

Do Bayesian methods lead to more precise chronologies? 'BayLum' and a first OSL-based chronology for the Palaeolithic open-air site of Mirak (Iran)

Maryam Heydari, Guillaume Guérin, Sebastian Kreutzer, Guillaume Jamet, Mohammad Akhavan Kharazian, Milad Hashemi, Hamed Vahdati Nasab, Gilles Berillon

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1 Do Bayesian methods lead to more precise chronologies? 2 'BayLum' and a first OSL-based chronology for the Palaeolithic open-air site of Mirak (Iran) 3 Maryam Heydari^{1*}, Guillaume Guérin¹, Sebastian Kreutzer¹, Guillaume Jamet², Mohammad 4 Akhavan Kharazian^{3,4}, Milad Hashemi³ and Hamed Vahdati Nasab³ and Gilles Berillon⁴ 5 6 7 ¹IRAMAT-CRP2A, UMR 5060, CNRS-Université Bordeaux Montaigne, Maison de l'Archéologie, 33607 Pessac cedex, France 8 9 ²GéoArchÉon/UMR CNRS 8591, Laboratoire de géographie physique, 75016 Meudon, France 10 ³Department of Archaeology, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran ⁴UMR7194 MNHN–CNRS–UPVD/Département Homme et Environnement, Musée de 11 12 l'Homme, Palais de Chaillot, 75016 Paris, France 13 14 *Corresponding author: mariheyd@gmail.com 15 Abstract 16 17 Bayesian inference has been applied extensively to chronologies in archaeological science 18 since it provides several advantages over the (classic) frequentist approach. One of the most 19 important aspects of applying Bayesian methods is their capacity to consider the stratigraphic 20 relationship in the final ages. More specifically, in luminescence dating, a crucial motivation 21 for applying Bayesian modelling is the ability to address the systematic shared uncertainty. The recently deployed R package 'BayLum' was developed to ameliorate luminescence-based 22 23 chronologies by employing Bayesian modelling. Our contribution aims at estimating the 24 impact of stratigraphic order and systematic shared uncertainty on the age results. 25 In this paper, for the first time, we present a comprehensive luminescence-based chronology 26 for the Middle-Upper Palaeolithic site of Mirak. The open-air site is located in the northern 27 fringes of the Iranian Central Desert, which is considered to be one of the dispersal corridors 28 for hominins (Neanderthal and modern human) living across Western and Central Asia. We 29 compare chronologies derived by frequentist and Bayesian methods to discuss the effect of stratigraphic order and addressing the correlation between samples due to systematic shared 30

uncertainty. Our investigations indicate that applying the stratigraphic order when age uncertainty overlap one another plays a fundamental role in reducing the uncertainty. The obtained Bayesian chronology considering the stratigraphic order for the layer containing predominately Upper Palaeolithic techno-complex results in [21–28] ka. The age of the intermediate layer is in the range of [26–33] ka, and the lowermost layer containing middle Palaeolithic assemblage gives the age-range of [43–55] ka. These results indicate that Late Pleistocene humans have exploited the site during MIS 2–3. Furthermore, the chronology gives further evidence to the hypothesis that the Iranian Central Plateau served as a frequently used habitat and dispersal corridor for human groups populating Western and Central Asia.

Keywords: Bayesian modelling; Luminescence dating; Chronology; Palaeolithic; Iran

1. Introduction

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A reliable chronology is an indispensable component for studying Palaeolithic sites. Optically stimulated luminescence (OSL, Huntley et al., 1985) on sediments is one of the chronological methods applied in archaeological science (e.g., Roberts et al., 2015; Liritzis, 2017). The age is the product of several separate stages of computation, fusing a considerable amount of measurements and variables (e.g., Aitken, 1985; Zink, 2013). Each stage estimates parameters with their uncertainties, hence, making the statistical data analysis an integral part of such chronological studies. Generally, two schools of statistics, frequentist (classic) and Bayesian can be applied (e.g., Buck and Millard, 2004). Classic statistical inference 'prefers' reproducible experiments, where the probability of observing an unknown variable is determined after repeated runs under similar conditions (Gelman et al., 2014; Carlin and Louis, 2000). However, such an approach may not be the proper paradigm where one-off (non-repeatable) events are the study subjects or where the number of observations is small (Buck and Meson, 2015). Geochronology and archaeological science are the fields in which the classic inference does not always seem to be the most judicious approach to data analysis (Buck and Meson 2015; Buck et al., 1998). This circumstance may be seen as one of the reasons why Bayesian inference has become prevalent. However, to date, classic statistical inference dominates the data treatment in luminescence dating, but Bayesian statistics has gained some attention (e.g., Rhodes et al., 2003; Huntriss., 2008; Zink, 2013; 2015; Combès et al., 2015; Mercier et al., 2016; Philippe et al., 2018). Applying Bayesian modelling potentially prevents information loss between analysis steps by deploying a model that runs simultaneously overall parameters of the measurements, leading to more consistent results, which better reflect original data (Combès et al., 2015). For instance, in the case of OSL dating, a single instrument may have been used for all measurements; consequently, the source of systematic uncertainty (e.g., the calibration of the radioactive source) is identical to all samples. In such a situation Bayesian inference should be used due to its capability to address different kinds of uncertainty (Huntriss, 2008; Zink, 2015). Moreover, Bayesian modelling may provide an option to include independent ages in specific situations, and with higher precision, such as

available for ¹⁴C dating, to reduce uncertainties and thus result in an improved overall age precision (Rhodes et al., 2003; Lanos and Philippe, 2018).

However, the advantages of applying Bayesian inference in dating applications are not solely restricted to the improvement of the precision, but it also allows considering fundamental knowledge of the dating process. The stratigraphic order is such kind of pre-knowledge ('prior belief') which results in chronologies consistent with the stratigraphy. This allows to include data that belong to different parts of the site, given that their stratigraphic sequence is well known and unbiased, to provide a synthetic chronology (Buck and Millard 2004).

The R (R Core Team, 2019) package 'BayLum' based on Combès *et* al. (2015), Combès and Philippe (2017) and implemented by Philippe et al. (2018) claims to play out the power of Bayesian methods by employing hierarchical Bayesian models to analyse OSL signals and estimate palaeodoses. Heydari and Guérin (2018) already showed in two laboratory-controlled experiments that the Bayesian models result in most accurate estimations of the palaeodose when compared to conventional methods, and Lahaye et al. (2019) reported the first application of it in a dating study. Beyond, a full-scale application of 'BayLum' in a large dating study under 'non-perfect' conditions is still uncharted territory raising the question of whether "these new Bayesian methods do lead to more precise chronologies" and it leads to the here presented threefold contribution:

1. First, we present a large set of luminescence dating using frequentist statistics for the open-air site of Mirak, which has been excavated by the Joint Franco-Iranian Palaeoanthropological Project (FIPP) between 2015 and 2017. The site is located in 12 km south of the city of Semnan in a belt-like region bordered by two natural barriers, the Alborz Mountains to the north and the Iranian central desert to the south (Rezvani 1990; Rezvani and Vahdati Nasab, 2010; Vahdati Nasab et al., 2013; 2019) (Fig. 1). First results of the multidisciplinary investigations indicate that Humans occupied the area several times during Late Pleistocene (Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019). our work here provides the first comprehensive chronological framework for the palaeoenvironmental of this area that has been unknown so far. A few preliminary results, were already published using frequentist approach (Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019).

- 2. We apply, for the first time, Bayesian models as implemented in 'BayLum' on combined stratigraphic sequences from the Palaeolithic open-air site of Mirak. We test different scenarios on the data set and discuss the application of Bayesian modelling as implemented in 'BayLum'. In particular, we test whether stratigraphic ordering and addressing the correlation between samples caused by systematic uncertainty results in a chronology, statistically indistinguishable to the 'conventional' frequentist approach (H_0) or indeed yields to a more precise chronology (H_A).
- 3. The first investigation clarified three main in situ archaeological layers in the site (Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019) in which the uppermost and the lowermost layers indicate characteristics associated to Upper and Middle Palaeolithic affinities. In addition, the intermediate assemblage indicates a mixed nature comprising characteristics of both Upper and Middle Palaeolithic lithic affinities. Hints in the intermediate deposit implying the existence of two separated sub-layers. Thus, here, using the determined chronological framework, we discuss whether these two sub-layers may address two distinct Palaeolithic assemblages or they both may be considered as one archaeological layer.

In summary, by combining dating application with methodological research, our study responds to the high demand for reliable chronologies, and the question of whether Bayesian methods may be of advantage to tackle this task. Finally, we contribute to the understanding of the local Palaeolithic cultures by deciphering the environmental and occupation history of the northern edge of the Iranian Central Plateau.

