

# ESR and OSL dating of fossil-bearing deposits from Naracoorte Cave Complex palaeontological sites, South Australia

Priya<sup>1\*</sup>, Arnold, L.J.<sup>1</sup>, Guilarte, V.<sup>2</sup>, Duval, M.<sup>3,4</sup>, Demuro, M.<sup>1</sup>, Weij, R.<sup>5</sup>, Reed, E.H.<sup>6,7</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Physical Sciences, Environment Institute, and Institute for Photonics and Advanced Sensing (IPAS), University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia.

<sup>2</sup>Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación y del Deporte de Melilla, Universidad de Granada, Spain

<sup>3</sup>Centro Nacional de Investigación sobre la Evolución Humana (CENIEH), Burgos, Spain.

<sup>4</sup>Australian Research Centre for Human Evolution (ARCHE), Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia.

<sup>5</sup>School of Geography, Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

<sup>6</sup>School of Biological Sciences, Environment Institute, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia.

<sup>7</sup>South Australian Museum, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia.

\*Corresponding Author: [priya@adelaide.edu.au](mailto:priya@adelaide.edu.au)

## Abstract

Little work has been undertaken on combined dating of sedimentary quartz grains using electron spin resonance (ESR) and optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) techniques in Australia. This study aims to assess the suitability of a combined ESR and OSL dating approach for establishing improved chronologies of Middle-Late Pleistocene deposits within the Naracoorte Cave Complex (NCC), South Australia. Here, we apply ESR and OSL dating in tandem to a series of samples collected from three different NCC sites: Whale Bone, Specimen and Alexandra cave. ESR quartz dating focuses on the multi-centre (MC) approach, which involves comparative evaluations of Al and Ti centre signals, while paired luminescence dating focuses on single-grain OSL analysis and includes examination of multi-grain averaging effects. The comparative ESR-OSL dating results exhibit broad agreement for deposits spanning 50-150 thousand years, with either the Ti-H or Al centre ages overlapping with paired OSL ages at  $2\sigma$  in nearly all cases. MC ESR evaluations (Al v Ti-Li v Ti-H age assessments) indicate incomplete resetting of the bleachable Al centre signal for a small number of samples. Two-thirds of samples exhibit Ti-Li ages that are apparently older (although within  $2\sigma$  error) than corresponding Al centre ages, which is unexpected from a bleaching kinetics perspective and may indicate a broader reliability issue for Ti-Li palaeodose evaluation with these particular samples. Our findings: (i) support the applicability of both palaeodosimetric dating methods in this depositional setting; (ii) highlight the merits of applying combined ESR-OSL analyses in tandem, and; (iii) provide one of the first reliable MAAD evaluations of quartz ESR MC dating for samples with natural dose ranges as low as only a few tens of Gy. These results show that the Whale Bone, Specimen and Alexandra cave sites are temporally related and can be used to derive multi-site reconstructions of faunal assemblages and palaeoenvironmental history.

**Keywords:** Quartz ESR dating; Multi-centre approach, single-grain OSL dating; Naracoorte cave

41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 Combined application of electron spin resonance (ESR) and optically stimulated luminescence (OSL)  
44 dating of quartz grains – the two most widely used quartz dating techniques in Quaternary studies –  
45 can provide improved insights into methodological reliability over Middle to Late Pleistocene  
46 timescales. Comparisons of optically bleached quartz dating methods using shared sedimentary  
47 samples offer optimal assessments of dating reliability by enabling stratigraphically constrained  
48 evaluations of dose rate or palaeodose complications that may otherwise be difficult to unravel in  
49 certain depositional settings (Demuro et al., 2020a). In spite of these advantages, stratigraphically  
50 paired evaluations of ESR and OSL dating remain relatively uncommon (Demuro et al., 2020b;  
51 Tanaka et al., 1997; Tissoux et al., 2010). In Australia, relatively little work has been undertaken on  
52 ESR dating of sedimentary quartz (Beerten et al., 2008; Rink et al., 2007; Tanaka et al., 1995;  
53 Yoshida, 1996) and there have been even fewer comparative studies of multiple centre (MC) ESR  
54 and OSL dating techniques (Beerten et al., 2006; Rittner, 2013).

55 The Naracoorte Cave Complex (NCC) of South Australia comprises >150 cave sites (White and Webb,  
56 2015), many of which contain extensive infill sequences with rich megafauna fossil assemblages  
57 spanning the last 550 thousand years. This karst system is considered a key fossil locality for  
58 understanding the drivers of Australia-wide Late Pleistocene megafaunal extinction given the  
59 presence of numerous, overlapping fossil sites in direct association with well-stratified  
60 palaeoenvironmental proxies. An extensive radiometric dating program is currently in progress to  
61 improve chronological constraints on a large number of NCC cave sites (e.g. Arnold et al., this  
62 volume). Establishing reliable chronologies on the NCC fossil-bearing deposits using quartz trapped  
63 charge dating techniques is critical since most NCC sites lie close to, or well-beyond, the radiocarbon  
64 dating range (Grün et al., 2001; Moriarty et al., 2000; Prideaux et al., 2007).

65 In this study, we focus on three of these Middle-Late Pleistocene NCC sites that share similar types  
66 of deposits (sediment cones associated with solution pipe entrances) and potentially  
67 contemporaneous faunal assemblages currently lacking robust chronostratigraphic frameworks:  
68 Whale Bone, Specimen and Alexandra Caves. Palaeontological excavations are currently being  
69 undertake in Whale Bone and Specimen caves, hence establishing a firm dating framework is  
70 important for guiding ongoing research programs.

71 The main aim of the study is to assess the suitability of a combined ESR and OSL dating approach for  
72 establishing improved chronologies at NCC sites. This is achieved by applying complementary ESR  
73 MC and single-grain OSL techniques to splits of the same samples to minimise stratigraphic  
74 uncertainties. U/Th dating of a closely associated speleothem is also undertaken at Specimen Cave  
75 to provide independent age control. These comparative dating assessments are used to: (1) evaluate  
76 characteristics of radiation-induced ESR signals associated with quartz  $[AlO_4]^\ominus$  and  $[TiO_4/M^\oplus]^\ominus$  ( $M^\oplus = Li^+$   
77 and  $H^+$ ) paramagnetic centres (simplified as Al and Ti centres below); (2) examine ESR signal bleaching  
78 adequacy, dose response properties and dating reliability over relatively low natural dose ranges; (3)  
79 provide insights into potential multi-grain OSL averaging effects for NCC deposits; (4) Establish  
80 improved chronological constraints for sedimentary and fossil deposition in the three cave sites,  
81 thereby expanding the existing NCC chronostratigraphic framework.

