

1 Soil and stem xylem water isotope data from two pan-

²European sampling campaigns

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74 Abstract. Stable isotope ratios of hydrogen (δ2H) and oxygen (δ18O) are crucial for studying ecohydrological 75 dynamics in forests. However, most studies are confined to single sites, resulting in a lack of large-scale isotope 76 data for understanding tree water uptake. Here, we provide a first systematic isotope dataset of soil and stem xylem 77 water collected during two pan-European sampling campaigns at 40 beech (Fagus sylvatica), spruce (Picea abies), 78 or mixed beech-spruce forest sites in spring and summer 2023 (Lehmann et al., 2024). The dataset is complemented 79 by additional site-, soil-, and tree-specific metadata. The samples and metadata were collected by different 80 researchers across Europe following a standardized protocol. Soil samples were taken at up to 5 depths (ranging 81 from 0 to 90 cm) and stem xylem samples from three beech and/or spruce trees per site. All samples were sent to 82 a single laboratory, where all analytical work was conducted. Water was extracted using cryogenic vacuum 83 distillation and analyzed with an isotope laser spectrometer. Additionally, a subset of the samples was analyzed 84 with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Data quality checks revealed a high mean total extraction efficiency, 85 mean absolute water amount (> 1 mL), as well as high analytical accuracy and precision. The water isotopic 86 signature of soil and stem xylem water varied as a function of the geographic origin and changed from spring to 87 summer across all sites. While δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ values were strongly correlated, the soil water data plotted closer to 88 the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) than the stem xylem water. Specifically, the δ²H values of the stem 89 xylem were more enriched than those of the soil water, leading to a systematic deviation from the GMWL. Isotopic 90 enrichment of the stem xylem water was larger for spruce than for beech trees at mixed forest sites. This dataset 91 is particularly useful for large-scale studies on plant water use, ecohydrological model testing, and isotope mapping 92 across Europe.

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94 Keywords: Critical Zone Science, Europe, Forest, Hydrology, Hydrogen Isotopes, Oxygen Isotopes, Root Water 95 Uptake, Soil Water Recharge, Water Stable Isotopes, Water Sources.

96

97 1 Introduction

98 Understanding how tree water uptake from soils varies with species, site characteristics, time, and across climate 99 zones is essential to assess forest resilience to climate change; particularly the response of forests to the increasing 100 frequency and intensity of droughts (Lindner et al., 2010; Spinoni et al., 2014; Büntgen et al., 2021). Despite some 101 uncertainties, the stable isotope ratios of hydrogen (δ^2H) and oxygen ($\delta^{18}O$) in water extracted from soil and plants 102 allow for the determination of the sources of water that are used by plants and to quantify the relative contribution 103 of different water sources to plant water use (Rothfuss and Javaux, 2017; Beyer and Penna, 2021). Determination 104 of water uptake patterns based on isotope data assumes that roots do not discriminate against the heavier hydrogen 105 and oxygen stable isotopes during water uptake (Poca et al., 2019). Additionally, it is assumed that: (i) the 106 sampling design captures the spatiotemporal variability of the isotopic composition of soil water sources, (ii) the 107 water extracted from the plant xylem is a mixture of the different water sources taken up from the soil profile 108 without isotopic alteration (e.g., due to stem evaporation or leaf transpiration, see Ellsworth and Sternberg (2015), 109 and (iii) soil and xylem samples are collected, transported, stored, and extracted in a manner that avoids isotope 110 fractionation (Ceperley et al., 2024). Although these assumptions are not always met, the method described here—

111 whether used independently or in combination with others—can effectively test our understanding of the 112 mechanisms driving plant responses to both short- and long-term droughts. It is also now affordable enough for 113 practical applications beyond the field of isotope ecohydrology (Penna et al., 2018). Isotope-based analyses in 114 forest ecosystems have, for example, been used to determine the changes in root water uptake depths of trees in 115 response to drought (Brinkmann et al., 2018; Gessler et al., 2022), whether trees use summer or winter precipitation 116 (Allen et al., 2019; Floriancic et al., 2024a), soil water, groundwater, or streamwater (Bowling et al., 2017; Engel 117 et al., 2022), or to assess competitive or complementary water use strategies (Penna et al., 2020; Kinzinger et al., 118 2024). However, systematic datasets at large scales, i.e., spanning continents or multiple countries, are lacking. 119 This hampers our understanding of how water uptake strategies for the same tree species vary across space and 120 time (Beyer and Penna, 2021; Orlowski et al., 2023; Dubbert and Werner, 2019; Bachofen et al., 2024). 121 There are established networks for the observation of isotopes in freshwater systems, such as precipitation by the

