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# Proto-monsoon rainfall and greening in Central Asia due to extreme early Eocene warmth

Niels Meijer<sup>1</sup>, Alexis Licht<sup>2</sup>, Amber Woutersen<sup>3</sup>, Carina Hoorn<sup>3</sup>, Faez RobinChampigneul<sup>4</sup>, Alexander Rohrmann<sup>5</sup>, Mattia Tagliavento<sup>6</sup>, Julia Brugger<sup>1</sup>, Fanni D.
Kelemen<sup>7</sup>, Andrew J. Schauer<sup>8</sup>, Micheal T. Hren<sup>9</sup>, Aijun Sun<sup>10-12</sup>, Jens Fiebig<sup>6</sup>,
Andreas Mulch<sup>1,6</sup>, Guillaume Dupont-Nivet<sup>13,14</sup>

7 1) Senckenberg Biodiversity and Climate Research Centre (SBiK-F), Frankfurt am
8 Main, Germany.

9 2) CNRS, IRD, INRAE, CEREGE, Aix Marseille University, Aix-en-Provence, France.

3) Department of Ecosystem and Landscape Dynamics (ELD), Institute for Biodiversity
and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, the
Netherlands.

4) Maastricht University, Faculty of Science and Engineering, Maastricht Science
Programme, Maastricht, the Netherlands.

15 5) Institute of Geological Sciences, Freie Universität Berlin, Berlin, Germany

16 6) Goethe University Frankfurt, Institute of Geosciences, Frankfurt am Main, Germany.

17 7) Goethe University Frankfurt, Institute for Atmospheric and Environmental Sciences,

18 Frankfurt am Main, Germany.

19 8) Department of Earth and Space Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA,

20 USA.

21 9) Department of Earth Sciences, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT, USA

10) Key Laboratory of Western China's Environmental Systems (Ministry of
Education), College of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Lanzhou University,
Lanzhou, China.

25 11) Key Laboratory of Desert and Desertification, Northwest Institute of Eco-26 Environment

and Resources, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou, China.

12) University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China.

13) Géosciences Rennes-UMR CNRS 6118, Univ Rennes, CNRS, Rennes, France.

30 14) GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, Potsdam, Germany

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The dry continental interior of Asia has remained arid throughout most of its 32 33 geological history, yet the future of this unique ecosystem remains unclear. Here, we use palynological and isotopic records to track vegetation and 34 moisture throughout the warm early Eocene (57 to 44 million years ago) as an 35 36 analogue for extreme atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> scenarios. We show that rainfall temporarily doubled and replaced the regional steppe by forested ecosystems. 37 By reconstructing the season of pedogenic carbonate growth we constrain the 38 39 soil hydrologic regime and show that most of this rainfall occurred during the summer season. This humid event is therefore attributed to an inland expansion 40 of monsoonal moisture following the massive greenhouse gas release of the 41 Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) as identified by a negative carbon 42 43 isotope excursion. The resulting abrupt greening of the Central Asian steppe-44 desert would have enabled mammal dispersal and could have played a role in carbon cycle feedbacks by enhancing soil organic carbon burial and silicate 45 weathering. These extreme Eocene proto-monsoons, albeit different from the 46 47 topography-driven Asian monsoon today, highlight the potential for abrupt shifts in Central Asian rainfall and ecosystems under future global warming. 48

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50 The vast Asian continental interior is home to a unique and diverse steppe-desert biome that has existed for millions of years<sup>1</sup>, yet its hydroclimatic future and response 51 to extreme atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentrations (p $CO_2$ ) remains poorly understood<sup>2</sup>. 52 53 Sedimentary archives of past warming events together with climate model simulations provide valuable insights<sup>3</sup>, especially regarding the Eocene period (56-34 Ma) which 54 was characterized by short-lived hyperthermal events of abrupt warming<sup>4,5</sup>. The 55 largest and most pronounced of these is the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum 56 (PETM; 56 Ma) lasting several 10 ka, during which pCO<sub>2</sub> reached more than 6× the 57 pre-industrial atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration<sup>6-8</sup>. Records of such hyperthermal events 58 affecting inland Asia are rare and hard to decipher because we commonly lack 59 unambiguous rainfall proxies with respect to the various regional moisture sources, 60 61 thereby limiting our understanding of the hydroclimatic response to climate forcing, including future projections under higher  $pCO_2^3$ . 62

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The scarce precipitation reaching inland Asia today mostly originates from monsoons 64 during summer or the mid-latitude westerlies during winter to spring (Fig. 1 A; 65 Extended Data Fig. 1)<sup>9,10</sup>. Paleoclimate models and geological records indicate that 66 growth of the Tibetan-Himalayan orogen and retreat of the Paratethys Sea modulated 67 monsoons and westerlies since the Eocene (Fig. 1 A)<sup>11-14</sup>. Proto-monsoons existed 68 69 already before significant surface uplift of the Tibetan Plateau, but it remains debated whether these were similar to today<sup>15-17</sup>, less intense<sup>18</sup> or only restricted to the tropical 70 latitudes<sup>13,14,19</sup> except during extreme orbital conditions<sup>20,21</sup>. low Eocene 71 72 paleobotanical data show that summer monsoons transported abundant precipitation to the East Asian coast<sup>17,22</sup>, while regional soil respiration derived from carbon isotope 73 74 ratios ( $\delta^{13}$ C) of pedogenic carbonates suggest that monsoons may have reached

further inland<sup>10</sup>. Oxygen isotope ratios ( $\delta^{18}$ O) on the other hand, suggest that the midlatitude westerlies provided winter to springtime precipitation to Central Asia, especially before the Neogene surface uplift of the Tien Shan and Pamir mountains, which block most of this moisture today<sup>9,10,23</sup>. However, the isotopic composition of this westerly precipitation is difficult to distinguish from summer monsoonal moisture reaching the continental interior<sup>10</sup>.

