





18 **Abstract:** Tree rings serve as precise archives of the environmental conditions that influence tree  
19 growth. In this study, we collected tree-ring cores from Schrenk spruce (*Picea schrenkiana*) in the  
20 eastern Tianshan Mountains and developed a robust ring-width chronology. Growth-climate  
21 response analysis revealed that total precipitation from the previous July through the current June  
22 is the primary factor limiting radial growth in this species, a relationship that remained stable over  
23 the period 1961–2020. Based on this strong climatic signal, we reconstructed annual precipitation  
24 for the region from 1830 to 2020. The reconstruction explains 37.6% of the variance in instrumental  
25 precipitation records, demonstrating its reliability as a proxy for past climate. The reconstructed  
26 series identified distinct dry periods (e.g., 1830–1839, 1863–1868, 1919–1921, 1944–1947, 1975–  
27 1979, and 1989–1992) and wet periods (e.g., 1844–1850, 1869–1882, 1886–1899, 1930–1942,  
28 1966–1973, 1980–1988, 1996–2001, and 2004–2018). The validity of our reconstruction is further  
29 supported by its strong agreement with other precipitation and drought reconstructions from nearby  
30 regions. Moreover, comparison with the Climatic Research Unit (CRU) gridded dataset indicates  
31 that our reconstruction captures precipitation variability across a broad spatial domain. By extending  
32 the instrumental record, this long-term precipitation series significantly enhances our understanding  
33 of climatic variability and its spatiotemporal characteristics in the eastern Tianshan Mountains.  
34 Notably, the reconstruction reveals a general upward trend in annual precipitation since the 1990s,  
35 which may enhance growth and carbon sequestration potential of Schrenk spruce forests in the  
36 region.

37 **Keywords:** Tree rings; Tianshan Mountain; Schrenk spruce; Precipitation reconstruction

38



39 **Introduction**

40 The Tianshan Mountains constitute one of Central Asia's most significant mountain systems,  
41 stretching approximately 2,500 km along an east–west axis and covering an area of roughly 800,000  
42 km<sup>2</sup>. This extensive range traverses multiple national borders, extending from Uzbekistan and  
43 Kyrgyzstan in the west, through southeastern Kazakhstan, and into China's Xinjiang region (Xiao  
44 et al., 2004, 2013, 2015). By virtue of its immense scale and central location, the Tianshan serves  
45 as a critical geographical and climatic divide within the Eurasian continent.

46 A fundamental hydroclimatic gradient exists along the Tianshan Mountains, driven primarily by  
47 differential moisture availability (Sun et al., 2012; Guan et al., 2022). The western sector lies under  
48 the dominant influence of the mid-latitude westerlies, which transport moisture from the Atlantic  
49 Ocean, the Mediterranean, and western Asia (Li et al., 2025). In contrast, the eastern Tianshan is  
50 situated deep within the continental interior, far removed from these primary moisture sources.  
51 Although limited moisture may occasionally arrive from distant sources such as the Arctic Ocean  
52 or via monsoonal incursions, its transport across vast arid landscapes results in substantial  
53 precipitation depletion. Therefore, reconstructing the long-term hydroclimatic history of the eastern  
54 Tianshan using extended proxy chronologies is of paramount importance for deciphering past  
55 climatic phases and understanding environmental shifts within this ecologically fragile region.

56 Dendroclimatology, which focuses on reconstructing past climate conditions from tree-ring data, is  
57 a fundamental approach for investigating pre-instrumental climate variability (Fritts, 1976). Tree  
58 rings serve as an exceptionally valuable proxy archive due to their annual resolution, absolute dating  
59 control, broad spatial coverage, and direct physiological sensitivity to environmental variables such  
60 as temperature and moisture availability (Yuan et al., 1994; Gou et al., 2006). These attributes enable  
61 the development of robust, precisely dated chronologies that can extend over centuries (Keyimu et  
62 al., 2021a,b). Consequently, tree-ring records play a pivotal role in reconstructing historical  
63 environmental and climatic changes across regional, hemispheric, and global scales, particularly  
64 over the past several centuries and beyond (Zhang et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2014).  
65 By quantifying past climate variability, dendroclimatological studies provide critical insights into  
66 the range, frequency, and magnitude of natural climatic oscillations. This knowledge not only  
67 advances our understanding of the mechanisms driving the climate system but also establishes



68 essential baselines for assessing contemporary anthropogenic climate change. Ultimately, tree-ring  
69 reconstructions offer invaluable long-term context that enhances the accuracy of climate models and  
70 refines projections of future climate trends.

71 Schrenk spruce (*Picea schrenkiana*) is a long-lived, widely distributed conifer that dominates forest  
72 ecosystems in the eastern Tianshan Mountains. Owing to its climatic sensitivity, longevity, and  
73 extensive geographical range, this species serves as an exceptional archive for dendroclimatological  
74 research. Consequently, it has been widely employed both for reconstructing past climate variability  
75 (Yuan et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2008; Shang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016; Zhang  
76 et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2017; Gou et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2025) and for assessing how climatic  
77 variability influences the composition, productivity, and functional dynamics of montane  
78 ecosystems. Although a substantial body of dendroclimatological research in the Tianshan  
79 Mountains has successfully reconstructed historical hydroclimatic variability, these studies have  
80 predominantly focused on drought indices and aridity patterns. In contrast, high-resolution  
81 reconstructions of precipitation variability remain relatively scarce. This research gap is significant,  
82 as direct precipitation reconstructions are essential for understanding the region's full water cycle  
83 dynamics, ecological responses, and long-term hydroclimatic trends—perspectives that extend  
84 beyond the scope of drought metrics alone.