122 International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP), which currently 123 contains data for 300 active sites in 93 countries (Terzer-Wassmuth et al., 2023). The Global Network of Isotopes 124 in Rivers (GNIR) contains data from 750 sites in 35 countries (Halder et al., 2015). Both networks have proven to 125 provide valuable input data for modeling of the local to regional climate or surface-atmosphere water interactions 126 with process-based (e.g., CLM, Wong et al. (2017), ISOLSM Cai et al. (2015), ECHAM5-JSBACH Haese et al. 127 (2013)) or statistical models (e.g., Isoscapes (Bowen, 2010; Terzer et al., 2013; Allen et al., 2018; Koeniger et al., 128 2022), and time series analyses (Nelson et al., 2021; Erdélyi et al., 2023; Reckerth et al., 2017). They have 129 furthermore helped to assess water flow pathways and the fraction of young water in streamflow (Von Freyberg 130 et al., 2018; Floriancic et al., 2024b). The Moisture Isotopes in Biosphere and Atmosphere (MIBA) network, 131 initiated by the IAEA in 2003-2004, is, to our knowledge, the only international network to survey the isotopic 132 composition of water across different ecosystem compartments (i.e., soil, plant stems and leaves, soil, and 133 atmospheric vapor). However, despite the global distribution of sites at the time of the establishment and a local 134 application in Australia (Twining et al., 2006), the network is currently inactive.

135 Building on the idea of the MIBA and the proven usefulness of national large-scale sampling campaigns to 136 determine regional differences in tree water uptake (Allen et al., 2019), the COST Action "WATer isotopeS in the 137 critical zONe: from groundwater recharge to plant transpiration WATSON" (CA19120) organized two sampling 138 campaigns across Europe in 2023. The effort took advantage of the European network of researchers to establish 139 a unique systematic water isotope dataset and corresponding metadata. More specifically, the goal of the sampling 140 campaigns was to obtain soil and stem xylem water isotope data of two tree species, namely beech (Fagus sylvatica 141 L.) and spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H. Karst) across a large climate gradient for the spring $(25th$ May to $16th$ June) and 142 summer ($17th$ August to $18th$ September) of 2023. The two time points were selected to compare tree water uptake 143 patterns under different soil moisture conditions (e.g., lower soil moisture in summer). The two species were 144 selected because of their wide geographical distribution across Europe (Figure 1) and their important ecological 145 and economical relevance, as well the expected differences in water uptake depth (Allen et al. 2019; Brinkmann 146 et al. 2018; Goldsmith et al. 2019) with beech having a deeper rooting system than spruce.

147 During the European sampling campaigns, a total of 381 soil and 311 stem xylem samples were taken from 40 148 sites across 18 countries, following a standardized protocol. The water of these samples was cryogenically 149 extracted and isotopically analyzed in a single laboratory. The simultaneous collection of soil and stem xylem

150 samples across all European sites, combined with a centralized processing of the samples, ensures the uniqueness 151 of this dataset. Using one laboratory prevents inconsistencies that might arise from varying sample handling and 152 analysis methods, which can influence isotopic offsets (Orlowski et al., 2016; Orlowski et al., 2018). The isotope 153 dataset is accompanied by site-, soil-, and tree-specific metadata at each location. Together, the metadata and 154 isotope data provide a strong foundation for research on tree water use, model testing, and isotope mapping. This 155 manuscript outlines the sample collection process, cryogenic water extraction, and isotope analysis, and details the 156 dataset organization and metadata. Finally, we give an overview of the data and discuss potential applications. The 157 full dataset is freely available (Lehmann et al., 2024).

