

1 **Syntectonic sediment recycling controls eolian deposition in**  
2 **eastern Asia since ~8 Ma**

3 **Haijian Lu<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Marco G. Malusà<sup>3</sup>, Zhiyong Zhang<sup>4</sup>, Licheng Guo<sup>4</sup>, Xuhua Shi<sup>5</sup>,**  
4 **Jiacan Ye<sup>1</sup>, Shengping Sang<sup>1</sup>, Shangfa Xiong<sup>4</sup>, Jiawei Pan<sup>1,2</sup>, Haibing Li<sup>1,2</sup>**

5 <sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory of Deep-Earth Dynamics, Institute of Geology, Chinese Academy of  
6 Geological Sciences, Baiwanzhuang Road #26, Beijing 100037, China.

7 <sup>2</sup>Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory, Guangzhou  
8 511458, China.

9 <sup>3</sup>University of Milano-Bicocca, Piazza della Scienza 4, 20126 Milano, Italy.

10 <sup>4</sup>Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029,  
11 China.

12 <sup>5</sup>School of Earth Sciences, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310027, China.

13 Corresponding author: Haijian Lu (email: [haijianlu2007@126.com](mailto:haijianlu2007@126.com))

14

15 **Key points:**

- 16 • A sediment recycling event starting at ~8 Ma is confirmed by new  
17 magnetostratigraphic and detrital apatite fission-track data.
- 18 • A new syntectonic sediment recycling model is proposed to explain the origin of  
19 eolian deposition in eastern Asia.
- 20 • A connection between sediment recycling and eolian deposition is supported by  
21 multi-proxy datasets of fluvio-lacustrine deposits.

22

23 **Abstract**

24 Global cooling and/or Tibetan Plateau uplift have long been regarded as the  
25 principal drivers of late Cenozoic central Asian aridification and the resulting  
26 widespread accumulation of eolian deposits in eastern Asia. However, these two  
27 factors are unable to form large source areas of fine-grained sediments enhancing  
28 eolian deposition synchronously from northern Tibet to North Pacific. Here we  
29 provide magnetostratigraphic and detrital apatite fission-track evidence for a major  
30 sediment recycling event in northern Tibet at ~8 Ma, coeval with a sudden increase in  
31 eolian deposition, which we ascribe to syntectonic erosion of uplifted friable  
32 fluvio-lacustrine sediments and selective entrainment by the westerly winds during  
33 basin deformation. Our results emphasize the importance of widespread and persistent  
34 occurrence of fine-grained sediments along the pathway of westerlies to produce  
35 voluminous dust deposits. These findings suggest that the onset of eolian deposition  
36 may not be directly related to global cooling or uplift of mountain ranges.

37 **Plain Language Summary**

38 A proper analysis of tectonic events and sedimentological processes is key to  
39 understanding the controlling factors of enhanced eolian deposition documented  
40 synchronously from northern Tibet to the North Pacific since ~8 Ma. In addition to  
41 the hypothesized sizable inland deserts, potential dust sources have been considered to  
42 be piedmont fluvial sediments and dry lake sediments in northern Tibet and central  
43 Asia. However, almost all these suggestions fail to explain the rapid expansion of  
44 eolian deposition in the Chinese Loess Plateau, which required a substantial increase

45 in the availability of fine-grained silts and clays in the source areas.

46 Here we confirm a major sediment recycling event favored by basin deformation in  
47 northern Tibet through an integrated analysis of magnetostratigraphy and detrital  
48 apatite fission tracks. This event led to the uplift of a large amount of friable  
49 fluvio-lacustrine sediments along the fold-thrust belts of northern Tibet, which  
50 coincided with this sudden increase of eolian deposition at ~8 Ma. We suggest a  
51 causal link, favored by the action of the westerly winds, between uplift of basin strata  
52 in northern Tibet, sediment recycling and the substantial expansion of eolian  
53 deposition in eastern Asia, which gains support from multi-proxy analyses of  
54 fluvio-lacustrine sedimentary successions.

55

## 56 **1 Introduction**

57 The origin of arid environments in central Asia remains highly debated, with  
58 dominant causal factors suggested to be Cenozoic cooling (Lu et al., 2010), Tibetan  
59 Plateau uplift (Rea et al., 1998), or the retreat of the Paratethys Sea (Ramstein et al.,  
60 1997). Eolian deposits, as direct evidence for inland Asian aridification, are widely  
61 distributed in northern Tibet (Li et al., 2018; Licht et al., 2016), the Chinese Loess  
62 Plateau (CLP) (Guo et al., 2002; Liu, 1985; Qiang et al., 2011), the marginal seas of  
63 East Asia (Shen et al., 2017; Wan et al., 2007), and even the North Pacific (Rea et al.,  
64 1998). The major eolian deposits show a notable three-stage increase in spatial extent  
65 and accumulation rate, as exemplified by three loess and red clay sequences in the  
66 CLP, with depositional onset ages at 25-22 Ma (Guo et al., 2002; Qiang et al., 2011),

67 ~8 Ma (Ding et al., 2001; Sun, 1998), and ~2.6 Ma (Liu, 1985). However, Earth's  
68 climate has undergone progressive long-term cooling since the latest Oligocene  
69 (Zachos et al., 2008), and the Himalaya-Tibetan orogen has experienced a prolonged  
70 uplift history since the collision of India with southern Eurasia at 60-50 Ma  
71 (Tapponnier et al., 2001; Yin, 2010). Northern Tibet, in close proximity to the CLP,  
72 has undergone substantial surface uplift since ~15 Ma (Molnar et al., 2010), at a time  
73 when no comparable expansion of eolian deposits is evident. Therefore, there is no  
74 clear correlation between the evolution of eolian deposition and global cooling or  
75 Tibetan Plateau uplift. This implies that the dynamics of loess accumulation in eastern  
76 Asia are not well understood yet.

77 Recent research has increasingly emphasized the importance of determining the  
78 source areas of these eolian deposits. In addition to the sizable inland deserts (Guo et  
79 al., 2002; Liu, 1985), potential dust sources have been considered to be piedmont  
80 fluvial sediments (Nie et al., 2014, 2018; Sun, 2002), and dry lake sediments in  
81 northern Tibet and central Asia (Kapp et al., 2011; Pullen et al., 2011). However, these  
82 would fail to explain the rapid expansion of eolian deposition in the CLP, which  
83 requires a substantial increase in the availability of silts and clays in the source areas.

84 In order to shed light on this issue, we performed a new magnetostratigraphic study  
85 of the ~6 km thick sedimentary succession of the Qaidam Basin (QB), the biggest  
86 intermontane basin in Tibet (Dahonggou section in Fig. 1), coupled with detrital  
87 apatite fission-track (AFT) analyses in two different sections exposed along the  
88 northern margin of the QB (Dahonggou and Lulehe sections in Fig. 1). The aim of our

89 analyses is to better define the timing and regional extent of a Late Miocene sediment  
90 recycling event proposed by recent work (Pang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017), and to  
91 assess its relationships with tectonic deformation in northern Tibet and eolian  
92 deposition in eastern Asia. When critically discussed within the framework of  
93 available tectonic and stratigraphic data, our results allow us to propose a genetic  
94 linkage between syntectonic recycling of uplifted Miocene sediments in northern  
95 Tibet and the rapid expansion of eolian deposition documented in eastern Asia since  
96 ~8 Ma, providing new insights on the impact of global climate, regional tectonics, and  
97 central Asian aridification on the formation of the largest loess deposits worldwide.

98

## 99 **2 Materials and Methods**

100 A nearly continuous 5300-m composite stratigraphic section was sampled for  
101 magnetic measurements. It is composed of the western Dahonggou section, spanning  
102 from the lower part of the Ganchaigou Fm to the lower part of the Shizigou Fm, and  
103 the eastern Dahonggou section mainly including the Lulehe Fm (Fig. 1). We collected  
104 a total of 2244 samples from the same section studied by Wang et al. (2017), but with  
105 a 2.3 times higher sampling density. We also collected medium- to coarse-grained  
106 sandstone samples for detrital apatite fission-track analysis, including 8 samples from  
107 the 9-7 Ma stratigraphic interval of the Dahonggou section, and 11 samples from the  
108 ~5-km-thick Lulehe section (Fig. 1, S5). Details on the analytical methods employed  
109 for magnetic and fission-track analysis can be found in the Supplementary  
110 Information (Fig. S2-S5).

