

Tagungen des  
Landesmuseums für Vorgeschichte Halle  
Band 12/1 | 2015

2200 BC – Ein Klimasturz als Ursache  
für den Zerfall der Alten Welt?  
2200 BC – A climatic breakdown as a  
cause for the collapse of the old world?

*7. Mitteldeutscher Archäologentag  
vom 23. bis 26. Oktober 2014 in Halle (Saale)  
7<sup>th</sup> Archaeological Conference of Central Germany  
October 23–26, 2014 in Halle (Saale)*



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Landesamt für Denkmalpflege und Archäologie Sachsen-Anhalt  
LANDESMUSEUM FÜR VORGESCHICHTE

herausgegeben von  
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Halle (Saale)  
2015

Dieser Tagungsband entstand mit freundlicher Unterstützung von:  
The conference proceedings were supported by:

**UAB**

Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

Die Beiträge dieses Bandes wurden einem Peer-Review-Verfahren unterzogen. Die Gutachtertätigkeit übernahmen folgende Fachkollegen: Prof. Dr. Helge Wolfgang Atz, Prof. Dr. Robert Chapman, Prof. Dr. Janusz Czebreszuk, Dr. Stefan Dreibrodt, Prof. José Sebastián Carrión García, Prof. Dr. Albert Hafner, Prof. Dr. Svend Hansen, Dr. Karl-Uwe Heußner, Dr. Barbara Horejs, PD Dr. Reinhard Jung, Dr. Flemming Kaul, Prof. Dr. Ourania Kouka, Dr. Alexander Land, Dr. José Lull García, Prof. Dr. Rafael Micó, Prof. Dr. Pierre de Miroschedji, Prof. Dr. Louis D. Nebelsick, Prof. Dr. Marco Pacciarelli, Prof. Dr. Ernst Pernicka, Prof. Dr. Lorenz Rahmstorf, Prof. Dr. Roberto Risch, Prof. Dr. Jeremy Rutter, Prof. Dr. Gerhard Schmiedel, Anja Stadelbacher, Dr. Ralf Schwarz, Prof. Dr. Gerhard Trnka, Prof. Dr. Jordi Voltas, Dr. Bernhard Weninger.

Bibliografische Information der Deutschen Nationalbibliothek  
Die Deutsche Nationalbibliothek verzeichnet diese Publikation in der Deutschen Nationalbibliografie; detaillierte bibliografische Daten sind im Internet über <http://portal.dnb.de> abrufbar.

ISBN 978-3-944507-29-3

ISSN 1867-4402

ISBN (UNIVERSITAT AUTÒNOMA DE BARCELONA) 978-84-490-5585-0

*Redaktion* Markus C. Blaich, Konstanze Geppert, Kathrin Legler, Anne Reinholdt, Manuela Schwarz, Anna Swieder, David Tucker, Melina Wießler  
*Redaktion und Übersetzung der englischen Texte* Sandy Hämmerle • Galway (Irland), Isabel Aitken • Peebles (Schottland), David Tucker  
*Organisation und Korrespondenz* Konstanze Geppert, Anne Reinholdt  
*Technische Bearbeitung* Thomas Blankenburg, Anne Reinholdt, Nora Seeländer  
*Sektionstrenner* Gestaltung: Thomas Blankenburg, Nora Seeländer; S. 33 Photograph Brooklyn Museum, Charles Edwin Wilbour Fund, 39.1. Creative Commons-BY; S. 95 © Eberhard Karls-Universität Tübingen; S. 333 © UAB ASOME; S. 481 © R. Kolev (National Museum of History, Sofia), © Dr. M. Hristov (National Museum of History, Sofia); S. 669 © J. Lipták, München; S. 803 © Aberdeen University Museum, © National Museums of Scotland, © Dr. A. Sheridan (National Museums of Scotland)  
*Umschlag* Malte Westphalen, Nora Seeländer

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*Papier* alterungsbeständig nach DIN/ISO 9706  
*Satzschrift* FF Celeste, News Gothic

*Konzept und Gestaltung* Carolyn Steinbeck • Berlin  
*Layout, Satz und Produktion* Anne Reinholdt, Nora Seeländer  
*Druck und Bindung* LÖHNERT DRUCK

# Inhalt/Contents

## Band I

- 9 **Vorwort der Herausgeber/Preface of the editors**
- 25 **Vicente Lull, Rafael Micó, Cristina Rihuete Herrada, and Roberto Risch**  
What is an event?