82

## 83 2. Study context and sample details

84

85 The three NCC fossil deposits at Alexandra, Specimen and Whale Bone Caves have all accumulated  
86 via narrow solution pipe entrances that acted as pitfall traps for vertebrates and sources for  
87 sediment cone deposition. Alexandra Cave has an exposed sedimentary section that is laterally  
88 continuous for 30 m in the entrance chamber (McCluskey, 2012). Previous study of the cave deposit  
89 attributed the sediment source to be alluvial and colluvial, with chronology from radiocarbon ages  
90 on charcoal constraining the top 1.9 m of the sediment sequence to 17.5 – 30.8 thousand years ago  
91 (ka) (Table S6; McCluskey, 2012). Vertebrate fossils recovered during excavations indicate a diverse  
92 mammal fauna including megafaunal species *Thylacoleo carnifex* (an extinct marsupial carnivore),  
93 and two extinct short-faced kangaroos, *Procoptodon goliath* and *Simosthenurus occidentalis* (Reed  
94 and Bourne, 2000). The presence of extinct megafauna taxa provides a *terminus ante quem* age  
95 estimate of 36.7 – 48.1 ka (Saltré et al., 2016) for the part of the sequence located beneath a depth  
96 of 1.9 m (Table S6). Four sediment samples were collected from Alexandra Cave to provide sufficient  
97 coverage of the stratigraphic sequence (Fig. 1) located below the first 1.9 m previously dated by  
98 radiocarbon. The lowermost sample (ALEX19-10) was collected from the base of the exposed  
99 sequence to constraint the initial phase of sedimentary infilling. Samples ALEX19-3 and ALEX19-6  
100 were collected to bracket the lower and intermediate palaeontological levels.

101 Specimen Cave consists of a solution pipe leading to a large chamber containing a >1 m thick clastic  
102 fossil deposit in the southwest corner, which is capped by an extensive (30-40 cm-thick) flowstone  
103 layer. A small excavation was undertaken in the cave in 1908 and yielded megafauna fossils from  
104 *Thylacoleo carnifex*, *Protemnodon* sp. and *Simosthenurus* sp. (Reed and Bourne, 2000). New  
105 excavations are currently underway in the cave. A single ESR-OSL dating sample (SPEC18-2) was  
106 collected from the uppermost layer of the current site excavation to provide terminal age constraint  
107 for the fossil deposit. In addition, two U-Th samples (SP-18 and SP-17) were extracted from the top-  
108 and mid-section of the closely related speleothem formation. Sample SPEC18-2 was taken 55 cm  
109 beneath the base of this speleothem and ~1.5 m to the side of the U-Th sampling positions. Further  
110 details of the U-Th methods and results obtained for these two samples are provided in S.M.5.

111 Whale Bone Cave contains a smaller sediment cone deposit that is currently classified as a single  
112 stratigraphic unit. The ~1 m-thick fossil sequence contains abundant extinct Pleistocene vertebrate  
113 remains, including *Phascolarctos cinereus*, *Thylacoleo carnifex*, *Macropus fuliginosus*, '*Procoptodon*'  
114 *browneorum* and '*Procoptodon*' *gilli* (Reed and Bourne, 2009). There is currently no available  
115 numerical age control for the fossil deposit, though the presence of extinct megafauna indicates an  
116 expected age of >36.7 ka (Saltré et al., 2016). A single ESR-OSL dating sample (WBC19-1) was  
117 collected from the uppermost exposed layers of the main excavation (10 cm beneath the surface) to  
118 constrain the last appearance of megafauna at the site.

119

## 120 3. Experimental procedures

121 Samples were prepared under safe-light conditions according to standard laboratory procedures  
122 outlined in Aitken (1985) (see Fig. S2 for details), and the resulting purified quartz grains of each  
123 sample were split for luminescence and ESR analyses.

124

125 ESR dose evaluation was performed on varying grain size fractions of quartz (Table 1) at the  
126 Australian Research Centre for Human Evolution, Griffith University, using the standard multi-grain  
127 multiple aliquot additive dose (MAAD) method. ESR measurements were performed using an Elexsys  
128 E 500 Bruker X-band ESR spectrometer at low temperature (77 K) using a finger dewar filled with  
129 liquid nitrogen (see details of the experimental setup and performance in Guilarte et al., submitted).  
130 In accordance with the MC approach (Toyoda et al., 2000), the radiation-induced ESR signals  
131 associated with the Al, Ti (option D) and Ti-H centres were acquired in a single spectrum and  
132 measured as per Bartz et al. (2020) (see an example in Fig. S3). The full analytical procedure is  
133 provided in the Supplementary Information (*S.M.2. ESR dating*).

134  
135 Single-grain (SG) OSL analyses were undertaken on the 212 – 250  $\mu\text{m}$  quartz fraction (90 – 250  $\mu\text{m}$   
136 quartz fraction for WBC19-1) in the Prescott Environmental Luminescence Laboratory at the  
137 University of Adelaide. Equivalent dose ( $D_e$ ) measurements were conducted on 500 – 1500  
138 grains/sample for SG OSL analysis, while multi-grain (MG) OSL analysis of the Alexandra Cave  
139 samples was undertaken using a 5 mm mask size (approximately 500 grains/aliquot).  $D_e$  values were  
140 determined using the SAR protocol shown in Table S2 and the analytical procedures of Arnold et al.,  
141 2016, 2012a), which are further detailed in the Supplementary information (*S.M.3. OSL dating*).

142  
143 Environmental dose rate assessments were conducted in tandem for the ESR and OSL sample splits.  
144 As such, the only differences between the ESR and OSL dose rates for a given sample relate to grain-  
145 size attenuation effects and alpha efficiency values. Field gamma dose rate measurements were  
146 made using a portable gamma spectrometer NaI:Tl detector connected to an InSpector 1000 digital  
147 handheld multichannel analyser. The ‘energy windows’ approach described in Arnold et al. (2012b)  
148 and Duval and Arnold (2012) was used to derive individual estimates of U, Th and K concentrations  
149 from the field gamma-ray spectra. External beta dose rates were calculated from measurements  
150 made on a Risø GM-25-5 beta counter, using homogenised sediment sub-samples collected from the  
151 main ESR-OSL dating sample positions. Radionuclide concentrations have been converted to dose  
152 rates using the conversion factors given in Guérin et al. (2011), making allowance for beta-dose  
153 attenuation (Mejdahl, 1979; Brennan, 2003). Cosmic-ray dose rates were calculated using the  
154 approach described in Prescott and Hutton (1994), taking into consideration the site altitude,  
155 geomagnetic latitude as well as the density, thickness and geometry of sediment and bedrock above  
156 the sample. The gamma, beta and cosmic-ray dose rates are corrected for long-term sediment water  
157 content (Aitken, 1985). Further details of dose rate evaluations are given in Table 1.