158 2 Material and Methods

159 2.1 Organization of the WATSON pan-European sampling campaigns

160 During the initial phase (spring 2023), the members of the WATSON community (~200 members at that time) 161 were contacted to assess their interest in participating in a coordinated sampling campaign. Based on the large 162 interest, a core team was formed. The core team asked researchers from a similar region to form one team to keep 163 the laboratory and analytical work manageable, while still obtaining samples from a broad geographic region. The 164 core team wrote detailed instructions to ensure systematic sampling. The instructions provided detailed 165 standardized protocols for collecting soil and stem xylem samples, including specifications for sampling depths, 166 core dimensions and numbers, and the maximum number of samples. The protocols also covered short-term sample 167 storage and shipment to the Swiss Federal Institute for Forest, Snow, and Landscape Research in Birmensdorf, 168 Switzerland (WSL Birmensdorf), where all cryogenic water extractions and isotopic analyses were performed. In 169 addition, participants were given instructions on how to take pictures for canopy cover analysis and the list of 170 required metadata (e.g., geographical parameters, soil properties, tree diameter and height). The instructions were 171 emailed to all interested contributors prior to the first sampling campaign in spring 2023 (Section S1). For the 172 second campaign in summer 2023, the sampling protocol was slightly updated for clarity (i.e., weather conditions 173 at sampling day, bark removal during stem xylem sampling, labelling of exetainers, taking photos) and emailed to 174 all interested contributors again (Section S2). In addition, we held an online meeting between the two sampling 175 campaigns to provide feedback to the participants, clarify any field issues, and answer questions.

176 2.2 Description of the sampling sites

177 Samples were taken from 40 different mono-specific and mixed forest sites with beech trees (Fagus sylvatica; 14 178 sites), spruce trees (Picea abies; 13 sites), or both tree species (13 sites) in 18 European countries (Figure 1; Table 179 1): 36 sites were sampled in the spring and 39 sites in the summer. For 35 of the 40 sites, samples were collected 180 during both campaigns. In three of the sampling sites, separate beech (LIZ1, GLS1, WEI1) and spruce (LIZ2, 181 GLS2, WEI2) stands were found close to each other (i.e. the sampling sites share the same geographic coordinates). 182 Although there was a good cover of sites across central Europe for both species, most north-eastern sites were 183 sampled for spruce only, while the spread of sampled beech trees extended more to south-western Europe. The 184 sampling sites correspond to the natural and naturalised ranges of the tree species across Europe (Figure 1) and 185 cover a range of temperate (Köppen-Geiger Cfa, Cfb, Csb) and cold (Köppen-Geiger Dfb, Dfc) climates. The

- 186 sampling sites also differed in elevation (14 to 1870 m a.s.l.; Table 1). The sampling sites were evenly distributed
- 187 across different slopes (i.e., flat, gentle, and steep). Most sites were located on Cambisols or Leptosols; with just
- 188 one Histosol (i.e., peat at the site ROT in Finland). The maximum existing soil depth varied between 0.3 m and >
- 189 1 m and for half of the sites, the maximum soil depth was > 0.6 m. Canopy cover was determined for 30 of the 40
- 190 sampling sites from non-hemispherical photographs taken with a phone camera, as described in Section S3. Most
- 191 of the pictures were taken during the spring campaign, however, for some sites, pictures were taken during the
- 192 summer campaign or both campaigns. For the sites for which canopy cover could be determined, it was generally
- 193 higher for the beech trees than the spruce trees (Table 1).
- 194 Table 1: Summary statistics for sampling campaigns across 40 European beech and spruce study sites, including
- 195 13 sites with both species. *Köppen-Geiger classification based on Beck et al. (2023).

196

197 Figure 1. Maps showing the sampling sites (circles) for beech (A) and spruce (B) trees and their natural and 198 naturalised ranges across Europe (shaded areas; data from Caudullo et al. (2017)).

199 2.3 Sampling, transport, and storage of stem xylem and soil samples

200 At each sampling site, three beech (Fagus sylvatica) and/or three spruce (Picea abies) trees were selected based 201 on their representativeness for the stand. The selected spruce and beech trees ranged in size but were similar in 202 mean height (22-23 m) and diameter at breast height (36-39 cm, Table 1). Stem xylem samples were taken from 203 each selected tree at breast height using a 0.5 cm increment borer. Each sample (one per selected tree) consisted 204 of two to three ~5 cm long stem sapwood samples. Most samples consisted of fully intact wood cores; but 9.8% 205 of all stem xylem samples were non-intact stem xylem samples. The outer and inner bark of the wood cores were 206 removed from the cores, yet, bark residue was observed in 40% of all stem xylem samples after cryogenic water 207 extraction. The same three trees were sampled during both campaigns at each site, except at the beech site GRI, 208 where different trees were sampled in spring and summer, and at the beech site MTV, where six samples were 209 taken. This resulted in a total of 311 stem xylem samples.

