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Past crops yield dynamics reconstruction from tree-ring chronologies in the forest-steppe zone based on low- and high-frequency components --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Interrelations of the yield variability of the main crops (wheat, barley, and oats) with hydrothermal regime and growth of conifer trees (<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> and <i>Larix sibirica</i>) in forest-steppes were investigated in Khakassia, South Siberia. An attempt has been made to understand the role and mechanisms of climatic impact on plants productivity. It was found that amongst variables describing moisture supply, wetness index had maximum impact. Strength of climatic response and correlations with tree growth are different for rain-fed and irrigated crops yield. Separated high-frequency variability components of yield and tree-ring width have more pronounced relationships between each other and with climatic variables than their chronologies per se. Corresponding low-frequency variability components are strongly correlated with maxima observed after 1 to 5 years time shift of tree-ring width. Results of analysis allowed us to develop original approach of crops yield dynamics reconstruction on the base of high-frequency variability component of the growth of pine and low-frequency one of larch.</p>	

RESPONSE TO THE REVIEWER'S COMMENTS

We found the comments of the reviewer to be very helpful to make our paper more clear and precise.

Reviewer #2

The title: I recommend avoiding the use of words like estimation, analysis, etc. It is obvious that you estimate, analyze, study, etc when you make any research.

In the original title “estimation” was used as the synonym of “reconstruction”. We corrected the title: “Past crops yield dynamics reconstruction from tree-ring chronologies in the forest-steppe zone based on low- and high-frequency components”

Key words: tree ring as a noun is without hyphen, as a modifier is tree-ring with a hyphen. Please correct it.

The use of the “tree ring” term with and without hyphen throughout all files of the manuscript was checked and corrected where it is necessary.

The figures have to be self-explanatory that means you can understand them without reading the text. In figure 2 you have many abbreviations as Cr Av Br that even though they are well described in the text it is better if you describe them in the bottom of the figure.

Abbreviations of the 5-year smoothing (Av5) and of the crops series (CrN, WrN, CrC etc) were described in the figure caption.

Line 126. Pearson's correlation coefficient.

The text was corrected.

How many trees did you sample for the dendrochronological analysis? Even though the R_{bar} value suggests that the values are accurate when you mention any dendrochronological study is important to point out the sample's number.

The number of trees in each tree-ring width chronology was added to the Table 2.

25 **Introduction**

26 Hydrothermal regime of a territory is determined by hydrological and climatic factors that
27 strongly influence the productivity of the both natural and agricultural ecosystems (Seneviratne et al.
28 2006; Challinor et al. 2014; Lipper et al. 2014; Porter et al. 2014; Iizumi and Ramankutty 2016).
29 Current climatic trends of global warming include not only increasing temperatures, but also changes
30 of water balance and frequency/severity of droughts (Easterling et al. 2000; Rosenzweig et al. 2002,
31 2014; Lobell et al. 2011; Mueller and Seneviratne 2012; Kattsov and Semenov 2014; Porter et al.
32 2014; IPCC 2015). Its impact on ecosystems has certain pattern on global scale. In the low and
33 medium latitudes warming leads to more frequent droughts and increases vulnerability of plants to
34 moisture shortage. In the high latitudes with sufficient moisture level warming lengthens vegetative
35 season and intensifies growth and development of plants. Overall, geographic range of most plants
36 species and cultivars shifts to the higher latitudes (Bindi and Olesen 2011; Peltonen-Sainio et al. 2016;
37 Wang et al. 2016).

38 Understanding the regional mechanisms of this impact will provide more effective adaptation
39 of the agriculture to the climate change, allowing to obtain more stable spatiotemporally yield
40 (Zhirnova 2005; Hlavinka et al. 2009; Holman et al. 2017). Investigation of the yield dynamics can
41 provide crucial information about its vulnerability to the climate change and estimation of the possible
42 risks for food security (Myglan et al. 2007; Sauchyn et al. 2009; Pfister 2010; Qureshi et al. 2013; Wu
43 et al. 2014; Huhtamaa et al. 2015; IPCC 2015).

44 However this field of research is highly restricted by short cover periods of the factual data of
45 instrumental environmental measurements and especially statistics of yield (Therrell et al. 2006;
46 Sauchyn et al. 2009). Use of proxy records in various natural objects allows overcoming this limitation
47 (Wang and Liu 2016; Huhtamaa and Helama 2017). In particular, tree-ring width (*TRW*) chronologies
48 are available in many regions and reflect environmental variations on multi-centennial scale with
49 annual/seasonal resolution (Fritts 1976). Both *TRW* and yield are productivity indicators of the
50 terrestrial ecosystems and results of plants growth and development processes. Thus common patterns
51 in their dynamics and climatic responses are to be expected (Vaganov 1989; Wu et al. 2014). There are
52 several recent studies investigating these two variables jointly, including tree-ring based
53 reconstructions of yield itself or climatic factors crucial for it (Myglan et al. 2007; Helama et al. 2013;
54 Rygalova et al. 2014; Sun and Liu 2014; Huhtamaa et al. 2015; Yadav et al. 2015).

55 The Republic of Khakassia (Siberia, Russia) is a typical example of a region in need of
56 evaluation of the agricultural productivity. Small grain crops production is important part of the
57 regional economy (Agroclimatic resources 1974; Surin and Lyakhova 1993). In this study we aimed to
58 investigate variability of the main crops yield in Khakassia using instrumental environmental data and
59 *TRW* chronologies of two prevalent conifer species in forest-steppe zone of the region. To achieve this
60 goal the following objectives were set: (1) to reveal relationships between yield and *TRW* per se and
61 between their components, (2) to analyze regional environmental factors and their extremes as driving

62 forces for plants productivity indicators and their relationships, and (3) to obtain and verify tree-ring
63 based reconstruction of the yield.

64

65 **Materials and methods**

66 *Study area*

67 The Republic of Khakassia is situated in the South Siberia, on the left bank of Yenisei river in
68 its middle reaches. Montane part (south and east) of the republic belongs to the Altai-Sayan mountain
69 system, whereas remaining territory is represented by plains of the Minusinsk Depression and is more
70 appropriate for agriculture (Fig. 1 a) (Agroclimatic resources 1974). Climate of the study area is
71 sharply continental (Alisov 1956). Minusinsk Depression is a wide valley surrounded by mountain
72 ranges from all sides except North. Region is situated far from the ocean, but has broad Yenisei river
73 with its two reservoirs (Chlebovich and Bufal 1976). The temperature during the vegetative season on
74 plains increases from North to South. The precipitation decreases from the mountain ranges on the
75 East and South towards the main rivers.

76 In spring rapidly increasing temperature have high daily variation. It causes delay of the frost-
77 free period about 30-35 days after date of daily temperature crossing +5°C threshold. As a result spring
78 frosts inhibit plant growth on the first development stages, thus shortening length of the vegetative
79 season. The period of temperatures higher than +10°C starts around mid May and lasts up to 120 days.
80 Precipitation has maximum in July-August, winter precipitation is scarce (maximal snow depth on
81 plains is about 20 sm). Its interannual variation is very high, attaining 45-57% of mean value in
82 summer and 56-90% of mean value in winter. Main reason of precipitation shortage is location of the
83 Minusinsk Depression in the rain-shadow of mountain ranges. Due to this fact and spatiotemporally
84 uneven precipitation the drought indices on the plains are unstable.

85 Regional hydrographic network is also uneven. Most of the water bodies are concentrated in
86 the mountain part; northern half of Minusinsk depression has the lowest hydrographic density. Water
87 bodies are mainly rain-fed, thus their runoff (Q) depends on climatic conditions. Most of the rivers
88 belong to the Yenisei basin. In the centre of region main rivers and their tributaries form the base of
89 irrigational network (Territorial planning scheme 2015).

90 Agrarian territory of Khakassia can be divided into three agroclimatic zones (Fig. 1): subtaiga
91 zone with dark gray soils as narrow strip along mountain foothills, rain-fed steppes on chernozems in
92 the north, and dry steppes on chestnut soils in the centre of republic, where irrigated agriculture is
93 dominating (Agroclimatic resources 1974; Semenov et al. 2004). Agricultural area on the foothills is
94 small (~4% of total area in republic) and has the least climatic impact, hence it was not investigated in
95 the study.

96

97 *Data sources*

98 Monthly data of average temperature (T) and sum of precipitation (P) for 1938-2012 were
99 obtained from Shira and Minusinsk stations (Fig. 1). Two indices characterizing moisture regime were
100 computed from T and P data: Selyaninov hydrothermal coefficient ($HTC = 10 \cdot \sum P / \sum T$ for period of
101 $T > 10^\circ C$, based on daily data) and wetness index ($WI = \sum \log P / \sum T$, based on monthly data)
102 (Selyaninov 1958; Lei et al. 2014). Additionally monthly $PDSI$ and $SPEI$ indices were used from open
103 datasets (Beguería et al. 2010; van der Schrier et al. 2013). Runoff of Yenisei and Abakan rivers (QY
104 and QA) obtained from Ust-Abakan and Raikov stations respectively were used as hydrological
105 characteristic.

106 Crops yield measured as obtained grain weight per unit of sowing area (Y , kg/ha) was used as
107 indicator of agricultural productivity (Therrell et al. 2006). Yield series averaged for every
108 administrative district for 1960-2012 were obtained from unpublished records of the Federal State
109 Statistics Service. Sufficient data are available for crops in total and for three main crops: spring
110 wheat, spring barley and oats. For this study yield series of every crop were united into two zonal
111 chronologies (Northern and Central) in regards to agroclimatic conditions and irrigation.

112 The samples of Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L. – PS) and Siberian larch (*Larix sibirica* Ledeb. –
113 LS) were collected in the foothills forest-steppes (BER, TUI, BID, KAZ sites) and insular forest in
114 steppe (MIN). The processing of samples, measurement and cross-dating of TRW were carried out
115 using standard dendrochronological techniques (Cook and Kairiukstis 1990; Speer 2010). All
116 individual series were standardized by fitting exponential/linear functions to remove age related trends.
117 Then individual indices were combined into single standard chronology per site/species using bi-
118 weight robust mean (Cook and Krusic 2005).

119

120 *Mathematical and statistical techniques*

121 In this study we used following statistics of time series: arithmetic mean (*mean*), standard
122 deviation (*stdev*), variation coefficient ($var = stdev/mean$), sensitivity coefficient (for time series X
123 it is $sens = \text{mean}(2 \cdot |X_t - X_{t-1}| / (X_t + X_{t-1}))$), first-order autocorrelation coefficient (*ar-1*). For
124 TRW chronologies also average interseries correlation coefficient (*r-bar*) was calculated to check
125 quality (Fritts 1976; Wigley et al. 1984; Cook 1985).

126 Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to evaluate relationships between time series.
127 High-frequency component of variation was calculated as first differences (for time series X in year t
128 first difference is $\Delta X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}$). This approach was successfully used in some previous analyses
129 of climate-yield relationships (Nicholls 1997; Lobell et al. 2005; Lobell and Field 2007). Low-
130 frequency component of variation was estimated as time series smoothed with 5-year moving average
131 centered to the middle year ($Av5X_t = \text{mean}(X_{t-2}, \dots, X_{t+2})$).

132 Linear regression functions were used for reconstruction of the crops yield variation
133 components. Quality of reconstruction models was estimated with the following statistics: coefficient

134 of multiple correlation (R), coefficient of determination (R^2), adjusted coefficient of determination
135 (R^2_{adj}), Fisher test (F), significance level p and standard error of estimation (SEE).

