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# **Ancient TL**

Started by the late David Zimmerman in 1977

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# Comparison of *DosiVox* simulation results with tabulated data and standard calculations

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#### Abstract

The *DosiVox* software allows modeling various situations of dosimetric interest for trapped charge dating methods. Simulation of  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -dose rates are considered here in adapted modeling. The results of numerical simulations are compared with tabulated data of dose attenuation in layers and grains usually used in the dating community. Good agreements are found with the tabulated data, and some limits of usual approximations are highlighted.

Keywords: *DosiVox*, dose rate modeling, software, Geant 4

#### 1. Introduction

*DosiVox* is a Geant4 based software for simulating dose rates in various contexts encountered in trapped charge dating methods. It is freely available<sup>1</sup> and has already been used in two studies: in the first one (Martin et al., 2015a) its features were illustrated by a series of selected examples, while in the second, Martin et al. (2015b) presented dose rate modeling of a complex sediment sample previously characterized by numerous analytical techniques. Meanwhile, considering the diversity of samples and dosimetric contexts that can be encountered in trapped charge dating and for which numerical simulations can be of interest to assess the effect of dis-

tinct parameters on the dose rates, it is difficult to evaluate the reliability of the modeling results because of the lack of comparative data. We propose in this paper to test *DosiVox* in dosimetric layouts described in the literature for which tabulated data are available. The relevance of the compared data will be discussed as well as the limits of the usefulness of these modelings.

#### 2. Procedure

The DosiVox software allows modeling samples by constructing a voxelised (3D) volume where the material and the associated radioactivity can be defined in each voxel. The emission of  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -particles from the natural radioactive elements can be simulated and the corresponding dose rates can be recorded by different detector types (Martin et al., 2015a). The software does not need any programming skills, all the parameters used to construct the simulation being defined with a "pilot" text file. For the purpose of this study, DosiVox version 1.03 was used. A new feature of particle reflection on the walls of the volume, not yet available in the online version of the software, was sometimes used in the simulations in order to speed them up and to increase the statistical counting. However, all the results reported here were first tested without this option, to ensure that it has no effect on the exactness of the results.

We propose to arrange this study in three parts, each of them considering a particular *DosiVox* detector type with its own utility and purpose. The simulations, results and discussions of each case are presented in the corresponding part for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>http://www.iramat-crp2a.cnrs.fr/spip/spip.php?article144

a better consistency.

In the first part, the dose rate profiles generated by a juxtaposition of layers differing by their radioactivity are investigated. The results concerning the  $\gamma$ -dose rates are compared to the data gathered by Aitken (1985). Simulations of the  $\beta$ -dose attenuation in a silica layer of variable thickness have been carried out in a similar way as Brennan (2006)'s calculations. At last, the attenuation of the  $\alpha$ -dose rate in calcite layers calculated by *DosiVox* is compared to the data from Grün (1987). All these dose rates were recorded with the "Probe" detector of *DosiVox*, a detector composed of a cylinder crossing through the height of the modeled volume and divided in several parts, each one recording the dose deposits.

The second part explores the modeling of dose attenuation effects in sedimentary grains, using the grain packing detectors of *DosiVox*. These detectors were mainly set in an almost infinite matrix layout because the majority of the available data had been calculated for this situation. Both internal and external dose deposits were calculated for 100  $\mu$ m grains using  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -radiations, and for 1 mm grains as well in the case of the  $\beta$ -particles. The results are compared to the tabulated data from Bell (1980), Guérin et al. (2012) and Martin et al. (2014). The effect of water content and matrix material are also briefly investigated in the case of the  $\beta$ -dose rate, for a comparison with Nathan & Mauz (2008) data. In addition, a test to check for the complementarity of the internal and external  $\beta$ -dose rates is presented for a packing of 400  $\mu$ m grains.

The last part of the study focuses on the subvoxelised detector of *DosiVox* that allows detailing an object with a finer level of resolution. Voxelised sphere modelings were used for these tests because several data concerning the attenuation of dose in spherical volumes can be found in the literature, for  $\alpha$ - (Bell, 1980; Martin et al., 2014)  $\beta$ - (Mejdahl, 1979; Fain et al., 1999; Guérin et al., 2012) and  $\gamma$ -radiations (Mejdahl, 1983; Aitken, 1985). The possibilities offered by *DosiVox* for visualizing the dose deposits are used to illustrate the kind of information that simulations can bring for apprehending dose rate distributions.

Some of the simulation results presented in this paper are normalized to the quantity of energy carried by the primary particles emitted by unit of mass (EmMass) in the material used as a reference. This value is homogeneous with a dose, and corresponds to the infinite matrix dose of the reference material. Meanwhile, as the main purpose of DosiVox is to investigate dose rates in cases which are far away from the infinite matrix case, the EmMass term can be considered more adapted to this context. Normalizing the dose results provided by the simulation by the EmMass term is a convenient way to proceed because it allows representing them as values relative to a calculable annual dose. This ratio (simulated dose divided by *EmMass*) is therefore proportional to a dose rate as it only requires to be multiplied by the corresponding specific annual dose of the radioelement present in the reference material, taken from Guérin et al. (2012) for instance.

#### 3. Layer to layer variation

# **3.1.** Variation of dose rate from a radioactive layer to an inert one



Figure 1.  $\gamma$ -dose rate in a radioactive layer next to an inert layer.

This first simulation layout is presented in appendix H of Aitken's book (Aitken, 1985). A radioactive layer of soil is next to an inert layer of an identical soil. The  $\gamma$  dose rate profile from the <sup>40</sup>K, U- and Th-series spectra are investigated at the interface of the two media. The different spectra are taken from the DosiVox data (Martin et al., 2015a), the decay chains of the U- and Th-series being in secular equilibrium. The chemical composition of the soil is taken from Aitken: O 50 %, Si 36 %, Al 6.9 %, Ca 0.5 %, Fe 3.5 %, Mg 0.4 %, K 1.5%, Na 0.6%, Ti 0.6%. The dry soil density is  $1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , and the moisture represents 25 % of the dry mass which leads to a total density of 2 g cm<sup>-3</sup> for the moist sediment. Figure 1 shows the dose rate profiles of the  $\gamma$  emissions from the different spectra, and the weighted mean of their contribution for contents of 1 % in mass of K, 3 ppm of U and 10 ppm of Th (which corresponds to weights of 20 % for the  $^{40}\mathrm{K}$  dose rate, 30 % for the U-series and 50 % for the Thseries). These proportions were also used by Aitken (1985). Aitken's results are represented on Fig. 1 for comparison.

We can observe that the results of the *DosiVox* simulations match very well the data from Aitken (1985). Few difference can be observed and likely result from the evolution of  $\gamma$ -spectra and cross section values since 1985.



Figure 2.  $\gamma$ -dose rate next to the surface of a soil.

Aitken estimated that the curve part representing the dose rate in the radioactive layer (from -50 to 0 cm on the horizontal axis) could be used to calculate the dose rate at the surface of a soil, considering that the inert part is replaced by air. However, by replacing the one meter-thick inert soil layer, by an equal volume of air (N 78%, O 22%, density = 0.00129 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, water content = 0 %), the *DosiVox* simulation result presented on Fig. 2 indicates a profile significantly different. The lower dose rate observed from -15 cm to 0 cm results from a lack of back-scattered  $\gamma$ -particles from the meter of air next to the soil, in comparison with the quantity of particles back-scattered by the inert soil in the previous simulation. The assumption of Aitken was yet not wrong because if a length of air superior to the  $\gamma$ -range in this material had been simulated, the back-scattered  $\gamma$ -particles in air would have compensated the lower dose rate in the first fifteen centimeters of soil. But in a real case of measurement, this back-scattered  $\gamma$ -flux is mixed with all the  $\gamma$ -rays coming from adjacent sediments, as they have a long range in air. Considering the very different ranges of the direct  $\gamma$ self-irradiation of the soil and of the back-scattered particles in the air, it could be more pertinent to take in account separately these two contributions to the total  $\gamma$ -dose rate at the surface of the sediment.

We can observe in Fig. 1A that the Th-series  $\gamma$ -dose rate profile is very close to the weighted  $\gamma$ -dose rate profile. Therefore, the Th-series  $\gamma$ -spectrum will be used for the next simulations of  $\gamma$ -rays, because it is directly available in *Do-siVox* and can be considered as representative of an average behavior of  $\gamma$ -radiations.

A similar situation is considered now for the  $\beta$ -dose rate, but we replaced the soil material by pure silica. This layout corresponds to the geometry considered by Brennan et al. (1997) for calculating  $\beta$ -dose rate attenuation in a silica layer of variable thickness. The silica material is composed of SiO<sub>2</sub> 100% with a density of 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup> and no moisture. The  $\beta$ -doses deposited in the inert layers for the <sup>40</sup>K, Useries and Th-series spectra are given in Fig. 3. The x-axis represents the thickness of the inert silica layer, and the dose rates are expressed as the percentage of the dose rate in an infinitely thin inert layer next to a radioactive one. These results were obtained by averaging the dose recorded in the segments of the "Probe" detector overlaying the inert part of the model for the considered thickness. The *DosiVox* results are compared with the data calculated by Brennan et al. (1997) using the ROSY software and the Monte-Carlo calculations of Cross et al. (1992), and with the data from Grün (1986) reported by Brennan et al. (1997) in his paper.



Figure 3.  $\beta$ -dose rate in a silica inert layer next to a radioactive layer

The *DosiVox* results are consistent with the data obtained by Brennan et al. (1997) by applying the table of Cross et al. (1992) on a silica medium. This agreement makes sense since as for *DosiVox*, the Cross tables were calculated using Monte-Carlo simulations and Brennan considered the different contributions of the natural  $\beta$  emitters.

A similar approach using planar geometries had been carried out by Grün (1987) for calculating the attenuation of  $\alpha$ -dose rate in mollusc shells: a radioactive sediment next to a layer of calcite (representing the shell) had been studied. We reproduced these calculations using a similar modeling to the one used for the  $\gamma$ - and  $\beta$ -dose rate simulations, but in the present case, the radioactive part was filled with a typical dry clay sediment (SiO<sub>2</sub> 54 %, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 46 %, density:  $1.8 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ) and the inert part with pure calcite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>, density:  $2.7 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ). As previously, the dose rate in a layer of a particular thickness was calculated by averaging the dose recorded in the corresponding "Probe" segments, and by dividing this number by the EmMass value of the sediment. The DosiVox results are compared to those of Grün (1987) in Fig. 4. The DosiVox dose rates follow the trend of Grün's results, and are in quite good agreement even if they are slightly lower. This small difference could be explained by a difference in the sediment composition or in the equations describing the interaction of  $\alpha$ -particles with calcite at different energies.



