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1 **Intra-annual oxygen isotopes in the tree rings record precipitation extremes and**  
2 **water reservoir levels in the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo, Brazil**

3

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15

16 **Highlights:**

17 1) Water scarcity is one of the main challenges of the 21st century;

18 2) Water management must rely on records of climate and levels of water

19 reservoirs;

20 3) Intra-annual tree-ring oxygen isotope record seasonal variation in

21 precipitation amount;

22 4) The 2014 drought is recorded in the tree-ring oxygen isotopes across São

23 Paulo;

24 5) Tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values are a reliable record of water reservoir levels in the city;

25           **Abstract**

26           The impacts of climate change on precipitation and the growing demand for water  
27 have increased the water risks worldwide. Water scarcity is one of the main challenges of  
28 the 21<sup>st</sup> century, and the assessment of water risks is only possible from spatially  
29 distributed records of historical climate and levels of water reservoirs. One potential  
30 method to assess water supply is the reconstruction of oxygen isotopes in rainfall. We here  
31 investigated the use of tree-ring stable isotopes in urban trees to assess spatial/temporal  
32 variation in precipitation and level of water reservoirs. We analyzed the intra-annual  
33 variation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in the tree rings of *Tipuana tipu* trees from northern and southern  
34 Metropolitan Area of São Paulo (MASP), Brazil. While variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  indicates low leaf-  
35 level enrichments from evapotranspiration,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variation clearly reflects precipitation  
36 extremes. Tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  was highest during the 2014 drought, associated with the lowest  
37 historical reservoir levels in the city. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from the middle of the tree rings have  
38 a strong association with the mid-summer precipitation ( $r = -0.71$ ), similar to the association  
39 between the volume of precipitation and its  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature ( $r = -0.76$ ). These consistent  
40 results allowed us to test the association between tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and water-level of the  
41 main reservoirs that supply the MASP. We observed a strong association between intra-  
42 annual tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and the water-level of reservoirs in the northern and southern MASP  
43 ( $r = -0.94$ ,  $r = -0.90$ , respectively). These results point to the potential use of high-resolution  
44 tree-ring stable isotopes to put precipitation extremes, and water supply, in a historical  
45 perspective assisting public policies related to water risks and climate change. The ability  
46 to record precipitation extremes, and previously reported capacity to record air pollution,  
47 place *Tipuana tipu* in a prominent position as a reliable environmental monitor for urban  
48 locations.

49 Keyword: *Tipuana tipu*, dendrochronology, stable isotopes, water risk, drought,  
50 tropics.

51

## 52 **Introduction**

53 Earth's rising temperature is already producing profound changes in precipitation  
54 regimes (IPCC 2013). These effects of climate change combined with the warmer  
55 conditions found in the cities intensify the convective activity and the concentration of  
56 precipitation, increasing the vulnerability of cities to rainfall anomalies (Muis et al 2015).]  
57 Drought is one of the most common natural hazards in the cities worldwide (Gu et al. 2015,  
58 Larsen et al 2016). Sustained low precipitation anomalies combined with poor  
59 management of natural resources and high-water consumption in dense cities increase the  
60 vulnerability of their supply systems (Larsen et al 2016). Water scarcity risk, or the  
61 imbalance between availability and basic needs, is recognized as one of the main  
62 challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century worldwide (Orr et al 2009), directly affecting water-dependent  
63 economic activities and population's livelihood (Gu et al. 2015).

64 São Paulo, the 5<sup>th</sup> largest megacity in the world (UN 2016), is an example of such a  
65 vulnerable place. Like many other mega-cities in developing countries, São Paulo is  
66 already facing the combined challenges of unplanned growth and climate change. It is  
67 under the influence of increased frequency of extreme rainfall and drought events  
68 (Sugahara et al 2009, Marengo et al. 2020), severely affecting citizens lives. This city is  
69 already struggling with consistent water supply shortage during long droughts. The year of  
70 2014 was marked by one of the worst droughts events that resulted in a water supply crisis.  
71 This crisis was caused by a sequence of drier years followed by an unusual mid-  
72 troposphere blocking in 2014. This unusual climatic event resulted in the driest and  
73 warmest summer since 1951, according to the available records (Nobre et al 2016).

74 Precipitation was not only limited during this year, but it was unevenly distributed across  
75 the metropolitan area of São Paulo affecting mainly the northern part of the city, with  
76 relatively minor effects in the south.

77         Spatiotemporal variability of extreme climate events, such as the one of 2014 in São  
78 Paulo, are usually assessed using climate data from instrumental records (Taffarello et al.  
79 2016). However, where such records are not available, alternative environmental archives  
80 like tree rings may provide valuable insights. Stable oxygen and carbon isotopes in tree-  
81 ring cellulose are reliable proxies to understand climate variability. So far, tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in  
82 the tropics often shows negative relationship with the precipitation volume and thus  
83 provides a record of local and regional precipitation variability (Baker et al. 2015, 16,  
84 Brienen et al 2012, 2013). This can be explained by an enhanced removal of heavy  
85 isotopes ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{18}$ ) along the trajectory of water vapor from the original water source to the  
86 site of condensation, modulated by the intensity of the precipitation events locally  
87 (Dansgaard 1964, Risi et al. 2008). The rainfall signal in the tree rings also depends on  
88 whether the relationship between source  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and precipitation volume dominates over the  
89 influence of leaf physiology on tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , which is primarily a result of variations in  
90 Vapor Pressure Deficit (VPD, Barbour et al 2004, Kahmen et al 2011, Cintra et al 2019).  
91 This influence of VPD on stomatal opening can be indirectly assessed using the carbon  
92 isotopes. The tree-ring  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  depends on the fractionation during  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion through the  
93 stomata, and assimilation by the RUBISCO activity (Farquhar et al 1982). Tree-ring carbon  
94 isotopic patterns may also be related to the use of carbon reserves during growth (Eglin et  
95 al. 2010). Both oxygen and carbon stable isotopes are usually analyzed at inter-annual  
96 basis (McCarroll and Loader 2004), but they may be as well analyzed at intra-annual basis  
97 to allow a comprehensive understanding of the intra-seasonal variation of climate  
98 conditions (Helle and Schleser 2004, Monson et al 2018) likely providing detailed

99 information for risk assessments. Surprisingly, there are no studies about climatic  
100 variability in the cities based on tree-ring stable isotopes, despite the fact that many  
101 developing countries, that concentrate 82% of the world's megacities (UN 2018), only have  
102 limited data to effectively manage their water resources (Kirby and Ahmad 2015).

