7   **The 4.2 ka BP event: multi-proxy records from a closed lake in the**

8   **northern margin of the East Asian summer monsoon**

11   **Jule Xiao[1,2,3], Shengrui Zhang[1], Jiawei Fan[1], Ruilin Wen[1,2], Dayou Zhai[4], Zhiping Tian[5],**

12   **and Dabang Jiang[5]**

15   [1]CAS Key Laboratory of Cenozoic Geology and Environment, Institute of Geology and

16   Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China

17   [2]CAS Center for Excellence in Life and Paleoenvironment, Beijing 100044, China

18   [3]College of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences,

19   Beijing 100049, China

20   [4]School of Resources, Environment and Geosciences, Yunnan University, Kunming 650091,

21   China

22   [5]Nansen–Zhu International Research Centre, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese

23   Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China

24

25

26   Correspondence: Jule Xiao (jlxiao@mail.iggcas.ac.cn)

27

28

29

Abstract. The 4.2 ka BP event has been widely investigated since it was suggested to be a possible cause for the collapse of ancient civilizations. With the growth of proxy records for decades, however, both its nature and its spatial pattern have become controversial. Here we examined multi-proxy data of the grain-size distribution, ostracode assemblage, pollen assemblage and the pollen-reconstructed mean annual precipitation from a sediment core at Hulun Lake in northeastern Inner Mongolia spanning the period between 5000 and 3000 cal. yr BP to identify the nature and the associated mechanism of the 4.2 ka BP event occurring in the monsoonal region of eastern Asia. Higher sand fraction contents, littoral ostracodes abundances and Chenopodiaceae pollen percentages together with lower mean annual precipitations reveal a significant dry event at the interval of 4210–3840 cal. yr BP that could be a regional manifestation of the 4.2 ka BP event in the northern margin of the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM). We suggest that the drought would be caused by a decline in the intensity of the EASM on millennial-to-centennial scales that could be physically related to persistent cooling of surface waters in the western tropical Pacific and the North Atlantic. The cooling of western tropical Pacific surface waters could reduce moisture production over the source area of the EASM, while the cooling of North Atlantic surface waters could suppress northward migrations of the EASM rainbelt, both leading to a weakened EASM and thus decreased rainfall in the northern margin of the EASM.

1 Introduction

In early 1990s, Weiss et al. (1993) identified a marked increase in aridity and wind circulation occurring in northern Mesopotamia at 2200 BC based on studies of archaeological sites on alluvial plains of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, suggesting that the abrupt climatic change induced a considerable degradation of land-use conditions and thus caused the collapse of the rain-fed agriculture civilization of western Asia. Years later, two articles published in the periodical Science (Weiss and Bradley, 2001; deMenocal, 2001) demonstrated that the drought that occurred 4.2 ka ago could be a possible cause for the collapse of ancient civilizations, which promoted extensive investigations into the abrupt climatic change occurring around 4.2 ka BP as well as the causal relationship between the cultural collapse and the 4.2 ka BP event.

The Holocene climatic instability has actually become a hot topic of paleoclimate researches since 1990s. Unfortunately no clear signals of the 4.2 ka BP event were identified from the proxies of Greenland ice-core records including oxygen isotope composition (Dansgaard et al., 1993), sea salt and terrestrial dust concentrations (O'Brien et al., 1995), and accumulation rate, temperature, and chloride, calcium and methane concentrations (Alley et al., 1997). Although a series of abrupt shifts were detected for the Holocene climate of the North Atlantic through an investigation of ice-rafted debris in the deep-sea sediments, the 4.2 ka BP event appears unexceptional (Bond et al., 1997). These data imply that the 4.2 ka BP event would be more complicated than previously recognized. Despite the attempts made over years, in fact, the nature of the 4.2 ka BP event itself remains controversial (Marchant and Hooghiemstra, 2004, Magny et al., 2009), let alone its impact to prehistoric cultures (Drysdale et al., 2006; Staubwasser and Weiss, 2006).

Research on the 4.2 ka BP event and its impact on cultural evolution in China have been motivated by Hsü's view that famines and mass migrations occurring in ancient China could have resulted from regional droughts related to global cooling (Hsü, 1998). Wu and Liu (2004) synthesized data from paleoclimatic records in eastern China and suggested that the climatic anomaly that occurred ~4.2 ka ago produced a drought in the north and flooding in the south, which was responsible for the collapse of neolithic cultures in the central plain of China

90 during the late third millennium BC. Liu and Feng (2012) recently examined the newly

91 published data of paleoclimatic and archaeological records spanning the transition from the

92 middle to late Holocene and offered a different interpretation from that of Wu and Liu (2004).

