1 Abstract

Holding a climatically and geologically key position both regionally and globally, the 2 northeastern Tibetan Plateau provides a natural laboratory for illustrating the 3 interactions between tectonic activity and the evolution of the Asian interior 4 aridification. Determining when and how the Late Miocene climate evolved on the 5 northeastern Tibetan Plateau may help us better understand the relationships among 6 7 tectonic uplift, global cooling and ecosystem evolution. Previous paleoenvironmental research has focused on the western Longzhong Basin. Late Miocene aridification 8 data derived from pollen now requires corroborative evidence from the eastern 9 Longzhong Basin. Here, we present a Late Miocene pollen record from the Tianshui 10 Basin in the eastern Longzhong Basin. Our results show that a general trend toward 11 dry climate was superimposed by stepwise aridification: a temperate forest with a 12 rather humid climate existed in the basin between 11.4 and 10.1Ma, followed by a 13 temperate open forest environment with a less humid climate between 10.1 and 7.4Ma, 14 15 then gave way to an open temperate forest-steppe environment with a relatively arid climate between 7.4 to 6.4Ma. The vegetation succession demonstrates that the 16 aridification of the Asian interior occurred after \sim 7–8Ma, which is confirmed by other 17 evidence from Asia. Furthermore, the aridification trend on the northeastern Tibetan 18 Plateau parallels the global cooling of the Late Miocene; the stepwise vegetation 19 succession is consistent with the major uplift of the northeastern Tibetan Plateau 20 during this time. These integrated environmental proxies indicate that the long-term 21 global cooling and the Tibetan Plateau uplift caused the Late Miocene aridification of 22 23 the Asian interior.

24 1 Introduction

As the latter stage of the global Cenozoic cooling, the Neogene was a critical period for northern hemispheric aridification, especially for the marked aridification of the Asian interior. Establishing when, and how, this process of aridification began and evolved is therefore vital for elucidating the interactions among tectonic uplift, global

cooling and ecosystem evolution. Although there is compelling evidence for the 1 aridification of the Asian interior, there is no consensus concerning its evolution and 2 driving mechanisms. For instance, previous researchers have suggested that the 3 aridification of the Asian interior began in the Late Miocene, based particularly on 4 biological and isotopic evidence (Andersson and Werdelin, 2005; Cerling et al., 1997; 5 Dettman et al., 2001; Eronen et al., 2012; Quade et al., 1989; Wang and Deng, 2005; 6 Zhang et al., 2012). However, others have argued that the process of Asian interior 7 8 aridification may have begun in the Early Miocene (22Ma) or even earlier (in the Late Oligocene), as inferred from Miocene or Oligocene eolian deposition (Guo et al., 9 2002, 2008; Qiang et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2010). The particular driving mechanisms 10 of such aridification also remain enigmatic. Up until now, the tectonic uplift of the 11 Tibetan Plateau (TP), global cooling and land-sea distributions have been suggested 12 as the major drivers (An et al., 2001; Gupta et al., 2004; Kutzbach et al., 1993; Liu 13 and Yin, 2002; Miao et al., 2012; Molnar et al., 2010). However, there is little 14 consensus about which one is the most important driver. We focused on the region of 15 16 the northeastern TP to explore the nature of the interactions between tectonics and climate. 17

The geographically-extensive Longzhong Basin, consisting of a series of sub-basins, 18 is located in the northeastern TP. These sub-basins present a continuous record of 19 mammalian fossil-rich Cenozoic sediments, recording the effect of TP uplift on 20 regional climates (Fang et al., 2003, 2005; GRGST, 1984; Li et al., 2006, 2014), as 21 well as the effect of the global cooling. On the other hand, it lies in the so-called 22 monsoonal triangle, a transition zone from a warm-humid Asian monsoonal climate to 23 24 a dry-cold inland climate and to the alpine climate of the TP (Li et al., 1988, 2014) 25 (Fig. 1a). Its particular geological and geographical characteristics make it sensitive to document the aridification history of northern China. As a field laboratory for 26 studying tectonic-climate interactions (Molnar et al., 2010; Tapponnier et al., 2001), 27 the Longzhong Basin might be the most promising for distinguishing TP uplift and 28 associated environmental change. 29

