

# 1 A constant Chinese Loess Plateau dust source since the 2 Late Miocene

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14 The Pliocene-Pleistocene boundary marks a major change in global climate and East Asian  
15 monsoon dynamic. However, the role of the global atmospheric dust-cycle over this time is  
16 unclear; in particular, whether, changes in the dust cycle influenced climate change, or  
17 resulted from it. Chinese loess records past dust-cycle history and the influences of  
18 aridification and monsoon circulation over the last 40 Ma. Previous work on the Chinese  
19 Loess Plateau argue over whether changes in dust source occur at the Pliocene-Pleistocene  
20 boundary, or at 1.2 Ma, despite these intervals marking major shifts in monsoon dynamics  
21 (Ding et al., 2000; Lu, 2015). We present Sr, Nd and Hf isotope data from multiple sites and  
22 show that dust source largely remains unchanged across these boundaries. Shifts in  
23 geochemistry are due to changes in grain-size and weathering. These tracer isotopes show  
24 that dust was dominantly sourced from the Northern Tibetan Plateau, with some input from  
25 the local bedrock. This shows that a major established and constant dust source on the  
26 Tibetan Plateau has been active and unchanged since late Miocene, despite dramatically  
27 changing climate conditions. Changes in loess accumulation are a function of climate change  
28 in Tibetan Plateau source regions rather than effects from increased aridification over the  
29 Pliocene-Pleistocene boundary.

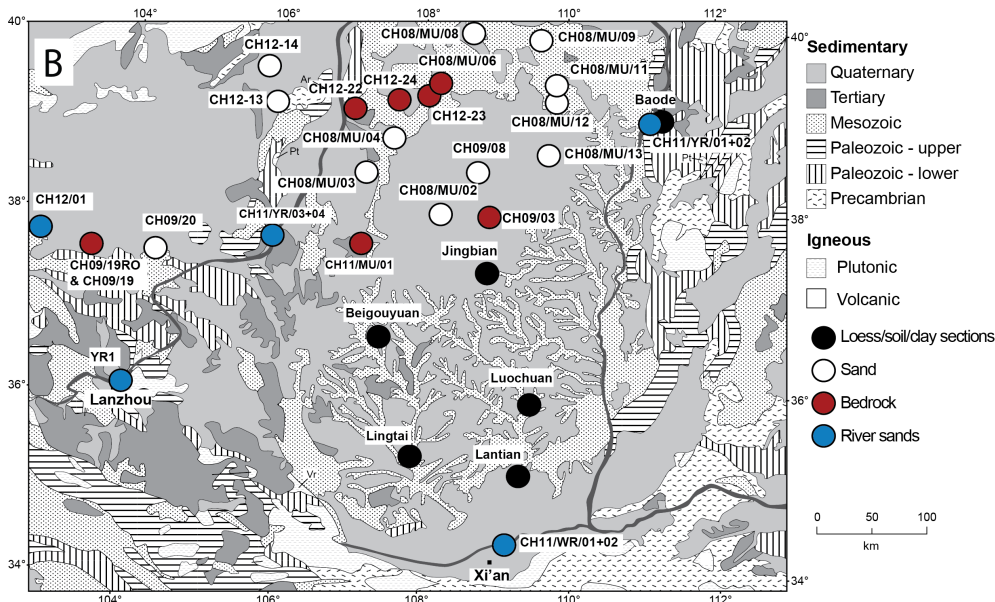
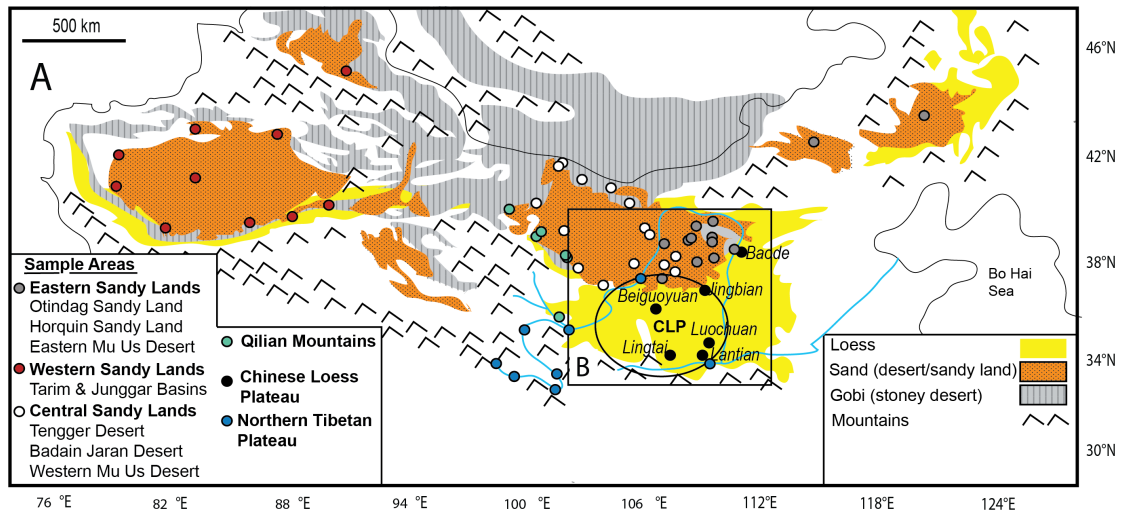
## 30 1 INTRODUCTION