93 In brief, an abrupt climatic shift occurred in northern China at ~4 cal. ka BP; while in

94 southern China the ~4 ka BP event had several effects. With the associated climatic drying at

95 ~4 cal. ka BP, Chinese Neolithic cultures both in the north and in the south collapsed; while

96 the Longshan Culture in the central plain thrived.

97 Here we examine the paleoclimatic data from a sediment core at Hulun Lake in

98 northeastern Inner Mongolia and focus on the 4.2 ka BP event occurring in the lake region.

99 Hulun Lake is located in the northern margin of the East Asian summer monsoon that

100 represents a climatically sensitive zone. The multi-proxy paleoclimatic records from the lake

101 would provide new insights into the 4.2 ka BP event. This study is aimed to identify the

102 nature and the associated mechanism of the 4.2 ka BP event occurring in the monsoonal

103 region of eastern Asia.

104

105 **2 Study site**

106

107 Hulun Lake (48°30.667' to 49°20.667'N, 117°0.167' to 117°41.667'E), the fifth largest

108 lake in China, is situated about 30 km south of Manchuria, Inner Mongolia, China (Fig. 1). It

109 lies in an inland graben basin that was formed in the late Pliocene (Xu et al., 1989). It has an

110 area of 2339 km^2 and a maximum water depth of 8 m when the lake level attains highest

111 status at an elevation of 545.3 m a.s.l. (measurements in August 1964; Xu et al., 1989). Today,

112 the lake is closed and the maximum water depth is 5 m (Fig. 1). Low mountains and hills of

113 Mesozoic volcanic rocks border the lake on the northwest and form a fault-scarp shoreline.

114 Broad lacustrine and alluvial plains extend from the southern and eastern shores of the lake

115 with scattered aeolian dunes. The lake has a catchment of 37,214 km^2 within the borders of

116 China. Two rivers, the Herlun from the southwest and the Urshen Rivers from the southeast,

117 supply water for the lake (Fig. 1). The Dalanolom River, an intermittent river to the northeast

118 of the lake, drains the lake when the elevation of the lake level exceeds 543.4 m a.s.l. and

119 enters the lake when the lake level is lower and the discharge of the Hailar River is larger as
120 well (Xu et al., 1989) (Fig. 1).

121   Hulun Lake is located in a semi-arid area of the middle temperate zone (Fig. 1). The
122 climate of the lake's region is influenced by the East Asian monsoon and the Westerlies
123 (Chinese Academy of Sciences, 1984; Zhang and Lin, 1985). During summer, warm, moist
124 southerly air-masses interact with cold air from the northwest and produce most of the annual
125 precipitation. During winter, cold, dry northwesterly airflows prevail and generate strong
126 winds and cold weathers. In the lake region, mean annual temperature is 0.3°C with a July
127 average of 20.3°C and a January average of –21.2°C. Annual precipitation is 247 to 319 mm,
128 and over 80% of the annual precipitation falls in June–September. Annual evaporation
129 reaches 1400 to 1900 mm. The lake is covered with ~1 m of ice from November to April.

130   The ostracodes living in the lake today include *Limnocythere inopinata* (Baird),
131 *Candoniella suzini* Schneider, *Pseudocandona albicans* (Brady), *Pseudocandona compressa*
132 (Koch), *Cyclocypris serena* (Koch), *Ilyocypris gibba* (Ramdohr) and *Ilyocypris salebrosa*
133 Stepanaiths (Xu et al., 1989; Wang and Ji, 1995). *Limnocythere inopinata* is the dominant
134 species. Aquatic plants are scarce in the lake and confined to the areas of the river mouth and
135 parts of the nearshore zone.

136   The modern natural vegetation of the lake basin belongs to the middle temperate steppe
137 (Compilatory Commission of Vegetation of China, 1980; Xu et al., 1989). The vegetation
138 cover ranges from relatively moist forb-grass meadow-steppe in the piedmont belt to
139 moderately dry grass steppe on the alluvial plain and dry bunchgrass–undershrub *Artemisia*
140 steppe on the lacustrine plain. Halophilic Chenopodiaceae plants are distributed in the
141 lowlands. The forests are developed on the west slopes of the Great Hinggan Range, where
142 the Urshen and Hailar River rise, accompanied by scrubs and herbs under the trees. Larch
143 forests cover the southern part of the Hentiy Mountains where the Herlun River rises. Patches
144 of pine forests and birch shrubberies occur in the alpine belt.

145

146 **3 Material and methods**

147

148 3.1 Lithology and chronology of the HL06 core

149

Drilling was conducted at a water depth of 5 m in the central part of Hulun Lake in January 2006 when the lake was frozen (Fig. 1), using a TOHO drilling system. A sediment core was extracted to a depth beneath the lake floor of 1.7 m and is designated HL06 (49°07.615' N, 117°30.356' E; Fig. 1). The core section was split, photographed and described on site and then cut into 1-cm segments, resulting in 170 samples for laboratory analyses.

