Dear Editor,

We have carefully revised and edited the manuscript entitled "Liu, J., Li, J. J., Song, C. H., Yu, H., Peng, T. J., Hui, Z. C., and Ye, X. Y.: Sporopollen evidence for Late Miocene stepwise aridification on the Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, Climate of the Past Discussions, 11, 5243-5268, 2015.", based on the valuable comments and suggestions from Dr. L. Dupont and the anonymous reviewer. Below please find the detailed responses. In addition, other minor modifications are also listed.

Best Regrads,

Jijun Li

Responds to Reviewer #1 (Dr. L. Dupont)

We thank you for your helpful comments. All the suggested modifications will be carefully revised. The point to point responses to the comments are listed as followed.

1. The timing of the aridification is discussed in the context of the Miocene cooling as recorded in benthic foraminifera and in the context of the uplift of the Himalaya. The discussion about the foraminifer record is not very clear and I have some questions put on the annotated manuscript (page 5255). The discussion is illustrated with Figure 4 and, although I have some issues with its caption (see specific remarks), the message seems to be clear: the aridification of central Asia between 7 and 8 Ma falls during a period of major Tibetan Plateau uplift but not during the strong Miocene global cooling trends. This is at odds with the conclusion 'that global cooling may have been a potential driving force for aridification of the Asian interior, and that TP uplift probably enhanced this process'. Therefore, I suggest clarifying the discussion and altering the conclusion as to present the uplift as the main driver of aridification during the late Miocene to which global cooling might have helped.

Response: Your suggestions are reasonable. Although the global cooling should somehow lead to net aridification on the planet, cooling and aridification trends do not seem to run parallel (van Dam, 2006). However, integrated studies showed that the global cooling during the late Cenozoic had significant influences on driving the Asian monsoon and inland arid climate (e.g. Lu et al. 2010; Lu and Guo, 2014; Tang and Ding, 2013). In particular, it might have played a more important role since the late Miocene (Lu and Guo, 2014). It is clear that the global cooling has strengthened the Siberia High, which dominates winter monsoon circulation and aridity in eastern Asia (Lu and Guo, 2014). This would result in enhanced and more frequent cold surges in the mid-latitudes of Northern Hemisphere. Meanwhile, the global cooling caused the weakening of hydrological cycle, expanding of ice sheets, lowering of sea

level and increasing of continental surface. For east Asia, cooling weakens monsoon circulation, and consequently drying conditions expand following retreat of the monsoonal rain belt, while in the west, cooling reduces water vapor pressure and therefore reduces the moisture mass transported into the continental interior (Tang and Ding, 2013). Nevertheless, the most significant late Neogene global cooling event occurred at ~14Ma (Mudelsee et al., 2014; Zachos et al., 2001), followed by a longer-term, but minor cooling 4-to-10-Ma trend (named by Mudelsee et al., 2014); hence, only minor cooling events occurred at ~10.1Ma and ~7.4Ma. However, seasonal sea ice was present in the Arctic Basin during the late Miocene (6-10Ma) when Greenland glacial ice began to grow (Moran et al., 2006). Therefore, we think that the global cooling might force the Asian climate change during the late Miocene, no matter whether the Tibetan Plateau (TP) uplift. The general trend towards a dry climate in interior Asian might be correlated with long-term global cooling. Meanwhile, the uplift of the TP played an essential role in forming the monsoon and arid climate by blocking moisture transported from the ocean to the interior Asia, enhancing the heating difference between the ocean and land, and affecting the atmospheric circulation that controlled precipitation in east Asia (An et al., 2001; Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013; Dettman et al., 2001, 2003; Kutzbach et al., 1993; Li, 1999; Liu and Yin, 2011; Wu et al., 2012). Although numerous geological evidences suggest that the TP experienced rapid uplift during ~8-10Ma (Enkelmann et al., 2006; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Lease et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014; Molnar, 2005; Molnar et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010), there is still much disagreement on the timing and amplitude of the uplift. The northern and northeastern TP significantly uplifted in the late Miocene and the Pliocene-Pleistocene, but the main uplift occurred as late as the Pleistocene (Li et al., 1979; Li, 1999). Base on model researches, Liu and Yin (2011) indicate that, once the plateau reached certain elevation, arid climate may continue to irreversibly exist in north and northwest China. However, the integration research shows that the Pliocene era might be wetter than the late Miocene in China (Guo et al, 2008). Meanwhile, the Chinese major deserts' formation time might be the Quaternary (Dong et al., 2013). We recognize that the

aridification of the Asian interior may have been enhanced by the TP uplift during the late Miocene, but the significantly impact on Asia climate should be the uplift during the Pliocene and Quaternary.

In summary, with reference to your suggestions, the conclusion will be "The general long-term drying trend was a response to the global cooling, while the stepwise aridification in study area was mainly caused by the regional tectonic uplift."

2. In the discussion, the magnetic susceptibility record of the section is mentioned (and shown in Figure 4). However, there is no reference indicating that the susceptibility data have not been properly published, yet. If that is the case, please describe the measurement and the results in the appropriate sections.

Response: We cite the magnetic susceptibility from Zhang (2013). This reference will be added in the revise manuscript.

Zhang, J.: Late Miocene climatic changes recorded by colors in the Yaodian section of the Tianshui Basin and its influencing factors, Science Paper Online, 201301-272, 1-10, 2013.

SPECIFIC REMARKS

RESULTS. Please add the depth (in meters) to the description of the zones in the results section. Do not give percentages with a precision that is not warranted. Round all percentage values to the nearest integer. The sentence "This diagram principally demonstrates that tree pollen decline stepwise as herbaceous pollen increases" is bad for several reasons. Not the POLLEN decline but the PERCENTAGES decline. The more important objection concerns the meaninglessness of the remark. Because the values are expressed in percentages of the total, the values of the one always will decline if those of the other increase. The Euphorbiaceae is a large plant family with many representatives, some of them ubiquitous. I cannot believe that no

Euphorbiaceae are growing in the area.

Response: Thanks for your advice. We will modify these in the revised manuscript.

DISCUSSION. I do not understand the argument about global cooling leading to a gradual aridity increase (page 5255, line 15-16) in contrast to a stepwise one. Please clarify.

Response: Global cooling is an ongoing process during our studied interval, and affects the environment through a series of feedback process. Presumably, under the assumption of linear forcing, when the global cooling occurs gradually and consistently, such as LTEC-I, LTEC-II and 4-to-10-Ma (named by Mudelsee et al., 2014), the corresponding climate change will be gradual and consistent; if the cooling is episodic, such as Eocene-Oligocene Transition, Oligocene-Miocene Boundary and Middle Miocene Climate Transition (Mudelsee et al., 2014; Zachos et al., 2001), then the corresponding climate change will be intermittent and abrupt. The reality, however, is not such simple because of the non-linear character of the climate system. Here we consider the global cooling as the tectonic scale. We simply think that global cooling would reduce evaporation and evapotranspiration from the ocean and land surfaces, and subsequently decrease the moisture holding capacity of atmosphere and cause long-term decreasing trends in precipitation during our studied interval.

FIGURE CAPTIONS. Please add an explanation of 'GPTS' in the caption of Figure 2. The reference Li et al. (2007) is not listed in the reference list. Please delete the names of the mammals in the caption of Figure 4 as these details are beyond the scope of the paper. Add an explanation for panel (g).

Response: Thank you for your careful reading of our manuscript. We will correct these in the revised manuscript.

LANGUAGE. Sporopollen is a casual term that might better be substituted by 'pollen and spores' or 'palynomorphs' in writing. In the title I suggest to use 'palynological'. As the paper does not disclose any spore data, you also could just write 'pollen'. The use of the word 'spectrum' might induce associations with spectral analysis and for that reason, I advise not to use it. Please refrain from the use of vis-àvis. Often 'low abundance' is preferable to 'low content'. The use of the word 'content' in the meaning of 'percentages' might be confusing. I learned that in English (I am not a native speaker) 'this' is used sparingly and in many cases can be replaced by 'the'. The Chinese Loess Plateau is only mentioned three times and, therefore, it does not have to be abbreviated.