2. Mirak open-air site in a prehistorical context

The Iranian plateau is essential for tracking the routes of human dispersal during the Late
Pleistocene due to its particular location on a prehistoric intersection connecting Africa and
Europe to central Asia (Bar-Yosef and Belfer-Cohen, 2001).

Discovered in the last century, human remains close to the borders of this plateau
emphasize the notability of this region: for instance, the unique set of Neanderthal

skeletons in Shanidar (Solecki, 1955; Trinkaus, 1983) in the Iraqi Kurdistan, as well as the

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skeleton of a Neanderthal child in Teshik Tash (Okladnikov, 1949), south of Uzbekistan. However, so far, the Late Pleistocene human remains in Iran (Trinkaus and Biglari, 2006; Zanolli et al., 2019) are scarce. On the contrary, considerable lithic assemblages associated to the Middle Palaeolithic (Zagros Mousterian; Dibble, 1984) and Upper Palaeolithic (Zagros Aurignacian: Olszewski and Dibble, 1994; Baradostian: Solecki, 1958; Rostamian: Conard and Ghasidian, 2011) are known to be concentrated in the Zagros foothills (mainly in caves and rock shelters) (e.g., Biglari, 2001; Otte et al., 2007; Shidrang et al., 2016; Bazgir et al., 2017; Heydari-Guran and Ghasidian, 2017). Beyond the Zagros foothills, several open-air sites in stratigraphic context have recently been discovered in the northern and western edges of the Iranian Central plateau, as well as the central Alborz (e.g., see Berillon et al., 2007; Berillon and Asgari Khaneghah, 2016; Conard et al. 2009; Heydari-Guran et al. 2014; Vahdati Nasab and Hashemi 2016; Vahdati Nasab et al., 2013; 2019). Notwithstanding this abundant archaeological evidence, the debate suffers from a lack of chronological data for this area.

2.1. Geomorphological and stratigraphic setting

The Palaeolithic site of Mirak lies in a flat-dissected plain, which extends from the southern part of the Alborz Mountains to the margin of the central desert (Dasht-i Kavir) (Fig. 1). In this area, unusual Holocene nebkha (i.e. shadow dunes; mounds) are located in the flat plain composed of Pleistocene alluvial deposits (see Jamet and Akhavan Kharazian in Berillon et al., 2017 and Akhavan Kharazian et al., 2018 for details; synthesis in Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019). The lithic artefacts on the surface are exposed by deflation close to the mounds. The presence of the nebkhas with vegetation on top played a fundamental role in the preservation of three archaeological levels in the underlying Pleistocene alluvial deposits. One of those mounds (mound no. 8) at an altitude of 1,035 m (a.s.l.) and surrounded by the highest concentration of lithic artefacts, was selected for this study. Besides, the presence of a nearby illegal pit, henceforth named S2, has provided a unique possibility for primary investigations on in situ archaeological material. Having proved the presence of in situ deposit, three main trenches have then been excavated in the northern, eastern and southern slopes of the mound no. 8 with excavation areas of 19 m², 12 m² and 5 m² respectively; ¼m² has been excavated at the bottom of S2 (Berillon et al., 2017; Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019) (see Fig. The one I attached).

Figures 2 and 3 show the synthetic stratigraphy based on sedimentological observations. The upper part of the northern stratigraphy (ca. 4 m) exhibits aeolian sands (units 0 to 3) due to Holocene windblown activity. The windblown deposits are reduced in the eastern stratigraphy (ca 1.5 m). The lower part of the synthetic stratigraphy exhibits an alluvial sequence composed of silty clay deposits (units 4, 6 & 8) with very fine intercalated sands (units 5 & 7). The Late Pleistocene alluvial plain recorded frequent flood events due to the channel overflow characterising the sediment as a shallow-water deposit.

2.1.1. *In situ* archaeological assemblages

- 171 The stratigraphic logs of the northern and eastern sections are shown in Figs. 2 and 3.
- 172 The archaeological assemblage in Mirak consists mostly of lithic artefacts, which are spread
- 173 extensively over the surface and within the in situ archaeological deposits. Indeed, a
- 174 considerable number of in situ artefacts have been recorded during the three seasons of
- excavations in Mirak (in total 2,709 pieces); they were mainly discovered in the 3 main areas
- of excavations (Northern, Southern and Eastern trenches) as well as in the lowest part of the
- 177 S2 sequence.

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- 178 In the east trench where the excavation has been the more extensive (both in surface and
- depth) three distinct in situ assemblages have been identified. Their vertical distribution is
- displayed in Fig. 3. Typo-technological investigations indicate that the lower assemblage (level
- 181 3) mainly corresponds to Middle Palaeolithic characteristics, while the intermediate
- assemblage (level 2) shows mixed characteristics of Upper and Middle Palaeolithic. However,
- this level is spread over 50 cm of depth and may be divided into two sublevels. Finally, the
- 184 upper assemblage (level 1) has evident Upper Palaeolithic affinities although very few
- artefacts represent it (see Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019 for details).

3. Material and methods

187 3.1. **Sampling**

- 188 The sediment sampling for Mirak was carried out during three field campaigns between 2015
- and 2017. Each year, a series of sediment samples, in total 20, were extracted for OSL dating
- using opaque tubes hammered into the stratigraphic sections (Figs. 2 and 3).

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191 In 2015, five sediment samples were taken from the north trench. The first two samples were recovered from the top of the mound, Mk15-1 from the vegetated surface (unit 1) and Mk15-193 4 downwards from the wind-blown deposits (unit 3) on the top of the Palaeolithic layers. Additionally, Mk15-5 was sampled from unit 4a containing the Upper Palaeolithic assemblage, while Mk15-6 was taken from unit 4b. Finally, Mk15-7 originated from unit 8 beneath the 196 Middle Palaeolithic level 3. Moreover, an additional sample, Mk15-8, was extracted from one of the clandestine pits (S2) attributable to the sedimentological unit 6. 198 In 2016, five luminescence samples were taken from the eastern trench and one from the southern ditch. In the eastern trench, sampling started from unit 4a, which contains Upper 200 Palaeolithic artefacts (Mk16-6). The next sample (Mk16-4) came from the bottom of unit 5, 201 which includes intermediate archaeological layer featuring artefacts with mixing 202 characteristics attributable to both, the Upper and Middle Palaeolithic, periods. Mk16-5 203 originated from the archaeologically-sterile unit 6. Finally, two samples were extracted from 204 the bottom of unit 7 (Mk16-2) and from top of unit 8 (Mk16-3) framing the layer which contains Middle Palaeolithic assemblage. Additionally, one sample was taken from the 206 corresponding geological unit 6 from the south trench (Mk16-1). 207 In 2017, a last series of samples were taken again from the east trench. The purpose of this 208 sampling was not only to access the lowest unit of the mound, but also to detail the 209 chronological study to obtain a better understanding of the Palaeolithic settlements. We took 210 two samples from unit 3b (Mk17-2 and Mk17-3) from the top of Upper Palaeolithic layer and one sample from the bottom of the same layer in the geological unit 4a (Mk17-1). Then 212 sample Mk17-7 was taken from the bottom of geological unit 4b. We continued by taking two 213 samples from the top and bottom of the unit 5 containing intermediate assemblage (Mk17-6 and Mk17-5) and one sample from the very top of unit 6 (Mk17-4). Finally, the last sample 214 215 (Mk17-10) was taken from the lowest excavated unit 8.

3.2. Sample preparation

The samples were prepared using routine procedures for luminescence dating (e.g., Preusser et al., 2008). Subdued orange (ca 589 nm, sodium vapour lamp) light conditions prevented any unwanted loss of luminescence signal during sample preparation. Wet sieving was carried out to extract grains between 80 μm to 140 μm, which is the dominant grain size fraction

according to grain size analyses. HCl (10 %) and H_2O_2 (30 %) were used to eliminate carbonates and organic materials, respectively. To separate quartz and feldspar grains, lithium heteropolytungstates (LST) heavy-liquid based density separation was applied (densities: 2.70 g cm⁻³ and 2.62 g cm⁻³). The quartz fraction was treated with HF (40 %) for 40 min, not only to remove any probable feldspar contamination, but also to minimize the luminescence signal produced by alpha particles. The feldspar grains were etched with HF (10 %) for 10 min to remove the outer part of the grains believed to be affected α -particles. The last series of samples were taken from the eastern trench (Mk17-1 to Mk17-10) for which we planned to carry out the measurements only on the quartz fraction, were not treated with LST, and the sediments were soaked in HF (40 %) for 40 min to remove all feldspar grains and purify quartz. Finally, the grains were rinsed in HCl (15%) overnight to remove Ca-fluorides and sieved with the smaller-sized meshes to remove fragmented grains only (e.g., Porat et al., 2015).

