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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A PALEO-GEOMAGNETIC STUDY OF PLEISTOCENE SEDIMENTS IN
NORTHWESTERN CANADA

by

KEVIN PAUL GILLEN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

GEOPHYSICS

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1988

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled A PALEO-GEOMAGNETIC STUDY OF PLEISTOCENE SEDIMENTS IN NORTHWESTERN CANADA submitted by KEVIN PAUL GILLEN in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF SCIENCE in GEOPHYSICS.

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Abstract

A total of 626 specimens was collected in two laterally equivalent vertical sections (each approximately 20m in height) from Pleistocene sediments exposed in river bank outcrops of the Old Crow River, Yukon Territory. Paleomagnetic examination revealed remanent magnetization records of both geological and geophysical interest. A sequence of three features appearing in both sections can be correlated with results obtained from previously sampled sections some 5 km upstream. This concordance between previous and present results suggests a geomagnetic perturbing source rather than a sedimentological one.

The remarkable correlation observed allows a date for these sediments to be established paleomagnetically. Previous results come from a site where the Old Crow Tephra is preserved. The unique paleomagnetic signal associated with this tephra is found in both sections of this present study (very good in one, but poorer in the second) and therefore fixes the age of the pertinent level in these sediments as equivalent to that of the tephra ($149,000 \pm 13,000$ years B.P.).

The remainders of both sections show features consistent with the idea of a stationary magnetic source in the outer core which has acted intermittently. These features involve perturbations of the remanent magnetization vector, along linear trajectories, in excess of 60° from the ambient position expected from a geocentric axial dipole

field. Elementary magnetostatic modelling shows that even the - largest perturbation can be explained by an eccentric radial dipole at the Core-Mantle Boundary (CMB) with moment directed away from the geocentre and as small as about 8% of the moment of the main dipole. Such an outward moment vector would yield a patch of reverse flux at the CMB, very similar in many respects to patches of reverse flux currently existing in the southern hemisphere.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The bulk of the magnetic field at the Earth's surface has its origin in the interior of the planet. Many of the methods used today to analyze the field, as well as the terms used to describe its character, have a considerable history. Thus a proper understanding of the present state of geomagnetism begins with a study of the past.

A. Magnetism

Some properties of magnetism are claimed by some historians to have been known in China as early as the second millenium B.C. and the Chinese are credited with the invention of the compass. After its introduction into Europe, it was noted that although the needle pointed roughly North (as defined by the pole star), it usually diverged by a small amount. This angular difference in one's local horizontal plane between true north and the compass went by various names but is today called *declination*. Sailors using the compass to navigate had to correct for this effect. When the needle was suspended through its centre of gravity and allowed to orientate itself in three dimensions, it was discovered that it also assumed an inclined position. This measure of the field is called *Inclination* and is defined as the deviation of the field from the local horizontal plane. In the beginning, this property was probably a nuisance since the needle had to be weighted in order to force it to sit horizontally and give

the measure of declination which was desired for navigation.

These measures of the field have remained with us to the present day, and along with a measure of the intensity, totally define the geomagnetic vector at a point of observation.

In the early stages of compass use, the origin of the force which caused the needle to orientate was unknown and surrounded by much folklore. In 1600, Sir William Gilbert, in his famous work "De Magnete", put forth the suggestion that the Earth is a great magnet, a conclusion which he had drawn from experimentation with a sphere cut from lodestone. This model was successful in predicting some of the observed characteristics of the geometry of the field, such as the increase of inclination with latitude which was subsequently confirmed by Hudson during his voyage in the Barents Sea in the early seventeenth century.

In 1634 Gellibrand discovered that the magnetic declination at London changed with time. This time-dependent behaviour of the field cast some doubt on the simple model of the Earth as a permanently magnetized body. It was later discovered that changes also occur in the inclination and intensity.

The suggestion of the dipolar nature of the Earth's field did, however, come to be verified. Gauss (1839), in his spherical harmonic expansion of the field in terms of the sum of multipoles, showed the dipole term to be dominant and in the process, verified that the field was of

predominantly internal origin. This initial work was done with the best data available at the time, which were sparse, but subsequent analyses with modern data have confirmed that the dipole term constitutes 95% of the total field as seen at the Earth's surface, while the remaining 5% represents the sum of the non-dipole terms. From this discovery naturally grew the custom of discussing the properties of the field in terms of its *dipole* and *non-dipole* parts, a practice which has continued to the present day.

The representation of the field as a sum of multipoles is simply a mathematical convenience, and warnings have been made of the potential dangers of thinking of these multipoles as having physical meaning. However, it was soon discovered that the changes which the Earth's field was undergoing manifested themselves differently in the dipole and non-dipole parts. For example, their time constants of change were found to be different. This led some authors (e.g. Barton, 1978) to suggest that there may actually be a physical basis which justifies the discussion of change in the total field in terms of its dipole and non-dipole components. As will be seen later, the most commonly invoked mechanism for change in the field is movement of field lines by circulation of fluid in the outer core, and since this process involves the main field, it is not at first glance apparent why the two parts should possess different modes of change and different time constants.

There have been several suggestions as to why these differences exist. For example, Le Mouel (1984) has calculated that the types of motions probably involved at the surface of the outer core give a time-dependent change to the non-dipole field, yet such motions are not involved in sustaining the axial dipolar part of the field and thus do not affect it significantly.

The changes in the field as recorded at magnetic observatories such as London and Paris (Figure 1-1) were observed to occur primarily as a result of changes in the non-dipole part. Such studies of the time-dependent behaviour of the field at several sites lead to the suggestion that the changes observed at these places were not only due to a time-dependent morphology change of the non-dipole field but also to a rotation of the field. This drifting phenomenon has been termed the "westward drift" because the movement is predominantly westwards. Bullard et al (1950) shifted several decades of non-dipole field data around the spin axis to the point of best match and thereby determined an average drift rate of $0.2^\circ/\text{year}$ to the west. It must, however, be emphasized that changing non-dipole features are regional, not global in their extent, and thus the above figure is an average. Not all of the field drifts in a westward sense (in fact, not only do some parts stand still, but at some locations eastward drift is observed). This behaviour has been likened to a drifting weather pattern which predominantly drifts westward but exhibits

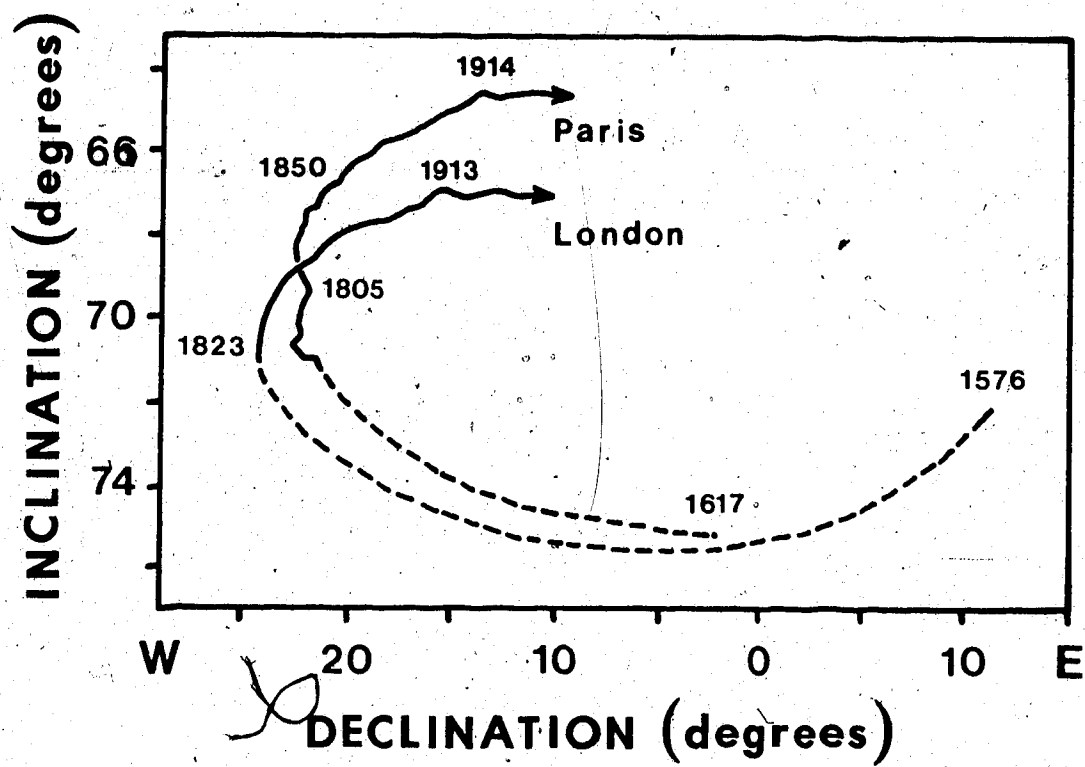


Figure 1-1: Inclination - declination variations at London and Paris (after Gaiber-Puertas, 1953).

regions in which some eastward movement occurs. A drifting feature in the non-dipole field is shown in Figure 1-2. Rates of change of the non-dipole field at the Earth's surface can be contoured as isoporic maps and reveal centres of high and low secular variation termed *isoporic foci*. Drift analysis, when applied to these foci gives a drift rate of $0.3^\circ/\text{year}$ westward (Bullard et al., 1950). This higher rate results from the fact that stationary features in the non-dipole field are not present in an isoporic plot and thus do not contribute to bringing the average down. This is referred to as the *westward drift of the secular variation* whereas the former is known as the *westward drift of the non-dipole field*.

That part of the non-dipole field which does not appear to drift, exhibits regions which change their strength with time. The Mongolian positive anomaly, for instance, has strengthened with time at a linear rate of 53 nT/year over the past several hundred years while maintaining the same latitude and longitude throughout (Yukutake and Tachinaka, 1968) and is now at a level of 18,000 nT. The evolution of this anomaly with time is illustrated in Figure 1-2.

The main dipole (given by the first 3 terms in the spherical harmonic expansion) has also been observed to undergo some time-dependent behaviour. It has decreased in strength by 7% over the past 150 years (Bloxham & Gubbins, 1985). In fact, this appears to be part of a larger trend of main dipole decrease, as deduced from archeomagnetism.

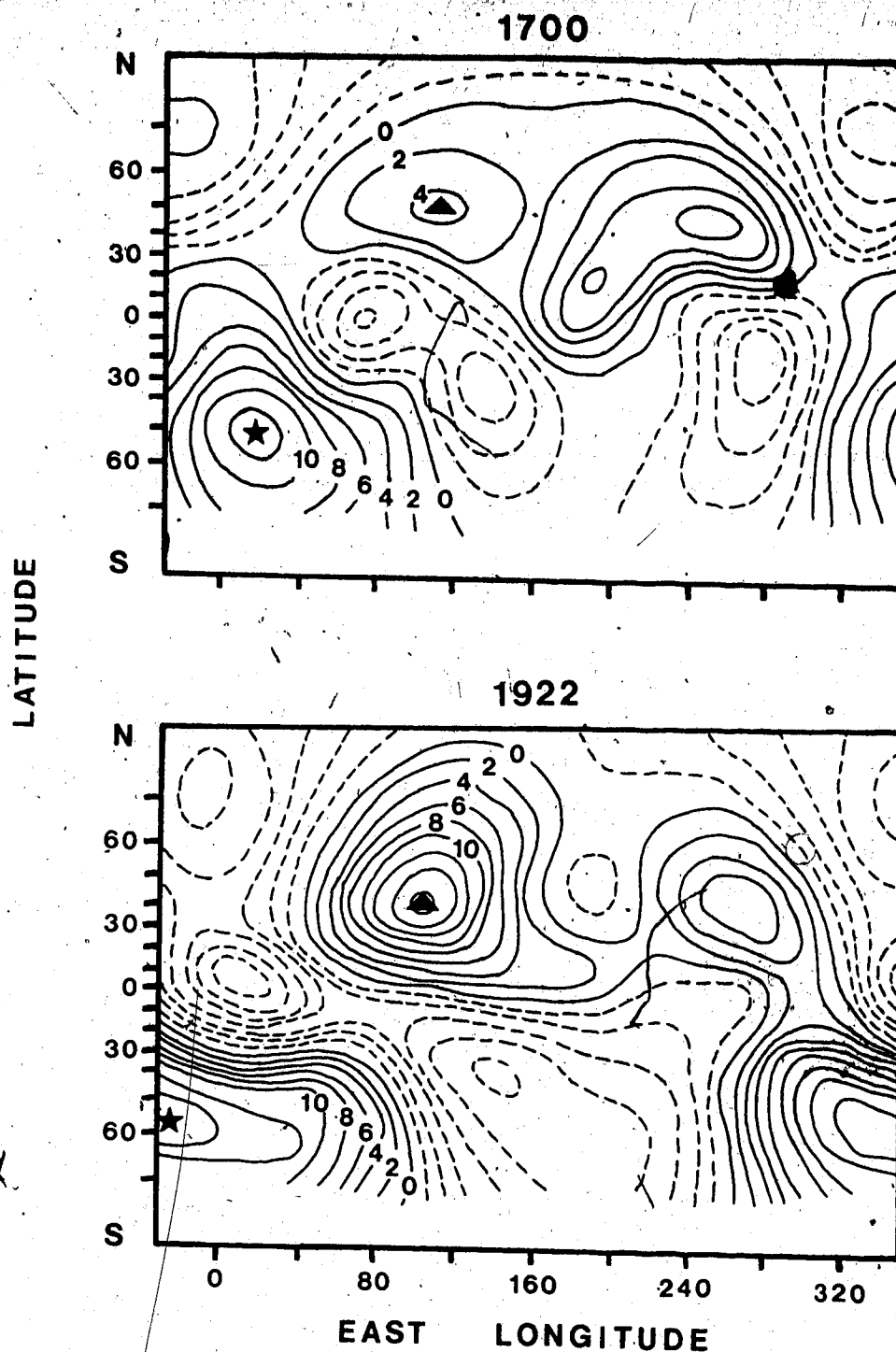


Figure 1-2: Anomalies in the vertical component of the non-dipole field at 1700 and 1922 A.D. Contour interval is 2000 nT, with solid line denoting +Z and dashed line representing -Z features. The triangle marks the position of a stationary feature which has strengthened over time (Mongolian anomaly). The star marks a westward drifting anomaly (after Yukutake and Tachinaka, 1968).

~~Archaeological materials which are able to record the~~
intensity of the field suggest that the main dipole moment has fluctuated in the past and has been as low as half and as high as twice its present value (Cox, 1968).

The orientation of the main dipole has not altered over the period of direct observation. At present, the axis is inclined at 11.5° to the axis of rotation and intersects the surface at 78.5° North, 70° West and 78.5° South, 110° East. This departure from the spin axis is attributed to *dipole wobble*. The nature and cause of dipole wobble is not understood but apparently involves a time scale of 10^5 years (too slow to be observed historically) with an average departure of about 10 degrees (McElhinny and Merrill, 1975).

In the modern field, we have not yet witnessed a complete cycle of change of any non-dipole or main dipole feature. For example, if the behaviour were periodic, the westward drifting features would take 1200 years ($0.3^\circ/\text{year}$) to complete one revolution around the Earth and data on the modern field from direct observation go back no more than about 300 years. To extend the span of observation time, it is necessary to seek out geological material from which we might glean a chronicle of past geomagnetic field behaviour. Certain sediments may fulfil this requirement. The accumulation of detrital material, layer upon layer, yields a tape recording of the time variations of the field. Each sample collected from a section functions as a "fossil compass", providing a record of the direction of the

geomagnetic field at the time the magnetization was acquired. The record obtained is that of *paleosecular variation*. More will be said about the recording process in the next section.

Paleosecular variation records obtained from lake sediment have provided evidence of both standing sources which vary in intensity and sources which drift. Westward drift at various rates (e.g. $0.13^{\circ}/\text{year}$, Creer and Tucholka, 1982) has been observed, as well as some eastward drift (Denham, 1974). Features which appear to represent standing sources of varying intensity are also evident in some records (Evans, 1984; Hedlin and Evans, 1987; Latham et al., 1987). It must be emphasized, however, that the variations observed in sediments are most often of irregular period and amplitude (Creer et al., 1976; Mackereth, 1971). Typical amplitude variations for the vector at a site are usually less than 20 degrees from the position of the ambient vector.

In addition to the above, some paleosecular variation records show features which are not observed in the modern day field. The most important are polarity reversals. In such a case, the remanent magnetization vector in the material has an orientation roughly opposite to that expected from the present day dipole field. It usually remains to be established as to whether such a record represents global reversal (g changes sign) or if it is a regional effect of some strong non-dipole disturbance. The

Second type of field behaviour seen is an anomalously large deviation from the direction expected at a given site (greater than average paleosecular variation amplitudes, but less than a full reversal). Such behaviour is usually called an *excursion*. An excursion is defined as a movement of the dipole axis away from the spin axis with amplitude greater than 40° , but not fully reversing. "Excursions" in sediment therefore indicate a location of a paleopole (ancient geomagnetic pole) which is greater than 40° from the spin axis, however it must be established that such a signal represents a global event before such a term can be applied. The nature and cause of excursions are not understood.

B. Fossil Magnetism

In a manner akin to the alignment of a compass needle, detrital magnetic grains within a matrix of sediment are brought into alignment with the geomagnetic field. Remanent magnetization acquired in this fashion is referred to as *detrital remanent magnetism* (DRM). If this process occurs at the time of deposition, it is called *depositional detrital remanent magnetism* (dDRM), whereas any realignment taking place after deposition is termed *postdepositional* DRM (pDRM) (Verosub, 1977). The realignment takes place because the water-filled pore spaces within the sediment skeleton free the smaller magnetic grains. De-watering of the sediment

usually brings a halt to further realignment. It must be noted that there are several other forces which compete with the magnetic field in the alignment of the particles (e.g. gravity, viscous forces from water flow, etc.).

Magnetic overprinting of the DRM component can take place without physical rotation of the remanence carriers. When exposed to a field different from that which gave the DRM, the sample will sometimes pick up a component in the direction of the new field. Resistance of individual grain to such overprinting is a function of the length of time exposed to the field and of the grain's *coercive force*. Since sediment is a collection of different magnetic grains with various coercive force values, the sample as a whole displays a *coercive force spectrum*. Such overprinting can usually be removed by alternating field (AF) demagnetization. The vector sum of all the magnetic components in a sample is referred to as the NRM (natural remanent magnetism).

The above discussion deals with the recording of direction only. The field, however, is a vector and also has a strength associated with it. How do sediments record the intensity of the geomagnetic field? The resultant magnetization results from the preferential alignment of moment vectors of individual grains. Theoretically, the stronger the field, the better the alignment and hence the higher the magnetic moment (up to a maximum attained when complete alignment is reached). This process is complicated

by variable composition. Variations in the amount of magnetic material will cause corresponding variations in intensity of magnetization. As a result, reliable paleofield intensities are rarely recovered from sediment.

C. Scope of thesis

The nature of paleosecular variation as recorded in sediment of Pleistocene age from the Old Crow Basin, Yukon Territory, Canada is examined. Two laterally equivalent vertical sections (approximately 20m and 21m in length) were sampled at stratigraphic intervals of roughly 10cm, yielding 626 samples for paleodirectional study. Fidelity of the material as a recorder of the Earth's field is established and the resultant remanent magnetization sequences are examined. Some perturbations present in this sequence of interest are modelled as sources located in the outer core, and these are compared with present day field characteristics.

II. SITE DESCRIPTION AND SAMPLING

The study area is located at latitude $67^{\circ} 51' N$ and longitude $139^{\circ} 48' W$ in the Old Crow Basin, Yukon Territory, Canada (Figure 2-1). The sampling sites (11 and 11N) are shown in Figure 2-2, which also shows the location of sites 15 and HH68-10 (sampled by Hedlin, 1986; Hedlin & Evans, 1987). The apparent lack of logic in the naming of these four sites is the result of the numerous investigations carried out by many different researchers over the past few decades.

The Basin itself is the product of deposition in glacial lakes formed as a result of ice damming during the Illinoian and Wisconsinan ice ages. Absence of these lakes during non-glacial periods allowed rivers to form fluvial deposits. The Old Crow and Porcupine Rivers, which presently transect the Basin, have cut down through this stratigraphy, thereby allowing it to be studied in riverbank sections. The limits of the last two ice advances (Figure 2-1) were such that the Basin was spared the effects of glaciation. Thus the NRM's recorded in the sediments potentially provide a relatively undisturbed and continuous record of the behaviour of the Earth's magnetic field during part of the Pleistocene.

A composite section of the relevant geology is given in Figure 2-3, in which Morlan and Matthews (1978) recognize nine units. This stratigraphy was compiled from several bluffs along the Old Crow valley and thus not all units are

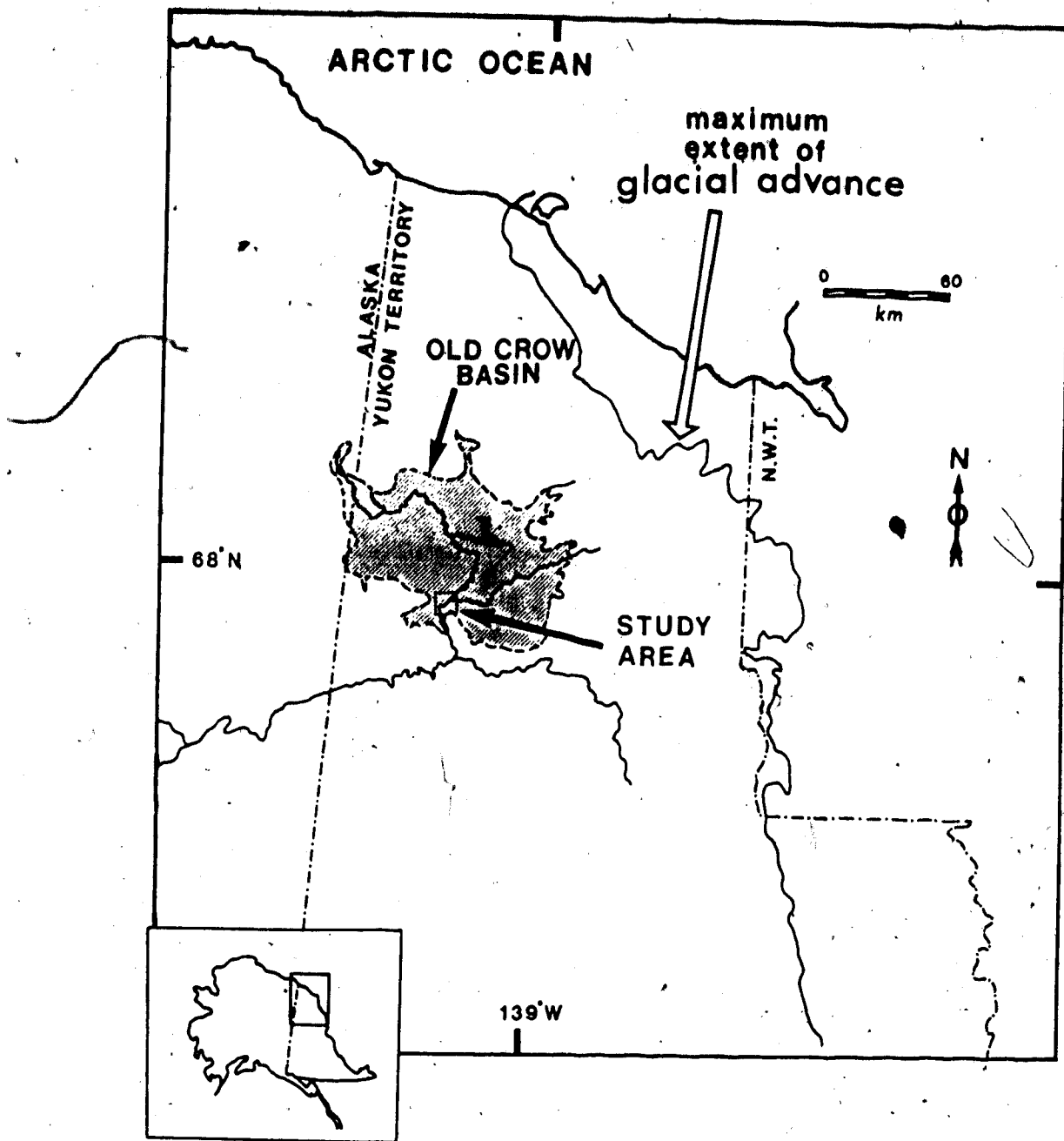


Figure 2-1: Location of the study area.

