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# **Neogene tectonics and climate forcing of carnivorans dispersals between Eurasia and North America**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Exchange records of terrestrial mammals can be combined with available tectonic  
25 and climatic documents to evaluate major biological and environmental events. Previous  
26 studies identified four carnivoran dispersals between Eurasia and North America in the  
27 Neogene, namely, at ~20 Ma, 13-11 Ma, 8-7 Ma, and ~4 Ma. In order to evaluate driving  
28 mechanism of these biological events, we collected, compared and analyzed a large number of  
29 published records. The results indicate that the carnivoran dispersal from Eurasia to North  
30 America at ~20 Ma was probably caused by intense tectonic movements in Asia. During  
31 13-11 Ma, global cooling possibly drove the mammal exchanges between Eurasia and North  
32 America. By comparison, the carnivoran dispersal from Eurasia to North America at 8-7 Ma  
33 was probably caused mainly by the tectonic movements of the Tibetan Plateau. Similar to  
34 during 13-11 Ma, the carnivoran exchanges between Eurasia and North America at ~4 Ma  
35 were possibly driven by global cooling. **The tectonic movements in Asia would change  
36 vegetation growth and thus herbivore distribution, which would drive carnivore dispersal out  
37 of Asia. Global cooling and its induced deterioration of survival environment would bring  
38 more pressure to the mammal fauna in Eurasia than before. In the meanwhile, global cooling  
39 made relatively high latitudes and elevated places unfit for living throughout winter. These  
40 factors prompted the mammal fauna dispersal between Eurasia and North America, which  
41 needs to be examined in the future.**

42

43 **Keywords:** Carnivoran dispersal between Eurasia and North America; Neogene; Climate  
44 change; Tectonic movement; Forcing mechanism

45

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47           Widely distributed terrestrial mammals were highly mobile during the Cenozoic Era.  
48 They exchanged frequently between the mainland commonly corresponding to global and  
49 regional environmental changes, such as significant climate changes, major block  
50 reorganizations, and relevant biogeographic changes (e.g. [Qiu, 2003](#); [Wang et al., 2013](#)). Thus  
51 exchange records of terrestrial mammals can be combined with available tectonic and climatic  
52 documents to evaluate major biological and environmental events, especially about  
53 occurrence time and driving mechanism (e.g. [Flynn and Swisher III, 1995](#); [Eronen and Rook,](#)  
54 [2004](#); [Kohn and Fremd, 2008](#); [Eronen et al., 2012](#); [Wang et al., 2013](#)). However, such study is  
55 usually limited by research advances of both aspects: major exchange events of mammals and  
56 remarkable environmental events.

57           A reliable reconstruction of faunal exchange history depends heavily on solid support  
58 from both the abundant fossil records and a stable classification. As migrants from Eurasia to  
59 America, [Repenning \(1967\)](#) listed 9 genera (*Simocyon*, *Indarctos*, *Agriotherium*, *Plionarctos*,  
60 *Lutravus*, *Eomelivora*, *Plesiogulo*, *Lutra*, and *Machairodus*) from the Hemphillian mammal  
61 faunas and 7 genera (*Lynx*, *Trigonictis*, *Canimartes*, *Enhydra*, *Enhydriodon*, *Ursus*, and  
62 *Chasmaporthetes*) from the Blancan mammal faunas. This is an early attempt though with  
63 some degree of uncertainty. Similar endeavors were made by [Korotkevitch and Topachevskii](#)  
64 [\(1986\)](#) and by [Kurtén \(1986\)](#). Later, [Tedford et al. \(1987\)](#) presented 38 North American  
65 Neogene carnivorans as exotic taxa and most of them were believed to have migrated from  
66 Eurasia. This contributed greatly to our understanding of Neogene mammal faunal exchange

