Testing the potential of using fine quartz for dating loess in South Island, New Zealand

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Abstract

The applicability of optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) dating on quartz from South Island, New Zealand is hampered by the poor behaviour of the targeted signals. However, most OSL dating studies have been focused on using coarse quartz fractions. Since a previous study conducted from a nearby site demonstrated that coarse quartz (63-90, 90-125, 125-180 and 180-250 μm) is not suitable for OSL dating, we attempt using fine quartz here. Therefore, the standard SAR protocol and two elevated temperature post-infrared infrared protocols ($pIRIR_{225}$ and $pIRIR_{290}$) were applied on 4-11 μm quartz and polymineral grains extracted from a loess/paleosol section. Unlike the coarser fractions, the OSL signal of fine quartz displayed satisfactory characteristics which allowed estimating ages ranging from 0.3±0.04 ka to 16±1 ka. On the other hand, pIRIR ages overestimate quartz ages by 19 to 122 % in the case of the application of the $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol and by 25 to 217% in the case of the application of the $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol. While in the case of the $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol, the overestimation can be partially attributed to unsatisfactory behaviour in terms of dose recovery tests, the age differences between fine quartz and polymineral fine grains $pIRIR_{225}$ are not fully explained. In order to understand the differences between the two quartz fractions, we characterise fine (4-11μm) as well as the usually used coarser grain sizes (> 63 μm) of quartz by electron spin resonance

(ESR). No significant differences are reported in qualitative terms between the grain sizes investigated and calibration quartz. We report a higher abundance of intrinsic defects in the fine grain fraction; however, this is typical for quartz from other regions as well, that was amendable for OSL dating.

1. Introduction

Loess deposits of New Zealand are considered important archives for paleoclimate reconstruction of the southern hemisphere (**Alloway et al., 2007**), thus recent studies have been centred in establishing high-resolution chronologies.

Optically Stimulated Luminescence Dating (OSL) represents one of the most used dating techniques for Quaternary climate reconstruction. Its applicability has been successful for loess deposits located over both northern and southern hemispheres, respectively (**Roberts 2008, 2015**). However, since luminescence dating has been perceived to be challenging for loess sediments from South Island of New Zealand, few OSL studies have been reported so far (e.g., **Holdaway et al., 2002; Rowan et al., 2012; Sohbati et al., 2016; Micallef et al., 2021; Brezeanu et al., 2021**). Even though quartz is considered the preferred dosimeter when young sediments have to be dated due to the higher bleachability of the signal, it is well known that South Island quartz suffers from major problems that restrain its application, namely the weak sensitivity of the signal, with the signal originating from many dim grains and the poor behaviour exhibited in the single aliquot regenerative dose (SAR) protocol (**Preusseur et al., 2006**). These issues have been attributed by the aforementioned study to the short sedimentation history of the mineral grains, as it was reported that quartz sensitisation can be achieved by repeated irradiation/bleaching cycles. A recent study by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** confirmed that the OSL signals of coarse (>63 μm) quartz displayed low-sensitivity and a significant sensitivity-changes during the repeated SAR cycles. Despite these limitations, there are few OSL studies that reported ages on quartz in New Zealand (e.g., **Holdaway et al., 2002; Nichol et al., 2003; Rowan et al., 2012; Hornblow et al., 2014; Sohbati et al., 2016**). **Holdaway et**

al., 2002 reported luminescence ages on 90-125 μm quartz that were in agreement with ^{14}C ages for colluvial sediments from Otago, South Island of New Zealand. Later**, Rowan et al., 2012** have successfully obtained a luminescence chronology for glaciofluvial sediments from Canterbury Plains of South Island using 180-211 μm quartz. Moreover, a more recent study conducted by **Sohbati et al., 2016** reported a good agreement between 40-63 μm quartz SAR-OSL and $pIRIR_{290}$ luminescence ages in the attempt to refine palaeorockfall chronologies in New Zealand using luminescence dating.

Since the applicability of luminescence dating on quartz grains extracted from New Zealand sediments is not always a viable solution, other luminescence studies conducted on South Island considered that using infrared stimulated luminescence (IRSL) signal on coarse K-rich feldspars (**Preusseur et al., 2005**) or on polymineral fine grains (e.g., **Berger et al., 2001, 2002; Hormes et al., 2003; Rother et al., 2009; Almond et al., 2001, 2007; Schulmeister et al., 2010**) is a more appropriate solution for obtaining luminescence chronologies. It is well known that IRSL signal of feldspars suffers from anomalous fading and thus recent studies have developed measurements protocols that are able to circumvent fading. Such protocols consist of a double IR stimulation and they are known as post infrared-infrared stimulated luminescence protocols, $pIRIR_{225}$ and $pIRIR_{290}$. Even though, these pIRIR protocols have been successfully applied on coarse K-feldspars as well as on polymineral fine grains extracted from loess deposits all over the world (e.g**., Roberts 2008; Buylaert et al., 2009, 2011; Thiel et al., 2011; Vasiliniuc et al., 2012; Yi et al., 2016; Bösken et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Veres et al., 2018; Avram et al., 2020; Avram et al., 2022)**, their potential has not been fully explored on New Zealand sediments. Only three dating studies have reported $pIRIR_{290}$ luminescence ages (**Sohbati et al., 2016; Micallef et al., 2021; Brezeanu et al., 2021**) and two studies presented $pIRIR_{225}$ (**Micallef et al., 2021; Brezeanu et al., 2021**) chronologies on loess extracted from South Island of New Zealand.

To our knowledge, all quartz luminescence ages reported so far in literature were determined using coarse grains quartz (>63 μm), in this study we attempt for the first time to apply SAR-OSL protocol on fine (4-11 μm) quartz extracted from loess in the Canterbury Plains of South Island, New Zealand. In order to validate the quartz ages, $pIRIR_{225}$ as well as $pIRIR_{290}$ protocols have been applied on polymineral fine grains extracted from the same samples.

2. Site description

The foothills of the Southern Alps as well as the lowlands of the Canterbury Plains represent the regions with the widest distribution of loess deposits in South Island of New Zealand (**Yates et al., 2018**).

