

1 **Climate variability on the south-eastern Tibetan Plateau since the Late Glacial based on a**  
2 **multiproxy approach from Lake Naleng – comparing pollen and non-pollen signals**

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18

19 Highlights:

20 - Comparison of multi-proxy downcore variations with reconstructed MAP and MAT

21 - TOC, C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ , CIA and Sr/Ba are related to changes of precipitation

22 - Doubling of Holocene precipitation in comparison to Late Glacial conditions

23 - Diminishing moisture availability from south to north on the eastern TP in the Holocene

24

25 Keywords: Element concentrations; Grain-size; Principal component analysis; Temperature  
26 and precipitation reconstructions; Weathering; Asian monsoon; Tibetan Plateau

27 Abstract

28

29 A multi-proxy Late Glacial environmental record is described from Lake Naleng (31.10°N;  
30 99.75°E, 4200 m above sea level), situated on south-eastern Tibetan Plateau to gain deeper  
31 insights into the hydrological and palaeoclimate development since 17.7 cal ka BP.  
32 Palynological reconstructions of variations in mean annual precipitation (MAP) and  
33 temperature (MAT), sedimentological data and sediment chemistry including weathering  
34 indicators provide a multi-faceted picture of local and regional environmental changes since  
35 the Late Glacial. Principal component analyses of all parameters provide information on  
36 interrelationships between each parameters, which help to evaluate their traceability to  
37 temperature and precipitation and to estimate their usability as proxy indicators for local  
38 and or regional variations.

39 During the Late Glacial from 17.7 to 14.0 cal ka BP Lake Naleng experienced cold and dry  
40 climate conditions with low biological productivity and supply of unaltered fine-grained  
41 material due to the high supply of glacier milk. During the second half of the Late Glacial,  
42 climate conditions changed abruptly: increases in MAT (from  $-4$  to  $-2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from  
43 500 mm to 820 mm) between 14.0 and 13.0 cal ka BP indicate a climate amelioration. This  
44 time interval can be correlated to the Bølling/Allerød (B/A) warming period in the North  
45 Atlantic region and is followed by the Younger Dryas cold reversal indicated by abrupt  
46 decreases of MAT (from  $-2.2$  to  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from 820 to 650 mm). The onset of the  
47 Holocene at about 11.5 cal ka BP is indicated by rises in reconstructed MAT (from  $-5$  to  
48 about  $-0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from 600 mm to 950 mm), which led to an increased supply of

49 weathered material and higher biological productivity. Between 5.0 and 3.0 cal ka BP, MAT  
50 increases to about 0.2°C and MAP rises to maximum values of about 1000 mm, followed by  
51 slightly decreasing MAT and MAP between 3.0 and 0 cal ka BP.  
52 The biogeochemical parameters (total organic carbon (TOC), C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ) and weathering  
53 indicators (e.g. the chemical index of alteration (CIA) and Sr/Ba) are directly (erosion of soils)  
54 or indirectly (changing provenance) related to moisture availability on the south-eastern TP  
55 and shows matching regional climate oscillations since the Late Glacial. In comparison to  
56 other Late-Glacial records from the TP, MAP reconstructions from Lake Naleng indicate  
57 wetter climate conditions in the south-eastern part of the TP and dryer conditions farther  
58 away from moisture sources.

## 59 1. Introduction

60

61 The Tibetan Plateau (TP) is the largest elevated landmass on Earth and triggers the onset of  
62 the monsoon circulation by increasing the insolation-driven thermal contrast between land  
63 and ocean (Prell and Kutzbach, 1992). Furthermore, the TP is very important for the water  
64 supply of billions of people, because it is the source area of the largest rivers in central Asia  
65 (Huang et al., 2011). Understanding regional natural landscape variability on the TP and  
66 adjacent areas will therefore provide insights into low-latitude climatic systems, and will  
67 enable better predictions of future climate change.

68 Because of its climatic impact on the atmospheric circulation system, the TP is a key region  
69 for palaeoclimate research. Most published palaeoclimate studies on the TP focus on the  
70 Holocene, and records including the Late Glacial are still rare (Herzschuh, 2006; Zhang and  
71 Mischke, 2009). A temporally and spatially extended data set of climate records from the  
72 Tibetan Plateau is useful for a regional assessment of the Late Glacial and Holocene climate

73 and for a discussion of spatial heterogeneities of climate change on the TP (Shen et al., 2005;  
74 Mischke and Zhang, 2010). In this context, lake archives from the TP provide valuable  
75 information about environmental and climate change since the Late Glacial. However,  
76 different and interacting processes affect lake systems on the TP: hydrological and tectonic  
77 changes in the catchment, the existence of glaciers, or variations in precipitation,  
78 temperature and evaporation. Commonly used palaeolimnological proxies differ in the  
79 degree to which they are known to trace specific climatic parameters. For instance,  
80 individual proxies from the same site may suggest inconsistent climate reconstructions as  
81 they can reflect either local within-lake variations, regional variations or both (Wischnewski  
82 et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014). Thus, validation procedures are needed to establish a  
83 reliable relationship between a climatic variable and a proxy indicator (IPCC, 2007).

84 Our objectives in this study were threefold. First, this study from Lake Naleng on the south-  
85 eastern TP presents quantitative palynological reconstructions for mean annual precipitation  
86 and temperature since 17.7 cal ka BP in comparison to other quantitative records from the  
87 eastern TP in order to determine the strength of, and the forcing mechanisms behind,  
88 climate oscillations in the Late Glacial and Holocene. Second, we present weathering  
89 indicator records (CIA, Sr/Ba, Y/Al, Al/Rb) to estimate the degree of weathering since the  
90 early Late Glacial. Third, we compared the palynological reconstructions with all newly  
91 available sedimentological and biogeochemical proxies (grain size, total organic carbon  
92 (TOC), C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ) from Lake Naleng by principal component analyses to evaluate their  
93 traceability of temperature and precipitation and to estimate their usability as proxy  
94 indicators for local or regional environmental and climate variations.

## 95 2. Regional Setting

96

97 Lake Naleng (also referred as Lalong Cuo; 31.10°N, 99.75°E; Fig. 1) is situated in a glacial  
98 tongue basin, 4200 m above sea level (asl) on the south-eastern TP in the Shaluli Shan  
99 mountain range in the Sichuan Province of the People's Republic of China. The open  
100 freshwater lake (specific conductivity of 0.045 mS/cm) has a surface area of 1.7 km<sup>2</sup>, a  
101 catchment area of 470 km<sup>2</sup> and a maximum water depth of 36.7 m (Kramer et al., 2010a, b,  
102 c). The lake has a Secchi depth of 2.9 m (determined 19.09.2003), a pH of 8.1 and a dissolved  
103 oxygen content of 6.9 mg/L, and is classified as mesotrophic water body (Kramer et a.,  
104 2010b). Today, the main inflow to Lake Naleng occurs through a major river channel on the  
105 northern side of the lake. Furthermore, several small streams from the surrounding  
106 mountains reach the lake. They originate from an elevation of approximately 4900 m asl  
107 (Kramer et al., 2010b). The outlet at the southern edge drains towards the Xinlong Plateau.  
108 Lake Naleng is currently not affected by glaciers but erratic boulders within the catchment  
109 area and marginal moraines near the lake-shore indicate its origin as glacially-formed basin  
110 (Graf et al., 2008). The Shaluli Shan mountain area includes both high-relief mountains and  
111 relatively low-relief upland landscapes. The regional bedrock geology is mainly composed of  
112 Triassic flysch sequences of the Songpan-Garze terrane and Triassic volcanic and  
113 sedimentary rocks, intruded by Jurassic plutons (Ouimet et al., 2010). However, the  
114 catchment area of the lake is composed of Miocene granite and granodiorite (Reid et al.,  
115 2005; Graf et al., 2008; Strasky et al., 2009). The main geomorphological units in this area  
116 are the Haizishan Plateau and the Xinlong Plateau (Fu et al., 2013a).

117 The study area is mainly influenced by the Indian summer monsoon, which transports warm  
118 and humid air masses from the Gulf of Bengal to the TP (Domrös and Peng, 1988). During  
119 winter, dry and cold air masses prevail in the investigation area, driven by the anticyclone  
120 over Mongolia. Mean January temperature is -3.9°C and mean July temperature is 14.3°C.

121 Most (90%) of the annual rainfall (560 mm) occurs during the summer monsoon season  
122 between May and October (measured at meteorological station Garzê, located about 80 km  
123 north-east of Lake Naleng, 31.62°N, 100.00°E, at 3522 m asl).

124 Lake Naleng is located at the upper tree-line and the vegetation between 3200 and 4400 m  
125 asl consists of conifer forests with *Abies squamata* and *Picea likiangensis*, and alpine  
126 meadows. The vegetation above the subalpine ecotone is mainly dominated by *Kobresia*  
127 species and *Polygonum sphaerostachyum* (Kramer et al., 2010b, c). Detailed information on  
128 the vegetation composition in the study area is given by Kramer et al. (2010a, b, c). The  
129 catchment area of the lake is used for grazing by yaks and sheep during summer.

