



1 **Tracing seasonal signals in dry/wet status for regions with**  
2 **simultaneous rain and heat from Eastern and Central Asia**  
3 **since the Last Glacial Maximum**

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13  
14 **Abstract**

15 The global monsoon region with the summer precipitation regime and the  
16 Mediterranean climate region with the winter precipitation regime showed opposite  
17 dry/wet evolution since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). The remarkable difference  
18 in summer precipitation regime and winter precipitation regime reveal the seasonal  
19 signals of precipitation in multi-time scale climate change. Most studies revealed that  
20 the dry/wet status with the summer precipitation regime in Eastern and Central Asia  
21 (EA and CA) contradicted those with the winter precipitation regime in CA. Based on  
22 the comprehensive study of modern observation datasets, model outputs of eight



23 climate models from the Paleoclimate Model Intercomparison Project phase 3 (PMIP3)  
24 and proxy records from EA and CA, here we show that seasonal signals of precipitation  
25 derived from the simultaneity of rain and heat periods could govern the difference and  
26 linkage in dry/wet status from EA and CA. EOF analysis results of mean annual  
27 precipitation uncover different precipitation regimes in EA and CA. However, the  
28 similarity between EA and the east of CA, indicated by EOF results of summer and  
29 winter precipitation, suggested seasonal signals of precipitation are the primary factor  
30 causing the linkage in dry/wet status at short-term timescales. In particular, summer and  
31 winter precipitation in EA and CA is associated with the Asian monsoon, westerlies,  
32 ENSO, NAO, and PDO. At long-term timescales, the compilation of 42 proxy records  
33 since the LGM in EA and CA reveals parallel dry/wet changes in EA and the east of CA  
34 as well, attributing to seasonal signals triggered by the insolation in different seasons.  
35 PMIP3 multi-model simulation between the LGM and Mid-Holocene (MH) in summer  
36 and winter visually was conducted to analyze paleoclimate mechanisms of difference  
37 and linkage in dry/wet status from EA and CA. Results show that summer insolation  
38 influences the meridional temperature gradient and sea level pressure in the summer,  
39 changing the intensity of the westerly winds and summer monsoon and further  
40 controlling the summer precipitation in EA and the east of CA. Meanwhile, winter  
41 insolation contributes to the general warming in EA and the core region of CA, and in  
42 turn results in lower relative humidity, which ultimately increases winter precipitation  
43 during the LGM. Overall, we suggest, in addition to the traditional difference caused  
44 by different precipitation regimes, that dry/wet status in EA and CA universally have



45 inter-regional connections affected by seasonal signals of precipitation at multi-time  
46 scales.

47

#### 48 **Keywords**

49 seasonal signals; Eastern Asia (EA); Central Asia (CA); dry/wet status; multi-time  
50 scales; Last Glacial Maximum

51

## 52 **1 Introduction**

53 As typical midlatitude climatic regions, Eastern and Central Asia (EA and CA) are  
54 commonly featured with vigorous circulations and are dominated by two atmospheric  
55 systems, namely midlatitude westerlies and Asian monsoon (Li, 1990; Zhang and Lin,  
56 1992; Chen et al., 2008; Nagashima et al., 2011). These two regions are generally  
57 characterized by opposite climate and environment changes, embodied in water  
58 resources, vegetation cover and ecosystems, which gives rise to their different response  
59 to climate change (Sorg et al., 2012; Zhang and Feng, 2018). CA, where precipitation  
60 is scarce throughout the year, is the largest arid region in the mid-latitudes dominated  
61 by westerlies (Chen et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2015a). On the contrary, affected by the  
62 Asian summer monsoon that carries water vapor from the Ocean, the monsoon-  
63 dominated EA has more precipitation (Wang et al., 2017). Therefore, exploring  
64 spatiotemporal climate and environment changes in EA and CA has attracted much  
65 research interest.

66 Over the past few years, there have been many comparative studies for dry/wet



67 changes at multi-time scales from EA and CA. Early works suggested that the climate  
68 change mode of ‘cold-wet’ or ‘warm-dry’ occurred in northwestern China during the  
69 last glacial/interglacial cycle, which is different from the ‘cold-dry’ or ‘warm-wet’  
70 modes of the monsoon climate (Li, 1990; Han and Qu, 1992; Han et al., 1993). Based  
71 on the integration of paleoclimate records, modern meteorological observation data and  
72 paleoclimate simulations, Chen et al. (2008, 2009, 2019) revealed the ‘westerlies-  
73 dominated climatic regime’ in arid CA from millennium to interdecadal timescales,  
74 which is out-of-phase or anti-phased with the dry/wet status in the monsoon-dominated  
75 regions. However, the paleoclimate records in part regions of CA provided  
76 asynchronous climate evolution history, in contradiction with the dry/wet changes  
77 caused by the westerlies (An et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018). The  
78 latest studies proposed that the persistent weakening of the East Asian summer  
79 monsoon since 1958, causing an increasing contribution of the monsoonal water vapor  
80 transport, thereby enhancing summer precipitation in arid CA (Chen et al., 2021a; Chen  
81 et al., 2021b). Therefore, further research is needed to explain dry/wet changes in  
82 different regions and explore the difference and linkage in climate change modes from  
83 EA and CA at multi-time scales.

84 The seasonal signals of precipitation derived from the simultaneity of rain and heat  
85 periods, behaving as that the summer half-year at short-term timescales and warm  
86 period at long-term timescales has more precipitation than the winter half-year and cold  
87 period respectively, is an important phenomenon in climate change in EA and CA at the  
88 multi-time scale. This study aims to focus on the transitional zone in the arid and semi-



89 arid region of eastern CA where the westerlies and the monsoon interact and have the  
90 summer precipitation regime the same as the monsoon-dominated EA. Utilizing  
91 modern observations, paleoclimate proxies, and model simulations, we conducted a  
92 comprehensive analysis for dry/wet status in EA and CA at multi-time scales based on  
93 seasonal signals of precipitation.

94

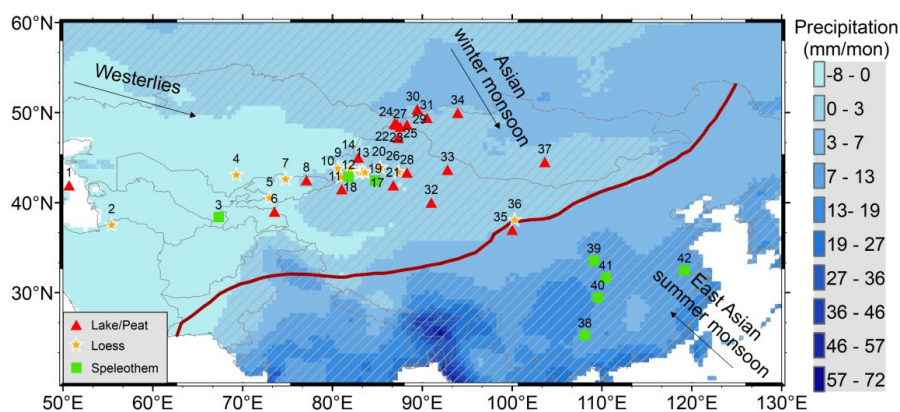
## 95 **2 Materials and methods**

### 96 ***2.1 Study area***

97 CA is the largest arid and semi-arid areas in the mid-latitude hinterland of the  
98 Eurasian continent, extending from the Caspian Sea in the west to the modern Asian  
99 summer monsoon limit in the east, comprising the central Asian countries, NW China,  
100 and southern Mongolian Plateau (Fig. 1). Considering that the strength and trajectory  
101 of monsoon circulation is a major control on moisture in EA, we viewed the monsoon  
102 China in the east and south of the modern Asian summer monsoon limit as EA (Fig. 1).  
103 We calculated the precipitation difference between the summer (April, May, June, July,  
104 August, and September) and winter (January, February, March, October, November,  
105 and December) half year over 1971-2020, and then defined the region greater than 0  
106 mm as the simultaneous region of rain and heat periods (Fig. 1, gray slash). Eastern CA  
107 belongs to the simultaneous region of rain and heat periods. The seasonality perspective  
108 implies that different precipitation regimes could affect the difference and linkage in  
109 climate change modes from EA and CA at the multi-time scale. Taking seasonal signals  
110 as the dividing criteria, the core region of CA is characterized by a wet cold-season



111 climate, whereas EA and eastern CA is characterized by a wet warm-season climate  
112 (Fig. 1).