136

137 **Results**

138 *Chronologies and relationships between them*

139 Four regional crops yield chronologies were developed for each zone: crops in total – CrN and
140 CrC in Northern and Central zones respectively, wheat – WrN and WrC, barley – BrN and BrC, oats –
141 OrN and OrC. Their statistics are shown in Table 1. In the study area wheat yield has the highest mean
142 values, and oats yield has the lowest ones. There are no significant differences in mean yield between
143 zones. Variability of yield reaches 38-51% of mean values with substantial proportion of year-to-year
144 changes, indicated by high sensitivity ($sens = 0.39 - 0.54$). Nevertheless, yield chronologies have
145 also significant autocorrelations. The TRW chronologies range from 124 to 272 years (Table 1). TRW
146 has lower variability per se and sensitivity ($sens = 0.19 - 0.47$), but higher autocorrelation than
147 yield.

148 Within each zone yields of different crops are highly correlated ($r = 0.80 - 0.95$ in Northern
149 zone and $r = 0.81 - 0.96$ in Central zone). The correlations between zones are moderate ($r = 0.49 -$
150 0.78) (Online Resource Table S1). The correlations between TRW chronologies are low to moderate.
151 The highest correlations are observed within one site ($r = 0.40 - 0.71$). Most of yield- TRW
152 relationships are weak, 50% of correlations are not significant on level $p < 0.05$. However, we can
153 note some relatively high correlations both in Northern (yield and BER_PS have $r = 0.34 - 0.54$,
154 yield and BID_LS have $r = 0.35 - 0.47$) and Central zone (yield and BER_LS have $r = 0.45 - 0.63$,
155 yield and BER_PS have $r = 0.36 - 0.47$).

156 Comparison of the smoothed TRW and yield series (Fig. 2 a-f) was performed by cross-
157 correlation, i.e. correlations were calculated with different time shift (lag) of TRW (Online Resource
158 Fig. S1). More pronounced similarity of low-frequency variation is revealed between yield and TRW of
159 larch: BID_LS has the highest correlation with the yield in Northern zone, BER_LS has the highest
160 one in Central zone, and TUI_LS has second-best correlations with the yield in both zones. The
161 highest values of cross-correlation coefficients are observed with lag +1 to +2 years for BID_LS ($r =$
162 $0.54 - 0.79$) and for BER_LS ($r = 0.66 - 0.92$), and with lag +3 to +5 years for TUI_LS ($r =$
163 $0.43 - 0.65$ for Northern zone and $r = 0.54 - 0.80$ for Central zone). The cross-correlations are
164 quasiperiodic. The distance between consequent maxima / consequent minima for cross-correlations of
165 yield with BID_LS is 19 to 20 years and for cross-correlations of yield with BER_LS and TUI_LS is
166 26 to 33 years. Relationships between smoothed series of yield and pine TRW are considerably less
167 pronounced. The extremal cross-correlations are unstable and not exceeding 0.50. Smoothed yield
168 series correlations between themselves are high, viz., $r = 0.86 - 0.97$ in Northern zone, $r = 0.90 -$
169 0.98 in Central zone, and $r = 0.57 - 0.87$ between zones.

170

171 *Climatic response in the chronologies*

172 Significant correlations between *TRW* chronologies and monthly temperatures and precipitation
173 were observed from previous July to current July (Online Resource, Fig. S2). Climatic response of all
174 *TRW* chronologies has similar pattern. During the previous July-September and current May-July,
175 response of *TRW* on *P* is positive and response on *T* is negative. Also there is positive response on both
176 factors in the late autumn. Strength of the climatic response varies between species.

177 Crops yield chronologies have significant climatic response only during May-July (period of
178 crops growth and development in the region). Therefore this period was selected for comparison of
179 influence of the ecological factors on the natural and agro-ecosystems productivity (Table 2).
180 Temperatures have strong negative relationships with crops yield in both zones. In Northern zone yield
181 have also high positive correlations with precipitation. All drought indices have significant correlations
182 with yield too, especially high in Northern zone. The wetness index has the strongest relationship with
183 yield amongst ecological variables. The Yenisei runoff has no relationships with yield, whereas the
184 Abakan runoff's correlations with yield are weak but partially significant. Correlations of *TRW*
185 chronologies with ecological conditions of May-July are weaker than yield's ones. But there are
186 similar patterns of strongest reaction on precipitation and *WI* and minimal response on rivers runoff.
187 Overall pine has more pronounced dependence of growth on May-July conditions than larch.

188

189 *Extremal events and plants productivity*

190 As unfavorable extremal events (e.g. droughts) we considered years when ecological factors in
191 May-July have high deviations from mean values (Online Resource Table S2). Specifically,
192 combination of low moisture supply and high temperatures was observed in 1945, 1965 and 1999; in
193 1974 and 1981 precipitation and drought indices also were low but temperatures were on average
194 level. These years were characterized by significant decrement of the tree growth, especially for pine.
195 Crop failures were observed too with the most pronounced ones in 1965 and 1999. In 1994 high
196 temperatures and normal moisture supply resulted in poor harvest and some low *TRW* values. Two-
197 year drought in 1945-1946 was associated with low *TRW* values, but yield chronologies do not cover
198 these years.

199

200 *First differences of time series*

201 Correlation analysis of the first differences of yield showed relationships and patterns similar to
202 the chronologies per se (Online Resource Table S3): for ΔY correlations between each other in
203 Northern zone $r = 0.75 - 0.94$, in Central zone $r = 0.77 - 0.95$, and between zones $r = 0.34 -$
204 0.62 . For ΔTRW it is true as well. They have maximal correlations within the site ($r = 0.43 - 0.60$)
205 and basically the same range of correlations among themselves as *TRW* chronologies per se. Though
206 correlations between ΔY yield and ΔTRW are substantially higher than between their chronologies,

207 81% of them are significant on level $p < 0.05$ (Online Resource Fig. S3). These relationships are more
208 pronounced for *TRW* of pine (Fig. 2 g, h). ΔY series in Northern zone have maximal correlations with
209 $\Delta \text{MIN_PS}$ ($r = 0.47 - 0.61$) and the second-best correlations with $\Delta \text{KAZ_PS}$ ($r = 0.35 - 0.44$). In
210 Central zone ΔY series have maximal correlations with $\Delta \text{KAZ_PS}$ ($r = 0.51 - 0.62$).

211 Relationships of ΔY and ΔTRW with first differences of environmental factors are also higher
212 than corresponding relationships of original time series (Table 2). For example, ΔY has higher
213 correlations with first differences of *T*, *PDSI*, *SPEI* and rivers runoff; ΔTRW has higher correlations
214 with first differences of *T*, *WI*, *PDSI* and *QA*. Amongst indicators of moisture regime *WI* has closest
215 relationship with both *TRW* and yield when first differences are considered, as well as for original time
216 series.

217

218 *Tree-ring based reconstructions of the crops yield*

219 Yield series have the highest correlations with pine *TRW* in first differences and with larch
220 *TRW* after smoothing. Therefore we made separate tree-ring based models of high- and low-frequency
221 variability of yield. Detailed procedure of reconstruction is presented in Online Resource.

222 For high-frequency yield variation component the highest statistics of regression model were
223 retrieved with using *MIN_PS* chronology for Northern zone and *KAZ_PS* chronology for Central
224 zone. Due to relatively short cover period of *MIN_PS* we also constructed estimations for Northern
225 zone on base of *KAZ_PS* chronology, which have ~80 year longer cover period but lower statistics
226 (Table 3, Online Resource Fig. S4). For low-frequency yield variation component the highest statistics
227 were retrieved with using smoothed *BID_LS* and *TUI_LS* for Northern zone, and *BER_LS* and
228 *TUI_LS* for Central zone. For Northern zone also model on the base of *BER_LS* and *TUI_LS* was
229 constructed, which have ~150 year longer cover period but lower statistics (Table 3, Online Resource
230 Fig. S5).

231 Both yield and *TRW* chronologies contain fluctuations of different frequency. Thus a
232 hypothesis was postulated that these two types of models could be used together to obtain one
233 combined model of yield dynamics estimation as a whole. We obtained combined models with cover
234 periods 122 and 237 years for Northern zone and 238 years for Central zone (Table 3, Fig. 3).
235 Combined models with shorter cover period for Northern zone have higher statistics than
236 corresponding ΔY models. At the same time most statistics of combined models with longer cover
237 period for Northern zone are similar to ones of corresponding ΔY models, but *F*-test and significance
238 level are lower due to higher amount of predictors. For Central zone statistics of combined models are
239 lower than ones of ΔY models.

240

241 *Verification of reconstruction*

242 Combined models have the same extremes as actual yield chronologies within observation
243 period. There are set of years of extremal low yield outside the observation period which are

244 confirmed by regional data from other sources (Fig. 3). According to instrumental data, moisture
245 deficit was observed in 1910, 1917, 1945-46 and 1951. Low yields of all three main crops were
246 registered at the state variety testing stations of Khakassia in 1945-46, 1949 and 1951 (Zhirkova 2005).

247 There are also confirming historic evidences in the South of Siberia (Mygland 2010). For
248 instance, in the opinion of Vatin (1922), "since 1837 crop failures have begun in the Yenisei Gubernia
249 and completely ruined it in 2-3 years". There is also stated that in 1838 "sown cereals and meadow
250 grass have a mediocre growth on the occasion of the absence of rains until this time"; in 1852 "worms
251 appeared in the crops. During the crops ripening there was no rain; the yield was less than in previous
252 1851 year". In the work of Latkin (1890) the repeated crop failures in the Minusinsk depression during
253 1856-1868 were described: "since 1856 due to repeated poor harvest and gold mining, prices began to
254 rise (up to 60 kopecks for pood of rye flour and oats)"; "in 1868 again prices have risen, thanks to
255 some years with poor harvest". In a monograph of Butanayev (2002) drought in Khakassia in 1900-
256 1902 was mentioned: "A severe drought gave rise to lack of fodder. Up to half of draught horses have
257 died in the Abakan and Askiz establishments".

258

259 **Discussion**

260 Comparison of the plants productivity indicators response to the hydrothermal regime
261 characteristics showed that the wetness index WI most explicitly expresses limiting by moisture
262 supply. Its advantage is that this index not only combines the impact of precipitation as a source of
263 moisture and temperature as a withering factor, but also highlights the contribution of drought events,
264 as it contains logarithm of precipitation (Lei et al. 2014). The relationships between productivity
265 indicators and river runoff are weak primarily due to their large catchment basins, especially for the
266 Yenisei river. The Abakan river is supplied by the precipitation in the Minusinsk depression to a
267 greater extent, and is the main water source for the irrigation system. These facts ensure the
268 pronounced response to QA . Irrigation also significantly weakens yield climatic response on
269 precipitation in the Central zone.

