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The role of paleogeography in Asian monsoon evolution: a review and new insights from climate modelling

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Key Points:

- Modern Asian monsoonal characteristics appeared sequentially during the Cenozoic, driven by distinct paleogeographic and climatic forcing factors.
- Model results depict monsoon-like precipitation seasonality in parts of Southern and Eastern Asia since the Paleogene.
- Monsoon-like rainfall regime in Paleogene eastern Asia is triggered by the proto-Tibetan Plateau uplift.
- Increasing continentality, due to the retreat of the Paratethys Sea and the emergence of the Arabian Platform above sea level, are instrumental in the establishment of surface temperature gradients that promote moist air advection from the Indian Ocean towards Asia in summer.
- The Anatolian-Iranian and East African landforms contribute to reinforcing the Somali Jet that brings moisture to Southeastern Asia in summer.
- The uplift of the Mongolian Plateau drives the formation of the Siberian High in winter, which broadly reinforces the East Asian winter monsoon and induces aridification of the Gobi region.
- The uplift of the Tian Shan and Pamir mountain ranges blocks the westerly moisture flux, forces the northward migration of the Jet Stream in summer, and enhances inland Asian aridification. Their effect on the South Asian monsoon is likely dependent on the paleoelevation of neighboring landforms, especially the Anatolian-Iranian Plateau.
- Additional constraints on the respective timing of uplift and paleoelevation are key to improving our understanding of monsoon establishment.

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Abstract

The Asian monsoons are triggered by complex interactions between the atmosphere, Asian and African orography, and the surrounding oceans, resulting in highly seasonal climate and specific regional features. It was thought that the Asian monsoon was established during the Neogene, but recent evidence for monsoon-like precipitation seasonality occurring as early as the Paleogene greenhouse period challenges this paradigm. The possible occurrence of monsoons in a climatic and paleogeographic context very different from the present-day questions our understanding of the drivers underpinning this atmospheric phenomenon, in particular with regard to its dependence on geography. In this study, we first take advantage of the wealth of new studies to tentatively draw an up-to-date picture of Asian tectonic and paleoenvironmental evolution throughout the Cenozoic. We then analyze a set of 20 paleoclimate simulations spanning the late Eocene to latest Miocene ($\sim$ 40-8 Ma) in order to better understand the evolution of the distinct Asian monsoon subsystems. At odds with the traditional view of a monsoonal evolution driven mainly by Himalayan-Tibetan uplift, our work emphasizes the importance of peripheral mountain ranges in driving the evolution of Asian climate. In particular, the uplift of East African and Anatolian-Iranian mountain ranges, as well as the emergence of the Arabian Peninsula, contribute to shaping the modern South Asian summer monsoon. We also suggest that East Asian monsoon establishment and the aridification of inland Asia are driven by a combination of factors including increasing continentality, the orographic evolution of the Tibetan Plateau, Mongolia, Tian Shan and Pamir, and $p\mathrm{CO}_2$ decrease during the Cenozoic.

1 Introduction

The South and East Asian monsoons (SAM and EAM) are highly seasonal climatic phenomena that today support the livelihoods of billions of people. During summer, the Arabian Platform and the Southern Asian continent overheat compared to adjacent Indian and Western Pacific Oceans. These continental masses become the locus of a wide low pressure belt, leading to a regional amplification of the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) seasonal latitudinal migration, and to the formation of the Somali Jet along the East African coast (Fig. 1). This strong cross-equatorial flow steers low-level moist air from the Indian Ocean to the Asian continent and triggers nutrient-rich upwelling in the western Arabian Sea (Schott & McCreary, 2001; Lévy et al., 2007; Curry et al., 1992). Over the Bay of Bengal, this large scale circulation splits into two branches (SI Fig. 14 f). First, the Indo-Gangetic Low Level Jet (Acosta & Huber, 2017) bifurcates towards northern India and drives important orographic precipitation on the Himalayan foothills during the South Asian summer monsoon (SASM). The second branch continues towards eastern Asia (SI Fig. 14 f) and ascends over northwesterly air masses related to the Jet Stream in the subtropics (Kong et al., 2017; Molnar et al., 2010; Sampe & Xie, 2010), forming the Meiyu-Bayu front, a band of strong convective precipitation stretching from Myanmar to Japan, characterizing the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) (Ninomiya & Shibagaki, 2007). The front progressively migrates northward during spring and summer, following the Jet Stream's seasonal displacement relative to the Tibetan Plateau (TP): it is located south of the TP in winter and moves to its northern edge in summer (Schiemann et al., 2009). In winter, the temperature and pressure gradients between the Asian continent and the neighboring oceans reverse, as a consequence of the lower troposphere strong radiative cooling over snow-covered Asia (Jeong et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2001; Jhun & Lee, 2004). The Siberian High, a wide anticyclone, develops over the Mongolian Plateau (L. Wang & Chen, 2014) (SI Fig. 14 j), flanked by two oceanic low pressure centers, the Aleutian Low (over the Northwestern Pacific Ocean), and the Maritime Continent Low (over the equatorial Western Pacific Ocean). The East Asian winter monsoon (EAWM) results from these pressure patterns, which drive the advection of cold, dry and dust-laden air masses from inland Asia to Eastern and Southern Asia (Fig. 1).

The spectacular extent and intensity of the Asian monsoons, combined with the highly dynamic tectonic context of the region, have triggered a lot of interest within the scientific community, in order to understand potential links between orography, land-sea distribution and Asian climate evolution. The Asian monsoons have long been viewed as an atmospheric phenomenon intimately intertwined with the Himalayan-Tibetan Plateau uplift history (e.g. Molnar et al., 1993; Zhisheng et al., 2001; Tada et al., 2016; X. Liu, Guo, et al., 2015). Records of strong upwelling initiating in the Arabian Sea at ∼8 Ma (Kroon et al., 1991) and, later, evidence for important dust deposition on the Chinese Loess Plateau since ∼22 Ma (Guo et al., 2002) have rooted the origin of the Asian monsoons in the Neogene. However, a wealth of recent studies challenge this paradigm. Aeolian dust deposits in northeastern Tibet, as well as paleobotanical and isotopic data indicating a seasonal climate in Myanmar and China (Licht et al., 2014; Sorrel et al., 2017; Fang et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2018; Y. Xie et al., 2022) have been interpreted as evidence for an active monsoon as early as the late Eocene (see Fig.2 for a summary of available paleoclimate indicators). A potential Paleogene origin for the Asian monsoons questions the traditional view of monsoon development in relation to the Himalayan-Tibetan Plateau uplift history. First, because the Paleogene exhibited a generally warmer and ice-free climate compared to the Neogene (Westerhold et al., 2020). And second, because most modern Asian mountain ranges were in the early stages of their uplift history, and Asian continentality was lower due to the presence of the Paratethys Sea to the west (Kaya et al., 2019) and higher global sea level (see late Eocene paleogeography in Fig. 3 a).

Climate modeling provides a unique opportunity to individually test the effect of each potential forcing factor on the resulting climate. For instance, model studies have overall tended to highlight that paleogeography out-competes global pCO_2 variations or far-field ice-sheet effects in driving the initiation and intensification of the SAM and EAM over multi-million years time scales (e.g. Farnsworth et al., 2019; J.-Y. Lee et al., 2015; Zoura et al., 2019; Roe et al., 2016; Thomson et al., 2021), independently of the model complexity, resolution, or type of geography (derived from modern or more realistic paleogeography). Sensitivity experiments of increasing complexity and resolution have helped disentangle the effect of the Himalaya-Tibet (and its sub-units) uplift from that of peripheral landforms, such as the Tian Shan ranges, the Anatolian-Iranian orogen, or the Eastern African and Mongolian landforms (H. Tang et al., 2013; Acosta & Huber, 2020; R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017), and from the effect of changes in land-sea distribution (Fluteau et al., 1999; Z. Zhang et al., 2007). While modeling studies provide a mechanistic basis to test potential drivers for monsoons and aridity, robust knowledge of the timing and evolution of paleogeography and paleoclimate remains of paramount importance to understanding the complex Cenozoic history of Asian monsoons. The past decade has been rich in both modeling and field studies, with for example the extension of marine sediment cores back to the Paleogene in the oceans surrounding Asia (see synthesis by Clift et al. (2022)), the increased coverage of well-dated terrestrial paleoclimate indicators from the Asian continent, and new constraints on Cenozoic tectonic and paleoclimate evolution in Asia.

In this contribution, we build upon previous work (Sarr et al., 2022; Tardif et al., 2020; Barbolini et al., 2020) to provide a comprehensive spatial and temporal picture of large-scale wind circulation, precipitation seasonality, and aridity in continental Asia from the late Eocene to the late Miocene, using up-to-date paleoclimate simulations. In the following sections, we first synthesize Asian monsoon history, as understood from proxy and modeling perspectives, and highlight the remaining outstanding questions (section 2, Fig. 2). Then, we compile a summary of the main paleogeographic events that affected continental Asia and the regions surrounding the Indian Ocean during the Cenozoic (section 3). We further introduce the late Eocene to late Miocene paleogeographic configurations used to run the climate model (Fig.3), as well as the criteria used to track Asian monsoon evolution throughout the different simulations (section 4). Our modeling results are analyzed and discussed in light of current knowledge.

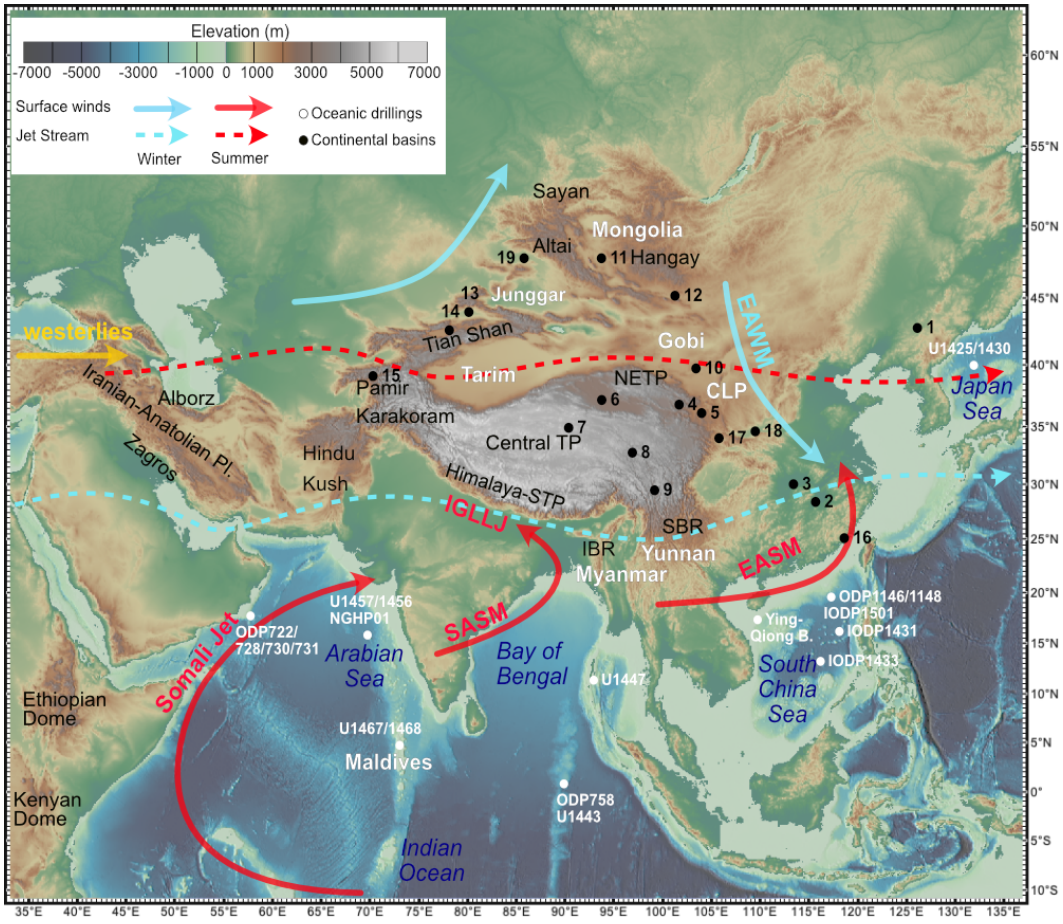

Figure 1. Asian orography (www.geomapapp.org), landforms (black labels), geographical regions (white labels), basins, oceanic drilling sites and seasonal winds, with the following abbreviations: EAWM - East Asian winter monsoon, SASM - South Asian summer monsoon, EASM - East Asian summer monsoon, IGLLJ - Indo-Gangetic Low Level Jet, STP - Southern Tibetan Plateau, NETP - Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, IBR - Indo-Burman Ranges, SBR - Sino-Burman Ranges, CLP - Chinese Loess Plateau. Numbered localities: (1) Huadian B., (2) Qingjiang B., (3) Jianghan B., (4) Xining B., (5) Lanzhou B., (6) Qaidam B., (7) Hoh Xil B., (8) Nangqian B., (9) Markam B., (10) Bayanhot B., (11) Valley of Lakes, (12) Taatsin Gol, (13) Ili B., (14) Issyk Kul B., (15) Tajik B., (16) Zhangpu, (17) Tianshui B., (18) Weihe B., (19) Zaysan B.

2 Evidence for increasingly old Asian monsoons

The classical view of Asian paleoenvironmental evolution during the Cenozoic proposes a transition from a Paleogene "zonal climatic pattern" to a Neogene "monsoonal climatic pattern" (Guo et al., 2008; X. Sun & Wang, 2005; Jia et al., 2003; F. Wu et al., 2022). The zonal pattern is described as a widespread arid to semi-arid band stretching across China and bracketed in its southern and northern borders by two humid belts, whereas the monsoonal pattern consists of a core of pronounced aridity in the Asian interior, surrounded by monsoonal (seasonally wet) climate on its southern and eastern edges. This view is mostly based on paleoclimate proxy compilations (e.g. Boucot et al. (2013)) used to infer either humid (coal, indicators of forested environments, large mammals, etc.) or semi-arid to arid (evaporites, desert and shrub environments, etc.) conditions. Recent evidence for a highly seasonal climate in India, Myanmar and China as early as the Eocene, at least 20

Ma earlier than previously documented, nevertheless challenges this paradigm. This section comprehensively reviews the broad paleoenvironmental changes inferred from paleoclimate indicators in Asia from the late Eocene to the late Miocene, which are compiled in Figure 2 (upper part). Localities and basins mentioned throughout the text are detailed in Figure 1.

2.1 Eocene to Oligocene paleoenvironmental evolution

2.1.1 A progressive increase in summer monsoon indicators

The oldest evidence for strongly seasonal rainfall in Southern Asia comes from northwestern Indian early Eocene floras (Shukla et al., 2014; Bhatia, Khan, et al., 2021), as well as from mid-late Eocene ($\sim$ 40 Ma) floras and isotopic measurements in freshwater gastropod shells and mammal tooth enamel found in Myanmar (Licht et al., 2014; H. Huang et al., 2021). Both regions were however located between 0-10°N at this time (Shukla et al., 2014; Westerweel et al., 2019), and such precipitation seasonality is therefore mainly interpreted as a pronounced seasonal ITCZ migration rather than a monsoonal climate. Further east, in the Yunnan region (Southwestern China), which is today subject to a mixture of SAM and EAM influence, a shift from arid/semi-arid to humid environments is recorded during the late Eocene and interpreted as the onset of the Asian monsoon (Sorrel et al., 2017; Fang et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2022). This climate transition is inferred by the presence of coal layers, a transition from xerophytic to mixed forest pollen assemblage, a change in lithology interpreted as lake and swamp expansions, as well as the occurrence of fossils of freshwater fish and large mammals. A seasonally wet monsoonal climate is also inferred from isotopic measurements in gastropods shells (Fang et al., 2021). The exact timing of this paleoenvironmental change is still debated between 41 and 35.5 Ma, but it nevertheless predates the Eocene-Oligocene Transition (EOT, $\sim$34 Ma). The proposed driving mechanisms of this regional climate shift involve either a threshold response to Tibetan Plateau elevation (Zheng et al., 2022), a side effect of the Paratethys Sea retreat in the west (that would have allowed more moisture penetration from the ocean) (Fang et al., 2021), or the global climate cooling initiated in the Middle Eocene and subsequent sea surface temperature changes (Sorrel et al., 2017).

Evidence for the presence of an EASM during the Eocene is also debated. In eastern China, paleovegetation mostly points to warm, humid and weakly seasonal evergreen forested environments close to the coast (Spicer et al., 2016; X. Ma et al., 2012; Pound & Salzmann, 2017), except for late Eocene floras from Huadian (Meng et al., 2018) and Qingjiang Basins (Y. Xie et al., 2022), situated in northeastern and eastern China respectively, that already indicate highly seasonal rainfall. Further inland, towards the eastern TP, a gradual transition from humid to subhumid and/or seasonally dry paleoenvironments is suggested by botanical evidence (Han et al., 2022; Q. Li et al., 2022) and sedimentary records from various basins displaying an alternation of mudstone and evaporite deposits (D. Wang et al., 2013; Abels et al., 2011). High resolution deposits from the Jianghan Basin spanning the mid-Eocene to early Oligocene ($\sim$40-34 Ma) (C. Huang & Hinnov, 2019) show that the penetration of moisture into eastern China in the late Eocene was likely strongly modulated by orbital forcing. These pieces of evidence suggest that the classical Paleogene wet/dry zonal climatic pattern (Guo et al., 2008; X. Sun & Wang, 2005) was already periodically disturbed in the late Eocene, preceding the more widespread appearance of monsoon-like precipitation seasonality in the Oligocene.

Evidence for increased rainfall seasonality during the Oligocene to early Miocene becomes more common in floras from both China (X. Ma et al., 2012; Herman et al., 2017; Vornlocher et al., 2021; J. Ren et al., 2021; Miao et al., 2013; Ling et al., 2021; S. Li et al., 2018; C. Huang & Hinnov, 2019; H. Tang et al., 2020) and India (Bhatia, Khan, et al., 2021; Spicer et al., 2017; Srivastava et al., 2012). Additionally, paleoceanographic records from the adjacent Bay of Bengal and South China Sea have been used to track the SAM and EAM evolution from the middle Oligocene onwards. Records from the Ying-Qiong Basin

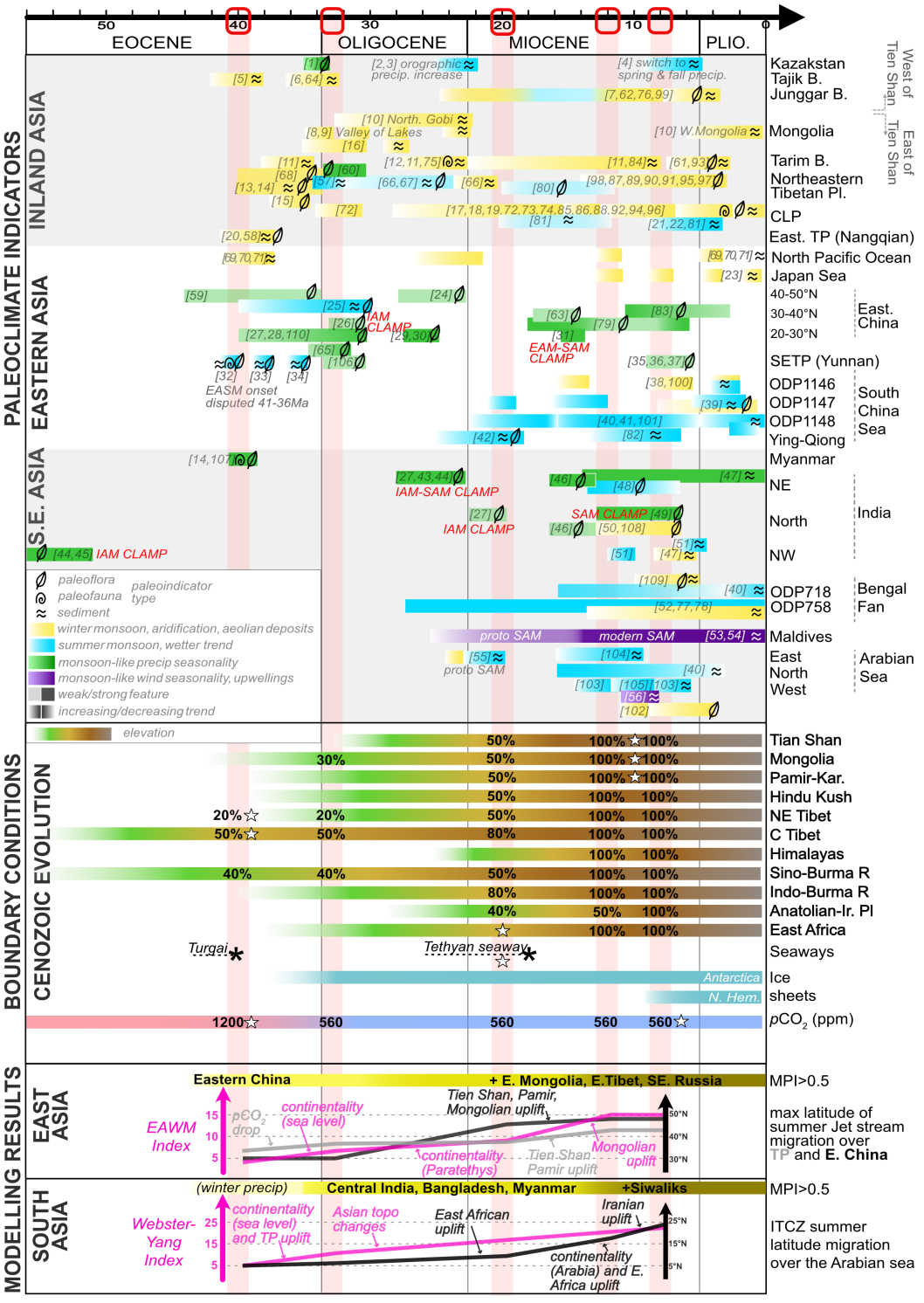

Figure 2. **upper** Paleoclimate trends recorded in Asia. Bibliographic references in brackets are listed in SI Table 3 ; **center** Evolution of main landforms, seaways, ice sheets and pCO_2 during the Cenozoic overlain with values used in our reference simulations (elevations expressed in % of modern). White stars indicate parameters that were tested in the sensitivity experiments discussed in the text; **bottom** Overview of the main monsoon indicator evolution computed from simulations presented in this study. We use the following abbreviations: NETP (SETP) - Northeastern (Southeastern) Tibetan Plateau, CLP - Chinese Loess Plateau.

(South China Sea) show an increase in terrigenous organic matter influx together with a higher proportion of tropical-subtropical angiosperm pollen at ∼25 Ma, interpreted as a sign of increasing EASM intensity (W. Ding et al., 2021). In the Bay of Bengal (ODP Site 758), the radiogenic isotopic composition of clays indicates relatively constant weathering patterns over the last 27 Ma, and by inference stable SASM activity since at least the late Oligocene (S. Ali et al., 2021).

2.1.2 Late Eocene aridification in response to the Paratethys Sea retreat and global climate cooling

Markers of subhumid to arid climate are widespread in inland Asia in the Eocene, with many basins (e.g. Xining, Hoh Xil, Qaidam and Tarim) recording pollen assemblages characteristic of a steppe-desert environment (Q. Yuan et al., 2020; Miao, Wu, et al., 2016; X. Ma et al., 2012). During the mid-late Eocene (∼40-34 Ma), inland Asia evolves towards even drier conditions, as suggested by increased proportions of xerophytic plants such as *Nitraria* and *Ephedra* in eastern and northeastern Tibet and in the Tarim Basin (Q. Yuan et al., 2020; Barbolini et al., 2020; Hoorn et al., 2012; Miao, Wu, et al., 2016), $\delta^{18}O$ measurements on oyster shells in the Tarim Basin (Bougeois et al., 2018), decreasing saline lakes in the Xining Basin (Abels et al., 2011), reduced chemical weathering observed in the Qaidam and Xining Basins (Fang et al., 2019), $\delta^{2}H$ isotope analyses on sedimentary leaf waxes *n-alkanes* in the Qaidam Basin (M. Wu et al., 2021) and lipid biomarkers and carbon isotopic compositions from bulk sediments in the Nangqian Basin (J. Wei et al., 2022). The presence of detrital material identified as Asian dust in sediments from the central North Pacific (GPC3 and ODP Site 1215) since ∼40 Ma also likely indicates the presence of dry conditions on land (Pettke et al., 2002; D. Rea et al., 1985; Ziegler et al., 2007).

