

5. Chronostratigraphy and Geological Time

Chronostratigraphy is the unifying construct that defines (ideally by international agreement) boundaries for systems, series, and stages. Chronostratigraphy is the study of establishing the time relationship among rock units.

5.1 Geologic time units

Geologic time units: Stratigraphic units defined and delineated on the basis of time.

(1) Chronostratigraphic unit

An isochronous body of rock that serves as the material reference for all rocks formed during the same spans of times. The fundamental chronostratigraphic unit is the **system**, e.g. Tertiary system (第三系).

(2) Geochronologic unit

The interval of time during which a correspondingly ranked chronostratigraphic unit was deposited. The fundamental geochronologic unit is the **period** – the time equivalent of a system, e.g. Tertiary period (第三紀).

(3) Geochronometric unit

Pure time units. Direct divisions of geologic time with arbitrarily chosen age boundaries, e.g. Archean (太古代), Proterozoic(原生代).

Table 18.1 Geologic Time Units

Chronostratigraphic Unit—an isochronous body of rock that serves as the material reference for all rocks formed during the same spans of time; it is always based on a material reference unit, or stratotype, which is a biostratigraphic, lithostratigraphic, or magnetopolarity unit

Eonothem—the highest ranking chronostratigraphic unit; three recognized:

Phanerozoic, encompassing the Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Cenozoic erathems, and the **Proterozoic** and **Archean**, which together make up the Precambrian.

Erathems—subdivisions of an eonothem; none in the Precambrian; the Phanerozoic erathems, names originally chosen to reflect major changes in the development of life on Earth, are the: Paleozoic (“old life”), Mesozoic (“intermediate life”), and Cenozoic (“recent life”)

System—the primary chronostratigraphic unit of worldwide major rank (e.g., Permian System, Jurassic System); can be subdivided into subsystems or grouped into supersystems but most commonly are divided completely into units of the next lower rank (series)

Series—a subdivision of a system; systems are divided into two to six series (commonly three); generally take their name from the system by adding the appropriate adjective “Lower,” “Middle,” or “Upper” to the system name (e.g., Lower Jurassic Series, Middle Jurassic Series, Upper Jurassic Series); useful for chronostratigraphic correlation within provinces; many can be recognized world wide

Stage—smaller scope and rank than series; very useful for intraregional and intracontinental classification and correlation; many stages also recognized worldwide; may be subdivided into substages

Chronozone—the smallest chronostratigraphic unit; its boundaries may be independent of those of ranked stratigraphic units

Geochronologic Unit—a division of time distinguished on the basis of the rock record as expressed by chronostratigraphic units; not an actual rock unit, but corresponds to the interval of time during which an established chronostratigraphic unit was deposited or formed; thus, the beginning of a geochronologic unit corresponds to the time of deposition of the bottom of the chronostratigraphic unit upon which it is based and the ending corresponds to the time of deposition of the top of the reference unit; the hierarchy of geochronologic units and their corresponding geochronostratigraphic units are:

Geochronologic Unit	Corresponding Geochronostratigraphic Unit
Eon	Eonothem
Era	Erathem
Period	System
Epoch	Series
Age	Stage
Chron	Chronozone

Geochronometric Units—direct divisions of geologic time with arbitrarily chosen age boundaries; they are not based on the time span of designated chronostratigraphic stratotypes; a geochronometric time scale is commonly used for Precambrian rocks, which cannot be subdivided into globally recognized chronostratigraphic units; ages generally expressed in millions of years before the present (Ma) but may be expressed also in thousands of years (Ka) or billions of years (Ga)

Boggs (2001)

Table 18.2 The Internationally Accepted Geologic Systems of the Phanerozoic and Their Type Localities

System name	Type locality	Name proposed by	Date proposed	Remarks
Quaternary	France	Jules Desnoyers	1829	Defined by lithology, including some unconsolidated sediment
Tertiary	Italy	Giovanni Arduino	1760	Originally defined by lithology; redefined with type section in France on the basis of distinctive fossils
Cretaceous	Paris Basin	Omalius d'Halloy	1822	Defined initially on the basis of strata composed of distinctive chalk beds
Jurassic	Jura Mountains, northern Switzerland	Alexander von Humbolt	1795	Defined originally on the basis of lithology
Triassic	Southern Germany	Frederick von Alberti	1843	Defined lithologically on the basis of a distinctive threefold division of strata; also defined by fossils
Permian	Province of Perm, Russia	Roderick I. Murchison	1841	Identified by distinctive fossils
Pennsylvanian	Pennsylvania, United States	Henry S. Williams	1891	Not used outside the United States
Mississippian	Mississippi Valley, United States	Alexander Winchell	1870	Not used outside the United States
Carboniferous	Central England	William Conybeare and William Phillips	1822	Named for lithologically distinctive, coal-bearing strata but recognizable by distinctive fossils
Devonian	Devonshire, southern England	Roger I. Murchinson and Adam Sedgwick	1840	Boundaries based mainly on fossils
Silurian	Western Wales	Roger I. Murchinson	1835	Defined by lithology and fossils
Ordovician	Western Wales	Charles Lapworth	1879	Set up as an intermediate unit between the Cambrian and Silurian to resolve boundary dispute; boundary defined by fossils
Cambrian	Western Wales	Adam Sedgwick	1835	Defined mainly by lithology

Note: The Precambrian has not yet been divided into internationally accepted systems

Boggs (2001)

Cambrian: Derived from the Roman name for Wales (Cambria)

Ordovician: Named for Ordovices, an ancient Welsh tribe that was the last in Britain to submit to Roman domination.

Silurian: Named for Silures, an ancient tribe that had once inhabited Wales.

5.2 The geologic time scale

Establishing the relative ordering of events in Earth's history is the main contribution that geology makes to our understanding of time.

Development of the geological time scale

Two fundamental stages of development:

1. Establishing local stratigraphic sections (using principle of superposition, fossil controls, and radiometric ages)
2. Establishing a composite international chronostratigraphic scale.

Although the systems are accepted by the international geologic community as the basic reference sections for the geologic time scale, considerable controversy still exists regarding the exact placement of system boundaries and the subdivision of some systems.

