A newly designed demagnetization furnace for paleomagnetic thermal treatment with highly attenuated inside magnetic field intensity

Huafeng Qin\textsuperscript{1,1}, Xiang Zhao\textsuperscript{2,2}, Shuangchi Liu\textsuperscript{1,1}, Greig Paterson\textsuperscript{3,3}, Zhaoxia Jiang\textsuperscript{4,4}, Shuhui Cai\textsuperscript{5,5}, Jinhua Li\textsuperscript{6,6}, Rixiang Zhu\textsuperscript{1,1}, and Qingson Liu\textsuperscript{7}

\textsuperscript{1}Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences
\textsuperscript{2}Australian National University
\textsuperscript{3}University of Liverpool
\textsuperscript{4}Ocean University of China
\textsuperscript{5}Institute of Geology and Geophysics, CAS
\textsuperscript{6}Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences
\textsuperscript{7}Department of Marine Science and Engineering, Southern University of Science and Technology, Shenzhen 518055, China

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Abstract

Thermal demagnetization furnaces are routine facilities that underpin countless paleomagnetic studies by allowing the progressive removal of naturally acquired magnetic remanence or the imparting of well controlled laboratory magnetization. The ideal thermal demagnetizer should maintain “zero” magnetic field during thermal treatments. However, magnetic field noise, including residual magnetic fields of material used to construct the furnace and induced fields caused by the heating current in the furnace are always present. As technology advances allowing the measurement of ever weaker magnetic remanences, it is essential that high-performance demagnetization furnaces are developed to reduce these sources of magnetic field noise. By combining efficient demagnetization of shielding and a new structure of heating wire, we have developed a new demagnetization furnace with low magnetic field noise. Repeated progressive thermal demagnetization experiments using specimens that were previously completely thermally demagnetized above their Curie temperature were carried out to explore the effects of fields within various types of furnace during demagnetization. These experiments confirm that magnetic field noise in various furnaces can have an observable and detrimental impact on demagnetization behavior and that this is reduced with our new design. The new heating element design and procedure for reducing magnetic field noises represent a significant improvement in the design of thermal demagnetizers and allows for extremely weak specimens to be successfully measured.
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Huafeng Qin¹, Xiang Zhao¹,², Shuangchi Liu¹, Greig A. Paterson³,⁴, Zhaoxia Jiang¹,⁵, Shuhui Cai¹, Jinhua Li³, Qingsong Liu¹,⁶, Rixiang Zhu¹

¹ State Key Laboratory of Lithospheric Evolution, Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China
² Research School of Earth Sciences, Australian National University, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia
³ Key Laboratory of Earth and Planetary Physics, Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China
⁴ Department of Earth, Ocean and Ecological Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool L69 7ZE, UK
⁵ Key Laboratory of Submarine Geosciences and Prospecting Techniques, Ministry of Education, and College of Marine Geosciences, Ocean University of China, 266100 Qingdao, P.R. China
⁶ Department of Marine Science and Engineering, Southern University of Science and Technology, Shenzhen 518055, China

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field noise. By combining efficient demagnetization of shielding and a new structure of heating wire, we have developed a new demagnetization furnace with low magnetic field noise. Repeated progressive thermal demagnetization experiments using specimens that were previously completely thermally demagnetized above their Curie temperature were carried out to explore the effects of fields within various types of furnace during demagnetization. These experiments confirm that magnetic field noise in various furnaces can have an observable and detrimental impact on demagnetization behavior and that this is reduced with our new design. The new heating element design and procedure for reducing magnetic field noises represent a significant improvement in the design of thermal demagnetizers and allows for extremely weak specimens to be successfully measured.