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Key in distinguishing between these different Asian moisture regimes is therefore to 82 83 identify not only the isotopic composition and amount of precipitation, but also the seasonal timing, which remains difficult to assess from geological records. Here, we 84 address this issue using a novel approach of combining fossil sporomorphs (pollen 85 86 and spores) and soil organic matter as proxy for precipitation<sup>24</sup> together with clumped 87 isotope ( $\Delta_{47}$ ) temperatures of co-occurring pedogenic carbonates which mostly form during the dry season<sup>25,26</sup>. By comparing these  $\Delta_{47}$ -derived soil temperatures with 88 89 seasonal climate model estimates we distinguish whether soil dewatering occurred 90 predominantly during a winter-time dry season after a wet summer monsoon, or during summer drying of westerly-derived soil moisture<sup>27,28</sup>. Today, the monsoons and 91 westerlies meet along the northeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau, which includes 92 93 the continental Xining Basin (China) and is ideally located to track the evolution of 94 these moisture sources (Fig. 1). Previous soil temperature reconstructions throughout the middle Eocene and Oligocene show that the Xining Basin was at low elevation<sup>27</sup>, 95 while steppe-desert pollen, presence of evaporites and reduced soil respiration 96 97 indicate aridity<sup>1,23,29</sup>. Dating of this sedimentary record has now been extended to the early Eocene based on magnetostratigraphy and radiometric ages<sup>23,30</sup> allowing us to 98 99 investigate the Central Asian steppe response to hyperthermal conditions.

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#### 101 Increased rainfall during a carbon isotope excursion

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103 Early Eocene hyperthermals were driven by the periodic injection of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere from low- $\delta^{13}$ C reservoirs. This resulted in negative carbon isotope 104 105 excursions (CIE) across the globe that have been detected in various terrestrial proxies such as plant waxes ( $\delta^{13}C_{wax}$  of C<sub>29</sub> to C<sub>31</sub> *n*-alkanes) or bulk soil organic 106 matter  $(\delta^{13}C_{SOM})^6$ . In the Xining Basin,  $\delta^{13}C$  values are relatively high throughout most 107 108 of the Eocene, but we identify an abrupt and large CIE of -6‰ in  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>SOM</sub> and -8‰ in compound specific  $\delta^{13}C_{wax}$  (Fig. 2). This is significantly larger than the CIEs related to 109 110 early Eocene hyperthermals which typically attain magnitudes of up to -4‰<sup>4,5</sup>, but very similar in both shape and magnitude to continental records of the PETM<sup>6,32,33</sup>. 111

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113 The Xining CIE is preceded by alluvial mudflat deposits at the basin margin (Ledu 114 section) and organic-rich gypsum in the basin center (Bingling Shan and Caijia sections) indicating dry conditions. This is corroborated by the predominance of 115 steppe-desert shrubs in the palynological record and high  $\delta^{13}$ C values which today are 116 117 only found in extremely dry ecosystems<sup>24,34</sup> (Fig. 2). The negative CIE starts abruptly 118 in the uppermost gypsum bed and spans  $\sim$ 30 meters into the overlying organic-rich 119 alluvial mudflat deposits<sup>30</sup>. Steppe-desert pollen decrease during this interval and the vegetation becomes dominated by temperate forests and ferns indicating a shift to 120 wetter conditions. Less water stress experienced by C3 vegetation and the 121 corresponding shift in biome typically results in lower  $\delta^{13}$ C values<sup>34,35</sup>. If combined with 122 a dramatic drop of atmospheric carbon isotopic composition ( $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$ ), such as seen 123

during hyperthermals<sup>6,35,36</sup>, these ecological changes could produce the large size of
the CIE observed in the Xining Basin.

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127 Organic matter recorded in soils provides a natural average of the aboveground biomass and can be used to reconstruct the amount of rainfall when corrected for 128 changes in  $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  (Fig. 2 and Extended Data Fig. 2)<sup>24</sup>. Even when assuming an 129 extreme change of  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>atm</sub> such as observed during the PETM<sup>6,35</sup>, reconstructed mean 130 131 annual precipitation (MAP) values suggest at least a doubling of MAP in the Xining 132 Basin during the CIE (~574 mm/year) compared to the evaporites below (~177 mm/year). Using the  $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  value of lower magnitude Eocene hyperthermals would 133 134 result in an even larger increase in MAP (~984 mm/year) and using the early Eocene 135 baseline value would imply an unrealistic MAP of >4000 mm/year (Supplementary Data 4). Throughout the remainder of the Eocene Xining record,  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values 136 remain relatively high<sup>29</sup> indicating aridity which fits the predominant redbeds, 137 138 evaporites and steppe-desert shrubs observed in the record<sup>1,23</sup>. The CIE in the Xining Basin is thus a unique window where both palynological assemblages and  $\delta^{13}$ C values 139 140 show a significant greening of the otherwise arid Asian interior. In the following, we will use soil carbonates to test whether this greening was driven by increased westerly 141 142 moisture or monsoons (Fig. 1).

143

## 144 Clumped isotope evidence for summer rainfall

Well-developed pedogenic carbonate nodules are rare in the Xining Basin record but were identified in three horizons of the Ledu section. In consequence, the carbonate component of the alluvial mudrocks was assessed as well using Scanning Electron

148 Microscopy (SEM), X-Ray Diffraction (XRD; Fig. 2; Extended Data Fig. 3) and both 149 optical and cathodoluminescence (CL) microscopy (Extended Data Fig. 4). The strata between 50 Ma and 45 Ma contain mostly calcian dolomite (6-20%), while the intervals 150 151 above and below are dominated by calcite (1-14%). This calcite is mostly dull luminescent micrite and is interpreted as vadose-grown cement with no evidence of 152 153 phreatic overprinting (Extended Data Fig. 4 A and B). These cements precipitate either 154 from rising shallow groundwater or percolating soil water and are similar to pedogenic 155 carbonates<sup>37</sup>. In contrast, the calcian dolomite may have formed either by syn-156 sedimentary precipitation from saline brines or late diagenetic replacement of calcite cements<sup>38</sup>. Hence, we focus our isotope investigations solely on the vadose-grown 157 158 calcite and micritic pedogenic nodules (Extended Data Fig. 4 C) to avoid diagenetic 159 overprinting.