Nomenclature of Phanerozoic (顯生元) chronostratigraphic units

Eonothem	Erathem	System and Subsystem		Series	Numerical Age (Ma)	
PHANEROZOIC	Cenozoic	Quaternary		Holocene Pleistocene	0.1 1.8	
		Tertiary	Neogene		Pliocene Miocene	23.8
			Paleogene		Oligocene Eocene Paleocene	
		Mesozoic	Cretaceous		Upper Lower	65.0 144.2
			Jurassic		Upper Middle Lower	206
			Triassic		Upper Middle Lower	248
	Paleozoic	Permian		Upper Lower	290	
		Carbon-iferous	Pennsylvanian	Upper	323	
			Mississippian	Lower	354	
		Devonian		Upper Middle Lower	417	
		Silurian		Upper Lower	443	
		Ordovician		Upper Middle Lower	490	
	Cambrian		Upper Lower	543		
	PRECAMBRIAN	PROTEROZOIC	Not formally subdivided			2500
		ARCHEAN	Not formally subdivided			

Source of ages: Geological Society of America 1999 Geologic Time Scale

Boggs (2001)

Figure 18.2

Nomenclature of Phanerozoic chronostratigraphic units commonly used throughout the world. Precambrian rocks are divided into the Archean and Proterozoic; however, no scheme for further subdivision of the Precambrian is globally accepted.



INTERNATIONAL STRATIGRAPHIC CHART

International Commission on Stratigraphy



Eonothem Eon	Erathem Era	System Period	Series Epoch	Stage Age	Age Ma	GSSP	
Phanerozoic	Cenozoic	Quaternary	Holocene		0.0117	🔪	
			Pleistocene	Upper		0.126	
				"Ionian"		0.781	
			Calabrian		1.806	🔪	
			Gelasian		2.588	🔪	
		Neogene	Pliocene	Piacenzian		3.600	🔪
				Zanclean		5.332	🔪
			Miocene	Messinian		7.246	🔪
				Tortonian		11.608	🔪
				Serravallian		13.82	🔪
	Paleogene	Oligocene	Langhian		15.97	🔪	
			Burdigalian		20.43	🔪	
			Aquitanian		23.03	🔪	
		Eocene	Chattian		28.4 ± 0.1	🔪	
			Rupelian		33.9 ± 0.1	🔪	
			Priabonian		37.2 ± 0.1	🔪	
			Bartonian		40.4 ± 0.2	🔪	
			Lutetian		48.6 ± 0.2	🔪	
		Paleocene	Ypresian		55.8 ± 0.2	🔪	
			Thanetian		58.7 ± 0.2	🔪	
			Selandian		~ 61.1	🔪	
			Danian		65.5 ± 0.3	🔪	
	Mesozoic	Cretaceous	Upper	Maastrichtian		70.6 ± 0.6	🔪
				Campanian		83.5 ± 0.7	🔪
				Santonian		85.8 ± 0.7	🔪
				Coniacian		~ 88.6	🔪
				Turonian		93.6 ± 0.8	🔪
			Lower	Cenomanian		99.6 ± 0.9	🔪
				Albian		112.0 ± 1.0	🔪
				Aptian		125.0 ± 1.0	🔪
				Barremian		130.0 ± 1.5	🔪
				Hauterivian		~ 133.9	🔪
Valanginian		140.2 ± 3.0	🔪				
Berriasian		145.5 ± 4.0	🔪				

