

1 A 406-year non-growing season precipitation reconstruction in the 2 southeastern Tibetan Plateau

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15 **Abstract.** Trees record climatic conditions during their growth, and tree rings serve as proxy to reveal the features of the
16 historical climate of a region. In this study, we collected tree-ring cores of forest hemlock (*Tsuga forrestii*) from the
17 northwestern Yunnan area of the southeastern Tibetan Plateau (SETP), and created a residual tree-ring width (TRW)
18 chronology. An analysis of the relationship between tree growth and climate revealed that precipitation during the non-growing
19 season (NGS) (from November of the previous year to February of the current year) was the most important constraining factor
20 on the radial tree growth of forest hemlock in this region. In addition, the influence of NGS precipitation on radial tree growth
21 was relatively uniform over time (1956–2005). Accordingly, we reconstructed the NGS precipitation over the period spanning
22 from A.D. 1600–2005. The reconstruction accounted for 28.5% of the actual variance during the common period 1956–2005.
23 Based on the reconstruction, NGS was extremely dry during the years A.D. 1656, 1694, 1703, 1736, 1897, 1907, 1943, 1982,
24 and 1999. In contrast, the NGS was extremely wet during the years A.D. 1627, 1638, 1654, 1832, 1834–1835, and 1992.
25 Similar variations of the NGS precipitation reconstruction series and Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) reconstructions
26 of early growing season from surrounding regions indicated the reliability of the present reconstruction. A comparison of the
27 reconstruction with Climate Research Unit (CRU) gridded data revealed that our reconstruction was representative of the NGS
28 precipitation variability of a large region in the SETP. Our study provided with the first historical NGS precipitation

29 reconstruction in the SETP which enriches the understanding of the long-term climate variability of this region. The NGS
30 precipitation showed slightly increasing trend during the last decade which might accelerate regional forest hemlock growth.

31 **Keywords:** Tree rings; Non-growing season precipitation; Reconstruction; Southeastern Tibetan Plateau

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Unravelling the past climate often relies on proxy records. As a widely used proxy material, tree rings provide an opportunity
34 to obtain long-term climate data (Fritts, 1976; Esper et al., 2002; D'Arrigo et al., 2005; Li et al., 2011; Büntgen et al., 2011,
35 2016; Cai et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2014; Schneider et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2016; Keyimu et al., 2021). These long-term
36 records enable us to identify the inter-annual, decadal and multi-decal variability of historical climatic conditions. They also
37 provide a reference to better understand the nature of current climatic conditions (warming/cooling, drying/wetting) and to
38 project the future regional climate, as well as the dynamic response of earth processes (e.g., forest growth, glacier
39 retreat/advance, stream flow, drought frequency, and forest fires) to climate change.

40 Being the “third pole” of the Earth, the Tibetan Plateau (TP) (average 4000 m a.s.l.) is particularly sensitive to climate change
41 and is one of the fastest warming places in the world (Chen et al., 2020). The average decadal temperature increase at the TP
42 is 0.33°C, which is higher than the world’s average decadal temperature increase of 0.20°C (Yan and Liu, 2014). Because of
43 its geographical extent and position within the global circulation system, the TP plays a key role in regional and global
44 atmospheric circulation patterns (Griessinger et al., 2017), not only affecting the mid-latitude westerlies, but also influencing
45 the Asian monsoon circulation through its thermo-dynamical feedbacks (Duan et al., 2006; Rangwala, 2009; Wu et al., 2015).

46 There are large areas of coniferous forest distributed at high altitudes in the southeastern Tibetan Plateau (SETP). Due to
47 their age and relative lack of disturbance they are a source of proxy material (tree rings) that can be used to reveal the past
48 climatic conditions in this region (Bräuning and Mantwill, 2004; Fan et al., 2009; Fang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2011; Wang et
49 al., 2015; Li and Li., 2017; Shi et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2019; Keyimu et al., 2021). Many
50 dendroclimatological reconstructions of hydroclimatic variables have also been conducted in the SETP (Fan et al., 2008; Zhang
51 et al., 2015; Wernicke et al., 2015; Griessinger et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017; He et al., 2018). However, few studies have focused
52 on the reconstruction of precipitation history (He et al., 2012; Wernicke et al., 2015). The non-growing season (NGS) of
53 vegetation (from November of the previous year to February of the current year) includes the winter monsoon and pre-summer
54 monsoon seasons in the SETP, and water availability during the NGS might therefore have a constraining effect on radial tree
55 growth (Linderholm and Chen, 2005). It is important to understand the long-term precipitation variations during the NGS to
56 evaluate the current trend of precipitation variation and estimate its future patterns, and to determine the future responses of
57 the forest ecosystem under the changing precipitation trend. To our knowledge, however, there have been no reports of the

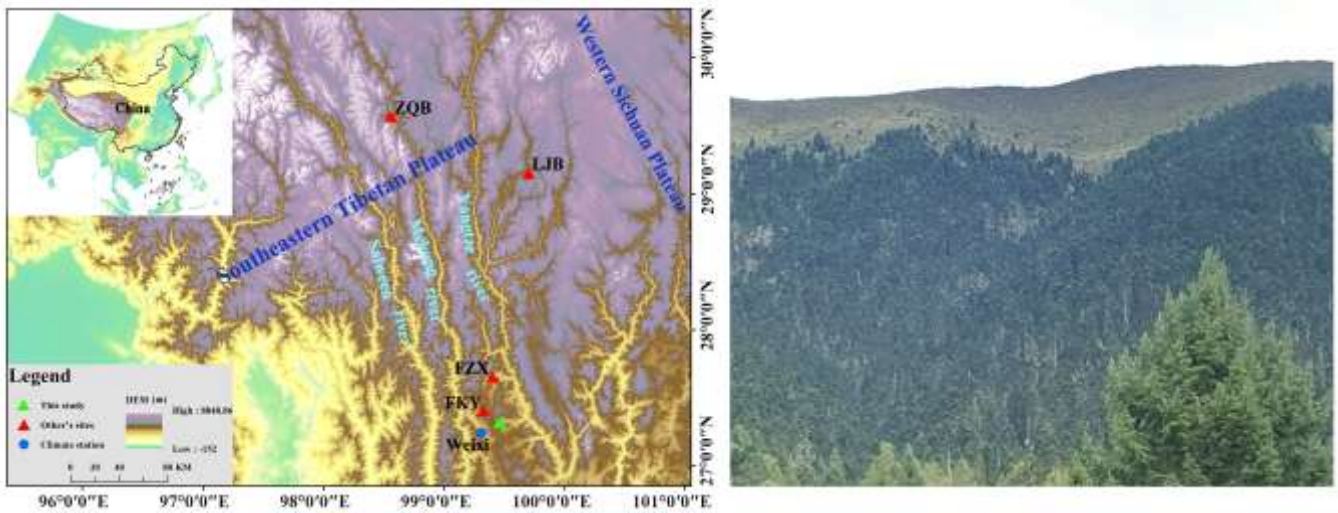
58 reconstruction of NGS precipitation in this area. This hinders our understanding of NGS variability from a long-term
59 perspective.

