

43 **Abstract**

44 Precise knowledge how tree growth will respond to future climate change is essential
45 for the adapted management of forest ecosystems. By conducting sensitivity tests,
46 tree-ring process-based cambial growth models can provide an innovative way to
47 better understand wood formation under different climate change scenarios. As a case
48 study in semi-arid north central China, we used artificially increased or decreased
49 daily climatic data as input to the Vaganov-Shashkin dynamic growth model to
50 investigate the response of wood formation to climatic change. By calibrating the
51 tree-ring model using daily climate data over the period 1951–2010, we found that
52 81% of radial growth was driven by soil moisture, while 13% of growth was
53 controlled by temperature. During the main growing season June–August, significant
54 differences in the integral growth rate occurred after changing precipitation by $\pm 30\%$
55 or by decreasing temperature by $3.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($p < 0.05$). However, increasing temperature
56 showed only modest effects on tree radial growth rate. During the past 60 years, a
57 significant advancement of the starting dates of growth was detected, whereby non-
58 significant variability was found for the ending dates of growth. Contemporaneously,
59 the effect of previous winter temperature (previous December to current January) on
60 cambial growth initiation declined after 1980. Significant differences in the growth
61 onset dates only occurred when temperature was reduced by $4.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ or increased by
62 $5.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Moreover, both the onset and ending dates of growth in the study region were
63 more sensitive to cooling rather than to warming. If temperature will increase by 2°C
64 and precipitation will increase by 30% at the end of this century as predicted by some
65 Earth system models, tree radial growth might increase by 19% in the study region,
66 compared to the average during the period 1952–2010. Consequently, tree stem radial
67 growth is expected to increase under a warming and wetting climatic scenario, but
68 will decrease under drying conditions.

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71 **Key words:** Process-based model, xylogenesis, tree-ring width series, climate change,
72 sensitivity test, forest ecosystems

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87 1. Introduction

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89 The Earth's climate has changed during the past decades and will continue to change
90 further in the near future (IPCC, 2013). Consequently, terrestrial (Delgado-Baquerizo
91 et al., 2017; Pecl et al., 2017; Peñuelas et al., 2018) and marine (Henson et al., 2017;
92 Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno, 2012; Sweetman et al., 2017) ecosystems have already
93 clearly and fundamentally responded to such changes. Among these ecosystems,
94 forests are expected to be particularly sensitive, because the long lifespan of trees
95 prevents a prompt adaptation to quick environmental changes (Lindner et al., 2010).
96 Indeed, the relationships between climate and tree growth, hereafter defined as stem
97 radial growth, has been extensively investigated either by traditional
98 dendroclimatology (Dulamsuren et al., 2017; Fan and Bräuning, 2017; Huo et al.,
99 2017; Knutzen et al., 2017; Touchan et al., 2016), or by ecophysiological studies
100 (Allen et al., 2010; Anderegg et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013). A large part of the studies
101 confirms that water stress caused by drought and/or warming is a main driver of tree
102 mortality and decline in forest productivity (Williams et al., 2013; Zhao and Running,
103 2010). According to the most recent reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on
104 Climate Change (IPCC), climate will continue to warm. Based on such expectations,
105 simulations of forest ecosystem dynamics require precise knowledge on the future
106 growth of trees under changing climatic conditions.

107 Reliable climate predictions are crucial for quantifying the impacts of climate
108 change on tree growth. Earth system models are the current state-of-the-art climate
109 models (Bao et al., 2015), which simulate terrestrial and marine ecosystems and offer
110 a common framework for ecological research related to climatic processes, analyses
111 of vulnerability, impacts, and adaptation (Bonan and Doney, 2018). However, these
112 climate change scenarios still exhibit uncertainties and await further improvement
113 (Balaji et al., 2018; Rogers et al., 2017; Stouffer et al., 2017). For example, the model
114 uncertainty for the projected precipitation from five climate models on the Tibetan
115 Plateau represented 60% (Gu et al., 2018). Based on 20 general circulation models
116 from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), the magnitude of
117 seasonal and annual precipitation was overestimated in most regions of China (Chen
118 and Frauenfeld, 2014). Hence, in remote areas such as the mountainous regions of
119 north central China, where weather stations are sparse and climatic data are short-term
120 and unevenly distributed, the projections will be more uncertain or unreliable. This
121 holds especially true for precipitation, considering its high spatial variability and its
122 great environmental impacts. As a consequence, predicted changes in precipitation
123 showed relatively large biases appeared in the rainy season from May to September in
124 these areas (Guo et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018).

125 Tree-ring process-based models represent a reliable tool to better understand tree
126 growth under different climate change scenarios. Various process-based models have
127 been developed for tree-ring formation by integrating different related processes (for
128 details, see Guiot et al., 2014). Among the existing models, the Vaganov-Shashkin
129 (VS) model is probably most widely used (Shashkin and Vaganov, 1993; Vaganov et
130 al., 2011). For example, it has been extensively applied in the US and Russia

131 (Anchukaitis et al., 2006; Arzac et al., 2018; Evans et al., 2006; Popkova et al., 2018),
132 Mediterranean region (Sánchez-Salguero et al., 2017; Touchan et al., 2012) and China
133 (He et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2016).
134 Specifically, the successful simulations of intra-annual density fluctuations in tree
135 rings confirm that the VS model is suitable to study climate impact on tree-ring
136 structures (Popkova et al., 2018). Different versions or improvements of the VS
137 model have been released. VS-Lite is a simplified descendant of the full VS model
138 and takes monthly, rather than daily, accumulated precipitation and average
139 temperature data as inputs (Tolwinski-Ward et al., 2011). The VS-Oscilloscope is a
140 new visual parameterization approach of the VS model and allowing an easy
141 simulation of tree-ring growth (Shishov et al., 2016).

142 In this study, we simulated and predicted the response of wood formation to
143 climate change in semi-arid north central China by conducting sensitivity tests from
144 the VS model. We aim to (1) simulate wood formation (including growth rate and
145 xylem phenology) retrospectively for the past sixty years (1951–2010); (2) analyze
146 wood formation on the daily time scale and quantify the respective contributions of
147 precipitation and temperature; and (3) predict the response of wood formation to
148 different climate change scenarios using sensitivity tests. Our analyses tested the
149 following two hypotheses: i) the rate of radial growth is mostly influenced by soil
150 moisture; ii) xylem phenology, i.e. the starting and ending dates of stem growth, is
151 driven by temperature.

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153 **2. Material and Methods**

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155 2.1 Study site and climate

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157 The study site is represented by an altitudinal transect located between 2400 and 2740
158 m a.s.l. on the Hasi Mountain (37.0 °N, 104.5 °E) in Jingyuan County, Gansu
159 Province, north central China. According to the records of the nearest meteorological
160 station at Jingyuan (36.6 °N, 104.7 °E, 1398 m a.s.l.), the mean annual temperature
161 during the period 1951–2010 was 9.1 °C. January was the coldest month with a mean
162 temperature of -7.1 °C and July was the warmest one (22.6 °C on average). Annual
163 precipitation was 231 mm, 81% of which falling during May–September. During the
164 past six decades, we observed significant warming in winter, spring and autumn ($p \leq$
165 0.05), but not in summer ($p > 0.05$). In particular, June–September temperatures
166 showed a negative trend during 1951–1980, followed by a warming tendency. No
167 trend was observed for seasonal or annual precipitation.

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169 2.2 Tree-ring width chronology

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171 Chinese pine (*Pinus tabulaeformis* Carr.) is the dominant tree species in the study
172 region, mainly dominating the north-facing slopes. A total of 187 increment cores
173 from 110 living trees were extracted at breast height with increment borers. The
174 samples were prepared following standard dendrochronological procedures (Speer

175 2012) and the established tree-ring width chronology (AD 1698–2010) has been
176 published before (Kang et al., 2012). In this study, we focused on the tree-ring width
177 chronology during the instrumental period 1951–2010.

