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Exploring IRSL₅₀ fading variability in bedrock feldspars and implications for OSL thermochronometry

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Abstract

Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) is a well-established Quaternary dating method, which has recently been adapted to application in low-temperature thermochronometry. The Infra-Red Stimulated Luminescence (IRSL) of feldspar, which so far is the most promising target signal in thermochronometry, is unfortunately prone to anomalous fading. The fading of feldspar IRSL is at times not only challenging to measure, but also laborious to incorporate within luminescence growth models. Quantification of IRSL fading is therefore a crucial step in OSL thermochronometry, raising questions regarding (i) reproducibility and reliability of laboratory measurements of fading, as well as (ii) the applicability of existing fading models to quantitatively predict the level of IRSL field saturation in nature. Here we investigate the natural luminescence signal and anomalous fading of IRSL measured at 50 °C (IRSL₅₀) in 32 bedrock samples collected from a variety of lithologies and exhumation settings (Alaska and Norway). We report a large span of IRSL₅₀ fading rates between samples ($g_{2\text{days}}$ ranging from ~0.5 to ~45 %/decade), which further demonstrates (i) a good reproducibility between two common fading measurement protocols, and (ii) the ability of tunnelling models to predict the level of feldspar IRSL₅₀ field saturation in nature. We observe higher IRSL₅₀ fading in feldspar with increasing Ca content, although other factors cannot be dismissed at present. Finally, our dataset confirms that the applicability of feldspar IRSL₅₀ in OSL thermochronometry is limited to rapidly-exhuming settings or warm subsurface environments.

35 **Keywords:** luminescence, feldspar IRSL, anomalous fading, OSL thermochronometry

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 1.1 OSL thermochronometry

39 Understanding the processes operating at the Earth's surface requires quantitative methods
40 to measure erosion and sedimentation rates. In that context, low-temperature
41 thermochronometric methods (see Reiners and Brandon, 2006 for a review) have been
42 increasingly used over the past decades to quantify bedrock cooling histories within the top ~2-
43 8 km of the upper crust, and subsequently to interpret them into exhumation histories (e.g.
44 Braun et al., 2006; 2012). However, linking long-term exhumation rates (10^5 - 10^8 year
45 timescales) to short-term erosion measurements (10^0 - 10^3 year timescales) remains challenging,
46 because different spatial scales and processes are involved. An ongoing debate (Herman and
47 Champagnac, 2016; Willenbring and Jerolmack, 2016), regarding the impact of Quaternary
48 climate and glacial/interglacial oscillations on global-scale erosion rates, highlights the current
49 shortage of quantitative estimates of bedrock erosion and relief evolution over Quaternary to
50 sub-Quaternary timescales (e.g. Herman et al., 2013; Champagnac et al., 2014). Recent
51 methodological developments of low-temperature thermochronometers, such as $^4\text{He}/^3\text{He}$
52 (Shuster and Farley, 2005) and Optically Stimulated Luminescence (OSL) (Guralnik et al.,
53 2015a; King et al., 2016), offer an unprecedented resolution to constrain rock cooling histories
54 within the upper ~1-3 km of the Earth's crust, and thus to potentially reconstruct erosion
55 histories and/or topographic relief changes over sub-Quaternary timescales (e.g. Shuster et al.,
56 2005; 2011; Valla et al., 2011a; King et al., 2016).

57

58 OSL dating (e.g. Aitken, 1998) has recently been adapted for low-temperature
59 thermochronometry by considering the competing effects of filling and emptying of naturally-
60 occurring electron traps (linked to the OSL signal) in crystal lattices due to environmental
61 radiation and temperature, respectively (Herman et al., 2010; Li and Li, 2012; Guralnik et al.,
62 2013; King et al., 2016). While other "trapped charge dating" methods (e.g. Grün, 2001) have
63 been proposed and tested, including thermoluminescence (TL; e.g. Prokein and Wagner, 1994;
64 Tang and Li, 2015) and electron-spin resonance (ESR; Koshchug and Solovyov, 1998; Grün et
65 al., 1999), the advantage of OSL techniques in thermochronometry lies in their rapid
66 methodological development and expanding use in Quaternary science (see reviews by Wintle,
67 2008 and Rhodes, 2011). One major intrinsic limitation in trapped charge dating, common to
68 OSL, ESR and TL alike, is signal saturation (i.e. when all available electron traps become

69 filled). If the target luminescence signal for dating is close to its saturation limit, only minimum
70 ages may be provided. Consequently, when luminescence is used to decipher rock cooling
71 rates, near-saturation signals can only characterise maximum (upper-bound) rates of cooling
72 and exhumation (e.g. Guralnik et al., 2013). Fortunately, the first OSL-thermochronometry
73 applications (Herman et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2012; De Sarkar et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2015)
74 addressed settings of extremely rapid exhumation (where signal saturation should not be a
75 problem), and quantified bedrock cooling histories below ~ 100 °C and over sub-Quaternary
76 timescales. Despite the fact that a standard mineral/signal pair was chosen (quartz “fast OSL
77 component”; Wintle and Murray, 2006), the low sensitivity (Herman et al., 2010; Jeong and
78 Choi, 2012), anomalous characteristics (Li and Li, 2006; Preusser et al., 2009), and the
79 ubiquitous lack of the “fast component” in bedrock quartz of different petrology/mineralogy
80 (Guralnik et al., 2015b), appeared to narrow the use of bedrock quartz for OSL-
81 thermochronometry, and stimulated the continued search for alternative mineral/signal
82 combinations (Guralnik et al., 2015b).

83
84 Infra-Red Stimulated Luminescence (IRSL) from feldspar is advantageous over quartz in
85 several ways (e.g. Huntley and Lamothe, 2001), with (i) a higher luminescence sensitivity in
86 both sediment and bedrock samples (e.g. King et al., 2014), (ii) in general, a higher charge
87 storage capacity (i.e. later saturation) offering a wider dating range (e.g. Buylaert et al., 2012),
88 and (iii) a negligible signal contamination from quartz OSL, if present (e.g. Sohbati et al.,
89 2013). Recently, OSL thermochronometry using bedrock Na-feldspar was investigated in a
90 deep continental drillhole (Guralnik et al., 2015a), where IRSL signals measured at 50 °C
91 (hereafter $IRSL_{50}$) were successfully characterised in the laboratory and translated into
92 environmental palaeotemperatures in the ~ 40 -70 °C range over a ~ 50 ka timescale (Guralnik et
93 al., 2015a). Moreover, the recently-introduced protocol of multiple elevated temperature post-
94 IR (MET-pIRIR) measurement of feldspar (Li and Li, 2011a,b) conceptually offers access to
95 multiple thermochronometric subsystems within a single mineral, as the different subsignals
96 display higher thermal stabilities with increasing stimulation temperatures (Li and Li, 2011b;
97 King et al., 2016).

98
99 1.2. Anomalous fading in feldspar IRSL

100 Although feldspar IRSL appears in many ways preferable to quartz OSL for
101 thermochronometry, one of the drawbacks of feldspar IRSL is its anomalous fading (e.g.
102 Spooner, 1994; Huntley and Lamothe, 2001), an athermal loss of trapped electrons via quantum

103 mechanical tunnelling to their nearest recombination centres (Visocekas, 2002; Huntley, 2006).
104 Since anomalous fading is ubiquitous in feldspar IRSL₅₀ (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001; Huntley
105 and Lian, 2006), recent efforts have mainly focused on extracting a more stable feldspar signal
106 using pIRIR protocols (e.g. Thomsen et al., 2008; 2011; Li and Li, 2011a; Buylaert et al.,
107 2012). Although the latter protocols exhibit a reduced, perhaps even negligible, anomalous
108 fading, it is generally at the expense of a higher thermal stability of the target electron trap (Li
109 and Li, 2011a,b; Guralnik et al., 2015c; King et al., 2016). This in turn leads to higher residual
110 doses in sediment dating (e.g. Wintle, 2008), and higher closure temperatures in
111 thermochronometry (e.g. Guralnik et al., 2015c), which may once again limit the benefit of
112 non-fading IRSL signals in low-temperature thermochronometry (e.g. Qin et al., 2015).
113 Moreover, the MET-pIRIR protocol often exhibits progressively lower IRSL sensitivity with
114 increasing stimulation temperature (Li and Li, 2011b; King et al., 2016), which can hinder
115 signal extraction for some bedrock samples with low luminescence sensitivity. Despite the
116 presence of anomalous fading in feldspar IRSL₅₀, and in light of recent success in avoiding it
117 via pulsed stimulation at low temperature (Tsukamoto et al., 2006; Jain et al., 2015a), IRSL₅₀
118 remains highly relevant for OSL thermochronometric investigations.

