



## 1    **Carbon export and burial pathways driven by a low-latitude arc- 2    continent collision**

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12    **Abstract.** Chemical weathering of silicate rocks of low-latitude arc–continent collisions has been hypothesized as a  
13    driver of global cooling since the Neogene. In low-latitude regions, monsoon and tropical cyclone precipitation also  
14    drive intense physical erosion that contribute to terrestrial carbon export and nutrient-stimulated marine productivity.  
15    Despite this, the role of physical weathering on carbon sequestration has largely been overlooked. To address this gap,  
16    we analyse late Miocene–early Pleistocene sedimentary and geochemical records from the Taiwan Western Foreland  
17    Basin and time-equivalent records from the northern South China Sea.

18    Along the continental slope, organic carbon is largely marine in origin, and its accumulation controlled by long-term  
19    sea-level fall and glaciation. In contrast, on the continental rise, organic carbon burial is controlled by high  
20    sedimentation rates related to Taiwan’s uplift and erosion (since ~5.4 Ma). Despite increased terrestrial erosion of  
21    Taiwan, the organic material remains mainly marine in origin, suggesting that primary production was enhanced by  
22    nutrient exported from Taiwan. Marine organic matter along Taiwan’s shore was subsequently remobilized by  
23    turbidity currents through submarine canyon systems and accumulating on the continental rise of Eurasia. The onset  
24    of Northern Hemisphere Glaciation (~3 Ma) and subsequent intensification of the East Asian Summer Monsoon and  
25    persistent tropical cyclone activity all further amplified nutrient export across the basin, further stimulating marine  
26    primary production.

27    Our findings demonstrate that arc–continent collision influences carbon sequestration through two pathways: (1) direct  
28    burial of terrestrial organic matter and (2) nutrient-fuelled marine productivity and burial. This work establishes a  
29    direct link between the erosion of an arc-continent collision and long-term carbon burial in adjacent ocean basins.

### 30    **1 Introduction**

31    Global cooling since the late Eocene has traditionally been attributed to tectonic forcing and enhanced chemical  
32    weathering of silicate rock from the Himalayan and Tibetan Plateau (Raymo and Ruddiman, 1992), which results in  
33    the removal of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Walker et al., 1981). However, weathering fluxes have decreased in both regions  
34    during the Neogene (Clift and Jonell, 2021), and global silicate fluxes appear to have remained near steady-state  
35    through the Cenozoic (Caves et al., 2016) even as global cooling continued. To reconcile stable or declining chemical



36 weathering rates with decreasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, an alternative hypothesis emphasized chemical erosion of arc-  
37 continent collisional orogens in low-latitude, tropical regions (Bayon et al., 2023; Clift et al., 2024; Jagoutz et al.,  
38 2016; Macdonald et al., 2019). In such environments, warm and humid conditions amplify chemical weathering,  
39 enhancing carbon removal and sequestration. While existing studies support a correlation between the growth and  
40 weathering of low-latitude orogens and long-term atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and global temperature records,  
41 they have yet to fully account for the roles of physical erosion, terrestrial organic carbon burial, and changes in marine  
42 productivity.

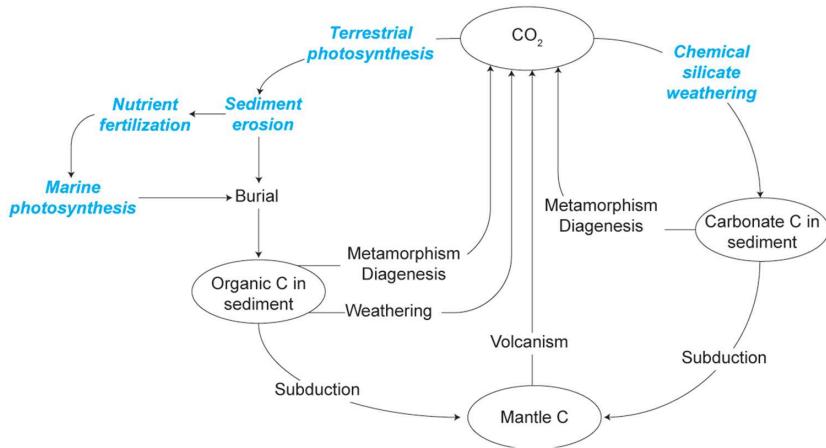
43 In low-latitude regions, tropical cyclones and monsoons are the primary drivers of erosion and sediment dispersal,  
44 delivering elevated sediment loads to adjacent seas via intense precipitation and high river discharge from steep  
45 mountainous catchments (Chen et al., 2018; Milliman and Kao, 2005). Warm sea-surface temperatures and reduced  
46 polar ice volumes under past greenhouse climates likely amplified monsoon variability and produced tropical cyclones  
47 that were considerably more intense and frequent than at present (Fedorov et al., 2013). These conditions of elevated  
48 humidity and precipitation would have promoted not only enhanced chemical weathering of silicate rocks, but also  
49 greater terrestrial biomass production.

50 Land-to-sea export of terrestrial organic material from vegetation, soil, and rock is enhanced under high precipitation  
51 regimes, with steep mountain rivers efficiently transporting this material for burial in adjacent ocean basins (Hilton et  
52 al., 2011; Milliman et al., 2017). The global terrestrial carbon pool accounts for ~7.5% of the Earth's total carbon  
53 stock, excluding lithospheric carbon, and is more than five times larger than the atmospheric carbon pool (Canadell et  
54 al., 2021). As a result, even modest changes in the terrestrial carbon storage can significantly alter atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
55 concentrations (Houghton, 2003). In particular, physical erosion by water is widely recognized as a dominant control  
56 of land-atmosphere carbon exchange (Hilton and West, 2020; Van Oost et al., 2012). Elevated sediment discharge to  
57 the oceans would facilitate the export and burial of terrestrial organic carbon (Aumont et al., 2001; Dagg et al., 2004;  
58 Galy et al., 2007; Hilton et al., 2011; Jin et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2013), and also deliver bioessential nutrients that  
59 stimulate marine productivity (Beusen et al., 2016; Dürr et al., 2011; Hoshiba and Yamanaka, 2013; Krumins et al.,  
60 2013). However, the role of fluvial nutrient export in fueling marine primary productivity is generally thought to be  
61 limited to coastal regions (Dagg et al., 2004; Froelich, 1988; Stepanauskas et al., 2002). This oversimplification in  
62 ocean biogeochemical models leads to a poorly constrained link between terrestrial nutrient supply, open-ocean  
63 productivity, and deep-sea carbon burial.

64 This research aims to address these knowledge gaps by disentangling the different mechanisms through which carbon  
65 is sequestered as a result of low-latitude arc-continent collisions (Fig. 1). A clearer understanding of these processes  
66 will provide stronger constraints on both reconstructed and predictive carbon budget models. The study area focuses  
67 on the northern South China Sea (SCS) region, specifically late Miocene to early Pleistocene (~6.3–2 Ma) strata of  
68 the Taiwan Western Foreland Basin (TWFB, i.e., paleo-Taiwan Strait; Fig. 2) and time-equivalent sediment core  
69 records obtained from the Ocean Drilling Program (ODP Sites 1146 and 1148; Fig. 2). Since its emergence in the  
70 early Pliocene, Taiwan has been characterized by exceptionally high denudation rates and rapidly became the  
71 dominant sediment source to the adjacent TWFB, overwhelming contributions from southeast Eurasia (Hsieh et al.,  
72 2023b). Hyperpycnal flows triggered by intense precipitation transported Taiwan-derived sediments over 1000 km



73 into the SCS, leaving a distinct signature in deep-sea deposits (Hsieh et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2012). Strata of the TWFB  
74 capture the evolution of the Taiwan Orogen (Lin and Watts, 2002), and thus provide insight into how changes in  
75 weathering and erosion processes modulated carbon burial in the SCS sediments across successive orogenesis stages.

