

释光测年技术在陶器定年研究中的应用进展

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摘要: 陶器释光测年一直是环境考古领域重要的时间界定方法之一。本文通过系统整理释光技术在陶器定年上的主要研究成果, 分别从技术方法和应用实践两个方面进行总结和梳理, 以阐明其在相应领域的适用性、面临的问题和未来应用潜力。在陶器定年的技术方法上, 热释光技术最早应用于陶器测年, 但也存在矿物热释光晒退效率较慢、不可重复测试和反映信息较少等问题; 光释光测年技术的不断发展拓展了陶器释光测年的技术和方法, 近年来相应研究比例也不断提高, 但也存在部分年轻样品石英信号较弱、石英光释光信号组分比例影响等效剂量测定等问题。在实践应用上, 陶器释光测年技术在世界各地遗址均表现出良好的适用性, 能为遗址提供绝对年代测定, 以及在多学科交叉的背景下, 更多地反映古人地关系演化和文化区域交流。未来需要进一步加强释光技术尤其是光释光技术在陶器测年领域的应用力度, 从而更好地服务于环境考古学研究; 这对于进一步揭示区域古人地关系演化、文明发展历程和文化区域交流等方面有着重要意义。

关键词: 热释光; 光释光; 陶器; 年代; 人地关系

Application progress of luminescence dating technology in pottery dating

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Abstract: Background, aim, and scope Pottery is one of the most common relics of prehistoric sites, and its production techniques, materials, and cultural characteristics are of great significance for understanding the living environment background, living mode, and regional cultural exchanges of ancient people. Meanwhile, pottery luminescence dating is one of the important methods of environmental archaeology. Therefore, it is important to review the application of luminescence dating technique in pottery dating, with special attention to the concerns encountered in the development process. **Materials and methods** This paper systematically summarizes

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the development of luminescence dating in pottery dating in the aspects of technical methods and practice respectively to clarify its applicability, limitations, and future application potential. **Results** In the application of pottery dating, thermoluminescence (TL) was first applied to pottery dating, but there are still some limitations such as slow TL bleaching efficiency of mineral, and non-repeatable measurements. The continuous advancement of optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) has expanded the method of pottery dating. In recent years, the proportion of research on OSL pottery dating is also increasing. However, there are some problems such as weak quartz luminescence signal, particularly in some young samples, and the proportion of quartz luminescence signal components affect the equivalent dose (D_e) determination. In practice, pottery luminescence dating has shown good applicability in sites worldwide, which can provide absolute dating for sites and reflect the evolution of man-land relationship and the exchange of cultural regions under the background of multi-disciplines. **Discussion** This paper summarizes some problems in pottery luminescence dating and the corresponding solutions, as well as the prospects for future development. There are significant differences between different regions and types of pottery materials, and the luminescence characteristics of the same minerals (such as quartz and feldspar) are not the same when tested. Therefore, cross-verification using different materials and multiple dating techniques in the test is conducive to improving the accuracy of pottery dating. In addition, the influence of dose rate on the final luminescence age of pottery should not be ignored. At the same time, the background information of pottery unearthed sites should be fully understood as far as possible to provide interval reference for the final age. **Conclusions** In summary, the rapid development of luminescence technology provides a reliable technical method for the pottery dating, and multiple luminescence dating methods for cross-validation to improve the accuracy and precision of pottery dating. **Recommendations and perspectives** In the future, it is necessary to further strengthen the application of OSL in the field of pottery dating, so as to better serve the research of environmental archaeology. It is of great significance to further reveal the evolution of man-land relationship and cultural exchanges in the region.

Key words: thermoluminescence; optically stimulated luminescence; pottery; dating; man-land relationship

释光是矿物颗粒在接受电离辐射作用后积累起来的能量在受热或光激发时重新以光的形式释放出能量的一种现象 (Aitken, 1985, 1998)。受热激发出来的释光信号称为热释光 (thermoluminescence, TL), 受光激发出来的释光信号称为光释光 (optically stimulated luminescence, OSL)。释光定年就是矿物经历最后一次热事件或曝光事件后埋藏至今所经历的时间 (赖忠平和欧先交, 2013)。

陶器是人类文明发展的重要标志, 人类使用陶器已有近 20 ka 的历史, 它开启了人类开发利用自然资源的新时代, 并且从根本上改变了人类的生存实践和社会行为 (Wu et al., 2012)。目前对于陶瓷年代的确定大都还是基于传统考古学方法, 以器物类型、具体纹饰、胎质等特征作为判别依据, 但部分出土陶器仅为残片或受到地层扰动影响, 其类型、纹饰等特征难以辨认, 年代区间无法确定。释光测年技术的提出和发展为陶器绝

对年代的测定提供了新的可靠技术。Grögler et al. (1960) 首次对古陶瓷粉末样品中的热释光现象进行研究; 同年, Kennedy and Knopff (1960) 发表了利用热释光方法进行年代测定的报告。自此, 释光技术开始更多地应用于考古遗址出土的陶器上。陶器在烧制时, 其内部释光信号被清空, 之后再次受到埋藏环境放射性元素辐射影响, 热释光或光释光信号又重新积累, 所以释光年代记录了陶器最后一次受热事件以来的时间或烧制年代 (Aitken, 1985, 1998)。释光测年法按下式计算: 年龄 (A) = 等效剂量 (D_e) / 环境剂量率 (D)。

