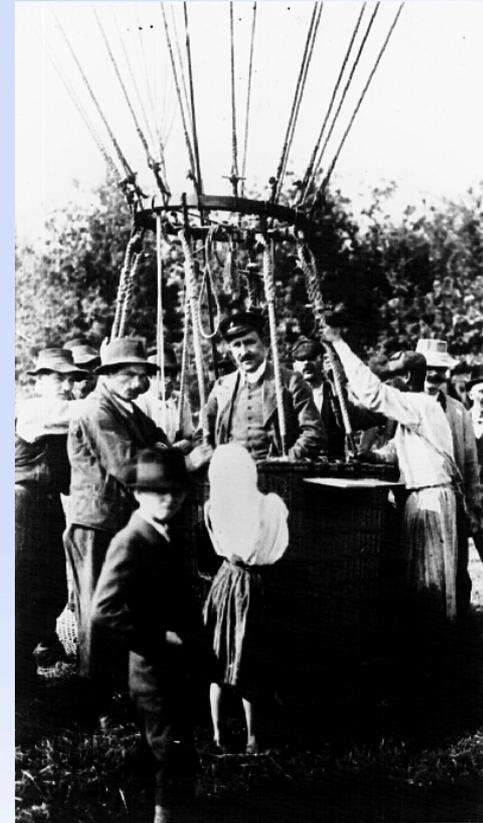


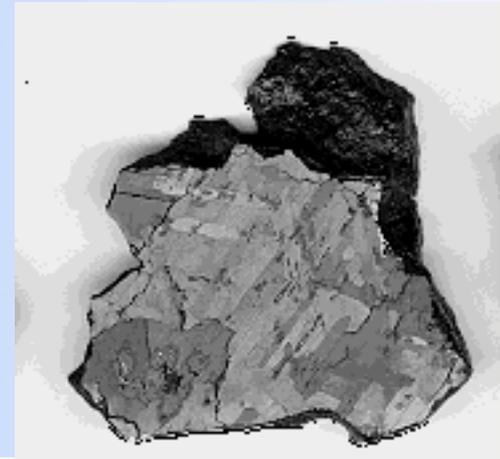
# Brief history of cosmogenic nuclides

- 1911 - First cosmic ray measurements: Hess
- 1927 - Cosmic rays contained charged particles: Skobeltzyn
- 1937 - Discovery of  $^{14}\text{C}$  at Berkeley: Ruben and Kamen
- 1939 - Prediction of  $^{14}\text{N}(n,p)^{14}\text{C}$  reactions in the atmosphere: Korff and Danforth
- 1947 - Prediction of  $^3\text{He}$  production in iron meteorites: Baur
- 1949 - First measurement of natural  $^{14}\text{C}$ : Chicago group
- 1951 - Publication of first  $^{14}\text{C}$  dates: Arnold and Libby

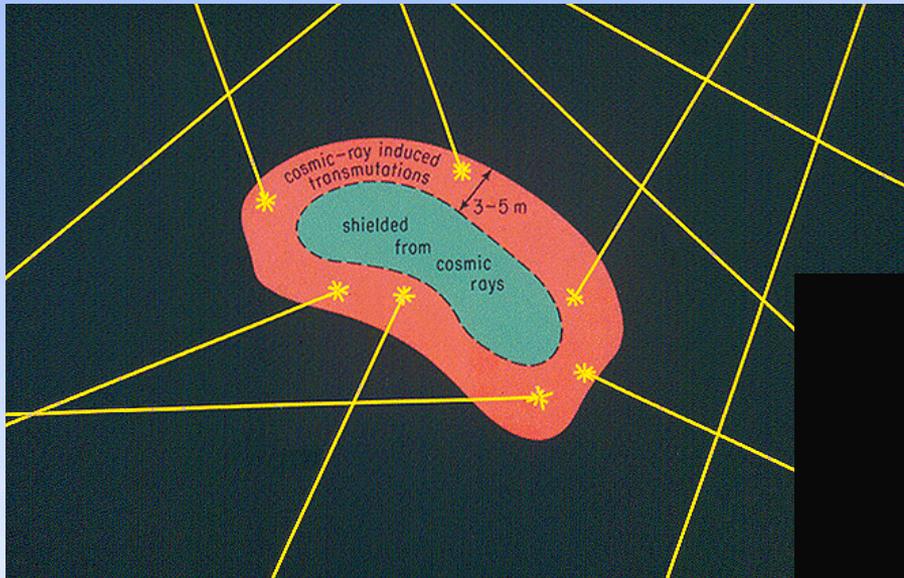


# Brief history of cosmogenic nuclides

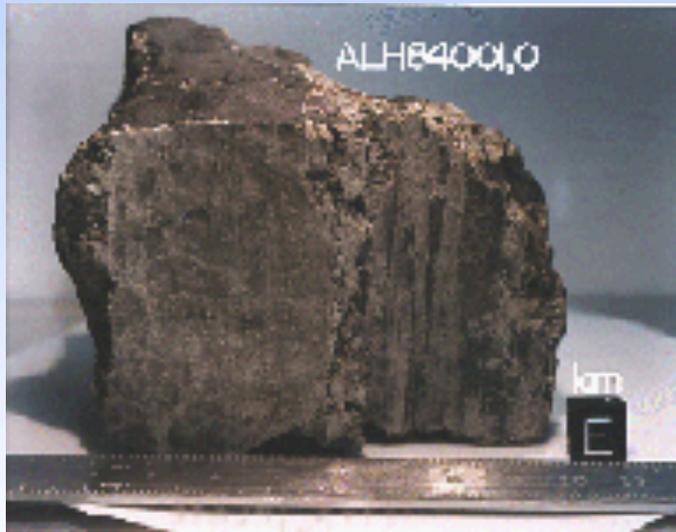
- 1952 - Detection of cosmic-ray-produced  $^3\text{He}$  in iron meteorites: Paneth, Reasbeck, and Mayne
- Cosmogenic nuclides have been used to study the exposure history of the Canyon Diablo iron meteorite
- Berringer crater is the site of the early terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide calibrations



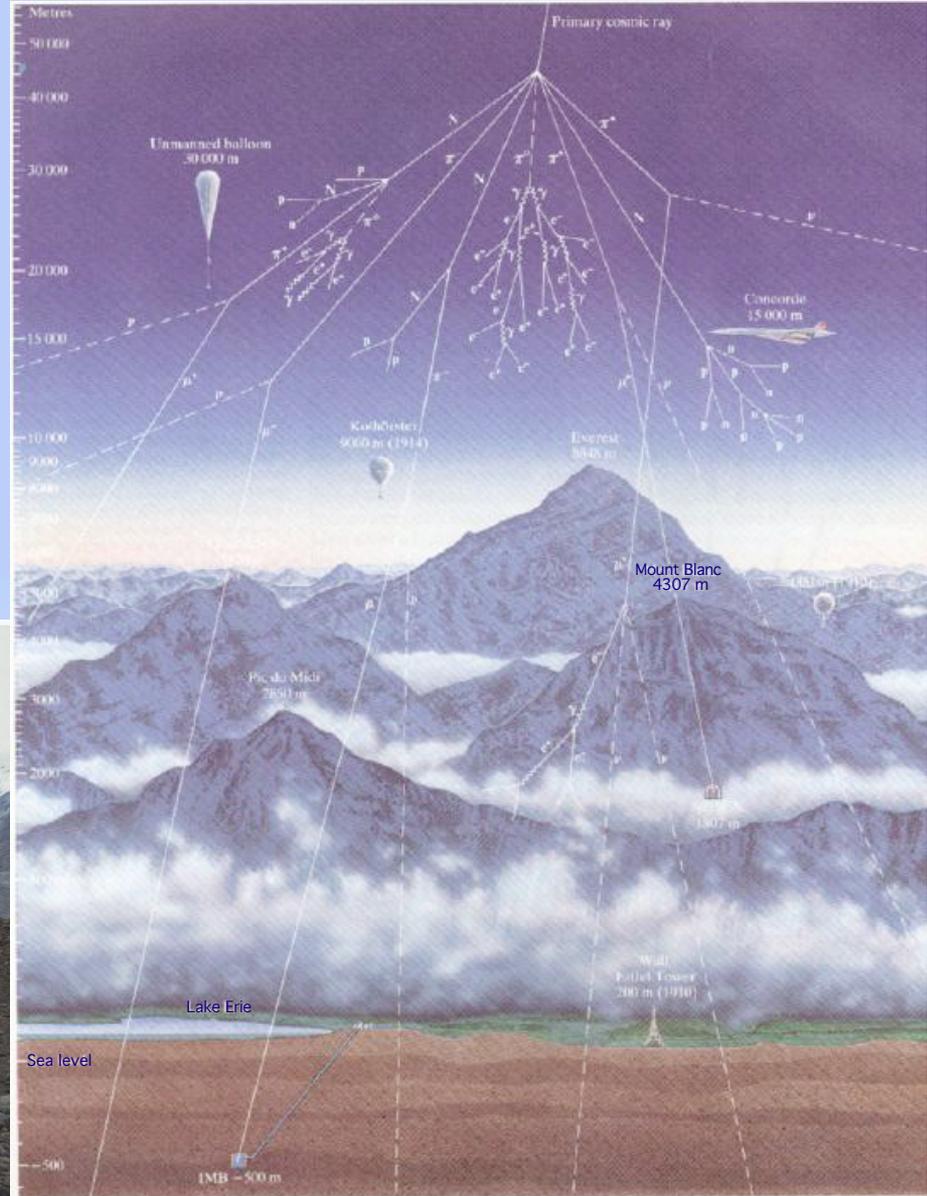
# Cosmic rays produce a variety of nuclides in the solar system - meteorites



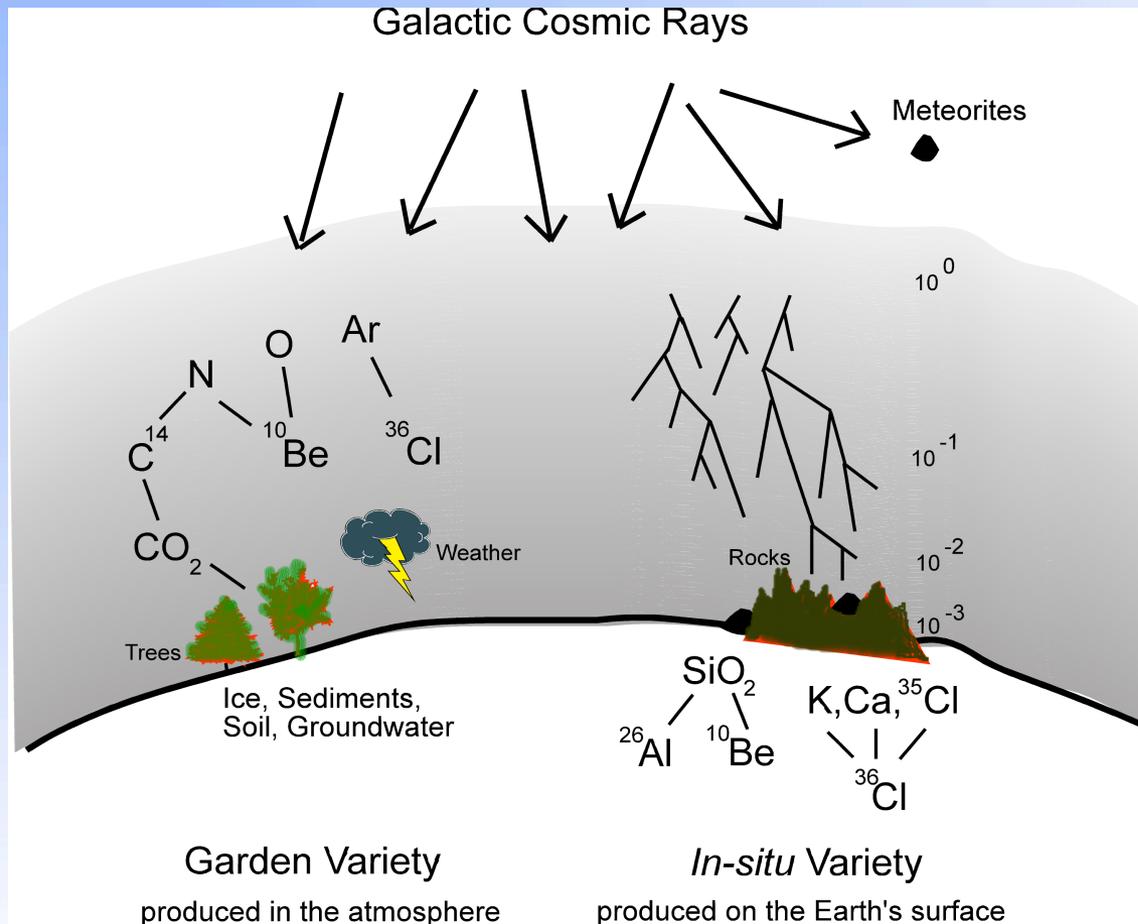
# Cosmogenic nuclides - planetary surfaces



# Cosmic rays produce a variety of nuclides on the Earth's surface



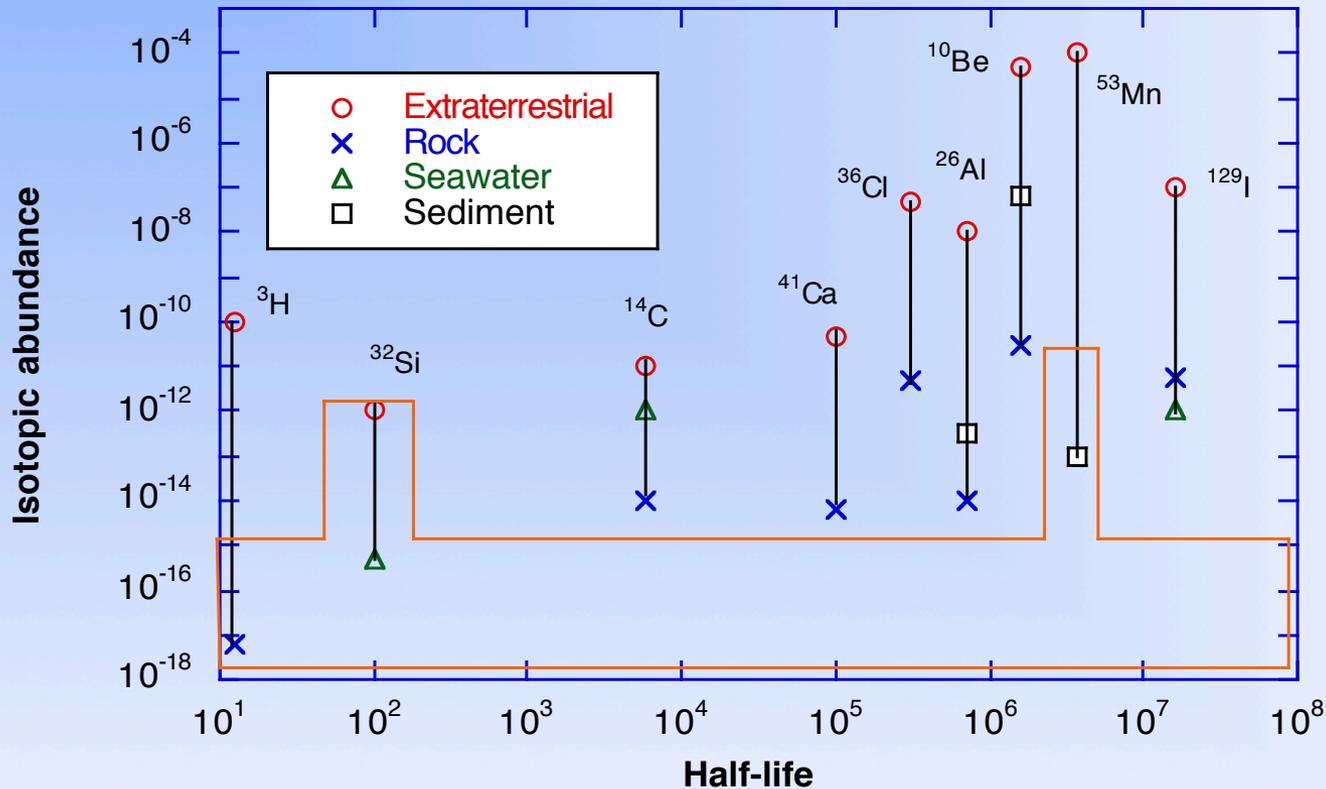
# Production of terrestrial cosmogenic nuclides



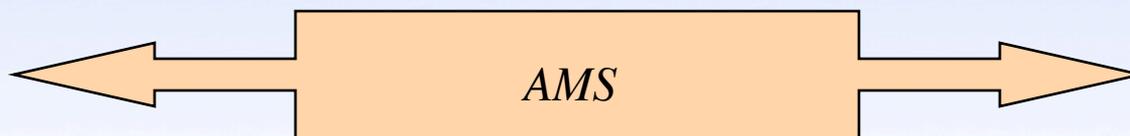
# Cosmogenic Nuclides

Nuclide	Half-life (yr)	Main Targets
$^3\text{H}$	12.3	All elements
$^3\text{He}$	Stable	All elements
$^{10}\text{Be}$	$1.5 \times 10^6$	C, O
$^{14}\text{C}$	5730	O
$^{21}\text{Ne}, ^{22}\text{Ne}$	Stable	Mg, Al, Si
$^{26}\text{Al}$	$7.1 \times 10^5$	Si, Al
$^{36}\text{Cl}$	$3.0 \times 10^5$	Ca, K, Fe, Cl
$^{36}\text{Ar}, ^{38}\text{Ar}$	Stable	Fe, Ca, Cl
$^{41}\text{Ca}$	$1.0 \times 10^5$	Ca, Fe
$^{53}\text{Mn}$	$3.7 \times 10^6$	Fe
$^{59}\text{Ni}$	$7.6 \times 10^4$	Ni
$^{81}\text{Kr}$	$2.3 \times 10^5$	Rb, Sr, Zr
$^{129}\text{I}$	$1.6 \times 10^7$	Te, Ba, La