60 In this study, we collected tree-ring cores of forest hemlock from the Xinzhu Village of northwestern Yunnan in the SETP.
61 The main objectives of the present study were to (1) develop a new tree-ring chronology and identify the responses of forest
62 hemlock radial growth to climate in the investigation area, (2) reconstruct the historical NGS precipitation and evaluate the
63 recent NGS precipitation change in the long-term context, (3) validate the reliability of the reconstruction. Our results not only
64 enrich the historical hydro-climatic information available in the SETP, but also provide with basis to understand the current
65 trend of regional NGS precipitation variation, which is relevant for evaluating the future development of regional forest
66 ecosystem.

67 **2 Materials and methods**

68 **2.1 Study area and sampling sites**

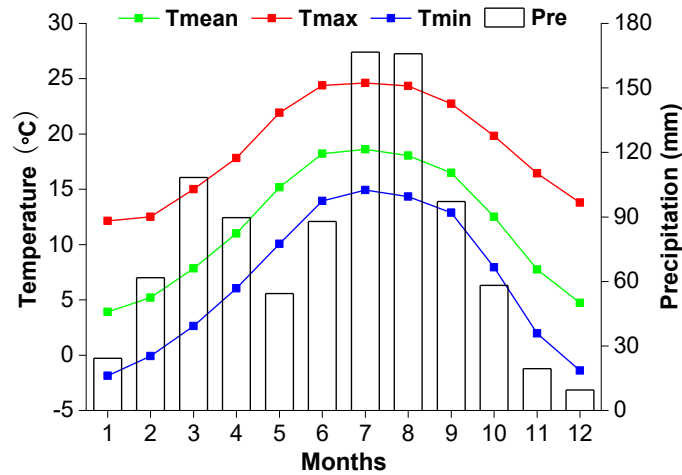
69 Tree-ring core samples were collected from Xinzhu Village in Lijiang County in northwestern Yunnan. The sample site was
70 in the Hengduan Mountains in the SETP (Fig. 1). The climate of the study area is regulated by a westerly circulation and the
71 monsoon circulations of the Indian and Pacific oceans. “Hengduan” means “transverse” in the Chinese language, which implies
72 that the mountains in this region lie in the transverse direction from south to north, and the area is a passageway for the Indian
73 monsoon to flow in and climb up to the TP and other parts of the mainland. The SETP is susceptible to monsoon flow and
74 atmospheric circulations (Bräuning and Mantwill, 2004). According to the Weixi meteorological station of the China
75 Meteorological Administration, which was the closest station to our sampling site, the mean annual precipitation was 953 mm
76 from 1955 to 2016. Most of the annual precipitation (Nearly 70%) concentrated in the monsoon season from May to October
77 in this region (Fig. 2), and thus, tree growth is usually constrained by water availability during non-growing season. The coldest
78 temperature was -2.9°C in January and the warmest temperature was 18.6°C in July. The topography of the sampling area is
79 relatively steep, and it is not in favor of the soil development, hence, thin soil layer of alpine meadow soil (Chinese soil
80 taxonomy) covers the bedrock. Forest hemlock is the dominant tree species of the sampling site, and its tree-ring cores were
81 collected from trees which are healthy and relatively isolated, an optimal condition for maximizing climate signals in tree rings
82 (Li et al., 2017). The elevation of the sampling site was 2,966 m a.s.l. A total of 48 tree-ring cores were extracted from 48 trees
83 using a 5.1 mm diameter increment borer. We have used one sampling per tree method to improve the spatial representativity
84 of radial tree growth. Sampling was conducted along an axis perpendicular to the slope inclination to avoid the impact of
85 tension wood (Keyimu et al., 2020).



86

87 **Figure 1:** Map of the study area. The green triangle is the study site. The red triangles are the sites in other studies (previous year May –
 88 current year April PDSI reconstruction site in Fang et al., 2010; current year March – May PDSI reconstruction site in Fan et al., 2008;
 89 current year April – June PDSI reconstruction site in Li et al., 2017; current year May – June PDSI reconstruction site in Zhang et al., 2015).
 90 The blue dot is the meteorological station in Weixi County. On the right is the landscape image of tree ring sampling site.

91



92

93 **Figure 2:** The ombrothermic diagram of the climate variables in the study area

94 **2.2 Establishment of the tree-ring chronology**

95 The tree-ring samples were treated with standard dendrochronological procedures. They were first glued onto wooden holders
 96 and air-dried, and then polished to a flat surface with sand paper until the tree rings were clearly visible. The LINTAB 6.0 tree

97 ring measurement system was used to measure the tree-ring width (TRW). We have marked the tree rings of each sample at
98 each ten-year interval and visually checked the tree ring pattern matching among samples, then confirmed the crossdating
99 quality using the COFFECHA program (Holmes, 1983). Thirty-eight of the tree-ring cores were adopted for a further analysis
100 after excluding the bad quality samples and the un-crossdated samples. The tree-ring series was detrended with a negative
101 exponential model to remove the age dependency of tree growth (Cook et al., 1995). We have used the residual chronology
102 since it removes the auto-correlation in tree ring growth and captures high frequent climate signal. The “dplR” software toolkit
103 (Bunn, 2018) within the R software environment (R Core Team 2020) was used for detrending and chronology establishment.
104 The reliable period of the chronology was determined based on the criterion of expressed population signal (EPS) > 0.85
105 (Wigley, 1984).

