PNAS www.pnas.org

Material and Methods

 Study area and sample collection. The study area is situated at the northern fringe of the Asian summer monsoon (ASM) region, which is highly sensitive to climate variability (Fig. 1). According to meteorological records from Delingha national meteorological station (1956-2011), mean annual precipitation accounts to 170.4 mm, about 85% of which falls in summer (May-September). Mean air temperatures in summer and winter are 15.7°C and -9.4°C, respectively.

 We collected on several occasions over the past decade wood samples from living and dead Qilian juniper (*Juniperus przewalskii* Kom.) trees in the Qilian Mountains (37– 38.7°N, 97–100°E), northeastern Tibetan Plateau (TP). Qilian juniper is a dominant tree species growing in the cold and semi-arid conditions of the northeastern TP and is widely distributed on south-facing slopes (1, 2). We have produced a tree-ring width chronology that is currently the longest, absolutely dated tree-ring series for the northeastern TP spanning 4,649 years (2637 BCE–2011 CE) and representing moisture

variations over the hydrological year (previous July to current June, or P7-C6) (1).

 Logs of dead trees of the same species found recently at two sites close to the city of Delingha (Zongwulong Mountain: 37°27′N, 97°47′E, 3500-4150 m a.s.l.) represent a unique climatic archive, allowing the reconstruction of climate variability over the period from the mid-Holocene to the present.

 The physiological mechanisms of the stable oxygen isotopic fractionation pathway from the source to the sink are clearly understood (3). By now, stable oxygen isotope 49 variations $(\delta^{18}O)$ in tree-ring cellulose are a frequently-used climate parameter in paleoclimate studies that serves as a reliable indicator of hydroclimatic conditions. In 51 many cases, δ^{18} O series show stronger inter-tree correlations than ring-width series of the same trees. Hence, a lower number of trees is required to obtain a reliable chronological signal. Moreover, the analysis of stable isotopes can strongly improve the clarity of low-frequency climate signals, compared to the low-frequency signals stored in tree-ring widths (4).

 In this study, 53 tree samples showing normal growth, clear ring boundaries and few missing rings were selected for δ¹⁸O measurements. All 53 tree samples were collected from two open canopy sites within the Delingha region: MNT (37.45°N-37.46°N, 97.67°E-97.69°E) and QK (37.46°N-37.48°N, 97.77°E-97.78°E). The two sites represent two generally homogeneous growth environments in close proximity, located less than 30 km apart. The individual tree-ring samples were separated using a razor blade. For the period 1168-2011 CE, tree ring samples of 10 trees were pooled for the same calendar year, while the other 43 tree samples were measured individually tree by tree (see Table S1 for details). Precise dendrochronological crossdating allows us to pool samples and maximize the length of the record that can be produced with the 66 available resources. Similarly, to reduce workload, δ^{18} O measurements were obtained at varying temporal resolutions (see Table S1 for details). Some samples were measured with 1-yr resolution in order to evaluate the impact of different resolutions on the chronology, such as MNP366A, MNP407B and MNP546A. The three samples do not start or end with "5" and "0". Some samples such as MNP367A, MNP364A, MNP405A, MNP344A, MNP375A, MNP533A, MNP387A are measured with 3-yr resolution, i.e. -182 BCE, -179 BCE, -176 BCE, ……, 1 CE, 4 CE, 7 CE, ……, 1948 CE. In addition, some samples such as MNT710B, ……, MNT265A have a 3-year resolution before 1800 CE and 1 year resolution for the period 1800 – 1955 CE over the recent millennium.

δ ¹⁸O analysis. The method of sample preparation and α-cellulose extraction followed standard laboratory guidelines as described by Wieloch et al. (5) and Qin et al. (6). For each tree sample, α-cellulose was extracted resulting in a total of 9526 samples for the 80 measurements of δ^{18} O. Of these, α-cellulose extraction for 6455 samples was undertaken in the isotope laboratory of the Institute of Geography (University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Germany), and for 3071 samples in the key laboratory of Tree Ring and Environmental Change at Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden (Chinese Academy of Sciences, China). After freeze drying and sample homogenization, each α-cellulose sample (0.3-0.4 mg) was packed in silver capsules for mass spectrometer analysis (Delta V Advantage, Thermo Electron, Bremen, Germany).

 Isotopic compositions are presented as δ[‰]=(Rsample/Rstandard−1)×1000‰, where 89 Rsample and Rstandard are the ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ ratios of the sample and the standard, respectively. 90 The ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ standard is the Vienna-Standard Mean Oceanic Water (VSMOW). A total 91 of 9526 δ^{18} O values were obtained in this study, including 61 repeated measurements to assess for the differences in results obtained by the slightly different methods and laboratory standards used in the two abovementioned laboratories.

 Multiple internal quality standard calibration for α-cellulose analysis is based on five laboratory standards in the German laboratory (IAEA 601, IAEA 602, a-Cellulose, Saccharose OAS, Stearic acid) and three laboratory standards in the Chinese laboratory 97 (a-Cellulose, B2203 and B2205). The post- $\delta^{18}O$ measurement corrections included mean and drift correction. The standard deviation (SD) of the results from the repeated analysis of an internal standard (commercial cellulose) was better than 0.1‰ in both laboratories. In all analyses we used the arithmetic mean isotope ratios from different tree samples in the same calendar year.

 Cross-laboratory validation showed no significant difference between the two sets of results (Fig. S1). Strong correlation between the chronologies measured by the pooled and individual α-cellulose extraction method is apparent, and no significant difference 105 in mean δ^{18} O between the two approaches was detectable (Fig. S2).

δ ¹⁸O chronology establishment. Experiments and sensitivity tests were undertaken to 108 investigate four potential non-climatic influences on the $\delta^{18}O$ measurements: sampling altitude, age-related trends, juvenile effects and outlier values.

110 Tree-ring δ^{18} O inherits the δ^{18} O signal of local precipitation via water absorption from the soil through the roots and may consequently contain an altitude signal. The trees sampled in this study grew at altitudes ranging between 3570 to 4085 m a.s.l.. More than half of the trees (28 trees) were located within a range of 100 m from 3895 to 3995 m a.s.l. (Fig. S3). For a sensitivity test, we compared two chronologies built from a) all 53 samples and b) from 39 samples within the narrow altitudinal range from 3850 to 116 4085 m a.s.l. and only found little differences. As a further test, we investigated whether 117 a relationship might be present between mean δ^{18} O and mean elevation of the samples. 118 Their time series showed different patterns over the past 6700 years (Fig. S3), and this 119 was verified by scatter plots of the δ^{18} O values and elevation over the entire period (Fig. 120 S3), as well as during the instrumental period (Fig. S4). In no case a significant 121 relationship between mean δ^{18} O and mean elevation of the samples was detectable.

122 The same lack of influence of altitude on $\delta^{18}O$ can be observed for a $\delta^{18}O$ series from 123 the Animaqin mountains (34.76°N, 99.69°E, northeastern TP, approximately 300 km 124 from our study site). In this recent study, potential effects of altitude and juvenile 125 growth stages on tree-ring cellulose $\delta^{18}O$ in Qilian junipers were assessed (7). It was 126 revealed that tree-ring δ^{18} O data from five different altitudes (4250, 4150, 4000, 3900 127 and 3800 m a.s.l.) were strongly correlated (*r* > 0.88) and no significant differences 128 were detected in the mean or SD of tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ values at different elevations. Therefore, altitude effects on tree-ring δ^{18} O were not observed in that study area, which 130 confirmed our finding. In addition, Wang et al. (8) developed a 3-year-resolution $\delta^{18}O$ 131 chronology spanning 991-2010 CE based on 20 living Qilian juniper trees in the same 132 region (37°16′N, 97°32′E) as our study. All tree samples were collected from the same 133 altitude of 4000 m a.s.l., which is higher than most tree stands in our study. However, 134 the average $\delta^{18}O$ value (32.9‰) is comparable to our study (32.7‰) over the same 135 period 991-2010 CE. Therefore, a possible elevation effect/dependency can be 136 excluded.

