

Multiscale monsoon variability during the last two climatic cycles revealed by spectral signals in Chinese loess and speleothem records

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1 **Abstract**

2 The East Asian Monsoon exhibits a significant variability on timescales ranging from tectonic
3 to centennial as inferred from loess, speleothem and marine records. However, the relative
4 contributions and plausible driving forces of the monsoon variability at different timescales
5 remain controversial. Here, we spectrally explore time series of loess grain size and
6 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records and decompose the two proxies into intrinsic components using
7 Empirical Mode Decomposition method. Spectral results of these two proxies display clear
8 glacial-and-orbital periodicities corresponding to ice-volume and orbital cycles, and evident
9 millennial signals which are in pace with Heinrich rhythm and DO cycles. Six intrinsic
10 components are parsed out from loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records, respectively,
11 and combined signals are correlated further with possible driving factors including the ice
12 volume, insolation and North Atlantic cooling. The relative contributions of six components
13 differ significantly between loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records. Coexistence of
14 glacial and orbital components in the loess grain size implies that both ice volume and
15 insolation have distinctive impacts on the winter monsoon variability, in contrast to the
16 predominant precessional impact on the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variability. Moreover, the millennial
17 components are evident with variances of 13 % and 17 % in loess grain size and speleothem
18 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records, respectively. A comparison of the millennial-scale signals of these two proxies
19 reveals that abrupt changes in the winter and summer monsoons over the last 260 kyr share
20 common features and similar driving forces linked to high-latitude Northern Hemisphere
21 climate.

22

23 **1 Introduction**

24 The East Asian Monsoon (EAM), as a significant part of Asian monsoon circulation, plays an
25 important role in driving the palaeoenvironmental changes in East Asia (An, 2000). The
26 EAM fluctuations can be quantified at different time intervals ranging from thousands of
27 years to intraseasonal periodicities, and the primary driving force of the monsoon variability
28 on each timescale is not unique (An et al., 2015). Multiscale monsoon variability has been
29 inferred from numerous proxies generated from deep-sea sediments (e.g., Wang et al., 1999;

1 Wang et al., 2005), eolian deposits (e.g., An, 2000, Sun et al., 2012), and speleothem records
2 (e.g., Wang et al., 2001, 2008), which provide valuable insights into the changing processes
3 and potential driving forces of the EAM variability. In particular, Chinese loess has been
4 investigated intensively as a direct and complete preserver of the EAM changes, with great
5 efforts on deciphering on the EAM variability on both orbital and millennial scales (e.g., An
6 et al., 1990; Ding et al., 1994, 2002; Porter and An, 1995; Guo et al., 1996; Chen et al., 1997;
7 Liu and Ding, 1998; Liu et al., 1999; An, 2000; Chen et al., 2006).

8 On the orbital timescale, the EAM variation recorded by Chinese loess-paleosol sequences
9 was characterized by an alternation between the dry-cold winter monsoon and the wet-warm
10 summer monsoon (Liu and Ding, 1998; An, 2000). A strong 100 kyr periodicity was detected
11 in the Chinese loess particle size record, implying an important impact of glacial boundary
12 conditions on the EAM evolution (Ding et al., 1995). Obliquity and precession signals were
13 also clear in loess based proxies (Liu et al., 1999; Ding et al., 2002; Sun et al., 2006). Apart
14 from these dominant periodicities, some harmonic periodicities related to orbital parameters
15 were also found in the EAM records, such as the ~75, ~55, and ~30 kyr spectral peaks (Lu et
16 al., 2003; Sun et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2011). In contrast, absolute-dated speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
17 records revealed an evident 23 kyr cycle, implying a dominant role of summer insolation in
18 driving the summer monsoon variability (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009). Different
19 variances of obliquity and precession signals in monsoonal proxies suggest that the responses
20 of the winter and summer monsoons to the orbital forcing were dissimilar (Shi et al., 2011).
21 The various patterns of orbital-scale monsoon fluctuations between the loess proxies and
22 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records likely reflected the sensitivity of various archives and proxies to the
23 EAM variability (Clemens et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2015).

24 At the millennial timescale, the rapid monsoon oscillations inferred from Chinese loess were
25 not only persistent during the last two glacial cycles (Porter and An, 1995; Guo et al., 1996;
26 An and Porter, 1997; Chen et al., 1997; Ding et al., 1999; Sun et al., 2010; Yang and Ding,
27 2014), but were also evident during early glacial extreme climatic conditions (Lu et al., 1999).
28 The millennial-scale monsoon variability during the last glacial period was strongly coupled
29 to climate changes recorded in Greenland ice-core and North Atlantic sediments, indicating a

1 dynamic connection between the EAM variability and the high-latitude Northern Hemisphere
2 climate (Porter and An, 1995; Guo et al., 1996; Chen et al., 1997; Fang et al., 1999). Recently,
3 a combination of proxies from Chinese loess, speleothem, and Greenland ice-core with
4 modeling results indicated that the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation might have
5 played an important role in driving the rapid monsoon changes in East Asia during the last
6 glaciation (Sun et al., 2012).

7
8 Though previous studies have revealed that past EAM variabilities principally comprise a
9 mixture of forcing signals from ice volume, solar radiation, and North Atlantic climate, the
10 relative contributions of glacial, orbital and millennial forcing to the EAM variability remain
11 unclear. In this study, we conducted a comprehensive investigation of multiscale EAM
12 variability over the last 260 kyr, by analyzing mean grain size (MGS) record from a Gulang
13 loess sequence (a proxy indicator of the East Asian winter monsoon intensity) and
14 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record of Hulu and Sanbao caves (a debatable indicator of the summer
15 monsoon intensity). Our objectives are to evaluate the relative contributions of
16 glacial–interglacial to millennial signals registered in these two widely employed monsoon
17 proxies, and to emphasize the glacial-interglacial discrepancy and millennial similarity
18 between loess and speleothem records during the last two glacial cycles.

