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3 Dose-rate dependence of natural TL signals from feldspars extracted from
4 bedrock samples
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6

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8

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15 **Abstract**
16

17 The influence of dose rate on feldspar thermoluminescence shape is considered for a variety of
18 natural dose rates. The geologic dose rate experienced by bedrock samples is observed to control
19 the position of the low-temperature edge of the bulk TL signal (the $T_{1/2}$ parameter), with higher
20 dose rates producing natural TL signals that begin to emit at lower measurement temperatures.
21 This behavior can be explained in terms of the natural equilibrium between electron trapping and
22 detrapping rates, as the trapping rate depends directly on the dose rate. The role of anomalous
23 fading is more subtle. While a wide range of $T_{1/2}$ values is found at low fading rates, only high
24 $T_{1/2}$ values are found when the fading rate is greater. This suggests that high fading rates may
25 also influence the natural $T_{1/2}$ value by making low-temperature regions of the TL curve unstable.
26 Our results illustrate the need to consider dose-rate and fading-rate variations between bedrock
27 samples before interpreting the minimum stability of each natural TL signal, a consequential result
28 for future low-temperature thermochronology applications.
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35 *Keywords:* geologic dose rate, feldspar thermoluminescence, low-temperature thermochronology,
36 anomalous fading
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40 **1. Introduction**
41

42 Whether a set of traps accumulate or lose electrons through time depends on the balance between
43 the rate of free electrons produced by ionizing radiation, i.e., the dose rate, \dot{D} , and the average
44 probability per unit time of detrapping, p , which is the inverse of the trap lifetime, τ . This has
45 an interesting consequence. Imagine that all traps in a crystal were emptied and then subjected to
46 geologic burial. After some time there would exist some trap types that were in ‘field saturation’ or
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59 steady state, meaning that the rate of trapping at geologic conditions is the same as the loss rate
60 (Huntley and Lian, 2006; Kars et al., 2008). Other traps will still be experiencing net accumulation.
61
62 If this crystal were analyzed and the equivalent doses (D_e) were determined for all trap types, the
63
64 D_e values for accumulating traps would indicate the time since traps were empty and the D_e values
65
66 for the static traps would represent the average trap lifetime, as illustrated by the following equation
67
68 (Grün et al., 1999):

$$69 \quad D_e = \dot{D} \cdot \tau \left[1 - \exp(-t/\tau) \right] \quad (1)$$

70
71
72 This principle is the basis for ‘age-plateau’ analysis commonly used in TL dating (e.g., p. 64,
73
74 Fleming, 1979).

75 According to Eq. 1, the magnitude of the dose rate and the rate of detrapping (a function of
76
77 ambient temperature) control the degree to which sites will be filled (Christodoulides et al., 1971;
78
79 Ypma and Hochman, 1991). The degree of site saturation, usually expressed as n/N , is the target
80
81 measurement in most luminescence thermochronology research (for a recent review, see King et al.,
82
83 2016a), but most of the experimental research to date has considered variations in laboratory or
84
85 natural thermal conditions while variations in dose rates have been restricted to a narrow range
86
87 (e.g., factor 1.6 difference in beta dose rates and the resulting infrared stimulated luminescence
88
89 signal; Guralnik et al., 2015).

90 The aim of this study is to measure how TL signals from bedrock feldspars vary following a wide
91
92 range of natural dose rates. As feldspars extracted from bedrock samples have been explored for
93
94 use in low-temperature thermochronometry (Brown et al., 2017; Tang and Li, 2017; Biswas et al.,
95
96 2018), we examine how surficial bedrock samples from the same glacial valley yield natural TL
97
98 signals which vary in shape as a linear function of geologic dose rate. By comparison, measured
99
100 fading values do not correlate strongly with the position of the leading edge of emissions. Our
101
102 results are discussed in light of future thermochronology efforts involving samples with different
103
104 geologic dose rates.

105 2. How geologic dose rate relates to the natural TL shape

106 To understand how the dose rate \dot{D} is expected to affect electron trap site stability, we consider
107
108 the electron trapping rate equation from Brown et al. (2017):

$$109 \quad \frac{dn(r')}{dt} = \frac{\dot{D}}{D_0} \left(N(r') - n(r') \right) - n(r') \exp \left(- \Delta E / k_B T \right) \frac{P(r')s}{P(r') + s} \quad (2)$$

113
114
115 where $n(r')$ and $N(r')$ are the concentrations (m^{-3}) of occupied and total traps, respectively, at some
116
117 recombination distance r' ; D_0 is the characteristic dose of saturation (Gy); ΔE is the activation
118
119 energy (eV) required for thermally-activated tunneling; T is the sample temperature (K); k_B is
120
121 the Boltzmann constant; $P(r')$ is the tunneling probability at some distance r' (s^{-1}); and s is
122
123 the frequency factor (s^{-1}). We can see that the distance r' between the electron trap and the
124
125 nearest recombination center influences site stability; nearer sites are more likely to recombine
126
127 and will therefore have a shorter mean lifetime (Huntley, 2006). This effect is enhanced at higher
128
129 temperatures as more electrons are excited to higher-energy states where tunneling becomes more
130
131 probable (Jain et al., 2012, 2015). This temperature dependence is the underlying principle for
132
133 feldspar TL thermochronology (Pagonis and Brown, 2019).