31 Atmospheric dust dynamics play a central but poorly understood role in climate change,  
32 with past source activity identified as a key focus for future research (Merkel et al., 2014).  
33 Despite the significance for understanding Cenozoic global climate change, little is known  
34 about the evolution of the dust cycle during the major global climate reorganizations of the  
35 Pliocene and Quaternary. Wind-blown dust deposits on the Chinese Loess Plateau are  
36 recognized as one of the most valuable terrestrial climate archives available, spanning at  
37 least the last 25 Ma, making the sequence the longest and most continuous dust archive on  
38 the planet (Guo et al., 2002; Licht et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2010). The Loess Plateau is located in  
39 north-central China, and contains a near unique, detailed record of dust dynamics across the  
40 Pliocene and Quaternary. At 2.5 Ma a marked change is seen from Pliocene 'Red Clay'  
41 deposits to Quaternary soils and loess (Ding et al., 2000; Porter et al., 2001). The deposition  
42 and diagenesis of these sediments is intimately tied to climate, and the sources of Loess  
43 Plateau dust have been hypothesized to be a major controlling factor in glacial-interglacial  
44 climate changes in the Quaternary (Watson et al., 2000). What remains unclear is whether  
45 the shifts in climate and the nature of wind-blown dust across the Neogene and Quaternary  
46 are tied to shifts in dust source. This represents a major gap in understanding of how dust  
47 influences and responds to global and regional climate change.

48 Investigations into loess sources have used a variety of techniques including whole rock Nd  
49 and Sr isotopes, major and trace element chemistry, magnetic susceptibility, zircon U-Pb,  
50 and heavy mineral analysis. Each of these methods provides slightly different information  
51 about dust sources. For example, using whole rock Nd and Sr isotopes or major/trace  
52 elements to establish provenance has the advantage of allowing investigation of all grain-  
53 sizes and the disadvantage of averaging out potentially distinct sediment source signatures  
54 (e.g. Ding et al. 2002; Gallet et al. 1996). To tackle this issue, recent studies have used zircon  
55 U-Pb (Bird et al., 2015; Che and Li, 2013; Licht et al., 2016; Nie et al., 2015; Pullen et al.,  
56 2011; Stevens et al., 2013; Stevens and Lu, 2010; Xiao et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018, 2016).  
57 Most of these single-grain studies suggest that the northern Tibetan Plateau is the dominant  
58 source of the loess with input from the North China Craton (Bird et al., 2015; Che and Li,  
59 2013; Nie et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018, 2016). A problem with this approach is that zircons  
60 are predominantly derived from granitoids, inevitably biasing the dataset towards these  
61 sources. Furthermore, only the coarser (often >40 $\mu$ m) zircons are analysed due to analytical  
62 limitations and this can introduce a size bias to data (e.g. Bird et al. 2015). Finally, as zircon is

63 an extremely robust mineral it can survive many cycles of sediment recycling and may not  
64 always provide insight into the most recent sediment transport phase.

65 Previous single grain and whole rock studies are unclear about the nature of dust source  
66 change through time. This is both true for whether variation in sources can be related to  
67 glacial/interglacial cycles (Jahn et al., 2001; Pullen et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2008) and for  
68 longer term source shifts. Changes in loess source have been reported at 1.2 Ma (Chen and  
69 Li, 2013; Sun, 2005), and 2.5 Ma (Chen et al., 2007; Nie et al., 2014; Sun and Zhu, 2010).  
70 These source changes are seen in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  data, in some cases in  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  (e.g. Sun 2005;  
71 Chen & Li 2013) and in one case Pb isotopes (Sun and Zhu, 2010). In addition to these  
72 geochemical datasets the sequence on the Loess Plateau changes from loess/soil to Red Clay  
73 around the Pliocene-Pleistocene boundary at c. 2.5 Ma (e.g. Sun 2005). These studies  
74 suggest that there is a change in source or type of material delivered to the Plateau at this  
75 time. Other work suggests that the source was constant from 7 to 1.2 Ma when there was a  
76 decrease in the amount of material transported from the Qilian Mountains and a shift in  
77 palaeosol frequency (Chen and Li, 2013). However these potential variations in source are  
78 not seen in other studies using  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  (Gallet et al. 1996; Wang et al. 2007),  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$   
79 (Chauvel et al., 2014) or some single grain zircon U-Pb studies (Bird et al., 2015). Thus, at  
80 present there is a major disagreement about a fundamental aspect of Cenozoic dust and  
81 climate evolution. Here we present new data from 134 samples (for full sample details see  
82 Supplementary Data Table 1) obtained from the Chinese Loess Plateau and potential source  
83 areas (see Fig. 1), along with published data, which demonstrate that dust sources show no  
84 systematic change from Miocene to Holocene times.



85

86 *Figure 1, Samples and study area. A - showing the location of desert and river samples and the major Late*  
 87 *Cenozoic desert and loess deposits for samples within this study. B - Showing the location of samples from around*  
 88 *the Chinese Loess Plateau and Mu Us Desert, with sample numbers (for more details on samples see*  
 89 *Supplementary Data Table 1. Abbreviations are CLP - Chinese Loess Plateau; SR - Shui River; UB - Ulan Buh Sandy*  
 90 *Land; WR - Wey River. (Bird et al., 2015; Stevens et al., 2013).*

## 91 2 METHODS

92 Nd, Sr and Hf analyses were undertaken at NIGL, Keyworth, UK on a single dissolution. The  
 93 whole rock powders were leached using 5 ml of 10 % acetic acid for 30 minutes at 60°C to  
 94 remove carbonate then washed in Milli-Q water and dried. Mixed  $^{149}\text{Sm}$ - $^{150}\text{Nd}$ ,  $^{176}\text{Lu}$ - $^{180}\text{Hf}$   
 95 and single  $^{84}\text{Sr}$  and  $^{87}\text{Rb}$  isotope tracers were then weighed and added and the samples were  
 96 digested by standard HF/HNO<sub>3</sub> dissolution. Early samples were not mixed with the  $^{176}\text{Lu}$ - $^{180}\text{Hf}$   
 97 spike; these samples have no Hf concentration data. Hf, Nd and Sr were separated using  
 98 standard ion-exchange procedures.