137 Age-related effects on tree-ring δ^{18} O values have been proposed for junipers in Pakistan (9), but similar results were not found consistently in Asia. Hence, no consensus on age-dependent effects has been reached (10). An effect of age on tree-140 ring cellulose δ^{18} O was limited to the first 10 years of tree growth in juvenile Qilian junipers in the Animaqin Mountains of the northeastern TP (7), but not found in other 142 studies focusing on $\delta^{18}O$ in juniper trees from the southern TP (11). In addition, age effects were not detected in pines from south-east China or in larch trees from Bhutan (12, 13).

 In our study, 36 of the 53 samples contained full piths. We adopted linear fitting to 146 the time series of these 36 samples to detect any age effect in each $\delta^{18}O$ series, on three 147 time scales: 1) the whole series; 2) the first 50 years of tree growth; and 3) ages beyond 50 years (Fig. S5, S6, Table S2). Over the whole series, 7 out of 36 series showed significantly positive trends, 17 out of 36 series showed significantly negative trends, and 12 out of 36 series showed no significant trends. Over the first 50 years of tree growth, 2 out of 36 series showed significantly positive trends, and 34 out of 36 series showed no significant trends. At ages beyond 50 years, 9 out of 36 series showed significantly positive trends, 15 out of 36 series showed significantly negative trends, and 12 out of 36 series showed no significant trends. In summary, there was no 155 consistent relationship between tree age and δ^{18} O, whether considering the whole series, 156 the first 50 years of growth, or the remainder. Therefore, we conclude that the $\delta^{18}O$ series contain no age-related trend and can therefore seamlessly be merged into a mean 158 series.

159 We also carried out a sensitivity analysis to assess a potential juvenile effect, by 160 comparing the arithmetic means of each individual δ^{18} O series after removing the first 161 $\,$ 50 or 100 years. The resulting δ^{18} O chronologies were very strongly correlated with the 162 original δ^{18} O chronology (r>0.98, n=1628, 4405 BCE to 2011 CE, P<0.01), and there 163 was no significant difference in their mean values (p<0.01) (Fig. S6), suggesting there 164 is no juvenile effect on tree-ring cellulose δ^{18} O in these trees. Therefore, local age-165 related influences on tree-ring cellulose δ^{18} O in the northeastern TP are negligible. 166 Similarly, the arithmetic mean of each $\delta^{18}O$ series is not affected by altitude.

167 The outliers detected in our tree-ring δ^{18} O series probably originate from cellulose impurities or from contamination during the processes of α-cellulose extraction, cellulose packaging and measurement. Firstly, 34 outliers were detected on a tree-by-170 tree basis using the Pauta criterion (mathematical expectation $\pm 3 \times SD$ as the threshold of rejection level). Next, the same screening method was applied to non-outlier measurements to re-establish a credible interval for each calendar year, before assessing whether the above outliers were reasonable. Twelve outliers were not excluded based on the above analyses (Table S3). Meanwhile, four apparent outliers (37.08‰, 35.34‰, 35.91‰ and 36.69‰) in 1950 BCE showed consistent positive anomalies of 4.64‰, 4.37‰, 5.79‰ and 4.68‰; these were similar to the other non-outlier measurements (35.46‰, 35.26‰) with positive respective anomalies of 4.27‰ and 3.44‰. Such values may indicate a common climate imprint. Therefore, the four outliers in 1950 BCE were not excluded. Five additional outliers in the pooled series "MNT" were detected (excluding the abovementioned outlier in 1192 CE, Table S3). The MNT outliers in 1354 CE (27.52% with -5.04% bias from five trees) were consistent with other non-outlier measurements (31.59‰ with -1.51‰ bias and 30.96‰ with -1.76‰ bias) and the outliers in 1615 CE (27.93‰ with -4.63‰ bias from ten trees) were consistent with other non-outlier measurements (29.25‰ with -3.24‰ bias and 29.83‰ with -2.89‰ bias). The MNT outliers (36.92‰ from ten trees) in 1810 CE were retained because there were no other measurements in that year. The other outliers (37.37‰ in 1171 CE and 37.82‰ in 1183 CE, both from one tree) were excluded. Overall, 16 outliers were excluded and 18 apparent outliers were retained (Table 189 S3). After completing the above analyses, a merged δ^{18} O chronology was developed 190 based on the arithmetic mean of all the $\delta^{18}O$ series for the same calendar years. The final chronology has at least one sample per measured calendar year (either one year in 192 three or one year in five, annually since 1951) from 4680 BCE to present, replication is at least two samples for most of this period (4510 BCE to present), though for most of the record sample depth ranges from four up to twelve individuals. The long-term arithmetic mean isotope ratio was 31.88‰.

196 As indicated above, δ^{18} O measurements were obtained at varying temporal resolutions 197 over time. We compared the merged 5-year resolution δ^{18} O chronology with time series 198 of three individual δ^{18} O records that have annual resolution during 2550 BCE–1100 CE (Fig. S8). The individual annual $\delta^{18}O$ records generally track the direction of the DLH 200 mean δ^{18} O chronology with 5-year resolution. This agreement suggests that the 201 composite chronology is insensitive to individual $\delta^{18}O$ records with different temporal resolutions.

 Sample size, mean interseries correlations (Rbar) and Expressed Population Signal (EPS) of the δ^{18} **O dataset.** The calculation is complicated because some series are measured only every 5th ring, some only every 3rd ring, some every ring, and one series is based on pooled material from multiple trees. For year X, sample size is the 208 count of how many series have at least one measurement during the period $X-2$ to $X+2$. This is to avoid large fluctuations in EPS from year to year when the series with a measurement every 5th year is present. But it must be interpreted carefully: when calculated this way, the EPS has values every year but they only represent the quality 212 of the chronology for the years with data. If the pooled series has data in the X-2 to $X+2$ period, the sample size includes all of the constituent trees used in the pooled series in year X.

215 A window of 250-year centered on year X is used (from year X-124 to X+125) to calculate correlation and Rbar. All series with data during this window are considered on a pairwise basis. The correlation between each pair of measurement series is calculated using only the values in the window, but is only calculated if there is a minimum of 10 values (i.e. both series must have measurements from the same year for at least 10 years during the window). This minimum overlap requirement is to avoid correlations being computed from very short overlaps because they would have large uncertainty.

 By the above process, a correlation matrix is generated for each window. If the correlation matrix contains at least 3 correlations (i.e. at least 3 pairs of measurement series met the above criteria) then it is averaged to obtain Rbar for this window. For 226 years when the pooled series has data but there are not sufficient other series to calculate Rbar (using the above criteria), then the mean Rbar for the whole chronology is used. EPS is calculated from the sample size and Rbar using the standard formula of Wigley et al. (14).

 Hydroclimate reconstruction. We obtained monthly instrumental records (precipitation, temperature, and relative humidity) of Delingha during 1956-2011 CE from the National Meteorological Information Centre of China. The outlier of monthly precipitation (137.1 mm) in August, 1977 was adjusted to 22.1 mm according to records of the surrounding meteorological stations (15). The self-calibrating Palmer Drought Severity Index (scPDSI) data is the version of CRU 1901-2017 0.5° Global 3.26 available from: [https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/drought/#global.](https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/drought/#global)

 As mentioned above, there is a significant correlation and no significant difference 239 (p<0.05) in the mean values between the δ^{18} O chronologies established by individual and pooling methods. Considering that the whole chronology is mainly established by 241 individual $\delta^{18}O$ series except for the past 1168 years, we adopted the arithmetic mean 242 of the individual $\delta^{18}O$ series as the chronology for climate calibration. Correlation and 243 response analysis of δ^{18} O to climatic factors was conducted over the period 1956–2011 244 (Fig. S9). Our record shows a strong correlation between δ^{18} O and precipitation of the 245 hydrological year (prior August to current July; $r_{1956-2011} = -0.70$; first-order difference 246 correlation=-0.62), April-September scPDSI $(r_{1956-2011} = -0.69)$; first-order difference correlation=-0.62), and May-September relative humidity (r=-0.48, first-order 248 difference correlation=-0.58). As indicated in Tables S4–S5, our tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ series serves as a strong indicator of interannual variability in drought conditions and precipitation.