134
135 Assuming that all of the blue emissions from feldspar natural TL between measurement tem-
136
137 peratures of about 130 - 330 °C are from the same defect (Krbetschek et al., 1997) – below the
138
139 ~ 410 °C TL peak identified by Murray et al. (2009) as the main dosimetric trap for the IRSL signal
140
141 – and assuming that the only difference between the TL measured in that temperature range is the
142
143 stability of those detrapping sites, we can approximately describe the thermal stability of the bulk
144
145 TL emissions by the position of the $T_{1/2}$ metric (Fig. 1). Because the TL measurement temperature
146
147 at which emissions become significant is a function of the occupied sites of minimum stability, and
148
149 because the $T_{1/2}$ value is a convenient and (usually) unambiguous measurement, we treat measured
150
151 $T_{1/2}$ values as representing the characteristic (minimum) thermal stability of the feldspar bulk TL
152
153 signal (Spencer and Sanderson, 1994, 2012; Chen and Pagonis, 2011, Ch. 5).

154
155 In the case of widely varying steady-state temperatures, $T_{1/2}$ values are shown to largely be a
156
157 function of long-term rock temperature (Brown et al., 2017). If, however, several bedrock samples
158
159 have been held at a similar temperature, their natural $T_{1/2}$ values may reflect higher-order influences
160
161 like dose-rate variations or differences in fading rates.

162
163 The bedrock samples collected from Rock Creek glacial valley lend themselves to this analysis.
164
165 Collected from within a single valley and all from near the ground surface, these samples experi-
166
167 enced similar mean annual air temperature since their exposure: instrumental temperature records
168
169 combined with the dry adiabatic lapse rate should result in mean annual temperatures ranging from
170
171 about -7.0 to 1.0 °C between the highest- and lowest-elevation samples considered in this section.
172
173 The valley-bottom temperature is based on the mean annual temperatures recorded between 1892
174
175 and 2012 in the nearby town of Red Lodge, MT (elevation 1697 masl), which are freely available
176
177 from the Western Regional Climate Center website: www.wrcc.dri.edu. Furthermore, the geologic
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169
170
171 dose rates for these samples vary by a factor of 9.7 (Table 1), an unusually high difference.
172

173 While the focus of this study is the dose-rate dependence of natural $T_{1/2}$ values, we also consider
174 whether a sample's fading rate is a good predictor of $T_{1/2}$. As will be shown with fading measure-
175 ments in Section 5.2, though fading is not strongly correlated to $T_{1/2}$, it may still limit the stability
176 of the bulk TL signal in feldspars.
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178

179 180 181 **3. Sample collection, preparation, and measurement details**

182 The feldspar samples measured in this study were taken from the tectonically uplifted crustal
183 block known as the Beartooth uplift, located near the town of Red Lodge, Montana, USA. This
184 uplifted region is a 60×125 km block of Precambrian crystalline basement which was initially
185 exhumed during the Laramide orogeny, a period of mountain building in the western USA between
186 ~ 80 to 35 Mya (Wise, 2000). Apatite fission-track results from a 2.5-km-deep exploratory well
187 indicate a two-stage uplift history, with the first stage beginning around 61 Ma and resulting in 4 -
188 8 km of uplift, and the second stage beginning between 15 and 5 Ma and producing about 4 km of
189 uplift, which continues to the present (i.e., 0.3 - 0.8 mm/yr) (Omar et al., 1994).
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192 Bedrock samples were detached by sledge hammer and chisel from rock outcrops that seemed
193 to be in place (i.e., not 'float'). The latitude, longitude, and elevations of sample collection loca-
194 tions were measured with a handheld GPS system. After sample collection, the bedrock samples
195 were spray-painted with a contrasting color and then broken into smaller pieces under dim amber
196 LED lighting in the laboratory. The sunlight-exposed, outer-surface portions of the samples were
197 separated from the inner portions.
198
199

200 The unexposed inner portions from the samples were then crushed by hand using a pestle and
201 mortar and sieved to isolate the 175 - 400 μm size fraction. These separates were then treated with
202 3% hydrochloric acid and separated by density using lithium metatungstate heavy liquid ($\rho < 2.565$
203 g/cm^3 ; Rhodes 2015) in order to isolate the most potassic feldspar grains. Grains were mounted
204 on stainless steel discs in a small-diameter (3 - 5 mm) monolayer using silicon oil. No hydrofluoric
205 acid was used to etch these crystals.
206
207