99 Nd and Sr were analysed in a Thermo Scientific Triton mass spectrometer in multi-dynamic  
100 mode. Nd data were normalized to  $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.7219$  and Sr data were normalized to  
101  $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr} = 0.1194$ . Across the time of analysis, 57 analyses of the JND-i standard (Tanaka et  
102 al., 2000) gave a mean value of  $0.512102 \pm 0.000009$  (10.4 ppm, 1-sigma). All  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$   
103 values were normalized to a preferred value of 0.512115 for JND-i. 17 analyses of standard  
104 La Jolla (Lugmair and Carlson, 1978) gave  $0.511860 \pm 0.000008$  (12.8 ppm, 1-sigma). 176  
105 analyses of NBS987 across the time of analysis gave a value of  $0.710251 \pm 0.000007$  (9 ppm,  
106 1-sigma). NBS987 standards analysed with the samples gave a value of  $0.710251 \pm 0.000007$   
107 (7.8 ppm, 1-sigma, n=14). This is within analytical uncertainty of the preferred value for this,  
108 so no secondary correction of the data was required.

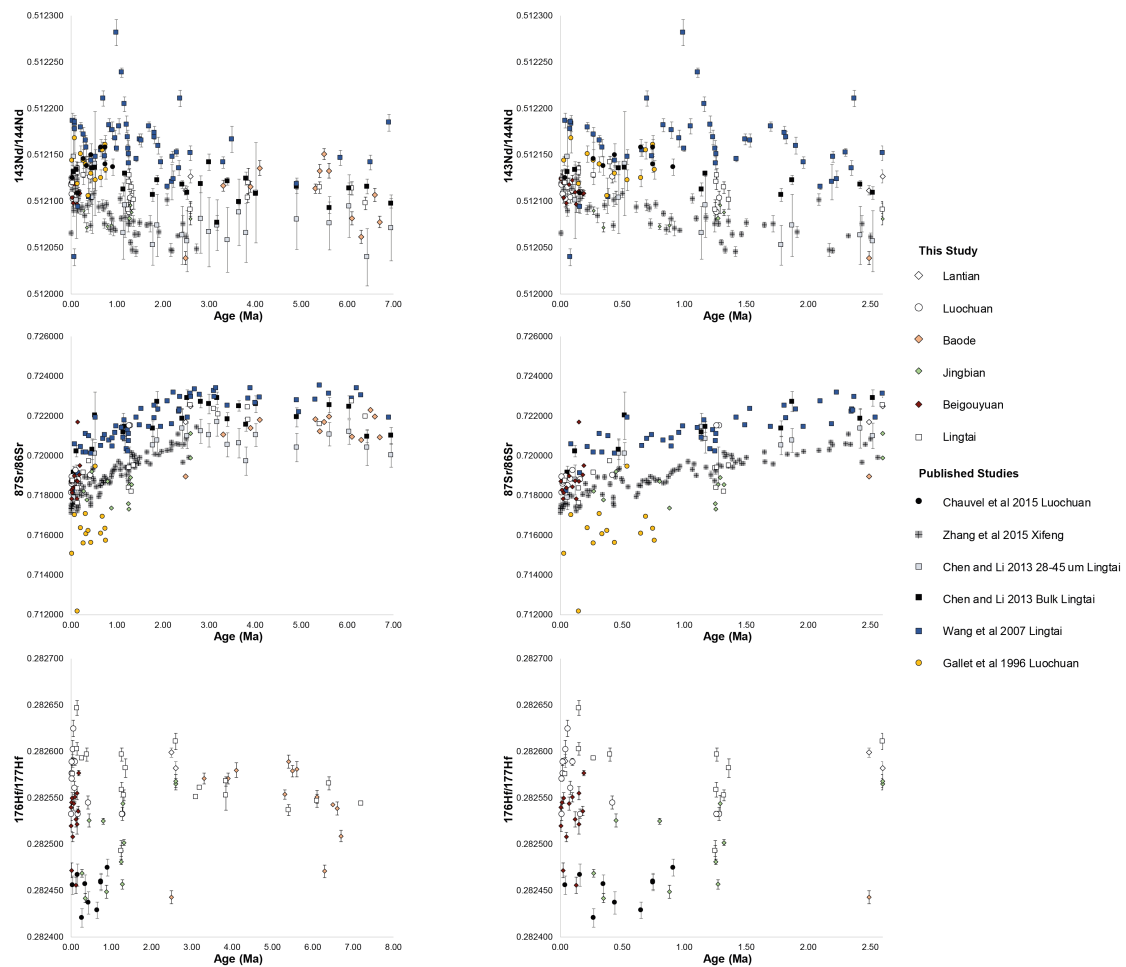
109 Hf was analysed on a Thermo-Electron Neptune mass spectrometer using a Cetac Aridus II  
110 desolvating nebuliser. 0.006 l/min of nitrogen were introduced via the nebulizer in addition  
111 to Ar in order to minimize oxide formation. The instrument was operated in static  
112 multicollection mode, with cups set to monitor  $^{172}\text{Yb}$ ,  $^{173}\text{Yb}$ ,  $^{175}\text{Lu}$ ,  $^{176}\text{Lu}+\text{Hf}+\text{Yb}$ ,  $^{177}\text{Hf}$ ,  $^{178}\text{Hf}$ ,  
113  $^{179}\text{Hf}$  and  $^{180}\text{Hf}$ . 1% dilutions of each sample were tested prior to analysis, and samples  
114 diluted to c. 20 ppb. Data are reported relative to  $^{179}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf} = 0.7325$ . The Hf standard  
115 solution JMC475 was analyzed during each analytical session and sample  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  ratios  
116 are reported relative to a value of 0.282160 for this standard. Across the 26-month period of  
117 analysis, 189 analyses of JMC475 gave a mean  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  value of  $0.282150 \pm 0.000009$  (23.1  
118 ppm, 1-sigma). Typical external precision for a single day's analysis was in the range  
119 between 13-22 ppm. Detailed results can be found in the Supplementary File.

