

Neogene zonal vegetation of China and the evolution of the winter monsoon

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When considering global change in China, it is important to understand how the strength of the monsoon has responded to changes in climate in the past. Here, we use a semi-quantitative reconstruction method, the Integrated Plant Record (IPR) vegetation analysis, to reconstruct the Neogene vegetation of China. The IPR method focuses on the taxonomic, physiognomic and autecological characteristics of fossil plants, whatever the organs concerned, such as palynomorph, diaspore, leaf and wood. Our study includes 107 Neogene fossil assemblages from 74 localities. There is an increase in the broad-leaved deciduous component in the northern areas during the Neogene. This is consistent with global cooling in the Neogene. At the same time, an increase of sclerophyllous and herbaceous components in west, central and north China occurs, which is indicative of aridification. There is no noticeable change in the vegetation of south China at that time. The Pliocene is characterised by an increasing contrast in vegetation between south and north China. The aridification of north China is due to a strengthening of the winter monsoon. Because there is no major change in the vegetation of south China, the weakening of East Asian summer monsoon is improbable. The Pliocene cooling is responsible for colder winters in Siberia, and the winter high pressure over Siberia becomes higher. As a result, the winter monsoon winds are stronger. The evolution of the summer and winter monsoons is not coupled. • Key words: China, palaeovegetation, Neogene, monsoon, Integrated Plant Record, fossil, aridification.

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Three prominent features characterise the humid/arid climates in China: the Southeast Asian summer monsoon, the South Asian summer monsoon and the winter monsoon (Wang 2006). Most of the water available in China is brought by the summer monsoon. When global climate change becomes a major political concern, we need to question the link between the strength of the monsoon and global climate to understand how arid and humid regions of China will respond to the changes.

Several proxies have been used to study the evolution of the monsoon in the Neogene in China: carbon isotopic data (Kaakinen *et al.* 2006, Passey *et al.* 2009), oxygen isotopic data (Dettman *et al.* 2003, Kaakinen *et al.* 2006, Wang *et al.* 2008), Nd isotopic data (Garzione *et al.* 2005), granulometry (Rea *et al.* 1998, An *et al.* 2001, Vandenberghe *et al.* 2004, Fan *et al.* 2006, Guo *et al.* 2008), marine sediments (Chen *et al.* 2003, Jia *et al.* 2003, Wan *et al.* 2007, Steinke *et al.* 2010), palaeomagnetic data (An *et al.* 2001, Qiang *et al.* 2001, Guo *et al.* 2002),

hypsodonty (Liu *et al.* 2009), and the palaeobotanical record (Sun & Wang 2005, Song *et al.* 2008, Jiang & Ding 2009, Sun & Zhang 2008, Xia *et al.* 2009, Jacques *et al.* 2011a, Liu *et al.* 2011, Sun *et al.* 2011, Yao *et al.* 2011, Xie *et al.* 2012). Most of these studies concern one or two sites; only a few gather information at a regional level or all around China (Sun & Wang 2005, Song *et al.* 2008, Jiang & Ding 2009, Liu *et al.* 2011, Yao *et al.* 2011). South China is more sensitive to the Southeast Asian monsoon while north China is more sensitive to the winter monsoon. Therefore, it is necessary to study the whole of China to be able to decipher the differential evolution of both monsoons. A comprehensive quantitative study over China is therefore needed. This study on the palaeobotanical records because the response of vegetation to climate is global.

Several quantitative methods can be used to reconstruct palaeovegetations. The plant community scenarios (Martinetto & Vassio 2010) focus more on the local level and try

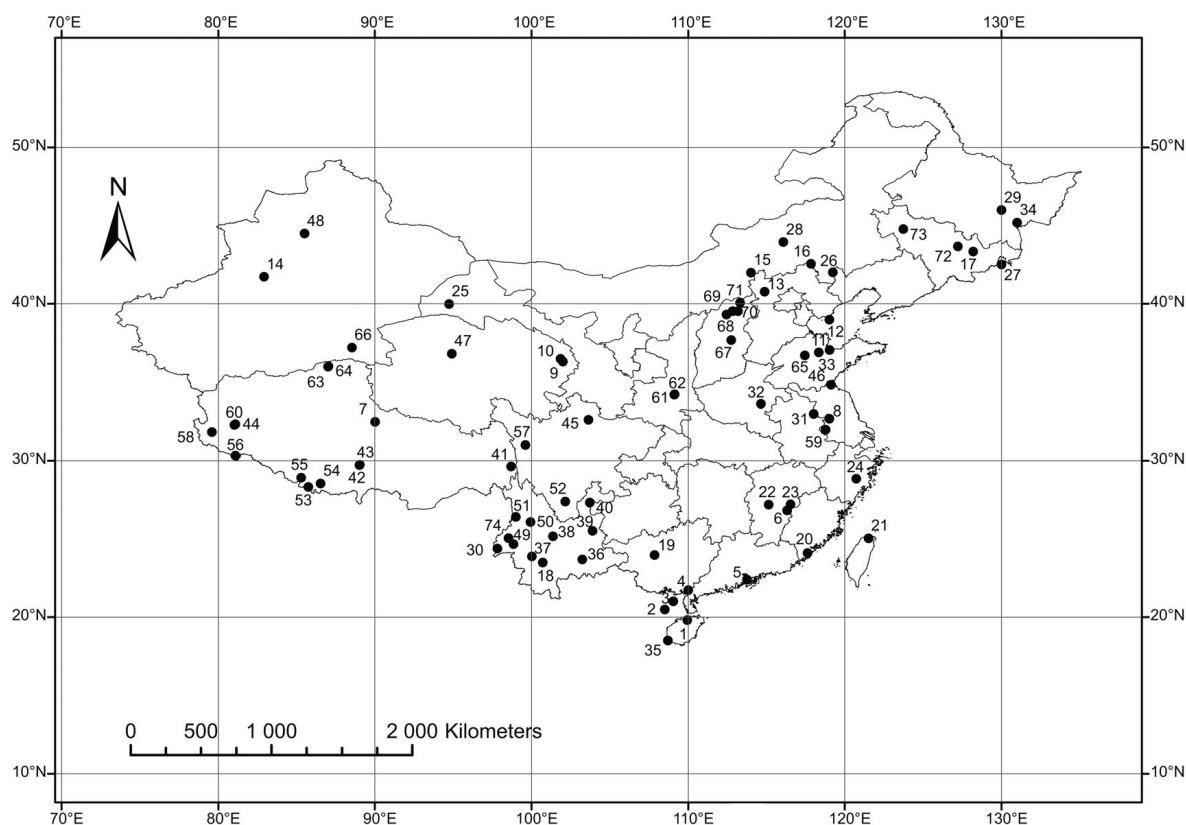


Figure 1. Distribution of fossil sites. The numbers refer to Table 1.

to separate azonal, zonal and extrazonal vegetation. The biomisation (Prentice *et al.* 1996, Yu *et al.* 2003, Chen & Ni 2008, Ni *et al.* 2010) gives good and detailed results at the regional scale for pollen floras. The Integrated Plant Record (IPR) analysis gives good results in reconstructing vegetation based on all organ types, and has been successfully used for the Neogene in European and Asia (Kovar-Eder & Kvacek 2003, 2007; Kovar-Eder *et al.* 2008; Jacques *et al.* 2011b). Because IPR analysis is based on broad definitions of the components, it allows a good interpolation between sites at the regional level (Jacques *et al.* 2011b). The IPR analysis has been validated on modern vegetation in China and Japan (Teodoridis *et al.* 2011b).

We have already reconstructed the Neogene vegetation of south China (Jacques *et al.* 2011b). Extending our work to the whole of China is based on several observations: (1) we cannot understand the evolution of the monsoon without the contrast offered by the different situations in north and south China; (2) the test of the IPR on southern Chinese floras has been successful (Jacques *et al.* 2011b) and can be extended to the whole of China.

This study has two goals: reconstructing Neogene vegetation and discussing the evolution of the monsoon during this period in China.

Material and methods

Fossil sites

Our study focuses on the Neogene because it was the time when the transition of the Chinese climate from a planetary system to a monsoonal system was completed (Sun & Wang 2005). We gathered 74 fossil localities (Table 1, Fig. 1), and separated their geological time into five intervals that represent logical units in terms of palynological zones (Wang 2006, Jacques *et al.* 2011b): early Early Miocene (Aquitania, early Burdigalian; *i.e.* about 19 to 23 Ma), late Early to early Middle Miocene (late Burdigalian, early Langhian; *i.e.* about 14.5 to 19 Ma), late Middle Miocene (late Langhian, Serravalian; *i.e.* about 11.6 to 14.5 Ma), Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene (Tortonian, Messinian, early Zanclean; *i.e.* about 5 to 11.6 Ma), and Pliocene (late Zanclean, Piacenzian; *i.e.* about 2.6 to 9 Ma). In total, we studied 107 assemblages (Table 1).

