



Lagged variation of moisture conditions in central Asia compared with monsoonal Asia during the last four interglacials

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15 **Abstract:** Previous research has indicated that variations in moisture conditions in
arid central Asia (ACA) were out-of-phase with those of monsoonal Asia during the
Holocene. In order to investigate this phenomenon, we compared the pattern of
moisture variations in ACA and the region dominated by the East Asia summer
monsoon (EASM) during the last four interglacials. The results indicate that moisture
20 variations (pre) in ACA lagged those in the EASM region by 3 kyr during MIS 5, by 0
kyr during MIS 7, by 2 kyr during MIS 9, and by 5 kyr during MIS 11. We suggest
that this lagged pattern in three out of four interglacials was the result of a zonal
climatic teleconnection, westerly wind intensity, and evaporation upstream. Overall,
our results shed new light on the climatic variability of central Asia and its origins
25 during the Holocene.

1. Introduction

Asia can be climatically divided into two regions: monsoon-dominated Asia which is



characterized by a humid environment, and arid central Asia (ACA) which is
30 characterized by an arid environment. The climate of ACA, a part of
westerlies-dominated Asia, including the greater part of central Asia, northeastern Iran,
and Xinjiang province in China, has shown an opposite pattern of variation to that of
Southern Europe and North-central China over the last few decades (Huang et al.,
2015). On the millennial scale, geological records also indicate that moisture
35 variations also exhibited an anti-phased pattern of variation between arid central Asia
(ACA) and monsoon-dominated Asia, which is typified by a wet “Little Ice Age” and
a dry “Medieval Climatic Anomaly” (Chen et al., 2010a). In addition, on the
multi-millennial scale, loess records reveal a persistent wetting trend during the
Holocene - following a wet early Holocene - in the regions dominated by the Indian
40 summer monsoon (ISM), and a wet mid-Holocene in the regions dominated by the
East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) (Wang et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2016).
Moreover, several studies have indicated that similar phenomenon occurred during
previous interglacials (e.g. Huang et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016).

In order to examine the consistency of this anti-phased pattern of behavior between
45 ACA and the adjacent regions, we previously investigated the last interglacial, with a
duration of more than 50 kyr and which included two and a half precession cycles.
Our results indicated that moisture variations in ACA lagged those of the
EASM-dominated regions by 3-5 kyr (Jia et al., 2018a). In the present study, we
extend the analysis of this relationship to the last four interglacial periods.

50 During the Quaternary two major climatic transitions occurred which have attracted
major research attention: the mid-Pleistocene transition (MPT) at 0.8 Ma and the
mid-Brunhes event (MBE) at 0.43 Ma. The MPT was characterized by an important
shift in global climate evolution from the previous dominant 41-kyr climatic cyclicality
to the subsequent dominant 100-kyr cyclicality (Ruddiman et al., 1986; Berger, 1989;
55 Shackleton et al., 1990). The MBE was characterized by the complete establishment
of high amplitude 100-kyr climatic cyclicality with much warmer interglacials and
cooler glacials than previously (e.g. EPICA community members, 2004; Lisiecki and
Raymo, 2005). The four interglacials which are the concern of the present study thus



had similar boundary conditions to the modern Holocene interglacial and for this
60 reason they were selected for detailed investigation.

2. Geological setting and the studied section

ACA is far from oceanic moisture sources and is therefore an arid environment. The
western part of ACA contains widespread sandy desert, while the eastern part is
65 characterized by a basin-mountain topography (Fig. 1). Precipitation occurs mainly in
the mountains and adjacent areas and rarely in the basins. In the Junggar Basin, the
mean annual precipitation (MAP) is less than 50 mm, but gradually increases to more
than 1000 mm on the northern slopes of the North Tianshan Mountains. The rivers
rise in the high mountains and flow into the lakes in the arid basins.

70

Figure 1

Today ACA is climatically dominated by the westerlies with precipitation in most
regions predominantly in winter-spring; only in the northern part is the precipitation
75 predominantly in summer-autumn. Notably, carbon isotope records indicate that a
continental dry summer climate was established by at least 1.77 Ma (Yang and Ding,
2006).