85 In this study, we collected tree-ring samples from Schrenk spruce in Mulei County, located in the  
86 eastern Tianshan Mountains. Our primary objectives were to: (1) develop a robust tree-ring width  
87 chronology and identify the climatic drivers of radial growth; (2) reconstruct historical  
88 hydroclimatic variability and contextualize recent changes within a multi-century framework; and  
89 (3) evaluate the fidelity of the reconstruction using statistical and comparative approaches. Our  
90 findings not only enhance the existing network of hydroclimatic records in the eastern Tianshan  
91 Mountains but also provide a valuable long-term baseline for assessing contemporary precipitation  
92 trends. Furthermore, this reconstruction offers critical insights for evaluating the future trajectory  
93 and resilience of regional forest ecosystems under changing climatic conditions.

#### 94 **Materials and methods**

##### 95 **Sampling sites**

96 Tree-ring samples were collected from Schrenk spruce trees in Dongcheng Village, Mulei County,



97 located in the eastern Tianshan Mountains (Fig. 1). The region experiences a temperate continental  
98 climate characterized by semi-arid conditions. Meteorological data from the Mulei station (1960–  
99 2020) indicate a mean annual temperature of 5.4°C, with monthly means ranging from –32.1°C in  
100 January to 37.9°C in July. Mean annual precipitation totals 330 mm, more than 80% of which falls  
101 between April and September (Fig. 2). To maximize the climatic signal in the tree-ring series (Li et  
102 al., 2017), cores were extracted from healthy, spatially isolated trees across five sampling sites at an  
103 elevation of approximately 2300 m a.s.l. A single core was collected from each of 180 trees using a  
104 5.1 mm increment borer. Sampling was oriented perpendicular to the slope to minimize the influence  
105 of tension wood (Keyimu et al., 2021).



106 **Fig. 1** Location map of the study region showing the tree ring sampling area and the meteorological  
107 station.  
108

### 109 **Tree ring measurement and establishment of chronology**

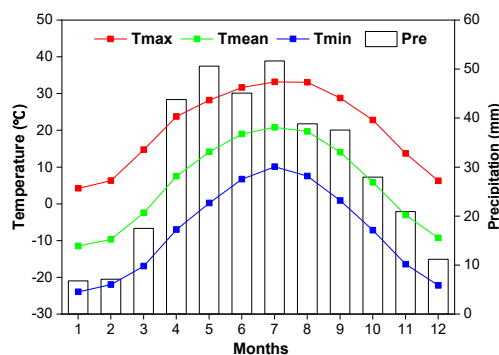
110 Collected tree-ring samples were processed following standardized dendrochronological procedures  
111 to ensure data quality and comparability. Cores were first secured onto wooden mounts, air-dried,  
112 and progressively sanded with 360, 600, and 1000 grit sandpaper to achieve a flat, polished surface  
113 with clearly visible ring boundaries. The prepared samples were then scanned using a TSD4800  
114 flatbed scanner, and ring widths were measured from the digital images at 0.001 mm resolution  
115 using the WinDENDRO 2017a system (Keyimu et al., 2025). Cross-dating was performed by



116 marking decadal intervals and visually matching growth patterns among samples; dating quality  
117 was subsequently verified using the COFFECHA program (Holmes, 1983). After excluding poor-  
118 quality or undateable cores, 161 series were retained for final analysis. To remove age-related  
119 growth trends, each series was detrended using a negative exponential curve (Cook et al., 1995)  
120 implemented in the dplR package (Bunn, 2018) of R program. A standard tree-ring width (TRW)  
121 chronology was then developed. Several standard dendrochronological statistics were computed to  
122 evaluate chronology quality. Common signal strength among measurement series was assessed  
123 using mean inter-series correlation ( $R_{bar}$ ), signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and variance of the first  
124 eigenvector (VFE). Inter-annual variability was characterized by standard deviation (SD) and mean  
125 sensitivity (MS). Finally, the expressed population signal (EPS), with a threshold of  $>0.85$ , was  
126 applied to determine the reliably expressed portion of the chronology (Wigley et al., 1984).

### 127 Climate data

128 Climate data for growth–climate relationship analyses and reconstruction calibration were obtained  
129 from the Mulei Meteorological Station, located near the sampling area. Monthly records of  
130 maximum, minimum, and mean temperature ( $T_{max}$ ,  $T_{min}$ ,  $T_{mean}$ ), as well as total precipitation  
131 (Pre), covering the period 1960–2020, were acquired from the China Meteorological Data Sharing  
132 Service System. Self-calibrating Palmer Drought Severity Index (scPDSI) data for the same interval  
133 were sourced from the Climatic Research Unit (CRU) TS 4.07 dataset via the KNMI Climate  
134 Explorer interface (accessed 20 November 2025).



135  
136 **Fig. 2** Monthly instrumental data for temperature and precipitation obtained from the Mulei station,  
137 spanning the years 1960 through 2020.