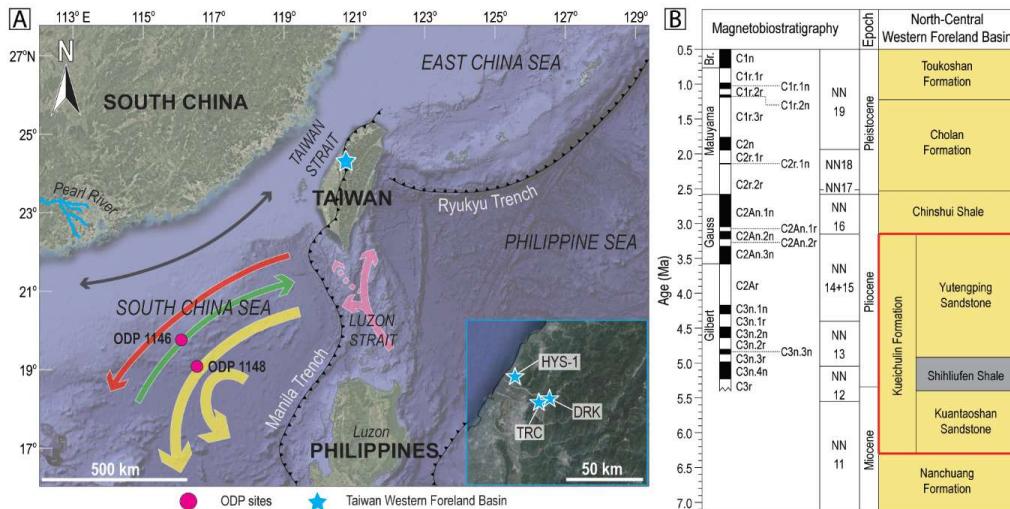


76  
77 **Figure 1: Conceptual model of geologic carbon (C) sources and sinks, modified from (Berner, 2003).** This research focuses  
78 on two main pathways of carbon sequestration often associated with arc-continent collisions, highlighted in blue: (1) direct  
79 burial of terrestrial organic matter, and (2) nutrient-fueled marine productivity followed by the burial of marine organic  
80 matter. These processes play a crucial role in the long-term carbon cycle and the regulation of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

## 81 2 Study area

82 The base of the TWFB stratigraphic fill is composed of the Kueichulin Formation (Fm; late Miocene–early Pliocene),  
83 a sandstone-dominated unit deposited in shallow-marine and deltaic environments under the influence of wave and  
84 tidal processes, and composed of three members (from base to top): the Kuantaoshan Sandstone, Shihliufen Shale,  
85 and Yutengping Sandstone (Fig. 2; Castelltort et al., 2011; Hsieh et al., 2025; Nagel et al., 2013). Overlying the  
86 Kueichulin Fm is the Chinshui Shale (late Pliocene), a mudstone-rich succession with uncommon wavy-laminated  
87 sandstone interbeds that accumulated in an offshore setting during a phase of maximum flooding and enhanced  
88 subsidence in the TWFB (Castelltort et al., 2011; Nagel et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2015). The Chinshui Shale is overlain  
89 by the Cholan Fm (early Pleistocene), which consists of heterolithic sediments deposited in shallow-marine  
90 environments influenced by waves, rivers, and tides (Covey, 1986; Nagel et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2015; Vaucher et al.,  
91 2023a).

92 The targeted time interval (~6.27–1.95 Ma) spans the initiation of Eurasian-Philippine plate collision through the  
93 emergence and uplift of Taiwan. It includes the Pliocene (5.33–2.58 Ma), which may be the most recent time in Earth's  
94 history when atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> last reached or exceeded present-day concentrations (>400 ppm; Tierney et al., 2019),  
95 and the subsequent transition toward Pleistocene icehouse conditions. Since tectonic configurations, insolation, and  
96 major floral and faunal assemblages have remained broadly unchanged since the mid-Pliocene (Dowsett, 2007;  
97 Robinson et al., 2008), this period provides a critical Earth system analog for evaluating future climate hazards (e.g.,  
98 Burke et al., 2018), including sea-level rise and extreme weather events.



99

100 **Figure 2: A)** Map of the study area showing the locations of the Late Miocene–Early Pleistocene records from Ocean Drilling  
 101 Program (ODP) sediment cores in the South China Sea, and the outcrop of the Kueichulin Fm from the Taiwan Western  
 102 Foreland Basin (TWFB). The inset map outlined in blue show the locations of the borehole (HYS-1) and outcrop locations  
 103 (DRK = Da'an River, Kueichulin Fm; TRC = Tachia River, Chinshui Shale) of the TWFB strata used in this study. Modern-  
 104 day circulation in the SCS is shown in arrows: black = alongshore surface current, red = surface water current, green =  
 105 intermediate water current, yellow = deep- and bottom-water current, pink = Kuroshio current, pink (dashed) = Taiwan  
 106 warm current (modified from Hu et al. (2010); Liu et al. (2010a); Liu et al. (2016); Yin et al. (2023)). B) Chronostratigraphy  
 107 of the TWFB is modified after Chen (2016), Hsieh et al. (2023a), and Teng et al. (1991). The red box highlights the targeted  
 108 study section. Yellow denotes sandstone, and grey indicates mudstone.

### 109 3 Methodology

#### 110 3.1 Data acquisition and analysis

111 A total of 553 samples were collected from outcrops of the TWFB exposed along rivers in southwestern Taiwan,  
 112 including 272 collected from the Kueichulin Fm by Dashtgard et al. (2021) and Hsieh et al. (2023b) along the Da'an  
 113 River. This was combined with new data from the Chinshui Shale ( $n=90$ ; Tachia River) and the Cholan Fm ( $n=191$ ;  
 114 Houlong River). Data between 4.13–3.15 Ma are not available as no outcrop sections were accessible. Gamma-ray  
 115 data were obtained from the HYS-1 borehole drilled through the TWFB. Age-equivalent material was also obtained  
 116 from deep-sea sediment cores ODP Site 1146 ( $19^{\circ}27.40'N, 116^{\circ}16.37'E$ , 2092 m water depth, 179.8–343.1 m core  
 117 depth; Holbourn et al., 2005; Holbourn et al., 2007) and Site 1148 ( $18^{\circ}50.169'N, 116^{\circ}33.939'E$ , 3294 m water depth,  
 118 118.9–206 m core depth; Cheng et al., 2004; Tian et al., 2008), archived in international core repositories. Sampling  
 119 resolution averaged  $\sim 1.4$  m vertically through the TWFB stratigraphic sections, and  $\sim 0.65$  m and  $\sim 0.35$  m through the  
 120 ODP Sites 1146 and 1148 cores, respectively.

121 Samples from the Chinshui Shale and ODP sites were analysed for organic geochemistry and paleomagnetism. For  
 122 the Chinshui Shale, total organic carbon (TOC) and total nitrogen (TN) concentrations were determined from  
 123 pulverized rock samples in the Department of Geosciences at National Taiwan University (NTU) using an elemental  
 124 analyser (Elementar TOC analyser soli TOC® cube; Lin et al., 2025). Total carbon (TC) and TN abundances for ODP  
 125 samples were determined with a CHNS Elemental Analyser (Thermo Finnigan Flash EA 1112) at the Institute of Earth



126 Sciences (ISTE) at the University of Lausanne in Switzerland on oven-dried sieved and crushed sediment samples.  
127 The samples were heated to 900°C, after which the combustion products were extracted into a chromatographic  
128 column where they were converted into simpler components: CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. These components were then measured by  
129 a thermal conductivity detector, and the results were expressed as a weight percentage. Analytical precision and  
130 accuracy were determined by replicate analyses and by comparison with an organic analytical standard composed of  
131 purified L-cysteine, achieving a precision of better than 0.3% (REFS). Organic matter (OM) analyses of ODP core  
132 samples were performed on whole-rock powdered samples using a Rock-Eval 6 at the ISTE following the method  
133 described by Espitalie et al. (1985) and Behar et al. (2001). Measurements were calibrated using the IFP 160000  
134 standard. Rock-Eval pyrolysis provides parameters such as hydrogen index (HI, mg HC g<sup>-1</sup> TOC, HC = hydrocarbons),  
135 oxygen index (OI, mg CO<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> TOC), *T<sub>max</sub>* (°C), and the TOC (wt.%). HI, OI and *T<sub>max</sub>* values, which give an overall  
136 measure of the type and maturation of the organic matter (e.g., Espitalie et al., 1985), can't be interpreted for TOC <  
137 0.2 wt.% and *S<sub>2</sub>* values  $\geq$  0.2 mg HC g<sup>-1</sup>. Total organic carbon accumulation rates (mg cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>) for the ODP sites  
138 were calculated by multiplying mass-accumulation rates (MAR) derived from literature and TOC.  
139 Organic carbon isotopic compositions ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ , ‰ relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) were measured by flash  
140 combustion on an elemental analyser (EA) coupled to an isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) from pulverized,  
141 decarbonated (10% HCl treatment) whole-rock samples. Samples from ODP sites were analysed at the Institute of  
142 Earth Surface Dynamics, University of Lausanne, using a Thermo EA IsoLink CN connected to a Delta V Plus isotope  
143 ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen), both operated under continuous helium flow. The  
144 samples and standards are weighed in tin capsules and combusted at 1020°C with oxygen pulse in a quartz reactor  
145 filled with chromium oxide (Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and below with silvered cobaltous-cobaltic oxide. The combustion produced gases  
146 (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O) are carried by the He-flow to a second reactor filled with elemental copper and copper oxide  
147 wires kept at 640°C to remove excess oxygen and reduce non-stoichiometric nitrous products to N<sub>2</sub>. The gases are  
148 then carried through a water trap filled with magnesium perchlorate (Mg(ClO<sub>4</sub>)). The dried N<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> gases are  
149 separated with a gas chromatograph column at 70 °C and then carried to the mass spectrometer. The measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
150 values are calibrated and normalized using international reference materials and in-house standards Spangenberg,  
151 2016. Samples from the Chinshui Shale were analysed at the Stable Isotope Laboratory at National Taiwan University  
152 using a Flash EA (Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled to a Delta V Advantage (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
153 values are calibrated using an international reference material, IAEA-CH-3. The reproducibility and accuracy are  
154 better than  $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$ .  
155 Thirty-three oriented palaeomagnetic core specimens (25-mm diameter) were collected at  $\sim$ 3.5 m intervals from  
156 unweathered, mud-rich beds, then prepared and analysed at Academia Sinica in Taiwan following the methodology  
157 described in Horng (2014). Cores were cut into 2-cm samples, and bulk magnetic susceptibility measured using a  
158 Bartington Instruments MS2B magnetic susceptibility meter. Mass-specific magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) was then  
159 derived by normalising bulk magnetic susceptibility to sample mass.  
160 Existing data for the ODP sites 1146 and 1148 were also compiled from literature, including clastic MAR (Site 1146  
161 from Wan et al., 2010a, Site 1148 from Wang et al., 2000a), magnetic susceptibility (1146 from Wang et al., 2005a,  
162 1148 from Wang et al., 2000a), hematite/goethite ratios (Hm/Gt) derived from spectral reflectance band ratios at



