

## Article

The influence of climatic conditions on the permeability and hydraulic properties of the L<sub>5</sub>–S<sub>5</sub> layers in the Loess Plateau, North Qinling MountainsYao CHEN<sup>1,2\*</sup> , Hui QIAN<sup>2</sup> and Kai HOU<sup>2</sup><sup>1</sup> Electric Power Research Institute, State Grid Fujian Electric Power Company Limited<sup>2</sup> School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Chang'an University, Xi'an, China\*Corresponding author. Email: [chenyao3715@chd.edu.cn](mailto:chenyao3715@chd.edu.cn)

**ABSTRACT:** A better understanding of the role of Quaternary-era climate change in the development of regional hydrology in the Loess Plateau and the impact on regional ecosystems is needed. In particular, a thorough examination of the permeability and recharge under different conditions in the fifth loess–palaeosol layer is required. The fifth loess–palaeosol layer is located at the southern edge of the Jinghe River in the Guanzhong Basin, and was examined to better understand these conditions. A constant head permeability test was conducted at 11 points that covered different stratum of loess–palaeosol, and 55 corresponding undisturbed soil samples were analysed for porosity, magnetic susceptibility, and grain size. Results showed that: (1) with an increase in hydraulic gradient, the permeability coefficient of the upper part of the loess and the lower part of the palaeosol showed contrasting characteristics – this phenomenon was closely related to climatic conditions during the sedimentary period, post-sedimentary microbial activity, and to certain properties relating to permeability in the strata under similar monsoon effects; (2) the Loess Plateau, alternately dominated by the East Asian summer and winter monsoons, exhibited different grain-size compositions in the sedimentary layer, which, in turn, made the permeability in the loess noticeably more stable than that in the palaeosol; and (3) different aquifer characteristics and recharge conditions between the loess–palaeosol layers can be primarily explained by the intensity of the pedogenesis, which depended on extreme dry-old glacial climates and relatively humid-warm interglacial climates. These findings show that climate change played an important role in influencing hydrological systems in the loess–palaeosol sequence.

**KEY WORDS:** climate change, loess–palaeosol, permeation law, regional hydrology.

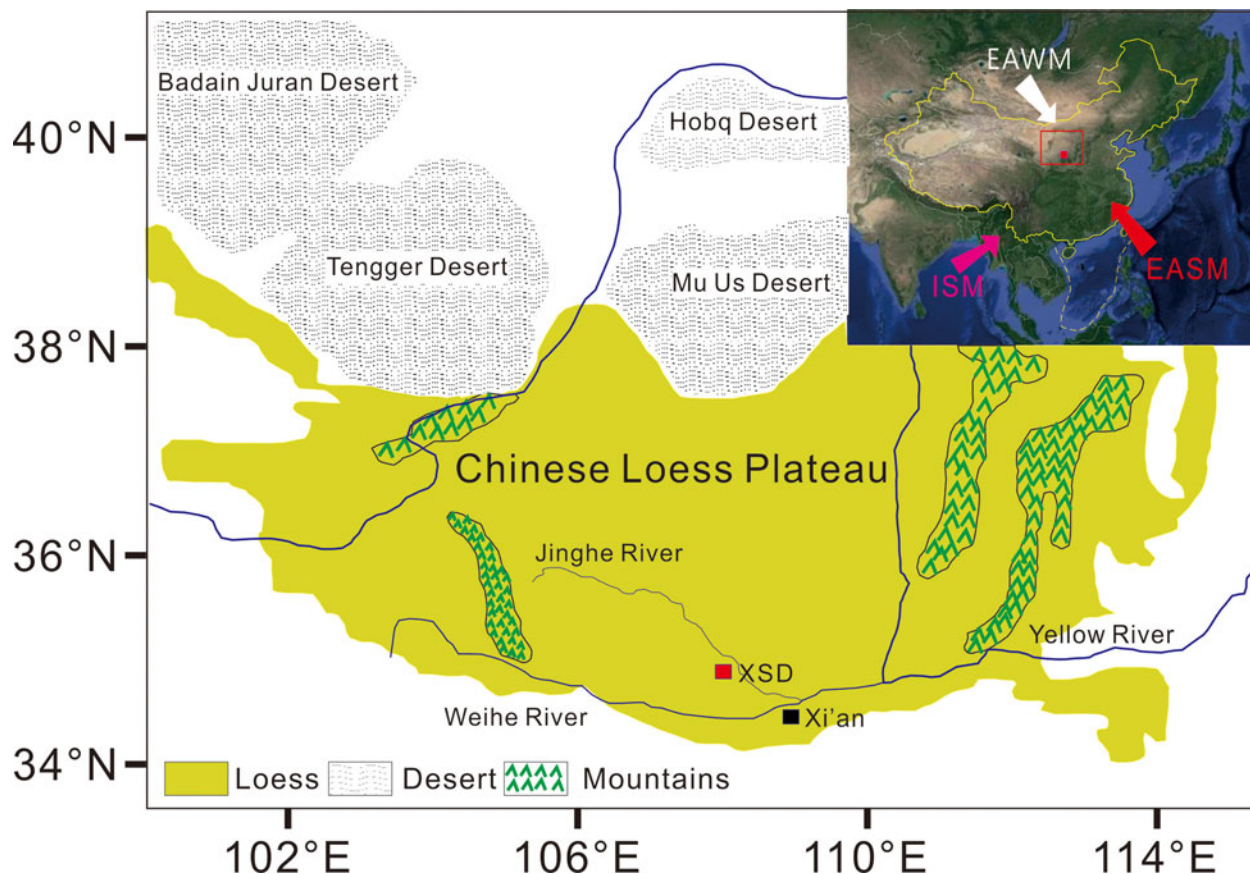
For over half a century, scholars have been studying Quaternary sediments and associated environmental information, making significant achievements (Allen *et al.* 1999; Lu *et al.* 2004; Gorbarenko *et al.* 2007; Rao *et al.* 2013; Chen *et al.* 2020a, b). In particular, the loess–palaeosol sequence on the Loess Plateau in China is considered one of the three major global cornerstones for research on Quaternary climate change because of its sensitivity to paleoclimatic environment changes and the detailed records available about the strata (Chen *et al.* 2008; Peng *et al.* 2014; An *et al.* 2015; Liu *et al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2019a, b). Over time, research on the Loess Plateau has made significant contributions to revealing the climatic evolution of East Asia and the world (Kukla & An 1989; Liu & Ding 1998; Balsam *et al.* 2004; Torrent *et al.* 2007). However, only a few studies have observed changes in the hydraulic properties of the sedimentary sequence in the Loess Plateau that resulted from Quaternary climate change (Chen *et al.* 2016, 2017; Chen & Qian 2017). Many scholars have focused only on the source, migration, water-chemical properties, and occurrence of groundwater in the loess. Previous studies have found that atmospheric precipitation is the only source of supply; groundwater in the loess occurs in various forms, including capillary, pore, and fracture water, and the chemical properties of groundwater have considerable influence on the regional environment (Qian & Li 2011;

Huang *et al.* 2013; Li *et al.* 2013a, b; Liu *et al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2019a, b). However, differences in percolation between the loess–palaeosol sequences have rarely been examined with high accuracy. Consequently, it is necessary to accurately measure the relationships among levels of aquifer development in the Loess Plateau, the causes of such differences, and the effects of Quaternary climate change.

