

# Chemische Methoden

## Elemente und Elementgruppen

# Alkali- & Erdalkalimetalle

**Stark elektropositiv, geringe Ionisierungsenergie,**

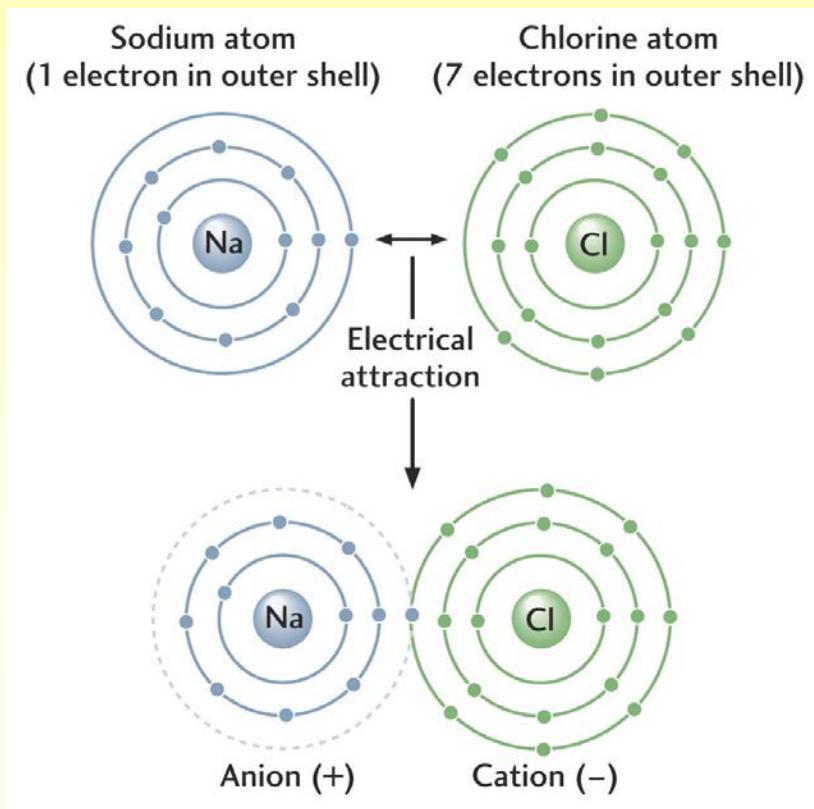
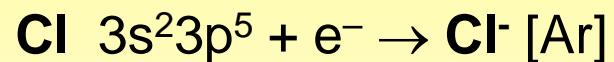
reakтив, бilden ionische Verbindungen

# Oxide sind basisch

# Alkali- & Erdalkalimetalle: Ionische Verbindungen

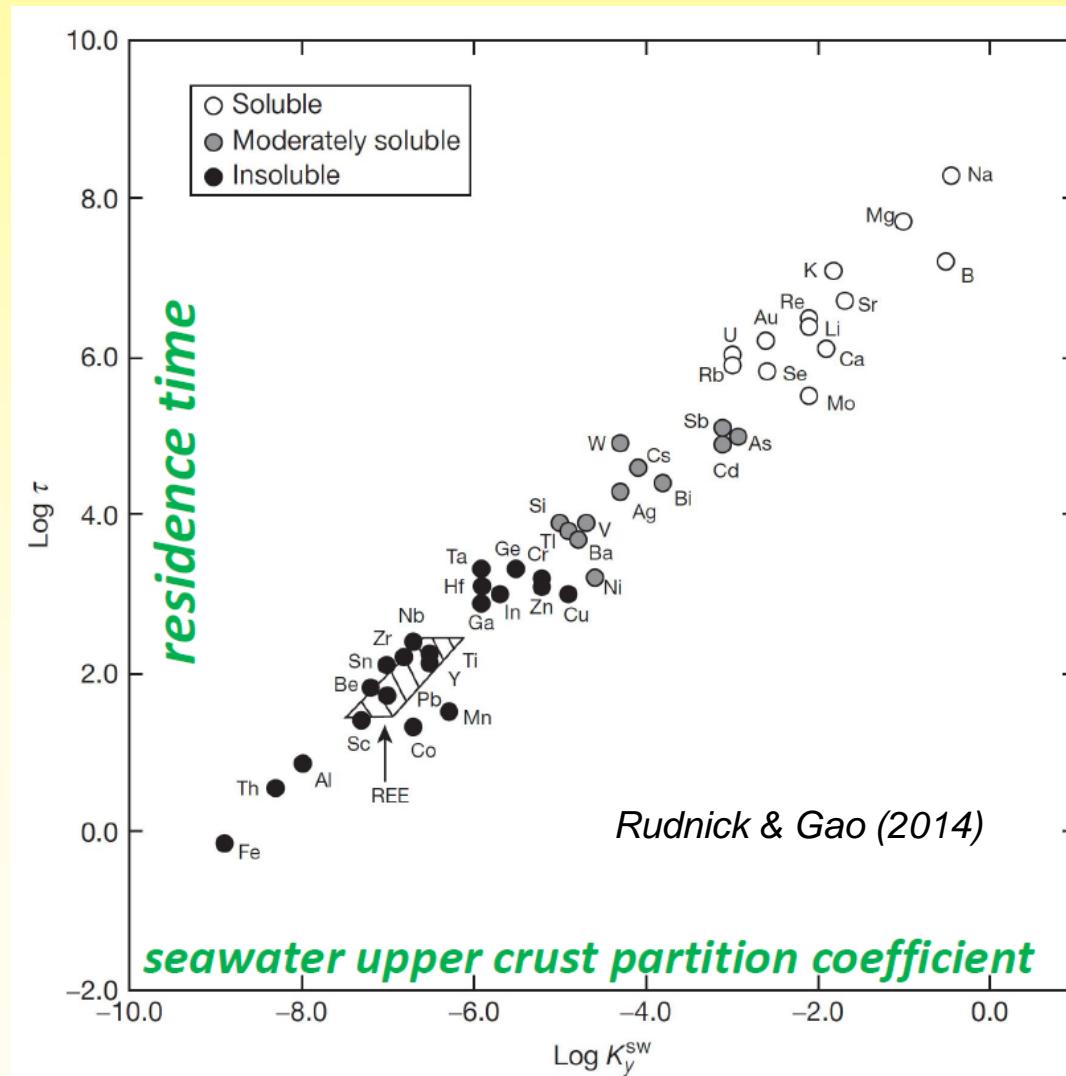
Ionenbindung zwischen Alkalimetallen und Elementen, die rechts im PSE stehen, den Nichtmetallen. Natriumchlorid klassischer Fall der Ionenbindung  
Na: e<sup>-</sup> Donator (wird zu Kation), Nichtmetall (z.B. Cl) e<sup>-</sup> Akzeptor (wird zu Anion)

Die Ionenbindung ist elektrostatischer Natur aber nicht orientiert bzw. nicht gerichtet



# Alkali- & Erdalkalimetalle

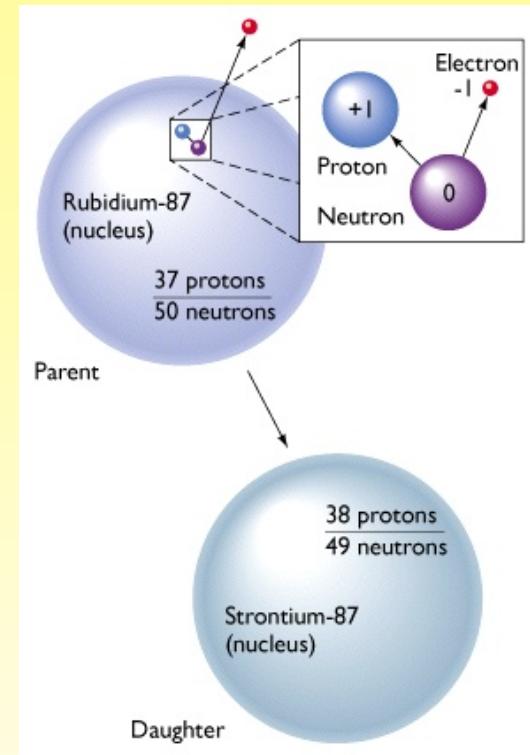
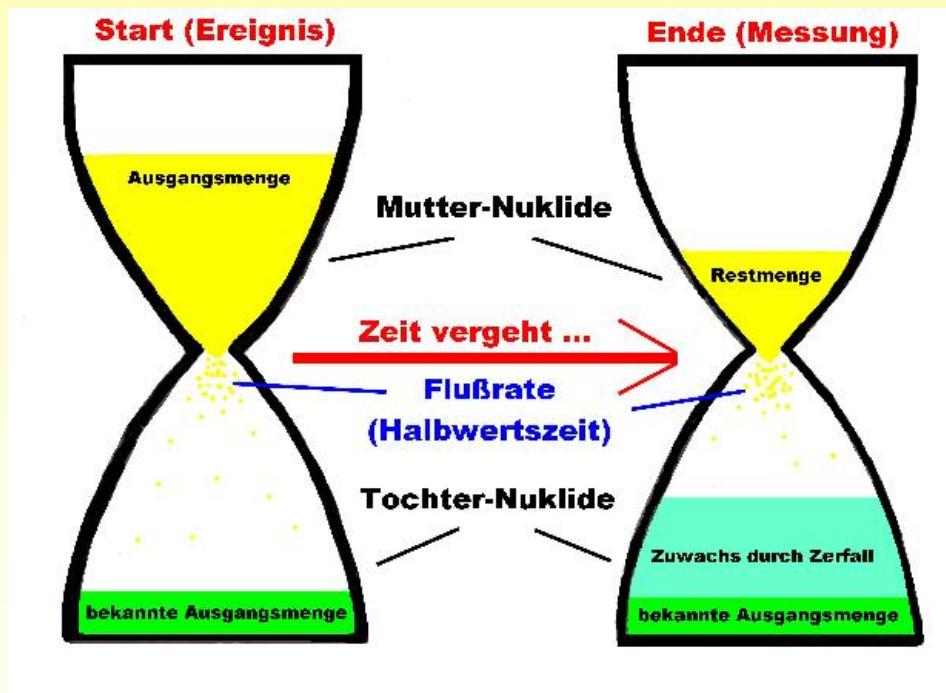
## Hohe Löslichkeiten im Meerwasser



# Radioaktive Alkalimetalle

Von großer Bedeutung sind  **$^{40}\text{K}$**  und  **$^{87}\text{Rb}$**

Beide Isotope weisen große Halbwertszeiten auf (1.25 bzw. 48.8 Ga) und sind daher geeignet Erdalter zu bestimmen → isotopische Altersdatierung, Geochronologie



$$D = N(e^{\lambda t} - 1)$$

$$t = \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln\left(1 + \frac{D}{N}\right)$$

# Wasserstoff (H)

H verhält sich **nicht** wie die anderen Alkalimetalle (besitzt z.B. eine viel höhere Ionisierungsenergie und keine Metalleigenschaften)

Geowissenschaftlich wichtig als  $\text{OH}^-$  (in wasserhaltigen Mineralen wie Glimmern) und als **Wassermolekül** ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ )

Elementarer Wasserstoff besteht aus den beiden stabilen isotopen  $^1\text{H}$  (99.984%) und  $^2\text{H}$  (0.016%) bzw. D (Deuterium).  
Ein drittes Isotop, Tritium, ist radioaktiv

## The Three Isotopes of Hydrogen

● Proton    ● Neutron    • Electron

$^1\text{H}$



$^2\text{H}$



$^3\text{H}$

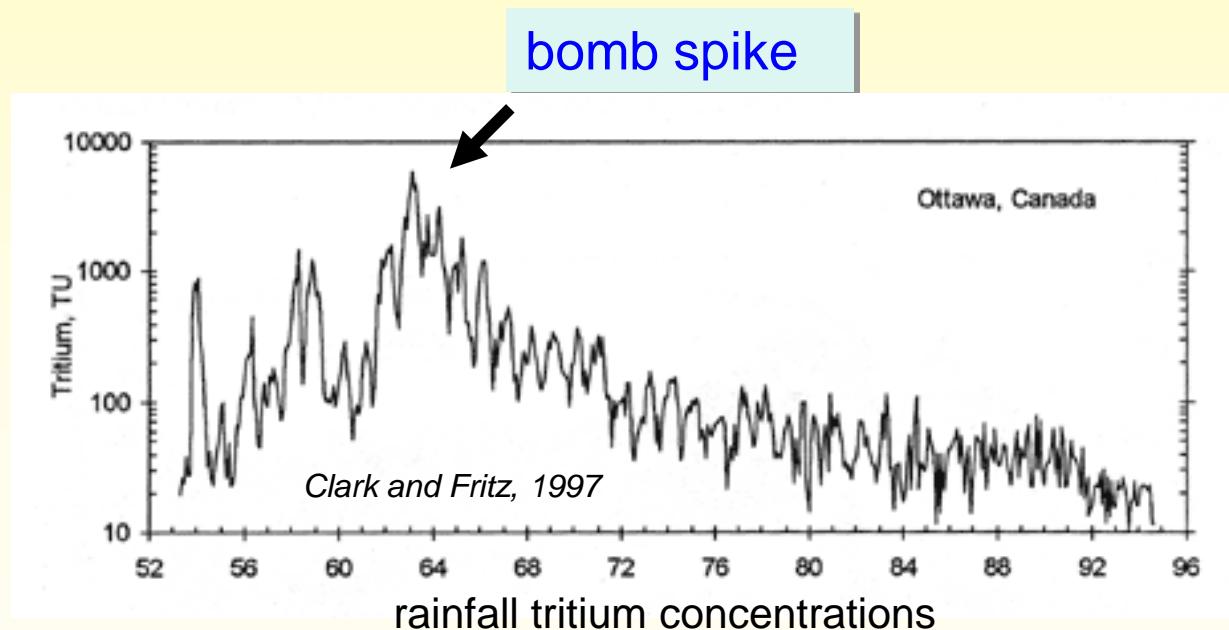


# Tritium – ein hydrologischer Tracer

## Bomb Tritium

Most of the tritium in the world today was produced by atmospheric testing of nuclear devices that began in 1952 and reached a maximum in 1963/1964.

The bulk of this tritium was released in the northern hemisphere, and entered the oceans.



# Tritium dating

- Tritium forms in the atmosphere by the interaction of  $^{14}\text{N}$  with cosmic-ray neutrons:



- Tritium rapidly combines with oxygen, forming water ( $\text{HTO}$ ).

Then it mixes with all other water

- Tritium decays to Helium-3;  $T_{1/2} = 12.3$  years

- Low activity  $\sim 1$  part in  $10^{18}$  (varies by region)

- Used to trace water sources; age of „recent“ materials

- Sources directly fed by rainwater will contain the same tritium levels as rainwater

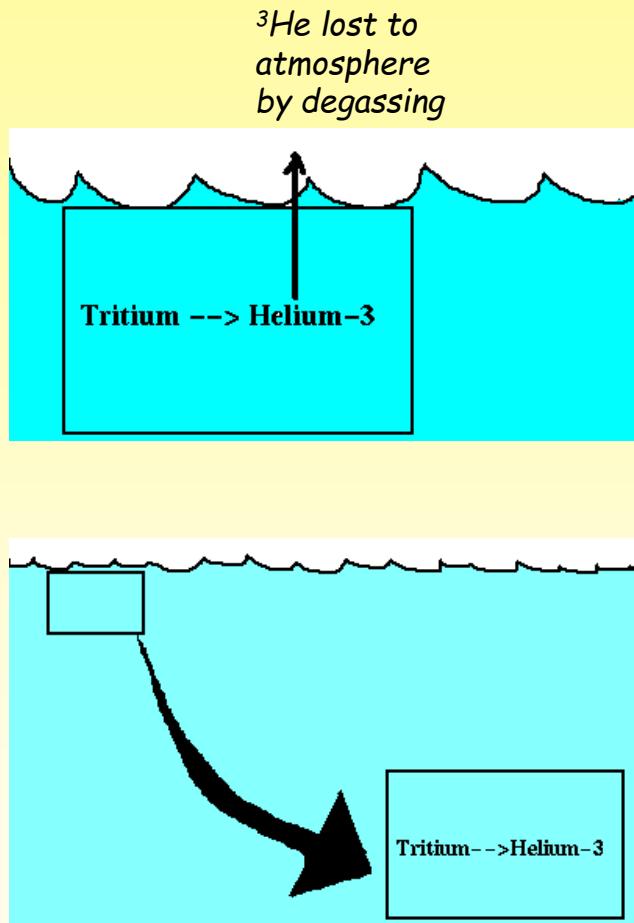
Reported in units of tritium units (TU):  
1 TU = 1 atom of tritium per  $10^{18}$  atoms of hydrogen

# Tritium / $^3\text{He}$ age

The tritium/ $^3\text{He}$  age is an **apparent age**

**Advantage:** It is independent of the initial tritium concentration of the water sample.

**Potential problem:** tritium/ $^3\text{He}$  age is affected by mixing and dispersion



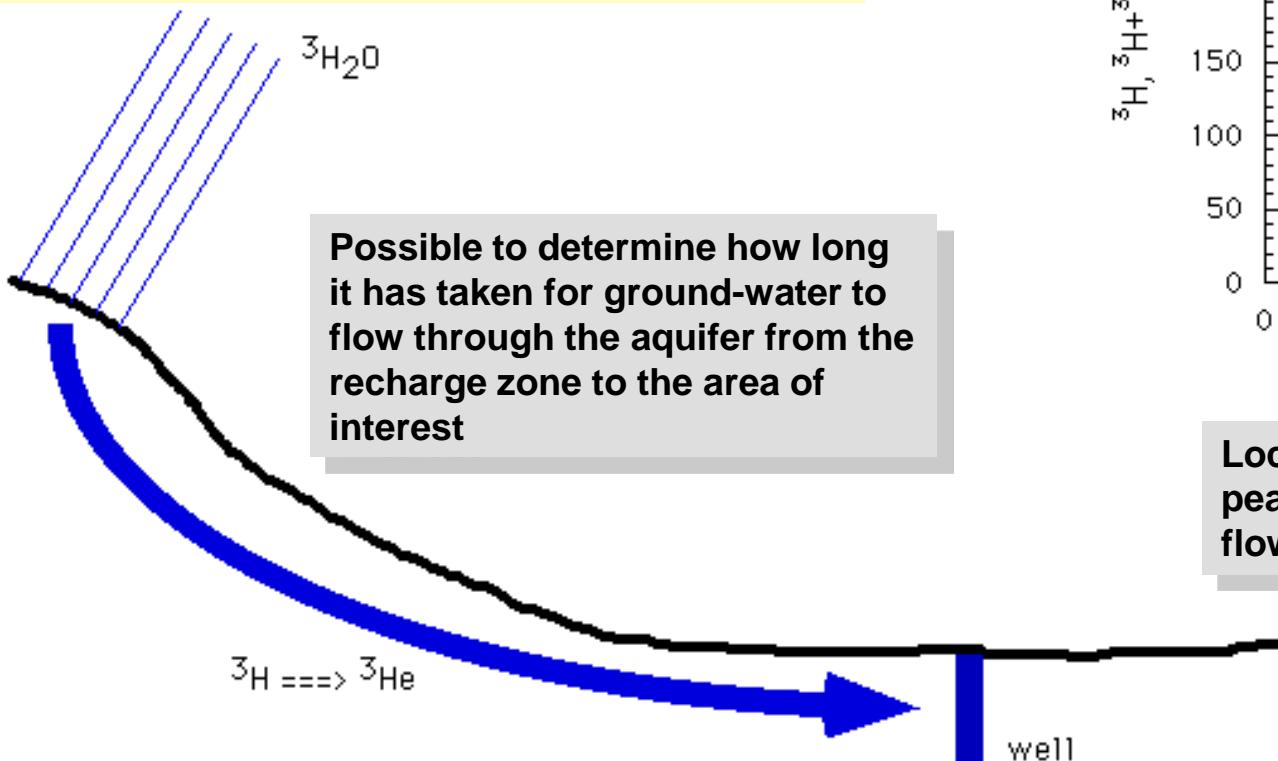
${}^3\text{He}$  accumulates after parcel is removed from surface

# Tritium dating

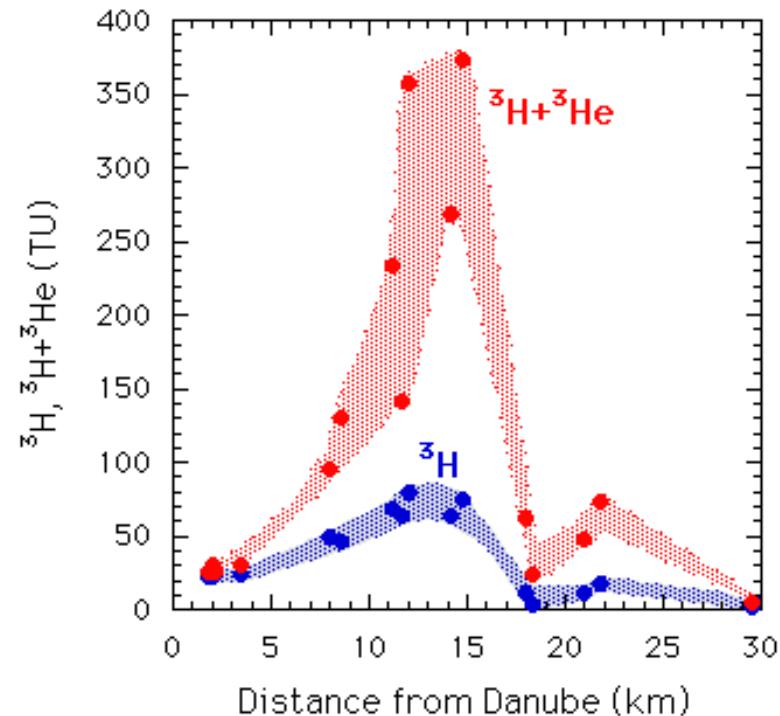
## Dating of ground waters

### Assumptions:

- (1) tritium of water was in equilibrium with atmospheric levels
- (2) decrease in tritium levels is only due to radioactive decay



Possible to determine how long it has taken for ground-water to flow through the aquifer from the recharge zone to the area of interest



Location of the mid-1960s bomb peak provides information on the flow velocity

${}^3\text{H}/{}^3\text{He}$  age is defined as the time elapsed since the water was isolated from the atmosphere

# Erdalkalimetalle, Leichte Elemente

*Periodensystem der Elemente*

The periodic table shows elements from 1 to 18. Key features include:

- Color coding:** Elements 1-2 (H, He) are orange; groups 3-12 are blue; groups 13-18 are yellow.
- Legend:**
  - Rel. Atommasse (Relative atomic mass) — Fe (Iron) is solid, O (Oxygen) is gas, Hg (Mercury) is liquid at 20°C.
  - Elementsymbol — C (Carbon) is solid, O (Oxygen) is gas, Hg (Mercury) is liquid at 20°C.
  - Elementname — Kohlenstoff (Carbon) is solid, Stickstoff (Nitrogen) is gas, Schwefel (Sulfur) is solid.
  - Tc (Technetium) is radioactive.
- Specific elements highlighted:**
  - Groups 1-2: Hydrogen (H), Helium (He).
  - Group 3: Lithium (Li), Beryllium (Be).
  - Group 4: Magnesium (Mg).
  - Group 5: Vanadium (V).
  - Group 6: Chromium (Cr).
  - Group 7: Manganese (Mn).
  - Group 8: Iron (Fe) is highlighted with a red box.
  - Group 9: Cobalt (Co).
  - Group 10: Nickel (Ni).
  - Group 11: Copper (Cu).
  - Group 12: Zinc (Zn).
  - Group 13: Boron (B).
  - Group 14: Carbon (C).
  - Group 15: Nitrogen (N).
  - Group 16: Oxygen (O).
  - Group 17: Fluorine (F).
  - Group 18: Neon (Ne).
  - Group 19: Aluminum (Al).
  - Group 20: Silicon (Si).
  - Group 21: Phosphorus (P).
  - Group 22: Sulfur (S).
  - Group 23: Chlorine (Cl).
  - Group 24: Argon (Ar).
  - Group 25: Gallium (Ga).
  - Group 26: Germanium (Ge).
  - Group 27: Arsen (As).
  - Group 28: Selen (Se).
  - Group 29: Brom (Br).
  - Group 30: Krypton (Kr).
  - Group 31: Rubidium (Rb).
  - Group 32: Strontium (Sr).
  - Group 33: Yttrium (Y).
  - Group 34: Zirconium (Zr).
  - Group 35: Niobium (Nb).
  - Group 36: Molybdenum (Mo).
  - Group 37: Technetium (Tc).
  - Group 38: Ruthenium (Ru).
  - Group 39: Rhodium (Rh).
  - Group 40: Palladium (Pd).
  - Group 41: Silver (Ag).
  - Group 42: Cadmium (Cd).
  - Group 43: Indium (In).
  - Group 44: Tin (Sn).
  - Group 45: Antimony (Sb).
  - Group 46: Tellur (Te).
  - Group 47: Iodine (I).
  - Group 48: Xenon (Xe).
  - Group 49: Calcium (Ca).
  - Group 50: Barium (Ba).
  - Group 51: La-Lu.
  - Group 52: Hafnium (Hf).
  - Group 53: Tantal (Ta).
  - Group 54: Wolfram (W).
  - Group 55: Rhenium (Re).
  - Group 56: Osmium (Os).
  - Group 57: Iridium (Ir).
  - Group 58: Platinum (Pt).
  - Group 59: Gold (Au).
  - Group 60: Quecksilber (Hg).
  - Group 61: Thallium (Tl).
  - Group 62: Lead (Pb).
  - Group 63: Bismuth (Bi).
  - Group 64: Polonium (Po).
  - Group 65: Astatine (At).
  - Group 66: Radon (Rn).
  - Group 67: Francium (Fr).
  - Group 68: Radium (Ra).
  - Group 69: Ac-Lr.
  - Group 70: Rutherfordium (Rf).
  - Group 71: Dubnium (Db).
  - Group 72: Seaborgium (Sg).
  - Group 73: Bohrium (Bh).
  - Group 74: Hassium (Hs).
  - Group 75: Meitnerium (Mt).
  - Group 76: Darmstadtium (Ds).

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138.91	140.12	144.24	144.24	(145)	150.36	151.97	157.25	158.93	162.50	164.93	167.26	168.93	173.04	174.97
La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
Lanthan	Cer	Praseodym	Neodym	Promethium	Samarium	Europium	Gadolinium	Terbium	Dysprosium	Holmium	Erbium	Thulium	Ytterbium	Lutetium

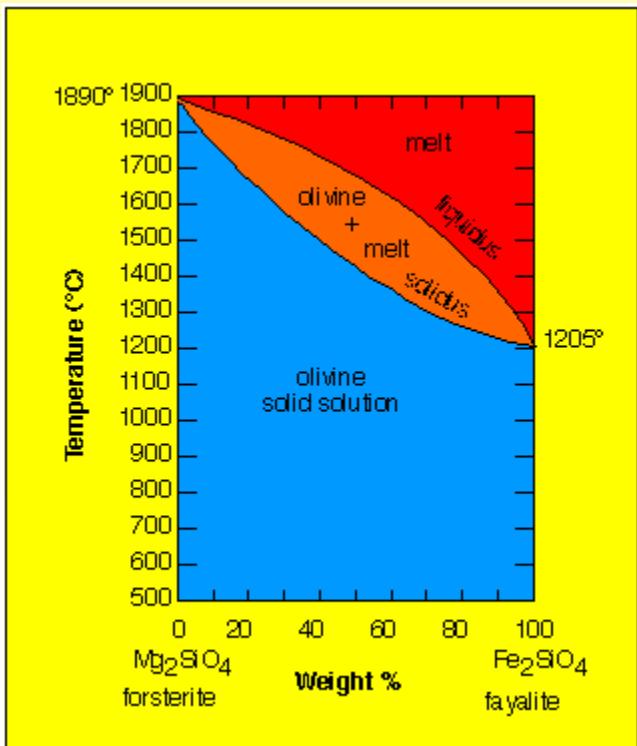
  

227.03	232.04	231.04	238.03	(237)	(244)	(243)	(247)	(247)	(251)	(252)	(257)	(258)	(259)	(260)
Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr
Actinium	Thorium	Protactinium	Uran	Neptunium	Plutonium	Americum	Curium	Berkelium	Californium	Einsteinium	Fermium	Mendelevium	Nobelium	Lawrencium

# Fe-Mg Austausch

Mg<sup>2+</sup> hat ähnlichen Ionenradius wie Fe<sup>2+</sup>

Eisen-Magnesium Minerale wie **Olivin** (s. Abbildungen unten) oder **Pyroxen** zeigen vollständige Mischkristallbildung

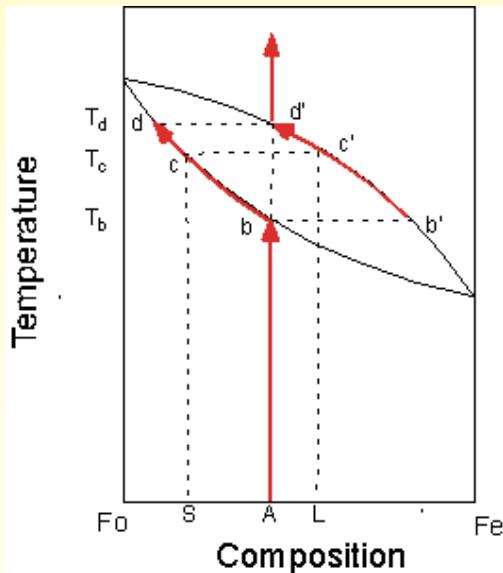


Erdmantel besteht aus Peridotit, der wiederum zu ca. 60% aus Mg-reichen Olivin

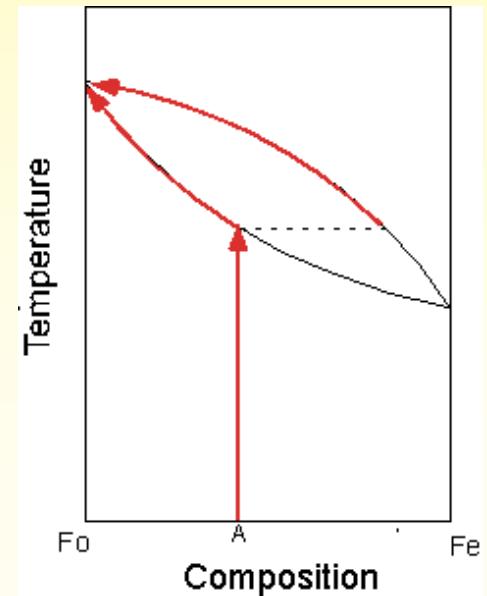
Erdmantelgestein (grün) in Basaltlava



Gleichgewichts-Schmelzbildung



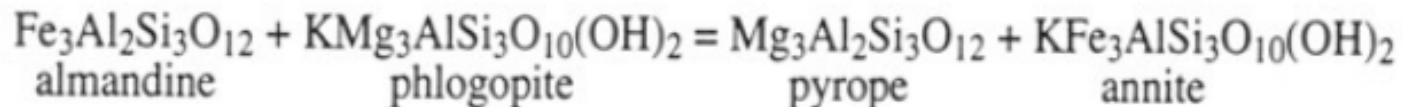
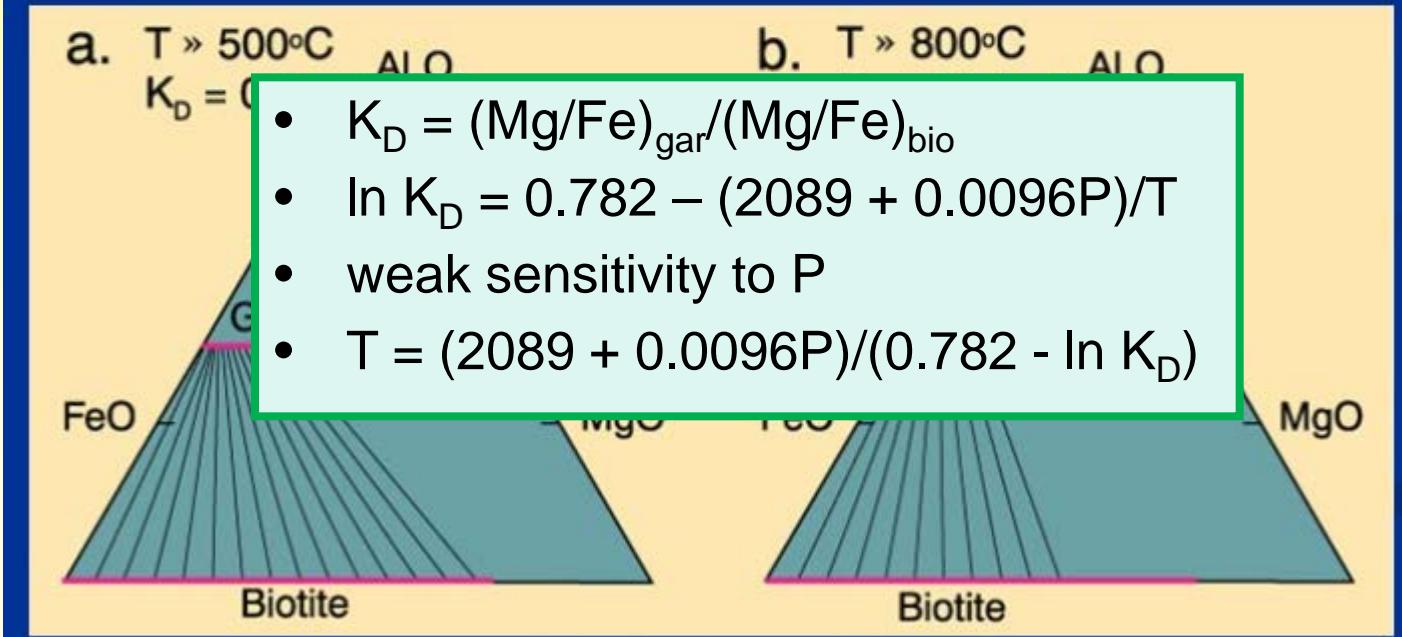
Fraktionierte Aufschmelzung



# Fe-Mg Austausch zwischen Mineralen

## Partitioning of Fe, Mg with Temperature: The Garnet-Biotite Geothermometer

Fe, Mg have similar ionic radii, therefore volume change small



# Fe-Mg Zahl

Wichtiger Gesteinsparameter

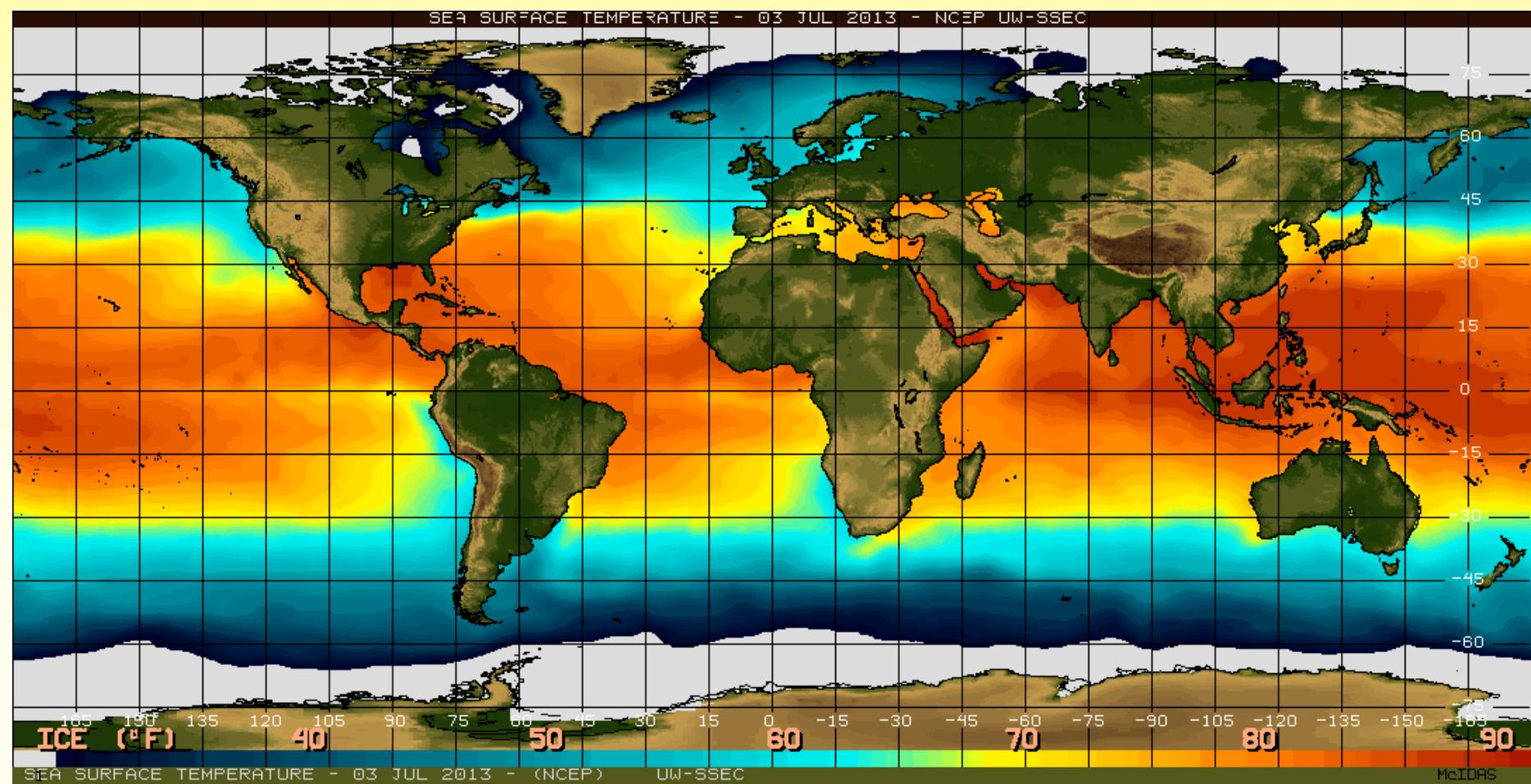
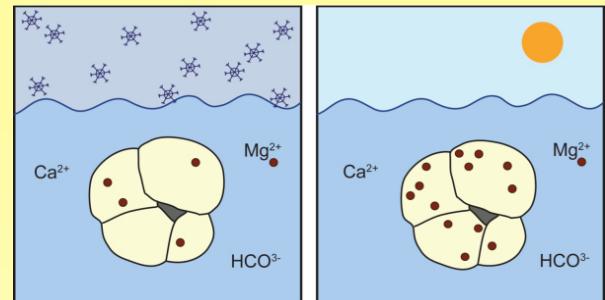
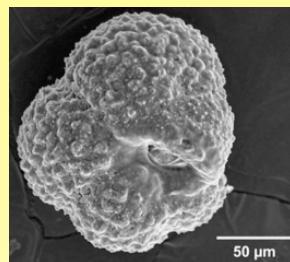
$$Mg' = \frac{molMg^{2+}}{molMg^{2+} + molFe^{2+}}$$

$$Mg' = \frac{\frac{1}{40,32}MgO}{\frac{1}{40,32}MgO + \frac{0,9}{79,8}Fe_2O_3(Total)}$$