王维达 (2009) 和 Galli et al. (2020) 先后都总结了热释光技术在陶瓷应用上的方法、成果和存在问题, 而对于光释光技术在陶器上的应用介绍较少。本文主要总结热释光技术和光释光技术在陶器定年上的应用成果, 并探讨其中存在的问题, 展望未来发展方向。

1 释光技术在陶器定年上的应用

1.1 样品采集与前处理

陶器是史前人类遗址最常见的遗存之一,这为开展陶器释光测年提供了丰富的研究材料。Aitken (1985)、王维达(2009)等已对陶器样品的选取和前处理进行系统总结,此处只作简单介绍。

1.1.1 样品要求与采集

陶器样品的采集应与考古遗址发掘同时进行,便于记录陶器所处的层位信息。样品厚度应大于7 mm,长宽超过3 cm,以便于样品内部剂量的计算。测定一个层位的样品需采集同一时代平行样品3—6块,最好包含不同的陶器类型,如夹砂陶、硬陶和原始瓷等,同时选择距地表30 cm以下的样品,避免受到阳光晒退和地层扰动的影响(王维达,2009)。选取样品后应及时用黑色塑料袋进行包装,避免曝光和水分逸失,因为样品含水量对于最终结果会产生较大影响,同时采集陶器周边30 cm范围内的地层沉积物,用于环境剂量率计算(Aitken, 1985)。

1.1.2 样品前处理

陶器释光样品前处理同样在红光暗室内进行,先打磨掉样品外层2—3 mm厚度,去除可能曝光的部分,同时消除陶器周边环境 β 剂量的影响,外层样品也可用于测定U、Th、K元素含量以计算陶器内部剂量(Aitken, 1985);然后将样品内部夹碎、轻轻研磨,筛选所需要的粒级以备下一步化学处理。需要注意的是,筛选过程中尽量选择原本存在的颗粒,尤其对于细粒径(如4—11 μm)来说,研磨大颗粒后得到的细颗粒内部 α 剂量已经严重衰减,会影响到等效剂量的测定(王维达,2009)。

1.2 等效剂量测量

1.2.1 陶器热释光测年方法研究

Mejdahl (1969)和Aitken (1985)先后对陶器等效剂量和环境剂量率测定以及误差的修正等进行了研究,为陶器热释光定年奠定了理论和技术基础。对于埋藏的陶器来说,等效剂量主要来自于器物内部的陶土和陶器外部的沉积环境,按射线类型不同可分为陶器内部放射性物质提供的 α (只针对细粒技术)和 β 剂量以及由沉积环境辐射提供的 γ 和宇宙射线剂量(王维达等,2006;王维达,2009)。以往热释光技术在陶器定年上应用最广的为“细粒混合矿物技术”

(fine-grain technique)(Zimmerman, 1971)和“粗颗粒石英技术”(quartz inclusion technique)(Fleming, 1966)。细粒混合矿物技术是选择陶器中原本存在的细粒级(如1—8 μm)混合矿物进行测年(Zimmerman, 1971)。由于测试混合矿物以石英和长石为主,其他矿物次之,所以测年一般选用较为稳定的325 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ 或375 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ TL峰(Zimmerman, 1971; Aitken, 1985)。石英粗粒技术是对筛选出的粗石英颗粒进行测年,考虑到 α 和 β 粒子的辐射范围,一般石英粒径选择在100 μm 左右(Fleming, 1966)。此外,有研究者(李盛华等,1995;李盛华和苗建民,2001)尝试利用中颗粒对陶器进行热释光测试,发现中颗粒测得的等效剂量与细颗粒相当,并且热释光信号比细颗粒更为明亮,同时还探讨了光照作用对陶器热释光测年的影响。但陶器热释光技术也存在诸多问题:(1)石英和长石等测试矿物的热释光信号晒退效率普遍低于光释光信号(Godfrey-Smith et al., 1988);(2)热释光技术难以评估样品信号感量的变化,无法对等效剂量进行校正(Aitken, 1985);(3)热释光技术需要将样品加热到较高温度,所以一般不能进行重复测试(Zimmerman, 1971; 王维达,2009)。

1.2.2 陶器光释光测年方法研究

光释光技术是在热释光技术之上发展起来的,最早用于陆地沉积物的定年,测年范围可由几百年到几十万年(Wintle, 1977; Prescott and Robertson, 1997; Clarke et al., 1999; Murray and Wintle, 2000, 2003; Wintle and Murray, 2006; 康树刚等,2016)。此外,光释光技术还被用于史前遗址地层定年(Sanjujo-Sánchez and Mato, 2013; Jin et al., 2021, 2022),以遗址绝对年代为基础,为研究史前遗址时空变迁和古人地关系演化提供了新方法。

光释光技术主要测年材料为石英和长石,石英晒退效果良好,应用较为广泛;长石光释光饱和剂量度更高,适用于年代久远的样品。同时,较高的光释光信号感量对于年轻样品也非常有利,但也存在异常衰退的问题(Wintle, 1973, 1977)。目前常用的光释光测年方法主要有单片再生剂量法(single aliquot regenerative-dose, SAR)(Murray and Wintle, 2000; Murray and Wintle, 2003)、简单多片再生法(sensitivity-corrected multiple aliquot regenerative-dose protocol, SMAR)