Plain language summary

Earth magnetic field had played a significant role to the lives on Earth. Studying how and when Earth magnetic field generated and how it evolved in the ancient time will provide key information of plantery evolution and life evolution. Thermal demagnetization of nature remanent magnetization carried by geological material is one of the ways to obtain the ancient magnetic field information. The thermal demagnetization furnace plays important role in such studies. An ideal thermal furnace for this purpose should maintain a “zero” magnetic field inside the sample chamber during the whole process. Reducing the residual magnetic field of the furnace itself and the induced field caused by the heating element is the key to making a high-performance demagnetization. We have developed a new demagnetization furnace could significant reduce the magnetic field noises, which represent an important improvement in the design of thermal demagnetizers and allows for extremely weak specimens to be successfully thermal demagnetized.

Key words:

Paleomagnetism, thermal demagnetization, furnace, AC magnetic field, residual magnetic field, heating wire structure

1. Introduction
Paleomagnetism investigates the geomagnetic field through geologic time by the measurement of remanent magnetizations recorded by magnetic minerals in natural materials. The natural remanent magnetization (NRM) usually consists of multiple components. Therefore, to define the stable characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) of geological interest, any secondary remanent magnetization needs be removed using partial demagnetization techniques (e.g., the step-wise progressive thermal or alternating field demagnetization [Irving et al., 1961; Schmidt, 1993]). During thermal demagnetization, specimens are heated to a pre-selected temperature, held for a period of time (e.g., 10-30 minutes), and then cooled down to the room temperature in “zero” magnetic field environment [Collinson, 1983]. This treatment will be conducted repeatedly with progressive increased target temperature till the ChRM is isolated [Thellier, 1966; Collinson, 1975]. Thermal demagnetization is one of the standard demagnetization methods, and thermal demagnetization furnaces (or thermal demagnetizers) are present in nearly all paleomagnetic laboratories.

Although widely used, the experimental success rate of thermal demagnetization can be relatively low for weak sedimentary rocks. It is often found that remanent direction of some specimens become distorted at high temperatures, but the ChRM can still be obtained by alternating demagnetization using sister specimens. The failure of thermal demagnetization could be attributed to irreversible thermal physio-chemical alterations upon heating [e.g., Wasilewski 1969, Heller et al., 1970], partial thermoremanent magnetization (pTRM) acquisition in the presence of a residual DC field upon cooling [Collinson, 1975], or magnetic fields caused by the heating current (Heller et al., 1970). Alternatively, a weak field high temperature isothermal remanence could be acquired when the current field is shut off abruptly at the end of heating [Zheng et al., 2010]. Similarly, it is also possible to acquire a high temperature anhysteretic remanent magnetization in the presence of DC residual field imposed on the alternating field (AF) generated by the AC supply used to power the heating elements [Zheng et al., 2010]. Thus, a combination of these effects could seriously distort the paleomagnetic results. Although early studies could not detect differences between inductive and noninductive heating wire [Irving et al., 1961], inductive AF can cause unwanted AF demagnetization at high temperature. Given that the coercivity of magnetic minerals reduces quickly as the temperature approaches the unblocking
temperature or Curie temperature, this effect may be substantial. In the extreme, the NRM direction may be changed abnormally by single axis AF demagnetization because of the stationary current field [Stephenson, 1983] or through the acquisition of gyromagnetic [Stephenson, 1983, Finn and Coe, 2016] at high temperature.

Reducing the fields present in thermal demagnetizers can significantly improve the quality of paleomagnetic measurements, particularly for weakly magnetized specimens. Moreover, for the study of meteorites in planetary science or magnetizations acquired near the onset of the geodynamo, understanding the characteristic remanent magnetization acquired in low magnetic fields, including extremely weak fields (nT range) is a topic of great interest [Weiss et al., 2010; Tarduno et al., 2015]. It is important that the technology around thermal demagnetizers progresses to keep pace with the change demands of the scientists who use them.

In this study, we will first describe the technology to reduce the residual magnetic field for a newly designed thermal demagnetizer, including improvement of degaussing approach for the shield cylinder and a new structure of heating element as well as an improved temperature control. We then conduct detail experiments to test the performance of the new furnace in comparison to currently available commercial equivalents.

