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# Reconstruction of the March–August PDSI since 1703 AD based on tree rings of Chinese pine (*Pinus tabulaeformis* Carr.) in the Lingkong Mountain, southeast Chinese loess Plateau

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## Abstract

We utilized tree-ring cores, collected from three sites at Lingkong Mountain located in the southeast part of the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP), to develop a regional ring-width chronology. Significant positive correlations between the tree-ring index and the monthly Palmer drought severity index (PDSI) were identified, indicating that the radial growth of trees in this region was moisture-limited. The March–August mean PDSI was quantitatively reconstructed from 1703 to 2008 with an explained variance of 46.4%. Seven dry periods during 1719–1726, 1742–1748, 1771–1778, 1807–1818, 1832–1848, 1867–1932 and 1993–2008 and six wet periods during 1727–1741, 1751–1757, 1779–1787, 1797–1805, 1853–1864 and 1934–1957 were revealed in our reconstruction. Among them, 1867–1932 and 1934–1957 were identified as the longest dry and wet periods, respectively. On the centennial scale, the 19th century was recognized as the driest century. The drying tendency since 1960s was evident, however, recent drought was still within the frame of natural climate variability based on the 306 yr PDSI reconstruction. The warm and dry phases of Lingkong Mountain were in accordance with changes in the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) strength, they also showed strong similarity to other tree-ring based moisture indexes in large areas in and around the CLP, indicating the moisture variability in the CLP was almost synchronous and closely related with EASM variation. Spatial correlation analysis suggested that this PDSI reconstruction could represent the moisture variations for most parts of the CLP, even larger area of northern China and east Mongolia. Multi-taper spectral analysis revealed significant cycles at the inter-annual (2.0–7.8 yr), inter-decadal (37.9 yr) and centennial (102 yr) scales, suggesting the influence of ENSO and solar activity on moisture conditions in the CLP. Results of this study are very helpful for us to improve the knowledge of past climate change in the CLP and enable us to prevent and manage future natural disasters.

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# 1 Introduction

Various studies have demonstrated that the development of human society was closely related with changes in climate (Xu, 1998; Zhang et al., 2010, 2011; Büntgen et al., 2011). When climate change reaches an extreme level, it causes disaster. Drought is one of the most devastating natural disasters throughout the world, which also strongly influenced monsoon China. In 1999 and 2000, there was a persistent drought in north and northeast China, which caused a 20–30% loss of agriculture productivity (Wei et al., 2004). At the end of the 1920s, an extraordinary drought affected most parts of China, and subsequent drought-induced famines and disease led to the death of 4 million residents in five provinces in northern China (Liang et al., 2006; Wang, 2006). An improved knowledge of the characteristics of climate change will enable us prevent and manage future natural disasters and promote the sustainable development of our society.

It is imperative to identify the features of climate changes in details based on long-term and continuous climatic proxies. Annually dated tree rings are preferable climatic proxies for extending the limited modern meteorological record by analyzing the relationship between tree-ring indexes and climatic factors, thereby reconstructing the climate history for centuries to millennia (Zhang et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2009; Linderholm et al., 2010; Büntgen et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2009; Ohyama et al., 2013). Tree rings have been successfully used to investigate drought history throughout the world (Esper et al., 2007; Cook et al., 2010), including arid to semi-arid areas of China (Liang et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2011; Fang et al., 2012; Cai and Liu, 2013).

The Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP), one of the cradles of ancient Chinese civilization, covers a large region in the north of China and is one of the most intensive areas of soil and water loss in the world, partly due to limited water resources (Gao et al., 2011). Recent studies have shown that the warm-dry trend since the 1950s is clearly evident in the CLP (Yao et al., 2005; Ma and Fu, 2006) and will inevitably lead to the eco-environmental deterioration of this vast region. Investigations of the natural climate

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The results of the leave-one-out test are shown in Table 1. The sign test ( $S$ ,  $S_1$ ) between the instrumental and estimated PDSI series, and between the first difference series of the two PDSI datasets, are significant at the 99 % confident level. The product means value ( $t$ ) is 3.07 and the reduction of error (RE) is positive, indicating sufficient similarity exists between the reconstructed and instrumental data. The statistical results of Bootstrap and Jackknife analysis are shown in Table 2. The values of  $r$ ,  $R^2$  ( $R_{adj}^2$ ), standard error of estimate,  $F$  and  $P$  closely resemble the statistics determined for the total dataset. The above tests indicate that the regression model is stable and suitable for further PDSI reconstruction.

We subsequently extended the March–August mean PDSI variation back to 1703 AD (Fig. 6a), the longest series in the eastern part of the CLP to date. The reconstruction exhibited considerable fluctuations on both the annual and decadal scales.

## 4 Discussions

### 4.1 Annual, inter-annual and centennial variation of the PDSI

The mean PDSI value of the reconstruction over the entire study period (1703–2008 AD) was  $-1.45$ , and the standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) was 2.23. By defining extremely wet years as those having values greater than  $0.78$  (mean  $+1\sigma$ ) and extremely dry years as values lower than  $-3.68$  (mean  $-1\sigma$ ), the 10 driest years were identified as 1810 ( $-7.50$ ), 1900 ( $-7.20$ ), 1721 ( $-7.16$ ), 1916 ( $-6.52$ ), 2000 ( $-6.45$ ), 1759 ( $-6.41$ ), 1747 ( $-6.38$ ), 1902 ( $-6.29$ ), 1892 ( $-6.25$ ) and 1870 ( $-6.18$ ), and the top 10 wettest years were 1857 (5.51), 1948 (4.86), 1950 (4.58), 1949 (4.18), 1946 (3.92), 1956 (3.16), 1934 (3.15), 1938 (2.86), 1736 (2.85) and 1782 (2.78), respectively.

Persistent drought event usually has more significant impact on agricultural products and social stability than that of single year (Xiao et al., 2011). Overall, seven comparatively dry and six comparatively wet periods were observed based on the 11 yr moving average of the reconstruction (Table 3).



2003b). This wet phenomenon was also captured by tree-ring records from different areas of Inner Mongolia and Korea (Liu et al., 2003b; Liang et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2012) as well as by studies from other regions of northern China (Fig. 7).

The PDSI reconstruction indicates a decreasing trend since 1958 AD, especially after the mid of 1960s, implying a gradually deteriorating moisture condition in the studied area against the background of global warming. The evident dry time appeared during 1993–2008 AD. The drying trend at Lingkong Mountain in recent decades is also accorded with the weakening of East Asian monsoon since the mid of 1960s (Guo et al., 2004; Zeng et al., 2009).

As indicated by the accumulated anomalies (AC) of the PDSI reconstruction (Fig. 6b), which can effectively evaluate long-term trends of dryness and wetness (Tian et al., 2007), the reconstructed March–August PDSI showed clearly centennial variations. The studied area was comparatively wet during the 18th century, with a slight increasing trend of AC from 1703 to 1806. From 1807 to 1932, AC generally indicated a long and sharp decreasing trend, demonstrating a persistent dry time. From 1932 to the end of the 1950s, a sharply increased AC was observed, followed by a comparatively stable stage of AC during the 1960s–1980s, showing a comparatively wet condition; however, after the 1990s, AC decreased sharply, which meant a clearly dry time appeared. Therefore we could say that the 19th century was the driest century of the past three centuries at Lingkong Mountain. Similar conclusions have also been drawn concerning Mongolia (Pederson et al., 2001) and northeastern China (Chen et al., 2011, 2012), as well as the eastern central High Asia (Fang et al., 2010b) based on tree-ring materials.

