

26 **Abstract:** Millennial-scale East Asian monsoon variability is closely associated with natural
27 hazards through long-term variability in flood and drought cycles. Therefore, exploring what
28 drives the millennial-scale variability is of significant importance for future prediction of extreme
29 climates. Here we present a new East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) rainfall reconstruction
30 from the northwest Chinese loess plateau spanning the past 650 ka. The magnitude of
31 millennial-scale variability (MMV) in EASM rainfall is linked to ice volume and greenhouse gas
32 (GHG) at the 100-kyr earth-orbital eccentricity band and to GHG and summer insolation at the
33 precession band. At the glacial-interglacial cycle, gradual changes in CO₂ at times of intermediate
34 ice volume leads to increased variability in North Atlantic stratification and Atlantic meridional
35 overturning circulation, propagating abrupt climate changes into East Asia via the westerlies.
36 Within the 100-kyr cycle precession variability further enhances the response, showing that
37 stronger insolation and increased atmospheric GHG cause increases in the MMV of EASM
38 rainfall. These findings indicate increased extreme precipitation events under future warming
39 scenarios, consistent with model results.

40 **Key words:** EASM rainfall, MMV, GHG modulation, precession band

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Chinese loess is a unique terrestrial archive that can well document East Asian monsoon
44 (EAM) variability at tectonic to millennial timescales (Porter and An, 1995; An et al., 2011).
45 High-resolution loess records have revealed persistent millennial-scale (1-10 kyr periodicity)
46 EAM fluctuations spanning the last several glacial cycles (Guo et al., 1996; Sun et al., 2012,
47 2021a,b; Guo et al., 2021), which are dynamically linked with high-latitude abrupt changes in the

48 north Atlantic including Heinrich (H) (Heinrich, 1988) and Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) events
49 (Dansgaard et al., 1982). This millennial-scale monsoon variability is superimposed on
50 glacial-interglacial variations (Ding et al., 1999; Clemens et al., 2018). Abrupt summer monsoon
51 changes are closely linked to natural hazards such as flood and drought events (Huang et al., 2007),
52 since the summer monsoon plays a leading role in transporting water vapor from low to
53 middle/high latitudes of the northern hemisphere (Liu et al., 2013; An et al., 2015). Abrupt rainfall
54 events associated with short-term summer monsoon variations strongly influence agriculture, food
55 production, water supply and social economic development (Huang et al., 2007; Cook et al., 2010;
56 Li et al., 2017). However, how these flood/drought events are affected by both natural and
57 anthropogenic factors remains poorly constrained. Understanding the mechanisms that modulate
58 the magnitude of millennial-scale variability (MMV) is of critical importance for the scientific
59 community as well as policy makers. Here we use the term “modulate” in the context of
60 lower-frequency components of the climate system influencing or determining the amplitude of a
61 higher-frequency components.

62 A number of well-dated, high-resolution speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records have been developed in
63 recent years (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2016), providing the opportunity to examine the
64 underlying relationship(s) between East Asian monsoon MMV and potential longer-term
65 (orbital-scale) modulators. The latest research suggests that the MMV through the Pleistocene is
66 influenced by both glacial boundary condition and orbital configurations (Sun et al., 2021b).
67 Cheng et al., (2016) hypothesized, on the basis of an East Asian composite speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
68 record ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$), that periods of maximum Northern Hemisphere summer insolation correspond to
69 weaker millennial-scale variability. Subsequently, however, Thirumalai et al (2020) showed that

70 precession does not modulate the MMV of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ and postulated that it is, instead, modulated by
71 internal processes related to the cryosphere. This work also raised the possibility that $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ is
72 decoupled from regional Asian monsoon rainfall over millennial timescales (Zhang et al., 2018).
73 As such, two important outstanding questions remain; is there a reliable proxy for East Asian
74 summer monsoon (EASM) rainfall at the millennial timescale and what factors modulate the
75 MMV thereof?

76 Due to weak pedogenesis and high sedimentation rates, millennial-scale oscillations are well
77 preserved in the western and northwestern Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP) over the past glacial
78 cycles (Sun et al., 2012, 2021a; Guo et al., 2021). The Linxia profile is well-suited for
79 reconstructing rapid monsoon changes because it is located in monsoon frontal zone and sensitive
80 to high- and low-latitude climate variability. To address the above questions, we have generated a
81 high-resolution summer monsoon proxy (Ca/Ti) from Linxia on the western CLP (Fig. 1). The
82 Ca/Ti ratio is a precipitation-sensitive proxy linked to summer monsoon rainfall (Guo et al., 2021).
83 Low values of Ca/Ti indicate stronger Ca leaching associated with intensified summer rainfall.
84 The new precipitation proxy (Ca/Ti) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ are evaluated to elucidate the modulating drivers
85 of these two proxy records. As discussed in the Results section, we find that the MMV of Ca/Ti is
86 mainly modulated by ice volume and greenhouse gases (GHG) at the eccentricity band. Both
87 GHG and summer insolation modulate the MMV of Ca/Ti at the precession band but not that of
88 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$; $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ MMV is modulated by winter insolation at the eccentricity and obliquity bands.
89 The interpretations of these results are presented in the Discussion section.