113  
114 **Figure 1** Overview map showing the paleoclimate record sites selected in this study from EA and CA, the difference  
115 between summer and winter precipitation over 1965-2014 (shade), and the dominant circulation systems, including  
116 the westerlies, Asian winter monsoon and East Asian summer monsoon. The modern Asian summer monsoon limit  
117 (red solid line) is summarized by Chen et al. (2008, 2019). The gray slash represents the simultaneous region of the  
118 rain and heat periods.

119

## 120 **2.2 Modern observation and analytical methods**

121 The monthly high-resolution ( $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ) land precipitation data (referred to as  
122 CRU TS4.06) are selected from a Climatic Research Unit (CRU) updated gridded  
123 climate dataset in the University of East Anglia (van der Schrier et al., 2013; Harris et  
124 al., 2014; Barichivich et al., 2021). The CRU monthly climate archives obtain from the  
125 auspices of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) in league with the US  
126 National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA, via its National  
127 Climatic Data Center, NCDC). Global Reanalysis 1 dataset including monthly mean  
128 geopotential height, zonal wind, and meridional wind is collected from the National  
129 Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research



130 (NCEP/NCAR) (Kalnay et al., 1996). The reanalysis datasets have a horizontal  
131 resolution of  $2.5^\circ$  in latitude and longitude and a vertical resolution of 17 pressure levels  
132 from 1000 to 10 hPa. The high-resolution monthly averaged data high resolution for  
133 the vertical integral water vapor from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather  
134 Forecasts (ECMWF) reanalysis v5 (ERA5), intending to be used as a meteorological  
135 forcing dataset for land surface and hydrological models, is used in this study. This  
136 dataset is from 1979 to the present with a spatial resolution of  $0.25^\circ$  in latitude and  
137 longitude and a single level integrated from the surface to the top of the atmosphere  
138 (Hersbach et al., 2020).

139 We used the National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI) Pacific  
140 Decadal Oscillation (PDO) index based on NOAA's extended reconstruction of SSTs  
141 (ERSST Version 5) to analyze long-lived El Niño-like pattern of Pacific climate  
142 variability (Zhang et al. 1997; Mantua and Hare, 2002). The data can be obtained at  
143 <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v5/index/ersst.v5.pdo.dat>. The Niño 3.4  
144 index is the most commonly used index to define El Niño and La Niña events. We  
145 selected the Niño 3.4 of area-averaged SST from  $5^\circ\text{S}$ - $5^\circ\text{N}$  and  $170$ - $120^\circ\text{W}$  using the  
146 HadISST1 dataset (Rayner et al., 2003). The data can be obtained at  
147 [https://psl.noaa.gov/gcos\\_wgsp/Timeseries/Nino34/](https://psl.noaa.gov/gcos_wgsp/Timeseries/Nino34/). Positive values of the North  
148 Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index are typically associated with stronger midlatitude  
149 westerlies and increased water vapor content from the North Atlantic. We used the  
150 Hurrell NAO index (station-based) to investigate the impact factor of midlatitude  
151 westerlies (Hurrell, 1995; Hurrell and Deser, 2009). The data can be obtained at



152 [https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/sites/default/files/2022-10/nao\\_station\\_monthly.txt](https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/sites/default/files/2022-10/nao_station_monthly.txt).

153 Empirical orthogonal function (EOF) is a powerful method for dimensionality  
154 reduction and pattern extraction. EOF can decompose multidimensional climate data  
155 from different locations into spatial (EOF modes) and temporal functions (principal  
156 components). Therefore, to investigate the spatiotemporal variations of precipitation at  
157 the interannual timescale over EA and CA, the EOF analysis was applied to the CRU  
158 TS4.06 gridded precipitation data and ERA5 vertical integral water vapor. We focused  
159 on the first two leading modes that objectively account for the majority of dry/wet status  
160 in EA and CA (Lorenz, 1956).

161

### 162 ***2.3 Calculation of Monsoon and westerly wind index***

163 The East Asian summer monsoon index (EASMI) is defined as the 850 hPa  
164 average summer meridional wind speed from June to August over (27°N~37°N,  
165 110°E~120°E) encompassing the East Asian summer monsoon domain (Liu et al.,  
166 2014). The equation is as follows:

$$167 \text{EASMI} = \overline{V_{850}}(27^{\circ}\sim 37^{\circ}\text{N}, 110^{\circ}\sim 120^{\circ}\text{E})$$

168 The westerly wind index (WWI) is defined as the zonal difference of the 500 hPa  
169 averaged geopotential height over (35°N~50°N, 70°E~110°E) (Li et al., 2008). The  
170 equation is as follows:

$$171 \text{WWI} = \overline{H_{35^{\circ}}} - \overline{H_{50^{\circ}}} = \frac{1}{17} [\sum_{\gamma=1}^{17} H(\gamma, 35^{\circ}\text{N}) - \sum_{\gamma=1}^{17} H(\gamma, 50^{\circ}\text{N})]$$

172 where  $H$  is the 500 hPa average height geopotential,  $\gamma$  is the number of longitudes  
173 taken along the latitude circle with a spacing of 2.5°.





174 The East Asian winter monsoon index (EAWMI) is defined as the difference  
175 between the 300 hPa averaged zonal wind speed from December to February over  
176 (27.5°~37.5°N, 110°~170°E) and (50°~60°N, 80°~140°E) (Jhun and Lee, 2004). The  
177 equation is as follows:

$$178 \quad \text{EAWMI} = \overrightarrow{U}_{300}(27.5^{\circ}\sim 37.5^{\circ}\text{N}, 110^{\circ}\sim 170^{\circ}\text{E}) - \overrightarrow{U}_{300}(50^{\circ}\sim 60^{\circ}\text{N}, 80^{\circ}\sim 140^{\circ}\text{E})$$

179 The calculation of EASMI, WWI, and EAWMI all rely on the NCEP Reanalysis 1  
180 dataset.

181

#### 182 ***2.4 Regional paleoclimatic proxy data***

183 Here we compiled various paleoclimate records to reconstruct long-term climate  
184 variability and primarily paid close attention to paleo-precipitation and moisture  
185 changes since the LGM. We set three criteria to collect all the published proxy records  
186 from EA and CA in our study. Firstly, the records should be located primarily in the  
187 intersection encompassing the simultaneous region of rain and heat periods in EA and  
188 CA, which is in favor of investigating the difference and linkage in climate change  
189 modes from EA and CA. Accordingly, some typical records climatologically influenced  
190 by midlatitude westerlies in cores of EA and CA were selected for comparative analysis.  
191 Secondly, the proxies should be clearly indicative of changes in effective moisture or  
192 precipitation which have been confirmed by the original investigators. Third, the record  
193 length should cover the most period since LGM without documented depositional  
194 hiatuses. Fourth, the fluctuation and variation of proxy records should be predominantly  
195 forced by climate change, rather than human activities (Manoj et al., 2020; Chen et al.,



196 2021c, 2022). Following the above criteria, a total of 42 proxy records from lakes, peats,  
 197 loess, and stalagmites since the LGM were compiled for EA and CA (Fig. 1), enabling  
 198 us to comprehensively review the LGM moisture evolution of the region. In light of  
 199 seasonal signals of precipitation, 35 records are from the summer precipitation region,  
 200 and seven records are from the winter precipitation region. Detailed information about  
 201 these selected proxy records is presented in Table 1.