The Shaanxi Guanzhong Basin is a major granary in the north-western part of China; it has a well-deposited loess–palaeosol sedimentary sequence and rich groundwater resources (Wang *et al.* 2007; Pan *et al.* 2015; Zhao *et al.* 2017; Wu *et al.* 2019). Identifying the relationships between the differences in the hydraulic properties of the loess–palaeosol sequences and the environment is significant in order to conserve and restore the ecosystem in the Loess Plateau while sustainably building its industrial and agricultural development more effectively.

The S<sub>5</sub> formation on the Loess Plateau is the most obvious stratum in the Quaternary loess strata in China because of its extremely thick deposition, characteristic colour, and strong soil microstructure. The fifth palaeosol, S<sub>5</sub>, was formed under subtropical humid-warm conditions and is the most noticeable regional marker bed for the Loess Plateau and is equivalent to the 13th–15th marine isotope stages, as shown in the deep-sea-deposited oxygen isotope curve (Ruddiman *et al.*





**Figure 1** The location of the Loess Plateau and studied sections. Abbreviations: EAWM = East Asian winter monsoon; EASM = East Asian summer monsoon; ISM = Indian Ocean summer monsoon.

1989; Thomas *et al.* 2007; Wu & Qian 2016). Compared with the average temperature since 1950, temperatures in the Quaternary were 4–6°C higher, with 200–300 mm more annual precipitation (Kukla *et al.* 1998). The overlying fifth Malan loess,  $L_5$ , is believed to have been deposited under an extremely dry-cold climate (Liu & Ding 1998; Song *et al.* 2014; Wu *et al.* 2018). The differences between the two sedimentary environments lead to variations in physical properties, which may, in turn, cause similarities and variations in the chemical-physical properties of the strata.

On the basis of these observations, the relationships between the magnetic susceptibility and grain-size composition (indices that reflect climate change) of the fifth layer of the loess–palaeosol sequences and the differences in the water-chemical properties in the strata of the Xiushidu (XSD) Quaternary profile at the southern edge of Jinghe River in Guanzhong Basin, China, were examined through field survey, sampling, and laboratory experimentation. The purpose of these experiments in loess–palaeosol was to: (1) compare the permeability characteristics and the related causes under different hydraulic gradients; (2) determine differences in permeability under different paleoclimatic environments and reveal their causes; and (3) define recharge conditions and identify factors in different aquifers that impact those conditions.

## 1. Geographical and geochronological background

The XSD loess–palaeosol at the southern edge of the Jinghe River is located in Guanzhong Basin [108°29'40"E, 34°26'37"N] (Fig. 1), 26.2 km N from Xi'an. The study area features a warm temperate continental monsoon climate and four distinct seasons with both rain and high temperatures during the same period. The annual average temperature since 1950 is 13°C,

the lowest temperature in winter was –20.8°C, and the highest temperature in summer reached 41.4°C. The annual average rainfall since 1950 is approximately 548 mm, the mean annual sunshine duration is 2195.2 h, with the longest duration in August of 241.6 h. Field sampling for this study was conducted from late August to early October in 2017.

The XSD Quaternary loess–palaeosol sequences are well-deposited, with a sedimentary thickness of approximately 57 m. According to field observations, the fifth Malan loess ( $L_5$ ) and the palaeosol ( $S_5$ ) are well-preserved, with a depositary depth of about 11 m and no observed remarkable sedimentary discontinuities (Fig. 2). From top to bottom, the colour in  $L_5$  changed as follows: dark yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR4/4), yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR5/4), light yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR6/4), yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR5/4), and dark yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR4/4).  $L_5$  has loose soil, with a dry density of 1.72–1.77 g m<sup>-3</sup> and a moisture content of 4–16%. It also has a baum pot and snail shells with a few grey-brown spots and a small number of calcareous nodules at the top. The physical and chemical properties of the underlying palaeosol ( $S_5$ ) formed in the same climate cycle are different in all aspects from those of  $L_5$ , with a dry density and moisture content that are slightly higher than those of  $L_5$ . The thickness of  $S_5$ , as the most noticeable marker bed in the loess, reaches 4 m, and its colour changed as follows (from top to bottom): yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR5/4), brown (YR-17-7.5YR4/4), yellowish brown (YR-20-10YR5/4), and brown (YR-17-7.5YR4/4). This colour change shows the strength of the pedogenesis. As seen in Figure 3,  $S_5$  can be divided into three layers. The figure also shows the typical yellow-brown soil found in northern subtropical forests. From top to bottom, the first layer is the clarification layer (Bts), which has many baum pots and a grain size of 5–13 mm, is densely distributed, and contains many iron–manganese

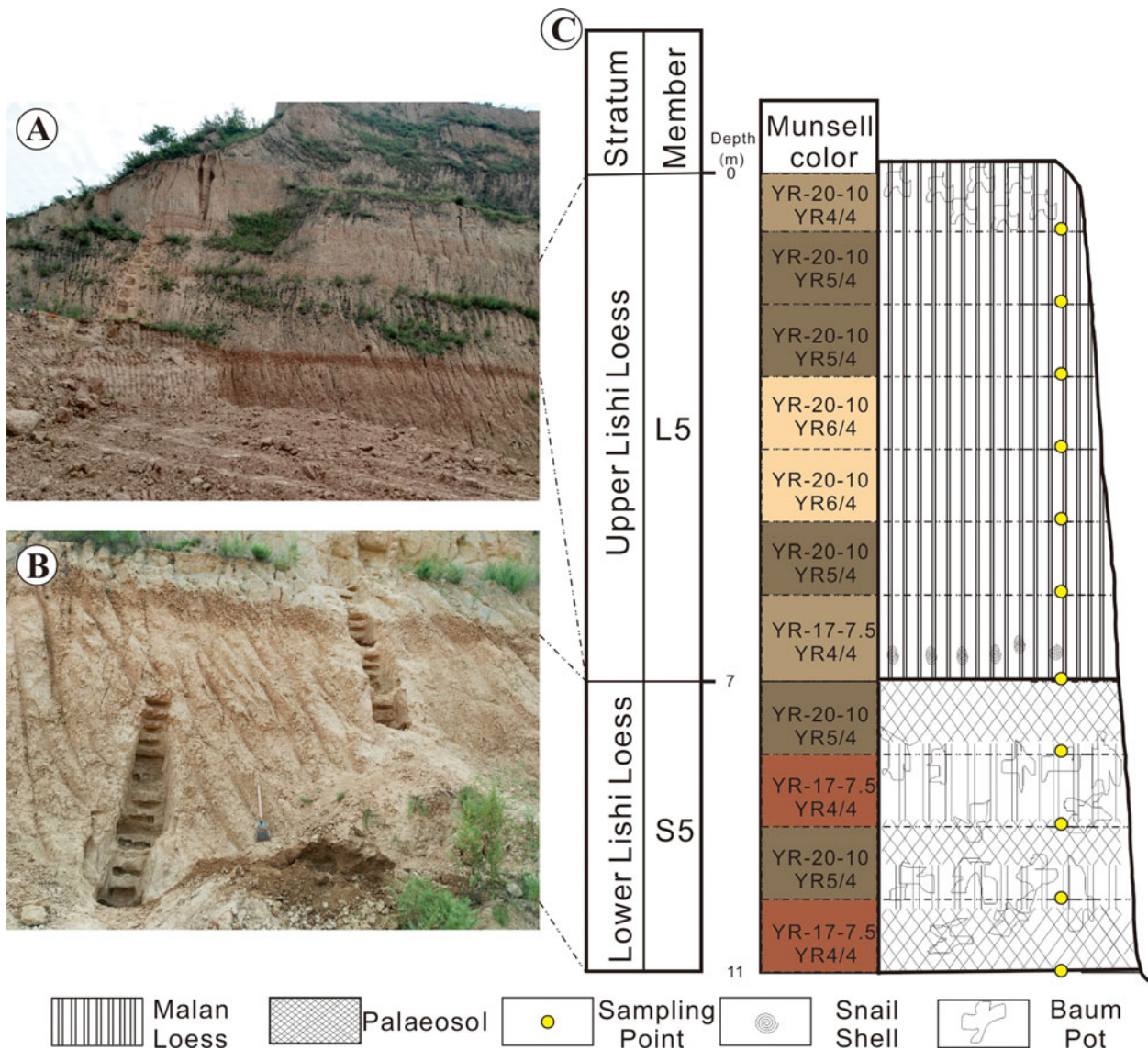


Figure 2 Field photos of the XSD profile: (A) L<sub>5</sub>, and (B) S<sub>5</sub>. (C) Framework of the XSD section.