## 158 **4. Results**

### 159 3.1. ESR dating

#### 160 3.1.1. ESR dose determination

161 All ESR dose response curves obtained for the Al, Ti (D) and Ti-H signals are displayed in Fig. S4 to S9,  
162 while numerical fitting results are given in Table S1. Bleaching coefficient values obtained from the Al  
163 signal (expressed as the relative difference between the ESR intensities of the natural and the  
164 bleached aliquots), range from 39 % to 70 %, suggesting highly variable bleaching conditions for all  
165 samples, while no apparent stratigraphic trend is observed for the samples from Alexandra Cave.  
166 Measurement repeatability for the Al signal ranges from 1.1% to 11 %, resulting in  $D_e$  variability of  
167 between 11% and 14 %, which is within the standards usually obtained for this centre. The exception

168 is WBC 19-1, which shows significantly enhanced  $D_e$  precision (5 %). The Ti centre (option D) has a  
169 measurement repeatability of 1–6 %, and  $D_e$  repeatability of 3–13 % (Table S1), which is slightly better  
170 than the Al centre. In particular, four out of six samples show excellent  $D_e$  repeatability (<10%). The  
171 Ti-H centre has a measurement repeatability of 1–6 %, and  $D_e$  repeatability of 6–25 % (Table S1). In  
172 comparison to the Al and Ti (D) centres, the average intensity repeatability of the Ti-H centre is  
173 superior (2.6%), though its  $D_e$  repeatability is inferior (14.7 %) as a result of weaker signal intensity  
174 and higher signal-to-noise ratio (see example in Fig. S3).

175 The Al centre  $D_e$  values were obtained by fitting an exponential + linear (EXP+LIN) fitting function (data  
176 weighted by inverse of the squared intensities,  $1/I^2$ ) through the pooled repeated ESR intensities, with  
177 a maximum applied irradiation dose ( $D_{max}$ ) of 12000 Gy. The calculated  $D_e$  values are in the range of  
178  $27 \pm 1.9 - 141 \pm 13.4$  Gy (Table S1). Only SPEC 18-2 had an adjusted  $r^2$  value <0.98, suggesting overall  
179 reliable fitting results for the combined dataset.

180 The Ti (D) and Ti-H signal  $D_e$  values were obtained using both Ti-2 and single saturating exponential  
181 (SSE) functions as described in Duval and Guilarte (2015). The Ti (D) ESR intensities do not exhibit the  
182 decreasing dose-dependency behaviour typically observed at high dose values (Fig. S6, S7); therefore,  
183 the Ti-2 fitting function cannot be employed for these samples. Similar atypical behaviour has been  
184 observed in previous studies (e.g., Duval et al., 2017) and is likely a result of the limited  $D_{max}$  value  
185 employed here (12000 Gy). The SSE fitting function is more appropriate to describe the experimental  
186 data points showing apparent dose saturation. Since this function can potentially return  
187 overestimated  $D_e$  values when adopting inappropriate  $D_{max}$  values (e.g., Duval et al., 2009), the  
188 evolution of both parameters ( $D_e$  and  $D_{max}$ ) for Ti (D) is plotted in Fig. S10. The impact of  $D_{max}$  was  
189 assessed by performing the SSE fitting repeatedly after removing successive data points from the high  
190 dose range. Interestingly, all samples show a similar trend, with  $D_e$  values remaining relatively constant  
191 (or within error) up to  $D_{max} = 1000-3000$  Gy, followed by a significant increase at higher doses. The  
192 strong correlation between  $D_e$  and  $D_{max}$  values shows that the SSE function is not appropriate to  
193 describe the behaviour of the ESR intensities for  $D_{max} > 3000$  Gy. In contrast, the resulting  $D_e$  value  
194 reaches a plateau in the < 1000-3000 Gy dose range (note the large  $D_e$  errors for  $D_{max} < 1000$  Gy as a  
195 result of the limited number of data points available for the fitting), indicating the absence of  
196 significant correlation between  $D_e$  and  $D_{max}$ . Consequently, a  $D_{max}$  value of 1522 Gy was used for most  
197 samples, as this produced the lowest inter-sample variability, while  $D_{max}$  values of 2978 Gy and 997 Gy  
198 were used for Alex 19-8 and WBC 19-1, respectively.

199 Since the Ti-H signal typically reaches apparent saturation much earlier than the Ti (D) signal (usually  
200 in the 3000-6000 Gy dose range; see Duval and Guilarte, 2015), slight decreasing dose-dependency  
201 behaviour is observed in the DRCs (Figs. S8, S9) for this signal. Consequently, the standard Ti-2 fitting  
202 function can be used for the Ti-H data obtained here (Duval and Guilarte, 2015); although the fitting  
203 of the decreasing dose component can only be achieved with a very limited number of points (1 or 2),  
204 which may result in significant uncertainty in the fitting results. As such, all Ti-H DRCs were fitted with  
205 both SSE (with increasing  $D_{max}$  from 403 to 11995 Gy) and Ti-2 functions (over the full dose range, with  
206  $D_{max} = 11995$  Gy) for comparison (Fig. 2). Excluding the scattered  $D_e$  values derived using  $D_{max} = 403$   
207 and 606 Gy, which is the result of having very few experimental data points, produces relatively  
208 constant  $D_e$  values for all samples in spite of the increase in  $D_{max}$  from 998 to 11995 Gy (which is unlike  
209 the Ti (D) signal). The  $D_{max}$  value therefore has limited influence on  $D_e$  values for the SSE fitting results,  
210 suggesting that the use of this function is appropriate to describe the data set. These Ti-H  $D_e$  values

211 are in the range of  $26.1 \pm 1.3 - 128.1 \pm 9.5$  Gy and  $25.3 \pm 1.3 - 138.1 \pm 7.7$  Gy for the SSE and Ti-2  
212 functions, respectively (Table S1). Interestingly, both the SSE ( $D_{\max} = 1522$  Gy) and Ti-2 functions yield  
213 consistent  $D_e$  values at  $1\sigma$  for three out of six samples, while all replicate results are in agreement at  
214  $2\sigma$ . The magnitude of the  $D_e$  estimates for these samples are all within the range of values (<300-400  
215 Gy) for which the Ti-H signal is known to provide reliable dose estimates (Bartz et al., 2020).