## 4.2 Temporal and Spatial representation of the PDSI reconstruction

The dry (wet) durations in our reconstruction not only agree well with the nearby PDSI reconstructions (Figs. 1 and 7) for the Guancen Mountain (Fig. 7b, Sun et al., 2012) and the Taihang Mountain (Fig. 7c, Cai and Liu, 2013), but are also comparable to those from the Ortindag Sand Land, east Inner Mongolia (Fig. 7d, Liang et al., 2007)

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and Kongtong Mountains (Fig. 7e, Song and Liu, 2011), which are far to the northeast and the west from the studied sites, respectively. The dry period at 1870s–1880s and the end of the 1920s and the wet period around the 1950s are observed in almost all of the series. Compared with the comparatively longer PDSI reconstruction in the Kongtong Mountains (Fig. 7e), the wet durations during 1727–1741, 1751–1757, 1779–1805 and 1853–1864 AD were approximately synchronous at these two sites, and the dry periods during 1742–1748, 1771–1778, 1807–1818 and the longest dry period during 1867–1932 AD were comparable, although differences existed in the intensity and length of their durations. Moreover, our PDSI reconstruction was also comparable to a nearby tree-ring-based March–July runoff reconstruction for the upper Fenhe River basin (Sun et al., 2013) and tree-ring based precipitation reconstruction of Helan Mountain in north-central China (Liu et al., 2005).

The climate in northern China is known to be strongly affected by the EASM system. Abnormal behaviors of the EASM often result in floods or droughts in the monsoon region. Zhou et al. (2009) reconstructed a June–August Asian–Pacific Oscillation index ( $I_{APO}$ ) to investigate the long-term variation of the EASM. The calculated correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between our reconstructed PDSI and the  $I_{APO}$  was 0.29 (1703–1985,  $p < 0.001$ ), and  $r$  was 0.44 ( $p < 0.001$ ) after the two series were smoothed using an 11 yr moving average (Fig. 8). All of the series in Fig. 7 correspond to special regions influenced by the EASM, and thus, the isochronous variation of the moisture indicators at different sites is intuitively shown.

The instrumental March–August PDSI of the Lingkong Mountains exhibited significant and positive correlation with the March–August PDSI grid dataset over a sizable region around the studied site in the CLP, and also showed significant positive correlations with that of middle-east Inner Mongolia and east Mongolia during 1954–2005 AD (Fig. 9a). A similar correlation pattern was observed between the reconstructed March–August PDSI and the PDSI grid dataset (Fig. 9b), which tentatively indicated that our PDSI reconstruction successfully simulated the instrumental PDSI values and

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can be used to indicate the moisture conditions for a broad region surrounding the Lingkong Mountain in the CLP over the past 306 yr.

### 4.3 Possible linkage with ENSO and solar activity

Variation of the EASM is induced by large-scale thermal difference between the land and sea, and it is closely related to tropical and subtropical sea-surface temperature associated ENSO, which has proven to be a crucial factor influencing climate in northern China (Wang et al., 2000, 2008). In this work, the MTM results revealed 2.0–2.1, 2.5, 2.6, 2.7, 3.0–3.1, 3.5, 3.9 and 7.6–7.8 yr cycles (Fig. 10). These cycles are very similar to those of ENSO (Diaz and Markgraf, 2000), showing the possible influence of ENSO on the moisture variability in the studied area. These 2–7 yr cycles have also been widely reported in previous tree-ring studies in China (Liang et al., 2007; Fang et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011; Cai and Liu, 2013). The 37.9 yr cycle was very similar to the 38 yr cycle in the 2485 yr temperature reconstructions in the northeastern Tibetan Plateau (Liu et al., 2011), to the 35–38 yr cycle in a tree-ring-based streamflow reconstruction for the upper Yellow River (Gou et al., 2010) and to the 34.1 yr cycle in a tree-ring network-based spatial drought reconstruction for central high Asia (Fang et al., 2010b). Considering the limited length of our reconstruction (306 yr), the 102 yr cycle ( $p < 0.01$ ) may not be reliable. However, century-scale variations were important cycles of solar activity, which complexly influence the Earth's climate (Liu et al., 2011). A similar centennial spectrum peak was identified in the Heng Mountain area of northern China (Cai and Liu, 2013) and the northeastern Tibetan Plateau (Liu et al., 2011). Both the 37.9 and 102 yr cycles resemble the 35 yr Bruckner (Raspopov et al., 2004) and Gleissberg cycles of solar activity (Sonett et al., 1990; Braun et al., 2005), respectively, which supports the influence of solar activity on moisture variations in the Lingkong Mountain area.