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179 2.3 VS modelling

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181 The Vaganov-Shashkin (VS) model is based on the assumption that climatic
182 influences are associated nonlinearly with tree-ring growth through controls on the
183 process of cell formation in the developing xylem (Shashkin and Vaganov, 1993;
184 Vaganov et al., 2011). Simulated tree-ring width series are determined by comparing
185 daily temperature and soil moisture budget to growth functions using the most
186 limiting factor (Fritts, 1976). The integral tree-ring growth rate $Gr(t)$ is estimated
187 based on the equation

$$188 \quad Gr(t) = GrE(t) \times \min \{GrT(t), GrW(t)\},$$

189 where $GrE(t)$, $GrT(t)$ and $GrW(t)$ are the partial growth rates, calculated
190 independently from solar irradiation, temperature, and soil moisture content,
191 respectively.

192 Daily precipitation and temperature records from the Jingyuan meteorological
193 station were used as input data. Considering the different elevations between the
194 meteorological station and the tree-ring sampling site, we adjusted the daily
195 temperature by a rate of 0.56 °C/100 m. The most appropriate physiological
196 parameters were determined by iteratively debugging and comparing the difference
197 between the actual and simulated tree-ring width series. To test the performance of the
198 model, the analyzed period was split into a calibration and verification sub-period,
199 and the respective root mean squared error (RMSE) and reduction-of-error statistic
200 (RE) were calculated. We also evaluated the relationships of their first-order
201 difference series between the modeled and actual tree-ring width chronology to show
202 the high-frequency variability. The parameters were calibrated using daily climate
203 data for 1951–1984. The final parameters were applied to generate tree-ring indices
204 for the verification period 1985–2010. The model outputs (GrT , GrW , GrE and Gr) of
205 each year were used for further analyses. Daily integral growth rates were
206 accumulated to estimate annual wood production. We also extracted the starting (start
207 of growing season, SOS) and ending (end of growing season, EOS) dates of growth to
208 study the temporal variability in xylem phenology.

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210 2.4 Sensitivity tests and statistics

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212 We performed sensitivity tests to assess the response of wood formation to different
213 climate change scenarios by progressively modifying the climatic factors introduced
214 into the model. Daily temperature and precipitation were modified by step of 0.5°C
215 and 10%, and within a range of ± 6.5 °C and $\pm 90\%$, respectively. Each scenario was
216 conducted independently, resulting in a total of 26 and 18 model simulations under
217 changing temperature and precipitation, respectively. The combined effects of
218 temperature and precipitation were also analyzed by modifying temperature by ± 1 –4

219 °C and precipitation by $\pm 30\%$ – 70% , resulting in 48 simulations. The estimated Gr
220 and xylem phenology dates were extracted from each climatic scenario. We tested for
221 significant mean differences in Gr after changing daily temperature or precipitation
222 using a *t*-test. Data were log-transformed ($\log x+1$) when distribution diverged from
223 normality. Such statistics were also applied to test for the differences in xylem
224 phenology.

225 The sensitivity of xylem phenology to climatic change was also tested by
226 statistical bootstrap correlations using DendroClim2002 (Biondi and Waikul, 2004).
227 Xylem phenology was the dependent variable and the regressors were the monthly
228 mean temperatures and the monthly sums of precipitation for each year for a time
229 window including the months from previous August to current September. Partial
230 correlations were performed to exclude collinearity within the climate data.
231 Correlations were based on the whole common period 1952–2010, and before and
232 after 1981 to investigate the stationarity of the relationships.

233

234 **3. Results**

235

236 By simulating wood formation during the past 60 years, we identified the most
237 sensitive parameters influencing tree growth, represented by minimum soil moisture
238 (W_{\min}), the lower range of optimal soil moisture ($W_{\text{opt}1}$), minimum temperature (T_{\min}),
239 and the lower range of the optimal temperature ($T_{\text{opt}1}$). Changes of these parameters
240 resulted in substantial differences between the simulated and actual tree-ring width
241 series. Using the estimated parameters (Table 1), we obtained consistent variability
242 during their common period (Fig. 1). The first year (1951) of the meteorological
243 record was excluded to reduce the influence of model initialization. Significant
244 positive correlations between the original as well as their first-order difference series
245 highlight the ability of the process-based VS model in the study region ($p < 0.01$;
246 Table 2). The positive values of the reduction-of-error also indicate robustness of the
247 results. Moreover, even if we changed temperature or precipitation for the sensitivity
248 tests, 81.5% of the correlations (in total 98 correlations) between simulated tree-ring
249 width series and the actual chronology still passed the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

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251 **3.1 Wood production and climate**

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253 According to the model output, the integral growth rate (Gr) of tree stem radial
254 growth was mostly affected by soil moisture (GrW), temperature (GrT) or solar
255 irradiance (GrE). In particular, GrW limited radial growth from late April (day of year
256 (DOY) 115) to late August (DOY 238) because partial growth rate due to GrW was
257 generally lower than partial growth rate due to GrT (Fig. 2). Temperature mainly
258 influenced Gr from late August to the end of September (DOY 274). On average, soil
259 moisture limited radial growth for 124 days and temperature for 31 days.
260 Consequently, as accumulated from the integral growth rate, 81 and 13% of radial
261 growth was determined by soil moisture and temperature, respectively.

262 A prominent pattern for the variability of Gr from the sensitivity tests was

263 revealed (Fig. 3). By separately increasing or reducing precipitation, daily average
264 and maximum growth rates were strongly increased or decreased, respectively,
265 especially during DOY 150–240 (Fig. 3a). However, changes in temperature showed
266 only modest influence on tree radial growth (Fig. 3b). A *t*-test revealed significant
267 differences in Gr during June–August (DOY 150–240) under changing precipitation
268 by $\pm 30\%$ ($p < 0.05$). Mean Gr became significantly different after a cooling of 3.0 °C
269 ($p < 0.05$). However, increasing temperature showed a modest effect Gr, even under
270 warming by 6.5 °C. A combined effect of changing precipitation and temperature
271 revealed that the growth rate was significantly different between wet and dry
272 conditions (Fig. 3c). Compared to the dry scenarios, a prominent higher growth rate
273 (including mean and maximum Gr) occurred if the climate was wet.

274 The variability in wood production under different climate change scenarios was
275 further evaluated from the accumulated integral growth rate during the main growing
276 season June–August (Fig. 4). Accordingly, warm and wet condition could definitely
277 enhance wood production (Fig. 4a). Compared to the measured tree-ring width under
278 current climate conditions, the highest variability in wood production could achieve
279 37.3% with increase of temperature and precipitation by 2 °C and 70%, respectively.
280 Interestingly, wood production reduced under a cooling of 3 °C and increasing
281 precipitation by 30%. Moreover, cooling by 4 °C associated to increasing
282 precipitation (+30%, +50%, +70%) could not stimulate wood production (Fig. 4c).
283 Nevertheless, wood production was consistently reduced under warm and dry or cold
284 and dry situations (Fig. 4b, d), depending on the amplitudes of changing precipitation
285 or temperature. The reduction reached 58% and 62% if precipitation reduced by 70%
286 and temperature changed by $\pm 4^\circ\text{C}$.

287

288 3.2 Xylem phenology and climate

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290 During the past 60 years, a significant advancement of the starting dates of tree radial
291 growth was found in the study region ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 5a). The initiation dates
292 advanced by 2.3 d/decade. More interestingly, we detected a higher rate of 6.4
293 d/decade before 1981. However, the rate reduced and was not significant after 1981 (p
294 > 0.05). No significant trend of the ending dates of growth from 1952 to 2010 or from
295 1981 to 2010 was observed (Fig. 5b). However, a prominent advancing tendency
296 occurred before 1981, with a rate of 4.1 d/decade.

