree-ring data impacted by
19 divergence cannot be used to directly compare past natural warm periods (notably, the
20 MWP) with recent 20th century warming, making it more difficult to state unequivocally
21 that the recent warming is unprecedented. Inclusion of divergence-affected tree-ring
22 variations in the calibration period of such reconstructions could result in overestimation
23 of past reconstructed temperatures, and underestimation of recent warming. As noted,
24 some researchers do not include the recent divergence period in the calibration interval,

1 which effectively decreases the opportunities for independent verification. Individual
2 samples at a given site can be assessed to evaluate within-site differences in climate
3 response (Esper et al. 2003, Driscoll et al. 2005, Wilmking et al. 2004, 2005). Such
4 information can be exploited to enhance the climate signal at a given site, improving any
5 resultant reconstructions of climate (Esper et al. 2003, Wilmking et al. 2004, 2005). It is
6 also important to be aware of additional considerations regarding potential detrending-
7 related end effects, age-related response differences, high vs. low-frequency divergence,
8 and differential climatic response with variable temperature parameters (e.g. maximum,
9 minimum or mean temperatures). Interestingly, the dimming phenomenon may be a
10 cause of the slower increase in maximum vs. minimum temperatures in recent decades
11 (Dai et al. 1999; Wild et al. 2007, Romanou et al. in press). Tree-ring data coverage is
12 still sparse for many far northern regions, and substantially more data are needed if we
13 are to understand the magnitude and extent of the divergence problem. Development of
14 proxy temperature reconstructions based on tree-ring records from divergence-free sites
15 (Wilson et al. submitted.), evaluation of time-dependent and nonlinear responses of tree
16 growth to climate (Visser and Molenaar 1990, E. Cook, TRL-LDEO, pers. comm. 2006),
17 and updating of chronologies through to the present will also greatly improve our ability
18 to model large-scale temperatures over recent decades.

19 Several possible explanations for the divergence problem have
20 been reviewed herein. There is valid evidence for both local to
21 regional causes (e.g., drought stress, physiological threshold
22 effects) as well as potential hemispheric to global scale
23 environmental causes. These include changing stratospheric ozone
24 levels, which have thus far only been investigated in a preliminary

1 manner and only for density, not ring width data (Briffa et al. 2004).
2 Another potential large-scale factor that merits further
3 investigation is global dimming (Liepert 2002, et al. 2004), as we have
4 noted herein, but which needs to be investigated in much more detail.
5 These large-scale factors may be distinct from more localized
6 pollution effects (e.g. Wilson and Elling 2004, Yonenobu and Eckstein
7 2006).

8 This review did not yield any consistent pattern that could shed light on whether
9 one possible cause of divergence might be more likely than others. We conclude that a
10 combination of reasons may be involved that vary with location, species or other factors,
11 and that clear identification of a sole cause for the divergence is probably unlikely. The
12 studies cited herein also varied with method of analysis (e.g., regression, Kalman filter,
13 modes of standardization) and site ecological conditions (e.g. latitudinal/elevational
14 treeline or productive forest, coastal or interior sites). The issue is thus highly complex,
15 with likely ecophysiological feedbacks coming into play related to differences in
16 environmental conditions between sites, species and regions. For example, there have
17 been recent shifts in patterns of insect infestation (G. Juday, Univ. Alaska Fairbanks,
18 pers. comm. 2006), as well as forest dynamics that can preclude a purely positive
19 response to warmer temperatures in areas of Alaska (Jacoby and D'Arrigo 1995). In
20 short, we believe the problem is real but that there does not appear to exist a single
21 "divergence" phenomenon with an underlying causal mechanism.

22 Large-scale greening in some northern regions observed in satellite data since
23 the early 1980s (Myneni et al. 1997, Nemani et al. 2003, Brown et al. 2004) is thought
24 to be due to enhanced warming; however in some areas it could be replaced by decreased

1 growth (browning; Zhang et al. submitted, Bunn and Goetz 2006) and weakened
2 sensitivity of temperature response related to divergence (D'Arrigo et al. 2004a). If
3 widespread, the divergence could thus slow or reverse carbon uptake by northern forests.
4 Without correcting for the divergence, carbon cycle models may underestimate the future
5 carbon uptake capacity of northern forests, and hence future levels of atmospheric CO₂
6 (Briffa et al. 1998a and b, Barber et al. 2000). Future analyses will benefit from
7 comparing different tree growth parameters, conducting multi-proxy studies with
8 scientists from a variety of disciplines, and vegetation and carbon cycle modeling (Briffa
9 2000, et al. 2004). Particular effort should be focused on understanding the
10 ecophysiological factors that determine tree growth response to recent divergence-related
11 forcings. Mechanistic tree growth models may aid in this regard (Melvin 2004 and
12 references cited therein, Anchukaitis et al. 2006, Evans et al. in press), as they can be
13 used to assess changes in tree growth response to climate over time due to multiple, and
14 nonlinear causes. As existing records are updated and new ones developed, we will
15 improve our ability to make more defined, direct evaluations of the climate of recent
16 decades relative to the past.