119
120 Over the years, several protocols have been proposed to quantify the anomalous fading of
121 feldspar over laboratory timescales (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001; Auclair et al., 2003) and to
122 correct for fading in the linear dose response range (e.g. Lamothe and Auclair, 1999; Huntley
123 and Lamothe, 2001; Lamothe et al., 2003). More recently, Huntley (2006) formulated a
124 physical description of electron tunnelling that further enabled the application of fading
125 corrections within the entire dose response range (Kars et al., 2008; Li and Li, 2008). In
126 particular, these models allow the prediction of luminescence intensities in “field saturation”
127 (Huntley and Lian, 2006), in which the natural intensity of feldspar IRSL₅₀ becomes insensitive
128 to time, and is governed only by the counterbalancing effects of environmental radiation and
129 anomalous fading (Kars et al., 2008).

130
131 In the present study, we investigate anomalous fading of the IRSL₅₀ signal in bedrock
132 feldspar, and highlight its key implications for OSL thermochronometry. As described earlier,
133 OSL thermochronometry exploits the thermal dependence of trapped electrons in minerals
134 during their exhumation towards the Earth’s surface. Given zero fading, a non-saturated natural
135 IRSL₅₀ signal in bedrock feldspar should, in theory, reflect the sample’s cooling history.
136 Anomalous fading of the signal would, however, lower the measured IRSL₅₀ level in a given

137 bedrock sample, preventing full saturation of the signal and influencing the determination of a
138 cooling rate (if not accounted for). While the incorporation of the effects of IRSL₅₀ fading in
139 OSL-thermochronometric interpretation has been demonstrated as important (Guralnik et al.,
140 2015a; King et al., 2016), there is a lack of consensus at present, as to whether laboratory
141 measurements of IRSL fading are reproducible and/or reliable (see Li et al., 2014 for a review),
142 and thus whether the use of fading models (and their associated age correction schemes) is
143 appropriate. Moreover, the recent notion that all luminescence processes in feldspars are
144 intrinsically related to fading (Jain et al., 2012; 2015b) raises a renewed interest in the fading
145 model of Huntley (2006) and its later derivatives. More specifically, it raises the need for
146 validation studies, where a laboratory measurement of fading rate can be related to its natural
147 fading rate in nature. To date, only a handful of studies (Huntley and Lian, 2006; Kars et al.,
148 2008; Guralnik et al., 2015a) have quantitatively evaluated the effects of natural versus
149 laboratory fading rates. It is therefore necessary to assess (i) whether anomalous fading of the
150 feldspar IRSL₅₀ signal can be accurately measured, and (ii) for a given fading rate, whether the
151 field saturation of the IRSL₅₀ signal can be quantitatively predicted. To this aim, we extracted a
152 wide range of K- and Ca-/Na-feldspars from 32 bedrock samples in different lithologies and
153 exhumation environments, and measured their natural feldspar IRSL₅₀ intensities alongside the
154 anomalous fading of the laboratory-regenerated signals. A large geochemical dataset, including
155 whole-rock major and trace elements as well as selected feldspar mineralogy, enables us to
156 discuss potential causes for the wide range of IRSL₅₀ anomalous fading observed. Finally, we
157 use this dataset to test the theoretical ability of tunnelling models (Huntley 2006; Kars et al.,
158 2008; Guralnik et al., 2015a,c) to predict IRSL₅₀ field saturation levels, and to discuss the
159 implications for OSL thermochronometry.

160

161 **2. Samples and methods**

162 2.1. Sampling strategy and sample preparation

163 Bedrock samples from old crystalline or metamorphic basements have been collected in
164 different exhumation settings in Norway and Alaska to explore the applicability of feldspar
165 IRSL₅₀ thermochronometry over a wide range of long-term (i.e. 10⁵-10⁸ years) exhumation
166 rates. All sample locations and lithological descriptions are given in Table 1. Eight samples are
167 distributed along the Sognefjord and its vicinity (SOG samples; western Norway) where
168 exhumation rates are ~0.01-0.05 km Ma⁻¹ (e.g. Hendriks et al., 2007; Nielsen et al., 2009). The
169 SOG samples were collected at varying elevations, from sea-level towards ~1000-m a.s.l. low-
170 relief surfaces (e.g. Steer et al., 2012). Fifteen samples have been collected in the Granite

171 Range (GRA samples; southern Alaska) where low-temperature thermochronometric data
172 indicates long-term exhumation rates of 0.1-0.5 km Ma⁻¹ (e.g. Spotila et al., 2004; Berger et al.,
173 2008). In the Granite Range, our sampling strategy was to collect bedrock samples across
174 elevation profiles (Wagner and Reimer, 1972; Valla et al., 2011b). Finally, nine samples have
175 been collected in the Yakutat terrain (YAK samples; southern Alaska), all locations at sea-level
176 along the Disenchantment Bay - Russel Fjord. This area is tectonically active with reported
177 long-term exhumation rates of ~1-3 km Ma⁻¹ (e.g. McAleer et al., 2009; Enkelmann et al.,
178 2015). Our sampling strategy thus covers two orders of magnitude of long-term bedrock
179 exhumation rates, from 0.01 km Ma⁻¹ (SOG) up to 1-3 km Ma⁻¹ (YAK). Moreover, we targeted
180 different lithologies (sandstone, gneiss and granite/diorite samples), probing a large diversity in
181 bedrock geochemistry and consequently also in feldspar mineralogy. Finally, we restricted our
182 study to cold environments (mean annual surface temperatures <10 °C, Table 1) to exclude
183 potential luminescence signal loss at surface temperature conditions in tropical to sub-tropical
184 regions (Wu et al., 2015).

185
186 Bedrock samples were prepared under subdued orange light to ensure the extraction of
187 feldspar minerals from the interior of the sample, where the luminescence signal is unaffected
188 by surface bleaching. Initial sample dimensions were at least 10 cm (length/width/thickness) to
189 allow the removal of the light-exposed sample surface (at least 2-3 cm) using a water-cooled
190 diamond saw. The light-safe internal part was then gently hand crushed to 180-212 µm grain
191 size using a mortar and pestle to avoid mineral grinding and potential luminescence resetting
192 via triboluminescence (e.g. Bateman et al., 2012). All 180-212 µm grains were treated with
193 32% hydrochloric acid to remove potential surface carbonates and with 30% hydrogen
194 peroxide to remove any organic component. After chemical treatment, mineral fractions were
195 rinsed thoroughly with water to remove dust particles. Feldspar and quartz fractions were
196 isolated by density separation using LST Fastfloat (sodium heteropolytungstate). Densities of
197 2.58 g cm⁻³ and 2.70 g cm⁻³ were used in order to isolate potassium-rich feldspars (K-feldspars,
198 <2.58 g cm⁻³) from quartz and other feldspars (2.58-2.70 g cm⁻³), and from remaining heavy
199 minerals (>2.70 g cm⁻³). For SOG samples (except SOG-22) we selected K-feldspars for
200 analysis.

201 For GRA, YAK and SOG-22 samples, density separation at 2.58 g cm⁻³ yielded no light
202 fraction, suggesting the dominance of calcium/sodium-plagioclases (Ca-/Na-feldspars), which
203 were thus taken for further analysis. Further mineral purification was deemed unnecessary, as
204 the contribution from quartz to IRSL₅₀ is negligible (Sohbati et al., 2013 and references

205 therein). Feldspar extracts were not etched before luminescence measurements (Duller, 1992),
206 and feldspar grains were directly mounted on stainless steel discs to produce large aliquots (4 to
207 6 mm diameter, ~500-1500 grains per disc).