Oxid Gew. %	Trachyt	Phonolith	Granit	Granodiorit	Andesit	Diorit	Basalt	Basanit	N-MORB	Inselbogentholeiit	Boninit	Nephelinit	Harzburgit	MORB-Pyrolith	Lherzolith	Dunit
SiO <sub>2</sub>	62,31	57,43	71,84	66,91	58,7	58,34	49,97	45,16	50,35	49,00	53,00	41,81	43,73	44,74	44,16	41,03
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	3,04	2,85	1,22	1,40	3,31	2,54	3,85	4,02				5,64	6,0			
FeO	2,33	2,07	1,65	2,76	4,09	4,99	7,24	7,65	11,30	9,79	7,54	6,35	7,09	7,55	8,14	6,26
MgO	0,94	1,09	0,72	1,76	3,37	3,77	6,84	8,71	8,65	11,62	13,08	6,58	36,34	39,57	41,05	51,88
Mg#	0,28	0,33	0,36	0,48	0,50	0,52	0,58	0,62	0,63	0,72	0,79	0,82	0,86	0,92	0,92	0,95

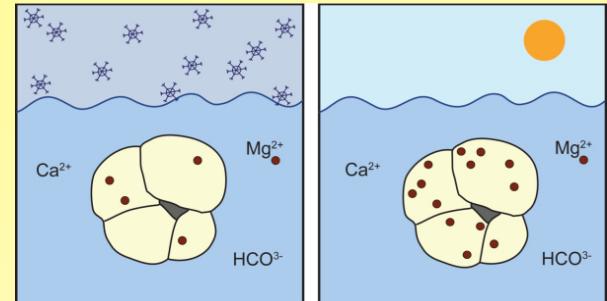
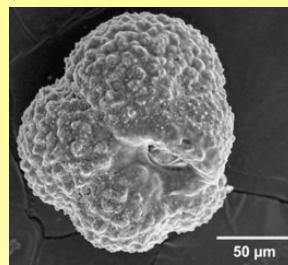
# Mg/Ca-Verhältnisse als Temperaturproxies

- Einbau von Mg in Calcit ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) → Diadochie
- **Mg/Ca** Verhältnis in Foraminiferen ist temperaturabhängig

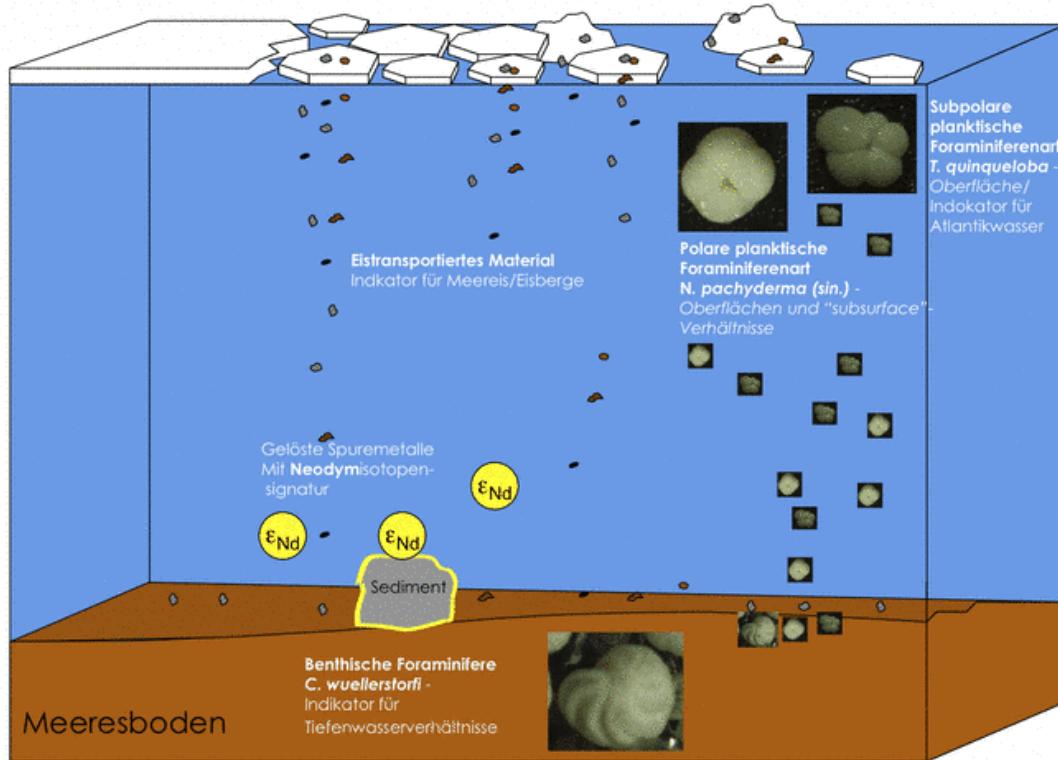


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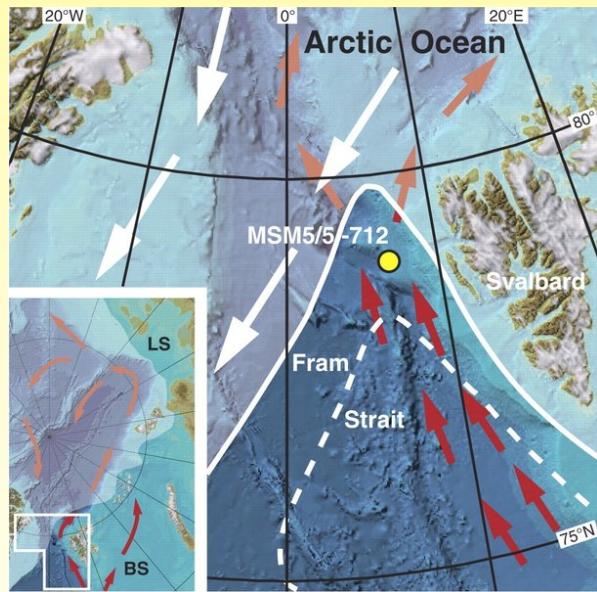
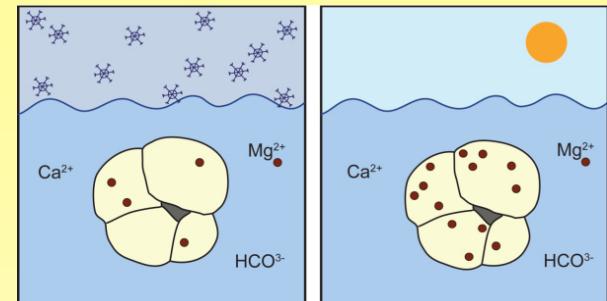
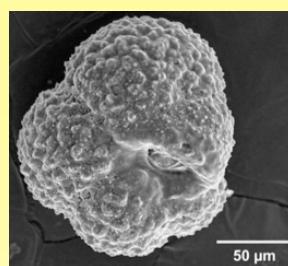


Laborkulturen



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In der östlichen Framstraße dringt relativ warmes Nordatlantikwasser in den Arktischen Ozean ein (rote Pfeile)

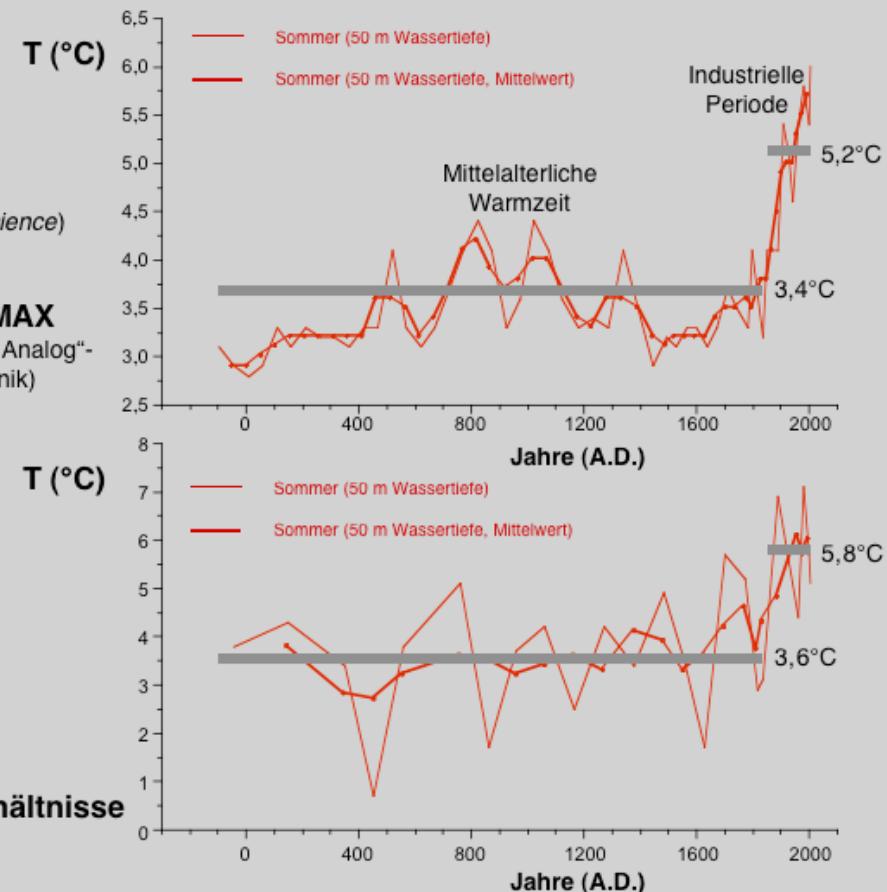
Spielhagen et al. (2011) Science, 331, 450-453

## Atlantikwasser-Temperatur-Rekonstruktion

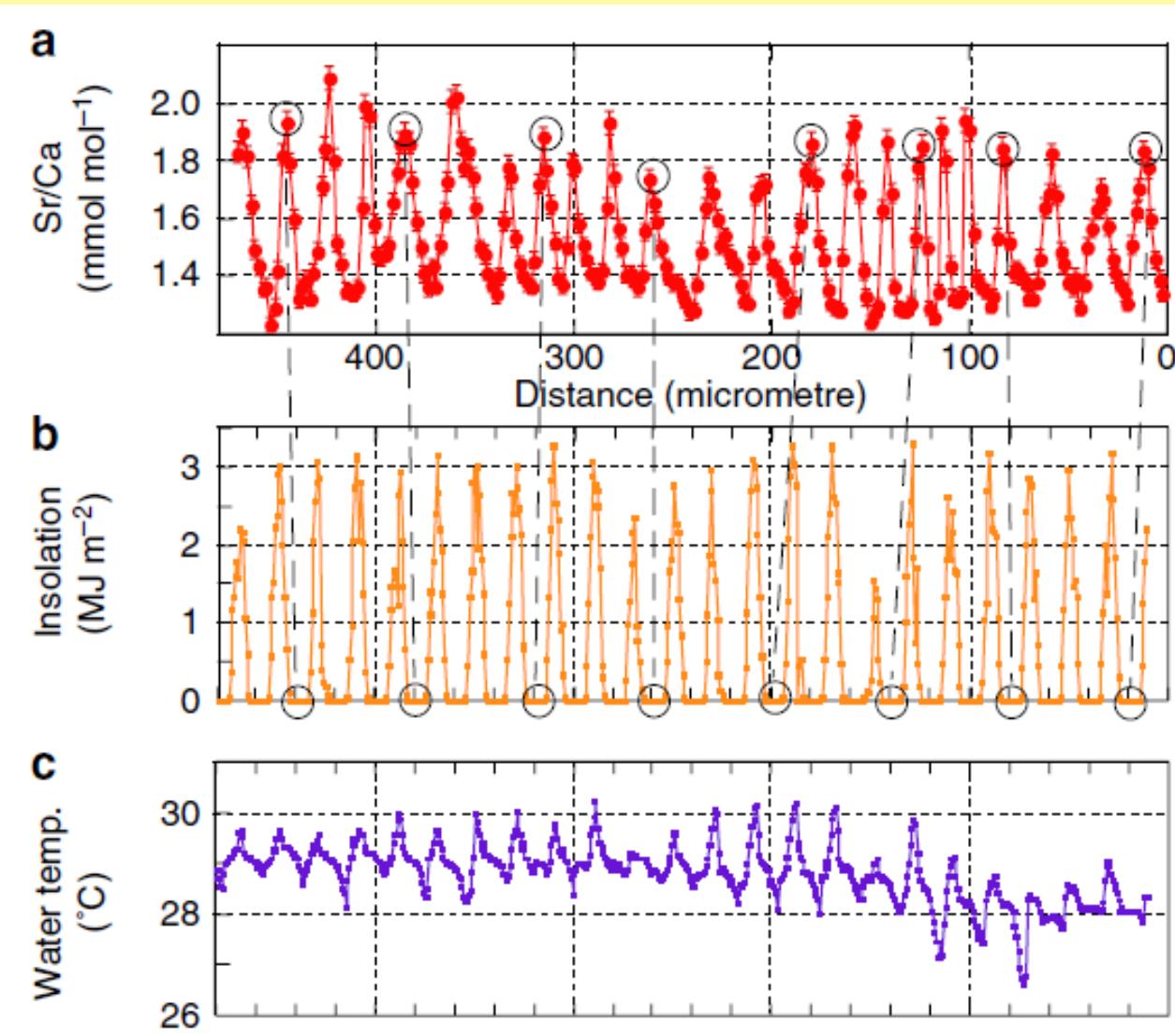
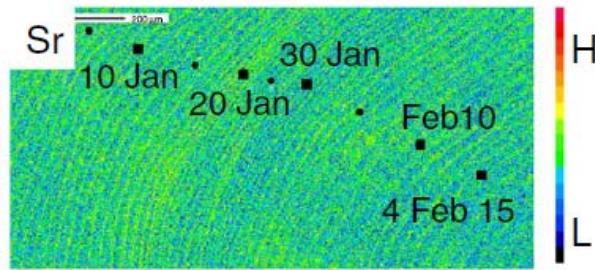
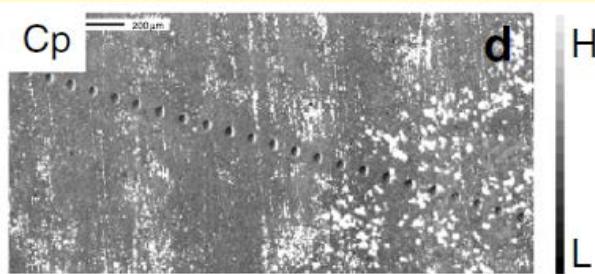
Spielhagen et al. (2011, *Science*)

**SIMMAX**  
("Modern Analog"-Technik)

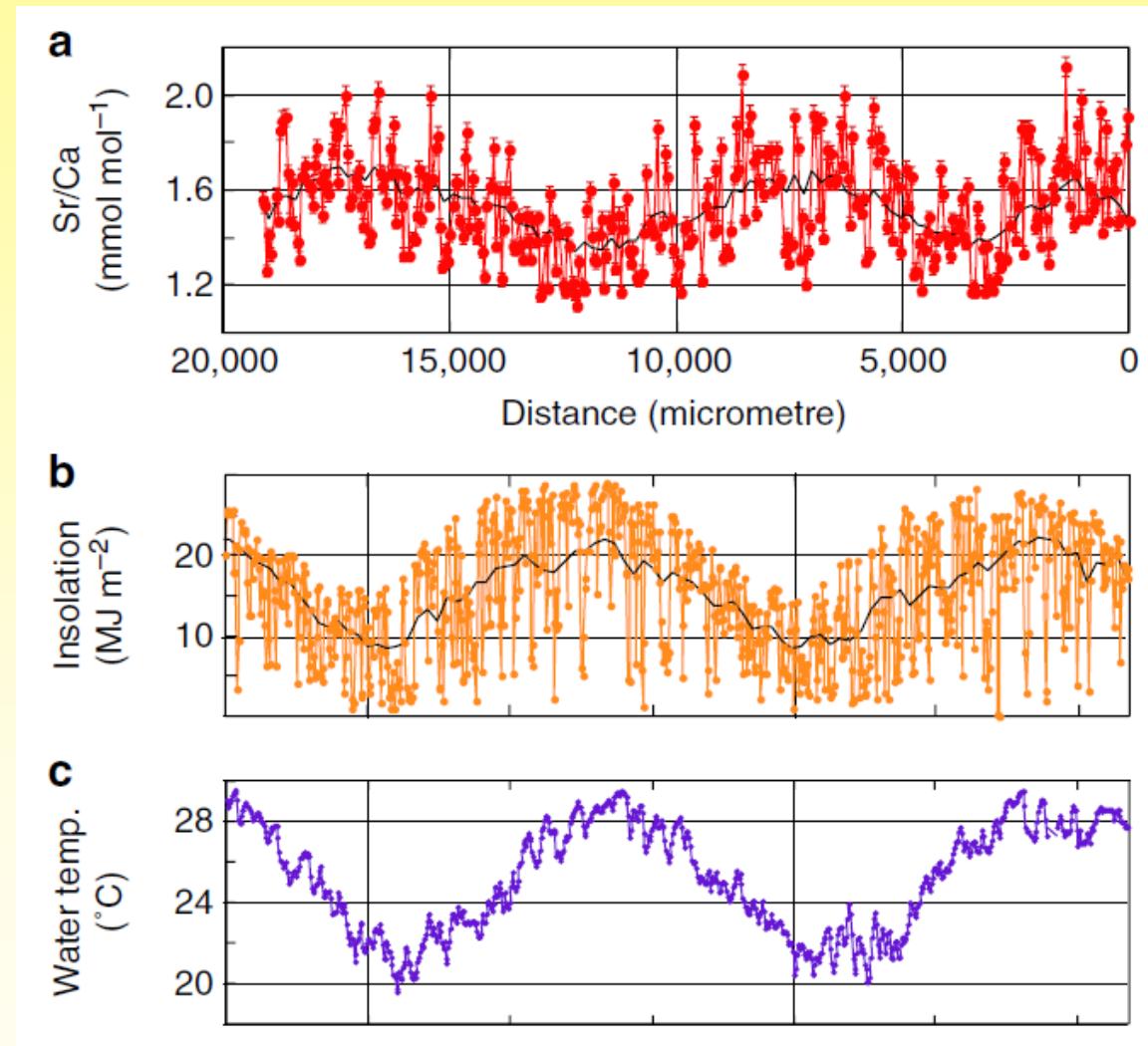
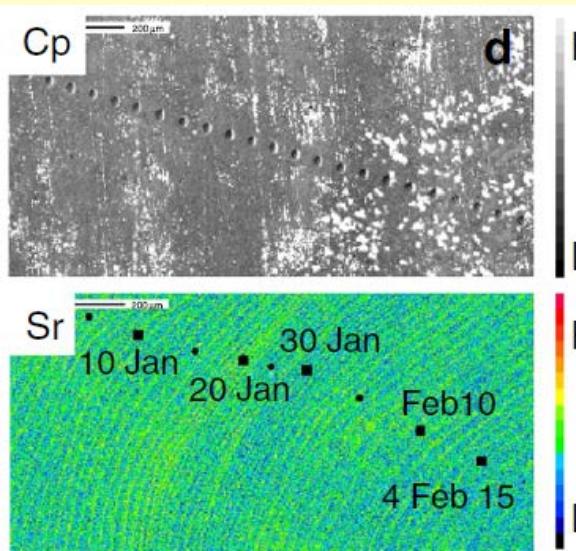
## Mg/Ca-Verhältnisse



# Sr/Ca-Verhältnisse in Muschelschalen als Proxie für Hell-Dunkel Zyklus?



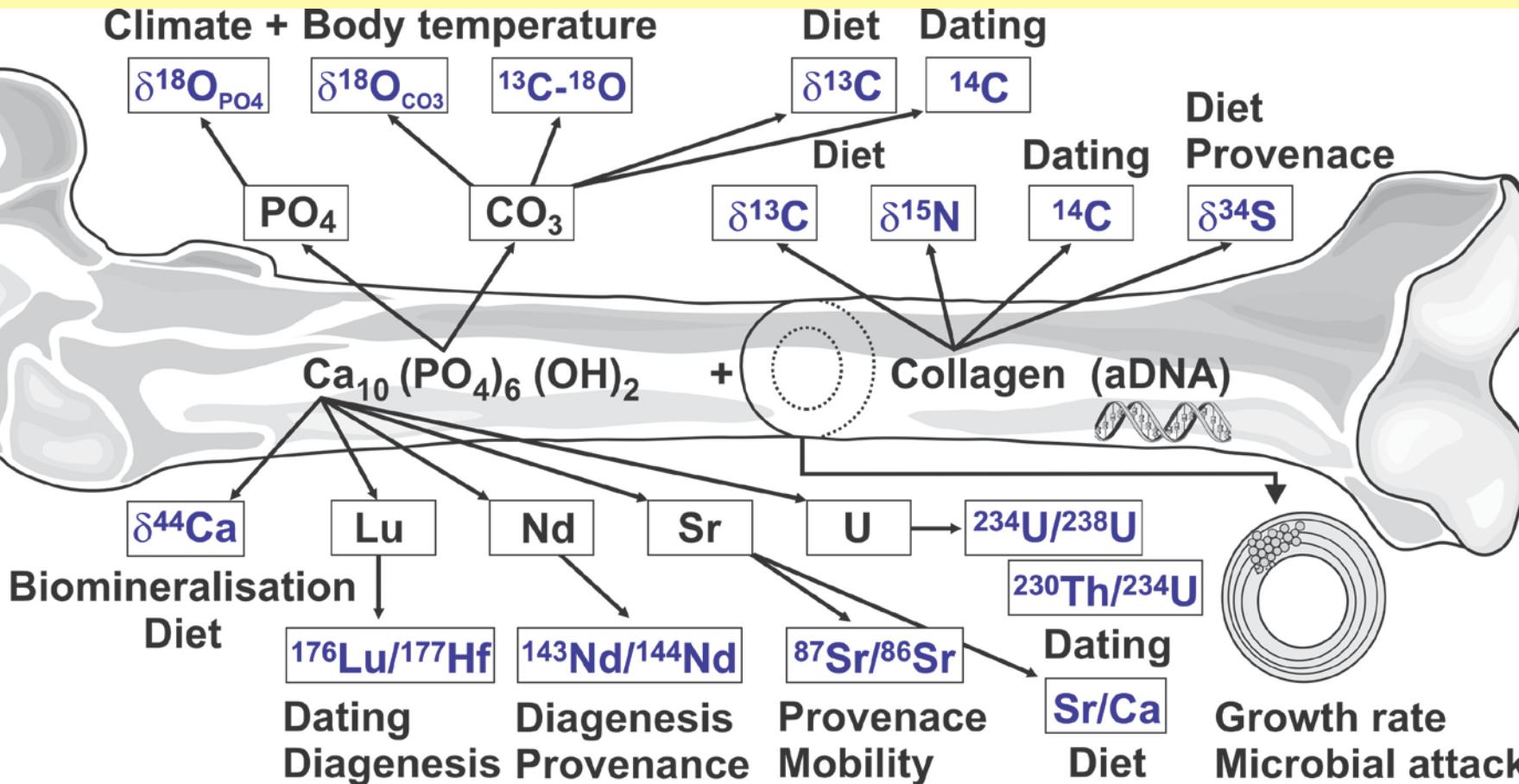
# Sr/Ca-Verhältnisse in Muschelschalen als Proxie für Hell-Dunkel Zyklus?



# “Knochenarbeit”

## Die Physiologie fossiler Vertebraten

↓ „clumped isotopes“ ↓



# Sr im Meerwasser

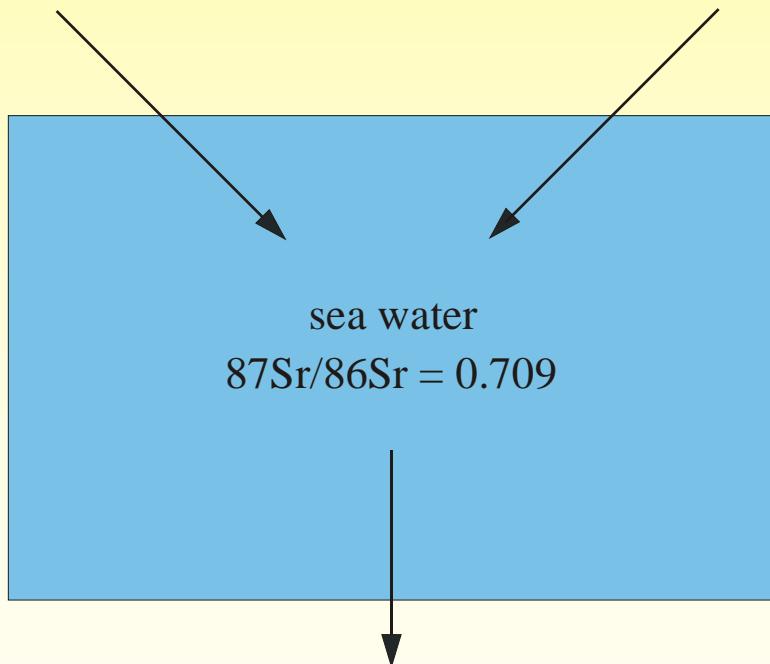
Sr isotope composition of the oceans is determined by the relative contributions of Sr from river waters and hydrothermal sources

river water

$$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.711$$

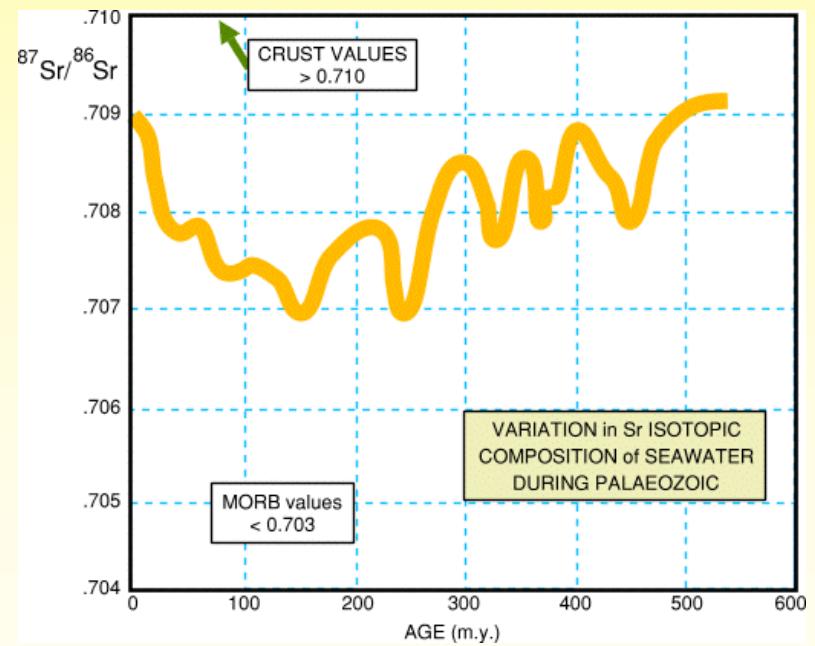
hydrothermal fluids

$$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.703$$

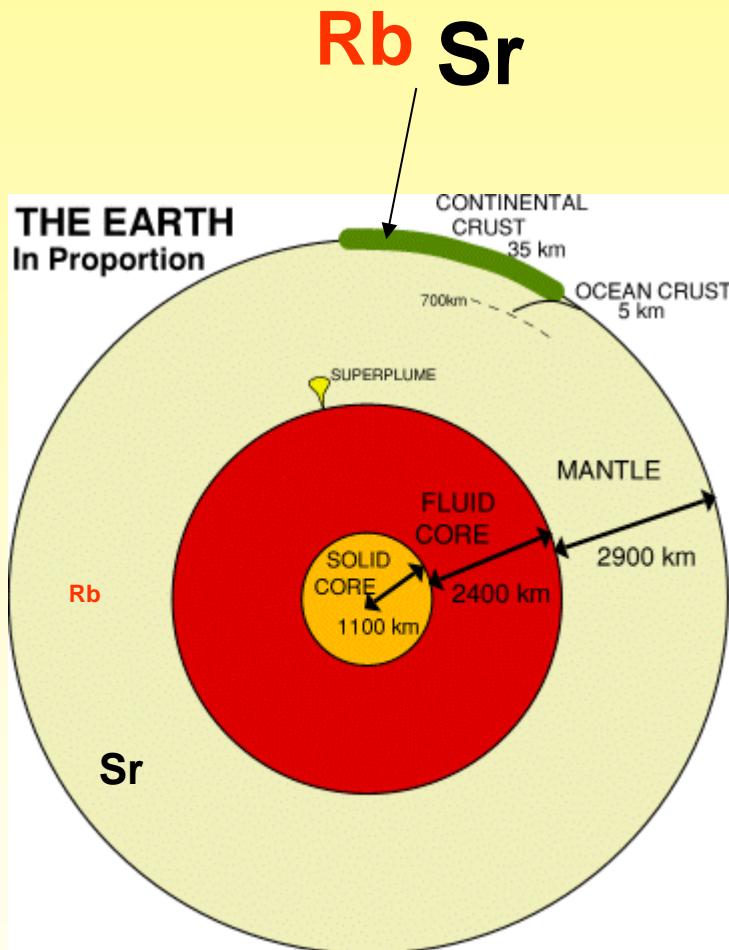


carbonate shells

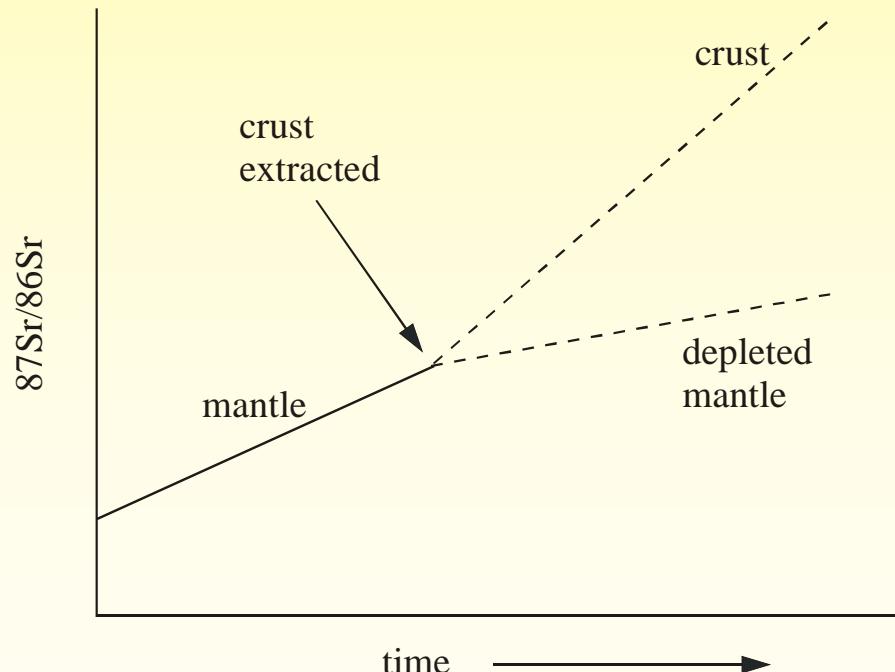
$$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.709$$



# Sr-Isotopenentwicklung



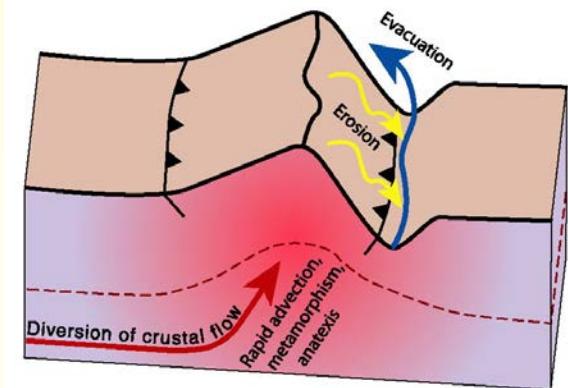
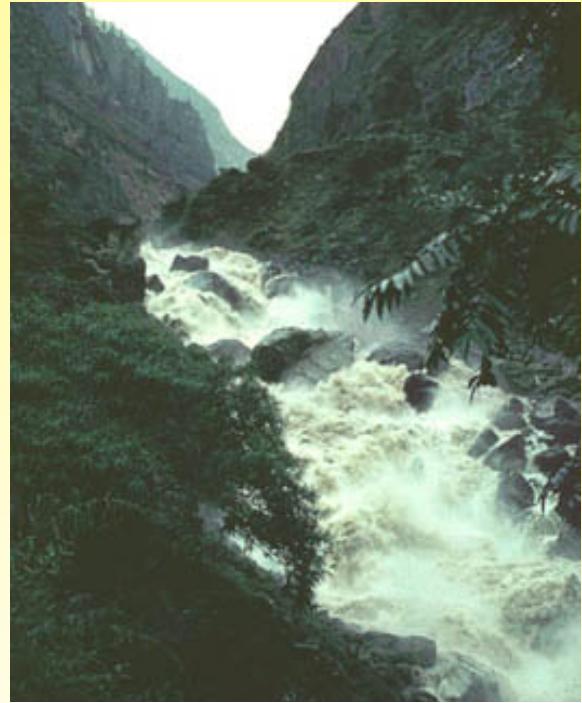
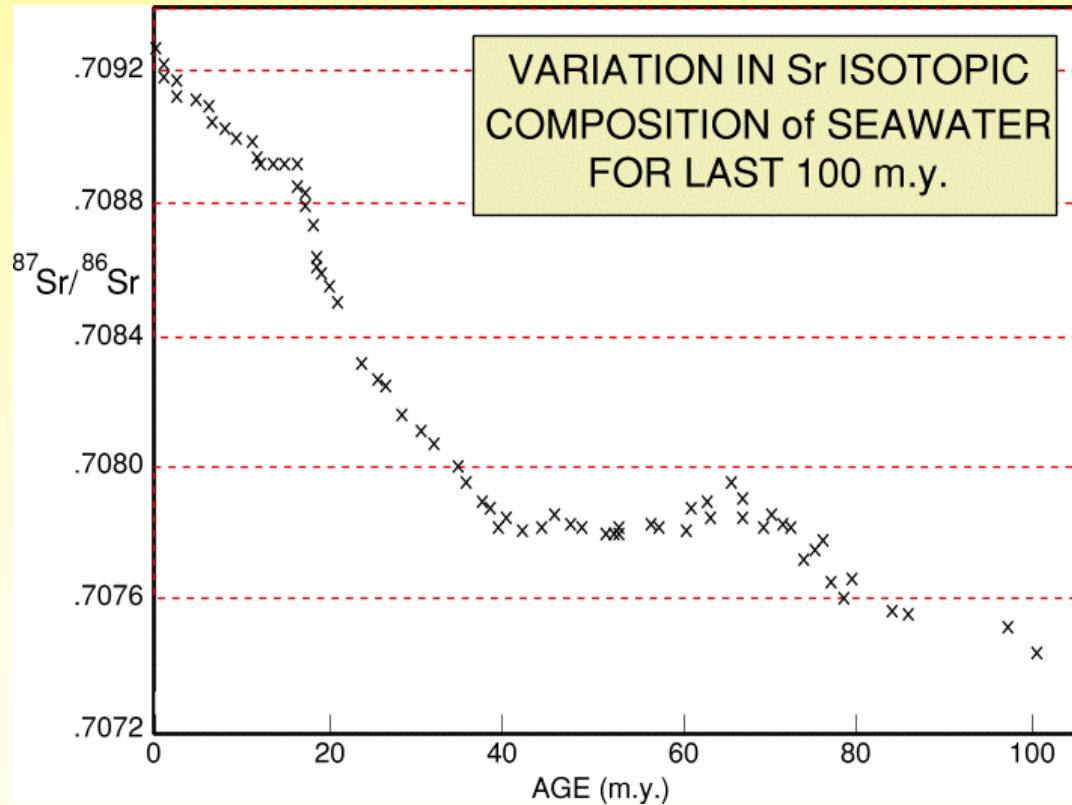
$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio of the crust is higher than that of the mantle due to the preferential partitioning of Rb into the crust relative to Sr.



Continental crust: 32-78 ppm Rb, 260-333 ppm Sr  
Depleted mantle: 0.6 ppm Rb, 19.9 ppm Sr

# Sr im Meerwasser

Increase in the global ocean  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio since India-Asia collision



# Lithium, Beryllium, Bor

leicht und selten

Schrägbeziehung im PSE

zwischen

Li – Mg

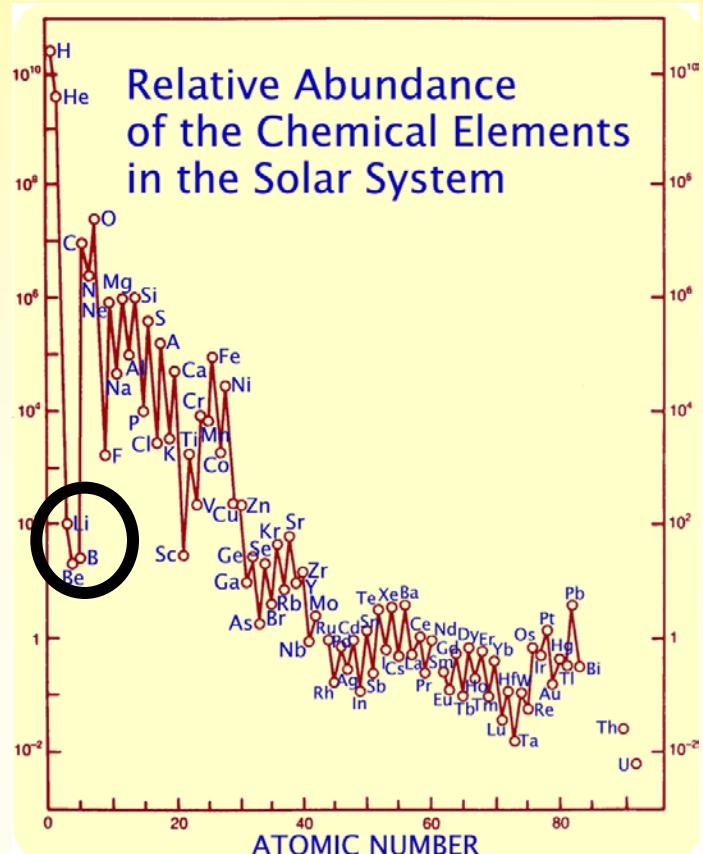
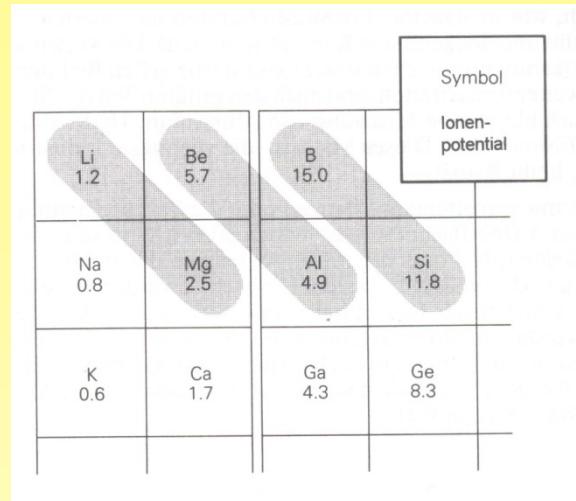
Be – Al

B – Si

ist auf vergleichbare Atomradien  
und ähnliche Ladungsdichten,  
also ähnliches Ionenpotential  
zurückzuführen

Wir erinnern uns:

Li, Be und B sind ungewöhnlich  
selten auf der Erde und im  
Sonnensystem



# Lithium, Beryllium und Bor

inkompatibel, mobil und lithophil

werden über Schmelzen und Fluide transportiert

Meerwasser: Quelle und Reservoir für Li, B und Be

Kontinentale Kruste: Li in Glimmer, Bor in Turmalin und Be in ?