120 Mixing hyperbolae are calculated using standard mixing equations (Faure, 2001) with  
121 average upper continental crust and bulk crust values (Rudnick and Gao, 2003) and average  
122 mantle values (McDonough and Sun, 1995).  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  and  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  ratios in this study are  
123 reported as  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  and  $\epsilon_{\text{Hf}}$ , using the present-day chondritic uniform reservoir (CHUR) values of  
124 0.512630 and 0.282785, respectively (Bouvier et al., 2008).

### 125 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 126 **3.1 Sr, Nd and Hf variations in within the Chinese Loess Plateau**

127 Down-section variations in Sr, Nd and Hf-isotope data for our Chinese Loess whole rock  
128 samples are shown in Fig. 2, together with published data (Chauvel et al., 2014; Chen and Li,  
129 2013; Gallet et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2015). See Fig. 1 for section  
130 locations. Only published data that have been analysed using a very similar method as the  
131 samples here have been included to limit effects caused by different leaching methods.



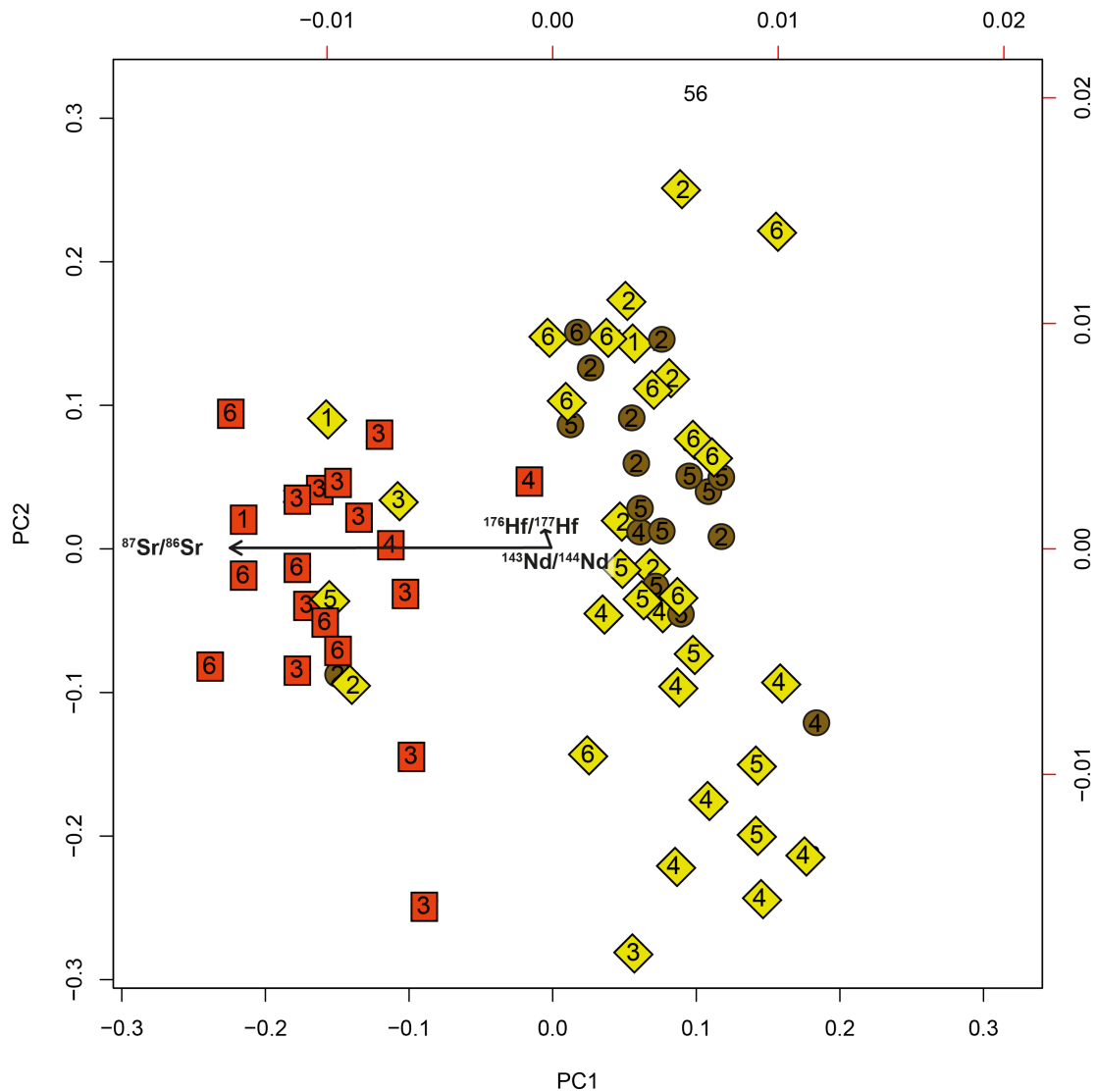
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133 Figure 2 Isotope data from this study combined with Chauvel et al. (2015), Gallet et al. (1996), Chen and Li (2013),  
 134 Zhang et al. (2015) and Wang et al (2007) for all loess, soil and clay samples from the Chinese Loess Plateau. Data  
 135 plotted as isotopic ratios to show relative errors between datasets. Plots a, c and e show variation over 7 Ma, b, d  
 136 and f show 0 – 2.6 Ma. Age model derived from Heslop et al. 2000; Sun et al. 2006; Zhu et al. 2008; Ding et al.  
 137 1999; Wang et al. 2007; Gylesjö & Arnold 2006; Xu et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2015.