111

## 112 **3 Results**

### 113 **3.1 Stratigraphic age model**

114 A total of 1717, out of 2244 samples, yielded stable ChRM directions  
115 (Supplementary Dataset 1). The mean normal and reversal polarity directions of the  
116 1717 samples are  $D=357.7^\circ$ ,  $I=39.8^\circ$ ,  $\kappa=12.3$ ,  $\alpha_{95}=1.4$  and  $D=184.3^\circ$ ,  $I=-35.6^\circ$ ,  
117  $\kappa=10.9$ ,  $\alpha_{95}=1.6$  after tilt correction, respectively. The overall mean direction is  $D$   
118  $=3.7^\circ$ ,  $I =-29.1^\circ$ ,  $\kappa=10.5$ ,  $\alpha_{95} =1.1$  before tilt adjustment and  $D =1.0^\circ$ ,  $I =37.8^\circ$ ,  
119  $\kappa=11.4$ ,  $\alpha_{95} =1.1$  after tilt adjustment. However, application of the reversal test for all  
120 the 1717 samples is negative, with gamma (6.69) being larger than gamma-critical  
121 (2.14) (McFadden and McElhinny, 1990). In order to pass the reversal test, we divide  
122 1419 component directions clustering within  $40^\circ$  of the mean into 14 intervals (each  
123 one comprising 91-104 samples) (Table S1; Fig. S6). These grouped data pass a Class  
124 A reversal test, with gamma (2.53) being less than gamma-critical (3.98) (McFadden  
125 and McElhinny, 1990). The positive reversal test indicates that the magnetic  
126 remanence is most likely primary, though the monoclinical structure of the Dahonggou  
127 section (Fig. S1) precludes the application of a fold test. In total, 44 pairs of normal  
128 and reversed polarity intervals are identified (Fig. 2).

129 The age of the QB basal strata has long been debated and either referred to 52 Ma  
130 (Ji et al., 2017) or 25.5-21 Ma (Wang et al., 2017; Nie et al., 2020). Our new  
131 magnetostratigraphic data for the ~5300-m-thick Dahonggou section of the QB  
132 confirm the magnetozone sequence of Wang et al. (2017). In the correlation of the

133 observed polarity zones to the Geomagnetic Polarity Time Scale (Hilgen, 2012), we  
134 emphasize the importance of the Mid-Miocene mammalian fossils discovered in the  
135 upper Ganchaigou Formation (Fm.) of the Dahonggou section (Li and Wang, 2015) as  
136 a reliable tie point. The results indicate that the deposits span the time interval of  
137 ~24-4.8 Ma (Fig. 2).

138

### 139 **3.2 Magnetic susceptibility and grain-size data**

140 Bulk magnetic susceptibility (MS) values range from 19.7 to 752.2  $\mu\text{SI}$ , with an  
141 average of 220  $\mu\text{SI}$  (Fig. 2; Supplementary Dataset 2). MS values gradually increase  
142 from ~24 to 10.8 Ma. They remain rather constant between 10.8 and ~8 Ma, and  
143 finally show a rapid decrease starting from ~8 Ma, with relatively low values since  
144 then (128  $\mu\text{SI}$  on average). In a similar fashion, grain-size data show a sharp decrease  
145 in the finest (<63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) sediment fraction starting from ~8 Ma (Fig. 2 and  
146 Supplementary Dataset 3).

147

### 148 **3.3 Detrital AFT data**

149 A recent detrital AFT study of the Dahonggou section (Wang et al. 2017, Fig. 3A)  
150 revealed a Late Miocene age-trend reversal that was interpreted as the evidence for  
151 exhumation and erosional recycling of basin sediments into younger strata caused by  
152 thrusting and basin segmentation. A similar age-trend reversal was identified by Pang  
153 et al. (2019) in the Huaitoutala section at 9-7 Ma (Fig. 3B). The eight detrital AFT  
154 samples we have analyzed along the Dahonggou section in the 9 to 7 Ma stratigraphic

155 interval not only provide additional compelling evidence for a major sediment  
156 recycling event in the Late Miocene in the QB, but conclusively restrict its age to 8  
157 Ma. Our results are summarized in Fig. 3C. Grain-age distributions are polymodal,  
158 which provides evidence of a mixed provenance (e.g., Malusà and Fitzgerald, 2020),  
159 and include 112 to 123 single-grain ages ranging from 22.6 to 626 Ma. They were  
160 deconvolved into best-fit grain-age populations by BinomFit (Brandon, 2002) based  
161 on the automatic mode for searching and identifying the optimal number of significant  
162 peaks (Table S2-3; Fig. S7-8). All the analyzed samples yielded peak ages that are  
163 significantly older than the corresponding depositional age, which ensures that they  
164 reflect the thermochronologic age structure of the eroded bedrock. Different color  
165 intensities in the diagram of Fig. 3C indicate the different size of each grain-age  
166 population. Notably, in the 9 to 8 Ma stratigraphic interval, the age of all the  
167 populations systematically decreases moving upsection, as normally expected for the  
168 progressive unroofing of the eroding sources (Malusà and Fitzgerald, 2020). However,  
169 starting from 8 Ma, peak ages start increasing upsection, almost mirroring the age and  
170 size of the peaks characterizing the underlying strata deposited at 9-8 Ma, as expected  
171 in case of temporary storage and recycling of sediment previously deposited in the  
172 QB.

173 Similar results are provided by our detrital AFT data set from the Lulehe section  
174 (Fig. 3D), in the western portion of the northern QB (Fig. 1, S1), where the 11  
175 sandstone samples yielded single grain-ages in the range of 16.4 to 684 Ma after  
176 dating 83 to 113 grains per sample. Magnetostratigraphic data for the Lulehe section



177 are not available yet, and we thus performed a comparison with the Dahonggou  
178 section, exposed ~80 km apart, based on lithology, sediment thickness and  
179 sedimentological features (Zhuang et al., 2011; Fig. 1, S1). Also in this case, the  
180 stratigraphic interval likely corresponding to a depositional age of ~8 Ma displays a  
181 remarkable AFT age-trend reversal for all the grain-age populations detected by  
182 BinomFit, which confirms the regional extent of the sediment recycling event first  
183 detected in the Dahonggou section.

184

## 185 **4 Discussion**

186 Our results shed light on the relations between tectonic and sedimentary process in  
187 the study area. They are particularly relevant when discussed within the framework of  
188 existing studies on the tectonic evolution of northern Tibet and available time  
189 constraints on loess deposits in eastern Asia.

### 190 **4.1 Evidence for basinward deformation onset at ~8 Ma in northern Tibet**

191 A number of previous studies have suggested a marked thrust front-propagation and  
192 rapid uplift of Cenozoic sedimentary successions along the northern and southern  
193 margins of the QB (e.g., Wei et al., 2016; Fig. 4), taking place in the ~8 to 4.8 Ma  
194 (Wang et al., 2017) or even <2 Ma (Pang et al., 2019) time interval. A similar event is  
195 recorded in the smaller Linxia basin, northeastern Tibet (Zheng et al., 2003).  
196 Syntectonic growth strata are described in the Kumkol (Lu et al., 2018), Gonghe  
197 (Craddock et al., 2011), and Guide basins (Fang et al., 2005) (Fig. 4). Deformation  
198 likely led to sedimentary rocks exposure above the level of lakes previously located in

199 the QB.