163 565/435 nm (1146 from Wang et al., 2000b, 1148 from Clift, 2006), continuous gamma-ray logs (1146 from Wang et  
164 al., 2000b, 1148 from Wang et al., 2000a), and titanium/calcium ratios (Ti/Ca; 1146 from Wan et al., 2010a, 1148  
165 from Hoang et al., 2010). MAR, magnetic susceptibility, and Ti/Ca serve as proxies for physical erosion, recording  
166 variations in terrigenous sediment flux linked to summer monsoon precipitation. Intensified precipitation enhances  
167 basin sediment accumulation rates (Clift et al., 2014), and typically increases the magnetic susceptibility of marine  
168 sediment via enhanced runoff and terrestrial input (Clift et al., 2002; Kissel et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2005). In the SCS,  
169 magnetic susceptibility also serves as a sediment provenance indicator. Sediment sourced from western Taiwan yields  
170  $\chi$  values that range from  $0.9 \pm 0.3$  to  $1.8 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , much lower than those sourced from the South China  
171 Block ( $4.0 \pm 1.3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ), indicating a relative depletion of magnetic minerals in Taiwan-sourced material (Horn  
172 and Huh, 2011). Titanium, associated with heavy mineral deposition, and calcium, linked to pelagic biogenic  
173 carbonate accumulation, yield Ti/Ca values that increase with enhanced monsoon-driven sediment export (Clift et al.,  
174 2014). Gamma-ray intensities broadly track changes in lithology (Green and Fearon, 1940; Schlumberger, 1989),  
175 where values < 75 American Petroleum Institute (API) typically mark sandstone-rich intervals, > 105 API mudstone-  
176 rich intervals, and intermediate values reflect mixed lithologies. Increased sediment export, particularly of coarser  
177 grains, may be expressed as lower API values.  
178 Sedimentary TOC content provides a measure of organic carbon accumulation through time. Terrestrial and marine  
179 sources can also be differentiated by their  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values (Chmura and Aharon, 1995; Dashtgard et al., 2021; Hilton et  
180 al., 2010; Martiny et al., 2013; Peterson and Fry, 1987). Marine organic matter (e.g., plankton, particulate and  
181 dissolved organic matter) typically have more enriched values than terrestrial inputs (e.g., C3 and C4 plants, and soil  
182 and lithogenic organic carbon) (Table 1). Marine-derived organic matter mainly accumulates on the seafloor under  
183 fair-weather conditions, while terrestrial input increases under intervals of increased precipitation and erosion  
184 (Dashtgard et al., 2021; Hsieh et al., 2023b).

185 **Table 1: Typical values for marine- and terrestrially sourced  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and C/N (compiled by Dashtgard et al., 2021). Numbers  
186 in brackets represent sample count. OM = organic material.**

	Organic Material	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} (\text{\textperthousand})$	C/N
Marine	Particulate OM	$-22.5 \pm 1.7$ (53)	$6.2 \pm 1.0$
	Plankton	$-20.4 \pm 1.4$ (184)	-
	Dissolved OM	$-22.5 \pm 0.8$ (23)	-
	All pelagic marine organic matter - equally weighted	$-21.8 \pm 1.7$	$6.2 \pm 1.0$
Terrestrial	High- $^{13}\text{C}$ plants (C4)	$-13.2 \pm 1.9$ (89)	$83.3 \pm 54$ (6)
	Low- $^{13}\text{C}$ plants (C3)	$-27.4 \pm 1.9$ (161)	$52 \pm 14.8$ (55)
	Soil	$-25.9 \pm 1.2$ (11)	$17.1 \pm 7.3$ (22)



188 Hematite-to-goethite (Hm/Gt) ratios are widely applied as indicator of monsoon precipitation (Clift, 2006; Liu et al.,  
189 2007; Zhang et al., 2009). Hematite typically forms through iron oxidation under arid climates, whereas goethite  
190 preferentially develops under humid climates (e.g., Kämpf and Schwertmann, 1983; Maher, 1986). In the northern  
191 SCS, however, Clift et al. (2014) documented a positive relationship between elevated Hm/Gt values and intensified  
192 East Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM) rainfall and seasonality. Beyond climate, hematite also reflects sediment  
193 provenance: sediment derived from Taiwan is notably depleted in hematite and enriched in pyrrhotite (Horng and  
194 Huh, 2011). Locally estimated scatterplot smoothing (LOESS) is applied to all data to reveal trends through the studied  
195 time interval (Cleveland et al., 1992).