Figure 4.  $\alpha$ -dose rate in a calcite inert layer next to a radioactive sediment layer.

# 3.2. γ-dose rate in a radioactive layer between two less radioactive media

We are now considering a little more complex layout of a soil layer sandwiched between two less radioactive media. This case was also presented by Aitken (1985) in the appendix H of his book: the internal layer was two times more radioactive than the surrounding soils. We considered two cases, when the internal layer is 4 cm thick and when it is 40 cm thick. The Th-series  $\gamma$ -spectrum was used, and the chemical composition, density and moisture of the soils are identical to those of section 1.1. The dose rate profiles were calculated separately for the internal layer and for the twice less radioactive soils, and are presented in Fig. 5. For both thicknesses, the sum of these two contributions are also indicated, as well as the data from Aitken. In the case of a 4 cm thick internal layer, a simulation in one shot of both the radioactivity of the layer and the surrounding soils was also carried out and the results are presented on Fig. 5A.



Figure 5.  $\gamma$ -dose rate in a layer between two soils having half as much radioactivity

As we can see, there is excellent agreement in both cases with the Aitken calculations. In the case of the 4 cm layer, the dose rate from the surrounding layers, and consequently the sum of the dose rates, is just a little bit lower compared to Aitken's data. This effect may be due to the use of the Th-series spectrum instead of a weighted spectrum resulting from a combination of <sup>40</sup>K, U- and Th-series spectra, but the difference is very small. We can also observe in this case that the sum of the dose rate from the two contributions perfectly matches the dose rate profile obtained by simulating in one shot both the radioactivities of the layers and of the two soils, suggesting that these two ways of calculation are consistent with each other. In other words, the principle of superposition of dose rates is conserved by *DosiVox*.

In addition to these dose rate profiles, Aitken (1985) also investigated the variation of the dose rate at the center of the layer, surrounded by non-radioactive levels, with its thickness. The results obtained for various thickness values with *DosiVox* are compared to Aitken's calculations in Fig. 6. These results are also in good agreement: only small differences can be observed, which may be caused by the use of only the Th-series spectrum, or to changes in the nuclear data since Aitken's publication.



Figure 6.  $\gamma$ -dose rate in median plane of radioactive layer between two inert regions.

#### 4. $\alpha$ - and $\beta$ -dose rates in spherical grains

The sedimentary grains can be considered as the most frequently dated objects with paleodosimetric methods. We propose in this part to test the reliability of *DosiVox* for representing the dose rate affecting quartz grains in standard cases. Considering that the grain sizes usually used are significantly smaller than the mean range of the  $\gamma$ -rays (which limits the dosimetric effects that can be induced by the presence of grains), the following simulations are focused on the  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -dose rates only.

#### **4.1.** $\alpha$ - and $\beta$ -dose rate in infinite matrix conditions

In most cases, a sedimentary grain is considered as a small heterogeneity in a uniform and infinite matrix. According to this model, the dose received by a grain depends on the infinite matrix dose rate (which is replaced by the *EmMass* in this study) corrected by an attenuation factor corresponding to its size (Fleming, 1970) and by the moisture of the surrounding matrix (Zimmerman, 1971). The self-dose of the grain can also be considered, but it is only affected by the size of the grain; this self-dose is then the exact complement of that of the matrix (because of the principle of superposition) if the grain and the matrix are made of the same components. This configuration has been reproduced in DosiVox by modeling a single grain, surrounded by a matrix that is uniform in terms of chemical composition, density, moisture and radioactivity. The grain self-dose and the dose from the matrix were calculated for different radiations and configurations. The volume of the model has been adapted in each case in order to have in all directions a matrix whose dimensions are larger than the maximum range of the particles considered in the medium.

The results of the  $\alpha$ -dose rate simulation for the U- and

Th-series spectra are shown in Fig. 7. The attenuation factors in a 100  $\mu$ m diameter quartz grain for the self-dose and the dose from the matrix have been obtained by dividing the dose recorded in the grain by the *EmMass* values, respectively of the grain and the surrounding matrix. The grain is composed of SiO<sub>2</sub> with a density of 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, which corresponds to quartz, and the matrix is also made of SiO<sub>2</sub> but with a density of 1.8 g cm<sup>-3</sup> in order to represent a siliceous sediment. The moisture is zero.



Figure 7.  $\alpha$ -dose attenuation in 100  $\mu$ m diameter quartz grain.

The *DosiVox* results are compared to the data calculated by Bell (1980) and Martin et al. (2014) for  $\alpha$ -dose attenuation. The data from Martin et al. were obtained with a specific Geant4 code and are corrected for the matrix effect i.e. in taking into account the siliceous composition of the matrix. One can see on Fig. 7 that the *DosiVox* results match the data from Martin et al. and are close to Bell's calculations, what suggests a good reliability of the software for simulating  $\alpha$ -particles.

The  $\beta$ -dose rate attenuation factors for self-dose in  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  and 1 mm grains, as the dose from the matrix in the case of a 1 mm grain, are given in Fig. 8. The  $\beta$ -spectra available in *DosiVox* for <sup>40</sup>K, U-series and Th-series have been used. The grains are composed of quartz, and both a silica matrix (SiO<sub>2</sub> 100%) and a clay matrix (SiO<sub>2</sub> 54%, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 46 %), both with density 1.8 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, have been considered. The results are compared to the data from Guérin et al. (2012) concerning the  $\beta$ -dose rate attenuation for various grain sizes, deduced from the self-dose in quartz grains. A good agreement is found between the Guérin and DosiVox results. Small differences can be observed but remain lower than 3%. They could possibly be explained by different assumptions made in the simulation. For the DosiVox simulations performed with a 1 mm grain, one can observe a perfect complementarity of the self-dose and the dose in the case of the silica matrix in agreement with the principle of superposition. It is also noticeable that a non-negligible difference can be observed between the dose rate from the silica and the clay matrix. Similar observations were made by Martin et al. (2014) for the  $\alpha$ -dose rate in grains resulting in an attenuation factor depending on the matrix chemical composition. This effect on the  $\beta$ -dose rate could result in significant systematic errors in age calculation if not taken into account. In particular, it could be important for fine grains whose  $\beta$ -self-dose contribution is smaller than coarse grains, or for matrices whose chemical composition is significantly different from silica (since pure silica was the material usually used for calculating  $\beta$ -dose attenuation factors).



Figure 8.  $\beta$ -dose attenuation in 100  $\mu$ m and 1 mm diameter quartz grains.

It is also well known that the sediment moisture content has a considerable impact on the attenuation of the dose rates because of the higher probability of interaction of the ionizing particles with water in comparison to the solid materials present in sediments (Aitken, 1985). Taking in account the effect of moisture on dose rates has a significant impact in dating. In order to assess this effect with *DosiVox*, different contents of water have been added to the previously used silica and clay matrices. The attenuated dose rates obtained are showed in Fig. 9.



Figure 9. Impact of the matrix moisture content on the  $\beta$ -dose in 1 mm quartz grain.

Considering the equation of Zimmerman (1971) for taking into account the effect of water on the  $\beta$ -dose rate in a sediment, it is possible to use the results of these simulations to calculate the  $\chi$ -factor which represents the ratio of  $\beta$ -dose absorption between the water and the sediment. If an equal contribution of the <sup>40</sup>K, Th- and U-series  $\beta$ -emissions is considered, values of  $\chi = 1.20 \pm 0.02$  are calculated for the  $\beta$ dose rate in both the silica and clay matrices. It is noticeable that, since these materials have different  $\beta$ -dose absorptions, they should lead to different  $\chi$ -values, as it was already noticed by Martin et al. (2014) about the effect of moisture on the  $\alpha$ -dose rate. But as one can observe on Fig. 9, this difference remains small for  $\beta$ -radiations. Moreover, the  $\chi$ -value obtained with the *DosiVox* simulations is consistent with the value of 1.19–1.20 calculated by Nathan & Mauz (2008) for carbonate-rich sediments (Notice that these authors used another Monte-Carlo code -MCNP- for their simulations). Finally, if the emission of the <sup>40</sup>K is considered as the main contribution of the  $\beta$ -dose rate in the clay matrix, the  $\chi$ -value calculated by the *DosiVox* simulations is closer to 1.19.

#### 4.2. Complementarity of external and internal βdose rates

The modeling of a single grain embedded in an infinite homogeneous matrix is not representative of sediments presenting a relative high proportion of grains. Dosimetric effects can be induced by the presence of grains next to each other. A common way to model these effects is to create a random packing of spheres, representing the grains, in order to simulate the dose rate in this geometry (Guérin et al., 2012). DosiVox offers this possibility by including a grainpacking algorithm, each grain created being an independent detector recording the dose it receives during the simulation. It is difficult to have a point of comparison for this kind of results because of the lack of similar calculations. The modeling of Nathan et al. (2003), Brennan (2006) or Guérin et al. (2012) focused on polymineral grain packings, with different radioactive contents, a situation not possible to reproduce in DosiVox: only one grain composition can be defined in a packing, and the particle emission can originate either from the matrix or from the grains. We then propose to test a more basic assumption in order to contribute to the validation of this kind of modeling: the principle of superposition of the dose rate. According to this principle, if two different parts of the dose rate are calculated separately, the total dose rate should be the sum of the two calculated ones.

The modeling that we consider here is composed of a grid of  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  cubic voxels of 5 mm in size each one (for a total grid size of  $15 \times 15 \times 15$  mm), filled with silica (SiO<sub>2</sub>, density: 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup>). In the central voxel, 400  $\mu$ m diameter silica grains, representing 30 % of the voxel volume (about one thousand grains), are separated from the surrounding matrix (Fig. 10). All the volume is homogeneous in terms of material and radioactivity. The  $\beta$ -particles emitted from the grains or from the surrounding matrix and the adjacent voxels are simulated separately. One considers here the  $\beta$ spectrum of the Th-series only. The doses deposited in the grains, originating from the grains or from the surrounding environment respectively, were recorded and compared to the infinite matrix dose rate (corresponding respectively to the grain *EmMass* and to the matrix *EmMass*). The average dose deposited in the grains and originating from the grains corresponds to  $37 \pm 1$  % of the infinite matrix dose rate. The average dose deposited in the grains, but originating from the surrounding environment, corresponds to  $63 \pm 1\%$  of the infinite matrix dose rate. The sum of the two dose rates is then compatible with 100, which fully satisfies the principle of superposition.