270 As many other regions, study area characterizes by frequent simultaneous temperature raising
271 and precipitation deficit (Bazhenova and Tyumentseva 2010; Prasad et al. 2011; Nouri et al. 2017),
272 Our analysis showed that both indicators of plant productivity are accurately capturing such
273 unfavorable combinations, as well as extremes of one of these factors. It means that drought events
274 lead to synchronicity of negative extremes in yield and TRW , which is partially reason for the positive,
275 though not always significant, correlations between them. Therefore, it should be expected that the
276 TRW chronologies and the yield dynamics reconstructed on their basis will allow also restoring
277 regional climatic extremes history (Touchan et al. 2016). Growth and development of plants has
278 common regularities due to the unity of resources and physiological mechanisms (e.g. nutrition,
279 respiration, water balance), so we should expect them to be limited by the same environmental factors
280 typical for the semi-arid continental climatic zone (Mygland et al. 2007; Sun and Liu 2014). Moreover,

281 both grains for agricultural crops and wood for trees are the main targets of resources storage processes
282 during their growth and development. For instance, wheat has about 50% ratio of grain mass to above
283 ground biomass (Schulze et al. 2005). Also one more common trait is adaptation to the moisture
284 deficit. Climatypes of the tree species in forest-steppe are adapted to the semiarid conditions by
285 natural selection. At the same time, regional crop cultivars are adapted to these conditions by human
286 activity, i.e. breeding.

287 Differences in the variability of yield and *TRW* chronologies follow primarily from their life
288 forms and cycles. Most of yield variability of crops, as annual plants, is due to current conditions,
289 including high-frequency climatic fluctuations. Significant autocorrelation is associated with using the
290 previous harvest as source of grain for sowing, because grain quality usually has positive relationship
291 with yield (Ozturk and Aydin 2004; Meng et al. 2016). Long-term yield variability is influenced by
292 both climatic trends and changes in farming practices and cultivars. Conifer trees as perennials,
293 especially evergreens, are characterized by stronger autocorrelation and less sensitivity of growth. On
294 the one hand, the variability of tree growth is constrained by the slowness of changes in morphometric
295 parameters (the size and structure of stem&root system) determining the access to resources. On the
296 other hand, woody plants are characterized by active storage of nutrients for using in the next season.
297 Moreover, evergreen trees have needles of previous years participating in photosynthesis processes
298 (Chapin et al. 1990; Schulze et al. 2005). Thus trees respond to the hydrothermal regime not only of
299 the current vegetative season, but also of the previous months. In regard to long-term tree growth
300 dynamics, the impact of human activity is much less pronounced than in agroecosystems. Thereby the
301 long-term variation of *TRW* is mainly due to a combination of climatic trends, aging and changes in the
302 stand structure. Also it is necessary to take into account using of standardized *TRW* data, from which
303 most of the age trend was removed during processing. Since the crops yield does not have such trends,
304 its standardizing was not necessary.

305 As a result of all aforementioned differences, despite the similarity of the growth conditions
306 *TRW* chronologies per se have limited relationships with crops yield, as well as with climate of May-
307 July. Therefore instead of head-on approach we proposed other methods to make tree-ring-based yield
308 reconstruction. Separation of plants production variability into high- and low-frequency components
309 and their analysis allowed us to circumvent these restrictions.

310 Low-frequency variation in the yield and *TRW* has much in common due to its dependence on
311 climatic trends. More pronounced similarity with yield is observed in larch *TRW* smoothed series than
312 in pine ones. It might be caused by need to re-grow all needles every spring for larch. Pine as
313 evergreen has needles with overlapping life spans, which complicates autocorrelation component and
314 low-frequency variation of growth in general. The delay in decadal oscillations of the tree growth in
315 comparison with crops is associated with the more pronounced autocorrelation described above.

316 Main non-climatic factors affecting variation of the both plant productivity indicators (the age
317 changes of trees and the development of agricultural technologies) are low frequency. Thus transition

318 to the first differences reduces their contribution and highlights role of the climate and the hydrological
319 regime, as they have considerable high-frequency variation component. It should be noted that, unlike
320 the smoothed series, the similarity between year-to-year dynamics of pine growth and the crops yield
321 is more pronounced. This is due to the fact that the response to the May-July conditions is higher for
322 pine than for larch.

323 As both components of yield variability have more close relationships with the tree growth than
324 yield chronologies per se, we can reconstruct these components separately. Both reconstructions have
325 their advantages and disadvantages. The reconstructed first differences easily allow one-year crops
326 failures to be revealed, but do not allow to receive information about longer periods of high/low yield.
327 Conversely, the reconstruction of the smoothed series describes long-term trends well, but there is no
328 information about the extreme years. Therefore, it was proposed to reconstruct the entire yield
329 variability by combining these two models. Use of a recursive equation for obtaining yields from the
330 model of the first differences leads to the accumulation of errors in long-term trends. To erase these
331 errors, low-frequency variation was completely removed from the resulting series by subtracting their
332 smoothed series. Then year-to-year yield fluctuations were threaded onto the reconstructed separately
333 long-term oscillations. The advantage of this approach in our case is also in the use of tree-ring
334 chronologies of different species and habitats, which reduces the correlations between predictors.

335 The obtained yield estimations are quite close to the factual series, especially extremal values.
336 However, the limits of the *TRW* chronologies cover periods restricting the length of the most
337 qualitative yield reconstruction in the Northern zone. The use of longer chronologies makes it possible
338 to significantly extend this period at the expense of the quality reducing. Despite this, the relevance of
339 models is confirmed by their comparison with other data sources –instrumental records, historical
340 documents, and yield data of regional variety testing stations.

341

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348 28/2017-18).

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1

Table 1. Statistical characteristics of crops yield and *TRW* chronologies

	Crops yield								Tree-ring width							
	Nothern zone				Central zone				<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>				<i>Larix sibirica</i>			
	CrN	WrN	BrN	OrN	CrC	WrC	BrC	OrC	BER PS	BID PS	MIN PS	KAZ PS	BER LS	TUI LS	BID LS	KAZ LS
<i>N</i> , years period, years	53	43	43	43	53	33	43	43	257	164	166	246	272	294	124	178
	1960-1970-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1960-2012	1980-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1752-2008	1849-2012	1847-2012	1767-2012	1737-2008	1719-2012	1889-2012	1835-2012
Number of trees	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	15	40	23	14	57	16	20
<i>mean</i> [*]	9.34	10.40	10.00	9.27	9.73	11.31	9.87	9.76	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>stdev</i> [*]	4.06	3.96	4.68	4.56	4.45	5.57	5.00	4.46	0.29	0.35	0.23	0.43	0.32	0.47	0.32	0.62
<i>var</i> [*]	0.43	0.38	0.47	0.49	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>sens</i>	0.43	0.39	0.48	0.54	0.45	0.39	0.52	0.51	0.25	0.33	0.19	0.40	0.30	0.43	0.26	0.47
<i>ar-1</i>	0.36	0.41	0.44	0.34	0.39	0.62	0.40	0.27	0.48	0.44	0.45	0.51	0.44	0.49	0.50	0.62
<i>r-bar</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.56	0.51	0.43	0.60	0.58	0.57	0.42	0.48

2 ^{*}*mean* and *stdev* of the crops yield are in 10² kg/ha; standard *TRW* chronologies have *mean* = 1 and *var* = *stdev*

3

4 **Table 2.** Correlation coefficients of crops yield and *TRW* chronologies with climatic and hydrological
5 variables, averaged for the crops growth period – May-July (calculated for time series / chronologies
6 per se and for their first differences)

	T	P	HTC	WI	PDSI	SPEI	QE	QA		ΔT	ΔP	ΔHTC	ΔWI	ΔPDSI	ΔSPEI	ΔQE	ΔQA
	time series per se									first differences							
CrN	-0.48	0.48	0.56	0.72	0.50	0.52	0.20	0.26	ΔCrN	-0.57	0.32	0.41	0.67	0.70	0.56	0.32	0.29
WrN	-0.54	0.38	0.46	0.66	0.31	0.32	0.17	0.21	ΔWrN	-0.58	0.23	0.30	0.56	0.48	0.40	0.26	0.28
BrN	-0.41	0.58	0.63	0.68	0.48	0.55	0.33	0.40	ΔBrN	-0.43	0.47	0.52	0.65	0.63	0.58	0.44	0.40
OrN	-0.44	0.57	0.63	0.71	0.48	0.57	0.23	0.34	ΔOrN	-0.43	0.46	0.52	0.65	0.61	0.57	0.32	0.31
CrC	-0.58	0.30	0.40	0.61	0.41	0.45	0.20	0.28	ΔCrC	-0.59	0.45	0.51	0.66	0.55	0.52	0.39	0.54
WrC	-0.62	-0.02	0.12	0.45	0.14	0.16	0.22	0.14	ΔWrC	-0.63	0.18	0.26	0.49	0.35	0.22	0.32	0.51
BrC	-0.56	0.11	0.21	0.43	0.29	0.27	0.08	0.23	ΔBrC	-0.63	0.29	0.36	0.53	0.39	0.35	0.24	0.58
OrC	-0.53	0.26	0.36	0.56	0.37	0.42	0.21	0.28	ΔOrC	-0.46	0.37	0.42	0.58	0.49	0.43	0.38	0.55
BER PS	-0.32	0.26	0.25	0.37	0.15	0.21	-0.01	0.22	ΔBER PS	-0.45	0.33	0.33	0.50	0.26	0.25	0.00	0.37
BID PS	-0.21	0.33	0.23	0.29	0.32	0.26	0.20	0.37	ΔBID PS	-0.36	0.09	0.04	0.25	0.36	0.16	0.31	0.50
MIN PS	-0.35	0.45	0.47	0.51	0.40	0.38	0.27	0.45	ΔMIN PS	-0.46	0.45	0.49	0.61	0.63	0.43	0.46	0.58
KAZ PS	-0.16	0.17	0.19	0.27	0.08	0.17	0.12	0.54	ΔKAZ PS	-0.36	0.23	0.29	0.45	0.46	0.20	0.32	0.70
BER LS	-0.36	0.28	0.17	0.36	0.16	0.19	-0.21	0.04	ΔBER LS	-0.32	0.25	0.16	0.31	0.14	0.14	-0.22	0.22
TUI LS	-0.14	0.35	0.17	0.22	0.29	0.24	-0.24	0.11	ΔTUI LS	-0.27	0.32	0.20	0.31	0.32	0.16	0.03	0.31
BID LS	-0.16	0.32	0.25	0.28	0.41	0.27	0.18	0.18	ΔBID LS	-0.15	0.10	0.06	0.17	0.40	0.21	0.19	0.36
KAZ LS	-0.06	0.01	0.00	0.12	-0.10	0.03	0.16	0.17	ΔKAZ LS	-0.11	0.02	0.03	0.20	0.34	0.03	0.28	0.53

7 T – temperatures; P – precipitation; HTC – hydrothermal coefficient of Selyaninov; WI – wetness index (Lei et al.
8 2014); QE – runoff of Yenisei river; QA – runoff of Abakan river.