The sediments of the HL06 core can be divided into three parts: 1) upper blackish-grey oozy mud at depths of 0–35 cm, 2) middle dark grey to blackish-grey, massive sandy mud with scattered fragments of ostracodes and mollusk shells at depths of 35–100 cm, and 3) lower greenish-grey homogeneous mud at depths of 100–170 cm (Xiao et al., 2009).

Thirteen bulk samples were collected from organic-rich horizons of the HL06 core and dated with an Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) system (Compact-AMS, NEC Pelletron) at Paleo Labo Co., Ltd. in Japan. As shown in Xiao et al. (2009), the uppermost 0–1 cm of the core sediments yields a ^{14}C age of 685±21 yr that was considered to result from carbon reservoir effects on radiocarbon dating of the bulk organic matter of Hulun Lake sediments. To produce an age–depth model for the HL06 core, the carbon reservoir age of 685±21 yr was first subtracted from all the original ^{14}C ages, and then calibrations are performed on the carbon reservoir-free ^{14}C ages. The conventional ages were converted to calibrated ages using the OxCal3.1 radiocarbon age calibration program (Bronk Ramsey, 2001) with the IntCal04 calibration data (Reimer et al., 2004). The age–depth model indicates that the HL06 core covers the last ~11,000 yr (Xiao et al., 2009).

170

3.2 Proxy analyses of the HL06 core

172

The HL06 core has been analysed at 1-cm interval for multiple proxies including grain-size distribution (Xiao et al., 2009), ostracode assemblage (Zhai et al., 2011), and pollen assemblage (Wen et al., 2010a) in order to investigate the Holocene history of changes in the hydrology of Hulun Lake and in vegetation and climate of the lake region. Grain-size distribution was determined with a Malvern Mastersizer 2000 laser grain-size analyzer (Xiao et al., 2009). Each sample of sediment was pretreated with hydrogen peroxide to remove

179 organic matter and then with boiled hydrochloric acid to remove carbonates. The sample

180 residue was dispersed with sodium metaphosphate on an ultrasonic vibrator before grain-size

181 analysis.

182   For the ostracode assemblage analysis, each sample of ~300 mg of air-dried sediment

183 was pretreated with hydrogen peroxide–sodium carbonate solution (pH 9–10) to disaggregate

184 the sediment (Zhai et al., 2011). Fossil ostracode valves were extracted by sieving in water

185 through a 250-mesh sieve (63-µm pore size). Ostracode was identified and counted from the

186 sieve residue spread onto a glass plate with an Olympus stereomicroscope at 40×

187 magnifications following the taxonomy of Meisch (2000) and Hou et al. (2002). Most

188 samples yielded 300 to 4000 ostracode valves.

189   For the pollen assemblage analysis, each sample of ~1 g of air-dried sediment was

190 pretreated with hydrochloric acid to remove carbonates and with sodium hydroxide to remove

191 organic matter; the residue was then kept in hydrofluoric acid to remove silicates (Wen et al.,

192 2010a). Fossil pollen grains were extracted by wet sieving of the resulting residue through a

193 sieve diameter of 10 μm with an ultrasonic cleaner. Pollen was identified and counted with an

194 Olympus light microscope at 400× magnifications. More than 600 pollen grains were counted

195 for each sample. The percentages of tree and herb pollen taxa were based on the sum of the

196 total terrestrial pollen in a sample, and those of each taxon of both aquatic pollen and fern

197 spores based on the sum of the terrestrial pollen plus the aquatic pollen or fern spores of the

198 taxon in a sample.

199   In addition, the history of changes in precipitation in the Hulun Lake region during the

200 Holocene was quantitatively reconstructed (Wen et al., 2010b) based on the pollen profile of

201 the HL06 core (Wen et al., 2010a), using a pollen–climate transfer function for temperate

202 eastern Asia (Wen et al., 2013).

203

204 3.3 Proxy data from the HL06 core used for the present study

205

206   The segment of the HL06 core spanning the period between 5000 and 3000 cal. yr BP is

207 used for the present study to focus on the 4.2 ka BP event occurring in the Hulun Lake region.

208 Fig. 2 shows the lithology and ages of the core segment between 105 and 55 cm at depth,

209   which covers the segment between dated horizons of a calibrated age older than 5000 cal. yr

210   BP and of a calibrated age younger than 3000 cal. yr BP. Ages of sampled horizons of the

211   core segment spanning the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP were derived by linear

212   interpolation between radiocarbon-dated horizons using the mean values of 2σ ranges of

213   calibrated ages.