138 Fig. 2 a) and b) show  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  plotted against the age of sediment. There is a range in the  
 139  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  values obtained from within the same units, especially from material younger  
 140 than 1 Ma. This is probably partly due to a sampling bias in that more studies have analysed  
 141 loess and soil units younger than 1 Ma. The study by Zhang et al. (2015) is the only data here  
 142 that may show a systematic decrease in  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  down-section until ~2.6 Ma where the  
 143 study stops. None of the other studies show any convincing systematic trend, nor does the  
 144 data within this study.  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  (Fig. 2 c and d) shows a similar lack of any systematic trend  
 145 down section, although this dataset suffers from the opposite problem when compared to  
 146 the Nd isotopic data in that there is much less data.  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  shows an increase until 4 Ma  
 147 where it plateaus and shows a slight decrease at 6 Ma (Fig. 2e and f). None of the isotopic  
 148 systems show an abrupt change at either 1.2 or 2.5 Ma.

149  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  is the only isotopic system to show a systematic trend related to the age of the  
 150 sediment, and there does not seem to be any correlation between  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  and the other

151 two isotopic systems, this is shown in Fig. 3 which is a PCA for all three isotopic systems. This  
 152 clearly demonstrates that there is a separate control on  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  when compared to  
 153  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  and  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ .



154 ◆ Loess ● Soil ■ Clay 1 Lantian 2 Luochuan 3 Baode 4 Jingbian 5 Beigouyuan 6 Lingtai

155 *Figure 3 PCA plot for the isotopic data from the samples within this study.*

156 As  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  is the only isotopic system showing any systematic trend it is worth exploring  
 157 what else, apart from provenance change can affect this system.  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  can be affected by  
 158 the addition of authigenic precipitates (such as carbonates). Our samples were leached in  
 159 acetic acid in order to eliminate any such effect.  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  can also be affected by chemical  
 160 weathering or enrichment of minerals rich in radiogenic  $^{87}\text{Sr}$  in fine grain-size fractions. The  
 161 highest values of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  in our dataset are shown by the Red Clay, deposited prior to 2.5  
 162 Ma. Chemical weathering influences the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  signal as Sr is hosted within minerals that  
 163 are readily weathered, for example, feldspar (Blum et al., 1993; White et al., 1999) and

164 easily enters solution during weathering, so is readily removed from the original sediment  
165 (Blum and Erel, 1997). This suggests that in wet/humid climates, where there is greater  
166 chemical weathering, the dissolution of feldspar leads to Sr loss resulting in concentration of  
167 relatively high Rb/Sr, high  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  minerals. This weathering effect could also explain a  
168 change in Pb isotope signatures at 2.56 Ma (Sun and Zhu, 2010), which might result from  
169 dissolution of Pb-rich minerals like apatite and allanite (Erel et al., 2004), rather than a  
170 change in source. The impact of chemical weathering on sediment composition is supported  
171 by variations in Zr/Rb ratios (Chen et al., 2006). It is also supported by evidence of shifts in  
172 the heavy mineral composition to more stable, weathering-resistant species with increasing  
173 depth in loess sections. This change has been interpreted to be due to these older units  
174 having been subjected to more humid conditions, under which less resilient minerals have  
175 undergone preferential dissolution (Bird et al., 2015; Nie, 2016; Peng et al., 2016).

176 Changes in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  can also be driven by grain-size, where finer grain-sizes will have higher  
177  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ . At the Red Clay/loess boundary there is a change in grain-size from the finer  
178 grained Red Clay to coarser loess/soil units (Lu et al. 2010; Ding et al. 1998; Ding et al. 1999;  
179 and Yang & Ding 2010). However, both grain-sizes analysed by Chen and Li (2013) show an  
180 increasing  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  with increasing age demonstrating grain-size is not the only control on  
181  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ .

182 Rare earth elements and high field strength elements are relatively immobile during  
183 weathering; hence  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  and  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  appear to retain the character of the source  
184 material (Jung et al., 2004). These isotope systems do not systematically change at 1.2 Ma or  
185 across the Pliocene-Pleistocene boundary (Fig. 2).

186 Sr, Nd and Hf isotope data, show no evidence for major provenance changes at 2.5 or 1.2  
187 Ma. A change in provenance signal cannot therefore be used to explain the different  
188 characteristics of the loess/soil and the Red Clay units (Figs 2 & 3). The results here suggest  
189 that the change from Red Clay to loess/soil was likely to be driven by a change to a less  
190 humid climate and/or higher dust deposition rates on the CLP over the Plio-Pleistocene  
191 boundary. The constancy of dust source (at least finer grained dust) implies that there were  
192 no major changes in the origin and composition of atmospheric mineral dust over this part  
193 of Asia across a major climatic boundary. However, higher dust accumulation rates at the  
194 end of the Pliocene and into the Quaternary (Sun et al., 2011) suggest that the volume of  
195 dust material produced still increased dramatically. Combined, this implies that the volume  
196 of material produced from existing sources became greatly enhanced at the onset of the  
197 Quaternary, potentially due to a more arid climate or the integration of the Yellow River



