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Paleomagnetism of the Yuanmou Basin near the southeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau and its constraints on late Neogene sedimentation and tectonic rotation

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1 **Paleomagnetism of the Yuanmou Basin near the southeastern margin**  
2 **of the Tibetan Plateau and its constraints on late Neogene**  
3 **sedimentation and tectonic rotation**

4

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15 **Abstract**

16 New paleomagnetic investigation was carried out on the late Neogene  
17 fluviolacustrine sequence of the Yuanmou Basin, located near the southeastern margin  
18 of the Tibetan Plateau. Magnetostratigraphic results indicate nine reverse  
19 magnetozones (R1 to R9) and eight normal magnetozones (N1 to N8) in the  
20 sedimentary profile, which can be correlated to the geomagnetic polarity timescale  
21 from C3n.3r to C1r.1r. The age of the sedimentary sequence of the Yuanmou Basin  
22 can thus be paleomagnetically constrained to an interval from early Pliocene to  
23 Pleistocene, with sedimentation rates varying from 12.5 to 55 cm/kyr. In addition to  
24 its highly resolved magnetostratigraphic sequence, the Yuanmou Basin provides a  
25 record of Plio-Pleistocene tectono- and climato-sedimentary processes. The mean  
26 declinations of the seventeen polarity units (excluding samples with transitional  
27 directions) can be grouped into three distinct directional intervals, Group I (2.58–1.37  
28 Ma), Group II (4.29–2.58 Ma) and Group III (4.91–4.29 Ma). These directions  
29 indicate that the Yuanmou Basin has probably experienced vertical-axis clockwise  
30 rotation of about 12° from 1.4 Ma to 4.9 Ma, which may be related to slip activity of  
31 the Red River fault to the southwest and the Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang fault to the east.

32

33 *Keywords:* Yuanmou Basin; magnetostratigraphy; vertical-axis rotation; late Neogene

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## 37 **1. Introduction**

38 The knowledge of the Cenozoic tectonic evolution of the Tibetan Plateau and its  
39 adjacent area is important to understand the physical properties of the lithosphere  
40 during the process of continent-continent collisions (see reviews by Yin and Harrison,  
41 2000; Tapponnier et al., 2001) (Fig. 1). A poorly understood question about the  
42 Himalayan-Tibetan orogeny is whether the penetration of India into Asia is  
43 accommodated through distributed crust thickening or localized deformation at major  
44 lithospheric faults with high slip rates and that bound quasi-rigid blocks (England and  
45 Houseman, 1988; Peltzer and Tapponnier, 1988; Avouac and Tapponnier, 1993; Chen  
46 et al., 2002; Dupont-Nivet et al., 2002, 2003, 2004; Huang et al., 2004). Moreover, the  
47 phased uplifts of the Tibetan Plateau have had significant impact on late Cenozoic  
48 climatic change in East Asia (e.g., Chung et al., 1998; Rea et al., 1998; An et al., 1999,  
49 2001; Guo et al., 2002; Clark et al., 2005).

50 The eastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau is one of its most active tectonic region  
51 with features of Tertiary Indochina extrusion to southeast and clockwise rotations  
52 around the eastern Himalayan syntaxis (England and Molnar, 1990; Leloup et al.,  
53 1995; Wang et al., 1998; Wang and Burchfiel, 2000; Tapponnier et al., 2001). Earlier  
54 paleomagnetic studies revealed clockwise rotation of the Qiangtang terrane (e.g., Zhu  
55 et al., 1988; Otofujii et al., 1990; Huang et al., 1992) and the Simao Terrane (Sato et al.,  
56 2007). Some counterclockwise rotations of the Cretaceous and Tertiary rocks from  
57 southeast China, possibly linked to motion related to the Red River fault was also  
58 reported by workers (e.g., Gilder et al., 1993). However, paleomagnetic constraints on

59 the deformation ages and rotations in this region are still sparse, and, therefore, more  
60 data are needed.

61 The Yuanmou Basin in northern Yunnan Province, located in the east of the  
62 eastern Himalayan syntaxis (Fig. 1), preserves late Cenozoic fluviolacustrine deposits  
63 with a thickness of  $\geq 850$  m. In an attempt to determine age of the two hominin  
64 incisors found in the upper section of this basin in 1965 (Hu, 1973; Qian et al., 1984),  
65 which were attributed to *Homo [Sinanthropus] erectus yuanmouensis* (Hu, 1973; Wu  
66 and Poirier, 1995), magnetostratigraphic studies were carried out by Li et al. (1976)  
67 and Hyodo et al. (2002). However, in Li et al.'s study, only 76 samples in total were  
68 collected and were not analyzed by stepwise thermal demagnetization, which is now  
69 standard practice in evaluating sediments that contain hematite as a principal  
70 remanence carrier. Their paleomagnetic results suggested an age of  $\sim 1.7$  Ma for the  
71 hominin incisors. In the work of Hyodo et al. (2002), paleomagnetic sampling  
72 intervals were too sparse and unevenly distributed with depth. Four to five samples  
73 were collected at each of 78 sites. Moreover, in their studies, the majority of samples  
74 were demagnetized by alternating field (AF) demagnetization technique and thermal  
75 treatments were done only at sites where a normal polarity magnetization was  
76 obtained by AF demagnetization. They identified four normal and four reverse  
77 polarity chrons based on 183 samples from 75 sites (including 29 sites with large  $\alpha_{95}$   
78 values between  $15^\circ$  and  $37.6^\circ$ ), by which they revised the age of the hominin incisors  
79 to the early Brunhes chron ( $\sim 0.7$  Ma), 1 myr younger than the age reported by Li et al.  
80 (1976), and obtained an age of  $\sim 3.6$  Ma (Gilbert-Gauss geomagnetic reversal) for the

81 bottom of the Shagou Formation.