Eonothem Eon	Erathem Era	System Period	Series Epoch	Stage Age	Age Ma	GSSP	
Phanerozoic	Mesozoic	Jurassic	Upper	Tithonian		145.5 ± 4.0	🔪
				Kimmeridgian		150.8 ± 4.0	🔪
			Oxfordian		~ 155.6	🔪	
			Callovian		161.2 ± 4.0	🔪	
			Bathonian		164.7 ± 4.0	🔪	
		Middle	Bajocian		167.7 ± 3.5	🔪	
			Aalenian		171.6 ± 3.0	🔪	
			Toarcian		175.6 ± 2.0	🔪	
		Lower	Pliensbachian		183.0 ± 1.5	🔪	
			Sinemurian		189.6 ± 1.5	🔪	
	Hettangian			196.5 ± 1.0	🔪		
	Rhaetian			199.6 ± 0.6	🔪		
	Norian			203.6 ± 1.5	🔪		
	Triassic	Upper	Carnian		216.5 ± 2.0	🔪	
			Ladinian		~ 228.7	🔪	
		Middle	Anisian		237.0 ± 2.0	🔪	
			Olenekian		~ 245.9	🔪	
		Induan		~ 249.5	🔪		
	Paleozoic	Permian	Lopingian		251.0 ± 0.4	🔪	
			Changhsingian		253.8 ± 0.7	🔪	
			Wuchiapingian		260.4 ± 0.7	🔪	
			Capitanian		265.8 ± 0.7	🔪	
			Wordian		268.0 ± 0.7	🔪	
		Carboniferous	Guadalupian	Roadian		270.6 ± 0.7	🔪
				Kungurian		275.6 ± 0.7	🔪
			Cisuralian	Artinskian		284.4 ± 0.7	🔪
				Sakmarian		294.6 ± 0.8	🔪
				Asselian		299.0 ± 0.8	🔪
	Paleozoic	Carboniferous	Upper	Gzhelian		303.4 ± 0.9	🔪
				Kasimovian		307.2 ± 1.0	🔪
			Middle	Moscovian		311.7 ± 1.1	🔪
				Bashkirian		318.1 ± 1.3	🔪
Serpukhovian					328.3 ± 1.6	🔪	
Mississippian		Upper	Visean		345.3 ± 2.1	🔪	
			Tournaisian		359.2 ± 2.5	🔪	
		Lower	Fortunian		542.0 ± 1.0	🔪	
			Stage 2		~ 528 *	🔪	
			Stage 3		~ 521 *	🔪	
Paleozoic	Ordovician	Upper	Drumian		~ 506.5	🔪	
			Stage 5		~ 510 *	🔪	
		Middle	Stage 4		~ 515 *	🔪	
			Stage 3		~ 521 *	🔪	
			Stage 2		~ 528 *	🔪	
	Silurian	Lower	Tremadocian		478.6 ± 1.7	🔪	
			Floian		488.3 ± 1.7	🔪	
		Middle	Dapingian		471.8 ± 1.6	🔪	
			Darnwilian		468.1 ± 1.6	🔪	
			Sandbian		460.9 ± 1.6	🔪	
Devonian	Upper	Katian		455.8 ± 1.6	🔪		
		Hirnantian		445.6 ± 1.5	🔪		
	Lower	Rhuddanian		443.7 ± 1.5	🔪		
		Aeronian		439.0 ± 1.8	🔪		
		Telychian		428.2 ± 2.3	🔪		
Paleozoic	Silurian	Upper	Sheinwoodian		426.2 ± 2.4	🔪	
			Homerian		422.9 ± 2.5	🔪	
		Middle	Gorstian		421.3 ± 2.6	🔪	
			Ludfordian		418.7 ± 2.7	🔪	
			Pridoli		416.0 ± 2.8	🔪	
	Lower	Lochkovian		411.2 ± 2.8	🔪		
		Pragian		407.0 ± 2.8	🔪		
		Emsian		397.5 ± 2.7	🔪		
		Eifelian		391.8 ± 2.7	🔪		
		Givetian		385.3 ± 2.6	🔪		
Paleozoic	Devonian	Upper	Frasnian		374.5 ± 2.6	🔪	
			Famennian		359.2 ± 2.5	🔪	
		Middle	Tonian		~ 635	🔪	
			Cryogenian		850	🔪	
			Ediacaran		542	🔪	
	Meso-proterozoic	Statherian	Orosirian		1800	🔪	
			Ectasian		1200	🔪	
		Calymmian	Statherian		1600	🔪	
			Siderian		2500	🔪	
			Rhyacian		2300	🔪	
Paleo-proterozoic	Orosirian	Statherian		1800	🔪		
		Ectasian		1200	🔪		
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		Siderian		2500	🔪		
		Rhyacian		2300	🔪		
Archean	Neoproterozoic	Statherian		1800	🔪		
		Ectasian		1200	🔪		
	Mesoarchean	Statherian		1600	🔪		
		Siderian		2500	🔪		
		Rhyacian		2300	🔪		
Hadean (informal)	Neoproterozoic	Statherian		1800	🔪		
		Ectasian		1200	🔪		
	Mesoarchean	Statherian		1600	🔪		
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		Furongian		~ 492 *	🔪		
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		Middle	Gorstian		421.3 ± 2.6	🔪	
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		Emsian		397.5 ± 2.7	🔪		
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		Calymmian	Statherian		1600	🔪	
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Archean	Neoproterozoic	Statherian		1800	🔪		
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	Mesoarchean	Statherian		1600	🔪		
		Siderian		2500	🔪		
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Hadean (informal)	Neoproterozoic	Statherian		1800	🔪		
		Ectasian		1200	🔪		
	Mesoarchean	Statherian		1600	🔪		
		Siderian		2500	🔪		
		Rhyacian		2300	🔪		

This chart was drafted by Gabi Ogg. Intra Cambrian unit ages with * are informal, and awaiting ratified definitions.
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Eonothem Eon	Erathem Era	System Period	Age Ma	GSSP GSSA	
Precambrian	Proterozoic	Neo-proterozoic	Ediacaran	542	🔪
			Cryogenian	~635	🔪
			Tonian	850	🔪
		Meso-proterozoic	Stenian	1000	🔪
			Ectasian	1200	🔪
			Calymmian	1400	🔪
		Paleo-proterozoic	Statherian	1600	🔪
			Orosirian	1800	🔪
			Rhyacian	2050	🔪
			Siderian	2300	🔪
	Archean	Neoproterozoic	Siderian	2500	🔪
			Neoproterozoic	2800	🔪
			Mesoarchean	3200	🔪
			Paleoarchean	3600	🔪
			Eoarchean	4000	🔪
		Hadean (informal)	Hadean (informal)	~4600	🔪

Subdivisions of the global geologic record are formally defined by their lower boundary. Each unit of the Phanerozoic (~542 Ma to Present) and the base of Ediacaran are defined by a basal Global Boundary Stratotype Section and Point (GSSP), whereas Precambrian units are formally subdivided by absolute age (Global Standard Stratigraphic Age, GSSA). Details of each GSSP are posted on the ICS website (www.stratigraphy.org).

Numerical ages of the unit boundaries in the Phanerozoic are subject to revision. Some stages within the Cambrian will be formally named upon international agreement on their GSSP limits. Most sub-Series boundaries (e.g., Middle and Upper Aptian) are not formally defined.

Colors are according to the Commission for the Geological Map of the World (www.cgmw.org).
The listed numerical ages are from 'A Geologic Time Scale 2004', by F.M. Gradstein, J.G. Ogg, A.G. Smith, et al. (2004; Cambridge University Press) and 'The Concise Geologic Time Scale' by J.G. Ogg, G. Ogg and F.M. Gradstein (2008).

5.3 Calibrating the geological time scale

The major tools for finding ages of sediments to calibrate the geologic time scale are relative-age determinations by use of fossils – biochronology – and absolute age estimates based on isotopic decay – radiochronology.

1. Calibrating the geological time scale by fossils: Biochronology

Biochronology is the organization of geologic time according to the irreversible process of evolution in the organic continuum. **FADs** (first appearance datum) and **LADs** (last appearance datum) are the most easily utilized and communicated types of fossil information upon which to base biochronology, and they can be used over great distances within the range of the defining taxa.

The duration of the FADs of many planktonic species may be as little as 10,000 years. The error caused by an age discrepancy of this magnitude becomes insignificant when applied to estimation of the ages of rocks that are millions to hundreds of millions of years old. Thus, the FADs and LADs of many fossil species can be considered essentially **synchronous** for the utilitarian purposes of biochronology.

Procedures for establishing the biochronology based on FADs and LADs:

- A. Identify wide-spread FADs and LADs
- B. Assign ages, if possible, to these events by direct or indirect calibration through radiochronology, magnetostratigraphy or sedimentation rate estimate.