208 All luminescence measurements were performed at the UCLA luminescence laboratory using a
209 TL-DA-20 Risø automated reader equipped with a $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$ beta source which delivers 0.1 Gy/s at
210 the sample location (Bøtter-Jensen et al., 2003). Emissions were detected through a Schott BG3-
211 BG39 filter combination (transmitting between ~ 325 - 475 nm), thermoluminescence measurements
212 were performed in a nitrogen atmosphere and glow curves were measured at a heating rate of 5 $^\circ\text{C}/\text{s}$.
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Table 1: Dosimetry information. See Section 4 for details.

Sample	Lat. (°N)	Long. (°W)	Elev. (masl)	K (wt.%)	Th (ppm)	U (ppm)	Grain size (μm)	Internal K (wt.%)	Total dose rate (Gy/ka)
J0994	45.038	109.408	2940	7.0	4.5	0.57	237 ± 141	13.8 ± 0.13^a	8.78 ± 0.72
J0995	45.038	109.409	2895	0.7	11.8	0.76	225 ± 137	0.04 ± 0.02	2.36 ± 0.14
J0996	45.041	109.409	2781	2.3	2.2	1.34	39 ± 20	12.5 ± 0.5^b	3.85 ± 0.17
J0997	45.042	109.409	2735	2.2	2.4	1.53	41 ± 22	12.5 ± 0.5^b	3.84 ± 0.17
J1000	45.044	109.414	2518	1.5	13.2	0.70	275 ± 178	12.5 ± 0.5^b	4.16 ± 0.69
J1001	45.048	109.417	2315	2.1	2.3	0.69	231 ± 139	13.9 ± 0.06	3.79 ± 0.60
J1002	45.050	109.423	2241	2.4	18.7	2.54	261 ± 156	13.8 ± 0.13^a	5.98 ± 0.69
J1003	45.038	109.440	2856	0.6	1.0	0.32	277 ± 164	13.8 ± 0.13^a	2.34 ± 0.69
J1004	45.043	109.439	2691	0.2	2.3	0.25	287 ± 166	0.04 ± 0.02^c	0.90 ± 0.05
J1006	45.050	109.432	2449	2.2	1.5	1.63	41 ± 21	12.5 ± 0.5^b	3.75 ± 0.17
J1007	45.003	109.517	2636	3.6	26.9	3.40	254 ± 140	13.8 ± 0.13^a	8.03 ± 0.67
J1010	45.076	109.381	2131	2.4	9.4	1.27	281 ± 176	13.8 ± 0.13^a	4.95 ± 0.76

^aAverage value of separated material from granitic samples J0999 and J1001.

^bHuntley and Baril (1997).

^cMeasured value from J0995, a tonalite like J1004.

101 The thermal background was measured and then subtracted from each glow curve.

102 4. Geologic dose rate determination

103 The outer portions of each bedrock sample were analyzed by inductively-coupled plasma mass
104 spectrometry (ICP-MS) to estimate the U and Th contents, and with inductively-coupled optical
105 emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) to measure the K content. The alpha and beta dose-rates were
106 calculated using the conversion factors of Liritzis et al. (2013), the alpha and beta attenuation factors
107 of Brennan et al. (1991) and Guérin et al. (2012), respectively, and an a -value of 0.15 ± 0.05 , as
108 recommended for coarse-grained K-feldspars (Balescu and Lamothe, 1994). Beta attenuation is
109 calculated assuming a water content of $1 \pm 1\%$. The original feldspar grain sizes were estimated
110 following the approach of King et al. (2016b), who processed images of petrographic thin sections
111 using the grain size analysis software of Buscombe (2013) (see the Supplementary Materials for the

281 detailed results).

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284
285 The internal potassium values were estimated as follows. Three samples from this site were
286 analyzed with electron microprobe analysis in a previous study (Brown and Rhodes, 2017): J0995,
287 J0999, and J1001. Because J0999 and J1001 are granitic gneisses, the other granitic gneiss samples
288 (J0994, J1002, J1007 and J1010) and granitoid gneiss (J1003) were given the mean value of the two
289 samples: 13.8 ± 0.13 wt.%. Sample J1004 shares the value of J0995 (0.04 ± 0.02 wt.%) because
290 both are tonalitic gneisses. The remaining samples, three dacite porphyries (J0996, J0997, and
291 J1006) and one granodiorite gneiss (J1000) were assigned the conservative value from Huntley and
292 Baril (1997) of 12.5 ± 0.5 wt.%.