As a reliable paleoenvironmental proxy, pollen has been used to reconstruct past 1 2 climates because of its abundance and excellent preservation within sediments. Previous research has demonstrated that the Tianshui Basin, as a sub-basin of the 3 Longzhong Basin, exhibits a typical Late Miocene lacustrine-fluvial sedimentary 4 succession containing abundant pollen (Li et al., 2006). Here we reconstruct a 5 high-resolution palynological record from the well-dated Yaodian Section, located in 6 the southern part of the Tianshui Basin. Our results not only provide new evidence for 7 8 the evolution of vegetation in the Late Miocene and climate change on northeastern margin of the TP, but also shed new light on the aridification of the Asian interior. 9

10 **2** Geological and geographical settings

11 The rhomboid-shaped Longzhong Basin, which is one of the largest intermountain and fault-controlled sedimentary basins on the northeastern TP, is geographically 12 delineated by the left-lateral strike-slip Haiyuan Fault to the north, the Liupan Shan 13 Fault to the east and northeast, the Laji Shan Fault to the southwest, and the Western 14 15 Qinling Fault to the south (Fig. 1b). The Tianshui Basin, one of its sub-basins, is located in the southeastern part of the Longzhong Basin (Fig. 1b). It has witnessed the 16 continuous deposition of mammalian fossil-rich Cenozoic sediments from the 17 surrounding mountains; these sediments record the interactions between mountain 18 uplift, erosion and climate change (Alonso-Zarza et al., 2009; Li et al., 2006; Liu et al., 19 2015; Peng et al., 2012, 2015). At present, the East Asian Monsoon influences this 20 region, engendering a semi-humid, warm temperate, continental monsoon climate, 21 characterized by relatively hot, humid summers and cold, dry winters. The mean 22 23 annual temperature and mean annual precipitation of this area are $\sim 11 \text{ C}$ and 492mm, respectively, with rainfall concentrated mainly in summer and autumn (Fig. 1c). The 24 modern natural vegetation in this region is warm-temperature forest-grassland. Warm 25 grasslands are distributed in the valleys, and consist mainly of Arundinella hirta, 26 Spodiopogon sibiricus and Themeda triandran. Shrubs such as Zizyphus jujube, 27 Sophora viciifolia and Ostryopsis davidiana are found on the hillsides. Trees, 28 including Quercus liaotungensis, Pinus tabulaeformis, P. armandi and Platycladus 29

1 *orientalis*, grow in the mountains (Huang, 1997).

