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**Holocene climatic evolution at the Chinese Loess Plateau: testing sensitivity to the global warming-cooling events**

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21 **Abstract**

22

23 A high resolution petromagnetic and sedimentary grain size analyses demonstrate that pedogenic  
24 alterations in the Holocene loess sequences from the region of the Guanzhong Basin and the Mu  
25 Us Desert, ~~adjacent to~~ the Chinese Loess Plateau, were affected by the climatic variations in  
26 temperature and precipitation, but not by the climatic variations of wind intensity. Three warm-  
27 humid intervals (~8.4–3.7 ka, ~2.4–1.2 ka, and ~0.81–0.48 ka), associated with the soil  
28 formation and relatively high values of petromagnetic parameters, occurred during the Holocene.  
29 A significant paleosol development from ~8.4 to 3.7 ka, along with the higher values of proxy  
30 parameters, indicates a generally strong warm-humid phase in the mid-Holocene which can be  
31 attributed as the Holocene optimum in the studied regions. The study demonstrates that the  
32 Holocene climate in China is sensitive to the large warming and cooling events and insensitive to  
33 millennial scale climate changes. A complete Holocene climate record is constructed, and that  
34 correlates well with the other regional climate records along the south-to-north of eastern  
35 Chinese loess plateau, suggesting that similar climatic pattern of changes occurred in the eastern  
36 monsoonal China during the Holocene. Results are supported by the other evidence of climate  
37 record in different regions of the world, implying the Holocene climatic optimum took place at  
38 the same time interval all over the northern hemisphere, and thus, our results correspond to  
39 global climate records as well.

40

41 **Keywords:** climate change; Chinese loess-paleosol sequence; environmental changes; Holocene;  
42 magnetic susceptibility; petromagnetism; soil

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45

46 Many paleoclimate studies have underlined the climate fluctuations in the Holocene interval in  
47 many places (Steig, 1999, Bianchi and McCave, 1999; Wurster and Patterson, 2001; Baker et al.,  
48 2001; McDermott et al., 2001 and others). Studies have explored six such fluctuations across the  
49 globe with an indication of polar cooling, tropical aridity, and significant atmospheric deviations  
50 (Mayewski et al., 2004). Although the development of the current human civilization has been  
51 nurtured by the Holocene climate, there is quite a limited knowledge on climate variability  
52 during this period. However, this limitation can be addressed through the approach of  
53 comprehensive paleoclimate data collecting from different locations of the globe, particularly  
54 from the climate sensitive ones. The arid and semi-arid China provides a highly sensitive and  
55 profound area for large-scale climatic variations (Thompson et al., 1989; Feng et al., 1993;  
56 D'Arrigo et al., 2000; Jacoby et al., 2000).

57

58 Scientists and researchers have been investigating the Holocene paleoclimates and  
59 paleoenvironments of the Chinese arid zone for quite a long time (Zhu et al., 1982; Liu, 1985;  
60 An et al., 2000; Xiao et al., 2004; Feng et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2010 and others). For this,  
61 various records and archives including pollen and loess stratigraphy, variations in level of sea  
62 and lake, lacustrine sediments and ice cores with steady isotopes have been being studied and  
63 correlated to reconstruct the climatic variation in the Holocene. Particularly, pollen data, fossil  
64 fauna, paleosol, lake level, glacial remains, and archaeological data in China considered the mid  
65 Holocene (ca. 9.4–3.1 ka) to be the Holocene optimum (Shi et al., 1992; Li, 1996). In Inner  
66 Mongolia, strong monsoon fluctuations have been recorded as glacial advance and cessation of

67 paleosol development (Zhou et al., 1991). Based on the analyses of various records of  
68 paleoclimatic imprints or proxies, He et al. (2004) suggested that the Holocene optimum  
69 occurred at ca. 6.5–5.5 ka in the eastern China. For each area in China, the Holocene climate had  
70 three distinct phases, and the middle Holocene optimum (8–5 ka) occurred in arid to semi-arid  
71 areas (Feng et al., 2006). Studying independent proxies including contemporary pollen data,  
72 Herzschuh (2006) explored that the event of the Holocene optimum with high precipitation  
73 happened in a different time period in the Indian monsoon and the East Asian monsoon region; it  
74 is the early Holocene and the mid-Holocene respectively for these regions. In the northwest  
75 China, multi-proxy analyses indicate that a dry climate with high variation occurred from 7.8 to  
76 1 ka (Zhao et al., 2010). As there has been a discourse among the Quaternary scientists on the  
77 climatic variations in China in different intervals of the Holocene, it requires more clarification  
78 and better understanding of this climate change through the detailed records from various  
79 sources.

80

81 Selecting proper proxies and developing reliable chronologies is the key problem in  
82 reconstructing the variations in climate and environment during the Holocene. In arid and semi-  
83 arid regions, loess-paleosol sequences react to climatic variations, indicating that these areas are  
84 suitable for investigating the evolutions of paleoclimate and paleoenvironment (Rutter, 1992;  
85 Ding et al., 1993; Maher, 2011). These sequences can be instrumental to reconstruct climatic  
86 history of neighboring regions of the Loess Plateau through the last glacial cycle (e.g.,  
87 Vandenberghe et al., 1997; Sun et al., 1999; Lu et al., 1999, 2000). It is clear that more complex  
88 Holocene loess-paleosol sequences exist, and these are attributable to fluctuations in the  
89 monsoonal climate (Zhou and An, 1994; Huang et al., 2000). The loess-paleosol records with

90 reliable chronology are critical to understand the overall pattern of climate variations in the  
91 monsoonal China during the Holocene.

