

1 **Summer precipitation reconstructed quantitatively using a Mid**  
2 **Holocene  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  common millet record from Guanzhong Basin,**  
3 **northern China**

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12  
13 **Abstract**

14 In order to produce quantitative Holocene precipitation reconstructions for  
15 particular geographical areas, explicit proxies and accurate dating controls are  
16 required. The fossilized seeds of common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*) are found  
17 throughout the sedimentary strata of northern China, and are suited to the production  
18 of quantitative Holocene precipitation reconstructions: their isotopic carbon  
19 composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) gives a measure of the precipitation required during the growing  
20 season, and allows these seeds to be dated. We therefore used a regression function, as  
21 part of a systematic study of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet, to produce a quantitative  
22 reconstruction of Mid Holocene summer precipitation in the Guanzhong Basin  
23 (107°40'~107°49'N, 33°39'~34°45'N). Our results showed that **mean** summer  
24 precipitation **at** 7.7-3.4 ka BP was 353 mm, ~50 mm or 17% higher than present  
25 levels **and the variability becomes increasing, especially after 5.2 ka BP**. Maximum  
26 mean summer precipitation peaked at 414 mm during the period 6.1-5.5 ka BP, ~109  
27 mm (or 36%) higher than today, indicating that the EASM peaked at this time. This  
28 work can provide an **innovative** proxy for further research into continuous  
29 paleoprecipitation sequences **and the variability of summer precipitation**.

30 **Keywords:** summer precipitation; quantitative reconstruction; Holocene; Chinese  
31 Loess Plateau; common millet; stable carbon isotope

32 x

33 **Sect.**

34 **1 Introduction**

35 The reconstruction of global climate changes through history is an important part  
36 of the Past Global Changes (PAGES) project. The Holocene, as the most recent  
37 geological period, has the closest relation to human survival and development.  
38 Quantitatively reconstructing climatic factors such as temperature and precipitation  
39 provides an understanding of agricultural development and the human impact upon  
40 the landscape and environment. However, **instrumental** records are insufficient for the  
41 documenting of the drivers of climate change, since they cover only the past century

42 or so (DeMenocal, 2001). The quantitative reconstruction of temperature and  
43 precipitation using high resolution climatic proxy records has therefore become the  
44 principal thrust of PAGES research. To date, most continental paleoclimate studies  
45 have focused on temperature (Porter and An, 1995; Guo *et al.*, 1996; Genty *et al.*,  
46 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2008; Sun *et al.*, 2012). However, the increase in global surface  
47 temperatures has tended to cause changes in precipitation and atmospheric moisture  
48 through changes in atmospheric circulation, a more active hydrological cycle and an  
49 increasing water holding capacity throughout the atmosphere (Dore, 2005). The  
50 availability of water, one of the major challenges for the future, cannot be ignored,  
51 due to its significant role in the hydrological cycle (Hatté and Guiot, 2005). To this  
52 end, we chose an area key to the warm period of the Holocene to produce a  
53 quantitative precipitation reconstruction for that geological time.

54 **The Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP), located in a transition zone between a semi-**  
55 **arid and semi-humid climate, is highly sensitive to changes in precipitation and has**  
56 **thus long been a key area for precipitation reconstruction research. The precipitation**  
57 **of the CLP, is, and has been, deeply impacted by the EASM.** The EASM, an  
58 important component of the Asian Summer Monsoon (ASM), plays an indispensable  
59 role in the hydrological cycle over southern China. Various proxies have been adopted  
60 in studies of the EASM during the Holocene. Due to their reliable chronology and  
61 relatively easy dating, oxygen isotopes ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) in speleothems from Chinese caves  
62 have been taken as a robust measure of summer monsoon precipitation values (Wang  
63 *et al.*, 2005a; Cheng *et al.*, 2009). However, the interpretation of these changes in the  
64  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of precipitation remains highly controversial; some scientists have  
65 contended that the stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record from the EASM region may not record  
66 EASM variability (Le Grande and Schmidt, 2009; Maher and Thompson, 2012; Tan,  
67 2012; Caley *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015). **Fortunately, the precipitation in the CLP**  
68 **can effectively reflect the intensity of the EASM variability due to its special location**  
69 **(Liu *et al.*, 2015).**

70 The quantitative precipitation reconstruction results obtained have been based  
71 exclusively on climatic proxies derived from geological and biological records **in the**  
72 **CLP.** In the western CLP, fossil charcoal records in the Tianshui Basin have  
73 demonstrated that the mean annual precipitation (MAP) was 688-778 mm **at** 5.2-4.3  
74 ka BP (Sun and Li, 2012). In the CLP's hinterland, magnetic susceptibility records  
75 from the Luochuan profile have provided estimates of Holocene MAP varying  
76 between 600 and 750 mm, with a mean value of  $701\pm 74$  mm (Lu *et al.*, 1994). In the  
77 southern CLP, Guanzhong Basin MAP, as revealed by plant phytolith assemblies, was  
78 700–800 mm during the Holocene, indicating a much more humid climate than  
79 today's (Lu *et al.*, 1996). Further evidence from the transfer functions of geological  
80 records and the intensity of pedogenesis has shown that Guanzhong Basin MAP  
81 was  $>700$  mm during the Holocene Optimum (Sun *et al.*, 1999; Zhao, 2003),  
82 supporting the aforementioned results. However, due to their intrinsic limitations,  
83 such as discontinuity and an indefinite response mechanism between the proxies and  
84 climate change, these tentative proxies have not been extensively applied. Selecting  
85 an effective proxy which evinces a reliable dating and an unambiguous implication is

86 crucial for the quantitative reconstruction of paleoprecipitation. High-resolution  
87 pollen-based quantitative precipitation results indicating EASM evolution have  
88 recently been obtained from an alpine lake in northern China (Chen *et al.*, 2015).  
89 However, because these are attributable solely to this unique environment, a regional  
90 quantitative precipitation reconstruction, and therefore a new proxy, is still required.

91 Common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*), as the most representative agricultural  
92 rain-fed crop of northern China, contains  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ; this is sensitive to precipitation and  
93 can thus effectively record precipitation during the growing season (Yang and Li,  
94 2015). Rain-fed agriculture originated in the CLP, giving rise to the first  
95 recognizably Chinese civilization. Many archeological relics from an unbroken  
96 historical continuum are therefore found throughout the region (An, 1988).  
97 Quantities of the fossilized seeds of common millet are well-preserved in the cultural  
98 layers of these archeological sites (Zhao and Xu, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2008; Lu *et al.*,  
99 2009). Their stable  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  compositions, which remain little change because of the low  
100 temperatures associated with carbonization, contain valuable information about  
101 paleoclimate change and early agricultural activities (Yang *et al.*, 2011a, 2011b).  
102 Common millet remains are therefore perfect for quantitatively reconstructing  
103 Holocene precipitation in the CLP.

104 The Guanzhong Basin (Figure 1), in the southern CLP, was the cradle of  
105 Neolithic culture and China's ancient civilization, and fostered the Laogantai (~7.8-  
106 6.9 ka BP), Yangshao (~6.9-5.0 ka BP) and Longshan (~5.0-4.0 ka BP) cultures (Ren  
107 and Wu, 2010), the pre-Zhou culture (~3.5-3.0 ka BP) (Lei, 2010), and the Zhou  
108 dynasties. Due to the intensity of early agricultural activity, huge quantities of  
109 common millet remains have been preserved in numerous, continuously-occupied  
110 cultural sites. Carbonized common millet seeds are the most abundant resource found  
111 in the samples collected in this study from these cultural layers.

