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# Developing an internally consistent methodology for K-feldspar MAAD TL thermochronology

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## Abstract

Luminescence thermochronology and thermometry can quantify recent changes in rock exhumation rates and rock surface temperatures, but these methods require accurate determination of several kinetic parameters. For K-feldspar thermoluminescence (TL) glow curves, which comprise overlapping signals of different thermal stability, it is challenging to develop measurements that capture these parameter values. Here, we present multiple-aliquot additive-dose (MAAD) TL dose response and fading measurements from bedrock-extracted K-feldspars. These measurements are compared with Monte Carlo simulations to identify best-fit values for recombination center density ( $\rho$ ) and activation energy ( $\Delta E$ ). This is done for each dataset separately, and then by combining dose-response and fading misfits to yield more precise  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$  values consistent with both experiments. Finally, these values are used to estimate the characteristic dose ( $D_0$ ) of samples. This approach produces kinetic parameter values consistent with comparable studies and results in expected fractional saturation differences between samples.

*Keywords:* Feldspar thermoluminescence, low-temperature thermochronology, kinetic parameters

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# 1. Introduction

Recent work has shown that luminescence signals can be used to study the time-temperature history of quartz or feldspar grains within bedrock. Applications include estimations of near-surface exhumation (Herman et al., 2010; King et al., 2016b; Biswas et al., 2018), borehole temperatures (Guralnik et al., 2015b; Brown et al., 2017), and even past rock temperatures at Earth’s surface (Biswas et al., 2020). While luminescence thermochronology and thermochronometry provide useful records of recent erosion and temperature changes, these methods depend upon which kinetic model is assumed and how the relevant parameters are determined (cf. Li and Li, 2012; King et al., 2016b; Brown et al., 2017).

In this study, we demonstrate how a multiple-aliquot additive-dose (MAAD) thermoluminescence (TL) protocol can yield internally consistent estimates of recombination center density,  $\rho$  ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ ), and activation energy,  $\Delta E$  (eV), in addition to the other kinetic parameters needed to determine fractional saturation as a function of measurement temperature,  $\frac{n}{N}(T)$  (Fig. 1). In MAAD protocols, naturally irradiated aliquots are given an additional laboratory dose before the TL signals are measured. By contrast, the widely used single-aliquot regenerative-dose (SAR) protocol produces a dose-response curve and  $D_e$  estimate from individual aliquots which, after the natural measurement, are repeatedly irradiated and measured, each time filling the traps before emptying them during the measurement (Wintle and Murray, 2006). One advantage of a SAR protocol is that each disc yields an independent  $D_e$  estimate, which can be measured to optimal resolution by incorporating many dose points. This ensures that with even small amounts of material a date can be determined (e.g., when dating a pottery shard or a target mineral of low natural abundance). The caveat is that any sensitivity changes which occur during a measurement sequence must be accounted for. In optical dating, this is achieved by monitoring the response to some constant ‘test dose’ administered during every measurement cycle. For TL measurements, however, the initial

25 heating measurement can alter the shape of subsequent regenerative glow curves, rendering this ap-  
26 proach of ‘stripping out’ sensitivity change by monitoring test dose responses as inadequate, because  
27 only certain regions within the curve will become more or less sensitive to irradiation (in some cases,  
28 this is overcome by monitoring the changes in peak heights through measurement cycles, although  
29 this incorporates further assumptions; [Adamiec et al., 2006](#)). The MAAD approach avoids such  
30 heating-induced sensitivity changes, though radiation-induced sensitivity changes are also possible  
31 ([Zimmerman, 1971](#)).

## 32 **2. Samples and instrumentation**

33 The K-feldspar samples analyzed in this study were extracted from bedrock outcrops across the  
34 southern San Bernardino Mountains of Southern California. Young apatite (U-Th)/He ages ([Spotila  
35 et al., 1998, 2001](#)) and catchment-averaged cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$  denudation rates from this region  
36 ([Binnie et al., 2007, 2010](#)) reveal a landscape which is rapidly eroding in response to transpressional  
37 uplift across the San Andreas fault system. Accordingly, we expect the majority of these samples to  
38 have cooled rapidly during the latest Pleistocene, maintaining natural trap occupancy below field  
39 saturation which is a requirement for luminescence thermochronometry ([King et al., 2016a](#)).

40 Twelve bedrock samples were removed from outcrops using a chisel and hammer. Sample J1298  
41 is a quartz monzonite and the other samples are orthogneisses. After collection, samples were  
42 spray-painted with a contrasting color and then broken into smaller pieces under dim amber LED  
43 lighting. The sunlight-exposed, outer-surface portions of the bedrock samples were separated from  
44 the inner portions. The unexposed inner portions of rock were then gently ground with a pestle  
45 and mortar and sieved to isolate the 175 - 400  $\mu\text{m}$  size fraction. These separates were treated  
46 with 3% hydrochloric acid and separated by density using lithium metatungstate heavy liquid ( $\rho <$   
47  $2.565 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ; [Rhodes 2015](#)) in order to isolate the most potassic feldspar grains. Under a binocular

48 scope, three K-feldspar grains were manually placed into the center of each stainless steel disc for  
49 luminescence measurements.

50 All luminescence measurements were performed at the UCLA luminescence laboratory using a  
51 TL-DA-20 Risø automated reader equipped with a  $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$  beta source which delivers 0.1 Gy/s  
52 at the sample location (Bøtter-Jensen et al., 2003). Emissions were detected through a Schott  
53 BG3-BG39 filter combination (transmitting between  $\sim 325 - 475$  nm). Thermoluminescence mea-  
54 surements were performed in a nitrogen atmosphere.

