

1 **Spatial classification of moisture-sensitive pine and larch tree-ring chronologies within Khakass-Minusinsk**  
2 **Depression, South Siberia**

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9  
10 **Key Message**

11 Growth patterns of Scots pine and Siberian larch under water deficit across an intermontane valley in South  
12 Siberia depend not only on landscape physiography, but on species-specific climatic sensitivity and phenology.

13 **Abstract**

14 The wide intermountain Khakass-Minusinsk Depression (KhMD) in southern Siberia presents an ideal  
15 setting for studying the potential impacts of a warming climate on forest ecosystems. The centre of continental Asia  
16 has one of the most intense rates of warming in the Northern Hemisphere, and the KhMD has multiple tree species  
17 of proven dendroclimatic value growing in drought-stressed environments. Investigation was aimed on spatial  
18 patterns of tree-growth and its climate response across the KhMD for two main conifer species of moisture-deficient  
19 habitats, Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Siberian larch (*Larix sibirica* Ledeb.). Correlation and cluster analysis  
20 were applied to a recently developed network of 15 tree-ring chronologies. Hierarchical classifications were based  
21 on the inter-chronology correlation matrix and on correlations of chronologies with monthly climate variables.  
22 Results underscore the general influence of hot-dry conditions on reducing growth and suggest a spatial grouping of  
23 chronologies governed by physiography and modified by species-dependent ecophysiological response to climate.  
24 Both applied classifications agree in the designation of geographically oriented clusters. A purely geographic  
25 grouping is broken, however, by species-specific climate dependence and phenology in deciduous *Larix* and  
26 evergreen *Pinus*. A differential ability to utilize melting snowpack in spring is advanced as a possible explanation  
27 for chronologies abandoning physiographically defined clusters. Such inter-species heterogeneity can manifest itself  
28 in the intensity of the climate change impact on vegetation, and lead to prospects of significant species composition  
29 changes in ecosystems.

30 **Keywords:** dendrochronology; moisture-sensitive ecosystem; climate-growth relationship; spatial cluster  
31 analysis

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53           **Introduction**

54           Forest ecosystems worldwide are threatened by climate impacts of global warming, which is most intense  
55 regionally in the inner part of Eurasia (Davy et al. 2017; IPCC 2019; Zhirnova et al. 2021). The harsh continental  
56 climate of this macro-region, characterized by large temperature variation, hot summers and frosty winters with little  
57 snow, increases the risk of extreme events and the vulnerability of ecosystems (Allen et al. 2010; Dai 2013).  
58 Climatic dynamics and its impact on ecosystems can be modified by local factors, such as orographic setting or land  
59 use, which have led to unique territories with distinctive climatic physiography (e.g., Cho and Kim 2021; Shen and  
60 Zhao 2021). One such area is the Khakass-Minusinsk Depression (KhMD), a large valley in southern Siberia  
61 bounded on the west by the Kuznetsk Alatau, on the south by the Western Sayan Mountains, and on the east by the  
62 Eastern Sayan Mountains (Fig. 1a). This valley, distant from oceans and in the rain shadow of surrounding  
63 mountains, receives an average of just 250-500 mm of precipitation, and is covered mainly by steppe vegetation.  
64 Due to its orographic setting, the KhMD has climatic variation coherent across its entire territory but distinct from

65 surrounding regions. The Yenisei, one of the largest rivers in Siberia, flows northward through the valley, and  
66 contains two massive reservoirs created in the second half of the 20th century: the Krasnoyarsk Reservoir and the  
67 Sayano-Shushensky Reservoir. These reservoirs influence climate locally and to a lesser degree regionally (Savkin  
68 2000; cf. Gyau-Boakye 2001). Their impact accentuates regional warming in the cool season (Zhirnova et al. 2021),  
69 so that ecosystem changes in the KhMD may be predictive of larger-scale shifts expected for continental Eurasia as  
70 a consequence of climate change. Forest-steppe boundaries of the KhMD and isolated forest stands located within  
71 the steppe zone provide tree-ring chronologies as a source of long-term information on ecosystems response to  
72 climate variation. Two conifer species form the lower forest border of the KhMD: Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.)  
73 and Siberian larch (*Larix sibirica* Ledeb.) (Chytrý et al. 2008). Both species are attractive for dendroclimatological  
74 studies because of a wide geographical distribution, sensitivity to climatic variables, and demonstrated coherency of  
75 growth patterns on a regional scale (Grissino-Mayer 1993). Despite comparable drought resistance, the two species  
76 are at opposite ends of the spectrum in regards to coping mechanism for water deficit (McDowell et al. 2008). Tree-  
77 ring chronologies of these species can improve our understanding of the influence of environment and  
78 ecophysiology on conifer growth dynamics in this unique region. In this study, we apply dendroclimatic and cluster  
79 analysis to a recently developed tree-ring network across the moisture-sensitive forests of the KhMD to determine  
80 spatial and species-based differences in tree growth and its climatic response.