82 Here we present new paleomagnetic results from the Yuanmou Basin with aims to  
83 (1) establish high-resolution magnetostratigraphy for the entire Yuanmou  
84 fluviolacustrine sequence; and (2) examine the tectonic rotation history of the basin  
85 back to late Neogene time.

86

## 87 **2. Geological setting and sampling**

88 The Yuanmou Basin is geologically located in the northern Yunnan terrane  
89 bounded by two major fault zones, on the southwest by the NW-SE trending Red  
90 River fault zone and on the northeast by the curved Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang fault zone  
91 (Fig. 1). The Red River fault zone, which extends over a length of >1,000 km, has  
92 been regarded as the suture zone between the South China block and Indochina block  
93 (Zhang et al., 1983). The curved Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang fault is nearly NS-trending in  
94 northern Yunnan with a width of about 150 km. Eastwardly, it consists of the  
95 Yuanmou fault, Yimen fault, Pudu River fault, West Xiaojiang fault, and East  
96 Xiaojiang fault. The Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang fault merged with the Red River fault at  
97 southern Yunnan. A series of Cenozoic north-south-trending half-graben basins were  
98 also developed along these faults, namely the Yuanmou Basin, Lufeng Basin, Dianchi  
99 Basin, Fuxian Basin, and Yiliang Basin (Fig. 1).

100 The N-S elongated Yuanmou Basin with an altitude of 1050 to 1400 m is bounded  
101 in its eastern side by the Yuanmou fault and a mountain consisting of the Jurassic  
102 Fengjiahe Formation and the Cretaceous Matoushan Formation, and in the western

103 side by a range of the Precambrian Julin Group (Jiang et al., 1989). The late Neogene  
104 deposits were particularly well preserved in the southern part of the Yuanmou Basin  
105 with a thickness of  $\geq 850$  m. The beds tilt slightly eastward with a mean dip of  $\sim 9^\circ$ .  
106 From bottom to top, the whole sedimentary sequence can be divided into four  
107 lithologic members: lacustrine and fluviolacustrine silty clay, silts and fine-grained  
108 sands (M1); fluvial and fluviolacustrine peaty clays, silts, silty clays and fine-grained  
109 sands (M2); fluvial silty clays interbedded with silts and fine-grained sands (M3); and  
110 fluvial and alluvial silty clays interbedded with sandy conglomerates (M4) (Pu and  
111 Qian, 1977; Qian and Zhou, 1991). The fluviolacustrine deposits also contain  
112 abundant Pleistocene mammalian, including hominin, fossils (Bien, 1940; Pei, 1961;  
113 Hu, 1973). Neither soil formation, which would indicate slowing or cessation of  
114 sedimentation, nor any significant depositional hiatus was observed in any part of the  
115 sequence in the field.

116 In this study, oriented paleomagnetic samples covering M4 to M1 were collected  
117 from the entire 260-m-thick Dapoqing (DPQ:  $25.69^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $101.92^\circ\text{E}$ ) section and the  
118 644-m-thick Gantangmaoyi (GM:  $25.65^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $101.89^\circ\text{E}$ ) section. Block samples were  
119 orientated in situ using a magnetic compass. Differences between the 2000 China  
120 Geomagnetic Reference Field (CGRF) and the solar compass declination is less than  
121  $2^\circ$ . Cubic samples with 2-cm edge length were cut in the laboratory for paleomagnetic  
122 measurements. The DPQ and GM sections (3 km apart) were correlated by using  
123 marker layers, a field traceable yellow sand layer and the highest peaty clay layer  
124 (HPCL). This field correlation was checked by sampling a  $\sim 60$ -m interval above and

125 below the HPCL at GM where it overlaps the lower part of the DPQ section.  
126 Sampling intervals in both sections were 0.2–0.5 m, which provided a total of 1633  
127 sampling levels.

128

### 129 **3. Rock magnetic investigation**

130 Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) was measured using a KLY-3s  
131 Kappabridge. The susceptibility tensor for each sample was calculated by a described  
132 method (Jelinek, 1978). To avoid potential problems associated with heating  
133 (Rochette et al., 1992), we completed the AMS measurements before any thermal  
134 demagnetization was conducted. In the 529 (DQP) and 1208 (GM) samples studied,  
135 most minimum susceptibility axes ( $K_{\min}$ ) are close to the vertical, perpendicular to the  
136 bedding plane, whereas the inclinations of the maximum axes ( $K_{\max}$ ) are very shallow  
137 (Fig. 2a). These results are typical for a normal sedimentary magnetic fabric that has  
138 been unperturbed since deposition.

139 Using the KLY-3s Kappabridge with a CS-3 high-temperature furnace, we  
140 performed magnetic susceptibility versus temperature ( $\chi-T$ ) analyses of the bulk  
141 sediment. Clear decreases in susceptibility at  $\sim 680^\circ\text{C}$  in most  $\chi-T$  curves indicate that  
142 hematite is the main magnetic carrier with small amount of magnetite ( $T_c=585^\circ\text{C}$ ) in  
143 the studied samples (Fig. 2b). Stepwise isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM)  
144 acquisition behaviors show that samples have two magnetic components, one  
145 saturated at fields of 0.2–0.3 T but another unsaturated up to 1 T (Fig. 2c). The S-ratio  
146 (defined as  $\text{IRM}_{0.3\text{T}}/\text{IRM}_{1\text{T}}$ ) is consistently low with a mean of  $0.53\pm 0.08$  ( $N=543$ )



147 (Fig. 2d). Considering all the rock magnetic evidence together, we conclude that  
148 hematite is the dominant magnetic carrier in the Yuanmou Basin sediments. These  
149 observations question the consideration by Hyodo et al. (2002) that magnetite is the  
150 dominant magnetic carrier and AF demagnetization technique was applied to the  
151 major part of their collection.