(王旭龙等, 2005a, 2005b; Kang et al., 2012) 和拓展而来的单颗粒单片再生剂量法 (single-grain optically stimulated luminescence, SG-OSL) (Duller, 2008) 等。单片再生剂量法自提出后不断完善, 是现在陶器光释光测年应用最广的测试方法 (Öke and Yurdatapan, 2000; Bakraji et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2021a, 2021b)。在烧制陶器过程中, 高温把陶土中储存的释光信号释放清空, 基本不存在晒退不充分的问题 (Al Khasawneh et al., 2015), 所以以上方法同样适用于陶器的光释光测年。但陶器的光释光测年也存在一些问题: (1) 部分年轻石英信号可能较弱 (Solongo et al., 2019), 影响矿物颗粒信号的准确测量。(2) 长石异常衰减的难题。虽然现在有红外后红外释光技术, 可以用不同温度激发测试, 但仍需测试长石异常衰减率 (g-value) 来予以校正 (Al Khasawneh et al., 2017; Solongo et al., 2019), 耗时耗力。(3) 石英信号组分影响。以快组分为主的石英光释光信号是应用单片再生剂量法的前提之一 (Wintle and Murray, 2006), 所以热不稳定的中、慢组分比例过高, 可能会造成等效剂量的低估 (Thomas et al., 2005; Solongo et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2022)。

1.3 环境剂量率的计算

环境剂量率作为释光测年中两个重要参数之一, 直接影响到测年结果的准确性。用于环境剂量率计算的主要是放射性元素 U、Th、K, 宇宙射线也有少量贡献。陶器含水量的变化, U 系、Th 系和 Ac 系衰变链中氡 (Rn) 的逸散等都会导致最后测年结果出现偏差。比如 Rn 的逸散会导致结果出现 10% 的偏差 (Aitken, 1985; Olley et al., 1997; 张克旗, 2012), 对于部分质地疏松的陶器, Rn 逸散更为明显 (李虎侯, 1980)。此外, 钙质土类陶器在烧制过程中过高的温度使陶器内部发生化学和矿物变化会造成 K 的浸出效应, 如果发生在陶器埋藏后期这会导致剂量率被低估 (Zacharias et al., 2005; Zacharias et al., 2007)。在某些情况下, 陶器的外部 γ 剂量无法进行现场测量 (如博物馆文物、无法恢复的考古遗址), 因此必须进行外部剂量率估计。Zink et al. (2012) 使用了三种对外部 γ 剂量估算的方法进行比较, 发现采用遗址所处区域的土壤放射性元素背景值计算得出的外部 γ 剂量, 最终测年结果与已

知年代最为接近。此外, 含水量是影响测年结果的最重要因素之一。在极端情况下, 含水量对沉积物环境剂量率的影响可达 50% (张克旗, 2012)。Bate et al. (2017) 探讨了含水量和放射性元素浓度对剂量率的影响, 与沉积物相比, 陶器尤其是硬陶的饱和含水量更低 (15% 及以下), 含水量变化区间更小, 因此, 相较于沉积物, 含水量对陶器定年结果影响较小。对巴西热带地区遗址陶器不同含水量对释光测年结果影响的研究发现: 使用饱和含水量和忽略含水量分别计算的陶器光释光年龄相差 202—262 a, 且与预期年代不符 (Hazenfratz et al., 2013), 所以陶器含水量还需结合遗址沉积环境、陶器类型和当地历史气候条件确定。

1.4 陶器释光测年实践与应用

本文基于中国知网和 Web of Science 数据库, 总结了全球范围内已开展的释光技术在陶器定年上的应用成果 (图 1 和表 1)。从图 1 和表 1 可以看出: 释光技术在陶器定年上的应用集中于史前人类遗址、古城遗址及历史墓葬等区域, 基本在各大洲均有应用, 测试矿物以石英居多, 测试粒级以细粒径 (4—11 μm) 为主。

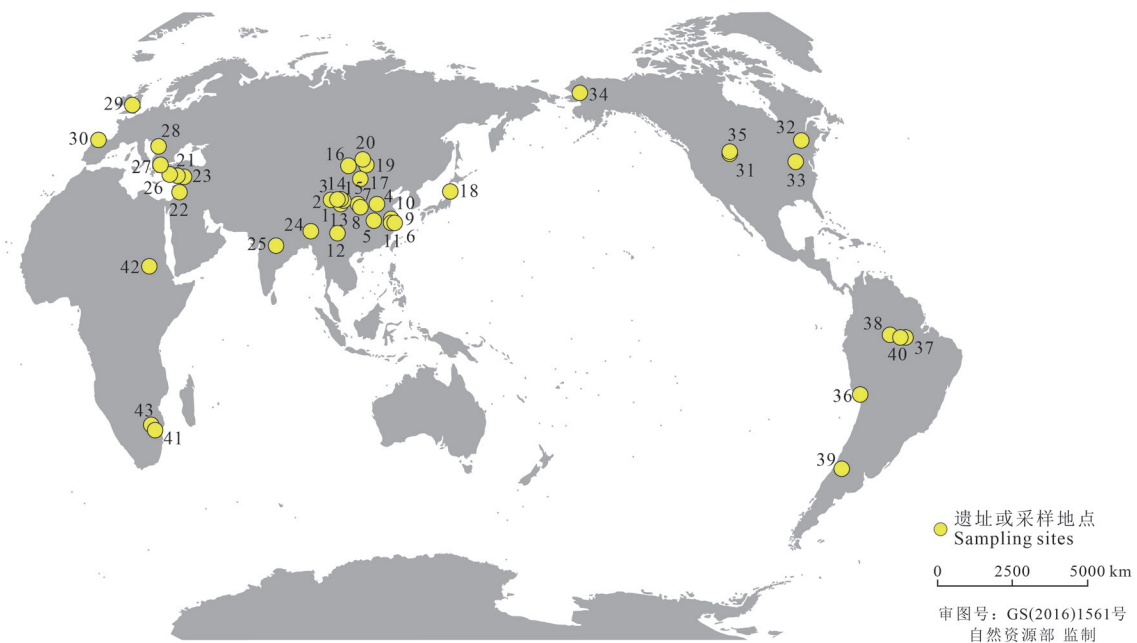
通过对以上文献的汇总与梳理, 对于释光技术在陶器测年上的实践应用主要总结在以下三个方面。