3.3. **Instrumentation**

Luminescence measurements were carried out on a Freiberg Instruments *lexsyg* SMART TL/OSL system (Richter et al., 2015) and Freiberg Instruments *lexsyg research* readers (ca 15 % of the measurements) (Richter et al., 2013). Both readers were equipped with a 90 Sr/ 90 Y-source delivering ca 9.3 Gy min⁻¹ and 7.08 Gy min⁻¹ respectively (calibrated for coarse-grain quartz on stainless steel cups using Risø calibration quartz batch 90; Hansen et al., 2015). For signal stimulation, the *lexsyg* SMART system facilitates 10 green LEDs (525 Δ 20 nm, max. 70 mW cm⁻²) and 5 infrared LEDs (850 Δ 3 nm, max. 300 mW cm⁻²), set to 40 mW cm⁻² (green) and 100 mW cm⁻² (infrared) during continuous wave (CW) stimulation. Optically stimulated luminescence was detected through a UV filter set (Schott BG 3, 3mm and Delta BP 365/50 EX; green-OSL) in front of a Hamamatsu H7360-02 photomultiplier tube (PMT). For signal stimulation, the *lexsyg research* system facilitates five blue LEDs (458 Δ 3 nm, max. 100 mW cm⁻²) and five infrared LEDs (850 Δ 3 nm, max. 300 mW cm⁻²). They were set to 40 mW cm⁻² (blue) and 130 mW cm⁻² (infrared) during continuous wave (CW) stimulation. A UV filter set (Schott BG 3, 3mm and Delta BP 365/50 EX) was used for signal detection. Several hundred grains, either quartz or feldspar, were mounted on the stainless-steel cups using silicon oil

and a mask of diameter 5 mm (medium size). We measured up to 15 aliquots per sample for the feldspar and up to 40 aliquots for the quartz fractions.

3.4. **Dose rate determination**

Energy is stored in the minerals such as quartz and feldspar due to natural ionising radiation in terms of alpha-, beta-particles, and gamma-photons as well as cosmic-rays (Aitken, 1985). In this study, the size of the grains lies between $80-140~\mu m$. We assume that the outer rim of the grains, which was affected by alpha particles, was removed by the HF etching. Hence, the alpha-dose rate contribution is assumed negligible. Furthermore, the dose rate absorbed by the natural dosimeters (quartz and feldspar grains) consists of two parts: the internal dose rate due to the activity of radionuclides inside the dosimeters and the external dose rate because of the activity of the radionuclides outside the dosimeters.

3.4.1. Internal dose rate

The concentration of radionuclides inside the quartz grains is low in comparison to environmental radionuclides concentrations. For our samples, we considered an internal dose rate of 0.06 ± 0.03 Gy ka⁻¹, following Mejdahl (1987). The internal dose-rate of K-feldspar grains was calculated based on a potassium content of $12.5 \pm 0.5\%$ (Huntley and Baril, 1997). The conversion factors after Guerin et al. (2011) were applied, and the self-dose fraction was taken from Guerin et al. (2012), which resulted in an internal dose rate of 0.42 ± 0.04 Gy ka⁻¹.

3.4.2. External dose rate

The main sources for external beta and gamma-radiation are radionuclides of 40 K, 232 Th, and 238 U series. High-resolution, low background gamma-ray spectrometry was employed to measure their concentrations (Guibert and Schvoerer, 1991). Therefore, the sediment was first dried to measure the remaining water content. The water content estimated for each sample, ranging from 2 ± 1 % to 19 ± 8 % was used to correct the dose rate for the effect of water. The value for sample Mk16-2 is 5 ± 3 %; thus, it seems to be underestimated in comparison with other values obtained for the bottom of the east trench. For the final age calculation of this sample, we used an average water content of 10 ± 5 % (Table 1).

Then the dried samples were crushed following sieving using a mesh size of 2 mm and packed into sealed plastic boxes to avoid the loss of radon. In the following, the crushed and sealed

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samples were stored over a minimum of four weeks to ensure a radioactive equilibrium between ²²⁶Rn and its daughter nuclides (e.g., Guibert and Schvoerer, 1991) before running the measurements. The concentration of the radionuclides was converted to beta-dose rate using the conversion factors by Guerin et al. (2011). The beta-dose rates were then corrected for the intrinsic attenuation due to the grain size of the quartz and feldspar grains after Guerin et al. (2012). The effect of HF etching, as well as the effect of moisture on beta-dose rates, were corrected after Nathan (2011) and Nathan and Mauz (2008), respectively. The concentration of the U, Th and K contents are shown in Table 1. The concentrations of K and Th for entire samples fall between 1.26% to 2.32 %, and 4.67 ppm to 12.45 ppm, respectively. Besides, the concentrations of U determined from the top of the chain range from 1.80 ppm to 3.28 ppm. The concentration derived from the bottom of the chain lie between 1.75 ppm to 9.42 ppm (this high U concentration is belonged to sample Mk15-8 from the clandestine pit S2, if we exclude this value, then the highest value would be 4.30 ppm (from Mk17-4)). The disequilibrium in the U chain is discussed below. The external beta dose rates for entire sample range from 1.20 Gy ka⁻¹ to 2.10 Gy ka⁻¹. It contributes 55% to 59 % to the total dose rate. The gamma-dose rate was also calculated from K, Th and U concentrations using conversion factors by Guerin et al. (2011) and correction for water content after Guérin and Mercier (2012). The gamma dose rates fall between 0.70 Gy ka⁻¹ to 1.39 Gy ka⁻¹ and they contribute around 35 % of the total dose rate (Table 1). Finally, the cosmic-dose rate was calculated using the calc_CosmicDoseRate() function available in the R (R Core Team, 2019) package 'Luminescence' (Kreutzer et al., 2012; 2017) applying the approach after Prescott and Stephan (1982) and Prescott and Hutton (1994). For calculating the total dose rate (D_r), we used a self-written Excel sheet (results were compared against DRAC, Durcan et al., 2015). The final dose rates for quartz grains range from 2.18 Gy ka⁻¹ to 3.69 Gy ka⁻¹; correspondingly for K-feldspar grains it lies between 2.51 Gy ka⁻¹ to 4.02 Gy ka⁻¹ (Table 1).

3.4.3. Radioactive disequilibrium

Radioactive disequilibria in the decay chain of ²³⁸U can be problematic for dating since it may imply dose-rate evolution, while the basic requirement of the age equation is dose rate

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stability. Substantial disequilibria can be caused, e.g., by leaching of U and Ra (due to the chemical mobility of the U and Ra) (Aitken, 1985), and the influx of ²¹⁰Pb through ground and rainwater and loss of Rn because of its gas form (Guibert et al., 2009). The equivalent ²³⁸U content is estimated from three different parts of the decay chain, where a possibility for a disequilibrium exists: first, from the initial part of the chain, by calculating the value from ²³⁴Th, ^{234m}Pa and ²³⁴U emissions; second, immediately after ²²⁶Ra (by considering ²¹⁴Pb and 214 Bi) and finally after 210 Pb. Figure 4 shows the ratio of 238 U concentrations from the top and the bottom of the U-series divided by ²³²Th, which is chemically immobile (Guibert et al., 2009). Explicitly, the equivalent ²³⁸U concentrations, which were derived from the bottom of the decay chain, were about 1.5 to 3.7 times larger in comparison with values estimated from the top for five samples (MK15-6, MK15-8, MK16-6, MK17-4, and MK17-5). These findings represent disequilibria in the U-series. Since Ra is soluble and chemically active, accumulation of Ra could be a reason for these disequilibria. We here assume that these disequilibria developed gradually during burial time. As a result, the average of the effective ²³⁸U concentrations estimated from the top and the bottom (average uptake scenario) is considered instead of the preliminary effective ²³⁸U concentration from the bottom of the chain and applied to these samples. Applying the average-uptake scenario results in older ages (in comparison to a non-average scenario); the most impacts are observed for samples Mk15-8 and Mk17-5 for which the ages are increased by 16 % to 7%. The ages of the rest of the samples are increased between 3 % to 4%.

3.5. Luminescence signal measurements

3.5.1. Quartz UV signal

We applied the single aliquot regenerative (SAR) dose protocol (Murray and Wintle, 2000) to determine the equivalent dose (D_e). The protocol parameters for the Mirak samples were obtained from conventional tests such as examining the presence of a fast decaying signal component, preheat plateau and dose recovery tests (Wintle and Murray, 2006). OSL signal measurements were started with samples MK15-1 and Mk15-4. These two samples belonged to the believed Holocene period, and their equivalent doses vary around 1 Gy to 3 Gy, respectively. Due to the low luminescence signal intensity of these two samples, blue OSL was

preferred to improve the signal to noise ratio, and these settings were also used for the rest of the samples taken in 2015 (MK15-5, MK15-6, MK15-7 and MK15-8).

