



1 **Holocene hydroclimatic reorganization and prehistoric**
2 **settlement response in the East Asian summer monsoon**
3 **transition zone**

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27 **Abstract:** Holocene hydroclimatic changes in the East Asian monsoon region were
28 spatially heterogeneous, but their timing and driving mechanisms within the monsoon
29 transition zone remain insufficiently constrained. Here, we present a multi-proxy
30 biomarker record from Nansi Lake, eastern China, to reconstruct Holocene
31 hydroclimatic variability in this sensitive monsoon transition belt. The record indicates
32 relatively dry conditions during the early Holocene, a pronounced humid interval
33 during the middle Holocene, and generally drier but more variable conditions during
34 the late Holocene. This pattern is broadly consistent with the middle-Holocene moisture
35 maximum recorded in northern China, but contrasts with central-sector records
36 characterized by wetter early and late Holocene conditions and drier mid-Holocene.
37 Beyond this latitudinal contrast, proxy records across the monsoon transition zone
38 reveal a longitudinal hydroclimatic gradient, with peak Holocene humidity generally
39 delayed from west to east. This eastward delay may have been modulated by changes
40 in El Niño activity and regional topographic effects on monsoon moisture transport.
41 Furthermore, comparison with archaeological site distributions suggests that this
42 hydroclimatic reorganization was accompanied by an eastward shift in prehistoric
43 settlement density within the transition zone. These findings highlight the spatial
44 complexity of Holocene hydroclimatic change in monsoon transition regions and
45 provide a long-term perspective on landscape–human interactions under changing
46 moisture regimes.

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49 **Keywords:** East Asian monsoon; Holocene hydroclimate; Longitudinal difference; El
50 Niño activity and topographic; Historical human settlement.



51 **1. Introduction**

52 The East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) is a major component of the global
53 monsoon system, and variations in its precipitation has exerted long-term influence on
54 ecosystem structure, hydrological processes, and water-resource availability across the
55 East Asian summer monsoon (EASM; An et al., 2000). The Holocene, following the
56 last deglaciation, provides a useful temporal framework for examining the evolution
57 of the EASM because it was marked by substantial hydroclimatic variability (Chen et
58 al., 2015). Although numerous speleothem, lacustrine, and peat records have been
59 widely used to reconstruct Holocene EASM precipitation variability, the spatial
60 patterning and dominant controls of these changes remain unresolved. Speleothem
61 oxygen-isotope records commonly pointed to relatively coherent, orbitally paced
62 changes in monsoon circulation (Li et al., 2026). By contrast, quantitative
63 reconstructions from lake and peat archives reveal pronounced regional hydroclimatic
64 differences, indicating that monsoon intensity and regional precipitation were not
65 linked through a simple one-to-one relationship (An et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2021; Li et
66 al., 2023; Rao et al., 2016).

67 A central issue of this debate is the spatiotemporal structure of Holocene
68 precipitation across the EASM domain. The classical interpretation emphasizes an
69 asynchronous Holocene optimum across East Asia (An et al., 2000), whereas more
70 recent syntheses suggest that at least two distinct precipitation modes can be recognized
71 within the EAM region (Chen et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023; Rao et al.,
72 2016). One is a dipole pattern inferred from multiple proxy records (Chen et al., 2015;
73 Liu et al., 2021), and the other is a tripole pattern, first identified from modern
74 instrumental precipitation patterns and later supported by paleoclimate evidence (Rao
75 et al., 2016; Li et al., 2023). For example, multiple quantitative reconstructions from
76 northern China generally indicate relatively humid conditions during the middle
77 Holocene (Chen et al., 2015; Sun and Feng, 2013; Xu et al., 2010). In contrast, records
78 from the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River commonly suggest a drier
79 middle Holocene, with wetter conditions during the early and late Holocene (Li et al.,



80 2025; Liu et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2017). Recent regional syntheses and
 81 model simulations further indicate that annual and summer precipitation across the
 82 EAM region were generally enhanced during the early to middle Holocene, although
 83 long-term trajectories differed markedly between northern and southern China (Li et al.,
 84 2024; Li et al., 2026). Together, these results suggest that Holocene precipitation
 85 patterns were shaped by the combined effects of orbital forcing, residual ice sheets, and
 86 ocean–atmosphere interactions (Li et al., 2024; Li et al., 2026).

87 The East Asian monsoon transitional zone (east of 105°E, near 35°N) between
 88 northern and central China (lower Yangtze River region) and broadly coincides with
 89 the modern humid-semi-humid climatic boundary, making it a key area for evaluating
 90 contrasting interpretations of Holocene precipitation patterns. Recent pollen-based
 91 quantitative reconstructions from the Central Plains at central transitional zone show
 92 that Holocene precipitation in this region followed neither the northern pattern nor that
 93 of the middle and lower Yangtze patterns, but instead displayed marked transitional and
 94 stage-dependent characteristics. These records highlight the possible influence of
 95 ENSO variability and the associated meridional displacement of the Western Pacific
 96 Subtropical High on regional precipitation redistribution (Li et al., 2023; Liu et al.,
 97 2025). Compared with the Central Plains, Holocene precipitation reconstructions from
 98 southern Shandong remain sparse. This area occupies a key transitional position
 99 between North China, the Central Plains, and the Jianghuai region. This geographic
 100 position makes it particularly sensitive to shifts in the monsoonal rain belt.

