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# Reassessing long-term drought risk and societal impacts in Shenyang, Liaoning province, Northeast China (1200 - 2015)

24

#### 25 Abstract

26 The occurrence of two severe droughts in Northeastern China since 2000 has raised attention 27 in the risk presented by droughts. This paper presents a historic drought series for Shenyang in 28 the Liaoning province, NE China since 1200 to present, with a reconstructed long precipitation 29 series (1906-2015), augmented with historical documentary accounts. Analysis of the 30 instrumental series using a standardised precipitation index (SPI) and extending it using 31 historical records has produced a combined series spanning over eight centuries. The combined 32 long series was analysed for patterns in drought frequency, severity and typology. Three 33 droughts comparable to those since 2000 occur in the instrumental series during early twentieth 34 century (e.g. 1907, 1916-18 and 1920-21), and coeval archival sources reveal the human 35 impacts of these severe droughts. The archival sources demonstrate how reduced vulnerability 36 resulting from societal and cultural changes in the early twentieth century helped prevent the 37 loss of life experienced during comparable severe droughts at the end of the nineteenth century 38 (1887 and 1891). Incorporating a longer temporal perspective to drought analysis shows that 39 onset is often earlier than is documented explicitly within the archives, and so combined SPI 40 series for a region could provide an early warning of drought development expressed as a water 41 deficit in the previous year. Analysis of archival data provides a rich historical description of 42 impacts and societal responses to severe drought. The archives provide a rich historical 43 description of drought impacts and responses at the personal and community level, whilst also 44 detailing the different roles played by communities, state and international organisations in 45 responding to events.

46

47 Keywords: Drought; Reconstruction; Historical; Shenyang; Liaoning, China

#### 48 **1 Introduction**

49 Drought is a world-wide problem, causing more deaths globally than any other natural disaster 50 (Delbiso et al., 2017); with over 485,000 deaths and more than 1.6 billion people adversely 51 affected during the last decade (2010-2019; EM-DAT, 2019). Drought is often a slow 52 developing pervasive environmental disaster that is hard to predict and manage, and a variety 53 of definitions for drought in operational use around the world, there is no universal definition 54 for drought with a variety of definitions used around the world, with many focusing on a 55 deficiency in precipitation over a period of time (Belal et al., 2014; Lloyd-Hughes, 2014; 56 Wilhite, 2000). Droughts are a long-term water deficit, that often develops slowly under 57 natural conditions or through human intervention that causes adverse impacts on activities (e.g. 58 food production) or societal groups (e.g. farmers) (Dai, 2011). Drought often begins following 59 a prolonged period of moisture deficiency (Lanen, 2006; Palmer, 1965) propagating through 60 the hydrological cycle, exhibiting differing spatial and temporal characteristics depending on a variety of factors, for example, antecedent conditions and soil moisture (Heim, 2002; Todd 61 62 et al., 2013). Wilhite and Glantz (1985) classified droughts into four types: meteorological, 63 hydrological, agricultural, socioeconomic, with Mishra and Singh (2010) recommending the 64 inclusion of a fifth classification ground water drought. Drought has been referred to as a 65 'creeping phenomenon' (Mishra and Singh, 2010), and its impacts vary from region to region, with drought effects exacerbated by other meteorological elements, such as temperature, wind, 66 67 and humidity (Brázdil et al., 2008). Palmer (1965, pp.1) notes that "drought means various things to various people, depending on specific interest". Droughts are complex so-called 68 69 'natural' hazards – the term 'natural' in natural hazards, although etymologically doubtful, 70 because in a sense all hazards are natural, may be considered as 'natural' as sanctioned by a 71 long-term use in disaster research (Sangster et al., 2018), with droughts causing significant 72 environmental, social and economic impacts (Van Loon et al., 2016). Drought is an 73 international phenomenon with notable drought episodes throughout the twentieth and twenty-74 first centuries, e.g. 1930s 'Dust Bowl' in the USA (Schubert et al., 2004); 1975-76 in Europe (Parry et al., 2012; Zaidman et al., 2002); China 1994 & 2010-2011 (Zhang et al., 2019) and 75 76 South Africa 2015-17 accompanied by continued low rainfall (Wolski, 2018). Over the last 77 decade a number of studies have started to explored historical droughts (Brázdil et al., 2009, 78 2018b) and the impacts experienced over decades to centuries on water resources (Lennard et 79 al., 2015); agriculture (Brázdil et al., 2018a); infrastructure (Harvey-Fishenden et al., 2019); 80 stream and river flows (Zaidman et al., 2002); groundwater (Bloomfield and Marchant, 2013); 81 with recent calls (e.g. Trnka et al., 2018) for more to be done with existing data, particularly in 82 understanding past socio-drought responses and changes in vulnerability. Considerable work 83 has been undertaken in recent decades in developing robust and long flood and drought 84 chronologies using combinations of archival (Brázdil et al., 2018b; Yan et al., 2014; Zheng et 85 al., 2006) and instrumental (Brázdil et al., 2009) sources from around the globe, although much work to date has focused on Europe (Wilhelm et al., 2018). The development of new online 86 87 digitised sources has facilitated greater historical analysis (Black and Law, 2004; Wang et al., 88 2018) with greater recognition from regulatory authorities of the value of historical information 89 (Kjeldsen et al., 2014).

90

91 China is one of the most natural disaster-prone countries in the world (Dai, 2011; He et al., 92 2011; Loorbach et al., 2011), and droughts are a recurrent feature of the Chinese climate (He 93 et al., 2011). Drought can be considered as the most disastrous natural hazard within China, 94 with over 465,000 deaths and more than 3.1 billion adversely affected from 1970-present and 95 12 million deaths since 1900 (EMDAT, 2019). Historically notable droughts in 1876-1878, 96 1928-1930 and 1958-62 resulted in widespread loss of life, poor harvest, leading to serious 97 social consequences of famine, robbery, unrest, and political instability (De Châtel, 2014; 98 Janku, 2018; Teklu et al., 1992; Yang et al., 2012). Between BC 206 and AD 1948, 1056 severe 99 droughts are recorded in Chinese history, though not spatially coherent (Zhang, 2004, 2013); 100 in the period 1949-2000, Zhang et al. (2008b) identify 10 years of 'heavy' (severe) agricultural 101 drought, and 4 years of 'extreme' agricultural drought. Precipitation recording in China has 102 developed through time, with some of the most advanced recorded globally during the Qing 103 Dynasty (CE 1644-1912), with both rainfall and snow depth recorded from 1736 to 1911 (Ge 104 et al., 2005). The installation of better equipment through the 1920s and 1950s saw many 105 stations upgraded, with meteorological stations often retained; however, the availability of 106 metadata on early recorders is more limited. Past droughts have had a far-reaching impact on 107 society in China; a clear understanding current and future drought risk is therefore critical. 108 With population growth, economic development, urbanisation and climatic change, drought is 109 a global challenge, but drought poses a serious threat to food security, environmental ecology, 110 urban and rural water supply in China (Bohle et al., 1994; Homer-Dixon, 1994).