202 **Table 1.** Paleoclimate records selected in this study.

C o d e	Section name	Record type	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m a.s.l)	Precipitation regime	Dating materials	Dating Method	Time period (cal ka BP)	Proxy	Proxy indication	References
1	Caspian Sea	Lake	41.93	50.67	-28	winter	Ostracods	<sup>14</sup> C	12.4-2.4	Pollen	Moisture	Leroy et al. (2014)
2	YE section	Loess	37.60	55.43	383	winter	Quartz	OSL	11.8-0	δ <sup>13</sup> C <sub>org</sub>	Moisture	Wang et al. (2020)
3	Ton Cave	Speleothem	38.40	67.34	3226	winter	Carbonate	U-Th	135-0	δ <sup>13</sup> C	Moisture	Cheng et al. (2016)
4	Valikh anov section	Loess	43.17	69.31	1000	winter	Bulk organic matter, charcoal	<sup>14</sup> C	46-0	δ <sup>13</sup> C	Moisture	Ran and Feng (2014)
5	Osh section	Loess	40.61	73.01	1038	winter	Humins	<sup>14</sup> C	30-0	Grain-size, MS	Effective moisture	Li et al. (2021)
6	Lake Karakul	Lake	39.02	73.53	3915	winter	plant remains, bulk sediments, living charophyte	<sup>14</sup> C	~29-0	TIC, C/N, δ <sup>13</sup> C <sub>carb</sub> , δ <sup>18</sup> O	Moisture	Heinecke et al. (2017)
7	BSK section	Loess	42.70	74.78	1432	winter	Bulk organic matter	<sup>14</sup> C	26-0	Grain-size, MS, color proxies	Moisture	Li et al. (2020a)
8	Lake Issyk-Kul	Lake	42.50	77.10	1607	summer	Bulk sediments	<sup>14</sup> C	12.75-3.6	δ <sup>18</sup> O, δ <sup>13</sup> C, Pollen, CaCO <sub>3</sub> , MS	Moisture	Ricketts et al. (2001); Leroy et al. (2021)
9	HC14 section	Loess	43.88	80.60	554	summer	Bulk organic matter	<sup>14</sup> C	10-0	MS	Moisture	Jia et al. (2021)
10	ZS section	Loess	42.93	80.96	1650	summer	Quartz	OSL	12.6-0	Grain-size, MS	Moisture	Kang et al. (2022)



11	Lake Sayram	Lake	41.50	81.03	2072	summer	Bulk sediments	$^{14}\text{C}$	13.8-0	Pollen	Moisture	Jiang et al. (2013, 2022)
12	Kesang Cave	Speleothem	42.87	81.75	~2000	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	22.8-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Precipitation	Cheng et al. (2012, 2016)
13	Yili section	Loess	43.86	81.97	928	summer	Charcoal	$^{14}\text{C}$	15-0	A/C ratio	Moisture	Li et al. (2011)
14	Lake Aibi	Lake	45.01	82.86	200	summer	Bulk sediments	$^{14}\text{C}$	13.8-0	Pollen	Moisture	Wang et al. (2013)
15	XEB section	Loess	43.42	82.99	888	summer	Quartz	OSL	12-0	Grain-size, MS	Moisture	Kang et al. (2020)
16	TLD16 section	Loess	43.36	83.02	1567	summer	Quartz	OSL	20-0	MS	Moisture	Jia et al. (2021)
17	ZKT section	Loess	43.53	83.30	846	summer	Bulk organic matter	$^{14}\text{C}$	16-0	MS	Moisture	Chen et al. (2016); Jia et al. (2021)
18	KS16 section	Loess	43.43	83.62	1314	summer	Quartz	OSL	12-0	MS	Moisture	Jia et al. (2021)
19	Baluk Cave	Speleothem	42.43	84.73	2400	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	9.3-0	Trace elements	Moisture	Liu et al. (2020)
20	LJW10 section	Loess	43.97	85.33	1462	summer	Quartz and K-feldspar	OSL	16-0	MS	Moisture	Chen et al. (2016)
21	Lake Bosten	Lake	41.94	86.76	1048	summer	Bulk organic matter, tree leaves	$^{14}\text{C}$	8.2-0	Pollen	Moisture	Huang et al. (2009)
22	Narenxia peat	Peat	48.80	86.90	1760	summer	Bulk peat, lake mud	$^{14}\text{C}$	11.8-0	Pollen, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Annual precipitation	Feng et al. (2017); Zhang and Feng (2018)
23	Lake Kanas	Lake	48.70	87.01	1365	summer	Terrestrial plant macrofossils	$^{14}\text{C}$	13.4-0	Pollen	Annual precipitation	Huang et al. (2018)
24	Big Black peat	Peat	48.68	87.18	2168	summer	Cellulose	$^{14}\text{C}$	9.5-0	Pollen, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Moisture	Xu et al. (201



25	Lake Wulu	Lake	47.2	87.2	479	summer	Bulk organic matter		<sup>14</sup> C	9.5-0	Pollen, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , grain-size	Moisture	9) Liu et al. (2008)
26	ZL section	Loess	43.5	87.3	1756	summer	K-feldspar		OSL	10.8-0	MS	Moisture	Chen et al. (2016); Gao et al. (2019)
27	Tuolehaite peat	Peat	48.4	87.5	1700	summer	Plant residuals		<sup>14</sup> C	10.6-0	Pollen	Moisture	Zhang et al. (2020)
28	Chaivopu peat	Peat	43.5	88.3	800	summer	Plant, Bulk sediments		<sup>14</sup> C	11.5-0	Pollen	Moisture	Yang et al. (2021)
29	Hoton Nurr	Lake	48.6	88.3	2083	summer	Bulk sediments		<sup>14</sup> C	11.5-0	Pollen	Annual precipitation	Rudaya et al. (2009)
30	Lake Akkol	Lake	50.3	89.4	2204	summer	Bulk sediments		<sup>14</sup> C	10-0	Pollen	Vegetation change	Blyakhar chuk et al. (2007)
31	Achit Nuur	Lake	49.4	90.5	1444	summer	Bulk sediments, root, mollusk		<sup>14</sup> C	22.6-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Annual precipitation	Sun et al. (2013)
32	Lake Lup-Nur	Lake	40.0	91.0	780	summer	Quartz		OSL	9-0	Soluble content, grain-size, pollen, ostracod	Moisture	Liu et al. (2016)
33	Lake Balikun	Lake	43.6	92.8	1575	summer	Bulk organic matter, plant macrofossils, pollen;		<sup>14</sup> C	29.1-0	Pollen	Moisture	Tao et al. (2010); An et al. (2012); Zhao et al. (2015)
34	Bayan Nurr	Lake	49.9	93.9	932	summer	Bulk sediments		<sup>14</sup> C	15-0	Pollen	Annual precipitation	Tian et al. (2014)
35	Qinghai Lake	Lake	37.0	10.0	3200	summer	Bulk organic matter		<sup>14</sup> C	18-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	summer monsoon precipitation	Shen et al. (2005); Liu et al. (2007)
36	Qilian section	Loess	38.1	10.6	2810	summer	Bulk organic matter		<sup>14</sup> C	22-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Effective moisture	Li et al. (2020b)
37	Lake Ulaan	Lake	44.5	10.3	1024	summer	Bull samples, quartz		<sup>14</sup> C, OSL	17-0	TOC	Moisture	Lee et al. (2011, 201