101 Here, we use sedimentary records from Nansi Lake in southern Shandong to
 102 reconstruct Holocene precipitation evolution in this key transitional region. The
 103 objectives are to: (1) identify the timing of humid and dry phases in the southern
 104 Shandong during the Holocene and assess their correspondence with records from
 105 northern China and the middle–lower Yangtze region; (2) characterize the variability of
 106 Holocene hydrological records within the transitional zone; and (3) examine the
 107 mechanisms responsible for Holocene hydrological evolution.



108 2. Materials and methods

109 2.1 Study site

110 Nansi Lake (34°27'–35°20'N, 116°34'–117°21'E; ~35 m a.s.l.; Fig. 1a, b), situated
 111 in southwestern Shandong Province, China, is a large shallow freshwater lake system
 112 (Shen et al., 2000). The lake complex is composed of four hydrologically connected
 113 sub-lakes, namely Nanyang, Dushan, Zhaoyang, and Weishan, and stretches for about
 114 126 km in a north–south direction. It has a total area of approximately 1,266 km² and a
 115 mean water depth of about 1.5 m (Zhang et al., 1999). Lake hydrology is mainly
 116 sustained by regional precipitation and local runoff, and the drainage ultimately
 117 connects to the Huai River system (Shen et al., 2000). The lake is surrounded by a flat
 118 alluvial plain, where the natural vegetation is dominated by grasses, herbs, shrubs such
 119 as *Artemisia* and *Chenopodiaceae*, and various aquatic plants. According to
 120 meteorological observations from the Jining station for 1981–2010 (Fig. 1c), mean
 121 annual precipitation is about 670 mm, with nearly 85% falling between May and
 122 October. Mean annual temperature is approximately 15 °C, and monthly mean
 123 temperatures range from about 26.3 °C in July to about 4 °C in January.

124 2.2 Sample collection and chronology

125 In 2022, a 2.45-m sediment core was collected from the central basin of northern
 126 Nansi Lake (35°04'51.4938"N, 116°44'54.7197"E) at a water depth of ~2.79 m using a
 127 piston corer mounted on a UWITEC platform. After recovery, the core was described
 128 lithologically and then subsampled at 1-cm resolution. All samples were refrigerated at
 129 4 °C prior to subsequent analyses. Nansi Lake shot core were analyzed for the ²¹⁰Pb
 130 and ¹³⁷Cs activities using a gamma spectrometer (Fig. 2d). The age-depth relationship
 131 of short core with dating uncertainty was established using the constant rate of supply
 132 (CRS) model (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978). In addition, five organic clay samples from
 133 the deeper part of the core were selected for accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS)
 134 radiocarbon dating at Beta Analytic (Fig. 2c). Radiocarbon ages were converted to
 135 calibrated calendar ages before present (BP; 0 BP = 1950 CE) using the IntCal20



136 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2020). The age–depth relationship was constructed
 137 with Bacon, a Bayesian age-modelling approach that incorporates both calibrated ages
 138 and stratigraphic depth information. The resulting chronology suggests that the
 139 sediment sequence covers roughly the last 9 ka (Fig. 2c), with sediment accumulation
 140 rates varying through time. The uppermost interval shows relatively rapid accumulation,
 141 probably related to recent changes in hydrological conditions and sedimentary
 142 processes.

143 2.3 Lipid extraction and alkane analysis

144 A total of 116 sediment samples from the Nansi Lake long core were analysed for
 145 lipid extraction following the below chemical pretreatment. Freeze-dried samples (3 g)
 146 were ultrasonically extracted four times using dichloromethane:methanol (9:1, v/v).
 147 After concentrating with N₂, the extracted total lipids were saponified using 6% KOH
 148 in methanol solution for 12 h. The supernatant was collected after adding NaCl and n-
 149 hexane and centrifuging. Finally, the neutral supernatant containing *n*-alkanes was
 150 extracted through silica gel column.

151 The *n*-alkanes were measured by an Agilent 7890 Gas Chromatography (GC)
 152 device equipped with a flame ionized detector and a split injector, HP1-ms GC column
 153 (60 m*0.32 mm, 0.50 µm film thickness). The detailed oven procedure is to hold for 1
 154 min at 40 °C, heat to 150 °C at a rate 10 °C/min, then rise to 310 °C at a rate of 6 °C/min,
 155 and finally hold for 60 min at 310 °C (Sun et al., 2023).

156 Multiple parameters, including the P_{aq} (Ficken et al., 2000), alkane C₂₃/C₃₁ (Ficken
 157 et al., 2000), LPTP (Chu et al., 2014) were as following:

$$158 \quad P_{aq} = (nC_{23} + nC_{25}) / (nC_{23} + nC_{25} + nC_{29} + nC_{31}).$$

$$159 \quad LPTP = (nC_{17} + nC_{19} + nC_{21} + nC_{23} + nC_{25}) / (nC_{27} + nC_{29} + nC_{31} + nC_{33})$$

160 Where C_i is the *n*-alkane concentration of *i* number.

161 2.4 Spatiotemporal kernel density analysis of archaeological sites

162 Archaeological site data were extracted from Hosner et al. (2016) and grouped into
 163 six 1000-year intervals from 8000 to 2000 cal yr BP. Kernel density estimation (KDE)
 164 was performed in ArcGIS using the Kernel Density tool to convert the point distribution



165 of archaeological sites into continuous density surfaces for each time interval. The same
 166 search radius, cell size, and spatial extent were applied to all KDE maps to ensure
 167 comparability among time slices. Following previous spatiotemporal archaeological
 168 studies, KDE values were interpreted as relative archaeological site density rather than
 169 absolute population size (Zhang et al., 2022). The resulting maps were used to identify
 170 temporal changes in high-density settlement areas and to compare their spatial shifts
 171 with regional hydroclimatic variations.