The selected Yaodian Section (105°55' E, 34°38' N) is located in the southern part of 2 the Tianshui Basin (Fig. 1d). The Neogene sequence in section is capped by loess and 3 lies unconformably on top of the Paleogene Guyuan Group. It has been divided into 4 the Ganquan Formation (Fm), the Yaodian Fm and the Yangjizhai Fm, in sequence 5 upwards (Li et al., 2006). In this study, our research mainly focuses on the Late 6 Miocene Yaodian Fm and Yangjizhai Fm. Based on a determination of lithology and 7 sedimentology, the Yaodian Fm can be divided into three principal strata. The lower 8 stratum consists of massive fine gravel sandstone, sandstone and brown silty 9 mudstone, occasionally with thin brown mudstone or interbedded paleosols, which 10 can be considered fluvial channel deposits (Fig. 2e). Abundant teeth of Hipparion 11 weihoense, Cervavitus novorossiae, Ictitherium sp. and their bone fragments were 12 excavated from this stratum. The middle stratum of the Yaodian Fm consists of the 13 interbedding of siltstone or fine sandstone with mudstone intercalated with paleosols, 14 overlying the fluvial channel deposits. The assemblage's characteristics are typical of 15 floodplain deposition (Fig. 2d). The upper stratum of the Yaodian Fm is characterized 16 by rhythmic cycles composed of grey or brown mudstone or sandy marlite and 17 intraclastic marl intercalated with brown siltstone and mudstone, and contains fossil 18 algae and gastropods; this section is representative of shallow lake deposition (Fig. 2a 19 and c). The upper stratum is common throughout the basin, and is analogous to the 20 "Zebra Bed" stratum found in the Linxia Basin in the western Longzhong Basin (Li et 21 22 al., 1995). The Yangjizhai Fm is principally composed of reddish brown mudstone or silty mudstone and yellowish brown calcrete or calcareous mudstone, with scattered 23 24 sandstone or grey mudstone and marlite. These sediments were deposited under strong evaporative conditions in distal floodplain to palustrine environments (Fig. 2b). 25 Previous paleomagnetic investigations have indicated that the Yaodian Fm ranges 26 from 11.67 to 7.43Ma in age, and that the Yangjizhai Fm dates from 7.43 to 6.40Ma, 27 both these ranges being consistent with the formations' biostratigraphic ages (Li et al., 28 2006). 29

1 3 Materials and methods

Most of the samples came from lacustrine mud deposits and fine grain size 2 intercalations found in floodplain and fluvial channel deposits. Because the lower 3 10m of the Yaodian Fm consists of coarse gravel sandstone, and it was difficult to 4 find fine-grained sediments therein, this part of the formation was not sampled. A 5 total of 200 samples were processed for palynological analysis. For each 6 sample, >100g of sediment was washed in 20% HCl, soaked in 39% HF and then 7 treated with 10% HCl solution to enable fluoride dissolution. We then concentrated 8 pollen by physical enrichment procedures, using ZnCl₂ separation and ultrasound 9 sieving over a 10µm filter. Samples were stored in glycerin. Identifications were 10 based on atlas of pollen and spores (Wang, 1995; Song, 1999), as well as modern 11 reference slides from the collection of the Laboratory of Sporopollen Analysis of the 12 Geography Department of Lanzhou University. Palynological diagram was plotted 13 using Tilia v2.0.b.4 (Grimm, 1993) and pollen-assemblage zones were constructed 14 15 using Stratigraphically-constrained cluster analysis (CONISS) (Grimm, 1987).

16 4 Results

Only 126 of the 200 samples contained enough palynomorphs to provide reliable data; 17 the remaining 74 possessed fewer than 300 identifiable grains and have not been 18 19 included in the analysis. Most of the latter samples had been preserved under oxidizing conditions, or had high carbonate content. Approximately 80 different 20 palynomorphs were identified at family or genus level. Percentages were expressed on 21 the total number of recognized taxa. Tree pollen consists mainly of Pinus, 22 23 Cupressaceae and Ulmus, along with Quercus and Betula. Additionally, a number of subtropical plants pollen, such as Liquidambar, Pterocarya and Carya (which are no 24 longer found in this area today), appear often in low abundance. Herbaceous pollen is 25 mainly from Artemisia, Chenopodioideae, Poaceae and Asteraceae. Pollen from 26 extremely drought-tolerant plants, such as Ephedra and Nitraria, only appear 27 sporadically in single samples. In addition, the section also contains fern spores and 28 Pediastrum colonies. A selection of the more important taxa is given in Fig. 3. 29

CONISS (Grimm, 1987) yields three distinct zones, described from the bottom up as
 follows:

3 4.1 Zone 1 (195.5–158.5m, 11.4–10.1Ma)