210 In addition to the stem xylem samples, soil samples were taken at each site for each sampling campaign with a 211 manual soil auger. The samples were typically taken from one soil core at three to five depths spanning 10 cm 212 intervals (0-10, 10-20, 20-30, 50-60, and 80-90 cm below the surface), but occasionally also for other depths. The 213 number of soil samples and the depth of the deepest soil sample depended on the maximum existing soil depth at 214 the sampling site. The soil samples were taken from a location close to the selected trees. The litter was removed 215 before taking the 0-10 cm soil sample. For some sites and sampling campaigns, soil samples from an additional 216 two to four soil cores were taken. For a few sites with both species (i.e., DRA, FRE, UHL, ZOE), soil cores were 217 separately taken for beech, spruce, and both species. This resulted in a total of 381 soil samples.

218 Stem xylem and soil samples were transferred into 12 mL gas-tight glass vials ("Exetainers", Labco, Lampeter, 219 UK). For the soil samples, exetainers were filled with 50-80% of their volume with soil. Some soil and stem xylem 220 samples (13% of all 692 samples) were stored in other types of gas-tight plastic or glass vials. Most samples were 221 taken midday on dry and sunny days. Samples were handled as fast as possible to avoid evaporative fractionation. 222 Back in the laboratory, all samples were stored in a refrigerator to avoid moisture loss to evaporation and 223 subsequent isotope fractionation until transportation. All samples were then shipped without cooling and arrived

224 within four weeks of the final day of each sampling campaign at the laboratory at WSL Birmensdorf in 225 Switzerland, where they were kept at -20°C until cryogenic water extraction.

226 2.4 Cryogenic vacuum water extraction

227 Water was extracted from all 692 samples at WSL Birmensdorf using a cryogenic vacuum distillation method as 228 described in Diao et al. (2022). In brief, the exetainers with the samples were taken from the freezer and fitted with 229 polypropylene fiber filters (Nozzle protection filter, Socorex Isba SA, Ecublens, Switzerland) to prevent particles 230 from being drawn into the extraction line. Samples originally stored in other types of vials were transferred to 231 exetainers that fit the cryogenic vacuum distillation system. Samples were then heated to 80°C in a water bath, 232 while the extraction line was kept under a vacuum of < 5 Pa (BS2212, Brook Crompton Ltd, Doncaster, UK). The 233 extracted water was trapped in U-shaped glass tubes, constantly kept in liquid nitrogen. After a minimum of 2 234 hours, the water extraction was stopped and atmospheric pressure was established in the extraction line by passing 235 dry nitrogen gas through it. Then, the U-tubes were removed, the ends of the tubes were closed with rubber plugs 236 and the water samples were thawed at room temperature. Depending on the extracted water amount, the water was 237 pipetted to 350 μL or 2 mL glass vials (Infochroma AG, Goldau, Switzerland) and kept frozen at -20°C until 238 isotope analysis. A few samples that appeared turbid after extraction were filtered with 0.45 µm nylon syringe 239 filters (Infochroma AG).

240 We determined the sample weight before water extraction ("fw"), after water extraction ("dw1"), and after drying 241 at 105°C for 24 hours (dw2) to estimate the absolute water amount ("awa"), the total extraction efficiency ("tef"), 242 and the gravimetric water content (gwc) for each sample (for equations, see Table 3). The sample weights (i.e., 243 "fw", "dw1", "dw2") were corrected for the weight of the exetainer ("exe_weight", Table 3). The latter was based 244 on the mean weight of approximately thirty exetainers for 10 different types ("exe_type", Table 3; i.e., different 245 combinations of glass vials, cap with a rubber seal, and label), which averaged around 13.0 g and varied by a 246 maximum of 0.3 g. Across all soil and stem xylem samples (Figure 2A), "awa" averaged around 1.4 mL, and was 247 well above the critical thresholds for extracted water volume in the vast majority of samples (Diao et al., 2022). 248 The average value for "tef" was 100.6%, and was for most samples $(N = 543)$ within the optimal range of 98-249 102% (Ceperley et al., 2024). The "gwc" varied between soil samples and stem xylem samples of beech and spruce, 250 averaging around 40.9%, 61.3%, and 83.9%, respectively (Figure 2C). Note that variations in "awa", "tef", and 251 "gwc", and "tef" values > 100%, may partly be due to uncertainties arising from the estimation of the exetainer 252 weight ("exe weight"; Table 3), reflecting an average value rather than the actual weight of each exetainer.

