

Millennial-scale precipitation variability in the Indo-Pacific region over the last 40 kyr

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Key points

- (1) We present sub-millennial clay mineral and elemental records from the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool spanning the last 40 kyr.
- (2) Our records indicate higher precipitation during La Niña-like conditions and lower precipitation during El Niño-like conditions.
- (3) Different patterns and controls on precipitation variability between the eastern and western Indo-Pacific regions are revealed.

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Abstract

Deep atmospheric convection in the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (IPWP) represents a major source of heat and moisture, thereby affecting the global climate, but its past changes remain debated. Here, we present sub-millennial clay mineralogy and elemental records spanning the last 40 kyr from within the IPWP. From these data, we infer millennial-scale fluctuations in precipitation, with generally lower precipitation during Heinrich Stadials 1-4, corresponding to El Niño-like conditions. Higher precipitation coincided with the warm interstadials, accompanied by La Niña-like conditions. Moreover, our record indicates the lowest precipitation occurred during the late Holocene, supporting the hypothesis of a stronger-than-modern Walker circulation during the Last Glacial Maximum. In combination with other proxy records and TraCE-21 modelling results, we recognize a distinct spatial heterogeneity of precipitation within the IPWP, resulting from the dominant influences of the ENSO-like system and migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone in the eastern and western IPWP, respectively.

Key words: Weathering, Clay mineralogy, Hydroclimate, ENSO, Indo-Pacific Warm Pool

Plain Language Summary

Tropical rainfall systems in the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (IPWP) play a significant role in transferring energy and moisture. However, their millennial-scale variabilities in precipitation during remains poorly understood. Here, we provide sub-millennial sediment mineralogy and elemental reconstructions spanning the last 40,000 years from a sediment core in the IPWP. We infer that variability in precipitation induced by atmospheric convection in the IPWP is the main factor controlling the variability in our data through time. Hence, we interpret our records to reflect sub-millennial fluctuations in precipitation, with lower precipitation during

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cool stadial periods and higher precipitation during warm interstadials. Such variability corresponds to the changing zonal state of the tropical Pacific atmosphere-ocean system, in a pattern similar to the modern-day. Additionally, our record indicates that precipitation was weaker during the late Holocene than during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), suggesting that the Pacific atmospheric zonal circulation was stronger during the LGM than today. Furthermore, a model-data comparison reveals distinct spatial heterogeneity in the precipitation changes, with precipitation in the eastern IPWP (West Pacific) likely controlled mostly by the tropical Pacific atmosphere-ocean system, whereas precipitation in the western IPWP (Indian Ocean) was driven by latitudinal movement of the Intertropical Convergence Zone.

1. Introduction

The Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (IPWP) is not only a major source of heat and moisture, but its deep atmospheric convection is also a key factor that affects the Walker and Hadley circulations [[Sardeshmukh and Hoskins, 1988](#)]. However, the nature of past changes in deep convection since the LGM, and the associated millennial-scale precipitation changes, remain unclear [[Leduc et al., 2009](#); [Mohtadi et al., 2017](#)], largely due to the complex interactions between multiple climatic drivers and discrepancies between different paleo-precipitation indicators. It is hypothesized that the meridional migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) [[Denniston et al., 2013](#); [Griffiths et al., 2009](#); [Huang et al., 2020](#); [Krause et al., 2019](#); [Kuhnt et al., 2015](#); [Mohtadi et al., 2011](#); [Mohtadi et al., 2014](#); [Partin et al., 2007](#); [Schneider et al., 2014](#); [Schröder et al., 2018](#); [Wurtzel et al., 2018](#); [Zhang and Delworth, 2005](#)], variability of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) system [[Liu et al., 2014](#); [Timmermann et al., 2005](#); [Turney et al., 2004](#)], and changes in the Australian Monsoon strength [[Ayliffe et al., 2013](#); [Denniston et al., 2013](#); [Griffiths et al., 2009](#); [Leduc et al., 2009](#); [Mohtadi et al., 2016](#);

Mohtadi et al., 2011; Zhang and Delworth, 2005] could all respond to North Atlantic millennial-scale climate oscillations, and thereby affect precipitation in the Indo-Pacific region, but their relative importance is not well constrained.

A compilation of millennial-scale deglacial precipitation reconstructions from the IPWP region reveals a “seesaw” precipitation pattern in the western part (Indian Ocean) that could be explained by a meridional migration of the ITCZ (i.e., inverse precipitation patterns between regions A and B; Fig. 1a and b). In contrast, precipitation in the eastern part (West Pacific) displays a “sandwich-like” pattern in the modern day (i.e., intrusion of region C, with areas to both the west and east belonging to region A; Fig. 1a) and spatial heterogeneity in precipitation through the last deglaciation (Fig. 1c). Such an east/west discrepancy and the “sandwich-like” precipitation pattern in the east cannot simply be explained by ITCZ migration, and may instead reflect an influence of the ENSO-like system, but that suggestion needs further verification [*Xiong et al., 2018*].