Response: Thanks for your advice. We will carefully correct these mistakes.

Response to Reviewer #2:

We thank the anonymous referee for her or his helpful comments. All the suggested modifications will be carefully revised in our manuscript. The detailed responses to the reviewer's comments are listed as followed.

Discussion:

1) The effect of uplift on climate is regionally differing (e.g. Liu and Yin (2002) and also many of the other studies go into more detail with that). Kutzbach, Prell et al. (1993) also mention the regional response to a uniform Tibetan uplift and monsoon intensification (wetter to the south and east of Tibetan plateau, dryer to the north and west).

Response: Different model setups and boundary conditions could affect the simulation results. Firstly, Kutzbach et al. (1993) conducted simulation experiments using scenarios of "full-mountain" and "no-mountain". However, the TP uplift had been intermittent or episodic. To make the numerical simulations closer to the geological history, phased uplift of the TP in subsequent experiments were designed to examine its impact on the climates in Asia (e.g. An et al., 2001; Kitoh, 2004; Liu and Yin, 2002). Even then, the phased uplift conforms closer to the geological records of the plateau uplift, but this type of experimental design is still not perfect, because the plateau uplift has obvious sub-regional differences, and which would then produce different effects on the climatic environment of various regions in the surroundings (e.g. Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012). However, although the different sub-systems of Asian monsoon have various responses to the TP uplift in different models, the climate effects are same (the south and east TP become wetter, while the north and west TP become drier) when the TP exceed a critical height.

2) Additionally there is the hypothesis (and modelling studies exist) that show the

importance of the drying of the Paratethys during the late Miocene for Asian monsoon development. This point should also be mentioned (Ramstein, Fluteau et al. 1997; Guo, Sun et al. 2008). Guo, Sun et al. (2008) mention also the effect of a spreading of the South China Sea.

Response: The model simulation results suggest that the westward retreat of the Paratethys from central Asian and the spreading of the South China Sea have significant impact on Asian climate (Guo et al., 2008; Ramstein et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2007). The former not only has a significant impact on the major climate reorganization in Asia during the late Oligocene/early Miocene (Guo et al., 2008; Ramstein et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2007), but also have a profound climate impact on Europe and north Africa during the late Miocene (Micheels et al., 2007, 2011; Zhang et al., 2014). The latter may help to enhance the south-north contrast of humidity in China (Guo et al., 2008). However, A large number of geological evidences suggest that the vast majority/even all Paratethys regression from the Tarim Basin (northwest China) occurred in Oligocene ago (e.g. Bershaw et al., 2012; Bosboom et al., 2014), and that the spreading of the South China Sea might bring more precipitation in Asian. Therefore, we think that the retreat of the Paratethys and the spreading of the South China Sea during the late Miocene should have a limited effect on the formation and development of the Asian inland arid climate.

3) It would be advantageous to confront also the different modelling studies and proxy records as far as possible (e.g. general intensification of monsoon, but regional effects on precipitation vary largely among the studies). For example, the study of Tang, Micheels et al. (2011) indicates that with uplift only the EASM strengthens, whereas the EAWM weakens, which is at odds with proxy records of the publications you mention here)

Response: We totally agree that both the proxy records and the model simulations are indispensable to fully understand the effect mechanism of TP on regional climate and the regional climatic response to TP uplift. Actually, although both of proxy records

and modelling studies can reconstruct the history of climate changes, each approach has its advantages and weaknesses (Liu and Yin, 2011); even sometimes the results of them are inconsistent with each other. Boundary conditions should be based on the geological/proxy results and are the weak points of models (Micheels et al., 2011). For instance, the uplift of TP was not synchronized across the plateau during the late Miocene, and is still discussed controversially; hence, the paleoelevation history of TP is not fully clear (Lu and Guo, 2014; Molnar, 2005) and this will be cause more uncertainties in the model boundary conditions. Furthermore, the model resolves the regional scale and can represent the larger-scale rainfall trend, whereas proxy data are local conditions (Micheels et al., 2011). In addition, the model is designed as an average state over the entire period (Micheels et al., 2007), while the climate was not constant during the time interval. Due to this integration, it is not trivial to compare model results with proxy data (Micheels et al., 2007). For example, with regard to European proxy data, Micheels et al. (2007) observed that the Tortonian run tends to correspond rather more to the late Tortonian than to earlier parts of the time interval. Moreover, the geological/proxy records also have their inherent problems, such as the uncertainty of the physical/chemical/biological mechanism in some geological/proxy records. Meanwhile, the proxy records are usually use relative wet or dry climate to indirectly reflect the monsoon strength. And monsoon intensity indicated by proxy records is generally relative to the previous or subsequent time period of the strength of the monsoon, while the models are relative to the present. For us, Zone-2 and Zone-3 in our palynology record reflect temperate open forest and open forest-steppe environment, respectively, and consist with Tang et al.'s (2011) TORT-model setup (open forest in the northern TP and the Loess Plateau). In addition, the study of Tang et al. (2011) indicates that their regional Tortonian model run shows a stronger East Asian winter monsoon and a weaker summer monsoon compared to today. The proxy records of our cited publications also indicate a weaker summer monsoon during the late Miocene and a relatively strong winter monsoon toward the end of the Miocene. It is consistent with Tang's results. Meanwhile, the northern and northeastern TP significantly uplifted in the late Miocene and the Pliocene-Pleistocene, and the main

uplift occurred as late as the Pleistocene (Li et al., 1979; Li, 1999). Although the TP experienced rapid uplift during the late Miocene, its paleoelevation might be just reach Tang et al.'s (2011) TORT-model setup (northern TP: 30% (of present-day height); central and southeastern TP: 80%; southern TP: 100%; Tian Shan, Gobi Altai and Zagros: 70%; other orography: 70-90%).

4) Last but not least with the discussion of model experiments the large differences between the different studies should be mentioned (resolution, uplift scenarios, types of models –coupled or atmosphere only, RCM or GCM, differences in other boundary conditions that might influence the model response-e.g. Tortonian boundary conditions and forcing data in Tang, Micheels et al. (2011) etc.).

Response: In our manuscript, we mainly used palynological record to discuss the late Miocene vegetation evolution in the northeastern TP. Given the research focus and the limited length, we did not perform detailed comparison of models and only cited the results of model simulations, but we will supplement the comparison between different models with different model setups and boundary conditions mentioned by reviewer.

The scenarios of whole-plateau uplift (e.g. Kutzbach et al., 1993), phased uplift (e.g. An et al., 2001; Kitoh, 2004; Liu and Yin, 2002) and sub-regional uplift (e.g. Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012) are usually designed for discovering the cause-effect relations between the plateau uplift and paleoclimate change. With increasing complexity, the numerical simulations' boundary conditions are closer to the geological history of the TP. In addition, the low spatial resolutions in most models prevent accurate portray of the real topographic features, which may have exerted substantial impact on the development of the Asian monsoon in the late Miocene (Tang et al., 2011). Furthermore, different model setups and boundary conditions also influence the explanation of the effect mechanism of the plateau uplift on regional climate. For example, the thermal forcing of the TP drives the Asian monsoon system (e.g. Chen et

al., 2014; Kutzbach et al., 1993); the insulation effect of the narrow orography of the Himalayas and adjacent mountain alone may trigger the Indian monsoon circulation, while the TP may be very important for East Asian climate (Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013); Wu et al., (2012) results that the heating of the TP is still necessary to maintain the Asia monsoon circulation; some modeling research also considered the regional difference and asynchronous growth of the plateau, and reached the same conclusion that the regional tectonic could affect the monsoon circulation (Chen et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011, 2013). Although the climate response mechanism of the plateau uplift still has not consensus, the climate effects are seemingly uniform (wetter to the south and east of TP, drier to the north and west of TP).