196 **3.2 Age models**

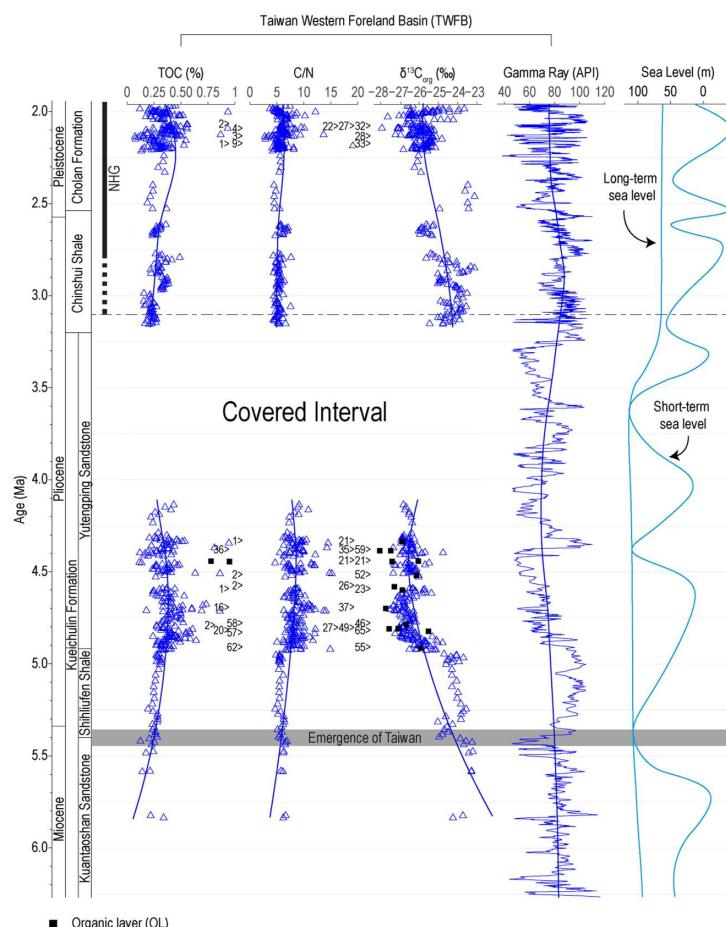
197 The chronostratigraphic framework for the Kueichulin Fm, Chinshui Shale, and Cholan Fm of the TWFB was  
198 established by astronomically tuning the gamma-ray records to the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record of Wilkens et al. (2017) (Hsieh et al.,  
199 2023a; Vaucher et al., 2023b). However, the boundary between the top of the Kueichulin Fm and the base of the  
200 Chinshui Shale is not well-established. Therefore, a magnetobiostratigraphic age model was developed from  
201 nannofossil zones and magnetic reversals identified in oriented outcrop core samples from the Chinshui Shale outcrop  
202 using the methodology described in Horng (2014) to ground-truth the existing framework. The remanent magnetic  
203 intensity, and declination and inclination of oriented core samples were measured using a JR-6A spinner  
204 magnetometer (AGICO). To determine the stable remanent magnetization and polarity (i.e., normal or reversed) of  
205 each sample, unstable secondary magnetization was removed by thermally demagnetizing the samples stepwise from  
206 25 to 600°C. The characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) declination and inclination of thermally  
207 demagnetized samples were calculated using principal component analysis with a minimum of three demagnetization  
208 steps in the PuffinPlot software (Lurcock and Wilson, 2012) to determine the polarity of each sample. Thermal  
209 demagnetization diagrams for the Chinshui Shale samples showing the stable remanent magnetic declinations and  
210 inclinations after principal component analysis are presented in Fig. S1 in Supporting Information.  
211 Index nannofossils and corresponding biozonations identified by Shea and Huang (2003) for the Chinshui Shale were  
212 used to constrain paleomagnetic polarities. The resulting age model was then correlated to an orbitally tuned, benthic  
213 foraminiferal, stable oxygen isotope ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) record from the equatorial Atlantic Ocean (Wilkens et al., 2017), which is  
214 tied to physical sedimentary properties independent of ice volume, and has a robust timescale. Variations in both  
215 parameters are assumed to be causally linked and temporally in phase.  
216 The age model for ODP Site 1146 (Wan et al., 2010a) was constructed by linear interpolation between  
217 magnetobiostratigraphic age control points established by Wang et al. (2000b). Stratigraphic ages from ODP Site 1148 (Clift,  
218 2006) are constrained using biostratigraphic ages of benthic foraminifera (Wang et al., 2000a).

219 **4 Results**

220 Data collected from the Chinshui Shale ( $n = 90$ ) for this study have average TOC values ( $0.3 \pm 0.1\%$ ) comparable to  
221 the those of the Shihliufen Shale ( $0.3 \pm 0.03\%$ ,  $n = 31$ ), but are higher than the basal Kuantaoshan Sandstone ( $0.2 \pm$   
222  $0.1\%$ ,  $n = 9$ ), and lower than the Yutengping Sandstone ( $0.4 \pm 0.1\%$ ,  $n = 216$ ) and the Cholan Fm ( $0.4 \pm 0.7\%$ ,  $n =$



223 191; Fig. 3). C/N and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values of the Chinshui Shale ( $5.2 \pm 0.7$  and  $-24.5 \pm 0.7\text{\textperthousand}$ , respectively) indicate stable  
224 accumulation of marine organic content, similar to the Shihliufen Shale ( $5.3 \pm 0.4$  and  $-24.2 \pm 0.4\text{\textperthousand}$ ) in contrast to  
225 the Kuantaoshan Sandstone ( $6.1 \pm 0.3$ ,  $-23.4 \pm 0.3\text{\textperthousand}$ ), Yutengping Sandstone ( $8.5 \pm 1.8$ ,  $-26.5 \pm 0.5\text{\textperthousand}$ ), as well as the  
226 overlying Cholan Fm ( $6.3 \pm 4.1$ ,  $-25.7 \pm 0.8\text{\textperthousand}$ ), which records enhanced terrestrial input (Fig. 3). The accumulation  
227 of marine organic matter is also stable through the Shihliufen Shale and the Chinshui shale, with greater variability  
228 between  $\sim 4.9$ – $4$  Ma, and after  $\sim 2.3$  Ma (Fig. 3).



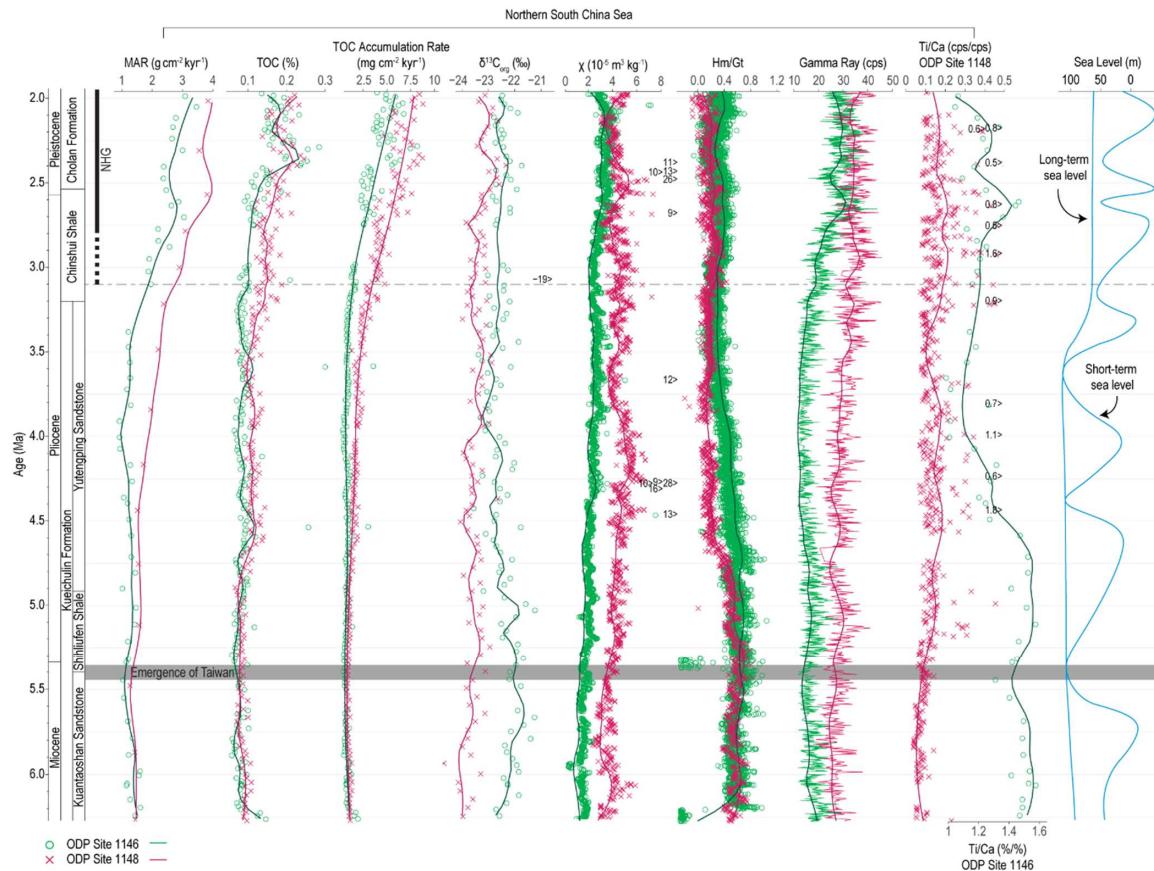
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230 **Figure 3: Compilation of total organic carbon (TOC), C/N,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ , and gamma ray data for the Taiwan Western Foreland**  
231 **Basin (TWFB), including the Kueichulin Fm (Dashtgard et al., 2021; Hsieh et al., 2023a; Hsieh et al., 2023b), the Chinshui**  
232 **Shale (this study and gamma-ray from Vaucher et al. (2023b)), and the Cholan Fm (this study and gamma-ray from**  
233 **Vaucher et al. (2023b)). Sea-level curves are from Haq and Ogg (2024). “>” indicates data that plot outside of the diagram.**  
234 **The solid lines represent curves fitted using locally estimated scatterplot smoothing (LOESS). TOC, C/N, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  trends**  
235 **reflect organic carbon sources, and show that marine organic matter content is high in the Kuantaoshan Sandstone,**  
236 **Shihliufen Shale, and Chinshui Shale, contrasting with increased terrestrial input in the Yutengping Sandstone and Cholan**  
237 **Formation. Gamma-ray data indicate lithological variability, and correlate with sea-level changes.**