Most proxy records of precipitation in this region, which can be taken as an approximate indicator of IPWP convective intensity, are based on water isotopes or element ratios from XRF-scanning of sediment cores, both of which have limitations. For example, XRF-scan element ratios generally represent the relative change in sediment input from terrestrial sources versus marine productivity (e.g. K/Ca, Ti/Ca), such that other elemental ratios that are largely independent of marine productivity variations (e.g. K/Ti, Rb/Zr) may be required to exclude productivity influences [*Fraser et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2018*]. In addition, sea-level change may have an important impact on both element-based and water isotope-based proxies in the IPWP, mainly through changing the land-sea configuration or the distance and mode of sediment/moisture transport to a site [*Carolin et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2009*]. Hence, indicators that are unaffected (or less affected) by such complicating factors would be complementary to existing records from water isotopes and XRF-scanning, and could provide independent

constraints to verify the evolution of tropical precipitation in response to regional ocean-atmosphere processes.

Here, we present high-resolution records of clay mineralogy and element ratios spanning the last 40 kyr from marine sediment core MD01-2385 (Fig. 1), with average mineralogical and elemental sample spacing of ~75 and ~400 years. These terrigenous weathering records provide independent evidence constraining tropical precipitation changes in Northwest New Guinea. In combination with our compilation of paleo-records from the IPWP based on water isotopes and XRF-scanning, and TraCE-21 modelling results, we demonstrate a spatially heterogeneous pattern of millennial-scale precipitation variability in the Indo-Pacific region. [Leduc et al. \[2009\]](#) suggested that the migration of the ITCZ plays an important role in driving precipitation changes in this region on a large spatial scale (i.e., IPWP versus northern Australia). Our study complements that work by demonstrating the significance of the ENSO-like system for driving millennial-scale precipitation changes, and helps to resolve the spatial extent of the ITCZ and ENSO-like influences on precipitation within the IPWP. Our results could therefore help to improve our understanding of future atmospheric patterns and precipitation changes in this region.

2. Regional setting

During the boreal summer from June to July, southeast winds are dominant and the precipitation in the study area is ~400 mm/month (Fig. S1b, c), while the ITCZ takes a northern position over Northwest New Guinea. In contrast, during the boreal winter from January to February, the dominant wind direction changes to northwesterly, and the precipitation is reduced to ~200 mm/month (Fig. S1a, c), with a southward shift of the ITCZ. On inter-annual timescales since 1980, the monthly precipitation anomaly over the study area is highly consistent with the Southern Oscillation Index and the Niño 3.4 sea surface

temperature (SST) anomalies (Fig. S1d), both of which represent the intensity of the Walker circulation and ENSO variability. Therefore, there is co-variability between the zonal Pacific SST gradient, ENSO variability, and the precipitation intensity in our study area. Specifically, a higher zonal Pacific SST gradient, and the associated stronger atmospheric pressure gradient, enhances the Pacific Walker circulation, leading to La Niña conditions that maintain the deep atmospheric convection center and higher precipitation over the tropical western Pacific (Fig. S1d). In contrast, a weaker zonal Pacific SST gradient is associated with El Niño conditions, a weakened Pacific Walker circulation, and an eastward shift of the deep convection and precipitation center, leading to reduced precipitation in the tropical western Pacific (Fig. S1d).

In detail, three climatic regions can be identified in the Indo-Pacific region (Fig. 1a), with distinct characteristics, based on monthly rainfall data from meteorological stations spanning 1961-1993 in the Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN) database [*Aldrian and Susanto, 2003*]. The potential source area supplying sediments to core MD01-2385 is the northwestern part of New Guinea, which is mostly located in region C. This region has higher precipitation in boreal summer and lower precipitation in boreal winter [*Aldrian and Susanto, 2003*] (Fig. 1a). In contrast, the reverse precipitation pattern is observed in region A, with the highest precipitation of ~320 mm/month in December-January (Fig. 1a). Meanwhile, region B shows biannual precipitation peaks (~310 mm/month in October–November and ~250 mm/month in March–May) associated with the southward and northward movement of the ITCZ [*Aldrian and Susanto, 2003*]. The geographic intrusion of region C with areas to both the west and east belonging to region A (Fig. 1a) may arise from the westwards flow of the Indonesian Throughflow [*Aldrian and Susanto, 2003*]. This current transports warm water from the Pacific warm pool, thereby generating an atmospheric convection center and bringing precipitation to the region during boreal summer, while the opposite scenario occurs during boreal winter [*Aldrian and Susanto, 2003*].

The island of New Guinea has very high riverine sediment fluxes (1200 Mt/yr) and physical erosion rates (1500 t/km²/yr), reflecting its active tectonics, relatively young and easily weatherable basaltic rocks, and a tropical climate with heavy precipitation and runoff [Milliman and Farnsworth, 2013] (Fig. S2). In addition, its small mountainous river catchments, with large elevation differences, small watershed areas, and short transport distances, lead to rapid and efficient sediment transfer to the oceans [Milliman and Farnsworth, 2013] (Fig. S2).