92

93 The analysis of petromagnetic properties of loess-paleosol deposits is instrumental for the  
94 interpretation of paleoclimatic conditions during the time of their accumulation. In this study,  
95 these properties, along with sedimentary grain size, are analyzed to investigate the Holocene  
96 climatic variations focusing on the loess-paleosols profiles from the region of the Guanzhong  
97 Basin and the Mu Us Desert in the East Asian monsoonal zone. The Guanzhong Basin is  
98 located at the southern edge of the Loess Plateau whereas the Mu Us Desert is situated at the  
99 northern part of the Plateau. Here, efforts have been made to reconstruct a regional climate and  
100 environmental changes in the Holocene recorded in the Chinese Loess; to explore the influence  
101 of temperature, precipitation, and wind strength on regional climate changes; to understand the  
102 responses of regional Holocene climate along the south-to-north eastern Chinese Loess Plateau;  
103 and to investigate whether the world and China exhibit common climate dynamics or climate  
104 change differs from region to region in the Holocene.

105

## 106 **2. The Study Area**

107

108 In this study, five aeolian sections located in two different areas, the Yaozhou in the Guanzhong  
109 Basin and the Jinjie in the Mu Us Desert, were sampled. The Yaozhou (34°53'N, 108°58'E) is  
110 situated at the Guanzhong Basin, about 60-70 km east of Xi'an city (YZ in Figure 1). At middle  
111 zone of the Yellow River valley, the Guanzhong Basin is located while having the Loess Plateau  
112 to the north and the Qinling Mountains to the south (Figure 1). The land surface in the

113 Guanzhong Basin has been quite settled because of less erosion, and eventually, it has made the  
114 aeolian dust deposits and soil surface well-preserved during the entire Holocene period (Huang  
115 et al., 2000). In the Guanzhong Basin, numerous Holocene loess-paleosol have been studied to  
116 examine changes in vegetation at the Yaoxian (Li et al., 2003), variations in climate at the  
117 Yaoxian (Zhao et al., 2007), and cultural effect at the Qingquicun (Huang et al., 2000).  
118 Analyzing the stratigraphy and the proxy data, such sequences can provide critical information  
119 regarding the fluctuations in climate, and also, they can explore major events occurred since 11  
120 ka BP to date (Shi et al., 1992). The present mean annual temperature shows to be 13°C while  
121 mean rainfall is around 554 mm, and these are associated with a semi-humid climate that  
122 displays a significant seasonal variations in temperature and precipitation which becomes intense  
123 in summer. Three sections were investigated from this area: one at an outcrop (YZ1), the second  
124 one at 100 m further south (YZ2), and the third one at 300 m west (YZ3) from the first one. YZ2  
125 is at the same pit of YZ1, whereas YZ3 is at a different pit. The sequence of 5 m YZ1, 3.3 m  
126 YZ2 and 4 m YZ3 are composed of three paleosol units of Holocene age ( $S_0S_1$ ,  $S_0S_2$  and  $S_0S_3$ ),  
127 interbedded with two layers of loess. The stratigraphic unit was identified through the  
128 examination of colour, texture and structure of the sediment. However, the buried soils in these  
129 sections cannot be identified very well visually, and thus, the soil layers can be confirmed  
130 through the magnetic measurements.

131

132 The Jinjie (38°44'N, 110°91'E) is located at the southeastern margin of the Mu Us Desert (JJ in  
133 Figure 1). The Mu Us Desert, being situated at the northern-central China and having sand  
134 dunes, belongs to the peripheral region of the East Asian monsoon. Currently, almost two-thirds  
135 of this desert are covered by these sand dunes (Sun, 2000). The ecosystem, in the semi-arid Mu

136 Us Desert, exhibits high sensitivity towards climate change since external climatic forces can  
137 easily affect the vegetation, soil, and aeolian sand (Sun et al., 2006). The local mean annual  
138 temperature, currently, varies from 6.0° to 9.0°C, and it is 200-400 mm in case of the mean  
139 rainfall. 70% of the rainfall concentrates from July to September, with a warm and humid  
140 summer as well as autumn. In winter, it is cold and dry with the prevailing cold winds being  
141 northwesterly. Two sections from this area, JJ1 and JJ3 (along the road and about 1 km southeast  
142 from JJ1), were studied. The 7m deep JJ1 and 8m deep JJ3 aeolian sequences contain three  
143 distinctive dark brown sandy loam soil layers ( $S_0S_1$ ,  $S_0S_2$  and  $S_0S_3$ ) separated by sand beds. The  
144 stratigraphic subdivision was made by the field observation of colour, texture, and structure of  
145 the sediment. For JJ3 section, there are mixture of sand and soils in between two soil layers. All  
146 of these sections are situated above the Malan loess (L1).

147

148 The Yaozhou and the Jinjie loess paleosol sequences are both dated using optically stimulated  
149 luminescence (OSL) dating technique (Zhao et al., 2007; Ma et al., 2011). In the Yaozhou, the  
150 boundary between the lowest paleosol ( $S_0S_3$ ) and the Malan Loess was OSL dated  $8.44 \pm 0.59$  ka  
151 (Zhao et al., 2007). At the Jinjie, the lowest paleosol ( $S_0S_3$ ) was bracketed by two OSL dates—  
152  $7.07 \pm 0.42$  ka at the bottom and  $3.91 \pm 0.18$  ka at the top (Ma et al., 2011). Ages of each soil  
153 section are assigned based on the OSL dating of Zhao et al. (2007) for the Yaozhou area and Ma  
154 et al. (2011) for the Jinjie area.

