



28 *Abstract*

29 Changes in tropical precipitation over the past millennia have usually been associated with  
30 latitudinal displacements of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). Recent studies  
31 provide new evidence that contraction and expansion of the tropical rainbelt may also have  
32 contributed to ITCZ variability on centennial time scales. Over tropical South America few  
33 records point to a similar interpretation, which prevents a clear diagnosis of ITCZ changes  
34 in the region. In order to improve our understanding of the equatorial rainbelt variability,  
35 our study presents a reconstruction of precipitation for the last 3200 years from the  
36 Northeast Brazil (NEB) region, an area solely influenced by ITCZ precipitation. We analyze  
37 oxygen isotopes in speleothems that serve as a faithful proxy for the past location of the  
38 southern margin of the ITCZ. Our results, in comparison with other ITCZ proxies, indicate  
39 that the range of seasonal migration, contraction and expansion of the ITCZ was not  
40 symmetrical around the equator on secular and multidecadal timescale. A new NEB ITCZ  
41 pattern emerges based on the comparison between two distinct proxies that characterize  
42 the ITCZ behavior during the last 2500 years, with an ITCZ zonal pattern between NEB  
43 and the eastern Amazon. In NEB, the period related to the Medieval Climate Anomaly  
44 (MCA – 950 to 1250 CE) was characterized by an abrupt transition from wet to dry  
45 conditions. These drier conditions persisted until the onset of the period corresponding to  
46 the Little Ice Age (LIA) in 1560 CE, representing the longest dry period over the last 3200  
47 years in NEB. The ITCZ was apparently forced by teleconnections between Atlantic and  
48 Pacific that controlled the position, intensity and extent of the Walker cell over South  
49 America, changing the zonal ITCZ characteristics, while sea surface temperature changes  
50 in both the Pacific and Atlantic, stretched/weakened the ITCZ-related rainfall meridionally  
51 over NEB. Wetter conditions started around 1500 CE in NEB. During the last 500 years,  
52 our speleothems document the occurrence of some of the strongest drought events over  
53 the last centuries, which drastically affected population and environment of NEB during the

54 Portuguese colonial period. The historical droughts were able to affect the karst system,  
55 and led to significant impacts over the entire NEB region.

56 *Keywords:* Holocene, stalagmites, stable isotopes, droughts, Portuguese colony

57

## 58 *1. Introduction*

59 Northeastern Brazil (NEB) is one of the areas in South America (SA) most  
60 vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. The semi-arid conditions in NEB are strongly  
61 affected by precipitation variability, and since the 18th century the region has experienced  
62 more frequent drought events (Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015; Lima and Magalhães,  
63 2018). Today the frequent droughts put ~57 million people, ~27% of the Brazilian  
64 population, at risk of experiencing water scarcity (Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015; Lima  
65 and Magalhães, 2018). Aside from native people, the region has been occupied since the  
66 Portuguese colonization in the 16th century, and the ensuing intense agricultural activity  
67 has been responsible for a large-scale degradation of the Caatinga biome, the typical  
68 vegetation of NEB's semi-arid areas. This land mismanagement and the increasing  
69 frequency of regional droughts has put some of these areas at great risk of desertification  
70 (Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015; Sampaio et al., 2020). Advancing our knowledge about  
71 NEB's climate and recurrence of extreme events in a long-term context is therefore of  
72 great importance to better anticipate the impacts of these intense and abrupt drought  
73 events.

74 The Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) is one of the key elements responsible  
75 for precipitation over NEB, which also indirectly affects the South American Summer  
76 Monsoon (SASM). When the ITCZ is in its southernmost position during austral autumn,  
77 northern areas of NEB experience increased precipitation (Schneider et al., 2014), while  
78 the precipitation in the southern areas of NEB occurs mainly during austral summer in  
79 response to climatic conditions in the tropical South Atlantic (Vera et al., 2006; Vuille et al.,

80 2012). Although these systems are independent and arise in different seasons, the  
81 position of the ITCZ affects SASM intensity and its development through moisture influx to  
82 the continent (Vuille et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2014).

83 On orbital to centennial timescales, weakened precipitation in NEB has been  
84 associated with enhanced subsidence over NEB during intense SASM periods (Cruz et al.,  
85 2009; Orrison et al., 2022), giving rise to a zonal dipole between the western Amazon and  
86 NEB (Cruz et al., 2009; Novello et al., 2018). This mode also operates today on  
87 interannual and seasonal time scales (Lenters and Cook, 1997; Sulca et al., 2016).

88 More recent studies suggested that these variations on millennial and centennial  
89 timescales in NEB may also have been caused by contraction or expansion of the tropical  
90 rainbelt affecting the precipitation over South America (Utida et al., 2019; Chiessi et al.,  
91 2021). These ITCZ dynamics would be forced by changes in tropical Atlantic and Pacific  
92 sea surface temperature (SST) and related atmospheric circulation changes (e.g.,  
93 Lechleitner et al., 2017; Utida et al., 2019; Chiessi et al., 2021; Steinman et al., 2022).  
94 These results suggest complex ITCZ dynamics operating over NEB; a region where the  
95 lack of studies complicates the paleoclimate interpretations for the last millennia.

96 In comparison with the ITCZ, the SASM has received more attention from recent  
97 studies, mainly due to its larger area of influence in SA, extending from the tropical Andes  
98 to the Amazon and southeastern SA (e.g., Apaéstegui et al., 2018; Azevedo et al., 2019;  
99 Della Libera et al., 2022). Rainfall variability over Southern Northeast Brazil (S-NEB) is  
100 also determined by the dynamics of the South Atlantic Convergence Zone (SACZ), a  
101 component of the SASM (Novello et al., 2018; Zilli et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2021). The  
102 spatiotemporal precipitation variability over tropical SA during the Common Era (CE) was  
103 evaluated based on a network of high-resolution proxy records (Novello et al., 2018;  
104 Campos et al., 2019; Orrison et al., 2022). These studies point to an association between

105 SASM variability and the latitudinal displacement of the ITCZ and SACZ, although  
106 changes in the latitude of the ITCZ during the last millennia are not well established.

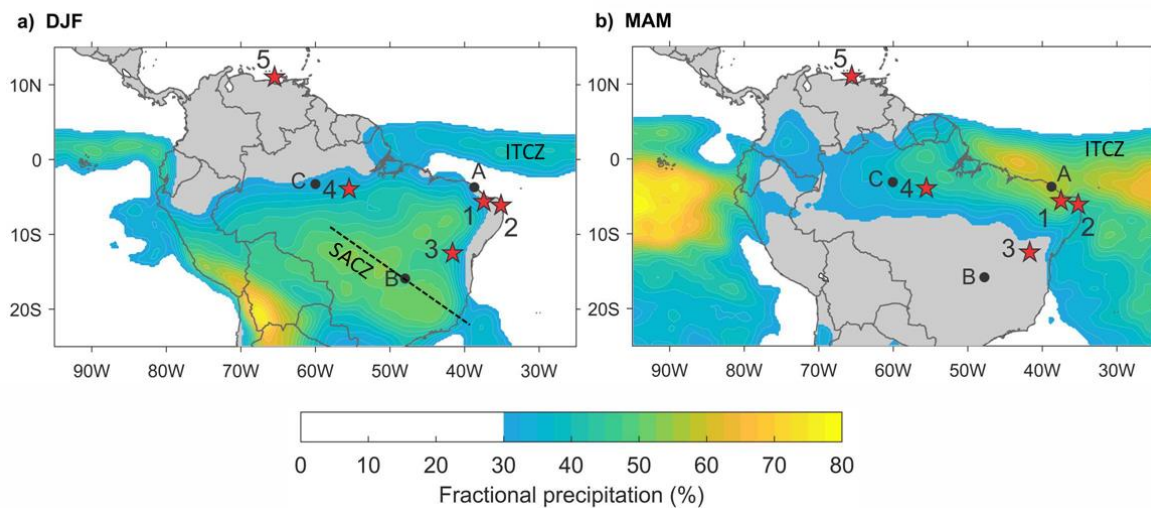
107 Previous studies based on oxygen and hydrogen isotopes from paleorecords  
108 obtained in NEB have served as useful proxies for ITCZ precipitation in the region (Cruz et  
109 al., 2009; Novello et al., 2012; Utida et al., 2019), while carbon isotopes have been used to  
110 interpret soil erosion/production and vegetation cover in different biomes of Brazil (Utida et  
111 al., 2020; Novello et al., 2021; Azevedo et al., 2021).

112 For the past 4,200 years, NEB has experienced semi-arid conditions (Cruz et al.,  
113 2009; Utida et al., 2020) that were imprinted on the oxygen isotope signals recorded in  
114 stalagmites. These drier conditions in NEB could have resulted in a seasonal bias toward  
115 the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  rainfall of recharge periods or an evaporative fractionation of stored karst water  
116 (Baker et al., 2019). In addition, isotopic fractionation processes associated with different  
117 karst architectures can affect the stalagmites  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signals (Treble et al., 2022).  
118 Unfortunately, cave monitoring in northern NEB is not available due to the scarcity of  
119 dripping water, probably as a result of increasing droughts in the region in the last decades  
120 (Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015). Because of this, the interpretation of oxygen isotopes in  
121 the region has been challenging.

122 Although the hydrological processes occurring in the epikarst may affect the  
123 fractionation of oxygen isotope values in the dripping water and thus control  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  recorded  
124 in stalagmites on a global scale, previous studies mentioned above, suggest a strong  
125 relationship with rainfall amount based on model results and comparison with other  
126 regional and global records.

