



Response of terrigenous weathering to the African monsoon during the penultimate deglaciation and the last interglacial period

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Abstract. Climates of the last interglacial period (i.e., marine isotope stage 5e; MIS 5e) were associated with hydrographic, ecological, and human expansions across northern Africa. Model simulations and geological proxy data for northern subtropical latitudes resolve a dry penultimate deglaciation (Heinrich stadial 11; HS11) followed by an abrupt increase of African rainfall that predates the orbital insolation maximum of early MIS 5e. These climate changes have been attributed to the equatorward displacement and rebound of the tropical rainbelt in response to glacial reorganizations of Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC). In this paper, we examine MIS 5e and HS11 paleoenvironments by using X-ray fluorescence measurements to construct a Rb/Sr proxy record of terrigenous delivery to marine core site VM 30-40 (0° 12' S, 20° 09' W, 3,706 m depth) of the Atlantic Ocean. The geochemical timeseries was inferred to represent continental weathering influenced by the African monsoon evolving over the last ~260 kyr of the Quaternary. Peak Rb/Sr values were observed at the most recent and penultimate glacial maxima, attributed to different modes of continental weathering or perhaps dissolution of Sr-bearing phases by corrosive deep waters. Spectral coherency results and filtering of the Rb/Sr timeseries demonstrate an absence of obliquity yet a predominance of a precession signal that shares the best phase relationships with March-April-May insolation at the equator. This vernal signal is interpreted to indicate that the terrigenous fraction of the core had low-latitude source areas, where the monsoonal cycle is most sensitive to insolation changes about the equinoxes. These data also show a wet climate during HS11 that progresses towards peak conditions at ~127 ka, nearly coinciding with the insolation maximum of early MIS 5e. We interpret that latitude plays an important role in determining the outcomes of AMOC forcing, with the low-latitude terrigenous sources differing from the northern subtropics because the former was into the (equatorward) direction of rainbelt displacement. Lastly, these results suggest a very limited role for obliquity-controlled paleoenvironmental changes within Middle Stone Age habitats and may support previous interpretations that social networks were enhanced between the west and north African regions during times of increased rainfall forced by precession-modulated insolation.

1. Introduction

Terrigenous material transported through Earth's atmosphere influences global biogeochemical cycles, climate conditions, and public health (Prospero et al., 2002). The largest source of this material is the dust



38 particles that emanate from drylands of North Africa and carried aloft by monsoonal winds and related
39 aeolian systems (**Fig. 1**). A major constituent of dust is weathering products of sediments and soils (Maher
40 et al., 2010). This is readily inferred from the colors of West African dust plumes that carry hematite and
41 goethite derived from the regolith (Formenti et al., 2014; Moskowitz et al., 2016; Oldfield et al., 2014).
42 Studying the conditions under which this dust is produced and transported helps to understand the potential
43 response of African landscapes to vegetation changes and erosion caused by future climates (de Menocal,
44 2015; McGee et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2020). To study these relationships, geological research has focused
45 on the last interglacial period represented by MIS 5e that lasted from about 129-116 ka (Govin et al., 2015).
46 This interval is characterized by low global ice volume and high sea level, thus providing many proxy
47 records for studying the Earth system under a global warming scenario (Kukla et al., 2002). During MIS 5e,
48 regions of northern Africa were transformed into verdant landscapes associated with enhanced boreal
49 summer insolation (Blanchet et al., 2021; Dupont, 2011; Hooghiemstra et al., 2006). However, there is still
50 much debate about what controls African climate change and the timing/rate of the response to the forcing
51 (Bosmans et al., 2015; Menviel et al., 2021; Shanahan et al., 2015).

52 Marine core records collected off of the West African continental margin provide information for
53 interpreting the paleoclimate context of prehistoric humans. Some hypotheses use these records to suggest
54 that high-latitude glacial cycles driven by obliquity caused cooling and drying effects that impacted major
55 juncture of human origins in Africa (deMenocal, 2004). Contrastingly, low-latitude changes in coupled
56 ocean-atmosphere systems may have been stronger drivers of environmental change within human habitats
57 (Berner et al., 2022; Kaboth-Bahr et al., 2021; Lepre and Quinn, 2022; Trauth et al., 2021; van der Lubbe et
58 al., 2021). Recent West African archaeological work has produced a time-constrained sequence of the
59 Middle Stone Age (MSA) through the last two glacial-interglacial cycles, yet the connections between
60 lithic culture variability and paleoclimate are not well understood (Allsworth-Jones, 2021; Chevrier et al.,
61 2018; Douze et al., 2021; Lespez et al., 2008). Study of West African marine core records during the last
62 interglacial period (Castaneda et al., 2009) suggests that increased rainfall and vegetation may have
63 facilitated the interconnectivity of north African social groups (Drake et al., 2011). Such favorable
64 conditions predictably recurred through the late Quaternary as a consequence of insolation forcing of
65 monsoonal intensities (Grant et al., 2022). However, marine core dust records have been questioned as a



66 viable dataset for investigating links between climate and human prehistory of West Africa (Skonieczny et
 67 al., 2019). Marine dissolution events during glacial epochs, independent of African climate, have been
 68 recognized throughout the Atlantic Ocean (Verardo and McIntyre, 1994). These events may have imparted
 69 the marine core sediments with spurious evidence of obliquity-driven changes to the monsoon (Skonieczny
 70 et al., 2019).

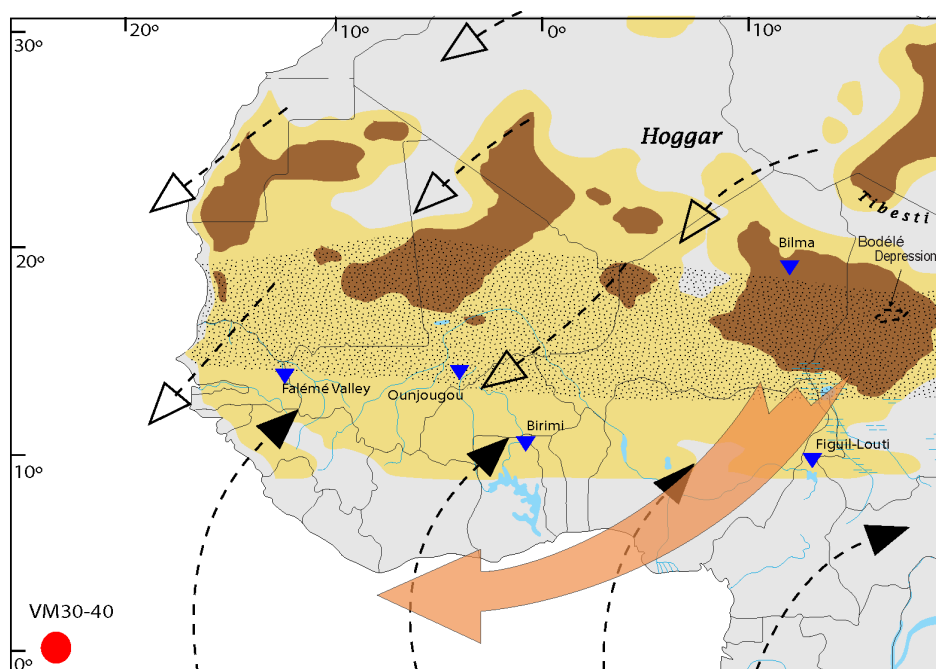


Figure 1: Map of northwestern Africa showing the location of the studied VM 30-40 marine core and archaeological, meteorological, and physiographic features discussed in the text. Archaeological localities shown as blue inverted triangles (Chevrier et al., 2018). Open arrows indicate trade winds, closed arrows are monsoonal, and large arrow is Harmattan (Trauth et al., 2009). Dust sources indicated in brown and yellow (Muhs et al., 2014; Prospero et al., 2002). Approximate position of the Sahel denoted by stippled area (Nicholson, 2018).