214   Data of grain-size distribution (Xiao et al., 2009), ostracode assemblage (Zhai et al.,

215   2011), pollen assemblage (Wen et al., 2010a), and mean annual precipitation (Wen et al.,

216   2010b) from the HL06 core for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP were re-examined in the

217   present study in order to explore the detailed process of climate changes on

218   millennial-to-centennial scales in the Hulun Lake region around 4.2 cal. ka BP.

219

220   **4 Results**

221

222   The sediments of the core segment spanning the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP consist

223   of dark grey to blackish-grey, massive sandy mud in which the scattered fragments of

224   ostracode and mollusk shells can be seen (Fig. 2). Five radiocarbon dates provide age controls

225   for the core segment spanning the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP (corresponding to the core

226   depths of 97–68 cm) (Fig. 2; Table 1). Data of sand fraction content, littoral ostracodes

227   abundance, Chenopodiaceae pollen percentage, and mean annual precipitation from the core

228   segment spanning the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP were plotted against age in Fig. 3. The

229   averages and one standard deviations (SD) of each proxy data for the period between 5000

230   and 3000 cal. yr BP are expressed.

231   As shown in Fig. 3, the content of the sand fraction in the core sediments has an average

232   of 7.5% and a SD of 6.3% for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP. At the interval of 4430–

233   3860 cal. yr BP (core depth: 91–83 cm), the sand fraction content shows values higher than

234   one SD with a maximum of 21.1% and an average of 15.5%. The abundance of the littoral

235   ostracodes including *Pseudocandona albicans*, *Pseudocandona* sp., *Candoniella*

236   *subellipsoida*, and *Cypridopsis* sp. from the core sediments has an average of 22 valves g^{-1}

237   and a SD of 22 valves g^{-1} for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP. At the interval of 4200–

238   3420 cal. yr BP (core depth: 88–76 cm), the littoral ostracodes abundance shows values

239   higher than one SD with a maximum of 70 valves g^{-1} and an average of 44 valves g^{-1}. The

240   percentage of Chenopodiaceae pollen from the core sediments has an average of 42.9% and a

241   SD of 10.7% for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP. At the interval of 4300–3830 cal. yr BP

242   (core depth: 89–83 cm), the Chenopodiaceae pollen percentage shows values higher than one

243   SD with a maximum of 60.2% and an average of 56.5%. The mean annual precipitation in the

244   lake region reconstructed on the pollen profile of the sediment core has an average of 297.3

245   mm and a SD of 20.3 mm for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP. At the interval of 4240–

246   3750 cal. yr BP (core depth: 88–82 cm), the mean annual precipitation shows values lower

247   than one SD with a minimum of 264.0 mm and an average of 272.3 mm.

248

249   **5 Discussion**

250

251   5.1 Climatic implication of proxy data from the HL06 core

252

253   Grain-size distributions of the core sediments show that the clay, silt and sand fractions

254   average 35.8%, 60.6% and 3.6% of the clastic materials during the Holocene, respectively

255   (Xiao et al., 2009). Sand grains from the nearshore zone of Hulun Lake could be transported

256   to and deposited in the central part of the lake when the lake assumed low stands. Therefore

257   increases in the relative percentage of the sand fraction in the core sediments were interpreted

258   to indicate drops in the water level of Hulun Lake (Xiao et al., 2009). We thus infer that

259   higher values of the sand fraction content at the interval of 4430–3860 cal. yr BP imply lower

260   lake levels at that time (Fig. 3).

261   Ostracode assemblages of the core sediments suggest that fourteen species of ostracodes

262   belonging to nine genera occur in Hulun Lake during the Holocene and *Limnocythere*

263   *inopinata* is the dominant species (Zhai et al., 2011). *Pseudocandona albicans*,

264   *Pseudocandona* sp., *Candoniella subellipsoida*, and *Cypridopsis* sp. from the core sediments

265   were interpreted as littoral ostracode taxa because these ostracodes usually live in small water

266   bodies and shallow waters and have a wide tolerance to water temperature or salinity (Zhai et

267   al., 2011). We thus infer that higher values of the littoral ostracodes abundance at the interval

268   of 4200–3420 cal. yr BP imply lower lake levels at that time (Fig. 3).

269   Pollen assemblages of the core sediments suggest that dry grass steppe dominated by

270   *Artemisia* and Chenopodiaceae plants were developed in the Hulun Lake basin during most of

271   the Holocene (Wen et al., 2010a). In the modern steppe of northern China, Chenopodiaceae

272   predominates over *Artemisia* in the desert steppe as compared with in the typical steppe.

273   Therefore increases in the relative percentage of Chenopodiaceae pollen in the core sediments

274   were interpreted to indicate decreases in the effective moisture in the lake basin (Wen et al.,

275   2010a). We thus infer that higher values of the Chenopodiaceae pollen percentage at the

276   interval of 4300–3830 cal. yr BP imply lower effective moisture in the lake basin at that time

277   (Fig. 3).