90 **2. Materials and Methods**

91 **[2.1 Site and measurements of loess sections](#)**

92 The Linxia (LX; 103.63°E, 35.15°N, 2,200 m a.s.l.) loess record is from the western edge of the
93 CLP (Fig. 1). At present, mean annual temperature and precipitation in this region are about 8.1°C
94 and 484 mm, respectively, with ~80% of the annual precipitation falling during the summer season
95 (May to September). The 203.8 m-long core A (LXA) consists of 185 m of eolian loess-paleosol
96 sequences, underlain by 17 m of fluvial loess and 1.8 m of sandy gravel layers. The 72 m-long
97 core B (LXB) and a 7 m pit were excavated in 2017. Powder samples were collected at 2 cm
98 intervals for analyzing mean grain size (MGS) with the resolution ranging 10~200 yr/cm. As well,
99 2-cm resolution samples were dried at 40°C overnight and ground to 200 mesh size (about <75
100 μm) with an agate mortar and pestle, and then pressed into a plastic sheet (4 cm × 4 cm × 0.3 cm),
101 creating a flat and homogeneous slide. The plastic slides were then placed on a wood pallet for
102 XRF scanning to obtain elemental intensities (Guo et al., 2021).

103 **2.2 Age model and evaluations of age uncertainties**

104 The chronological framework for Chinese loess-paleosol sequences is widely constructed by
105 matching grain-size to benthic LR04 δ¹⁸O records (Porter and An, 1995; Hao et al., 2012; Sun et
106 al., 2021a). A similar approach utilizes correlation to speleothem δ¹⁸O in recent years (Beck et al.,
107 2018; Sun et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2022). The age model of Linxia profile is generated by
108 synchronizing Chinese loess and speleothem δ¹⁸O records back to 650 ka (published by Sun et al.,
109 in 2021a). Detailed information of loess/paleosol strata is showed in Fig. 2 and refers to Sun et
110 al. (2021a). The first set of control points tie the loess/paleosol boundaries S₆ to S₀ to the timing of
111 the glacial terminations/inceptions in speleothem δ¹⁸O (Cheng et al., 2016). The second and third
112 sets of age control points tie the timing of precessional transition boundaries and abrupt cooling
113 events in the MGS record to those in speleothem δ¹⁸O (Fig. 2b), based on the assumption that the

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114 [East Asian summer and winter monsoon co-vary at orbital timescales, and millennial-scale abrupt](#)
115 [events are synchronous in the northern hemisphere \(Hemming et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2012;](#)
116 [Clemens et al., 2018\). The tie points are shown in Fig. 2b.](#)

117 ~~The composite speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is well resolved by absolute U-Th dating and applied as~~
118 ~~the target for regional synchronization. The errors are less than 2 kyr for the last 450 ka and~~
119 ~~increase to 4-8 kyr before 450 ka (Cheng et al., 2019). The MGS record yields good correlation~~
120 ~~between loess/paleosol boundaries and glacial/interglacial transitions of LR04 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The age~~
121 ~~differences of most glacial terminations are around 2-4 kyr (Fig. 2b, Sun et al., 2021a) with~~
122 ~~sedimentation rate ranging from 5-100 cm/kyr. The speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ synchronized age model is~~
123 ~~compared with benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ age model to evaluate the influence of age uncertainties on the~~
124 ~~wavelet coherence analysis. The small differences in the two age models (correlation to marine~~
125 ~~$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and to speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) make little difference in the MMV and associated wavelet coherence~~
126 ~~(WTC). This is because age model tie points are separated by 20-30 kyrs and the small differences~~
127 ~~in the tie-points among the two age models has little to no influence on the amplitude (MMV) of~~
128 ~~millennial-scale peaks. Only minor differences in the MMV WTC phase are observed at the~~
129 ~~obliquity (450-550 ka) and precession bands (100-200 ka). (Compare Fig. S1 with Fig. 4).~~

130 **2.3 Spectrum and wavelet coherence analysis**

131 In order to estimate the MMV, [loess Ca/Ti and \$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}\$](#) are linear interpolated at 0.1 kyr interval.
132 [The WTC results remain unchanged unless the cutoff threshold is reduced to to 6 kyr or increased](#)
133 [it to 12 kyr; then](#) original time series are filtered using a Butterworth filter at a cutoff threshold of
134 10 kyr (e.g. [Ca/Ti-hi-10kyr](#)). The moving standard deviation of millennial-scale variability is
135 calculated to ascertain the orbitally-related modulation and its association with internal and

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136 external forcing using 2 kyr sliding window (calculation method follows Thirumalai et al., 2020).
137 The spectra of all proxies were calculated using the Lomb-Scargle periodogram
138 (<https://exoplanetarchive.ipac.caltech.edu/cgi-bin/Pgram/nph-pgram>), which has the advantage of
139 analyzing discontinuous time series and removal of spurious spectral characteristics (VanderPlas,
140 2018). Normalized and combined orbital parameters eccentricity, tilt, and negative precession
141 (ETP), GHG, insolation, and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were evaluated by WTC to extract maximal phase and
142 amplitude correlations with astronomical, ice volume and greenhouse gases forcing over the past
143 650 ka. WTC between time series was performed in a Monte Carlo framework ($n = 1,000$)
144 following Grinsted et al., (2004). The WTC would help to detect the period in different frequency
145 bands where the two time series co-vary (but does not necessarily have high power). The black
146 arrows in the figures represent the phase relationship between the two time sequences with
147 rightward, upward and downward arrows indicate the in-phase, leading and lagging phase,
148 respectively. The colour scale indicates the amplitude correlations between the two datasets.