72 To address these issues, we examined the most recent ~260 kyr of the Quaternary that is recorded by
 73 eastern equatorial Atlantic marine core VM 30-40 (see Fig. 1 for location). We selected this core in
 74 particularly because it has a well-resolved marine isotope stage (MIS) record and oxygen-isotope age
 75 calibration (McIntyre et al., 1989) and provides a record of precession climate forcing of freshwater
 76 lacustrine diatom deposition (Pokras and Mix, 1987). However, there has been little study of other type
 77 terrigenous materials in the core (Balsam et al., 1995; Rowland et al., 2021). We developed a new X-ray
 78 fluorescence (XRF) record for VM 30-40 to sample a variety of sediment and soil environments different



79 from the lacustrine diatom facies. Rb/Sr measurements on the core (**Fig. 2**) were used to provide a proxy
 80 record of continental weathering (Hemming, 2007). Comparisons with other marine core sediments from
 81 the West Africa margin and model simulations (Govin et al., 2014; Menviel et al., 2021) are made to infer
 82 different controls of terrigenous production and transport over the late Quaternary. Finally, we use the
 83 collected data to suggest a paleoclimate context for MSA West African archaeological sites.

84

85 **2. Materials and methods**

86 **2.1. Stratigraphy and setting of VEMA core 30-40**

87 In this paper, we focus on and provide new data for VEMA core 30-40 (VM 30-40, IGSN number
 88 DSR000ZD0). This core was initially split and described in the 1970s and has been housed at the Lamont-
 89 Doherty Core Repository. It was obtained from eastern equatorial Atlantic waters (0° 12' S, 20° 09' W) at a
 90 depth of 3706 m (**Fig. 1**). Prior stratigraphic analysis of VM 30-40 (**Fig. 2**) indicates that the recovered
 91 sediment record is 755 cm long, representing the last ~256.7 kyr to MIS 7, with a mean sediment
 92 accumulation rate of 1 cm per 340 years (Imbrie et al., 1984; McIntyre et al., 1989).

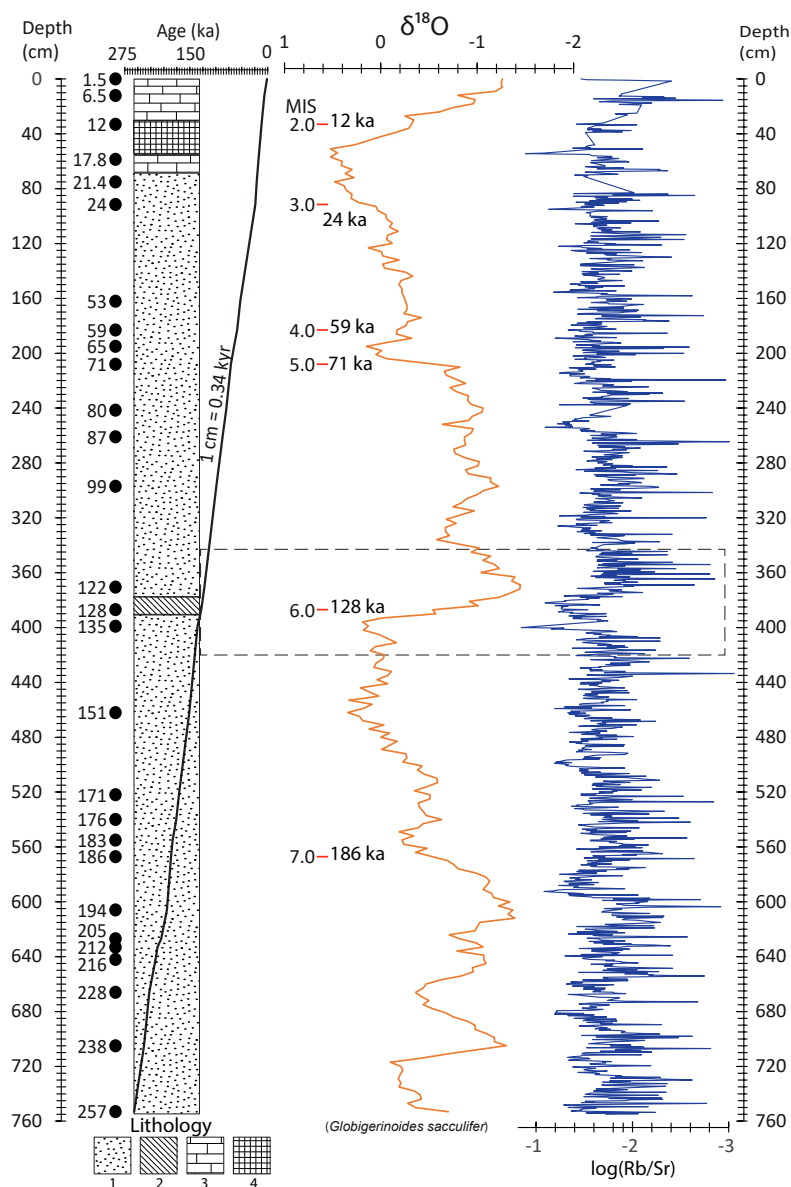
93 VM 30-40 has the typical sediments of the marine cores of the eastern tropical Atlantic that are
 94 dominated by biogenic CaCO₃ and a subordinate amount of terrigenous detritus (Bozzano et al., 2002;
 95 Bradtmiller et al., 2007; Moreno et al., 2001; Rowland et al., 2021; Skonieczny et al., 2019; Tiedemann et
 96 al., 1994). Core records also contain minor fractions of biogenic opal, phytoliths, and may preserve pollen
 97 (deMenocal et al., 1993; Hooghiemstra et al., 2006; Leroy and Dupont, 1994; Lézine and Casanova, 1991).
 98 Previously, VM 30-40 has been used for paleoceanographic and paleoclimate research, studied for diatoms,
 99 phytoliths, CaCO₃, color/iron-oxide content, isotopes, and thorium-normalized dust concentrations (Balsam
 100 et al., 1995; Bradtmiller et al., 2007; Imbrie et al., 1984; McIntyre et al., 1989; Pokras, 1987; Rowland et
 101 al., 2021).

102 VM 30-40 was retrieved at about 1400 km SW from the coast of West Africa and the site lies at the
 103 southern part of the winter dust plume (Pokras and Mix, 1985). Input from the seasonal plumes to the
 104 marine core sites affords high-resolution paleoclimate records of continental conditions (Adkins et al.,



105 2006; McGee et al., 2013; Mulitza et al., 2010; Palchan and Torfstein, 2019; Trauth et al., 2009).