297 The sensitivity of xylem phenology to climate change tested by bootstrap
298 correlations during 1952–2010 showed that SOS was influenced by the temperature of
299 the previous winter (Fig. 6a). Specifically, mean temperature of previous December
300 and current January significantly influenced the onset dates of growth ($p < 0.05$). The
301 effect of monthly precipitation from previous August to current September was not
302 significant (Fig. 6b). Considering EOS, we detected significant influences of summer
303 and early autumn temperature, especially in June, July and September (Fig. 6c).
304 March temperature also positively affected EOS. Precipitation exhibited significant
305 correlations with EOS during previous December (positive), current February
306 (positive) and July (negative) (Fig. 6d). The negative influence in July was probably

307 caused by the collinearity between temperature and precipitation, because partial
308 correlations further confirmed that the significant correlation with precipitation
309 disappeared when controlled for temperature. Hence, we could not identify a
310 significant correlation between summer precipitation and EOS in the study region.
311 Assembled with different seasonal climatic data, the highest correlation with SOS was
312 found with temperature averaged from previous December to current January ($r = -$
313 $0.56, p < 0.01$), while EOS was mostly determined by June–September temperature (r
314 $= 0.40, p < 0.01$) during 1952–2010. More interestingly, the significant correlation
315 between SOS and previous December to current January temperature robustly existed
316 during 1952–1980 (Fig. 6a). However, such correlations disappeared over 1981–2010,
317 under warming conditions. No pattern of such changed correlations for EOS was
318 observed (Fig. 6c, d).

319 Sensitivity tests indicated significant linear trends for SOS and EOS after
320 changing temperature (Fig. 7, right panel). Significant differences in SOS occurred
321 under a cooling of 4.5 °C or a warming of 5.5 °C ($p < 0.05$). Differences in EOS were
322 not significant even under a warming of 6.5 °C. By independently changing
323 temperature, an average slope of 4–5 d per degree Celsius was revealed for SOS and
324 EOS. In particular, we detected significant differences in the slopes under warming
325 compared the cooling scenario. The slopes of SOS and EOS were -6.1 and 5.4 d per
326 degree Celsius under cooling, reducing to -3.8 and 3.8 d per degree Celsius under
327 warming. In contrast, no clear pattern was observed between xylem phenology and
328 changing precipitation (Fig. 7, left panel). Significant differences in EOS occurred
329 when precipitation was reduced to 60%, whereas increases in precipitation did not
330 influence EOS. Combined effects of changing temperature and precipitation on xylem
331 phenology indicated that warm and wet conditions could advance SOS and delay EOS.
332 On the contrary, cold and dry conditions mainly delayed SOS and advanced EOS. No
333 clear patterns were observed under the warm and dry conditions or cold but wet
334 scenarios for the two xylem phenologies.

335

336 **4. Discussion**

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338 In this study, we analyzed wood formation during the past 60 years (1951–2010) in
339 semi-arid north central China, to evaluate the variability of growth and xylem
340 phenology under different climatic change scenarios. For this purpose, we compared
341 measured and simulated tree growth and then simulated stem radial growth under
342 several climatic scenarios using the process-based Vaganov-Shashkin (VS) model.
343 The high consistency between the actual and simulated tree-ring width series confirms
344 that the VS model is suitable to describe wood formation and to identify climate-
345 growth relationships in the study region. Discrepancies exist in the simulated results
346 which could be due to the fact that actual tree-ring width is not only affected by
347 temperature and precipitation, but also by other climatic or environmental factors that
348 are not integrated in the model. Nevertheless, progressively modifying daily
349 temperature and precipitation in the model represents one alternative way for the
350 simulation of wood formation under different climate change scenarios although

351 uncertainties should be kept in mind.

352 Our first hypothesis was confirmed by the results, which revealed that rate of
353 radial growth was mostly influenced by soil moisture. Herein, the soil moisture data
354 were generated by the VS model as a function of daily precipitation, transpiration and
355 runoff (Evans et al., 2006). Since such data may be affected by temperature we
356 recommend some caution when interpreting this aspect. We quantified the respective
357 contributions of temperature (13%) and precipitation induced moisture variability
358 (81%) on tree-ring width series during the past 60 years. In dry regions or areas
359 characterized by shallow soils with limited ability to preserve water, the drought-
360 growth relationships are expected to be strong. Under conditions of low precipitation
361 or limited soil moisture, trees respond with reduced cell growth rates (Chaves et al.,
362 2002; Popkova et al., 2018), smaller cell lumen areas (Belien et al., 2012), or reduced
363 wood production rates (Arend and Fromm, 2007). For example, following an
364 exceptional summer drought in 2015, stems of six species across central Europe
365 sharply ceased radial growth at the onset of the drought event and hardly recovered
366 after the drought event (Dietrich et al., 2019). Drought can substantially reduce gas
367 exchange and induce xylem embolism (Balducci et al., 2015). During the period
368 1985–2014, the increasing trend of summer drought not only resulted in a reduced
369 wood formation, but also in an acclimation of the hydraulic architecture of *L. sibirica*
370 in Inner Asia (Khansaritoreh et al., 2018). Additionally, tree-ring width chronologies
371 also showed significant correlations with precipitation or drought records during the
372 past six decades in the arid and semi-arid regions of north China (Fang et al., 2010,
373 2012; Kang et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2014).

374 The second hypothesis affirming that wood phenology was driven by temperature
375 was also confirmed. The starting and ending dates of growth were influenced by
376 previous winter and current late summer to early autumn temperatures, respectively.
377 Accordingly, warmer climate conditions could induce earlier initiations or later
378 terminations of radial growth. Our simulations support an increasing number of
379 studies illustrating the key role of temperature in determining xylem phenology in
380 cold ecosystems (Deslauriers et al., 2017; Richardson et al., 2018), as well in moist
381 (Lupi et al., 2012; Rossi et al., 2008), as in dry sites (Li et al., 2017). Consistently,
382 experiments conducted in a winter-dormant ecosystem robustly showed that warming
383 treatments directly influence vegetation phenology at both sides of the annual period
384 of vegetation activity (Richardson et al., 2018). A positive correlation was identified
385 between spring phenological phases and March–May temperatures by weekly
386 monitored results during 2008–2016 in Slovenia (Prislan et al., 2019). However, the
387 significant influence of precipitation or drought on the initiation of xylem phenology
388 in some arid study regions (Ren et al., 2017; Ziaco et al., 2018) was not confirmed by
389 our findings. More interestingly, we found that severe drought may trigger an earlier
390 end of growth in our study region. Specifically, in two years (2012 and 2013) of
391 monitored data, a significant influence of drought, but a small effect of temperature
392 on the ending dates was reported for Qilian juniper (*Juniperus przewalskii* Kom.) in
393 cold and arid regions of the northeastern Tibetan Plateau (Zhang et al., 2018).
394 Definitely, their two years monitoring data probably occurred under different weather

395 conditions and therefore may result in some bias. Notably, input data in our model
396 were only available from the nearest meteorological station located in a valley (1398
397 m a.s.l.), while the sampling sites were located at higher elevations (2400–2740 m
398 a.s.l.). If soil moisture was not a limiting factor for the onset of growth in the valley,
399 we expect that soil moisture should also not constrain the initiation of growth at
400 higher elevations, considering that precipitation increases with elevation in regions
401 affected by the Eastern Asian monsoons (Lu et al., 2007). In fact, limited monitored
402 data indicate that annual precipitation during 2013 and 2014 at the higher elevation
403 site where our samples were taken was on average 48% higher than at the Jingyuan
404 meteorological station (data not published).

405 Reliability of the xylem phenological data was based on the significant
406 correlations between the simulated and actual tree-ring width chronology during the
407 past 60 years. Consistent variability was also found with the modeled SOS and EOS
408 in the Qilian Mountains, northwestern China (Zhang et al., 2016). We further
409 compared our simulation with available monitored xylogenesis data in the study
410 region. By using the micro-coring method, Zeng et al. (2018) monitored Chinese pine
411 xylogenesis in the two years 2013 and 2014. Six monitored trees had an average age
412 of 49 ± 10 (mean \pm standard deviation) yr and three trees had old ages of 286 ± 16 yr.
413 Cambial activity in 2013 occurred in DOY 111–141 in their two age-classified pines,
414 termination was detected in DOY 207–214. In 2014, the two dates were DOY 142–
415 147 and DOY 218–224, respectively. Considering that our simulation ended in the
416 year 2010, we used daily climate data for the two years 2013 and 2014 and performed
417 the modelling with the estimated parameters in the calibration period. Results showed
418 that the corresponding SOS and EOS were DOY 120–132 and 262–264, respectively.
419 Similar SOS was detected with their monitored data, but with an EOS difference of
420 almost 40 days. The large difference between the monitored (9 trees) and our
421 modelling (110 trees) tree population could explain such results.