149 In this paper, the parameter $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$ is regarded as GHG radiative forcing (GHG RF, using the
150 GHG RF instead of $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$ in the discussion section) and applied in WTC to evaluate the
151 relationship between MMV of Ca/Ti and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ sp. The $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$ is reconstructed by referencing the
152 content of EPICA ice core greenhouse gases to the modern value. $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$ is defined as the
153 difference between a certain past GHG level ($[\text{CO}_2]$ and $[\text{CH}_4]$) and the pre-industrial greenhouse
154 gas level ($[\text{CO}_2]_0 = 280$ ppm, $[\text{CH}_4]_0 = 700$ ppb) (Ramaswamy et al., 2001). While CH_4 contributes
155 $<5\%$, we calculated the $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$ using both CO_2 and CH_4 . The equation used to determine $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$
156 is as follows (Lo et al., 2017):

$$157 \quad \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}} = \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{CO}_2} + \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{CH}_4}$$

158 $= 4.841 \ln([CO_2]/[CO_2]_0) + 0.0906(\sqrt{[CO_2]} - \sqrt{[CO_2]_0}) + 0.036 \ln(\sqrt{[CH_4]} - \sqrt{[CH_4]_0})$

159 **3. Results**

160 The MGS reflects grain-size sorting and is very sensitive to winter monsoon variations (Porter
161 and An, 1995; Sun et al., 2006) with larger particle size during the glacials. The Ca/Ti ratio
162 reflects precipitation-induced leaching intensity linked to summer monsoon rainfall (Guo et al.,
163 2021), with lower value during the interglacials. The high resolution $\delta^{18}O$ of Sanbao-Hulu
164 speleothem is an indicator of EASM changes at orbital to centennial timescales (Cheng et al.,
165 2016). The MGS and Ca/Ti exhibit distinct glacial-interglacial and precessional variations over the
166 last 650 ka as seen in LR04 $\delta^{18}O$ (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and speleothem $\delta^{18}O$ (Cheng et al.,
167 2016), respectively (Fig. 2b).

168 Both Ca/Ti and $\delta^{18}O_{sp}$ records show clear millennial-scale fluctuations overlaying orbital-scale
169 variations. The high frequency millennial signals (Materials and Methods) persist over the last 650
170 ka, but the amplitude varies from proxy to proxy (Fig. 3a and S2a). Spectral analysis of the raw
171 records and MMV for loess and speleothem records display variable associations with
172 eccentricity- (~100 kyr), obliquity- (~41 kyr), and precession-scale (~23 and ~19 kyr) over the
173 past 650 ka. Loess Ca/Ti variance is mainly concentrated in obliquity with lesser variance in the
174 eccentricity and precession bands (Fig. 3b), indicating prominent ice volume (eccentricity and
175 obliquity) and isolation (precession) forcing. The speleothem $\delta^{18}O$ shows predominant
176 precession-scale variance (Fig. S2b) suggesting strong links to insolation forcing (Cheng et al.,
177 2016). These results indicate ice volume and insolation play dominant roles in driving changes in
178 loess Ca/Ti and speleothem $\delta^{18}O$, respectively (Cheng et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2021a).

179 Millennial-scale fluctuations co-exist with long-term orbital- and ice-volume variability; we

180 seek to assess the potential linkages among them and in particular, the extent to which MMV is
181 modulated by these longer-term orbital and internal climate parameters. The spectra of Ca/Ti
182 MMV shows dominant eccentricity with less strong precession and weak obliquity variance (Fig.
183 3d). The spectrum of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ MMV has a small peak near 100 kyr and an offset 41 kyr peak with
184 little to no variance at the 23 kyr period (Fig. S2d). Thus, while both proxies are similarly
185 modulated at the 100-kyr period (such that the MMV is larger during glacial intervals relative to
186 interglacial times) the MMV modulation is variable for the two proxies at other orbital bands.

187 As with the spectral differences in the raw records, the MMV spectra also implies different
188 MMV modulating drivers, potentially associations with insolation, ice volume, and/or GHG
189 (Thirumalai et al., 2020). How do internal and external drivers interact with each other and
190 modulate the MMV of these records at the orbital timescale? We performed wavelet coherence
191 and phase analyses of both MMV records relative to ETP, ice volume, $\Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}}$, summer insolation,
192 and winter insolation to identify which variables might modulate the MMV of these EASM
193 records. The MMV in Ca/Ti is strongly coherent with ice volume and GHG at the 100,000-year
194 earth-orbital eccentricity band and with GHG and summer insolation at the 23,000-year precession
195 band (Fig. 4c, d, g). $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ MMV is most strongly coherent with GHG and ice volume at the
196 100-kyr band and with winter insolation at the eccentricity and obliquity bands (Fig. S3c, d, g).