## 81 **Materials and Methods**

82 Wood samples of Scots pine and Siberian larch were collected from habitats experiencing moisture deficit  
83 (Fig. 1a, Table 1): isolated forest in the steppe of the central part of the KhMD (sampling sites ZSH, MMIN, TAR,  
84 MNIC), forest-steppe on the valley outskirts in the foothills of the Kuznetsk Alatau (BGD, BID, KAM, KAZ) and  
85 the Western Sayan (KALY, MAY), and sub-taiga forest higher up the slope of the Western Sayan (SHB). In  
86 mountain habitats, drier south-oriented slopes were preferred for tree-ring sampling sites. Field work, sample  
87 processing and development of local residual tree-ring width (TRW) chronologies were carried out using standard  
88 dendrochronological methods (Cook and Kairiukstis 1990) using program ARSTAN (Cook et al. 2007). During  
89 standardization, age trends were removed from measured ring widths by fitting either a negative exponential curve  
90 or a linear function. The latter was used automatically for individual core series where decline of TRW with age was  
91 inconsistent with negative exponent. Autocorrelation was removed from the indices by autoregressive modeling,  
92 followed by averaging of indices over cores to form site chronologies. The strength of the common signal within  
93 each chronology (Table 1) was summarized by  $\bar{r}$ , the average inter-series correlations (Cook and Kairiukstis  
94 1990).

95 To summarize climate variations, monthly time series of average air temperature and total precipitation for  
96 meteorological stations Tashtyp (52.80° N, 89.55° E, 455 m a.s.l., 1936-2014), Minusinsk (53.72° N, 91.10° E, 255

97 m a.s.l., 1936-2014), and Cheryomushki (52.83° N, 91.38° E, 330 m a.s.l., 1951-2014) were obtained from the All-  
98 Russian Research Institute of Hydrometeorological Information, World Data Centre (RIHMI-WDC;  
99 <http://meteo.ru/data>).

100 The climatic response of TRW was analyzed by pairwise Pearson correlations of chronologies with  
101 monthly precipitation and temperature series at the station nearest the sampling site (as marked by dashed lines on  
102 the map in Fig. 1a). Hierarchical cluster analysis, using the Ward method to agglomerate clusters (Ward 1963; Wilks  
103 2019), was applied to classify tree-ring chronologies. The Ward method was selected to minimize within-cluster  
104 variation (i.e., increase similarity between all chronologies belonging to cluster) and provide compact clusters  
105 (Hands and Everitt 1987). Two applications of this analysis were performed using different distance measures: 1)  
106 inter-chronology correlation matrix (i.e., distance between each two chronologies is measured as  $1-r$ , where  $r$  is the  
107 correlation between this pair), and 2) correlations of chronologies with climatic factors as initial “coordinates” of  
108 chronologies, and squared Euclidean distance as the metric of distance appropriate for Ward method (Wilks 2019).  
109 In the first cluster analysis application (Fig. 1b), input data were the pairwise Pearson correlations between  
110 chronologies over 1936-2014 (slightly less for the shortest chronologies from sites KALY and MAY). In a second  
111 cluster analysis application (Fig. 1c), input data were sets of 28 correlation coefficients between each TRW  
112 chronology and monthly precipitation and temperature series from July of the previous year to August of the growth  
113 year (biological year).

## 114 **Results and Discussion**

115 TRW site chronologies range in length from 66 to 316 years (Table 1). The mean between-tree correlation  
116 of detrended ring-width series ( $\bar{r}$ ) ranges from 0.31 to 0.56, which is relatively high for climate-sensitive  
117 chronologies (cf. Ljungqvist et al. 2020). Correlations of chronologies between sites and/or species also reveal a  
118 strong commonality in the dynamics of radial growth supportive of a climate response. Between-chronology  
119 correlations are all positive. Most are significant at  $p < 0.05$ , but they range from 0.09 to 0.95, depending on  
120 proximity of the sites, as well as on the local natural conditions (e.g., soil, slope, drainage) and the species-specific  
121 physiology and phenology of pine and larch.