17

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19

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1 **Figure Legends**

2 **Figure 1: A.** Comparison of Alaskan mean tree-ring composite (mean of CSTA, SEW,
3 NWNA, WRA and CNTA, regional series that had been detrended using the RCS
4 method, D'Arrigo et al. 2006 - see **Fig. 4B** for locations of these composites) with June-
5 July mean temperatures for Alaska (60-70°N / 170-140°W, Brohan et al. 2006). The tree-
6 ring composite was scaled (same mean and variance) to the temperature data over the
7 1909-1950 period; **B.** Running 31-year correlation between the tree-ring composite and
8 Alaskan mean June-July temperatures; **C.** As for **B**, but with July-August precipitation
9 (Hulme et al. 1992, 1998) for the same region. The 95% confidence limits (C.L.) have
10 been adjusted to take into account the 1st order autocorrelation in the tree-ring and
11 instrumental series (Dawdy and Matalas 1964). In this analysis and that of Figure 2
12 below the presented seasons are optimal for the TR series utilized for analysis.

13 **Figure 2:** Time series plots of mean July-August temperatures for the Dawson
14 meteorological station, Yukon Territory. The data were taken from the homogeneity
15 corrected Global Historical Climate Network (GHCN, Peterson and Vose 1997) and
16 Historical Canadian Climate Network (HCCN, Vincent and Gullett, 1999) data-sets. The
17 lines denote the linear trend of each record over the 1900-2000 period.

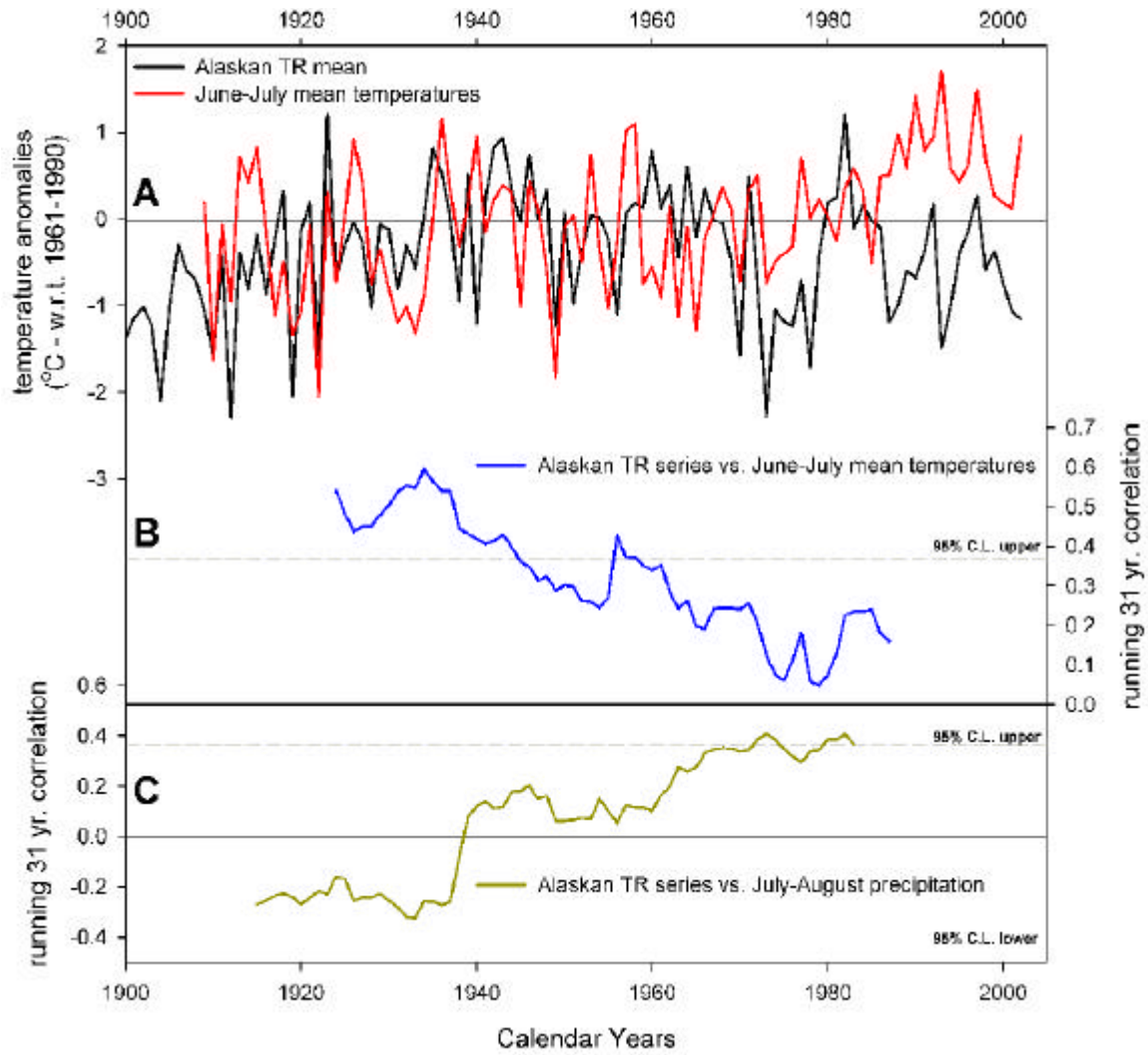
18 **Figure 3:** Plot comparing recent tree-ring based Northern Hemisphere temperature
19 reconstructions (Briffa 2000, Esper et al. 2002, D'Arrigo et al. 2006) that extend into the
20 1990s with land based mean annual extra-tropical temperatures (20-90°N - Brohan et al.
21 2006). The reconstructions have been scaled to the instrumental data over the common
22 1856-1992 period and the linear increase per decade calculated over the same period.