111

This paper examines the history of drought in the Shenyang region of Northeast China, the spatial and temporal variability in droughts, the characteristics of droughts, and mechanisms responsible and impacts on society. Our objectives are:

115 i. To develop and analyse the record of droughts and the documentary evidence for

associated impacts (1200 AD - present), using a variety of sources including the
compendium of Chinese droughts produced by Zhang (2004, 2013);

- 118 ii. Identify and analyse contemporary droughts using the instrumented daily precipitation
  119 series at Shenyang Meteorological Observatory (Station 54342: 1961-2015), and
  120 augment this series with the longer monthly precipitation data for Shenyang (1906121 1988);
- iii. Generate a Standardised Precipitation Index (SPI-1, -6 and -12) for the augmented
  precipitation series spanning the period 1906-2015; construct one of the longest drought
  series (1200 present) combining the augmented instrumental series (ii) with historical
  data (i), and then classify the different types of drought and event severity; and,
- iv. Analyse the patterns in drought frequency, severity and type for Shenyang, examining
  the documented impacts and responses to drought to better understand how societal
  vulnerability has changed through time.
- 129

# 130 2 Study Area

- 131 Shenyang (41.8°N 123.4°E) is the capital city of Liaoning Province in Northeast China (Figure 132 1), with a temperate continental monsoon climate, with temperature ranging from -17°C 133 (January) to 29°C (July), decreasing from southwest to northeast (plain to mountain) (Chen et al., 2016); whilst average annual precipitation (500-1000 mm a<sup>-1</sup>) increases from west to east 134 135 (Zhang et al., 2013). The Shenyang municipality is home to approximately 8 million people in 136 2016. The region has witnessed reductions (at 78% of stations) in annual precipitation over the 137 period 1961-2008 (Liang et al., 2011). The Liaoning province is a primary grain producing 138 region in China; as such droughts and associated impacts on regional agricultural production 139 are of national importance, with previous studies detecting recent warming and reductions in 140 precipitation (Chen et al., 2016).
- 141

# 142 **3 Data and Methods**

# 143 **3.1 Data sources**

144 This study uses a variety of source materials including historical and instrumental datasets145 detailed below.

146

147 3.1.1 Documentary data

148 The 'A compendium of Chinese Meteorological Records of the Last 3,000 Years' produced by 149 Zhang (2004) and updated in 2013, summarises 7835 historical sources from the earliest 150 existent materials in the Chinese language, the 'Oracle Bones Collection' (c.1600 BC) through to more recent sources which describe meteorological incidences in China. The 'Oracle Bones' 151 152 have a long history of being studied for meteorological information, with early studies 153 undertaken by Wittfogel (1940). There are also a small number of private diaries and court 154 memorial files of the Qing Dynasty, though the 'History of Drought Archives in the Qing Dynasty' (Tan, 2012) provides a summary of the collection spanning from 1689 to 1911, with 155 156 more than one million pieces present in the Qing Dynasty palace archive. The China 157 Meteorological Disasters Ceremony (Liaoning volume) from Wen et al. (2005) provides 158 detailed accounts of drought alongside records of other disasters which may have been caused 159 by drought, such as famine and plague; a full list of source materials can be found in Table 1. 160 Over recent decades considerable effort has been placed into collating the archival materials 161 present across China detailing natural hazards, this wealth of information provides valuable 162 opportunities for further exploration; however, such volume limits the capacity for cross 163 checking and validation, with many sources not easily accessible. This has raised questions of 164 reliability and transparency, but as Bradley (2006) notes, the compendium produced by Zhang 165 (2004) clearly illustrates critical analysis, with careful checking for consistency and 166 discrepancies identified. Recent developments include a move to digitise these databases, 167 ensuring and maintaining high levels of archival practice, with the development of the REACHES (Reconstructed East Asian Climate Historical Encoded Series) climate database 168 169 (Wang et al., 2018).

170

171 In addition to the meteorological sources identified, information from sources detailing 172 agricultural activity provide valuable auxiliary reference materials, including the following 173 items: Shenyang local records (Meng, 1989; Shenyang Municipal People's Government Local 174 Records Office (1994-2011), 2011); The year of flood and drought in Shenyang from 1276 to 175 1985 (Shenyang Municipal People's Government Local Records Office, 1998). The following 176 datasets have been acquired from the Office of State Flood Control and Drought Relief (1999); Farmland affected area from 1949 to 1990 in Liaoning Province Statistics on Drought Area of 177 178 Heavy Drought in Liaoning Province; Drought rating assessment in various regions of 179 Liaoning Province from 1949 to 1990; Drought Statistics in the Province from 1470 to 1949; 180 Comparison of Precipitation in Liaoning Province from 1949 to 1964 and from 1965 to 1990; 181 Comparison of grain yield per plant, drought frequency and drought reduction in various 182 regions of Liaoning Province; hydrological station data for Liaoning Province; Regular 183 frequency of continuous drought in dry season in Liaoning Province. Local newspapers have

also been accessed to corroborate records of droughts e.g. the Shengjing Times (Shenyang was
previously called Shengjing – see Table S1).

186

#### 187 3.1.2 Instrumental data

188 Instrumental climate data are taken from two datasets, the first is long-term meteorological 189 data, including monthly precipitation (05/1905 to 12/1988) from the Research Data Archives 190 Computational & Information Systems Lab (NCAR, 1996), no records present for 1944-1946. 191 The precipitation records for Shenyang have also been viewed and photographed in the Chinese 192 Meteorological Archives in Beijing. The second precipitation series was retrieved from the 193 National Disaster Reduction Centre of China (NDRCC), which provides daily data for air 194 pressure (parameter code: V10004), daily average temperature (V12001), daily highest 195 temperature (V12052), daily lowest temperature (V12053), precipitation (V13201), average 196 wind speed (V11002), sunshine hours (V14032), for the period 01/01/1961 to 31/05/2016. This 197 study uses the precipitation data (V13201), however, subsequent drought analysis could use 198 the additional data for more complex drought modelling. Analysis of these datasets permits 199 varying temporal analysis of the precipitation, with a long overlap period that can be used to 200 compare the association of these two data sets.

201

Previous studies have illustrated a strong relationship between droughts and ENSO anomalies (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018b) for differing regions of China. However, many of these studies use relatively short series (1960-2015). The extended precipitation series (CE 1906-2015) presented here provides a valuable opportunity to explore this relationship over a longer timescale. The Niño 3.4 sea surface temperature index, defined as the area-averaged SST anomalies over (5N–5S, 170–120W), compiled from PSD using the HadISST1 dataset for the period 1870-2015 by Rayner et al., (2003) is used in this study.

209

# 210 **3.2 Data processing**

211 3.2.1 Documentary data

The compendium provided by Zhang (2004, 2013) provides the framework for the early record (pre-1911); however, great care was undertaken in assessing the historical record through verification of original accounts.

215

216 In the process of analysing documentary sources for Shenyang, it is necessary to pay particular 217 attention to historical changes to the name of Shenyang and the boarders of the provinces (see Table S1). For example, in the book "Zhong Guo Dong Bei Yu Dong Bei Ya Gu Dai Jiao Tong
Shi" (Wang and Pu, 2016), it is noted that during the Han Dynastry, 'Liao Dong Jun' was used
for the Shenyang area, whereas during the Dong Han Dynasty, the southern part of Shenyang
continued to belong to Liao Dong Jun, and the northern part belonged to Xuan Tu Jun (Zhao,
2006). In addition, the Gao Xian region is the recent Sujiatun area in Shenyang (Wang and Pu,
2016); Yan (2012) detailed the historical changes in the Shenyang (Table S1).

224

Historical records for all drought years are included where records exist, but historical recordsfor the following situations are excluded:

i. Information unclear - the disasters cause or event location is unclear. For example, in 1549,
the drought and locust disaster occurred in Xingcheng County of Liaoning Province
("Ming Shi Zong Shi Lu", Vol. 353). In 1549 Xingcheng belonged to Liaoxi; however,
Shenyang belonged to Liaodong, therefore, this record is not in the target region and is
excluded.