Figure 2: Stratigraphic information for VM 30-40 marine core. Black dots indicate MIS positions and dates listed in Table 1. Lithological symbols: (1) interbedded layers of foraminiferal ooze and foraminiferal marl ooze, (2) foraminiferal marl, (3) foraminiferal ooze, and (4) foraminiferal marl ooze. Lithostratigraphic description from <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/curator/data/vema/vm30/040/>. Oxygen isotope data retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.56361>. Dashed box denotes the interval pictured in Fig. 3.



106



107 Winter dust plumes are carried by the trade winds as they move through the Sahara-Sahel region
 108 (Schwanghart and Schütt, 2008). The position of the trade winds follows the migration of the Intertropical
 109 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in response to the seasonal location of maximum insolation across the African
 110 landmass. Through the summer-winter transition in the Northern Hemisphere, the ITCZ migrates towards
 111 the equator and the trade winds follow south to generate the winter dust plume at 10-20° N (Prospero et al.,
 112 2014).

113

114 There are several potential source areas that may contribute to the dust plumes (Heinrich et al., 2021;
 115 Jewell et al., 2021; Moreno et al., 2006; Oldfield et al., 2014; Scheuven et al., 2013; Stuut, 2005). One of
 116 the more important sources is thought to be the Bodélé Depression (Washington et al., 2006), effectively
 117 the footprint of the now-exposed lake beds for mega-Lake Chad (Armitage et al., 2015). Lacustrine
 118 deposits of the Bodélé Depression are suggested to be high-yielding sources not only for the plumes but
 119 also for the Earth's global dust budget (Maher et al., 2010; Moskowitz et al., 2016; Prospero et al., 2014,
 120 2002; Washington et al., 2006). Lacustrine freshwater diatoms are present within VM 30-40 but a specific
 121 geographic provenance on the continent is uncertain (Pokras, 1987; Pokras and Mix, 1987, 1985).

122

123 2.2. XRF measurements

124 Before the scanning of core VM 30-40, the surfaces of its sections were scraped clean as standard
 125 protocol. The core sections were scanned lengthwise along the center of the core surface using an Itrax
 126 Core Scanner (Cox Analytical Systems, Mölndal, Sweden) at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory.
 127 Analyses were performed using settings of 30 kV and 30 mA with a Mo tube, a step size of 5mm and an
 128 exposure time of 5 seconds. The XRF data were collected in total counts (Croudace and Rothwell, 2010)
 129 and we transformed the Rb and Sr data by calculating the log-ratios of the element intensities. Log-ratios
 130 have been shown to be simple linear functions of log-ratios of concentrations that minimize biases
 131 introduced by analytical conditions of XRF measurements (Hodell et al., 2015; Weltje and Tjallingii,
 132 2008). We use the ratio between Rb and Sr to interpret weathering, and infer terrigenous deposition and
 133 paleoclimate change (Hemming, 2007). Rb/Sr ratios in West African marine core sequences have been
 134 used as proxy indicators of continental weathering rates and late Quaternary paleoclimate (Cole et al., 2009).



135 Sr-bearing phases tend to break down early on and Rb is retained in K-rich mineral phases (White et al.,
 136 2001). Within monsoon soils, the variations in the Rb/Sr ratio may be controlled by the relative durability
 137 of the K-bearing materials and the amount of strontium loss during weathering (Chen et al., 1999).

138

139 Table 1: VM 30-40 core chronology*

MIS substage [‡]	Age (ka)	Depth (cm)
nr	1.5	0
1.1	6.5	12
2.0	12	33
2.22	17.8	58.5
2.24	21.4	75
3.0	24	91.5
3.3	53	162
4.0	59	183
4.2	65	195
5.0	71	208
5.1	80	241.5
5.2	87	261
5.3	99	297
5.5	122	370.5
6.0	128	387
6.2	135	399
6.4	151	462
6.5	171	522
nr	176	540
6.6	183	555
7.0	186	567
7.1	194	606
7.2	205	627
nr	212	633
7.3	216	642
7.4	228	666
7.5	238	705
nr	257	753

140

141 * based on the SPECMAP oxygen isotope age model (McIntyre et al., 1989)

142 [‡]nr = not reported

143

144 2.3. Interpreting paleoclimate data from the XRF measurements

145 We constrain the terrigenous fraction that accumulated during HS11 and the early part of MIS 5e with
 146 the established $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record of the core between 370 and 400 cm (Fig. 2). Depth positions of MIS datums



147 6.2 (135 ka), 6.0 (128 ka), and 5.5 (122 ka) were used to construct a linear regression age model and scale
 148 the log(Rb/Sr) depth series to time. The log(Rb/Sr) timeseries for the HS11 to early MIS 5e interval was
 149 then compared directly to the astronomical solution of insolation at 23° N for boreal summer (**Fig. 3**). Other
 150 intervals of the log(Rb/Sr) timeseries were calibrated using the mean sedimentation rate of 1 cm per 340
 151 years (**Fig. 2**). The core's $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is from the planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides sacculifer*
 152 (Imbrie et al., 1984) and the data reported in Table B1 of McIntyre et al. (McIntyre et al., 1989) provides 28
 153 core depths matched to 28 dates based on the SPECMAP oxygen isotope stratigraphy and marine isotope
 154 stages (**Fig. 2** and **Table 1**).

155 Pokras and Mix (Pokras and Mix, 1987) resolved a record of climatic precession and its harmonics
 156 from the spectral analysis of the freshwater lacustrine diatoms preserved in VM 30-40. Eolian-transported
 157 diatoms in marine sediment cores of West Africa derive from the deflation of diatomaceous deposits in dry
 158 North African lake beds (deMenocal et al., 1993). Thus, the diatom increases within marine core sequences
 159 are traditionally thought of as indirect indicators of lake levels and aridity. Pokras and Mix (Pokras and
 160 Mix, 1987, 1985) interpreted that major peaks in the VM 30-40 diatom record correlated to the early
 161 phases of insolation minima for boreal summer (**Appendix Fig. A1**); however, these authors also noted that
 162 diatom maxima were approximately in phase with spring insolation minima (**Appendix Fig. A1**).

163 To assess if other components of the terrigenous fraction carry orbital forcing, the log(Rb/Sr) depth
 164 (cm) series was scaled to time by using the core's overall sedimentation rate of 1 cm = 0.34 kyr and then
 165 resampled to every 0.17 kyr, which was the median/mean sample interval (0.5 cm) of XRF measurements.
 166 We then treated the log(Rb/Sr) timeseries to coherency analysis with the *AnalySeries* software (Paillard et
 167 al., 1996). Spectral coherency comparisons were made with eccentricity-tilt-precession (ETP) (Laskar et
 168 al., 2004) and the astronomical solution of ETP was generated with *Acycle* software (Li et al., 2019). The
 169 Blackman–Tukey cross spectrum method was used with a Bartlett window and zero-coherency set to 0.5
 170 (80%) level of significance.