23

1 **Figure 4. A:** Location of tree-ring reconstructions and composite series used to
2 developed the new independent Northern Hemisphere temperature reconstruction
3 (Wilson et al. in prep). COL = Colorado (Salzer and Kipfmueller (2005), IDA = Idaho
4 (Biondi et al. (1999), MBC = British Columbia (Wilson and Luckman (2002), YUS =
5 Yukon (south - Youngblut and Luckman (in press), YUN = Yukon (north - Szeicz and
6 MacDonald (1994), WRA = Wrangells (Davi et al. (2003), NQU = Northern Quebec
7 (Payette (in press); Wilson et al. in prep), ALP = Alpine region (Büntgen et al. 2006, in
8 press-a), TAT = Tatra Mountains (Büntgen et al. in press-b), SCA = Northern
9 Scandinavia (Kirchhefer (2001, Wilson et al. in prep), WSI = Western Siberia (Wilson et
10 al. in prep), MON = Mongolia (D'Arrigo et al. 2000), KYR = Kirgistan (Wilson et al. in
11 prep), TSH = Tien Shan (Esper et al. 2003b), NEP = Nepal (Cook et al. 2003); **B.**
12 Location map of composite chronologies utilized by D'Arrigo et al. (2006). SEW =
13 Seward, NWA - NW North Alaska, YUK = Yukon, CNTA = Central Alaska, WRA =
14 Wrangells, CSTA = Coastal Alaska, CNWT = Central Northwest Territories, SA =
15 Southern Alaska, ICE = Icefields, MAN = Manitoba, LAB = Labrador, QUE = Quebec,
16 JAEM = Jaemtland, TORN = Tornetraesk, POL = Polar Urals, TAY = Taymir, YAK =
17 Yakutia, ALPS = Alps and MON = Mongolia. There are no common tree-ring data
18 between both these studies.

19 **Figure 5:** Time series plot of the new "divergence-free" Northern Hemisphere
20 reconstruction (Wilson et al. submitted) with mean annual Northern Hemisphere (20-
21 90°) land temperatures. As with **Figure 3**, the tree-ring reconstruction has been scaled to
22 the instrumental data over the 1850-1992 period. The linear trends have been calculated
23 over the 1970-2000 period.