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297 Cosmic dose rates were estimated using the geomagnetic latitude along with a shielding depth.
298 A shielding depth of 5 ± 5 cm was used, as this represents the typical radius of collected specimens
299 (a shielding density of 2.65 g/cm³ was used). The geologic dose rate was calculated using the DRAC
300 software package, v1.2 (Durcan et al., 2015), and the resulting values are listed in Table 1.
301
302
303

304 5. Results

305 5.1. Relationship between $T_{1/2}$ and geologic dose rate

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307
308 The natural $T_{1/2}$ values measured at a heating rate of 5 °C/s are plotted as a function of geologic
309 dose rate (\dot{D}) in Fig. 2. The sizes of the error bars are determined by the between-aliquot variation,
310 as TL curves were measured from three discs for most samples (only two discs were measured for
311 samples J1007 and J1010). Samples J0999, J1008, and J1009 were excluded from this analysis, as the
312 location of $T_{1/2}$ was ambiguous (see Supplementary Materials). A linear relationship is found, and
313 as expected, as \dot{D} increases the natural TL curves exhibit lower $T_{1/2}$ values. The interpretation is
314 that these less stable sites (lower $T_{1/2}$ values) remain occupied because there are more free electrons
315 roaming the lattice at any given moment due to the greater flux of ionizing radiation.

316
317
318 The best-fit line for the dependence of $T_{1/2}$ on \dot{D} is given as

$$319 T_{1/2} = (-2.38 \pm 0.50)\dot{D} + (242.3 \pm 2.6). \quad (3)$$

320
321
322
323
324 This regression was performed using the updated York fitting, appropriate for data with multivariate
325 errors (Mahon, 1996), and the mean square weighted deviate (MSWD) value of 0.90 suggests a robust
326 linear relationship. The slope of this line, -2.38 ± 0.50 °C Gy⁻¹ ka⁻² is particularly noteworthy,
327 suggesting the magnitude of this dose-rate dependence. As a side note, the range in dose rates
328 observed for these samples is probably close to the natural variation expected for bedrock feldspars,
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Table 2: Sample characteristics.

Sample	Lithology	$\rho' \times 10^4$	$T_{1/2}$ ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Dose rate (Gy/ka)
J0994	Granitic gneiss	10.9 ± 4.9	227.7 ± 6.4	8.78 ± 0.72
J0995	Tonalitic gneiss	7.3 ± 4.8	241.2 ± 11.8	2.36 ± 0.14
J0996	Dacite porphyry	1.8 ± 0.7	231.7 ± 2.2	3.84 ± 0.19
J0997	Dacite porphyry	2.7 ± 1.9	236.4 ± 4.5	3.83 ± 0.21
J1000	Granodiorite gneiss	2.7^a	235.5 ± 4.5	4.16 ± 0.69
J1001	Granitic gneiss	2.1^a	223.2 ± 6.9	3.79 ± 0.60
J1002	Granitic gneiss	3.3^a	232.2 ± 5.2	5.98 ± 0.69
J1003	Granitoid gneiss	22.5 ± 11.8	239.0 ± 5.8	2.34 ± 0.69
J1004	Tonalitic gneiss	31.7 ± 16.5	236.6 ± 3.5	0.90 ± 0.05
J1006	Dacite porphyry	4.5^a	238.5 ± 6.0	3.73 ± 0.20
J1007	Granitic gneiss	3.9 ± 1.5	220.3 ± 2.2	8.03 ± 0.67
J1010	Granitic gneiss	2.0 ± 0.7	233.1 ± 1.9	4.95 ± 0.76

^aOne of two discs omitted.

so this plot may prove useful in quantifying the maximum dependence of $T_{1/2}$ on dose rate for a suite of samples.

5.2. Relationship between $T_{1/2}$ and room-temperature fading

So far, we have considered the variation in geologic dose rate and how the resulting change in the trap filling rate controls the minimum stability (i.e., $T_{1/2}$ position) of the bulk TL signal. In this section, we will consider a competing effect: the degree to which trap emptying by room-temperature fading may control the $T_{1/2}$ position.

To quantify this effect, samples were given a beta dose of 5.1 Gy and then kept a room temperature for a period of time before measurement. Two aliquots per sample were each measured following nine pauses of different lengths. The shortest pause for every sample was 54 s and the longest pause ranged from 15.5 to 19.8 d. These delayed TL measurements, as well as their respective $T_{1/2}$ values plotted as a function of delay time, are provided in the Supplementary Materials.