112 In this study, common millet remains, from five sections characterized by  
113 continuous and well-developed sedimentation at typical archeological sites, including  
114 the Baijia, Huiduipo, Manan, Beiniu and Nansha sites (Figure 1), were sampled as  
115 part of a systematic study of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records; quantitative precipitation reconstructions  
116 for the Holocene were then based upon a transfer function between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  
117 modern common millet and precipitation, providing a scientific basis for predicting  
118 future climate change and its possible impact.

## 119 120 **2 The rationale behind using common millet $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for precipitation** 121 **reconstruction**

122 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of common millet seeds reflect the  $^{13}\text{C}$  of photosynthetic  
123 materials during not only their formative and mature stages, but also their vegetative  
124 stage. The growing season of modern common millet in the Guanzhong Basin lasts  
125 from June to September. The seed kernel's formative and mature stages occur soon  
126 after pollination of the blossom. With an increase in kernel size, photosynthetic  
127 material as well as pre-accumulated organic material is transferred to kernels from  
128 stems, leaves and spikes (Chai, 1999). Therefore, millet  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  reflects the  
129 environmental conditions extant during the growing season from mid-June to the end

130 of September, or 110 days in total.

131 Carbon isotope composition of fossilized plant remains is a useful proxy for the  
132 reconstruction of local paleoclimatic changes, especially when using  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from  
133 plants which experience a single mode of photosynthesis. Common millet grains have  
134 been widely and continuously preserved throughout the Holocene in northern China.  
135 Fossilized millet seeds were generally formed by baking at low temperatures ( $\sim 250^\circ\text{C}$ )  
136 (Yang *et al.*, 2011a), and deposited in strata over long time periods with limited  
137 interaction with the buried environment. The observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of charred  
138 common millet formed at  $\sim 250^\circ\text{C}$  were 0.2‰ lower than those of the source samples,  
139 and much less than the natural variation typically found in wood (Yang *et al.*, 2011b).  
140 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures conserved in carbonized common millet are thus reflective of the  
141 true environment.

142 The carbon isotope composition of plants ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$ ) is affected by both  
143 physiological characteristics and environmental factors. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{C}_3$  plants  
144 responds to environmental factors, such as atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure,  $\text{O}_2$  partial  
145 pressure, temperature, light and precipitation, by dominating the ratio of the  
146 intercellular and ambient partial pressure of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $c_i/c_a$ ) with the opening and closing  
147 of leaf stomata (Körner and Diemer, 1987; Körner and Larcher, 1988; Körner *et al.*,  
148 1989; Farquhar *et al.*, 1989; Dawson *et al.*, 2002). However, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $\text{C}_4$  plants  
149 depends not only on  $c_i/c_a$  but also on how much  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in bundle sheath cells  
150 leaks into the mesophyll cells (called leakiness  $\phi$ ), which is determined by its  
151 physiological characteristics (Hubick *et al.*, 1990). When  $\phi$  is larger/smaller than 0.37,  
152 there is a positive/negative correlation between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$  and  $c_i/c_a$  (Ubierna *et al.*, 2011).  
153 Under water stress, the  $\phi$  of the common millet, belonging to the NADP-ME  
154 subgroup of  $\text{C}_4$  plants, is likely larger than 0.37 (Schulze *et al.*, 1996; Yang and Li,  
155 2015). This may account for the significantly positive relation between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  
156 common millet and precipitation (Yang and Li, 2015).

157 Limited precipitation and soil humidity are the most important environmental  
158 factors affecting the growth of plants in arid and semi-arid areas (Hadley and Szarek,  
159 1981; Ehleringer and Mooney, 1983; Murphy and Bowman, 2009). For  $\text{C}_4$  species in  
160 the arid regions of northwestern China,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_p$  tends to decrease with decreasing soil  
161 water availability (Wang *et al.*, 2005b). For common millet, although altitude,  
162 precipitation and water availability have a significant correlation with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  according  
163 to correlation analysis, precipitation was the critical control of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , based on  
164 functional mechanism analysis (Yang and Li, 2015). The plants' physiological  
165 characteristics and morphological adaptability showed that the stomatal, and some  
166 non-stomatal, factors of common millet are sensitive to water status, causing the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
167 of the organic material to change with precipitation. This rationale establishes an  
168 important theoretical foundation whereby the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet can serve as an  
169 effective indicator of paleoprecipitation.

170

## 171 **3 Methods**

### 172 **3.1 Sampling**

173 All the ancient common millet remains used in this study were found at five  
174 archeological sites in the Guanzhong Basin, *i.e.* the Baijia, Huiduipo, Manan Beiniu  
175 and Nansha sites (State Cultural Relics Bureau, 1998).

176 The Guanzhong Basin is located southern of the CLP and is bordered on the south  
177 by the Qinling Mountains and the north by the Beishan Mountain and spanned 30-80  
178 km; from Baoji Valley at the west end to Tongguan at the east end, spanning 360 km.  
179 The topography is flat and the landscape consists mostly of river terraces and loess  
180 table land at an altitude of 326-600 m. The present-day Guanzhong Basin is  
181 characterized by semi-humid and semi-arid climatic conditions strongly influenced by  
182 the monsoon. Summer monsoon rainfall accounts for most of the annual precipitation  
183 and falls primarily in June-August; the climate is therefore characterized by cold, dry  
184 winters and moist, warm summers. Mean annual temperature (MAT) in the  
185 Guanzhong area is ca. 13°C, MAP is ~575 mm and mean annual relative humidity  
186 (MARH) is 70%. Precipitation data from the Guanzhong Basin for the period 1951-  
187 2011 were analyzed (Figure 2). The results showed that the precipitation for mid-June  
188 to September was between 110-526 mm, with a mean of 305 mm. The 95%  
189 confidence interval for this mean is between 279-332 mm, ruling out the extreme  
190 values of abnormal years.

191 The Baijia site, located on the secondary river terrace of the northern bank of  
192 River Wei, contains early Laoguantai cultural remains. The area is ca. 120,000 m<sup>2</sup> and  
193 the thickness of the cultural layer is between 0.4 m and 1.2 m. The Huiduipo site  
194 includes Banpo-type remains from the Yangshao culture. The area is ca. 60,000 m<sup>2</sup>,  
195 the thickness of the cultural layer is ca. 2 m, and there is partial exposure of ash pits,  
196 residential areas and graves. The Manan site, located on tableland at the intersection  
197 of the Jinghe and Weihe rivers, exhibits Yangshao cultural remains. MN is ca. 16,000  
198 m<sup>2</sup> in area, and the thickness of the cultural layer is between 2 m and 5 m, with a  
199 dense distribution of ash pits. The Beiniu site partly contains Longshan cultural  
200 remains. Its area is 200,000 m<sup>2</sup>, and the thickness of its cultural layer is ca. 1m. The  
201 Nansha site is mainly characterized by Shang Dynasty remains. It is ca. 300,000 m<sup>2</sup> in  
202 area and the thickness of its cultural layer is between 1.9 m and 2.7 m (State Cultural  
203 Relics Bureau, 1998). All sampling sections are described in Figure 1.

