A precursor to the Matuyama–Brunhes reversal in Chinese loess and its palaeomagnetic and stratigraphic significance

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SUMMARY
We report high-resolution palaeomagnetic results across the lower part of S8 in the Luochuan area, northwest of China using parallel subsets samples. A palaeomagnetic anomaly with low palaeointensity and disordered magnetic direction was identified ~21 ka prior to the Matuyama–Brunhes (MB) polarity reversal, and is consistent with the MB precursor observed from marine sediments and lava flows. This is the first convincing report of the MB precursor in terrestrial material (Chinese loess), which attests the global feature of the MB precursor. Constrained by the stratigraphic position of both the MB polarity reversal and the MB precursor, the loess unit L8 and palaeosol unit S8 of the Chinese loess sequence are undoubtedly tied to the marine isotope stages 18 and 19, respectively. This correlation is critical for an accurate understanding of the correspondences of palaeomagnetic records between the Chinese loess and marine sediments.

Key words: Magnetic fabrics and anisotropy; Palaeointensity; Reversals: process, timescale, magnetostratigraphy; Rock and mineral magnetism.

1 INTRODUCTION
Palaeomagnetic polarity reversals provide useful information not only for studying the dynamic evolution of the Earth’s interior, but also for constructing sedimentary age models based on magnetostratigraphy. The Matuyama–Brunhes palaeomagnetic polarity reversal (MBR, ~780 ka), accompanied by a low field intensity, has been widely recorded in various archives (Love & Mazaud 1997; Clement 2004; Singer et al. 2005, and references therein). In addition, an additional decrease in palaeointensity (DIP, Kent & Schneider 1995) of similar magnitude about 20 ka prior to the MBR has also been reported (Hartl & Tauxe 1996; Gratton et al. 2007; Brown et al. 2009). This was called a ‘precursor’ to the MBR (MB precursor or MBP hereafter) by Hartl & Tauxe (1996), and has also been observed in marine sediments (Hartl & Tauxe 1996; Gruyodo et al. 1999; Yamazaki & Oda 2001; Dinares-Turell et al. 2002; Carcaillot et al. 2003, 2004; Kissel et al. 2003; Yamazaki & Oda 2005; Macri et al. 2010; Suganuma et al. 2010), lava flows (Quidelleur et al. 2002; Singer et al. 2002; Brown et al. 2004; Petronille et al. 2005; Singer et al. 2005; Gratton et al. 2007), and ice core records (Dreyfus et al. 2008). The MBP indicates geomagnetic instability prior to the MBR (Hartl & Tauxe 1996) and can be considered as an independent magnetic feature just preceding the MBR (Kent & Schneider 1995), or as a process by which the magnetic flux diffuses from the solid inner core for sufficiently weakening the geomagnetic stability to allow the reversal to proceed (Singer et al. 2005).

Whether the precursor is an individual event or is involved in the MBR process remains uncertain (Raisbeck et al. 2006). Magnetic records from volcanic rocks often display discontinuous records of geomagnetic field behaviour (Gratton et al. 2007). Marine sediments can preserve continuous recording, but their magnetic signals are easily smoothed or shifted due to lock-in effects (Roberts & Winklhofer 2004). Furthermore, little is known about the MBP recording in terrestrial sediments.

The Chinese loess, as one of the most continuous terrestrial sediments, preserves not only long timescale and high-resolution records of palaeoclimate variability, but also detailed records of geomagnetic field behaviour (Liu et al. 2007). However, up to date there is no convincing report of the MBP recorded in Chinese loess. Magnetic anomaly named ‘BMPC’ (a precursor before the MBR) in the loess unit L9 in the Xi’an and Mangshan sections have been reported by Zheng et al. (1992) and (2007), but these anomalies seems to be due to a remagnetization (Wang et al. 2005; Jin & Liu 2011a) or to correspond to the Kamikatsu and/or the Santa Rosa geomagnetic excursion events (Yang et al. 2004; Wang et al. 2010).

