

Greenhouse gases modulate the strength of millennial-scale subtropical rainfall, consistent with future predictions

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Highlights

The new precipitation-sensitive proxy (Ca/Ti) shows persistent millennial-scale East Asian summer monsoon changes over past 650 ka;

The magnitude of millennial-scale variability is modulated by AMOC at the eccentricity and precession bands.

Increasing GHG and strong insolation lead to more frequent occurrence of extreme rainfall, consistent with model results.

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 (CLP) 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 eccentricity band and to GHG and summer insolation at the precession band.
33 At the glacial-interglacial time scale, gradual changes in CO₂ during intermediate glaciations leads
34 to increased variability in North Atlantic stratification and Atlantic meridional overturning
35 circulation, propagating abrupt climate changes into East Asia via the westerlies. Within the
36 100-kyr cycle, precession variability further enhances the response, showing that stronger
37 insolation and increased atmospheric GHG cause increases in the MMV of EASM rainfall. These
38 findings indicate increased extreme precipitation events under future warming scenarios,
39 consistent with model results.

40 **Key words:** EASM rainfall; Millennial-scale variability; GHG modulation; Insolation forcing
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, 2000).
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., 1993). 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-latitude
53 oceans to middle/high-latitude continents of the Northern Hemisphere (Liu et al., 2013; An et al.,
54 2015). Abrupt rainfall events associated with short-term summer monsoon variations strongly
55 influence agriculture, food production, water supply and social economic development (Huang et
56 al., 2007; Cook et al., 2010; Li et al., 2017). However, how these flood/drought events are affected
57 by both natural and anthropogenic factors remains poorly constrained. Understanding the
58 mechanisms that modulate the magnitude of millennial-scale variability (MMV) is of critical
59 importance for the scientific community as well as policy makers. Here we use the term
60 “modulate” in the context of lower-frequency components of the climate system influencing or
61 determining the amplitude of a 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 the MMV and potential longer-term (orbital-scale) modulators.
65 Cheng et al., (2016) hypothesized, on the basis of an East Asian composite speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
66 record ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$), that periods of maximum Northern Hemisphere summer insolation correspond to
67 weaker millennial-scale variability. Subsequently, however, Thirumalai et al (2020) showed that
68 precession does not modulate the MMV of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ and postulated that it is, instead, modulated by
69 internal processes related to the cryosphere. This work also raised the possibility that $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ is

70 decoupled from regional Asian monsoon rainfall over millennial timescales (Zhang et al., 2018).
71 The latest research suggests that the MMV through the Pleistocene is influenced by both glacial
72 boundary condition and orbital configurations (Sun et al., 2021b). As such, two important
73 outstanding questions remain; is there a reliable proxy for East Asian summer monsoon (EASM)
74 rainfall at the millennial timescale and what factors modulate the MMV thereof?

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

89 **2. Materials and Methods**

90 **2.1 Sampling and measurements**

91 The Linxia (LX; 103.63°E, 35.15°N, 2,200 m a.s.l.) loess record is located in the western edge

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

102 **2.2 Age model and evaluations of age uncertainties**

103 The chronological framework for Chinese loess-paleosol sequences is widely constructed by
104 matching grain-size to benthic LR04 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack (Porter and An, 1995; Hao et al., 2012; Sun et al.,
105 2021a). A similar approach utilizes correlation to speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in recent years (Beck et al.,
106 2018; Sun et al., 2021a; Zhang et al., 2022). The age model of Linxia profile is generated by
107 synchronizing Chinese loess and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records back to 650 ka (Sun et al., 2021a).
108 Detailed information of loess/paleosol boundaries is showed in Fig. 2. The first set of control
109 points tie the loess/paleosol boundaries S_6 to S_0 to the timing of the glacial terminations/inceptions
110 in speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Cheng et al., 2016). The second and third sets of age control points tie the
111 timing of precessional transition boundaries and abrupt cooling events in the MGS record to those
112 in speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 2b), based on the assumption that the East Asian summer and winter
113 monsoon co-vary at orbital timescales, and millennial-scale abrupt events are synchronous in the

114 northern hemisphere (Hemming et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2012; Clemens et al., 2018). The tie points
115 are shown in Fig. 2b.