127 Building on these recent advances, we present an ITCZ precipitation reconstruction  
128 based on stalagmite records from the state of Rio Grande do Norte (RN), located at the  
129 modern southernmost limit of the ITCZ in eastern South America (Fig 1). By using oxygen  
130 isotopes obtained from these stalagmites we reconstruct precipitation, based on field

131 correlations between precipitation amount and oxygen isotopic composition of modern  
 132 rainfall, and by using carbon isotopes to reconstruct vegetation/soil cover over the last  
 133 3,200 years over NEB. These data are essential to fill the gap of high-resolution records in  
 134 NEB and to improve the interpretation of ITCZ dynamics over SA and how they are related  
 135 to SASM variability during the CE.  
 136



137  
 138 Figure 1 – Location and precipitation climatology of study sites during the austral  
 139 summer (DJF - December to February) and autumn (MAM - March to May). Color shading  
 140 indicates percentage of the annual precipitation total that is received during either DJF or  
 141 MAM and highlights the extent of (a) SASM over the continent and (b) the ITCZ over the  
 142 ocean. Precipitation data from the Global Precipitation Measurement (GPM) mission, with  
 143 averages calculated over the period 2001–2020. 1) Trapiá and Furna Nova Cave, Pedra  
 144 das Abelhas Station (this study), 2) Boqueirão Lake (Utida et al., 2019), 3) Diva de Maura  
 145 Cave (Novello et al., 2012), 4) Paraíso Cave (Wang et al., 2017), 5) Cariaco Basin (Haug  
 146 et al., 2001). GNIP stations: A) Fortaleza, B) Brasília, C) Manaus.

147

148 *2. Regional settings*

149 *2.1. Study area*

150 We study stalagmites from two caves located in the Rio Grande do Norte State, in  
151 northern NEB (Fig 1), Trapiá and Furna Nova Cave. The caves were developed in the  
152 Cretaceous carbonate rocks of the Jandaíra Formation, Potiguar Basin, close to the Apodi  
153 River valley in a region of exposed karst pavements (Pessoa-Neto, 2003; Melo et al.,  
154 2016; Silva et al., 2017). We collected speleothems in Trapiá and Furna Nova caves.  
155 Trapiá Cave (5°33'45.43"S, 37°37'15.92"W) is a 2330 m long cave with 29 m of bedrock  
156 above the cave cavity. This cave is located 90 km from the Atlantic coast and ~ 50 m  
157 above sea level, with temperature and relative humidity of 28.5°C and 100%, respectively,  
158 in the chamber. Furna Nova Cave (5°2'3.22"S, 37°34'16"W) is located 60 km north of  
159 Trapiá Cave, 45 km from the Atlantic coast and ~95 m above sea level. The cave is 239.3  
160 m long, with 29.8 m of bedrock above the cave cavity. Its temperature and relative  
161 humidity in the speleothem chamber are 25°C and 95.0%, respectively.

162 The annual mean temperature in the region is around 28°C (INMET - National  
163 Institute of Meteorology – Instituto Nacional de Meteorologia – data from 1961-1990) and  
164 the average precipitation is approximately 730 mm/year, concentrated in the period  
165 between March and May, during the southernmost position of the ITCZ (Agência Nacional  
166 de Águas – ANA - National Agency of Waters, 2013; Ziese et al., 2018). Caatinga dry  
167 forest is the typical vegetation of the region. It is adapted to short rainy seasons of 3 to 4  
168 months in length and tolerates large interannual variations in precipitation. It is  
169 characterized by sparse dry forest, dominated by arboreal deciduous shrubland (Erasmí et  
170 al., 2009).

171

172 *2.2. Climatology*

173 The drylands of NEB extend from 2.5°S to 16.1°S, and from 34.8°W to 46°W, with  
174 an area of about 1,542,000 km<sup>2</sup>, representing 18.26% of the Brazilian territory (Marengo

175 and Bernasconi, 2015). Although the whole area is classified as semi-arid and has faced  
176 intense droughts, especially influenced by El Niño, there are significant differences in  
177 climatic systems between the northern and southern sectors of NEB. Furthermore, the  
178 NEB eastern coastal sector is characterized by a different rainfall seasonality, receiving  
179 more rainfall across the year, as the climate in this region is modulated by the sea breeze  
180 circulation and easterly wave disturbances during June and July (Gomes et al., 2015;  
181 Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015; Utida et al., 2019). Northern NEB (N-NEB), where the  
182 studied caves are located, receives most of its precipitation from March to May, when the  
183 seasonal migration of the ITCZ reaches its southernmost position around 2°N (Schneider  
184 et al., 2014; Utida et al., 2020), and ITCZ-related precipitation extends across the equator  
185 southward to NEB (Fig 1). In Southern-NEB (S-NEB), the precipitation occurs mainly  
186 during summer, from December to February influenced by the margins of the SACZ (Fig.  
187 1a).

188

### 189 *3. Materials and Methods*

190 The rainfall patterns over the study area were evaluated by analyzing monthly  
191 rainfall data from the Pedra das Abelhas National Agency of Water (ANA) Station – RN,  
192 located ~ 1 km from the Trapiá Cave (Fig. 1), using data from 1911 to 2015 (n=103). In  
193 order to exclude possible extreme events with a known forcing, we excluded the 39 El  
194 Niño - Southern Oscillation (ENSO) years that most drastically changed the precipitation  
195 amount in NEB, following the methodology of Araújo et al. (2013).

196 In order to identify spatial patterns of rainfall associated with the oxygen isotope  
197 signal in northeast and central Brazil, we produced maps showing the Pearson's  
198 correlation scores between GPCP gridded precipitation anomalies (Schneider et al.,  
199 2011), based on the period 1961-1990 for December to February (DJF) and March to May  
200 (MAM) (Ziese et al., 2018); and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values for IAEA-GNIP stations (International Atomic



201 Energy Agency - Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation, IAEA-WMO, 2021) for  
202 Northern NEB (Pedra das Abelhas ANA and Fortaleza GNIP Station); Southern NEB  
203 (Andaraí ANA and Brasília GNIP stations) and the Eastern Amazon (Belterra ANA and  
204 Manaus GNIP stations). The IAEA stations were chosen based on their closest proximity  
205 to sites discussed in the study: 1) Trapiá Cave and Furna Nova Cave (this study), 2)  
206 Boqueirão Lake (Utida et al., 2019), 3) Diva de Maura Cave (Novello et al., 2012) and 4)  
207 Paraíso Cave (Wang et al., 2017). Sites 1 and 2 are located in in N-NEB, 3 in S-NEB and  
208 4 in the Eastern Amazon. Four stalagmites were collected in N-NEB caves, two at Trapiá  
209 Cave, TRA5 and TRA7 that are 178 and 270 mm long, respectively (Fig. S1), and two at  
210 Furna Nova, FN1 and FN2, with a length of 202 and 95 mm, respectively (Fig. S2). The  
211 stalagmite FN1 was previously studied by Cruz et al. (2009) for chronology and oxygen  
212 isotopes. Utida et al. (2020) also studied TRA7 for chronology and carbon isotopes.

213         Chronological studies on speleothems were based on U-Th geochronology  
214 performed at the Laboratories of the Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences,  
215 College of Science and Engineering, University of Minnesota (USA), and at the Isotope  
216 Laboratory of the Institute of Global Environmental Change, Xi'an Jiaotong University  
217 (China), according to Cheng et al. (2013). Subsamples of ~100 mg were obtained in clear  
218 layers, close to the growth axis trying to keep a maximum thickness of 1.5 mm, 10 mm  
219 wide and no more than 3 mm depth. The powder samples were dissolved in 14 N HNO<sub>3</sub>  
220 and spiked with a mixed solution of known <sup>233</sup>U (0.78646 ± 0.0002 pmol/g) and <sup>229</sup>Th  
221 (0.21686 ± 0.0001 pmol/g) concentration. Th and U were co-precipitated with FeCl and  
222 separated with Spectra/Gel® Ion Exchange 1x8 resin column with 6N HCl and super clear  
223 water, respectively. Th and U were counted in an inductively coupled plasma-mass  
224 spectrometry (MC-ICP-MS Thermo-Finnigan NEPTUNE PLUS) and the results calculated  
225 in a standard spreadsheet based on Edwards et al. (1987) and Richards and Dorale  
226 (2003) using the isotopic ratios measured, machine parameters and corrections factors to

227 eliminate effects of contamination by detrital Th to finally obtain the age of each sample.  
228 The decay constants used are:  $\lambda_{238}$   $1.55125 \times 10^{-10}$  (Jaffey et al., 1971),  $\lambda_{234}$   $2.82206 \times 10^{-6}$   
229 and  $\lambda_{230} = 9.1705 \times 10^{-6}$  (Cheng et al., 2013). Corrected  $^{230}\text{Th}$  ages assume the initial  
230  $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$  atomic ratio of  $4.4 \pm 2.2 \times 10^{-6}$ . Those are the values for a material at secular  
231 equilibrium, with the bulk earth  $^{232}\text{Th}/^{238}\text{U}$  value of 3.8 (McDonough and Sun, 1995). The  
232 ages are reported in BP (Before Present, defined as the year 1950 A.D.) and also  
233 converted to Common Years (CE) and age uncertainties are  $2 \sigma$ . We analyzed a large  
234 number of U/Th ages to improve the age model and reduce the errors associated with  
235 detrital Th and recrystallization.

236 Age models of speleothem TRA5 and FN2 were based on 12 and 10 U/Th dates,  
237 respectively (Table S1 and S2). The FN1 chronology is based on 10 previously published  
238 U/Th results obtained by Cruz et al. (2009) plus 8 additional new dates obtained for this  
239 study (Table S1). Speleothem TRA7 has 27 U/Th ages that were presented in Utida et al.  
240 (2020). The individual age models for all speleothems were constructed by the software  
241 COPRA (Breitenbach et al., 2012) through a set of 2,000 Monte Carlo simulations, where  
242 a random age within the  $\pm 1\sigma$  age interval was chosen each time.