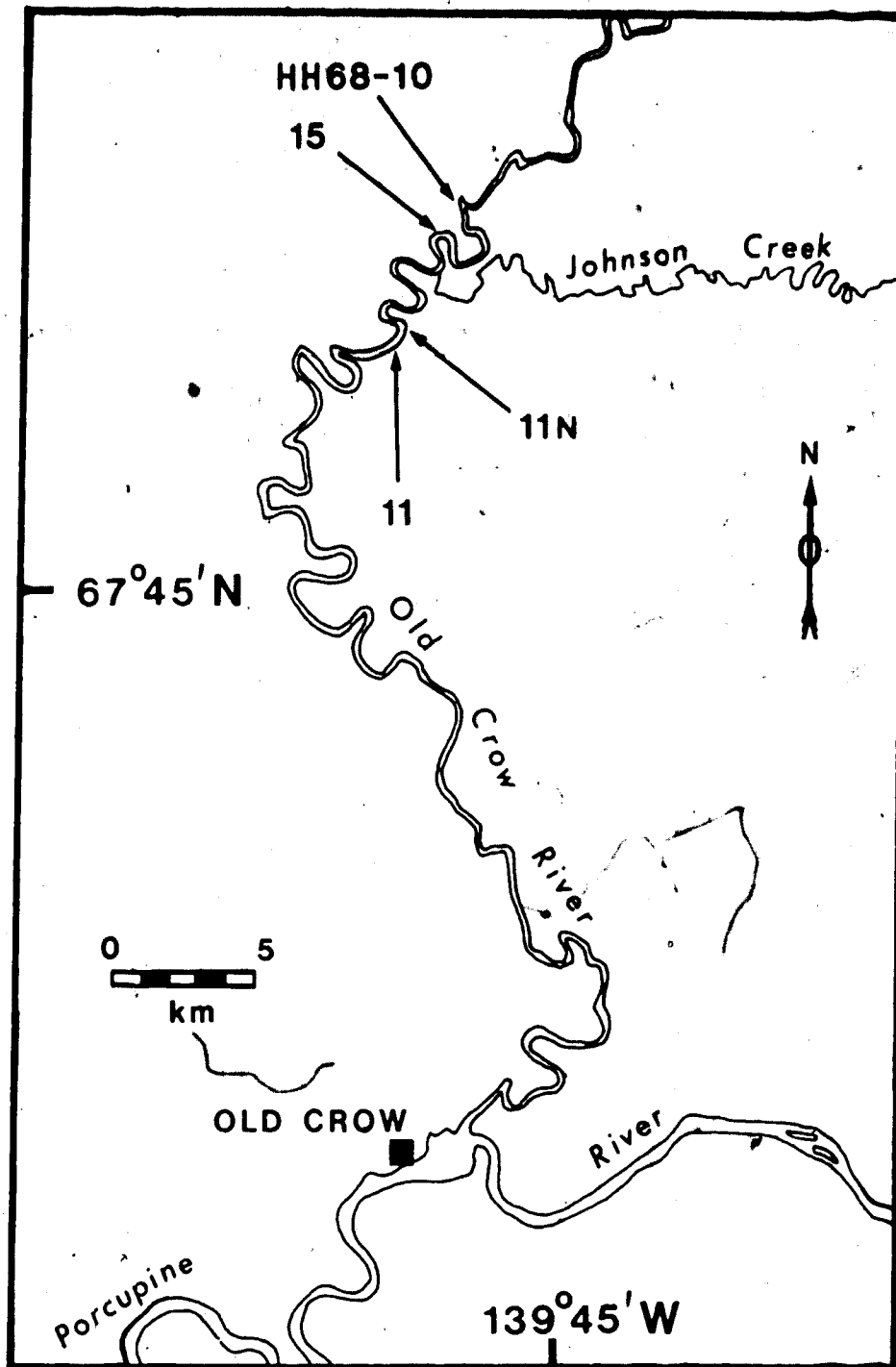


Figure 2-2: Location of sites 11 and 11N on the Old Crow River. Sites 15 and HH68-10 from Hedlin (1986) are also shown.

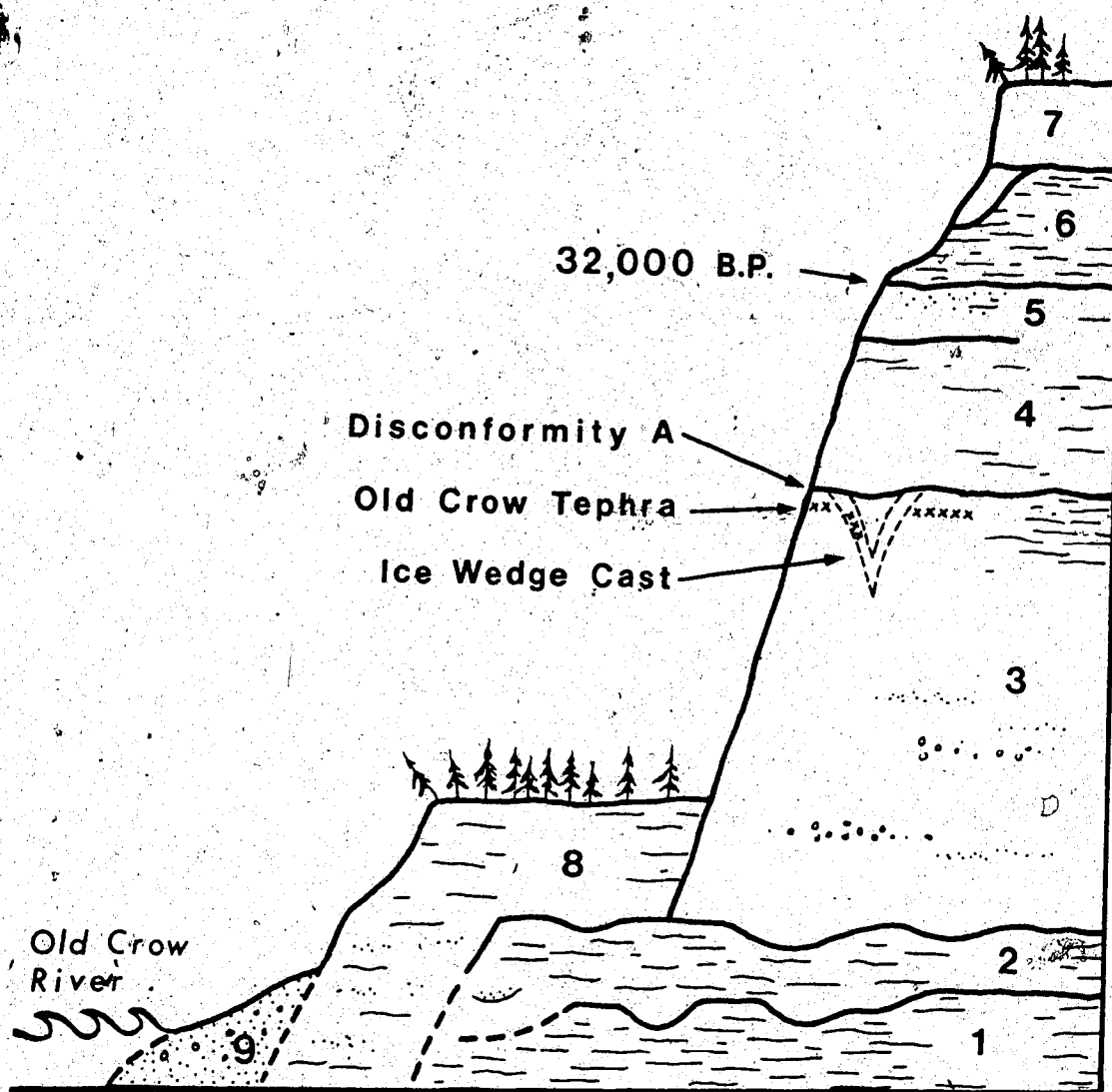


Figure 2-3: Composite stratigraphy of the Old Crow Basin. The numbers 1 through 9 denote the units as recognized by Morlan and Matthews (1978), the pertinent ones of which are described in the text.

necessarily represented at any individual site. Only four of the units (1,2,3 and 6) are present at sites 11 and 11N. The descriptions of these units by Morlan and Matthews are given below with additional detail from other pertinent studies where required.

Unit 1: Primary glacio-lacustrine clay, thought to be of Illinoian age.

Unit 2: Reworked glacio-lacustrine clay which may represent erosion and redeposition of unit 1.

Unit 3: Interbedded sands, silts and clays. In most outcrops, the upper bounding surface of this unit is disconformable and is referred to as disconformity A (Morlan, 1980). Below this level (generally a few tens of centimetres), an ash layer is sometimes found. This is the Old Crow Tephra which has a thermoluminescence age of $86,000 \pm 8000$ years B.P. (Westgate & Wintle, 1986). This age has inspired other researchers to look for evidence of the Blake Event (about 100,000 years B.P.) within unit 3 at various locations throughout the Basin (Hedlin & Evans, 1987; Westgate et al., 1985). The age of the Tephra is now under discussion, and is considered to be $149,000 \pm 13,000$ years old (Westgate, 1988). The Old Crow Tephra is not present at sites 11 and 11N.

Cryoturbation features may be present near the top of this unit. At some other locations, volcanic ash is preserved in the slumped material present in ice wedge

casts.

Unit 6: Glacio-lacustrine clay, with age limit at base of 32,000 years B.P. (based on carbon 14).

Two vertical sections were sampled; one at site 11 (henceforth referred to as section KGA) and a second at 11N (section KGB). These sections are separated by a lateral distance of 500 m. Both sampled intervals start approximately 1 m below the contact between units 2 and 3 and continue upwards through the whole of unit 3. Section KGA spans a little more than 19 m of sediment and contains 318 samples for paleodirectional study and an additional 13 for susceptibility measurement and other purposes, while section KGB covers just less than 21 m, from which 308 paleodirectional samples were collected and an additional 2 for susceptibility. This makes a total of 641 samples of which 626 are for paleodirectional study.

Samples were collected using small plastic cubes (8 cc internal volume) which were inserted into the exposed sediments of the valley walls of the Old Crow River. Prior to cube insertion, slumped material was removed in order to obtain a fresh face. The bulk of the cubes were inserted by slowly pressing them into the sediment with the leverage obtained from a 2 m pole in order to minimize distortion of the samples, but in the more compacted material, the cubes were tapped in with a hammer (the direct blow of which was transmitted by a wooden block). Two samples were taken at each stratigraphic horizon, the horizontal distance between

them varying from 5 to 10 cm depending on brittleness of the sediments. Whenever possible, a 10 cm vertical spacing between sampled horizons was maintained.

Orientation was accomplished using a Brunton compass (used to measure strike) and a specially designed clinometer, described by Hedlin (1986), which was used to measure dip and roll. Local magnetic declination was determined, from a total of 23 sun bearings, to be $033^{\circ}26'$ azimuth with a standard error of the mean of $6'$. After orientation, the cubes were removed from the face, and a lid was placed on each to minimize desiccation. Upon return to the laboratory, the samples were stored in a magnetically shielded room in which the ambient field is less than 50 nT (Reid, 1972).

III. NRM AND AF DEMAGNETIZATION RESULTS

NRM measurements were made on all samples from section KGA and KGB using a Schonstedt SSM spinner magnetometer. Magnetic moments were generally low (Figure 3-1), and consequently most samples were measured in either cart position 3 or 4 (position 4 being the closest to the sensor). The geometric mean of the NRM moments for sections KGA and KGB combined is $3.8 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Am}^2$, which is low in comparison to that of most geological material measured in paleomagnetic studies (igneous rock and sedimentary rock averaging $2.8 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Am}^2$ and $1.0 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Am}^2$ respectively (Tarling, 1983)). The noise level quoted by the Schonstedt manufacturing company varies between $3 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Am}^2$ and $1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Am}^2$ for the spin times used in this study. The quality of the NRM determinations was monitored throughout via the internal variance obtained from the spin sequence; each sample is spun around six axes, with two magnetic components measured each time, thus giving four estimates of each of the three orthogonal components (see Appendix A for details). Figures 3-2 and 3-3 show the NRM data for sections KGA and KGB respectively. In order to improve the reliability of these secular variation records, alternating field (AF) demagnetization was performed. The purpose of such treatment is to remove any secondary magnetic overprints which may be present. The presence of these overprints may be revealed by directional changes in the remanent magnetization (RM) vector during progressive

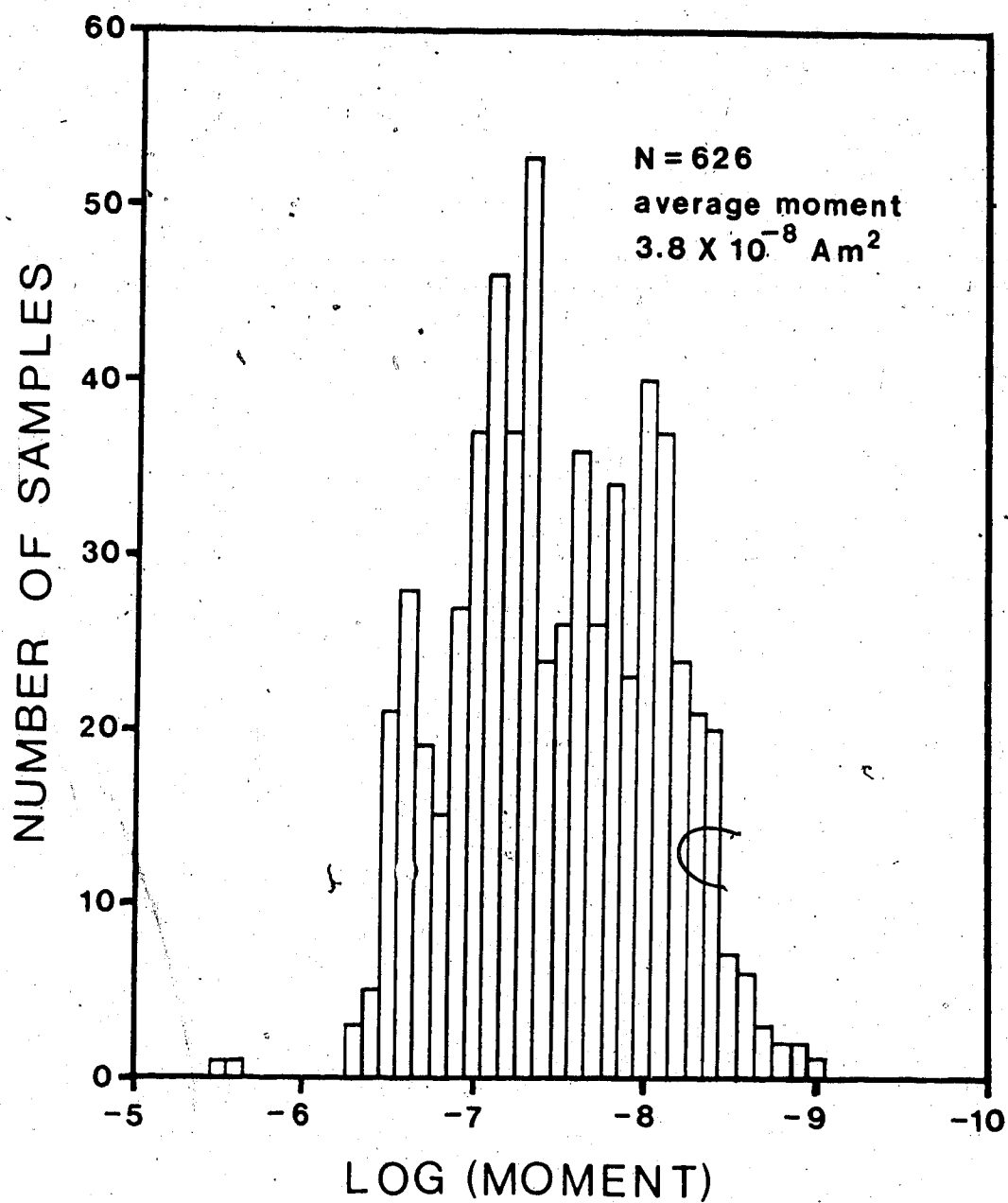


Figure 3-1: Histogram of NRM moments for sections KGA and KGB combined.

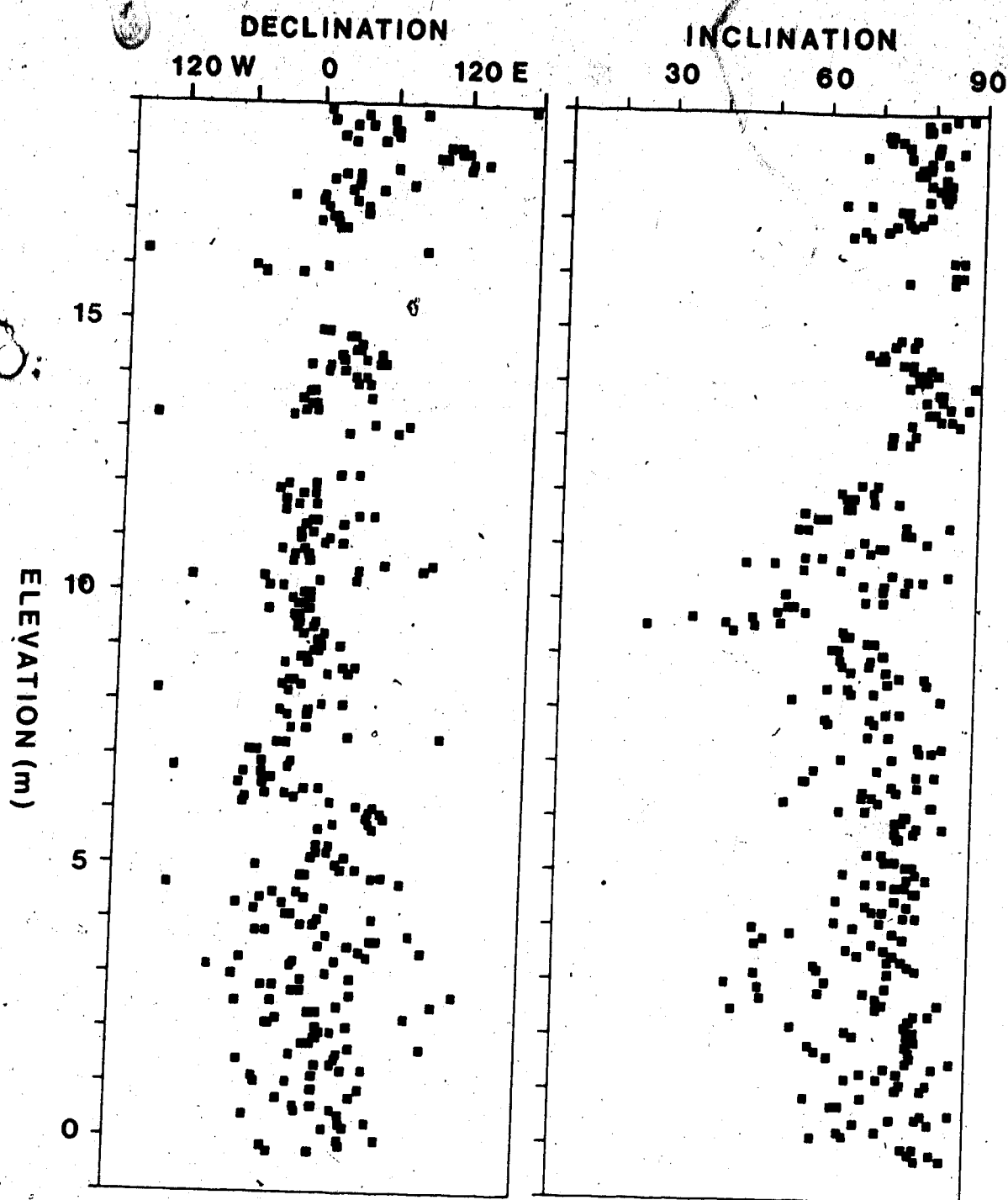


Figure 3-2: Magnetograms of NRM data for section KGA. Each square represents data from a single cube.

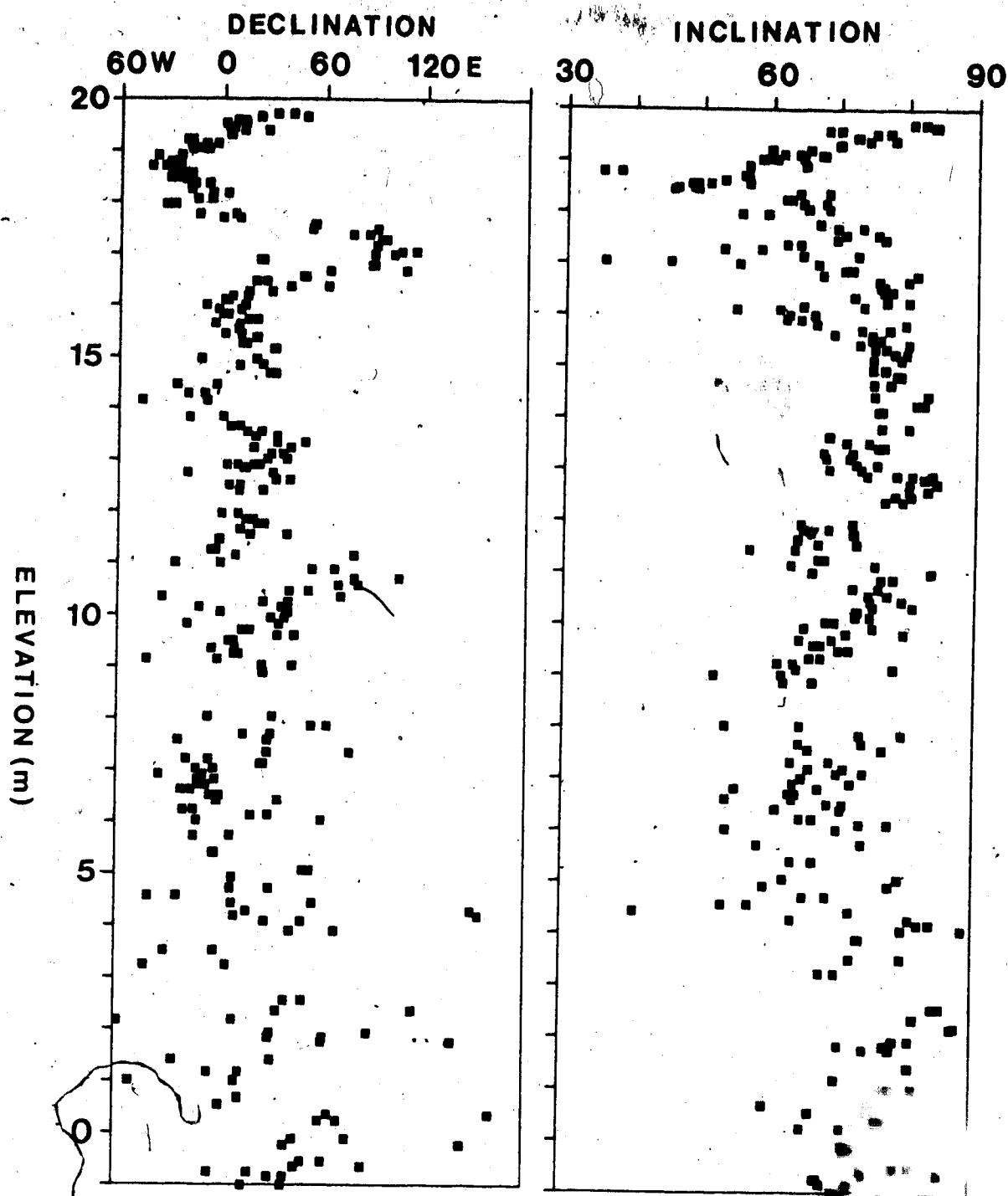


Figure 3-3: Magnetograms of NRM data for section KGB. Each square represents data from a single cube.

demagnetization. In such cases, cleaning is deemed to be complete when the angular movement of the vector has stopped (McElhinny & Gough, 1963; As & Zijdeveld, 1958). Twenty pilot samples were selected from sections KGA and KGB (10 from each) and subjected to detailed AF treatment with the goal of selecting the most effective peak field level for blanket treatment of the remaining samples. The equipment used was virtually identical to that described by Murthy (1969). Demagnetization steps were 0, 2.5, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, and 50 mT. A plot of normalized moment versus peak field is shown in Figure 3-4. The median destructive field (that field at which half of the original moment is destroyed) is 24 mT.