116 The composite speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is well resolved by absolute U-Th dating and applied as
117 the target for regional synchronization. The errors are less than 2 kyr for the last 450 ka and
118 increase to 4-8 kyr before 450 ka (Cheng et al., 2019). The MGS record yields good correlation
119 between loess/paleosol boundaries and glacial/interglacial transitions of LR04 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The age
120 differences of most glacial terminations are around 2-4 kyr (Fig. 2b, Sun et al., 2021a). The
121 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ synchronized age model is compared with benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ age model to evaluate the
122 influence of age uncertainties on the wavelet coherence analysis. The small differences in the two
123 age models (correlation to marine $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and to speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) make little difference in the MMV
124 and associated wavelet coherence (WTC). This is because tie points are separated by 20-30 kyrs
125 and the small differences in the tie-points among the two age models has insignificant influence
126 on the amplitude (MMV) of millennial-scale peaks. Only minor differences in the MMV WTC
127 phase are observed at the obliquity (450-550 ka) and precession bands (100-200 ka). (Compare
128 Fig. S1 with Fig. 4).

129 **2.3 Spectrum and wavelet coherence analyses**

130 In order to estimate the MMV, loess Ca/Ti and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ are linear interpolated at 0.1 kyr interval.
131 The WTC results remain unchanged unless the cutoff threshold is reduced to to 6 kyr or increased
132 it to 12 kyr; then original time series are filtered using a Butterworth filter at a cutoff threshold of
133 10 kyr (e.g. Ca/Ti-hi-10kyr). The moving standard deviation of millennial-scale variability is
134 calculated to ascertain the orbitally-related modulation and its association with internal and
135 external forcing using 2 kyr sliding window (calculation method follows Thirumalai et al., 2020).

136 The spectra of all proxies were calculated using the Lomb-Scargle periodogram
137 (<https://exoplanetarchive.ipac.caltech.edu/cgi-bin/Pgram/nph-pgram>), which has the advantage of
138 analyzing discontinuous time series and removal of spurious spectral characteristics (VanderPlas,
139 2018).

140 Normalized and combined orbital parameters eccentricity, tilt, and negative precession (ETP),
141 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 evaluates the time evolution of coherence between
145 two time series across a range of frequency bands (independent of the power). The black arrows in
146 the figures represent the phase relationship between the two time sequences with rightward,
147 upward and downward arrows indicating in-phase, leading and lagging phase, respectively. The
148 colour scale indicates the amplitude correlations between the two datasets.

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

$$\begin{aligned} 155 \quad \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{GHG}} &= \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{CO}_2} + \Delta\text{RF}_{\text{CH}_4} \\ 156 \quad &= 4.841 \ln([\text{CO}_2]/[\text{CO}_2]_0) + 0.0906(\sqrt{[\text{CO}_2]} - \sqrt{[\text{CO}_2]_0}) + 0.036 \ln(\sqrt{[\text{CH}_4]} - \sqrt{[\text{CH}_4]_0}) \end{aligned}$$

157 **3. Results**

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

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

177 Millennial-scale fluctuations co-exist with long-term orbital- and ice-volume variability. We
178 seek to assess the potential linkages among them and in particular, the extent to which MMV is
179 modulated by these longer-term orbital and internal climate parameters. The spectrum of Ca/Ti

180 MMV shows dominant eccentricity with less strong precession and weak obliquity variance (Fig.
181 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
182 little to no variance at the 23 kyr period (Fig. S2d). Thus, while both proxies are similarly
183 modulated at the 100-kyr period (i.e. larger MMV during glacial intervals relative to interglacial
184 times), the MMV modulation is variable for the two proxies at other orbital bands.

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

195 **4. Discussion**

196 **4.1 Orbital-scale modulation factors for MMV of the EASM**

197 Geological records and modeling results indicate that high latitude ice volume or ice sheet
198 topography play important roles in triggering abrupt climate changes (Broecker et al., 1994; Clark
199 et al., 2001). In particular, abrupt climate changes are highly sensitive to ice volume variations; ice
200 sheets are widely hypothesized to motivate and amplify these high frequency signals within a
201 constrained benthic oxygen isotope-“ice volume threshold” between 3.5 and 4.5‰ (McManus et