19 20 **2 Data and methods**

21 The data for the loess sequence was collected at a section in Gulang, Gansu Province, China
22 (37.49°N, 102.88°E, 2400 ma.s.l.), which is situated in the northwestern part of the Chinese
23 Loess Plateau. It is about 10 km to the southwest margin of the Tengger desert (Fig. 1). In
24 this region, the average annual precipitation and temperature over the last 20 years are 350
25 mm and 5.7 °C, respectively. About 70 m loess was accumulated at Gulang during the last
26 two climate cycles. High sedimentation rate and weak pedogenesis in this region make the
27 Gulang loess sequence very sensitive to orbital and millennial monsoon changes (Sun et al.,
28 2012, 2015). The samples used in this study were collected at 2cm intervals, corresponding to
29 50–100 yr resolution for the loess-paleosol sequence. The grain size data of the upper 20 m

1 were from a 20-m pit near Gulang (Sun et al., 2012), and the lower part spanning the last two
2 glacial cycles was from another 50-m section. Mean grain size data of the composite 70-m
3 section have been employed for a chronological reconstruction (for a detailed description, see
4 Sun et al., 2015). The Gulang chronology was evaluated by comparison with a 249-kyr grain
5 size stack (CHILOMOS) record in the northern Loess Plateau (Yang and Ding, 2014) (Fig.2);
6 the good matches between these two records imply a high reliability of our Gulang age
7 construction. Unlike previous studies (Sun et al., 2012, 2015), we performed spectral and
8 decomposing analysis on the mean grain size time series in order to decipher multiscale
9 variability and dynamics of the winter monsoon.

10 The absolute-dated speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from Sanbao/Hulu caves (0-224 kyr, Wang et al.,
11 2008) and the Sanbao cave (224-260 kyr, Cheng et al., 2009) (Fig. 1) were selected to infer
12 summer monsoon variability spanning the last two glacial–interglacial cycles. Compatible
13 with the analysis by Wang et al (2008), we plot the Hulu $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data 1.6‰ more negative than
14 that from the Sanbao cave (Fig. 2). Interpretation of the Chinese speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records
15 remains debatable as a direct indicator of summer monsoon intensity since various factors
16 like seasonal changes in precipitation amount, moisture sources, and circulation patterns
17 would influence the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ composition (e.g., Yuan et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2001,
18 2008; Cheng et al., 2009; Clemens et al., 2010; Dayem et al., 2010; Pausata et al., 2011;
19 Maher and Thompson, 2012; Caley et al., 2014). Nevertheless, high similarity between
20 millennial events in Chinese speleothem and Greenland ice core revealed that speleothem
21 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is a reliable indicator of seasonal monsoon change (Wang et al., 2001; Clemens et al.,
22 2010). More recently, a model-data comparison suggested that Chinese speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ can
23 be regarded as a monsoon proxy to reflect the southerly wind intensity rather than the
24 precipitation change (Liu et al, 2014). Thus, spectral and decomposed results of the
25 composite speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record time series were used in this study to address multiscale
26 variability and dynamics of the summer monsoon.

27 To detect the presence of glacial-to-millennial periodicities, we performed spectral analysis
28 on the 260 kyr records of Gulang MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ using both of Multitaper (MTM,
29 implemented in the SSA toolkit, Vautard et al., 1992) (<http://www.atmos.ucla.edu/tcd/ssa/>)

1 and REDFIT (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002) methods, which are related to Empirical
2 Orthogonal Function and Lomb–Scargle Fourier transform, respectively. MTM method has
3 the advantages of quantified and optimized trade-off between spectral leakage reduction and
4 variance reduction and being suitable for series affected by high-noise levels (Lu et al., 1999),
5 but MTM requires equally-spaced data and therefore an interpolation is needed. The REDFIT
6 program estimates the first-order autoregressive (AR1) parameter from unevenly sampled
7 time series without interpolation, which avoids a too “red” spectrum (Schulz and Stattegger,
8 1997), but uses WOSA methods for spectral leakage reduction and variance reduction, which
9 makes the trade-off not quantifiable. The similar spectral periodicities derived from both
10 REDFIT and MTM methods were regarded as dominant frequencies at glacial-to-millennial
11 bands.

12 The decomposed components of loess MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records were parsed out
13 using the technique of Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD) (Huang et al., 1998). EMD
14 directly extracts energy which is associated with intrinsic time scales in nonlinear fluctuations,
15 and iteratively decomposes the raw complex signal with several characteristic time scales
16 coexisting into a series of elementary intrinsic model function (IMF) components, avoiding
17 any arbitrariness in the choices of frequency bands in this multiscale study. The EMD method
18 has been widely employed over various palaeoclimate database, such as ice-cover (Gloersen
19 and Huang, 2003), North Atlantic oscillation (Hu and Wu, 2004), solar insolation (Lin and
20 Wang, 2006), and temperature under global warming (Molla et al., 2006). This approach has
21 also been used to decipher the multiscale variations of Indian monsoon (Cai et al., 2015).
22 However, the application of EMD method on the loess record remains poorly investigated
23 with limited understanding of decomposed components at glacial-and-orbital timescales due
24 to the low-resolution proxy variations (Yang et al., 2001, 2008). In this study, we applied
25 EMD on interpolated loess and speleothem data with 100 yr interval to quantify the relative
26 contributions of both orbital and millennial components.

27

28 **3 Multiscale monsoon variability**

1 The highly comparable spectral results between REDFIT and MTM methods show that
2 apparent periods identified in the MGS spectrum are at ~100, ~41, ~23, ~15, ~7, ~5, ~4, and
3 ~3-1 kyr over the 80 % and 90 % confidence levels, respectively, for REDFIT and MTM
4 methods (Fig. 3). It is shown that the potential forcing of the glacial–interglacial and orbital
5 EAM variability is part of the external (e.g., the orbital-induced summer insolation, [An, 1991](#);
6 [Wang et al., 2008](#)) and the internal factors (e.g., the changes in the ice volume and CO₂
7 concentrations, [Ding et al., 1995](#); [Lu et al., 2013](#); [Sun et al., 2015](#)). The coexistence of the
8 ~100, ~41, and ~23 kyr periods in the Gulang MGS record confirms the dynamic linkage of
9 the winter monsoon variability to glacial and orbital forcing. Based on the spectral results,
10 many millennial frequencies are detected, which can be mainly divided into two groups of
11 ~7-4 and ~3-1 kyr, which, possibly correspond, respectively, to the Heinrich (~6 kyr) rhythm
12 and the Dansgaard–Oeschger (DO, ~1.5 kyr) cycles recorded in the North Atlantic sediments
13 and Greenland ice core ([Bond et al., 1993](#); [Dansgaard et al., 1993](#); [Heinrich, 1988](#)). Taking
14 into account the sampling resolution and surface mixing effect at Gulang, the residual
15 component (< 1 kyr) might contain both centennial and noisy signals, which is excluded for
16 further discussion in this study.