- A record is excluded if it does not clearly state drought, or that a drought was the cause.
  Although there are many types of event that are associated/related to droughts, such as
  locusts, epidemic disease or famine, where historical records do not directly state drought
  or attribute the cause to drought they are excluded. For example, in October 1551, the
  Liaodong area did not collect grain tax because of disasters ("Ming Shizong Record", Vol.
  3, 7:8). The record does not specifically state that a drought occurred though this is a
  common response to a drought.
- 239

240 3.2.2 Instrumental data

241 Data quality assessment and management of both long (NCAR) and shorter (NDRCC) series 242 was required to ensure homogenisation and data suitability (see section 3.1.2). Total 243 precipitation includes both liquid and equivalent frozen precipitation. All meteorological 244 variables are recorded as one-tenth of their specific units (mm), but are converted to mm 245 throughout. For both instrumental series, care and attention was taken with the original data 246 series quality, with the data descriptors recorded in Table 2. At Shenyang meteorological 247 station, missing data occurred eight times (representing 0.826% of the record), and rainfall was 248 marked three times with 'R', reflecting monthly totals identical to the previous month, raising 249 concerns as to the validity of the data (01-02/1906, 12/1908-01/1909 and 12/1968-01/1969). 250 There is a reduction of available meteorological data during the years 1943-46 following the 251 Second World War across much of eastern China, as such no suitable local sites could be

252 identified to infill this series; for other missing monthly data, the monthly averages are included 253 where single months are missing, as often other local stations also have missing data. For the 254 shorter instrumental daily precipitation series (NDRCC), data descriptors are included in Table 255 2, including percentage of record impacted. The precipitation record for Shenyang has four 256 station relocations/instrument renewals during its monitoring record (October 1970, October 257 1976, January 1989 and June 2006). An analysis of the homogeneity of the record was 258 undertaken using the approach presented by Li et al. (2014), when assessing temperature 259 changes in Shenyang. A correlation analysis of Shenyang with the nearby Benxi precipitation 260 station record (~41 km southeast of Shenyang) demonstrates a stable difference (prediction ration) between the two series for all periods and an  $R^2$  throughout of >0.88 (Table S2). In the 261 absence of any evident changes within the precipitation record resulting from localised station 262 263 relocation/instrument renewal we consider the precipitation data at Shenyang to be 264 homogeneous and reliable.

265

Analysis of the two series coeval years of record (1961-1988) was undertaken, a Q-Q plot was 266 267 undertaken to verify that both data sources are normally distributed (Figure 2a). Figure 2b 268 shows a good linear distribution (p-value of 0.028); however, differences between the series 269 exist. During the period 1961-1988, the average difference between the two datasets is 12.72 270 mm and the maximum is 313.2, which occurred in October 1974; further examination reveals 271 that all the differences occurring in the period 1961-1979, with the two datasets producing 272 identical values for all months from 1980 onwards, this replicability in the later records 273 provides confidence in extending the NCAR dataset through to the present (2015). Analysis of 274 the dispersion and outliers for each month was also undertaken (Figure 2c), the months with 275 greatest discrepancy are March and April, possibly reflecting challenges of recording snow/ice 276 fall. Comparison of the monthly and seasonal precipitation patterns presented in Figure 3 for 277 Shenyang for the period 1906-2015 using the new augmented series illustrate that some of the 278 anomalous values from NDRCC data from the period 1961-1979 appear unrealistic, e.g. 279 04/1964, 285.9 mm, with an average normally of c. 50 mm. An analysis of the variability in 280 the precipitation is presented (Figure 4), with the lowest precipitation (the driest, 1913: 341.1 281 mm  $a^{-1}$ ) and highest (wettest) years noted (1923: 1064.9 mm  $a^{-1}$ ; Figure 4a); a seasonal analysis 282 and long term trend are also presented (Figure 4b-e) with a 30-year Savitzky-Golay filter 283 (Savitzky and Golay, 1964).

#### 285 **3.3 Drought Identification**

Using the combined instrumental and archival source materials, a record of droughts will be reconstructed for Shenyang, the droughts will be explored and examined from a number of perspectives including: type of drought (classification), intensity/magnitude, frequency and trends; together these characterise the drought structure.

290

291 3.3.1 Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI)

292 A number of drought indices have been developed Heim (2002). Meteorological drought 293 indicators can be divided into two categories focused on either the physical mechanisms of 294 drought or the statistical distribution of meteorological elements; the SPI belongs to the latter 295 group and is widely used (Lennard et al., 2015; Mckee et al., 1993). As the long precipitation 296 series includes only monthly data, the Standardised Precipitation Index (SPI) is used, this index 297 has a number of advantages when used over long timescales compared to other potential 298 drought indices. The SPI developed by Mckee et al., (1993), is a widely applied meteorological 299 drought index that quantifies precipitation deficits or excess across different climates at 300 multiple timescales, typically of 1–24 months, however the simplicity of the SPI (precipitation 301 as the only input) causes some limitations too, e.g. no consideration of evaporative demand 302 (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2014). SPI values are dimensionless units, with negative values 303 indicating drier than normal conditions and positive values wetter than normal conditions. 304 Drought onset is generally assumed to occur at SPI values exceeding  $\leq 1$ , however the National 305 Standards of the People's Republic of China (2017) classification uses  $\leq 0.50$  as indicative of 306 drought onset, with drought termination identified as when SPI returns to  $\geq 0$  (Table 3a); within 307 this study we apply the classification as defined for China. SPI can be used to characterise 308 drought duration, severity and timing of onset and termination (together known as the drought 309 structure e.g. Noone et al., (2017)), based on the classifications identified in Table 3a; the SPI 310 classification recommended in China (National Standards of the People's Republic of China, 311 2017) differs slightly from that of the WMO (2012; Table 3 (a and c), though others have also 312 proposed regionally specific SPI versions based on Mckee et al. (1993) e.g. Moreira et al. (2008) 313 for Portugal. Drought duration is determined by the number of months between drought onset 314 (SPI  $\leq 0.49$ ) and termination (SPI  $\geq 0$ ), drought severity is categorised using the SPI 315 classification system with peak severity the minimum SPI value recorded during the drought. 316 Within this study SPI will be examined at three temporal scales SPI-1 (1 month), SPI-6 (6 317 months), and SPI-12 (12 months) (Figure 5a-c). The SPI was determined by fitting a probability 318 density function to selected accumulation periods using L-moments to estimate parameters. A

319 gamma probability density distribution was found to be the most appropriate fit, using a 320 Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test to compare empirical and theoretical fit, calculating the 321 cumulative probability. This was then converted into the standard normal distribution, with 322 transformation of the cumulative probability of the fitted distribution to standard normal 323 distribution to define the SPI value (Lloyd-Hughes and Saunders, 2002; Vicente-Serrano et al., 324 2010). Other univariate distributions have been recommended where a gamma distribution is 325 not appropriate (Barker et al., 2016; Stagge et al., 2015).

326

327 3.3.2 Documentary analysis

328 Documentary data provides additional information beyond that offered by instrumental series, 329 providing valuable information detailing both societal impacts and responses to past events 330 (Pfister, 2010). At Shenyang, the first recorded drought occurs in 347 AD, but only three events 331 are recorded during the period 347-1200, therefore the records analysed within this paper start post 1200, as the frequency of records increases. Previous studies (e.g. Brázdil et al., 2009; 332 333 Hanel et al., 2018; Todd et al., 2013) using historical archival sources have examined 334 qualitative records and used a variety of different indices or grades of drought. The use of 335 ordinal index systems for the classification of descriptive accounts in historical climatology is 336 common, with a range of classes used e.g. Nash et al., (2016) used a +2 to -2 classification in 337 examining wet/dry phases in Natal and Zululand in Southern Africa. In augmenting the instrumental with the historical series, clear benefits can be achieved if the descriptive 338 339 classification is comparable to the SPI drought classification applied in China (Table 3a). 340 Therefore, five drought classes are used in considering the historical descriptions, allowing 341 alignment between the two data forms, typical types of descriptor for each of the five classes 342 are presented in Table 4.