Loess deposits are one of the most important geological archives in the region (e.g.
Ding et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2018b). They are
80 widespread on alluvial fans, river terraces, and on the piedmont slopes of the Tianshan
and Pamir mountains (Frechen and Dodonov, 1998; Sun et al., 2002; Li et al., 2018),
and they have preserved paleoclimatic records from the early- to the late Pleistocene
(Frechen and Dodonov, 1998; Ding et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019).
The most complete published loess record was obtained from Tajikistan (Frechen and
85 Dodonov, 1998; Ding et al., 2002). In the present study, the Darai Kalon (DK) section
was selected to retrieve a record of moisture variations of the last four interglacials.
The Holocene (modern interglacial) was excluded from the study, since this interval
may be eroded or partly eroded, as suggested by Frechen and Dodonov (1998).



The DK section (38°23'4"N, 69°50'1"E, 1561 a.m.s.l.; Fig. 1) is 176 m in thickness
90 and contains 29 paleosols, according to the investigation of Ding et al. (2002). The
upper four paleosols were selected in the present study. Paleosols S1, S2, and S3 are
pedocomplexes, which comprise 3, 2 and 2 soil layers, respectively. S4 consists of a
single soil layer. The soil layers are separated from the underlying less-weathered
parent material by a thin carbonate horizon. A detail stratigraphic description is given
95 elsewhere (Dodonov et al., 2006; Jia et al., 2018b).

It is widely observed that the loess of the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP) provides a
continuous and long-term record of fluctuations in moisture conditions in the
EASM-dominated region during the Quaternary (e.g. Ding et al., 1995; Guo et al.,
2009; Lu et al., 2018). The Xifeng (XF) section (35°45'31"N, 107°41'45"E, 1345
100 a.m.s.l.; Fig. 1), located on the northwest edge of the EASM-dominated region, is
acknowledged as preserving the most complete Quaternary record (e.g. Guo et al.,
2009; Hao et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2018). In this study, the upper four loess-paleosol
alternations were investigated for comparison with the loess record from Tajikistan.

105 3. Chronological framework

Grain size analysis was conducted on all of the samples using the methods of Lu and
An (1997). After sequential removal of organic matter with 10% H₂O₂ and carbonate
with 10% HCl, and dispersal using 0.05 N (NaPO₃)₆, the samples were measured
using a Mastersizer 2000 laser diffraction particle size analyzer with size range of
110 0.02-2000 μm.

The eolian mineral dust comprising the loess of the CLP is transported by the East
Asian winter monsoon (Guo et al., 2009). Investigations of Chinese loess have
revealed a close link between the grain size of loess to variations in Northern
Hemisphere ice sheets effected via the Siberian High anticyclone (e.g. Ding et al.,
115 1995; Guo et al., 2009; Hao et al., 2012, 2015). Hao et al. (2012) confirmed that this
close coupling between high northern latitude cooling and increased dust activity in
the deserts of the Asian interior deserts operated on timescales ranging from decadal
to Earth orbital. Therefore, the grain size of Chinese loess provides independent



evidence for ice volume changes in the Northern Hemisphere. Importantly, the loess
120 in ACA has similar paleoenvironmental implications as Chinese loess (Ding et al.,
2002). The grain-size variations of the loess of ACA and the CLP loess correspond
closely to the deep sea benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve via their common linkage with Northern
Hemisphere ice volume. Therefore, the chronology of the DK and XF loess sections
can be established using the accepted correlation scheme between the loess grain-size
125 record of loess and the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record of marine sediments.

The age control points are shown in Figure 2, which are locating the boundary of
Marine Isotope Stage (MIS). By determine the sample location with mean value
between peak and valley around soil/loess boundary, we obtained the age control
points in DK and XF section. The Linear interpolation between age control points was
130 then used to generate a final timescale. The depths and age control points are listed in
Table 1. In addition, due to high climate resolution recording by Last Glacial (LG)
loess in DK section, its chronology was construct by matching the NGRIP curve. The
result had been published in Wang et al. (2018). Based on the resulting chronologies,
grain-size time series are presented in the Figure 3, which demonstrate that the
135 variations in grain-size in ACA and the CLP are synchronous, which is supported by
the results of cross correlation analysis (Fig. 4).

Table 1

140 Figure 2

Figure 3

145 Figure 4

4. Climatic proxies and their implications

After air-drying in the laboratory, 5.5 g of powder sediment was packed into 10 ml
plastic boxes and used for magnetic susceptibility measurements. Magnetic



susceptibility was measured at 470 Hz and 4700 Hz (χ_{lf} and χ_{hf} , respectively) using a
150 Bartington Instruments MS2B sensor. Frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility
(χ_{fd}) was calculated as $\chi_{fd} = \chi_{lf} - \chi_{hf}$.