160 Clumped isotope thermometry measures the relative abundance of calcite-derived 161 CO<sub>2</sub> isotopologues of mass 47 compared to the predicted stochastic distribution ( $\Delta_{47}$ ). Since the bonding between the heavy isotopes (<sup>13</sup>C-<sup>18</sup>O) is temperature-dependent, 162 163 this measurement allows reconstructing soil temperatures at the time of carbonate growth without prior knowledge of the isotopic composition of the soil water<sup>39</sup>. Most 164 Holocene pedogenic carbonates provide  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures that are warmer than mean 165 166 annual temperatures (MAT) because intense soil dewatering and carbonate formation is typically biased towards the summer season<sup>25,26</sup>. So far, the only location where soil 167 168  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures have systematically yielded winter temperatures is the monsoonal 169 tropical domain, where winters are dry and warm enough for the accumulation of pedogenic carbonates while summers are typically too wet<sup>28</sup>. Colder-than-MAT  $\Delta_{47}$ 170 temperatures can thus be interpreted as a signature for a summer rainy season, 171

especially during Eocene times when winter temperatures were overall warmer,
facilitating carbonate growth in the winter<sup>28</sup>.

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175 Overall, the pedogenic and vadose-grown carbonates in the Xining strata show a wide spread of  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures ranging from 9 ±3 °C to 38 ±4 °C (Fig. 2). This range could 176 177 be due to high evaporative demand throughout the year, resulting in soil drying shortly after erratic rainfall events under variable temperature conditions<sup>26</sup>. In contrast, the  $\Delta_{47}$ 178 179 temperatures during the wetter CIE interval (Fig. 2) are remarkably stable at 20±3°C 180 and surprisingly low, especially given the hyperthermal conditions. When compared with simulated temperatures in the Xining Basin from the various climate models of 181 182 the Deep-Time Model Intercomparison Project (DeepMIP)<sup>40</sup> these simulated 183 temperatures indicate that carbonate growth during the CIE was biased towards the 184 colder winter months (Fig. 3 A). Especially when considering that the soil temperature might have been 1-4°C warmer than the simulated surface air because of ground 185 186 heating effects<sup>41</sup>.

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The  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures during the CIE therefore suggest that soil drying in the Xining 188 Basin occurred during the winter season, while the increased rainfall recorded in the 189 palynological assemblage and  $\delta^{13}$ C values must have occurred mostly during the 190 191 summer. This is similar to the modern monsoonal setting in which pedogenic carbonates near Xining are formed during the fall and after the wet season<sup>42</sup>. 192 Reconstructed soil water  $\delta^{18}$ O (-6 ± 1.5%; Extended Data Fig. 5 and 6) is similar to 193 194 coeval records of both summer monsoonal and westerly moisture in the region<sup>10</sup>, but the cold  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures in combination with increased MAP indicate an 195 196 intensification of summer monsoons deep within the Asian continent shifting the timing

of carbonate formation to the winter season. Cold  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures are not unique to the CIE and reappear episodically in the Xining Basin ~10 million years later and persist into the Oligocene (Fig. 3 A), possibly due to the combined effects of global cooling and an increased role for summer monsoonal moisture<sup>27</sup>. However, the palynological records show that the region remained extremely dry throughout the late Eocene to Oligocene<sup>1</sup> and unlike the intensified monsoon seen during the CIE (Fig. 2).

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#### 205 **Proto-monsoon intensification in hyperthermal conditions**

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The simulated temperatures fit well with global proxy compilations<sup>43</sup> and the climate 207 models show mutual agreement<sup>40</sup> (Fig 3 A), however, differences between models are 208 large for simulated precipitation<sup>3</sup> (Fig. 3 B). The 'drier' models show aridity in the Xining 209 210 Basin throughout the year (e.g. COSMOS and IPSL), while the 'wetter' models reveal 211 a summer rainy season (e.g. CESM and HadCM3) not unlike pre-industrial conditions (Extended Data Fig. 1). Simulated MAP is relatively low and ranges from 25 to 469 212 mm/year (Fig. 3 B), which fits with the inland evaporative basins in the region<sup>44</sup> and 213 214 our proxy estimates for the Paleocene and Eocene background conditions in the 215 Xining Basin. However, even the 'wetter' simulations are lower than our reconstructed 216 MAP of 574 mm/year for the intensified monsoon during the CIE.

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The distribution of monsoonal domains<sup>45</sup> in the simulations shows that the East Asian monsoon was less prevalent in the Eocene compared to today (Fig. 4; Extended Data Fig. 7) and that southern Asia was influenced by the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) as suggested by paleobotanical data<sup>19</sup>. Intriguingly, some of the Eocene

simulations also show a monsoonal domain along the East Asian coast (CESM, COSMOS and GFDL), in particular in the 6x and 9x pCO<sub>2</sub> simulations, which would have resembled the early Eocene atmosphere<sup>8</sup> (Fig. 4; Extended Data Fig. 7). This East Asian proto-monsoon agrees well with paleobotanical compilations showing a humid coast line<sup>17,22</sup>, but none of the DeepMIP models reproduce monsoons extending far into the continental interior to reach the Xining Basin.

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229 Other modeling studies have shown that Eocene monsoons can be triggered in extreme orbital settings with amplified northern hemisphere heating<sup>20,21</sup>. The PETM 230 and other hyperthermal events correspond to high eccentricity<sup>7</sup> and these unique 231 232 conditions combined with extreme greenhouse warming likely conspired to intensify 233 the proto-monsoons to reach the continental interior of Asia. The shape, large 234 magnitude and thickness of the Xining CIE, and its occurrence within a long reversed polarity zone correlated with chron C24r (57.1 Ma to 53.9 Ma) allow us to attribute the 235 236 CIE to the PETM (56 Ma), which also fits within the radiometric age constraints (Fig. 237 2; Extended Data Fig. 8). Alternatively, it could be ETM2 (54 Ma) but this hyperthermal is considerably smaller in size, shorter and consists of two excursions (H1 and H2) 238 that have been observed in both marine and terrestrial records<sup>4,5,32</sup> but are absent in 239 240 the Xining Basin. Furthermore, negative CIEs with a shape and size similar to the 241 Xining CIE have been observed in the continental Nanyang and Fushun Basins in eastern China and are also linked to reduced water stress during the PETM<sup>36</sup>. As the 242 largest hyperthermal, the PETM is therefore the most likely driver for this unique event 243 244 of monsoon intensification and greening in Central Asia.