### 55 3. Measurements

56 To characterize the dose-response characteristics of each sample, 15 aliquots were measured for  
57 each of the 12 bedrock samples. Additive doses were: 0 ( $n = 6$ ; natural dose only), 50 ( $n = 1$ ), 100  
58 ( $n = 1$ ), 500 ( $n = 1$ ), 1000 ( $n = 3$ ), and 5000 Gy ( $n = 3$ ). The measurement sequence for each disc  
59 is shown in Table 1. Discs were heated from 0 to 500 °C at a rate of 0.5 °C/s to avoid thermal lag  
60 between the disc and the mounted grains, with TL intensity recorded at 1 °C increments (Fig. S1).

61 Thermoluminescence signals following laboratory irradiation (regenerative TL) of K-feldspar  
62 samples are known to fade athermally and thermally on laboratory timescales (Wintle, 1973;  
63 Riedesel et al., 2021). To quantify this effect in our samples, we prepared 10 natural aliquots  
64 per sample. These aliquots were first preheated to 100 °C for 10 s at a rate of 10 °C/s and then  
65 heated to 310 °C at a rate of 0.5 °C/s. The preheat treatment is identical to the one used in the dose  
66 response experiment described in the additive dose experiment. The second heat is analogous to the  
67 subsequent TL glow curve readout (step 3 in Table 1), but the maximum temperature of 310 °C is  
68 significantly lower than the peak temperature used in the MAAD dose response experiment. This  
69 lower peak temperature was chosen to be just higher than the region of interest within the TL glow  
70 curve (150-300 °C), to minimize changes in TL recombination kinetics induced by heating, and

71 ultimately, to evict the natural TL charge population within this measurement temperature range.

72 Following these initial heatings, aliquots were given a beta dose of 50 Gy, preheated to 100 °C  
73 for 10 s at a rate of 10 °C/s and then held at room temperature for a set time (Auclair et al., 2003).  
74 Per sample, two aliquots each were stored for times of approximately 3 ks, 10 ks, 2 d, 1 wk and  
75 3 wk. Following storage, aliquots were measured following steps 3 - 8 of Table 1. Typical fading  
76 behavior is shown for sample J1499 in Fig. 2 and for all samples in Fig. S2.

#### 77 4. Extracting kinetic parameters from measurements

78 To extract kinetic parameters from our measurements, we use the localized transition model of  
79 Brown et al. (2017), which assumes first-order trapping and TL emission by excited-state tunneling  
80 to the nearest radiative recombination center (Huntley, 2006; Jain et al., 2012; Pagonis et al., 2016).  
81 This model is physically plausible, relies on minimal free parameters, and successfully captures  
82 the observed dependence of natural TL (NTL)  $T_{1/2}$  (measurement temperature at half-maximum  
83 intensity for the bulk TL glow curve) on geologic burial temperatures and laboratory preheating  
84 experiments (Brown et al., 2017; Pagonis and Brown, 2019). Additionally, the model explains the  
85 more subtle decrease in NTL  $T_{1/2}$  values with greater geologic dose rates (Brown and Rhodes, 2019)  
86 and the lack of regenerative TL (RTL)  $T_{1/2}$  variation following a range of laboratory doses (Pagonis  
87 et al., 2019).

88 The kinetic model is expressed as:

$$89 \frac{dn(r')}{dt} = \frac{\dot{D}}{D_0} \left( N(r') - n(r') \right) - n(r') \exp \left( - \Delta E / k_B T \right) \frac{P(r')s}{P(r') + s} \quad (1)$$

91 where  $n(r')$  and  $N(r')$  are the concentrations ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ ) of occupied and total trapping sites, respec-  
92 tively, at a dimensionless recombination distance  $r'$ ;  $\dot{D}$  is the geologic dose rate (Gy/ka);  $D_0$  is the  
93 characteristic dose of saturation (Gy);  $\Delta E$  is the activation energy difference between the ground-  
94 and excited-states (eV);  $T$  is the absolute temperature of the sample (K);  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann

95 constant (eV/K); and  $s$  is the frequency factor ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ).  $P(r')$  is the tunneling probability at some  
 96 distance  $r'$  ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ):

$$97 \quad P(r') = P_0 \exp(-\rho'^{-1/3} r') \quad (2)$$

99 where  $P_0$  is the tunneling frequency factor ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ). The dimensionless recombination center density,  
 100  $\rho'$ , is defined as

$$101 \quad \rho' \equiv \frac{4\pi\rho}{3\alpha^3} \quad (3)$$

103 where  $\rho$  is the dimensional recombination center density ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ ). Lastly,  $\alpha$  is the potential barrier  
 104 penetration constant ( $\text{m}^{-1}$ ) (pp. 60-66; [Chen and McKeever, 1997](#)):

$$105 \quad \alpha = \frac{2\sqrt{2m_e^* E_e}}{\hbar} \quad (4)$$

107 where  $m_e^*$  is the effective electron mass within alkali feldspars (kg), estimated by [Poolton et al.](#)  
 108 ([2001](#)) as  $0.79 \times m_e$ ;  $\hbar$  is the Dirac constant; and  $E_e$  is the tunneling barrier (eV), here assumed to  
 109 be the excited state depth.

110 In the analyses that follow, we evaluate the dimensional  $\rho$  rather than the commonly used dimen-  
 111 sionless  $\rho'$  to disentangle  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$ . Within the localized transition model,  $\rho'$  embeds depth of the  
 112 excited state within the tunneling probability term (Eqs. 3 and 4). Assuming a fixed ground-state  
 113 energy level ([Brown and Rhodes, 2017](#)), variation in  $\rho'$  then also implies variation in  $\Delta E$ . There-  
 114 fore, we isolate these two parameters during data misfit analysis, though we ultimately translate  
 115 the best-fit  $\rho$  into  $\rho'$  using the independently optimized  $\Delta E$  value.