172 **3 Results and Discussion**

173 **3.1 Paleoclimatic implication of n-alkanes proxies**

174 The alkanes in lake sediments are a mixture of allochthonous sources from the
 175 catchment and autochthonous source produced within the lake (Castaneda and
 176 Schouten, 2011; Garcin et al., 2014). In general, long-chains (C_{27} - C_{33}) n-alkanes are
 177 mainly produced by terrestrial plants, and mid-chain (C_{23} - C_{25}) n-alkanes originating
 178 from aquatic plants, while short-chain (C_{17} - C_{21}) n-alkanes predominantly originate
 179 from algae and bacterial (Aichner et al., 2010; Ficken et al., 2000; Lin et al., 2024;
 180 Nichols et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019). Sedimentary n-alkanes from Nansi Lake are
 181 characterized by a clear mid-chain dominance, with C_{25} as the main peak and C_{23} and
 182 C_{27} as secondary peaks, whereas long-chain homologues (e.g., C_{29} , C_{31} , and C_{33}) are
 183 comparatively less abundant (Fig. 3a-d). This distribution is commonly interpreted as
 184 indicating predominantly in-lake aquatic organic matter input, with only limited
 185 contribution from terrestrial higher plants. The broadly consistent n-alkane patterns
 186 across different intervals further indicate that the dominant organic matter source
 187 remained largely stable through time (Fig. 3a-d). This interpretation is supported by
 188 generally high P_{aq} values (Fig. 3e), which are typically associated with enhanced
 189 submerged/floating macrophyte input and shallow lacustrine settings (Ficken et al.,
 190 2000; Sun et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2019). The alkane C_{23}/C_{31} ratio and LPTP show
 191 similar variations (Fig. 3f, g), further supporting this inference. High C_{23}/C_{31} values,
 192 together with elevated LPTP, indicate a stronger contribution from aquatic organic



193 matter, whereas lower values suggest increased terrestrial input (Chu et al., 2014; Inglis
 194 et al., 2015). In the Nansi Lake profile, both proxies remain relatively high during the
 195 mid-Holocene (Fig. 3e-f), implying expanded aquatic vegetation and greater in-lake
 196 organic matter production, but decline and become more variable during the late
 197 Holocene, pointing to a stronger terrestrial influence and less stable organic matter
 198 sources. Because light availability and water depth strongly constrain submerged
 199 macrophyte habitats in shallow lakes (Lacoul and Freedman, 2006), an expanded lake
 200 area would have provided more favorable habitat for aquatic vegetation. We therefore
 201 infer that precipitation-driven lake water depth changes regulated aquatic vegetation in
 202 Lake Nansi and, in turn, controlled sedimentary P_{aq} . In this setting, P_{aq} provides a useful
 203 indicator of effective moisture variability.

204 3.2 Latitudinal variation patterns in the East Asian monsoon region

205 Our hydroclimate reconstruction at Nansi Lake from the eastern of the transition
 206 zone indicates generally dry conditions during the early Holocene, followed by a
 207 gradual increase in precipitation and the development of relatively humid conditions
 208 during the mid-Holocene, particularly between 6000 and 2500 cal yr BP (Fig. 4d). This
 209 pattern is broadly consistent with previous evidence from the Nansi Lake region. For
 210 example, optically stimulated luminescence dating indicates that the lake area expanded
 211 during ~5000–3000 cal yr BP, followed by a general contraction (Fig. 5e; Tian et al.,
 212 2025). Similarly, pollen and grain-size records from Judian Lake indicate that between
 213 6810 and 3100 cal yr BP, increased abundances of *Quercus* and *Ulmus*, together with
 214 strengthened hydrodynamic conditions and enhanced sediment transport capacity,
 215 reflected a generally humid climate (Zou et al., 2020). At a latitudinal scale, comparison
 216 of the Nansi Lake record with other regional archives reveals pronounced spatial
 217 heterogeneity in Holocene hydroclimate across EAM region. In northern China, records
 218 from Daihai Lake (Fig. 4a; Xu et al., 2010), Qigai Nuur Lake (Fig. 4b; Sun and Feng,
 219 2013), and Gonghai Lake (Fig. 4c; Chen et al., 2015), many records indicate increase
 220 precipitation during the middle Holocene (8000 to 3000 cal yr BP), followed by a shift
 221 toward drier after 3000 cal yr BP. By contrast, records from central China, for example



222 Heshang Cave (Fig. 4f; Zhu et al., 2017), Dajiuhu peat (Fig. 4g; Liu et al., 2019),
 223 Jiangnan Plain (Fig. 4h; Li et al., 2025), and Nanyi Lake (Fig. 4 I; Liu et al., 2021),
 224 generally point to reduced moisture during the middle Holocene (8000-3000 cal yr BP).
 225 Although differing in Some details, the Nansi Lake record is more closely aligned with
 226 that of northern China than with those from central China, as both indicate a broadly
 227 humid phase during the middle Holocene.