Taxonomic, physiognomic, and autecological components

In our application of IPR to analyse fossil plant assemblages, the same groupings as those of previous workers was

Table 1. Fossil sites used for the palaeoclimatic reconstruction.

# Locality	Name	Province	Formation	Lat	Long	Organ	Reference
<i>Early–Early Miocene</i>							
1 Fushan	Fushan 1	Hainan	Xiayang	19.83	109.93	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
2 Beibuwan	Beibuwan 1	Guangxi	Xiayang	20.50	108.50	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
3 Weizhou	Weizhou	Guangxi	Weizhou	21.03	109.05	P	Wu (1980)
4 Leizhou	Leizhou 1	Guangdong	Xiayang	21.75	110.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
5 Zhujiangkou	Zhujiangkou 1	Guangdong	Zhujiang	22.42	113.75	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
6 Toupou	Toupou 1	Jiangxi	Middle Toupou	26.83	116.32	P	Sun & He (1987)
7 Dingqing	Dingqing 1	Tibet	Lower Dingqing	32.50	90.00	P	Wang <i>et al.</i> (1975)
8 Tianchang, Anhui	Tianchang-B	Anhui		32.68	119.00	P	Zheng & Zhang (1986)
9 Xining-Mangle	Xining 1	Qinghai	Xiejia	36.33	102.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1984)
10 Xiejia	Xiejia	Qinghai	Xiejia	36.53	101.85	P	Wang & Deng (2009)
11 Bozhong Basin	Bozhong 1	Shandong	Guantao	36.97	119.00	P	Yao <i>et al.</i> (1994)
12 Bohai Gulf	Bohai 1	Hebei	Guantao	39.00	119.00	P	Guan <i>et al.</i> (1982)
13 Wuluogong	Wuluogong	Hebei		40.77	114.88	P	Gan (1982)
14 Kuche Basin	Kuche 1	Xinjiang	Jidike	41.73	82.92	P	Sun & Sun (1984)
15 Shangdou-Huade Basin	Shangdou 1	Inner Mongolia		42.00	114.00	P	Wang & Zhang (1990)
16 Weichang	Weichang	Hebei	Hannuoba	42.57	117.84	P	Li <i>et al.</i> (2009)
17 Dunhua	Dunhua	Jilin	Qiuligou	43.35	128.18	L	Li & Yang (1984)
48 Junggar Basin	Huoerguosi	Xinjiang		44.50	85.50	P	Sun & Wang (1990)
48 Junggar Basin	Xican 1	Xinjiang	Shanwan-Taxihe	44.50	85.50	P	Sun & Wang (1990)
48 Junggar Basin	Dushanzi	Xinjiang		44.50	85.50	P	Sun & Wang (1990)
<i>Late Early–early Middle Miocene</i>							
2 Beibuwan	Beibuwan 2	Guangxi	Jiaowei	20.50	108.50	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
4 Leizhou	Leizhou 2	Guangdong	Jiaowei	21.75	110.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
5 Zhujiangkou	Zhujiangkou 2	Guangdong	Lower Hanjiang	22.42	113.75	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
6 Toupou	Toupou 2	Jiangxi	Upper Toupou	26.83	116.32	P	Sun & He (1987)
11 Bozhong Basin	Bozhong 2	Shandong	Lower Minghuazhen	36.97	119.00	P	Yao <i>et al.</i> (1994)
12 Bohai Gulf	Bohai 2	Hebei	Lower part Minghuazhen	39.00	119.00	P	Guan <i>et al.</i> (1982)
18 Jinggu	Jinggu 1	Yunnan		23.50	100.70	P	Song & Zhong (1984)
19 Yalong	Yalong	Guangxi		23.98	107.84	P	Wang (1989)
20 Zhangpu	Zhangpu	Fujian	Fotan	24.12	117.61	P	Zheng (1987), Zheng & Wang (1994)
21 Shihdi	Shihdi	Taiwan	Taliao/Tsouho transition	25.05	121.50	L	Chaney & Chuang (1968)
22 Ji'an	Ji'an	Jiangxi		27.20	115.13	P	Sun & He (1987)
23 Nanfeng	Nanfeng	Jiangxi		27.22	116.53	P	Sun & He (1987)
24 Xianju	Xianju	Zhejiang		28.85	120.73	P	Zheng (1982)
25 Dunhuang	Dunhuang 1	Gansu		40.00	94.72	P	Ma (1991)
26 Pingzhuang	Pingzhuang	Inner Mongolia		42.01	119.22	L	Zhang (1986)
27 Hunchun	Hunchun	Jilin	Tumenzi	41.85	130.00	P	Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2004)
28 Tongguer	Tongguer	Inner Mongolia		43.95	116.07	P	Wang (1990)
29 Huanan	Huanan	Heilongjiang	Daodaiqiao	47.00	130.00	L, P	Liu <i>et al.</i> (1995), Liu (1998)
48 Junggar Basin	Xican 2	Xinjiang	Shanwan-Taxihe	44.50	85.50	P	Sun & Wang (1990)
<i>Late Middle Miocene</i>							
9 Xining-Mangle	Xining 2	Qinghai	Chetougou	36.33	102.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1984)
30 Mangdan	Mangdan	Yunnan	Nanlin	24.40	97.82	F	Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2004)
31 Tianchang, Jiangsu	Tianchang-A	Jiangsu	Yancheng	33.00	118.00	P	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (1993)
32 Zhoukou	Zhoukou 1	Henan	Guantao	33.63	114.63	P	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (1993)

Table 1. continued

#	Locality	Name	Province	Formation	Lat	Long	Organ	Reference
33	Shanwang	Shanwang	Shandong		36.90	118.33	L, P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (2002)
34	Jidong	Jidong	Heilongjiang		45.20	131.00	P	Shu <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Late Miocene–earliest Pliocene</i>								
1	Fushan	Fushan 3	Hainan	Dengloujiao	19.83	109.93	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
2	Beibuwan	Beibuwan 3	Guangxi	Dengloujiao	20.50	108.50	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
4	Leizhou	Leizhou 3	Guangdong	Dengloujiao	21.75	110.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
5	Zhujiangkou	Zhujiangkou 3	Guangdong	Upper Hanjiang	22.42	113.75	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
7	Lunpola	Lunpola	Tibet		32.50	90.00	P	Wang <i>et al.</i> (1975)
7	Dingqing	Dingqing 2	Tibet	Upper Dingqing	32.50	90.00	P	Wang <i>et al.</i> (1975)
9	Xining-Mangle	Xining 3	Qinghai	Xianshuihe	36.33	102.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1984)
11	Bozhong Basin	Bozhong 3	Shandong	Upper Minghuazhen	36.97	117.20	P	Yao <i>et al.</i> (1994)
12	Bohai Gulf	Bohai 3	Hebei	Upper Minghuazhen	39.00	119.00	P	Guan <i>et al.</i> (1982)
14	Kuche Basin	Kuche 2	Xinjiang		41.73	82.92	P	Jin <i>et al.</i> (2002)
18	Jinggu	Jinggu 2	Yunnan		23.50	100.70	P	Song & Zhong (1984)
25	Dunhuang	Dunhuang 2	Gansu	Xishuigou	40.00	94.72	P	Ma (1991)
35	Yinggehai	Yinggehai 3	Hainan	Lower Yinggehai	18.52	108.70	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
36	Xiaolongtan	Xiaolongtan	Yunnan	Xiaolongtan	23.70	103.23	L	Tao <i>et al.</i> (2000), Xia <i>et al.</i> (2009)
37	Lincang	Lincang	Yunnan	Bangmai	23.90	100.02	L	Guo (2011), Jacques <i>et al.</i> (2011a)
38	Lühe	Lühe	Yunnan	Xiaolongtan	25.17	101.37	P	Xu <i>et al.</i> (2008)
39	Qujing	Qujing 1	Yunnan		25.52	103.88	P	Wang & Shu (2004)
40	Zhaotong	Zhaotong	Yunnan		27.34	103.72	P	Song (1988)
41	Markam	Markam	Tibet	Lawula	29.63	98.68	L, P	Tao & Du (1987)
42	Namling	Namling	Tibet	Upper Wulong	29.72	89.00	L	Li & Guo (1976)
43	Wulong	Wulong	Tibet	Upper Wulong	29.75	89.02	P	Song & Liu (1982)
44	Zhada	Zhada 1	Tibet		32.33	81.08	P	Li & Liang (1983)
45	Songpan	Maladun	Sichuan		32.63	103.62	L, P	Liu & Li (2002)
46	Huanghai	Huanghai 2	Jiangsu		34.83	119.12	P	Zheng <i>et al.</i> (1981)
47	Dafengshan	Dafengshan	Qinghai		36.83	94.90	P	Zhu <i>et al.</i> (1985)
48	Junggar Basin	Xican 3	Xinjiang	Shanwan-Taxihe	44.50	85.50	P	Sun & Wang (1990)
<i>Pliocene</i>								
2	Beibuwan	Beibuwan 4	Guangxi	Wanglougang	20.50	108.50	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
3	Jiaowei	Jiaowei	Guangxi		21.03	109.05	P	Wu (1980)
4	Leizhou	Leizhou 4	Guangdong	Wanglougang	21.75	110.00	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
5	Zhujiangkou	Zhujiangkou 4	Guangdong	Yuehai	22.42	113.75	P	Sun <i>et al.</i> (1981)
11	Bozhong Basin	Bozhong 4	Shandong		36.97	117.20	P	Yao <i>et al.</i> (1994)
15	Shangdou-Huade Basin	Shangdou 3	Inner Mongolia		42.00	114.00	P	Wang & Zhang (1990)
32	Zhoukou	Zhoukou 2	Henan	Minghuazhen	33.63	114.63	P	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (1993)
39	Qujing	Qujing 2	Yunnan		25.52	103.88	P	Wang & Shu (2004)
44	Zhada	Zhada 2	Tibet		32.33	81.08	P	Li & Liang (1983)
46	Huanghai	Huanghai 1	Jiangsu		34.83	119.12	P	Zheng <i>et al.</i> (1981)
49	Longling	Longling	Yunnan	Yangyi	24.68	98.83	P	Xu <i>et al.</i> (2004)
50	Eryuan	Eryuan	Yunnan		26.10	99.93	L, P	Tao & Kong (1973), Kou <i>et al.</i> (2006)
51	Lanping	Lanping	Yunnan		26.41	99.00	L	Tao (1986)
52	Dechang	Sigeda	Sichuan	Sigeda	27.40	102.15	L	Guo (1978)
53	Shisha Pangma	Shisha Pangma	Tibet		28.33	85.75	L, P	Hsü <i>et al.</i> (1973)
54	Yaruxiongla	Yaruxiongla	Tibet		28.56	86.52	P	Li (1983)