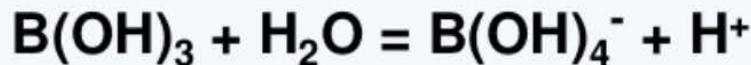
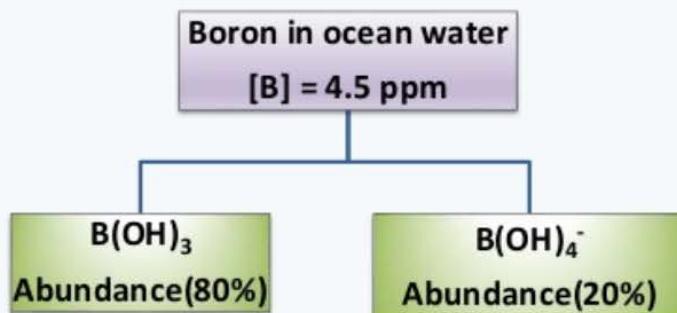


Tracer zur Erforschung geodynamischer Prozesse, lang- und kurzzyklische Stoffkreisläufe (z.B. in Subduktionszonen), Paläoproxy

Isotopenfraktionierung ( ${}^6\text{Li}/{}^7\text{Li}$ ,  ${}^{10}\text{B}/{}^{11}\text{B}$ )

Be besitzt ein wichtiges cosmogenes Isotop ( ${}^{10}\text{Be}$ )

# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH Proxie

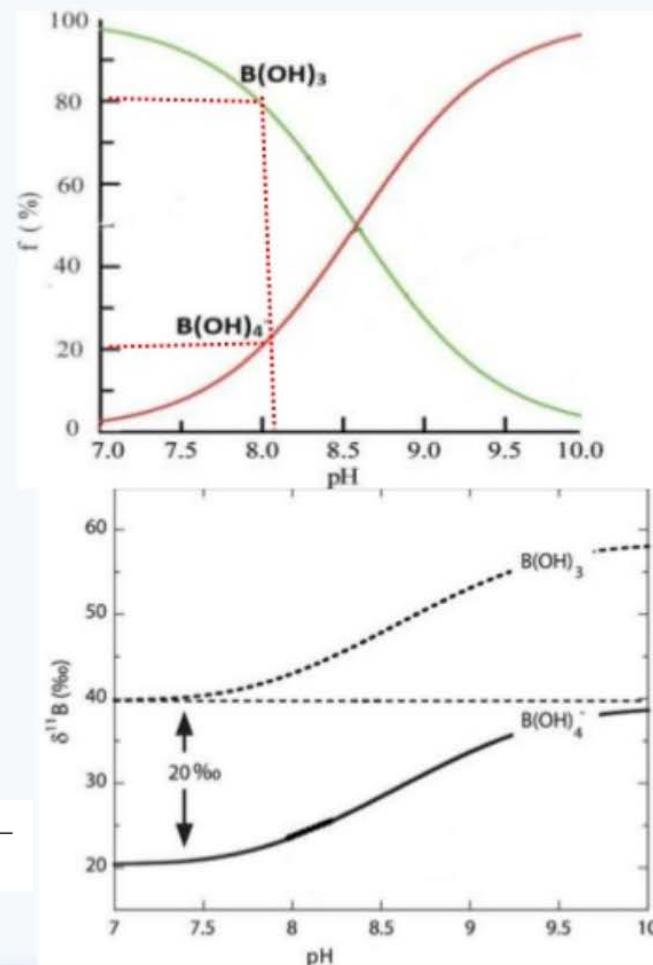


$$K_B = \frac{[\text{H}^+] [\text{B(OH)}_4^-]}{[\text{B(OH)}_3]}$$

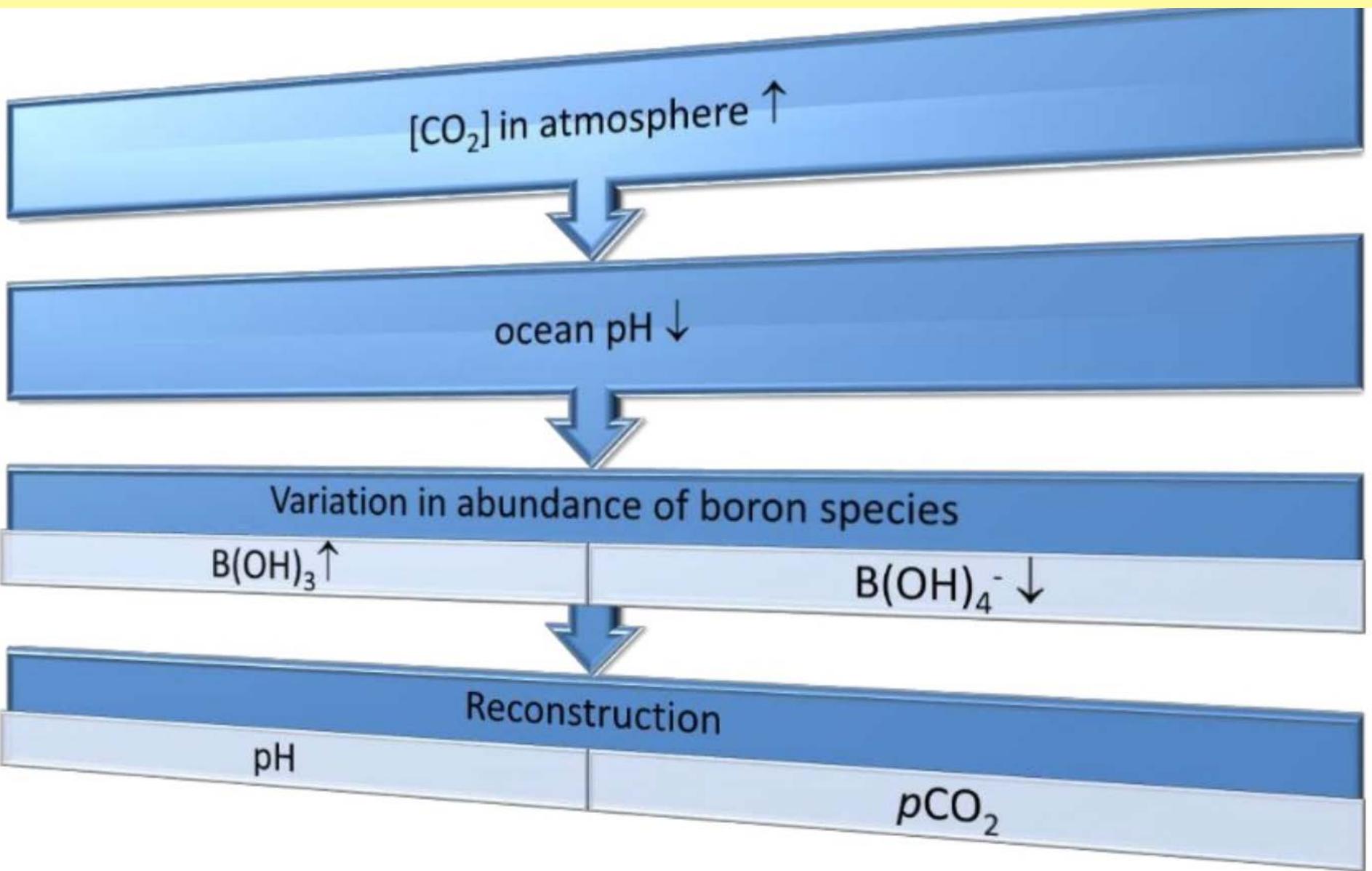
$$\log \left( \frac{[\text{B(OH)}_4^-]}{[\text{B(OH)}_3]} \right) = \text{pH} - \text{p}K_B$$



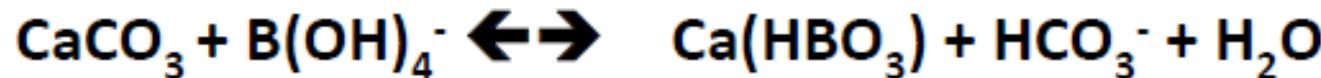
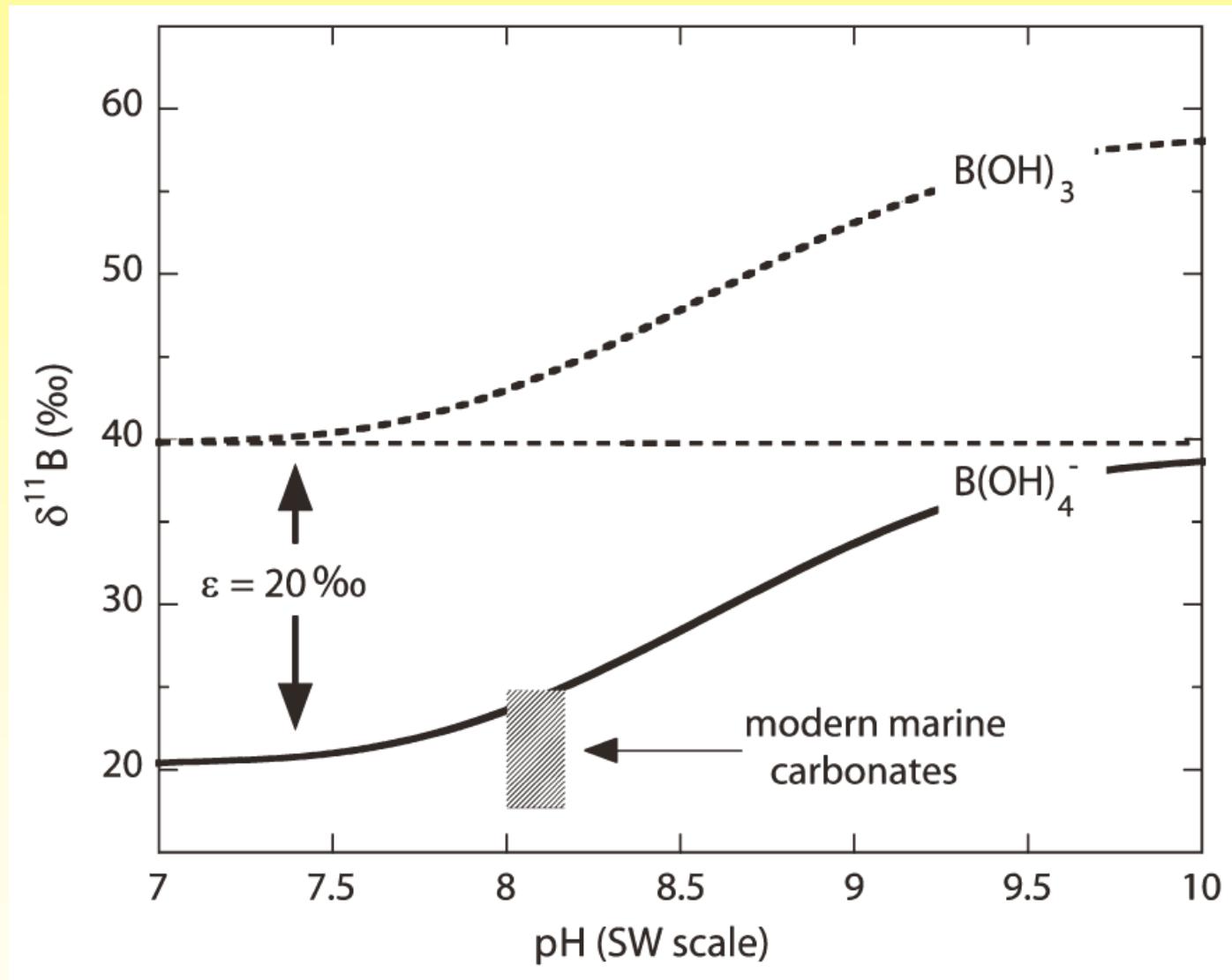
K = Gleichgewichtskonstante < 1, d.h. trigonale Spezies ist isotopisch schwerer im Vergleich zur tetraedrisch koordinierten Spezies;



# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy

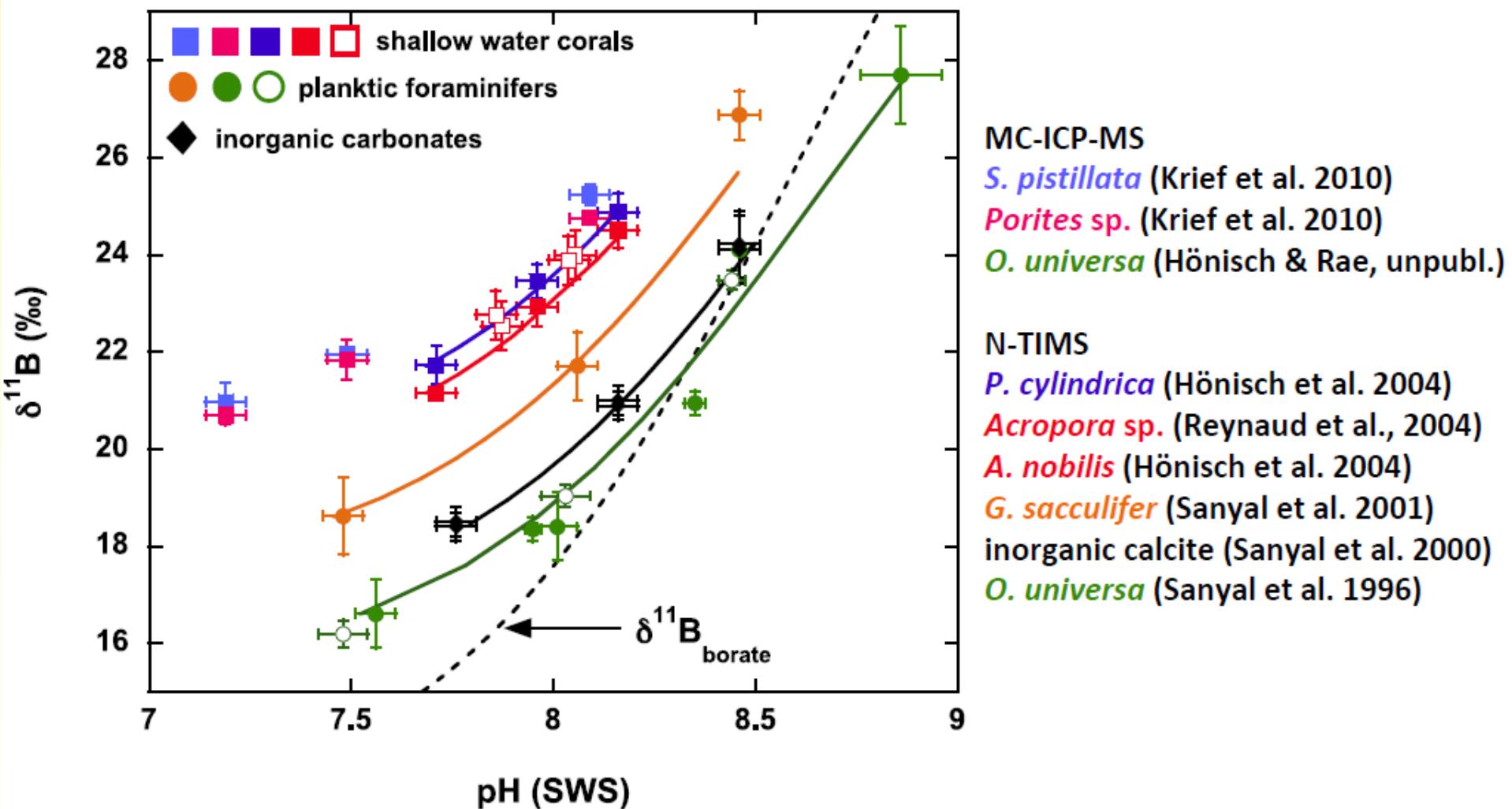


# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH Proxie

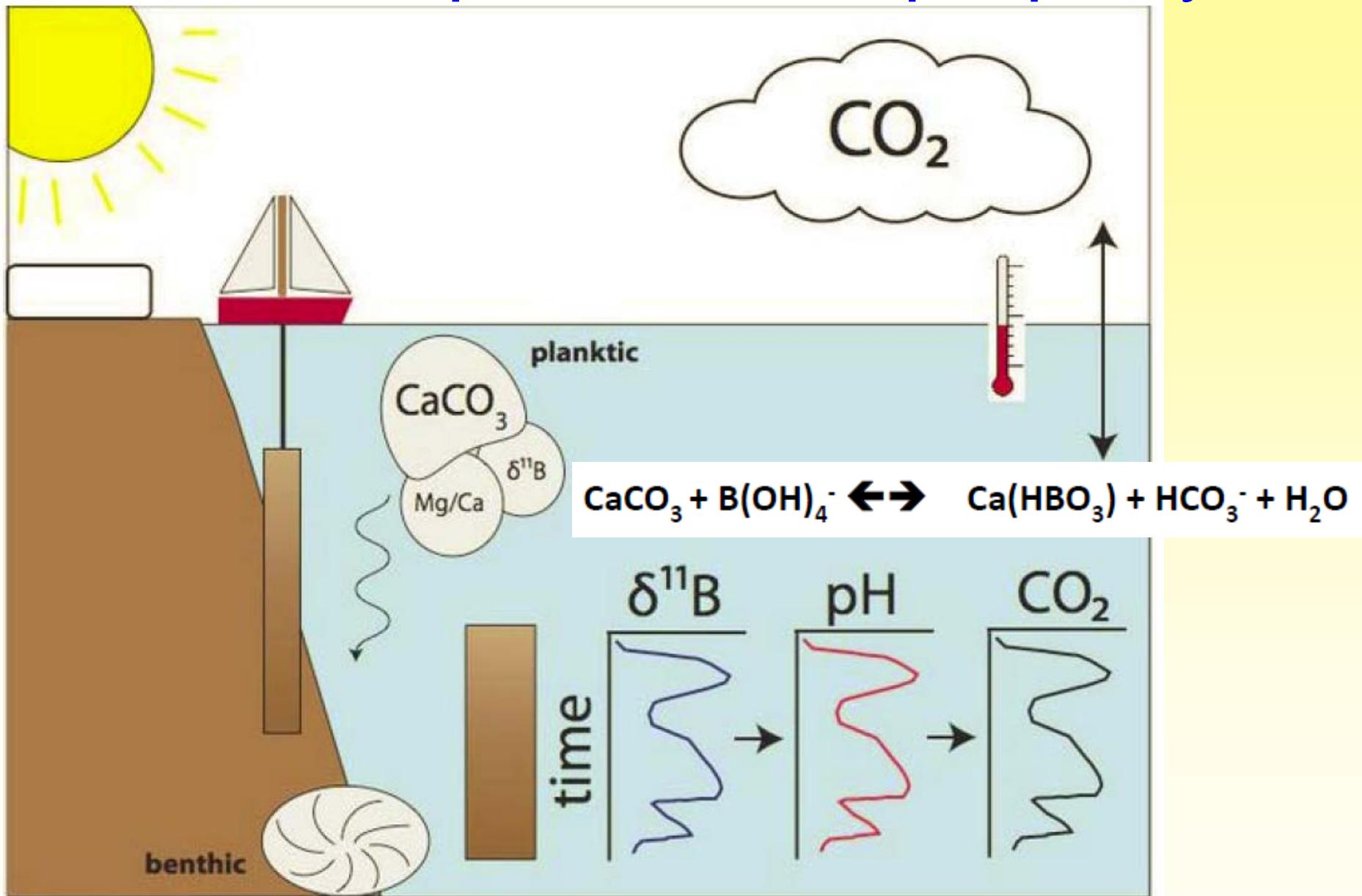


# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy

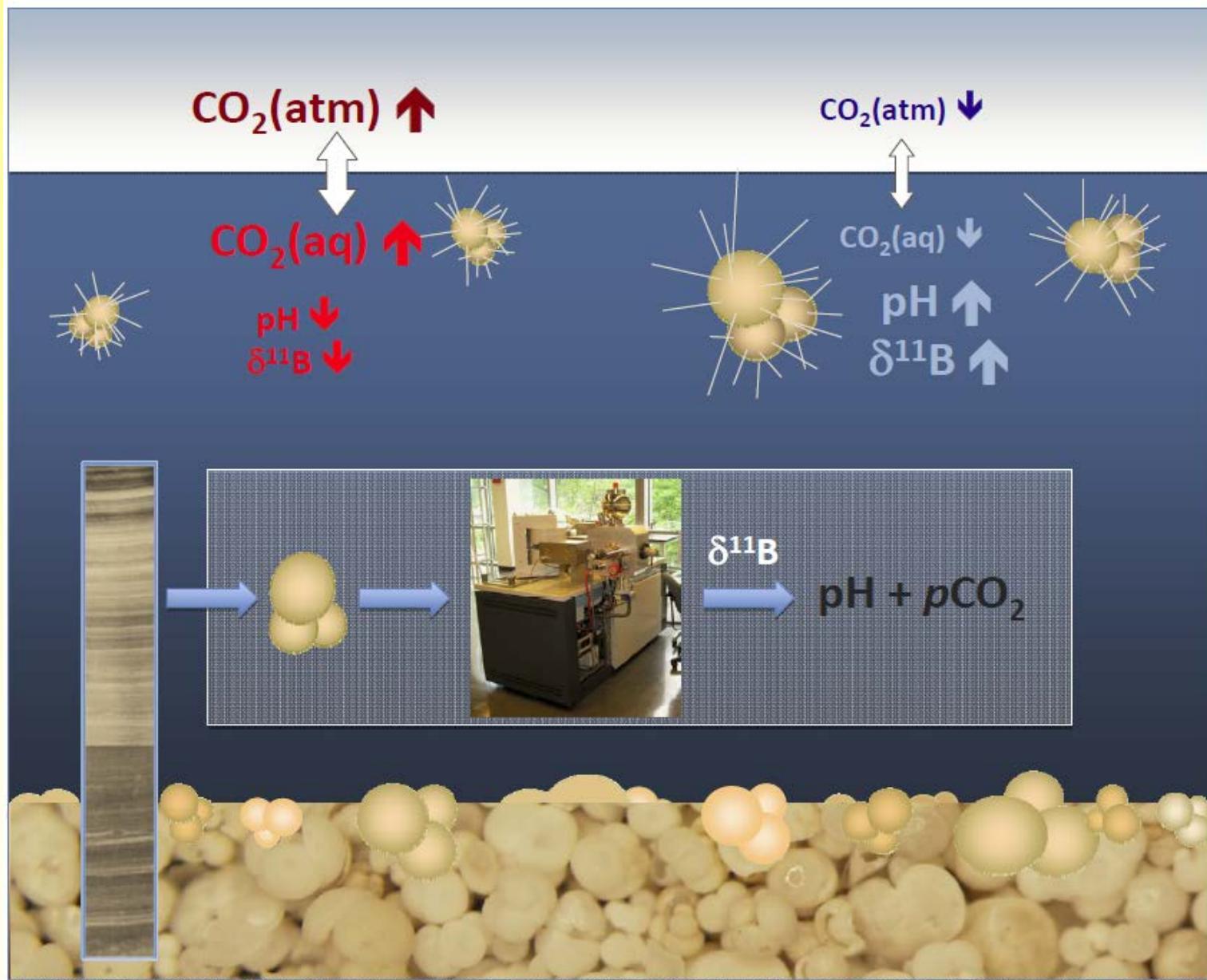
Laboratory calibrations of marine carbonates



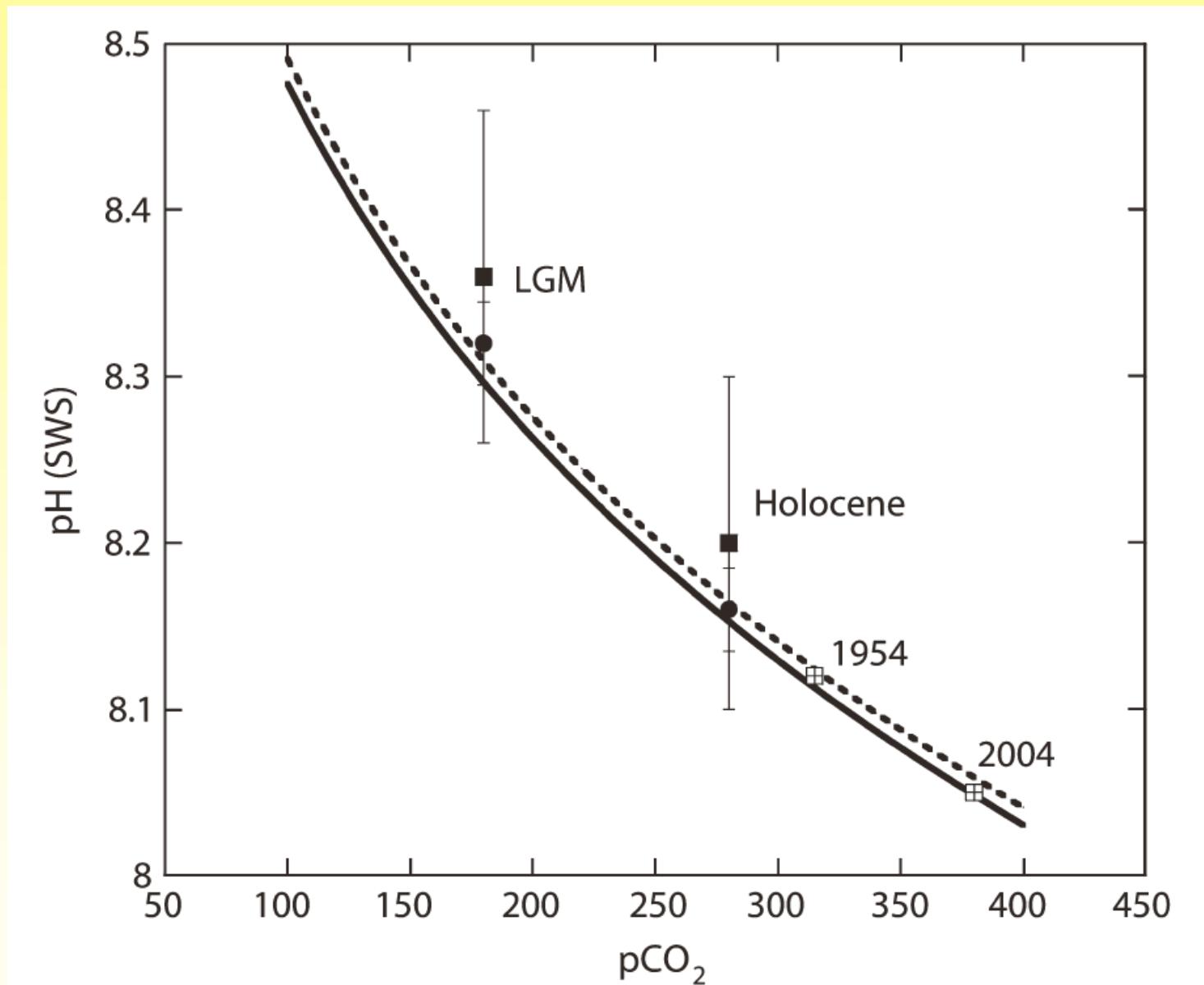
# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy



# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy



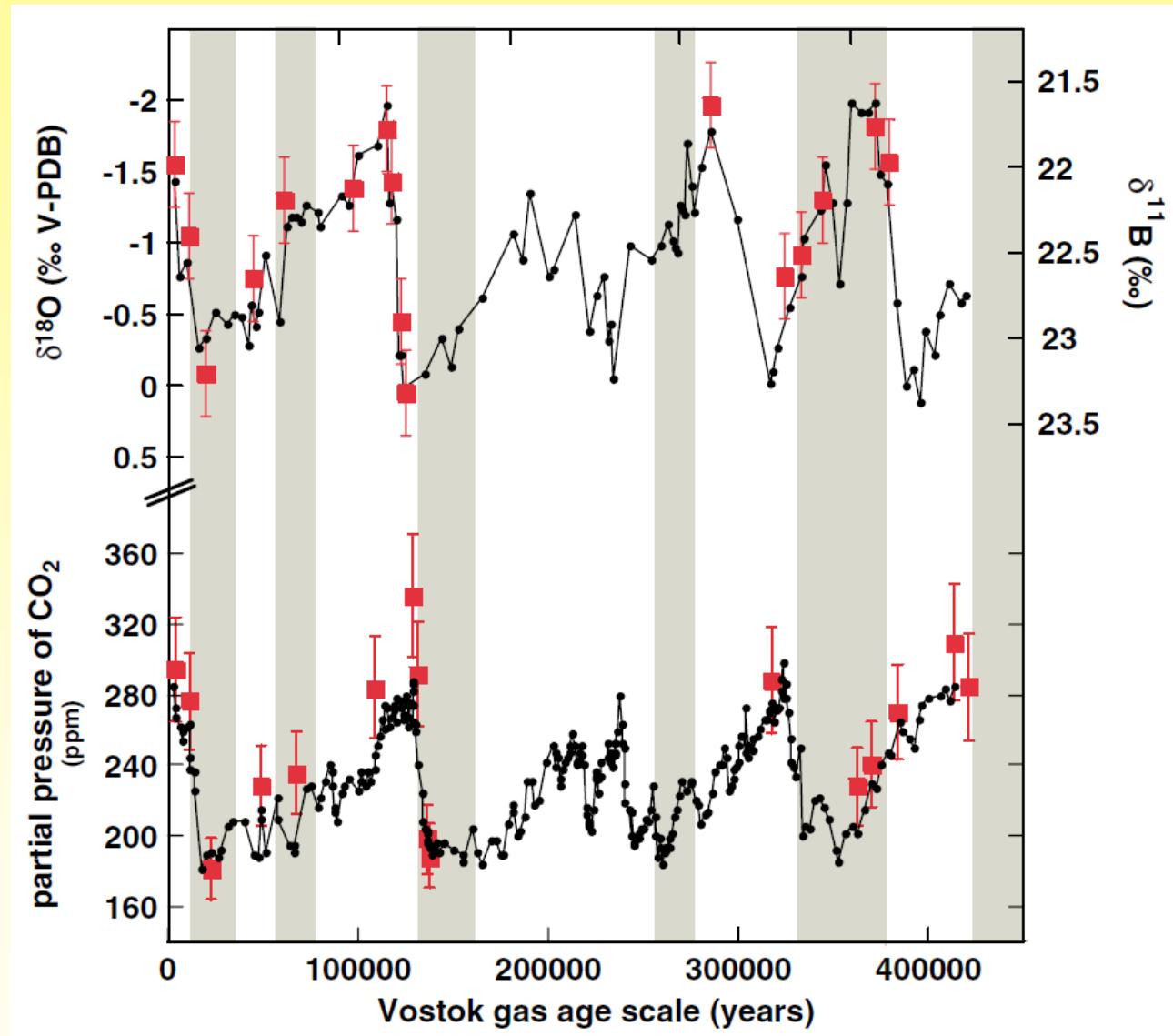
# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy



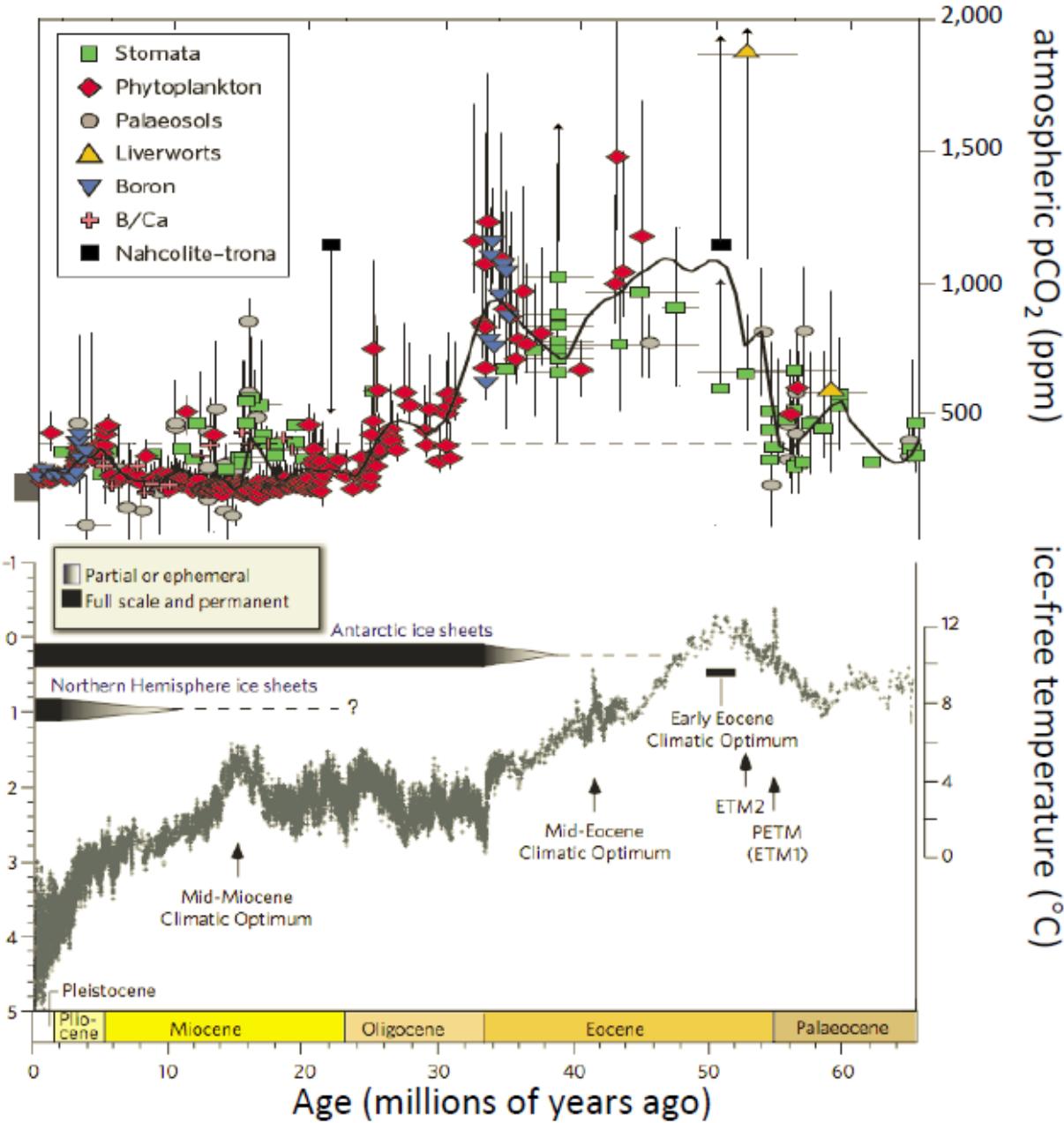
Source: Hemming & Höönsch (2007)

# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy

Data from ODP site  
668B, eastern  
equatorial Atlantic  
(sediment core)  
with atmospheric  
pCO<sub>2</sub> variations  
(Vostok ice core)



# Bor Isotope als Paläo-pH proxy

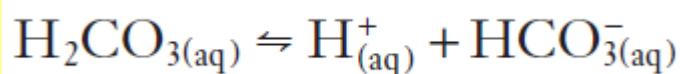


Beerling & Royer,  
Nature Geoscience, 2011

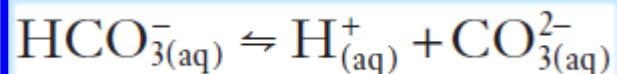
Streuung der Mess-  
werte durch  $^{11}\text{B}$   
Sekularvariation im  
Meerwasser?