Samples from this zone exhibit high percentages of tree pollen, averaging 75%. 4 Coniferous taxa are mainly *Pinus* (19%) and Cupressaceae (18%), with smaller 5 amounts of Picea and Cedrus. Ulmus (20%) is the most common broadleaf tree pollen, 6 7 accompanied by pollen of *Betula* (3%), *Quercus* (2%) and *Salix* (2%). Other arboreal taxa are Juglans and Castanea, with <2% respectively. Herbaceous taxa mainly 8 include Artemisia (7%), Chenopodioideae (6%) and Poaceae (2%), along with small 9 amounts of Asteraceae, Ranunculaceae and Rosaceae, with amounts <2% 10 11 respectively. Aquatic plants, algae and some subtropical taxa are also represented in this zone with low abundance. 12

13 **4.2 Zone 2 (158.5–63.5m, 10.1–7.4Ma)**

In this zone, total tree pollen percentage decreases, averaging 54%. Coniferous taxa 14 15 are principally represented by Pinus (14%), Cupressaceae (7%), Picea (2%) and 16 Cedrus (1%). Among broadleaf trees, the dominant taxa are Ulmus (8%), Quercus (2%), Betula (2%), Salix (2%) and Juglans (1%). Herbaceous taxa are dominated by 17 Artemisia (14%) and Chenopodioideae (9%), along with Poaceae (5%), Asteraceae 18 19 (3%) and Ranunculaceae (3%). Aquatic vegetation reaches the highest value found in 20 the entire profile. Subtropical taxa, such as Liquidambar, Pterocarya, Carya and 21 Rutaceae, are represented with low abundance. The zone is divided into two subzones, Zone 2-1 (158.5–106.5m, 10.1–8.6Ma) and Zone 2-2 (106.5–63.5m, 8.6–7.4Ma). 22 23 Herbaceous pollen percentages are slightly higher in Zone 2-2 than in Zone 2-1.

24 **4.3 Zone 3 (63.5–30m, 7.4–6.4 Ma)**

The samples from this zone record a further decrease in tree pollen to an average value of 39%. Coniferous taxa are characterized by *Pinus* (7%) and Cupressaceae (5%). *Ulmus* (5%) dominates the broadleaf tree pollen, with *Quercus* and *Betula* accounting for 2%, respectively. Herbaceous taxa are composed of *Artemisia* (19%),

Chenopodioideae (11%) and Poaceae (9%), together with Asteraceae (5%),
 Ranunculaceae (3%), Brassicaceae (3%) and Polygonaceae (2%). Aquatic plants and
 thermophilic species almost disappear.

4 5 Discussion

5 5.1 Vegetation and climate reconstruction

The sedimentary facies of the Yaodian Section indicate four successive depositional 6 7 stages: fluvial channel; floodplain; shallow lake; and distal floodplain to palustrine. Transitionals can be dated to 10.4, 9.23 and 7.43Ma, respectively (Li et al., 2006) (Fig. 8 2). Our palynological record shows stepwise changes at 10.1 and 7.4Ma, lagging 9 slightly behind those evinced by the sedimentary facies. Another distinctive feature of 10 the palynological record is that the green lacustrine deposits of fine grain size exhibit 11 dense palynomorph concentrations, with higher tree pollen percentages. In contrast, 12 the reddish floodplain deposits with coarse grain sizes possess sparse palynomorph 13 concentrations, with higher herbaceous pollen percentages (Fig. 3). However, in the 14 15 same pollen zones, we find that the palynomorph concentration clearly changes between different sedimentary facies, but that percentage fluctuations are minor. 16 Between different pollen zones, the palynomorph percentages change strongly within 17 the same sedimentary facies. We can therefore conclude that the changes in the 18 19 palynological record are caused by changes in regional vegetation, rather than different preservation conditions. The paleoecological information inferred from the 20 percentage change of pollen record can thus be considered reliable. 21

