

Multiscale monsoon variability during the last two climatic cycles

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Multiscale monsoon variability during the last two climatic cycles inferred from Chinese loess and speleothem records

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Received: 24 October 2014 – Accepted: 12 November 2014 – Published: 20 December 2014

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.

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Abstract

The East Asian Monsoon exhibits a significant variability on timescales ranging from tectonic to centennial as inferred from Chinese loess, stalagmite and marine records. However, the relative contributions and plausible driving forces of the signals at different timescales remain poorly investigated. Here, we spectrally decompose time series data on loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records over the last two climatic cycles and correlate the decomposed components with possible driving parameters including the ice volume, insolation and North Atlantic cooling. Based on the spectral analysis of these two proxies, we tentatively identified six components of the signals corresponding to various forcing of ice volume (> 50 kyr), obliquity (50–30 kyr), precession (30–9 kyr), North Atlantic cooling (9–3 kyr and 3–1 kyr), and a centennial residual. The relative contributions of each component differ significantly between loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records. Glacial and orbital components are dominant in the loess grain size, which implies that both ice volume and insolation have distinctive impacts on the winter monsoon variability in contrast to the predominant precession impact on the summer monsoon patterns. Moreover, the millennial components are evident with variances of 11 and 16 % in the loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records, respectively. A comparison of the millennial-scale signals in these two proxies reveals that abrupt changes in the winter and summer monsoons over the last 260 kyr share common features and similar driving forces linked to high-latitude Northern Hemisphere climate.

1 Introduction

The East Asian Monsoon (EAM), as an integral part of Asian monsoon circulation, has played an important role in driving the East Asian palaeoenvironmental changes (An, 2000). The EAM fluctuations can be quantified as different time intervals, which range from thousands of years to intraseasonal periodicities, and the primary driving force of

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desert (Fig. 1). In this region, the average annual precipitation and temperature over the last 20 years are 352 mm and 5.7°C, respectively. About 70 m loess was accumulated at Gulang during the last two climate cycles. High sedimentation rate and weak pedogenesis in this region make the Gulang loess sequence very sensitive to rapid monsoon changes (Sun et al., 2012). The samples used in this study were collected at the Gulang section using 2 cm intervals, corresponding to 50–100 yr resolution for the loess-paleosol sequence. Before the measurements of grain sizes, all samples were firstly pretreated by removing carbonate and organic matter using 30 % HCl and 10 % H₂O₂, respectively, and then dispersed under ultrasonification in 10 mL 10 % (NaPO₃)₆ solution. A Malvern 2000 laser instrument was employed for determining the grain size distribution which has an analytical error of < 2 % as revealed by replicate analyses.

The chronology of the Gulang loess-paleosol sequence was generated using a weighted grain size model (Porter and An, 1995; Hao et al., 2012). Tie points for the age construction were determined by correlating rapid MGS changes to the terminations in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and absolute-dated speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) (Fig. 2). Consistent with previous correlations between Chinese loess and deep-sea oxygen isotope records (Bloemendal et al., 1995; Ding et al., 1995, 2001, 2002; Liu et al., 1999), we correlate the transitions of S_0/L_1 , L_1/S_1 , S_1/L_2 , L_2/S_2 , and S_2/L_3 to the boundaries of marine isotope stages (MIS) 1/2 (13.2), 4/5 (76), 5/6 (130), 6/7 (190), and 7/8 (244 kyr), respectively (Fig. 2). In addition, the rapid loess MGS variation can be well correlated to abrupt changes in speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record at 27, 38, 50, 60, 112, 166 and 228 kyr, respectively. All together, twelve tie points are selected for the age construction and sediment rate estimation (Fig. 2). Due to the coeval changes between sedimentation rate and grain size (Ding et al., 2001), the chronology between the tie points can be estimated using the weighted grain-size model proposed by Porter and An (1995).

As the widely used proxy for changes in the intensity of the summer monsoon, the absolute-dated speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from Sanbao and Hulu caves (Fig. 1) are selected for the duration of the last two glacial–interglacial cycles (Wang et al., 2008;

Cheng et al., 2009) to compare fluctuations of each component at various timescales with loess grain size. For multiscale climatic research, spectral analysis is a primary tool to separate the variance of a time series into different principle components. We perform a spectral analysis on the 260 kyr records of Gulang MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ using REDFIT software (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002). The decomposed components of loess MGS and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records are separated out using a filtering approach (Origin 8.0, OriginLab Corporation, USA) based on the spectrum results.