17 Compared to the MGS spectral results, the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ spectrum shares similar peaks at
18 the precession (~23 kyr) and millennial bands (~5, ~3, ~2.4, ~2, ~1.5, ~1.3, and ~1 kyr), but
19 is lack of distinct peaks at ~100 kyr and ~41 kyr (Fig. 3). Notably, precession peaks at ~23
20 and ~19 kyr are more dominant in the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than in the loess MGS record.
21 Moreover, the speleothem spectrum shows a peak over the 80 % and 90 % confidence levels
22 in REDFIT and MTM spectrum, respectively, centered at ~10 kyr frequency, which is,
23 approximately, related to the semi-precession frequency.

24 The different oscillation patterns composing loess MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ time series are
25 separated out using EMD method as presented in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, respectively. Redfit
26 spectral analysis are further conducted on each IMF with with dominant periods as shown.
27 Five IMFs are generated for the Gulang MGS data on glacial-to-millennial timescale. The
28 variability of Gulang MGS is dominated by the lowest frequency signal with variances of
29 32 % (IMF5). Two periodicities (41 kyr and 23 kyr) in orbital component (IMF4) are linked

1 to obliquity and precession, contributing altogether 40 % to the total variance. The
2 periodicities in IMF3 dominated by 15-kyr periodicity likely correspond to the second
3 precessional cycle. The variances of two millennial components (IMF2 and IMF1) are very
4 close with variances of 8 % and 5 %, respectively, in the Gulang MGS record. Similarly, six
5 IMFs are decomposed for the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record on frequencies lower than 1 kyr, and all
6 the glacial-to-orbital periodicities correspond to Milankovitch parameters. Compared with
7 decomposed results of Gulang MGS record, glacial (IMF6) and obliquity (IMF5) components
8 are not clear in the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record with variances of 12 %, respectively. The
9 precession component (IMF4), however, is the most dominant signal among the six
10 components, accounting for 59 % of the variance. Notable millennial components (IMF3, 2,
11 and 1) are evident with variances of 8 %, 6 % and 3 %, respectively.

12 **4 Dynamics of multiscale EAM variability**

13 **4.1 Glacial and orbital forcing of the EAM variability**

14 We combine IMF3, 4, and 5 of Gulang MGS and IMF 4, 5, and 6 of speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records
15 as the low-frequency signals (period > 10 kyr) to reveal the glacial-and-orbital scale variations
16 of the winter and summer monsoon, respectively. The glacial-and-orbital variations of the
17 loess and speleothem records represent the total variances of ~87 % and ~83 %, respectively.
18 The low-frequency signals of the loess MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records are compared with
19 changes in the ice volume and solar insolation at 65°N ([Berger, 1978](#)) to ascertain plausible
20 impacts of glacial and orbital factors on the EAM variability (Fig. 6).

21 The low-frequency component of the Gulang MGS record is well correlated to global ice
22 volume change inferred from the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record ([Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005](#)) with
23 correlation coefficient (R^2) of 0.56, reinforcing the strong coupling between the winter
24 monsoon variation and ice-volume changes, particularly in terms of glacial-interglacial
25 contrast, ([Ding et al., 1995](#)). However, fine MGS signals at the precessional scale seem more
26 distinctive than those in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack. For example, the remarkable peaks in the
27 MGS around 50, 85, 110, and 170 kyr have no counterpoints in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record. By
28 comparing MGS data with the summer insolation record, the overall ~20 kyr periodicity is

1 damped but still visible during both glacial and interglacial periods, except for insolation
2 maxima around 150 and 220 kyr (Fig. 6). The coexistence of the glacial and orbital cycles in
3 loess MGS indicates that both the ice volume and solar insolation have affected the winter
4 monsoon variability, and their relative contributions are 32 % and 55 %, respectively, as
5 estimated from variances of the glacial (IMF5) and orbital (IMF4 and 3) components.

6 The speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record varies quite synchronously with the July insolation,
7 characterized by a dominant precession frequency (Fig. 6). This in-phase change is thought to
8 support a dominant role of summer insolation in the Northern Hemisphere in driving the
9 summer monsoon variability at the precession period (Wang et al., 2008), given that the
10 palaeoclimatic interpretation of the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is quite controversial (Wang et al., 2001,
11 2008; Yuan et al., 2004; Hu et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009; Peterse et al., 2011).

12 The different contributions of glacial and orbital variability in the loess MGS and speleothem
13 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records indicate that the driving forces associated with these two proxies are different.
14 The loess grain size is directly related to the northwesterly wind intensity, reflecting that
15 atmospheric surface process is linked to the Siberian-Mongolian High (Porter and An, 1995).
16 The speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ might be influenced by multiple factors such as the isotopic depletion
17 along the vapor transport path (Pausata et al., 2011), changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of meteoric
18 precipitation or the amount of summer monsoon precipitation (Wang et al., 2001, 2008;
19 Cheng et al., 2009), and seasonality in the amount and isotopic composition of rainfall
20 (Clemens et al., 2010; Dayem et al., 2010; Maher and Thompson, 2012). Even at the orbital
21 timescale, proxy-model comparison suggested that the response of the winter and summer
22 monsoon to obliquity and precession forcing are dissimilar (Shi et al., 2011)

23 It is quite clear that the EAM is formed by the thermal gradient between the Asian continent
24 and the Pacific Ocean to the east and southeast (Halley, 1986; Xiao et al., 1995; Lestari and
25 Iwasaki, 2006). In winter, due to a much larger heat capacity of water in the ocean than that
26 on the land surface, a higher barometric pressure forms over the colder Asian continent with a
27 lower pressure over the warmer ocean. This gradient is the driving force for the flow of cold
28 and dry air out of Asia, consequently, the winter monsoon forms (Gao, 1962). On the
29 glacial–interglacial timescale, the buildup of the northern high-latitude ice sheets during the

1 glacial periods strengthens the barometric gradient which results in intense winter monsoons
2 (Ding et al., 1995; Clark et al., 1999). The contemporaneous falling sea level and land-ocean
3 pressure gradient further enhances winter monsoon circulation during glacial times (Xiao et
4 al., 1995). The other factor that influences the land-ocean differential thermal motion is the
5 orbitally induced solar radiation changes. The precession-induced insolation changes can lead
6 to regional land-ocean thermal gradients whilst obliquity-related insolation changes can result
7 in meridional thermal gradients; both of which can substantially alter the evolution of the
8 Siberian and Subtropical Highs and the EAM variations (Shi et al., 2011).