202 al., 1999; Bailey et al., 2010; Naffs et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). Wavelet coherence between
203 the MMV of loess Ca/Ti, speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack show excellent
204 coherence and near-zero phase with ice volume at the 100-kyr band (Fig. 4e, g and S3e, g). This
205 in-phase variation demonstrates that EASM MMV primarily follows the glacial-interglacial
206 rhythm of ice volume variations, enlarged during glacial times and dampened during interglacial
207 times. However, coherence of the MMV for these two proxies with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ stack is
208 relatively weak and variable at the 41-kyr band ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$; Fig. S3e, g) and 23-kyr band (Ca/Ti; Fig.
209 4e, g). These relationships demonstrate that ice volume directly modulates the MMV of the EASM,
210 predominantly at the 100-kyr band, with high ice volume corresponding to larger MMV.

211 GHG concentration is another potential driver of abrupt climate changes (Alvarez-Solas et al.,
212 2011; Zhang et al., 2017). Wavelet results between the MMV of loess Ca/Ti, speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and
213 the record of GHG RF show excellent coherence and $\sim 180^\circ$ phase at the 100-kyr eccentricity band
214 (Fig. 4b, d and S3b, d), indicating strong MMV at times of low GHG. Given the coupled nature of
215 global ice-volume and atmospheric GHG, it is suggested that during the late Pleistocene
216 glacial-interglacial cycles, these two factors can amplify the MMV of the EASM as recorded by
217 Ca/Ti and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ during times of high ice volume and low GHG concentration.
218 However, this is not the case for the precession band. MMV of loess Ca/Ti displays discrete
219 intervals of high-coherence and near-zero phase with GHG RF at the precession band (Fig. 4b, d),
220 which is not the case for speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. S3b, d). Thus, GHG RF does play a role in
221 modulating Ca/Ti MMV but not that of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ at the precession band, indicating a difference in
222 the millennial-scale response of these two proxies. We investigate this further by assessing the
223 response to local insolation forcing.

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

232 **4.2 Mechanisms and implication for modulation of EASM MMV**

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

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

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

266 If both millennial-scale Ca/Ti and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ represent subtropical rainfall amount, the
267 modulation factors should be consistent. However, MMV modulators at eccentricity, obliquity and

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

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

290 monsoonal precipitation, lending further confidence in those projections.

291 **5. Conclusions**

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

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305 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

306 Fei Guo performed data analysis and interpretation, and prepared the manuscript. Profs.
307 Steven Clemens and Youbin Sun designed this study and contributed to the interpretation and
308 writing of the manuscript. Huimin Fan assisted in the data generation and data processing. Ting
309 Wang, Yuming Liu and Xingxing Liu contributed to the fieldwork and paper discussion.

310

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315

316 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

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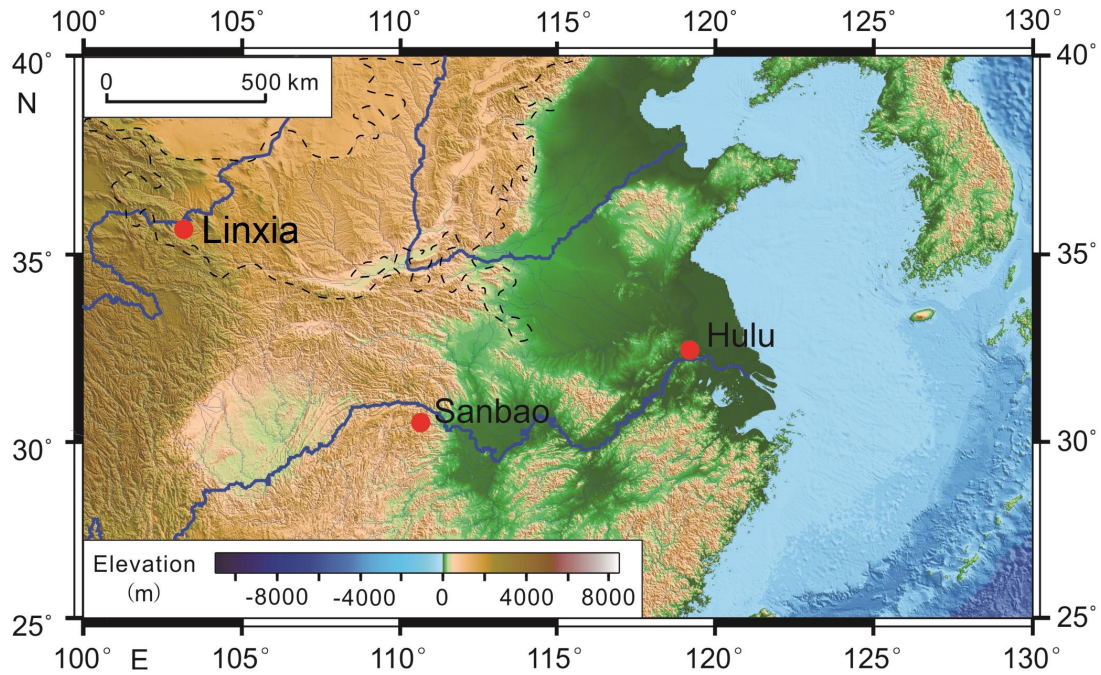
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Figure. 1 The location of the Linxia loess profile and Hulu-Sanbao cave records. The Linxia