155

156 **3. Methods**

157 **3.1 Sampling**

158

159 A total of 573 non-oriented bulk samples were collected from the 5 sections (YZ1: 100, YZ2: 80,  
160 YZ3: 85, JJ1: 150 and JJ3: 158 samples) for petromagnetic and sedimentary grain size analyses.

161 Samples were taken continuously at 5 cm intervals (2.5 cm intervals only for the thin soils) from  
162 all sections. Sampling was started from the top that contains present day soil i.e. the cultivated  
163 layer.

164

165 **3.2 Thermomagnetic and hysteresis data**

166

167 | Temperature dependent magnetic susceptibility (~~MS~~) was measured on several samples from  
168 each section to investigate the magnetic mineralogy. The measurement was performed using a  
169 Bartington susceptibility meter in the Laboratory of Paleomagnetism and Petromagnetism of the  
170 Physics Department at the University of Alberta. The sample was heated up to 700°C and then  
171 allowed to cool back to room temperature in air. During heating and cooling, magnetic  
172 susceptibility measurement of the sample was taken at every 2°C. The magnetic grain size of the  
173 samples was investigated by hysteresis measurements at room temperature with a maximum field  
174 of  $\pm 1$ T using a VFTB in the Environmental Magnetism Laboratory, Geophysics Institute in  
175 Beijing, China. Saturation magnetization ( $M_s$ ), remanent saturation magnetization ( $M_{rs}$ ),  
176 coercive force ( $H_c$ ), and the coercivity of remanence ( $H_{cr}$ ) values were evaluated from the  
177 hysteresis loops.

178

### 179 3.3 Petromagnetic parameters

180 A number of petromagnetic parameters such as low and high frequency magnetic susceptibility,  
181 anhysteretic remanent magnetization (ARM), saturation isothermal remanent magnetization  
182 (SIRM), and back field isothermal remanent magnetization (bIRM) were measured to identify  
183 variations in the concentration, grain size and mineralogy of magnetic material in the samples.  
184 These were conducted in the paleomagnetism and petromagnetism laboratory of the University  
185 of Alberta. These parameters (low field mass specific magnetic susceptibility  $\chi_{lf}$  and SIRM) and  
186 the ratios derived from them (frequency dependence of magnetic susceptibility FD and  
187 normalized to the steady field anhysteretic remanent magnetization ( $\chi_{ARM}$ )) were used to interpret  
188 the paleoclimatic conditions during deposition of the studied loess-paleosol sections.

189

190 In the laboratory, 8 cm<sup>3</sup> plastic non-magnetic boxes were used to host the sediments for  
191 petromagnetic measurements. The low-frequency (0.43 kHz) and high-frequency (4.3 kHz)  
192 magnetic susceptibility of each sample were measured using a Bartington Instruments MS2B  
193 dual frequency meter. To reduce the level of considerably high noise from the Bartington  
194 instrument, special precaution was taken during measurements. Each sample was measured three  
195 times in different positions, and the average MS-magnetic susceptibility value was calculated for  
196 both low and high frequency measurements. All the values were checked before getting the  
197 average, and found consistent without high errors. Air measurements were taken in between two  
198 samples' measurement each time to monitor and eliminate the instrumental drift. The FD value  
199 was calculated for each sample using its averaged low and high frequency MS-magnetic  
200 susceptibility values. ARM was acquired in the samples subjecting to a peak AF field of 100 mT  
201 and a steady DC field of 0.1 mT by a 2G cryogenic magnetometer demagnetizer. This ARM was

202 normalized to the steady field to yield  $\chi_{ARM}$ . SIRM was acquired in the samples by subjecting  
203 them to a field of 0.6 T through a 2G IRM stand-alone electromagnet. bIRM was induced to the  
204 samples by using a reversed field of 0.3 T and the acquired remanences were measured on the  
205 cryogenic magnetometer. Parameters ( $\chi_{ARM}/\chi_{lf}$  and  $\chi_{ARM}/SIRM$ ) were also evaluated for each  
206 sample.

207

### 208 **3.4 Sedimentary grain size**

209

210 Sedimentary grain size analysis was performed in order to determine relative wind strengths  
211 during loess deposition of the studied sections. Sedimentary grain size was measured on a  
212 Mastersizer 2000 laser particle analyzer at the Northwest University in Xian, China. The grain  
213 size samples were subjected to standard chemical pretreatment. To eliminate the organic  
214 material, samples of 0.3–0.4 g were fully dissolved in 10 ml of 10% boiling hydrogen peroxide  
215 ( $H_2O_2$ ) solution in a 200 ml beaker. The carbonates were also removed by boiling with 10 ml of  
216 10% hydrochloric acid (HCl). Distilled water was added during the chemical treatment to avoid  
217 drying of the solution. After standing overnight, the clear water was decanted from the sample.  
218 Through a combination of an addition of 10 ml of 10% sodium hexametaphosphate [ $(NaPO_3)_6$ ]  
219 solution and an oscillation for around 10 minutes ultrasonically, dispersion was created for the  
220 components.

221

## 222 4. Results

### 223 4.1 Thermomagnetic and hysteresis

224

225 Typical examples of temperature dependent magnetic susceptibility curves and hysteresis loops  
226 are presented in Figure 2. The MS-magnetic susceptibility shows decrease in the signal and  
227 reaches minimum value at approximately 590°C, indicating the presence of magnetite (Figure 2).

228 The MS-magnetic susceptibility values start to increase above 590°C suggesting that hematite is  
229 produced by the oxidation of magnetite, as expected in such experiments while conducting in air.