122 The contribution of geographic distance to the differences between chronologies is explained by both the  
123 high spatial heterogeneity of the precipitation field and the altitudinal-latitude gradients of temperature and  
124 precipitation, which drive shifts in the seasonality of the climatic response. In the middle of the KhMD, in the large  
125 isolated forest called “Minusinsky Bor,” with a small range of elevation and relatively homogeneous aeolian soils,  
126 similarity between pine chronologies is high and correlations range from 0.63 to 0.95. The intensity of the climatic  
127 response is modulated by differences in forest settings: isolated forest in the steppe zone with minimal amount of  
128 precipitation, versus forest-steppe and more humid subtaiga zone. Within-site correlations between pine and larch

129 TRW chronologies range from 0.55 to 0.73. These high correlations are explained by the common requirements of  
130 both conifer species for moisture at the semi-arid boundary of their distributions, as well as by common local  
131 conditions and climatic variation.

132 Fundamentally similar climatic reactions of pine and larch in other parts of Siberia have been observed  
133 previously (e.g., De Grandpré et al. 2011). On the other hand, these two species have differences in foliage habits  
134 (evergreen and deciduous) and in strategies for coping with moisture deficit. Isohydric Scots pine immediately  
135 regulates transpiration through stomata closure, but anisohydric Siberian larch maintains active transpiration, instead  
136 sacrificing needles and fine roots during severe droughts (Gower and Richards 1990; McDowell et al. 2008; Piper  
137 and Fajardo 2014; Khansaritoreh et al. 2018). These differences lead to species contrasts in radial growth rate during  
138 and after drought events (cf. pointer years observed in these chronologies in Zhirnova et al. 2021), and explain why  
139 inter-species correlations between chronologies drop much faster than intra-species correlations with an increase in  
140 the distance between sites.

141 Classification based on the inter-correlation of chronologies shows that, in general, the dynamics of radial  
142 growth of these conifers is determined primarily in the framework of geographic objects, i.e. a combination of short  
143 distances and similarities in habitat conditions (Fig. 1b). These objects are 1) the forest-steppe of the Kuznetsk  
144 Alatau foothills, 2) Minusinsky Bor, and 3) the low montane zone of Western Sayan. The only chronology opposing  
145 this geographic grouping is pine from site BID, which groups with pine chronologies of the Minusinsky Bor despite  
146 being located in the Kuznetsk Alatau. In the Western Sayan, regardless of the gradient of natural conditions from the  
147 forest-steppe to the sub-taiga, the chronologies of both species form one group.

148 The second implementation of cluster analysis, run on correlations of chronologies with monthly climate  
149 series, again classifies the network into three clusters, but these are more distinct than in the previous analysis, as  
150 indicated by the greater contrast of between-cluster and within-cluster distances (Fig. 1c; shaded areas on the map in  
151 Fig.1a). The three clusters are remarkably similar to those from the first cluster analysis. The single change is that  
152 one more pine chronology (BGD\_PS) changes membership from the Kuznetsk Alatau cluster to the Minusinsky Bor  
153 cluster.

154 What is unique about the Minusinsky Bor cluster? This is the only cluster whose chronologies are  
155 significantly influenced by November precipitation (Fig. 1d). In the center of the valley, snowfall is extremely low  
156 (for quantitative spatial differences in monthly temperature and precipitation over a network of climatic stations  
157 across the KhMD, see Zhirnova et al. 2021). On average, only 10-20 cm of snow cover accumulates over the entire  
158 cold season, and much of that falls in November (data from station MIN). In winter, snow protects the root systems  
159 of trees from severe frosts. For evergreen conifers, photosynthesis in needles developed in past years is activated in  
160 the following spring when the soil thaws (Wu et al. 2013). Activation may even precede thawing, as studies have

161 shown that photosynthesis in Scots pine is possible, although not very productive, in hours or days with a positive  
162 air temperature even when soil is frozen (Kolari et al. 2007; Yang et al. 2020). Similar observations have been made  
163 for other evergreen conifers (e.g., Tanja et al. 2003; Sevanto et al. 2006). The onset of active photosynthesis was  
164 recently reported to occur 2-4 weeks later in larch than in pine growing under similar conditions (forest-steppe in the  
165 vicinity of Krasnoyarsk, ~ 300 km north of the study area) by Urban et al. (2019). Consequently, when larch begins  
166 its primary growth and cambial activity, the small amount of snow is likely already fully melted. Pine therefore may  
167 have an advantage over larch in the KhMD in the ability to tap the meagre snowpack as a source of moisture.