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The spectral analysis shows that apparent periods identified in the MGS spectrum are at ~ 100 , ~ 41 , ~ 23 , ~ 15 , ~ 7.5 , ~ 5.1 – 3.7 , ~ 2 and ~ 1.3 kyr, respectively, over the 80 % confidence level (Fig. 3). It is shown that the potential forcing of the glacial–interglacial and orbital EAM variability is part of the external (e.g., the orbital-induced summer insolation, An et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2008) and the internal factors (e.g., changes in ice volume and CO_2 concentrations, Ding et al., 1995; Lu et al., 2013). The co-existence of the ~ 100 , ~ 41 , and ~ 23 kyr periods in the Gulang MGS record confirms the dynamical linkage of the winter monsoon variability to glacial and orbital forcing. For this reason, the components of global ice volume, obliquity, and precession, referred to as C1 (> 50 kyr), C2 (50–30 kyr), and C3 (30–9 kyr), respectively, are separated (Fig. 3).

After removing C1, C2, and C3 from the initial MGS record, the remaining component primarily contains millennial-to-centennial signals. Based on the spectral results, the millennial frequencies can be further divided into two components: C4 (9–3 kyr) and C5 (3–1 kyr), which, possibly correspond, respectively, to the Heinrich (~ 6 kyr) rhythm and the Dansgaard–Oeschger (DO, ~ 1.5 kyr) cycles recorded in the North Atlantic sediments and Greenland ice core (Bond et al., 1993; Dansgaard et al., 1993; Heinrich et al., 1988). Taking into account the sampling resolution and surface mixing effect

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monsoon forms (Gao, 1962). On the glacial–interglacial timescale, the buildup of the northern high-latitude ice sheets during the glacial periods strengthens the barometric gradient which results in intense winter monsoons (Ding et al., 1995; Clark et al., 1999). The contemporaneous falling sea level further enhances the winter monsoon circulation because of a larger distance between the land and the ocean, therefore a greater pressure gradient forms (Xiao et al., 1995). The other factor that influences the land–ocean differential thermal motion is the changes due to the orbitally induced solar radiation. The precession-induced insolation changes can lead to regional land–ocean thermal gradients whilst obliquity-related insolation changes can result in meridional thermal gradients; both of which can substantially alter the evolution of the Siberian and Subtropical Highs and the EAM variations (Shi et al., 2011).

4.2 Impacts of high-latitude cooling on millennial EAM oscillations

The EAM variations are proved to generally follow the combined influences of the induced global ice volume and Northern Hemisphere summer insolation and are persistently punctuated by apparent millennial-scale monsoon events (Garidel-Thoron et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2001; Kelly et al., 2006). The millennial-scale events of the last glacial cycle were firstly identified in Greenland ice cores (Dansgaard et al., 1993; Meese et al., 1997). Subsequently, well-dated loess grain size and speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records in China have been found to have apparent correspondences with rapid climate oscillations in the North Atlantic (Porter and An, 1995; Guo et al., 1996; Chen et al., 1997; Ding et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2001). The most striking evidence is the strong correlation between the loess grain size, speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Greenland ice-core $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records during the last glaciation (Ding et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2012). These abrupt changes have been extended into the last three glacial–interglacial cycles from loess and speleothem records (Ding et al., 1999; Cheng et al., 2006, 2009; Wang et al., 2008; Yang and Ding, 2014) and from the North Atlantic sediments (McManus et al., 1999; Channell et al., 2012).