9 Marked with shade correlation coefficients are significant at $p < 0.05$

10

11

Table 3. Regression reconstruction models of crops yield high- and low- frequency variation

12

components and combined models on base of *TRW* chronologies and their statistical characteristics

Yield models	Function / predictors	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² _{adj}	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>SEE</i>	Period
high-frequency variability component								
ΔCrN1	-1.31 + 13.16·MIN_PS – 11.63·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.65	0.42	0.40	17.8	<0.001	3.56	1848-2012
ΔWrN1	-3.16 + 13.55·MIN_PS – 10.18·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.67	0.45	0.43	16.2	<0.001	3.27	
ΔBrN1	-1.38 + 13.89·MIN_PS – 12.50·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.63	0.40	0.36	9.5	<0.001	4.05	
ΔOrN1	-0.58 + 12.58·MIN_PS – 12.00·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.56	0.31	0.26	6.5	0.004	4.56	
ΔCrN2	0.21 + 6.45·KAZ_PS – 6.50·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.60	0.36	0.34	14.0	<0.001	3.72	1768-2012
ΔWrN2	-0.19 + 6.24·KAZ_PS – 5.92·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.60	0.36	0.33	11.1	<0.001	3.53	
ΔBrN2	1.10 + 5.31·KAZ_PS – 6.51·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.51	0.26	0.22	6.9	0.003	4.42	
ΔOrN2	0.74 + 5.49·KAZ_PS – 6.32·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.48	0.23	0.19	5.9	0.006	4.75	
ΔCrC	-0.03 + 9.29·KAZ_PS – 9.14·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.80	0.64	0.62	42.7	<0.001	3.04	1768-2012
ΔWrC	0.43 + 10.41·KAZ_PS – 10.71·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.92	0.85	0.84	82.9	<0.001	1.96	
ΔBrC	-0.39 + 9.47·KAZ_PS – 8.84·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.72	0.51	0.49	20.6	<0.001	3.92	
ΔOrC	0.45 + 9.18·KAZ_PS – 9.61·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.75	0.56	0.54	25.3	<0.001	3.63	
low-frequency variability component								
Av5Y_N1	-1.09 + 3.50·Av5TUI_LS ₄ + 7.39·Av5BID_LS ₁	0.81	0.66	0.65	43.1	<0.001	1.52	1890-2009
Av5Y_N2	3.55 + 4.17·Av5TUI_LS ₃ + 1.91·Av5BER_LS ₂	0.62	0.39	0.36	14.1	<0.001	2.05	1737-2004
Av5Y_C	-2.40 + 4.02·Av5TUI_LS ₅ + 8.54·Av5BER_LS ₁	0.85	0.73	0.72	59.5	<0.001	1.67	1734-2005
combined models								
CrN	MIN_PS, MIN_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₄ , Av5BID_LS ₁	0.76	0.57	0.53	15.1	<0.001	2.82	1890-2011
WrN		0.68	0.46	0.40	7.4	<0.001	3.15	
BrN		0.70	0.49	0.43	8.5	<0.001	3.65	
OrN		0.68	0.46	0.40	7.6	<0.001	3.83	
CrN	KAZ_PS, KAZ_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₃ , Av5BER_LS ₂	0.55	0.30	0.23	4.3	0.006	3.83	1768-2004
WrN		0.60	0.36	0.27	4.2	0.009	3.71	
BrN		0.54	0.29	0.20	3.1	0.030	4.65	
OrN		0.54	0.29	0.20	3.1	0.030	4.52	
CrC	KAZ_PS, KAZ_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₅ , Av5BER_LS ₁	0.56	0.31	0.25	4.7	0.003	4.05	1768-2005
WrC		0.75	0.56	0.47	6.6	0.001	4.33	
BrC		0.59	0.35	0.27	4.2	0.008	4.38	
OrC		0.53	0.28	0.19	3.1	0.031	4.20	

13

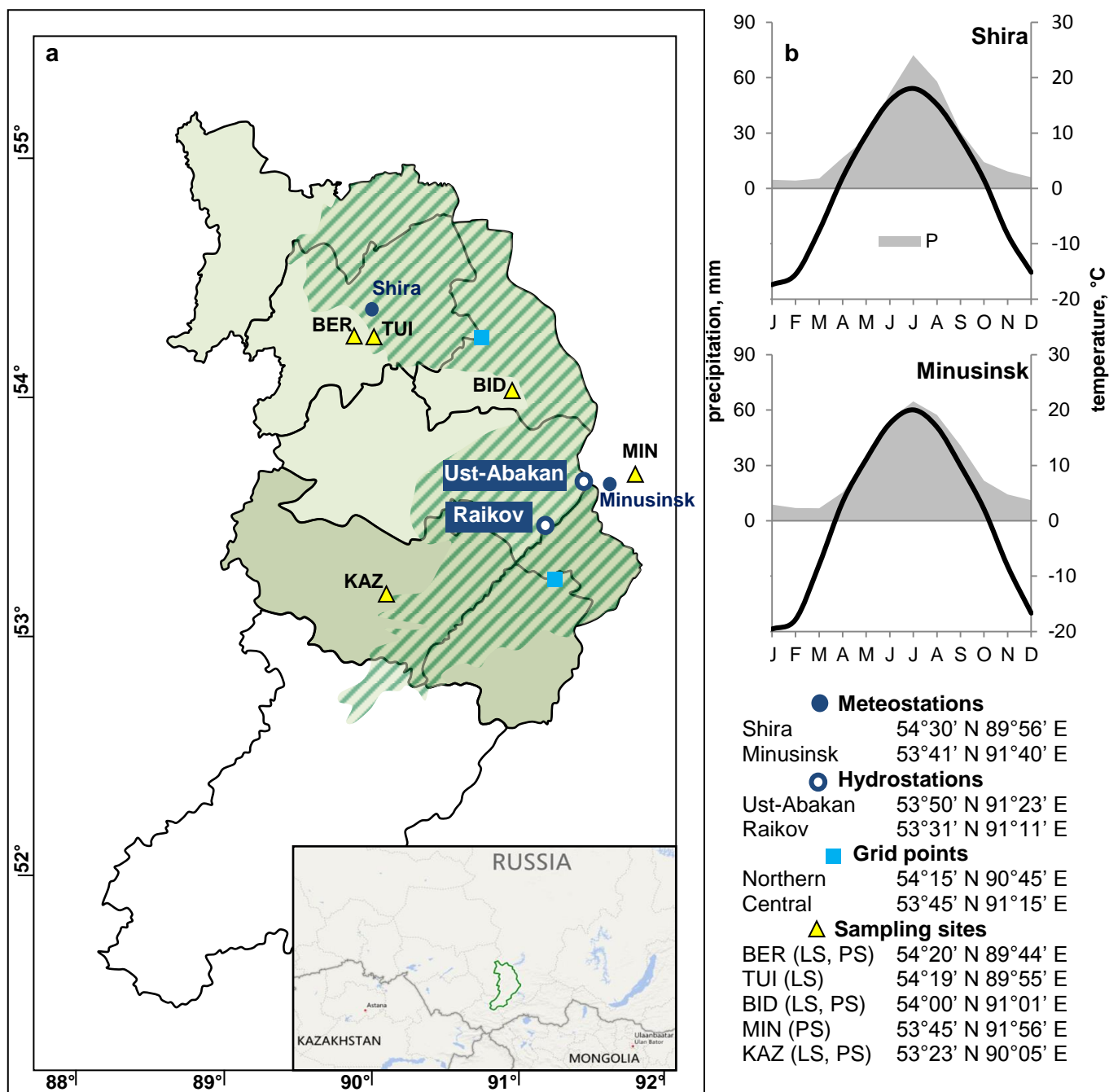


Fig. 1 Study region. On the map (a) Northern zone is marked with light shade, Central zone is marked with dark shade. Territory suitable for agriculture is marked with hatching. Climatic diagrams (b) of mean air temperature and amount of precipitation for every month are average for all period of instrumental measurements

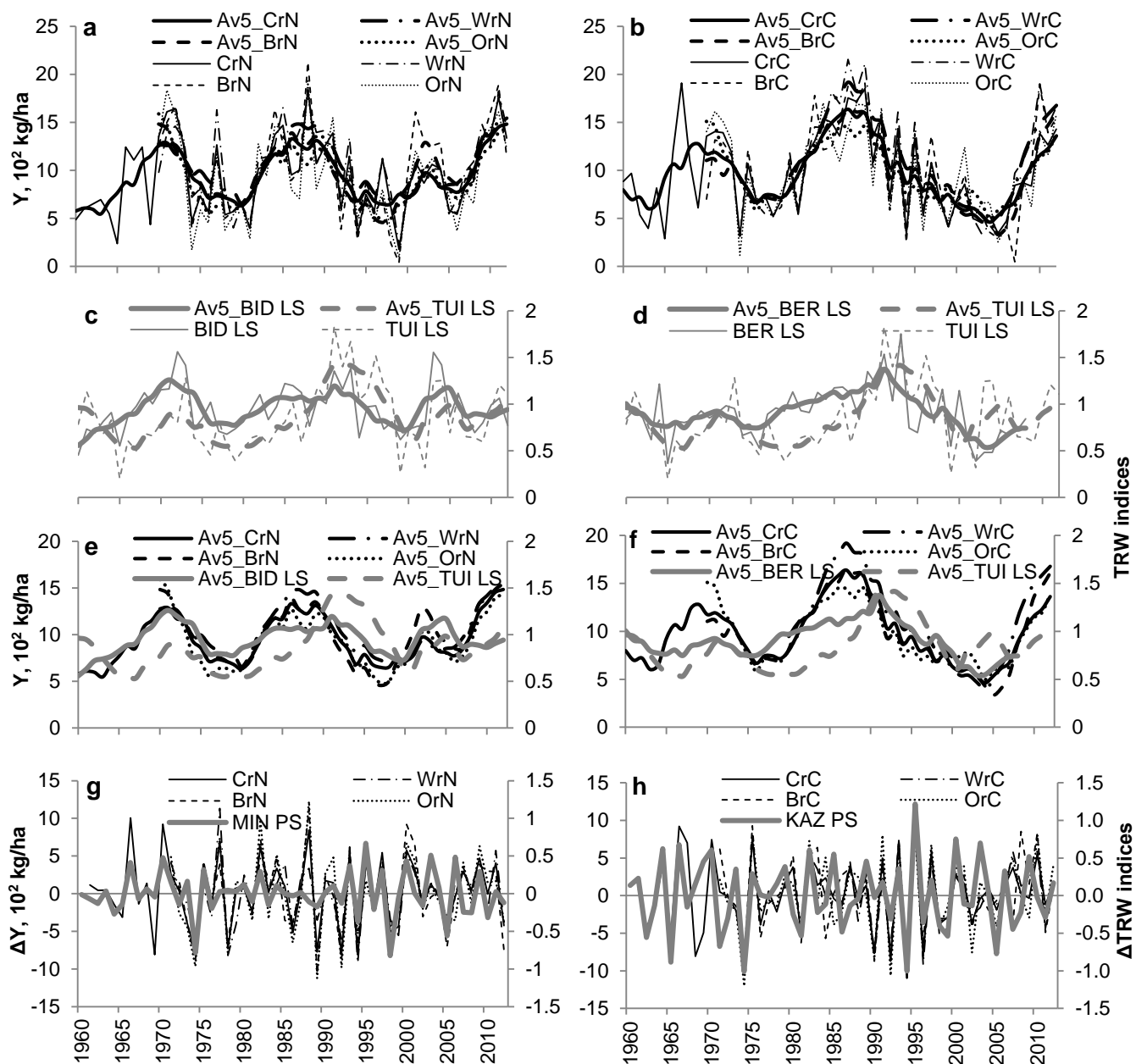


Fig. 2 Low- and high-frequency variation components of the crops yield and *TRW* chronologies: smoothing (Av5 – 5-year moving average) of yield chronologies, where CrN/CrC – crops in total, WrN/WrC – wheat, BrN/BrC – barley, OrN/OrC – oats regional yield series for Northern (a) and Central (b) zones respectively; smoothing (Av5) of *TRW* chronologies, low-frequency variation of which is the best-fitting for Northern (c) and Central (d) zones; comparison of the yield and *TRW* low-frequency variation in Northern (e) and Central (f) zones; high-frequency variation (first differences) of yield in comparison with the best-fitting high-frequency *TRW* variation in Northern (g) and Central (h) zones