Figure 10. Visualization of the random packing of  $400 \,\mu\text{m}$  grains for the  $\beta$ -dose rate complementarity test.

Figure 11. Voxelised modeling of a sphere.

#### 5. Dose rate attenuation in a voxelised sphere

This last simulation layout purpose is to test the reliability of a voxelised modeling to represent an object for dose rate calculation. More precisely, the sub-voxelised detector of *DosiVox* was used to represent a 100 voxels diameter sphere. This modeling was constructed by loading a 3D image of a sphere in the *DosiVox* interface for the creation of a "pilot" text file (Martin et al., 2015a) (Fig. 11). As the size of the voxels can be changed, the total size of the sphere can be adjusted for different modelings. The results of the simulations of  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -dose rates in spheres of various dimensions, and various materials in the case of the  $\gamma$ -emissions, are presented in Table 1 and compared to standard attenuation factors for these configurations.

The results of the dose rates simulated with *DosiVox* using the voxelised modeling of spheres are in good agreement with the reference data. However, a non-negligible bias can be observed for the  $\gamma$ -self-dose compared to the data from Aitken (1985), derived from Mejdahl (1983) and presented as approximations to evaluate the  $\gamma$ -dose rate in a sphere. These differences may result from the incomplete  $\gamma$ -spectrum used by Mejdahl or by the fact that Aitken approximated the data rather than using an exact equation. Moreover, the *DosiVox* simulations of the self-doses in a non-voxelised 10 cm sphere (i.e. in the same layout as for section 3 calculations) gave results identical to the simulations of the voxelised spheres within the range of 1%. We can then conclude that voxelised modeling with reasonable resolution can be considered as representative of non-voxelised modeling.

In addition to the average self-dose rate in a sphere, the sub-voxelised detector of *DosiVox* creates a threedimensional mapping of the dose deposited in the form of successive text files containing a matrix of dose values, each file representing the dose deposited in a slice of the model. It is possible to read this series of text files with an image processing software, like *ImageJ* (Rasband, 1997; Schneider et al., 2012), to visualize and study the dose in each slice, or to reconstruct the 3D-mapping of the dose deposited (Fig. 12). Using this process or the records of the "Probe" detector of *DosiVox*, one can obtain the dose profile through simulation (Fig. 13). The various dosimetric data collected by voxelised modeling in *DosiVox* could bring useful information for better understanding the dosimetric phenomena encountered in paleodosimetric dating.



Figure 12. Self-dose mapping in voxelised spheres.

Radiation	Diameter	Density	Material	DosiVox	Reference	Reference	Difference
(Series)	of the sphere	$(g cm^{-3})$		(Selfdose/EmMass)	value	publication	
$\alpha$ (Th)	100 µ m	2.65	Silica	0.765	0.764	Martin et al. (2014)	0.02 %
$\beta$ (Th)	100 µ m	2.65	Silica	0.136	0.134	Guérin et al. (2012)	-1.57 %
$\beta$ (Th)	1 mm	2.65	Silica	0.455	0.449	Guérin et al. (2012)	-1.30 %
$\gamma$ (Th)	10 cm	2.65	Silica	0.242	0.265	Aitken (1985)	9.46 %
$\gamma$ (Th)	10 cm	2	Clay	0.186	0.200	Aitken (1985)	7.43 %

Table 1. :  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -self-doses in the voxelised modeling of a sphere.



Figure 13. Dose rate profiles along the middle axis of voxelised radioactive spheres.

#### 6. Conclusion

The results of the *DosiVox* simulations for the cases presented here are consistent with the already published data. Some differences can be observed but may be due to nuclear and cross sections data updates, or to small differences between the modelings in *DosiVox* and the previous representations. More important is the fact that the principle of superposition has been successfully tested in different modeling cases. Moreover, *DosiVox* offers tools allowing accessing spatially detailed information about the dose rates, in clusters of grains, or through three-dimensional dose rate mapping.

In addition to the comparison with usual data, the *DosiVox* results highlight the limits of some assumption frequently used: the  $\gamma$ -dose rate close to the surface of a sediment does

not perfectly match the half of the infinite matrix dose rate in real environment conditions. We also observed that a nonnegligible difference is observed between the attenuation of the matrix  $\beta$ -dose in grain and the usual way to calculate it by taking the complement of the self-dose factor of the grain. This observation had already been made by Martin et al. (2014) about the effects of the matrix composition on the  $\alpha$ -dose rate in grains. These observations demonstrate that, since it is impossible to gather dosimetric data about all the possible cases to be encountered in paleodosimetric dating, Monte-Carlo simulations are of great help for dose rate investigations. *DosiVox*, by its accessibility, could bring easy solutions for dose rate calculations in the cases exceeding the infinite matrix hypothesis.

Comparisons with the tabulated data, often obtained by numerical calculations and Monte-Carlo simulations, is only a first step for testing the reliability of *DosiVox*. The various possibilities of modeling available exceed the dosimetric layout documented in the literature. A most pertinent validation would be to compare the results of *DosiVox* obtained in complex dosimetric cases with experimental measurements. However, this way is difficult to implement because of the need to use detectors for dose measurements, which could represent a bias compared to a modeling and add a necessary step of calibration with a potential uncertainty when calculating doses. A special care has to be taken to achieve both experimental measurements and corresponding modeling but these comparisons need undoubtly to be done.

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#### Reviewer

Nigel Spooner

Ancient TL

### Evaluation of soil-moisture content for OSL dating using an infiltration model

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#### Abstract

Uncertainty in soil-moisture content estimation can introduce large errors into calculation of OSL ages. In the current paper we evaluate the soil-moisture content by using an infiltration model which encompasses site-specific information regarding the climatic conditions and soil properties. The model provides the variation of the soil-moisture content with depth and time. It also provides clear uncertainty bounds for the estimated soil-moisture profile which serves as a measure for model reliability. The current approach is implemented to calculate the soil-moisture profile of a Late-Holocene, open-structure soil section subjected to Mediterranean climate in which hot and dry summers and cool and wet winters generate large variation in the moisture-content. We show that the model can improve soil-moisture estimation, reducing the associated uncertainty and accounting for the depth from the soil surface. These estimates can then be used to better constrain uncertainties in OSL dose rate calculations.

Keywords: moisture content

#### **1. Introduction**

The importance of estimating time-averaged moisture contents for accurate OSL dating cannot be underestimated. Large uncertainties in moisture contents introduce large errors into the ages. For example, assumption of a moisture fraction of 20% instead of 10% g/g of sample, will decrease dose rate to 'coarse grains' and increase the calculated age by  $\sim 10\%$  (Aitken, 1985, p. 76).

Mediterranean climate typically has large differences between summer and winter, with hot and dry summers and cool and moist winters, resulting in great variability in soil moisture. A single sample cannot capture the average annual moisture contents due to these large variations in precipitation and evaporation, particularly as the beginning and end of the rainy season vary greatly from year to year.

While our ability to reconstruct soil moisture contents for past climates is limited, we can in the least get a good handle on current seasonal variations. Lowick & Preusser (2009) have reconstructed the soil-moisture of saturated samples that have desiccated, but no attempt was made to assess the mean moisture content in the unsaturated zone. Recently, Nelson & Rittenour (2015) used grain-size distribution and maps of the annual mean water state (mean matric head) to calculate the mean moisture content of Holocene sediments from Kebab Creek, Utah for OSL dating.

While the work of Nelson & Rittenour (2015) provides a simple way to calculate soil moisture content based on largescale soil properties maps, we take a different approach and obtain soil moisture content by using an infiltration model which incorporates site-specific climatic data combined with grain size and density measurements. The addition of bulk density measurements to the grain size data improves by a great deal the assessment of the water content (Schaap et al., 2001). We also give uncertainty bounds to the calculation, providing a confidence interval for the soil-moisture. The model provides the full variability of soil moisture in time and space, thus allowing to specifically consider the effect of depth on the moisture content. We demonstrate the use of the procedure by applying it to predict the moisture content of anthropogenic soil within archaeological farming terraces of Late Holocene age, with open-structure soil prone to evaporation (Gadot et al., 2015). The results are then used in the age calculations to assess the impact of the moisture content on the ages.

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Rainfall (mm)	133.2	118.3	92.7	24.5	3.2					15.4	60.8	105.7
Rainy days	9.7	8.7	7.6	2.7	0.7					1.9	5.5	7.9
Daily evaporation (mm)	2.5	2.8	4.2	5.7	6.5	6.9	7.1	6.5	5.6	5	4	2.8

Table 1. Climatic conditions near Har-Eitan (evaporation and rain data averaged for 1988-2000 and 1970-2000, respectively)

#### 2. Research site

The area is the limestone highlands of central Israel located within the Mediterranean climate zone. The study was conducted at Har (Mount) Eitan, a hilly spur almost 800 m high about 10 km west of Jerusalem. In this area, the limestone slopes are covered with archaeological bench terraces, created from stone walls back-filled with soil. Pits were excavated for OSL dating within the framework of a larger study on the terracing of the Judea Mountains (Gadot et al., 2015). For accurate dating of terrace construction, we needed to know the average annual moisture content for samples located at depths from 0.25 to 2.0 m.

The climatic data used in the model were taken from the database of the Israeli Meteorological Service (http: //www.ims.gov.il). Precipitation data were taken from a meteorological station in Jerusalem located 10.5 km east of Har-Eitan while evaporation data was taken from Rosh-Zurim meteorological station located 11 km south east to Har-Eitan; both stations are the closest to the study area. The monthly-averaged climatic conditions for Har-Eitan are given in Table 1. The rainy period lasts from November to April with an average of 45 rainy days and an average annual rainfall of 554 mm. Mean daily class A pan evaporation (potential evaporation; Jarraud, 2008) varies from 7.1 mm in July to 2.5 mm in January.

#### 3. Methods

Twenty four samples taken at different depths along the open excavated pits (Fig. 1) were analyzed for particle size distribution (PSD; smaller than 2 mm). The average soil PSD for the sand, silt and clay fractions and their respective standard deviation, and the PSD of two additional samples that were used to evaluate the sensitivity of the model to soil texture, are presented in Table 2.