To assess changes in direction, the results from each sample were plotted on an equal area projection. This revealed that the bulk of the samples underwent little movement (only a few degrees) during the first few steps. After this level, some samples experienced large swings and became more difficult to measure, as their moments were quite low (less than 50% of their initial value) and the internal variance became large. This behaviour is demonstrated by sample KGA278 in Figure 3-5. The amount of movement seen between demagnetization steps depends on the size of the field increment. This can, to some extent, be compensated for by dividing the angular movement by the AF increment (Figure 3-6). This reveals a broad minimum between the 5 and 30 mT steps. Since the goal of demagnetization is

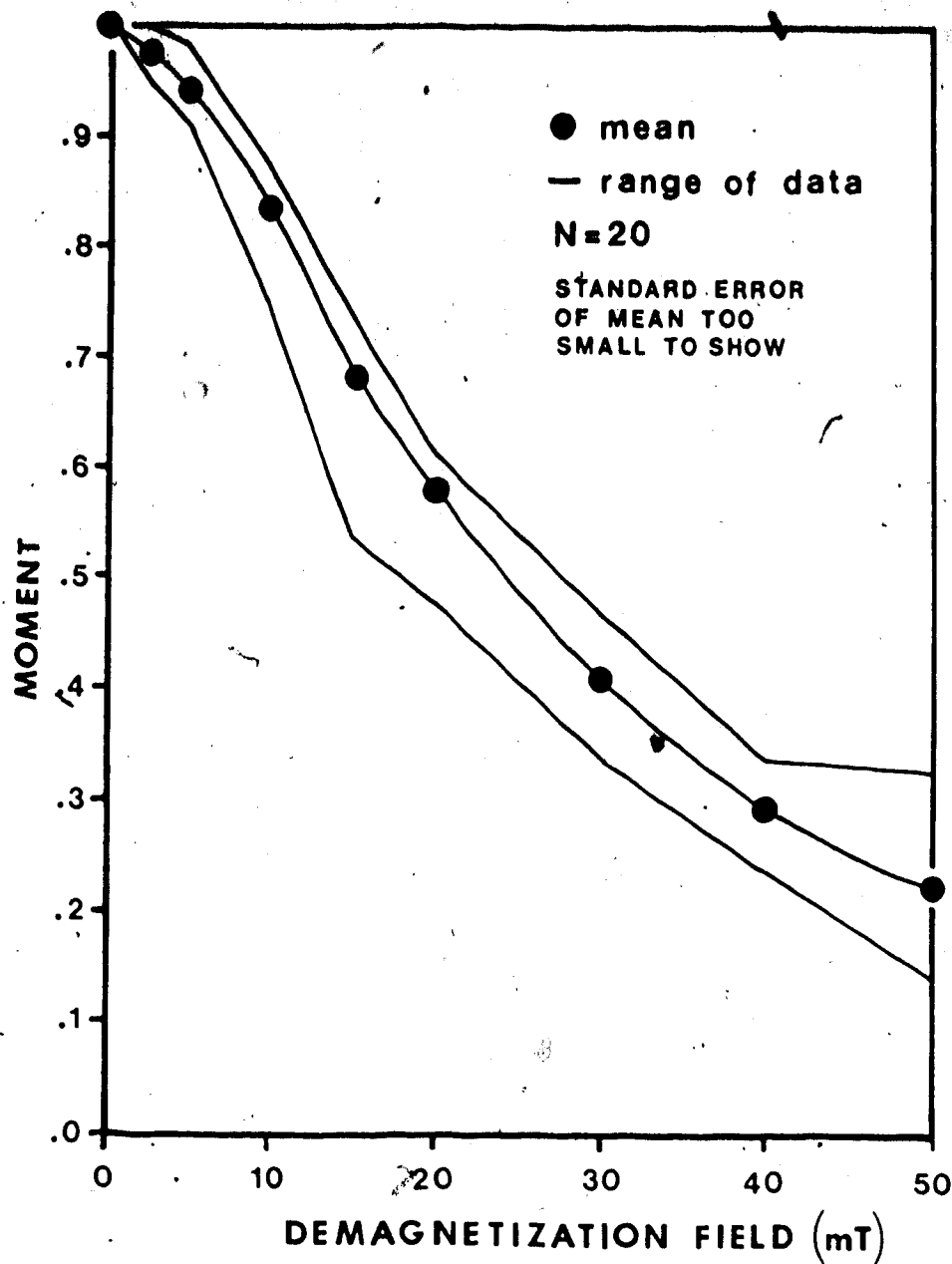


Figure 3-4: Normalized moment versus demagnetizing field (mT). Solid dots are average values of 20 data points. Solid bounding lines represent the overall range.

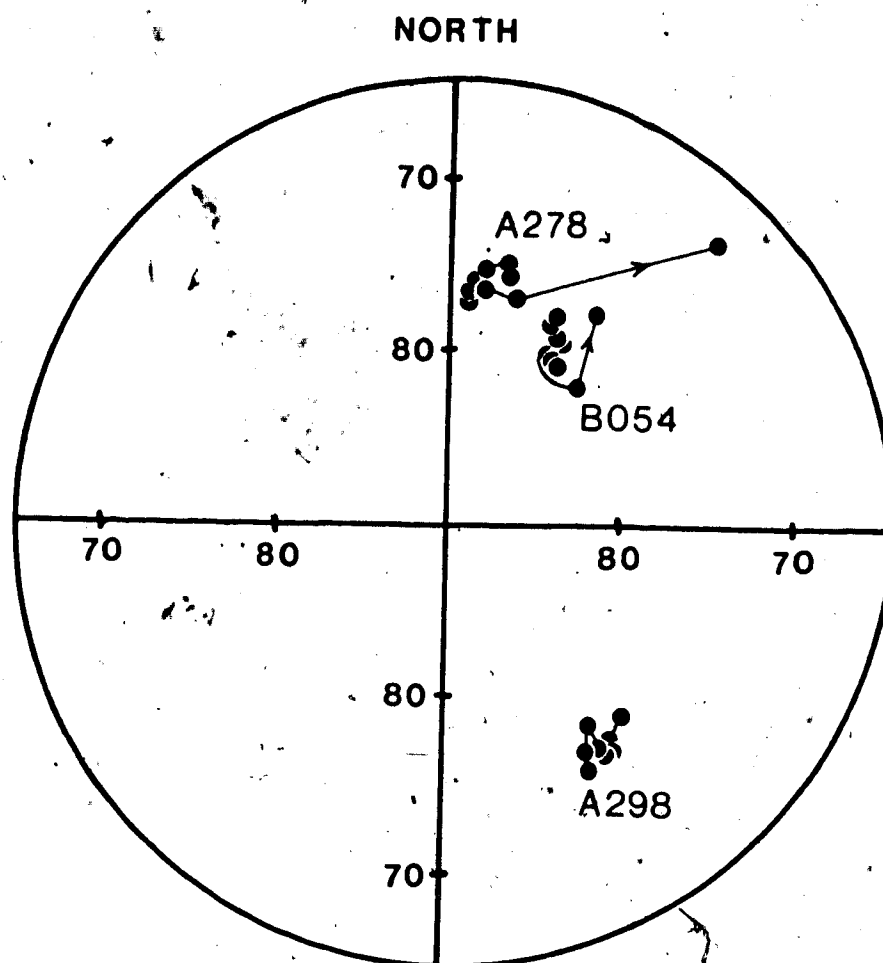


Figure 3-5: Typical pilot sample behaviour during demagnetization. (Equal area polar projection).

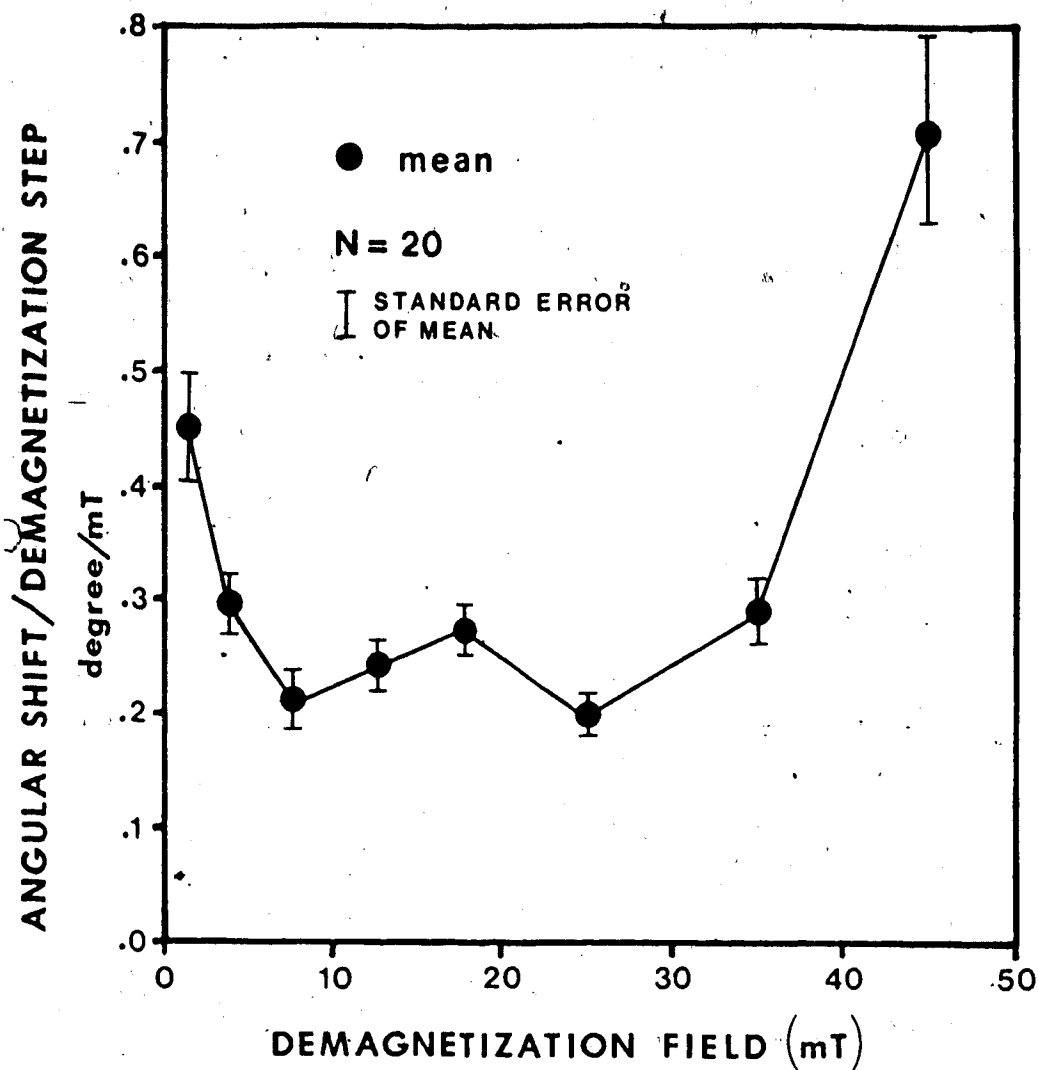


Figure 3-6: Angular shift between successive demagnetization steps normalized by increment of demagnetization field (degrees/mT). The solid dots are average values of 20 data points and are plotted at the midpoints between successive demagnetization steps.

to remove any secondary overprints with minimal degradation of the sample moment, it was decided to choose a peak value at the lower end of this broad minimum, and hence a peak field of 10 mT was selected for further blanket treatment.

During the initial stages of cleaning, it was noticed that the internal variance of most samples increased over their previous level for the NRM measurements. Large integration numbers (long spin times) were employed in an effort to bring down the internal variance of individual measurements and for some samples spin times of up to two hours were used. Even with this, many samples failed to improve, and some still got worse. It was therefore decided that some of the remaining samples were not of adequate quality to warrant this time-consuming treatment. The quality decreases towards the base of both sections, thus all samples in the zone 6 to 19 m from KGA, and those between 9 m and 21 m in KGB were demagnetized. Below these levels, only those pairs with promising initial internal variance were cleaned; this amounts to only 14 samples out of a total of 104 for KGA and 15 out of 106 for KGB.

Behaviour of the pilot samples predicted that any overprints would effectively be removed by the 10 mT alternating field and that the total movement during this treatment should be small (less than 10° as an arbitrary upper limit). The bulk of the samples behaved as expected, however [the remanent magnetization (RM) vector of six specimens from KGA moved more than 10° during cleaning.

These samples were examined in detail by continuing the demagnetization process at 5 mT steps. Zijdeveld plots shown in Figure 3-7 show movement towards the origin after 10 mT, suggesting that the characteristic RM has, in fact, been isolated by blanket cleaning.

The resulting declination and inclination profiles are illustrated in Figures 3-8 and 3-9. The strong similarity of these plots to their respective NRM counterparts confirms the previous assertion that the choice of 10 mT was not a critical one. Note that the data plotted are that which remained after an internal variance cutoff of 11° was applied (see Appendix A for details). Of the original 626 samples only 366 (59%) remain, 180 of the 260 rejected samples being lost at the base of both sections. This is a heavy price but worthwhile as the remaining secular variation sequences are of high quality.

The average vector removed during demagnetization may be found by examining the Fisher statistics of both the NRM and 10 mT data. In a Fisherian distribution, a group of directions is expressed as a vector mean direction with a confidence limit defined by a cone about this direction with semi-angle α . The most common level of confidence used in practice is the 95% level, hence this level is referred to as α_{95} (see Fisher, 1953; Watson, 1956).

The vector average for the 10 mT data of section KGA is declination (D) 350.5° and inclination (I) 72.3° with α_{95} of 2.1° (N=180), while the direction of the corresponding NRM

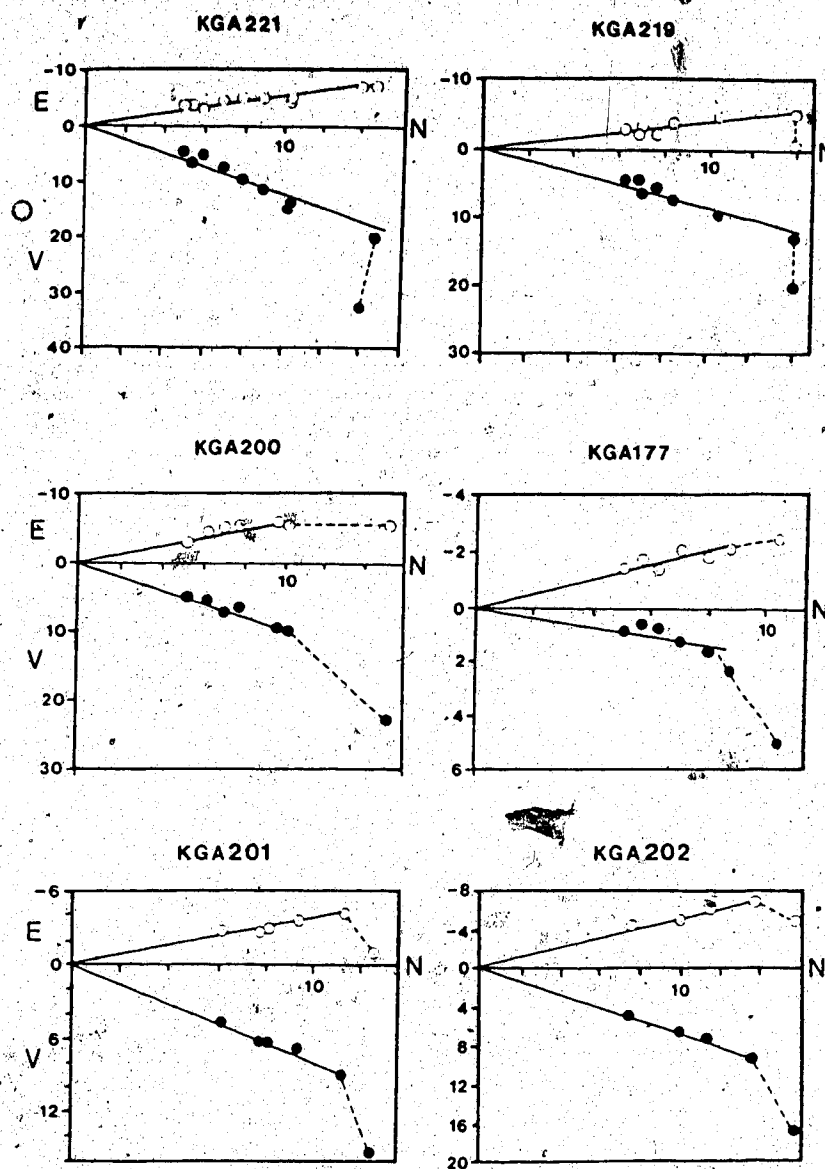


Figure 3-7: Zijdeveld plots of further demagnetization performed on KGA samples the magnetizations of which moved by more than 10° during blanket cleaning of 10 mT. Points represent projections on orthogonal planes (labelled accordingly). The top box in each plot is the east-north (E-N) plane, while the bottom is the vertical-north (V-N).

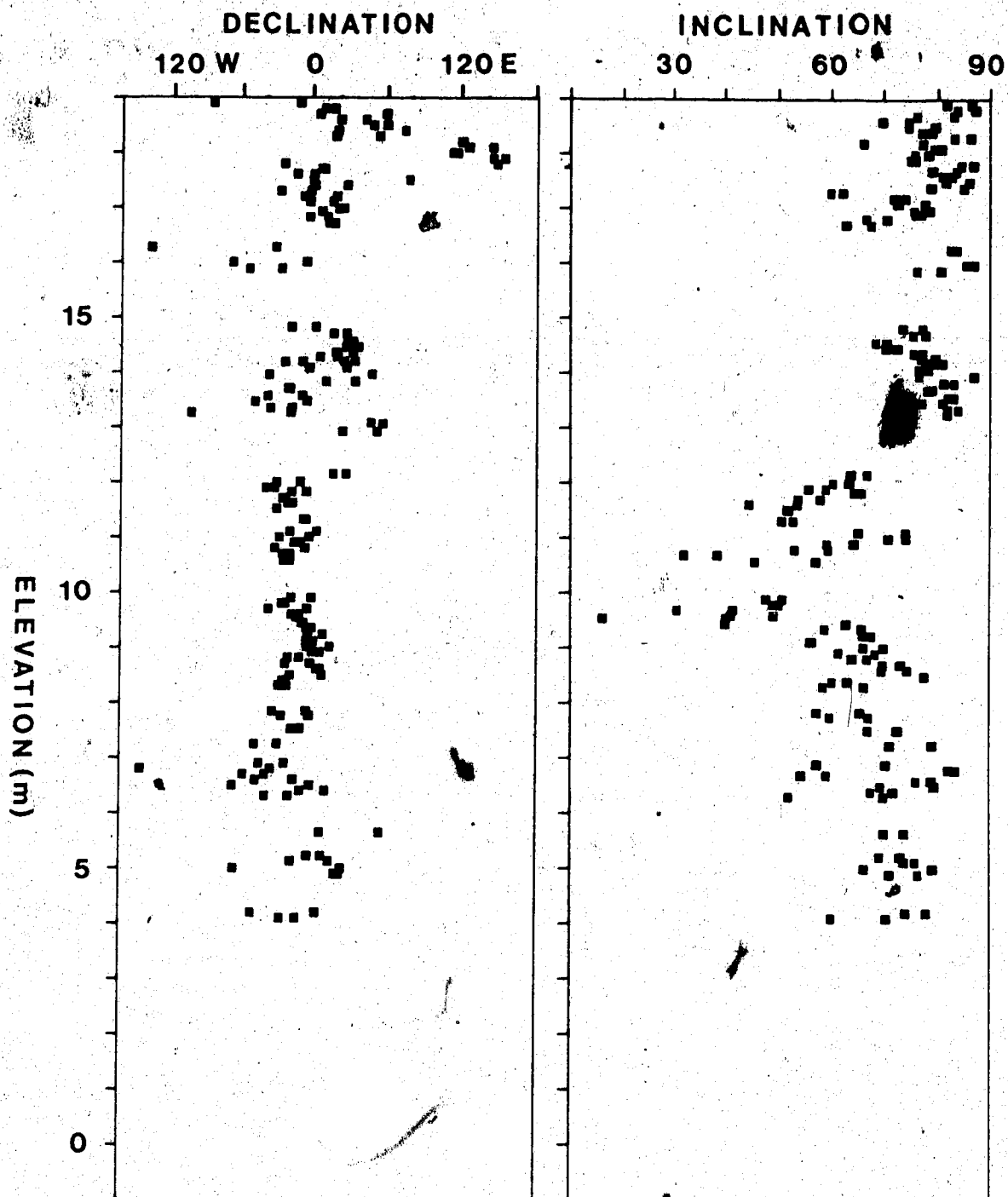


Figure 3-8: Magnetograms for 10 mT data from section KGA. Internal variance cut-off of 11.0° has been applied (see appendix A for details).