238 At ODP Site 1146 (Fig. 4), MAR ( $n=59$ ) and TOC ( $n = 225$ ) values remain relatively stable until  $\sim 3.3$  Ma (averaging  
239  $1.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ kyr}^{-1}$  and  $0.08 \pm 0.03\text{\textperthousand}$ , respectively), after which both increase, with a maximum MAR of  $3.5 \text{ cm}^{-2}$



240      kyr<sup>-1</sup>, and maximum TOC of 0.3%, accompanied by greater TOC variability. This is reflected in the TOC accumulation  
241      rate (n = 225), which shows increasing trends also since ~3.3 Ma, from an average of  $9.6 (\pm 3.7) \times 10^{-4}$  to  $3.7 (\pm 1.8)$   
242       $\times 10^{-3}$  mg cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  (n = 113) show a gradual decrease from ~5.7–4 Ma from an average of -21.8 ( $\pm 0.4$ ) to -  
243      22.2 ( $\pm 0.6$ )‰, then stabilises. Magnetic susceptibility (n = 2747) increases through the record from an average of  
244      ~1.6 ( $\pm 0.4$ ) to  $2.5 (\pm 1) \times 10^{-5}$  m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> from 5–3 Ma, with accelerated increase after ~3 Ma. Hm/Gt ratios (n = 8196)  
245      decrease gradually from ~4.75–3 Ma (from an average of  $0.56 \pm 0.3$  to  $0.35 \pm 0.1$ ), before showing greater amplitude  
246      variability. Gamma-ray values (n = 2551) remain relatively stable ( $16.2 \pm 3.3$  API) until ~3.2 Ma with when both  
247      values and amplitudes rise ( $26.7 \pm 5.7$  API). The Ti/Ca record (‰, n = 53) shows an overall decreasing trend from  
248      ~4.6 Ma–3.5 Ma from an average of  $1.5 \pm 0.07$  to  $1.2 \pm 0.1$ .  
249      At ODP Site 1148 (Fig. 4), MAR values (n = 15) remain stable with a slight increase at ~5.5 Ma from an average of  
250       $1.4 (\pm 0.009)$  to  $1.6 (\pm 0.2)$  g cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>, followed by a sharper increase near ~3.5 Ma to a maximum of 3.5 g cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>.  
251      TOC values (n = 220), as well as TOC accumulation rates (n = 220), are stable from ~6.27–4.7 Ma (averaging 0.08  
252       $\pm 0.01$ ‰ and  $1.1 (\pm 0.2) \times 10^{-3}$  mg cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Both TOC and TOC accumulation rates increase from  
253      ~4.7–4.5 Ma to  $0.11 (\pm 0.01)$ ‰ and  $1.9 (\pm 0.3) \times 10^{-3}$  mg cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>, then stabilize until ~3.5 Ma, and then increased  
254      again (exceeding 0.2‰ and  $5 \times 10^{-3}$  mg cm<sup>-2</sup> kyr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) with greater amplitude. MAR, TOC, and TOC  
255      accumulation rates also exceed values measured from Site 1146 since ~4.7 Ma by 20–60%.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  (n = 110) is broadly  
256      stable, increasing near ~2.75 Ma from an average of -23.2 ( $\pm 0.3$ ) to -22.8 ( $\pm 0.4$ )‰. Magnetic susceptibility values  
257      (n = 1249) show a gradual increase from ~5.4–4.3 Ma from an average of  $3.6 (\pm 0.6)$  to  $4.9 (\pm 0.8) \times 10^{-5}$  m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>, then  
258      a decrease until ~3.5 Ma to an average of  $4.6 (\pm 1.2) \times 10^{-5}$  m<sup>3</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>. The values remain low after ~3.5 Ma, with  
259      amplitudes decreasing after ~2.75 Ma. Hm/Gt (n = 1678) declines from ~5.4–4.6 Ma from an average of  $0.61 (\pm 0.08)$   
260      to  $0.2 (\pm 0.06)$ , then stabilizes and slightly increases from ~3.2–2.9 Ma. Gamma-ray values (n = 1249) are high from  
261      ~5.4–4.9 Ma, averaging  $29.5 (\pm 3.8)$  API, then decrease and stabilize before rising again after ~3.5 Ma to an average  
262      of  $35 (\pm 4.2)$  API. The Ti/Ca ratios (cps/cps, n = 646) increase overall from ~5.4 Ma, from an average of  $0.07 (\pm 0.03)$   
263      to  $0.16 (\pm 0.1)$ , with increasing amplitude variability.



264

265 **Figure 4: Compilation of sediment core data from ODP Sites 1146 and 1148 in the northern South China Sea, including**  
 266 **mass accumulation rate (MAR; Wan et al., 2010a; Wang et al., 2000a), TOC and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  (this study), mass-specific magnetic**  
 267 **susceptibility ( $\chi$ ; Wang et al., 2000a; Wang et al., 2005a), hematite/goethite (Hm/Gt; Clift, 2006; Wang et al., 2000b), gamma**  
 268 **ray (Wang et al., 2000a, 2000b), and Ti/Ca (Hoang et al., 2010; Wan et al., 2010a). Sea-level curves are from Haq and Ogg**  
 269 **(2024). “>” indicates data that plot outside of the diagram. The solid lines represent curves fitted using locally estimated**  
 270 **scatterplot smoothing (LOESS). The figure illustrates the contrasting sedimentary and geochemical responses between the**  
 271 **two ODP sites, driven by tectonic uplift, climate variability, and changes in ocean circulation.**

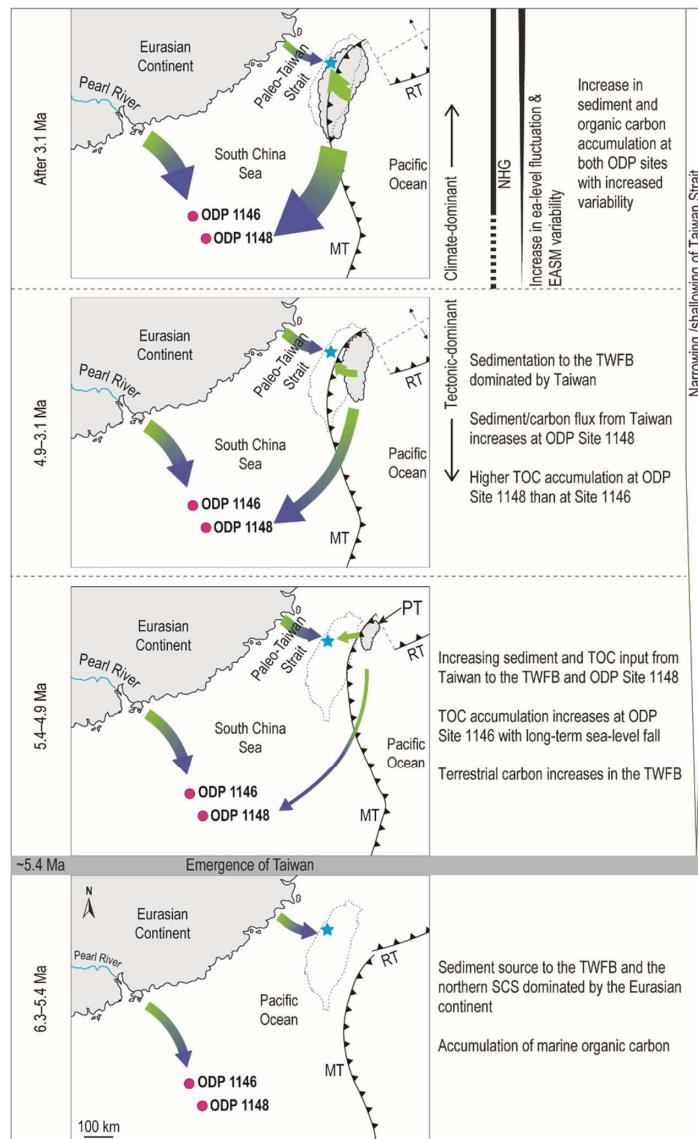
272 **5 Discussion**

273 **5.1 Spatial variability in sediment provenance and distribution in the northern South China Sea**

274 Provenance exerts a first-order control on sedimentary records in the SCS, owing to the region’s complex geology and  
 275 active tectonism, which channel sediment contributions from multiple major rivers (e.g., Clift et al., 2014; Clift et al.,  
 276 2022; Horng and Huh, 2011; Kissel et al., 2016, 2017; Liu et al., 2009b; Liu et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2010b; Liu et al.,  
 277 2016; Milliman and Syvitski, 1992; Wan et al., 2010c). During most of the Neogene, the Pearl River supplied the  
 278 dominant sediment flux to the northern SCS (Clift et al., 2002; Li et al., 2003). The emergence of the Taiwan orogen  
 279 in the early Pliocene fundamentally reorganised this system: by ~5.4 Ma, and especially after ~4.9 Ma, Taiwan had  
 280 become a major sediment source to the adjacent TWFB and the wider SCS, as a result of rapid uplift and intense