204 Five sections characterized by continuous and well-developed sedimentation were  
205 selected for sampling at the Baijia, Beiniu, Huiduipo, Manan and Nansha sites. The  
206 slice sampling were applied to continuously sampling and the interval was 10 cm for  
207 the Baijia and Nansha sections, and 20 cm for the Beiniu, Huiduipo and Manan  
208 sections (Figure 1). Forty litre sample bags were filled with sufficient quantities of  
209 sedimentary material to screen through a 50-mesh sieve to obtain samples using  
210 flotation (Tsuyuzaki, 1994). Different archeological remains were separated in the  
211 laboratory after air-drying. Agricultural seeds were identified and picked out under the  
212 stereomicroscope, then marked in order according to sampling depth. The number of  
213 remnant common millet samples derived from all five sections are listed in Table 1.

214

### 215 **3.2 Stable $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis**

216 Stable  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  composition analyses were carried out on all 67 serial and bulk  
217 common millet samples from the five sections, each composed of three to five grains,  
218 without lemma. Each sample portion was placed in a beaker and covered with a 1%  
219 hydrochloric acid solution to remove any carbonates. The samples were then washed  
220 with **deionized** water to pH >5 and oven dried at 40°C for 24 h. The dried samples  
221 were ground in an agate mortar and homogenized, then vacuum-sealed in a quartz  
222 tube with copper oxide and silver foil and combusted for at least 4 h at 850°C. The  
223  $\text{CO}_2$  gas from the combustion tube was extracted and cryogenically purified. The  
224 isotopic ratio of the extracted  $\text{CO}_2$  gas was determined using a MAT-251 gas source  
225 mass spectrometer with a dual inlet system at the Institute of Earth Environment,  
226 Chinese Academy of Sciences.

227 All isotope ratios were expressed using the following  $\delta$  notation:

$$228 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{‰}) = [(R_{\text{sample}} - R_{\text{std}})/R_{\text{std}}] \times 1000 \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

229 The isotopic standard used was Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB); analytical  
230 precision at the  $1\sigma$  level was reported as 0.2‰.

231

### 232 **3.3 Radiocarbon dating**

233 AMS  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating was conducted on one charcoal fragment and one charred seed of  
234 common millet from the Baijia section, five charred seeds each from the Huidupo  
235 and Beiniu sections, one charred seed from the Manan section, and three charred  
236 seeds from the Nansha section.

237 The charcoal and seed samples were pretreated by washing in 10% NaOH and  
238 10% HCl and reduced to neutral pH. They were then converted to graphite and  
239 radiocarbon ages were calculated after measurement in the STAR Accelerator at the  
240 Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation (ANSTO). AMS  $^{14}\text{C}$  dates  
241 were calibrated using Calib Rev 7.0.4 software and the INTCAL13 dataset (Reimer *et*  
242 *al.*, 2013).

243

### 244 **3.4 Processing data of age model**

245 On the basis that the depth-based linear interpolation method was not fit for the  
246 dating of cultural layers because of potential disturbance, all common millet remnant  
247 samples were divided into several groups to guarantee at least one dating dataset for  
248 each group (Figure 3a), as follows: samples from adjacent depths with close  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
249 values were placed in the same group, allowing a greater difference between each  
250 group (One-factor Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA),  $P < 0.05$ ).

251

### 252 **3.5 Quantitative modeling method and data analysis**

253 The results for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the seeds of modern millet grown on the CLP  
254 (Yang and Li, 2015) demonstrated that the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet has a significant  
255 positive correlation with precipitation. In this study, standard major axis regression  
256 analysis (SMA) was applied to establish a regression model between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  
257 modern common millet and precipitation during growing seasons. Statistical  
258 analyses were conducted using SMATR software (Version 2.0) (Falster *et al.*, 2006).



259 Other statistical analyses used SPSS 15.0 for Windows and OriginPro 8.0 software.  
260 Unless otherwise stated, differences were considered statistically significant when  
261  $P < 0.05$ .

262

#### 263 **4 Results**

264 The **radiocarbon** results (Table 2) show that the ages of **the sampled cultural**  
265 **layers** were usually correspondent with archeological periodization. **Common millet**  
266 remains sampled from cultural layers of Guanzhong Basin **in our study** have  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
267 values ranging from  $-11.1\text{‰}$  to  $-9.3\text{‰}$  (Figure 3a), with a mean of  $-10.2 \pm 0.4\text{‰}$  ( $n =$   
268  $66$ ,  $\text{SD} = \pm 1 \sigma$ ), **without considering** the anomaly value of  $-8.8\text{‰}$  analyzed by Boxplot  
269 using SPSS statistical software (Figure 3b), **which may be affected by the local**  
270 **environment**. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  composition of modern common millet from the central and  
271 western CLP measured in 2008 ranged from  $-13.9\text{‰}$  to  $-12.5\text{‰}$ , with a mean of  $-$   
272  $13.2 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$  ( $n = 15$ ,  $\text{SD} = \pm 1 \sigma$ ) (Yang and Li, 2015). It can thus be seen that the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
273 values of common millet remains are more positive than those of modern **millet** by  $\sim$   
274  $2.9\text{‰}$ .

275 The  $^{13}\text{C}$  composition of plants results from a combination of carbon isotope  
276 fractionation and source carbon isotope composition. Therefore,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  changes in the  
277 atmosphere, as a part of total  $\text{CO}_2$ , are an important factor impacting upon the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
278 values in plants (O'Leary, 1988; Farquhar, 1989; Araus and Buxo, 1993). **Considering**  
279 **our atmosphere is a perfect blender, we adopted the global mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of**  
280 **atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $-8.2\text{‰}$ , in 2011 (Cuntz, 2011), which was three years after**  
281 **sampling**. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  in the Holocene, from 11 ka BP to the  
282 pre-industrial age, show only a slight change, usually ranging between  $-6.1\text{‰}$  and  $-$   
283  $6.6\text{‰}$ , with a mean value of  $-6.4 \pm 0.15\text{‰}$  (Marino *et al.*, 1992; Leuenberger *et al.*,  
284 1992).  $\sim 1.8\text{‰}$  higher than present-day atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  $-8.2\text{‰}$   
285 (Farquhar *et al.*, 1989; Keeling and Whorf, 1992). After correcting for the change in  
286 atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $1.8\text{‰}$ ), the **millet**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for Holocene millet from the  
287 Guanzhong Basin are equivalent to modern **caryopsis** values of  $-12.0 \pm 0.4\text{‰}$ , and are  
288 therefore  $\sim 1.2\text{‰}$  less depleted in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  than modern **grains** (for the t test,  $t = 21.39$ ).

289 The regression function between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and precipitation for the common millet  
290 growing season was established using SMA as follows (Figure 4):

$$291 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{‰}) = 0.0077P_{\text{gs}} - 14.76, \quad r^2 = 0.56, \quad P < 0.001 \quad \text{Eq.(2)}$$

292 **Where  $P_{\text{gs}}$  denotes the precipitation of millet growth seasons.** The function's  
293 gradient indicated that the precipitation coefficient was  $0.77\text{‰}/100 \text{ mm}$ , implying  
294 that, within physiological adaptation parameters, there would be a  $\sim 0.77\text{‰}$  increase in  
295  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  with a 100 mm increase in precipitation. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values yielded by ancient  
296 common millets are higher than those of modern common millet seeds, suggesting  
297 that these ancient plants grew in a more humid environment than today's.

298 Common millet remains from archeological sites were divided into a total of 11  
299 groups (Table 3). Mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for common millet remains were calculated for  
300 each group. Results showed that the minimum value was  $-10.6 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$ , and the  
301 maximum value  $-9.6 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$ , for common millet growing between 7.7 ka BP and 3.4  
302 ka BP. After correcting for the change in the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $1.8\text{‰}$ ), the range

303 of mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for ancient millet *vis-à-vis* modern plants was between -  
304  $12.4\pm 0.2\%$  and  $-11.4\pm 0.1\%$ . By applying the regression model based on the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
305 precipitation values for modern common millet during its growing season, we were  
306 able to extract paleoprecipitation values for the growing seasons of ancient crops for  
307 certain time periods.