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## 5 Conclusions

Using a moisture-limited regional tree-ring chronology developed from Lingkong Mountain in the southeast CLP, we reconstructed the March–August mean PDSI variations from 1703 to 2008 with an explained variance of 46.4%. The reconstructed PDSI simulated the instrumental PDSI reasonably well and exhibited considerable fluctuations on both the annual and decadal scales. It revealed seven comparatively dry and six comparatively wet periods over the past 306 yr. 1867–1932 and 1934–1957 AD were the longest dry and wet period, respectively. The three extreme drought events during 1719–1723, 1876–1878 and 1927–1930 in northern China since the Qing Dynasty were successfully captured in our reconstruction, demonstrating its ability to reproduce the drought history in the Lingkong Mountain area. The warm and dry phases of Lingkong Mountain were in accordance with changes in the EASM strength, suggesting the influence of EASM and related factors (e.g. ENSO) on the moisture conditions in the studied area. The PDSI reconstruction was temporally and regionally representative by comparing with other tree-ring based moisture reconstructions around the studied site in northern China and spatial correlation analysis, although differences existed in the intensity and length of the warm/dry durations in different areas. This manuscript not only contributes a new dataset for this area, stepping forward to a much denser and wider drought-sensitive tree-ring network, but also provides new insights into long-term regional moisture variations and offers a reference for future regional drought forecasts. In the future, more efforts are still needed to collect more old trees from CLP to extend the moisture reconstruction far back in time.

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**Table 1.** Results of the leave-one-out test for the period of 1954–2005 AD.

$r$	$R^2$	S	S1	$t$	RE
0.681	0.464	39+/13-*	38+/13-*	3.07	0.439

\* means 99% confident level

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**Table 2.** Statistics of the regression model.

	Calibration (1954–2005 AD)		Verification (1954–2005 AD)	
			Jackknife Mean (range)	Bootstrap (80 iterations) Mean (range)
$r$	0.681		0.68 (0.63–0.71)	0.68 (0.47–0.85)
$R^2$	0.464		0.46 (0.40–0.51)	0.47 (0.22–0.73)
$R^2_{\text{adj}}$	0.453		0.45 (0.38–0.50)	0.46 (0.20–0.72)
Standard error of estimate	1.939		1.94 (1.82–1.96)	1.89 (1.53–2.27)
$F$	43.26		42.47 (32.18–51.06)	48.30 (13.94–132.75)
$P$	0.0001		0.0001 (0.00–0.00)	0.0001 (0.00–0.00)

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**Table 3.** Persistent dry and wet periods during 1703–2008 AD.

Dry periods		Wet periods	
Time span	Mean PDSI value	Time span	Mean PDSI value
1719–1726	−3.11	1727–1741	−0.39
1742–1748	−2.94	1751–1757	0.93
1771–1778	−2.44	1779–1787	0.28
1807–1818	−3.21	1797–1805	0.03
1832–1848	−2.78	1853–1864	0.57
1867–1932	−2.62	1934–1957	1.36
1993–2008	−3.03		