9 **4.2 Impacts of high-latitude cooling on millennial EAM oscillations**

10 The EAM variations are persistently punctuated by apparent millennial-scale monsoon events
11 (Garidel-Thoron et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2001; Kelly et al., 2006). The millennial-scale
12 events of the last glacial cycle were firstly identified in Greenland ice cores (Dansgaard et al.,
13 1993; Meese et al., 1997). Subsequently, well-dated loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
14 records in China have been found to have apparent correspondences with rapid climate
15 oscillations in the North Atlantic (Porter and An, 1995; Guo et al., 1996; Chen et al., 1997;
16 Ding et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2001). The most striking evidence is the strong correlation
17 between the loess grain size, speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Greenland ice core $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records during the
18 last glaciation (Ding et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2012). These abrupt changes
19 have been extended into the past glacial–interglacial cycles from loess and speleothem
20 records (Ding et al., 1999; Cheng et al., 2006, 2009; Wang et al., 2008; Yang and Ding, 2014)
21 and from the North Atlantic sediments (McManus et al., 1999; Channell et al., 2012).

22 Unlike previous comparison based on original proxy variability, here we combine the IMF1
23 and 2 components of the loess MGS and IMF1, 2, and 3 components of speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
24 records as robust reflection of millennial-scale signals of the winter and summer monsoons,
25 with variances of 13 % and 17 %, respectively. The combination of the two millennial signals
26 of the loess MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records are compared further with the North Atlantic
27 cooling events over the last two glacial cycles, to reveal the dynamic links of abrupt climate
28 changes in East Asia and the North Atlantic (Fig. 7). The Younger Dryas (YD) and Heinrich

1 Events (H_1 - H_6) are well detected in loess and speleothem records around 12, 16, 24, 31, 39,
2 48, 55, and 60 kyr, respectively. Most of the millennial-scale events in the loess MGS and
3 speleothem $\delta^{18}O$ records are well aligned with comparable timing and duration during the last
4 two glacial cycles. However, some MGS valleys such as A17, A23, B17, B18, and B22 are
5 not well matched with the speleothem $\delta^{18}O$ minima, possibly due to uncertainties in the loess
6 chronology. The comparable millennial scale events between grain size of Gulang and
7 CHILOMOS stack (Yang and Ding, 2014) shows the nature of replication of Gulang MGS
8 record within the dating uncertainty, confirming the persistent millennial-scale winter
9 monsoon variability spanning the last two glacial cycles (Fig. 7).

10 The millennial-scale monsoon signals over the last two glacial cycles have been well
11 compared with the cooling events recorded in the North Atlantic sediments, demonstrating a
12 dynamic link between abrupt climate changes in East Asia and the North Atlantic. As
13 identified in Chinese speleothem records, the magnitudes of abrupt climate events are
14 identical between the last and the penultimate climatic cycles (Wang et al., 2008). However,
15 the duration and amplitude of these millennial events seems quite different between the
16 glacial and interglacials. The duration of millennial monsoon events is relatively shorter and
17 the amplitude larger during glacial periods, suggesting a plausible glacial modulation on
18 rapid climate changes (McManus et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2008). The potential driving
19 mechanism for rapid EAM changes has been attributed to changing climate in the
20 high-latitude Northern Hemisphere, e.g., the reduction of the North Atlantic deep water
21 circulation triggered by fresh water inputs from melting icebergs (Broecker, 1994). The North
22 Atlantic cooling can affect the zonal high pressure systems, including the Azores-
23 Ural-Siberian-Mongolian high (Palmer and Sun, 1985; Rodwell et al., 1999; Yuan et al.,
24 2004), which can further transmit the abrupt cooling effect into East Asia and result in
25 significant EAM changes (Porter and An, 1995; Wang et al., 2001). Apart from the
26 geological evidence, numerical modeling also suggests that the Atlantic meridional
27 overturning circulation might affect abrupt oscillations of the EAM, while the westerly jet is
28 the important conveyor introducing the North Atlantic signal into the EAM region (Miao et
29 al., 2004; Zhang and Delworth, 2005; Jin et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2012).

1

2 **5 Conclusions**

3 The multiscale signals were spectrally detected and naturally decomposed from Chinese loess
4 and speleothem records over the last two climatic cycles, permitting an evaluation of the
5 relative contributions of glacial, orbital and millennial components in the EAM record.
6 Spectrum of Gulang MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data show similar periodicities at
7 glacial-to-orbital and millennial timescales, corresponding to the rhythms of changing
8 ice-volume, orbitally induced insolation, and North Atlantic cooling (i.e., Heinrich rhythm
9 and Dansgaard–Oeschger cycles), respectively. Amplitude variances of the decomposed
10 components reveal significant glacial and orbital impacts on the loess grain size variation and
11 a dominant precession forcing in the speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variability. The millennial components
12 are evident in the loess and speleothem proxies with variances of 13 % and 17 %,
13 respectively. Millennial IMFs were combined to recognize the synchronous nature of rapid
14 changes of these two proxies. High similarity of millennial-scale monsoon events both in
15 terms of the rhythms and duration between the loess and speleothem proxies implies that the
16 winter and summer monsoons share common millennial features and similar driving forces.

17

18 **Acknowledgements**

19 Four anonymous reviewers and Dr. Loutre Marie-France are acknowledged for their
20 insightful comments. This work was supported by funds from the National Basic Research
21 Program of China (2013CB955904), the Chinese Academy of Sciences (KZZD-EW25
22 TZ-03), the National Science Foundation of China (41472163), and the State Key Laboratory
23 of Loess and Quaternary Geology (SKLLQG1011).