422 During the past 60 years, the advancement of the starting dates of growth was
423 probably induced by the warming trend of winter temperature. The change rate of 2.3
424 d/decade is in agreement with results conducted on the Tibetan Plateau (2.8 d/decade)
425 (Yang et al., 2017). In contrast, no pattern was observed for the ending dates of
426 growth because of weak changes of June–September temperature. However, a
427 significant delay of the termination of growth was found on the Tibetan Plateau (Yang
428 et al., 2017). More interestingly, the significant warming over 1981–2010 may have
429 resulted in a reduced effect of previous winter temperatures (previous December to
430 January) on the initiation of growth after 1980. Furthermore, because of the
431 significant cooling trend of June–September temperatures during 1951–1980,
432 termination of the growing season was significantly advanced. However, the ending
433 dates did not show significant delaying trend although significant warming had
434 occurred during 1981–2010. Moreover, as indicated by the sensitivity test, the slopes
435 of starting and ending dates of growth were significantly different under cooling and
436 warming scenarios. We herein propose that xylem phenology in our study region is
437 more sensitive to cooling rather than to warming. Consistent sensitive results were
438 also detected by a three-year reciprocal translocation experiment on the Tibetan

439 Plateau, which showed that the first flowering date of early spring flowering plants
440 was four times less sensitive to warming than to cooling (Wang et al., 2014). The
441 asymmetric response of plant phenological series to temperature was mostly
442 explained by the plastic and adaptive responses of phenophases to temperature change
443 gradients (Meng et al., 2016). Cambial activity starts when temperature exceeds a
444 critical value (Begum et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013, 2017; Rossi et al., 2008). Monitored
445 results showed that an average value of 4–5 °C of the minimum daily mean
446 temperature is needed for xylogenesis in conifers in Europe and Canada (Rossi et al.,
447 2008). As far as we know, however, there are no available monitored data to confirm
448 this conclusion near our study site. Localized heating and cooling experiments on the
449 stem, as conducted by Gričar et al. (2006, 2007), are needed to provide direct
450 evidence of cambial sensitivity to temperature change in the future.

451 As predicted by the Earth system models participating in the Coupled Model
452 Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), temperature near the study region will
453 increase by 2°C and precipitation will increase by 30% under the scenario of
454 Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 2.6 until the end of this century. Herein,
455 this scenario describes an all-out effort to limit global warming to below 2°C, with
456 emissions decreasing sharply after 2020 until being zero from 2080 onward. Under
457 such climate change scenario, the starting dates of growth would advance by 8.9 days,
458 while the ending dates of growth would delay by 10.4 days, compared to the average
459 during the period 1952–2010. Such warm and wet conditions could definitely benefit
460 forest production, which may increase wood formation at our study site by 19%.
461 Under RCP 8.5 scenario, a business-as-usual scenario with increasing greenhouse gas
462 emissions over time, temperature and precipitation will increase by 4°C and 70%,
463 respectively. Thus, wood formation in our semi-arid study region might increase by
464 up to 34% in the next century. However, such simplified linear relationships between
465 wood formation and climatic data may be misleading since extreme conditions were
466 not considered during our model calibration procedure. Thus, *in situ* experiments and
467 monitoring research are absolutely required in the next step. Since all results
468 presented here were limited by the mechanisms and parameter settings of the model
469 itself, caution should be paid against any over-interpretation. Nevertheless, the
470 presented quantified response of wood production to different climate change
471 scenarios provides a theoretical framework for ecological research related to forest
472 ecosystems, its vulnerability to climate change, and to possible adaptation.

473

474 **Conclusions**

475

476 In this study, we simulated and predicted the response of wood formation to climate
477 change by the process-based Vaganov-Shashkin model in semi-arid north central
478 China. Our two hypotheses are confirmed by the results, which revealed that during
479 the period 1952–2010, tree stem radial growth rate was mostly influenced by soil
480 moisture, while xylem phenology (i.e. starting and ending dates of growth) was driven
481 by temperature. The onset of growth significantly advanced, corresponding to a
482 warming trend in winter temperature. In contrast, the linear trend of the ending dates

483 of growth was not significant. Both the starting and ending dates of growth were more
484 sensitive to climate cooling, compared to the warming scenario. We provide
485 quantitative estimates of wood production variability under different climatic change
486 scenarios that may occur in the future. Our study therefore bears the potential to
487 improve and to test tree growth related forest dynamic models. In a next step, long-
488 term (more than 10 years) monitoring or *in situ* data are expected to validate the
489 modeling results. Similar studies based on other tree ecophysiological models are
490 needed to obtain a consistent picture of forest response to climate change in complex
491 mountain environments.

492

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494

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505

506 **Conflict of Interest**

507

508 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
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512 **References**

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799 **Table and Figure captions**

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801 **Table 1** Tree-ring parameters used in this study.

802 **Table 2** Statistical results for the model performance during the two separated
803 calibration (1952–1984) and verification (1985–2010) periods.

804

805 **Fig.1** Comparison between the actual (black straight line) and simulated (gray dash-
806 dotted line) tree-ring width series during the past 60 years. Both series were
807 standardized for direct comparison.

808 **Fig. 2** Simulated integral growth rate (Gr) and mean relative growth rates due to soil
809 moisture (GrW), temperature (GrT) and solar irradiance (GrE) averaged over the
810 period 1952–2010. Standard deviations are shown as colored bars.

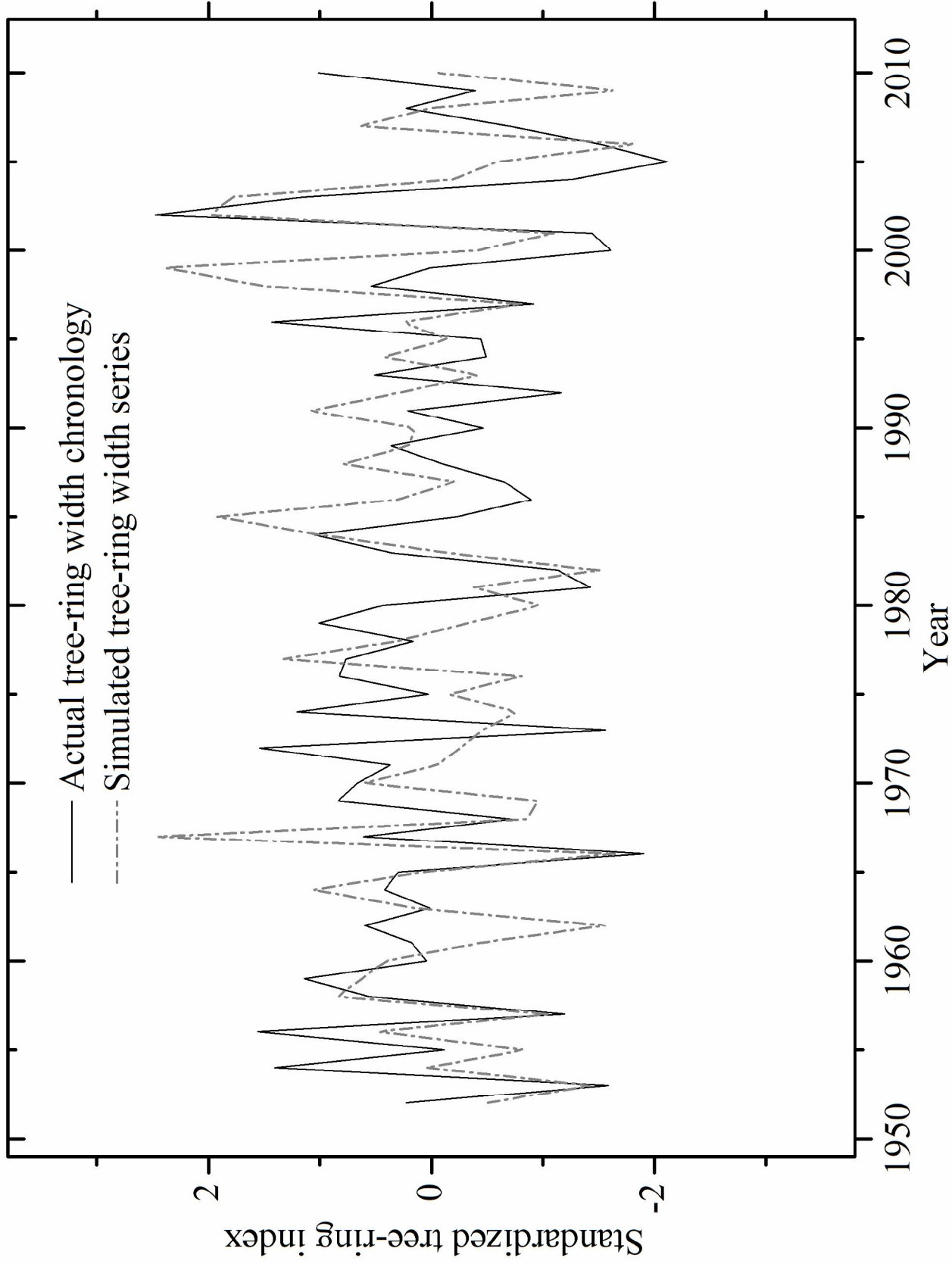
811 **Fig. 3** Variability of integral growth rate (Gr) under different climate change
812 scenarios. Raw data is the Gr under current climate conditions. Note that in (a) and (b)
813 we just showed the limited climate change scenarios for visual comparison.