103         The aim of this study is to evaluate the potential of using high-resolution stable  
104 isotopes in tree rings of urban trees to assess spatial / temporal variability in precipitation  
105 extremes, a key information to support management of water shortage risk in the cities.  
106 We used the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo as a case study because it has a large  
107 distribution of trees (Silva et al. 2019), specifically of *Tipuana tipu* (Benth.) Kuntze, with  
108 proven annual rings (Locosselli et al. 2019), a large network of climate stations, as well as  
109 records of the levels of water reservoirs. Based on this context, we analyzed both oxygen  
110 and carbon stable isotopes in ten segments of each tree ring produced between 2010 and  
111 2015 for a total of six trees from northern and southern São Paulo. We tested the following  
112 hypotheses: 1) There is a negative relationship between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature of precipitation and  
113 its volume in the city; 2) Tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records are not affected by elevated  
114 evapotranspiration due to VPD; 3) The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  series also indicate a low influence of leaf-  
115 water enrichment in the isotope signal of source water; and 4) Tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is a reliable  
116 record of monthly precipitation volume across the city. If indeed hypotheses one to four are  
117 confirmed, then 5) *T. tipu* tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records can be used as a proxy for past  
118 precipitation volume and likely for past level of water reservoirs that supply the city.

119

## 120         **Material and Methods**

121

### 122         **Study Sites**

123

124 Sites are located 20 km apart in the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo, Brazil (MASP,  
125 Figure 1). One site is located in the north at the Santa Amélia Public Park (23°30'00"S,  
126 46°22'28"W, 777m a.s.l.) and the other one is located in the south at Capuava (23°40'00"S,  
127 46°27'47"W, 775m a.s.l.). The climate in São Paulo is seasonal, with a clear rainy season  
128 extending roughly from September to March. Most of the air masses that bring precipitation  
129 to the city, and its water reservoirs, come from the South Atlantic during the rainy season,  
130 with minor influence from other regions (Figure S1). The northern site is comparatively  
131 warmer and drier than the southern site (Figure S2), and it had 18% less monthly  
132 precipitation compared to the south during the drought of 2014 (Figure 1). This anomaly  
133 extended over a large region to the north of São Paulo city mainly affecting the precipitation  
134 over the Cantareira reservoir system (Pattnayak et al 2018, Figure 1), with relatively minor  
135 effects over the Rio Grande reservoir system in the south. The Cantareira system, the  
136 largest one in the MASP with a catchment area of ca. 2,303 km<sup>2</sup>, has a storage capacity  
137 of almost 1 trillion liters of water and supplies 6.5 million people in the region, while the Rio  
138 Grande system, with a catchment area of ca. 583 km<sup>2</sup>, stores more than 11 billion liters of  
139 water and supplies more than 1.2 million people (SABESP 2020).

140

#### 141 **$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses of rainfall water**

142

143 To establish whether precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records correlate with cumulated  
144 precipitation amount in the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo, we analyzed the monthly  
145 variation in precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for a period of 16 months (from January 2004 to April 2005).  
146 Precipitation samples were obtained at the Institute of Geosciences, University of São  
147 Paulo, located in between both sampling sites. Water samples were obtained monthly  
148 using a tube-dip-in-water collector with pressure equilibration system, according to

149 IAEA/GNIP (2014). Samples were analyzed with mass spectrometer IRMS (DeltaPlus  
150 Advantage from Thermo Fischer) attached to a Gas-Bench-II System and using the CO<sub>2</sub>-  
151 water equilibrium technique. The uncertainties for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is 0.5 ‰. We tested the relationship  
152 between rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and precipitation volume (obtained from the climate station at the  
153 Institute of Astronomy and Geophysics, also in the University of São Paulo) using  
154 Pearson's correlation.

155

### 156 **Study species and tree-ring sampling**

157

158 For the present study, we analyzed trees from the species *Tipuana tipu* (Benth.)  
159 Kuntze (Fabaceae) which is one of the three most common species in the metropolitan  
160 region of São Paulo (Moreira et al 2018). Because it is so well adapted to the urban  
161 environment, it has also been planted in cities from South and Northern America, Europe,  
162 Africa, Asia and Oceania (Moreira et al 2018). It is considered deciduous for shedding all  
163 leaves during the dry season, and the trees have a shallow root system usually visible at  
164 the soil surface (Locosselli et al. 2018). It has distinct semi-porous rings delimited by a  
165 marginal parenchyma band (Locosselli et al 2019) that are formed during the rainy season.  
166 It is important to note that trees used in this study obtained their water from rainfall without  
167 any additional water input from irrigation systems.

168 Two to four increment cores were obtained from each tree, using 5mm increment  
169 borers. A total of seven trees were sampled at the northern site specifically for the present  
170 study, while 41 trees were previously sampled in the southern site (Locosselli et al. 2019).  
171 Data of tree diameter at breast height (DBH), tree height, overall conditions of the tree and  
172 geographical coordinates were recorded in the field. Injuries to tree stems due to coring  
173 were treated with a saturated solution of copper sulphate and calcium carbonate to avoid

174 later infections. We fixed the samples in wood supports and left them to dry for a couple of  
175 weeks.