216

### 217 3.1.2. Multiple centre approach

218 The Ti-H centre signal consistently produces the lowest  $D_e$  values of the ESR MC dataset, while the Ti  
219 (D) signal provides, somewhat unexpectedly, the highest  $D_e$  values; although similar trends have  
220 been observed in other studies (e.g. Asagoe et al., 2011; Beerten et al., 2006; Beerten and Stesmans,  
221 2007; Rittner, 2013; Tissoux et al., 2007, 2008). Importantly, however, the  $D_e$  derived from the Ti (D)  
222 and Al signals are consistent at  $2\sigma$  for all six samples (Fig. S11), which suggests that these systematic  
223 differences may not be significant. This observed  $D_e$  pattern is consistent with the known respective  
224 bleaching rates of each signal, with the Ti-H signal achieving full resetting much faster than any other  
225 signal (Rink et al., 2007; Tissoux et al., 2007). It is also worth noting that other sources of uncertainty  
226 might have partially impacted the MC fitting results in this study. In particular, the low natural dose  
227 ranges under consideration here (<150 Gy) are especially challenging from an ESR methodological  
228 perspective. This could result in curve fitting artefacts and an inability to accurately determine  $D_e$   
229 values for the Al and Ti (D) centres, given the existing uncertainty on the ESR intensities (typically, a  
230 few %) and the lower radiation sensitivity of these two signals compared with that of Ti-H (Duval and  
231 Guilarte, 2015).

### 232 3.2. *OSL dating*

233 The SG-OSL  $D_e$  distributions show that five of the six samples (ALEX19-3, ALEX19-8, ALEX19-10, SPEC  
234 18-2, WBC 19-1) are well bleached and have not been affected by syn-depositional mixing  
235 complications (Fig. S13). The overdispersion values for these samples range between  $26 \pm 2$  and  $33 \pm$   
236  $2\%$  (Table 1), and are in agreement with values commonly reported for ideal (well-bleached and  
237 unmixed) sediment samples (e.g. Arnold et al., 2019), including those from other NCC sites (Arnold  
238 et al., this volume). Sample ALEX19-6 is an exception to this trend, exhibiting a notably higher  
239 overdispersion of  $41 \pm 2\%$  (Table 1), a significant positively skewed  $D_e$  distribution according to the  
240 test of Bailey and Arnold (2006) and Arnold et al. (2011), and a maximum log likelihood ( $L_{\max}$ ) test  
241 score (Arnold et al., 2009) favouring use of the minimum age model (MAM; Galbraith et al., 1999)  
242 over the weighted mean (central age model; CAM) for  $D_e$  evaluation. These characteristics suggest  
243 that ALEX19-6 may have been affected by more significant syn-depositional mixing (i.e., mixing of  
244 pre-existing cave sediments with externally derived quartz grains during their initial transportation  
245 within the cavity; e.g. (Arnold et al., 2019) or bleaching complications compared to other samples.  
246 This interpretation is supported by the scattered replicate  $D_e$  distributions obtained for this sample  
247 using single-grain thermally transferred OSL (TT-OSL) and post-infrared infrared stimulated  
248 luminescence (pIR-IRSL) (Arnold et al., this volume). It is also consistent with the sedimentological  
249 characteristics of the ALEX 19-6 host deposits, which (unlike the other sampled deposits) lack  
250 bedding structures (laminations, charcoal bands) and likely indicate a higher-energy depositional  
251 environment that could have contributed to syn-depositional mixing.

252 The replicate MG-OSL ages obtained for four of the Alexandra Cave samples provide useful insights  
253 into multi-grain averaging effects for NCC deposits. The MG-OSL ages for ALEX 19-3 and ALEX 19-6  
254 are in agreement with their SG-OSL counterparts, confirming the suitability of both approaches for  
255  $D_e$  determination. However, the MG-OSL ages for ALEX 19-8 and ALEX 19-10 are significantly (~50%)  
256 higher than the corresponding SG-OSL ages. The reason for this upward shift in MG-OSL ages can be  
257 gleaned by examining the characteristics of the rejected grains populations (Table S4). In particular,  
258 a significantly higher proportion of measured grains for samples ALEX 19-8 and ALEX 19-10 are  
259 rejected for exhibiting aberrant luminescence properties associated with high sensitivity-corrected  
260 natural signals; namely, non-intersecting, extrapolated and saturated grains (e.g. Fig. S12). The  
261 number of rejected grains falling into this category amounts to ~50-62% of the accepted grain  
262 populations for samples ALEX19-8 and ALEX19-10, compared to only 1-3% of the accepted grain  
263 populations for samples ALEX 19-3 and ALEX 19-6 (Table S4). While these unreliable grains can be  
264 routinely rejected during SG-OSL analysis, they cannot be excluded from MG OSL measurements and  
265 thus contribute to a significant upward shift in the cumulative sensitivity-corrected natural signals of  
266 the final MG-OSL  $D_e$  datasets for ALEX 19-3 and ALEX 19-6. The same type of biasing MG averaging  
267 effects have been reported elsewhere for samples that contain significant populations of non-  
268 intersecting, extrapolated and saturated grain types (Arnold et al., 2012a, 2013).

## 269 Discussion

### 270 4.1. ESR-OSL comparisons

271 There is good overall agreement between the ESR (Ti-H) and SG OSL ages at the three study sites  
272 (Table 1; Fig. 3). For SPEC 18-2, the ESR (Ti-H) and OSL results are additionally compatible with U-  
273 series ages from a calcite flowstone directly above the sample (Table 1), whereas both the Al and Ti  
274 (D) ESR ages overestimate the independent age control. This confirms that these two ESR signals  
275 have most likely not been fully reset during sediment transport.

276  
277 The SG OSL analysis similarly show that the sampled sediments are generally well-bleached and  
278 unlikely to have been affected by syn-depositional mixing, with the exception of ALEX 19-6 (Table 1;  
279 Fig S13). Given the depositional context and related sedimentological evidence, the  $D_e$  scatter  
280 observed for ALEX 19-6 is likely the result of mixing with previously deposited sediments during  
281 transportation through the cave or partial bleaching of sediments prior to deposition. Interestingly,  
282 the corresponding ESR MC ages for sample ALEX19-6 do not appear to exhibit any overestimation  
283 compared to the SG-OSL age, which might otherwise be expected if they have experienced the same  
284 depositional history (especially given MG averaging effects). It is possible that the coarser grain  
285 fraction used for the SG-OSL analysis (212 – 250  $\mu\text{m}$ ) is more susceptible to progressive, short-  
286 distance mobilisation through the cave system during successive high-energy transportation events  
287 compared to the finer grain fraction used for the ESR analysis (125 – 212  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The latter would  
288 certainly have lower entrainment thresholds and thus may be transported more directly through the  
289 cave system during single flow events. Such sediment routing grain-size dependencies remain largely  
290 unexplored in karst settings, but should be investigated further using replicate OSL or ESR  
291 measurements performed on various grain size fractions.

