

Quartz Thermoluminescence Spectra in the High-Dose Range

Christoph Schmidt^{1,*}, Clemens Woda²

¹ Chair of Geomorphology & BayCEER, University of Bayreuth, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany

5 ² Helmholtz-Zentrum München, German Research Centre for Environmental Health, Institute of Radiation
Medicine, Ingolstädter Landstraße 1, 85764 Neuherberg, Germany

* Corresponding author: christoph.schmidt@uni-bayreuth.de, Tel.: +49-921-552267

Abstract

10 The red thermoluminescence (RTL) emission of quartz is associated with advantageous features such
as high saturation dose and good reproducibility. Previous studies, however, noted inexplicable RTL
glow curve shapes with new peaks at large doses (kGy range). Here we present TL spectra of two granitic
quartz samples over the additive γ -dose range 0.1–47.9 kGy. While for doses between 0.4 and 1 kGy
15 the TL spectra are dominated by the red emission at 1.95 eV (630 nm), a blue emission at 2.67 eV (465
nm) becomes prominent for higher doses. For one sample, this blue component completely dominates
the spectrum for doses >12.2 kGy with intensity maxima around 200 °C and >350 °C (heating rate 2 K
s⁻¹). The other sample still contains well resolvable red and blue emissions at the largest dose with similar
TL peak positions. Signal saturation for the blue emission in the glow curve range 260–300 °C is not
20 yet reached following an additive γ -dose of 47.9 kGy, whereas the red emission generally shows a more
subdued signal response for doses >5–12 kGy. These findings agree qualitatively with additional
monochromatic blue and red TL measurements on the same samples. The evolution of supplementary
radiofluorescence spectra over the entire γ -dose range is more complex, but suggests that the
sensitisation of the blue wavelength region occurs during heating and not during irradiation and through
25 creation of electron traps rather than recombination centres (most likely [AlO₄]⁰ sites). The sharp
sensitivity increase at 1 kGy might likewise be related to alkali ion redistribution and/or the removal of
non-radiative competitive recombination pathways. While the blue emission still requires thorough
investigation, care should be taken when recording RTL using optical filters since significant portions
of the registered TL could originate from the blue component entering the RTL transmission window.
30 In practical terms, the dose-dependent change in relative intensities of blue and red TL emissions might
help in detecting exposure to high doses.

Keywords: Luminescence; Radiofluorescence; Red thermoluminescence; Gamma-dose; Sensitivity
change; Recombination centre

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Introduction

The thermally stimulated luminescence (TL) signal of natural quartz has been extensively used for retrospective dosimetry and dating of geological and archaeological materials during the past decades (see, e.g., Aitken 1985 or Wintle 2008 for an overview of applications). The TL emission spectrum of quartz usually comprises three main bands centred on ~380 nm (3.3 eV), ~470 nm (2.6 eV) and ~620 nm (2.0 eV), while for quartz types of distinct formation conditions additional emissions have been reported, e.g. a band at 420–435 nm in igneous quartz or one at 560–580 nm in hydrothermal vein quartz (Rink et al. 1993; Scholefield et al. 1994; Itoh et al. 2002).

In TL dating, usually the UV (360–380 nm) band is measured as monochromatic glow curve by means of optical filters to estimate the absorbed dose. Compared to the UV emission, the red TL (RTL) emission at around 620 nm is more difficult to measure due to interference with blackbody radiation at temperatures >300 °C, but RTL was attributed remarkable advantageous properties. Firstly, the RTL saturation dose level was observed to be of the order of several hundred or even several thousand Gy (Pilleyre et al. 1992; Fattahi and Stokes 2000; Ganzawa and Maeda 2009; Richter et al. 2017) and hence substantially higher than that of the UV emission (Murray and Wintle 2000; Jain et al. 2007). RTL would thus allow extending the dating range to 1 Ma or even beyond under favourable conditions. Secondly, the RTL sensitivity was reported to change only slightly or even insignificantly with irradiation and thermal treatments, making it attractive for single-aliquot regeneration procedures to estimate the absorbed dose (Richter and Krbetschek 2006; Zöller et al. 2014; Richter et al. 2017).

Due to its unique luminescence properties, the RTL emission of quartz was recently suggested by Schmidt et al. (2015) for use in thermochronometry. Unlike non-saturating thermochronometric systems (e.g., the noble gas systems (U-Th)/He or ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar; Reiners and Brandon 2006), the luminescence signal of minerals approaches a level of dose saturation beyond which temporal information cannot be resolved anymore. Consequently, dose rates in the range 3–6 Gy ka⁻¹ allow cooling histories to be reconstructed only for the past 100–200 ka for most quartz and feldspar signals, which makes this method valuable merely for rapidly exhuming Alpine orogens (cf. King et al. 2016a,b). Based on reported values of characteristic saturation dose of RTL from quartz, this signal could be used to extended that period by about one order of magnitude. However, in this previous study on exploring the potential of RTL for this purpose, additive RTL glow curves from granitic quartz extracted from a borehole showed a shift of peak positions and/or the emergence of a new peak for additive β -doses >2 kGy with the consequence of failed heating plateau tests (Fig. 4 in Schmidt et al. 2015). This observation can be explained either with non-first-order behaviour of TL peaks or with a shift of TL emission bands as a function of dose (Rink et al. 1993; Scholefield and Prescott 1999). Similarly, RTL glow curves recorded by Montret et al. (1992) and Fattahi and Stokes (2000) demonstrated shift in TL peak position with dose, and Pilleyre et al. (1992) and Miallier et al. (1994) reported large differences in intensity and shape of the first- and second-glow RTL dose response curves of heated natural quartz grains at large doses (<16 kGy), which impeded reliable regression to obtain the palaeodose.

Potential interference of RTL with other emissions can be best studied by means of TL spectrometry (Townsend 1994). Most of previously published quartz TL spectra were recorded following doses <500 Gy; only few studies employed doses in the kGy-range (Hashimoto et al. 1987, 1993; Huntley et al. 1988a,b; Kuhn et al. 2000; Woda et al. 2002; Westaway and Prescott 2012; Guzzo et al. 2017; Hunter et al. 2018). In essence, it was found that the relative proportions of the blue (~470 nm) and red (~620 nm) TL emissions may change as a function of large doses, albeit the effect appears to be strongly sample-dependent.

In view of these previous findings, the present study seeks to identify the dose response behaviour and interference of individual quartz TL emissions in the high-dose range. Our experiments are intended to clarify to which extent monochromatic TL measurements of quartz really capture individual emissions or rather represent a mixture of signals from luminescence centres with different physical properties. We therefore use additive doses up to 47.9 kGy to explore the entire dose range up to expected saturation

85 of the RTL signal. The dataset is completed by monochromatic blue and red TL measurements following additive β - and γ -irradiation of a set of quartz samples, since for additive doses below 1 kGy, the signal intensity was too low for spectral measurements in some cases. The results, which unveil the cause of the peak shift in the RTL glow curves shown in Schmidt et al. (2015), are discussed regarding their implications for dating and thermochronometry.

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Material and methods

Samples, sample preparation and irradiation

95 One sample for spectrometric analyses in this study originates from a geothermal borehole (wash boring) in Late Variscan granitic bedrock near Weißenstadt in the Fichtelgebirge, Germany (laboratory code BT1229, 1364 m depth below surface, ambient temperature of 39 °C). The second sample represent a consolidated sample from the same lithological unit (laboratory code BT1284, 2 m depth below surface, ambient temperature of 5 °C). These two samples were chosen for spectral measurements since for these additive RTL dose response curves have been constructed in the precursor study (Schmidt et al. 2015). The extraction of pure quartz grains in the size range 90–200 μm from the consolidated rock sample (BT1284) and the bore cuttings (BT1229) is described in detail in Schmidt et al. (2015). Samples were not exposed to daylight or thermally treated prior to spectral or monochromatic TL analyses.