208

209 2.2. Luminescence equipment and protocols

210 All IRSL₅₀ measurements were made on automated Risø TL/OSL DA-20 readers (Institute
211 of Geological Sciences, University of Bern), each possessing a ⁹⁰Sr/⁹⁰Y beta source (~0.1-0.2
212 Gy s⁻¹) and a heater plate (20-700 °C), with systematic instrumental uncertainties of ~1.5% for
213 single-aliquot measurements (Bøtter-Jensen et al., 2010). Luminescence stimulation was
214 performed with infrared (870 ±40 nm) light-emitting diodes at 90% power (delivering ~130
215 mW cm⁻² at the aliquot position); the emitted luminescence signal was detected through a 410-
216 nm interference and a 2-mm Schott BG-39 filters by an EMI 9235QA photomultiplier tube. All
217 luminescence protocols described below (adapted from Guralnik, 2015a) are fully detailed in
218 Table 2.

219

220 Feldspar natural IRSL₅₀ signals, and their subsequent laboratory dose-response curves, were
221 measured using the Single-Aliquot Regenerative-dose (SAR) protocol (Wallinga et al., 2000).
222 For each sample, at least three individual aliquots were measured using a preheat at 250 °C for
223 60 s (to empty unstable electron traps), followed by IRSL₅₀ for 200 s (Table 2). We used
224 laboratory beta irradiation doses from 0 up to ~2800 Gy to fully characterize the dose response
225 curve, a test dose of 44 Gy to monitor sensitivity changes throughout the protocol, and a high-
226 temperature optical wash (IRSL at 290 °C) between measurement cycles (Buylaert et al.,
227 2009). Given the recent interest in and the research into “test dose plateaus” (Yi et al., in press),
228 we believe that a test dose of 44 Gy is readily applicable to obtain equivalent doses in the ~4.4-
229 440 Gy range (cf. Yi et al., in press), and likely even beyond. While small variations in the
230 laboratory saturation level as a function of test dose have also been documented (Yi et al., in
231 press), these effects are demonstrably minor and were hence considered beyond the scope of
232 the present study.

233 All analysed aliquots fulfilled the standard performance criteria for recuperation (<5%),
234 recycling ratio (<10%) and maximum test dose error (<10%). To test the efficacy of the SAR
235 protocol parameters, a dose recovery experiment was conducted for each sample
236 (Supplementary Table S5). To this end, two to three fresh aliquots per sample were optically
237 bleached using IRSL₅₀ for 300 s, and were subsequently given a 200-Gy laboratory dose which

238 was then treated as an unknown and recovered using the same SAR protocol as the natural
239 doses.

240
241 To explore the fading variability of IRSL₅₀ signals in individual bedrock samples, we
242 conducted fading experiments on two sensitised aliquots from the dose response experiments.
243 We used two different approaches to measure feldspar IRSL₅₀ fading (Table 2), namely a SAR-
244 based long-shine method (modified from Huntley and Lamothe, 2001), and a non-SAR short-
245 shine method (modified from Auclair et al., 2003), with the objective to test the agreement
246 between the two protocols. In the long-shine protocol, after a given dose of 200 Gy, the
247 luminescence signal was measured following variable delays, each lasting between 0.3 and 48
248 hours (Table 2). In the short-shine protocol, a dose of 72 Gy was given only once, and followed
249 by a series of consecutive short-shine (0.1 s) measurements, separated from each other by
250 pauses lasting between 0.1 and 55 hours. To account for signal loss due to the short optical
251 excitation, the delayed short-shine measurements were normalized to an otherwise identical
252 series of prompt (undelayed) measurements, done once before and once after the delayed
253 experiment (Table 2).

254

255 2.3. Geochemistry and environmental dose rate determination

256 We obtained the whole-rock geochemistry (major and trace elements) of all 32 samples
257 using inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (Supplementary Tables S2-S3) to
258 measure the dominant radionuclide content used for the environmental dose rate estimate (U,
259 Th and K, Table 1). For a subset of 12 samples (GRA and YAK), we used the X-ray
260 fluorescence (XRF) attachment to the Risø TL/OSL reader (Kook et al., 2012; Guralnik et al.,
261 2015a) to determine feldspar mineralogical composition (Supplementary Table S4) and infer
262 the internal potassium content (K_{int} , Tables 1 and S4). XRF data confirms that, in GRA and
263 YAK samples, the aliquot mineralogy is dominated by Ca-/Na-feldspars (with up to 50% wt.
264 quartz content), translating to an internal potassium content K_{int} between 0.2 and 4%
265 (Supplementary Table S4). Based on these measurements, we assumed for the other GRA and
266 YAK samples (incl. SOG-22) an averaged K_{int} of $1.9 \pm 1.4\%$ (Table 1), in agreement with
267 previous estimates reported in the literature for Ca-/Na-feldspars (Barré and Lamothe, 2010;
268 Sohbaty et al., 2013; Guralnik et al., 2015a). For SOG samples (except SOG-22), we used K_{int}
269 of $12.5 \pm 1\%$ for K-feldspars following standard literature values (Huntley and Baril, 1997;
270 Barré and Lamothe, 2010).

271

272 For each sample, the whole-rock radionuclide content (U, Th and K) and feldspar K_{int} have
273 been converted into environmental dose rates using the conversion factors of Guérin et al.
274 (2012), beta and gamma attenuation factors of Guérin et al. (2012) and Guérin and Mercier
275 (2012), and alpha attenuation factors of Bell (1980) and Brennan et al. (1991). For alpha
276 attenuation, an a -value of 0.15 ± 0.05 was used after Balescu and Lamothe (1994). The average
277 water content in our bedrock samples was estimated at $2 \pm 2\%$ (e.g. Aitken and Xie, 1990).
278 Cosmic dose rate was treated as negligible, being comparable in magnitude to uncertainty on
279 the total environmental dose rate (King et al., 2016). Based on thin-section observations, and
280 because the original grain size has been affected by rock crushing and sieving during feldspar
281 extraction, we used a 180-2500 μm grain size range for SOG and GRA samples and a 180-1000
282 μm grain size range for YAK samples.

283
284 To address the two entangled uncertainties regarding (i) the grain size of the target feldspar,
285 and (ii) the feldspar phase which is actually contributing to the IRSL_{50} signal (e.g. Sohbati et
286 al., 2013), we considered several (2 or 4, Supplementary Table S1) dose rate scenarios
287 following the approach of Guralnik et al. (2015a). Specifically, for all feldspars, we calculated
288 dose rates for two end-member grain sizes (180 and 2500 μm for GRA and SOG, and 180 and
289 1000 μm for YAK), assuming a homogeneous distribution of internal potassium (K_{int} , Table 1)
290 and IRSL_{50} signal contribution from the entire feldspar crystal. For Na-/Ca feldspars (GRA,
291 YAK and SOG-22), we calculated two additional scenarios, in which all the IRSL_{50} signal
292 originates only from K-feldspar inclusions (1 and 100 μm , $K_{int} \sim 12.5\%$) within the Na-/Ca-
293 feldspar host crystal (e.g. Sohbati et al., 2013). We then averaged these end-member scenarios
294 to obtain representative environmental dose rates, which ranged across more than an order of
295 magnitude between samples, from 0.3 to 9 Gy ka^{-1} (Table 1). This range, and the associated
296 conservative errors, reflect the variability between K-rich and K-poor feldspar phases, and the
297 averaging across the diverse dose-rate scenarios as listed above (Supplementary Table S1).

298
299 **3. Results**

300 3.1. Dose response and fading measurements

301 Dose response and fading measurements are illustrated for four representative GRA, SOG
302 and YAK samples (Figure 1), and are fully documented for all samples in the Supplementary
303 Information (Supplementary Table S6). Analysed aliquots (4- to 6-mm diameter) usually
304 yielded bright signals with typical IRSL_{50} decay curves. Laboratory dose-response curves (left
305 panels in Figure 1) have been fitted using the General-Order Kinetics (GOK) growth function

306 (Eq. (10) in Guralnik et al., 2015c). The characteristic dose (D_0), the electron-trapping order
307 (α), as well as the equivalent dose (D_e), are reported in Tables 3 and S5. For each aliquot, we
308 also derived the natural IRSL₅₀ signal L_n/T_n (Figure 1) and calculated the natural trap filling
309 level $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ by multiplying the apparent IRSL₅₀ intensity relative to its laboratory maximum
310 (open stars in Figure 1) by the predicted number of occupiable traps in the laboratory (Eq. (3)
311 in Guralnik et al., 2015a). The majority of best-fit D_0 and α values are well-constrained with
312 typical relative uncertainties of <10% and <4%, respectively (Table 3). Natural trap filling
313 levels $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ exhibit varying uncertainties (1-70%; clearly anticorrelated with $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ itself),
314 and cover almost three orders of magnitude (i.e. 0.003-0.85; Table 3), thus offering a robust
315 dataset for evaluating the net effects of environmental radiation, anomalous fading and possibly
316 long-term cooling on the natural IRSL₅₀ intensity of bedrock feldspar.