3. Results

The clay mineral assemblage in core MD01-2385 consists predominantly of smectite (28-86%, average 67%), while illite (5-49%, average 17%), chlorite (5-28%, average 14%), and kaolinite (0.5-8%, average 2%) are less abundant (see Materials and Methods in Supplementary Information; Fig. S3). Variations in smectite content are opposite to those of illite and chlorite, and the smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratio is used as an indicator of clay composition variations. Relatively high smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios appear during glacial intervals from 40 to 27 ka and during the early to middle Holocene from 12 to 5 ka (Fig. 2a and Fig. S3). In contrast, lower values characterize the LGM and the last deglaciation from 27 to 12 ka and the late Holocene from 5 to 0 ka. Notably, the smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratio decreased during the late Holocene from 5 to 0 ka, and reached its lowest absolute values (lower even than during the LGM) in the youngest sediments (Fig. 2 and Fig. S3). Another important observation is that the smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios persistently co-vary with the zonal Pacific Δ SST anomaly, with generally lower values in both records during the North Atlantic cold events of HS 1-4 and during some other multi-millennial intervals (Fig. 2a and 2b).

The Chemical Index of Alteration (CIA) in the clay-sized fraction in core MD01-2385

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ranges from 74 to 78 (see Materials and Methods in Supplementary Information; Fig. 2c), which appears to indicate some temporal variability in the chemical weathering intensity. Another useful tracer in this regard is the Rb/Sr ratio, because Rb is enriched in the fine fractions, while Sr is highly mobile during chemical weathering [Chang *et al.*, 2013]. Hence, the Rb/Sr ratio can reflect the intensity of chemical weathering, with higher Rb/Sr ratios indicating higher chemical weathering degree [Chang *et al.*, 2013]. The Rb/Sr ratios in core MD01-2385 range from 0.65 to 0.95 (see Materials and Methods in Supplementary Information; Fig. 2d). Both the CIA and Rb/Sr ratios display similar long-term variations to the record of smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios, with lower CIA and Rb/Sr ratios generally corresponding to higher smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios (note the inverse scales for CIA and Rb/Sr ratios on Fig. 2). This co-variation is also seen during the millennial-scale events of HS 1-4, with increased CIA and Rb/Sr ratios accompanying the lower smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios (Fig. 2). However, while noting the relatively lower resolution of these chemical records, we also recognize some discrepancies with the clay mineral record on multi-millennial timescales. For example, outside of the HS 1-4 events, no clear multi-millennial variation is observed in the CIA or Rb/Sr records. In addition, spectral analysis demonstrates that all of the records contain a strong precession periodicity (Fig. 2a-d), whereas only the smectite/(illite+chlorite) record and the zonal Pacific Δ SST anomaly show consistent multi-millennial periodicities at \sim 8 and \sim 3 ka (Fig. 2a-b).

4. Discussion

4.1. Physical erosion and chemical weathering records from core MD01-2385

Given its proximal location, the most important sediment source to core MD01-2385 is the island of New Guinea (Fig. S2), with its northern slope and surrounding islands mainly comprising basic to intermediate volcanic rocks and their derived sediments [Wu *et al.*, 2012].

The high smectite content in core MD01-2385 (Fig. S3) is consistent with rapid weathering of basaltic rocks in a wet and humid region [Wu *et al.*, 2012]. This inference is also supported by a similar dominance of smectite in the clay mineral assemblages of nearby KX cores from the northern margin of New Guinea [Dang *et al.*, 2020a; Wu *et al.*, 2012] (Fig. S2). The above observations lead us to suggest that local sources in northwest New Guinea, in particular the northern margin of Bird's Head Peninsula, supplied most of the smectite to the study site via transport in small mountainous river systems (Fig. S2).

The smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios show fluctuations corresponding to both HS 1-4 and to the high-frequency multi-millennial ENSO-like variability (Fig. 2a-b), whereas the geochemical ratios (CIA, Rb/Sr ratios) seem to record only the HS 1-4 events (Fig. 2c-d). Furthermore, these proxies are anti-correlated, with elevated smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios corresponding to lower CIA and Rb/Sr ratios. Such observations could be explained by a weathering regime in northwest New Guinea that is strongly controlled by physical erosion induced by heavy rainfall. In such a highly erosional regime, increases in precipitation can be expected to enhance both physical erosion rates and sediment transport efficiency in the drainage basins of New Guinea, leading to less time for sediments to be strongly chemically weathered in soils and hence driving the delivery of detrital minerals characterized by a lower degree of chemical weathering (i.e., lower CIA and Rb/Sr). In other words, while physical erosion rates and chemical weathering fluxes were both enhanced during wet conditions, the chemical weathering fluxes increased by proportionally less than the erosion rates, such that the degree of weathering of those sediments decreased [West, 2012]. As a corollary, drier conditions, such as during HS 1-4, would lead to weaker runoff and reduced physical erosion rates, but a higher degree of chemical weathering of the detrital minerals due to their longer residence times in soils. Given that the basalt-dominated lithology and hot, humid climate favour the production and supply of smectite by physical erosion, the variations of illite and

chlorite are considered to represent background sedimentation, while changes in smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios are related to physical erosion-controlled variations in smectite input.