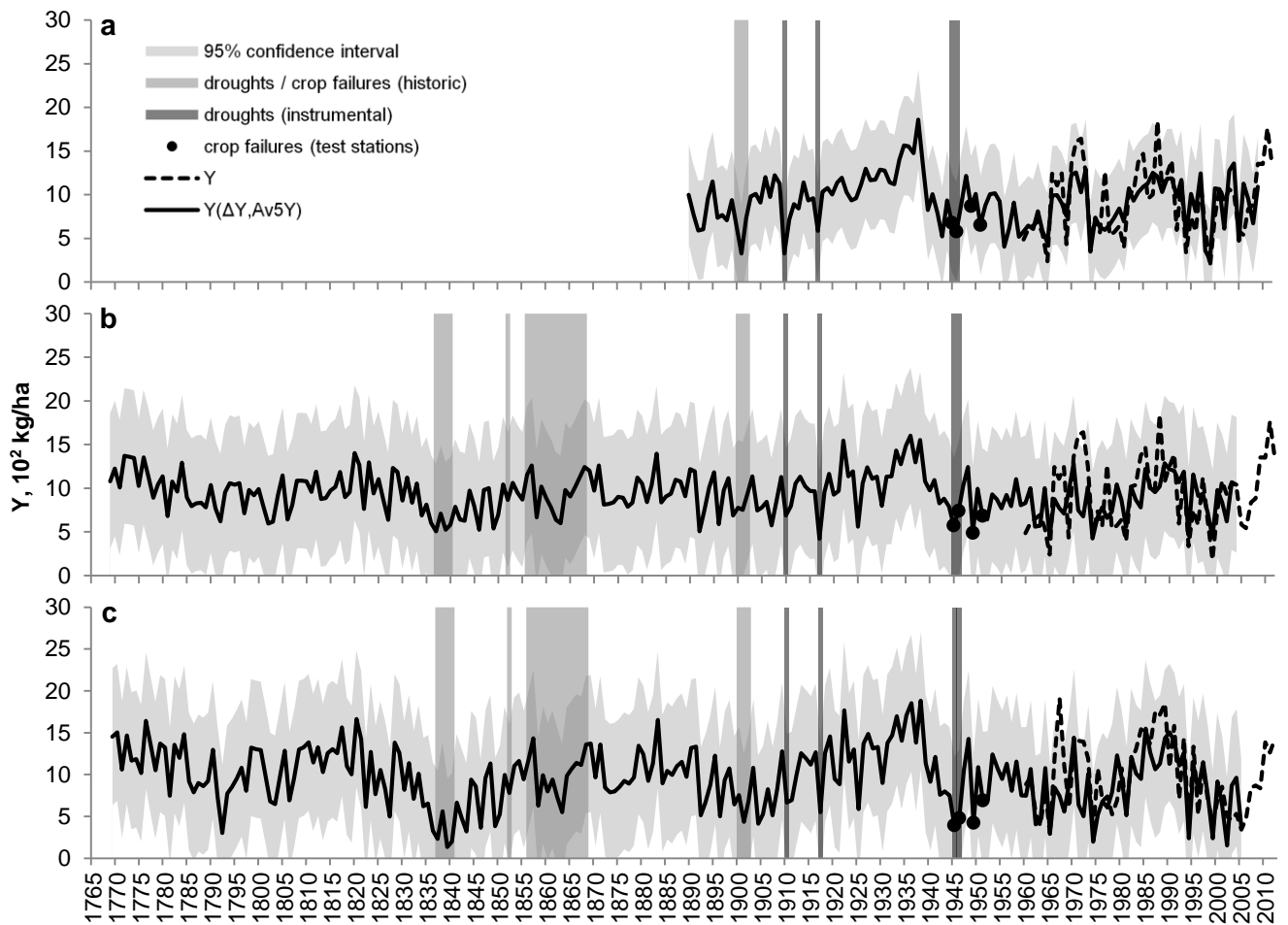
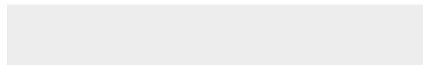
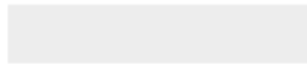


Fig. 3 Combined tree-ring based yield reconstruction models, actual series of CrN and CrC yield chronologies and evidences of droughts and crop failures from other sources. In Northern zone two models were constructed with different length and quality: best-fitted model (a) and second best-fitted model (b); in Central zone one model (c) was constructed



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1 **~~Estimation of past~~Past crops yield dynamics reconstruction from tree-ring chronologies in the**
2 **forest-steppe zone based on low- and high-frequency components**

3
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8
9 **Abstract**

10 Interrelations of the yield variability of the main crops (wheat, barley, and oats) with
11 hydrothermal regime and growth of conifer trees (*Pinus sylvestris* and *Larix sibirica*) in forest-steppes
12 were investigated in Khakassia, South Siberia. An attempt has been made to understand the role and
13 mechanisms of climatic impact on plants productivity. It was found that amongst variables describing
14 moisture supply, wetness index had maximum impact. Strength of climatic response and correlations
15 with tree growth are different for rain-fed and irrigated crops yield. Separated high-frequency
16 variability components of yield and tree-ring width have more pronounced relationships between each
17 other and with climatic variables than their chronologies per se. Corresponding low-frequency
18 variability components are strongly correlated with maxima observed after 1 to 5 years time shift of
19 tree-ring width. Results of analysis allowed us to develop original approach of crops yield dynamics
20 reconstruction on the base of high-frequency variability component of the growth of pine and low-
21 frequency one of larch.

22
23 **Keywords** crops yield, tree-ring width, South Siberia, climate, reconstruction model.

24

25 **Introduction**

26 Hydrothermal regime of a territory is determined by hydrological and climatic factors that
27 strongly influence the productivity of the both natural and agricultural ecosystems (Seneviratne et al.
28 2006; Challinor et al. 2014; Lipper et al. 2014; Porter et al. 2014; Iizumi and Ramankutty 2016).
29 Current climatic trends of global warming include not only increasing temperatures, but also changes
30 of water balance and frequency/severity of droughts (Easterling et al. 2000; Rosenzweig et al. 2002,
31 2014; Lobell et al. 2011; Mueller and Seneviratne 2012; Kattsov and Semenov 2014; Porter et al.
32 2014; IPCC 2015). Its impact on ecosystems has certain pattern on global scale. In the low and
33 medium latitudes warming leads to more frequent droughts and increases vulnerability of plants to
34 moisture shortage. In the high latitudes with sufficient moisture level warming lengthens vegetative
35 season and intensifies growth and development of plants. Overall, geographic range of most plants
36 species and cultivars shifts to the higher latitudes (Bindi and Olesen 2011; Peltonen-Sainio et al. 2016;
37 Wang et al. 2016).

38 Understanding the regional mechanisms of this impact will provide more effective adaptation
39 of the agriculture to the climate change, allowing to obtain more stable spatiotemporally yield
40 (Zhirnova 2005; Hlavinka et al. 2009; Holman et al. 2017). Investigation of the yield dynamics can
41 provide crucial information about its vulnerability to the climate change and estimation of the possible
42 risks for food security (Myglan et al. 2007; Sauchyn et al. 2009; Pfister 2010; Qureshi et al. 2013; Wu
43 et al. 2014; Huhtamaa et al. 2015; IPCC 2015).

44 However this field of research is highly restricted by short cover periods of the factual data of
45 instrumental environmental measurements and especially statistics of yield (Therrell et al. 2006;
46 Sauchyn et al. 2009). Use of proxy records in various natural objects allows overcoming this limitation
47 (Wang and Liu 2016; Huhtamaa and Helama 2017). In particular, tree-ring width (*TRW*) chronologies
48 are available in many regions and reflect environmental variations on multi-centennial scale with
49 annual/seasonal resolution (Fritts 1976). Both *TRW* and yield are productivity indicators of the
50 terrestrial ecosystems and results of plants growth and development processes. Thus common patterns
51 in their dynamics and climatic responses are to be expected (Vaganov 1989; Wu et al. 2014). There are
52 several recent studies investigating these two variables jointly, including tree-ring based
53 reconstructions of yield itself or climatic factors crucial for it (Myglan et al. 2007; Helama et al. 2013;
54 Rygalova et al. 2014; Sun and Liu 2014; Huhtamaa et al. 2015; Yadav et al. 2015).

55 The Republic of Khakassia (Siberia, Russia) is a typical example of a region in need of
56 evaluation of the agricultural productivity. Small grain crops production is important part of the
57 regional economy (Agroclimatic resources 1974; Surin and Lyakhova 1993). In this study we aimed to
58 investigate variability of the main crops yield in Khakassia using instrumental environmental data and
59 *TRW* chronologies of two prevalent conifer species in forest-steppe zone of the region. To achieve this
60 goal the following objectives were set: (1) to reveal relationships between yield and *TRW* per se and

61 between their components, (2) to analyze regional environmental factors and their extremes as driving
62 forces for plants productivity indicators and their relationships, and (3) to obtain and verify tree-ring
63 based reconstruction of the yield.

64

65 **Materials and methods**

66 *Study area*

67 The Republic of Khakassia is situated in the South Siberia, on the left bank of Yenisei river in
68 its middle reaches. Montane part (south and east) of the republic belongs to the Altai-Sayan mountain
69 system, whereas remaining territory is represented by plains of the Minusinsk Depression and is more
70 appropriate for agriculture (Fig. 1 a) (Agroclimatic resources 1974). Climate of the study area is
71 sharply continental (Alisov 1956). Minusinsk Depression is a wide valley surrounded by mountain
72 ranges from all sides except North. Region is situated far from the ocean, but has broad Yenisei river
73 with its two reservoirs (Chlebovich and Bufal 1976). The temperature during the vegetative season on
74 plains increases from North to South. The precipitation decreases from the mountain ranges on the
75 East and South towards the main rivers.

76 In spring rapidly increasing temperature have high daily variation. It causes delay of the frost-
77 free period about 30-35 days after date of daily temperature crossing $+5^{\circ}\text{C}$ threshold. As a result spring
78 frosts inhibit plant growth on the first development stages, thus shortening length of the vegetative
79 season. The period of temperatures higher than $+10^{\circ}\text{C}$ starts around mid May and lasts up to 120 days.
80 Precipitation has maximum in July-August, winter precipitation is scarce (maximal snow depth on
81 plains is about 20 sm). Its interannual variation is very high, attaining 45-57% of mean value in
82 summer and 56-90% of mean value in winter. Main reason of precipitation shortage is location of the
83 Minusinsk Depression in the rain-shadow of mountain ranges. Due to this fact and spatiotemporally
84 uneven precipitation the drought indices on the plains are unstable.

85 Regional hydrographic network is also uneven. Most of the water bodies are concentrated in
86 the mountain part; northern half of Minusinsk depression has the lowest hydrographic density. Water
87 bodies are mainly rain-fed, thus their runoff (Q) depends on climatic conditions. Most of the rivers
88 belong to the Yenisei basin. In the centre of region main rivers and their tributaries form the base of
89 irrigational network (Territorial planning scheme 2015).