The four major magnetic minerals in loess are hematite, goethite, magnetite, and
maghemite (e.g. Maher, 1998; Liu et al., 2007). It had been widely observed that
weakly magnetic hematite and goethite only make a small contribution to the
155 magnetic susceptibility, while in contrast strongly magnetite and maghemite, although
present in trace contents, make a large contribution (e.g. Liu et al., 2007; Wang et al.,
2018). χ_{fd} is extremely sensitive to the fine-grained ferrimagnetic component of loess
(Liu et al., 2007), which is 20-30 nm maghemite (Liu et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2010b).
According to magnetic and mineralogical evidence, it has been proposed that the
160 fine-grained maghemite is pedogenic, and its content can be used as proxy of
paleo-precipitation (e.g. Maher et al., 1995; Jia et al., 2013; Song et al., 2014).
Therefore, the high χ_{fd} of soil units indicates favorable soil forming conditions under a
prevailing humid climate, and the low χ_{fd} of soil units indicates soil formation under a
prevailing dry climate.

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5. Results

The χ_{fd} of the DK section varies within the range of $0.0\text{-}18.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ and of the
XF section it varies within the range of $0.8\text{-}26.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5a). Three peaks are
evident in both χ_{fd} records during MIS 5, and one poorly defined peak is evident
170 during 130-120 ka in the XF section; however, at least three soil units can be readily
distinguished in the field. Since loess is also a typical eolian dust, pedogenesis must
be influenced by the processes of dust deposition (such as dust accumulate rate) as
well as by the local climate. In order to minimize the influence of dust deposition and
make the pedogenic signal more obviously, the FFT filtering analysis has been applied
175 on the χ_{fd} curves. Due to the development of soil units contains strongly precession
component, such as: three soil units developed during MIS 5, at least two soil units
developed during MIS 7, two soil units developed during MIS 9, we decided to filter
out the precession cycle (19-23 kyr) to do the comparative analysis between DK and



XF records. The resulting curve exhibits three peaks which have an out-of-phase
180 pattern of variation compared with the DK loess record (Fig. 6a). Cross-correlation
analysis of loess records reveals that during 130-75 ka the precipitation variations in
ACA lagged that of the EASM-dominated region by 3 kyr (Fig. 6e). Similarly, from
the KS loess record, it can be seen that: the moisture variations lagged those of the
EASM-dominated region by ~3-5 kyr during MIS 5 (Jia et al., 2018a).

185 Both loess records exhibit two peaks during MIS 7 (Fig. 5b). In the DK section χ_{fd}
varies within the range of $0.4-10.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$, and in the XF section it varies within
the range of $0.8-26.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$. The filtering curve exhibited that, during this period,
precipitation change in the DK section shows synchronous variation with that in XF
section (Fig. 6b), which supported by cross-correlation analysis (Fig. 6f).

190 Unlike MIS 5 and MIS 7, which span one and a half obliquity cycles or three
precession cycles, the duration of MIS 9 and 11 are much shorter, and they only
include one obliquity cycle or two precession cycles. During MIS 9, the χ_{fd} in the DK
section varies within the range of $1.4-18.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$, and within the XF section
within the range of $8.7-25.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5c). According to cross-correlation
195 analysis, the precipitation variations in the DK section during 290-345 ka lag those of
the XF record by 2 kyr (Fig. 6g). During MIS 11, the χ_{fd} in the DK section varies
within the range of $0.7-9.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$, and in the XF section within the range of
 $9.0-21.6 \times 10^{-8} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5d). The variations of χ_{fd} curves are dominated by obliquity
(Fig. 5d). After application of 19-23 kyr band-pass FFT filtering, two peaks are
200 evident in both curves during (during the period 424-379 ka) (Fig. 6d).
Cross-correlation analysis of the loess records suggests that during 430-385 ka in
ACA, precipitation variations lagged those of the EASM-dominated region by 5 kyr
(Fig. 6g).

205 Figure 5

Figure 6



6. Discussion

210 Previous investigations of the Holocene in ACA have proposed that climate change in
central Asia tracked insolation variations (an external factor) on the orbital scale (e.g.
Ding et al., 2002; Bronger, 2003); however, climate change was also forced by a
series of internal factors. Climate simulations indicate that the westerly wind intensity
and upstream evaporation are the dominant factor determining humidity variations in
215 ACA (Jin et al., 2012). Huang et al. (2015) emphasized the effect of a zonal climatic
teleconnection in which humidity variations were anti-phased between ACA and the
Indian monsoon region. There are potentially two mechanisms which can generate
such as anti-phased relationship: (1) A stronger (weaker) Indian summer monsoon
(ISM) can lead to northward (southward) movement of the westerlies. (2) A stronger
220 (weaker) ISM can lead to an extended duration of the summer monsoon and a shorter
duration of the westerlies influence in Tajikistan. Accordingly, a stronger (weaker)
ISM results in a precipitation increase (decrease) in the ISM-dominated region, but
the northward (southward) movement of the westerlies may result in a precipitation
decrease (increase) in ACA.