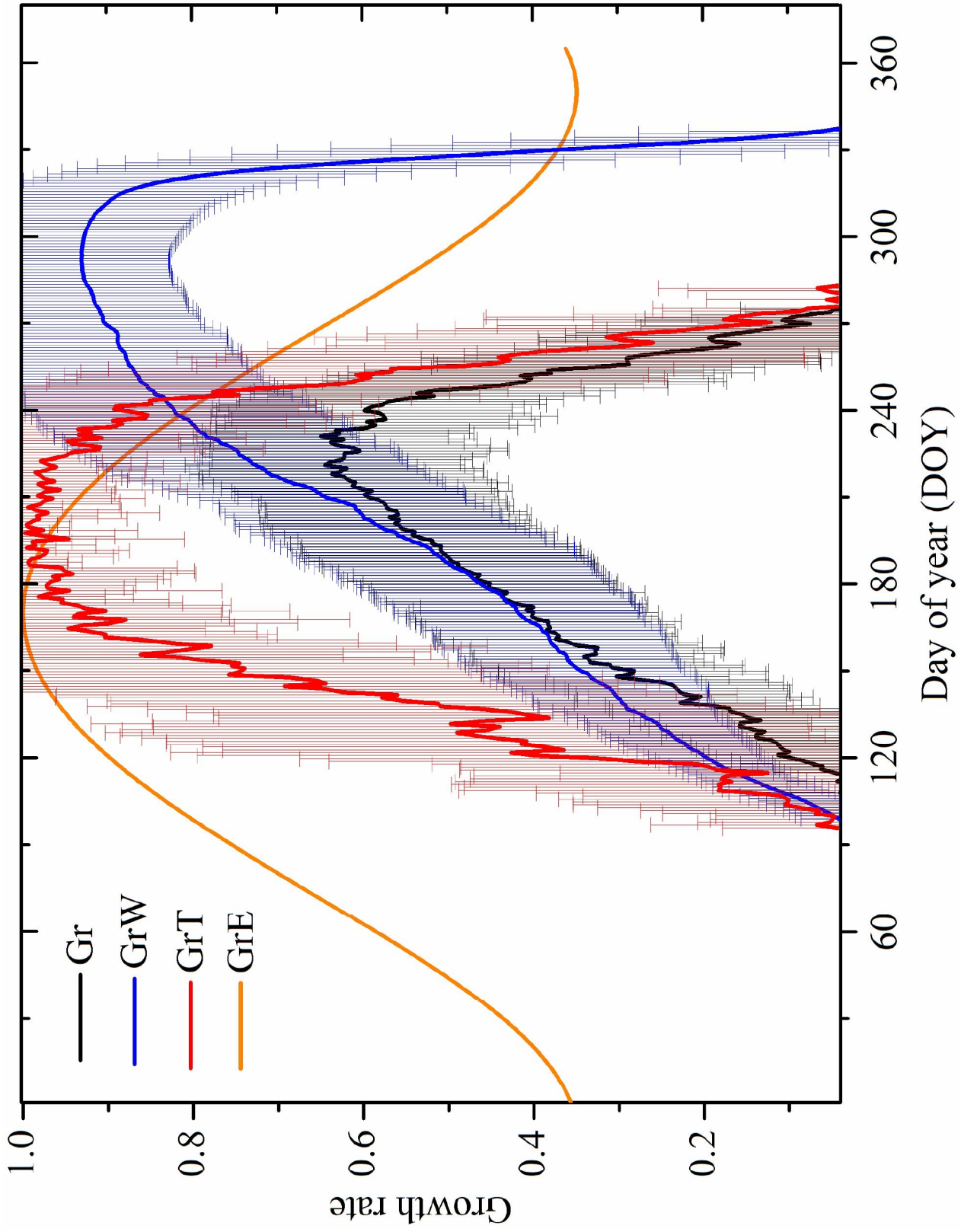
814 **Fig. 4** Variability of wood production under different climate change scenarios
815 compared to the measured ring width under current climate conditions. Positive and
816 negative values indicate stimulation and inhibition of wood formation, respectively.

817 **Fig. 5** Characteristics of the simulated starting (a) and ending dates (b) of the growing
818 season in the study region. The linear trends as well as the respective statistical results
819 during the three periods 1952–1980 (blue dashed line), 1981–2010 (orange dashed
820 line) and 1952–2010 (black dash-dotted line) are shown.