## 116 5. Kinetic parameters

117 We compared results from Eq. 1 with the fading and dose response datasets to estimate the  
 118 recombination center density  $\rho$  ( $\text{m}^{-3}$ ) and the activation energy  $\Delta E$  of each sample using a Monte

119 Carlo approach. First, we compared the  $T_{1/2}$  values from room temperature fading measurements  
120 (Fig. 2) with modeled values produced using Eq. 1 (Fig. 2). For each of the 5000 iterations, values of  
121  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$  were randomly selected within the ranges of  $10^{24} - 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-3}$  and 0.8 - 1.2 eV, respectively.  
122 As illustrated in Fig. 2, higher  $\Delta E$  values produce less time dependence of  $T_{1/2}$  decay and higher  
123  $\rho$  values reduce  $T_{1/2}$  values at all delay times. Data misfit was quantified with the error weighted  
124 sum of squares for all fading durations and the best-fit fifth and tenth percentile contours for these  
125 simulations are shown in blue in Fig. 4.

126 Next, we compared the shape of the MAAD TL curves following the 5 kGy additive dose  
127 with that predicted by Eq. 1. Specifically, on a semilog plot of TL intensity versus measurement  
128 temperature, the slope of the high-temperature limb of the TL glow curve (defined here as 220 -  
129 300 °C) steepens significantly at greater  $\rho$  values, whereas variations in  $\Delta E$  values produce only  
130 slight differences (Fig. 3). Using the same approach and parameter ranges as above, we plot the  
131 best-fit fifth and tenth percentile contours in red in Fig. 4. Significantly, the best-fit contours for  $\rho$   
132 and  $\Delta E$  overlap when the fading and curve shape datasets are combined. Values consistent with  
133 both the tenth percentile contours of each sample are listed in Table 2.

134  $D_0$  values were estimated by comparing measured and simulated TL dose response intensities.  
135 Simulated growth curves were produced with Eq. 1, using the best-fit  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$  values listed  
136 in Table 2. We assume that frequency factors  $P_0$  and  $s$  equal  $3 \times 10^{15} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Huntley, 2006) and  
137 the ground-state depth  $E_g$  is 2.1 eV (Brown and Rhodes, 2017). Results from 1000 Monte Carlo  
138 iterations for sample J1500 are shown in Fig. 5, with the mean and standard deviation of the best-fit  
139 fifth percentile values plotted as a red diamond.

140 Given that all samples are orthogneisses except for J1298, a quartz monzonite, we compare  
141 values of derived kinetic parameters (Table 2). Both  $\Delta E$  and  $\rho'$  values are consistent within  $1\sigma$ .  
142 Omitting samples J0165 ( $1664 \pm 194 \text{ Gy}$ ) and J1500 ( $527 \pm 200 \text{ Gy}$ ), the remaining  $D_0$  values are

143 also consistent within  $1\sigma$ . Though none of the 12 samples exhibit significantly different properties  
144 in hand sample or thin section, sample J1500 comes from a relict surface atop the Yucaipa Ridge  
145 tectonic block and is expected to have experienced a higher degree of chemical weathering than any  
146 other sample, which may have reduced its  $D_0$  value (cf. [Bartz et al., 2022](#)). Alternately, the degree of  
147 metamorphism experienced by these rocks prior to exposure at the surface is locally variable ([Matti  
148 et al., 1992](#)), possibly resulting in different in luminescence properties ([Guralnik et al., 2015a](#)).

## 149 6. Fractional saturation values

150 Figure 6 shows the ratio of the natural TL signals to the ‘natural + 5 kGy’ TL signals. Each  
151 ratio shown in Fig. 6 represents the mean and standard deviation of ratios from 6 natural and 3  
152 ‘natural + 5kGy’ aliquots (18 ratios per sample per channel). Ten of 108 aliquots were excluded  
153 based on irregular glow curve shapes.

154 The additive dose responses were corrected for fading during laboratory irradiation, prior to  
155 measurement using the kinetic parameters in Table 2 and the approach of [Kars et al. \(2008\)](#),  
156 modified for the localized transition model (e.g., Eq. 14 of [Jain et al., 2015](#)). Assuming that an  
157 additive dose of 5 kGy will fully saturate the source luminescence traps (a reasonable assumption  
158 based on the  $D_0$  values in Table 2), these  $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy})$  ratios are assumed to represent the  
159 fractional saturation values for each measurement temperature channel at laboratory dose rates,  
160  $\frac{n}{N}(T)$ , where  $T = 150 - 300 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  with step sizes of  $1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . That  $\frac{n}{N}(T)$  values of all samples fall within  
161 the range of 0 to 1 at  $1\sigma$  supports this assumption.

162 Likewise, the differences in  $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy})$  ratios between samples shown in Fig. 6 are expected  
163 from their position within the landscape. Sample J0172 ( $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy}) \lesssim 0.2$ ) is taken from the  
164 base of a rocky cliff with abundant evidence of modern rockfall. Sample J0216 ( $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy}) \lesssim$   
165  $0.4$ ) is taken from a hillside near the base of the mountains and sample J1502 ( $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy}) \lesssim$

166 1.0) is taken from a soil-mantled spur. In other words, geomorphic evidence suggests that recent  
167 exhumation rates are greatest for sample J0172, less for J0216, and least for J1502. As cooling rate  
168 is assumed to scale with exhumation rate, it is encouraging that the calculated  $N/(N + 5 \text{ kGy})$   
169 ratios for these samples follow this pattern.