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254 Figure 2: Density plots for (A) the extracted absolute water amounts, (B) the total extraction efficiency (tef), and 255 (C) the gravimetric water content (gwc) for stem xylem (beech and spruce) and soil samples for all samples 256 analysed (i.e., all sites and sampling campaigns). The insert in figure (C) shows the sample count for different 257 types of samples across five different tef classifications.

258 2.5 Isotope analysis with laser spectrometer and IRMS

259 The stable isotope ratios of hydrogen (δ^2 H) and oxygen (δ^{18} O) of the cryogenically extracted water were measured 260 at WSL Birmensdorf using a cavity ring-down spectrometer (L2140i, Picarro Inc., Santa Clara, USA) connected 261 to a micro-combustion module (MCM) to eliminate sample artefacts caused by co-extracted organic compounds 262 (Martín-Gómez et al., 2015). Each sample was injected eight times and the average of the final five injections was 263 taken to minimize memory effects (Penna et al., 2012). Samples were calibrated with four reference isotope 264 standards spanning from -10.5‰ to -120.2‰ for δ^2H and from -3.0‰ to -16.1‰ for $\delta^{18}O$ (LGR; Envitec NV, 265 Lessines, Belgium) and normalized to the international Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW-2) scale. 266 The maximum deviation (i.e., accuracy) of an interspersed in-house laboratory standard (analysed every \sim 25 267 samples, δ^{18} O: -9.6‰, δ^2 H: -84.9‰) from the expected value was \leq 0.2‰ for δ^{18} O and \leq 0.5‰ for δ^2 H. The 268 standard deviation (SD) of the repeated measurements of the laboratory standards (i.e., precision) was $\leq 0.1\%$ for 269 δ^{18} O and $\leq 0.6\%$ for δ^2 H.

270 To check for spectral interferences with plant-produced volatile organic compounds during the isotope analysis 271 with laser spectrometer, a subset of 83 samples were also analyzed using a thermal combustion/elemental analyzer 272 (TC/EA) coupled to a DeltaPlus XP isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany), 273 with a typical precision of 1.0‰ for δ^2 H and 0.2‰ for δ^{18} O. This subset was representative for both sampling 274 campaigns, sample types (stem xylem vs. soil), tree species, geographic locations, and range of isotopic values. 275 The IRMS data were highly correlated with the data of the laser spectrometer (Figures 3A, 3B). Most of the data

276 were within the range of ± 1 SD and showed a positive offset for both elements (Figure 3C). The δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ 277 offset between the two types of analysis had mean values around 0.7‰ and 0.3‰ across all samples (Figure 3C), 278 respectively. These mean offsets represent the average of the differences between the two methods, accounting for 279 both positive and negative values. The SD of these offsets were 1.4‰ for δ^2 H and 0.5‰ for δ^{18} O, indicating the 280 variability around the mean offsets, not zero. Paired t-tests across the samples of the subset show that the δ^2 H and 281 δ^{18} O differences between the two analytical methods were significantly (P < 0.05) larger for spruce (mean = 0.7‰ 282 and 1.1‰) than for beech (mean = 0.4‰ and 0.7‰) and soils of all depth (only significant for δ^2 H; mean = 0.6‰).

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284 Figure 3: Linear relationships between hydrogen (A; δ^2H) and oxygen (B; $\delta^{18}O$) isotopic composition for the water 285 samples analyzed using a laser spectrometer (Laser) and an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS). Panel (C) 286 displays a biplot of the differences in the $\delta^{18}O$ and δ^2H values for the two instruments. The small white box in the 287 middle of C represents the mean isotopic difference, while the light grey and dark grey boxes denote ± one and 288 two standard deviations for the isotopic difference, respectively.

289 2.6 Description of the dataset

290 The dataset consists of three comma-separated files and one zip file with photos of the canopy at the sampling 291 sites. The first datafile ("WATSON_Metadata.csv") contains all the metadata about the sampling sites including 292 site-, soil- and tree-specific information (Table 2), the second file ("WATSON_Isotopedata.csv") contains the 293 information about sample weights, cryogenic water extraction and the actual hydrogen and oxygen isotope data 294 (Table 3), and the third file ("WATSON_Canopydata.csv") contains the information on the canopy cover (Table 295 4). The photos on which the canopy cover data are based are stored in the "WATSON_Canopy_Pictures.zip" file. 296 All files can be linked by the "site id", which is a three-letter identifier of the sampling sites.