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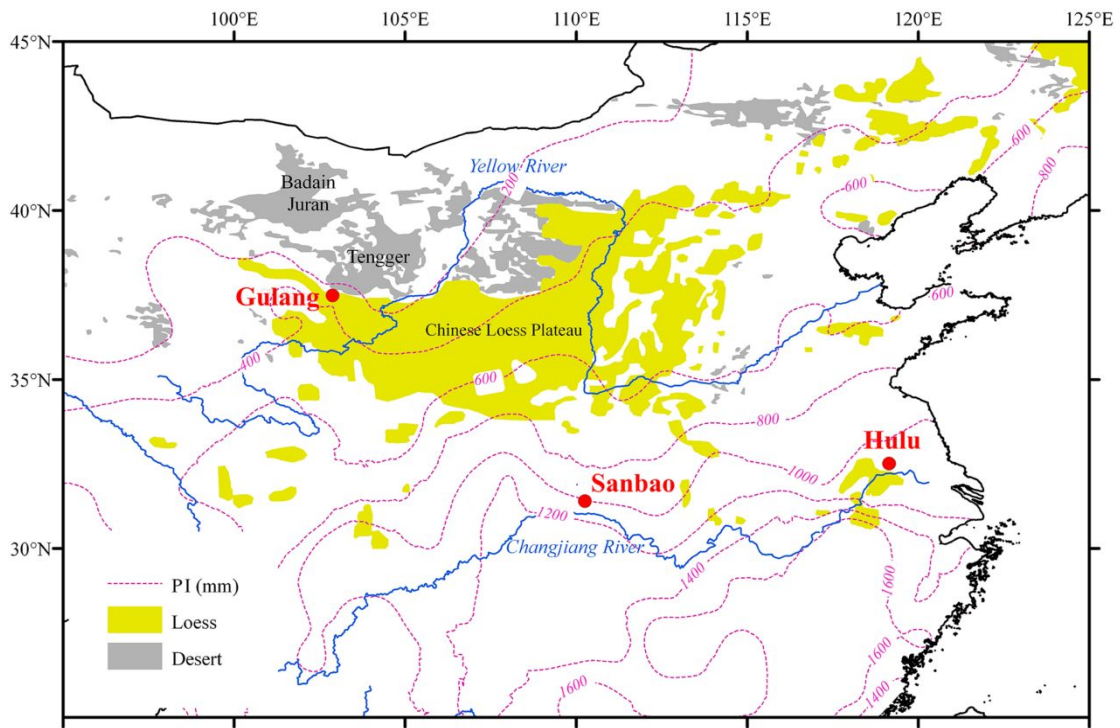
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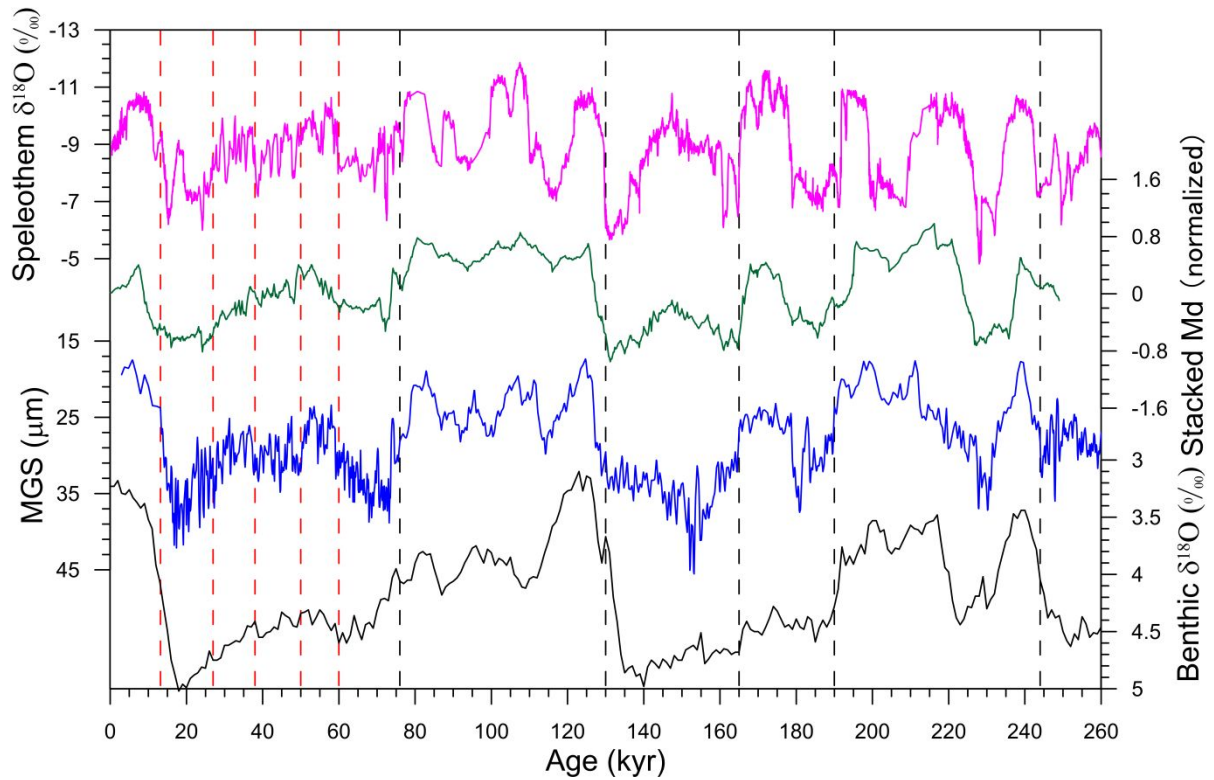


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2 Figure 1. Map showing the loess distribution and locations of Gulang loess section, Sanbao,
 3 and Hulu caves. Dotted lines indicate the precipitation isohyets (PI).