90 Agrarian territory of Khakassia can be divided into three agroclimatic zones (Fig. 1): subtaiga
91 zone with dark gray soils as narrow strip along mountain foothills, rain-fed steppes on chernozems in
92 the north, and dry steppes on chestnut soils in the centre of republic, where irrigated agriculture is
93 dominating (Agroclimatic resources 1974; Semenov et al. 2004). Agricultural area on the foothills is
94 small (~4% of total area in republic) and has the least climatic impact, hence it was not investigated in
95 the study.

96

97 *Data sources*

98 Monthly data of average temperature (T) and sum of precipitation (P) for 1938-2012 were
99 obtained from Shira and Minusinsk stations (Fig. 1). Two indices characterizing moisture regime were
100 computed from T and P data: Selyaninov hydrothermal coefficient ($HTC = 10 \cdot \sum P / \sum T$ for period of
101 $T > 10^\circ C$, based on daily data) and wetness index ($WI = \sum \log P / \sum T$, based on monthly data)
102 (Selyaninov 1958; Lei et al. 2014). Additionally monthly $PDSI$ and $SPEI$ indices were used from open
103 datasets (Beguería et al. 2010; van der Schrier et al. 2013). Runoff of Yenisei and Abakan rivers (QY
104 and QA) obtained from Ust-Abakan and Raikov stations respectively were used as hydrological
105 characteristic.

106 Crops yield measured as obtained grain weight per unit of sowing area (Y , kg/ha) was used as
107 indicator of agricultural productivity (Therrell et al. 2006). Yield series averaged for every
108 administrative district for 1960-2012 were obtained from unpublished records of the Federal State
109 Statistics Service. Sufficient data are available for crops in total and for three main crops: spring
110 wheat, spring barley and oats. For this study yield series of every crop were united into two zonal
111 chronologies (Northern and Central) in regards to agroclimatic conditions and irrigation.

112 The samples of Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L. – PS) and Siberian larch (*Larix sibirica* Ledeb. –
113 LS) were collected in the foothills forest-steppes (BER, TUI, BID, KAZ sites) and insular forest in
114 steppe (MIN). The processing of samples, measurement and cross-dating of TRW were carried out
115 using standard dendrochronological techniques (Cook and Kairiukstis 1990; Speer 2010). All
116 individual series were standardized by fitting exponential/linear functions to remove age related trends.
117 Then individual indices were combined into single standard chronology per site/species using bi-
118 weight robust mean (Cook and Krusic 2005).

119

120 *Mathematical and statistical techniques*

121 In this study we used following statistics of time series: arithmetic mean (*mean*), standard
122 deviation (*stdev*), variation coefficient ($var = stdev/mean$), sensitivity coefficient (for time series X
123 it is $sens = \text{mean}(2 \cdot |X_t - X_{t-1}| / (X_t + X_{t-1}))$), first-order autocorrelation coefficient (*ar-1*). For
124 TRW chronologies also average interseries correlation coefficient (*r-bar*) was calculated to check
125 quality (Fritts 1976; Wigley et al. 1984; Cook 1985).

126 ~~Pearson~~Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to evaluate relationships between time
127 series. High-frequency component of variation was calculated as first differences (for time series X in
128 year t first difference is $\Delta X_t = X_t - X_{t-1}$). This approach was successfully used in some previous
129 analyses of climate-yield relationships (Nicholls 1997; Lobell et al. 2005; Lobell and Field 2007).
130 Low-frequency component of variation was estimated as time series smoothed with 5-year moving
131 average centered to the middle year ($Av5X_t = \text{mean}(X_{t-2}, \dots, X_{t+2})$).

132 Linear regression functions were used for reconstruction of the crops yield variation
133 components. Quality of reconstruction models was estimated with the following statistics: coefficient
134 of multiple correlation (R), coefficient of determination (R^2), adjusted coefficient of determination
135 (R^2_{adj}), Fisher test (F), significance level p and standard error of estimation (SEE).

136

137 **Results**

138 *Chronologies and relationships between them*

139 Four regional crops yield chronologies were developed for each zone: crops in total – CrN and
140 CrC in Northern and Central zones respectively, wheat – WrN and WrC, barley – BrN and BrC, oats –
141 OrN and OrC. Their statistics are shown in Table 1. In the study area wheat yield has the highest mean
142 values, and oats yield has the lowest ones. There are no significant differences in mean yield between
143 zones. Variability of yield reaches 38-51% of mean values with substantial proportion of year-to-year
144 changes, indicated by high sensitivity ($sens = 0.39 - 0.54$). Nevertheless, yield chronologies have
145 also significant autocorrelations. The TRW chronologies range from 124 to 272 years (Table 1). TRW
146 has lower variability per se and sensitivity ($sens = 0.19 - 0.47$), but higher autocorrelation than
147 yield.

148 Within each zone yields of different crops are highly correlated ($r = 0.80 - 0.95$ in Northern
149 zone and $r = 0.81 - 0.96$ in Central zone). The correlations between zones are moderate ($r = 0.49 -$
150 0.78) (Online Resource Table S1). The correlations between TRW chronologies are low to moderate.
151 The highest correlations are observed within one site ($r = 0.40 - 0.71$). Most of yield- TRW
152 relationships are weak, 50% of correlations are not significant on level $p < 0.05$. However, we can
153 note some relatively high correlations both in Northern (yield and BER_PS have $r = 0.34 - 0.54$,
154 yield and BID_LS have $r = 0.35 - 0.47$) and Central zone (yield and BER_LS have $r = 0.45 - 0.63$,
155 yield and BER_PS have $r = 0.36 - 0.47$).

156 Comparison of the smoothed TRW and yield series (Fig. 2 a-f) was performed by cross-
157 correlation, i.e. correlations were calculated with different time shift (lag) of TRW (Online Resource
158 Fig. S1). More pronounced similarity of low-frequency variation is revealed between yield and TRW of
159 larch: BID_LS has the highest correlation with the yield in Northern zone, BER_LS has the highest
160 one in Central zone, and TUI_LS has second-best correlations with the yield in both zones. The
161 highest values of cross-correlation coefficients are observed with lag +1 to +2 years for BID_LS ($r =$
162 $0.54 - 0.79$) and for BER_LS ($r = 0.66 - 0.92$), and with lag +3 to +5 years for TUI_LS ($r =$
163 $0.43 - 0.65$ for Northern zone and $r = 0.54 - 0.80$ for Central zone). The cross-correlations are
164 quasiperiodic. The distance between consequent maxima / consequent minima for cross-correlations of
165 yield with BID_LS is 19 to 20 years and for cross-correlations of yield with BER_LS and TUI_LS is
166 26 to 33 years. Relationships between smoothed series of yield and pine TRW are considerably less
167 pronounced. The extremal cross-correlations are unstable and not exceeding 0.50. Smoothed yield

168 series correlations between themselves are high, viz., $r = 0.86 - 0.97$ in Northern zone, $r = 0.90 -$
169 0.98 in Central zone, and $r = 0.57 - 0.87$ between zones.

170

171 *Climatic response in the chronologies*

172 Significant correlations between *TRW* chronologies and monthly temperatures and precipitation
173 were observed from previous July to current July (Online Resource, Fig. S2). Climatic response of all
174 *TRW* chronologies has similar pattern. During the previous July-September and current May-July,
175 response of *TRW* on *P* is positive and response on *T* is negative. Also there is positive response on both
176 factors in the late autumn. Strength of the climatic response varies between species.

177 Crops yield chronologies have significant climatic response only during May-July (period of
178 crops growth and development in the region). Therefore this period was selected for comparison of
179 influence of the ecological factors on the natural and agro-ecosystems productivity (Table 2).
180 Temperatures have strong negative relationships with crops yield in both zones. In Northern zone yield
181 have also high positive correlations with precipitation. All drought indices have significant correlations
182 with yield too, especially high in Northern zone. The wetness index has the strongest relationship with
183 yield amongst ecological variables. The Yenisei runoff has no relationships with yield, whereas the
184 Abakan runoff's correlations with yield are weak but partially significant. Correlations of *TRW*
185 chronologies with ecological conditions of May-July are weaker than yield's ones. But there are
186 similar patterns of strongest reaction on precipitation and *WI* and minimal response on rivers runoff.
187 Overall pine has more pronounced dependence of growth on May-July conditions than larch.

188

189 *Extremal events and plants productivity*

190 As unfavorable extremal events (e.g. droughts) we considered years when ecological factors in
191 May-July have high deviations from mean values (Online Resource Table S2). Specifically,
192 combination of low moisture supply and high temperatures was observed in 1945, 1965 and 1999; in
193 1974 and 1981 precipitation and drought indices also were low but temperatures were on average
194 level. These years were characterized by significant decrement of the tree growth, especially for pine.
195 Crop failures were observed too with the most pronounced ones in 1965 and 1999. In 1994 high
196 temperatures and normal moisture supply resulted in poor harvest and some low *TRW* values. Two-
197 year drought in 1945-1946 was associated with low *TRW* values, but yield chronologies do not cover
198 these years.

199

200 *First differences of time series*

201 Correlation analysis of the first differences of yield showed relationships and patterns similar to
202 the chronologies per se (Online Resource Table S3): for ΔY correlations between each other in
203 Northern zone $r = 0.75 - 0.94$, in Central zone $r = 0.77 - 0.95$, and between zones $r = 0.34 -$

204 0.62. For ΔTRW it is true as well. They have maximal correlations within the site ($r = 0.43 - 0.60$)
205 and basically the same range of correlations among themselves as TRW chronologies per se. Though
206 correlations between ΔY yield and ΔTRW are substantially higher than between their chronologies,
207 81% of them are significant on level $p < 0.05$ (Online Resource Fig. S3). These relationships are more
208 pronounced for TRW of pine (Fig. 2 g, h). ΔY series in Northern zone have maximal correlations with
209 ΔMIN_PS ($r = 0.47 - 0.61$) and the second-best correlations with ΔKAZ_PS ($r = 0.35 - 0.44$). In
210 Central zone ΔY series have maximal correlations with ΔKAZ_PS ($r = 0.51 - 0.62$).

211 Relationships of ΔY and ΔTRW with first differences of environmental factors are also higher
212 than corresponding relationships of original time series (Table 2). For example, ΔY has higher
213 correlations with first differences of T , $PDSI$, $SPEI$ and rivers runoff; ΔTRW has higher correlations
214 with first differences of T , WI , $PDSI$ and QA . Amongst indicators of moisture regime WI has closest
215 relationship with both TRW and yield when first differences are considered, as well as for original time
216 series.

217

218 *Tree-ring based reconstructions of the crops yield*

219 Yield series have the highest correlations with pine TRW in first differences and with larch
220 TRW after smoothing. Therefore we made separate tree-ring based models of high- and low-frequency
221 variability of yield. Detailed procedure of reconstruction is presented in Online Resource.

222 For high-frequency yield variation component the highest statistics of regression model were
223 retrieved with using MIN_PS chronology for Northern zone and KAZ_PS chronology for Central
224 zone. Due to relatively short cover period of MIN_PS we also constructed estimations for Northern
225 zone on base of KAZ_PS chronology, which have ~80 year longer cover period but lower statistics
226 (Table 3, Online Resource Fig. S4). For low-frequency yield variation component the highest statistics
227 were retrieved with using smoothed BID_LS and TUI_LS for Northern zone, and BER_LS and
228 TUI_LS for Central zone. For Northern zone also model on the base of BER_LS and TUI_LS was
229 constructed, which have ~150 year longer cover period but lower statistics (Table 3, Online Resource
230 Fig. S5).