130

131 Fig.1

### 132 3. Materials and Methods

133

#### 134 3.1 Sediment core and dating

135

136 A 1781 cm long sediment core was recovered from the centre of Lake Naleng (Fig. 1) during  
137 a field campaign in February 2004 from 32 m water depth using an Uwitec (Niederreiter 60)  
138 piston corer system on the frozen lake surface (Kramer et al., 2010a). The age-depth model  
139 for the sediment core is based on AMS (accelerator mass spectrometry) radiocarbon dating  
140 of ten bulk organic carbon samples at the Leibniz Laboratory, Kiel. The humic acid fraction  
141 and leaching residue were analysed separately. The humic acid fraction was used for the  
142 construction of the age-depth model because this fraction is relatively insensitive to the re-  
143 deposition of older carbon or to the input of terrestrial material (Abbot and Stafford, 1996;  
144 Kramer et al., 2010b). The determined lake reservoir effect of 1500 cal a BP was calculated

145 using two dated samples near the top of the sediment core and was subtracted from the  
146 original  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating results (Kramer et al., 2010a, b). The reservoir effect is a common  
147 phenomenon on the TP and the determined age of about 1500 years corresponds to other  
148 lake studies on the TP (Yu et al., 2007; Hou et al., 2012; Mischke et al., 2013). Radiocarbon  
149 ages were calibrated using CALIB 5.0.1 (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993; Reimer et al., 2004). The  
150 sedimentation rate for the lower part of the sediment core (between 1800 and 950 cm) is  
151 about 2.2 mm/a. For the upper part (between 950 and 0 cm) the rate ranges between 1.3 to  
152 0.6 mm/a. A detailed description of the age-depth model and the stratigraphy of the  
153 recovered sediment core from Lake Naleng is given by Kramer et al. (2010a).

154

### 155 3.2 Analytical methods

156

157 The laboratory analyses were conducted on 120 samples taken at intervals between 4 and  
158 10 centimetres at the State Key Laboratory of Lanzhou Institute of Geology (Chinese  
159 Academy of Sciences). The determination of the carbonate content was conducted at 10-cm  
160 intervals using Chittick Apparatus. The procedure is based on the volumetric determination  
161 of carbon dioxide produced by the reaction of carbonates with 1N HCl (Dreimanis, 1962).  
162 Contents of carbon (C), TOC, and nitrogen (N) were determined on duplicate powdered  
163 samples using a Vario EL III (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany). For the  
164 determination of TOC, the sediment samples were pre-treated using 1N HCl to remove  
165 calcium carbonate.

166 Sub-samples were treated with 100% phosphoric for the determination of the organic  
167 carbon stable isotope composition ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{org}$ ) using a Finnigan 252 mass spectrometer. The  
168 isotopic values are reported as delta per mil notation ( $\delta$ , ‰) notation, relative to V-PDB. The

169 analytical error is <0.3‰ for eight repeated measurements. Magnetic susceptibility  
170 measurements were performed at 6-cm intervals using a Bartington Instruments Ltd MS2  
171 Magnetic Susceptibility Meter linked to an MS2B Dual Frequency Sensor (470 and 4700 Hz).  
172 Element concentrations were determined by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF) using a  
173 MagiX PW2403 at 4-cm intervals. The estimated accuracy is 1–2% for major elements and  
174 5% for trace elements. The CIA was calculated to determine the weathering intensity in the  
175 catchment area. Baumann et al. (2014) showed that the CIA is the most suitable weathering  
176 index in permafrost ecosystems on the Tibetan Plateau. The CIA is defined as:  
177  $Al_2O_3 / (Al_2O_3 + CaO + Na_2O + K_2O)$  assuming that CaO comes mainly from silicates (Nesbitt and  
178 Young, 1982). This assumption applies to Lake Naleng due to the lack of calcareous rocks in  
179 the catchment area and the low carbonate content of the lake sediments (<1%). The  
180 element ratios Y/Al and Al/Rb are commonly used as physical weathering indicators  
181 (Krauskopf and Bird, 1995; Lucchini et al., 2003). Furthermore, the Sr/Ba ratio was used for  
182 weathering reconstructions, because Sr and Ba are included in feldspars of granites, and the  
183 Sr/Ba ratio traces the mobility of Sr relative to Ba (Liu et al., 1993).

184 Grain-size analyses were performed for the 0.02–2000 µm fraction using a Malvern  
185 Mastersizer 2000 laser granulometer at 4-cm sampling intervals. The samples were pre-  
186 treated using: (1) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to remove organic matter and soluble salts, (2) 10 % HCl to remove  
187 calcium carbonate, and (3) Na-hexametaphosphate to disperse aggregates.

188 A pollen-based calibration (transfer) function for eastern continental Asia from Cao et al.  
189 (2013) was applied to the pollen assemblages from the sediment core of Lake Naleng for the  
190 reconstruction of mean annual precipitation (MAP) and mean annual temperature (MAT)  
191 (Kramer et al., 2010a). A detailed description of the used dataset and the applied calibration  
192 function is given by Herzsuh et al. (2014).



193 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used and Pearson's correlation coefficient (r)  
194 calculated following the normalisation of the dataset using the OriginPro 9.0 software  
195 package. Missing data as a result of the different sampling resolutions between 4 and 10 cm  
196 intervals were interpolated using a linear interpolation algorithm before conducting PCA.

## 197 4. Results

198

### 199 4.1 General changes in TOC, C/N ratio, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ , MAP and MAT

200

201 The TOC contents generally range between 0.2 and 12% (Fig. 2). TOC is low below 950 cm  
202 (before 14.5 cal ka BP) and increases to 11% at 700 cm (8.3 cal ka BP), followed by  
203 fluctuating values between 6-12% (Fig. 2). The C/N ratio generally ranges between 2 and 17  
204 and shows a similar pattern as TOC (Fig. 2). Below 1000 cm (before 14.0 cal ka BP) the C/N  
205 ratio is mostly below 8 rises to 13 at 1050 cm (14.3 cal ka BP). From 1050 cm to 0 cm  
206 (between 14.0 to 0.0 cal ka BP) the C/N ratio range between 10 and 17.

207 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values of the sediment core range between  $-31$  and  $-26\text{‰}$  and show an inverse  
208 pattern to TOC and the C/N ratio (Fig. 2). Below 1000 cm (14.5 cal ka BP) the values range  
209 between  $-28.5$  and  $-25\text{‰}$ . From 1000 cm to the top (between 14.5 to 0 cal ka BP) the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$   
210 values range between  $-29.5$  to  $-27.5\text{‰}$ .

211 The pollen-based reconstructed MAP ranges between 371 and 973 mm (Fig. 2). Below 1000  
212 cm (before 14.5 cal ka BP) the values are relatively low and range between 400 and 580 mm.  
213 From 1000 to 730 cm (14.5 to 8.5 cal ka BP) the values rise to a maximum of 973 mm and  
214 slightly decrease to 780 mm at about 600 cm (7.5 cal ka BP). Between 600 and 0 cm (since  
215 7.5 cal ka BP), MAP remains relatively high and range between 820 and 960 mm.

216 Reconstructed MAT ranges between  $-5.1$  and  $0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Fig. 2). Below 820 cm (before 11.0 cal  
217 ka BP) MAT is slightly decrease from about  $-2.0$  to  $-5.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ . From about 820 to 700 cm (14.3  
218 to about 8.5 cal ka BP) the values rise to  $0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and show a subsequent decreasing trend  
219 between 700 and about 520 cm (8.5 to 6.8 cal ka BP) to a minimum value of  $-5.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . From  
220 520 to 0 cm (6.8 to 0.0 cal ka BP) MAT increases to a maximum value of  $0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

221

222 Fig. 2.

223 4.2 General changes in grain-size, **weathering indicators**, magnetic susceptibility, and  
224 element concentrations and ratios

225

226 The median grain size ranges between 4 and 24  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 3). Grain-size variations are large in  
227 the lowermost part between 1780 and 1400 cm (between 17.7 and 16.4 cal ka BP). The  
228 median grain size ranges between 4 and 16  $\mu\text{m}$  in the section between 1400 and 1000 cm  
229 (16.2 to 14.3 cal ka BP). Above, the median varies in a relatively narrow range between 8 and  
230 12  $\mu\text{m}$ .

231 In the lowermost part of the sediment core between 1780 and 1600 cm (17.7 to 17.0 cal ka  
232 BP) the clay content ( $<2 \mu\text{m}$ ) ranges between 10 and 25%, silt content (2–63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) ranges  
233 between 72 and 90%, and the sand content ( $>63 \mu\text{m}$ ) ranges between 0 and 25% (Fig. 3).

234 Between 1600 and 1450 cm (between 17.0 and 16.6 cal ka BP) the clay content shows high  
235 variability and rises at 1500 cm (16.8 cal ka BP) to a maximum value of 27%. Silt content  
236 ranges between 60 and 96% and drops at 1650 cm (16.6 cal ka BP) to a minimum of 40%.

237 The sand content is relatively low between 0 and 10% and rises at 1450 cm (16.6 cal ka BP)  
238 to a maximum value of 58%. From 1450 to 1000 cm (16.6 to 14.3 cal ka BP) the clay content  
239 shows an increase from 4 to about 22%, whereas silt fluctuates between 60 and 90% and

240 sand between 0 and 22%. Between 1000 and 800 cm (between 14.3 and 10.1 cal ka BP) the  
241 clay content decreases from 22% to 5% whereas the silt content increases from 80 to 92%.  
242 Sand content ranges between 0 and 3% interrupted by a relatively high value of 20% at  
243 about 890 cm (11.1 cal ka BP). From 800 to 0 cm (10.1 to 0 cal ka BP) the grain-size fraction  
244 is relatively stable. Clay content ranges between 10 and 15%, silt ranges mainly between 80  
245 and 90%, and sand ranges between 2 and 20%.