106 **2.3 Climate data**

107 Temperature and precipitation records were obtained from the Weixi meteorological station (27.17° N, 99.28° E, 2326 m a.s.l.)
108 operated by the China Meteorological Administration. Data was available for the period of 1955–2005. Climate data (including
109 the maximum, minimum and average temperatures, and precipitation) were provided by the China Meteorological Data
110 Sharing Service Platform. A self-calibrated Palmer Drought Severity Index (scPDSI) was downloaded from the 3.26e gridded
111 dataset of the Climate Research Unit (CRU) via the Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (KNMI) climate explorer (data
112 accessed on 23rd December, 2020, data re-accessed for the updated version (CRU scPDSI 4.05 early) of PDSI data on 20th of
113 April, 2021) using the coordinates of the tree ring sampling site. The range of CRU grid box is 27.0 – 27.5° N, 99.0 – 99.5° E.

114 **2.4 Tree growth and climate relationship analysis**

115 We analysed the relationship between climate and tree growth using Dendroclim 2002 software (Biondi and Waikul, 2004).
116 Pearson correlation values and response function values were calculated for the relationships between TRW indices and climate
117 variables for the period of 1955–2005. Due to the carry over effect of the climatic conditions of the previous-year on the current
118 year tree growth (Fritts, 1976), the tree growth – climate relationship analysis spanned a 16-month period from June of the
119 previous year to September of the current year. We also used the seasonalised climate variables because it made more eco-
120 physiological sense for growth than single months. To observe the temporal stability of the climate influence on radial tree
121 growth, we conducted a moving correlation analysis at a moving interval of 32 years. All the correlation results were considered
122 significant at the 95% confidence level.

123 **2.5 Statistics of chronology and climate reconstruction**

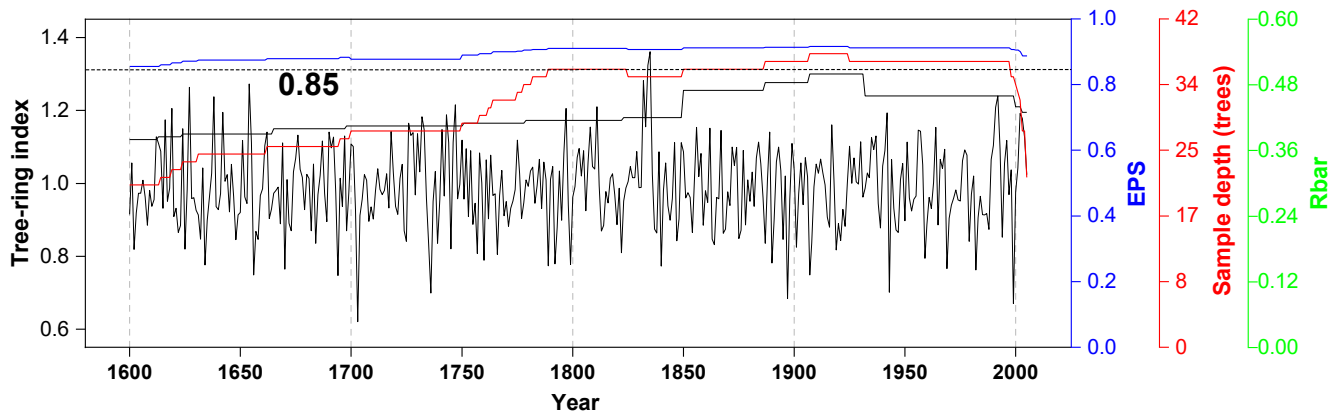
124 We have used the expressed population signal (EPS) to determine the reliable period of the chronology; mean inter-series
125 correlation (R_{bar}), signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and variance of first eigenvector (VFE) to evaluate the common signal among
126 measurement series; standard deviation (SD) and mean sensitivity (MS) to show the degree of inter-annual variability of the

127 chronology. According to the analysis of the relationship between the TRW indices and constraining climatic factors, we
 128 developed a linear regression model (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990) for the climate reconstruction. As in many other tree ring
 129 based climate reconstructions, we tested the goodness-of-fit of the model using the leave-one-out cross-validation method
 130 (Michaelsen, 1987). We used the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r), explained variance (R^2), adjusted explained variance
 131 (R_{adj}^2), reduction of error (RE), sign test (ST), coefficient of efficiency (CE), and product mean test (Pmt) to evaluate the
 132 fidelity of the reconstruction model (Fritts et al., 1990).

133 3. Results

134 3.1 Characteristics of the TRW chronology

135 Residual TRW chronology of forest hemlock from the investigation area was established (Fig. 3). The descriptive statistics of
 136 the chronology were presented in Table 1. According to the criteria of $EPS > 0.85$, the most reliable length of the TRW
 137 chronology was 406 years (A.D. 1600–2005). The mean correlation among tree-ring series ($Rbar$) was 0.48, and the variance
 138 in the first eigenvector (VFE) was 27 %, which implied a relatively strong common signal among individual trees constituting
 139 the chronology. The relatively low inter-annual variability of the chronology was expressed by the small mean sensitivity value
 140 (0.23). The EPS and SNR values (average EPS and SNR were 0.89 and 6.87 for the total length chronology, respectively)
 141 further implied the existence of the common signal among each individual measurement series. In general, all the statistical
 142 parameters indicated the potential climate signal imprinted in our TRW chronology.



143

144 **Figure 3:** Plot of tree-ring residual chronology, the running inter-correlations among cores ($Rbar$, the green line), expressed population
 145 signal (EPS, the blue line) and the sample size (the red line). The $Rbar$ and EPS were calculated using a 30-year window, with a 15-year lag.
 146 The horizontal dashed line denotes the EPS threshold level (0.85).