The investigated site (44.014973 °S, 171.891569 °E) is located on the southern part of the Canterbury Plains and the eastern side of the South Island of New Zealand (**Figure S1**). Three modern rivers namely Rakaia, Rangitata and Ashburton flow perpendicularly to the eastern coastal cliff in the Canterbury Plains, discharging into the Pacific Ocean. The loess section is situated nearby the site investigated by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** and therefore a more detailed description of the area can be found in their study.

Luminescence investigations have been performed on seven samples collected at a resolution of 20 cm. The uppermost sample, NZ 6 was collected from a depth of 10 cm while the last sample NZ 12 was collected at a depth of 130 cm.

ESR analysis presented in this study have been performed on sample NZ3 as various grain sizes were available from that specific sample, collected from the loess profile investigated by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)**.

3. Methodology

Sample preparation

Stainless steel tubes were used for collecting the luminescence sample. The minerals of interest were extracted under subdued red light laboratory conditions. The material from the end of each tube was removed and used for gamma spectrometry measurements. The material from the inner part of the tube was used for 4-11 μm quartz and polymineral grains extraction. In the first step of sample preparation the calcium carbonates and the organic matter were removed by employing a treatment with hydrochloric acid (10% concentration) and hydrogen peroxide (10% concentration followed by 30%). Minerals with diameters smaller than 63 microns were separated by wet sieving. The fine (4-11 μm) polymineral mixture was obtained after Stoke's law settling followed by centrifugation in distilled water (**Frechen et al., 1996; Lang et al., 1996**). A 10 days treatment with hexafluorosilicic acid was employed in order to isolate the fine (4-11 μm) quartz fraction from the polymineral combination. The extraction procedure for quartz fractions larger than 63 μm (63-90 μm, 90-125 μm, 125-180 μm, 180-250 μm) is described in **Brezeanu et al. (2021)**. Both fine quartz and polymineral grains were mounted on aluminium disks for luminescence measurements.

Analytical Facilities

Luminescence investigations were carried out using a Risø TL-OSL reader (model DA-20) equipped with an automated detection and stimulation head (DASH) (**Lapp et al., 2015**). The intensity of the blue (470 nm) and infrared (850 nm) LEDs deliver 80 and 300 mW/cm^2, respectively. Luminescence signals were detected by using PDM 9107Q-AP-TTL-03 (160-630 nm) photomultiplier tubes (**Thomsen et al., 2006**). Quartz signals A 7.5-mm-thick Hoya U-340 UV filter was used for quartz signal determination while the polymineral signals were detected by using a blue filter combination (Schott BG39 + Corning 7-59, with transmission between 320 and 460 nm). A radioactive source of ^{90}Sr-^{90}Y was used for laboratory irradiation. The beta source was calibrated using gamma-irradiated calibration quartz (**Hansen et al., 2015**).

The polymineral fine grains aliquots used for residual dose and dose recovery measurements were exposed to window light under natural conditions in order to remove the natural signal.

ESR measurements were performed on an X band Bruker EMX Plus Spectrometer. All samples were placed in quartz glass tubes filled by maintaining the same volume, with a mass between 100 and 200 mg, and the measurements were normalized to 100 mg for inter-comparison. Each sample was measured 3 times and rotated in the cavity between the measurements. Exposure of samples to sunlight during measurements was restricted to a minimum. Measurements were carried out at 90 K (in liquid nitrogen) for Al-h and Ti centres, and at room temperature for E' and "peroxy" centres. Al-h and "peroxy" spectra were acquired using the following settings: 3350 ± 200 G scanned magnetic field, modulation amplitude 1 G, modulation frequency 100 kHz, microwave power 2 mW, conversion time 50 ms, time constant 40 ms. For Ti measurements the settings were: 3490± 110 G scanned magnetic field, modulation amplitude 1 G, modulation frequency 100 kHz, microwave power 10.0 mW, conversion time 10 ms, time constant 20.48 ms, and 10 scans per measurement. For E' spectra the settings were: 3363 ± 10 G scanned magnetic field, modulation amplitude 0.1 G, modulation frequency 100 kHz, microwave power 0.02 mW, conversion time 30 ms, time constant 20.48 ms, and 3 scans per measurement. Baseline correction was performed using Bruker's Xenon software.

Equivalent dose determination

Quartz equivalent dose determination has been carried out by using the standard Single Aliquot Regenerative dose (SAR) protocol (**Murray and Wintle 2000, 2003**) whereas polymineral fine grains equivalent doses were measured by applying two elevated temperature post-infrared infrared stimulation protocols, namely $pIRIR_{225}$ (**Roberts 2008; Buylaert et al., 2009**) and $pIRIR_{290}$ (**Buylaert et al., 2011a; Thiel et al.,**

2011). The protocols are outlined in **Table S1** while a more detailed description of the protocols is found in Supplementary material.

Dosimetry

High-resolution gamma spectrometry was used for the specific radionuclide activities determination using a well-type HPGe detector. In order to reach the equilibrium of ^{222}Rn with its parent ^{226}Ra, samples were stored for 1 month before measurements. The annual dose rates were derived following the conversion factors tabulated by **Guérin et al. (2011)**. An alpha efficiency factor of 0.04±0.02 was taken into account for 4-11 μm quartz while for the polymineral fine grains the assumed alpha efficiency value was 0.08±0.02 (**Rees-Jones, 1995**). The time averaged water content was assumed to be 15% with a relative error of 25%. The water content was chosen to represent the mean value of the sediment moisture over the entire depositional history. Similar values were used for dating sediments from Canterbury Plains and Banks Peninsula, respectively (**Rowan et al., 2012; Sohbati et al., 2016; Brezeanu et al., 2021**). The cosmic dose rate was estimated as function of depth, altitude and geomagnetic latitude using the formula proposed by **Prescott and Hutton (1994)**. Given the size of fine grains (4-11 μm), any dose rate derived from internal alpha activity was assumed to be negligible. The specific radionuclide activities and annual doses are presented in **Table 1**.