### 138 Growth – climate relationship analysis



139 Response and correlation function analyses between tree-ring indices and monthly climate data were  
140 conducted using the DENDROCLIM2002 software (Biondi and Waikul, 2004). Correlations  
141 between the TRW chronology and climate variables were evaluated over the common period 1960–  
142 2020. To account for the carryover effect of prior-year climate conditions on current-year growth  
143 (Fritts, 1976), the analysis incorporated a 16-month temporal window extending from the previous  
144 June to the current September. Seasonalized climate variables were also examined, as they provide  
145 a more ecologically meaningful timescale for growth than do individual months. The temporal  
146 stability of climate–growth relationships was assessed using a 30-year moving correlation window.  
147 For all analyses, correlations were considered statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

#### 148 **Establishment of reconstruction model and its evaluation**

149 A linear regression model for climate reconstruction was developed based on the established  
150 relationship between tree-ring growth and the primary climatic limiting factor (Cook and Kairiukstis,  
151 1990). Model fidelity was assessed using a split-sample calibration-verification approach, following  
152 standard dendroclimatological practice. Model performance was evaluated using a suite of statistics,  
153 including Pearson's correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), explained variance ( $R^2$ ), adjusted explained variance  
154 ( $R^2_{adj}$ ), reduction of error (RE), coefficient of efficiency (CE), and the sign test (ST) (Fritts et al.,  
155 1990).

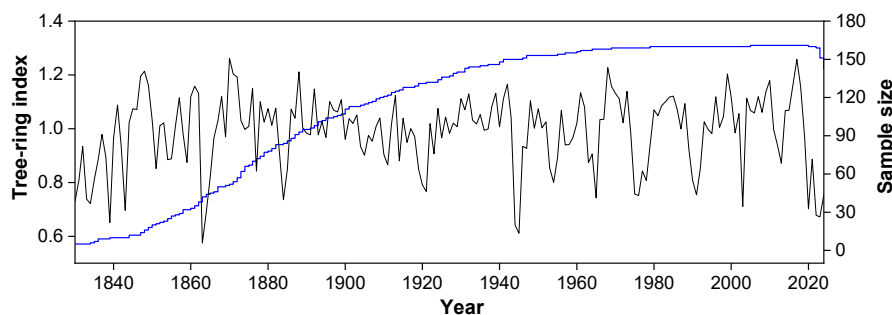
#### 156 **Results**

##### 157 **Characteristics of tree – ring width chronology**

158 The key descriptive metrics of the standard tree-ring width chronology (Fig. 3) are summarized in  
159 Table 1. A strong common signal among trees is indicated by a mean interseries correlation ( $R_{bar}$ )  
160 of 0.53 and a variance in the first eigenvector (VFE) of 31.11%. These statistical characteristics  
161 demonstrate the chronology's suitability as a reliable proxy for investigating climatic variability in  
162 the eastern Tianshan Mountains. The chronology exhibits moderate year-to-year variability, with a  
163 mean sensitivity (MS) of 0.20 and a standard deviation (SD) of 0.29. A first-order autocorrelation  
164 (AC1) of 0.69 indicates a significant carryover effect of growing conditions from previous years.  
165 The high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) further supports the presence of a strong common climatic  
166 signal in the radial growth of the sampled trees. Based on a running expressed population signal  
167 (EPS) threshold of  $>0.85$ , the reliably expressed portion of the chronology spans 191 years, from



168 1830 to 2020.



169

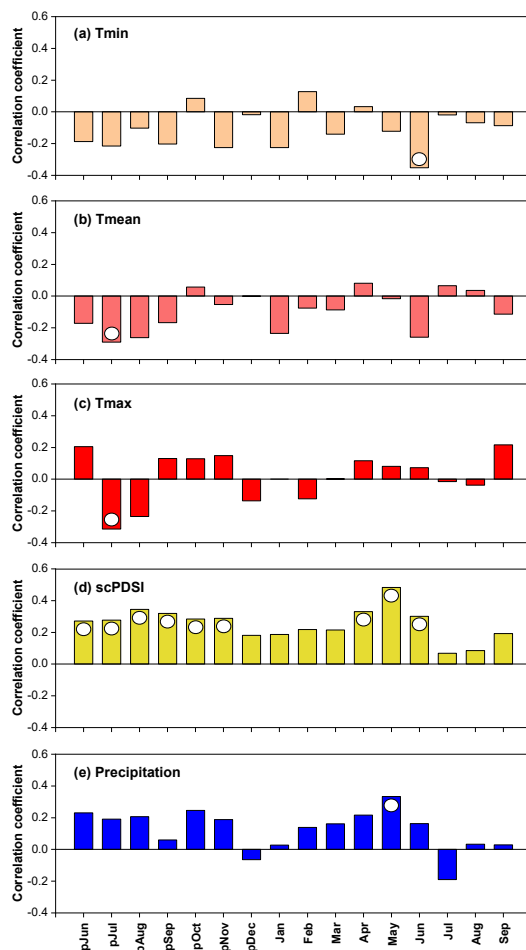
170 **Fig. 3** Standard TRW chronology and sample size for Schrenk spruce in the eastern Tianshan  
 171 Mountains (chronology: black line; sample size: blue line).