Table 1. continued

#	Locality	Name	Province	Formation	Lat	Long	Organ	Reference
55	Gyirong	Woma	Tibet		28.93	85.28	P	Zheng (1983)
56	Burang	Disong	Tibet		30.33	81.08	P	Cao (1982)
57	Changtai	Changtai	Sichuan		31.02	99.60	P	Liu & Li (2002)
58	Xiangzi	Xiangzi	Tibet		31.83	79.58	P	Li & Liang (1983)
59	Nanjing	Nanjing	Jiangsu		31.98	118.76	L	Li, H.M. <i>et al.</i> (1984)
60	Xixi	Xixi	Tibet		32.30	81.02	P	Li & Liang (1983)
61	Shuijiazui Village	Shuijiazui	Shaanxi	Bahe	34.22	109.10	P	IBIG (1966)
62	Koujia Village	Koujia	Shaanxi	Bahe	34.23	109.13	P	IBIG (1966)
63	Zhenquancuo Lake	Zhenquancuo 1	Tibet		36.00	87.00	P	Huang & Liang (1983)
64	Zhenquancuo Lake	Zhenquancuo 2	Tibet		36.02	87.02	P	Huang & Liang (1983)
65	Zhangqiu	Zhangqiu	Shandong		36.72	117.45	P	Wang <i>et al.</i> (2002)
66	Ruoqiang	Ruoqiang	Xinjiang		37.22	88.53	L	Guo & Gu (1993)
67	Jinzhong Basin	Jinzhong	Shanxi		37.68	112.75	P	Li, Y.T. <i>et al.</i> (1984)
68	Shuoxian	Shuoxian	Shanxi		39.33	112.43	P	Tang & Liu (1984)
69	Shanyin	Shanyin	Shanxi		39.53	112.82	P	Tang & Liu (1984)
70	Yingxian	Yingxian	Shanxi		39.55	113.18	P	Tang & Liu (1984)
71	Datong City	Datong	Shanxi		40.08	113.30	P	Tang & Liu (1984)
72	Laoyeling	Laoyeling	Jilin		43.68	127.20	P	Li, Y.T. <i>et al.</i> (1984)
73	Qian'an	Qian'an	Jilin		44.78	123.73	P	Jia <i>et al.</i> (1989)
74	Tengchong	Tengchong	Yunnan		25.00	98.52	L	Tao & Du (1982)

followed (Kovar-Eder & Kvaček 2003, Jechorek & Kovar-Eder, 2004, Kovar-Eder *et al.* 2008, Jacques *et al.* 2011b). Twelve components are listed as follow:

CON: zonal and extra-zonal conifers, grouping all conifers; BLD: broad-leaved deciduous woody angiosperms, leaf-size microphyll, notophyll or mesophyll, leaf texture thin; BLE: broad-leaved evergreen woody angiosperms, leaf-size microphyll, notophyll or mesophyll, leaf texture coriaceous; SCL: sclerophyllous woody angiosperms, leaf-size nanophyll to microphyll, texture thick; LEG: legume-type woody angiosperms, leaf-size or leaflet-size leptophyll to nanophyll; PALM: zonal palms; MEH: mesophytic herbs, herbaceous plants growing in forest understorey; DRH: dry land herbs, herbaceous plants growing in open woodlands and grasslands; FERN: ferns, both zonal and azonal; AZW: azonal woody plants, azonal conifers and azonal woody angiosperms; AZH: azonal herbs, reeds, sedges, and other halophytes; AQU: aquatic plants, all hydrophytes.

Fossil taxa were assigned to these components primarily based on the characteristics of their nearest living relatives. Previously published databases (Kovar-Eder & Kvaček 2007, Jacques *et al.* 2011b) and the IPR online database (<http://www.iprdatabase.eu/>; Teodoridis *et al.* 2011a) were used. Where some fossils were not listed in these databases, the physiognomic and autecological information was checked with reference to local floras or discussion with local botanists. For the palynological

record, Song *et al.* (2004) and Yao *et al.* (2011) were a valuable source of information for the nearest living relatives. The data we used are available online (<http://www.iprdatabase.eu/>).

Vegetation types

The vegetation type of each fossil assemblage was determined by the relative proportions of the different IPR components (Kovar-Eder *et al.* 2008). Recently, new ranges were defined to better accommodate ecotones between the different types of forests (Teodoridis *et al.* 2011b). As there are no major differences between the old and the new thresholds and in order to allow easy comparison with the former publication on south China (Jacques *et al.* 2011b), the original six zonal vegetation types were kept (Kovar-Eder *et al.* 2008):

Zonal temperate to warm-temperate broad-leaved deciduous forests, defined as BLD \geq 80% of woody angiosperms, and zonal herbs (MEH+DRH) \leq 30% of all zonal taxa.

Zonal warm-temperate to subtropical mixed mesophytic forests, defined as BLD < 80%, BLE < 30%, SCL+LEG < 20% of woody angiosperms; zonal herbs < 30% of all zonal taxa.

Zonal subtropical broad-leaved evergreen forests, defined as BLE \geq 30% of woody angiosperms and SCL+LEG < BLE.

Table 2. Reconstructed vegetations and proportion of zonal components. Vegetation type: 1 – broad-leaved deciduous forest; 2 – mixed mesophytic forest; 3 – broad-leaved evergreen forest; 4 – subhumid sclerophyllous or microphyllous forest; 5 – xeric woodland; 6 – xeric grasslands or steppe.