## 170 **7. Conclusions**

171 The kinetic parameters (Table 2) determined using the approach described here and summarized  
172 in Fig. 1 are consistent with previous estimates for K-feldspar TL signals in the low-temperature  
173 region of the glow curve that assume excited-state tunneling as the primary recombination pathway  
174 (Sfampa et al., 2015; Brown et al., 2017; Brown and Rhodes, 2019) as well as numerical results  
175 from localized transition models (Jain et al., 2012; Pagonis et al., 2021). Additionally, the  $\rho$  and  
176  $\Delta E$  values determined by data-model misfit of  $T_{1/2}$  fading measurements (Fig. 2) and by of glow  
177 curve shape measurements (Fig. 3) yield mutually consistent results. By combining these analyses,  
178 the best-fit region is considerably reduced, giving more precise estimates of both  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$  (Fig. 4)  
179 which can then be incorporated into the determination of  $D_0$  (Fig. 5). This approach has potential  
180 to produce reliable kinetic parameters to better understand the time-temperature history of bedrock  
181 K-feldspar samples.

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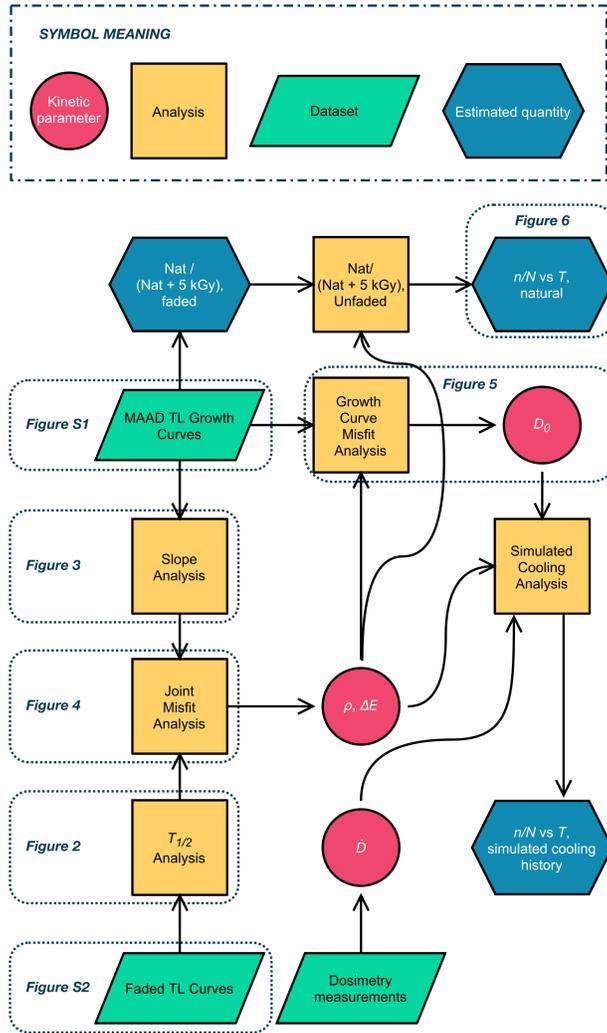


Figure 1: Flowchart illustrating how datasets (green parallelograms) are analyzed (yellow squares) to derive luminescence kinetic parameters (red circles) and other quantities (blue hexagons) to ultimately arrive at fractional saturation as a function of measurement temperature. Figures corresponding to various steps are cross-referenced.

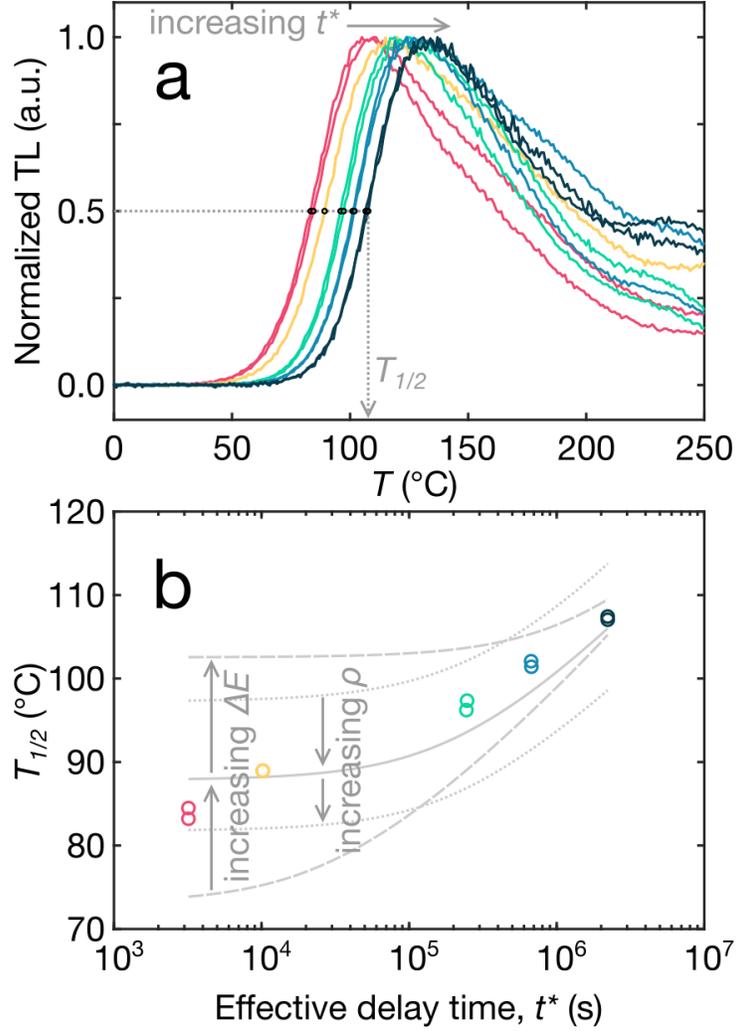


Figure 2: (a) Normalized TL curves of sample J1499 are shown following effective delay times ( $t^*$ ) ranging from 3197 s (red curves) to 25.7 d (dark blue curves). (b)  $T_{1/2}$  values from these glow curves are plotted as a function of  $t^*$  (circles). Several simulated datasets are shown for comparison to illustrate the effects of varying luminescence parameters  $\Delta E$  (values of 1.10, 1.15, and 1.20 eV shown for  $\rho = 10^{27.0} \text{ m}^{-3}$ ) and  $\rho$  ( $10^{26.5}$ ,  $10^{27.0}$ , and  $10^{27.5} \text{ m}^{-3}$  shown for  $\Delta E = 1.15 \text{ eV}$ ).