	% Sand	% Silt	% Clay
Average	38.3 (11.4)	55 (11)	6.7 (1.9)
Highest silt	11.4	80.4	8.2
Lowest silt	58.4	35.7	5.9

Table 2. Particle size distribution (< 2 mm) for soil samples from Har-Eitan terraces. Values in parentheses represent standard deviation.

Gravimetric water content (or mass fraction moisture) was measured in winter (about a week after a rain event) and in the summer by the gravimetric method (Dane & Topp, 2002) on samples taken at different depths in the pits.



Figure 1. A typical soil profile of one of the pits in Har-Eitan. The holes in the profile represent the locations where undisturbed soil or other samples were taken. Insert: The sampling ring and ring holder used to take the undisturbed samples.

The average gravimetric water content in the summer was  $5.5\% \pm 1.2\%$  g/g (N=5) whereas the average gravimetric water content after rain was  $24\% \pm 2\%$  g/g (N=6; Table 3). Bulk density was measured on undisturbed soil samples of known volume. The average bulk density for this particular area was found to be  $1.10 \pm 0.12$  g/cm<sup>3</sup> (N=5). Bulk density is important since it is directly related to cosmic radiation attenuation (Prescott & Hutton, 1994) and indirectly to both beta and gamma dose rates through soil moisture content.

Pit	Depth (cm)	Gravimetric water content (g/g)
A4	60	0.20
A4	33	0.26
A4	27	0.27
A1	75	0.24
A1	22	0.23
A1	50	0.23
Average	44.5 (20.7)	0.24 (0.02)

Table 3. Measurements of gravimetric water content at Har-Eitan. Samples were taken during the winter of 2014-15, approximately one week after a rain event. Values in parentheses represent standard deviations.



Figure 2. Precipitation and evaporation fluxes specified for the model over a year. Evaporation is defined as a negative flux.

#### 4. Model Setup

In this work we use a one dimensional (1D) infiltration model to evaluate the mean annual water content in the soil. The model allows calculation of variation in water content with depth by solving the soil-water dynamics while incorporating data of the soil PSD and climatic conditions. The model provides the water content profile with much higher certainty than the one obtained from one or two measurement at random points in time, as it provides the full temporal and spatial variations.

We use Hydrus 1D (http://www.pc-progress.com/ en/Default.aspx?hydrus-1d), a free code developed by the US salinity lab to model water flow and water content within the soil (Šimůnek et al., 2008). Hydrus 1D describes variably-saturated water flow by solving the Richard's equation

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \cdot \left( K(h) \frac{\partial h}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial K}{\partial z}$$
(1)

where  $\theta$  is the volumetric water content, *h* the matric head, *t* the time, *z* the vertical coordinate and K(h) the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity which is a function of the matric head. We note that the volumetric water content (volume of water per total volume of soil in units of  $cm^3/cm^3$ ) commonly used in infiltration models is a different measure of soil moisture than the gravimetric water content (water weight per dry soil weight in units of g/g) used in dose rate calculations for luminescence dating. The conversion from gravimetric to volumetric water content is given by  $\theta = \omega \cdot \rho_b / \rho_w$  where  $\omega$  is the gravimetric water content,  $\rho_b$  is the bulk soil density and  $\rho_w$  is the density of water, commonly taken as  $1 g/cm^3$ .

To solve Equation 1, relations for the hydraulic conductivity function and for the soil water-retention curve  $(\theta(h))$ are needed. We use the van Genuchten and van Genuchten-Mualem models (Mualem, 1976; van Genuchten, 1980) for the soil water retention curve

$$Se = [1 + (\alpha \mid h_m \mid)^n]^{-m}$$
 (2)

and hydraulic conductivity, respectively,

$$K = K_S \sqrt{Se} \left[ 1 - \left( 1 - Se^{1/m} \right)^m \right]^2 \tag{3}$$

where  $\alpha$ , *n* and m = 1 - 1/n are empiric parameters which depend on the soil pore size distribution,  $K_S$  is the saturated hydraulic conductivity and  $Se = (\theta - \theta_r)/(\theta_s - \theta_r)$  is the effective saturation where  $\theta_s$  is the porosity and  $\theta_r$  is the irreducible water content. The porosity and irreducible water content represent the upper and lower bounds of the water content in soil, respectively.

The modeled domain represents a profile of 10 m depth of homogeneous soil. Although Har-Eitan consists of bedrock at 2 m depth at most, it was decided to ignore it since it is highly fractured and the fractures are filled with the natural soil. Thus, the bedrock is not expected to impede water flow downwards. Boundary conditions for the model were assigned as atmospheric boundary condition at the soil surface and free-drainage condition (i.e.,  $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} = 0$ ) at the lower boundary. The atmospheric boundary condition represents either an evaporation flux out of the soil surface or a precipitation flux into the soil surface. Daily fluxes were calculated from the daily average of potential evaporation, the monthly average of precipitation and the average number of rainy days for each month (Table 1). It was assumed that each rain event lasts for 3 days and that on rainy days the potential evaporation is zero. The daily evaporation and precipitation fluxes put into the model are shown in Figure 2.

The value of the soil hydraulic parameters ( $\alpha$ , *n*, *m* and  $K_S$ ) presents the greatest uncertainty in unsaturated flow models. In the current work, the hydraulic parameters of the soil were determined as follows (Table 4): the porosity  $\theta_s$  and irreducible water content  $\theta_r$  were assigned as constants. The porosity was calculated using the relation  $\theta_s = 1 - \rho_b / \rho_s$  where  $\rho_s$  is the grain density. Porosity was calculated based on the measured bulk density and by assuming a grain density of 2.65  $g/cm^3$ .

The irreducible water content was assigned as the minimal value in the range of water content measured in summer at the surface of the open holes (5%). Summer water content was also used as the minimum water content by Burbidge et al. (2014). The other parameters  $\alpha$ , *n*, and  $K_S$  were predicted by ROSETTA (http://www.ars.usda.gov/News/ docs.htm?docid=8953), a free computer program developed by the US salinity lab that predicts the soil hydraulic properties using a neural network analysis based on the soil grain size distribution and bulk density (Schaap et al., 2001). The program uses a large dataset which contains properties of more than 2000 soils. It provides average values and uncertainty bounds for each parameter.

The soil profile was discretized into 201 nodes where the grid was refined near the soil surface and spacing was gradually increased towards the deeper sections of the profile. The model was left to run for 300 years to achieve a temporally

Soil	$\theta_r$	$\theta_s$	$\alpha(1/m)$			п		K	K <sub>S</sub> m/day		
structure	$cm^3/cm^3$	$cm^3/cm^3$	Average	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average	High	Low
Average			0.51	0.637	0.4063	1.6608	1.736	1.588	1.422	2.095	0.9654
Highest-silt	0.055	0.58	0.43	0.631	0.293	1.745	1.878	1.621	1.2167	2.386	0.621
Lowest-silt			1.58	1.88	1.33	1.452	1.518	1.393	1.7084	2.44	1.1962

Table 4. Soil hydraulic properties used in the model for the three soil structures. Average, high and low values of  $\alpha$ , *n* and *K*<sub>S</sub> represent the average, the high and the low bounds predicted by ROSETTA.

periodic condition where no change in the results was observed from one year to the next.

To evaluate the sensitivity of the mean annual water content to the hydraulic parameters and soil composition, hydraulic parameters were predicted for 3 PSD's (Table 2). The first was obtained by averaging all 24 soil samples taken from the terraces, the other two represent individual samples having the highest and lowest silt fraction and the lowest and highest sand fraction, respectively (Highest silt and Lowest silt in Table 2). Hydraulic parameters were predicted for each soil structure (Table 4) and models were run for sets of hydraulic parameters which represent combinations of the average/ lowest/ highest or intermediate values predicted for the different parameters. The water content measured on samples taken during winter was considered as the maximal water content (Burbidge et al., 2014) and was used to calibrate the models such that only runs that yielded a winter (after rainfall) water content of  $26\% \pm 2\% \ cm^3/cm^3$  at a depth of 50 cm were included in the analysis. This range corresponds to the average volumetric water content  $\pm$  one standard deviation measured at an average depth of  $\sim$ 50 cm (Table 3). We note that since measurements of winter water content were taken once in 2015 while the model is based on multi-year average climatic data, some flexibility in the maximal water content is allowed by specifying this range.

#### 5. Results and Discussion

The profile of the average annual water content is displayed in Figure 3. The water content profile was obtained for the three investigated soil compositions and for combination of different sets of soil-hydraulic properties that lie within the uncertainty bounds for each soil type. It is shown that near the soil surface the water content and its variability  $(\pm 1.5\%)$  are lower than in the deeper sections of the profile since the water content is influenced by water evaporation from the soil. At larger depths, there is a greater variability in water content (approx.  $\pm 2\%$ , at 2 m) that depends on soil composition and soil-hydraulic properties. It is shown that for each curve, the annual average water content for a given soil composition, under present conditions, is approximately constant at depths greater than 0.6 m. This is because deeper in the section evaporation no longer affects soil moisture. This "constant moisture" depth is expected to change with the soil type and the value of potential evaporation.

For the average soil composition, the water content measured after rain limited the saturated hydraulic conductivity



Figure 3. Average annual water content profile obtained for the three soil compositions and for different sets of soil hydraulic properties. Asterisks and solid lines - average soil; circles and dashed lines - highest-silt soil; squares and dotted lines - lowest silt water soil. The purple, solid, thick curve represents the water content profile which was obtained for the predicted average  $\alpha$  and *n* values for the average soil composition.

to the low-to-average values of the predicted range. The water content obtained for the average  $\alpha$  and *n* values and low  $K_S$  (the thick purple curve on Fig. 3) is 0.170  $cm^3/cm^3$  and 0.177  $cm^3/cm^3$  at depth of 0.5 and 1 m, respectively. Considering all the curves obtained for the average soil composition, the annual average water content can be estimated as 0.174  $\pm$  0.01  $cm^3/cm^3$  and 0.182  $\pm$  0.01  $cm^3/cm^3$  at depth of 0.5 and 1 m, respectively. This corresponds to gravimetric water content (as used in dose rate calculations for luminescence dating) of 0.158  $\pm$  0.009 g/g and 0.165  $\pm$  0.009 g/g at depth of 0.5 and 1 m, respectively.