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246 Finally, we note that the Eocene proto-monsoons were significantly different from the 247 modern-day East Asian monsoon, which is mostly driven by interaction between the subtropical jet stream and the high topography of the Tibetan Plateau<sup>12</sup>. Eocene proto-248 249 monsoons occur even in the DeepMIP simulations with no Tibetan Plateau at all (Fig. 4) and are driven by a distinct low atmospheric pressure anomaly developing during 250 summer over the vast and flat Asian continent (Extended Data Fig. 9). This suggests 251 252 that the proto-monsoons were similar to a large sea breeze driven by land-sea thermal contrasts<sup>18</sup> and explains their sensitivity to hyperthermal conditions. Global cooling 253 254 after the early Eocene reduced regional thermal contrasts, dampening the ability of proto-monsoons to episodically expand inland and could explain the overall 255 256 aridification trend of Central Asia throughout the Eocene and culminating at the Eocene-Oligocene Transition (EOT; 33.9 Ma)<sup>27,29,46</sup>. Only until the subsequent surface 257 258 uplift and northward expansion of the Tibetan Plateau during the Neogene would the modern-day East Asian monsoon have returned to the Xining Basin and the Asian 259 interior<sup>11-14</sup>. 260

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Our study thus reveals a prominent role for Eocene proto-monsoons in occasionally 262 greening the otherwise dry Asian interior under hyperthermal conditions. The PETM, 263 but also other hyperthermals such as the Middle Eocene Climatic Optimum (MECO) 264 are associated with major mammal dispersals in and out of Asia<sup>47,48</sup> and future work 265 should consider the role of proto-monsoons in shifting biomes<sup>49</sup> and opening dispersal 266 corridors within continental Asia. Replacing the steppe-desert by forested ecosystems 267 268 could have also played a major role in buffering the massive carbon release during hyperthermals by enhancing soil organic carbon burial and silicate weathering<sup>50</sup>. 269 270 Finally, our work provides paleoclimate evidence highlighting the abrupt and non-linear

271 response of Asian monsoons to extreme greenhouse warmth. Although the Eocene 272 Asian paleogeography and hydroclimate were markedly different from today, the 273 mechanisms leading to abrupt greening of the Asian interior should be further tested 274 and simulated because of their significance for predicting future rainfall patterns.

275

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294

## 295 Author contributions

N.M., A.L. and G.D.-N. designed the study. N.M., A.L., A.W., A.R., A.S. and G.D.-N. 296 conducted the field work and collected the samples. N.M. performed the XRD and 297 petrographic analyses. A.W., F.R.-C. and C.H. prepared and analysed the 298 palynological samples. A.R. and M.T.H. performed the *n*-alkane analyses. N.M., A.L., 299 300 A.J.S. and A.M. conducted the stable isotope analyses. N.M., M.T. and J.F. performed the clumped isotope analyses. J.B. and F.D.K. analysed and plotted the climate model 301 302 simulation data. N.M. wrote the manuscript with major input from A.L., G.D.-N. and 303 A.M. All co-authors contributed to interpreting the data and writing the manuscript.

304

# 305 Competing Interests Statement

306 The authors declare no competing interests.

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308 Figures



309

Fig. 1. Geological setting showing hypothesized Eocene hydroclimates in Asia 310 including a subtropical arid belt, westerly or monsoonal domain. A) Paleogeographic 311 312 map of Asia at 50 Ma (million years ago)<sup>31</sup> showing the location of the Xining Basin. Blue arrows show potential moisture sources. Histograms reflect the seasonal 313 distribution of this rainfall based on modern-day observations in monsoonal Xining and 314 315 westerly-dominated Tashkent (https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/wmo-climatenormals). Climate model simulations indicate a similar seasonal distribution of rainfall 316 in these domains during the Eocene<sup>9,20</sup>. Inset shows present-day geographical 317 location. B) Geological map of the Xining Basin (modified from ref<sup>30</sup>) showing the 318

319 locations of the studied sections and palynological sampling. C) Lithostratigraphy of

320 the Caijia, Bingling Shan and Ledu key sections $^{23,30}$ .



322 Fig. 2. Paleo-environmental reconstruction showing temperate forests replacing 323 steppe shrubs during a negative carbon isotope excursion (CIE). The CIE is indicated 324 by the brown shaded vertical bar. Data include: A) palynological data classified in Plant 325 Functional Types, B) reconstructed Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) using late Paleocene, PETM and early Eocene  $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  and  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values (root mean square 326 error of ±422 mm/year of the MAP proxy is shown)<sup>24</sup>, C)  $\delta^{13}$ C values of both soil 327 organic matter and n-alkanes, D)  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures of vadose-grown carbonates (with 328 329 solid and dashed lines indicating 68% and 95% confidence intervals respectively 330 based on at least 13 replicates), one sample produced an unrealistically low temperature of -1.3°C and is considered an outlier, E) X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) derived 331 332 mineral content, F) age constraints<sup>23,30</sup> based on radiometric ages (stars) and 333 magnetic polarities (black ticks), lithostratigraphy showing stratigraphic positions of 334 palynological samples with red marks.



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336 Fig. 3. Proxy comparison with simulated surface air temperature (A) and precipitation (B) in the Eocene Xining Basin. Averaged values were derived from a box of 1.875° 337 338 latitude by 2.5° longitude centred at the paleolocation of the Xining Basin (102.5°N, 39.5°E). Simulations are derived from the DeepMIP climate model ensemble (colors 339 340 indicate each model) under an early Eocene paleogeography with no Tibetan Plateau and a Paratethys Sea lowstand, preindustrial orbital configuration and 3x, 6x or 9x 341 preindustrial pCO<sub>2</sub> when available (solid, dashed and dotted lines respectively)<sup>40</sup>. The 342 343 histogram in A) shows the number of measured  $\Delta_{47}$  temperatures in 5°C bins. CIE temperatures of ~20°C are best explained by soil dewatering and carbonate formation 344

345 during the colder winter months. Simulated precipitation in B) varies from dry 346 throughout the year to summer wet similar to the present-day monsoons.



Fig. 4. Distribution of monsoonal domains in climate model simulations. Upper panel 348 shows a pre-industrial control simulation (CESM) and two early Eocene simulations 349 350 with  $6x pCO_2$  (GFDL and INM). Lower panel shows different  $pCO_2$  scenarios (3x, 6x 351 and 9x) of the CESM model. Additional simulations are shown in Extended Data Fig. 352 7. Summer (MJJAS) minus winter precipitation (NDJFM) is used as a metric and regions where this difference is >2.5 mm/day are considered monsoonal<sup>45</sup>. Red dot 353 354 indicates the location of the Xining Basin. All Eccene simulations show an ITCZ 355 (Intertropical Convergence Zone) monsoon near the equator. CESM and GFDL show 356 a proto-monsoonal domain along the East Asian coast, but none of the models 357 simulate monsoons extending far into the Asian interior.