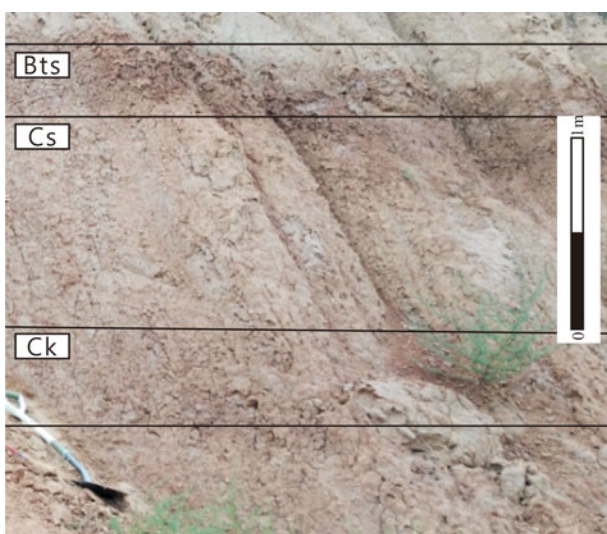


Figure 3 Subdivision of a section of the S<sub>5</sub> palaeosol at the XSD. Abbreviations: Bts = argillic horizon; Cs = leached loess with thin red argillans; Ck = illuvial layer of CaCO<sub>3</sub>.

cutans, indicating that this layer was formed under high temperatures and precipitation, and was subjected to strong clarification. The second layer is the weathering-leaching layer (Cs), which has a denser distribution of baum pot. Because this distribution is star-like, it is often referred to as ‘reticular baum pot,’ and has a grain size of 1–2 cm. Compared to L<sub>5</sub>, its soil is harder (given its dense structure) and deposited like a prism block. The third layer is the calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) nodule sedimentary layer (Ck). Compared to Cs, the content of baum pot significantly increases, which further indicates that Bts was deposited under a humid climate and was subject to a strong leaching effect.

## 2. Sampling and analytical methods

### 2.1. Sampling

Three trench sampling areas were provided in different layers of the XSD profile through the field survey located in the Loess Plateau slope: L<sub>5</sub> (7 m), S<sub>5-1</sub> (1 m), and S<sub>5-2,3</sub> (3 m). To ensure that the samples taken from the field were closer to their state during the sedimentary period to the extent possible, the weathered topsoil from 1–2 m inside the slope was removed before the

trenches were dug downward from the top of the respective layers. Loose soil samples weighing 1.5 kg each were acquired from each trench at 10 cm intervals and analysed for magnetic susceptibility, grain size, moisture content, and specific gravity. At each sampling point, three vertical and three horizontal samples were collected by cutting rings with heights and diameters of 40 and 61.8 mm, respectively, for a total of 66 samples. The dry density of each sample was recorded on site and numbered according to the strata sequence.

## 2.2. Dry density determination

Prior to sampling, each cutting ring was weighed as  $m_0$ , accurate to 0.01 g. After the preparation of the field permeation sample, the soil-loaded cutting ring was reweighed as  $m_1$ , accurate to 0.01 g. The dimensions of the cutting ring were 61.8 mm (inner diameter) and 40 mm (height), resulting in an inside volume,  $V$ , of  $120 \text{ cm}^3$  and a dry density soil sample of:

$$\rho_d = \frac{m_1 - m_0}{V} \quad (1)$$

## 2.3. Indoor penetration test

The permeation samples were brought to the laboratory where their saturated soil hydraulic conductivity coefficients were measured. A water supply tank, piezometric tube, and permeameter related to rubber hoses. The tank was filled with water after all connections were found to have no water or gas leakages. Then, Vaseline was applied on the inner walls of the TST-55 Permeameter, and field samples were placed into the designated permeameter in numbered order. The permeameter was tightened according to specifications to ensure they did not overflow. A stepwise lifting method was employed to ensure that the samples were fully saturated. A constant head permeability test was carried out until the samples were fully saturated. The hydraulic gradient ( $I$ ) for the constant head permeability test was: 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 3.5, 4, 4.5, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10, for a total of 23 hydraulic gradients. After the head reached the corresponding water level, the piezometric tube head was observed for stability, which should be no less than 30 min from the starting time. The water was held with a graduated cylinder, and when the amount of water seeping out was 2/3 greater than the graduated cylinder level, the graduated cylinder was removed, the corresponding time was recorded, the mass of water was weighed with an electronic scale, and the water temperature of the tank was measured. Afterward, five groups of constant head permeability tests were performed, and the corresponding height needed to reach the required hydraulic gradient was raised until either 23 hydraulic gradients were recorded or the soil samples were damaged. The amount of water that seeped out during each hydraulic gradient was read only after the piezometer tube was stabilised to ensure that the test was conducted under constant head.

$$k_{20} = k_T \frac{\eta_T}{\eta_{20}} \quad (2)$$

Permeability,  $k_{20}$  ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ), was calculated for samples at a standard temperature, where:  $\eta_T$  is the coefficient of water dynamic viscosity ( $\text{kPa}\cdot\text{s}$ ) at  $T$  °C; and  $\eta_{20}$  is the coefficient of water dynamic viscosity ( $\text{kPa}\cdot\text{s}$ ) at 20 °C.

## 2.4. Determining the specific gravity of the soil sample

The specific gravity of the soil samples was determined using the pycnometer test method with reference to the Standard for Soil Test Method (GB/T50123-1999). Loose soil was obtained from field permeation sampling points, brought back to the laboratory, placed in an oven, and dried to a constant weight at a constant temperature of 105–110 °C. Given that a 50 ml pycnometer

was used, approximately 10 g of the dried samples were weighed and transferred into the pycnometer. The total mass of the samples and the pycnometer were accurately weighed to 0.001 g, then approximately half of the pycnometer was filled with kerosene. The pycnometer was then shaken and evacuated using the vacuum extraction method for no less than one hour. After the vacuum extraction was completed, the pycnometer was filled with the suspension. Given that the pycnometer had a narrow neck, it was filled with kerosene and corked. The excess kerosene overflowed from the capillary. The pycnometer was kept still until the supernatant became clear; then, kerosene was removed from the outer walls and the total mass of the pycnometer, water, and samples were weighed, accurate to 0.001 g. The specific weight of the soil grains ( $G_s$ ) can be calculated as:

$$G_s = \frac{m_d}{m_{bw} + m_d - m_{bws}} \cdot G_{\text{kerosene}} \quad (3)$$

where  $m_{bw}$  is the total mass of the pycnometer and kerosene (g) and  $m_{bws}$  is the total mass of the pycnometer, kerosene, and samples (g).