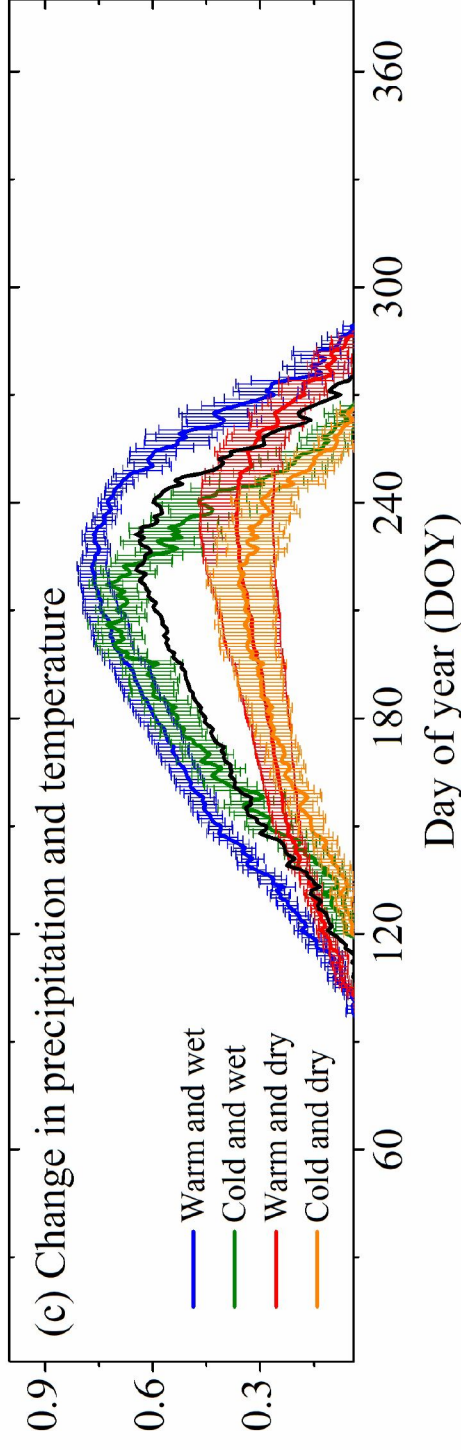
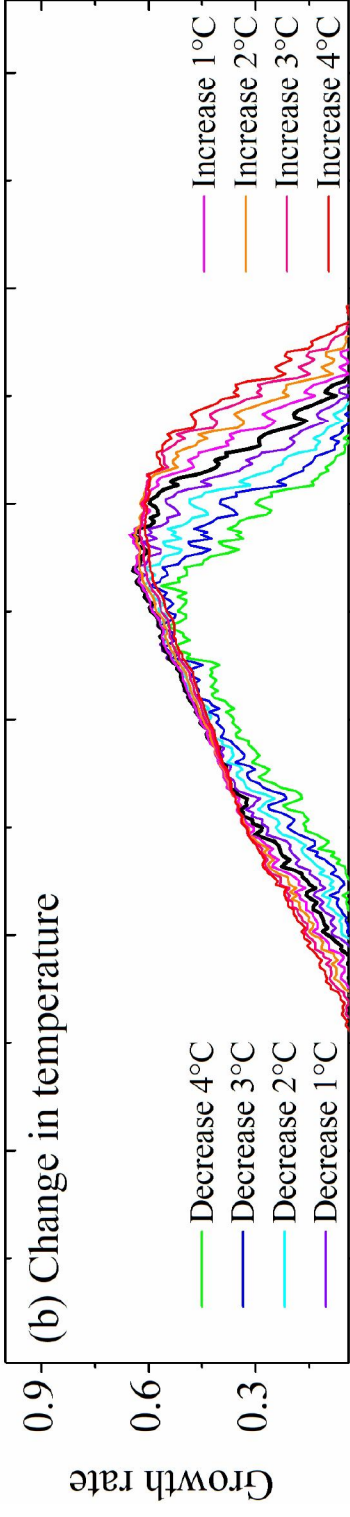
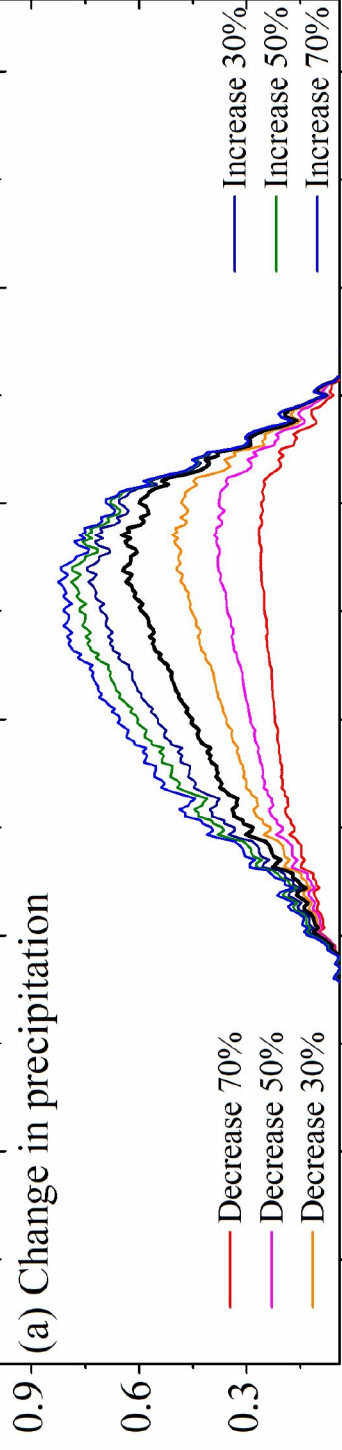
821 **Fig. 6** Sensitivity of xylem phenology to climatic data tested by statistical bootstrap
822 correlations calculated from previous August to current September for the three
823 periods 1952–2010 (black bars), 1952–1980 (blue bars), and 1981–2010 (red bars).
824 Significant correlations are marked with filled histograms ($p < 0.05$). The months
825 from August to December of the previous years are marked with lower case letters on
826 the x-axis.

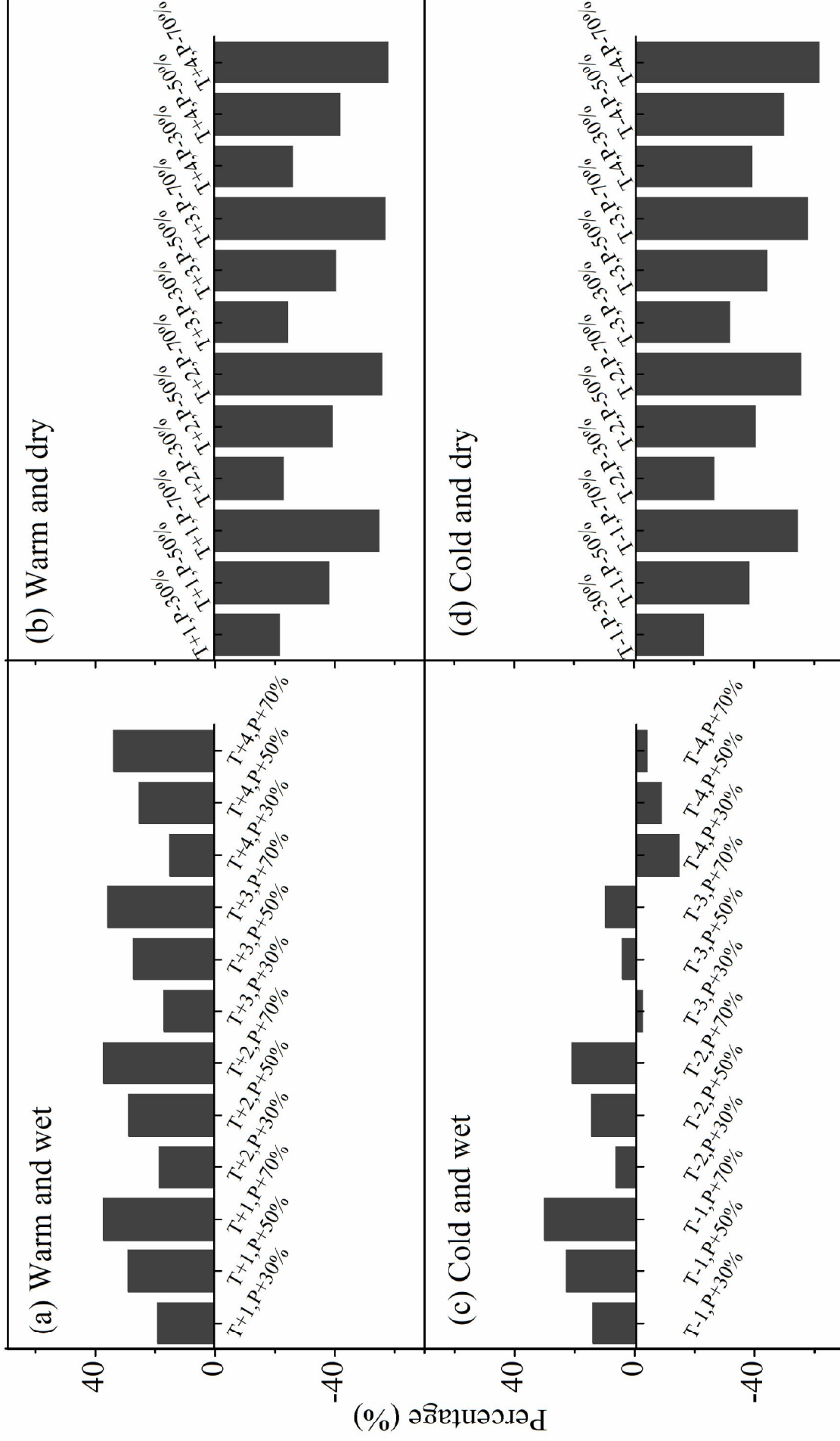
827 **Fig. 7** Variability of xylem phenology under different climate change scenarios. Olive
828 dots denote the starting dates of growth (SOS), while the red dots indicate the ending
829 dates of growth (EOS). The left and right panels are the scenarios under the change in
830 precipitation and temperature data, respectively. The black triangle is the average
831 xylem phenological data during 1952–2010. Significant linear trends are shown after
832 changed temperature data. “+” means increase, “-” indicates decrease, and 0 denotes
833 no change.