 Calibration against the annual precipitation record allows us to quantify hydroclimatic variability on multi-annual to orbital timescales. Ordinary regression analysis showed that regression residuals were significantly correlated (lag-1 autocorrelation = 0.38, p<0.01) over time, violating the assumption that the errors are independent of each other. We adopted a first-order autoregressive model for the random error accounting for the autocorrelation of the errors using the AUTOREG procedure in SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC). The relationship between annual precipitation and tree-ring oxygen isotopes was analyzed and the estimated coefficients of the model were used to reconstruct the annual (prior August to current July) precipitation of the past 6700 years. The estimates of the regression coefficients and autoregressive parameters are confident at the 0.01 significance level. The annual precipitation reconstruction explains 49% (n=56, $p<0.01$) of the variance in the Delingha instrumental precipitation record.

 We use a "leave-one-out" cross-validation to evaluate the statistical skill of our reconstruction model. For small sample sizes (56 annual values here; 1956-2011 CE), this approach is preferable to splitting the available data into separate calibration and validation sets. The procedure runs the AUTOREG model each time by leaving one observation out, thus creating a new dataset with the observations and the predictions (each prediction is one-datum validation). The cross-validation is assessed using the Reduction of Error (RE). The RE is a powerful test statistic, penalizing errors in the amplitude (from the mean level of the calibration period) of predicted values (1). The mean RE is 0.46, demonstrating the validity of our reconstruction model.

 The uncertainty ranges for the average precipitation of some sub-periods of the entire 273 reconstruction series are calculated with a modification factor multiplying the \pm 1 RMSE (root mean square error) based on the method used by Briffa et al. (16), since uncertainty ranges are timescale-dependent.

 Model description and simulation experiments. A set of transient simulation experiments (TraCE-21ka, Simulation of Transient Climate Evolution over the past 21 000 years) conducted with the Community Climate System model version 3 (CCSM3) was used to reveal spatial representation of the Delingha precipitation and 281 for comparison with our tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ record. The orbital-induced solar insolation, atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations, meltwater fluxes, and continental ice sheets were represented in the TraCE-21 transient simulation (17). The experiments consist of one transient experiment with all forcings (TraCE-ALL), one single-forcing experiment forced only by transient orbital variation (TraCE-ORB), one single-forcing experiment forced only by transient meltwater flux (TraCE-MWF), one single-forcing experiment forced only by a quasi-transient ice sheet (TraCE-ICE), and one single- forcing experiment forced only by transient greenhouse gas concentration changes (TraCE-GHG). The simulations were conducted from 20 000 BCE to 1990 CE for the TraCE-ALL, the TraCE-ORB and the TraCE-GHG experiments, and from 17 000 BCE to 1990 CE for the TraCE-MWF and the TraCE-ICE experiments (see ref Yan and Liu (18) for details). It should be noted, that according to the TraCE-ALL and TraCE-MWF experiments no freshwater was delivered to the ocean after 3000 BCE. Detailed information about the experiment design can be found in refs He (19) and He et al. (20). The model has been used to investigate the causes and mechanisms of Holocene climate changes, such as the Bølling–Allerød warming (17), the cooling into the Younger Dryas, and the following recovery to warm conditions (21), as well as the El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) evolution over the past 21 kyr (22). In the present work, we chose the period covering the past 6700 years.

 In addition, simulation dataset comprising 13 parallel experiments from the global Community Earth System Model-Last Millennium Ensemble (CESM-LME) are used as a supplement of the TraCE-21ka simulation. The simulation is conducted from 850 to 1850 CE and possessed ~2-degree resolution for the atmosphere and land components and ~1-degree resolution in the ocean and sea ice components (23). The CESM-LME includes a group of more comprehensive external forcings and its ensemble results are less dependent on the initial conditions and the contingency of the model simulation than a single member simulation, and therefore is more credible than other models that participate in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5). The forcings include the transient evolution of solar activity, volcanic emissions, greenhouse gases, aerosols, land use conditions, and orbital parameters. We conducted the Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis based on the TRACE-21ka (over the Holocene) and CESM-LME (850-1850 CE) simulation results.

 Regime shift analysis (STARS) and change points analysis of temporal trends of the time series. The regime shift analysis (STARS) is based on a sequential t-test approach to determine the timing of regime shifts (24). It calculates a Regime Shift Index (RSI), which represents a cumulative sum of normalized deviations from the hypothetical mean level for the new regime. The magnitude of RSI is a measure of the magnitude of the shift. The parametric method requires a user to set a number of parameters, such as the target significance level, cut-off length, and Huber weight parameter. The highest RSIs, representing the most dramatic decreases in mean annual precipitation level and thus the strongest shifts towards drought conditions were detected in 3350, 2815, 2095, 1675, and 70 BCE (Table S7). Shifts towards wetter conditions were typically less dramatic, with lower absolute RSI values, but the strongest wet regime shifts occurred in 2565 and 1185 BCE and ~760 CE (Table S7). The high-resolution dating of these regime shifts, allows us to determine the duration and magnitude of past drought events and pluvials. A longer cut-off length yields a stronger signal. STARS is available online at <http://www.beringclimate.noaa.gov/regimes> (24). Significant changes in temporal trends of the time series were identified by the "segmented" package in the R environment (25, 26), that indicate turning points of different evolution phases. We 332 identified four statistically significant $(p < 0.05)$ trend change point years – at 2000 BCE, 1501 BCE, 709 BCE, and 544 CE – that indicate turning points of different evolution phases.

Comparison with other proxy records and simulation data. We compared our $\delta^{18}O$ chronology with other regional as well as global proxy records and model simulation 338 data. Other proxy evidence includes stalagmite δ^{18} O records, sediment section records derived from closed lakes, aeolian-sand and loess–paleosol sections, tree pollen percentages, pollen-based precipitation reconstructions and temperature reconstructions, and archaeological data (Refs 27–58, Tables S6, Figs. S12–S15, S19- 342 S20). Our tree-ring δ^{18} O series is significantly correlated with the TRW chronology and 343 ice-core δ^{18} O record on a decadal timescale during the common time period between 990-1980 CE (Fig. S12). We also compared our δ^{18} O chronology and a δ^{13} C record of buried wood fragments (*Picea crassifolia* Kom.) from the Qinghai Lake basin (27). Lu et al. (27) provided radiocarbon dates of Qinghai spruce woody debris in tandem with δ^{13} C data. The δ^{13} C of each wood sample is a valuable addition to our hydroclimatic reconstruction, enabling a further examination of the Holocene climatic trends. Tree- \cdot ring δ^{13} C correlates significantly with PDSI over the instrumental period and is thus a 350 good indicator of drought variability (59). Liu et al. (59) developed Qinghai spruce $\delta^{13}C$ chronologies at five sites in the Qilian Mountains, at elevations of 2440-3360 m. Here, we chose the Sidalong site chronology for comparison because its altitude of 3360 m

383 **Tables (S1-S8)**

384 **Table S1.** Statistics for the 53 Qilian juniper samples (39 dead trees, 14 living trees) used for δ^{18} O analysis. Living trees are those with an end year 385 of 2010 or later. Samples are divided into annually-resolved subsamples. Subsequently, subsamples were analyzed for their $\delta^{18}O$ values at intervals 386 varying from 1 to 5 years as indicated by the resolution. For the period 1168-2011 CE, tree ring samples of 10 trees were pooled for the same 387 calendar year, while the other 43 tree samples were measured individually tree by tree. Trees marked with * were used in the pooled analysis 388 (subsamples for the same calendar year but from different trees were pooled before $\delta^{18}O$ measurement), while those marked ** were used for 389 climate calibration.