5) You might find the following publications also useful: (Kitoh 2004; Wu, Liu et al. 2009; Boos and Kuang 2010; Kitoh, Motoi et al. 2010; Zhang and Liu 2010; Wu, Liu et al. 2012; Wu, Liu et al. 2012; Boos and Kuang 2013; Chen, Liu et al. 2014)

Response: Thanks for your advice and important references will be added in manuscript.

6) Please also add some more detail on your discussion of the impact of global cooling on Asian climate evolution.

Response: Ok, more detailed discussion will be added in revised manuscript. Considering the decreased atmospheric moisture content with decreasing air temperature, it is to be expected that the global cooling should somehow lead to net aridification on the whole planet, but cooling and aridification trends do not seem to run parallel (van Dam, 2006). The spatial complexity of the systems of atmospheric and oceanic circulation ensures that general cooling may result in precipitation decrease in some regions and increase in others (van Dam, 2006). However, integrated studies indicate that the global cooling during the late Cenozoic had significant influences on driving the Asian monsoon and inland arid climate (e.g. Lu et al. 2010; Lu and Guo, 2014; Tang and Ding, 2013). In particular, the global cooling

might have played a more important role since the late Miocene (Lu and Guo, 2014).

It is clear that the global cooling has strengthened the Siberia High, which dominates

winter monsoon circulation and aridity in East Asia (Lu and Guo, 2014). This would

result in more frequent cold surges in the mid-latitudes of Northern Hemisphere.

Meanwhile, the global cooling caused the weakening of hydrological cycle,

expanding of ice sheets, lowering of sea level and increasing of continental surface.

For East Asia, cooling weakens monsoon circulation, and consequently drying

conditions expand following retreat of the monsoonal rain belt, while in the west,

cooling reduces water vapor pressure and therefore reduces the moisture mass

transported into the continental interior (Tang and Ding, 2013).

Minor comments

Abstract:

P5244, L12: "...more humid climate developed." better: ... rather humid climate

existed." as it is not know from the data whether the climate was wetter or dryer

before 11.4 Ma.

Response: Thanks for your suggestion. We will revise that.

P5244, L16: "... Asian aridification ... " Maybe better write "Central Asian

aridification" or aridification in the study area, as there is no proof for a general

aridification trend all over Asia, this is to my knowledge e.g. the case for Central Asia,

whereas in some regions even more humid conditions developed during that time

period.

Response: Thanks for your suggestion. We will revise that.

Introduction:

P5245, L 1+2: is modern Asian Social development relevant for the study? If not,

please eliminate that sentence.

Response: Thanks for your suggestion. We will eliminate that sentence.

P5245, L 28+29: "... of northern China through and the evolution of the Asian

Monsoon." this sentence is weird.

Response: It will be modified to "Its particular geological and geographical

characteristics make it sensitive to document the aridification history of northern

China and the evolution of Asian Monsoon accurately."

P5246, 1st paragraph: please indicate a reason why you assume the Longzhong Basin

to be the most promising for distinguishing TP uplift and any assoc. env. change.

Response: Geographically, the basin is located in the northeasternmost margin of the

Tibetan Plateau, the transition zone of the main TP and Chinese Loess Plateau. The

basin infill will record the uplift history of the plateau (Li et al., 2014). Climatically,

the basin is located in the transition zone of the monsoon region and the non-monsoon

region, sensitively response to climate change (Li et al., 2014). Moreover, this

northeasternmost corner of the collision highlands also provides the best model of a

small, still actively growing and rising, TP (Tapponnier et al., 2001). Meanwhile,

Molnar (2005) indicate that, in a search for the ideal field area, the northeast margin

of the plateau might allow precise timing of both tectonic and local climatic events

using the same material.

Discussion:

P5255, L6: "..during toward..." -double wording?

Response: Thanks for your suggestion. We will modify that.

Figure captions:

Figure 4: the labelling is mixed up:

what is g) in the figure is not included in the caption, whereas g) in the caption should

be h) and h) should be i).

Response: Thanks for your careful work. (g) Carbon isotope ratios of leaf wax C_{31} *n*-alkane extracted from ODP Site 722 (Huang et al., 2007).

Other Modifications:

Besides the modifications are mentioned by the reviewers, we also made the other changes. All modifications can be found on the marked manuscript.

- 1. In marked manuscript page 2, line 3, "understanding" is replaced with "illustrating".
- 2. In marked manuscript page 2, line 6 and 7, "understand better the relations between" is replaced with "better understand the relationships among".
- 3. In marked manuscript page 2, line 12, "two-stage" is replaced with "general trend towards dry climate superposed by".
- 4. In marked manuscript page 2, line 19, "this persistent aridification" is replaced with "the aridification trend".
- 5. In marked manuscript page 3, line 19 and 20, ", polar ice-sheet volumes" is deleted.
- 6. In marked manuscript page 4, line 11, "region" is deleted after "the Longzhong Basin".
- 7. In marked manuscript page 4, line 21, "margins" is replaced with "margin".
- 8. In marked manuscript page 4, line 22 and 23, the sentence "We also discuss the possible relation between tectonic activity and climate change" is deleted.
- 9. In marked manuscript page 5, line 2, a comma is deleted after "mammalian".
- 10. In marked manuscript page 5, line 19, "the" is added before "Quaternary".
- 11. In marked manuscript page 5, line 25, "mud stone" is replaced with "mudstone".
- 12. In marked manuscript page 6, line 9, "yellow" is replaced with "yellowish".
- 13. In marked manuscript page 7, it has been more modifications.
- 14. In marked manuscript page 11, line 18, "reflected" is replaced with "reflects".

- 15. In marked manuscript page 12, line 11, "the enhanced oxidation characteristic of" is deleted.
- 16. In marked manuscript page 12, line 12, the reference (Zhang, 2013) is added.
- 17. In marked manuscript page 12, line 13, "predominates" is replaced with "predominated".
- 18. In marked manuscript page 12, line 21 and 22, the reference "Wang et al., 2012" is replaced with "Y. L. Wang et al., 2012".
- 19. In marked manuscript page 13, line 5 and 6, "currently-available data from" is deleted; "data" is added after "fossils"; "suggested" is replaced with "suggests".
- 20. In marked manuscript page 13, line 25 and 26, "and hydrogen isotopic ratios" is replaced with "isotopic ratio".
- 21. The last two paragraphs within the discussion section 5.2 have been more modifications.
- 22. In marked manuscript page 18, line 14, "investigated" is replaced with "investigate".
- 23. In marked manuscript page 18, line 15, "indicated" is replaced with "indicate".
- 24. In marked manuscript page 18, line 26 and 27, the sentence "This study highlights these possible interactions between global cooling and tectonic uplift" is deleted.
- 25. The sentence "We thank Q. Y. Cui and Y. Z. Ma for their early pollen work, and L. Dupont and an anonymous reviewer for their valuable comments and suggestions" is inserted in section Acknowledgements.
- 26. Some references are added or deleted to section **References**.
- 27. In marked manuscript page 32, line 2, "sporopollen" is replaced with "pollen".
- 28. Cited reference papers in the manuscript sorted by the first letter.