225 Both the EASM and ISM are components of the Asian summer monsoon (ASM)
system. However, precipitation varies in out-of-phase pattern between the
EASM-dominated and ISM-dominated regions (e.g. Chen et al., 2016). Evidence from
various geological archives provides strong support for this model. For example,
records from the CLP exhibit synchronous but anti-phased relationships between the
230 summer and winter monsoon in East Asia, on timescales from multi-millennial to
Earth orbital (e.g. Ding et al., 1995; Guo et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2018). In contrast,
stalagmite records from South China, which have a robust chronology, document that
the glacial termination of the Asian summer monsoon occurred 3 kyr earlier than that
is evident in the global ice volume record (Cheng et al., 2009). In a review of previous
235 research, Wang and Liu (2016) proposed that stalagmite oxygen isotope record was
dominated by variations in the ratio of moisture from the Indian Ocean and from the
Pacific Ocean, rather than by precipitation. In a comparison with the Holocene
moisture pattern in the East Asian monsoon margin, it was suggested that a major



proportion of the variance of the oxygen isotope record from Chinese caves was
240 contributed by the Indian Monsoon signal (e.g. Chen et al., 2015). Due to the close
link between the grain-size records from the CLP and Northern Hemisphere ice
volume variations, the previous results reveal an out-of-phase pattern of variation in
moisture conditions between the EASM-dominated and ISM-dominated regions. A
well-dated high-resolution lake sediment record from North China demonstrates that
245 the EASM-dominated region experienced a dry climate during the early Holocene,
whereas the ISM-dominated region experienced a humid climate (Chen et al., 2015).
The lagged response of Northern Hemisphere ice volume to insolation variations may
be the major cause of the lagged response of climate change in high and mid-latitudes
to insolation (e.g. Ding et al., 1995).

250 Combining the foregoing modelling and geological evidence, an out-of-phase
variation of moisture conditions between ACA and the EASM-dominated region is
indicated during interglacials. This scenario is supported by the results of the present
study, which indicate that during the last three out of four interglacials there was a lag
in moisture changes in ACA compared to the EASM-dominated region. In addition,
255 our results contribute to an improved understanding of climate change in ACA.
During MIS 9, which was a relatively cool interglacial during which the ASM was
relatively weak (e.g. Guo et al., 2009; Hao et al., 2012), there was a relatively brief 2
kyr delay in moisture change. In contrast, during MIS 11, a warm interglacial with a
relatively strong ASM (e.g. Guo et al., 2009; Hao et al., 2012), there was a much
260 longer delay of 5 kyr. Our results indicate that the length of the lag was variable and
related to the intensity of the ASM, with a stronger ASM corresponding to longer lag
and a weaker ASM corresponding to a short lag. This phenomenon is well explained
by the foregoing model.

Among the studied interglacials, MIS 7 is distinguished by synchronous moisture
265 variations on precession component. As illustrated in Figure 7, an interglacial climate
is normally characterized by a rapid increase of precipitation at the beginning with a
subsequent gradual decrease (Fig. 7a-d). However, the records from the CLP indicate
the reverse pattern of climatic variation: a gradual increase from the beginning of the



interglacial and a rapid decrease at the end (Fig. 7d). Furthermore, the MIS 7 is the
270 coolest interglacial among past four interglacials. According to the conceptual model,
a gradually strengthening ASM and the relatively weak ASM in MIS 7 are both
beneficial to westerlies staying in ACA during the early stage, rather than northward
movement. For this reason, the moisture record in ACA exhibits a synchronous
humidity variation compared to the EASM-dominated region.

275

Figure 6

7. Conclusion

We have investigated the timing of changes in moisture conditions in ACA during the
280 last four interglacials. The results show that changes in moisture conditions in ACA
lagged those of the EASM-dominated region by 3 kyr during MIS 5, by 0 kyr during
MIS 7, by 2 kyr during MIS 9, and by 5 kyr during MIS 11. These findings support
our previous conclusions regarding the timing of climate change in ACA during the
Holocene and MIS 5 (e.g. Chen et al., 2016, 2019; Jia et al., 2018a), and they also
285 show that length of the lag was variable and influenced by the intensity of the ASM
and especially the ISM. The results also support the concept of a zonal climatic
teleconnection (Huang et al., 2015), which results in the westerly wind intensity and
evaporation upstream (Jin et al., 2012) dominating changes in humidity conditions in
ACA during interglacials.