4.2. Reconstruction of precipitation changes in northwestern New Guinea

The main climatic factors affecting the terrigenous weathering of a given region during the Late Quaternary are precipitation and temperature [*Chamley, 1989; West et al., 2005*]. In the IPWP region, tropical SST anomalies do not reveal significant variability during the North Atlantic cold events [*Dang et al., 2020b; Koutavas and Joanides, 2012*] (Fig. 2e), and this muted tropical temperature variability over millennial timescales is widely supported in numerous studies [*Chiang, 2009; Graham and Barnett, 1987; Shakun et al., 2012*]. Therefore, we suggest that the millennial-scale variations in the weathering and erosion records in core MD01-2385 must have been mainly influenced by precipitation (rather than temperature), and so can be used as an indicator of tropical precipitation changes. Such an interpretation is also consistent with a study of clay mineralogy in the nearby KX cores (Fig. S2), which proposed that precipitation was the main controlling factor on regional weathering [*Wu et al., 2012*].

Given that core MD01-2385 is located in the center of the IPWP region, the precipitation intensity inferred from our weathering and erosion records is expected to reflect changes in the intensity of the deep atmospheric convection center in the IPWP and/or spatial migration of the convection center. Therefore, the modern relationship between the zonal Pacific SST gradient, ENSO variability, and IPWP precipitation can be invoked to explain the similar millennial-scale variations [*Koutavas and Joanides, 2012*] (Fig. 2a-d). Specifically, negative zonal Pacific Δ SST anomalies generally correspond to lower smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios during HS 1-3 and other high-frequency multi-millennial intervals throughout the record (Fig. 2a-b). This pattern could be explained by frequent El Niño-like conditions leading to a weakened Walker circulation and an eastward-shifted precipitation center. In contrast, positive

zonal Pacific Δ SST anomalies indicate La Niña-like conditions and an enhanced Walker circulation during both warm interstadial events and the early to middle Holocene, which could strengthen precipitation in northwest New Guinea (Fig. 2a-b). The different responses of smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios and geochemical indicators (CIA, Rb/Sr ratios) to the high-frequency ENSO-like variability (Fig. 2a-d) could be related to a different sensitivity of physical erosion and chemical weathering processes in response to precipitation changes. For example, the HS events may have involved more extreme and/or longer-lasting precipitation changes that affected both the weathering and erosion indicators, whereas only the erosion indicators show a clear response to the shorter and/or weaker perturbations corresponding to ENSO-like variability outside of HS events.

The decrease in smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios (Fig. 2a) and the corresponding increase in Rb/Sr ratios during the late Holocene (Fig. 2d) are also consistent with a trend towards more negative zonal Pacific Δ SST anomalies (Fig. 2d), which suggests a weakening of the Walker circulation towards the present-day that would lead to reduced precipitation in this region. Such a late Holocene weakening of the Walker circulation is in agreement with coupled climate model experiments [*DiNezio et al., 2011*] and with proxies for thermocline depth and rainfall in the eastern tropical Indian Ocean [*Mohtadi et al., 2017*]. The proxy records from the latter study also suggested that the Walker circulation was weaker during the late Holocene than during the LGM [*Mohtadi et al., 2017*], which is supported by the lower smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios and higher Rb/Sr ratios observed for the late Holocene than the LGM in core MD01-2385. However, a stronger-than-modern Walker circulation during the LGM is in conflict with a synthesis of proxy reconstructions and a multi-model ensemble of climate simulations [*Liu et al., 2009*], which could point to inconsistent variations of the Walker circulation intensity in different regions.

4.3. Spatial patterns of millennial-scale precipitation changes in the Indo-Pacific region

Comparing our new record to existing records from the Indo-Pacific region provides a better understanding of the mechanisms controlling precipitation variability on millennial timescales. In core MD01-2385 (C-1, Fig. 1a), the lower smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios during HS 1 imply decreased precipitation, which is inconsistent with the increased precipitation at this time inferred from several nearby cores in the eastern Indo-Pacific region (A-7 and A-8 in the north, and A-9 to A-11 in the south; Fig. 1a and c), indicating a complex spatial pattern of precipitation variability. These sites are located within different hydrological regimes in the modern day (i.e., zones A and C; Fig. 1), which may help to explain the heterogeneous precipitation patterns on millennial timescales.

To explore the drivers of such millennial-scale precipitation heterogeneity in the Indo-Pacific region, precipitation values of HS1 minus BA in the modelling results of TraCE-21 and the new compiled paleo-proxy records (Table S1) was calculated, respectively, and then put together for comparison (see Materials and Methods in Supplementary Information; Fig. 3 and Table S1). The paleo-reconstructions are generally in agreement with the modelling results when the annual mean precipitation is considered (Fig. 3a). In the modelling results for boreal summer, the western Indo-Pacific region (Indian Ocean) shows a “meridional” structure reflecting the ITCZ migration (Fig. 3b), while the modelling results for boreal winter reveal a “sandwich” structure in the eastern part (western Pacific Ocean) (Fig. 3c). The “sandwich” structure is characterized by weaker precipitation over regions including Sulawesi, and the Banda Sea, sandwiched by regions with higher precipitation including the Luzon Islands, central New Guinea, and northern Australia. Such a “sandwich” structure could not be explained simply by ITCZ migration, and calls for additional influences.