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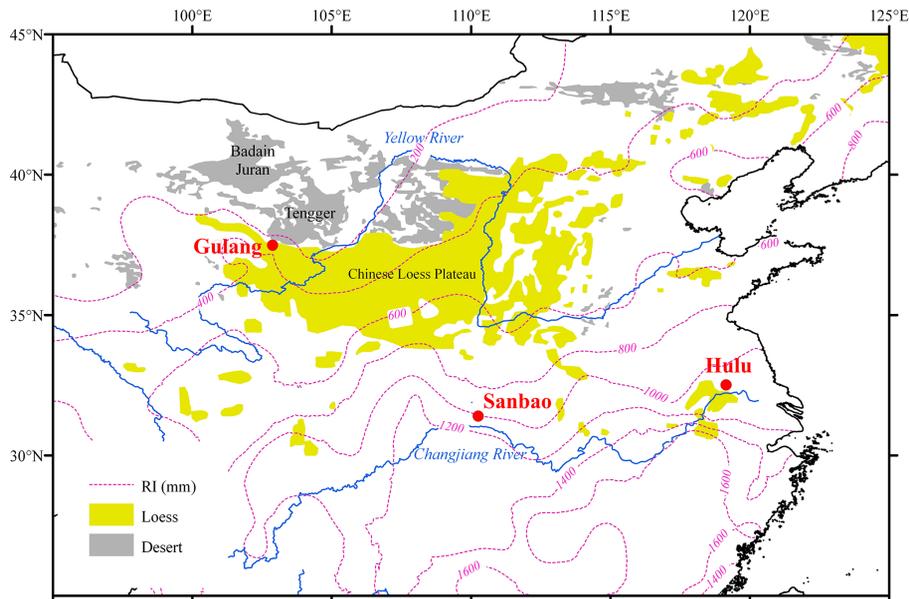


Figure 1. The locations of the loess sampling site at Gulang as well as Sanbao and Hulu caves.

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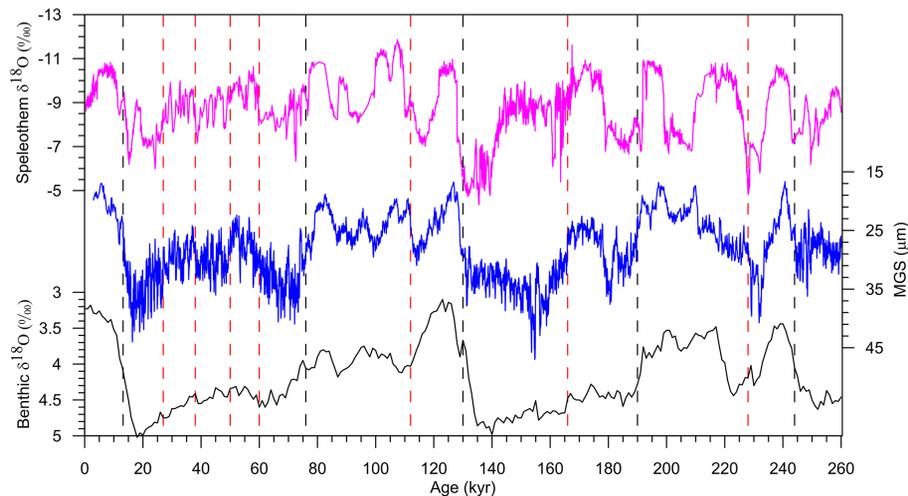


Figure 2. Comparison of Gulang MGS (blue) with the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (black) (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothenm $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple) (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records. The black and red dashed lines denote tie points linking the MGS to abrupt changes in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and speleothenm $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009), respectively.

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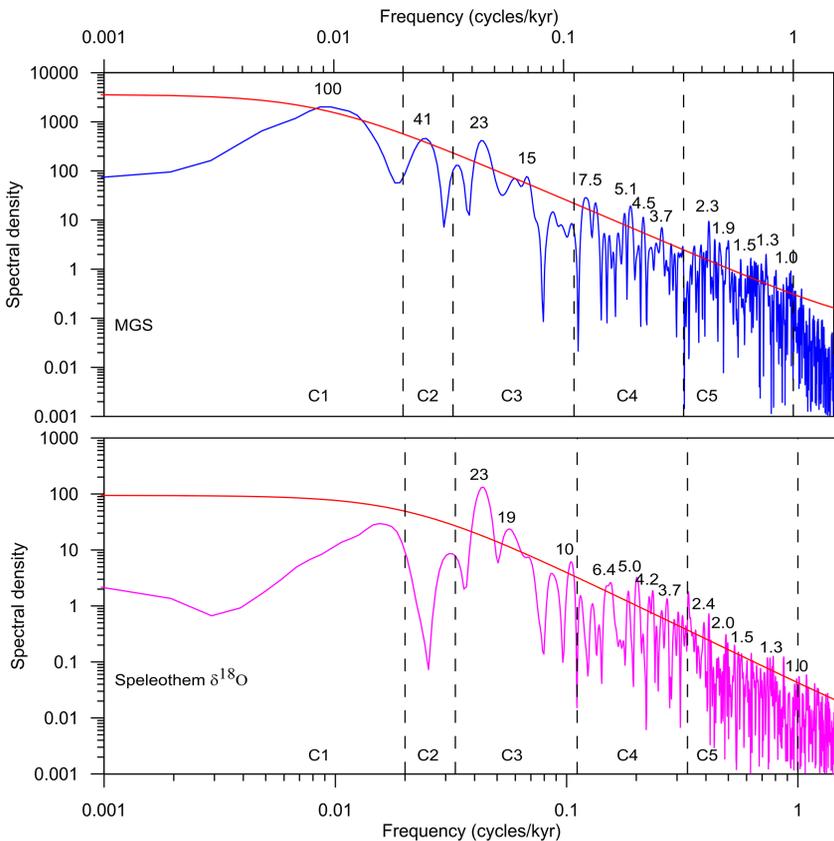