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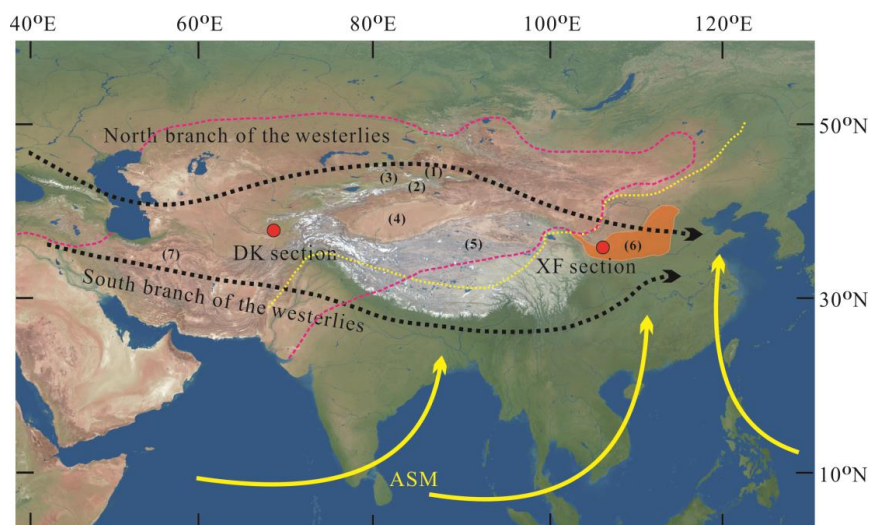
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445 Figure 1. RS image of arid central Asia (ACA) and Monsoon Asia with the pink
dashed line indicating the present Asian monsoon limit. The area enclosed by the
yellow dashed line is ACA (modified from Huang et al., 2015). The number 1-6 are
Junggar Basin, Tienshan Mountains, Ili River Basin, Tarim Basin, Tibet Plateau, and
Chinese Loess Plateau, as sequences. The range of Chinese Loess Plateau is indicated
450 by orange shadow.