67 history. Furthermore, considerable progress has been made in the carnivoran fossil records  
68 and stable classification since Tedford et al.'s fundamental contribution (Tedford et al., 2004).  
69 Based on published fossil records, Qiu (2003) identified three major carnivoran dispersal  
70 waves of filter-bridge type between Eurasia and North America in the Neogene. The first  
71 occurred at ~20 Ma and the carnivorans migrating from Eurasia to North America included  
72 *Cynelos*, *Ysengrinia*, *Amphicyon*, *Cephalogale*, *Phoberocyon*, *Ursavus*, *Potamotherium*, and  
73 *Proailurus* (Fig. 1). The second wave occurred at 7-8 Ma and the carnivorans migrating from  
74 Eurasia to North America included *Indarctos*, *Agriotherium*, *Simocyon*, *Eomellivora*,  
75 *Plesiogulo*, and *Machairodus*. The last wave took place at ~4 Ma and the Eurasian emigrants  
76 found in North America are *Ursus*, *Parailurus*, *Lynx* (?), *Felis* (?), *Homotherium*, and  
77 *Chasmaporthetes* (Tseng et al., 2013). In the meantime, *Megantereon* and *Pannonictis*  
78 migrated from North America to Eurasia. In addition, at about 13 Ma, *Leptarctus* migrated  
79 from North America to Eurasia while *Sansanosmilus* and *Plithocyon* migrated from Eurasia to  
80 North America (Qiu, 2003; Wang et al., 2003a). Given that Asia and Western North America  
81 became connected by land across the Bering Sea in the Mid-Cretaceous and the continents  
82 remained joined by the Bering land bridge until the Pliocene (Marincovich and Gladenkov,  
83 1999; Sanmartin et al., 2001), these migrating events provide a chance to untangle major  
84 environmental events and palaeogeographic changes during the Late Cenozoic (Fig. 1).

85 Recently, a growing body of advance has been made on uplift of the Tibetan Plateau  
86 and palaeoenvironmental evolution in East Asia during the Late Cenozoic (e.g. Jiang et al.,  
87 2007, 2010; Nie et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010; Jiang and Ding, 2010; Lin et  
88 al., 2010, 2011, 2015; Qiang et al., 2011; Miao et al., 2011, 2012; Nie et al., 2014; Ma and

89 [Jiang, 2015](#); [Xu et al., 2015](#); [Lu et al., 2015](#)). This makes it possible for us to compare and  
90 analyze land mammal exchange events and significant tectonic and climatic events with an  
91 aim to evaluate occurrence timing and driving mechanism of major biological and  
92 environmental events during the Late Cenozoic. Accordingly, in this study, we systematically  
93 collect tectonic and climate records occurring at ~20 Ma, 13-11 Ma, 8-7 Ma and ~4 Ma in  
94 East Asia, and compare with major carnivoran exchange events between Eurasia and North  
95 America. This will help us to gain insight about driving mechanism behind major land  
96 mammal exchange and tectonic and climate evolution in East Asia during the Late Cenozoic  
97 though the Neogene carnivoran (and mammalian) fossil records in Asia are possibly less  
98 complete than those of Europe and North America ([Wang et al., 2013](#)).

99

## 100 **2. Carnivoran dispersal from Eurasia to North America at ~20 Ma** 101 **probably caused by tectonic movements**

102 Evidence for significant exhumation and deformation of the Himalaya-Tibetan Plateau  
103 is widespread during the 25-20 Ma (e.g. [Harrison et al., 1992a](#); [Zhang et al., 2010](#); [Xiao et al.,](#)  
104 [2012](#); [Lu et al., 2015](#)). The onset of exhumation and deformation is also reported at 25-20 Ma  
105 in the Tianshan, Altyn Tagh, Western and Eastern Kunlun regions (e.g. [Jolivet et al., 2001](#);  
106 [Sobel et al., 2006](#)). In order to determine the most significant tectonic event during the  
107 Mid-Tertiary, we review and analyze a number of studies on the tectonic movements in East  
108 Asia ([Fig. 2A and Table 1](#)).

109 Many studies focused on dating the onset of accelerated crustal melting, uplift, and  
110 deformation of the Himalaya and the southern Tibet, commonly centering on ~20 Ma (e.g.

111 Zeitler, 1985; Maluski et al., 1988; Hubbard and Harrison, 1989; Noble and Searle, 1995;  
112 Hodges et al., 1996; Copeland et al., 1996; Arita et al., 1997; Lee et al., 2000; Najman and  
113 Garzanti, 2000; White et al., 2001; Murphy et al., 2002; Tobgay et al., 2012). Sedimentary  
114 records on the basin flanks of the Himalaya and out into the Indian Ocean generally show a  
115 similar change around 20 Ma. About 69% of the Himalayas south of the Indus-Yarlung suture  
116 zone, or about  $6.7 \times 10^6$  km<sup>3</sup>, have been denudated since ~20 Ma (Einsele et al., 1996).  
117 Records of isotopic ratio changes through time provide another window to observe the  
118 significant tectonic or environmental change in Asia around 20 Ma. The steepest rise in the  
119 strontium isotopic ratio ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ) of seawater during the Cenozoic was from 20 to 14.4 Ma  
120 (Hodell et al., 1991; Richter et al., 1992; Hodell and Woodruff, 1994). Similarly, lithium  
121 isotopes in seawater ( $\delta^7\text{Li}_{\text{sw}}$ ) increased abruptly at ~20 Ma, then generally decreased from 20  
122 to 15 Ma (Misra and Froelich, 2012). Hence, the Himalaya and southern Tibet was  
123 significantly uplifted and eroded at ~20 Ma. This conclusion is consistent with a marked  
124 slowdown in the convergence rate between India and Eurasia by more than 40% since 20 Ma  
125 (Molnar and Stock, 2009).