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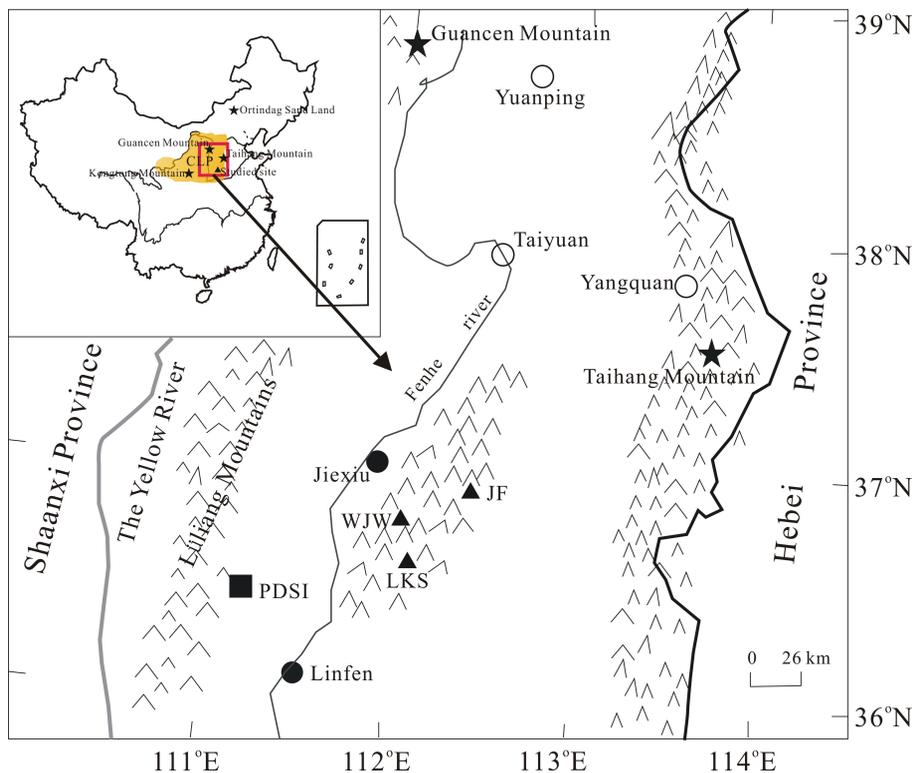
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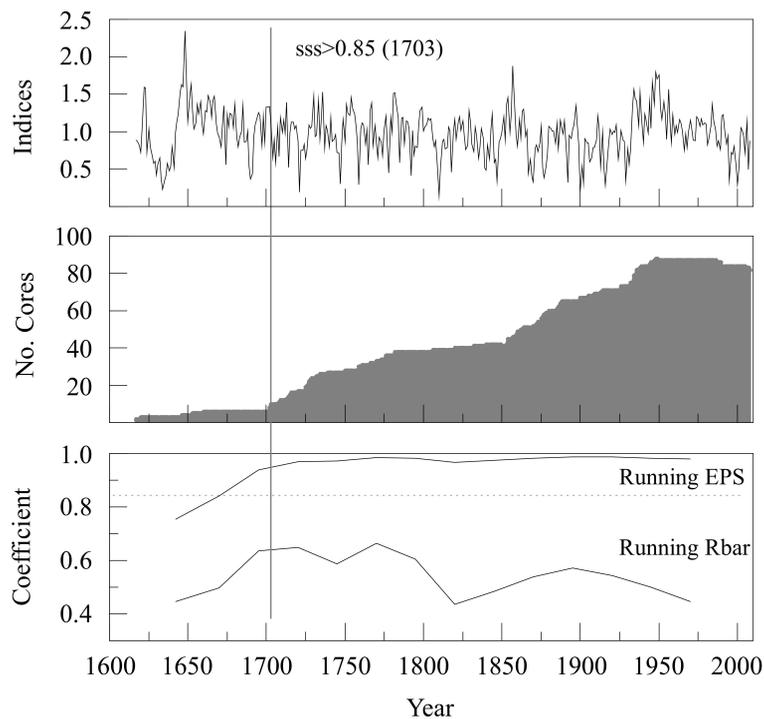


**Fig. 1.** Location of the sampling sites (▲), meteorological stations (●), PDSI (■) and the compared locations (\*). The area highlighted in yellow indicates the general location of the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP).