References cited in the Response:

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- Palynological Sporopollen evidence for Late Miocene
- 2 stepwise aridification on the Northeastern Tibetan
- 3 Plateau

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Abstract

Holding a climatically and geologically key position both regionally and globally, the
northeastern Tibetan Plateau provides a natural laboratory for understanding
illustrating the interactions between tectonic activity and the evolution of the Asian
<u>interior</u> aridification. Determining when and how the Late Miocene climate evolved
on the northeastern Tibetan Plateau may help us better understand better the
relation <u>ship</u> s <u>between among</u> tectonic uplift, global cooling and ecosystem evolution.
Previous paleoenvironmental research has focused on the western Longzhong Basin.
Late Miocene aridification data derived from sporopollen now requires corroborative
evidence from the eastern Longzhong Basin. Here, we present a Late Miocene
sporopollen record from the Tianshui Basin in the eastern Longzhong Basin. Our
results show a two-stagegeneral trend towards dry climate superposed by stepwise
aridification: a temperate forest with a more rather humid climate developed in the
basin between 11.4 and 10.1Ma, followed by a temperate open forest environment
with a less humid climate between 10.1 and 7.4Ma; and an open temperate
forest-steppe environment with a relatively arid climate occupied the basin during 7.4
to 6.4Ma. The vegetation succession demonstrates that the aridification of the Asian
interior Asian aridification occurred after ~7-8Ma, which is confirmed by other
evidence from Asia. Furthermore, this persistent the aridification trend on the
northeastern Tibetan Plateau parallels the global cooling of the Late Miocene; the
stepwise vegetation succession is consistent with the major uplift of the northeastern
Tibetan Plateau during this time. These integrated environmental proxies indicate that
the general trend towards a dry climate in interior Asian might be correlated with the
long-term global cooling global cooling may have been a potential driving force for
Asian interior aridification, while the Late Miocene aridification in our study area was
probably caused by the Tibetan Plateau uplift. most likely enhanced by stepwise uplift
of the Tibetan Plateau.

As the latter stage of the global Cenozoic cooling, the Neogene was a critical period for northern hemispheric aridification, especially the marked aridification of the Asian interior. As the world's largest arid region in a temperate zone, it not only provides dust material for the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP), but also influences modern Asian social development. Establishing when, and how, this process of aridification began and evolved is therefore vital for elucidating the interactions between among tectonic uplift, global cooling and ecosystem evolution. Although there is compelling evidence for the aridification of the Asian interior, there is no consensus vis-à visconcerning its evolution and driving mechanisms. For instance, previous researchers have suggested that the aridification of the Asian interior began in the Late Miocene, based particularly on biological and isotopic evidence (Andersson and Werdelin, 2005; Cerling et al., 1997; Dettman et al., 2001; Eronen et al., 2012; Quade et al., 1989; Andersson and Werdelin, 2005; Wang and Deng, 2005; Zhang et al., 2012; Quade et al., 1989; Dettman et al., 2001; Cerling et al., 1997). However, others have argued that the process of Asian interior aridification may have begun in the Early Miocene (22Ma) or even earlier (in the Late Oligocene), as inferred from the Miocene or Oligocene eolian deposition (Guo et al., 2002, 2008; Qiang et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2010). The particular driving mechanisms of such aridification also remain enigmatic. Up until now, the tectonic uplift of the Tibetan Plateau (TP), global cooling, polar ice sheet volumes and land-sea distributions-etc. have been suggested as the major drivers (An et al., 2001; Gupta et al., 2004; Kutzbach et al., 1993; An et al., 2001; Liu and Yin, 2002; Miao et al., 2012; Molnar et al., 2010; Gupta et al., 2004; Miao et al., 2012). However, there is little consensus about which one is the most important driver.the question of which one of these has principally controlled Asian climatic evolution is far from agreed. We focused on an idealthe region —of the northeastern TP— to explore the nature of the interactions between tectonics and the climate. The geographically-extensive Longzhong Basin, consisting of a series of sub-basins, is located in the northeastern TP. These sub-basins present a continuous record of mammalian fossil-rich Cenozoic sediments, recording the effect of TP uplift on

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regional climates (Fang et al., 2003, 2005; GRGST, 1984; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Li et al., 2006, 2014). On the other hand, it lies in the so-called monsoonal triangle zone, a transition zone from a warm-humid Asian monsoonal climate, to a dry-cold inland climate, and to the alpine climate of the TP (Li et al., 1988, 2014) (Fig. 1a). Its particular geological and geographical characteristics make it sensitive to document the aridification history of northern China and the evolution of Asian Monsoon accurately. Its particular geological and geographical characteristics make it sensitive to the accurate recording of the aridification of northern China through and the evolution of the Asian Monsoon. As an ideal field laboratory for studying tectonic-climate interactions (Molnar et al., 2010; Tapponnier et al., 2001), the Longzhong Basin region might be the most promising for distinguishing TP uplift and any associated environmental change. As a reliable paleoenvironmental proxy, sporopollen has been used to reconstruct past climates because of its abundance and excellent preservation within sediments. Previous research has demonstrated that the Tianshui Basin, as a sub-basin of the Longzhong Basin, exhibits a typical Late Miocene lacustrine-fluvial sedimentary succession containing abundant pollen (Li et al., 2006)s. Here we reconstruct a high-resolution palynological record from the well-dated Yaodian Section, located in the southern part of the Tianshui Basin. Our results not only provide new evidence for the evolution of vegetation in the Late Miocene and climate change on the northeastern margins of the TP, but also shed new light on the aridification of the Asian interior through time. We also discuss the possible relation between tectonic

2 Geological and geographical settings

activity and climate change.

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The rhomboid-shaped Longzhong Basin, which is one of the largest intermountain and fault-controlled sedimentary basins on the northeastern TP, is geographically delineated by the left-lateral strike-slip Haiyuan Fault to the north, the Liupan Shan Fault to the east and northeast, the Laji Shan Fault to the southwest, and the Western 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 continuous deposition of mammalian, fossil-rich Cenozoic sediments from the surrounding mountains; these sediments record the interactions between mountain uplift, erosion and climate change (Alonso-Zarza et al., 2009; Li et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2015; Alonso-Zarza et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2012, 2015). At present, the East Asian Monsoon influences this region, engendering a semi-humid, warm temperate, continental monsoon climate, characterized by relatively hot, humid summers and cold, dry winters. The mean annual temperature and mean annual precipitation of this area are ~10.411 °C and 504mm492mm, respectively, with rainfall concentrated mainly in the summer and autumn (Fig. 1c). The modern natural vegetation in this region is warm-temperature forest-grassland. Warm grasslands are distributed in the valleys, and consist mainly of Arundinella hirta, Spodiopogon sibiricus and Themeda triandran. Shrubs such as Zizyphus jujube, Sophora viciifolia and Ostryopsis davidiana are found on the hillsides. Trees, including Quercus liaotungensis, Pinus tabulaeformis, P. armandi and Platycladus orientalis, grow in the mountains (Huang, 1997). The selected Yaodian Section (105°55′ E, 34°38′ N) is located in the southern part of the Tianshui Basin (Fig. 1d). The Neogene sequence in this the section is capped by the Quaternary loess and lies unconformably on top of the Paleogene Guyuan Group. It has been divided into the Ganquan Formation (Fm), the Yaodian Fm and the Yangjizhai Fm, in sequence upwards (Li et al., 2006). In this study, our research mainly focuses on the Late Miocene Yaodian Fm and Yangjizhai Fm. Based on a determination of lithology and sedimentology, the Yaodian Fm can be divided into three principal strata. The lower stratum consists of massive fine gravel sandstone, sandstone and brown silty mud-stone, occasionally with thin brown mudstone or interbedded paleosols, which can be considered fluvial channel deposits (Fig. 2e). Abundant teeth of Hipparion weihoense, Cervavitus novorossiae, Ictitherium sp. and their bone fragments were excavated from this stratum. The middle stratum of the Yaodian Fm consists of the interbedding of siltstone or fine sandstone with mudstone

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intercalated with paleosols, overlying the fluvial channel deposits. This—The assemblage's characteristics are typical of floodplain deposition (Fig. 2d). The upper stratum of the Yaodian Fm is characterized by rhythmic cycles composed of grey or brown mudstone or sandy marlite and intraclastic marl intercalated with brown siltstone and mudstone, and contains fossil algae and gastropods; this section is representative of shallow lake deposition (Fig. 2a and c). This—The upper stratum is common throughout the basin, and is analogous to the "Zebra Bed" stratum found in the Linxia Basin in the western Longzhong Basin (Li et al., 1995). The Yangjizhai Fm is principally composed of reddish brown mudstone or silty mudstone and yellowish brown calcrete or calcareous mudstone, with scattered sandstone or grey mudstone and marlite. These sediments were deposited under strong evaporative conditions in distal floodplain to palustrine environments (Fig. 2b). Previous paleomagnetic investigations have indicated that the Yaodian Fm ranges from 11.67 to 7.43Ma in age, and that the Yangjizhai Fm dates from 7.43 to 6.40Ma, both these ranges being consistent with the formations' biostratigraphic ages (Li et al., 2006).