Zachos et al., Nature, 2008

# Übung – Alkalinität und pH



$$K_1 = \frac{a\text{H}^+ \cdot a\text{HCO}_3^-}{a\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3} = 10^{-6.4}$$



$$K_2 = \frac{a\text{H}^+ \cdot a\text{CO}_3^{2-}}{a\text{HCO}_3^-} = 10^{-10.3}$$

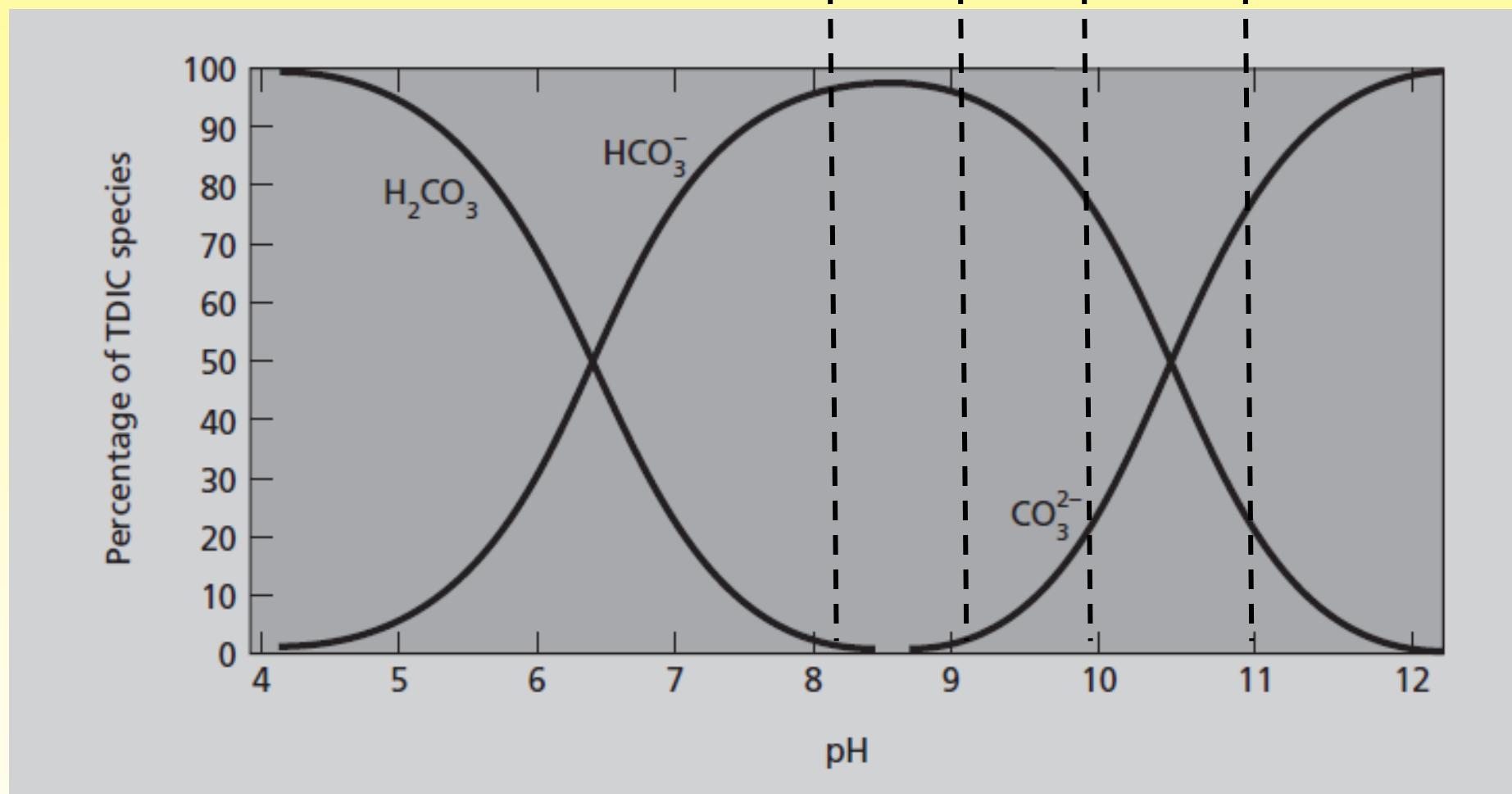
Berechnen sie das Verhältnis Hydrogenkarbonationen ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) zu Karbonationen ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) für Gewässer mit ph-Werten von 8, 9, 10 & 11 und zeichnen sie ein Diagramm mit den prozentualen Anteilen der beiden Ionenarten für die verschiedenen pH-Werte

$$\text{pH} = -\log_{10} a\text{H}^+$$

für pH 8 ( $\text{pH} = -\log_{10} a\text{H}^+$ ) gilt:

$$a\text{HCO}_3^- = \frac{10^{-8} \cdot a\text{CO}_3^{2-}}{10^{-10.3}} = \frac{1 \times 10^{-8} \cdot a\text{CO}_3^{2-}}{5 \times 10^{-11}} = 200 a\text{CO}_3^{2-}$$

# Alkalinität



# Li-, Be- und B-Kreislauf

## Li-, Be-, B-Stoffkreislauf:

Meerwasser →  
ozeanische Kruste →  
Subduktionszone →  
Fluide →  
Mantelkeil →  
Schmelze →  
Vulkanischer Bogen →  
Verwitterung, Erosion →  
Meerwasser  
(hier schließt sich der  
Kreislauf)

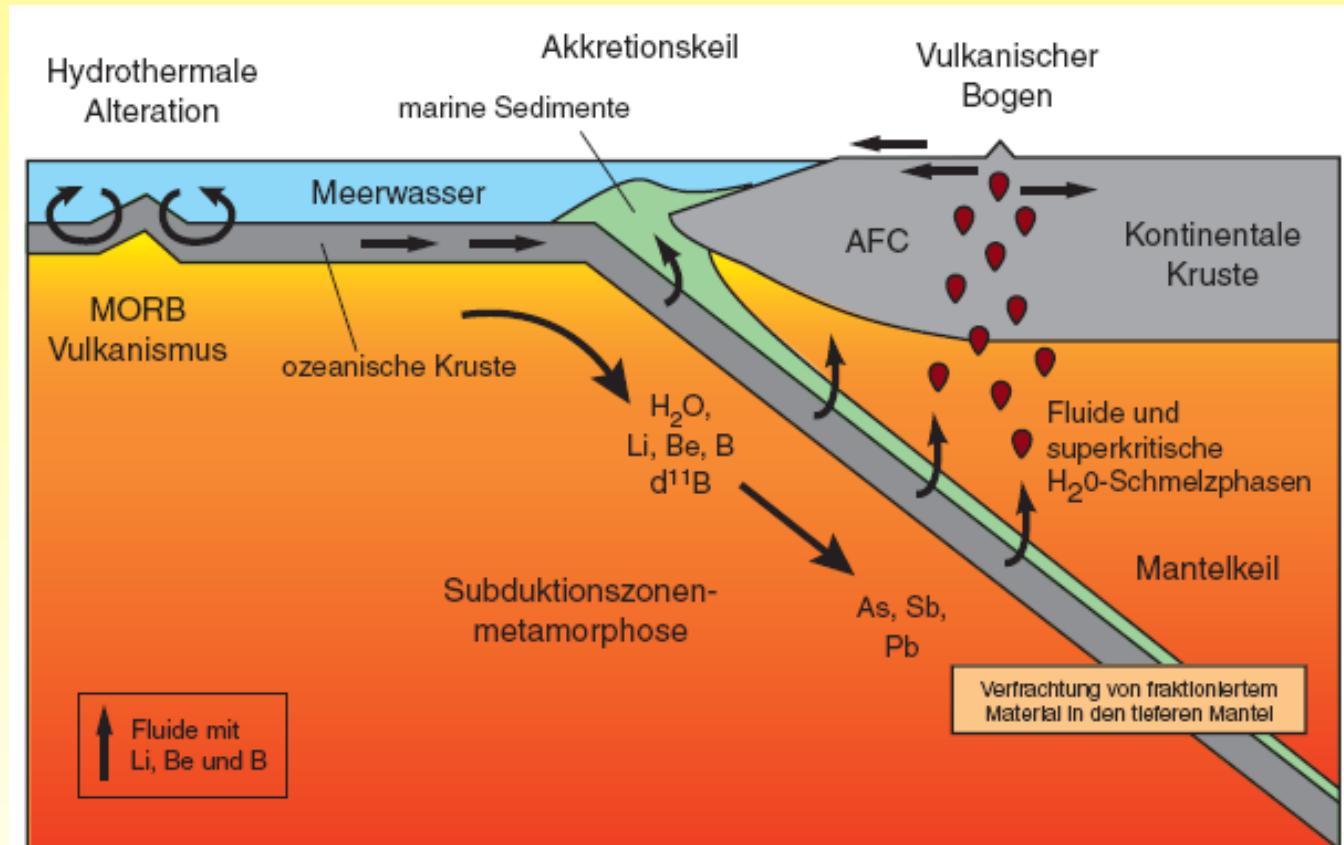


Abb. 1-1 Stoffkreislauf leichter Elemente (Li, Be, B) an Subduktionszonen (nach Bebout 1996)

Li-, Be-, B-Trägerphasen in Subduktionszonen: Tonminerale, Lawsonit, Omphazit, Phengit, Amphibol, Chlorit, Chloritoid, Paragonit, Epidot, Serpentin, d.h. viele OH-haltige Minerale

# Bor-Konzentrations- und Isotopenvariationen

$$\delta^{11}\text{B} = \{[(^{11}\text{B}/^{10}\text{B})_{\text{sample}}/(^{11}\text{B}/^{10}\text{B})_{\text{standard}}] - 1\} \times 1000$$

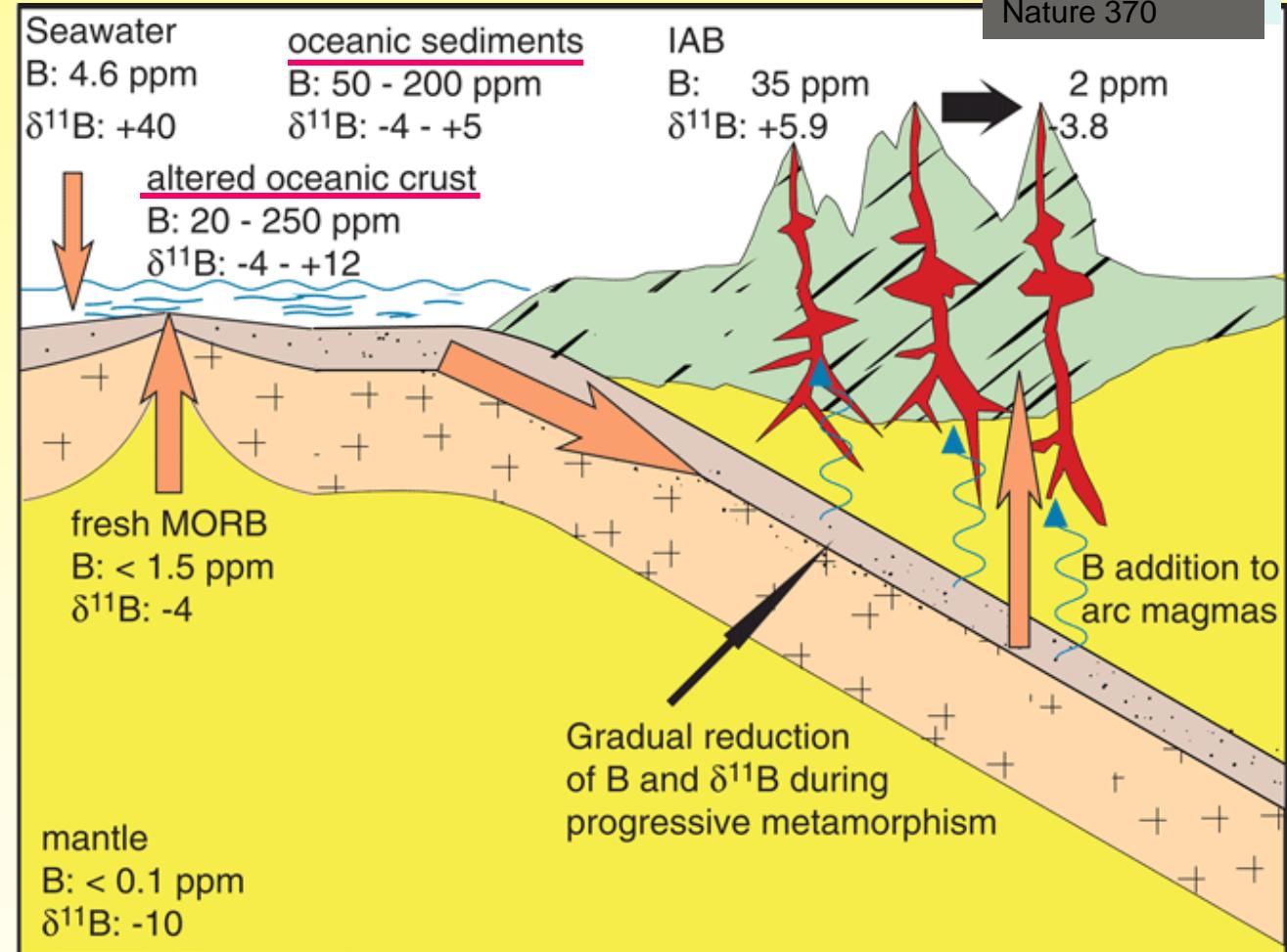
e.g. Izu arc:  
Ishikawa &  
Nakamura (1993)  
Nature 370

Meerwasser wichtige  
Quelle für Bor

Alterierte ozeanische  
Lithosphäre mit hoher  
Bor-Konzentration

In Subduktionszone  
entwässern Bor-haltige  
Fluide → temperatur-  
abhängige) B-Isotopen-  
fraktionierung

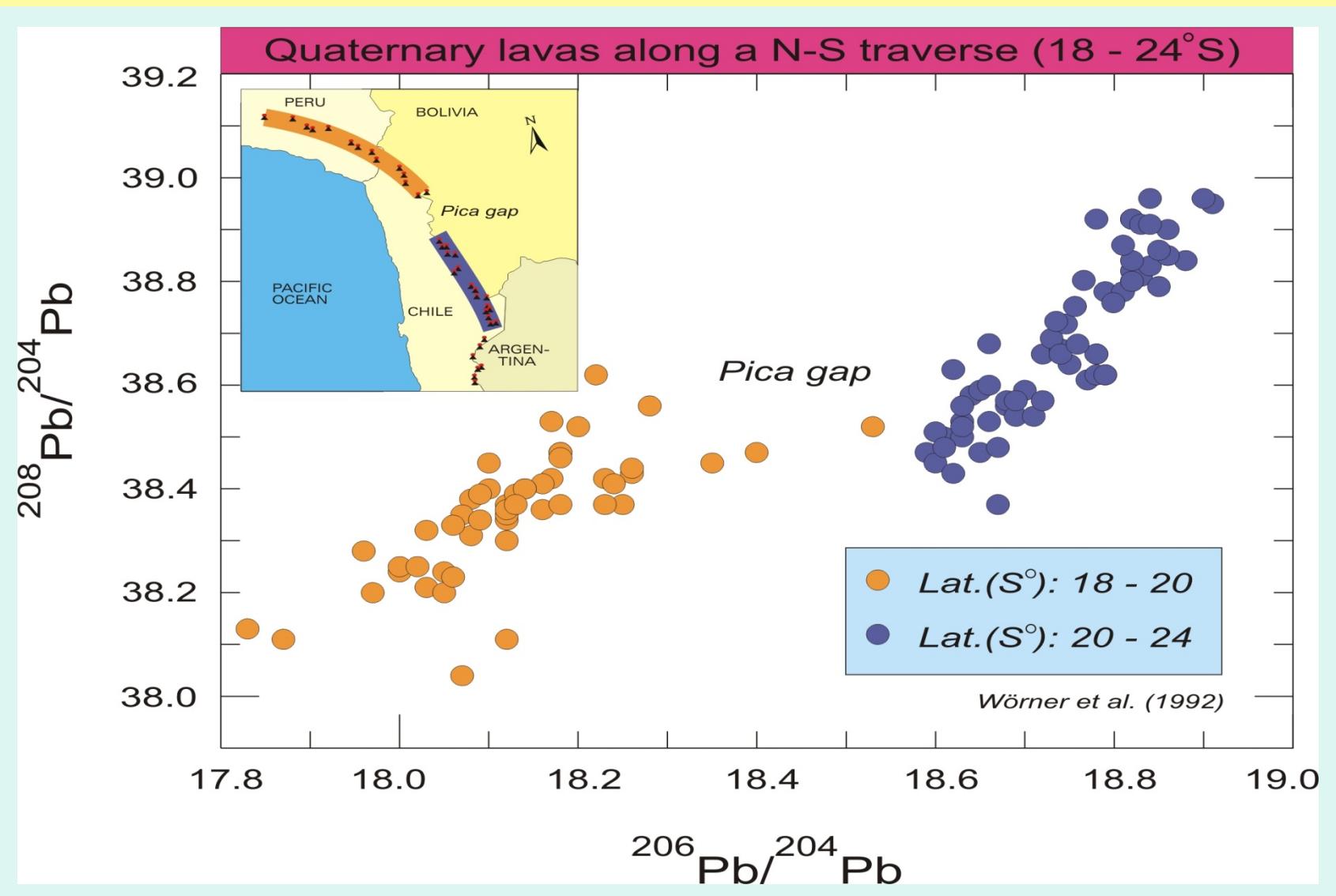
Frontale Arc-Magmatite  
mit hohen Bor-Gehalten



Quelle: GFZ

in wässrigen Fluiden ( $T > 50^\circ\text{C}$ ) ist Bor trigonal koordiniert – angereichert an  $^{11}\text{B}$

# Bleiisotope – andere Methode andere Aussagen

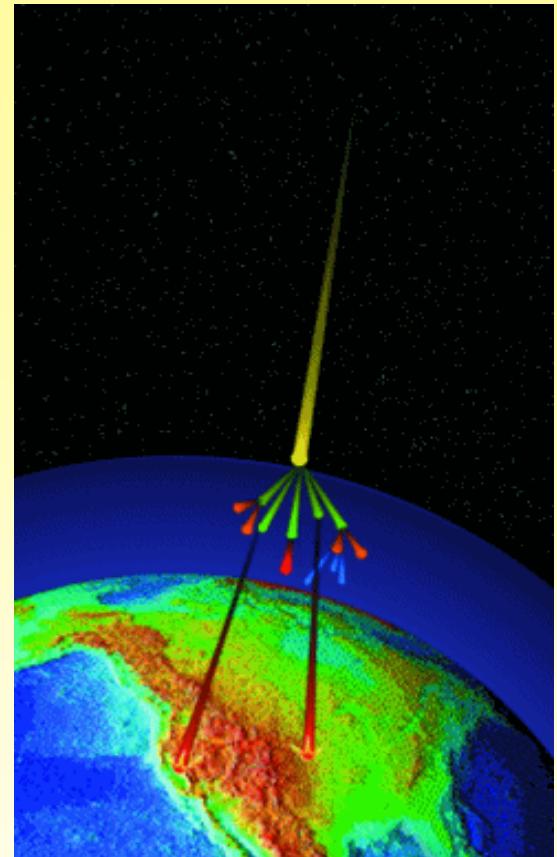


# Cosmogene Nuklide

# Discovery of cosmic-rays



Victor Hess  
discovered the  
„cosmic rays“ in  
his balloon  
voyages of  
1911-1912  
(received Nobel  
Prize in physics  
in 1936)

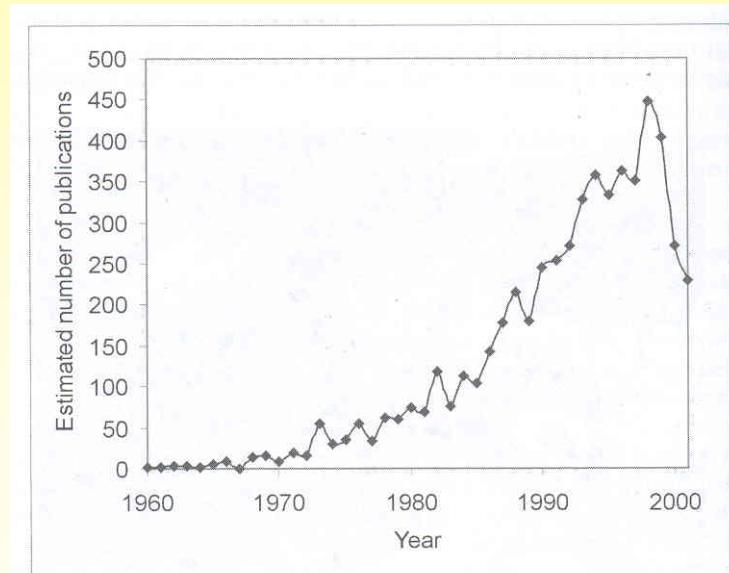


Libby introduced radiocarbon dating ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) in 1947 (Nobel Prize in 1960)

Discovery of  $^{10}\text{Be}$ ,  $^7\text{Be}$  (1956-1957) Arnold (Chicago) Peters, Lal (Bombay)

# Terrestrial cosmogenic isotopes

The “centre of mass” of many geoscience departments has shifted from solid Earth subfields towards surface processes  
(Bruce Watson, Elements 2009)

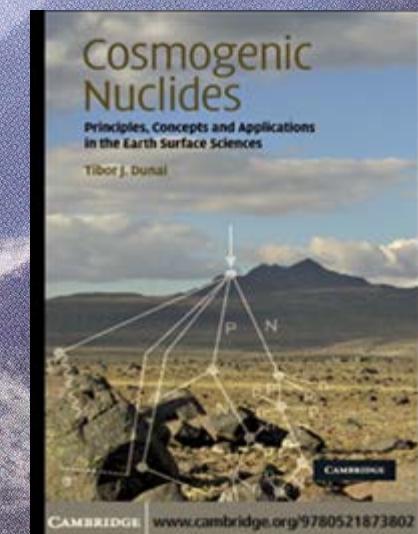
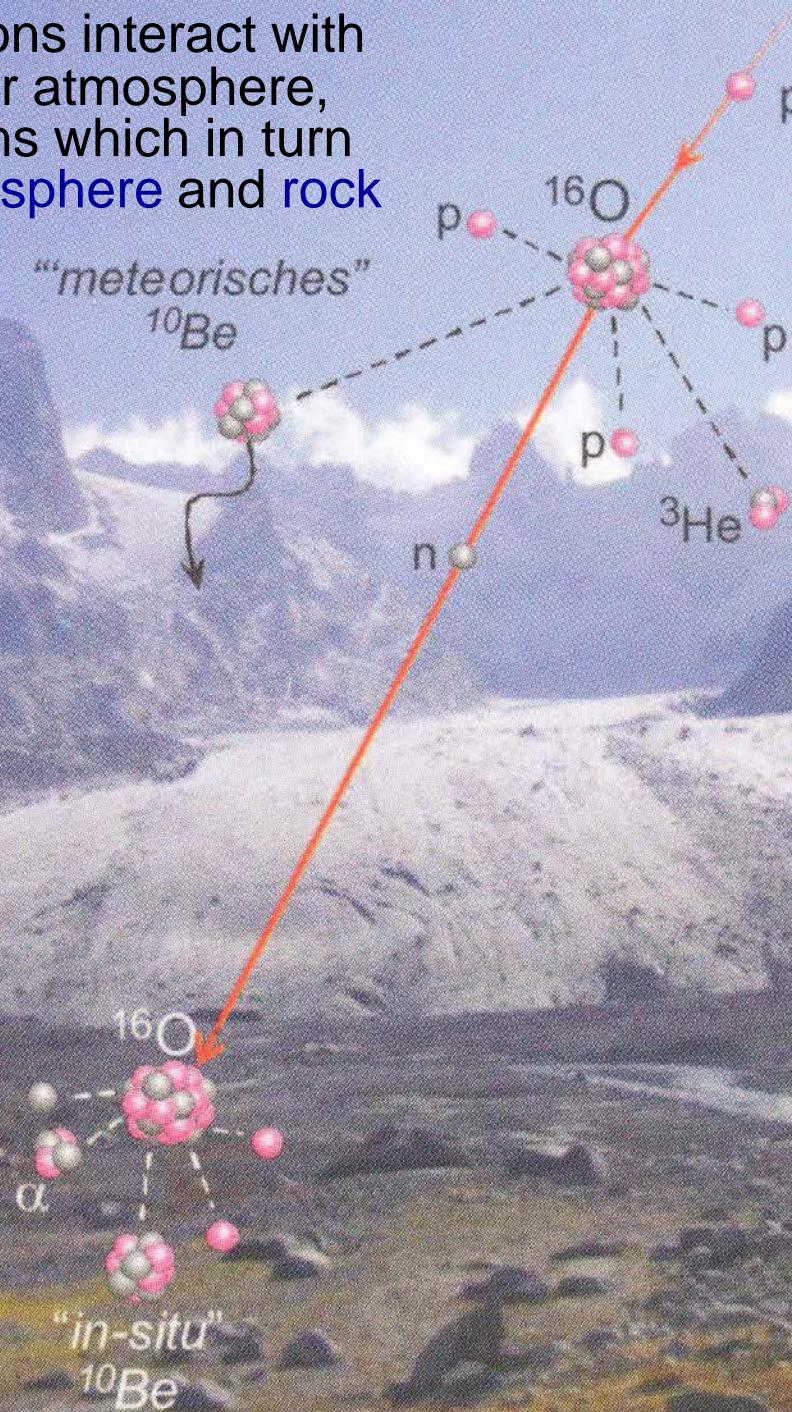


Cockburn & Summerfield 2004

Davis et al. 2003: papers containing “U-Pb”  
and “zircon” as key words

Cosmic rays protons interact with nuclei in the upper atmosphere, producing neutrons which in turn interact with **atmosphere** and **rock surface**

GMT 33, 2008



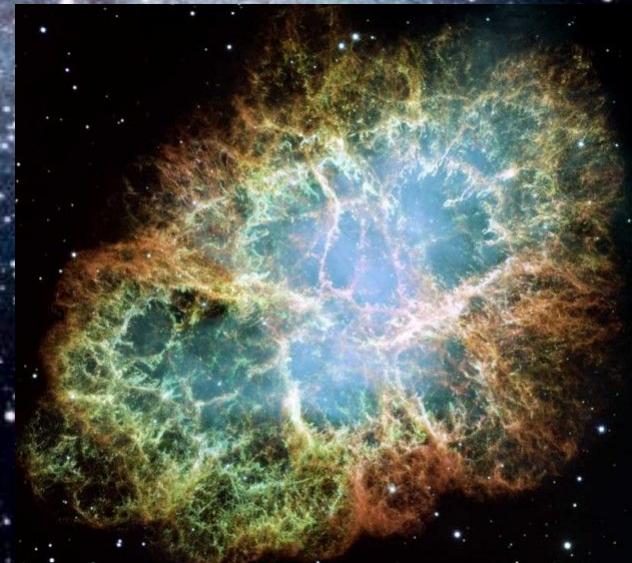
# Cosmic-rays

Galactic cosmic rays: originate in sources outside the solar system, throughout our Milky Way galaxy.

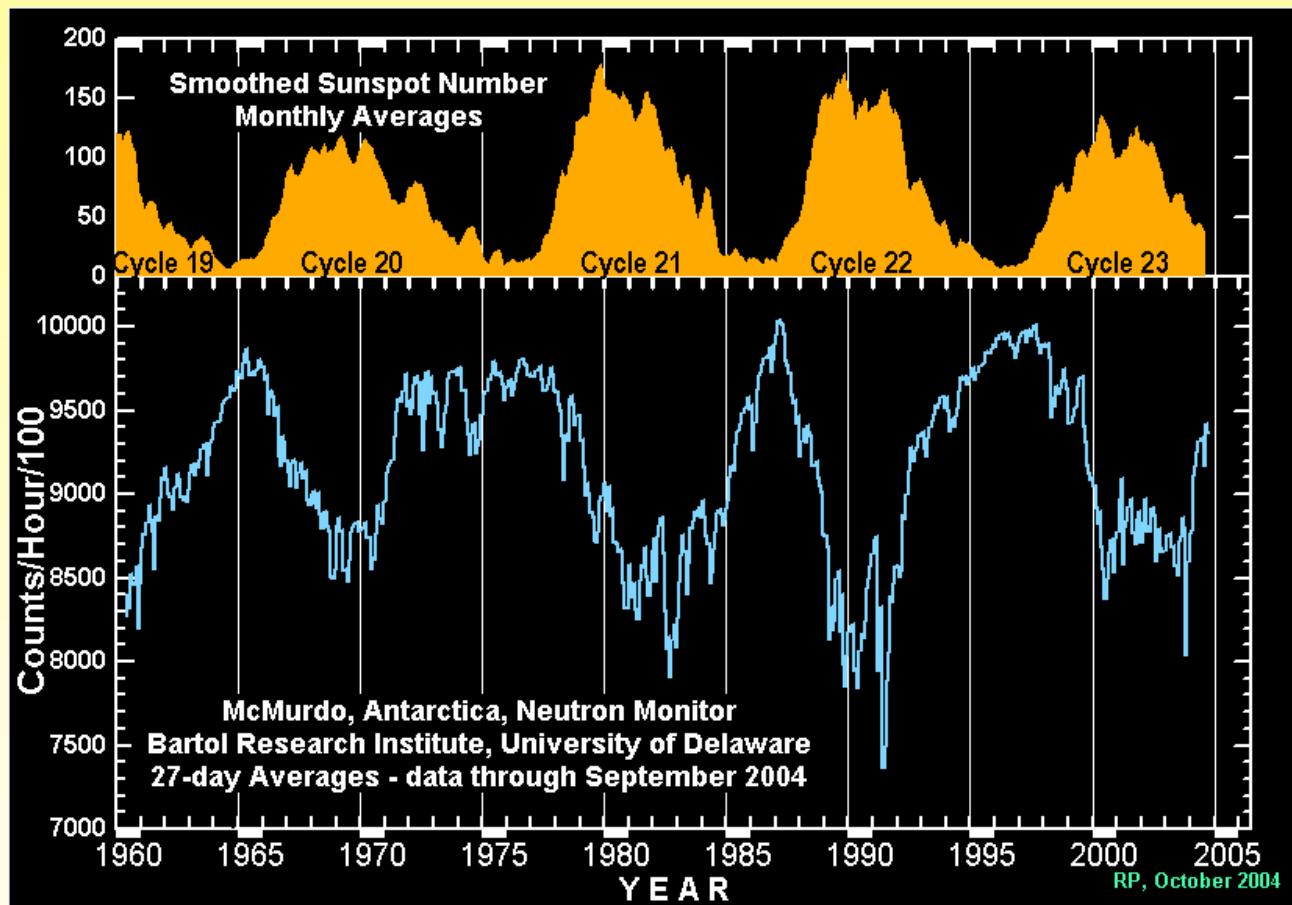
Solar energetic particles: nuclei and electrons accelerated in association with energetic events on the Sun

Galactic cosmic rays derive their energy from supernova explosions

*Crab nebula  
(Krebsnebel)*

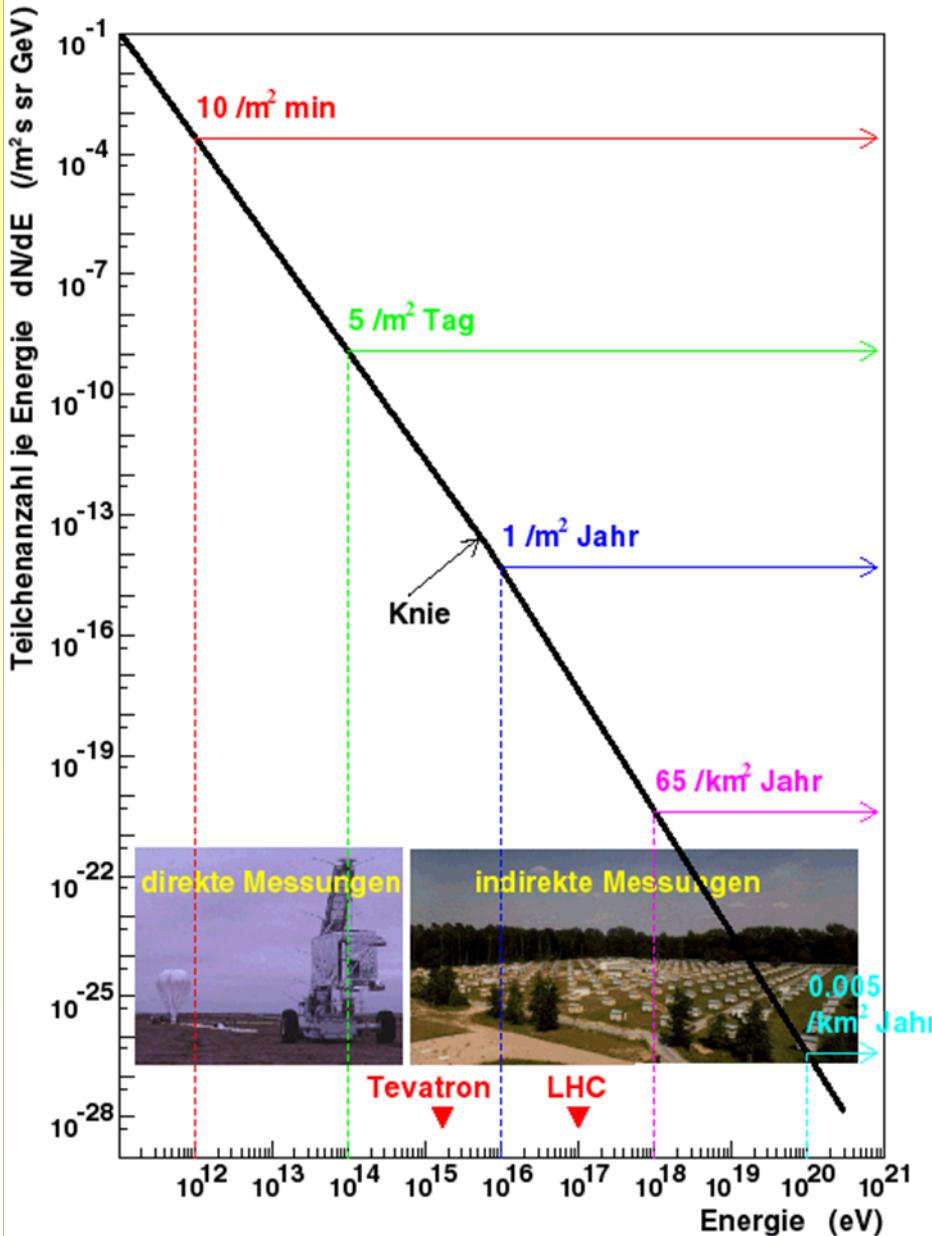


# Variation of production rate



When the sun is active, we get fewer  
cosmic rays here

# Energy of cosmic-rays



Components of galactic cosmic-rays

87-89% protons  
10-12%  $\alpha$ -particles  
1-2% electrons  
1% heavier elements

Secondary cosmic-rays

Pions  $\rightarrow$  muons, neutrinos,  $\gamma$ -rays  
electrons  
positrons

Particle colliders

Tevatron, Fermilab, Chicago, USA  
LHC, CERN, Geneva, Switzerland

# Cosmogenic isotopes

Major *in-situ* produced cosmogenic nuclides in terrestrial materials

Isotope	Production rate (atoms / g / year)	Half-life (years)	Target elements in terrestrial rocks
$^3\text{He}$	75 – 100 (olivine)	stable	O, Si, Al, Mg
$^{10}\text{Be}$	5 – 7 (quartz)	$1.5 \times 10^6$	O, Si, Al, C
$^{14}\text{C}$	18 – 20	5730	C, O
$^{21}\text{Ne}$	18 – 21 (quartz)	stable	Mg, Na, Si, Al
$^{26}\text{Al}$	30 – 36 (quartz)	$0.71 \times 10^6$	Si, Al
$^{36}\text{Cl}$	8 – 10 (basalt)	$0.30 \times 10^6$	Cl, K, Ca
$^{53}\text{Mn}$	?	$3.7 \times 10^6$	Fe

Cerling & Craig (1994) Annu. Rev. Earth Planet. Sci. 22

## Major target minerals:

$^3\text{He}$ : olivine, pyroxene hornblende

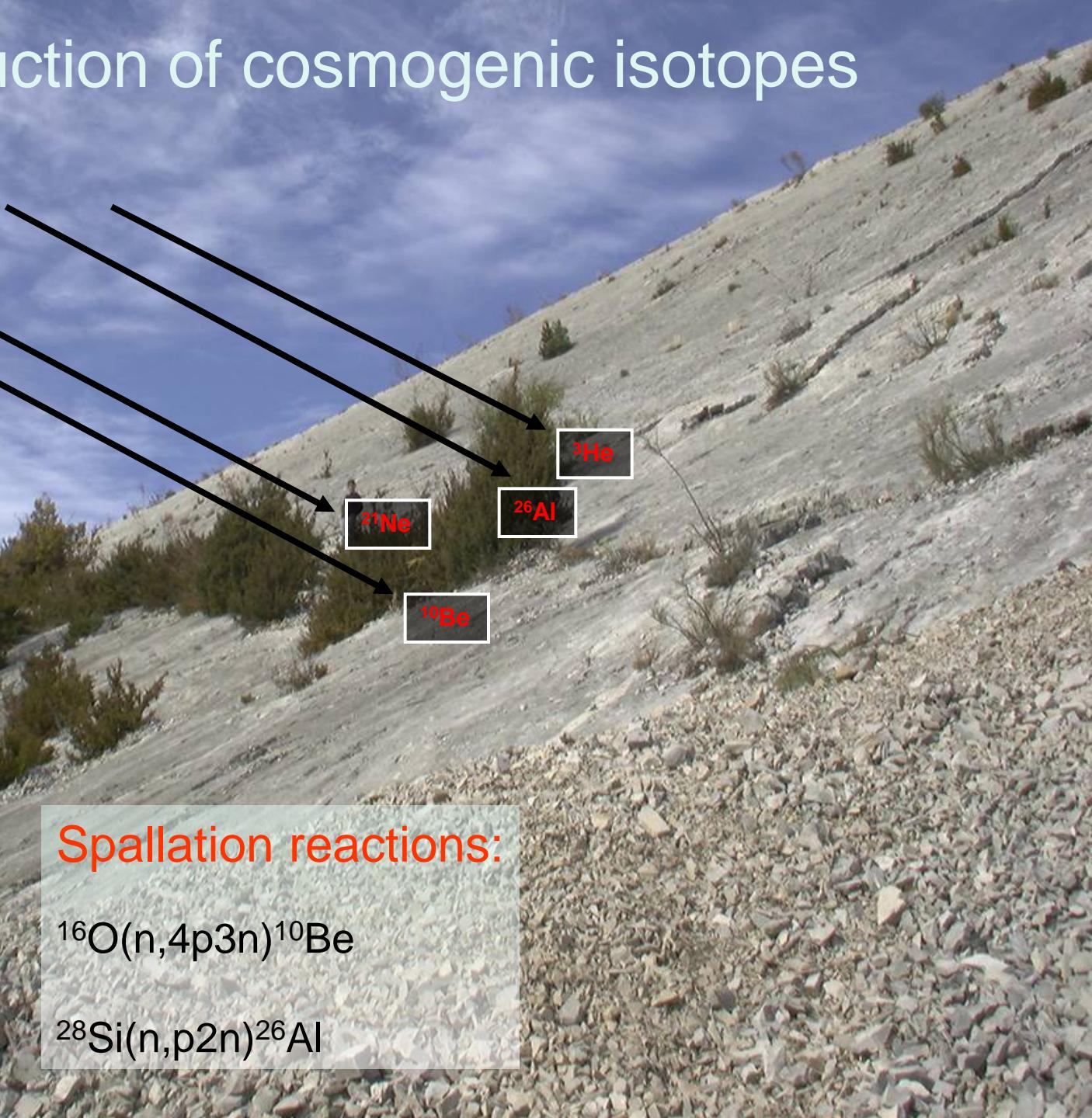
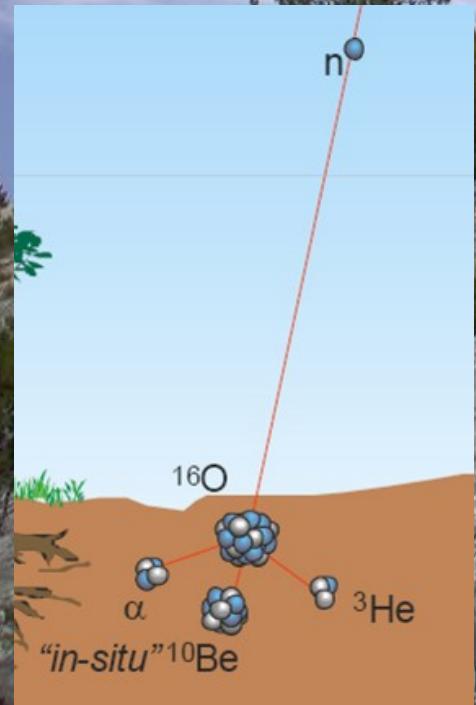
$^{10}\text{Be}$ ,  $^{14}\text{C}$ ,  $^{21}\text{Ne}$ ,  $^{26}\text{Al}$ : quartz