Meanwhile, we carried out further luminescence tests (see Sec. 3.5.2 and Sec. S1) which indicated a possible, but unwanted, medium component contamination of the OSL signal. This led us to perform all subsequent measurements with green stimulated luminescence (GSL). A few GSL measurements were also repeated for samples MK15-5, MK15-6, MK15-7 and MK15-8 and the final equivalent dose is the average of blue and green stimulation (see below for discussion). For the blue OSL we used initial channels 1–4 (0.64 s) for the signal and subtracted early background using channels 5–15 (1.6 s).

3.5.2. Testing the fast component

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Quartz OSL signals usually consist of several first-order kinetic exponential components, which are related to specific electron traps (e.g., McKeever, 1991; Chen et al., 1991; Bailey, 2001). The so-called fast component has the advantage to be easily bleached in natural environments and is believed to be suitable for the SAR protocol. Therefore, the first step was to test whether Mirak samples show a dominant fast component. We first compared the Mirak OSL signal with a signal from 'calibration quartz', which is known to be dominated by a fast component (Fig. S1). Besides, we used a linearly modulated OSL method (LM-OSL) (Bulur, 1996) to deconvolve individual signal components. The LM-OSL results and details of our investigation are shown in the supplementary material (Figs. S2 and S3). The results indicate that the Mirak samples contain a medium component in addition to the fast and several slow components. However, the medium component may exhibit unwanted luminescence characteristics (Wintle and Murray 2006; Bailey 2010); thus, it should be separated from the OSL signal. To better separate the fast component in our quartz samples, we applied green stimulated OSL (Bailey et al., 2011). The OSL signal was measured at 125° C for 40 s following a preheat at 260 ° C for 10 s. The test dose was measured following a cut heat at 220 ° C. Additionally, for 30 aliquots of one sample (Mk17-6), we tested the dependence of the equivalent dose on the signal integration times (Figs. S4), to determine whether our choice for the signal integral may have biased the final D_e . The Figs. S4 illustrated that an appropriate channel integration (believed to be represented by a plateau) varies from one sample to another (Figs. S4). Therefore, we determined the individual D_e values for each aliquot using the best channel integral, which lies in the plateau. Then we compared the average of the so determined D_e with the various channel integration, with the average value of D_e determined after applying the channel integration limit of 1-45 to all aliquots. While single D_e values may vary with the chosen signal integral, averaged results derived for different signal integrals provide values indistinguishable from 1% of unity, justifying the finally applied signal channel range for GSL of 1–45 (7.2 s) and 280–399 (19.2 s) for the background. Additionally, the test indicates that any medium component does not affect our final D_e s.

3.5.3. SAR protocol parameters

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The SAR protocol was applied to determine the D_e for multi-grain aliquots of quartz. Five regenerative points, approximately 31 Gy, 61 Gy, 122 Gy, 245 Gy and 490 Gy, were used to construct the dose-response curves. The test dose was set to 31 Gy. The recuperation ratio after delivering a zero dose was always below 5%. The first regenerative dose after the recuperation test was used to check the efficiency of correction for sensitivity change (recycling ratio). The recycling ratio was not taken into account as a rejection criterion following Thomsen et al. (2016) and Guérin et al. (2015). However, we calculated the average of the recycling ratio for each sample; the minimum and the maximum were 0.85 ± 0.7 and 1.02 ± 0.12 , respectively. The possibility of contamination with feldspar was examined by applying the IR depletion ratio test (Duller 2003). This ratio was within 10 % of unity for all samples. Therefore, we observed no significant evidence for a feldspar contamination of our quartz samples. Typical TL curves, green stimulated shine-down curves, and corresponding dose-response curves are shown for sample Mk17-1 as an example in Fig. S6. The preheat temperature was varied in order to check the independency of the D_e from this parameter (preheat plateau test). The result of typical preheat plateau for one sample (Mk16-1) is shown in Fig. S5A. Each point represents the average of equivalent dose (D_e) for six aliquots for the temperature ranges of 220 °C to 280 °C (20 °C steps). We selected 260 °C as the preheat temperature for the SAR protocol since it was located in the middle of the plateau. Additionally, we performed a dose-recovery test on six aliquots of sample Mk15-5 (Fig. S5B).

The aliquots first were bleached for 100 s with a blue light at room temperature in the reader

to empty the natural luminescence signal. This was followed by a 10,000 s pause that allows

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the decay of the 110°C peak (Wintle and Murray, 2006). The samples were then bleached for a second time to deplete charges in the fast component related trap, potentially transferred from the shallow 110°C trap during the pause. Finally, samples received a beta-dose of 111 Gy (close to the expected equivalent doses), and the SAR protocol was applied. The mean recovered dose based on the measurement of six aliquots was 100 ± 5 Gy. Therefore, the dose-recovery ratio was 0.90 ± 0.04 , which was consistent with unity and validated the chosen SAR protocol parameters. We assumed similar behaviour for the rest of the samples; thus, we applied the SAR protocol with the same parameters to all samples. For the conventional data analysis, we employed the software *Analyst* (Duller, 2015; v4.53) for determining the D_e . An exponential plus linear function was used for the dose-response curve fitting. Selection criteria for the aliquot were based only on the relative uncertainty of the first (natural) test signal, fixed to < 20%, following Thomsen et al. (2016) and Guérin et al. (2015).We used the arithmetic mean to determine the palaeodose and the standard deviation of the mean is calculated for representing the uncertainty on each palaeodose (Table 2). Except for palaeodoses of samples M15-1 and Mk15-4 that are less than 3 Gy, the determined palaeodoses for the rest of the samples laid between 76 Gy to 216 Gy (Table 2). For the feldspar samples, the pIRIR₂₉₀ protocol (Thomsen et al., 2008; protocol settings after Buylaert et al., 2012) was applied to five samples from the east trench, one sample from the south trench, as well as five samples from the north trench and one sample from the clandestine pit (S2). Typical TL curves, infrared light stimulated shine-down curves, and corresponding dose-response curve from the pIRIR₂₉₀ signal are shown for sample Mk16-3. Following quartz data treatments, here the palaeodoses are determined using the arithmetic mean, and their uncertainties show based on standard deviation of the mean. Except for the samples Mk15-1 and Mk15-4 for which the determined palaeodoses are less than 8 Gy, the palaeodoses of the rest of the samples fall between 113 Gy to 454 Gy (Table 2). The Abanico plots for illustrating the distribution of the D_e and their uncertainties for one sample (Mk16-3) are provided for both green OSL on quartz and infrared light on feldspar (Fig. S8).

3.6. Bayesian chronology using 'BayLum'

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The Bayesian modelling was carried out using the R (R Core Team, 2019) package 'BayLum' (Philippe et al., 2018; Christoph et al., 2019). For the calculation process, we used a multi-core workstation where subfolders were created containing the required input information, i.e. BIN/BINX-files, the reader dose rate, the environmental dose rate, as well as the position of the selected aliquots. The function AgeS_Computation() was applied to provide the chronology for several samples, including information on the stratigraphic order. For our study, the dose-response curves were fitted with an exponential plus linear equation through the option LIN_fit = TRUE. Then the argument distribution = c("gaussian") was used to assume a Gaussian distribution for the palaeodose for each sample (based on the study by Heydari and Guérin, 2018). The argument priorAge allows including pre-knowledge about ages of the sample before running the measurements. Moreover, the stratigraphic order can be imposed on the data by calling the function StratiConstraints(). The function called create_ThetaMatrix() helps to express and address the systematic shared uncertainties between the samples. After determining the Bayesian chronology, the plot_Scatterplots() function can be used to create bivariate plots of age densities for every two samples. These plots illustrate the correlation between samples caused by the shared systematic uncertainties. The applied R script, as well as the convergence plots of the Monto Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) sampler are provided in the supplementary material (Sec. S5.1 and S5.3). To reach convergence, 4,000,000 iterations were employed on the thirteen samples of the eastern trench. The calculations were run on a local multi-core workstation. Depending on the setting, each calculation took roughly a week.

3.6.1. Theta matrix

To address shared systematic uncertainty, 'BayLum' applies the basic statistical concept of a covariance matrix in the form of a so-called Theta (Θ) matrix. Diagonal elements of the matrix refer to the systematic and individual (statistical) uncertainty mainly on the dose-rate estimation as well as the systematic uncertainty on the determined palaeodose of each sample and non-diagonal elements of this matrix refer to the systematic uncertainty shared

between two samples, or in other words, it shows the correlation between them (Combès and Philippe, 2017).