317
318 Fading results obtained using both the long-shine (central panels in Figure 1) and short-
319 shine (right panels in Figure 1) methods are also summarised in Table 3. Two aliquots were
320 measured individually and averaged to calculate sample-specific g-values and standard
321 deviations ($g_{2\text{days}}$ in %/decade; Huntley and Lamothe, 2001). Fitting the same datasets using
322 Eq. (5) in Kars et al. (2008), we obtained an alternative measure of fading - the nearest-
323 neighbouring hole-centre density ρ' as defined in Huntley (2006) - which we later used in the
324 kinetic model to predict the IRSL₅₀ field saturation levels (Guralnik et al., 2015a). Inter-aliquot
325 variability is small, confirming the good reproducibility of the fading measurement protocols,
326 with more robust estimates for the long-shine method as explained below (Table 3). Although
327 the short-shine protocol is less time-consuming (approximately half the time), the integrated
328 IRSL₅₀ signal at each short-shine measurement is considerably lower, and therefore associated
329 with larger uncertainties propagated into the resulting g-value (Table 3 and Figure 1). For
330 feldspars with intermediate to low luminescence sensitivity (roughly one third of our dataset),
331 the short-shine protocol yielded signals with a very low signal-to-background ratio that could
332 not be used to derive meaningful g-values (Table 3). Figure 2 shows that, on average, fading
333 rate estimates are in excellent agreement between the long- and the short-shine protocols. Thus,
334 to further reduce experimental noise, in the subsequent modelling we used averaged g-values
335 (wherever possible) from both protocols. Sample-specific IRSL₅₀ $g_{2\text{days}}$ values reveal a wide
336 range from ~0.5 to ~45 %/decade (Table 3). K-feldspars from SOG samples exhibit $g_{2\text{days}}$
337 values between 3 and 11 %/decade, which is typical for K-feldspars from both bedrock and
338 sediment origin (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001; Huntley and Lian, 2006). Na-/Ca-feldspars show

339 a higher variability in measured $g_{2\text{days}}$ values between samples (Figures 2 and 3), especially for
340 GRA samples (from 0.5 to >45 %/decade).

341

342 3.2. Predictions of feldspar IRSL₅₀ field saturation

343 To evaluate whether fading variability in our dataset is the main controlling factor for the
344 natural IRSL₅₀ intensities, we first examined the relationship of the laboratory-derived $g_{2\text{days}}$
345 values with the measured $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ values (Figure 3). Our results show a clear inverse correlation
346 between $g_{2\text{days}}$ and $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ values, in agreement with previous observations (Huntley and Lian,
347 2006) but over a considerably wider range of fading rates. Even prior to modelling, such an
348 inverse correlation suggests that the measured $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ in most of our samples is mainly
349 controlled by anomalous fading. Only some YAK samples appear to deviate from the overall
350 trend, with their $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ values markedly below field saturation (Figure 3). However, the
351 relation in Figure 3 is only qualitative, because this empirical relationship might be influenced
352 not only by sample-specific kinetic parameters, but also by thermal loss (which cannot be
353 accounted for in this figure). In the following section, we test our current dataset against a
354 recently proposed physical model predicting feldspar IRSL₅₀ field saturation under anomalous
355 fading (Guralnik et al., 2015a, incorporating the tunnelling term of Huntley, 2006, and
356 extending the dose response of Kars et al., 2008 to non-first order).

357

358 Athermal IRSL signal loss in feldspars is caused by the quantum mechanical tunnelling of
359 electrons from their traps towards electron holes (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001). Here we use
360 the physical model of Huntley (2006) which is based on the assumptions that (i) the tunnelling
361 of electrons is governed by the distance to their nearest recombination centre, and (ii)
362 recombination centres within a feldspar crystal are randomly distributed with a given density.
363 This model (Huntley 2006) can be used to estimate sample-specific field saturation values (e.g.
364 Kars et al., 2008; Guralnik et al., 2015a; King et al., 2016). Following Guralnik et al. (2015a),
365 we use a Monte-Carlo approach to numerically predict, on a sample to sample basis, the IRSL₅₀
366 trap filling saturation values in nature $(n/N)_{\text{ss}}$ (termed “field saturation”). In the simulation
367 (1000 runs per sample), random instances of the kinetic parameters (D_0 and α , Table 3), natural
368 dose rates (Table 1), and ρ' (Table 3, averaged wherever possible between the long- and short-
369 shine experiments) are drawn from their normal distributions (as given by their best-fit values).
370 The modelling results, reported as median $(n/N)_{\text{ss}}$ and associated 68% confidence interval, are
371 given in Table 3 and visualised against measured natural trap filling $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ values in Figure 4.

372

373 Figure 4 highlights the quantitative agreement between predicted $(n/N)_{ss}$ and measured
374 $(n/N)_{nat}$ values, confirming that most of our samples are either in full field saturation, or hardly
375 discernible from it (<15%; Guralnik et al., 2015b). In other words, the natural feldspar IRSL₅₀
376 signal in the majority of our samples ($n = 25$) is controlled by electron tunnelling and does not
377 include a detectable thermal signature of the rock exhumation history. However, more than half
378 (66%) of YAK samples, representing the fastest-exhuming setting, exhibit $(n/N)_{nat}$ values that
379 are considerably (more than 15%) below their predicted $(n/N)_{ss}$ values, suggesting field
380 disequilibrium and thus high likelihood of a thermal signature that can be translated into a
381 cooling history. The thermal signature of two additional samples (GRA-BR and SOG-17)
382 remains in doubt, requiring further investigation that will either link them to exceptional
383 thermal histories, or dismiss them as outliers (one in each locality).

384

385 3.3. Dose recovery results

386 Calculated dose recovery ratios (Supplementary Table S5) were typically within 10% of
387 unity for all but four (GRA-13/-14/-17 and SOG-21) samples. Although imperfect, the 15-20%
388 underestimation in the dose recovery of SOG-21 is within familiar values, even when working
389 with a SOL2 solar simulator (e.g. Buylaert et al., 2012; King et al., 2016), and may relate to an
390 irreversible trapping efficiency change (Kars et al., 2014). On the other hand, it is hard to
391 blame the considerable dose recovery overestimates in GRA-13/-14/-17 (30 to 65%) on the test
392 dose/given dose ratio (here 18%), which is in the 15-80% trust zone and certainly close to the
393 recently recommended ~30% value (Yi et al., in press). To test whether the observed
394 overestimation is due to a large residual dose, we measured the latter in GRA-13 and GRA-BR
395 after an IRSL₅₀ bleach for 300 s. Low residuals of ~5-8 Gy correspond to less than 2% of the
396 equivalent doses, and to 2-3% of the recovered dose, and therefore cannot explain the observed
397 overestimations. To test whether the problem lies in a thermal transfer (e.g. Huntley et al.,
398 1993), we extended the dose recovery experiments further by conducting the IRSL bleach at
399 higher temperatures (100 and 200 °C). Bleaching at higher temperatures did not significantly
400 improve dose recovery in GRA-13/-14/-17, and had no effect on a well-behaving sample
401 (GRA-BR). Overall, unacceptable dose recovery affects only a minor subset (13%) of our
402 dataset and might not necessarily imply that the obtained $(n/N)_{nat}$ values are not reliable
403 (Buylaert et al., 2012). However, such dose recovery over- and underestimations do raise the
404 question of what thermal/optical bleach is most appropriate for resetting the natural IRSL₅₀
405 intensity in feldspars that were never previously exposed to light.

406

407 4. Discussion

408 4.1. IRSL₅₀ and anomalous fading in bedrock feldspars

409 Our results confirm that feldspar IRSL₅₀ signals from bedrock extracts show consistent and
410 reproducible luminescence characteristics using the SAR protocol. This is a clear advantage
411 compared to OSL of bedrock quartz which, apart from a very few cases (e.g. Wu et al., 2015),
412 is generally deemed dim and unsuitable (Jeong and Choi, 2012; Guralnik et al., 2015b).
413 Moreover, the vast majority of our bedrock feldspars (87%, n = 28, Supplementary Table S5)
414 also fulfilled the dose recovery test, which is a fundamental acceptance criterion for
415 luminescence dating. Dose responses were successfully fitted with a General-Order Kinetics
416 model, with a median order of 2.4 ± 0.8 , in agreement with Na-feldspars from the KTB borehole
417 (Guralnik et al., 2015a), therefore capturing the non-linearity of the dose response curve in just
418 a single parameter.