Previous studies showed that the recording processes of the natural remanent magnetization (NRM) by loess are complicated (Zhou & Shackleton 1999; Spassov et al. 2003; Jin & Liu 2010, 2011a; Spassov et al. 2011). To faithfully determine a magnetic polarity reversal boundary or a shortly lived excursion, a statistical approach by using multiple parallel subsamples has been strongly recommended (Jin & Liu 2010). In this study, we will systematically
C. Jin, Q. Liu and J.C. Larrasoña investigate the palaeomagnetic behaviour from the Luochuan loess section by using such a multiple subsampling scheme. This enables us to test the reliability of the Chinese loess as recorder of the MBP, and provides the basis for discussing its stratigraphic significance.

2 SAMPLING AND EXPERIMENTS

The Luochuan section (35.7°N, 109.4°E) lies in the hinterland of the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP), northwest of China (Fig. 1), and consists of 33 loess and palaeosol units (~120 m thick) underlain by

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**Figure 1.** A schematic map showing the Chinese Loess Plateau and distribution of some marine cores recording the Matuyama–Brunhes precursor, such as ODP 1021 (Guyodo et al. 1999), ODP 983 (Channell & Kleiven 2000), ODP 1082C (Yamazaki & Oda 2001), LC07 (Dinares-Turell et al. 2002), ODP 1146 (Kissel et al. 2003), MD 972140 (Carcailllet et al. 2003; Carcailllet et al. 2004), MD 972143, 982187 (Yamazaki & Oda 2005; Suganuma et al. 2010), MD03–2595 (Macari et al. 2010). These cores are shown by squares. The star indicates the Luochuan section. Circles indicate other loess sections mentioned in the text. Triangles indicate the 12 cores compiled by Hartl & Tauxe (1996).
Figure 2. (a) Pedostratigraphy and (b–h) magnetic mineralogical parameters; (i) inclination of maximum-susceptibility axis ($K_{\text{max}}$ Inc); (j) inclination of minimum-susceptibility axis ($K_{\text{min}}$ Inc).

$\sim10$ m thick red clay (Liu 1985). Block samples ($7 \times 7 \times 10$ cm$^3$) were continuously collected from the loess unit L8 and the palaeosol unit S8 after removing surface weathering cover (pedostratigraphy in Fig. 2a), and were oriented in situ using a magnetic compass after sample surface was cut as horizontal as possible. In the lab, the block samples were sawn into 2.5 cm thick slices, and each slice was then cut into six cube specimens ($2 \times 2 \times 2$ cm$^3$). This resulted in six samples obtained at exactly the same stratigraphic level, with stratigraphic levels sampled at a resolution of $\sim2.5$ cm. Five sets of parallel samples (280 oriented specimens) over 150–290 cm were newly processed for establishing a magnetic stratigraphy. Besides, the sixth set of oriented specimens was used for the normalized parameters for construction of a relative palaeointensity (RPI) record. We define the top of L8 as the zero position.

The low field magnetic susceptibility ($\chi$, mass-specific) of the bulk samples was measured using a Bartington MS2 Susceptibility Meter (Bartington Instruments Ltd., Witney, UK). The anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) for all the oriented samples was measured using a KLY-3s Kappabridge (AGICO Ltd., Brno, Czech Republic) before thermal treatment. Bulk samples were selected for detailed rock magnetism analysis (crosses in Fig. 2b). Temperature-dependent susceptibility ($\chi-T$) curves were measured using an MFK1-FA Kappabridge (AGICO Ltd., Brno, Czech Republic) equipped with a CS-4 high-temperature furnace going from room temperature up to 700 °C in an argon atmosphere (the flow rate is about 100 ml min$^{-1}$) to avoid magnetic mineral alteration upon heating. Temperature-dependent saturation magnetization ($M_s-T$) curves were measured using a variable field translation balance (VFTB) system (Petersen Instruments, Munich, Germany). Samples for $M_s-T$ curves were heated in air using a field of 1 T. The temperature sweeping rate was 40 °C min$^{-1}$. Two samples from 35 and 187.5 cm were used for low-temperature (LT) magnetic measurement on a Quantum Designs single-axis superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) Magnetic Properties Measurement System (MPMS; Quantum Design, San Diego, CA, USA). Prior to LT measurements, the ambient field in the measurement chamber of the MPMS was adjusted to $<\pm0.5$ μT. Then the two samples were given an LT saturation isothermal remanent magnetization (LT-SIRM), that is, an isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquired in a 2.5 T field at 10 K after zero-field cooling from 300 K. The LT-SIRM demagnetization was measured during warming from 10 to 300 K.