Naturally, when taking into account the Highest-silt and Lowest-silt soil compositions, the uncertainty in predicting the water content increases. Figure 3 shows that the Lowest-silt soil yields higher water content. This is the result of the larger  $\alpha$  values predicted for this soil structure. Generally speaking, larger values result in a lower infiltration rate which leaves the soil wetter. Still, the range of the water content remains rather small with the volumetric water content estimated as  $0.180 \pm 0.016 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$  and  $0.192 \pm 0.02 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$  at depth of 0.5 and 1 m, respectively. The corresponding gravimetric water contents are  $0.163 \pm 0.0145$  g/g and  $0.174 \pm 0.018$  g/g. These estimated values have much lower uncertainty bounds than the uncertainties com-

monly used in OSL dating.

Using this range of values to calculate dose rates and ages for a typical sample from Har-Eitan at a depth of 0.5 m, we obtain an age range of 1780-1800 or 1770-1800 years for the better or less constrained soil composition, respectively, well within any error range of an OSL age.

Naturally, this model has several limitations. First, as most conventional models of flow in unsaturated conditions, it does not directly consider effects such as water repellency and swelling. To account for these, one would have to measure the soil water retention curve to directly calibrate the soil hydraulic properties. In most studies, however, these effects are traditionally ignored.

Second, the model is based on modern climatic conditions. Long-term changes in rainfall, temperature and vegetation (affecting evapotranspiration) will obviously affect soil moisture content. However, given the limited data on past conditions and its low resolution, our starting point is modern climatic conditions. Using paleoclimate data, one could extrapolate the results to past conditions; however this is beyond the scope of the current paper.

#### 6. Conclusions

Average annual soil moisture profiles were calculated using an infiltration model encompassing climatic data and soil properties. This estimation has several advantages over the conventional way water content is estimated for OSL dating and over recent contributions in the field. First, it is physically based and encompasses data of the site-specific climatic conditions and soil structure. Second, it accounts for variation of the water content with the soil depth; and last, it provides clear uncertainty bounds and reduces the variability in the water content estimation and thus in the luminescence age. Furthermore, bulk density (or at least porosity) measurements can also improve estimates of the cosmic dose rate contribution to the dose rate.

To predict moisture contents, monthly average data of rainfall and evaporation are needed together with soil grain size distribution, bulk density and water content measurement in winter and summer. If no bulk density and summer water content measurements are available, one can predict the soil hydraulic properties based on the grain size distribution alone (using ROSETTA). This is, however, not recommended as the associated uncertainty of this prediction is much larger.

The model shows two regions within the soil profile; the upper part in which moisture content is more dependent on evaporation and less on soil type, and the lower part in which moisture content is mostly a function of soil properties and is relatively constant with depth. In our study area, the transition between these two regions occurs roughly at 0.6 m. This depth, however, is expected to be site-specific and related to the soil type and evaporation rate.

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#### Reviewer

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### Induced thermoluminescence dating of basalts

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#### Abstract

Several attempts to date basalts using natural thermoluminescence methods have failed because the phosphor, feldspar, displays anomalous fading. In the late nineteen-seventies R.D. May reported an increase in induced TL with age for Hawaiian basalts. Studies of meteorites have shown that induced TL can increase with time (or heating) due either to production of the phosphor by crystallization of glass or the diffusion of impurity quenchers out of the phosphor. The increase can be many orders of magnitude. I therefore propose that induced TL is a potential new method of thermoluminescence dating of basalts. I also suggest that it may be possible to make the method absolute, i.e. not dependent on empirical calibration, by performing the appropriate laboratory kinetic studies.

Keywords: Keywords: Basalts, induced thermoluminescence, dating

#### 1. Introduction

Not long after the development of the fine-grain method of using natural thermoluminescence (TL) to date archeological artifacts, it was proposed that the method might be applicable to dating fairly young volcanic rocks (e.g. Aitken et al., 1968). However, almost immediately it was realized that volcanic feldspars, the TL phosphor in volcanic rocks, displayed anomalous fading and therefore the method was not practical (Wintle, 1973). Since then, while there have been some successes the approach has been to try to look at the TL produced at alternative (non-visible) wavelengths and other physical methods of avoiding the problem (e.g. Tsukamoto et al., 2011).

Here I propose an entirely different method for dating volcanic rocks, namely to use the time-dependency of the induced TL signal that is present in many rocks. This dependency is caused by the fact that volcanic rocks, for instance, are non-equilibrium systems in many respects. They cool rapidly; so much of the feldspathic component is glassy, or otherwise amorphous, with little or no induced TL. Similarly, they are out of equilibrium compositionally, they may contain impurities that quench the TL. However, in approaching equilibrium, induced TL levels will increase in a timedependent way and if the kinetics can be quantified then a new and independent method of dating will be possible.



Figure 1. Figure from May (1977, 1979) comparing induced TL (which he called "artificial TL", upper line), and natural TL (lower line), with sample age for Hawaiian basalts.

#### 2. R.D. Mays study of 1977

May (1977, 1979) attempted to date lavas from the Hawaiian islands using the conventional methods of TL dating based on natural TL. He used the fine-grained matrix method that is so successful in dating archeological artifacts, calculating the dose from the composition of the samples and assuming a nominal cosmic ray dose. He claimed success, despite the problem of anomalous fading.

However, somewhat surprisingly he found that the induced TL, which he called the "artificial TL", also increased with time (Fig. 1). He suggested that the samples were undergoing radiation damage that was producing traps.

#### 3. Correlation between induced TL and age

Shortly before May's study, a Swiss group (Houtermans & Liener, 1966), following up on work performed in Russia (Komovsky, 1961), showed that the induced TL of meteorites increased with potassium-argon age and they also attributed this to the production of traps by radiation damage. May cited their work.

The present writer made similar measurements on a suite of ordinary chondrite meteorites, the largest class of meteorites, and also found a correlation between induced TL and potassium-argon age (Sears, 1980). However, in my case the explanation was very clear. The low induced TL meteorites were heavily shocked by an impact between asteroids in space, while the high induced TL meteorites were effectively unshocked. Impacts generate shock waves that compress the material and heat it, so while some minerals show the effect of compression others show the effect of heat. For example feldspar is melted by the heating, so is the metal and sulphides which form eutectics that spread through the meteorite, especially along cracks also formed by the shock event. The effect of these kinds of shock on meteorite and feldspar induced TL have been studied in some detail by Haq et al. (1988), and Hartmetz et al. (1986).

To further confirm that radiation damage is not causing the age-related induced TL changes, meteorites have been exposed to radiation doses comparable or greater than would have been experienced in the age of the solar system. Alpha, beta, and gamma radiation have been used, so have fluxes of protons, and no change in induced TL was produced (Sears, 1980).

It is clear that the correlation between induced TL and age reported by four groups in the 1960s to 1980s is not due to radiation damage, but physical and mineralogical changes in the meteorites that coincidentally include argon loss. Thus instead of thinking of the TL properties as being dependent on radiation and thermal history, as for natural TL, the induced TL is better considered as a petrographic or mineralogical tool, especially when used conjunction with cathodoluminescence. The CL observations can also be combined with microscopic and electron microprobe studies for a better understanding of the geological processes experienced by the samples.

# 4. Case study I: Induced TL increases due to the production of feldspar

When a suite of ordinary chondrites that had not experienced any significant shock was examined a spectacular range of induced TL levels was observed, the values covered a factor of about  $10^5$  (Sears et al., 1980). In this case, the values correlated very strongly with parent body metamorphism (Fig. 2).

Metamorphism, heating of rocks in the solid state, usually by virtue of burial, is an important feature of ordinary chondrites and has been recognized in meteorites since the early sixties (Van Schmus & Wood, 1967). Most meteorites have been highly metamorphosed and the internal properties resulting from their original formation have been largely wiped out. However, a few meteorites have escaped this process and contain within them material that was present in the solar nebula before the Sun and planets formed. They constitute a powerful witness of conditions and processes in the early solar system.

Cathodoluminescence and other studies quickly showed the reason for this correlation with metamorphism. The major TL phosphor, feldspar, was absent in the low TL meteorites and present in the high TL meteorites. When the meteorites formed, the feldspathic elements, calcium, aluminum, sodium and so on were in glass that was located in solidified droplets that are characteristic of these solar system materials. During metamorphism this glass crystalizes to form crystals of feldspar.

What is remarkable is not just that this trend exists, but the remarkable sensitivity of the relationship at the low end of the metamorphic sequence. Induced TL is thus a remarkably sensitive effective indicator of the lowest levels of metamorphism which is also most important when trying to disentangle primary properties from the metamorphic overprint.

The changes brought about by metamorphism are both time and temperature sensitive so that what is really measured is the net alteration. Nevertheless, this is useful information. In fact, the induced TL does a little more since there are systematic changes in the shape of the glow curve which depend on the temperature at which the feldspar crystalized and the post metamorphic cooling rate. So there is considerable information by combining the induced TL level and the shape of the glow curve.

Basalts are glass-rich rocks, and thick gloves are worn when handling them. Thus one working hypothesis is that Mays samples were increasing in induced TL with time since the glassy phase was crystalizing over time and this was creating more of the TL phosphor.

# 5. Case study II: Induced TL increases due to the composition of the feldspar

The eucrites are a class of meteorites quite different from the ordinary chondrites. In fact, they are essentially basalts. They are widely thought to have been formed on the large asteroid Vesta, which has a basaltic surface and metal core



Figure 2. The ordinary chondrite meteorites display a range of alteration due to parent body metamorphism which is described by the "petrologic types", 3 low, 6 high. Thermoluminescence sensitivity increases by a factor of  $10^5$  over this range of petrologic types (Sears et al., 1980). Cathodoluminescence and other observations indicate that this is due to the formation of the phosphor, feldspar, by the crystallization of glass with feldspathic composition (Akridge et al., 2004; Sears et al., 2013). The analogous situation for the basalts would be the glassy groundmass crystalizing to produce feldspar. This process would be time-dependent and provide a chronometer. The term "TL sensitivity" is used in this and Fig. 3 to mean induced TL of the sample divided the induced TL of a standard meteorite, Dhajala.

(Drake, 2001). In some respects it resembles the Moon, although the details of its igneous history are quite different. However, it is difficult to be sure because of the heavily impacted nature of Vesta's surface. Closely related meteorites are the howardites and diogenites and it is believed the suite of meteorites originated on Vesta, eucrites on the surface, diogenites at depth, perhaps the upper mantle, and the howardites are a mechanical mixture of the two.