4. Results and Discussion

Luminescence properties – Quartz

Equivalent doses on fine quartz were determined by interpolating the sensitivity corrected natural OSL signal onto the dose response curve. **Figure 1** shows a representative SAR growth curve and OSL decay curves for a single aliquot of fine quartz extracted from sample NZ 7. The natural and regenerative OSL signal exhibits a similar pattern to the decay measured for calibration quartz during the first seconds of stimulation, which is accepted as being dominated by the fast

component (**Hansen et al., 2015**). The dose response curve was best described by a sum of two saturating exponential functions. Recycling and IR depletion ratios were within 10% deviation from unity which demonstrates that sensitivity corrections are properly made and the quartz signals are pure. Recuperation ratio was less than 2% indicating that the growth curves pass very close to the origin and thermal transfer during the repeated SAR cycle is negligible.

(**Figure 1**)

Preheat plateau

The dependency of the equivalent doses on the preheat temperature was investigated through the preheat plateau test. Sample NZ 7 was divided in sets of five aliquots. For each set, a preheat temperature ranging from 180 to 280 ^{0}C was applied. A test dose cutheat of 180 ^{0}C was employed throughout the measurements. As can be seen from **Figure S2**, the equivalent doses do not display any significant variation over the investigated interval of preheat temperatures. The results of the intrinsic SAR tests were satisfactory for all the aliquots measured.

Dose recovery test

Further, a dose recovery test has been performed on six samples (NZ 6, NZ 7, NZ 8, NZ 9, NZ 10 and NZ 11) in order to investigate whether the SAR protocol can successfully determine a known laboratory dose prior to any thermal treatment (**Murray and Wintle, 2003**). Sets of five aliquots from each sample were used. The natural signals were bleached by a repeated exposure to blue LEDs for 100 s at room temperature with a pause of 10 ks. The aliquots were irradiated with a beta dose chosen to approximate the natural dose and measured by using the SAR protocol in the same manner as measuring the equivalent dose. **Figure S3** represents the results of the dose recovery test. As can be seen, the dose recovery results for all samples documented here were satisfactory indicating that the SAR protocol can successfully recover laboratory doses up to 46 Gy.

Equivalent doses

The measured quartz equivalent doses are summarized in **Table 1**. At least 10 aliquots were measured for each sample in order to calculate the final equivalent dose.

The OSL equivalent doses range from 1.3±0.1 Gy obtained for sample NZ 6 collected from a depth of 10 cm to 46±1 Gy for sample NZ 11 which was collected from a depth of 109 cm.

(**Table 1**)

Luminescence properties – Polymineral fine grains

Equivalent doses measured on polymineral fine grains were determined by interpolating the natural sensitivity corrected IRSL signal onto the dose response curve constructed for each sample using both pIRIR protocols. **Figure 2** displays a representative growth curve of sample NZ 7 constructed by applying $pIRIR_{225}$ (**Figure 2a**) and $pIRIR_{290}$ (**Figure 2b**) protocols, respectively. A comparison between the decay curve of the natural signal and the pattern of a regenerative signal is shown in the insets of **Figure 2**. The dose response curves constructed using both pIRIR protocols were best fitted using a sum of two saturating exponential functions. The measured equivalent doses obtained on $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol range from 7.5±0.5 Gy for the youngest sample NZ 6 to 79±2 Gy for sample NZ 10. On the other hand, $pIRIR_{290}$ equivalent doses vary between 23±2 Gy for sample NZ 6 and 121±5 Gy for sample NZ10. pIRIR measured equivalent doses for each sample investigated here are labelled in **Table 1**.

(**Figure 2**)

Residual doses

It is well known that pIRIR signals are more difficult to be reset than OSL signals (e.g., **Buylaert et al., 2009, 2012; Thiel et al., 2011**). Many studies reported residual

doses of a few Grays obtained even after long exposure of the aliquots to sunlight or solar simulator (e.g., **Buylaert et al., 2011a, 2012; Stevens et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2012; Yi et al., 2016, 2018; Avram et al., 2020; 2022; Brezeanu et al., 2021**). Moreover, from long-term bleaching experiments using $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol **Yi et al. (2016, 2018)** reported that for $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol, a constant residual dose of ~6±1 Gy and ~4±1 Gy is achieved after 300 h beaching in solar simulator for samples collected from Chinese loess. Based on the aforementioned information, the residual dose corrections should be cautiously evaluated especially when dealing with young samples.

The assessment of the residual level has been made on five aliquots of each sample. The natural signal has been erased by exposing the aliquots to sunlight for 30 days prior to measurements. Residual doses obtained using $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol range from 2.1±0.4 Gy for the youngest sample with a measured equivalent dose of 7.5±0.5 Gy to 3.2±0.3 Gy for a sample with a measured equivalent dose of 63±1 Gy. On the other hand, the $pIRIR_{290}$ residual doses vary from 4±1 Gy for the youngest sample with a measured equivalent dose of 23±2 Gy to 6.5±1 Gy for a sample with a measured equivalent dose of 107±6 Gy. The values obtained on each sample are displayed in **Table S2**. Similar values of residual dose were obtained by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** for samples with comparable measured equivalent doses of ~84 Gy and ~120 Gy, respectively. In their study, **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** reported that a constant residual dose of ~4±1 Gy has been reached after 48 h exposure to sunlight for $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol while in the case of $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol, a constant level of ~10±1 Gy was achieved after 96 h of bleaching for New Zealand loess. They mentioned that such values are in line with those measured after a 30 days exposure to sunlight.

Since it is still questionable whether the natural bleaching condition can be thoroughly replicated in laboratory, it is advisable to use a modern analogue sample for residual dose corrections, as well. In this case, the NZ 6 sample was used as a modern sample. As such, an equivalent dose of 7.5±0.5 Gy was measured using

pIRIR$_{225}$ protocol and 22.8±1.5 Gy using pIRIR$_{290}$ protocol, respectively. Based on the laboratory residuals, we considered these values as the maximum residual doses. Thus, the residual dose correction has been performed by using both laboratory and modern analogue doses (**Table 1**).