246 Below 1000 cm (before 14.3 cal ka BP) all weathering indicators show similar patterns with  
247 relatively low values (Fig. 4), except Al/Rb. Between 1000 and 0 cm (between 14.3 and 0.0  
248 cal ka BP) increase and are remain high until the top, except Y/Al and Al/Rb, which show a  
249 variable pattern.

250 **The oxide compounds Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and MgO** show a similar uniform pattern with relatively stable  
251 values below 1000 cm (before 14.3 cal ka BP), interrupted by a sharp increase at 1450 cm  
252 (16.6 cal ka BP), followed by an increase from 1000 to about 600 cm (between 14.3 and 7.3  
253 cal ka BP) and relatively high concentrations afterwards (Fig. 5). SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, CaO, Na<sub>2</sub>O, and  
254 K<sub>2</sub>O show uniform patterns with relatively high values below 1000 cm (before 14.3 cal ka BP)  
255 interrupted by a sharp decrease at 1450 cm (16.6 cal ka BP). From 1000 to about 600 cm  
256 (14.3 to 7.3 cal ka BP) the concentrations abruptly decrease followed by relatively low values  
257 until the top of the sediment core.

258 Below 1000 cm (before 14.3 cal ka BP) Mg/Ca ratios show low values (Fig. 5). Highest Mg/Ca  
259 values occur between 1000 and 800 cm (between 14.3 and 10.1 cal ka BP). Between 800 and  
260 0 cm (between 10.1 and 0 cal ka BP) Mg/Ca ratios show a strong variability and slightly  
261 decrease.

262 The low frequency magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{LF}$ ) ranges between 0.8 and 3.0 x 10<sup>-7</sup> m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>  
263 (Fig.4). Below 1000 cm (before 14.3 cal ka BP) the  $\chi_{LF}$  values are relatively low and range

264 between  $1.2$  and  $1.8 \times 10^{-7} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ , interrupted by an abrupt rise at  $1450 \text{ cm}$  ( $16.8 \text{ cal ka BP}$ ).  
265 From  $1000$  to  $900 \text{ cm}$  ( $14.3$  to  $12.0 \text{ cal ka BP}$ ) the values increase to around  $2.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$   
266 and remain relatively high between  $900$  to  $300 \text{ cm}$  (between  $12.0$  and  $2.8 \text{ cal ka BP}$ ). Above,  
267 the values decrease to a low level of about  $1.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

268

269 Fig. 3-5

270

271 4.3 PCA of sedimentological, geochemical, and magnetic properties and transfer-function  
272 derived MAP and MAT

273

274 The PCA biplot of Figure 6 shows the interrelationships between different variables analysed  
275 for the Lake Naleng record. The first two eigenvectors (PCA 1 and PCA 2) account for  $85.8\%$   
276 of the total variance. PCA 1 accounts for  $53.1\%$  of the total variance and is mainly controlled  
277 by MAP, TOC, C/N,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , Al/Rb, CIA, and Sr/Ba at the positive end and  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}_3$ , CaO,  $\text{K}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2$   
278 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  at the negative end (Fig. 6). PCA 2 accounts for  $32.7\%$  of the total variance and is  
279 mainly controlled by  $\chi_{\text{LF}}$ , MgO, and Y/Al at the positive end and MAT and Mean grain size at  
280 the negative end. The correlation between pollen-related and non-pollen data is highest for  
281 MAP and TOC ( $r=0.95$ ), MAP and Sr/Ba ratios ( $r=0.91$ ), and MAP and C/N ratios ( $r=0.86$ , Fig.  
282 6). Highly anti-correlated are  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  ( $r=-0.88$ ) and  $\text{SiO}_2$  and CIA ( $r=-0.75$ ). The low  
283 significance of the positions of the grain-size fractions in the biplot is indicated by short  
284 arrows (Fig. 6).

285 Fig. 6

286 5. Discussion

287 5.1 Development of Lake Naleng since the Late Glacial

288

289 5.1.1 Late Glacial (1780–900 cm, 17.5–11.5 cal ka BP)

290

291 Pollen-based reconstructions of MAP (around 600 mm) and MAT (about  $-3^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) indicate a  
292 relatively dry and cold climate during the Late Glacial. C/N values mainly below 10 suggest  
293 that the remains of aquatic organisms predominate in the Naleng Co record and point to a  
294 very low input of terrestrial plant material (Cummins and Klug 1979; Meyers 1994; Meyers  
295 and Teranes 2001. According to Kasper et al. (2015), Shen et al. (2005) relatively low TOC  
296 values indicate a low biological productivity within the lake during the Late Glacial.

297 Relatively high  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values ( $>-25\text{‰}$ ) during the Late Glacial suggest that the bulk of the  
298 organic matter derived from the growth of macrophytes which was already described by  
299 Kramer et al. (2010b). Pollen from macrophytes such as *Hippuris*, *Myriophyllum* and  
300 *Potamogeton*, and high percentages of algae (*Botryococcus*, *Spirogyra* and *Pediastrum*) were  
301 recorded (Kramer et al., 2010b).

302 Grain-size variations within the lowermost sediments suggest alternating modes of detrital  
303 sediment supply. The relatively high clay content of about 12–20% and the high  
304 concentrations of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{K}_2\text{O}$  at about 17.5 and 15.5 cal ka BP are possibly  
305 related to the input of fine-grained detrital material originating from glacial erosion. Rock  
306 flour produced by glacial abrasion has a significant proportion of clay to silt-sized particles  
307 (Fenn and Gomez, 1989; Benson et al., 1998; Rosenbaum and Reynolds, 2004) and is typical  
308 for unaltered detrital sediments in a partly glaciated, alpine catchment (Zhang and Mischke,  
309 2009). The assumption of the influx of unaltered rock flour is supported by relatively low

310 weathering indicator values and by  $^{10}\text{Be}$  age determinations from inner, middle, lateral, and  
311 outer end moraines near Lake Naleng which suggest that the upper catchment was covered  
312 by glaciers during the Late Glacial (Strasky et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2013a). The calculated and  
313 erosion-corrected exposure ages for moraines in the outlet area of Lake Naleng range  
314 between 21.5 and 17.5 ka BP and represent the period of basin formation by an advancing  
315 glacier during the global Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; Strasky et al., 2009, Fig. 1). We  
316 therefore assume, that Lake Naleng received glacially-derived unaltered detrital sediments  
317 from local sources during the Late Glacial.

318 The climate conditions changed abruptly during the second half of the Late Glacial.  
319 Increasing MAT (from  $-4$  to  $-2.2^\circ\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from 500 mm to 820 mm) between 14.5 and  
320 13.0 cal ka BP indicate a climate amelioration. This time interval probably corresponds to the  
321 Bølling/Allerød (B/A) warming period in the North Atlantic region (Kramer et al., 2010b).  
322 Based on the observed temperature gradient on the TP of  $0.5^\circ\text{C}$  per 100 m difference in  
323 elevation (Böhner, 1994), today's estimated MAT is  $1.6^\circ\text{C}$  at Lake Naleng (Kramer et al.,  
324 2010c). Increasing TOC contents also reflect a climatic change to warmer and moister  
325 conditions and point to amplified lake productivity as a consequence of the climate  
326 amelioration.

327 The increase of MAP correlates with increasing CIA values implying that CIA is linked to the  
328 moisture availability in the study area. Baumann et al. (2014) showed that weathering  
329 processes on the TP are directly linked to climatic gradients and pedogenesis and reflected  
330 by CIA. High Mg/Ca ratios after 14.5 cal ka BP may also indicate the influence of pedogenic  
331 minerals (Chamley, 1989). The temporal correlation of MAP and CIA with the beginning of  
332 the B/A possibly indicates the formation and erosion of soils. Weakly developed  
333 polygenetically formed soils were found on slopes and terraces and occur often in

334 topographic depressions close to rivers and lakes (Kaiser, 2004; Kaiser et al., 2007). The  
335 instability of the soil substrates is related to intense precipitation during summer months  
336 leading to fluvial erosion and alluvial accumulation (Baumann et al., 2014). According to  
337 Shao and Yang (2012), the temporal correlation of weathering indicators and MAP is possibly  
338 linked to a changing provenance in relation to the shift of the precipitation zone with the  
339 onset of moisture climate conditions. A changing provenance can possibly be inferred by  
340 rising Y/Al, Al/Rb, Sr/Ba ratios,  $\chi_{LF}$  values and simultaneously decreasing  $Al_2O_3$ ,  $SiO_2$ ,  $Na_2O$   
341 and  $K_2O$  concentrations, which indicate a different composition of the sediment supply  
342 compared to the first half of the Late Glacial. However, a changed provenance within the  
343 catchment is rather unlikely, because the catchment area of Lake Naleng is very small and  
344 characterized by granite or granodiorite rocks. Possibly due to the increasing precipitation  
345 the provenance from discharging streams which originate on a elevation of 4900 m was  
346 changed and led to a changed sediment supply.