# Radio-isotope abundance ratios

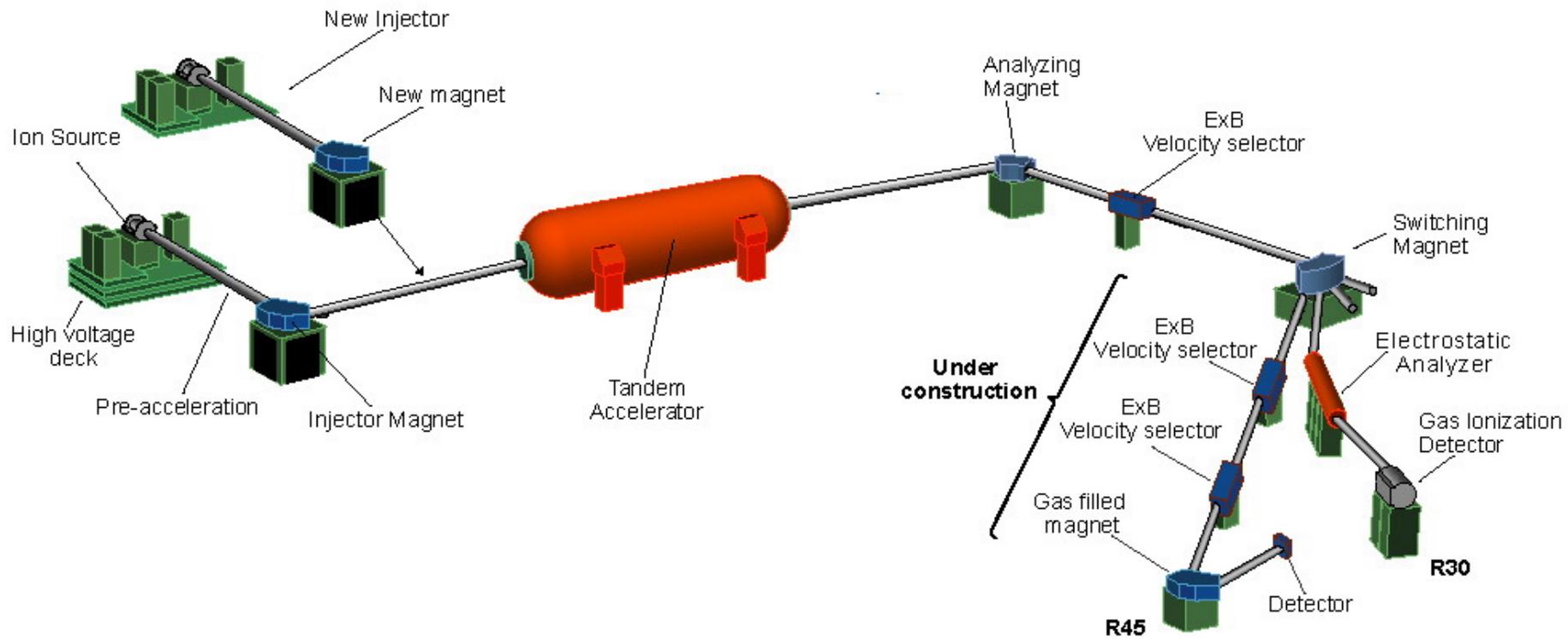


*Decay counting*



*Conventional mass spectrometry*

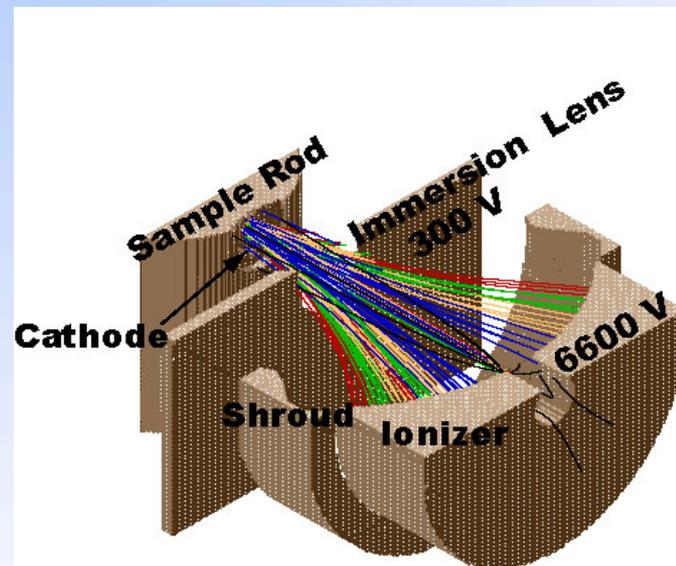
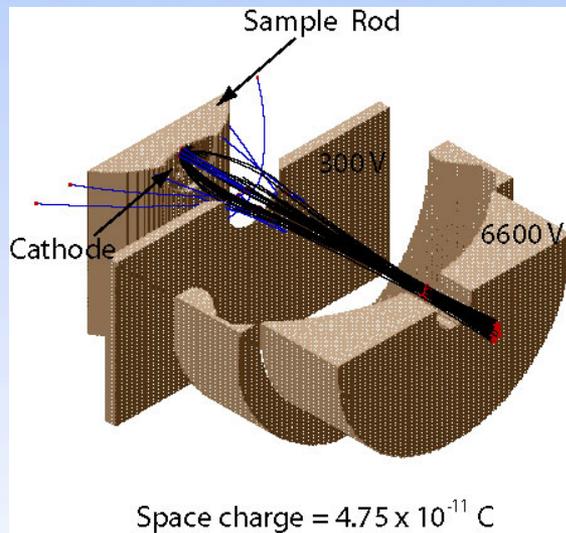
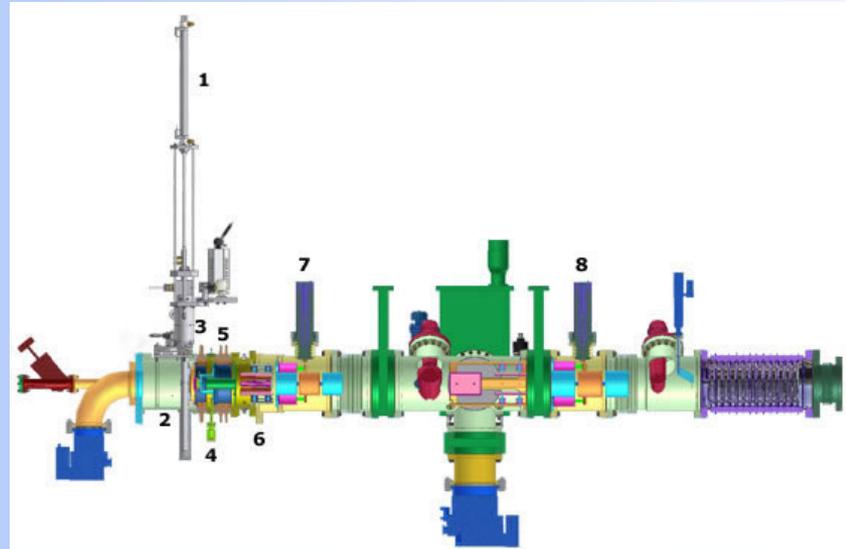
# AMS at Purdue



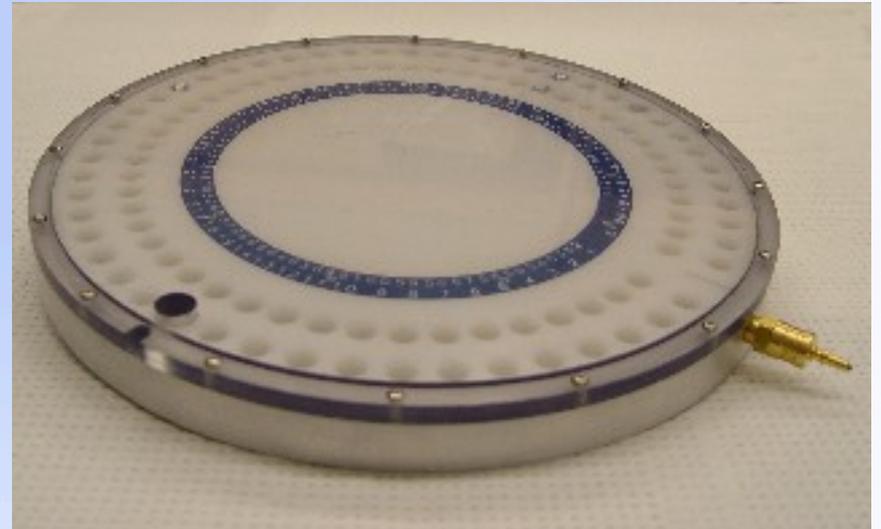
# How does AMS differ from conventional MS?

- High abundance sensitivity
  - Multiple stages of momentum, velocity, and electrostatic analysis
- Molecular species generally eliminated *via* stripping
  - $^{14}\text{C}$ :  $^{12}\text{C}^1\text{H}_2^{+q}$ ,  $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}^{+2q}$
  - $^{36}\text{Cl}$ :  $^1\text{H}^{35}\text{Cl}$
- Particle energies allow  $dE/dx$  techniques to be utilized
  - $^{10}\text{B}$  is separated from  $^{10}\text{Be}$  by an absorbing foil
  - $^{36}\text{S}$  is distinguished from  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  by  $dE/dx$  in the detector

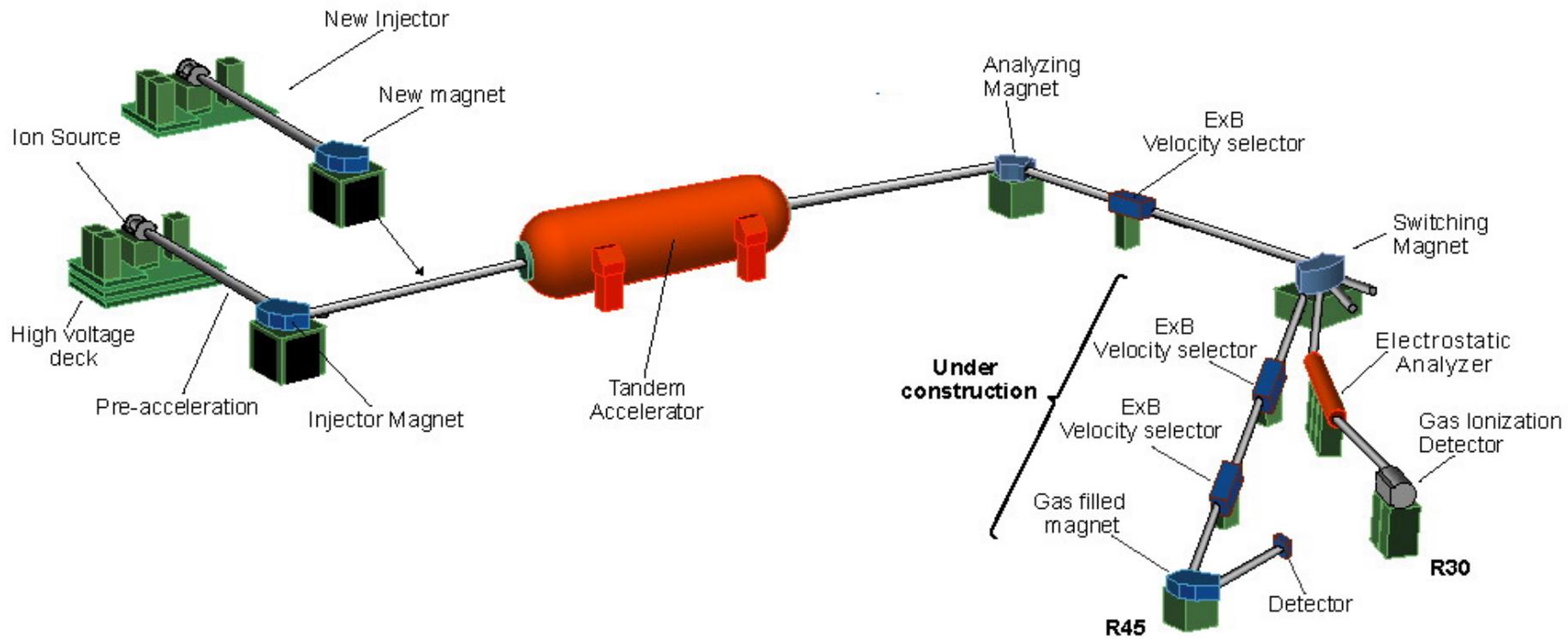
AMS requires the production of a negative ion



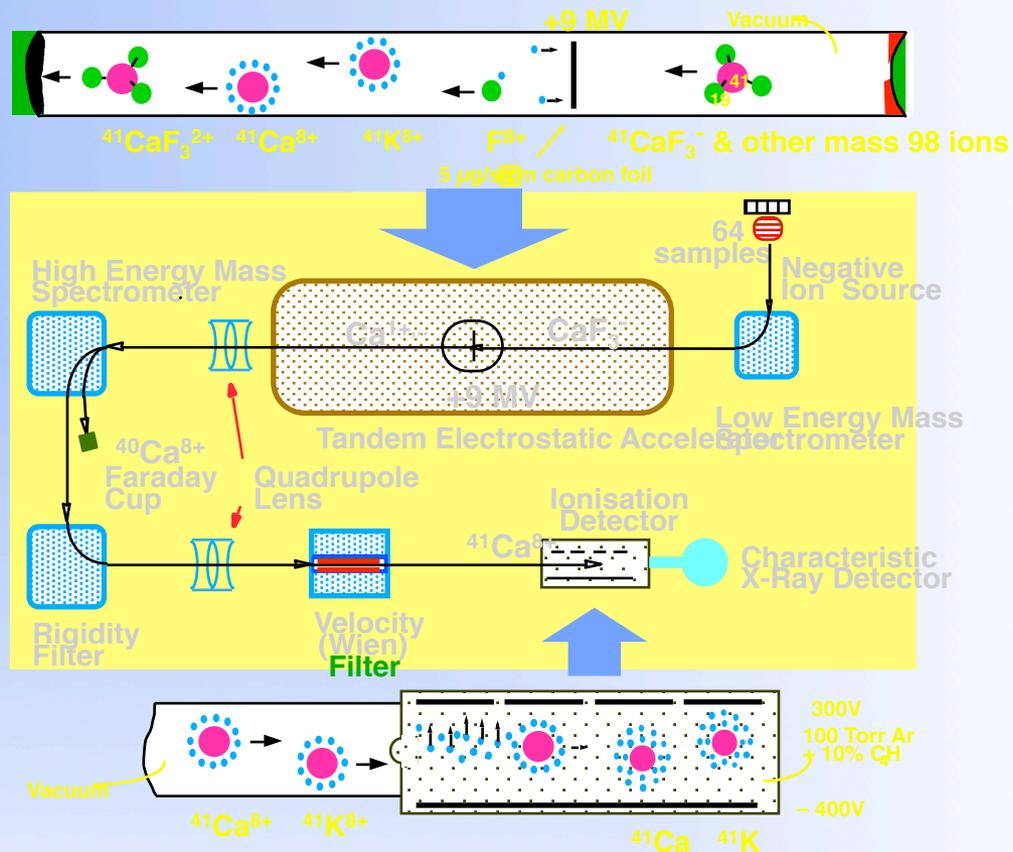
# Negative ion production enables the measurement of $^{14}\text{C}$ and $^{26}\text{Al}$



# AMS at Purdue



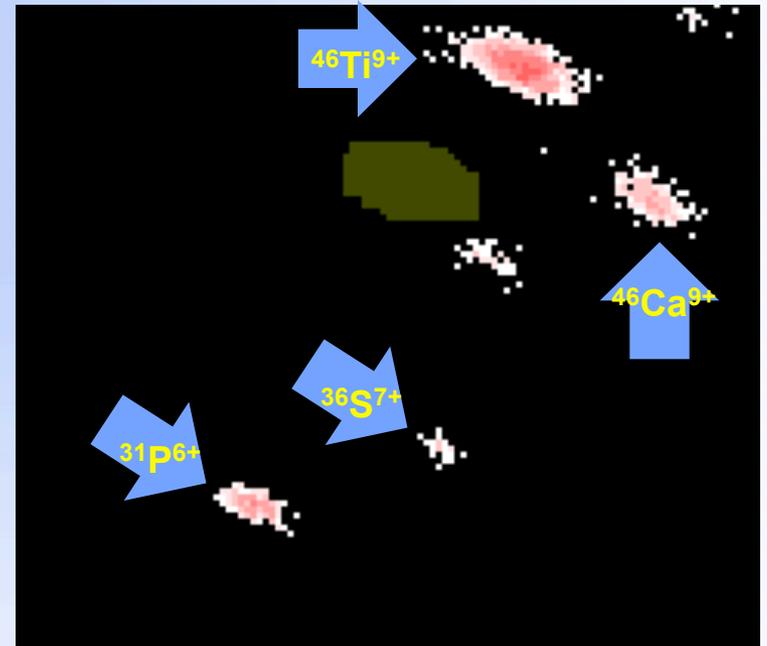
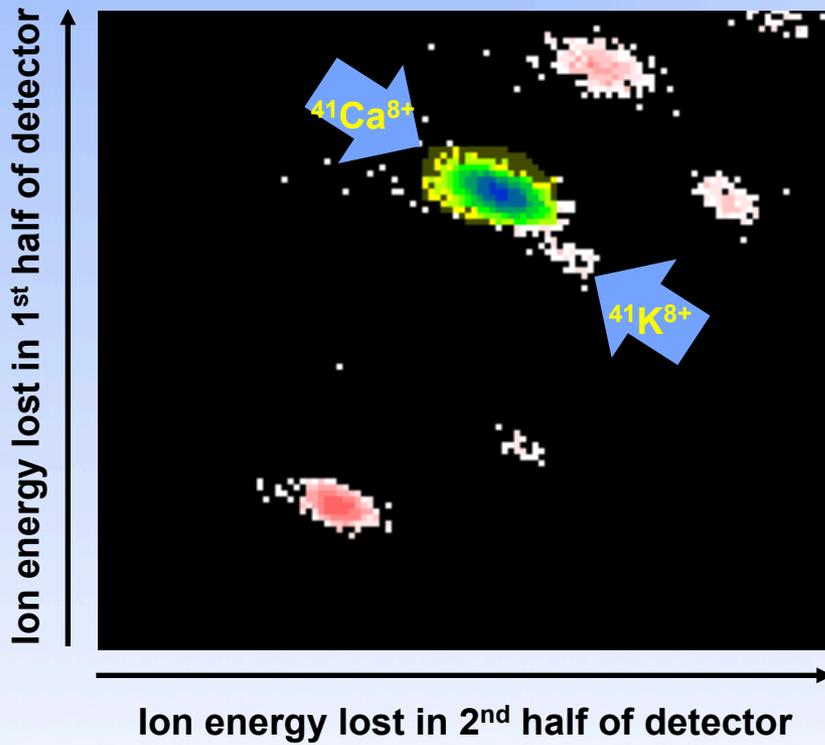
The stripper  
at the  
accelerator  
terminal  
suppresses  
molecular  
interferences



# $^{41}\text{CaF}_3^-$ MeV 76 MeV $^{41}\text{Ca}^{8+}$ energy loss spectra

$^{41}\text{Ca} / ^{40}\text{Ca} = 10^{-9}$  Standard

Blank sample



# The Purdue Rare Isotope Measurement Laboratory (PRIME Lab)



- Purdue University is home of the only university-based accelerator-mass-spectrometry (AMS) multi-isotope facility in the United States
- PRIME Lab has facilities support from the NSF geosciences program and facilities upgrade funds from NASA

**Measurements performed at PRIME Lab enable Purdue research endeavors and research activities from numerous research groups outside Purdue University**

# Research areas enabled by AMS

*The ability to measure cosmogenic or tracer radionuclides has opened new fields of research*

- Traditional Geoscience
  - Extraterrestrial studies
  - Landscape evolution
  - Atmospheric sciences
  - Hydrologic science
- Environmental Science
  - Radionuclide migration
  - Transport and fate of toxins
- Archaeology
- Biomedical Science

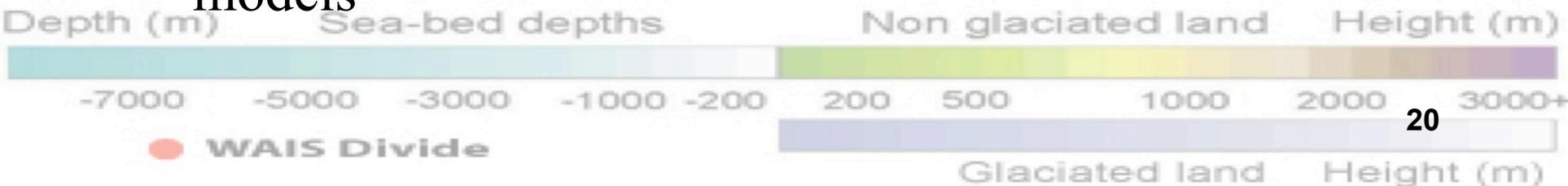
*The list of applications is long and growing*

# Cosmogenic nuclides - present and future

- Cosmogenic nuclides have been used extensively to determine exposure age histories for extra-terrestrial materials
- A relatively new application is terrestrial exposure age dating
  - Many studies have amply demonstrated desirability of this method
  - Nevertheless, there are numerous complications in this application
- Previous experience with extraterrestrial material points the way to advances possible in the terrestrial setting