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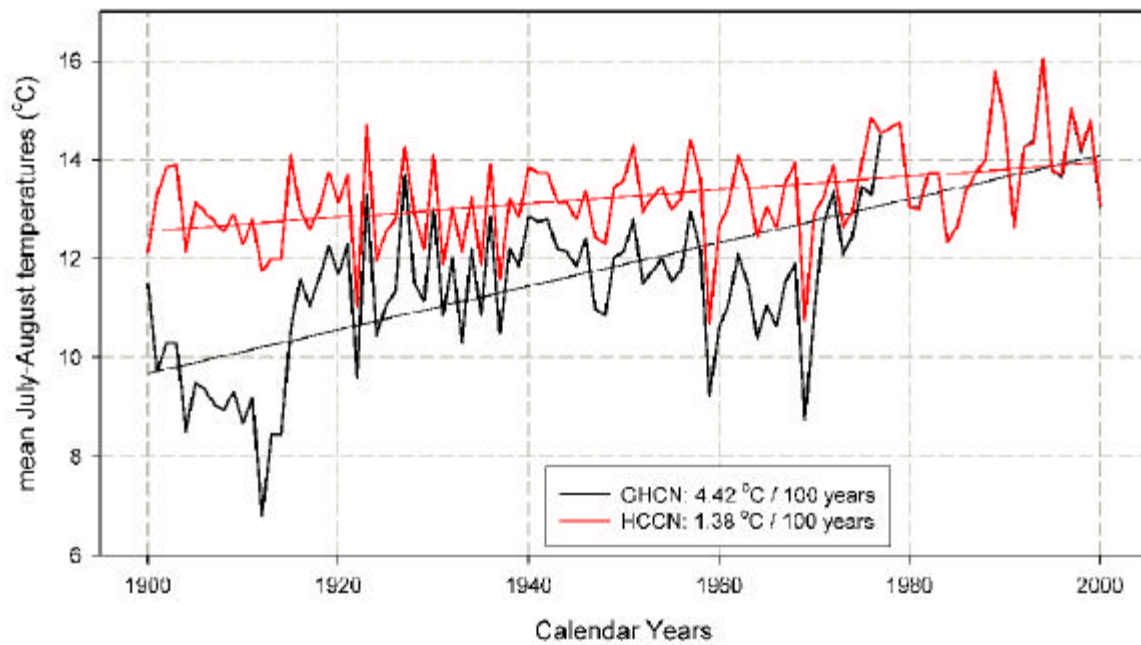
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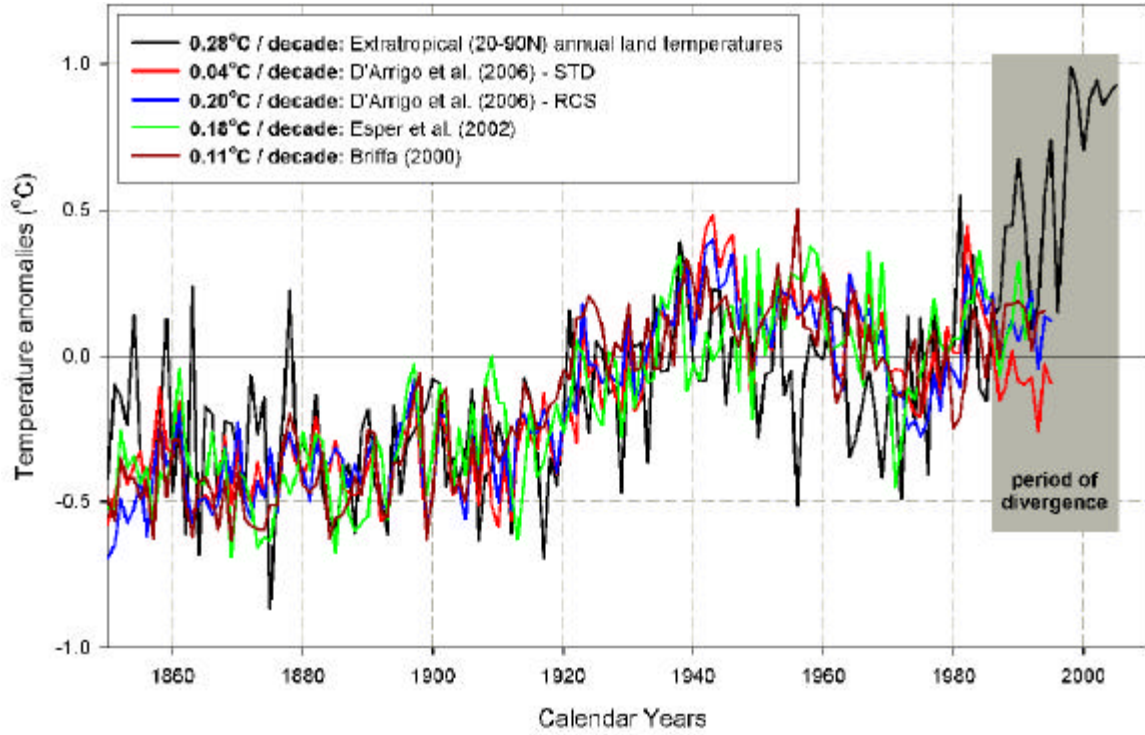