Dose recovery test

The reliability of the measurement protocols was achieved through a dose recovery test (**Murray 1996; Wallinga et al., 2000**) on five aliquots from samples NZ 6, NZ 7 and NZ 8. The natural signals were removed by exposing the aliquots to window light for 30 days. Then, the aliquots were irradiated with known laboratory doses that were chosen to approximate the measured equivalent dose. To quantify the accuracy of the protocols to measure laboratory given doses, a ratio between the recovered and given dose was calculated. The results of the dose recovery tests for both pIRIR protocols are showed in **Figure 3**. As can be seen, dose recovery ratios obtained for pIRIR$_{225}$ protocol range from 0.98±0.02 for sample NZ 7 to 1.01±0.06 for sample NZ 6 while the pIRIR$_{290}$ protocol dose recovery ratios vary from 1.07±0.06 obtained for sample NZ 6 to 1.23±0.05 calculated for sample NZ 8. These results showed that pIRIR$_{225}$ protocol can successfully recover known doses over the dose interval investigated here, while for pIRIR$_{290}$ protocol some degree of overestimation is observed. A recent study conducted by **Avram et al. (2022)** showed that pIRIR$_{290}$ dose recovery ratios overestimate unity between 12% and 46% for given doses that range from ~100 Gy to ~850 Gy.

(**Figure 3**)

Some previous studies attributed the poor results of the pIRIR$_{290}$ dose recovery test to the incorrect measurement of the residual dose (e.g., **Thomsen et al., 2008; Buylaert et al., 2012**). In order to circumvent the potential contribution due to inaccurate estimation for residual doses, a dose recovery test can be carried out by adding laboratory beta doses on top of the natural dose. As such, dose recovery test

results are further determined as a ratio between the measured dose and the sum of the natural and additional irradiated dose (equivalent dose + given dose on top) (**Buylaert et al., 2011b; Yi et al., 2018**).

In this study, five aliquots from samples NZ 6 (measured De=23±2 Gy), NZ 7(measured De=111±5 Gy), NZ 8 (measured De=114±5 Gy) and NZ 9 (measured De=107±6 Gy) were irradiated on top of the natural signal with a beta dose of 100 Gy. As such, for the total dose (natural+given dose) of 123 Gy (NZ 6) a dose recovery ratio of 1.08±0.03 was obtained whereas for sample NZ 8 with a total dose of 214 Gy was calculated a ratio of 1.25±0.06. The results for each sample are represented in **Figure 3**. These results confirm our previous observation that in the case of $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol, a dose overestimation is achieved.

Fading

Feldspars are known to suffer from anomalous fading phenomenon (**Wintle 1973; Spooner 1992, 1994**), which is described as the luminescence signal loss under ambient temperature. The percentage of the signal that was lost over a decade can be quantified in term of fading rates (**Aitken 1985**).

The $pIRIR_{290}$ natural signal is considered to be a stable signal since **Thiel et al. (2011)** reported for the first time that the natural $pIRIR_{290}$ signal for an old sample is in saturation and thus the ages do not need any further fading corrections. Later, these findings were also confirmed by other studies (e.g., **Stevens et al., 2011; Buylaert et al., 2011a; Thomsen et al., 2011; Veres et al., 2018; Avram et al., 2020**).

To investigate the degree of signal loss for the $pIRIR_{225}$ natural signals, five aliquots from sample NZ 7, NZ 9 and NZ 11 were used for fading measurements. The aliquots used for this experiment were also used for dose recovery test. Firstly, each aliquot from each sample was irradiated with a beta dose of 100 Gy. The test dose magnitude was kept as in the equivalent dose measurements. Four consecutive reads-out were implied prior to the fading measurement. For each sample, different

storage time ranging between 2 h and 2 days were used. A preheat treatment was included prior to storage. The results of the fading test are presented in **Table S3**. For all samples, the variation of the measured fading rates for each aliquot is small. For sample NZ 7 a g-value of 1.06±0.16 %/decade was measured whereas for sample NZ 11 the average measured fading rate was 1.03±0.28. On the other hand, a negative fading rate value of -0.04±0.03 was measured for sample NZ 9. Such low values for the fading rates are considered to be laboratory artefact (**Vasiliniuc et al., 2012**) and the $pIRIR_{225}$ ages do not need any correction for fading (**Avram et al., 2020; Brezeanu et al., 2021; Avram et al., 2022**). Therefore, in the further sections are discussed the uncorrected pIRIR ages.

ESR investigations

As the poor luminescence properties of coarse quartz in the region are well known (**Preusser et al., 2006**) and were characterised in detail at a nearby site (**Brezeanu et al., 2021**), it is important to gain a better understanding of the intrinsic and extrinsic defects that exist in the fine fraction compared to the coarser fractions given that it was shown above that the first is amendable to the application of OSL dating, on the contrary to the latter. In this respect, ESR analysis have been performed on different grain sizes of quartz (4-11 μm, 63-90 μm, 90-125μm, 125-180μm and 180-250μm) extracted from sample NZ 3 which was collected from the nearby loess profile investigated by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)**, as this was the only sample from which sufficient amount of quartz of different grain sizes could be extracted for analysis. Luminescence properties of coarser fractions of quartz were thoroughly described in **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** while 4-11 μm quartz fraction of sample NZ 3 presents similar luminescence characteristics as those displayed by the investigated samples from this study (NZ 6-NZ 12), and an equivalent dose of 29±3 Gy was determined by measuring 8 aliquots.

Figure 4 presents the ESR spectra of the different grain sizes of quartz compared to calibration quartz, a 180–250 μm quartz fraction separated from aeolian sand from

Rømø, Jutland, Denmark, provided by Risø National Laboratory (**Hansen et al., 2015**) and investigated by ESR in **Timar-Gabor (2018)**. No significant differences regarding the presence of paramagnetic species were observed between the investigated NZ3 sample and the calibration quartz.

(**Figure 4**)

The intensities of ESR signals were given in **Table 2**. The intensity of Al-h signal was determined from peak-to-peak amplitude measurements between the top of the first peak (g = 2.018) to the bottom of the last peak (g = 1.993) (**Toyoda and Falguères, 2003**). For the Ti centre the intensities were obtained using "options A, B and D" described in **Duval and Guilarte (2015)** and **Duval et al. (2017)**, associated with a mixture of Ti-H and Ti-Li centers. Option A was measured from the top of g = 1.979 to the bottom of the peak around g = 1.913-1.915, option B as a peak-to-peak amplitude of the signal at g = 1.931 and option D as a peak-to-baseline amplitude of the signal g = 1.913-1.915. The intensity of the E' signal was evaluated from the peak-to-peak height of the signal, and for "peroxy" signal it was determined from the peak-to-peak height from g ≈ 2.003 to g ≈ 2.009 **(Odom and Rink, 1989**).