419
420 Fading measurements exhibit a large variability in bedrock feldspars from ~0.5 to ~45
421 %/decade, beyond the previously published value range (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001; Huntley
422 and Lian, 2006). Moreover, we compared two established fading protocols in sediment dating
423 (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001; Auclair et al., 2003) and demonstrated that both are applicable
424 for bedrock feldspars, yielding comparable results between the two methods (Figure 2). Given
425 the considerable experimental differences between the protocols (SAR-based and non-SAR),
426 the agreement of the obtained results is striking. The dependence of the fading rate on the given
427 laboratory dose (Huntley and Lian, 2006; Li and Li, 2008; Kars and Wallinga, 2009) is not
428 evident from our dataset, although the administered laboratory doses (200 and 72 Gy for the
429 long-shine and short-shine protocols, respectively) may be too close to detect any systematic
430 deviation.

431
432 In our suite of bedrock feldspars, $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ values are mostly inversely correlated with
433 laboratory-measured fading rates (Figure 3), qualitatively suggesting field saturation in the
434 majority of samples. Quantitatively, we have demonstrated that field saturation can be
435 successfully predicted across almost three orders of magnitude of IRSL₅₀ electron trap
436 occupancy (Figure 4), using a recent extension (Guralnik et al., 2015c) of familiar electron
437 tunnelling models (Huntley, 2006; Kars et al., 2008). Despite successful prediction of field
438 saturation in both sedimentary feldspars (Kars et al., 2008; Kars and Wallinga, 2009) and
439 bedrock feldspars (Guralnik et al., 2015a; King et al., 2016), the underlying model(s) and the
440 ability to accurately measure the g-value in the laboratory remains a debateable subject (Li et

441 al., 2014). Here, we exploited the large variability in measured fading rates to provide a
442 quantitative validation of our predictive model over a large range of dose rates, trap
443 occupancies, and fading rates (Figure 4).

444
445 We also used the wide range of observed IRSL₅₀ fading rates to discuss potential
446 geochemical control, starting with the whole-rock geochemistry (Supplementary Tables S2-3)
447 as a first-order proxy. However, we found no convincing relationship between the whole-rock
448 trace element content (Supplementary Table S3) and feldspar IRSL₅₀ fading rate. Figure 5A
449 illustrates the lithological variability within our dataset as shown by representative major
450 oxides (SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃), suggesting that, at first order, the fading rate would increase with
451 decreasing SiO₂ content or increasing Fe₂O₃ (or CaO) content. Felsic lithologies (i.e. >63% wt.
452 SiO₂ content) all show relatively low feldspar fading rates (less than 10 %/decade) regardless
453 of the feldspar type. However, for intermediate (i.e. 52-63% wt. SiO₂ content) and mafic (i.e.
454 <52% wt. SiO₂ content) lithologies, a large spread in fading rates is observed (Figure 5A). For
455 a representative subset of GRA and YAK feldspar separates, we also performed XRF
456 mineralogical determination (Supplementary Table S4). Figure 5B shows that the feldspar
457 fading rate increases with Ca content, in agreement with previous observations (Huntley and
458 Lian, 2006; Huntley et al., 2007). In summary, neither the whole-rock geochemistry, nor the
459 trace elements, seem to be a good proxy for feldspar anomalous fading (although we did not
460 apply multivariate analysis); however, our results show that the feldspar internal chemistry (i.e.
461 Ca content, Figure 5B) may be a first-order proxy for the IRSL₅₀ fading rate. Further
462 investigations are required to better understand the potential causes of fading rate variability in
463 bedrock feldspars; these include both internal factors (e.g. the origin of the IRSL₅₀ signal in Ca-
464 /Na-feldspars; e.g. Sohbaty et al., 2013) as well as external drivers, such as the metamorphic
465 grade or terrain age (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001), or weathering processes (Parish, 1992;
466 Huntley, 2011).

467 468 4.2. Implications for OSL thermochronometry

469 Our extensive bedrock dataset offers an opportunity to discuss the applicability of feldspar
470 IRSL₅₀ in OSL thermochronometry. First, the variability of the fading rates measured for both
471 K- and Ca-/Na-feldspars is significantly broader than those reported in previous OSL
472 thermochronometric studies (Guralnik et al., 2015a, King et al., 2016). This reinforces the
473 notion that anomalous fading in feldspar should be measured for each sample, as it can strongly
474 affect the natural IRSL₅₀ signal (Figure 3). Moreover, one further complexity in OSL

475 thermochronometry is that a sample's thermal history can be inverted only from the natural trap
476 filling $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$, and not from the equivalent dose alone (D_e) as in OSL sediment dating. This
477 prevents the application of classical fading correction schemes (e.g. Huntley and Lamothe,
478 2001) and requires the quantitative prediction of the field saturation level of the luminescence
479 signal (e.g. Kars et al., 2008; Li and Li, 2008) in order to screen for a potential "thermal
480 signature" in a given sample. For most of our samples, and within a wide range of fading rates,
481 the quantitative agreement of observed field saturation levels of the IRSL₅₀ signal with
482 numerical results from the standard tunnelling model (Huntley, 2006), coupled with a General-
483 Order Kinetics dose response (Guralnik et al., 2015c), confirms the need to include fading
484 measurements in preliminary screening of samples before any thermochronometric applications
485 using feldspar IRSL₅₀. This first-step investigation of the feldspar athermal stability would
486 ultimately be combined with the experimental characterisation of each sample's thermal
487 stability (Guralnik et al., 2015a; King et al., 2016), which can vary greatly between K- and Na-
488 /Ca-feldspars (e.g. Tso et al., 1996; Li et al., 1997) and thus significantly influence
489 thermochronometric interpretation.

490
491 Our sampling strategy, covering a wide range of exhumation rates (from 0.01 to 3 km Ma⁻¹),
492 provides further information regarding the range of applicability of feldspar IRSL₅₀ to OSL
493 thermochronometry in diverse natural settings. All GRA and SOG samples appear in field
494 saturation (Figure 4), with just one outlier per locality (GRA-BR and SOG-17). SOG-17 was a
495 translucent bedrock sample, which may immediately be suspected of suffering optical resetting
496 (in nature and/or during sample preparation), that may have biased the observed luminescence
497 signal to below the predicted field saturation level. GRA-BR is a spatial outlier within the GRA
498 dataset, situated at low-elevation within a very wide and deeply-carved valley. Pending
499 additional experimental confirmation (beyond the scope of this study), its deviation from field
500 saturation could potentially reflect recent accelerated exhumation by efficient glacial processes.
501 Finally, more than half of the YAK samples exhibit a thermal signature in their measured
502 natural IRSL₅₀ signal (Table 3 and Figure 4). Samples YAK-17/-18/-50 (all with a "thermal
503 signature") are located along a deeply-carved fjord with very high long-term exhumation rates
504 (2-3 km Ma⁻¹; Enkelmann et al., 2015). Interestingly, the field-saturated YAK-09/-13/-15/-19
505 also belong to this area but are located ~20 km eastwards along another smaller fjord
506 (Enkelmann et al., 2015). These spatial differences in IRSL₅₀ intensities would suggest spatial
507 variations in the late-Quaternary exhumation history of this area that were not detected by
508 higher-temperature thermochronometers (McAleer et al., 2009; Enkelmann et al., 2015) but

509 may be evidenced in our dataset. Finally, YAK-03/-07 exhibit exceptionally low natural trap
510 filling levels (Figure 4), which may have been caused by hydrothermal reheating from crustal
511 fluid circulations in a highly-fractured area (Fairweather Fault; McAleer et al., 2009), rather
512 than by extremely rapid bedrock cooling. Further work beyond the scope of the present study
513 will focus on constraining thermal kinetic parameters for these samples to derive their thermal
514 histories.