243 For oxygen and carbon isotope analysis of the speleothems, around 200  $\mu\text{g}$  of  
244 powder was drilled for each sample, consecutively at intervals of 0.1 mm (TRA5), 0.3 mm  
245 (TRA7) and 0.15 mm (FN2), with a Micromill micro-sampling device. These samples were  
246 prepared using an online automated carbonate preparation system and analyzed by a  
247 GasBench interfaced to a Thermo Finnigan Delta V Advantage at the Laboratory of Stable  
248 Isotopes (LES) at the Geoscience Institute of the University of São Paulo. Isotopes are  
249 reported in delta notation ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite  
250 (VPDB) standard, with uncertainties in the reproducibility of standard materials  $< 0.1\%$ .  
251 The isotopic profiles of TRA5, TRA7, FN1 and FN2 stalagmites consist of 443, 885, 1215  
252 and 651 isotope samples, respectively. These datasets provide an average resolution of

253 ~1 year per sample for TRA5 and ~ 4 years for the other speleothem records. TRA7  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
254 results were presented by Utida et al. (2020) and FN1  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results by Cruz et al. (2009)  
255 using the same methods. Cruz et al. (2009) do not provide FN1  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  results, which were  
256 not included in this study.

257 Different textural characteristics of speleothem TRA5 and FN2 were identified in  
258 intervals which were analyzed for mineralogical composition based on approximately 20  
259 mg samples with X-ray powder diffraction in a Bruker D8 diffractometer (Cu Ka, 40 kV, 40  
260 mA, step 0.02°, 153 s/step, scanning from 3 to 105° 2 $\theta$ ) at the NAP Geoanalítica  
261 Laboratory of the University of São Paulo. Qualitative and quantitative mineralogical  
262 analyses were performed with *Match!* and *FullProf* software, using the Crystallographic  
263 Open Database (Grazulis et al., 2009). Crystallographic data for the mineral phases were  
264 taken from Pokroy et al. (1989) for aragonite and from Paquette and Reeder (1990) for  
265 calcite. Mineralogical results of TRA7 and FN1 were obtained by Utida et al. (2020) using  
266 the same method. All results are presented in weight proportion (wt %). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results of  
267 speleothems were calibrated according to the percentage of calcite identified for the  
268 interval applying the aragonite–calcite fractionation offset of 0.85‰  $\pm$  0.29‰ (Zhang et al.,  
269 2014). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  results were not corrected because the original aragonite–secondary  
270 calcite fractionation factor is negligible (~0.1-0.2‰) (Zhang et al., 2014). Even considering  
271 the original aragonite-original calcite mean fractionation factor of 1.1‰ (Zhang et al.,  
272 2015), the range of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  RN stalagmites is very large (>8‰) and the correction would not  
273 affect the main interpretation.

274 The intra-site correlation model (*iscam*) was used to construct a composite record  
275 (Fohlmeister, 2012). It combined the climate records to obtain a unique age model and  
276 oxygen isotopic record, corrected only for mineralogical composition of speleothems from  
277 Rio Grande do Norte, which here is referred to as the RN Composite. The age-depth

278 modeling software was adjusted to calculate 1000 Monte-Carlo simulations on absolute  
279 age determinations to find the best correlation between oxygen isotope records from  
280 Trapiá and Furna Nova speleothems, reproducing adjacent archives. The results estimate  
281 the error of the age-depth model by indicating the 68%, 95% and 99% confidence intervals  
282 obtained from evaluation of a set of 2000 first order autoregressive processes (AR1) for  
283 each record (Table S3). This method allows significantly reducing the age uncertainty  
284 within the overlapping periods and it can be tested if the signal of interest is indeed similar  
285 in all the records (Fohlmeister, 2012). The age data were assumed to have a Gaussian  
286 distribution and were calculated pointwise. The composite result was detrended and  
287 normalized, according to the *iscam* method. The performance of the *iscam* results is  
288 affected by low quality of chronological control, low resolution and hiatuses. Therefore, the  
289 following intervals were removed from the stalagmite records before constructing the RN  
290 Composite: FN1 0-12 mm and 187-202 mm, FN2 0-6 mm, TRA5 0-37mm and TRA7 222-  
291 227 mm. In addition, the FN1 record was divided into two portions: FN1a 12.14-136.99  
292 mm and FN1b 140.15-186.87 mm that are separated by a hiatus. The chronological age-  
293 depth relationship in the overlapping parts of the individual stalagmites was modified and  
294 improved according to the *iscam* results of the composite record. The composite  
295 calculation rearranges the proxies in order to obtain the optimal calculated age and then  
296 calculates the average of the proxy data after normalizing the records. The RN record only  
297 contains overlapping segments between two stalagmites per period. Hence the RN  
298 composite proxy error can be quantified as the difference between the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of the  
299 stalagmites combined for any given point in time (Fig. S6).

300

## 301 4. Results

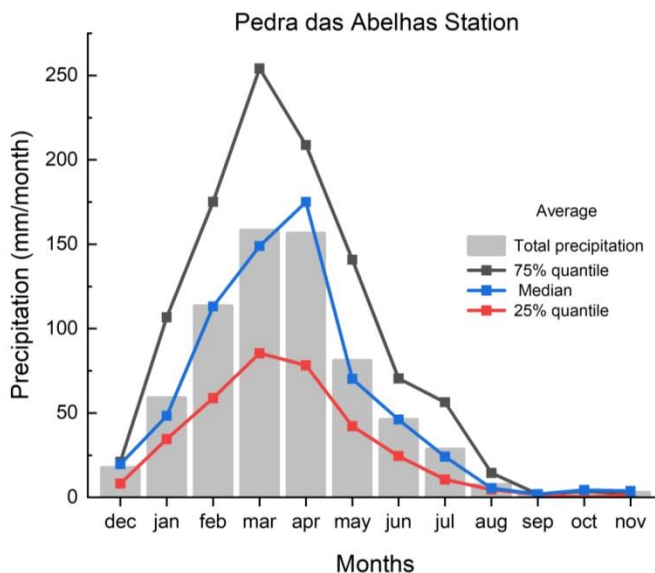
### 302 4.1. Modern climatology and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ rainfall distribution

303           The data from Pedra das Abelhas Station reveal that in the majority of years  
304 (normal years - interquartile range) the rainy season persists from February to April, with  
305 precipitation varying from 100 to 180 mm/month, and minor contributions occurring in  
306 January and May (50-70 mm/month) (Fig. 2). During the drier years (lower quartile),  
307 February has a reduced precipitation amount, similar to the amount in January during  
308 normal years, as described above. The maximum precipitation of 90 mm/month occurs  
309 between March and April. For wetter years (upper quartile), the rainy season starts in  
310 January with more than 100 mm/month and lasts until May with almost 150 mm/month,  
311 reaching values higher than 250 mm around March. These data show that wetter years  
312 are characterized by increased precipitation amounts and a longer rainy season starting in  
313 January and ending in May, while the precipitation deficit during drought years is a result  
314 of decreased precipitation amount and a shorter rainy season, with a peak in precipitation  
315 between March and April. The anomalous length of the rainy season during dry and wet  
316 years is attributed to variations in the meridional SST gradient in the tropical Atlantic that  
317 results in a shift of the ITCZ to the north or south of its climatological position (e.g.,  
318 Andreoli et al., 2011; Marengo and Bernasconi, 2015; Alvalá et al., 2019).

319           In S-NEB, the precipitation occurs mainly during summer, from December to  
320 February (Fig. 1a and 3b). This regional seasonality difference with N-NEB is evident in  
321 the spatial correlation map between GPCP precipitation anomalies and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  anomalies  
322 obtained from IAEA-GNIP for Fortaleza and Brasília stations (Fig. 3). The reddish areas on  
323 the map indicate significant negative correlations during the austral summer (DJF) and  
324 autumn (MAM) between the local precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signals and the regional precipitation  
325 amount. Overall, the spatial correlations indicate that in both areas the amount effect is the  
326 dominant effect on the isotopic composition of rainfall (Dansgaard, 1964). However, the  
327 isotopic signal varies seasonally and as a function of the two different circulation systems.  
328 The negative spatial correlation observed over N-NEB (Fig. 3a) suggests precipitation is

329 dominated by ITCZ dynamics, similar to the conditions over Fortaleza, while the negative  
 330 spatial correlation over S-NEB (Fig. 3b) is a result of the rainfall influenced by the SASM  
 331 (Fig. 1) (Vera et al., 2006), such as in Brasília City, in central Brazil. Therefore,  
 332 precipitation and the associated isotopic signal are the result of ITCZ dynamics in N-NEB,  
 333 while they are influenced by the SASM in the S-NEB. Accordingly, their rainfall seasonality  
 334 is also different (Fig. 3), with a NDJFM peak in the south (Brasília, Fig. 3b) and a MAM  
 335 rainfall peak in the north (Fortaleza, Fig. 3a).