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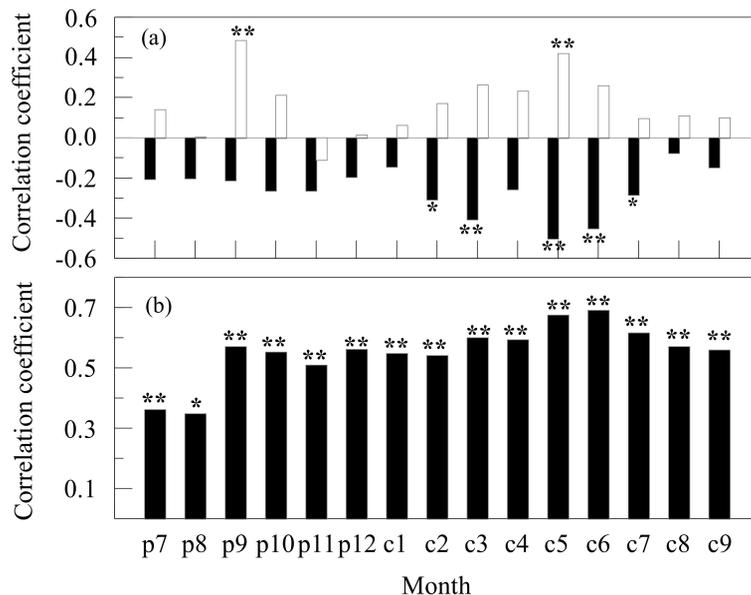
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**Fig. 3.** (a) The regional tree-ring chronology of Lingkong Mountain, (b) number of cores and (c) EPS and RBAR statistics.

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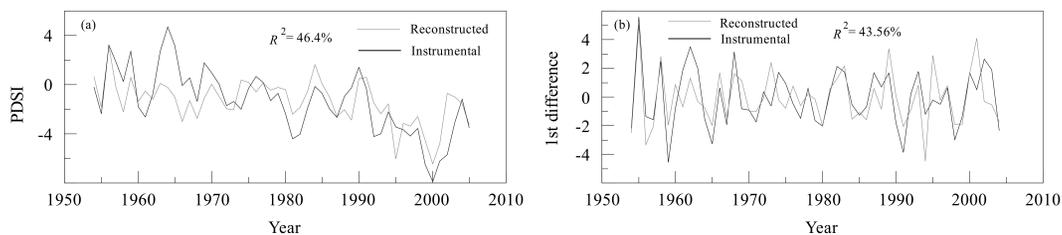


**Fig. 4.** Correlations of the ring-width indices with **(a)** the monthly mean temperature (black bars) and monthly precipitation (white bars) records obtained from the Jiexiu station during 1954–2008 AD and **(b)** PDSI data during the interval of 1954–2005 AD. \* indicates correlations exceeding the 0.05 confidence level; \*\* indicates correlations exceeding the 0.01 confidence level; p: previous year; c: current year.

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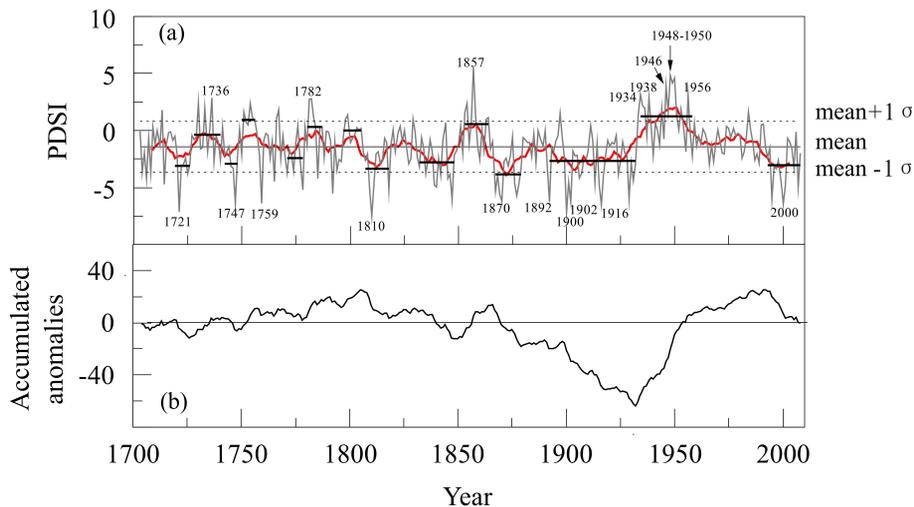