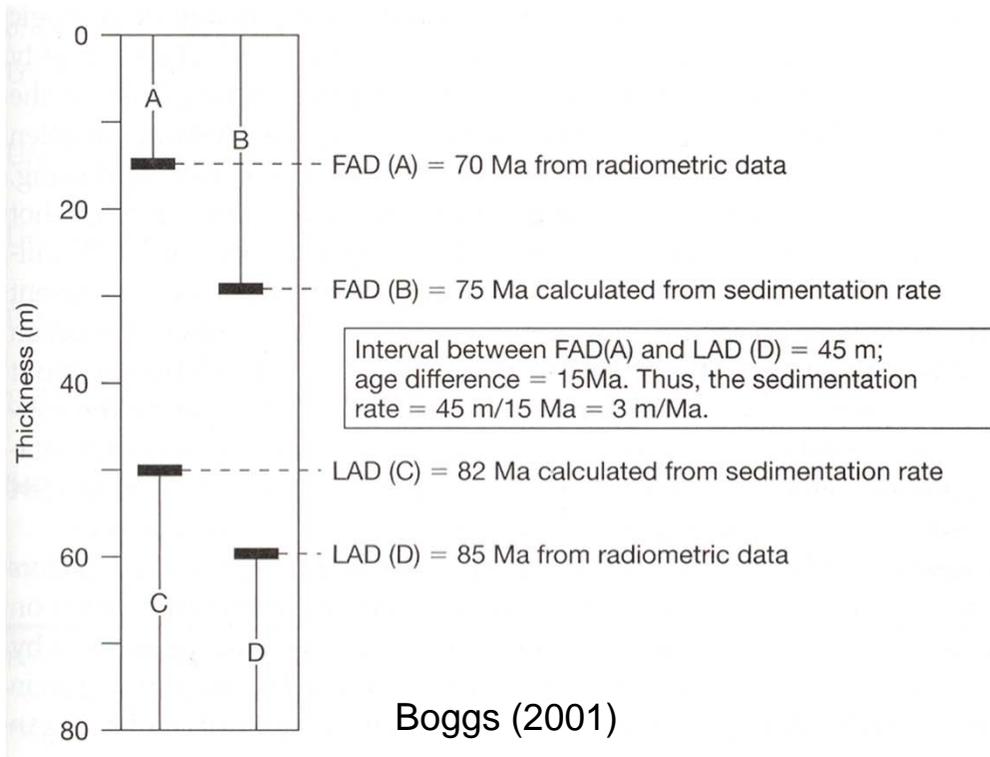


Figure 18.4

Schematic illustration of the application of biochronology to age calibration of a local stratigraphic section. The ages of the FAD for Species A and the LAD for species D are established by radiometric dating of some closely associated physical feature (e.g., an ash bed). The FAD for species B and the LAD for species C cannot be dated radiometrically; however, the ages can be calculated from the sedimentation rate determined between FAD(A) and LAD (D). This rate (3 m/Ma) can then be used to determine the age difference between FAD(A) and FAD(B) ($3 \text{ m/Ma} \times 15 \text{ m} = 5 \text{ Ma}$) and between LAD (D) and LAD(C) ($3 \text{ m/Ma} \times 10 \text{ m} = 3 \text{ Ma}$).

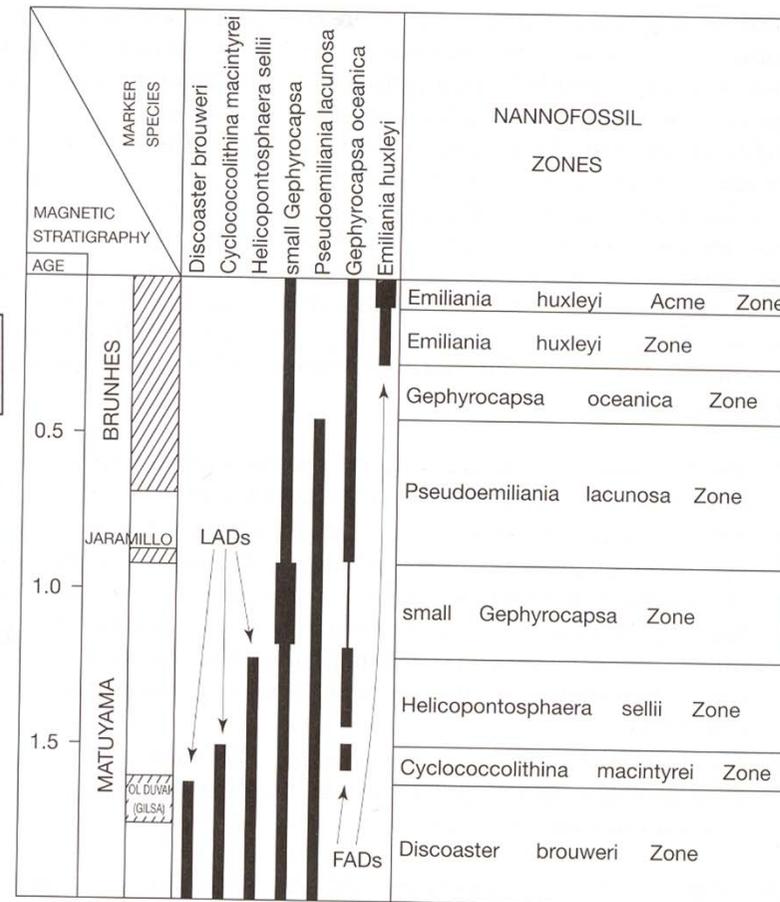


Figure 18.5

An example of biochronological dating by use of nannofossil datum events correlated with magnetic polarity events. [After Gartner, S., 1977, *Calcareous nannofossil biostratigraphy and revised zonation of the Pleistocene: Marine Micropaleontology*, v. 2, Fig. 5, reprinted by permission of Elsevier Science Publishers.]

Boggs (2001)

2. Calibrating by absolute ages: Radiochronology

An isotope is defined as one of two or more atoms that have the same atomic number but which contain different numbers of neutrons (e.g., strontium: ^{84}Sr , ^{86}Sr , ^{87}Sr , ^{88}Sr). Some isotopes, known as daughter isotopes, are produced by radioactive decay of another isotope, the parent isotopes, whilst others are totally stable and their abundance does not change through geological time (e.g. ^{87}Sr is the daughter isotope of its parent isotope ^{87}Rb (Rubidium), whilst ^{84}Sr , ^{86}Sr , ^{88}Sr are all stable).