292 The results of the SG-OSL versus MG-OSL comparisons reveal that some NCC deposits may suffer  
293 from adverse multi-grain averaging effects that could affect the reliability of conventional OSL dating  
294 in this setting. Complex MG-OSL averaging effects related to the inclusion of aberrant grain types

295 have been widely reported (Arnold et al., 2012a, 2013, 2016, 2019; Demuro et al., 2013, 2008;  
296 Jacobs et al., 2006; Russell and Armitage, 2012; Stone and Bailey, 2012). Our results indicate the  
297 potential for systematic biases associated with large populations of non-intersecting, extrapolated  
298 and saturated grain types, and suggest it may be prudent to focus on SG-OSL rather than MG-OSL  
299 analysis for NCC deposits. It is plausible that the same upward shift in MG-OSL ages observed for  
300 samples ALEX19-8 and ALEX19-10 may explain the 10 – 25 ka overestimation of MG-OSL ages  
301 reported previously at the nearby NCC site of Blanche Cave (Darrénougué et al., 2009).  
302 Unfortunately, it remains unclear whether multi-grain ESR signals are similarly affected by adverse  
303 averaging effects related to unsuitable grain types. This is conceivable (e.g., Beerten and Stesmans,  
304 2006a, 2006b), and could contribute to some of the systematic differences observed with ESR MC  
305 ages (assuming such averaging effects affect the Ti-H, Ti (D) and Al ESR signals to differing extents).  
306 However, this would need to be specifically investigated using ESR single-grain analysis before  
307 drawing any further conclusions.

308 A potential explanation for the systematically older Ti (D) ages observed in this study (Fig. 3), is that  
309 this particular ESR signal is not fully bleached, and retains a residual (unbleached) dose prior to  
310 burial (Tissoux et al., 2007; Toyoda et al., 2000). Beerten et al. (2006) showed Ti-Li residual signals of  
311 up to 70% of the natural (option E from Duval & Guilarte 2015). Richter and Tsukamoto (2021)  
312 showed residual doses in all centres (86 – 2039 Gy), including for the Ti-H signal (86 – 263 Gy).  
313 Measurements of residual dose in modern analogue samples have also showed residual doses of 61  
314 – 466 Gy for the Ti-Li signal (option D from Duval & Guilarte 2015) (Tsukamoto et al., 2017).  
315 However, if the Ti (D) ESR signal had not been fully reset prior to sediment deposition, it is expected  
316 that incomplete bleaching would also apply to the Al signal, which has much slower bleaching  
317 kinetics, and would have a larger  $D_e$  value than the Ti (D) signal, contrary to the results observed in  
318 this study. While incomplete bleaching of the Ti (D) signal is unlikely, a study on modern analogue  
319 sediment samples from NCC would enable improved evaluations of the ESR Ti (D) signal.

320 Another possible explanation for the systematically older Ti (D) ages observed in this study could  
321 relate to the relatively large intensity of Ti-H and Ti-Li signals, which may impact the accuracy of the  
322 dose estimates derived from each centre. Beerten and Stesmans (2006b) observed that for samples  
323 with both Ti-H and Ti-Li signals, the latter provided overestimated dose estimates, while no  
324 significant bias was observed in samples that did not have a Ti-H signal. The Naracoorte samples are  
325 characterised by exceptionally high Ti-H intensities, despite their relatively young ages, which may  
326 impact Ti-Li centre signal evaluation. In particular, the C/D intensity ratio (Duval and Guilarte, 2015)  
327 calculated for the NCC natural samples are exceptionally high (0.9 to 1.22) compared to those  
328 observed in quartz from other localities (Duval and Guilarte, 2015; Demuro et al., 2020b). This  
329 variability in C/D intensity ratio likely relates to the nature and origin of the quartz being dated (see  
330 comparative data in Bartz et al., 2020; Demuro et al., 2020b), and suggests that the NCC samples  
331 considered in this study might be more susceptible to the complications suggested by Beerten and  
332 Stesman (2006a).

333 The measurement of Ti ESR intensities can vary between studies (see Duval et al., 2020), making  
334 comparisons across sites difficult. Depending on how the ESR intensities are measured (see options  
335 A – E Duval and Guilarte, 2015) and the source of quartz (Demuro et al., 2020b), the relative  
336 contribution of Ti-H and Ti-Li signals may vary. Standardising the evaluation of ESR intensities within



337 the dating community could help to improve our understanding of the nature and composition of  
338 ESR signals related to Ti centres.

339 Taking these various factors into consideration, it seems likely that the Ti (D)  $D_e$  overestimations  
340 observed for the NCC samples relate to their high Ti-H signal intensities and related adverse impacts  
341 on Ti (D) ESR evaluation, rather than incomplete signal resetting during transport. Irrespective of the  
342 cause of the Ti (D) offset, the Al and Ti (D) signals ultimately produce age estimates that are within  
343  $2\sigma$  of each other. Hence, any apparent systematic differences observed with these samples are not  
344 statistically significant.

345 The Ti-H centre ages presented in this study are, to our knowledge, the youngest obtained so far  
346 using ESR dating with the MAAD method, providing reliable  $D_e$  estimates over natural dose ranges as  
347 low as  $< 30$  Gy. These results confirm that the quartz preserved at NCC sites is particularly well  
348 suited for ESR dating, and that the Ti-H centre has great potential for dating Late Pleistocene NCC  
349 fossil deposits with corresponding burial doses  $< 100$  Gy.

350

#### 351 4.2. *Implications for NCC site histories*

352 The OSL and ESR ages provided in this study have extended the chronology of the Alexandra Cave  
353 entrance chamber sediment sequence by 130 ka; building on the initial radiocarbon ages of 17.5 –  
354 30.8 ka (Table S6; McCluskey, 2012), we have established a basal age of  $157.8 \pm 9.8$  ka (ALEX 19-10)  
355 for the lowermost sample in the stratigraphic section. This indicates that 6 m of sediment infill  
356 occurred at the site between marine isotope stage (MIS) 6 and MIS 2 (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005), and  
357 confirms that the Alexandra Cave sequence spans multiple glacial-interglacial cycles. These  
358 chronological results are significant because they reveal that the deposit overlaps with the  
359 megafauna extinction period (36.7 – 48.1 ka) and  $>100$  ka leading up to the event, flagging this  
360 sedimentary section as one of the few sites in Australia to enable detailed assessment of megafauna  
361 extinction dynamics over long timescales.

362 The Specimen Cave deposit was deposited during late MIS 6 or early MIS 5 ( $134.7 \pm 8.7$  ka), and can  
363 be chronologically correlated to the base of the Alexandra Cave entrance chamber deposit (Alex 19-  
364 10). Examining palaeoenvironment proxies from the infill sequence at Specimen Cave and Alexandra  
365 Cave would be useful to reconstruct regional climatic conditions during the MIS 6 to MIS 5 transition,  
366 as this time period is currently not represented by any other well-dated sedimentary deposits at NCC  
367 sites.