197 **4. Discussion**

198 **4.1 Orbital-scale modulation factors for MMV of the EASM**

199 Previous geological records and modeling indicate that high latitude ice volume or ice sheet
200 topography play important roles in triggering abrupt climate changes (Broecker et al.,1994; Clark
201 et al., 2001). In particular, abrupt climate changes are highly sensitive to ice volume variations; ice

202 sheets are widely hypothesized to motivate and amplify these high frequency signals within a
203 constrained benthic oxygen isotope-“ice volume threshold” between 3.5 and 4.5‰ (Bailey et al.,
204 2010; Naffs et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). Wavelet coherence between the MMV of loess Ca/Ti,
205 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack show excellent coherence and near-zero phase
206 with ice volume at the 100 kyr band (Fig. 4e, g and S3e, g); this in-phase variation demonstrates
207 that EASM MMV primarily follows the glacial-interglacial rhythm of ice volume variations,
208 enlarged during glacial times and dampened during interglacial times. However, coherence of the
209 MMV for these two proxies with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack is relatively weak and variable at the 41
210 kyr band ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$; Fig. S3e, g) and 23-kyr band (Ca/Ti; Fig. 4e, g). These relationships
211 demonstrate that ice volume directly modulates the MMV of the EASM, predominantly at the 100
212 kyr band, with high ice volume corresponding to larger MMV.

213 GHG concentration is another potential driver of abrupt climate changes (Alvarez-Solas et al.,
214 2011; Zhang et al., 2017). Wavelet coherence between the MMV of loess Ca/Ti, speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
215 and the record of GHG RF show excellent coherence and $\sim 180^\circ$ phase at the 100-kyr eccentricity
216 band (Fig. 4b, d and S3b, d) indicating strong MMV at times of low GHG. Given the coupled
217 nature of global ice-volume and atmospheric GHG, it is clear that over the late Pleistocene
218 glacial-interglacial cycles, these two factors modulate the MMV of the EASM as recorded by
219 Ca/Ti and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ such that abrupt climate change is amplified during times of high ice
220 volume and low GHG concentration. However, this is not the case for the precession band. MMV
221 of loess Ca/Ti displays discrete intervals high coherence and near-zero phase with GHG RF at the
222 precession band (Fig. 4b, d), which is not the case for speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. S3b, d). Thus, GHG
223 RF does play a role in modulating Ca/Ti MMV but not that of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ at the precession band,

224 indicating a difference in the millennial-scale response of these two proxies at this time-scale. We
225 investigate this further by assessing the response to local insolation forcing.

226 The MMV of Ca/Ti show discontinuous relatively weak coherence with 35°N summer
227 insolation at the precession band with even weaker coherence at the 41-kyr band (Fig. 4a, c); we
228 note that the summer insolation modulation is less strong relative to that of GHG at the precession
229 band (Fig. 4b, d). In contrast, the MMV of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ displays high coherence and zero phase with
230 35°N winter insolation at 100 kyr period, relatively weaker coherence, with a lagging phase, at the
231 41 kyr band, and negligible coherence at the 23-ky band (Fig. S3a, c). These results indicate that
232 the MMV of speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is modulated by local winter insolation, opposite to the Cheng et al.,
233 (2016) hypothesis calling on north hemisphere summer insolation.

234 **4.2 Mechanism and implication for modulation of EASM MMV**

235 At the glacial-interglacial timescale, the MMV is amplified under the glacial boundary
236 conditions. This indicates dynamic linkages with high latitude North Atlantic Heinrich and DO
237 events (Cheng et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2012, 2021a, b). Heinrich and DO variability are linked to
238 Northern Hemisphere ice sheet (NHIS) perturbations via its influence on fresh-water flux into the
239 North Atlantic Ocean and consequent Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC)
240 changes (McManus et al., 1999; Hemming, 2004; Naffs et al., 2013). At times of intermediate ice
241 sheet volume, minor changes in NHIS height and atmospheric CO_2 concentrations can trigger the
242 rapid climate transitions (Zhang et al., 2014, 2017). Altering the height of NHIS leads to changes
243 in the gyre circulation and sea-ice coverage by shifting the northern westerlies (Zhang et al., 2014).
244 The maximum westerly wind stress shifts northwards associated with gradual increase of the
245 Northern Hemisphere ice volume. The northward westerly, in turn, encourages the EASM rain belt

246 to move northward (He et al., 2021) and results in increases in the MMV of EASM rainfall
247 (especially northern China). In addition, CO₂ acts as an internal feedback agent to AMOC changes
248 (Barker et al., 2016). Under intermediate glacial condition, when the AMOC reaches a regime of
249 bi-stability, rising CO₂ during Heinrich Stadial cold events can trigger abrupt transitions to warm
250 conditions. Decreasing CO₂ during warm events leads to abrupt cooling transitions (Zhang et al.,
251 2017). Therefore, CO₂ generally provides a negative feedback on MMV of EASM rainfall. During
252 interglacial times decreasing ice volume, accompanied by reduced sea ice and more frequent
253 freshwater perturbation, is correlated with lower frequency and smaller amplitude variability in
254 abrupt climate events. The co-evolving GHG concentrations would further alter the sea surface
255 temperature by greenhouse forcing, subsequently modulating the MMV.