126 Modeling of apatite fission track data from the Songpan-Ganzi Fold Belt suggests that  
127 exhumation accelerated ~20 Ma in East Tibet, consistent with the mid-Tertiary timing inferred  
128 for reactivation of the Wenchuan-Maoxian Fault from zircon fission track data (Arne et al.,  
129 1997). Moreover, ages on the Anning transect suggest an early initiation of rapid cooling (ca.  
130 20 Ma, Clark et al., 2005). Thus significant tectonic movements occurred along the eastern  
131 margin of the Tibetan Plateau at ~20 Ma.

132 Along the northeastern margin of the Plateau, several basins also record significant

133 tectonic changes around 20 Ma, such as the transitions of sedimentary facies in the Lanzhou  
134 and Qaidam Basins (Yue et al., 2001; Qiu et al., 2001; Lu and Xiong, 2009; Lu et al., 2015),  
135 the onset of widespread contractional deformation in the Gonghe Basin (Craddock et al., 2011;  
136 Lu et al., 2012), the initiated deposition of Xunhua Basin (Hough et al., 2011), and the  
137 transition to alluvial facies in the Hualong Basin (Lease et al., 2012). Similarly, basins and  
138 bounding mountain ranges on the northern margin of the Plateau also experienced increased  
139 deformation around 20 Ma, such as an unroofing event in the Western Kunlun range (Mock et  
140 al., 1999; Li et al., 2007, 2008). Thrusting in the southern Tianshan range probably initiated  
141 ~20 Ma (Huang et al., 2006). Even farther north, deformation is also recorded in the Junggar  
142 Basin around 20 Ma (Ji et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2011, 2012).

143 Together, these studies suggest that the most significant tectonic activities along the  
144 northern, the southern, and the eastern margins of the Plateau are temporally synchronous, at  
145 ~20 Ma, perhaps as a regional delayed response to the Indo-Eurasian collision (Sun and  
146 Zheng, 1998; Zhang et al., 2010). In contrast, no obvious climate changes in East Asia are  
147 observed at ~20 Ma. For example, in the Kuche Basin of Xinjiang Province (Figs. 3A and B,  
148 Li et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2006) and the Qaidam basin of Qinghai Province (Figs. 3C-F, Lu  
149 and Xiong, 2009; Lu et al., 2014), Northwest China, most sedimentary proxies do not indicate  
150 a clear climate change at ~20 Ma, with the exception of an  $\delta^{18}O$  increase of the sediments in  
151 the Kuche Basin (Fig. 3B), probably because of provenance change caused by tectonic  
152 activities on the Tian Shan at ~20 Ma (Huang et al., 2006). Widespread deformation in  
153 Central to East Asia was driven by the intense uplift of the Himalaya-Tibetan Plateau at ~20  
154 Ma (Fig. 2A and Table 1). Such a widespread tectonic movement must have had a large

155 impact on the faunal distribution in Asia. On the one hand, the tectonic deformation would  
156 change vegetation growth (Lu et al., 2004a, 2008; Wu et al., 2007; Dupont-Nivet et al., 2008)  
157 and thus herbivore distribution, which would drive carnivore dispersal out of Asia. On the  
158 other hand, the tectonic deformation itself would have changed many faunal habitats and  
159 scared the fauna out of Asia and drove them out of Asia. Compared with Asia at ~20 Ma,  
160 North America seemed relatively quiet in tectonics and thus these fauna just ran from Asia to  
161 North in one way instead in both (Fig. 1).