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582 Methods

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584 Sampling

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Rock samples were collected after digging trenches of at least ~0.5 meter deep in the Bingling Shan (BS), Caijia (CJ) and Ledu (LD) sections covering the early to middle Eocene<sup>23,30</sup>. In addition, three horizons with pedogenic carbonate nodules were identified and sampled at the Ledu section. Samples for plant wax analyses were collected using gloves and wrapped in aluminum foil to prevent contamination. Palynological samples were collected from the Bingling Shan and Caijia sections as well as the East Xining (EX), Xiejia (XJ) and Dazhai (DZ) sections<sup>23,30</sup>.

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594 Composite section and age model

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596 The individual sections were combined into one composite section using litho- and magnetostratigraphic correlations<sup>30</sup>. First, we assembled the core of the composite 597 598 section by stitching the Honggou Fm of the Caijia section (CJ) and the Qijiachuan Fm of the Ledu section (LD) together at the liver-brown to red mudrock transition observed 599 600 in both locations (transition from Qijiachuan to Honggou Fm; blue dashed line Fig. 2 601 in ref<sup>30</sup>). We assume this to be a chronostratigraphic marker and define it as the 0 meter-level in the composite log. The stratigraphic positions of these sections can be 602 603 converted to the composite stratigraphic position as follows:

604

605 Comp m level = CJ [44.5m to 280m] - 44.5

606 Comp m level = LD [entire section] - 15

607

Next, we project the Qijiachuan Fm of the Caijia (CJ) and Bingling Shan (BS) sections on the composite section making sure that the lithostratigraphic boundaries between the evaporites of the middle Qijiachuan Fm and the liver-colored mudrocks of the upper Qijiachuan Fm correlate. This is necessary because the thicknesses of the formations vary between the sections and the transition between these formations is assumed to represent a chronostratigraphic marker. The stratigraphic positions of these sections can be converted to the composite stratigraphic position as follows:

615

616 Caijia:

617 Comp m level = (CJ[2m to 44.5m] - 44.5) \* (1 - 5.9 / 42.5)

618 = CJ[0 to 2m] - 38.6

619 Bingling Shan:

620 Comp m level = ((BS[5.2m to 43m] - 79.6) + ((BS[5.2m to 43m] - 43) / -37.8) \* 8.05)

621

= BS[43m and higher] - 79.6

622

623 Based on our observation of the large negative CIE, we propose to revise the age model of ref<sup>30</sup>. The previous age model is reliable down to chron C22n and constrained 624 by the radiometric age of a tuff<sup>23</sup>. However, chron C23n below is very short and does 625 not fit the pattern of the geomagnetic polarity timescale<sup>30</sup>. Hence, we infer an 626 unconformity at the base of C23n which also corresponds to the lithological shift from 627 calcareous to dolomitic mudrocks (Fig. 2). The negative CIE occurs within a long 628 629 reversed polarity zone on top of a short normal zone. This polarity pattern fits well with C25n and C24r and is within the radiometric age constraints of 53.7±3.3 Ma recorded 630 in a carbonate bed just below the CIE (Fig. 2)<sup>30</sup>. The PETM and ETM2 occur in C24r 631

and could correlate with the CIE in the Xining Basin as discussed in the main text.
Throughout the manuscript we use the geomagnetic polarity timescale of ref<sup>4</sup> for
correlating our paleo-environmental data with the Cenozoic Global Reference benthic
foraminifera carbon and oxygen Isotope Dataset (CENOGRID).

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637 XRD

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X-ray diffractometry (XRD) analyses were performed on 27 mudrock samples and 5 639 640 carbonate beds throughout the stratigraphy to assess the mineralogy and the carbonate type. Powdered rock samples were measured using a PANALYTICAL 641 X'Pert Bragg-Brentano diffractometer using a copper beam powered by 30 mA and 40 642 643 KV generator current. The characteristic diffraction maxima of the mineral phases 644 were determined using the MacDiff software (http://mill2.chem.ucl.ac.uk/ccp/web-1° mirrors/krumm/html/software/macdiff.html). Intensities were converted to 645 646 divergence characteristics and weighted by reference intensity ratios (RIR) to semiquantitatively calculate the relative abundance of each mineral phase. The 647 identified mineral phases are (Extended Data Fig. 3): mixed-layer illite-smectite (main 648 diffraction maxima position: 10.4 Å, RIR value: 0.52), illite/muscovite (10.0 Å, 0.43), 649 chlorite (14.0 Å, 1.00), analcime (3.43 Å, 1.41), guartz (4.26 Å and 3.34 Å, 3.03) K-650 651 feldspar (3.25 Å, 0.60), albite (3.20 Å, 0.64), calcite (3.04 Å, 2.20) and calcian dolomite (2.91 Å, 2.51). The mol% of MgCO<sub>3</sub> in the calcian dolomite was estimated using the 652 relative position of the 104 peak (d in Å) compared to calcite (3.035 Å) and 653 654 stoichiometric dolomite (2.885 Å):

655 
$$Mol\% MgCO_3 = \frac{3.035 - d}{3.035 - 2.885} \times 50\%$$

## 657 Compound-specific lipid biomarkers and stable isotopes

Plant waxes were extracted from 25 mudrock and gypsiferous mudrock samples at 658 the Organic Surface Geochemistry Lab (OSGLab) at the German Research Centre for 659 660 Geosciences (GFZ) in Potsdam. Samples were crushed and then powdered using a shatterbox with an agate grinding chamber. Soluble organic matter was extracted 661 accelerated 662 using а Dionex solvent extractor (ASE 350) with а 663 dichloromethane/methanol mixture of 9:1 at 100°C and 1500 psi. Total extracts of 664 three 18-minute cycles were captured in 250 ml bottles, later concentrated to 4 ml in 665 a Turbovap, and then separated on silica gel using a solid phase extraction (SPE) as described in ref<sup>51</sup>. The C<sub>27</sub>, C<sub>28</sub>, C<sub>29</sub>, C<sub>30</sub>, C<sub>31</sub>, C<sub>32</sub>, and C<sub>33</sub> *n*-alkanes were identified 666 and quantified using a gas chromatograph with a coupled flame ionization and mass-667 668 selective detector (GC-FID/MSD Agilent 7890A GC, 5975C MSD) flushed with helium 669 carrier gas. Temperatures in the GC oven were programmed to increase at a rate of 670 12°C/min starting from 70°C to 320°C at which temperatures were held constant for 671 21 min. The PTV injector had a split ratio of 5:1 at an initial temperature of 70°C. The 672 n-alkane FID-peak areas were compared with a previously added 5a-androstane 673 standard from which n-alkane concentrations were calculated. The n-alkane concentrations are reported as µg/gram dry sediment. In addition the average chain-674 675 length (ACL) and the carbon preference index (CPI) were calculated.