308 These paleoprecipitation values were reconstructed by applying the **corrected**  
309  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for the ancient millet to the regression equation (Eq. 2) which expresses  
310 the relation between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet and precipitation. The results showed  
311 that the precipitation for the growing seasons of ancient millet during the period 7.7-  
312 3.4 ka BP varied from 240 mm to 477 mm, with a mean of 354 mm (Table 3).

313

## 314 **5 Discussion**

### 315 **5.1 Comparison between the mid-Holocene and modern precipitation**

316 Ancient equivalent-seed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, ranging from  $-12.4\pm 0.2\%$  to  $-11.4\pm 0.1\%$ ,  
317 are  $\sim 1\text{--}2\%$  higher than those for modern millet in the area. Paleoprecipitation  
318 reconstructed from the regression function shows that precipitation of millet growth  
319 seasons at 7.7-3.4 ka BP was between 242 and 475 mm, with a mean of 353 mm.  
320 Summer paleoprecipitation values show that the climate was much more humid than it  
321 is today, **which was 305 mm on average during 1951-2011**, with mean precipitation  
322  $\sim 50$  mm, or 17%, higher. A peak mean summer precipitation of 442 mm was reached  
323 at  $\sim 5.7$  ka BP; even the lowest value of 311 mm  $\sim 6.5$  ka BP was higher than today's  
324 mean value. Summer precipitation during the Mid Holocene (7.7-3.4 ka BP) in the  
325 Guanzhong Basin exhibited a systemic increase.

326 The reconstructed summer precipitation also fluctuates significantly **and**  
327 **becomes more and more variable, especially after 5.2 ka BP**. However, there were  
328 **three markedly humid periods, i.e. 6.1-5.5 ka BP,  $\sim 4.2$  ka BP, and  $\sim 3.6$  ka BP (Figure**  
329 **5). The period 6.1-5.5 ka BP had the most abundant summer precipitation, which was**  
330 **414 mm, i.e. 109 mm, or 36%, higher than today. At  $\sim 4.1$  ka BP, the precipitation was**  
331  **$397\pm 11$  mm, 92 mm or 30% higher than at present; at  $\sim 3.6$  ka BP, the precipitation**  
332 **was  $414\pm 45$  mm, 36% higher than at present.**

333 The period 6.1-5.5 ka BP, being the most markedly humid period, probably  
334 marks the Holocene Climate Optimum in the Guanzhong Basin; this was also when  
335 the Yangshao Culture flourished, with archeological finds indicating that there were as  
336 many villages in the area as there are today. It is worth noting that the anomalous high  
337 value at  $\sim 4.1$  ka BP **and  $\sim 3.6$  ka BP**, may indicate rapidly-developing climatic events,  
338 correspondent with other global records (**Cullen and DeMenocal, 2000; Mayewski et**  
339 **al., 2004; Wu and Liu, 2004**).

340

### 341 **5.2 Validating the reliability of quantitative precipitation reconstructions**

342 The instrumental data for the last 61 years (1951-2011) indicate that precipitation  
343 in the Guanzhong Basin occurs mainly in the summer (Figure 2). The current inland  
344 flow of warm/humid air dominated by the EASM during the summer (June through  
345 September) delivers  $\sim 58\%$  of the total annual precipitation. The area is a typical  
346 monsoon precipitation area, and summer precipitation here is therefore sensitive to



347 variations in the EASM.

348 Previous studies of various climatic proxies including stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , lacustrine  
349 sediments and loess-paleosols all indicate that the CLP had plenty of rain in the  
350 Holocene and was much more humid during the Mid Holocene (Shen *et al.*, 2005;  
351 Wang *et al.*, 2005a; Wang *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2015). The  
352 frequency of paleosol development increased during  $\sim 8.6\text{-}3.2$  ka in the CLP (Wang *et al.*,  
353 *et al.*, 2014). The eolian-sand activities in the sandlands located to the north of the CLP  
354 decreased from  $\sim 8.6\text{-}3.2$  ka BP (Wang *et al.*, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2012), whilst the  
355 vegetation coverage of the desert/loess transitional zone increased in this interval  
356 (Yang *et al.*, 2015). These various proxy records infer that the EASM was stronger  
357 during the Mid Holocene, but the amplitude of any variations in the EASM remains  
358 difficult to assess.

359 Our quantitative reconstructions of summer precipitation based on millet  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
360 indicate that EASM intensity peaked during 6.1-5.5 ka BP. The strongest summer  
361 monsoon brought the wettest **millet growth seasons**, with 36% higher precipitation  
362 than today's. More evidence supporting our contention comes from the tree pollen  
363 records from lake sediments around the CLP, which respond more directly to changes  
364 in the EASM than the other records because trees on the margins of monsoonal  
365 regions are sensitive to variations in monsoonal precipitation. Pollen records from  
366 Qinghai Lake, located to the west of the Guanzhong Basin and on the modern  
367 monsoon margins, indicate a wet interval during 7.4-4.5 ka BP, culminating in a peak  
368 at 6.5 ka BP (Figure 6a) (Shen *et al.*, 2005). Although the increase in precipitation  
369 cannot be assessed, the general trend is comparable with our  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -based precipitation  
370 reconstruction results. The percentage of broadleaf trees from pollen record in the  
371 Gonghai Lake (on the northeastern margins of the CLP; Figure 6b), indicate that the  
372 peak monsoonal period occurred during  $\sim 7.8\text{-}5.3$  ka BP, with an average annual  
373 precipitation of 574 mm (Figure 6c),  $\sim 30\%$  higher than the modern value (Chen *et al.*,  
374 2015). The increase in precipitation is highly consistent with our reconstruction  
375 results. More evidence from PMIP2 (the second phase of the Paleoclimate Modeling  
376 Intercomparison Project) coupled with Mid Holocene simulations showed that the  
377 summer precipitation associated with the EASM increased throughout most of China  
378  $\sim 6$  ka BP **and the greatest increases in precipitation seen in the region, i.e. the**  
379 **southern margins of the Tibetan Plateau, and southeastern coastal area of China,**  
380 **which experienced precipitation increases of  $>1.5$  mm/day and 0.7 mm/day (or 547.5**  
381 **mm/yr and 255.5 mm/yr), respectively (Zhang and Liu, 2009). According to the**  
382 **result, it can be inferred** the increase in precipitation in the Guanzhong Basin was  
383 lower than 255.5 mm/yr at that time. These multiple lines of evidence corroborate our  
384 reconstructions, not only *vis-à-vis* changes in precipitation during the Holocene, but  
385 also their quantitative accuracy.

386

## 387 **5 Conclusions**

388 Summer precipitation at 7.7-3.4 ka BP reconstructed using the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of  
389 common millet was 242-475 mm, with a mean of 353 mm,  $\sim 50$  mm, or 17%, higher  
390 than at present. **The increasing variability of summer precipitation was visible,**

391 especially after 5.2 ka BP. Maximum mean summer precipitation peaked at 414 mm  
392 during the period 6.1-5.5 ka BP, ~109 mm (or 36%) higher than today, indicating that  
393 the EASM peaked at this time.