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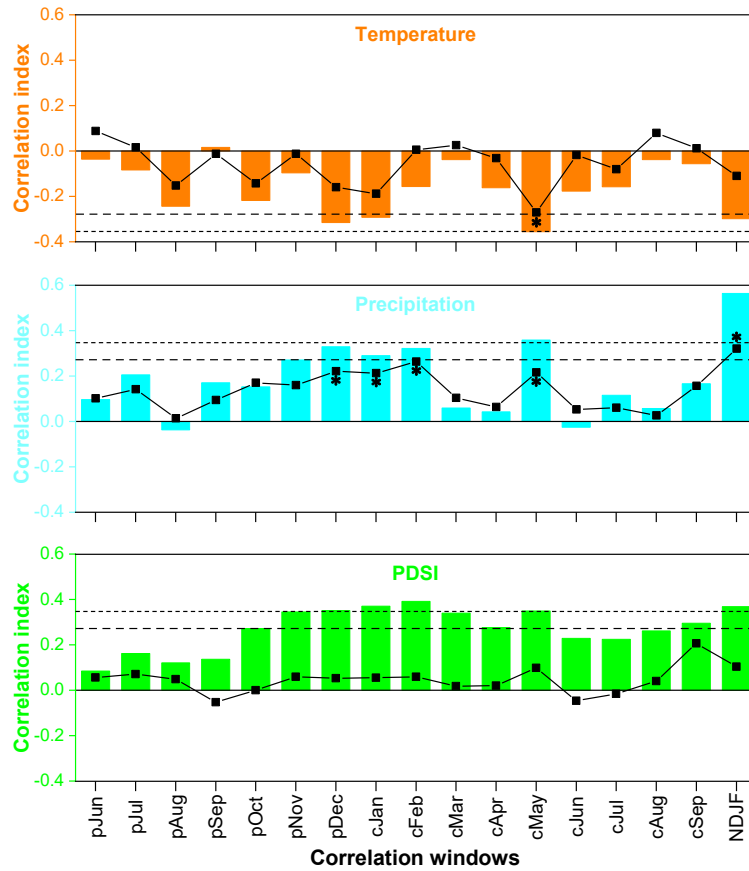
148 **Table 1. Site information, chronology statistics and results of a common interval span analysis of residual tree-ring**
149 **width (TRW) chronology from the Xinzhu Village, northwestern Yunnan in China**

Type	Location	Elevation (m)	Time length	Number of cores	SD	MS	Rbar	SNR	EPS	VFE
Tree ring	99.43°E, 27.25°N	2966	1600–2005	38	0.22	0.23	0.48	6.87	0.89	0.27

150 Note: SD: standard deviation, MS: mean sensitivity, Rbar: mean inter-series correlation, SNR: signal-to-noise ratio, EPS: Expressed
151 Population Signal, VFE: Variance in first eigenvector.

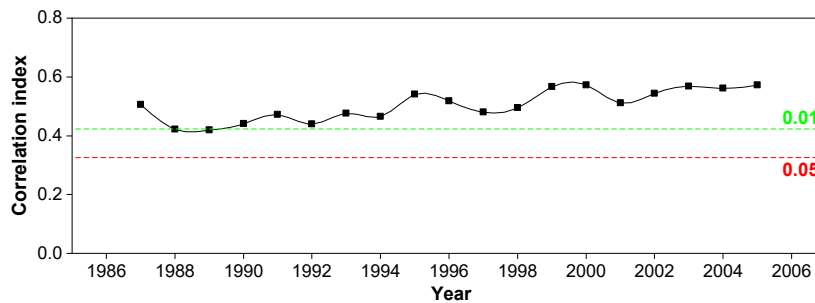
152 **3.2 Tree growth and climate relationship analysis**

153 According to the results of the tree growth and climate relationship analyses (Fig. 4), the precipitation during the NGS was the
154 most important constraining factor ($R = 0.56$, $p < 0.001$) on the radial growth of forest hemlock in the study area. The results
155 of a response function analysis further confirmed the strong correlation between NGS precipitation and forest hemlock radial
156 growth. The results of a moving correlation analyses between TRW chronology and instrumental NGS precipitation record
157 (Fig. 5) were positively significant (at 99%) during the investigated period (1956-2005), indicating that the NGS precipitation
158 influence was stationary over time.



159

160 **Figure 4:** Correlations between tree-ring indices and temperature, precipitation, and scPDSI in the correlation windows from
 161 previous year June to current year September, as well as in NDJF (non-growing season, NGS) for the common period from
 162 1956 to 2005. The horizontal dashed and dotted lines indicate the threshold of the correlations at the 95% and 99% significance
 163 levels. Black line with squares denotes the results of response function analysis between tree-ring indices and climate variables.
 164 The asterisks next to the squares denote the significant effects ($p < 0.05$) of response function analyses.