(**Table 2)**

ESR spectra of Al-h centre (**Figure 4a**) show a significant contribution from the "peroxy" signal, which is relatively strong in these samples (**Figure 4c**). Al-h and "peroxy" signals are considerably stronger in 4-11 μm quartz, compared to other fractions, about 3 and 4 times higher than in the case of 63-90 μm fraction, for Al-h and "peroxy" respectively. Interestingly, Ti signals are very weak in all of the investigated samples, especially in the 4-11μm fraction (**Figure 4b**), for which the intensity amounts to 40-60% of the intensity observed for 63-90 μm fraction. E' signal intensity in the smallest fraction is about 3 times bigger than in 63-90 μm fraction, and reduces with increasing grain size (**Figure 4d**). General trends observed in the case of fine grains compared to the coarse ones – a higher intensity of Al-h, "peroxy"

and E' signals, as well as very low intensity of Ti centres, are the same as reported in **Timar-Gabor 2018** for samples which displayed a very good OSL behaviour (quartz from loess from Roxolany, Ukraine (**Anechitei-Deacu et al., 2018**) and Stayky, Ukraine (**Veres et al., 2018**). This suggests that the cause of the poor OSL properties of the investigated coarse grained quartz samples might be connected with some non-paramagnetic species, which cannot be detected by ESR spectroscopy.

5. Luminescence Ages

Luminescence ages obtained by using SAR-OSL protocol on fine quartz as well as $pIRIR_{225}$ and $pIRIR_{290}$ protocols, respectively, are presented in **Table 1** along with the dosimetry data. Only the pIRIR ages calculated with the modern analogue correction are discussed in this section.

Fine quartz luminescence ages range from 0.3±0.04 ka for sample NZ 6 which was collected from the uppermost part of the section to 13±2 ka for sample NZ 9.

The $pIRIR_{225}$ ages calculated using a residual dose correction based on the modern analogue sample range between 14±1 ka for sample NZ 7 and 18±2 ka for sample NZ 9 for $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol. On the other hand, luminescence ages measured using $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol, vary from 20±2 ka for sample NZ 7 to 27±3 ka for sample NZ 9. As can be seen, the $pIRIR_{290}$ luminescence ages are slightly higher than those measured using $pIRIR2_{225}$ protocol. Such age discrepancy between the two pIRIR protocols over this age interval has been previously observed in several studies, such as on European loess (**Zhang et al., 2018; Avram et al., 2020**) and on New Zealand loess (**Micallef et al., 2021; Brezeanu et al., 2021**), respectively.

The two sets of pIRIR ages calculated based on modern analogue correction along with the fine quartz SAR-OSL ages are presented in **Figure S4** as function of depth. An age reversal can be observed between sample NZ 9 and NZ 10, and occur between a depth of ~70 cm and ~130 cm. Such age reversal has been previously observed at the same depths from a nearby loess site by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** as

well as by others in the Canterbury region (e.g., **Berger et al., 2001; Almond et al., 2007; Rowan et al., 2012**).

As can be seen from **Figure S4**, an age discrepancy between the three sets of ages is displayed. Based on dose recovery test results as well as on the previous findings (e.g., **Veres et al., 2018; Avram et al., 2020; 2022**), we interpret the $pIRIR_{290}$ ages as being overestimated. Moreover, the SAR-OSL fine quartz and $pIRIR_{225}$ ages are not in agreement even though the behaviour in the SAR procedure was satisfactory for both minerals. The $pIRIR_{225}$ age for sample NZ 7 (14±1 ka) collected from a depth of 30 cm is similar with that obtained by **Brezeanu et al. (2021)** for sample NZ 2 (14±1 ka) which was collected from the same depth. Such overlapping was also found for samples collected from a depth of ~50 and ~130 cm, respectively. As there is evidence that reliable age up to ~50 ka can be obtained on fine quartz (e.g., **Timar-Gabor and Wintle 2013., Avram et al., 2020**), the differences between the OSL and $pIRIR_{225}$ ages reported here require further investigations.

6. Summary and Conclusions

In this study the SAR-OSL protocol has been applied for the first time on fine quartz alongside $pIRIR_{225}$ and $pIRIR_{290}$ protocols on polymineral fine grains for dating seven samples of loess from an exposure in Southern Canterbury Plains South Island of New Zealand. Luminescence behaviour of fine quartz in the SAR procedure was investigated in the regard of IR depletion test, preheat plateau test and dose recovery tests, respectively. The satisfactory results that have been obtained for all the investigated tests have led to obtaining for the first-time fine quartz luminescence ages for the investigated loess profile. Moreover, two sets of pIRIR ages have been also determined on polymineral fine grains extracted from the same samples. All three sets of ages range up to 13 ±2 ka (fine quartz), 18±2 ka ($pIRIR_{225}$) and 27±3 ka ($pIRIR_{290}$), respectively suggesting that loess from the investigated profile was

accumulated during the last glacial maximum. As coarse quartz fractions were not amendable for OSL dating ESR investigations were performed on different grain sizes of quartz. The main ESR impurity defects (Al and Ti centres) as well as the most dominant intrinsic defects (E` and "peroxy") showed trends similar to those previously reported for samples characterised by a very good OSL behaviour, namely a higher intensity of Al-h, "peroxy" and E' signals, and much lower intensity of Ti signals observed in the case of fine grains compared to the coarse grains. The lack of significant differences in ESR signals between the samples suitable for OSL dating such as calibration quartz and other samples previously investigated and the New Zealand samples which display a poor luminescence behaviour suggest that the factors leading to the different OSL characteristics might be connected with some non-paramagnetic species, which cannot be detected by ESR spectroscopy.