Generally, samples exhibit a logarithmic increase in $T_{1/2}$ as a function of delay time, though some samples exhibited more complicated behavior (see Supplementary Materials for the entire dataset). Fig. 3 illustrates the behavior exhibited by samples J0995, J1003, and J1004. Notice the kink in

393
394
395 the plot of $T_{1/2}$ versus effective fading time for sample J1003 (inset of Fig. 3a) as contrasted with
396
397 sample J1007, which shows logarithmic growth in $T_{1/2}$ over the entire range of fading times. This
398
399 difference in behavior seems to stem from the prominent peak centered at about 103 °C (Fig. 3a).
400
401 This peak decays at room temperature with a half-life of about 1.7 hrs. The position and lifetime of
402
403 this peak are similar to the 110°C TL peak in quartz (Schmidt et al., 2018) and may indicate some
404
405 contamination of the signal by quartz. After this peak decays by about two half-lives, or about
406
407 1.2×10^4 s, the $T_{1/2}$ of this sample increases logarithmically with time at a similar rate to J1007
(Fig. 3b).

408 Samples J0994, J0996, J0997, and J1000 showed a logarithmic increase in $T_{1/2}$, but at delay
409
410 times greater than $\sim 10^5$ s, $T_{1/2}$ values were offset to lower temperatures, despite a similar rate of
411
412 growth (see Supplementary Materials). This behavior is related to a loss of TL centered at ~ 180 °C
413
414 and extending up to ~ 300 °C, though the reason for this loss is unclear. Because of the irregular
415
416 behavior at shorter durations and because all samples exhibited logarithmic increases in $T_{1/2}$ with
417
418 delay times $> \sim 10^5$ s, we consider only those longest three delay points for each aliquot in the
following analysis.

419 The $T_{1/2}$ fading data were used to constrain the ρ' values of these samples (Huntley, 2006),
420
421 assuming that tunneling proceeds via the excited state (Jain et al., 2012, 2015). Note that for a
422
423 given fading dataset, this assumption will produce higher best-fit ρ' values than if ground-state
424
425 tunneling were assumed (cf. Biswas et al., 2018). Best-fit ρ' values were determined by simulating
426
427 irradiation and fading at room temperature ($T = 18^\circ\text{C}$) with Eq. 2. The $n(r')$ array for each
428
429 sample allowed to evolve through time with an ordinary differential equation solver in MATLAB;
see Brown et al. (2017) for more details on this approach. We used the following parameter values:
430
431 the attempt-to-tunnel frequency factor $P_0 = 4.6 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (p. 168; Brown, 2017); the attempt-
432
433 to-escape frequency factor $s = 4.2 \times 10^{12} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (the Debye frequency of K-feldspar; Anderson and
Liebermann, 1966; Anderson, 1995); and the characteristic dose $D_0 = 1.6 \text{ kGy}$ (Brown et al., 2017).
434
435 Three variables were solved for by minimizing the misfit between observed and simulated $T_{1/2}$
436
437 values: the thermal depth of the excited state E_e was allowed to vary between 0.75 and 1.20 eV;
438
439 the ground state depth E_g could vary between 1.70 and 2.15 eV, and ρ could vary between 5×10^{25}
440
441 and $5 \times 10^{27} \text{ m}^{-3}$, which translates to a ρ' value of 4.2×10^{-2} and 2.1×10^{-4} for $E_e = 1.1 \text{ eV}$.
442
443 Following optimization to find the best-fit ρ' value for each sample (Table 2), the simulated $T_{1/2}$
444
445 values closely match observations of room temperature fading on timescales of days to weeks, with
446
447 an average coefficient of determination of $R^2 = 0.90 \pm 0.12$ (see Supplementary Materials for all
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449
450
451 results).
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453 This approach also reproduces the form of fading within individual glow curve temperature
454 ranges, as shown in Fig. 4. The observations in Fig. 4b come from sample J0165, a bedrock-
455 extracted K-feldspar sample examined in detail within Brown and Rhodes (2017). The model
456 parameters in panel b represent typical values for our samples. This figure illustrates how Eq. 2
457 generally replicates the decay form of regenerative TL curves during room temperature storage.
458 At lower glow curve temperatures, the decay is not logarithmic but has a decreasing slope when
459 plotted on a semi-log plot. Moving to higher glow curve temperatures, the curves resemble inverted
460 sigmoids and eventually flat lines (i.e., no decay). Notice that at some bins, these data could be
461 approximately fitted to distinct g -values, but we favor our approach of fitting the fading TL curves
462 to a single ρ' value as being more parsimonious and physically meaningful (Kars et al., 2008). This
463 can be contrasted with the approach of Biswas et al. (2018), who divided their feldspar TL glow
464 curves into discrete temperature bin ranges and independently fitted data within each range to the
465 kinetic expression of Guralnik et al. (2015). The approach of Biswas et al. (2018) implies that the
466 feldspar TL curve represents not a continuum of stability arising from different tunneling distances
467 (as we assume here), but instead a series of unrelated traps, each governed by individual kinetic
468 parameters (see also Sanderson, 1988; Pagonis et al., 2014).
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478 The motivating question for this section is the degree to which fading rates control $T_{1/2}$ values.
479 To address this question, we plot the $T_{1/2}$ and ρ' values for every aliquot in Fig. 5. We make two
480 observations about these results. The first is the lack of correlation between the variables. For
481 comparison with Fig. 2, we perform a linear regression. The MSWD value for this regression, 3.47,
482 is well outside the 95% confidence interval range: 0.457 – 1.750 (Mahon, 1996), which implies a bad
483 fit. The second observation is that the variance of the $T_{1/2}$ values decreases with higher ρ' values,
484 such that at high ρ' values only high values of $T_{1/2}$ exist. One possible interpretation is that at
485 higher ρ' values, room-temperature fading may place a limit on the stability of the natural TL curve.
486 In other words, while much of the variation found at lower ρ' values may be explained by other
487 factors (e.g., geologic temperature or dose rate), at higher ρ' values the fading rate may prevent
488 lower temperature regions of the TL curve from populating. This unstable region is illustrated in
489 blue in Fig. 5.
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498 6. Conclusions