515
516 In summary, our dataset confirms that feldspar IRSL₅₀ would be applicable only in very
517 rapidly-exhuming settings (>1 km Ma⁻¹; e.g. King et al., 2016) or in high-temperature
518 environments such as boreholes or tunnels (>35 °C; Guralnik et al., 2015a). Feldspar
519 anomalous fading, even if correctly accounted for, ultimately reduces the trapped charge
520 capacity in a given crystal because of athermal instability, and thus initiates a faster arrival at
521 field saturation. This might preclude the applicability of feldspar IRSL₅₀ in OSL
522 thermochronometry. MET-pIRIR protocols (Li and Li, 2011a,b) offer the advantage of multi-
523 thermochronometric systems in a single mineral (Qin et al., 2015), with promising outcomes in
524 providing robust constraints on bedrock cooling rates over sub-Quaternary timescales (King et
525 al., 2016). Other feldspar protocols such as thermally-transferred IRSL (Reimann et al., 2015)
526 or pulsed IRSL₅₀ (although the thermal stability of pulsed IRSL₅₀ remains to be experimentally
527 constrained; Tsukamoto et al., 2006; Roskosch et al., 2015; Jain et al., 2015b) may also be
528 interesting to explore for thermochronometric application, providing that these protocols show
529 good luminescence characteristics as well as low thermal stability for bedrock feldspar extracts.
530 Alternatively, quartz protocols based on thermally-transferred OSL (Duller and Wintle, 2012),
531 Violet Stimulated Luminescence (VSL, Ankjærgaard et al., 2013; 2015) or (red-
532)thermoluminescence (TL or red TL, Schmidt et al., 2015; Tang and Li, 2015) could allow for
533 later saturation and thus a wider dating range in thermochronometry.

534

535 **5. Conclusions**

536 We report feldspar IRSL₅₀ luminescence characteristics, natural signal and anomalous
537 fading for 32 bedrock samples collected from a large variety of lithologies and exhumation
538 settings. Our results show that feldspar IRSL₅₀ signals from bedrock extracts are bright and
539 reproducible using established protocols in OSL dating. We measured a large variability in
540 IRSL₅₀ fading rates between samples. Our results show that it is essential to measure
541 anomalous fading and account for it on a sample-to-sample basis for OSL thermochronometry,
542 as it may otherwise obscure any thermochronometric information. Furthermore, we exploited

543 the wide range of observed fading rates to demonstrate the ability of electron tunnelling models
544 in quantitatively predicting the feldspar IRSL₅₀ level in field saturation for rather diverse
545 environmental conditions. While the potential causes for feldspar IRSL₅₀ fading still require
546 further investigation, our observations point towards a significant influence of Ca content in
547 feldspar on its anomalous fading rate. Finally, our results suggest that the applicability of
548 feldspar IRSL₅₀ in OSL thermochronometry would be limited to rapidly-exhuming settings (i.e.
549 >1 km Ma⁻¹) or warm subsurface environments (i.e. >35 °C).

550

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561

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808 Appendix A. Supplementary material

809 Supplementary material, including details about the dose rate scenarios (Table S1), full
810 geochemical reports (Tables S2-S4), supplementary experimental results (Table S5) and all
811 sample raw data (Table S6) related to this article can be found on-line at ...

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814 Figure captions

815 **Figure 1.** IRSL₅₀ dose-response curves (left panels) and fading experiments (central and right
816 panels) for representative samples GRA-08 (A-B-C), GRA-12 (D-E-F), SOG-06 (G-H-I) and
817 YAK-09 (J-K-L). See Tables 2 and 3 for experimental details and results, respectively. The
818 dose-response curves (left panels) have been obtained following the single aliquot
819 regenerative-dose (SAR) protocol for 3 individual aliquots. The natural luminescence signal
820 (white stars) and each regenerative dose (black circles) are normalised to a given test dose, and
821 used to build the dose-response curve (fitted by the GOK approach, black line and grey
822 envelope; α : electron-trapping order, D_0 : characteristic dose) and to calculate the sample
823 natural luminescence level (L_n/T_n) and natural trap filling $(n/N)_{nat}$ (Guralnik et al., 2015a).
824 Fading experiments, following the long-shine (central panels) and short-shine (right panels)
825 protocols, were used to derive the sample fading rate (sample-specific g_{2days} are given by the
826 slope of the black lines normalized to 2 days; Huntley and Lamothe, 2001).

827

828 **Figure 2.** Comparison of fading rate measurements (g_{2days}) using the short-shine and long-shine
829 methods (Table 3). The symbols represent individual GRA (black circles), YAK (grey squares)
830 and SOG (open triangles) samples. The dashed line defines the 1:1 relationship. The inset
831 shows a zoom-in to the low-fading rate region (dashed box in main panel).

832

833 **Figure 3.** Natural trap filling $(n/N)_{nat}$ and g_{2days} values (long-shine method, Table 3) for GRA
834 (black circles), YAK (grey squares) and SOG (open triangles) samples. Samples in field
835 saturation define a well-characterised inverse relationship between laboratory-measured fading
836 rates (g_{2days}) and the natural trap filling $(n/N)_{nat}$ values over a wide range of fading rates (from
837 ~0.5 to ~45 %/decade).

838

839 **Figure 4.** Predicted field saturation $(n/N)_{ss}$ vs. measured natural trap filling $(n/N)_{nat}$ for GRA
840 (circles), YAK (squares) and SOG (triangles) samples (A: lineal plot; B: logarithmic plot).
841 Symbols are coloured according to the individual sample g_{2days} values (see legend). Most of

842 analysed samples plot along the 1:1 relationship (dashed line), validating the approach of
843 Guralnik et al. (2015a) to numerically predict sample field saturation (after Huntley, 2006 and
844 Kars et al., 2008). Some samples have $(n/N)_{\text{nat}}$ below $0.85(n/N)_{\text{ss}}$ (dotted line), bearing potential
845 thermochronometric information. See text for details and discussion.

846
847 **Figure 5.** Feldspar geochemistry and laboratory-measured fading rate. (A) Whole-rock
848 representative oxides showing the lithological variability between analysed samples
849 (Supplementary Table S2). (B) Feldspar mineralogical compositions for a subset of samples
850 (Ab: albite; An: anorthite; Or: orthoclase; Supplementary Table S4). GRA: circles; YAK:
851 squares; SOG: triangles. Symbols are coloured according to the respective sample's $g_{2\text{days}}$ value
852 (see legend). See text for discussion.

Table 1. Overview of sample locations, lithology and climate, alongside measured radionuclides and calculated natural dose rate.

Sample	Latitude/ Longitude (°N)/(°W)	Elevation (m)	Lithology	Mean Annual Temperature ¹ (°C)	Whole-rock geochemistry ²			Feldspar minimum K_{int} ³ (%)	Natural dose rate D_{rate} ⁴ (Gy ka ⁻¹)
					U (ppm)	Th (ppm)	K (wt. %)		
<i>Granite Range (southern Alaska)</i>									
GRA-03	60.853/ 141.451	1419	Diorite	-5.8	0.4	1.1	0.79	0.7 ^a	1.12 (±0.24)
GRA-04	60.832/141.467	1761	Diorite	-4.5	0.2	0.6	0.82	1.7 ^a	1.22 (±0.23)
GRA-05	60.835/141.469	1995	Diorite	-6.3	0.4	1.1	0.86	1.4 ^a	1.31 (±0.14)
GRA-06	60.841/141.501	2388	Diorite	-6.8	0.3	0.5	0.76	1.0 ^a	1.06 (±0.14)
GRA-08	60.905/141.970	2188	Diorite	-7.3	0.3	0.8	0.97	1.4 ^a	1.34 (±0.13)
GRA-09	60.901/141.954	1691	Diorite	-5.7	0.1	0.1	0.50	0.8 ^a	0.70 (±0.15)
GRA-10	60.900/141.934	1412	Diorite	-4.2	0.3	1.1	2.02	3.9 ^a	2.72 (±0.53)
GRA-11	60.908/141.919	970	Diorite	-3	0.6	1.1	0.81	1.4 ^a	1.33 (±0.16)
GRA-12	60.991/142.763	1554	Schist	-2.5	0.3	0.5	1.03	1.9 ^b	1.46 (±0.22)
GRA-13	61.003/142.741	1253	Granitoïde	-1.5	1.2	9.4	0.72	1.9 ^b	2.37 (±0.61)
GRA-14	60.991/142.782	1979	Granitoïde	-4.2	0.9	1.3	1.09	1.9 ^b	1.79 (±0.20)
GRA-17	60.943/142.475	1818	Granitoïde	-6.1	0.3	0.5	0.61	1.9 ^b	1.11 (±0.35)
GRA-18	60.957/142.378	1395	Schist	-4.1	0.1	0.3	0.61	1.9 ^b	1.02 (±0.39)
GRA-19	61.008/142.362	720	Granitoïde	-1.4	1.6	3.6	0.73	1.9 ^b	1.95 (±0.39)
GRA-BR	61.109/142.420	392	Monzogranite	-0.2	1.6	3.9	2.17	4.2 ^a	3.62 (±0.49)
<i>Sognefjord (western Norway)</i>									
SOG-02	61.096/-5.681	33	Granitic gneiss	7.4	1.8	10.4	4.18	12.5 ^c	8.45 (±3.44)
SOG-06	61.155/-6.461	883	Granitic gneiss	2.4	2.2	8.3	5.13	12.5 ^c	9.01 (±3.01)
SOG-10	61.146/-6.542	47	Granitic gneiss	6.5	1.1	10.3	4.76	12.5 ^c	8.68 (±3.24)
SOG-17	61.233/-7.593	961	Granodiorite	1.1	0.2	0.2	4.13	12.5 ^c	7.51 (±3.94)
SOG-21	61.239/-7.664	10	Anorthosite	3.5	0.7	10.5	5.15	12.5 ^c	8.87 (±3.10)
SOG-22	61.263/-7.867	1274	Gabbro	-0.9	0.1	0.8	0.52	1.9 ^b	1.00 (±0.40)
SOG-25	61.272/-7.765	48	Anorthosite	4.8	0.6	5.5	5.30	12.5 ^c	8.65 (±3.19)
SOG-38	61.151/-6.728	21	Granitic gneiss	7.0	0.4	3.7	5.13	12.5 ^c	8.40 (±3.34)