152

#### 153 **4. Paleomagnetic analyses**

154 In this study, total 1545 samples were subjected to progressive thermal  
155 demagnetization up to 680°C, with a 25–50°C interval below 585°C and a 10°C  
156 interval above, using a Magnetic Measurement Thermal Demagnetizer (MMTD  
157 Model 80). Remanence was measured using 2G cryogenic magnetometers (Models  
158 755 and 760), which were installed in a magnetically shielded space (<300 nT).  
159 Representative demagnetization behaviors are presented in Fig. 3. A total of 88 peaty  
160 clay samples were subjected to a 150°C thermal demagnetization followed by AF  
161 demagnetization at peak fields up to 60 mT. Both methods were capable of isolating  
162 the characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) after removal of one or two soft  
163 secondary components of magnetization. The principal components direction was  
164 computed by a "least-squares fitting" technique (Kirschvink, 1980). Based on the rock  
165 magnetic analyses (i.e., hematite as the main remanence carrier), we determined the  
166 ChRM using high-temperature components ( $\geq 610^\circ\text{C}$ ) with at least four  
167 demagnetization steps trending towards the origin (Fig. 3). For AF demagnetized  
168 peaty clay samples we used a component  $\geq 30$  mT. Samples with maximum angular

169 deviation larger than  $15^\circ$  were rejected for further analyses. Based on these criteria,  
170 892 samples (~55%) had reliable ChRM directions. The virtual geomagnetic poles  
171 (VGPs) were determined from the ChRM vectors of those samples, and then their  
172 corresponding VGP latitudes were subsequently used to define the succession of  
173 magnetostratigraphic polarity (Fig. 4).

174 As mentioned above, Hyodo et al. (2002) have used the inadequate  
175 demagnetization technique to their collection. Moreover, they adopted ChRM  
176 directions of about 16% samples with a higher coercivity component from the center  
177 of a cluster instead of the principal component analysis method as the remanence  
178 carried by hematite can't be totally cleaned by AF demagnetization. Therefore, our  
179 new findings presented in this study supercede the previous ones.

180 As shown in Figure 4, nine reverse magnetozones (R1 to R9) and eight normal  
181 magnetozones (N1 to N8) are recognized in the DPQ and GM sections. Specifically,  
182 five magnetozones occur at DPQ: three with reverse polarity, R1 (0–113.5 m), R2  
183 (164.85–218.85 m) and R3 (224.25–260.1 m); and two with normal polarity, N1  
184 (113.5–164.85 m) and N2 (218.85–224.25 m). Below the HPCL marker layer at GM,  
185 there are six reverse magnetozones: R4 (258.1–272.55 m), R5 (332.8–353.95 m), R6  
186 (387.05–443.8 m), R7 (459.05–481.4 m), R8 (507.4–606.7 m) and R9 (637.05–644.3  
187 m); and six normal magnetozones: N3 (141.8–258.1 m), N4 (272.55–332.8 m), N5  
188 (353.95–387.05 m), N6 (443.8–459.05 m), N7 (481.4–507.4 m) and N8  
189 (606.7–637.05 m).

190

191 **5. Discussion**192 *5.1. Age constraints on the Yuanmou Basin sediments*

193 Slight changes in bedding attitudes prevent this study from a meaningful local  
194 fold test. Instead, we calculated the mean ChRM directions and then performed the  
195 reversal test (McFadden and McElhinny, 1990) on sample levels. To do the test we  
196 rejected 186 samples with transitional directions (here designated polarity transition  
197 as having VGP latitudes less than  $60^\circ$ ). The remaining 706 samples have a mean  
198 normal direction of  $D/I = 1.6^\circ/27.1^\circ$  ( $\alpha_{95}=1.8^\circ$ ,  $N=254$ ) and reversed direction of  $D/I$   
199  $= 181.3^\circ/-28.2^\circ$  ( $\alpha_{95}=1.4^\circ$ ,  $N=452$ ); they positively pass the reversal test with A  
200 classification (McFadden and McElhinny, 1990). The overall mean direction is  $D/I =$   
201  $1.4^\circ/27.8^\circ$  ( $\alpha_{95}=1.1^\circ$ ), corresponding to the paleomagnetic pole at  $79.1^\circ\text{N}/266.7^\circ\text{E}$   
202 ( $A_{95}=2.8^\circ$ ). Thus, from this point of view we conclude that the observed  
203 paleomagnetic results are reliable. Although paleomagnetic results passed the reversal  
204 test, we noted an inclination shallowing of  $\sim 19^\circ$  with respect to the synthetic  
205 European apparent polar wander path (APWP) of the same age proposed by Besse and  
206 Courtillot (2002). The low inclination may have been caused by syndepositional  
207 shallowing of the remanent inclination (Gilder et al., 2001). Several earlier studies  
208 revealed that inclination shallowing is a common phenomenon for sedimentary  
209 magnetism in Central Asia (e.g., Cogné et al., 1999; Gilder et al., 2001; Dupont-Nivet  
210 et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2004). The inclination shallowing seems to have equally  
211 affected both the normal and reversed directions for the Yuanmou data. Detailed  
212 discussion of the shallowing is beyond the scope of this paper.