# Goals of Cosmogenic Nuclide Measurements in WAIS Divide Core

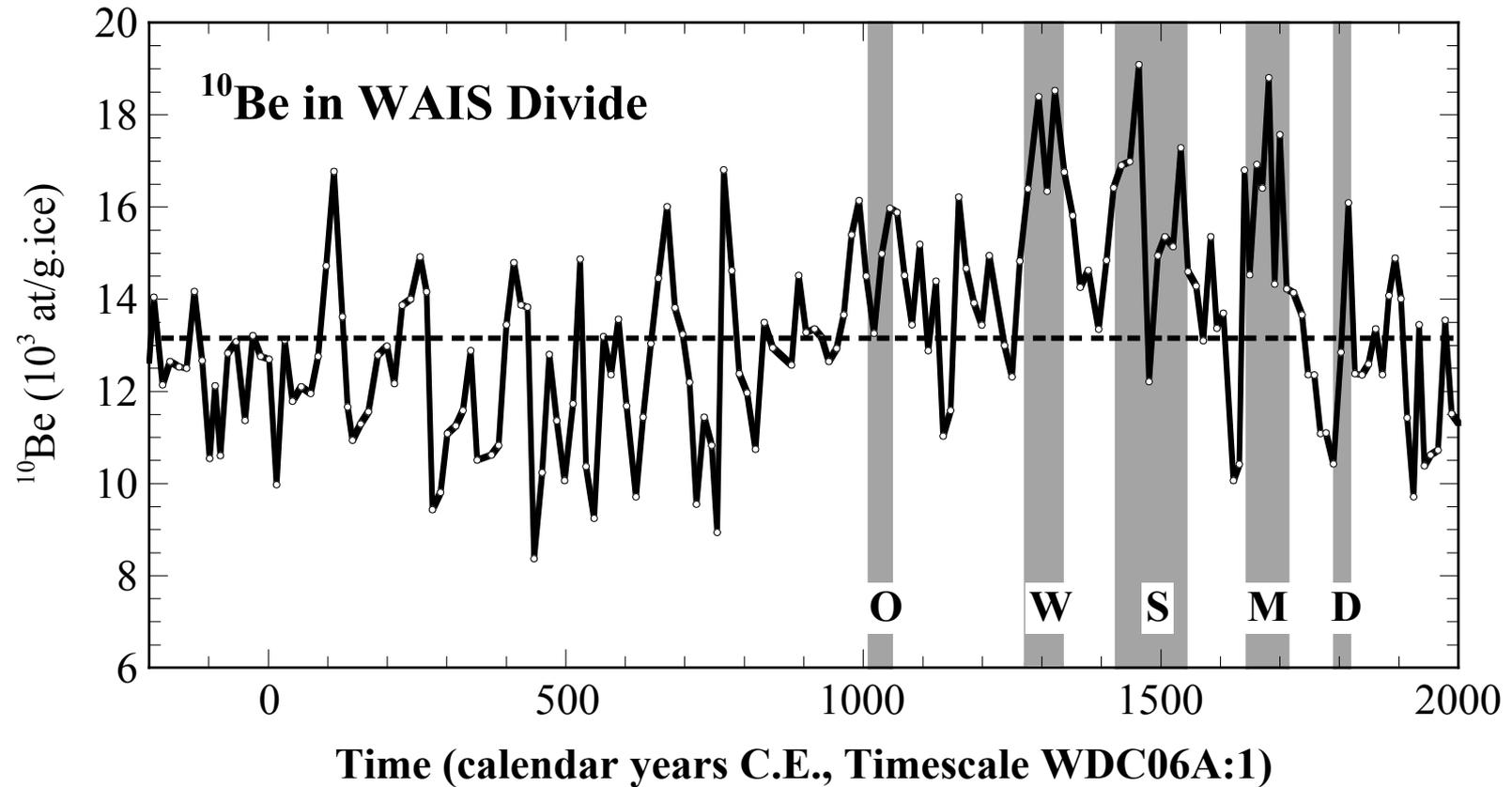
- Establish a chronological link between the WDC06 core to the Greenland cores (GISP2, NGRIP, NEEM) and to the Holocene  $^{14}\text{C}$  tree-ring record.
- Investigate possible links between climate and solar activity: is cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$  a reliable measure of the Total Solar Irradiance (TSI)?
- Determine paleo-accumulation rate (last glacial period).
- Better characterize long-term atmospheric mixing models



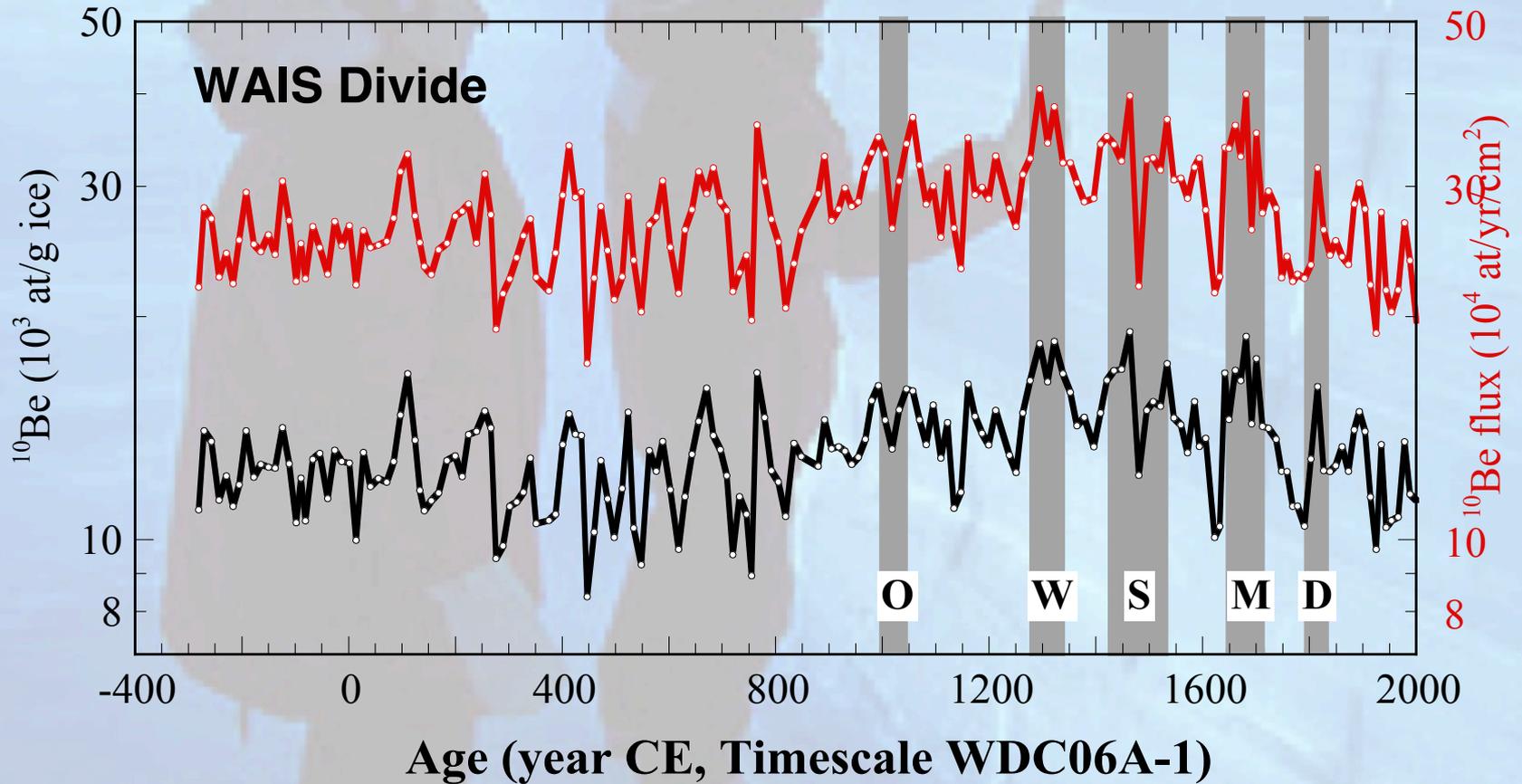
# WAIS Divide ice core

- Low-resolution core (0-560m)
  - Waste samples of 1-2 kg were collected from the continuous ice core melter at the Desert Research Institute (DRI)
  - A typical  $^{10}\text{Be}$  sample represents  $\sim 3$  m of ice core and 12 years of snow accumulation
  - Two samples were combined for  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  analysis
    - We assumed an average Cl of  $43 \pm 10$  ppb (which is 5-10% of total Cl)
- High resolution core (0-114m)
  - We are measuring  $^{10}\text{Be}$  from annual layers
  - Each sample is 100-300 g of ice

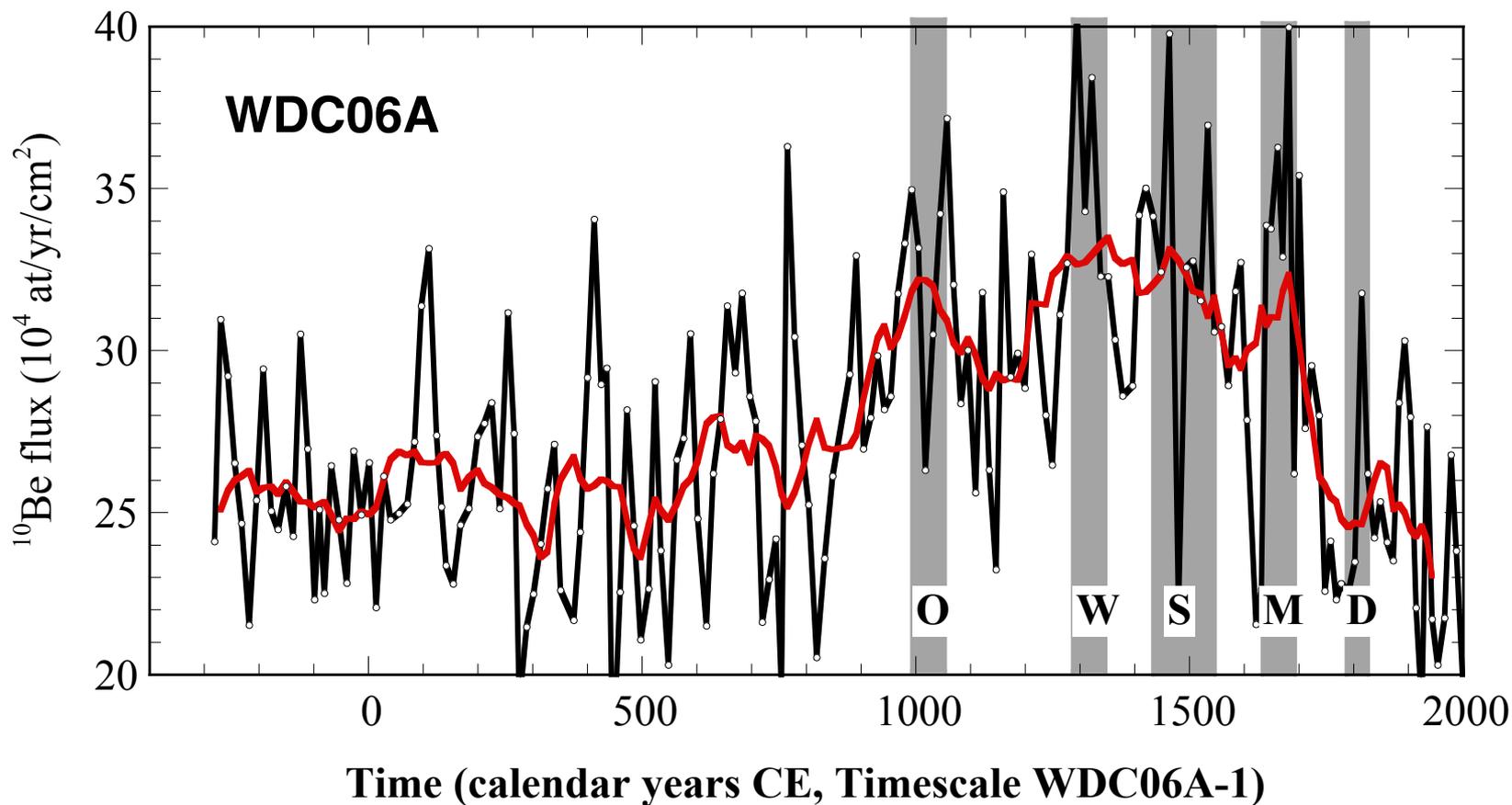
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ concentration in WDC06A



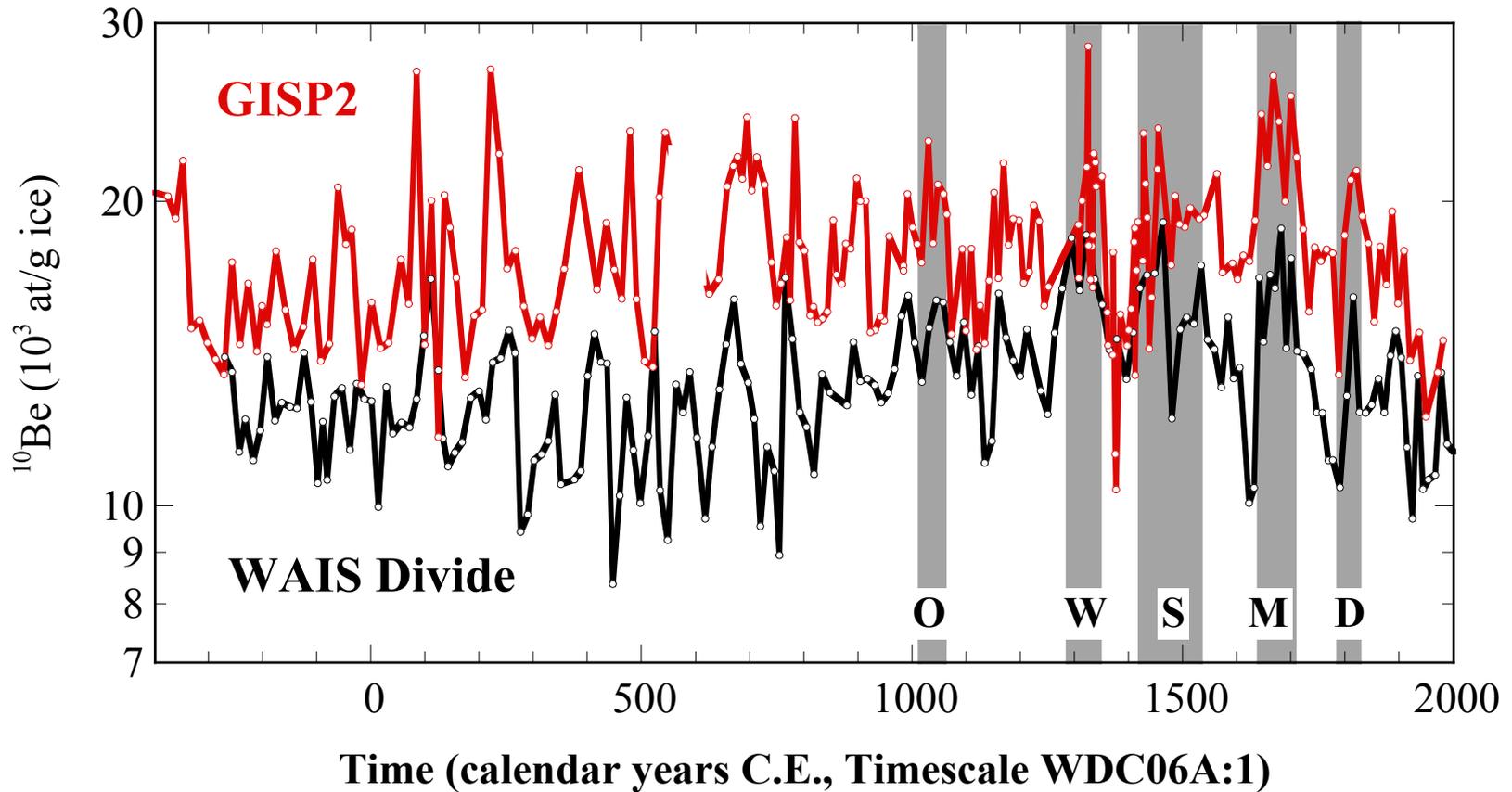
$$^{10}\text{Be flux} = ^{10}\text{Be} * \text{SAR (cm weq/yr)}$$



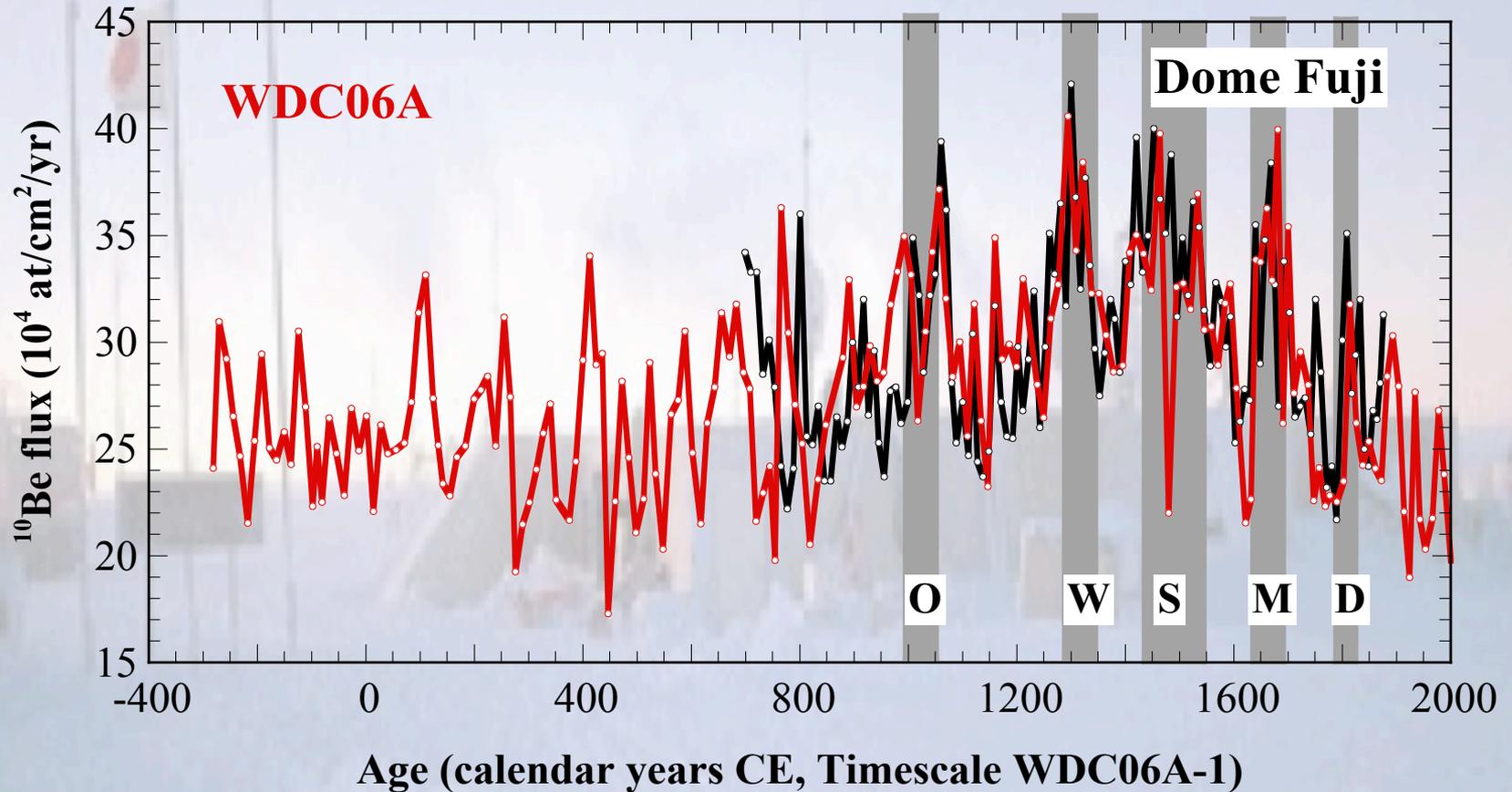
# Variations in $^{10}\text{Be}$ on 10 and 100 year timescales