IRM acquisition curves (with a maximum field of 2 T), backfield demagnetization curves and hysteresis parameters [including the saturation magnetization ($M_s$), saturation remanence ($M_r$), coercivity ($B_c$), coercivity of remanence ($B_r$)] were measured using a Princeton Measurements vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM3900; Princeton Measurements Corp., Princeton, NJ, USA). Hysteretic parameters were obtained after subtraction of the paramagnetic contribution. Anhysteretic remanent magnetization (ARM)
3 RESULTS

3.1 Coercivity analysis
The IRM acquisition curves for representative samples are almost identical. They climb quickly and almost reach saturation at 200 mT (Fig. 3a), which indicates the presence of low-coercivity magnetic minerals such as magnetite and/or maghemite. After 200 mT, the curves increase slightly and do not reach saturation until 2 T, which indicates the presence of high-coercivity magnetic minerals such as haematite and/or goethite. The stepwise demagnetization of SIRM using a DC backfield shows a low $B_{cr}$ (<41 mT) (Fig. 3b).

The hysteresis loops close at about 300 mT (Fig. 3c) and display a weakly wasp-waisted shape representing a mixed assemblage of magnetic minerals with low and high coercivity (Roberts et al. 1995). Hysteresis parameter ratios ($M_r/M_s$, $B_{cr}/B_c$) were plotted on a Day plot (Day et al. 1977; Dunlop 2002) to determine the domain state of magnetic minerals in samples (Fig. 3d). All data cluster tightly within the pseudo-single domain (PSD) field. This indicates that samples throughout the studied sequence are characterized by a magnetic assemblage with a similar grain size and composition.

3.2 Thermomagnetic experiments
Owing to the high sensitivity to the magnetic minerals changes during thermal treatments, the $\chi$–$T$ curve has been widely used as a routine rock magnetic tool to identify magnetic mineralogy and possible mineral transformation upon heating. The $M_s$–$T$ curve is generally preferred for determining the Curie temperature of natural samples. By combining these two techniques, the complexities due to the thermal alteration on raw samples can be highly reduced. In Figs 4(a) and (b), both the $\chi$–$T$ and $M_s$–$T$ curves display...
distinct decay towards 580 °C for all the selected samples, indicating the Curie temperature of magnetite. In addition, there is a slight concave shape between 300–450 °C of the $M_s$–$T$ curves during heating. The susceptibility decreases visibly at 300–500 °C for the $\chi$–$T$ curves during heating. The steady magnetic decreases after 300 °C are generally interpreted as the conversion of metastable maghemite to weakly magnetic haematite (Zhu et al. 1994a; Liu et al. 2005b). For most of the samples, $\chi$–$T$ curves are almost fully reversible for heating and cooling branches, which indicates limited mineral conversion during the thermal treatment. Exceptionally, for the sample from 32.5 cm, the room temperature susceptibility after cooling is twice in magnitude higher than the initial value, which is attributed to the neoformation of magnetite grains from iron-containing silicates/clays or to the formation of magnetite by reduction of haematite due to the burning of organic matter (Deng et al. 2004, 2005, 2006; Liu et al. 2005b; Deng 2008). However, for the $M_s$–$T$ curves, the magnetization after cooling is lower than the initial value, indicating that some inversion (e.g. maghemite to haematite) took place during heating (Heller et al. 1991; Zhu et al. 1994a,b; Liu et al. 2003a; Yang et al. 2008).