100 To examine the dose response and signal stability of individual emissions by means of monochromatic TL measurements for additional varieties of natural quartz, three further sand-sized (90–200 μm) quartz samples with natural doses expected to exceed 1 kGy were studied: The consolidated rock sample BT1647 was extracted from the same lithological unit as samples BT1229 and BT1284 (Weißenstadt granite) from a depth of 2 m below surface and served as a reference sample with respect to the spectrometry results (due to scarcity of sample material of BT1229 and BT1284). Due to the palaeozoic origin of the granite and the comparatively high dose rate in this type of rock (see Schmidt et al. 2015), it is reasonable to assume the natural TL signal of BT1647 to be in field saturation. Sample BT1629 represents a quartzitic sandstone from the Pre-Cambrian Roraima Group forming the tepui in the Gran Sabana of Venezuela (taken near the village of Canaima), which has an estimated minimum age of 1.5–1.6 Ga (Briceño and Schubert 1990; Briceño et al. 1990). Clastic grains within the quartzite are dominated by quartz (~95–98%), with minor contribution of feldspar, mica and heavy minerals (Chalcraft and Pye 1984; Doerr 1999). The natural dose is thus expected to be in the range of several hundred kGy. Quartz purification for these two samples followed the same routines as described in Schmidt et al. (2015). Sample BT1385 originates from deposits within the Druze marshland near Azraq, Jordan, see Ames et al. (2014) or Ames and Cordova (2015) for general information on the setting. Pure quartz was prepared as described in detail in Kolb et al. (2016). Infrared stimulated luminescence measurements of the K-rich feldspar fraction (90–200 μm) of this sample yielded a natural dose of ~1 kGy (not corrected for anomalous fading); the optically stimulated luminescence signal of quartz (detected in the UV emission range) was in dose saturation (unpublished data).

115 Each of the samples BT1284 and BT1229 was split into six subsamples, which were irradiated with an additive γ -dose of 0.1, 0.4, 1, 4, 12.2 and 47.9 kGy. The γ -doses were delivered by a ^{60}Co -source “Gammacell 220”, with a closed irradiation chamber of 0.152 m diameter and 0.206 m height and a dose-rate at the time of irradiations of 7.8 Gy min^{-1} . From each subsample three aliquots were prepared for TL spectrometry.

Thermoluminescence spectrometry

130 Spectral measurements in the wavelength range of 300 nm to approx. 800 nm were done using a Freiberg Instruments lexyg research system (Richter et al. 2013), equipped with an emission spectrometry unit,

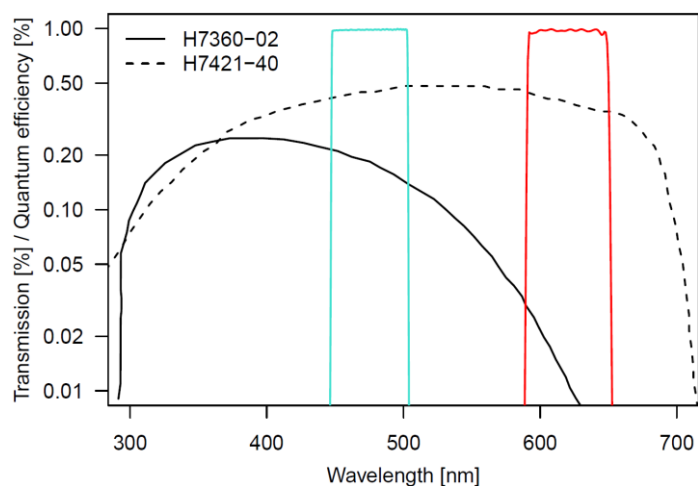
consisting of a TE cooled Andor Technology iDus 420 Series CCD camera and a Shamrock 163 spectrometer. TL spectra were recorded with a heating rate of 2 K s^{-1} and an integration time of 20 s up to a maximum temperature of $380 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

135 Before measurement of the TL spectra, radiofluorescence (RF) spectra were acquired during irradiation with the built-in $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$ source of the reader (dose rate of $\sim 0.02 \text{ Gy s}^{-1}$) for 120 s, with an integration time of 40 s. Longer integration times were not practical, as the number of interfering peaks due to cosmic rays can then become too large and peaks can partially overlap, which complicates an effective cleaning procedure. The RF signal was transmitted through a glass lens, cutting off any emission below 330 nm. The total imparted dose during RF measurement was 2.4 Gy, which is negligible compared to
140 the previously administered γ -dose. All spectral measurements were first cleaned of peaks due to cosmic rays, background corrected and then corrected for the spectral response of the system, i.e. the combined, wavelength-dependent efficiency of the different components of the spectrometer (optical glass fiber, grating, camera), using a Bentham Instruments Ltd. calibration irradiance standard lamp (Type: CL 6). In case of the RF measurements, the three consecutive spectra obtained per sample were added to a
145 single spectrum, in order to increase the signal-to-noise ratio.

Three-dimensional and contour plots were produced with the middle of the respective temperature interval being the reference temperature (e.g., the reference temperature of the interval $300\text{--}340 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ is $320 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). For construction of a dose-response curve, Gaussian-shaped peak functions were fitted to the emission spectra. The TL spectrum of the aliquot having received the highest dose can be fitted with
150 reasonable accuracy up to the highest temperature interval measured ($340\text{--}380 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). By contrast, the interval $260\text{--}300 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ was the highest temperature interval, where emission bands largely free of interference effects could be extracted from the spectra across the entire dose range. In this interval, thermal radiation was negligible for wavelengths below 500 nm, but could be reasonably well approximated by a Gaussian function for higher wavelengths ($>600 \text{ nm}$). From repeated spectral
155 measurements on (highly reproducible) $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{:C}$ chips, the reproducibility of the measurements was assessed to be better than 2%. Inter-aliquot scatter for the quartz samples was $<5\%$ for stronger emissions (peak count rate (uncorrected) of $150\text{--}700$ counts per channel) and $10\text{--}25\%$ for weak emissions (peak count rate of $10\text{--}60$ counts per channel, readout noise at 1.3 counts per channel), which is influenced by the uncertainty in the curve fitting analysis.

160 *Monochromatic thermoluminescence measurements*

Because the sensitivity of the spectrometric system was too low to evaluate the blue TL signal of sample BT1229 induced by γ -doses $<1 \text{ kGy}$ and because the temperature resolution of the spectral measurements was generally only $40 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, we additionally conducted monochromatic TL measurements to capture the dose-response for specific emissions in this dose range and to better evaluate possible
165 changes in the glow peak structure. TL glow curves were recorded with a Freiberg Instruments lexsysg research luminescence reader (Richter et al. 2013) equipped with a built-in $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$ β -source (dose rate $\sim 0.06 \text{ Gy s}^{-1}$; Richter et al. 2012). Blue TL (BTL) emissions were recorded with a Semrock BrightLine HC475/50 bandpass filter in front of a Hamamatsu H7360-02 bi-alkaline photomultiplier tube (PMT), while for RTL signals a Chroma ET 620/60x bandpass filter in combination with a thermo-electrically
170 cooled Hamamatsu H7421-40 GaAsP PMT was used. With a spectral response of $300\text{--}720 \text{ nm}$, the latter is particularly suited for measuring the red emission centred on $\sim 620 \text{ nm}$. Quantum efficiencies of the two PMTs and the transmission characteristics of the bandpass filters are shown in Fig. 1.



175 **Fig. 1** Quantum efficiency of the bi-alkaline Hamamatsu H7360-02 and the thermo-electrically cooled H7421-40
 180 GaAsP photomultiplier tubes (PMT) and transmission spectra of the Semrock BrightLine HC475/50 (blue line)
 185 and Chroma ET 620/60x (red line) bandpass filters used for detection of monochromatic blue TL (BTL) and red
 TL (RTL), respectively.

180 All TL glow curves were recorded with a heating rate of 1 K s^{-1} up to temperatures of $450 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (BTL) and
 430 $^\circ\text{C}$ (RTL). A second TL run with the same parameters after readout of the initial signal served to
 estimate the background signal resulting from instrumental noise and incandescence. This signal was
 subtracted to obtain the net signal. After depletion of the signal resulting from additive β - or γ -
 irradiation, BTL and RTL induced by a regenerative β -dose of 30 or 50 Gy was measured to monitor
 185 the sensitivity of samples following additive irradiation.

Results

Thermoluminescence spectra following additive γ -irradiation

190 For additive γ -doses $\leq 1 \text{ kGy}$ (BT1229) and $< 0.4 \text{ kGy}$ (BT1284), the TL spectra are dominated by a red
 emission which shows peaks at temperatures of $\sim 200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, with the indication of a high-temperature RTL
 peak beyond $300 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Figs. 2 and 3). A minute BTL emission at $\sim 200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ becomes visible in the spectrum
 for additive doses of 0.4 kGy (BT1284) and 1 kGy (BT1129). By increasing the dose, the relative
 contribution of both emissions is shifted from red to blue, until the RTL emission at $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ is completely
 195 masked by the broadened BTL emission for doses of 47.9 kGy (BT1229) and 12.2 kGy (BT1284). In
 the higher temperature region, the situation is somewhat different for both samples. For sample BT1284,
 only the blue emission is visible (or present), with a shift in the peak temperature from $\sim 325 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (12.2 kGy)
 to $> 360 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (47.9 kGy , outside the recorded temperature range) and with an intensity that
 eventually surpasses the $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ BTL emission for the largest measured dose. In contrast, for sample
 200 BT1229, the blue and red emission remain distinct features, also for the highest dose but again with peak
 temperatures $> 360 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Furthermore, the emission at $\sim 200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ remains the most intense signal $< 350 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
 and for doses up to 47.9 kGy . Low-temperature peaks are not contained in the spectra due to the storage
 time of 10 days between γ -irradiation and measurement. The results of the TL spectral measurements
 are in qualitative agreement with the results shown in Hunter et al. (2018), where a dominating blue
 emission for quartz from a sand deposit was also observed for doses $\geq 1 \text{ kGy}$.