This late Eocene aridification episode could result from a reduced westerly moisture input following two successive Paratethys Sea regression phases from the Tarim and the Tajik Basins between ∼41-37 Ma (Carrapa et al., 2015; J. Sun et al., 2020, 2022; Bougeois et al., 2018; Bosboom et al., 2014b; Kaya et al., 2019). High resolution sedimentary records, such as those of the Xining Basin (northeastern Tibet), exhibiting good correlation between wetter saline lake deposits during Paratethys Sea transgressions (Meijer et al., 2019; Bosboom et al., 2014a), confirm the key role played by the westerlies and the Paratethys Sea as a major moisture source for inland Asia in the Eocene. Additionally, the strong obliquity cyclicity imprinted on Xining evaporite/mudflat alternations in the late Eocene (40-34 Ma), coeval with the appearance of loess-like dusts in the alluvial mudflats (Meijer et al., 2021; Licht et al., 2014), hint at a marked influence of high latitude dynamics (incipient polar ice-sheets, variations in the Siberian High intensity) on winter inland Asian climate at that time (Abels et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2010; Meijer et al., 2021).

2.1.3 Oligocene climate evolution and inception of modern Asian deserts

In the early Oligocene, a few sites situated within the westerly moisture area display increased humidity, recorded by $\delta^{18}O$ isotopic measurements in pedogenic carbonates in the Tarim and western Qaidam Basins (Kent-Corson et al., 2009), together with $\delta^{2}H$ measurements in leaf waxes (M. Wu et al., 2021). Leaf fossil CLAMP analysis (Climate Leaf Analysis Multivariate Program (Feng & Poulsen, 2016; Wolfe, 1993; Jacques, Su, et al., 2011)), further suggest a rather wet (but not monsoonal) rainfall regime in western Qaidam (Song et al., 2020). On the other hand, evidence for a drier climate is reported within the EAM domain by $\delta^{18}O$ isotopic measurements in pedogenic carbonates from eastern Qaidam (Y. Sun et al., 2020; Kent-Corson et al., 2009) and in Lanzhou Basin in the Chinese Loess plateau area (B. Li et al., 2016). CLAMP analysis on fossil leaves in the Lanzhou (Miao et al., 2013) and southeastern Tibetan Markam Basin (T. Su, Spicer, et al., 2019) advocate for an increased (and monsoon-like) precipitation seasonality due to the TP uplift. Interpretations for this climatic trend in eastern China suggest that it may indicate either decreased EASM rainfall due to global cooling after the EOT (M. Wu et al., 2021) or increased winter

aridity due to the Paratethys Sea retreat and/or to global sea level fall after the EOT (B. Li et al., 2016).

In Inner Mongolia (Taatsin Gol region), δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C isotopic measurements in pedogenic carbonates indicate aridification since the early Oligocene (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014) and possible loess occurrence as early as ∼34 Ma (J. Sun & Windley, 2015). Proposed mechanisms for this drying involve increased continentality due to Paratethys Sea retreat at 34 Ma (J. Sun & Windley, 2015) and an early Hangay Dome uplift that would have acted as a barrier to moisture advection from Siberia to Mongolia as early as the Oligocene (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014). However, high resolution records reveal several pulses of aridification at ∼34-33, ∼31, ∼28 and ∼23 Ma, coeval with periods of ice-sheet expansion, suggesting that these cooling phases were likely the main drivers of Mongolian hydrological dynamics (Baldermann et al., 2021). Further south, in the Gobi region (Bayanhot Basin), two bursts of aridification inferred from environmental magnetic, mineralogical and geochemical data at ∼31 and ∼28 Ma further hint at an influence of high latitude ice-sheet fluctuations on Mongolian Oligocene climate (Wasiljeff et al., 2022).

In the mid to late Oligocene, eolian dust deposits are documented in three major sites (see Meijer et al. (2021) for a review), namely the Chinese Loess Plateau, from ∼29 Ma onwards (Garzione et al., 2005; Qiang et al., 2011), the Tarim Basin at ∼27-22 Ma (Zheng et al., 2015), and the Junggar Basin at ∼24 Ma (J. Sun et al., 2010). Aridification is also inferred from δ^{18}O isotopic measurements in oysters and pedogenic carbonates from the Tarim Basin at ∼25 Ma (Bougeois et al., 2018; Kent-Corson et al., 2009) and from isotopic records in stromatolites from the Junggar Basin, loosely dated to the early Miocene (W. Yang et al., 2019). This second step of aridification is coeval with δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C isotopic measurements from pedogenic carbonates suggesting increased orographic precipitation in the Issyk Kul and Ili Basins, both situated on the western side of the Tian Shan ranges (Hellwig et al., 2018; Macaulay et al., 2016). Collectively, these observations are interpreted as an indication of an uplift episode of the Tian Shan-Pamir ranges, which would have started shielding the Tarim and Junggar Basins from westerly moisture input and favored their aridification (Bougeois et al., 2018; W. Yang et al., 2019). This late Oligocene to early Miocene aridification of the Asian interior is also depicted in several oceanic records, where an increase in dust mass accumulation rate is recorded in the Pacific at ∼25 Ma (Site GPC3) (D. K. Rea, 1994; Pettke et al., 2002) and at ∼22 Ma (ODP Site 1215) (Ziegler et al., 2007). A reduction in $\Delta\delta^{13}$C coeval to an increase in bulk sediment Mn/Fe and Mn/Ti and foraminiferal Mn/Ca in the eastern Arabian Sea at ∼23 Ma (NGHP01 Site), reflecting an increase in water column mixing and ventilation, are considered as further evidence for the existence of a proto winter monsoon wind system (Beasley et al., 2021).

2.2 Evolution of seasonal and regional monsoons in the Neogene

The better coverage in both continental and marine records in the Neogene allows drawing a more precise picture of monsoon evolution during the Late Cenozoic. This section reviews the many pieces of evidence which now tend to support a scenario of diachronous evolution of regional monsoons, with a decoupling between summer and winter seasons as well as between monsoon-like precipitation seasonality and monsoon-like wind circulation establishment.

2.2.1 Neogene South Asian monsoon variations

The occurrence of monsoon-like rainfall seasonality in the eastern SAM domain is attested to by relatively constant isotopic composition of clays derived from silicate weathering since ∼27 Ma in the central Bay of Bengal (ODP Site 758) (S. Ali et al., 2021). Middle Miocene (∼13 Ma) plant macrofossils from northeasternmost India (Arunachal Pradesh) also attest to modern-like rainfall seasonality at that time (Khan et al., 2014). In Yunnan, the disappearance from the fossil record of *Metasequoia*, a plant whose modern descendant

is intolerant to dry winters, may further attest to a SAM rainfall seasonality intensification after the middle Miocene (L. Wang et al., 2019). On the other hand, plant macrofossils and pollen from the northwestern SAM domain (Nepal, northwestern India and Pakistan) show a progressive vegetation shift from evergreen to deciduous forests from the middle to the latest Miocene, and finally to C4 grasslands (Hoorn et al., 2000; Bhatia et al., 2022; Bhatia, Srivastava, et al., 2021; Srivastava et al., 2018; Tauxe & Feakins, 2020; Vögeli et al., 2017; Sanyal et al., 2004). This vegetation change is also recorded in bulk sediments, leaf waxes, pollen and macrofossils in the Arabian Sea at ∼8-7 Ma (ODP Site 722 and IODP Site U1457, (Feakins et al., 2020; Y. Huang et al., 2007; Clift et al., 2022)), and in the Bengal fan at ∼7-6 Ma (ODP Sites 717/718, (Polissar et al., 2021)).

Chemical weathering and sediment accumulation rates from both the Indus Fan and the Bay of Bengal suggest that SASM precipitation reached a maximum in the middle Miocene (∼16-10 Ma) before declining between ∼8-3 Ma (Clift et al., 2008, 2019; Zhou et al., 2021). This has been suggested to reflect an intensification of the SAWM (S. Ali et al., 2021), possibly concomitant with a weakening of the SASM (J. Lee et al., 2020). Wind proxies also point to the presence of a seasonal wind reversal, and corroborate the existence of a winter monsoon since the middle Miocene. In the Arabian Sea, an increased relative abundance of the foraminifera *Globigerina Bulloides* in the sediments was initially used to infer an intensification (or an onset) of the SASM wind circulation at ∼8 Ma (Kroon et al., 1991), based on the assumption that stronger monsoonal winds would translate into stronger upwelling activity. Those records have since been extended back in time (Bialik et al., 2020; Zhuang et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2015) and combined with the analysis of current-controlled drift sediments and geochemical tracers from the Maldives archipelago (Betzler et al., 2016). These new studies now point to the establishment of a proto SAM wind circulation in the late Oligocene (∼25 Ma), and of its reinforcement in the middle Miocene (∼13-10 Ma) (Betzler et al., 2016; Zhuang et al., 2017; Bialik et al., 2020). Strong SAM wind circulation since at least 10 Ma is also supported by export productivity and sediment accumulation patterns from records in the southern Bay of Bengal (IODP Site U1443) (Bolton et al., 2022), together with clay mineralogy in the Andaman Sea (IODP Site 1447) (J. Lee et al., 2020) and isotopic and chemical analyses on sediments in the eastern Arabian Sea (IODP Site 1456) (Tripathi et al., 2017)). An intensification of the SAM in the late Miocene (∼8-7 Ma) has also been inferred based on an increase in percent in *G. Bulloides* and Total Organic Carbon content in sediments from Oman margin (Gupta et al., 2015) but remains debated, as it is not observed in all paleoceanographic records from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal (Bolton et al., 2022; Tripathi et al., 2017; Betzler et al., 2016; Y. Huang et al., 2007).

2.2.2 East Asian Summer Monsoon evolution in the Neogene

Summer precipitation typical of the EASM likely occurred throughout the Neogene, as shown by records from the South China Sea such as weathering indices (Clift et al., 2008, 2014), δ^{13}C measurements in black carbon (Jia et al., 2003), pollen, biomarkers, kerogen maceral composition and clay mineralogy (W. Ding et al., 2021). On land, δ^{18}O values from paleosol carbonates in the Chinese Loess Plateau (Suarez et al., 2011) and most Chinese paleobotanical and palynological data suggest summer precipitation amounts comparable to modern (Q. Wang et al., 2021; Yao et al., 2011; Xing et al., 2012; Hui et al., 2021; B. Wang et al., 2021; Q.-g. Sun et al., 2002). Many localities nevertheless point to wetter winters due to weaker winter monsoons until the late Miocene (Q. Wang et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2022), except for the mid-Miocene Zhangpu biota flora (southeastern China), whose CLAMP signature shows affinities with EAM and SAM floras, thus suggesting adaption to modern-like rainfall seasonality (B. Wang et al., 2021). A warm and wet period has been identified during the Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum (∼17-14 Ma) in both continental as well as oceanic records and was likely less seasonal than during the rest of the Miocene (Clift et al., 2022). The penetration of EASM moisture would have reached as far as the Qaidam Basin, as suggested by lotus fossils (Luo et al., 2022), increased abundance of *Fupingopollenites*, an

extinct palynomorph highly dependent on summer moisture (Miao, Song, et al., 2016), and characterization of iron oxides from the Chinese Loess Plateau (H. Zhao et al., 2020). This warm and wet mid-Miocene climate peak is also inferred from chemical weathering proxies and indicators of stronger physical erosion and fluvial input measured in sediments from the South China Sea at 15-12 Ma (Clift et al., 2014), and from δ^{13}C in black carbon at 15 Ma (Jia et al., 2003).

The variations in EASM intensity during the late Miocene and Pliocene remain controversial in both continental and marine records, with variations in the suggested timing of changes (Clift et al., 2022). A decline in EASM intensity induced by decreasing pCO_2 after the Mid-Miocene Climate Optimum is suggested by weathering, paleoceanographic indices and pollen from the South China Sea (ODP Site 1146) (Clift et al., 2014; Holbourn et al., 2021, 2018; Miao et al., 2017; G. Wei et al., 2006), as well as pollen records from the Liupan Mountains (North China) (Jiang & Ding, 2008). On the other hand, in the South China Sea, late Miocene EASM intensification is inferred from δ^{18}O and Mg/Ca derived records of surface and sub-surface water characteristics (IODP Site U1501) (C. Yang et al., 2021) and by black carbon δ^{13}C (Jia et al., 2003). In China, wetter conditions during the latest Miocene are suggested by mineralogical, chemical and magnetic analysis of sedimentary deposits in the Chinese Loess Plateau (Ao et al., 2016, 2021; H. Zhao et al., 2020), pollen records from the Tianshui (Hui et al., 2021) and the Weihe Basins (L. Zhao et al., 2020), and by fossil wood, mammals and fish in the Qaidam Basin (Cheng & Yang, 2016; X. Wang et al., 2007). EASM intensification at this time is usually attributed to global warming (Ao et al., 2021; H. Wang et al., 2019) and/or to Neogene TP uplift phases (Hui et al., 2021; X. Ren et al., 2020; H. Zhao et al., 2020).

2.2.3 Miocene-Pliocene aridification pulses in response to regional uplift

Throughout the Miocene, dust deposition continued in the Chinese Loess Plateau (Guo et al., 2002; Meijer et al., 2021), Tarim-Taklimakan (Kent-Corson et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2015; Heermance et al., 2018) and Junggar Basins (J. Sun et al., 2010). After a phase of relatively wetter conditions during the Mid-Miocene Climate Optimum (see section 2.2.2), a pronounced step-wise aridification was then recorded in most of inland Asia until the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Lu et al., 2010; Lu & Guo, 2014; Z.-H. Tang & Ding, 2013). The timing of aridification pulses varies depending on the region and is attributed to either northeastern TP uplift (Miao et al., 2012), Altai and Tian Shan mountain uplift (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014, 2017) and/or to late Miocene cooling (Lu et al., 2010; Lu & Guo, 2014; Peng et al., 2016). In the eastern part of inland Asia, encompassing the Chinese Loess Plateau, central China and northeastern TP, data provide strong evidence for aridification, including pollen and biomarkers documenting a step-wise transition from a sub-humid to an arid environment starting at ∼15 Ma (J. Liu et al., 2016; Miao et al., 2011; Jiang & Ding, 2008; Peng et al., 2016), massive grassland expansions at ∼11-7 Ma (Suarez et al., 2011; Barbolini et al., 2020; Y. Ma et al., 2005; L. Zhao et al., 2020; H. Wang et al., 2019), widespread eolian dust deposition at ∼8-7 Ma (X. Ma & Jiang, 2015; Guo et al., 2002; Qiang et al., 2011; B. Li et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2017), increased δ^{18}O of pedogenic carbonates and terrestrial mammal tooth enamel at ∼14-13 and ∼7-5 Ma (B. Li et al., 2016; Kent-Corson et al., 2009; M. Wu et al., 2021; W. Liu et al., 2014; Y. Sun et al., 2020; Kaakinen et al., 2006; Y. Wang & Deng, 2005), *n*-alkane analysis from Qaidam sediments since 13 Ma (Z. Liu et al., 2014) and the dominance of cold-aridiphilous mollusks in the Chinese Loess Plateau from 7-5 Ma (F. Li et al., 2008). The Tarim and Junggar Basins also provide multiple evidence for mid to late Miocene aridification, such as increased proportions of xerophytic plants and grass pollen at ∼7-5 Ma (J. Sun et al., 2010; J. Sun & Zhang, 2008; J. Sun et al., 2008; Z. Zhang & Sun, 2011; Barbolini et al., 2020), massive aeolian deposition in the western Tarim Basin at ∼12-7 Ma (Heermance et al., 2018) and the permanent drying of lakes in the eastern Tarim Basin at ∼5 Ma (W. Liu et al., 2014). The pedogenic carbonate δ^{18}O records of these regions nevertheless offer diverging patterns of evolution, that have tentatively been explained by their locations with respect to the Tian

Shan and Altai mountains (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017). Records from regions today lying upwind of the Tian Shan and Altai mountains, such as the Issyk Kul (Macaulay et al., 2016), Junggar (Charreau et al., 2012) and Zaysan Basins (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017) exhibit a decline in δ^{18}O between 10-5 Ma, which has been interpreted as a shift to spring/fall precipitation following the uplift of the Altai and Tian Shan mountains (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017). Perennial lake formation in the windward Ili Basin (Kazakhstan) at ∼10 Ma may further attest that the Tian Shan ranges acted as an orographic barrier for westerlies moisture input (Frisch et al., 2019). On the other hand, records from the Tarim Basin, situated downwind of the Tian Shan ranges, display δ^{18}O trends similar to those of the Qaidam Basin (Kent-Corson et al., 2009) with increased values since ∼15 Ma peaking at ∼7-5 Ma and which are interpreted as indicating aridification at that time.

EAWM intensification is also recorded in the South China Sea at ∼15-12, ∼8-5 and ∼3 Ma, based on increased black carbon accumulation (whose transportation to the sea would be favored by stronger winter winds) (Jia et al., 2003), planktic and benthic δ^{18}O records and mixed layer temperatures (Holbourn et al., 2021, 2018), and clay mineralogy and grain size analysis (Wan et al., 2007). In the Sea of Japan, clay mineral assemblages and isotopic analyses of the silicate fraction covering the last 15 Ma suggest a step-wise drying of Central Asia at 12, 8 and 3.5 Ma (Shen et al., 2017). A sea surface temperature drop of ∼8 °C recorded between 8-6.6 Ma (IODP Site U1425) is further interpreted as a sign for a marked EAWM intensification (Matsuzaki et al., 2020). At approximately the same time (8-4 Ma), an analysis of aluminosilicate end-member contributions shows a shift from a Taklimakan source to a Gobi-Chinese Loess Plateau source in dust exported to the Sea of Japan (Site U1430), suggesting changes in winter wind circulation patterns, or in the extent of these deserts (Anderson et al., 2020). Further east, in the North Pacific, a relative increase in Asian dust is also recorded at ∼10 and ∼4 Ma (D. Rea et al., 1985; Pettke et al., 2002).

2.3 Assessing monsoon forcing factors through climate models

The major drivers of long-term monsoonal variability are topography, land-sea distribution and global climate variations. Attributing a specific change to one or several of these factors is nevertheless complicated because they may co-vary, produce non-linear responses with potentially opposite effects, and are sometimes poorly dated or quantified. Modeling experiments, initially utilizing present-day geographies and boundary conditions, have enabled a better understanding of the role played by these different forcing factors in shaping the regional monsoons.

2.3.1 Topographic influences on the South and East Asian monsoon with present-day geography

The TP has long been considered instrumental in driving the Asian monsoonal circulation and precipitation, due to its elevated heated surface in summer acting as a "heat pump" driving the convergence of the surrounding air masses, in particular the ITCZ conveying moisture from the Indian Ocean (Kutzbach et al., 1993; Zoura et al., 2019; Molnar et al., 1993; G. Wu et al., 2012). While the presence of the TP would indeed play a key role in the EASM establishment, with the heating of the Plateau inducing a cyclonic circulation anomaly promoting the advection of moist air masses towards Eastern Asia (Z. Zhang et al., 2007; H. Tang et al., 2013; R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; G. Wu et al., 2012), several studies suggest that the orographic thermal forcing of the Plateau is not as important as previously thought for the SAM establishment. Instead, the physical barrier created by the topography would insulate the high moist static energy air (warm wet air masses) from the tropics from the low moist static energy air (cold dry air) brought by the westerlies and induces abundant orographic precipitations in northern India, through steering and forced ascension of moist air masses (Boos & Kuang, 2010, 2013; Acosta & Huber, 2020). Although the debate between a thermal versus mechanical role for TP on atmospheric flow

is still ongoing, a consensus emerged for the need of having an energetic-based framework to study monsoon mechanisms at all timescales (Biasutti et al., 2018), and integrate them within the planetary scale circulation dynamics (Rodwell & Hoskins, 1996). The condensation of moisture in these ascending air masses leads to important latent heat release in the high troposphere over northern India, which acts as a positive feedback sustaining summer convection and precipitation in South Asia (He, 2017). On the other hand, the large-scale advection of the ITCZ over Asia in late spring and early summer is essentially driven by surface ocean-continent temperature gradients and resulting pressure patterns (Acosta & Huber, 2020; Merlis et al., 2013). Additionally, numerical simulations show that such enhanced migration of the summer ITCZ is scaled to Asian continental extent, and was likely weaker in the past, when conditions of higher sea level and the presence of the Paratethys Sea prevailed and translated into surface temperature gradients different from today (Z. Zhang et al., 2007).

Smaller orographic features have also been shown to play a critical role in shaping and strengthening both the SAM and EAM. The East African highlands, positioned in the path of the ITCZ flow, impact both African and South Asian climate (Bannon, 1979; Rodwell & Hoskins, 1995; Sepulchre et al., 2006). Recent studies have specifically demonstrated that the East African highlands contribute greatly to the strengthening and concentration of the Somali Jet, but that their absence would result, somewhat counter-intuitively, in higher summer precipitation over the SAM region due to increased advection directly from the ocean to the continent (H.-H. Wei & Bordoni, 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2009). This last aspect hints that strong upwelling in the Arabian Sea, related to a strong Somali Jet, may not always be positively correlated with heavy rainfall on land. The Anatolian-Iranian landforms, by channeling the Somali Jet and insulating it from the subtropical dry westerly flow, greatly contribute to enhancing moisture transport towards India and eastern Asia (Acosta & Huber, 2020; He, 2017; H. Tang et al., 2013). Additionally, the orographic precipitation observed over smaller Asian landforms, for example the Indian Ghats or the Indo-Burman ranges, have been shown to promote moisture advection and enhanced precipitation in adjacent regions located windward, especially over the Arabian Sea, Bay of Bengal and South China Sea (S.-P. Xie et al., 2006).

The effect of the Pamir, Tian Shan and northeastern TP uplifts on the SAM remains unclear. When these landforms are uplifted together with the Mongolian Plateau, a decrease in precipitation is simulated over India (H. Tang et al., 2013). On the other hand, increased rainfall is simulated in India while testing Pamir, Tian Shan and northeastern TP uplift but maintaining a low Mongolian Plateau (R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; R. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Cheng, & Zhang, 2017), highlighting potential counter effects of those mountains on the Asian climate. The Pamir, Tian Shan and Mongolian landforms are also perfectly situated in the mid-latitudes to interfere both dynamically and thermally with planetary-scale atmospheric circulation. Numerical simulations show that their uplift enhances aridity in inland Asia (modern Gobi and Taklimakan deserts) and reinforces the EAWM circulation patterns (X. Liu & Yin, 2002; X. Liu, Sun, et al., 2015; Baldwin & Vecchi, 2016; Sato, 2009; R. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Cheng, & Zhang, 2017). By creating a cold pool and deviating the westerlies towards northern Siberia, the Mongolian orography has been proposed to be responsible for the northward migration of the subtropical Jet Stream in summer (White et al., 2017; Shi et al., 2015; Sha et al., 2020), and for most of the Siberian High location and intensity in winter (Sha et al., 2015; R. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Cheng, & Zhang, 2017).