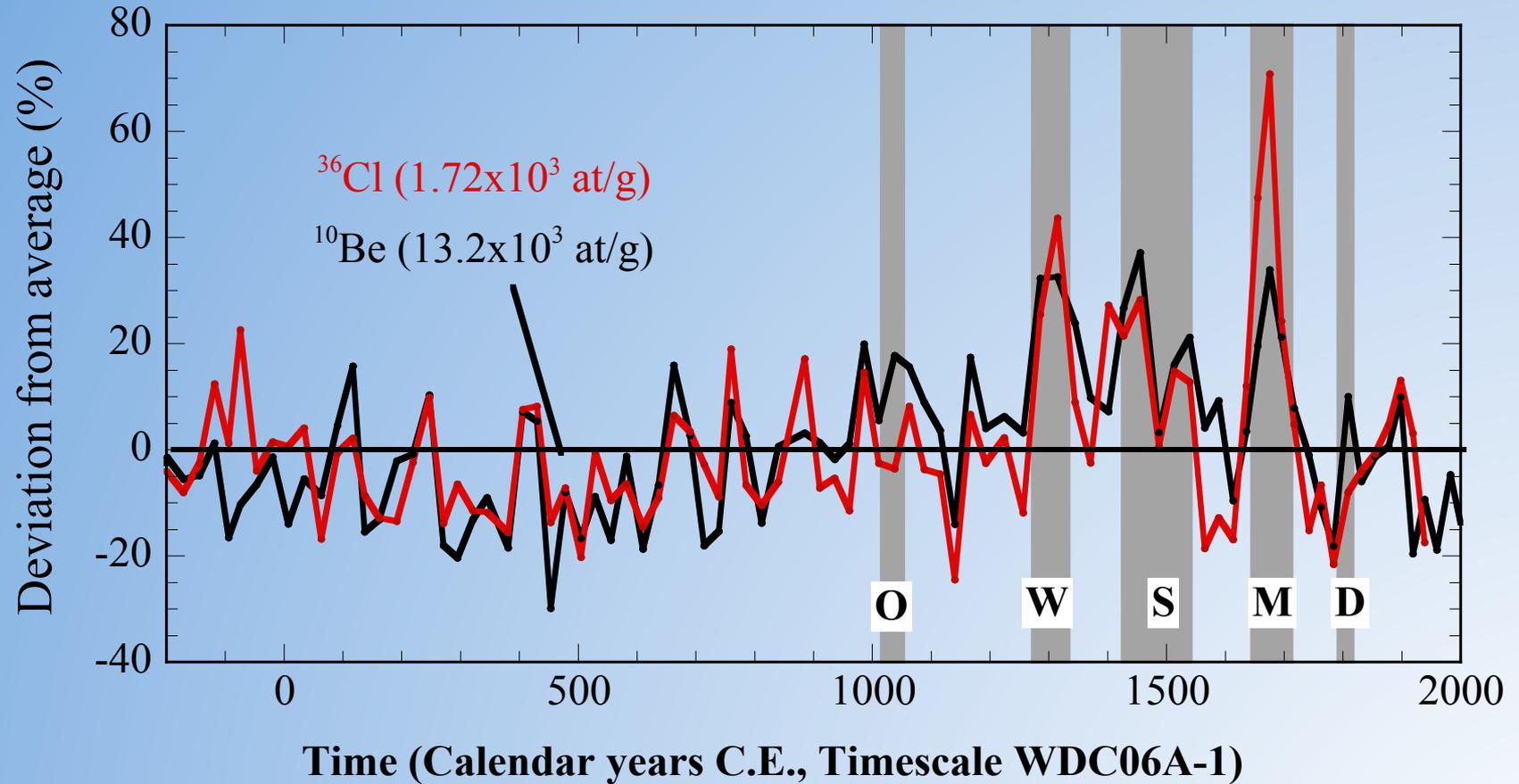
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ in WDC06A and GISP2 cores



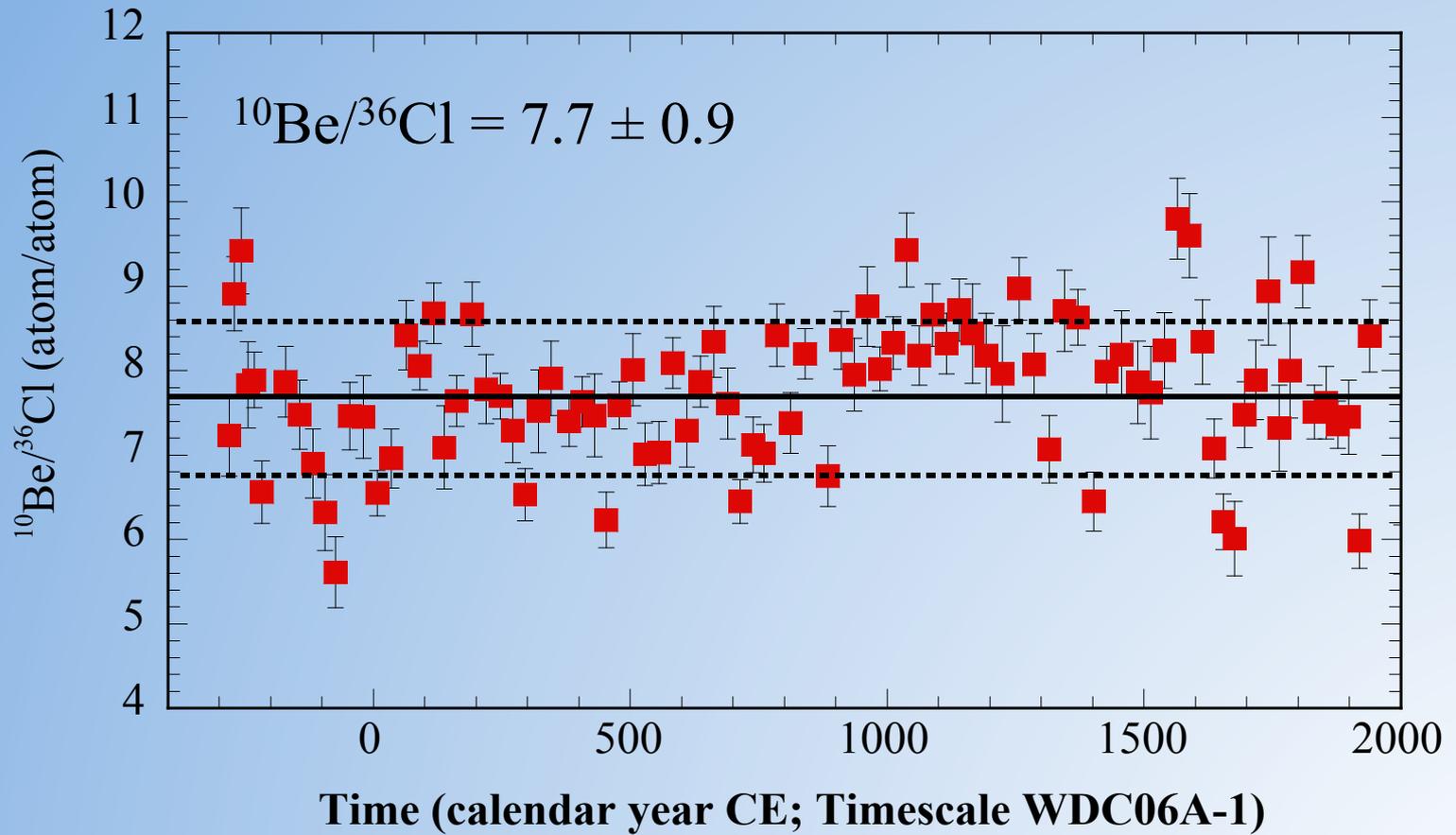
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ in WDC06A and Dome Fuji



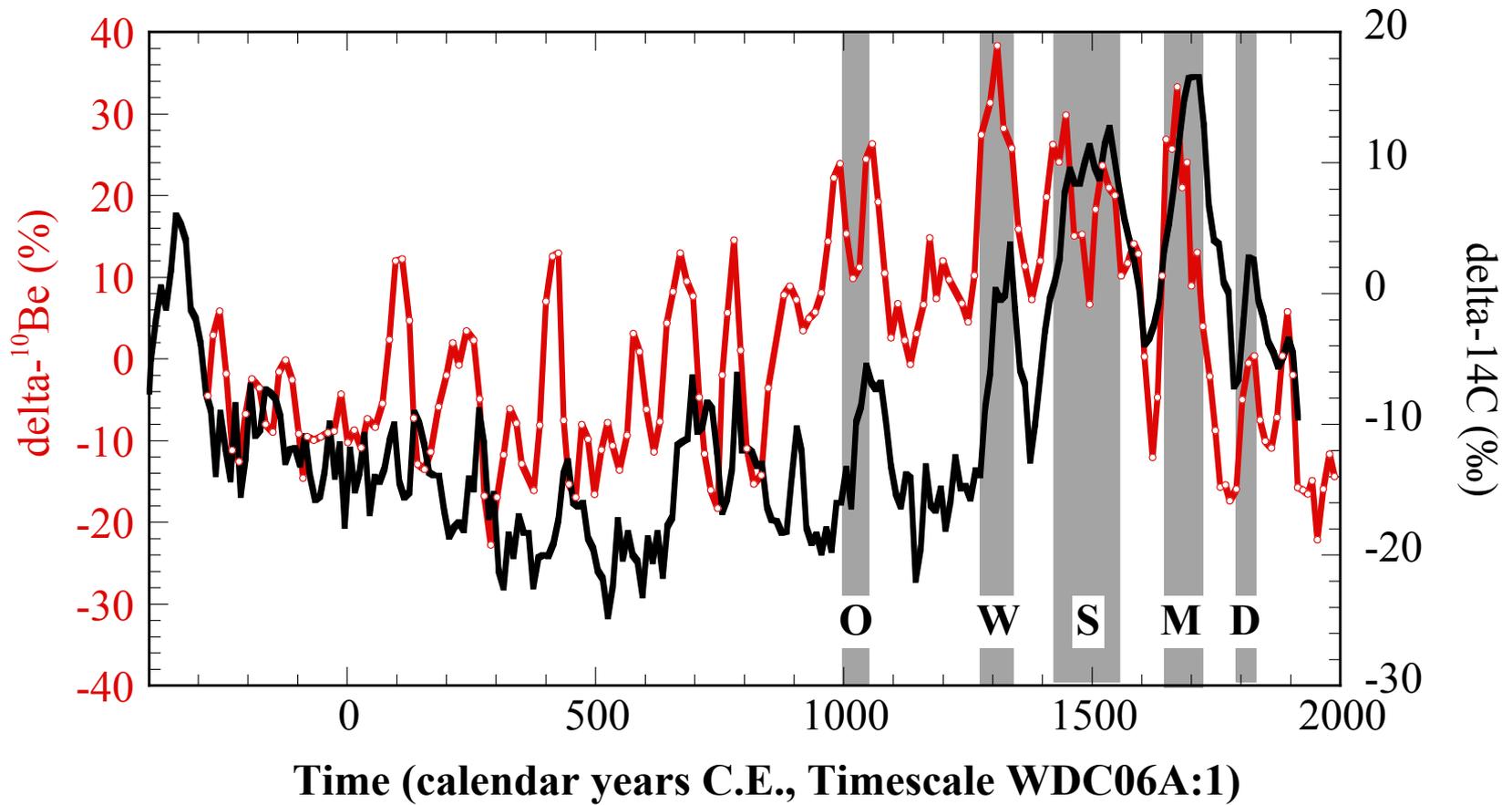
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ and $^{36}\text{Cl}$ in WDC06A



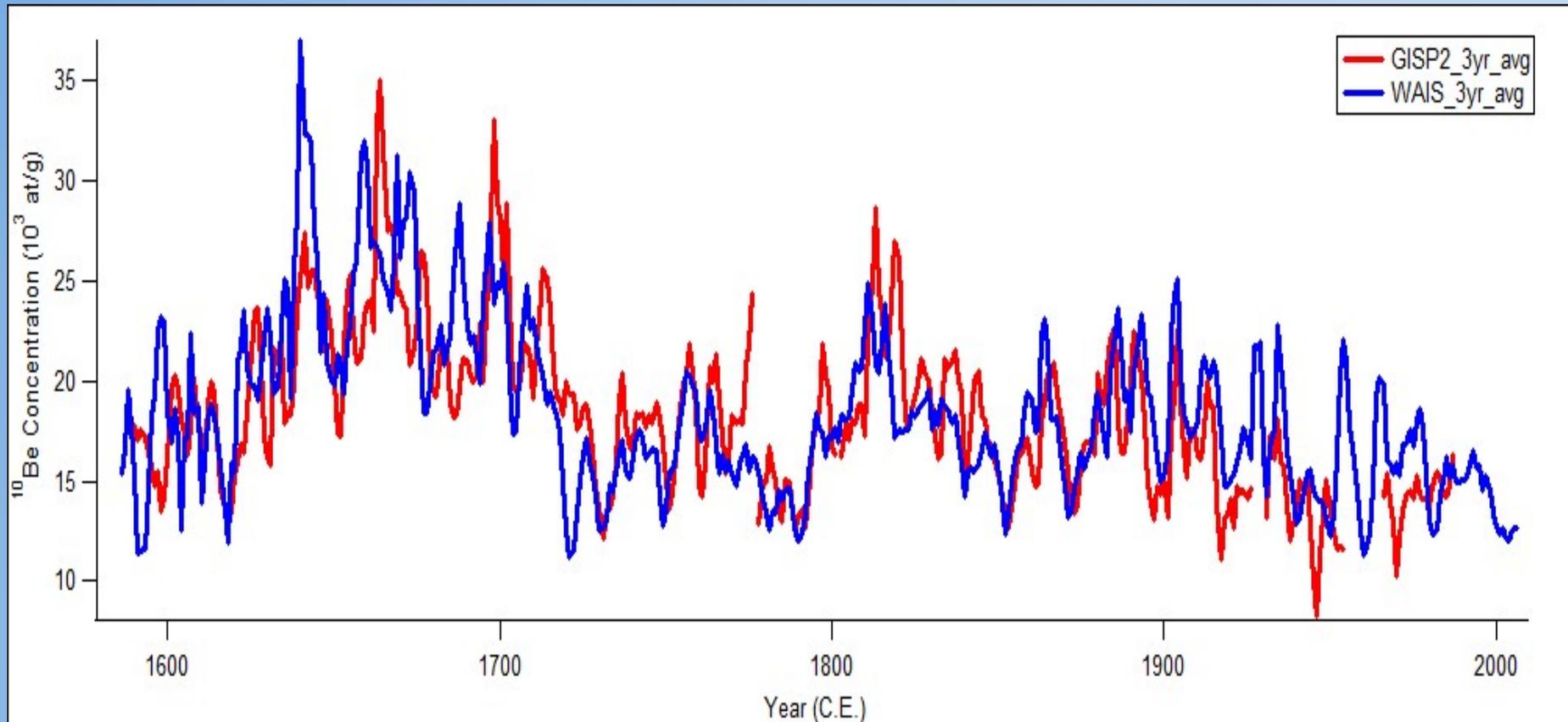
# $^{10}\text{Be}/^{36}\text{Cl}$ in WDC06A



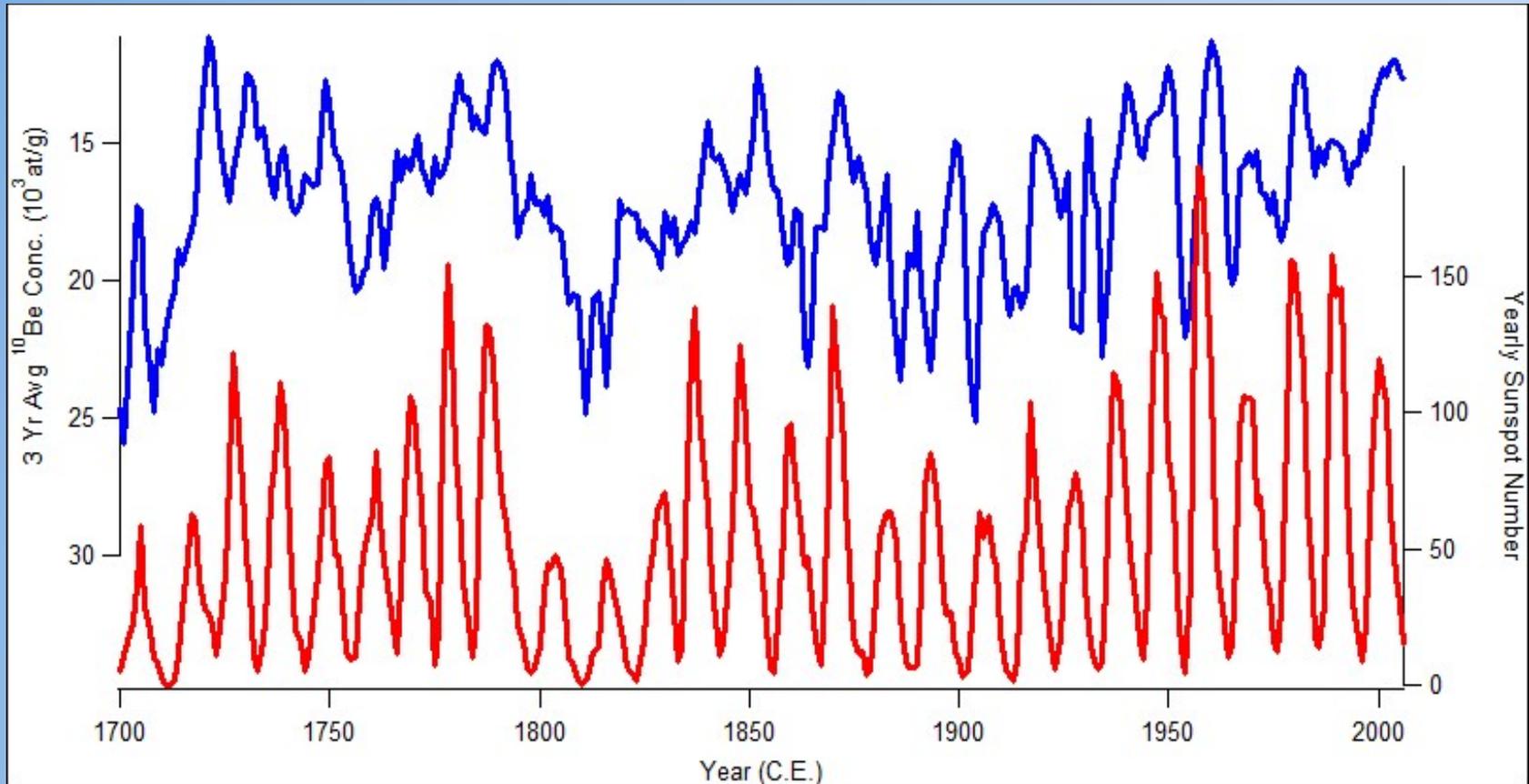
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ in WDC06A vs. $^{14}\text{C}$ tree-ring record

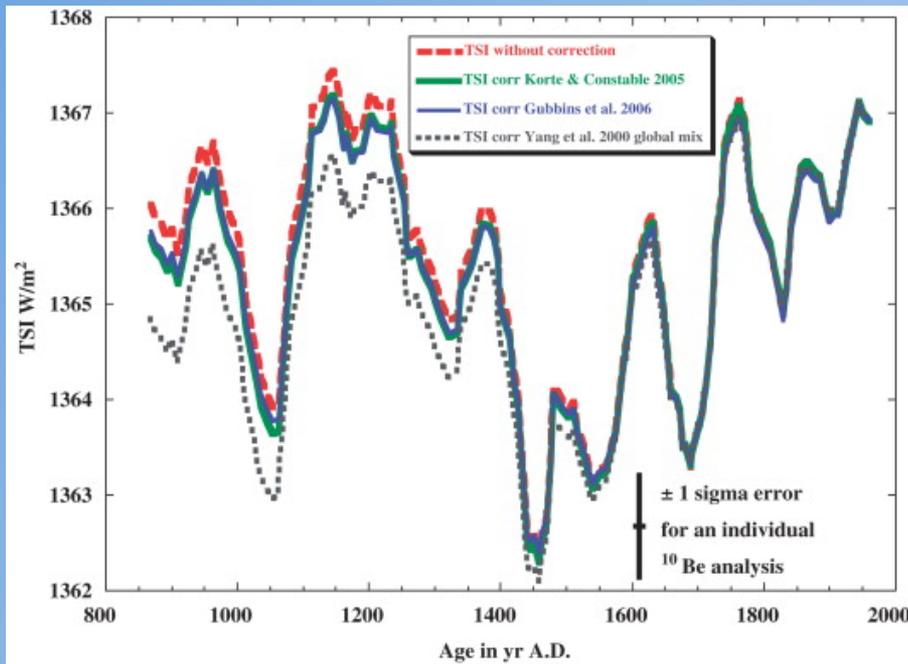


# WAIS Divide and GISP2 concentrations – 3 year averages



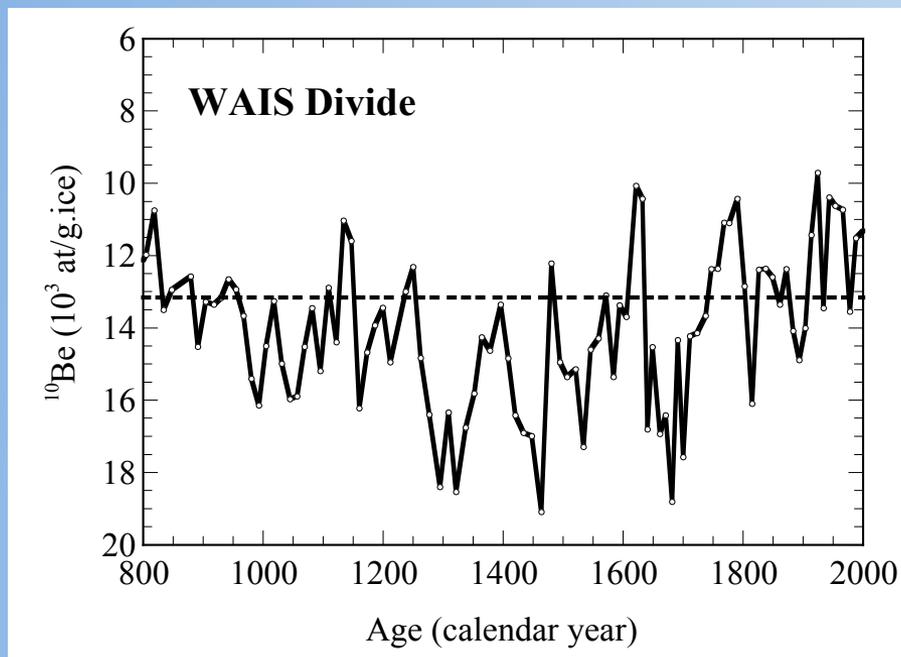
# $^{10}\text{Be}$ concentration and sunspot number?