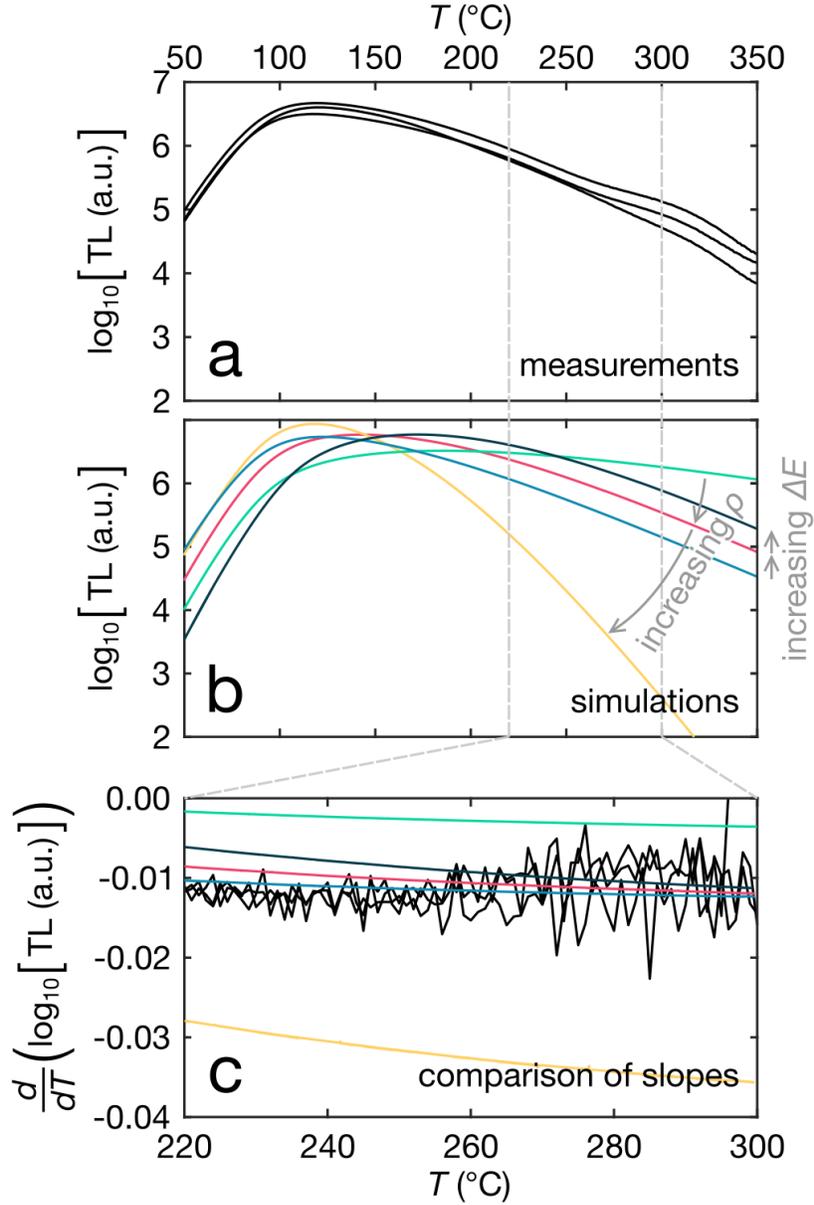


Figure 3: (a) Sensitivity-corrected TL curves for three aliquots of sample J0165 following an additive dose of 5 kGy. The  $y$ -axis scaling is logarithmic. (b) Five MAAD TL curves are plotted for comparison to illustrate the effects of varying luminescence parameters  $\Delta E$  (values of 1.0, 1.1, and 1.2 eV shown for  $\rho = 10^{27.0} \text{ m}^{-3}$ ) and  $\rho$  ( $10^{25.65}$ ,  $10^{26.15}$ , and  $10^{26.65} \text{ m}^{-3}$  shown for  $\Delta E = 1.1 \text{ eV}$ ). (c) The first derivatives of both datasets are plotted together. Note the sensitivity of model fit to  $\rho$  value.