499
500 Brown et al. (2017) recently showed that feldspar samples with similar geologic dose rates and
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507 very different burial temperatures ($-4 - 60^{\circ}\text{C}$) exhibit a linear relationship between the position
508 of the TL leading edge, $T_{1/2}$, and geologic temperature. In the present study, we have presented
509 feldspars from a glacial valley that have been at atmospheric temperatures for at least several
510 thousand years, but that exhibit a wide range of geologic dose rates, from 0.9 to 8.8 Gy/ka. These
511 samples show a linear relationship between \dot{D} and $T_{1/2}$. The slope of the best-fit line, -2.38 ± 0.50
512 $^{\circ}\text{C Gy}^{-1} \text{ ka}^{-2}$, provides a first approximation at the magnitude of this effect, which should prove
513 to be a useful correction when differentiating between thermal and non-thermal controls on natural
514 TL shapes. The poor fit between ρ' and $T_{1/2}$ indicates that for these samples, the primary control
515 on the minimum stability of TL is not fading. However, the lack of low $T_{1/2}$ values for samples with
516 high ρ' values (i.e., the lack of natural TL populations at low-temperatures when fading is high)
517 may indicate that fading can, nonetheless, prevent sites from accumulating in nature Valla et al.
518 (2016), to the extent that the $T_{1/2}$ is affected. All of these effects are consistent with the kinetic
519 model referenced at the beginning of this paper, where tunneling to the nearest neighbor is the
520 primary loss pathway for trapped charge.

521
522 For future work in feldspar TL thermochronology, we recommend one of two approaches when
523 collecting samples and interpreting results. By choosing a site with uniform lithology, and pre-
524 sumably similar fading rates and environmental dose rates, these effects might be minimized. Al-
525 ternately, if differences in dose rate between samples are significant or if samples experience high
526 fading rates, the position of the leading edge of emissions ($T_{1/2}$) may require correction (e.g., using
527 the slope of the best-fit line to normalize $T_{1/2}$ values). In the case of high dose rates, $T_{1/2}$ values
528 might be lower than for samples at the same temperature but with lower dose rates. In the case of
529 high fading rates, the $T_{1/2}$ values might be higher than expected due to fading-induced instability
530 in the low-temperature regions of the glow curve.

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340 **List of Figures**

341 1 Thermoluminescence curves that would result following preheats of increasing tem-
342 perature or duration are shown. The stability of the least stable occupied traps giving
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360 note that while a wide range of $T_{1/2}$ values are observed at lower ρ' values, at higher
361 ρ' values (i.e., higher fading rates) natural $T_{1/2}$ values are higher. This is suggested
362 by the blue region which may represent an unstable region wherein fading is too great
363 for charge to accumulate at lower regions of the TL glow curve. 20

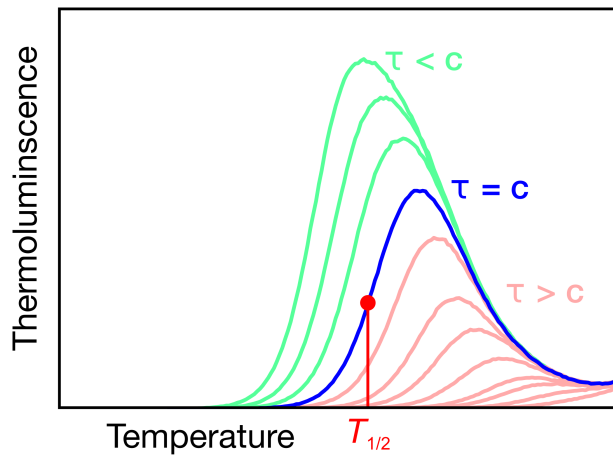


Figure 1: Thermoluminescence curves that would result following preheats of increasing temperature or duration are shown. The stability of the least stable occupied traps giving rise to the blue curve can be described with the $T_{1/2}$ metric (lower of the two measurement temperatures at half-maximum intensity) shown in red. Those least stable traps would have some mean lifetime τ . In green are curves with lesser minimum lifetimes and in pink are curves with greater minimum lifetimes.