347 We therefore assume that the weathering dataset of our record indicate the erosional input  
348 of weathering products, which are directly (erosion of soils) or indirectly (changing  
349 provenance) linked to changes of MAT and MAP. Furthermore decreasing clay contents  
350 suggests a decreasing influence of glaciers in the area. This assumption correlates with the  
351 start of the deglaciation with the onset of the B/A period at about 14.7 ka BP (Strasky et al.,  
352 2009).

353 From 13.0 to 11.5 cal ka BP an abrupt decrease in MAT (from  $-2.2$  to  $-5^\circ C$ ) and MAP (from  
354 820 to 650 mm) indicates cooler and dryer climate conditions, which is probably associated  
355 with the North Atlantic Younger Dryas (YD) period (Kramer et al., 2010c). This climate  
356 deterioration is also reflected in the non-pollen dataset of Lake Naleng by decreasing TOC  
357 resulting from a decrease of biological productivity. Given the temperature gradient

358 discussed above, the reconstructed MAT suggests that during the YD temperatures were  
359 ~6°C colder than today and about 2°C colder than in the first part of the Late Glacial.

360

#### 361 *5.1.2 Early to mid Holocene (900–280 cm, 11.5–5.0 cal ka BP)*

362

363 The onset of the Holocene at Lake Naleng is indicated by a rise in MAT (from –5 to about  
364 –0.3°C) and MAP (from 600 to 950 mm). This change is also reflected by increasing TOC and  
365 decreasing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values which suggest an increase in biological productivity. A change in the  
366 origin of organic matter to almost exclusively phytoplankton within the lake was already  
367 indicated by the palynological analysis (Kramer et al., 2010b).

368 All weathering indicators suggest a relatively high input of weathering material, which is  
369 probably directly (erosion of soils) or indirectly (changes of the provenance) related to the  
370 increased moisture availability during the start of the Holocene. This time period was  
371 characterized by alpine meadow and montane forest at Lake Naleng (Kramer et al., 2010b).

372 Possibly the increasing supply of weathered material into the lake was triggered by  
373 increasing fluvial erosion due to intense precipitation, which caused a instability of soils in  
374 depressions around the lake (Baumann et al., 2014).

375 Lake systems on the TP are known to be sensitive to moisture changes. The early–mid  
376 Holocene time interval was characterized by high lake levels indicated by palaeoshorelines  
377 around the lakes (Liu et al., 2013) and fine-grained material settling out within lake basins  
378 (Opitz et al., 2012). Although the climate situation in the study area was characterized by  
379 relatively high MAP values during the early to mid Holocene, the clay-size fraction shows no  
380 distinct variations at Lake Naleng, which suggests relatively stable lake levels. Indications for  
381 a higher lake levels like palaeoshorelines around the lake were not found during the field



382 campaign. The lack of indications for higher lake levels supports the assumption that Lake  
383 Naleng was an open-basin lake as today at least since the early Holocene.

384 MAP and MAT values decreased between 8.3 and 7.3 cal ka BP. MAT dropped to  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  
385 MAP to 800 mm during this period indicating climatic deterioration. When allowing for  
386 dating uncertainty, this cold and dry period is possibly related to the North Atlantic 8.2 ka  
387 event (Kramer et al., 2010c). The cold-dry event is possibly also reflected in the non-pollen  
388 data of Lake Naleng. A abrupt drop of TOC corresponds to the MAP and MAT reductions and  
389 indicates decreasing biological productivity at about 7.3 cal ka BP. However, relatively stable  
390 low  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values indicate the dominance of planktonic algal remains.

391 During the cold-dry period between 8.3 and 7.3 cal ka BP decreasing Y/Al and  $\chi_{\text{LF}}$  values,  
392 increasing  $\text{SiO}_2$  concentrations and coarser material suggest a different composition of the  
393 terrestrial sediment input. Possibly, the changing composition can be explained by a more  
394 intense aeolian sediment supply into the lake due to drier and colder climate conditions. An  
395 increasing input of aeolian material at about 8.2 ka BP is also described for Genggahai Lake  
396 on the north-eastern TP (Li et al., 2015).

397 The abrupt climate deterioration after 8.2 cal ka BP was followed by climate amelioration  
398 indicated by MAP values above 950 mm and increasing MAT, culminating at about 5.5 cal ka  
399 BP and reaching values above  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  for the first time. The climate amelioration is also  
400 reflected by high TOC contents, which suggest a rise of biological productivity. C/N ratios of  
401 around 12 suggest input of terrestrial plant material in addition to aquatic material due to  
402 the dense vegetation cover within the catchment. Very low  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values indicate a  
403 predominating origin of organic matter from planktonic production. The grain-size  
404 distributions of the sediment record show only minor changes and suggest enhanced stable  
405 open-lake conditions.

406 Mostly all weathering indicators and the  $\chi_{LF}$  values mirror the increasing moisture availability  
407 and show highest values during the mid-Holocene. The increasing input of weathered  
408 material suggests that the sediment supply into Lake Naleng was similar to the end of the  
409 Late Glacial and the early Holocene directly or indirectly controlled by the increasing  
410 precipitation.

411 Another dramatic climatic change to cooler and dryer conditions is documented at about 5.0  
412 cal ka BP by the abrupt decline of MAT from around 0°C to about -4°C, which was resulting  
413 in a downward shift of the treeline (Kramer et al., 2010a). The abrupt cooling occurred  
414 probably within a few hundred years and is also seen in an abrupt decline of TOC and  $\delta^{13}C_{org}$   
415 values.

416

#### 417 5.1.3 Late Holocene (280–0 cm, 5.0–0.0 cal ka BP)

418

419 MAT increased to about 0.2°C and MAP rose to maximum values of about 1000 mm after 5.0  
420 cal ka BP. Increasing TOC also documents this climate period during the early stage of the  
421 late Holocene and decreasing C/N ratios point to a slight decrease in terrestrial matter  
422 contribution. The increasing  $\delta^{13}C_{org}$  values point to a simultaneously decreasing relative  
423 contribution of planktonic algae to the lake sediments.

424 Based on the Lake Naleng pollen record, forest began to decline after 3.4 cal kyr BP.  
425 Frequently found grazing indicators such as *Sanguisorba*, *Rumex*, and *Apiaceae* are possibly a  
426 result of human impact (Kramer et al., 2010c). The change in vegetation correlates with the  
427 abrupt decline of  $\chi_{LF}$  values and Y/Al ratios from about 3.0 to 1.0 cal ka BP, which probably  
428 reflects a slowing down of the weathering processes. Since 1.0 ka BP increasing  $\chi_{LF}$  values,  
429 Al/Rb and Y/Al ratios indicate re-initiated erosion processes. Possibly, human impact on the

430 vegetation in the catchment of the lake resulted to a *meadow* and *shrub* vegetation (Kramer  
431 et al., 2010c), which possibly caused an increased supply of erosional weathering products.  
432 Alpine meadow soil is an important ecosystem component on the TP and degradations due  
433 to global climate change, overgrazing, human activities and rodents have enormous  
434 influence on physical and chemical soil properties (Zeng et al., 2013).

## 435 5.2 Comparison of pollen-based inferences to the non-pollen record from Lake Naleng

436

437 The high correlation coefficients of MAP and TOC (positively correlated) and MAP and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$   
438 (inversely correlated) of PCA 1 indicate that TOC and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  are strongly related to the  
439 moisture availability on the south-eastern TP (Fig. 6). The correlation between MAP and TOC  
440 and the low correlation between MAP and MAT suggest that the amount of organic matter is  
441 probably linked to the availability of nutrients via fluvial input, which was also assumed by  
442 Kramer et al. (2010b). In addition to the biochemical proxies, the weathering indicators  
443 Sr/Ba, CIA and Al/Rb are highly correlated with the MAP record (PCA 1, Fig. 6) indicating  
444 directly (development of soils) or indirectly (changing provenance) the moisture availability  
445 in the area starting at about 14.5 cal ka BP. The increasing alteration pattern is also reflected  
446 by a high correlation between CIA and Fe concentrations (PCA 1,  $r=0.89$ ), which possibly  
447 suggests changes in the redox system during the development of soils (Figs. 4, 6).

448 In contrast to the biogeochemical or weathering proxies, the grain-size record does not show  
449 high correlation values with MAP or MAT (Fig. 3). The relatively low statistical significance  
450 probably results from the open lake system since at least the end of the Late Glacial and  
451 implies that the grain-size record of Lake Naleng only reflects changes within the lake setting  
452 and is not directly linked to moisture changes.  $\chi_{\text{LF}}$  values and Y/Al ratios show no distinct

453 correlation to MAP or MAT but a relatively high correlation to each other, which suggests  
454 that both proxies are related to similar processes.

455 Excluding the grain-size data, the non-pollen biogeochemical parameters (TOC, C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ )  
456 and weathering indicators (e.g. CIA and Sr/Ba) from the Lake Naleng record accord well with  
457 the pollen-based reconstructions of MAP and provide supporting evidence for regional  
458 climate oscillations on the south-eastern part of the TP. Short-term oscillations are especially  
459 well reflected by the biogeochemical record.

460 The results of sedimentological, biogeochemical, and geochemical analyses in comparison to  
461 reconstructed MAT and MAP indicate that the multi-proxy dataset from Lake Naleng  
462 captures both local changes and regional climate signals.

463 The comparison of pollen and non-pollen data of the Lake Naleng record shows that a  
464 combination of sedimentological, biogeochemical, and palaeoecological multi-proxy  
465 datasets is ultimately necessary to separate local geological and geomorphological signals  
466 from regional and hemispheric climate signals. Furthermore, the findings suggest that for a  
467 plateau-wide climatic reconstruction on the basis of different lake archives, similar related  
468 proxy records have to be considered.