Code	Latitude	Longitude	Start year	End year	Resolution (Year)	Elevation (m.a.s.1)	Minimum TRW (mm)	Mean TRW (mm)	Maximum TRW (mm)
DQP680A	37.47	97.77	-4680	-3800	5	3998	0.04	0.16	0.46
5QP171A	37.47	97.77	-4505	-4140	5	3897	0.06	0.31	0.63
5QK191D	37.47	97.77	-4180	-3200	5	3882	0.01	0.12	0.27
DQP502A	37.47	97.77	-4095	-3120	5	3921	0.03	0.24	0.69
DQP324A	37.48	97.78	-3985	-3010	5	3989	0.04	0.18	0.64
DQP242A	37.47	97.78	-3350	-2535	5	3955	0.01	0.28	0.97
DQP226B	37.48	97.77	-3110	-2420	5	4002	0.04	0.22	0.66
DQP323A	37.48	97.78	-2930	-2270	5	3986	0.01	0.23	0.60
DQP201A	37.47	97.77	-2815	-2320	5	4048	0.01	0.21	0.65
DQP243A	37.47	97.78	-2810	-1850	5	3959	0.01	0.23	0.64
DQP103A	37.46	97.77	-2720	-1795	5	3853	0.01	0.27	0.61

396

Year	Retained outlier (‰)	Mean±SD(‰), series length*	Mean \pm SD $(\%$ o), sample depth**	Year	Excluded outlier (‰)	Mean \pm SD $(\%$ o), series length*	Mean \pm SD $(\%$ o), sample depth**
1950	37.08	34.57 ± 1.56 , 118	$35.36 \pm 0.10, 2$	-4420	35.89	29.13±1.34, 171	31.37, 1
1950	35.91	$30.12 \pm 1.61, 158$	$35.36 \pm 0.10, 2$	-3495	38.46	29.86±1.47, 188	$28.02 \pm 0.34, 2$
-950	36.69	$32.01 \pm 1.47, 316$	$35.36 \pm 0.10, 2$	-3350	38.89	31.35 ± 1.60 , 164	$30.85 \pm 1.65, 2$
1950	35.34	30.96 ± 1.29 , 775	$35.36 \pm 0.10, 2$	-2268	26.67	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	29.09, 1
1949	35.21	$30.96 \pm 1.29, 775$	$35.32 \pm 0.26, 2$	-1852	25.90	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	30.12, 1
1820	26.99	$32.01 \pm 1.47, 316$	$28.88 \pm 0.96, 3$	-1642	27.01	30.96±1.29, 775	
1650	36.78	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	$32.71 \pm 2.05, 3$	-1400	25.59	$31.62 \pm 1.30, 320$	$33.41 \pm 1.65, 6$
1495	36.40	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	$33.75 \pm 1.54, 4$	-410	22.92	31.25 ± 2.08 , 219	$32.59 \pm 1.47, 6$
1455	38.69	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	$35.67 \pm 1.80, 4$	-116	28.27	$33.10 \pm 1.60, 572$	
1425	36.73	$31.82 \pm 1.45, 777$	$34.02 \pm 2.21, 4$	-113	28.21	33.10±1.60, 572	
-375	26.50	31.94 ± 1.73 , 140	$30.49 \pm 1.70, 7$	-106	28.30	33.10±1.60, 572	
661	37.59	$32.72 \pm 1.37, 327$	$36.63 \pm 0.76, 4$	118	38.65	$32.49 \pm 1.60, 481$	$35.24 \pm 1.07, 4$
1192	37.34	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$	$33.69 \pm 1.35, 3$	515	26.34	$31.60 \pm 1.37, 321$	28.65, 1
1354	27.52	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$	$31.28 \pm 0.32, 2$	784	38.22	$33.17 \pm 1.52, 451$	34.09 ± 1.29 , 4
1615	27.93	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$	$29.54 \pm 0.29, 2$	1171	37.37	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$	$32.98 \pm 1.22, 4$
1810	36.92	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$		1183	37.82	$32.56 \pm 1.45, 413$	$32.86 \pm 1.15, 4$
1956	37.25	33.12 ± 1.28 , 112	34.99±1.94,7				

Table S3. Results of outlier analyses for the 44 δ^{18} O series.

Note: Retained outliers (abbrev., Retained), Excluded outliers (Excluded), the corresponding mean value (Mean) \pm the standard deviation (SD) and the series length (sample depth) listed in the table. Outlier analysis was applied to each $\delta^{18}O$ series based on the Pauta criterion (mathematical expectation $\pm 3*SD$ as the threshold of rejection level, the corresponding Mean \pm SD and the series length were denoted as *), and 34 outliers were identified. Subsequently, the same screening method was applied to each calendar year (the corresponding Mean \pm SD and the sample depth were denoted as $**$), and 12 outliers (bold) were retained. 6 outliers, explained by other records (normal) or unique values (gray) in the left panel, were also retained. In total, 18 outliers were retained, and 16 outliers were excluded. Years with prefix symbol "-" mean BCE, and the others mean CE.

Signal	Seasonal assemblage	Correlatio n	First-order difference correlation
Temperature	$C1-9$	-0.18	-0.17
Precipitation	P8-C7	-0.70	-0.62
scPDSI	$C4-9$	-0.62	-0.62
Relative humidity	C5-9	-0.48	-0.58

Table S4 Maximum correlation between $\delta^{18}O$ chronology and various seasonal climatic parameters (1956–2011).

Bold values indicate that the correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$.

	Calibration	Verification	Calibration	Verification	Full Calibration
	$(1956 - 1991)$		$(1992-2011)$ $(1976-2011)$ $(1956-1975)$ $(1956-2011)$		
R	0.68	0.65	0.66	0.48	0.70
R^2	0.46	0.42	0.44	0.23	0.48
RE		0.55		0.65	0.46
CE		0.41		0.21	
Sign test	$25+/11^{-a}$	$17 + 73 - ^{b}$	$25+11^{-a}$	$18+/2^{-b}$	

Table S5. Statistics of the split-period calibration and verification tests (1956–2011).

Re: Reduction of Error, CE: Coefficient of Efficiency.

a Significant at $p < 0.05$. b Significant at $p < 0.01$.

Site No.	Site name	Lat. $({}^{\circ}N)$	Long.(°E)	Dating material	Dating methods	Numbers of dates	Dating error	Temporal resolution (Year)	References	
						9961(22),	9961 (368.64),	9961 (8.4),		
	Jiuxian Cave	33.57	109.1	Speleothem	U/Th	9962 (9)	9962 (542.22)	9962 (40.13)	Cai et al. (2010)	
						XL2 (19),	XL2 (14),	XL2 (10.22),		
2	Xianglong Cave	33	106.33	Speleothem	U/Th	XL16 (23),	XL16 (15.87),	XL16 (10.86),	Tan et al. (2017)	
						KL26(15)	XL26 (20.93)	XL26 (9.88)		
3	Heshang Cave	30.45	110.42	Speleothem	U/Th	15	60.07	6.23	Hu et al. (2008)	
						YDX 2004 (10), WYJ2004 (38),	YDX 2004 (48.3),	YDX 2004 (79.8), WYJ2005 (4.22),	Yuan et al. (2004),	
$\overline{4}$	Dongge Cave	25.28	108.08	Speleothem	U/Th	Dykoski 2005	WYJ2005 (59.42),	Dykoski 2005	Wang et al. (2005),	
						(21)	Dykoski 2005 (57.81)	(18.25)	Dykoski et al. (2005)	
						SB10(5),	SB10 (36.8),	SB10 (112.39),		
						SB27 (6),	SB27 (81.67),	SB27 (40.22),		
$\sqrt{5}$	Sanbao Cave	31.67	110.43	Speleothem	U/Th	SB26(5),	SB26 (44.2),	SB26 (18.49),	Dong et al. (2010)	
						SB43 (11)	SB43 (47.91)	SB43 (30.16)		
6	Lianhua Cave	29.48	109.53	Speleothem	U/Th	27	144	10.4	Dong et al. (2018)	
τ	Qunf Cave	17.17	54.3	Speleothem	U/Th	11	117.36	7.23	Fleitmann et al. (2003)	
$\,8\,$	Sihailonwan Maar Lake	42.28	126.6	Bulk organic matter	\mathbf{AMS}	19	40.68	60.23	Stebich et al. (2015)	
9	Bayanchagan Lake	41.65	115.21	Bulk organic matter	AMS	$\overline{4}$	57.5	208.34	Jiang et al. (2006)	
10	Diaojiaohaizi Lake	41.3	112.35	Bulk organic matter	14C	\overline{c}	85	129.42	Song et al. (1996)	