162

### 163 **3. Mammal exchanges between Eurasia and North America during 13-11** 164 **Ma possibly driven by global cooling**

165 At about 13 Ma, *Leptarctus* migrated from North America to Asia while  
166 *Sansanosmilus* migrated from Eurasia to North America (Fig. 1, Qiu, 2003). At 11.1 Ma  
167 (Garces et al., 1997) or 11.5 Ma (Sen, 1997), *Hipparion* migrated from North America to  
168 Eurasia. In the Linxia Basin, Gansu Province, Northwest China, the average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of  
169 tooth enamel of rhinos shows a large positive shift during 13-11 Ma (Wang and Deng, 2005),  
170 well correlated with the substantial  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  enrichment at 12 Ma from lacustrine carbonates in  
171 the same basin (Dettman et al, 2003). The latter was believed to reflect a shift to more arid  
172 conditions and thus a major reorganization of atmospheric circulation patterns possibly caused  
173 by a significant uplift of the Tibetan Plateau. Such inference was then supported by several  
174 subsequent studies from the Dahonggou section (changes in sedimentation facies and  $\text{SUS}$ ,  
175 Lu and Xiong, 2009), the Wulan section (changes in sedimentation facies and mean  
176 declination, Lu et al., 2012), and the Huaitoutala section (changes in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of lacustrine



177 carbonates, [Zhuang et al., 2011](#)) in the Qaidam Basin. That is to say, these regions in the  
178 northeast Tibetan Plateau did experience significant tectonic movements at ~12 Ma ([Fig. 2B](#)  
179 and [Table 2](#)).

180 Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that the East Antarctic Ice Sheet expanded significantly  
181 since 14 Ma and initiated the Mid-Miocene Climate Transition (MMCT), probably causing a  
182 marked cooling in East Asia during 14-11 Ma ([Fig. 4A](#), [Jiang and Ding, 2008](#); [Miao et al.,](#)  
183 [2012](#)). This aroused a wide curiosity about whether the Tibetan uplift or the global cooling  
184 has been the first-order driver controlling stepwise drying in Asia (e.g. [Jiang et al., 2008](#); [Lu](#)  
185 [et al., 2010](#); [Zhuang et al., 2011](#); [Miao et al., 2012](#); [Lu and Guo, 2014](#)). In order to explore the  
186 evolution of climate through the MMCT, [Jiang et al. \(2007, 2008\)](#) analyzed multiple proxies  
187 from the 2900-m-thick fluviolacustrine sediment sequence at Sikouzi, Ningxia, China, such as  
188 pollen humidity index ([Fig. 4A](#)), redness ([Fig. 4B](#)), Lightness ([Fig. 4C](#)), Susceptibility ([Fig.](#)  
189 [4E](#)), TIC, and TOC. The results indicate that the palaeoclimate in East Asia has got cooler and  
190 drier since 12-11 Ma. This climate change also left imprints in many other regions of the  
191 world, probably linked with the marked expansion of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet and  
192 resultant positive feedbacks of vegetation change and greenhouse gas fluctuations ([Jiang et al.,](#)  
193 [2008](#)). This inference is supported by a good correlation of the thick eolian silt sequences of  
194 Asian drying from the Early Miocene to Late Pleistocene with global cooling ([Lu et al., 2010](#)).  
195 Later, [Zhuang et al. \(2011\)](#) attributed the isotope-constrained intensified aridity in the Qaidam  
196 Basin at 12 Ma to retreat of Paratethys from central Asia, blocking moisture-bearing air  
197 masses by the elevated south-central Tibetan Plateau, and enhanced isolation and outward  
198 growth of the northern Tibetan Plateau. In these contexts, [Miao et al. \(2012\)](#) reviewed the

199 climate records from five separate regions (Europe, high-latitude Asia, East Asia, South Asia,  
200 Central Asia) of Eurasia during 17-5 Ma and compared them with the global deep-sea oxygen  
201 isotope records. The results indicated that compiled moisture proxy data from the four regions  
202 surrounding Central Asia co-varied and correlated with each other (Miao et al., 2012),  
203 supporting the inference that global cooling provided a dominant driving factor for the drying  
204 of Eurasia (Jiang et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2010; Lu and Guo, 2014). Accordingly, global cooling  
205 and its induced deterioration of survival environment brought more pressure to the mammal  
206 fauna in Eurasia than before. Vegetation decline constrained availability of various herbs and  
207 shrubs for the herbivores, presumably having a significant impact on the carnivores' living.  
208 Global cooling made relatively high latitudes and elevated places unfit for living through  
209 winter. These factors prompted the mammal fauna dispersal between Eurasia and North  
210 America. It is noteworthy that mammal fauna dispersal during 13-11 Ma has both directions,  
211 i.e., from Eurasia to North America and from North America to Eurasia (Fig. 1), suggesting  
212 that dispersal pressure probably came from global cooling instead of tectonic movements in  
213 the northeastern part of the Tibetan Plateau. Accordingly, global cooling is believed to have  
214 been responsible for the mammal exchanges between North America and Eurasia during  
215 13-11 Ma.