205 The UV emission (360 nm) was generally not observed in our samples, except for sample BT1284 at
 doses $\leq 1 \text{ kGy}$, where it is visible as a minor feature in the TL spectra for the $180\text{--}220 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $260\text{--}300 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
 temperature intervals, and possibly in the spectra of the lower temperature peak of the other sample.

For the low temperature peak, however, the signal-to-noise-ratio was too low for a successful consideration of the UV emission in the fitting approach (Fig. 4d).

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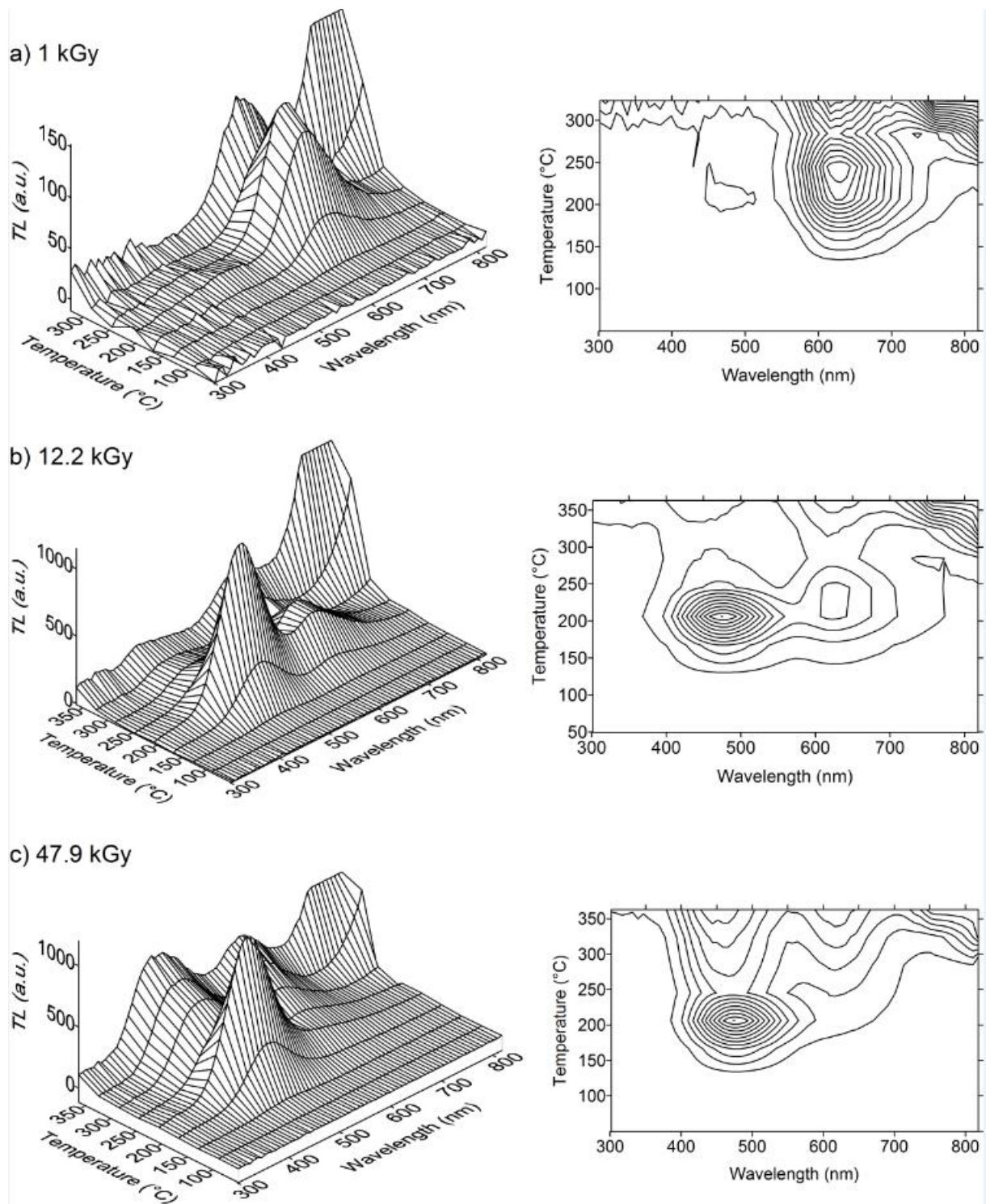
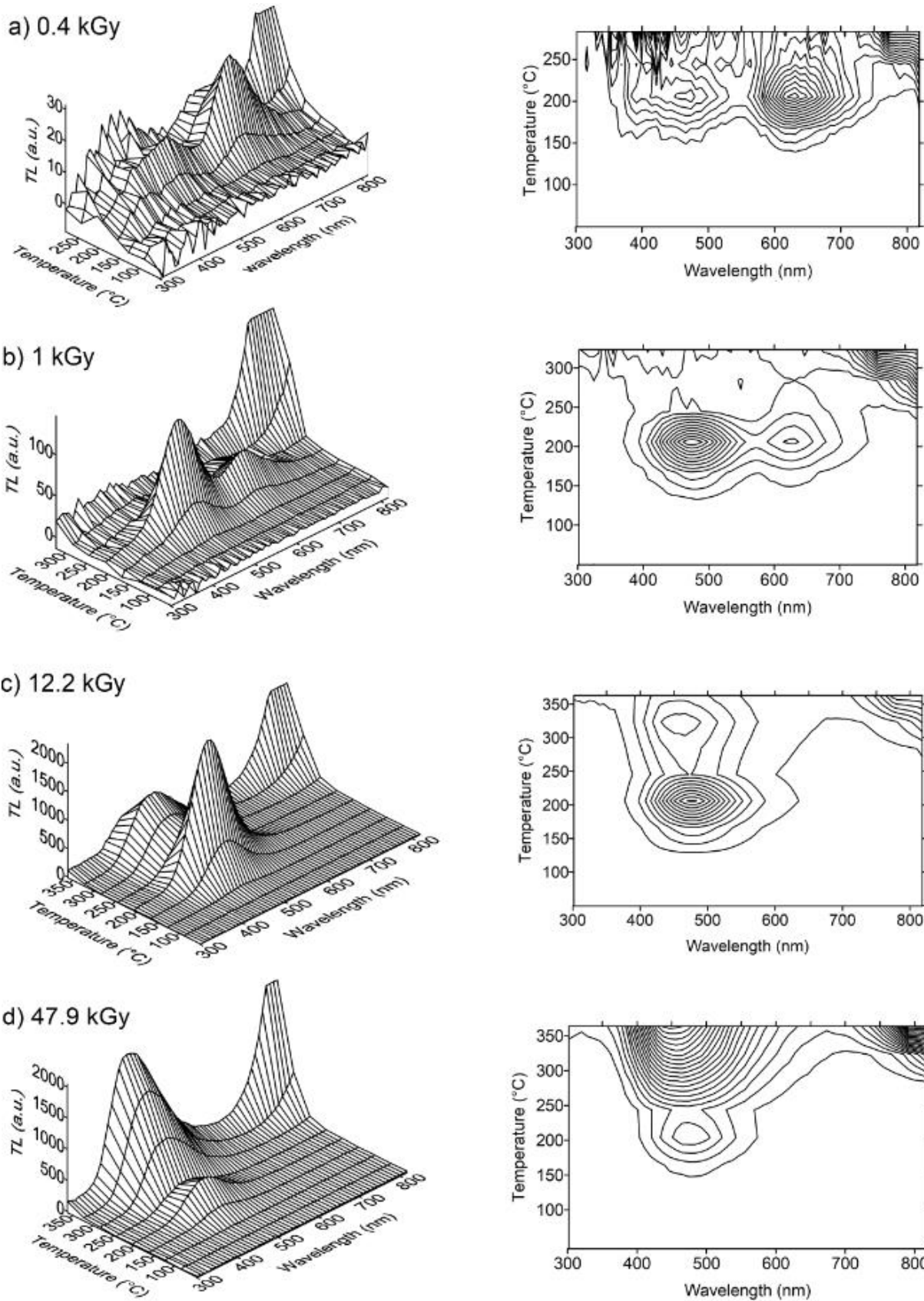


Fig. 2 TL spectra of sample BT1229 for additive γ -doses of 1, 12.2 and 47.9 kGy, shown as 3D plots (left) and contour plots (right). Please see the main text for further details.