171

172 3. Results and interpretations

173 3.1. Variations in Rb/Sr ratios



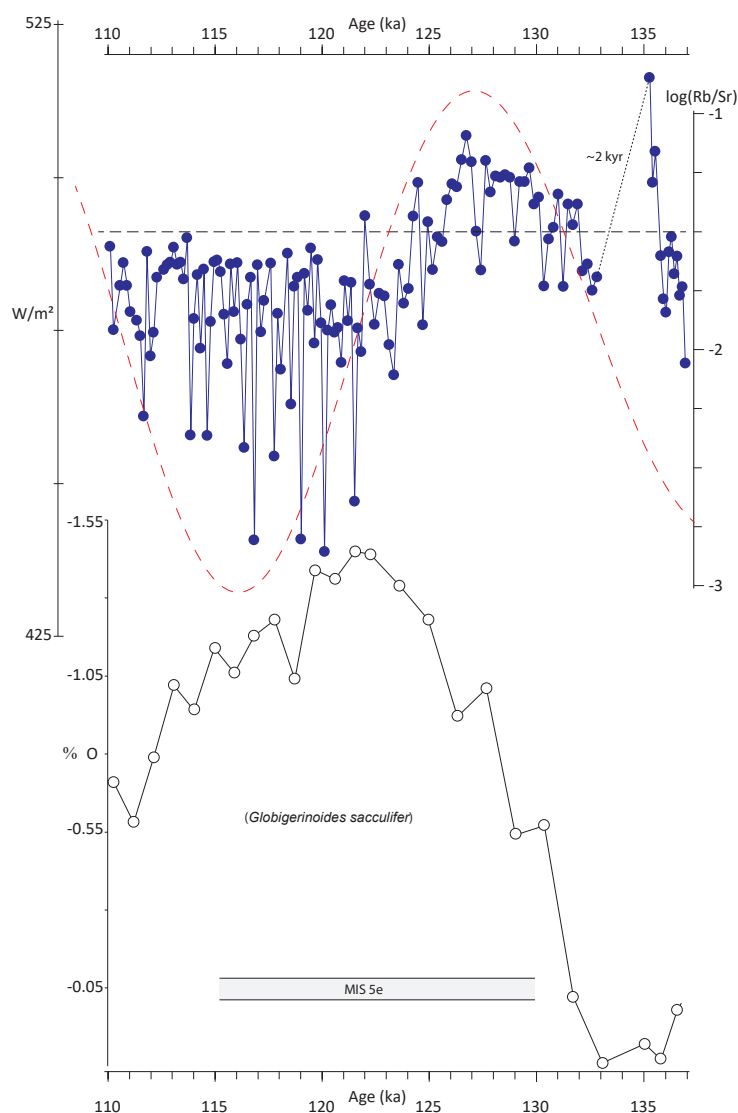
174 The log(Rb/Sr) ratios reveal no long-term directional trends over the last ~257 kyr; however, recurring
175 through the timeseries are evident cycles with durations of 1000s and 10,000s years (**Fig. 2**). The two
176 largest values of the log(Rb/Sr) timeseries are observed at about 135 ka and 18 ka. These approximately
177 correlate with glacial maxima of MIS 6 and 2, respectively (**Fig. 2**). Most studies suggest that potential
178 West African dust sources were arid during MIS 6 and 2 (Gasse, 2000; Kim et al., 2008; Menviel et al.,
179 2021). Therefore, the chronostratigraphy suggests that the largest values of log(Rb/Sr) correlate with two
180 substantially dry phases of the North African monsoon over the last ~150 kyr. Cole et al. (Cole et al., 2009)
181 also studied Rb/Sr ratios in marine core sediments of West Africa and found larger Rb/Sr ratios at the
182 glacial maximum of MIS 2 as compared to the early-middle Holocene African Humid Period (AHP). These
183 authors and others (Cole et al., 2009; Jung et al., 2004) explained the differences by inferring that the Rb/Sr
184 ratios during glacial aridity is controlled by less water available for hydrolysis and a predominance of
185 physical over chemical weathering. During MIS 2 aridity, alkaline mineral deposits were generated when
186 North African soils and lakes desiccated (Gasse, 2000). Under such dryness, the precipitation of caliches
187 and evaporites causes Ca- and Na-rich minerals to become sequestered into deflation-resistant horizons
188 (Mabbutt, 1977). This may decrease the amount of Sr-bearing minerals available for aeolian mobilization
189 and transport, increasing the Rb/Sr ratios of the dust plumes. Alternatively, high Rb/Sr ratios at glacial
190 epochs may indicate that in-situ dissolution has affected the terrigenous carbonate fraction of the marine
191 sediments. During glacial epochs, deep ocean circulation changes bring corrosive Antarctic Bottom Water
192 to near West African margin (Bozzano et al., 2002; Skonieczny et al., 2019). This may have removed some
193 of the Sr carried by the terrigenous Ca-bearing fraction.

194 Rb/Sr ratios may increase with increasing continental weathering (Hemming, 2007). An increase in
195 continental weathering is typically associated with the available moisture and thus wetter climates (Kelly et
196 al., 1998). Under wet monsoon conditions, soils may become enriched in Rb through weathering processes
197 that remove “softer” minerals that bear Sr (Chen et al., 1999). In African environments, the distribution of
198 Rb and Sr is link to a number of interrelated factors of mineral substrate, geological setting, and
199 hydroclimate (Cole et al., 2009; Janzen et al., 2020; Jewell et al., 2021; Jung et al., 2004; Moreno et al.,
200 2006). Sr commonly infiltrates into many types of geologic and biotic systems because it easily substitutes
201 for Ca or Na due to their similar ionic radii (Blum and Erel, 1997; Koch et al., 1992). Mineral phases that



202 carry Sr are soluble carbonates/sulfates or unstable plagioclase. In comparison, K-rich micas and feldspars
 203 are less reactive and tend to be retained within soils and saprolites during weathering (Blum et al., 1994;
 204 White et al., 2001). Rb substitutes for K and is thus associated with the more stable mineral phases (Blum
 205 and Erel, 1997).

Figure 3: Paleoenvironmental information for the penultimate deglaciation and interglacial. The resolved $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ variations for marine core VM 30-40 (this study) plotted with June solstice insolation at 23°N indicated by red dashed line. Note ~ 2 kyr interval of no data. Stable oxygen isotope data for VM 30-40 from <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.56361>. Horizontal dashed line across the $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ graph is placed to guide the eye towards values greater than -1.5 . Position of the MIS 5e interval after Govin et al. (Govin et al., 2015).