$^{36}\text{Cl}$ : calcite, K-feldspar

Cosmogenic isotopes are produced in near surface rocks by collisions of high energy neutrons and muons with specific target elements in rocks and minerals. All production rates scaled to sea-level high latitude ( $>60^\circ$ )

# Production of cosmogenic isotopes

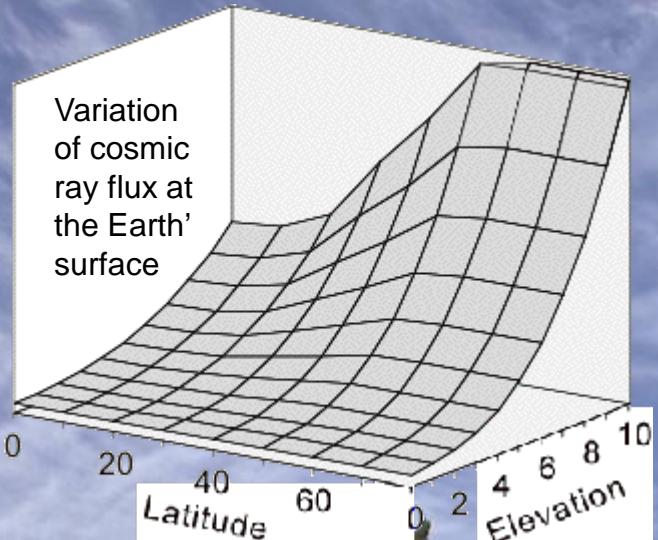
Cosmic radiation



Spallation reactions:



# Variation of production rate



The **rate of production** of cosmogenic isotopes depends on the concentrations of the target elements (O, K, Ca, Mg), elevation, surface orientation, and geomagnetic latitude

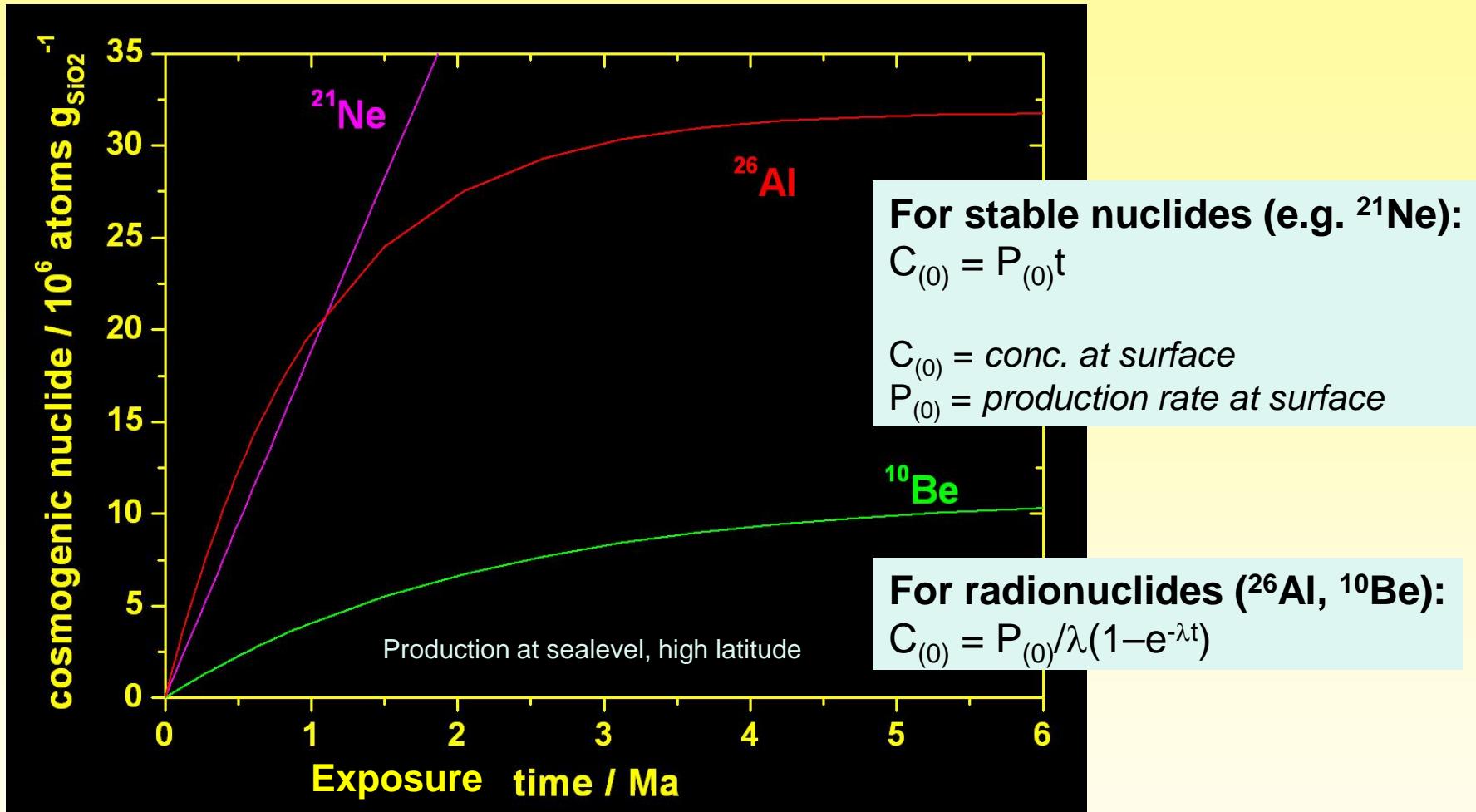
Comparison with redness of a person's skin (suntan)  
Gosse and Phillips (2001)

Suntan – wears away  
Cosmogenic nuclide – decays

Suntan lotion shields skin from radiation  
Atmosphere and snow shields a landform from radiation

Not everybody tans to the same degree of redness  
Nuclide production varies in different minerals

# Production rates



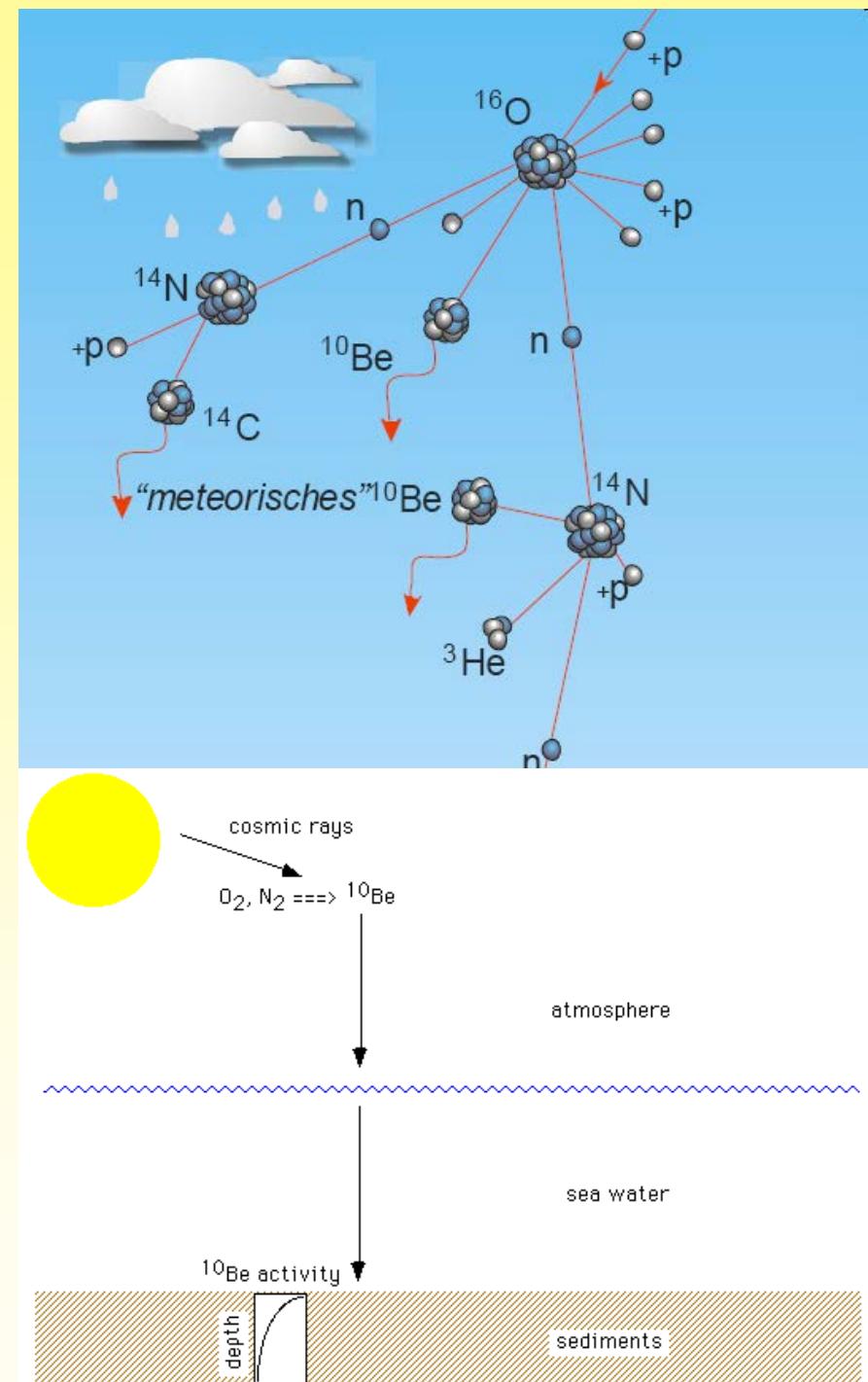
build-up of cosmogenic nuclides in case of **no erosion**

# $^{10}\text{Be}$

$^{10}\text{Be}$  is produced by reactions of cosmic ray protons with  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  in the upper atmosphere

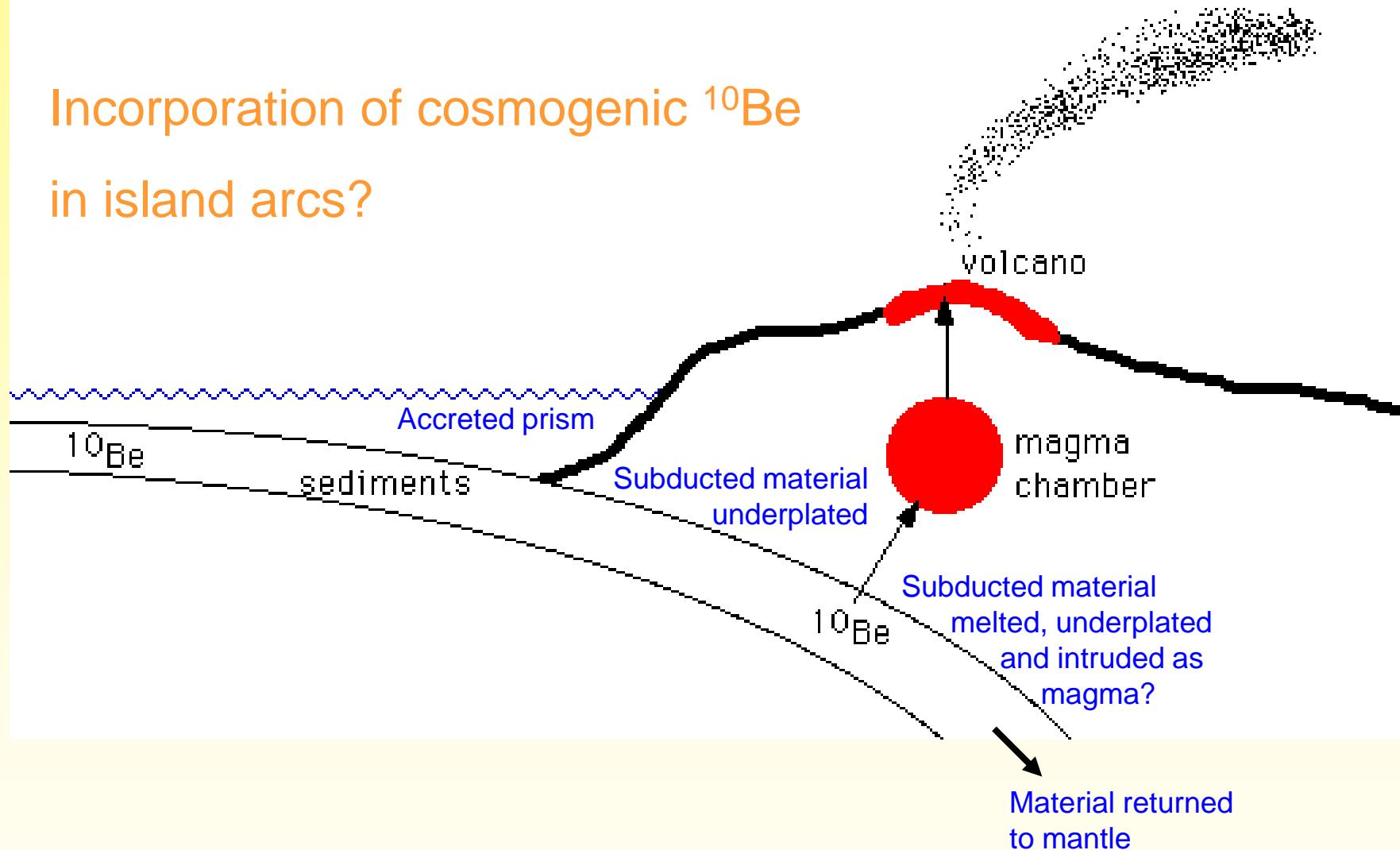
Be is a particle reactive element → becomes concentrated in clay-rich oceanic sediments

$^{10}\text{Be}$  then undergoes decay to  $^{10}\text{B}$  with a half-life of about 1.5 Ma (long enough to be subducted, but quickly lost to mantle systems)

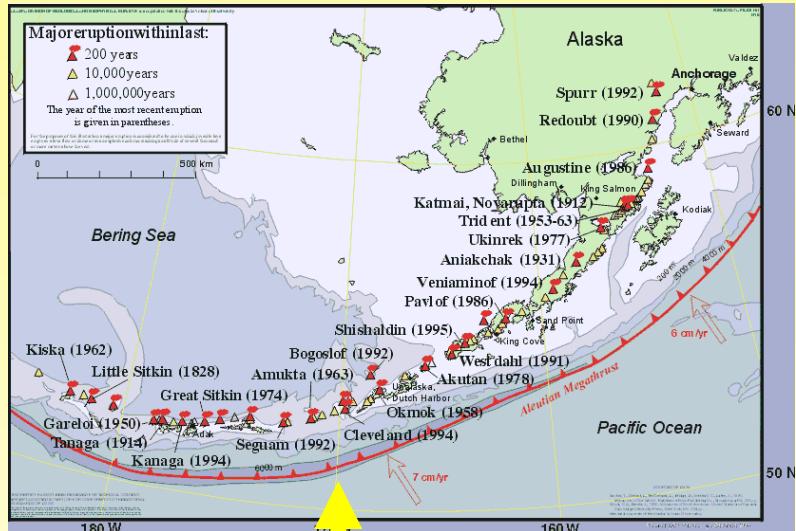


# $^{10}\text{Be}$

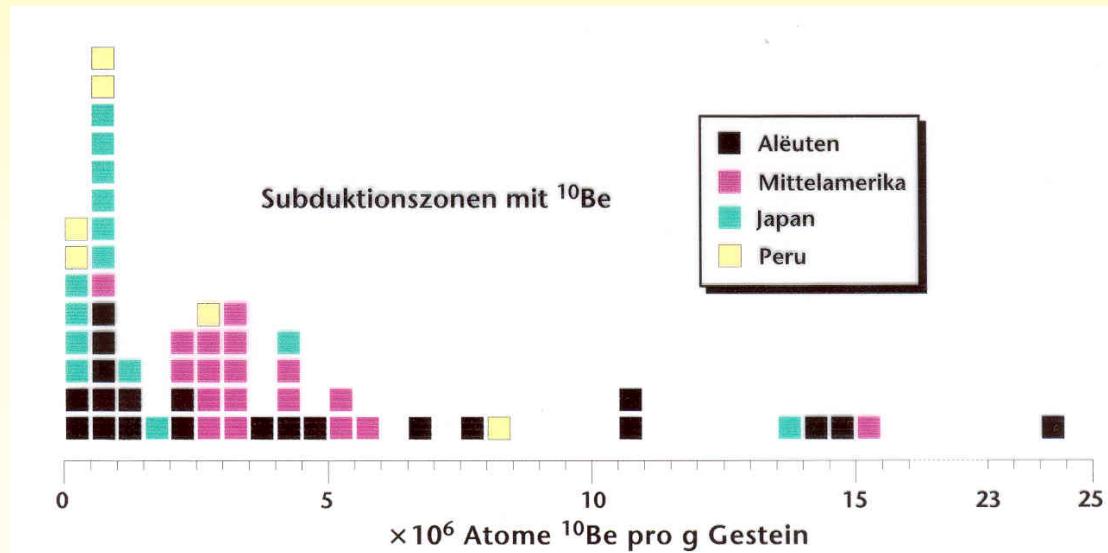
Incorporation of cosmogenic  $^{10}\text{Be}$   
in island arcs?



# $^{10}\text{Be}$ in arc lavas



Smoking gun evidence  
for sediment subduction



# Measurement



## Accelerator mass spectrometer

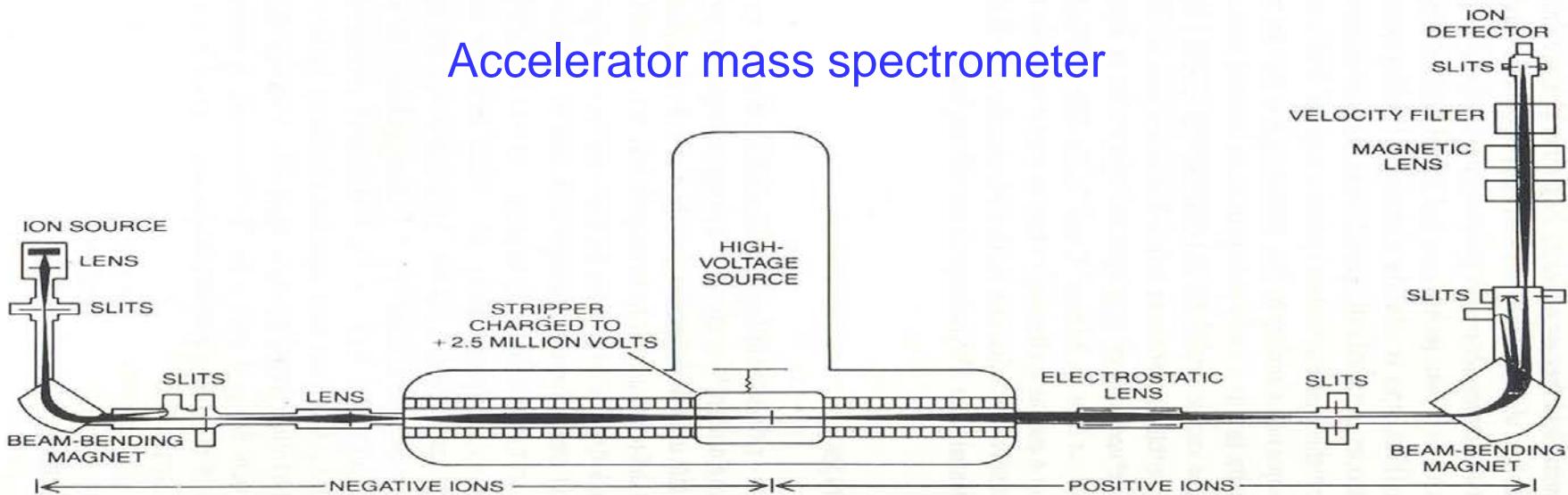
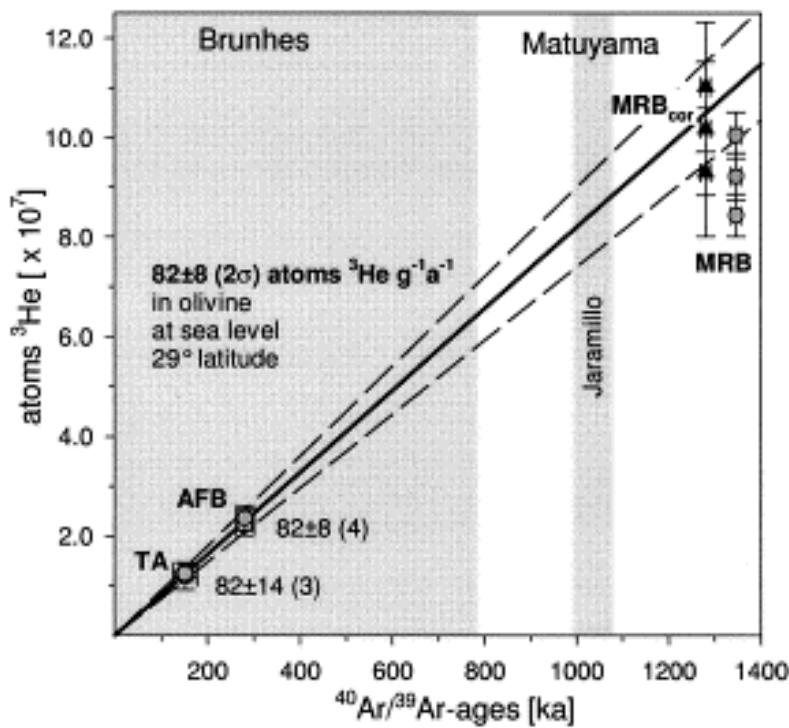


Fig. 37. Principal components of an accelerator mass spectrometer. (After Hedges and Gowlett 1986)

AMS has a factor of a million lower detection limit for  $^{14}\text{C}$ ,  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ,  $^{10}\text{Be}$ ,  $^{26}\text{Al}$  compared to counting methods

# How to determine production rates of TCN?



Production rate of  ${}^3\text{He}$  in olivine derived from 3 lava flows dated by the  ${}^{40}\text{Ar}/{}^{39}\text{Ar}$  technique at 152, 281 and 1350 ka (from Dunai & Wijbrans 2000).

# Production rates

## Nucleonic production profile with depth

$P(d)$ :

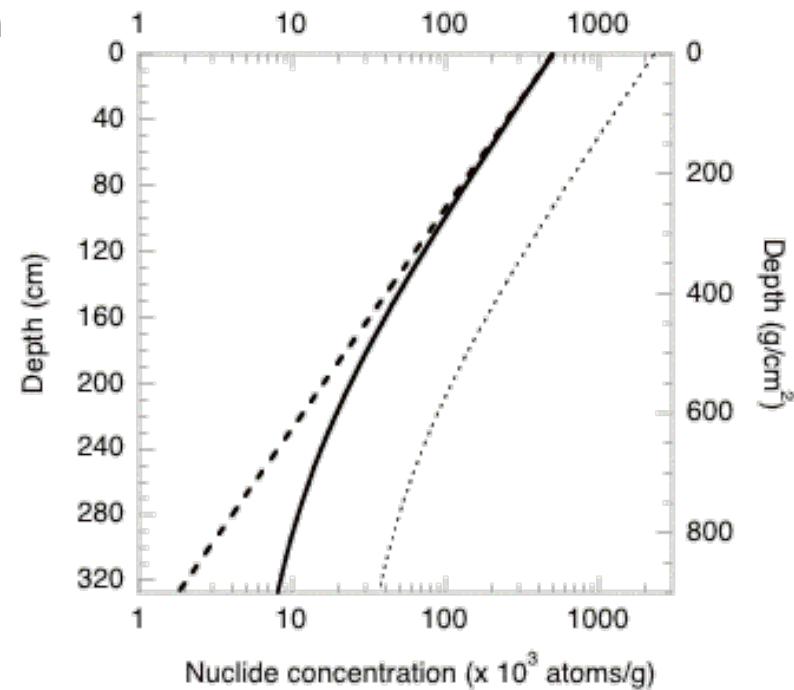
$$P(d) = P_{(0)} e^{-d/L}$$

$P_{(0)}$  = production rate at surface

$d$  = depth

$L$  = absorption length scale

$L = 160/\rho$  cm ( $\rho$  = overburden pressure)



$^{10}\text{Be}$  concentration vs. depth after 100 ka exposure calculated for nucleon production (dashed line) and for combined nucleon and muon production (solid curve) with a surface production rate of 5.1 atoms  $\text{g}^{-1} \text{ a}^{-1}$ , a rock density of  $2.75 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  and **no erosion**.

# Production rates

## Nucleonic production profile with depth

$P(d)$ :

$$P(d) = P_{(0)} e^{-d/L}$$

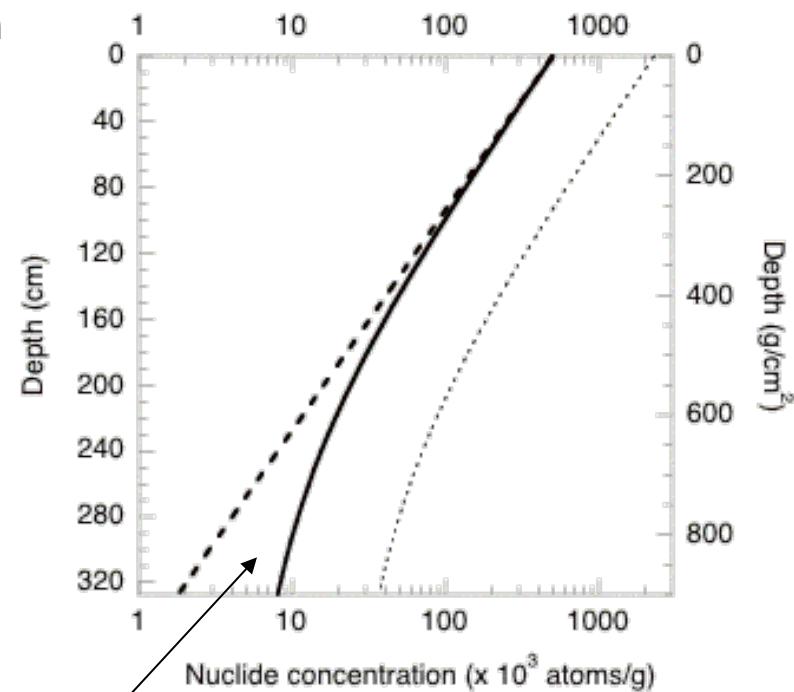
$P_{(0)}$  = production rate at surface

$d$  = depth

$L$  = absorption length scale

$L = 160/\rho$  cm ( $\rho$  = density of overburden)

In situ cosmogenic isotopes are produced near the surface of the earth because the cosmic flux is attenuated by rock at depths that exceed 2-3 m.



For nucleon and muon production (solid curve in fig.):

$$P(d) = P_{(0)} e^{-d/L_0} + P_{(1)} e^{-d/L_1} + P_{(2)} e^{-d/L_2} + P_{(3)} e^{-d/L_3}$$

# Production rates

Production profile with depth  $P(d)$ :

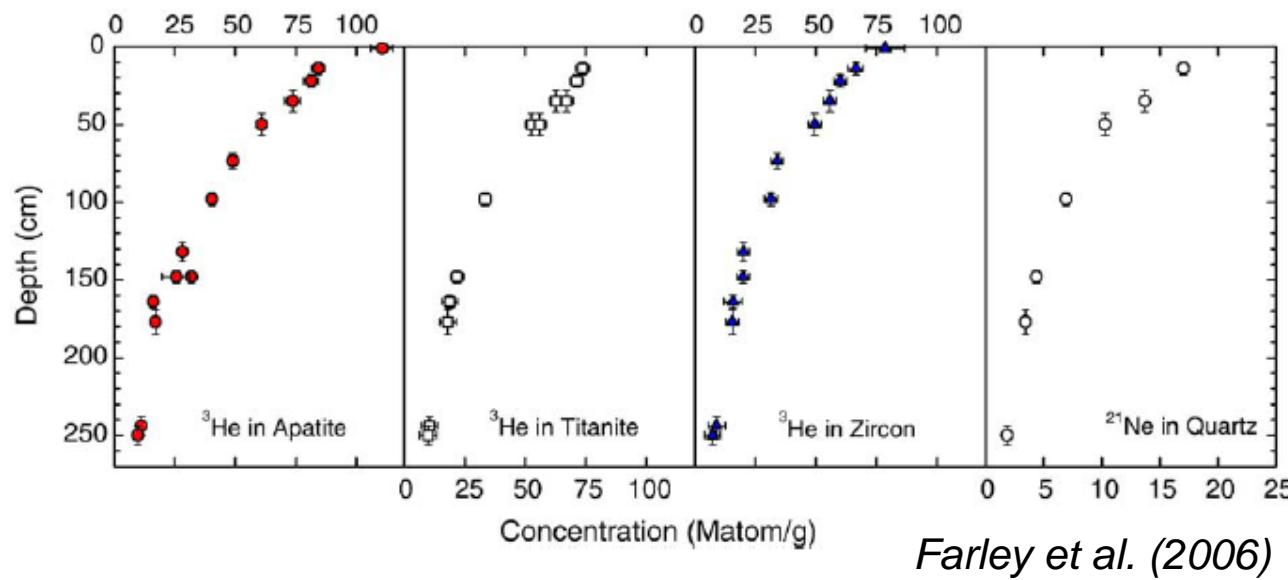
$$P(d) = P_{(0)} e^{-d/L}$$

$P_{(0)}$  = production rate at surface

d = depth

L = absorption length scale

$$P(d) = P_{(0)} e^{-d/L_0} + P_{(1)} e^{-d/L_1} + P_{(2)} e^{-d/L_2} + P_{(3)} e^{-d/L_3}$$



# Übung 1: Produktionsratenberechnung

$^{23}\text{Na}$  wird bei einer konstanten Neutronenflußdichte von  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in radioaktives  $^{24}\text{Na}$  umgewandelt

Der Wirkungsquerschnitt beim Einfang thermischer Neutronen (*Neutroneneinfangsquerschnitt*) für diese Reaktion beträgt  $0.53 \times 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$  pro Atom

Wieviel  $^{24}\text{Na}$  Atome werden pro g Natrium und pro Sekunde produziert?

# Übung 1: Produktionsratenberechnung

$^{23}\text{Na}$  wird bei einer konstanten Neutronenflußdichte von  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in radioaktives  $^{24}\text{Na}$  umgewandelt:  $^{23}\text{Na}(n,\gamma)^{24}\text{Na}$

Der Wirkungsquerschnitts für den Einfang thermischer Neutronen (*Neutroneneinfangsquerschnitt*) für diese Reaktion beträgt  $0.53 \times 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$  pro Atom

Wieviel  $^{24}\text{Na}$  Atome werden pro g Natrium und pro Sekunde produziert?

Pro Sekunde werden  $0.53 \times 10^{-24} \times 10^{12} = \mathbf{0.53 \times 10^{-12}}$

$^{24}\text{Na}$  Atome produziert

# Übung 1

In einer Sekunde werden  $0.53 \times 10^{-24} \times 10^{12} = \mathbf{0.53 \times 10^{-12}}$   
 $^{23}\text{Na}$  Atome produziert

1 Mol Na enthält  $6.023 \times 10^{23}$  Atome (Avogadro-Zahl)

Na hat das Atomgewicht 23 → Gewicht von  $6.023 \times 10^{23}$  Atomen entspricht also 23 g

→  $0.53 \times 10^{-12} \times 6.023 \times 10^{23} / 23 = \mathbf{1.387 \times 10^{10}}$  Atome  $^{24}\text{Na}$   
werden pro Sekunde pro g Natrium produziert

# Übung 2: Berechnung der Probenmenge für Expositionsaltersbestimmung

$^{10}\text{Be}$  Produktionsrate in Quarz: 5 Atome pro Jahr

Geschätztes Alter der Oberfläche 6000 Jahre

$^{10}\text{Be}$  Konzentration in Quarz?

Für AMS Messung:

Gewünschtes  $^{10}\text{Be}/^{9}\text{Be}$ -Verhältnis:  $5 \times 10^{-14}$

gewünschte Menge an (reinem) BeO: 0.5 mg

Vieviel g Quarz wird für die Messung gebraucht?

# Assuming no erosion....

...the exposure age can be determined using the following equation:

$$T = \frac{\ln(1 - C\lambda/P)}{-\lambda}$$

T = the length of irradiation (i.e., exposure age),

C = number of cosmogenically produced atoms

P = cosmogenic isotope production rate

$\lambda$  = decay constant

# Production rates, considering erosion

$$C = P_{\Lambda}/D$$

$C$  = concentration of cosmogenic nuclide

$P$  = production rate

$\Lambda$  = penetration length scale

$D$  = denudation rate

$$N_{(0)} = [P_{(0)} / (\lambda + \rho \varepsilon / L_0)]$$

$N_{(0)}$  = concentration at surface

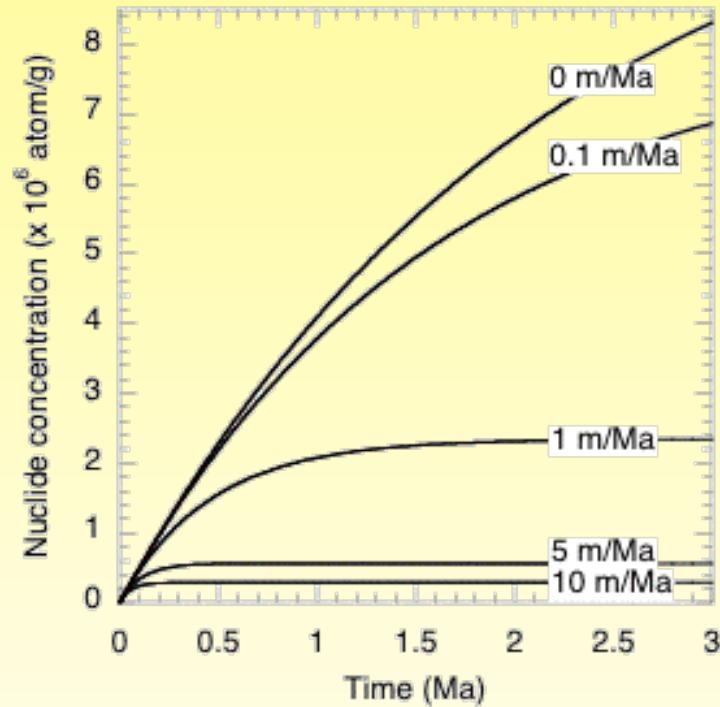
$P_{(0)}$  = production rate at surface

$\lambda$  = decay constant

$\varepsilon$  = (constant) erosion rate

$\rho$  = density

$L_0$  = attenuation length



Surface concentration of in-situ cosmogenic stable isotope ( $^{10}\text{Be}$ ) for steady-state erosion rates ranging from 0 to 10 m/Ma.

# Exposure age dating and erosion

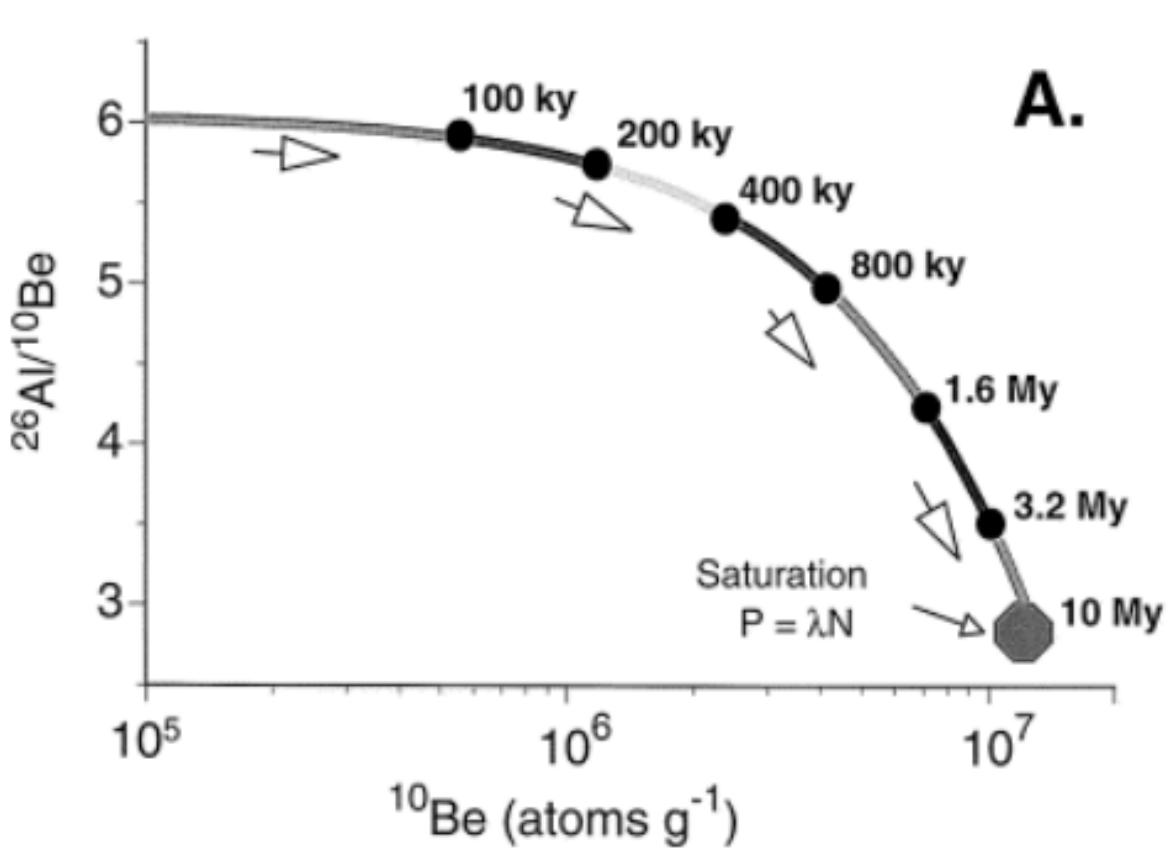
## Assumptions:

- No *inheritance* of nuclide concentrations
- Steady state erosion or no erosion
- Simple exposure history (e.g. no shielding)
- Production rate can be constrained

## Questions:

- Exposure age of a surface
- Exposure age of terraces (bedrock and deposits)
- Erosion rate of exposed bedrock
- Soil production rates

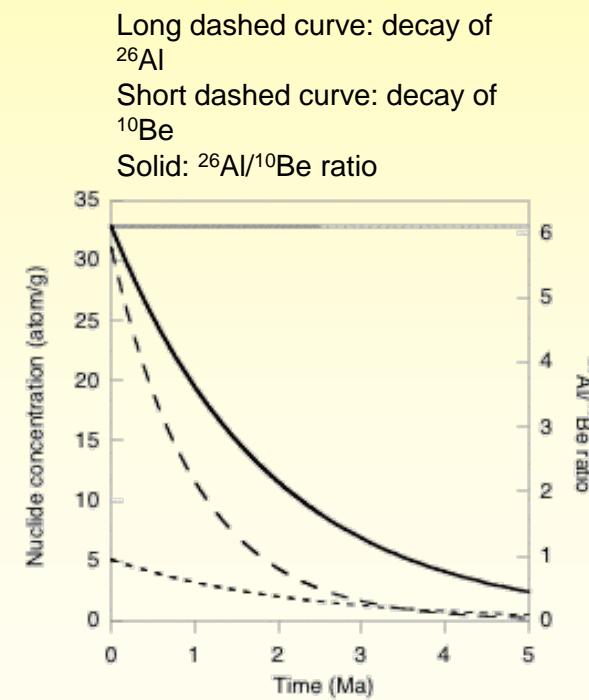
# Banana plot 1/2



The line is the isotopic trajectory of non-eroding sample exposed continuously at the surface. Numbers to right of curve are exposure ages.