1.4.1 全域的适用性

史前人类遗址几乎在世界各地均有发现, 而遗址内常见的陶器作为理想的释光测年研究材料, 在高纬极寒地区、半干旱干旱荒漠区、热带湿润区、高海拔低氧区和热带沙漠区均表现出良好的适用性 (Zink et al., 2012; Cano et al., 2014; Solongo et al., 2014; Cano et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2015; Anderson and Feathers, 2019; Solongo et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2021b)。以青藏高原为例, 青藏高原作为世界上海拔最高的高原, 有着人类难以生存的极端自然环境。但青藏高原依旧有许多晚更新世至全新世的人类活动遗址, 然而对这些遗址的年代研究相对薄弱, 有机定年材料的缺乏是重要因素之一。Rhode et al. (2007) 利用热释光技术最早对青藏高原陶器年代进行了测定, 但未进行系统研究。Hou et al. (2015) 对青藏高原江西沟遗址陶器进行了年代测试, 得到了青藏高原目前最早的陶器释光年代, 并且分析表明青藏高原地区的狩猎文化由于受到黄土高原仰

韶文化的影响而进入新石器时代。还有研究对青藏高原东北部遗址群出土陶器进行光释光年代测试, 确定了该地区历史上人类活动活跃时期, 同时证据表明气候变化是该地区人地关系历史演变的主要驱动力 (Sun et al., 2021a; Sun et al., 2021b)。除高海拔地区外, 在有机物质较为匮乏的极地高寒地区遗址, 陶器释光定年结果也与已确定的 ^{14}C 年代和树轮定年结果一致, 表现出良好的适用性, 这对于增加对环极地圈全新世人类迁移、文化互动和变化的理解有着巨大潜力 (Anderson and Feathers, 2019)。同样在气候

炎热、生物化学循环周期短、有机物质难以保存的热带地区, 通过对陶器进行释光定年, 可以填补部分遗址年代学研究的空白, 也可以作为 ^{14}C 年代数据的补充材料 (Hazenfratz et al., 2013; Cook et al., 2017; Birin et al., 2021)。此外, 陶器释光测年技术对于不同类型遗址也显示出良好的适用性。以洞穴型遗址为例, 洞穴型遗址内往往缺乏明确的地层关系, 对遗址内陶器进行释光测年可以为遗址提供绝对年代, 避免由于洞穴地层扰动对遗址沉积物测年的影响 (Rasmussen et al., 2022)。



本图基于自然资源部标准地图服务网 (<http://bzdt.ch.mnr.gov.cn/>) 下载的审图号为 GS(2016)1561 号的标准地图制作, 底图无修改。

图1 全球范围内已开展陶器释光定年的地点 (图中采样点编号与表1中第二列编号一一对应)

Fig. 1 Sites of luminescence dating in pottery worldwide (the numbering of the sampling point in the graph corresponds to the numbering in the second column of Tab. 1)

1.4.2 遗址和陶器释光测年的优势

^{14}C 测年作为普遍接受的定年方法, 被广泛用于遗址有机物测年, 但由于受到“老碳效应”等影响会存在较大误差 (Janz et al., 2015; Anderson and Feathers, 2019), 所以某些情况下并不能完全正确指示遗址年代, 同时单一测年技术得出的年代也需要进行交叉验证。Janz et al. (2015) 通过对比中蒙交界荒漠地区遗址发现的鸵鸟蛋壳 ^{14}C 年代和陶器释光年代, 认为两者表现出一致性, 能够实现年代的交叉验证。陶器在烧制时, 其内部的矿物颗粒在高温下释光信号清空归零,

颗粒的晒退程度相对均一, 也避免了遗址地层土壤存在晒退不充分的颗粒对地层测年结果产生影响 (Bate et al., 2017)。此外, 对于缺少有机物定年材料的遗址和难以通过器物类型、纹饰特征判别年代的陶片, 释光测年可为遗址提供可靠年代 (Solongo et al., 2014; Finley et al., 2017; Solongo et al., 2019; Mejia-Bernal et al., 2020; Rasmussen et al., 2022)。陶器最早出现于距今 20 ka (Wu et al., 2012), 以 $4\text{ Gy}\cdot\text{ka}^{-1}$ 剂量率估算, 对应等效剂量远未达到石英和长石的释光饱和剂量, 同时释光测年技术对于历史时期内年限