216 Noticeably, both the climate and tectonic records and the observed mammal fauna are  
217 relatively few in East Asia during the MMCT. With further investigations and more climatic  
218 and tectonic records published in the future, the timing interval of mammal exchange between  
219 North America and Eurasia during the MMCT would be narrower and clearer.

220

221 **4. Carnivoran dispersal from Eurasia to North America at 8-7 Ma probably**  
222 **caused mainly by the tectonic movements of the Tibetan Plateau**

223 The pollen record from Guyuan, Ningxia, China, indicates that the East-Asian summer  
224 monsoon declined significantly from 14.25-11.35 Ma and kept weak since 11.35 Ma (Fig. 4A,  
225 Jiang and Ding, 2008). This is well consistent with marked development of herbs and shrubs  
226 in the vast region north to the Yangtze River of South China during the late Middle to Late  
227 Miocene as synthesized by Jiang and Ding (2009), probably correlated with evident global  
228 cooling caused by significant expansion of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet during the MMCT (e.g.  
229 Woodruff and Savin, 1989; Flower and Kenett, 1994; Ohta et al., 2003; Shevenell et al., 2004;  
230 Zachos et al., 2001, 2008). Following the MMCT, the climate evolution in East Asia during  
231 11-8 Ma is pivotal to understanding the fauna exchange between North America and Eurasia  
232 at 8-7 Ma.

233 In Ningxia Province, the redness ( $a^*$ ) record of the Sikouzi fluviolacustrine sediments  
234 showed a slight decrease from 11 to 8 Ma (Fig. 4B), possibly reflecting a declining oxidation  
235 caused by global cooling (Jiang et al., 2007, 2008). Such a declining oxidation increased  
236 magnetic minerals in the sediments, which is mirrored as a continuous increase of SUS values  
237 from 11 to 8 Ma (Fig. 4E, Jiang et al., 2008). The Sikouzi lightness ( $L^*$ ) record during 11-8  
238 Ma maintained higher values than previously (Fig. 4C), implying high contents of carbonate  
239 in sediments and thus a more arid environment (Jiang et al., 2008). Its slight decreasing trend  
240 from 11 to 8 Ma is possibly related to the evident increase in sedimentation rate during this  
241 period, especially during the late period (Jiang and Ding, 2008). Such inference is confirmed  
242 by an evident increase of SUS during this period (Fig. 4E). Furthermore, the pollen record

243 from the Linxia Basin on the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau indicates that, during  
244 11-8 Ma, the conifers showed a steep decline while the herbs and shrubs increased  
245 significantly (Ma et al., 1998), implying a rapid drying environment. Similarly, the coniferous  
246 pollen in the Qaidam Basin decreased while the xerophytes increased during 11-8 Ma (Miao  
247 et al., 2011), indicating that drying in the Qaidam intensified during this period.

248 Therefore, it is clear that the climate evolution in East Asia during 11-8 Ma is  
249 characterized by slow cooling and gradual drying. This is well correlated with further  
250 enrichment of the integrated  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of marine benthic foraminifera (Fig. 5A, Zachos et al., 2008)  
251 and the significant sea-level fall during this period (Fig. 5B, Haq et al., 1987). Such a global  
252 declining climate during 11-8 Ma probably resulted in stepwise enhancement of the East  
253 Asian winter monsoon (transporting relatively coarse dust particles) and of the westerlies  
254 (transporting relatively fine dust particles), providing important transporting agents and arid  
255 geographic locations for widespread dust accumulation in North China and even the western  
256 Pacific since ~8 Ma.