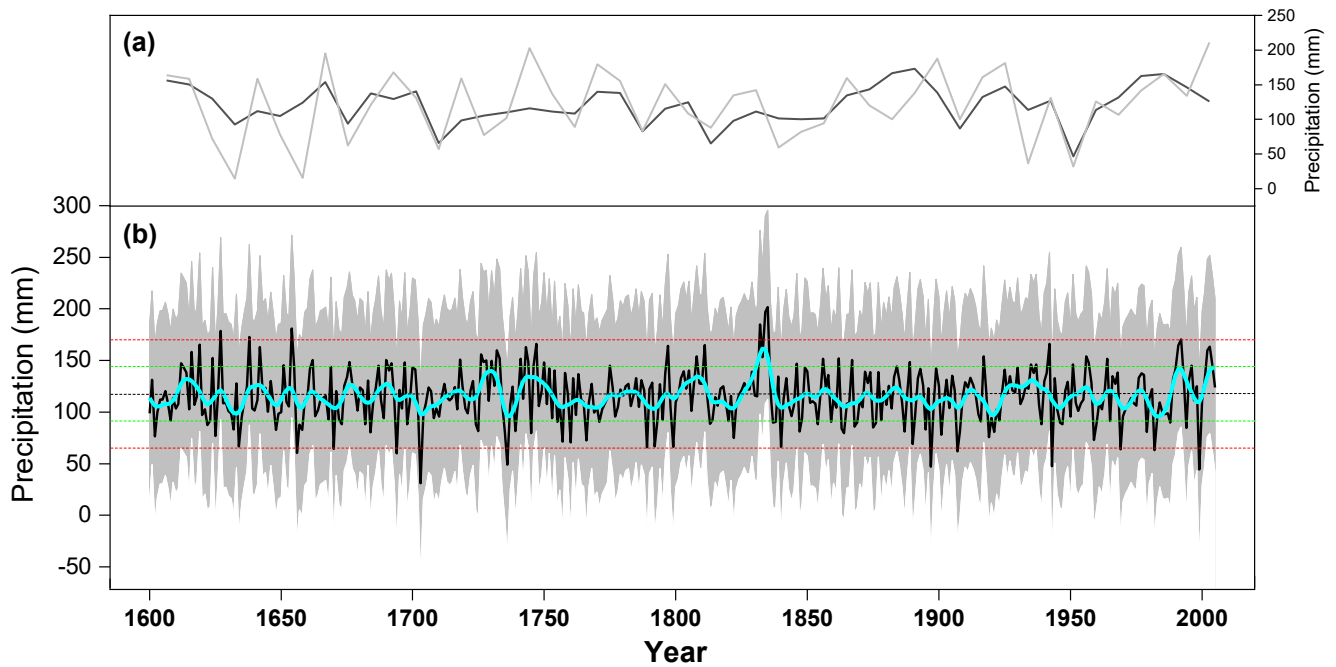


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166 **Figure 5:** The moving correlation result between tree-ring width (TRW) chronology and non-growing season (NGS) precipitation during
167 the period of 1956–2005. The horizontal red and green dashed lines denote the significance levels of 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

168 3.3 Non-growing season precipitation reconstruction

169 According to the relationship between the TRW chronology and NGS precipitation, we developed a linear regression model
170 ($y = 229.94x - 109.45$ mm) and reconstructed the historical NGS precipitation series, which extended back to A.D. 1600 (Fig.
171 6b). In the model, y is the NGS precipitation, and x is the TRW index. The reconstruction accounted for 28.5% of the
172 instrumental NGS precipitation variability during the common time span (1956–2005). Figure 6a shows the similarities
173 between the instrumental and reconstructed NGS precipitation series. We used a leave-one-out cross-verification method to
174 evaluate the legitimacy of the reconstruction model (Table 2). The positive RE and CE values (0.18 and 0.15, respectively)
175 were indicative of legitimacy of the reconstruction. The significant value (at 95%) of sign test implied that the model predicted
176 values were generally in line with the variation trend of instrumental values. In addition, the significant values of F test (at
177 99%) and PM test (at 95%) further confirmed the validity of the reconstruction. Overall, the statistics indicated that the
178 reconstruction model possessed good predictive skills.



179

180 **Figure 6:** Non-growing season (NGS) precipitation reconstruction from A.D. 1600 to 2005. (a) The black line is the
181 reconstruction series, the thick cyan line is the 11-year loess smoothed series. The horizontal black dashed line is the mean of
182 NGS precipitation value during from A.D. 1600–2005. The horizontal green and red dashed lines are the one time and two

183 times the of standard deviations of NGS precipitation, which demonstrated the boundaries of dry and extremely dry (below
 184 mean), and wet and extreme wet (above mean) years. The grey shading indicated the 95% confidence interval of the
 185 reconstruction; (b) Instrumental (black) and reconstructed (grey) NGS precipitation during their common period of 1956–2005.

186 **Table 2. Leave-one-out verification statistics for the non-growing season (NGS) precipitation reconstruction**

	R	R^2	R_{adj}^2	F	Sign-test	Pmt	RE	CE
Calibration	0.561	0.315	0.285	–	–	–	–	–
Verification	0.524	0.274	0.235	18.6**	36+/13–*	7.89*	0.18	0.15

187 Note: R correlation coefficient, R^2 explained variance, R_{adj}^2 is the adjusted explained variance, F F -test, Sign-test sign of paired observed
 188 and estimated departures from their mean on the basis of the number of agreements/disagreements, Pmt product mean test, RE reduction of
 189 error, CE coefficient of efficiency. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