368 The Whale Bone Cave deposit is most likely constrained to the final stage of the last interglacial  
369 complex or the start of MIS 4, with mean ages centred on MIS 5a to 5b (71 – 87 ka). These ages  
370 overlap with the Alexandra Cave entrance chamber deposit presented here, and also Grant Hall  
371 chamber in Victoria Fossil Cave (Macken et al., 2011). Previous palaeoenvironmental and faunal  
372 studies at Grant Hall chamber suggested well-forested, dense woodlands (Fraser and Wells, 2006;  
373 Macken et al., 2011), with increased effective moisture during this period supported by speleothem  
374 deposition (Ayliffe et al., 1998). The extent of moisture availability during the last interglacial  
375 complex can be further assessed from the two newly identified MIS 5 cave sites presented in this  
376 study, Whale Bone and Alexandra caves, which share similar aged deposits.

377 The ages produced in this study contribute to the collective understanding of spatial and temporal  
378 relationships of NCC fossil sites (eg. Darrénougué et al., 2009; Forbes et al., 2007; Grün et al., 2001;  
379 Macken et al., 2011; St Pierre et al., 2012), opening up new possibilities for undertaking multi-site  
380 comparisons of faunal assemblages and palaeoenvironmental reconstructions spanning MIS 6 to 2,  
381 and improved scope for understanding the drivers of Australia-wide late Pleistocene megafauna  
382 extinction.

#### 383 **4. Conclusion**

384 Comparative quartz ESR MC and OSL ages obtained on six NCC samples are in good agreement, with  
385 Ti-H and SG-OSL ages providing the closest age correspondence for the three study sites. This  
386 represents the first study to demonstrate the potential for obtaining reliable quartz Ti-H centre ages  
387 with the MAAD method over natural dose ranges as low as < 30 Gy. These promising results most  
388 likely reflect a combination of the experimental setup employed for cryogenic ESR measurements  
389 (finger dewar), which enabled data acquisition at much lower temperatures (77 K) and thus ensured  
390 higher signal intensity/resolution than with standard variable temperature units (see comparison  
391 study in Guilarte et al., submitted), and the favourable intrinsic ESR characteristics of the NCC quartz,  
392 which were found to be particularly well suited for ESR analyses.

393 SG and MG OSL comparisons show the advantages that SG OSL dating can offer for characterising  
394 and circumventing potentially biasing averaging effects for some NCC deposits. Further investigation  
395 into the potential for Ti (D) bleaching residuals and ESR multi-grain averaging effects would be  
396 worthwhile to expand the applicability of different MC signals at NCC sites.

397 The new SG-OSL and Ti-H chronologies presented here for Alexandra, Specimen and Whale Bone  
398 Cave constrain three previously undated megafauna fossil deposits to 50 – 150 ka, collectively  
399 spanning an important temporal gap in the existing NCC chronology. These results demonstrate the  
400 advantages of applying multiple palaeodosimetric dating techniques in tandem to examine  
401 methodological reliability and reconstruct more comprehensive sedimentary histories for late  
402 Pleistocene NCC deposits.

403

#### 404 **Acknowledgements**

405 Financial support for this research was provided by Australian research Council (ARC) Linkage Project  
406 LP160101249 in conjunction with the Government of South Australia Department of Environment  
407 and Water, Naracoorte Lucindale Council, Terre a Terre Pty Ltd, Wratttonbully Wine Industries  
408 Association Inc, South Australian Museum, and Defence Science and Technology Group. We thank  
409 Tom Shortt, Peter Majoros, Nick McIntyre for facilitating research conducted at NCC sites. We are  
410 also grateful to Steve Bourne, Gilian Ross and Racheal Mahlkecht for their assistance with  
411 collecting, preparing and/or measuring the luminescence dating samples. MD's research is currently  
412 funded by the Spanish Ramón y Cajal Fellowship RYC2018-025221-I. The authors are grateful to  
413 María Jesús Alonso Escarza, CENIEH, for the UV bleaching experiment at CENIEH.

414

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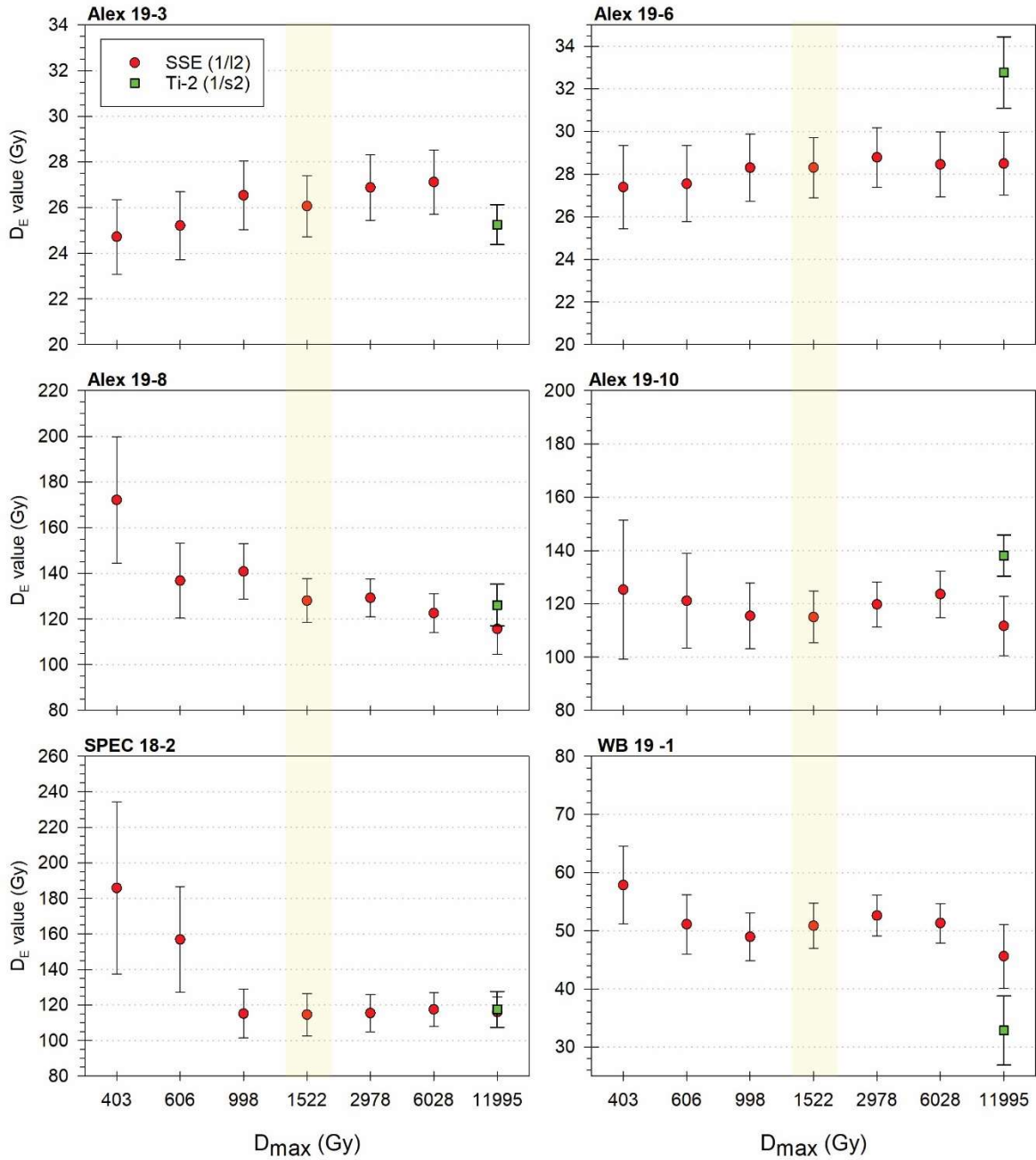
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599