38	Dongge Cave	Speleothem	25.8	10.08	680	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	16-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	summer monsoon precipitation	Dykoski et al. (2005)
39	Jiuxian Cave	Speleothem	33.5667	10.91	1495	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	19-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	summer monsoon precipitation	Cai et al. (2010)
40	Lianhua Cave	Speleothem	29.483	10.953	455	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	12.5-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	summer monsoon strength	Zhang et al. (2013)
41	Sanbao Cave	Speleothem	31.667	11.433	1900	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	13-0	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Summer rainfall	Dong et al. (2009)
42	Hulu Cave	Speleothem	32.50	11.917	90	summer	Carbonate	U-Th	Nov-75	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	summer monsoon precipitation	Wang et al. (2001)

203



204 **2.5 Paleoclimatic simulations**

205 The Paleoclimate Modeling Intercomparison Project (PMIP) was launched to  
 206 coordinate and encourage the systematic study of General Circulation Models (GCMs)  
 207 and to understand the mechanisms of climate change and the role of climate feedback  
 208 (Joussaume et al., 1999) (Table 2). Eight coupled GCMs covering the LGM or MH from  
 209 the PMIP3 database were selected to analyze the mechanisms of climate change in this  
 210 study (Table 3), including bcc-csm1-1, CNRM-CM5, CCSM4, CSIRO-Mk3-6-0,  
 211 GISS-E2-R, MIROC-ESM, FGOALS-s2, and MRI-CGCM3. The output data of the  
 212 PMIP3 in the LGM and MH are available at [htQTPs://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/esgf-llnl/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/esgf-llnl/).  
 213 By chiefly interpolating various climate variables on the common 1°×1° grid and  
 214 then sorting the values of model simulations from minimum to maximum, we extracted  
 215 the median value of all PMIP3 models used in this paper to evaluate the PMIP3 model  
 216 simulations and acquire the scientific model simulation value.

217 **Table 2.** Boundary conditions and forcing for PMIP3-CMIP5 models at the LGM and MH.

Period	Eccentricity	Obliquity (°)	Longitude of perihelion (°)	CO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)	CH <sub>4</sub> (ppb)	N <sub>2</sub> O (ppb)	Ice sheet	Vegetation
LGM	0.018994	22.949	114.425	185	350	200	Peltier (2004), 21 ka	Present day
MH	0.018682	24.105	0.87	280	650	270	Peltier (2004), 0 ka	Present day

218

219 **Table 3.** Basic information about climate models from PMIP3-CMIP5 used in this study.

Model	Institute	Resolutions	Variables*	References
bcc-csm1-1	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration, China	64×128 (17)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Randall et al. (2007)
CNRM-CM5	Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques, France	128×256 (17)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Voldoire et al. (2013)



CCSM4	National Center for Atmospheric Research, USA	288×192 (17)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Gent et al. (2011)
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	Australian Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization Marine and Atmospheric Research in collaboration with the Queensland Climate Change Centre of Excellence, Australia	96×192 (18)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Rotstayn et al. (2010)
GISS-E2-R	NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies, USA	144×90 (17)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Schmidt et al. (2014)
MIROC-ESM	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Japan	128×64 (35)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Watanabe et al. (2011)
FGOALS-s2	LASG-CEES, China	108×128 (17)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Briegleb et al. (2004)
MRI-CGCM3	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan	320×160 (23)	ua, va, zg, hus, psl, pr, tas	Yukimoto et al. (2012)

220 \*: ua means eastward wind; va means northward wind; zg geopotential Height; hus near-surface relative humidity; psl means sea surface  
 221 pressure; pr means precipitation; tas means near-surface temperature  
 222

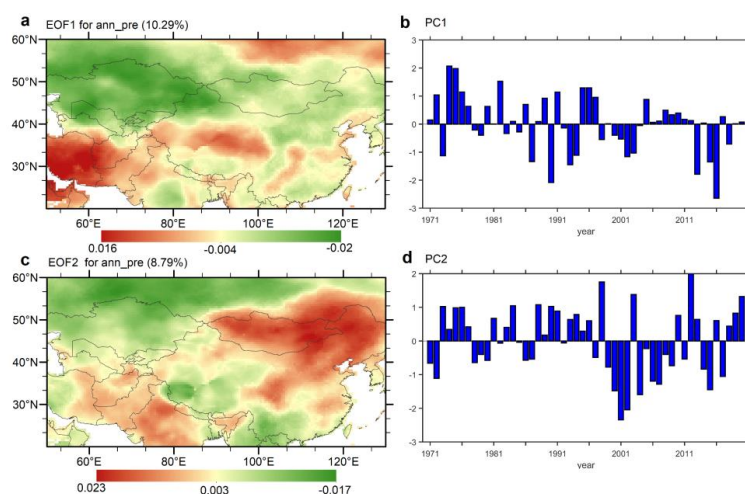
### 223 3. Results

#### 224 3.1 Seasonal signals at short-term timescales

225 To obtain the spatial distribution characteristics of the precipitation anomalies in  
 226 EA and CA under the context of seasonal signals, we conducted an EOF analysis on the  
 227 precipitation standardized anomaly field over 1971-2020. Figure 2a-d shows the spatial  
 228 distribution and time series of EOF decomposition of mean annual precipitation. The  
 229 variance contribution rate of the first mode is 10.29%, showing an obvious dipole mode.  
 230 The center of negative values is in the core region of CA mainly belonging to the winter  
 231 precipitation regime, while the positive values are in the south and north of EA located  
 232 in summer precipitation regions (Fig. 2a). This opposite distribution indicates that the  
 233 mean annual precipitation in EA and CA have a see-saw pattern. Additionally, the first



234 mode exhibits interdecadal and interannual changes according to the PC1 (Fig. 2b). The  
235 variance contribution rate of the second mode is 8.79%, indicating zonal dipole  
236 distribution characteristics (Fig. 2c). The center of positive values is in the north of EA,  
237 and the center of negative values is in the north of CA, also displaying the spatial  
238 diversity of mean annual precipitation in EA and CA (Fig. 2c).



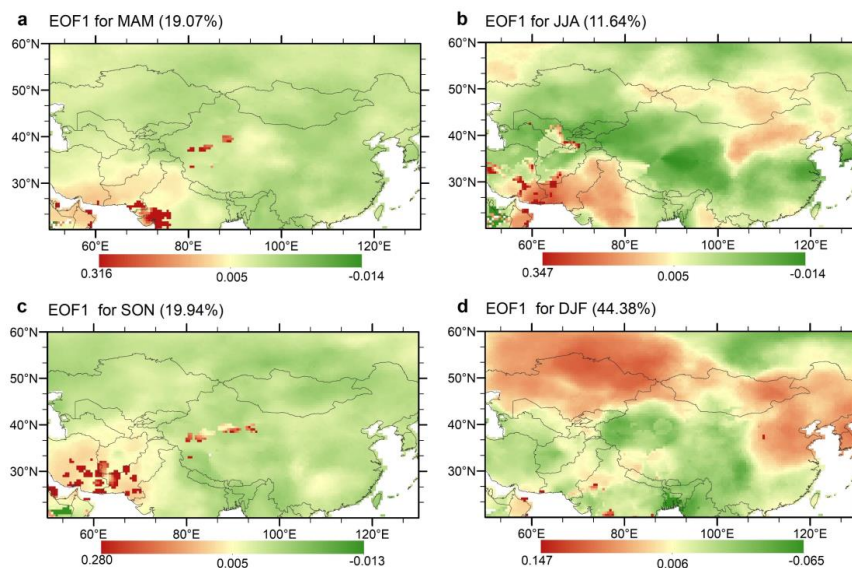
239  
240 **Figure. 2** The EOF modes and corresponding time series of annual mean precipitation in EA and CA over 1971-  
241 2020.