176

### 177 **Tree-ring sample preparation**

178

179 We sanded all samples using sandpaper with grits ranging from 60 to 2000, and  
180 identified the tree-ring boundaries. All samples were then scanned using a high-resolution  
181 scanner (Epson v33). Samples from the south had been cross-dated in a previous study  
182 using standard dendrochronological methods (Locosselli et al. 2019), while the tree-rings  
183 series from the northern population were only cross-dated within each individual because  
184 of the small sample collection. Among the available samples from both sites, we chose  
185 three trees with wide tree rings in each site for the intra-annual isotope analysis. The  
186 chosen trees from the north and south have in average, 54.00 and 76.37 cm of DBH, 10.37  
187 and 13.67 m of height and 31 and 33 years old, respectively. We produced transversal  
188 sections with 2mm width from the increment cores using a circular saw (Proxxon KS 230,  
189 Saw Blade 28 020). We isolated segments from the thin sections containing the years  
190 between 2010 to 2015.

191 To extract the cellulose, segments were placed inside supports made with  
192 perforated Teflon sheets, and treated twice with 5% NaOH solution for 2 hours (4 hours  
193 total) in the water bath at 60°C to remove resins, fatty acids and tannins. We then washed  
194 the samples with de-ionized boiling water, and treated them with 7,5% NaClO<sub>2</sub> solution  
195 with a pH of 4-5 in the water bath at 60°C for 37 hours. Finally, we washed the samples  
196 once again with de-ionized boiling water and dried the holo-cellulose samples in a freeze-  
197 dryer (Kagawa et al 2015, Schollaen et al. 2017).

198

## 199 **Tree-ring isotope analyses**

200

201 From the holo-cellulose samples, 10 sections were analyzed for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from  
202 each ring. Because cambium activity is not constant throughout the growing season (e.g.  
203 Marcati et al 2008) and because we expect that variation in the wood density reflects more  
204 closely the cambium activity during the growth season, we did not divide rings into sections  
205 of equal width but in sections of equal weight. Thus, sections with higher wood density,  
206 which we expect to be formed during period of slower radial growth, were sampled at  
207 slightly higher spatial resolution (i.e, smaller width of ring sections, see Fig, 2). For the  
208 isotope analysis, between 450 and 550  $\mu\text{g}$  of cellulose were packed into silver cups for  
209  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and between 900 and 1100  $\mu\text{g}$  of cellulose were packed in tin cups for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , resulting  
210 in a total of 720 samples. Samples were pyrolyzed at 1400°C over glassy carbon on a  
211 Sercon HT furnace interfaced to a 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer.

212

## 213 **Intra-annual isotope series synchronization**

214

215 The stable isotope series showed highly similar intra-annual variation in the same  
216 rings between trees (Figure S3). However, the intra-annual positions of highest and lowest  
217 isotope values were not exactly the same for different trees, most likely due to slight  
218 differences between trees in radial growth rates over their active growing season. Simple  
219 averaging procedures would mix isotope values from slightly different periods. Thus, to  
220 create a mean average intra-annual time series, in which each intra-annual sample point  
221 corresponded to the exact timing of wood formation in all trees, we synchronized apparent  
222 temporal mismatches between trees. To this end, we moved every series a number of  
223 positions to the left and to the right so that the high and low values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  would match in

224 time (Figure S4). Most of the years required moving the relative position of the oxygen  
225 isotope series only by one position to the left or to the right, while others only required  
226 moving two positions. We did not merged segments nor split any series for synchronization.

227 We calculated the GLK value (Gleichläufigkeit, Bura & Wilmking 2015) to check the  
228 synchronicity of the series ('dplR', Bunn, 2008), and calculated the average intra-annual  
229  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  series for each year at each site. We only used the average series calculated from  
230 the values of at least two trees, and all average series have ten values of intra-annual  
231 isotopes. We adjusted the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values according to the positions of the synchronized  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
232 series for calculating the mean series. For the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , we standardized the dataset using z-  
233 scores before averaging ( $\text{mean } \delta^{13}\text{C} - \text{position } \delta^{13}\text{C} / \text{standard deviation}$ ), because of the  
234 strong variation in the mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among trees, presumably caused by variation between  
235 trees in height, light exposure and water availability (Fichtler et al. 2010, Brienen et al.  
236 2017, Cintra et al 2019).

237

### 238 **Association between isotopic series, climate and level of water reservoirs**

239

240 To assess the effects of climate on the isotope series, we used correlation analyses  
241 between isotope values and monthly precipitation and VPD data and presented these as  
242 heatmaps. This was done by combining the northern and southern populations datasets  
243 in a single analysis (so, 12 values of isotopes and 12 values of climate per month,  
244 equivalent to the 6 rings in the two sites), thus taking into account the temporal trends plus  
245 possible variation in rainfall and VPD between sampling sites. We calculated Pearson's  
246 correlation values between all combinations of mean isotope ratios at each position within  
247 the tree ring (from 1 to 10) and the monthly precipitation and VPD in the north and south.  
248 Climate datasets were obtained from the National Institute of Meteorology (INMET, Mirante

249 de Santana climate Station) to represent the climate in Northern São Paulo, and from the  
250 Institute of Astronomy and Geophysics (IAG, University of São Paulo, Cientec Park climate  
251 station) to represent Southern São Paulo. Based on the relationship between the stable  
252 isotopes and the climate data, we aligned the intra-annual variation of both oxygen and  
253 carbon isotopes and the climate series according to the results presented in the heatmaps.  
254 We then plotted the average tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  over the precipitation and VPD series,  
255 aligning their position 5 (out of the 10 positions) with January, the middle of the rainy  
256 season. Please refer to the results for further details.

257 We also tested if the intra-annual oxygen isotope values are reliable proxies for  
258 water level in the reservoirs closest to the northern and southern sampling sites. We  
259 evaluated the linear relationship between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from position 5 and monthly values of water  
260 level in the reservoirs (Cantareira System in the north, and Rio Grande System in the south,  
261 data from SABESP) for the period between July of the current calendar year to December  
262 of the next calendar year, a total of 18 months, as the effects of precipitation on the water-  
263 levels may be lagged by a few months (Figure 1). Linear relationships were tested  
264 independently for the Northern and Southern populations as they depend also on the  
265 physical characteristics of the catchment area and the reservoir, and differences in  
266 consumption demand. Results were plotted for the month with the highest correlation  
267 values in each site.