230 The shape of the hysteresis loops indicates samples contain pseudo-single domain (PSD)  
231 particles (Figure 2). The remanence ratio ( $M_r/M_s$ ) versus coercivity ratio ( $H_{cr}/H_c$ ) is shown on  
232 a Day plot (Dunlop, 2002) in Figure 3. The Day plot represents that magnetic grain size of  
233 samples mainly clusters within the pseudo-single domain (PSD) region (Figure 3).

234

### 235 4.2 Petromagnetic parameters

236

237 The measured parameters of five sections (YZ1, YZ2, YZ3, JJ1, and JJ3) have been plotted  
238 against depth of the sections in Figure 4-8. Magnetic susceptibility has been widely used as a  
239 proxy indicator to investigate Quaternary climate change by loess-paleosol sequences on the  
240 Chinese Loess Plateau (Heller and Liu 1984; Balsam et al., 2004). The MS-magnetic  
241 susceptibility record demonstrates intensity variations of the pedogenesis, caused by  
242 precipitation changes related to summer monsoon climatic fluctuations (An et al., 1991; An and  
243 Xiao, 1990).  $\chi_{lf}$  measures the magnetic response caused by magnetic remanences as well as non-  
244 remanent components present in the samples (Robinson, 1986; Thompson and Oldfield, 1986;

245 Evans and Heller, 2003).  $\chi_{lf}$  values (average  $0.13 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) for the Jinjie area (JJ1 and JJ3  
246 sections) are relatively lower than that (average  $1.05 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) of the Yaozhou area (YZ1,  
247 YZ2 and YZ3 sections), suggesting that the latter area has higher concentration of magnetic  
248 particles. The loess and paleosol layers are all clearly identifiable in the  $\chi_{lf}$  profiles from all  
249 sections (Figure 4-8). In this study, the susceptibility curves ( $\chi_{lf}$ ) of all the sections show that the  
250 soils have higher susceptibility compared to the loess/sand beds (Figure 4-8), indicating warm-  
251 wet climate conditions during the formation of these accretionary soils. On the other hand, lower  
252  $\chi_{lf}$  values in the loess/sand layers exhibit a cool-dry climate and intensified aeolian dust  
253 deposition as well as weak pedogenic processes during loess deposition. The upper layer of the  
254 soils ( $S_0S_1$ ), formed thinner in a shorter period, shows weak  $\chi_{lf}$  values almost as same as the  
255 values of adjacent aeolian loess/sands, whereas the lower layers of soils represent stronger  
256 signals for the sections YZ2, YZ3, JJ1, and JJ3 (Figure 5-8). For YZ1 section,  $S_0S_1$  shows high  
257 peak with disturbance, probably due to the close proximity of  $S_0S_1$  to the modern soil or the  
258 cultivated layer (Figure 4).

259

260 The FD parameter appears to be higher in soil horizons compared to the loess as it is related to  
261 the distribution of ferromagnetic minerals, commonly superparamagnetic magnetite produced  
262 during soil formation (Thompson and Oldfield, 1986; Evans and Heller, 2003). All soil horizons  
263 exhibit higher FD values (ranging around 8-10%) compared to their respective parent loess  
264 horizons, and these are in agreement with the  $\chi_{lf}$  values (Figure 4-7). These higher FD values of  
265 studied soil horizons confirm the continuous production of superparamagnetic particles during  
266 the pedogenesis in warmer interval. However, for the JJ3 section, the FD parameter does not

267 show variations to corresponding sands and soils (Figure 8), probably due to the sandiness of the  
268 soils for this section.

269  
270  $\chi_{ARM}$  and SIRM indicate variations in magnetic mineral concentration, and values get higher with  
271 increasing concentration of minerals having a high magnetization such as magnetite (Thompson  
272 and Oldfield, 1986; Yu and Oldfield, 1989; King and Channell, 1991; Evans and Heller, 2003).  
273 Figure 4-8 indicate that the paleosol horizons have higher  $\chi_{ARM}$  and SIRM values compared to  
274 the loess/sand horizons. The higher  $\chi_{ARM}$  and SIRM values represent higher concentration of  
275 magnetic particles within the soil layers, and indicate warmer-wetter conditions and active  
276 pedogenic processes during the time of soil formation. Whereas lower values, found in the  
277 loess/sand layers, indicate cooler-drier conditions and weak pedogenic intensity during the  
278 periods of intensified dust deposition. For all the sections,  $\chi_{ARM}$  and SIRM curves indicate the  
279 presence of  $\chi_{lf}$  and FD peaks, corresponding to the soil horizons (Figure 4-8).

280

### 281 **4.3 Sedimentary grain size**

282

283 The grain size variations of loess deposits have commonly been used to monitor past wind  
284 intensity changes (Pye and Zhou, 1989; Rea, 1994). Stronger winds are associated with more  
285 dust storms, coarser particle size and larger dust input to the Loess Plateau (Ding et al., 1994).  
286 The average median grain size values are larger for the Jinjie area ( ~ 220  $\mu\text{m}$ ) than the Yaozhou  
287 area ( ~ 13.9  $\mu\text{m}$ ), representing that the grain size records of the Holocene loess deposits  
288 decrease from north to south over the Chinese Loess Plateau. The grain size of the last glacial  
289 loess deposits also displays an overall southward decrease (Yang and Ding, 2004) as the loess