Figure 3. Spectrum results of Gulang MGS (blue) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records. The red lines represent the 80% confidence levels; the numbers in black are identified periods in kyr, and the dotted lines are boundaries for the six components decomposed from the initial records.

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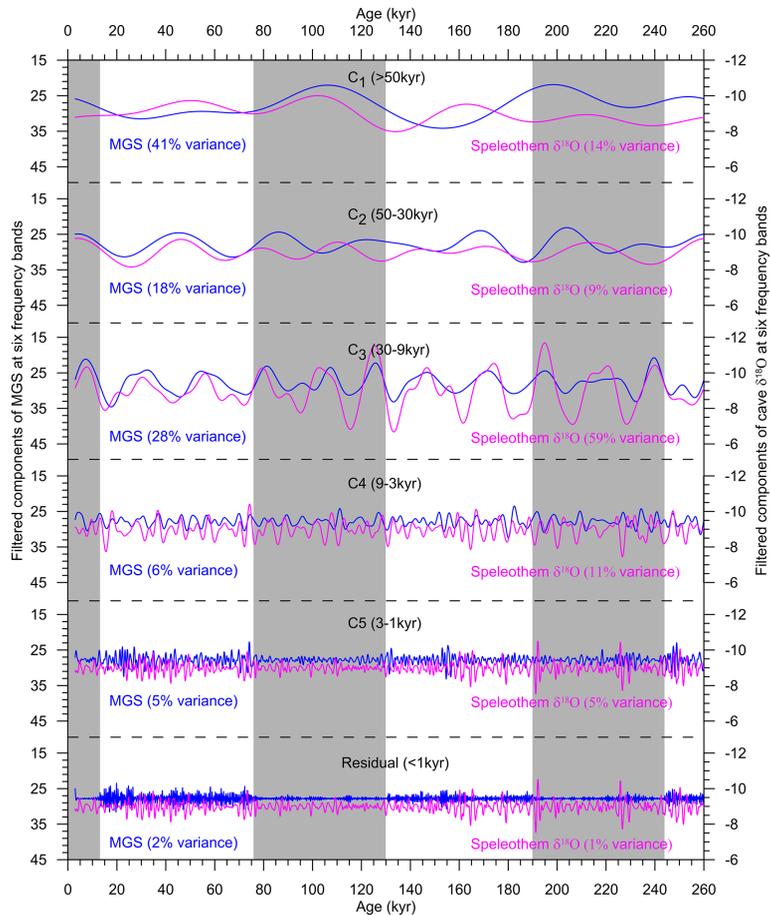


Figure 4. The filtered components of Gulang MGS (blue) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple) (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records at six frequency bands. The vertical gray bars indicate the interglacial periods.