Like the chondrites, the eucrites appear to constitute a metamorphic sequence and this has been documented and described in terms of eight "petrologic types". Type 1 has least metamorphic overprint and very heterogeneous mineral compositions; type 8 is most metamorphosed and has homogeneous mineral compositions (Takeda et al., 1983).

The induced TL of a number of eucrites varies over a factor of 100 and correlates with petrologic type (Fig. 3). In this instance, cathodoluminescence and other studies indicated that the cause was not the production of feldspar, but its compositional changes reflecting mineralogical changes caused by metamorphism. In fact, the CL of feldspar in the low type TL was brown/yellow and blotchy while the CL in the high TL samples was a uniform bright yellow. Detailed mineralogical studies showed that that the feldspar in the unmetamorphosed eucrites contained a few percent iron, a known quencher of the TL of feldspar (Geake et al., 1973). With metamorphism, the iron diffused out of the feldspar and moved into other silicate minerals where it was a thermodynamic equilibrium.

Thus we have a second mechanism for explaining May's correlation between induced TL and age. The feldspar in the young basalts contains incompatible quencher elements which diffuse out of the feldspar with time as the rock "equilibrates".

#### 6. Discussion and Conclusions

It is important to keep in mind that rapidly cooled lavas are essentially non-equilibrium assemblages. Thus they contain abundant glass, for instance. Time and elevated temperatures will drive them towards equilibrium, which in our



# And Another Hypothesis to Test

Figure 3. The basaltic meteorites (eucrites, thought to originate on the asteroid Vesta) show a range of metamorphic alteration described by the "petrologic type", 1 low, 6 high. Thermoluminescence sensitivity (induced TL normalized to that of the Dhajala meteorite) shows a factor of 100 range which correlates with petrologic type (Batchelor & Sears, 1991). Catholuminescence images and other data show that this increase in TL sensitivity with metamorphism is a result of Fe diffusing out of the feldspar, little metamorphosed meteorites have feldspar with weak blotchy yellow/brown cathodoluminescence, and highly metamorphosed meteorites have uniform bright yellow cathodoluminescence. Crystals of feldspar in the matrix of terrestrial basalts might increase in induced TL with time as Fe diffuses out of the feldspar.

case means the glass will crystallize and the minerals will achieve "purer" compositions. In the case of terrestrial lavas, once cooled they stay at low temperatures, below 200°C say, so the prime factor controlling the degree of equilibration is time.

It is perfectly possible that both crystallization of the glass and purification the feldspar are playing a part in the timedependency of the induced TL observed by May. This would not preclude its use as a chronometer. It is possible that by collecting enough data from a variety of sites one could derive an empirical calibration on which to base a technique. Such approaches have been used in the past.

However, it should be possible by performing detailed mineralogical and petrological studies on the basalts of a range of ages to determine whether one of the proposed mechanisms dominates.

It should also be possible to perform laboratory measurements of the kinetics of the process by which induced TL increases. From the kinetics then an absolute dating method should be possible. A variety of sampling sites for the basalts is important because there are many factors that control the rate of equilibration. The amount of water present in the rocks is one, and the composition of the feldspar is another. There are studies of the induced TL properties of the full range of feldspar compositions (Benoit et al., 2001), but not of the kinetics of devitrification of feldspathic glasses.

These are tasks for the future. For the moment I simply wanted to point out that an induced TL procedure might exist for dating lavas that have proved difficult to date using their natural TL because of anomalous fading. Furthermore, this correlation should not be a surprise because similar processes have been found to exist in meteorites, both ordinary chondrites and basaltic meteorites that are, on the face of it, very different rocks. What they have in common is that they all contain feldspar and that feldspar is the dominant luminescent phase in most silicate rocks.

#### Acknowledgments

I am pleased to acknowledge Scott Hughes who encouraged me in this study, taught me about plains volcanism, and is leading the field work necessary to collect samples and the geological measurements in the laboratory, Yvonne Pendleton and Jennifer Heldmann who created an environment whereby I could resurrect these long-suppressed ideas and perform some serious work, Hazel Sears and the FI-NESSE team who helped in the field work, and Hazel also for reviewing and proofing the article. This work was funded by NASA's Solar System Exploration Research Virtual Institute through the FINESSE team, Jennifer Heldmann PI.

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#### Reviewer

Regina DeWitt

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#### Alma Arnaboldi TL dating applied to Palazzo Raimondi and Palazzo Pallavicino Soldi, Cremona (Italy)

October 2015

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Degree: Masters Supervisors: Anna Galli, Marco Martini, Ivan Veronese

Since the stratigraphic techniques initially developed for archaeology have been extended to the history of architecture, the relative internal sequence of the various building phases of a monument can be usually precisely determined. Their absolute chronology is however sometimes problematic or controversial. In such cases, the contribution of TL dating could be conclusive. It must be remembered, however, that care has to be taken when associating the TL age of a brick to that of its building structure because the date determined is the last firing of the sample. In case of reuse of materials from pre-existing structures, dates are older than the building; in case of upkeep or mimetic restoration, dates are younger. The main advantages of the TL dating of building are the availability of large quantities of material, the homogeneity of environmental radioactivity and the lesser extent of humidity fluctuation.

A recent conservation campaign at the Palazzo Raimondi and Palazzo Pallavicino Soldi, Cremona (Italy) gave the opportunity to sample bricks and mortars belonging to different structures (basement, ground floor and main floor). The relevance of these sites is due to the very old tradition in Cremona in using earthen mortars, materials and execution techniques very rarely employed and studied. This thesis work was aimed at dating the bricks to support the study of the earthen mortars. TL dating was performed following the standard finegrain technique using a home-made system based on the photon counting technique with a photomultiplier tube (EMI 9635QB) coupled to blue filters (Corning BG12). Artificial irradiations were carried out by a 1400 MBq <sup>90</sup>Sr-<sup>90</sup>Y beta source (Nominal dose-rate: 1.4 Gy/min) and a 37 MBq <sup>241</sup>Am alpha source (Nominal dose-rate: 14.8 Gy/min). Internal annual alpha and beta dose-rates were obtained by total alpha counting with ZnS scintillator discs and flame photometry analysis.

For what concerns Palazzo Raimondi, the calculated ages span in a huge range (300-750 years BP), the Bayesian statistical approach has been applied. The experimental results, all obtained from the basement structure, have been combined in a single formal analysis with the historical boundary corresponding to the foundation. In this way it has been possible to ascribe the fabrication of bricks to the second part of the fifteenth century.

For what concerns Palazzo Pallavicino Soldi the samples belong to different historical periods: the Middle Age  $(12^{th}$  century), Renaissance  $(15^{th}$  century) and the seventeenth century. The older samples are coeval to a pre-existing structure; the younger samples refer to restoration works documented in archives.

#### Michela Cantù Characterization and dating of ancient mortars with additives

December 2015

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Degree: Ph.D.

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In the town of Cremona (Northern Italy) it is very common to find masonries both in rural and historic edifices made of bricks and earthen mortars with good physical and mechanical properties. Aim of this thesis was to carry out an archaeometric study of the earthen mortars from five edifices in Cremona ( $15^{th} - 19^{th}$  century) to deepen our information on well-established tradition of production and use of earthen mortars and its evolution throughout centuries. A combination of mineralogical, petrographic and geochemical analyses was used together with the information from historical documents, the latter allowing a precise dating of the analysed samples.

The characterization of the raw materials was carried out by means of optical and electronic microscopy, XRPD and FTIR measurements. The archaeometric investigation allowed the identification of two recipes, differing in the amount of lime (and sometimes sand) added to the basic mixture of earth: the widespread lime-poor earthen mortars and the lime-rich earthen mortars, recognised only in the masonries of Palazzo Magio Grasselli (end of 18<sup>th</sup> century). Moreover, a two-step technological change in earthen mortars manufacturing that took place between the  $17^{th}$  and  $18^{th}$ century has been recognised: it consisted in the addition of larger amount of lime (from the 17th century) and of organic additives (from the 18th century). This was likely done to improve the mechanical properties of the earthen mortars.

The application of scientific dating methods is of great help in building archaeology, to support and/or validate the information obtained from the historical sources. However, the use of Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) for mortar dating, recently proposed, is not still a routine technique. In the present work OSL was applied to the samples of earthen mortars already well dated on historical ground. To our knowledge, this is the first attempt to extend the applicability of OSL techniques to such materials.

In this case, OSL dating exploits the solar bleaching of quartz grains occurred during the production of mortar. Despite the high quartz content of the analyzed mortars, the solar bleaching efficiency was found not good, probably due to the opacity of the raw materials. In fact, OSL dating multi-grain technique was found unapplicable due to the high amount of poorly bleached grains. The single-grain approach, allowing the selection of the well-bleached grains gave better results and was therefore systematically applied. For data elaboration, several statistical models were used and compared. The simple average and Central Age Model (CAM) significantly overestimated the expected age. The Minimum Age Model (MAM) gave a more accurate evaluation of the equivalent dose. In particular the un-log 3parameters MAM gave good results on the oldest samples but with large errors. The Internal External Consistency Criterion (IEU) gave generally more precise results, but is less accurate than MAM.

It clearly appeared that another criticality of this application is the recent age of the samples. Further studies are required to improve the efficiency of the low OSL signal detection and to reduce errors associated to the estimated equivalent doses.

#### Daniela Constantin On the dating of the last glacial cycle in loess deposits using quartz optically stimulated luminescence

October 2015 Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca, Romania

### Degree: Ph.D.

#### Supervisors: Vlad Codrea, Alida Timar-Gabor

Luminescence dating of loess deposits in the Danube Basin and the Chinese Loess Plateau was conducted for the Last Glacial cycle samples using 4-11  $\mu$ m and 63-90  $\mu$ m quartz. Ages of older samples are underestimated for all grain sizes. For equivalent doses > 100 Gy (30-40 ka) the fine quartz chronologies underestimate the coarse quartz results.

Single aliquot regenerative dose protocol shows that the laboratory dose response obtained for the two fractions of quartz is different and is fitted with the sum of two exponential functions. The higher saturation in fine grains is not a result of the previous alpha irradiation history and timeresolved (TR-OSL) experiments show that this is not caused by contamination with a different mineral nor it is a consequence of multiple luminescence centres active in the quartz detection window. Laboratory saturation characteristics are not affected by previous irradiation, bleaching, or thermal treatments employed.