290 was created primarily in the sandy Gobi deserts in northwestern China and was carried away by  
291 the near-surface northwesterly wind (Liu 1985; An et al., 1991). However, recent studies  
292 suggested that Yellow River brought significant amounts of sediment which is the main source  
293 of aeolian supply to the Chinese Loess Plateau (Nie et al., 2015; Licht et al., 2016). The median  
294 grain size of the studied sections does not demonstrate well the general characteristic of the  
295 smaller values for the soil horizons (Figure 9-13), indicating that the wind intensity did not vary  
296 much for these areas during the Holocene. Moreover, the median grain size of the loess and soil  
297 horizons of the Yaozhou area (YZ1, YZ2 and YZ3 sections) shows a little variability (Figure 9-  
298 11) compared to the loess and soil layers of the Jinjie area (JJ1 and JJ3 sections) (Figure 12-13),  
299 suggesting that the wind intensity fluctuation was higher in the north loess plateau (Jinjie area) in  
300 contrast with the south loess plateau (Yaozhou area).

301  
302 The ratios  $\chi_{ARM}/\chi_{lf}$  and  $\chi_{ARM}/SIRM$  indicate variations in magnetic grain size and the values  
303 decrease with increasing magnetic grain size (Thompson and Oldfield, 1986; King et al., 1982;  
304 Maher, 1988; Evans and Heller, 2003). For all the sections, magnetic grain size ( $\chi_{ARM}/\chi_{lf}$  and  
305  $\chi_{ARM}/SIRM$ ) varies in the same manner as the sedimentary grain size does (Figure 9-13). Both  
306 the ratios reflect a little variability for loess and soil horizons indicating smaller relative changes  
307 in magnetic grain sizes.

308

## 309 **5. Discussion**

### 310 **5.1 Variations in the Holocene climate**

311

312 Three soil layers ( $S_0S_1$ ,  $S_0S_2$  and  $S_0S_3$ ) are identified for all the sections not only in the field but  
313 also in the laboratory by higher magnetic concentration parameters ( $\chi_{lf}$ ,  $\chi_{ARM}$ , SIRM) and FD  
314 parameter. Therefore,  $\chi_{lf}$ , FD,  $\chi_{ARM}$  and SIRM are higher for soil and lower for loess/sand  
315 horizons, indicating warmer and colder assemblage respectively. The sedimentary and magnetic  
316 grain size variations do not correspond to the soil intervals entirely. Furthermore, the magnetic  
317 concentration parameters and FD parameter show a larger variation for the loess and soil layers  
318 compared to the sedimentary and magnetic grain sizes for these layers. It demonstrates that  
319 humidity fluctuation, which is related to the vegetation and soil formation, was stronger than the  
320 wind intensity variation for the studied sections during the Holocene.

321

322 Petromagnetic analysis of five loess sections in the Yaozhou and the Jinjie areas shows clear  
323 changes in regional climate, and provides paleoenvironmental information over the Holocene.  
324 Changes of parameters with soil formation in five studied sections, at the Yaozhou (Jinjie),  
325 suggests three distinct warm-humid time periods during the Holocene: the oldest warmer interval  
326 was between 8.4–3.7 ka (7.0–3.9 ka), the middle one occurred between 2.4–1.2 ka (2.9–1.7 ka),  
327 and the youngest started at 0.81 ka (1.1 ka) (Figure 4-8). Furthermore, based on the data, two  
328 cold-dry intervals associated with loess deposition can be considered at the Yaozhou (Jinjie):  
329 3.7–2.4 ka (3.9–2.9 ka) and 1.2–0.81 ka (1.7–1.1 ka). However, at these areas, the onset and  
330 termination of warming-cooling intervals during the Holocene were almost similar with a slight  
331 difference. A subsequent warm-humid phase took place between ~8.4 ka and ~3.7 ka, indicated  
332 by the development of strong soil ( $S_0S_3$ ) in all five sections. Combined with high values of all  
333 petromagnetic parameters in the studied regions (Figure 4-8), this period is attributed to the  
334 Holocene optimum, a warm period (generally warmer than today) in the middle of the Holocene.

335 Soil S<sub>0</sub>S<sub>3</sub> formation terminated around ~3.7 ka, suggesting a cold-arid period. This resulted in an  
336 active period for the loess/sand during ~3.7–2.4 ka. The soil S<sub>0</sub>S<sub>2</sub> developed between ~2.4 and  
337 ~1.2 ka, and at that time, the values of the petromagnetic parameters indicate a warm-humid  
338 period in this region (Figure 4-8). The climate became colder and drier between ~1.2 and ~0.81  
339 ka as the sand/loess was deposited, illustrated by low values of petromagnetic parameters. Soil  
340 S<sub>0</sub>S<sub>1</sub> formed in the interval of ~0.81–0.48 ka (Figure 4-8), suggesting a warm-humid period.

341

## 342 **5.2 Comparison of regional paleoclimatic records**

343

344 Changes in climate in the studied sections can be compared with the other reported paleoclimatic  
345 records from the neighboring monsoonal region of semi-arid China. In this study, we used tree  
346 pollen records from peatlands or lakes, located along the south-to-north regional transect on the  
347 eastern Loess Plateau, to make comparison with our results. In order to compare, low frequency  
348 magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{lf}$ ) of YZ3 section from the Yaozhou and JJ3 section from the Jinjie  
349 have been selected as reference curve since these identify soil intervals better than the others.  
350 The sites from south to north include the Hongyuan peatland (Zhou et al., 2010), the Yaozhou  
351 (YZ3), the Jinjie (JJ3), the Daihai Lake (Xiao et al., 2004), and the Hulun Lake (Wen et al.,  
352 2010) (Figure 1 and 14). Summer temperature and precipitation are two dominant climatic  
353 factors controlling soil formation as well as pollen assemblages (Shen et al., 2006). Thus, high  
354 magnetic parameters and high tree pollen should reflect warm-wet climates. Three warmer  
355 intervals of the studied region visually correlate well with the higher pollen data (Figure 14).