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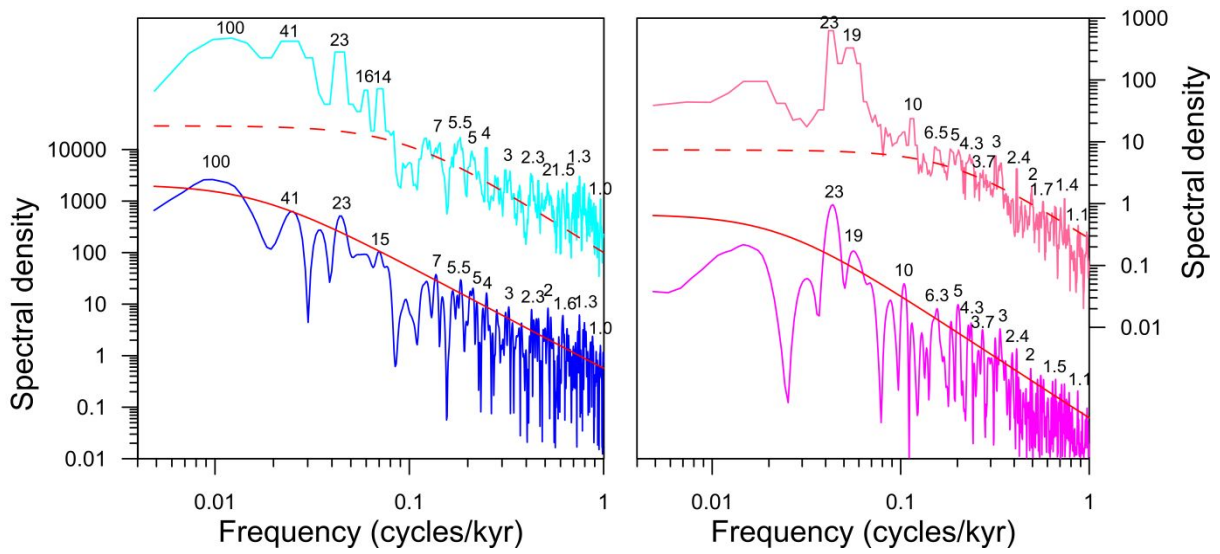


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3 Figure 2. Comparison of Gulang MGS (blue, [Sun et al., 2015](#)) and CHILOMOS stack Median
4 grain size (Md, green, [Yang and Ding, 2014](#)) with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (black, [Lisiecki and](#)
5 [Raymo, 2005](#)) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (magenta, [Wang et al., 2008](#); [Cheng et al.,](#)
6 [2009](#)) records. The red and black dashed lines denote tie points derived from optically
7 stimulated luminescence (OSL) dating and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ correlation, respectively.

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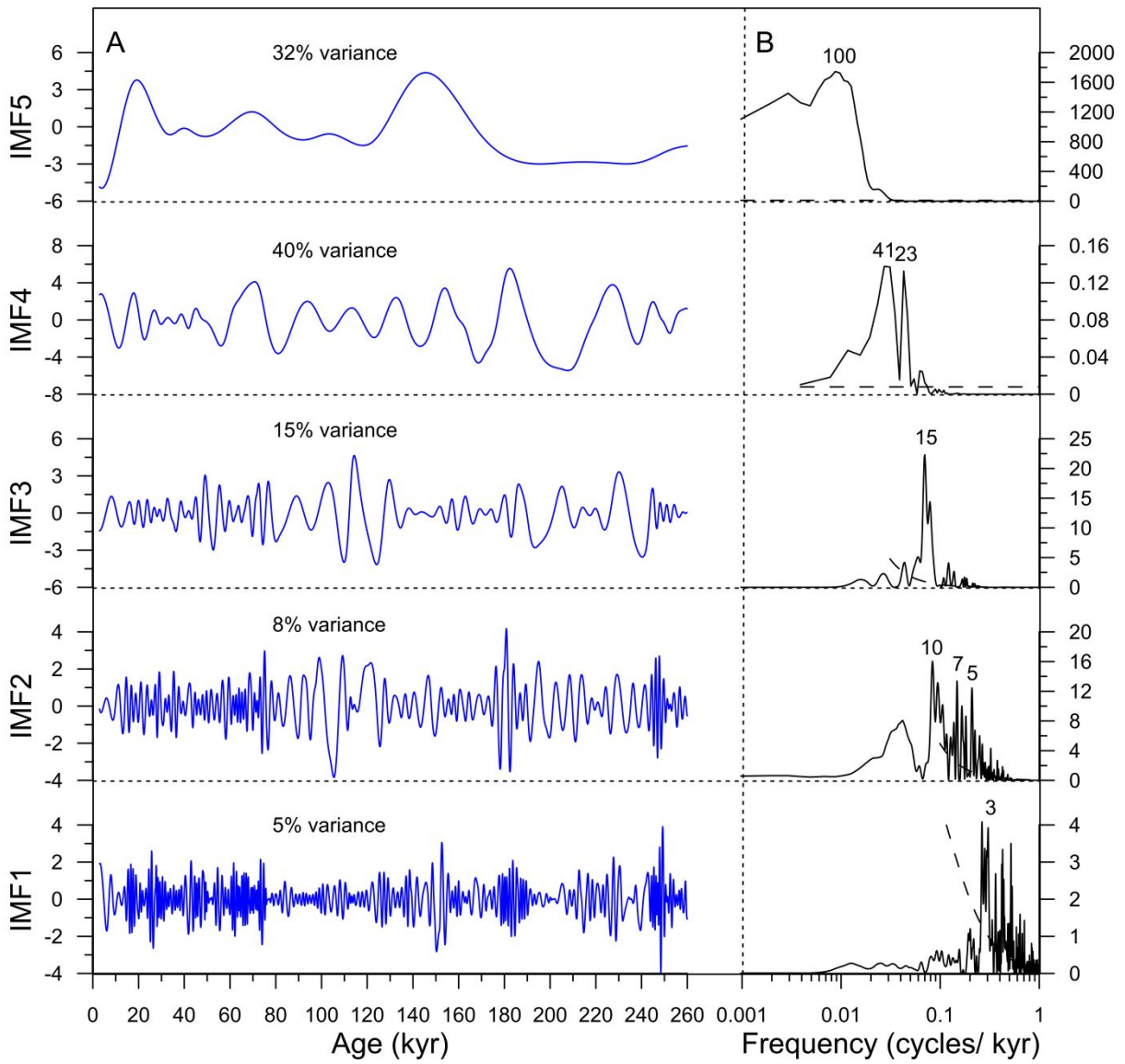
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3 Figure 3. Spectrum results of Gulang MGS (A) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (B) (Wang
4 et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records using REDFIT (lower) and MTM (higher) methods.

5 The red lines represent the 80% (solid) and 90% (dotted) confidence levels. Periodicities are
6 shown above the spectral curves.