## TSI vs. <sup>10</sup>Be in WAIS Divide

We need to compare the TSI for the last 30 years with the annual <sup>10</sup>Be record



# Cosmogenic nuclide concentrations: nuclear physics parameters and controlling geologic factors

$$N(z,t) = \left[ N(z,0)e^{-\lambda t_e} + \frac{P(t)}{\lambda + \mu\varepsilon} e^{-\mu z} (1 - e^{-(\lambda + \mu\varepsilon)t_e}) \right]$$

$$\mu = \rho / \Lambda$$

$N(z,0)$  = concentration at depth,  $z$ , when  $t_e = 0$

$P$  = production rate (latitude and elevation dependent)

$\mu$  = absorption coefficient for cosmic rays

$\Lambda$  = interaction mean free path

$\varepsilon$  = erosion rate

$t_e$  = exposure time

# The measured concentration of a cosmic-ray produced radionuclide is controlled by several geologic factors

$$N(z,t) = \left[ N(z,0)e^{-\lambda t_e} + \frac{P(t)}{\lambda + \mu\varepsilon} e^{-\mu z} (1 - e^{-(\lambda + \mu\varepsilon)t_e}) \right]$$

<b>Geologic Process</b>	<b>Parameter</b>
Most recent duration of exposure to cosmic rays	$t_e$
Depth of sample during this exposure	$z$
Duration of earlier exposure	$N(z,0)$
Erosion rate	$\varepsilon$

# Exposure age dating - ideal case

$$N(z,t) = \left[ N(z,0)e^{-\lambda t_e} + \frac{P(t)}{\lambda + \mu\varepsilon} e^{-\mu z} (1 - e^{-(\lambda + \mu\varepsilon)t_e}) \right]$$

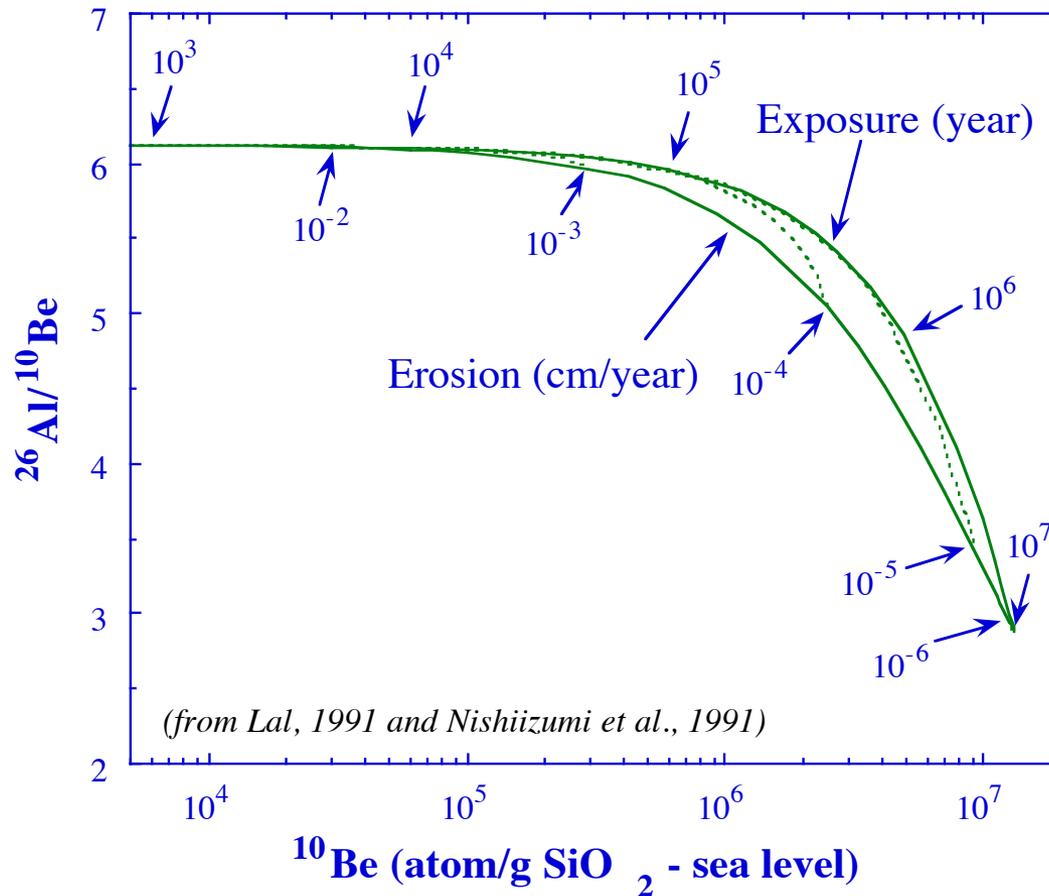
$$N(z,0) = 0$$

$$\varepsilon = 0$$

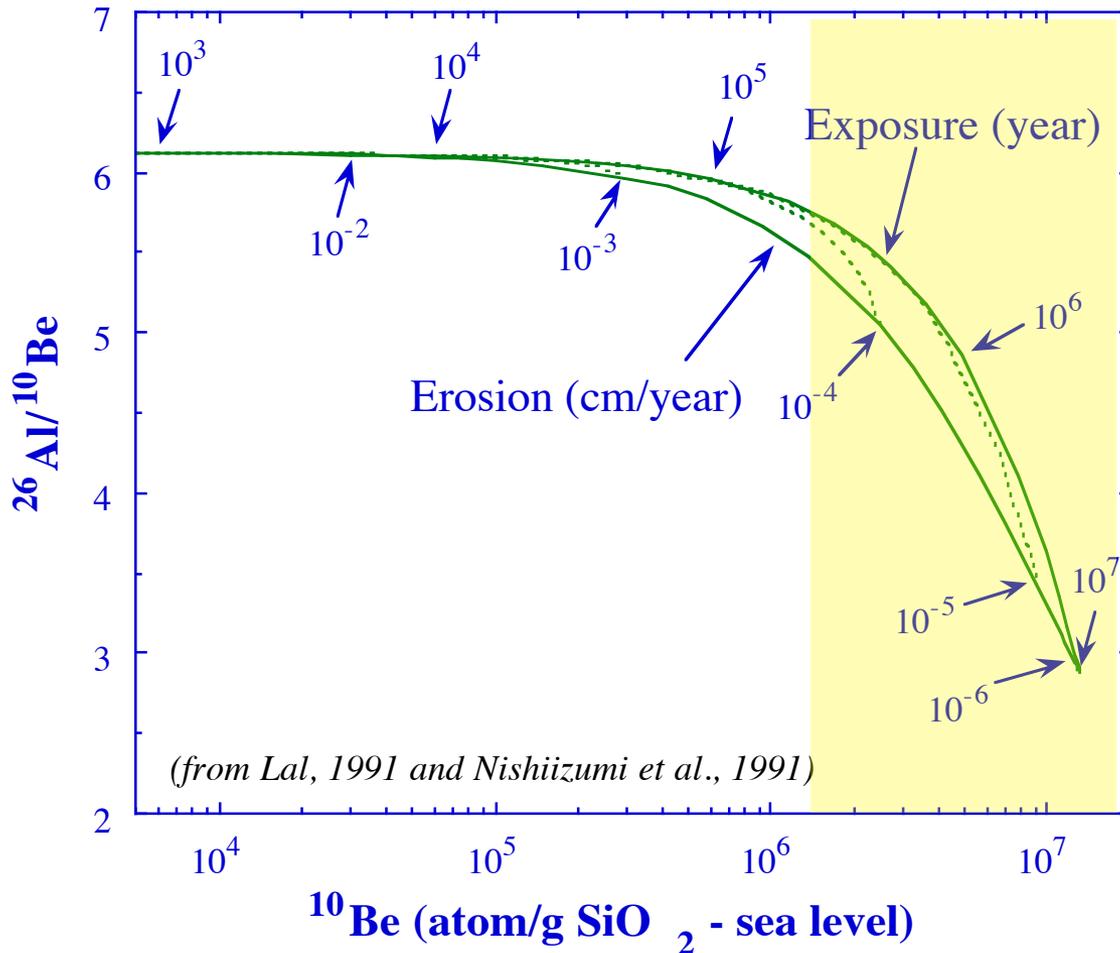
$z = 0$  or is known

$$N(z,t) = \frac{P(t)}{\lambda} (1 - e^{-\lambda t_e})$$

# Systematics of terrestrial production

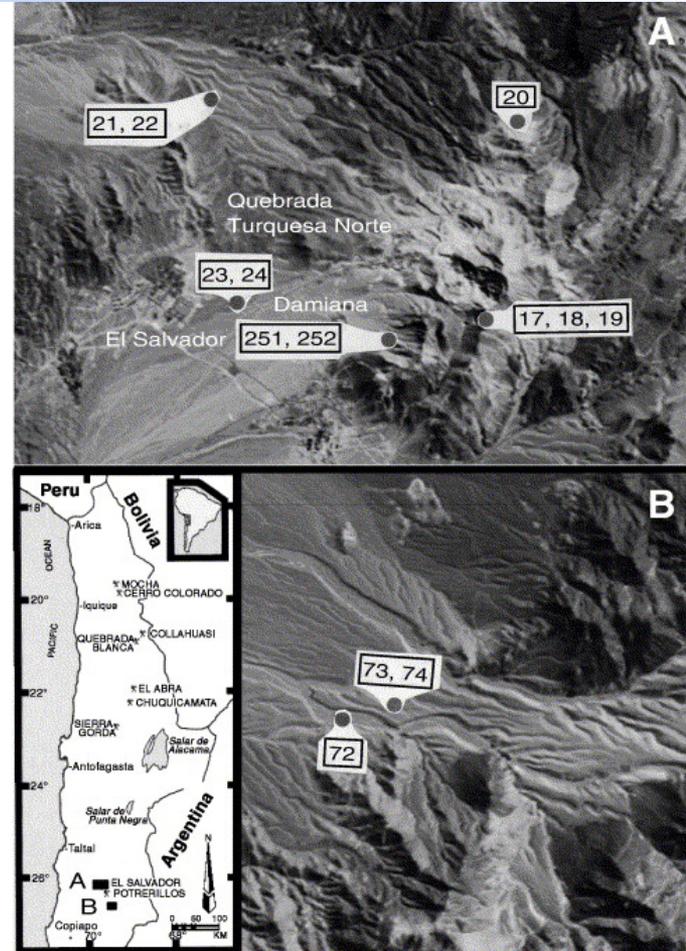
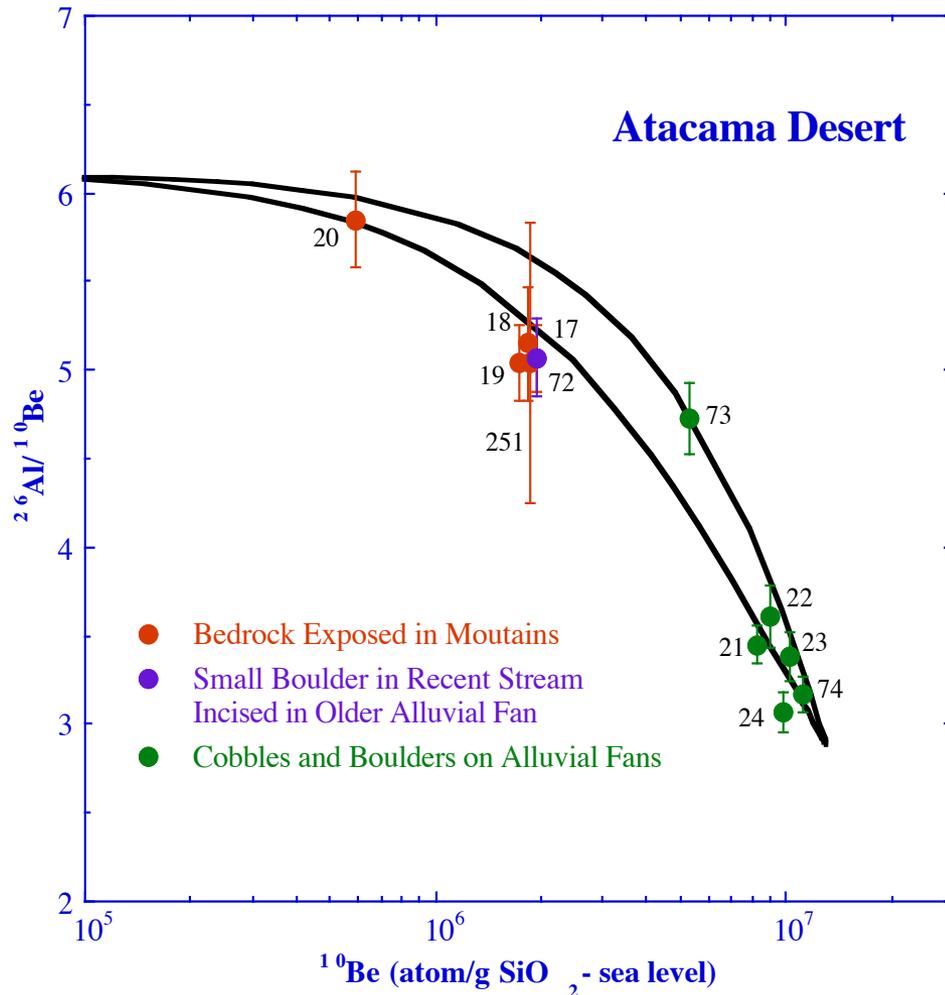


# Systematics of terrestrial production



- Exposure ages  $> 10^5$  yr require low erosion rates
- Long exposure ages and low erosion rates are best attained in arid conditions

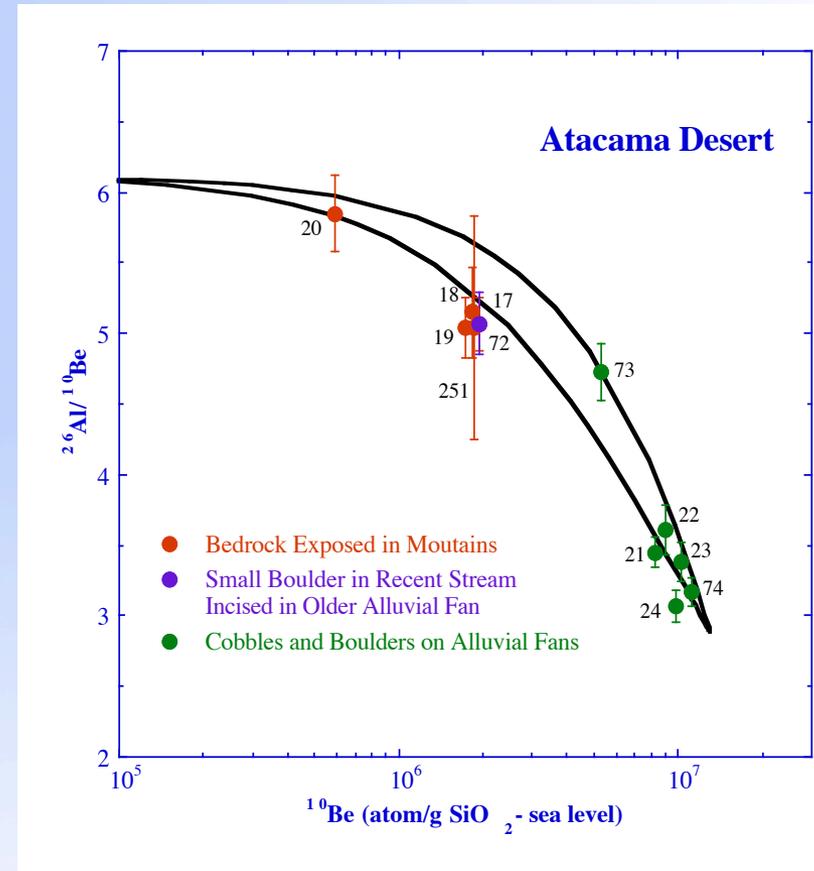
# Cosmogenic nuclides from the Atacama Desert



(Data and figures taken from Nishiizumi *et al.*, 237, *EPSL*, 2005)

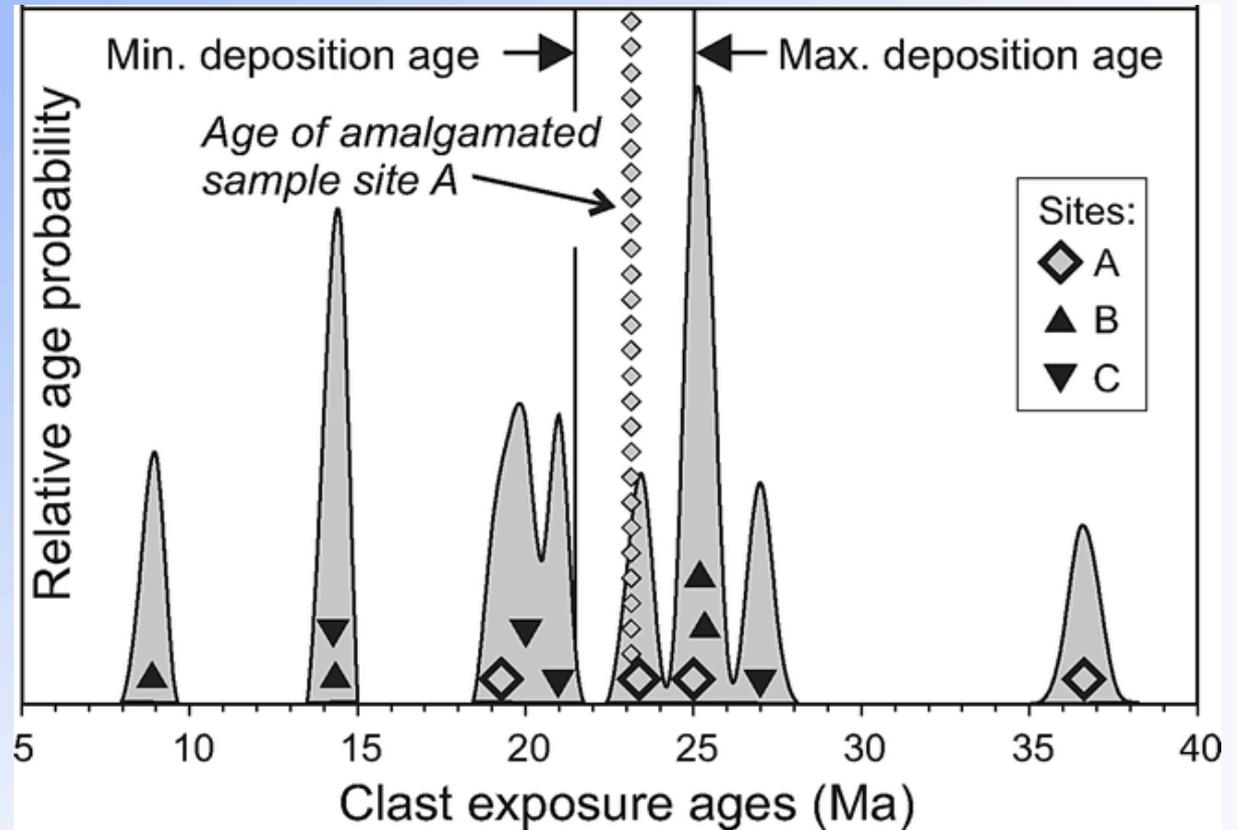
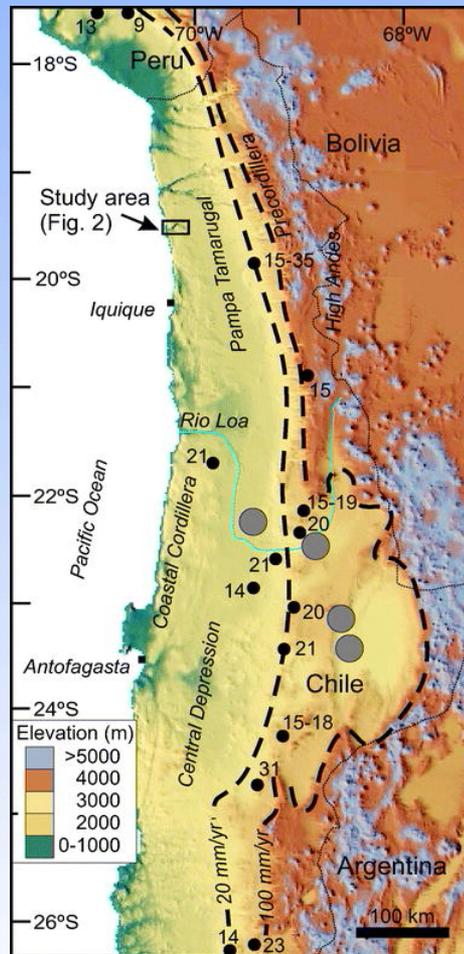
# Cosmogenic exposure ages and erosion rates