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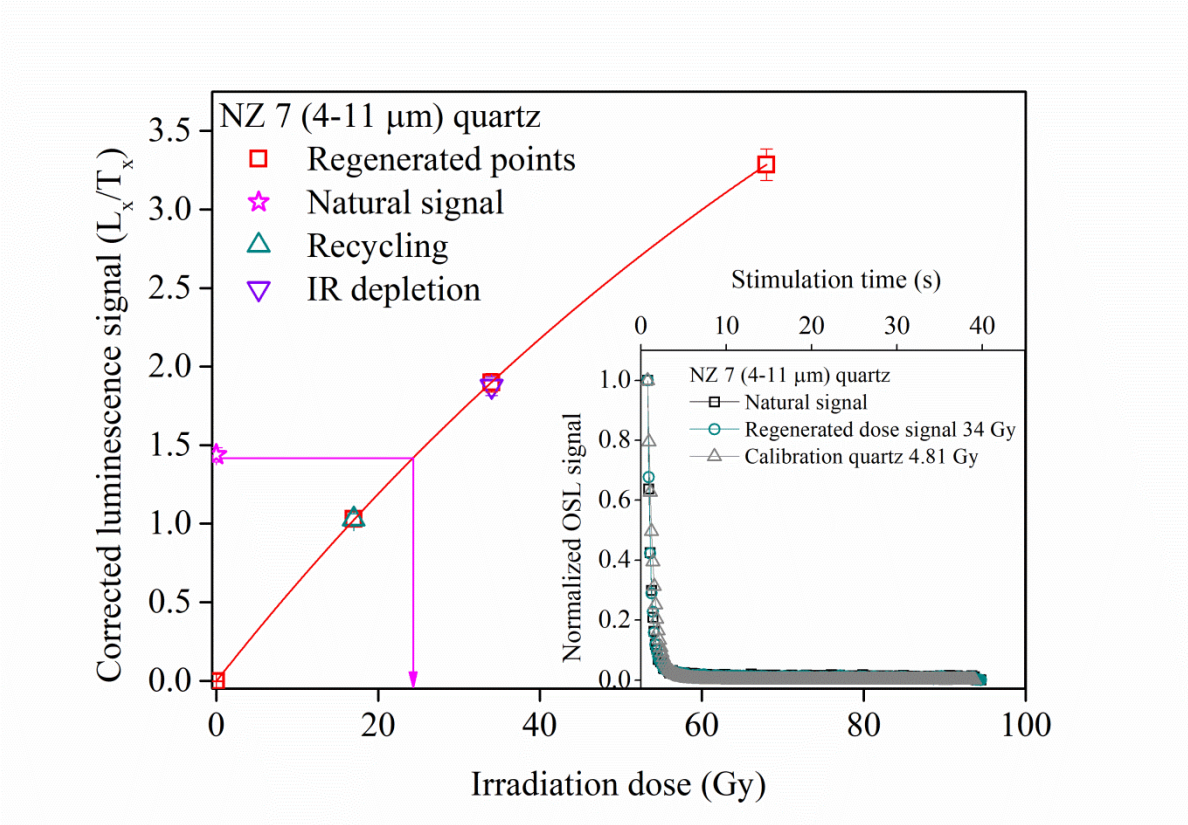

Figure 1. Representative sensitivity-corrected dose response curve constructed for one aliquot of sample NZ 7 on 4-11 μm quartz using SAR-OSL protocol. The sensitivity corrected natural signals (stars) are interpolated on the dose response curves. IR depletion point is presented as an up triangle while the recycling points are presented as inverse triangles. The inset shows the pattern of a typical quartz decay curve which is compared with the decay of a regenerative dose as well as with the OSL decay of calibration quartz.

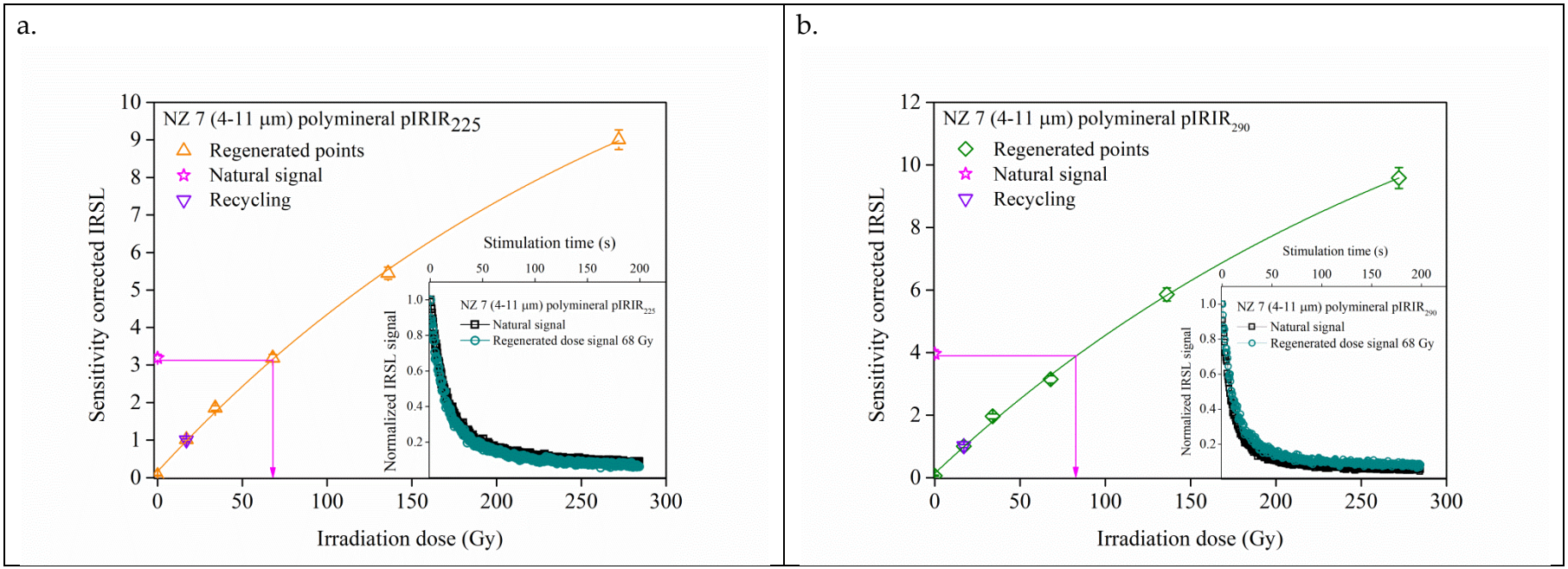

Figure 2. Representative sensitivity-corrected dose response curves constructed for one aliquot of sample NZ 7 on (a) 4-11 µm polymineral fine grains using the pIRIR$_{225}$ protocol and (b) 4-11 µm polymineral using pIRIR$_{290}$ protocol. The sensitivity corrected natural signals (stars) are interpolated on the dose response curves. The recycling points are presented as inverse triangles. Insets show typical decay curves. For polymineral fine grains, the natural CW-OSL signals are compared to regenerated signals induced by a beta dose approximately equal to the equivalent dose.