The equation for calculating radiometric age is

$$t = \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left[\frac{D - D_0}{N} + 1 \right] \quad (18.1)$$

where N = the number of parent atoms of an element (e.g., uranium) present in any given amount of the element, \ln is log base e , D is the total number of daughter atoms (e.g., lead), D_0 is the number of original daughter atoms, and λ is the decay constant, which is calculated from the relationship

$$\lambda = \frac{0.693}{T_{1/2}} \quad (18.2)$$

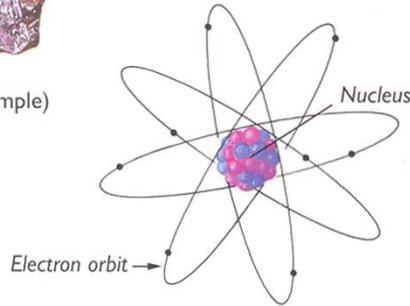
where $T_{1/2}$ is the half-life of the radioactive element (Faure, 1986, Chapter 4). N and D are measurable; D_0 is a constant whose value is either assumed or calculated from data for cognetic samples of the same age.

RADIOACTIVE DECAY

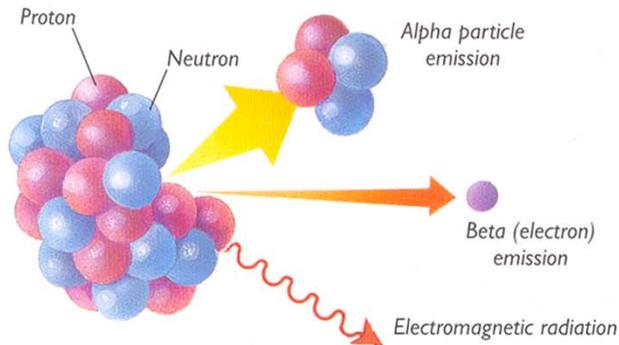
Lamb & Sington (1998)



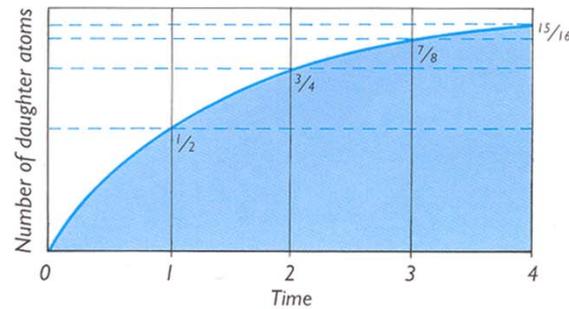
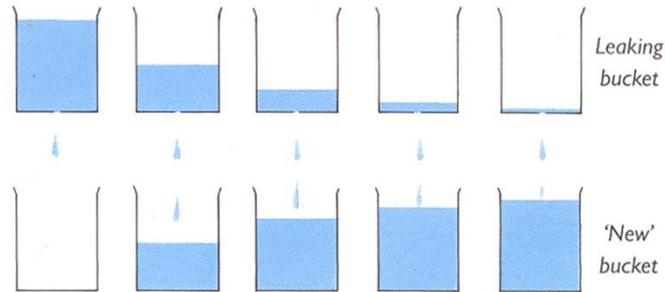
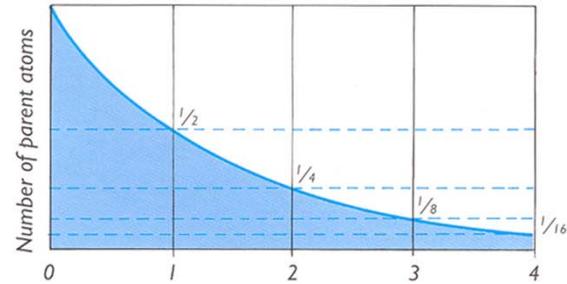
(a) Granite (rock sample)



(b) Atom model



(c) Nucleus (detail)