394 Although the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -based precipitation record in this study has a low-resolution,  
395 the work provides an innovative method and proxy for establishing the  
396 paleoprecipitation record. Carbonized common millet remains from the Neolithic Age  
397 onward can provide a reliable dating framework and aid the reconstruction of  
398 continuous paleoprecipitation sequences and the variability of summer precipitation.  
399 This, in turn, can allow regional comparisons, providing a scientific foundation for  
400 promoting further research into the quantitative reconstruction of regional  
401 paleoclimates, and helping to understand the detailed processes and precise  
402 mechanisms of the EASM, as well as the relation between early human activity and  
403 environmental change.

404

#### 405 **Authorial contributions**

406 X. Q. L.: overall coordination of writing, sampling,  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating and paleoprecipitation  
407 reconstruction; Q. Y.: writing, sampling, data processing and paleoprecipitation  
408 reconstruction; X. Y. Z. and K. L. Z.: sampling and data processing; N. S.: sampling and  $^{14}\text{C}$   
409 dating. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

410

411

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418

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574

575 **Tables**576 **Table 1 Sampling sites and the number of common millet samples**

Sites	Location	Cultural types	Sample source	<i>n</i>
Baijia	34°33'7.53"N 109°24'38.6"E	Early Laoguantai Culture	Cultural layer	12
Huiduipo	34°34'4.1"N 109°01'41.8"E	Banpo type, Yangshao Culture	Cultural layer	9
Manan	34°28'23.7"N 109°05'17.5"E	Miaodigou type, Yangshao Culture	Cultural layer	11
Beiniu	109°19'2.6"E	Longshan Culture	Cultural layer	15
Nansha	34°29'30.1"N 109°42'47.9"E	Erlitou Culture, Shang Dynasty	Cultural layer	20

577 *n* means the number of remnant common millet samples derived from the section.

578

579

580 **Table 2 Accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) dates from Baijia (BJ), Huiduipo (HDP),**581 **Manan (MN), Beiniu (BN), and Nansha (NS)**

Sample code	Depth (cm)	Sample type	Radiocarbon age ( <sup>14</sup> C yr BP)	Calibrated age range (cal yr BP, 2σ)	Lab code
BJ-15	180-190	Common millet	6,705±40	7,504-7,657	OZM447
BJ-2	50-60	Charcoal	6,675±40	7,476-7,612	OZM446
HDP-13	235-250	Common millet	5,720±50	6,408-6,639	OZM473
HDP-9	160-180	Rice seed	5,015±45	5,655-5,896	OZM472
HDP-5	80-100	Rice seed	5,120±35	5,750-5,831	OZM471
HDP-3	40-60	Foxtail millet	5,185±40	5,891-6,009	OZM470
MN-8	140-160	Foxtail millet	4,550±35	5,053-5,191	OZM452
BN-13	280-300	Foxtail millet	5,450±70	6,172-6,400	OZM481
BN-10	220-240	Foxtail millet	3,820±45	4,138-4,360	OZM480
BN-8	180-200	Rice seed	3,770±35	4,073-4,244	OZM479
BN-5	120-140	Foxtail millet	4,540±50	5,040-5,323	OZM478
BN-1	40-60	Common millet	4,110±40	4,521-4,730	OZM477
NS-15	230-240	Wheat seed	3,300±30	3,454-3,593	OZM460
NS-11	200-210	Wheat seed	3,280±35	3,445-3,587	OZM459
NS-5	140-150	Wheat seed	3,300±30	3,454-3,593	OZM458

582 All assays were run on the STAR Accelerator, ANSTO, Australia. Calibrations refer to the

583 Radiocarbon Calibration Program (Reimer et al., 2013).

584

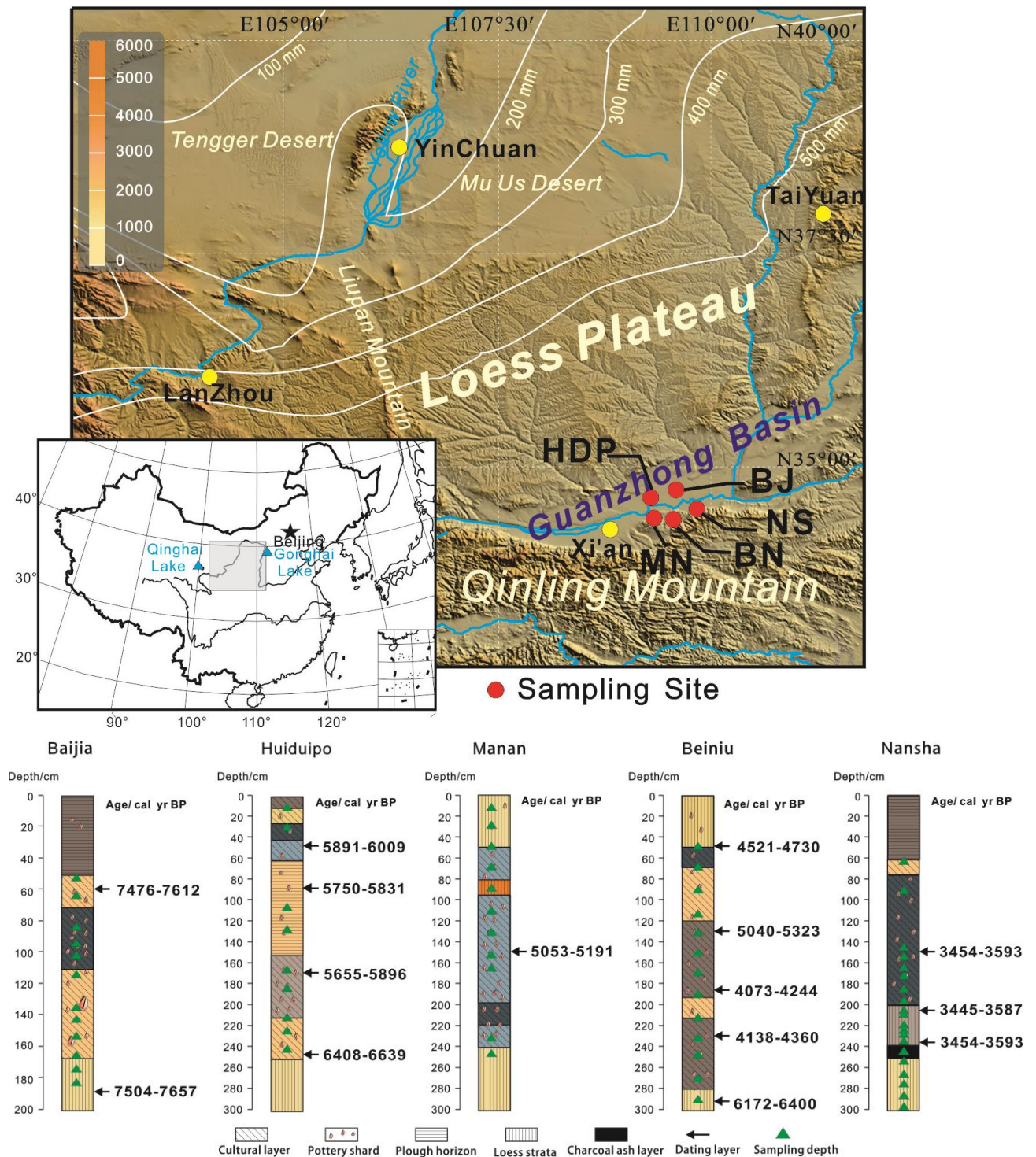
585 **Table 3 Information for grouped common millet remains, by section**