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For all samples compound specific stable isotope values were measured using a GC-Isolink coupled to a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) at the Stable Isotope and Organic Molecular Biogeochemistry Laboratory at the University of Connecticut. The *n*-alkane fractions were dried and concentrated to 200  $\mu$ g/µl per compound in hexane for  $\delta^2$ H<sub>wax</sub> measurements. Each sample was

measured in at least duplicate and in most samples triplicate analysis. The injector of 682 683 the GC was operated in splitless mode at 300°C and the oven was held at 70°C for 2 minutes. The oven was heated at 15°C/min until 150°C, then heated with 5°C/min to 684 685 320°C. The final temperature was held for 10 minutes. The column effluent was transferred into an isotope ratio mass spectrometer after conversion to H<sub>2</sub> in a high-686 temperature oven at 1420°C. Stable isotopes are reported in delta notation in permil 687 688 (‰). The standard deviation for each sample was better than 3‰ and the  $\delta^2 H_{wax}$  are reported in Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water scale (VSMOW). δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>wax</sub> values were 689 690 measured using the same fractions used for  $\delta^2 H_{wax}$ . The *n*-alkane fractions were concentrated to 60  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l in hexane for  $\delta^{13}C_{wax}$  measurements. The same instrumental 691 692 setup (GC-IRMS) and temperature programming was used as for the  $\delta^2 H_{wax}$ 693 measurements, only the oxidation oven was run at a lower temperature of 960°C. 694 Duplicates were measured for each sample and a CO<sub>2</sub> gas with known isotopic composition was used as reference gas and  $\delta^{13}C_{wax}$  values are reported in Vienna 695 696 Pee Dee Belemnite scale (VPDB). The analytical precision of each sample had a typical standard deviation of 0.5‰. Isotopic compositions were standardized using a 697 suite of *n*-alkanes in a standard mixture. 698

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700 Stable and clumped isotopes

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Bulk organic stable isotopes were measured on 113 mudrock and gypsiferous mudrock samples. These samples were decarbonated twice with 6N HCl and washed with 18 M-Ohm water several times for acid removal; carbon content and organic matter  $\delta^{13}$ C values were then measured. Samples from the Ledu section were measured using a Costech ECS 4010 Elemental Analyzer coupled to a Thermo

707 Scientific MAT 253 gas source IRMS at the University of Washington. Samples from 708 the Caijia section were measured using a Flash Elemental Analyzer 1112 connected 709 to a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 IRMS at the Goethe University-Senckenberg BiK-F 710 Stable Isotope Facility in Frankfurt. Samples from the Bingling Shan section were 711 measured using a Flash Elemental Analyzer 2000 coupled to a Thermo Scientific 712 Delta-V IRMS at the Alfred-Wegener Institute Isotope Laboratory (AWI) in Potsdam. 713 Measured  $\delta^{13}$ C values (all relative to VPDB) were corrected using in-house reference 714 materials and long-term repeatability was below 0.2%. International reference 715 materials USGS 24 and IAEA-CH-7 were analyzed along with the samples to check 716 for accuracy.

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718 Carbonate stable isotopes were measured on 51 calcite-bearing mudrocks and 3 719 pedogenic carbonate nodules. The calcite-bearing mudrocks were reacted with 105 % orthophosphoric acid and carbonate  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{13}$ C values were then measured. 720 721 Samples from the Ledu section were measured using a Thermo Scientific Kiel III Carbonate Device coupled to a Thermo Scientific Delta Plus IRMS at University of 722 723 Washington. Samples from the Caijia section were measured with a Thermo Scientific 724 GasBench II interfaced with a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 IRMS at the Goethe 725 University-Senckenberg BiK-F Stable Isotope Facility. Measured carbon and oxygen 726 isotopic compositions were corrected using in-house reference materials as well as NBS18 and NBS19 carbonate reference materials. Long-term repeatability was below 727 0.03‰ for  $\delta^{13}$ C and below 0.06‰ for  $\delta^{18}$ O. All  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values are expressed 728 729 relative to VPDB.

730

731 Clumped isotopes were analyzed on 16 of these calcite-bearing mudrocks and on the 732 3 pedogenic nodules at the Goethe University-Senckenberg BiK-F Stable Isotope 733 Facility, using a Thermo Scientific Kiel IV Carbonate Device paired with a Thermo 734 Scientific MAT 253 Plus IRMS. The Kiel IV was modified from its original configuration with the addition of two water traps and a different heating-cooling system on the 735 736 purification trap. Depending on the carbonate content, 110 to 2500 µg of sample was 737 reacted with 105% orthophosphoric acid at 70°C for 5 minutes starting from the last 738 acid drop. In each sequence, half of the analyses were reserved for measurement of the ETH carbonate standards<sup>52</sup>, with ETH 1 and 2 measured in equal numbers as ETH 739 3, and with ETH 4 less frequently. Data were corrected for negative background using 740 741 intensities measured on the 47.5 Faraday cup during acquisition, scaled by a factor 742 that minimizes the slope between ETH 1 and 2. Baseline corrected data were projected into the Intercarb Carbon-Dioxide Equilibrium Scale (I-CDES)<sup>52</sup> using the 743 "independent" approach in the python package D47crunch<sup>53</sup>. The resulting  $\Delta_{47}$  values 744 were converted into temperature using the calibration of ref<sup>54</sup>. Each sample was 745 measured in 13 to 18 replicates and the errors are reported as both 68% and 95% 746 747 confidence intervals (1SE and 2SE respectively). Long-term repeatability of both 748 samples and ETH standards was 0.035%.