213 Earlier studies have demonstrated that M4 is rich in mammalian fossils, known as  
214 the Yuanmou Fauna (Bien, 1940), which is similar taxonomically to the early  
215 Pleistocene Nihewan fauna in North China and the Villafranchian fauna in Europe  
216 (Bien, 1940; Hu, 1973; Pei, 1961; Qiu, 2000; Deng et al., 2008). By combining  
217 biochronological data and magnetostratigraphic results, the magnetozones determined  
218 for DPQ can readily be correlated to the geomagnetic polarity timescale (GPTS)  
219 (Berggren et al., 1995; Cande and Kent, 1995). DPQ magnetozones R1, R2 and R3  
220 correspond to the Matuyama reverse chron; and N1 and N2, respectively to the  
221 Olduvai and Reunion normal subchrons of the GPTS (Fig. 4). GM magnetozones  
222 N3–N5 are correlated to the Gauss normal chron and its two reverse subchrons (the  
223 Kaena and the Mammoth), and magnetozones R6–R9, to the Gilbert reverse chron  
224 and its three normal subchrons (the Cochiti, the Nunivak and the Sidufjall). Therefore,  
225 by extrapolating the sedimentation rates of magnetozones N1–R2, we estimate the  
226 termination age of M4 to be ~1.37 Ma, instead of the Brunhes chron age estimated by  
227 Hyodo et al. (2002).

228 There was another major drawback of Hyodo et al.'s work besides incomplete  
229 removal of viscous remanence, they sampled only 78 sites for a 1300-m-thick section.  
230 Both the incomplete demagnetization and very coarse sampling can lead to missing or  
231 incorrect interpretation of polarities of this magnetostratigraphic sequence. In Hyodo  
232 et al.'s study there were only six paleomagnetic sampling sites in the Yuanmou  
233 Formation, corresponding to the M4 in this study; among them they claimed one  
234 normal magnetozone (represented by 14 samples of four sampling sites) with two

235 reversal events (represented by 6 samples of two sampling sites). Their correlation of  
236 this normal magnetozone to the Brunhes chron is obviously incorrect.  
237 Magnetostratigraphic age of the Yuanmou hominin incisors will be detailed elsewhere  
238 (Zhu et al., 2008, manuscript submitted to Journal of Human Evolution).

239 On the basis of GPTS correlations of our densely sampled sequence, we estimate  
240 the base age of M1 to be ~4.9 Ma, which is significantly older than that of 3.6 Ma  
241 for the bottom of the Shagou Formation suggested by Hyodo et al. (2002). This  
242 suggests that the Yuanmou Basin subsided, possibly due to reactivation of the western  
243 branch of the Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang fault (Yuanmou fault), and started to accumulate  
244 sediments at the early Pliocene.

245

## 246 *5.2. Sedimentary accumulation of the Yuanmou sequence*

247 The built magnetostratigraphy has provided an insight into the infilling  
248 process of the Yuanmou Basin. The variability in sedimentary accumulation of the  
249 Yuanmou Basin sequence is shown in Figure 5a. There exists high variability in  
250 sedimentation rates of the continental fluvio-lacustrine sequences in the Yuanmou  
251 Basin since ~4.9 Ma, which reveals four distinct stages during the infilling process of  
252 the basin. The first stage is from ~4.9 to 4.6 Ma, and has an accumulation rate of ~48  
253 cm/kyr. The second, between 4.6 and 3.3 Ma, has a lower accumulation rate of ~12.5  
254 cm/kyr. Nevertheless, we note that this accumulation rate is estimated based on only  
255 one point. The third stage, an interval of 3.2–3.1 Ma, has a very high accumulation  
256 rate of ~55 cm/kyr. And, the fourth stage from 3.1 to 1.4 Ma has an accumulation rate

257 of ~26 cm/kyr. The variation of sedimentation rates can be attributed to either  
258 tectonics and/or environmental change. For example, during the early Pliocene (i.e.,  
259 between 4.9 and 4.6 Ma), the development of the Yuanmou paleolake was initiated  
260 due to fault-controlled subsidence, and sediments rich in conglomerates were  
261 accumulated. The high sedimentation rate during this stage was associated with the  
262 initial formation of the basin and was very likely due to rapid tectonic subsidence. The  
263 lower sedimentation rate during 4.6–3.3 Ma was probably mainly related to climate  
264 change, when tectonics imparted weak control on basin infilling and numerous peaty  
265 clay layers were deposited under warm and wet conditions. The substantially higher  
266 sedimentation rate during 3.2–3.1 Ma is also probably indicative of an episode of  
267 rapid tectonic subsidence, which was followed by a significant decrease in  
268 sedimentation rate during 3.1–1.4 Ma, when a distinctive sequence of floodplain silty  
269 clay and silts was developed.

270

### 271 *5.3. Possible vertical-axis tectonic rotation*

272 According to modern observations on the deformation in Tibet and its  
273 surrounding areas, England and Molnar (1990) proposed that the crustal blocks  
274 between the east-striking faults in the eastern part of the Tibetan Plateau rotated  
275 clockwise at 1–2°/myr. Based on the sedimentological study, Wang and Burchfiel  
276 (2000) proposed that crust in the southeastern part of the Tibetan Plateau has  
277 internally deformed and clockwise rotated. Importantly, our new paleomagnetic data  
278 provide an opportunity to discuss the timing of possible vertical-axis rotations, which