3 Materials and methods

Most of the samples came from lacustrine mud deposits and fine grain size intercalations found in floodplain and fluvial channel deposits. Because the lower 10m of the Yaodian Fm consists of coarse gravel sandstone, and it was difficult to find fine-grained sediments therein, this part of the formation was not sampled. A total of 200 samples were processed for sporopollen-palynological analysis. For each sample, >100g of sediment was washed in 20% HCl, soaked in 39% HF and then treated with 10% HCl solution to enable fluoride dissolution. The chemical processing was followed by physical enrichment procedures such as using ZnCl₂ separation,—and ultrasound sieving with—over_a 10µm filter, and storage. Samples were stored in glycerin. Sporopollen grainsPollen and spores were identified by comparing samples with published modern and fossil sporopollen plates (after Wang,—(1995;-) and Song, (1999), as well as modern sporopollen reference slides preserved in from the collection of the Laboratory of Sporopollen Analysis of the Geography Department of Lanzhou

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4 Results

Only 126 of the 200 samples contained enough palynomorphs to provide reliable data; the remaining 74 possessed fewer than 300 identifiable grains and have not been included in the analysis. Most of these latter samples had been preserved under oxidizing conditions, or had abundant high carbonate content. Approximately 80 different palynomorphs were identified into at family or genus level. Percentages were expressed on the total number of recognized taxa. Tree pollen consists mainly of Pinus, Cupressaceae and Ulmus, along with Quercus and Betula. Additionally, a number of subtropical plants pollen, such as Liquidambar, Pterocarya and Carya (which are no longer found in this area today), appear often in low abundance. Herbaceous pollen is mainly from Artemisia, Chenopodioideae, Poaceae and Asteraceae. Pollen from extremely drought-tolerant plants, such as Ephedra and Nitraria, only appear sporadically in single samples. In addition, the section also contains fern spores and *Pediastrum* colonies. A selection of the more important taxa is given in Fig. 3. In order to synthesize the information and highlight palynological trends, the major taxa, and their percentage contents vis-à vis recognized taxa, were used to construct a sporopollen diagram (Fig. 3). This diagram principally demonstrates that tree pollen declines stepwise as herbaceous pollen increases. Tree pollen consists mainly of Pinus, Cupressaceae and Ulmus, along with Quercus and Betula. Additionally, a number of subtropical plants such as Liquidambar, Pterocarya, Carya and Euphorbiaceae (which is no longer found in this area today), appear often, but their contents are lower. Herbaceous pollen is mainly from Artemisia, Chenopodioideae, Poaceae and Asteraceae. Pollen from extremely drought-tolerant plants, such as Ephedra and Nitraria, only appear sporadically in individual samples. In addition, this section also contains some ferns and Pediastrum. Stratigraphically-constrained The Stratigraphically-constrained cluster analysis (CONISS) yields three distinct zones in the section, described from the bottom up as follows:

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

Samples from this zone exhibit high percentages of tree pollen-(,_averaging 75.13%) and relatively less herbaceous pollen (averaging 23.42%). Coniferous taxa are mainly *Pinus* (18.5719%) and Cupressaceae (17.6218%), with smaller amounts of *Picea* and *Cedrus. Ulmus* (19.7120%) is the most common broadleaf tree_pollen, accompanied by pollen of *Betula* (2.733%), *Quercus* (2.172%) and *Salix* (2.102%). Other arboreal taxa are *Juglans* and *Castanea*, with <2% each. Herbaceous taxa mainly include *Artemisia* (7.417%), Chenopodioideae (5.516%) and Poaceae (2.442%), along with small amounts of Asteraceae, Ranunculaceae and Rosaceae, with amounts <2% each. Aquatic plants, algae and some subtropical taxa are also present_represented_in this zone, though with low contents with low abundance.

4.2 Zone 2 (<u>158.5–63.5m</u>, 10.1–7.4Ma)

In samples from this zone, total tree pollen content percentage decreases, averaging 53.9854%, while the percentage of herbaceous pollen (averaging 42.93%) increases. Coniferous taxa are principally represented by *Pinus* (13.9514%), Cupressaceae (7.487%), *Picea* (2.162%) and *Cedrus* (1.491%). Among broadleaf trees, the dominant taxa are *Ulmus* (averaging 8.048%), *Quercus* (2.352%), *Betula* (2.282%), *Salix* (1.892%) and *Juglans* (1.421%). Herbaceous taxa are dominated by *Artemisia* (13.6814%) and Chenopodioideae (8.839%), along with Poaceae (4.895%), Asteraceae (3.153%) and Ranunculaceae (2.943%). Aquatic vegetation appears successively and reaches the highest value found in the entire profile. There are also some sSubtropical taxa-with low contents, such as *Liquidambar*, *Pterocarya*, *Carya* and Rutaceae, are represented with low abundance. This 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). Herbaceous pollen percentages are slightly higher in Zone 2-2 than in Zone 2-1.

4.3 Zone 3 (63.5-30m, 7.4-6.4 Ma)

The samples from this zone record a sudden further decrease in tree pollen (with

content averaging 39.20%), mirrored by an increase in herbaceous pollen (averaging 60.08%)to an average value of 39%. Coniferous taxa are characterized by *Pinus* (7.247%) and Cupressaceae (5.265%). *Ulmus* (5.285%) dominates the broadleaf tree categorypollen, with *Quercus* and *Betula* accounting for 2.33 and 2.322%, respectively. Herbaceous taxa are composed of *Artemisia* (19.4219%), Chenopodioideae (11.2311%) and Poaceae (8.599%), together with Asteraceae (4.535%), Ranunculaceae (3.233%), Brassicaceae (3.183%) and Polygonaceae (1.862%). Aquatic plants and thermophilic species almost disappear.

5 Discussion

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5.1 Vegetation and climate reconstruction

When discussing the relation between the palynological spectrum and sedimentary facies in the Yaodian Section, it becomes apparent that these The sedimentary facies have experienced of the Yaodian Section indicate four successive depositional stages: fluvial channel; floodplain; shallow lake; and distal floodplain to palustrine. Transitionals Transitional ages can be dated to 10.4, 9.23 and 7.43 Ma, respectively (Li et al., 2006) (Fig. 2). Our palynological spectrum-record shows stepwise changes at 10.1 and 7.4Ma, lagging slightly behind those evinced by the sedimentary facies. Another distinctive feature of the palynological spectrum record is that the green lacustrine deposits of fine grain size exhibit dense palynomorph concentrations, with higher tree pollen percentages. In contrast, the reddish floodplain deposits with coarse grain sizes possess sparse palynomorph concentrations, with higher herbaceous pollen percentages (Fig. 3). However, in the same sporopollen zones, we find that the palynomorph concentration clearly changes between different sedimentary facies, but that any variation in overall-percentage content is fluctuations are minor. Interestingly, **b**Between different sporopollen zones, the palynomorph percentages changes greatly vis-à visstrongly within the same sedimentary facies. We can therefore conclude that these changes in the palynological spectrum record are caused by changes in regional vegetation, rather than differing different preservation conditions. The paleoecological information inferred from the percentage change of sporopollen record can thus be