268

## 269 **Results**

270

271 We find that there is a significant negative relationship between monthly  
272 precipitation and rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $r = -0.76$ ,  $p = 0.0006$ ; Figure 3) during the 16 months of  
273 measurements in central São Paulo. The highest (0.20 ‰) and lowest (-8.80 ‰) rainfall

274  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values were observed in the months of January and August corresponding to the  
275 middle of the rainy and dry seasons, respectively. It is also possible to observe in Figure 3  
276 that part of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variation is not explained by the variation in precipitation volume in the  
277 Metropolitan Area of São Paulo, especially in the transition periods between the dry and  
278 wet seasons.

279         The variation in the oxygen isotope values within individual rings can be as high as  
280 6.7 ‰ in the north and 5.5 ‰ in the South. Across all years and data-points, the highest  
281  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value is found in all sampled trees in the middle of the growing season represented  
282 by the tree ring formed between 2013 and 2014, corresponding to the drought of 2014 in  
283 the city. Even the lowest values in this year barely drop below 28 ‰. The intra-annual  
284 patterns of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are also consistent among the sampled trees of each site, but they differ  
285 between sites (Figure S3). At the northern site, the lowest values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are found at the  
286 beginning and end of the tree rings, with the highest values at the middle of it. In contrast,  
287 in the southern site, the values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  gradually decrease from the beginning to the end  
288 of the tree ring. We observed only moderate to low correlation values between the intra-  
289 annual variations of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  among the individuals from the south and north of the  
290 Metropolitan Area of São Paulo (Figure S5,  $r = -0.42$  and  $r = -0.28$ , respectively).

291 The series of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  showed a consistent improvement in the GLK values after the  
292 synchronization (Table 1, Figures S6 to S9). Using the average synchronized series, we  
293 found a strong negative correlation between the mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  at position 5 within the tree  
294 rings and precipitation variability of January across sampling sites ( $r = -0.71$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ,  
295 Figure 4), but no significant correlations between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and VPD. This observed pattern of  
296 association between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from the middle of the tree ring and precipitation from mid-  
297 summer is also consistent when evaluating the populations separately (Figures S10 and  
298 S12), and therefore not dependent on site conditions. On the other hand, the synchronized

299 series of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  showed a negative correlation between the isotope values in position 4, 5  
300 and 6 and the precipitation of December, January and February ( $r = - 0.69$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ;  $r = -$   
301  $0.64$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ;  $r = - 0.69$ ,  $p = 0.01$  respectively, Figure 4). In contrast to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , we find a  
302 significant negative correlation between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from positions 1, 2, and 3 and the  
303 VPD for all tested months (up to  $r = - 0.79$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), and positive correlations for the  
304 positions 5, 6 and 7 (up to  $r = 0.87$ ,  $p = 0.0002$ ). In contrast to the results found with the  
305  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , the ones found with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  seem to be more dependent on the variability of site  
306 conditions (Figures S10 and S11). A level of independency among the different intra-  
307 annual samples could be observed as the isotope values presented significant correlations  
308 with only the neighboring positions within each tree ring (Figure S13), as well as low  
309 correlation values between mean intra-annual  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

310 Because of the significant association between precipitation volume and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
311 values from the tree ring, especially at position 5, we tested the correlation between tree-  
312 ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and the levels of water reservoirs. Although no significant correlation was  
313 observed between the average tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values and the level of the water-reservoirs  
314 ( $r = - 0.71$ ,  $p = 0.11$ ; and  $- 0.68$ ,  $p = 0.14$  for the north and south sites, respectively, Figure  
315 S15), there is a strong linear relationship between the level of the water reservoirs and  
316  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from tree-ring position 5 ( $r = - 0.94$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ; and  $- 0.90$ ,  $p = 0.01$  for the north  
317 and south sites, respectively, Figure 6). This latter association also holds up when  
318 averaging the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of positions 5 and 6, but with a less strong linear relationship ( $r$   
319  $= - 0.89$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ; and  $- 0.85$ ,  $p = 0.03$  for the north and south sites, respectively, Figures  
320 S16).

321

## 322 Discussion

323

324 The consistent patterns of intra-annual stable isotopes in the tree rings of the  
325 sampled trees further support previous findings from Locosselli et al. (2019) that these  
326 rings are formed annually. These common patterns likely became more evident in the intra-  
327 annual series due to our strategy of dividing every tree ring into the same number of  
328 segments, with similar weight instead of similar width. The initial mismatches observed in  
329 the intra-annual isotope series among trees from the same site (see Figure S3) probably  
330 suggest that individual trees may start or stop growing at slightly different times during the  
331 growing season, and/or differ in seasonal variation in radial growth. Indeed, in the tropics,  
332 relatively low synchrony in phenological and physiological processes during the vegetative  
333 period has been observed (Bosio et al 2016, Lara & Macarti 2016, Marcati et al. 2016,  
334 Vogado et al. 2016). After minor shifts in the intra-annual series, a position to the left or to  
335 the right, we do find very strong common intra-annual isotopic signal for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  among trees,  
336 with uniquely different patterns among years (see Figure S4 to S6). This suggests that,  
337 indeed, initial mismatches between exact peaks and lows of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  are caused by slight  
338 differences in growth rhythms among trees.