- 297 Table 2: Description of the columns in the "WATSON Metadata.csv" file containing all the meta-information
- 298 about the sampling sites [and units].
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300 Table 3: Description of the columns in the "WATSON_Isotopedata.csv" file containing all the isotope data and 301 additional information about the extraction [and units].

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303 Table 4: Description of the columns in the "WATSON_Canopydata.csv" file describing the canopy cover for the 304 sampling sites for which canopy pictures were available.

305

306 3 Results and discussion

307 3.1 Isotopic variation for the spring and summer sampling campaigns

308 The isotopic composition of the soil and the stem xylem water samples varied spatially (Figure 4). The samples 309 were more depleted in heavy isotopes at sites located further north and inland. Multiple linear regression analyses 310 showed that latitude, longitude, and elevation were all important variables explaining the observed spatial variation 311 in the isotopic composition of soil and stem xylem water (Table 5). Among the three geographic variables, 312 longitude and latitude explained most of the variance for seven of the eight cases shown in Table 5. Since the total 313 variance explained by latitude, longitude, and elevation was relatively low in most cases ($R^2 = 0.17$ to 0.6), other 314 factors likely contributed to the variation in the isotopic composition of the samples. In combination with the 315 gravimetric water content of the soil (e.g., "gwc"; Table 3), gridded climate data, and precipitation isotope data 316 (Nelson et al., 2021), the data could be useful for new soil and stem xylem water isoscape models or function as 317 additional data in hydrological studies.

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Figure 4: Map showing the δ¹⁸O values for stem xylem water (inner circle) and soil water at 0-10 cm (outer circle) 320 for the spring (A,B) and summer (C,D) sampling campaigns. Results for beech trees are reported on the left and 321 spruce trees on the right. For some sites, the isotopic composition of the stem xylem samples was similar to that 322 of the shallow soil (0-10 cm depth) (both circles have the same color); for others, the differences were large (i.e., 323 the color of the inner and outer circle differs) indicating water uptake from a different (e.g. deeper) water source.

324 Table 5: Percentage of variance in $\delta^{18}O$ values explained by latitude, longitude, and elevation, as determined by 325 multiple linear regression analyses. Values in bold indicate the highest relative contribution of a geographical 326 parameter to the total variance for each sample type for each campaign (Spring/Summer). R^2 reflects the total 327 variance explained by latitude, longitude, and elevation. All linear models were statistically significant $(P < 0.001)$.

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329 The isotopic composition of the soil and stem xylem water samples also varied between the two sampling 330 campaigns (Figures 4 and 5). For instance, δ^{18} O values were higher (i.e., less negative) in summer compared to 331 those of the spring for the different soil depths and the two tree species (unpaired t-test, $P < 0.05$), except for soils 332 in the depth range of 30-90 cm for which there was no significant difference between spring and summer (unpaired 333 t-test, P > 0.05; Figure 5). For the $\delta^{18}O$ values of stem xylem water, the median seasonal difference (summer-334 spring), averaged per site, was 0.8‰ across all spruce sites (ranging from -1.4 to 4.8‰) and 0.6 ‰ across all beech 335 sites (ranging from -1.9 to 2.9‰). In comparison, the average median seasonal δ¹⁸O difference was larger and/or 336 showed higher a variability for soil water, e.g., 1.3‰ at 0-10 cm depth (ranging from -10.8 to 6.1‰) and 0.6 ‰ at 337 30-90 cm depth (ranging from -3.3 to 9.6‰). In spring, the δ¹⁸O values of deep soils (30-90 cm) were only lower 338 (i.e., more negative) compared to those of the shallower soils (0-10 cm), while in summer, δ^{18} O values of deep 339 soils were lower compared to all other soil depths above 30 cm (unpaired t-test, P < 0.05). Similar seasonal 340 differences for stem xylem and soil water were observed for the δ^2 H values (Figure 5). The data may, therefore, 341 be used to investigate the infiltration of precipitation and snowmelt into the soil, but also evaporative enrichment 342 of the shallow soil water, or to test models that simulate these processes.