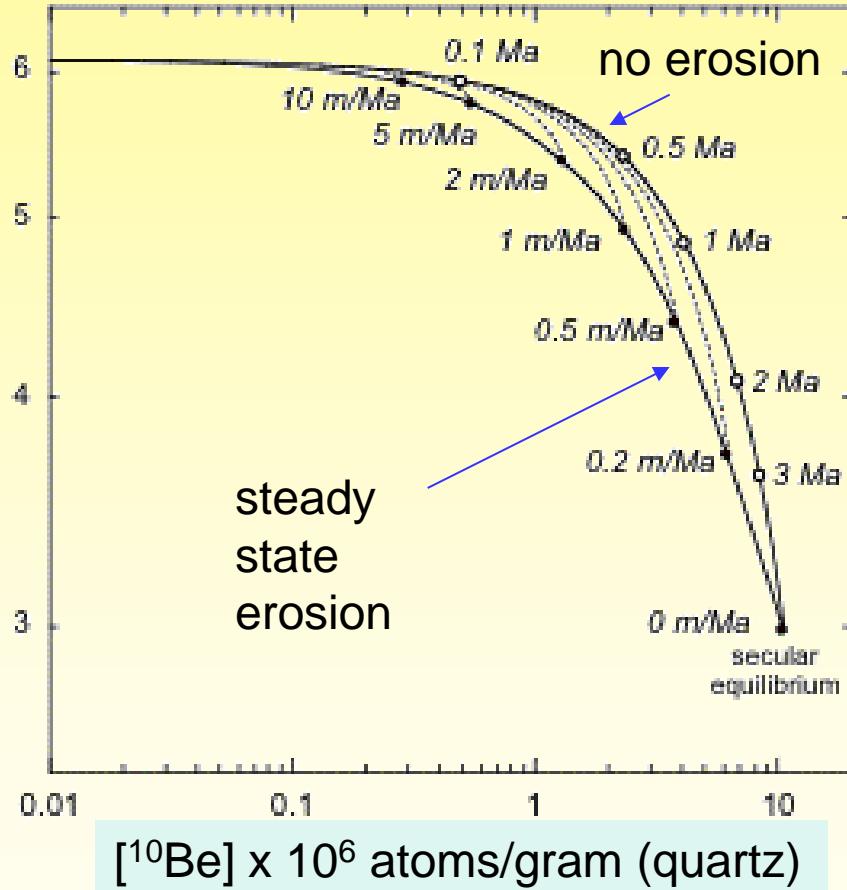
Trajectory ends at saturation where in situ production is equal to decay. In reality, saturation is rarely reached as nuclides are lost by surface erosion.

$^{26}\text{Al}$  is produced six times faster than  $^{10}\text{Be}$ , but  $^{26}\text{Al}$  decays more quickly (half-life = 0.71 Ma) than  $^{10}\text{Be}$  (half-life = 1.5 Ma)



# Banana plot 2/2

$^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$



Continuously exposed samples fall on the curve connecting the open circles labelled with exposure time (same as in last figure)

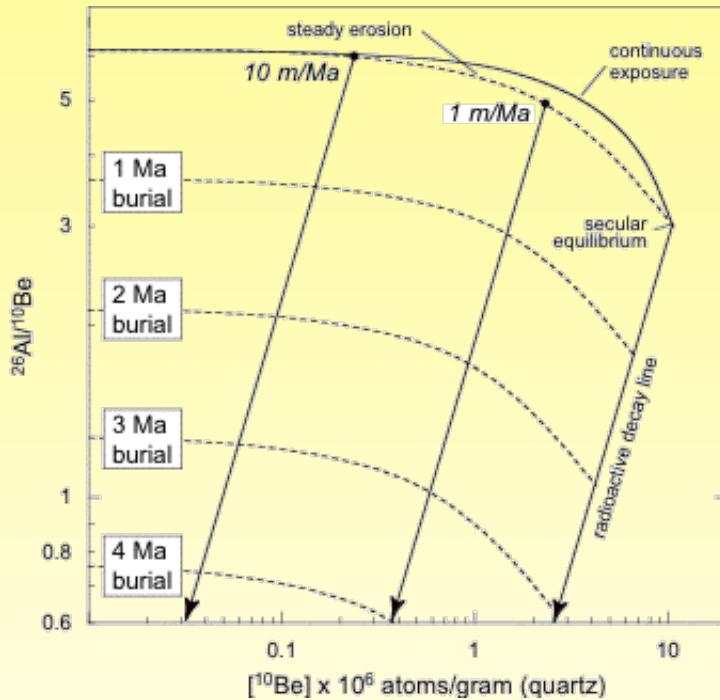
Steadily eroding samples lie on the lower curve connecting the labelled steady-state erosion end points (solid dots).

Dashed curves show the trajectory of samples within the  $^{10}\text{Be}$  concentration vs.  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  space for the given steady-state erosion rates.

Samples that have been shielded will plot below the “banana- window” i.e., below the line of steady-state erosion

# Burial dating

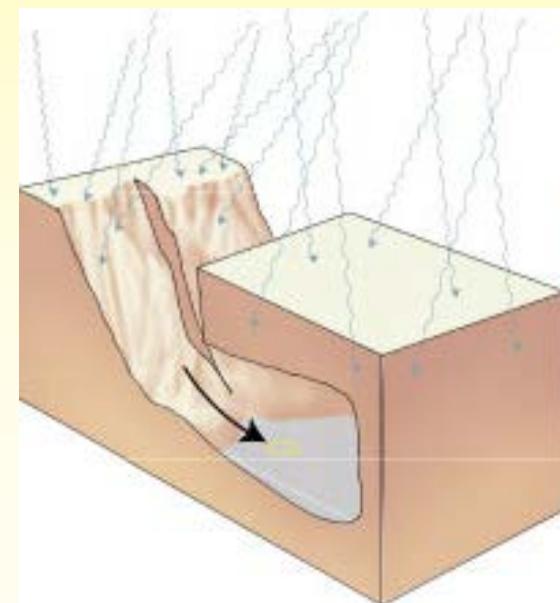
## Burial dating plot



For completely buried and shielded minerals, the  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  decreases along a line parallel to the solid "radioactive decay line".

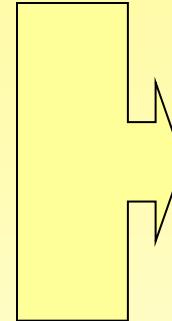
Measured  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  ratio in a sample determines the burial time, and can also be used to calculate the pre-burial erosion rate.

A mineral with no burial history should plot between the steady erosion and continuous exposure curves (i.e., in the “banana-window”)



# Applications

1. Dating Quaternary basalt volcanism
2. Timing of landslides
3. Tectonic displacement
4. Glaciers and ice-sheets
5. Meteorite impacts
6. Sedimentation rates
7. Ground water dating
8. (Sea water dating)
9. Age of landscapes
10. Erosion rates



Exposure age  
dating

# 1. Dating Quaternary volcanism

Radiocarbon dating (if charcoal in between)  
or: cosmogenic  $^{3}\text{He}$

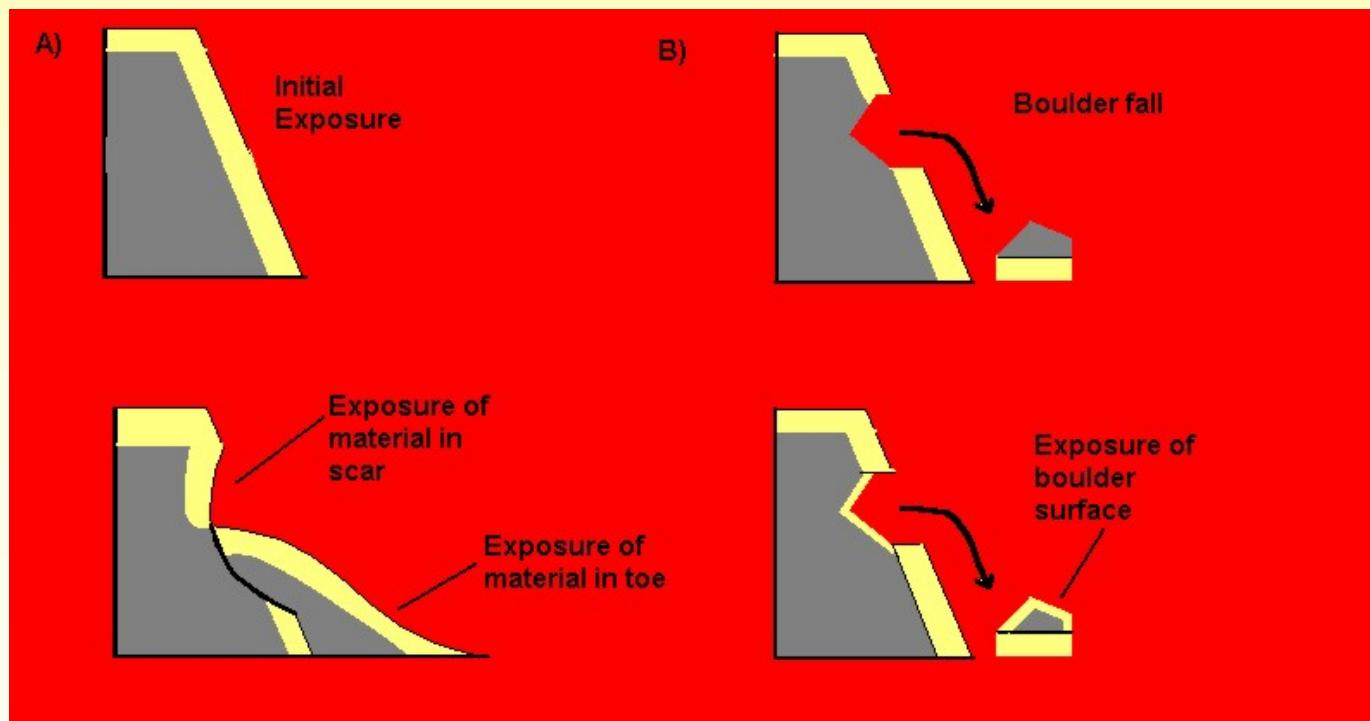


Lascar, N-Chile

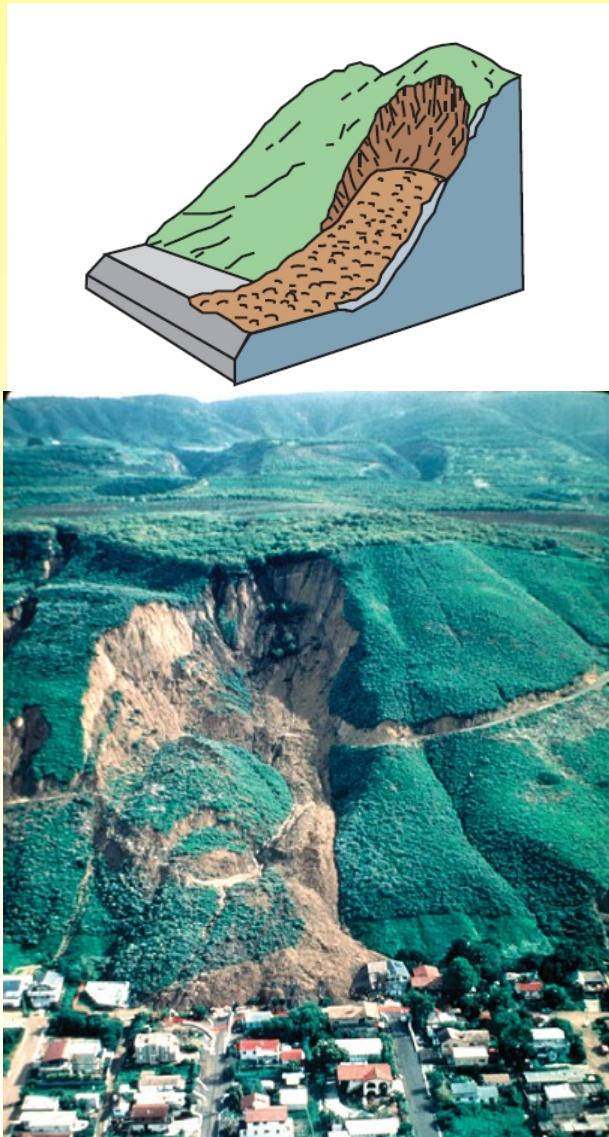
## 2. Timing of landslides

**A:** After landslide, cosmic rays build up in the rocks exposed in the landslide scar and on the surface of the deposit

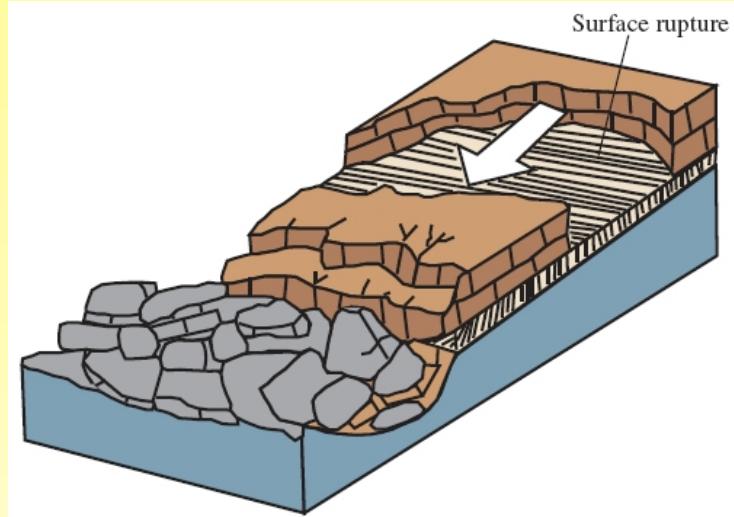
**B:** after boulder fall, cosmogenic isotopes build up on the upper surface of the boulder and in the scar left behind



## 2. Timing of landslides



La Conchita landslide (1995) California



Panoche Hills, California

## 2. Timing of landslides



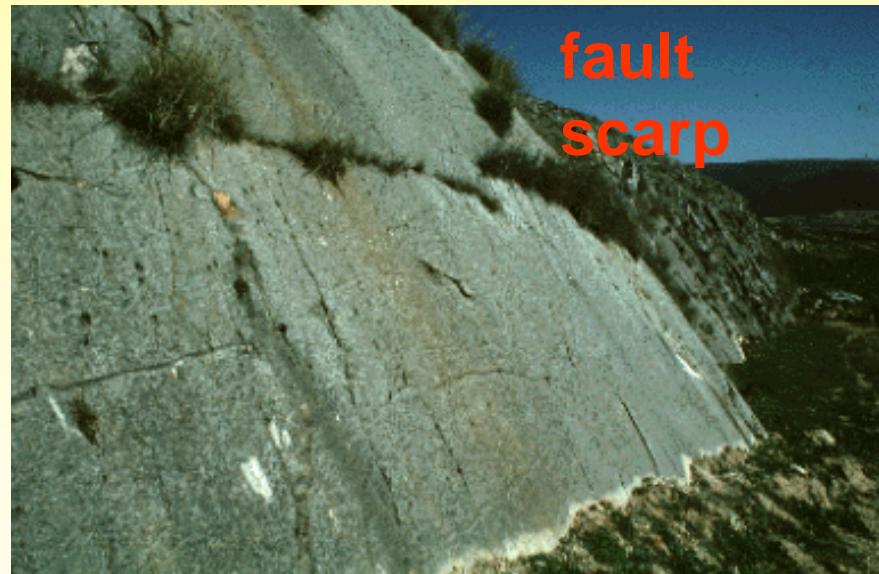
# 3. Tectonic displacement

## dating of ancient earthquakes

Movement along fault planes usually occurs during earthquakes.

Exposure ages increase from bottom to top, and can cluster into discrete groups or steps representing the episodic nature of faulting events.

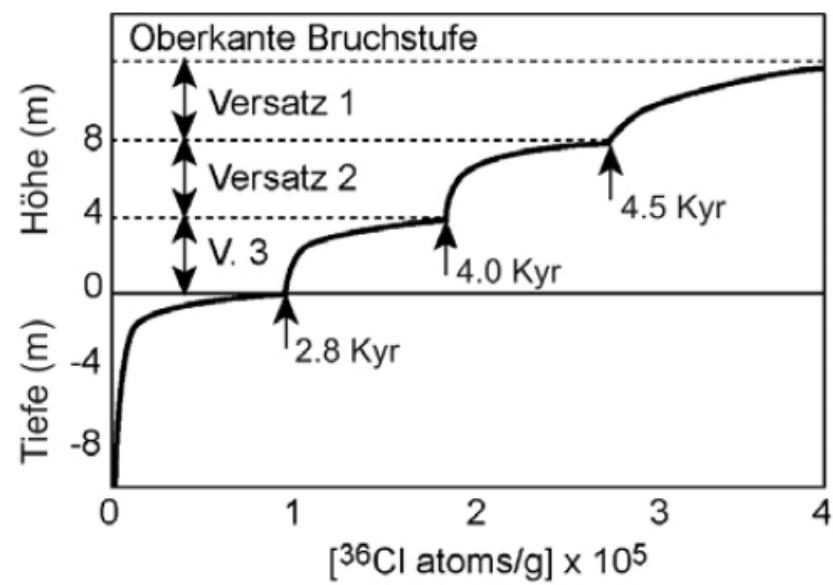
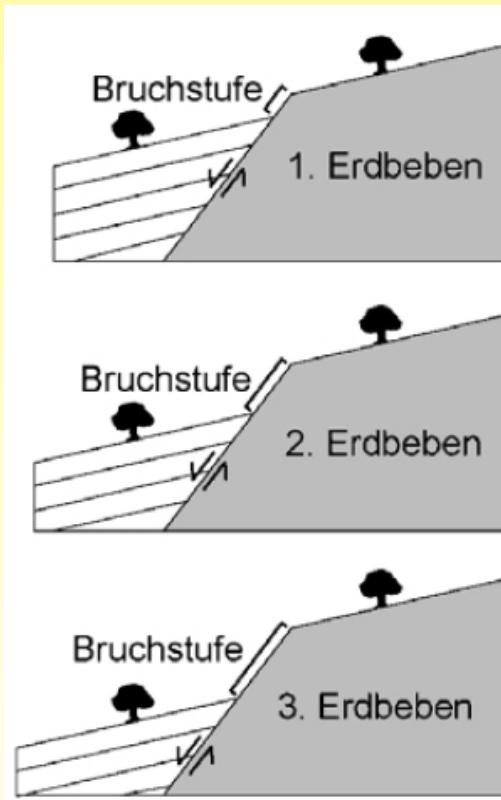
The number and magnitude and recurrence interval of the faulting events which produced the scarp can be determined.



(Zreda & Noller 1998, Science 282)

### 3. Tectonic displacement

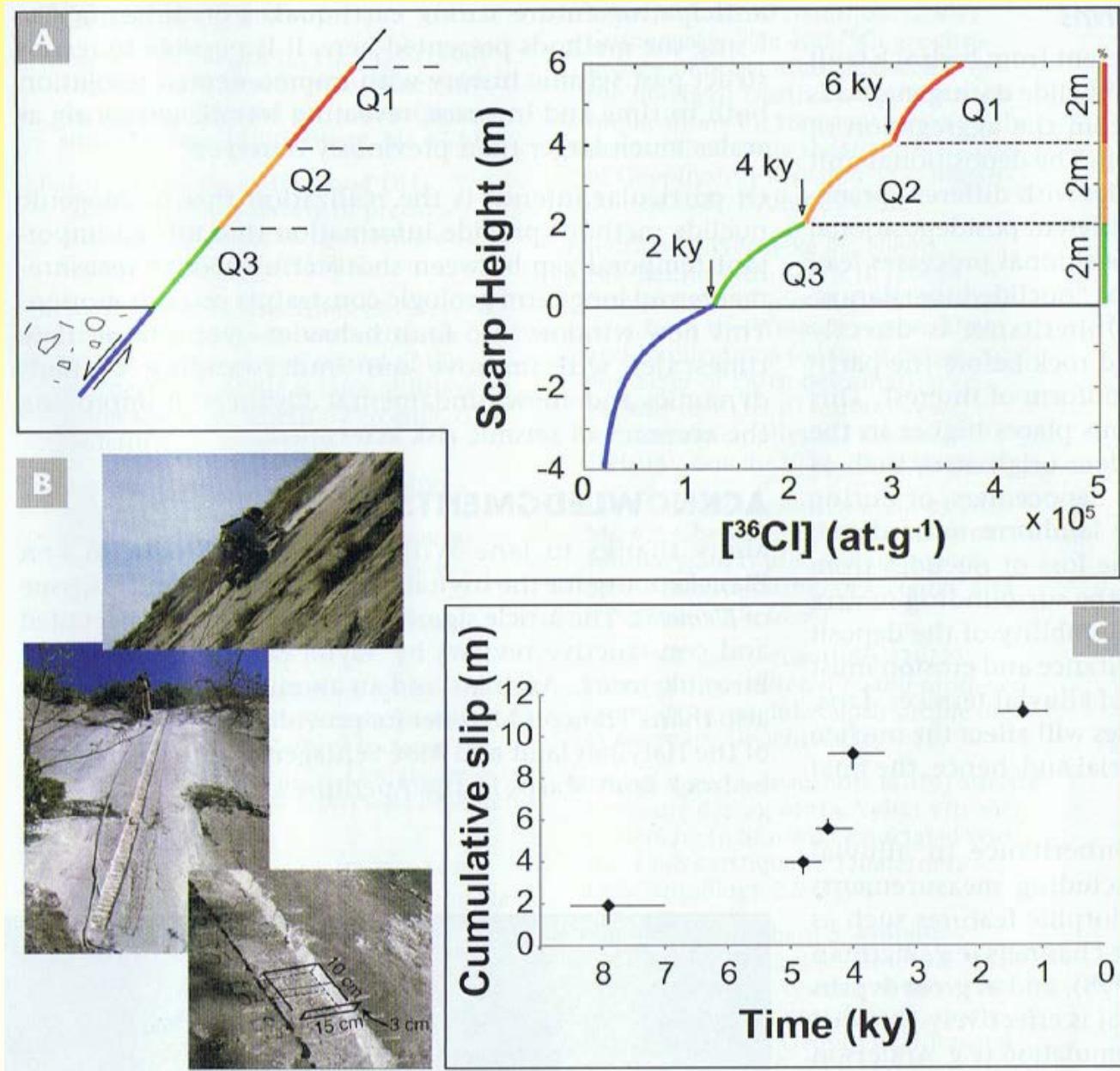
Sparta fault, Greece



Benedetti et al. 2002 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*

### 3. Tectonic displacement

Magnola fault, Apennines



# 4. Glaciers and ice sheets



Courtesy H. Hann

## 4. Glaciers and ice sheets

Pasterzenzunge, Großglockner (3798 m)



1900



2000

Assuming that boulders have been exposed continuously since the retreat of the ice, the glacial retreats can be dated

# 4. Glaciers and ice sheets

Morteratsch



1867

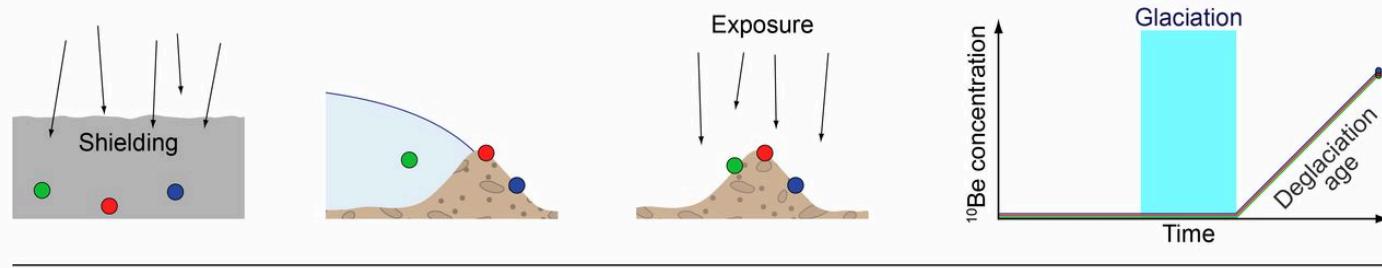


2007

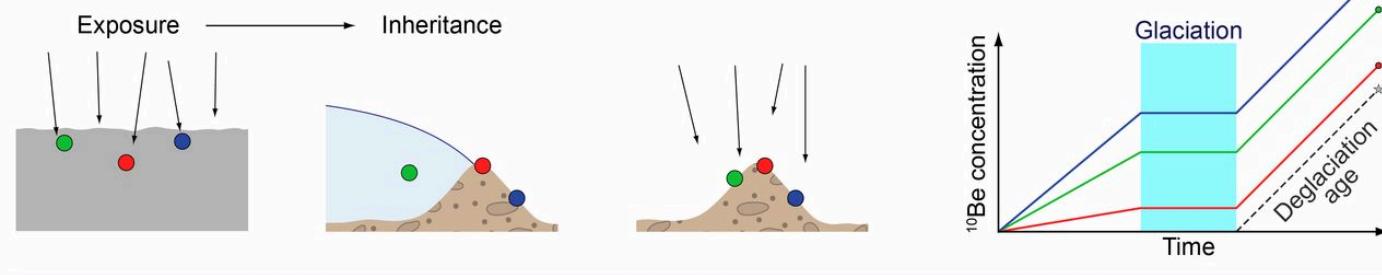
# 4. Glaciers and ice sheets



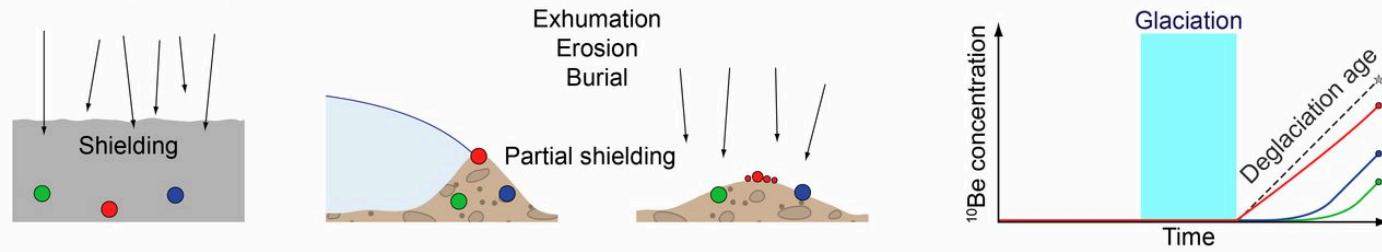
a Ideal case



b Prior exposure

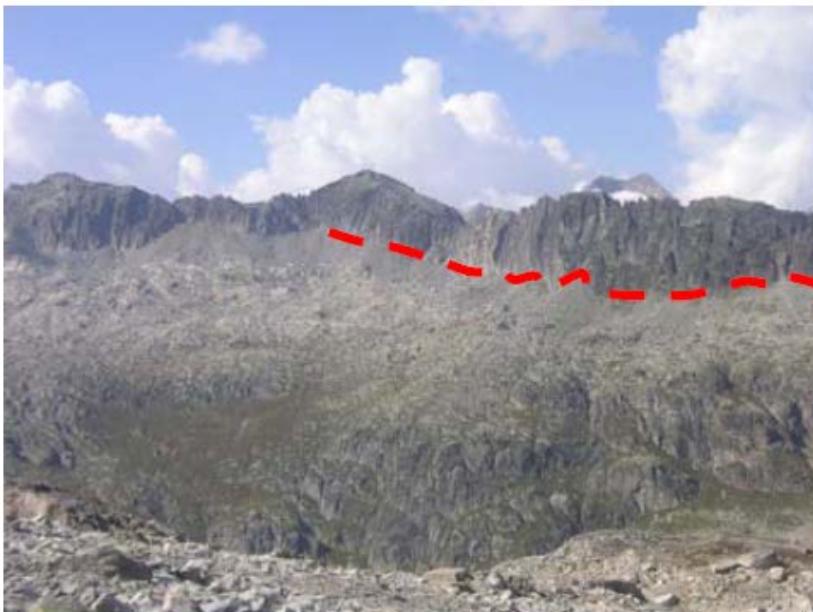


c Incomplete exposure



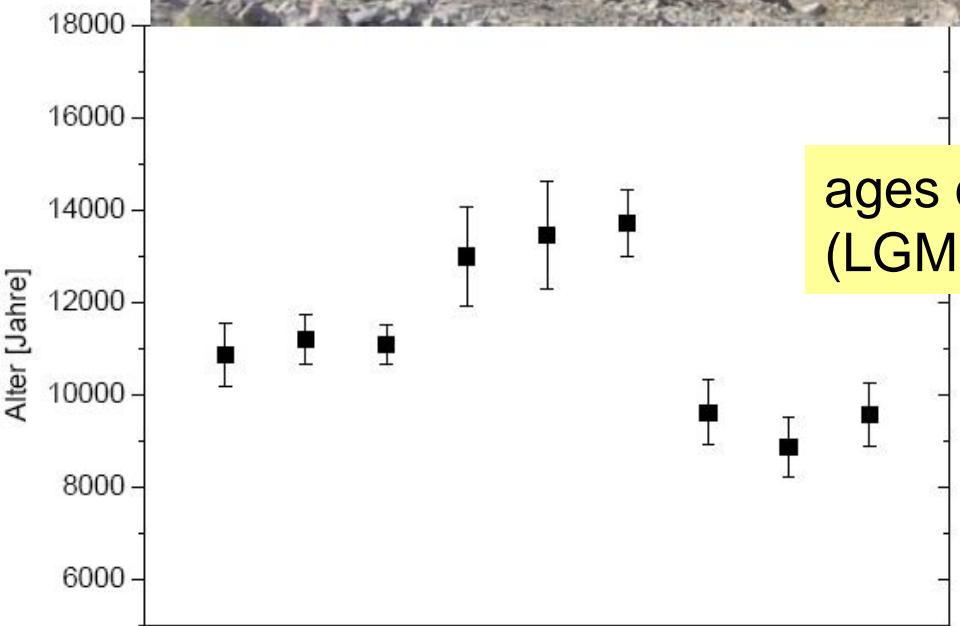
Ivy-Ochs & Briner:  
Elements (2014)

## 4. Glaciers and ice sheets



Grimselpass, Schweiz

former active ice surface



ages correspond to the last glacial maximum (LGM) → Younger Dryas

# 5. Meteorite impacts

## Dating a hole in the ground



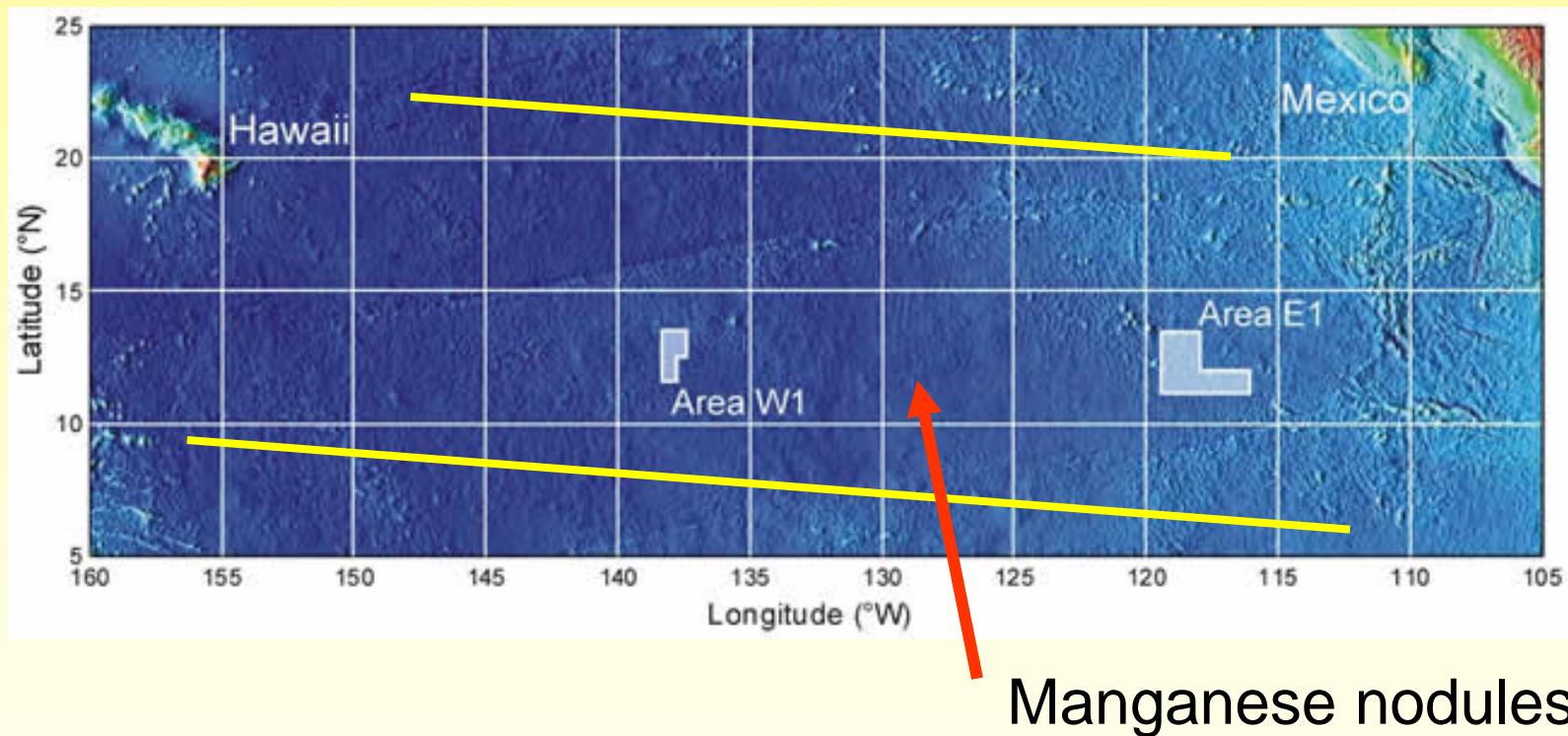
The Barringer Meteorite Crater of the Arizona desert.

$49.2 \pm 1.7$  ka, based on  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  $^{26}\text{Al}$  exposure age of samples from the crater walls and ejecta blocks at the crater rim (*Nishiizumi et al. 1991*).

$49 \pm 0.7$  ka, based on  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  exposure age of dolomite ejecta on the crater rim (*Phillips et al. 1991*).