257 Previous studies indicate that the Tibetan Plateau experienced significant tectonic  
258 movements at ~8 Ma (e.g. Pan and Kidd, 1992; Harrison et al., 1995; Kirby et al., 2002; Fang  
259 et al., 2005; Zheng et al., 2006; Lease et al., 2011; Duvall et al., 2012). As shown in Table 3  
260 and Fig. 2C, we collected 18 records revealing that tectonic movements occurred at 17 sites in  
261 and around the Plateau from 8.5 to 7.5 Ma. They are mainly distributed in the eastern and  
262 northeastern Tibetan Plateau, reaching up to 11 sites. By comparison, only 4 sites of tectonic  
263 movements were observed in the Himalaya and southern Tibet. One location in the northern  
264 Plateau documented tectonic movement at this time. Accordingly, it is speculated that tectonic

265 activities in the eastern and northeastern Plateau generated large quantities of dust materials  
266 since 8.5-7.5 Ma and provided adequate material sources for widespread dust accumulation in  
267 North China and even the western Pacific. This is probably responsible for the significant  
268 increase of eolian deposit from 4 sites during 14-7.5 Ma to 14 sites during 7.5-3.6 Ma in  
269 North China (Lu et al., 2010). Furthermore, at some sites, red clay overlies much older rock  
270 of a different type, such as Lingtai (7.05 Ma, Ding et al., 1998a, 1999), Xifeng (7.2 Ma, Sun  
271 et al., 1998), Jiaxian (8.35 Ma, Qiang et al., 2001), and Chaona (8.1 Ma, Song et al., 2007).  
272 Almost at the same time, both sedimentation rate and mean grain-size of sediments increased  
273 clearly in North China (e.g. Lu et al., 2004b, 2007, Guo et al., 2002; Qiao et al., 2006).

274 Therefore, significant environmental events characterized by widespread dust  
275 accumulation occurred at 7-8 Ma in North China and the western Pacific (e.g. Ding et al.,  
276 1998b; Rea et al., 1998; Sun et al., 1998; Pettke et al., 2000; Guo et al., 2001; Qiang et al.,  
277 2001; Nie et al., 2014). Similarly, such events contain integrated information on global  
278 cooling and significant tectonic movements of the Tibetan Plateau. Because both of them  
279 generated uncomfortable environment for mammal living, they probably contributed to  
280 mammal dispersal between Asia and North America. Importantly, widespread dust  
281 accumulation at 7-8 Ma would significantly change vegetation growth and faunal habitats in  
282 North China, which would bring more pressure to them than before. It is observed that at 7-8  
283 Ma carnivore just dispersed from Eurasia to North America instead in both directions (Fig. 1).  
284 Given that global cooling should have similar impact on both regions, tectonic movements of  
285 the eastern and northeastern Tibetan Plateau at 7-8 Ma should have made a greater  
286 contribution for carnivore dispersal from Eurasia to North America than continuous global

287 cooling as discussed above (Lu et al., 2004a, 2008; Wu et al., 2007; Dupont-Nivet et al.,  
288 2008).

289

## 290 **5. Carnivoran exchanges between Eurasia and North America at ~4 Ma** 291 **possibly driven by global cooling**

292 Previous studies indicate that climate was relatively warm and wet during the Early  
293 Pliocene and declined during the Late Pliocene, especially in East China (e.g. Yu and Huang,  
294 1993; Ding et al., 2001; Guo et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2006; Jiang and Ding, 2009; Xiong et al.,  
295 2010). This arouses a wide interest in the beginning of climate recession during the Late  
296 Pliocene. The grain-size record of the Sikouzi section at Guyuan, Ningxia, China suggests  
297 that Md (median grain size) ranged from 1.6 to 47.1  $\mu\text{m}$  with a low mean value of 10.9  $\mu\text{m}$   
298 during 7.0-4.2 Ma but oscillated with large amplitudes from 2.2 to 401.2  $\mu\text{m}$  (average 31.0  
299  $\mu\text{m}$ ) during 4.2-0.07 Ma (Fig. 4D, Jiang and Ding, 2010). Similarly, the Sikouzi SUS curve  
300 oscillated slightly (2.6-22.4, mean 12.7) during 7.0-4.2 Ma. Since 4.2 Ma, the amplitudes  
301 increased abruptly (1.0-31.6, mean 14.0) with a distinct increase from 4.2 to 3.0 Ma, probably  
302 reflecting enhancement of magnetite concentration in sediments influenced by temperature  
303 decline and aridity increase (Fig. 4E, Jiang et al., 2008). The Sikouzi  $L^*$  value was generally  
304 less than 61.6 (52.8-65.7, mean 59.8) during 7.0-4.2 Ma and higher than 61.6 (56.7-67.6,  
305 mean 62.4) during 4.2-0.07 Ma, possibly indicating an increase in carbonate content and thus  
306 growing aridity of the sedimentation environment (Fig. 4C, Jiang et al., 2008). The Sikouzi  
307 redness ( $a^*$ ) was generally high (8.1-12.9, mean 10.5) during 7.0-4.2 Ma and decreased  
308 distinctly (8.0-13.2, mean 10.1) during 4.2-0.07 Ma, possibly implying a stepwise decrease in