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Figure 5: Boxplots for (A) hydrogen and (B) the oxygen isotopic composition (δ^2 H, δ^{18} O) of stem xylem water of 345 both tree species (beech and spruce) and soil water at different depths for the spring and summer campaigns. Soil 346 depths are shown for 0-10 cm (S0-10), 10-20 cm (S10-20), 20-30 cm(S20-30) and 30-90 cm (S30-90). The vertical 347 line within the box indicates the median (50th percentile). The box represents the interquartile range (IQR),

348 spanning from the 25th percentile to the 75th percentile. The whiskers extend to the furthest data points within 1.5 349 times the IQR from the quartiles. Symbols outside the whiskers represent outliers.

350 Further, we found that the isotopic composition of the stem xylem water plotted in the range of soil water at the 351 site level ("overlap"), though not consistently across all sites (Figure 6). The mean δ¹⁸O values overlapped for 352 more beech sites (68% in spring, 84% in summer) than for spruce sites (41 in spring, 48% in summer). The number 353 of sites for which the δ^{18} O values of the soil and stem xylem water overlapped was also larger for the summer than 354 for the spring sampling campaign. In contrast, the overlap in mean $\delta^2 H$ values was higher for spruce sites (58% in 355 spring, 68% in summer) than beech sites (28% in spring, 23% summer). A lack of overlap may indicate that the 356 trees used water from other sources, such as recent precipitation events, water stored in organic surface layers, 357 deeper, unsampled soil layers or groundwater. Another explanation might be related to cryogenic water extraction 358 artefacts (see section on "Cryogenic water extraction biases").

359 The soil and stem xylem data could be used to test models that simulate plant-soil-water dynamics (Klein et al., 360 2014; Brinkmann et al., 2018; Knighton et al., 2020) and to test how this depends on site-, soil-, and tree-specific 361 information (Table 3). When the data are combined with isotope data of precipitation, such as those from the GNIP 362 network (e.g.,Terzer-Wassmuth et al., 2023), or models, such as Piso.AI (Nelson et al., 2021), the data can also 363 be used to study the seasonal origins of tree water uptake, as well as the spatial and temporal patterns associated 364 with it (Allen et al., 2019; Floriancic et al., 2024a). For sites without overlap, the application of mixing models, 365 such as IsoSource (Phillips and Gregg, 2003) or MixSIAR (Stock et al., 2018), might be limited. However, 366 alternative mixing models with incomplete end-members could be tested (Kirchner, 2023).

367 For sites with both species, the isotopic data for the stem xylem water of the two species appear to be different 368 (Figure 6). The median difference between species across all sites for the mean δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ values (spruce-369 beech), averaged per site, was 4.1‰ and 0.7‰ in spring and 10.1‰ and 1.1‰ in summer, respectively. Thus, the 370 stem xylem water in spruce tended to be isotopically enriched compared to ones in beech, which is consistent with 371 the generally shallower root system of spruce compared to beech. The data can therefore be used to study species-372 specific differences in root water uptake depth across Europe.

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377 3.2 Cryogenic water extraction biases

378 The dual isotope plots show that the isotope ratios of the soil were closer to the GMWL than those of stem xylem 379 water for both species (Figure 7). However, particularly in summer, the isotope ratios of the shallower soils at 380 some locations also deviated from the GMWL. This may indicate that the water in the shallow soil was affected 381 by evaporation and that the trees used this enriched water. While evaporation might be responsible for some of the 382 offset between the soil and stem xylem samples, there was no evaporative enrichment for most soil samples. 383 Nevertheless, it should be considered that soil organic matter can bias the isotopic composition of the extracted 384 water (Ceperley et al., 2024; Orlowski et al., 2016), as well as the presence of volatile organic compounds that 385 may interfere isotopic analysis with laser spectrometers (Martín-Gómez et al., 2015). The latter, however, should 386 be reduced by the use of the micro-combution modul in our study. Furthermore, given the relatively small isotopic 387 differences between the laser and IRMS measurements (Figure 3), the overall large δ^2 H deviation from the GMWL 388 for the stem xylem samples is more likely caused by methodological issues related to the cryogenic vacuum 389 distillation method (Chen et al., 2020; Diao et al., 2022; Barbeta et al., 2022). According to these studies, biases 390 might be related to stem water content, differences in the isotopic composition of the xylem water and water in 391 plant cells, exchange of H-atoms between organic material and water or water vapour, and isotope fractionation 392 related to evaporation and sublimation during the extraction procedure.