Name	Number	Zonal Woody Angiosperm (%)	BLD (%)	BLE (%)	SCL+LEG (%)	Zonal Herb (%)	DRH (%)	Vegetation Type
Beibuwan 1	2	65.4	50.2	32.7	9.6	15.0	10.6	3
Beibuwan 2	2	59.1	53.1	35.3	11.7	18.4	9.7	3
Beibuwan 3	2	65.1	47.2	40.4	12.5	16.3	11.5	3
Beibuwan 4	2	57.5	46.8	39.2	14.0	16.2	6.1	3
Bohai 1	12	56.3	79.6	16.6	3.8	24.5	9.0	1
Bohai 2	12	63.4	79.6	16.6	3.8	18.6	10.2	1
Bohai 3	12	32.4	82.7	8.6	8.6	50.7	23.2	6
Bozhong 1	11	52.2	74.2	20.0	5.8	24.1	11.4	2
Bozhong 2	11	55.1	74.2	20.0	5.8	19.8	12.0	2
Bozhong 3	11	54.2	82.6	13.5	3.9	23.1	14.0	1
Bozhong 4	11	45.8	87.0	8.5	4.5	26.3	15.5	1
Changtai	57	43.9	66.2	13.9	20.0	27.7	23.0	4
Dafengshan	47	39.2	56.7	27.4	16.0	30.8	20.3	6
Datong	71	47.4	71.2	10.7	18.0	24.5	12.8	2
Dingqing 1	7	41.7	72.7	9.6	17.8	23.9	13.7	2
Dingqing 2	7	54.6	82.3	0	17.7	20.9	7.1	1
Disong	56	60.7	54.5	32.8	12.7	24.2	16.1	3
Dunhua	17	55.6	84.0	8.0	8.0	0	0	1
Dunhuang 1	25	42.3	71.5	14.0	14.5	54.0	36.4	6
Dunhuang 2	25	44.5	72.7	8.2	19.1	37.2	29.2	6
Dushanzi	48	47.3	75.5	12.7	11.8	33.1	12.7	5
Eryuan	50	64.1	64.7	29.1	6.2	0	0	2
Fushan 1	1	79.6	53.9	46.1	0	8.1	4.1	3
Fushan 3	1	82.2	40.1	40.1	7.4	7.7	0	3
Huanan	29	66.2	83.1	9.0	7.9	11.3	3.7	1
Huanghai 1	46	52.2	61.8	24.6	13.6	28.9	16.1	2
Huanghai 2	46	57.6	62.6	22.7	14.7	22.8	12.8	2
Hunchun	27	66.6	73.0	17.0	10.0	12.0	4.0	2
Huoguoosi	48	55.9	66.0	24.0	10.0	19.0	12.0	2
Ji'an	22	64.3	52.4	30.6	11.3	17.6	10.8	3
Jiaowei	3	62.8	51.1	33.9	12.6	22.1	6.2	3
Jidong	34	65.2	62.4	23.4	14.1	17.1	7.9	2
Jinggu 1	18	38.9	67.0	26.7	6.4	3.3	1.7	2
Jinggu 2	18	38.9	67.0	26.7	6.4	3.3	1.7	2
Jinzhong	67	31.3	100	0	0	26.9	20.1	1
Koujia	62	44.1	68.1	12.0	19.9	27.6	20.7	4
Kuche	14	65.8	58.7	23.3	12.7	13.1	8.3	2
Lanping	51	88.8	2.52	78.2	19.3	0	0	3
Laoyeling	72	86.7	72.0	17.2	10.8	0	0	2
Leizhou 1	4	63.2	53.8	36.3	9.9	12.5	7.0	3
Leizhou 2	4	68.6	49.4	30.7	10.9	16.1	6.1	3
Leizhou 3	4	65.8	51.3	30.7	12.3	19.4	7.4	3
Leizhou 4	4	64.7	51.8	36.2	12.0	16.2	8.5	3
Lincang	37	96.3	26.0	63.1	10.9	1.9	1.6	3
Longling	49	57.8	41.4	32.4	21.1	31.8	16.7	6

Table 2. continued

Name	Number	Zonal Woody Angiosperm (%)	BLD (%)	BLE (%)	SCL+LEG (%)	Zonal Herb (%)	DRH (%)	Vegetation Type
Lühe	38	63.1	45.6	34.3	14.6	21.2	9.7	3
Lunpola	7	60.6	82.6	7.6	9.8	27.5	15.7	1
Maladun	45	77.0	74.1	5.4	20.4	2.1	0	4
Mangdan	30	91.8	47.1	48.4	4.5	8.2	4.1	3
Markam	41	70.6	91.3	4.4	4.4	15.3	12.3	1
Namling	42	94.0	44.6	39.3	16.1	6.1	4.0	3
Nanfeng	23	64.8	59.6	29.5	6.4	17.7	11.8	2
Nanjing	59	100	50	10	39	0	0	2
Pingzhuang	26	100	88.2	5.9	5.9	0	0	1
Qian'an	73	56.3	77.0	17.6	5.4	20.3	13.1	2
Qujing	39	53.2	76.1	6.5	17.4	12.1	10.4	2
Ruoqiang	66	35.9	77.8	11.1	11.1	56.1	42.4	6
Shangdou 1	15	51.0	68.4	16.6	15.0	13.4	9.6	2
Shangdou 3	15	22.9	54.9	22.6	22.6	37.1	28.1	6
Shanwang	33	99.4	70.8	22.5	6.7	0.6	0.6	2
Shanyin	69	50.7	72.0	6.0	22.0	27.3	13.7	4
Shihdi	21	98.6	27.5	61.9	4.9	1.4	0	3
Shisha Pangma	53	48.3	80.0	10.0	10.0	8.3	3.2	1
Shuijiazui	61	42.5	58.8	7.1	34.1	33.5	17.4	5
Shuoxian	68	50.9	79.2	3.7	17.1	24.0	14.6	2
Sigeda	52	100	21.8	75.2	3.0	0	0	3
Tengchong	74	88.1	51.4	34.3	14.4	0	0	3
Tianchang-A	31	55.0	58.2	22.8	19.0	9.6	2.2	2
Tianchang-B	8	62.3	66.7	20.5	12.8	6.1	1.4	2
Tongguer	28	58.9	57.6	31.3	11.1	33.9	25.0	5
Toupo 1	6	62.2	51.5	31.0	14.5	12.7	5.6	3
Toupo 2	6	61.0	56.3	30.3	13.4	18.2	11.5	3
Weichang	16	54.7	75.0	8.8	16.2	29.8	13.9	6
Weizhou	3	67.6	47.6	33.7	16.4	20.0	7.2	3
Woma	55	45.1	69.0	14.3	16.7	28.4	13.7	2
Wulong	43	75.6	63.4	26.9	9.7	0	0	2
Wuluogong	13	45.9	67.5	21.2	11.3	11.9	7.9	2
Xiangzi	58	45.0	76.7	12.1	11.2	27.7	22.2	2
Xianju	24	65.5	51.3	20.4	28.3	14.0	5.3	4
Xiaolongtan	36	97.6	29.7	53.4	16.9	2.4	1.8	3
Xican 1	48	64.5	62.0	24.0	14.0	34.0	25.0	5
Xican 2	48	55.4	66.6	20.7	12.7	30.7	26.1	5
Xican 3	48	57.3	72.8	16.5	10.7	17.9	10.8	2
Xiejia	10	42.2	72.4	6.4	21.2	36.3	22.0	6
Xining 1	9	55.6	54.4	21.7	23.9	18.4	14.0	4
Xining 2	9	41.5	68.7	12.0	19.3	34.4	25.9	5
Xining 3	9	57.7	56.1	28.2	15.8	27.6	18.4	2
Xixi	60	32.5	80.2	6.2	13.6	31.4	26.7	6
Yalong	19	78.5	39.0	38.3	22.7	20.0	10.6	3
Yaruxiongla	54	45.3	60.1	20.0	20.0	19.6	5.1	4
Yinggehai 3	35	44.7	53.0	33.2	13.8	25.4	14.4	3

Table 2. continued

Name	Number	Zonal Woody Angiosperm (%)	BLD (%)	BLE (%)	SCL+LEG (%)	Zonal Herb (%)	DRH (%)	Vegetation Type
Yingxian	70	47.8	63.1	14.6	22.2	29.9	14.0	5
Zhada 1	44	38.2	59.5	19.1	21.4	25.3	20.1	4
Zhada 2	44	21.1	65.6	10.4	24.1	30.7	24.8	4
Zhangpu	20	70.3	33.2	43.1	18.1	13.8	5.0	3
Zhangqiu	65	48.8	76.4	7.8	15.8	28.0	20.2	2
Zhaotong	40	85.6	29.6	58.9	11.6	0.6	0.6	3
Zhenquancuo 1	63	37.1	65.5	12.9	21.5	41.7	19.0	6
Zhenquancuo 2	64	39.4	74.1	9.2	16.8	37.1	19.1	5
Zhoukou 1	32	55.6	68.1	21.2	10.8	17.5	9.4	2
Zhoukou 2	32	69.5	71.6	15.7	12.6	14.5	9.9	2
Zhujiangkou 1	5	83.4	48.2	36.2	7.6	0	0	3
Zhujiangkou 2	5	81.8	35.3	42.0	9.4	7.2	3.6	3
Zhujiangkou 3	5	72.1	37.6	42.7	9.6	9.6	4.8	3
Zhujiangkou 4	5	65.2	30.7	42.1	10.3	10.0	5.9	3

Zonal subtropical, subhumid sclerophyllous or microphyllous forests, defined as SCL+LEG \geq 20% of woody angiosperms and zonal herbs < 30% of all zonal taxa.