278   The pollen-reconstructed mean annual precipitation yields a value of around 285 mm in

279   the Hulun Lake region for the last decades (Wen et al., 2010b). This value of the mean annual

280   precipitation falls within the range of observed data of the annual precipitation (247–319 mm),

281   demonstrating the validity of the pollen–climate transfer function in quantitatively

282   reconstructing the regional precipitation. Therefore lower values of the mean annual

283   precipitation at the interval of 4240–3750 cal. yr BP denote drier conditions in the lake basin

284   at that time (Fig. 3).

285

286   5.2 The nature and timing of the 4.2 ka BP event in the Hulun Lake region

287

288   As remarked above, the sand fraction content and the littoral ostracodes abundance of

289   the lake sediments can be used as indicators of changes in the lake level that is closely related

290   to changes in the water balance (precipitation plus runoff minus evaporation) of the lake;

291   while the Chenopodiaceae pollen percentage can be used as a direct indicator of changes in

292   the effective moisture in the lake basin. The mean annual precipitation can directly indicate

293   changes in the amount of precipitation in the lake basin. During the period of 5000–3000 cal.

294   yr BP, data of the sand fraction content, littoral ostracodes abundance, Chenopodiaceae pollen

295   percentage, and the mean annual precipitation can be correlated with each other, although the

296   intervals of a drier climate in the lake basin registered by different proxies differ in the time of

297   start and end (Fig. 3). Discrepancies in the timing of the drier climate registered by different

298 proxies might indicate differences in the response of different proxies to changes in the
299 regional precipitation and the lake's hydrology.

300   In order to detect the pattern of temporal changes in the regional dry–wet condition
301 during the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP, principle component analysis (PCA) was
302 performed to analyze the time series of data of the sand fraction content, littoral ostracodes
303 abundance, Chenopodiaceae pollen percentage, and the mean annual precipitation. All the raw
304 data of the 4 proxies were standardized, and then PCA was conducted on the standardized
305 data with the proxies as variables. F1, F2 and the first three factors of PCA capture 74.5%,
306 15.4% and 97.9% of the total variance within the data set, respectively. As shown in Figure 3,
307 PCA F1 has an average of 0 and a SD of 1.02 for the period of 5000–3000 cal. yr BP. At the
308 interval of 4210–3840 cal. yr BP (core depth: 88–83 cm), PCA F1 displays values higher than
309 one SD with a maximum of 1.71 and an average of 1.54 (Fig. 3).

310   PCA F1 reflects the most prominent common features of the aforementioned four
311 proxies and defines a dry event that occurred in the lake region at the interval of 4210–3840
312 cal. yr BP. We thus suggest that a drought occurring in the Hulun Lake basin could be the
313 regional manifestation of the 4.2 ka BP event. This drought started at 4210 cal. yr BP and
314 ended at 3840 cal. yr BP, lasting for 370 yr.

315

316 5.3 Possible cause of the 4.2 ka BP event in the Hulun Lake region

317

318   Hulun Lake is situated in the northern marginal zone of the East Asian summer
319 monsoon (EASM) (Fig. 1). Modern observations indicate that precipitation in the Hulun Lake
320 region reaches its peak value in July and ~70% of the annual precipitation falls in late June
321 through early August (Xu et al., 1989). Changes in the precipitation of the lake region in the
322 summer half-year totally follow the northward migrations of the EASM rainbelt (Fig. 4),
323 indicating that increases in the precipitation of the lake region would be closely related to
324 increases in the strength of the EASM. These data suggest that the dry event that occurred in
325 the Hulun Lake region at 4210–3840 cal. yr BP implies a decline of the EASM.

326   The northward migrations of the EASM rainbelt in rainy seasons of East Asia are
327 characterized by two discontinuous jumps (i.e., jumping first to the Yangtse River–Huaihe

328   River basin, southwestern Japan and southern Korea in late June and then to northern China,

329   northeastern China and northern Korea in middle July after landing in southern China in late

330   May) (Fig. 4), which are influenced not only by the ocean–atmosphere interactions in the

331   tropical Pacific because the moisture/rainfall brought by the EASM onto the land derives

332   from the western tropical Pacific but also by the pattern of atmospheric circulation over

333   Northern Hemisphere high latitudes because the EASM frontal rainfall results from the

334   interaction between the warm-moist, southerly air-masses and the cold-dry, northwesterly

335   airflows (Chinese Academy of Sciences, 1984; Zhang and Lin, 1985). In Fig. 5, therefore,

336   dry–wet oscillations in the Hulun Lake region reflected by PCA F1 for the period of 5000–

337   3000 cal. yr BP are compared with the sea-surface-temperature (SST) record from the western

338   tropical Pacific (Stott et al., 2004) and the hematite-stained-grains (HSG) record from the