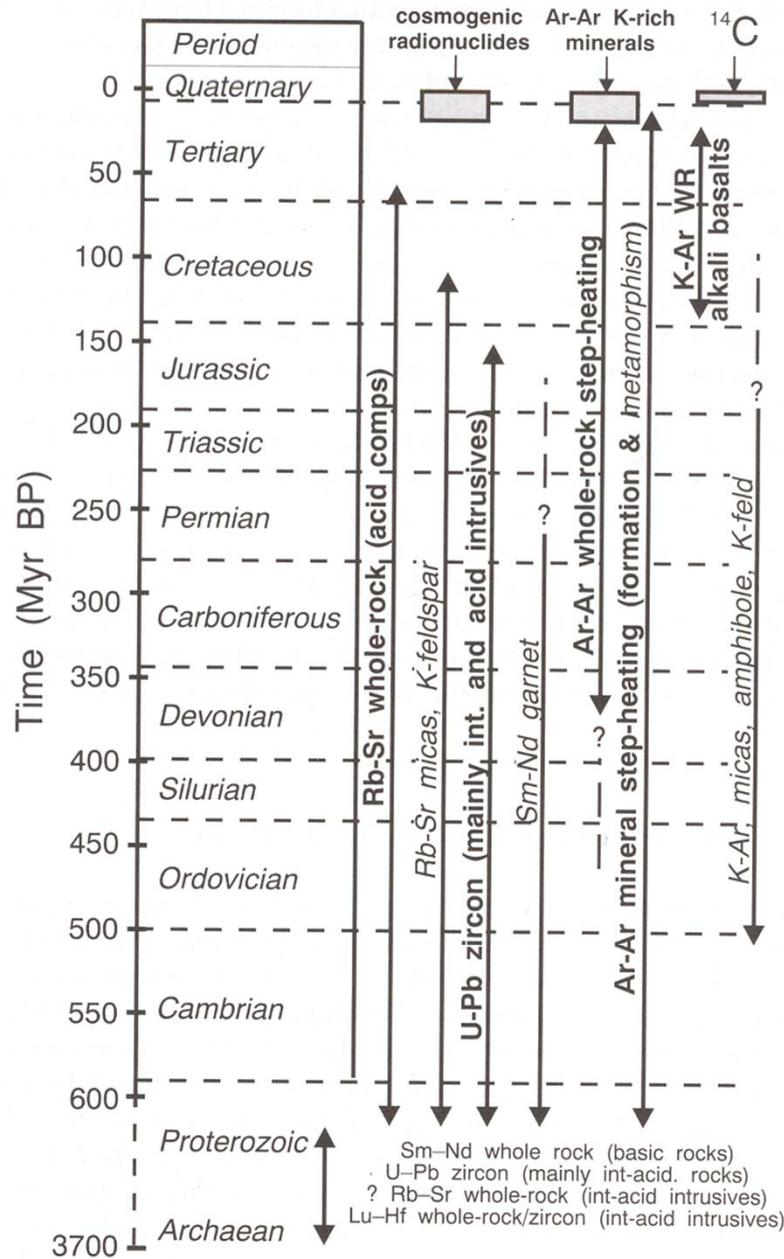
(d) Radioactive exponential decay

Almost all natural rocks contain atoms of radioactive elements (a-b). The nucleus of any of these atoms spontaneously emits particles (alpha or beta particles) and energy, steadily transforming to a new daughter element (c). Geologists can date rocks by comparing the number of daughter and parent elements in the rock today.

The process of decay is rather like a leaking bucket. The initial full bucket represents the number of radioactive parent elements when the rock first formed. An empty bucket underneath catches the drips – this represents the number of daughter elements (d).

In simple situations, such as when a volcanic rock solidifies, there are no daughter elements

to begin with. Gradually, like the water levels in the buckets, the number of daughter elements increases and the number of parent elements decreases. In radioactive decay, the time taken for the number of parent radioactive elements to halve is constant – this is the characteristic half-life of the parent-daughter decay system.



Doyle & Bennett (1998)

Figure 12.11 Application of different methods of radiogenic isotope geochronology to different rock types of differing ages. Methods in italics will yield dates that are likely to reflect predominantly metamorphic/uplift events, whereas methods in normal text are more likely to reflect magmatic crystallization

Table 18.3 Decay Schemes for Principal Methods of Radiometric Age Determination

Parent nuclide	Daughter nuclide	Half-life (years)	Approximate useful dating range (years B.P.)	Materials commonly used for dating
Carbon-14	*Nitrogen-14	5730	**<~40,000	Wood, charcoal, CaCO ³ shells
Protactinium-231 (daughter nuclide of uranium-235)	*Actinium-227	32,480	<~150,000	Deep-sea sediment, aragonite corals
Thorium—230 (daughter nuclide of uranium 238/234)	*Radium-226	75,200	<~250,000	Deep-sea sediment, aragonite corals
Uranium-238	Lead-206	4500 million	10→4500 million	Zircon, monazite, sphene, uranium/thorium minerals
Uranium-238	Spontaneous fission tracks	—	**<~65 million	Volcanic glass, zircon, apatite, sphene, garnet
Uranium-235	Lead-207	710 million	10→4500 million	Zircon, monazite, sphene uranium/thorium minerals
Potassium-40	Argon-40	1250 million	1→4500 million	Muscovite, biotite, feldspars, glauconite, whole volcanic rock
Rubidium-87	Strontium-87	48 billion	10→4500 million	Micas, K-feldspar, whole metamorphic rock, glauconite
Samarium-147	Neodymium-143	106 billion	>200 million	Pyroxene, plagioclase, garnet, apatite, sphene
Lutium-176	Hafnium-176	35 billion	>200 million	Pyroxene, plagioclase, garnet, apatite, sphene

Half-life data from Bowen (1998)

*Not used in calculating radiometric ages

**Can be used for dating older rocks under favorable circumstances

**U238-Th230 method: ~600,000 yrs for
Cave carbonate deposits**

Boggs (2001)

Radiometric methods

Carbon-14 method (sediments), good for $100 < \text{age} < 40,000$ years.

Impact of cosmic-ray neutrons on ordinary ^{14}N atoms produces ^{14}C in the atmosphere. ^{14}C atoms in turn decays backs to ^{14}N . ^{14}C is incorporated into carbon dioxide (CO_2), which is assimilated by plants and animals during their life cycles. The age of a sample is determined by measuring the amount of radiocarbon per gram of total carbon in a sample and comparing this with the initial amount at the time the organism died. The age equation is:

$$t = 19.053 + 10^3 \log (A_0/A) \text{ years}$$

where A is the measured activity of the sample at the present moment in disintegrations per minute per gram of carbon and A_0 is the initial activity.

Thorium-230 method (sediments)

^{238}U decays through several intermediate daughter products, including ^{234}U , to thorium-230. ^{230}Th is an unstable isotope and itself decays with a half-life of 75,000 years to still another unstable daughter product, radium (鐳)-226. Owing to this fairly rapid decay of ^{230}Th , cores of sediments taken from ocean floor exhibit a measurable decrease in ^{230}Th content with increasing depth in the cores. Assuming that sedimentation rates and the rates of precipitation of ^{230}Th have remained fairly constant through time, the concentration of ^{230}Th should decrease exponentially with depth. The ages of the sediments at various depths in a core can be calculated by comparing the amount of remaining ^{230}Th at any depth to the amount in the top layer of the core (surface sediments).

Thorium-230/Protactinium (鎳) -231 ratio method (sediments)

^{231}Pa is the unstable daughter product of ^{235}U . Because ^{231}Pa decays about twice as rapidly as ^{230}Th , the $^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratio in the sediments changes with time. The age of sediment with depth can be determined in a similar manner to the above Thorium-230 method.

Potassium-40/Argon-40 (K-Ar) method (igneous and metamorphic rocks or some sedimentary minerals, e.g. glauconite): drawback: argon-40 is a gas that can leak out of a crystal.

Argon-40/Argon-39 (Ar-Ar) method (igneous and metamorphic minerals)

Increasingly used. Advantages: 1. using very small sample, e.g. single mineral crystal; 2. allowing correction for loss of argon by leakage.

Rubidium-87/Strontium-87 (Rb-Sr) method

Less commonly used because ^{87}Rb is very rare.