The source of the systematic uncertainty for our study is dominated by uncertainties in the concentration of U, K and Th (which are used for calibration of the gamma-ray spectrometers), the uncertainty on the internal-dose rate (the same value is applied to all samples) as well as the uncertainty on the beta-source dose rate in the OSL reader. We detail the background of the Theta (Θ) matrix and how it can be created in 'BayLum' after Guèrin et al. (in prep.) for readers not familiar with this topic in the supplement (see Sec. S4). A dedicated function to create the Theta matrix in R ($create_ThetaMatrix()$) was written for this study and is now part of 'BayLum'.

4. Results

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4.1. Comparison of quartz and feldspar ages derived by frequentist approach

Figures 5a—b show the ages determined with the frequentist statistic from feldspar and quartz for the north and the east trenches respectively within 2σ uncertainty (95% confidence interval). Both quartz and feldspar ages increase with depth. However, the feldspar ages are systematically older than the quartz ages. The top of the north trench starts with the quartz ages of samples Mk15-1 and Mk15-4, which are [0.4–0.8] ka and [0.8–1.6] ka, respectively. The quartz ages of samples Mk15-5 and Mk15-6 ([25-31] ka, [24-32] ka) are in agreement with the corresponding feldspar ages of [29–36] ka and [29–34] ka, respectively. The feldspar ages determined from samples Mk15-8 and Mk15-7 ([46-52] ka, [64-78] ka) are significantly older than the associated quartz ages ([33–41] ka, [44–56] ka). The quartz ages from the east trench start from the top with sample Mk17-3, [21-26] ka, and increase gradually with depth, ending up with sample Mk17-10, which represents the oldest age of the whole sequence, at [55–74] ka. Here also the feldspar ages are older than the quartz ages. The feldspar ages for samples Mk16-6, Mk16-4, Mk16-1 (the only sample from the south trench) and Mk16-2 are between 30 % to 70 % older than the quartz ages. The feldspar ages of samples Mk16-5 and Mk16-3 are not only two times older than the quartz ages, but also the dispersion between the aliquots is much higher than for the rest of the pIRIR₂₉₀ ages. An Abanico plot (Dietze et

al., 2016) is used to illustrate the dispersion in quartz and pIRIR₂₉₀ palaeodose distributions for sample Mk16-3, as an example (Fig. S8).

This discrepancy between the quartz and feldspar ages may be explained by the different bleaching rates of the OSL quartz in comparison to the pIRIR₂₉₀ signal (~100 s vs ~1,000 s; Murray et al., 2012). We know that the geological units 4 down to 8 are part of an alluvial deposit. Units 4, 6 and 8, in particular, have repetitively experienced flood events. The turbidity of the water during the flood may have caused insufficient bleaching of the feldspar grains on the top of the, potentially, short light exposure due to the high transport energy. The observed discrepancies between the feldspar ages and the quartz ages especially for samples Mk16-5 and Mk16-3, which are taken from units 6 and 8 may be attributable to such rapid sediment transport process. Guérin et al. (2015) reported a similar observation where feldspar grains suffer from insufficient bleaching, but quartz grains are believed to be bleached completely, showing age's consistency with the ¹⁴C age control. Here we do not have any independent age control. However, we have no indication that the quartz ages are

unreliable, contrary to the feldspar ages which are likely to be overestimated.

4.2. Unravelling the Bayesian chronology

Bayesian modelling was investigated on samples from the east trench. The aim of this investigation was to apply different options available in the 'BayLum' package to our dataset and compare and discuss the obtained chronologies to highlight the effect of each of these options. We defined four modelling scenarios. In **scenario I**, we ran the Bayesian model without considering any stratigraphic constraints and without any input for the Theta matrix. Henceforth, we call this scenario the *simplistic* Bayesian model (Fig. 6a). In **scenario II**, we add the correlation between samples, i.e. taking the Theta matrix into account (Fig. 6b). Contrary, in **scenario III** the Bayesian model was applied to the samples considering the stratigraphic constraints, but without any inference on the statistical correlation between the samples (no Theta matrix; Fig. 6c). Finally, in **scenario IV**, we considered the stratigraphic order in conjunction with the Theta matrix to address the correlation between the samples (Fig. 6d). We plot the frequentist chronology alongside the four Bayesian chronology scenarios (Figs. 6a–d). The estimated ages are quoted in a 95% confidence interval for the frequentist approach and a 95% credible interval for the Bayesian approach. The point in the credible

interval (Fig. 6) corresponds to the highest probability density (HPD) estimation, i.e. the Bayes estimate in Bayesian approach and the point in the middle of the confidence interval corresponds to the average of the distribution in the frequentist approach.

4.2.1. Scenario I

- The results of the simplistic Bayesian model do not indicate significant discrepancies for the most of the samples compared to the frequentist approach obtained (Fig. 6a). The average in the frequentist approach and the HDP in Bayesian do not differ by more than 2 % while the uncertainties of the Bayesian estimates are reduced compared to the frequentist estimates. This uncertainty reduction is significant only for samples Mk17-1 and Mk17-5 (reduction by 26 % and 41 %, respectively).
- **4.2.2. Scenario II**
- Figure 6b shows almost complete agreement between the frequentist chronology and the Bayesian model when the Theta matrix (only) is considered. The only exception is sample Mk17-5 for which the Bayesian model leads to a roughly 30 % reduction in the credible interval in comparison with the confidence interval.

4.2.3. Scenario III

Figure 6c presents the Bayesian chronology applying the stratigraphic constraint with no consideration of the correlations between the dose rates or equivalent dose estimates. The most striking observation is the significant reduction of the uncertainty for the Bayesian estimates. We observed reductions of 24 % to 53 % in uncertainty for the set of samples located at the beginning of the sequence (Mk17-3 to Mk 16-5). At the bottom of the sequence, sample Mk16-3 showed a 33 % uncertainty reduction. There appears to be no significant change of the centre of the intervals: the Bayesian HPDs for samples Mk17-3, Mk17-2, Mk17-1 and Mk16-5 were between 3 % to 7 % younger than the corresponding averages, while, on the contrary, Bayesian HDPs of samples Mk16-6, Mk17-6, Mk16-4 and Mk16-3 were 4 % to 11 % older in comparison to the frequentist averages.

4.2.4. Scenario IV

The last plot (Fig. 6d), which refers to the application of stratigraphic order and correlation between samples (Theta matrix) results in a reduced credible interval from 5% (Mk17-10) up

to a maximum of 33 % (Mk17-1) compared to the confidence intervals. Moreover, for five samples (out of 13), the Bayesian ages moved towards the older ages (up to 14%) in comparison to the frequentist ages. The Bayesian age for one sample (Mk17-1) is younger than the frequentist age by 6%. For the rest of the samples, the Bayesian ages render almost the same ages as frequentist approach.

4.2.5. Further results

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Figure 7 shows the bivariate plots of the probability densities for the age estimates. Each point corresponds to the estimated ages for two samples as sampled from the MCMC. We indicated the bivariate plots only for five samples. For the complete plots containing all of the samples, we refer to the supplementary material (Figs. S11-S13). Figure 7a shows the results after applying the simplistic Bayesian model (scenario I). The Mk17-3 is the youngest sample and Mk17-7 is the oldest one. The symmetric shape of the distribution is almost present for all the plots, which indicates no specific correlation between the samples. Figure 7b is related to Fig. 6c where the stratigraphic constraints affect the final chronology, but neither the correlation within the dose-rate data nor within the equivalent-dose data (scenario III) were considered. For some of the plots, we observed a truncation in the top-left corner letting the distribution appear asymmetric. For instance, the bivariate plots of two ages like Mk17-3/Mk17-2, Mk17-2/Mk16-6, Mk17-1/Mk17-7 and Mk17-3/Mk16-6 are truncated. The last bivariate plots are displayed in Fig. 7c, where both, the stratigraphic correlations and the correlations on the systematic errors are considered (scenario IV). In this figure, all bivariate plots appear graphically in a prolate shape and show a similar truncation to the one observed in Fig. 7b.

5. **Discussion**

5.1. Improvement of the precision

Besides the rough comparison between frequentist chronology and different Bayesian modelling scenarios in the previous section, here we present the kernel density distributions of the relative uncertainties for all scenarios to visualise the changes in the obtained age uncertainties (Fig. 8). All these distributions (except for scenario II) illustrate uncertainties smaller for the Bayesian scenarios than with the frequentist approach, as observed in Sec. 4.

scenarios.