2.3.2 Modeling experiments using paleogeographic reconstructions

Modeling studies based on present-day geographies are limited in the extent to which they allow us to understand past changes, especially for periods when very different geographies prevailed. Paleoclimate simulations using presumed "realistic" paleo-boundary conditions are however rarer, because they usually entail high computational cost and require important background knowledge of past boundary conditions (paleogeography, CO_2,

solar constant, ice-sheet volume). Such modeling experiments confirm that increasing Asian continentality during the Oligocene and the Miocene, either due to the Paratethys Sea retreat and/or global eustatic sea level fall, is a key driver of increased moisture advection towards Asia in summer (Fluteau et al., 1999; Ramstein et al., 1997; Z. Zhang et al., 2014; Sarr et al., 2022). Under Oligocene conditions, the uplift of the peripheral Tian Shan, Pamir and northeastern portions of the TP has also been shown to promote inland Asian aridity, in contrast to the sole uplift of the central TP (R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017). Under late Eocene conditions, the latitude at which the proto TP uplifts significantly and non-linearly impacts East Asian climate; an uplift in the tropics (∼11°N) induces precipitation on the TP foothills but aridification in most of China, whereas an uplift at its modern latitude (∼26°N) increases moisture advection to eastern China and aridification in inland Asia (R. Zhang et al., 2018).

Paleoclimate modeling offers a contrasted view regarding Eocene climate, with some studies that simulate the presence of monsoonal climates at that time (Huber & Goldner, 2012; Licht et al., 2014; Z. Zhang et al., 2022), and others that do not (Tardif et al., 2020; Z. Zhang et al., 2012; R. Zhang et al., 2018). Discrepancy among simulations can be attributed to many differences in model structure, resolution, parametrization and setting of boundary conditions, among which the choice of paleogeographic reconstruction is a key aspect. Indeed, many features of Eocene paleogeography remain highly controversial, such as the height of the incipient Tibetan topography, the shape of the Indo-Asian collision zone, the height of peripheral landforms, or the land-sea distribution. Paleoclimate modeling has nevertheless emphasized the importance of geography, rather than pCO_2 variations or far-field ice-sheets effects, as the main driver of both SAM and EAM establishment and intensification on long time scales (Farnsworth et al., 2019; Thomson et al., 2021). Accurate paleogeographic constraints as well as a higher number of sensitivity experiments in a paleo framework are therefore needed, and this is what we intend to contribute with this study.

2.4 Summary: a diachronous establishment of SAM and EAM seasonal features, the influences of geography and topography and remaining uncertainties

The past decade has welcomed a large amount of new data based on fossil material and sedimentary archives, both onshore and offshore. The onset of the SAM, EASM and EAWM and their evolution are now clearly shown to be diachronous and is tightly linked to the evolution of land-sea distribution, topography and global climate over long time scales. Some questions, nevertheless, remain to be answered. First, it is unclear whether Paleogene records of highly seasonal precipitation at low latitudes (<20°N) describe a monsoon in the strict sense, given that no wind proxies currently exist for this period and that Eocene paleoclimate modeling studies propose widely diverging scenarios. CLAMP paleobotanical analyses provide interesting insights on this point. They generally show that, although strong precipitation seasonality is likely present since the Paleogene in broad parts of Southeastern Asia (Bhatia, Khan, et al., 2021; Spicer et al., 2017; Herman et al., 2017), leaves did not develop the morphological features characteristic of plants growing in present-day SAM or EAM regions until the middle Miocene (∼13 Ma) (Spicer et al., 2017; Bhatia, Srivastava, et al., 2021). Instead, Paleogene Asian floras display a signature typical of the regions dominated by the ITCZ seasonal migration, also referred to as the Indonesian-Australian monsoon. The reorganization from an ITCZ-dominated to a monsoonal wind circulation pattern may have initiated in the Oligocene (∼28-23 Ma, Fig. 2), according to fossils from northeastern India exhibiting a mixture of SAM and ITCZ leaf signatures (Spicer et al., 2017). These typical monsoonal signatures in floras were likely driven by a combination of both biotic and abiotic factors, although the CLAMP method is unable to disentangle the forcing factors responsible for these specific signatures. They do, however, add to the body of evidence suggesting that precipitation seasonality may have been established prior to typical monsoonal wind circulation.

Second, although modeling studies have started to explore the effects of localized mountain ranges on Asian climate in a paleo context, there is plenty of room for improvement. For example, the climatic impact of these landforms have often been investigated simultaneously in a single climate simulation (e.g. the uplift of the Tian Shan and Mongolian orogens), though the main uplift episodes of these landforms may not be coeval (see section 3.1.2). Various hypotheses remain to be tested, such as identifying the drivers of the Siberian High development, and its impact on inland Asian aridity. Indeed, the presence of loess-like deposits since the Eocene in the Xining Basin were tentatively explained by the presence of an active Siberian High at that time (Meijer et al., 2021; Licht et al., 2014). This questions whether the Tian Shan and/or Mongolian orogens are as important for this wide anticyclone as predicted by modeling experiments, since these landforms are thought to have uplifted later, in the Oligocene to late Miocene (see section 3.1.2). In addition, the notion of elevation thresholds is a key point to tackle, as strongly non-linear responses of atmospheric circulation with respect to this parameter are expected. These considerations highlight the need for an accurate representation of Asian paleogeographic evolution in order to better understand monsoon history over long time-scales.

3 Cenozoic paleogeographic evolution

Although presenting a full literature review of paleogeographic evolution throughout the Cenozoic for the whole region of interest is outside the scope of this study, this section aims at providing an overview of the main features and persistent uncertainties regarding the paleogeographic evolution during the Cenozoic in our region of interest. This allows us to justify which sensitivity tests were performed on specific geographic units (Fig. 3), further introduced in section 4.2.1.

3.1 Indo-Asia collision and Asian topography evolution

The initiation of the Indo-Asian collision, marking the closure of the Neotethys Ocean, is dated around ∼58 Ma based on sedimentological and paleomagnetic evidence (van Hinsbergen et al., 2019; Ingalls et al., 2016). The morphology of the *Greater India* portion (i.e. northern India) before the collision remains unclear. Depending on the collision scenario considered (see Kapp and DeCelles (2019); Poblete et al. (2021); J. R. Ali and Aitchison (2005) for reviews), it is represented as fully emerged (Ingalls et al., 2016; C. Wang et al., 2014), partially flooded or divided into two blocks separated by an oceanic basin until the middle-late Eocene (van Hinsbergen et al., 2012, 2019; W. Huang et al., 2015). From the Eocene onwards, the progressive migration of India to the north, its indentation into the Asian continent, and its counterclockwise rotation (Molnar et al., 2010) trigger widespread orographic changes in Asia, which are summarized below. The most important of these events is the TP and Himalayas uplift, and the growth of peripheral mountain ranges such as the Pamir, Tian Shan and the Mongolian Plateau.

3.1.1 Himalayas-Tibetan Plateau uplift history

The early uplift history of the Tibetan Plateau is highly debated. Oxygen isotope paleoaltimetry studies suggest that the Gangdese (Southern TP, Lhasa terrane) and Qiangtang mountains (Central TP) were already as high as ∼4000-5000 m during the early Eocene (Rowley & Currie, 2006; L. Ding et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2013; Xiong et al., 2020; C. Wang et al., 2014). The robustness of this method is however questioned by isotope-enabled climate models, which demonstrate that factors other than elevation affect the $\delta^{18}O$ precipitation signature, including air mass provenance, climate, or water recycling (Poulsen & Jeffery, 2011; Botsyun et al., 2016). A revised TP paleo-elevation of most likely lower than ∼3000 m in the Oligocene has therefore been suggested (Botsyun et al., 2019). The presence of frost-intolerant fossil flora assemblages in the central TP in the middle Eocene (T. Su et al., 2020) and late Oligocene (T. Su, Farnsworth, et al., 2019), as well as clumped isotope mea-

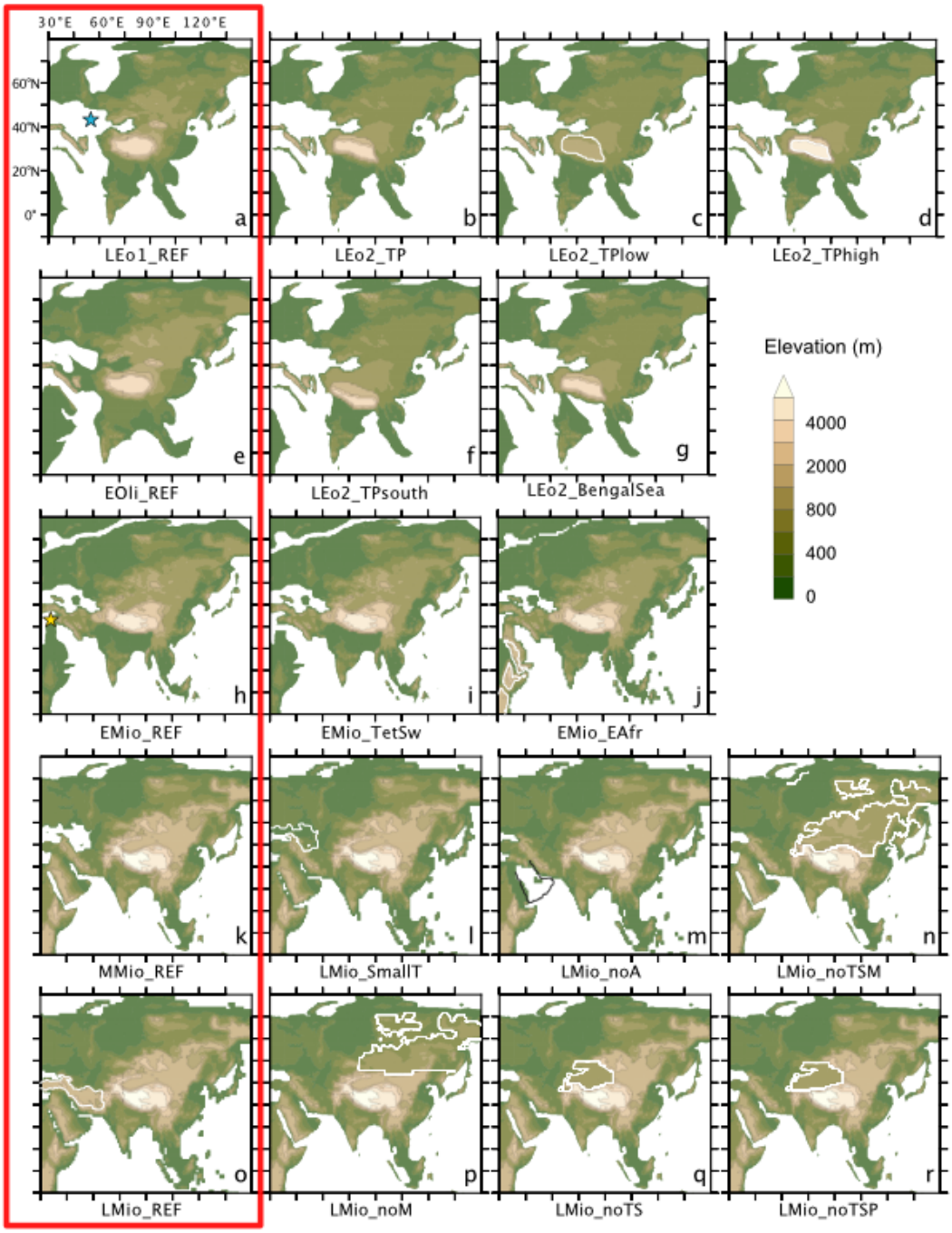

Figure 3. Paleogeographic configurations used in this study for the reference experiments (red box) and alternative configurations used for sensitivity tests. Blue star in (a) highlights the Paratethys Sea location, yellow star in (h) highlights the location of the Tethyan Seaway.

surements (Xiong et al., 2022) advocating for a subtropical climate in this region, also seem incompatible with a TP exceeding 4000 m. Therefore, a more complex morphology for this proto TP has been proposed, suggesting the presence of a low-elevation (∼1500 m) valley dividing the almost fully uplifted (∼3000-4000 m) Lhasa and Qiangtang terranes until the late Oligocene (T. Su, Farnsworth, et al., 2019; Xiong et al., 2020; Spicer et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2022). In the periphery of the proto TP, data collected from different basins offer contradictory interpretations. In southeastern Tibet, at the extremity of the Qiangtang terrane, paleo-elevation calculated using the CLAMP method suggests that the Markam Basin was already high in the late Eocene (∼3000 m) and could have reached its modern elevation (∼3900 m) by the earliest Oligocene (T. Su, Spicer, et al., 2019). Alternately, paleo-elevation based on oxygen isotopic measurements of the nearby Jianchuan Basin (part of the same terrane) could not have exceeded ∼1200 m in the late Eocene (Gourbet et al., 2017). The northern TP is proposed to have remained relatively low (<2000 m) in the Eocene, before uplifting in the Oligocene or the early Miocene, based on isotopic paleoaltimetry from the Hoh Xil Basin (C. Wang et al., 2014). An early uplift of the northeastern TP has been proposed as early as the late Eocene by increased coniferous pollen proportion in the Xining Basin (Hoorn et al., 2012), although global cooling and the Paratethys Sea retreat may also have promoted coniferous trees expansion in this region, without uplift (Barbolini et al., 2020).

The history of the TP build-up from the Miocene onwards is less controversial. The Central TP is thought to have reached modern elevation by the early Miocene, while the northern TP uplift was completed by the late Miocene (C. Wang et al., 2014). Stratigraphy and detrital zircon analyses indicate that the western TP (Pamir-Karakoram-Hindu Kush) may have undergone several phases of uplift between the mid-Eocene to latest Miocene (Bershaw et al., 2012; L. Li et al., 2021; Blayney et al., 2016; Carrapa et al., 2015; D. Liu et al., 2017). Finally, the Himalayas start uplifting in the early Miocene (∼20 Ma) and reach their modern elevation by the mid-late Miocene (∼15 Ma) (Gébelin et al., 2013; L. Ding et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2018; C. Wang et al., 2014; Webb et al., 2017).

3.1.2 Inland Asia and Myanmar mountain building

Asian terranes located in the vicinity of the Himalaya-TP complex are impacted by the Indo-Asian collision. In Myanmar, the Indo-Burman ranges built up in a three-step process, in the late Eocene, at the Oligo-Miocene boundary and Pliocene respectively (Najman et al., 2020; Morley, 2018; Maurin & Rangin, 2009; Westerweel et al., 2020; Licht et al., 2018), as a result of the progressive indentation of the Burma block into the eastern Himalayan collision zone. The Sino-Burman Ranges, which inherit old landforms from previous collisions between Indochina and Sibumasu terranes (Metcalfe, 2013), experienced major uplift in the mid-late Miocene (∼13-9 Ma) (Cook & Royden, 2008; Clark et al., 2005), as a result of the eastward expansion of the Tibetan Plateau by crustal flow.

North of the TP, the collision propagates through reactivated pre-existing tectonic structures and triggers the uplift of the inland Asian orogenic belt: the Tian Shan and the Mongolian (Altai, Hangay and Sayan) landforms (Jolivet et al., 2010). The southwestern and Central Tian Shan uplift initiation is very loosely constrained, either in the middle to late Miocene (∼15 Ma, (Käßner et al., 2016)) or during the late Oligocene to early Miocene (∼25 Ma) (Bande et al., 2017; Macaulay et al., 2016, 2014; D. Liu et al., 2017). The northeastern Tian Shan, together with the Sayan and Altai regions (in western Mongolia), likely remained quiescent until the late Miocene (Bullen et al., 2003; Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017). After a pulse of uplift in the latest Miocene (∼8 Ma) for the whole Tian Shan, Sayan and Altai mountains (W. Yuan et al., 2006; Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017; Charreau et al., 2005), regional landforms probably reached their modern elevation after a final Pliocene uplift phase (∼5-3 Ma, (Bullen et al., 2003; Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014; De Grave et al., 2007, 2009; Jolivet et al., 2007; Vassallo et al., 2007)). The Hangay Dome uplift (in central Mongolia) began in the mid-Oligocene (Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014; Cunningham, 2001),

but the date of completion of the uplift remains debated, either in the mid-Miocene (∼13 Ma, (Smith et al., 2016)), or the Pliocene (∼3 Ma, (Yarmolyuk et al., 2008)).

3.2 Evolution of the Peri-Tethys and Middle East region under the interplay of tectonics and global sea level changes

Throughout the Cenozoic, sea level fluctuations in a context of tectonic convergence have led to a profound paleogeographic reorganization and a general increase in continentality of the regions encompassing the Mediterranean Sea, Middle East and inland Asia.

3.2.1 Retreat of the Paratethys Sea and closure of the Neotethys Ocean

During the Paleocene-Eocene, Eurasia was largely flooded by the proto Paratethys, an epicontinental sea connected to the Arctic Ocean via the Turgai Strait and to the Neotethys Ocean (Meulenkamp & Sissingh, 2003; Golonka, 2009). Paleoenvironmental analyses suggest a maximal extension of the proto Paratethys Sea reaching the Tajik and Tarim Basins in inland Asia at the Paleocene-Eocene transition (∼56 Ma), followed by a long-term westward retreat punctuated by marine transgressions of decreasing magnitude (Kaya et al., 2019; Bosboom et al., 2014b, 2017; Carrapa et al., 2015). In Central Asia, the shrinkage of the proto Paratethys Sea during the Eocene is attributed to far-field effects of the Indo-Asia collision and to the early indentation of the Pamir and TP, leading to the progressive infilling of the basins with sediments (Kaya et al., 2019; Carrapa et al., 2015; D. Liu et al., 2017). The onset of the Antarctic ice-sheet at the EOT (∼33.5 Ma) resulted in a sea-level drop of ∼70 m (Miller et al., 2020)), which drastically reduced the extent of the Paratethys and favored its isolation (Kaya et al., 2019; Bosboom et al., 2014b, 2017). Water exchanges between the Paratethys and neighboring oceans were progressively restricted, as indicated by the increasing divergence between the δ^{18}O and δ^{13}C signatures of Paratethys foraminifera shells and the other oceanic signals at that time (Ozsvárt et al., 2016). The Tethyan Seaway, connecting the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, remained fully open before the Miocene (Straume et al., 2020). ϵNd isotope data from foraminifers suggest that it became strongly restricted around ∼22 Ma (Bialik et al., 2019), with intermittent periods of closure, as indicated by evidence of mammal exchanges between Eurasia and Africa across a land bridge (Rögl, 1999; Harzhauser & Piller, 2007). The Tethyan Seaway permanently closed at ∼14 Ma, due to the combined effect of Arabian-Eurasian plate collision and glacio-eustatic sea level fall associated with cooling following the Mid-Miocene Climatic Optimum (Bialik et al., 2019). Until the late Miocene, the Paratethys Sea experienced phases of transgression, extending as far as ∼60° E, and regression that may have reduced its surface by up to 70% (Palcu et al., 2021), thus highly modulating Eurasian continentality.

3.2.2 Middle-East: Anatolian-Iranian Plateau, Zagros and Alborz Mountains uplift

During the Cenozoic, the Middle-East experienced multiple changes in land-sea distribution and topography, forced by the collision of the Arabian plate with Eurasia that drove the uplift of the Zagros Mountains and of the Iranian Plateau. The exact timing of the Arabia-Eurasia collision in eastern Anatolia remains highly debated, with estimated dates ranging from the Eocene-Oligocene (Karaoğlan et al., 2016; Darin et al., 2018; McQuarrie & Hinsbergen, 2013; Pirouz et al., 2017), the early Miocene (Okay et al., 2010; Gülyüz et al., 2020), to the late Miocene (H. Su & Zhou, 2020; Z. Zhang et al., 2017). Most studies however propose an early Miocene age (∼20 Ma) for the hard collision related to the arrival of thick Arabian crust along the Bitilis suture zone (Okay et al., 2010; Cavazza et al., 2018; Gülyüz et al., 2020) and a Miocene age for the uplift of most landforms (Zagros and Alborz mountains, Anatolian-Iranian Plateau). After the collision, the Zagros orogen builds up during three successive pulses occurring within the last ∼20 Ma (Agard et al., 2011; Mouthereau, 2011). Field geology, stable isotopes and thermochronology suggest

that the Alborz mountains uplift (north of the Zagros) occured during the middle Miocene (∼17.5-13 Ma) (Ballato et al., 2010, 2015) and may have continued until the latest Miocene (Mouthereau et al., 2012). A Miocene age for the initiation of the eastern Anatolian-Iranian Plateau growth is also suggested, based on its youngest marine unit (∼17 Ma) (Gülyüz et al., 2020) and apatite fission-track data (18-13 Ma) (Okay et al., 2010; Karaoğlan et al., 2016). Stratigraphic evidence suggests an uplift phase of the eastern Anatolian-Iranian Plateau between 15 and 12 Ma due to crustal shortening and thickening (Mouthereau et al., 2012). In contrast, numerical simulations suggest that the final buildup of the Plateau is only reached during the late Miocene (∼7-10 Ma), likely sustained by slab break-off, mantle flow disruption and associated changes in dynamic topography, and followed by isostatic adjustment (François et al., 2014).

3.3 East Africa and Arabian Peninsula evolution

While much attention has been paid to the Eastern African topography evolution in the Neogene due to its implication for early hominins development, its history fits into a broader paleogeographic context rooted in the Paleogene (see Couvreur et al. (2021); Guillocheau et al. (2018) for a synthesis). Landforms in East Africa (Kenyan and Ethiopian plateaus) developed during the late Cenozoic, triggered by a combination of tectonics, basaltic flooding, and large wave-length deformation related to the African superswell activity (Moucha & Forte, 2011; Faccenna et al., 2019; Roberts et al., 2012). Uplift in the Ethiopian region began during the Eocene, with a doming event sustained by dynamic topography (Roberts et al., 2012; Faccenna et al., 2019) that then propagated to Kenya during the middle Miocene. In the early Oligocene, basaltic flooding in Ethiopia is thought to have contributed to the formation of these large-scale elevated features (Sembroni et al., 2016). Rifting initiated during the middle Miocene with the main uplift of rift shoulders (Wichura et al., 2015). Overall, past elevations during the Cenozoic are poorly constrained in East Africa, but modern elevations were most likely reached by the late Miocene to early Pliocene (Couvreur et al., 2021).

The Arabian Peninsula records successive marine and freshwater environments from the early Oligocene to the late Miocene, as indicated by paleo-ichthyofaunas (Otero & Gayet, 2001). Before the Neogene, the Arabian plate is assumed to have been flat and at low elevation (Daradich et al., 2003) and thus particularly sensitive to sea-level changes. It was therefore largely submerged during the Eocene, and its southwestern part became partially emerged after the sea-level fall at the EOT (Barrier et al., 2018). During the Miocene, the Arabian plate was tilted when transiting over the East-Africa mantle plume (Vicente de Gouveia et al., 2018), leading to the uplift of the Red Sea margin, and the flooding of its northeastern corner, due to mantle convective drawdown (Daradich et al., 2003; Moucha & Forte, 2011). This mechanism promoted temporary transgression phases in the subdued northeastern region in early Miocene times (Barrier et al., 2018), until its full emergence in the late Miocene, possibly favored by global sea-level fall after the mid-Miocene Climate Transition (Golonka, 2009; Harzhauser & Piller, 2007; Miller et al., 2020).