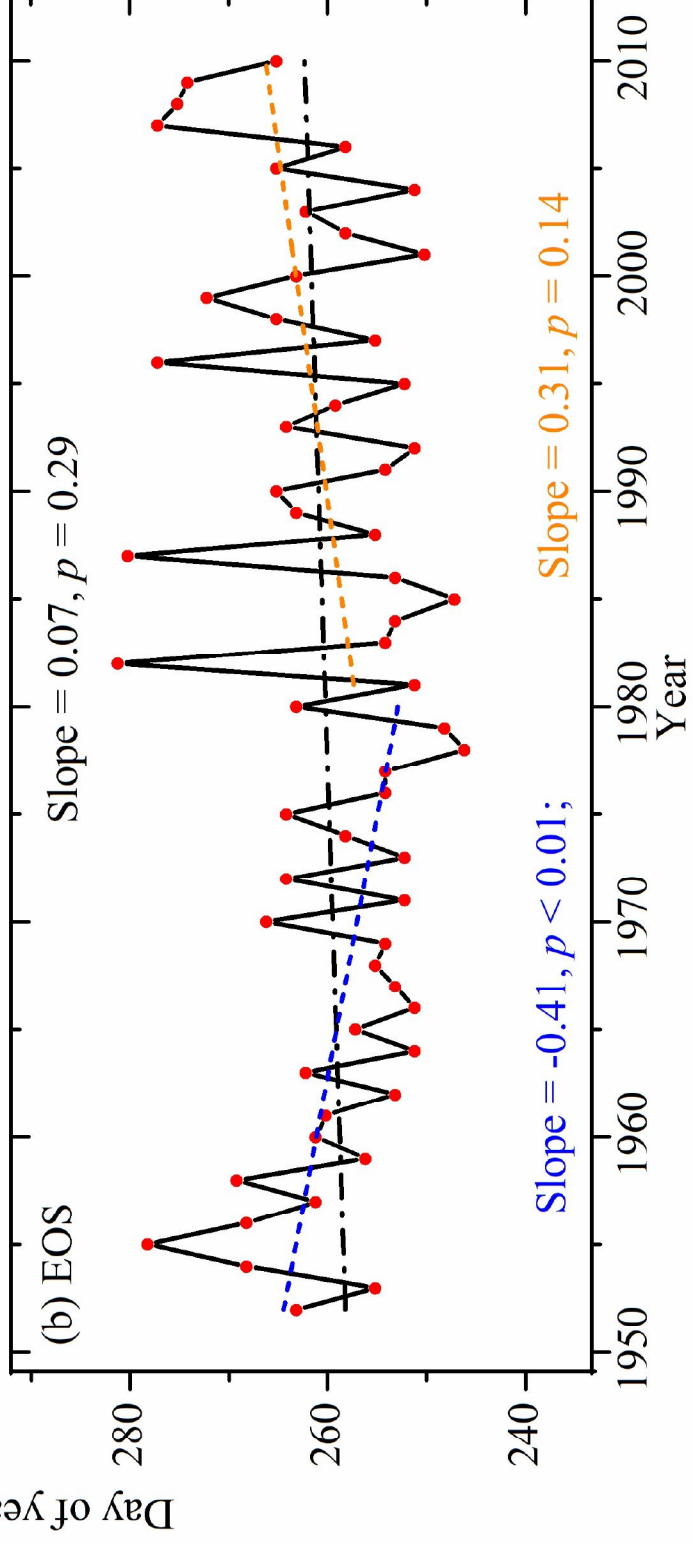
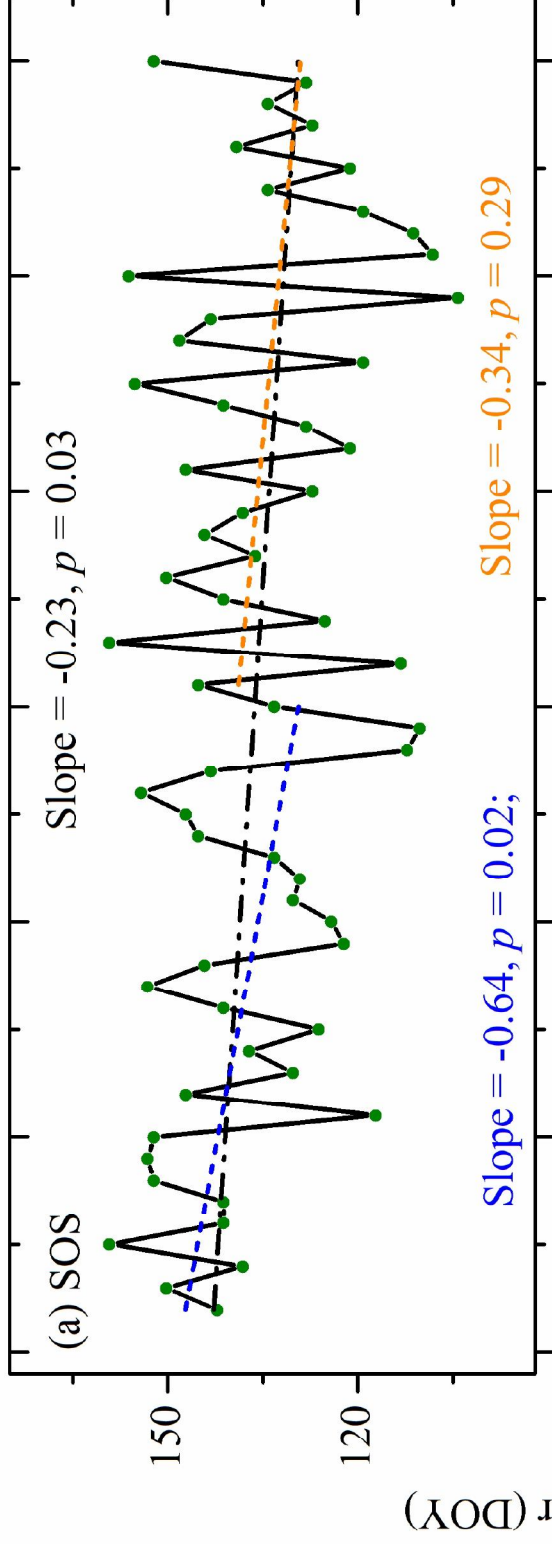