343

344 Analysing the historical records unearthed different forms of drought which broadly reflect the 345 five drought classes identified by Mishra and Singh (2010); meteorological, hydrological and 346 agricultural are comparable, the difference being few accounts detail groundwater droughts 347 (incorporated into hydrology within this study), with the socio-economic class being split into 348 economic (impacts of clear cost) and social impact (impacts on people e.g. health). In splitting 349 the socio-economic class into economic and social impact the wealth of materials present, in 350 the historical record examining these aspects can be examined in greater depth. Each of the 351 different classes of drought increases in impact severity (Table 4) in documenting each of these 352 an assessment of the interrelationship between different types of impact can be made, for example, the point at which food relief may be initiated, or tax payments suspended (typically

- class 2/3), others such as praying for rain/snow are associated with high classes (4/5), reflecting
- 355 personal, community and governmental responses (e.g. government control of food prices).
- 356

Annual drought values for the instrumental period (1906-2015) are represented by the minimum SPI-12 value within each calendar year; within the documentary accounts the most severe class of drought is used to determine the classification. We opted to use the SPI-12 in preference to SPI-6 (or shorter timescales), as precipitation in Shenyang has such a strong seasonal skew toward the summer months, use of SPI-12 also permits a stronger analysis of interannual drought, a key feature in this paper over the long-period analysed.

363

364 3.3.3 Drought trend and frequency analysis

365 The combined long-term drought series for Shenyang (1200-2015) permits an analysis of the long-term drought trends and patterns. Clearly over such a long timescale a number of socio-366 367 political and cultural changes will have occurred (Bavel et al., 2019), which may influence the 368 extent or severity of a particular drought and the capacity a population has to respond to a 369 drought of any given magnitude or severity (Keenan and Krannich, 2010; Kreibich et al., 2019; 370 Mechler and Bouwer, 2015). Human interventions may mitigate and/or exacerbate the impacts 371 of drought downstream through hydrological system management and engineering (He et al., 2017). The socio-political and cultural circumstances during each recorded drought will 372 373 represent an important underpinning in considering long-term drought trends and variability 374 and will be considered individually in each instance (see discussion by Brázdil et al., 2020).

375

376 An analysis of the different types of drought will be undertaken, assessing long term variability, 377 severity and frequency, including examination of where droughts have been documented 378 during the instrumental period. The severity of droughts will be considered using the different 379 classes of drought, examining whether any notable differences in drought type emerge, which 380 may help determine underlying changes in vulnerability through time. The reliability of the 381 historical account classification process was assessed for the period 1906-2015 by statistical 382 analysis (Spearman - ordinal drought class) of the assigned drought class to annual minimum 383 SPI.

384

385 The principal challenge identified within this study is in attempting to assess droughts defined 386 between those characterised by the historical analysis which is subjective and that defined by the indices (SPI), which assumes a distribution with predefined probabilities attributed to each
class (Guttman, 1998). Whilst an advantage in drought risk analysis, this makes it challenging
for comparison to a subjective classification.

390

## 391 4 Results and Discussion

## 392 **4.1 Temporal analysis of instrumental time series**

393 The augmented precipitation series illustrates the range of precipitation experienced at 394 Shenyang over the last 110 years, with a maximum annual rainfall of 1064.9mm (1923) and a 395 minimum of 341mm (1913). The mean of 704 mm is slightly higher than the median value (red 396 dashed line; Figure 4a). Of the 28 years annual rainfall below the quartile, 10 occur prior to 397 1960 and 18 after. Precipitation at Shenyang is concentrated in the summer months, with little 398 winter precipitation (Figure 3), typical of a continental climate. Documentary accounts often 399 discuss spring droughts in Shenyang, which hinders the development of crops at the start of the 400 growing season (Wang et al., 2019).

401

402 Seasonal analysis of precipitation (1906-2015: Figure 4b & 4e) illustrates that precipitation in 403 winter and spring gradually increases with time, with a slight reduction of summer and autumn 404 precipitation, but are statistically insignificant (at 0.05 level; Figure 4c and d). The most severe 405 spring drought occurred in 2001, with only 33.7mm spring precipitation, this is supported with 406 widespread media coverage of the drought in Shenyang and more widely in Liaoning. The worst summer drought occurred in 2014 (170.6mm), with precipitation less than fifty percent 407 408 of the norm, presenting the worst summer drought since 1961; in response the Liaoning provincial government instigated a level III drought emergency response, this included 409 410 additional funding from central government (150 million yuan) and provincial departments (70 411 million yuan) (Wang, 2014), with drought relief teams created to support community water 412 infrastructure projects (Sun, 2015).

- 414 The SPI generated from the long precipitation series is analysed at SPI-1, -6 and -12, with SPI-
- 415 1 suited to short-term (monthly) analysis, with SPI-6 appropriate for seasonal drought analysis
- 416 and SPI-12 for annual to multi-annular droughts. SPI-6, with scores of  $\leq$ -2 (severe droughts)
- 417 occur 14 times during the 110-year record (Figure 5b and c). There are six severe drought years
- 418 before (1907, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1920, 1926) and eight (1961, 1963, 1965, 1989, 1997, 2000,
- 419 2014, 2015) after 1960, with several of these constituting multi-annular droughts. There are
- 420 seven droughts that exceed  $\leq$ -2 in the SPI-12 series (Figure 5c).
- 421

#### 422 **4.2 Drought classification and trends**

423 The reconstruction of historical droughts in Shenyang is divided into two parts. The first 424 obtains drought class information from the SPI for the period 1906-2015 from an augmented 425 instrumental series. The second uses historical documents and is defined based on specific 426 classification criteria shown in Table 2 producing a long drought reconstruction from 1200 AD 427 to 2015, with documentary (coloured) and instrumental data (black) for Shenyang (Figure 6b). 428 Analysis of the period 1906-2015 demonstrates a non-statistically significant correlation exists 429 in the relationship between annual minimum SPI-12 and documentary drought class for any 430 given year, of the 107 years of record, 42 record both an SPI and descriptive account of drought. 431 The relative absence of class 1 events in the documentary record suggests that no account is 432 often made during 'normal' conditions, with absence of record often likely reflecting no 433 drought, therefore the analysis was repeated, years with no description were attributed to class 434 1, as a result a statistically significant relationship is identified (Spearman, p < 0.05).

435

436 There are few early records from the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, however there is a 437 small peak in Figure 6c indicating that the region experienced increased droughts, and as Li 438 (2019, 168) reflects the period was one of "non-stop calamities" elsewhere in China. The low 439 number of accounts during this period for the Shenyang region may reflect limited recording 440 rather than non-occurrence. There is a clustering of events during the fifteenth and sixteenth 441 centuries, these events are evidenced across multiple drought types, with several being Class 442 3, including droughts in 1434 and 1450 respectively and the Class 4 drought of 1501, which 443 are described as:

444

445 "夏,辽东不雨, 亢旱为灾,农田虽种,无收获者多" [Summer, Liaodong no rain,
446 drought disaster. Although farmland sowed, most people do not have harvest grain.]