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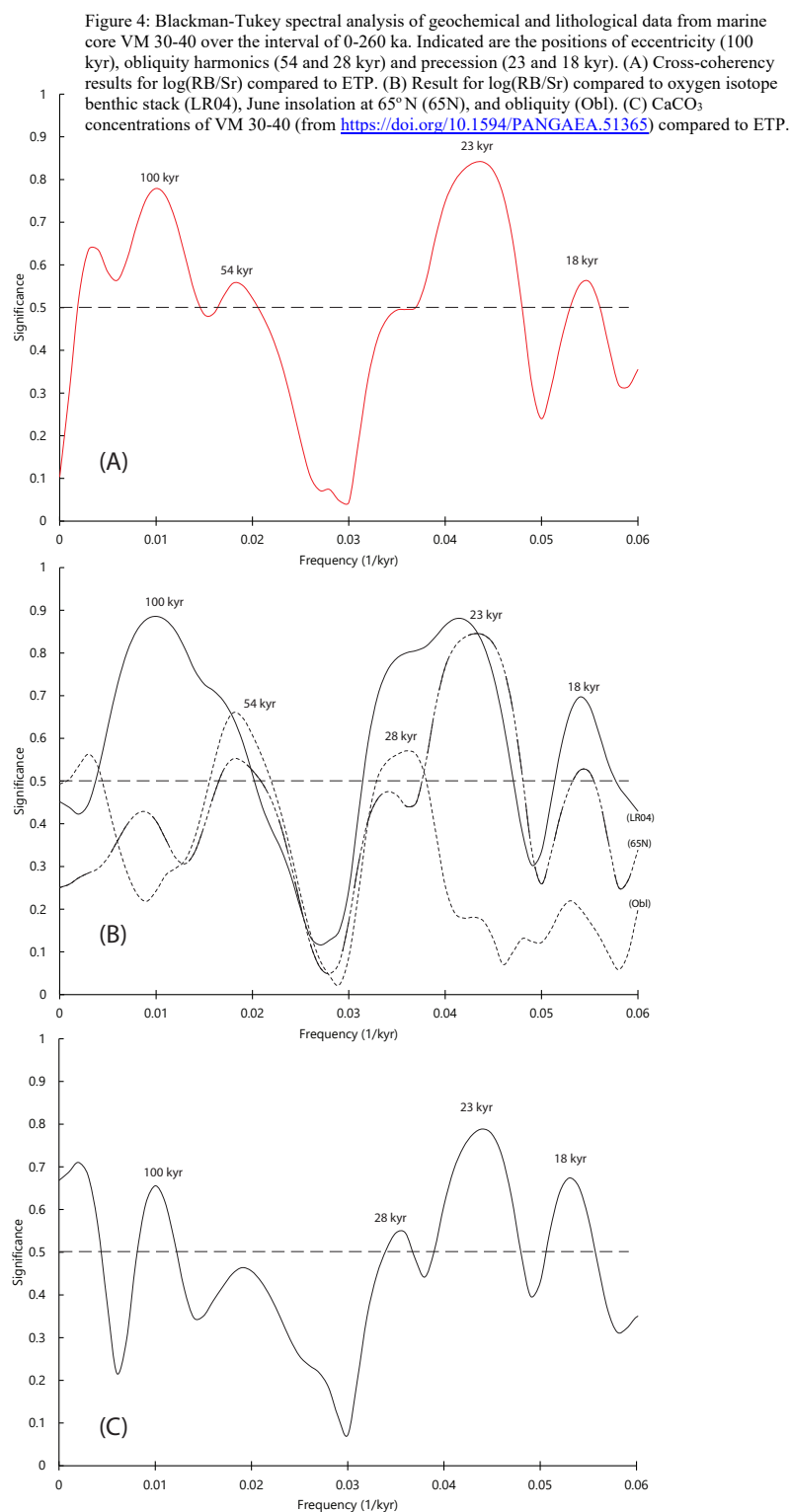


3.2. The last deglaciation and interglacial period

During MIS 5e, $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ variations are close to being in phase with summer insolation variations at 23° N (**Fig. 3**). Following the penultimate glacial maximum at $\sim 135 \text{ ka}$, the VM 30-40 core demonstrates increasing $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ values during HS11. The small yet initial increase occurs over a $\sim 1000 \text{ yr}$ interval from about $133\text{-}132 \text{ ka}$ (**Fig. 3**) and the $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ values suggest that peak interglacial conditions were attained by $\sim 127 \text{ ka}$, nearly coincident with the timing of the summer insolation maximum at 23° N . After $\sim 127 \text{ ka}$ the terrigenous record indicates a trend of decreasing values that follow declining insolation (**Fig. 3**). This decreasing trend is interrupted by two brief returns to humidity/warmth, one constrained to $125\text{-}124 \text{ ka}$ and the second at 122 ka . Drier climates are indicated by comparatively smaller $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ values between $122\text{-}110 \text{ ka}$ coincident with low insolation.

3.3. Spectral analysis of orbital climate forcing

Blackman-Tukey coherency results for the $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ timeseries compared against ETP (**Fig. 4A**) show significant frequencies approximating climatic precession ($\sim 20 \text{ kyr}$). These data also indicate the presence of eccentricity ($\sim 100 \text{ kyr}$); however, the chronostratigraphy of VM 30-40 ($\sim 0\text{-}257 \text{ ka}$) may be too brief for attaching significance to low-frequency cycles. The coherency spectra (**Fig. 4A**) also has significance at $\sim 54 \text{ kyr}$, which is an obliquity harmonic (Zeeden et al., 2019). Another obliquity harmonic might be represented by a small peak at $\sim 28 \text{ kyr}$ but it does not achieve the 0.5 (80%) statistical significance. To explore these possible obliquity indications, we conducted spectral coherency analysis of the $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ timeseries in comparison to the astronomical solution of obliquity (Laskar et al., 2004), the LR04 stack (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005), and high-latitude (65° N) summer insolation (Laskar et al., 2004). The $\sim 28 \text{ kyr}$ period is significant only with obliquity, and the $\sim 54 \text{ kyr}$ period has evident significance with the comparisons of obliquity and high-latitude insolation (**Fig. 4B**). These results suggest an absence of the main period of obliquity ($\sim 41 \text{ kyr}$) within the $\log(\text{Rb/Sr})$ timeseries.





232 Spectral analysis of the log(Rb/Sr) time series with EPT indicates significant cross-coherency
 233 frequencies of ~ 0.044 ($k = 0.84$) and 0.055 ($k = 0.56$) that we correlate with climatic precession cycles of
 234 23 and 18 kyr, respectively (**Fig. 4A**). Precession is an important orbital control on insolation budgets of
 235 the tropics (Clement et al., 2004). It determines the timing and position of the seasons within the elliptical
 236 path of Earth's orbit (Berger and Loutre, 1997). Most rainfall over the northern West African tropics is
 237 derived from summer monsoonal winds that advect Atlantic Ocean moisture to the continent (Nicholson,
 238 2018). When precession places the summer solstice at perihelion, a smaller Earth-Sun distance is coupled
 239 to summer insolation (Short and Mengel, 1986), resulting in an associated increase of sensible heating of
 240 the African landmass that drives the deep tropical convergence of the monsoon (Kutzbach and Liu, 1997).
 241 This is thought to result in wetter summer monsoon seasons for North Africa every ~ 20 kyr (Grant et al.,
 242 2022; Rossignol-Strick, 1985).