## Sektion Orient und Ägypten/ Section Middle East and Egypt

- 35 **Harvey Weiss**  
Megadrought, collapse, and resilience in late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC Mesopotamia
- 53 **Helge Wolfgang Arz, Jérôme Kaiser, and Dominik Fleitmann**  
Paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes around 2200 BC recorded in sediment cores from the northern Red Sea
- 61 **Michele Massa and Vasif Şahoğlu**  
The 4.2 ka BP climatic event in west and central Anatolia: combining palaeo-climatic proxies and archaeological data
- 79 **Juan Carlos Moreno García**  
Climatic change or sociopolitical transformation? Reassessing late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC in Egypt

## Sektion Östlicher und Zentraler Mittelmeerraum/ Section Eastern and Central Mediterranean

- 97 **Hermann Genz**  
Beware of environmental determinism: the transition from the Early to the Middle Bronze Age on the Lebanese coast and the 4.2 ka BP event
- 113 **Felix Höflmayer**  
The southern Levant, Egypt, and the 4.2 ka BP event
- 131 **Lindy Crewe**  
Expanding and shrinking networks of interaction: Cyprus c. 2200 BC
- 149 **Lorenz Rahmstorf**  
The Aegean before and after c. 2200 BC between Europe and Asia: trade as a prime mover of cultural change
- 181 **Stephan W. E. Blum and Simone Riehl**  
Troy in the 23<sup>rd</sup> century BC – environmental dynamics and cultural change
- 205 **Reinhard Jung and Bernhard Weninger**  
Archaeological and environmental impact of the 4.2 ka cal BP event in the central and eastern Mediterranean

- 235 **Bernhard Friedrich Steinmann**  
Gestürzte Idole – Das Ende der frühkykladischen Elite
- 253 **Marco Pacciarelli, Teodoro Scarano, and Anita Crispino**  
The transition between the Copper and Bronze Ages in southern Italy and Sicily
- 283 **Giovanni Leonardi, Michele Cupitò, Marco Baioni, Cristina Longhi, and Nicoletta Martinelli**  
Northern Italy around 2200 cal BC. From Copper to Early Bronze Age: Continuity and/or discontinuity?
- 305 **Giulia Recchia and Girolamo Fiorentino**  
Archipelagos adjacent to Sicily around 2200 BC: attractive environments or suitable geo-economic locations?
- 321 **Walter Dörfler**  
The late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC in pollen diagrams along a south-north transect from the Near East to northern Central Europe

## Sektion Westlicher Mittelmeerraum/ Section Western Mediterranean

- 335 **Laurent Carozza, Jean-François Berger, Cyril Marcigny, and Albane Burens**  
Society and environment in Southern France from the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC to the beginning of the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium BC: 2200 BC as a tipping point?
- 365 **Vicente Lull, Rafael Micó, Cristina Rihuete Herrada, and Roberto Risch**  
Transition and conflict at the end of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC in south Iberia
- 409 **António Carlos Valera**  
Social change in the late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC in Portugal: the twilight of enclosures
- 429 **Germán Delibes de Castro, Francisco Javier Abarquero Moras, Manuel Crespo Díez, Marcos García García, Elisa Guerra Doce, José Antonio López Sáez, Sebastián Pérez Díaz, and José Antonio Rodríguez Marcos**  
The archaeological and palynological record of the Northern Plateau of Spain during the second half of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC
- 449 **Martin Kölling, Vicente Lull, Rafael Micó, Cristina Rihuete Herrada, and Roberto Risch**  
No indication of increased temperatures around 2200 BC in the south-west Mediterranean derived from oxygen isotope ratios in marine clams (*Glycimeris* sp.) from the El Argar settlement of Gatas, south-east Iberia
- 461 **Mara Weinelt, Christian Schwab, Jutta Kneisel, and Martin Hinz**  
Climate and societal change in the western Mediterranean area around 4.2 ka BP

## Band II

### Sektion Mittel- und Osteuropa/ Section Central and Eastern Europe

- 483 **Martin Hristov**  
New evidence for funeral and ritual activity in the northern part of the Balkan Peninsula: a case study from Southern Bulgaria in the second half of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC to the first half of the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium BC