For the LT measurement, both samples display distinct Verwey transitions around 120 K, which is indicative of magnetite (Dunlop & Özdemir 1997) (Figs 4c and d), consistent with previous loess studies (Liu et al. 2003b; Deng 2008; Jin & Liu 2011a). These results further support the inferred homogeneity of the magnetic assemblage in both the studied loess (L8) and palaeosoil (S8).

### 3.3 AMS results

The inclination of maximum-susceptibility axes are $<15^\circ$, and 98 per cent of the inclinations of minimum-susceptibility axes are $>75^\circ$, perpendicular to the horizontal plane (Figs 2i and j). The shape of the AMS ellipsoid is oblate and is controlled mainly by foliation ($F > 1.003$). This indicates that the magnetic fabrics of the studied sediments represent a primary sedimentary fabric without apparent disorder and disturbance (Zhu et al. 1999, 2004; Guo et al. 2002; Liu et al. 2005a; Wang et al. 2005; Jin & Liu 2010; Wang et al. 2010; Jin & Liu 2011a, b; Fig. 5).
3.4 Palaeomagnetic directional results

The NRM contains two magnetic components (Fig. 6). The LT component (≤300 °C) of the NRM is commonly considered to be a viscous remanent magnetization (VRM) (e.g. Heller & Liu 1982; Pan et al. 2001; Wang et al. 2005). The characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) for most of the samples (95 per cent) was isolated between 300–500 °C using principal component analysis (Kirschvink 1980; Figs 6b, e, h and k). The magnetic directions are disordered above 580 °C (Figs 6c, f, i and l). This behaviour points to magnetite as the main ChRM carrier. Finally, an abnormal zone of magnetic direction can be clearly determined by five subsets of parallel samples at the interval of 220–270 cm (Fig. 7).

3.5 Relative palaeointensity

Combined palaeo- and rock-magnetic results suggest that PSD detrital magnetite particles of aeolian origin are the dominant remanence carriers in both L8 and S8 in the Luochuan region. Ratios of SIRM/χ, χ_{ARM}/SIRM and χ_{ARM}/χ, which can be used as grain size indicators for magnetite (Evans & Heller 2003), were widely employed in loess studies (e.g. Bloemendal & Liu 2005; Deng et al. 2005; Deng 2008; Jin & Liu 2011a). These ratios vary within a limited range of 6.26 × 10^{-2}–10.22 × 10^{2} A m^{-1}, 3.82–5.34 and 4.49–7.50 × 10^{-4} m A^{-1}, respectively (Figs 2f–h), indicating the relative uniform of the magnetic grain size. The magnetic concentrations also change in a limited range (Figs 2b–e). These results indicate that the studied sediments from the Luochuan section satisfy the criteria for establishing reliable RPI records (Tauxe 1993).

The sixth set of samples for RPI normalized parameters was given an ARM first. The ARM was treated with 300 °C thermal demagnetization and then AF of 100 mT demagnetization. Then, SIRM was imparted and followed by another 300 °C thermal demagnetization. The residual magnetization of NRM, ARM and SIRM after 300 °C thermal demagnetization is referred to as NRM300, ARM300 and SIRM300, respectively. Thermal treatments with 300 °C were selected to eliminate influences of the VRM in samples which could be easily removed with thermal demagnetization less than 300 °C. The RPI was represented using NRM300 of each set of parallel specimens which are used for magnetic stratigraphy normalized by χ, ARM300 and SIRM300 to eliminate the contributions of concentration of magnetic grains in samples. All the remanences were mass-specific. The ratios of NRM300/χ, NRM300/ARM300 and NRM300/SIRM300 were normalized by the average of each sequence, respectively (Fig. 8). These ratios have been used by several previous studies, such as NRM300/χ in Zhu et al. (1994b), NRM300/ARM300 in Zhu et al. (1999) and NRM300/χ, NRM300/ARM300 in Pan et al. (2001). The stacked RPI records obtained using the bootstrap method (Tauxe et al. 1991) of every ratio for five sets of samples are also similar (Figs 8p–r).