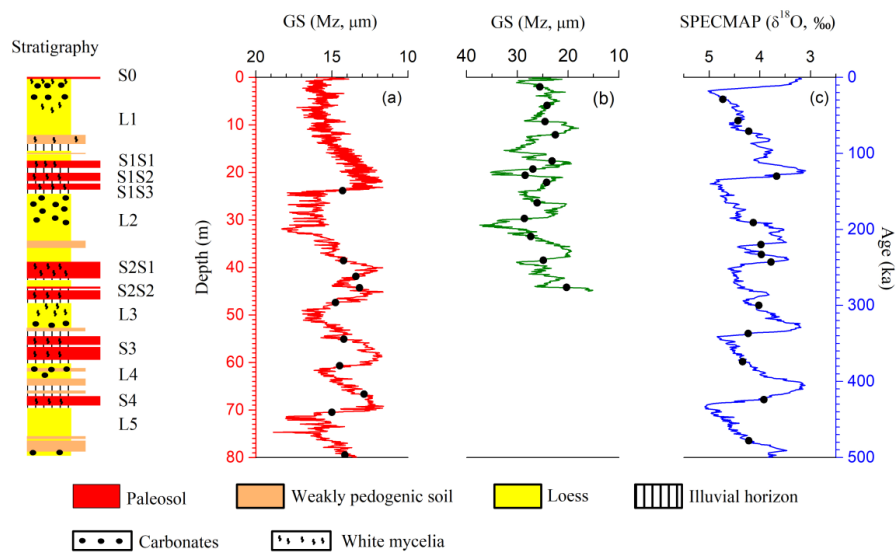
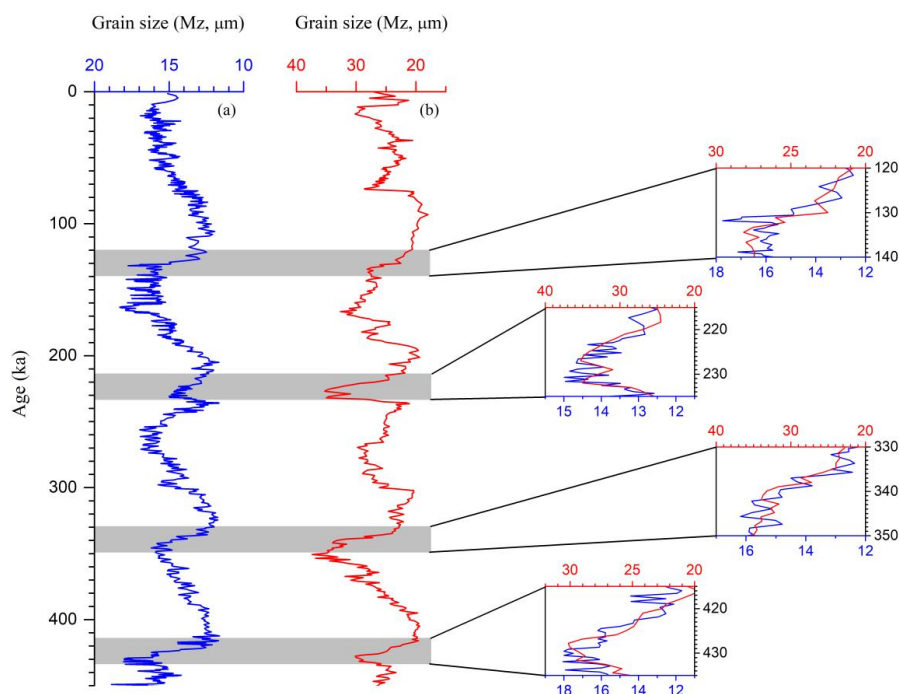
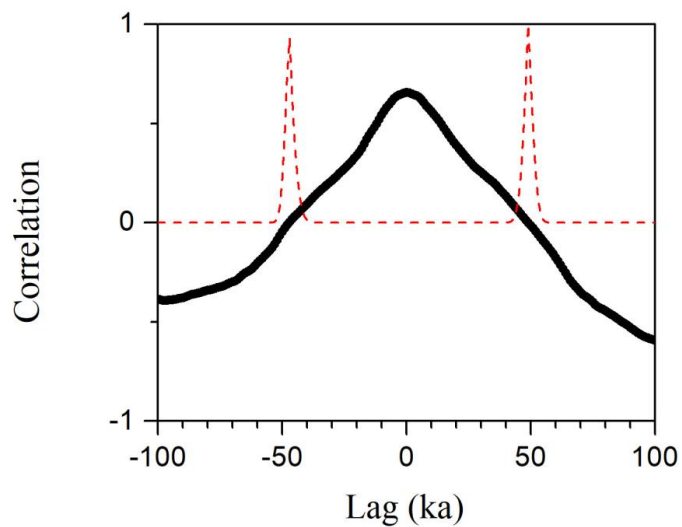


Figure 2. Pedostratigraphy of the DK section (Jia et al., 2018a). The comparisons of
455 climate variations among grain size record in DK section (a), grain size record in XF
section (b, Lu et al., 2018), and SPECMAP $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (c, Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005).
The black dots in the curves are the location of age control points.



460 Figure 3. Comparison of variations in mean grain-size in the DK section (a, blue curve) and the XF section (b, red curve). The enlarged sub-plots show detailed comparisons of the initiation of four interglacials (MIS 5, 7-1, 9, and 11).



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Figure 4. Results of cross-correlation analysis of the grain-size records from the DK and XF sections. The red curve is the r value.