242 In order to further explore the contribution of seasonal signals of precipitation to  
243 dry/wet status in EA and CA, we conducted the EOF analysis on the seasonal  
244 precipitation in spring, summer, autumn, and winter. The variance contribution rate of  
245 the first mode in precipitation of four seasons is shown in Fig. 3. The first mode of  
246 spring and autumn precipitation does not show obvious distribution characteristics, and  
247 the contribution rate is relatively uniform, indicating that spring and autumn  
248 precipitation have no special precipitation contribution to EA and CA (Fig. a and c). In  
249 summer precipitation, the centers of positive values are mainly distributed in the north  
250 of EA, while the negative values are mainly distributed in CA and south of EA (Fig.





251 3b). This spatial distribution indicates that summer precipitation mainly affects the  
252 dry/wet status in northern EA and the east of CA belonging to the simultaneous region  
253 of rain and heat periods, which is in contrast to the core region of CA. In winter  
254 precipitation, the center of the positive value is located in the CA and north of EA,  
255 showing the significant contribution of winter precipitation to CA (Fig. 3d). It is worth  
256 noting that a certain degree of similarities exists in both summer and winter  
257 precipitation of EA and CA, indicating the impact of seasonal precipitation on the  
258 linkage of dry/wet status in EA and CA at short-term timescales.

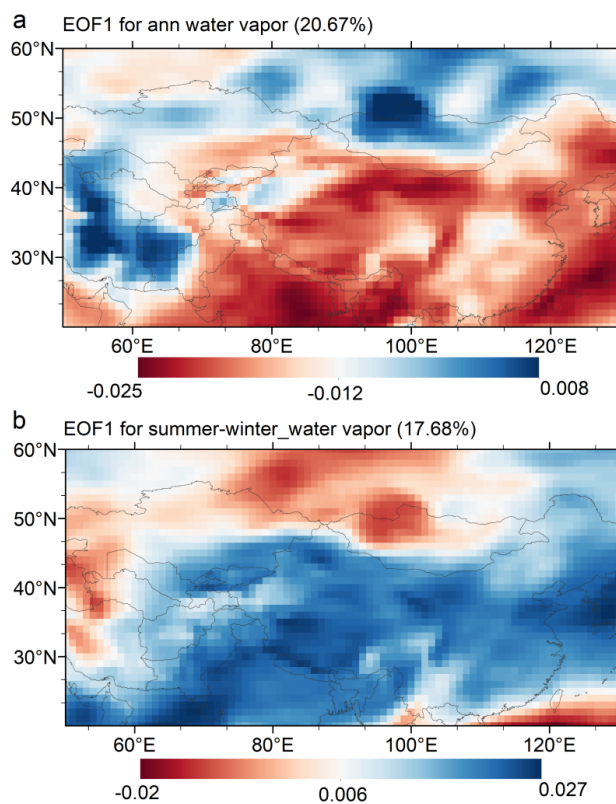


259  
260 **Figure 3** The first EOF modes of precipitation in spring (March, April, and May, MAM) (a), summer (June, July,  
261 and August, JJA) (b), autumn (September, October, and November, SON) (c), and winter (December, January, and  
262 February, DJF) (d) in EA and CA over 1971-2020.

263 Existing studies emphasized the role of water vapor sources in affecting interannual  
264 to interdecadal variability of precipitation (Chen and Huang, 2012; Huang et al., 2015a;  
265 Peng and Zhou, 2017; Wei et al., 2017). Therefore, by analyzing the EOF results of  
266 water vapor content in the whole layer, this study investigates the general characteristics



267 of the spatial distribution of water vapor in EA and CA and discusses the influence  
268 mechanism of seasonal signals on dry/wet status in EA and CA at short-term timescales.  
269 The EOF1 of the mean annual water vapor shows that the core region of CA is  
270 dominated by positive values, while EA and eastern CA are synchronized with negative  
271 values (Fig. 4a). The same spatial distribution mode is also reflected in the EOF1 of  
272 water vapor difference between summer and winter half-year. To summarize, the water  
273 vapor in EA and CA shows a dipole out-of-phase pattern between the simultaneous  
274 region of rain and heat periods and the non-simultaneous region of rain and heat periods  
275 (Fig. 4b). This implies that the content and source of water vapor are the important  
276 reason why the dry/wet status in eastern CA is linked to that in EA by seasonal signals  
277 of precipitation.



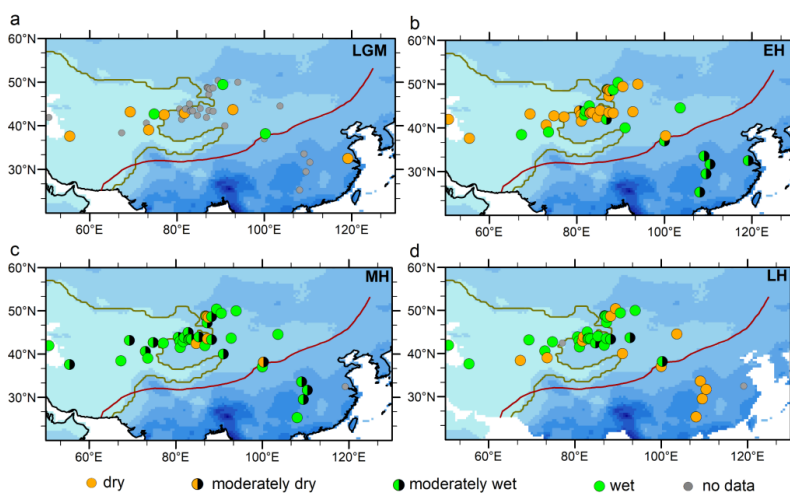
278  
279 **Figure. 4** a, the EOF1 modes of annual mean integral water vapor in EA and CA over 1979-2018; b, the EOF1 modes  
280 of integral water vapor difference between summer and winter in EA and CA over 1979-2018.  
281

### 282 **3.2 Spatiotemporal variation of dry/wet status and seasonal signals at long-term** 283 **timescales**

284 In the last decade, many paleoclimate records with a relatively high resolution,  
285 reliable chronology, and unambiguous proxies have been published to discuss the long-  
286 term timescale climate evolution in EA and CA. Forty-two moisture records from  
287 individual sites are used to illustrate the spatiotemporal pattern of dry/wet status since  
288 the LGM in EA and CA (Fig. 7). During the LGM, most regions in EA and CA are in  
289 moderately dry condition (Fig. 7a). However, moderately wet and wet conditions partly  
290 exist in the east of CA. According to the model simulation, Yu et al. (2000) concluded



291 that the low temperature in the cold period causes decreasing evaporation, with the  
292 enhanced westerlies driven by expanding land ice sheets, forming the high lake level in  
293 western China and the low lake level in eastern China during the LGM. During the early  
294 Holocene (EH), CA is dominated by a dry climate, while EA is moderately wet. At the  
295 same time, there were many records in the east of CA similar to the dry/wet status of  
296 EA. During the MH, the dry/wet status is mainly wet in the core region of CA and  
297 gradually turns into moderately wet and even dry conditions in the east of CA, while  
298 the EA remains moderately wet. By the late Holocene (LH), the EA is characterized by  
299 dry status, while CA is wet. In particular, the dry condition during the LGM and the wet  
300 climate during the EH and MH also reflect another meaning of seasonal signals derived  
301 from the simultaneity of rain and heat periods at long-term timescales, namely the “dry-  
302 cold” pattern and “wet-warm” pattern.