339 It is during the middle of the growing season, when we observed the strongest  
340 association between tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and precipitation volume in both sampling sites. This  
341 association is in accordance with the negative effect of monthly precipitation amount on  
342  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature of São Paulo's rainfall. The strong source signal in the tree-rings  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is  
343 further supported by the similarity of the calculated Pearson's correlation values between  
344 precipitation volume and its  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature ( $r = -0.76$ ), and between precipitation volume  
345 and tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values ( $r = -0.71$ ). The observed intra-annual tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
346 reflect important precipitation extremes as those recorded during the summer of 2011 in  
347 the north, and especially the drought of 2014 in the north and in the south (Figure 5). A  
348 similarly strong source-water signal in the tree rings has been observed in several natural

349 populations of trees, from tropical and extratropical regions (e.g. Zhu et al. 2012, Brienen  
350 et al 2012, 2013, Baker et al 2015, 2016, Xu et al. 2016, Cintra et al. 2019), especially in  
351 conditions with low evaporative demand that result in low leaf-water enrichment. This  
352 strong association with the source water signal, however, has not been observed in cities  
353 before. Surprisingly, we did not observe a significant effect of leaf-water enrichment on the  
354 source-water signal even under the high evaporative conditions found in São Paulo (Silva  
355 et al. 2019). At least not during the vegetative period that takes place along the wettest  
356 months of the year. This observation is also supported by the low association between  
357 tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and VPD. The strong precipitation signal in the tree-rings  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  may also be  
358 a consequence of the shallow root system of *T. tipu* (Locosselli et al. 2018) that may reduce  
359 the mixing with deep water sources.

360         The lack of significant influence of leaf-water enrichment, mainly due to  
361 evapotranspiration, on tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records is also supported by the low association  
362 between intra-annual  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variation (Cintra et al 2019). The results also indicate  
363 that intra-annual  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  variability mainly reflects different strategies of carbon allocation in  
364 the north and in the south. A decreasing trend of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from earlywood to latewood, as  
365 observed in the south, has been widely described in the literature. This pattern is often  
366 related to the remobilization of non-structural carbohydrates, mainly starch, to support  
367 growth in the early vegetative period, leading to relative high values in early ring sections  
368 (Helle and Schleser 2004, Cernusak et al 2009, Eglin et al. 2010). Trees then may leave  
369 their stomata open from the middle to the end of the wet season to support assimilation,  
370 leading to decreases in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (as assimilation is less restricted by stomatal  
371 conductance). This pattern, however, was not observed in the north, where trees had high  
372 values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the middle of the tree ring. These differences are likely related to the  
373 spatial variability of VPD in São Paulo, with generally drier conditions in the north. This

374 control is evident from the negative correlation of all monthly VPD values with the tree-ring  
375  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from position 1, 2 and 3, and positive correlations with the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  from positions 5, 6  
376 and 7. This implies that VDP is likely controlling the shape of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curve along the  
377 growth season, and likely the strategies of carbon allocation and mobilization. While low  
378 VPD will result in a descending curve as observed in the south, high VPD will result in an  
379 inverted “U” curve as observed in the north. The inverted “U” curve was also replicated in  
380 most sampled trees during the drought of 2013-2014 that resulted in a high VPD across  
381 the city (Figure S3). The negative relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and precipitation only during  
382 December, January and February may imply that trees will only increase stomatal  
383 conductance (McCarroll and Loader 2014) when water availability is at its highest.  
384 Therefore, it confirms that even a high stomatal conductance during this period is unlikely  
385 to add noise to the source-water signal recorded in the tree-rings  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

386         Given the effect of the precipitation volume on its  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature combined with the  
387 strong source-water signal in the tree rings, especially in position 5, we tested if tree-ring  
388  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  could be used as a record of the level of water-reservoirs in the city. The level of the  
389 water reservoirs, that depends on the accumulated rainfall over the entire catchment  
390 (Taffarello et al. 2016), is strongly associated with the tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from position 5 in trees  
391 from north and south of the MASP ( $r = - 0.94$  and  $- 0.90$ , respectively). A higher slope value  
392 was observed in the linear fit for the northern population, probably due to the greater  
393 distance from the Atlantic Ocean (main source of rainwater in the city, Figures 1 and S1),  
394 the greater observed variability in the volume of rainfall, and the resulting greater range in  
395 water level variability in the Cantareira system, when compared to that observed in the  
396 south. The observed relationship between water level of the reservoirs and tree-ring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
397 emerges much more clearly when using our approach of analyzing a fixed number of  
398 segments per year, in this case 10 segments, than by analyzing the average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value of

399 the entire tree ring. This association demonstrates the potential of using the intra-annual  
400 oxygen isotopes to reconstruct the levels of the water reservoirs in the city, especially  
401 during drought events such as the one of 2014 (Nobre et al 2016). For a more practical  
402 application, it is also possible to use a large sample of the tree rings, corresponding to the  
403 combined positions 5 and 6, roughly the middle of the tree ring, for obtaining a reliable  
404 record of the levels of the water reservoirs. This strong association also suggests that tree-  
405 ring oxygen isotopes not only reflects local precipitation, but they integrate the volume of  
406 precipitation and its isotopic signal over the extensive area of the reservoirs' catchment.

407         In summary, this is the first study to show the potential of using intra-annual stable  
408 isotopes in trees as a reliable record of precipitation extremes. While the tree-ring  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
409 recorded mainly physiological processes related to carbon allocation and mobilization, the  
410  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records found in the tree rings of *Tipuana tipu*, a tree species common to cities from  
411 South and North America, Europe, Africa, Asia and Oceania (Moreira et al. 2018), stand  
412 out as a reliable instrument to assist the assessment of water resources risks for locations  
413 with poor historical records. The results show a clear association with monthly precipitation  
414 in both temporal and spatial scales, being able to record heavy precipitation events as in  
415 the year of 2011 and the drought of 2014, while being a reliable proxy for assessing the  
416 level of the water reservoirs in the city. This approach has the potential to be also used to  
417 find how singular, or frequent, events like the 2014 drought are in the city, given that  
418 specimens of *T. tipu* planted in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century are still found in São Paulo (Brazolin  
419 2009). *Tipuana tipu* is emerging as a trustworthy environmental monitor for urban areas  
420 due to its capacity to record both spatial and temporal variation in air pollution, as  
421 previously reported (Geraldo et al. 2014, Locosselli et al. 2018, Moreira et al. 2018,  
422 Locosselli et al. 2020), with the ability to record precipitation extremes and the level of  
423 water reservoirs, as shown in the present study.