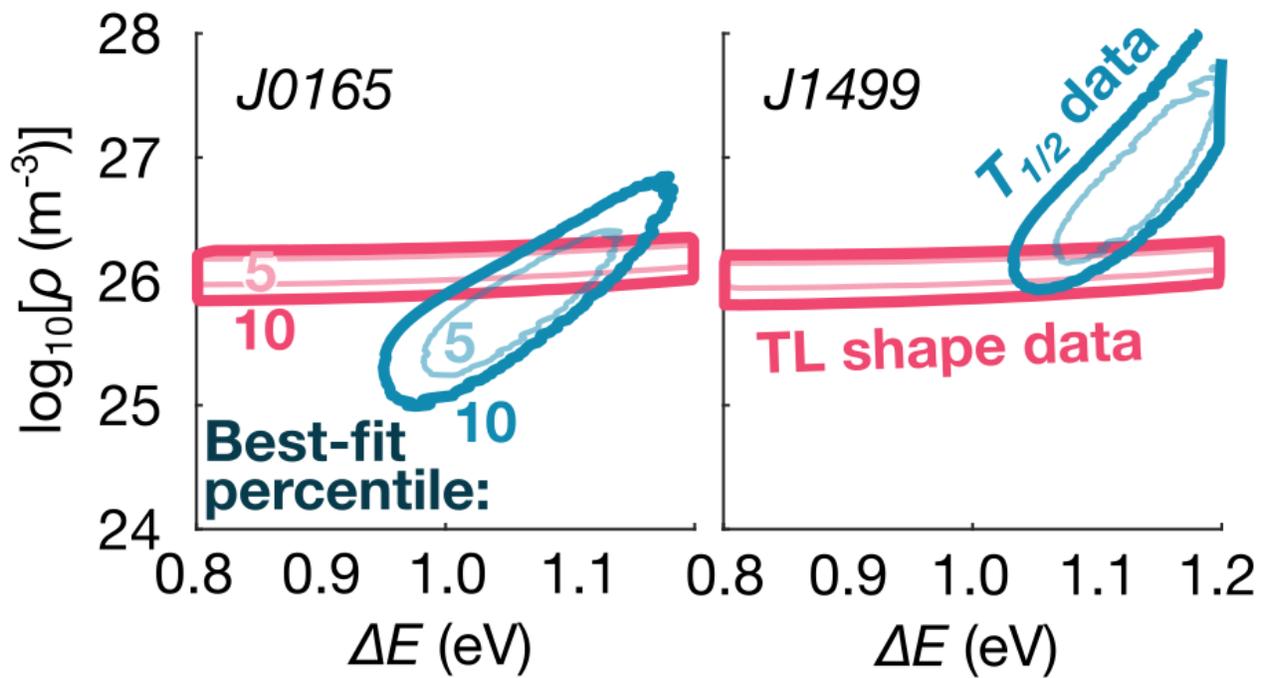


Figure 4: Contours are shown for the 5<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> best-fit percentiles of Monte Carlo simulations reproducing TL glow curve shape (red contours) and  $T_{1/2}$  dependence on laboratory storage time (blue contours) based upon randomly selected values for parameters  $\rho$  and  $\Delta E$  for samples J0165 and J1499.

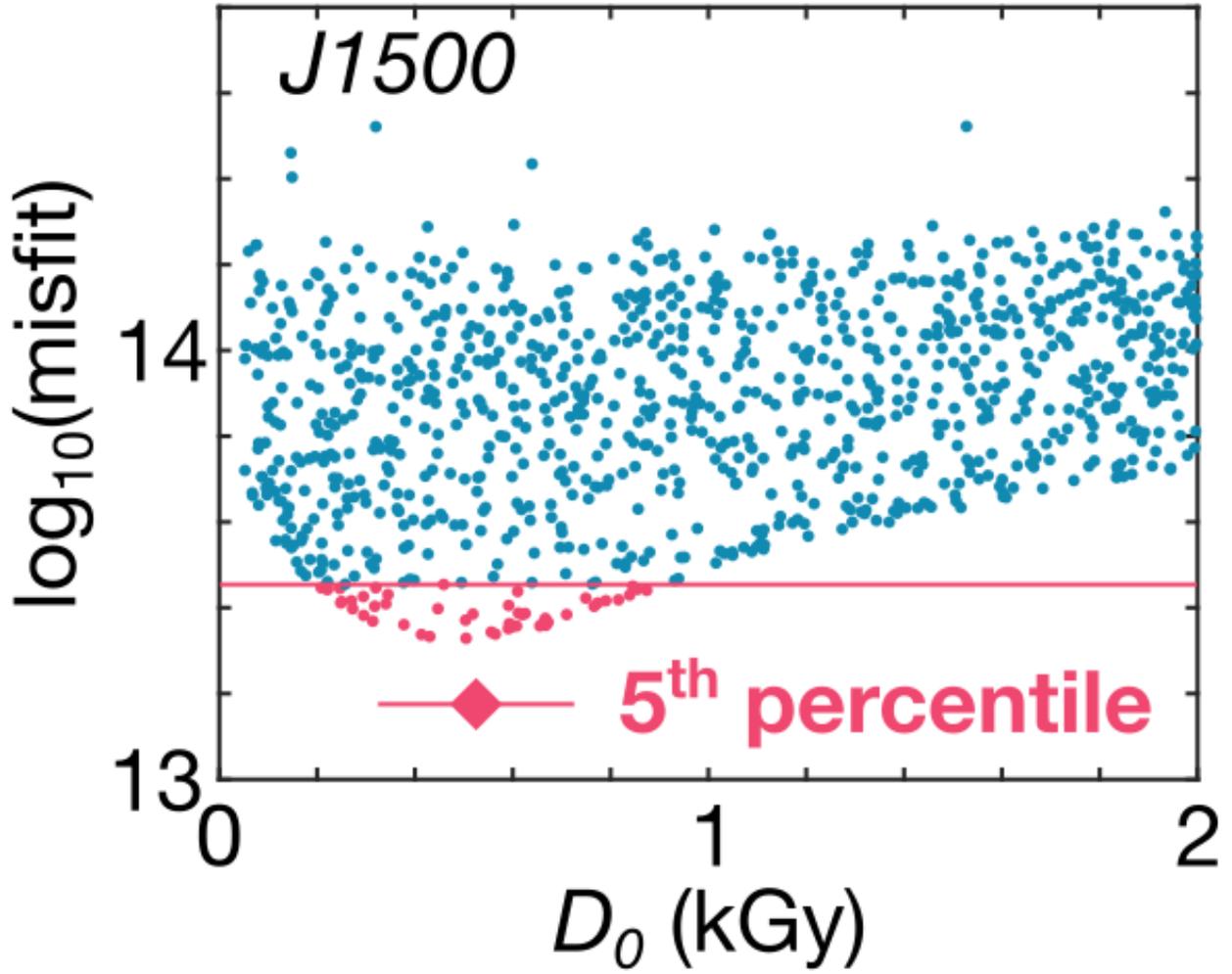


Figure 5: Calculated misfit between measured and simulated TL dose response data as a function of chosen  $D_0$  value, using optimized  $\rho'$  and  $\Delta E$  values listed in Table 2. Monte Carlo iterations from the best-fit 5<sup>th</sup> percentile (red markers) are used to calculate the  $D_0$ , represented by the diamond with error bars and also listed in Table 2.