393 To address these issues, we performed further quality checks for the cryogenic extraction (Figure 8). Although 394 there was a significant difference in the total extraction efficiency for the samples handled by the three main lab 395 technicians (one-way ANOVA, P < 0.001; Figure 8A), the efficiency did not depend on the cryogenic vacuum 396 distillation slot (Figure 8B) and showed no systematic effect on the δ²H and δ¹⁸O values (Figure 8C). The presence 397 of bark residue in the samples did not significantly affect the isotope signals (unpaired t-test, $P > 0.05$), although 398 the slopes of the dual isotope plots tended to be different ($P = 0.06$, Figure 8D). Comparing the δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ values 399 between samples stored in exetainers and other vials (Table 3, "original_vial") revealed no visual or statistical 400 differences either, suggesting that sampling, transport, and transfer of samples from other vials to exetainers before 401 cryogenic water extraction in the laboratory did not notably affect the isotope results. The data of this study can 402 be used to further explore the cryogenic water extraction biases with the additionally provided site-, soil- and tree-403 specific information (Zhao et al., 2024; Sobota et al., 2024). Alternatively, they can be used to support other studies 404 on methodological issues related to cryogenic water extraction.

 406 Figure 7: Dual isotope plots of oxygen and hydrogen isotope ratios (δ²H, δ¹⁸O) for all soil and stem xylem water 407 samples for the spring (top panel) and the summer (bottom panel) campaigns. Isotope values for soil samples are 408 color coded according to soil depth. GMWL = Global Meteoric Water Line: $\delta^2 H = 8 \delta^{18}O + 10$.

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412 Figure 8: Total extraction efficiency (tef, %) quality checks: (A) tef values categorized by extractionist (Person 413 A, B, or C) and (B) by cryogenic vacuum distillation slot IDs. Correlation between oxygen ($\delta^{18}O$) and hydrogen 414 (δ²H) isotope values for (C) all samples colored by different tef categories and for (D) stem xylem samples with 415 ("yes") and without presence of bark ("no"), including fitted trend lines.

416 4 Concluding remarks

22 417 We present a large pan-European dataset of soil and stem xylem water isotopes of two common tree species 418 collected during spring and summer 2023. Since our observations are standardized according recently published 419 sampling and extraction procedures (Ceperley et al., 2024; Scandellari et al., 2024), this data can serve as a baseline 420 for future ecohydrological studies. This dataset is freely available and represents a valuable resource for different 421 research topics. These may include identifying the factors that affect tree water uptake depth and the seasonal 422 sources of water used by trees, calibrating and constraining isotope-aided ecohydrological models, incorporating

423 the data into isoscape models, or studying how biases caused by cryogenic water extraction vary by species, soil

424 type, or climate.

425 Statistics

426 For all statistical analyses we used R version 4.3.1 (R Core Team, 2023). For our multiple linear regression 427 analyses, we applied a cube root transformation to the data to address non-normality. We then utilized the R 428 package "relaimpo" (Grömping, 2006) to assess the relative importance of the geographical parameters in our 429 model. If data is presented for soil at a depth of 30-90 cm, it represents all available data points for soil depths 430 greater than 30 cm, without any additional modifications of the data.

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452 Data availability

453 All data is freely available under the agreement "Creative Commons Zero - No Rights Reserved (CC0 1.0)" in the 454 data repository EnviDat: Lehmann, M. M., Geris, J., van Meerveld, I., Penna, D., Rothfuss, Y., Verdone, M., Ala-455 Aho, P., Arvai, M., Babre, A., Balandier, P., Bernhard, F., Butorac, L., Carrière, S. D., Ceperley, N. C., Chen, Z., 456 Correa, A., Diao, H., Dubbert, D., Dubbert, M., Ercoli, F., Floriancic, M. G., Gimeno, T. E., Gounelle, D.,

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465 Competing interests

466 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

467 Author contribution (CRediT)

- 468 The WATSON sampling campaign core organization and writing team consisted of Marco M. Lehmann (MML),
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- 471 IvM, DP, YR, MV, KM; Funding acquisition: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM; Investigation: MML, JG, IvM, DP,
- 472 YR, KM; Methodology: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM; Project administration: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM;
- 473 Resources: MML, KM; Validation: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM; Visualization: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM;
- 474 Writing original draft: MML, JG, IvM, DP, YR, KM; Writing review & editing: all.

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