According to modern surface pollen studies, *Pinus* is often overrepresented in pollen records because of its abundant pollen production and the ease with which this pollen is transported over long distances. As a general rule, it can be assumed that there is/was no proximate pine forest if less than 25 to 30% of *Pinus* pollen occurs in samples (Li and Yao, 1990). Higher percentages of Cupressaceae and Taxodiaceae coexistent with temperate tree, shrub and herbaceous pollen may reflect a warmer, wetter and more humid climate (Song, 1978). Nowadays, *Ulmus* is commonly

distributed in the sub-humid temperate and warm temperate mountain foothills of 1 northern China, but percentages of its pollen collected from the Chinese Loess Plateau 2 surface soils never exceed 1%, even under broadleaved forests containing elm (Liu et 3 al., 1999). In general, when their abundance exceeds 3–5% of the arboreal pollen total, 4 birch and oak can be considered to be/have been present in woodland (Liu et al., 5 1999). Salix produces very little pollen, and most of this pollen falls near the tree 6 itself (Li et al., 2000). Modern Artemisia and Chenopodioideae are extensively 7 8 distributed throughout the arid and semi-arid regions of China. Chenopodioideae are more drought-resistant than Artemisia. Higher percentages of Artemisia pollen may 9 reflect a semi-arid grassland environment, while higher percentages 10 of Chenopodioideae pollen may reflect an arid desert environment. Surface pollen 11 analysis shows that Artemisia and Chenopodioideae are greatly overrepresented in the 12 pollen rain. Only when Chenopodioideae and Artemisia pollen abundance exceeds 30% 13 of the total should their presence be considered as primarily local (Herzschuh et al., 14 2003; Ma et al., 2008). Poaceae pollen abundance is sparse, usually only 3-6%, even 15 when it represents the dominant modern species (Tong et al., 1995). 16

17 Our record therefore indicates that, during the period when the Yaodian Fm was being deposited, the study area was covered by temperate forests and a warm and humid 18 climate. Mixed deciduous forests, characterized by the dominance of Pinus, 19 Cupressaceae, Ulmus and Quercus, were distributed within the basin and the low 20 altitude hills surrounding it. Mid- and high-altitude forests with Abies, Picea and 21 Cedrus existed in the surrounding uplands. The river banks or lake margins were 22 colonized by Salix, Alnus, Fraxinus and Taxodiaceae. Cyperaceae, Typha and 23 24 Myriophyllum grew along the lake shores or in shallow water areas. Ranunculaceae, 25 Poaceae, Chenopodioideae and Artemisia, principally occupied the forest understory, or were distributed in forest clearings. However, as indicated by our record, the 26 environment was not static. During 11.4–10.1Ma, temperate forest grew in the basin 27 indicating a rather humid climate. The growth of fluvial channel deposits and the 28 presentation of a large number of mammalian fossils (Li et al., 2006) also support the 29

theory that much denser vegetation capable of supporting large mammals such as 1 rhinoceroses developed during this interval. Moreover, we know that the northern 2 Tianshui Basin was dominated by temperate and warm-temperate deciduous broadleaf 3 forest (Hui et al., 2011). Our result is also consistent with research into the climatic 4 evolution of the Qaidam Basin, which found that the presence of δ^{18} O values 5 characteristic of large mammals indicated a warmer, wetter, and perhaps 6 lower-altitude Qaidam Basin (Zhang et al., 2012). The early Late Miocene mammal 7 8 fauna discovered in the Qaidam Basin also reflects a wooded environment, in which many streams with aquatic plants such as Trapa and Typha developed (Wang et al., 9 2007). From 10.1–7.4Ma, the study area was dominated by a warm-temperate open 10 forest environment and a less humid climate, relative to the previous interval. 11 Sedimentary facies become characteristic of shallow lake deposits (Li et al., 2006). 12 Mammal fauna identified in the eastern Qaidam Basin also indicates that a mixed 13 habitat of open and wooded environments, with abundant freshwater streams, was 14 predominant at that time (Wang et al., 2007). In particular, herbaceous plants also 15 16 increased their presence in the Tianshui Basin after ~8.6Ma, as confirmed by mammalian fossil records. In the northern Tianshui Basin at ~9.5Ma, there is 17 evidence of a sizeable rhinoceros population, which would have required a relatively 18 moist woodland environment to sustain itself. However, the typical Hipparion fauna 19 20 at ~8.0Ma probably represents a relatively temperate climate with more mixed vegetation, i.e. an open forest environment rather than a vast, open landscape. Large 21 mammals would still have been able to survive in such an environment (Zhang et al., 22 2013). 23