279 were lacking in most previous paleomagnetic studies. To this end, we calculated the  
280 mean directions of each of the seventeen polarity units (excluding samples with  
281 transitional directions). Results are shown in Table 1 and Figure 5b. These declination  
282 means may be paleomagnetically combined into three distinct groups (I to III) with  
283 overlaps between neighbor groups if the errors are taken into consideration.  
284 Specifically, the Fisher mean declinations of Group I (polarities R1 to R3, 2.58–1.37  
285 Ma), Group II (polarities N3 to N6, 4.29–2.58 Ma) and Group III (polarities R7 to R9,  
286 4.91–4.29 Ma) are  $-2.8^{\circ}\pm 1.6^{\circ}$ ,  $2.0^{\circ}\pm 1.8^{\circ}$  and  $9.2^{\circ}\pm 2.1^{\circ}$ , respectively, strongly  
287 suggesting a progressive vertical-axis clockwise rotation of about  $12^{\circ}$  from 1.4 Ma to  
288 4.9 Ma for the Yuanmou Basin. Because of the sufficient time intervals used ( $> 600$   
289 kyr), the paleosecular variation influence on these mean directions should be averaged  
290 out. Considering the number of samples used in statistics ( $N=174$  to  $338$ ), the  
291 measurement error potentially related to the imprecision of sampling orientation most  
292 likely had an insignificant effect. Moreover, the slight tilting of beds has been  
293 corrected and the field observation of the sampled sections does not show any  
294 significant internal deformation, such as faulting. Therefore, we tend to interpret these  
295 grouped means of declinations to be the resultant of progressive vertical-axis  
296 clockwise tectonic rotations of the studied basin.

297 Understanding of these progressive vertical-axis tectonic rotations may enhance  
298 the debate on the consequence of the India-Eurasia collision. Because of lack of  
299 paleomagnetic data of the same timing resolution from the neighbor blocks, we  
300 discuss them in the geographic (absolute) frame and compare them with stable Europe

301 reference (Besse and Courtillot, 2002). Groups I and II show slight differences of  
302  $-2.8^{\circ}\pm 1.6^{\circ}$  and  $2.0^{\circ}\pm 1.8^{\circ}$  at the 95% confidence level with respect to the geographic  
303 pole, respectively. If the  $2\sigma$  statistic probability is taken into account, these  
304 differences become insignificant. However, Group III presents significant difference  
305 of mean declination in clockwise with geographic north at 95% confidence level. That  
306 may interpret that the Yuanmou Basin has experienced a progressive clockwise  
307 rotation in the geographic (absolute) frame. If compared to the expected declination  
308 calculated from the synthetic European APWP of 3 Ma ( $\lambda_p=86.3^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $\phi_p=172.0^{\circ}\text{E}$ ,  
309  $A_{95}=2.6^{\circ}$ ; Table 1) proposed by Besse and Courtillot (2002), we note that Group I  
310 apparently rotated  $-6.7^{\circ}\pm 2.8^{\circ}$  counterclockwise, Group II  $-1.9^{\circ}\pm 2.8^{\circ}$  in the same sense,  
311 however, and Group III rotated  $5.3^{\circ}\pm 3.0^{\circ}$  clockwise (Table 1). In other words, an  
312 earlier clockwise rotation of the Yuanmou Basin was followed by a later  
313 counterclockwise rotation relative to the expected direction determined from reference  
314 European APWP. An accumulated relative rotation of about  $12^{\circ}$  occurred, therefore,  
315 for the studied section from 1.4 to 4.9 Ma, which indicates an apparent rapid relative  
316 rotation of about  $4^{\circ}/\text{myr}$ . Of course, we have noticed that this comparison and its  
317 consequent tectonic interpretation may be obscured due to the following reasons: 1)  
318 Several active tectonic structures are located from stable Europe and the studied area,  
319 such as Altay, Tianshan, Altyn Tagh; 2) The process of India-Eurasia collision  
320 presents a continuous nature in the time scale of this study (Patriat and Achahe,  
321 1984), and no obvious tectonic evidence to rotate the Yuanmou Basin in different  
322 senses from such a short interval from 4.9 to 1.4 Ma.



323 The clockwise rotation of the Yuanmou Basin obtained from this study is  
324 coherent with field observations and GPS measurement carried out around the eastern  
325 Himalayan syntaxis (England and Molnar, 1990; Leloup et al., 1995; Wang et al.,  
326 1998; Tapponnier et al., 2001). This rotation could be interpreted as evidence for the  
327 transformation of the Red River fault from left-lateral to right-lateral (e.g., Leloup et  
328 al. 1995). In brief, the regional clockwise rotation of the Yuanmou Basin could be  
329 linked to the displacement on the Xianshuihe-Xiaojiang left-lateral strike-slip fault  
330 and motion associated with the Red River fault.

331

## 332 **6. Conclusions**

333 This paleomagnetic study has shown that the Yuanmou Basin near the  
334 southeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau began to accumulate sediments in the early  
335 Pliocene. Seventeen polarity units (9 reverse and 8 normal) were determined for the  
336 850-m thick sequence, the corresponding age spanned from 4.9 to 1.4 Ma. The  
337 sedimentation rate varied from 12.5 to 55 cm/kyr, possibly related to tectonics and/or  
338 climate changes. Importantly, the observed discordant declinations suggest significant  
339 clockwise vertical-axis tectonic rotations of the Yuanmou Basin since the early  
340 Pliocene time, which provides constraints on activities of major fault systems in the  
341 adjacent region during the past ~4.9 Ma. In summary, the magnetostratigraphy of the  
342 Yuanmou sequence chronicles the late Neogene infilling process in the Yuanmou  
343 Basin and tectonic rotations in the southeastern Tibetan Plateau.

344

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352

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499 to J. Hum. Evol.

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

501 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

502

503 Fig. 1. Sketch tectonic map (a) and detailed geological map (b) showing sedimentary  
504 basins (the numbers 1–5 in (a)) and major fault systems in the eastern Tibetan Plateau  
505 and Yunnan. 1, Yuanmou Basin; 2, Lufeng Basin; 3, Dianchi Lake; 4, Fuxian Lake; 5,  
506 Yiliang Basin. The filled square in (a) is the location of a Global Positioning System  
507 station named DLH shown in King et al. (1997).