281 erosion and southwestward collision-zone migration (Fig. 5; Hsieh et al., 2023b; Hu et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2010b).  
282 This change in sediment provenance is tectonically driven and underscores the need to disentangle tectonic from  
283 climatic signals in SCS sedimentary archives (Clift et al., 2014; Hsieh et al., 2024).  
284 This diversity in sediment sources and mixing is reflected at ODP Sites 1146 and 1148, where the sediment records  
285 diverge despite their spatial proximity. MAR, magnetic susceptibility, Hm/Gt and gamma-ray records diverge between  
286 the two sites until ~3 Ma (Fig. 4). At ODP Site 1146, located on the continental slope, sediments are primarily derived  
287 from Eurasia (Fig. 5). At Site 1146, major element and clay mineral compositions point to a mixture of sources  
288 dominated by the Pearl River, with additional inputs from the Yangtze River, Taiwan, Luzon, and loess (Hu et al.,  
289 2022; Liu et al., 2003; Wan et al., 2007a). Pearl River sediment discharge is controlled by long-term sea-level changes  
290 and East Asian Monsoon variability (e.g., Liu et al., 2016), but its transport is strongly constrained: the northward-  
291 flowing Kuroshio Current and shallow Taiwan Strait, limit delivery to the open basin, instead funnelling most material  
292 along the continental shelf and slope via alongshore currents (Liu et al., 2010b; Liu et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2007a).



293

294 **Figure 5: Summary of different controls on sediment and carbon accumulation over time in the Taiwan Western Foreland**  
295 **Basin (blue star) and the ODP sites (pink circles) in the northern South China Sea. The size of the arrows indicates relative**  
296 **proportions of sediment flux, and green indicates accumulation of terrestrial organic carbon, while blue indicates marine**  
297 **organic carbon. The abbreviations MT = Manilla Trench, RT = Ryukyu Trench, and PT = proto-Taiwan. These differences**  
298 **in organic carbon source (i.e., terrestrial vs. marine) and carbon accumulation highlight the spatial heterogeneity in**  
299 **sedimentary and geochemical records within the northern South China Sea, shaped by the interplay of tectonic and climatic**  
300 **processes.**

301 In contrast, ODP Site 1148, located on the continental rise, records a stronger Taiwanese imprint (i.e., less contribution  
302 from Eurasia; Fig. 5). Prior to ~6.5 Ma, major element data suggest a mixture of Pearl River and Taiwan inputs, but  
303 since the onset of Taiwan orogenesis (~6.5 Ma), Taiwanese material has increasingly dominated (Hu et al., 2022).



304 Isotopic ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ,  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ ), and clay mineral records corroborate Taiwan as the dominant sediment contributor to the  
305 northern SCS since its emergence (Bertaz et al., 2024; Boulay et al., 2005; Clift et al., 2014). This conclusion is also  
306 supported by rare-earth element studies that attribute up to 80% of slope sediments to the Taiwan orogen, and <20%  
307 to the Pearl River (Shao et al., 2001; Shao et al., 2009). Erosion of modern and ancient Taiwan is primarily driven by  
308 tropical-cyclone precipitation (Chen et al., 2010; Chien and Kuo, 2011; Dashtgard et al., 2021; Galewsky et al., 2006;  
309 Janapati et al., 2019; Vaucher et al., 2021). Under warmer Pliocene climates (Fedorov et al., 2010; Yan et al., 2016)  
310 such storms were likely more frequent and intense (e.g., Yan et al., 2019), and especially if coinciding with EASM  
311 circulation, would have driven exceptionally high precipitation (Chen et al., 2010; Chien and Kuo, 2011; Kao and  
312 Milliman, 2008; Lee et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2008) and sediment export (Vaucher et al., 2023b). Sediment derived from  
313 Taiwan is subsequently redistributed into the northern SCS by downslope deep currents (Hu et al., 2012; Liu et al.,  
314 2013; Liu et al., 2010b; Liu et al., 2016). The emergence of Taiwan also reconfigured regional circulation, establishing  
315 a westward Kuroshio branch that delivered additional sediment from Taiwan and the Philippines (i.e., the Luzon Arc)  
316 into the northern basin (Liu et al., 2016).

317 The difference in sediment provenance and transport pathways between the continental slope and continental rise is  
318 reflected in the contrasting proxy trends observed at both ODP sites (Fig. 4). At ODP Site 1146, the long-term increase  
319 in magnetic minerals since  $\sim$ 6.27 Ma reflects increased sediment input from Eurasia that is comparatively enriched in  
320 magnetic minerals. Concurrently, low gamma-ray values and declining Ti/Ca until  $\sim$ 3 Ma also reflect increased  
321 delivery of sand-rich, clastic detritus, while the decreasing Hm/Gt suggests a progressive weakening of the EASM  
322 rainfall and seasonality. Together, these proxy signals are consistent with global trends of long-term cooling and  
323 falling global mean sea level during this interval (Berends et al., 2021; Haq and Ogg, 2024; Haq et al., 1987; Holbourn  
324 et al., 2021; Jakob et al., 2020; Miller et al., 2020; Rohling et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2007b; Westerhold et al., 2020),  
325 as well as with evidence of diminished chemical weathering and progressive weakening of the EASM system (Clift,  
326 2025; Clift et al., 2014; Li et al., 2004; Wan et al., 2006; Wan et al., 2010a; Wan et al., 2010b; Wang et al., 2019).  
327 This interpretation is further supported by declining K/Al ratios observed at ODP Site 1146 between 5 and 3.8 Ma by  
328 Tian et al. (2011), which likewise indicate reduced chemical weathering and a shift towards long-term drying.  
329 At ODP Site 1148, MAR increases near the onset of Taiwan's orogenesis ( $\sim$ 5.4 Ma), reflecting enhanced sediment  
330 export from rapid erosion the emerging orogen. An increase in magnetic susceptibility is also observed  $\sim$ 5.4–4.3 Ma  
331 (Fig. 4), consistent with the erosion of passive-margin seafloor sediments enriched in magnetic minerals that was  
332 uplifted during the early stages of Taiwan's orogenesis (Hsieh et al., 2023b). After  $\sim$ 4.3 Ma, magnetic susceptibility  
333 declines, coinciding with the deposition of the Yutengping Sandstone and increasing influx of sediment derived from  
334 the metasedimentary core of Taiwan, which is comparatively depleted in magnetic minerals (Hsieh et al., 2023b).  
335 Unlike Site 1146, the Hm/Gt record at Site 1148 does not appear to track long-term the monsoon drying. Rather, the  
336 abrupt decrease in the Hm/Gt record at  $\sim$ 5.4 Ma is attributed to the influx of hematite-depleted sediment from Taiwan  
337 as it emerged from the Pacific Ocean. The dispersal of Taiwan-sourced sediment into the northern SCS was facilitated  
338 by deep-water currents and by the westward-flowing Kuroshio Branch, both of which developed following the  
339 formation of the Taiwan and Luzon straits during orogenesis. Changes in ocean circulation during the early to middle  
340 Pliocene are also captured by K/Al records, which show contrasting trends between intermediate water depths (e.g.,



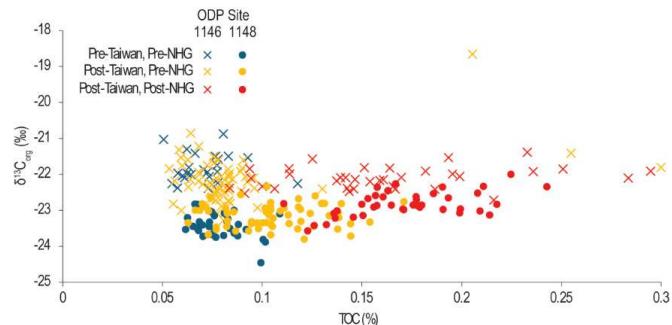
341 Site 1146) and deep water settings (e.g., Site 1148), which is interpreted as reflecting shifts in sediment dispersal  
342 pathways to the northern SCS (Tian et al., 2011). The subsequent rise in Hm/Gt near ~3.2 Ma is attributed to the  
343 northward remobilization of Taiwan-sourced sediment following the formation of Taiwan Warm Current (Fig. 3;  
344 Hsieh et al., 2024). The gamma-ray record also tracks the orogenic evolution of Taiwan at both ODP sites (Fig. 4) and  
345 parallels observations from the TWFB (Fig. 3): values are elevated during the deposition of mudstone-rich Shihliufen  
346 Shale, decrease during formation of sand-dominated Yutengping Sandstone and rise again with the deposition of  
347 mudstone-rich Chinshui Shale and Cholan Fm. The increase in sediment export from Taiwan is also reflected in the  
348 Ti/Ca record, which increases after ~5.4 Ma, in response to intensified physical erosion and elevated terrestrial flux  
349 linked to the onset of Taiwan orogenesis.