600 Figure 1. Stratigraphy of entire sedimentary infill deposit from entrance chamber of Alexandra Cave,  
 601 Naracoorte Caves, South Australia, including photos, sample position (A1, A2, A3) and locality of  
 602 fossilised fauna (indicated by bone symbols). B: Specimen Cave photo and sample position C: Whale  
 603 Bone Cave sample position and photos. Yellow circles indicate combined OSL–ESR sample positions,  
 604 and are approximately 4 cm in diameter. Geographical location of cave sites are shown in Figure S1.





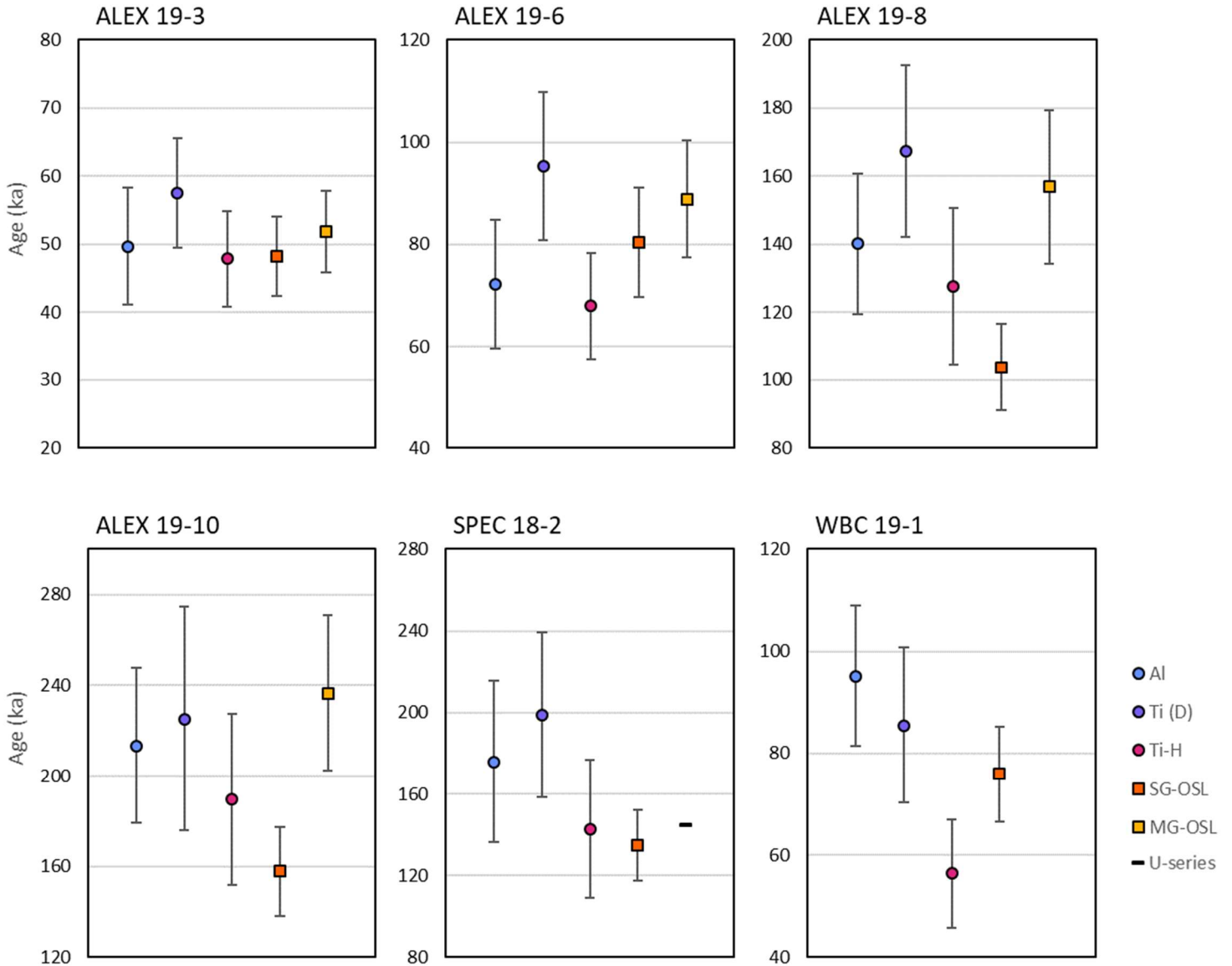
605

606 Figure 2.  $D_e$  values obtained for the Ti-H signal and derived from SSE (red circles) and Ti-2 (green  
 607 squares) fitting functions, with maximum irradiation dose ( $D_{max}$ ) varying between 400 and 12000 Gy.

608  $D_e$  value is considered reliable in the  $D_{max}$  range for which  $D_e$  values remain constant. All samples  
 609 show constant  $D_e$  values between  $D_{max}$  of 600-6000 Gy.  $D_e$  values used for age calculations are

610 derived from the SSE ( $1/I^2$ ) with  $D_{max} = 1500$  Gy (highlighted in yellow).

611



612

613

614 Figure 3. Comparison of final MG OSL, SG OSL and MC ESR ages for each sample, represented as mean  
615  $\pm$  total uncertainty at 95% confidence interval. The U-series ages (SP 17 =  $145 \pm 3.5$  ka, and SP 18 =  
616  $142.8 \pm 2.1$  ka) for SPEC 18-2 has been derived from the capping flowstone immediate overlying the  
617 OSL-ESR sample, and therefore represents a close minimum age constraint (Table S5).