172 **Table 1** Site information, chronology statistics and results of a common interval span analysis of  
 173 standard tree-ring width (TRW) chronology from the eastern Tianshan Mountains, China

Data type	Time length	Number of cores	SD	MS	Rbar	SNR	EPS	VFE
Tree ring width	1830-2020	161	0.14	0.27	0.46	36.20	0.97	0.48

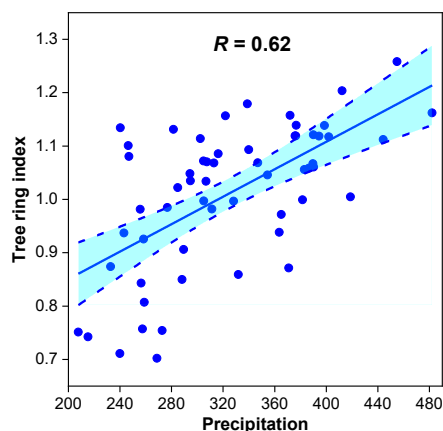
174 **Tree growth and climate relationship analyses**

175 Correlations between the TRW chronology and monthly climate variables over the 1961–2020  
 176 period are presented in Fig. 3. The analysis reveals a consistent pattern: radial growth exhibits  
 177 positive correlations with hydroclimatic factors (precipitation and scPDSI) across most monthly  
 178 windows, while demonstrating consistently negative correlations with all three temperature  
 179 variables (Tmax, Tmin, Tmean). This pattern—whereby moisture availability favors growth and  
 180 temperature exerts a limiting influence—is further supported by correlations using aggregated  
 181 monthly climate data (Supplementary File). Among all climatic variables examined, total  
 182 precipitation from the previous July through the current June showed the strongest association with  
 183 radial growth, yielding a correlation coefficient of 0.62 ( $p < 0.01$ ). Accordingly, annual precipitation  
 184 was selected as the target variable for climate reconstruction in this study.



185

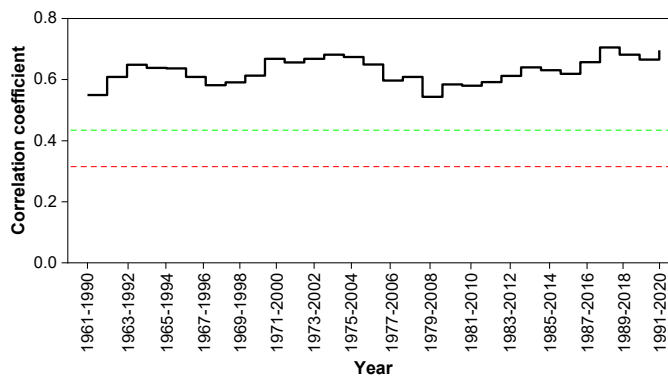
186 **Fig. 4** Correlations of tree-ring width with temperature, precipitation, and scPDSI over the climatic  
187 window spanning from June of the previous year to September of the current year for the common  
188 period from 1961 to 2020. The while circle indicates the correlations reaching 95% significant level.



189

190 **Fig. 5** Correlation between tree-ring width and July–June precipitation during the period of 1961–

191 2020. The correlation is significant at 99% level.



192

193 **Fig. 6** The moving correlation between the TRW chronology and annual precipitation over the

194 period 1961–2020. The horizontal red and dashed green lines represent the 0.05 and 0.01

195 significance levels, respectively.

### 196 Annual precipitation reconstruction

197 Based on the established relationship between tree growth and precipitation, a linear regression

198 model was developed to reconstruct annual precipitation from 1830 to 2020: Annual precipitation

199 (mm) =  $296.28 \times \text{TRW index} + 25.53$ . The reconstruction accounts for 37.6% of the variance in

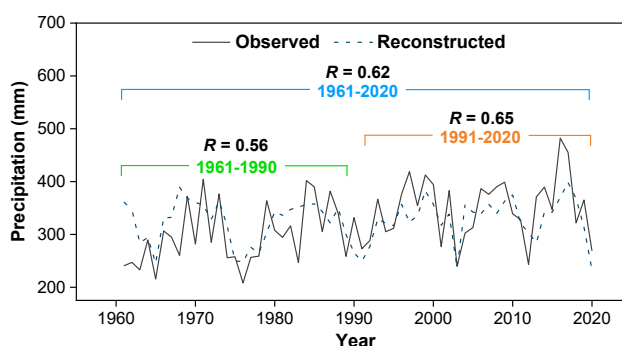
200 observed precipitation during the instrumental period (1961–2020). Close agreement between

201 reconstructed and instrumental series is visually evident in Fig. 7. A split-sample calibration-

202 verification procedure was employed to rigorously evaluate reconstruction reliability (Table 2).



203 Positive values for the reduction of error ( $RE = 0.18$ ) and coefficient of efficiency ( $CE = 0.15$ )  
 204 demonstrate the model's predictive skill and reconstruction robustness. Model performance is  
 205 further confirmed by a significant sign test ( $p < 0.05$ ), validating the reconstruction's ability to  
 206 capture inter-annual variability, and by a significant F-test ( $p < 0.01$ ). Collectively, these statistics  
 207 confirm that the reconstruction model is valid and possesses reliable predictive capability for  
 208 estimating historical precipitation in the study region.



209

210 **Fig. 7** Observed (black continuous line) and model-reconstructed (black dotted line) annual  
 211 precipitation from 1961 to 2020. The correlations between the periods of 1961-1990, 1990-2020,  
 212 and 1961-2020 are all significant at 99% level.