较短的陶器也有很好的适用性 (Hazenfratz et al., 2013; Sanjurjo-Sánchez and Mato, 2013)。有研究将红外后红外光释光技术应用于蒙古匈奴墓中的陶器, 与考古器型学预期年代有着很好的一致

性, 显示出红外后红外光释光技术在陶器测年应用上的潜力 (Solongo et al., 2019), 这为解决部分样品石英信号较弱的问题和实现不同技术的交叉验证提供了途径。

表 1 释光技术在全球范围陶器定年上的应用
Tab. 1 Application of luminescence dating in pottery worldwide

大洲 Continent	编号 No.	遗址名称 Sampling sites	经纬度 Latitude and longitude	矿物 Mineral	粒级 Grain size / μm	测试方法 Method	样品数量 (件/组) Number of samples	其他测年 方法对照 Comparison of other dating methods	来源 References
	1	青海江西沟 2 号遗址 The Jiangxigou-2 site, Qinghai Province	100°17'47"E 36°35'25"N	P	1—8	TL/post-IR blue OSL	4	AMS ¹⁴ C	Hou et al., 2015
	2	青海搭里他里哈遗址 The Talitaliha site, Qinghai Province	96°23'10.80"E 36°26'17.88"N	Q, F	90—250	SAR/pIRIR	5	AMS ¹⁴ C	Sun et al., 2021a
	3	青海天峻石林溶洞遗址 The Tianjun karst cave site, Qinghai Province	98°49'42.23"E 37°17'58.23"N	Q, F	90—154	SAR/pIRIR	4	AMS ¹⁴ C	孙满平, 2019 (Sun M P, 2019)
	4	河南安阳殷墟遗址 Anyang Yin Dynasty ruins, Henan Province	—	P	—	TL	2	—	贾栓稳和杨百瑞, 2000 (Jia S W and Yang B R, 2000)
亚洲 Asia	5	湖北枝江市关庙山遗址 The Guanmiaoshan site, Zhijiang City, Hubei Province	—	P	—	TL	10	—	中国社会科学院考古研究所实验室, 1982 (Laboratory of Institute of Archaeology, Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, 1982)
	6	浙江余姚河姆渡遗址 The Hemudu site, Yuyao, Zhejiang Province	—	P	1—8	TL	6	—	—
	7	陕西咸阳秦遗址 Qin ruins in Xianyang, Shaanxi Province	—	P	1—8	TL	7	—	王维达, 1981 (Wang W D, 1981)
	8	陕西扶风县遗址 A site in Fufeng County, Shaanxi Province	—	P	1—8	TL	5	—	—
	9	上海马桥遗址 Marqiao, Shanghai County, Shanghai	121°18'E 30°00'N	P	3—8	TL	4	—	—
	10	上海青浦县福泉山遗址 Fuquanshan, Qingpu County, Shanghai	120°06'E 31°12'N	P, Q	3—8, 90—125	TL	20	—	王维达和夏君定, 1990 (Wang W D and Xia J D, 1990)
	11	上海金山县亭林遗址 Tinglin, Jinshan County, Shanghai	120°06'E 30°48'N	P	3—8	TL	8	—	—

(待续 To be continued)

(续表 1 Continued Tab. 1)

大洲 Continent	编号 No.	遗址名称 Sampling sites	经纬度 Latitude and longitude	矿物 Mineral	粒度 Grain size / μm	测试方法 Method	样品数量 (件/组) Number of samples	其他测年 方法对照 Comparison of other dating methods	来源 References
	12	云南大理点苍山马龙峰 东坡新石器遗址 A Neolithic site on the east slope of Malong Peak, Cangshan Mountain, Dali, Yunnan Province	—	—	—	TL	2	AMS ^{14}C	计凤桔和彭贵, 1988 (Ji F J and Peng G, 1988)
	13	青海青海湖流域 西海郡古城 The Xihaijun site in Qinghai Lake Basin	100°58'53"E 36°54'20"N	Q	90—154	SAR	3		
	14	青海青海湖流域 北向阳古城 The Beixiangyang site in Qinghai Lake Basin	99°32'42"E 37°09'09"N	Q	90—154	SAR	3	—	Sun et al., 2021b
	15	青海青海湖流域 伏俟城遗址 The Fuxi site in Qinghai Lake Basin	99°34'52"E 37°01'32"N	Q	90—154	SAR	4		
	16	蒙古 Khutag Uul 山 墓葬群 The burials in Khutag Uul Mountains, Mongolia	102°47'E 47°36'N	Q	—	SG-OSL	1	—	Tengis et al., 2021
亚洲 Asia	17	中蒙边境的 戈壁沙漠地区 The border area between Mongolia and China's Gobi Desert	—	Q, F	1—8	TL/post-IR blue OSL	5	AMS ^{14}C	Janz et al., 2015
	18	日本 Niigata 地区北部的 Okumiomote 遗迹 The Okumiomote ruin sites, situated in the northern district of Niigata, Japan	139°16'48"E 38°07'48"N	Q, F	150—250	RTL/BTL/ SAR/IRSL	9	—	Hashimoto et al., 2005
	19	蒙古 Noin-Ula 山的 匈奴墓葬 A Xiongnu tomb at the Noin-Ula Mountains, Mongolia	—	P, F	4—11, 100—150	pIRIR	3	—	Solongo et al., 2019
	20	蒙古 Boroo 的匈奴遗址 The Xiongnu settlement of Boroo, Mongolia	106°16'57"E 48°45'20"N	P	4—10	TL/SAR/ post-IR blue OSL/pulsed post-IR-OSL	3	AMS ^{14}C	Solongo et al., 2014
	21	约旦的 Pella 遗址 The Pella site, Jordan	35°37'E 32°27'N	P	4—11	pIRIR	52	AMS ^{14}C	Al Khasawneh et al., 2017
	22	以色列的 Christmas 洞穴遗址 The Christmas Cave, Israel	—	P	100—300	TL	11	AMS ^{14}C	Rasmussen et al., 2022