618

619 **Table**

620 Table 1. Summary statistics of radionuclide concentrations, environmental dose rates,  $D_e$  measurements and  
 621 final OSL and ESR samples. OSL and ESR uncertainties are quoted at  $1\sigma$ . Field water content is expressed as  
 622 percentage of dry mass mineral fraction with  $\pm 20\%$  uncertainty. Gamma dose rates were calculated from in  
 623 situ measurements made at each sampling position using a NaI:TI detector. Beta dose rates were calculated  
 624 using a Risø GM-25-5 low-level beta counter. Individual radionuclide concentrations were derived from the  
 625 field gamma spectra using the 'energy windows' method (Arnold et al., 2012a). Cosmic dose rates were  
 626 calculated by taking into account the geomagnetic latitude, altitude and thickness of overburden (Prescott &  
 627 Hutton, 1994). The gamma, beta and cosmic-ray dose rates are corrected for long-term sediment water  
 628 content (Aitken, 1985). The total dose rate for the luminescence samples includes an empirically determined  
 629 internal dose rate of 0.04 Gy/ka (Arnold et al., this volume) with an uncertainty of 30% (Bowler et al., 2003).  
 630 SG OSL and MG OSL  $D_e$  datasets and overdispersion values are calculated using the central age model (CAM)  
 631 (Galbraith et al., 1999). The total dose rate for ESR samples include an empirically determined internal dose of  
 632 0.06 +/- 0.01 Gy/ka (Arnold et al., this volume) using an alpha efficiency of  $0.07 \pm 0.01$  ( $1\sigma$ ) for both the Al and  
 633 Ti centres (Bartz et al., 2019). U-series ages are presented here with  $2\sigma$  uncertainty, see Table S5 for details.

Sample	Alex 19-3	Alex 19-6	Alex 19-8	Alex 19-10	SPEC 18-2	WBC 19-1
Unit	C	E	F	G	-	-
Depth (cm)	262	411	473	585	85	20
Water content (%)	$3.6 \pm 0.7$	$3.3 \pm 0.7$	$11.1 \pm 2.2$	$6.0 \pm 1.2$	$16.5 \pm 3.3$	$16.2 \pm 3.2$
Internal dose rate (ESR) (Gy/ka)	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$
Internal dose rate (OSL) (Gy/ka)	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$
Beta dose rate (ESR) (Gy/ka)	$0.24 \pm 0.01$	$0.15 \pm 0.01$	$0.53 \pm 0.03$	$0.27 \pm 0.02$	$0.29 \pm 0.02$	$0.41 \pm 0.02$
Grain size ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	125 – 212	125 – 212	125 – 212	125 – 212	212 – 250	90 – 250
Beta dose rate (OSL) (Gy/ka)	$0.23 \pm 0.01$	$0.15 \pm 0.01$	$0.51 \pm 0.03$	$0.26 \pm 0.03$	$0.29 \pm 0.02$	$0.41 \pm 0.02$
Grain size ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	212 – 250	212 – 250	212 – 250	212 – 250	212 – 250	90 – 250
Gamma dose rate (Gy/ka)	$0.20 \pm 0.01$	$0.16 \pm 0.01$	$0.37 \pm 0.02$	$0.24 \pm 0.01$	$0.40 \pm 0.02$	$0.38 \pm 0.02$
Cosmic dose rate (Gy/ka)	$0.05 \pm 0.01$	$0.05 \pm 0.01$	$0.04 \pm 0.00$	$0.04 \pm 0.00$	$0.06 \pm 0.01$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$
Total dose rate (ESR) (Gy/ka)	$0.54 \pm 0.03$	$0.42 \pm 0.02$	$1.00 \pm 0.05$	$0.61 \pm 0.03$	$0.80 \pm 0.05$	$0.90 \pm 0.05$
Total dose rate (OSL) (Gy/ka)	$0.51 \pm 0.03$	$0.39 \pm 0.02$	$0.96 \pm 0.05$	$0.58 \pm 0.03$	$0.78 \pm 0.04$	$0.88 \pm 0.05$
<hr/>						
$D_e$ (Gy) Al	$27.0 \pm 1.9$	$30.1 \pm 2.0$	$140.7 \pm 7.4$	$129.4 \pm 7.9$	$141.0 \pm 13.4$	$85.8 \pm 4.0$
$D_e$ (Gy) Ti (D)	$31.3 \pm 1.4$	$39.7 \pm 1.9$	$168.2 \pm 9.3$	$136.6 \pm 13.1$	$159.4 \pm 13.1$	$77.0 \pm 5.3$
$D_e$ (Gy) Ti-H	$26.1 \pm 1.3$	$28.3 \pm 1.4$	$128.1 \pm 9.5$	$115.0 \pm 9.7$	$114.5 \pm 12.0$	$50.8 \pm 3.9$
<hr/>						
$D_e$ (Gy) SG OSL	$24.8 \pm 0.6$	$31.3 \pm 1.0$	$99.8 \pm 2.9$	$90.7 \pm 2.5$	$105.0 \pm 2.6$	$66.7 \pm 1.4$
Overdispersion (%)	$26.4 \pm 2.1$	$40.6 \pm 2.4$	$26.8 \pm 2.5$	$26.4 \pm 2.3$	$30.0 \pm 1.9$	$25.9 \pm 1.6$
$D_e$ (Gy) MG OSL	$26.7 \pm 0.6$	$34.7 \pm 0.8$	$150.9 \pm 7.0$	$136.0 \pm 6.3$	-	-
Overdispersion (%)	0	0	$6.6 \pm 5.6$	0	-	-
<hr/>						
Age (ka) Al	$49.7 \pm 4.3$	$72.3 \pm 6.3$	$140.2 \pm 10.3$	$213.4 \pm 17.1$	$175.8 \pm 19.4$	$95.2 \pm 6.9$
Age (ka) Ti (D)	$57.5 \pm 4.0$	$95.3 \pm 7.2$	$167.5 \pm 12.6$	$225.3 \pm 24.7$	$198.8 \pm 19.8$	$85.5 \pm 7.6$

Age (ka) Ti-H	47.9 ± 3.5	67.9 ± 5.2	127.6 ± 11.5	189.6 ± 18.9	142.8 ± 17.0	56.4 ± 5.3
Age (ka) MG OSL	51.9 ± 3.0	88.9 ± 5.7	156.9 ± 11.3	236.5 ± 17.1	-	-
Age (ka) SG OSL	48.2 ± 2.9	80.4 ± 5.4	103.8 ± 6.4	157.8 ± 9.8	134.7 ± 8.7	75.9 ± 4.7
Age (ka) U-series					145.0 ± 3.5	
					142.8 ± 2.1	

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