424

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426

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437

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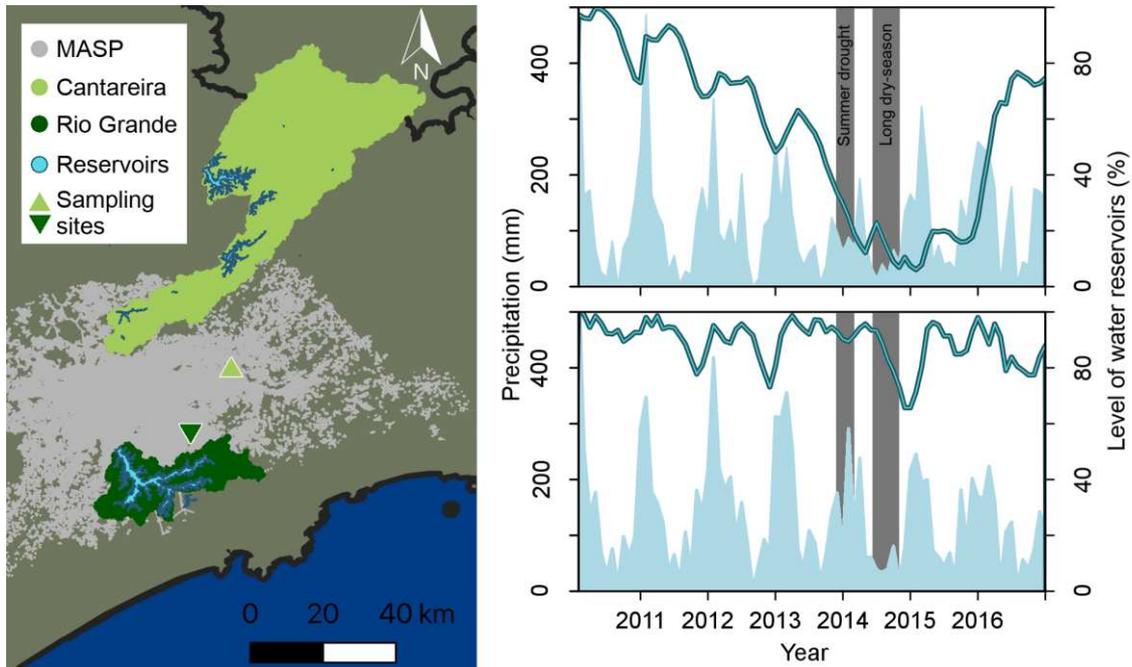
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591 Figures

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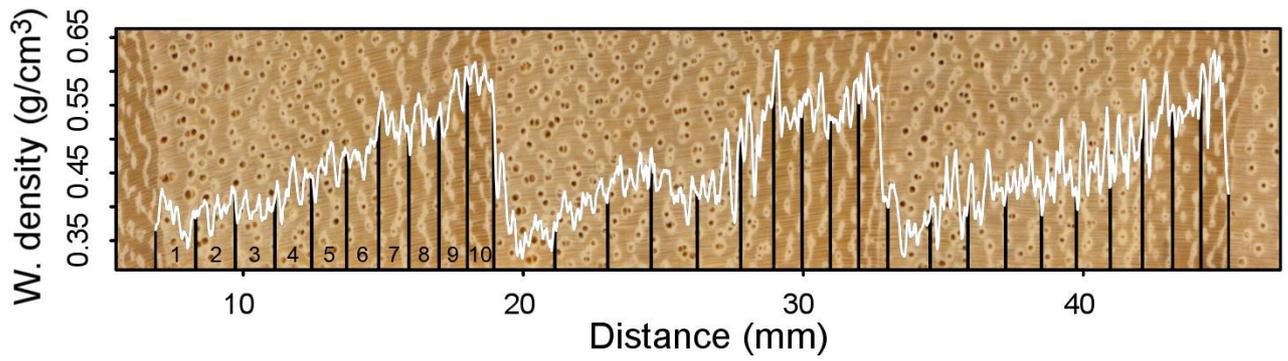


593

594 Figure 1: Sampling sites in northern (light green triangle) and southern (dark green  
595 triangle) Metropolitan Area of São Paulo (MASP, in grey), Brazil. Monthly  
596 precipitation (blue shaded area) from northern (upper panel) and southern (lower  
597 panel) sampling sites are provided and the levels of water reservoirs (blue line)  
598 closest to the sampling sites (Cantareira catchment in the north and Rio Grande  
599 catchment in the South, data from Alto Tietê Drainage Basin Committee). One of  
600 the strongest drought events in São Paulo occurred between 2013 and 2014  
601 followed by a long dry-season in 2014 affecting the water supply in the entire  
602 MASP. Climate data were obtained from SABESP (Companhia de Saneamento  
603 Básico do Estado de São Paulo), INMET (National Institute of Meteorology of  
604 Brazil) and IAG/USP (Institute of Astronomy, Geophysics, and Atmospheric  
605 Sciences of the University of São Paulo, University of São Paulo).

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609

610 Figure 2: Example of the wood density profile (white) of three tree rings of *Tipuana*

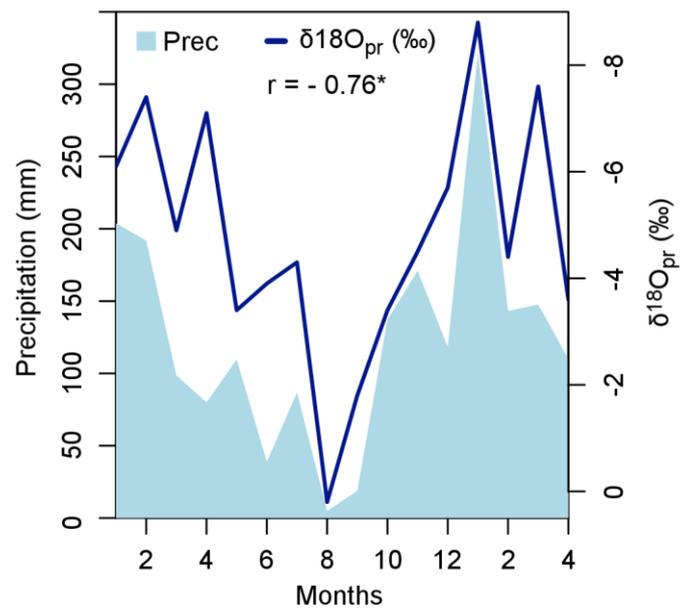
611 *tipu*, and the variable length of the intra-annual samples (distance between vertical

612 black lines) used for the high-resolution stable isotope analyses. For every tree

613 ring, 10 segments had equivalent weight were analyzed.