350 After ~3 Ma, the onset of Northern Hemisphere Glaciation (NHG) resulted in enhanced seasonality and an  
351 intensification of the EASM (Fig. 5; Clift, 2025; Clift et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2006; Wan et al., 2007a; Wan et al.,  
352 2007b). Although global cooling characterized the late Plio-Pleistocene (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005), sea-surface  
353 temperatures in the northwest Pacific remained sufficiently high (26.5–27.0°C) to sustain tropical cyclone activity  
354 (Tory and Frank, 2010). This combined influence of intensified EASM and frequent tropical-cyclone precipitation  
355 promoted elevated sediment production and large-scale export of fine-grained material enriched TOC from river  
356 catchments into offshore depocenters. This is reflected in both sites by higher gamma-ray values, increased MAR, and  
357 rising Ti/Ca ratios (Fig. 4). Enhanced seasonality is further expressed in the greater amplitude observed in gamma-  
358 ray, Hm/Gt, and Ti/Ca records.

### 359 **5.2 Influence of terrestrial sediment export vs. primary production on carbon burial**

360 Organic carbon buried in the SCS can be broadly divided into two components: (1) terrestrial organic matter derived  
361 from rock, soil, and terrestrial vegetation exported from adjacent landmasses by precipitation-driven erosion, and (2)  
362 marine organic matter produced by primary productivity and exported to the seafloor.

363 At Site 1146, organic carbon accumulation, like bulk sediment accumulation, is primarily controlled by long-term  
364 global sea-level fall associated with the onset and intensification of NHG (Fig. 5). Total organic carbon values are  
365 closely coupled with MAR, with increases in sediment flux consistently accompanied by higher TOC concentrations  
366 (Fig. 4). Although  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values show a modest decline between ~5.7 and 4.5 Ma, which is consistent with episodic  
367 dilution by terrestrial organic inputs, values remain within the marine range (Table 1). The gradual increase in  
368 terrestrial organic matter at ODP Site 1146 is interpreted to reflect increased Eurasian clastic influx under conditions  
369 of long-term sea-level fall. The cross-plot of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and TOC also shows no distinct shift between organic matter  
370 delivered to Site 1146 before and after the emergence of Taiwan. As sediment transported eastward from the Eurasian  
371 margin would have longer residence times in the ocean, the dilution of land-derived organic material by marine organic  
372 material would increase, resulting in a more marine  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  signature (Dashtgard et al., 2021) which supports the  
373 interpretation that organic material is derived mainly from Eurasia via the Pearl River (Fig. 6).



374

375 **Figure 6: Cross-plot of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and TOC measured from ODP Sites 1146 and 1148. Values are grouped according to major**  
376 **tectonic and climate changes: 1) pre-emergence of Taiwan and pre-Northern Hemisphere Glaciation, 2) post-emergence of**  
377 **Taiwan and pre-Northern Hemisphere Glaciation, and 3) post-emergence of Taiwan and post-Northern Hemisphere**  
378 **Glaciation. Note the distinct trends before and after Taiwan's emergence and Northern Hemisphere Glaciation. Site 1146**  
379 **reflects Eurasian sediment input with marine organic matter dominance, while Site 1148 highlights Taiwan's influence,**  
380 **with enhanced marine productivity linked to nutrient export.**

381 In contrast, carbon burial at Site 1148 is primarily linked to the uplift and erosion of Taiwan and associated increase  
382 in sediment and nutrient delivery to the marine environment (Fig. 5). The onset of orogenesis in Taiwan at ~5.5 Ma  
383 coincides with a marked rise in MAR, followed by an increase in TOC beginning near ~4.9 Ma (Fig. 4). This pattern  
384 indicates significant export of terrestrial sediment from the rapidly uplifting Taiwan orogen, a process further  
385 amplified by the coupling between tropical cyclone and monsoon precipitation (Vaucher et al., 2023b). Notably, TOC  
386 increases proportionally with MAR, implying that carbon burial was not diluted by high sediment flux but rather  
387 enhanced by intensified sediment export, highlighting the role of Taiwan as a contributor of organic carbon in the  
388 northern SCS. The influence of sedimentation from Taiwan on organic matter buried at Site 1148 is also evident from  
389 the cross-plot between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and TOC, which shows a distinct increase in TOC prior to and after the emergence of  
390 Taiwan (Fig. 6).

391 Taiwan's steep topography and active tectonics generate exceptionally high sediment yields to adjacent marine  
392 systems (Dadson et al., 2004; Dadson et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2013). Turbidity currents, especially via submarine  
393 canyon systems (e.g., the Gaoping Submarine Canyon in southern Taiwan), efficiently transport organic-rich sediment  
394 eroded from Taiwan to deep-sea environments approximately 260 km offshore into the northeastern Manila Trench  
395 (Liu et al., 2009a; Liu et al., 2016; Nagel et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2017). Within the TWFB, this  
396 process is manifested as an abrupt increase in terrestrial organic matter and sand-rich deposition near ~4.9 Ma with  
397 the emplacement of the Yutengping Sandstone (Fig. 4). At Site 1148, TOC increases markedly in association with the  
398 emergence of Taiwan, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values remain stable above -25‰. While  $\text{C}_4$  plants are characterized by high  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$   
399 values (Table 1), and an expansion of  $\text{C}_4$  plants in the South China region has been documented since 35 Ma (Li et  
400 al., 2023; Xue et al., 2024), the organic carbon at Site 1148 is interpreted to be of marine in origin as  $\text{C}_3$  plants remain  
401 the dominant vegetation type in the study area (Luo et al., 2024; Still et al., 2003; Wang and Ma, 2016). Furthermore,  
402 sediment provenance markers (Section 5.1) indicate an influx of Taiwan-sourced material to Site 1148 after the  
403 emergence of Taiwan, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values in the TWFB reflect an increase in terrestrial organic matter. The presence  
404 of Taiwan-sourced material combined with high proportions of marine organic carbon at Site 1148 suggests that  
405 terrestrial organic matter from Taiwan was largely confined to proximal coastal environments, and that enhanced



406 carbon burial in deeper settings reflects processes beyond direct terrigenous input. Likewise, terrestrial organic matter  
407 contribution from the Pearl River into deeper-water depocenters is limited, as sediment is dispersed along the  
408 continental shelf by alongshore currents (Liu et al., 2010b; Liu et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2007a). During transport and  
409 sedimentation, degradation does not appear to significantly alter the isotopic composition of organic matter, since  
410 there is little fractionation between reactants and products. If post-depositional alteration were a dominant control,  
411  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values should become progressively less negative with depth, as lighter isotopes are preferentially removed.  
412 However, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  records from the two sites show distinct trends, suggesting that the influence of post-depositional  
413 isotopic fractionation is insignificant.  
414 Taiwan's rapid denudation delivers large quantities of sediment and nutrients to the northern SCS, profoundly shaping  
415 basin productivity and carbon cycling. The export of bioessential nutrients stimulates intense coastal primary  
416 production, as reflected by modern chlorophyll-a and nitrogen distributions that peak along Taiwan's coast before  
417 rapidly declining offshore due to swift uptake (Ge et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020; Kao et al., 2006). Episodic inputs  
418 from tropical cyclones, which contribute up to 80% of summer particulate organic carbon, further amplify productivity  
419 and promote lateral dispersal of sediments (Liu et al., 2013). Marine organic matter produced through enhanced coastal  
420 productivity could be redistributed by deep-water contour currents and mesoscale eddies, (Hsieh et al., 2024; Lüdmann  
421 et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2015), enabling its bypass into the deeper water depths and resulting in  
422 the marine signature of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  records from the northern SCS.,  
423 Fluvial input from Taiwan, especially via submarine canyon systems, makes the northern SCS a depocenter for organic  
424 carbon burial, with important implications for the basin's sedimentary architecture, long-term carbon budget, and even  
425 hydrocarbon source rock potential (Kao et al., 2006). Paleoceanographic records indicate that productivity and organic  
426 carbon burial increased during glacial periods (Thunell et al., 1992), likely driven by nutrient delivery from Taiwan's  
427 sediments that enhanced the biological pump and contributed to regional carbon drawdown. In the modern setting,  
428 episodic sediment fluxes during typhoons sustain unusually high chlorophyll-a concentrations in deep SCS waters  
429 relative to the global ocean (Shih et al., 2019). Moreover, northeast monsoon-driven mixing between the China Coastal  
430 Current and Taiwan Strait Current, reinforced by sediment and nutrient inputs from Taiwan and the Yangtze River,  
431 sustains elevated productivity in the northern SCS (Huang et al., 2020). Collectively, these processes highlight  
432 Taiwan's sediment flux as a key linkage between monsoon forcing, nutrient cycling, and primary production across  
433 both modern and in the past.