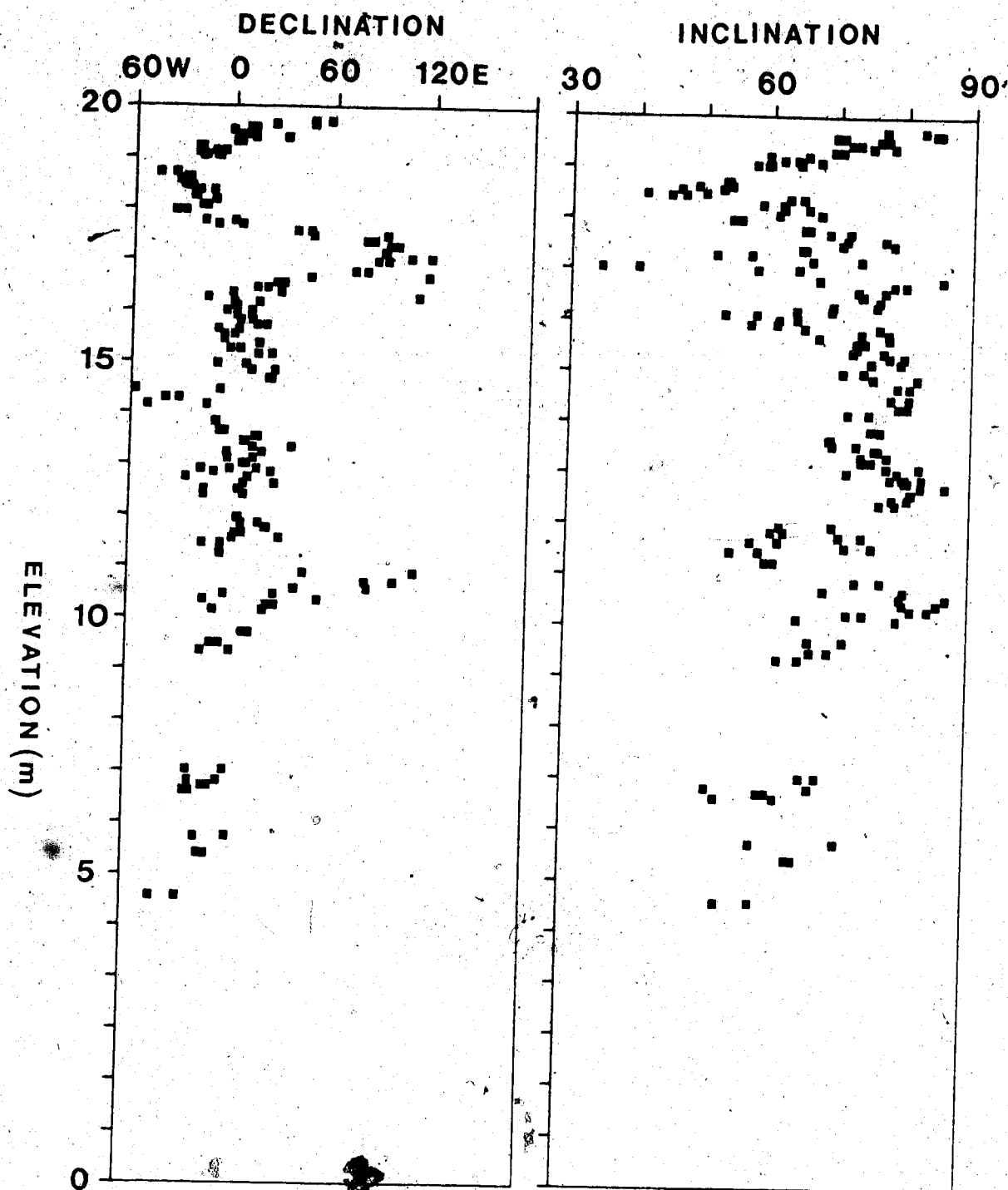


Figure 3-9: Magnetograms for 10 mT data from section KGB. Internal variance cut-off of 11.0° has been applied (see appendix A for details).

points is $D=000.8^\circ$ $I=74.3^\circ$ with $\alpha_{95} = 1.8^\circ$ ($N=180$). This represents a general movement away from the present Earth's field (82° at 033°) of only 3.6° . This movement away from the present field suggests that this low coercivity component is a viscous overprint from the present day field at this site (Figure 3-10).

The vector average for the 10 mT data of section KGB is $D=002.7^\circ$ $I=72.7^\circ$ with α_{95} of 2.0 ($N=186$), whereas the corresponding NRM points give an average of $D=009.5^\circ$ $I=73.2^\circ$ ($\alpha_{95}=1.9$). As in the case of KGA, the movement is small (2.1°) and is generally away from the present field. Table 3-1 summarizes the statistics for KGA, KGB and both sections combined.

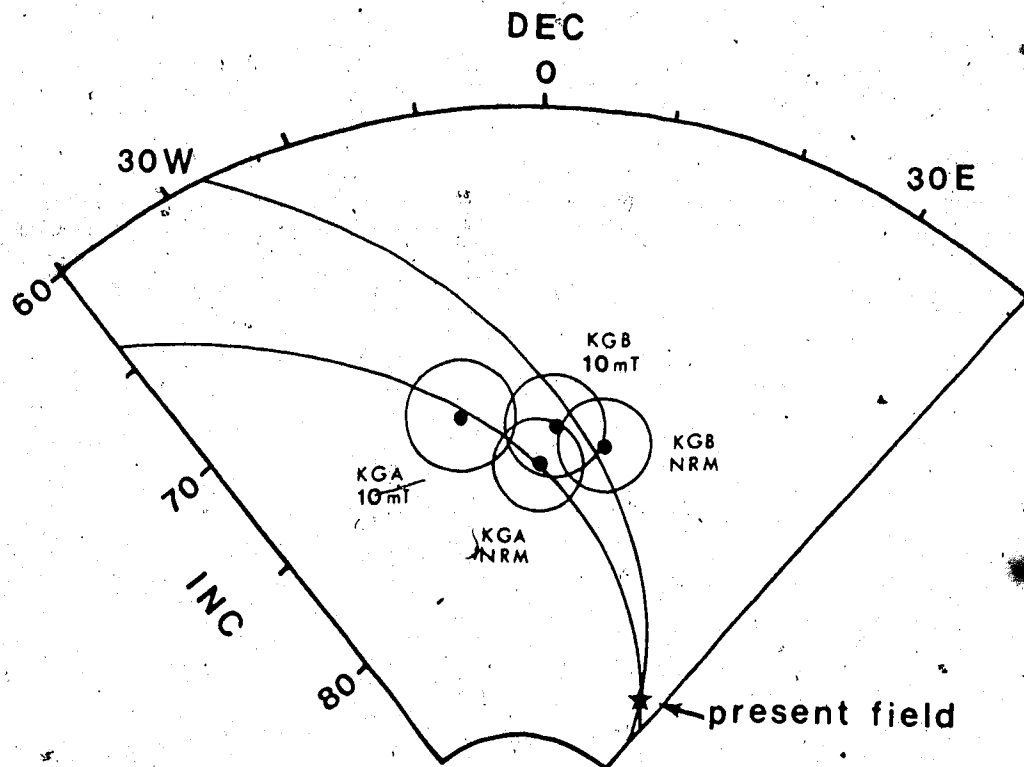


Figure 3-10: Vector averages for NRM and 10 mT data of KGA and KGB. The circles about the points are the associated α_{95} , and the curves are great circles.

	DEC	INC	$\alpha 95$	N	MOVEMENT
KGA NRM	000.8	74.3	1.8	180	3.6
KGA 10 mT	350.5	72.3	2.1	180	
KGB NRM	009.5	73.5	1.9	186	2.1
KGB 10 mT	002.7	72.7	2.0	186	
KGA and KGB NRM	005.3	73.9	1.3	366	2.8
KGA and KGB 10 mT	356.6	72.6	1.4	366	

Table 3-1: Table of vector statistics for NRM and 10 mT data of KGA and KGB.

IV. DECLINATION AND INCLINATION OSCILLATIONS

A. Section KGA

The sampled sequence is a function of elevation, and although it is desirable to express the results as a function of time, this is not easily done. The age of the sediment is beyond the range of carbon dating and thus the organic fragments occasionally observed in the section cannot be dated by this means. Although a general rule of thumb is that clays take longer to be deposited than coarser material such as silt and sand, a reliable estimate of the exact time represented by a given thickness of sediment is virtually impossible. There is, however, one modification which can be made to the section to bring it closer to a true time series. Sand is generally deposited so rapidly when compared to silt and clay that it can be approximated as representing zero time, and therefore removed. Between 11 and 17 m there are, in fact, four sand layers, totalling 3.0 m as indicated in Figure 4-1. Also note that between the 10.3 m and 10.7 m marks there is a sequence of finely interbedded silt and sand layers (accented with a large hollow arrow). The sand layers here represent 40% of the thickness, and this interval was therefore compressed accordingly. The effects of these modifications on the magnetograms are shown in Figure 4-2. The features of interest are labelled A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5 (in order of increasing time), the divisions being more or less

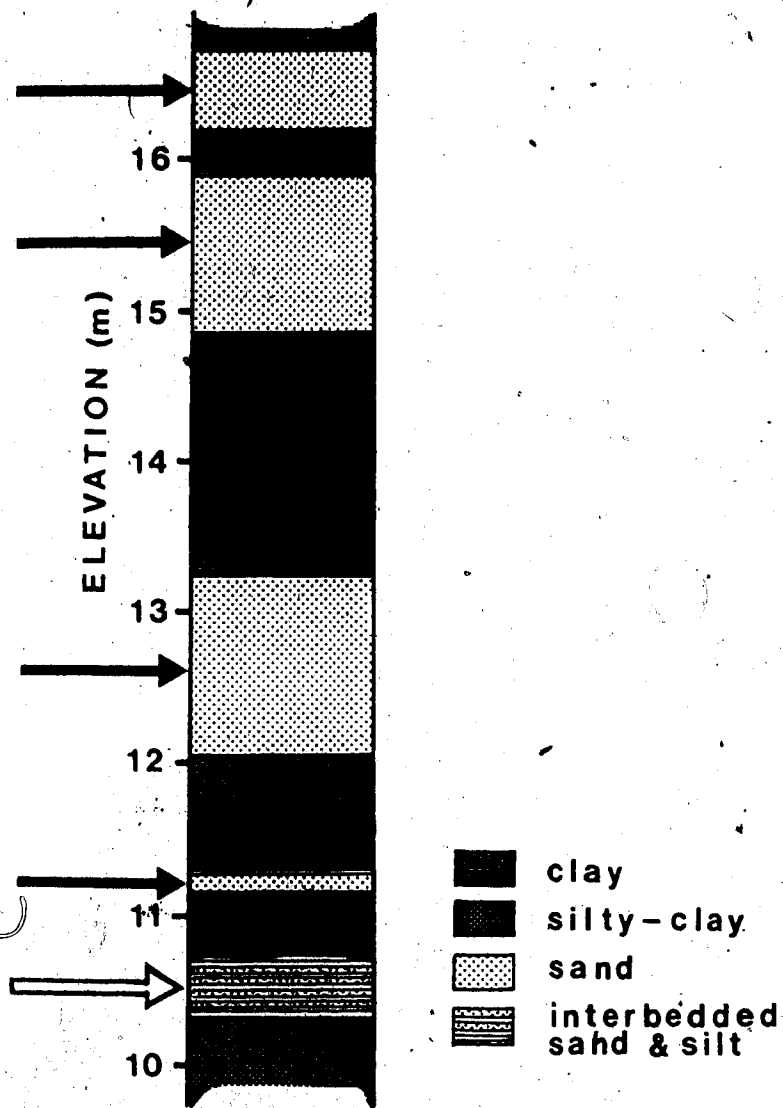


Figure 4-1: Lithology between 10 m and 17 m of section KGA. The solid arrows mark the sands to be removed. The hollow arrow highlights the zone of 40% sand.

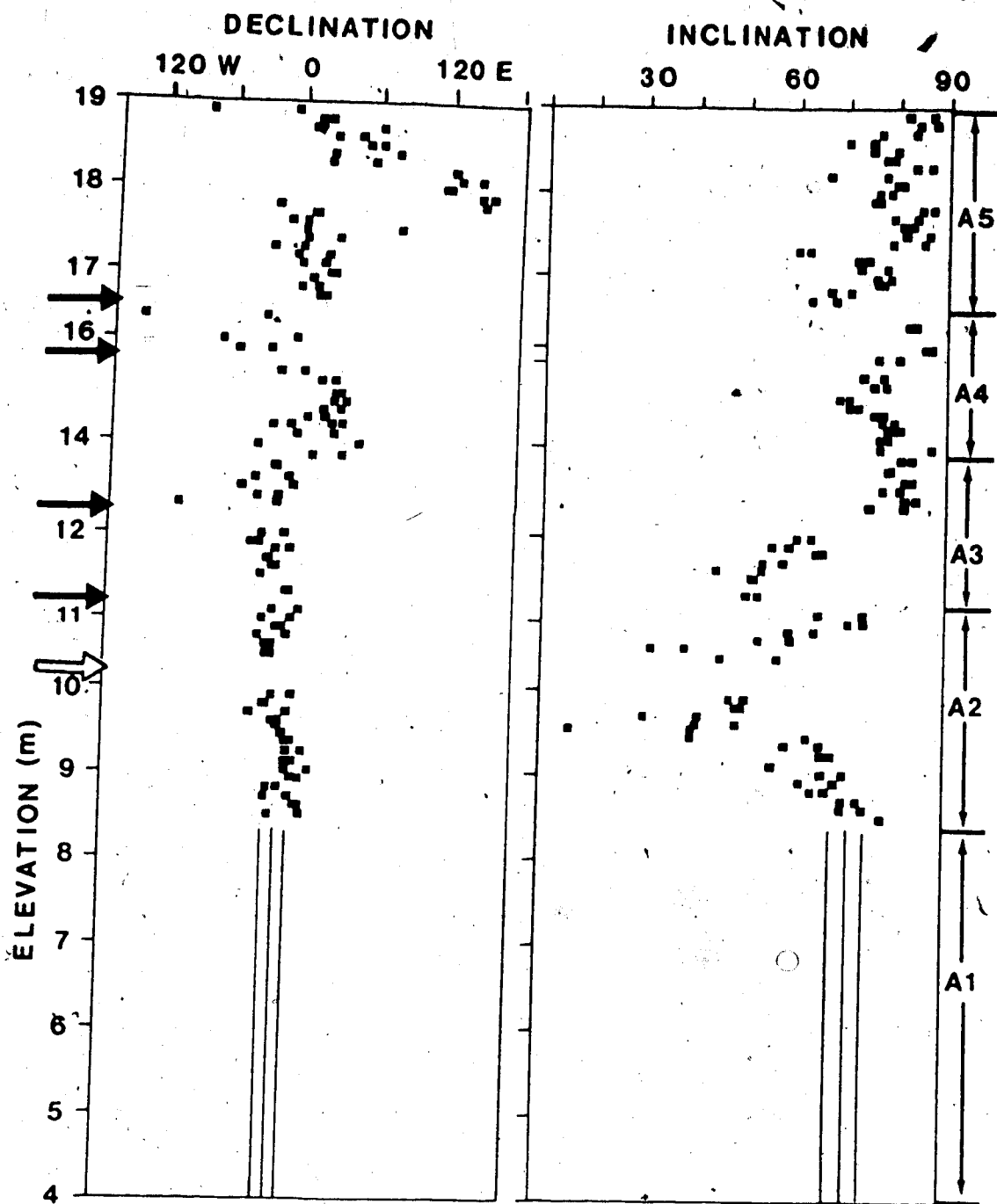


Figure 4-2: Expanded version of Figure 3-8 after removal of sand layers. The arrows of Figure 4-1 are indicated. Features of interest are labelled on the right.

arbitrary. Starting at the 4.0 m mark, we progress upwards through A1, the top of which is arbitrarily defined as the 8.4 m mark. The internal variance cutoff of 11° resulted in the rejection of 34 of the original 76 samples in this interval, leaving only 21 pairs over 4.4 m. Consequently, the resulting density of sampling is too low for investigation of secular variation and the data over this interval have simply been averaged as indicated (refer to Figure 3.8 for original data).

Feature A2 begins at the 8.4m mark and runs to 11.3m, a distance of 2.7m on this modified elevation scale. Magnetograms such as those in Figure 4-2 facilitate the recognition of individual features within the RM record, but in order to visualize the movement of the vector in three dimensions, equal area plots are more effective (Figure 4-3). Note that only those pairs in which the angular difference between individual pair members was less than 10° are plotted in Figure 4-3. The reasoning behind this need not concern us at this time and will be discussed later in this section. Suffice it to say for the present that, under enforcement of this criterion, only the highest quality data are preserved.

The character of the perturbation path for A2 (lefthand side of diagram) is a linear one, there being changes in inclination with relatively little change in declination. The shallowest direction attained is 35.3° at 22.8° west of north. This feature represents a large perturbation

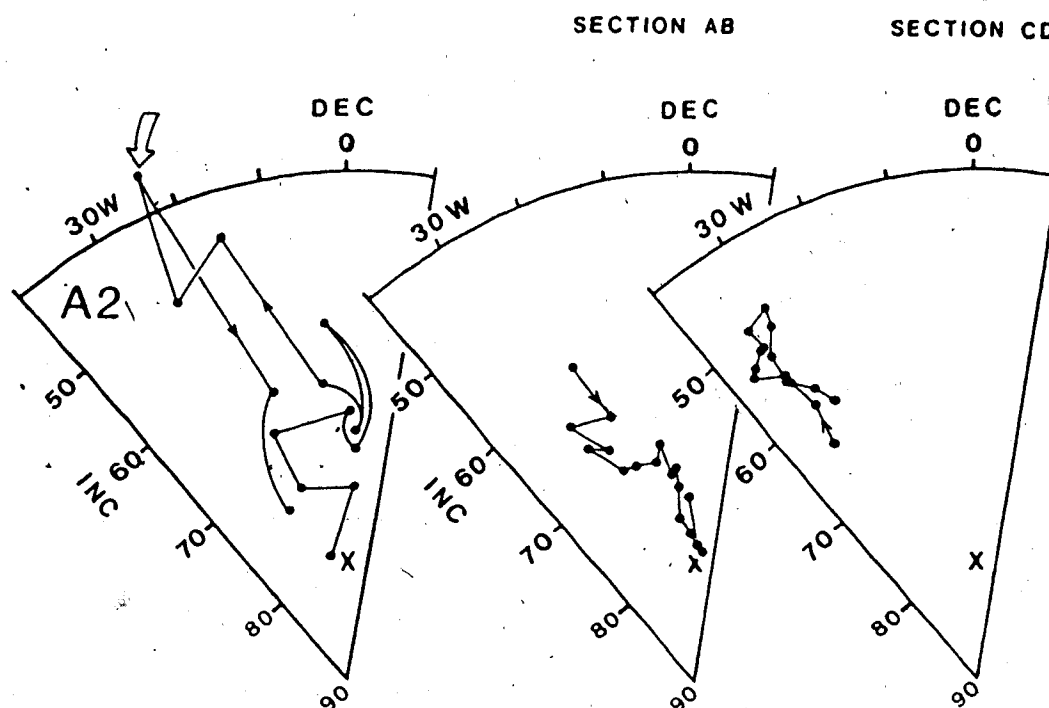


Figure 4-3: Declination-inclination equal area plots of feature A2 (unsmoothed). Internal variance of 11.0° (see Appendix A) and within-pair dispersion cut-off of 10° have been applied. The "X" marks the position of the field vector due to an axial geocentric dipole. Each point represents the average of a pair of samples. Corresponding features from previous work (Evans et al., 1988; Hedlin and Evans, 1987; Hedlin, 1986) (5 point running mean) are included. The curved hollow arrow represents the perturbation point used in modelling.

(approximately 40°) of the local field away from the direction predicted by an axial dipole field (shown by the "X"). The reality of this feature is confirmed by the presence of corresponding features (shown on right hand side of Figure) in two outcrops over 5 km away (sites 15 (AB) and HH68-10 (CD) from Evans et al (1988), sampled by Hedlin (see Figure 1-3)). As stated by Turner (1983), the supreme test of the reality of a feature in an RM sequence is reproducibility in outcrops separated by large distances. This test is rarely successful in practice and it is commonly observed that for every signal found in a single outcrop there are many outcrops in the surrounding area in which it cannot be found. For instance, Palmer et al (1979) had trouble correlating fine features in their lake sediment RM records even over 1 km. A successful correlation of the feature A2 with signals over 5 km away confirms the idea that the perturbing source is a true geomagnetic field variation and not simply a local sedimentological effect.

Next we encounter A3, which represents a return to steep inclinations from shallow values of roughly 50° (shallowest value is 49.0° at 19.2° west of north). The outward trajectory is not represented, its absence being attributed to a break between A2 and A3. There is a sudden jump in inclination of about 20° which suggests that some time is not represented here. The end of this feature is defined as the point at which the field has returned to steep inclinations and is arbitrarily taken as 14.0m. The

equal area plot of Figure 4-4 reveals that the perturbation path for A3 is also linear, and again we are able to find correlatable features at sites 15 and HH68-10.

Between 14.0 and 16.5 we find A4. This feature (Figure 4-5) can be convincingly correlated with an easterly shallowing of the geomagnetic field which occurs between -11.0 cm to +50.0 cm in section AB of Hedlin and Evans (1987). On this modified elevation scale, feature A4 spans a thickness of 1.8m which is approximately 3 times that of the corresponding feature in section AB, reflecting a difference in sedimentation rate. The Old Crow Tephra, which is present in section AB, occurs by chance at the point of maximum perturbation. Thus the point of shallowest inclination in A4 (14.6m) is taken to represent the time of deposition of tephra in the Basin as a whole, although it does not appear to have been preserved in section KGA. Susceptibility measurements were made on Hedlin's samples from sites 15 and HH68-10 and revealed that the Old Crow Tephra is present not only visually at these sites, but also as a susceptibility maximum (Evans et al., 1988). If the Tephra is present in a cryptic form it may manifest itself as a susceptibility increase. In order to test this, low-field susceptibility measurements were made of all samples from KGA using a Conservation Instruments Susceptibility meter type M.S.1 with sensor type M.S.1.B. Calibration with eight paramagnetic salts showed that the instrument behaved linearly over the range of interest (Figure 4-6). Figure 4-7

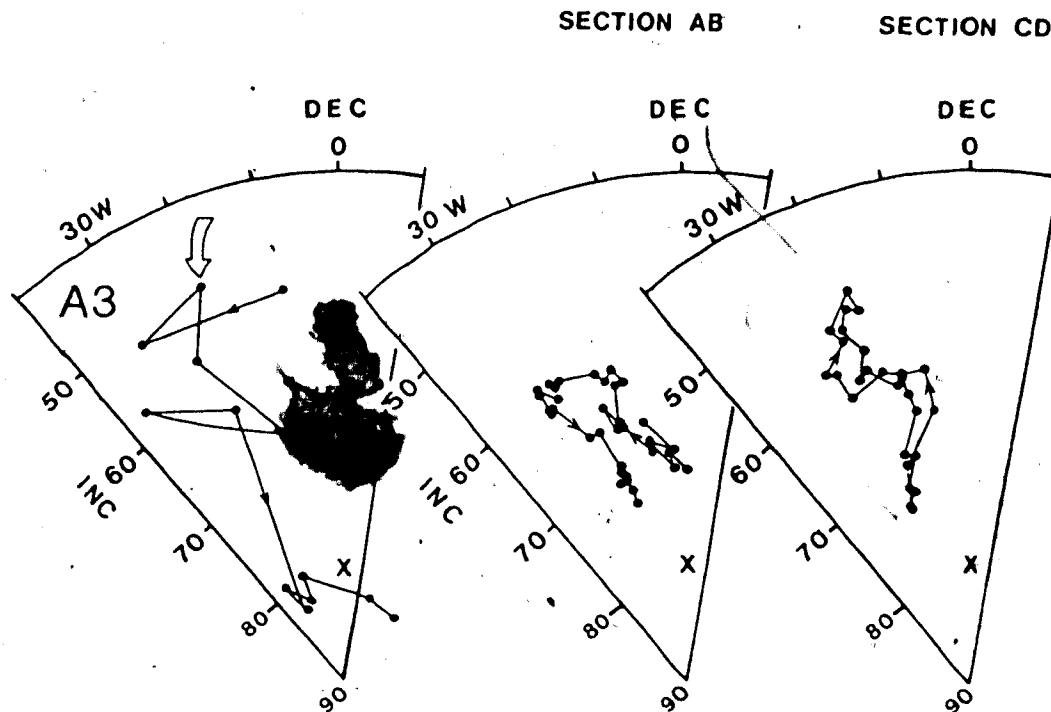


Figure 4-4: Declination - inclination equal area plot of feature A3 with corresponding features from previous work (see Figure 4-3 for full explanation).