256 Within the 100,000-year cycle, precession-band variability (4-5 cycles), characterized by
257 increased insolation and atmospheric GHG, further heightens the positive response, leading to
258 larger MMV of subtropical rainfall. Recent transient sensitivity experiments suggests that
259 millennial-scale rainfall variability is driven primarily by meltwater and secondarily by insolation
260 (He et al., 2021). During interglacial times under the combined influence of insolation and CO₂,
261 model simulation shows that when insolation reaches the lower “threshold” value (between 358.2
262 and 352.1 W. m⁻²), it triggers a strong abrupt weakening of the AMOC and results in abrupt
263 cooling transitions over last 800 ka (Yin et al., 2021). Increased insolation could warm sea surface
264 temperature and accelerate freshwater input from high latitude ice sheet as well as altering GHG
265 concentration in the atmosphere (Lewkowitz and Way, 2019), which could, in turn, modulate
266 MMV changes in the low latitude monsoon regions.

267 If both millennial-scale Ca/Ti and δ¹⁸O_{sp} represent subtropical rainfall amount, the

268 modulation factors should be consistent. However, eccentricity, obliquity and precession bands
269 MMV modulators differ for loess Ca/Ti and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$, indicating they monitor different aspects of
270 millennial-scale monsoon circulations. Modern observations and Lagrangian trajectories of air
271 parcels in China during the summer monsoon indicate that moisture-induced precipitation doesn't
272 derive from the strongest water vapor pathways (Sun et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2017); local water
273 vapor recycling contributes significantly to regional precipitation in East China (over 30%) and
274 North China (exceeding 55%) (Shi et al., 2020). Hence, we speculate that $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ MMV monitors
275 changes in the isotopic composition of rainfall, varying with changes in westerly transport paths
276 associated with North Atlantic cooling events, consistent with the MMV of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ being closely
277 linked to winter insolation at 100- and 41- kyr periods and the absence of MMV modulation at
278 precession band. We further hypothesize that Ca/Ti mainly represents the MMV in local rainfall
279 amount, consistent with the MMV of tropical rainfall being more dynamically related to GHG and
280 summer insolation at precession band.

281 In recent decades atmospheric GHG concentration is accelerating due to anthropogenic
282 contribution of fossil fuels, suggesting that EASM (extreme) precipitation will increase as well.
283 This inference is consistent with model simulations indicating that the number of extreme daily
284 precipitation events and mean precipitation overall will increase significantly in response to higher
285 GHG concentration (Dairaku and Emori, 2006). The anthropogenic GHG-evoked warming is
286 projected to increase the lower-tropospheric water vapor content and enhance the thermal contrast
287 between land and ocean (Kitoh et al., 1997). This will give rise to a northward shift of lower
288 tropospheric monsoon circulation and an increase rainfall during the East Asian summer monsoon
289 (Vecchi and Soden, 2007). Our results indicate that factors modulating EASM precipitation MMV

290 in the past are consistent with those predicted to influence future changes in monsoonal
291 precipitation, lending further confidence in those projections.

292 **5. Conclusions**

293 Our high-resolution loess Ca/Ti record displays millennial monsoon oscillations that persist
294 over the last 650 ka. Wavelet results highlight remarkable GHG modulation at both 100 kyr and
295 precession band as well as ice volume at 100 kyr period and local insolation forcing at precession
296 band. The MMV of loess Ca/Ti and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are modulated by different orbital factors,
297 implying that these two proxies document different climatic response of millennial-scale monsoon
298 circulation. The inferred mechanism of how these internal and external factors modulate the MMV
299 calls on dynamic linkages to variability in AMOC at both eccentricity and precession bands. In
300 recent decades, atmospheric GHG concentration is dramatically increasing due to anthropogenic
301 contribution of fossil fuels (Bousquet et al., 2006; Davis et al., 2010), resulting in accelerated
302 melting of ice-sheets in bi-polar regions (Swingedouw et al., 2008; Golledge et al., 2019). Their
303 combined effects lead to more frequent occurrences of extreme rainfall (Dairaku and Emori, 2006;
304 IPCC, 2018). Our results indicate that the MMV EASM rainfall is modulated by ice volume, GHG,
305 and insolation factors, consistent with those predicted to influence future changes in monsoonal
306 precipitation.

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308 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

309 Fei Guo mainly contributes to the experiments, data analysis, idea and draft paper. Prof.
310 Steven Clemens and Youbin Sun help to design the program and revise the draft. Huimin Fan
311 assists to perform the experiments and data processing. Ting Wang, Yuming Liu and Xingxing Liu
312 make contributions to the fieldwork and paper discussion.