200

#### 201 **4.2 Rapid expansion of eolian deposits in eastern Asia at ~8 Ma**

202 A marked expansion of wind-blown deposition occurred at widely separated places  
203 from northeastern Tibet to the North Pacific around 8 Ma (Figs. 4, 5). The most  
204 striking example is the initial accumulation of red clay deposits in the eastern part of  
205 the CLP at ~8 Ma (Ao et al., 2016; Ding et al., 2001; Qiang et al., 2001; Song et al.,  
206 2001; Sun, 1998; Fig. 4). The concurrent basal ages and extensive distribution of the  
207 red clay deposits indicate an abrupt increase in dust supply from the source areas. A  
208 period of high dust accumulation rate is observed in the western part of the CLP at 8-7  
209 Ma (Guo et al., 2002; Fig. 5E). A major provenance shift in the CLP at 9.5-7 Ma is  
210 also suggested by analysis of the crystallinity index of fine-grained quartz grains (Ma  
211 et al., 2015; Fig. 5H).  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios and clay mineralogy of fluvial-lacustrine  
212 sequences in the Linxia and Xining basins also reveal an increase in eolian dust input  
213 at ~8 Ma, suggesting intensified eolian activity in northern Tibet at that time (Yang et  
214 al., 2019; Yang et al., 2017; Fig. 5F, G). Farther to the east, clay mineral assemblages  
215 of the silicate fraction of sediments from the southern Japan Sea indicate a rapid  
216 increase in eolian input from central Asia at ~8 Ma that was transported by the  
217 high-altitude westerly circulation (Shen et al., 2017; Fig. 5C). Additionally, a  
218 pronounced increase in mass accumulation rate of eolian dust transported by the East  
219 Asian winter monsoon was detected at ~8 Ma in the northern South China Sea (Wan  
220 et al., 2007; Fig. 5D), as well as in the central North Pacific where mass accumulation

221 rates of eolian dust show a four-fold increase at that time (Rea et al., 1998; Fig. 5B).

222

### 223 **4.3 Source-to-sink dynamics and the role of the mid-latitude westerly winds**

224 Syntectonic uplift of fluvio-lacustrine sediments and their exposure to wind  
225 deflation in northern Tibet seem to have occurred concurrently with the rapid  
226 expansion of eolian deposition in eastern Asia around 8 Ma. Some studies have  
227 indicated the persistent occurrence of the westerly winds blowing across the QB and  
228 along the northern margin of the Tibetan Plateau since at least 42 Ma (Caves et al.,  
229 2015; Licht et al., 2016). Low-level winds can entrain and carry dust which is  
230 deposited downwind in the fluvial-lake systems of the Linxia and Xining basins in  
231 northeastern Tibet, forming pure eolian sequences on relatively flat and stable  
232 topography. Jet stream flows over Japan Sea and the North Pacific. This suggests a  
233 connection between the orogen-basin systems of northern Tibet and the downwind  
234 eolian deposits of East Asia by the mid-latitude westerly winds (Fig. 4).

235 In addition to the striking coincidence in timing, three lines of evidence can be used  
236 to support this linkage:

237 1) detrital zircon age spectra are very similar in the Cenozoic sediments of the QB and  
238 in the late Miocene-Pliocene loess-red clay sequences of the CLP (Bush et al., 2016;  
239 Gong et al., 2016; Nie et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017; Fig. S9), both showing two  
240 major populations at 300–200 Ma and 500–400 Ma beside three minor age  
241 populations at 1.0–0.7 Ga, 2.0–1.5 Ga and 2.7–2.2 Ga.

242 2) the percentage of the 0–63  $\mu\text{m}$  grain-size fraction that can be transported in

243 suspension by wind (Pye, 1987) shows a sharp decrease from > 80% to ~40 % in the  
244 Dahonggou section between ~8 and 7.2 Ma (Fig. 2). In combination with the sediment  
245 recycling event discussed above, it is possible that many fine-grained clastic particles  
246 were removed during sediment recycling in the northern Tibet fold-thrust belts by the  
247 the westerly winds to be deposited farther east, where a coeval sharp increase in mean  
248 grain size is observed, for example in the Zhuanglang section (Sun et al., 2015; Fig.  
249 4B).

250 3) Magnetic susceptibility values also decrease rapidly in the Dahonggou section  
251 since ~8 Ma (Figs. 2 and 4), despite the observation that synorogenic coarse-grained  
252 sediments that are primarily derived from metamorphic and magmatic rocks are  
253 generally associated with high magnetic susceptibility values (Lu et al., 2014; Sun et  
254 al., 2005; Fig. S10). Such abrupt decrease can be explained by a selective removal of  
255 the finest (<63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) particles from the recycled coarse-grained strata since ~8 Ma, as  
256 these particles are usually enriched in magnetic minerals (e.g., Malusà and Garzanti,  
257 2019). Entrainment of <63  $\mu\text{m}$  magnetic grains by the westerly winds, and their  
258 deposition farther east, might also explain the dramatic increase in magnetic  
259 susceptibility values observed in the Qin'an section (Guo et al., 2002; Fig. 4B).  
260 Moreover, the low magnetic susceptibility of Qin'an sediments before 8 Ma provides  
261 further support to the proposed linkage between syntectonic sediment recycling and  
262 the entrainment of fine-grained particles by the westerly winds, because the sediment  
263 source providing dust after 8 Ma was not available before 8 Ma, until the uplift of the  
264 sedimentary successions at the margin of the QB.

265 **5 Conclusions**

266 The Miocene unconsolidated fluvio-lacustrine sediments exposed along the basin  
267 margin in northern Tibet were likely the largest source of airborne dust on Earth at ~8  
268 Ma. Sediment recycling events revealed by detrital AFT dating of the QB strata  
269 indicate that at least 1500 m of dominantly fine-grained lacustrine sediments were  
270 exposed continuously above lake level along the northern margin of the QB since ~8  
271 Ma, although their spatial extent is difficult to determine precisely. A total of  
272 ~1500-m-thick sediments in the northern QB may have acted as a sustained source of  
273 material for wind erosion and dust generation. However, the potential source area is  
274 not limited to the QB. Uplifted friable sediments along the margins of the Tarim,  
275 Junggar, and Hexi Corridor basins, as well as other sub-basins in northern Tibet, may  
276 have also contributed dust materials now preserved between northern Tibet and the  
277 North Pacific.

278 An important implication of our basin deformation-driven hypothesis is that the  
279 well-known eolian deposits in Asia may not be simply related to changes in plateau  
280 topography or global climate as previously suggested. Our results point instead to a  
281 major potential role of basin deformation and sediment recycling in controlling the  
282 onset and evolution of eolian deposition from northern Tibet to the North Pacific.

283

284 **Open Research**

285 Supplementary data supporting the conclusions is available on the Research Data  
286 Repository of the Figshare (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.18093839>). The data

287 on which this article is based are also available in Bush et al. (2016), Gong et al.  
288 (2016), Lu et al. (2014), Nie et al. (2018), Pang et al. (2019), Sun et al. (2005) and  
289 Wang et al. (2017).

290

## 291 **Acknowledgements**

292 This study was supported by the Second Tibetan Plateau Scientific Expedition and  
293 Research Program (2019QZKK0901), the Key Special Project for Introduced Talents  
294 Team of Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory  
295 (Guangzhou) (GML2019ZD0201) and the China Geological Survey (DD20190059).  
296 We are most grateful to Zhiming Sun, Yong Cao and Aijun Sun with paleomagnetic  
297 measurement, to Hanchao Jiang and Hongyan Xu with grain size analyses, and to Kun  
298 Yun with figure preparation.

299

## 300 **Figure captions**

301 **Fig. 1.** Location maps of the study area and sampling sites. A: Digital elevation model  
302 (DEM) of the QB and surrounding orogenic belts. B: Geological map of the  
303 Dahonggou section, showing the distribution of different sampling sections (Ji et al.,  
304 2017; Wang et al., 2017; This study).

305 **Fig. 2.** Magnetic polarity stratigraphy of the Dahonggou section and its correlation to  
306 the geomagnetic polarity time scale (GPTS; Hilgen, 2012) and the polarity zone  
307 sequences of Wang et al (2017). Also shown are lithostratigraphy, the percentage of  
308 the <63  $\mu\text{m}$  fraction of sediment grain size, magnetic susceptibility, declinations,

309 inclinations, and virtual geomagnetic pole (VGP) latitudes. The blue lines show  
310 5-point average and the broken red lines represent general evolution trend.

311 **Fig. 3.** Detrital AFT data of the Dahonggou (A, C; Wang et al., 2017; this study),  
312 Huaitoutala (B; Pang et al., 2019), and Lulehe (D; this study) sections in the QB, and  
313 a schematic illustration of sediment recycling within the northern QB (E, F). Red,  
314 green and gray continuous curves indicate age trends (not best-fit lines) referred to  
315 progressive source-rock exhumation, whereas dashed curves indicate age trends  
316 referred to sediment recycling.