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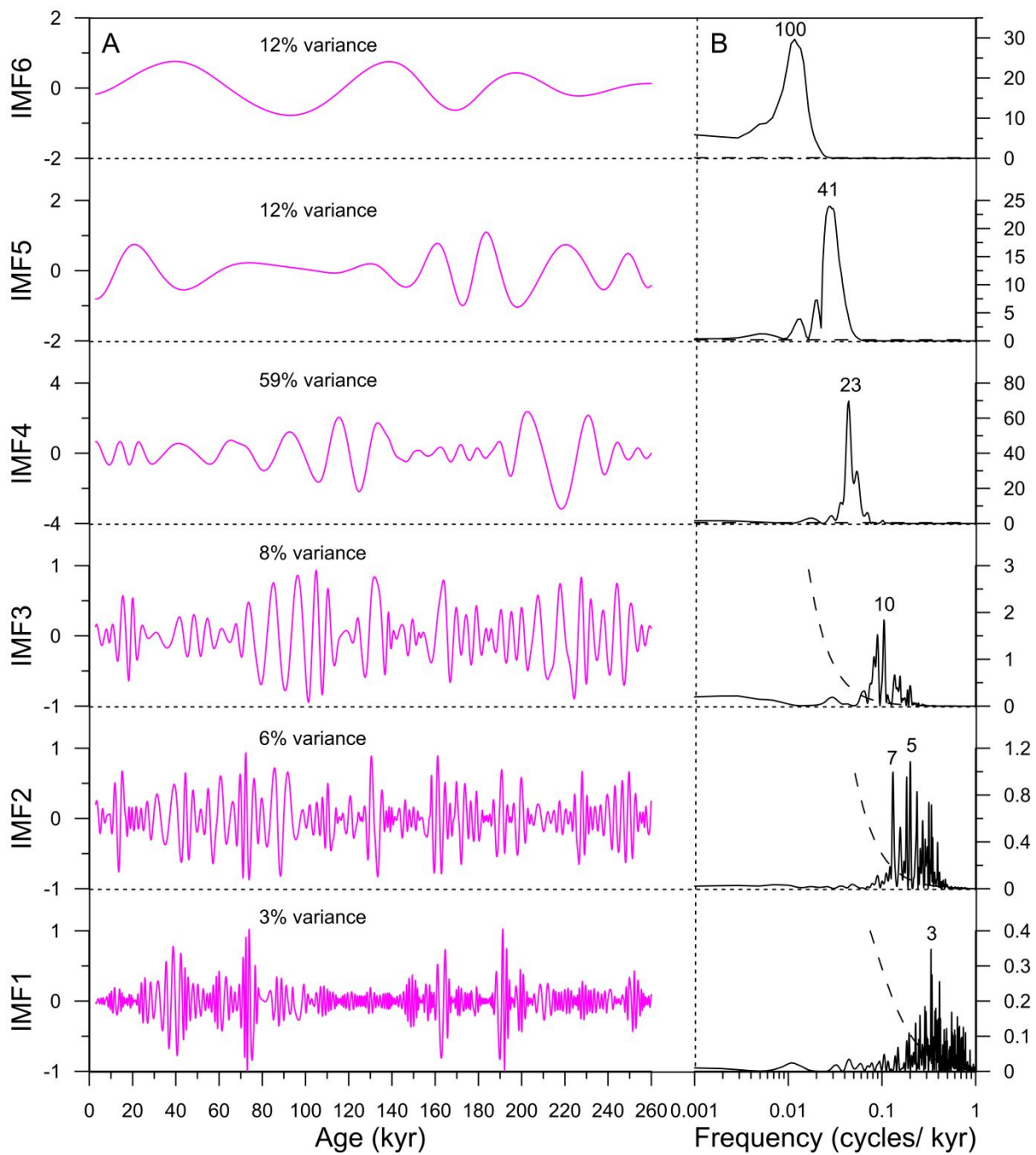


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3 Figure 4. IMFs of Gulang MGS series (A) and corresponding spectrum (B). Black numbers
4 are dominant periods and dotted lines represent the 90% confidence level.

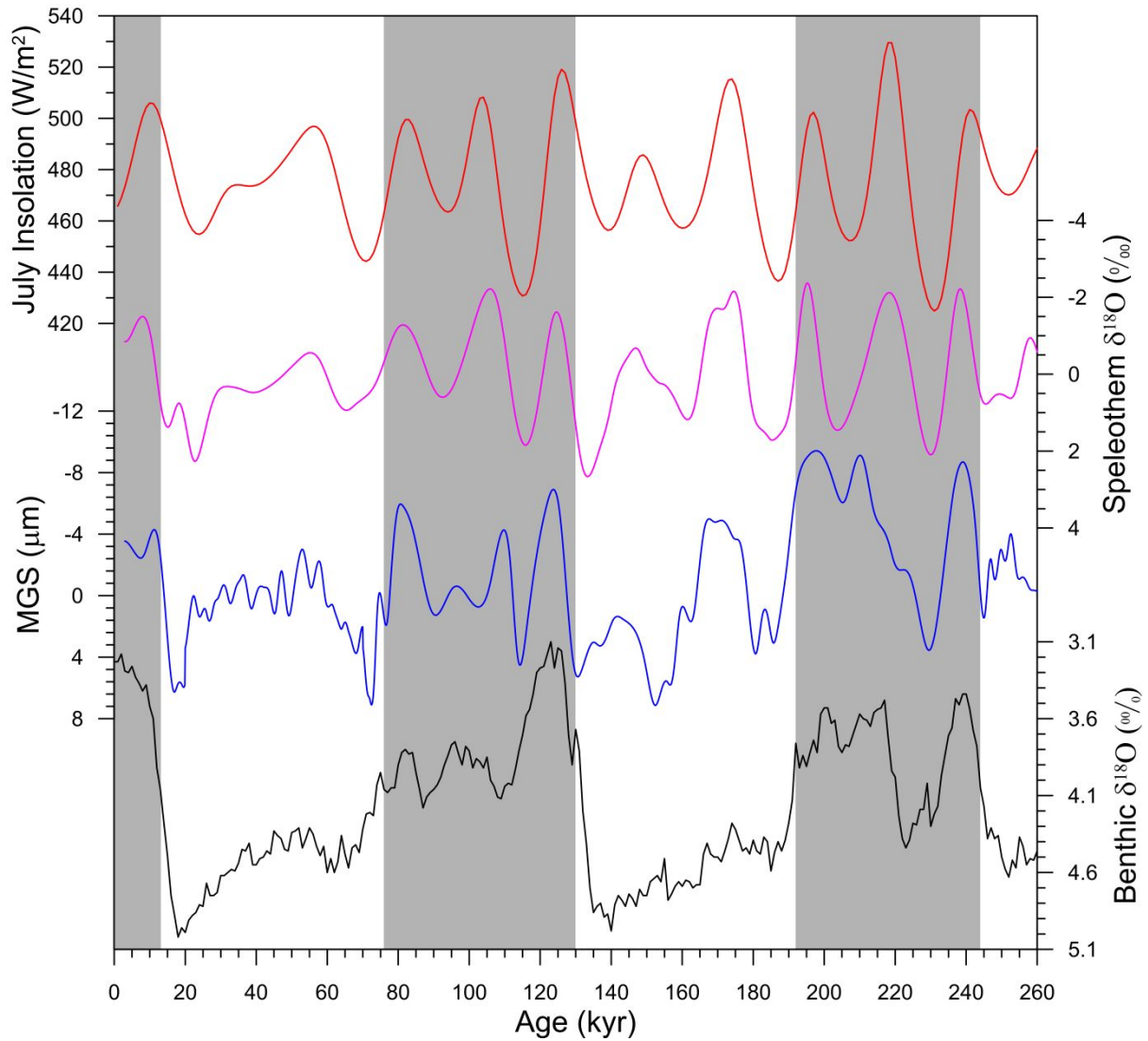
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3 Figure 5. IMFs of speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ series (A) and corresponding spectrum (B). Black
4 numbers are dominant periods and dotted lines represent the 90% confidence level.