339   North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001).

340   As shown in Fig. 5, the decline of the EASM occurring at 4210–3840 cal. yr BP

341   coincides, within age uncertainties, with decreases in the SST of the western tropical Pacific

342   (Stott et al., 2004) and with increases in the HSG concentration in the North Atlantic

343   sediments (Bond et al., 2001). This coincidence implies a physical link between the EASM

344   decline on millennial-to-centennial scales and the persistent cooling of surface waters of the

345   western tropical Pacific as well as the North Atlantic. In brief, continual decreases in sea

346   surface temperature of the western tropical Pacific presumably caused by more intense, more

347   frequent El Niño (Moy et al., 2002) could reduce the formation of water vapor over the source

348   area of the EASM, thereby decreasing the moisture available for transport via the EASM

349   circulation from the western tropical Pacific onto the Asian inland and leading to a weakened

350   EASM. While decreases in sea surface temperature of the North Atlantic could suppress the

351   northward migration of the EASM front, thereby hampering the northward jumps of the

352   EASM rainbelt and resulting in weakened rainfall in the northern marginal zone of the

353   EASM.

354

355   **6. Conclusions**

356

357 Multiple proxies of a sediment core at Hulun Lake in northeastern Inner Mongolia
358 reveal a prominent dry event occurring at the interval of 4210–3840 cal. yr BP that could be
359 the regional manifestation of the 4.2 ka BP event in the northern marginal zone of the EASM.
360 The drought would have resulted from a decline of the EASM that could be physically linked
361 with the persistent cooling of surface waters of the western tropical Pacific and the North
362 Atlantic on millennial-to-centennial scales.

363 Although more and more proxy data have been obtained, an integrated view of the 4.2
364 ka BP event is still far beyond reach. Future studies should be focused on the investigation of
365 high-quality, high-resolution proxy records from more, climatically sensitive and
366 geographically representative regions in order to explore the spatiotemporal pattern of the 4.2
367 ka BP event and the associated dynamic mechanism.

368

369 **Acknowledgments**

370

371 We thank Raymond Bradley and an anonymous Referee for valuable comments and
372 careful editing that helped improve the original manuscript. This study was financially
373 supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (Grant 2017YFA0603400) and the
374 Strategic Priority Research Program of Chinese Academy of Sciences (Grant XDB26020203).

375

376

377

378 **References**

379

380 Alley, R. B., Mayewski, P. A., Sowers, T., Stuiver, M., Taylor, K. C., and Clark, P. U.:
381   Holocene climatic instability: A prominent, widespread event 8200 yr ago, Geology, 25,
382   483–486, 1997.
383 Bond, G., Showers, W., Cheseby, M., Lotti, R., Almasi, P., deMenocal, P., Priore, P., Cullen,
384   H., Hajdas, I., and Bonani, G.: A pervasive millennial-scale cycle in North Atlantic
385   Holocene and glacial climates, Science 278, 1257–1266, 1997.
386 Bond, G., Kromer, B., Beer, J., Muscheler, R., Evans, M. N., Showers, W., Hoffmann, S.,

Lotti-Bond, R., Hajdas, I., and Bonani, G.: Persistent solar influence on North Atlantic climate during the Holocene, Science, 294, 2130–2136, 2001.

Bronk Ramsey, C.: Development of the radiocarbon calibration program, Radiocarbon, 43, 355–63, 2001.

Chinese Academy of Sciences (Compilatory Commission of Physical Geography of China): Physical Geography of China: Climate. Science Press, Beijing, pp. 1–30, 1984 (in Chinese).

Compilatory Commission of Vegetation of China: Vegetation of China, Science Press, Beijing, pp. 932–955, 1980 (in Chinese).

Dansgaard, W., Johnsen, S. J., Clausen, H. B., Dahl-Jensen, D., Gundestrup, N. S., Hammer, C. U., Hvidberg, C. S., Steffensen, J. P., Sveinbjörnsdottir, A. E., Jouzel, J., and Bond, G.: Evidence for general instability of past climate from a 250-kyr ice-core record, Nature, 364, 218–220, 1993.

deMenocal, P. B.: Cultural responses to climate change during the late Holocene, Science, 292, 667–673, 2001.

Drysdale, R., Zanchetta, G., Hellstrom, J., Maas, R., Fallick, A., Pickett, M., Cartwright, I., and Piccini, L.: Late Holocene drought responsible for the collapse of Old World civilizations is recorded in an Italian cave flowstone, Geology, 34, 101–104, 2006.

Hou, Y. T., Gou, Y. X., and Chen, D. Q.: Fossil Ostracoda of China (Vol. 1), Science Press, Beijing, 1090 pp., 2002 (in Chinese).