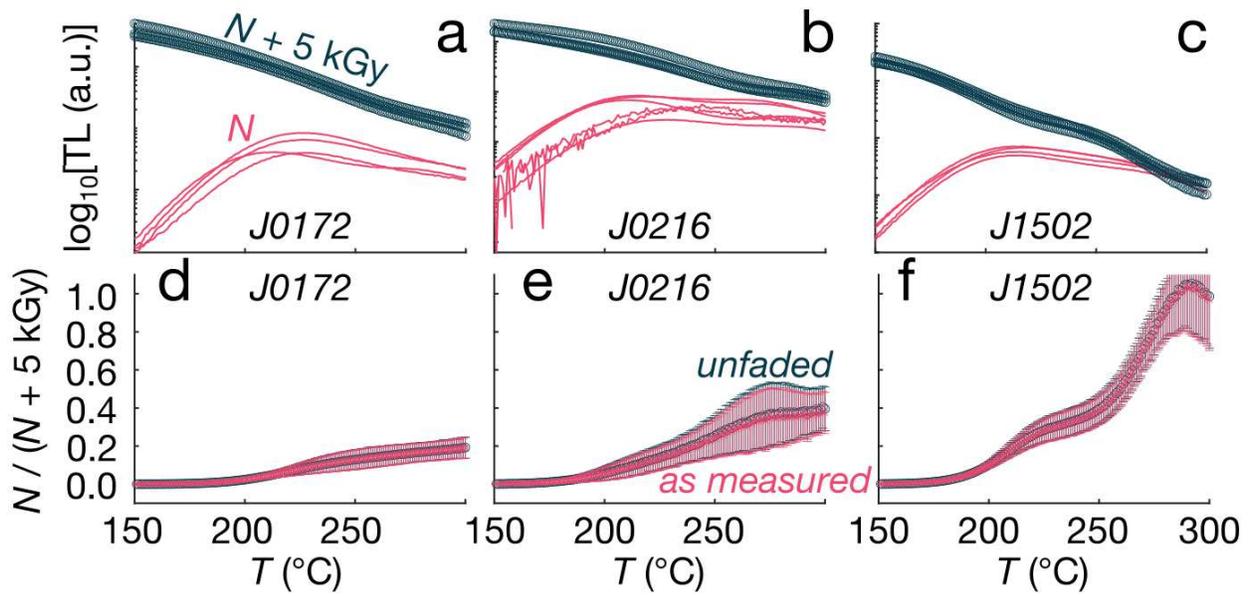


Figure 6: (a - c) The sensitivity-corrected natural (red lines) and ‘natural + 5 kGy’ (dark blue circles) TL glow curves are shown for samples J0172, J0216, and J1502, with a logarithmic  $y$ -axis. Each glow curve is a separate aliquot. (d - f) The ‘natural / (natural + 5 kGy)’ data are plotted as measured (red Xs) and unfaded (blue circles).

Table 1: Thermoluminescence measurement sequence.

Step	Treatment	Purpose
1	Additive dose, $D = 0 - 5000$ Gy	Populate luminescence traps
2	Preheat ( $T = 100$ °C, 10 s)	Remove unstable signal
3	TL (0.5 °C/s)	Luminescence intensity, $L$
4	TL (0.5 °C/s)	Background intensity
5	Test dose, $D_t = 10$ Gy	Constant dose for normalization
6	Preheat ( $T = 100$ °C, 10 s)	Remove unstable signal
7	TL (0.5 °C/s)	Test dose intensity, $T$
8	TL (0.5 °C/s)	Background intensity

Table 2: Thermoluminescence kinetic parameters.

Sample	$D_0$ (Gy)	$\Delta E$ (eV)	$\rho' \times 10^{-4}$
J0165	$1664 \pm 194$	$1.08 \pm 0.08$	$7.10 \pm 3.94$
J0172	$1411 \pm 318$	$1.10 \pm 0.06$	$7.65 \pm 3.65$
J0214	$1008 \pm 300$	$1.08 \pm 0.08$	$6.47 \pm 3.59$
J0216	$1097 \pm 418$	$1.04 \pm 0.09$	$5.08 \pm 2.69$
J0218	$936 \pm 463$	$1.04 \pm 0.07$	$5.08 \pm 2.42$
J1298	$1282 \pm 328$	$1.10 \pm 0.06$	$10.57 \pm 5.58$
J1299	$1175 \pm 362$	$1.11 \pm 0.07$	$10.48 \pm 5.54$
J1300	$1006 \pm 438$	$1.09 \pm 0.06$	$7.54 \pm 4.18$
J1499	$932 \pm 507$	$1.08 \pm 0.05$	$6.78 \pm 3.23$
J1500	$527 \pm 200$	$1.09 \pm 0.06$	$7.54 \pm 3.99$
J1501	$959 \pm 326$	$1.11 \pm 0.06$	$10.73 \pm 5.67$
J1502	$1287 \pm 325$	$1.10 \pm 0.06$	$11.32 \pm 5.69$