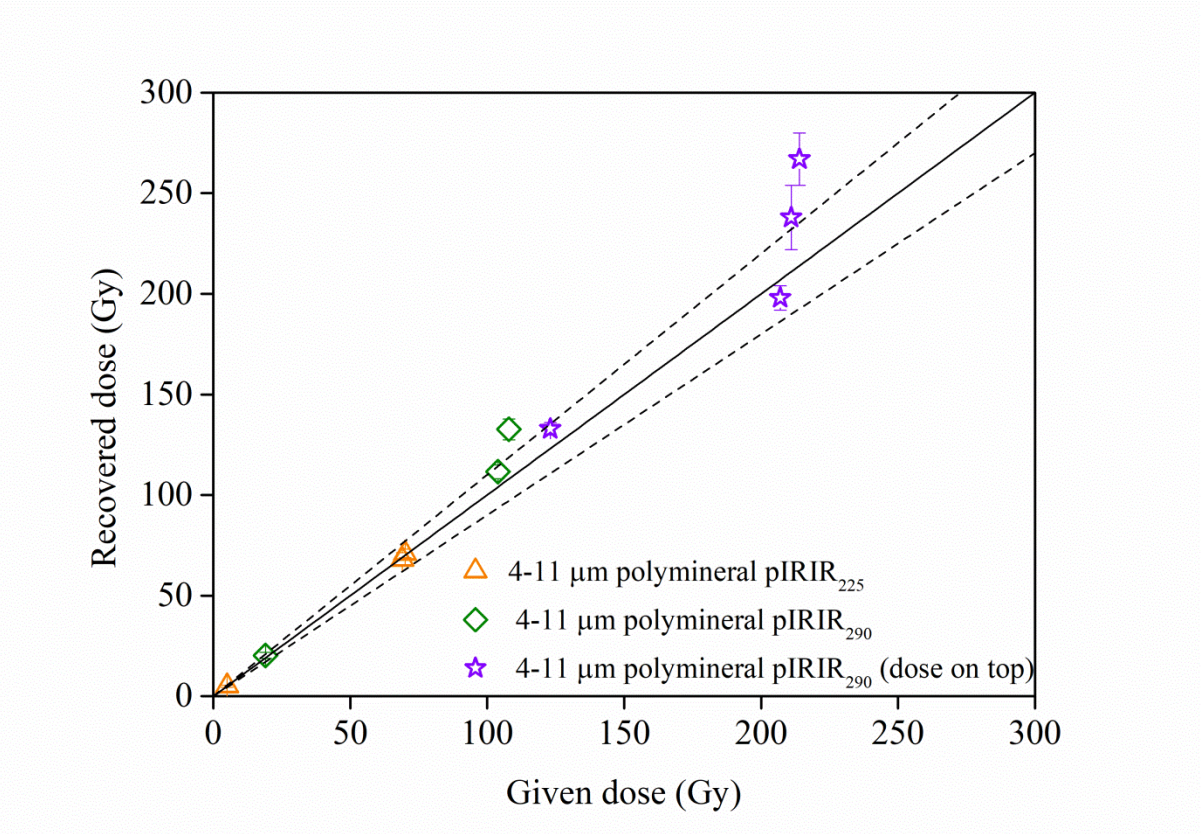

Figure 3. The results of dose recovery test using $pIRIR_{225}$ protocol (up triangle) and $pIRIR_{290}$ protocol (diamond symbol) on 4-11 µm polymineral aliquots from sample NZ 6, NZ 7 and NZ 8. Dose recovery test result when 100 Gy was added on top of the natural signal of sample NZ 6, NZ 7, NZ 8 and NZ 9 are depicted with a star symbol.