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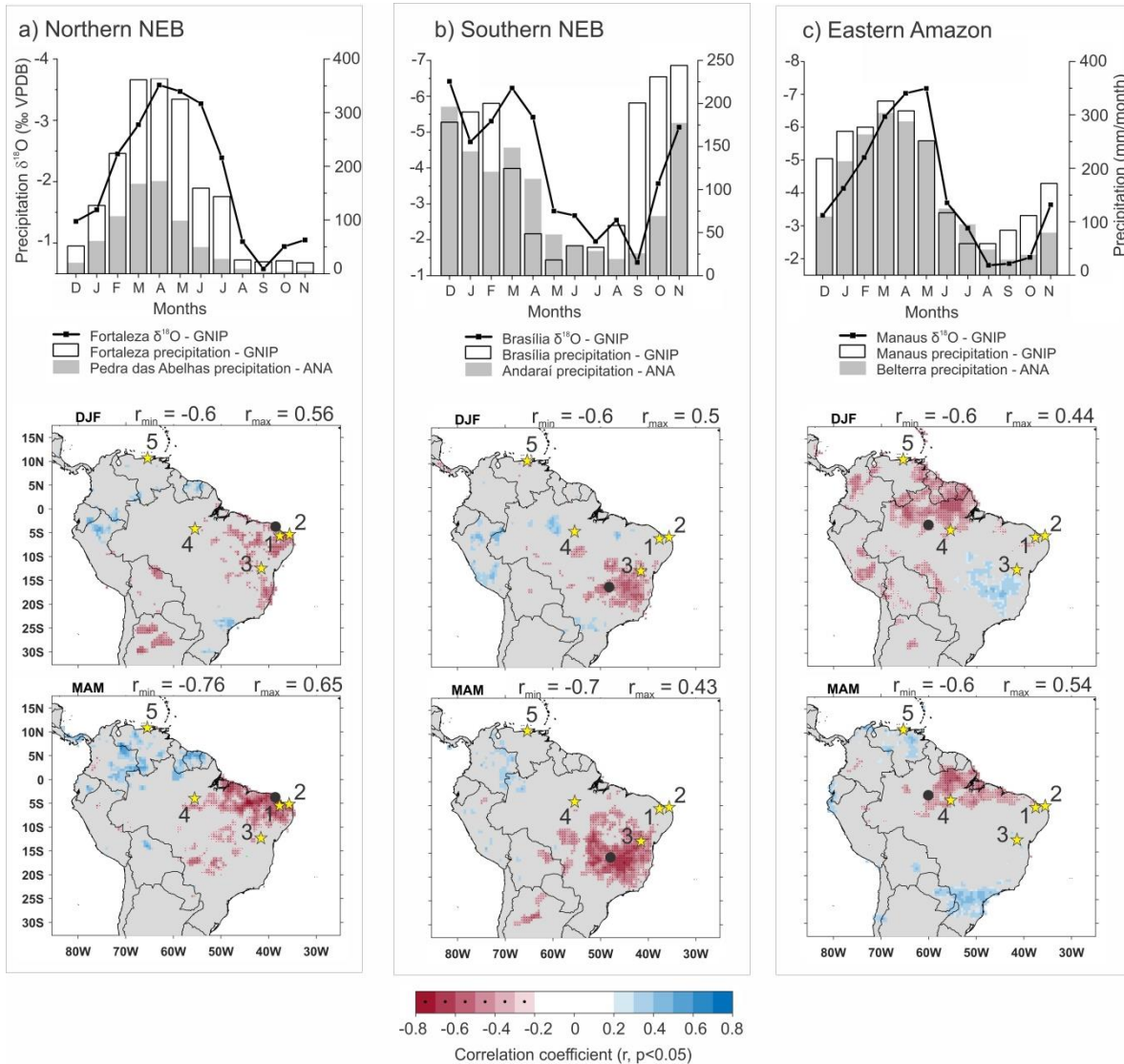
338 Figure 2 - Pedra das Abelhas ANA Station precipitation analyzed from 1911 to  
 339 2015 (n=103), excluding the strongest ENSO years (39 years), according to Araújo et al.  
 340 (2013).

341

342 Another important region in SA affected by the ITCZ behavior is the eastern  
 343 Amazon, west of the NEB (Fig. 1 and Fig. 3c). This region is characterized by increased  
 344 precipitation during DJFMAM and a peak in rainfall and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  minimum in MAM (Fig. 3c) as  
 345 a result of precipitation received from the ITCZ in both summer and autumn. It can be  
 346 depicted by the negative correlation between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  at the Manaus GNIP station and rainfall

347 over the upstream equatorial region under direct ITCZ influence. In addition, there is only a  
 348 minor influence through water recycling over the Amazon Basin, due to its proximity to the  
 349 coast (Wang et al., 2017).

350



351

352 Figure 3 – Monthly mean observed precipitation amount collected at ANA and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
 353 values for GNIIP stations (IAEA-WMO, 2021) (black dots) and correlation maps between  
 354 gridded precipitation and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  anomalies from the same stations (black dots) for: (a)  
 355 Northern NEB, Fortaleza and Pedra das Abelhas stations (star 1), (b) Southern NEB,  
 356 Brasília and Andaraí stations (star 3), c) Eastern Amazon, Manaus and Belterra stations

357 (star 4). The maps show the spatial correlation between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  anomalies at GNIP stations  
358 and GPCP gridded precipitation anomalies based on the period 1961-1990 for December  
359 to February (DJF) and March to May (MAM) for Fortaleza, Brasília and Manaus stations  
360 (Ziese et al., 2018). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values (left y axis) and precipitation (right y axis) for each  
361 station were obtained from GNIP IAEA/WMO database. Stars indicate the site locations: 1)  
362 Trapiá Cave, Furna Nova Cave and Pedra das Abelhas ANA Station (reference period  
363 1910-2019), 2) Boqueirão Lake (Utida et al., 2019), 3) Diva de Maura Cave (Novello et al.,  
364 2012) and Andaraí ANA Station (reference period 1960-1986), 4) Paraíso Cave (Wang et  
365 al., 2017) and Belterra ANA Station (reference period 1975-2007), 5) Cariaco Basin (Haug  
366 et al., 2001).

367

#### 368 *4.2. Chronology and mineralogy*

369 The RN record covers the last 5000 years, four stalagmites cover the last 3250  
370 years, and two of these stalagmites cover partially the time period between 3000 and 1260  
371 Before Common Era (BCE), with the exception of one hiatus at 2100 -1720 years BCE  
372 (Fig. 4, Table S1 and S2).

373 Stalagmite TRA7 from Trapiá Cave was deposited from 3000 to 2180 BCE (Fig.  
374 S3) with a low deposition rate (DR) of approximately 0.05 mm/yr. After a hiatus of 1880  
375 years, it resumed deposition from 300 BCE until 1940 CE with a DR of 0.18 mm/yr. The  
376 TRA5 stalagmite deposition occurred continuously from 1490 to 1906 CE (Fig. S3) with a  
377 DR of 0.33 mm/yr.

378 Stalagmite FN1 from Furna Nova was deposited over the last 3,600 years, with a  
379 hiatus from 125 to 345 BCE and another one of approximately 100 years between 1525  
380 and 1662 CE (Fig. S3), with an average DR of 0.09 mm/yr. The ages from the FN1  
381 stalagmite are all in chronological order and contain low errors and were therefore all kept



382 in the age model. The FN2 stalagmite deposited continuously from 1226 BCE to 7 CE,  
383 except for a hiatus between 189 and 45 BCE (Fig. S3) with a DR of 0.20 mm/yr.

384 The mineralogy of the stalagmites from Trapiá Cave is formed by layers of crystals  
385 with mosaic and columnar fabrics, composed exclusively of calcite, except for the base  
386 portion of TRA7 from 173 to 270 mm (3,000 BCE to 130 CE), which is described as an  
387 interbedded needle-like crystals texture, composed of 87.1 to 99% of aragonite (Fig. S1,  
388 Table S4). The same needle-like morphology is present in most of the Furna Nova Cave  
389 stalagmites, composed of aragonite with a weight proportion greater than 85% in FN1,  
390 extending from 0 to 83 mm (160 to 1,340 CE) and from 128 to 183 mm (1,730 BCE to 80  
391 CE). In the FN2 sample this weight proportion is greater than 93.4% (1265 BCE to 35 CE).  
392 The only interval composed of 100% calcite is from 95 to 125 mm in FN1 (Fig. S2, Table  
393 S4). These speleothem samples show no sign of dissolution or recrystallization.