4 Materials and Methods

4.1 IPSL-CM5A2 model

We perform simulations with the IPSL-CM5A2 Earth System Model (Sepulchre et al., 2020), an updated version of the IPSL-CM5A model (Dufresne et al., 2013) designed for deep-time paleoclimate simulations. It is composed of the atmospheric model LMDz5A (Hourdin et al., 2013), the land surface and vegetation model ORCHIDEE (Krinner et al., 2005) and the oceanic model NEMO (v3.6) (Madec, 2016) that also includes the LIM2 sea-ice model (Fichefet & Maqueda, 1997). The OASIS coupler ensures synchronization between the different model components (Valcke et al., 2006). The atmospheric model has a nominal horizontal resolution of 96x95 grid points (3.75° in longitude by 1.9° in latitude) with 39

irregularly distributed vertical levels from the surface to 40 km high. The ORCHIDEE model is coupled with LMDZ5a and redirects runoff water towards the ocean. The vegetation cover is represented through 11 Plant Functional Types, including one describing bare soil. NEMO solves ocean dynamics and thermodynamics equations on a tripolar grid, with two poles located below continental masses in the Northern Hemisphere, thereby avoiding North Pole singularity in the ocean (Madec & Imbard, 1996). It has a nominal resolution of 2° by 2° refined up to 0.5° in the equatorial region, with 31 vertical levels, the thickness of which ranges from 10 meters near the surface to 500 meters in the deep ocean. Full description of IPSL-CM5A2 can be found in Sepulchre et al. (2020); Dufresne et al. (2013). IPSL-CM5A2 has been previously used for paleoclimatic simulations of the Miocene (Burls et al., 2021; Sarr et al., 2022; Pillot et al., 2022) and the Eocene (Tardif et al., 2020, 2021; Toumoulin et al., 2022, 2020; Barbolini et al., 2020). The ability of the model to simulate the modern Asian climate has previously been described (Sepulchre et al., 2020; Tardif et al., 2020) and compared to observations (SI Fig. 14). While general atmospheric circulation patterns are well reproduced, IPSL-CM5A2 overall underestimates precipitation amounts and delays inland monsoonal precipitation onset by about a month, which are characteristics shared with the earlier IPSL-CM5A version of the model (Sepulchre et al., 2020).

4.2 Numerical simulations design

Simulations presented in this study are performed with paleogeographic configurations used in previous work, presented in Figure 3 and Table 1 and detailed below. The reference experiments have been run for 3000 years and the deep ocean has reached quasi-equilibrium after ∼2000 years of integration. Sensitivity experiments are restarted from their reference experiment and run for 300 to 500 years until upper ocean equilibrium. Model outputs are averaged over the last 50 years of each simulation.

4.2.1 Paleogeographic reconstructions and sensitivity tests

Our late Eocene reference paleogeography (**LEo1_REF**, ∼40 Ma, Fig. 3 a), previously introduced in Tardif et al. (2020), displays a fully emerged *Greater India* and a ∼3000 m elevation TP. The proto Paratethys Sea fills the Tarim Basin, the Turgai Strait is closed and East African topography is low. Considering the ongoing debate surrounding the extension of India and TP morphology at that time, other configurations are tested: **LEo2_TP** (Fig. 3 b) is an alternative late Eocene paleogeography, with a slightly different TP shape obtained with the "double collision model" (Poblete et al., 2021), from which sensitivity tests with a lower (∼800 m, **LEo2_TPlow**, Fig. 3 c) and a higher TP (∼4500 m, **LEo2_TPhigh**, Fig. 3 d) are derived. Two additional tests are performed. The first exhibits a TP located more to the South (**LEo2_TPsouth**, Fig. 3 f) and is obtained with the collision model from Jagoutz et al. (2015). The second features the presence of a remaining inlet between India and continental Asia (**LEo2_BengalSea**, Fig. 3 g), according to van Hinsbergen et al. (2012, 2019). The early Oligocene simulation (**EOli_REF**, ∼33 Ma, previously introduced in Barbolini et al. (2020)) is designed to represent the Asian paleogeography right after the Eocene-Oligocene Transition (Fig. 3 e). The late Eocene paleogeography of LEo1_REF is used as a base, on which the sea level is eustatically lowered by 70 m (Miller et al., 2020), to account for a modern-sized ice sheet over Antarctica, as an end-member scenario. This leads to the emergence of continental portions in Arabia and North Africa and the drying of the Tarim Basin and lowlands north of the Turgai Strait, which all act to significantly increase Asian continentality. The former shallow connection between the Paratethys and the Tethys ceases in the Pamir-Zagros region at that time.

The early Miocene paleogeography (**EMio_REF**, ∼20 Ma, Fig. 3 h), is from Poblete et al. (2021) and was previously introduced in Sarr et al. (2022) and Burls et al. (2021). It displays an Indian subcontinent translated 5° further north compared to the Eocene and an uplifted Central TP close to its modern elevation (∼5000 m), whereas western and northeastern TP portions are lower (2000-3000 m). The Tethyan Seaway that previously

Table 1. List of reference simulations (bold) and sensitivity experiments used in this study. Abbreviations stand for East Antarctic Ice Sheet (EAIS), Antarctic Ice Sheet (AIS) and Greenland + Antarctic Ice Sheet (G+AIS). The last column details the paleogeographic configurations, highlighting the pairs of simulations that can be compared. For example, the effect of pCO_2 halving in the Eocene is obtained with the "LEo1_REF - LEo1_2X" anomaly.

Simulation	pCO_2	Ice sheets	Paleogeography
LEo1_REF	**1120**	-	from (Tardif et al., 2020)
LEo2_TP	1120	-	from (Poblete et al., 2021)
LEo2_TPlow	1120	-	from LEo2_TP, TP lowered to 800 m
LEo2_TPhigh	1120	-	from LEo2_TP, TP raised to 4500 m
LEo2_TPsouth	1120	-	from LEo2_TP, TP shifted to the South (Poblete et al., 2021)
LEo2_BengalSea	1120	-	from LEo2_TP, with a Bengal Sea (Poblete et al., 2021)
LEo1_2X	560	-	from LEo1_REF, pCO_2 halved to 560 ppm
EOli_REF	**560**	**AIS**	from LEo1_REF, 70 m sea level drop (Barbolini et al., 2020)
EMio_REF	**560**	**EAIS**	from (Poblete et al., 2021)
EMio_TetSw	560	EAIS	from EMio_REF, open Tethyan Seaway (120 m depth)
EMio_EAfr	560	EAIS	from EMio_REF, modern East African landforms
MMio_REF	**560**	**AIS**	from (Sarr et al., 2022)
LMio_smallT	560	AIS	from MMio_REF, reduced Paratethys
LMio_noAr	560	AIS	from LMio_smallT, immersed Arabia
LMio_noM	560	AIS	from LMio_smallT, Mongolia lowered to 800 m
LMio_noTS	560	AIS	from LMio_smallT, Tian Shan lowered to 800 m
LMio_noTSM	560	AIS	from LMio_smallT, Tian Shan+Mongolia lowered to 800 m
LMio_noTSP	560	AIS	from LMio_smallT, Tian Shan+Pamir lowered to 800 m
LMio_REF	**560**	**G+AIS**	from (Sarr et al., 2022)
LMio_1.5X	420	G+AIS	from LMio_REF, pCO_2 lowered to 420 ppm

connected the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean is closed, but a shallow sea persists at the location of the Arabian Peninsula. The alternative configuration **EMio_TetSw**, with a 120 m deep Tethyan seaway, is tested (Fig. 3 i). Considering the large uncertainties related to East African elevation, we also test the impact of a full uplift of this region as early as the early Miocene with the **EMio_EAfr** experiment (Fig. 3 j).

The mid and late Miocene paleogeographies are based on the PRISM4 reconstruction (Dowsett et al., 2016) used in PlioMIP2 (Haywood et al., 2020) with manual modifications including the Australian continent shifted southward compared to present day and an emerged Sunda Shelf (Torsvik et al., 2008; Hall et al., 2012) (see Sarr et al. (2022) for details). In the middle (**MMio_REF**, ∼12 Ma, Fig. 3 k) and late Miocene (**LMio_REF**, ∼8 Ma, Fig. 3 o) reference paleogeographic configurations, the Himalayas, Tibetan Plateau, Myanmar, inland Asia and East African landforms have reached their present-day configuration (Fig. 3). In the mid-Miocene, the elevation of the Anatolian-Iranian orogen is half (∼1000 m) that of present-day and the Paratethys Sea extends up to 60°E (**MMio_REF**), while by the late Miocene (**LMio_REF**), the Paratethys is strongly reduced and the Anatolian-Iranian landforms have reached their modern elevation. An intermediate mid-late Miocene reconstruction is tested, in which the impact of a Paratethys retreat is investigated (**LMio_smallT**, Fig. 3 l). Sensitivity tests are also performed on inland Asian landforms, by lowering to ∼800 m the Mongolian Plateau (**LMio_noM**, Fig. 3 p), Tian Shan (**LMio_noTS**, Fig. 3 q), Mongolia and Tian Shan (**LMio_noTSM**, Fig. 3 n), and finally, Tian Shan and Pamir (**LMio_noTSP**, Fig. 3 r). Additionally, **LMio_noAr** (Fig. 3 m), displaying an almost fully flooded Arabian Peninsula, is designed to account for the high sensitivity of this region to sea level fluctuations during that period. Note that LMio_smallT is the paleogeography to which all other late and middle Miocene simulations can be compared to.

4.2.2 pCO_2, ice-sheets, solar constant and vegetation

CO_2 concentrations vary from 1120 ppm in the late Eocene to 560 ppm in the late Miocene (Table 1) (Foster et al., 2017; Rae et al., 2021) and other greenhouse gases are maintained at pre-industrial values. Acknowledging uncertainties regarding precise pCO_2 concentrations during the Cenozoic, we perform two additional sensitivity tests on this parameter by prescribing 560 ppm in a late Eocene simulation (**LEo1_2X**) and 420 ppm in a late Miocene simulation (**LMio_1.5X**). Late Eocene experiments are considered ice-free, as pCO_2 is above the threshold for permanent Antarctic glaciation (Ladant et al., 2014; DeConto & Pollard, 2003). Unipolar glaciation over the Antarctic continent is used for the Oligocene, early and mid-Miocene, and both Greenland and Antarctic ice-sheets are present in late Miocene configurations (Bierman et al., 2016). The solar constant is adjusted (Gough, 1981) and set to 1360.19 $W.m^{-2}$ for late Eocene and early Oligocene simulations, 1362.92 $W.m^{-2}$ for early Miocene simulations and 1364.30 $W.m^{-2}$ for late and middle Miocene simulations. Although orbital variations are known to impact monsoonal circulation (Zhisheng et al., 2015; P. Wang et al., 2005; Tardif et al., 2021), we prescribe a modern-like orbital configuration in all simulations because this study focuses on the impact of paleogeography. In the absence of congruent global vegetation reconstructions over the Cenozoic, all the experiments are forced with prescribed latitudinal bands of idealized vegetation cover based on modern distribution, as done in previous studies (Tardif et al., 2020; Laugié et al., 2020).

4.3 Monsoon metrics

The evolution of Asian monsoons over time is assessed through specific markers that are characteristic of the present-day SAM and EAM, such as precipitation amounts, seasonality, and wind direction and strength. The evolution of precipitation seasonality using the Monsoon Precipitation Index (MPI) (B. Wang & Ding, 2008) is expressed as follows:

$$\mathrm{MPI} = \frac{\text{Seasonal range of precipitation}}{\text{Mean annual precipitation}}$$

where the seasonal range of precipitation is the difference between May to September minus November to March precipitations. Monsoon-like seasonality is considered to occur if the seasonal range is superior to 300 mm and more than half of the precipitation falls during the extended summer season (MPI $>$ 0.5). This metric has the benefit of proposing a discrete metric for seasonality amplitude (from 0 to 1, instead of "with or without" monsoon). It also imposes that the wet season occur in summer, unlike other existing precipitation metrics (such as the ratio of the 3 wettest month over the 3 driest month precipitation, commonly used in paleobotany studies).

The wind patterns, described via their shape and strength, are the second fundamental characteristic that we focus on. First, we track the latitudinal migration of the Somali Jet over the Arabian Sea (Fluteau et al., 1999) as a proxy for SASM intensity. Second, we use the Webster-Yang Index (Webster et al., 1998), calculated as the difference between the zonal component of 850 and 200 hPa winds (U_{850}-U_{200}) in the region 0°:20°N to 40°E:110°E, to evaluate the wind shear between the low and high troposphere over India, which describes the vigor of the SASM zonal circulation. Third, we use the positive thermal anomaly observed at 300 hPa over northern India in summer as a marker of the deep convection characterizing the modern SASM (Boos & Kuang, 2010; Acosta & Huber, 2020). This anomaly is due to the important latent heat release in the high troposphere provoked by the condensation of moisture in convecting air masses ascending the southern flank of the Himalayas (see Fig. 14 d).

In addition to the precipitation seasonality, we explore the EASM evolution through the latitudinal displacement of the Jet Stream with respect to Tibetan and inland Asian landforms and with surface wind patterns. The EAWM is tracked principally with the evolution of temperature and pressure gradients, leading to the Siberian High formation in winter, and of its associated wind patterns. We also use the EAWM index (L. Wang & Chen, 2014), that accounts for both the North-South (Siberia-Maritime continent) and West-East (Siberia-North Pacific) pressure gradients and is expressed as follows:

$$I_{EAWM} = (2xSLP_S\text{-}SLP_{NP}\text{-}SLP_{MC})/2$$

where SLP_S, SLP_{NP} and SLP_{MC} is the area-averaged Sea Level Pressure (SLP) over Siberia (40°:60°N, 70°:120°E), North Pacific (30°:50°N, 140°E:170°W) and the Maritime continent (20°S:10°N, 110°:160°E), respectively.

5 Results

For each regional monsoon, we first present the results obtained for the five reference numerical simulations (red box in Fig. 3). The underlying forcing factors are then explored, taking advantage of the sensitivity tests summarized in Table 1. The main outcomes in terms of seasonal winds and precipitations are qualitatively summed up in Table 2.

5.1 The South Asian monsoon, controlled by the orography surrounding the Indian Ocean

5.1.1 Evolution of spatial and seasonal precipitation patterns

In the late Eocene, a wide arid region ($<$ 500 mm/year) spreads from northern India to north of proto Tibet (Fig. 4 a). The extent of this simulated arid region is most likely overestimated, which is further discussed in section 6.1. High mean annual precipitation amounts ($>$ 3000 mm/yr) are simulated over equatorial regions in southern India and southeastern Asia. There is no monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index in India, because the rainy season in this region occurs in winter (as previously described in Tardif et al. (2020)). The precipitation pattern evolves from the early Oligocene onwards, as the arid region progressively shifts to Arabia and northern Africa (Fig. 4 e, i, m, q). This allows the penetration of rainfall in summer into southeastern Asia and the onset of a

Table 2. Overview of each tested forcing factor on seasonal precipitation and wind circulation simulated in each region. Abbreviations stand for Transition Area (TA), cardinal directions (E, W, S, N), basins mentioned in Figure 1 (e.g. Tajik Basin, Tjk)

	SAM				EAM					Inland Asia	
	Precipitation			Winds	Precipitation			Winds		Precipitation	
	Winter	Summer	Seasonality	Summer	Winter	Summer	Seasonality	Summer	Winter	Winter	Summer
No TP (LEo)	~	++			+	- -	-	~	+ (W)	~	~
High TP uplif (LEo)	~	+	~		++	+	-			-	~
TP South (LEo)	-	+			~	+	+			~	~
Bengal Sea (LEo)	+	++	-		+	+	~			+	+
CO2 decrease (EOT)	- -	++	+ (TA)	+	+	~	~	~	+	+	+
CO2 and sea level fall (EOT)	- - -	+++	+ (TA, North. India)	++	- -	++	+	+ (E)	++ (W/ NW)	- -	+
East Africa uplift (EMio)	+	++	- (India) + (TA, Himalaya)	+++ (Somali Jet)	+	+	-	+ (SW)		+	-
Paratethys retreat (LMio)	~	++	+	++	+	+	~	+(SW)		- -	~
Arabian peninsula emergence (LMio)	+	+	~	+ (Somali Jet)	-	+	+	~	+ (NW)	-	-
Iranian uplift (LMio)	- -	++	+++	+++ (Somali Jet)	-	+	+			+	++
Mongolia uplift (LMio)	~	~	+		- - -	~	+++		+++ (NW)	+ (orog.)	++(orog) - - (Gobi, Takl., TS, Tjk)
TienShan uplift (LMio)	+	~	-		-	~	+	+ (S)		+(orog.) - - (Gobi Takl.)	+(orog.)
TienShan+Mongolia uplift (LMio)	+	~	+		- - -	~	+ + +		+++ (NW)	+(orog.) -(Gobi)	+(orog.) -(Takl. Tjk.)
TienShan+Pamir uplift (LMio)	+	+	- -	+ (Somali Jet)	~	~	~	+ (SW)		+(orog.) -(Gobi, Takl.)	++(orog.) -(Tjk)

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monsoon-like seasonality in this region, as well as a reinforcement of monsoon-like seasonality in Eastern Asia. Over the course of the Miocene, as India drifts northwards, its southern tip receives less precipitation (∼1500 mm/yr in the late Miocene, Fig. 4 q) and the intensity and extent of highly seasonal precipitation increases greatly over southern and eastern Asia (red dotted regions in Fig. 4 e, i, m, q). Orographic precipitation over the southern flank of the Himalayas initiates in the mid-Miocene simulation (∼900 mm/yr, Fig. 4 m) and further increases in the late Miocene simulation (∼1200-1500 mm/yr, Fig. 4 q). These changes in precipitation patterns in both space and time are triggered by a profound reorganization of surface pressure patterns and winds throughout the set of Cenozoic simulations.

5.1.2 Summer pressure and wind pattern reorganization

The summer (June to August, JJA) sea level pressure patterns in Eurasia in the late Eocene experiment (Fig. 4 b) contrast strongly with the modern ones (SI Fig. 14 f). A low-pressure center forms, driven by extreme summer temperature over southeastern Asia (up to 50 °C over *Greater India*, Fig. 4 d) whereas the Paratethys Sea and Neotethys Ocean are the locus of a wide high pressure cell (Fig. 4 b). This pressure pattern induces low tropospheric anticyclonic winds that counteract potential moisture advection from the Indian Ocean towards South Asian regions. From the early Oligocene onwards, the shrinkage of the Paratethys Sea and Neotethys Ocean increases Eurasian continentality and the surface of emerged land, such as Anatolia and Arabia. They become the locus of high summer temperatures (35-45 °C, Fig. 4 l, p, t), leading to the progressive widening of the South Asian low-pressure belt, while the Neotethyan anticyclone gradually regresses westward (Fig. 4 f, j, n, r). This low pressure cell reaches its modern-like extent in the mid-Miocene simulation (Fig. 4 n) but a modern-like magnitude (∼-14 hPa over Arabia and northern India) occurs only in the late Miocene simulation (Fig. 4 r, SI Fig. 14).

Mirroring this progressive strengthening and widening of the summer low-pressure belt over south Asia and Arabia, an increasing amount of moisture-loaded air masses are gradually advected from the Indian Ocean towards the continent over the Cenozoic. A weak cross equatorial flow (<4 m/s, Fig. 4, against ∼25 m/s today, SI Fig. 14), confined to low latitudes (<10°N, Fig. 5 a, simulations LEo1_REF and EOli_REF), is simulated over the Arabian Sea in the late Eocene and early Oligocene experiments (Fig. 4 b, f). A mostly zonal proto-Somali Jet, also confined to low latitudes (<11°N), is simulated in the early Miocene simulation (Fig. 5 b, simulation EMio_REF). From the mid-Miocene onwards, and following the reinforcement of the Asian low-pressure belt, the now fully-formed Somali Jet increases in strength and migrates further north over the Arabian Sea (∼18-24°N) (Fig. 4 n, r, Fig. 5 b, simulations MMio_REF and LMio_REF). The simulated tropospheric circulation above southern Asia is drastically rearranged from the late Eocene to the Miocene simulation, as indicated by the Webster-Yang Index. This index doubles between the late Eocene and the early Oligocene (from ∼5 to 11 m/s, Fig. 5 c, reference simulations LEo1_REF and EOli_REF) and keeps increasing in the Miocene (from ∼16 to 21 m/s, Fig. 5 d, simulations EMio_REF, MMio_REF and LMio_REF). Finally, while a heating of the high troposphere (∼300 hPa) due to deep convection is observed in most experiments (Fig. 4 d, h, l, p, t), this heat anomaly relocates over northern India only in the mid-Miocene experiment, following the increase in summer convective precipitation in this region driven by orographic uplift.

5.1.3 Limited effect of pCO_2 decrease and alternative Eocene Tibetan Plateau configurations on South Asian summer monsoon evolution

The non-linearity in the response of the Somali Jet through time calls for an individual analysis of the different forcing factors between each of these simulations. Our sensitivity experiments reveal the weak sensitivity of the SASM to pCO_2 changes in comparison to paleogeographic forcing. This is true for the late Eocene experiments, in which a change from 1120 ppm to 560 ppm (difference between experiments LEo1_2X and LEo1_REF) only induces minimal variations in the Webster-Yang Index, summer northward ITCZ migration

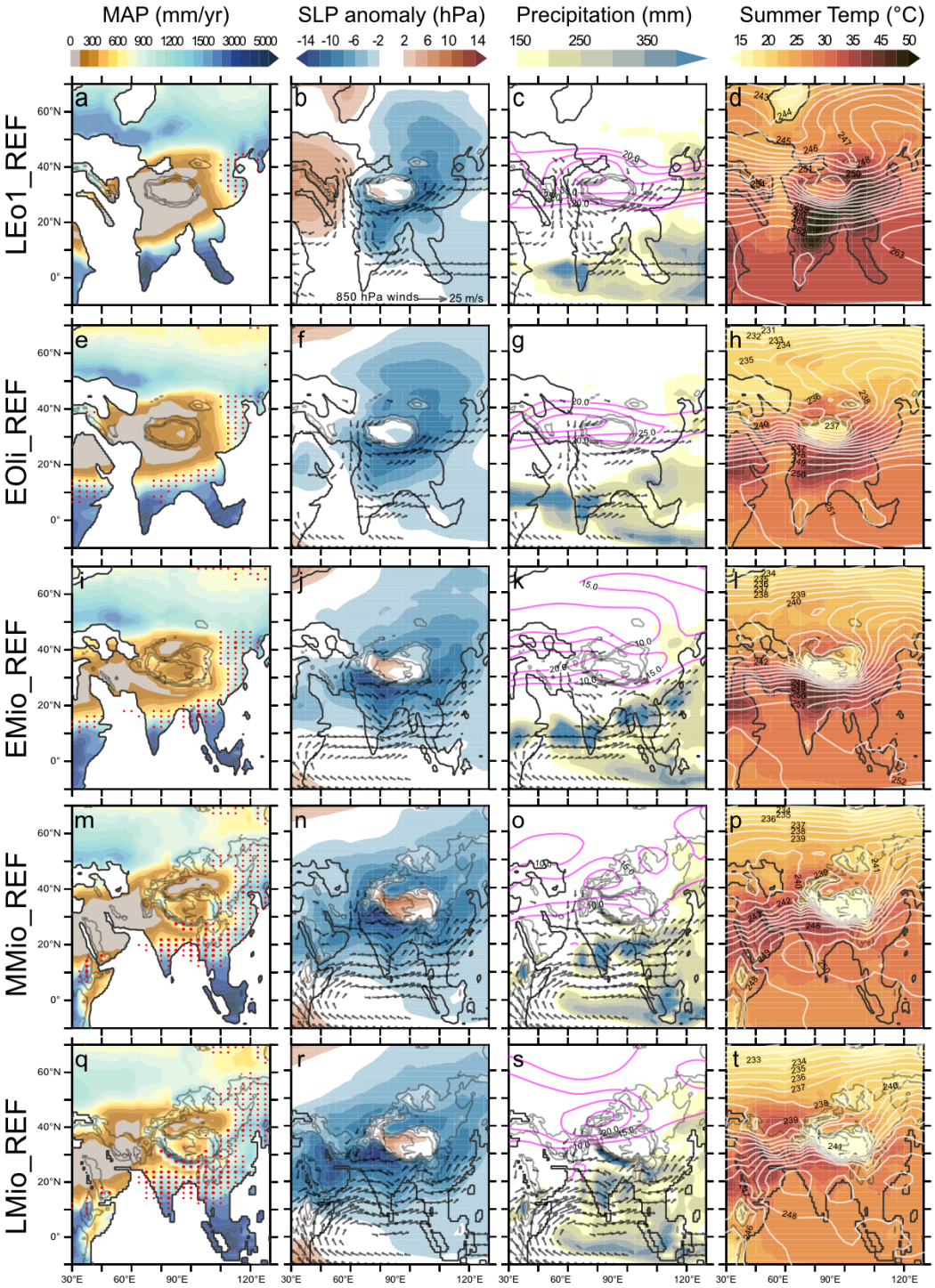

Figure 4. Evolution of summer monsoon diagnostics since the Eocene. **First column:** Mean Annual Precipitation (shading, mm/yr) overlain with regions where the Monsoon Precipitation Index is over 0.5 (thin red dots) and 0.75 (thick red dots); **Second column:** June-August (JJA) normalized Sea Level Pressure (SLP) anomaly defined as the difference between summer SLP and mean annual SLP (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds over 4 m/s (vectors); **Third column:** August Jet Stream speed (magenta contour, maximal zonal wind velocity in the mid to high troposphere, in m/s), August monthly precipitation amounts (shading, mm/month) and 850 hPa winds over 4 m/s (vectors) ; **Fourth column:** JJA mean temperature at 2 m (shading, Celsius) and 300 hPa atmospheric temperature (white contour, Kelvin). On all figure pannels, topography is overlain as gray contours, at 1000 m intervals.