2. New design of furnace for thermal demagnetization

2.1 Degaussing the shield cylinder

In order to shield the influence of external magnetic field, the chamber of thermal demagnetization furnace is usually installed in a magnetic shield cylinder. The residual fields in sample zone vary from several nT to 150 nT in different furnaces [Paterson et al., 2012], which is mainly determined by the remanent magnetization of magnetic materials within the furnace [Freake and Thorp, 1971, Thiel et al., 2007]. Such remanences can be usually demagnetized by a stand-alone degaussing wand or by a solenoid coil wound around the outer surface of the shield cylinder. A degaussing wand consists of a copper coil produces an alternating magnetic field by applying a constant AC voltage. When the wand is slowly moved away, the effective alternating magnetic field decay and performs an alternating field demagnetization process on the degaussing
target. However, the unsteady movement of the wand controlled by hand can result in incomplete
demagnetization which prevent to achieve ideal low remanences. On the other hand, a
conventional de gauss coil wrapped outside the shield cylinder performs demagnetization by
flowing through a gradually decreasing sinusoidal current (Figure 1a). In this system, the
directions of de gaussing fields are always along the long axis. It is still difficult to achieve an ideal
low fields in practice. This could due to the large size of the coil which cause difficult to reach
enough high peak field or the non-uniform effective field distribution inside the coil.

Early experiments found that the best shield demagnetization results were obtained by
passing the AC current through conductors within the shield cylinders or by passing the current
longitudinally through the shielding material itself [Herrmannsfeldt and Salsburg, 1964]. A circular
magnetic field perpendicular to the central longitudinal axis will be produced in the cylindrical
shield if a current conducting straight wire is passed though the longitudinal center axis of the
shield cylinder, however, this require very large current to reach a certain demagnetization level.
In practice, we use a total of eight 4 mm² copper lines wound from inside to outside of the shield
cylinder to form a large coil (Figure 1b), and connect to a transformer with a twisted-pair cable.
The transformer has separated primary and secondary windings which can be pulled apart.
Separating the windings will generate a nonlinear attenuation of the alternating current in the coil
which performs an alternating demagnetization on shield cylinder. The residual magnetic field in
the sample region can be as low as 1 nT (Figure 1c), which makes it possible to further reduce
spurious fields during thermal demagnetization.

Although not adopted here, employing a toroidal de gaussing coil to embody the shield
cylinder may also improve the uniformity of the de gaussing field over the volume of the shield
compared to conventional solenoid coil. Vioget et al. [2013] showed that successive de gaussing in
three spatial directions of a magnetic shield room could reduce the ambient field significantly. The
same principle, applied to a thermal demagnetizer, would suggest that both toroidal and solenoidal
windings can be combined for more effective de gaussing of thermal demagnetizer shields, but this
requires experimental verification.

2.2 The design of heating wires using in the new furnace.
Unlike minimizing residual DC bias fields, the effects of the AC magnetic fields generated by the wire current cannot be simply shielded. The heating elements in thermal demagnetizers is typically constructed by non-inductive winding in order to minimize the AC demagnetization effect of the heating current [Chamalaun, 1964]. There are generally two types of non-inductive heater winding, one is a bifilar solenoid wrapped on a cylindrical form to heat specimens within (Figure 2a). This style of winding is widely used in small furnaces such as Sogo Fine-TD furnace in Japan [Zheng et al., 2010]. It is also used by in some Kapabridges and variable field translation balances (VFTBs) to heat specimens. In this configuration, the opposing currents of adjacent wires reduce the AC magnetic field. A disadvantage of this system, however, is that the specimen region has to be small in order to maintain a acceptable resistance and workable power consumption.