**Fig. 5.** Comparisons **(a)** between reconstructed and instrumental PDSI, and **(b)** between the first differences of reconstructed and instrumental PDSI over their common period of 1954–2005 AD.

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**Fig. 6.** (a) March–August PDSI reconstruction from 1703 to 2008 AD. The thick red line is the 11 yr moving average, the long horizontal line is the mean PDSI value of 1703–2008 AD, and the short horizontal lines are the mean PDSI values for different dry/wet periods; (b) accumulated anomalies (AC) of the PDSI reconstruction.

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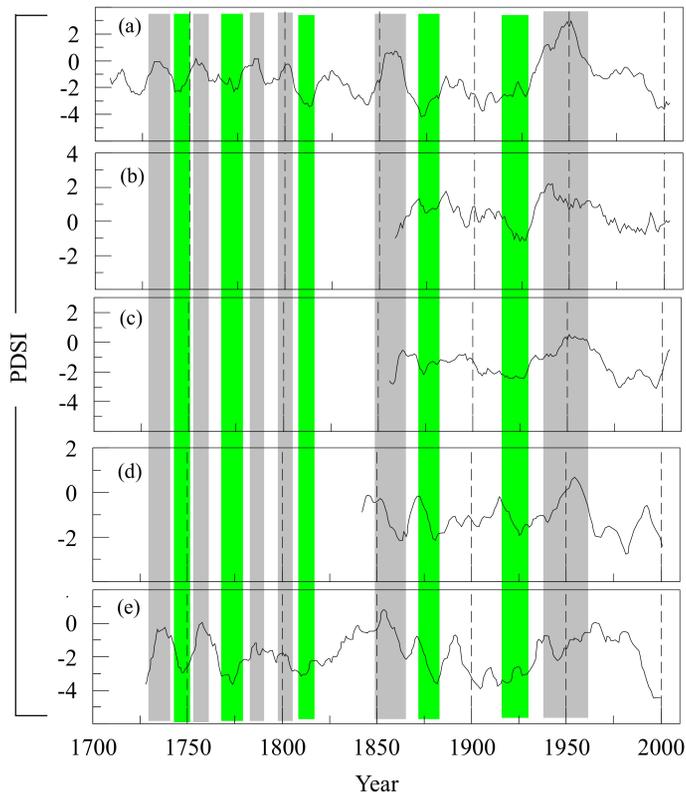
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**Fig. 7.** Comparisons of the March–August mean PDSI reconstruction **(a)** with the April–July PDSI reconstruction of the Guancen Mountain (Sun et al., 2012) **(b)**, the May–June mean PDSI of the Taihang Mountain (Cai and Liu, 2013a) **(c)**, the May–July PDSI reconstruction in the Ortindag Sand Land, east Inner Mongolia (Liang et al., 2007) **(d)**, and **(e)** the May–July mean PDSI reconstruction for the Kongtong Mountain, Gansu Province (Song and Liu, 2011). The lines are the 11 yr moving average. Green and grey bars show the dry and wet periods, respectively.