Zonal xeric woodlands, defined as SCL+LEG \leq 20% of woody angiosperms, zonal herbs = 30–40% of all zonal taxa, and MEH > DRH.

Zonal xeric grasslands or steppe, defined as zonal herbs > 40% of all zonal taxa.

Vegetation mapping

The software ArcGIS 9.3 was used to map the vegetational record. We applied the ‘inverted distance weighted’ algorithm to reconstruct vegetation between neighbouring sites. This algorithm allows interpolation between points, giving more weight to the nearest neighbour points and less weight to the furthest distant points. The following settings were chosen: power 2, variable search radius type, number of points 12, cell size 0.1°. The interpolation was limited to a 3° radius around the sites to prevent over-interpolation.

Results

Vegetation reconstructions

The proportions of each component and reconstructed vegetational types are indicated for all sites (Table 2). All six types of vegetation have been reconstructed. There are great variations among proportions of woody angiosperms and proportions of zonal herb (21.1 to 100% and 0 to 56.1%, respectively). The number of floras for each vegetation type according to age is summarised (Table 3).

Regional and stratigraphic ranges of the vegetation types

Broad-leaved deciduous forests

Twelve floras are assigned to broad-leaved deciduous forests: two from the early Early Miocene in north China, three from the late Early to early Middle Miocene in north China, four for the Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene in north China and on the Tibetan Plateau, and three from the Pliocene in north China and on the Tibetan Plateau. They are represented both by pollen and leaf assemblages. The percentage of herbaceous components varies from 0 to 27.5%.

Mixed mesophytic forests

Thirty-three floras are reconstructed as mixed mesophytic forests: seven from the early Early Miocene in eastern, northern and western China and on the Tibetan Plateau, four from the late Early to early Middle Miocene in northern, eastern and southern China, four from the late Middle Miocene in northern and eastern China, six from the Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene in eastern, western and southwestern China, and on the Tibetan Plateau, and twelve from the Pliocene in northern, eastern and south western China and on the Tibetan Plateau. They are also represented both by pollen and leaf assemblages. The percentage of herbaceous components varies from 0 to 28.9%.

Broad-leaved evergreen forests

Thirty-three sites are assigned to broad-leaved evergreen forests: six from the early Early Miocene, eight from the late Early to early Middle Miocene, one from the late Middle

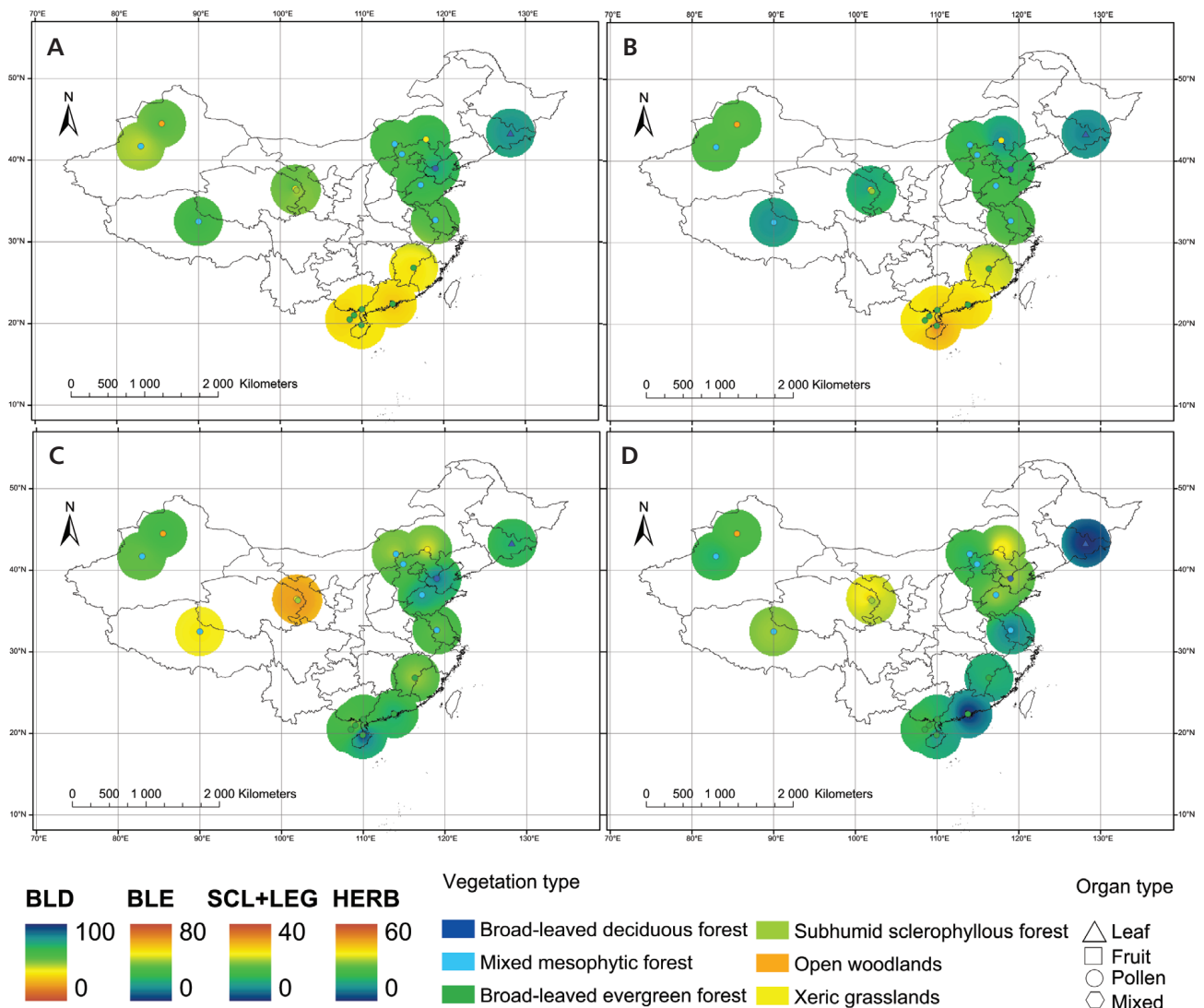


Figure 2. Interpolation of vegetation components during the early Early Miocene. The type of organ found in the assemblage is given by the symbol shape; the colour inside the symbol represents the vegetation types. Colour gradients represent the percentage of a component. • A – the gradient represents the BLD component; B – the gradient represents the BLE component; C – the gradient represents the SCL+LEG components; D – the gradient represents the HERB (MEH+DRH) component.

Miocene, ten from the Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene and eight from the Pliocene. They all occur in south China, except Disong from the Pliocene of the Tibetan Plateau. They are represented by fruit, pollen and leaf assemblages. The percentage of herbaceous components varies from 0 to 25.4%.

Subhumid sclerophyllous forests

Nine sites represented both by leaf and pollen assemblages are reconstructed as subhumid sclerophyllous forests: one from the early Early Miocene of western China, one from the late Early to early Middle Miocene of eastern China, two from the Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene of western China and the Tibetan region, and five from the Pliocene of western China, northern China and the Tibetan region.

Open woodlands

Eight sites, all from pollen assemblages, are assigned to open woodlands: two from the early Early Miocene in western China, two from the late Early to early Middle Miocene in northern and western China, one from the late Middle Miocene in western China, and three from the Pliocene in north China and on the Tibetan Plateau.

Xeric grasslands

Six sites based on leaf or pollen assemblages are reconstructed as xeric grasslands: two from the early Early Miocene in northern and western China, one from the late Early to early Middle Miocene in western China, four

Table 3. Number of reconstructed floras for each vegetation type and each age interval. Vegetation type: 1 – broad-leaved deciduous forest; 2 – mixed mesophytic forest; 3 – broad-leaved evergreen forest; 4 – subhumid sclerophyllous or microphyllous forest; 5 – xeric woodland; 6 – xeric grasslands or steppe.