749

The  $\delta^{18}$ O values of the soil water ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>water</sub>) are reconstructed using the  $\Delta_{47}$ -derived temperatures and the equation of ref<sup>55</sup>. These values are compared with modern-day  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>water</sub> values of the summer monsoon and wintertime westerlies<sup>56</sup> (Extended Data Fig. 5).

755 Palynology

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The palynological samples were prepared by Palynological Laboratory Services (Anglesey, UK) using standard palynological techniques (HCL, HF, sieving at 10µm), the University of Amsterdam (Amsterdam, the Netherlands; HCL, sieving at 212µm, 20% pyrophosphate, acetolysis, bromoform treatment), and at the Sediment Laboratory of the Vrije Universiteit (Amsterdam, the Netherlands; following methods of ref<sup>57</sup> and described in ref<sup>58</sup>). Plant Functional Types (PFTs) were assigned using the Nearest Living Relatives (NLR) approach applied by ref<sup>59</sup>.

764

#### 765 MAP reconstruction

766

767 We use an empirical relationship which can be used to reconstruct Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) using the  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values of top soils (O- and A-horizons)<sup>24</sup>. The 768 769 organic matter in deeper horizons might be affected by decomposition resulting in fractionation to higher  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values<sup>60</sup>, which would lead to an underestimation of the 770 771 MAP. The alluvial mudflat deposits of the Xining Basin show clear evidence of 772 pedogenesis such as vertic slickensides, mudcracks, mottling, blocky peds, and clay 773 coatings in thin sections, but no obvious horizonation due to overprinting of stacked 774 paleosols. It is therefore impossible to preselect only O- and A-horizons. Nevertheless we argue that the bulk  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values and the CIE are not strongly affected by 775 degradation because we observe no clear relationship between  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  and total 776 organic content (Extended Data Fig. 2) and the  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values of alluvial mudflats are 777 indistinguishable from laterally equivalent gypsum beds which have a high quality of 778 organic preservation<sup>59</sup>. In addition, an even larger CIE is observed in the *n*-alkanes 779

 $(\delta^{13}C_{wax})$  which are less affected by degradation<sup>61</sup>. If this difference in CIE is caused by the decomposition of bulk organic matter, the actual CIE and precipitation changes could be even larger and our MAP reconstructions should be considered as a minimum estimate.

784

Before using the paleoprecipitation proxy, we correct the  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values to account 785 for the different CO<sub>2</sub>  $\delta^{13}$ C values ( $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>atm</sub>) of the Paleocene/Eocene atmosphere 786 compared to the pre-industrial value of -6.5% that is implicit in the empirical relation<sup>24</sup>. 787 We apply a -1.5% correction to the  $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$  values to correct for the baseline 788 Paleocene  $(\delta^{13}C_{atm} = -5.0\%)^{62}$ , a +3.1% correction for the PETM assuming a lowering 789 790 of 4.6‰ ( $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  = -9.6‰) through the injection of <sup>13</sup>C-depleted carbon<sup>35,62</sup> and a -1.0% correction for the early Eocene baseline  $(\delta^{13}C_{atm} = -5.5\%)^{62}$ . Other early Eocene 791 792 hyperthermals corresponded to smaller isotope excursions than the PETM and we use a lowering of 3.0% ( $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  = -8.5%) to illustrate the effect on the MAP reconstruction. 793 794 The MAP is then calculated using the following equation<sup>24</sup>:

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797

#### 798 Carbonate characterization

We have characterized the carbonates of the Xining strata following the methods of ref<sup>27</sup>. Thin sections were prepared for six representative mudrock samples and three carbonate nodules. These were examined using cathodoluminescence (CL) and plane- and cross-polarized microscopy to examine the origin and possible diagenesis of the carbonates. The samples were examined at the University of Potsdam using an Olympus BXFM-F polarizing microscope equipped with a lumic hot-cathode electron source and an Olympus XC10 digital color camera. In addition, seven powdered
samples were mounted on a stub and carbon coated. These were further examined at
the University of Potsdam using a JEOL JSM-6510 Scanning Electron Microscope
(SEM) coupled to an Oxford Instruments INCAx-act Energy Dispersive X-ray
Spectrometer (EDS) to assess their mineralogy.

810 The calcite is a dull luminescent micrite and is observed throughout the clayey matrix 811 (Extended Data Fig. 4 A, B). Some brighter specks of microspar are observed as well 812 but no detrital carbonate grains nor blocky sparite in cracks, veins or vugs which would 813 have been typical for phreatic cements<sup>37,63</sup>. These observations are very similar to ref<sup>27</sup> and we follow their interpretation of an early diagenetic cement forming in the 814 vadose zone from either shallow groundwater or percolating soil water<sup>37,63</sup>. The 815  $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$  values are consistent with coeval pedogenic carbonates in the region<sup>10</sup> and 816 the  $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$  are very low (~-9% in Caijia and ~-11% in Ledu) as is expected during the 817 818 negative CIE (Extended Data Fig. 5). The stable isotope values do show some positive linear relation (Extended Data Fig. 6) indicating the effects of evaporation<sup>64</sup>. This 819 820 suggests that the carbonates formed relatively close to the surface of the paleosol. 821 The calcite occurs in a specific stratigraphic interval in multiple locations of the basin (Fig. 2), which suggests a primary origin rather than precipitation/reprecipitation during 822 823 modern-day weathering which would have affected all mudrocks. In addition, Eocene climatic events such as the EOT have been recorded in these calcite cements with no 824 indication for overprinting<sup>27</sup>. 825

In addition to the calcareous mudrocks, three horizons with pedogenic nodules were observed in the Ledu section. Most of these nodules are entirely composed of micrite and floating detrital grains (Extended Data Fig. 4 C), but some contain vugs filled with

sparite indicating a phreatic overprint. These were carefully avoided when powdering
the samples for isotopic analyses. The nodules occurring in the coarse sandstone (at
53.3 Ma) show features of a mixed origin. The floating grains show an isopachous rim
of microspar / sparite while the rest of the matrix is filled with micrite (Extended Data
Fig. S4 D). This indicates an initial vadose origin for the micrite which is overprinted
by phreatic cements filling circum-granular cracks<sup>37</sup>.