Uranium/Lead (U-Pb) method

Fission-track dating

Counting fission tracks in minerals such as zircon. Emission of charged particles from decaying nuclei causes disruption of crystal lattices, creating the tracks, which can be seen and counted under a microscope.

☆ Dating sedimentary rocks

Types of rocks useful for geochronologic calibration of the geologic time table

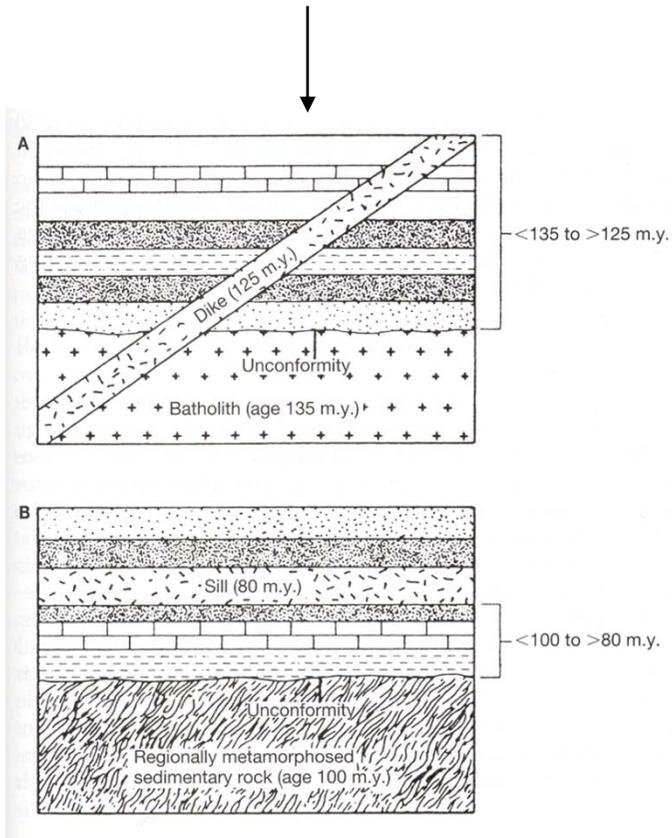
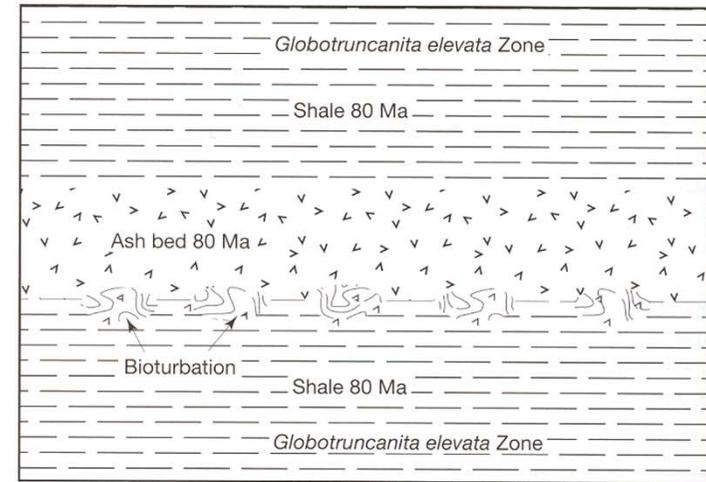
Table 18.4 Categories of Rocks Most Useful for Geochronologic Calibration of the Geologic Time Table

Type of rock	Stratigraphic relationship	Reliability of age data
Volcanic rock (lava flows and ash falls)	Interbedded with "contemporaneous" sedimentary rocks	Give actual ages of sedimentary rocks in close stratigraphic proximity above and below volcanic layers
Plutonic igneous rocks	Intrude (cut across) sedimentary rocks	Give minimum ages for the rocks they intrude
	Lie unconformably beneath sedimentary rocks	Give maximum ages for overlying sedimentary rocks
Metamorphosed sedimentary rocks	Constitute the rocks whose ages are being determined	Give minimum ages for metamorphosed sedimentary rocks
	Lie unconformably beneath non-metamorphosed sedimentary rocks	Give maximum ages for the overlying non-metamorphosed sedimentary rocks
Sedimentary rocks containing contemporary organic remains (fossils, wood)		Give actual ages of sedimentary rocks
Sedimentary rocks containing authigenic minerals such as glauconite		Give minimum ages for sedimentary rocks

1. Finding ages of sedimentary rocks by analyzing interbedded “contemporaneous” volcanic rocks

2. Bracketed ages from associated igneous or metamorphic rocks.

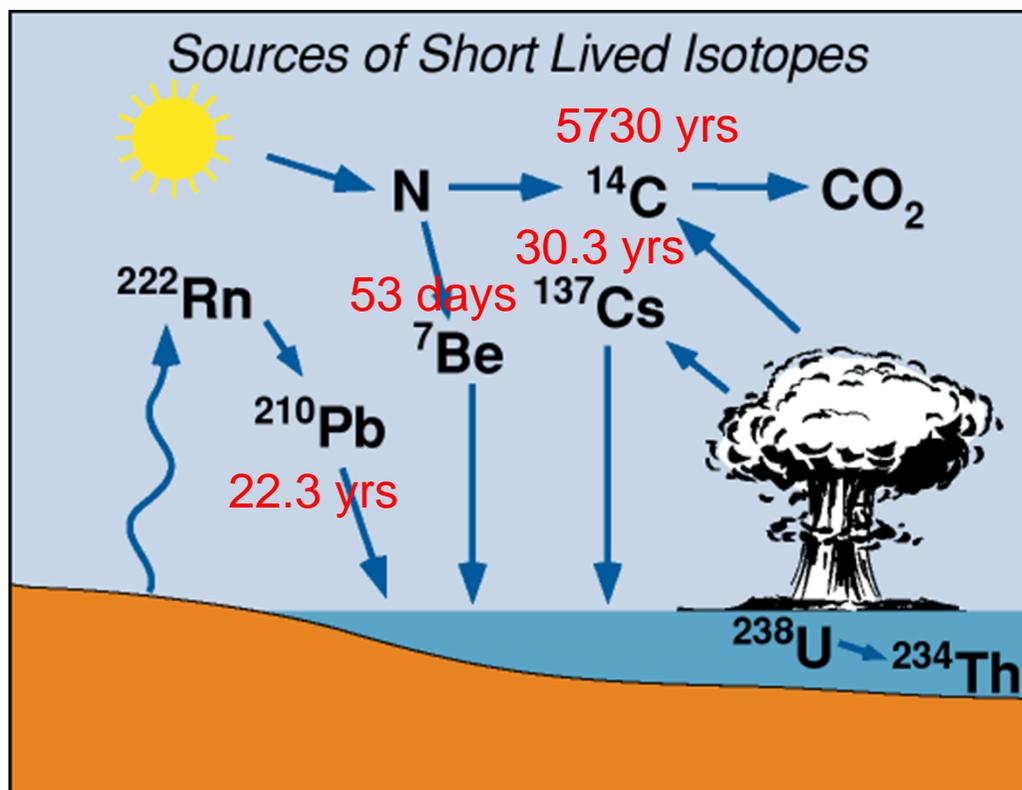
Figure 18.6
Diagram illustrating how the contemporaneity of sedimentary rocks to an associated, datable volcanic layer can be established. The shale beds below and above the volcanic ash bed belong to the same Foraminiferal biozone and the base of the ash bed has been bioturbated, indicating that the underlying sediment was still soft at the time of the ash fall. Therefore, the shale beds are approximately the same age as the ash bed (80 Ma).