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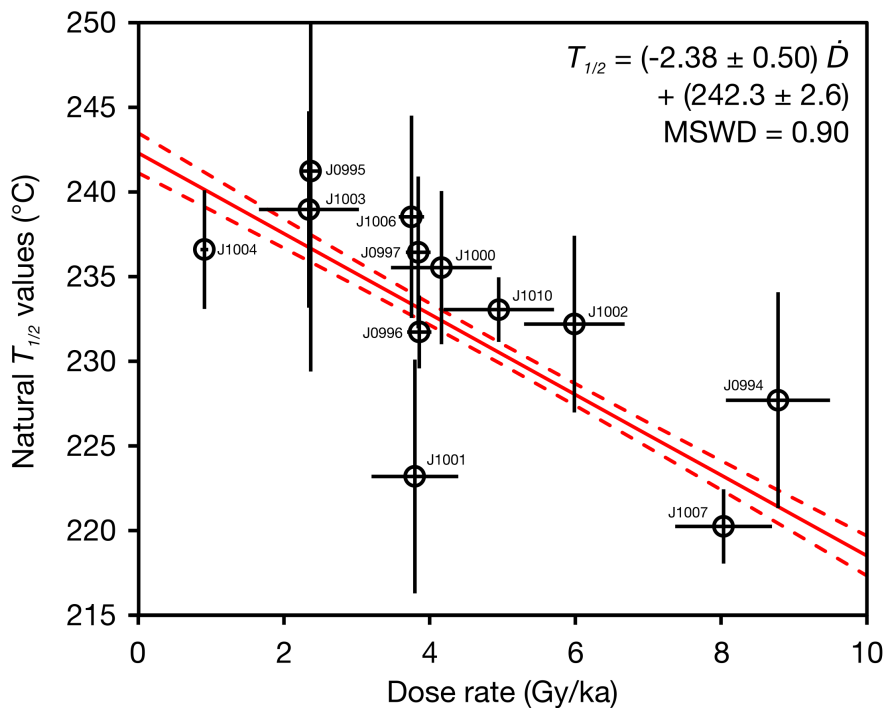


Figure 2: The $T_{1/2}$ values from natural TL curves ($\beta = 5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C/s}$) show a linear dependence upon the geologic dose rate as predicted by theory: at higher dose rates, the $T_{1/2}$ value for the leading edge of TL emissions shifts to lower temperatures. The interpretation is that traps of lower stability can remain occupied due to the high dose rate.

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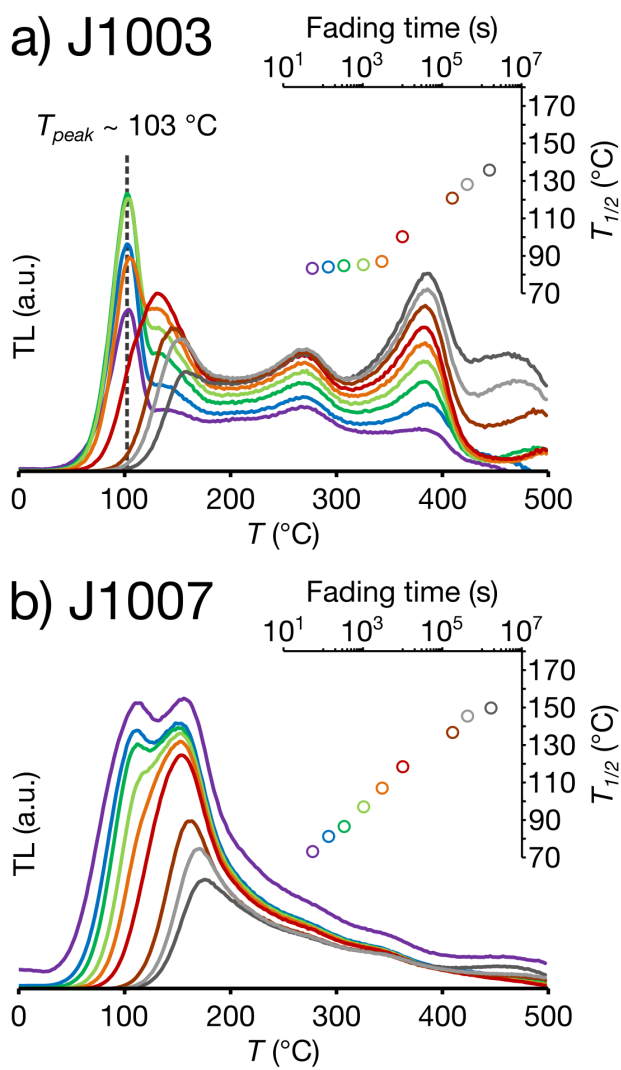


Figure 3: The TL responses after room temperature fading are shown for samples J1003 (a) and J1007 (b). The $T_{1/2}$ values of these curves are plotted as a function of effective fading time within the insets. Notice how the peak centered at 103 °C complicates the behavior of sample J1003.