Moreover, the two models that employ stratigraphic constraints (scenarios III and IV) show the lowest relative uncertainty in comparison to the frequentist results. To determine whether these results are also statistically significant, we performed a one-sided paired Welch t-test with the results listed in Table 3. For a significance level of 0.01, all scenarios except scenario II exhibit that the uncertainty distribution has a statistically lesser mean than the frequentist results, *i.e.* the OSL ages calculated with 'BayLum' are more precise than those calculated with the conventional approach. Although, the rough comparison between Bayesian and frequentist chronology for scenario I appeared to not to be considerable (see section 4.2.1). With regard to the initially formulated objective (2) (see Sec. 1) of our work, it appears that we must reject H_0 . Thus, applying Bayesian models results in a chronology distinguishable from the frequentist approach. Nevertheless, this conclusion alone allows no statement about the best suitability of a particular scenario and why results differ between the

5.2. Bayesian chronology: stratigraphic order and the correlation between samples

While the different scenarios were proposed in order to unravel the effect of stratigraphic constraint and statistical correlation, it must be emphasized that scenario III, while it shows the best improvement of the precision, is inappropriate for discussing the final chronology due to not considering the existing correlation between the data (Fig. 7c). For example, the plot with samples Mk17-1 and Mk17-7 shows a strong positive correlation, i.e. if the age of sample Mk17-1 is getting older, the age of sample Mk17-7 is likely to get older likewise. However, this correlation is not observed in Fig. 7b, since scenario III does not take into account correlations between the data. The Bayesian model in that scenario treats all of the errors as random. Therefore, particularly when the ages of the two successive (in the stratigraphy) samples overlap one another, the model reduces the uncertainty to satisfy the stratigraphic order. In other words, such a model has the highest impact in the absence of systematic shared uncertainty where samples do not correlate but overestimate the precision.

Consequently, to address properly the effect of the stratigraphic order for our data (which include systematic shared uncertainties), the Theta matrix should be applied and scenario III

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cannot be considered. However, if the systematic error is added to the result of this scenario, then the result can be considered following Rhodes et al. (2003).

5.3. Bayesian chronology: effect of stratigraphic order and the question of accuracy

It was shown that scenarios III and IV result in a considerable reduction in the age uncertainties in comparison with the results obtained using the frequentist approach. Both these Bayesian models take the stratigraphic order into account. Figures 6c–d display that the maximum reduction in the uncertainties observe from sample Mk16-6 to Mk16-4 where their confidence intervals overlap one another. The frequentist age of sample Mk16-6 does not follow the stratigraphy order, but when the stratigraphic order applies, the credible interval shifts towards the older part of the confidence interval to satisfy the imposed ordering. Consequently, the rest of the samples from Mk17-1 to Mk16-4 which roughly place between 24–29 ka should follow this ordering; thus, the credible intervals decrease significantly in both scenarios. Rhodes et al. (2003) already mentioned that Bayesian modelling might lead to substantial improvements in the precision where the sampling resolution is high enough, so that ages overlap each other. Contrary, if the age's intervals do not overlap, the Bayesian chronology considering the stratigraphic order does not render results more precise than the frequentist chronology (see for example the Bayesian ages of samples Mk16-2 and Mk17-10 in Figs. 6c–d). Moreover, Figs. 6c–d show that part of the obtained frequentist-age intervals are 'discarded' when the stratigraphic order is imposed. For instance, for sample Mk17-6, more than 50 % of the uncertainty interval is 'eliminated' pushing the credible interval out of the average of the frequentist model. The same pattern is observed for Mk16-6, where the Bayesian age shifts by 11 % towards an older age. The estimated credible interval does not overlap the first part of the frequentist confidence interval and results in a smaller uncertainty (38 % reduction) in comparison with the frequentist approach. This shift towards older ages almost affects the entire dataset; thus, result in the ages, which are older or younger than frequentist ages (see Mk16-4, Mk17-4, Mk16-3). Therefore, in particular scenarios, stratigraphic constraints should be applied with caution

since they affect all age estimates within a sequence. In other words, here, it is not only the

question of precision, but also the question of accuracy that matters when the application of such a model is attempted.

5.4. **Technical issues**

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spectrometers.

The ideal way to address systematic uncertainty with Bayesian modelling is a rigorous experimental design, using one well-known instrument each, for estimation of the palaeodose and the dose rate. Unfortunately, experimental reality proofs differently. For our measurements, which were carried out over more than two years, different OSL readers were employed (Freiberg Instruments lexsyg SMART and research readers, see above) limited by the technical availability of the machines. The systematic uncertainty from the source-dose rate of the OSL readers varies typically between 2 % to 3 %, or even more (see discussion in Tribolo et al., 2019). However, it is also not clear whether the dose source uncertainty affects the entire ages toward one direction (higher or lower value). It can result in higher dose in one machine but lower in another. Nevertheless, in our case, the systematic errors are correlated since we used the same calibration standard for the calibration of the OSL reader sources. Furthermore, it should be noted that variations of the systematic error could also occur if only one machine was used. For our modelling, we applied a 2% systematic uncertainty, and we provided the Theta matrix based on that value. Additionally, we also provide the Theta matrix with 3% uncertainty on the source-dose rate (OSL reader) and compare the Bayesian chronology of both (2% vs 3%; see supplement Fig. S15 and Table S1-S2). Our results suggest that both values, for our samples and our assumptions, result in plots indistinguishable from each other and the minor differences are likely being introduced by the stochastic process itself, which indicates that the application of our modelling was generally justified. Similarly, we employed two different gamma-ray spectrometers in our lab to estimate the radionuclide concentration; however, we consider the differences in the systematic errors between both systems negligible in particular due to the used identical material for the calibration of those

657	5.5. Further remarks
658	The entire dataset from the Late Pleistocene geological units consist of thirteen samples from
659	the east trench, 3 samples from the north trench, one sample from the southern trench, and
660	finally, one sample from the clandestine pit known as S2.
661	Since the stratigraphic relationship between the different trenches is not consistent, we
662	applied Bayesian models separately on the samples from the east and the north trenches; the
663	later results are shown in the supplementary material (Figs. S9-S10).
664	Our observation showed that the Bayesian model in scenario IV results in more precise
665	chronology compared to the frequentist model. For the final archaeological age
666	interpretation, we present and discuss the results from scenario IV alongside the frequentist
667	chronology.
668	5.6. The obtained chronology in the prehistoric context
669	One of our aim for this study was to provide a chronology for Upper, Intermediate and
670	Middle Palaeolithic assemblages in the open-air site of Mirak.
671	The Bayesian and the frequentist age of sample Mk15-5 from the north trench, which
672	originated from the Upper Palaeolithic assemblage layer (level 1; geological unit 4a), results
673	in [25–28] ka and [25–31] ka, respectively. In the east trench, four samples (Mk17-3, Mk17-
674	2, Mk16-6, Mk17-1) were taken from the layer containing the Upper Palaeolithic
675	assemblage (level 1; geological units 3a and 4a). The Bayesian ages of those samples are
676	[21–25], [22–26], [23–26] and [25–28] ka while the frequentist results give [21–26], [22–27],
677	[19–24] and [26–30] ka. Hence, the Upper Palaeolithic occupation of Mirak is defined by the
678	samples lying between [21–28] ka (95 % credible interval, Bayesian approach) and [19–31]
679	ka (95 % confidence interval, frequentist approach). The geographical nearest Upper
680	Palaeolithic site to Mirak for which an absolute chronology is available is Garm Roud 2. This
681	site is located in the southern foothills of the Alborz mountains in the province Mazandaran
682	(Berillon et al., 2007; Berillon and Asgari Khaneghah, 2016). Radiocarbon dating results for
683	the site of Garm Roud 2 yielded [28–35] cal. ka BP (Antoine et al., 2016) which seems to be
684	slightly older than Bayesian and frequentist chronology for the Upper Palaeolithic layer of
685	Mirak; although the frequentist age interval overlap with the determined age interval of the

site of Garm Roud 2. However, the Bayesian approach leads to a more precise chronology in