During the last deglaciation, sea-level rise also had the potential to affect the intensity of the Walker circulation and the regional precipitation by changing the land-sea configuration

[*DiNezio and Tierney, 2013*]. Additionally, rising sea level could potentially have affected certain precipitation proxies at specific sites, by providing a more proximal moisture source, and a more distal position of marine cores relative to the terrestrial shoreline [*Konecky et al., 2016*] (Fig. 2f). However, any sea-level effect on the proxies in the cores located in the eastern Indo-Pacific region was unlikely to be pronounced, given the narrow continental shelves on the eastern margins of Luzon and New Guinea islands and the lack of variability in millennial-scale palaeo-coastline reconstructions from this region [*Hanebuth et al., 2011*]. This inference is also supported by the fact that the gradual deglacial sea-level rise (Fig. 2f) could potentially explain either a gradual shift or a jump in a proxy record due to a threshold effect, but should not cause fluctuations back and forth, such as those observed (Fig. 1).

To further investigate the potential factors affecting the precipitation changes in the IPWP, we additionally considered single-forcing experiments in the TraCE-21 modelling (Fig. S4). We found that both the “meridional” structure in the western part and the “sandwich” structure in the eastern part are most significant in the meltwater fluxes (MWF) experiment rather than that of the orbital parameters (ORB) and greenhouse gases concentrations (GHG) experiments (Fig. S4). In the ice volume (ICE) experiment, precipitation changes are weaker than the other experiments, and a “sandwich” structure rather than a “meridional” one is simulated in the western part. Therefore, these experiments further support that a sea-level effect is probably not a significant driver of the millennial-scale precipitation changes recorded by our record. Instead, meltwater forcing appears to have been an important driver of the millennial-scale precipitation variability, since this forcing on its own produces a fairly good fit to the data (Fig. S4).

The “meridional” structure in the western Indo-Pacific region (Indian Ocean) describes two regions that are separated by the mean position of the ITCZ (Fig. 3), which can be expected to vary through time in response to interhemispheric temperature asymmetry. In

contrast, a clear “sandwich” structure is seen in the eastern Indo-Pacific region (Western Pacific) (Fig. 3), which is more significant in winter in the meltwater flux (MWF) experiment (Fig. S4). Such modelling result may be related to the ENSO-like conditions and Pacific Walker circulation that would have shifted the precipitation center in and/or away from the western Indo-Pacific region. This hypothesis is supported by the consistent variations between the zonal Pacific Δ SST anomaly and our weathering and erosion records, particularly the smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios (Fig. 2). Since the ITCZ and ENSO systems have higher frequency cycles than those resolved here, we also speculate that this complex precipitation pattern in the IPWP may not only be present on millennial timescales, but also on shorter timescales, although future studies would be needed to verify such a hypothesis.

5. Conclusions

High-resolution records of clay mineralogy and elemental chemistry in sediment core MD01-2385 from the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool (IPWP) were used to reconstruct sub-millennial precipitation changes within the IPWP over the last 40,000 years. These weathering and erosion records are used as precipitation proxies and are interpreted in terms of changes in the intensity or migration of deep convection in the IPWP. We found that higher smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios and lower CIA and Rb/Sr ratios coincided with strong zonal Pacific Δ SST anomalies during North Atlantic warm interstadials and the early to middle Holocene, which suggests that a La Niña-like state and strong Walker circulation strengthened the regional precipitation. In contrast, lower smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios and higher CIA and Rb/Sr ratios were coincident with weak zonal Pacific Δ SST anomalies during North Atlantic cold HS events and the late Holocene, implying an El Niño-like state and weak Walker circulation. In combination with a compilation of existing records and TraCE-21 modelling results, we demonstrate a spatially heterogeneous pattern of millennial-scale

precipitation in the Indo-Pacific region, with the eastern part (West Pacific) mainly influenced by the ENSO-like system and the western part (Indian Ocean) mainly controlled by migration of the ITCZ. These results could provide a useful framework for future projections of atmospheric patterns and precipitation change in this region, although the behaviour of this system under significantly warmer conditions than the pre-industrial climate was not tested here.

Data Availability Statement

The data are available at Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/record/7089974#.YybRP_mj518) and also in the supporting materials.