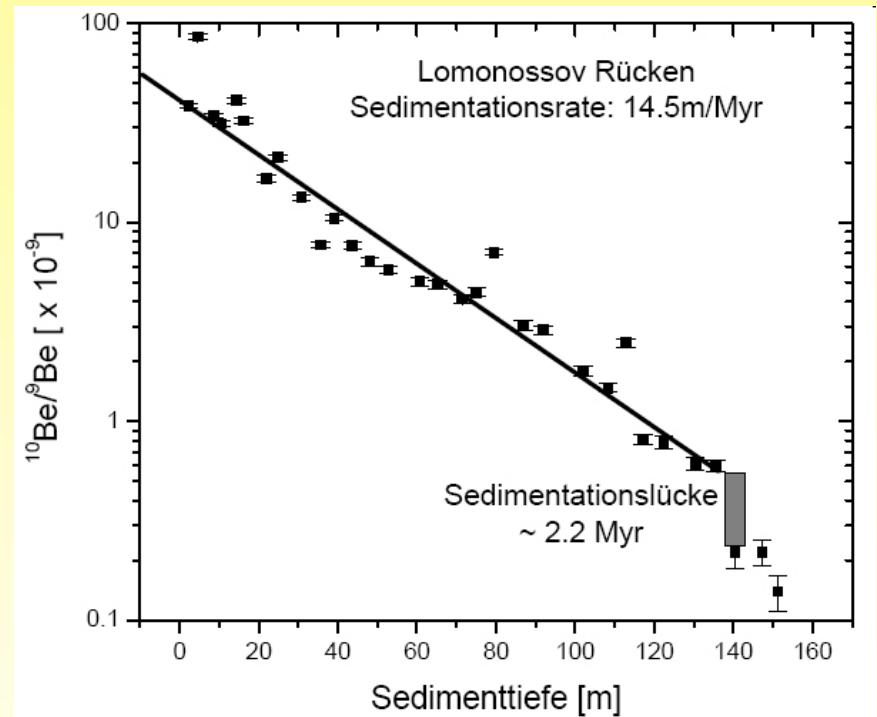
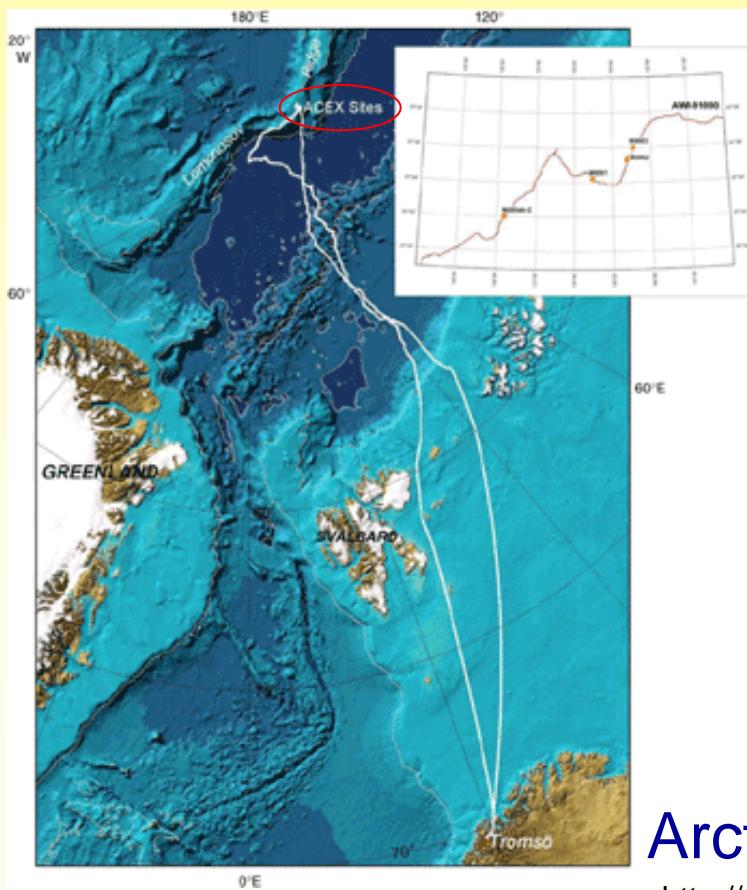


## 6. Sedimentation and growth rates



## 6. Sedimentation rates

The down-core decrease of  $^{10}\text{Be}/^{9}\text{Be}$  yields an average sedimentation rate of  $14.5 \pm 1$  m/Ma and a gap in sedimentation between 9.4 and 11.6 Ma



Frank et al. 2008

Arctic Coring Expedition 2004

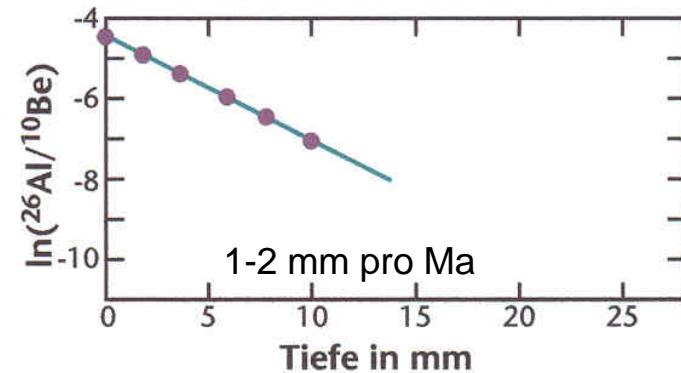
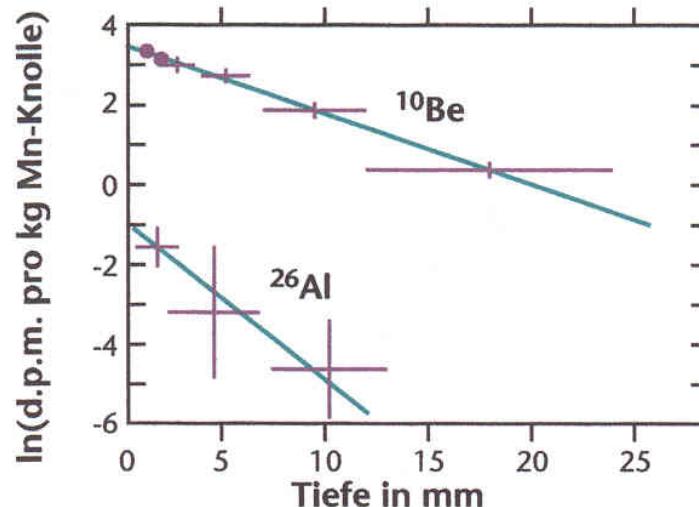
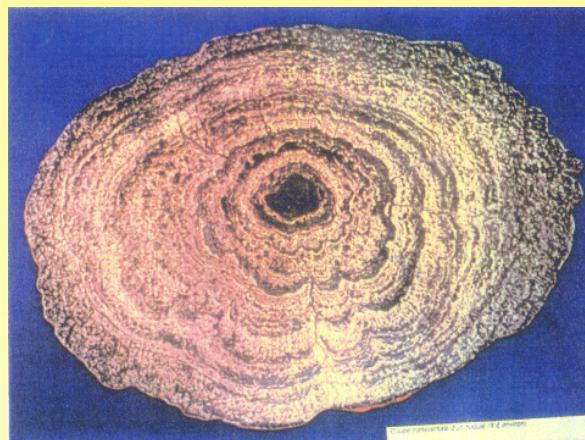
<http://www.eso.ecord.org/expeditions/302/302.htm>

## 6. Growth rates

Manganese nodules are dark, potato-shaped little balls where metals and other minerals have accumulated around a core.

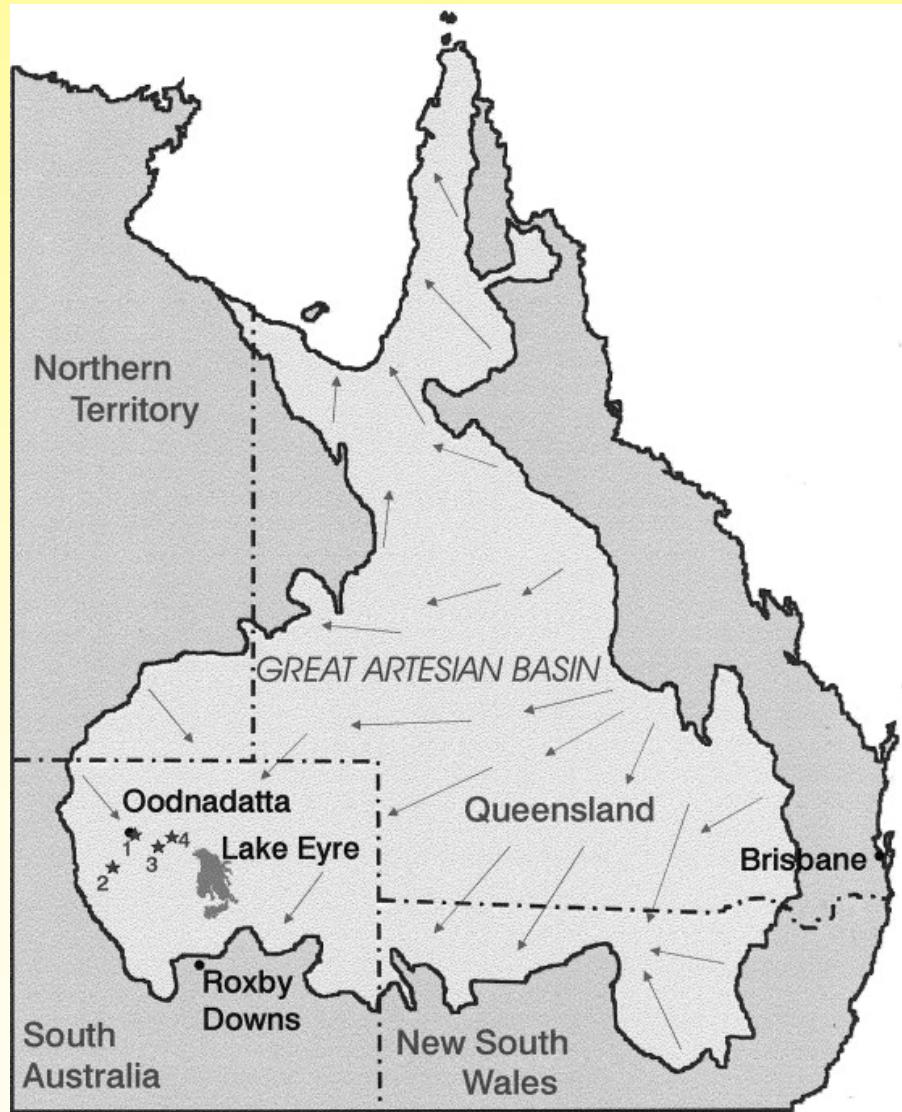
They contain a relatively high percentage of metals, i.e. **Nickel, Copper, Cobalt, Manganese and Iron** and are mostly found in water depths of 4000-6000 metres a few thousand km from the closest continent shores.

### Manganese nodules

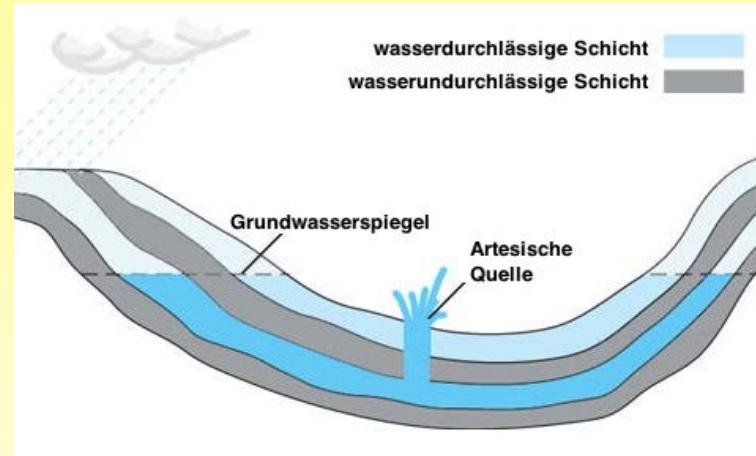


# 7. Ground water dating – $^{36}\text{Cl}$

Great Artesian Basin (Eastern Australia)

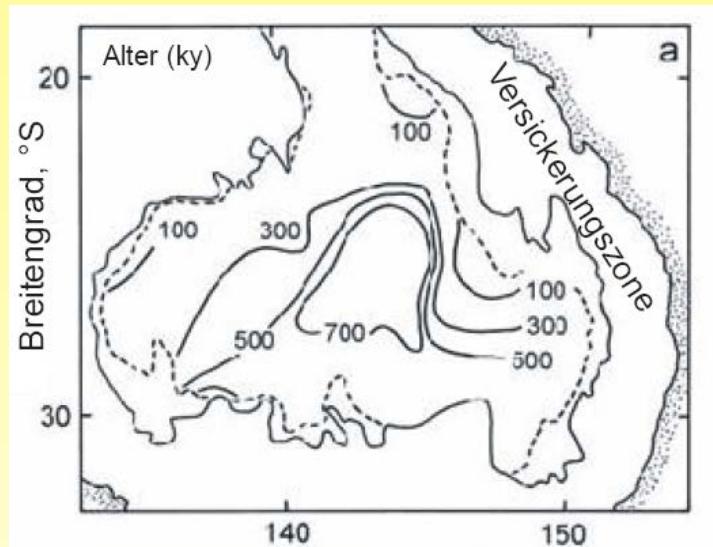


Collon et al. (2000)



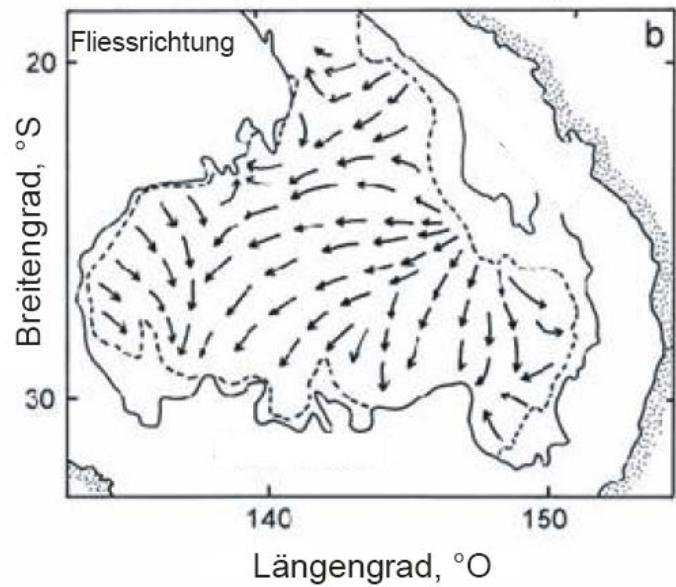
# 7. Ground water dating – $^{36}\text{Cl}$

Great Artesian Basin (Eastern Australia)



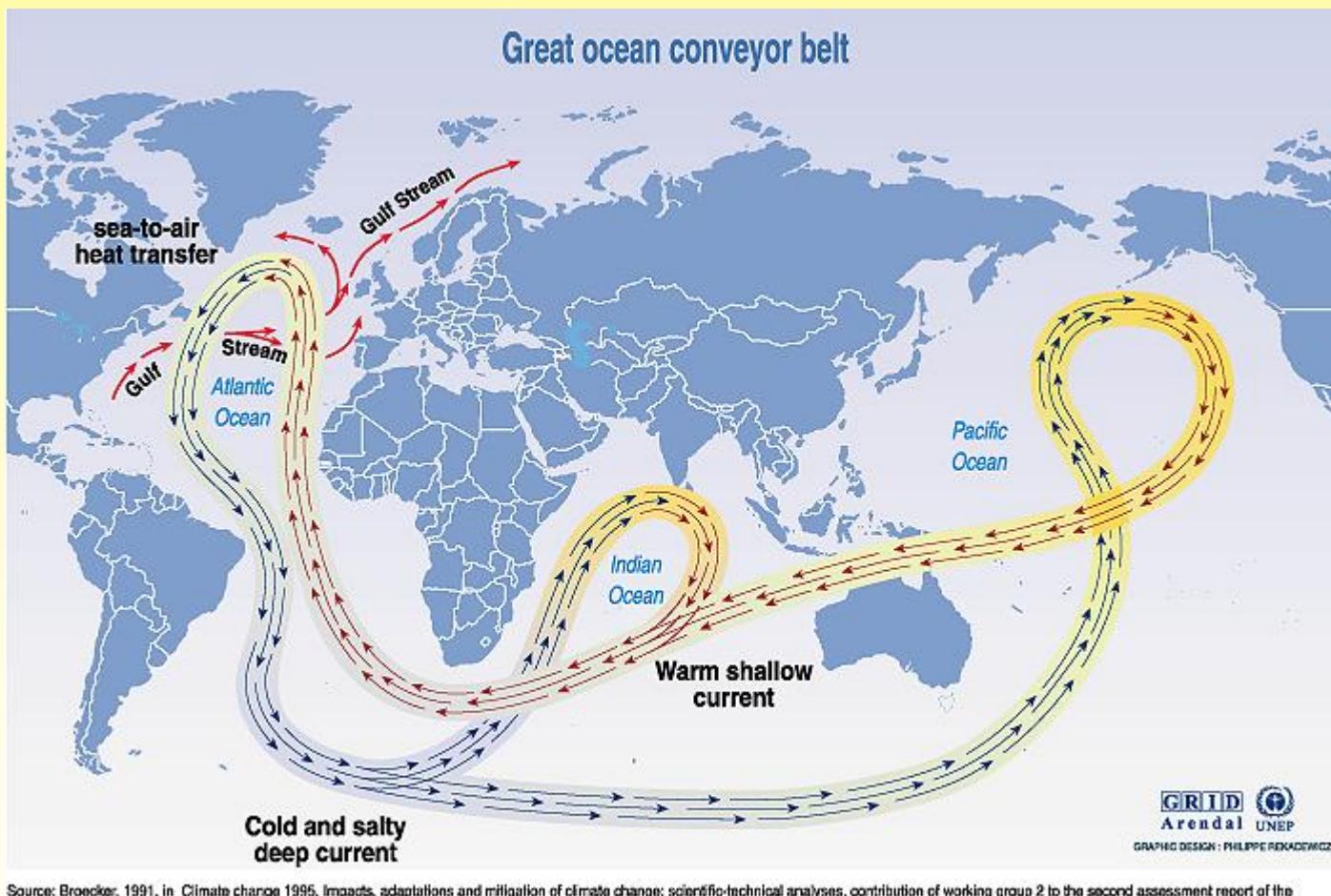
a)  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  ground water dating (ages in  $10^3$  years)

b) reconstructed ground water flow directions



## 8. Sea water dating – $^{14}\text{C}$

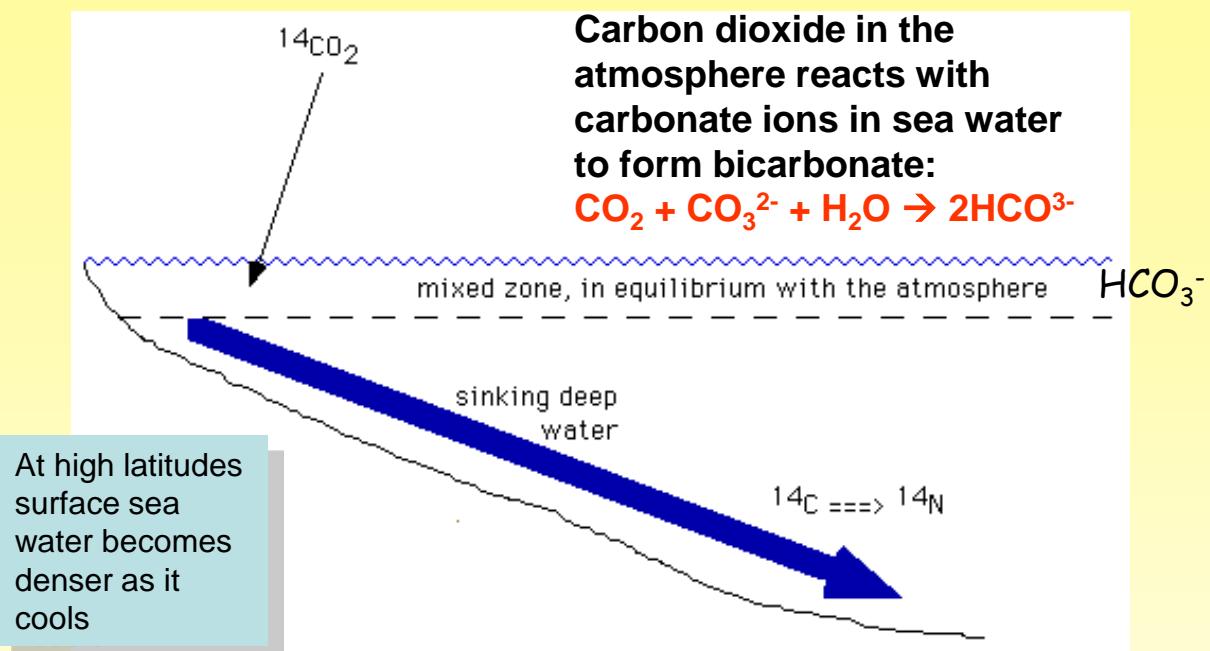
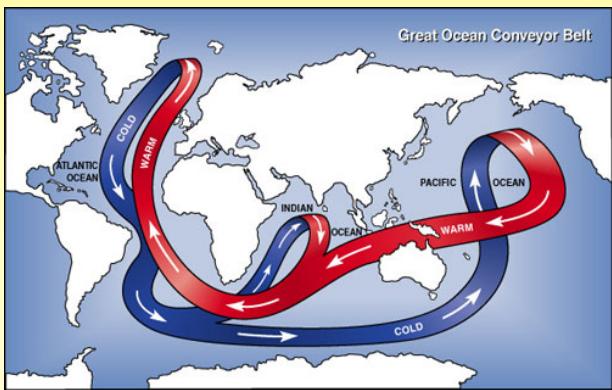
### Great Ocean Conveyor



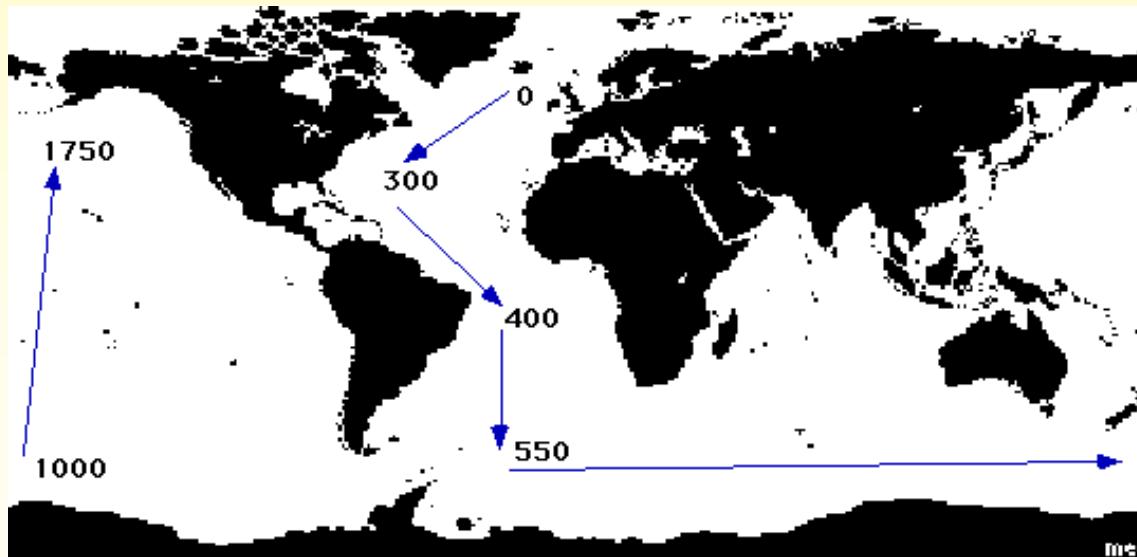
Source: Broecker, 1991, in Climate change 1995, Impacts, adaptations and mitigation of climate change: scientific-technical analyses, contribution of working group 2 to the second assessment report of the Intergovernmental panel on climate change, UNEP and WMO, Cambridge press university, 1996.

## 8. Sea water dating – $^{14}\text{C}$

### Great Ocean Conveyor



The major source of this bottom water is in the North Atlantic

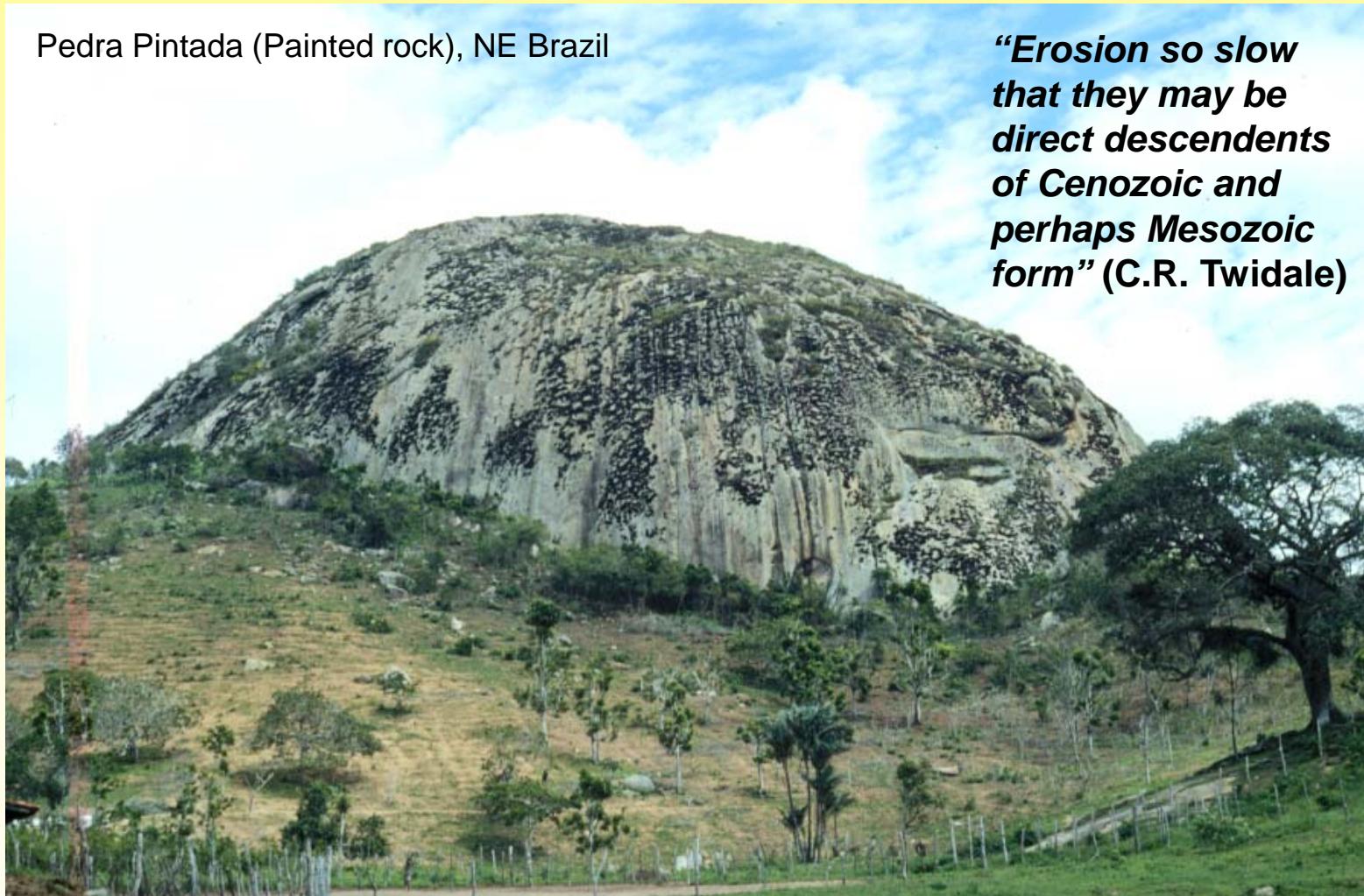


# 9. Age of landscapes

## Tropical inselbergs

Pedra Pintada (Painted rock), NE Brazil

***“Erosion so slow  
that they may be  
direct descendants  
of Cenozoic and  
perhaps Mesozoic  
form” (C.R. Twidale)***



# 9. Age of landscapes

## Arid environments

Inselbergs in the central Namib desert:  
mean denudation rate of the order of 5 m/m.y.  
(Cockburn et al., 1999)



Atacama desert, Chile:  
~2 m/m.y. to <0.2 m/m.y.  
(Caffee, 2005)



## 9. Age of landscapes

Martian surface:  $78 \pm 30$  Ma (*Farley et al. 2013 Science 24*)



## 10. Erosion rates

How many years must a mountain exist  
Before it is washed to the Sea?

The answer, my friend, is blowing in the wind...

Bob Dylan's song cited in:

Cerling and Craig (1994): Annu. Rev. Earth Planet. Sci 22: 273-317

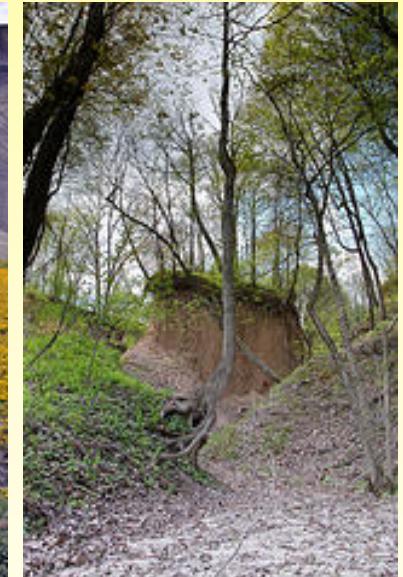
...for geomorphologists the answer is provided  
by cosmogenic isotopes...

# 10. Erosion rates

What processes regulate **chemical weathering** and **physical erosion**?

What are the driving forces for landscape denudation?

Climate?  
Precipitation?  
Tectonics?  
or combination?

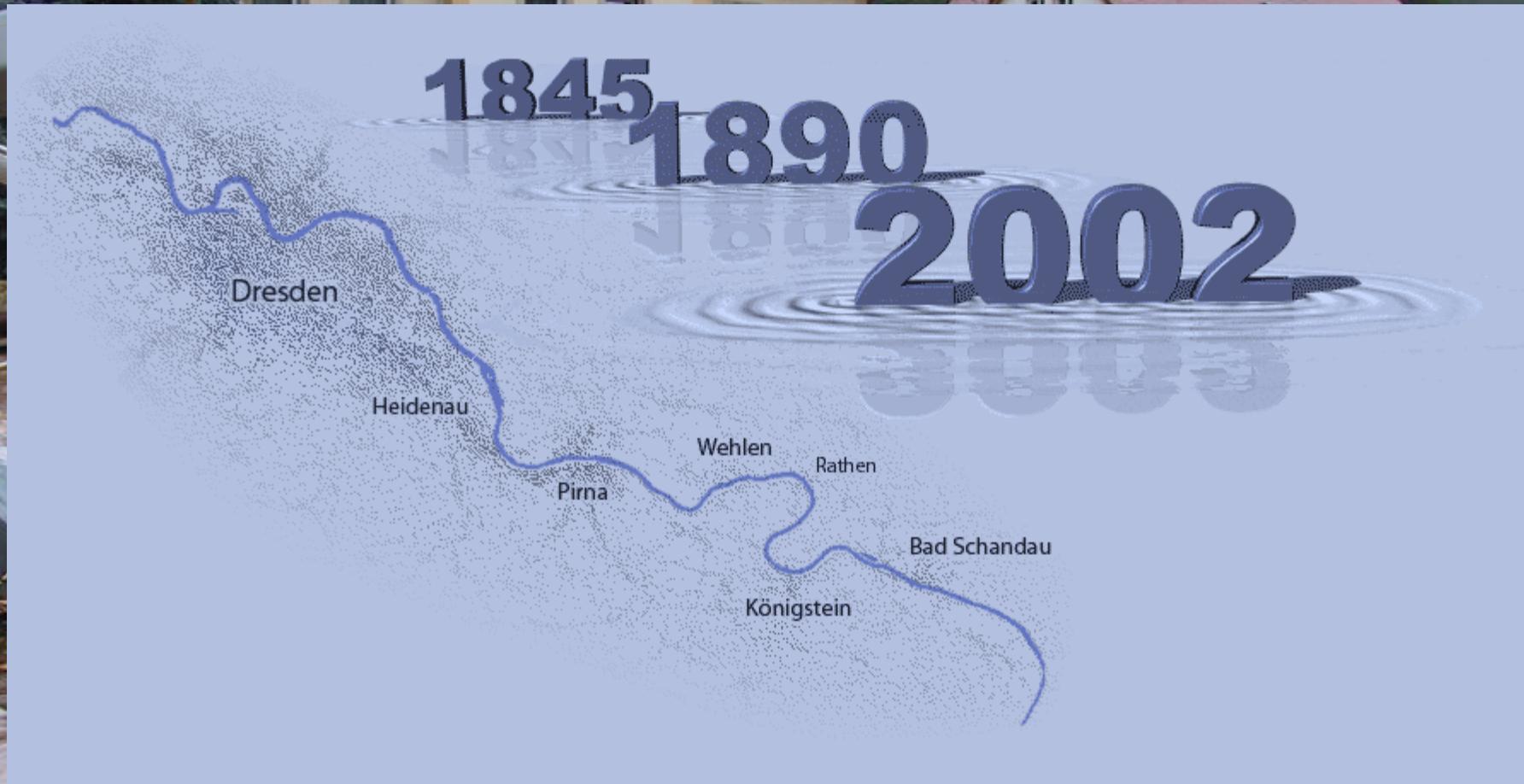


Does erosion drive weathering or does weathering drive erosion?

## 10. Catchment wide denudation rates

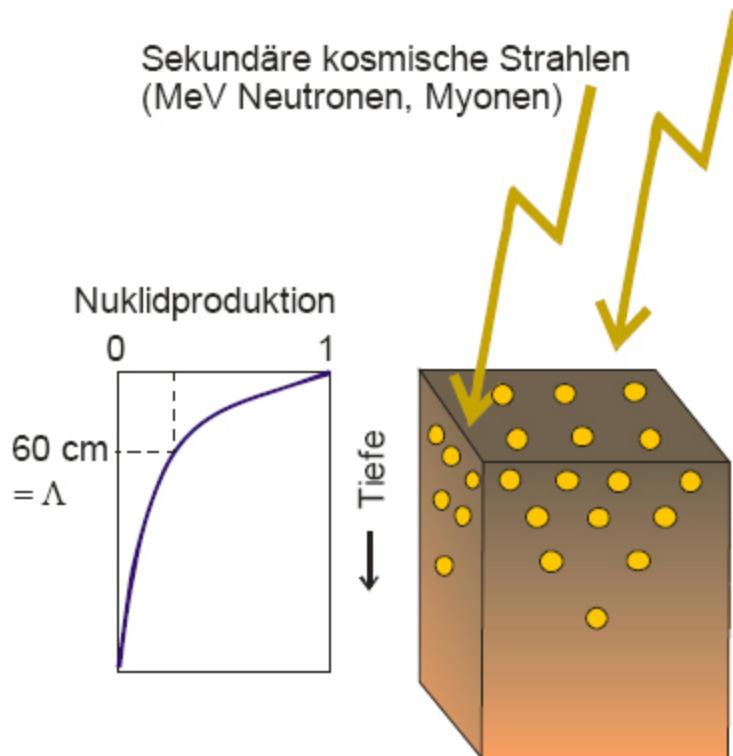


# 10. Catchment wide denudation rates



# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates

Erosionsraten aus *in situ*- produzierten kosmogenen Nukliden



$$C = \left( \frac{P_0}{\varepsilon/\Lambda + \lambda} \right)$$

**$\varepsilon$**  : Erosionsrate

**C** : Nuklidkonzentration

**P<sub>0</sub>** : Nuklid Produktionsrate  
an der Gesteinsoberfläche

**$\Lambda$**  : Mittlere Abschirmtiefe

**$\lambda$**  : Zerfallskonstante

# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates

derived from river loads:

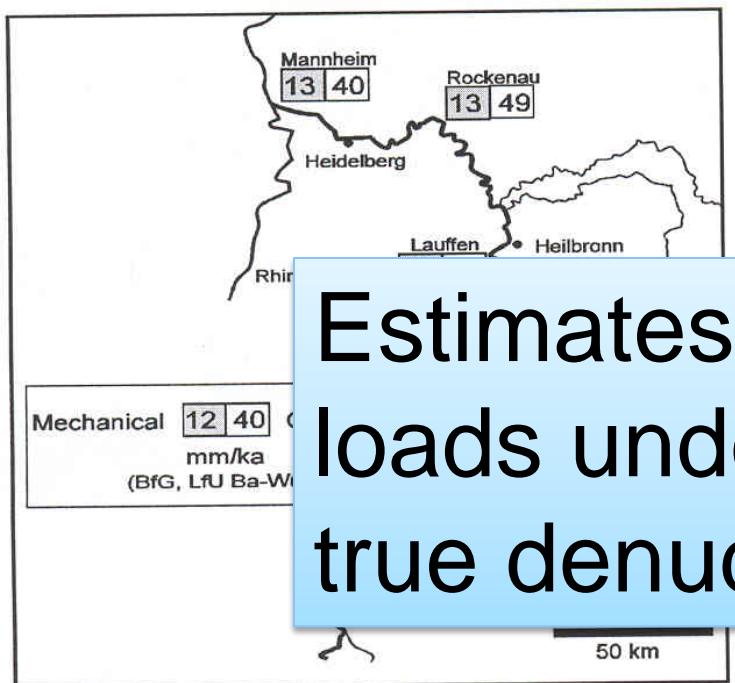


Fig. 1: Neckar denudation rates from river load data

von Blanckenburg et al.

derived from alluvial sediments:

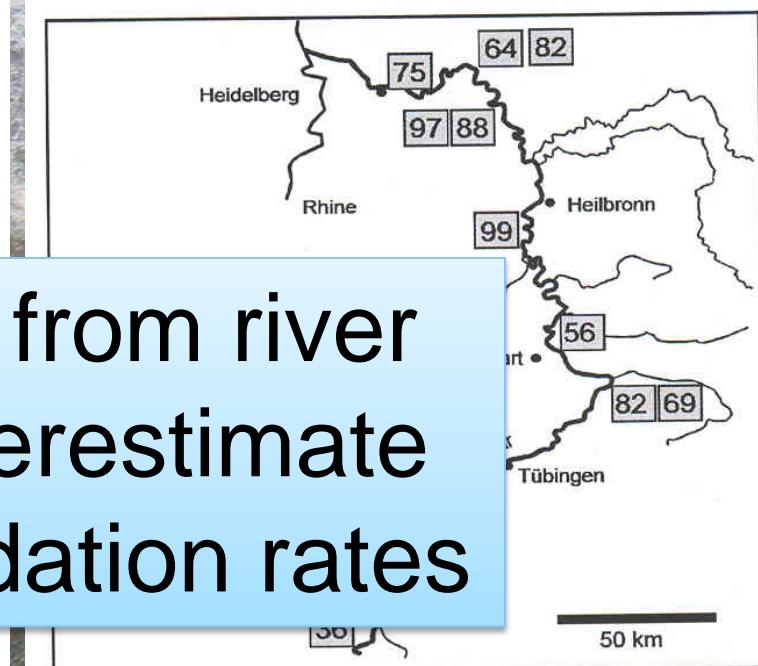
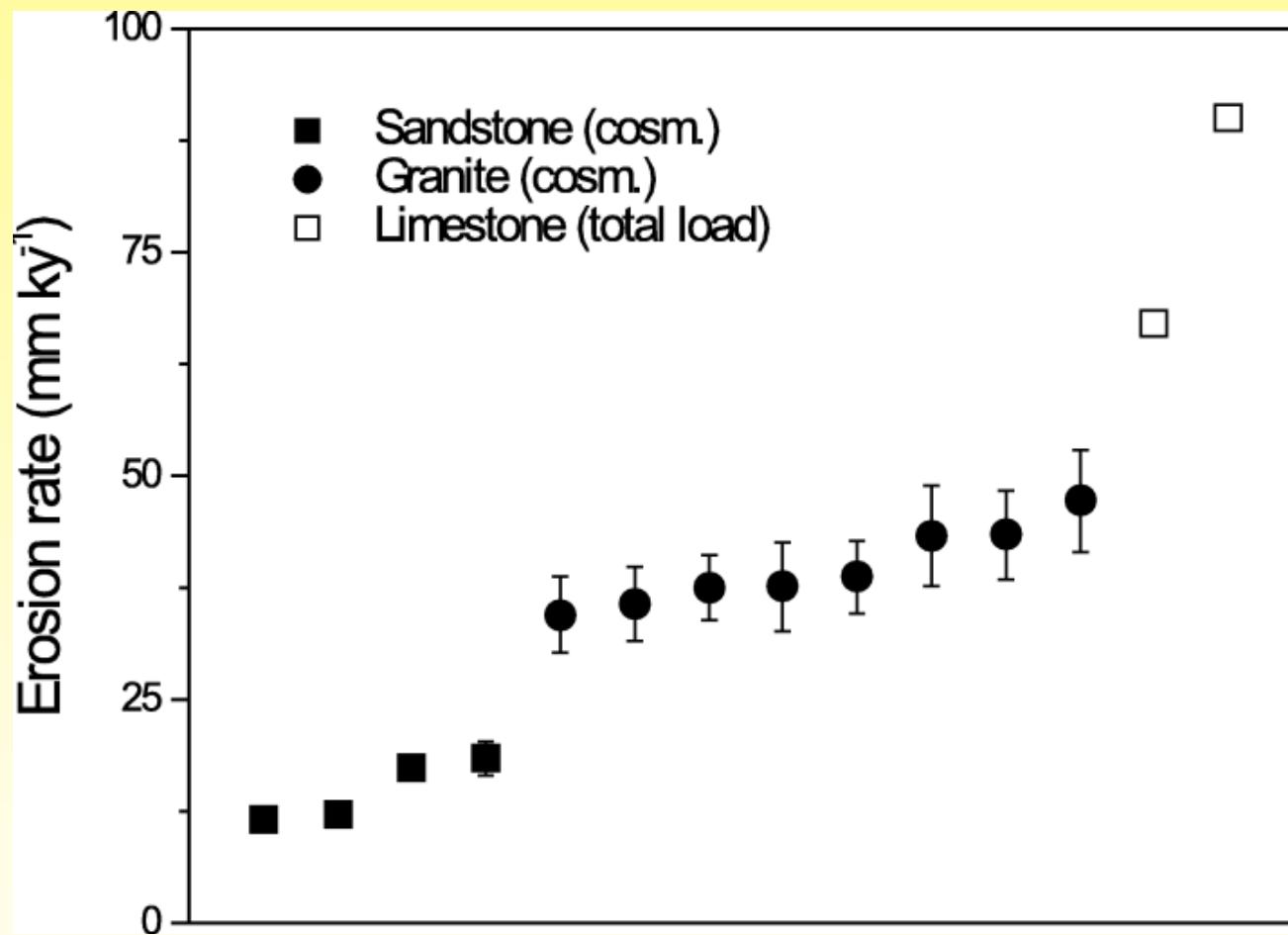


Fig. 2: Neckar total denudation rates from cosmogenic nuclides

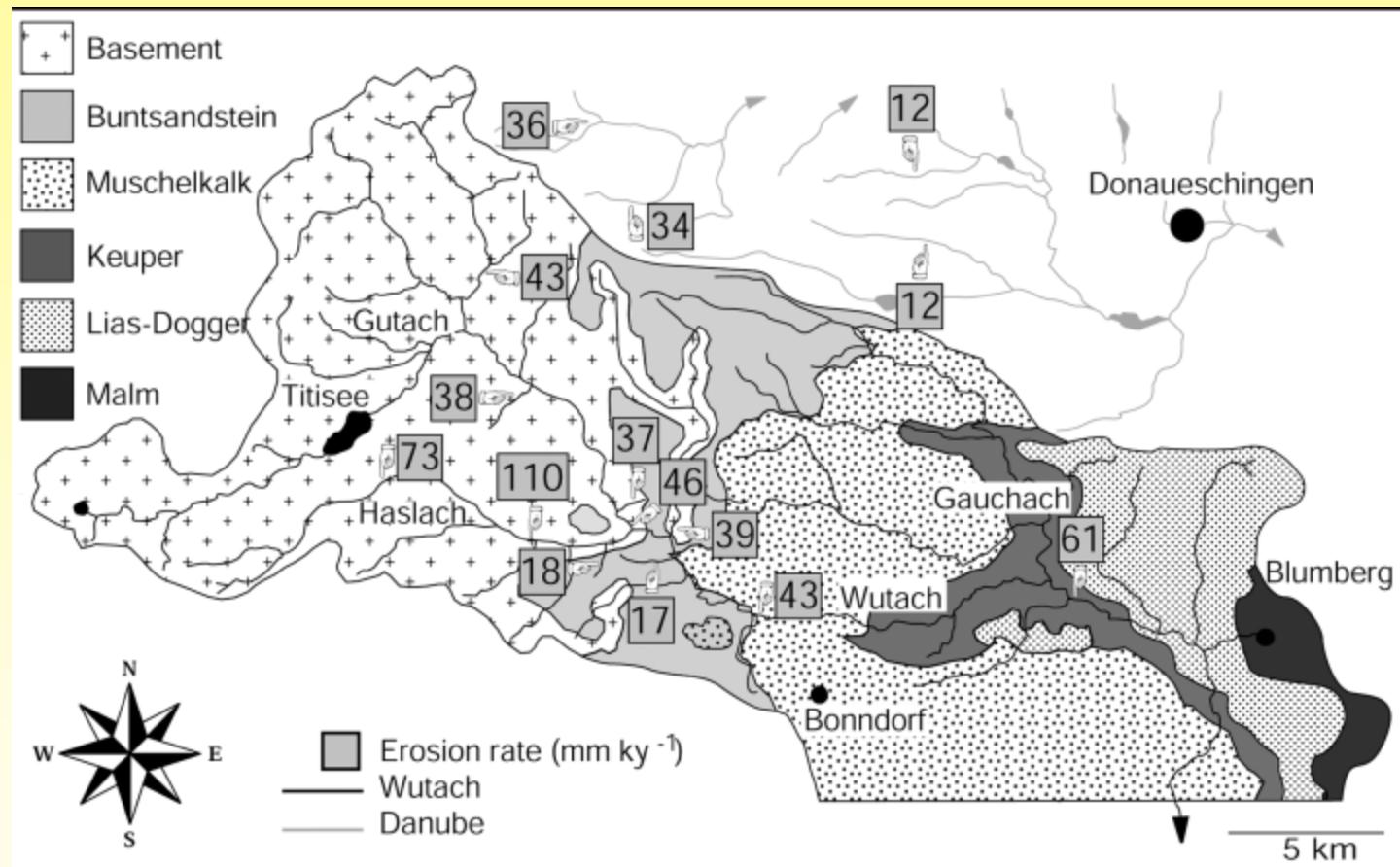
Cosmogenic isotopes measure total denudation rate - chemical part and physical part

## 10. Catchment wide denudation rates



Lithological dependence of erosion rates as determined from cosmogenic nuclides and river load data (Bauer 1993, Morel et al. 2003)

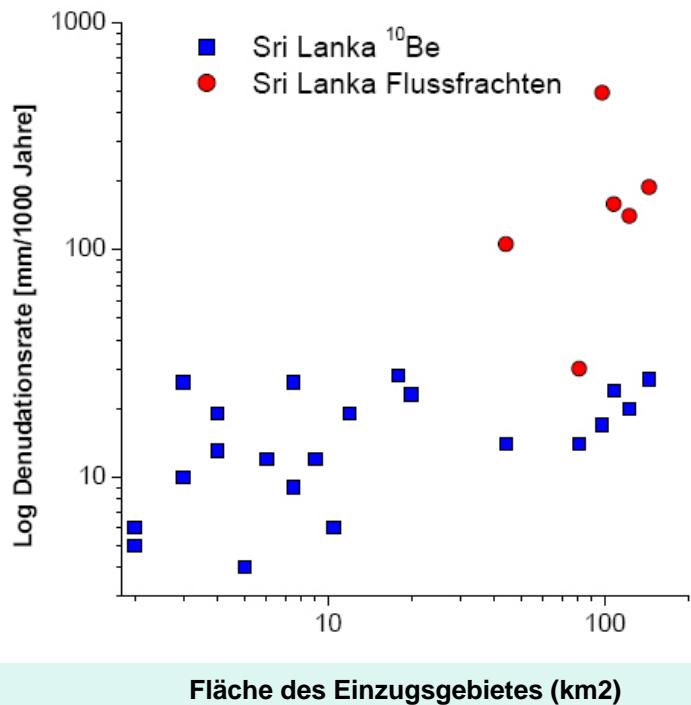
# 10. Catchment wide denudation rates



Morel et al. 2003 *Terra Nova*

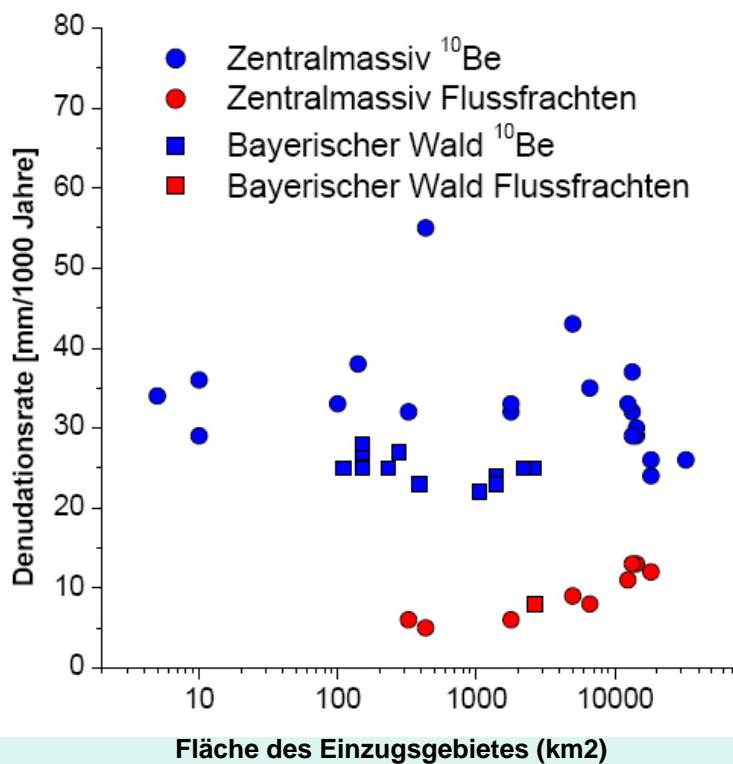
Geological map of the Wutach basin, with erosion rates from cosmogenic nuclides ( $\text{mm kyr}^{-1}$ ).

# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



Sri Lanka:  
anthropogenic  
increase of soil  
erosion

# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



European midlands:

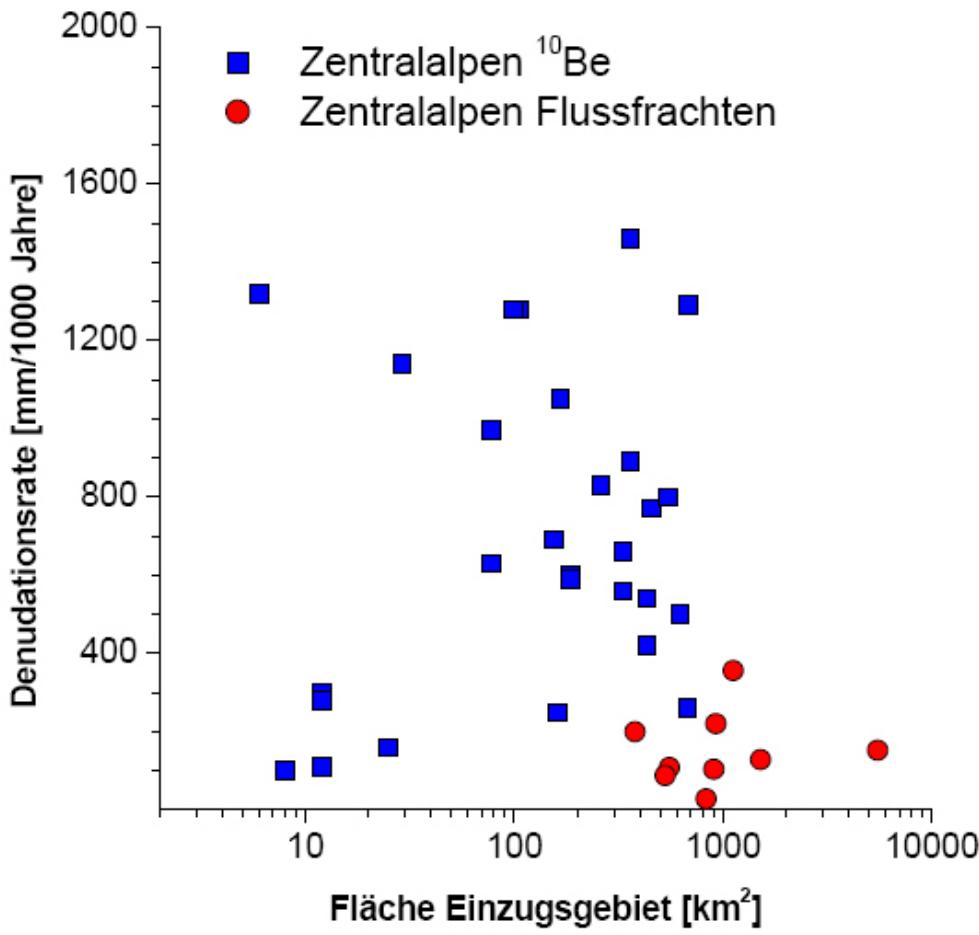
Higher denudation rates  
as in Sri Lanka!

Why?????

Quaternary tectonic  
activity (uplift and rift  
formation) in central  
Europe

Sri Lanka: stable shield  
area

# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



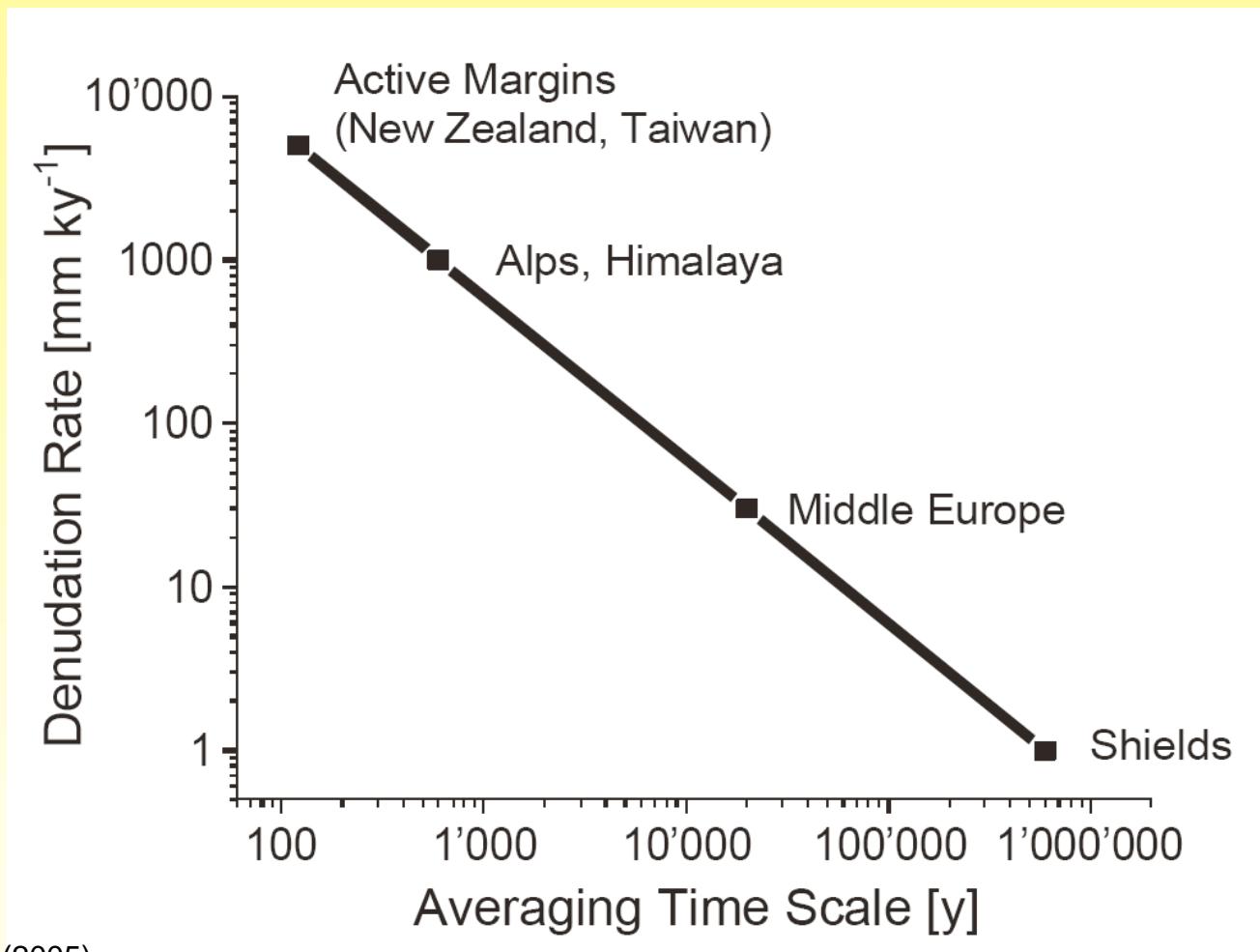
Swiss Alps:

Very high cosmogenic denudation rates

River load underestimates true erosion rates

Reason: isostatic rebound following deglaciation

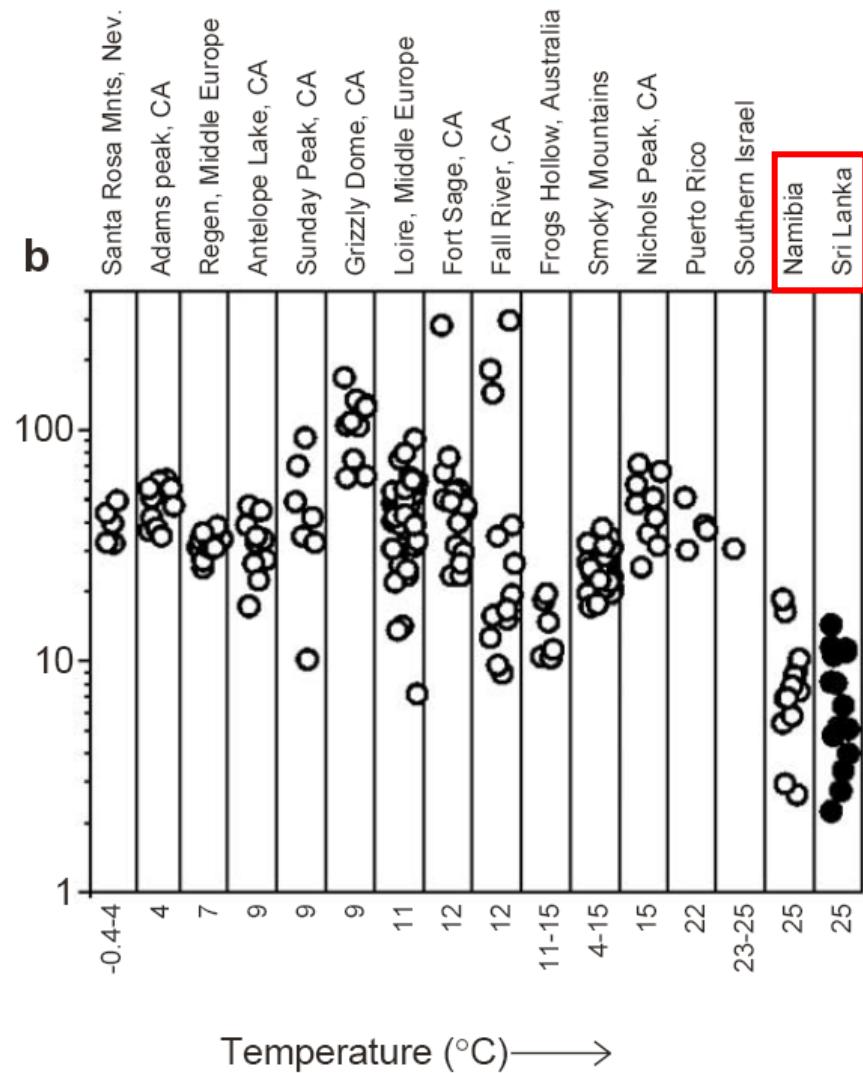
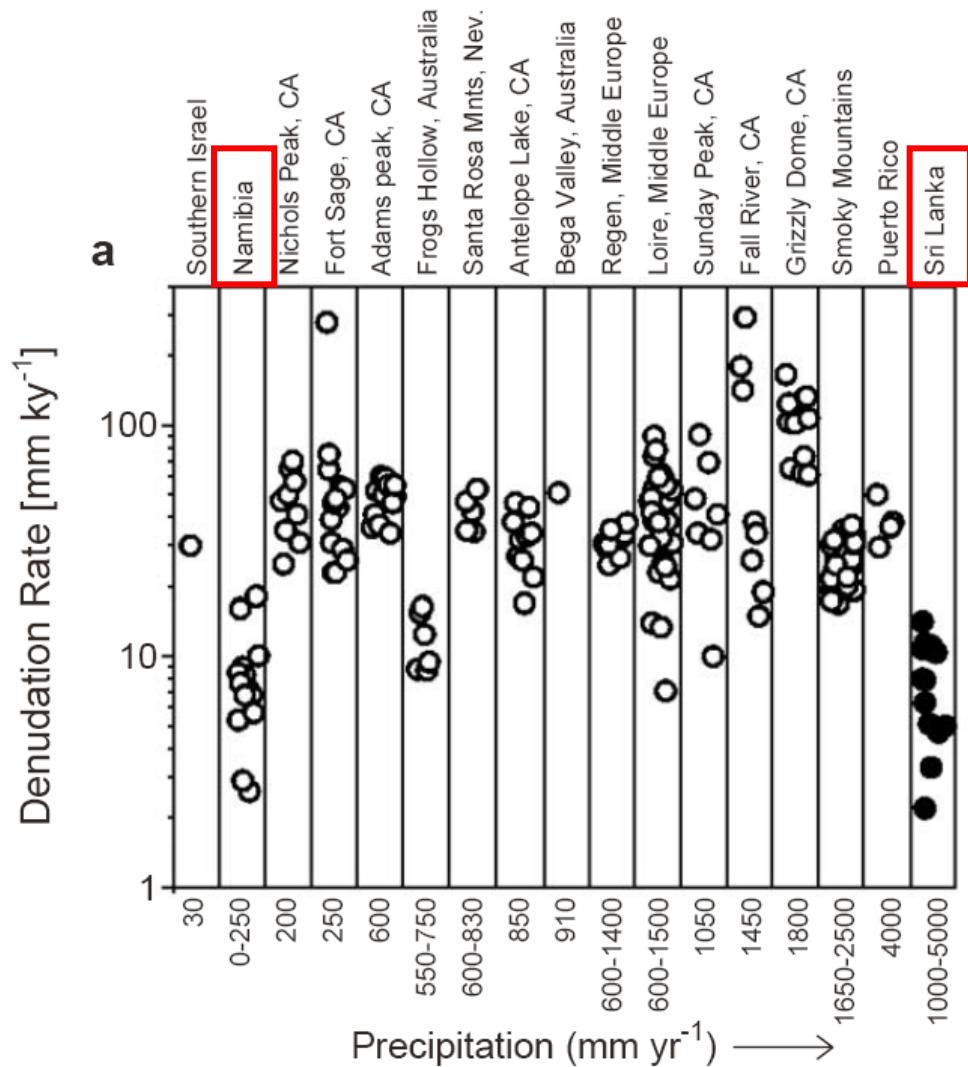
# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



von Blankenburg (2005)

the time it takes to erode the upper 0.6 m  
of bedrock, or ca. 1.0 m of soil

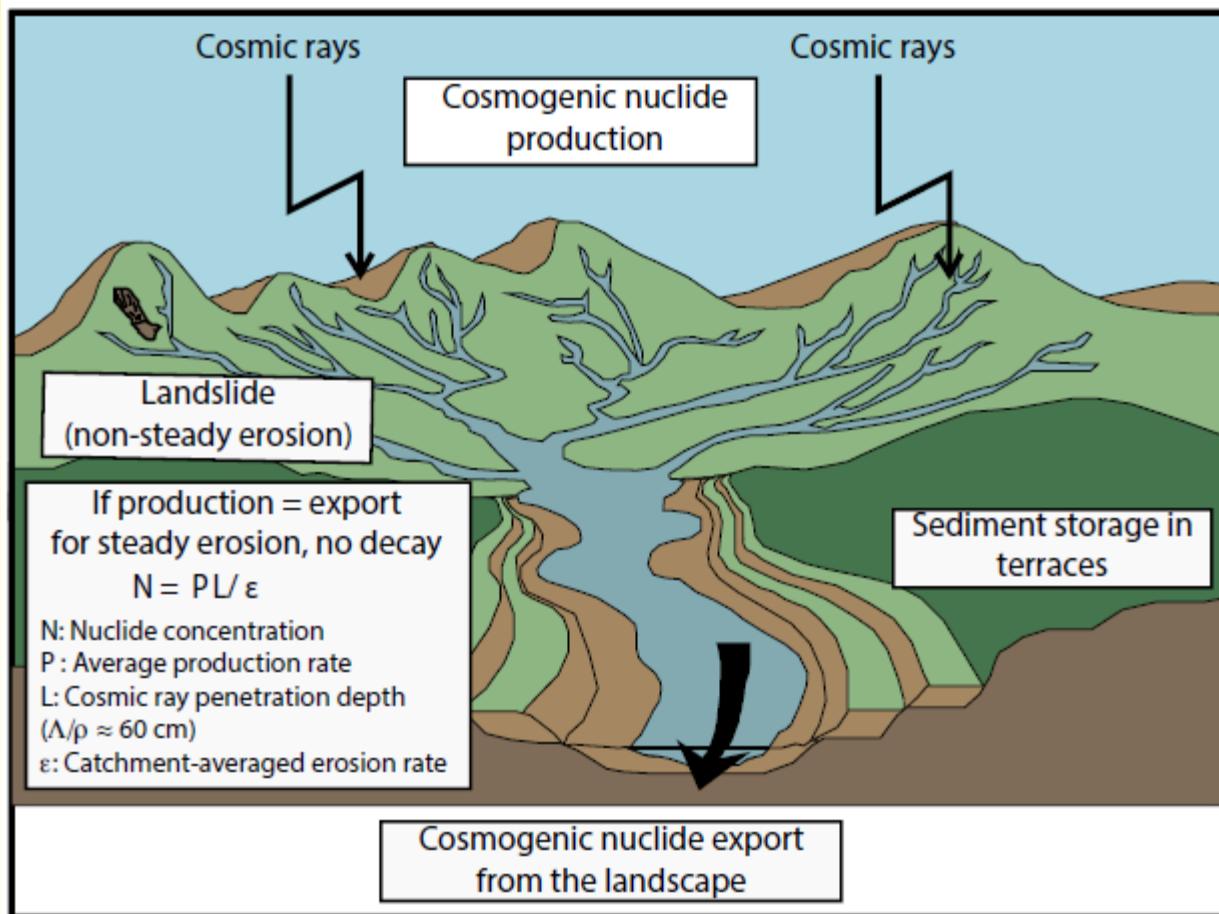
# 10. Climate, erosion and rock weathering



In order to avoid lithology-dependent effect only granitic catchments are shown

von Blanckenburg 2005

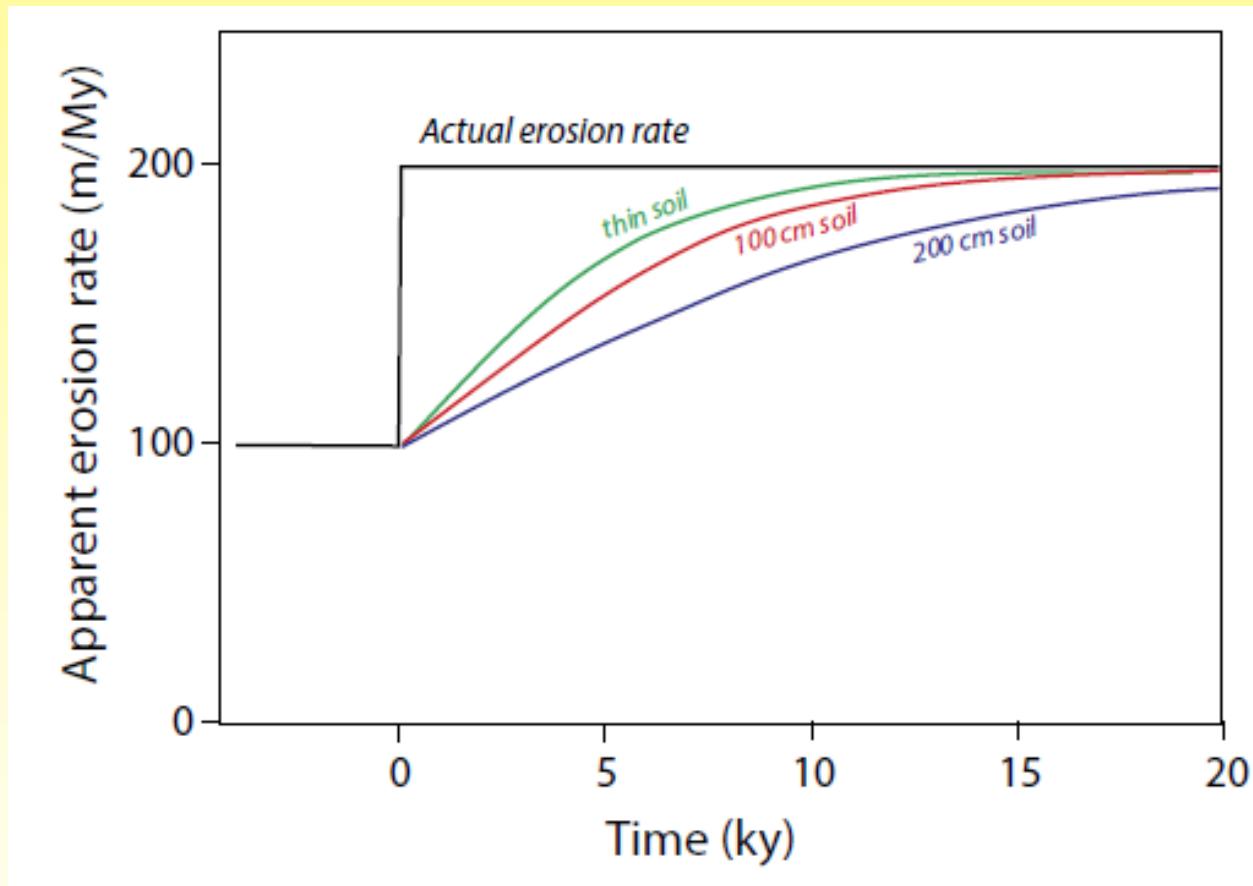
# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



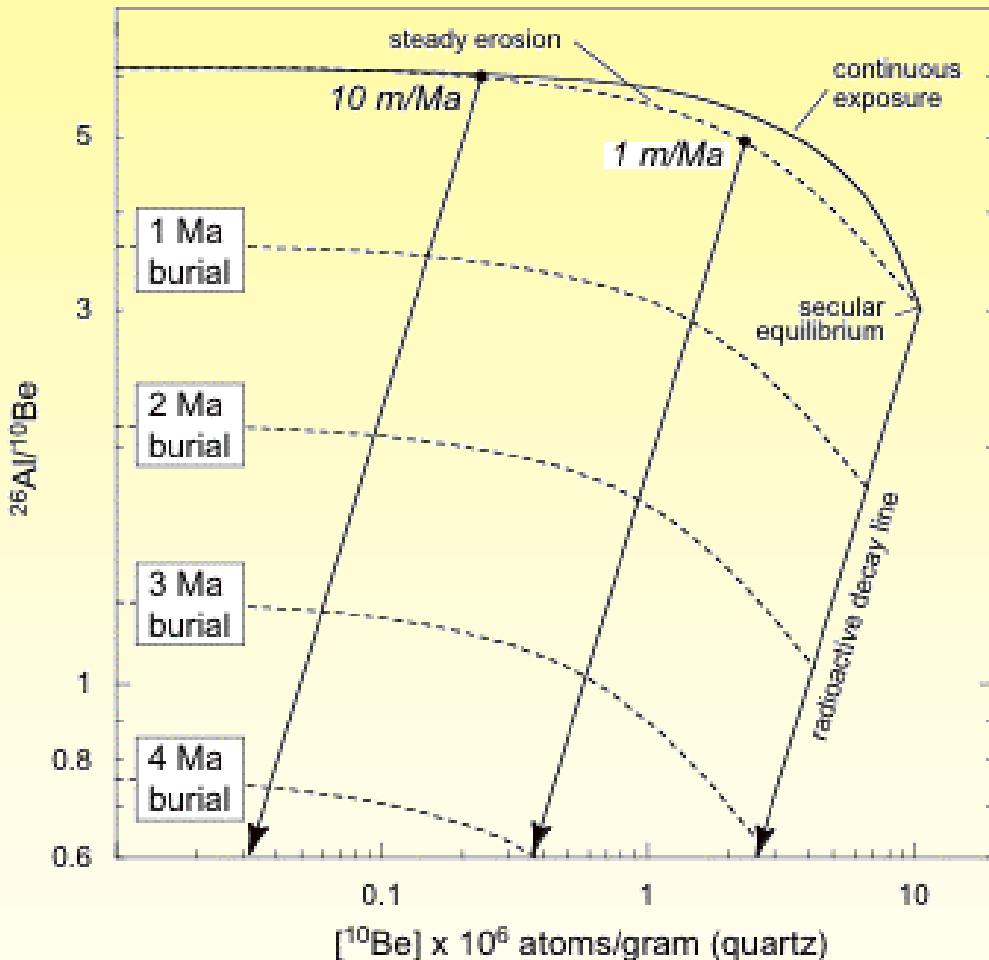
Granger & Schaller: Elements (2014)

„Nature does the averaging“

# 10. Catchment wide erosion rates



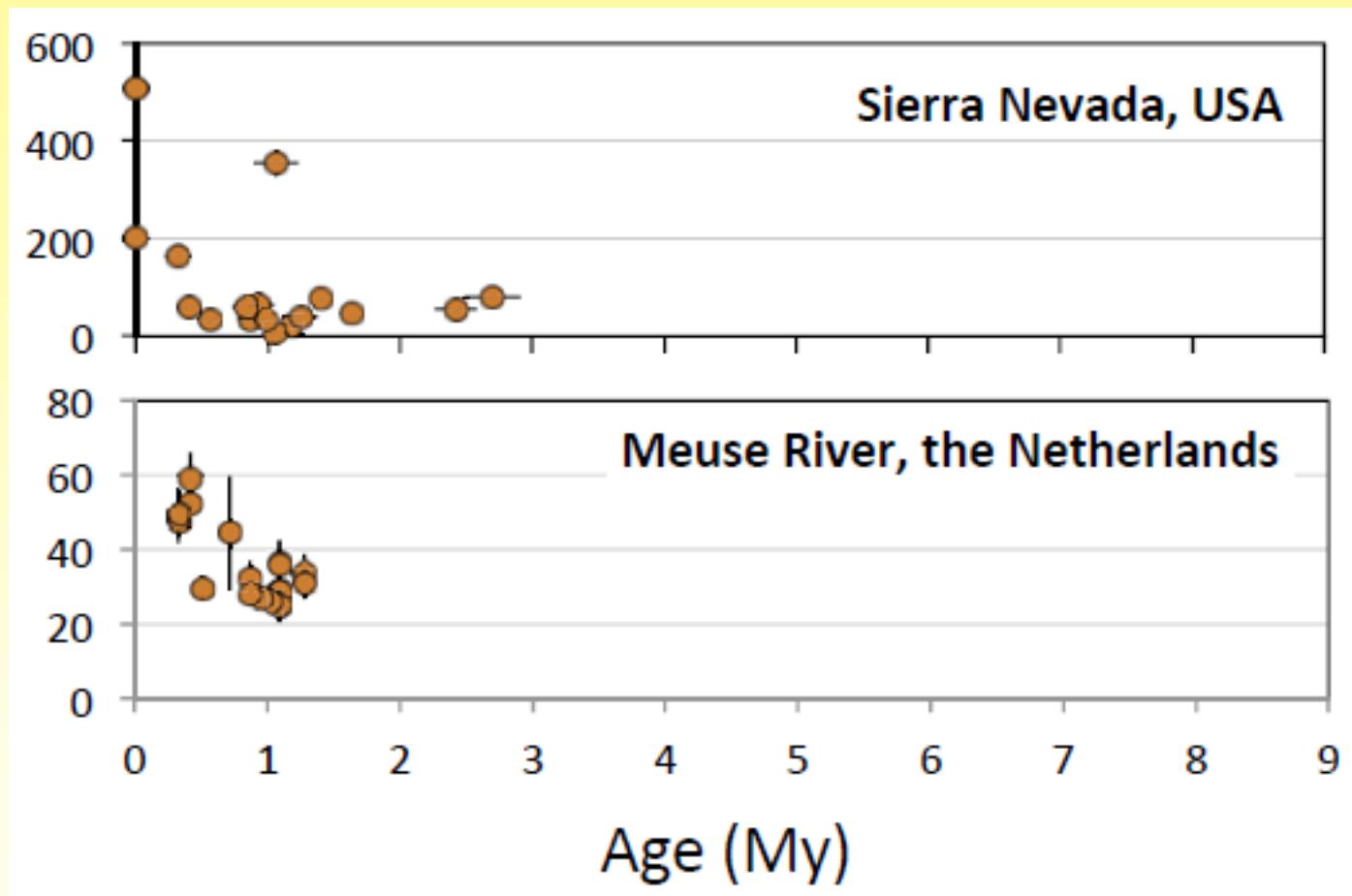
# 10. Palaeo-erosion rates



For completely buried and shielded minerals, the  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  decreases along a line parallel to the solid "radioactive decay line".

Measured  $^{26}\text{Al}/^{10}\text{Be}$  ratio in a sample determines the burial time, and can also be used to calculate the pre-burial (or palaeo) erosion rate.

# 10. Palaeo-erosion rates



Granger & Schaller: Elements (2014)