An alternative method is to use solenoids arranged in opposite direction (Figure 2b) or wound into a spiral ring as is used furnaces manufactured by Magnetic Measurements (UK) or ASC Scientific (USA). It is usually assumed that the magnetic field generated by a uniform solenoid is only in the interior and both ends of the solenoid [Shaw, 2010], but this idealized and neglects the fact that in a real solenoid the wire loops (and current loops) are not perfectly circular, which results in non-zero external fields. For effective cancellation of the fields generated in each solenoid, this design requires that opposing solenoids are perfectly antiparallel. Imperfect alignment results in the small, but potentially significant AC fields when large currents are applied during heating [Zheng et al., 2010a, b; Shaw, 2010].

From the Bio-Savart law in a cylindrical coordinate system (see detail in supporting information), it can be shown that the external magnetic field far from a solenoid is similar to that of one straight wire oriented along the length of the solenoid. So, if a straight wire is inserted into the center of a solenoid and is connected with the solenoid in series at one end, such that the current flow opposite to that in the solenoid, the opposing magnetic fields will partially cancel. This type of wire arrangement, which we call a straight core solenoid, is shown in Figure 2c and is the form of the heating element used in our new design of thermal demagnetizer. In supporting information, we outline comparative measurements of the external field of a standard solenoid and a straight core solenoid. The stray magnetic field from the straight core solenoid design is much smaller than that of a standard solenoid with identical winding (26-535 nT compared to 6000-7000
nT measured at a distance of 2 cm from the solenoid wire). We use this new heating element to build a new furnace named TD-PGL-100. When adjacent elements are arranged in opposite directions (Figure 2c) the magnetic field is about 130 nT in the heating chamber when applied 1A current in heating wire. For comparison, Zheng et al. (2010a, b) report similar 1A heating element fields for the commercially available Sogo Fine-TD, Magnetic Measurements MMTD80 as ~240 and 840 nT, respectively. They also report 0.5 A heating element fields for the ASC TD48 and Natsuhara as being 3600 and 3200 nT, respectively.

### 2.3 Temperature control and TD-PGL-100

Employing adjustable voltage silicon controlled rectifier (Fig 3a) over solid-state relay allows the output power to be decreased as the temperature approaches the target point which would help to avoid temperature overshootings. With careful PID tuning, the oven has 1°C accuracy with a resolution of 0.1°C of temperature. As the examples of heating and cooling curves shown in the figure 3b, the temperature rises rapidly at the beginning of heating, and gradually approaches the target temperature after ~30 minutes and then the temperature is maintained for a certain time to ensure the samples are thoroughly heated. The cooling fan can be turned on manually or automatically to cool the samples down. The temperature dropped rapidly and became slow when near room temperature. The heating and cooling data can be logged into USB memory automatically, which is essential for the thermal treatment and related experiments especially for absolute paleointensity studies.

A new furnace named TD-PGL-100 had been built based on all above mentioned techniques, which chamber has 120 cm length and 9 cm diameter, and the sample zone is designed as 60 cm in length which allows up to 100 standard paleomagnetic specimens be treated in once. Temperature gradient in the sample zone is within 10°C of target temperature below 600°C and 12°C at 700°C.

### 3. Thermal demagnetization experiments

#### 3.1 Specimen description and thermal demagnetizers

To verify the thermal demagnetization performance of our new furnace, we explored the
thermal demagnetization behavior of synthetic hematite specimens. Hematite specimens synthesized in the lab were chosen to avoid potential thermochemical changes during multiple heatings. The particles of hematite are cubic and with a broadly uniform size distribution with an average length and width of 570 nm and 545 nm, respectively (see Supplementary Information).

In addition, the weak magnetizations of hematite are suitable for checking the effects of weak background fields.

Eight synthetic specimens were prepared by mixing hematite with quartz sand (5 g), Kaolinite (5 g) into 20 ml deionized water in water. The mixtures were then loaded into ceramic boxes (2×2×2 cm) and allowed to dry and consolidate in ambient atmosphere Five of the specimens contained more hematite were classified as strong specimens (D2-1, 2, 4-6), and the other three contained less hematite are classified as weak specimens (D2-7,8,12).