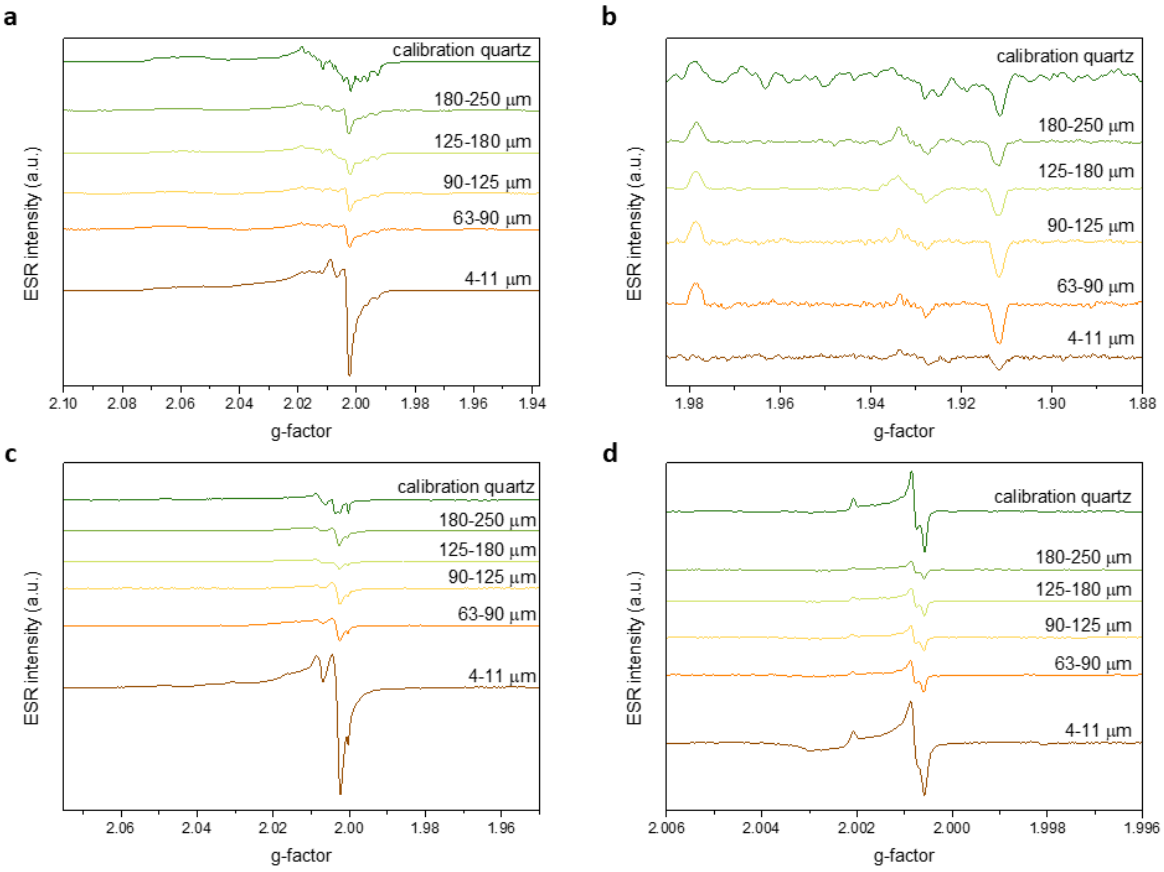

Figure 4. ESR spectra of Al-h (a), Ti (b), "peroxy"(c), and E'(d) centres, for quartz fractions 4-11, 63-90, 90-125, 125-180, 180-250 µm from sample NZ 3, and for calibration quartz.

Table 1. Summary of the SAR-OSL, pIRIR$_{225}$ and pIRIR$_{290}$ luminescence ages. The age uncertainties were determined following **Aitken and Alldred (1972).** The uncertainties associated with the luminescence and dosimetry data are random; the uncertainties mentioned on the optical ages are the overall uncertainties. The systematic errors taken into account include: 2% beta source calibration, 3% conversion factors, 5% attenuation and etching factors, 3% gamma spectrometer calibration, 15% cosmic radiation, 25% water content. All uncertainties represent 1σ. Specific activities were measured using gamma spectrometry and the ages were determined considering 15% water content; adopted alpha efficiency factor was 0.04±0.02 for 4-11 μm quartz and 0.08±0.02 for polymineral 4-11 μm fine grains, respectively (**Rees-Jones, 1995**). The contribution of cosmic radiation was taken into account and calculated accordingly to **Prescott and Hutton (1994)**. Equivalent doses presented in this table are not corrected for residuals. (*) represents the pIRIR ages calculated using the modern analogue sample for residual correction.

Sample code	Depth (cm)	Equivalent dose (Gy)			Radionuclide concentration			Annual dose			Age (ka)			Age (ka) (MA) *	
		4-11 μm quartz	pIRIR$_{225}$ pfg	pIRIR$_{290}$ pfg	Ra-226	Th-232	K-40	4-11 μm quartz	pIRIR$_{225}$ pfg	pIRIR$_{290}$ pfg	4-11 μm quartz	pIRIR$_{225}$ pfg	pIRIR$_{290}$ pfg	pIRIR$_{225}$ pfg	pIRIR$_{290}$ pfg
NZ 6	10	1.3±0.1	7.5±0.5	23±2	42±2	48±2	607±17	4.1±0.07	4.6±0.07	4.6±0.07	0.3±0.04	1.2±0.2	4±0.5		
NZ 7	30	26±0.3	72±1	111±5	50±2	42±1	604±16	4.0±0.06	4.5±0.07	4.5±0.07	6.3±0.6	15±1	23±2	14±1	20±2
NZ 8	50	32±2	72±1	114±5	38±2	30±1	567±17	2.9±0.05	3.7±0.07	3.7±0.07	11±1	19±2	29±3	17±2	24±2
NZ 9	67	39±3	63±1	107±6	29±0.2	22±1	524±14	2.9±0.05	3.1±0.05	3.1±0.05	13±2	19±2	32±3	18±2	27±3
NZ 10	85	43±1	79±2	121±5	47±3	30±1	535±13	3.5±0.07	3.9±0.08	3.9±0.08	12±1	20±2	30±3	19±2	26±3
NZ 11	109	46±1	71±1	90±2	41±1	26±2	443±14	3.0±0.06	3.3±0.07	3.3±0.07	16±1	21±2	26±2	19±2	20±2
NZ 12	129	41±2	70±1	99±4	34±1	27±2	485±13	3.0±0.05	3.3±0.05	3.3±0.05	14±1	21±2	29±3	19±2	23±2

Table 2. ESR signal intensities of Al-h, Ti (option A, B, D), "peroxy", and E' centres, for fractions 4-11, 63-90, 90-125, 125-180, 180-250 μm and calibration quartz.

Sample	Al	st err	Ti A	st err	Ti B	st err	Ti D	st err	peroxy	st err	E'	st err
4-11 μm	1.5939	0.0056	0.0769	0.0112	0.0429	0.0080	0.0610	0.0070	2.2026	0.0099	0.4766	0.0073
63-90 μm	0.5596	0.0041	0.2141	0.0047	0.0687	0.0067	0.1295	0.0045	0.5018	0.0102	0.1571	0.0062
90-125 μm	0.5641	0.0082	0.1778	0.0104	0.0611	0.0072	0.1143	0.0094	0.4660	0.0016	0.1317	0.0020
125-180 μm	0.7602	0.0073	0.1557	0.0028	0.0842	0.0065	0.0966	0.0033	0.4569	0.0053	0.1430	0.0008
180-250 μm	0.7250	0.0105	0.1304	0.0222	0.0934	0.0005	0.0774	0.0117	0.4598	0.0093	0.0943	0.0030
Calibration quartz	1.7286	0.0158	0.0968	0.0028	0.0598	0.0040	0.0576	0.0024	0.5107	0.0132	0.4435	0.0196

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationship that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.