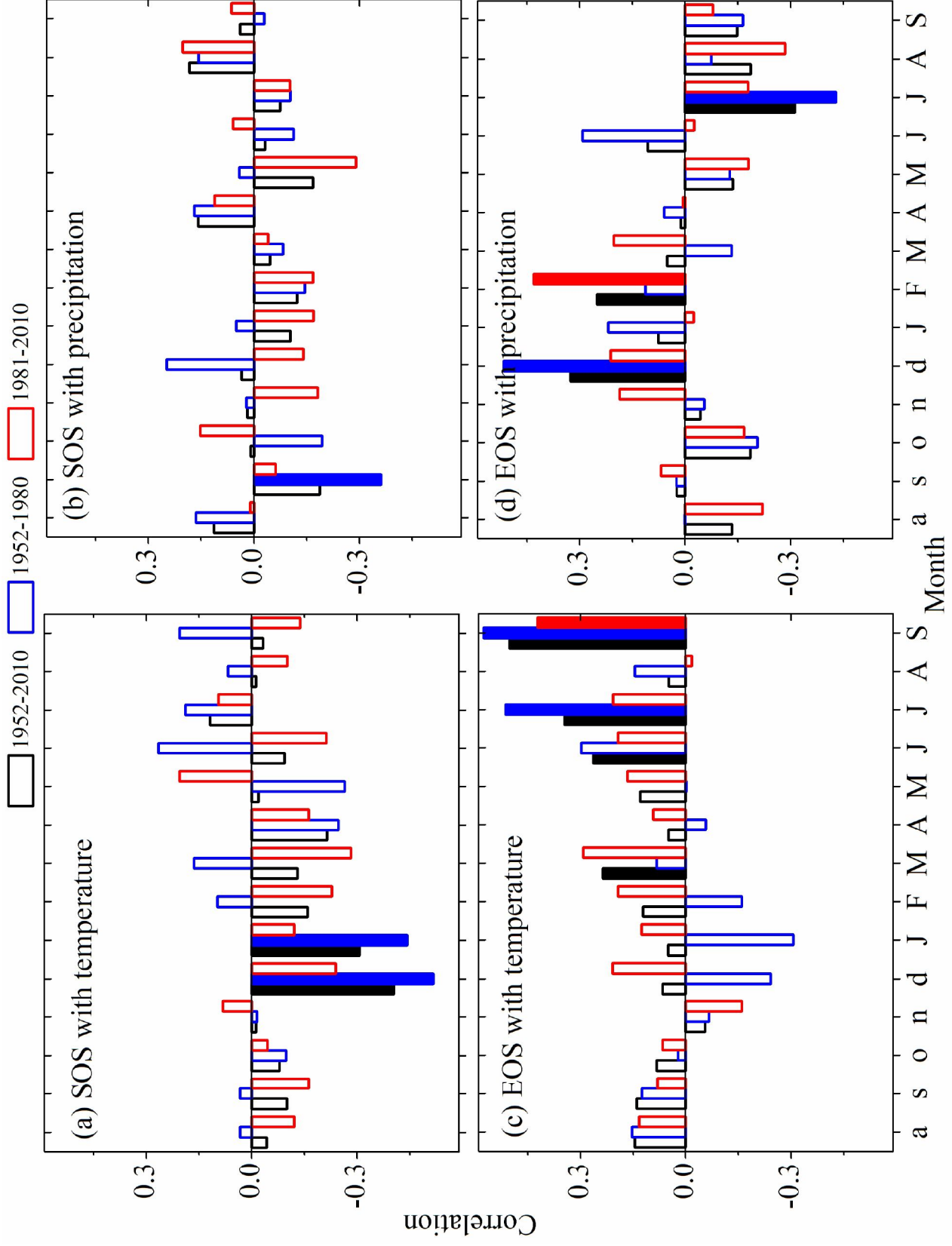
— Raw data





Change in precipitation and temperature





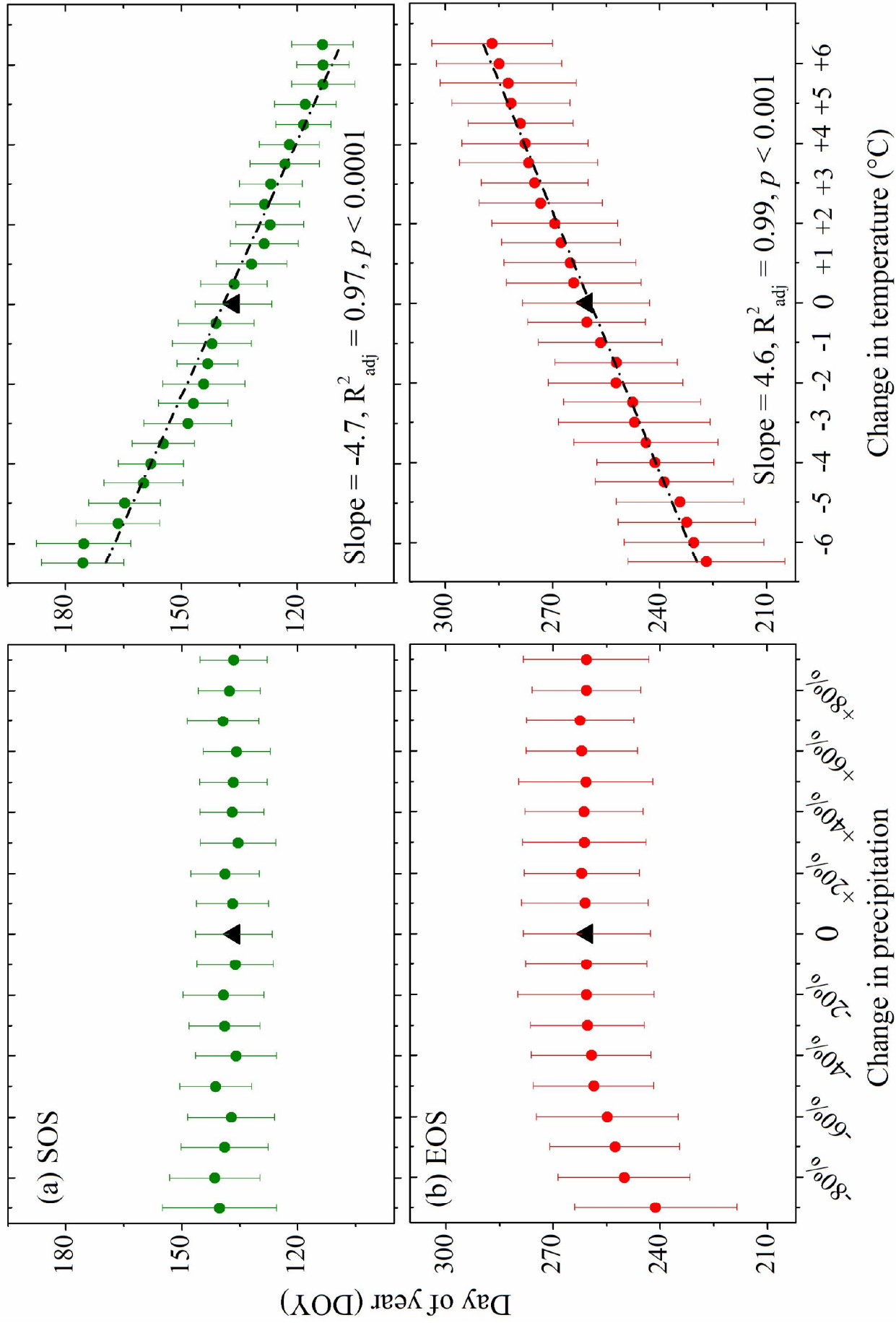


Table 1 Tree-ring parameters used in this study.

Parameter	Description (Units)	Value
T_{\min}	Minimum temperature for tree growth (°C)	7.7
$Topt_1$	Lower end of range of optimal temperatures (°C)	12.5
$Topt_2$	Upper end of range of optimal temperatures (°C)	24.0
T_{\max}	Maximum temperature for tree growth (°C)	31.0
W_{\min}	Minimum soil moisture for tree growth, relative to saturated soil (v/vs)	0.01
$Wopt_1$	Lower end of range of optimal soil moistures (v/vs)	0.22
$Wopt_2$	Upper end of range of optimal soil moisture (v/vs)	0.31
W_{\max}	Maximum soil moisture for tree growth (v/vs)	0.42
W_0	Initial soil moisture (v/vs)	0.08
W_w	Minimum soil moisture (wilting point, v/vs)	0.04
T_{beg}	Sum of temperature to start growth (°C)	40
P_{\max}	Maximum daily precipitation for saturated soil (mm/day)	20
K_1	Fraction of precipitation penetrating soil (not caught by crown) (rel. unit)	0.36
K_2	First coefficient for calculation of transpiration (mm/day)	0.06
K_3	Second coefficient for calculation of transpiration (mm/day)	0.12
V_s	Critical growth rate	0.04

Table 2 Statistical results for the model performance during the two separated calibration (1952–1984) and verification (1985–2010) periods.

Period	R	RMSE	RE	R^{-1}	$RMSE^{-1}$
1952–1984	0.48	0.28	0.03	0.50	0.39
1985–2010	0.57	0.29	0.23	0.62	0.33

R: correlation coefficient; RMSE: root mean squared error; RE: reduction-of-error. The superscript -1 indicates that the value is calculated from their first-order difference series.