317 **Fig. 4.** Sketch diagrams showing a source-sink relationship between uplifted strata  
318 and downwind eolian deposits linked by the westerly winds. A: Relief map of West  
319 China. The hypothetical areal extent of elevated strata in the QB is based on the  
320 balanced cross-section restorations of Wei et al (2016). B: Block diagram  
321 demonstrating an integrated relationship among tectonic uplift, dust entrainment, and  
322 sediment recycling in the northern QB at ~8 Ma. The lower-right inset shows the  
323 evolution trends of lithology, the percentage of 0-63  $\mu\text{m}$  grain size, magnetic  
324 susceptibility and the youngest detrital AFT population peak ages (P1) of the  
325 Dahonggou section between 11 and 5 Ma. The upper-right inset indicates the mean  
326 grain size data of the Zhuanglang section between 10 and 6 Ma (Sun et al., 2015) and  
327 the magnetic susceptibility data of the uppermost 100 m of the Qin'an section (Guo et  
328 al., 2002).

329 **Fig. 5.** Time series of multi-proxy records showing increased eolian dust input at ~8  
330 Ma. The stacked global deep-sea oxygen isotope record (A; Zachos et al., 2008) is

331 shown for comparison. The sites are in the North Pacific (B; Rea et al., 1998), Japan  
332 Sea (C; Shen et al., 2017), South China Sea (D; Wan et al., 2007), Chinese Loess  
333 Plateau (E, H; Guo et al., 2002; Ma et al., 2015), and northeastern Tibet (F, G; Yang et  
334 al., 2019; Yang et al., 2017).

335

336 **References:**

- 337 Ao, H., A. P. Roberts, M. J. Dekkers, X. Liu, E. J. Rohling, Z. Shi, Z. An, and X. Zhao  
338 (2016), Late Miocene–Pliocene Asian monsoon intensification linked to Antarctic  
339 ice-sheet growth, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 444, 75-87.
- 340 Brandon, M. (2002), Decomposition of mixed grain age distributions using Binomfit.,  
341 *On Track*, 24, 13-18.
- 342 Bush, M. A., J. E. Saylor, B. K. Horton, and J. Nie (2016), Growth of the Qaidam  
343 Basin during Cenozoic exhumation in the northern Tibetan Plateau: Inferences from  
344 depositional patterns and multiproxy detrital provenance signatures, *Lithosphere*,  
345 8(1), 58-82.
- 346 Caves, J. K., M. J. Winnick, S. A. Graham, D. J. Sjostrom, A. Mulch, and C. P.  
347 Chamberlain (2015), Role of the westerlies in Central Asia climate over the  
348 Cenozoic, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 428, 33-43.
- 349 Cogné, J. P. (2003), PaleoMac: a Macintosh application for reconstructions,  
350 *Geochemistry Geophysics Geosystems*, 4(1).
- 351 Craddock, W., E. Kirby, and H. Zhang (2011), Late Miocene–Pliocene range growth  
352 in the interior of the northeastern Tibetan Plateau, *Lithosphere*, 3(6), 420-438.
- 353 Ding, Z., S. Yang, S. Hou, X. Wang, Z. Chen, and T. Liu (2001), Magnetostratigraphy  
354 and sedimentology of the Jingchuan red clay section and correlation of the Tertiary  
355 eolian red clay sediments of the Chinese Loess Plateau, *Journal of Geophysical  
356 Research: Solid Earth*, 106(B4), 6399-6407.
- 357 Donelick, R. A., P. B. O'Sullivan, and R. A. Ketcham (2005), Apatite Fission-Track  
358 Analysis. *Reviews in Mineralogy & Geochemistry*.



359 Enkin, R. J. (1994), A computer program package for analysis and presentation of  
360 paleomagnetic data, Pacific Geoscience Centre, Geological Survey of Canada, 16,  
361 16.

362 Fang, X., M. Yan, R. Van der Voo, D. K. Rea, C. Song, J. M. Parés, J. Gao, J. Nie, and  
363 S. Dai (2005), Late Cenozoic deformation and uplift of the NE Tibetan Plateau:  
364 Evidence from high-resolution magnetostratigraphy of the Guide Basin, Qinghai  
365 Province, China, *GSA Bulletin*, 117(9-10), 1208-1225.

366 Fisher, R. (1953), Dispersion on a sphere, *Proceedings of the Royal Society of*  
367 *London. Series A. Mathematical and Physical Sciences*, 217(1130), 295-305.

368 Gleadow, A. J. W., S. J. Gleadow, D. X. Belton, B. P. Kohn, M. S. Krochmal, and R.  
369 W. Brown (2009), Coincidence mapping-a key strategy for the automatic counting  
370 of fission tracks in natural minerals, *Geological Society London Special*  
371 *Publications*, 324(1), 25-36.

372 Gong, H., J. Nie, Z. Wang, W. Peng, R. Zhang, and Y. J. S. r. Zhang (2016), A  
373 comparison of zircon U-Pb age results of the Red Clay sequence on the central  
374 Chinese Loess Plateau, *Scientific Report*, 6(1), 1-6.

375 Guo, Z., W. F. Ruddiman, Q. Hao, H. Wu, Y. Qiao, R. X. Zhu, S. Peng, J. Wei, B.  
376 Yuan, and T. Liu (2002), Onset of Asian desertification by 22 Myr ago inferred  
377 from loess deposits in China, *Nature*, 416(6877), 159-163.

378 Hasebe, N., J. Barbarand, K. Jarvis, A. Carter, and A. Hurford (2004), Apatite  
379 fission-track chronometry using laser ablation ICP-MS, *Chemical Geology*,  
380 207(3-4), 135-145.

381 Hilgen, F. J., Lourens, L. J., Van Dam, J. A. (2012), The Neogene period in *Geologic*  
382 *Time Scale 2012 Vol. 2* (ed Gradstein, F. M. et al.) Ch. 29 923-978 (Elsevier, 2012).

383 Ji, J., K. Zhang, P. Clift, G. Zhuang, B. Song, X. Ke, and Y. Xu (2017),  
384 High-resolution magnetostratigraphic study of the Paleogene-Neogene strata in the  
385 Northern Qaidam Basin: Implications for the growth of the Northeastern Tibetan  
386 Plateau, *Gondwana Research*, 46, 141-155.

387 Kapp, P., J. D. Pelletier, A. Rohrmann, R. Heermance, J. Russell, and L. Ding (2011),  
388 Wind erosion in the Qaidam basin, central Asia: implications for tectonics,

389 paleoclimate, and the source of the Loess Plateau, *GsA Today*, 21(4/5), 4-10.

390 Kirschvink, J. (1980), The least-squares line and plane and the analysis of  
391 palaeomagnetic data, *Geophysical Journal of the Royal Astronomical Society*, 62(3),  
392 699-718.

393 Li, J., L. Yue, A. Roberts, A. M. Hirt, F. Pan, L. Guo, Y. Xu, R. Xi, L. Guo, and X.  
394 Qiang (2018), Global cooling and enhanced Eocene Asian mid-latitude interior  
395 aridity, *Nature communications*, 9(1), 3026.

396 Li, Q., and X. Wang (2015), Discovery of Neogene beavers (*Castoridae* mammalia) in  
397 central Qaidam basin and their paleoenvironmental significance, *Quaternary*  
398 *Science*, 35(3), 12.

399 Licht, A., G. Dupont-Nivet, A. Pullen, P. Kapp, H. Abels, Z. Lai, Z. Guo, J. Abell, and  
400 D. Giesler (2016), Resilience of the Asian atmospheric circulation shown by  
401 Paleogene dust provenance, *Nature communications*, 7, 12390.

402 Liu, T. (1985), *Loess and the Environment*, China Ocean Press, Beijing.

403 Lowrie, W. (1990), Identification of ferromagnetic minerals in a rock by coercivity  
404 and unblocking temperature properties, *Geophysical research letters*, 17(2),  
405 159-162.