To investigate if these demagnetization experiments are influenced by undesirable magnetic fields from the furnace, we adopt a different style of thermal demagnetization procedure. Progressive thermal demagnetization of TRM was carried out to identify the unblocking temperature spectrum of the studied specimens. This was performed in an MMTD-SC paleointensity furnace.

Subsequently, specimens were heated to 700°C for complete thermal demagnetization, then the progressive thermal demagnetization was repeated. This was performed using two different demagnetization furnaces: an ASC Scientific TD48 and our new TD-PGL-100. If the specimens were fully demagnetized without the effects of stray magnetic fields in the furnace, the remanent magnetization of completely demagnetized specimens would remain unchanged during subsequent progressive demagnetization experiments. Finally, in order to quantitatively evaluate the influence of the background magnetic field, we assess the linearity of TRMs acquired in different applied magnetic field, especially in low DC bias fields using MMTD-SC.

We also carried out comparative thermal demagnetization experiments on some natural specimens. Two groups of sister specimens were heated using the two different demagnetization furnaces. Remanent directions and moments were measured with a cryogenic magnetometer system (2G Enterprises 755) installed in the magnetically shielded room with residual field < 300
nT at IGGCAS. Background noise is typically lower than $2 \times 10^{12}$ Am$^2$, and the background moment of the sample tray was kept less than $5 \times 10^{11}$ Am$^2$ during the measurements. All the experiments were completed in the paleomagnetic laboratory at the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences (IGGCAS).

3.2 Thermal demagnetization of TRM

A full TRM was acquired by cooling specimens from 700°C in the presence of a 30 µT field using the MMTD-SC paleointensity furnace, then progressive thermal demagnetization was performed by removing the applied field. The amplitudes of the TRMs range from $1.13 \times 10^6$ Am$^2$ to $0.65 \times 10^6$ Am$^2$ for strongly magnetic specimens and from $1.52 \times 10^7$ Am$^2$ to $1.88 \times 10^7$ Am$^2$ for weakly magnetic specimens. Subsequently, specimens were subject to stepwise progressive thermal demagnetization up to 700°C in our new furnace.

During demagnetization we used temperature intervals of 100°C below 500°C and 10°C above 600°C. After each heating and cooling step, remanences were measured. The results are shown in Figure 4. The intensities of remanent magnetization of all specimens did not change significantly until 600°C, and began to reduce rapidly above 640 (Figure 4a-e), which indicate the distribution of unblocking temperatures is relatively narrow which is consistent with narrow size distribution of hematite. For the weak specimens, there are small inflection around 580-600°C which indicate that these samples could have a small amount of magnetite. The inflection actually present in strong specimens as well, but the signal is buried by the relatively strong total magnetization. We note that two specimens (D2-1, D2-2), which were placed on the door side of the furnace, are complete demagnetization at 680°C, but other specimens are demagnetized by the 670°C step. This is possibly caused by thermal gradients in the sample zone.

Orthogonal projection diagrams [Zijderveld 1967] indicate that the directions shift a little at low temperatures, but this is likely due to measurement errors and manual handling of the specimens between steps. The magnetic moments of terminal demagnetization steps are less than one percent of initial total TRM and lie close to the origin of the plots (the inserts in Figure 4).