Vegetation type	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Pliocene	3	12	8	5	3	5	36
Late Miocene–earliest Pliocene	4	4	10	2	0	4	24
Late Middle Miocene	0	4	1	0	1	0	6
Late Early–early Middle Miocene	3	6	8	1	2	1	21
Early Early Miocene	2	7	6	1	2	2	20
Total	12	33	33	9	8	12	107

from the Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene in northern and western China, and five from the Pliocene in northern, western and southwestern China and on the Tibetan Plateau.

Vegetation changes through time

Early Early Miocene (Fig. 2)

There is a latitudinal gradient from evergreen forest to deciduous forest. Only Qinghai and Tibet show some slightly arid areas. Western China is humid.

Late Early to early Middle Miocene (Fig. 3)

There is increasing aridity in western China with a strong increase in the herb component in Xinjiang. More open vegetation appears in western China.

Late Middle Miocene (Fig. 4)

Only a few sites are available in south China for this time interval. North China is still humid and warm with a mixed mesophytic forest.

Late Miocene to earliest Pliocene (Fig. 5)

Western China is arid but central China is less arid. Evergreen forests are present in south and southwest China. Aridity is increasing in north China.

Pliocene (Fig. 6)

In the Pliocene, the most important changes occur in north and northeast China. There is an increase of deciduous and herb components. Western China is still arid. Evergreen forests are still dominant in south China. There is a diversity of vegetation types in southwest China (Hengduan Mountains).

Discussion

Neogene cooling

From the Early Miocene to the Pliocene, there is a reduction of the BLE component in north China. This reduction is associated with a cooling in north China. This is part of the global cooling trend of the Neogene (Zachos *et al.* 2001). The mid and high latitudes are warmer during the Miocene than at present times (Wolfe 1994; White *et al.* 1997; Stephun *et al.* 2006, 2007; Micheels *et al.* 2011; Utescher *et al.* 2011). The latitudinal temperature gradients increased during the Pliocene.

When forests are present, albedo is reduced and temperatures can be higher (Tong *et al.* 2009). Aridification and opening up of the vegetation during the Neogene may have reinforced the cooling of these regions.

Aridification of north and west China

Our results show an increase in the sclerophyllous and herbaceous components during the Neogene in west, central and north China. These results are in agreement with previous studies (Wang 1994, Sun & Wang 2005, Jiang & Ding 2009, Liu *et al.* 2011). This increase of sclerophyllous and herbaceous components has been described as the extension of the inland palynofloristic region to Inner Mongolia and north China (Wang 1994).

However, central China is not as dry during the Late Miocene as during the Pliocene or at present (Fig. 5). Most of the proxies, including isotopes (Dettman *et al.* 2003), grain size (Sun 2004, Fan *et al.* 2006), hypsodonty (Liu *et al.* 2009) and pollen (*e.g.*, Jiang & Ding 2009), point towards a step evolution of aridification. These steps are mostly: around 15–13 Ma (late Middle Miocene), around 10–8 Ma (Late Miocene) and around 3 Ma (Pliocene) (Sun *et al.* 1998, Ding *et al.* 1999, Qiang *et al.* 2001, Sun & Wang 2005, Wan *et al.* 2007, Molnar *et al.* 2010).

Because of the small number of late Middle Miocene sites included in this study, we could not study the 15–13 Ma step. The evolution between the late Middle Miocene and Late Miocene is also difficult to reconstruct; there is slight aridification in northern China, but restricted to some sites (Fig. 5). Therefore, we focus on the 3 Ma aridification that is pronounced in north China (Fig. 6).

From our results, there is a clear contrast between north and south China. While north China undergoes an important aridification, there is no noticeable change in the vegetation of south China. The Pliocene is thus characterized by an increasing contrast in vegetation between south and north China.

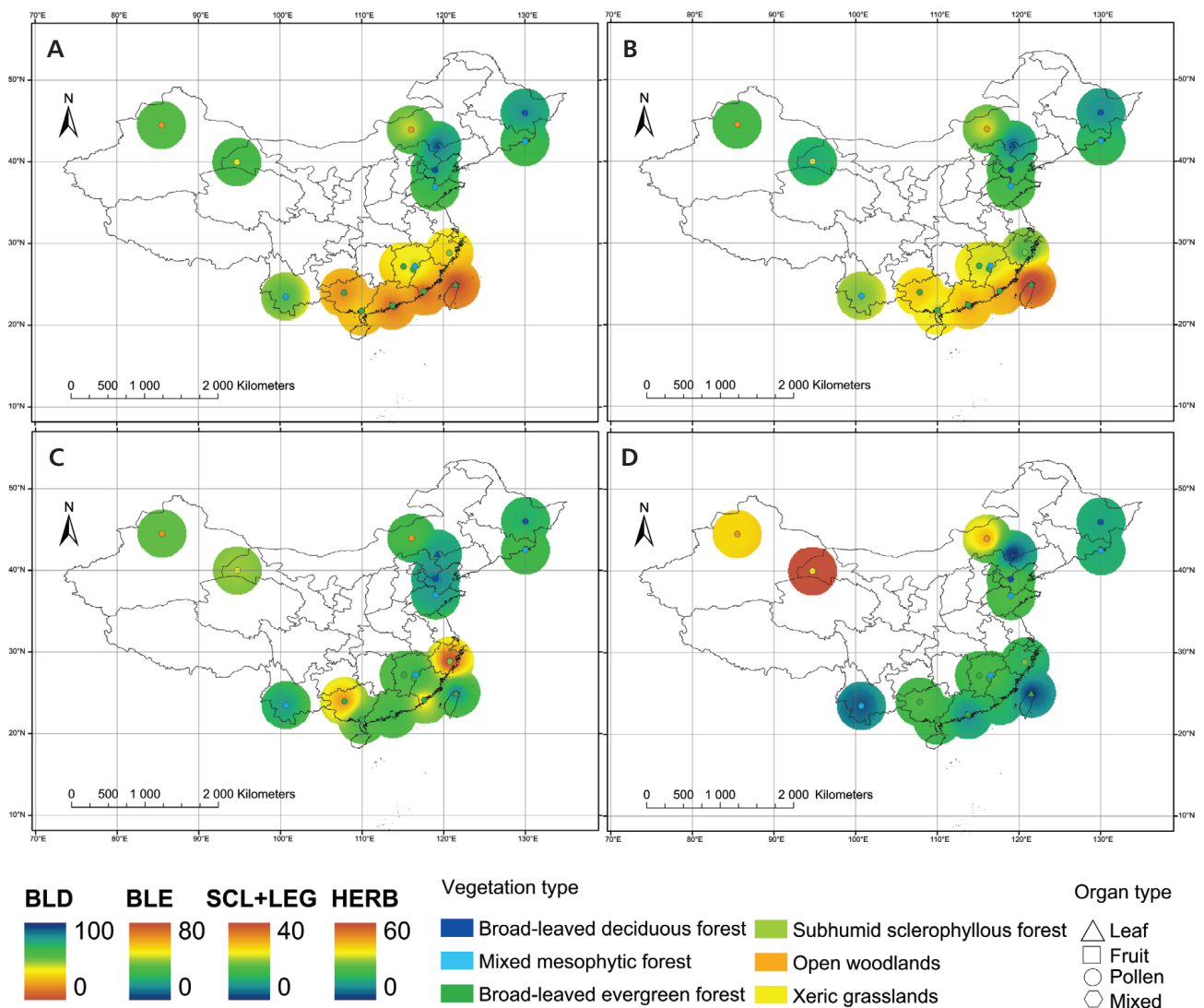


Figure 3. Interpolation of vegetation components during the late Early–early Middle Miocene. The type of organ found in the assemblage is given by the symbol shape; the colour inside the symbol represents the vegetation types. Colour gradients represent the percentage of a component. • A – the gradient represents the BLD component; B – the gradient represents the BLE component; C – the gradient represents the SCL+LEG components; D – the gradient represents the HERB (MEH+DRH) component.

Evolution of the monsoon

In China precipitation is mainly controlled by the monsoon: in summer, the Southeast Asian summer monsoon brings water to the Chinese inland; in winter, the winter monsoon brings aridity in northern China (Liu & Yin 2002). However, besides the monsoon, the westerlies play also an important role in the circulation of air masses in China (Rea *et al.* 1998, Sun 2004). The reorganization of the climate system in China at the Oligocene-Miocene boundary (the broad Paleogene aridity belt that covered most of China was reduced to its western part) has been linked with the development of the Southeast Asian summer monsoon (Sun & Wang 2005). Theoretically, considering all these movements of air masses, aridification of

west, central and north China during the Neogene may be linked to either a weakening of the Southeast Asian summer monsoon or a strengthening of the winter monsoon.