comparison to the frequentist approach. Interestingly, our results from Mirak, like those for
the site of Garm Roud 2, exhibit ages for the Upper Palaeolithic that are younger than the
reported ages of the same period for the Zagros region. Indeed, ¹⁴ C dating has been applied
on the Upper Palaeolithic period of various sites, such as Shanidar cave in the north of
Zagros foothills which resulted in [29–40] cal. ka BP (original data: Solecki 1963; Hole and
Flannery, 1968; recalculated data: Becerra-Valdivia et al., 2017; Ghasidian et al., 2019). ¹⁴ C
dating was also applied for the Kaldar cave in central Zagros (Bazgir et al., 2017; [37–54] cal.
ka BP), Yafteh cave in the west-central Zagros (Otte et al., 2011; [29–42] cal. ka BP), and
Ghāre-Boof in the southern Zagros (Ghasidian, 2014; Becerra-Valdivia et al., 2017; [35–42]
cal. ka BP). The geographical location of the mentioned sites is shown in Fig. 1B. The
temporal period, engulfing all of these four age ranges is around [35–40] cal. ka BP, which
renders an earlier Upper Palaeolithic occupation than presumed for Mirak ([21–28] ka).
However, the chronology of Mirak aligns better with the chronology of Garm Roud 2 (south
of Alborz). Although, it is worth mentioning that the concentration of the lithic artefacts
attributable to the Upper Palaeolithic period is very scarce in Mirak, the younger Upper
Palaeolithic chronologies for the Central Alborz region (Mirak and Garm roud2) in
comparison with the chronologies of Upper Palaeolithic assemblages in the Zagros echo
some temporal differences between the two areas, which may be also translated into
cultural variabilities (Berillon et al., 2007; Chevrier in Berillon et al., 2016; Vahdati Nasab et
al., 2019).
The intermediate assemblage (level 2, east trench; Fig. 3) appears to be spread over two
sub-layers in Mirak, which raises the question of the existence of two distinct assemblages.
Indeed, the preliminary study of the lithic material of this layer highlighted a mix of Upper
and Middle Palaeolithic affinities that potentially characterise a transitional phase likely
related to early Aurignacian industries of the Zagros (Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019). One issue
was thus to know based on a refined chronology whether these apparent sub-layers
correspond to 2 distinct occupations; and if so, our interpretation of this apparently mix
assemblage should be reconsidered. The Bayesian and the frequentist age of sample Mk17-
7, which was taken from the top of sub-layer 1 (geological unit 4b), result in [25–28] ka and
[24–29] ka. The Bayesian and the frequentist ages of sample Mk17-6, which was taken
directly from sub-layer 1 (geological unit 5), result in [26–29] ka and [22–28] ka.

718	respectively. Moreover, the ages of Mk16-4 and Mk17-5, which were taken from the sub-
719	layer 2 (geological unit 5), yield to [26–30] ka and [28–33] ka for the Bayesian, and [24–29]
720	ka and [27–34] ka for the frequentist model. The Bayesian ages of samples Mk16-5 and
721	sample Mk17-4 from the geological unit 6, just below the sub-layer 2, result in [32–38] ka
722	and [34–40] ka while the frequentist ages yield [31–39] ka and [33–39] ka.
723	In summary, the Bayesian age for the sub-layer 2 in 95 % credible interval frames [26–33] ka
724	and the frequentist age results in [24–34] ka (95 % confidence interval). Here again the
725	Bayesian approach leads to smaller uncertainties in comparison with the frequentist
726	approach providing a more precise age. Moreover, the Bayesian age for sub-layer 1 [26–
727	29] ka agrees to the [26–30] ka (sample Mk16-4) in sub-layer 2. Therefore, it appears likely
728	that the two sub-layers relate more or less to one another and should be considered as a
729	single archaeological assemblage; this interpretation reinforces the hypothesis of the
730	existence in Mirak of an intermediate phase between Middle and Upper Palaeolithic periods
731	(Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019) which may be seen as transitional. However, this finding does
732	not indicate an occupation by a single group of people. The MIS 3 is a period with
733	millennial-scale fluctuations in climatic-environmental regime at the global and regional
734	scales (e.g., Bond et al. 1997; Dansgaard et al. 1993; Heinrich 1988; Wolff et al. 2010;
735	Mehterian et al. 2017; Vlaminck 2018) and thus, the site may have been frequently
736	abandoned and reoccupied during the age-ranges (Hashemi et al. 2018). In addition, the
737	results for the intermediate layer indicate that, despite some cultural differences, this layer
738	features a close chronology with that of the layer 1 allocated to the Upper Palaeolithic [21–
739	28] ka. Interestingly, the Bayesian age of [28–33] ka, which is the oldest age from sub-layer
740	2, agrees with the age of [28–35] ka cal. BP for the Upper Palaeolithic assemblages of the
741	open-air site of Garm Roud 2. Our results thus imply that the chronological interval of [26–
742	33] ka (comprising sub-layers 1 and 2) in Mirak is most likely an original cultural entity in the
743	region with subsequent and sub-contemporaneous cultures, some with clear Upper
744	Palaeolithic affinities (Mirak layer 1 and Garm Roud 2) and some with mixed characteristics
745	featuring likely a transitional entity (Mirak layer 2).
746	Finally, the Bayesian ages for samples Mk16-2 and Mk16-3, which were taken from the
747	layers that contain the Middle Palaeolithic assemblage (archaeological layer 3; end of unit 7
748	and beginning of unit 8 in the sedimentological log), result in [43–51] ka and [44–55] ka,

respectively, while the frequentist ages for these two samples exhibit [42–51] ka and [39–55] ka. Here again, the Bayesian modelling provides ages more precise than the frequentist ages. The determined ages for the Middle Palaeolithic layer of the site Mirak align with the period of Middle-Upper Palaeolithic transition in Shanidar [39–49] cal. ka BP (Becerra-Valdivia et al., 2017) as well as with the Neanderthal occupation layer in the Shanidar Cave, which was dated to ca [46-60] cal. ka BP (Becerra-Valdivia et al., 2017; Solecki and Solecki, 1993). However, this age-range is close to the temporal limit of ¹⁴C dating and, thus, should be treated cautiously. Our results strengthen the idea of a cultural context that is highly complex in the area, with the potential contemporaneity of Middle and Upper Palaeolithic cultures in some parts of the region (Iranian Plateau) during MIS2 to MIS3 (age-boundaries according to Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005); an hypothesis that needs further investigations and the one which imply the likely contemporaneous presence of both Neanderthals and modern humans in the region (see Zeitoun, 2016).

6. **Conclusions**

We applied and tested various Bayesian modelling scenarios to the chronological samples taken from the east and north trenches of the open-air Palaeolithic site of Mirak and presented the results of each model. Additionally, we provided the first complete numerical chronology from late Holocene [0.8–1.6] ka (samples Mk15-1 and Mk15-4) to late Pleistocene [56–73] ka (Bayesian age of oldest sample Mk17-10) for the site of Mirak in Iran. We conclude that:

- Our study suggests that Bayesian modelling generally results in a statistically significant improvement of the age precision (except scenario II), which discards our initially formulated H_0 (scenario I and scenario IV). The best improvement was achieved when the uncertainty of the samples overlap one another (scenario IV). However, applying stratigraphic relationship to the model results in strong impact on the final ages; therefore, for such a case the stratigraphic ordering should be understood clearly which otherwise it leads to age under- or over-estimations.
- Although providing the Theta matrix addresses systematic errors, in the absence of independent chronologies, with a higher temporal resolution than luminescence

dating (e.g., ¹⁴C dating), it does not result in improved chronological precision and the obtained result is almost indistinguishable from the frequentist approach (scenario II).

The Bayesian chronology for the Upper Palaeolithic occupation of the site of Mirak is attributed to [21–28] ka. The Bayesian chronology for the intermediate layer, provides the age of [26–29] ka for sub-layer 1 and the ages of [26–33] ka for the sub-layer 2. Therefore, based on our chronology, it is highly probable that the two distinct sub-layers can be considered as a one individual layer with the age of [26–33] ka. The Bayesian chronology for Middle Palaeolithic assemblage result in [43–55] ka.

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In summary, based on our observations, it appears that the advantages of Bayesian modelling have the strongest impact when a stratigraphic order is applied to the samples for which age uncertainties overlap. Hence, in the absence of explicit stratigraphic constrains, applying the frequentist approach may be favoured compared to the time-consuming and error-prone Bayesian modelling (over several weeks on a multi-core workstation). However, it should be mentioned that for this study, we did not access ¹⁴C dating as an independent age control of the site. Such combination can be the topic of future work. Although Bayesian ages provide smaller age intervals compared to ages obtained by the frequentist approach, in a prehistoric context, the determined ages from both approaches lead to a similar interpretation. Both approaches provide valuable chronological evidence that Late Pleistocene Humans frequently used the site of Mirak during MIS 3 and 2. However, fluctuations in climatic-environmental characteristics on continental and regional scales likely impacted the site of Mirak (e.g., oscillations between arid and semi-arid landscapes; Dennell (2017)). Therefore, human groups most likely lived in the region in temporally-discontinuous fashion. Further investigation is needed to shed light on the issue of millennial- and larger-scale fluctuations in climate and their impacts on the regions such as the Iranian Central Plateau during late Pleistocene.