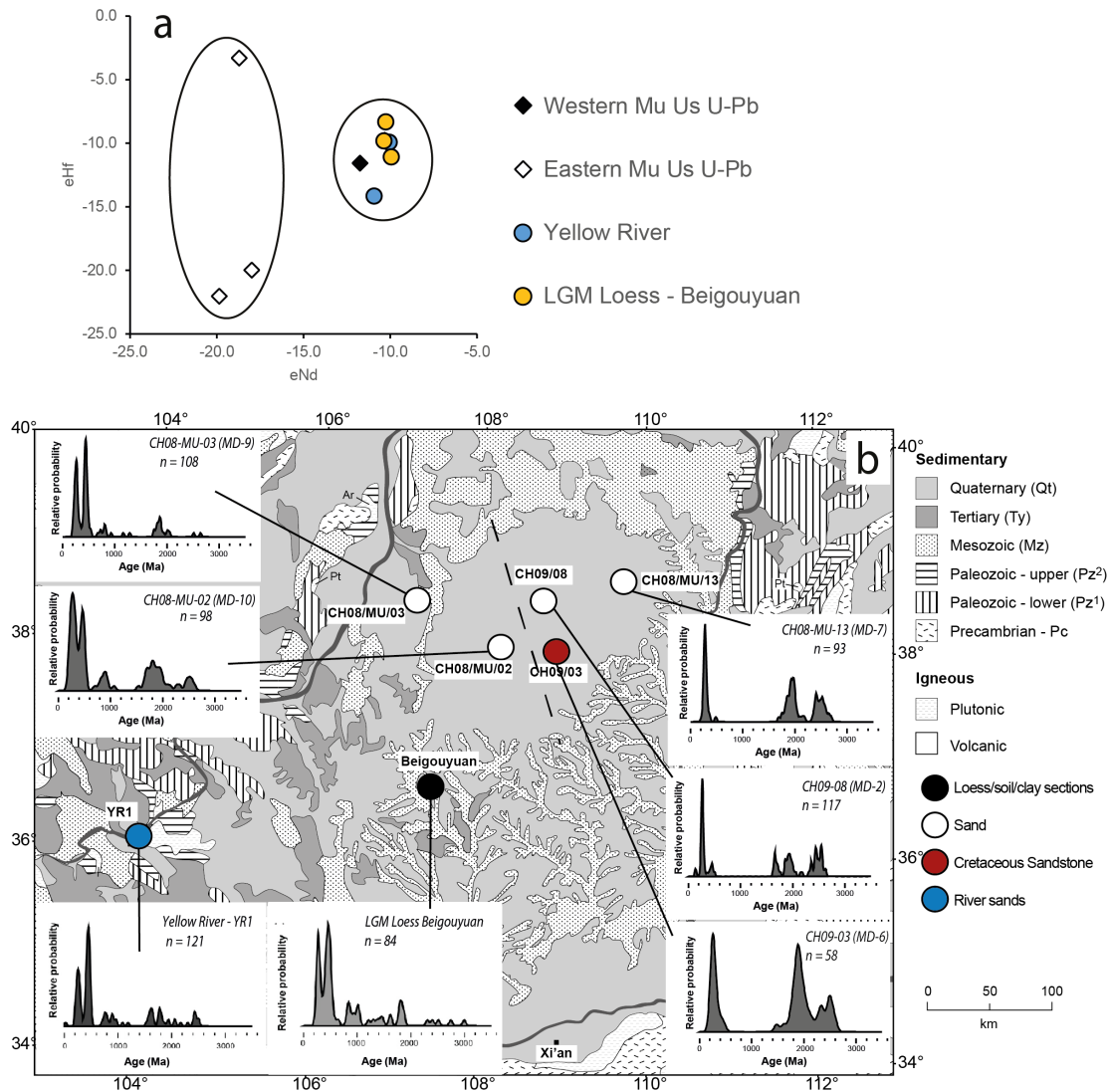
198 system, rather than there being additional supply from major new dust sources. Given that  
199 the grain size of dust sediments greatly increases at this boundary implies either a great  
200 strengthening of dust transporting winds from these constant source areas, or further  
201 supports the idea that the switching on of a new sediment transport route occurred at this  
202 time, with the Yellow River being a prime candidate (Nie et al., 2015).

### 203 **3.2 Loess source regions**

204 Critics of bulk sediment analysis suggest it likely averages source information from the  
205 potentially multiple sediment sources to loess, thus making it difficult to identify the  
206 individual source signals. Here we propose that the sensitivity of bulk sediment analyses to  
207 source differences can be tested through comparison of results to a study that identifies  
208 unambiguous sediment source differences using single-grain analyses.

209 Stevens et al. (2010; 2013) undertook provenance analysis of sediments from the Mu Us  
210 desert (Fig. 1) using zircon U-Pb and heavy mineral analysis, and showed that a clear  
211 difference in sediment source exists between the western and eastern parts of the desert. In  
212 order to test if bulk sediment isotopic analyses could detect this difference, a number of  
213 samples studied by Stevens et al. (2013) were selected for analysis. These included samples  
214 from the Mu Us Desert, the Yellow River at Zhonging, and the last glacial (L1) loess from  
215 Beiguoyuan (sampled at the same depth in both studies).

216 Samples from the eastern Mu Us Desert have  $\epsilon_{Nd}$  of c. -19 and  $\epsilon_{Hf}$  of -21 whereas samples  
217 from the western part of the desert have  $\epsilon_{Nd}$  of c. -12 and  $\epsilon_{Hf}$  of -11 (Fig. 4). Notably, the  
218 samples from the western Mu Us desert have a similar signature to samples from the Yellow  
219 River, and loess from Beiguoyuan. This distinction between eastern and western Mu Us  
220 Desert signals is consistent with the conclusions of Stevens et al. (2013) using single grain  
221 methods, showing that bulk sediment isotopes will provide useful information on sediment  
222 source.