243

244 4. Discussion

245 4.1. Orbital climate forcing of the terrigenous record

246 The presence of an obliquity signal within northern African paleoclimate records of the Quaternary is
 247 well documented by studies of marine core sediments near the West African margin (Bloemendal et al.,
 248 1988; Bloemendal and deMenocal, 1989). Similarly, eastern Mediterranean sapropel-bearing sequences
 249 indicate that North African paleoclimate has had an obliquity component that persists back to before the
 250 Plio-Pleistocene intensification of Northern Hemisphere glaciation (Lourens et al., 1996). Some research
 251 has suggested that the obliquity signal in these records may derive from low latitude insolation budgets
 252 rather than glacial forcing (de Boer et al., 2020; Tuenter et al., 2003). Model simulations suggest that
 253 obliquity signals in low-latitude paleoclimate records of Africa may be generated by the cross-equatorial
 254 insolation gradient (Bosmans et al., 2015) which also has an effect on the intensity of the winter Hadley
 255 cells (Mantsis et al., 2014). These winds are notable for VM 30-40 because the winter plumes carried by
 256 the northeast trade winds are thought to contribute dust to this marine site (Pokras and Mix, 1985).

257 Obliquity signals within the dust records of marine cores from the West African margin have recently
 258 been described as spurious evidence of a high-latitude glacial forcing of the North African monsoon
 259 (Skonieczny et al., 2019). African dust studies from marine core records (Adkins et al., 2006; Tisserand et



al., 2009) measure the concentrations of terrigenous material relative to carbonate (CaCO_3). In-situ carbonate dissolution may impart the marine sediment with a glacial-interglacial signal (Bozzano et al., 2002). VM 30-40 isotopic data demonstrate $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ben}}$ enrichment and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{ben}}$ depleted waters for the LGM (Oppo and Fairbanks, 1987; Sarnthein et al., 1994). This may suggest that eastern tropical Atlantic near VM 30-40 was intruded by corrosive deep water at MIS 2 (Skonieczny et al., 2019). However, the results of spectral analyses suggest that few if any of the variations recorded by the $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ timeseries are attributable to glacial-obliquity forcing (**Fig. 4A and B**). Furthermore, we conducted spectral coherency analysis of the CaCO_3 [%] from VM 30-40 using EPT. The results indicate a precession signal at 23 kyr and 18 kyr frequencies, yet the main period of obliquity (~ 41 kyr) is absent (**Fig. 4C**).

Pokras and Mix's study of VM 30-40 (Pokras and Mix, 1987) interpreted that the lacustrine diatom peaks of the core and thus increased aridity were approximately in phase with spring insolation minima (**Appendix Fig. A1**). However, instead of correlating the two directly, the authors used a nonlinear diagrammatic model to explain how diatom peaks originated from rapid deflation of dust sources in response to the earliest part of summer insolation minima (**Appendix Fig. A1**). Our focused analysis of the MIS 5e interval (**Fig. 3**) suggests that the $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ values of VM 30-40 are being forcing at least in part by summer insolation, as the largest values rise to the insolation maximum at ~ 127 ka. To explore these patterns, the precession signal was filtered from the entire $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ timeseries and directly compared against summer (June, July, August) insolation at 23° N and spring (March, April, May) insolation at the equator. We selected these latitudes because of the strong climate effects received from variations in summer and spring insolation (Berger et al., 2006; Prell and Kutzbach, 1987). The $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ timeseries has a much better phase relationship with spring insolation (**Fig. 5A**) as compared to summer (**Fig. 5B**).

A spring insolation component to the $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ timeseries is unexpected given the greatest contrasts of the West African monsoon are at the solstices (Nicholson, 2018). The ITCZ over Africa migrates northward from winter to spring to summer and progressively displaces the northeast trade winds towards subtropical latitudes (Sultan and Janicot, 2003). In autumn, the ITCZ moves south and the trade winds settle over ~ 20 - 10° N to generate dust plumes that peak in the winter months (Prospero et al., 2002). The VM 30-40 core site of the eastern equatorial Atlantic is thought to receive terrigenous input mostly from the winter dust plumes (Pokras and Mix, 1985). However, it has been shown that significantly large



amounts of West African dust is transported across the Atlantic during the springtime (Barkley et al., 2019; Prospero et al., 1981). March and April deposition of dust in South America originates from fast-traveling West African plumes, on the order of days, that are initially carried aloft by the Sahara Air Layer (Prospero et al., 2020, 2014). Back trajectories suggest that the dust takes a transatlantic equatorial path emanating from low-latitude African sources (Swap et al., 1992) but also from a wider region in West Africa including the Sahel and the southern Sahara (Prospero et al., 2020).

Bozzano et al. (Bozzano et al., 2002) has suggested that efficient dust uplift and injection into the troposphere occurs just before the onset of rainy seasons. These authors argued that greater precession insolation exacerbates dust mobilization by increasing the storminess and turbulence at the monsoon-trade wind front. Possible vernal locations for this to occur is the onset of the April rainy season along the Guinean Coast (Janicot et al., 2011) and the beginning of the May rainy season over Sudano-Sahelian areas (Sultan and Janicot, 2003).

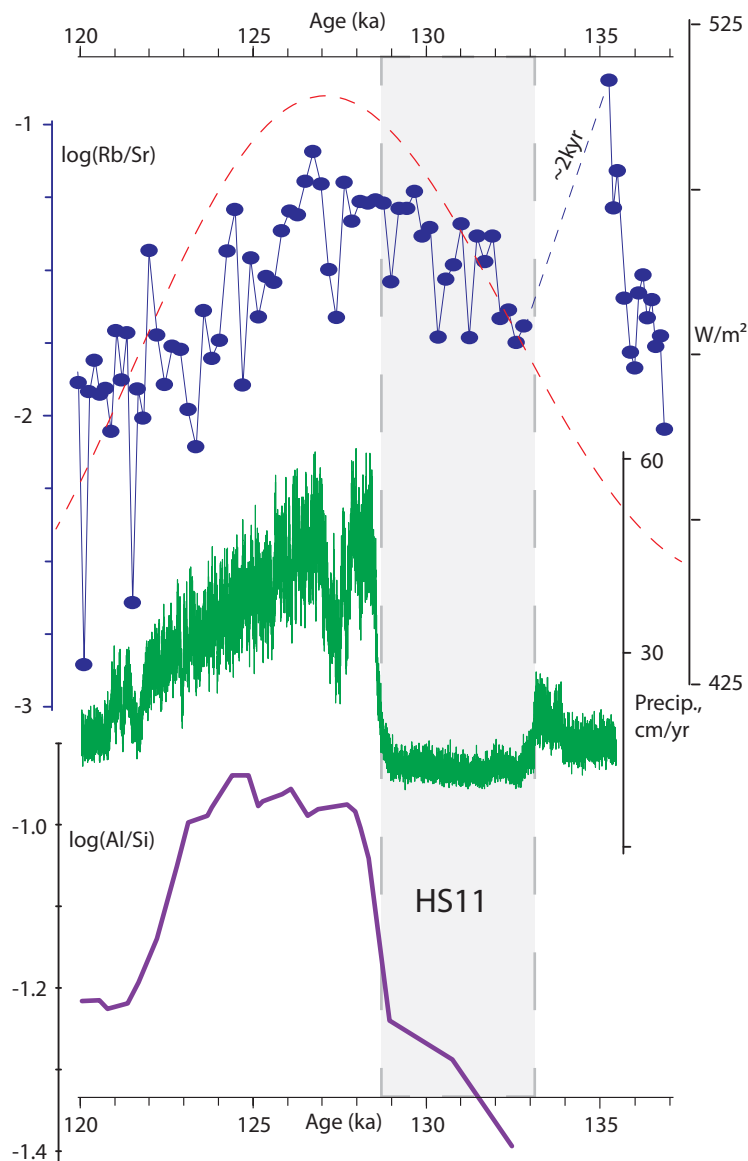
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301 **4.2. Paleoclimate during MIS 5e and HS11**