303  
304 **Figure. 7** Spatio-temporal characteristics of the dry/wet status from 42 records since the LGM, based on the  
305 confirmation of original investigators during the LGM, early Holocene (EH), mid Holocene (MH), and late Holocene  
306 (LH). Records with an incomplete stage are shown by a gray dot. Four summarized levels of dry/wet status: wet,  
307 moderately wet, moderately dry, and dry.

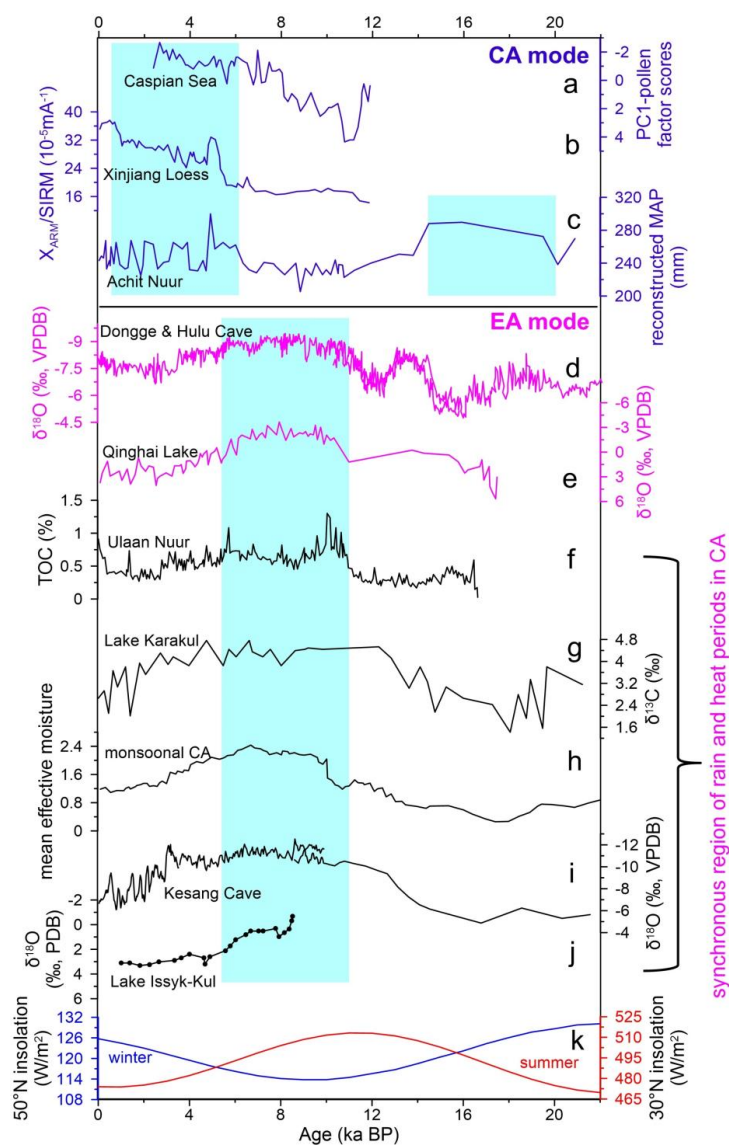
308 In detail, we further performed a comparative analysis of time series of typically



309 proxy record in EA and CA (Fig. 8). The reconstructed precipitation covering the past  
310 22,600 years from Achit Nuur suggests the wet periods from 22,600 to 13,200 cal BP  
311 (Fig. 8c). Pollen record from the Caspian Sea, controlled by the westerlies, displays that  
312 the terrestrial vegetation around the Caspian Sea changed from desert/desert steppe  
313 during the last glacial to dry shrubland/forest during the Holocene, revealing the  
314 continuous wetting process since the EH and the wettest LH (Fig. 8a). Meanwhile,  
315 results of climatically-sensitive magnetic properties from the Xinjiang loess  
316 demonstrate that the relatively wet conditions are generally formed after ~6,000 cal BP,  
317 with the wettest climate occurring during the LH (Fig. 8b). However, there is still  
318 partially contradictory for dry/wet changes on long-term timescales in CA, which are  
319 different from CA but similar to EA. Herzschuh. (2006) comprehensively analyzed 75  
320 paleoclimatic records in CA and revealed that wet conditions occurred during the EH  
321 and MH, while the LGM was characterized by the dry climate (Fig. 8h), indicating the  
322 similarity with the monsoon climate represented by the speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records from  
323 Dongge Cave and Hulu Cave (Fig. 8d). High precipitation in the EH and MH, indicated  
324 by  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records of ostracod shells from Qinghai Lake, shows that the climate in Qinghai  
325 Lake since the late glacial reflects the monsoon-dominated characteristic (Fig. 8e). The  
326 climate in Ulaan Nuur is wettest during the EH, humid during the MH and dry in the  
327 LH, embodying a typical characteristic of the East Asian summer monsoon (Fig. 8f).  
328 Based on the sediment cores from Lake Karakul and Lake Issyk-Kul, the EH and MH  
329 is characterized by wetter conditions in the region, and the lake level remained low  
330 during the LGM (Fig. 8g and j). Furthermore, the regional climate in western China,



331 inferred from the speleothem oxygen-carbon isotope in Kesang Cave, suggests a close  
 332 coupling with the Asian summer monsoon (Fig. 8i). The lake level and climate  
 333 reconstructed results also conducted that the “dry-cold” pattern triggered a substantial  
 334 lowering of lake level in most of arid western China, challenging the traditional view  
 335 of “wet-cold” pattern and high lake levels during the LGM (Zhao et al., 2015).



336



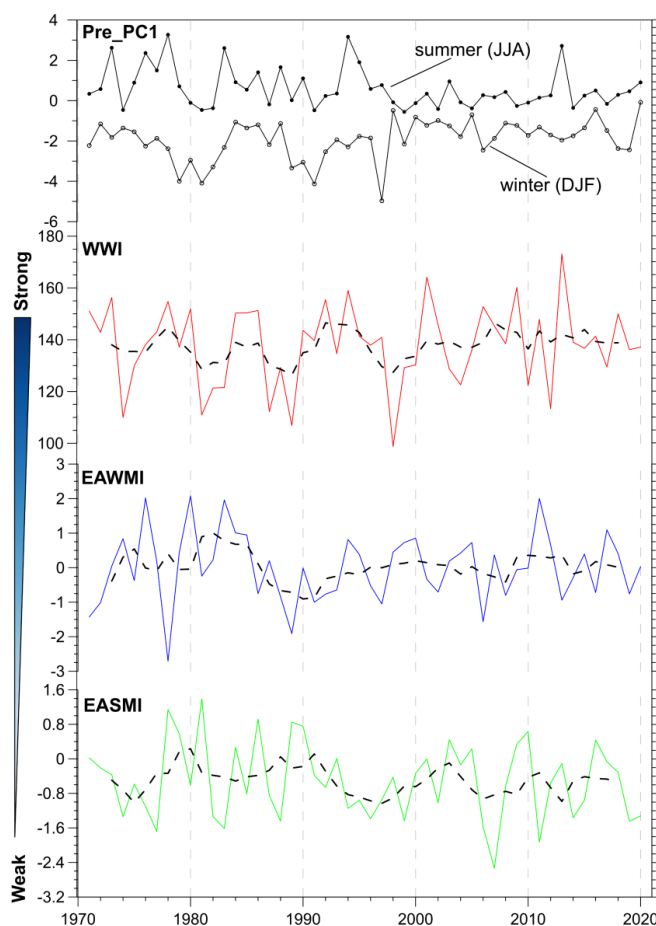
337 **Figure. 8** A comparison of proxy variability recorded in EA and CA. a Pollen record from the Caspian Sea (Leroy  
338 et al., 2014); b  $X_{ARM}/SIRM$  in the LJW10 section of the Xinjiang Loess (Chen et al., 2016); c Reconstructed MAP  
339 (mean annual precipitation) from Achit Nuur (Sun et al., 2013); d speleothem  $\delta^{18}O$  values records from Dongge  
340 Cave and Hulu Cave (Yuan et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2001); e  $\delta^{18}O$  of ostracode shells from Qinghai Lake (Liu et al.,  
341 2007); f TOC (Total organic carbon) from Ulaan Nuur (Lee et al., 2013); g  $\delta^{13}C$  from Lake Karakul (Heinecke et al.,  
342 2017; Mischke et al., 2017); h Mean effective moisture from monsoonal Central Asia (Herzschuh, 2006); i  $\delta^{18}O$  from  
343 Kesang Cave (Cheng et al., 2016); j  $\delta^{18}O$  from Lake Issyk-Kul (Ricketts et al., 2001); k Summer (red line) insolation  
344 at 30°N and winter (blue line) insolation at 50°N (Berger, 1978);. Blue shadows indicate the wet period of  
345 paleoclimate proxies.