356

357 Pollen records from the Hongyuan peatland (Zhou et al., 2010), the Daihai Lake (Xiao et al.,  
358 2004), and the Hulun Lake (Wen et al., 2010) show peak tree pollen abundance in the mid-  
359 Holocene between ~8.4 and ~3.7 ka (Figure 14), suggesting a warmer-wetter climate. There is an  
360 agreement in the mid-Holocene maximum or climate optimum as documented at our studied  
361 sections and other sites (Figure 14). In the Lake Daihai which is situated at the northeast from the  
362 Mu Us Desert, high and stable lake level also occurred at ~8–3 ka (Sun et al., 2009). An ancient  
363 wetland existed continuously from ~7.8 to 4 ka at valleys, southeast of the Lanzhou, which is  
364 located further west from the Yaozhou (An et al., 2005). A humid mid-Holocene corresponds  
365 well with a more recent reconstruction of monsoonal precipitation through various imprints from  
366 the Chinese Loess Plateau (Lu et al., 2013). Zhao and Yu (2012) studied most of the sites of the  
367 temporary zone, located between forest and temperate steppe vegetation in the northeastern  
368 China, and confirmed the presence of the wettest climate occurred between ~8 and ~4 ka. The  
369 high level of the Lake Huangqihai during 8–4 ka (Shen, 2013), situated in the monsoonal region,  
370 indicates a strong East Asian summer monsoon happened in the mid-Holocene. In the Horqin  
371 dunefield, the greater density of vegetation coverage occurred between ~8 and ~3.2 ka,  
372 suggesting a warm and humid climate (Mu et al., 2016). Even though the termination of the  
373 warm-humid Holocene optimum slightly vary in different sections, this is possibly due to the age  
374 model imperfections and assumptions of the close to constant sedimentation rate, the  
375 inconsistencies of various of different dating methods or irregularity of the Holocene optimum  
376 (e.g., An et al., 2000; He et al., 2004).

377

378 From ~3.7 to ~2.4 ka, the decreasing susceptibility of the studied sections suggests a drying and  
379 cooling climate trend that correlates with the tree pollen data (Figure 14). The pollen sequence

380 collected from the Taishizhuang peat site, located at the southeastern edge of the Mongolian  
381 Plateau, confirms a significant climatic variation taken place at around ~3.4 ka, and during that  
382 time, the tree component almost disappeared entirely (Jin and Liu, 2002; Tarasov et al., 2006).  
383 Both in the south-central and the southeastern Inner Mongolia region, a major cultural shift  
384 occurred at ~3.5 ka (Liu and Feng 2012). After ~3.7 ka, aeolian sand transportation took place  
385 more frequently and the East Asian summer monsoon strength decayed significantly, as  
386 perceived from the higher probability density values (Wang et al., 2014). A drying and cooling  
387 climatic shift also found in two cave speleothem sequences in the southern China from the  
388 Linhua Cave at ~3.3–3.0 ka (Cosford et al., 2008), and from the Heshang Cave at ~3.6–3.1 ka  
389 (Hu et al., 2008).

390

391 For the interval of ~2.4–1.2 ka, the magnetic climate data of this study coincides well with the  
392 tree pollen data of the Hongyuan peatland (Zhou et al., 2010), the Daihai Lake (Xiao et al.,  
393 2004), and the Hulun Lake (Wen et al., 2010) (Figure 14). This period can be confirmed by the  
394 moist grassland at the Guanzhong Basin (Li et al., 2003). Furthermore, in Figure 14, the  
395 correlation analysis of magnetic susceptibility and tree pollen data shows good agreement for the  
396 cold-dry interval of ~1.2–0.81 ka. Although the warmer interval of ~0.81–0.48 ka, recorded by  
397 the magnetic proxies in this study, does not correlate well with the tree pollen data of the  
398 Hongyuan peatland (Zhou et al., 2010) and the Hulun Lake (Wen et al., 2010), however, it shows  
399 a good agreement with the tree pollen data of the Daihai Lake (Xiao et al., 2004) (Figure 14).  
400 Our results are in broad agreement with pollen records, and demonstrate that same climatic  
401 variation occurred along the south-to-north eastern Chinese Loess Plateau during the Holocene.

402

### 403 **5.3 Comparison of global paleoclimatic records**

404

405 Our results of Holocene climate changes in China can be compared with the global records. We  
406 compare our low frequency magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{lf}$ ) records of YZ3 and JJ3 sections with  
407 the Lake Baikal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from diatom silica (Mackay et al., 2011), FD records of the  
408 Burdukovo loess section in Siberia (Kravchinsky et al., 2013), temperature variations in the  
409 northern hemisphere (McMichael, 2012), and Drift Ice Indices Stack from the North Atlantic  
410 (Bond et al., 2001) (Figure 15). Temperature variations in the northern hemisphere during the  
411 Holocene have been reconstructed through the average of various published data (McMichael,  
412 2012). The studied major episodes correspond visually to the other global records (Figure 15).