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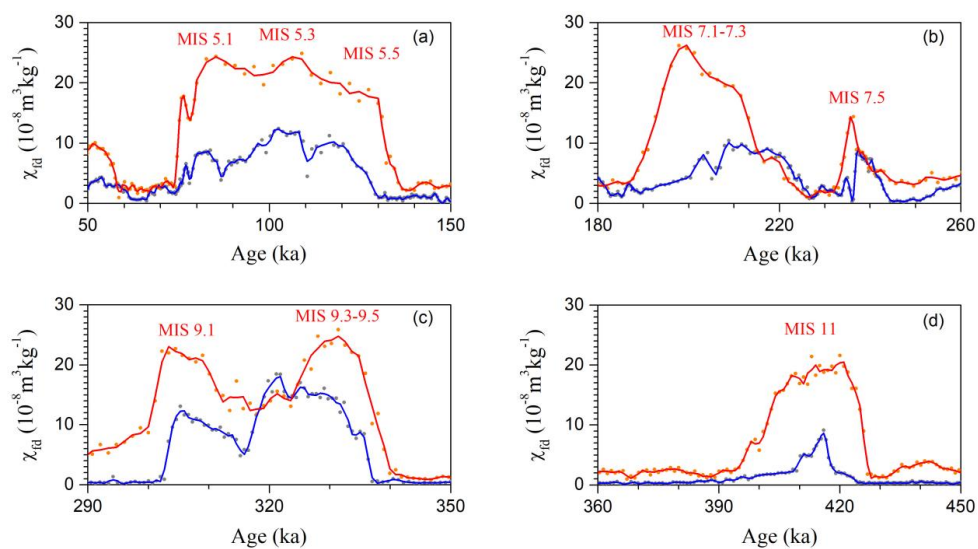
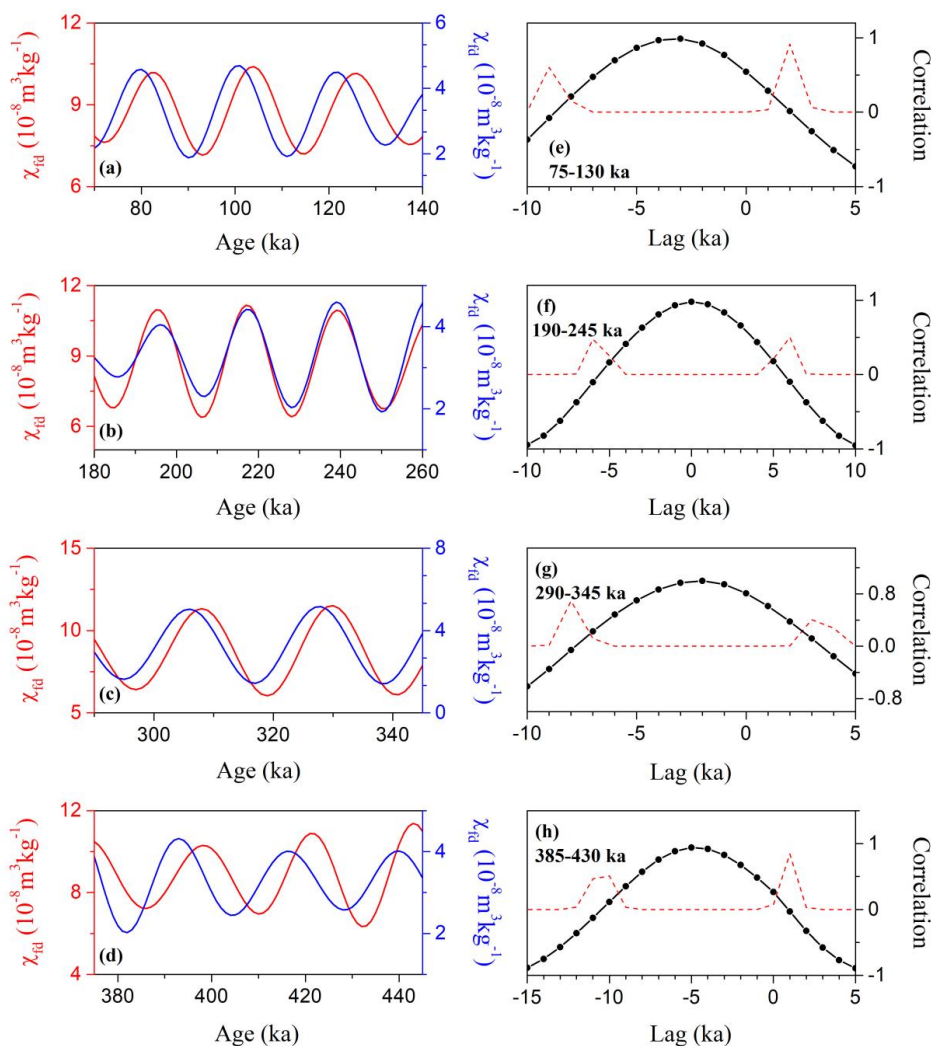


Figure 5. Comparison of records of frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility (χ_{fd}) for four interglacials in the DK section (blue curve) and XF section (red curve). The dots are the measured data, and the lines are the results of five-point smoothing. (a) Comparison during
475 MIS 5, (b) comparison during MIS 7, (c) comparison during MIS 9, (d) comparison during MIS 11. The data for XF are from Lu et al. (2018).