(待续 To be continued)

(续表 1 Continued Tab. 1)

大洲 Continent	编号 No.	遗址名称 Sampling sites	经纬度 Latitude and longitude	矿物 Mineral	粒级 Grain size / μm	测试方法 Method	样品数量 (件/组) Number of samples	其他测年 方法对照 Comparison of other dating methods	来源 References
亚洲 Asia	23	叙利亚的 Tell Al-Rawda 遗址 The Tell Al-Rawda site, Syria	—	P	4—11	post-IR blue OSL	4	—	Bakraji et al., 2015
	24	印度境内 6 个不同遗址 Six sites in India	—	Q	90—250	TL/SAR	10	AMS ^{14}C	Thomas et al., 2008
	25	印度 Daojali Hading 遗址和 Gawak Abri 遗址 The Daojali Hading site and Gawak Abri site from India	—	Q	90—125	SAR	2	AMS ^{14}C	Sharma and Singh, 2017
	26	土耳其 Datça-Burgaz 遗址 The Datça-Burgaz site, Turkey	—	P	1—8	OSL 附加剂量法 OSL additive dose technique	6	—	Öke and Yurdatapan, 2000
欧洲 Europe	27	希腊 Kastrouli Late Helladic (LH) III 遗址 The Kastrouli Late Helladic (LH) III fortified inland site, Greece	—	P	4—12	TL	2	—	Liritzis et al., 2019
	28	塞尔维亚 Vinča 文化 Belo-Brdo 遗址 The Vinča Belo-Brdo site, Serbia	—	Q	4—11	post-IR blue OSL	2	AMS ^{14}C	Bate et al., 2017
	29	英国英格兰东部和北部的 17 个遗址 17 sites in eastern and northern England, Britain	—	Q	90—150	TL/SAR	80	—	Barnett, 2000
	30	西班牙 Santiago de Compostela 市教堂下遗迹 Santiago de Compostela, Spain	—	Q	90—180	TL	1	AMS ^{14}C	Sanjurjo-Sánchez and Mato, 2013
北美洲 North America	31	美国 Wyoming 西北部 4 处遗址 Four northwestern Wyoming archaeological site, America	—	Q, P	4—11, 60—250, 90—250	SG-OSL/FG-IRSL	10	AMS ^{14}C	Ideker et al., 2017
	32	加拿大 Mailhot-Curran 遗址 (BgFn-2) A Mailhot-Curran archaeological site (BgFn-2), Canada	—	P	4—11	IRSL	10	AMS ^{14}C	Forget Brisson et al., 2015
	33	美国 Hahn 遗址 The Hahn site, America	—	Q	90—125	SAR	17	—	Cook et al., 2017
	34	阿拉斯加西北部遗址群 Sites group in northwest Alaska	—	P	1—8	TL/post-IR blue OSL	14	AMS ^{14}C	Anderson and Feathers, 2019

(待续 To be continued)

(续表1 Continued Tab. 1)

大洲 Continent	编号 No.	遗址名称 Sampling sites	经纬度 Latitude and longitude	矿物 Mineral	粒级 Grain size / μm	测试方法 Method	样品数量 (件/组) Number of samples	其他测年 方法对照 Comparison of other dating methods	来源 References
北美洲 North America	35	美国落基山脉中部的4处遗址 Four Late Prehistoric-period sites in the Middle Rocky Mountains, America	—	Q	63—250	SG-OSL	8	AMS ^{14}C	Finley et al., 2017
	36	秘鲁 Arequipa 地区 Yumina 遗址 The Yumina archaeological site, Arequipa, Peru	—	Q	150—250	TL/SAR	5	—	Mejia-Bernal et al., 2020
	37	巴西 Hatahara 遗址 The Hatahara archaeological site in the district of Iranduba, Brazil	—	Q	80—180	TL/SAR	7	EPR	Cano et al., 2014
南美洲 South America	38	巴西 São Paulo II (SP II) 遗址 The São Paulo II (SP II) archaeological site, Brazil	—	Q	80—180	TL	7	EPR	Cano et al., 2015
	39	阿根廷 Mendoza 遗址群 Sites in Mendoza, Argentina	—	P	1—8	TL/post-IR blue OSL	6	AMS ^{14}C	Marsh et al., 2021
	40	巴西 Osvaldo 遗址和 Lago Grande 遗址 The Osvaldo site and Lago Grande site, Brazil	—	Q	149—250	SAR	5	—	Hazenfratz et al., 2013
	41	南非 Bokoni Komati Gorge 1号遗址 The Bokoni Komati Gorge Village 1, South Africa	—	Q	180—212	SAR	8	—	Birin et al., 2021
非洲 Africa	42	苏丹 Al-Khiday 1号遗址 The Al-Khiday 1 site, Sudan	—	P	4—11	TL/SAR	12	AMS ^{14}C , EPR	Bortolussi et al., 2013
	43	南非 Limpopo 省 4个不同地区的 11处遗址 11 sites located in four different areas of the Limpopo Province, South Africa	—	P	4—13	post-IR blue OSL	11	AMS ^{14}C	Zink et al., 2012