413

414 For ~8.4–3.7 ka, our data show high susceptibility and indicate warm-humid period for the  
415 whole interval. Whereas,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of the Lake Baikal (Mackay et al., 2011), FD values of the  
416 Burdukovo loess section (Kravchinsky et al., 2013), temperature variations in the northern  
417 hemisphere (McMichael, 2012), and Drift Ice Indices Stack from the North Atlantic (Bond et al.,  
418 2001) show two peaks during that interval (Figure 15). The higher latitude section Burdukovo  
419 resolves short-term climate variations. The Lake Baikal record sampling resolution is quite low,  
420 but it also registers the cooling interval between ~5 and 6 ka very well. There exists no clear  
421 indication of such cooling interval in the studied Chinese loess sections. It may be due to the  
422 reason that the high latitudes are more sensitive to the millennial scale changes in the orbital  
423 parameters than the southern latitudes as demonstrated by the analysis in Loutre et al. (1992).  
424 Although a couple of studies indicate millennial scale Holocene climate variations in northwest  
425 China (Yu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2012), we find that the Holocene climate is

426 insensitive to these variations in our studied regions. Usoskin et al. (2007) suggested the  
427 probability of the effect of the orbital parameters of the Earth's climate being insignificant in  
428 clarifying the direct influence of solar variability on climate change. Beer et al. (2006) examined  
429 the probable feedback mechanisms for the amplification of the solar heating effect. Nevertheless,  
430 the whole interval of ~8.4–3.7 ka in China can be considered warm and humid period. The  
431 period between ~7 and 4.2 ka BP was demonstrated as high summer temperature in the mid and  
432 high latitude areas of the northern hemisphere (Klimenko et al., 1996; Alverson et al., 2003).  
433 Furthermore, an extensive paleosol, developed on the eastern belt of the Badain Jaran Desert,  
434 indicates a climate optimum in the mid Holocene (Yang et al., 2011). This humid episode  
435 between ~8.4 ka and ~3.7 ka is also found in the North Africa (Guo et al., 2000). Therefore, the  
436 interval of ~8.4–3.7 ka can be considered a globally registered Holocene optimum period.

437

438 A cool and dry climate from ~3.7 to ~2.4 ka caused the lowest  $\chi_{lf}$  and well-preserved loess/sand  
439 in the studied area, also indicated by other global data (Figure 15). A cold and arid period from  
440 ~3.5 to ~2.5 ka in the northern hemisphere was determined by Mayewski et al. (2004), and this  
441 interval is almost the same arid period as found in this study. In the northern hemisphere, the  
442 3.5–2.5 ka shows rapid climate change intervals including the North Atlantic ice-rafting events  
443 (Bond et al., 1997), and strengthened westerlies over the North Atlantic and Siberia (Meeker and  
444 Mayewski, 2002). The interval, at 3.5–2.5 ka, also presents a strong aridity in the regions like the  
445 East Africa, the Amazon Basin, Ecuador, and the Caribbean/Bermuda region (Haug et al., 2001).  
446 Wanner et al. (2011) reviewed that the global cooling event between ~3.3 and ~2.5 ka coincided  
447 with a considerably low solar activity forcing.

448

449 In Figure 15, warmer interval of ~2.4–1.2 ka and colder interval of ~1.2–0.81 ka in the studied  
450 area correlate well with the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of the Lake Baikal (Mackay et al., 2011), FD values of  
451 the Burdukovo loess section (Kravchinsky et al., 2013), temperature variations in the northern  
452 hemisphere (McMichael, 2012), and Drift Ice Indices Stack from the North Atlantic (Bond et al.,  
453 2001). This event (~1.2 to 1.0 ka) corresponds to the maxima in the  $\delta^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^{10}\text{Be}$  records,  
454 indicating a weakening in solar output at this interval (Mayewski et al., 2004). At low latitudes,  
455 ~1.2–1.0 ka usually shows dry conditions in the tropical Africa and the monsoonal Pakistan  
456 (Gasse, 2000; 2001). During ~1.2 to 1.0 ka, atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  surged moderately and caused  
457 variations in solar output resulting in drought in the Yucatan (Hodell et al., 1991, 2001). The  
458 other warmer interval of ~0.81–0.48 ka also corresponds to FD parameter in the Burdukovo  
459 (Kravchinsky et al., 2013), temperature variations in the northern hemisphere (McMichael,  
460 2012), and Drift Ice Indices Stack from the North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001). However, the  
461 resolution of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data from the Holocene sediments of the Lake Baikal is not very high  
462 (Mackay et al., 2011), and does not allow to evaluate this interval in the Lake Baikal.

463

464 Our results demonstrate that changes in petromagnetic parameters of the loess-paleosol  
465 sequences in the studied area correlate closely with variations in climate documented separately,  
466 as explored by other proxies. Such correspondence demonstrates the global connections among  
467 the continental climate in Asia and the central Eurasia, temperature variations in the northern  
468 hemisphere, and the oceanic climate of the North Atlantic. Furthermore, the Holocene optimum  
469 period (~8.4 to 3.7 ka) in the studied regions, indicating a stronger warm-wet phase, appears to  
470 be a globally registered warming period.

471

472 **6. Conclusions**

473

474 (1) Petromagnetic and grain size analyses provide evidence for pedogenic alteration in the  
475 Holocene loess sequences of the Chinese Loess Plateau, affected by the climatic variation in  
476 temperature and precipitation but not by the climatic variation of wind intensity.

477 (2) Results indicate that subsequent warm-humid phase occurred in the studied regions during  
478 ~8.4–3.7 ka, ~2.4–1.2 ka, and ~0.81–0.48 ka, evidenced by the development of paleosols as  
479 well as high values of petromagnetic parameters in all sections.

480 (3) The Holocene climatic optimum period, in the studied regions, occurred between ~8.4 and  
481 ~3.7 ka. This climate shows sensitivity to the large warming and cooling events while being  
482 insensitive to millennial scale climate changes.