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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 by the wind. 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 northern China, but percentages of its pollen collected from CLP the Chinese Loess Plateau surface soils never exceed 1%, even under broadleaved forests containing elm (Liu et al., 1999). In general, when their content_abundance_exceeds 3-5% of total-the arboreal pollen contenttotal, birch and oak can be considered to be/have been present in woodland (Liu et al., 1999). Salix produces very little pollen, and most of this pollen falls near the tree itself (Li et al., 2000). Modern Artemisia and Chenopodioideae are extensively distributed throughout the arid and semi-arid regions of China. Chenopodioideae are more drought-resistant than Artemisia. Higher percentages of Artemisia being the dominant vegetation typepollen may reflect a semi-arid grassland environment, while higher percentages of Chenopodioideae pollen may reflect an arid desert environment. Surface pollen analysis shows that Artemisia and Chenopodioideae are greatly overrepresented in the pollen rain. Only when Chenopodioideae and Artemisia pollen content_abundance exceeds 30% of the total should their presence be considered as primarily local (Herzschuh et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2008). Poaceae pollen abundance content is sparse, usually only 3–6%, even when it represents the dominant modern species (Tong et al., 1995). Our record therefore indicates that, during the period when the Yaodian Fm was being deposited, the study area was dominated covered by temperate forests and a warm and humid climate. Mixed deciduous forests, characterized by the dominance of Pinus, Cupressaceae, Ulmus and Quercus, were distributed within the basin and the low

altitude hills surrounding it. Mid- and high-altitude vegetation, such as forests with Abies, Picea and Cedrus, existed in the surrounding uplands. The river banks or lake margins were colonized by Salix, Alnus, Fraxinus and Taxodiaceae. Cyperaceae, Typha and Myriophyllum grew along the lake shores or in shallow water areas. Ranunculaceae, Poaceae, Chenopodioideae and Artemisia, principally occupied the forest understory, or were distributed in forest clearings. However, as indicated by our record, the environment was not static. During 11.4–10.1Ma, temperate forest and a more grew in the basin indicating a rather humid climate developed in the basin. The growth of fluvial channel deposits and the presentation of a large number of mammalian fossils (Li et al., 2006) also support the theory that much denser vegetation capable of supporting large mammals such as rhinoceroses developed during this interval. Moreover, we know that the northern Tianshui Basin was dominated by temperate and warm-temperate deciduous broadleaf forest (Hui et al., 2011). Our result is also consistent with research into the climatic evolution of the Oaidam Basin, which found that the presence of δ^{18} O values characteristic of large mammals indicated a warmer, wetter, and perhaps lower-altitude Qaidam Basin (Zhang et al., 2012). The early Late Miocene mammal fauna discovered in the Qaidam Basin also reflectsed a wooded environment, in which many streams with aquatic plants such as Trapa and Typha developed (Wang et al., 2007). From 10.1-7.4Ma, the study area was dominated by a warm-temperate open forest environment and an a less humidarid climate, relative to the previous interval. Sedimentary facies become characteristic of shallow lake deposits (Li et al., 2006). Mammal fauna identified in the eastern Qaidam Basin also indicates that a mixed habitat of open and wooded environments, with abundant freshwater streams, was predominant at that time (Wang et al., 2007). During this interval, In particular after ~8.6Ma, herbaceous plants also 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 evidence of a sizeable rhinoceros population, which would have required a relatively moist woodland environment to sustain itself. However, the typical Hipparion fauna that presents at ~8.0Ma probably represents a relatively temperate climate with a more

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mixed vegetative landscape on, i.e. an open forest environment rather than a vast, open 1 landscape. Large mammals would still have been able to survive in such an 2 environment (Zhang et al., 2013). 3 An open temperate forest-steppe environment clearly developed in the study region, 4 indicating significant aridification after ~7.4Ma. Grassland, composed principally of 5 Poaceae, Artemisia and Chenopodioideae, developed in most of the basin, while 6 shrinking areas of open forest, dominated by Cupressaceae, Ulmus and Quercus, 7 existed in the surrounding mountains. Salix continued to grow in relatively humid 8 environments such as riverbanks. Distal floodplain to palustrine deposits now 9 characterized the study area (Li et al., 2006). A sudden increase in magnetic 10 susceptibility after ~7.4Ma may indicate the enhanced oxidation characteristic of an 11 arid environment (Zhang, 2013) (Fig. 4b). In the northern part of the Tianshui Basin, 12 drought-tolerant Artemisia predominates predominated after 7.4Ma, further 13 confirming the presence of a drier climate (Hui et al., 2011) (Fig. 4c). 14 Further Additionally, the growing presence of grazer mammalian species at the end of 15 the Miocene in the Tianshui Basin suggests that the local environment was principally 16 17 occupied by grassland, with some woodland, and even some desertsification (L. P. Liu et al., 2011) (Fig. 4d). Furthermore, the gradual increase in eolian sediments after 18 7.4Ma in the Linxia Basin would indicate a period of intense desertification in central 19 China (Fan et al., 2006) (Fig. 4e). Biomarker evidence from the Linxia Basin also 20 indicates a distinct change in the climate toward arid-cold conditions at ~8Ma (Y. L. 21 Wang et al., 2012). The isotopic compositions of herbivorous fossil teeth and 22 paleosols from the Linxia Basin (Wang and Deng, 2005) and southwestern China 23 24 (Biasatti et al., 2012) also indicate a shift to a drier, or seasonally drier, local climate. 25 In the Qaidam Basin, Hipparion teilhardi fossils are characterized by slenderer distal limbs, and dated to the end of the Miocene, implying an adaptation by this animal to 26 the open steppe environment (Deng and Wang, 2004). Marine sediments also indicate 27 that the climate changed at this time. For example, local seawater δ^{18} O 28 reconstructions from ODP Site 1146 in the northern South China Sea suggest that the 29

climate of <u>East east and South south Asia shifted toward more arid conditions after</u> ~7.5Ma (Steinke et al., 2010) (Fig. 4f).

5.2 More arid conditions at the end of the Miocene and their possible

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Based on the currently-available data from Late Neogene Chinese mammalian fossils data, Zhang (2006) suggesteded 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 humid fauna communities prevalent in eastern China and the dry fauna communities identified in western China occurred after the end of the Miocene. The diversity in Bovidae fossils also increases significantly toward the end of the Miocene, with some genera even-appearing in southwestern China (Chen and Zhang, 2009), indicating an expansion in of grasslands and an aridification of the climate. Using macro- and microfloral quantitative recovery techniques to reconstruct the climate in northern China at the time, Y.-S. C. Liu et al. (2011) proposed that the west-east temperature and precipitation gradient pattern did not develop in northern China until the end of the Miocene. This corroborates the quantitative results gained from using mammalian fossils as a proxy for paleoprecipitation (Liu et al., 2009). A semi-quantitative reconstruction of Chinese Neogene vegetation also indicates indicated that the aridification of western, central and northern China occurred during the Miocene–Pliocene transition (Jacques et al., 2013). Indeed, in order to adapt to the arid climate in of northern China during the end of the Miocene, some plants and arthropods also evolved more arid-tolerant species, such as Frutescentes (Fabaceae) (Zhang and Fritsch, 2010), Ephedra (Ephedraceae) (Qin et al., 2013) and Mesobuthus (Buthidae) (Shi et al., 2013). This marked aridification has been well documented in other parts of Asia. For example, dramatic changes in the carbon and hydrogen isotopic ratios of leaf waxes at ODP Site 722 indicate an increasing aridity at the end of the Miocene in continental source regions, including Pakistan, Iran, Afghanistan, and the Arabian Peninsula (Huang et al., 2007) (Fig. 4g). The isotopic compositions of herbivorous fossil teeth and paleosol carbonates also suggest that the climate

became drier over the Indian Subcontinent, China, and Central Asia during toward the end of the Miocene (Badgley et al., 2008; Barry et al., 2002; Biasatti et al., 2012; Cerling et al., 1997; Quade et al., 1989; Cerling et al., 1997; Wang and Deng, 2005; Biasatti et al., 2012; Barry et al., 2002; Badgley et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2009). The evidential synchronicity of these climatic events in Asia strongly suggests that a process of the aridification of the Asian interior began toward at the end of the Miocene (~7-8Ma). The onset of such a marked aridification is further corroborated by the presence of red clay across much of the CLP Chinese Loess Plateau (An et al., 2001). 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 has experienced global cooling, land-sea redistribution and regional tectonic uplift, 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 ~14Ma (Mudelsee et al., 2014; Zachos et al., 2001), followed by a longer-term, but minor cooling 4-to-10-Ma trend (named by Mudelsee et al., 2014) (Fig. 4h). Although the global cooling should somehow lead to net aridification on the planet, cooling and aridification trends do not seem to run parallel (van Dam, 2006). The spatial complexity of the atmospheric and oceanic circulation systems ensures that general cooling may result in precipitation decrease in some regions and increase in others (van Dam, 2006). However, integrated studies showed that the global cooling during the Neogene had significant influences on driving the Asian monsoon and inland arid climate (e.g. Lu et al. 2010; Lu and Guo, 2014; Tang and Ding, 2013), especially since the Late Miocene (Lu and Guo, 2014). The possible mechanism lies in three aspects. Firstly, it is clear that the global cooling has strengthened the Siberia High, which dominates winter monsoon circulation and aridity in eastern Asia (Lu and Guo, 2014). This would result in enhanced and more frequent cold surges in the