213 **Table 2** Calibration and verification statistics for the precipitation reconstruction model (split-  
 214 sample method)

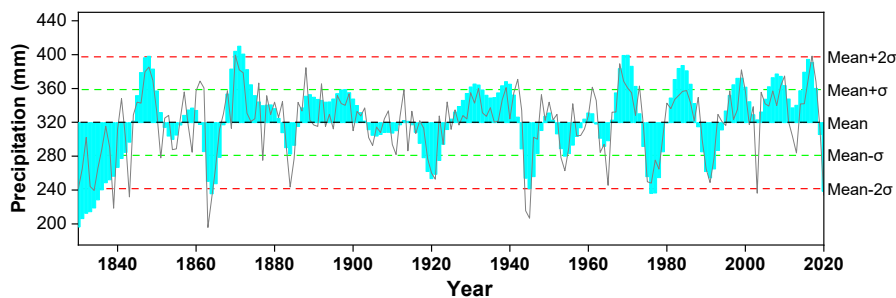
Period	$r$	$R^2$	$F$	$RE$	$CE$	$S$
Calibration (1961-1990)	0.56	0.314	18.5	0.43	0.38	27+/11-
Verification (1991-2020)	0.65	0.423	19.0	0.49	0.42	30+/7
Full calibration (1961-2020)	0.62	0.382	25.3	—	—	—

215 **Variability of historical annual precipitation**

216 The annual precipitation reconstruction for 1830–2020 is presented in Fig. 8. The reconstructed  
 217 series has a mean of 319.8 mm and a standard deviation (SD) of 39.4 mm. Based on these statistics,  
 218 years were classified as wet ( $>359$  mm, mean + 1SD) or extremely wet ( $>398$  mm, mean + 2SD),  
 219 and as dry ( $<280$  mm, mean – 1SD) or extremely dry ( $<240$  mm, mean – 2SD). A complete listing  
 220 of these years is provided in Table 3. The reconstruction exhibits broad synchrony with previously  
 221 documented dry/wet periods and extreme climate events from nearby hydroclimatic reconstructions



222 (Fig. 9), although some discrepancies are evident. Spatial correlation analyses (Fig. 10) indicate that  
 223 both the instrumental and reconstructed precipitation series capture climatic variability across a  
 224 similar geographical domain in the eastern Tianshan Mountains, demonstrating comparable spatial  
 225 representativeness.

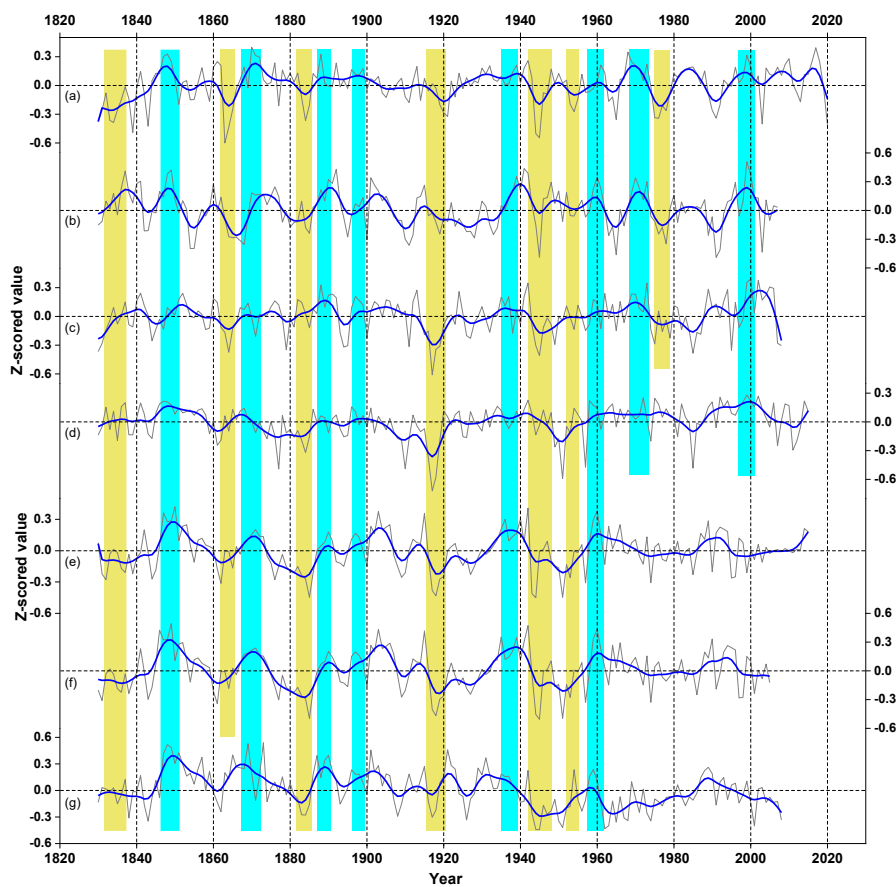


226  
 227 **Fig. 8** Annual precipitation reconstruction for the eastern Tianshan Mountains. The gray line  
 228 represents the annual reconstruction series, while the cyan shading denotes the 11-year loess-  
 229 smoothed trend. A horizontal dashed black line indicates the long-term mean precipitation.  
 230 Thresholds for classifying dry/extremely dry and wet/extremely wet years are shown by horizontal  
 231 green and red dashed lines, respectively.