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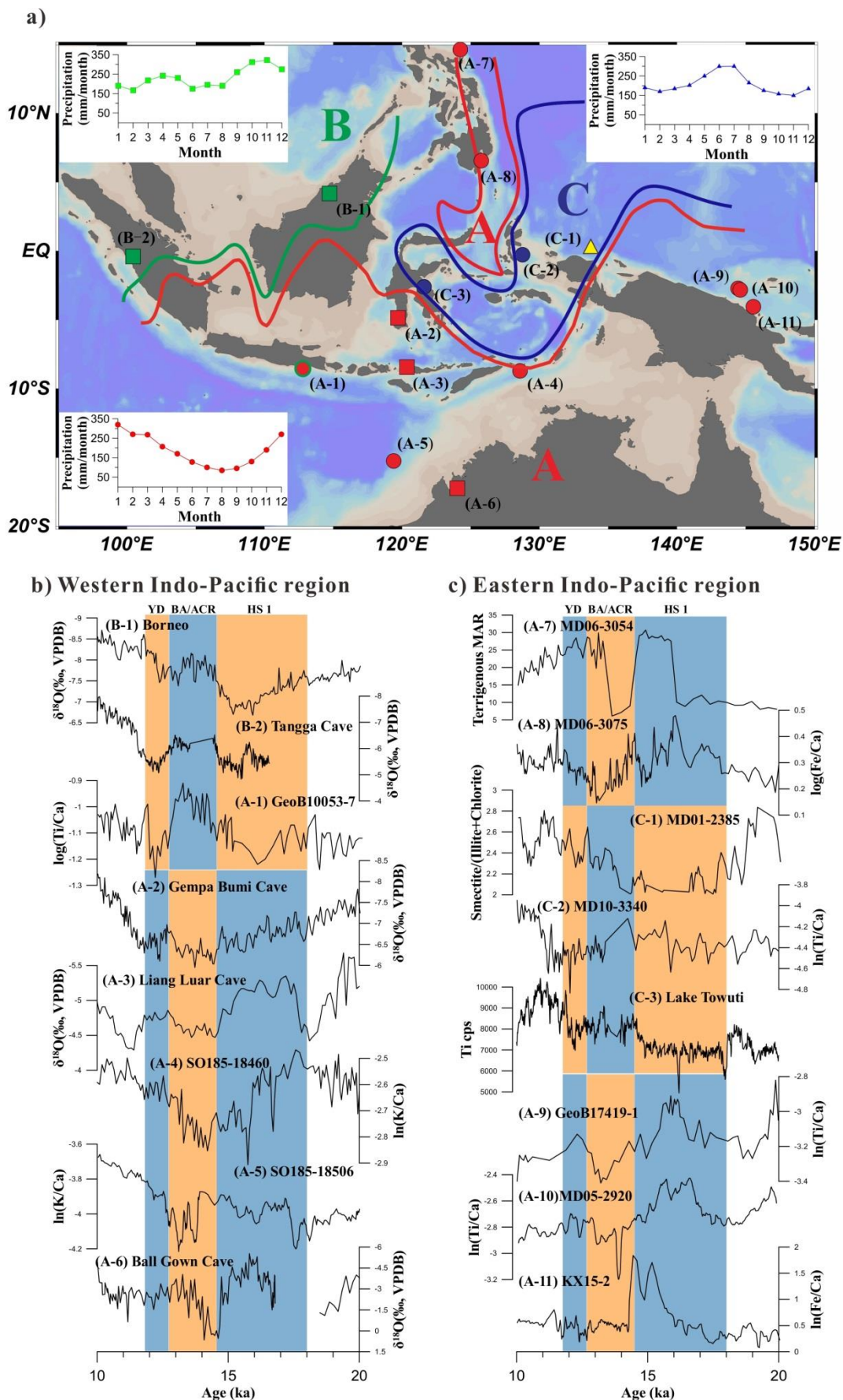


Figure 1. Comparison of modern and deglacial precipitation patterns in the Indo-Pacific

region. (a) Map showing three regions (A, B, and C) with distinct precipitation patterns (inset figures), based on monthly rainfall data from meteorological stations spanning 1961-1993 in the Global Historical Climatology Network (GHCN) database [Aldrian and Susanto, 2003]. Locations of millennial-scale paleoclimate reconstructions from each region are marked by symbols (circles, marine cores; squares, stalagmites; triangle, this study) and coloured/labelled by region: (A-1) GeoB10053-7 [Mohtadi et al., 2011], (A-2) Gempa Bumi Cave [Krause et al., 2019], (A-3) Liang Luar Cave [Ayliffe et al., 2013; Griffiths et al., 2009], (A-4) SO185-18460 [Kuhnt et al., 2015], (A-5) SO185-18506 [Kuhnt et al., 2015], (A-6) Ball Gown Cave [Denniston et al., 2013], (A-7) MD06-3054 [Xiong et al., 2018], (A-8) MD06-3075 [Fraser et al., 2014], (A-9) GeoB17419-1 [Hollstein et al., 2018], (A-10) MD05-2920 [Tachikawa et al., 2011] and (A-11) KX15-2 [Dang et al., 2020a] from region A (red); (B-1) Borneo stalagmite [Carolin et al., 2013; Carolin et al., 2016; Partin et al., 2007] and (B-2) Tangga Cave [Wurtzel et al., 2018] from region B (green); and (C-1) MD01-2385 (9-point running mean, this study; note that only the clay mineralogy proxy is shown here), (C-2) MD10-3340 [Dang et al., 2015], and (C-3) Lake Towuti [Russell et al., 2014] from region C (blue). (b) Deglacial precipitation reconstructions in the western Indo-Pacific region (i.e., eastern Indian Ocean). Note that (A-1) GeoB10053-7 is located in region A, but shows decreasing precipitation during the Younger Dryas and HS 1, similar to region B records. (c) Deglacial precipitation reconstructions in the eastern Indo-Pacific region (i.e., western Pacific Ocean). All records are plotted such that upwards indicates increased precipitation, and are presented on their original published age models. Blue/orange shading indicates higher/lower precipitation, respectively. HS 1, Heinrich Stadial 1; BA, Bølling–Allerød; ACR, Antarctic Cold Reversal; YD, Younger Dryas; MAR, Mass Accumulation Rate.