480

Figure 6. Comparison of records of 23 kyr high-pass FFT filtered frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility (χ_{fd}) during four interglacials. (e-h) Cross-correlation analysis of precipitation components from the DK and XF records. The red curves in figures (e-h) are r values

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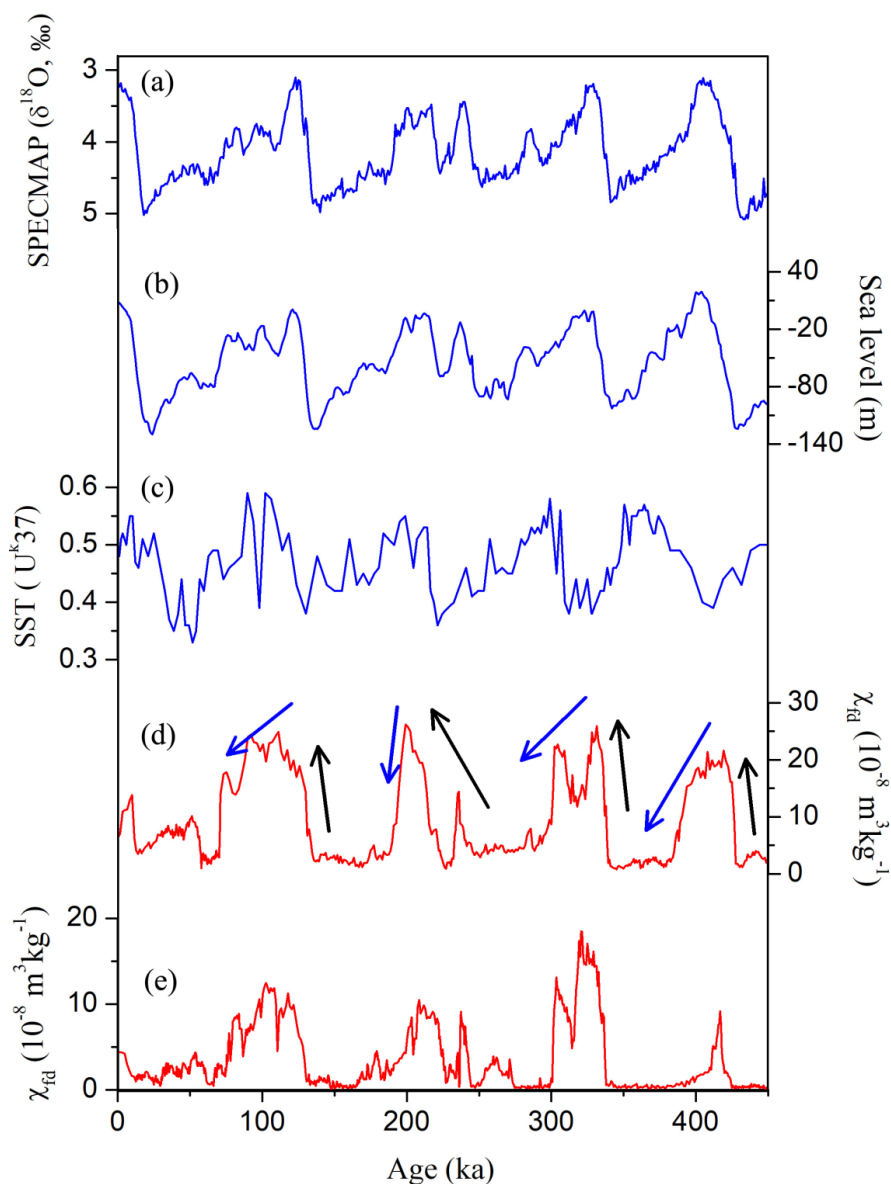


Figure 7. Comparison of patterns of interglacial climatic variability recorded by the marine oxygen isotope record of global ice volume (a, Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005), global average sea level (b, Spratt and Lisiecki, 2016), North Atlantic sea surface temperature (c, Lawrence et al., 2009), and the frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility record (χ_{fd}) of the Chinese Loess Plateau (d, Guo et al., 2009), and the Tajikistan loess (e).



Table 1. Age control points and corresponding depths for the DK loess section.

Age (ka)	Depth (m)		Age (ka)	Depth (m)	
	DK section	XF section		DK section	XF section
0		0	233	44.3	20.6
11.5		0.7	243	47.3	22.1
29		2	300	55.1	26.4
57		5.9	337	60.7	29.7
74		9.2	374	64.7	33.5
130	23.85	12.1	424	70.5	38.5
191	38.6	17.6	478	79.5	44.2
220	41.9	19.3			

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