There are two clear DIPs at the intervals of 280–200 and 140–50 cm (denoted as DIP1 and DIP2, respectively, Fig. 8), both accompanied with disordered magnetic directions as shown in Fig. 7.

Although curves of NRM300/χ, NRM300/ARM300 and NRM300/SIRM300 resemble each other, SIRM300 was selected to construct the RPI because the SIRM and NRM have similar magnetic carriers in Chinese loess (Liu et al. 2005a).

4 DISCUSSION

4.1 Determination of the MBP in Chinese loess

The correlation between the RPI and the corresponding normalizer can be used to test the reliability of the RPI record (Fig. 9). The RPI is linearly related to NRM300 (Figs 9p–t), but not correlated with the corresponding normalizers (Figs 9a–o). This indicates little contamination of the RPI by palaeoclimatic variability. The two DIPs can well be correlated with the 10Be flux peaks (thicker line in Fig. 10a), a proxy inversely correlated to the Earth’s magnetic field (Dreyfus et al. 2008), and with the two DIPs in the 12 marine cores (Fig. 10c) (Hartl & Tauxe 1996). Such a strong correlation among different records demonstrates that our newly constructed RPI should mainly reflect changes in the geomagnetic palaeointensity.

The uniformity of magnetic minerals and evidence for undisturbed sedimentary fabrics reveal that the magnetic anomaly of both directions and RPI across 270–220 cm and 121–74 cm was not caused by depositional or post-depositional disturbance, or pedogenesis based on the consistence of ChRM directions outside the zones of magnetic anomaly. The disordered magnetic directions were accompanied with clear DIPs in the intervals of 280–200 and 140–50 cm (Fig. 7). These behaviours sufficiently satisfy the criteria summarized by Zhu et al. (1999) to determine a geomagnetic event in loess. Therefore, the studied interval indeed recorded two geomagnetic anomaly events. Previous study indicates that DIP2 corresponds to the MBR (Jin & Liu 2010). Then the DIP1 probably coincides with the MBP, which is located in the lower part of S8 (Fig. 10b).

A newly reported high-resolution magnetic stratigraphy of the Luochuan section (Liu et al. 2010) provides us an opportunity to estimate the mean accumulation rate (MAR) based on the assumption of a constant accumulation rate for the loess–palaeosol sequences. The MB boundary (MBB) and the upper Jaramillo boundary (UJB) were located at 53 and 67.8 m, respectively (Liu et al. 2010). The MAR within the Brunhes chron accounts to 6.79 cm ka^{-1} and that between the UJB and the MBB is about 7.05 cm ka^{-1}, according to
Figure 6. Orthogonal projections of progressive thermal demagnetization of natural remanent magnetization (NRM) for four representative specimens at the Luochuan section at (a–c) 152.5 cm, (d–f) 187.5 cm and (g–i) 230 cm (reverse polarity) and (j–l) 270 cm (normal polarity). Each specimen is shown in three subgraphs marked with different demagnetized temperatures. Solid (open) circles represent projections onto the horizontal (vertical) plane. Demagnetization temperature is given in degrees Celsius.
Figure 7. Magnetic stratigraphy (parallel samples Sets A–E) of L8 and S8 in the interval of 60–290 cm at the Luochuan section. Dec, Declination; Inc, Inclination; VGP Lat, virtual geomagnetic pole latitude; MBR, Matuyama–Brunhes reversal. Directional anomalies during the MBR and its precursor are shaded. The colour lines are normalized relative palaeointensity (RPI, refers to NRM300/SIRM300) after five-point smoothing for each subset of parallel samples. Grey lines are background values. NRM300 and SIRM300 are residual magnetization of natural remanent magnetization and saturation isothermal remanent magnetization after 300 °C thermally demagnetization, respectively.

the commonly accepted astrochronological ages for the MBB and the UJB (Shackleton et al. 1990). The average of the two MAR is 6.92 cm ka\(^{-1}\). The interval between the midpoints of the two zones of magnetic anomaly is about 147.5 cm thick (Fig. 10b), corresponding to 21.3 ka. This is consistent with records from marine sediments, lava flows and ice cores, where the MBP is always recorded around 20 ka prior to the MBR [e.g. 15–16 ka (Kent & Schneider 1995; Hartl & Tauxe 1996; Yamazaki & Oda 2001; Dinares-Turell et al. 2002), 18 ka (Singer et al. 2005), 20.5 ka (Channell & Kleiven 2000), 20 ka (Kissel et al. 2003), 23 ka (Dreyfus et al. 2008) prior to the MBR, Fig. 10a]. This validates the existence of the MBP in Chinese loess, and gives support for a global nature of the MBP.