3.3 Comparisons of repeated progressive thermal demagnetization behavior for different
The repeated thermal demagnetization experiment is carried out after the specimens were heated up to 700°C for complete demagnetization. We first carried out this experiment using ASC TD48 dual chamber thermal demagnetizer. We aimed to keep specimens in the same angle and position while placing them on the sample holder during heating and cooling in the furnace. Since the magnetic moments are relatively weak, the sample holder of the cryogenic magnetometer was cleaned before each measurement, and the measurement is repeated twice and the drift value was kept less than 5.0×10^{-11}Am^2. The experimental results are shown in Figure 5. The magnetic moments of the initial demagnetized state range from 4.38×10^{-10}Am^2 to 1.32×10^{-9}Am^2 for strong specimens and from 7.7×10^{-11}Am^2 to 1.69×10^{-10}Am^2 for weak specimens. These values are just 0.05–0.12% of initial TRM acquired in 30 µT. In the subsequent progressive demagnetization experiments, the intensities and directions of remanence remain stable below 640°C, despite noisy due to the weak moments. Above ~650°C, however, the moments rapidly increase and reach peak values at 670–680°C. The maximum magnetic moments are an order of magnitude greater than that the initial demagnetization state. The magnetic moments decrease again after further heating to 690°C and 700°C.

For specimens, directions of the spurious moments are identical, which suggests that they are susceptible to the to a global cause. It is no doubt that the extra undesirable remanence acquired during the thermal demagnetization process, and those spurious moments are not only affected by the weak residual field, but very likely related to the noise magnetic field of AC current. However, even the worst the superimposed remanence acquired in re-demagnetization experiments is still very small compared to total TRM acquired in 30 µT, The maximum value obtained is just about 2% of a TRM in 30 µT.

We repeated the same modified progressive thermal demagnetization experiments using the TD-PGL-100 furnace. The experimental results are shown in Figure 6. First of all, the remanence moments after the first heating up to 700°C are lower than the value of completely demagnetization using TD48 furnace, which is due to the lower residual fields in the TD-PGL-100 furnace. The initial moments range from 6.5×10^{-11}Am^2 to 2.8×10^{-10}Am^2 for strong specimens and
from $2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{Am}^2$ to $9.4 \times 10^{-11} \text{Am}^2$ for weak specimens. These are about 0.02-0.05% of the 30 
\mu T TRM. These experiments also confirm that the specimens have relatively stable (within the 
limits of noise) moments below 640°C (Figure 6). For our new furnace, the magnetic moments 
and directions of all specimens also clearly change in the 650-700°C temperature interval, 
indicating that our new thermal demagnetizer is also affected by field noise. We note, however, 
that the changes in the magnetic moments are much less than those seen using the ASC TD-48 
furnace and typically an order of magnitude smaller. Some of the magnetic moments do not 
always increase, but also decrease (e.g., Figure 6a, b). It is possible due to the superimposed 
remanence caused by the noise field is limited, and opposite with the previous remanence 
direction.

3.4 TRM acquisition in different fields

Spurious remanences caused by noise field can affect the effectiveness of thermal 
demagnetization, but will also have an impact on laboratory remanences acquired low fields. In 
order to quantitatively evaluate this effect, we also carried out total TRM acquisition experiments 
in 7 different fields ranging from 0.1 \mu T to 100 \mu T. The TRMs were produced by cooling form 
700°C using the MMTD-SC paleointensity furnace. The TRM directions from the different 
applied field strengths are consistent, but the relationship between field strength and moment 
intensity is not a simple linear trend at low fields, as should be expected. The results are shown in 
the Figure 7. A linear field dependence of TRM was observed for specimens in the fields larger 
than 1 \mu T. At low fields (< 1 \mu T), however, it is more complex, which is similar to previous 
studies [e.g., Kletetschka et al., 2006]. This deviation from a linear trend may be related to 
limitations in controlling the precision of the magnetic field or may be related to mechanisms of 
TRM acquired in very weak fields [Dunlop and Argyle, 1997]. The trends, however, may also be 
due to the influence spurious magnetic fields in the furnace affecting TRM acquisition.

We also plot the magnetic moment variations of re-demagnetization experiments with 
different furnace in the Figure 7. The maximum superimposed noise magnetic moments in ASC 
TD48 is close to the TRM acquisition in ~1 \mu T. The magnetic moments after completely 
demagnetization have very low values, but still deviate from the linear trend. On the other hand, if
we used the linear relationship in the high field to extrapolate the equivalent TRM in very low
field, the magnetic moments of specimens after completely demagnetized using TD-PGL-100 are
similar TRM obtained in 10 nT. Part of this deviation from a linear trend is that the background
and noise of 2G-755 is larger than the expected value.