232 **Table 3** Major dry and wet periods in the eastern Tianshan Mountains

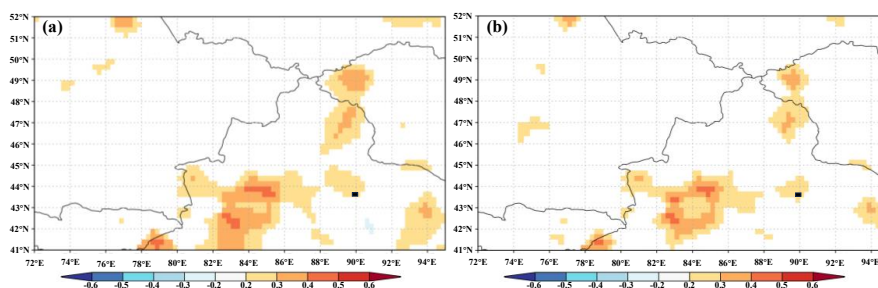
Periods	Dry	Periods	Wet
	Average precipitation (mm)		Average precipitation (mm)
1830-1839	267.1	1844-1850	354.4
1863-1868	230.8	1869-1882	342.8
1883-1885	270.9	1886-1899	337.6
1919-1921	263.3	1930-1942	342.5
1944-1947	256.2	1966-1973	353.6
1953-1955	277.1	1980-1988	345.1
1975-1979	268.3	1996-2001	345.3
1989-1992	272.8	2004-2018	346.6

233



234

235 **Fig. 9** Comparison of multiple hydroclimatic reconstructions across the Tianshan Mountains from  
236 different studies: (a) precipitation reconstruction from this study; (b) precipitation reconstruction for  
237 the eastern Tianshan Mountains (Zhang et al., 2015); (c) PDSI drought reconstruction for the inner  
238 Tianshan Mountains (Zhang et al., 2017); (d) SPEI drought reconstruction for the central Tianshan  
239 Mountains (Ma et al., 2025); (e) PDSI drought reconstruction for the Tianshan Mountains (Wang et  
240 al., 2021); (f) SPEI drought reconstruction for the central Tianshan Mountains (Jiang et al., 2017);  
241 and (g) SPEI drought reconstruction for the central Tianshan Mountains (Xu et al., 2014).



242

243 **Fig. 10** Spatial correlations of actual (a) and reconstructed (b) precipitation with a gridded  
244 precipitation dataset during their overlapping periods (1961–2020). The black square indicates the  
245 location of the study site.

## 246 Discussion

### 247 Relationship between tree growth and climate

248 Moisture availability was identified as the primary factor limiting radial growth of Schrenk spruce  
249 in the eastern Tianshan Mountains. Correlation analysis revealed that total precipitation from the  
250 previous July to the current June exerted a stronger influence on growth than any other climate  
251 variable or seasonal window examined. This dominant role of precipitation was further corroborated  
252 by response function analysis. A 30-year moving correlation analysis (Fig. 6) demonstrated that the  
253 positive association between annual precipitation and tree growth has remained both temporally  
254 stable and statistically significant. This persistent relationship underscores the consistent and  
255 limiting role of moisture availability on forest productivity in this region.

256 In water-limited regions, precipitation exerts a critical influence on tree growth. This influence  
257 exhibits pronounced seasonal heterogeneity (Trouet et al., 2006), as moisture delivered during  
258 different times of the year serves distinct physiological functions within the annual growth cycle.  
259 The relative importance of precipitation varies substantially by season, ecosystem, and tree species  
260 (Parton et al., 2012). Spring precipitation is particularly critical for tree growth, especially in  
261 temperate, boreal, and arid regions, as it directly governs the physiological processes that initiate  
262 the annual growth cycle. This seasonal importance can be attributed to several key mechanisms.

263 Spring moisture availability governs the resumption of tree growth through several interrelated  
264 mechanisms. First, it ends winter dormancy by rehydrating tissues and enabling the reactivation of  
265 the vascular cambium—the cell division responsible for wood formation (cambial reactivation).



266 This moisture-dependent process promotes the expansion of newly formed, large-diameter tracheids  
267 that comprise the earlywood, the lighter, less dense portion of the annual ring (Rathgeber et al.,  
268 2017). Earlywood formation is particularly sensitive to water availability during spring.  
269 Concurrently, spring precipitation supports budbreak, leaf or needle emergence, and the  
270 development of the photosynthetic canopy (Die et al., 2017). By enabling the rapid establishment  
271 of a functional canopy, adequate spring moisture maximizes the growing season length and  
272 photosynthetic capacity. Consequently, insufficient spring precipitation can delay or severely curtail  
273 this initial growth phase, directly reducing the width of the annual ring.

274 Summer precipitation plays a critical role in sustaining active tree growth and preventing drought  
275 stress. It supports photosynthesis by maintaining leaf turgor and keeping stomata open for CO<sub>2</sub>  
276 uptake (John and Boyer, 2015). Additionally, summer precipitation replenishes soil moisture lost to  
277 evapotranspiration, thereby enabling continued cell wall thickening during latewood formation  
278 (Antonova et al., 2014) and preventing the premature shutdown of growth processes. Conversely,  
279 summer drought induces stomatal closure, halting photosynthesis and potentially leading to carbon  
280 starvation. Severe water deficit can also cause cell collapse, resulting in the formation of dense,  
281 narrow latewood bands or, in extreme cases, missing rings (Novak et al., 2011).

282 Consistent with dendroclimatological theory (Fritts, 1976), our analyses revealed a significant time-  
283 lag effect: precipitation during the preceding autumn and winter exhibited a pronounced carry-over  
284 influence on tree-ring growth in the following year. This persistence is further supported by the  
285 relatively high first-order autocorrelation (AR1 = 0.68) of the TRW chronology in present study.  
286 Specifically, correlations between tree growth and climate variables demonstrated that precipitation  
287 during the previous autumn strongly influenced current-year radial growth of Schrenk spruce. This  
288 lagged effect can be attributed to several vital physiological and ecological functions of autumn  
289 precipitation. Beyond sustaining late-season growth, autumn precipitation critically recharges soil  
290 moisture—particularly in deeper soil layers—following summer depletion (Wagner et al., 2015).  
291 This replenishment aids nutrient uptake for energy storage and supports continued root growth  
292 before winter dormancy (Li et al., 2024). Collectively, these processes create a crucial hydrological  
293 reserve that trees can draw upon during growth initiation the following spring. Conversely, a dry  
294 autumn leads to depleted soil moisture reserves entering winter, predisposing trees to spring drought



295 stress (Bohnhorst et al., 2025). This vulnerability is particularly pronounced in regions such as our  
296 study area, where spring precipitation is limited.