Compared to the RPI, the MBP is less well defined by the direction data in this study. Magnetic directions for five sets of parallel samples outside the abnormal intervals (270–220 cm and 121–74 cm) are consistent with each other. For each set of subsample, there are several samples that display first-order excursionary behaviour in the 220–270 cm interval (Fig. 7). However, these behaviours may be counterfeits. The disordered magnetic directions were dominated caused by the low palaeointensity during anomaly of the geomagnetic field, which could weaken the oriented alignment of the detrital magnetite particles from original source after dust deposition in the CLP (Jin & Liu 2010), further indicating the incapability of loess in the studied area to record rapid geomagnetic reversal information, especially during a low palaeointensity period. Recently, Spassov et al. (2011) have simulated the termination recording of the Olduvai subchron in the Lingtai section. They conclude that loess in the central CLP ‘are poor candidates for tracking short-term geomagnetic field behaviour such as polarity transitions, geomagnetic excursions and palaeosecular variation’, consistent with our previous study (Jin & Liu 2010). Therefore, only the lasting stratigraphic thickness, corresponding to a duration of about 7.2–11.5 ka (estimated by thickness of the direction abnormal zone and the low RPI zone, respectively, based on the accumulation rate of 6.92 cm ka\(^{-1}\)), and the stratigraphic location of the MBP, can be defined statistically by using the five sets of direction data. We failed to obtain the detailed geomagnetic field morphology during period of direction anomaly due to the complex processes of NRM recording in Chinese loess (Zhou & Shackleton 1999; Spassov et al. 2011). Similar excursionary behaviour during the DIP1 period have also been presented in ODP 805B, 803B, 804C, DSDP 609B cores, which were considered to be affected by either an unremoved or unremovable overprinting (Hartl & Tauxe 1996).

Recent magnetic modelling shows that the course of MB transition is very complex (e.g. Ingham & Turner 2008; Olson et al. 2012).
About 20 ka prior to the MBR, the dipole field intensity decreased gradually, followed by a precursor period with a multipolar field at the core–mantle boundary. This was followed by the recovery of the dipole and then another decrease that corresponds to the MBR (Olson et al. 2011). There is a large patch of reverse flux appearing in the Southern Hemisphere just prior to the MBR (Ingham & Turner 2008). Meanwhile, a similar patch of reverse flux about 15–20 ka prior to the MBR was also observed (Ingham & Turner 2008). Our observations are consistent with these dynamo models. Although the duration and low RPI magnitude of the MBP are comparable to those of the MBR in this study, and are approximately consistent with duration of excursions (5–10 ka) within the Brunhes (Langerais et al. 1997), there is no convincing evidence from this study to define the MBP as an individual geomagnetic event. It should therefore be considered as a precursor to the MBR as Kent & Schneider (1995) suggested, marking the transition-field instability from the Matuyama to Brunhes chron (Hartl & Tauxe 1996) and giving therefore support to the dynamo models of Ingham & Turner (2008) and Olson et al. (2011).