228 3.3 Longitudinal patterns of hydroclimatic variability across the transition zone

229 A comparison with other longitudinal records across transition belt further
 230 indicates that Holocene hydroclimatic evolution was not spatially uniform. For example,
 231 pollen-based precipitation reconstructions from the central of the transition zone,
 232 including records from the Mianchi Basin (Li et al., 2023) and Xingyang Basin (Liu et
 233 al., 2025), show several moisture shifts through the Holocene rather than a single
 234 sustained trend (Fig. 5c). Their relatively wet phases are mainly centered at 8000–7200
 235 cal yr BP and 4000–2500 cal yr BP, with the driest conditions occurring between 7200
 236 and 4000 yr BP. By contrast, a 10Be-based precipitation reconstruction from the Baoji
 237 Loess at west of the transition zone indicates maximum precipitation before 5500 cal
 238 yr BP, followed by a rapidly decline (Fig. 5c; Beck et al., 2018). Similarly, precipitation
 239 records inferred from magnetic susceptibility in the Pingyang and Dadiwan Loess
 240 suggest a wet interval during 8000-5000 cal yr BP (Fig. 5c; Gao et al., 2019; Liu et al.,
 241 2020). The asynchronous timing of maximum Holocene humidity across the transition
 242 zone is further supported by paleoflood records (Fig. 5a, d; Gao et al., 2025; Xiao et al.,
 243 2026). Paleofloods records from the western and central parts of the transition zone
 244 show event clusters at 8500–7000 and 4500–2000 cal yr BP (Fig. 5a), broadly matching
 245 the staged hydroclimatic evolution inferred for this sector (Fig. 5b, c). By contrast,
 246 paleoflood records from the eastern part of transition zone indicate a markedly increase
 247 in flood frequency during ~5000–2000 yr BP (Fig.5d), broadly corresponding to the
 248 main humid phase for this sector (Fig. 5e). Taken together, these comparisons indicate
 249 that the timing of maximum Holocene humidity varied across the transition belt, but
 250 appears to have been delayed from west to east, with the peak humid occurring earlier



251 in the western part and later in the eastern region.

252 Variations in El Niño activity may have contributed to the west-to-east delay in
 253 the timing of maximum Holocene humidity across the transition region. Before ~6500
 254 cal yr BP, El Niño activity was relatively strong (Koutavas and Joanides, 2012),
 255 precipitation appears to have been enhanced in the western part, whereas the eastern
 256 sector remained comparatively dry (Fig. 5c, e). During ~6500–3000 cal yr BP, as El
 257 Niño activity weakened (Koutavas and Joanides, 2012), the zone of maximum moisture
 258 shifted gradually eastward, while the western region experienced a drying trend (Fig.
 259 5c, e). This interpretation is supported by modern observational data, which show that
 260 the contrasting west-east precipitation anomalies within the transition belt during the
 261 1951–1978 and 1979–1992 were closely associated with changes in El Niño activity
 262 (Fig. 6; Ding et al., 2008). During the 1951 to 1978, relatively weak El Niño activity,
 263 was accompanied by increase precipitation in the eastern sector and decline in the west
 264 part (Fig. 6a). Conversely, during 1979 to 1992, when El Niño activity was strengthened,
 265 precipitation increased in the western part but decreased in the eastern sector (Fig. 6b).
 266 The central part of the transition was characterized by a bimodal humid pattern during
 267 the middle Holocene (Fig. 6).

268 Topographic modulation may have been further amplified these spatial differences.
 269 The eastern sector is dominated by relatively open terrain, whereas the central and
 270 western parts are more strongly affected by mountain blocking and orographic uplift
 271 (Fig. 1b). During the early mid-Holocene, a stronger EASM drove the monsoon rain
 272 belt further north (Chen et al., 2015). Moisture may therefore have crossed the open
 273 plains rapidly, limiting persistence rainfall in the eastern sector, whereas orographic
 274 uplift enhanced precipitation along the western mountains front. During the late mid-
 275 Holocene, monsoon weakening and a more restricted rain-belt migration may have
 276 increased rainfall residences time over the eastern sector but reduced precipitation
 277 penetration across western mountains. This mechanism is consistent with reconstructed
 278 precipitation changes in the Qinling Mountain (Zhang et al., 2025) and with modern
 279 climatological evidence showing that the Qinling Mountains can reorganize low-level
 280 moisture transport, enhance convective instability, and promote upward motion along



281 the mountain front (He et al., 2008; Li et al., 2021). Together, El Niño activity and
 282 topographic modulation likely contributed to the asynchronous timing of Holocene
 283 humidity maxima within the transition belt.

284 3.3 Influence of longitudinal hydroclimatic variability on prehistoric human 285 settlement patterns

286 To explore the possible link between settlement activity and regional
 287 hydroclimatic change, we compared reconstructed moisture records with
 288 spatiotemporal kernel density of archaeological sites across hydroclimatic transition
 289 zone. The KDE results show clear changes in the location of high-density settlement
 290 areas from 8000-2000 cal yr BP (Fig. 7), proving a spatial perspective for evaluating
 291 the relationship between hydroclimatic reorganization and prehistoric human
 292 occupation.