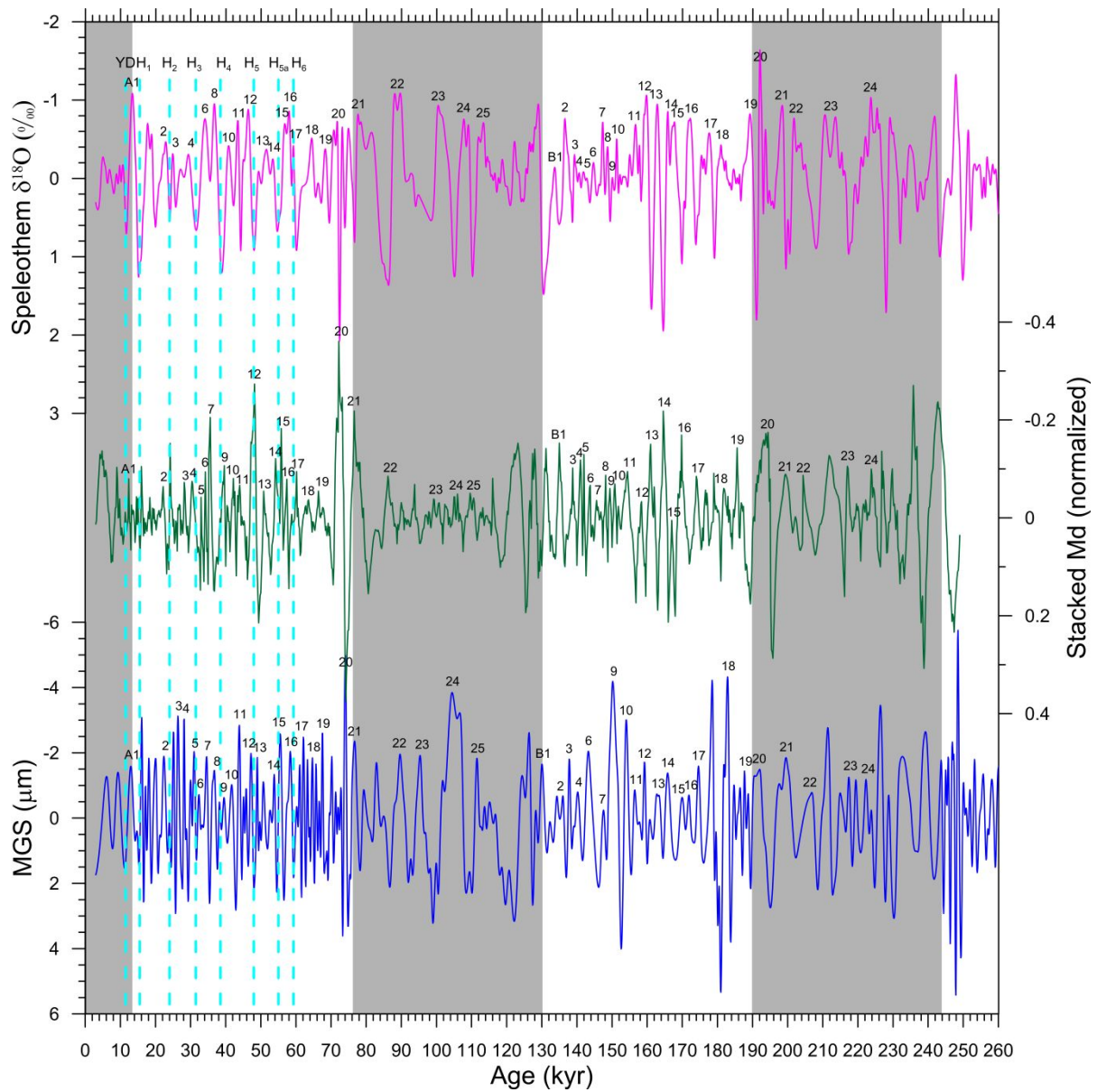


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2 Figure 6. Comparison of the glacial-and-orbital scale components of Gulang MGS (blue) and
 3 Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (magenta, Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records with
 4 summer insolation at 65°N (red, Berger, 1978) and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (black, Lisiecki and
 5 Raymo, 2005). The vertical gray bars represent the interglacial periods.

6

1



2

3 Figure 7. Comparison of millennial-scale variations among Gulang MGS (blue), CHILOMOS
 4 stack Md (green, [Yang and Ding, 2014](#)) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (magenta, [Wang](#)
 5 [et al., 2008](#); [Cheng et al., 2009](#)) records over the last two glacial–interglacial cycles. Cyan
 6 dotted lines are the YD and the Heinrich events identified among the three records and gray
 7 bars indicate interglacial periods. The numbers represent well-correlated Chinese interstadials
 8 identified among the three records.