Section	Cultural age	Depth (cm)	<i>n</i>	Calibrated ages (cal yr BP)	Mean δ <sup>13</sup> C(‰)	Corrected δ <sup>13</sup> C (‰)	P <sub>gs</sub> (mm)
Baijia	Laoguantai Culture	50-190	12	7,476-7,657	-10.4±0.2	-12.2±0.2	336±30
Huiduipo	Banpo type, Yangshao Culture	200-250	3	6,408-6,639	-10.6±0.3	-12.4±0.3	311±37
	Banpo type, Yangshao Culture	120-200	2	5,655-5,896	-9.6±0.1	-11.4±0.1	442±9

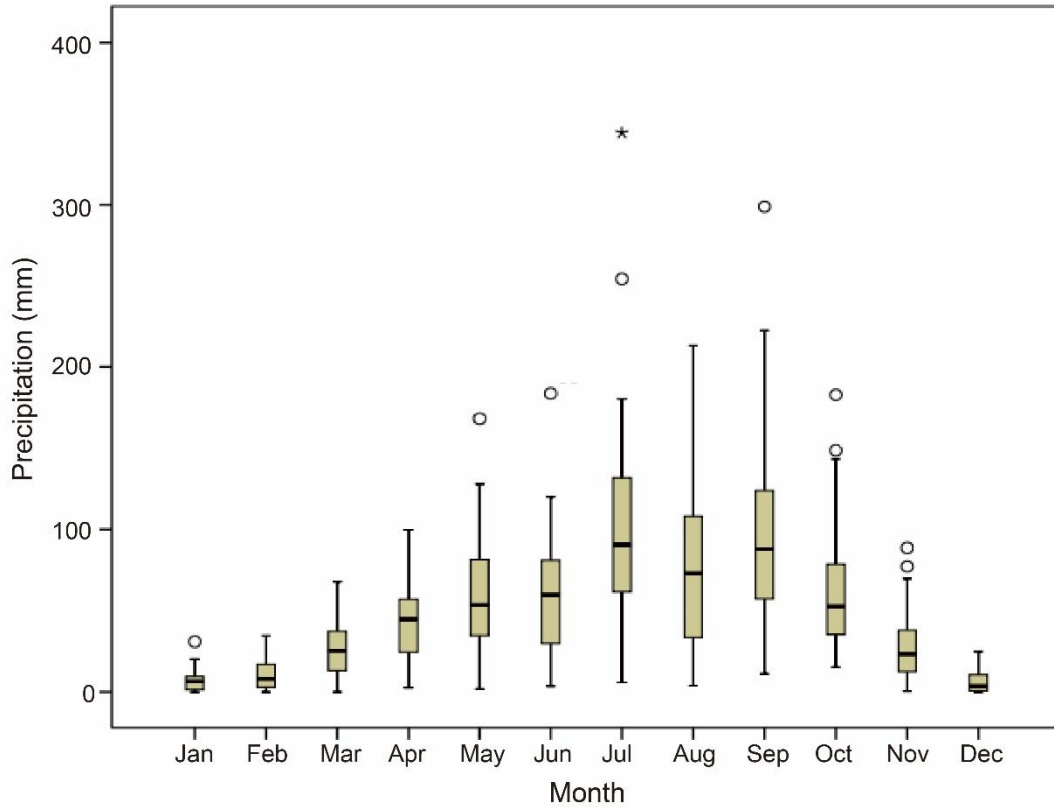
	Banpo type, Yangshao Culture	0-120	5	5,750-6,009	-9.9±0.1	-11.7 ±0.1	402±12
Manan	Miaodigou type, Yangshao Culture	0-260	11	5,053-5,191	-10.3±0.4	-12.1±0.4	346±47
Beiniu	Yangshao Culture	260-300	3	6,172-6400	-10.3±0.1	-12.1±0.1	349±8
	Longshan Culture	180-240	3	4,073-4,360	-9.9±0.1	-11.7±0.1	397±13
	Longshan Culture	80-180	4	5,040-5,323	-10.3±0.2	-12.1 ±0.2	352±27
	Longshan Culture	40-80	4	4,521-4,730	-10.6±0.2	-12.4±0.2	313±22
Nansha	Erlitou Culture, Shang Dynasty	50-300	20	3,445-3,593	-10.2±0.4	-12.0 ±0.4	346±47

586 *n* means the number of samples for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analysis. Corrected  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  means  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of millet being  
587 corrected the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  difference of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  between modern and Holocene for precipitation  
588 reconstruction.  $P_{\text{gs}}$  means reconstructed precipitation of millet growth seasons.

589 **Figures**



591  
 592 **Figure 1.** Location of sampling sites and description of all sampling sections. Red solid circles  
 593 indicate sampling sites: Baijia(BJ), Huidupo (HDP), Manan (MN), Beiniu (BN), Nansha (NS).  
 594



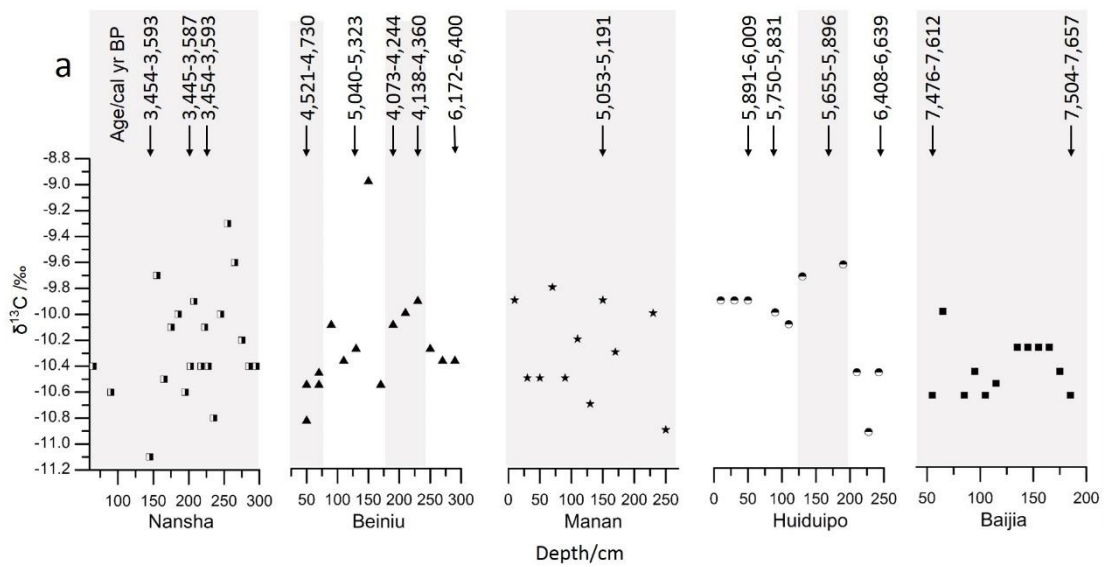
595

596 **Figure 2.** Instrumental precipitation data for 1951-2011 from Xi'an Station, Shaanxi, China  
 597 (original data, Data Sharing Platform, China Meteorological Administration). The empty circle (o)

598 indicates an abnormal value; the asterisk (\*) indicates an extremely abnormal value.