309 temperature influencing the oxidation of iron-bearing minerals in arid to semi-arid regions  
310 (Fig. 4B, Jiang et al., 2007, 2008). These records and their inferred climate changes have  
311 similar responses for the Lingtai section (Ding et al., 1998a, 2001; Sun et al., 1998), the  
312 Xifeng section (Guo et al., 2001, 2004; Wu et al., 2006), the Chaona section (Bai et al., 2009),  
313 and the Baishui section (Xiong et al., 2002, 2003, 2010) in the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP).

314         What's more, the climate change at ~4 Ma also left imprints in the low-latitude South  
315 China Sea (SCS) and the high-latitude Lake Baikal. The  $L^*$  of sediments at ODP Site 1148 in  
316 the northern SCS was high (41.2-58.0, mean 50.3) during 7.0-4.0 Ma and declined distinctly  
317 (54.8-35.2, mean 44.5) since 4.0 Ma, suggesting a decrease in carbonate content, increase in  
318 terrigenous sediments and a lowering of sea level controlled by global cooling (Hay et al.,  
319 1988; Tian et al., 2008). This inference is supported by the benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record of the same  
320 core (Tian et al., 2008) and the grain-size record at ODP Site 1146 (Wan et al., 2007).  
321 Similarly, oscillating amplitude of the grain-size record of core BDP98 (600 m) from  
322 Academician ridge (53°44'40"N, 108°24'30"E) in central Lake Baikal was much smaller  
323 during 7.0-4.0 Ma and increased afterwards, especially after 2.75 Ma (Kashiwaya et al., 2001,  
324 2003). This climate recession since ~4 Ma in the Northern Hemisphere agrees well with the  
325 stepwise enrichment of the integrated global  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record of marine benthic foraminifera since  
326 ~4 Ma (Fig. 5A, Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005; Zachos et al., 2008), and is also correlated with  
327 strengthened periodicity of sea-level fluctuations since ~4 Ma (Fig. 5B, Haq et al., 1987; Nie  
328 et al., 2008).

329         In general, the above data suggest that Late Cenozoic global climate probably entered  
330 a new state at ~4 Ma. The factor responsible for this significant climate shift deserves further

331 investigation. As shown in [Fig. 2D](#) and [Table 4](#), the change in depositional facies and increase  
332 in sedimentation rate of the Yecheng section in the western Kunlun Mountains reflects the  
333 main uplift of the northwestern Tibetan Plateau ca. 4.5-3.5 Ma ([Zheng et al., 2000, 2006](#)).  
334 Nevertheless, more studies indicate that the Tibetan uplift subsequent to ca. 3.6 Ma was  
335 intense, such as the upper reaches of the Yellow River ([Li et al., 1996, 1997](#)), the Linxia Basin  
336 ([Fang et al., 2005](#)), the Guide Basin ([Pares et al., 2003](#)), the Guyuan Basin ([Jiang et al., 2007](#);  
337 [Jiang and Ding, 2010](#)), and the Sanmenxia Basin ([Wang et al., 2002](#)). Regional  
338 unconformities at ~4 Ma are observed in the Great Plains and western United States  
339 ([Hanneman et al., 2003](#); [Hanneman and Wideman, 2006](#)). However, all of these apparently  
340 could not explain the increases in sedimentation rates as well as in grain sizes of sediments at  
341 4-2 Ma in a variety of settings around the globe ([Zhang et al., 2001](#)). Increase in erosion rates  
342 caused by global cooling is a major feature of environmental changes in various regions  
343 around the globe at ~4 Ma ([Zhang et al., 2001](#); [Jiang et al., 2010](#)). Recently, climate modeling  
344 results suggest that the progressive closure of the Central American Seaway (CAS) initiated  
345 strengthening of Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) between 4.8 and 4.0 Ma,  
346 leading to both warming of the Northern Hemisphere (NH) and cooling of the Southern  
347 Hemisphere (SH) ([Steph et al., 2010](#)). The SH cooling would induce a marked development  
348 of the Antarctic Ice Sheets at ~4 Ma, pushing the Intertropical Convergence Zone northward.  
349 This was superimposed on the NH warming and brought more precipitation to the NH middle  
350 latitudes, resulting in increases in coarse-grained sediments in the Guyuan Basin since 4.2 Ma  
351 ([Jiang et al., 2010](#)). On the other hand, development of the Antarctic Ice Sheets would induce  
352 global cooling and enhancement of physical weathering, initiating increases in sedimentation