346

## 347 **4. Discussion**

### 348 *4.1 Possible dynamics of seasonal signals at short-term timescales*

349 EOF analysis of precipitation and water vapor consistently verifies that the  
350 connection between EA and the east of CA exists under the traditional differentiation  
351 between EA and the core region of CA. Considering that the east of CA is present as  
352 the summer precipitation regime. Therefore, we propose that seasonal signals of  
353 precipitation contribute to the connection between EA and the east of CA.



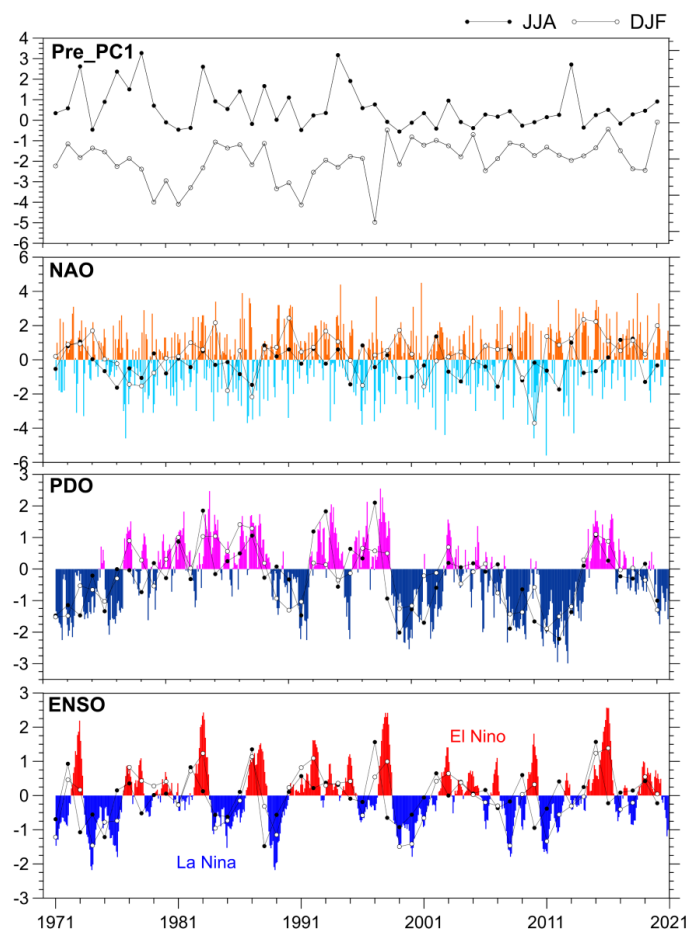
354  
355 **Figure. 5** The time series of the precipitation PC1 in summer, winter, WWI, EAWMI, and EASMI over  
356 1971-2020.

357 Generally, atmosphere circulations have important effects on the spatial  
358 distribution and the transportation of water vapor. In order to explore the influence of  
359 the modern air-sea circulation system on the summer and winter precipitation, we  
360 analyzed the time series of the precipitation PC1, WWI, EAWMI, EASMI, NAO, PDO,  
361 and ENSO over 1971 to 2020 (Fig. 5 and 6). Comparing the winter precipitation PC1  
362 with WWI and EAWMI (Fig. 5), the weakening of the westerlies and winter monsoons  
363 is usually accompanied by an increase in winter precipitation. However, there is not a





364 significant relationship between PC1 of summer precipitation and EASMI. As shown  
365 in Figure. 6, summer PDO and ENSO are basically similar to winter PDO and ENSO.  
366 However, the markable discrepancy exists in the evolution of winter NAO and summer  
367 NAO. The NAO and ENSO index presents interannual timescale variation, and the  
368 PDO index has an interdecadal timescale cycle. The NAO index and the winter  
369 precipitation PC1 have a positive correlation, suggesting that the North Atlantic may  
370 have certain effects on the winter precipitation through the air-sea interaction. Positive  
371 values of the NAO index are usually accompanied by stronger midlatitude westerlies  
372 and increased water vapor content from the North Atlantic. The PDO and ENSO,  
373 however, were related to the summer precipitation PC1. The development of winter  
374 precipitation at interdecadal timescales was not connected with PDO, whereas there is  
375 a positive correlation before the 2000s between summer precipitation and PDO.



376  
377 **Figure. 6** The time series of the precipitation PC1 in summer, winter, and annual mean, NAO, PDO, and  
378 ENSO over 1971-2020.

379 A majority of relevant studies stand for that precipitation variations in CA are  
380 subjected to water vapor transported by the mid-latitude westerlies, where the  
381 monsoonal water vapor source is hard to reach (Huang et al., 2015a; Guan et al., 2019).  
382 Abundant moisture is brought to CA from polar airmass, North Atlantic and the eastern  
383 Mediterranean Sea, and continues to diffuse eastward to the arid region of northwest  
384 China (Lioubimtseva, 2014). Meanwhile, several studies in recent years found that the  
385 anti-phase pattern between the East Asian summer monsoon and the westerlies causes



386 the seesaw phenomenon of precipitation variation in northwest China (the east of CA  
387 in this study) (Zhang et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019). However, Chen et al. (2021a)  
388 proposed that the East Asian summer monsoon plays an important role in the  
389 interdecadal variability of summer precipitation in CA through the transportation of  
390 summer water vapor from the Indian and Pacific Oceans to eastern CA. Additionally,  
391 Huang et al. (2015b) stated that increased summer precipitation in the Tarim Basin is  
392 mainly related to the weakened Indian summer monsoon. In addition, the large-scale  
393 topography, such as the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, causes the westerlies to flow around the  
394 plateau rather than over it, which in turn influences the local transport of water vapor  
395 and results in local precipitation changes (Xie et al., 2014). Therefore, the atmospheric  
396 circulation and topographic factors bear on the transportation and content of water  
397 vapor at short-term timescales, which makes the east of CA with summer precipitation  
398 regime different from the core region of CA, but linked to the EA.