- 503 **Klára Pusztainé Fischl, Viktória Kiss, Gabriella Kulcsár, and Vajk Szeverényi**  
Old and new narratives for Hungary around 2200 BC
- 525 **Mirosław Furmanek, Agata Hałaszkó, Maksym Mackiewicz, and Bartosz Myślecki**  
New data for research on the Bell Beaker Culture in Upper Silesia, Poland
- 539 **Janusz Czebreszuk and Marzena Szmyt**  
Living on the North European Plain around 2200 BC: between continuity and change
- 561 **François Bertemes and Volker Heyd**  
2200 BC – Innovation or Evolution? The genesis of the Danubian Early Bronze Age
- 579 **Frank Sirocko**  
Winter climate and weather conditions during the »Little-Ice-Age-like cooling events« of the Holocene: implications for the spread of »Neolithisation«?
- 595 **Alexander Land, Johannes Schönbein, and Michael Friedrich**  
Extreme climate events identified by wood-anatomical features for the Main Valley (Southern Germany) – A case study for 3000–2000 BC
- 603 **Matthias B. Merkl and Jutta Lechterbeck**  
Settlement dynamics and land use between the Hegau and the western Lake Constance region, Germany, during the second half of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC
- 617 **Philipp W. Stockhammer, Ken Massy, Corina Knipper, Ronny Friedrich, Bernd Kromer, Susanne Lindauer, Jelena Radosavljević, Ernst Pernicka und Johannes Krause**  
Kontinuität und Wandel vom Endneolithikum zur frühen Bronzezeit in der Region Augsburg
- 643 **Andreas Bauerochse, Inke Achterberg, and Hanns Hubert Leuschner**  
Evidence for climate change between 2200 BC and 2160 BC derived from subfossil bog and riverine trees from Germany
- 651 **Johannes Müller**  
Crisis – what crisis? Innovation: different approaches to climatic change around 2200 BC

## Sektion Mitteldeutschland/ Section Central Germany

- 671 **Ralf Schwarz**  
Kultureller Bruch oder Kontinuität? – Mitteldeutschland im 23. Jh. v. Chr.
- 715 **Matthias Becker, Madeleine Fröhlich, Kathrin Balfanz, Bernd Kromer und Ronny Friedrich**  
Das 3. Jt. v. Chr. zwischen Saale und Unstrut – Kulturelle Veränderungen im Spiegel der Radiokohlenstoffdatierung
- 747 **Kathrin Balfanz, Madeleine Fröhlich und Torsten Schunke**  
Ein Siedlungsareal der Glockenbecherkultur mit Hausgrundrissen bei Klobikau, Sachsen-Anhalt, Deutschland
- 765 **Madeleine Fröhlich und Matthias Becker**  
Typochronologische Überlegungen zu den Kulturen des Endneolithikums und der frühen Bronzezeit zwischen Saale und Unstrut im 3. Jt. v. Chr.
- 783 **Frauke Jacobi**  
»Size matters!« – Die endneolithischen Gräberfelder von Profen, Burgenlandkreis, Sachsen-Anhalt

**793 André Spatzier**

Pömmelte-Zackmünde – Polykultureller Sakralort oder Ortskonstanz im Heiligtum während einer kulturellen Transformation?

Ein Beitrag zur Kulturentwicklung des späten 3. Jts. v. Chr. in Mitteldeutschland

## **Sektion Nord- und Westeuropa/ Section Northern and Western Europe**

**805 Andrew P. Fitzpatrick**

Great Britain and Ireland in 2200 BC

**833 Mike Baillie and Jonny McAneney**

Why we should not ignore the mid-24<sup>th</sup> century BC when discussing the 2200–2000 BC climate anomaly