## 2.5. Porosity calculation

The porosity of permeation samples ( $F$ ) was calculated according to the measured specific weight and dry weight of soil samples:

$$F = 1 - \frac{\rho_d}{G_s} \quad (4)$$

## 2.6. Magnetic susceptibility measurement

As opposed to the two previous samples, the loose soil samples tested for magnetisability and particle size were dense. A total of 55 samples were taken at an average interval of 20 cm from top to bottom. The collected loose soil samples were dried under natural indoor conditions. After air drying at a constant temperature for 48 h, approximately 10 g of the samples were ground into powder and placed into plastic bags. The samples were preheated at low frequency for 30 min ( $\chi_{lf}$ ) (0.47 kHz). Then, the exact quantity was weighed, and a Magnetic Susceptibility Model-942 magnetic susceptibility meter (made in China) was used to take measurements. Before measurement, the instrument was placed away from the magnetic field.

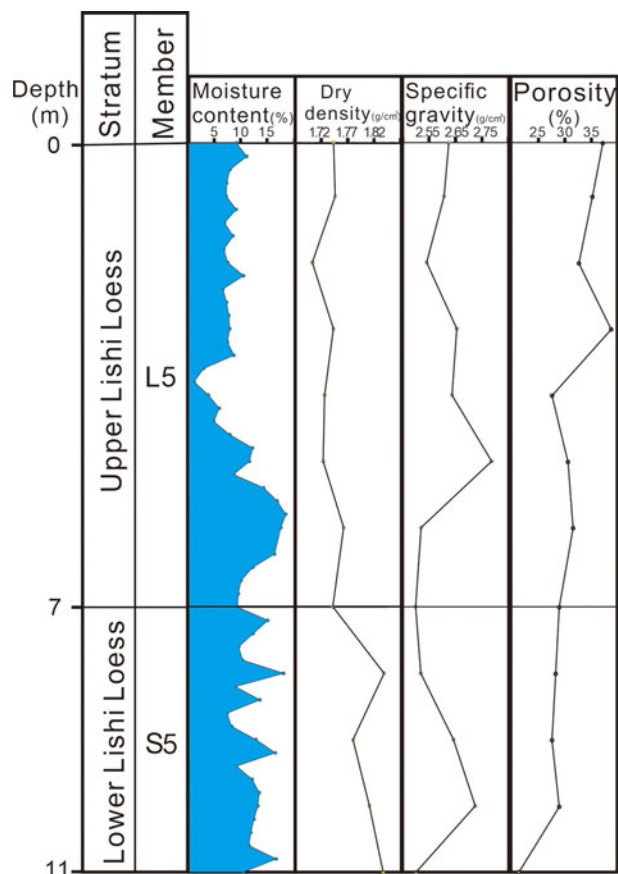
## 2.7. Grain-size analysis

For the particle size analysis test, a Mastersizer 2000 laser particle size analyser (Malvern, UK) was used, which has a range of 0.02–2000  $\mu\text{m}$  and a repeat test error of less than 1 %. Samples were treated with hydrochloric acid and hydrogen peroxide before testing to remove carbonate, organic matter, and iron oxide. Dispersant was added to the treated samples, which were then subjected to ultrasonic shaking for five minutes.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Basic physical properties of loess

The measurement results for the basic physical properties of the XSD profile are shown in Figure 4. During the evolution from  $L_5$  to  $S_5$ , the dry density gradually increased with stratum depth. Similar to variations in dry density, the specific weight of grains tended to increase but had greater variability. By contrast, the porosity values of the permeation samples gradually decreased with stratum depth. Porosity was calculated with the results of dry density and specific weight of the soil grains. For  $L_5$ , the mean porosity value was 31.58 %, with a range of 28.56–35.01 %. In general, the porosity of  $L_5$  was approximately 5 % higher than that of  $S_5$ , indicating that the  $L_5$  aquifer should, theoretically, be more well-deposited than that of  $S_5$ .



**Figure 4** The moisture content, dry density, specific gravity, and porosity from L<sub>5</sub>-S<sub>5</sub> of a loess section in the XSD.

### 3.2. Penetration test results

According to the results of the indoor constant head permeation test, the permeability for L<sub>5-1</sub>, L<sub>5-2</sub>, and L<sub>5-3</sub> (depths of 1, 2, and 3 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) decreased horizontally and vertically as *I* increased. When *I* < 4, the permeability was greater. After *I* > 4, the permeability stabilised.

In contrast to the above, when *I* ≤ 2, the permeability for L<sub>5-4</sub> (depth of 4 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) gradually decreased as *I* increased. When *I* ranged from 2–4, permeability stabilised, but after 4, it increased (Fig. 5; L<sub>5-4</sub>).

The permeability for L<sub>5-5</sub> (depth of 5 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) was different from all the above points. Both horizontal and vertical permeability were stable as *I* varied, although it generally increased (Fig. 5; L<sub>5-5</sub>).

The horizontal and vertical permeability for L<sub>5-6</sub> and L<sub>5-7</sub> (depths of 6 and 7 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) had high variability and followed no noticeable trend as *I* increased (Fig. 5; L<sub>5-6</sub>, L<sub>5-7</sub>).

The horizontal and vertical permeability of S<sub>5-1</sub> and S<sub>5-2</sub> (depths of 8 and 9 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) were like that of the overlying loess, and were highly volatile as *I* increased. However, in general, they were significantly smaller than that of the overlying loess (Fig. 6; S<sub>5-1</sub>, S<sub>5-2</sub>).

The vertical and horizontal permeability for S<sub>5-3</sub> in the middle of the fifth palaeosol (depth of 1 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) and S<sub>5-4</sub> in the lower part of the fifth palaeosol (depth of 11 m from the original surface of the fifth Malan loess) had the same relationship with *I* as the upper part of L<sub>5</sub>. The permeability gradually decreased as *I* increased. The difference was that the permeability at the test points in the lower middle part of S<sub>5</sub> was significantly less than that in the Malan loess. When *I* = 4, S<sub>5-3</sub> was readily stable, but it was not until *I* = 6 that S<sub>5-4</sub> became stable (Fig. 6; S<sub>5-3</sub>, S<sub>5-4</sub>).

These results were analysed statistically to examine the stability of the permeability across the loess-palaeosol sequence, which changed with the hydraulic gradient during the permeability test and the average permeability (Fig. 7). This finding suggested that the vertical and horizontal equivalent permeability for the entire fifth loess-palaeosol sequence were 0.0067 and 0.075 m d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Nearly all layers with permeability less than this average value were in S<sub>5</sub>. Only the average vertical permeability in L<sub>5-7</sub> was abnormal according to the analysis of the coefficient values of permeability, which changed as the hydraulic gradient increased. In this analysis, when the coefficient of variation was less than 17, this relationship was relatively stable (Wang *et al.* 2018). Over 70% of the test points in L<sub>5</sub> had large variability coefficients of permeability, and maximum values appeared in the transition zone between L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub>, while only part of the middle of L<sub>5</sub> (vertical direction) and S<sub>5</sub> (horizontal direction) had smaller variability.

In summary, the permeability under the initial hydraulic gradient was regarded as the initial permeability. The representative data for the initial permeability (A), the pre-stabilising permeability (B), and the post-stabilising permeability (C) are listed in Table 1.