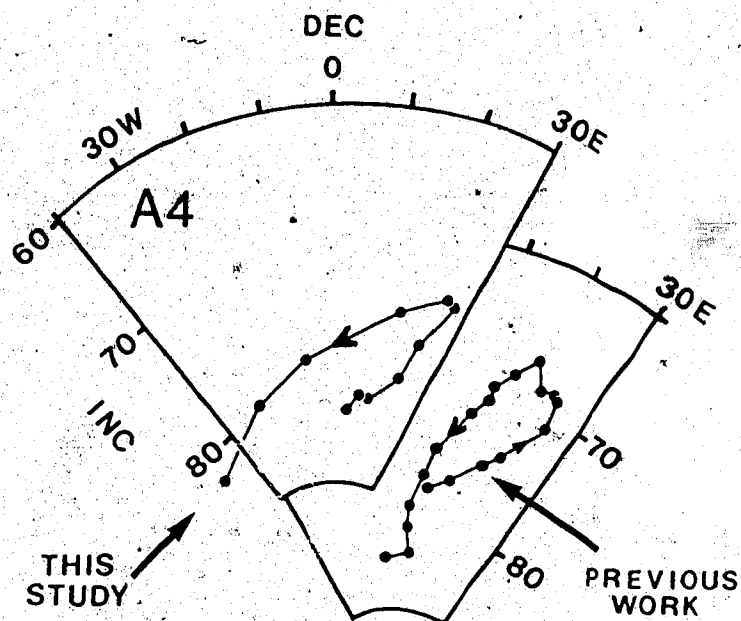


Figure 4-5: Declination-inclination equal area plots for A4 (3 point running mean) and corresponding feature from -11.0 cm to +50.0 cm mark of previous work (Evans et al., 1988; Hedlin and Evans, 1987; Hedlin, 1986) (5 point running mean).

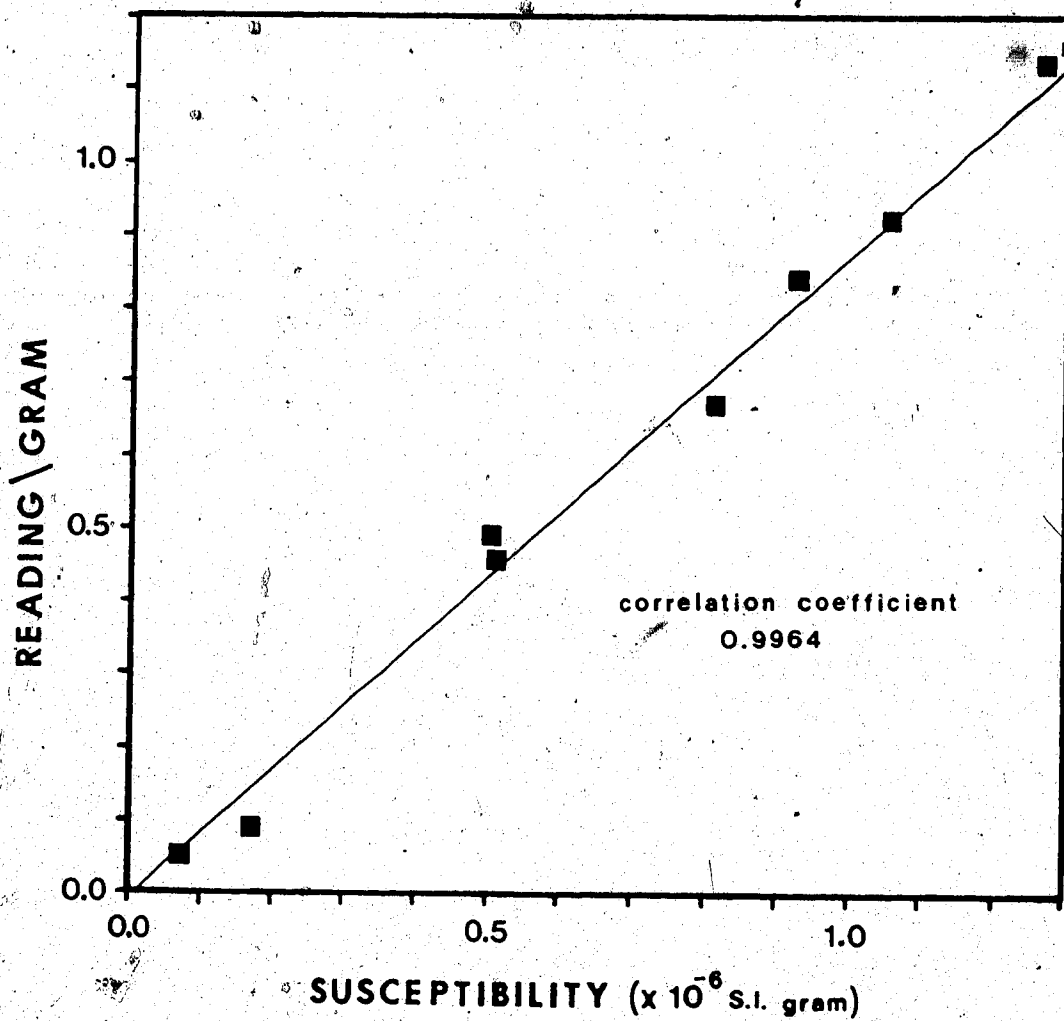


Figure 4-6: Calibration curve for Conservation Instruments M.S.1 susceptibility meter.

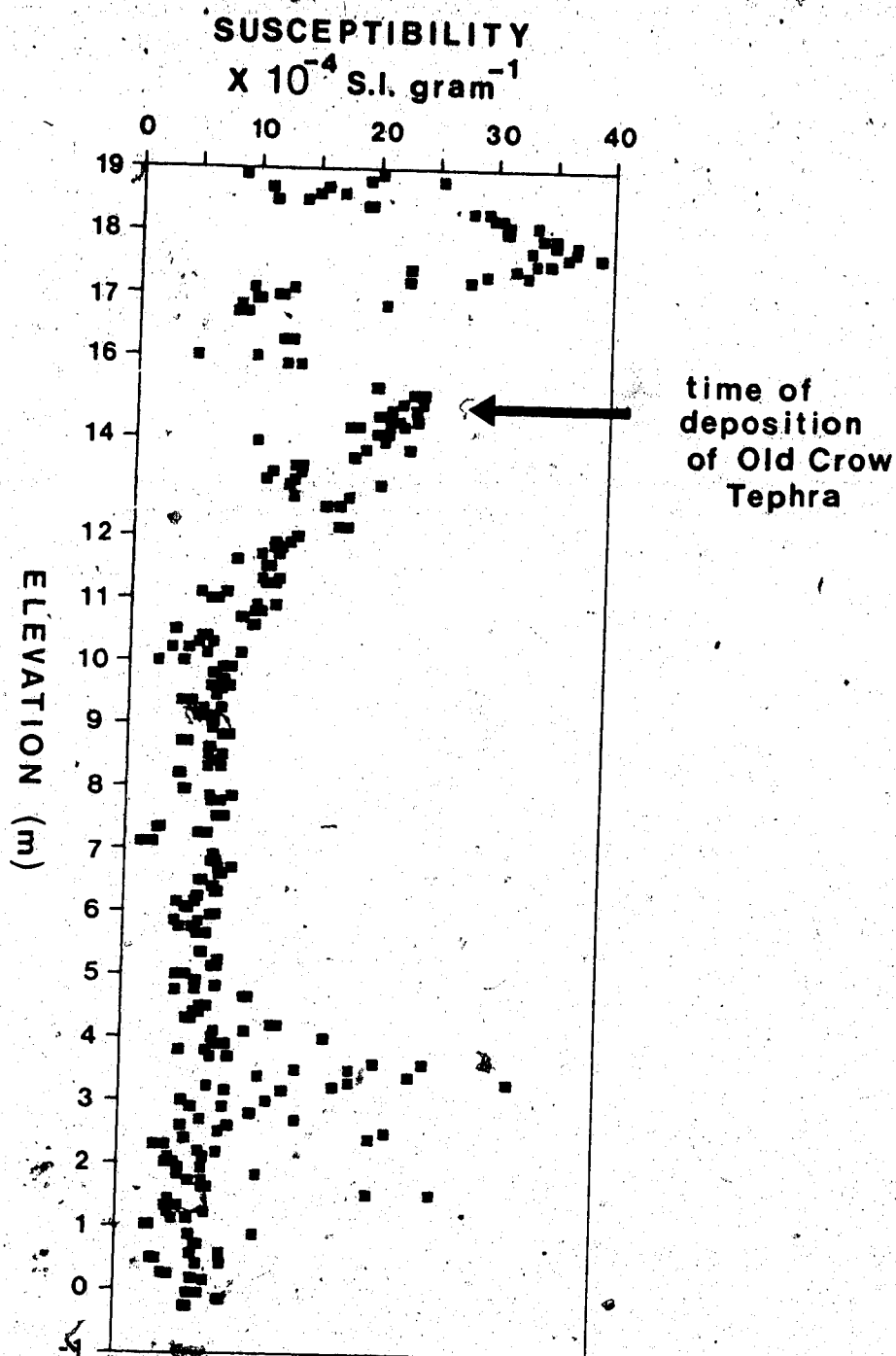


Figure 4-7: Susceptibility versus elevation for section KGA. The elevation thought to represent the time of deposition of the Old Crow Tephra in the Basin is indicated.

shows the results plotted against elevation, with the presumed time of deposition of the Old Crow Tephra indicated. There is indeed a significant increase in the susceptibility around this point, but further work involving a search for chemical evidence would be required to verify its existence.

The reality of A2, A3 and A4 is confirmed by the fact that corresponding features exist in the records recovered from sites ~~1450m~~ AB68-10 by Evans et al (1988), and also by the fact that all correlatable features occur in the same order in each record. Furthermore, these cannot be perturbations introduced by the method of sampling. Sampling of soft sediment with plastic cubes using the method described in chapter II has been shown to produce a "push error" in some cases, i.e., a magnetic component seems to be added in the direction of cube insertion (Lovlie, pers. comm., 1988). Such a mechanism could not have produced the shallowing seen here since the declination of these features is roughly north, while the direction of push is predominantly east. In addition, the corresponding features in section AB were recovered from cubes which were pushed to the west, the opposite direction of that involved in collecting section KGA, yet the declination of all features is virtually identical. These facts attest to the fidelity of the sediments in this region as good recorders of geomagnetic field variations.

Feature A5, which overlaps A4, is a perturbation of the RM vector to the east of south. The most extreme value attained is 149.2° declination and 75.4° inclination. This feature is illustrated in the equal area plot of Figure 4-8. Unfortunately, a great deal of faith cannot be placed in the orientation of this feature in space since these beds may have been distorted. The sediments containing this feature are divided from the horizontal beds below it by a sharp high angle plane of discontinuity. Although the beds containing A5 are massive clay and contain no indications of horizontal, the beds immediately above this zone are deformed and tilted to the south-east in what appears to be an ancient slump. This massive clay may have been involved in the deformation and thus may be responsible for the south-east orientation of A5.

At this point we return to the reasoning behind the plotting of only those pairs in which the angular difference between the two RM vectors of individual members of sample pairs was less than 10° . If members of a pair represent the same point in time, their directions of magnetization should agree. This is referred to as the within-pair dispersion, and was applied by rejecting any pairs for which the angular separation in space between members exceeded 10° . Hedlin and Evans (1987) arbitrarily used a value of 10° , noting that this is a very strict criterion (the angle between a pair of vectors must exceed 26° before they can statistically be considered at the 95% level to be from a random population).

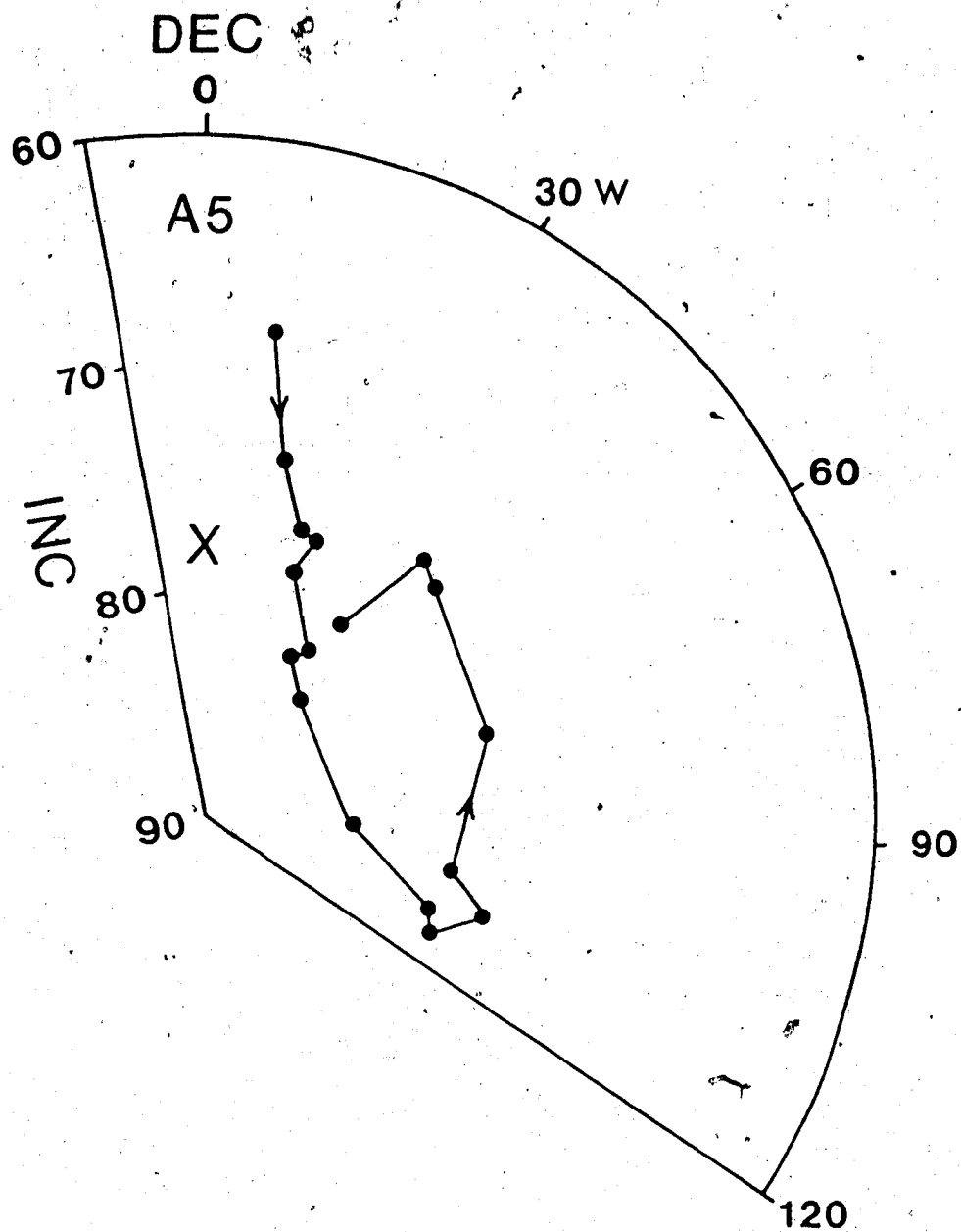


Figure 4-8: Declination - inclination equal area plot of feature A5 (3-point running mean). The "X" marks the position of the field vector due to an axial geocentric dipole.

Application of this filter to A3 resulted in rejection of only a single pair (for which the angular separation was 16.5°), thus in this case, we need not consider further the ramifications of this quality criterion on the character of that feature. Similarly, A4 loses only 2 of its original 13 pairs (within-pair separations of 13.5° and 16.5°) and A5 loses 4 of 23 of which no pair rejected showed a within-pair separation exceeding 11.6° .

By contrast, A2 lost 7 of its original 21 pairs. Consequently, we examine in greater detail the effect of the within-pair dispersion cut-off of 10° on this feature. The pairs rejected have angular separations varying from 10.7° to 27.1° . If the basic assumption that the members of a sample pair represent the same point in time is violated, this criterion is no longer applicable. In such a case, angular discrepancies may very well be due to secular variation processes, not error in recorded field direction. Slight misalignments in elevation are possible, since the measured elevation is only accurate to ± 0.5 cm at best. High temporal 1st derivatives of the geomagnetic field direction and/or slow deposition rates will yield zones of high spatial 1st derivative in the remanence signal. In such intervals, it may be necessary to relax the within-pair dispersion criterion. The question of how much to relax is a difficult one. It is best approached by totally lifting the filter and observing the consequences. Figure 4-9 shows the outcome. The important point is that the essential

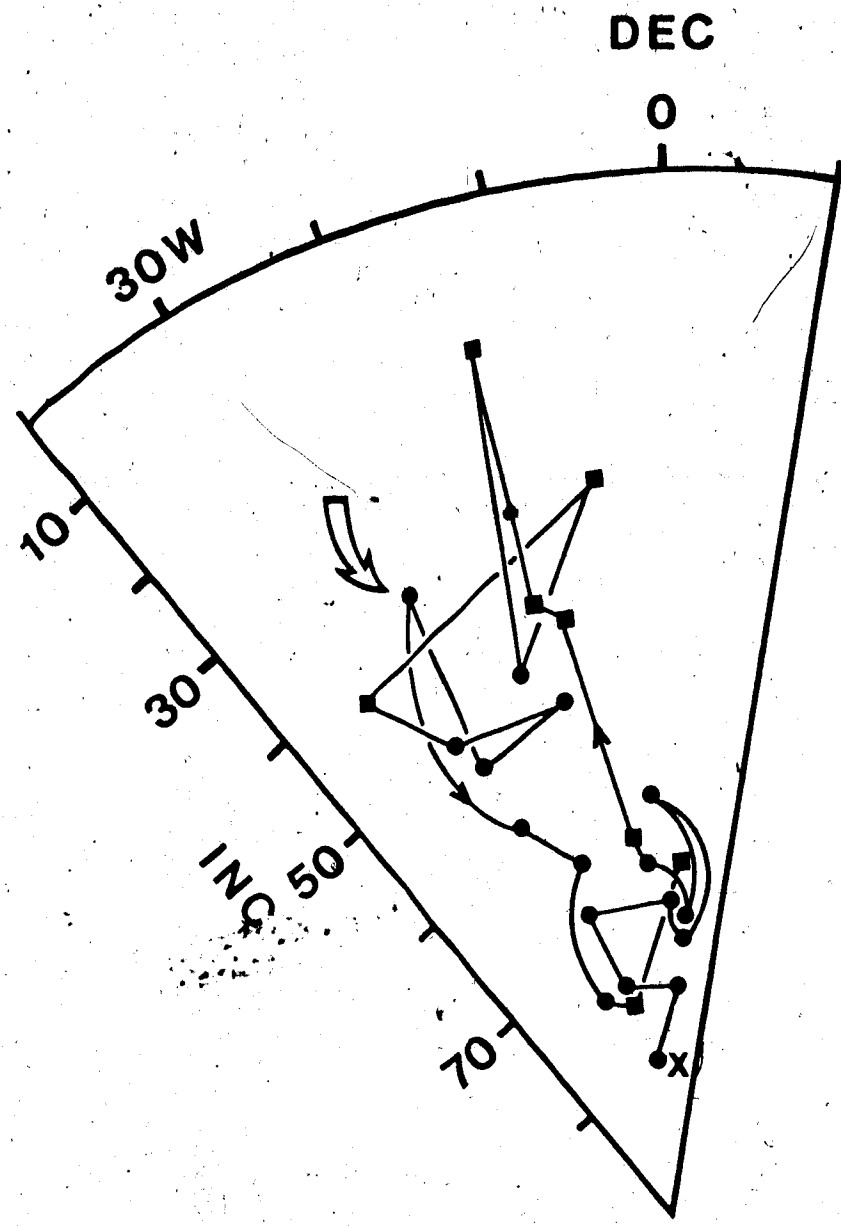


Figure 4-9: Declination-inclination equal area plot for A2 with in-pair dispersion criterion removed. Individual members of pairs with angular separations of greater than 20° are plotted as squares. The new points with angular separations of greater than 10° but less than 20° are averaged and plotted as circles for the sake of clarity. The squares are joined with the lines which represent the minimum path length. The curved arrow marks the position of the previous minimum in inclination from figure 4-3.

characteristics with respect to the pattern of movement of the geomagnetic vector remains unaltered, but the feature is reinforced by the added points. The only change which results is the extension of the signal to shallower inclinations (16.5° at 12.5° west of north). For comparison the position of the previous extreme is indicated.

Feature A1 also suffers under the within-pair cutoff of 10° , losing 12 of its original 21 pairs. The average of all vectors is declination 340.1° and inclination 71.1° with $\alpha_{95} = 3.3^\circ$. Removal of all pairs which do not meet the within-pair cutoff yields an average of declination 346.5° and inclination 71.5° with α_{95} of 3.6° which is not statistically different from the average of all samples in A1 at the 95% level. Thus the final result remains the same.

B. Section KGB

Adjustments to elevation for two sand layers between the 8 and 10 m marks (total thickness 1.3 m) were made as was done for section KGA. The resulting sequence is shown in Figure 4-10, with the arrows on the left marking the positions of the removed sands and the features of interest indicated to the right. In section KGA features A2, A3 and A4 could be confidently correlated with signals reported by Evans et al., (1988). A similar sequence of three features can be identified in section KGB. B1 (from 4.0 m to 11.0 m, a thickness of 5.7 m on this modified elevation scale), B2

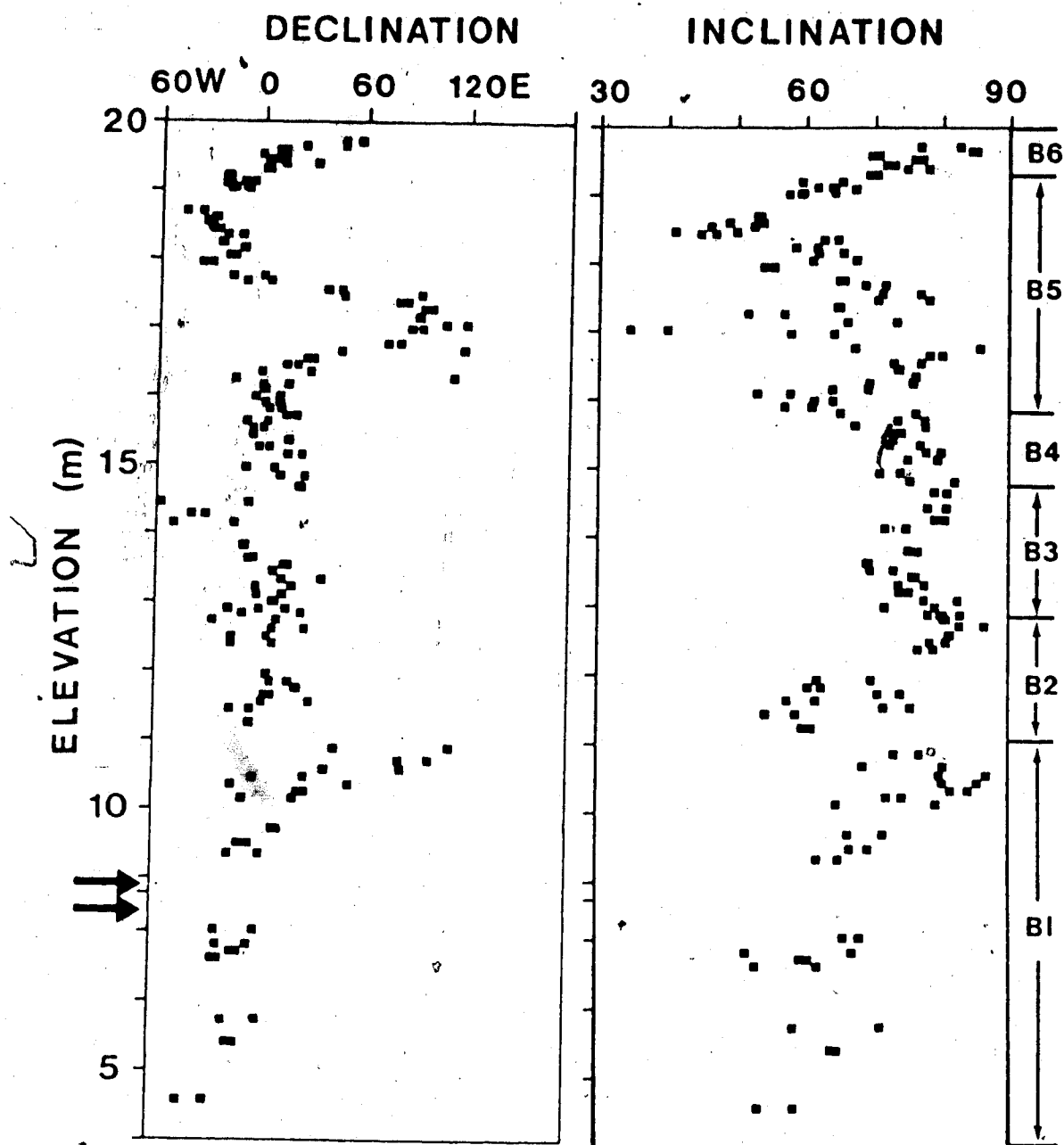


Figure 4-10: Expanded version of Figure 3-9 after removal of two sand layers (indicated by the horizontal arrows). Features of interest are labelled to the right.