406 Lu, H., X. Wang, and L. Li (2010), Aeolian sediment evidence that global cooling has  
407 driven late Cenozoic stepwise aridification in central Asia, *Geological Society*,  
408 London, *Special Publications*, 342(1), 29-44.

409 Lu, H., E. Wang, and K. Meng (2014), Paleomagnetism and anisotropy of magnetic  
410 susceptibility of the Tertiary Janggalsay section (southeast Tarim basin):  
411 Implications for Miocene tectonic evolution of the Altyn Tagh Range,  
412 *Tectonophysics*, 618, 67-78.

413 Lu, H., B. Fu, P. Shi, G. Xue, and H. Li (2018), Late-Miocene thrust fault-related  
414 folding in the northern Tibetan Plateau: Insight from paleomagnetic and structural  
415 analyses of the Kumkol basin, *Journal of Asian Earth Sciences*, 156, 246-255.

416 Ma, L., Y. Sun, R. Tada, Y. Yan, H. Chen, M. Lin, and K. Nagashima (2015),  
417 Provenance fluctuations of aeolian deposits on the Chinese Loess Plateau since the  
418 Miocene, *Aeolian Research*, 18, 1-9.

419 Malusà, M. G., and E. Garzanti (2019), The sedimentology of detrital  
420 thermochronology. In *Fission-Track Thermochronology and its Application to*  
421 *Geology* (pp. 123-143). Springer, Cham.

422 Malusà, M. G., and P. G. Fitzgerald (2020), The geologic interpretation of the detrital  
423 thermochronology record within a stratigraphic framework, with examples from the  
424 European Alps, Taiwan and the Himalayas, *Earth-Science Reviews*, 201, 103074.

425 McFadden, P., and M. McElhinny (1990), Classification of the reversal test in  
426 palaeomagnetism, *Geophysical Journal International*, 103(3), 725-729.

427 Molnar, P., W. R. Boos, and D. S. Battisti (2010), Orographic controls on climate and  
428 paleoclimate of Asia: thermal and mechanical roles for the Tibetan Plateau, *Annual*  
429 *Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences*, 38, 77-102.

430 Nie, J., A. Pullen, C. N. Garzzone, W. Peng, and Z. Wang (2018), Pre-Quaternary  
431 decoupling between Asian aridification and high dust accumulation rates, *Science*  
432 *advances*, 4(2), eaao6977.

433 Nie, J., X. Ren, J. E. Saylor, Q. Su, and K. Pfaff (2020), Magnetic polarity  
434 stratigraphy, provenance, and paleoclimate analysis of Cenozoic strata in the  
435 Qaidam Basin, NE Tibetan Plateau, *Geological Society of America Bulletin*,  
436 132(1-2), 310-320.

437 Nie, J., W. Peng, A. Möller, Y. Song, D. F. Stockli, T. Stevens, B. K. Horton, S. Liu, A.  
438 Bird, and J. Oalman (2014), Provenance of the upper Miocene–Pliocene Red Clay  
439 deposits of the Chinese loess plateau, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 407,  
440 35-47.

441 Pang, J., J. Yu, D. Zheng, W. Wang, Y. Ma, Y. Wang, C. Li, Y. Li, and Y. Wang (2019),  
442 Neogene expansion of the Qilian Shan, north Tibet: Implications for the dynamic  
443 evolution of the Tibetan Plateau, *Tectonics*, 38, 1018-1032.

444 Pullen, A., P. Kapp, A. T. McCallister, H. Chang, G. E. Gehrels, C. N. Garzzone, R. V.  
445 Heermance, and L. Ding (2011), Qaidam Basin and northern Tibetan Plateau as  
446 dust sources for the Chinese Loess Plateau and paleoclimatic implications, *Geology*,  
447 39(11), 1031-1034.

448 Pye, K. (1987), *Eolian Dust and Dust Deposits*, Academic Press, London, p. 334.

449 Qiang, X., Z. Li, C. M. Powell, and H. Zheng (2001), Magnetostratigraphic record of  
450 the Late Miocene onset of the East Asian monsoon, and Pliocene uplift of northern  
451 Tibet, *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 187(1-2), 83-93.

452 Qiang, X., Z. An, Y. Song, H. Chang, Y. Sun, W. Liu, H. Ao, J. Dong, C. Fu, and F.  
453 Wu (2011), New eolian red clay sequence on the western Chinese Loess Plateau  
454 linked to onset of Asian desertification about 25 Ma ago, *Science China Earth  
455 Sciences*, 54(1), 136-144.

456 Ramstein, G., F. Fluteau, J. Besse, and S. Joussaume (1997), Effect of orogeny, plate  
457 motion and land-sea distribution on Eurasian climate change over the past 30  
458 million years, *Nature*, 386(6627), 788.

459 Rea, D. K., H. Snoeckx, and L. H. Joseph (1998), Late Cenozoic eolian deposition in  
460 the North Pacific: Asian drying, Tibetan uplift, and cooling of the northern  
461 hemisphere, *Paleoceanography*, 13(3), 215-224.

462 Shen, X., S. Wan, C. France-Lanord, P. D. Clift, R. Tada, S. Révillon, X. Shi, D. Zhao,  
463 Y. Liu, and X. Yin (2017), History of Asian eolian input to the Sea of Japan since  
464 15 Ma: Links to Tibetan uplift or global cooling?, *Earth and Planetary Science  
465 Letters*, 474, 296-308.

466 Song, Y., X. Fang, T. Masayuki, I. Naoto, J. Li, and Z. An (2001),  
467 Magnetostratigraphy of Late Tertiary sediments from the Chinese Loess Plateau  
468 and its paleoclimatic significance, *Chinese Science Bulletin*, 46(1), 16-21.

469 Sun, D., Z. An, J. Shaw, J. Bloemendal, and Y. Sun (1998), Magnetostratigraphy and  
470 palaeoclimatic significance of Late Tertiary aeolian sequences in the Chinese Loess  
471 Plateau, *Geophysical Journal International*, 134(1), 207-212.

472 Sun, J. (2002), Provenance of loess material and formation of loess deposits on the  
473 Chinese Loess Plateau, *Earth and planetary science letters*, 203(3-4), 845-859.

474 Sun, J., R. Zhu, and Z. An (2005), Tectonic uplift in the northern Tibetan Plateau since  
475 13.7 Ma ago inferred from molasse deposits along the Altyn Tagh Fault, *Earth and  
476 Planetary Science Letters*, 235(3-4), 641-653.

477 Sun, Y., L. Ma, J. Bloemendal, S. Clemens, X. Qiang, and Z. An (2015), Miocene  
478 climate change on the Chinese Loess Plateau: Possible links to the growth of the

479 northern Tibetan Plateau and global cooling, *Geochemistry, Geophysics,*  
480 *Geosystems*, 16(7), 2097-2108.

481 Tapponnier, P., Z. Xu, R. Françoise, M. Bertrand, A. Nicolas, W. Gérard, and J. Yang  
482 (2001), Oblique stepwise rise and growth of the Tibet plateau, *Science*, 294(5547),  
483 1671-1677.

484 Vermeesch, P. (2009), RadialPlotter: A Java application for fission track,  
485 luminescence and other radial plots, *Radiation Measurements*, 44(4), 409-410.

486 Wan, S., A. Li, P. D. Clift, and J.-B. W. Stuut (2007), Development of the East Asian  
487 monsoon: mineralogical and sedimentologic records in the northern South China  
488 Sea since 20 Ma, *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 254(3-4),  
489 561-582.

490 Wang, W., W. Zheng, P. Zhang, Q. Li, E. Kirby, D. Yuan, D. Zheng, C. Liu, Z. Wang,  
491 and H. Zhang (2017), Expansion of the Tibetan Plateau during the Neogene, *Nature*  
492 *communications*, 8, 15887.

493 Wei, Y., A. Xiao, L. Wu, L. Mao, H. Zhao, Y. Shen, and L. Wang (2016), Temporal  
494 and spatial patterns of Cenozoic deformation across the Qaidam Basin, Northern  
495 Tibetan Plateau, *Terra Nova*, 28(6), 409-418.