<i>Yakutat terrane (southern Alaska)</i>									
YAK-03	59.813/138.912	5	Diorite	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.18	0.2 ^a	0.34 (±0.17)
YAK-07	59.843/139.162	2	Diorite	1.6	0.1	0.1	0.04	1.9 ^b	0.33 (±0.22)
YAK-09	59.825/138.986	0	Diorite	2.3	2.5	4.4	1.72	2.2 ^a	3.24 (±0.70)
YAK-13	59.647/139.296	2	Sandstone	3.5	1.7	6.3	1.37	1.9 ^b	2.80 (±0.63)
YAK-15	59.851/139.313	1	Sandstone	3.0	2	4.8	1.53	1.9 ^b	2.90 (±0.63)
YAK-17	59.974/139.450	2	Sandstone	2.2	1.4	3.9	0.62	1.9 ^b	1.74 (±0.39)
YAK-18	59.967/139.531	1	Sandstone	2.9	1.2	3.5	1.87	1.9 ^b	2.80 (±0.44)
YAK-19	59.597/139.342	2	Sandstone	3.2	1.6	3.2	1.89	4.2 ^a	3.12 (±0.37)
YAK-50	59.946/139.620	0	Sandstone	2.6	1.2	3.5	1.11	1.9 ^b	2.08 (±0.37)

Notes. ¹ Derived from Worldclim database (Hijmans et al., 2005). ² Measured on a Perkin Elmer Sciex ELAN 6100/9000 ICP-MS, with an estimated analytical precision of 2.3 (U), 3.4% (Th) and 1.2% (K). See Supplementary Tables S2-S3 for all elements and further details. ³ Measured or estimated as follows: ^a measured using the Risø XRF attachment (Kook et al., 2012); ^b assumed value for Na/Ca-feldspars (average of the Risø XRF data above) ^c assumed value for K-feldspars (Huntley and Baril, 1997; Barré and Lamothe, 2010) ⁴ For calculation of feldspar dose rates, we used conversion factors of Guérin et al. (2012), water content of 2(±2)%, and negligible cosmic radiation. The reported dose rates cover two (or four) end-member scenarios after Guralnik et al. 2015a (see Table S1). For K-feldspars, two end-member grain sizes were considered (180 and 1000 or 2500 µm); for Na/Ca-feldspars, two additional scenarios, in which the entire luminescence signal originates from K-feldspar inclusions (1 or 100 µm) were further included (Table S1).

Table 2. Laboratory protocols for luminescence measurements of feldspar IRSL₅₀.

Dose response SAR protocol ^a	Anomalous fading	
	SAR protocol, (Long-shine method ^b)	Short-shine method ^c
1. Give dose D_x	1. IRSL at 290 °C (200 s)	1. IRSL at 290 °C (200 s)
2. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)	2. Give dose D_{fading}	2. Give dose D_{fading}
3. IRSL at 50 °C (200 s) $\rightarrow L_x$	3. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)	3. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)
	4. Hold at room T °C for t_x s	4. Hold at room T °C for t_x s
	5. IRSL at 50 °C (200 s) $\rightarrow L_x$	5. IRSL at 50 °C (0.1 s) $\rightarrow L_x$
		6. Return to step 4
4. Give test dose D_{test}	6. Give test dose D_{test}	7. IRSL at 290 °C (200 s)
5. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)	7. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)	8. Give test dose D_{test}
6. IRSL at 50 °C (200 s) $\rightarrow T_x$	8. IRSL at 50 °C (200 s) $\rightarrow T_x$	9. Preheat (250 °C for 60 s)
7. IRSL at 290 °C (200 s)		10. IRSL at 50 °C (0.1 s) $\rightarrow T_x$
8. Return to step 1	9. Return to step 1	11. Return to step 10

Protocols adapted from Guralnik et al. (2015a). ^a The irradiation doses of the SAR dose response protocol (Wallinga et al., 2000) were $D_x = [0, 22, 44, 87, 175, 349, 698, 1396, 2792, 0, 87]$ Gy, and the test dose was $D_{test} = 44$ Gy. The first and the penultimate zero-doses (no irradiation) extract the natural dose and signal recuperation, respectively. ^b The irradiation and test doses of the long-shine fading experiment (Huntley and Lamothe, 2001) were $D_{fading} = 240$ Gy and $D_{test} = 44$ Gy, respectively, and the holding times were $t_x \approx [1200, 1200, 1200, 136660, 1200, 7970, 1200, 143450, 1200, 1200, 1200]$ s. ^c The short-shine fading experiment (Auclair et al., 2003) consisted of a single irradiation dose $D_{fading} = 72$ Gy which was given, followed by delay times of $t_x \approx 10^{2.34+0.37x}$ s, where $x = [1, 2, \dots, 8]$. The test dose was $D_{test} = 72$ Gy. L_x and T_x in both SAR protocols (left and central column) were derived by integrating the first 15 s of the stimulation curve (signal) after subtraction of the last 100 s (background). L_x and T_x of the short-shine experiment (right column) were derived by integrating the entire stimulation period of 0.1 s, after subtraction of a 20 ms background (immediately following the IRSL stimulation). *Note:* All preheats were done with a linear heating rate of 5 °C s⁻¹.

Table 3. Best-fit parameters and model results for feldspar IRSL₅₀.