447	(Ming Shi Lu, Ming Xuan Zong Zhang Emperor Record, Vol. 112),						
448							
449	"夏五月,减免沈阳等卫夏税十分之七,秋粮子粒十分之四" [Summer May, reduction						
450	and exemption of Shenyang and other regions summer taxes for seven-tenths, autumn grain						
451	crops four-tenths.]						
452	(Ming Shi Lu, Da Ming Ying Zong Rui Emperor Record, Vol. 192)						
453	and,						
454	"春至秋,辽东不雨,河沟尽涸。" [From spring to autumn, Liaodong no rain, the river and						
455	ditch dry up.]						
456	(Ming Shi, Zhi Di Liu, Wu Hang San. No. 10)						
457							
458	This drought period is coeval with a previously identified reduced monsoon phase in Central						
459	China (Zhang et al., 2008a) and the Spörer period (1460-1550) of reduced solar activity, which						
460	coincides with a cold phase in China as noted by (Zhang et al., 2018a). This represents a notable						
461	drought rich phase, with multiple types of droughts recorded (Figure 6b-c), it also coincides						
462	with a megadrought identified across much of Europe (Cook et al., 2015) and parts of north						
463	Amercia (Cook et al., 2014), suggesting that this drought may have extended across more of						
464	the northern hemisphere than previous identified.						
465							
466	A relative quiescent phase is then noted between 1600-1750, with few droughts recorded						
467	(Figure 6b). A number of droughts occurring in the period 1750-1880 AD are documented;						
468	however, the frequency and severity of droughts increases thereafter (Figure 6c). The first						
469	drought year with an assessment of class 5 occurs in March 1883, with the Shenyang chronicles						
470	referring to drought, a cholera epidemic, and more than 20,000 deaths in a week (Shenyang						
471	Municipal People's Government Local Records Editing Office, 1989). This was followed by a						
472	second event in 1891, with documentary sources detailing famine and over 20,000 estimated						
473	deaths (Wen et al., 2005). Table 5 summarizes the frequency of droughts at Shenyang in each						
474	century, with a small peak in Shenyang drought frequency from 1501-1600, drought frequency						
475	then decreased until the nineteenth century (Figure 6c).						
476							

The frequency of class 5 drought events indicates an increase during the twentieth century, but this is not evenly distributed with most (66%) of those events occurring in the period 1906-1921 (1907, 1913-14, 1916-18 and 1920-21), with only three severe <-2 (SPI-12) droughts events after 1921 in Shenyang in 1968-9, 1999-2002 and 2014-15 (Figure 6a). The documentary accounts in the period 1906-2015 provide valuable corroborative evidence when compared to the annual minimum SPI-12 data, with most documentary accounts recorded as class 2 and 3, with few events classified as either 1, 4 or 5, although the presence and magnitude of the early droughts in the period 1906-21 are corroborated with documentary accounts classed as 4 and 5, with documentary evidence in 2002 also supporting a class 4 drought.

486

487 The types of drought recorded within the records are indicated in Figure 6b, these illustrate that 488 the majority of records document meteorological drought conditions, followed by economic 489 impacts. The drought severity in the descriptive accounts' places most of documented droughts 490 in class 2 and 3 (Figure 6b). The absence of deaths being documented restricts the number of 491 class 5 socio-drought, although the drought of 1920-21 is documented as a class 5 hydrological 492 drought, the only documentary class 5 event in the twentieth century. It may be that such 493 information was not published, and/or that the droughts within the Liaoning province did not 494 lead to such impacts, as few events prior to the late nineteenth century approach class 5. In 495 focussing on the city of Shenyang, there is also a risk that the impacts differed within the city 496 to those experienced in rural communities within the province, thereby reducing the number of 497 agricultural droughts documented. Future works should therefore focus at the provincial scale 498 to incorporate a wider diversity of impact.

499

#### 500 **4.3 Societal vulnerability to droughts**

501 The transformation of responses in Shenyang from pre-industrial (folk), to industrial 502 (technological) and subsequently post-industrial (Chester et al., 2012; White, 1974) during the 503 period of study presents challenges in assessing and comparing impacts. Recent droughts of 504 comparable meteorological severity, e.g. 2014 (SPI-12: -2.8) to those of the early twentieth 505 century, namely 1907 (-2.6), 1917 (-2.8) or 1921 (-2.5) illustrate how the responses and 506 resulting impacts potentially differed. In analysing these events the consequences of the droughts differed considerably, whilst these events do not record deaths among the population 507 508 in Shenyang and/or Liaoning province they are severe, with the 1920-21 drought described as 509 "Spring drought for several months, well and river dry up, land dry up, no harvest at all, winter 510 disaster victims everywhere, people live in hunger and cold move out from the mountain village, 511 village empty" [class 4 socio-drought but class 5-hydrological] (Office of State Flood Control 512 and Drought Relief, 1999, p.388), across China an estimated 500,000 people died (Edwards, 513 1922). Analysis of the international media at the time reporting on the event is shaped by the

514 socio-political circumstances, with The Times (London) recording 3 million as being displaced 515 (9 Nov. 1920 p.11); however, as Fuller (2011) importantly notes this is often viewed from an 516 international perspective, with local relief providers often failing to receive recognition. The 517 responses to the drought varied, but included those expected within an *industrial* framework, 518 with both national and international relief occurring, but also local support complimenting pre-519 *industrial* responses, with the Shengjing Times (1920) reporting on the 1<sup>st</sup> July that "Chief 520 Zhang set up an alter begging for rain" (6080, p.4). However, as Li (2007) notes in north China, 521 population increases without apparent agricultural intensification or expansion during the late 522 nineteenth century may have contributed to an increased susceptibility to drought associate 523 harvest fluctuations. In comparison during the 2014 drought which resulted in a Level III 524 emergency response, itself a notable difference from 1920 as a plan was in place, a number of 525 responses were deployed to mitigate the impacts of the drought, these included: the provision of central and provincial relief funds (see section 4.1); water transfer of 400,000,000 m<sup>3</sup> from 526 527 the Hun River, securing domestic and agricultural provisions (Sun, 2015); and the provision of 528 relief service teams to support local infrastructure improvements e.g. drilling new wells and 529 supply or water to over 32,000 people suffering shortages (Wang, 2014). The impacts of the 530 drought were widely reported in the media, with notably commentary focused on the impacts 531 to water supplies and food production: "Food production in Liaoning... estimated to decline 532 by 5 billion kg this year" (China Daily, 2014). Whilst both events 1920-21 and 2014 were 533 severe droughts, the relief planning and coordinated effort coupled with improved 534 infrastructure and a more stable socio-political environment facilitated a more efficient 535 response.

536

# 537 **4.4 Contemporary droughts and generating mechanisms**

538 Analysis of contemporary droughts through coupled documentary sources and SPI provide 539 valuable insights into the importance of drought severity and duration on associated impacts. 540 The 'severe drought' as defined by the SPI of 1968 (SPI-12: -2.13, duration 26 months) appears 541 to have a relatively limited impact in Liaoning province, with few accounts recording 542 particularly notable impacts beyond reduced agricultural output, whereas, interestingly, the 543 drought of 08/1979-07/1983, whilst not a severe from the perspective of the SPI (-1.8), but of 544 longer duration (47 months) receives greater coverage within the documentary accounts, 545 possibly reflecting the duration and cumulative impact on agriculture. This is further supported 546 as the drought of 07/1999-04/2002 (SPI -2.3, duration 34 months) receives similar levels of documentary coverage to that of 1979-83 and 07/2014-15 (SPI -2.8; 18 months, but extends
beyond the end of the record) also receives more detailed descriptions.