614

615

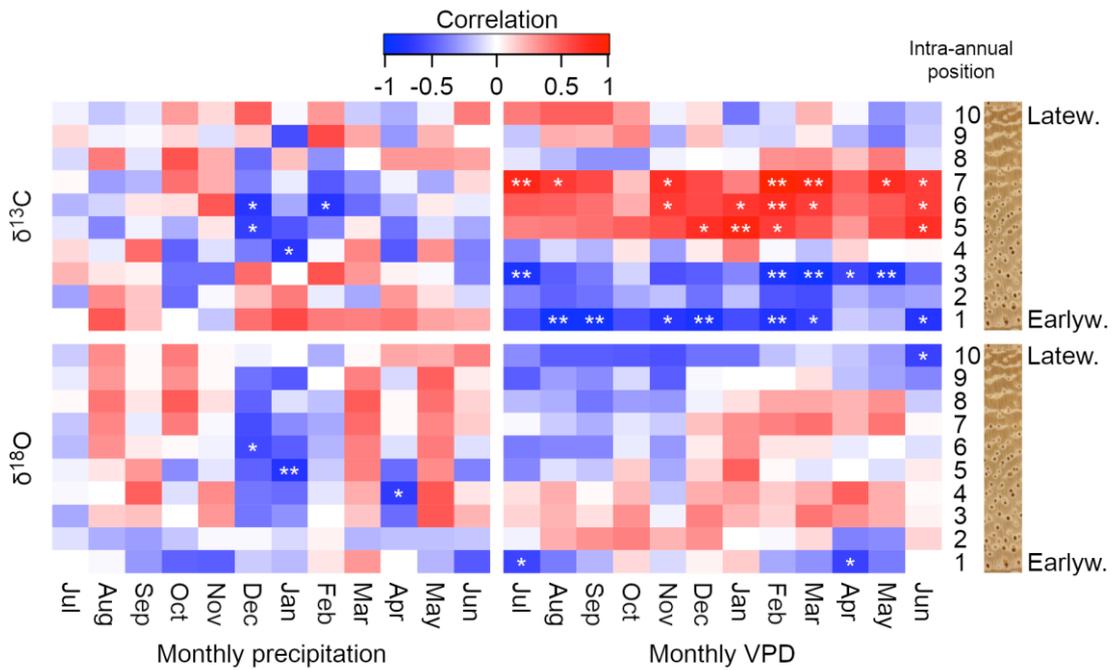


616

617 Figure 3: Oxygen isotope signature of the precipitation ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{pr}}$ ) plotted over the  
618 monthly precipitation for a period of 16 months (January 2004 to April 2005). \*

619 significant for  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

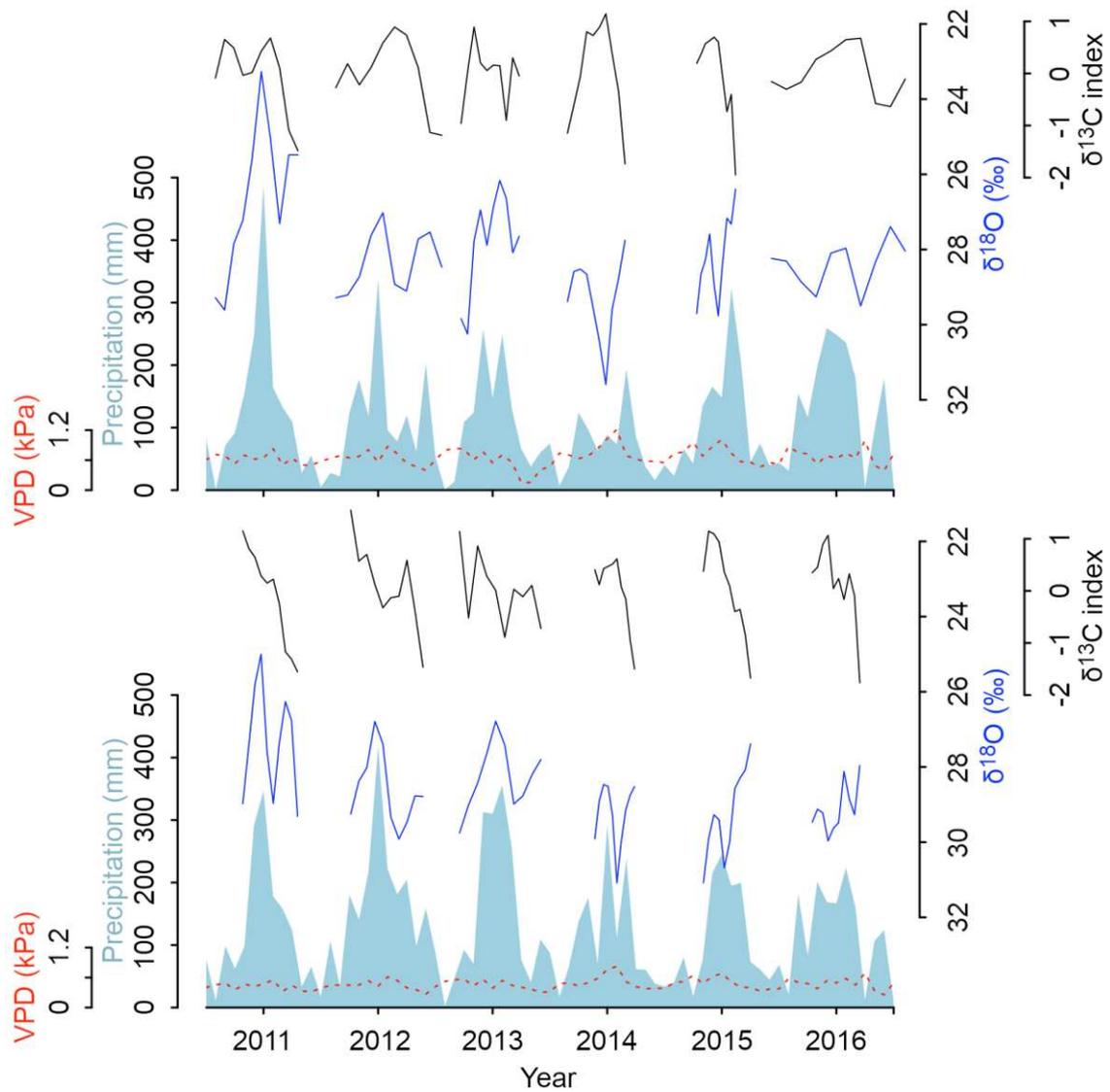
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622 Figure 4: Heatmaps showing the correlation values between oxygen and carbon  
 623 stable isotopes from northern and southern populations analyzed together and  
 624 monthly precipitation and VPD for the current growing season obtained from  
 625 climate stations at the north and south of the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo.  
 626 Correlation values are shown by position within the tree ring from earlywood limit  
 627 (position 1) to the latewood limit (position 10). \* significant values for  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  
 628 \*\* for  $\alpha = 0.01$ .