508

509 Fig. 2. Rock magnetic results. (a) Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS)  
510 diagram. Squares (circles) stand for  $K_{\max}$  ( $K_{\min}$ ). (b) Representative  $\chi-T$  curves  
511 (heating curves only). (c) Representative normalized IRM acquisition curves. (d)  
512 Variation of the S ratio ( $IRM_{0.3T}/IRM_{1T}$ ) with depth (upper 647 m, correlation between  
513 two sections, see text).

514

515 Fig. 3. Representative orthogonal plots of the Dapoqing, DPQ (a–d) and  
516 Gantangmaoyi, GM (e–l) sections. All directions are tilt-corrected. Open (solid)  
517 circles are plotted on vertical (horizontal) plane. Thermal treatment levels are marked  
518 in degree Celsius. See Figure 4 for depths of the samples.

519

520 Fig. 4. Lithostratigraphy and magnetic polarity stratigraphy at Dapoqing, DPQ (a–c)  
521 and Gantangmaoyi, GM (e–g) and their correlation with the geomagnetic polarity  
522 timescale, GPTS (d) (Cande and Kent, 1995; Berggren et al., 1995). The highest peaty

523 clay maker layer (HPCL) and the lithologic member (M) boundaries are shown. VGP

524 Lat, latitude of virtual geomagnetic pole; R, reverse polarity; and N, normal polarity.

525 The stars show the GPS points.

526

527 Fig. 5. (a) Magnetic polarities identified in the DPQ and GM sections of the Yuanmou

528 Basin. (b) Variation of the sedimentation rates of polarity units as a function of ages.

529 The empty and solid circles represent data of the DPQ and GM sections, respectively.

530 The solid line shows the averaged sedimentation rates of the four stages during the

531 infilling process of the Yuanmou Basin. (c) Variation of the Fisher mean declinations

532 of polarity units as a function of ages. The diamonds show data of the DPQ section;

533 the squares, of the combined DPQ and GM sections; and the triangles, of the GM

534 section. Numbers next to the symbols are sample numbers of the polarity unit that

535 were used for the calculation of the mean. The vertical bars represent the age intervals.

536 The horizontal error bars are the 95% confidence limit of the declinations. These

537 declination means can be paleomagnetically combined into three distinct groups (I, II

538 and III). The dashed line shows the expected declination from the referenced

539 European paleomagnetic pole of 3 Myr.

540

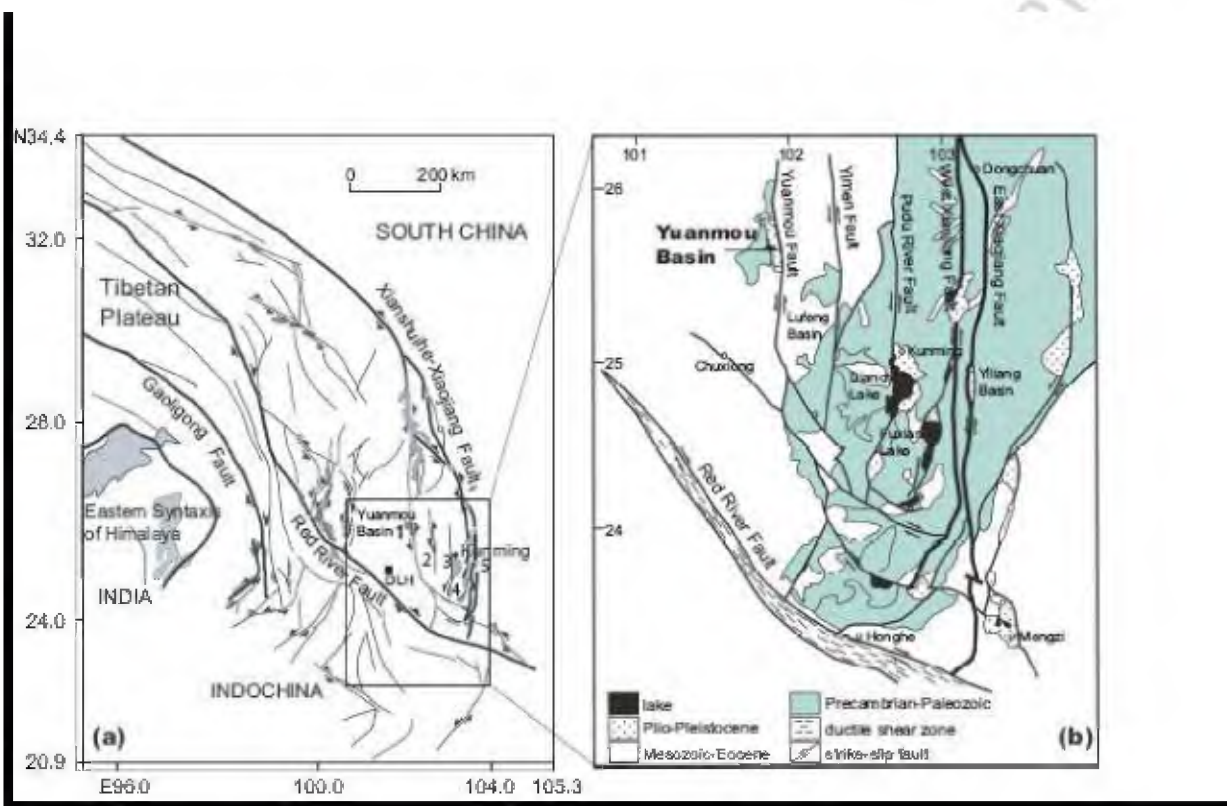
541 Table 1. Paleomagnetic poles from this study together with expected declination and rotations<sup>a</sup>