### 434 **5.3 Influence of climate and monsoon on carbon burial**

435 In the TWFB, carbon geochemistry and gamma-ray data largely reflect the evolution of the foreland basin  
436 synchronously with the shifts in the regional climate regime (Fig. 3). During the deposition of the Chinshui Shale in  
437 the late Pliocene (~3.2 to 2.5 Ma), reconstructions for the northwest Pacific show relatively high global sea levels and  
438 stable sea-surface temperatures (Berends et al., 2021; Li et al., 2011). Such conditions favoured the accumulation of  
439 fine-grained sediment, while elevated sea levels deepened the TWFB and promoted offshore depositional  
440 environments-both of which are expressed in the Chinshui Shale (e.g., Nagel et al., 2013; Vaucher et al., 2023b).  
441 Greater water depths and increased distance from the terrestrial sediment sources also enhanced the relative



442 contribution of marine organic matter. The gamma-ray record of the TWFB strata further reveals depositional cycles  
443 related to interactions between EASM and tropical cyclone precipitation after ~4.92 Ma, with variability expressed at  
444 both short-eccentricity and precession frequency bands (Hsieh et al., 2023a; Vaucher et al., 2023b).  
445 During the early Pleistocene, with deposition of the Cholan Fm (~2.5–1.95 Ma), global sea level and regional sea-  
446 surface temperatures became markedly more variable (Berends et al., 2021; Li et al., 2011). The continued uplift and  
447 southwest migration of Taiwan promoted the development of shallow-marine depositional environments recorded in  
448 the Cholan Fm (e.g., Pan et al., 2015; Vaucher et al., 2023a; Vaucher et al., 2023b; Vaucher et al., 2021). This is  
449 expressed in the gamma-ray and carbon records as an increase in terrestrially sourced, sandstone-rich intervals with  
450 high variability (Fig. 3). The enhanced in export of coarser-grained sediment from land to sea is likely related to the  
451 onset of NHG, when repeated sea-level minima promoted clastic delivery to the basin (Vaucher et al., 2023b; Vaucher  
452 et al., 2021). In addition, global climate deterioration related to NHG intensified and destabilised the EASM, which  
453 would in turn increase sediment supply to the South China Sea (Wan et al., 2006; Wan et al., 2007a).  
454 In the northern SCS, MAR and TOC values and amplitudes at both ODP sites increased after ~3 Ma, consistent with  
455 increased sediment export (Fig. 4; Fig. 5). Paleoclimate reconstructions from East Asia likewise document a  
456 strengthening of the EASM during the late Pliocene, generally near ~3.5 Ma (Hoang et al., 2010; Nie et al., 2014; Xin  
457 et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2009). While the causal relationship between monsoon  
458 intensification and NHG remains debated (Nie et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2010b; Xin et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2009),  
459 long-term global cooling and sea-level fall coupled with intensified monsoon and tropical cyclone precipitation likely  
460 acted together to amplify sediment export from land to sea (Vaucher et al., 2023b). At the same time,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values  
461 at ODP Site 1148 increases after ~3 Ma, suggesting increasing marine contribution to organic carbon. This trend is  
462 attributed to enhanced marine primary production driven by nutrient enrichment. Independent evidence for increased  
463 marine primary productivity in this interval comes from elevated abundances of planktonic foraminifera  
464 *Neogloboquadrina dutertrei* and higher biogenic silica production (Wang et al., 2005b).

## 465 **6 Conclusion**

466 Analyses of late-Miocene to early Pleistocene sedimentary and geochemical records from shallow-marine strata of  
467 the Taiwan Western Foreland Basin and deep-sea sediment cores from the northern South China Sea (SCS) provide  
468 clear evidence for shifting pathways of carbon erosion, transport, and burial shaped by the interplay between tectonic  
469 forcing, climate variability, and oceanographic processes.  
470 Sediment provenance reveals marked spatial heterogeneity between the continental slope (ODP Site 1146) and the  
471 continental rise (ODP Site 1148), highlighting the influence of tectonic uplift and evolving ocean circulation on  
472 sediment mixing and deposition. Prior to ~5.4 Ma, sediment delivery to the northern SCS was dominated by Pearl  
473 River discharge. Taiwan's rapid emergence and erosion at ~5.4 Ma supplied large volumes of clastic material to the  
474 basin, which is expressed in sediment provenance records at Site 1148, whereas Site 1146 remained strongly  
475 influenced by Eurasian sources. Pearl River sediments were dispersed along the continental shelf and slope by  
476 alongshore currents but were largely obstructed from reaching deeper water depths by the northward-flowing Kuroshio  
477 Current and the shallow Taiwan Strait.



478 The onset of Northern Hemisphere Glaciation (NHG; ~3 Ma) further amplified sediment erosion and export across  
479 the basin. Long-term global cooling and sea-level fall, coupled with enhanced seasonality, drove the intensification of  
480 the East Asian Summer Monsoon. The resulting increase in monsoon rainfall, as well as persistent tropical cyclone  
481 activity, drove synchronous increases in mass-accumulation rate (MAR), magnetic susceptibility, and Ti/Ca values at  
482 both ODP sites, demonstrating the strong climatic imprint on sediment export. In addition, slightly higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$   
483 values after ~3 Ma indicate a greater marine contribution to organic matter, attributed to enhanced nutrient-driven  
484 marine primary production.

485 Organic carbon burial likewise reflects the combined influence of tectonic and climate forcing. At ODP Site 1146,  
486 total organic carbon (TOC) accumulation parallels MAR and is primarily controlled by long-term sea-level fall and  
487 NHG intensification.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values indicate that the bulk of organic matter remained marine in origin, with minor  
488 terrestrial contribution linked to Eurasian sediment export rather than to local tectonics. At ODP Site 1148, by contrast,  
489 organic carbon burial is closely tied to the Taiwan's uplift and erosion. Importantly, TOC scales proportionally with  
490 MAR, implying that organic matter burial was enhanced—not diluted—by high sediment flux. Despite Taiwan's steep  
491 relief, rapid tectonic uplift, and frequent typhoon- and monsoon-driven erosion generating exceptional sediment  
492 yields,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values indicate that most buried organic was marine. This suggests that Taiwan's erosion enhanced  
493 nutrient supply, stimulating coastal primary productivity. Marine organic matter produced in these settings was then  
494 redistributed offshore by turbidity currents through submarine canyon systems, bypassing the shelf and slope and  
495 accumulating in deep-sea depocenters of the northern SCS.

496 Overall, this study highlights the importance of resolving spatial heterogeneities in sedimentary climate archives.  
497 Disentangling the competing influences of tectonic and climate on sediment supply and carbon burial is critical for  
498 robust intercomparison of paleoclimate records, and for reconciling apparent inconsistencies among proxy  
499 reconstructions. Our findings also demonstrate that terrestrial sediment export contributes to carbon drawdown via  
500 two distinct pathways: (1) direct burial of eroded terrestrial organic matter and (2) nutrient supply that fuels marine  
501 primary production and subsequent burial of marine organic matter. This work establishes a direct link between the  
502 tectonic evolution of an arc-continent collisional orogen and changes in carbon storage in adjacent basins, and  
503 disentangles the mechanisms by which the erosion of mid-latitude orogens contributed to long-term carbon  
504 sequestration.

505 **Data availability**

506 The data that support the findings of this study will be submitted to PANGAEA upon acceptance.

507 **Author contribution**

508 A.I.H. was responsible for the design and conceptualization of this study, supervised by S.J. Data collection was  
509 completed by A.I.H., S.B., and R.V. A.I.H., T.A., L.L., B.B., L.K., and P.-L.W. were responsible for sample analysis.  
510 T.A., L.L., S.B., R.V., and S.J provided support in the interpretation of sedimentary paleoenvironmental proxies. All  
511 co-authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.



512 **Competing interests**

513 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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