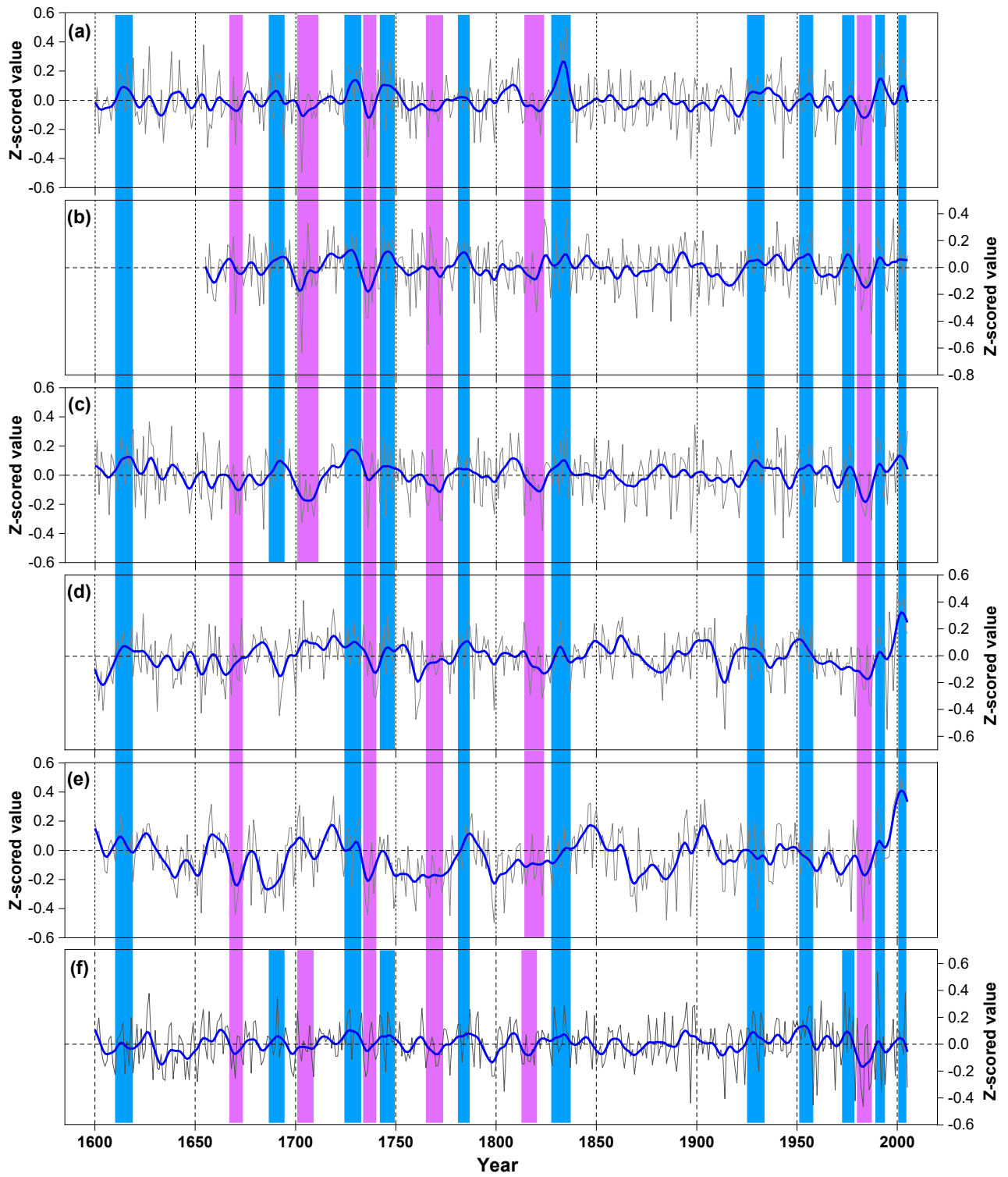
190 3.4 Characteristics of the NGS precipitation reconstruction

191 Figure 6b shows the reconstructed NGS precipitation over the past 406 years (A.D. 1600–2005). The mean of the reconstructed
 192 NGS precipitation series was 118 mm, and the standard deviation (SD) was 26 mm. We pre-defined the years that had NGS
 193 precipitation above 144 mm (mean+SD) as wet NGS years, and above 170 mm (mean+2SD) as extremely wet years (Table
 194 3), whereas we defined years that had precipitation below 92 mm (mean-SD) as dry NGS years, and below 66 mm (mean-2SD)
 195 as extremely dry NGS years (Table 3). The dry/wet periods and some of the extreme dry/wet NGS periods in the present
 196 reconstruction were synchronised with dry/wet periods and extreme dry/wet periods in previously reported PDSI
 197 reconstruction from the surrounding region (Fig. 7, Table S2, Table S3), though some dissimilarities were also existed. As
 198 shown in Fig. 8, the instrumental (a, c) and reconstructed (b, d) NGS precipitation series could represent the climatic conditions
 199 over a similar area in the SETP.

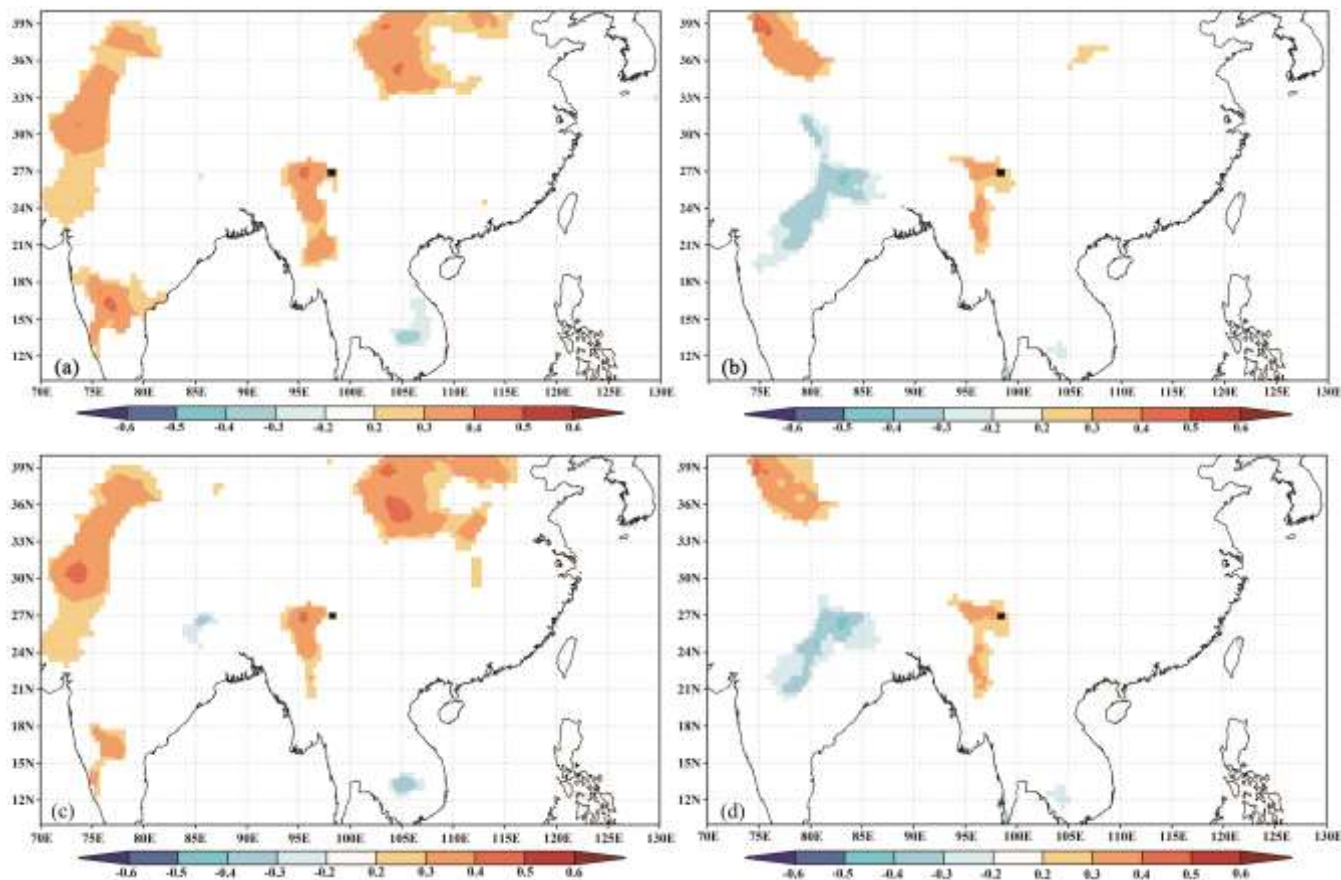
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Table 3 Extreme wet and dry NGS years