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mid-latitudes of Northern Hemisphere. Secondly, the global cooling caused the weakening of hydrological cycle, expanding of ice sheets, lowering of sea level and increasing of continental surface. For eastern Asia, cooling weakens monsoon circulation, and consequently drying conditions expand following retreat of the monsoonal rain belt, while in the western, cooling reduces water vapor pressure and therefore reduces the moisture mass transported into the continental interior (Tang and Ding, 2013). Thirdly, seasonal sea ice was present in the Arctic Basin during the Late Miocene (6-10Ma) when Greenland glacial ice began to grow (Moran et al., 2006), despite minor cooling trend occurred during this interval (Mudelsee et al., 2014). Therefore, we speculate that the global minor cooling during the Late Miocene could force the Asian climate change through a series of feedback process, and that the general trend towards a dry climate in interior Asian might be correlated with the long-term global cooling. However, we also note that the aridification in our study region occurred stepwise. Therefore, other factors, such as land-sea redistribution and continental tectonic configuration, also exert a strong effect on the Asian precipitation regimes. It should be note that, although the global cooling may not be the only cause of the interior Asia aridification, there is no doubt regarding its effects on the general trend towards a dry climate in interior Asian. Besides the above focusing on the climate effect of the global cooling, model simulation researches have been paid special attention to the climatic effects of the land-sea redistribution and tectonic activity. For example, the model simulation results 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 ago (e.g. Bershaw et al., 2012; Bosboom et al., 2014). Meanwhile, numerical simulation also indicates that the spreading of the South China Sea may enhance the south-north contrast of humidity in China (Guo et al., 2008), and brings more precipitation into Asian. Nevertheless, many studies indicate

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that the western and northern China became drier during the Neogene (e.g. Guo et al., 2008; Tang and Ding, 2013; Sun and Wang, 2005). Therefore, although the land-sea redistribution has significant impact on the major climate reorganization in Asia during the Late Oligocene/Early Miocene (Guo 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. Tectonic uplift of the TP is a major event in the recent geological history of the earth, which produced profound impacts on the Asian and global climates. The scenarios of whole-plateau uplift (e.g. Kutzbach et al., 1993), phased uplift (e.g. An et al., 2001; Kitoh, 2004; Liu and Yin, 2002) and sub-regional uplift (e.g. Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012), with increasing complexity, are usually designed for discovering the cause-effect relations between the plateau uplift and paleoclimate change. The different models conclude that the uplift of the TP played an essential role in affecting the atmospheric circulation and forming the monsoon and arid climate when the whole/sub-regional plateau exceed a critical height (An et al., 2001; Boos and Kuang, 2010, 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Kutzbach et al., 1993; Liu and Yin, 2002; Tang et al., 2011, 2013; Wu et al., 2012). However, because of the different model setups and boundary conditions, the effect mechanism of the TP on regional climate and the regional climatic response to the TP uplift still exist many uncertainties (Liu and Yin, 2011). The geological/proxy research can provide the constraints for the model boundary conditions, whereas numerical simulation can test the geological/proxy result. Therefore, it is useful to compare the geological/proxy results and the numerical simulations (Micheels et al., 2007, 2011). Many geological studies have suggested that the TP experienced rapid uplift during the interval ~8–10Ma (e.g. Enkelmann et al., 2006; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Lease et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014; Molnar et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; X. X. Wang et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010) (Fig. 4i), despite the timing and degree of the uplift are still debated. The Late Miocene uplift would have achieved an altitude sufficient to block the penetration of moisture from the source region into western

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China (Dettman et al., 2001, 2003). There are also increasing proxy evidences that the Asian Summer Monsoon weakened after ~10Ma (e.g. Clift et al., 2008; Wan et al., 2010), while the Asian Winter Monsoon strengthened, particularly toward the end of the Miocene (e.g. An et al., 2001; Clift et al., 2008; Jacques et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2003; Sun and Wang, 2005), implicating the intensified Asian inland aridification. Combination of the currently-available geological/proxy records, the numerical simulation results and our results, it can be concluded that the Late Miocene aridification in our study area might be caused by the TP uplift. In our study, the vegetation succession appears to be consistent with the general direction of global cooling, indicating that global cooling may have been a potential driving force for the aridification of the Asian interior (Fig. 4h). Because atmospheric moisture content decreases as air temperature cools, one would expect global cooling to lead to a gradual net global aridification (van Dam, 2006). However, drought occurs in a stepwise fashion. Although the most significant Late Cenozoic global cooling event occurred at ~14Ma (Zachos et al., 2001), only minor cooling events at ~10.1Ma and ~7.4Ma have been documented (Fig. 4h). The Late Miocene climate was much warmer and/or wetter than today in many regions (Pound et al., 2012). Evidently, factors other than global cooling also exert a strong effect on precipitation regimes, particularly paleotopography and continental tectonic configuration, which themselves affect monsoonal patterns. The uplift of the TP is a potentially significant trigger of Asian aridification. First, although no consensus exists vis-à-vis the timing and degree of any uplift, many studies have suggested that the interval ~8 10Ma not only experienced rapid uplift of the TP (Molnar et al., 2010; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Li et al., 2014; Enkelmann et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010; Wang et al., 2012, 2006; Lease et al., 2007) (Fig. 4i), but that this uplift achieved an altitude sufficient to block the penetration of moisture from the Indian Ocean into western China (Dettman et al., 2001, 2003). Second, the main source of water vapor for arid northwestern China has been the Asian Summer

Monsoon; the Asian Winter Monsoon promotes a cold and dry climate. Atmospheric

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and coupled atmosphere ocean models show that such massive, continent spanning orogen uplift may have generated, or intensified, Asian monsoonal circulation (Kutzbach et al., 1993; An et al., 2001). Moreover, the effect of TP uplift on enhancement of the Asian Winter Monsoon was more significant than on the Asian Summer Monsoon (Liu and Yin, 2002). There is increasing evidence that the Asian Summer Monsoon gradually weakened after ~10Ma (Wan et al., 2010; Clift et al., 2008), while the Asian Winter Monsoon gradually strengthened, particularly toward the end of the Miocene (An et al., 2001; Jacques et al., 2013; Clift et al., 2008; Sun and Wang, 2005; Jia et al., 2003). Therefore, global cooling, most likely enhanced by TP uplift, may be a potential driving force for the aridification of the Asian interior.

6 Conclusion

The Late Cenozoic basins, in the northeasternlocated at the northeast TP, document both the tectonic uplift process and its associated the environmental changes associated with tectonic uplift. We investigated a Late Miocene sporopollen record from the Tianshui Basin in the northeastern TP. Our results indicated that a temperate forest, with a more rather humid climate regime (11.4–10.1Ma), gave way to a temperate open forest environment with a less humid climate (10.1–7.4Ma); this was in turn replaced by an open temperate forest-steppe landscape, accompanied by a relatively arid climate (7.4–6.4Ma). This The vegetation succession demonstrates that the aridification of the Asian interior occurred after ~7–8Ma, as corroborated by other studies of Asia. Our findings support the idea that the general trend towards a dry climate in interior Asian might be correlated with the long-term global cooling, while the Late Miocene aridification in our study area was probably caused by the TP uplift global cooling may have been a potential driving force for aridification of the Asian interior, and that TP uplift probably enhanced this process.