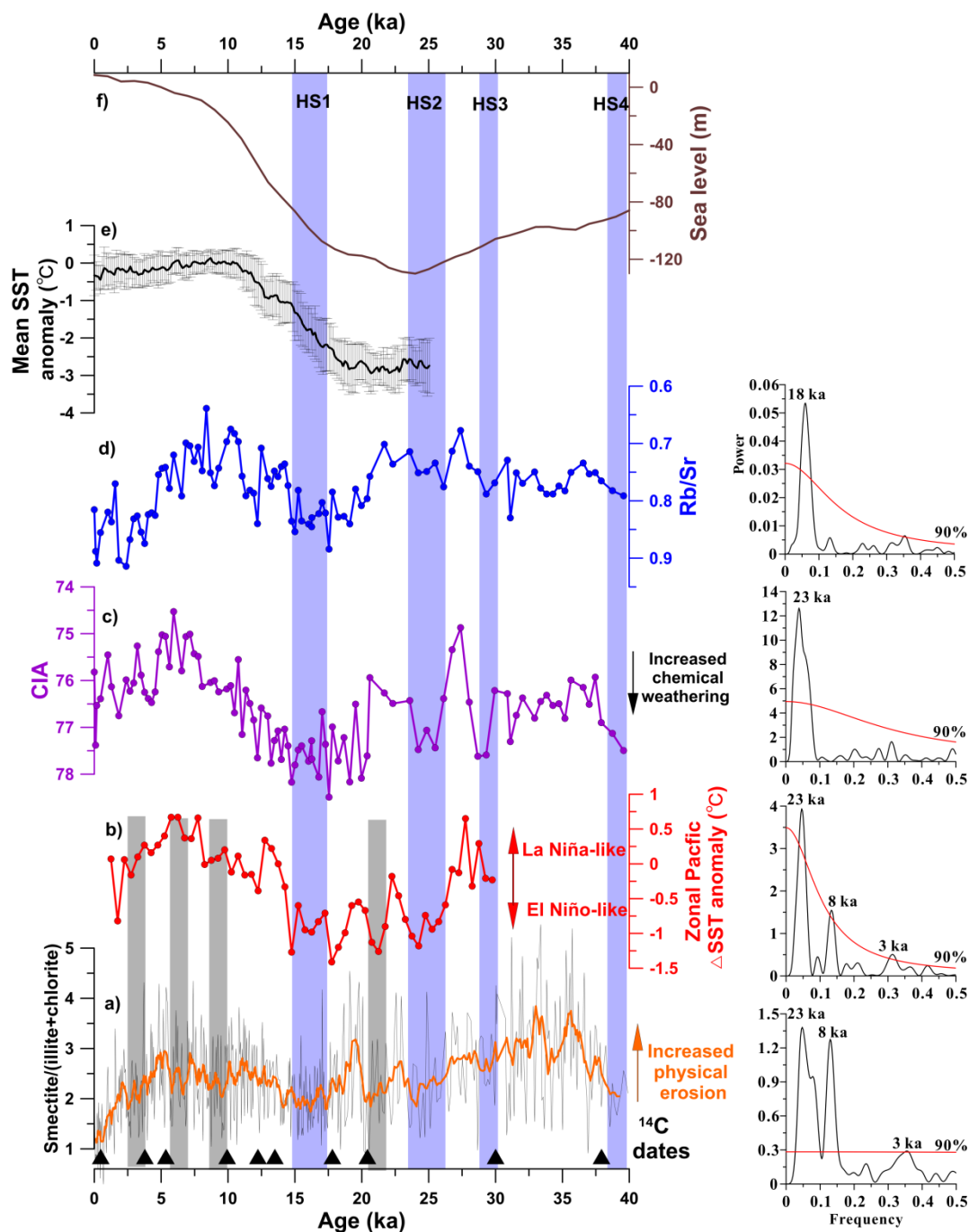
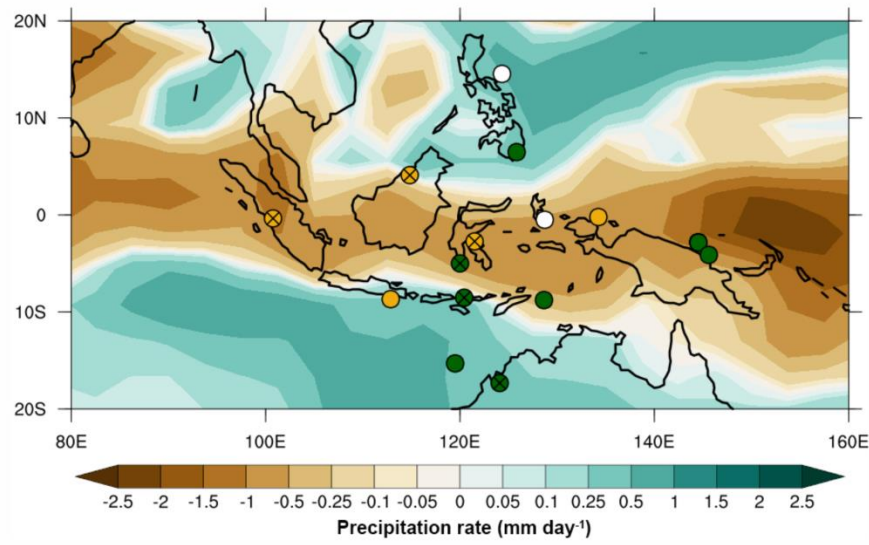