469

470 5.3 Climatic implications and comparison with other records from the eastern TP

471

472 *5.3.1 Late Glacial*

473

474 Lake Naleng was affected by the direct influence of glaciers between 17.7 and 14.6 cal ka BP.  
475  $^{10}\text{Be}$  exposure age determinations of nine erratic boulders from two inner end moraines  
476 suggest glacier expansions in the study area between 22.2 to 17.6 BP, implying that a glacier

477 covered most of the catchment area including the modern lake basin (Strasky et al., 2009; Fu  
478 et al., 2013a). The early Late Glacial age of the basal lake sediments of the recovered core  
479 corresponds to the dated glacier advances in the LGM and later on. A similar lake history on  
480 the south-eastern TP with the formation of the lake basin through a glacier advance in the  
481 LGM and a subsequently high supply of glacier meltwater during the Late Glacial was also  
482 proposed for Lake Ximencuo 280 km north-east of Lake Naleng (Zhang and Mischke, 2009).  
483 Reconstructed MAP and MAT at Lake Naleng point to cold and relatively dry conditions with  
484 relatively low precipitation rates (400–600 mm) between 17.5 and 14.6 cal ka BP in  
485 comparison to today's climate. These reconstructed cold and relatively dry conditions  
486 correspond well with other palaeoclimate records from the eastern TP (Herzschuh et al.,  
487 2009; 2014).

488 The reconstructed MAP of 500–600 mm between 17.5 and 14.6 cal ka BP is slightly higher  
489 than pollen-based MAP at Lake Yidun (400–500 mm; Shen et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2013),  
490 Lake Kuhai (300–400 mm; Wischnewski et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013), Lake Donggi Cona  
491 (200–300 mm; Wang et al, 2013) and Lake Luanhaizi (200–300 mm; Herzschuh et al., 2010;  
492 Wang et al., 2013) on the eastern TP. The spatial pattern of decreasing MAP towards the  
493 north suggests that climate conditions on the south-eastern TP were slightly wetter than on  
494 the north-eastern TP during the Late Glacial.

495 Relatively moisture climate (MAP at about 800 mm) conditions occurred at the lake between  
496 14.0 and 13.0 cal ka BP, which correlates with the B/A warming period in the North Atlantic  
497 region. The B/A warming is also observed in records from Hulu and Dongge caves in eastern  
498 China (Dykoski et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2008) and is probably associated with the  
499 strengthening of the summer monsoon system and high summer precipitation rates  
500 (Herzschuh et al., 2005).

501 In contrast to the B/A, the following interval between 13.0 to 11.5 cal ka BP is characterized  
502 by cooler and dryer conditions indicated by pollen and non-pollen data of the Lake Naleng  
503 record. This period is probably associated with the North Atlantic YD cold reversal (Kramer et  
504 al., 2010c). The widespread climate event was probably forced through a strengthened  
505 westerly circulation in central Europe (Mischke et al., 2010). The YD was inferred from  
506 several paleoclimate studies based on lake records from the Tibetan Plateau: e.g. Lake  
507 Qinghai (Ji et al., 2005; Shen et al., 2005) or Lake Donggi Cona (Opitz et al., 2012). However,  
508 MAP reconstructions from Lake Naleng indicate precipitation rates of about 700 mm during  
509 the YD period, which is slightly above precipitation reconstructions for other sites on the  
510 eastern TP (Wang et al., 2013). Following the discussion above, this palaeo-precipitation  
511 pattern implies that the south-eastern TP experienced more humid conditions during the  
512 cold and dry YD in contrast to the north-eastern part of the TP. The cold and dry YD period  
513 possibly corresponds to reconstructed glacier advances near Kanding, in the Daxue  
514 Mountains (about 165 km farther east), between 14.3 and 12.0 ka BP (Strasky et al., 2007).

515

### 516 *5.3.2 Early to mid Holocene*

517

518 The beginning of the early Holocene at Lake Naleng about 11.5 cal ka BP was associated with  
519 increasing temperatures and precipitation rates culminating at about 9.0 cal ka BP. The  
520 climate amelioration was probably associated with a strengthened summer monsoon  
521 (Kramer et al., 2010c) triggered by the summer insolation maximum (An et al., 2000; Chen et  
522 al., 2008). The warming trend during the early and mid Holocene was also identified at other  
523 places on the TP (An et al., 2000) and is known as a high-lake level period. Lakes on the  
524 Tibetan Plateau were several times larger during the early–mid Holocene than today

525 according to their relict shorelines (Avouac et al., 1996; Kong et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2013a),  
526 which is also documented for lakes and thermokarst basins on the north-eastern TP (Opitz et  
527 al., 2012, 2013).

528 MAP reconstructions at Lake Naleng indicate higher precipitation rates in comparison to  
529 other lakes on the north-eastern TP – Lake Yidun (500–600 mm; Shen et al., 2006; Wang et  
530 al., 2013), Lake Kuhai (400–450 mm; Wischnewski et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013), Lake  
531 Donggi Cona (300–350 mm; Wang et al., 2013) and Lake Luanhaizi (400–500 mm; Herzsuh  
532 et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013). The northward decrease of MAP is possibly related to spatial  
533 climate differences and diminished moisture availability by a weaker influence of the Asian  
534 monsoonal system towards the more continental interior of the TP. However, further  
535 investigations of palaeoclimate archives are required to assess spatial differences of MAP  
536 during the early to mid Holocene.

537 **The recorded cold period between 8.3 and 7.5 cal ka BP at Lake Naleng correlates with**  
538 **monsoonal signals derived from the Guliya ice-core and the Dongge cave speleothem**  
539 **records (Thompson, 2000; Dykoski et al., 2005) and probably represents the 8.2 ka event.**

540 This cold and dry event is reported from several sites on the TP: lakes Qinghai at 8.2 ka,  
541 Ximencuo at 8.3 ka BP, Koucha at 8.5 ka BP, Zigetang during 8.7–8.3 ka BP, Cuo during 8.8–  
542 8.6 ka BP, and from the Hongyuan peat during 8.3–7.8 ka BP (Shen et al., 2005; Herzsuh et  
543 al., 2006; Wu et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2006; Mischke et al., 2008; Zhang and Mischke, 2009).  
544 Because of the temporal correlation of the inferred climate reversal around 8.2 ka BP it has  
545 already been assumed that this cold event is the result of a linkage between the North  
546 Atlantic realm and the Tibetan Plateau by a simultaneously acting trigger mechanism (Zhang  
547 and Mischke 2009; Liu et al., 2013a).

548

549 *5.3.3 Late Holocene*

550

551 After the climate amelioration and its culmination at about 5.5 cal ka BP, another cold period  
552 was inferred from the pollen and non-pollen Lake Naleng records. According to Morrill et al.  
553 (2003), this cold event which was recorded between 5.0 and 4.5 cal ka BP was apparently  
554 widespread across central Asia and was also inferred from Lake Donggi Cona and adjacent  
555 thermokarst lakes (Opitz et al., 2012, 2013), Lake Ximencuo (Zhang and Mischke, 2009) and  
556 Lake Bangong (Van Campo and Gasse, 1993; Gasse et al., 1996) on the TP. Within dating  
557 uncertainty, this cold event is also referred to as the “4.2 event” (Yu et al., 2000, 2009).  
558 Cooling after 5.0 cal ka BP can be regarded as a widespread climate event in eastern and  
559 central to southern Asia (Yu et al., 2009; Mischke and Zhang, 2010), and the Indian  
560 subcontinent (Staubwasser et al., 2003). This incipient cold period might have resulted in  
561 significant aridification and the collapse of ‘Old World’ cultures (Yu et al., 2000) and ancient  
562 civilizations in central China (deMenocal, 2001; Wu and Liu, 2004; An et al., 2005; Shao et al.,  
563 2006; Mischke and Zhang, 2010). A possible explanation for the cold and dry period  
564 beginning at about 5.0 cal ka BP is the insolation-driven threshold-type weakening of the  
565 summer monsoon (Berger and Loutre, 1991; Overpeck et al., 1996; Wu and Liu, 2004).

566 From 5.0 to 0.0 cal ka BP Lake Naleng was similar to the early-mid Holocene affected  
567 relatively high reconstructed MAT (-2-2°C) and MAP (around 800 mm). Reconstructed MAP  
568 from Lake Yidun (around 700 mm; Shen et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2013), Lake Kuhai (400–450  
569 mm; Wischnewski et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013), Lake Donggi Cona (around 300 mm; Wang  
570 et al., 2013) and Lake Luanhaizi (around 300 mm; Herzsuh et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013)  
571 indicate a trend towards dryer conditions from south to north on the eastern part of the TP.  
572 This trend can be probably explained by the diminishing influence of the Asian monsoon in



573 the northern part of the TP due to the increased continentality. However, further multiproxy  
574 studies are needed to decipher the complex relationships of Holocene moisture and  
575 temperature change on the eastern TP and its impact on the environment.

## 576 6. Conclusions

577

578 Our record from Lake Naleng from the south-eastern TP shows that during the Late Glacial  
579 from 17.7 to 14.0 cal ka BP the lake was affected by relatively cold and dry climate  
580 conditions (MAP: about 600 mm and MAT about  $-3^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and low biological productivity.  
581 Further the supply of unaltered fine-grained material due to the supply of glacier milk  
582 indicates a sensitive glacier response.