4.2 Stratigraphic significances

Palaeoclimate records preserved in the Chinese loess can be well correlated with marine sediment records (e.g. Ding et al. 2002). However, there is a long-standing debate on the stratigraphic correlation of palaeomagnetic reversal boundaries between marine sediments and loess (Zhu et al. 1998; Zhou & Shackleton 1999; Heslop et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2006; Liu et al. 2008). Central to this debate...
Figure 9. Relativity test between NRM300/SIRM300 with $\chi$, ARM300, SIRM300 and NRM300. NRM300, ARM300 and SIRM300 are residual magnetization of natural remanent magnetization, anhysteretic remanent magnetization and saturation isothermal remanent magnetization after 300°C thermally demagnetization, respectively.

is the potential NRM lock-in depth in Chinese loess. Large-scale lock-in models proposed that the MBB in Chinese loess has been variably displaced downwards (tens of centimetres to 3 m) from S7 to L8 or S8 in different areas (Zhou & Shackleton 1999). However, this point has been argued by many loess studies in which shallow lock-in depth was proposed (Zhu et al. 1994a, 1998, 2006; Pan et al. 2002; Wang et al. 2006; Liu et al. 2008; Yang et al. 2008, 2010; Wang & Løvlie 2010). Sedimentological redeposition experiments...
suggested that ChRM-carrier magnetic particles in the deposited dusts can be fixed permanently along the ambient field after the initial wetting (Wang & Løvlie 2010) and that the capability of the deposited loess dust to acquire a post-detrital remanent magnetization (pDRM) is enhanced with water content in sediments (Zhao & Roberts 2010). Recently, the termination of the Olduvai subchron recorded in the Lingtai section has been simulated after eliminating the noisy signals during the transition from the upper Olduvai normal polarity to the Matuyama reverse polarity (Spassov et al. 2011). Assumption that precursors occurs about 20 ka prior to the transition, the experimental observations are in agreement with the modelled remanence records when the model was calculated with shallower lock-in depths. Meanwhile, the large NRM lock-in depth conflicts with this model (Spassov et al. 2011). Indeed, there is a precursor about 21 ka prior to the MBR in the Luochuan area. However, we cannot confirm whether the case model calculation for the Lingtai section of Spassov et al. (2011) is applicable to the loess in the Luochuan area. It is still difficult to quantify the exact lock-in depth in Chinese loess directly at present. Owing to the complexity of pedogenesis in different areas spatially distributed under different climate condition in the CLP, therefore, caution must be taken to extrapolate the lock-in depth in Chinese loess from this case study. However, it seems spatially consistent for the incapability of loess to record rapid geomagnetic reversal information from case studies in Mangshan (Jin & Liu 2011b), Lingtai (Spassov et al. 2011) and Luochuan sections (this study).

A statistical age of 793 ± 3 ka from the $^{40}$Ar/$^{39}$Ar ages of the lavas in Tahiti, Chile and La Palma (Singer et al. 2005) is consistent with ages for the MBP from marine sediments, such as 793 ka at ODP 983 (Channell & Kleiven 2000), 788–795 ka at ODP Hole 1082C (Yamazaki & Oda 2001) and 790–795 ka at ODP Holes 767B and 769A (Kent & Schneider 1995) based on oxygen isotope
stratigraphy, associated with 793 ka from the Dome C ice core (Dreyfus et al. 2008). These MBP ages were all constrained in the forepart of marine isotope stage (MIS) 19 (Lisiecki & Raymo 2005). Based on the stratigraphic position of the MBP in the lower part of S8 in Chinese loess and in the forepart of MIS 19 in marine sediments, associated with the position of the MBP in the transitional zone between S8 and L8 in loess, and between MIS 19 and 18 in marine sediments, L8 and S8 should be correlated to MIS 18 and 19, respectively (Figs 10a and b).

5 CONCLUSIONS

A high-resolution magnetic stratigraphy for the interval of L8 and S8 reveals two magnetically abnormal zones involving RPI lows and disordered directions in the intervals of 74–121 and 220–270 cm. The former one has been ascribed to the MBR. The latter one is ascribed to a precursor occurred at about 21 ka prior to the MBR, conventionally named MBP. Although detailed morphology cannot be tracked in the studied area, the recording of the MBP in Chinese loess further indicates that the geomagnetic event is probably global in extent and the MB transitional process is complex. The stratigraphic position of the MBR and MBP in Chinese loess and marine sediments further demonstrate the correlation of L8 and S8 to MIS 18 and 19, respectively.

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