phases	Depth	Age	N	D <sub>s</sub>	I <sub>s</sub>	α <sub>95</sub>	λ <sub>p</sub>	φ <sub>p</sub>	A <sub>95</sub>	<i>D<sub>exp</sub></i> ± Δ <i>D<sub>exp</sub></i> (°)	<i>R</i> ± Δ <i>R</i> (°)
	(m)	(Ma)		(°)	(°)	(°)	(°N)	(°E)	(°)	Europe	Europe
I	0-141.8	1.37–2.58	5	-2.8	26.3	1.6	77.3	297.3	2.6		-6.7±2.8
II	141.9-459.1	2.58–4.29	7	2.0	25.6	1.8	77.3	270.0	1.3		-1.9±2.8
III	459.2-644.3	4.29–4.91	5	9.2	32.8	2.1	78.7	225.2	3.5	3.9±2.9	5.3±3.0
I, II, III	0-644.3	1.37–4.91	17	1.4	27.8	1.1	79.1	266.7	2.8		-2.5±2.5

542

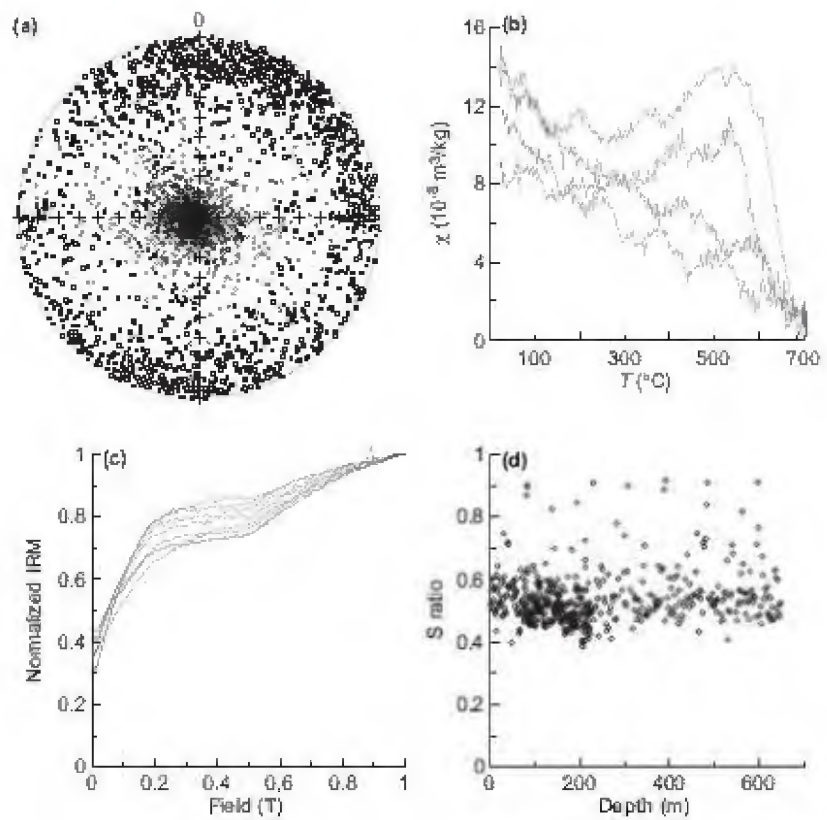
543 <sup>a</sup> N, the numbers of polarities. D<sub>s</sub>, I<sub>s</sub> and α<sub>95</sub> are mean declination, inclination and 95% confidence limit, respectively. λ<sub>p</sub> and φ<sub>p</sub> are latitude and  
544 longitude of paleomagnetic pole from this study, respectively. A<sub>95</sub> is the radius of 95% confidence region of paleomagnetic poles. *D<sub>exp</sub>* and  
545 Δ*D<sub>exp</sub>* are the expected declination and its confidence limit at the coeval referenced pole, respectively. The referenced European paleomagnetic  
546 pole of 3 Myr is at λ<sub>p</sub>=86.3°N, φ<sub>p</sub>=172.0°E (A<sub>95</sub>=2.6°) (data from Besse and Courtillot, 2002). The vertical-axis rotation with 95% confidence  
547 limit, *R* ± Δ*R*, were calculated after Butler (1992).