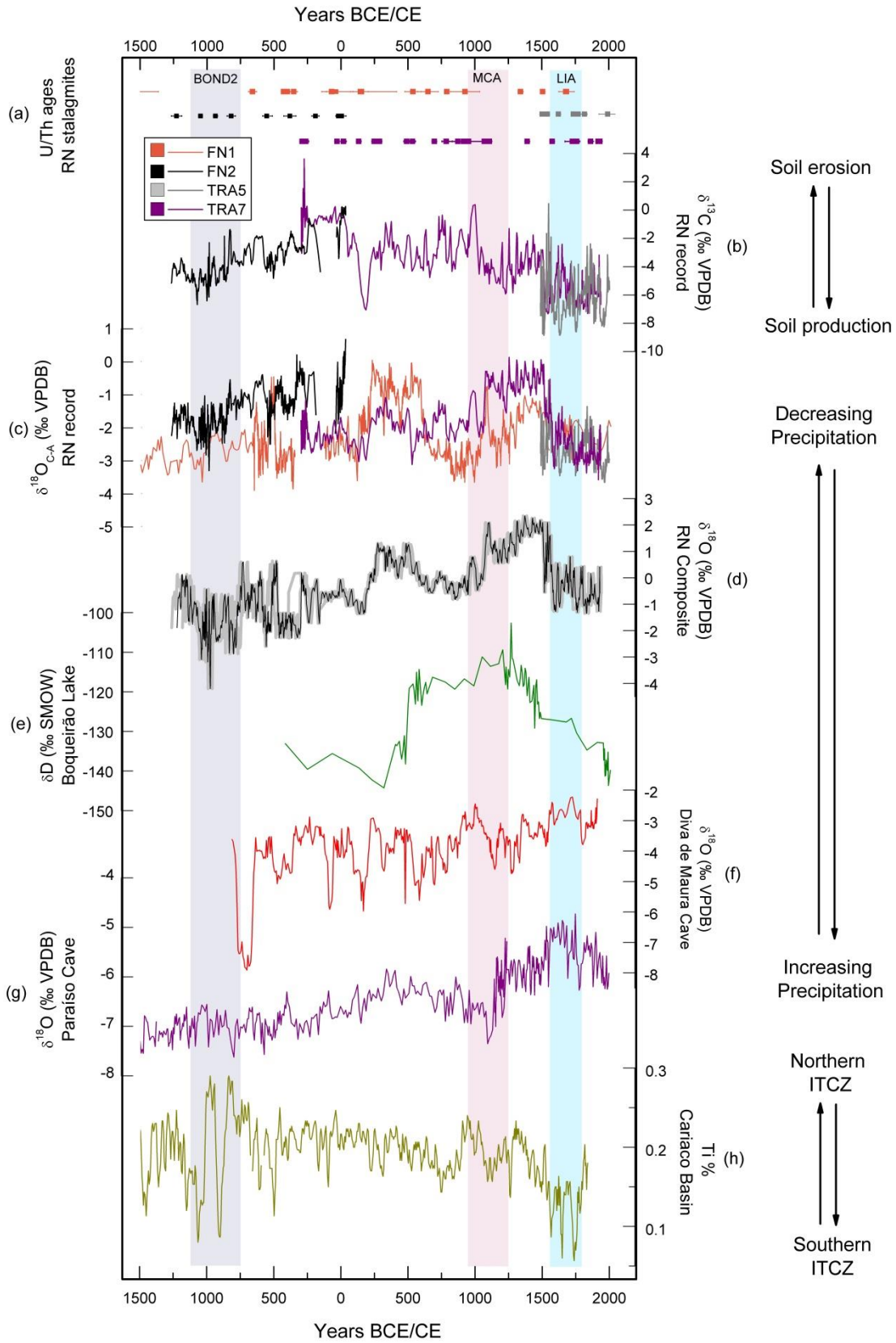
394

#### 395 4.3. Stalagmite $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

396 The oxygen isotope ratios of the RN record vary from 0.6‰ to -4.5‰, with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
397 mean values for each speleothem of -2.8‰ for TRA7, -3.5‰ for TRA5, -2.4‰ for FN1 and  
398 -1.5‰ for FN2. Similarities among the stalagmites are evident, especially around 1500 CE  
399 when  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values abruptly decrease in TRA7 and TRA5, while in FN2 this period features  
400 a hiatus (Fig. S4).

401 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  correction due to mineralogy for the stalagmites from Furna Nova Cave  
402 resulted in changes of less than 0.1‰ of their mean values. The mean correction for TRA7  
403 equals an enrichment of 0.5‰ during the period spanning 130 BCE to 1940 CE. Values  
404 from TRA5 were corrected along the entire sample by adding 0.85‰, as it is composed of  
405 100% calcite. Therefore, the mean values increased from -3.5‰ to -2.7‰ (Fig. S4).

406



408 Figure 4 – Rio Grande do Norte stalagmite isotope records and comparisons with  
409 other records from South America. a) U/Th ages from each stalagmite studied. b) Raw  
410 data of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . c) Oxygen isotope results corrected for calcite-aragonite fractionation ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{C}}$   
411  $\text{A}$ ), according to weight proportion of mineralogical results. d)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  RN Composite  
412 constructed using stalagmite records from NEB (black line). Grey shaded area denotes the  
413 99% confidence interval of the age model. Blue shaded area refers to LIA (Little Ice Age),  
414 pink shaded area refers to MCA (Medieval Climate Anomaly), light grey shaded area  
415 refers to Bond 2 event. e) Boqueirão Lake  $\delta\text{D}$  record (Utida et al., 2019). f) DV2  
416 speleothem oxygen isotope record from Diva de Maura cave, southern NEB (Novello et  
417 al., 2012). g) PAR01 and PAR03  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records from Paraíso cave, eastern Amazon (Wang  
418 et al., 2017). h) Ti record of Cariaco Basin (Haug et al., 2001).

419

420 Four main phases describe the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  dataset (Fig. 4b). The oldest phase from 3000  
421 to 2160 BCE is characterized by  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values close to zero. After a hiatus (2170-1270 BCE)  
422 there is a short interval of stability with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values around -4‰ that lasts from 1270 to 840  
423 BCE and is followed by a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  enrichment that reaches a value of zero at 30 CE. Between  
424 30 and 1500 CE there is a trend toward more negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, varying from 0 to -  
425 8.8‰. This interval is marked by a valley at 190 CE with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of -7.2‰ and a peak  
426 at 1000 CE with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of 0.22‰. The youngest period, from 1500 to 1930 CE is  
427 more stable than the previous one, with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values averaging around - 6.4‰.

428

#### 429 4.4. Composite

430 Combining the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results from the four RN stalagmites allows establishing a  
431 continuous record covering the last ~3200 years, the RN Composite (Fig. 4d). The  
432 correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between each measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stalagmite time series is >0.59,

433 significant at the 95% level (Fig. S5). The composite provides an average temporal  
434 resolution of ~2 years. The entire stable isotope time series is composed of 2495  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
435 measurements, corrected according to mineralogical composition.

436

## 437 *5. Discussion*

### 438 *5.1. U/Th chronology and RN Composite*

439 The high values of  $^{232}\text{Th}$  and low  $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$  ratio suggest incorporation of detrital  
440 Th transported by the seepage solution to the speleothems, which lead to a higher  
441 uncertainty of the age values. Recrystallization of aragonite into calcite might also reduce  
442 the U content and given older ages for carbonates (Lachniet et al., 2012). We assume that  
443 these are the main reasons for age inversions along speleothems from Northeast Brazil.

444 Because FN1 is mostly composed of aragonite and presents low U concentration in  
445 some samples of the first 127 cm and high  $^{232}\text{Th}$  amounts, we considered the association  
446 of low  $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$  and low U content the most important factor affecting the age errors and  
447 inversions in the FN1 stalagmite. In contrast, the FN2 stalagmite has a more precise  
448 chronology due to the predominant aragonite composition, with high  $^{238}\text{U}$  content and  
449 higher  $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$  ratio than FN1. Although the TRA5 stalagmite is entirely composed of  
450 calcite, the  $^{238}\text{U}$  content is relatively high compared to other stalagmites, which improves  
451 the confidence in its age results. The high  $^{232}\text{Th}$  contamination of TRA5 samples is the  
452 main factor attributed to cause age inversions and increased errors. According to age  
453 results produced by Utida et al. (2020), most of the TRA7 ages are in chronological order  
454 and the inversions seem to not have a direct relationship with  $^{238}\text{U}$  amount, and the high  
455  $^{232}\text{Th}$  content is similar to other ages from TRA7. Most of the TRA7 stalagmite used in our  
456 composite is composed of calcite and might not affect the main trends of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

457 The age uncertainties caused by high  $^{232}\text{Th}$  concentration and calcite  
458 recrystallization in stalagmites might affect the age model. However the strong coherence

459 between the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  curves from different stalagmites argues in favor of the good quality of  
460 our chronology. This is evident when FN2, which is composed 100% of aragonite, is  
461 compared with other samples. There is a different amplitude range in its  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, but  
462 when the curve is superposed on other  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records the variability is similar. This  
463 amplitude range is corrected when the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results are submitted to the ISCAM composite  
464 construction, since it normalizes the results (Fig. S6).

465 Although the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  results present a different range of values between FN2 and  
466 FN1, the mineralogical correction did not significantly change the main curves (Fig. S4).  
467 TRA7 and FN1 underwent substantial changes due to mineralogical corrections between  
468 80 to 1500 CE (Table S4). However the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  trends were not modified. The mineralogical  
469 correction for the last 500 years, adjusts the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values over the same range for TRA5,  
470 TRA7 and FN1 (Fig. S4). Some of this  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability might also be attributed to karst  
471 fractionation effects. However, no cave monitoring in northern NEB is available that could  
472 quantify the extent of these processes.

473 These differences in mineralogical corrections and possible  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  fractionations did  
474 not alter the general shape of the RN Composite. Before merging the results, ISCAM  
475 normalizes the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and different range values are adjusted to the same scale, resulting in  
476 significant reduction in the difference between stalagmite records (Fig. S6). The largest  
477 error occurs between 250 and 580 CE, when the maximum and minimum values of FN1  
478 and TRA7 are 2.4 ‰ and -1.50 ‰ after normalization, respectively (Fig. S6). This is a  
479 period when FN1 registers high  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values; an anomaly that is not evident in TRA7. The  
480 period extending from 500 to 570 CE, is characterized by an anti-phased signal between  
481 FN1 and TRA7, and hence the RN Composite shows a smoothed signal during this time.

482

483 *5.2. Paleoclimate interpretation*

484 The variability of the global  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values for speleothems originating from the same  
485 cave is  $\sim 0.37$  ‰, which can be attributed to karst fractionation effects and not directly to  
486 hydroclimate, host rock geology, cave depth or cave microclimate instability (Treble et al.,  
487 2022). Some intervals in coeval RN stalagmites from the same cave are above this limit,  
488 however, we demonstrated based on the composite treatment associated with  
489 mineralogical corrections that the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability from the RN record is similar for  
490 stalagmites from the same cave and between the two studied caves throughout the period  
491 analyzed, further reinforcing the notion applied by previous studies that these records can  
492 be interpreted in a paleoclimatic context (Cruz et al., 2009; Utida et al., 2020). In addition,  
493 we consider the RN composite as representative of a precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signal, since the  
494 differences between stalagmite records are significantly reduced after age rearrangements  
495 and isotope normalization.