297 In the eastern Tianshan Mountains, winter precipitation falls primarily as snow. The resulting  
298 snowpack acts as an insulating layer, maintaining unfrozen soil conditions beneath and allowing  
299 soil processes to continue, albeit at reduced rates (Edwards, 2007). This protection is critical for  
300 conifer roots, as unfrozen soil buffers shallow root systems against freezing temperatures (Schenk  
301 and Jackson, 2002), thereby reducing the metabolic energy required for repair and regeneration in  
302 the following spring (Pederson et al., 2004). The conserved energy can instead be allocated to  
303 initiate xylogenesis and form earlywood cells at the start of the growing season. Furthermore, for  
304 evergreen species such as Schrenk spruce, which maintain low levels of photosynthetic activity  
305 year-round (Prats and Brodersen, 2020), moisture available from the snowpack and unfrozen soil  
306 supports continued carbohydrate accumulation even during winter. This process enhances the tree's  
307 energy reserves prior to the spring growth flush. In contrast, radial tree growth exhibited negative  
308 or insignificant correlations with temperature across most monthly windows (Fig. 4). This pattern  
309 can be explained by the fact that higher temperatures enhance evapotranspiration, thereby reducing  
310 available soil moisture and ultimately constraining tree growth in this water-limited environment.

#### 311 **Validity of the historical climate reconstruction**

312 The reconstructed precipitation series reveals clear alternating episodes of dry and wet conditions  
313 (Fig. 8). To evaluate the reliability and spatial coherence of our reconstruction, we compared it with  
314 other hydroclimatic reconstructions from surrounding regions. For improved visual clarity in this  
315 comparison, an 11-year loess smoothing function was applied to each dataset (Fig. 9). The  
316 reconstructed hydroclimatic series exhibits general agreement with prior studies regarding the  
317 timing of major dry and wet periods. However, variations are evident in their specific temporal  
318 extent and magnitude. Correlation strength between our reconstruction and comparable records  
319 from surrounding regions (Zhang et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2017;  
320 Wang et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2014) is not uniform. These differential correlations may be partially  
321 explained by geographical proximity between study sites. Furthermore, discrepancies in  
322 reconstructed hydroclimatic signals can be attributed to several methodological differences,  
323 including the type of hydroclimatic variable reconstructed (e.g., precipitation, PDSI, SPEI), the



324 temporal focus of the reconstruction (annual, seasonal, or monthly), tree species used (which vary  
325 in drought tolerance and climatic sensitivity), the specific tree-ring parameter measured (e.g., total  
326 width, earlywood width, or density), chronology standardization method (standard vs. residual  
327 chronologies), length of the calibration period, sample depth, and geomorphological characteristics  
328 of sampling sites (e.g., elevation, slope aspect).

329 In order to validate the reconstructed wet and dry periods, we consulted historical archives  
330 documenting climatic extremes in the eastern Tianshan Mountains. These archival sources provide  
331 independent qualitative evidence that corroborates our tree-ring-based precipitation reconstruction.  
332 For instance, compiled historical accounts document a severe spring drought in eastern Northwest  
333 China during 1867, which critically reduced agricultural output. Over 80% of sown farmland failed  
334 to produce a harvest, leading to severe famine (The Complete Collection of Qing Dynasty  
335 Chronicles, 2006). Historical records further identify a major, widespread drought beginning in the  
336 1910s and persisting into the 1920s across the study region and wider Tianshan area (Li et al., 2014).  
337 Reconstructions concur that this event affected eastern, central, and western Tianshan, with  
338 devastating socio-ecological consequences across Central Asia, including pasture degradation,  
339 widespread livestock mortality, and acute food shortages (Xiang et al., 1994). The scale of impact  
340 was catastrophic: livestock numbers in Uzbekistan reportedly declined from approximately 9  
341 million in 1900 to only 3 million by 1920, while famine claimed an estimated 1.4 million lives in  
342 western Kazakhstan in 1920 alone (Aberhor et al., 1998). Another particularly severe drought  
343 occurred in 1945, affecting the entire Tianshan region and Central Asia. In northwest China's  
344 Shaanxi-Gansu area, this drought impacted over 500,000 hectares of cropland, reducing grain yields  
345 by more than 40% (Zhai and Peng, 2009). Climatic analysis links this extreme event to a La Niña  
346 (cold-phase ENSO) episode and cooler sea surface temperatures in the Arabian Sea and northern  
347 Indian Ocean (Wang et al., 2008). This oceanic configuration altered atmospheric circulation  
348 patterns, severely reducing moisture transport to Central Asia (Li et al., 2010). The resulting aridity  
349 is strongly corroborated by proxy data: moisture-sensitive tree-ring records across the region exhibit  
350 exceptionally narrow growth rings for 1945, providing independent evidence of profoundly dry  
351 conditions.