599

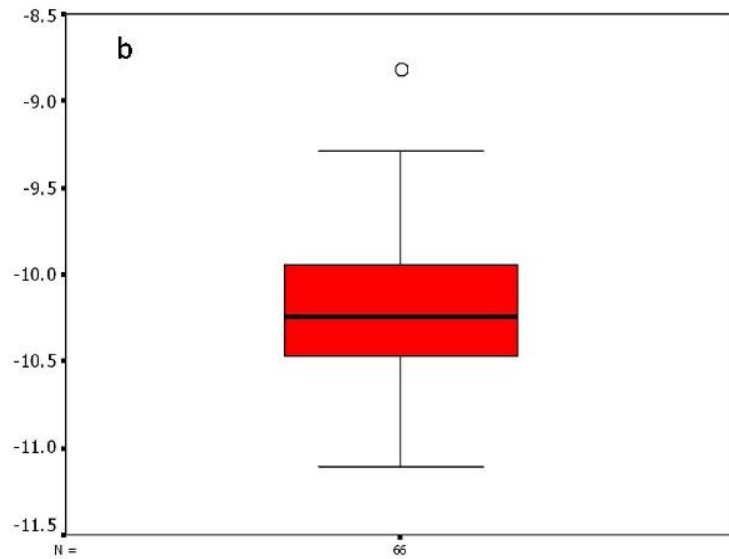
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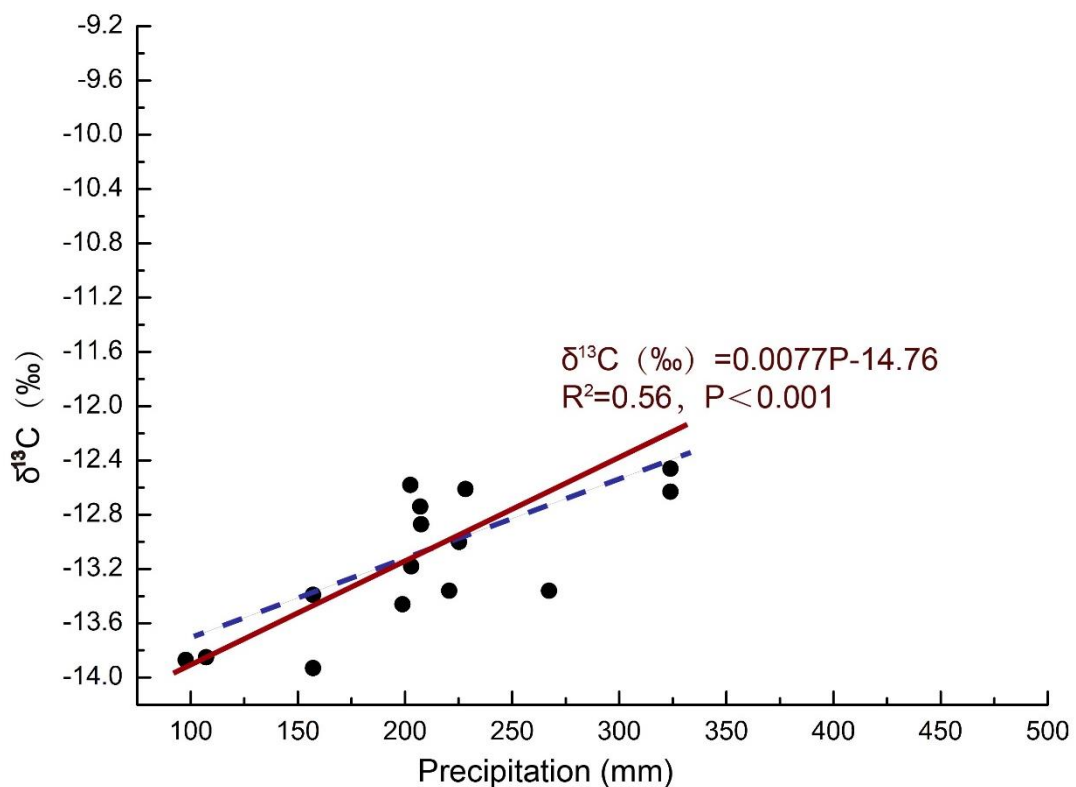
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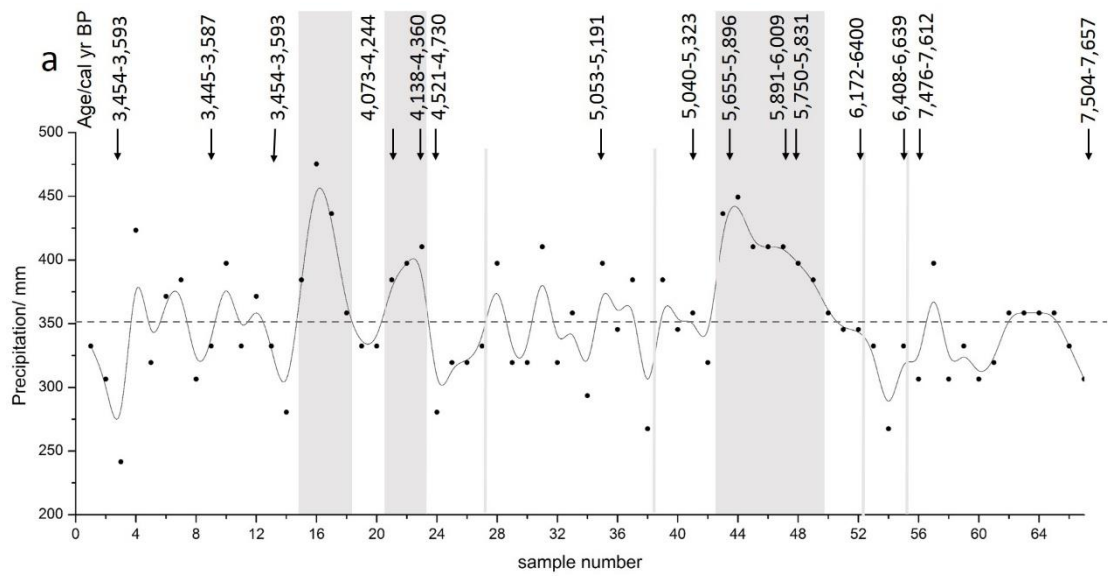
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**Figure 3.**  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet from archeological sites, Guanzhong Basin. Panel a shows raw data points including all  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and calibrated age range versus depth. The group division were expressed in gray or white color. Panel b shows Boxplot of all  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of common millet, with the mean value  $10.2 \pm 0.4\text{‰}$  ( $n=66$ ,  $\text{SD}=\pm 1 \sigma$ ) and the anomaly value of  $-8.8\text{‰}$  excluded.

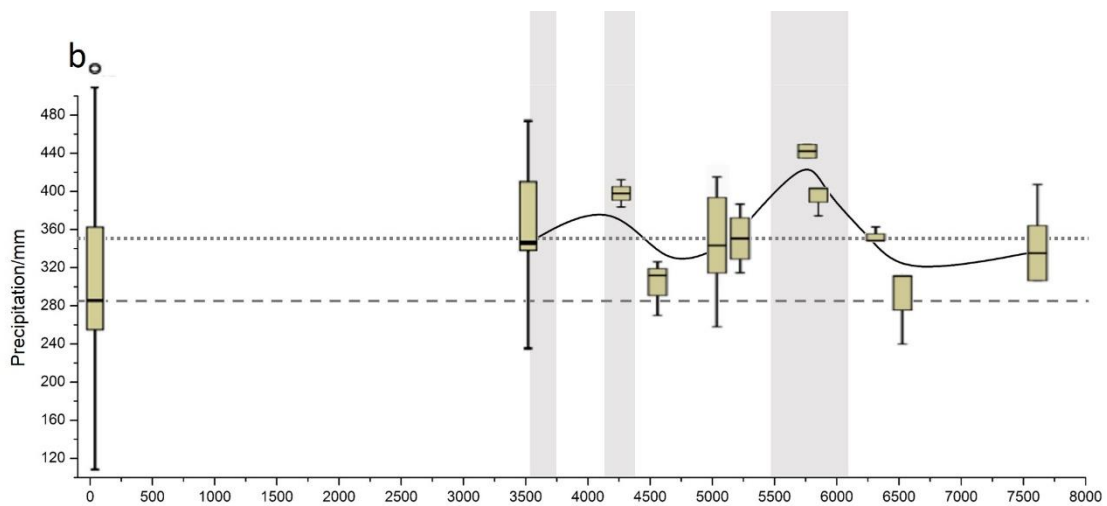


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**Figure 4.** The regression model of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of modern common millet and summer precipitation, which data from Yang and Li (2015). Dark red line denotes the line of best fit established using SMA; the blue dotted line denotes the line of best fit established using OLS.