Table S6. Locations of Holocene paleoclimatic records used for comparison in this study.

Table S7. Results of the regime shift analysis (STARS) to detect shifts in the mean of the reconstructed annual precipitation. To identify the years of major change, a large cut–off length of 50 data points was chosen, corresponding to a period of 150-250 years (depending on sampling resolution; see text for details) in the DLH $\delta^{18}O$ chronology. We used a probability level equal to 0.01 and Huber parameter equal to 1.

Year of shift	Conf	RSI	Sub-period	Length (yr)	Annual precipitation
					Mean (mm)
			4680-4290 BCE	395	297.62±11.33
4285 BCE	$< 10^{-4}$	0.12	4285-3605 BCE	685	272.94±8.60
3600 BCE	$< 10^{-6}$	-0.14	3600-3355 BCE	250	299.71 ± 14.24
3350 BCE	$< 10^{-11}$	0.36	3350-2820 BCE	535	252.77±9.74
2815 BCE	$< 10^{-6}$	0.34	2815-2570 BCE	250	207.03 ± 14.24
2565 BCE	$< 10^{-5}$	-0.25	2565-2100 BCE	470	246.63 ± 10.39
2095 BCE	$< 10^{-9}$	0.37	2095-1680 BCE	420	205.86 ± 10.99
1675 BCE	$< 10^{-9}$	0.38	1675-1190 BCE	490	161.93 ± 10.17
1185 BCE	$< 10^{-10}$	-0.28	1185-75 BCE	1115	200.12 ± 6.74
70 BCE	$< 10^{-10}$	0.34	70 BCE to 343 CE	413	164.69 ± 8.83
346 CE	$< 10^{-11}$	0.20	346-760 CE	417	124.62 ± 8.54
763 CE	$< 10^{-14}$	-0.19	763-1342 CE	582	162.63 ± 7.23
1345 CE	$< 10^{-6}$	-0.11	1345-1447 CE	105	198.13±17.02
1450 CE	$< 10^{-5}$	0.09	1450-2002 CE	555	163.86±6.77
2005 CE	0.26	-0.42	2005-2011 CE	7	230.55 ± 38.06

Note: RSI, Regime Shift Index; Mean, Equal-weighed arithmetic means of the regimes; Length, Length of the regimes; Difference, the difference between the mean values of the neighboring regimes; Conf, Confidence level of the difference between the mean values of the neighboring regimes based on the Student's two-tailed t-test with unequal variance (TTEST procedure in Excel).

Table S8. Absolute dry and wet extreme years over the past 6700 years. In total, 157 drought and 164 humid events were identified. Extremes in the precipitation reconstruction were assigned as years in which the precipitation exceeded the wholeperiod 10th and 90th percentiles.

Dry and wet extreme years										
dry	wet	dry	wet	dry	wet	dry	wet			
-2700	-4670	223	-4315	604	-3670	1006	-3200			
-2570	-4665	226	-4310	613	-3660	1009	-3185			
-1950	-4660	250	-4300	616	-3655	1048	-3165			
-1675	-4655	253	-4295	628	-3615	1132	-3145			
-1625	-4640	256	-4290	631	-3600	1165	-3140			
-1565	-4635	262	-4255	634	-3590	1192	-3135			
-1540	-4630	265	-4245	643	-3580	1240	-3100			
-1515	-4625	283	-4210	646	-3550	1255	-3080			
-1500	-4620	286	-4205	658	-3540	1261	-3025			
-1495	-4615	289	-4140	661	-3535	1276	-3015			
-1455	-4605	349	-4135	664	-3520	1480	-3010			
-1425	-4590	358	-4130	667	-3515	1486	-3000			
-1410	-4585	361	-4125	673	-3510	1498	-2970			
-1395	-4580	364	-4120	679	-3500	1516	-2940			
-1380	-4575	382	-4115	685	-3495	1549	-2895			
-1365	-4570	388	-4080	691	-3490	1552	-2885			
-1340	-4565	394	-4045	703	-3485	1555	-2875			
-1215	-4560	397	-4000	706	-3470	1585	-2855			
-1210	-4555	400	-3990	709	-3465	1627	-2825			
-1205	-4550	415	-3975	712	-3460	1633	-2585			
-1145	-4545	427	-3940	715	-3450	1783	-2555			
-1050	-4535	439	-3910	721	-3445	1789	-2540			
-940	-4530	448	-3890	724	-3435	1810	-2535			
-920	-4520	454	-3885	736	-3425	1831	-2500			
-655	-4515	457	-3865	742	-3420	1843	-2455			
-590	-4510	463	-3825	745	-3410	1876	-2450			
-440	-4405	478	-3815	760	-3405	1894	-2440			
-350	-4400	484	-3805	787	-3395	1909	-2415			
-260	-4395	523	-3800	790	-3390	1918	-2405			
-70	-4390	526	-3785	814	-3385	1930	-2335			
-20	-4375	529	-3780	817	-3380	1942	-2325			
22	-4370	538	-3775	829	-3375	1945	-2255			
25	-4365	547	-3765	841	-3370	1948	-2210			
46	-4360	553	-3760	844	-3360	1953	-2130			
52	-4355	556	-3755	874	-3345		-1990			
55	-4350	559	-3745	877	-3325		-1820			

Figures (S1-S20)

Fig. S1. Inter-laboratory comparison of δ^{18} O measurements from 10 trees **analyzed in the laboratories in China (MNT, blue line) and Germany (MNT', red line).** The inserted table illustrates significance test results for the difference in $\delta^{18}O$ measurements between the laboratories at a level of α =0.01. No significant differences in δ^{18} O measurements were detected.

Fig. S2. Comparison of δ ¹⁸O measurements obtained via individual trees (black line) and pooling (red line) methods. The grey shaded area represents the 95% confidence intervals for individual series. The inset table shows the significance test results for the difference in δ^{18} O measured by the two methods, at a level of α =0.01. There is no significant difference in $\delta^{18}O$ measurements.

Fig. S3. Relationship between δ^{18} **O** series and sampling-tree elevation over the past **6700 years.** (a) Sampling-tree elevations and time-series length of each individual tree. (b) Series mean $\delta^{18}O$ and time-series length of each individual tree. Each floating bar represents one δ^{18} O series and has a length indicating the length of the sample series. (c) Illustration of arithmetic means of the series in part (a) (green line) and part (b) (purple line) and the 95% confidence intervals (shading), respectively. (d) Scatterplot showing the overall relationship between the mean δ^{18} O values of each series and sampling-tree elevation. The relationship is not statistically significant.