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Fig. 3 TL spectra of sample BT1284 for additive γ -doses of 0.4, 1, 12.2 and 47.9 kGy, shown as 3D plots (left) and contour plots (right). Please see the main text for further details.

220 Fitting individual Gaussian components to integrated spectra (intensity vs. energy) of 40 °C temperature intervals between 180 °C and 340 °C indicates that all spectra can be described by mainly two emissions at 2.67 eV (~465 nm) and 1.95 eV (630 nm) and that these emissions are involved in producing both the low and the high temperature TL peaks. This is shown in Fig. 4 for the integration intervals 180–220 °C and 260–300 °C and additive γ -doses of 1 kGy and 47.9 kGy.

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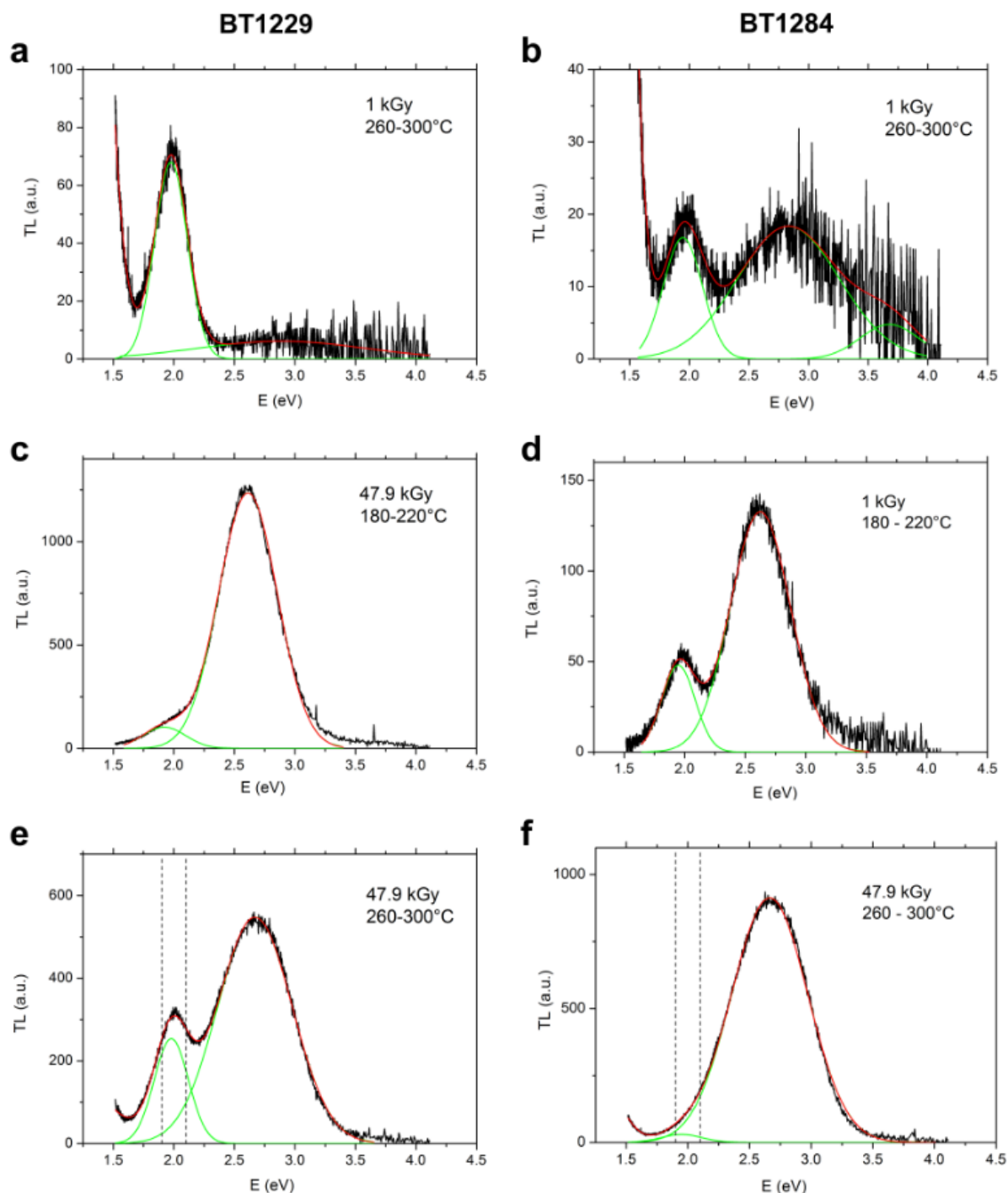


Fig. 4 Integrated TL spectra (intensity vs. energy) of 40 °C temperature intervals between 180 °C and 300 °C for samples BT1229 (a, c, e) and BT1284 (b, d, f). These spectra were fitted with two to three individual Gaussian components, from which energies of 1.95 eV (630 nm) and 2.67 eV (465 nm) of the two main emissions were extracted. Administered γ -doses as well as integration range are as indicated in the individual subplots. The dashed lines in subplots (e) and (f) visualise the transmission window for monochromatic red TL measurements.

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Fig. 5 provides a graphical overview of the emission width (FWHM, in eV) and amplitude obtained from fitting of the TL spectra. Without constraining the fitting parameters, the energies of both emissions remain constant for both samples over the entire investigated dose range. A somewhat larger energy of the blue emission of ~2.9 eV at 1 kGy dose for sample BT1229 might be related to low signal intensity and problems in accurate fitting (see Fig. 4a). The emission width (FWHM, in eV) remains largely constant for both samples and emissions across the covered dose range, except for the blue component of sample BT1229, decreasing in width from ~1.6 eV at 1 kGy dose to 0.7 eV for >10 kGy (Fig. 5a,b). Fig 4. also serves to illustrate the level of interference one can expect in the red detection window by the blue emission in a PMT measurement. If the limits of the transmission window of the Chroma ET 620/60x bandpass filter are used as integration limits for the two emissions, then, for the highest dose applied and for sample BT1229, the red emission would contribute ~80% to a measured PMT signal with red filter and the blue emission about ~20%. In contrast, for BT1284 the red emission would only contribute ~20%, whereas the blue emission would contribute ~80% for the same detection window (Fig. 4e,f). This is a simplified calculation that does not take into account the efficiency of the PMT or the exact shape of the filter transmission curve.