Q 为石英, F 为长石, P 为混合矿物。RTL 为红热释光, BTL 为蓝热释光, IRSL 为红外释光测年, FG-IRSL 为细粒红外释光测年, pIRIR 为红外激发后高温红外激发释光方法, post-IR blue OSL 为红外后蓝光释光, pulsed post-IR-OSL 为脉冲红外蓝光释光。AMS ^{14}C 为碳十四测年, EPR 为电子顺磁共振测年。

Q represents quartz, F represents feldspar, P represents polymineral. Red thermoluminescence is RTL, blue thermoluminescence is BTL, infrared stimulated luminescence dating is IRSL, fine-grain infrared stimulated luminescence dating is FG-IRSL, post-IR IRSL is pIRIR, post infrared blue OSL is post-IR blue OSL, pulsed post infrared blue OSL is pulsed post-IR-OSL. Accelerator mass spectrometry radiocarbon dating is AMS ^{14}C , electron paramagnetic resonance dating is EPR.

1.4.3 多学科交叉反映遗址信息
有学者将多学科方法与释光技术相结合来获

取遗址内的更多信息。Bakraji et al. (2015) 基于不同陶器地球化学元素丰度特征进行分组, 之后

再分别对不同组别的陶器进行光释光测年, 区分不同陶器的陶土来源, 确定不同分组陶器的具体年代。Cano et al. (2014) 将显微技术应用到释光材料的纯度识别上, 结果表明由于遗址陶器内存在非石英晶体物质, 会对热释光结果产生影响, 但并不会影响到陶器的光释光结果。Rasmussen et al. (2022) 结合质谱分析、陶器颗粒岩相观测、 ^{14}C 定年和热释光测年技术确定了死海西部一洞穴遗址不同时代的人类活跃期。

此外, 由于陶器中石英颗粒的释光特性在烧制过程中会发生一定的变化, 基于这种变化可以利用释光技术来确定陶器的烧成温度 (Hashimoto et al., 2005; Polymeris et al., 2007; Polymeris et al., 2014), 这为理解和研究陶器的烧制技术提供了新方法。除陶器外, 也有学者将其应用于青铜器烧成后陶范残留在青铜器孔隙内的黏土矿物上, 发现热释光技术可以很好地测试出陶范的烧成温度, 有利于进一步研究古青铜器的锻造技术 (Jin et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013)。

综合以上 40 余篇释光技术在陶器定年应用的文章可以发现, 自热释光技术首次应用于陶器开始, 主要集中在陶器的年代测定、烧成温度测定和年代指示的文化意义上, 这对分析历史上人地关系的动态变化, 丰富区域考古年代序列和古人类活动记录有重要意义。

2 陶器释光技术定年面临的问题

综合分析这些文章也可以发现目前释光技术在陶器上的应用主要面临测年材料选择、测试方法选择和石英光释光信号组分等问题, 下文对这三个问题进行探讨。

2.1 测年材料选择

石英和长石是陶器释光测年的两种主要矿物。石英由于释光信号相对容易晒退且稳定, 加之单片再生剂量法的成熟应用, 测试精度和准确度进一步提升 (Murray and Wintle, 2000; Wintle and Murray, 2006)。同时, 目前已知最老陶器年代 (Wu et al., 2012) 并不会出现突破释光测年上限的问题。但在测试部分年轻样品时, 会存在石英信号较弱、信噪比低的问题 (Solongo et al., 2019)。长石相较于石英饱和剂量更高, 在沉积物测年上往往用于测试年代更老 (老于 70—80 ka) 的样品 (Wintle and Murray, 2006),

且长石的信号感量远高于石英 (张克旗等, 2015), 这对于测试年轻样品也更为有利。异常衰减的问题极大地限制了长石的应用, 但随着红外后红外释光两步法 (pIRIR) (Buylaert et al., 2009; Thiel et al., 2011)、红外后红外释光多步法 (MET-pIRIR) (Li and Li, 2011; Fu and Li, 2013) 的应用, 异常衰减的问题得到了有效解决, 但这些方法的应用还有一定的局限性, 如两步法需注意测试过程中热转移信号的影响 (Nian et al., 2012; Qin and Zhou, 2012); 多步法需要样品有较强的释光信号和良好的晒退能力 (年小美和张卫国, 2018)。所以在陶器释光测年中石英仍为首选矿物, 对于石英信号较弱、长石含量较高的样品, 测试长石更为适用。