835 Dolomite occurs as rhombic crystals within the mudrock matrix (Extended Data Fig. 4 836 E and F), but also as massive cm-scale beds interbedding lacustrine mudrocks 837 (Extended Data Fig. 4 G) and as cm-scale burrows (Extended Data Fig. 4 H). The SEM-EDS analysis revealed that the dolomites are non-ferroan but calcian dolomite 838 with an XRD peak at ~2.91 Å (Extended Data Fig. 3) and MgCO<sub>3</sub> contents ranging 839 from 44 to 46%. No dolomite has been reported from the mountain ranges surrounding 840 the Xining Basin<sup>65</sup> and a detrital origin is therefore unlikely. Instead, the dolomite could 841 842 have formed either by diagenetic replacement of calcite or syn-sedimentary / earlydiagenetic precipitation from saline brines on a mudflat <sup>38,66-68</sup>. We note that the 843 844 dolomite co-occurs in a specific stratigraphic interval with analcime, which typically forms in saline brines<sup>69</sup>, and with increased concentrations of hematite<sup>70</sup> indicative of 845 dry conditions<sup>71</sup>. This suggests a paleo-environmental control on the formation of 846 calcian dolomite, but we cannot rule out the role of diagenetic replacement. 847

848

#### 849 DeepMIP climate model simulations

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851 We use the DeepMIP climate model ensemble<sup>40</sup> to compare our proxy

852 reconstructions with simulated early Eocene precipitation and temperature

- 853 estimates. The paleolocation of the Xining Basin was reconstructed using the
- 854 hotspot reference frame ref<sup>72</sup> at 55 Ma

855 (https://www.odsn.de/odsn/services/paleomap/paleomap.html). This resulted in a

- paleolocation (102.5°N, 39.5°E) which fits well in relation to paleotopographic
- 857 features such as the Hangay Dome and Qinling belt that are observed on the
- paleogeographic map used in the DeepMIP simulations<sup>73</sup>.
- 859

#### 860 Data availability

Palynology counts, TOC and bulk organic  $\delta^{13}$ C, *n*-alkane  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{2}$ H, XRD bulk 861 δ<sup>13</sup>C. δ<sup>18</sup>Ο 862 mineralogy and carbonate and Δ47 available are at https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.962894. The DeepMIP preindustrial and Eocene 863 864 climate model simulations are available by following the instructions at 865 https://www.deepmip.org/data-eocene/. The weather station data from Xining and Tashkent is available at https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/wmo-climate-normals. 866 867

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956

957 Extended Data





- 962 simulations of A) temperature and B) precipitation in the Xining Basin using the
- 963 DeepMIP climate model ensemble.



965 Extended Data Fig. 2. Soil organic matter  $\delta^{13}$ C versus Total Organic Content (TOC).





Extended Data Fig. 3. XRD diffractograms showing the dominant peaks and bulk mineralogy of selected samples including: a dolomite bed (CjC9, as shown on Extended Data Fig. 4G; composite position: -37.1 m), a calcareous mudrock (16Cj237.5; composite position: 193 m), a calcareous mudrock from the CIE interval (18Ld-16; composite position: -31m) and a dolomitic mudrock (15Cj79; composite position: 54 m). The samples 16Cj237.5 and 18Ld-16 were used for stable and clumped isotope analyses.



974

975 Extended Data Fig. 4. Microscope and field photographs. A) and B) Cross-polarized 976 and cathodoluminescence image of a mudrock sample with vadose-grown calcite 977 cement (18LD-15; Ledu section; -15 meter-level) showing silt-sized matrix with

978 dispersed organic matter, dull luminescent micrite and some luminescent microsparite and sparite. Plane-polarized images of pedogenic nodules showing: C) Micrite matrix 979 980 with floating detrital grains in 18LD+4nodB (Ledu section; 12.3 meter-level). D) 981 Floating detrital grains with isopachous microsparite to sparite rim and micritic matrix 982 in 18LDconglonod (Ledu section; -60 meter-level). Massive red dolomitic mudrock 983 samples showing rhombohedral dolomite crystals in E) plane-polarized light (15CJ-111 75; Caijia section 131.25 meter-level) and F) SEM (15CJ-112 5; Caijia section; 984 985 132 meter-level). G) Greenish lacustrine mudrocks interbedded with massive dolomite 986 beds (Caijia section; 75 meter-level), hammer for scale. H) Dolomite-filled burrow (Caijia section; 93 meter-level). 987



989 Extended Data Fig. 5. Carbonate and plant wax stable isotopes. Stable isotope record 990  $(\delta^{18}O_{carb} \text{ and } \delta^{13}C_{carb})$  of the vadose-grown and pedogenic carbonates and  $\delta^{2}H_{wax}$ 991 values of plant waxes.  $\delta^{18}O$  values of the soil water ( $\delta^{18}O_{water}$ ) are reconstructed using 992 the  $\Delta_{47}$ -derived temperatures. Modern-day  $\delta^{18}O_{water}$  values of the summer monsoon 993 and wintertime westerlies are shown<sup>57</sup>.



995 Extended Data Fig. 6. Carbonate stable isotope biplot. Stable isotope biplot of the 996 studied calcites.



998 Extended Data Fig. 7. Monsoonal domains in DeepMIP climate model simulations.
999 Distribution of monsoonal domains in the pre-industrial control and 3x pCO<sub>2</sub> Eocene
1000 DeepMIP simulations. Summer (MJJAS) minus winter precipitation (NDJFM) is used

1001 as a metric and regions where this difference is > 2.5 mm/day are considered 1002 monsoonal<sup>44</sup>. Red dot indicates the location of the Xining Basin.



1003

Extended Data Fig. 8. Timing of Xining CIE compared with CENOGRID and astronomical solutions. CENOGRID showing the evolution of benthic foraminifera stable isotope values<sup>4</sup>. The  $\delta^{18}$ O values show peak warmth of the EECO and the  $\delta^{13}$ C values show several hyperthermal events characterized by negative CIE's. The astronomical solutions<sup>76</sup> show the evolution of the eccentricity of Earth's orbit. The radiometric ages bracketing the CIE in the Xining Basin are indicated.



1011 Extended Data Fig. 9. Summer sea-level atmospheric pressure anomalies in DeepMIP

1012 *climate model simulations. Sea-level atmospheric pressure anomalies during summer* 

1013 (JJA) in the 6x pCO<sub>2</sub> Eocene and the pre-industrial control simulations of the DeepMIP

1014 ensemble. Red dot indicates the location of the Xining Basin.

1015