496 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  RN Composite allowed us to reconstruct precipitation changes influenced  
497 by the ITCZ position in N-NEB and its convective intensity. This interpretation is based on  
498 the spatial correlation between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  at GNIP stations and GPCP precipitation (Fig. 3).  
499 Highest precipitation amounts occur between March and May and they coincide with more  
500 depleted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  precipitation signals, consistent with the amount effect (Dansgaard, 1964).  
501 Hence, the most negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in RN stalagmites reflect an increased rainfall  
502 amount, as a consequence of an ITCZ position close to N-NEB (Cruz et al., 2009; Utida et  
503 al., 2019).

504 A generally drier climate prevailed in NEB after the 4.2 ky BP (kiloyear Before  
505 Present) event in the Mid-Holocene (Cruz et al., 2009). This led to the development of the  
506 Caatinga, a sparse vegetation cover which has persisted in NEB to the present (De  
507 Oliveira et al., 1999; Utida et al., 2020; Chiessi et al., 2021). These drier conditions favored  
508 soil erosion during rainfall events and reduced soil thickness (Utida et al., 2020). When

509 erosion events remove most of the soil cover, there is an increase in the carbon  
510 contribution from local bedrock (mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of 0.5 ‰), which leads to higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in  
511 the NEB stalagmites from RN. On the other hand, more negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in  
512 stalagmites are associated with increased soil coverage and soil production (Utida et al.,  
513 2020). In NEB soils have a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  average around -25 ‰, which suggests a dominant  
514 influence from C3 plants with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values ranging between -32‰ and -20‰ (Pessenda et  
515 al., 2010). Therefore, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  stalagmite results are interpreted as changes in soil  
516 production/erosion and the density of vegetation coverage (e.g., Utida et al., 2020;  
517 Azevedo et al., 2021; Novello et al., 2021).

518 The oldest period covered by the RN Composite, from 1200 to 500 BCE, is  
519 characterized by successive dry and wet multidecadal periods, with increased precipitation  
520 in N-NEB from 1060 to 750 BCE and from 460 to 290 BCE, as suggested by the negative  
521 departures seen in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values. During this last period, there is also a tendency from  
522 lower to higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, suggesting progressive surface soil erosion related to rainfall  
523 variability (Fig. 4), as interpreted by Utida et al. (2020). This period ends up in a stable  
524 interval, lasting from 300 BCE to 0 CE, with little fluctuation in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  
525 close to the bedrock signature at about -1‰ to +1‰, indicating a lack of soil above the  
526 cave. After an abrupt reduction of both isotopes around 200 CE, there was a brief time of  
527 increased precipitation and vegetation development. Between 200 CE and 1500 CE,  
528 decreased  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, reaching approximately -2‰, suggest a vegetation development  
529 above the cave. However,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values indicate significant variability with two main periods  
530 of dry conditions, from 270 to 530 CE and 1060 to 1500 CE. From 1500 CE to the present,  
531 more negative values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  represent wetter climatic conditions. The more negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
532 during this period can be related to denser vegetation that favored both soil production and  
533 stability above the cave. Due to the high range of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  results (more than 11‰), we

534 assume that the Prior Calcite Precipitation effect is negligible in our results. In addition, a  
535 more positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signal occurs around 280 BCE when the climate conditions were not  
536 the driest in the last 5000 years, thus probably representing a local environmental change.

537 During the last 2500 years, the RN Composite shows similar characteristics as the  
538 lower-resolution  $\delta\text{D}$  lipids record (n-C28 alkanolic acid from leaf waxes) obtained in  
539 Boqueirão Lake sediments (N-NEB) (Figs. 1 and 4). Both records show a more stable  
540 climatic signal between 400 BCE and 350 CE. From 500 to 1500 CE, enriched  $\delta\text{D}$  lipids  
541 obtained in Boqueirão Lake were interpreted as the beginning of a long dry phase (Utida et  
542 al., 2019), although the beginning of the dry period is slightly delayed when compared with  
543 the RN speleothem isotope record. This inconsistency might be related to different  
544 chronological controls between lake and stalagmite records and possibly also by the  
545 location of Boqueirão Lake that is affected by the ITCZ and winter breezes as it is located  
546 in the eastern coastal sector of NEB (Zular et al., 2018; Utida et al., 2019).

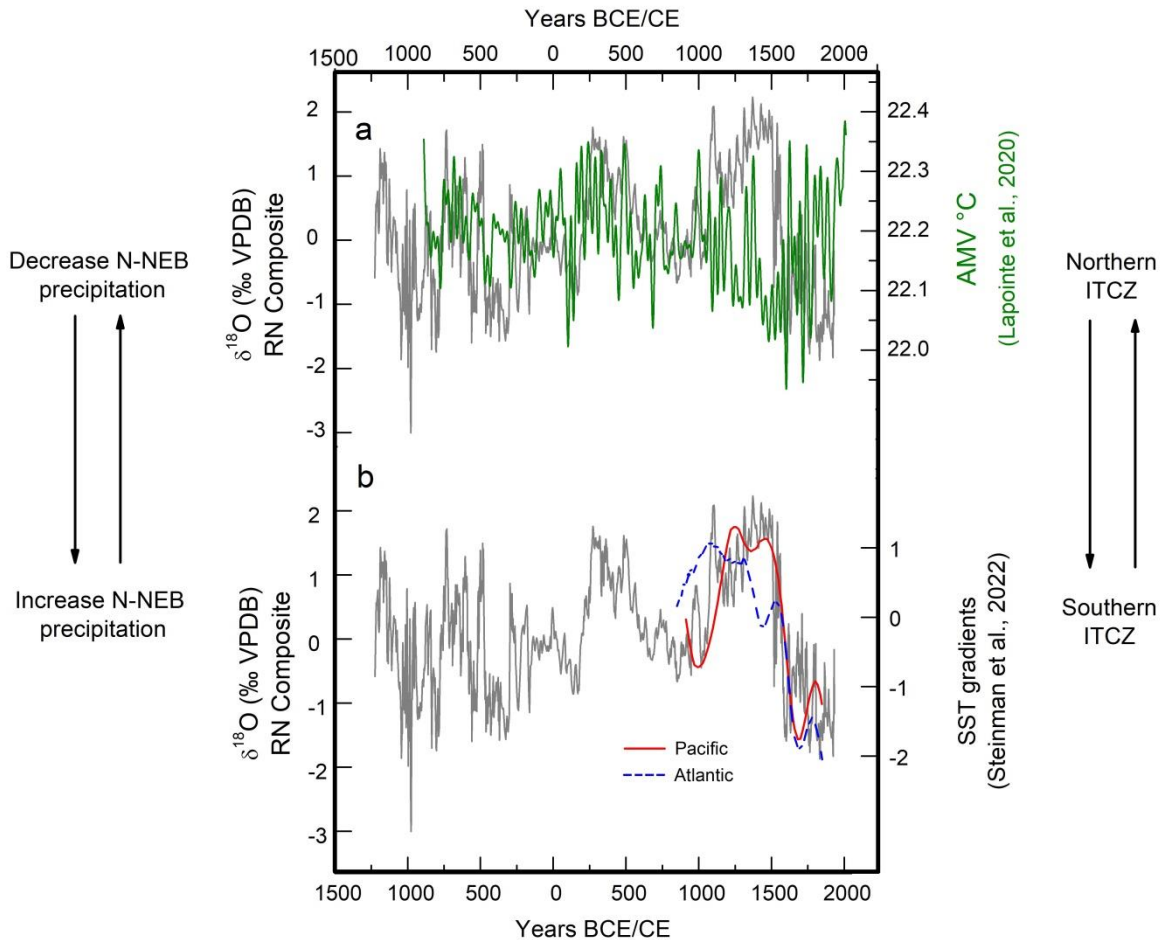
547 It is important to note that the RN record exhibits a climatic signal that is distinctly  
548 different from the from DV2 speleothem record from Diva de Maura Cave in S-NEB  
549 (Novello et al., 2012). Although both regions are affected by the same mesoscale  
550 atmospheric circulation, the RN site receives its precipitation directly from the ITCZ. At the  
551 S-NEB site, on the other hand, the primary source of precipitation is associated with the  
552 monsoon, as it is located too far inland to be affected directly by the ITCZ, as  
553 demonstrated by the correlations maps (Fig. 3). The general trend toward more positive  
554 values, as a result from insolation forcing, occurs from 150 to 1500 CE in the RN  
555 Composite, but from 600 to 1900 CE in the DV2 sample (Cruz et al., 2009; Novello et al.,  
556 2012). This trend is a result of the persistent dry conditions in the entire NEB region that  
557 suggests an ITCZ contraction in an orbital timescale, resulting in drier conditions over NEB  
558 during periods of maximum austral summer insolation (Cruz et al., 2009; Chiessi et al.,  
559 2021; Campos et al., 2022). However, the DV2 record does not document the same



560 multidecadal and centennial-scale climate variability as recorded in the RN speleothem  
561 record, nor the less dry interval from 600 to 1060 CE seen in the RN Composite (Fig. 4).  
562 As demonstrated by the spatial correlation maps between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values and regional  
563 precipitation (Fig. 3), the S-NEB and N-NEB regions are influenced by distinct rainfall  
564 regimes whose peaks of precipitation arise during the summer monsoon season and the  
565 autumn ITCZ, respectively. Our data provide evidence for a spatial and temporal  
566 distinction of NEB climate patterns for the past that can be interpreted as differences in  
567 seasonality during the last millennia. Furthermore, contemporaneous dry or wet events in  
568 both N-NEB and S-NEB suggest the occurrence of larger regional climate changes with  
569 higher environmental impacts.