3.5 Thermal demagnetization of natural specimens

Thermal demagnetization experiments were carried out on 12 nature specimens in each group
using ASC TD48 and TD-PGL-100, respectively. Nine sandstone specimens denoted as “B” were
collected from Cenozoic strata in Yunnan, and three muddy limestone specimens denoted as
“CM” were from Tibet. The main magnetic carrier mineral of sandstone specimen is hematite [Li
et al., 2017]. They have only a single univectorial component decaying steadily toward high
temperature. It can be used to verify whether the results of synthetic specimens behave the same in
natural specimens. The muddy limestone specimens also contain hematite and have
multi-component characteristics of different temperature ranges.

The experimental results are shown in Figure 8. The demagnetization characteristics of
sandstone specimens obtained from different demagnetization furnaces are similar at low
temperature, but the remanence directions of some specimens are quite different above 660°C.
The remanence directions do not changed much after demagnetization at high temperature using
the new furnace (Figure 8b, d, f, h, j). The demagnetization data of TD48 furnace became
confusing at temperature over 660°C. For limestone specimens, there is no difference in
demagnetization data from one specimen, although the directions have obvious multi-component
characteristics. The other two are quite different (Figure 8k, l). It is beyond the aim of this paper to
make clear the reasons for the differences, but complex magnetization history and/or complex
blocking behavior may be one possibility. Taken together, all of the demagnetization data indicate
that lower remanent magnetizations can be more successfully isolated during thermal
demagnetization using the new demagnetizing furnace.

4. Discussion
Thermal demagnetization results will be affected by the performance of thermal demagnetizers. It has been reported that the thermal demagnetization of TRM that was acquired in 1 µT can be seriously affected by AC current fields which can reach up to 1000 µT [Zheng et al., 2010]. In such cases samples can acquire high temperature isothermal remanences when the heating current is abruptly switched off for cooling purpose. The typically AC current field produced by most of thermal demagnetizers are lower than 100 µT. From repeated thermal demagnetization experiments, the spurious remanence induced by these fields is relatively small when compared to a total TRM acquired in Earth like fields. Even in the worst case, the superimposed remanence acquired in re-demagnetization experiments is just about 2% of TRM acquired in 30 µT field. It may not be sufficient to affect paleomagnetic investigations of volcanic rocks. However, considering that detrital remanence (DRM) is typically an order of magnitude weaker than TRM for same content of magnetic mineral [Fuller et al., 2002], such spurious fields may have a large impact on thermal demagnetization data obtained from sedimentray rocks. Other weakly magnetized materials such as those right in geomagnetic reversals or excursions may also be influenced significantly. It is also strong enough to have a notable effect TRMs acquired in less than 1 µT for some Meteorite or Extraterrestrial samples [Weiss et al., 2010].

Moreover, residual fields are ubiquitous in thermal demagnetizers and, when on the order of less than a few thousands of Earth-like field, are usually considered sufficiently low for most thermal demagnetization experiments. However, in rocks containing two magnetic phases, such as magnetite and hematite, it is possible for a spurious moment in the direction of the stray field to be acquired by the magnetite portion during cooling, which can mask the direction of the hematite [e.g., Chamalaun and Proath, 1967]. Such behavior could be prevalent in sedimentary rocks, and prevent successful resolution of the paleomagnetic directions. Through a longitudinal coil system, we have shown that it is easy to reduce residual fields to several nT or even less. This system can be applied to almost all types of commercially available thermal demagnetizers with the mu-metal shielding cylinders.