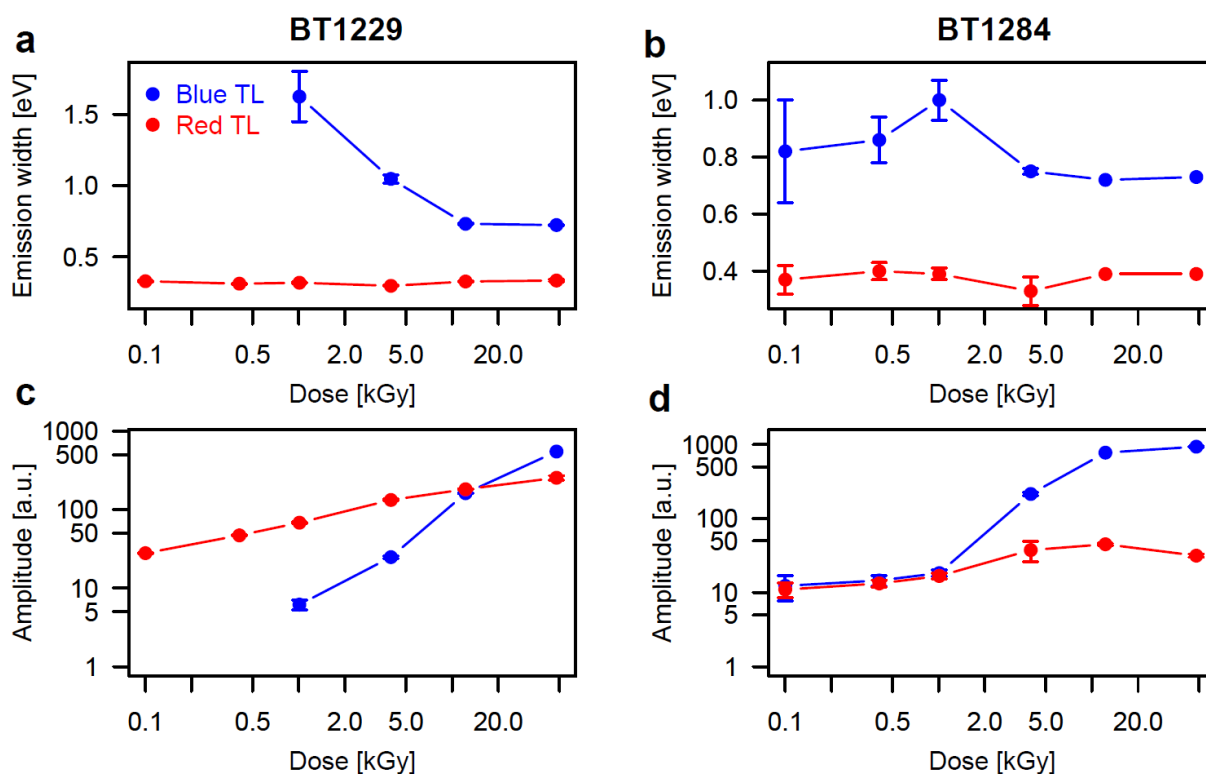


Fig. 5 Parameters of the blue and red TL emissions obtained from the Gaussian fits to integrated TL spectra in the temperature range 260–300 °C as a function of dose in the range 0.1–47.9 kGy for samples BT1229 and BT1284. The blue emission of sample BT1229 for doses <1 kGy was too dim for evaluation. Subplots show the emission width of the red and blue TL emissions (full width at half maximum, FWHM; a,b) and their amplitude (c,d).

Due to the deviation of the BTL and RTL dose response (as derived from Gaussian curve fitting) from an exponentially saturating function, the characteristic onset of dose saturation (D_0) could not be determined. BTL and RTL emissions of sample BT1229 continue to grow up to the highest administered γ -dose of 47.9 kGy, although the growth-rate starts to flatten out for doses >12.2 kGy. In contrast, both TL emissions almost stagnate or even decrease (RTL) for doses in excess of 12.2 kGy in case of sample BT1284. The apparent dose saturation (or at least the decrease in growth-rate) of the blue emission of sample BT1284 between 12.2 and 47.9 kGy may be related to the fact that the integrated spectra in the

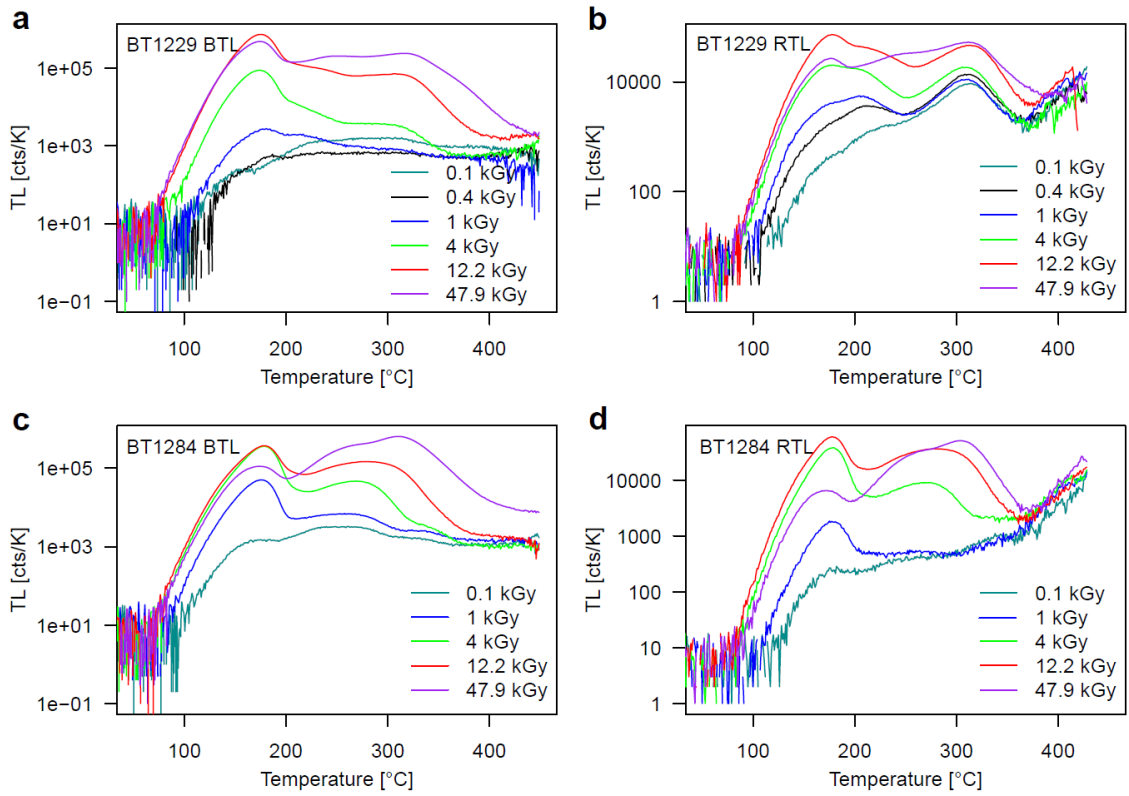
interval 260–300 °C accounts mostly for the tail of the ~325 °C TL peak (cf. Fig. 3c,d), which might grow with dose at a different rate than the >350 °C TL peak, which itself does not show any indications of saturation in the TL spectra.

265 It should be further noted that closer inspection of both the contour plots of the spectral measurements (Figs. 2 and 3; right panel) and the peak fitting analysis in Fig. 4 reveals a slight shift in the maximum emission for the BTL with peak temperature, from 2.61 eV (475 nm) for the 200 °C peak to 2.71 eV (457 nm) for the 340–380 °C region of the higher temperature peak. One can assume that the change in emission maximum is due to the emergence of a second emission, next to the 475 nm emission, at higher
270 temperatures. In this case, the spectra in the 340–380 °C region can be fitted by two components with the central emission of the first one being fixed to 475 nm (value of the 200 °C TL peak), yielding a slightly better fit. The second emission is then found to be at 2.89 eV (~430 nm). These values are close to the central wavelengths of the two components of the blue emission identified in RF spectra of natural and synthetic quartz (Martini et al. 2012), which are 440 nm and 480 nm. However, it should be kept in
275 mind that the use of a second component in the fit will always increase the quality of the fit due to the introduction of additional degrees of freedom. Thus, while the hypothesis of two components in the blue emission is compatible with the experimental data, the TL spectrum alone does not prove their existence.

Monochromatic TL measurements following γ -irradiation

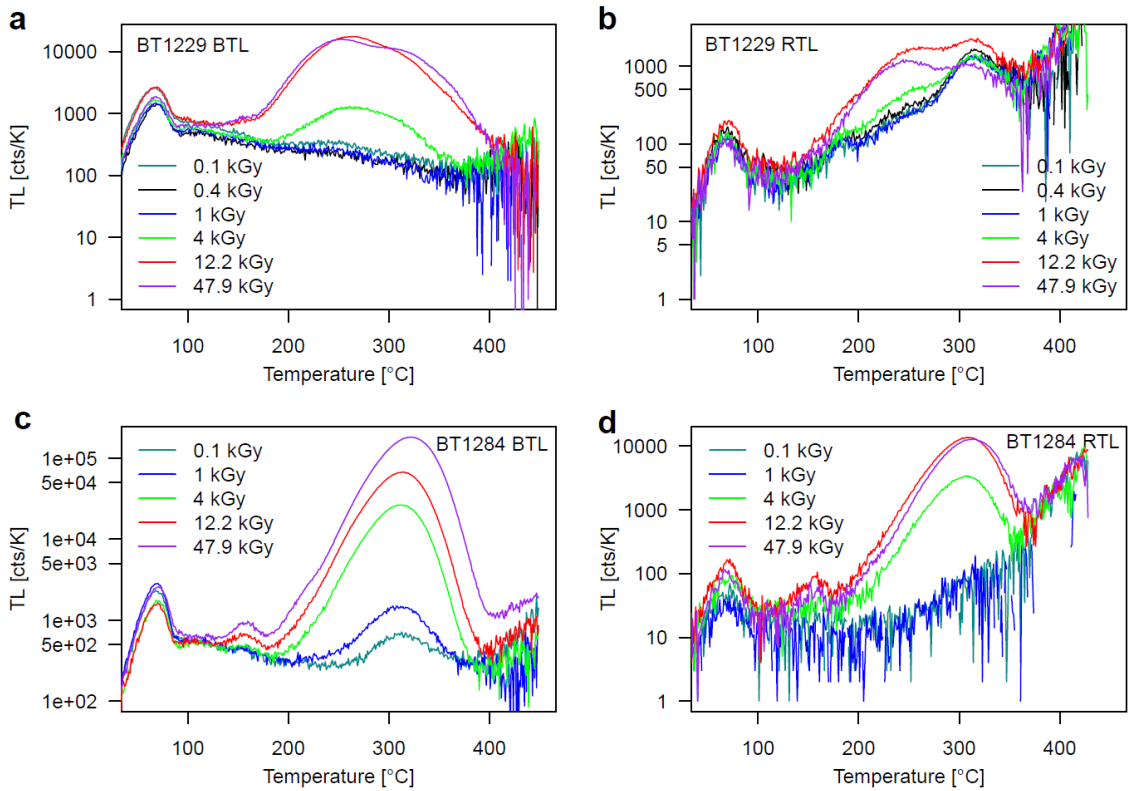
280 For additive γ -doses of 0.1 and 0.4 kGy, the spectrally resolved TL signals of samples BT1229 and BT1284 were very low or even below detection level. We therefore measured the monochromatic TL in the blue and red detection window to examine the dose response of these signals in the low γ -dose range and to assess the interference of the BTL signal with the RTL signal and the sensitisation induced by high-dose irradiation followed by the heat treatment of the first TL readout. Fig. 6 shows BTL and
285 RTL glow curves following additive γ -irradiation between 0.1 kGy and 47.9 kGy; the BTL and RTL response to a constant β -test dose after readout of the signals shown in Fig. 6 is depicted in Fig. 7.