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profile, located on the edge of convergence zone of alpine Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, northwest arid

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and the southeast monsoon area, is very sensitive to the migration of desert regions and monsoonal

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rainfall. Sanbao-Hulu cave is located in monsoon-influenced Yangtze River Valley, sensitive to the

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monsoon-induced precipitation changes. Black dashed line represents the scope of Chinese Loess

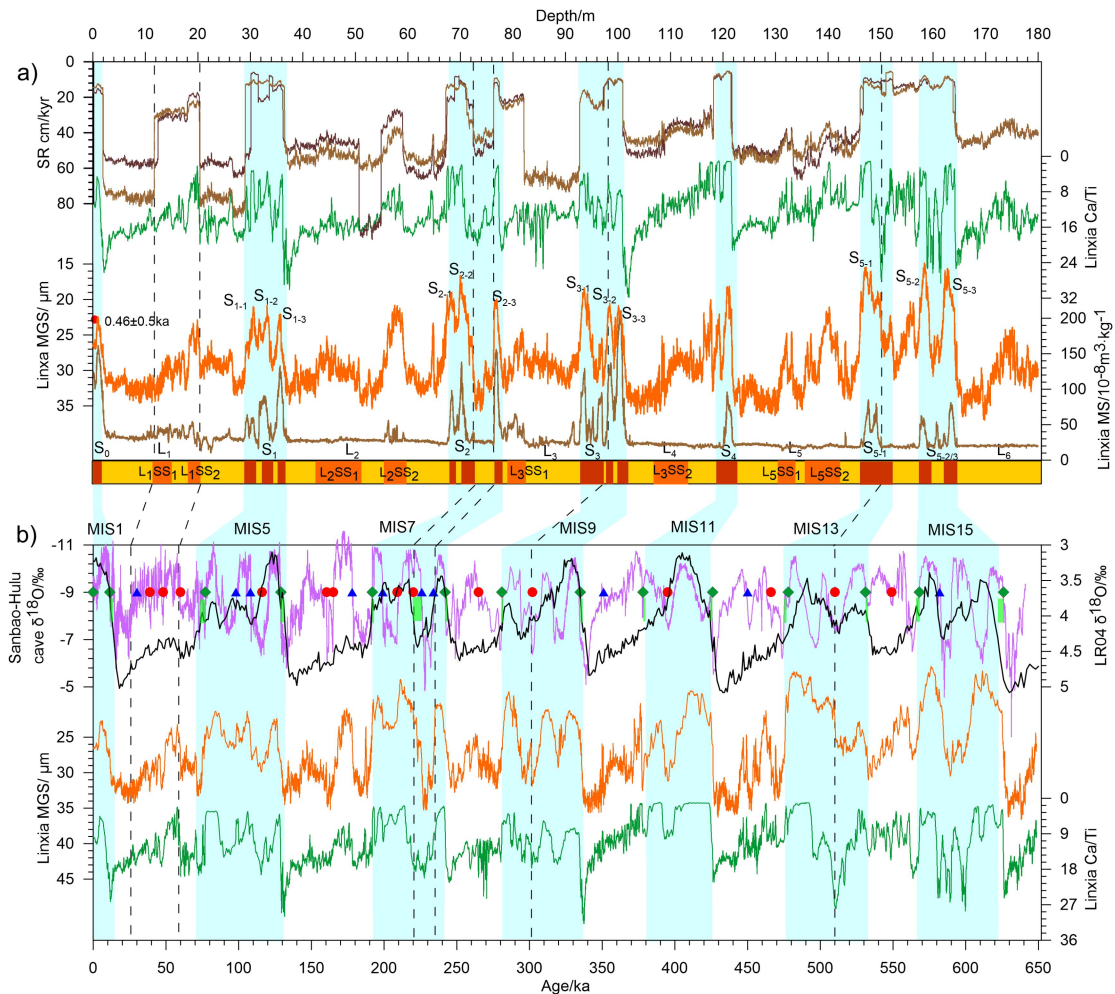
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Plateau. The base map is drawn using GMT software, and the elevation data is from