ID	Minimum $^{10}\text{Be}$ Exp Age (Myr)	Maximum Erosion Rate (m/Myr)
17	$0.35 \pm 0.01$	$1.68 \pm 0.05$
18	$0.33 \pm 0.01$	$1.80 \pm 0.04$
19	$0.32 \pm 0.01$	$1.93 \pm 0.09$
20	$0.10 \pm 0.01$	$6.03 \pm 0.15$
21	$2.22 \pm 0.05$	$0.17 \pm 0.02$
22	$2.63 \pm 0.06$	$0.10 \pm 0.03$
23	$3.49 \pm 0.24$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$
24	$3.08 \pm 0.19$	$0.12 \pm 0.04$
72	$0.36 \pm 0.01$	$1.67 \pm 0.04$
73	$1.14 \pm 0.03$	$0.36 \pm 0.09$
74	$4.41 \pm 0.29$	$0.03 \pm 0.01$
251	$0.34 \pm 0.01$	$1.67 \pm 0.04$



(Data and figures taken from Nishiizumi *et al.*, 237, *EPSL*, 2005)

# Cosmogenic $^{21}\text{Ne}$ from the Atacama Desert

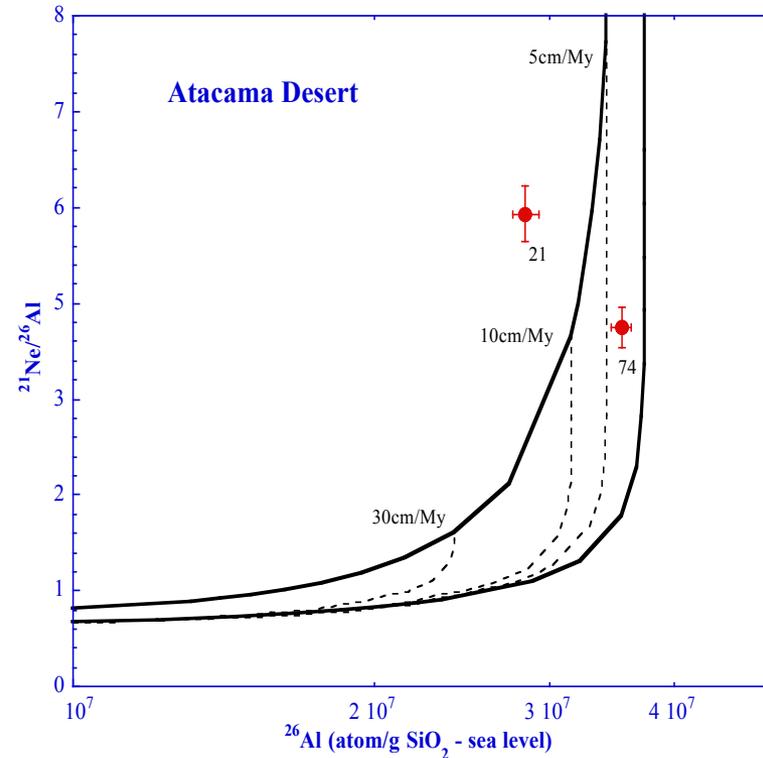
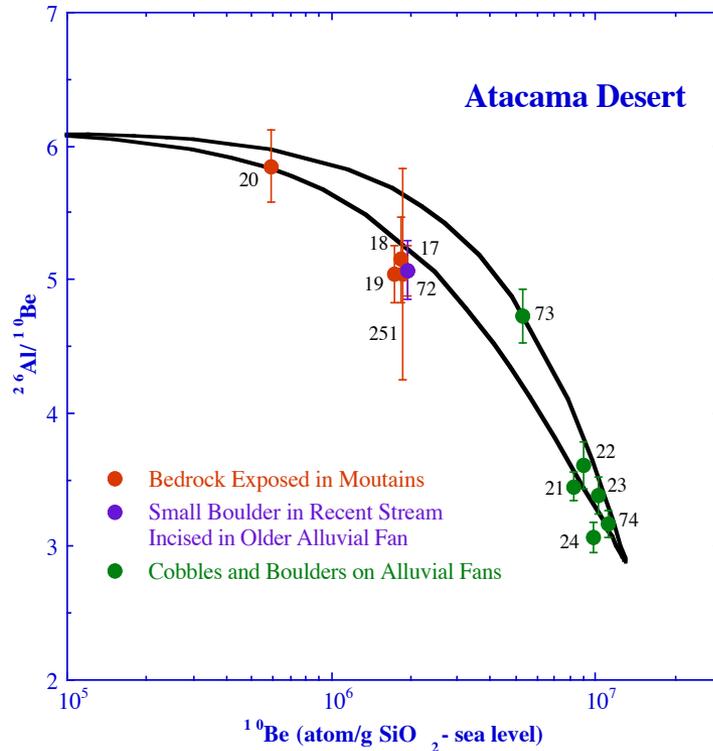


(Data and figures from Dunai *et al.*, 33 *Geology* 2005)

# First order observations

- Cosmogenic nuclide measurements of cobbles from the Atacama Desert demonstrate a Miocene age for these landscapes
- Maximum erosion rates are  $< 0.1$  m/Myr from cobbles taken from alluvial fans
- Bedrock erosion rates are  $\sim$  an order of magnitude higher than cobble erosion rates
- Although cobbles have long exposure histories they are not necessarily simple exposure histories

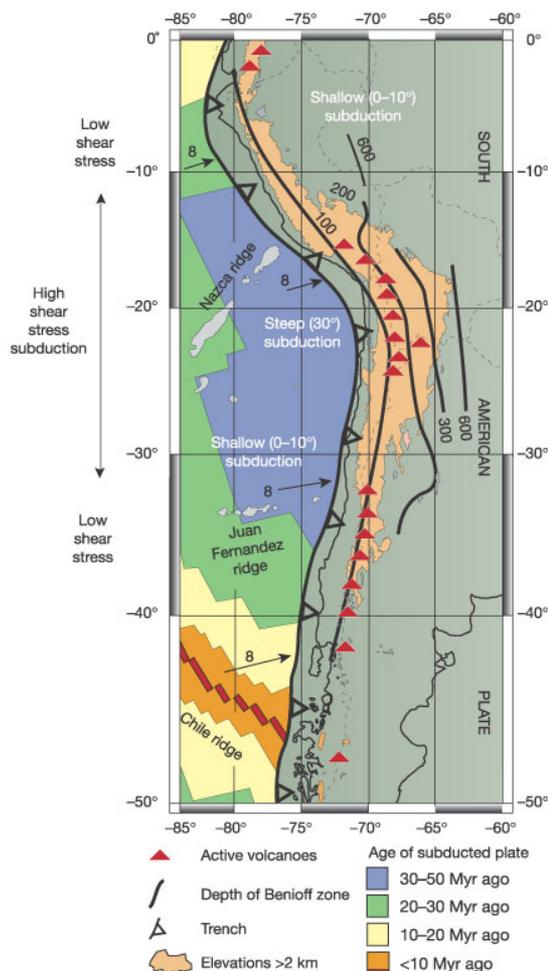
# Complex exposure histories



$$N(z,t) = \left[ N(z,0)e^{-\lambda t_e} + \frac{P(0)}{\lambda + \mu\varepsilon} e^{-\mu z} (1 - e^{-(\lambda + \mu\varepsilon)t_e}) \right] e^{-\lambda t_b}$$

(Data and figures taken from Nishiizumi *et al.*, 237, **EPSL**, 2005)

# Climate change and uplift

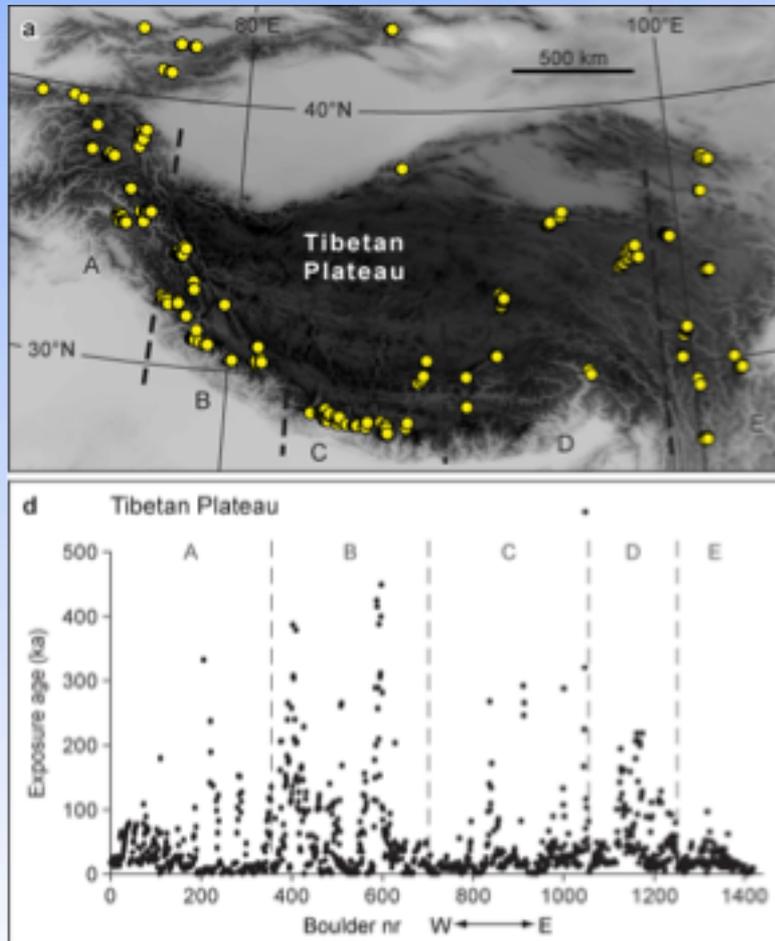


- Lamb and Davis (**Nature**, 425, 2003) propose that the dynamics of subduction and mountain building are controlled by the availability of erosion
- Dunai et al (**Geology**, 33, 2005) note that low erosion rates in the Atacama Desert have been prevalent for ~ 25 Myr

# Cosmogenic nuclides in arid environments

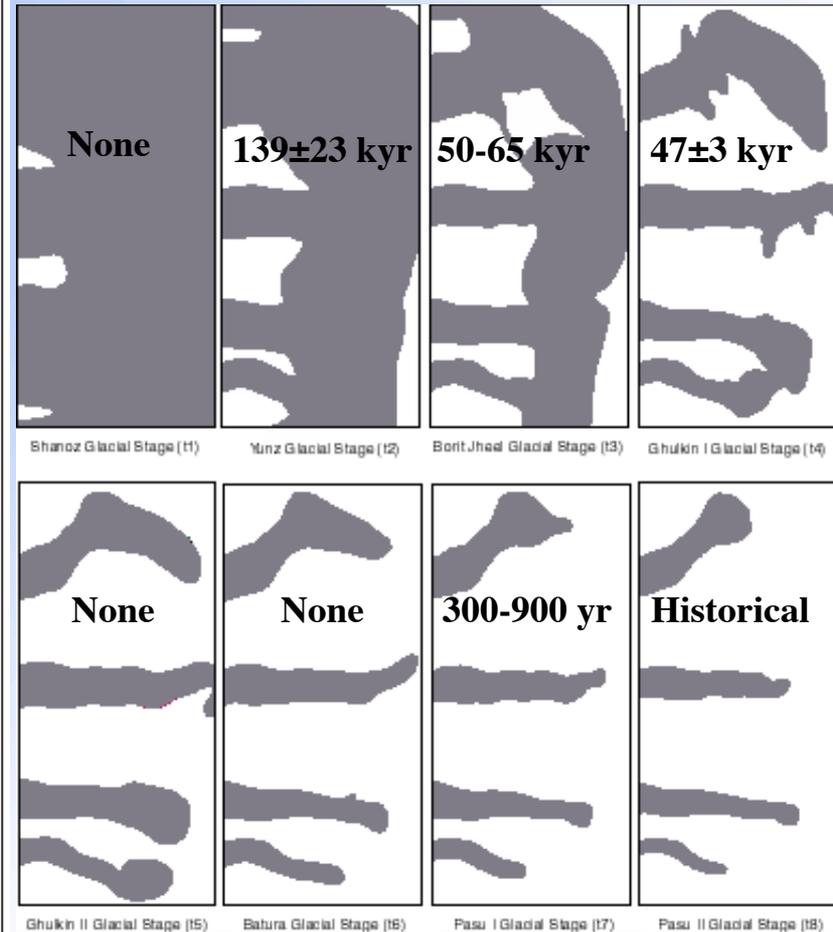
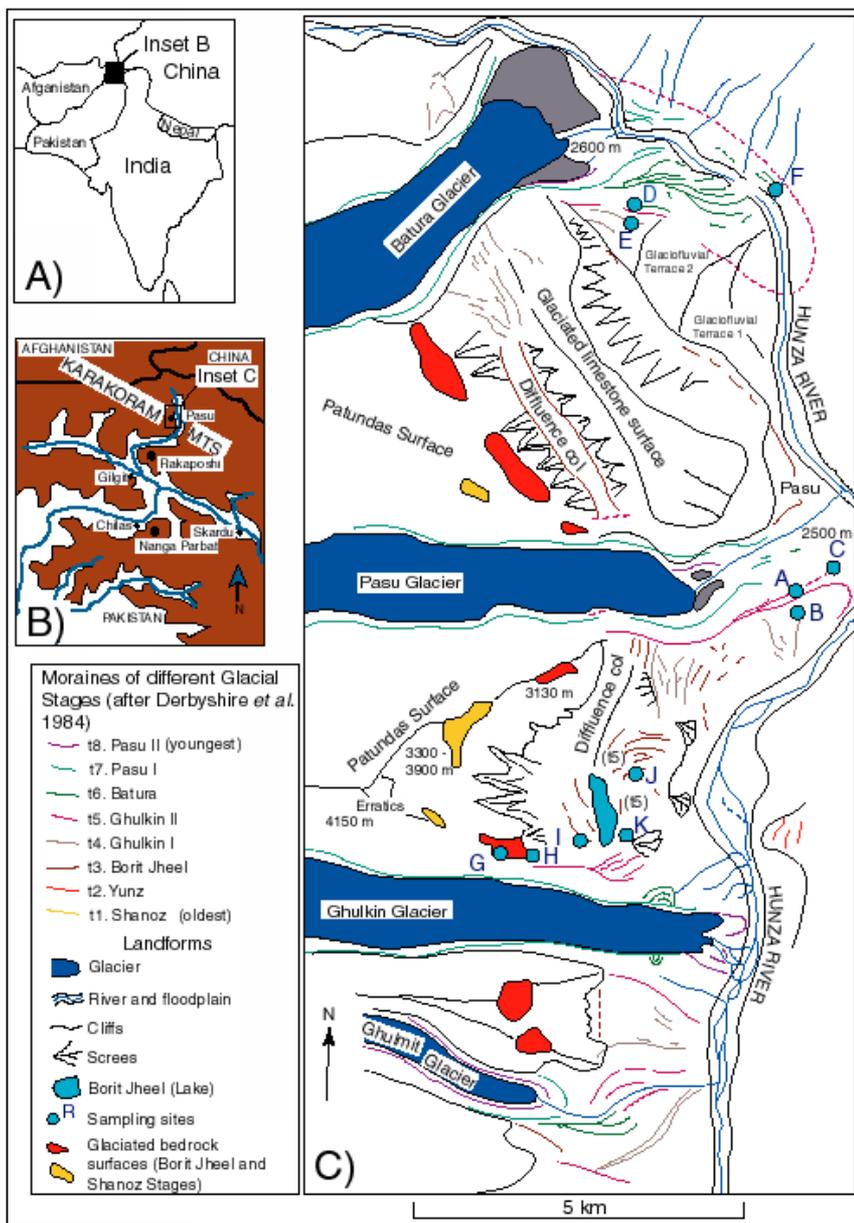
- Cosmogenic nuclides are readily measured from arid and hyper-arid environments
- These environments are ideal testing grounds for cosmogenic nuclides
- These measurements unequivocally demonstrate the antiquity of landforms
- Ages and erosion rates determined using cosmogenic nuclides in turn are being used to reconstruct climate change chronologies and understand relationships between climate change and tectonic activity