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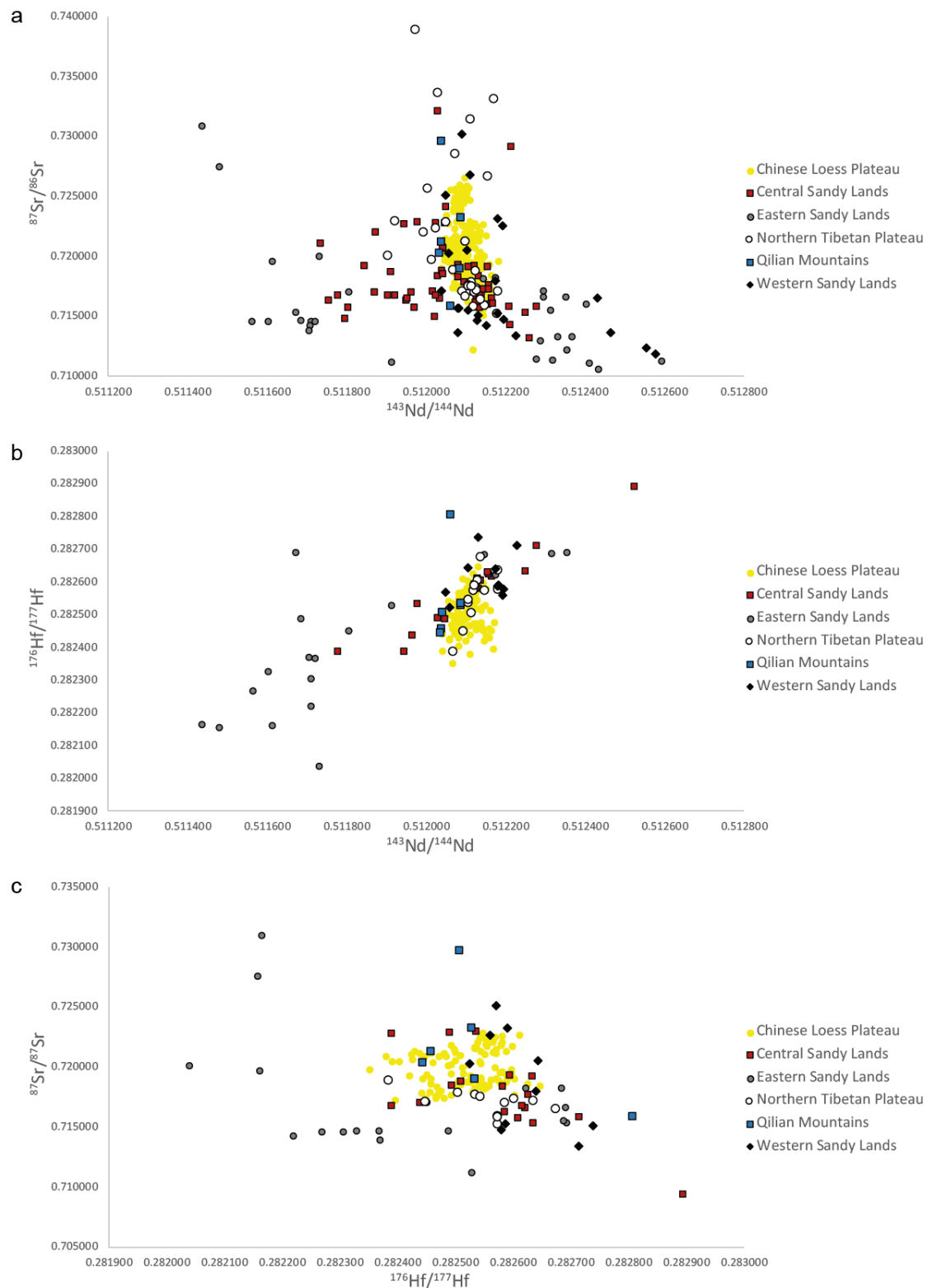
224 Figure 4  $\epsilon_{Hf}$  versus  $\epsilon_{Nd}$  for some of the Mu Us Desert samples analyzed by Stevens et al. (2013) plotted with  
 225 samples for the Yellow River, downstream of YR1 (Stevens et al., 2013) and Beigouyuan LGM (L1) loess, (b) shows  
 226 the zircon U-Pb data for these samples and their location. The dashed line is the east-west divide proposed by  
 227 Stevens et al. (2013).

228 The data reported here and the published work (Chauvel et al., 2014; Che and Li, 2013; Chen  
 229 et al., 2007; Gallet et al., 1996; Li et al., 2011; Sun, 2005; Wang et al., 2007; Zhang et al.,  
 230 2012, 2015) cover a large geographical area (Fig. 1). So to help with interpretation the data  
 231 were split into regional source areas as suggested by Licht et al. (2016); in addition, the Mu  
 232 Us Desert has been split into eastern and western regions based on Stevens et al. (2013),  
 233 Zhang et al. (2016) and the data in Fig. 4. Since the isotopic bulk sediment data includes the  
 234 very fine-grained fraction, the Tarim and Junggar basins were also added as potential  
 235 regional source areas. The regional source areas are as follows:

- 236 1. Central Sand Lands - including the Badain Jaran, Tengger, western Mu Us and Ulan  
 237 Buh deserts, and bedrock samples.