Fig. S4. Scatter plot illustrating the means (with $\pm 1*SD$ **) of eight** $\delta^{18}O$ **series against their respective sampling-tree elevations during 1964-2011 CE.** These were the only eight $\delta^{18}O$ series for the interval 1964-2011 CE, excluding the pooled series. The analysis explores the potential effects of sampling elevation on the tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$, given uniform macroclimate conditions. The relationship is not statistically significant.

Fig. S5. Quantification of potential juvenile age effects in all 36 δ¹⁸O series (excluding tree samples that did not have pith offset estimates), via linear fitting of each single δ^{18} **O series in three segments.** Scale 1 (red) uses the whole series; Scale 2 (green) uses the first 50 years of tree growth; Scale 3 (cyan) uses the remaining part (older than 50 years). The regression formulae, the Pearson correlation coefficient (r), and degrees of freedom (df) for the linear fit between δ^{18} O and calendar year are presented in corresponding colors. The star (*) indicates that r was significant at the 0.05 level.

Fig. S6. Sensitivity analysis for the existence of potential juvenile age effects in the δ ¹⁸O chronology. (a) The thin black line isthe original chronology, the arithmetic mean of all δ^{18} O series. (b) Chronology₋₅₀ (thin blue line) is the arithmetic mean of all series after removing the first 50 years of each series (except those in the most recent 100 years). (c) Chronology-100 (thin purple line) is the arithmetic mean of all series after removing the first 100 years of each series (except those in the most recent 100 years). The biological age of the series in the most recent 100 years was older than 300 years. The pooled series MNT was removed from the first 50 years of the longest series (MNT710B), but there was no possibility to remove the others. The bold red lines are their corresponding curves smoothed using a 20-point FFT (Fast Fourier Transform). Shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals of the unsmoothed series. Sample size for each series is shown at the top of each panel (right-hand scales).

Fig. S7. Impact of level offsets between individual tree-ring δ¹⁸O time series on the mean isotope chronology. (a) Comparison between the original chronology (the arithmetic mean of all $\delta^{18}O$ series, dark gray line) and the test chronology (named "chronology-2T", light green line) in case of removing the samples MNP376A and MNP405A (treated as outliers). (b) Comparison between the original mean chronology (thin black line) and the median chronology (named as "chronology_median", pink line), for which we calculated the median value (rather than mean) of all individual chronologies in order to reduce the effect of outliers. The thick lines are their corresponding low-pass filter series, smoothed using a 30-point Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). Shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals of the unsmoothed series.

Fig. S8. Comparison of the tree-ring DLH δ^{18} **O chronology (5-year resolution)** with time series (annual resolution) of three individual δ^{18} O records during 2550 **BCE–1100 CE (a) and their corresponding 50-year low-pass filter curves (b).** The individual annual $\delta^{18}O$ records generally track the direction of the DLH mean $\delta^{18}O$ chronology with 5-year resolution. This agreement suggests that the composite chronology is insensitive to individual δ^{18} O records with different time resolutions.

Fig. S9. Pearson correlation coefficients and response functions between the mean DLH δ ¹⁸O chronology and monthly mean temperature, precipitation, RH, scPDSI, and optimal seasonal combination (with the strongest correlation) for the period 1956–2011 CE. The numbers annotated on the precipitation, RH, and scPDSI panels are the Pearson correlation coefficients with the optimal seasonal mean using the raw data and using first-order differences respectively. Significant values at the 95% confidence level are marked by colored symbols.

Fig. S10. **Results of trend-point analysis and the regime shift analysis (STARS) to detect shifts in the trend and mean for the DLH δ¹⁸O chronology, as explained in the Supplementary Methods.** Upper panel shows the time series (blue) and regimes identified either by piecewise continuous linear trends (yellow lines) and their change points (magenta circles) or by shifts in the mean detected by STARS (green lines). Significant changes in temporal trends of the time series were identified using the "segmented" package in the R environment $(25, 26)$ with change point years of $p < 0.05$ (544 CE, 709 BCE, 1501 BCE, 2000 BCE) (magenta circles). The mean value of the time series is shown by the red dashed line. Shift points for the mean were identified by STARS with p≤0.01 and are shown in the lower panel as the Regime Shift Index (RSI) and listed in Table S7.

Fig. S11. Intrinsic temporal components of our DHL tree-ring δ¹⁸O precipitation reconstruction by ensemble empirical mode decomposition analysis (EEMD). The raw data was interpolated annually by using a linear interpolation method before the EEMD analysis. We defined the inter-annual component $(1-10$ years) as sum of variability, interdecadal component (10–100 years), centennial component (100–1000 years), millennial component $(> 1000$ years) for variability and the secular trend as the last component. The 1024-year cycle (8.1%) dominates the millennial-scale spectral range. A ratio of the standard deviation of the added noise and that of data is set to 0.2 and an ensemble number is set to 100 for ensemble empirical mode decomposition calculation.

Fig. S12. (a) Tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ raw series from the forest stand $(37^{\circ}16'N, 97^{\circ}32'E, 4000)$ m a.s.l.) in Delingha, located approximately 50 km from our study site (8). (b) $\delta^{18}O$ record from the Dunde ice core (26). (c) Mean tree-ring δ^{18} O raw series established in this study (DLH $\delta^{18}O$). (d) Signal-free regional curve standardization of a tree-ring width chronology from the northeastern TP (1). The black dashed lines represent the mean of each time series (with respect to common time period of 990-1980 CE). Time series in a, c and d were interpolated to a resolution consistent with the Dunde oxygen isotope sequence (10 years); correlation analysis for the common time period (990- 1980 CE) then showed pairs a and c, b and c, and c and d were all significantly correlated (A and C, 0.51, *p* <0.01; B and C, 0.22, *p* <0.05; C and D, -0.39, *p* <0.01).

Fig. S13. Comparison of the DLH δ^{18} O precipitation reconstruction (a, this study) with other regional ASM hydroclimate reconstructions. b, pollen-based mean annual precipitation deviations relative to 8000 BCE–1800 CE from Sihailongwan Maar Lake (29); c, pollen-based annual precipitation deviations relative to Holocene mean from Daihai Lake (note their method uses weighted averaging and partial least squares) (30); d, pollen-based Gonghai Lake annual precipitation deviations from the Holocene mean (31); e, pollen-based mean annual precipitation deviations from the Holocene mean for lakes Dalianhai and Qinghai on the Northeastern Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau (32); f, pollen-based East Asian summer monsoon precipitation for northern China and KCMsimulated East Asian summer monsoon precipitation deviations from the Holocene mean (33); g, pollen-based annual precipitation (red), extended summer precipitation from May to September (dark blue) and summer precipitation from June to August (purple) from the Holocene mean in the ASM region (34); h, Lake Dali level for the past 10000 years, based on lake sediments (squares), alluvial deposits (triangles) and beach ridges (diamonds) dated using ${}^{14}C$ from shells (blue), ${}^{14}C$ from charcoal (green), and OSL (brown) (35); i, moisture history at the ASM margin derived from shorelines or lacustrine sequences of Baijian Lake (36); j, pollen-based mean annual precipitation deviations relative to 1970–6400 BCE from Xingyun Lake (37); k, ASM index synthesized from monsoonal eastern China (38); l, pollen-based moisture index synthesized for the ASM rainfall belt over northern China (39). m, the δ^{13} C record of buried wood fragments (*Picea crassifolia* Kom.) from the Qinghai Lake basin (27). The shaded area covers the period from 4700–2000 BCE.

Fig. S14. (a) Tree-ring DLH $\delta^{18}O$ precipitation reconstruction (DLH $\delta^{18}O$; this study); (b) ASM evolution during the Holocene recorded by the frequency distribution of aeolian sand in China's four main sandy lands (Hulun Buir, Otindag, Horqin, Mu Us) and based on 88 dates from 44 sites (40); (c) ASM precipitation variations reconstructed using magnetic susceptibility (MS) records from the Yulin loess-paleosol section based on 3 dates (41); (d) ASM history during the Holocene reconstructed using the probability density of palaeosol dates from the Chinese Loess Plateau based on 348 dates (40); (e) reconstructed Holocene precipitation deviations relative to the mean value of 6000 BCE–300 CE from the Yaoxian loess-paleosol section, Guanzhong basin,

located on the southern Chinese Loess Plateau based on 7 dates (42). The shaded area covers the period from 4700–2000 BCE.