496 Yang, R., Y. Yang, X. Fang, X. Ruan, A. Galy, C. Ye, Q. Meng, and W. Han (2019),  
497 Late Miocene Intensified Tectonic Uplift and Climatic Aridification on the  
498 Northeastern Tibetan Plateau: Evidence From Clay Mineralogical and Geochemical  
499 Records in the Xining Basin, *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, 20(2),  
500 829-851.

501 Yang, Y., A. Galy, X. Fang, R. Yang, W. Zhang, and J. Zan (2017), Eolian dust forcing  
502 of river chemistry on the northeastern Tibetan Plateau since 8 Ma, *Earth and*  
503 *Planetary Science Letters*, 464, 200-210.

504 Yin, A. (2010), Cenozoic tectonic evolution of Asia: A preliminary synthesis,  
505 *Tectonophysics*, 488(1-4), 293-325.

506 Zachos, J. C., G. R. Dickens, and R. E. Zeebe (2008), An early Cenozoic perspective  
507 on greenhouse warming and carbon-cycle dynamics, *Nature*, 451(7176), 279.

508 Zheng, D., P. Zhang, J. Wan, C. Li, and J. Cao (2003), Late Cenozoic deformation

509       subsequence in northeastern margin of Tibet—Detrital AFT records from Linxia  
510       Basin, *Science in China Series D: Earth Sciences*, 46(2), 266-275.

511       Zhuang, G., J. K. Hourigan, B. D. Ritts, and M. L. Kent-Corson (2011), Cenozoic  
512       multiple-phase tectonic evolution of the northern Tibetan Plateau: Constraints from  
513       sedimentary records from Qaidam basin, Hexi Corridor, and Subei basin, northwest  
514       China, *American Journal of Science*, 311(2), 116-152.

Figure 1.



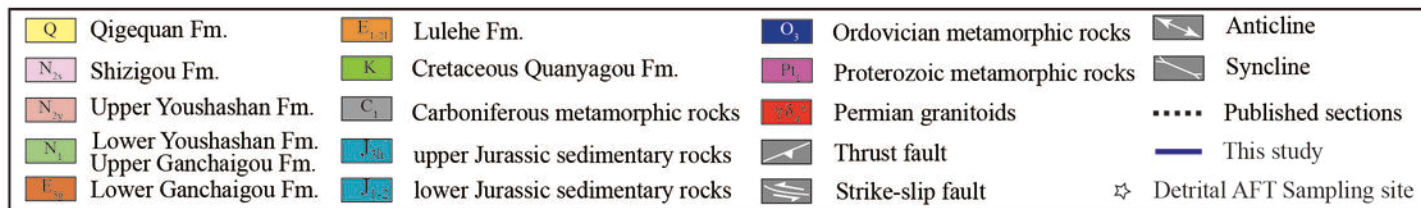
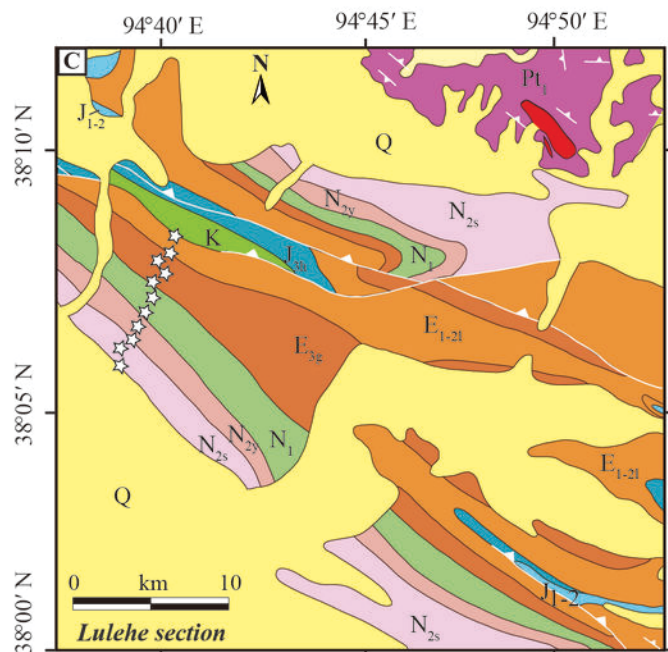
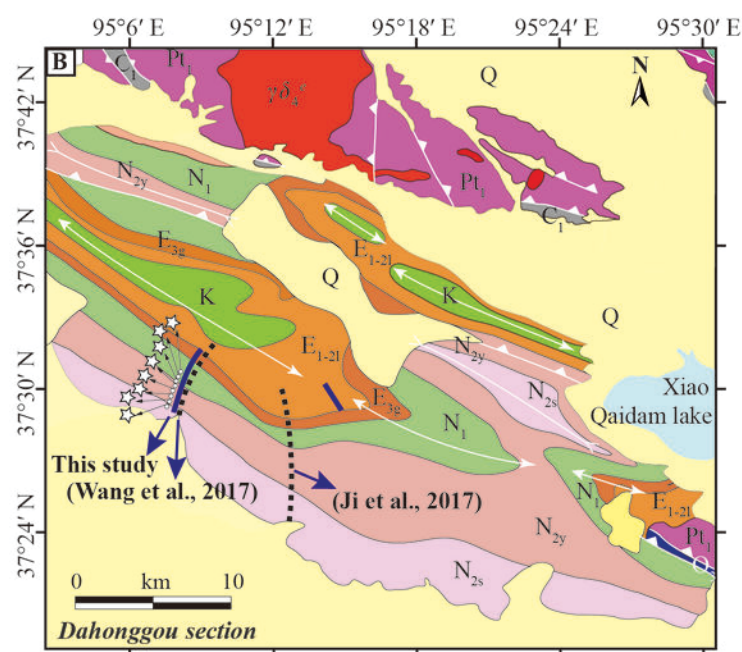
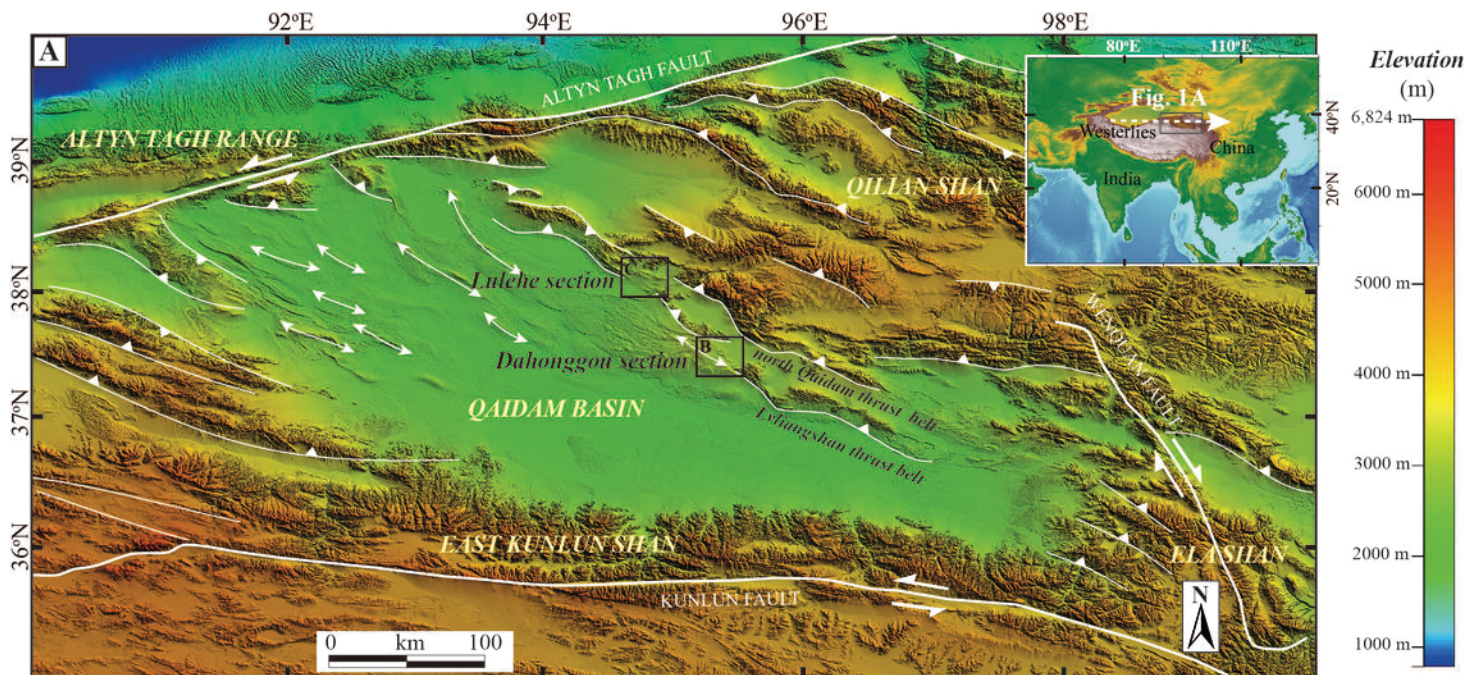




Figure 2.