293 In the western sector, moisture records suggest relatively humid conditions during
 294 ca. 8000–5000 cal yr BP (Fig. 5c). During this period, high-density archaeological
 295 cluster were mainly distributed in the western parts of the transition zone (Fig. 7a-c),
 296 broadly corresponding to the Laoguantai, Yangshao cultural phases (Hosner et al.,
 297 2016). Many settlements in this region were located along river valleys, loess tablelands
 298 and terrace margins, where access to water, cultivable land, and relatively stable
 299 landforms favored occupation and farming (Hosner et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2024).
 300 The temporal agreement between wetter conditions and increased settlement density
 301 suggests that improved moisture availability may have supported rain-fed millet
 302 agriculture and settlement expansion, consistent with archaeobotanical evidence from
 303 northern China and the Guanzhong–Loess Plateau region (Li et al., 2009; He et al.,
 304 2022; Leipe et al., 2019). At the same time, the Dadiwan sequence shows that settlement
 305 development was not controlled by climate alone, but was closely related to cultural
 306 continuity, subsistence innovation, and regional interaction (Pei et al., 2026). After 5000
 307 cal yr BP, moisture conditions weakened in the western sector, and the KDE pattern
 308 shows that high-density settlement areas became less concentrated there (Fig. 7d-f),
 309 possibly reflecting reduced environmental support for stable rain-fed settlement



310 together with changes in cultural organization and settlement strategy (Zhang et al.,
 311 2024).

312 In the central sector, archaeological site density increased during the late mid-
 313 Holocene, especially during the Yangshao and Longshan occupations during the late
 314 mid-Holocene (Fig. 7c-d; Hosner et al., 2016). Regional hydroclimatic records also
 315 indicate enhanced moisture availability or stronger hydrological activity during this
 316 interval (Fig. 5b). Pollen-based reconstructions from the Mianchi and Xingyang basins
 317 show pronounced Holocene hydroclimatic fluctuations, suggesting that the Central
 318 Plains was a sensitive part of the East Asian summer monsoon transition zone rather
 319 than an area with a simple wet–dry trajectory (Li et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2025). In the
 320 Luoyang Basin, phases of increased precipitation and wetland expansion at 7400–6550,
 321 5650–5050, and 4350–3950 yr BP were associated with agricultural intensification and
 322 settlement growth, especially during the late Yangshao and late Longshan periods
 323 (Chen and Li, 2025). Improved water supply and the availability of alluvial land may
 324 have favored settlement aggregation in basin environments. At the same time,
 325 paleoflood evidence around 4200 cal yr BP indicates that stronger hydrological activity
 326 also brought higher flood risk to riverine and lowland settings (Zhang and Xia, 2011;
 327 Gao et al., 2025). Thus, in the central sector, increased moisture may have favored
 328 settlement aggregation in basin environments, but intensified hydrological activity also
 329 introduced flood-related risks, making the relationship between hydroclimate and
 330 settlement development more complex.

331 In the eastern sector, the Nansi Lake record and regional lacustrine evidence point
 332 to enhanced hydrological conditions from 6000 to 2500 cal yr BP (Fig. 5e). This interval
 333 overlaps with the Dawenkou, Longshan, Yueshi, and Shang–Zhou periods represented
 334 in the archaeological record (Fig. 7a; Hosner et al., 2016). The KDE maps show that
 335 high-density settlement clusters became increasingly prominent in the eastern part of
 336 the transition zone during the late mid-Holocene (Fig. 7d-e). Unlike the western sectors,
 337 this area was more closely tied to river–lake systems, lowland wetlands, and floodplain
 338 environments. During the Dawenkou and Longshan periods, humid conditions, wetland
 339 resources, and rice or mixed farming may have provided a favorable basis for settlement



340 growth (Jin and Wang, 2010; Ding et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2016). In the Yishu River
 341 Basin, warm and wet conditions during the early and middle Longshan period were
 342 associated with developed paddy agriculture and abundant archaeological sites,
 343 suggesting that hydroclimatic suitability and agricultural productivity were closely
 344 linked to settlement expansion (Gao et al., 2007). However, cooling and hydrological
 345 instability around ca. 4200 cal yr BP may have affected rice agriculture and contributed
 346 to the Longshan–Yueshi transition (Gao et al., 2007; Ding et al., 2011). The later
 347 increase during the Zhou period may reflect a recovery or reorganization of settlement
 348 systems under new forms of land use and water management.

349 Taken together, the comparison between hydroclimatic records and KDE-based
 350 archaeological site density suggests that settlement change across the transition zone
 351 were not spatially static. High-density settlement areas were more prominent in the
 352 western and central sector during the early mid-Holocene, whereas they became
 353 increasingly concentrated in the eastern sector during the late mid-Holocene. This
 354 spatial shift broadly corresponds to the eastward reorganization of favorable
 355 hydrological conditions shown by regional moisture and lacustrine records. Thus,
 356 hydroclimatic change provided an important environmental background for the
 357 eastward reorganization of prehistoric settlement density, although the final settlement
 358 pattern was also shaped by cultural and social factors (Chen and Li, 2025; Dong et al.,
 359 2019).

360 4. Conclusion

361 This study reconstructed Holocene hydroclimatic changes in the Nansi Lake
 362 region using sedimentary *n*-alkane proxies. The dominance of mid-chain and the
 363 variations in P_{aq} , C_{23}/C_{31} , and LPTP indicate that aquatic plants were the main source
 364 of sedimentary organic matter. The reconstructed records suggest the region
 365 experienced relatively high lake levels and enhanced effective moisture during the mid-
 366 Holocene. Since the late Holocene, declining and more variable proxy values suggest a
 367 shift toward less stable hydrological conditions and increased terrestrial input.