570         When comparing N-NEB and eastern Amazon conditions, it is evident that the RN  
571 Composite shares some similarities with the Paraíso stalagmite record (Wang et al.,  
572 2017), due to the contribution of ITCZ precipitation in both places. But there are also  
573 important differences (Fig. 4). The RN Composite shows lower  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values between 500  
574 and 1000 CE, compared to the earlier period, while Paraíso shows gradually decreasing  
575 values around the same period, suggesting a slight increase in precipitation in both areas.  
576 From 1160 to 1500 CE, abrupt increases in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values are seen in both records, which  
577 indicate abrupt and prolonged drought conditions due to a northward ITCZ migration.  
578 However, around 1100 CE, centered in the MCA, and the period from 1500 to 1750 CE,  
579 Paraíso is antiphased with the RN Composite and in phase with the Cariaco Basin (Haug  
580 et al., 2001), which is inconsistent with the notion of an ITCZ-induced regional precipitation  
581 change. Instead, a zonally-oriented precipitation change within the ITCZ domain over  
582 Brazil is required to explain the anti-phased behavior between precipitation in N-NEB and  
583 the eastern Amazon, and similarities between Cariaco and the eastern Amazon.

584 We investigate the potential relationship between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in our RN  
585 speleothems and an ITCZ displacement toward the warmer hemisphere to explain  
586 paleoclimate variability observed in N-NEB. In order to test this hypothesis, the RN  
587 Composite was compared with a reconstruction of Atlantic Multidecadal Variability (AMV)  
588 (Lapointe et al., 2020) (Fig. 5). Some studies suggest that the warm phase of the AMV  
589 (when the North Atlantic presents warm SST) forces the mean ITCZ to shift to the north of  
590 its climatological position, thereby causing a reduction in NEB rainfall (Knight et al., 2006;  
591 Levine et al., 2018), while a recent study suggests that the warm phase of the AMV would  
592 cause a weakening of the ITCZ from February to July (Maksic et al., 2022). The driest  
593 periods from 750 to 500 BCE, 200 to 580 CE and 1100 and 1500 CE occurred during long,  
594 relatively warm AMV anomalies. The warm average temperature of 22.19°C for the period,  
595 would force a northward ITCZ displacement or an ITCZ weakening, and in both cases the  
596 result is low precipitation over NEB. The lowest AMV temperature (cold phase) around  
597 1500 CE might be related to the abrupt dry conditions seen in the RN Composite and  
598 suggests an increased equatorial Atlantic SST, and consequently increased precipitation  
599 over N-NEB (Fig. 5). Opposite conditions between the RN Composite and the AMV can be  
600 observed during the Current Warm Period, which requires further investigation. The  
601 relationship between North Atlantic temperature and ITCZ location can also explain the  
602 Bond 2 Event recorded in the RN Composite. It is marked by increased precipitation  
603 around 1000 BCE, when the ITCZ was displaced toward the south. This southerly ITCZ  
604 displacement might be attributed to persistently lower temperatures in the North Atlantic  
605 (Bond et al., 2001; Broccoli et al., 2006) caused by the slowdown of the Atlantic Meridional  
606 Overturning Circulation (Jackson et al., 2015).



607

608

Figure 5 -  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  RN Composite compared with (a) Atlantic Multidecadal Variability

609

(Lapointe et al., 2020) and (b) Pacific and Atlantic Sea Surface Temperature gradients

610

calculated (z-score) according to Steinman et al. (2022). Atlantic:  $2\sigma$  range of 1,000

611

realizations of the Atlantic meridional SST gradient (north – south). Pacific: median of

612

1,000 realizations of the Pacific zonal SST gradient (west – east).

613

614

Steinmann et al. (2022) suggested a southward displacement of the ITCZ during

615

the Common Era toward the southern hemisphere in response to changes in the Pacific

616

and Atlantic meridional SST gradients. Indeed, our RN Composite is dynamically

617

consistent with these SST gradient changes and in agreement with the hypothesis of a

618

north-south oscillation of the latitudinal ITCZ position in the tropical Atlantic during the last

619 millennia, modulating precipitation over N-NEB. When the tropical South Atlantic and  
620 tropical eastern Pacific are anomalously warm – negative z-score (cold - positive z-score)  
621 (Fig. 5) the ITCZ is displaced to the south (north), resulting in increased (decreased)  
622 precipitation over NEB. The abrupt changes in N-NEB precipitation around 1100 and 1500  
623 CE occur approximately synchronous with the SST gradient changes, confirming how  
624 sensitive the RN speleothems respond to changes in the ITCZ latitudinal position (Fig. 5).  
625 The same is observed during the period equivalent to the LIA, between 1560 and 1800 CE  
626 considering N-NEB, S-NEB and eastern Amazon records, when both Pacific and South  
627 Atlantic became warmer (Fig. 5). According to Steinmann et al. (2022), during the LIA  
628 period warm SST in the eastern tropical Pacific and in the tropical South Atlantic would  
629 promote a southward displacement of the ITCZ. This is supported by other records from  
630 the western Amazon and the tropical Andes that document an intensified SASM during the  
631 LIA, fueled by the southern location of the ITCZ (e.g., Vuille et al., 2012; Apaéstegui et al.,  
632 2018), which is also very well recorded in other archives around the tropics (Leichleitner et  
633 al., 2017; Campos et al., 2019; Orrison et al., 2022; Steinmann et al., 2022).

634         According to Kayano et al. (2020, 2022), during the last century, dry conditions  
635 over N-NEB and the eastern Amazon are present when AMV and Pacific Decadal  
636 Variability (PDV) are both in their warm phases, or when the AMV is in a cold phase and  
637 the PDV in its warm phase. On the other hand, when AMV and PDV are both in their cold  
638 phase, precipitation over the Amazon is anti-phased with NEB, resulting in decreased  
639 precipitation over the Amazon and increased precipitation over NEB. This zonally aligned  
640 precipitation signal over eastern tropical South America is the result of joint perturbations  
641 of both the regional Walker and Hadley Cell's produced by teleconnection between the two  
642 ocean basins (He et al., 2021). This joint interaction between the two basins can help  
643 explain the results seen during the cold AMV phase between 1500 and 1750 CE (Fig. 5),

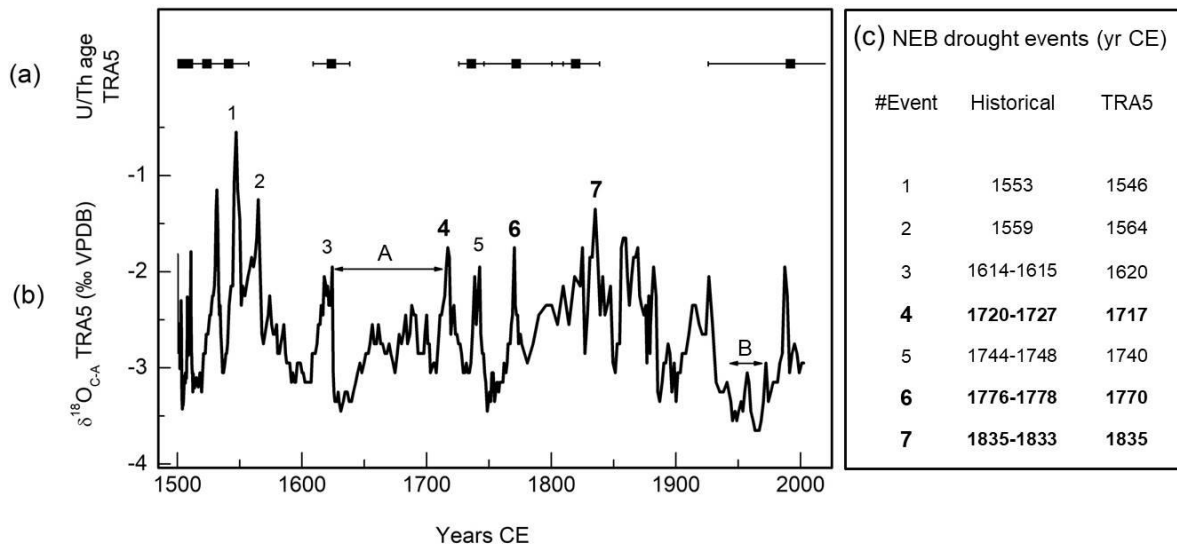
644 when precipitation over N-NEB increased, but the eastern Amazon saw a decrease in  
 645 precipitation (Fig. 4).

646

647 *5.3. TRA5  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stalagmite and extreme drought events*

648 The last 500 years were the wettest of the last two millennia and the onset of this  
 649 period was forced by Atlantic and Pacific SST, according to our results (Figs. 4 and 5).  
 650 Superimposed on these long-term negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  anomalies, distinct peaks are recorded in  
 651 the TRA5  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record from 1500 to 1850 CE (Fig. 6). These drought events are visible in  
 652 this record thanks to its higher deposition rate (faster growth) and thus higher temporal  
 653 resolution of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record when compared to other stalagmites used in our study. No  
 654 preferred periodicity of these events is apparent in our record, preventing comparison with  
 655 ENSO events, for example. There exist no precipitation reconstructions or observations  
 656 from this region between 1500 and 1850 CE, aside from historical drought records.