In the additive γ -dose range up to 1 kGy, there is just a minor increase in BTL for temperatures >250 °C for BT1284. The non-monotonous dose-response of sample BT1229 in this dose range might be related to inter-aliquot scatter (Fig. 6). For the highest γ -dose of 47.9 kGy, it is remarkable that for
290 sample BT1284 the high-temperature peak shifts from ~280 °C to ~310 °C in the bulk glow curve, leaving an asymmetric peak with a shoulder towards lower temperatures (Fig. 6c). This pattern can also be recognised in the TL spectra of this sample (Fig. 3). A common feature for samples BT1229 and BT1284 is the increase of the 180 °C BTL and RTL peaks with additive doses up to 12.2 kGy, while they drop again in intensity for even larger doses. In contrast, the BTL and RTL signals recorded at
295 temperatures >250 °C keep on growing over the entire γ -dose range. Such behaviour of dose-dependent change of proportions between low- and high-temperature glow peaks was also observed in the TL spectra of these samples.



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Fig. 6 Monochromatic blue TL (BTL) and red TL (RTL) glow curves of samples BT1229 (a,b) and BT1284 (c,d) following additive γ -irradiation (NTL+ γ) with the doses indicated in the legend.



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Fig. 7 Monochromatic blue TL (BTL) and red TL (RTL) glow curves of samples BT1229 (a,b) and BT1284 (c,d), recorded after TL readout of the γ -irradiated samples (see Fig. 6) and administering a β -test dose of 50 Gy. The γ -pre-dose is shown in the legend.

310 As is evident from the TL curves of the second-glow measurements following a 50 Gy β -test dose, the
BTL sensitivity of the samples is pre-dose dependent (Fig. 7), so that the NTL+ γ signals cannot be
normalised using the second-glow signals. BTL dose sensitivity is considerably enhanced by factors of
~50 (BT1229) and ~200 (BT1284) after administering additive γ -doses ≥ 4 kGy (Fig. 7). The same seems
to apply to the RTL signal of sample BT1284 (factor ~120), whereas for BT1229 no systematic change
315 of the RTL sensitivity with dose can be seen; the randomness of the signal intensity for the different
doses is more likely linked to inter-aliquot variation.

Radiofluorescence spectra following additive γ -irradiation

In contrast to TL emission spectra, the UV is the dominant emission in RF spectra for samples BT1229
and BT1284 and more intense than the blue emission, as shown in Fig. 8. The difference in the relative
intensities of the UV emission in RF and TL is a consequence of the strong thermal quenching of this
320 emission at higher temperatures (Schilles et al. 2001). Apart from this, the RF emissions show a more
complex evolution with dose and are less straightforward to interpret than the TL spectra. For sample
BT1229 a strong decrease in the originally pronounced red emission is evident, with a comparatively
small decrease in the UV and almost none in the blue wavelength region. For sample BT1284, on the
other hand, an increase in the blue emission (and to a lesser extent also in the UV emission) with dose
325 is seen, whereas no signal change is observed in the wavelength region of the red emission.

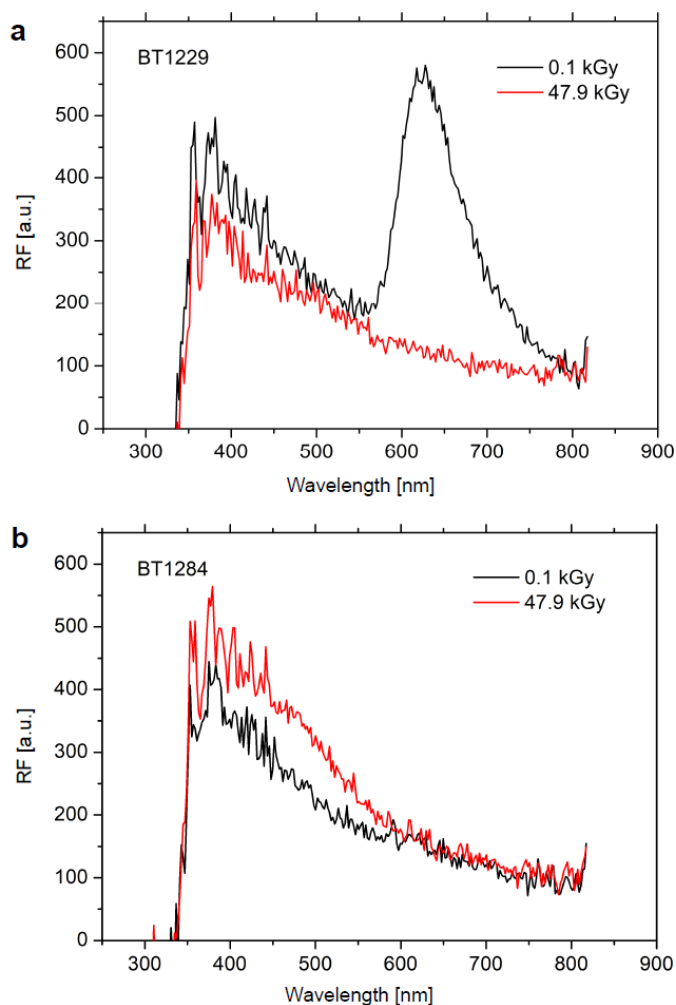


Fig. 8 Radiofluorescence spectra of sample BT1229 (a) and BT1284 (b), recorded after imparting additive γ -doses of 0.1 and 47.9 kGy. See the main text for details on the measurement configuration.

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Monochromatic TL measurements following β -irradiation

To explore the dose response of the BTL and RTL emissions for samples from different origin with natural doses >1 kGy, additive β -doses of 2.2 kGy were administered to samples BT1385, BT1629 and BT1647 before measuring their BTL and RTL signals. In this experiment, sample BT1647 served as a reference sample since it derives from the same lithological unit as sample BT1284. Inter-aliquot reproducibility of BTL in the range 250–350 °C was better than 10% ($n = 3$; except for BT1385: 30%) and no normalisation was applied.

Natural (NTL) glow curves and those resulting from additive β -irradiation (NTL+ β) show that for two of the three samples (BT1385, BT1647) the TL signal above 250 °C continues to increase with an additive β -dose of 2.2 kGy (Fig. 9). Because electron traps giving rise to TL >250 °C are generally considered as deep enough not to drain electrons over geological timescales, this observation implies that the BTL signal has not yet reached its dose saturation level in this region of the TL glow curve. However, the NTL+ β signal does not further increase compared to NTL for sample BT1629 that carries a natural dose in the order of a few hundred kGy. Reasons for this observation could be that either the increase in BTL response to the 2.2 kGy additive dose is too small to be resolved (given the 10% inter-aliquot scatter), or the BTL signal is in dose saturation in the glow curve region 250–450 °C. The BTL glow curve in the temperature range <250 °C shows an intense peak at ~ 180 °C (BT1385, BT1647), which most likely corresponds to the BTL emission at 200 °C observed in the TL spectra of samples BT1229 and BT1284 (see Figs. 2 and 3). Further low-temperature BTL peaks appearing at ~ 80 °C and ~ 105 °C are probably the well-known '110 °C' and '160 °C' TL peaks in quartz, that are observed at the latter temperatures for higher heating rates than used in this study (Aitken 1985; Spooner and Questiaux 2000; Veronese et al. 2004).