583 The climate changed abruptly during the second half of the Late Glacial. MAT and MAP  
584 increased (from  $-4$  to  $-2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and from 500 mm to 820 mm, respectively) between 14.0 and  
585 13.0 cal ka BP and led to generally warmer and wetter climate conditions. This time interval  
586 can be correlated to the Bølling/Allerød (B/A) warming period in the North Atlantic region  
587 and is followed by the Younger Dryas cold reversal indicated by abrupt decreases of MAT  
588 (from  $-2.2$  to  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from 820 to 650 mm).

589 The onset of the Holocene at about 11.5 cal ka BP is indicated by rises in reconstructed MAT  
590 (from  $-5$  to about  $-0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and MAP (from 600 mm to 950 mm), higher biological productivity  
591 and the increased supply of weathered material. MAT increased to about  $0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and MAP  
592 rose to maximum values of about 1000 mm between 5.0 and 3.0 cal ka BP, followed by  
593 slightly decreasing MAT and MAP between 3.0 and 0 cal ka BP. In comparison to other Late  
594 Glacial records from the eastern TP, MAP reconstructions from Lake Naleng indicate wetter  
595 climate conditions in the south-eastern part of the TP and dryer conditions farther away  
596 from moisture sources.

597 Our comparison of a newly available sedimentological and biogeochemical record with  
598 palynological reconstructions of variations in MAP and MAT from Lake Naleng shows that  
599 the biogeochemical dataset (TOC, C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ) is strongly related to moisture availability and  
600 shows concomitant evidence for regional climate oscillations on the south-eastern part of  
601 the TP. The weathering indicators (e.g. CIA and Sr/Ba) are highly correlated to MAP and  
602 reflect general moisture changes on the TP since the Late Glacial. The input of weathered  
603 material is either related to pedogenesis or linked to different supply areas in relation to  
604 changed climate conditions.

605 Our study demonstrates how a palaeoenvironmental study can benefit from  
606 methodologically different parameters. The study has shown that a multi-proxy record  
607 based on sedimentological, biogeochemical, and palynological data is ultimately necessary  
608 to reconstruct the lake development, environmental conditions and climatic changes.  
609 However, further investigation on erosional processes in relation to vegetation density is  
610 necessary to gain deeper insights into the landscape development on the south-eastern TP  
611 since the Late Glacial. Furthermore, we were not able to decipher the human impact on the  
612 catchment (e.g. vegetation density) sufficiently during the late Holocene. Thus, the  
613 investigation of effects of human activity like overgrazing on the sensitive landscape on the  
614 TP is still an important challenge for future palaeoenvironmental studies.

615

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937 Figure Captions:

938

939 Fig. 1 Satellite image of Lake Naleng (31.10°N, 99.75°E) located on the south-eastern Tibetan  
940 Plateau about 4200 m asl (Landsat 8 scene from May 2013, Band 8 panchromatic, source:  
941 <http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov>). Numbers one to nine indicate sampling points for <sup>10</sup>Be  
942 surface exposure dating from erratic boulders from inner, middle, lateral, and outer end  
943 moraines. The calculated erosion corrected ages for the separate sampling points are : 1.  
944 21.6 ± 1.0 ka BP; 2. 21.2 ± 1.0 ka BP; 3. 20.7 ± 0.9 ka BP; 4. 20.1 ± 1.0 ka BP; 5. 17.6 ± 0.7 ka  
945 BP; 6. 18.9 ± 0.8 ka BP; 7. 19.5 ± 1.0 ka BP; 8. 17.5 ± 0.7 ka BP; 9. 22.0 ± 0.9 ka BP (Strasky et  
946 al., 2009).

947

948 Fig. 2 Lithological overview of the investigated sediment core from Lake Naleng based on



949 Kramer et al. (2010b, c) at left, and total organic carbon (TOC), C/N ratio,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and  
950 reconstructed mean annual precipitation (MAP) and mean annual temperature (MAT) based  
951 on pollen assemblages of Kramer et al. (2010b; dashed line indicates mean value)

952

953 Fig. 3 Mean grain size and clay (<2  $\mu\text{m}$ ), silt (2–63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and sand (>63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) fractions for the  
954 sediment core from Lake Naleng.

955

956 Fig. 4 Weathering parameters (Y/Al; CIA; Sr/Ba; Al/Rb) and low frequency magnetic  
957 susceptibility ( $\chi_{\text{LF}}$ ) of the Lake Naleng record.

958

959 Fig. 5 Concentrations of major elements in weight percentage (wt%) and Mg/Ca ratios  
960 revealed by XRF analysis for the last 17.7 cal ka BP at Lake Naleng.

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962 Fig. 6 Principal component analyses (PCA) biplot of the complete dataset from Lake Naleng.

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Figure 1  
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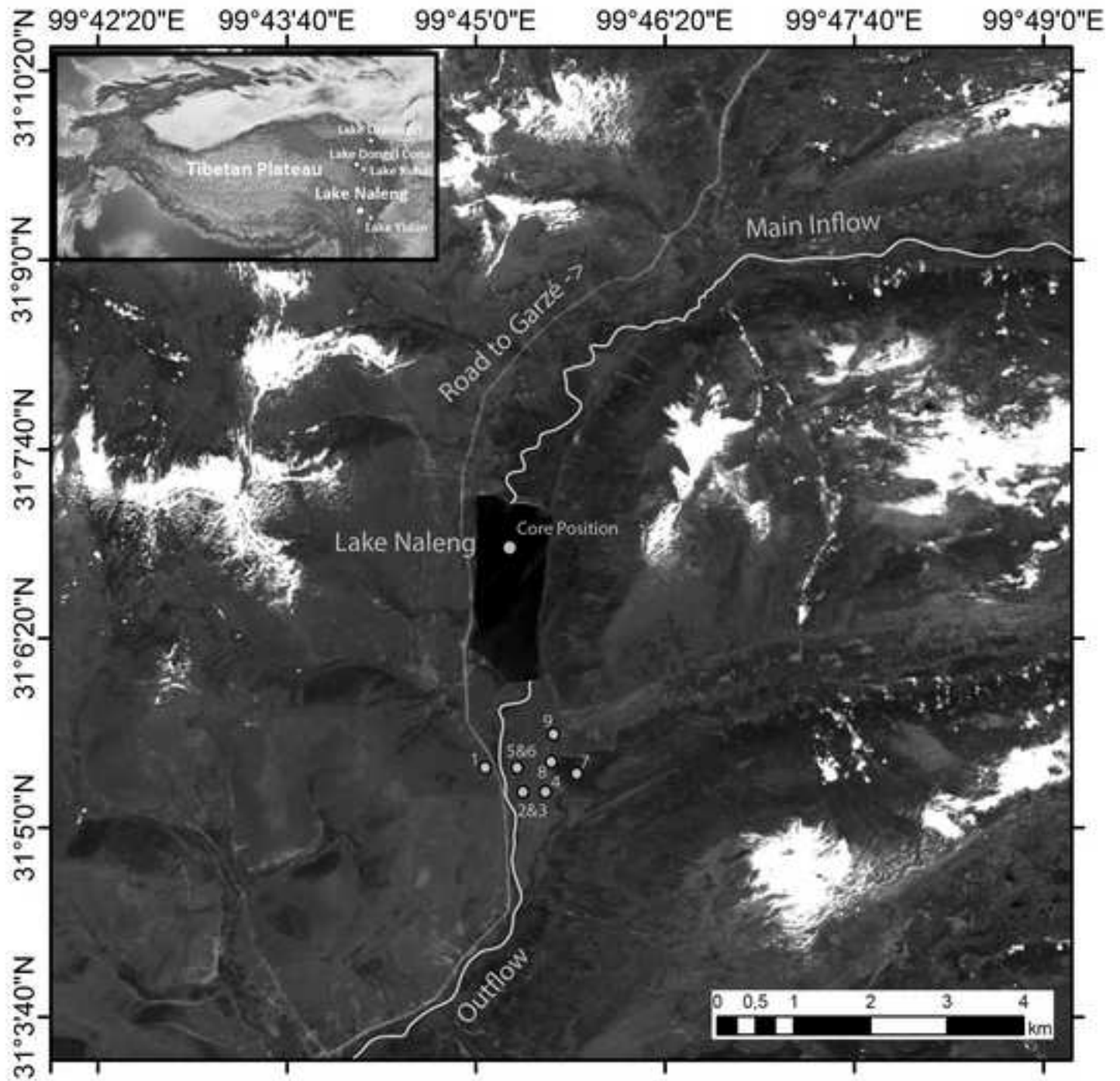