Year	Dry (mm)	Year	Wet (mm)
1656	63	1627	181
1694	62	1638	175
1703	33	1654	183
1736	51	1832	187
1897	49	1834	199
1907	64	1835	204
1943	50	1992	173
1982	65		
1999	47		



202 **Figure 7:** Comparisons of the hydroclimatic reconstructions in different studies. (a) The non-growing season (NGS)
 203 precipitation reconstruction in the present study. (b) The current year March – May average Palmer Drought Severity Index
 204 (PDSI) reconstruction in Fan et al. (2008). (c) The reconstruction of average PDSI from May of the previous year to April of
 205 the current year in Fang et al. (2010). (d) The current year May-June average PDSI reconstruction in Zhang et al. (2015). (e)
 206 The current year April-June average PDSI reconstruction in Li et al. (2017). (f) drought series extracted from Asian Monsoon
 207 Atlas from the nearest point (Cook et al. 2010). The blue and purple bars show the common wet and dry periods of the different
 208 reconstructions, respectively.



209

210

211 **Figure 8:** Spatial correlations of actual (a: raw data; c: first-differenced data) and reconstructed (b: raw data; d: first-differenced
 212 data) non-growing season (NGS) precipitation with a gridded dataset of the NGS precipitation (average from November of the
 213 previous year to February of the current year) during their overlapping periods (1956–2005). The black square indicates the
 214 location of the study site.

215 4. Discussion

216 4.1 Tree growth and climate relationship

217 The results of the tree growth and climate relationship analyses suggested that the forest hemlock radial growth in the
218 northwestern Yunnan region of the SETP was strongly constrained by hydroclimatic factors. According to the Pearson
219 correlation analysis, the influence of precipitation during the NGS on radial tree growth was greater than that of any other
220 investigated climate variables and any correlation window. The response function analysis further confirmed the strong impact
221 of NGS precipitation. In addition, the results of 32-year interval of moving correlation analysis (Fig. 5) suggested the
222 temporally consistent influence of NGS precipitation on forest hemlock radial growth in this region. The importance of NGS
223 precipitation on the radial tree growth could be attributed to the fact that precipitation during the NGS compensated for the
224 soil moisture, which was crucially important for supporting tree growth in the following season (Linderholm and Chen, 2005;
225 Treydte et al. 2006; Wu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021). This is because tree growth is often water stressed in the early stages of
226 its growth in each year on the SETP when the monsoon precipitation does not arrive (Bräuning and Mantwill, 2004; Zhang et
227 al., 2015), and the earlywood of tree rings mainly use spring melt water (Zhu et al., 2021). The eco-physiological importance
228 of NGS precipitation on tree growth and tree water usage was also revealed by isotope ratios method-based investigations.
229 Brinkmann et al's (2018) study showed that nearly 40% of the uptaken water by *Fagus sylvatica* and *Picea abies* trees in a
230 temperate forest of middle Europe are sourced from NGS precipitation. Tree-ring oxygen isotope ratios ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) are
231 demonstrated to contain NGS precipitation signals in the Himalayan region (Huang et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2021). Huang et
232 al's (2019) study revealed that NGS precipitation (snowfall) increased the snow-depth and the later snowmelt compensated
233 soil moisture in the spring and early summer, which was a crucially important water source for the Juniper growth in the
234 southwestern Tibetan Plateau. Zhu et al's (2021) investigation in the western Himalaya revealed that formation of earlywood
235 in tree rings of *Pinus wallachina* depended on the snowmelt originated from NGS precipitation. The weak influence of
236 precipitation on regional forest hemlock growth during March and April and strong influence during May was connected with
237 the saddle-shaped monthly rainfall pattern of this area (Fig. 2). The highest correlation between precipitation and TRW
238 chronology was observed in May of the current year. This is because the xylogenous activity to form earlywood coincided
239 with the low precipitation in this month (Fig. 2). In addition, the melt water was probably used up (tree uptake + evaporation)
240 during the early spring. Therefore, water stressed was increased during the late spring (May). The correlations between
241 precipitation and the TRW chronology were not significant during the growing season (June-September) because an adequate
242 water supply was available in the summer monsoon season.

243 Precipitation during the NGS over the SETP falls as snow. According to Sommerfeld et al. (1993) and Stadler et al. (1996),
244 the development of a snowpack insulates the underlying soil from freezing temperatures, which creates unfrozen soil
245 conditions and most of the soil processes that are active during warmer conditions also persist under snow cover, albeit at a
246 reduced rate (Edwards, 2007). Unfrozen soil can reduce the cold and frost damage to the shallow root systems of conifer trees

247 in this region (Schenk and Jackson, 2002). A reduction in the cold damage to roots decreases the energy required to form new
248 roots in the following growth year (Pederson et al., 2004), with the saved energy potentially used to initiate xylogenesis and
249 form earlywood cells. Evergreen tree species are known to carry out year-round photosynthetic activity (Oquist and Huner,
250 2003; Prats and Brodersen, 2020), albeit at a slower rate during the NGS, and therefore, the higher moisture availability
251 contributes to the carbohydrate and energy accumulation process of forest hemlock in the investigation area.