Table 1 illustrates that A, B, and C first increased then decreased as the profile depth increased in both the vertical and horizontal directions of the fifth loess-palaeosol sequence. Maximum values appeared in L<sub>5-4</sub> at three points. Below L<sub>5-6</sub>, the stratum permeability plummeted. A responded to the depth of stratum, and decreased from 0.33 to 0.001 m d<sup>-1</sup> in the vertical direction, while in the horizontal direction, A decreased from 0.19033 to 0.0010.33 m d<sup>-1</sup>.

### 3.3. Measurement of susceptibility and particle size results

As seen in Figure 8, L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> were significantly different in magnetic susceptibility. The magnetic susceptibility of L<sub>5</sub> changed more moderately than that of S<sub>5</sub>. An abrupt change point appeared at the bottom of L<sub>5</sub> and went deep into S<sub>5</sub> along the stratum. The magnetic susceptibility gradually increased, and periodic minimum values appeared at S<sub>5-2</sub>. The mass susceptibility of L<sub>5</sub> ranged from 4.55 to 11.23 SI, whereas that of S<sub>5</sub> ranged from 8.35 to 21.76 SI. The magnetic susceptibility measurements showed that the effect of weathering and soiling on L<sub>5</sub> was weaker than that on S<sub>5</sub>, which provides a basis for identifying the relationships between the water-chemical properties of L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub>, differences in physical properties, and climate change.

For grain size, as shown in Figure 9, as the stratum went deeper, the grain-size distribution of L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> showed significance differences. In L<sub>5</sub>, the average content of clay, fine-silty sand, coarse silt, and microsand were 23.87%, 19.08%, 55.46%, and 1.58%, respectively, while their ranges were 14.91–35.31%, 15.19–24.49%, 40.05–65.96%, and 0.18–3.93%, respectively. In S<sub>5</sub>, the average contents of clay, fine-silty sand, coarse silt, and microsand were 31.97%, 22.50%, 44.99%, and 0.52%, respectively, while their ranges were 21.80–40.43%, 18.57–28.17%, 35.36–57.32%, and 0.19–1.71%, respectively.

When L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> were compared, the content of clay and fine-silty sand in L<sub>5</sub> was 12% lower than that in S<sub>5</sub>, whereas the content of coarse silt and microsand in L<sub>5</sub> was 12% higher than that in S<sub>5</sub>. Some research used the ratio of percentage content of grains that are smaller than 2 μm and greater than 10 μm as an alternative index for measuring changes in climate (Lu *et al.* 2004; Fu *et al.* 2018). The magnetic susceptibility curves were compared to identify their correlation, which, in turn, further demonstrated the influence of climate change on grain-size composition. While not the only factor, climate may have caused different physical and hydraulic properties in L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub>.

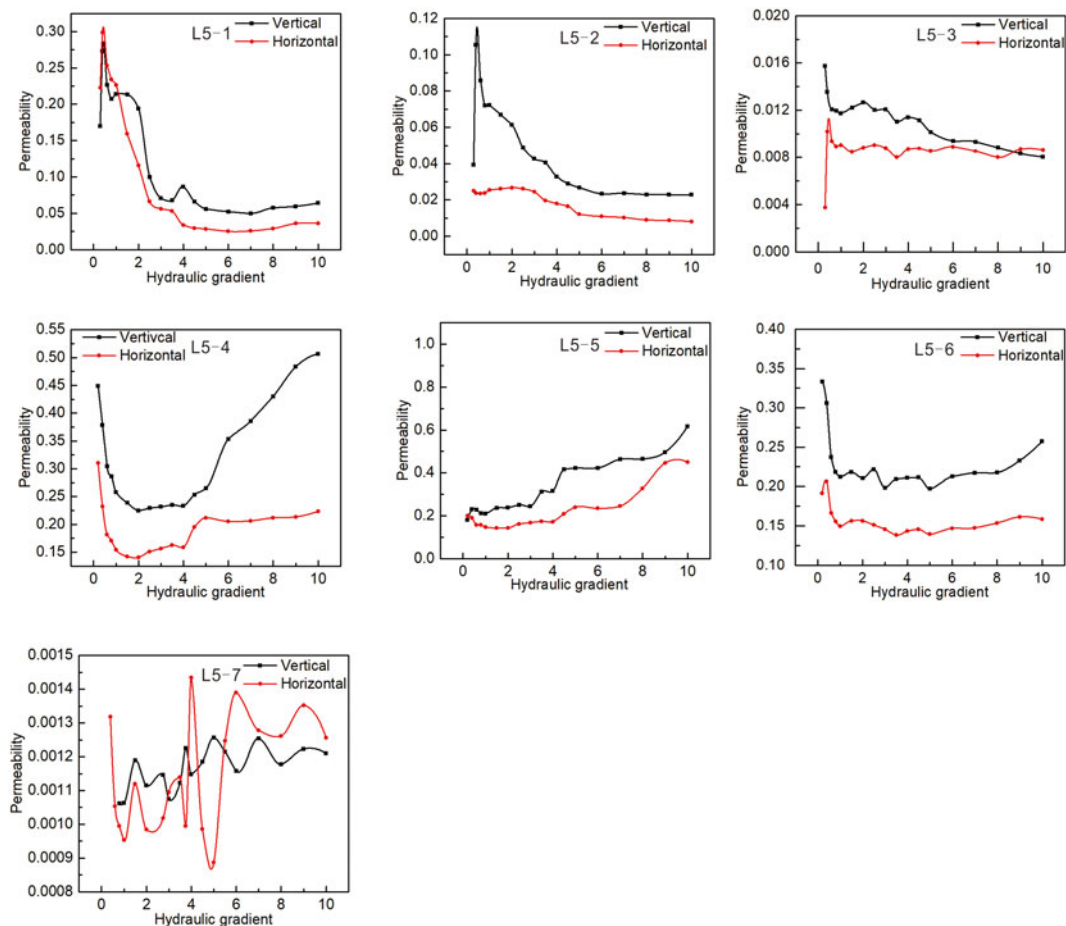


Figure 5 The permeability coefficient varied with the hydraulic gradient from L<sub>5-1</sub> to L<sub>5-7</sub> in the XSD.