Sample	Fitted kinetic parameters						Interpretation	
	D ₀ (Gy)	Electron-trapping order (α)	Long-shine g _{2days} (%/decade)	Long-shine log ₁₀ ρ'	Short-shine g _{2days} (%/decade)	Short-shine log ₁₀ ρ'	Observed (n/N) _{nat}	Predicted (n/N) _{ss}
GRA-03	1208 (\pm 59)	4	41.3 (\pm 1.2)	-4.69 (\pm 0.01)	47.7 (\pm 4.5)	-4.68 (\pm 0.03)	0.003 (\pm 0.003)	0.002 (\pm 0.0002)
GRA-04	1208 (\pm 75)	4	28.5 (\pm 0.7)	-4.81 (\pm 0.01)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.007 (\pm 0.005)	0.007 (\pm 0.001)
GRA-05	550 (\pm 71)	2.56 (\pm 0.82)	28.0 (\pm 1.0)	-4.82 (\pm 0.01)	23.5 (\pm 3.1)	-4.89 (\pm 0.04)	0.017 (\pm 0.003)	0.017 (\pm 0.004)
GRA-06	612 (\pm 29)	1.64 (\pm 0.26)	36.2 (\pm 1.4)	-4.74 (\pm 0.01)	23.3 (\pm 3.2)	-4.89 (\pm 0.05)	0.008 (\pm 0.002)	0.012 (\pm 0.002)
GRA-08	599 (\pm 31)	1.60 (\pm 0.28)	33.8 (\pm 0.8)	-4.75 (\pm 0.01)	29.9 (\pm 6.3)	-4.82 (\pm 0.07)	0.015 (\pm 0.003)	0.009 (+0.002/-0.003)
GRA-09	718 (\pm 115)	2.11 (\pm 0.86)	23.6 (\pm 0.6)	-4.88 (\pm 0.01)	22.2 (\pm 3.2)	-4.92 (\pm 0.05)	0.016 (\pm 0.007)	0.022 (\pm 0.006)
GRA-10	519 (\pm 36)	1.67 (\pm 0.38)	12.9 (\pm 0.3)	-5.10 (\pm 0.01)	14.3 (\pm 1.7)	-5.07 (\pm 0.04)	0.120 (\pm 0.027)	0.098 (+0.016/-0.012)
GRA-11	606 (\pm 73)	4	11.1 (\pm 0.6)	-5.16 (\pm 0.02)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.074 (\pm 0.015)	0.113 (+0.011/-0.012)
GRA-12	545 (\pm 10)	2.92 (\pm 0.12)	13.9 (\pm 0.3)	-5.08 (\pm 0.01)	14.2 (\pm 1.3)	-5.07 (\pm 0.03)	0.092 (\pm 0.005)	0.074 (+0.009/-0.007)
GRA-13	132 (\pm 3)	1.62 (\pm 0.08)	0.5 (\pm 0.3)	-6.50 (\pm 0.26)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.845 (\pm 0.024)	0.903 (+0.054/-0.023)
GRA-14	243 (\pm 4)	1.76 (\pm 0.07)	3.4 (\pm 0.3)	-5.65 (\pm 0.04)	3.7 (\pm 1.1)	-5.60 (\pm 0.13)	0.589 (\pm 0.017)	0.512 (+0.078/-0.061)
GRA-17	171 (\pm 2)	3.02 (\pm 0.11)	3.0 (\pm 0.6)	-5.70 (\pm 0.09)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.432 (\pm 0.015)	0.567 (+0.041/-0.093)
GRA-18	245 (\pm 3)	1.99 (\pm 0.07)	7.5 (\pm 0.4)	-5.32 (\pm 0.02)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.276 (\pm 0.013)	0.260 (+0.013/-0.020)
GRA-19	875 (\pm 36)	4	9.1 (\pm 2.0)	-5.24 (\pm 0.09)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.097 (\pm 0.014)	0.153 (+0.069/-0.037)
GRA-BR	433 (\pm 11)	4	5.0 (\pm 0.5)	-5.49 (\pm 0.04)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.234 (\pm 0.036)	0.376 (+0.028/-0.037)
SOG-02	688 (\pm 16)	1.57 (\pm 0.13)	8.6 (\pm 0.2)	-5.26 (\pm 0.01)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.172 (\pm 0.010)	0.229 (+0.015/-0.017)
SOG-06	613 (\pm 8)	1.41 (\pm 0.07)	4.3 (\pm 0.1)	-5.54 (\pm 0.01)	5.1 (\pm 1.0)	-5.47 (\pm 0.08)	0.409 (\pm 0.044)	0.444 (+0.09/-0.019)
SOG-10	588 (\pm 10)	1.75 (\pm 0.09)	4.6 (\pm 0.1)	-5.52 (\pm 0.01)	4.6 (\pm 0.7)	-5.52 (\pm 0.06)	0.403 (\pm 0.050)	0.444 (+0.010/-0.013)
SOG-17	384 (\pm 6)	1.87 (\pm 0.09)	3.7 (\pm 0.1)	-5.61 (\pm 0.01)	5.2 (\pm 0.3)	-5.47 (\pm 0.02)	0.294 (\pm 0.019)	0.448 (+0.006/-0.005)
SOG-21	717 (\pm 10)	2.21 (\pm 0.08)	8.5 (\pm 0.1)	-5.27 (\pm 0.01)	11.1 (\pm 0.5)	-5.16 (\pm 0.02)	0.164 (\pm 0.009)	0.180 (+0.011/-0.010)
SOG-22	236 (\pm 5)	1.30 (\pm 0.06)	4.0 (\pm 0.3)	-5.57 (\pm 0.03)	3.2 (\pm 0.4)	-5.67 (\pm 0.05)	0.519 (\pm 0.022)	0.480 (+0.049/-0.023)
SOG-25	567 (\pm 12)	2.11 (\pm 0.13)	5.2 (\pm 1.3)	-5.47 (\pm 0.10)	4.8 (\pm 2.1)	-5.50 (\pm 0.18)	0.359 (\pm 0.016)	0.408 (+0.057/-0.108)
SOG-38	552 (\pm 9)	2.19 (\pm 0.11)	3.9 (\pm 1.1)	-5.58 (\pm 0.12)	4.5 (\pm 0.5)	-5.52 (\pm 0.04)	0.439 (\pm 0.020)	0.446 (+0.049/-0.027)

YAK-03	349 (± 15)	1.72 (± 0.23)	12.6 (± 1.6)	-5.12 (± 0.05)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.034 (± 0.008)	0.094 (+0.039/-0.020)
YAK-07	276 (± 6)	1.51 (± 0.08)	4.1 (± 0.4)	-5.56 (± 0.04)	4.1 (± 2.3)	-5.56 (± 0.24)	0.011 (± 0.008)	0.443 (+0.112/-0.132)
YAK-09	194 (± 3)	1.70 (± 0.06)	3.3 (± 0.3)	-5.65 (± 0.04)	3.1 (± 0.3)	-5.67 (± 0.05)	0.549 (± 0.018)	0.577 (+0.022/-0.039)
YAK-13	431 (± 13)	2.44 (± 0.21)	5.5 (± 0.4)	-5.44 (± 0.03)	7.4 (± 1.7)	-5.32 (± 0.09)	0.250 (± 0.023)	0.289 (+0.046/-0.025)
YAK-15	271 (± 11)	2.32 (± 0.29)	4.1 (± 0.5)	-5.56 (± 0.05)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.427 (± 0.071)	0.447 (+0.045/-0.024)
YAK-17	443 (± 22)	4	6.8 (± 0.5)	-5.36 (± 0.03)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.125 (± 0.036)	0.254 (+0.017/-0.020)
YAK-18	405 (± 7)	2.24 (± 0.11)	8.1 (± 0.4)	-5.29 (± 0.02)	5.5 (± 1.0)	-5.44 (± 0.08)	0.204 (± 0.007)	0.282 (+0.024/-0.020)
YAK-19	905 (± 13)	4	7.2 (± 0.6)	-5.33 (± 0.03)	Low signal-to-noise ratio		0.121 (± 0.014)	0.233 (+0.019/-0.022)
YAK-50	390 (± 7)	2.36 (± 0.12)	4.1 (± 0.3)	-5.57 (± 0.03)	3.3 (± 1.1)	-5.66 (± 0.15)	0.124 (± 0.005)	0.476 (+0.090/-0.038)

Notes. Dose response curves (with recycling ratio within 10% of unity) have been fitted using the General-Order Kinetics GOK function (Guralnik et al., 2015a,c), to obtain the characteristic dose D_0 and the kinetic order α (note: a limiting value of $\alpha = 4$ was adopted for a few datasets which did not exhibit sufficient flattening off of the luminescence signal at high doses). Fading decay curves were fitted (a) following Huntley and Lamothe (2001) to obtain the g -value (normalized to 2 days); (b) following Huntley (2006) to obtain the density of recombination centres ρ' (reported as $\log_{10}\rho'$), assuming an escape frequency factor of $3 \times 10^{15} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Huntley, 2006). Results of the short-shine method were accepted only when there existed two replicates with acceptable signal to noise ratio (luminescence signal ten times higher than background). Natural trap filling (n/N_{nat} ; reported as mean and std. dev.) and predicted field saturation (n/N_{ss} ; reported as median and 68% conf. int.) were derived following Guralnik et al. (2015a), the latter using a Monte-Carlo approach (1000 iterations, each with randomized input of the kinetic parameters and the dose rate; note that wherever possible, an average ρ' between the long- and short-shine experiments was used). Laboratory dose rates vary between 0.099 and 0.207 Gy s^{-1} for the different instruments used.