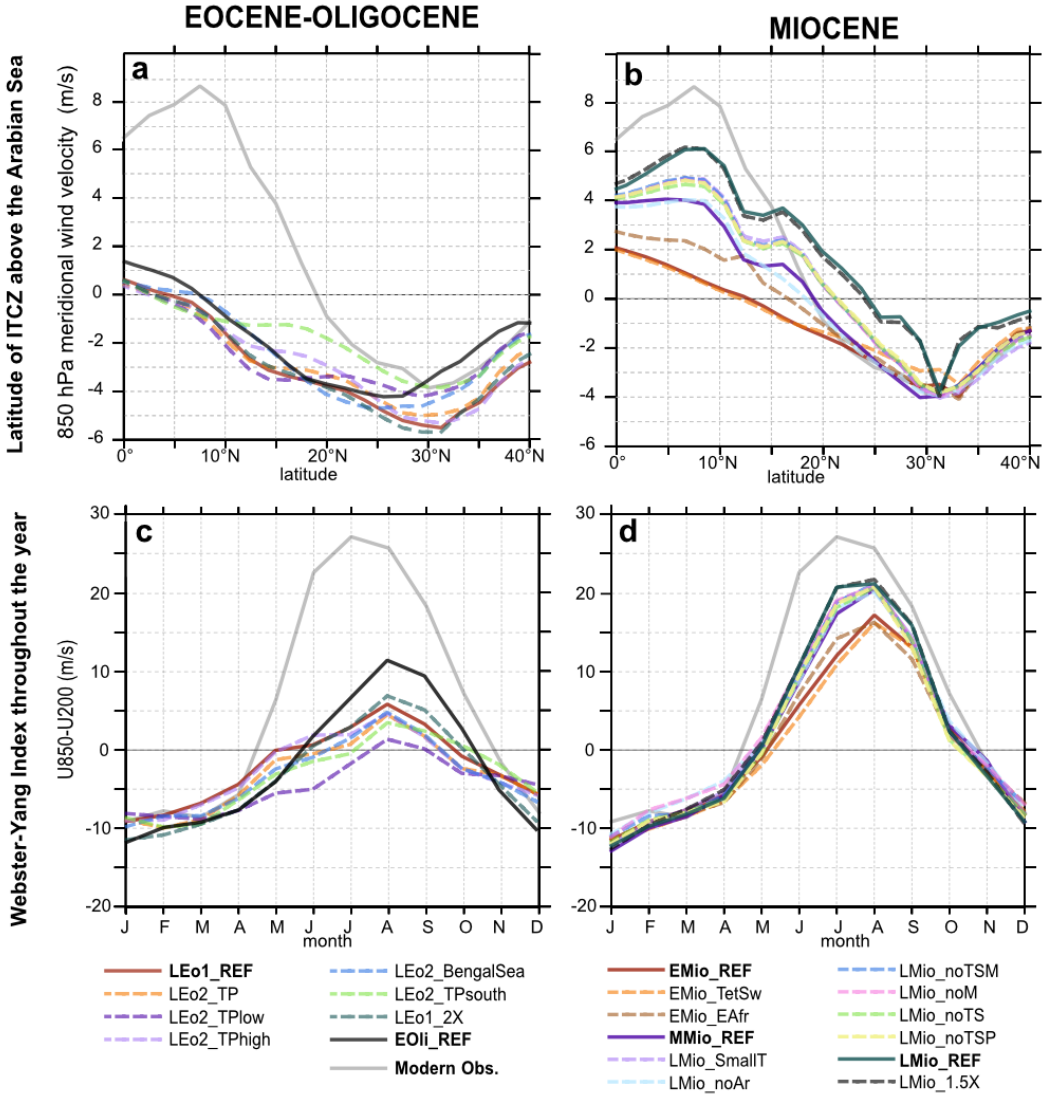

Figure 5. Estimation of the evolution of South Asian monsoon strength in all the simulations via: (**a, b**) the calculation of the summer (JJA) cross-equatorial flow latitude over the Arabian Sea, after Fluteau et al. (1999) and (**c, d**) the calculation of the Webster-Yang Index (WYI, 850 hPa minus 200 hPa zonal wind velocity, in the region 0:20°N ; 40:110°E, after Webster and Yang (1992)). For better readability, the experiments are split into Eocene-Oligocene (a, c) and Miocene (b, d) simulations. Reference simulations are highlighted in bold characters and continuous lines, while sensitivity tests are in dotted lines.

(Fig. 5 a, c), or monsoon-like seasonality extension (Fig. 7 f). This is also the case for the late Miocene experiments when the pCO_2 is changed from 560 ppm to 420 ppm (difference between experiments LMio_1.5X and LMio_REF in Fig. 5 b, d). The paleogeography of *Greater India* and Tibetan regions have been repeatedly proposed as a driver of monsoon onset or intensification (R. Zhang et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2018; Molnar et al., 1993). While alternative TP configurations lead to slightly different results, their impact on the simulated SASM large-scale wind circulation remains limited (Fig. 5 a, c, Fig. 6). In the late Eocene, increasing TP elevation strengthens the zonal wind shear over India (3000 m, Webster-Yang Index = ∼6 m/s, for experiment LEo2_TP, Fig. 5 c) with respect to the Eocene experiment with low TP topography elevation (Webster-Yang Index = 1 m/s, LEo2_TPlow). Additionally, the magnitude of the Webster-Yang Index gradually increases with TP latitude, with values of 3 m/s for a southern edge at ∼20°N (LEo2_TPsouth), 4 m/s at ∼25°N (LEo2_TP), and 6 m/s at ∼30°N (LEo1_REF). The presence of a sea inlet flooding *Greater India* in the late Eocene configuration limits the northward migration of the ITCZ in summer (from ∼7 to 3°N between experiments LEo2_BengalSea and LEo2_TP, Fig. 5 c). It also produces a decrease in year-round precipitation, especially in south and inland Asia (Fig. 6 m, n, o).

5.1.4 Continentality increase and East African and Iranian uplifts as major drivers of the South Asian monsoon

The changes induced by the TP uplift or by its latitudinal location on South Asian climate are by far out-competed by the effects of land-sea distribution changes, or by the uplift of peripheral mountain ranges (Fig. 5). Indeed, the increase in continentality driven by the Eocene-Oligocene sea level fall induces colder and drier winters (Fig. 7 g), as well as warmer and wetter summers (Fig. 7 h). This results in a monsoon-like seasonality signal expanding over southeastern Asia (Fig. 7 i). It also translates into a doubling of the Webster-Yang Index (from 6 to 11 m/s between experiments EOli_REF and LEo1_REF, Fig. 5 c) and an important reorganization of the summer Jet Stream behavior (see section 5.2.2). Likewise, increasing continentality during the Miocene appears to be key for inducing a more pronounced migration of the ITCZ over the Arabian Sea (from 18 to 21°N in the more continental case, Fig. 5 b), as well as a slight increase of the Webster-Yang Index (Fig. 5 d). This is achieved either with the emergence of the Arabian Platform (Fig. 8 h), or with the shrinkage of the Paratethys Sea (Fig. 8 e). In both cases, the amplification of the summer low pressure belt increases moisture advection from the Arabian Sea, leading to enhanced summer rainfall in the SAM domain. The increase in precipitation seasonality in the SAM domain is, however, more widespread with a Paratethys Sea retreat than with an emerged Arabian platform (Fig. 8 f, i), due to the contrasted effect of these paleogeographic changes on winter precipitation (Fig. 8 d, g). Both events are also shown to strongly impact central Asian aridity and the climate of the EAM domain.

Additionally, the buildup of both East African (difference between experiments EMio_EAfr-EMio_REF) and Anatolian-Iranian landforms (difference between experiments LMio_REF-LMio_smallT) is critical for the amplification of the ITCZ migration and strengthening of the SAM. Each uplift triggers a ∼4-5° northward migration of the ITCZ over the Arabian Sea in summer, as well as a slight increase in the Webster-Yang Index in July (Fig. 5 b, d and SI Fig. 16). The uplift of East African landforms under Early Miocene conditions reinforces the Somali Jet and brings moisture to Iran and the SAM domain in summer (Fig. 9 e), which results in an intensification of monsoon-like seasonality in the Himalayan foothills and in southeastern Asia (mainly Myanmar, Fig. 9 f). Anatolian-Iranian landforms' final uplift under late Miocene conditions promotes winter aridity and summer precipitation in the SAM domain through a large strengthening of the Somali Jet, resulting in reinforced monsoon-like seasonality (Fig. 9 j, k, l). By preventing the advection of drier westerly mid-latitudes winds to lower latitudes, the Anatolian-Iranian Plateau channels humidity towards inland Asia in summer, reducing the aridity of the region. On the other hand, the sole effect of the Tethyan Seaway closure, without strong modification of land extension in the Arabian Peninsula region, remains limited in our experiments (+1 m/s for the Webster-Yang Index

between experiments EMio_REF and EMio_TetSw in Fig. 5 d), in contrast to the hypothesis that the closure of the Tethyan Seaway may contribute to altering the intensity of the monsoon during the Miocene (Bialik et al., 2019, 2020; Rögl, 1997; J. Sun et al., 2021),

5.2 The East Asian monsoon under the combined influence of Asian orography, continentality and pCO_2

5.2.1 East Asian summer monsoon: precipitation patterns and summer Jet Stream position evolution

As opposed to the South Asian region, monsoon-like precipitation seasonality is simulated in eastern Asia in all reference experiments, although it remains initially confined to northeastern China in the Eocene (Fig. 4 a). As this region of monsoon-like precipitation expands to southeastern and inland China throughout the Cenozoic and reaches a modern-like extent in the mid-Miocene experiment, the Paleogene broad zonal arid band retreats from China (Fig. 4 m). Today, precipitation in eastern China is triggered by the penetration of the Meiyu-Bayu front as it follows the migration of the Jet Stream north of the TP during summer (Kong et al., 2017). In our simulations, the summer Jet Stream (approximated by the location of maximum zonal wind velocity in the troposphere in August) circulates above the proto TP and eastern China in a strong zonal flux in the Eocene and Oligocene experiments (up to 30-35 m/s centered at ∼30°N Fig. 4 c, g). It then weakens (10-20 m/s) and progressively migrates north of the TP in the Miocene experiments (Fig. 4 k, o, s). The Jet configuration evolves from purely zonal (east-west) to more SW-NE. This relocation of the Jet Stream is accompanied by increased precipitation in eastern China, southeastern Siberia and Japan, reaching 200-300 mm in August (Fig. 4 k, o, s), which locally accounts for up to 25% of the annual precipitation. These results suggest that the evolution of the Jet Stream seasonal displacement indeed amplifies the EASM rainy season, although seasonal precipitation is simulated prior to the Jet acquiring its modern position in summer.

5.2.2 Summer Jet Stream migration driven by pCO_2 decrease at the EOT and Tian Shan uplift in the Miocene

Our sensitivity experiments allow us to identify the drivers responsible for the establishment of modern-like Jet Stream seasonal migrations over Asia. All 1120 ppm Eocene simulations display a behavior of the Jet opposite to its modern counterpart, with a northward migration in winter and a southward migration in summer independent of the TP configuration (Fig. 10 a, Fig. 6 e, h, k, n). Halving pCO_2 at the EOT reverses this tendency (LEo1_2X and EOli_REF, compared to LEo1_REF), inducing a migration north of the TP in late summer to early fall (Fig. 10 a, Fig. 7 e, h) and an important decrease in winter zonal velocity (∼50 m/s against ∼70 m/s in other Eocene simulations, Fig. 10 a). This northward migration is however restricted to the TP region and the Jet Stream remains at low latitude over eastern Asia (∼35°N, Fig. 10 b, SI Fig. 18), with low summer rainfall amounts (100-150 mm/month). All subsequent Miocene simulations display an important latitudinal migration of the Jet over the year, both in the TP region (Fig. 10 c, e) and over eastern Asia (Fig. 10 d, f). The northward migration of the Jet is comparable between early Oligocene and early Miocene experiments (up to ∼38-40°N in September), despite a higher (from 3000 to 4000 m) and wider TP, due to the incipient uplift of northeastern and northwestern TP portions in the early Miocene simulation (the Tian Shan is ∼1000 m and the NE Tibet ∼2000 m high). We therefore suggest that the Jet Stream latitudinal migration is primarily driven by pCO_2 decrease and resulting changes in tropospheric temperature gradients, and that a significant threshold in the behavior of the Jet Stream may be crossed at the greenhouse-icehouse transition (EOT, ∼34 Ma). In contrast, variations in the Jet Stream latitudinal migration during the Miocene appear to be driven by topographic changes. Indeed, sensitivity experiments show that the Tian Shan, and to a lesser extent Mongolian and Pamir topographies, are critical to deviate the Jet northward in summer,

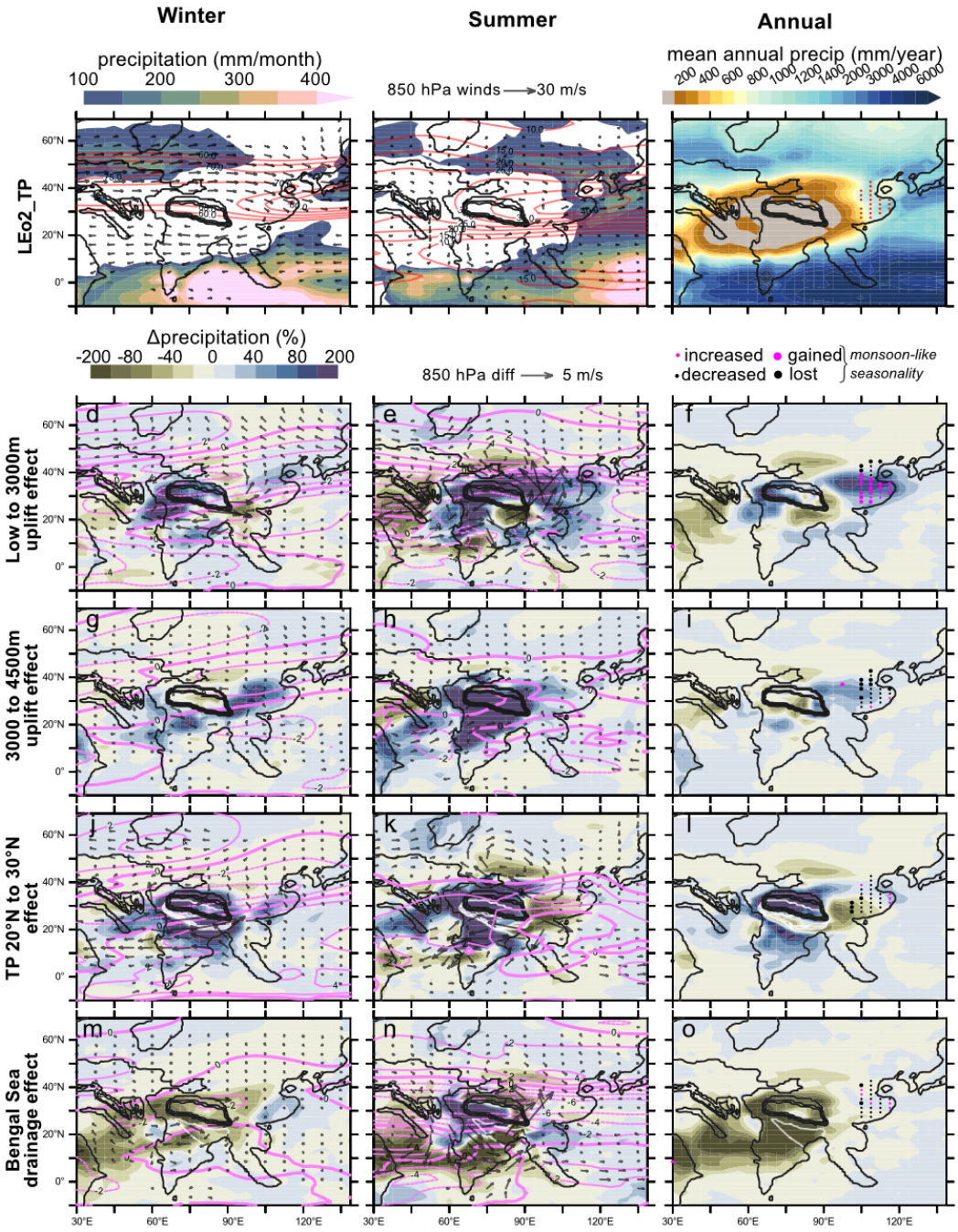

Figure 6. Sensitivity to the Tibetan configurations on Eocene climate: (**a, d, g, j, m**) winter precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), jet stream speed (contour) ; (**b, e, h, k, n**) on summer precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), jet stream speed (contour); (**c, f, i, l, o**) mean annual precipitation (shading) and monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index (red dots). Sensitivity tests are compared to the LEo2_TP simulation (**a, b, c**) and anomalies (**d to o**) are expressed as "test - LEo2_TP", except for the "lowered TP effect" which is "LEo2_TP - LEo2_TPflat"). Precipitation anomalies (shading) are expressed in % and normalized by the averaged precipitation of both simulations (therefore, a change from or to zero mm/year accounts for +/- 200%). In (**f, i, l, o**): four types of seasonality change induced by uplift are displayed (e.g., regions showing a decrease of monsoon-like seasonality after lowering the TP are in small black dots) ; white and black topographic contours indicate the LEo2_TP and tested topography.

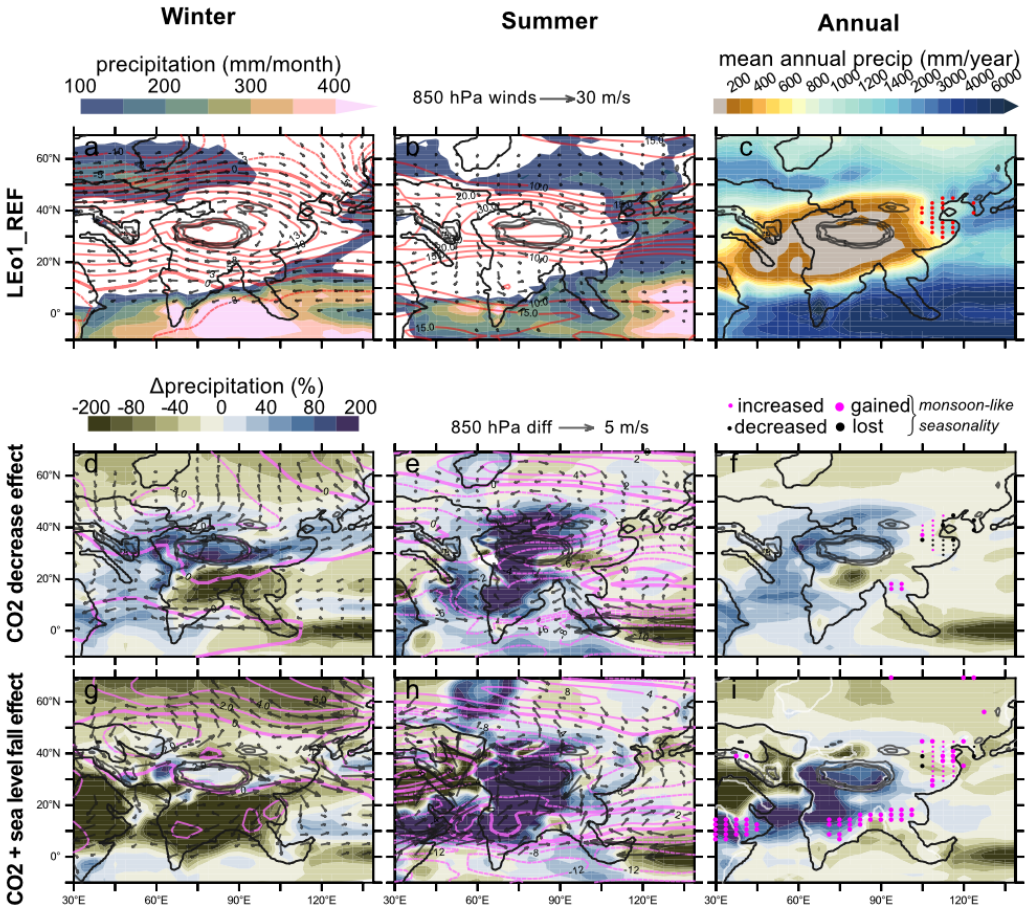

Figure 7. Influence of pCO_2 decrease and sea level fall at the EOT on: (**a, d, g**) winter precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), Sea Level Pressure (contour) ; (**b, e, h**) on summer precipitation (shading), 850 hPa wind (vectors), jet stream speed (contour); (**c, f, i**) mean annual precipitation (shading) and monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index (red dots). Sensitivity tests are compared to the LEo1_REF simulation (**a, b, c**) and anomalies (**d to i**) are expressed in order to highlight the impact of the test (i.e. test-LEo1_REF). We refer the reader to Figure 6 for an extended description of the pannels.