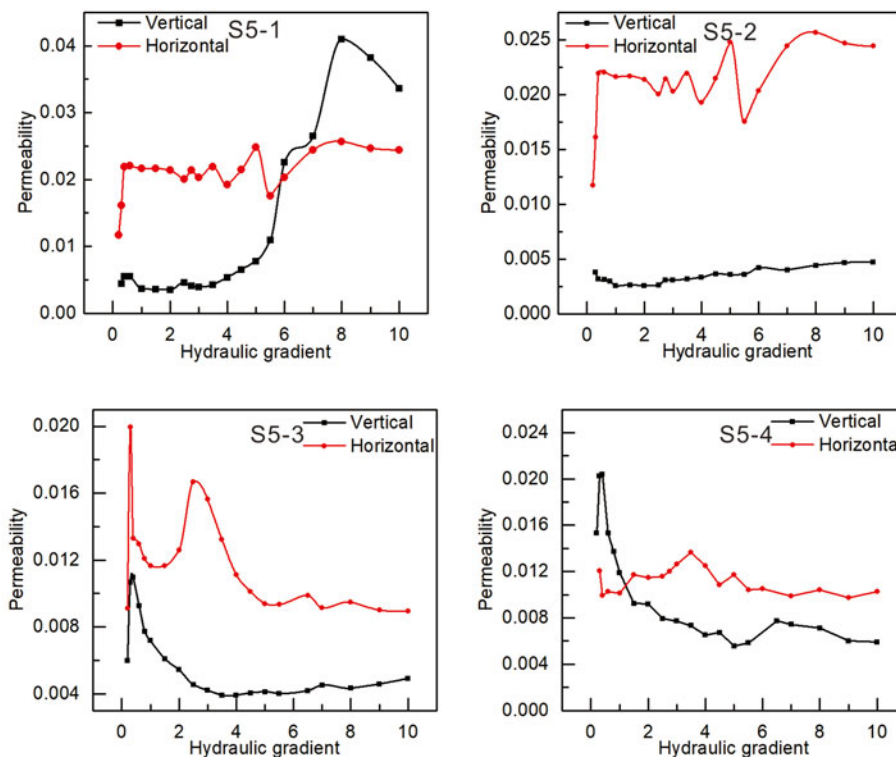


Figure 6 The permeability coefficient varied with the hydraulic gradient from S<sub>5-1</sub> to S<sub>5-4</sub> in the XSD.

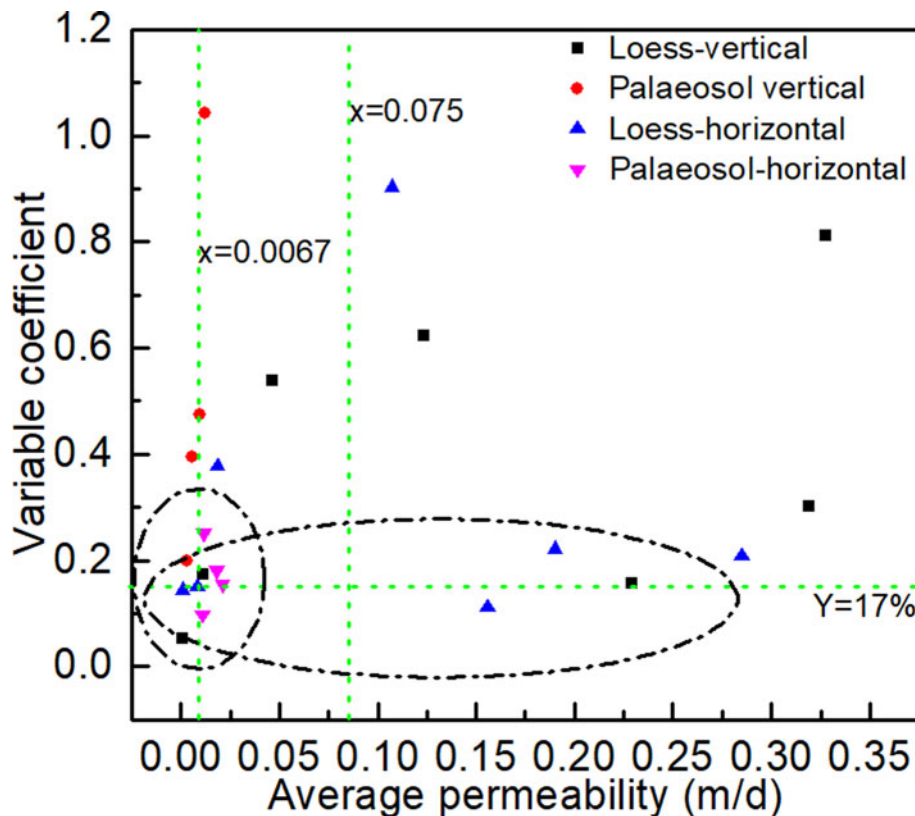


Figure 7 Permeability coefficient variability analysis.

4. Discussion

4.1. Differences in permeability between the loess and palaeosol

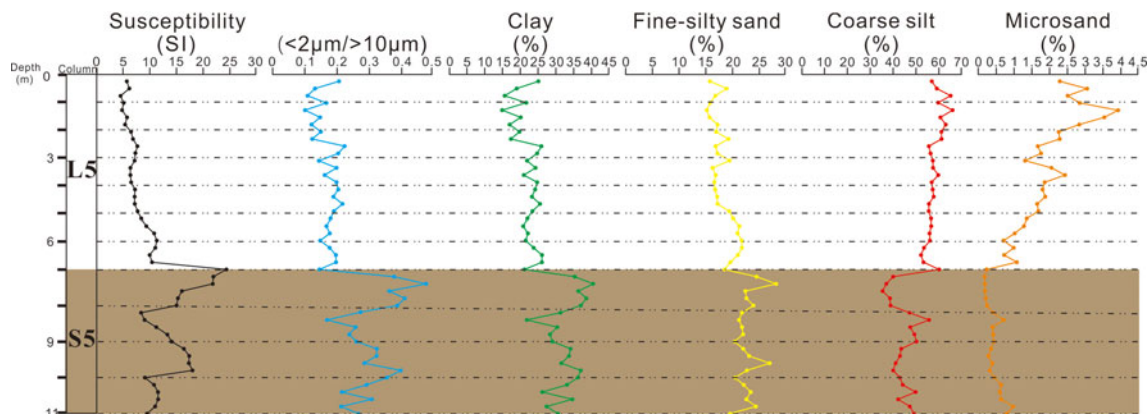
From the results of the indoor penetration test, the relationship between the permeability of L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> and the hydraulic gradient showed contrasting characteristics as stratum depth changed. These characteristics can be divided by different strata. As the hydraulic gradient increased, the permeability either: (1) tended to decrease and become stable; (2) decreased until it reached a stable value, then tended to increase; (3) tended to increase in a stable manner; or (4) had no obvious relationship or showed inconsistent characteristics in the horizontal and vertical permeability.

Condition 1 appeared in the upper part of L<sub>5</sub> (L<sub>5-1</sub>, L<sub>5-2</sub>, L<sub>5-3</sub>, L<sub>5-6</sub>) and in the lower part of S<sub>5</sub> (S<sub>5-3</sub>, S<sub>5-4</sub>) (Fig. 10a). This result can be explained by the fact that as the hydraulic gradient increased, fine grains that had been homogeneously

distributed in the sample migrated in the direction of seepage, which, in turn, made the void ratio of the sample increasingly heterogeneous. According to the average permeability of the vertical heterogeneous interface flow, the permeability for the whole sample was determined by the single-layer minimum permeability plane. Thus, during this permeability test, the permeability gradually decreased as the hydraulic gradient increased within a certain range. Further, the upper part of L<sub>5</sub> and the lower part of S<sub>5</sub> were at the end of the glacial period or at the outset of the interglacial period and were, therefore, subject to local deposition and climate, particularly at the initial point during which the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) surged (Zeede *et al.* 2017). During this period, the desert in the Loess Plateau retreated to the NW and the dust grain size became smaller. In this case, fine grains were gradually deposited in the upper part of L<sub>5</sub> and the lower part of S<sub>5</sub> (Guo *et al.* 2000; Dalai *et al.* 2002; Zhao *et al.* 2012a). Moreover, the direction of seepage was the same as that of deposition. Thus, during this permeability

Table 1 Permeability coefficients of L<sub>5</sub>-S<sub>5</sub> in a Loess section of the XSD.