(m) Lithology

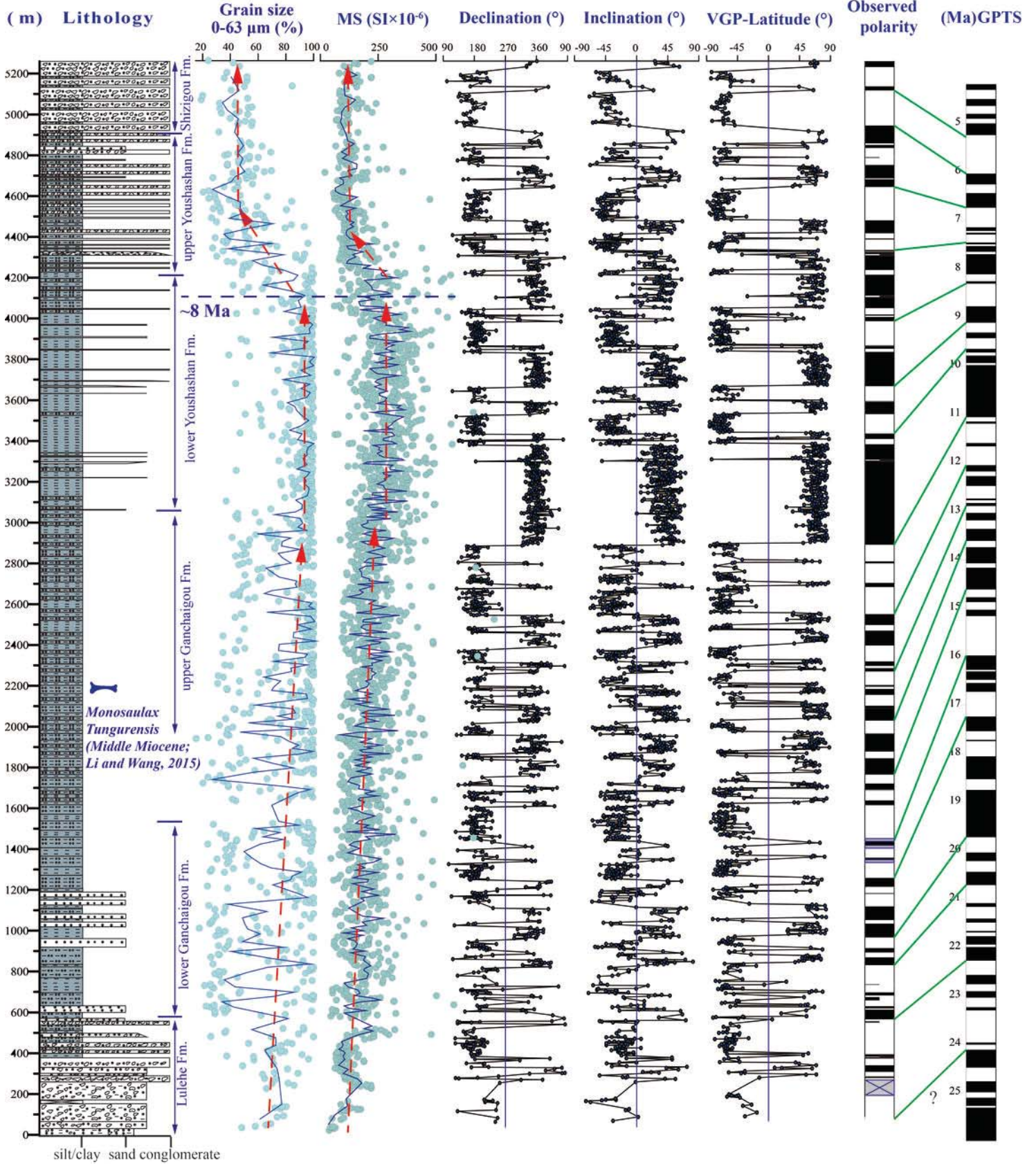


Figure 3.

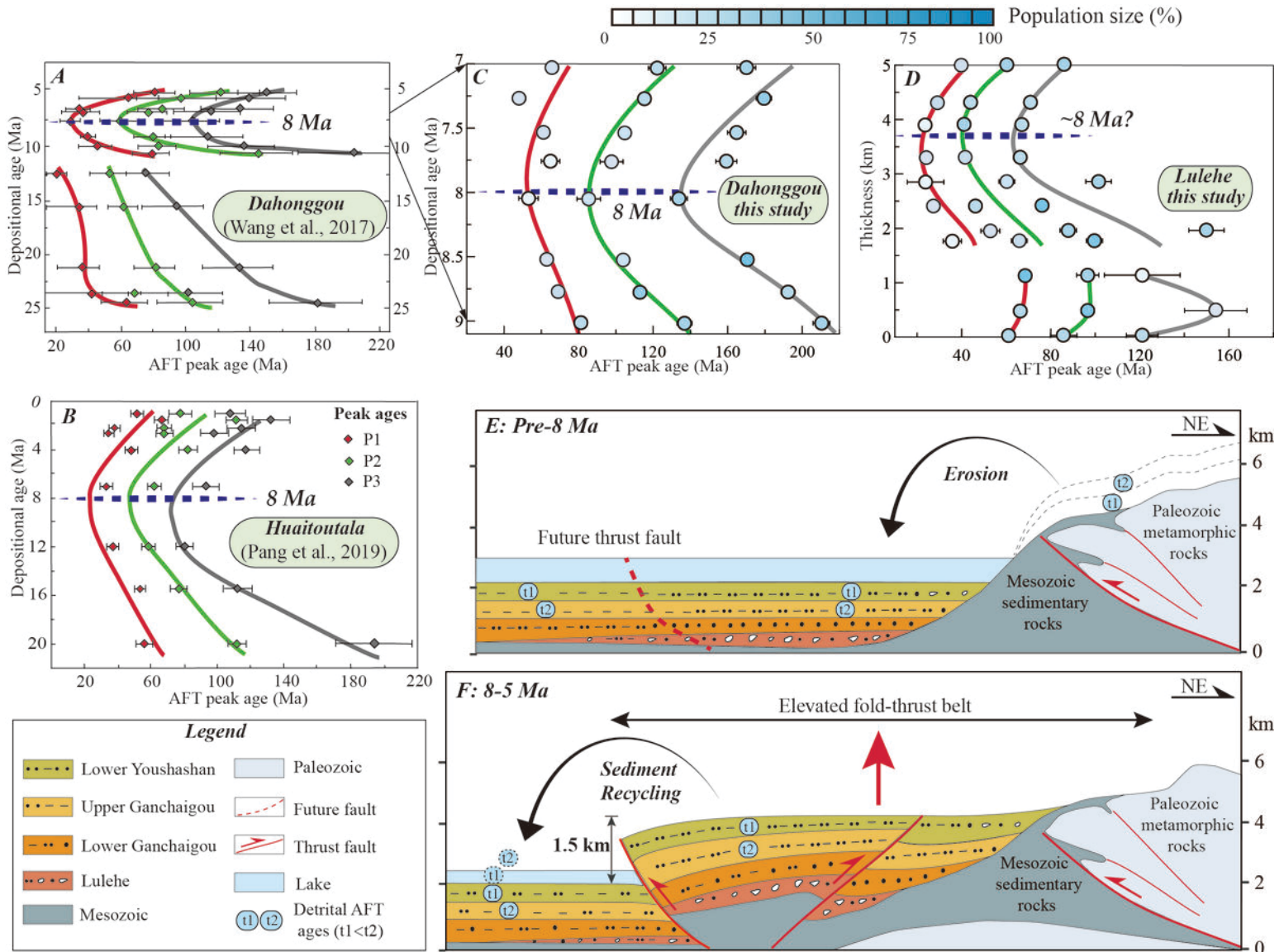


Figure 4.