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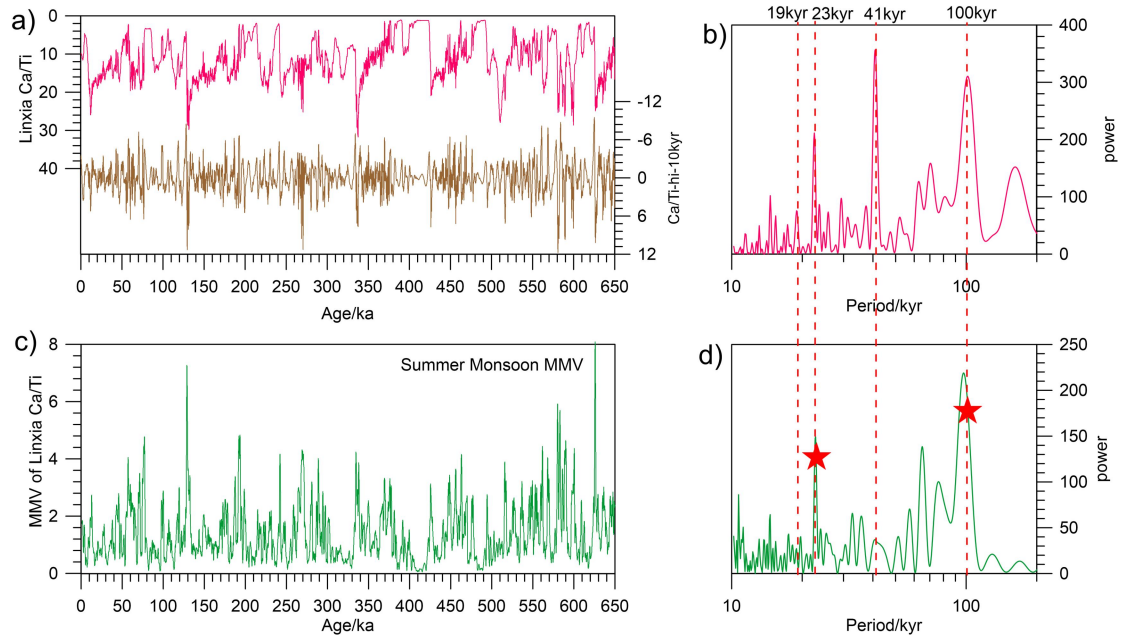
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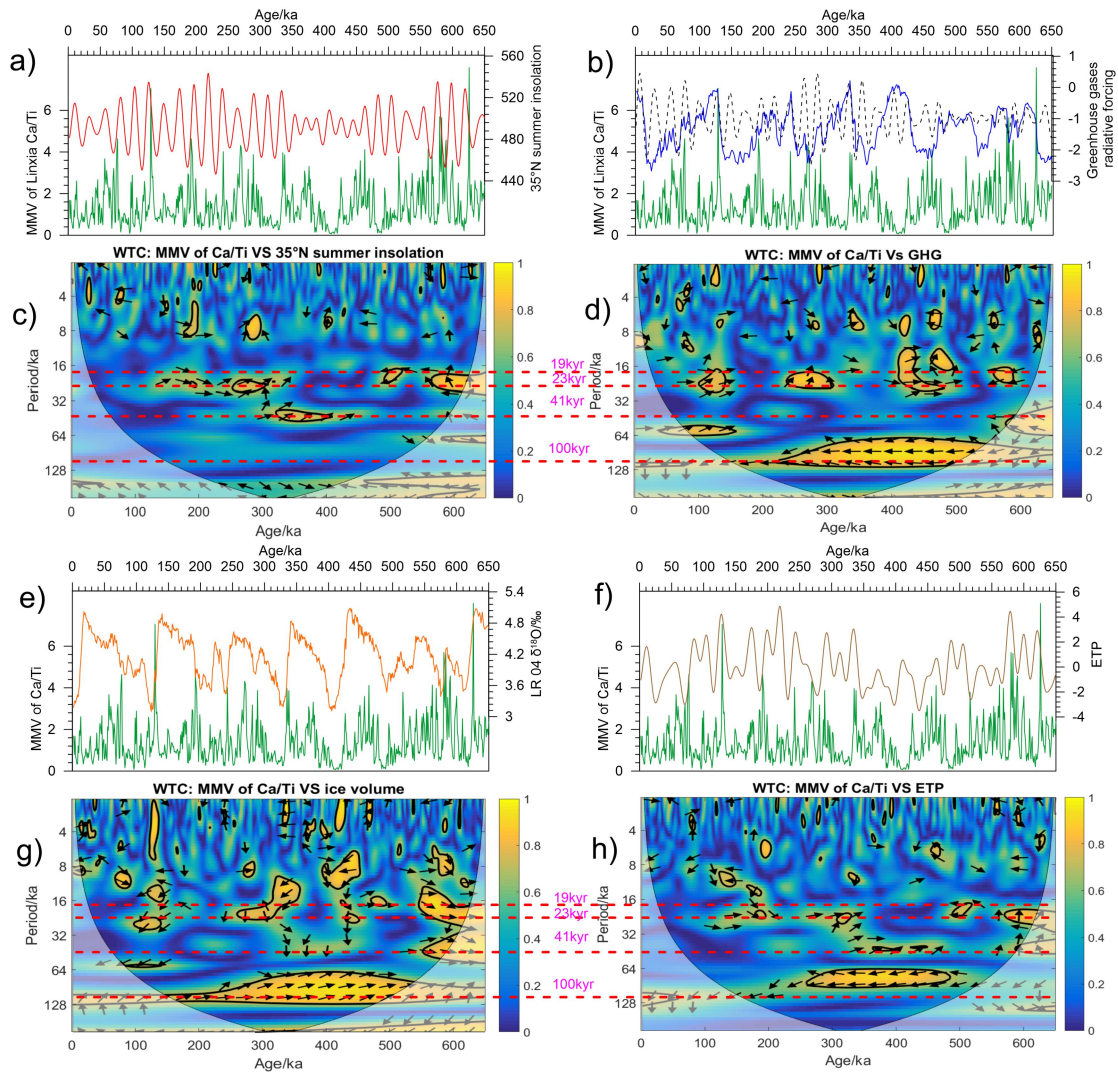
482 **Figure 2** a) Strata and down-core variations of mean grain size (MGS), magnetic susceptibility
 483 (MS), Ca/Ti and sedimentation rate against depth (brown in benthic δ¹⁸O age model and dark
 484 brown in speleothem δ¹⁸O age model). Brown red, orange and yellow rectangles represent
 485 palaeosol layers and weakly pedogenic palaeosols, respectively. The timing of dash lines and
 486 glacial-interglacial transitions are control points of benthic δ¹⁸O chronology; b) Variations of MGS,
 487 Ca/Ti over last 650 ka and age model of Linxia loess section. Comparison of MGS and Ca/Ti in
 488 Linxia section with Sanbao-Hulu (Cheng et al., 2009, 2016) and benthic δ¹⁸O stack (Lisiecki and
 489 Raymo, 2005). The dark brown squares, blue triangles and red dots represent the first
 490 (glacial-interglacial transition), second (precession cycles) and third (millennial-scale events) class
 491 age control points at the corresponding position of cave record, respectively (Sun et al., 2021a).
 492 Light blue bands denote the interglacial times. The short green rectangles represent the age
 493 differences between the two age models.

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496 **Figure. 3** Raw datasets, millennial-scale components (10-kyr high pass filtering signals) and
 497 MMV of the Linxia loess Ca/Ti record over the past 650 ka with their corresponding spectra. The
 498 orbital bands are marked with red dashed lines (eccentricity: 100-kyr, obliquity: 41-kyr, precession:
 499 23-kyr and 19-kyr). Clear eccentricity, obliquity and precession variance as well as persistent
 500 millennial-scale components are observed for loess Ca/Ti and MMV.



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