Column	A (m d <sup>-1</sup> )		B (m d <sup>-1</sup> )		C (m d <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Vertical	Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal
L5-1	0.16969662	0.22273853	0.16561294	0.15631083	0.06141440	0.03042157
L5-2	0.03025413	0.03934244	0.02959773	0.06073634	0.01034758	0.02550326
L5-3	0.01574171	0.00375543	0.01240127	0.00846135	0.00957238	0.00859036
L5-4	0.33342418	0.30987805	0.27649222	0.17823651	0.42561719	0.20324441
L5-5	0.23937217	0.27315022	0.17056405	0.24277045	0.52261591	0.33886053
L5-6	0.33322873	0.19145477	0.23413010	–	0.21960184	–
L5-7	0.00105100	0.00135000	–	–	–	–
S5-1	0.00443385	0.01171810	–	–	–	–
S5-2	0.00378341	0.01171810	–	–	–	–
S5-3	0.00599180	0.00911594	0.00666068	0.01332843	0.00429842	0.00960025
S5-4	0.01533863	0.01205309	0.01207407	0.01162890	0.00654390	0.01069725



**Figure 8** Susceptibility and grain-size curve from L<sub>5</sub>–S<sub>5</sub> of a loess section of the XSD.

test and under a higher hydraulic gradient, the permeability in the upper part of L<sub>5</sub> and in the lower part of S<sub>5</sub> gradually became stable.

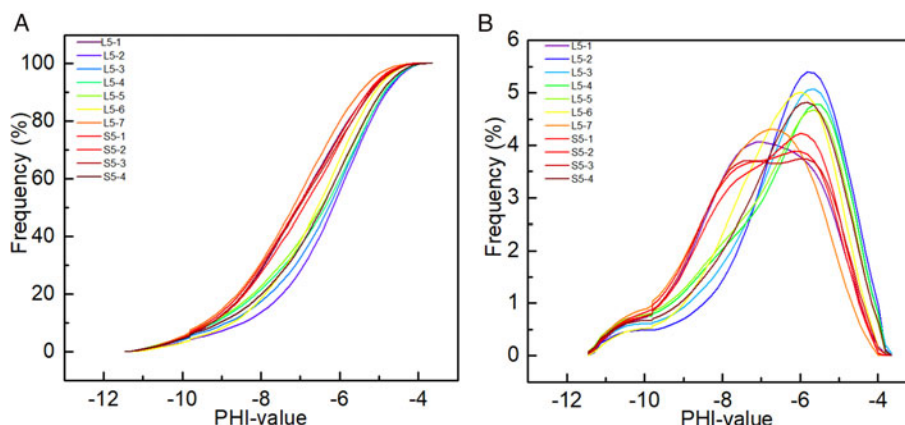
Condition 2 appeared in L<sub>5-4</sub>. When the hydraulic gradient was  $I \leq 4$ , L<sub>5-4</sub> showed characteristics consistent with Condition 1. However, the permeability tended to increase as the hydraulic gradient increased. Magnetic susceptibility and grain-size analysis indicated that this layer was deposited under a dry-cold climate and was located near the centre of the entire L<sub>5</sub> layer (Reyaz *et al.* 2015). This finding implied that L<sub>5-4</sub> was nearly surrounded by the East Asian winter monsoon (EAWM) effect during the sedimentary period. Consequently, the weathering and pedogenesis was too weak to form a macroporous support structure. When sample images were compared before and after permeation, along with the subsequent activity of insects in the soil layer, some soluble substances were filled in. Therefore, when the hydraulic gradient was higher ( $I > 4$ ), the fill substances were flushed off, and permeability increased with the hydraulic gradient (Fig. 10b).

Condition 3 appeared in L<sub>5-5</sub>, with variability similar to that observed in Condition 2 under a higher hydraulic gradient. The table clearly shows that the initial permeability in L<sub>5-5</sub> was very close to that in L<sub>5-4</sub> when it was stabilising, and L<sub>5-5</sub> was deposited before L<sub>5-4</sub>. Judging from the magnetic susceptibility data, during the transition period from L<sub>5-5</sub> to L<sub>5-4</sub>, the intensity of the EAWM gradually weakened, thus reducing the content of large grains that controlled the pore size. Therefore, under the same hydraulic gradient, L<sub>5-5</sub> stabilised before L<sub>5-4</sub>, and L<sub>5-5</sub> may be treated as a special condition of L<sub>5-4</sub> in which it is under a larger hydraulic gradient. Soil formation involves

weathering of the parent material and transformations and translocations of what is within the material, which results in changes of particle size. While the intensity of the winter monsoon has an impact on soil formation, it is not the only factor.

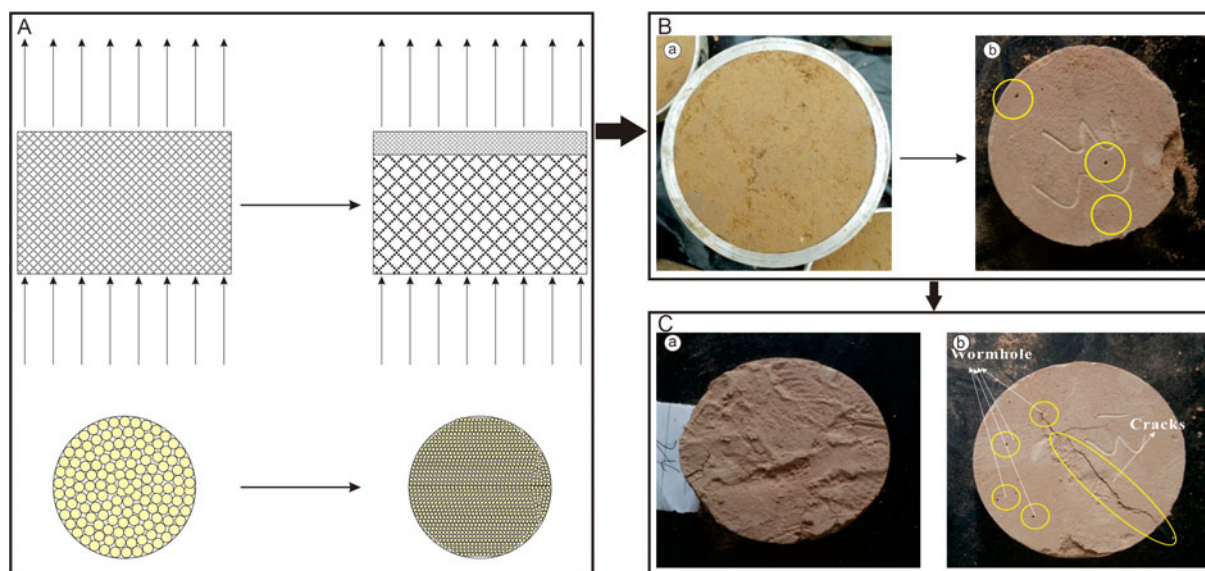
Condition 4 appeared in the lower part of L<sub>5</sub> and in the upper part of S<sub>5</sub>. In terms of the position of deposition, these sampling points were in the transition zone from the palaeosol to the loess and had similar sedimentary characteristics. The intensity of the EASM gradually weakened, whereas that of the EAWM began to strengthen (Wang 2005; Zhang *et al.* 2013). As suggested in Figure 7, the intensity of the EASM not only weakened but also tended to fluctuate, which resulted in a heterogeneous material structure in the depositary layer. Further, the soil leaching effect caused a sharp contrast in permeability between the bottom and lower part of L<sub>5</sub> and the sedimentary layer above it.