368 The hydroclimatic evolution of Nansi Lake was characterized by relatively a



369 pronounced humid phase at approximately 6000–2500 cal yr BP, and a general
370 weakening of moisture conditions thereafter. This pattern is broadly consistent with
371 records from northern China at latitudinal scale, but differs from the mid-Holocene dry
372 pattern documented in the central China. Comparisons with other records from the
373 transition belt further reveal marked longitudinal delay in the maximum humidity. The
374 west-to-east contrast of precipitation indicate that Holocene precipitation patterns were
375 jointly influenced by El Niño activity and region topographic modulation.

376 In addition, archaeological site distributions in the transitional zone further
377 indicate that human occupation center broadly tracked the Holocene eastward migration
378 of precipitation, with early to mid-Holocene settlement concentrated in the western
379 sector and later activity increasing in the central and eastern part. This connection
380 suggests that shifts in precipitation reshaped agricultural suitability and settlement
381 stability, thereby promoting a gradual eastward shift in the center of human activity
382 within the EAM transitional zone.

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388 **Author Contributions**

389 Xiaoshuang Sun and Can Zhang conceive and designed the study. Mengyi Yang
390 Jinliang Liu, Tianlong Yan, Xin Mao collected and analyzed the samples. Xiaoshuang
391 Sun, Rui Han, Can Zhang perform the data analysis and visualization. Xiaoshuang Sun,
392 Can Zhang write the original draft. All authors reviewed and approved the final
393 manuscript.

394 **Conflict of Interest**

395 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.



396 **Data Availability**

397 The n-alkane data generated in this study is freely available in the Figshare
 398 repository: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.32731563>.

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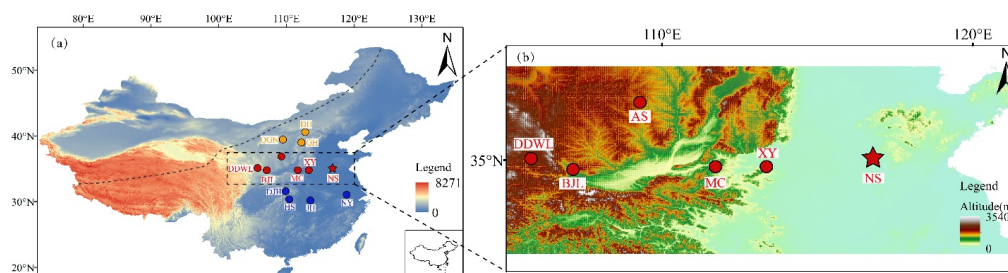


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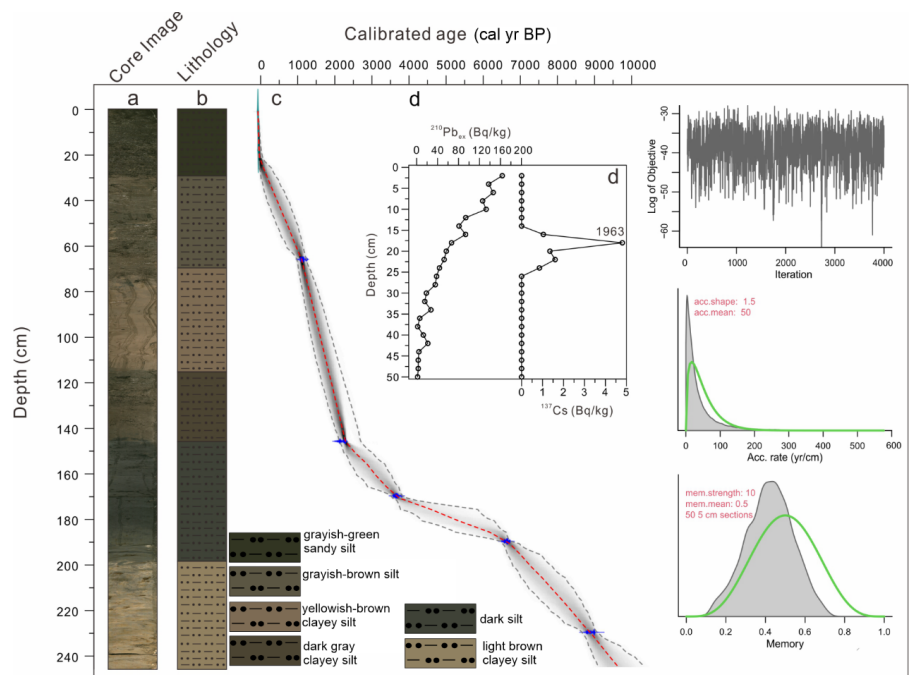
Figures

Figure.1 Location of key sites mentioned in the text (a and b): Nansi Lake (NS; this study), Qigai Nuur Lake (QGN; Sun and Feng, 2013), Daihai Lake (Xu et al., 2010), Gonghai Lake (Chen et al., 2015), Ansai Loess (ASL; Gao et al., 2019), Dadiwan Loess (DDWL; Liu et al., 2020), Baoji Loess (BJL; Beck et al., 2018), Mianchi Basin (MC; Li et al., 2023), Xingying Basin (XY; Liu et al., 2025), Dajiuhu Peat (DJH; Liu et al., 2019), Heshang Cave (HS; Zhu et al., 2017), Jiangnan Plain (JH; Li et al., 2025), Nanyi Lake (NY; Liu et al., 2021). (c) Mean monthly temperature and precipitation at the Jining meteorological station, Shandong Province, China. Data are sourced from the China Meteorological Administration.