For doses > 200 Gy natural and laboratory dose response curves diverge, with natural signals showing earlier saturation. The signals measured on fine quartz after adding thousands of Gy on top of the natural dose are below the saturation level for both Romanian and Chinese quartz samples. Poor dose recovery may, in part, cause age underestimation at high doses. This suggests an initial dose-dependent sensitivity change that is not corrected for by the use of the response to a test dose.

Thus, a dose dependent phenomenon underlies the cause of the age discrepancy. Until the mechanisms of this phenomena are explained both sets of SAR OSL ages are suspected to be inaccurate and question the reported chronologies beyond 30-40 ka.

A summary of the thesis can be downloaded from: http://doctorat.ubbcluj.ro/ro/ sustinerile-publice-ale-tezelor-de-doctorat/

#### Robert R. Hendricks

#### Timing of the Emplacement of an Ancient Coastal Deposit of Georgia Determined by Optically Stimulated Luminescence and Electron Spin Resonance Optical Dating

December 2015 McMaster University, Hamilton, Canada

> Degree: Ph.D. Supervisor: Dr. W. Jack Rink

ESR, OSL and TT-OSL dating methods were applied to samples collected from six of the Ancient Coastal Deposits (ACDs) along the southern Georgia Coastline. Samples were collected from the Princess Anne (the youngest and most seaward ACD), Pamlico, Talbot, Penholoway, Wicomico, and Okefenokee ACDs with the goal of determining the age of formation of these features. Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) was used to determine the subsurface morphology and target lithologies for age determination. OSL and TT-OSL dating was attempted on samples collected from the youngest two ACDs, the Pamlico and Princess Anne, at Mc-Master Universities AGE Lab. ESR samples collected from all of the ACDs studied were measured at Florida State University as well as Osaka University. ESR analysis measured the Al signal, the Ti-Li signal, measured using two different methods, as well as the Ti-H signal. A number of low additive dose points were added to the ESR dose plan to attempt to create a better dose response curve for the low saturating Ti-H signal in attempt to better utilize the signal.

While the geochronological methodology did not prove useful for determining the age of all of the ACDs it did result in depositional age estimates for the Cypresshead Formation at 433-2978 ka and Satilla Formations at 243-417 ka using the Ti-Li ESR signal as a maximum age estimate. The GPR, ESR, and core data all point to the conclusion that the ACDs of the Georgia Coast are geomorphic modifications and not the result of a unique depositional process. Based on the discrepancy between the depositional age of the Cypresshead and Satilla Formations as determined by ESR in this study and the ages of the ACDs published by others from Georgia (Markewich et.al., 2013) or other areas of the Atlantic Coast (Wehmiller, 2004; Willis, 2006) it can be concluded that paleo sea-levels modified the Cypresshead and Satilla Formations in to the morphology seen today at some point after their initial deposition.

A PDF of this thesis can be downloaded from: https: //macsphere.mcmaster.ca/ OR by contacting the author at hendricks.robert.r@gmail.com

#### Daniel N. Livsey

Holocene sea-level, climate, and estuarine stratrigraphy of Baffin Bay, Texas: studying past changes in coastal systems to elucidate future coastal response to changing sea-level and climate

#### September 2015

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Recent studies along the northwestern Gulf of Mexico document rapid back-stepping of estuarine environments of up to 20 km and 150 m/yr at ca. 8.2 thousand years ago (ka), 4.8, ka, and 2.6 ka. If such rapid changes in coastal environments occurred today along the urbanized coast of the Gulf of Mexico major economical and ecological loss would occur. Of these three backstepping events, only one can be tied to a known cause the 8.2 ka event related to a rapid increase in the rate of relative sea-level rise. However, the cause of the latter two, the 4.8 and 2.6 ka events are largely unknown. To determine the relative roles of changes in sea level and climate in these two events, paleo sea-level, climate, and stratigraphic records, are presented from upper Baffin Bay, Texas and neighboring playa Laguna Salada. This abstract has been abbreviated to highlight the paleoclimate reconstruction that utilizes optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) age-dating for a playa chronology, the portion of the dissertation of specific interest to Ancient TL readers.

Paleoclimate records are sparse along the southern Texas coast. A new quantitative drought proxy is derived from a transfer function between X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) elemental data from a Texas playa core and a tree-ring drought record. The playa core age-model was based upon twentytwo OSL ages obtained from quartz grains isolated from down-core sand lamina. Lamina sampled for OSL age-dating are characterized by well-sorted, sharp-based sand lamina that are interpreted to have been deposited as subaerial aeolian bedforms observed in the field. Radiocarbon ages were not collected given the paucity of organic matter. Using the transfer function, a 954-year tree-ring drought record was extended to ca. 3,000 ka. Ba, Br, and Pb were utilized as predictor variables. Machine learning algorithms, utilized to derive the transfer function, had maximum validation accuracies of 94%. Changes in the extended drought record correspond with the timing of the Roman Climate Optimum, Medieval Warm Period, Little Ice Age, and changes in North Atlantic sea surface temperatures (SST). Increased drought frequency is coeval with nearby dune migration ca. 0.2 ka, 1.9 ka, and 2.6 ka. The highest drought frequency in the record occurs during the Medieval Warm Period ca. 1.0 ka followed by a decrease in drought frequency during the Little Ice Age ca. 0.4 ka. Increased drought frequency accompanies increased North Atlantic SST since 3 ka. This trend of warm North Atlantic SST and dry conditions over the study area follows secular meteorological observations and treering records. These results indicate that lacustrine derived XRF element data can be used as a quantitative tool to reconstruct past drought records, and that North Atlantic SST modulated drought in southern Texas for the last 3,000 years.

Within Baffin Bay, five flooding surfaces occur through a time-period of ever decreasing rates of relative sea-level rise and within error of periods of drying in southern Texas at ca. 1.0 ka, 2.6 ka, 3.4 ka, 4.8 ka, and 5.5 ka. I hypothesize that these flooding surfaces, occurring when sea level in the Gulf of Mexico was rising < 2 mm/yr, and during independently documented drying events, were primarily driven by changes in climate through declines in fluvial sediment supply to the coast.

A PDF of this thesis can be downloaded from: ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. As of 12-10-15 ProQuest is preparing to make the thesis discoverable.

#### *Loïc Martin* Characterization and modeling of archaeological objects for their dating by Paleo-dosimetric methods. Simulation of the dosimetric parameters with Geant4.

December 2015

Institut de Recherche sur les ArchéoMATériaux (IRAMAT) UMR 5060 CNRS - Université de Bordeaux Montaigne, France

Degree: Ph.D. Supervisors: Norbert Mercier, Sébastien Incerti

The paleodosimetric dating methods allow to obtain the age of some mineral materials which behave as natural dosimeters, the age being derived as the ratio of the dose accumulated from the dated event and the natural dose rate to which the sample was subjected. The determination of the dose rate is usually based on simple models which only allow explicit calculations, but these models reproduce very imperfectly the diversity of situations encountered. Computer modeling allows to represent more complex and more realistic models, which lead to numerically simulate the dose rate. In this work, the toolbox Geant4, allowing to simulate particle-matter interactions by the Monte-Carlo method, was used to create complex models, as well as modeling tools accessible and adaptable to different types of samples and dosimetric situations.

Simulations were first made with basic models in order to study the origin of dose rate variations in sediments, highlighting the limits of the simple models commonly used. This information was used to guide the development of modeling tools based on the Geant4 codes, and also to specify the protocols of samples analysis for gathering the data needed for numerical simulations.

The DosiVox software allows to easily model a wide variety of samples through a voxelised representation of the object and its environment, and to simulate the radioactivity for calculating the spatial distribution of the dose rate. It was developed with a view of accessibility and current use. Comparisons with dosimetric situations previously studied or measured showed the relevance of the modelings, and the possibilities of this computer tool are exposed through a series of examples and applications.

The characterization of the beta dose rate distribution in heterogeneous sediment is one of the most complex problems to be treated. In addition to a study aims at assessing the potential of DosiVox to consider these situations, the DosiSed software was developed specifically for modeling poly-mineral sets of grains. This tool was used to study the heterogeneity of the dose rate in real samples and allowed to include some of the results in a dating problematic.

#### Thays Desiree Mineli Evaluation of the high sensitivity Brazilian quartz as personal dosimeter based on optically stimulated luminescence

April 2015

Faculdade de Engenharia Elétrica e Computação, UNICAMP, Campinas, Brasil

Degree: Masters Supervisors: Eduardo Tavares Costa; André Oliveira Sawakuchi

The use of ionizing radiation is becoming increasingly frequent, whether in industry or in the medical field. The harmful effects of ionizing radiation require security measures in its use. One of the most common ways to protect the health of the operator of ionizing radiation equipment is controlling the dose that persons can receive in a given time period. Personal dosimeters are used for this purpose. Protocols to estimate equivalent doses using optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) have been developed for determinaton of burial ages of sediments, firing of ceramics and personal dosimetry. Studies on dating of sediments in Brazil have found quartz types with very high luminescence sensitivity and excellent dosimetric characteristics. In order to analyze the dosimetric properties of bright Brazilian quartz and evaluate its potential use in personal dosimetry, comparative tests with the most used personal OSL dosimeter  $(Al_2O_3 : C)$ , were made. This work presents the luminescence characteristics of quartz grains commonly found in fluvial (XNG47.2), eolian (TE65B) and coastal (PIN01) Brazilian samples. High sensitivity quartz and  $Al_2O_3$ : C were compared by dose recovery tests using a Single-Aliquot Regenerative dose protocol (SAR) and signal stability tests in samples exposed to beta (given doses: 50.00 mGy, 0.42 Gy, 35.70 Gy and 49.98 Gy) and gamma radiation (given doses: 0.14 mGy, 4.26 mGy, 8.53 mGy and 42.65 mGy). The luminescence measurements were carried out in Risø TL/OSL DA-20 readers using blue stimulation and light detection in the UV band. The studied quartz samples have average OSL sensitivities (beta radiation) ranging from 0.4% to 2.6% of the average sensitivity of the sample  $Al_2O_3$ : C. For gamma radiation, quartz sample TE65B showed sensitivity higher (almost twice) than the sensitivity of the  $Al_2O_3$ : C sample. All the analyzed quartz samples showed measurable OSL signal for doses as low as 5 mGy, indicating that they can measure doses in the mGy range. All quartz samples showed OSL signal increasing linearly with dose up to 1 Gy. The studied quartz samples also were able to recover reliable doses using the OSL signal without correction by a test dose, pointing to a stable signal under thermal, optical and irradiation treatments. Equivalent doses calculated using the Central Age Model and without signal correction for a test dose deviated from 1% to 11% of the given dose. Equivalent doses calculated for the quartz samples have a higher accuracy than the equivalent doses calculated for the  $Al_2O_3$ : C sample. The quartz samples have saturation doses ( $2D_0 = 114-175$  Gy) higher than the saturation dose for the  $Al_2O_3$ : *C* sample ( $2D_0 = 35$  Gy). The sensitivity of TE65B quartz sample in gamma radiation test was higher than the sensitivity of the  $Al_2O_3$ : *C* sample. The quartz samples showed insignificant fading in the period of about 1 month (recovered dose with difference less than 10% of given dose). These results indicate that the studied quartz samples are suitable to recover doses from 50 mGy to 50 Gy have potential as dosimeters and encourage further studies to evaluate the use of this type of quartz as sensor element in personal dosimeters.