The permeation process in the samples was not solely influenced by the climate (Jiang *et al.* 2016; Yang *et al.* 2017). According to the analysis of variability, the stable permeability of S<sub>5</sub> was not only poorer, it was also relatively stable as the hydraulic gradient increased, especially in the vertical direction. However, L<sub>5</sub> showed the opposite characteristics, with the condition appearing at the bottom of L<sub>5</sub>, in which the permeability was unstable as the hydraulic gradient changed. To further examine the causes of these differences, samples were obtained from the permeameter after the completion of the permeability test (Fig. 10c), and visible wormholes and fissures had appeared after the completion of the permeability test on L<sub>5</sub>. This finding indicated that the biological effects of the soil are also an important factor influencing its permeability. Given that biological effects are not cyclical like the Quaternary climate, the relationship between



**Figure 9** Grain-size distribution and cumulative grain-size distribution curves for L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> of a loess section of the XSD. (A) Probability cumulative grain-size distribution curves and (B) probability grain-size distribution curves.





**Figure 10** (A) Simulation diagrams of the loess samples during the long-term penetration test; (B) comparison of samples (a) before and (b) after infiltration; (C) comparison of (a) palaeosol and (b) loess.

the palaeosol and the loess in terms of permeability and hydraulic gradient becomes increasingly unstable.

In summary, the permeability of the fifth loess–palaeosol sequence was correlated to the climate. Climatic changes were accompanied with different materials, structures, and grain-size compositions, which, in turn, caused contrasting permeability characteristics under different hydraulic gradients. In addition, there was an uncertain biological effect from the soil immediately followed by unstable permeability, which changed with the hydraulic gradient during the permeation process. In this sense, the permeability differences in the loess–palaeosol sequence can be used as a reference index for changes in the climate and the biological environment.

#### 4.2. Influence of material structure characteristics of the stratum on permeability

Previous studies on loess–palaeosol sequences have suggested that the grain-size composition can be used as an alternative index for indicating changes in climate and the intensity of weathering and pedogenesis (Guo *et al.* 2000; Singh *et al.* 2008; Liu *et al.* 2015). As described earlier, finer-grain components migrated along the direction of seepage during the permeation process, which resulted in changes in the coefficient of permeation. In addition, the grain-size composition also had a great influence on the stability of the permeability of the loess–palaeosol sequence.

As shown in Table 1 and Figure 9, during the evolution process from L<sub>5</sub> to S<sub>5</sub>, the ratio of grains that were smaller than 2 μm and greater than 10 μm were regarded as the result of index analysis, which tended to increase. The content of clay and fine-silty sand gradually decreased, as did the stable permeability in each layer of the study profile. This observation can be attributed to the fact that as fine-grain content increases, it often results in smaller pore sizes in the sedimentary layer, lower porosity, higher dry density (Fig. 4), and weaker connectivity of pores, which, in turn, cause the stable permeability to decrease. Compared to S<sub>5</sub>, there were coarser grains in L<sub>5</sub>, ensuring that L<sub>5</sub> had higher porosity, larger pore size, and better connectivity between effective pores, which, in turn, caused the stable permeability to increase.

Similarly, given that the moisture in the loess–palaeosol sequence mainly existed in the form of film water, the content of clay and fine-silty sand was higher in S<sub>5</sub> (Fig. 4) and the stratum had a stronger absorption (Xu & Zhao 2002; Fu *et al.* 2018;

Chen *et al.* 2020a, b), which reduced the stable permeability during the permeation process. Compared to S<sub>5</sub>, the content of clay and fine-silty sand in L<sub>5</sub> was lower, but the content of coarse silt and microsand was higher, the soil absorption was weaker, and the moisture content was lower, which, in turn, caused the stable permeability to be greater than that of S<sub>5</sub>.

This analysis showed that the grain-size composition of the soil largely determines the physical and hydraulic properties of the loess–palaeosol sequence, which, in turn, influences permeability.

#### 4.3. Differences in aquifers of the loess–palaeosol sequence as a result of climate change

According to field observations, almost no CaCO<sub>3</sub> nodules were found in L<sub>5</sub> and the magnetic susceptibility curve was relatively flat, which indicated that L<sub>5</sub> was deposited under a climate with less precipitation and pedogenesis. In S<sub>5</sub>, there were more CaCO<sub>3</sub> nodules and the magnetic susceptibility curve often formed prominent peaks, indicating that S<sub>5</sub> was deposited under a climate with abundant precipitation and a stronger leaching effect (Wang 2005; Zhao *et al.* 2017).

Chemical weathering is often done via water; thus, it is almost impossible to observe under a dry environment (Zhao *et al.* 2012b). Therefore, S<sub>5</sub> deposited during the humid-warm interglacial period showed a stronger leaching effect, contained more enriched ferromagnetic minerals, and had a higher magnetic susceptibility (Huang *et al.* 2009). However, the weathering effect in the loess was weaker under the dry-cold climate, causing lower magnetic susceptibility (Zhao *et al.* 2015). According to the comparison between the porosity curve and the magnetic susceptibility curve, L<sub>5</sub> had a lower magnetic susceptibility value and a higher porosity, whereas S<sub>5</sub> had a higher magnetic susceptibility value and a lower porosity. Differences in porosity between L<sub>5</sub> and S<sub>5</sub> may have been primarily caused by the dominant climate at the time of deposition. The surface the difference between these things types of loess, cementing the grains around the pores that were built when windblown dust fell down and fixed them in a very loose structure. In this way, overhead large pores can be easily formed in the loess. After being compressed by the overlying stratum, the palaeosol grains with more clay were filled with clay, leaving some small pores between them (Fang *et al.* 2017).

The pores in loess soil were mainly formed during their formation. The intensity of pedogenesis is directly correlated to the

climate. During the sedimentary period of the loess under a relatively dry-cold climate, the clarification was weaker, and there were no cements between deposited grains, resulting in the development of an aquifer between the grains. During the formation of the palaeosol, the climate was relatively humid-warm, as the EASM in the SE direction was enhanced and the desert in the Loess Plateau retreated to the NW, making the dust grains increasingly fine. The combined effects of high temperature, high precipitation, and fine grains resulted in strengthened clarification in the palaeosol, mutually cemented grains, and reduced porosity, which, in turn, enhanced its water-resistant properties. The experimental results showed that although the porosity of  $S_5$  was lower than that of  $L_5$ , it was still high. In this sense, the water-resistant properties of the palaeosol were only relative to that of loess, and may still become permeable under certain conditions.

In summary, the differences in aquifer properties between the loess–palaeosol sequence result from the cyclic impacts between EASM and EAWM.

## 5. Conclusions

- (1) In the loess–palaeosol sequence of the XSD profile, as the hydraulic gradient increased, different experimental points showed inconsistent characteristics due to environmental differences during the deposition period. However, the strata, subject to similar monsoon effects, shared certain similarities.
- (2) Subject to the dominant effect of the alternating cycles of the EASM and EAWM, the differences in grain-size composition between the loess–palaeosol sequence under the sedimentary environment was the primary cause for the different values of stable permeability in different stratum. Moreover, the stable permeability of the loess, which is mainly composed of coarse grains, was significantly higher than that of the palaeosol, which is mainly composed of fine grains.
- (3) The aquifer in the loess was more deposited than that in the palaeosol as it is closely associated with the alternating cycles of dry-cold and humid-warm climates during the Quaternary period. The loess formed during the dry-cold glacial period showed a weak soling effect. The deposited grains, which were relatively coarse, formed large pores with stronger permeability and larger aquifer, which was conducive to recharge.

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