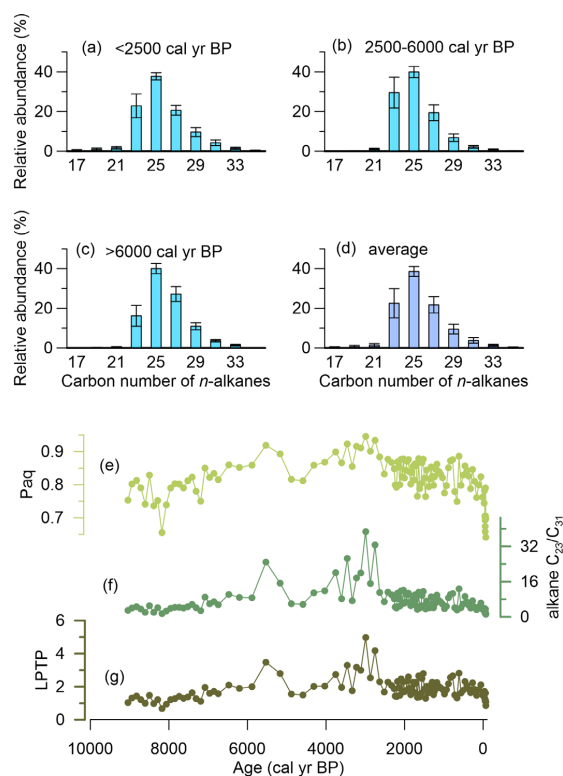
581 Figure. 2 Chronology and lithology of the sediment core from Nansi Lake. (a) Core
582 photograph showing overall sediment characteristics. (b) Lithology profile illustrating
583 stratigraphic changes along the core. (c) Age–depth model based on calibrated AMS
584 ^{14}C dates and Bayesian modeling using the Bacon age-modelling software. (d) ^{210}Pb
585 and ^{137}Cs activities (Bq/kg) of dried sediments.



586



Figure. 3 Average molecular distribution of n-alkanes and temporal variations in n-alkanes proxies in sediments from Nansi Lake. Average relative abundances of odd-carbon n-alkanes in different age intervals: (a) <2500 cal yr BP, (b) 2500-6000 cal yr BP, (c) >6000 cal yr BP, (d) the average of the whole core. Error bars represent the standard deviation of samples within each interval. Down-core variations in n-alkanes proxies during the Holocene: (e) Paq, reflecting the relative contribution of submerged/floating aquatic macrophytes to sedimentary organic matter; (f) C_{23}/C_{31} , representing the relative contribution of aquatic macrophyte-derived mid-chain n-alkanes versus terrestrial higher-plant-derived long-chain n-alkanes; and (g) LPTP, indicating the ratio of lake productivity/terrigenous organic production.