An open temperate forest-steppe environment developed in the study region, indicating significant aridification after ~7.4Ma. Grassland, composed principally of Poaceae, *Artemisia* and Chenopodioideae, developed in most of the basin, while shrinking areas of open forest, dominated by Cupressaceae, *Ulmus* and *Quercus*, existed in the surrounding mountains. *Salix* continued to grow in relatively humid environments such as riverbanks. Distal floodplain to palustrine deposits now

characterized the study area (Li et al., 2006). A sudden increase in magnetic 1 susceptibility after ~7.4Ma may indicate an arid environment (Zhang, 2013) (Fig. 4b). 2 In the northern part of the Tianshui Basin, drought-tolerant Artemisia predominated 3 after 7.4Ma, further confirming the presence of a drier climate (Hui et al., 2011) (Fig. 4 4c). Additionally, the growing presence of grazer mammalian species at the end of the 5 Miocene in the Tianshui Basin suggests that the local environment was principally 6 occupied by grassland, with some woodland, and even some deserts (L. P. Liu et al., 7 8 2011) (Fig. 4d). Furthermore, the gradual increase in eolian sediments after 7.4Ma in 9 the Linxia Basin would indicate a period of intense desertification in central China (Fan et al., 2006) (Fig. 4e). Biomarker evidence from the Linxia Basin also indicates a 10 distinct change in climate toward arid-cold conditions at ~8Ma (Y. L. Wang et al., 11 2012). The isotopic compositions of herbivorous fossil teeth and paleosols from the 12 Linxia Basin (Wang and Deng, 2005) and southwestern China (Biasatti et al., 2012) 13 also indicate a shift to a drier, or seasonally drier, local climate. In the Qaidam Basin, 14 *Hipparion teilhardi* fossils are characterized by slenderer distal limbs, and dated to 15 16 the end of the Miocene, implying an adaptation by this animal to the open steppe environment (Deng and Wang, 2004). Marine sediments also indicate that the climate 17 changed at this time. For example, local seawater δ^{18} O reconstructions from ODP Site 18 1146 in the northern South China Sea suggest that the climate of east and south Asia 19 20 shifted toward more arid conditions after ~7.5Ma (Steinke et al., 2010) (Fig. 4f).

5.2 More arid condition at the end of the Miocene and possible causes

Based on the Late Neogene Chinese mammalian fossils data, Zhang (2006) suggested 22 23 that mammal communities in northern China were rather stable and uniform from ~13Ma to the end of the Miocene (~7-8Ma), and that differentiation between the 24 humid fauna communities prevalent in eastern China and the dry fauna communities 25 identified in western China occurred after the end of the Miocene. The diversity in 26 Bovidae fossils also increases significantly toward the end of the Miocene, with some 27 genera appearing in southwestern China (Chen and Zhang, 2009), indicating an 28 expansion of grasslands and aridification. Using macro- and microfloral quantitative 29