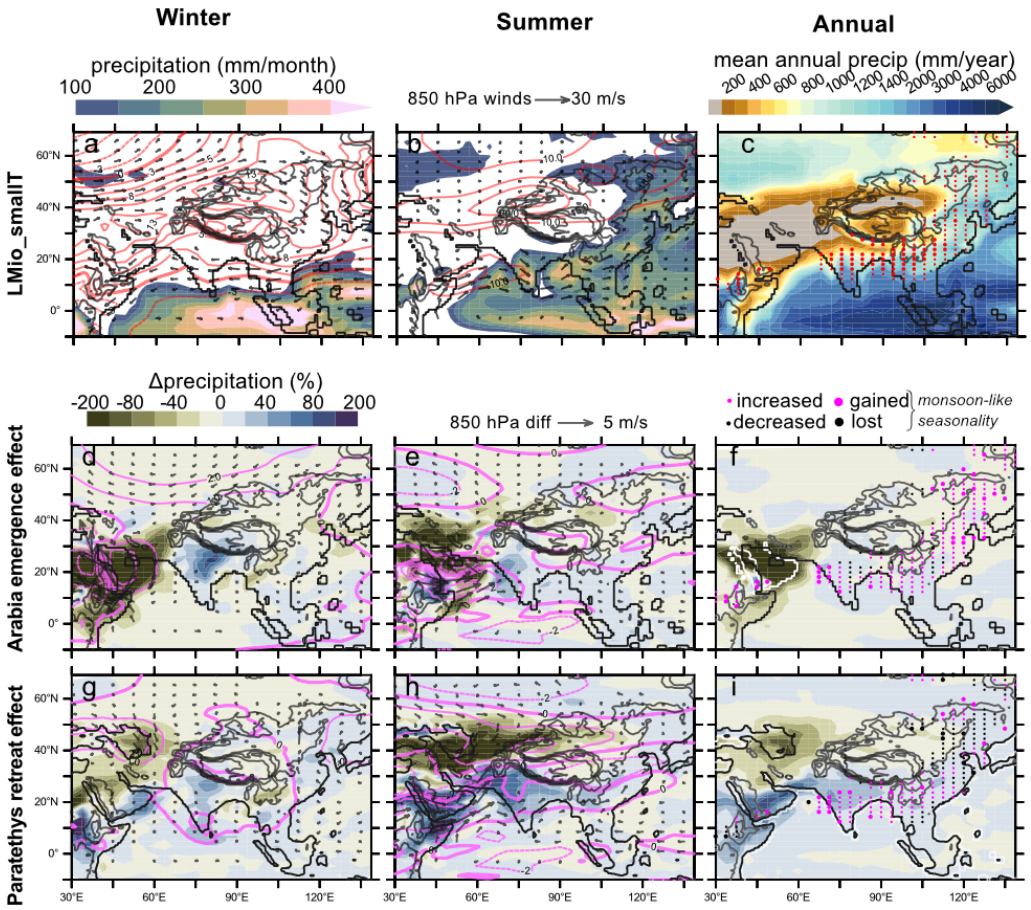

Figure 8. Influence of continentality increase in a mid-late Miocene context on: (**a, d, g**) winter precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), Sea Level Pressure (contour) ; (**b, e, h**) on summer precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), jet stream speed (contour); (**c, f, i**) and on mean annual precipitation (shading) and monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index (red dots). Sensitivity tests are compared to the LMio_smallT simulation (**a, b, c**) and anomalies (**d to i**) are expressed in order to highlight the impact of the continentality increase (i.e. LMio_smallT-test). We refer the reader to Fig. 6 for an extended description of the pannels.

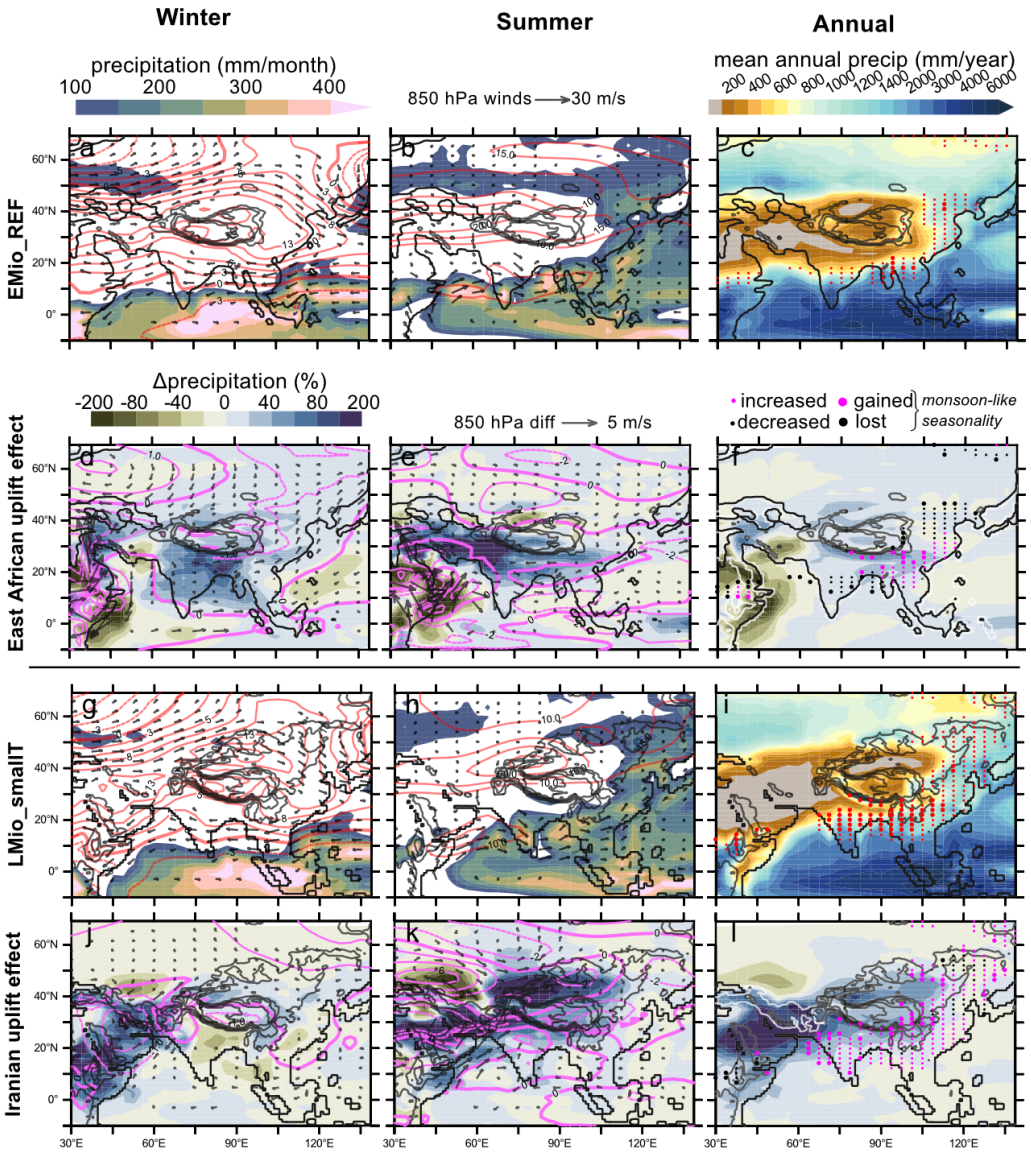

Figure 9. Influence of East African uplift in the early Miocene (a to f) and of Anatolian-Iranian uplift in the late Miocene (g to l) on: (**a, d, g, j**) winter precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), Sea Level Pressure (contour) ; (**b, e, h, k**) on summer precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), jet stream speed (contour); (**c, f, i, l**) and mean annual precipitation (shading) and monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index (red dots). East African (Anatolian-Iranian) uplift is compared to the EMio_REF simulation (LMio_SmallT) (**a, b, c** and **g, h, i**) and anomalies (**d, e, f** and **j, k, l**) are expressed in order to highlight the impact of uplift (i.e. EMio_EAfr-EMio_REF and LMio_REF-LMio_smallT respectively). We refer the reader to Figure 6 for an extended description of the pannels.

both in the TP region and in eastern Asia (from 39-41°N in LMio_noTS, LMio_noTSP, LMio_noTSM and LMio_noM to 43°N in MMio_REF and LMio_REF, Fig. 10 e, Fig. 11 h, k, n). Northward migration of the Jet Stream in summer induces orographic precipitation on the uplifted landforms, aridification in the windward regions (-20 to -60% of summer precipitation in eastern Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan) and increased summer rainfall in eastern Asia (Fig. 11 e, h, k, n). Monsoon-like seasonality in eastern Asia (magenta dots in Fig. 11 f, i, l, o) also greatly increases, due to the important effect of uplift of these mountains on wintertime climate as well (see section 5.2.4). On the other hand, changes in the configuration of the Tethyan Seaway in the early Miocene (comparing EMio_REF and EMio_TetSw), the Anatolian-Iranian Plateau uplift (comparing LMio_SmallT and LMio_REF), or a pCO_2 decrease (comparing LMio_REF and LMio_1.5X) in the late Miocene, do not yield important variations in the Jet Stream migration (Fig. 10 c to f).

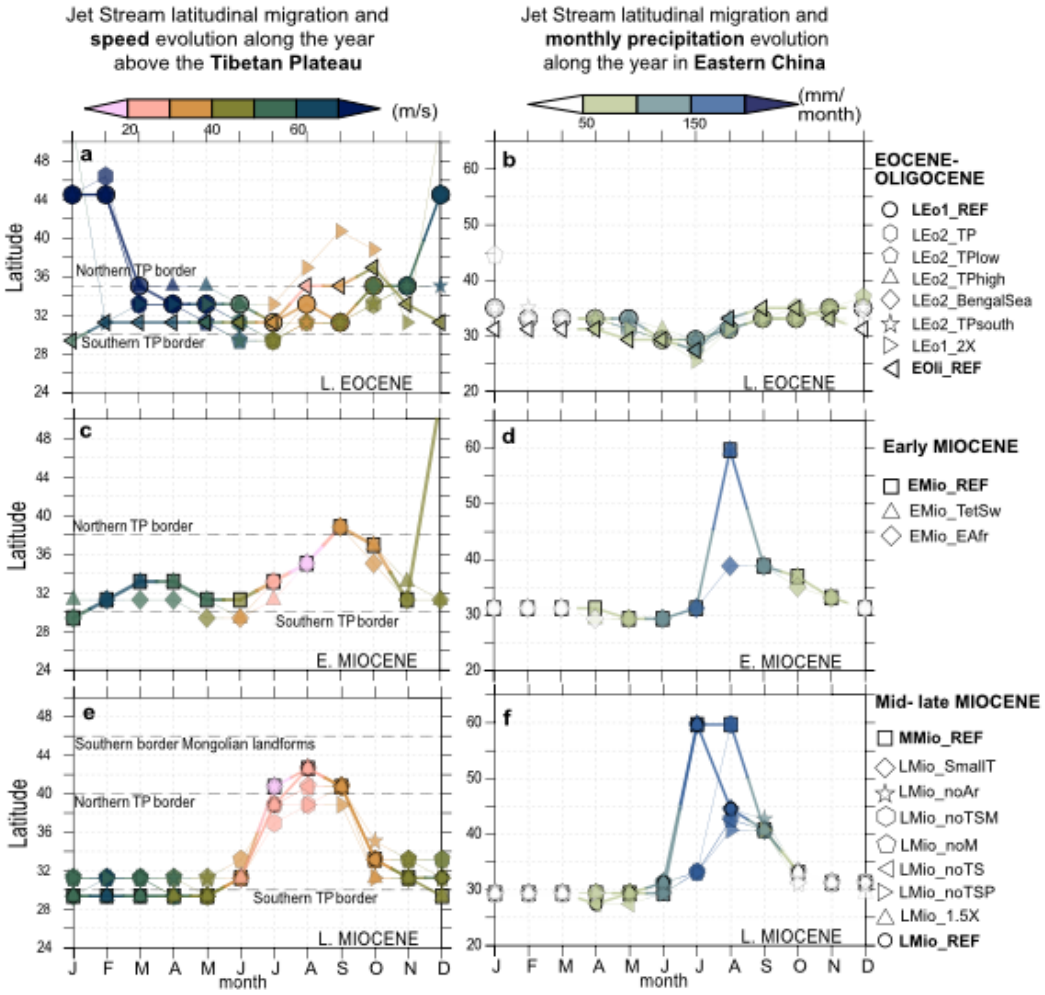

Figure 10. Jet Stream behavior throughout the year over the Tibetan Plateau and eastern China for all sensitivity experiments, divided into (**up**) late Eocene, (**mid**) early Miocene and (**bottom**) mid to late Miocene. (**left**) Jet Stream latitudinal migration and speed (shading) evolution along the year in the Tibetan region (averaged over 80:90°E). Mean latitudes of the northern and southern bounds of the Himalaya-Tibet and Mongolian landforms are indicated. (**right**) Jet Stream latitudinal position and precipitation amounts (shading) throughout the year in east Asia (averaged over 100:120°E).

5.2.3 East Asian winter monsoon: the Siberian High genesis

Our results suggest that pressure and wind patterns characterizing the modern EAWM established progressively, following an important reorganization of surface temperature gradients (Fig. 12, Fig. 13). In our Eocene experiment, a high-pressure band centered around 30°N is simulated but remains mainly zonal, following the large-scale winter descending branch of the Hadley cell driven by latitudinal surface temperature gradients (Fig. 12 b). The temperature difference between the Tibetan region (∼10 °C, located below the high pressure cell) and neighboring North Pacific Ocean (∼30 °C) remains relatively low (∼20 °C, Fig. 12 a) compared to modern winter temperature difference (∼40 °C, Fig. 14 h). As a result, no significant pressure difference is simulated between the Asian continent and the North Pacific in the Eocene and the calculated EAWM index is low (<5, Fig. 13), reflecting only the North-South pressure gradient between Asia and the Maritime Continent. The extent of the Asian high pressure zone increases gradually in the early Oligocene and early Miocene experiments (Fig. 12 d, f), but a modern-like Siberian High is only simulated in the mid and late Miocene experiments, when the anticyclone relocates over Siberia (∼40-60°N, Fig. 12 h, j). Additionally, the (North Pacific) Aleutian low relocates 10° to the south from the early Oligocene onwards and steadily weakens until the late Miocene (from over ∼14 to 10 hPa anomaly). These changes concur to progressively increase both North-South and East-West pressure gradients, and therefore the EAWM index, which reaches maximal values in the mid and late Miocene experiments (∼15, Fig. 13). Following this simulated pressure pattern reorganization, low tropospheric winds circulating over China display a progressive change in orientation: while remaining primarily zonal in the Paleogene and early Miocene experiments (Fig. 12 b, d), they increasingly tilt in the meridional direction under the development of the Siberian High in the mid and late Miocene experiments (Fig. 12 h, j). This profound reorganization of atmospheric circulation is driven by temperature gradient changes and mainly due to the progressive cooling of the Tibetan, Mongolian and Siberian regions, as illustrated by the ∼22° southward shift of the 0 °C isotherm between the late Eocene and the late Miocene simulations (Fig. 12 a, i).

5.2.4 Siberian High inception driven mainly by Mongolian uplift in the Miocene and its impact on precipitation seasonality

Our sensitivity experiments reveal the very strong impact of the Mongolian landform uplift (alone or together with the Tian Shan) in the mid-late Miocene on Asian winter pressure patterns. Indeed, their growth induces a strengthening of both the Siberian High (up to ∼6 hPa, Fig. 11 d, g) and the Aleutian Low, resulting in a reinforcement of the East-West and North-South pressure gradients and ultimately of the EAWM index (from ∼8 to ∼15, Fig. 13). Mongolian (and/or Tian Shan and/or Pamir) uplift also results in localized precipitation intercepted by the landforms (Fig. 11 d to o), despite the overall dryness of the inland Asian region (SI Fig. 15). As Mongolian uplift deviates the winter westerlies flux northward, Eastern China is swept by colder and drier winds coming from Siberia, which translates into a marked decrease in winter precipitation (up to 80% decrease, Fig. 11 d). These changes in the wintertime climate lead to an important expansion of regions displaying monsoon-like precipitation seasonality in eastern Asia (Fig. 11 f, i). The uplift of Tian Shan landforms, alone or together with the Pamir, has a lower impact on the winter pressure patterns compared to Mongolia uplift (Fig. 13) but nonetheless generates an almost complete drying on their eastern flanks (modern Gobi and Taklimakan deserts) because they act as an orographic barrier to westerly moisture flux (Fig. 11 g, j, m). Considering other sensitivity experiments, Asian winter climate exhibits only a weak response to changing Tibetan orography or pCO_2 values for Eocene conditions (SI Fig. 17 a to g, Fig. 13). Likewise, the Miocene winter pressure patterns in Asia are only mildly impacted by the Anatolian-Iranian landform uplift, the closure of the Tethyan Seaway, the Paratethys extent, or a pCO_2 drop from 560 to 420 ppm, when compared to the effect triggered by the Mongolian Plateau uplift (Fig. 13, SI Fig. 17 i to n and s, t).

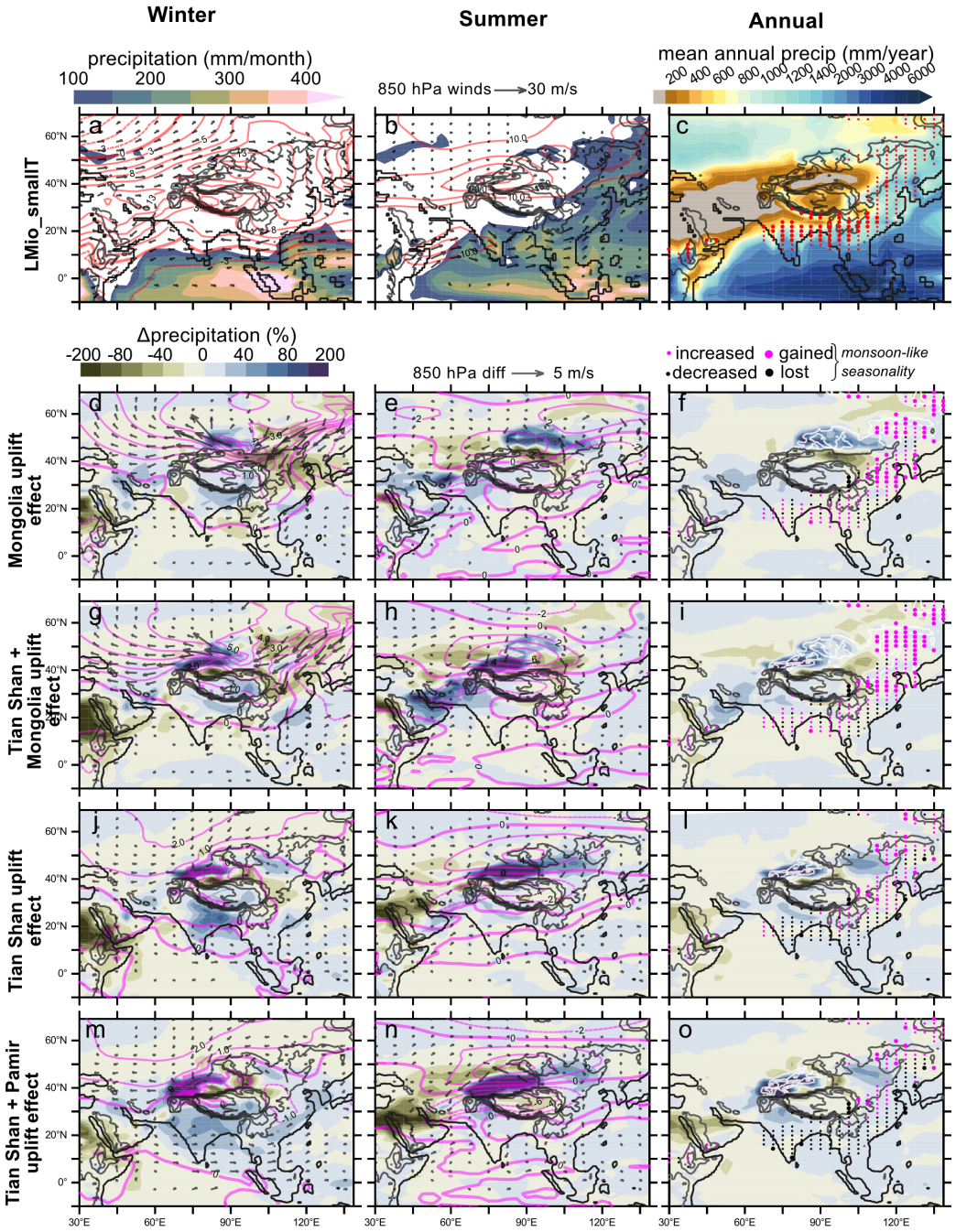

Figure 11. Influence of Mongolia, Tian Shan and Pamir regional uplifts on (**left column**) winter precipitation (shading), 850 hPa winds (vectors), Sea Level Pressure (contour) ; (**middle column**) on summer precipitation (shading), 850 hPa wind (vectors), jet stream speed (contour); (**right column**) mean annual precipitation (shading) and monsoon-like seasonality according to the MPI index (red dots). Sensitivity tests are compared to the LMio_smallT simulation (**a, b, c**) and anomalies (**d to o**) are expressed in order to highlight the impact of the uplift (i.e. LMio_smallT-test). We refer the reader to Figure 6 for an extended description of the pannels.

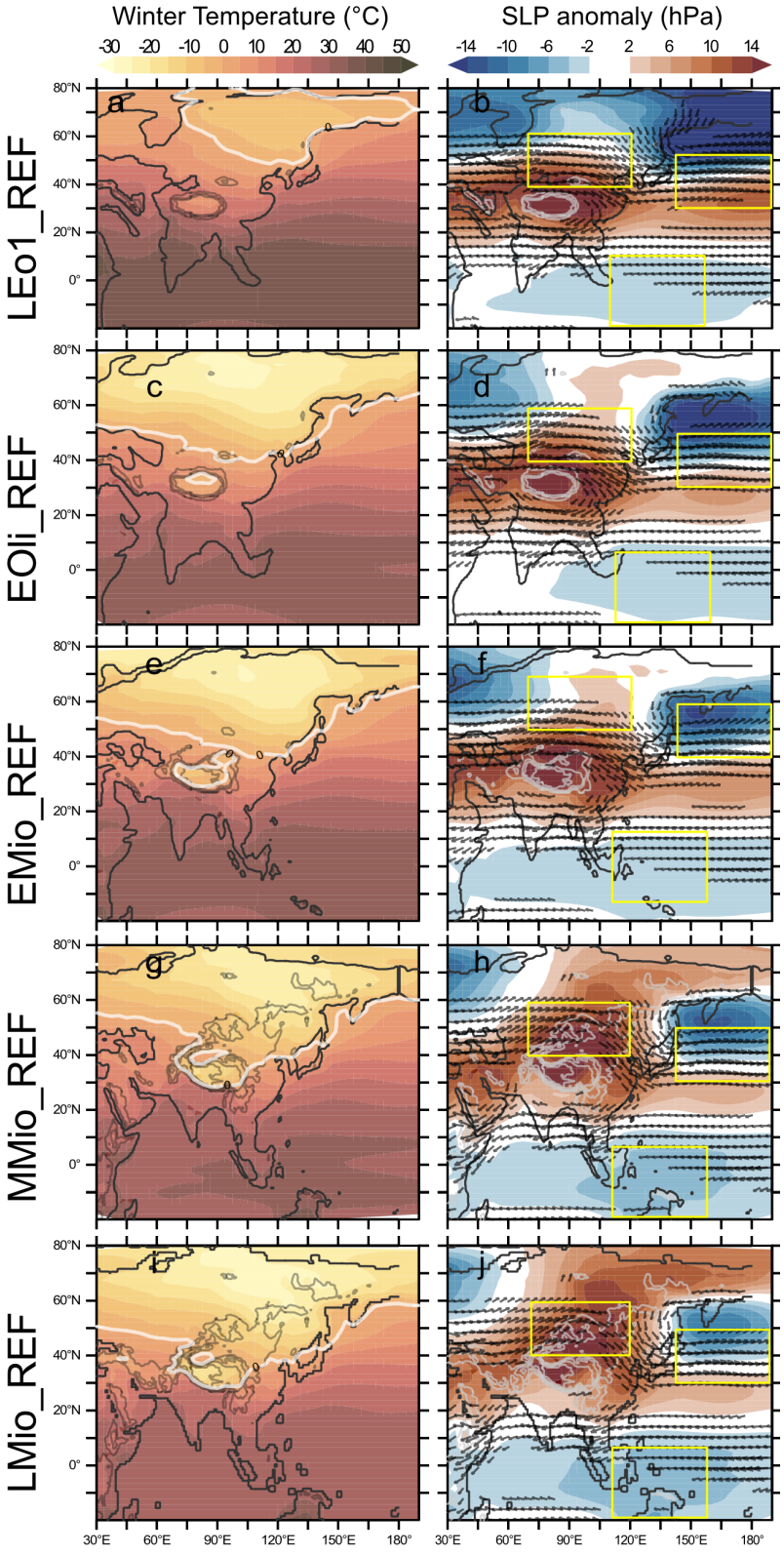

Figure 12. Evolution of the winter monsoon diagnostics throughout the Cenozoic. **Left column:** December-February (DJF) mean temperature at 2 m (shading, Celsius), and 0 °C isotherm (white contour); **Right column:** DJF normalized Sea Level Pressure anomaly (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds above 4 m/s (vectors). In all captions, topography is overlain in gray contour each 1000 m. Yellow boxes indicate the regions over which the sea level pressure gradients are calculated for the East Asian Winter Monsoon Index, presented in section 4.3

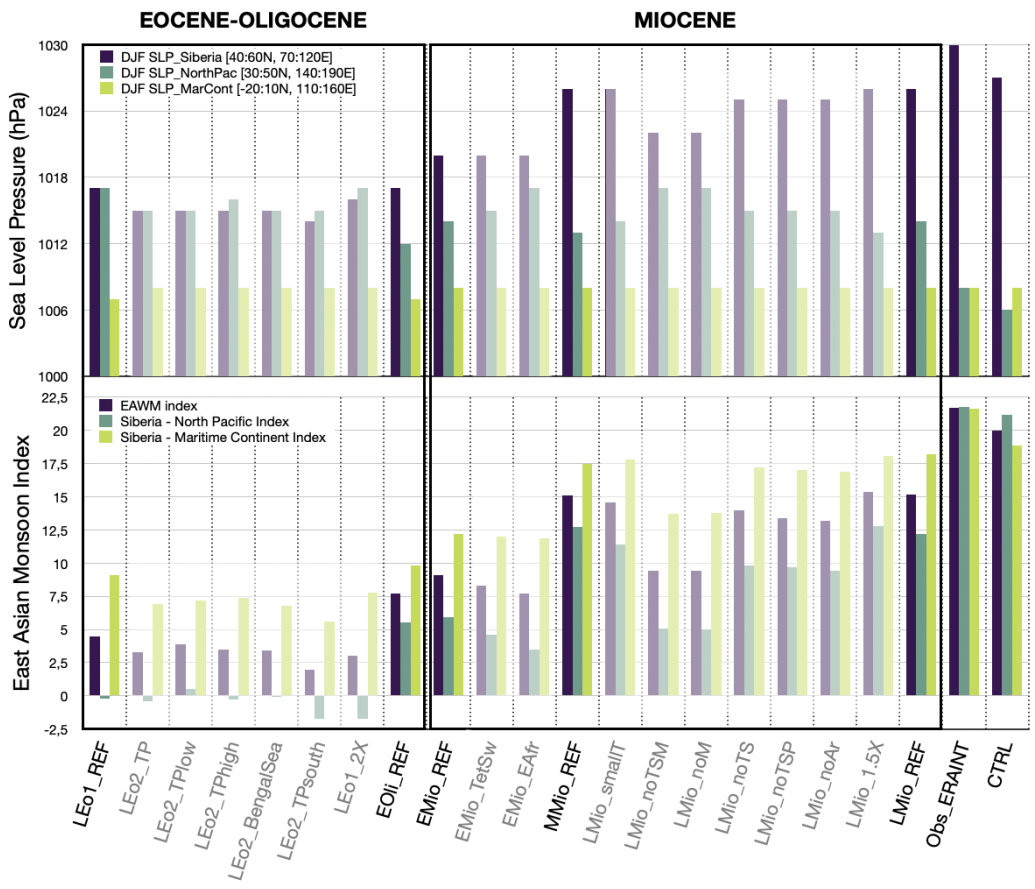

Figure 13. Upper panel: December-February (DJF) Sea Level Pressure (hPa) evolution over Siberia, North Pacific and the Maritime Continent ; **lower panel:** Evolution of the East Asian Winter Monsoon index (purple) and of the East-West and North-South regional indexes throughout the different reference and sensitivity experiments, after (L. Wang & Chen, 2014).