For glow curve temperatures >250 °C, a similar picture emerges for the RTL emission of these three samples, i.e., the NTL+ β glow curves exceed the NTL glow curves in case of BT1385 and BT1647, while the RTL signal of BT1629 is of the same intensity for both NTL and NTL+ β . Similarly, low temperature RTL peaks occur at the same positions, except for a peak at around 150 °C, which surpasses the 200 °C signal of sample BT1647. BTL and RTL glow curves recorded for BT1647 are in qualitative agreement with the TL spectra of sample BT1284, while TL peaks are shifted ~ 20 °C towards lower temperatures compared to the spectra.

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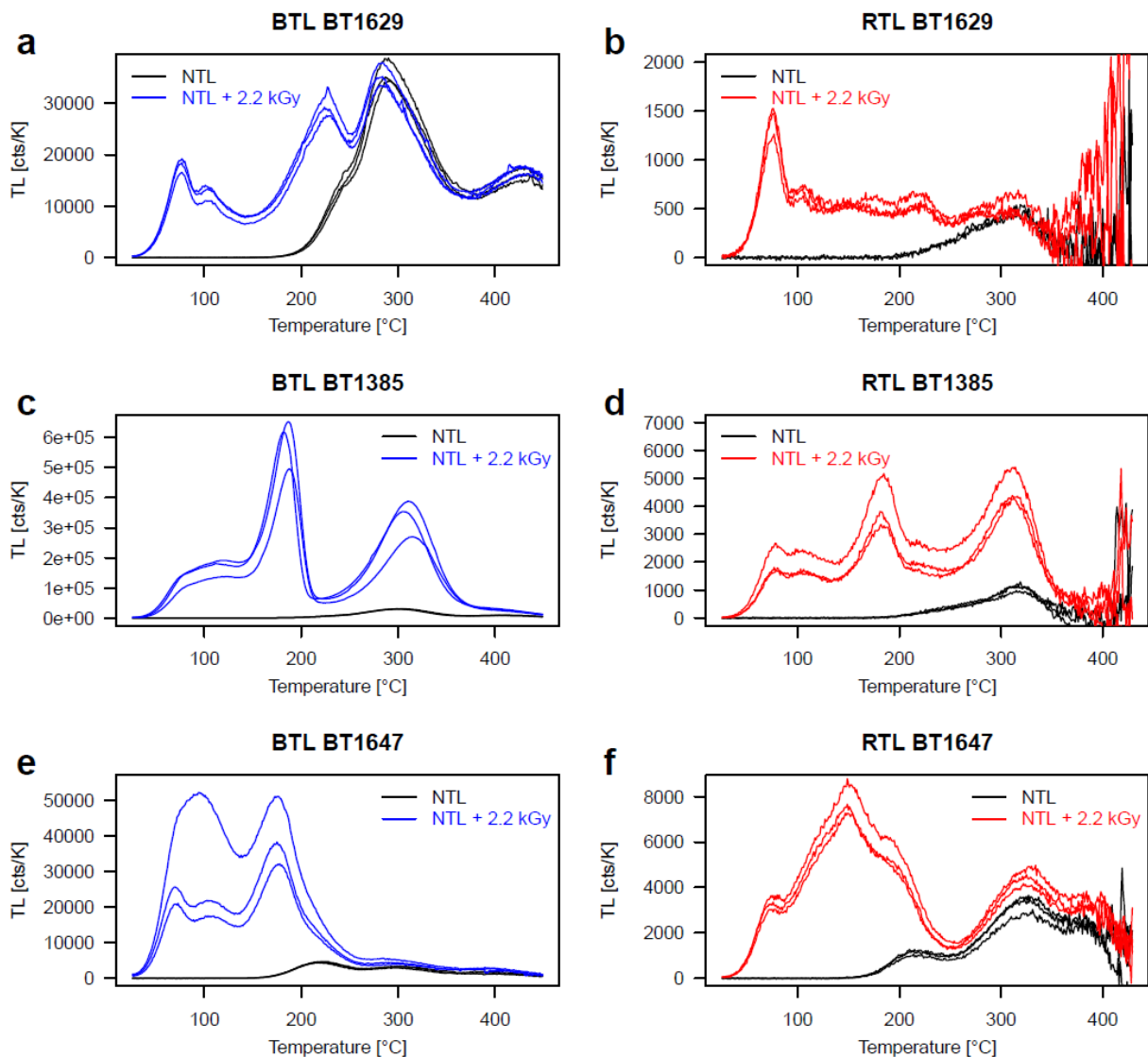


Fig. 9 Monochromatic blue TL (BTL) and red TL (RTL) glow curves of samples BT1629 (a,b), BT1385 (c,d) and BT1647 (e,f) following an additive β -dose of 2.2 kGy (NTL+ β). Three aliquots were measured, for both NTL and NTL+ β ; no normalisation was performed. All samples carry (expected) natural doses in excess of 1 kGy. For more details on sample characteristics and measurement parameters, see the main text.

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Discussion

Interpretation of RF spectra and second glow RTL signals

Complex behaviour of the RF emissions in quartz with dose has also been observed by other authors, with dose-response varying from increase, decrease to “peak shaped” (first increase, then decrease) with dose, for all three emissions (Krbetschek and Trautmann 2000; Woda et al. 2002; Shimizu et al. 2006; Martini et al. 2012; Friedrich et al. 2017). Generally, RF is a result of the simultaneous hole trapping and electron recombination at the recombination centre, which is to a first approximation proportional to the excitation rate and thus to the dose-rate (Friedrich et al. 2018). In how far and how this recombination rate changes with dose depends on the relative concentrations of defects in the crystal and their degree of interaction during irradiation. Despite this complexity, it is reasonable to assume that for low doses (beginning of irradiation), with the number of trapped charges being much smaller than the number of available trapping sites, the relative RF intensity, for samples with similar properties, will be dependent on the respective concentration of defects (trapping sites). Thus, the strong red RF emission in sample BT1229 is an indication of a higher concentration of defects responsible for this

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emission than in sample BT1284, and this is also reflected in the TL spectra (compare 1 kGy spectra for BT1284 and BT1229; Figs. 2–4).

385 Considering the apparent discrepancy in the behaviour of the second glow RTL signals between samples BT1229 and BT1284 (Fig. 7), this can be resolved by considering that the RTL signal of sample BT1284 is likely to be strongly influenced, if not entirely dominated, by the blue emission in a PMT measurement (Fig. 4). Thus, the apparent sensitivity enhancement of the RTL signal by a factor of ~120 is most likely a simple copy of the sensitivity enhancement of the BTL signal. In light of this, the results for the RTL signal of both samples are compatible with the absence of any pre-dose dependence for this signal, which is in accordance with previous studies (Huntley et al. 1988a,b).

390 *Emission spectra and quartz formation*

Despite the large saturation doses often associated with the RTL emission of quartz (Fattahi and Stokes 2000, 2003), it has been reported for epithermal vein quartz and pegmatitic quartz samples that the RTL signal approaches saturation for doses >1 kGy, while the BTL emission continues to grow for doses in excess of 10 kGy (Hashimoto et al. 1987). Specifically, the BTL emission surpasses the RTL emission in intensity at a dose of about 1 kGy in the pegmatitic quartz investigated by Hashimoto et al. (1987). This ‘transitional’ dose indicative for the shift from predominantly red to blue luminescence is in the same order of magnitude as observed for samples BT1229 and BT1284 in this study and for the fired quartz examined by Woda et al. (2002). Particularly, Hashimoto et al. (1987) attribute this feature to the ‘intermediate’ hypabyssal nature of this type of quartz in between the end members of volcanic quartz and plutonic quartz, emitting either primarily in the red or the blue range, respectively, over the entire investigated dose range. These observations, that were obtained as monochromatic TL glow curves using optical filters, are in line with our spectral data derived from plutonic (granitic) quartz (BT1229, BT1284). Similarly, also other samples (BT1385, BT1647) examined in this study showed a disproportionately intense growth of the blue TL emission following a 2.2 kGy additive β -dose, especially in the temperature region around 180 °C. Since the majority of sedimentary quartz grains derives from plutonic quartz, this characteristic TL behaviour in the high-dose range might not be restricted to hypabyssal types of quartz, but represent a more widespread feature.