549

550 Documentary accounts often identify that droughts begin in the spring months, but the SPI 551 results suggest that deficits often appear in the previous late summer (e.g. 1968-1969 and 1999-552 2002 droughts), suggesting that the impacts of dry previous summer and/or autumn are not 553 particularly noted within the documentary accounts, and it is only when the impacts are felt 554 that the consequences are noted. Analysis of the seasonal precipitation to the seasonal ENSO3.4 555 series shows no significant correlations, but annual minimum SPI has a significant (95% level) 556 correlation with ENSO3.4 Summer (p=0.0168) and Autumn (p=0.0228) for the period 1906-557 2015. This may be explained by the accumulated SPI-12, which reflects a long term deficit, 558 resulting in the severest elements of the drought materialising in summer/autumn, therefore the 559 correlation with summer and autumn ENSO3.4 is a reflection of a longer lagged drought 560 accumulation process.

561

#### 562 **5 Summary**

563 Our analysis capitalises on the long instrumental and documentary accounts available for 564 Shenyang and the Liaoning province in NE China, by constructing a homogenised precipitation (SPI) series for 1906-2015, and a long documentary drought series 1200-2015. Previously 565 566 documented notable droughts in the early twentieth century (1907, 1916-18, 1920-21) are 567 compared to the droughts of the last two decades (1999-2002 and 2014-15), illustrating that 568 these have comparable drought structures, with duration potentially being more important than 569 the specific drought severity when considering the societal impacts. It illustrates that recent 570 severe droughts (1999-2002 and 2014-15), whilst notable, are not unusual within the region, 571 with several similar magnitude events in the early twentieth century. Societally the most 572 impactful droughts in the region occurred in the late nineteenth century (1883 and 1891), whilst 573 appearing of comparable structure to those that occurred later (e.g. 1920-21 and 2014-15), 574 social and cultural circumstances resulted in greater social disruption and vulnerability. 575 Reduced vulnerability to severe droughts is evident from the early twentieth century as greater 576 drought mitigation planning and central support are available (see responses to 1920-21 and 577 2014-15 drought, section 4.3). The relative low number (one) of documentary accounts 578 recording class 1 events reflects preferential recording of more notable events (class 2-5), and 579 remains challenging in any documentary analysis reconstructing climate, as mundane

580 conditions are often overlooked and therefore unrecorded. Further analysis is needed of the 581 drought rich phase identified around the start of the sixteenth century (Figure 6c), whilst the 582 impacts are not considered as great as those of the late nineteenth century, they are frequent 583 and notable.

584

585 The calibration and augmentation of historical records with the instrumental series using the 586 SPI presents challenges. Whilst there appears to be good agreement of drought classes 2-4, the 587 probabilistic underpinning of the SPI inevitably ensures some high magnitude drought events 588 are present (class 5), however this is not necessarily reflected within the documentary sources 589 for all drought types. The impact of the probabilistic SPI structure potentially over recording 590 class 5 events is mitigated to some degree with the application of a long precipitation series, 591 where the potential of such events to be recorded increases. Analysis of the documentary 592 droughts in the late nineteenth century suggests that the duration is comparable to those of the 593 early twentieth century, with similar generating mechanisms, a dry winter and/or spring 594 followed by a hard drought in late summer, often spanning multiple years, however the impacts 595 on the communities differ. The vulnerability of populations to drought changes notably over 596 the study period, with the qualitative records and analysis capturing these changes. Therefore, 597 where near the start of the recording period loss of life would have been more common, the 598 same magnitude drought now does not result in loss of human life as resilience has increased. 599 Our identification of a 'build-up' period prior the severest droughts (and their associated 600 impacts) is notable, which is further reinforced by the significant relationship to summer and 601 autumn ENSO3.4 and should be incorporated into future drought management plans, enabling 602 the effective preparation of drought plans.

603

#### 604 Data availability

605 The precipitation series are available from Table 1. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis 606 Center/Environmental Sciences Division/Oak Ridge National Laboratory/U. S. Department of Energy (1996): Two Long-Term Instrumental Climatic Data Bases of the People's Republic of 607 608 China. Research Data Archive at the National Center for Atmospheric Research, 609 Computational and Information Systems Laboratory. http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds578.5/. 610 Accessed<sup>†</sup> 10-12-2018. The second series (1961-2015) daily precipitation was supplied by 611 National Disaster Reduction Centre of China, data use and access permitted through their 612 involvement in project (NE/P015484/1).

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# 622 **Competing Interests**

- 623 None
- 624

#### 625 Author Contribution

626 LT undertook research, writing and analysis; NM, RC and HS supported LT in writing, data

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Years	Location	Notes in material	Author/ Year	Source
23rd century BC - 1911 AD	China	The collection of various weather, climate, and atmospheric physical phenomena in history, including flood, drought, rain and snow, cold and warm weather, freezing, frost and other records. There are 7835 kinds of historical materials used in the data set, including local chronicles, historical biography, notes, inscriptions, private diaries, and court memorial files of the Qing Dynasty. Early accounts of weather phenomena are included in accounts recorded in the Oracle bones records.	(Zhang, 2004)	Meteorological Records of the Last 3,000 Years
308AD - 2000AD	Liaoning	The drought chapter of this book provides a description of the drought in Liaoning Province from 308 to 2000 AD. And from 352 to 2000 AD, there were descriptions of insect disasters, famine, epidemic diseases, and some unexplained disasters.	(Li and Meng, 2005)	China Meteorological Disasters Ceremony (Liaoning volume)
352AD - 1948AD	Liaoning	Based on historical data, drought descriptions and statistics were provided for the Liaoning area from 352 to 1948. For the 12 key cities in Liaoning Province (including Shenyang), the drought rating was listed by year. This drought level assessment was based on the reduction rate of grain yield. And a statistical table of light drought years and heavy drought years for several rivers in Liaoning area is provided.	(Office of State Flood Control and Drought Relief, 1999)	Liaoning Flood and Drought Disaster
1949 - 2000	China	It provides the annual and seasonal changes of agricultural drought, the change of disaster areas, the degree of drought risk, and the measures of drought prevention and mitigation against agriculture after 1949.	(Zhang, 2008)	China Historica Drought from 1949 to 2000
2000	Liaoning	This book provides the causes, characteristics and the degree of drought and the statistics of surface water resources in each region. The degree of drought in Liaoning Province in 2000 was respectively analysed by precipitation, river runoff, crop yield reduction and farmland drought rate, and comprehensive indicators.	(Pu, 2001)	Extraordinary drought in Liaoning Province during 2000
2001	Liaoning	Data and description of drought causes, precipitation distribution, and the multi-year comparison of the net flow of rivers are provided. The drought level is determined by the extent of agricultural disasters, meteorological factors, precipitation frequency, and water supply and demand balance.	(Wang, 2002)	Spring Drough Report of Liaoning Province in 2001
1986- 2005	Shenyang	This multi-year Shenyang chronicle provided the major events that occurred in Shenyang from 1986 to 2005, including some meteorological disasters. The natural environment section records the climate, rainfall, and natural disasters during the period.	(Zou, 2010)	Shenyang chronicle 1986-2005, volume one
1994- 2011	Shenyang	The annual Shenyang chronicle records the climatic conditions, meteorological disasters, and some water conservation measures of the year.	(Shenyang Municipal People's Government Local Records Office (1994- 2011), 2011)	Shenyang chronicle 1994-2011 (separate volumes)
1276- 1985	Shenyang	In integrate Shenyang chronicle, there are statistics on flood and drought in suburbs region, Xinmin region and Liaozhong region in Shenyang city from 1276-1985.	(Shenyang Municipal People's Government Local Records Office, 1998)	Shenyang chronicle volume eight