352 The wet periods identified in our climate reconstruction correspond closely with documented major



353 flood events in historical records. For instance, the 1890s were characterized by relatively humid  
354 conditions across the Tianshan Mountains. This climatic pattern manifested in extreme weather  
355 events, such as an intense precipitation episode in the eastern Tianshan region in 1891, which  
356 triggered severe flooding that devastated the entire Balikun area (Wen et al., 2006). The central  
357 Tianshan Mountains were similarly affected: persistent precipitation in 1892 resulted in catastrophic  
358 flooding that obliterated the Kuitun area, causing widespread inundation that crippled transportation  
359 networks and damaged infrastructure. This pattern of climatic-hydrological linkage continued into  
360 the wet period of the 1930s–1940s. Historical archives report that a major precipitation event in  
361 1940 caused severe flooding in Hami, located in eastern Xinjiang. That same year, another episode  
362 of sustained heavy rainfall led to significant flooding in both Hami and the Changji area (Wen et al.,  
363 2006). Concurrently, the Urumqi River overflowed due to extreme rainfall, inflicting extensive  
364 damage throughout the city of Urumqi. These recurrent disasters across different decades and sub-  
365 regions consistently demonstrate the strong association between extended wet phases in our  
366 reconstruction and the occurrence of historically significant floods, providing independent  
367 validation of our precipitation reconstruction.

368 To assess the spatial representativeness of our precipitation reconstruction, we performed a spatial  
369 correlation analysis against gridded climate data. Both the instrumental records and our  
370 reconstructed series for the common period 1961–2020 were uploaded to the KNMI Climate  
371 Explorer platform for consistent processing. Using this platform, we computed spatial correlation  
372 fields between our datasets and gridded precipitation data from the Climatic Research Unit (CRU).  
373 The analysis revealed similar spatial correlation patterns between the instrumental data and our  
374 reconstruction. This consistent spatial footprint demonstrates that our reconstruction reliably  
375 captures regional-scale precipitation variability. Therefore, the reconstruction can be considered a  
376 robust proxy for representing historical hydroclimatic conditions across a broad area of the eastern  
377 Tianshan Mountains.

### 378 **Conclusion**

379 In this study, we developed a tree-ring width (TRW) chronology from Schrenk spruce (*Picea*  
380 *schrenkiana*) sampled in the eastern Tianshan Mountains, northwestern China. Climate–growth  
381 analysis revealed that radial growth of Schrenk spruce in this region is primarily limited by moisture



382 availability. Based on this relationship, we reconstructed historical precipitation variability using a  
383 linear regression model that explains 37.6% of the variance in observed precipitation. Our  
384 reconstruction identifies several major hydroclimatic phases over the past two centuries. Notable  
385 dry periods occurred during 1830–1839, 1863–1865, 1883–1885, 1919–1921, 1944–1947, 1953–  
386 1955, 1975–1979, and 1989–1992. Pronounced wet intervals were detected in 1844–1850, 1868–  
387 1882, 1886–1899, 1930–1942, 1966–1973, 1980–1988, 1996–2001, and 2004–2018. The  
388 reconstruction demonstrates strong spatial coherence with other hydroclimate records from the  
389 Tianshan region. Moreover, the timing of major dry and wet phases corresponds closely with  
390 historically documented droughts and flood events, providing independent validation of our  
391 precipitation reconstruction. By extending the instrumental climate record, this study provides a  
392 long-term perspective on precipitation variability in the eastern Tianshan Mountains and contributes  
393 to a more comprehensive understanding of regional hydroclimatic dynamics.

394 Our results reveal a general increase in annual precipitation since the 1990s, a trend that has  
395 supported forest ecosystem development in the region. This hydroclimatic shift is favorable for  
396 enhancing the carbon sequestration capacity of moisture-sensitive tree species in the eastern  
397 Tianshan Mountains. Future research should prioritize expanding the spatial coverage of tree-ring  
398 sampling networks and developing a more comprehensive array of long-term proxy chronologies.  
399 Such datasets are essential for reconstructing historical climate variability across longer timescales  
400 and broader spatial domains within the Tianshan Mountains, thereby deepening our understanding  
401 of past hydroclimatic dynamics and their ecological implications.

#### 402 **Acknowledgment**

403 This work was funded by the Youth Innovation Promotion Association of Chinese Academy of  
404 Sciences (grant no. 2022445). We are grateful to the editor and anonymous reviewers for their  
405 valuable comments and suggestions to improve this article.

#### 406 **Funding declaration**

407 This work was funded by the Youth Innovation Promotion Association of Chinese Academy of  
408 Sciences (grant no. 2022445)

#### 409 **Data availability statement**



410 The data in this manuscript is available on reasonable request.

411 **Author contribution statement**

412 Conceptualization: Maierdang Keyimu and Zongshan Li; methodology: Maierdang Keyimu,  
413 Xiaofei Ma, Yesi Zhao; software: Maierdang Keyimu, Xiaofei Ma; validation: Zongshan Li,  
414 Maierdang Keyimu, Ze-xin Fan; formal analysis: Maierdang Keyimu; investigation: Maierdang  
415 Keyimu; resources: Fanjiang Zeng, Zongshan Li, and Xiaofei Ma; data curation: Ze-xin Fan and  
416 Yesi Zhao; writing—original draft preparation: Maierdang Keyimu; writing—review and editing:  
417 Zongshan Li and Ze-xin Fan; supervision: Maierdang Keyimu and Fanjiang Zeng; project  
418 administration: Maierdang Keyimu; funding acquisition: Maierdang Keyimu. All authors have read  
419 and agreed to the submitted version of the manuscript.

420 **Declare of interest**

421 The authors declare that they don't have conflict of interest.

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