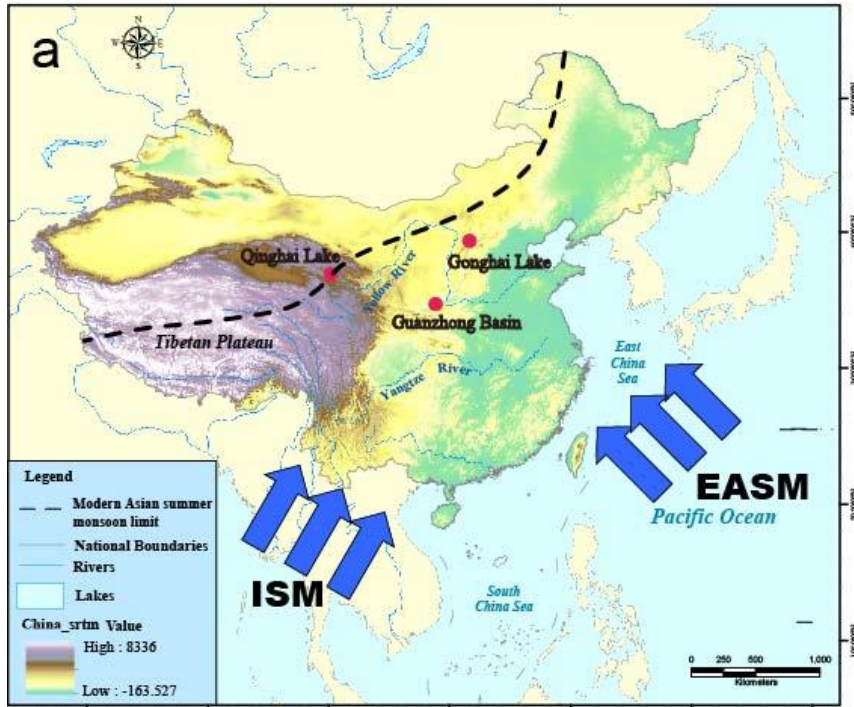


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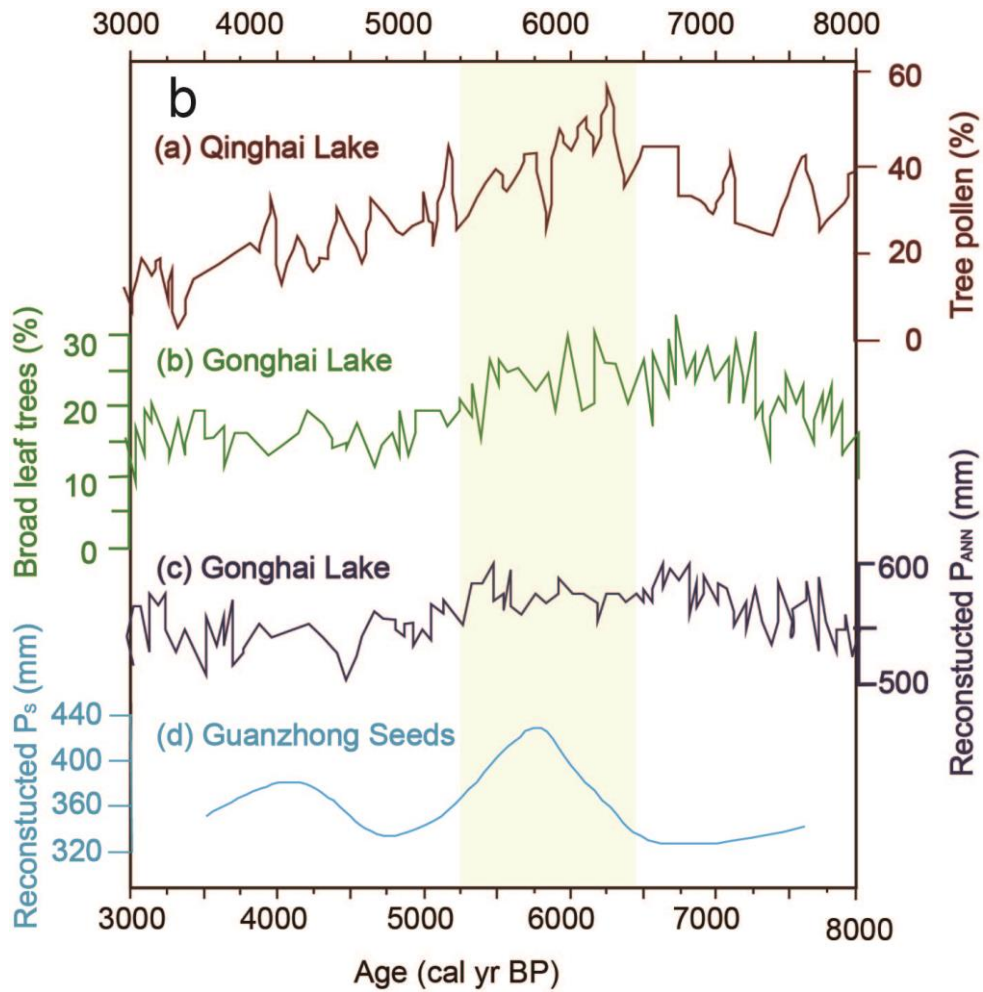


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617 **Figure 5.** Reconstructed summer precipitation during 7.7-3.4 ka BP, Guanzhong Basin (Panel a)  
 618 and comparison the reconstructed precipitation during the Holocene to precipitation for mid-June  
 619 to September for a modern period in Xi'an city (original data for 1951–2011, from the China  
 620 Meteorological Administration). The gray color in both panel a and b indicates the markedly  
 621 humid periods during the Holocene. The gray line in panel a means the group division. The dot  
 622 line in panel b indicates the mean precipitation of millet growth season at 7.7-3.4 ka BP; the dash  
 623 line in panel b indicates the mean precipitation for mid-June to September during 1951-2011.  
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627 **Figure 6.** The modern Asian summer monsoon limit is shown by a dashed line in the map (panel

628 a). The red dots signed in the map are the locations of Qinghai Lake, Gonghai Lake and

629 **Guanzhong Basin.** Comparison of reconstructed summer precipitation for 7.7-3.4 ka BP,  
630 Guanzhong Basin, with the pollen records of lakes sediments from around the CLP. **(a)** Tree  
631 pollen percentages from Qinghai Lake (Shen *et al.*, 2005). **(b)** Broadleaf tree pollen percentages  
632 from Gonghai Lake (Chen *et al.*, 2015). **(c)** Reconstructed annual precipitation from the pollen  
633 records of Gonghai Lake (Chen *et al.*, 2015). **(d)** Reconstructed summer precipitation from the  
634  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of common millet, Guanzhong Basin.  
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