3. Direct radiochronology of sedimentary rocks
- a. Carbon-14 method
 - b. Potassium-40/Argon-40 (K-Ar) as well as Rubidium-87/Strontium-87 (Rb-Sr) methods for glauconites.
 - c. Thorium-230 method for ocean floor sediments
 - d. Thorium-230/Protactinium-231 ratio method for fossils and sediments

Figure 18.7
Determining the ages of sedimentary rocks indirectly by (A) bracketing between two igneous bodies and (B) bracketing between regionally metamorphosed sedimentary rocks and an intrusive igneous body.

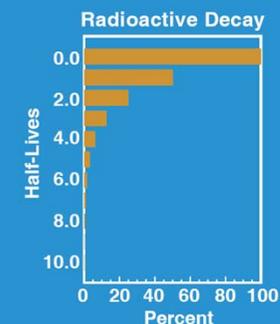
Dating for sediments of age less than a few hundred years



How Radiodating Works

Radiodating is based on the radioactive decay of specific isotopes in sediments. The radiometric "clock" can be conceptualized as an hourglass, in which the sand in the upper and lower reservoirs represents the parent and daughter isotopes, respectively. By measuring the ratio of the sand in the two reservoirs, the length of time the hourglass has been running can be determined, provided the following conditions are satisfied:

- (1) the rate of sand falling from the upper to lower reservoir is known (corresponding to the half-life of the parent isotope)
- (2) when the hourglass is started (time T_0), either the lower reservoir is empty or the initial amount is known
- (3) sand may only be added to the lower reservoir from the upper reservoir, and no sand may be lost from the lower reservoir



In sediments, the clock begins counting at the time when the sediment particle is deposited and exchange between the water and particle stops. As the particles are subsequently buried, the parent isotope decays to its daughter.

Adapted from Geyh and Schleicher, 1990

After around **7 half-lives** most of radioactive elements decay completely

Methods using fallout radionuclides in recent marine sediments

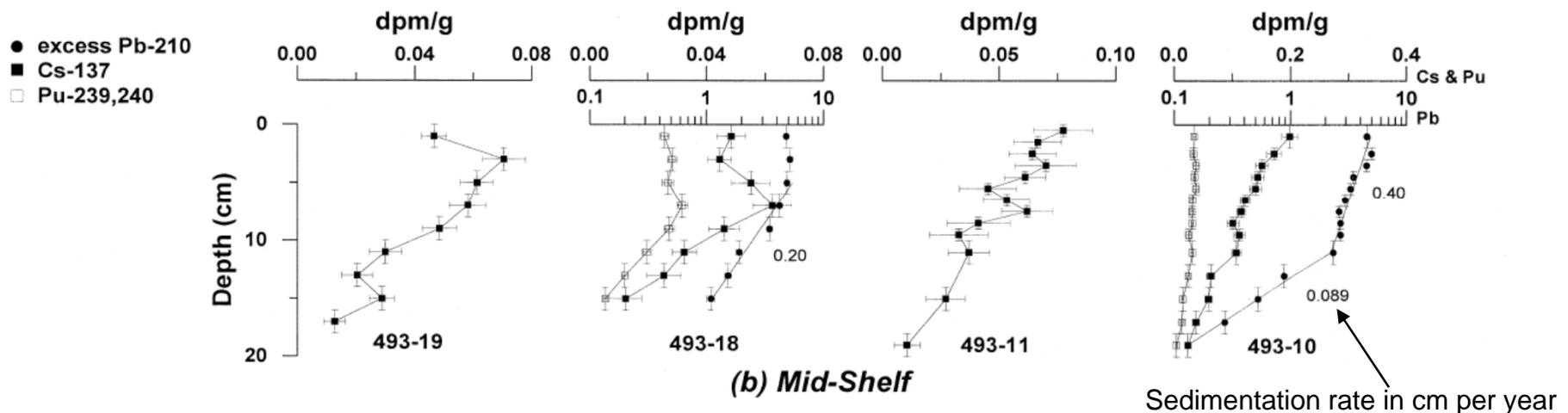
^{210}Pb , ^{137}Cs and $^{239,240}\text{Pu}$ as tracers.

Pb-210 is a naturally occurring radioactive element that is part of the [Uranium-238 Radioactive decay series](#), and has a [half life](#) of 22.3 years. To determine the amount of Pb-210 , the [alpha radiation](#) emitted by another element, [polonium-210](#) (Po-210), is measured.[50](#)

^{210}Pb is the most commonly used chronometer (using ^{210}Pb profile) for estimating sedimentation rates in near-shore environments.

To constrain ^{210}Pb based sedimentation rates, distributions of ^{137}Cs and Pu are also measured.

An example from the East China Sea



From Hu and Su (1999) Marine Geology, 160, 183-196.