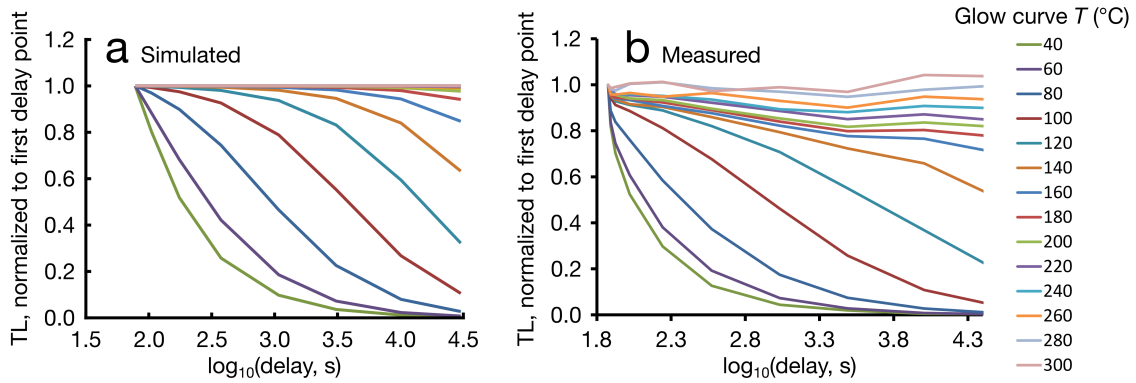


Figure 4: Comparison of simulated (a) and measured (b) TL decay as a function of storage time at room temperature. Different curves represent different glow curve temperatures. The same delay times and glow curve temperatures are shown in each panel.

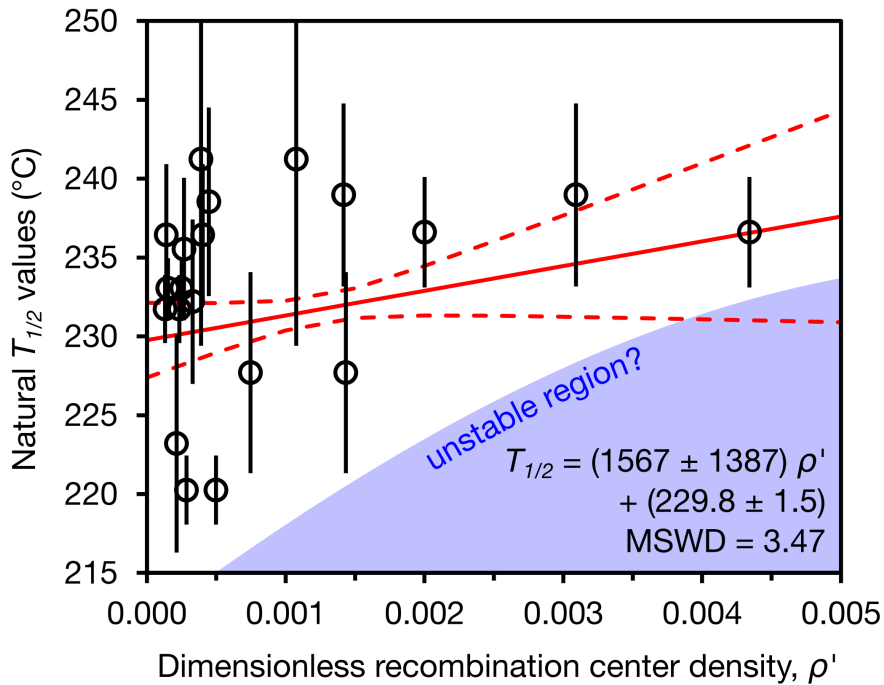


Figure 5: The $T_{1/2}$ values from natural TL curves ($\beta = 5$ °C/s) do not show a significant correlation with ρ' values derived from room-temperature fading measurements. However, note that while a wide range of $T_{1/2}$ values are observed at lower ρ' values, at higher ρ' values (i.e., higher fading rates) natural $T_{1/2}$ values are higher. This is suggested by the blue region which may represent an unstable region wherein fading is too great for charge to accumulate at lower regions of the TL glow curve.