313

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318

319 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

320 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
321 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

322

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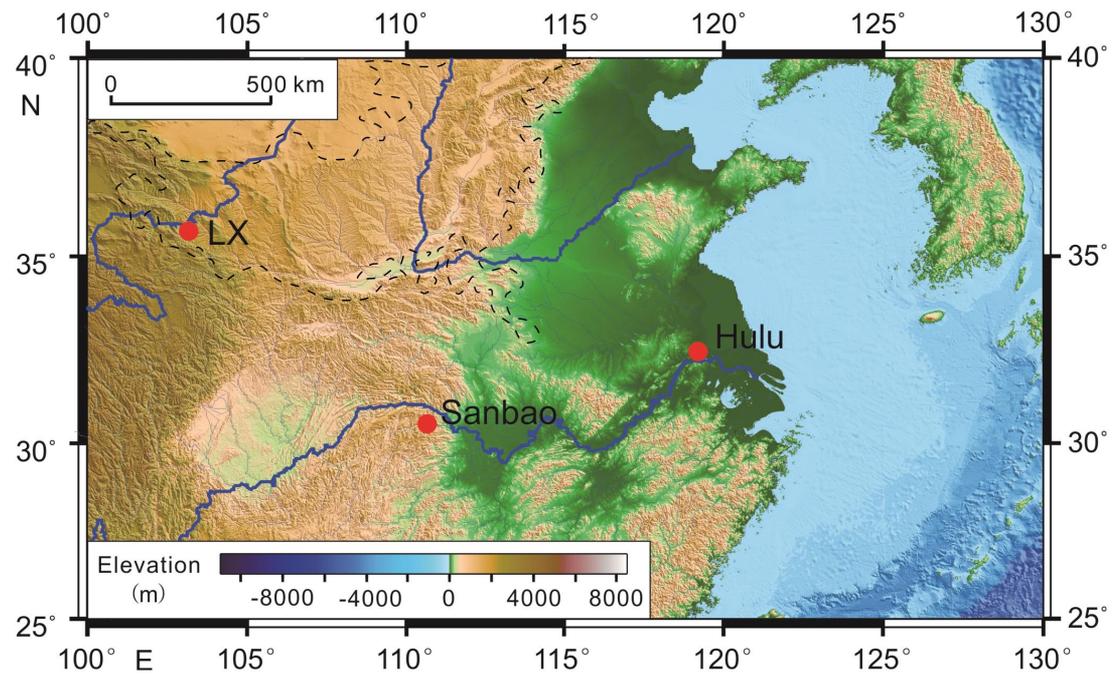
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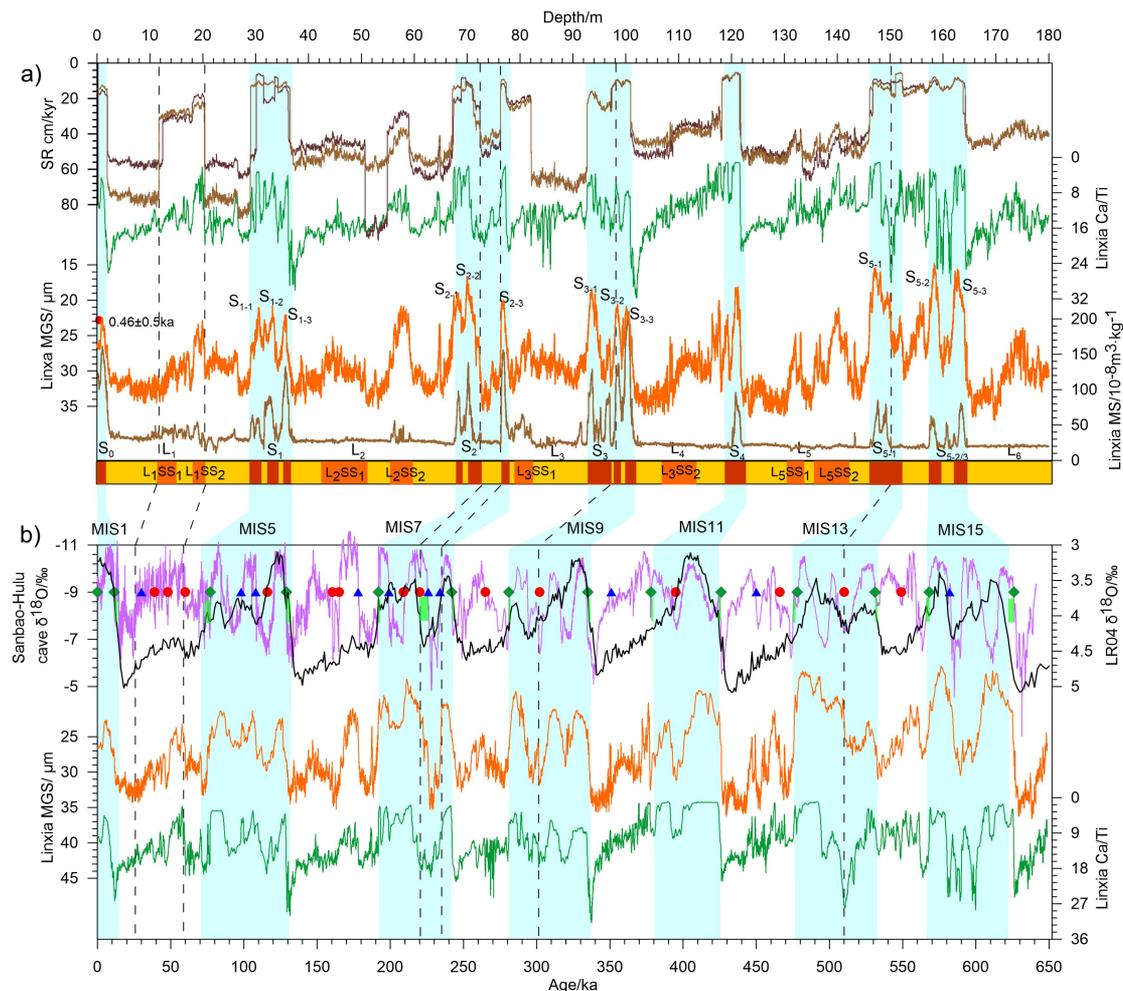
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476
 477 **Figure. 1** The location of the Linxia (LX) loess profile and Hulu-Sanbao cave records. The Linxia
 478 profile, located on the edge of convergence zone for of alpine Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, northwest
 479 arid and the southeast monsoon area, is very sensitive to the migration of desert regions and
 480 monsoonal rainfall. Sanbao-Hulu cave is located in monsoon-influenced Yangtze River Valley,
 481 sensitive to the monsoon-induced precipitation changes. Black dash line represents the scope of
 482 Chinese Loess Plateau. The base map is drawn using GMT software, and the elevation data is
 483 from <http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/global/global.html>.