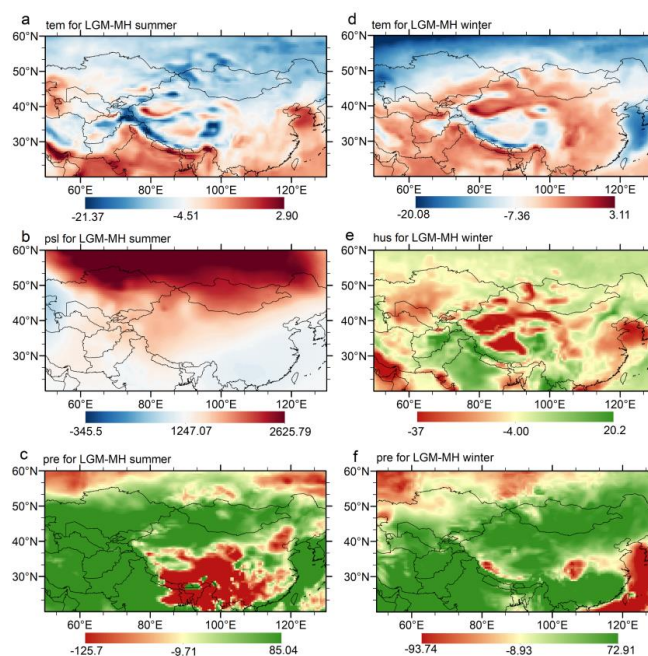
399

#### 400 ***4.2 Possible dynamics of seasonal signals at long-term timescales***

401 Studying the mechanism of paleoclimate change in EA and CA during the LGM  
402 and MH, with model simulation, is of great significance for assessing future  
403 hydroclimate changes. The results of paleoclimate simulations explain the difference  
404 and linkage in the dry/wet status from EA and CA under the framework of seasonal  
405 signals at long-term timescales. During the LGM, lower summer insolation increases  
406 the meridional temperature difference and sea level pressure in the summer largely (Fig.  
407 8k; 9a and c), leading to the strengthening of the westerlies (Fig. 10a) and further



408 increasing precipitation in the core region of CA (Fig. 9e). Given the weakening of the  
409 LGM summer monsoon and the complex control factors (Fig. 10c), however, the  
410 summer precipitation in the east of CA is weaker than that of MH (Fig. 9e), which is  
411 consistent with the dry/wet status in EA and reflects the linkage between EA and the  
412 east of CA caused by the summer precipitation regime. Although the westerlies weaken  
413 in the LGM winter (Fig. 10b), the higher winter insolation contributes to the general  
414 warming in CA and EA (Fig. 8k; 9b), resulting in lower relative humidity (Fig. 9d).  
415 According to climatological theory (Barry and Richard, 2009), the decrease in relative  
416 humidity means the increase in saturated water vapor pressure, which ultimately leads  
417 to the increasing precipitation (Fig. 9f). Therefore, this elaborates the asynchrony of the  
418 long-term dry/wet status in EA and CA under the control of seasonal signals.

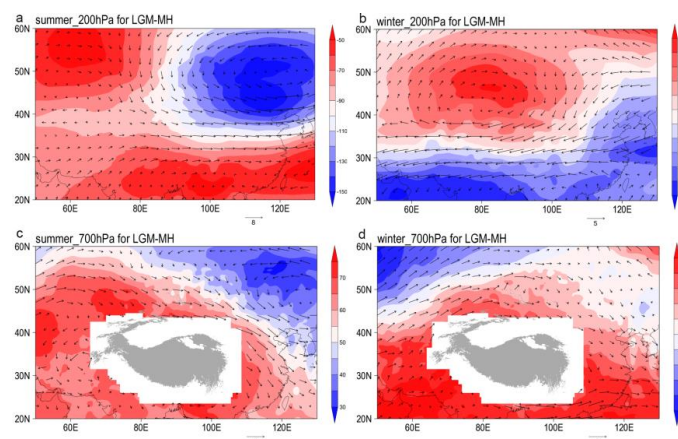


419  
420 **Figure. 9** Summer differences of temperature (tem) (a), sea level pressure (psl) (c), precipitation (pre) (e), 700 hPa  
421 wind field (g), and 200 hPa wind field (h) for LGM-MH; and winter differences of temperature (b), relatively humid



422 (hus) (d), precipitation (f), and 200 hPa wind field (i) for LGM-MH in EA and CA based on the PMIP3-CMIP5  
423 multi-model ensemble.

424 Investigating the past climate is key to informing future climate change (Tierney  
425 et al., 2020). From the perspective of paleoclimatology, monsoon and westerlies vary  
426 greatly between LGM and MH, modulated by primary forces such as orbital insolation,  
427 greenhouse gas, and ice sheets (Oster et al., 2015; Bereiter et al., 2015; Sime et al.,  
428 2016). Paleoclimate records clearly indicate the wet status during the LGM and LH in  
429 CA and the MH wet in EA (Fig. 8). Specifically, the dry/wet status in CA, affected by  
430 the westerlies and characterized by wet climate conditions during the LGM and mid-  
431 and late-Holocene, is opposite to that in monsoon-dominated EA. However, the proxy  
432 records in CA similar to the monsoon evolution are located in the modern summer  
433 precipitation region. From the perspective of precipitation seasonality, there are two  
434 different precipitation regimes within CA. The core region of CA has a Mediterranean  
435 climate (winter precipitation regime), with a dry summer and with seasonal  
436 precipitation from early winter to late spring (Fig. 1); whereas, in the east of CA,  
437 including northwest of China and west and south of Mongolia, the summer precipitation  
438 contributes more (summer precipitation regime; Fig. 1). Therefore, summer  
439 precipitation regime may be a potential forcing factor for the linkage of paleoclimate  
440 reconstruction between EA and the east of CA, and the difference in precipitation  
441 regime may result in a divergent moisture history in EA and the core region of CA.



442  
443 **Figure. 10** Summer differences of 200 hPa wind field (a) and 700 hPa wind field (c) for LGM-MH;  
444 and winter differences of 200 hPa wind field (b) and 700 hPa wind field (d) for LGM-MH in EA and CA based on the PMIP3-  
445 CMIP5 multi-model ensemble.

446 As a whole, our results provide a hypothesis that seasonal signals of precipitation  
447 derived from the simultaneity of rain and heat periods govern the difference and linkage  
448 in dry/wet status from EA and CA at multi-time scales. With recent global warming,  
449 some recent work also points out increasing summer precipitation in arid CA (Chen et  
450 al., 2021a; Ren et al., 2022). Meanwhile, the phenomenon of warmer and wetter  
451 climates coincides with the simultaneity of rain and heat periods (Hu and Han, 2022).  
452 Future work should focus on the fusion of multiple datasets and high-precision climate  
453 simulation designed to evaluate the mechanism.

454

## 455 5. Conclusion

456 The summer precipitation regime in EA and the east of CA and the winter  
457 precipitation regime in the core region of CA reveal seasonal signals of precipitation.  
458 Using the EOF method, this study analyzes the spatiotemporal variations of  
459 precipitation in EA and CA. Results reveal that seasonal signals derived from the



460 simultaneity of rain and heat periods are important factors linking climate change  
461 modes in EA and CA at short-term timescales. A compilation of 42 proxy records with  
462 reliable chronologies enables us to reassess the dry/wet status in EA and CA since the  
463 LGM. Concurrently, paleoclimate records reflect seasonal signals triggered by the  
464 insolation at long-term timescales. The multi-model simulations of multiple climatic  
465 elements explain the climate mechanism of differences and linkage in dry/wet status  
466 from EA and CA. In the traditional context of asynchronous dry/wet status between  
467 summer precipitation regions and winter precipitation regions, we believe that regional  
468 linkages also exist in EA and CA affected by seasonal signals.

469

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476

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