2.2 测试方法选择

热释光测年技术最早应用于陶器释光测年, 细粒混合矿物技术和粗粒石英技术是当时的主要测试方法。细颗粒测年采用混合矿物, TL 信号构成复杂, 但现在细颗粒石英提取技术已非常成熟, 譬如在黄土高原已有从黄土中提取该粒级石英的成功例子 (Kang et al., 2020)。此外, 非辐射引发热释光是在测量正常热释光过程中时常伴随的影响因素, 严重干扰热释光信号, 有时甚至超过真热释光信号 (Aitken, 1985; 王维达, 2009)。非辐射引起热释光种类有很多, 如摩擦热释光, 即样品在前处理过程中受到挤压、打磨, 颗粒之间碰撞诱发的光, 但目前对于摩擦热释光并没有很好的解决方法, 只能在样品前处理过程中特别注意, 尽量避免此类现象的发生 (王维达, 2009)。粗粒石英技术相较于细粒混合矿物技术, 石英纯净度较高, 便于测试, 但样品测试过程中需加热至很高温度 (400—500 $^{\circ}\text{C}$), 一般不能用于重复测试。

光释光测年技术在热释光测年技术提出之后获得了长足发展, 在近年来的陶器释光测年研究中占较大比例 (Birin et al., 2021; Marsh et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021b; Tengis et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022)。同时由石英光释光单片法发展而来的红外后红外释光技术 (Buylaert et al., 2009; Thiel et al., 2011)、红外后蓝光释光 (post-IR blue OSL) (Roberts and Wintle, 2003) 和脉冲释光技术 (pulsed OSL) (Thomsen et al., 2008;

Tsukamoto and Rades, 2016)为解决长石异常衰减和长石包裹体问题提供了有效方法。此外,光释光测年技术由光源激发矿物释光信号,测试样品可以进行多类型测试,并且其释光信号可用于判别矿物信号组分和多种数据统计分析。

同一样品的不同粒度也会对最终年代产生影响,采用细粒径(1—8 μm 或4—11 μm)时,测片上附着颗粒较多,测片间等效剂量离散性小,难以有效评估颗粒的释光特性,如果有陶器外层存在部分晒退的颗粒混入会导致等效剂量的低估;使用粗粒径(63—250 μm)时,由于测片附着颗粒变少,较高的离散性则需要采用最小年龄模型进行计算。

综上,进行陶器释光测年时对选择具有多种测试方法和技术的光释光测年技术更有优势,也可以同时应用热释光测年技术和多种光释光测年技术对年代结果进行交叉验证,以提高陶器测年的准确度。

2.3 石英光释光信号组分

石英的光释光信号通常可以分解为“快组分(fast component)”、“中组分(medium component)”和“慢组分(slow component)”3种(Bailey et al., 1997)。其中快组分最容易被晒退,石英光释光信号以快组分为主也是应用单片再生剂量法的前提之一(Wintle and Murray, 2006)。石英光释光信号组分构成比例的差异,会影响最终等效剂量的测定(Bailey et al., 1997)。在多颗粒光释光测试中,具有热不稳定性的中组分和慢组分占初始光释光信号比例较高可能会导致等效剂量的低估。对闽北遗址陶器进行石英光释光测试中发现,在年代普遍低于预期值的样品中,62%的样品石英光释光信号中组分和慢组分占较高比例(未发表)。Wang et al. (2022)对良渚文化北村遗址陶器和红烧土石英光释光测试中也发现,石英光释光信号0.8—5 s中、慢组分比例相较于同遗址沉积物显著上升,而较高的陶器烧制温度可能是导致这一现象产生的原因。

有研究提出在计算年代时选择前背景值扣除法,尽可能多地利用快组分信号,减少中组分和慢组分对测年结果的影响(Ballarini et al., 2007)。也可利用单颗粒法,逐个判别颗粒的释光特性。

3 结论与展望

释光技术的快速发展,为陶器绝对年代的确定提供了可靠的技术方法。通过系统整理释光技术在陶器定年上的主要研究成果,分别从技术方法和应用实践两个方面进行总结和梳理。在技术方法上,石英和长石为主要的测试矿物,热释光技术最早应用于陶器测年,但也存在矿物热释光晒退效率较慢、不可重复测试和反映信息较少等问题;随着光释光测年技术的不断发展,进一步拓展了陶器光释光测年的技术和方法,近年来相应研究比例也不断提高,但也存在部分年轻样品石英信号较弱、石英光释光信号组分比例会对等效剂量产生影响等问题。在实践应用上,陶器释光测年技术在世界各地遗址均表现出良好的适用性,能为遗址提供绝对年代测定,以及在多学科交叉的背景下,更多地反映古人地关系演化和文化区域交流。

综合以上分析,陶器释光测年逐渐由单一释光测年技术发展为多种释光测年技术进行交叉验证,以提高陶器释光测年结果的准确度和精确度。未来对于世界范围内不同地域、不同类型的遗址陶器,技术方法更为丰富的光释光测年可能会有更大的发展。我国作为目前世界上陶瓷制作和使用历史最为悠久的国家,对于陶瓷的年代确定大都还是以器物类型、具体纹饰、胎质等特征作为判别依据。然而,我国地域广阔,先秦时期不同区域的文化发展进程存在差异,陶器的制作可能包含了区域的土著文化和技术,这也反映在陶器的材料来源、器型、纹饰和制作技术上。因此传统考古的器型学主要用于判定区域考古文化的相对年代,绝对年代还是需要通过科学技术手段来测定。陶器释光技术在我国青藏高原东北部、黄土高原西部地区以及长江三角洲地区的部分遗址已有成功应用。未来进一步尝试光释光技术用于我国先秦遗址中的陶器定年,对丰富我国的考古年代学研究具有重要意义和广泛前景。

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