Fig. S15. (a) Tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ precipitation reconstruction (DLH $\delta^{18}O$; this study); (b) summer insolation at $65^{\circ}N,45^{\circ}N$ and $35^{\circ}N$ (43); (c) temperature anomalies for the extratropical Northern Hemisphere (44); (d) and (e), modeled mean annual temperature of northern China (30°-50°N, 90°-120°E) and southern China (20°-30°N, 90°-120°E)

(34); (f) and (g), modeled annual precipitation of northern China and southern China (17) from the Holocene mean; (h) normalized stalagmite composite $\delta^{18}O$ record from central China (see Supplementary Methods for more details) and the 30-y moving average (pink line); (i) Variation in location of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) reflected by Cariaco Basin Ti concentrations (45). The shaded area covers the period from 4700–2000 BCE.

Fig. S16. The first 3 Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) modes of the summer (May-September) mean precipitation rate during the Holocene on the basis of 1000-yr running mean (left), 301-yr running mean (middle) and 31-yr running mean (right). The EOF analysis was performed on TRACE-21ka simulation results. It shows that summer precipitation in the Delingha region co-varies with that in Indian subcontinent and Northern China on various timescales from multidecadal to millennial, indicative of a common ASM circulation effect. This behaviour in these climate model simulations leads us to expect that Delingha precipitation in the real world would also co-vary with precipitation in other ASM-affected regions. General agreement in multi-millennial drying trends with proxy evidence of lower temporal resolution from stalagmite $\delta^{18}O$ records from eastern China, pollen-based precipitation reconstructions from eastern China and other moisture-sensitive proxy archives (Fig. 4b, 4c, SI Appendix, Figs. S12– S15) provides supportive evidence.

Fig. S17. The first 3 Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) modes of the summer (left, May-September) and annual (right) mean precipitation rate during 850–1850 CE on the basis of 31-yr running mean. The EOF analysis was performed on CESM-LME simulation results. It shows that summer/annual mean precipitation in the Delingha region co-varies with that in Indian subcontinent and Eastern China, indicative of a common ASM circulation effect.

Fig. S18. Comparison of the DLH tree-ring δ^{18} O precipitation reconstruction (blue curve) with a temperature reconstruction for China (red curve) (61) spanning the past two millennia. The temperature reconstruction has a resolution of 10 years. Both series were first interpolated annually by using a linear interpolation method and then each series (thin line) was smoothed by a 100-point low-pass filter (heavy line) to highlight the century-scale variability. A statistical association after adjusting for degrees of freedom $(r=0.28, p<0.1)$ with the centennial variability of reconstructed mean Chinawide temperatures is detected over the past two millennia.

Fig. S19. (a) Tree-ring $\delta^{18}O$ precipitation reconstruction (DLH $\delta^{18}O$; this study); (b) tree pollen percentages from Bayanchagan Lake, northern China (52); (c) tree pollen percentages from Diaojiaohaizi Lake (53); (d) tree pollen percentages from Daihai Lake (54); (e) tree pollen percentages from Qinghai Lake (55); (f) tree pollen percentages from Dalianhai (56). The shaded area covers the common period from 4700–2000 BCE.

Fig. S20. Snapshots of archeological site dynamics in China in time under different climate conditions based on the digitalized archaeological dataset across China (57, 58). (a) The spatial distribution of archeological sites during a typical wet period (2350 BCE) in the Delingha isotope record. (b) The spatial distribution of archeological sites during a typical dry period (1650 BCE) in the Delingha isotope record. (c) Density of archeological sites in 2350 BCE. (d) Density of archeological sites in 1650 BCE. The site-density analysis includes all $1.0^{\circ} \times 1.0^{\circ}$ grids with site number per grid exceeding 60. The areas with ≤ 60 sites per grid remain blank. The maps show a pronounced shift in archaeological site densities from north-central China to northeastern China during 2350 BCE (a) and 1650 BCE (b).

REFERENCES

- 1. B. Yang et al., A 3,500-year tree-ring record of annual precipitation on the northeastern Tibetan Plateau. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **111**, 2903–2908 (2014).
- 2. X. Shao et al., Climatic implications of a 3585-year tree-ring width chronology from the northeastern Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau. *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **29**, 2111–2122 (2010).
- 3. D. McCarroll, N. J. Loader, Stable isotopes in tree rings. *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **23**, 771–801 (2004).
- 4. M. Gagen, D. McCarroll, N. J. Loader, I. Robertson, *Dendroclimatology. Developments in Paleoenvironmental Research: Stable Isotopes in Dendroclimatology: Moving Beyond 'Potential'*, M. Hughes, et al., Eds. (Springer, 2011), pp. 147–172.
- 5. T. Wieloch et al., A novel device for batch-wise isolation of α -cellulose from small-amount wholewood samples. *Dendrochronologia* **29,** 115–117 (2011).
- 6. C. Qin et al., Drought signals in tree-ring stable oxygen isotope series of Qilian juniper from the arid northeastern Tibetan Plateau. *Glob. Planet. Chang*. **125**, 48–59 (2015).
- 7. C. Xu et al., Negligible local-factor influences on tree ring cellulose $\delta^{18}O$ of Qilian juniper in the Animaqing Mountains of the eastern Tibetan Plateau. *Tellus B Chem. Phys. Meteorol.* **69**, 1391663 (2017).
- 8. W. Wang et al., Moisture variations over the past millennium characterized by Qaidam Basin treering δ ¹⁸ O. *Chin. Sci. Bull*. **58**, 3956–3961 (2013).
- 9. K. S. Treydte et al., The twentieth century was the wettest period in northern Pakistan over the past millennium. *Nature* **440**, 1179–1182 (2006).
- 10. J. E. Duffy et al., Absence of age-related trends in stable oxygen isotope ratios from oak tree rings. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles* **33**, 841–848 (2019).
- 11. J. Wernicke, J. Grießinger, P. Hochreuther, A. Bräuning, Variability of summer humidity during the past 800 years on the eastern Tibetan Plateau inferred from δ ¹⁸O of tree-ring cellulose. *Clim. Past* **11**, 327–337 (2015).
- 12. M. Sano et al., May–September precipitation in the Bhutan Himalaya since 1743 as reconstructed from tree ring cellulose δ ¹⁸O. *J. Geophys. Res.* **118**, 8399–8410 (2013).
- 13. C. Xu et al., Potential utility of tree ring $\delta^{18}O$ series for reconstructing precipitation records from the lower reaches of the Yangtze River, southeast China. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos*. **121**, 3954–3968 (2016).
- 14. T.M.L. Wigley, K.R. Briffa, P.D. Jones, On the average value of correlated time-series, with applications in dendroclimatology and hydrometeorology. *J. Climate Appl. Meteor.* **23**, 201– 213 (1984).
- 15. X. Shao, L. Huang, H. Liu, Tree ring recorded millennial precipitation change in Delingha, Qinghai. *Sci. China Ser. D* **349**, 145–153 (2004).
- 16. K. R. Briffa et al., Tree-ring width and density data around the Northern Hemisphere: Part 1, local and regional climate signals. *Holocene* **12**, 737–757 (2002).
- 17. Z. Liu et al., Transient simulation of last deglaciation with a new mechanism for Bolling-Allerod warming. *Science* **325**, 310–314 (2009).
- 18. M. Yan, J. Liu, Physical processes of cooling and mega-drought during the 4.2 ka BP event: results from TraCE-21ka simulations. *Clim. Past* **15**, 265–277 (2019).
- 19. F. He, Simulating Transient Climate Evolution of the Last Deglaciation with CCSM3 (University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2011), 161p.
- 20. F. He et al., Northern Hemisphere forcing of Southern Hemisphere climate during the last deglaciation. Nature **494**, 81–85 (2013).
- 21. Z. Liu et al., Younger Dryas cooling and the Greenland climate response to CO2. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109**, 11101–11104 (2012).
- 22. Z. Liu et al., Evolution and forcing mechanisms of El Nino over the past 21,000 years. *Nature* **515**, 550–553 (2014).
- 23. B. L. Otto-Bliesner, et al., Climate Variability and Change since 850 C.E.: An Ensemble Approach with the Community Earth System Model (CESM). *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.* **5**, 735–754 (2016).
- 24. S. N. Rodionov, A sequential algorithm for testing climate regime shifts. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **31**, L09204 (2004).
- 25. V. M. Muggeo, Segmented: an R package to fit regression models with broken-line relationships. *R News* **8**, 20–25 (2008).
- 26. R Core Team. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing* (R Core Team, 2017).
- 27. R. Lu et al., A new find of macrofossils of Picea crassifolia Kom. in early–middle Holocene sediments of the Qinghai Lake basin and its paleoenvironmental significance. *Quat. Res*. **90**, 310– 320 (2018).
- 28. L. G. Thompson et al., Abrupt tropical climate change: Past and present. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **103**, 10536–10543 (2006).
- 29. M. Stebich et al., Holocene vegetation and climate dynamics of NE China based on the pollen record from Sihailongwan Maar Lake. *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **124**, 275–289 (2015).
- 30. Q. Xu et al., Pollen-based quantitative reconstruction of Holocene climate changes in the Daihai Lake area, Inner Mongolia, China. *J. Clim*. **23**, 2856–2868 (2010).
- 31. F. Chen et al., East Asian summer monsoon precipitation variability since the last deglaciation. *Sci. Rep*. **5**, 11186 (2015).
- 32. J. Li et al., Quantitative precipitation estimates for the northeastern Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau over the last 18,000 years. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos*. **122**, 5132–5143 (2017).
- 33. J. Li et al., East Asian summer monsoon precipitation variations in China over the last 9500 years: a comparison of pollen-based reconstructions and model simulations. *Holocene* **26**, 592–602 (2016).
- 34. F. Lu et al., Variability of East Asian summer monsoon precipitation during the Holocene and possible forcing mechanisms. *Clim. Dyn*. **52**, 969–989 (2019).
- 35. Y. Goldsmith et al. Northward extent of East Asian monsoon covaries with intensity on orbital and millennial timescales. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **114**, 1817–1821 (2017).
- 36. H. Long et al., Timing of Late Quaternary palaeolake evolution in Tengger Desert of northern China and its possible forcing mechanisms. *Glob. Planet. Chang*. **92**, 119–129 (2012).
- 37. F. Chen et al., Holocene vegetation history, precipitation changes and Indian Summer Monsoon evolution documented from sediments of Xingyun Lake, south-west China. *J. Quat. Sci*. **29**, 661– 674 (2014).
- 38. Y. Wang, X. Liu, U. Herzschuh, Asynchronous evolution of the Indian and East Asian Summer Monsoon indicated by Holocene moisture pattern in monsoonal central Asia. *Earth Sci. Rev.* **103**, 135–153 (2010).
- 39. W. Wang, Z. Feng, Holocene moisture evolution across the Mongolian Plateau and its surrounding