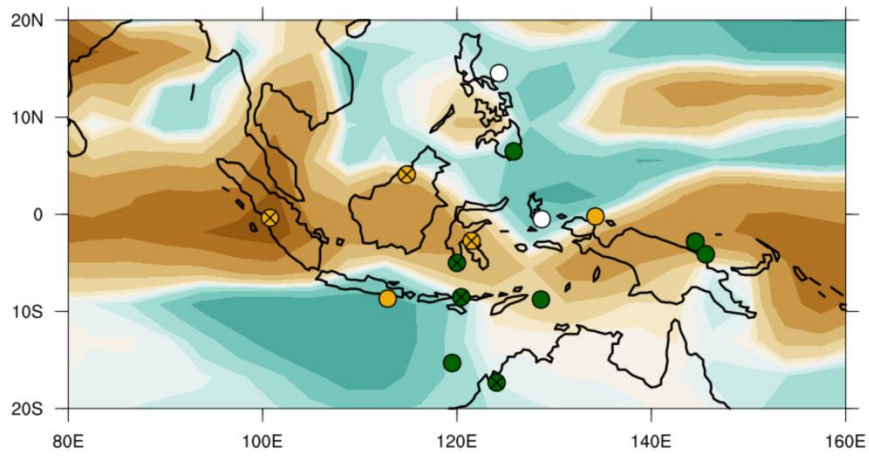
Figure 2. Comparison of millennial-scale weathering and climate records. (a) Weathering intensity indicated by smectite/(illite+chlorite) ratios in core MD01-2385 (this study). Black lines are individual data points and orange lines are 9-point running mean. The black triangles represent calibrated ^{14}C ages. (b) Variations in the ENSO-like system, indicated by the zonal Pacific ΔSST anomaly from a compilation of SST data [Koutavas and Joanides, 2012]. (c) Chemical weathering intensity in core MD01-2385 (this study) based on the chemical index of alteration $\text{CIA} = [\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CaO}^* + \text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O})] \times 100$, where CaO^* represents CaO

associated with the silicate fraction [*Nesbitt and Young, 1982*]. (d) Rb/Sr ratio in core MD01-2385 (this study). Note that the y-axes of panels (c) and (d) are reversed. (e) Stacked SST anomaly relative to the mean of each record from 6-10 ka for the IPWP [*Dang et al., 2020b*]. Error bars represent 2SD. (f) Global sea-level reconstruction [*Spratt and Lisiecki, 2016*]. North Atlantic cold events of Heinrich Stadials (HS) 1-4 and other multi-millennial intervals are labelled and indicated with blue and gray bars, respectively. Spectral analysis of each record (a-d) is shown on the right, calculated using the PAST software. Red lines are 90% confidence levels.

a) Annual mean



b) Boreal summer



c) Boreal winter

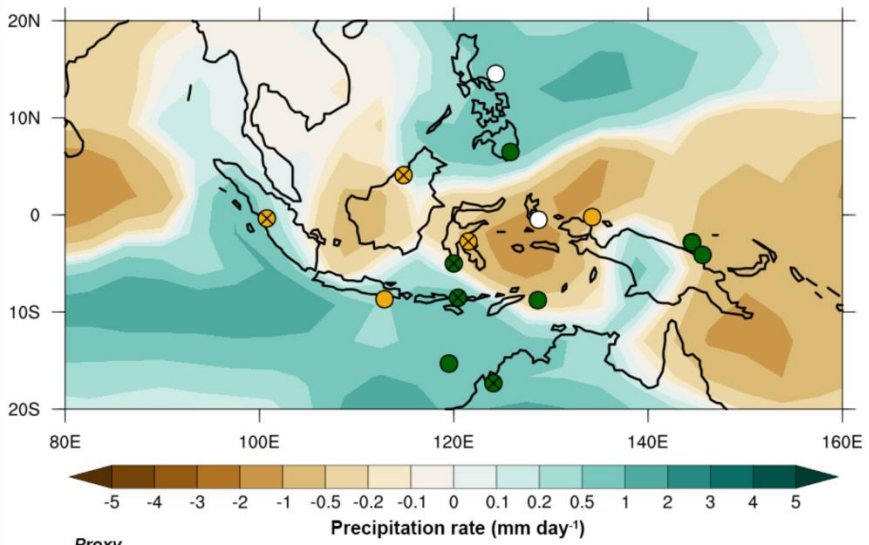


Figure 3. Comparison of precipitation anomalies for HS 1 minus the Bølling–Allerød (BA) for TraCE-21 modelling results (colour shading) [Liu *et al.*, 2009] and the paleo-proxies (symbols) for (a) the annual mean, (b) boreal summer, and (c) boreal winter. For details of the paleo-proxy records, see Figure 1. The average values from each of the two intervals (BA: 14.7–13 ka; HS 1: 17–15 ka) were used. The significance of the difference between HS 1 and the BA in each proxy record was tested using a Student’s t-test and the p values are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

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