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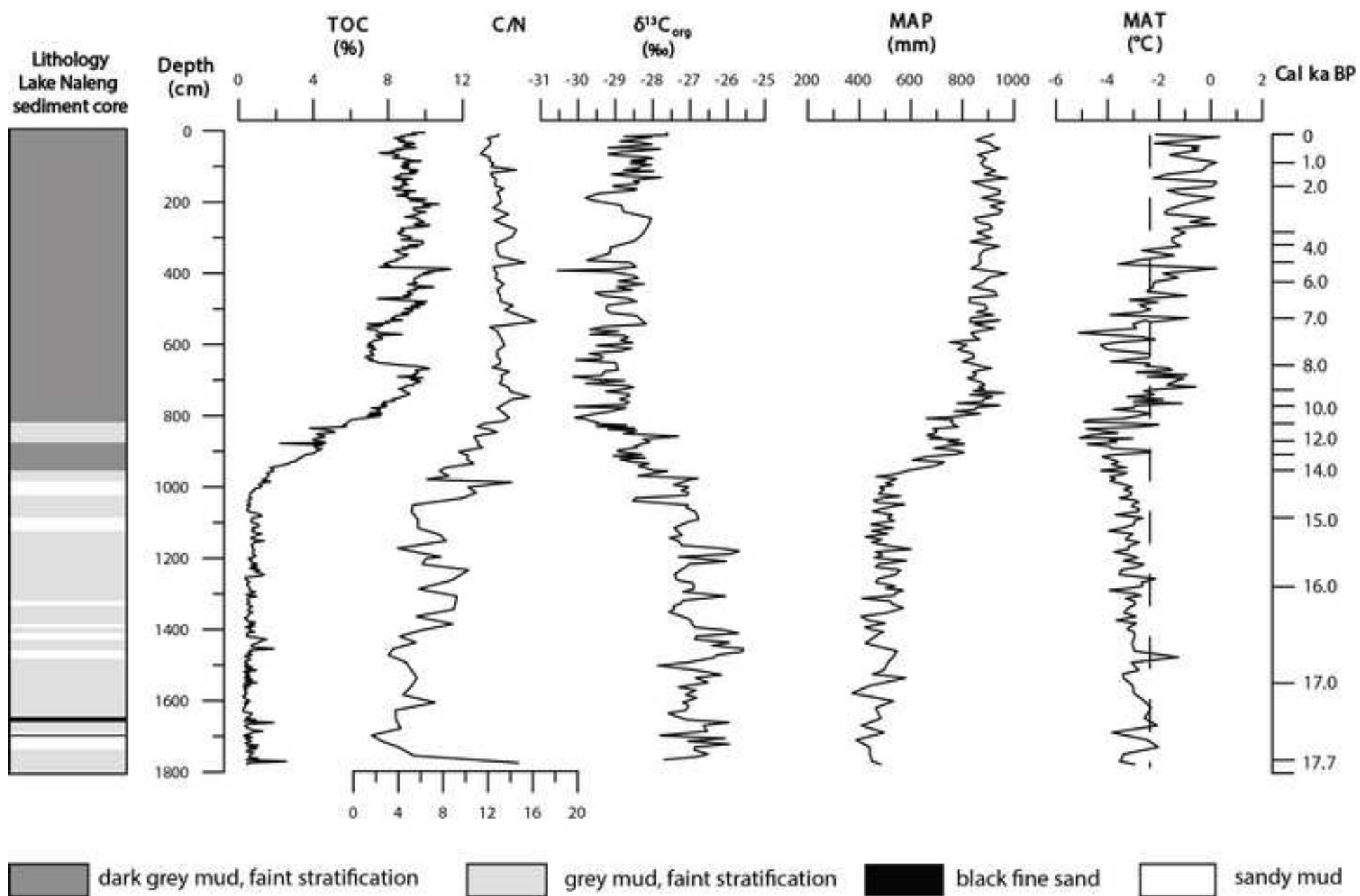


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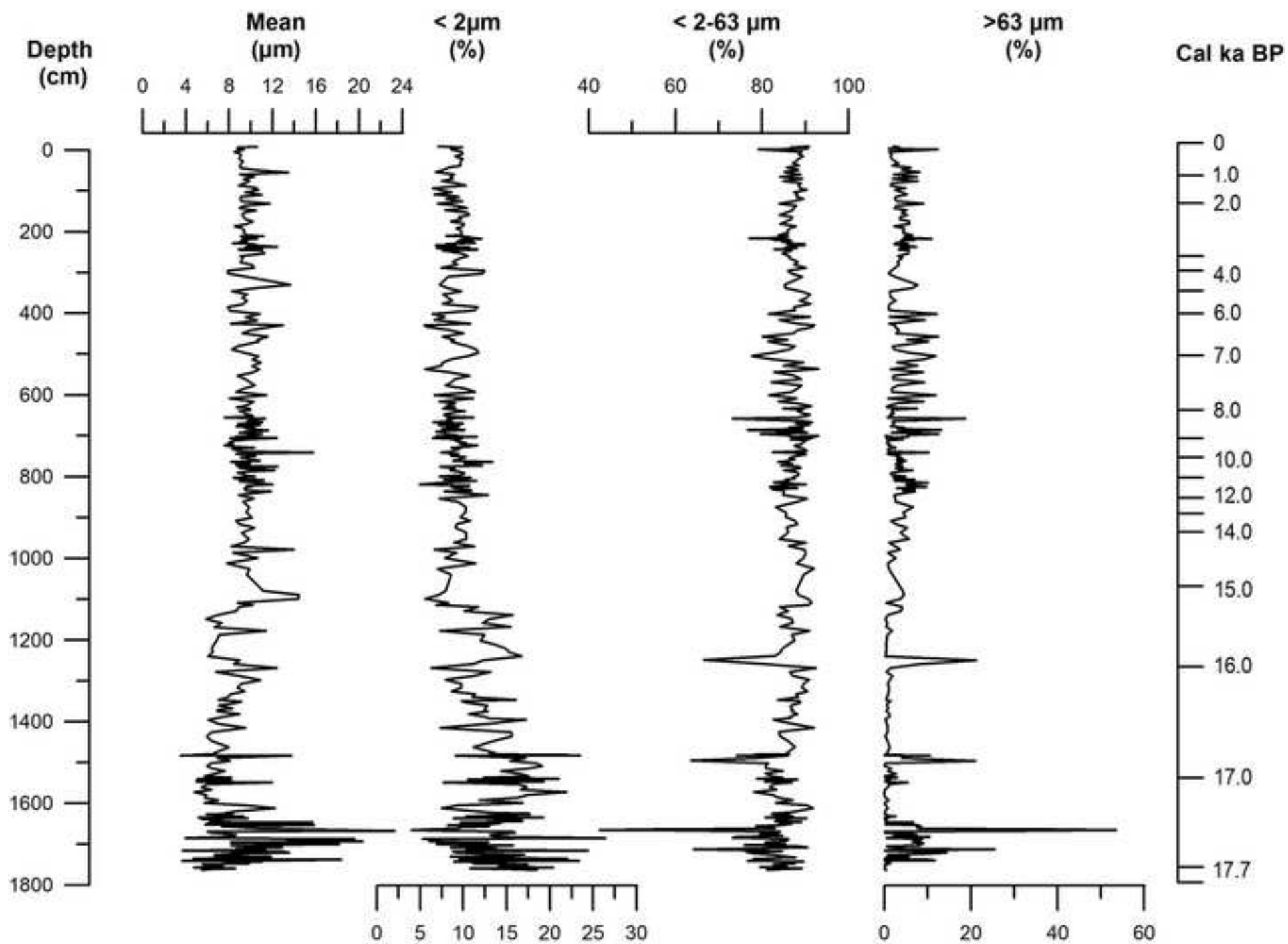


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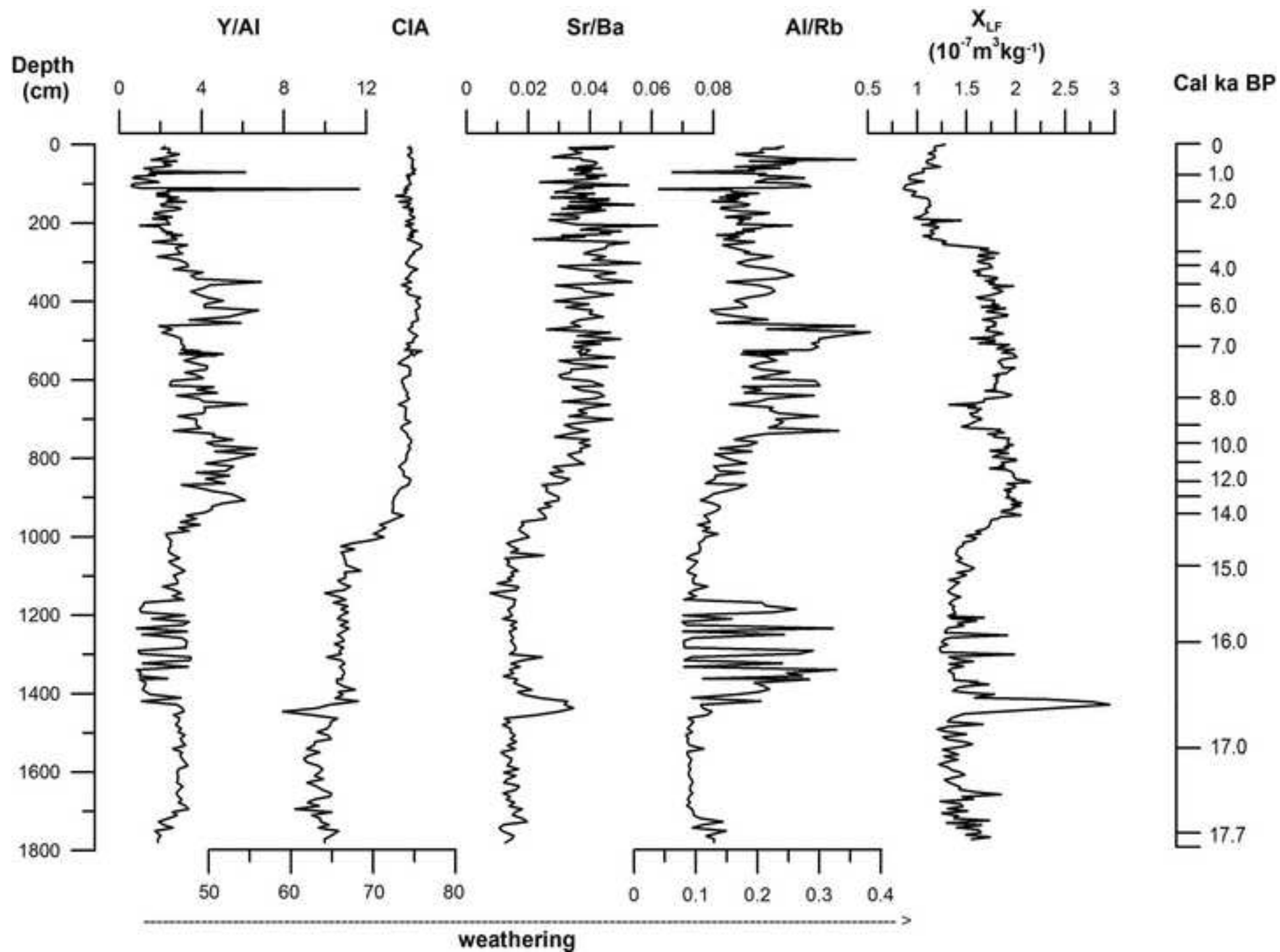