# 949 Table 1: Historical source materials used in the drought reconstruction for Shenyang

1840- 1987	Shenyang	The big events which happened in Shenyang from 1840 to 1987. In physical geography part, it described the seasonal climate and precipitation characters in Shenyang, and natural disasters.	(Meng, 1989)	Shenyang chronicles, Integrated volume one
1689 - 1911	China	This information comes from more than 1 million pieces of Qing dynasty memorial to the throne, including rain, floods, droughts, water conservancy projects.	(Tan, 2013)	Historical materials of drought archives in the Qing Dynasty

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 Table 2. Data Information Description Table

 (Source 1: <a href="https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds578.5/docs/ndp039.des">https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds578.5/docs/ndp039.des</a>; Source 2: NDRCC)

	Source 1	Source 2					
		Impacted				Impacted	
Value	Meaning	record	Value	Meaning	Treatment	record	
		(%)				(%)	
-9999	Error	0.83	32700	Microscale	Ignore	8.97	
	Total is identical to		32744	Black	Ignore	0	
D	the previous or	0.62					
R	following month's	0.62					
	total.						
	Total is especially		32766	Missing	Ignore	0	
	high for this station	0					
Н	and is considered	0					
	spurious						
	Original total was		30xxx	Rain and	Keep	0.32	
	considered suspect			snow			
Е	too high for the	0					
	station.						
			31xxx	Snow	1/10	1.51	
			32xxx	Fog frost	Ignore	9.25	

Table 3. SPI drought classifications applied within different regions, a) China Grades of meteorological drought (National Standards of the People's Republic of China, 2017); b) the arbitrary drought intensity classes originally defined by Mckee et al. (1993); and, c) as used by the WMO (World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2012).

Grade		A		В	C		
/ class	SPI value	Drought	SPI value	Drought	SPI value	Drought level	
		level		level			
1	0.49 to -	Normal	0 to -0.99	Mild drought	-0.99 to	Near normal	
	0.49				0.99		
2	-0.5 to -0.99	Mild drought	-1.00 to -	Moderate	-1.0 to -	Moderately	
			1.49	drought	1.49	dry	
3	-1.00 to -	Medium	1.50 to -1.99	Severe	$-1.5 < to \le$	Severely dry	
	1.49	drought		drought	-1.99		
4	-1.50 to -	Severe	$\leq$ -2.00	Extreme	$\leq$ -2.00	Extremely	
	1.99	drought		drought		dry	
5	<-2.00	Extreme					
5		drought					

 Table 4. Drought class and phenomenon comparison table

	Class 1: Normal	Class 2: Mild Drought	Class 3: Moderate Drought	Class 4: Severe Drought	Class 5: Extreme Drought
Meteorology	Less record or no record/ Hot weather	Less rain for several month / rain delay/ drought	No rain for several months / drought deviant, frequently or in a wide range	Heavy annual drought	Heavy drought lasting for several years
Agriculture	Soil a bit dry/ dust cover	Wheat a bit dry or slightly reduced/ soil very dry	Injury to crop field/ wheat seedling withered/ no seeding/ difficult farming/	No harvest	Long-term wide-range land dry and no harvest at all
Hydrologic		River or canal water level slightly reduced	Slight interruption of the river/ soil is not moist	Canal or land dry up	Long-term river dry up
Economic		Food price instability	Food price rise	Food price suddenly very expensive	Sell important items at a low price in exchange for food
Social Impact		Social complaints/ unrest	Displaced or loss of home/ famine/ lack of food/ people beg for food/ people living hard	Large number of displaced people/ heavy famine/ locusts as food/ death/ people snatch supplies	Corpses everywhere/ cannibalism/ selling children or women
Derived disaster		Locust disaster/ windy and haze/	Locust disaster affect traffic (people and horses)/ epidemic/ turbid red moon	Flying locust shading sky/ fire/ Plague epidemic/	Extensive epidemics

Year	Average drought class	Number of droughts recorded	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Classes 1-3	Classes 4-5
1201-1300	2.5	4	0	2	2	0	0	4	0
1301-1400	2.3	3	0	2	1	0	0	3	0
1401-1500	2.6	14	0	7	6	1	0	13	1
1501-1600	2.6	17	0	9	5	3	0	14	3
1601-1700	2.5	6	0	3	3	0	0	6	0
1701-1800	2.1	7	0	6	1	0	0	7	0
1801-1900	3.1	12	0	9	3	0	2	12	2
1901-2000	2.4	74	23	16	21	9	5	60	14
2001-2015	2.9	14	2	4	3	3	2	9	5

Table 5. The frequency of droughts in Shenyang since 1200 AD and associated drought class

966 (see Table 4). The average drought reflects the average class achieved for each period.

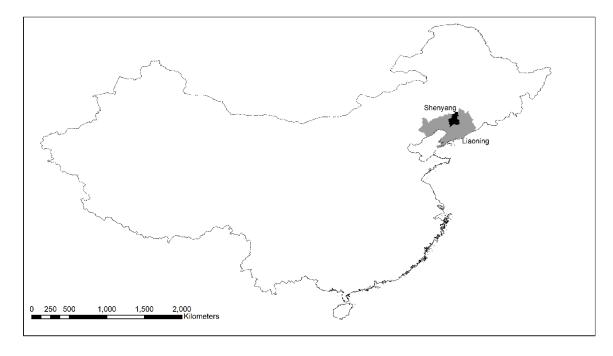




Figure 1. The geographical location of Shenyang, Liaoning Province and mainland China

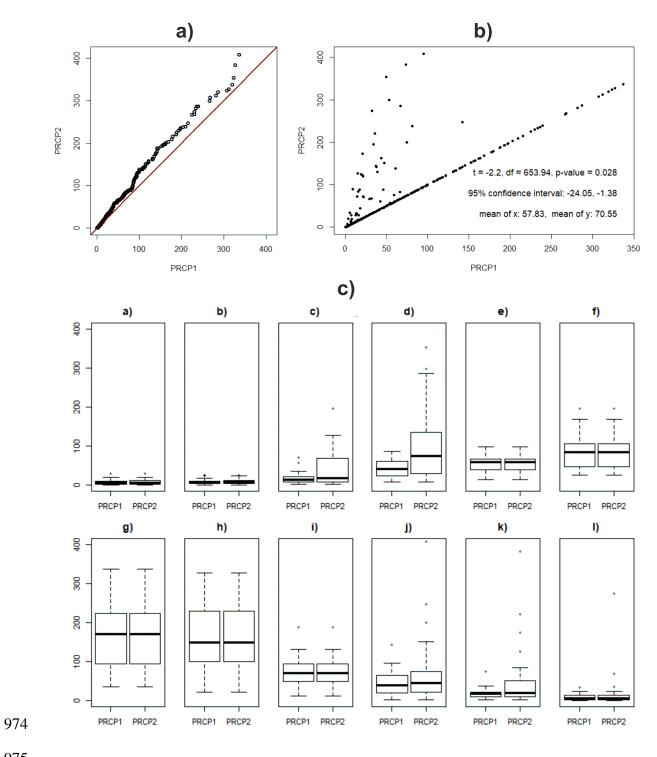


Figure 2. a) QQ plot of two precipitation (mm) data sources (p-value 0.028); b) monthly
precipitation comparison of two datasets (significance Analysis of Precipitation from 1961 to
1988); c) monthly precipitation distribution and outliers (a-l: January to December)