Although our improved heating element can greatly reduce the AC current field, it cannot completely eliminate it. If lower AC magnetic fields are required, the only alternative would be to heat the specimens outside of the primary electrical heating element region. This could be achieved...
by heating the sample region by hot gas flow heated outside the sample region. This style of
furnace can reduce AC current field to practically zero [Heller et al., 1971]. However, considering
which need extra gas bottle and normally limited heating capacity of gas flow furnace. Our new
TD-PGL-100 thermal demagnetizer with lower AC current field and super low residual magnetic
fields is a reasonable choice for most of the lab.

5. Conclusions

Here we introduce a new heating element that composed of a straight wire inserted into
solenoid and connected in series at one end, a configuration we call a straight core solenoid. Such
a configuration can significantly reduce the stray magnetic fields generated when a current is
applied to the heating element. We also outline a demagnetization procedure that can reduce the
residual magnetic field in shield cylinder can be reduced to less than 1 nT in sample zone after
demagnetization using current conducting multiple straight wires though the shield cylinder. We
combine these new improvements to develop a new thermal demagnetizer, which has significantly
reduced the AC induced and residual magnetic fields. This will allow the successful recover of
weak magnetizations blocked at high temperatures and has applications in recovering sedimentary
magnetizations, records of geomagnetic polarity reversals, signals of the earliest geodynamo, as
well as extraterrestrial magnetizations. This new thermal demagnetizer has been running normally
for three years in the IGCCAS laboratory, and results demonstrate its excellent performance
especially for these weakly magnetic natural specimens [Jiang et al., 2017, Yan et al., 2018].

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https://earthref.org/MagIC/16831/0439ba2d-e530-4c4a-a5ac-61b3b67036ed.

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Figure 1. (a) A solenoidal and (b) toroidal degaussing coil embody the shield cylinder. (c) Residual fields along longitude axis in a shielding cylinder after demagnetization with winding method shown in part (b).
Figure 2. Configuration of non-inductive heating wires. (a) bifilar solenoid wrapped in small oven, (b) solenoid-like spiral ring heating wires arranged in larger oven, (c) the new straight core solenoid heating wires using in the TD-PGL-100.

Figure 3. (a) Circuit schematic diagram for the TD-PGL-100. (b) Temperature curves during heating and cooling at different target temperatures in a thermal demagnetization experiment.
Figure 4. Thermal demagnetization curve (black symbol and line) and corresponding orthogonal plot (inserts) of progressive thermal demagnetization of TRM (30 μT, 700°C) of synthetic specimens. Solid (open) circles indicate projection on the horizontal (vertical) plane in orthogonal plot. The numbers close to the symbols for the vertical planes projections indicate the level of stepwise demagnetization. The purple line is the demagnetization proportion of individual temperature.
Figure 5. The thermal demagnetization curve (blue symbol and line, left) and corresponding orthogonal plot (right) of repeated progressive thermal demagnetization of the synthetic hematite specimens using the ASC TD48. Solid (open) circles indicate projection on the horizontal (vertical) plane.
**Figure 6.** The thermal demagnetization curve (red symbol and line, left) and corresponding orthogonal plot (right) of repeated progressive thermal demagnetization of the synthetic hematite specimens using the TD-PGL-100. Solid (open) circles indicate projection on the horizontal (vertical) plane.
Figure 7. The magnetization of TRM dependence on applied magnetic field. Green lines indicate trend fitting line. The blue squares (red triangles) indicate the variation range of thermal demagnetization in Fig. 5 (Fig. 6)
Figure 8. Thermal decay curve and corresponding orthogonal plot of progressive thermal demagnetization of natural specimens. Blue squares represent the demagnetization data from the ASC TD48, and the red triangles represent data from the TD-PGL-100. Solid (open) circles indicate projection on the horizontal (vertical) plane.
Figure 8. (continued)
Figure 1.
Figure 2.
Figure 3.
Figure 4.
Figure 5.
Figure 7.
Figure 8 (continued).
Figure S2.
Figure S3.
Figure S4.