Hsü, K. J.: Sun, climate, hunger, and mass migration, Science in China (Series D), 41, 449–472, 1998.

Liu, F. G. and Feng, Z. D.: A dramatic climatic transition at ~4000 cal. yr BP and its cultural responses in Chinese cultural domains, Holocene, 22, 1181–1197, 2012.

Magny, M., Vannière, B., Zanchetta, G., Fouache, E., Touchais, G., Petrika, L., Coussot, C., Walter-Simonnet, A. V., and Arnaud, F.: Possible complexity of the climatic event around 4300–3800 cal. BP in the central and western Mediterranean, Holocene, 19, 823–833, 2009.

Marchant, R. and Hooghiemstra, H.: Rapid environmental change in African and South American tropics around 4000 years before present: a review, Earth-Sci. Rev., 66, 217–

417   260, 2004.

418   Meisch, C.: Freshwater Ostracoda of Western and Central Europe, Spektrum, Heidelberg, 522

419   pp., 2000.

420   Moy, C. M., Seltzer, G. O., Rodbell, D. T., and Anderson, D. M.: Variability of El

421   Niño/Southern Oscillation activity at millennial timescales during the Holocene epoch,

422   Nature, 420, 162–165, 2002.

423   O'Brien, S. R., Mayewski, P. A., Meeker, L. D., Meese, D. A., Twickler, M. S., and Whitlow,

424   S. I.: Complexity of Holocene climate as reconstructed from a Greenland ice core,

425   Science, 270, 1962–1964, 1995.

426   Reimer, P. J., Baillie, M. G. L., Bard, E., Bayliss, A., Beck, J. W., Bertrand, C. J. H.,

427   Blackwell, P. G., Buck, C. E., Burr, G. S., Cutler, K. B., Damon, P. E., Edwards, R. L.,

428   Fairbanks, R. G., Friedrich, M., Guilderson, T. P., Hogg, A. G., Hughen, K. A., Kromer,

429   B., McCormac, G., Manning, S., Bronk Ramsey, C., Reimer, R. W., Remmele, S.,

430   Southon, J. R., Stuiver, M., Talamo, S., Taylor, F. W., van der Plicht, J., and

431   Weyhenmeyer, C. E.: Intcal04 terrestrial radiocarbon age calibration, 0–26 cal kyr BP,

432   Radiocarbon, 46, 1029–58, 2004.

433   Staubwasser, M. and Weiss, H.: Holocene climate and cultural evolution in late prehistoric–

434   early historic West Asia, Quaternary Res., 66, 372–387, 2006.

435   Stott, L., Cannariato, K., Thunell, R., Haug, G. H., Koutavas, A., and Lund, S.: Decline of

436   surface temperature and salinity in the western tropical Pacific Ocean in the Holocene

437   epoch, Nature, 431, 56–59, 2004.

438   Wang, S. M. and Ji, L.: Paleolimnology of Hulun Lake, University of Science and

439   Technology of China Press, Hefei, 125 pp., 1995 (in Chinese).

440   Weiss, H., Courty, M. A., Wetterstrom, W., Guichard, F., Senior, L., Meadow, R., and

441   Curnow, A.: The genesis and collapse of third millennium north Mesopotamian

442   civilization, Science, 261, 995–1004, 1993.

443   Weiss, H. and Bradley, R. S.: What drives societal collapse? Science, 291, 609–610, 2001.

444   Wen, R. L., Xiao, J. L., Chang, Z. G., Zhai, D. Y., Xu, Q. H., Li, Y. C., Itoh, S., and

445   Lomtatidze, Z.: Holocene climate changes in the mid-high latitude monsoon margin

446   reflected by the pollen record from Hulun Lake, northeastern Inner Mongolia,

447   Quaternary Res., 73, 293–303, 2010a.

448   Wen, R. L., Xiao, J. L., Chang, Z. G., Zhai, D. Y., Xu, Q. H., Li, Y. C., and Itoh, S.: Holocene

449   precipitation and temperature variations in the East Asian monsoonal margin from

450   pollen data from Hulun Lake in northeastern Inner Mongolia, China, Boreas, 39, 262–

451   272, 2010b.

452   Wen, R. L., Xiao, J. L., Ma, Y. Z., Feng, Z. D., Li, Y. C., and Xu, Q. H.: Pollen–climate

453   transfer functions intended for temperate eastern Asia, Quaternary Int., 311, 3–11, 2013.

454   Wu, W. X. and Liu T. S.: Possible role of the "Holocene Event 3" on the collapse of Neolithic

455   Cultures around the Central Plain of China, Quaternary Int., 117, 153–166, 2004.

456   Xiao, J. L., Chang, Z. G., Wen, R. L., Zhai, D. Y., Itoh, S., and Lomtatidze, Z.: Holocene

457   weak monsoon intervals indicated by low lake levels at Hulun Lake in the monsoonal

458   margin region of northeastern Inner Mongolia, China, Holocene, 19, 899–908, 2009.