West China is still humid during the early Miocene (Fig. 2). This may be due to humidity brought by the Paratethys Sea, which had not totally retreated at that time (Dercourt *et al.* 1993, Rögl 1998, Harzhauser & Piller 2007).

During the aridification of west, central and north China occurring at the Late Miocene-Pliocene transition, there is no major change in the vegetation of south China in our results; therefore, we reject a weakening of the summer monsoon. Palaeoclimatic reconstructions in southwest China during the Late Miocene (Xia *et al.* 2009; Jacques *et al.* 2011a, 2011c) indicate higher precipitation than today, especially in winter and only slightly in summer. Therefore,

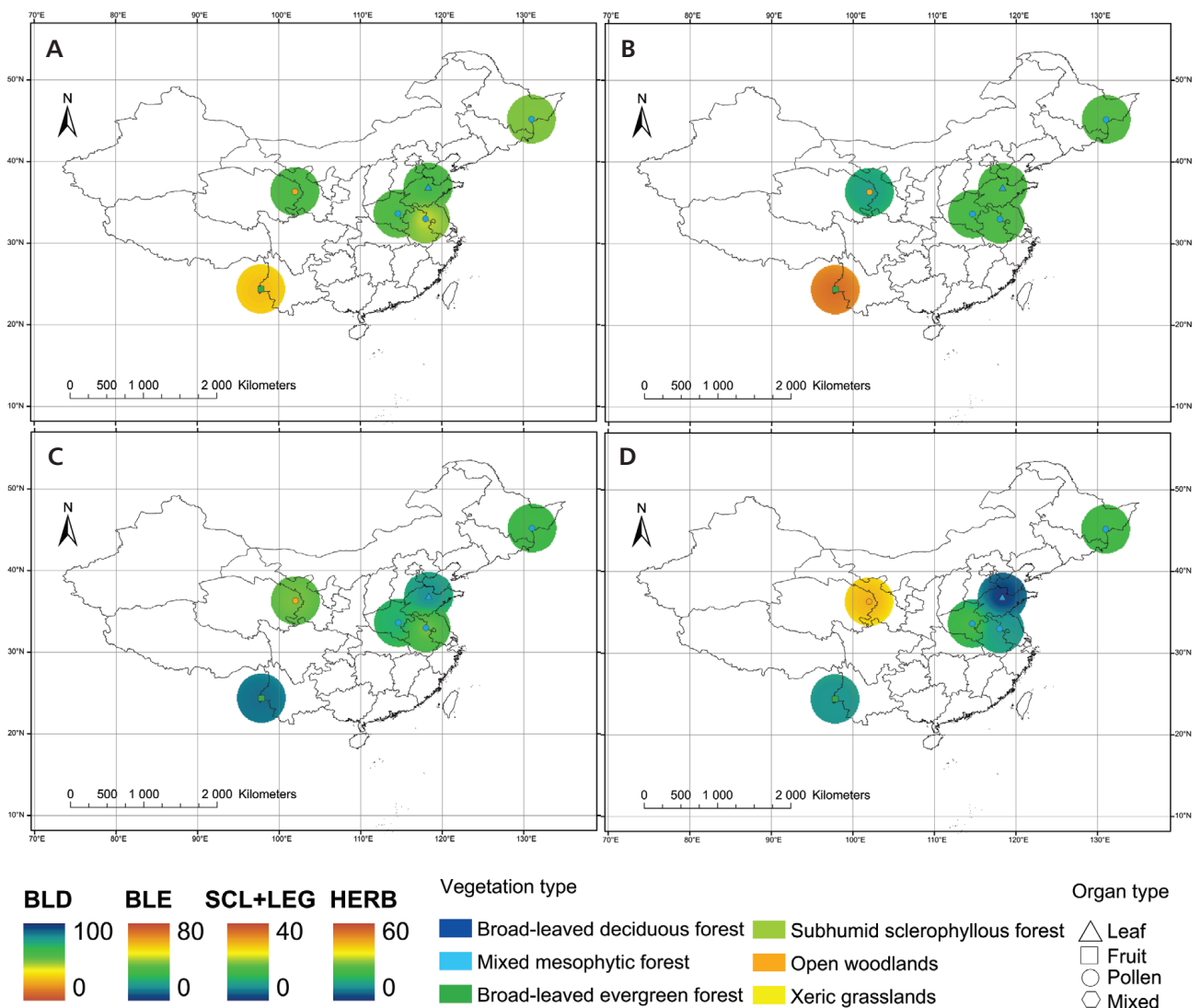


Figure 4. Interpolation of vegetation components during the late Middle Miocene. The type of organ found in the assemblage is given by the symbol shape; the colour inside the symbol represents the vegetation types. Colour gradients represent the percentage of a component. • A – the gradient represents the BLD component; B – the gradient represents the BLE component; C – the gradient represents the SCL+LEG components; D – the gradient represents the HERB (MEH+DRH) component.

the aridification of west, central and north China can only be explained by a strengthening of the winter monsoon. At the same time, the westerlies may have decreased over north China (Sun 2004). Because the Paratethys had already retreated during the Middle to Late Miocene (Harzhauser & Piller 2007), stronger westerlies would not bring large amounts of water anyway. Our results of a weak winter monsoon during the Late Miocene differ from some local simulation results, which indicate stronger-than-present East-Asian winter monsoon winds during the Tortonian (Tang *et al.* 2011).

Several parameters may affect the strength of the winter monsoon. Orbital forcing, glacial-age surface boundary (ice caps and land-sea boundaries during glaciations), mountain-plateau uplift and the retreat of the Paratethys

Sea can all influence the winter monsoon (Prell & Kutzbach 1992, Ramstein *et al.* 1997, An *et al.* 2001, Zhang *et al.* 2007, Clift *et al.* 2008, Tong *et al.* 2009). The uplift of the Tibet-Qinghai Plateau has been diachronic (Harris 2006, Wang *et al.* 2008). The uplift of the northern margin may only have occurred in the late Cenozoic (Wang *et al.* 2008). Model simulations show that an uplift of the northern part of the Tibetan Plateau causes an important strengthening of the winter monsoon (Liu & Yin 2002). However, an uplift of the Plateau at 3 Ma has not been confirmed by geologists (Molnar 2005, Molnar *et al.* 2010). The strengthening of the winter monsoon during the Pliocene is not the result of Plateau uplift. The retreat of the Paratethys Sea induces a strengthening of the East Asian summer monsoon and