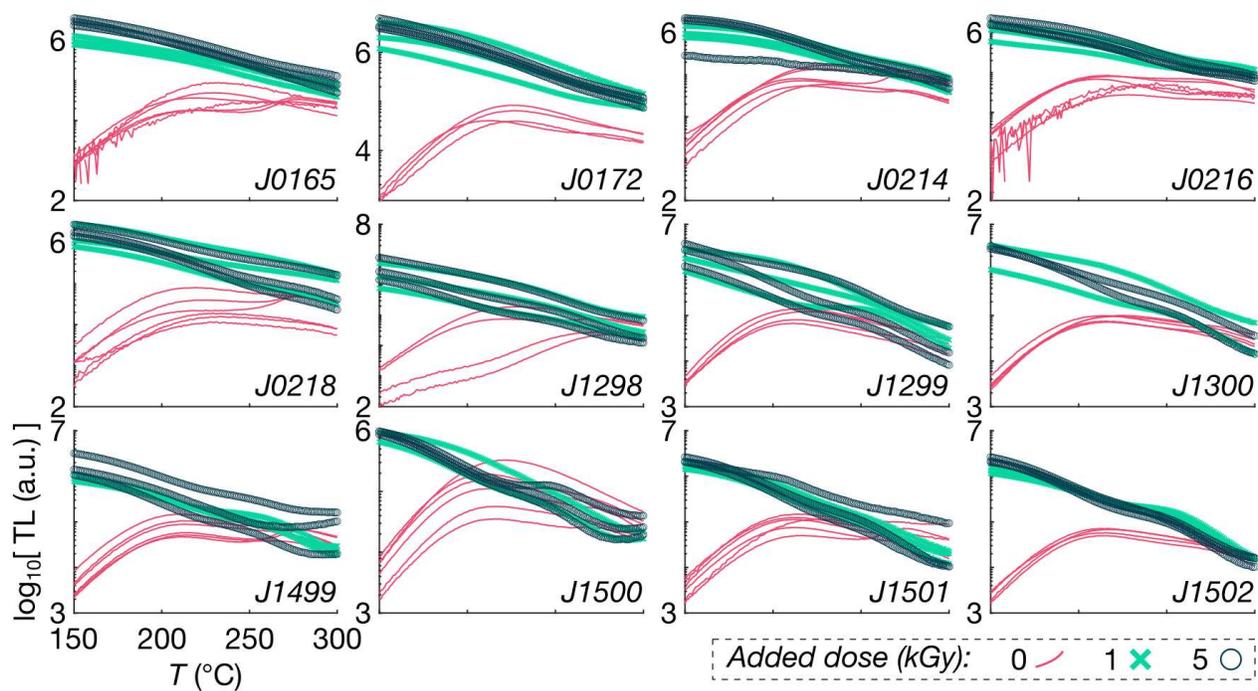


Figure S1: The sensitivity-corrected natural (red curves), ‘natural + 1 kGy’ (green Xs), and ‘natural + 5 kGy’ (dark blue circles) TL glow curves are shown for all samples, with a logarithmic  $y$ -axis. Each glow curve is a separate aliquot.

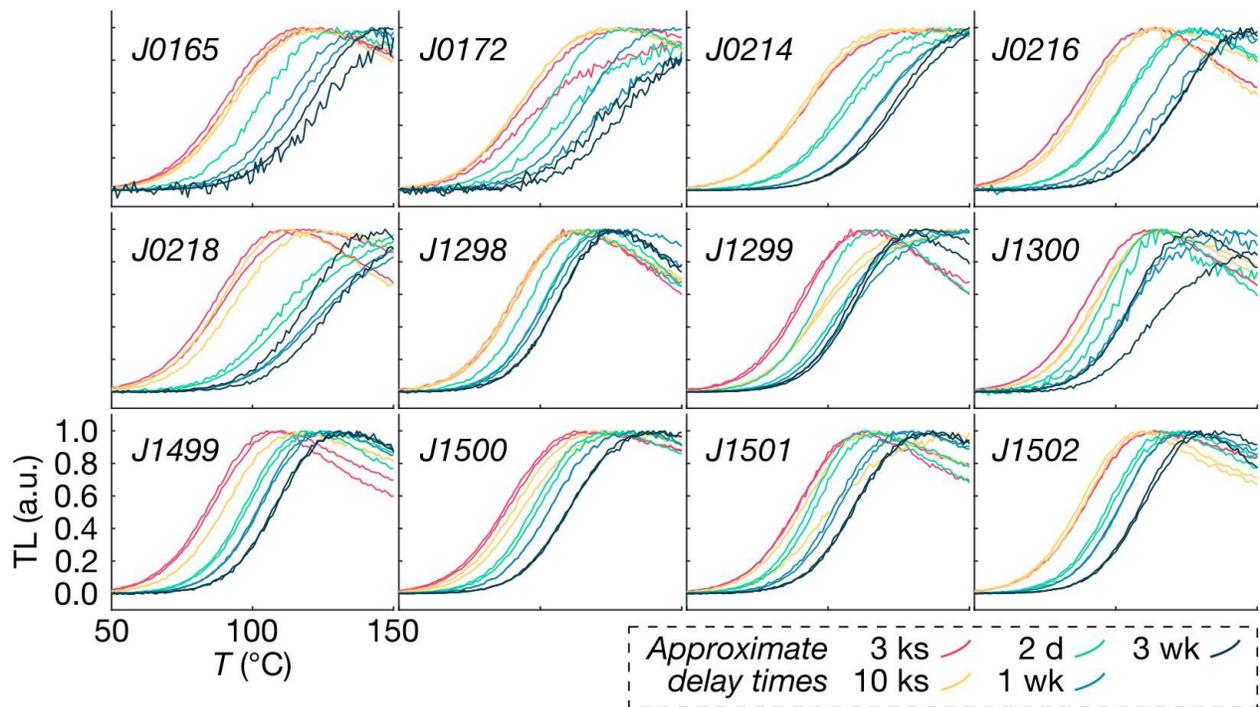


Figure S2: Intensity normalized TL glow curves following a laboratory dose of 50 Gy followed by a preheat and then various room temperature storage durations, ranging from about 3 ks to 3 wk. Each delay time is represented by two aliquots per sample.