252 In contrast, the radial tree growth was negatively correlated to temperature in most correlation windows (Fig. 4). This can
253 be explained by the fact that higher temperature enhances evapotranspiration, and thus decreases water availability, which
254 eventually constrains tree growth. The negative impact of NGS temperature on radial tree growth was obvious because the
255 strengthened evaporation due to higher temperatures might reduce the moisture compensation to the soil layer and cause water
256 stress during the early stage of the following growth season.

257 **4.2 Validity of the reconstructed precipitation series**

258 We have tried to validate the fidelity of the newly reconstructed series from different aspects. Although we used the residual
259 TRW chronology in the present study, which removes autocorrelation (Cook and Kairiukstis, 1990) to capture the high
260 frequency climate signals as in Fan et al. (2008) and Chen et al. (2016), the variability of dry and wet NGS at different scales
261 was still retained in the reconstructed series. The reconstructed series in the present study demonstrated the variation in dry
262 and wet NGS years (Fig. 6b). As in many other proxy based historical climate reconstruction studies, we compared our NGS
263 precipitation series with other hydroclimatic reconstructions from the surrounding areas to investigate the reliability of our
264 reconstruction. However, there was no reported historical NGS precipitation record in the SETP, and we had to compare the
265 present reconstruction series with available hydro-climatic reconstructions, e.g., PDSI. There are only countable numbers of
266 PDSI reconstructions in the nearby region. Hence, we could only compare the present NGS precipitation reconstruction with
267 existing PDSI reconstructions (Fig. 7) which are of spring or early summer. Dry/wet climate during these seasons are usually
268 associated with the winter precipitation, hence, it makes certain sense to carry out the comparison. The correlation coefficients
269 between our NGS precipitation reconstruction and the PDSI reconstructions of Fan et al. (2008), Fang et al. (2010), Zhang et
270 al. (2015) and Li et al. (2017) were 0.51 ($n = 702$), 0.35 ($n = 1062$), 0.25 ($n = 1062$) and 0.22 ($n = 1016$) ($p < 0.001$). We have
271 extracted the drought series of Asian Monsoon Atlas (Cook et al. 2010) from the nearest point to our investigation site and
272 compared it with the NGS precipitation reconstruction in present study ($R = 0.35$, $n = 1062$, $p < 0.001$). As can be observed
273 from Fig. 7, there were dry and wet periods in compared reconstruction series which were consistent with the NGS precipitation
274 variabilities. These similarities indicated the reliability of our NGS precipitation reconstruction to some extent. The correlation
275 coefficients for the present reconstruction with those of Fan et al. (2008) and Fang et al. (2010) were greater than those with
276 Li et al. (2017) and Zhang et al. (2015). These differences were probably due to the different distances among the study sites.
277 Although, the major dry and wet periods were similar in the hydroclimatic reconstructions referenced above, there were still
278 certain discrepancies in duration and the strength of the dry/wet climatic conditions. This is probably because of the differences

279 in the types of hydroclimatic variables (precipitation, PDSI), specific seasons reconstructed (annual, seasonal), tree species
280 (species with different drought tolerances), chronology recording methods (standard chronology, residual chronology), length
281 of calibration period, sample replication and the geomorphic differences of the tree ring sampling sites (altitude, slope) (Table
282 S1).

283 In addition, we uploaded both of the instrumental and reconstructed NGS precipitation data for the same period of 1956–
284 2005 on the KNMI website and conducted a spatial correlation analysis with the CRU gridded climate dataset. The similar
285 patterns of spatial correlation between the instrumental and reconstructed data and their first differenced data (Fig. 8) indicated
286 that the present reconstruction was reliable and could represent the NGS precipitation over a large area in the SETP. Besides,
287 the occurrence of some historical great drought events in the Asian monsoon area (Cook et al., 2010, Kang et al., 2013), i.e.,
288 the 1756–1768 (strange parallels drought), 1790, 1792–1796 (east India drought) and 1920s (China mega-drought), matched
289 the dry NGS periods in our reconstruction, which also further confirmed the reliability of our reconstruction.

290 **5. Conclusion**

291 In this study, we investigated 406 years of residual TRW chronology of forest hemlock in the SETP, China. The climate and
292 tree growth relationship analyses showed that the TRW chronology was mostly negatively correlated with the thermal variable
293 (temperature), whereas it was positively correlated with hydroclimatic variables (precipitation) and PDSI, indicating that
294 hydroclimatic conditions determined the radial growth of forest hemlock in this region. Accordingly, we derived a linear model
295 of the relationship between climate and tree growth, which accounted for 28.5% of the actual NGS precipitation variance
296 (1956–2005), and we used the model to reconstruct the historical (A.D. 1600–2005) NGS precipitation. The reconstructed
297 series showed that the NGS was extremely dry during the years A.D. 1656, 1694, 1703, 1736, 1897, 1907, 1943, 1982 and
298 1999. In contrast, the NGS was extremely wet during the years A.D. 1627, 1638, 1654, 1832, 1834–1835 and 1992. A
299 comparison between the NGS precipitation reconstruction in this study and PDSI reconstructions from nearby regions revealed
300 a coherency in the timing of dry and wet episodes, suggesting the reliability of our reconstruction. Our results showed that the
301 NGS precipitation demonstrated slightly increasing trend since 1980s which is in favor of the future forest ecosystem
302 development. In the future, more efforts should be made to collect wide-area of tree-ring data and develop more proxy
303 chronologies that will enable us to reveal historical precipitation variability at the longer and wider scale in the SETP.

304 **Data availability.** The climate reconstruction series in this study can be obtained from Zongshan Li after the paper publication.

305 **Author contributions.** ZSL and MK conceived the study; ZSL, ZXF, XCW collected the tree-ring data; MK, ZSL, ZXF, KYF,
306 XCW elaborated the methodology; MK, ZSL, WLC analysed the data; MK, ZSL led the writing of the manuscript; ZSL and
307 ZXF revised the manuscript; BJF and GHL validated the final manuscript.

308 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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