This study highlights these possible interactions between global cooling and tectonic uplift.

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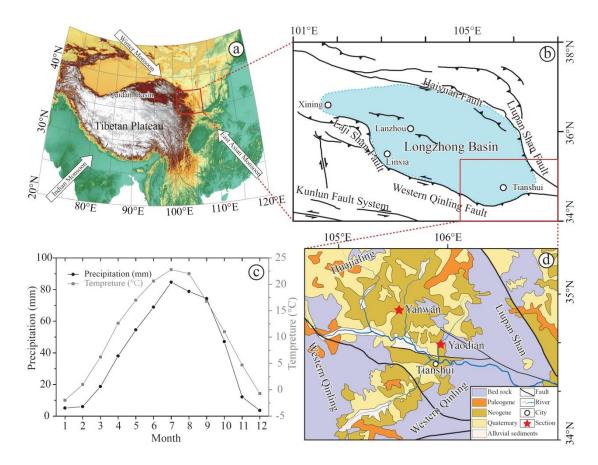


Figure 1. Geographic setting of Yaodian Section. (a) The location of the Longzhong Basin. (b) The major tectonic faults of the Longzhong Basin. (c) Mean monthly temperature and mean monthly precipitation between in the Tianshui area, 1971-2000. (d) Geological map of the Tianshui Basin.

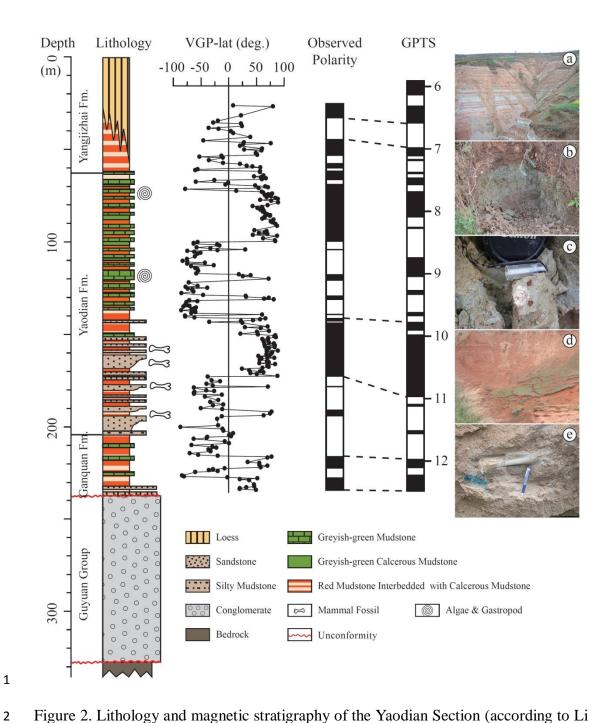


Figure 2. Lithology and magnetic stratigraphy of the Yaodian Section (according to Li et al., 2006, 2007). (a) The entire Yaodian Fm₂ (b) Yangjizhai Fm distal floodplain to palustrine deposits₂ (c) Yaodian Fm upper stratum lacustrine deposits, containing gastropod fossil fragments. (d) Yaodian Fm middle stratum floodplain deposits, with paleosols. (e) Yaodian Fm lower stratum fluvial channel deposits, containing fossilized animal bones. GTPS, standard geomagnetic polarity timescale in million years (Ma).

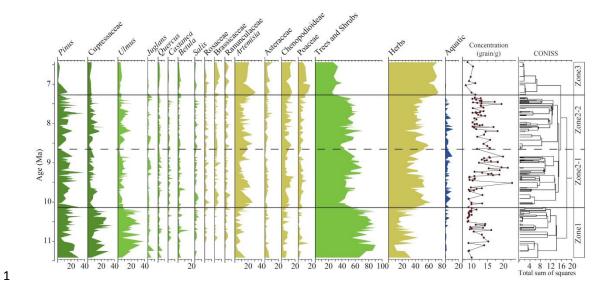
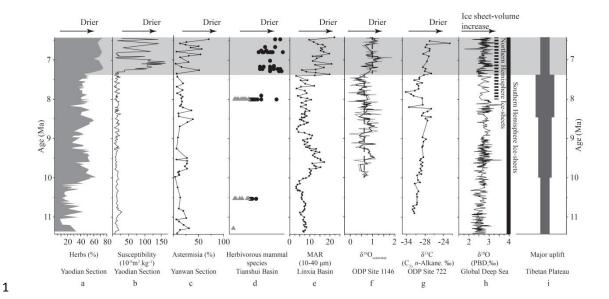


Figure 3. Histogram showing sporopollen percentages for the most significant angiosperms and gymnosperms.



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Figure 4. Proxy records of aridification for East Asia during the Late Miocene. (a) Herbaceous pollen contents (%) percentage for the Yaodian Section (this study);). (b) The magnetic susceptibility of the Yaodian Section magnetic susceptibility (this studyZhang, 2013); (c) Drought-tolerant Artemisia pollen content (%) percentage for in the Yanwan Section, northern Tianshui Basin (Hui et al., 2011); (d) Herbivorous mammal species in the Tianshui Basin (Guo et al., 2002; L. P. Liu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2011). Black circles represent species which adapted to relatively arid environments, and grey triangles represent species which adapted to relatively humid environments. including Sinocricetus zdanskyi, Kowalskia sp., Hansdebmijnia pusillus, Lophocricetus grabaui, Mesosiphneus praetingi, M. sp., Paralactaga anderssoni, Parasoriculus sp., Prosiphneus eriksoni, P. licenti, P. tianzuensis, Prospermophilus orientalis, Pseudomeriones abbreuuuus, P. complicidens, Sciuridae, Sicista sp., Alilepus annectens, Allorattus sp., Apodemus sp., Chardina n. sp., C. sinensis, C. truncatus, Chardinomys nihowanicus, C. yusheensis, Pliosiphneus lyratus, Cricetinus mesolophidus, Mimomys teilhardi, Paenepetenyia zhudingi, Sinotamias sp., Ochotona gracilis, O. lagreli, O. lingtaica, O. minor, O. plicodenta, O. sp., Ochotonoma sp., O. primitiva, Trischizolagus mirificus, Hipparion chiai, H. dermatorhinum, H. fossatum, H. plocodus, H. sp., H. weihoense, and Gazella sp.; grey triangles represent species which adapt to relatively humid environment, including Chleuastochoerus stehlini, Cervavitus novorossiae, Cervidae

gen. et sp. Indet., *Palaeotragus microdon*, *P.* sp., *Samotherium sinense*, *S.* sp., Rhinocerotidae indet., *Acerorhinus fuguebsis*, *Chilotherium habereri*, *C.* sp., *C. wimani* and *Protanancus tobieni*. (e) Eolian sediment mass accumulation rates for in the Linxia Basin, northeastern TP (Fan et al., 2006);). (f) South China Sea δ¹⁸O_{seawater} estimates from ODP Site 1146 (Steinke et al., 2010);). (g) Carbon isotope ratios of leaf wax C₃₁, *n*-alkane extract from ODP Site 722 (Huang et al., 2007). (gh) Compiled global deep-sea δ¹⁸O values (Zachos et al., 2001, the data available online http://www.es.ucsc.edu/~jzachos/Publications.html. A new compilation has been published by Mudelsee et al. (2014), which is congruent with the Zachos' curve for the Miocene part);). (hi) Schematic model showing the major periods of TP uplift (Enkelmann et al., 2006; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Lease et al., 2007; Li et al., 2014; Molnar et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; X. X. Wang et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010 (Molnar et al., 2010; Fang et al., 2003, 2005; Li et al., 2014; Enkelmann et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2006, 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2006; Lease et al., 2007).