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486 **Figure 2 a) Strata and down-core variations of mean grain size (MGS), magnetic susceptibility**

487 **(MS), Ca/Ti and sedimentation rate against depth (brown in benthic δ¹⁸O age model and dark**

488 **brown in speleothem δ¹⁸O age model). Brown red, orange and yellow rectangles represent**

489 **palaeosol layers, weakly pedogenic palaeosol in loess layers and loess layers, respectively. The**

490 **timing of dash lines and glacial-interglacial transition are control points of benthic δ¹⁸O**

491 **chronology; b) Variations of MGS, Ca/Ti over last 650 ka and age model of Linxia loess section.**

492 **Comparison of MGS and Ca/Ti in Linxia section with Sanbao-Hulu (Cheng et al., 2009, 2016) and**

493 **benthic δ¹⁸O stack (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). The dark brown squares, blue triangles and red**

494 **dots represent the first (glacial-interglacial transition), second (precession cycles) and third**

495 **(millennial-scale events) class age control points at the corresponding position of cave record,**

496 **respectively (Sun et al., 2021a). Light blue bands donate the interglacial times. The short green**

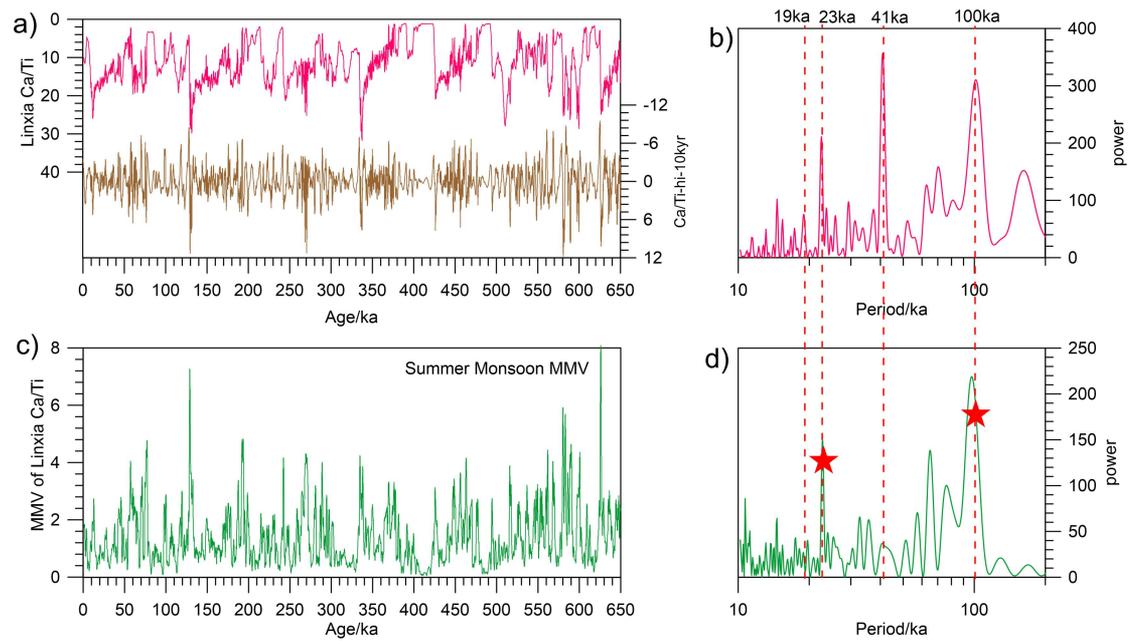
497 **rectangles represent the age differences between the two age models.**