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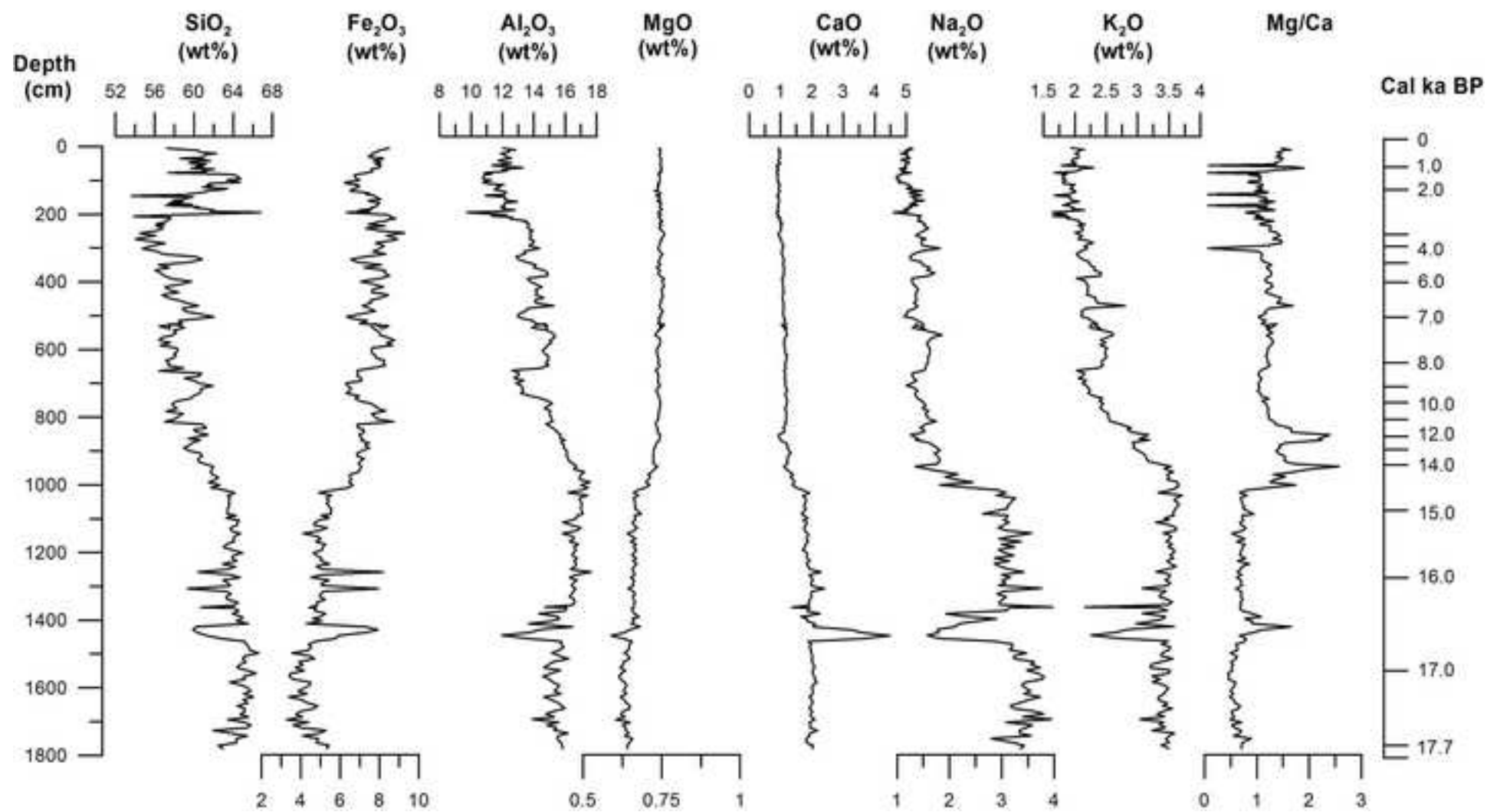
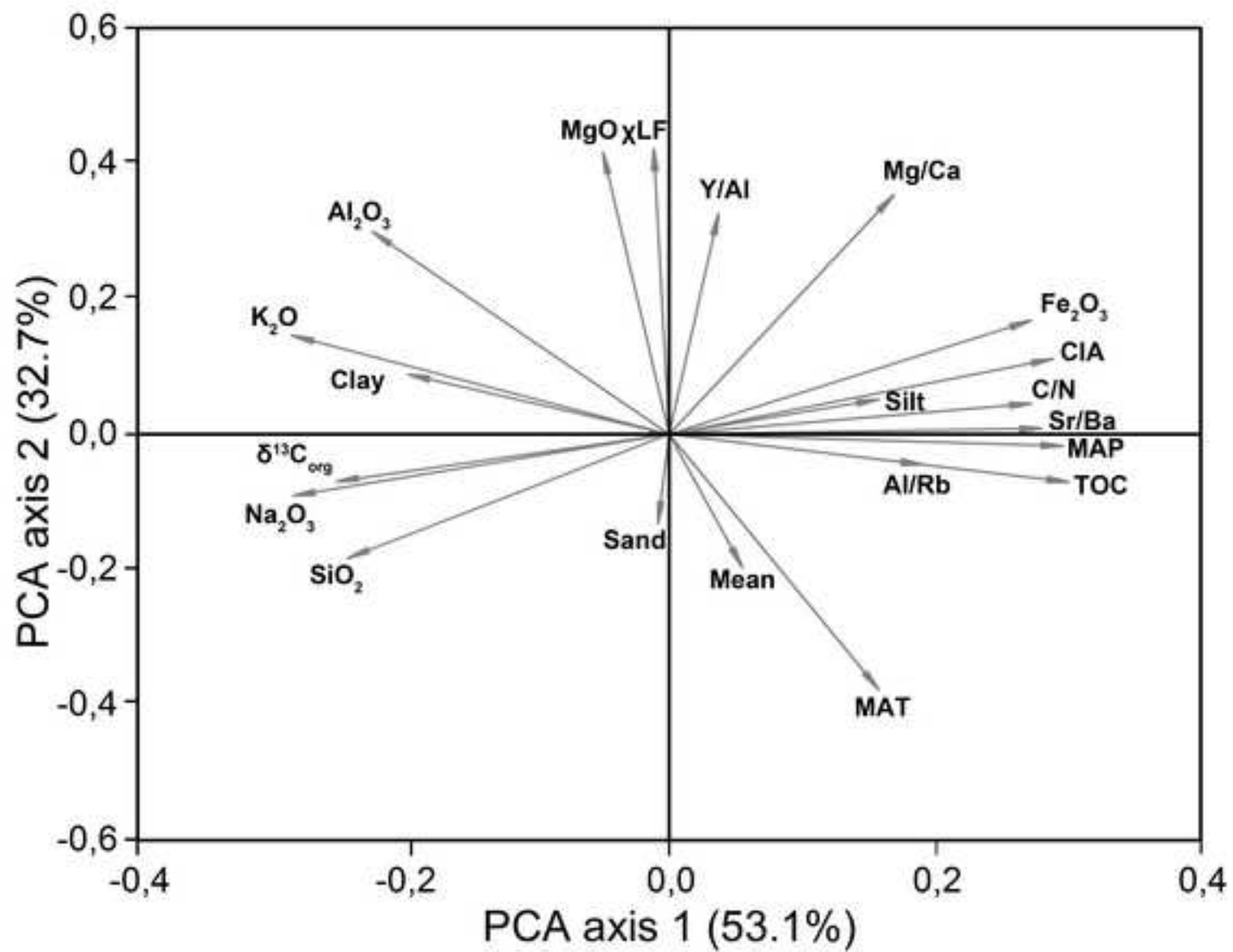


Figure 6  
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