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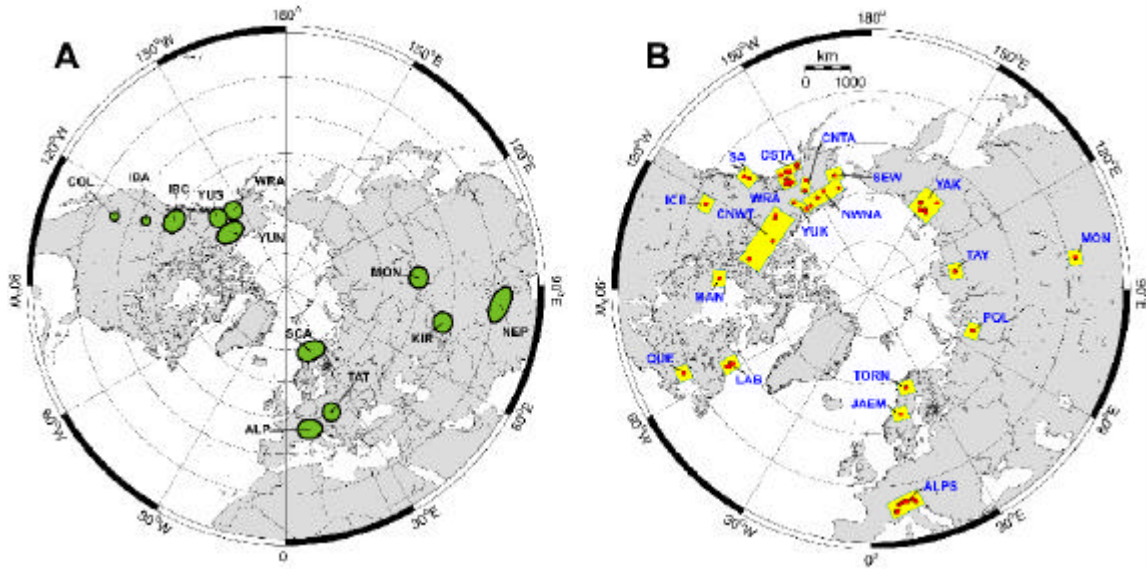
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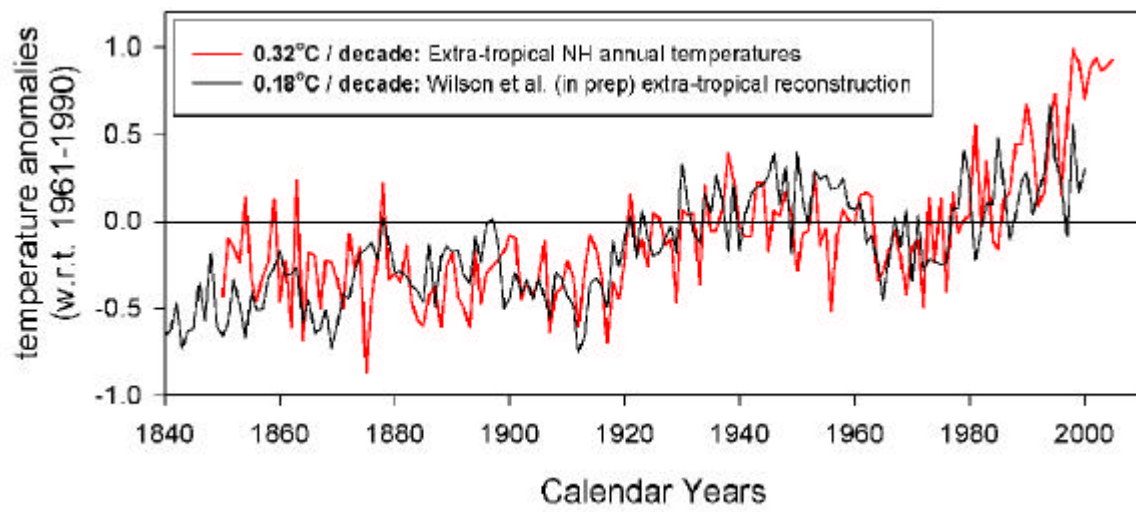
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