# Exposure ages of boulders across the Himalaya and Tibet

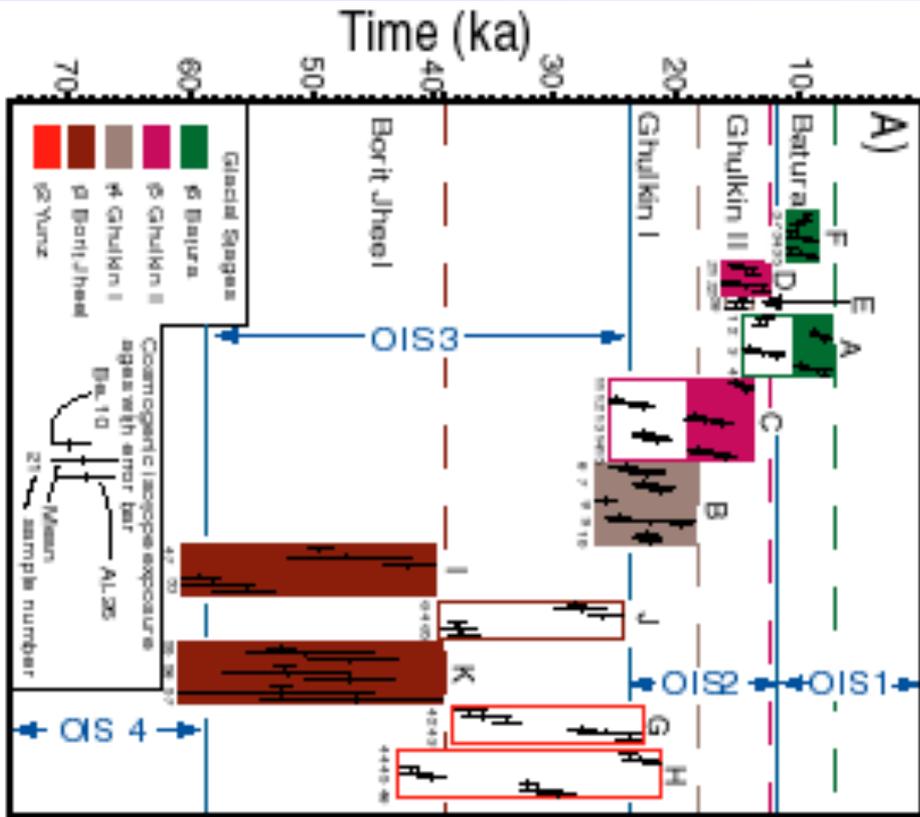
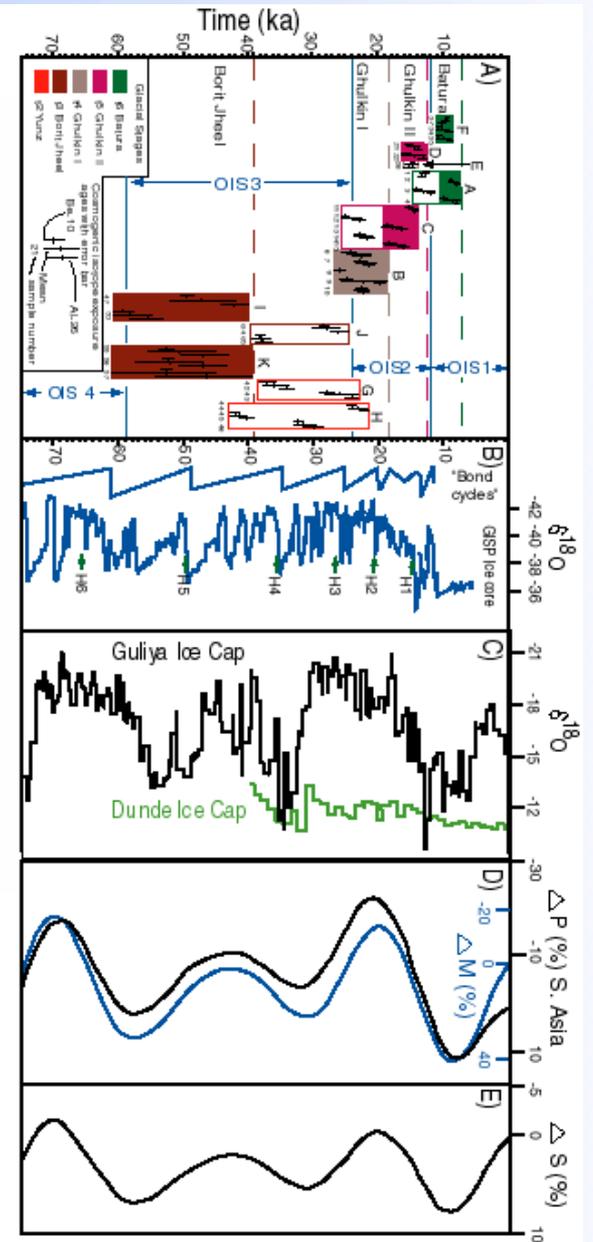


- Cosmogenic nuclide exposure ages do not always yield well-defined ages for individual landforms
- Does the minimum age or maximum boulder age best represent the moraine age?
- What geologic processes account for the spread in ages?

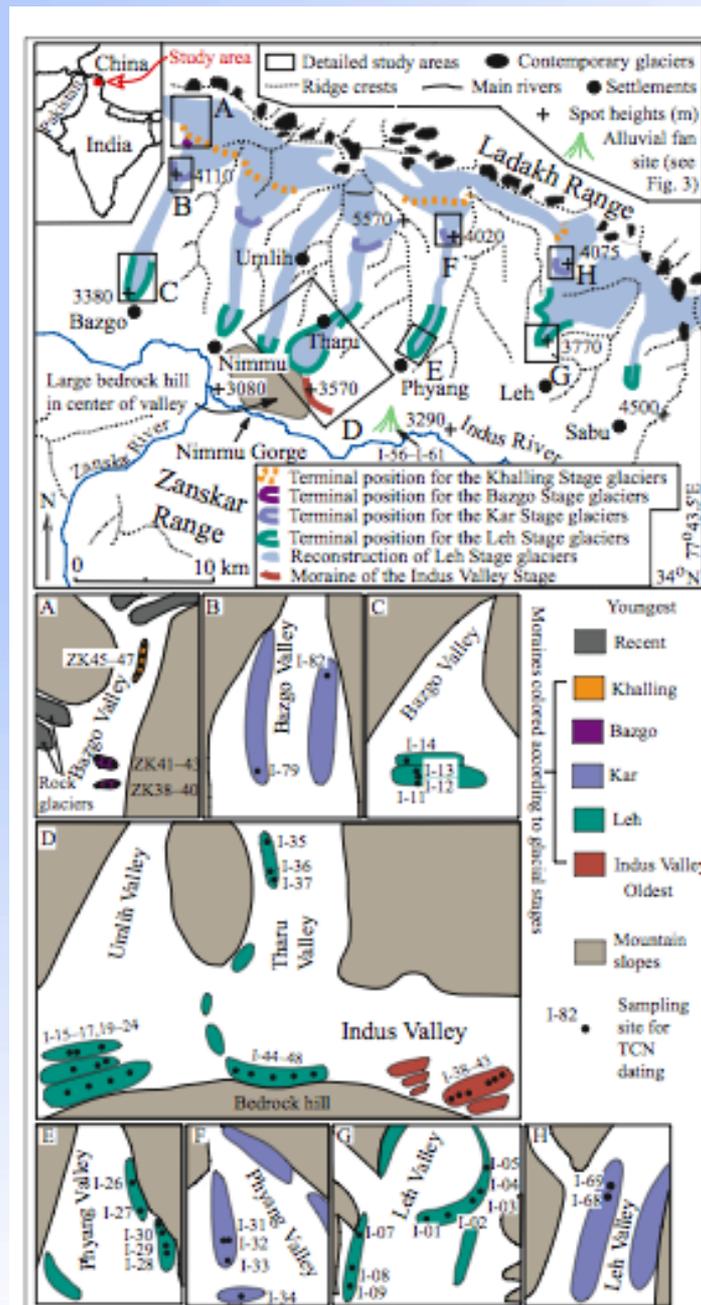
# Glacial cycles in Hunza



# Glacial cycles in Hunza

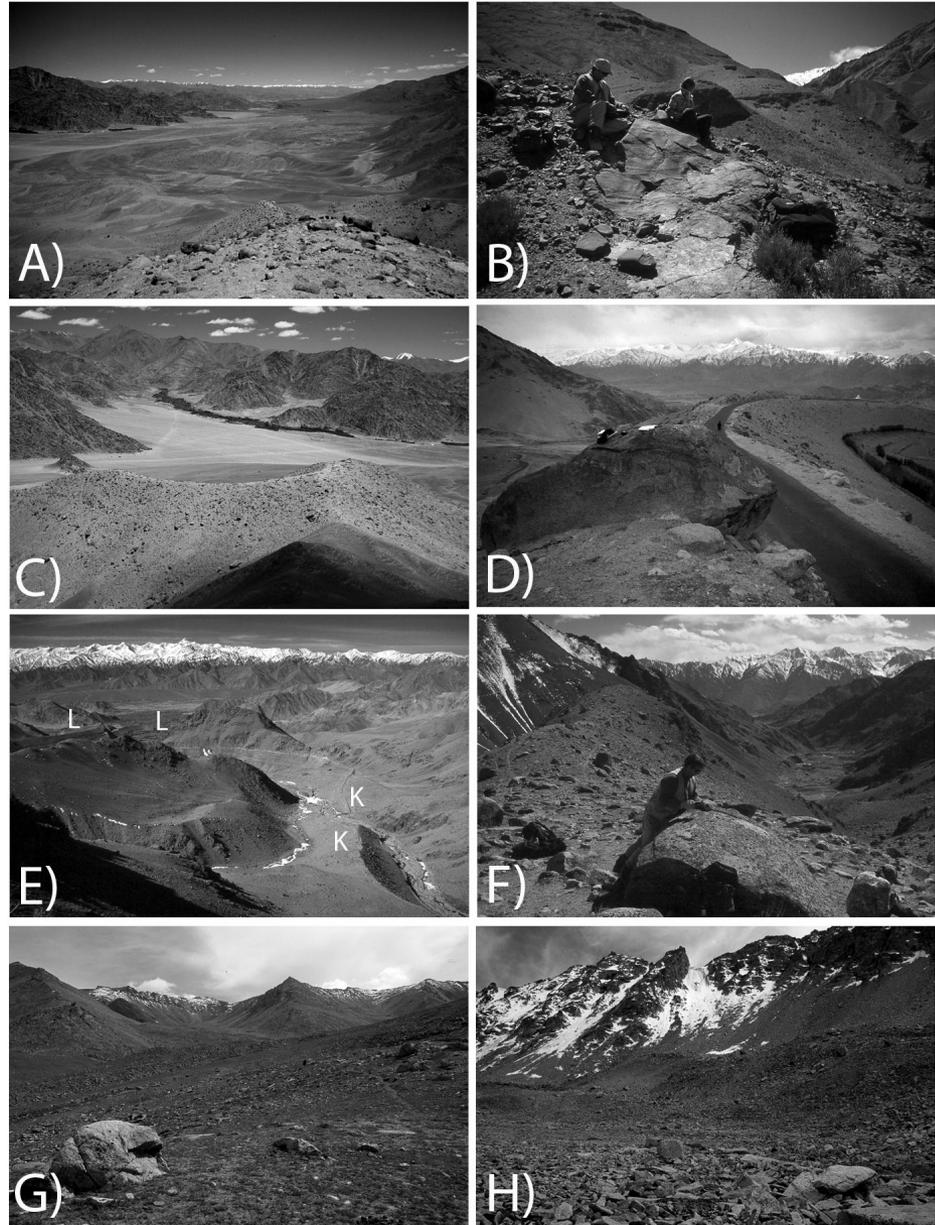


# Ladakh glacial chronologies



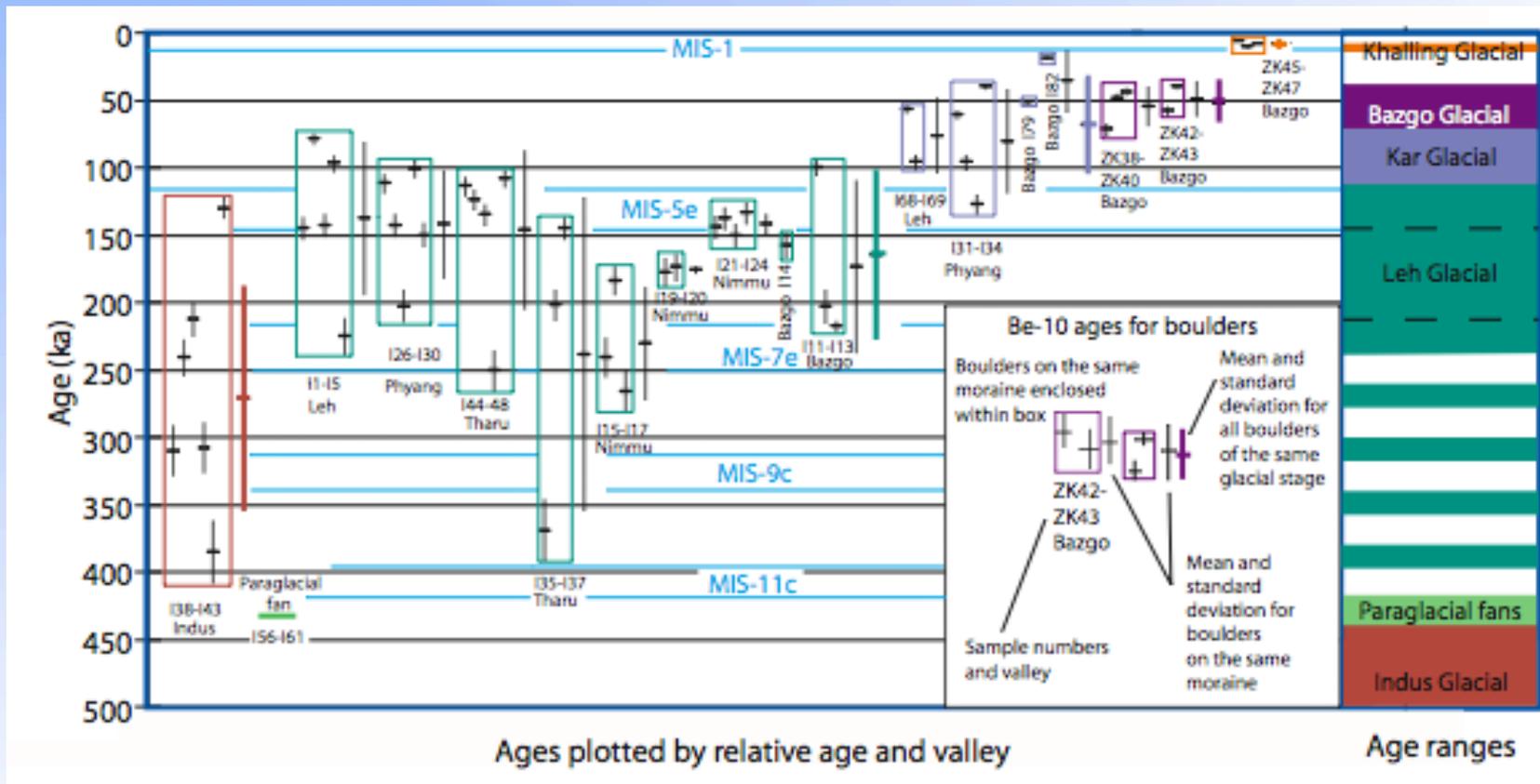
(Owen et al, 2005)

# Ladakh glacial moraines



(Owen et al, 2005)

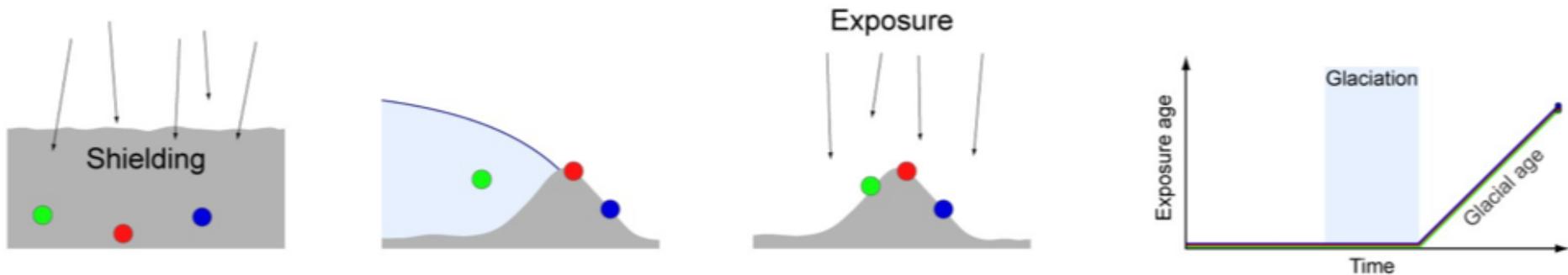
# Ladakh glacial chronology



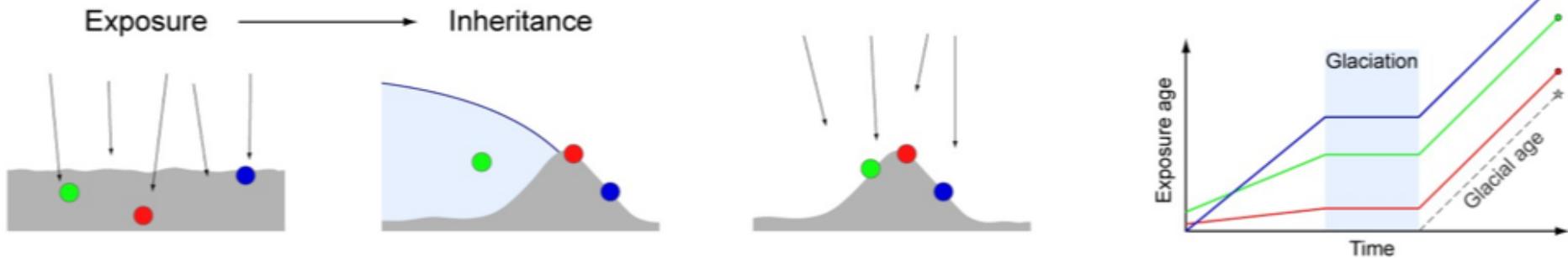
(Owen et al, 2005)

# Geological sources of error

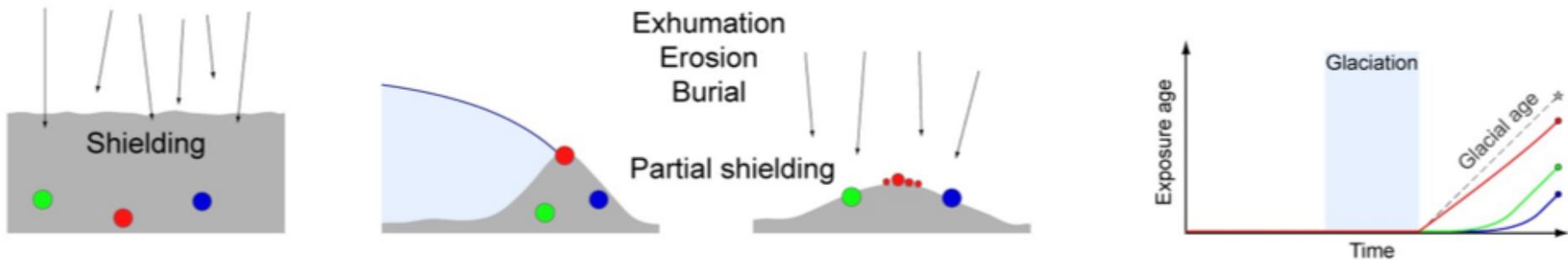
## IDEAL CASE



## PRE-GLACIAL EXPOSURE



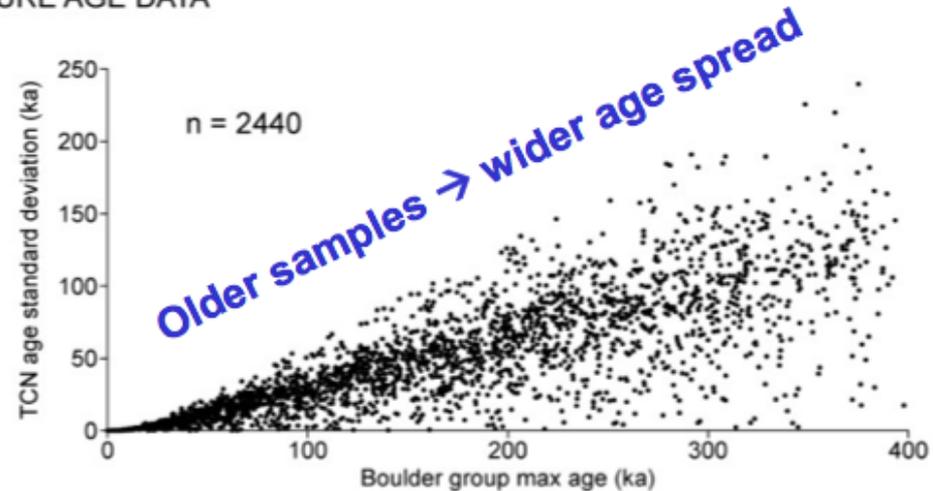
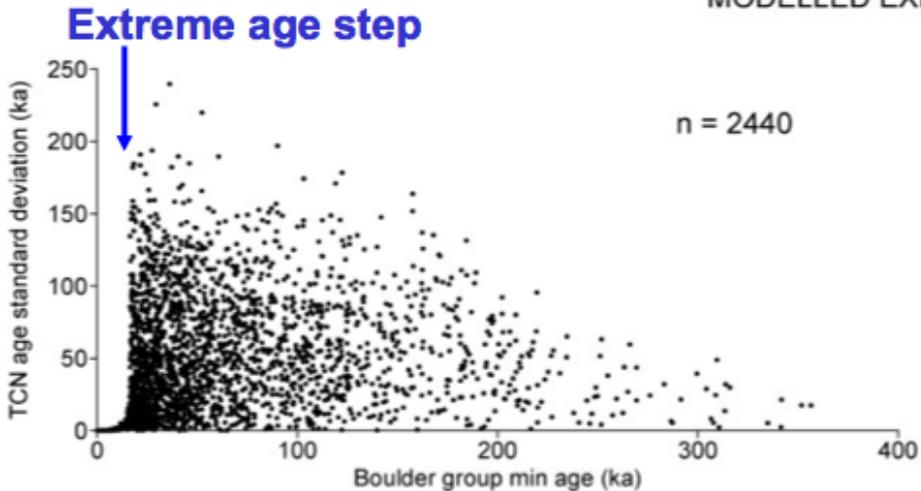
## POST-GLACIAL SHIELDING