6 Discussion

A long-standing debate pits the effect of continentality against that of orography as the main driver of Asian climate evolution (Prell & Kutzbach, 1992; Kutzbach et al., 1993; Ramstein et al., 1997; Fluteau et al., 1999; Z. Zhang et al., 2007; Roe et al., 2016; Zoura et al., 2019; R. Zhang et al., 2021). Our results (summarized in Table 2) suggest that these two features impacted different climatic characteristics of the Asian monsoons and all contributed to the emergence of current Asian climate. In the following sections, we put our main findings in perspective with available paleoclimatic indicators and previous modeling work, and tackle specific questions raised in section 2.4.

6.1 Summer monsoons in the Eocene: driven by pCO_2, Tibetan paleogeography or continentality ?

Although the LEo1_REF experiment simulates the seasonally wet climate indicated by eastern Chinese floras well (Meng et al., 2018; Y. Xie et al., 2022), it fails to identify the subhumid to humid climate inferred from fossil paleoflora and paleofauna in northern India (Saxena & Trivedi, 2009) and Tibet (T. Su et al., 2020; Sorrel et al., 2017). In a previous study, this south Asian aridity bias in our experiment was interpreted as resulting from the hot surface temperatures simulated in India, together with strong mid-tropospheric subsidence that inhibits deep convection and condensation, especially over northern India (Tardif et al., 2020). However, a previous study using the same model and paleogeography was able to simulate monsoon-like climate in both the EAM and SAM domains, providing that orbital configurations induced summer solar maxima (Tardif et al., 2021). This orbitally-paced wet/dry climate dichotomy is, at least qualitatively, in agreement with stratigraphic and paleobotanic evidence from southern and eastern China (C. Huang & Hinnov, 2019; Licht et al., 2014) and hints at a strong sensitivity of the South Asian region to surface temperature gradients in the Eocene. Such sensitivity seems further confirmed by the fact that, in the present study, South Asian Eocene climate appears especially sensitive to experiments affecting land-sea distribution and global temperature (LEo1_2X and LEo2_BengalSea, SI Fig. 15 f, g).

The East Asian monsoon domain, on the other hand, displays sensitivity to topographic changes in the Tibetan region. We simulate that an uplift of a proto-TP (LEo2_TP - LEo2_TPLow) would result in an onset or increase in EAM monsoon-like precipitation seasonality due to increased summer precipitation (up to 50%, Fig. 6 e, SI Fig. 15 b, c, d), in agreement with previous modeling work (R. Zhang et al., 2018; R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; R. Zhang et al., 2021; Z. Zhang et al., 2007; X. Liu & Yin, 2002; X. Li et al., 2017; Farnsworth et al., 2019; Thomson et al., 2021). Likewise, the decreased EAM intensity and increased inland Asian aridity when the souther adge of the TP is situated at 30°N is coherent with a previous study testing the impact of the latitudinal position of the incipient TP (R. Zhang et al., 2018). Therefore, the inception or reinforcement of the East Asian summer monsoon in the Eocene seems intertwined with the TP evolution history, as well as with existing topography before the TP uplift (e.g. the Lhasa terrane), although their paleoelevation and extent is not well constrained. Furthermore, we show that monsoon-like rainfall seasonality may have occurred prior to the establishment of modern-like East Asian winter monsoon circulation and Jet Stream summer migration, which were likely established during the late Paleogene or the Neogene.

6.2 Forcing factors of wintertime climate variability

The observation of loess deposits in northeastern Tibet as early as 40 Ma was interpreted as resulting from the periodic inception (or reinforcement) of the Siberian High in winter due to enhanced continentality after the Paratethys Sea retreat (Meijer et al., 2021). Other loess deposits reported during the Oligocene in the Chinese Loess Plateau and Mongolia, apparently coeval with periods of cooling and ice-sheet expansion (J. Sun &

Windley, 2015; Wasiljeff et al., 2022), further suggest the presence of a Siberian High and corresponding dust transport in the late Paleogene. The potential forcing factors driving the establishment of this winter pressure pattern have, however, been significantly less studied than summer monsoons dynamics, with studies mostly focusing on the impact of orography rather than continentality (White et al., 2017; Sha et al., 2015; Baldwin & Vecchi, 2016). Our results suggest that both increased continentality and regional uplift contributed together to the progressive inception of the modern Siberian High, while pCO_2 decrease alone had a lesser impact (Fig. 13). A modern-like Siberian High with typical EAWM wind patterns is however not simulated until our middle and late Miocene simulations, when the Tian Shan, but especially the Mongolian landforms, are set to their present-day elevation in the model.

Previous modeling work based on present-day geography that tested the effect of Mongolian landform uplift (Sha et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2018; R. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Cheng, & Zhang, 2017) reproduced the same tendencies that we present here, namely a strong increase of the winter sea level pressure over Siberia and typical deviation of the westerlies towards northern latitudes resulting in a pronounced drying of eastern Asia and EAWM amplification (Fig. 11 d). Other studies focusing more on the summer monsoon simulate increased EASM precipitation and wind circulation, although they incorporate Tian Shan uplift together with Mongolia (Yu et al., 2018; R. Zhang et al., 2012; H. Tang et al., 2013; Zhisheng et al., 2001), which remains coherent with our findings testing the uplift of both features (Fig. 11 h). Although the effect of Mongolian landforms has not been explicitly tested in paleoclimate modeling studies using realistic paleogeographic reconstructions, we can generally observe that when a modern-like Mongolian orography is prescribed, the simulated winds and precipitation are close to the modern-like EAWM (Licht et al., 2014; X. Li et al., 2017), while this is not the case with a reduced Mongolia elevation (Huber & Goldner, 2012). Given the large uncertainties related to the Hangay Dome uplift history, performing additional experiments testing the impact of an early uplift in an Oligocene configuration could enable one to evaluate the potential presence of a Siberian High at that time, and therefore help interpret early loess-like deposits observed at that time in the Chinese Loess Plateau and Mongolia (J. Sun & Windley, 2015; Wasiljeff et al., 2022). Loess-like deposition in the Xining Basin at ∼40 Ma, however, seems too old to be attributed to the development of the modern Siberian High, given that Mongolia was probably at low elevation and that continentality alone does not seem sufficient to trigger a modern-like Siberian anticyclone. This suggests that alternative mechanisms for dust transport should be explored for this period, although testing this hypothesis would require new data such as daily to hourly wind speed model outputs (Aoki et al., 2005).

6.3 The critical role of peripheral landforms in the establishment of monsoon seasonal features in the Miocene

In agreement with previous studies (R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; Acosta & Huber, 2020; H. Tang et al., 2013), our results highlight the key role played by the Anatolian-Iranian Plateau uplift in modern-like SAM establishment, as it reinforces both summer rainfall and winter aridity (Fig. 9 j, k). The effect of the Tian Shan uplift on Asian climate is less conspicuous, likely owing to the proximity of these mountains to other important landforms (e.g. Pamir-Karakoram, Anatolian-Iranian Plateau, Mongolia), which may result in competing effects on the regional climate. While a rigorous comparison between our results and previous studies is hampered by many diverging boundary conditions, all tend to indicate that the Tian Shan uplift would have: i) increased yearly orographic precipitation on the ranges, ii) decreased precipitation in inland Asian mid-latitudes and iii) reinforced the EAM through increased summer precipitation (Fig. 11 m, n, o) (Baldwin & Vecchi, 2016; H. Tang et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2018; R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; R. Zhang, Jiang, Zhang, Cheng, & Zhang, 2017). The key role played by the Tian Shan ranges (together with the Pamir and Mongolian landforms) in triggering the Jet Stream northward migration in summer (SI Fig. 18 e, f, Fig. 9 e, h, k, n), as suggested by previous modeling work derived

from present-day geography (Sha et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2015), likely contributes to this EASM intensification. Substantial differences are nevertheless noted with other modeling studies, especially regarding the impact of Tian Shan uplift on inland Asian and northeastern Indian climate, likely due to these regions' key location on the westerlies path. Westerlies may indeed be deviated either to the North or the South, depending on the respective degree of elevation of the Iranian-Anatolian Plateau and the Tian Shan. While we simulate a weakening of SAM rainfall seasonality due to increased winter precipitation after the Tian Shan uplift, the opposite trend is simulated in studies where the Anatolian-Iranian Plateau is already fully uplifted at the time of the Tian Shan uplift, thus preventing the westerlies from bringing moisture to India (Baldwin & Vecchi, 2016; H. Tang et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2018; R. Zhang, Jiang, & Zhang, 2017; X. Wang et al., 2020).

Our set of simulations also highlights that East African topography can strongly impact the Neogene evolution of the SASM as it greatly contributes to the establishment of modern-like atmospheric circulation, as discussed by Sarr et al. (2022). The presence of intermediate to high elevation topography in East Africa in the early Miocene is for example crucial for the "early" bending of the Somali Jet, before the closure of the West Tethys Seaway and establishment of Anatolian-Iranian topography with modern-like elevation (Fig. 9 e). Increasing elevation in Eastern Africa is also responsible, in our simulations, for increasing SASM precipitation. This contrasts with previous studies that simulate reduced SASM precipitation, due to African topography blocking the advection of moisture from equatorial Africa towards India (H.-H. Wei & Bordoni, 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2009). We hypothesize that this difference may come from these studies using present-day paleogeography, and/or unchanged fixed sea surface temperatures for all the experiments, thereby neglecting the potential effect of the East African uplift on Indian Ocean surface temperature gradients. It is also very likely that the impact of East African highlands uplift on South Asian rainfall regime may be modulated by the degree of uplift in the Iranian-Anatolian region. Better constraints on the relative degree of uplift of these different mountain ranges in the past, although seldom taken into account, is therefore critical to interpreting paleoenvironmental indicators.

6.4 Continentality increase in the Miocene and acts as an amplifier of SAM, EAM and inland aridity

The northward motion of the ITCZ over the Arabian Sea and the stronger SASM precipitation in response to continentality increase in the Miocene is a feature clearly simulated in our experiments, and which is obtained with either the Paratethys Sea retreat or an emerging Arabian Peninsula (Fig. 8 e, h). The role of the Paratethys Sea retreat as a vector of amplified summer low pressure and resulting moisture advection via a strengthened Somali Jet is well established by modeling experiments (Ramstein et al., 1997; Fluteau et al., 1999; R. Zhang et al., 2021; Z. Zhang et al., 2007). The Paratethys Sea retreat also drastically dries the winter-time "westerly corridor" (centered around 40°N, Fig. 8 h), resulting in increased inland Asian aridity (Fig. 8 i), here again mostly in coherence with previous modeling studies (R. Zhang et al., 2021; Z. Zhang et al., 2007), and field evidence (Palcu et al., 2021). On the other hand, the effect of increased land exposure in the Arabian Peninsula region on Asian climate has been, to our knowledge, significantly less explored by modeling studies and is rarely mentioned as a potential forcing factor in proxy data studies. We tentatively attribute this to the lack of constraints and data in this region. Given the shallow depth and extension of the Arabian Peninsula (roughly comparable to India's area), it is very likely that the episodes of partial or complete flooding that occurred throughout the Oligocene to late Miocene (Barrier et al., 2018; Otero & Gayet, 2001) may have had great consequences on atmospheric circulation patterns. Following Sarr et al. (2022), our results show that increased peninsula exposure reinforces the Somali Jet in summer and enhances summer precipitation in SAM and EAM domains (Fig. 8 e). Additionally, it drives the onset of upwelling in the Arabian Sea (see Sarr et al. (2022)), which is traditionally used as a proxy for the establishment of a monsoon wind regime in South Asia. Our simu-

lations suggest that a proto Somali Jet and intense summer precipitation were most likely established in the middle Miocene, before the Arabian Peninsula emergence, and therefore before any strong upwelling activity initiated in the Arabian Sea. In addition, the onset of upwelling in the Arabian Sea was likely uncorrelated to potential Miocene uplift events in the Himalaya-Tibet region (Sarr et al., 2022).

6.5 Persistent uncertainties and directions for future work

Our study demonstrates the key role played by land-sea distribution and by all topographic features surrounding the Indian Ocean in shaping the modern SAM, EAM and inland Asia aridity. Nevertheless, additional work is required both from modeling and in the field to help refine our understanding of the mechanisms at play throughout the Cenozoic in Asia. By showing the influence of several geographical units on Asian climate during different geological periods, our results highlight the conceptual limitations of performing tests based on present-day geographies or assuming homogeneous Asian orographic uplift throughout geological history to evaluate past monsoon evolution. In that respect, it is not surprising that most of those type of studies simulate modern-like summer and winter monsoons features when maintaining high-elevation African, Mongolian and Anatolian-Iranian landforms, as well as an emerged Arabian platform (Roe et al., 2016; Zoura et al., 2019; Acosta & Huber, 2020). Our results also suggest that some paleogeographic events considered roughly coeval may have had opposite influences on the Asian climate's seasonal features, for example the Tian Shan and Anatolian-Iranian Plateau uplift discussed in section 6.2. Refining the relative chronology of these various uplift phases is therefore paramount to better interpret the variations in monsoon intensity recorded by proxy data. Additionally, paleoelevation thresholds are likely to be critical for constraining Asian climate evolution, due to interactions of the topography with either low level (e.g. the summer monsoon winds) or mid tropospheric (e.g. the Jet Stream) air masses (X. Liu & Yin, 2002; X. Wang et al., 2020; Zhisheng et al., 2001; Prell & Kutzbach, 1992).

We also aknowledge that a better understanding of the seasonal monsoon mechanisms simulated here would benefit from additional simulations performed with increased spatial and temporal resolution. Previous work have for example demonstrated the importance of high spatial resolution in the full depiction of the SASM circulation (Acosta & Huber, 2017) or the study of the interplay between the summer Jet Stream behavior and the formation of the Meiyu-Bayu front in Eastern Asia (Kong et al., 2017; Sampe & Xie, 2010). Additional diagnostics at planetary-scale, may also provide interesting comparison with previous studies on the impact of monsoon dynamics on large scale circulation patterns and long-distance teleconnections (Rodwell & Hoskins, 1996; Merlis et al., 2013; Biasutti et al., 2018).

A more precise view of land-sea distribution and regional seaway evolution is also paramount. Indeed, these factors influence SST gradients, thereby controlling sea level pressure patterns, low tropospheric circulation, and oceanic circulation. Although our results point to a minimal effect of the mechanical closure of the Tethyan Seaway on regional climate, other features need to be tested. For example, a better understanding of the Indonesian Gateway and Indonesian throughflow evolution would be of great interest, as these control in part Indo-Pacific Warm Pool SST distribution (Cane & Molnar, 2001; Tan et al., 2022) and may thus have influenced Asian climate (Q. Su et al., 2019). While the final step of the Indonesian Gateway constriction likely occurred during the Pliocene (Auer et al., 2019), its paleobathymetry and complex geometric configuration remain largely undocumented between 17-3.5 Ma (Kuhnt et al., 2004). While no major tectonic deformation is thought to have occurred during this period, the shallow depth of the gateway likely made it sensitive to middle Miocene sea level fluctuations (Sosdian & Lear, 2020), with possible impact on the Eastern Indian and Western Pacific Oceans surface temperatures and therefore on SST gradients. Although more distant from Asia, studies have also pointed to a possible influence of the Central American Seaway (Prabhat et al., 2022) or Drake (Toumoulin et

al., 2020) and Tasman (Scher et al., 2015) Gateway openings on oceanic circulation, which may have in turn impacted sea surface temperature gradients and monsoon activity.

7 Conclusions

In this study, we took advantage of recent work that extended the Asian paleomonsoonal record back to the Paleogene and of the improved understanding of the physical concepts underpinning the monsoons derived from climate model sensitivity experiments. Overall, we simulate an intensification of monsoonal metrics throughout the Cenozoic, in response to evolving paleogeography and global climate trends. Our results suggest that modern-like monsoons likely existed since at least the mid-late Miocene when considering together patterns of atmospheric circulation as well as seasonality and precipitation amounts, in agreement with paleoclimate indicators. However, we also show that high rainfall seasonality already existed since the Paleogene in both SAM and EAM domains, before the establishment of modern atmospheric circulation patterns. In accord with previous studies, our results highlight the limited effect of pCO_2 on monsoon dynamics, when compared to the effect of paleogeographic changes. A notable exception is the strong impact of a pCO_2 drawdown at the EOT on the northward migration of the subtropical Jet Stream during summer, which increases precipitation in the EAM region.

Our results also strongly suggest that any variations in the land-sea distribution, whether due to tectonic activity or sea level fluctuations, would have strongly impacted Asian climate, despite the fact that the exact shape and extent of coastal shallow-water environments remain poorly constrained. Many episodes of increased continentality are documented over the course of the Cenozoic, including regional regressions of the Paratethys epicontinental Sea and periodic exposure of the Arabian Platform due to sea level fluctuations since the Eocene-Oligocene Transition. All of these events likely favored the enhancement of summer moisture penetration into Asia, by promoting the extension of the wide subtropical low pressure belt, thereby amplifying the seasonal latitudinal migration of the ITCZ on land.

In addition, while the evolution of the Himalayan-TP complex is recurrently put forward as the leading phenomenon driving Asian climate evolution, our results rather point towards a combined effect of all landforms surrounding the modern Indian Ocean. We also emphasize that all paleogeographic features do not bear the same importance on the SASM, EASM or EAWM, respectively. Our simulations suggest that the Tibetan Plateau uplift likely favored the onset of monsoon-like precipitation seasonality in eastern Asia in the Eocene, by promoting the advection of moist air masses in summer and partially shielding the region from westerly moisture input during winter. Alongside that, we show that the uplift of Eastern African and Anatolian-Iranian landforms was critical to intensify and redirect the Somali Jet towards the Indian subcontinent, thereby contributing to the development of a modern-like South Asian monsoon summer circulation and amplifying moisture advection towards Asia in summer. In addition, in our simulations, the uplift of the Anatolian-Iranian orogen contributed to enhancing winter aridity in most of southeastern Asia by blocking moisture advection from the westerlies to lower latitudes.

Our simulations further show that uplift of the Tian Shan and the Mongolian mountains was key for the establishment of the winter Siberian High, and resulting aridification of inland and eastern Asia during winter. The summer Jet Stream migration north of the Tibetan Plateau was likely amplified in the mid-late Miocene, as the Pamir and Tian Shan landforms approached their modern elevations and contributed to channeling the jet towards higher latitudes. This relocation of the Jet Stream amplifies the penetration of moist air masses over eastern China, which contributes to increasing EAM precipitation seasonality. Overall, our results do suggest a fundamentally polygenetic history of monsoonal evolution, in agreement with available paleoclimate indicators and previous modeling studies. This suggests that the very concept of a "monsoon onset" is inappropriate. We also stress the

need for more accurate constraints on the evolution of paleo-shorelines, the relative timing of peripheral mountain belts uplift, as well as on the paleo-evelation of landforms in order to better understand the evolution of Asian climate in the past.