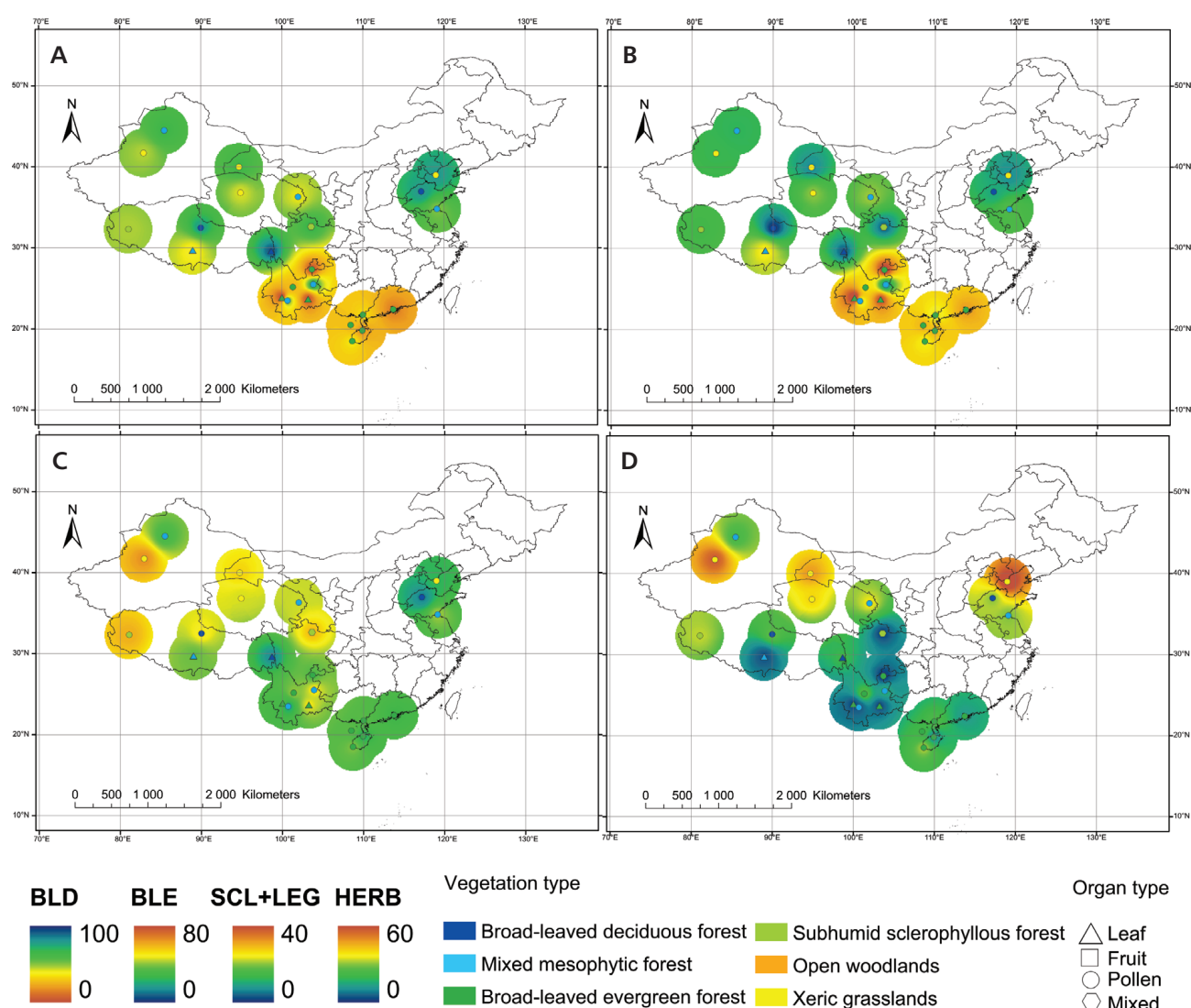


Figure 5. Interpolation of vegetation components during the Late Miocene–earliest Pliocene. The type of organ found in the assemblage is given by the symbol shape; the colour inside the symbol represents the vegetation types. Colour gradients represent the percentage of a component. • A – the gradient represents the BLD component; B – the gradient represents the BLE component; C – the gradient represents the SCL+LEG components; D – the gradient represents the HERB (MEH+DRH) component.

aridification of northwest China (Zhang *et al.* 2007). The Paratethys Sea retreat was almost completed by the end of the Late Miocene (Harzhauser & Piller 2007) and, therefore, cannot be the origin of the winter monsoon strengthening at 3 Ma. In models, a global forcing corresponding to conditions experienced during glaciations show a reduction in precipitation in China (Prell & Kutzbach 1992). The winter monsoon is caused by cold air and high pressure over Siberia in the winter (Ding *et al.* 1995, Chan & Li 2004). The cooling observed on a global scale during the Pliocene (Zachos *et al.* 2001) would have caused cooler temperatures and then higher pressure over Siberia in winter; all this results in a stronger winter monsoon. The cooling in Siberia is demonstrated in the Late Miocene and Pliocene based on

carpological data, and is even more pronounced in winter than in summer (Popova *et al.* 2012).

Aridification during the late Miocene to the Pliocene is marked by an increase in C_4 plants (Jia *et al.* 2003, Kaakinen *et al.* 2006, Passey *et al.* 2009). This is worth noting because the development of C_4 vegetation can enhance an increase in aridity (Hay *et al.* 2002). The spread of C_4 vegetation limits evapotranspiration, and therefore increases aridity, which in turn favors C_4 plants over C_3 plants (Hay *et al.* 2002).

Conclusions

The global cooling trend during the Neogene resulted in

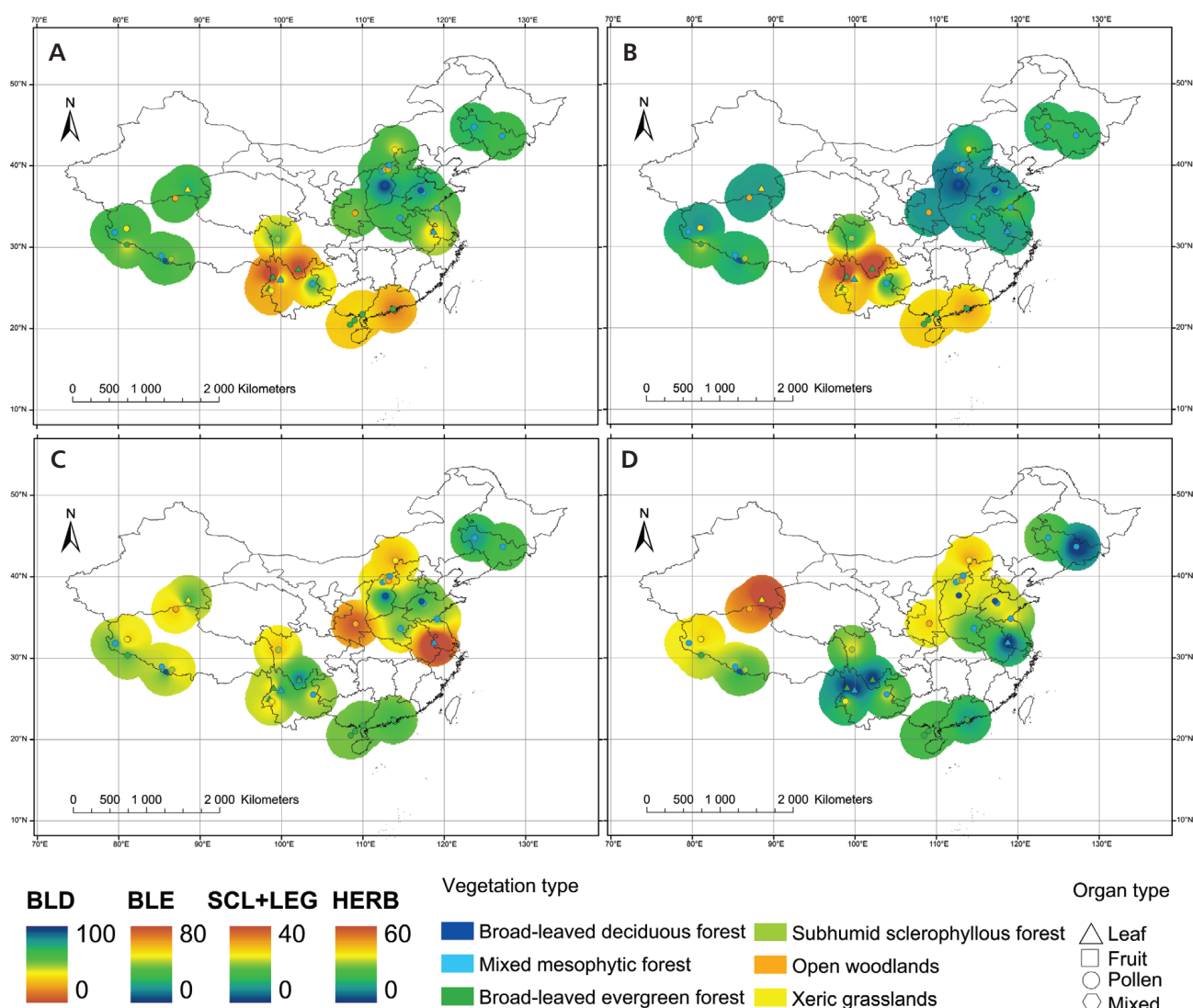


Figure 6. Interpolation of vegetation components during the Pliocene. The type of organ found in the assemblage is given by the symbol shape; the colour inside the symbol represents the vegetation types. Colour gradients represent the percentage of a component. • A – the gradient represents the BLD component; B – the gradient represents the BLE component; C – the gradient represents the SCL+LEG components; D – the gradient represents the HERB (MEH+DRH) component.

an aridification of west, central and north China, as demonstrated by the opening up of the vegetation in these regions. There is no noticeable vegetation change in south China. The Pliocene is then characterised by an increasing contrast in vegetation between south and north China. The Pliocene cooling induced a strengthening of the winter monsoon, which brought aridity to China.

In south China, there is no important change in the vegetation types during the Neogene. The Neogene cooling was less pronounced at low latitudes. The East Asian summer monsoon may have changed less than the winter monsoon.

Our results indicate a decoupling of the evolution of the East Asian summer monsoon and the winter monsoon at least during the Pliocene.

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