areas: A synthesis of climatic records. *Earth Sci. Rev*. **122**, 38–57 (2013).

- 40. H. Wang, J. Chen, X. Zhang, F. Chen, Palaeosol development in the Chinese Loess Plateau as an indicator of the strength of the East Asian summer monsoon: Evidence for a mid-Holocene maximum. *Quat. Int*. **334**, 155–164 (2014).
- 41. H. Lu et al., Variation of East Asian monsoon precipitation during the past 21 ky and potential $CO₂$ forcing. *Geology* **41**, 1023–1026 (2013).
- 42. D. Xia et al., Out-of-phase evolution between summer and winter East Asian monsoons during the Holocene as recorded by Chinese loess deposits. *Quat. Res*. **81**, 500–507 (2014).
- 43. J. Laskar et al., A long-term numerical solution for the insolation quantities of the Earth. *Astron. Astrophys*. **428**, 261–285 (2004).
- 44. S. A. Marcott, J. D. Shakun, P. U. Clark, A. C. Mix, A reconstruction of regional and global temperature for the past 11,300 years. *Science* **339**, 1198–1201 (2013).
- 45. G. H. Haug et al., Southward migration of the intertropical convergence zone through the Holocene. *Science* **293**, 1304–1308 (2001).
- 46. J. Dong et al., Rapid retreat of the East Asian summer monsoon in the middle Holocene and a millennial weak monsoon interval at 9 ka in northern China. *J. Asian Earth Sci*. **151**, 31–39 (2018).
- 47. Y. Cai et al., The variation of summer monsoon precipitation in central China since the last deglaciation. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett*. **291**, 21–31 (2010).
- 48. L. Tan et al., Centennial-to decadal-scale monsoon precipitation variations in the upper Hanjiang River region, China over the past 6650 years. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett*. **482**, 580–590 (2018).
- 49. J. Dong et al., A high-resolution stalagmite record of the Holocene East Asian monsoon from Mt Shennongjia, central China. *Holocene* **20**, 257–264 (2010).
- 50. C. Hu et al., Quantification of Holocene Asian monsoon rainfall from spatially separated cave records. *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett*. **266**, 221–232 (2008).
- 51. Y. Wang et al., The Holocene Asian monsoon: links to solar changes and North Atlantic climate. *Science* **308**, 854–857 (2005).
- 52. W. Jiang et al., Reconstruction of climate and vegetation changes of Lake Bayanchagan (Inner Mongolia): Holocene variability of the East Asian monsoon. *Quat. Res*. **65**, 411–420 (2006).
- 53. C. Song, B. Wang, X. Sun, Implication of paleovegetational changes in DiaoJiao Lake Inner Mongolia. *Acta Bot. Sin*. **38**, 568–575 (1996).
- 54. J. Xiao et al., Holocene vegetation variation in the Daihai Lake region of north-central China: a direct indication of the Asian monsoon climatic history. *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **23**, 1669–1679 (2004).
- 55. J. Shen, X. Liu, S. Wang, R. Matsumoto, Palaeoclimatic changes in the Qinghai Lake area during the last 18,000 years. *Quat. Int.* **136**, 131–140 (2005).
- 56. B. Cheng, F. Chen, W. Zhang, Palaeovegetational and palaeoenvironmental changes since the last deglacial in Gonghe Basin, northeast Tibetan Plateau. *J. Geogr. Sci.* **23**, 136–146 (2013).
- 57. M. Wagner et al., Mapping of the spatial and temporal distribution of archaeological sites of northern China during the Neolithic and Bronze Age. *Quat. Int*. **290**, 344–357 (2013).
- 58. D. Hosner et al., Spatiotemporal distribution patterns of archaeological sites in China during the Neolithic and Bronze Age: An overview. *Holocene* **26**, 1576–1593 (2016).
- 59. X Liu et al., Spatial-temporal variability and climatic significance of tree ring's carbon isotopes of *picea crassifolia* on the Qilian Mountains. *J. Glaciol. Geocryol.* **4, 666-676** (2010).
- 60. Q. Sun et al., Climate as a factor for Neolithic cultural collapses approximately 4000 years BP in China. *Earth Sci. Rev.* **197**, 102915 (2019).

61. B. Yang, A. Braeuning, K.R. Johnson, Y.F. Shi, General characteristics of temperature variation in China during the last two millennia. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **29**, 1324 (2002).