Acronyms

ITCZ Inter Tropical Convergence Zone
SASM South Asian Summer Monsoon
EASM East Asian Summer Monsoon
EAWM East Asian Winter Monsoon
TP Tibetan Plateau
EOT Eocene Oligocene Transition
CLAMP Climate Leaf Analysis Multivariate Program

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8 Supplementary

	Reference
1	(Averyanova et al., 2021)
2	(Hellwig et al., 2018)
3	(Macaulay et al., 2016)
4	(Caves Rugenstein et al., 2017)
5	(Carrapa et al., 2015)
6	(J. Sun et al., 2022)
7	(J. Sun et al., 2010)
8	(J. Sun & Windley, 2015)
9	(Baldermann et al., 2021)
10	(Caves Rugenstein et al., 2014)
11	(Kent-Corson et al., 2009)
12	(Zheng et al., 2015)
13	(Meijer et al., 2021)
14	(Licht et al., 2014)
15	(Wasiljeff et al., 2022)
16	(Hoorn et al., 2012)
17	(X. Ma & Jiang, 2015)
18	(Guo et al., 2002)
19	(Guo et al., 2008)
20	(Q. Yuan et al., 2020)
21	(Ao et al., 2016)
22	(Ao et al., 2021)
23	(Shen et al., 2017)
24	(S. Li et al., 2018)
25	(C. Huang & Hinnov, 2019)
26	(Ling et al., 2021)
27	(Spicer et al., 2017)
28	(Herman et al., 2017)
29	(Vornlocher et al., 2021)
30	(J. Ren et al., 2021)
31	(Q. Wang et al., 2021)
32	(Fang et al., 2021)
33	(Zheng et al., 2022)
34	(Sorrel et al., 2017)
35	(Jacques, Guo, et al., 2011)
36	(Xia et al., 2009)
37	(Xing et al., 2012)
38	(Wan et al., 2007)
39	(Jia et al., 2003)
40	(Clift et al., 2008)
41	(Clift, 2020)
42	(Z. Ding et al., 2021)
43	(Srivastava et al., 2012)
44	(Bhatia, Khan, et al., 2021)
45	(Shukla et al., 2014)
46	(Khan et al., 2014)
47	(Vögeli et al., 2017)
48	(Bhatia et al., 2022)
49	(Bhatia, Srivastava, et al., 2021)
50	(Srivastava et al., 2018)
51	(Sanyal et al., 2004)
52	(S. Ali et al., 2021)
53	(Betzler et al., 2016)
54	(Betzler et al., 2018)
55	(Beasley et al., 2021)
56	(Zhuang et al., 2017)

Table 3. List of references used in Figure 2 for paleoclimate indicators compilation

	Reference (suite)
57	(Page et al., 2019)
58	(Q. Yuan et al., 2021)
59	(Meng et al., 2018)
60	(Miao et al., 2013)
61	(Z. Zhang & Sun, 2011)
62	(J. Sun & Zhang, 2008)
63	(Q.-g. Sun et al., 2002)
64	(J. Sun et al., 2020)
65	(T. Su, Spicer, et al., 2019)
66	(M. Wu et al., 2021)
67	(Song et al., 2020)
68	(Miao, Wu, et al., 2016)
69	(D. Rea et al., 1985)
70	(Pettke et al., 2002)
71	(Ziegler et al., 2007)
72	(B. Li et al., 2016)
73	(Garzione et al., 2005)
74	(Qiang et al., 2011)
75	(Bougeois et al., 2018)
76	(W. Yang et al., 2019)
77	(J. Lee et al., 2020)
78	(Bolton et al., 2022)
79	(Hui et al., 2021)
80	(Miao, Song, et al., 2016)
81	(H. Zhao et al., 2020)
82	(C. Yang et al., 2021)
83	(L. Zhao et al., 2020)
84	(Heermance et al., 2018)
85	(J. Liu et al., 2016)
86	(Jiang & Ding, 2008)
87	(Peng et al., 2016)
88	(Suarez et al., 2011)
89	(Barbolini et al., 2020)
90	(Y. Ma et al., 2005)
91	(H. Wang et al., 2019)
92	(Jiang et al., 2017)
93	(W. Liu et al., 2014)
94	(Kaakinen et al., 2006)
95	(Y. Wang & Deng, 2005)
96	(F. Li et al., 2008)
97	(Z. Liu et al., 2014)
98	(Miao et al., 2011)
99	(Charreau et al., 2012)
100	(Holbourn et al., 2018)
101	(G. Wei et al., 2006)
102	(Y. Huang et al., 2007)
103	(Gupta et al., 2015)
104	(X. Yang et al., 2020)
105	(Bialik et al., 2020)
106	(H. Tang et al., 2020)
107	(H. Huang et al., 2021)
108	(Hoorn et al., 2000)
109	(Polissar et al., 2021)
110	(Y. Xie et al., 2022)

Table 4. (suite) List of references used in Figure 2 for paleoclimate indicators compilation

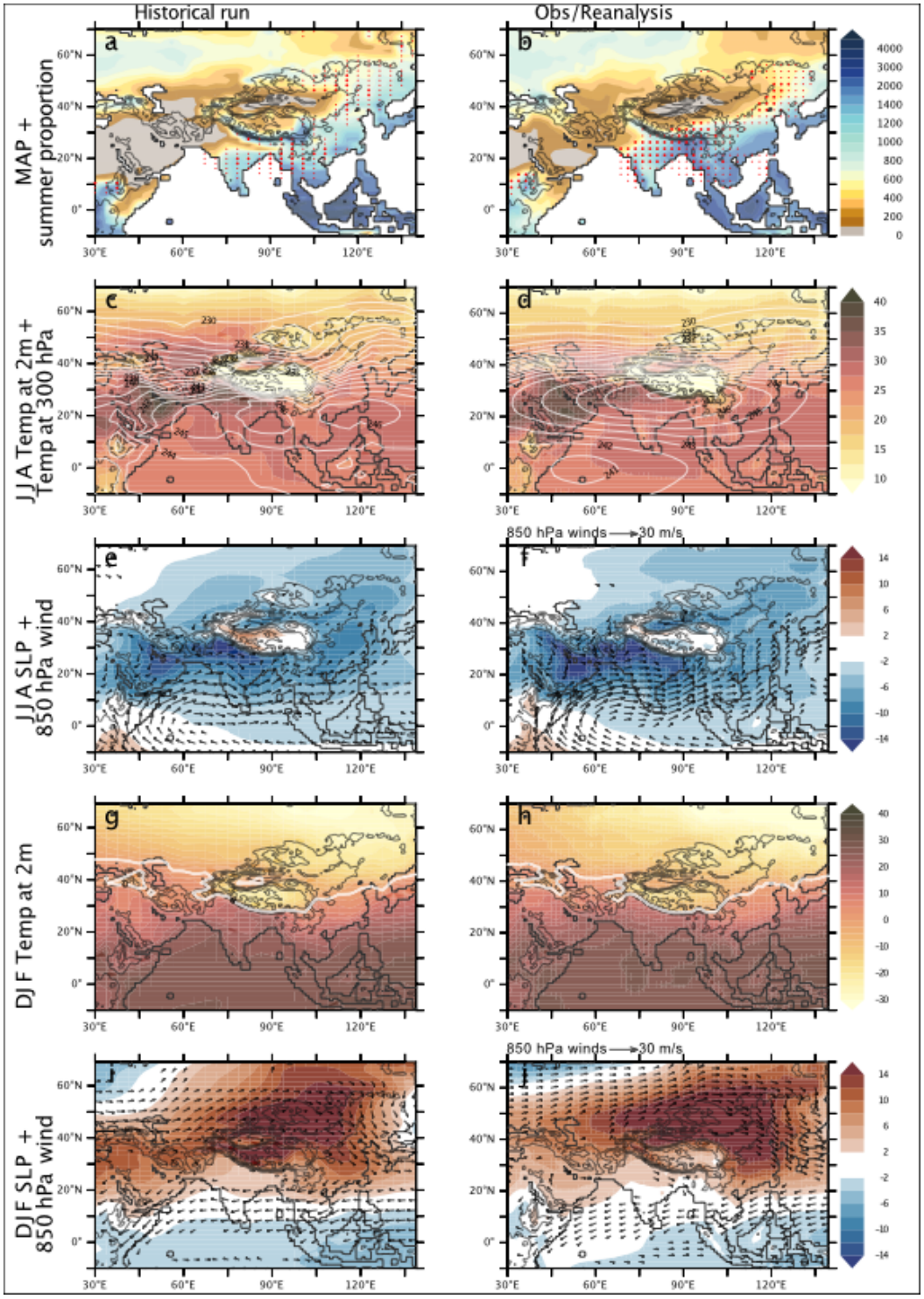

Figure 14. Comparison of monsoon diagnostics obtained in our control historical simulation (**Left column**) with modern observations and reanalysis (**Right column**). **(a, b)** Mean Annual Precipitations (shading, mm/yr), and regions where the Monsoon Precipitation Index is over 0.5 (thin red dots) and 0.75 (thick red dots) ; **(c, d)** JJA mean 2 m temperature (shading, Celsius) and 300 hPa atmospheric temperature (white contour, Kelvin) ; **(e, f)** JJA normalized Sea Level Pressure anomalies (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds (vectors over 4 m/s); **(g, h)** DJF mean 2 m temperature (shading, Celsius) ; **(i, j)** DJF normalized Sea Level Pressure anomalies (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds (vectors over 4 m/s). In all captions, topography in gray contour, each 1000 m. On the right column, precipitation are from GPCP, pressure and 300hPa temperature from ERAINT, 850hPa winds and surface temperature from ERA40.

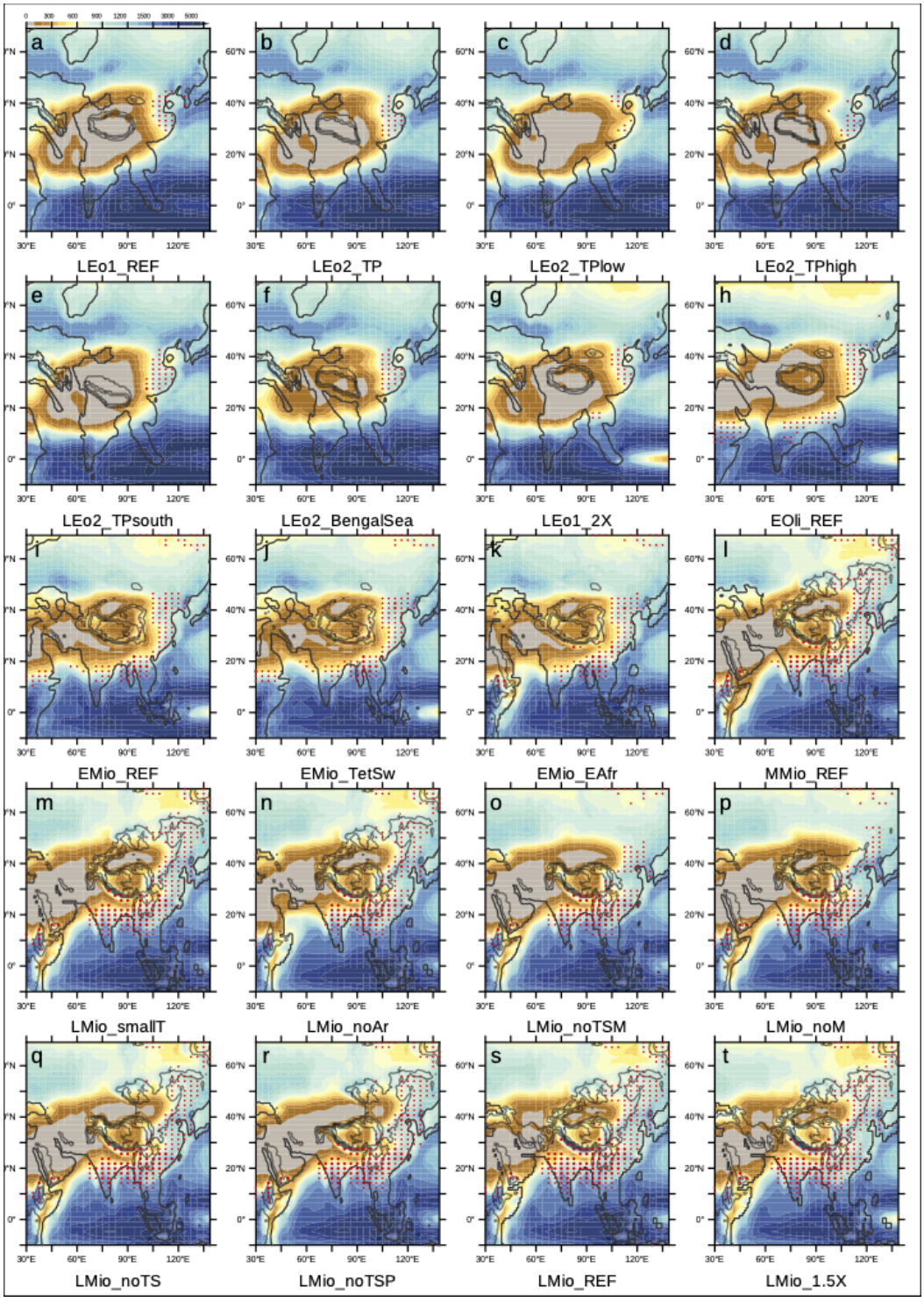

Figure 15. Mean Annual Precipitation (shading, mm/yr), overlain with regions where the Monsoon Precipitation Index (B. Wang & Ding, 2008) is over 0.5 (thin red dots) and 0.75 (thick red dots), for all reference and sensitivity experiments.

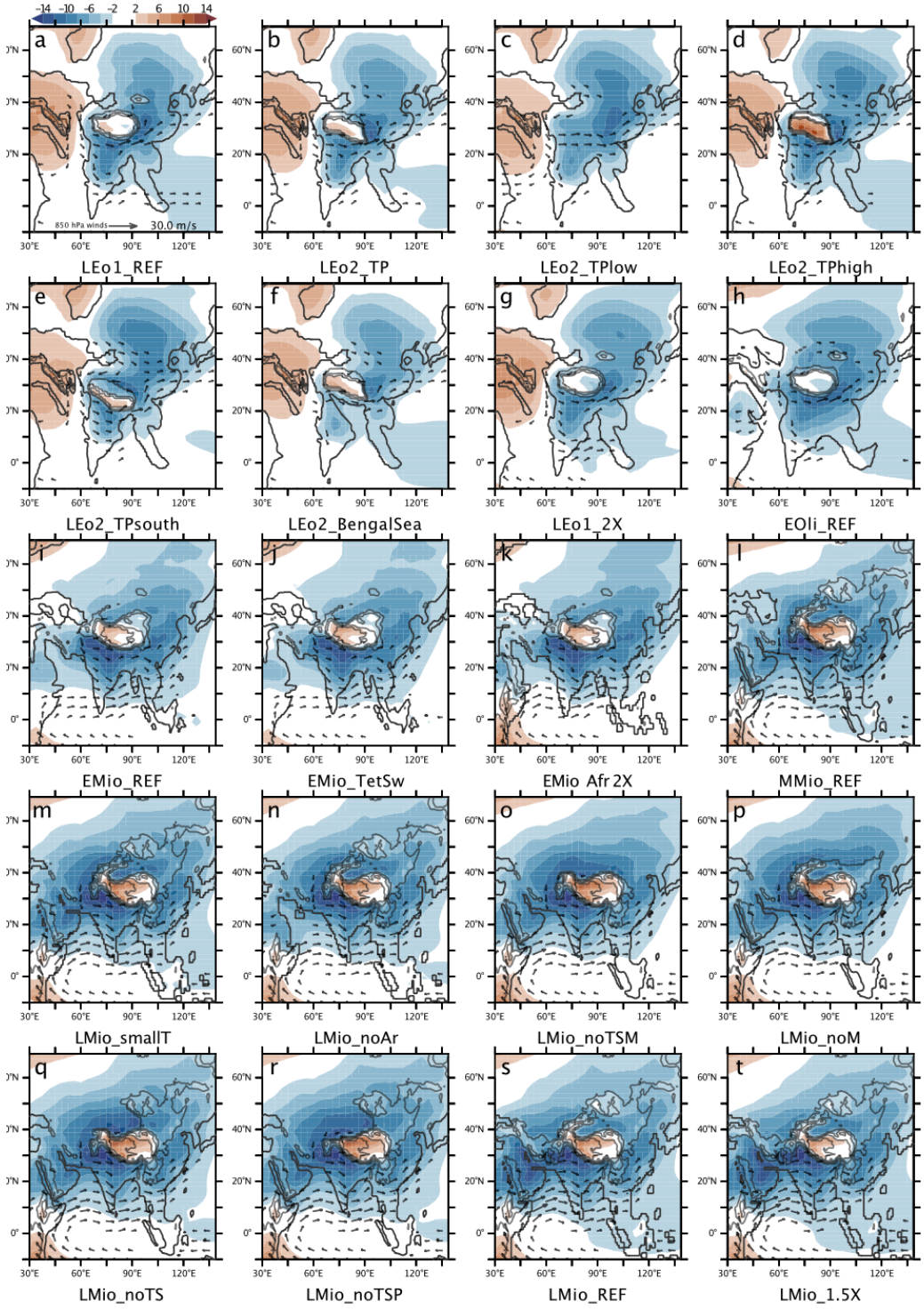

Figure 16. June-August (JJA) normalized Sea Level Pressure anomalies (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds over 4 m/s (vectors), for all reference and sensitivity experiments.

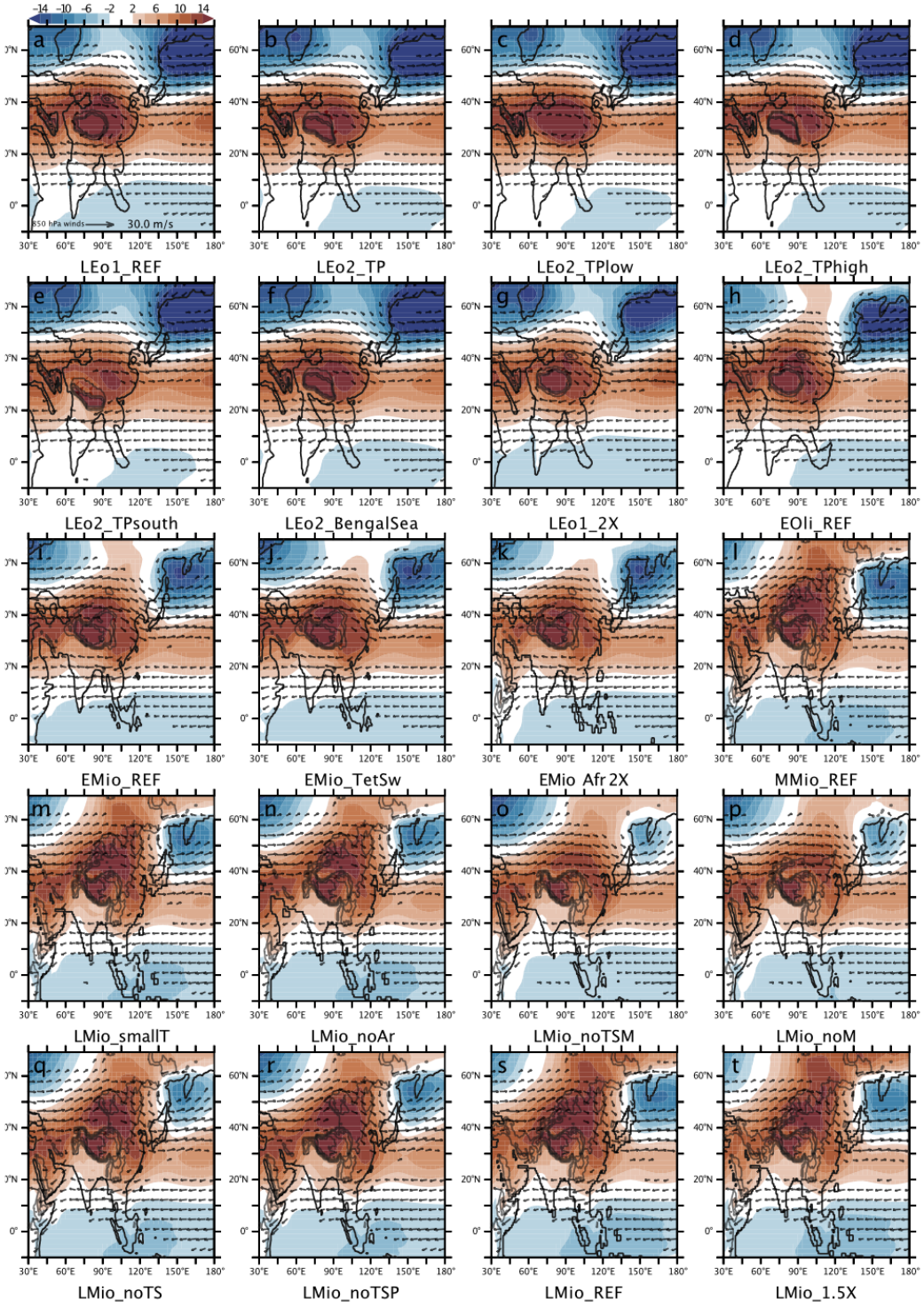

Figure 17. December-February (DJF) normalized Sea Level Pressure anomalies (shading, hPa) and 850 hPa winds over 4 m/s (vectors), for all reference and sensitivity experiments.

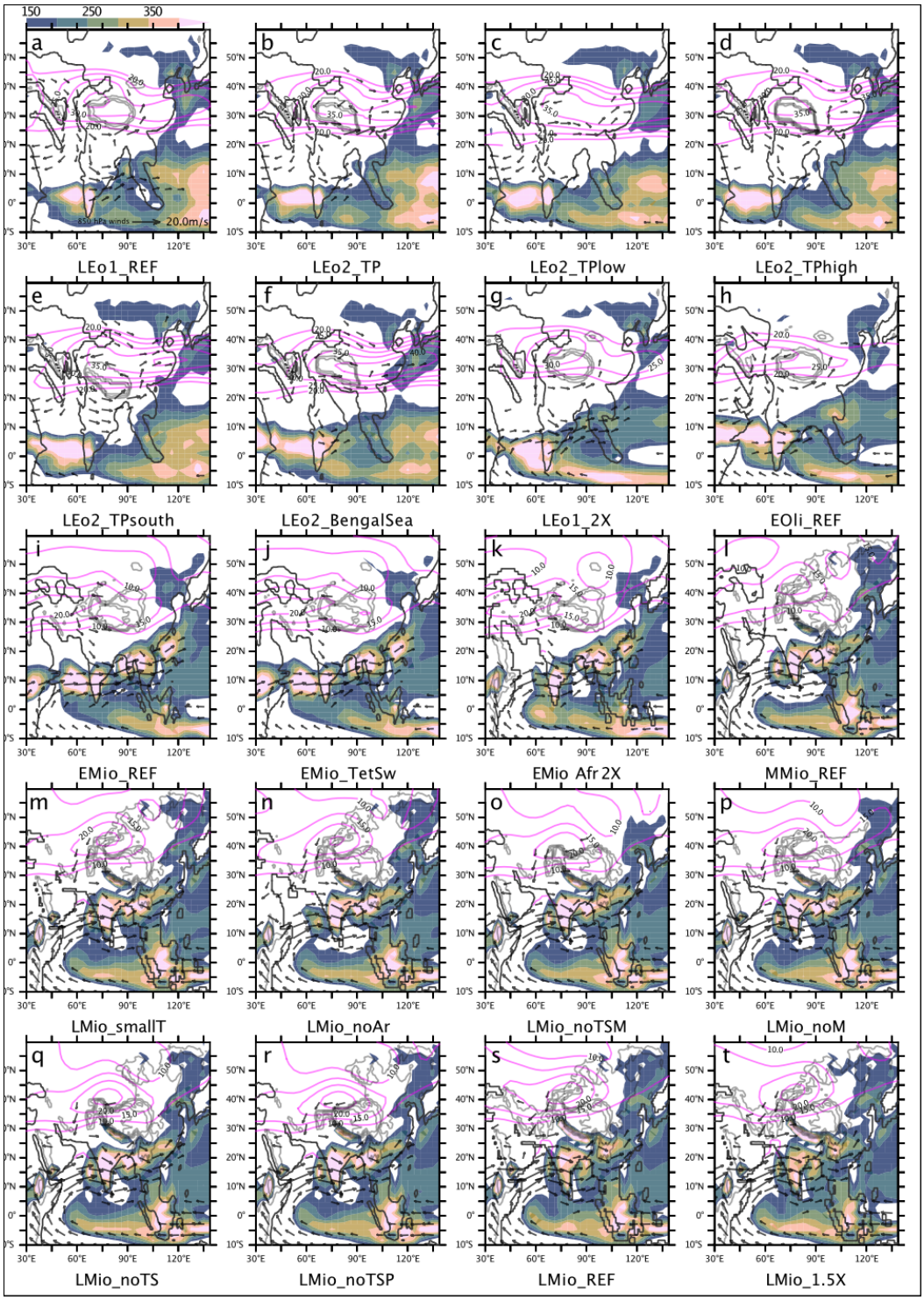

Figure 18. Jet Stream velocity and localization over Asia in August (purple outline), for all sensitivity experiments and precipitation for the month of August (shading, mm/month).