168 We suggest this response to snow as the reason that pine and not larch at BID and BGD sites are classified  
169 in the Minusinsky Bor cluster, since climatic series from station Shira in the area shows only slightly more winter  
170 precipitation than at MIN (Zhirnova et al. 2021). The snow cover rapidly melts in spring and is available for use by  
171 pine, but not by larch because of its later growth start. Other studies also support a hypothesis that pine benefits from  
172 snowmelt in a wider range of environments than larch (Li et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2019). In contrast to pine, larch at  
173 sites BID and BGD sites has a climatic response more similar to larch at other sites of the Kuznetsk Alatau than to  
174 pine at Minusinsky Bor. The Kuznetsky Alatau cluster is represented mostly by larch, and this is probably why this  
175 cluster has a strong dependence on water availability toward the end of the previous vegetative season: such a  
176 climatic response of larch tree-rings has previously been reported for the study area (Zhirnova et al. 2020). Larch  
177 annually completely renews its needles and therefore depends strongly on stored assimilates when growth starts  
178 (Gower and Richards 1990; Piper and Fajardo 2014).

179 The Western Sayan region, the last of our clusters, is characterized by more abundant snowfall than the  
180 other regions (comparing CHER and other stations' data) and by a heterogeneous landscape that hinders snowmelt  
181 in shaded areas. These conditions apparently allow both species in this zone to use the precipitation of the second  
182 half of winter as a source of moisture. The weakest correlation with precipitation, observed at the SHB site, is  
183 probably due to the lesser degree of moisture deficit in the sub-taiga zone due to the gradient of annual precipitation  
184 of ca. 100-200 mm per 100 m of elevation in the Western Sayan Mountains (Polikarpov and Nazimova 1963). More  
185 information on station-to-station climate variability in the Western Sayan Mountains can be found in Babushkina et  
186 al. (2018). Despite its weak correlation with precipitation, chronology SHB still correlates substantially (0.43 to  
187 0.44) with other pine chronologies in the Western Sayan cluster.

## 188 **Conclusion**

189 Scots pine and Siberian larch share a common semi-arid boundary in the forest steppe of southern Siberia.  
190 For the most part, their growth and climatic signal there depends primarily on climate-landscape patterns of natural  
191 zones and habitats. However, ecophysiological and phenological differences between these species are also  
192 important to the spatial classification and climate response of drought-sensitive tree-ring chronologies in the KhMD,

193 a relatively hot and dry territory whose climate may become increasingly representative in Siberia under climate  
194 change. We suggest that the snow regime may have an especially large influence on the distributions of these two  
195 competing tree species. While warming air temperature can be expected to influence the snow regime, no significant  
196 temporal shifts or trends have been hitherto found in the total winter precipitation across the region, but only spatial  
197 differences (see Zhirnova et al. 2021). Heterogeneity of growth response to climate change may lead to significant  
198 change in the species composition of vulnerable forest-steppe ecotone ecosystems at all levels, starting with forest-  
199 forming trees.