353 rates as well as increases in grain size from Lake Bikal to the CLP to the SCS (Jiang et al.,  
354 2010). Therefore, the CAS closure during 4.8-4.0 Ma and its influence on ocean circulation  
355 was possibly the major forcing factor for global cooling since ~4 Ma. Like described above,  
356 such global cooling since ~4 Ma possibly exerted a great pressure on the mammal living in  
357 the NH, especially in the sensitive mid-latitude regions. It not only had a great impact on  
358 growth of herbs and shrubs and consequently on continuous living of herbivore, but also  
359 made it impossible for mammal fauna in high latitudes and elevated regions to live through  
360 winter. Given that such global cooling since ~4 Ma had a similar impact on Eurasia and North  
361 America, mammal fauna dispersed from Eurasia to North America as well as from North  
362 America to Eurasia (Fig. 1). Hence, global cooling since ~4 Ma should be responsible for  
363 carnivoran exchanges between Eurasia and North America.

364

## 365 **6. Conclusion**

366 Previous studies identified four carnivoran dispersals between Eurasia and North  
367 America in the Neogene, namely, at ~20 Ma, 13-11 Ma, 8-7 Ma, and ~4 Ma. In order to  
368 evaluate driving mechanism of these biological events, we collected, compared and analyzed  
369 a large number of published records. The results indicate that the carnivoran dispersal from  
370 Eurasia to North America at ~20 Ma was probably caused by intense tectonic movements in  
371 Asia. During 13-11 Ma, global cooling possibly drove the mammal exchanges between  
372 Eurasia and North America. By comparison, the carnivoran dispersal from Eurasia to North  
373 America at 8-7 Ma was probably caused mainly by the tectonic movements of the Tibetan  
374 Plateau. Similar to during 13-11 Ma, the carnivoran exchanges between Eurasia and North

375 America at ~4 Ma were possibly driven by global cooling.

376

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383

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## 908 **Figure Caption**

909 Fig. 1. Migration events of Neogene carnivorans between Eurasia and North America,  
910 adapted from [Qiu \(2003\)](#).

911 Fig. 2. Distribution of published sites within and around the Himalaya-Tibetan Plateau  
912 discussed in this study for 4 time intervals of 20 Ma, 13-11 Ma, 8 Ma and 4 Ma,  
913 detailed information referring to [Table 1](#) through [Table 4](#) and text.

914 Fig. 3. Comparison of (A)  $a^*$  ([Li et al., 2006](#)) and (B) SUS of the Kuche Basin in Xinjiang  
915 Province ([Huang et al., 2006](#)) with (C) SUS ([Lu and Xiong, 2009](#)), (D) quartz content  
916 ([Lu et al., 2014](#)), (E) feldspar content ([Lu et al., 2014](#)), and (E) lithic fragments ([Lu et al.,](#)  
917 [2014](#)) of the Qaidam Basin in Qinghai Province, Northwest China.

918 Fig. 4. Comparison of (A) pollen humidity index ([Jiang and Ding, 2008](#)), (B) redness ( $a^*$ ,  
919 [Jiang et al., 2007](#)), (C) lightness ( $L^*$ , [Jiang et al., 2008](#)), (D) median grain-size ( $Md$ ,  
920 [Jiang and Ding, 2010](#)), and (E) susceptibility (SUS, [Jiang et al., 2008](#)) from the Sikouzi  
921 section at Guyuan, Ningxia Province, China.

922 Fig. 5. Correlation of (A) the composite oxygen isotope curve from [Zachos et al. \(2008\)](#) and  
923 (B) the Neogene sea-level record from [Haq et al. \(1987\)](#).

924 Table 1. Locations of 20 sites with significant tectonic and/or environmental events around

925 ~20 Ma.

926 Table 2. Locations of 27 sites with significant tectonic and/or environmental events at ~13-11

927 Ma.

928 Table 3. Locations of 20 sites with significant tectonic and/or environmental events at 8.5-7.5

929 Ma.

930 Table 4. Locations of 8 sites with significant tectonic and/or environmental events around ~4

931 Ma.

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