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Table 1: Environmental dose rates

823	Table 1: Environmental dose rates

Sample name	K (%)	σ	U Top (ppm)	σ	U Bottom (ppm)	σ	Th (ppm)	σ	water content (%)	σ	Beta (Gy/ka)	Σ	Gamma (Gy/ka)	σ	Cosmic (Gy/ka)	σ	Quartz total (Gy/ka)	σ	Feldspar total (Gy/ka)	σ
Mk15-1	1.26	0.01	1.91	0.06	2.10	0.02	4.67	0.04	9	4	1.20	0.04	0.70	0.02	0.22	0.02	2.18	0.05	2.51	0.07
Mk15-4	1.41	0.02	2.02	0.08	2.37	0.02	5.18	0.05	6	3	1.37	0.03	0.80	0.01	0.16	0.02	2.39	0.05	2.72	0.07
Mk15-5	2.16	0.02	2.27	0.09	2.60	0.02	8.76	0.08	9	4	1.96	0.06	1.13	0.03	0.15	0.02	3.29	0.07	3.62	0.09
Mk15-6	2.06	0.03	2.07	0.17	4.00	0.05	9.36	0.12	6	3	1.97	0.05	1.21	0.02	0.14	0.02	3.37	0.06	3.70	0.08
Mk15-7	2.10	0.02	2.31	0.06	2.89	0.02	9.25	0.06	13	5	1.87	0.08	1.12	0.03	0.12	0.02	3.16	0.09	3.49	0.10
Mk15-8	1.81	0.02	2.57	0.12	9.42	0.06	7.08	0.07	4	1	2.04	0.03	1.39	0.02	0.20	0.02	3.69	0.05	4.02	0.07
Mk16-1	1.72	0.02	2.05	0.07	1.75	0.02	6.68	0.05	2	1	1.65	0.02	0.92	0.01	0.16	0.02	2.78	0.04	3.14	0.05
Mk16-2	1.73	0.02	1.93	0.09	1.95	0.02	6.93	0.07	10	5	1.53	0.07	0.88	0.03	0.16	0.02	2.63	0.08	2.99	0.08
Mk16-3	2.24	0.02	2.42	0.09	2.94	0.02	9.41	0.08	13	5	1.94	0.08	1.16	0.04	0.16	0.02	3.32	0.10	3.68	0.10
Mk16-4	1.66	0.02	1.98	0.08	2.41	0.02	6.49	0.06	2	1	1.65	0.02	0.97	0.01	0.17	0.02	2.84	0.04	3.20	0.05
Mk16-5	1.97	0.02	2.19	0.08	2.78	0.02	7.08	0.06	6	3	1.83	0.04	1.06	0.02	0.17	0.02	3.12	0.06	3.48	0.06
Mk16-6	2.18	0.02	2.24	0.10	3.39	0.03	9.15	0.08	4	2	2.08	0.04	1.23	0.02	0.20	0.02	3.57	0.05	3.93	0.06
Mk17-1	2.07	0.04	2.39	0.19	2.24	0.04	8.55	0.12	2	1	2.01	0.03	1.15	0.01	0.20	0.02	3.42	0.05	3.78	0.06
Mk17-2	2.10	0.03	2.44	0.16	2.32	0.03	8.62	0.10	3	1	2.02	0.03	1.16	0.01	0.20	0.02	3.44	0.05	3.80	0.06
Mk17-3	2.12	0.03	2.41	0.17	2.80	0.04	8.78	0.11	2	1	2.10	0.03	1.24	0.01	0.20	0.02	3.60	0.05	3.96	0.06
Mk17-4	1.87	0.03	1.80	0.19	4.30	0.06	7.01	0.12	6	2	1.77	0.05	1.06	0.02	0.17	0.02	3.05	0.06	3.41	0.07
Mk17-5	1.60	0.03	2.14	0.15	3.13	0.04	6.14	0.09	3	1	1.61	0.03	0.96	0.01	0.17	0.02	2.79	0.05	3.15	0.05
Mk17-6	1.83	0.03	2.30	0.18	2.45	0.04	7.34	0.11	3	1	1.80	0.03	1.05	0.01	0.18	0.02	3.09	0.05	3.45	0.06
Mk17-7	2.03	0.04	2.38	0.19	2.79	0.04	8.26	0.12	4	1	1.97	0.04	1.16	0.02	0.18	0.02	3.37	0.05	3.73	0.06
Mk17-10 825	2.32	0.04	3.28	0.22	2.60	0.04	12.45	0.15	19	8	1.95	0.11	1.20	0.05	0.14	0.02	3.35	0.13	3.75	0.13

Table2: The estimated luminescence ages based on the frequentist approach 826

	Quartz					Fel	dspar		
Sample name	De (Gy)	σ	Age (ka)	Σ	De (Gy)	Σ	Age (ka)	σ	
Mk15-1	1.2	0.2	0.6	0.1	4.4	0.3	1.7	0.1	
Mk15-4	2.9	0.4	1.2	0.2	7.6	0.3	2.8	0.1	
Mk15-5	92	4	28	1	118	4	32	2	
Mk15-6	95	6	28	2	116	3	31	1	
Mk15-7	159	6	50	3	249	9	71	4	
Mk15-8	135	6	37	2	197	4	49	2	
Mk16-1	114	6	41	2	179	9	57	3	
Mk16-2	123	4	47	2	193	8	65	3	
Mk16-3	156	11	47	4	454	52	123	15	
Mk16-4	76	3	27	1	144	10	45	3	
Mk16-5	110	5	35	2	258	52	74	15	

Mk16-6	77	4	21	1	113	3	29	1
Mk17-1	96	3	28	1				
Mk17-2	83	4	24	1				
Mk17-3	84	3	23	1				
Mk17-4	110	3	36	1	39			
Mk17-5	84	4	30	2	40			
Mk17-6	77	3	25	1	29			
Mk17-7	90	3	27	1	29			
Mk17-10	216	12	64	5	29			

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Table 3: Test results Welch one-sided paired t-test for relative uncertainty distribution

DATASET	SCENARIO	t-value	Df	<i>p</i> -value
East trench	SCENARIO I	-3.347	12	2.91E-03*
East trench	SCENARIO II	-1.732	12	5.45E-02
East trench	SCENARIO III	-6.709	12	1.08E-05*
East trench	SCENARIO IV	-7.442	12	3.91E-06*

* Statistically significant to a significance value of 0.01

 H_0 : this scenario has similar or larger mean than the frequentist results (identical or lower precision)

 H_A : this scenario has a lower mean than the frequentist results (higher precision)

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837	Figure captions
838	Figure 1: (A) Location of the open-air site Mirak between the Alborz Mountains to the north
839	and the Iranian Central Desert to the south. (B) Location of the Palaeolithic sites mentioned
840	in the text and the site of Mirak. (C) Mirak in the landscape. The red rectangle in (B) displays
841	the enlarged area in (A).
842	Figure 2: Synthetic stratigraphic record for the north trench in Mirak (the age of samples
843	Mk15-1 and Mk15-4 were calculated using the frequentist approach only. Figure redrawn
844	with modifications from Vahdati Nasab et al., 2019).
845	Figure 3: Synthetic stratigraphic record for the east trench, plus 2D dispersion of the
846	coordinated archaeological finds and the location of luminescence samples in the east
847	trench. Stratigraphic sketches by G. Jamet; 2D picture and projection by G. Berillon).
848	Figure 4 : Evaluation of the disequilibrium in the decay chain of ²³⁸ U. The ratio of ²³⁸ U(post-
849	226 Ra)/ 232 Th and 238 U(pre- 226 Ra)/ 232 Th is shown for all the samples. The ratios for most of
850	the samples are close to the equilibrium line except, MK15-6, MK15-8, MK16-6, MK17-4,
851	and MK17-5.
852	Figure 5: Comparison of quartz OSL ages with post IR-IRSL 290 °C ages from the north (left
853	plot) (except Mk15-8 from pit S2) and the east (right) sector (except Mk 16-1 from the south
854	trench). All ages are quoted with 2σ uncertainty. The quartz and feldspar ages increase with
855	depth. The discrepancy between the two ages is significant for Mk16-3 (right figure).
856	Figure 6: Comparison of the different Bayesian and the frequentist chronologies for the 13
857	quartz samples from the east trench. Top left: Simplistic Bayesian model (for definition, see
858	main text). Top right: Bayesian chronology considering Theta matrix only (for definition,
859	please see the text). Bottom left: Bayesian chronology imposing the stratigraphic order.
860	Bottom right: Bayesian chronology imposing the stratigraphic order and applying the Theta
861	matrix, which addresses systematic shared errors.
862	Figure 7: Example of scattering plots (here so-called hexagon plots) for samples Mk17-3,
863	MK-17-2, Mk16-6, Mk17-1 and Mk17-7. The full plots are shown in Figs. S11–S13. The
864	figures illustrate the probability densities of the age estimations for two samples for which

the hexagons bin the estimated ages of two samples. a: The bivariate plots of probability
densities age estimation with the simplistic Bayesian model. b: applying the stratigraphic
constraints. c: applying stratigraphic constraints and modelling systematic error with the
Theta matrix. In this last figure, a positive correlation is observed for each plot, which
reflects the shared systematic errors. The top left corner truncation in each square
illustrates the effect of stratigraphic constraint.
Figure 8: Kernel density plots comparing relative age uncertainties for the applied modelling
scenarios. Here shown are the results for the east trench.

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