459   Xu, Z. J., Jiang, F. Y., Zhao, H. W., Zhang, Z. B., and Sun, L.: Annals of Hulun Lake, Jilin

460   Literature and History Publishing House, Changchun, 691 pp., 1989 (in Chinese).

461   Zhai, D. Y., Xiao, J. L., Zhou, L., Wen, R. L., Chang, Z. G., Wang, X., Jin, X. D., Pang, Q. Q.,

462   and Itoh, S.: Holocene East Asian monsoon variation inferred from species assemblage

463   and shell chemistry of the ostracodes from Hulun Lake, Inner Mongolia, Quaternary

464   Res., 75, 512–522, 2011.

465   Zhang, J. C. and Lin, Z. G.: Climate of China, Shanghai Scientific and Technical Publishers,

466   Shanghai, 603 pp., 1985 (in Chinese).

467

468

469

470   **Figure captions**

471

472   **Figure 1.** Map of Hulun Lake (from http://www.maps.google.com) showing the location of

473   the HL06 core. The bathymetric survey of the lake was conducted in July 2005 with a FE-606

474   Furuno Echo Sounder (contours in meters). The inset gives a sketch map of China showing

475   the current northern limit of the East Asian summer monsoon (dashed line) defined as the

476   400-mm isohyet of mean annual precipitation (Chinese Academy of Sciences, 1984; Zhang

477 and Lin, 1985) and the location of Hulun Lake (solid circle). EASM shown in the inset

478 indicates the East Asian summer monsoon.

479

480 **Figure 2.** Lithological log and age–depth model of the segment of the HL06 core between

481 105 and 55 cm at core depth (covering the period between 5000 and 3000 cal. yr BP). Solid

482 circles represent the mean values of 2σ ranges of calibrated ages of carbon reservoir-corrected

483 radiocarbon dates. The carbon reservoir correction factor is 685±21 yr, ^{14}C age of the

484 uppermost 1 cm of the core sediments. Modified after Xiao et al. (2009).

485

486 **Figure 3.** Time series of sand fraction (%) (Xiao et al., 2009), littoral ostracodes valve (valves

487 g^{-1}) (Zhai et al., 2011), Chenopodiaceae pollen (%) (Wen et al., 2010a), and mean annual

488 precipitation (mm) (Wen et al., 2010b) from the HL06 core spanning the period between 5000

489 and 3000 cal. yr BP as well as the PCA F1 obtained from the aforementioned four proxies.

490 The chronology was derived from the carbon reservoir-corrected age–depth model; ages of

491 sampled horizons were determined by linear interpolation between radiocarbon-dated

492 horizons using the mean values of 2σ ranges of calibrated ages (Xiao et al., 2009). Vertical

493 dashed lines show the averages and one standard deviations above/below the averages of each

494 proxy data as well as PCA F1 values during the period between 5000 and 3000 cal. yr BP.

495 Light grey bars mark the intervals at which each proxy or PCA F1 has values higher than one

496 standard deviation (lower than one standard deviation for mean annual precipitation).

497

498 **Figure 4.** A sketch map of eastern China, Korea and western Japan showing precipitation

499 rates of the current East Asian summer monsoon. Data are averaged by observations of the

500 years 1979–2007 and expressed in mm d^{-1} at a grid resolution of 0.25° × 0.25°. (a) On the 4th,

501 5th and 6th pentads of July and 1st pentad of August. (b) On the 5th and 6th pentads of June

502 and the 1st and 2nd pentads of July. (c) On the 5th and 6th pentads of May and the 1st and

503 2nd pentads of June. The inset in Fig. 4a shows monthly changes of annual precipitation in

504 the Hulun Lake region (data from observations of the years 1976–2005).

505

506 **Figure 5.** Correlation of dry–wet oscillation in the Hulun Lake region denoted by PCA F1

507 factor from the four proxies of the HL06 core with sea-surface temperature (SST, °C)

508 reconstructed on the Mg/Ca ratio of *Globigerinoides rubber* from MD98-2176 core in the

509 western tropical Pacific (Stott et al., 2004) and hematite-stained grain concentration (HSG, %)

510 in VM29-191 core from the North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001). The shaded bar marks an

511 interval of dry event occurring in the Hulun Lake region at 4210–3840 cal. yr BP.

512

513 **Table 1.** AMS radiocarbon dates of samples from the segment of the HL06 core between 105

514 and 55 cm at core depth (covering the period between 5000 and 3000 cal. yr BP). The

515 radiocarbon date of the uppermost 1 cm of the core sediments used for carbon reservoir

516 correction is shown. Modified after Xiao et al. (2009).

517