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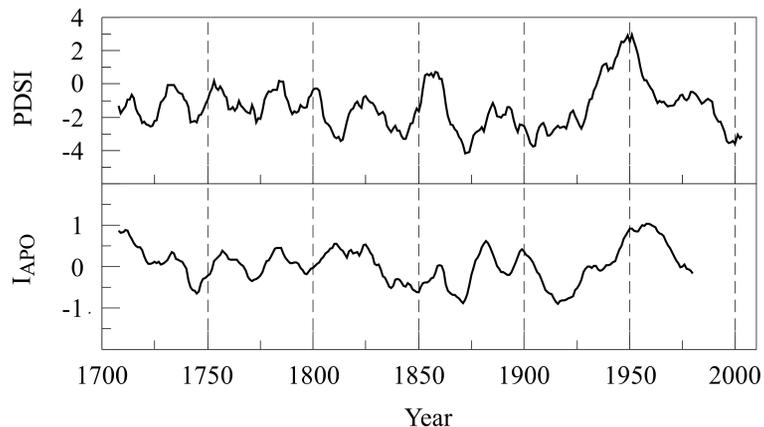
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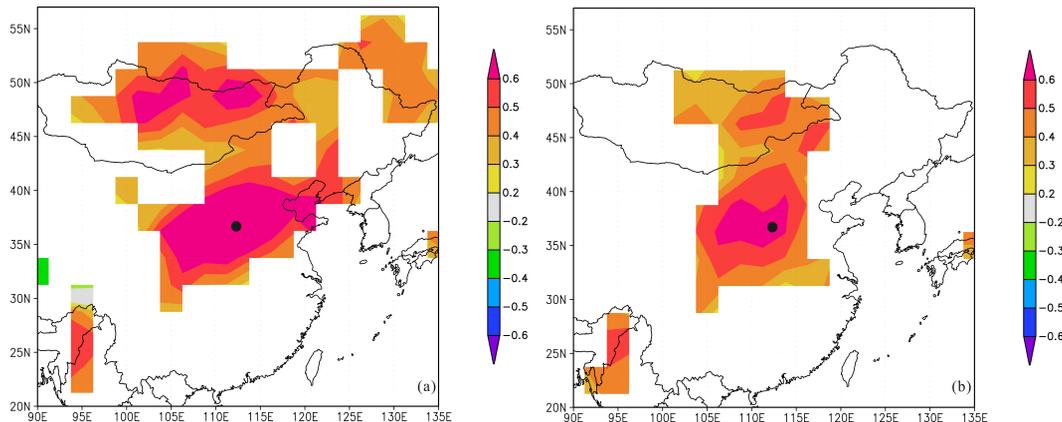


**Fig. 8.** Comparison between the 11 yr moving average of this reconstruction (top panel) and the summer  $I_{APO}$  (bottom panel) (Zhou et al., 2009).

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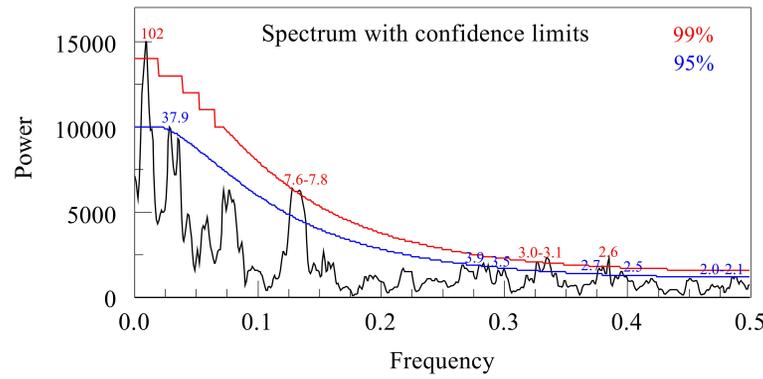
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**Fig. 9.** Spatial correlations between the instrumental **(a)** and reconstructed **(b)** PDSI of March–August and the concurrent grid data set of the PDSI over their overlapping periods (1954–2005) (<http://climexp.knmi.nl>). The black dot indicates our sampling site.

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**Fig. 10.** The multi-taper spectrum analysis of the reconstructed PDSI. The blue line and red line show the 95 and 99 % confidence limits, respectively.

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