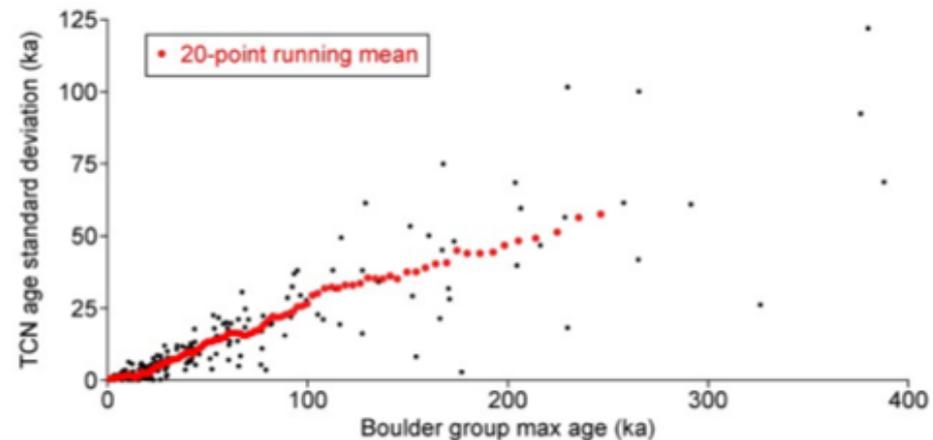
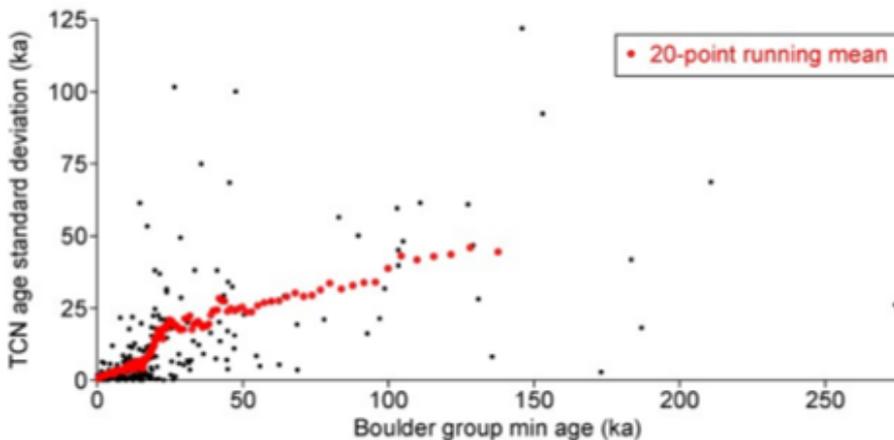
# Post-glacial shielding by boulder exhumation

Numerical model assuming constant boulder exhumation  
(5 cm/ka) through till ( $2.0 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ,  $165 \text{ g*cm}^{-2}$ )

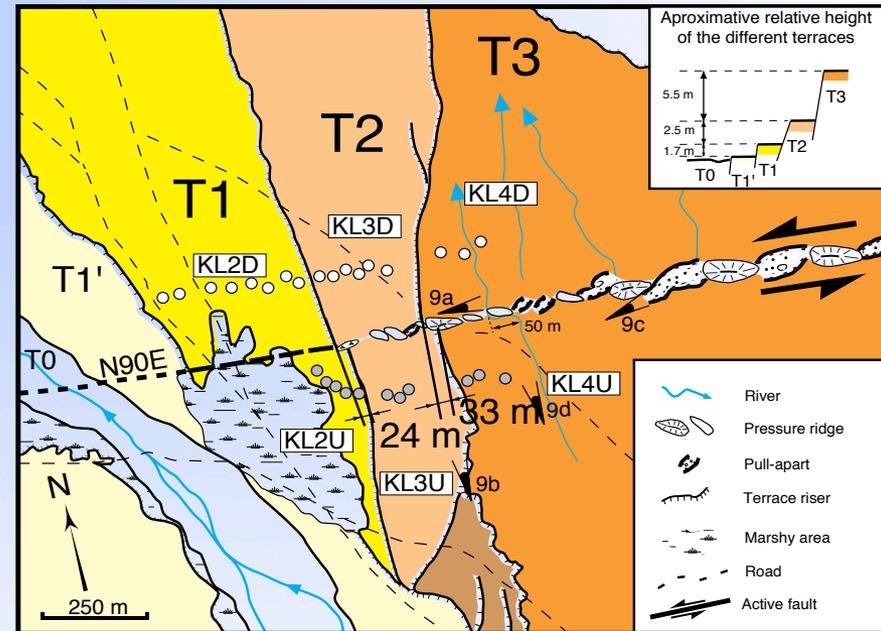
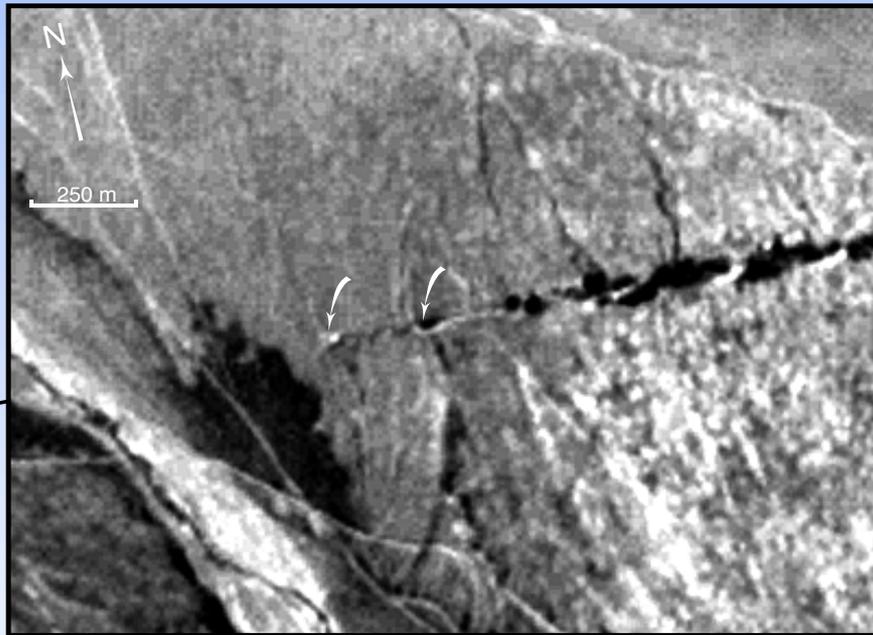
MODELLLED EXPOSURE AGE DATA



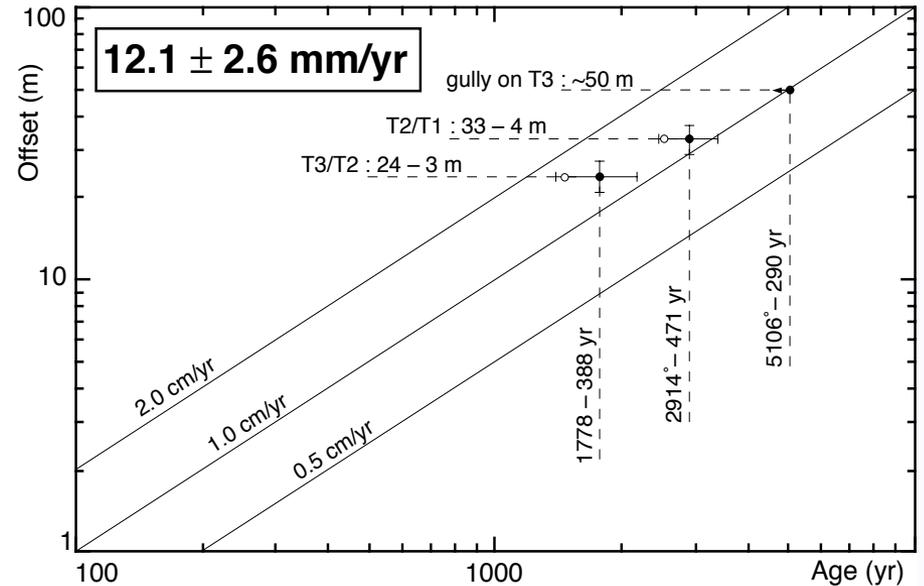
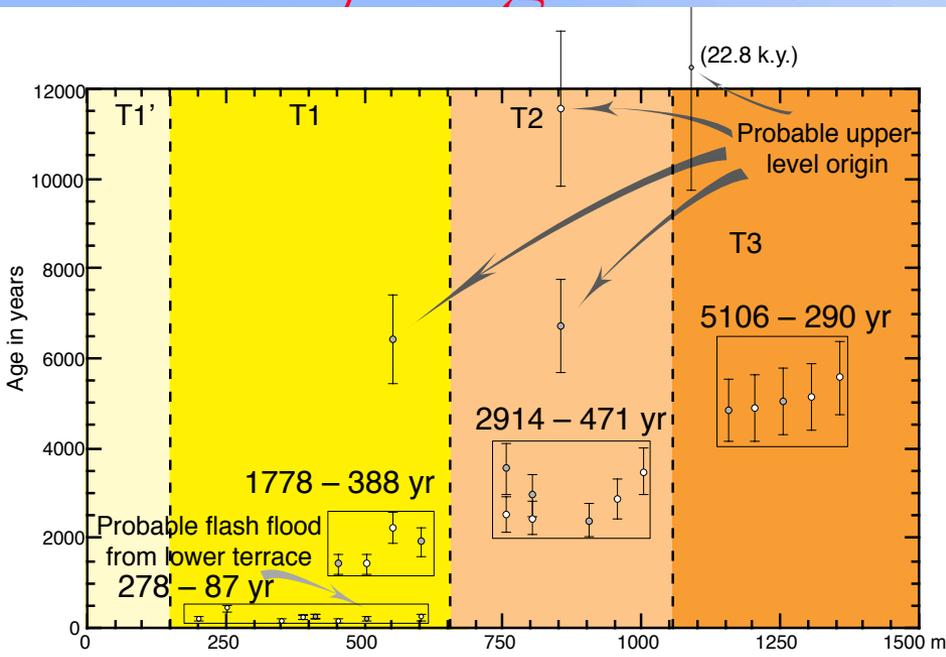
MEASURED EXPOSURE AGE DATA



# Cosmogenic nuclides can be used to study large-scale tectonics

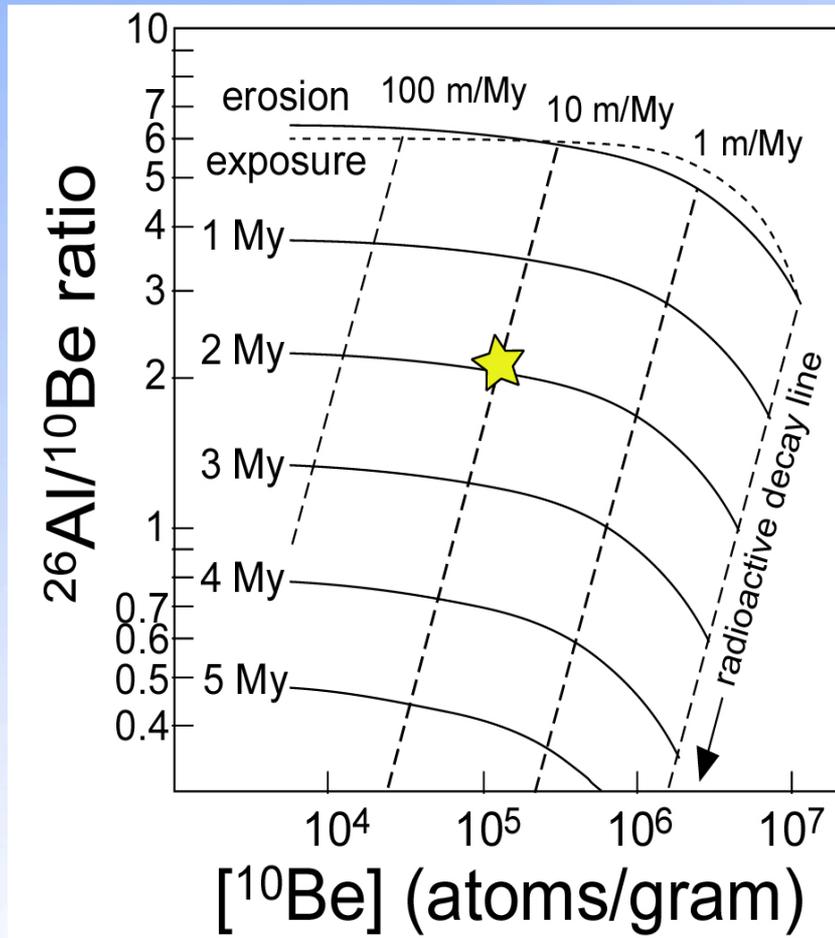


# Cosmogenic nuclides can be used to study large-scale tectonics



- There is considerable disparity between cosmogenic-nuclide-based slip rates and geodetic-based slip rates - the latter are less

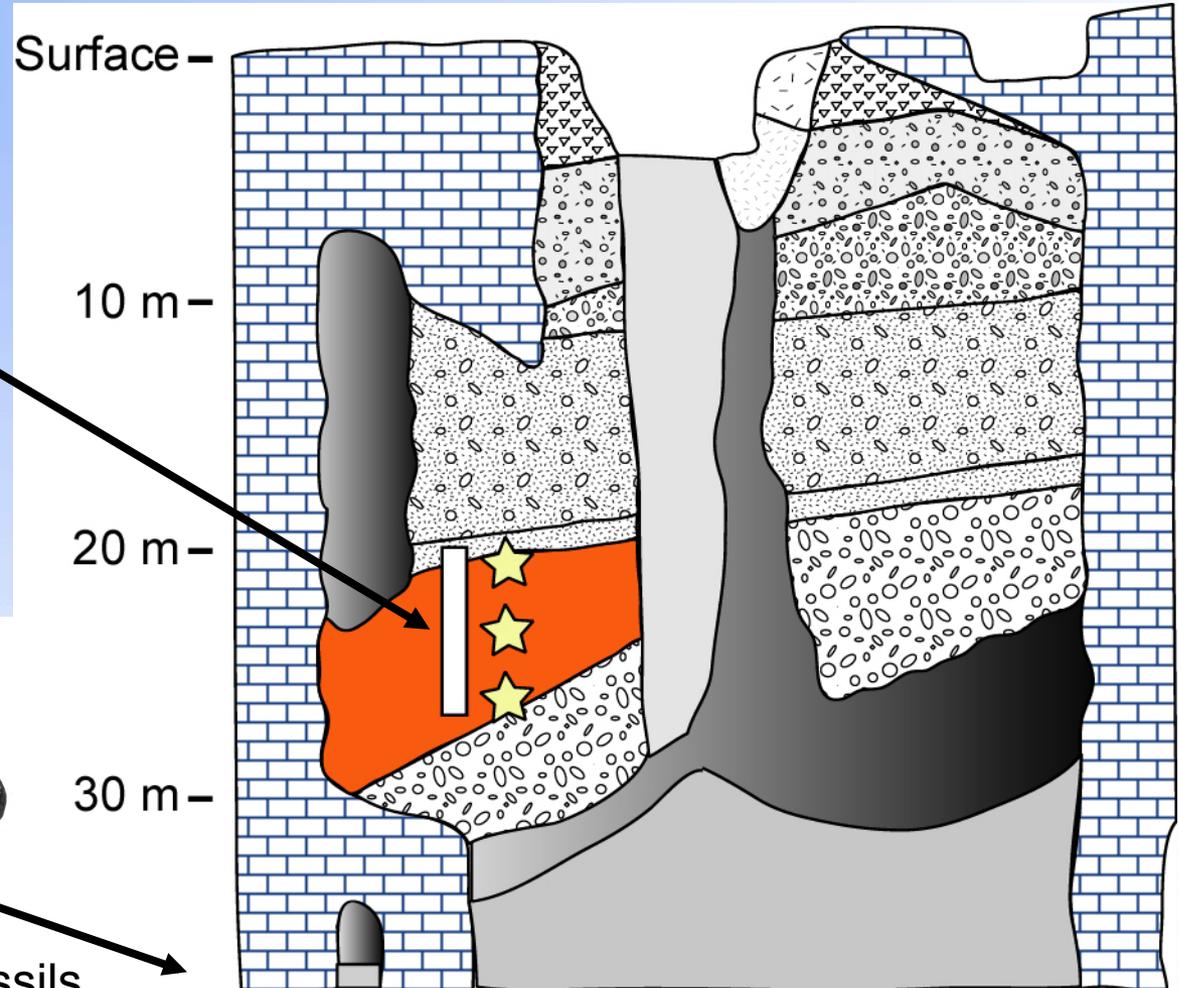
# Burial times and pre-burial erosion rates can be inferred

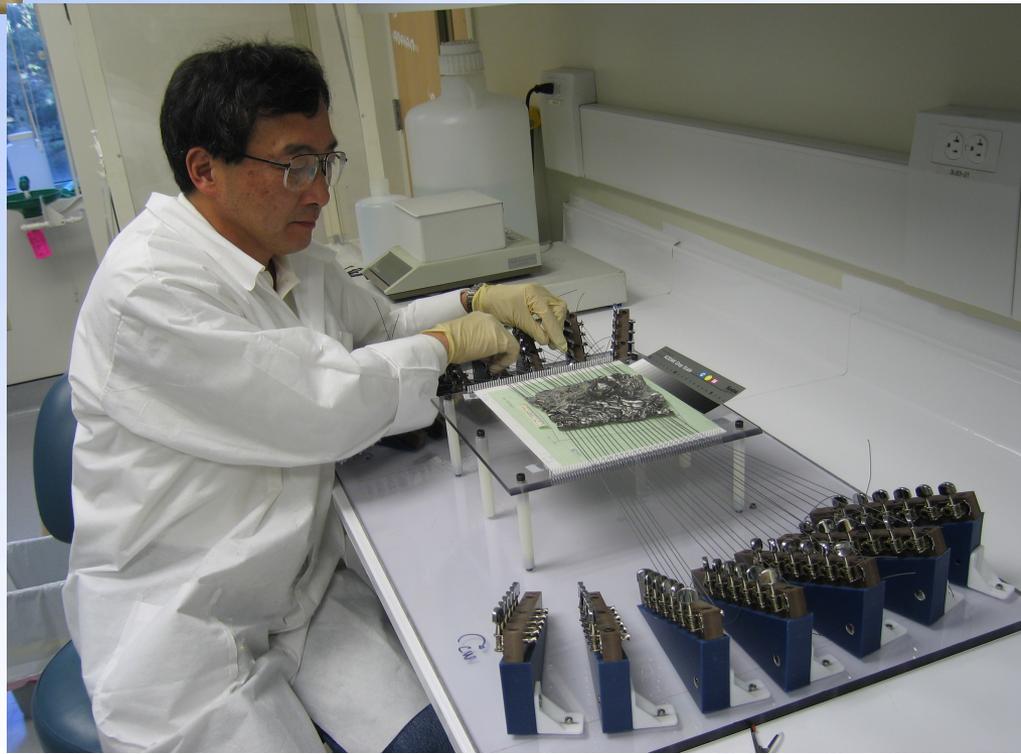


# *Australopithecus* fossils at Sterkfontein, South Africa



Oldest *Australopithecus* fossils





# AMS at Purdue