(11.0 m to 12.87 m) and B3 (12.87 m to 14.5 m) are replotted on the equal area plots of Figure 4-11, with the corresponding signals from the sequence reported by Evans et al. Note that the increased noise level requires that some smoothing be done; the 3 horizon (6 samples) running mean is plotted here. Admittedly, at first glance the correlation is not as strong as it is for A2 to A4. The similarity of any individual signal with its counterpart is not as good here, as for example the case of B2 where the shallowing of the vector trends northward rather than west of north. In addition, only the return trajectories from positions of shallow to steeper inclinations are represented here by B1 and B2. However, the fact that three similar features in KGB appear in the same order and at approximately the same elevations as those in KGA makes the correlation more convincing. Section KGB thus provides useful supporting evidence for the reality of the geomagnetic features evident in KGA and in the work of Hedlin (1986).

Features B1, B2 and B3 are taken from a zone of horizontal bedding. Above B3 we encounter two intervals of tilted strata. The first of these is labelled B4 and runs from 14.5 m to 15.8 m. The dip of the strata is 29° west with a strike of 162° azimuth. Figure 4-12 shows the pattern of movement on an equal area plot with no tilt correction applied. There is no interesting pattern of movement to this signal and as a consequence, it is not discussed further.

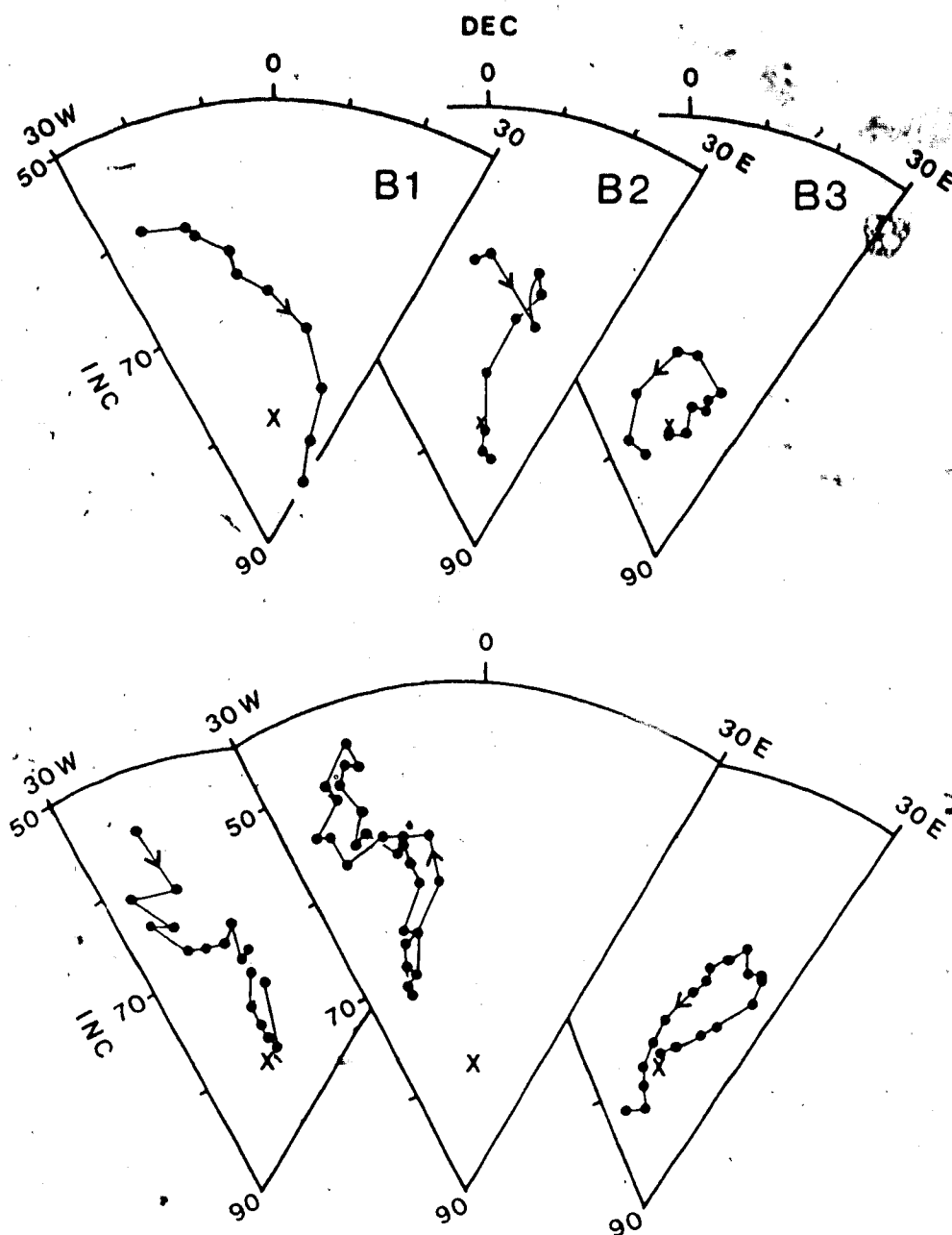


Figure 4-11: Declination-Inclination equal area plots for features (a) B1, B2 and B3 (three horizon (i.e., 6 sample) running mean). Internal variance of 11.0° (see Appendix A) and within-pair dispersion cut-off of 10° have been applied. The "X" marks the position of the field vector due to an axial geocentric dipole. Similar features from previous work (Evans et al., 1988; Hedlin and Evans, 1987; Hedlin, 1986) (5 horizon running mean) are included.

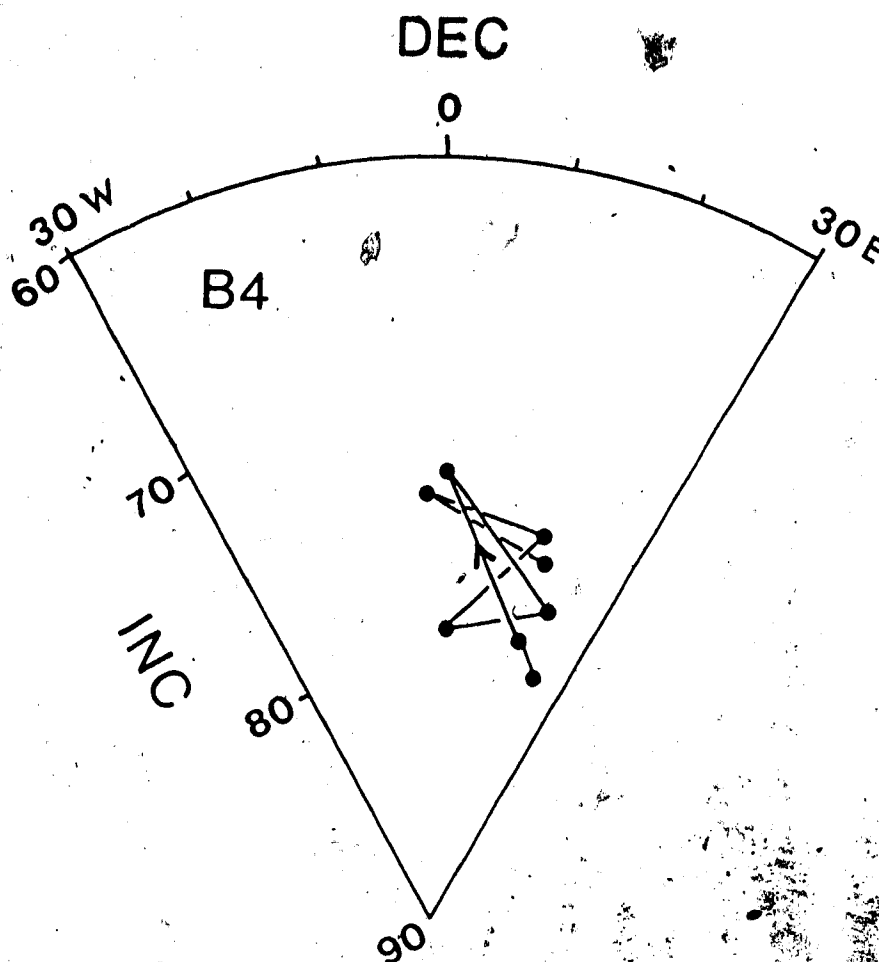


Figure 4-12: Feature B4 with no tilt correction.

B7

Above B4 the bedding tilts in the opposite direction, dipping between 20° East and 26.5° East with strike varying from 010.0° to 017.0° azimuth. The end of the feature in this interval (B5) is designated as the 19.4m mark, as the bedding suddenly returns to horizontal at this point. An equal area plot of the data before and after correction to the tilted zone is presented in Figure 4-13 (the signal B6 from the horizontal beds above this zone contains only 6 pairs of which the pattern on an equal angle plot is not interesting enough to warrant further discussion, but is included in the Figure for completeness). The zone containing B5 is separated from the sediments below it by a steep plane of discontinuity, above which the package of sediments is undeformed internally and is tilted as a block, the general character being reminiscent of an ancient slump feature. If the sediment layers were originally deposited horizontally then the correction made to rotate tilted beds back to the horizontal assumes that the rotation has taken place about the existing line of strike. If this is not the case, declination will be in error, thus one must view the resulting declinations with caution, but the inclination will be correct. With or without rotation, two remarkable characteristics of this feature remain clear; it is linear and large. The RM vector moves in a definite linear fashion for an angular distance of 70.5° . This angle is based on the points indicated in Figure 4-13. All solid triangles and circles have had an arbitrary within-pair cut-off of 10° .

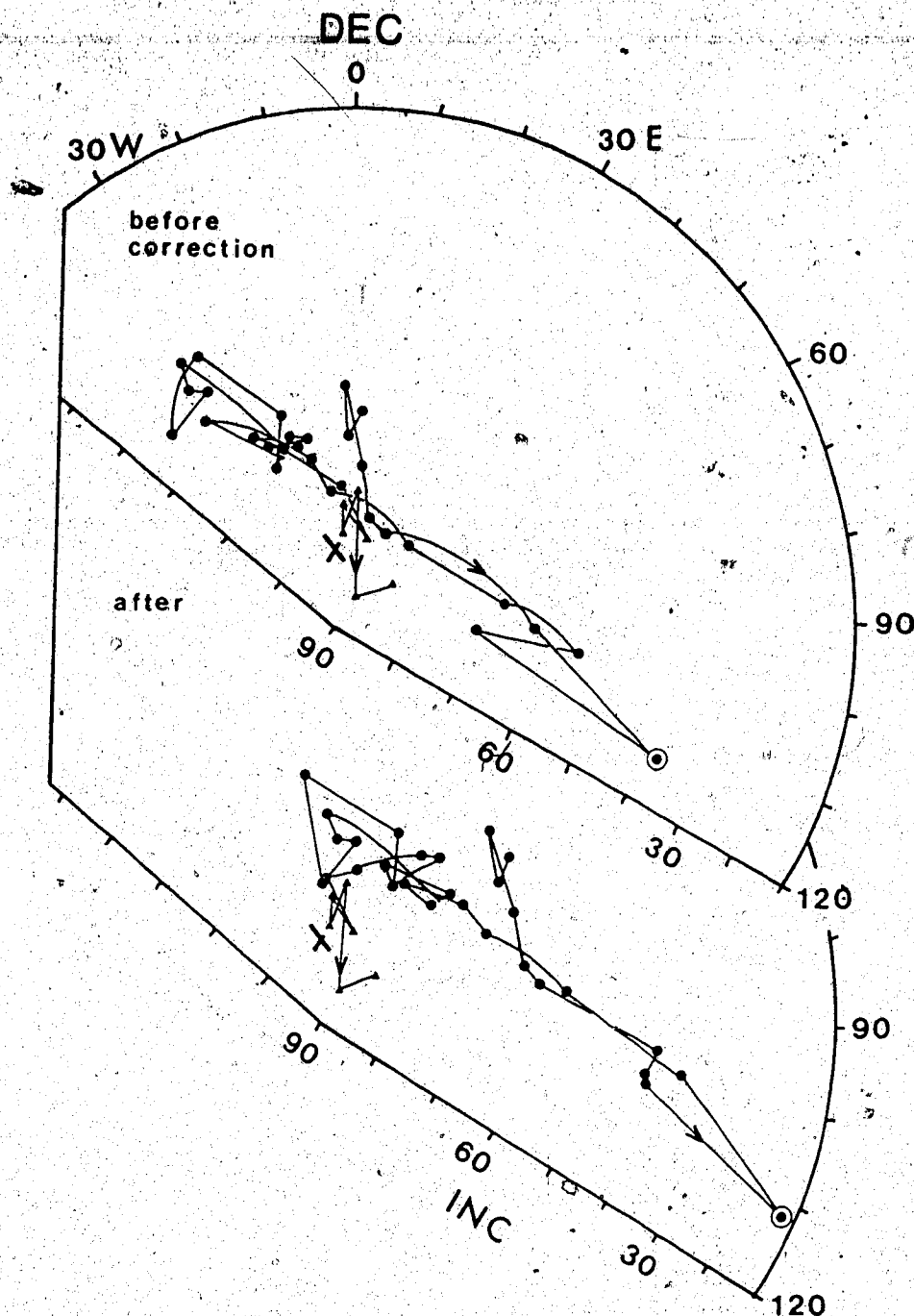


Figure 4-13: Feature B5 before and after tilt correction. The solid triangles are feature B6 (horizontally bedded sediment) and have had internal variance cut-off of 11° and within-pair dispersion cut-off of 10° applied. The solid circles are feature B5 (strata tilted to the east), with the same cut-off criteria as above. The solid circle with the ring around it represents the new minimum in inclination when the within-pair cut-off is removed. Before correction plot shows B5 with no tilt adjustment, while the lower plot shows B5 after correction for tilt. The "X" marks the position of the field due to an axial geocentric dipole.

applied. Under this cut-off B5 lost only 7 out of 42 pairs, of which all but one fall inside the linear track defined by the remaining points. The single pair which falls outside this range is plotted in the figure as a circled dot (see figure caption) and has a wide pair separation of only 11.1° . Using this point in the previous calculation gives a total angular movement of 90.8° . Therefore, although the true orientation of this feature is not known, it nevertheless presents evidence of a third linear perturbation in these sediments.

V. ANALYSIS OF GEOMAGNETIC SECULAR VARIATION

When plotted on an equal area plot, the track of typical paleosecular variation records generally resembles a "plate of spaghetti" (Constable and McElhinny, 1985, p. 117). Features A2 (=B1) and A3 (=B2), however, display perturbations of the geomagnetic field with remarkably linear trajectories and hence are of great geophysical interest. These signals are the type to be expected from stationary sources of secular variation (Evans, 1984) as opposed to the commonly observed westerly drifting sources described in Chapter I. They have therefore been selected for a more detailed analysis with a view to determining their likely origin.

A. Modelling of features A2 and A3

In this section the goal is to develop the simplest physical model capable of explaining the observations. We therefore start by calculating the minimum perturbing field necessary at the site to generate the observed features. The minimum perturbing vector (P_{min}) is perpendicular to the resultant vector (R) (Figure 5-1). In vectorial terms this is equivalent to the subtraction of the background field vector (F - due to a geocentric axial dipole) from its projection on the perturbed one.

The directions and magnitudes of P_{min} for the shallowest inclinations in A2 and A3 are listed in Table 5-1. Since the magnitudes of F and R are unknown, P_{min} is

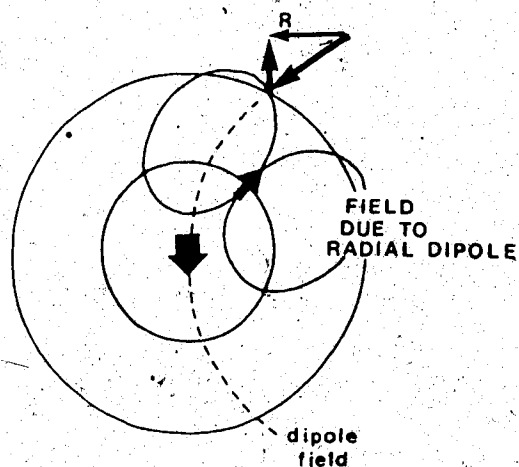
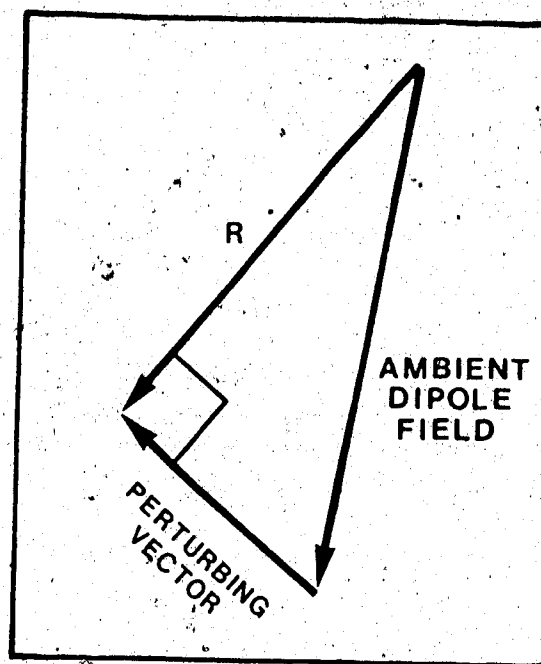


Figure 5-1: The top box illustrates the relationship between the minimum perturbing vector and the ambient and resultant fields. The bottom cartoon demonstrates how this vector relationship applies to the model used herein.

feature	perturbation		elevation (m)	P min				radial dipole solution			
	dec	inc		dec	inc	mag	angle ⁺	outward		inward	
A2 within-pair cut	337.2	35.3	11.3-14.0	326.3	-54.2	69.9	44.3	M _{rd} M%	long E	lat	long E
A2 no within-pair cut	347.5	16.5	11.3-14.0	337.8	-73.3	88.6	62.4	7.4	230.1	64.7	68.0
A3	340.9	49.0	8.4-11.3	331.1	-40.6	50.7	30.4	8.4	224.3	66.2	56.0
								6.1	230.6	62.3	73.0
											91.5

• magnitude as a % of background field

+ angle between background and perturbing field

Table 5-1: Modelling data and results for A2 and A3.

expressed as a percentage of F . The smallest perturbing field necessary to explain A3 (the smaller perturbation of the two) is 51% of the ambient field (geocentric axial dipole). This amounts to a field at the Earth's surface of 29,600 nT (for a main dipole moment of 8×10^{22} Am², the present-day value) directed at 29° west of north and 41° upwards. Not only is this anomalous field intense, but it points in the wrong direction to that expected in the northern hemisphere (the Z component of which is expected to point towards the geocentre). In the case of the greatest shallowing of the field (A2) the perturbing field is 89% of the intensity of the main field and corresponds to 52,000 nT directed 22° west and 74° upwards. This is a very intense anomalous field directed almost radially away from the geocentre.

The source of the perturbing field can be modelled as a radial dipole (r.d.) at the Core-Mantle Boundary (CMB). Representation as a dipole source is only a convenience. It has long been argued that the sources of secular variation are, in fact, electric currents flowing in the outer skin (approximately 40 km) of the liquid outer core (Loves and Runcorn, 1951), while the contribution of deeper current systems to rapidly varying B is suppressed by electromagnetic shielding. This skin depth is a rough calculation based on a plane wave and solid conductor possessing typical values of pertinent core parameters. A more recent detailed calculation by Le Mouél and Courtillot

(1982) using a different technique gives estimates of 100 to 200 km for the thickness of the outer portion of the outer core that gives rise to secular variation (SV). The horizontal dimensions of typical SV foci are on the order of 1000 km. Since the moment perpendicular to a given cross-section is proportional to the current density times the area of that cross-section, the section with the greatest area will contribute most to the total moment (assuming constant current density). Since the SV foci have approximately a 10:1 ratio of horizontal to vertical dimensions, the product of current density and horizontal area will dominate. The equivalent dipole moment vector for such a situation will have a radial orientation. This is a physical justification for the use of a radial dipole suggested previously. Indeed, radial dipoles have provided good fits to both the present day non-dipole and SV fields (Alldredge and Hurwitz, 1964; Lowes and Runcorn, 1951; Alldredge and Stearns, 1969).

The perturbed and unperturbed directions at the site can be used to provide the locations of possible r.d.'s which are able to explain the observations. R and F define a plane in which such a source must lie. The assumption that the source must lie on the CMB further constrains it to a locus of points, and the final position of the minimum r.d. can be found by iteration as was done by Hedlin and Evans (1987) for their and Crow results. This process can be repeated with a series of possible perturbing vectors (or

than the minimum) to produce the graph shown in Figure 5-2.

Point 5 represents the position of closest approach to the site and it is from this point that the angular distances in Figure 5-2b are measured. Points 2 and 6 represent the minima for the inwardly and outwardly directed moment r.d. solutions respectively. The gap between the two curves results from the fact that the geometry does not allow any r.d. solution in this interval.