657



658

659 Figure 6 – TRA5 record and equivalent historical record. (a) U/Th age is  
 660 represented by black dots and horizontal lines indicate age uncertainty. (b)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{C-A}}$  record,  
 661 numbers represent the peak of a drought event. Bold numbers represent the most severe

662 drought events. A - Few drought events interval from 1620 to 1970s period. B - 1940s to  
663 1970s period. (c) Occurrence of historical drought years compiled from Lima and  
664 Magalhães (2018).

665

666         Although the age model errors of TRA5 are larger and could limit our ability to  
667 attribute  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  peaks to specific single-year events, it still allows for a comparison between  
668 these abrupt events with historical records to demonstrate the long-term context of abrupt  
669 drought events in modern human history. We thus consider our speleothem-based record  
670 as a first attempt to reconstruct precipitation in Northeast Brazil that would allow for a  
671 comparison with historical droughts. If our speleothem records regional hydroclimate, it  
672 should retain a signal of the most intense droughts over NEB that are known to have  
673 struck the region based on the available historical literature of Brazil.

674         The highest peaks correspond to extreme drought events, such as the ones  
675 centered around 1546 and 1564 CE (points 1 and 2 of Fig. 6). They can be associated  
676 with observed historical droughts that took place in 1553 and 1559 CE. These were the  
677 first two events recorded in Brazil by the Portuguese Jesuits that led to a reported  
678 reduction in riverflow in the tributaries of the main rivers of NEB (Serafim Leite, 1938; Hue  
679 et al., 2006; Lima and Magalhães, 2018).

680         Another relevant drought according to TRA5 is centered around 1620 CE (point 3  
681 of Fig. 6). This drought is recorded in historical documents and lasted from 1614 to 1615  
682 CE, although it did not have the same socioeconomic impact as the two prior droughts  
683 (Lima and Magalhães, 2018). In fact, between the 16th and 17th century there are few  
684 historical drought records (period A in Fig 6). One hypothesis to explain this hiatus is the  
685 low population density of the NEB territory, resulting in poor historical documentation of  
686 such events. However, according to the TRA5 record, between the event 2 ~1564 CE and  
687 event 4 ~1717 CE (Fig. 6), the only drought peak occurs in 1620 CE, confirming an almost

688 150-year long period of relative climate stability with prevailing wet conditions in NEB.  
689 These favorable conditions certainly helped with the initial population establishment at the  
690 beginning of 16th century, and led to the peak era of sugar cane production in NEB around  
691 1650 CE along coastal areas (Taylor, 1970).

692         During the 18th century NEB experienced a significant increase in rural population,  
693 characterized by the establishment of large cattle farms (Fausto, 2006). In this period,  
694 three droughts are documented in the TRA5 record (Fig. 6). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  excursion around  
695 1717 CE (point 4 in Fig. 6) can be associated with the drought that lasted from 1720 to  
696 1727 CE; the first big drought in NEB, which according to historical documents, caused the  
697 mortality of wildlife and cattle, and affected the agricultural productivity. Entire Indigenous  
698 tribes died of starvation as a consequence of this drought and a concurrent smallpox  
699 (variola) epidemic, which also killed other ethnic groups, especially the native population  
700 and black people enslaved during that period (Alves, 1929).

701         The following event around 1740 CE (point 5 in Fig. 6) was also recorded in  
702 historical documents, but did not seem to be associated with major impacts. However, all  
703 of these droughts were probably responsible for a drop in sugar-cane exports to Europe  
704 during the first half of the 18th century (Galloway, 1975).

705         Another drought occurred from 1776 to 1778 CE, and is imprinted in our record  
706 around 1770 CE (point 6 in Fig. 6). This event was again accompanied by a variola  
707 outbreak probably spread by a lowering in the sanitary conditions and increased people  
708 agglomeration. The association between this disease and droughts might explain the  
709 economic and health crisis, since people started to migrate to the cities looking for  
710 treatment and food, leading the Brazilian Governor to transfer infected people to isolated  
711 lands, resulting in thousands of deaths (Rosado, 1981). Finally, the most recent peak in  
712 our data displays an event around 1835 CE (point 7 of Fig. 6), associated with a drought  
713 that lasted from 1833 to 1835, reaching the northernmost areas of NEB, and leading to the

714 largest human migration to other Brazilian regions (Lima and Magalhães, 2018). The  
715 droughts centered around 1770 and 1835 had a huge impact on society according the  
716 historical records (Lima and Magalhães, 2018).

717         Although the precision of the TRA5 speleothem chronology is reduced during the  
718 last ~150 years, we observe that the wet period from the 1940s to the 1970s (line B in Fig.  
719 6) is coincident with the mid-20th century break in global warming that has been discussed  
720 as being forced by aerosol emissions (e.g., Booth et al., 2012; Undorf et al., 2018). Our  
721 data suggest an increased precipitation in this period that is supported by a trend in  
722 decreasing values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in corals from the northeast coast of N-NEB, equally interpreted  
723 as an ITCZ southward displacement caused by a decreasing SST gradient between the  
724 North and South Atlantic (Pereira et al., 2022).

725         Our TRA5 stalagmite data record some of the most important droughts that  
726 occurred in NEB between the 16th and the 18th centuries, demonstrating the potential of  
727 stalagmite studies in monitoring abrupt and extreme climate events through time.  
728 However, the speleothems do not record all documented historical dry events, as some  
729 droughts may not have affected the Trapiá Cave region, or they were not strong or long  
730 enough to affect the isotopic signal of the groundwater storage in the epikarst.  
731 Furthermore, the period between 1620 and 1717 CE is devoid of any abrupt drought  
732 events in the TRA5 stalagmite, which is again consistent with the historical records. It is  
733 also important to mention that Lima and Magalhães (2018) report all drought events in  
734 NEB and do not indicate their location. We suggest that progressive changes in the mean  
735 ITCZ position along the last 500 years might be responsible for historical droughts that  
736 affected the seasonality of N-NEB and caused abrupt and strong drought events.  
737 Additional drought-sensitive high-resolution records will be required to improve our  
738 understanding of these historical droughts events in NEB.

739



740 *6. Conclusions*

741 We present the first high-resolution record for the ITCZ in N-NEB that covers the  
742 last 3200 years and also records the major historical droughts that took place in NEB  
743 during the last 500 years. Based on stalagmite oxygen isotopes, we describe the regions'  
744 paleoclimate variability for the last 2500 years and its connections to remote forcing  
745 mechanisms such as the AMV and changes in Pacific and Atlantic SST gradients.

746 The N-NEB record presents a trend toward drier conditions from 1000 BCE to 1500  
747 CE as is also being observed in the Diva de Maura Cave in S-NEB, interpreted as an ITCZ  
748 contraction and SASM weakening on an orbital timescale, respectively. Although the two  
749 records are influenced by distinctly different climate systems with different precipitation  
750 seasonality, ITCZ and SASM dynamics are known to be closely linked (Vuille et al., 2012).

751 During the last millennia, ITCZ dynamics in the tropical Atlantic – South America  
752 sector cannot be explained solely by north-south ITCZ migrations or one single forcing  
753 mechanism. We propose a zonally non-uniform behavior of the ITCZ during the event  
754 centered around 1100 CE and the drought events between 1500 and 1750 CE, when the  
755 RN record is anti-phased with the Paraíso cave record from the eastern Amazon. This  
756 zonal behavior would be forced by the interactions between AMV and PDV modes that  
757 changed the regional Walker cell position and ITCZ intensity/extent and thus affecting  
758 precipitation variability between the eastern Amazon and N-NEB.

759 The historical droughts discussed are the longest drought events in Northeast  
760 Brazil that occurred within the zone of influence of the ITCZ, and are thus probably the  
761 most likely to be recorded by stalagmites, according to our interpretation. The northern and  
762 southern NEB are influenced by different climatic systems, the ITCZ and SASM,  
763 respectively, and this can explain, in part, the differences between historical and  
764 stalagmite records of Rio Grande do Norte. These historical droughts recorded in the RN  
765 stalagmite suggest that much of the socioeconomic development of the NEB, which

766 occurred after 1500 CE, benefitted from conditions that were unusually humid in a long-  
767 term context. During the last 500 years the technological development, infrastructure,  
768 civilization and population growth relied on more abundant resources. On the other hand,  
769 our data also shows how short, abrupt drought events significantly affected human  
770 population and other life forms, especially when associated with anthropogenic changes in  
771 the environment. These droughts induced an environment favorable for spreading of  
772 disease, starvation, lack of water, environmental degradation and crowding of people  
773 seeking help, among other problems. These events demonstrate the social and  
774 environmental impacts associated with extreme events in this vulnerable environment and  
775 our speleothem work documents the enormous potential of these archives to reconstruct  
776 the drought history in this region.

777

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795

#### 796 *Data availability*

797 The dataset generated as part of this study will be available in the PANGAEA  
798 website.

799

#### 800 *Author contribution*

801 G.U. and F.W.C designed the experiment, performed isotopic analysis and  
802 prepared the manuscript with help from the coauthors; F.W.C. directed the project and  
803 revised all versions of manuscript; M.V. helped with the interpretation and revision of the  
804 manuscript; A.A. contributed with statistical analysis and interpretation; V.F.N. contributed  
805 with the paleoclimate interpretations and revision of the manuscript; G.S. and J.M. helped  
806 with interpretation and revision of the manuscript; F.R.D.A. provided and interpreted the  
807 mineralogical analysis; H.Z. helped with U/Th analysis and revision of the manuscript, and  
808 H.C. and R.L.E. coordinated the laboratory procedures for U/Th analysis.

809

#### 810 *Competing interests*

811 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or  
812 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this  
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814

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