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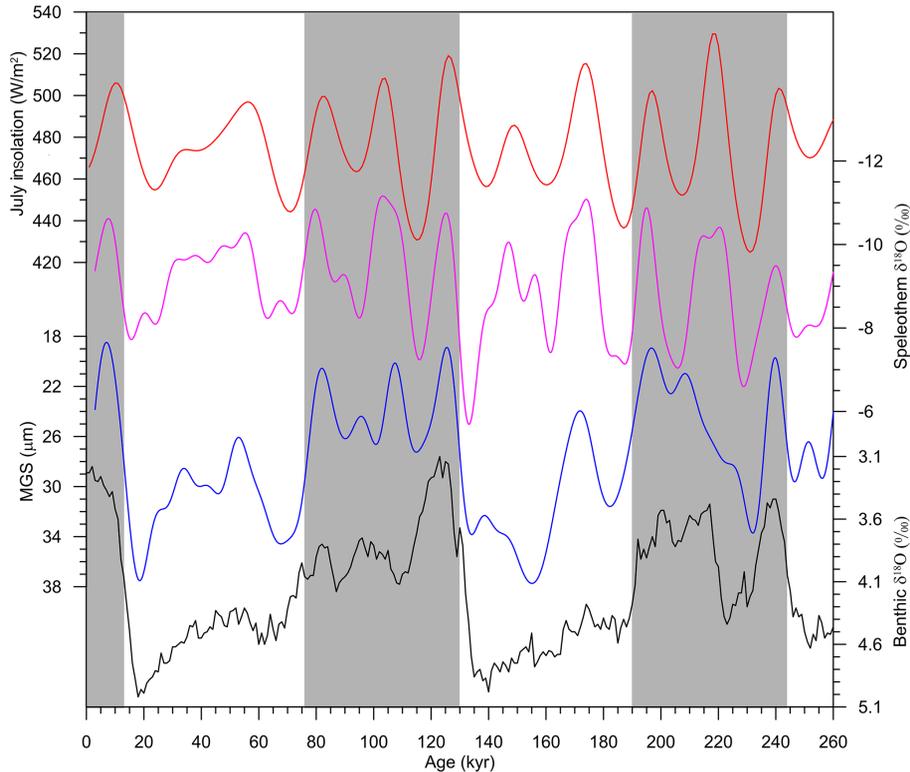


Figure 5. Comparison of the glacial- and orbital-scale components (filtered > 9 kyr) of Gulang MGS (blue) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple) (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records with summer insolation at 65°N (red) (Berger, 1978) and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (black) (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). The vertical gray bars represent the interglacial periods.

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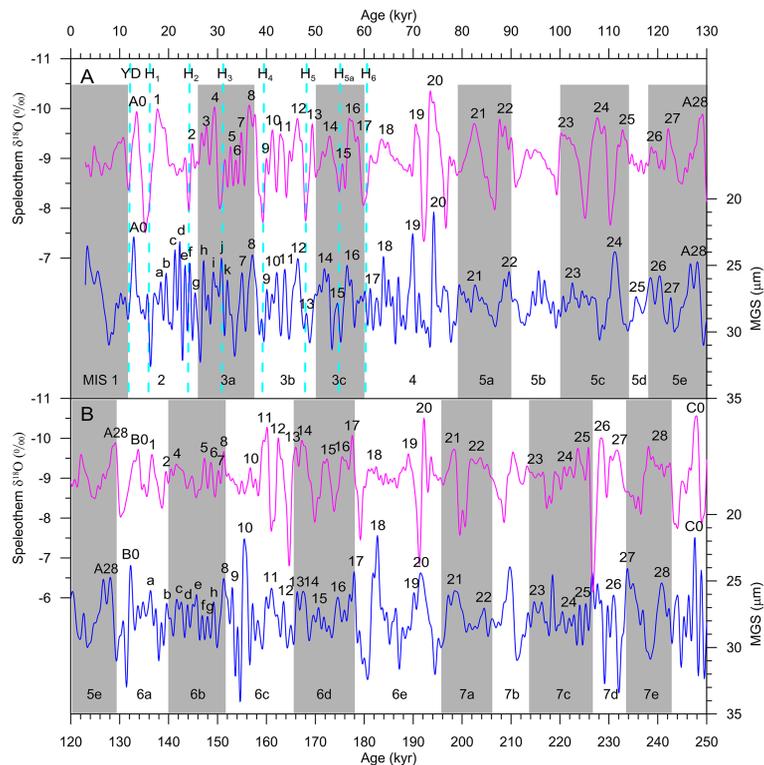


Figure 6. Comparison of millennial-scale (filtered 9–1 kyr) variations between Gulang MGS (blue) and Sanbao/Hulu speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (purple) (Wang et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2009) records over the last (a) and penultimate (b) glacial–interglacial cycles. Cyan and gray bars are, respectively, the Heinrich events recorded in the two records and interglacial periods. The letters denote distinct fluctuations in Gulang MGS signals which are not well aligned with speleothem record while the numbers (34–130 and 152–250 kyr) represent well-correlated Chinese interstadials identified in the two records.

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