#### Ana Luísa Rodrigues dos Santos Geochemistry, mineralogy and luminescence studies of a pre-historic negative world - from Neolithic to Bronze Age in Alentejo region (Southern Portugal)

May 2015

Centro de Ciências e Tecnologias Nucleares, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa Portugal and Universidade de Aveiro, Aveiro, Portugal

Degree: Ph.D.

Supervisors: Fernando Joaquim Fernandes Tavares Rocha, Maria Isabel Marques Dias, Christopher Ian Burbidge

Archaeological research developed in recent years in South Portugal has revealed negative archaeological structures with original architectures and features, posing questions related to their chronology and fill dynamics. These structures (ditches, pits and hypogeum) have been excavated in carbonate-rich rocks and materials derived by weathering of granites, diorites and associated gabbros. They are related with Pre-Historic societies, from the Neolithic through the Bronze Age. In this work, different granulometric fractions of the fill materials of the negative structures and geological contexts have been studied by an innovative approach comprising: (i) chemical composition (neutron activation analysis and X-ray fluorescence), (ii) mineralogical composition (X-ray diffraction), (iii) thermo and optically stimulated luminescence profiling, and (iv) luminescence dating of fill materials.

Results found for granulometry, chemical and mineralogical composition, particularly of the clay fraction, enable differentiation of the paleoenvironments of the fill materials, as well as classification of the carbonate-rich materials: (i) phreatic calcretes, (ii) lacustrine calcretes (young/mature and poor/rich in Mg) and (iii) carbonate detrital formations. Luminescence together with geochemical and mineralogical results (complementing archaeological ones) contributed to the identification of different phases in the stratigraphic sequence, materials provenance and relation with the geological background, with particular emphasis in the role of trace elements, namely rare earth elements. Luminescence dating is often in accordance with archaeological interpretations of stratigraphy. Nevertheless calcite and/or the contribution of geological materials disturb the obtained age. In order to attenuate the effect of calcite, a new methodological approach is proposed in this work for the dose rate estimation, allowing a re-interpretation of the obtained age.

Thus this work contributes to better establish behaviour of geological materials subjected to natural and anthropogenic weathering effects, in an interdisciplinary point of view, and better understanding the "negative Pre-Historical world" in the Alentejo region.

### *Kirk F. Townsend* A chronostratigraphic record of arroyo entrenchment and aggradation in Kanab Creek, southern Utah

September 2015 Utah State University, Logan, United States

> Degree: Masters Supervisor: Tammy Rittenour

Arroyos are entrenched channels characterized by nearvertical walls of alluvium and flat channel bottoms. Historic channel entrenchment in the southwest United States during the late AD 1800s and early 1900s has stimulated extensive research on these dynamic fluvial systems. The nearsynchronous episodes of arroyo entrenchment and aggradation in Kanab Creek and other drainages in southern Utah during the last ~1 ka has led many researchers to argue that hydroclimatic forcings drive arroyo processes. These hypotheses remain largely untested, and there remains considerable uncertainty regarding the timing of these events and the specific mechanisms responsible for arroyo formation.

Previous work established an alluvial chronology for the Kanab Canyon reach of Kanab Creek, but it remained unclear if arroyo events in this reach were continuous with those downstream or synchronous with events in the disconnected arroyo in the upper basin. Using detailed sedimentologic and stratigraphic descriptions coupled with AMS radiocarbon and optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) dating, a new chronostratigraphic record of arroyo entrenchment and aggradation for Kanab Creek is produced in this study. Results suggest at least five periods of fluvial aggradation and episodic arroyo entrenchment during the middle- to late-Holocene, with aggradation occurring from  $\sim 6.2$  to 3.6 ka (Qf1),  $\sim$ 3.2 to 2.5 ka (Qf2),  $\sim$ 2.2 to 1.5 ka (Qf3),  $\sim$ 1.4 to 0.8 ka (Qf4), and  $\sim$ 0.75 to 0.14 ka (Qf5). This record is compared to regional alluvial and paleoclimate records to explore potential allogenic and autogenic forcing mechanisms. Rapid transitions from exceptional drought to pluvial periods are quasi-synchronous with regional arroyo entrenchment over the last 1.5 ka, but the lack of clear correlations amongst the regional alluvial records and between paleoclimate records beyond 1.5 ka suggests that internal geomorphic thresholds are important controls on the timing of entrenchment in individual catchments.

Previous research on arroyo dynamics has largely focused on the timing of entrenchment. The few studies that have investigated the processes related to aggradation have used historic observations, and not the stratigraphic record of arroyo deposits. In this study, the alluvial records from three reaches of Kanab Creek are combined to test models of the processes and geometric patterns of paleoarroyo aggradation. Results indicate that aggradation initially propagates upstream and then transitions to synchronous vertical aggradation along the entire channel profile as arroyos approach complete filling.

A PDF of this thesis can be downloaded from: http: //digitalcommons.usu.edu/etd/4492/

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# **Conference Announcements: SSD 18**



# We are pleased to announce the 18th International Conference on Solid State Dosimetry, SSD18, which will be held in Munich, Germany, 3 July - 8 July, 2016.

This series of conferences began in 1965 at Stanford, USA, and since then has expanded its initial scope from luminescence dosimetry to the current variety of solid state processes and methods available for radiation dosimetry.

In 2016, the main topics of the conference will be:

- Basic physical processes
- Material characteristics
- Monitoring and detection
- Clinical dosimetry
- Dating and Dose reconstruction
- Instrumentation/detectors

A School on Solid State Dosimetry will be offered 29 June - 2 July, 2016. The School is intended for scientist who are new in the field and for those who like to deepen their knowledge.

### The submission of abstracts for the 18th International Conference on Solid State Dosimetry is now possible. The Deadline for the submission of abstracts is

### 15 January 2016!

For more information on the conference, please visit the conference homepage

### www.ssd18.org

### We are looking forward to welcoming you to Munich, Germany!

Dr. Clemens Woda

# **Conference Announcements: NWLDW 11**

The University of Nebraska-Lincoln is pleased to announce the

### 11th New World Luminescence Dating Workshop (NWLDW) in Lincoln, Nebraska May 19-21, 2016.

Both poster and oral presentations are planned for Thursday May 19th and Friday May 20<sup>th</sup>.

We will also be offering an optional overnight field trip to the Nebraska Sand Hills and adjacent loess hills that will leave Lincoln Friday afternoon and return Saturday evening. We will visit several sites from the Sand Hills as well as thick loess deposits (> 20 meters) and perhaps needless to say, many of these sites have OSL chronologies.

Lincoln (population =  $\sim$ 250,000) is served by a small airport in town (LNK), and a larger airport (OMA) one hour drive away in Omaha (population =  $\sim$ 410,000). Shuttles are available for transport between Lincoln and Omaha, if needed. The meeting location and lodging accommodations have not yet been chosen, but we expect to keep costs in mind when choosing these venues.

Please share this first announcement with colleagues who may be interested and let us know if we should add someone to this mailing list. Also, if you could let Paul (<u>phanson2@unl.edu</u>) know approximately how many from your lab are expected to attend the meeting we would appreciate it.

Please let us know if you have any questions or comments and we look forward to seeing you in May!

# **Paul and Shannon**

# **Book Announcements: Springer Encyclopedia**

Note: Ancient TL does not endorse this product nor encourage readers to buy the book. However, we realize it will be a useful and interesting product to many in the luminescence and ESR community.



# ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SCIENTIFIC DATING METHODS

Editors: Rink, W. Jack, Thompson, Jeroen W. (Eds.)

2015, Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 978p.

A list of ESR and luminescence related entries from this book can be found in the Bibliography of this issue (p. 49 - 50).

More information is available at www.springer.com/978-94-007-6303-6

From the publisher:

This volume provides an overview of (1) the physical and chemical foundations of dating methods and (2) the applications of dating methods in the geological sciences, biology, and archaeology, in almost 200 articles from over 200 international authors. It will serve as the most comprehensive treatise on widely accepted dating methods in the earth sciences and related fields. No other volume has a similar scope, in terms of methods and applications and particularly time range. Dating methods are used to determine the timing and rate of various processes, such as sedimentation (terrestrial and marine), tectonics, volcanism, geomorphological change, cooling rates, crystallization, fluid flow, glaciation, climate change and evolution. The volume includes applications in terrestrial and extraterrestrial settings, the burgeoning field of molecular-clock dating and topics in the intersection of earth sciences with forensics. The content covers a broad range of techniques and applications. All major accepted dating techniques are included, as well as all major datable materials.

# Ancient TL

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### **Aims and Scope**

Ancient TL is a journal devoted to Luminescence dating, Electron Spin Resonance (ESR) dating, and related techniques. It aims to publish papers dealing with experimental and theoretical results in this field, with a minimum of delay between submission and publication. Ancient TL also publishes a current bibliography, thesis abstracts, letters, and miscellaneous information, e.g., announcements for meetings.

### Frequency

Two issues per annum in June and December

# Submission of articles to Ancient TL

Ancient TL has a reviewing system in which direct dialogue is encouraged between reviewers and authors. For instructions to authors and information on how to submit to Ancient TL, please visit the website at:

http://www.ecu.edu/cs-cas/physics/ancient-timeline/ancient-tl1.cfm

# **Journal Enquiries**

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# **Subscriptions to Ancient TL**

Ancient TL Vol. 32 No.2 December 2014 was the last issue to be published in print. Past and current issues are available for download free of charge from the Ancient TL website: http://www.ecu.edu/cs-cas/physics/ancient-timeline/ancient-tl5.cfm