483 (4) The Holocene climate record of the studied regions is consistent with the reported climate  
484 records from the tree pollen analysis along the south-to-north eastern Chinese Loess Plateau  
485 at that time, suggesting that that same climatic variation occurred in the eastern monsoonal  
486 China.

487 (5) Our results correspond to the record of climate changes on regional and/or global scales,  
488 implying that similar climatic pattern of changes occurred in different regions of the world  
489 during the Holocene and the Holocene climatic optimum took place at the same time interval  
490 all over the northern hemisphere.

491

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493

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500 **Data availability**

501 We release the data presented here to the public domain at <https://www.pangaea.de/>.

502

503

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813 **Figure captions**

814

815 **Figure 1.** Top: satellite image map showing the location of the studied areas (red star) and the  
816 other sites discussed in the text: 1– Hongyuan peatland; 2– Yaozhou; 3– Jinjie; 4– Daihai Lake;  
817 5– Hulun Lake; 6– Lake Baikal; 7– Burdukovo. Bottom: geographic location of the Yaozhou  
818 (YZ) and Jinjie (JJ) studied areas in the Chinese Loess Plateau.

819

820 **Figure 2.** Top: examples of temperature dependent magnetic susceptibility for the samples from  
821 YZ3 section (loess; sample 205 and soil; sample 150). Arrows represent heating (red line) and  
822 cooling (blue line) directions. Bottom: representative hysteresis loops of the samples from YZ3  
823 section (loess; sample 50 and soil; sample 250).

824

825 **Figure 3.** Day plot of the hysteresis parameters (based on Dunlop, 2002) for YZ3 (triangles), JJ1  
826 (diamonds), and JJ3 (circles) sections. SD– single domain; PSD– pseudo-single domain; and  
827 MD– multidomain.

828

829 **Figure 4.** Stratigraphy and magnetic concentration parameters of the YZ1 section.  $\chi_{lf}$ – low  
830 frequency magnetic susceptibility ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ); FD (%) – frequency dependence parameter;  
831  $\chi_{ARM}$ – anhysteretic remanent magnetization ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ); and SIRM– saturation isothermal  
832 remanent magnetization ( $10^{-6} \text{ Am}^2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ). Horizontal grey bars denote soil horizons, interpreted  
833 as relatively warm-wet intervals.

834

835 **Figure 5.** Stratigraphy and magnetic concentration parameters of the YZ2 section. Same  
836 abbreviations as in Figure 4.

837

838 **Figure 6.** Stratigraphy and magnetic concentration parameters of the YZ3 section. Same  
839 abbreviations as in Figure 4.

840

841 **Figure 7.** Stratigraphy and magnetic concentration parameters of the JJ1 section. Same  
842 abbreviations as in Figure 4.

843

844 **Figure 8.** Stratigraphy and magnetic concentration parameters of the JJ3 section. Same  
845 abbreviations as in Figure 4.

846

847 **Figure 9.** Stratigraphy and analytic data for the YZ1 section.  $\chi_{lf}$ – low frequency magnetic  
848 susceptibility ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ); MD– median sedimentary grain size ( $\mu\text{m}$ );  $\chi_{ARM}/\chi_{lf}$ – magnetic  
849 grain size parameter (unitless); and  $\chi_{ARM}/SIRM$ – magnetic grain size parameter ( $10^{-4} \text{ mA}^{-1}$ ).  
850 Horizontal grey bars denote soil horizons, interpreted as relatively warm-wet intervals.

851

852 **Figure 10.** Stratigraphy and analytic data for the YZ2 section. Same abbreviations as in Figure 9.

853

854 **Figure 11.** Stratigraphy and analytic data for the YZ3 section. Same abbreviations as in Figure 9.

855

856 **Figure 12.** Stratigraphy and analytic data for the JJ1 section. Same abbreviations as in Figure 9.

857

858 **Figure 13.** Stratigraphy and analytic data for the JJ3 section. Same abbreviations as in Figure 9.

859

860 **Figure 14.** Comparison of Holocene paleoclimate records in China (from south to north): total  
861 tree pollen percentage at Hongyuan peatland (Zhou et al., 2010);  $\chi_{lf}$ – low frequency magnetic  
862 susceptibility ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) for YZ3 section (this study);  $\chi_{lf}$  ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) for JJ3 section (this  
863 study); total tree pollen percentage at Daihai Lake (Xiao et al., 2004); and total tree pollen  
864 percentage at Hulun Lake (Wen et al., 2010). Locations of these areas are shown in Figure 1.  
865 Grey horizontal bars represent the warm-wet climatic intervals based on the record of this study.

866

867 **Figure 15.** Regional and global correlations (from south to north):  $\chi_{lf}$ – low frequency magnetic  
868 susceptibility ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) for YZ3 section (this study);  $\chi_{lf}$  ( $10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) for JJ3 section (this  
869 study); Lake Baikal  $\delta\text{O}^{18}$  profile linked to mass-balancing isotope measurements in per mil  
870 deviations from VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water) (Mackay et al., 2011);  
871 frequency dependence (FD) parameter from loess section of Burdukovo in Siberia (Kravchinsky  
872 et al., 2013); temperature variations ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in the northern hemisphere (relative to mean  
873 temperature during 1960–1980) averaged from multiple published sources (McMichael, 2012);  
874 and Drift Ice Indices Stack from North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001). See Figure 1 for the  
875 locations. Grey horizontal bars indicate the warm-wet climatic intervals based on the record of  
876 this study.

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