Inspection of Table 5-1 reveals that for all three inclination minima modelled, the minimum perturbing vector is directed away from the geocentre (negative inclination). This can result either from an r.d. close to the site with an outwardly directed moment, or from an r.d. located somewhat further away with an inwardly directed dipole moment. Obviously the latter will have greater moment than the former due to its greater distance from the site. The minimum r.d.'s required to produce the observed perturbations are given in Table 5-1 and vary from 5% to 9% of the strength of the main dipole. The corresponding inwardly directed r.d.'s for the same perturbations are much higher (35% to 131%) leaving outward moment r.d.'s as a much more attractive model. The fact that moments of only a few percent are required in order to explain these results underscores the robustness of this model (i.e. stationary eccentric radial dipoles which pulse in strength). Malin and Bullard (1981) were able to explain the looping behaviour of the field at London over the past several hundred years by

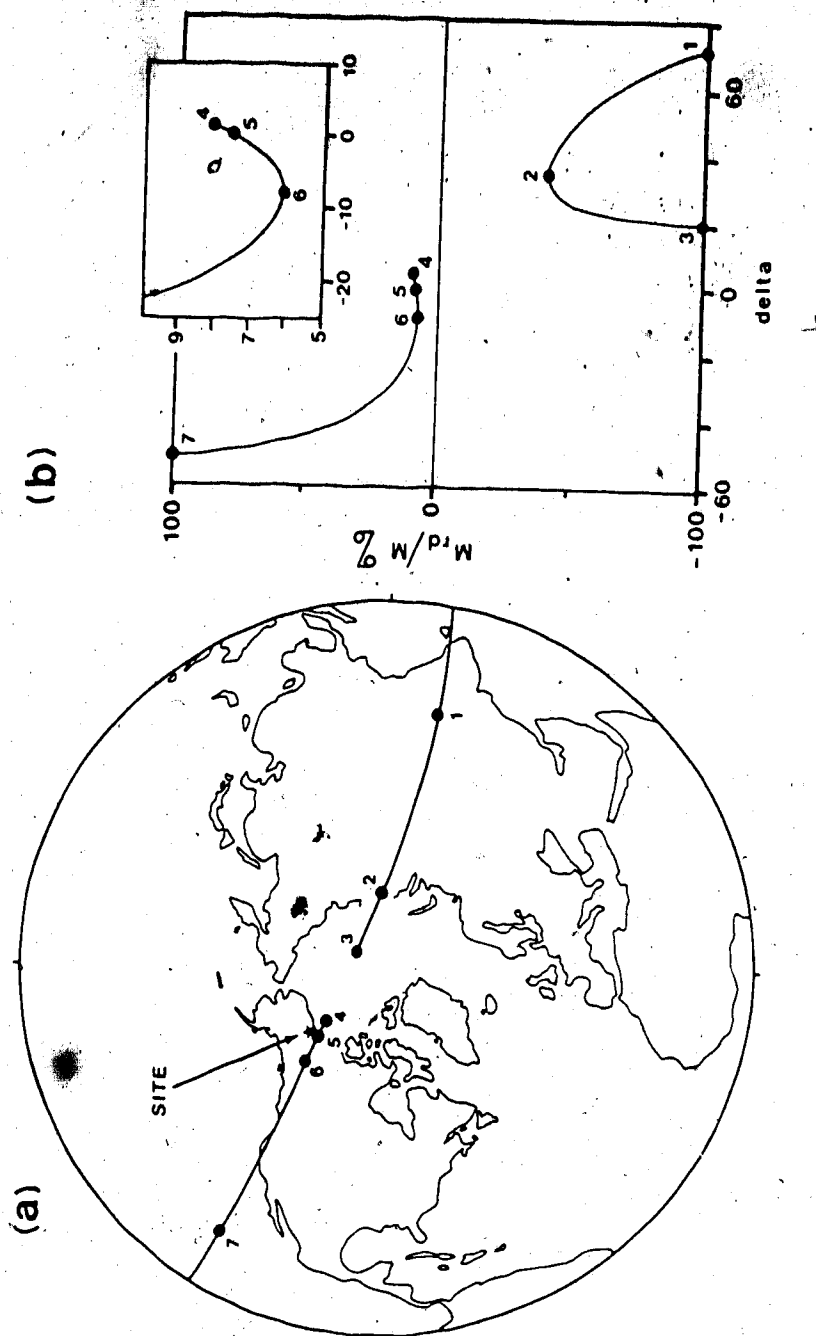


Figure 5-2: The possible locations on the CMB (a) and magnitude (b) of radial dipoles capable of explaining the shallowest inclination for feature A3. Magnitude is expressed as a percentage of the main dipole. Delta refers to the angle from the position of closest approach to the site (point 5). Points 2 and 6 represent the two minima. Points 1, 3 and 7 denote the locations where the ratio is 100%.

drifting an r.d. of 3% past that site in a westward direction. The fact that other secular variation features of the geomagnetic field, such as the ones being examined in this study, are likewise explainable by r.d.'s of only a few percent makes the outwardly directed moment solutions very credible.

These results represent the lowest possible value that the r.d. can assume since they are placed at the CMB. There are, however, physical reasons why they should be placed deeper. The equivalent dipole for a spherical cap of current would be at some distance below the CMB, but the appropriate depth is not known. Lowes and Runcorn (1951) fitted dipoles to the SV field and found the majority of them to be radial and at a distance from the geocentre of from 0.35 ($1,200 \text{ km}$ below CMB) to 0.55 R_e (roughly on the CMB). Much greater depth, corresponding to a distance from the geocentre of 0.28 R_e (1780 km below the CMB), was determined by Alldredge and Hurwitz (1964) using best fit r.d.'s to represent the present global non-dipole field. In order to assess the effects of depth variation on the results for A2 and A3, the change in the minimum moment of the inwardly directed r.d. with increasing depth below the CMB is illustrated in Figure 5-3. As an upper limit we may examine the effect of placing the r.d. used to explain the most extreme value of A3 (declination 347.5 , inclination 16.5) at a depth of 1780 km (the maximum depth given by Alldredge and Hurwitz). The Figure shows that an outward moment r.d. of 35% will explain

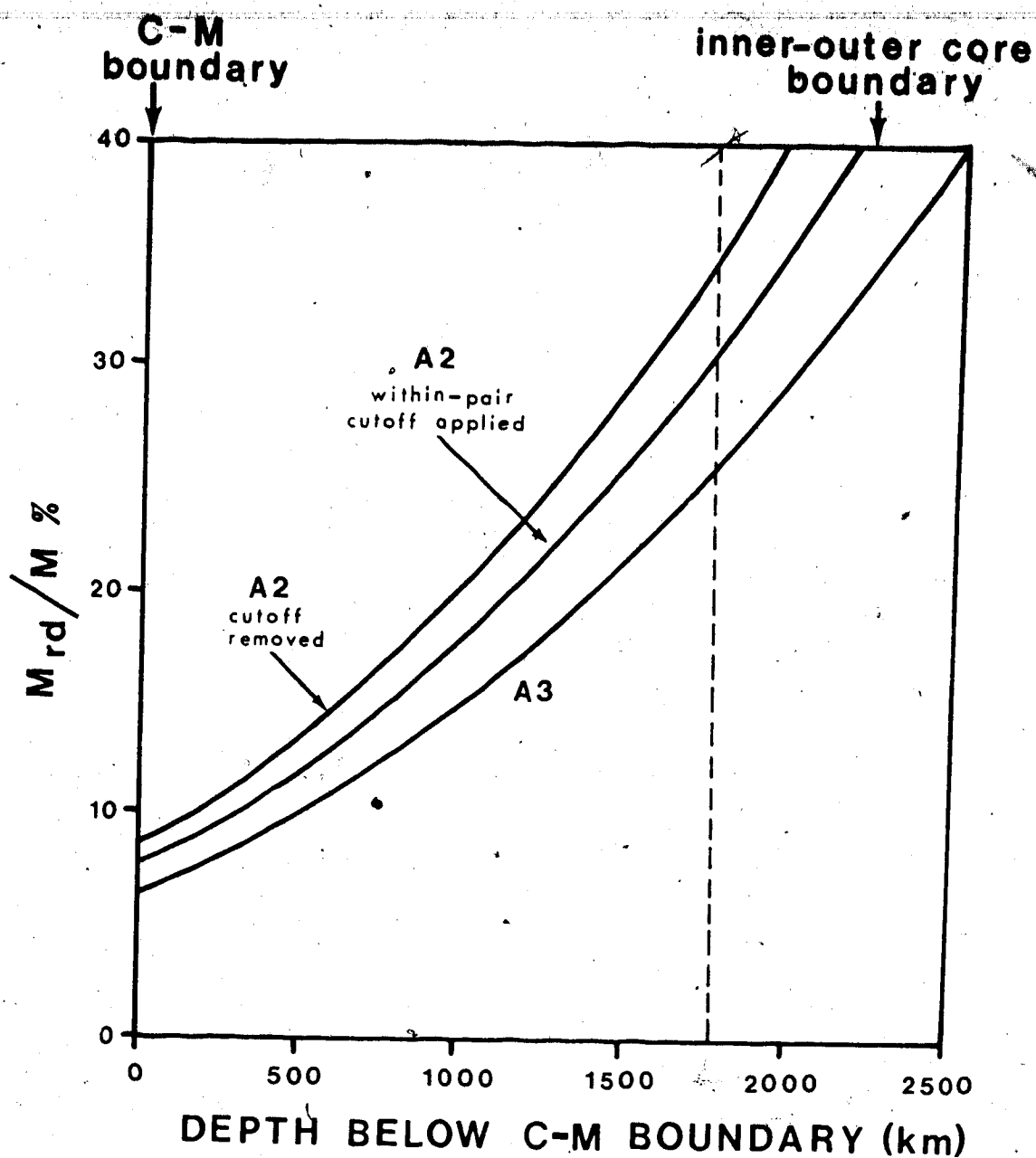


Figure 5-3: Variation of the moment of the radial dipole used to explain features A2 and A3 with depth below the Core-Mantle interface. Magnitude is expressed as a percentage of the main dipole. The vertical broken line refers to the maximum depth used by Alldredge and Hurwitz (1964) and is discussed in the text.

this feature and lesser values are obviously required to explain the other shallow inclinations listed in Table 5-1. It is not known how strong such r.d.'s may get, however it is probably reasonable to be suspicious of solutions which require moments in excess of that of the main dipole. This result emphasizes the fact that we need not invoke moments of much greater than one third the main dipole moment even in this extreme case. In contrast to this, the inward moment r.d. solution for even the smallest perturbation value of the three listed in Table 5-1 (declination 340.9, inclination 49.0) must exceed the main dipole (108%) when placed at these depths, once again showing the outward solution to be the more attractive solution.

B. Comparison with the modern field

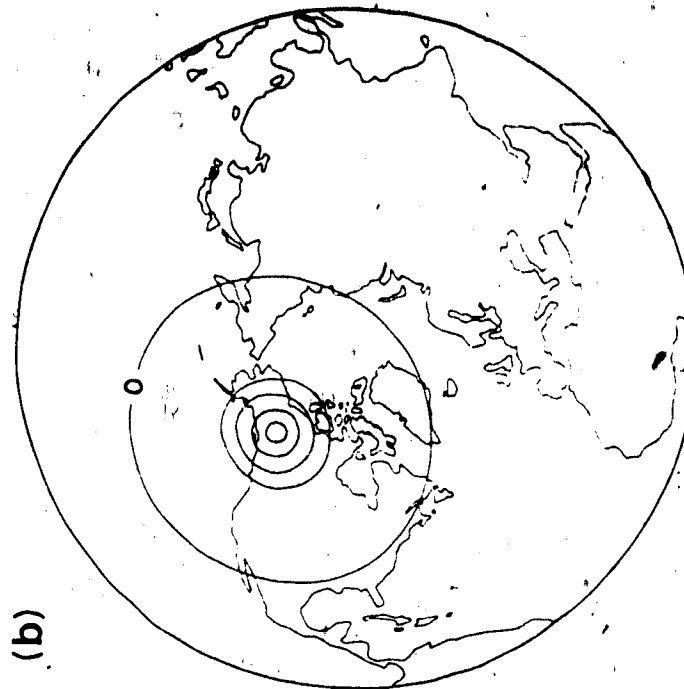
The next question to be addressed is that of the existence of similar sources in the present field. As pointed out previously, modern field observations extend back only a fraction of the postulated period of change for non-dipole-features. In addition, the Earth's field has had a long history of change of which we presently see only one of many possible configurations. Hence it should not greatly disturb us if a perfect analogy to the modelled perturbing source cannot be found in the present field.

As distance from the sources increases, the characteristics of an individual anomaly may be obscured by its neighbours. It is therefore more desirable to have an

expression for the geomagnetic field at the CMB rather than at the surface if one is to hypothesize about possible sources for paleofield results by studying modern "day" analogues. Downwardly continued maps of the field have been produced by Bloxam and Gubbins (1985) from various data of the Earth's field spanning several decades.

The modelling of features A2 and A3 revealed that an r.d. with moment vector directed away from the geocentre is the most plausible perturbing source. Such an r.d. would produce a patch of concentrated reversely directed flux vertically above itself, i.e., contoured values of the Z component of the field would reveal a circular patch of flux directed away from the geocentre in the northern hemisphere where flux is normally directed inwards. Such patches do in fact, exist today, the most prominent being in the southern hemisphere (Figure 5-4a). The reversely directed flux (inward for the southern hemisphere) of these features is claimed by Gubbins (1987) to be responsible for the 7% drop in the main dipole over the last 150 years. Over this period, both anomalies have intensified. This rapid intensification makes them attractive analogues to the r.d. model used to explain A2 and A3. As Gubbins points out, we have not yet seen a complete cycle of growth and decay of these features, so we have no idea of the time scale and hence our understanding of these features is incomplete. Over the period of observation, these anomalies have exhibited some westward drift and consequently do not

RADIAL FIELD AT CORE DUE TO RADIAL DIPOLE



CONTOUR INTERVAL - 100 μ T

1945 RADIAL FIELD AT CORE
(Gubbins 1987)

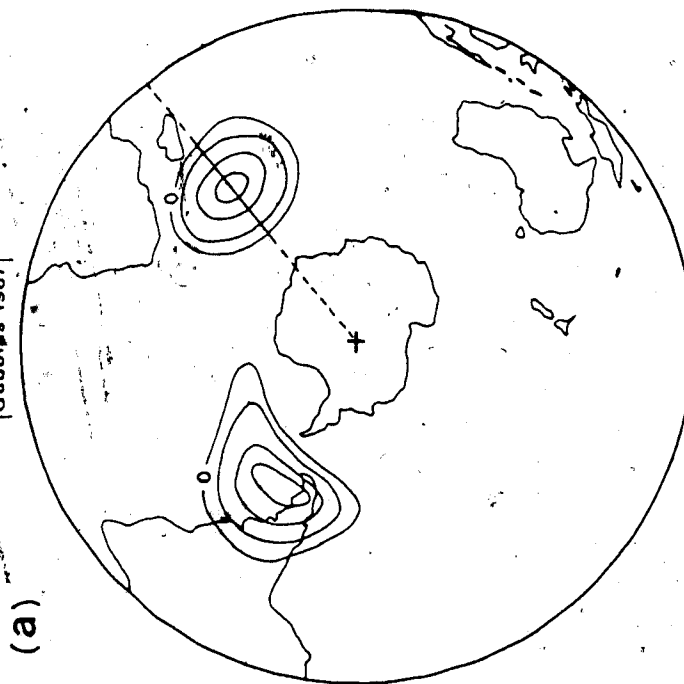


Figure 5-4: (a) Reverse flux patches at the Core-Mantle interface in the 1945 radial field component. Contour interval is in 100 microtesla. (adapted from Gubbins, 1987). Profile line used in Figure 5-6 is indicated. (b) Radial field at the CMB due to a radial dipole, of moment 1% placed at 700km below interface with outwardly directed moment.

strictly comply with the requirement that the source be stationary. However, the movement has slowed somewhat in more recent times. Despite this movement, the characteristics of reverse flux and rapid intensification make further analysis worthwhile.

The anomalies in Figure 5-4a are roughly circular in plan and suggest sources which can be modelled as radial dipoles. We can therefore obtain minimum estimates for the moments of the paleosources in the following manner. On the original plots (Gubbins, 1987) there are no values of $Z\cos(\theta)$ greater than 300 microTesla. For the colatitude at which these anomalies occur (θ approximately 50° S) this corresponds to approximately 460 microTesla as a maximum that the radial field (Z) may attain. Since we seek a minimum for the ratio of the moment of the paleosources to the moment of the present-day sources (M_{rd}/M_{pd}), we must find the largest value of M_{pd} and the smallest value of M_{rd} . As we have just seen, the present-day source may have a maximum of 460 microTesla at the CMB, which for a given depth fixes the upper limit of M_{pd} . The lower limit for M_{rd} is obtained by using the minimum outward solution (Table 5-1). To be conservative, we approach the problem by using the linear feature with the smallest perturbation (i.e. A3). Calculating M_{pd} values for various depths below the CMB using the 460 microTesla limit on Z , and dividing these by the M_{rd} of A3 obtained from Figure 5-3 for corresponding depths gives the curve of Figure 5-5, which represents the

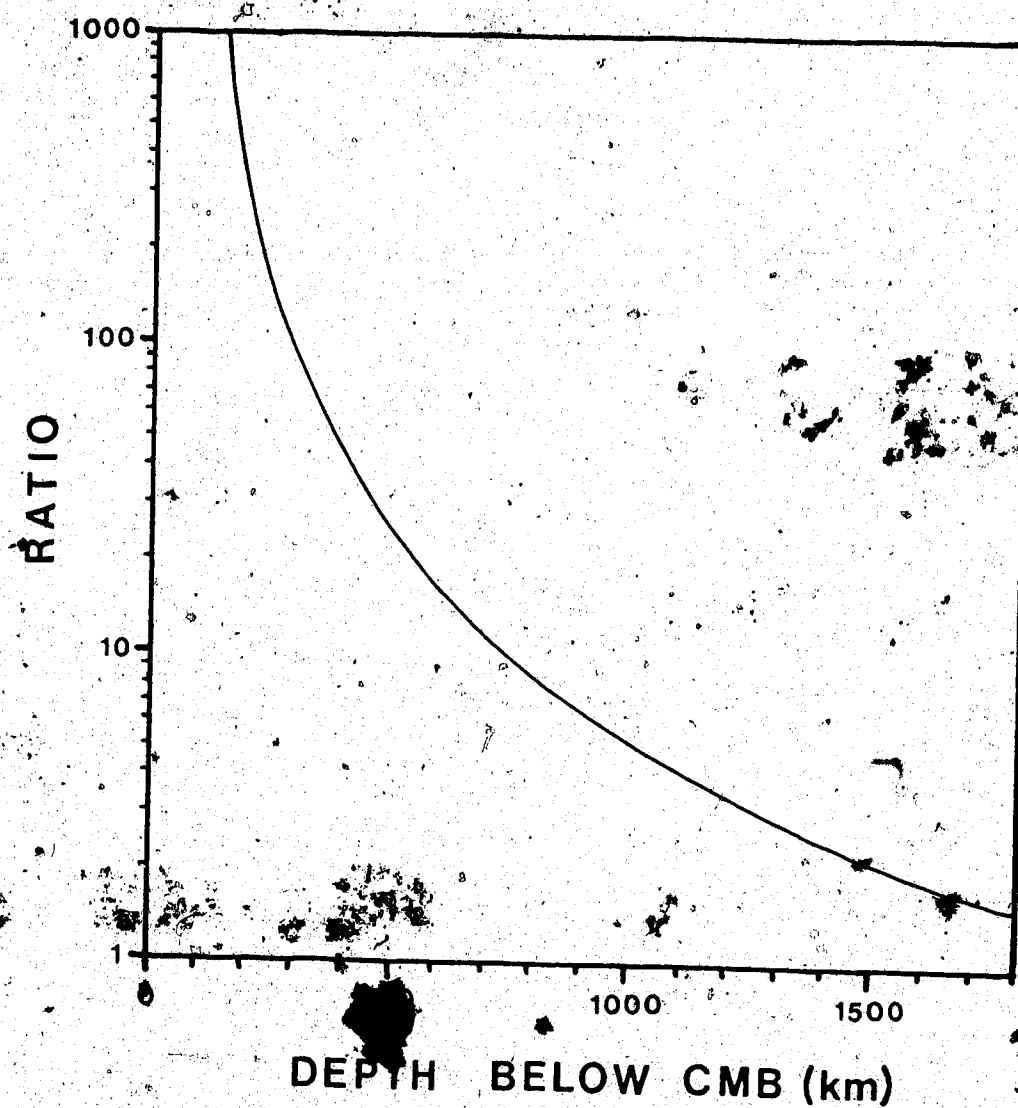


Figure 5-5: Minimum values of ratio of moments of paleosources to present-day sources with depth below the CMB.

minimum values of M_{rd}/M_{pd} . This value decreases monotonically with increasing depth and therefore we must identify the maximum depth at which we may place the r.d. in order to find the minimum ratio. This is determined by taking a profile across the feature of interest in Figure 5-4a, placing r.d.'s of various strengths at different depths below the anomaly centre and examining the fit. Since the starting point in this procedure was a small published diagram, a rigorous fitting procedure is not justified, and given that we seek only an order of magnitude comparison, a fit by eye is adequate. Figures 5-6a through 5-6c show the procedure for r.d.'s of moments 1% (Figure 5-6b), 5% (5 times greater - Figure 5-6c) and 0.2% (5 times less - Figure 5-6a). The best-fitting curve of Figure 5-6a (depth = 410km) underestimates most of the values on the flanks. A better fit is provided by the 1% r.d. at 700 km (Figure 5-6b) which also has the advantage, that it slightly overestimates the values of Z and hence gives a maximum depth. Figure 5-6c shows that once a value of 5% is reached, a good fit cannot be found. We select the 700km, 1% solution, and reference to Figure 5-5 then gives a ratio of at least 12 to 1. The same procedure using perturbation A2 without the within-pair cutoff gives a ratio of 16 to 1. Therefore it appears that the paleosources required to explain the observed perturbations are at least an order of magnitude higher than present-day reverse flux features.

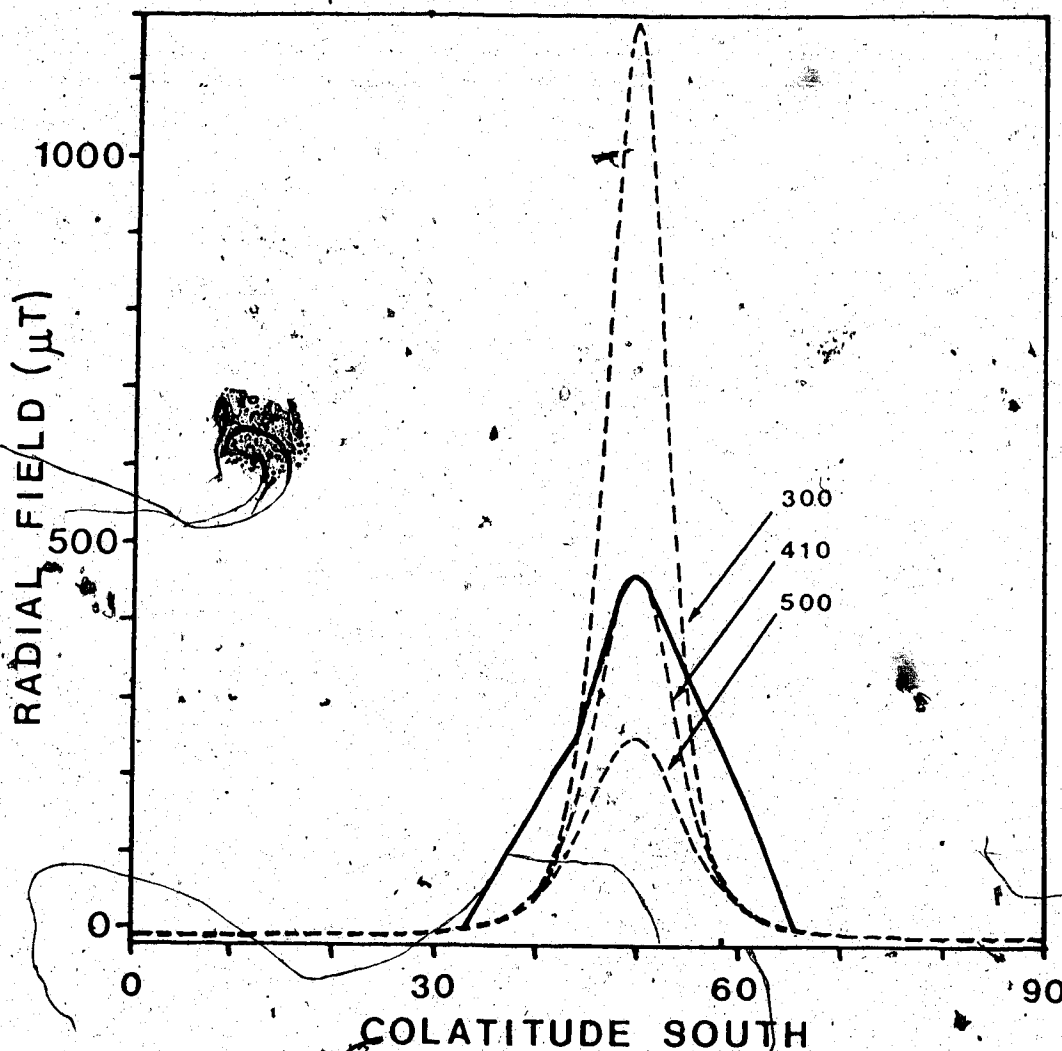


Figure 5-6: Comparison of profile of Z field feature of Figure 5-4 with Z profiles (broken curves) generated by radial dipoles of arbitrary strengths (a) 0.2%, (b) 1%, and (c) 5%, placed at indicated depths below the CMB.