recovery techniques to reconstruct the climate in northern China at the time, Y.-S. C. 1 Liu et al. (2011) proposed that the west-east temperature and precipitation gradient 2 pattern did not develop in northern China until the end of the Miocene. This 3 corroborates the quantitative results gained from using mammalian fossils as a proxy 4 for paleoprecipitation (Liu et al., 2009). A semi-quantitative reconstruction of Chinese 5 Neogene vegetation also indicated that the aridification of western, central and 6 northern China occurred during the Miocene–Pliocene transition (Jacques et al., 2013). 7 8 Indeed, in order to adapt to the arid climate of northern China during the end of the Miocene, some plants and arthropods also evolved more arid-tolerant species, such as 9 Frutescentes (Fabaceae) (Zhang and Fritsch, 2010), Ephedra (Ephedraceae) (Qin et 10 al., 2013) and Mesobuthus (Buthidae) (Shi et al., 2013). This marked aridification has 11 been well documented in other parts of Asia. For example, dramatic changes in the 12 carbon isotopic ratio of leaf waxes at ODP Site 722 indicate an increasing aridity at 13 the end of the Miocene in continental source regions, including Pakistan, Iran, 14 Afghanistan, and the Arabian Peninsula (Huang et al., 2007) (Fig. 4g). The isotopic 15 16 compositions of herbivorous fossil teeth and paleosol carbonates also suggest that the climate became drier over the Indian Subcontinent, China, and Central Asia toward 17 the end of the Miocene (Badgley et al., 2008; Barry et al., 2002; Biasatti et al., 2012; 18 Cerling et al., 1997; Quade et al., 1989; Wang and Deng, 2005; Zhang et al., 2009). 19 20 The evidential synchronicity of these climatic events in Asia strongly suggests that the aridification of the Asian interior began at the end of the Miocene (~7-8Ma). The 21 onset of such a marked aridification is further corroborated by the presence of red clay 22 across much of the Chinese Loess Plateau (An et al., 2001). 23

Precipitation in arid northwestern China is primarily caused by the Asian Summer Monsoon, whereas the Asian Winter Monsoon promotes a cold and dry climate. Besides the monsoon source, the westerlies also bring precipitation into China. During the Neogene, Eurasia was influenced by global cooling, land-sea redistribution and regional tectonic uplift (Lease et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2008; Miao et al., 2013, 2015; Molnar et al., 2010; Mudelsee et al., 2014; Zachos et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2007), and these three factors are considered as the major drivers for the
 formation and evolution of the Asian monsoon and inland arid climate.

During the Late Neogene, the most significant global cooling event occurred at 3 ~14Ma (Mudelsee et al., 2014; Zachos et al., 2001), followed by a longer-term but 4 minor cooling trend (4-10Ma, Mudelsee et al., 2014) (Fig. 4h). Although the global 5 cooling should somehow lead to net aridification on the planet, cooling and 6 aridification trends do not seem to run parallel (van Dam, 2006). The complexity of 7 the atmospheric and oceanic circulation systems ensures that general cooling may 8 result in precipitation decrease in some regions and increase in others (van Dam, 9 2006). However, integrated studies showed that the global cooling during the 10 Neogene had significant influences on driving the Asian monsoon and inland arid 11 climate (e.g. Lu et al. 2010; Lu and Guo, 2014; Tang and Ding, 2013), especially 12 since the Late Miocene (Lu and Guo, 2014). The possible mechanism lies in two 13 aspects. Firstly, it is clear that the global cooling has strengthened the Siberia High, 14 which dominates winter monsoon circulation and aridity in eastern Asia (Lu and Guo, 15 2014). This would result in enhanced and more frequent cold surges in the 16 mid-latitudes of Northern Hemisphere. Secondly, the global cooling caused the 17 weakening of hydrological cycle, expanding of ice sheets, lowering of sea level and 18 increasing of continental surface (Lu and Guo, 2014; Tang and Ding, 2013). This 19 would reduce the moisture mass transported into the continental interior (Tang and 20 Ding, 2013). Therefore, we speculate that the global cooling could intensify aridity of 21 22 the Asian interior.