231 Both yield and TRW chronologies contain fluctuations of different frequency. Thus a
232 hypothesis was postulated that these two types of models could be used together to obtain one
233 combined model of yield dynamics estimation as a whole. We obtained combined models with cover
234 periods 122 and 237 years for Northern zone and 238 years for Central zone (Table 3, Fig. 3).
235 Combined models with shorter cover period for Northern zone have higher statistics than
236 corresponding ΔY models. At the same time most statistics of combined models with longer cover
237 period for Northern zone are similar to ones of corresponding ΔY models, but F -test and significance
238 level are lower due to higher amount of predictors. For Central zone statistics of combined models are
239 lower than ones of ΔY models.

240

241 *Verification of reconstruction*

242 Combined models have the same extremes as actual yield chronologies within observation
243 period. There are set of years of extremal low yield outside the observation period which are
244 confirmed by regional data from other sources (Fig. 3). According to instrumental data, moisture
245 deficit was observed in 1910, 1917, 1945-46 and 1951. Low yields of all three main crops were
246 registered at the state variety testing stations of Khakassia in 1945-46, 1949 and 1951 (Zhironova 2005).

247 There are also confirming historic evidences in the South of Siberia (Myglan 2010). For
248 instance, in the opinion of Vatin (1922), "since 1837 crop failures have begun in the Yenisei Gubernia
249 and completely ruined it in 2-3 years". There is also stated that in 1838 "sown cereals and meadow
250 grass have a mediocre growth on the occasion of the absence of rains until this time"; in 1852 "worms
251 appeared in the crops. During the crops ripening there was no rain; the yield was less than in previous
252 1851 year". In the work of Latkin (1890) the repeated crop failures in the Minusinsk depression during
253 1856-1868 were described: "since 1856 due to repeated poor harvest and gold mining, prices began to
254 rise (up to 60 kopecks for pood of rye flour and oats)"; "in 1868 again prices have risen, thanks to
255 some years with poor harvest". In a monograph of Butanayev (2002) drought in Khakassia in 1900-
256 1902 was mentioned: "A severe drought gave rise to lack of fodder. Up to half of draught horses have
257 died in the Abakan and Askiz establishments".

258

259 **Discussion**

260 Comparison of the plants productivity indicators response to the hydrothermal regime
261 characteristics showed that the wetness index WI most explicitly expresses limiting by moisture
262 supply. Its advantage is that this index not only combines the impact of precipitation as a source of
263 moisture and temperature as a withering factor, but also highlights the contribution of drought events,
264 as it contains logarithm of precipitation (Lei et al. 2014). The relationships between productivity
265 indicators and river runoff are weak primarily due to their large catchment basins, especially for the
266 Yenisei river. The Abakan river is supplied by the precipitation in the Minusinsk depression to a
267 greater extent, and is the main water source for the irrigation system. These facts ensure the
268 pronounced response to QA . Irrigation also significantly weakens yield climatic response on
269 precipitation in the Central zone.

270 As many other regions, study area characterizes by frequent simultaneous temperature raising
271 and precipitation deficit (Bazhenova and Tyumentseva 2010; Prasad et al. 2011; Nouri et al. 2017),
272 Our analysis showed that both indicators of plant productivity are accurately capturing such
273 unfavorable combinations, as well as extremes of one of these factors. It means that drought events
274 lead to synchronicity of negative extremes in yield and TRW , which is partially reason for the positive,
275 though not always significant, correlations between them. Therefore, it should be expected that the

276 *TRW* chronologies and the yield dynamics reconstructed on their basis will allow also restoring
277 regional climatic extremes history (Touchan et al. 2016). Growth and development of plants has
278 common regularities due to the unity of resources and physiological mechanisms (e.g. nutrition,
279 respiration, water balance), so we should expect them to be limited by the same environmental factors
280 typical for the semi-arid continental climatic zone (Mygland et al. 2007; Sun and Liu 2014). Moreover,
281 both grains for agricultural crops and wood for trees are the main targets of resources storage processes
282 during their growth and development. For instance, wheat has about 50% ratio of grain mass to above
283 ground biomass (Schulze et al. 2005). Also one more common trait is adaptation to the moisture
284 deficit. Climatotypes of the tree species in forest-steppe are adapted to the semiarid conditions by
285 natural selection. At the same time, regional crop cultivars are adapted to these conditions by human
286 activity, i.e. breeding.

287 Differences in the variability of yield and *TRW* chronologies follow primarily from their life
288 forms and cycles. Most of yield variability of crops, as annual plants, is due to current conditions,
289 including high-frequency climatic fluctuations. Significant autocorrelation is associated with using the
290 previous harvest as source of grain for sowing, because grain quality usually has positive relationship
291 with yield (Ozturk and Aydin 2004; Meng et al. 2016). Long-term yield variability is influenced by
292 both climatic trends and changes in farming practices and cultivars. Conifer trees as perennials,
293 especially evergreens, are characterized by stronger autocorrelation and less sensitivity of growth. On
294 the one hand, the variability of tree growth is constrained by the slowness of changes in morphometric
295 parameters (the size and structure of stem&root system) determining the access to resources. On the
296 other hand, woody plants are characterized by active storage of nutrients for using in the next season.
297 Moreover, evergreen trees have needles of previous years participating in photosynthesis processes
298 (Chapin et al. 1990; Schulze et al. 2005). Thus trees respond to the hydrothermal regime not only of
299 the current vegetative season, but also of the previous months. In regard to long-term tree growth
300 dynamics, the impact of human activity is much less pronounced than in agroecosystems. Thereby the
301 long-term variation of *TRW* is mainly due to a combination of climatic trends, aging and changes in the
302 stand structure. Also it is necessary to take into account using of standardized *TRW* data, from which
303 most of the age trend was removed during processing. Since the crops yield does not have such trends,
304 its standardizing was not necessary.

305 As a result of all aforementioned differences, despite the similarity of the growth conditions
306 *TRW* chronologies per se have limited relationships with crops yield, as well as with climate of May-
307 July. Therefore instead of head-on approach we proposed other methods to make tree-ring-based yield
308 reconstruction. Separation of plants production variability into high- and low-frequency components
309 and their analysis allowed us to circumvent these restrictions.

310 Low-frequency variation in the yield and *TRW* has much in common due to its dependence on
311 climatic trends. More pronounced similarity with yield is observed in larch *TRW* smoothed series than

312 in pine ones. It might be caused by need to re-grow all needles every spring for larch. Pine as
313 evergreen has needles with overlapping life spans, which complicates autocorrelation component and
314 low-frequency variation of growth in general. The delay in decadal oscillations of the tree growth in
315 comparison with crops is associated with the more pronounced autocorrelation described above.

316 Main non-climatic factors affecting variation of the both plant productivity indicators (the age
317 changes of trees and the development of agricultural technologies) are low frequency. Thus transition
318 to the first differences reduces their contribution and highlights role of the climate and the hydrological
319 regime, as they have considerable high-frequency variation component. It should be noted that, unlike
320 the smoothed series, the similarity between year-to-year dynamics of pine growth and the crops yield
321 is more pronounced. This is due to the fact that the response to the May-July conditions is higher for
322 pine than for larch.

323 As both components of yield variability have more close relationships with the tree growth than
324 yield chronologies per se, we can reconstruct these components separately. Both reconstructions have
325 their advantages and disadvantages. The reconstructed first differences easily allow one-year crops
326 failures to be revealed, but do not allow to receive information about longer periods of high/low yield.
327 Conversely, the reconstruction of the smoothed series describes long-term trends well, but there is no
328 information about the extreme years. Therefore, it was proposed to reconstruct the entire yield
329 variability by combining these two models. Use of a recursive equation for obtaining yields from the
330 model of the first differences leads to the accumulation of errors in long-term trends. To erase these
331 errors, low-frequency variation was completely removed from the resulting series by subtracting their
332 smoothed series. Then year-to-year yield fluctuations were threaded onto the reconstructed separately
333 long-term oscillations. The advantage of this approach in our case is also in the use of tree-ring
334 chronologies of different species and habitats, which reduces the correlations between predictors.

335 The obtained yield estimations are quite close to the factual series, especially extremal values.
336 However, the limits of the *TRW* chronologies cover periods restricting the length of the most
337 qualitative yield reconstruction in the Northern zone. The use of longer chronologies makes it possible
338 to significantly extend this period at the expense of the quality reducing. Despite this, the relevance of
339 models is confirmed by their comparison with other data sources –instrumental records, historical
340 documents, and yield data of regional variety testing stations.

341

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1

Table 1. Statistical characteristics of crops yield and *TRW* chronologies

	Crops yield								Tree-ring width							
	Nothern zone				Central zone				<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>				<i>Larix sibirica</i>			
	CrN	WrN	BrN	OrN	CrC	WrC	BrC	OrC	BER PS	BID PS	MIN PS	KAZ PS	BER LS	TUI LS	BID LS	KAZ LS
<i>N</i> , years period, years	53	43	43	43	53	33	43	43	257	164	166	246	272	294	124	178
	1960-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1960-2012	1980-2012	1970-2012	1970-2012	1752-2008	1849-2012	1847-2012	1767-2012	1737-2008	1719-2012	1889-2012	1835-2012
Number of trees	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	15	40	23	14	57	16	20
<i>mean</i> *	9.34	10.40	10.00	9.27	9.73	11.31	9.87	9.76	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>stdev</i> *	4.06	3.96	4.68	4.56	4.45	5.57	5.00	4.46	0.29	0.35	0.23	0.43	0.32	0.47	0.32	0.62
<i>var</i> *	0.43	0.38	0.47	0.49	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>sens</i>	0.43	0.39	0.48	0.54	0.45	0.39	0.52	0.51	0.25	0.33	0.19	0.40	0.30	0.43	0.26	0.47
<i>ar-1</i>	0.36	0.41	0.44	0.34	0.39	0.62	0.40	0.27	0.48	0.44	0.45	0.51	0.44	0.49	0.50	0.62
<i>r-bar</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.56	0.51	0.43	0.60	0.58	0.57	0.42	0.48

2

**mean* and *stdev* of the crops yield are in 10² kg/ha; standard *TRW* chronologies have *mean* = 1 and *var* = *stdev*

3

Table 2. Correlation coefficients of crops yield and *TRW* chronologies with climatic and hydrological variables, averaged for the crops growth period – May-July (calculated for time series / chronologies per se and for their first differences)