92°E

100°E

108°E

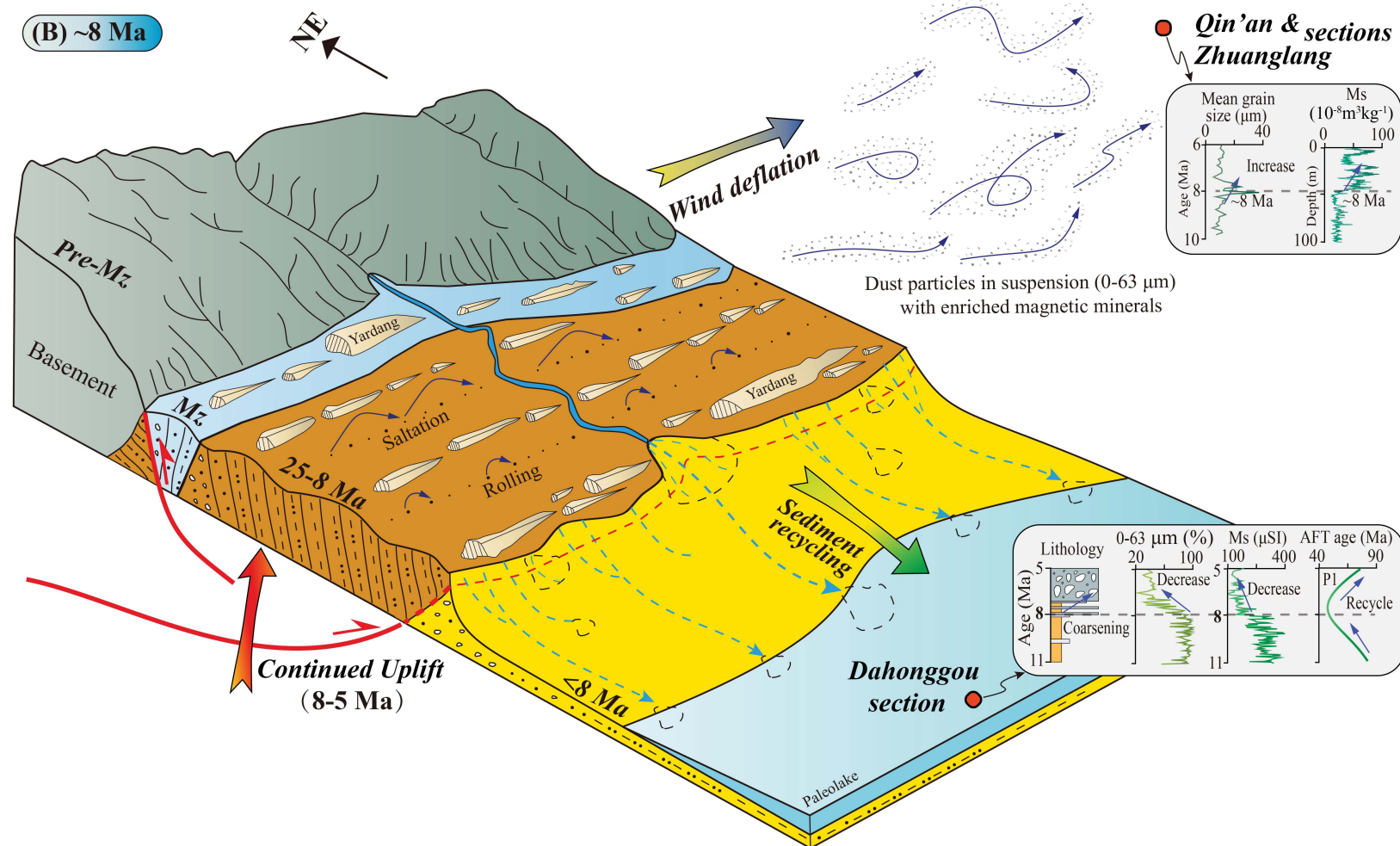
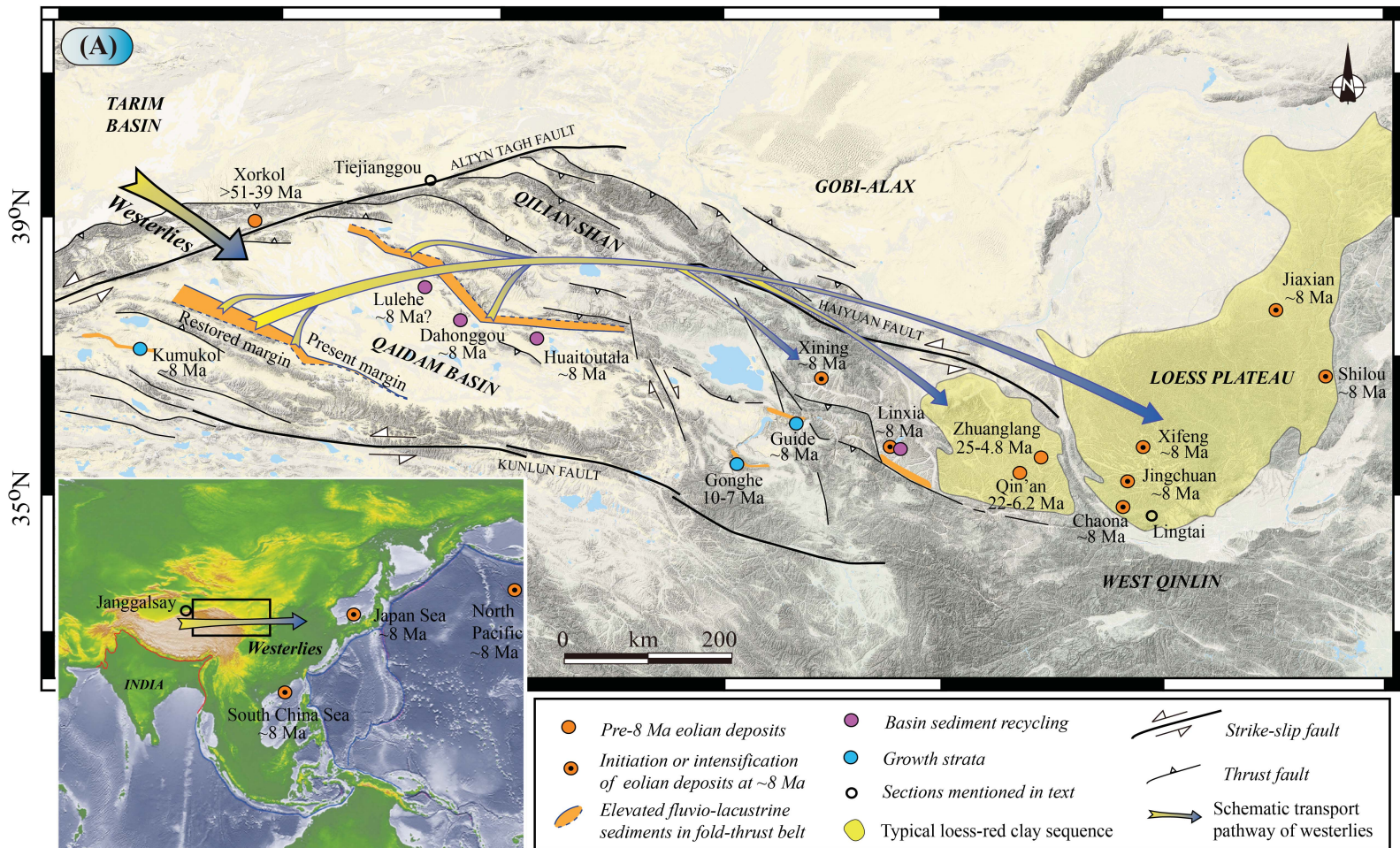


Figure 5.