Insolation-driven monsoonal simulations coupled to an Al/Si proxy record of terrigenous runoff have provided a high-resolution reconstruction for northern African climate during the last interglacial (Fig. 6). These studies reported an abrupt increase in precipitation at 128.4 to 127 ka associated with an interval of wet conditions that lasted until ~124 ka (Menviel et al., 2021). After which, the climate experienced a gradual drying through the later part of MIS 5e. The log(Rb/Sr) values of VM 30–40 generally agree with the interpretation of a wetter climate at 128–124 ka, in addition to progressive drying from 127 to 120 ka (Fig. 6). Significantly different, however, the log(Rb/Sr) timeseries does not reveal the drought-like climate during Heinrich stadial 11 (HS11) (Govin et al., 2014). These very dry conditions terminate at the aforementioned abrupt increase of precipitation at the end of HS11, with maximum rainfall reached at ~128.4 ka during the early part of MIS 5e (Menviel et al., 2021). Because the abrupt rainfall increase predates the summer insolation maximum by almost 1400 years, it was attributed to Northern Hemisphere deglaciation effects on AMOC that causes ocean-atmosphere feedbacks over northern Africa (Menviel et al., 2021). The log(Rb/Sr) timeseries lacks both the dry conditions and abrupt increase, and instead suggests a progressive



315 increase in rainfall end of HS11 to early MIS 5e that appears to follow rising insolation to its maximum at
 316 ~127 ka (**Fig. 6**).



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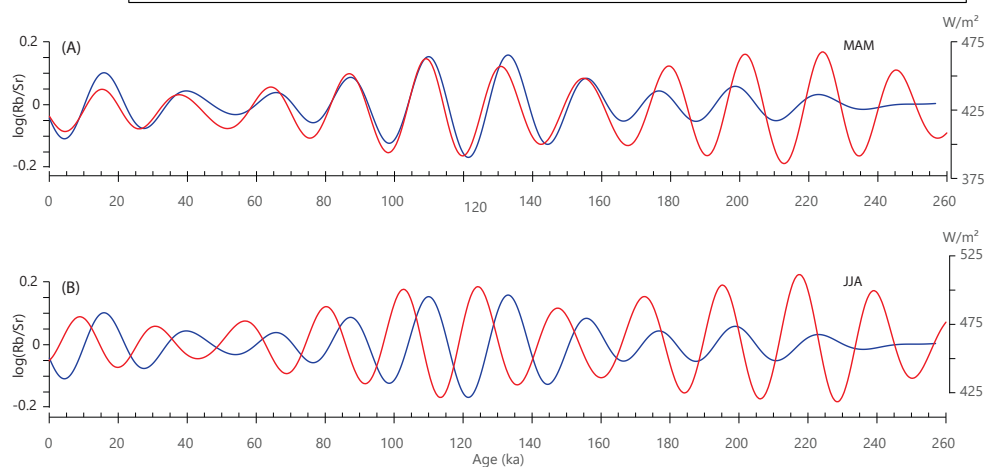
Figure 5: Paleoclimate conditions through the penultimate deglaciation and the previous interglacial. The $\log(\text{Rb}/\text{Sr})$ timeseries and summer insolation curve is the same as in Fig. 3 (this study). Model simulations for West Sahara precipitation, middle graph (green data), from Menviel et al. (Menviel et al., 2021). Marine core geologic data showing changes in the Al and Si ratio of subtropical West African core GeoB7925-1 (Govin et al., 2014). Gray shading and dashed box indicate the main phase of Heinrich stadial 11 (HS11).



318 To explain the drought-like conditions during HS11, it has been suggested that deglaciation may have
 319 changed AMOC strength leading to variations in the mean annual position of the ITCZ rainfall (Castaneda
 320 et al., 2009; Menviel et al., 2021; Mulitza et al., 2008). Weakened AMOC may result in a warmer south
 321 than north Atlantic Ocean (Chadwick et al., 2020), displacing the ITCZ and trade winds to the south
 322 (Schneider et al., 2014). Shifting the mean annual position of the ITCZ causes the dust-flux records of
 323 different marine core sites to vary according to latitude (Jacobel et al., 2016).

324 A southward shift of the ITCZ over northern Africa may have had a limited drought effect on low-
 325 latitude dust sources. Alternatively, northern African sites nearer to 20° N experienced drier conditions
 326 during HS11 (Govin et al., 2014) as a consequence of the ITCZ being located farther south during the
 327 summer (Menviel et al., 2021). A spring insolation component to the log(Rb/Sr) timeseries of VM 30-40
 328 (Fig. 5A) may suggest that some of the terrigenous source areas were in the low latitudes. The monsoon of
 329 low latitude Africa is most sensitive to insolation forcing during spring and autumn. This is due to the sun
 330 passing over the equator twice a year at each equinox (Berger and Loutre, 1997). Within the low-latitude
 331 intertropical zone, two rainy seasons occur in spring and autumn, and the solstices are dry (Verschuren et
 332 al., 2009).

Figure 6: Gaussian filter of the log(Rb/Sr) VM 30-40 timeseries (frequency = 0.043, bandwidth = 0.009) compared to astronomical insolation solutions. (A) Mean spring (March 21 – May 21; MAM) insolation at the equator. (B) Mean summer (June 21 – August 21; JJA) at 23° N.



333 334 4.3. Possible implications for the West African MSA

335 The late Pleistocene witnessed the emergence and dispersal of *Homo sapiens* populations across
 336 northern and eastern Africa (Hublin et al., 2017; McDougall et al., 2005; Vidal et al., 2022), as well as



337 genetic divergences at ~80-20 ka across sub-Saharan regions (Lipson et al., 2022). In West Africa, most
338 evidence of late Pleistocene *H. sapiens* is known from MSA sites from a few well-studied localities in
339 Senegal and Mali. Their assemblages include typical artifacts made by bifacial, retouched, and bipolar
340 percussive techniques (Allsworth-Jones, 2021). Artifact assemblages from earlier part of MIS 5 are some of
341 the oldest MSA from West Africa (Douze et al., 2021). The younger part of the sequence is constrained by
342 OSL to about 75-25 ka, yet several of the dates are considered to be only minimum possible ages (Chevrier
343 et al., 2018).

344 The dissimilarities in the MSA archaeology across western to northern Africa has led some to suggest
345 that a cultural frontier existed between the regions (Chevrier et al., 2018). However, Levallois core
346 reduction is one of the few techniques shared between the West African MSA and lithic assemblages from
347 North Africa and the Sahara (Allsworth-Jones, 2021). During wet/warm phases, Levallois culture may have
348 been transmitted across the frontier, assisted by the expansion of waterways that extended social routes
349 through northern Africa (Drake et al., 2011).