200

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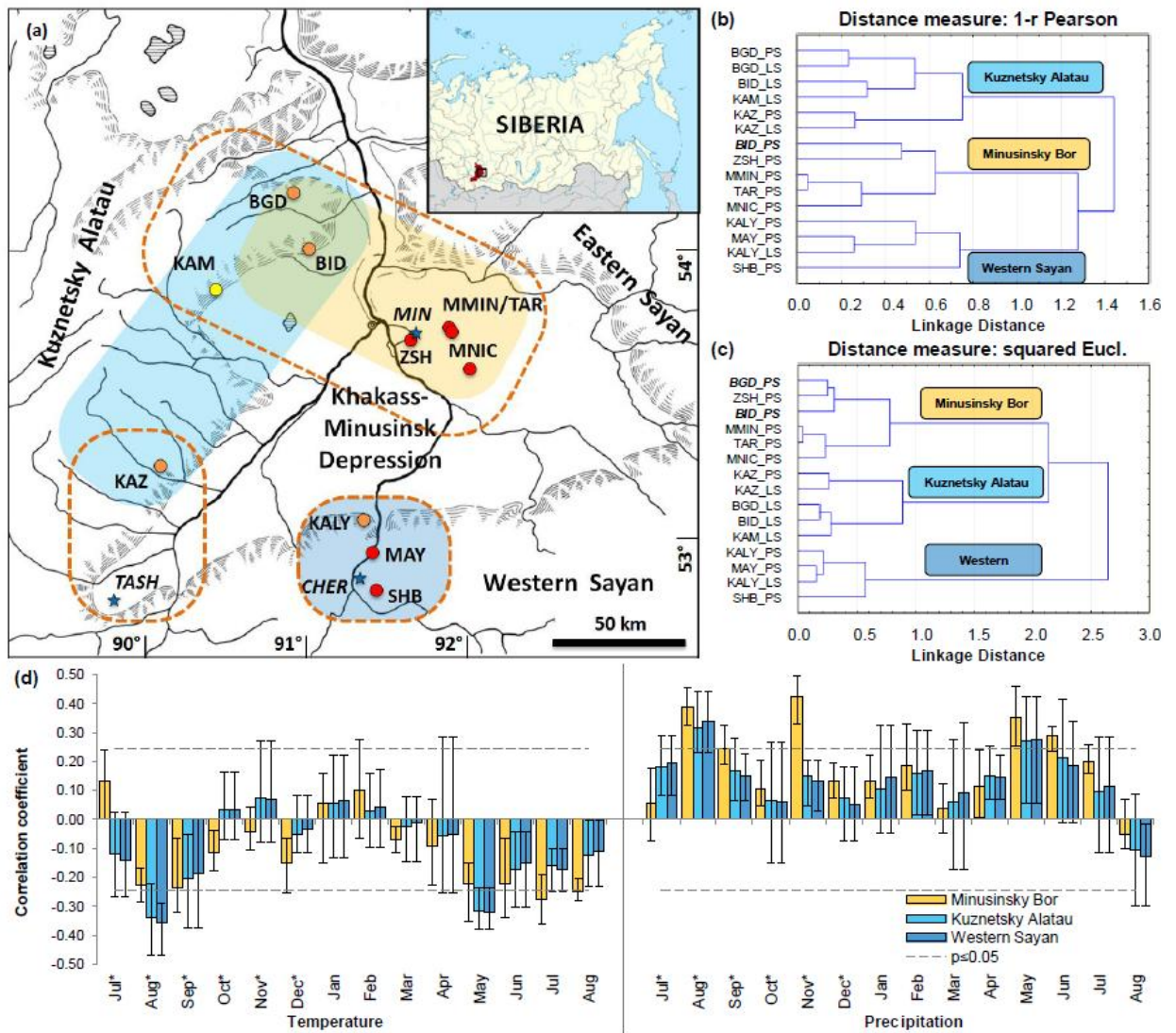
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291 **Table 1.** Tree-ring sampling sites and chronologies

Site		Coordinates			Tree h, m asl species*	Chronologies		
Name	Code	N	E	No. of cores		Cover period (years)	<i>r</i> - <i>bar</i>	
Zelyony Shum	ZSH	53.65	91.60	300	PS	144	1881-2017	0.31
Malaya Minusa	MMIN	53.75	91.77	300	PS	40	1847-2013	0.41
Taraska	TAR	53.75	91.77	350	PS	34	1914-2013	0.49
Malaya Nichka	MNIC	53.62	92.05	380	PS	29	1872-2013	0.43
Bograd	BGD	54.20	90.83	600	PS	80	1847-2018	0.42
					LS	44	1845-2019	0.47
Bidja	BID	54.00	91.02	660	PS	16	1874-2018	0.56
					LS	68	1704-2019	0.45
Kamyzyak	KAM	53.92	90.60	730	LS	61	1710-2019	0.44
Kazanovka	KAZ	53.22	90.08	685	PS	67	1767-2013	0.53
					LS	20	1835-2013	0.47
Kaly	KALY	53.05	91.28	520	PS	13	1947-2012	0.33
					LS	13	1946-2012	0.51
Mayna	MAY	52.97	91.35	400	PS	27	1947-2017	0.46
Shushensky Bor	SHB	52.83	91.45	520	PS	31	1914-2015	0.30

292 \* PS – *Pinus sylvestris* L., LS – *Larix sibirica* Ledeb.

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**Fig. 1** Spatial classification of tree-ring chronologies. **(a)** Map of the study area, with climate stations (asterisks) and tree-ring sites (red circles, *Pinus sylvestris* L.; yellow circles, *Larix sibirica* Ledeb.; orange circles, both sp.). Dashed boundaries mark climate stations and groups of tree-ring sites for correlation analysis of chronologies with monthly climate variables (e.g., station CHER climate data were correlated with chronologies at sites KALY, MAY, CHER, and SHB); shaded areas delineate geographic zones identified by clustering of tree-ring chronologies based on their climatic correlations. **(b)** Dendrogram from cluster analysis on between-chronology correlations, 1936-2014. **(c)** Dendrogram from cluster analysis on dendroclimatic correlations ( $r$ ), i.e., on correlations of chronologies with monthly temperature and precipitation (previous July to current August). Correlation period varies according to overlap of chronology and climate series. **(d)** Dendroclimatic correlations used for second application of cluster analysis. Bars show mean value and whiskers show range of  $r$  within clusters. Horizontal dashed lines mark the threshold ( $|r| > 0.246$ ) of  $r$  significance at  $p < 0.05$  for even the shortest correlation period