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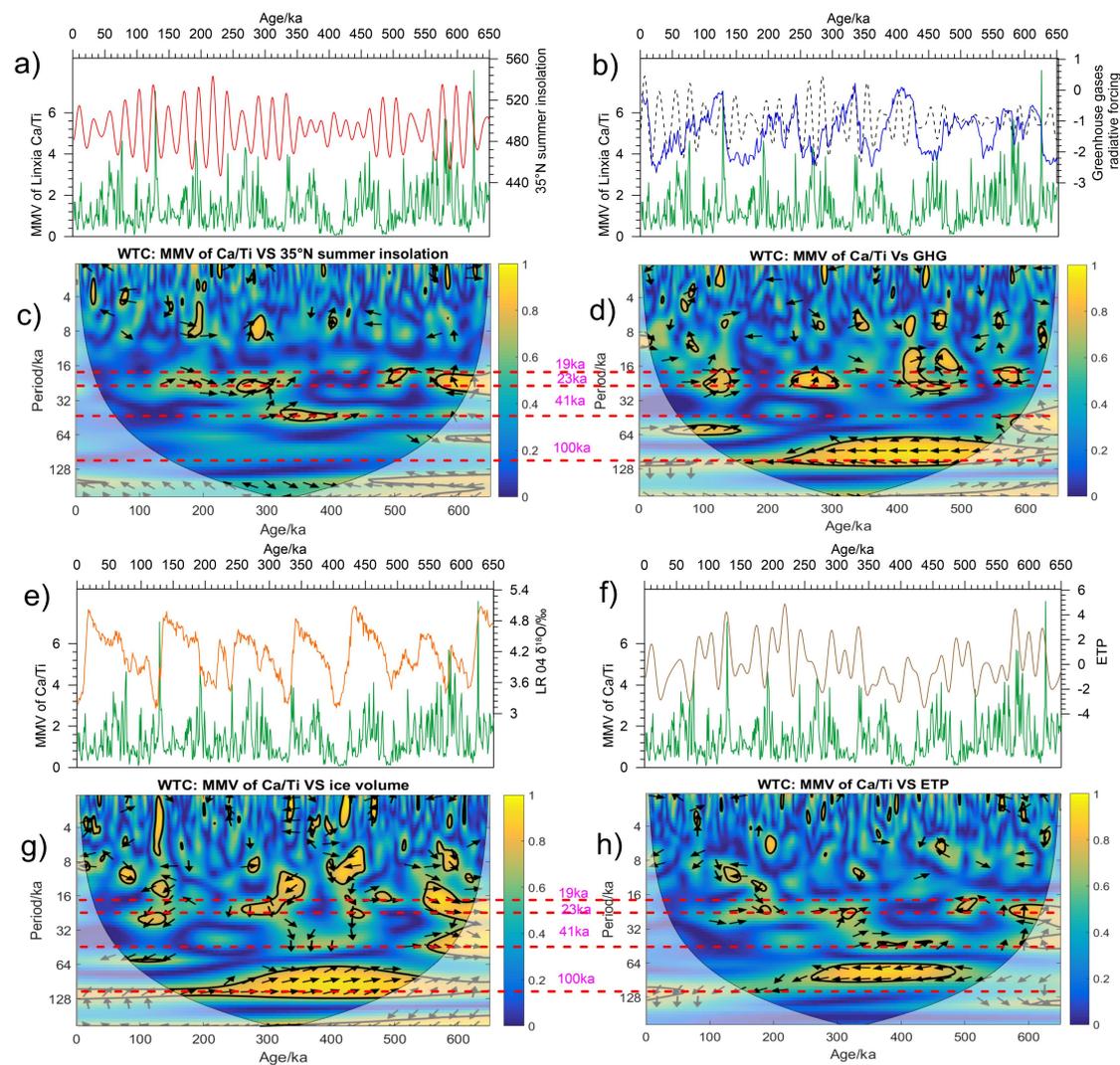
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500 **Figure. 3** Raw datasets, millennial-scale components (10 kyr high pass filtering signals) and
 501 MMV of the Linxia loess Ca/Ti record over the past 650 ka with their corresponding spectra. The
 502 orbital bands are marked with red dashed lines (eccentricity-100 kyr, obliquity-41
 503 kyr ,precession-23 kyr and 19 kyr). Clearly variable eccentricity, obliquity and precession
 504 variances as well as persistent millennial-scale components are observed for loess Ca/Ti and
 505 MMV.

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507

508 **Figure. 4** Comparison of a) 35°N summer insolation forcing, b) GHG radiative forcing (black dish
509 line donates the precession band-pass filtering results of ΔRF_{GHG}) and e) ice volume and f) ETP
510 for MMV of Linxia loess Ca/Ti; Wavelet coherence between c) 35°N summer insolation, d) GHG
511 radiative forcing, g) ice volume, h) ETP and MMV of loess Ca/Ti over the past 650 ka. The orbital
512 bands are marked with red dashed lines (eccentricity-100 kyr, obliquity-41 kyr, precession-23 kyr
513 and 19 kyr). The orange color indicates strong correlation for the two time series. The black lines
514 plot coefficients of determination is more than 0.76. The black arrows represent the phase
515 relationship with rightward, upward and downward arrows indicating in-phase, leading and
516 lagging phase, respectively. Strong eccentricity, weak obliquity and precession bands ice volume
517 modulation are observed for MMV of loess Ca/Ti. Strong eccentricity and precession bands GHG
518 modulation as well as weak summer insolation forcing are detected for MMV of loess Ca/Ti.
519