	T	P	HTC	WI	PDSI	SPEI	QE	QA		ΔT	ΔP	ΔHTC	ΔWI	ΔPDSI	ΔSPEI	ΔQE	ΔQA								
	time series per se									first differences															
	CrN	WrN	BrN	OrN	CrC	WrC	BrC	OrC		ΔCrN	ΔWrN	ΔBrN	ΔOrN	ΔCrC	ΔWrC	ΔBrC	ΔOrC	ΔBER PS	ΔBID PS	ΔMIN PS	ΔKAZ PS	ΔBER LS	ΔTUI LS	ΔBID LS	ΔKAZ LS
CrN	-0.48	0.48	0.56	0.72	0.50	0.52	0.20	0.26	ΔCrN	-0.57	0.32	0.41	0.67	0.70	0.56	0.32	0.29								
WrN	-0.54	0.38	0.46	0.66	0.31	0.32	0.17	0.21	ΔWrN	-0.58	0.23	0.30	0.56	0.48	0.40	0.26	0.28								
BrN	-0.41	0.58	0.63	0.68	0.48	0.55	0.33	0.40	ΔBrN	-0.43	0.47	0.52	0.65	0.63	0.58	0.44	0.40								
OrN	-0.44	0.57	0.63	0.71	0.48	0.57	0.23	0.34	ΔOrN	-0.43	0.46	0.52	0.65	0.61	0.57	0.32	0.31								
CrC	-0.58	0.30	0.40	0.61	0.41	0.45	0.20	0.28	ΔCrC	-0.59	0.45	0.51	0.66	0.55	0.52	0.39	0.54								
WrC	-0.62	-0.02	0.12	0.45	0.14	0.16	0.22	0.14	ΔWrC	-0.63	0.18	0.26	0.49	0.35	0.22	0.32	0.51								
BrC	-0.56	0.11	0.21	0.43	0.29	0.27	0.08	0.23	ΔBrC	-0.63	0.29	0.36	0.53	0.39	0.35	0.24	0.58								
OrC	-0.53	0.26	0.36	0.56	0.37	0.42	0.21	0.28	ΔOrC	-0.46	0.37	0.42	0.58	0.49	0.43	0.38	0.55								
BER PS	-0.32	0.26	0.25	0.37	0.15	0.21	-0.01	0.22	ΔBER PS	-0.45	0.33	0.33	0.50	0.26	0.25	0.00	0.37								
BID PS	-0.21	0.33	0.23	0.29	0.32	0.26	0.20	0.37	ΔBID PS	-0.36	0.09	0.04	0.25	0.36	0.16	0.31	0.50								
MIN PS	-0.35	0.45	0.47	0.51	0.40	0.38	0.27	0.45	ΔMIN PS	-0.46	0.45	0.49	0.61	0.63	0.43	0.46	0.58								
KAZ PS	-0.16	0.17	0.19	0.27	0.08	0.17	0.12	0.54	ΔKAZ PS	-0.36	0.23	0.29	0.45	0.46	0.20	0.32	0.70								
BER LS	-0.36	0.28	0.17	0.36	0.16	0.19	-0.21	0.04	ΔBER LS	-0.32	0.25	0.16	0.31	0.14	0.14	-0.22	0.22								
TUI LS	-0.14	0.35	0.17	0.22	0.29	0.24	-0.24	0.11	ΔTUI LS	-0.27	0.32	0.20	0.31	0.32	0.16	0.03	0.31								
BID LS	-0.16	0.32	0.25	0.28	0.41	0.27	0.18	0.18	ΔBID LS	-0.15	0.10	0.06	0.17	0.40	0.21	0.19	0.36								
KAZ LS	-0.06	0.01	0.00	0.12	-0.10	0.03	0.16	0.17	ΔKAZ LS	-0.11	0.02	0.03	0.20	0.34	0.03	0.28	0.53								

7

T – temperatures; P – precipitation; HTC – hydrothermal coefficient of Selyaninov; WI – wetness index (Lei et al.

8

2014); QE – runoff of Yenisei river; QA – runoff of Abakan river.

9

Marked with shade correlation coefficients are significant at $p < 0.05$

10

11

Table 3. Regression reconstruction models of crops yield high- and low- frequency variation

12

components and combined models on base of *TRW* chronologies and their statistical characteristics

Yield models	Function / predictors	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² _{adj}	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>SEE</i>	Period
high-frequency variability component								
ΔCrN1	-1.31 + 13.16·MIN_PS – 11.63·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.65	0.42	0.40	17.8	<0.001	3.56	1848-2012
ΔWrN1	-3.16 + 13.55·MIN_PS – 10.18·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.67	0.45	0.43	16.2	<0.001	3.27	
ΔBrN1	-1.38 + 13.89·MIN_PS – 12.50·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.63	0.40	0.36	9.5	<0.001	4.05	
ΔOrN1	-0.58 + 12.58·MIN_PS – 12.00·MIN_PS ₋₁	0.56	0.31	0.26	6.5	0.004	4.56	
ΔCrN2	0.21 + 6.45·KAZ_PS – 6.50·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.60	0.36	0.34	14.0	<0.001	3.72	1768-2012
ΔWrN2	-0.19 + 6.24·KAZ_PS – 5.92·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.60	0.36	0.33	11.1	<0.001	3.53	
ΔBrN2	1.10 + 5.31·KAZ_PS – 6.51·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.51	0.26	0.22	6.9	0.003	4.42	
ΔOrN2	0.74 + 5.49·KAZ_PS – 6.32·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.48	0.23	0.19	5.9	0.006	4.75	
ΔCrC	-0.03 + 9.29·KAZ_PS – 9.14·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.80	0.64	0.62	42.7	<0.001	3.04	1768-2012
ΔWrC	0.43 + 10.41·KAZ_PS – 10.71·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.92	0.85	0.84	82.9	<0.001	1.96	
ΔBrC	-0.39 + 9.47·KAZ_PS – 8.84·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.72	0.51	0.49	20.6	<0.001	3.92	
ΔOrC	0.45 + 9.18·KAZ_PS – 9.61·KAZ_PS ₋₁	0.75	0.56	0.54	25.3	<0.001	3.63	
low-frequency variability component								
Av5Y_N1	-1.09 + 3.50·Av5TUI_LS ₄ + 7.39·Av5BID_LS ₁	0.81	0.66	0.65	43.1	<0.001	1.52	1890-2009
Av5Y_N2	3.55 + 4.17·Av5TUI_LS ₃ + 1.91·Av5BER_LS ₂	0.62	0.39	0.36	14.1	<0.001	2.05	1737-2004
Av5Y_C	-2.40 + 4.02·Av5TUI_LS ₅ + 8.54·Av5BER_LS ₁	0.85	0.73	0.72	59.5	<0.001	1.67	1734-2005
combined models								
CrN	MIN_PS, MIN_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₄ , Av5BID_LS ₁	0.76	0.57	0.53	15.1	<0.001	2.82	1890-2011
WrN		0.68	0.46	0.40	7.4	<0.001	3.15	
BrN		0.70	0.49	0.43	8.5	<0.001	3.65	
OrN		0.68	0.46	0.40	7.6	<0.001	3.83	
CrN	KAZ_PS, KAZ_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₃ , Av5BER_LS ₂	0.55	0.30	0.23	4.3	0.006	3.83	1768-2004
WrN		0.60	0.36	0.27	4.2	0.009	3.71	
BrN		0.54	0.29	0.20	3.1	0.030	4.65	
OrN		0.54	0.29	0.20	3.1	0.030	4.52	
CrC	KAZ_PS, KAZ_PS ₋₁ , Av5TUI_LS ₅ , Av5BER_LS ₁	0.56	0.31	0.25	4.7	0.003	4.05	1768-2005
WrC		0.75	0.56	0.47	6.6	0.001	4.33	
BrC		0.59	0.35	0.27	4.2	0.008	4.38	
OrC		0.53	0.28	0.19	3.1	0.031	4.20	

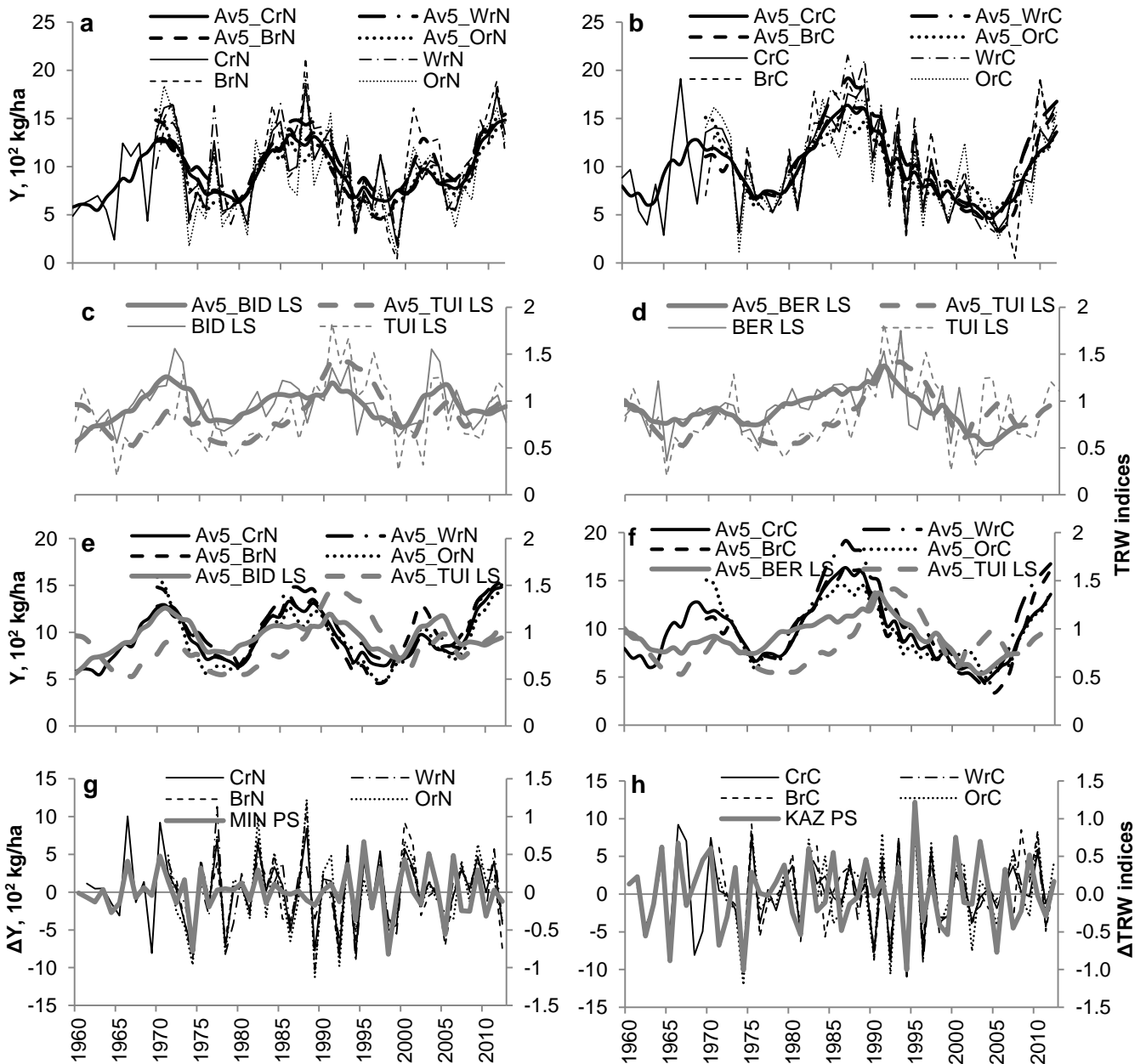


Fig. 2 Low- and high-frequency variation components of the crops yield and *TRW* chronologies: smoothing (Av5 – 5-year moving average) of yield chronologies, where CrN/CrC – crops in total, WrN/WrC – wheat, BrN/BrC – barley, OrN/OrC – oats regional yield series for Northern (a) and Central (b) zones respectively; smoothing (Av5) of *TRW* chronologies, low-frequency variation of which is the best-fitting for Northern (c) and Central (d) zones; comparison of the yield and *TRW* low-frequency variation in Northern (e) and Central (f) zones; high-frequency variation (first differences) of yield in comparison with the best-fitting high-frequency *TRW* variation in Northern (g) and Central (h) zones