405 *Emission spectra and associated defects*

Similar results compared to our findings were obtained by Chawla et al. (1998) who compared the TL sensitivity change in quartz samples carrying identical large doses, but imparted once at natural dose rate (~2 Gy ka⁻¹) and once at laboratory dose rate (~0.05 Gy s⁻¹). They report on a substantial increase of BTL sensitivity for laboratory γ -doses >250 Gy, and on a pronounced pre-dose effect as also observed by Huntley et al. (1988a) and Woda et al. (2002). The blue band in quartz (~2.65 eV) is usually ascribed to recombination at (paramagnetic) [AlO₄]⁰ sites (e.g., McKeever 1991; Rendell et al. 1994; Woda et al. 2002, Guzzo et al. 2017). This centre is created from the diamagnetic precursor [AlO₄/M⁺]⁰ by hole capture, where M⁺ is a charge compensating ion (Li⁺, Na⁺ or H⁺) attached to the initial Al³⁺ site. After hole capture, the alkali or hydrogen ion is no longer necessary for charge compensation and can diffuse through the open c-axis channels of the crystal until attached to an electron trap [DO₄]⁻, where D stands for, e.g., Ge, Ti or other unknown defects. In this way the stable electron centre [DO₄/M⁺]⁰ is formed (Weil 1984). Guzzo et al. (2017) propose that the [GeO₄/Li⁺]⁰ centre acts as the electron trap for the intermediate TL peak, which in their samples occurred at 240 °C, while the E₁' centre (oxygen vacancy filled with one electron) is the electron trap for the ~325 °C TL peak. In contrast, Schilles et al. (2001) assign the E₁' centre to a competing recombination centre, where recombinations occur either non-radiative or outside the detection window. Chawla et al. (1998) suggest that the alkali ion itself can form the electron trap, after localisation at an interstitial position. This would essentially correspond to an [SiO₄/M⁺]⁰ centre, which has been shown to be unstable at room temperature and responsible for the TL peak at 190 K (-83 °C), so its involvement in the formation of TL peaks above room temperature is rather unlikely (Martini et al. 2000).

430 The attribution of γ -induced BTL to the $[\text{AlO}_4]^0$ centre was also proposed by Plötze et al. (2012) based
on EPR measurements and TL spectrometry, which demonstrated an EPR saturation dose of this centre
of ~ 1 MGy. The fact that no increase in the BTL >250 °C could be induced by additive β -irradiation of
sample BT1629 (estimated natural dose of a few hundred kGy) while younger samples still yielded
435 growing BTL signals in that temperature region supports the assignment of the $[\text{AlO}_4]^0$ centre to this
emission and indicates that this centre is stable over geological periods. This is also corroborated by
recent results in Hunter et al. (2018), who have estimated a lifetime of the 350 °C BTL peak in quartz
after 4 kGy β -dose of 6.2 Ma at 20 °C.

The abrupt increase of BTL sensitivity at a threshold dose of ~ 1 kGy (Figs. 2–4) could in principle be
explained by the creation of new traps, the removal of competing, non-radiative pathways or a
440 combination of both. Chawla et al. (1998) observe a new EPR centre of unknown nature, that is created
by irradiation and subsequent heating to 500 °C which the authors link to the sensitivity increase of the
BTL, but to date the existence of this centre has not been confirmed in independent studies. Guzzo et al.
(2017) suggest that the removal of a non-radiative recombination pathway within the Al-centre, which
the authors link to the thermal quenching mechanism in quartz (Pagonis et al. 2011, 2014) and which is
445 induced by high-dose irradiation and subsequent heat treatment (400 °C), could result in an enhanced
radiative recombination rate at higher doses. Woda et al. (2002) speculate that the enhanced generation
of BTL beyond laboratory doses of 1 kGy might be related to the decay of the $[\text{GeO}_4/\text{Li}^+]^0$ centre and
the associated redistribution of released Li ions above this threshold dose. Common to the different
suggested mechanisms is that the dose-induced sensitivity enhancement of BTL in the temperature range
450 250–380 °C occurs during the TL readout (heating) stage and not during the irradiation stage, so that
the number of blue-emitting recombination centres before readout is expected to grow continuously with
dose. This is in agreement with the reported dose-response of the Al centre (Woda et al. 2002) and the
absence of any strong increase of the blue emission in the RF spectra of both samples for the highest
dose (Fig. 8).

Furthermore, the almost constant value of the Al signal intensity after a TL measurement independent
455 of dose, as shown in Woda et al. (2002), make it unlikely that the pre-dose information is connected to
changes in the population of the recombination centre but rather can be found in processes involving the
electron trap(s). It might be worthwhile considering whether this pre-dose effect can be used to estimate
an accumulated dose and thus for dating purposes.

The decrease of the 200 °C BTL peak at higher doses (Fig. 6) could potentially be explained by a double
460 electron capture at the electron trap, with the two types of traps (occupied with one or two electrons)
having different activation energies. Such an approach has been used to simulate the non-monotonous
dose-response of the Ge- and Ti-centres in quartz (Woda and Wagner 2007) and has recently been
further developed for TL (Chen et al. 2017). It would be in line with the suggested assignment of the
electron trap for this TL peak to the $[\text{GeO}_4/\text{Li}^+]^0$ centre by Guzzo et al. (2017). An alternative explanation
465 would be competition effects between the blue and a non-radiative recombination centre during heating
(TL readout), with the latter growing much more rapidly with dose than the former, leading to a decrease
in the amount of radiative recombination at higher doses (Lawless et al. 2005). A sharp drop in signal
intensity for the 210 °C BTL signal has also been observed by Hunter et al. (2018) for doses higher than
16 kGy, however, for their samples the higher temperature BTL peak (350 °C) also dropped in a similar
470 fashion in this dose range, which is not the case for the samples studied here.

For the red emission in quartz there is no clear link to a specific type of defect (Krbetschek et al. 1997).
However, in contrast to King et al. (2011) who detected an increase of RTL at the expense of BTL
following high-dose (>100 MGy) proton irradiation, we did not observe a trade-off between blue and
red TL emissions in our samples for the γ -dose range investigated. Neither the amplitude of the blue nor
475 that of the red spectral component decreases with dose in the TL region >250 °C.

Implications for TL dating and thermochronometry

The TL spectra acquired in this study explain the 'uncommon' shape of additive-dose RTL glow curves constructed for the plutonic quartz samples from the geothermal drill hole, as presented in Schmidt et al. (2015). Especially for sample BT1284, it is the strong BTL emission that masks the red emission for doses in the kGy range. An overlap of the RTL signal with another emission reaching into the red detection window could provide an explanation for similar observations of RTL glow curves made for higher laboratory doses (e.g., Montret et al. 1992; Fattahi and Stokes 2000).

Thus, when detecting monochromatic TL glow curves in the red window (usually centred on ~620 nm), the recorded signal may contain contributions from both the red-emitting centre and the tail of the blue emission that might in intensity exceed the red signal. The degree of interference is a result of the relative intensities of the blue and red emission and seems to be sample-dependent. As shown for sample BT1229, in some circumstances a signal dominated by the red emission might still be detected. Given the observed width of the blue emission at high doses, it does not appear to be possible to separate the blue and red bands by means of optical filters alone. The only way of deconvolving the two emissions and of being able to judge the reliability of a monochromatic measurement is to conduct spectrometric measurements. Although more experiments are definitely needed, TL results for sample BT1629 indicate the long-term stability of the BTL emission at glow temperatures >250 °C. Consequently, palaeodose estimates derived from a mixed blue-red TL emission might be reliable if the common quality assurance criteria are met (e.g., D_e plateau test). However, before such dose measurements can be deemed trustworthy, rigorous further investigations are necessary.

Conclusion

Our new TL spectral data obtained for two igneous quartz samples in the γ -dose range 0.1–47.9 kGy show that the spectra are mainly composed of two emissions at 2.67 eV (~465 nm) and 1.95 eV (630 nm). The blue emission, that shows a pre-dose effect, increases in intensity with dose and completely dominates the spectrum for doses >12 kGy for one sample. Whereas paramagnetic $[AlO_4]^0$ sites are the likely origin of the blue emission, its sharp increase in sensitivity above ~1 kGy might be related to the creation of new traps, the dose-induced redistribution of alkali ions and/or the removal of non-radiative competitive recombination pathways. Supplementing radiofluorescence spectra support the hypothesis that the blue TL sensitivity change is linked to the electron traps rather than to the recombination centres. Furthermore, monochromatic TL measurements (blue and red detection window) of quartz samples in natural dose saturation indicate that the blue emission is thermally stable enough to be used for geological dating and dosimetry. Finally, the dominance of the blue spectral component well explains the unexpected shape of red TL glow curves in the kGy range in previous studies. The relative brightness of blue and red TL at high doses, however, seems to be sample dependent and difficult to predict, so that spectral measurements in combination with monochromatic TL analyses are advised when aiming for the red component. More investigations are certainly needed to fully explore the nature and luminescence properties especially of the blue TL emission at high doses.

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