- 238 2. Eastern Sandy Lands - including Otindag and Horquin sandy lands and the eastern  
239 Mu Us desert, underlying bedrock and middle reach Yellow River samples (Nie et al.,  
240 2015).
- 241 3. Western Mu Us Desert - western China Basins (Tarim and Junggar basins).
- 242 4. Northern Tibetan Plateau - Upper Yellow River samples using the definition of upper  
243 river from Nie et al. (2015).
- 244 5. Qilian Mountains – samples from alluvial fans of rivers derived from the Qilian  
245 Mountains.

246 The published data does not often publish Nd, Hf or Sr concentrations, thus calculating  
247 potential end members of the source areas which contribute most to the Chinese Loess  
248 Plateau is impossible. Despite this several key observations and interpretations can be made  
249 from the data. Fig. 5 shows all of the data plotted up in isotopic space, the most data is on  
250 Fig. 5a which is  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  against  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ . The loess, soil and Red Clay plot in a well-  
251 defined area that is overlapped most significantly by samples from the Northern Tibetan  
252 Plateau and the Qilian Mountains with some overlap from samples from the Central and  
253 Western Sandy Lands. The Eastern Sandy Lands plot reasonably well away from the CLP  
254 samples. This is seen more clearly on Fig. 5b and Fig. 5c, indicating the dominance of more  
255 westerly or north-westerly sources.



256

257 *Figure 5 Isotopic data for the Chinese Loess Plateau and the potential source areas from this study and from*  
 258 *Chauvel et al., (2014); Che and Li, (2013); Chen et al., (2007); Gallet et al., (1996); Li et al., (2011); Sun, (2005);*  
 259 *Wang et al., (2007); Zhang et al., (2012, 2015). Fig. 5a shows  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  against  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ , 5b shows  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$*   
 260 *against  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  and 5c shows  $^{176}\text{Hf}/^{177}\text{Hf}$  against  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ .*

261 All three isotopic systems show that the loess, soil and clay data overlap with the samples

262 from the Yellow River/Tibetan Plateau suggesting a Northern Tibetan Plateau source (Fig. 5a,

263 b & c). This is supported by recent hypotheses concerning sediment routing from the NTP via  
264 the Yellow River and other rivers to the CLP using single grain analysis (Bird et al., 2015; Licht  
265 et al., 2016; Nie et al., 2015, 2014; Stevens et al., 2013).

266 Previous work suggests that due to a weak NW-SE grain-size gradient in the Red Clay, in  
267 contrast to that shown in the Quaternary loess, the East Asian winter monsoon played a  
268 relatively smaller role in Red Clay deposition than in Quaternary loess deposition (Han et al.,  
269 2007; Wen, 2005). This implies that high altitude westerly winds were the main transport  
270 mechanism for dust at this time (Ding et al., 1998, 1999; Gylesjö and Arnold, 2006) and  
271 perhaps implies a change in source. A recent zircon U-Pb study also suggests a subtle source  
272 change across this boundary (Nie et al., 2015). However, heavy mineral data from Peng et al.  
273 (2016) and the lack of sediment source change shown here (Fig. 2) does not indicate a  
274 source change at the Plio-Pliocene boundary. This means that either that the East Asian  
275 winter monsoon must also have been the main transport mechanism for the Red Clay (Peng  
276 et al., 2016), or that the westerlies transported material in the Pliocene from the same  
277 source, or a source with indistinguishable characteristics, such as that blown in by winter  
278 monsoon winds. This would be compatible with the evidence for a dominant NTP source for  
279 much of the CLP dust material (Fig. 5). An alternative explanation is that because the fine-  
280 grained fraction dominates the isotope signal, the source of this fine fraction could remain  
281 the same in loess, soil and Red Clay. By contrast, the coarse fraction may still vary due to  
282 abrupt climate shifts and changes in large dust storm tracks. This focus on different grain  
283 sizes with different provenance techniques might also explain why there is no clear variation  
284 in coarse (>10  $\mu\text{m}$ ) detrital zircon U-Pb age between loess and palaeosol layers (Pullen et al.,  
285 2011), although this should be seen in the Hf-Nd-Sr data. If this was the case, we might  
286 expect to see variation in Hf concentration between the Red Clay and loess relating to the  
287 proportion of zircons in the coarse fraction. However, this change is not apparent in the  
288 sample set here. In addition to this, recent grain size and zircon U-Pb work suggest that  
289 there is a SW to NE source variation within the Red Clay (Shang et al., 2016), which suggests  
290 that perhaps the East Asian Monsoon played an important role in the deposition of the Red  
291 Clay as well as the Quaternary loess.

292 Our results support assertions that the NTP is the major dust source to the CLP over the  
293 whole Plio-Quaternary. As such, climate changes driving dust production efficiency in this  
294 region are likely the main control on shifts in the dust cycle over this interval, rather than the  
295 addition of new sources by a progressive aridification over an increasing geographical area.

296 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

297 The data here show that there is no source change in dust supply to the Chinese Loess  
298 Plateau at 1.2 Ma or at 2.5 Ma. Changes seen in  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  are recording grain-size and/or  
299 chemical weathering effects. The change from Red Clay to loess is likely driven by decreased  
300 humidity and increased dust deposition across the Pliocene/Quaternary transition.

301 The isotope data shows that dust sources for the Chinese Loess Plateau are dominated by  
302 material from the Northern Tibetan Plateau. This lack of source change across the Pliocene-  
303 Pleistocene boundary suggests that the East Asian Monsoon played an important role in the  
304 deposition of the Red Clay as well as in the Quaternary loess and that the main dust  
305 transporting winds have not drastically changed trajectory since the Miocene, even if the  
306 volume of material has increased dramatically.

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