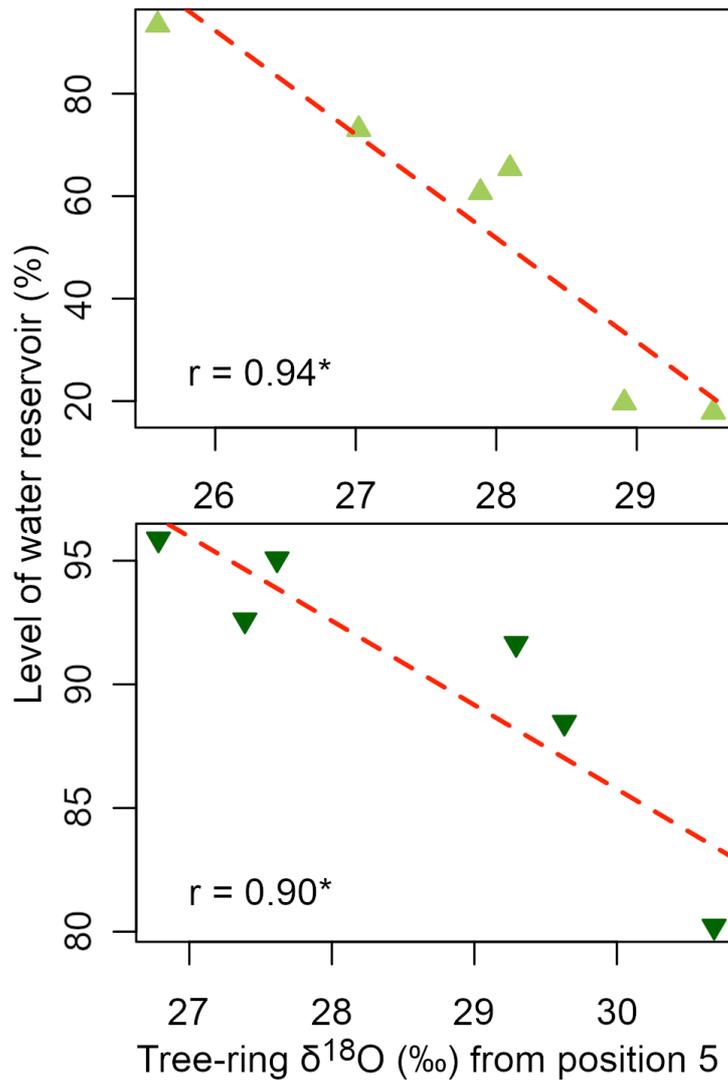
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631

632 Figure 5: Mean intra-annual stable carbon (here shown as a normalized index) and  
 633 oxygen isotopes in the tree rings of *Tipuana tipu* trees and monthly precipitation  
 634 and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) from the Northern (upper panel) and Southern  
 635 (lower panel) sampling sites in the Metropolitan Region of São Paulo. Series were  
 636 aligned with the climate series based on the results of figure 4 (intra-annual tree-  
 637 ring position 5 aligned with January).

638



639  
 640 Figure 6: Linear relationship (dashed red line) between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from position 5 within  
 641 the tree ring and the level of the nearest water reservoir in the North (water level  
 642 of the Cantareira reservoir system on May, upper panels,  $Y = -20 * \delta^{18}\text{O} + 618$ )  
 643 and South (water level of the Rio Grande reservoir system on February, lower  
 644 panels,  $Y = -3 * \delta^{18}\text{O} + 188$ ) of the Metropolitan Area of São Paulo. The respective  
 645 correlation coefficients are given for each linear fit, \* significant to  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

646

Table 1: Differences in the mean Gleichläufigkeit (GLK) value calculated for the non-synchronized, and the synchronized intra-annual stable isotopes for the northern and southern populations. Synchronization was based on the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  series given the assumption of the negative relationship between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of precipitation and its volumes. (Refer to the Figures S4 and S6 to S9 for further details about the synchronization).

Site	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$		$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	
	Non-synchronized	Synchronized	Non-Synchronized	Synchronized
North	0.58	0.82	0.62	0.59
South	0.58	0.70	0.56	0.58

647