548 Fig. 1



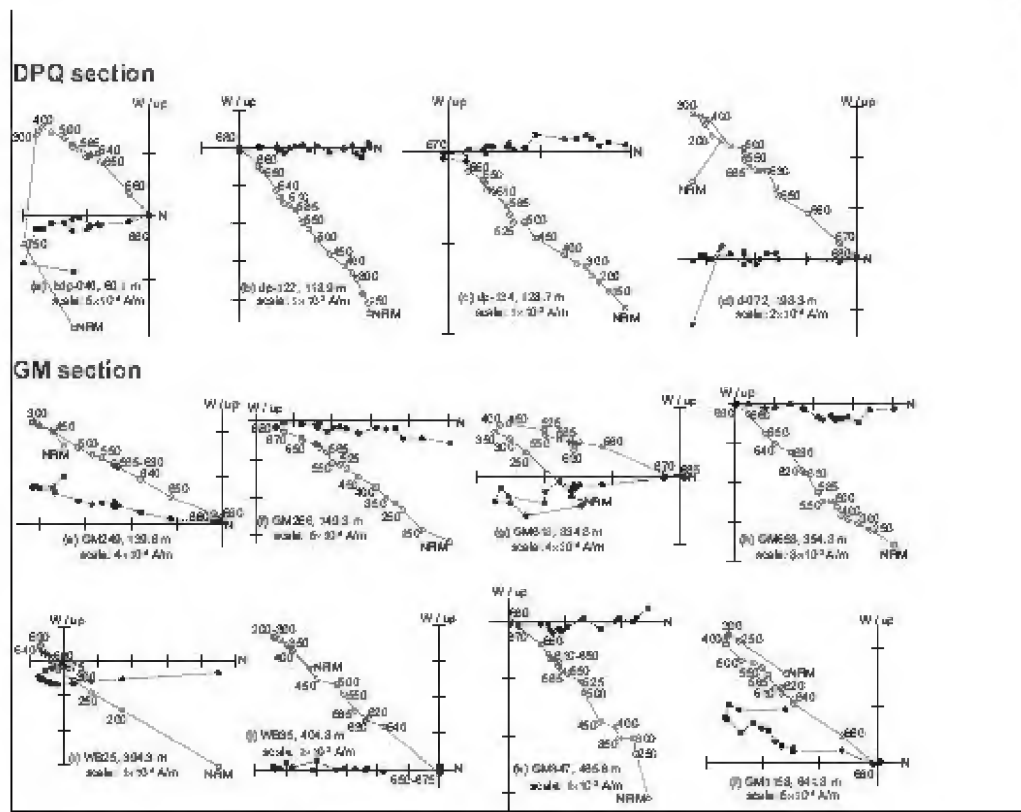
549

550 Fig. 2



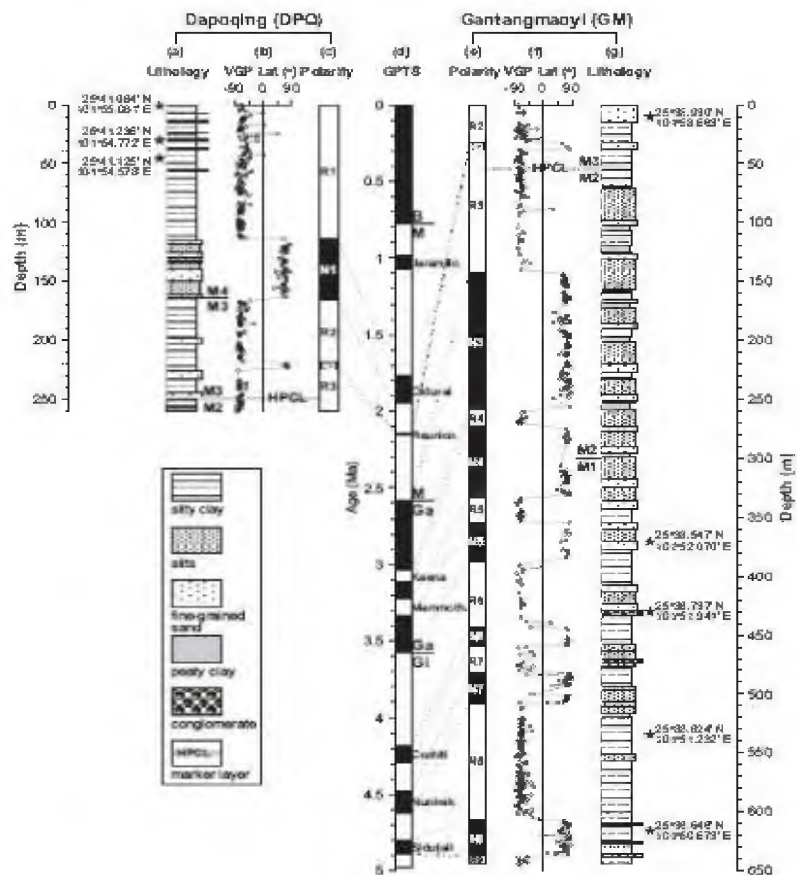
551

552 Fig. 3



553

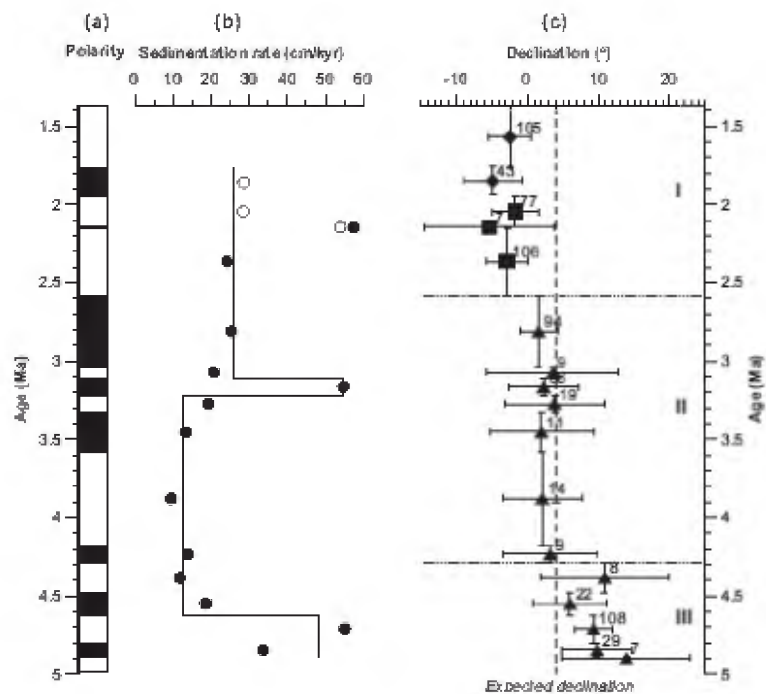
554 Fig. 4



555



556 Fig. 5



557