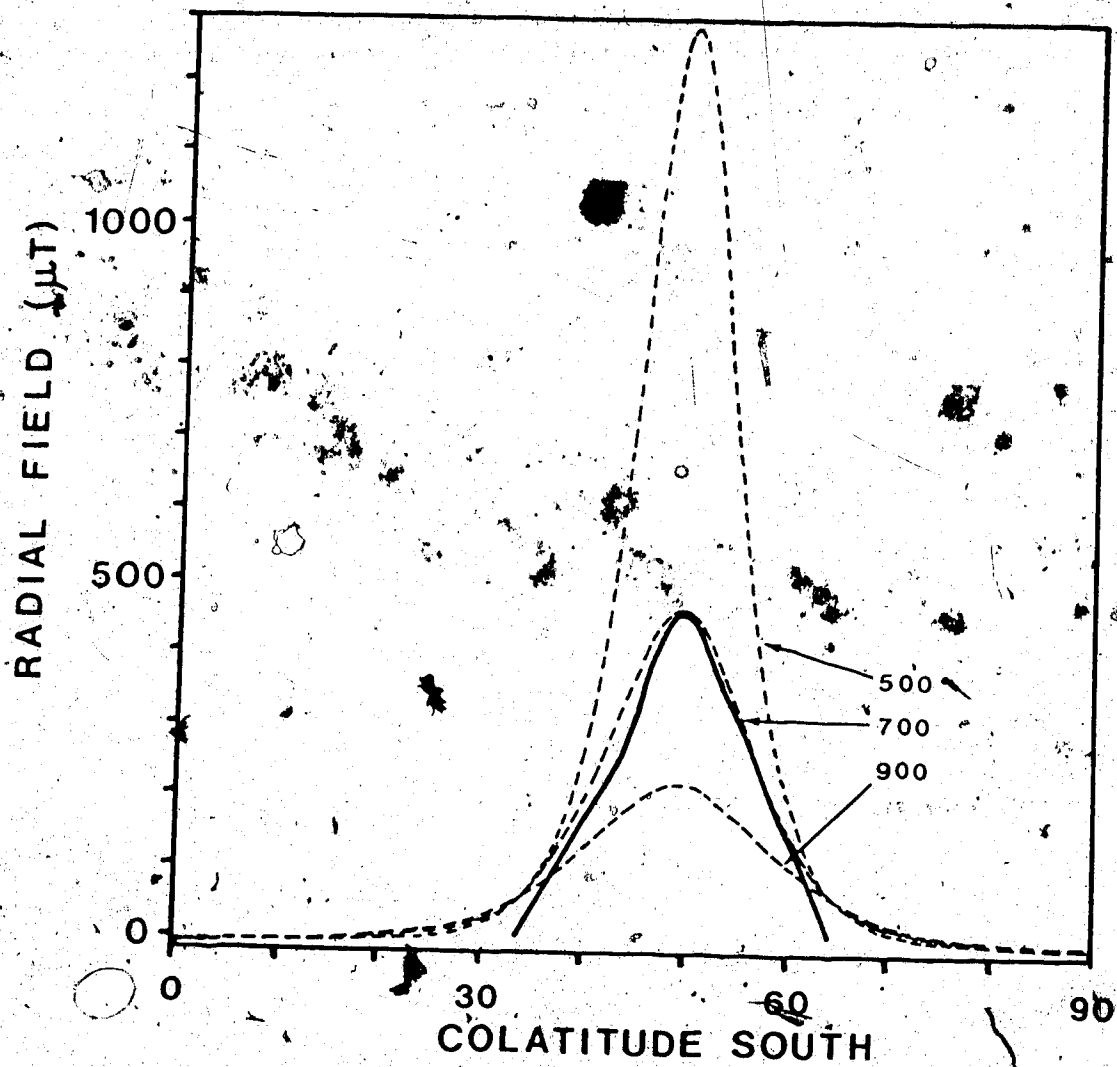


Figure 5-6(b)

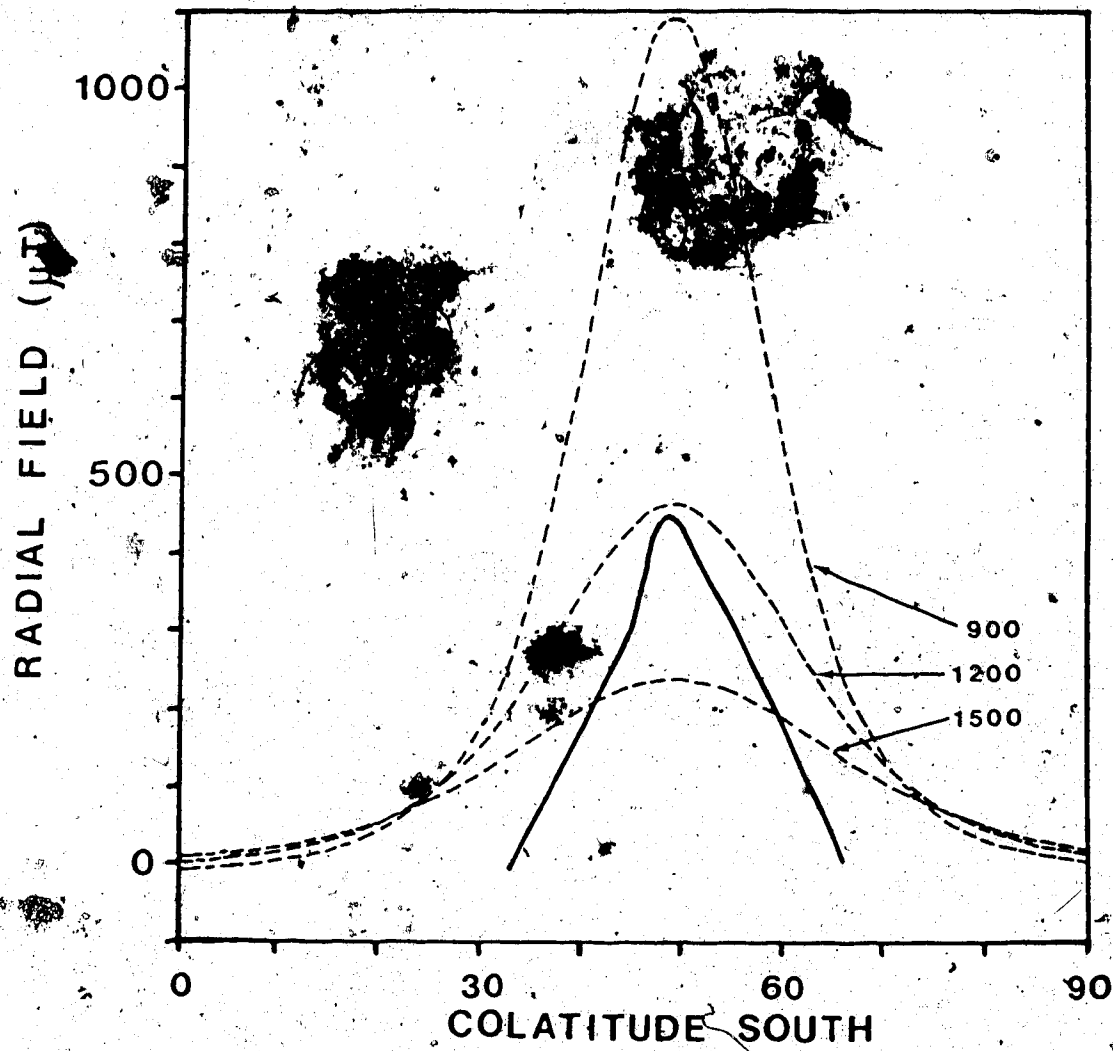


Figure 5-6

VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The remanent magnetization records recovered from two sections of Pleistocene sediments (each approximately 20 m in vertical extent) exposed in the valley walls of the Old Crow River display features of both geological and geophysical interest. The fact that a sequence of three features (A2, A3 and A4) can be correlated with previous findings from other sections upstream supports their reality, and the fact that these and the previously sampled sections are separated by over 5 km favours a geomagnetic perturbing mechanism over a sedimentological one. This remarkable correlation of three features allows a date to be established for these sediments by paleomagnetic means. A volcanic ash (the Old Crow Tephra) present at the outcrop at which Hedlin and Evans (1987) recovered their records showed a distinctive paleomagnetic signature. The age of this tephra is currently believed to be $149,000 \pm 13,000$ years (Westgate, 1988) and thus sediments at the 14.6m level in KGA which display this characteristic paleomagnetic signal are believed to represent this age, i.e. the time of deposition of the Old Crow Tephra in the Basin. The same RM signal is suggested at the 13.3m mark in section KGB, although the quality is not as good.

The paleosecular variation sequences recovered also display behaviour consistent with the existence of several cycles of growth and decay of stationary sources at the CMB. These involve perturbations of the RM vector in linear

trajectories up to 62.4° from the ambient position dictated by an axial geocentric dipole field. Such features can be easily modelled by elementary magnetostatic theory by placing an eccentric radial dipole at the CMB. The strength for an r.d., the moment vector of which is directed outwards (away from the geocentre) need only be a few percent of the dipole, even in the most extremely perturbed case (declination 347.5 , inclination 16.5). The results for the corresponding inwardly directed moment r.d.'s are always much higher and in the case of the above perturbation, exceed the strength of the main dipole itself. This leaves the outward solution as a much more attractive explanation. Such r.d.'s would produce patches of concentrated reversely directed flux at the CMB (i.e., outwards in the northern hemisphere where flux should be inwards). No perfect analogue can be found in the modern field, but patches of rapidly intensifying reversely directed flux do exist. Simple magnetostatic modelling of such a patch currently existing in the southern hemisphere demonstrates that a radial dipole with moment approximately 1% of that of the main dipole produces an excellent fit when placed under these anomalies at a depth of 700 km below the CMB. At this same depth, r.d.'s ranging from 12% to 16% are required to explain the features A2 and A3, thus suggesting an order of magnitude difference.

As Bloxham and Gubbins (1985) mention, the pattern of fluid flow in the outer core is unlikely to remain

stationary with respect to the mantle, so the existence of static features implies that this flow must be coupled to the lower mantle in some regions. The coupling mechanism could be thermal, electromagnetic, topographical or some combination of these. Topographic coupling seems plausible insofar as recent seismic tomography results suggest that topography exists today at the CMB and thus there is no reason to believe that it would not have existed in the past. Hide and Malin (1971) demonstrated that even small scale vertical relief (small on the planetary scale) of only a few kilometres at the CMB could cause fluid flow perturbations which could penetrate to great depths within the core. The general idea is that fluid flow encountering local topography on the CMB is induced to flow in what is loosely termed an "eddy", and whatever the exact motion is, it is sufficient to generate magnetic flux by virtue of the velocity and magnetic field interaction. Certainly the regular appearance of several linear perturbation features in these paleosecular variation records (and the lack of such features in most other RM records from around the world) suggests that there was some property of the CMB which was in the past inducing these sources to form and/or causing them to be localized in the general vicinity of this site.

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APPENDIX A - Theta

The purpose of the work herein is to establish a relationship between "theta" values obtained from the Schonstedt SSM-2 and Molspin (Molyneux, 1971) magnetometers. Theta is a measure of the internal variance of a measurement and is defined as:

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{(\text{disX}^2 + \text{disY}^2 + \text{disZ}^2)}}{\text{moment}} \right)$$

$$\text{where } \text{disX} = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\sum (\bar{X} - X)^2}$$

and similarly for disY and disZ.

The value obtained from a sample is a function of (a) magnetometer noise and (b) inhomogeneity of magnetization.

(a) In order to assess the effects of noise only, we require a perfectly homogeneous specimen. For most cities, air will suffice for this purpose, and thus the magnetometers were operated with the sample holders empty. Theoretically, noise will be reduced by the act of stacking together repeated measurements on a single sample. This process is referred to as "integration" and the number of determinations stacked is called the integration number. The noise level at different integration numbers for both the Schonstedt and Molspin are shown in Figure A-1.

The Molspin has a tendency to drift and consequently at long integration numbers (long spin times) it is unable to attain the low noise levels possible in the Schonstedt. The lowest levels attainable for the Molspin and Schonstedt are of the order of 1×10^{-9} and 1×10^{-10} respectively. Note that although the Schonstedt approaches 1×10^{-11} for

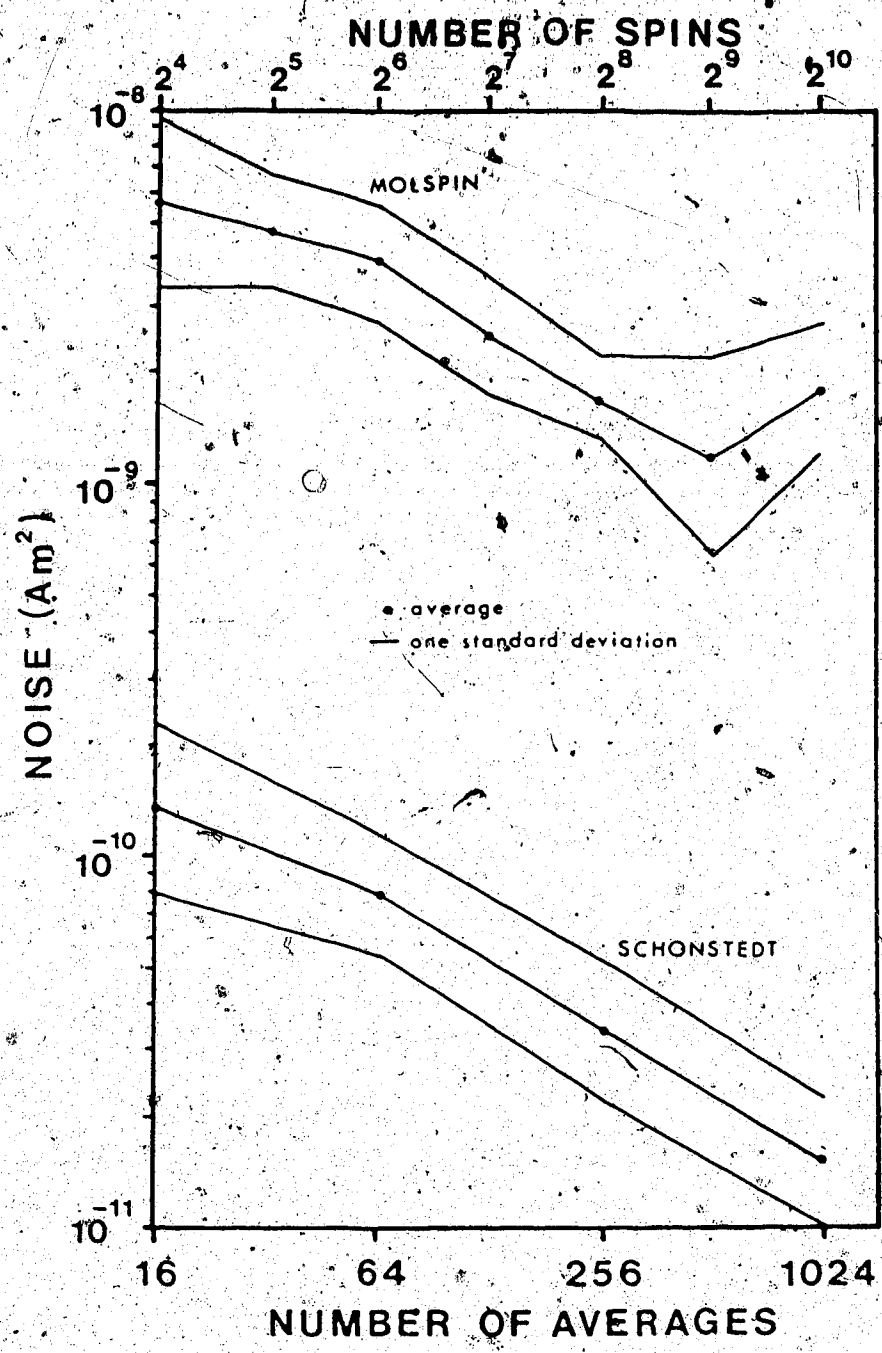


Figure A-1 Comparison of noise for Molspin and Schonstedt system designs.

averages $2'$ and $2''$, these excessively long spin times were only used in cases where inhomogeneous samples were measured in cart position 3, and in this position, the sample moment as seen by the sensor is reduced by a factor of ten, thus effectively increasing system noise by a factor of ten. Therefore the figure of 1×10^{-10} is still applicable. This allows us to calculate the lowest moment level for a homogeneous sample at which it will exceed a theta of 5° .

$$5^\circ = \arcsin(1 \times 10^{-8} / M_{mol})$$

$$5^\circ = \arcsin(1 \times 10^{-10} / M_{sch})$$

therefore,

$$M_{mol} = 1 \times 10^{-8}$$

$$M_{sch} = 1 \times 10^{-8}$$

This explains why Hedlin could not measure his weakest samples (less than $1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Am}^2$) with enough precision (theta less than 5°). For moments less than $1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Am}^2$, even a perfectly homogeneous sample will give theta greater than 5° on the Molspin.

(b) Determination of the effect of sample inhomogeneity requires samples with sufficiently high moments to render noise insignificant. In addition, the specimen cannot have low theta, since it is not inhomogeneous in this case. Unfortunately, most samples with high moments also had low theta and consequently only 5 specimens were judged suitable. These were measured on both magnetometers. For the Schonstedt, the position of the sample from the sensor is adjustable (4 possible "cart positions", 1 being furthest

and 4 being closest) with the effect that increasing distance reduces the apparent degree of inhomogeneity. Since all measurements were made using cart position 3 or 4, the comparison between device designs was made using cart position 3 (the further). Table A-1 summarizes the results.

A plot of theta from columns 2 and 3 is shown in Figure A-2. The slope of the best fit line through the origin is 2.4, thus showing that a theta of 5° on the Morspin (used by Hedlin) corresponds to 12° on the Schonstedt (used in the present study). To be conservative, the actual value selected was 11° , but the actual value chosen is not critical to the form of the magnetograms for both sections. Plots made with theta cut-offs of 10° , 11° , 12° , and 13° simply affects the number of points in the plots, but the geophysical interpretation is unaffected.

sample	Theta		
	Molspin	Schonstedt	Ratio(Sch/Mol)
KGA067	3.1	6.1	2.0
KGA073	4.7	11.9	2.5
KGA050	4.5	13.2	2.9
KGA053	3.9	8.9	2.3
KGA059	3.4	8.5	2.5

Table A-1: Table of theta values used to construct Figure A-2.

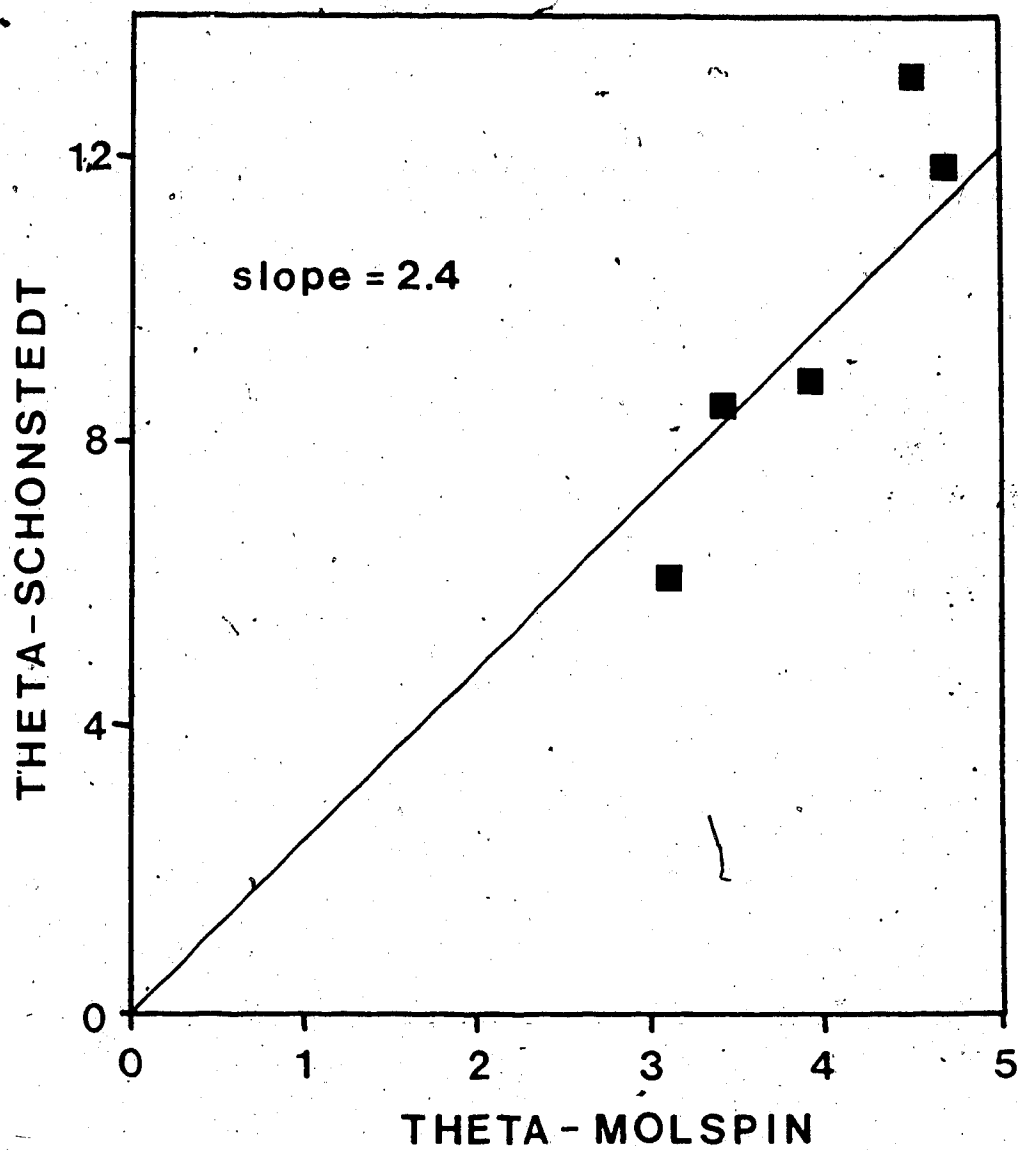


Figure A-2: Comparison of theta for Molspin and Schonstedt system designs using the best measurements obtained from selected specimens.

APPENDIX B - Data

The data used to produce this thesis are contained herein.

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[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]