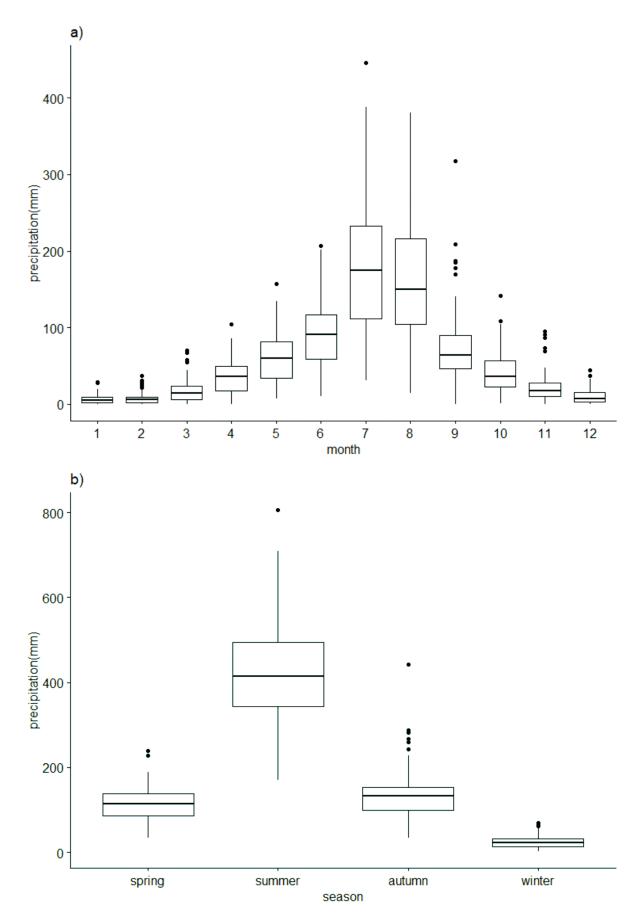






Figure 3. 1906-2015 Monthly and seasonal precipitation box chart

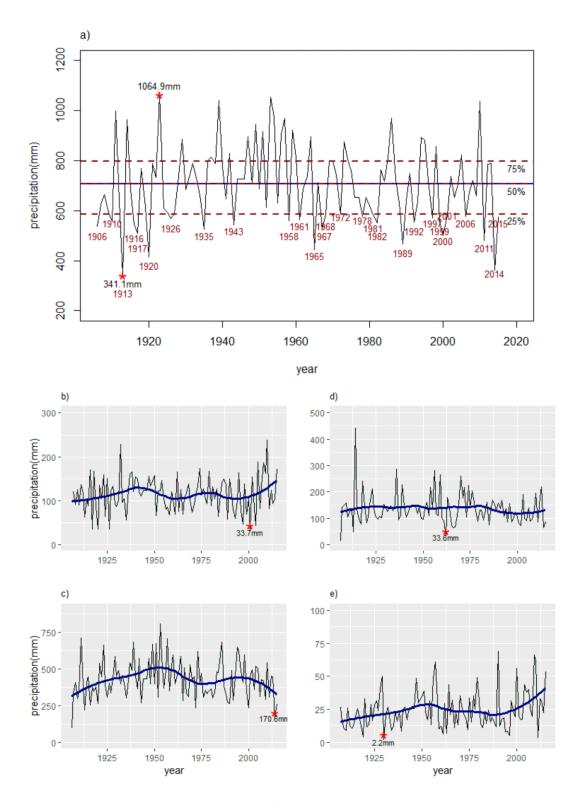


Figure 4. Annual and seasonal precipitation from 1906 to 2015, a) annual (quartiles indicated by dashed lines); b) spring; c) summer; d) autumn; and, e) winter. A 30-year Savitzky-Golay filter is presented (bold line b-e).
presented (bold line b-e).
presented (bold line b-e).



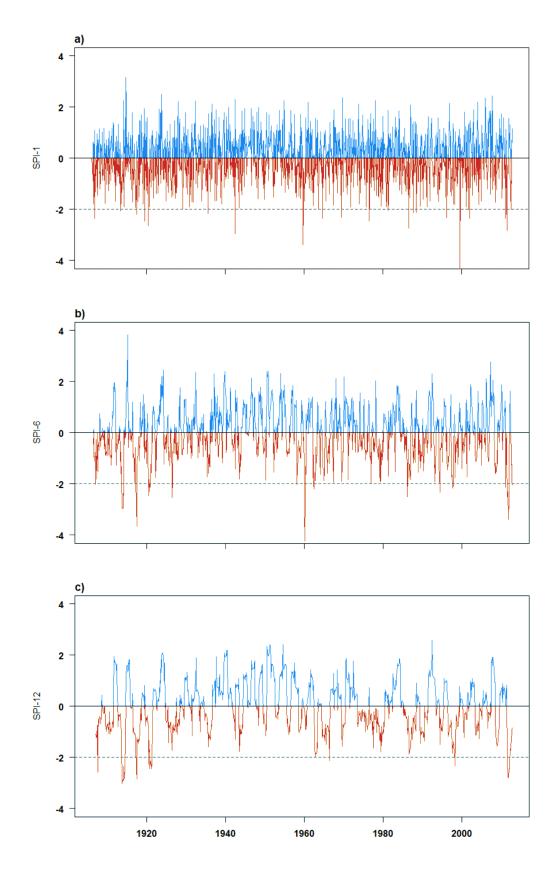




Figure 5. Standard Precipitation Index from 1906 to 2015, with wetter (blue) and drier (red) than normal conditions indicated for a): SPI-1; b) SPI-6; and, c) SPI-12

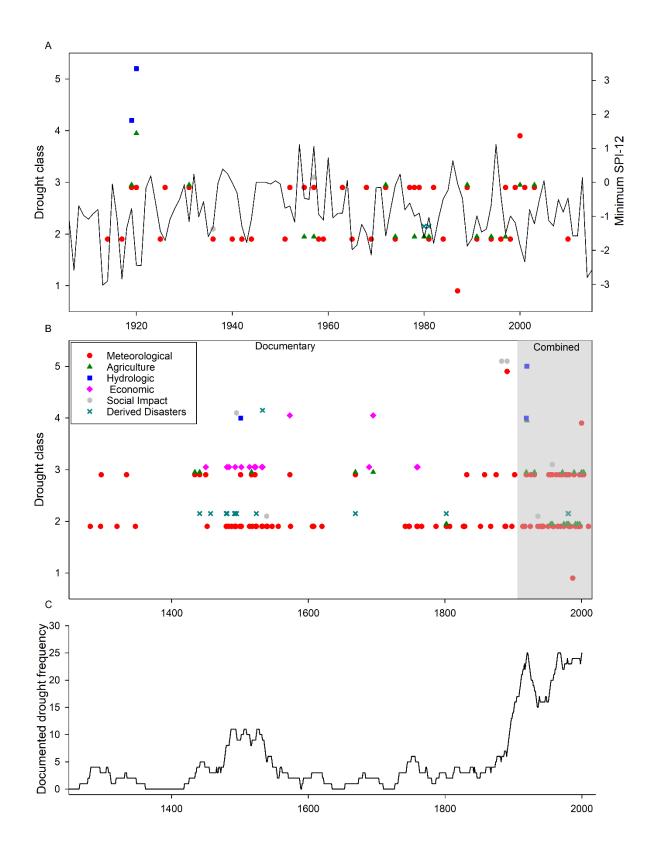


Figure 6. Shenyang drought classification (colour/shape) for a) combined archival and instrumental period (1906-2015) with minimum annual SPI-12; b) augmented period (1200-2015); and, c) a running 30-year mean drought frequency (1200-2015).