350 Unlike other studies, we do not find a spurious (Skonieczny et al., 2019) or paleoclimatic (deMenocal,
351 2004) obliquity component to the African monsoon. Precession, however, may have been primarily
352 responsible for monsoonal changes that impacted MSA cultures. Of the older assemblages, unidirectional
353 Levallois cores of the Falémé Valley (Douze et al., 2021) were recovered from horizons that formed
354 during wet-warm conditions of MIS 5e and the transition to 5d. Younger archaeological sites constrained to
355 MIS 4 and 3 have Levallois debitage patterns that are correlated to warm/wet intervals (Chevrier et al.,
356 2018). Levallois technological characteristics appear to be absent from intervals with low precession-
357 derived insolation associated with the dry-cold phases of MIS 5, 4, and 3 (Douze et al., 2021; Rasse et al.,
358 2020; Schmid et al., 2021; Hawkins et al., 1996).

359

360 5. Conclusions

361 We constructed a new XRF-measured Rb/Sr record for eastern equatorial Atlantic marine core
362 sediments of VM 30-40 and performed spectral coherency analysis that demonstrated a record of climatic
363 precession carried by terrigenous material. However, the largest Rb/Sr ratios of the entire record were
364 observed at glacial maxima of MIS 6 and 2. We also suggest a correlation between climatic precession



365 cycles and Levallois archaeological patterns. Based on the collected data and interpretations, the main
 366 conclusions of the research are summarized as:

- 367 • The partitioning of Rb- and Sr-bearing terrigenous fractions of the core appears to be free of successive
 368 dissolution cycles caused by obliquity-paced glacial modification of Atlantic bottom waters. This is in
 369 contrast to West African marine sediment cores from subtropical latitudes (Skonieczny et al., 2019).
 370 However, glacial epochs may be responsible for changes of physical versus chemical weathering on
 371 the continent that manifest in the Rb/Sr ratios. Anomalously high Rb/Sr values at MIS 6 and 2 may be
 372 a product of this differential weather or glacial bottom water dissolution that preferentially attacked Sr-
 373 bearing phases.
- 374 • Over the last ~260 kyr, the filtered precession timeseries from the Rb/Sr record show better phase
 375 relationships with spring (March, April, May) insolation at the equator as compared to summer (June,
 376 July, August) insolation at the northern subtropics. This is unexpected because the largest convectonal
 377 changes of the West African monsoon are associated with the summer and winter months. However,
 378 modern observations document sizable West African dust plumes that emanate from the low latitudes
 379 during March and April. A spring moisture signal in the Rb/Sr timeseries may be indicative of
 380 turbulence and storminess that accompanies the pre-onset rainy seasons of the West African monsoon.
 381 The spring insolation component to the terrigenous record may also suggest that some of the Rb and Sr
 382 sources were situated within the low latitudes, where the monsoonal cycle is most sensitive to
 383 insolation changes about the equinoxes.
- 384 • The Rb/Sr timeseries of early MIS 5e indicates that warm, wet conditions developed in concert with
 385 rising insolation and reached a maximum at ~127 ka. Contrastingly, model simulation results and
 386 terrigenous proxy data for 20° N (Govin et al., 2014; Menviel et al., 2021) demonstrate a dry HS11
 387 followed by an abrupt increase in rainfall that peaks ~1.4 kyr before the insolation maximum of MIS
 388 5e. These subtropical patterns derived from Northern Hemisphere glacial modification of AMOC that
 389 shifted the latitudinal range of the seasonal rainfall belt. We explain the differences by assuming the
 390 Rb and Sr had low-latitude source areas that were buffered from AMOC effects because the sources
 391 were into the direction of the southward displacement of the ITCZ.



392 • The precession cycle of isolation was inferred to have modulated moisture change through Middle
393 Stone Age paleoenvironments. Levallois stone artifacts are currently only known from the
394 wetter/warmer phases of the climate cycles through MIS 5, 4 and 3. Because this debitage type is one
395 of the few techniques shared between west and northern Africa, these observations may support
396 previous hypotheses that suggest social networks were enhanced between the regions during times of
397 increased rainfall.

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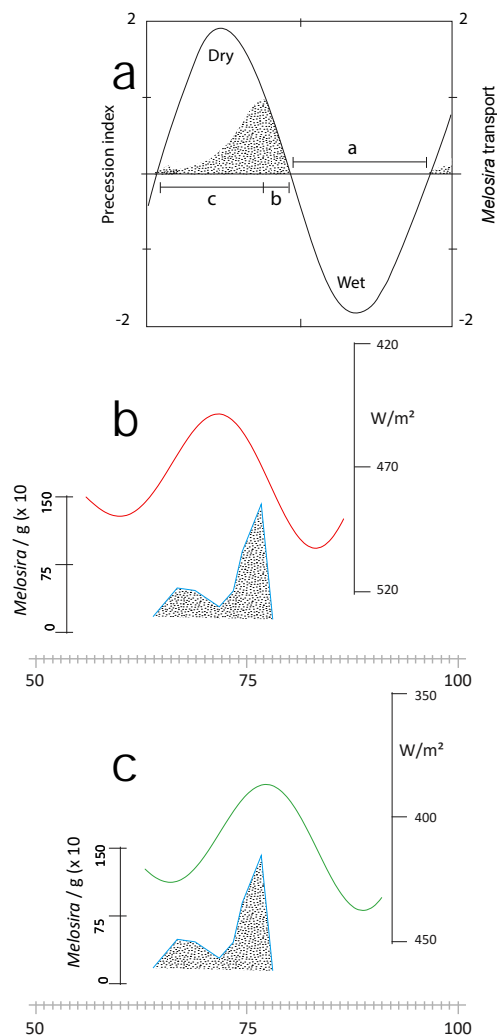
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420 Appendix A



421

422 Fig. A1: (**upper panel**) Cartoon of Pokras and Mix (Pokras and Mix, 1987) to show how diatom input
423 (*Melosira*) to the marine realm may predate maximum aridity over a precession cycle of insolation. In time
424 a, lake level is high and diatomite cannot be eroded. In time b, lower lake level and significant erosion
425 occurs, which supplies the marine site with ample diatomite. By time c, diatomite sources have been
426 depleted during continued fall in lake level. Smaller areas of sediment are exposed and the formation of
427 soils or crusts on dry lake beds inhibit further aeolian transport despite ongoing aridity. (**middle panel**)
428 Alignment of the Pokras and Mix (Pokras and Mix, 1987) diatom maximum at ~77 ka to the June solstice
429 insolation minimum center between ~60-83 ka (Laskar et al., 2004). (**lower panel**) Alignment of the Pokras
430 and Mix (Pokras and Mix, 1987) diatom maximum at ~77 ka to the March equinox insolation minimum
431 center between ~66-89 ka (Laskar et al., 2004). Note the insolation scales are inverted.

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434 **Sample availability**

435 VM 30-40 is available for inspection at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory Core Repository

437 **Supplement link**

438 A link to the XRF data used for this study will be provided by Copernicus

440 **Author contribution**

441 The research paper was conceived and written by the primary author. The other authors contributed to the
 442 manuscript by reviewing and editing. The primary author conducted the formal analysis and investigations,
 443 with respect to the geological and paleoclimatic implications. The secondary and tertiary authors were
 444 responsible for the curation and collection of the XRF measurements and the first-order interpretation of
 445 these data.

447 **Competing interests**

448 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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