Besides the above focusing on the climate effects of the global cooling, model simulations have paid special attention to the climatic effects of the land-sea redistribution. For example, model simulations suggest that the westward retreat of the Paratethys from central Asian has contributed significantly to Asian climates (e.g. Guo et al., 2008; Ramstein et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2007). However, a large number of geological evidences suggest that the vast majority/even all Paratethys regression from the Tarim Basin (northwest China) occurred at the Oligocene (e.g. Bershaw et

al., 2012; Bosboom et al., 2014). Meanwhile, numerical simulation also indicates that 1 the spreading of the South China Sea may enhance the south-north contrast of 2 humidity in China (Guo et al., 2008), and brings more precipitation into Asia. 3 Nevertheless, many studies indicate that western and northern China became drier 4 during the Neogene (e.g. Guo et al., 2008; Tang and Ding, 2013; Sun and Wang, 5 2005). Therefore, although the land-sea redistribution had a significant impact on the 6 major climate reorganization in Asia during the Late Oligocene/Early Miocene (Guo 7 8 et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2007), it should have a limited effect on the formation and development of the Asian inland arid climate during the Late Miocene. 9

Model simulations have also paid attention to the climate effects of the TP uplift. The 10 scenarios of whole-plateau uplift (e.g. Kutzbach et al., 1993), phased uplift (e.g. An et 11 al., 2001; Kitoh, 2004; Liu and Yin, 2002) and sub-regional uplift (e.g. Boos and 12 Kuang, 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012), with 13 increasing complexity, are usually designed for discovering the cause-effect relations 14 between the plateau uplift and paleoclimate change (Liu and Yin, 2011). The different 15 models conclude that the uplift of the TP played an essential role in affecting the 16 atmospheric circulation and forming the monsoon and arid climate when the 17 whole/sub-regional plateau exceed a critical height (An et al., 2001; Boos and Kuang, 18 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Kutzbach et al., 1993; Liu and Yin, 2002; Tang et al., 19 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012). However, because of the different model setups and 20 boundary conditions, there still exist many uncertainties in the different forms of the 21 22 plateau uplift forcing and regional climatic responses (Liu and Yin, 2011). The geological/proxy research can provide the constraints for the model boundary 23 24 conditions, whereas numerical simulation can test the geological/proxy result. Therefore, it is useful to compare the geological/proxy results and the numerical 25 simulations (Micheels et al., 2007, 2011). Many geological studies have suggested 26 that the TP experienced rapid uplift during the interval ~8–10Ma (e.g. Enkelmann et 27 al., 2006; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Lease et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014; Molnar et al., 28 2010; Wang et al., 2006; X. X. Wang et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010) (Fig. 4i), 29

but the timing and degree of the uplift are still debated. The Late Miocene uplift 1 would have achieved an altitude sufficient to block the penetration of moisture from 2 the source region into western China (Dettman et al., 2001, 2003). There are also 3 increasing proxy evidences that the Asian Summer Monsoon weakened after ~10Ma 4 (e.g. Clift et al., 2008; Wan et al., 2010), while the Asian Winter Monsoon 5 strengthened, particularly toward the end of the Miocene (e.g. An et al., 2001; Clift et 6 al., 2008; Jacques et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2003; Sun and Wang, 2005), implicating the 7 8 intensified Asian inland aridification. It is consistent with the most model simulations that aridity of the Asian interior will be intensified along with the uplift of the TP. 9 However, it should be noted that there is no doubt regarding the effects of the global 10 cooling on the general trend toward a dry climate in the Asian interior. 11

12 6 Conclusion

The Late Cenozoic basins, located at the northeast TP, document the environmental 13 changes associated with tectonic uplift and global cooling. We investigate a Late 14 15 Miocene pollen record from the Tianshui Basin. Our results indicate that a temperate forest with a rather humid climate regime (11.4–10.1Ma), gave way to a temperate 16 open forest environment with a less humid climate (10.1-7.4 Ma); this was in turn 17 replaced by an open temperate forest-steppe landscape, accompanied by a relatively 18 arid climate (7.4-6.4Ma). The vegetation succession demonstrates that the 19 aridification of the Asian interior occurred after $\sim 7-8$ Ma, as corroborated by other 20 studies of Asia. Our findings support the idea that the long-term global cooling and 21 the TP uplift caused the Late Miocene aridification of the Asian interior. 22

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