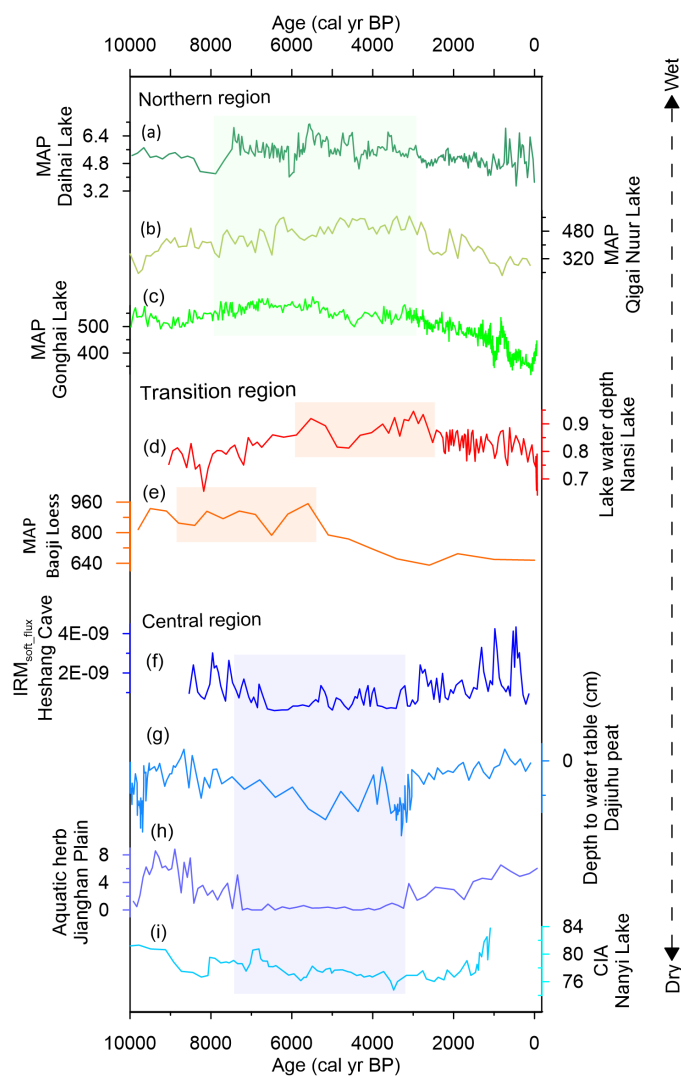
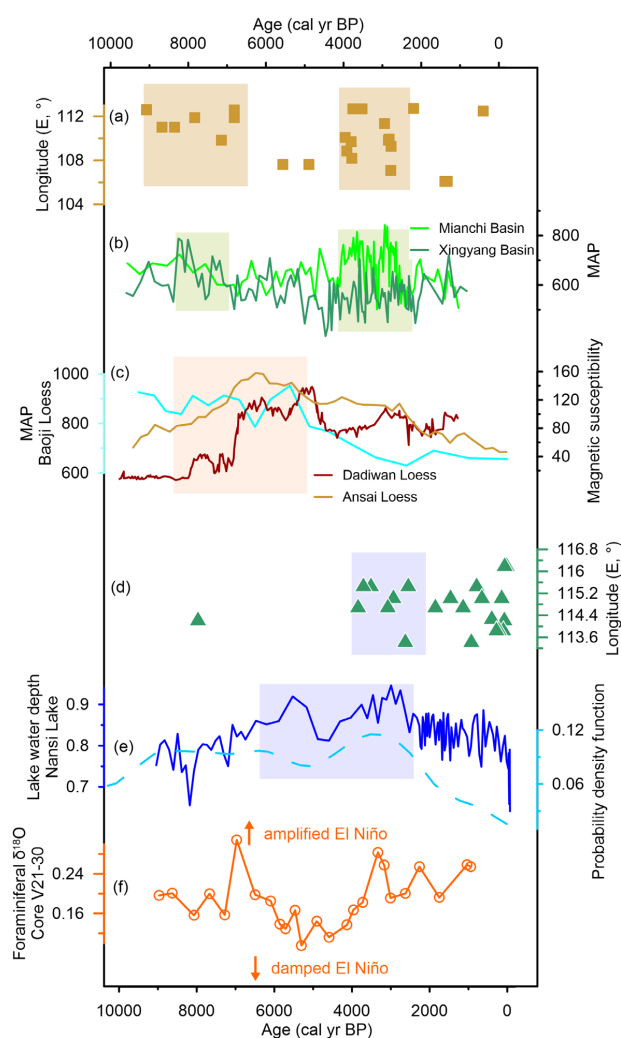




Figure.5 Comparison of various hydroclimate record from transition region of EAM.
 (a) Large flood record at the western and central of transition zone (Xiao et al., 2026).
 (b) Precipitation at Mianchi Basin (Li et al., 2023) and Xingyang Basin (Liu et al., 2025).
 (c) Precipitation and moisture records at Ansai Loess (Gao et al., 2019), Dadiwan Loess
 (Liu et al., 2020), Baoji Loess (Beck et al., 2018). (d) Large flood record at the eastern
 of transition zone (Xiao et al., 2026). (e) Lake water depth at Nansi Lake (this study),
 probability density function for lacustrine occurrences (Tian et al., 2025). (f) El Niño
 activity record from foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at eastern equatorial Pacific.





616 Figure. 6 Patterns of rainfall departure for summer (JJA) (mm) averaged for (a) 1951–
 617 1978 and (b) 1979–1992.

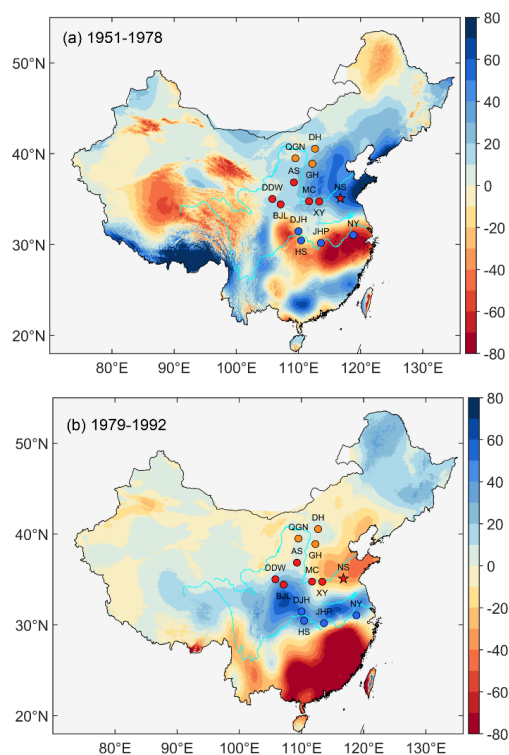




Figure 7 Spatiotemporal changes in archaeological site density across the East Asian summer monsoon transition zone. Kernel density estimation (KDE) maps of archaeological sites are shown for six 1000-year intervals: (A) 8000–7000 cal yr BP, (B) 7000–6000 cal yr BP, (C) 6000–5000 cal yr BP, (D) 5000–4000 cal yr BP, (E) 4000–3000 cal yr BP, and (F) 3000–2000 cal yr BP. Archaeological site data were extracted from Hosner et al. (2016). Black dots represent archaeological sites in each time interval, and the color scale indicates relative KDE intensity, with warmer colors denoting higher site density.