## **Anhang/Appendix**

**845 Autorenkollektiv/Collective contribution**

Ergebnistabelle/Table of results



# Climate and societal change in the western Mediterranean area around 4.2 ka BP

Mara Weinelt, Christian Schwab, Jutta Kneisel, and Martin Hinz

## Zusammenfassung

Klimawandel und soziale Umbrüche im westlichen Mittelmeerraum um 4.2 ka BP

*Die Übereinstimmung kohärenter Muster und die Gleichzeitigkeit gewisser Ereignisse im östlichen Mittelmeerraum weisen auf einen offensichtlichen Zusammenhang zwischen kulturellen Umbrüchen in urbanen Gesellschaften und Klimaeffekten hin. Im Folgenden wird ein Dürreereignis um 4.2 ka BP mit einer Reihe von ausbleibenden Monsunregenfällen in Zusammenhang gebracht. Auslöser für tiefgreifende wirtschaftliche Veränderungen sowie sozialen Aufruhr. Auf die zentralen und westlichen Regionen des Mittelmeerraums an der Schnittstelle zwischen nordatlantischen (3. Bond-Ereignis) und Monsun beeinflussten Klimata trifft dies jedoch nicht zu. Die potenzielle Ausbreitung einer überregionalen Dürreperiode um 4.2 ka BP in den westlichen Mittelmeerraum hinein und bis nach Südmittleuropa bedarf noch weiterer Abklärungen. Trotzdem waren präurbane, durch zunehmende Komplexität geprägte Gemeinschaften zwischen dem späten Neolithikum und der frühen Bronzezeit in einem tiefgreifenden Umbruch begriffen. Eine Vielzahl von abrupten gesellschaftlichen und kulturellen Veränderungen, die genau in die Zeit um 4.2 ka BP datieren – z. B. weitverbreitete »Krisensituationen« in mediterranen Glockenbechergesellschaften, der Übergang von der Vorpalastzeit zur Palastzeit auf den griechischen Inseln und, vielleicht besonders bemerkenswert, der Übergang zwischen der chalkolithischen Los Millares Kultur und der frühbronzezeitlichen El Argar Kultur im Südosten der Iberischen Halbinsel – sind bisher nur selten vor dem Hintergrund möglicher Reaktionen und Widerstandsstrategien im Falle eines abrupten Klimawandels und wechselnder Umweltbedingungen betrachtet worden.*

*In unserem Beitrag werden Untersuchungen bereits existierender archäologischer und klimatischer Datenbestände aus dem westlichen Mittelmeergebiet vorgestellt. Ziel ist es, mittels entsprechender Proxydaten zur Landnutzung, zur Bevölkerungsdichte und zu den Subsistenz- und Siedlungsmustern Hinweise auf eine sozialökologische Krise im Mittelmeerraum auszumachen.*

## Introduction

A particular threat from the currently projected global warming are the related socio environmental challenges. These are predicted to exacerbate existing problems – poverty, conflict, dangers to health, escalating food, age and water shortages – into crises (IPCC 2013; IPCC 2014). The archae-

## Summary

*In the eastern Mediterranean area, coherent patterns and synchronous events around 4.2 ka BP suggest an obvious link between cultural upheaval in urban societies and climate forcing. Here, the 4.2 ka BP aridification event, attributed to a series of monsoon failures, is thought to have been the cause of severe economic consequences and social unrest. The picture for the central and western Mediterranean regions, at the interface of North Atlantic (Bond event 3) and monsoon-influenced climates, is different. It remains unclear whether supra-regional drought around 4.2 ka BP extended into the western Mediterranean and southern Central Europe. Yet at the same period, pre-urban societies, already marked by emerging complexity, were in profound upheaval during their transition from Late Neolithic to Early Bronze Age ideologies. An array of abrupt societal and cultural transitions, precisely dating to 4.2 ka BP, include widespread »crises« of Mediterranean Bell Beaker populations, the transitions from Pre-palace to Palace cultures on the Greek Islands, and – perhaps particularly outstanding – the transition from the Chalkolithic Los Millares Culture to the Early Bronze Age El Argar Culture in the south-eastern Iberian Peninsula. The possibility that these transitions may have been responses/resilience strategies triggered by abrupt climate and environmental change has so far hardly been considered.*

*Here we present a survey of existing archaeological and climate archives for the western Mediterranean area, aiming to trace patterns of socio-environmental crisis in the Mediterranean using pertinent proxy records, including proxies of population density, subsistence, and settlement patterns.*

ological retrospective on past supra-regional socio-environmental crises, particularly the 4.2 ka BP event, and the approaches of contemporary societies to overcoming them, may improve our understanding of their complex patterns and help us to identify successful resilience strategies.

The 4.2 ka BP event, at the transition from the Middle to the Late Holocene, affected the climatic stability of the entire

northern hemisphere. Perhaps most severely affected was the subtropical and tropical domain, making it a prime candidate for exploring the traits and patterns of a supra-regional socio-environmental crisis (e.g. Dalfes et al. 1997; Booth et al. 2005). By the late 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC, population and land use levels in the circum-Mediterranean area had reached a first maximum of almost full coverage, as projected by global model simulations (e.g. Lemmen/Wirtz 2012). Emerging complexity, enhanced mobility, and exchange had certainly accelerated societal developments, including ideological and economic change.

Mediterranean climates and landscapes are particularly prone to desertification, their environments and economies being highly dependent on the precipitation they receive, predominantly in winter. Generally, Middle and Late Holocene climates in the Mediterranean area show a trend of gradual warming, more pronounced in South-Western than in South-Eastern Europe (Davis et al. 2003), while an opposing trend prevails in the mid-latitude Atlantic region, including the Iberian Margin. Long-term Holocene trends were punctuated by brief episodes of drought (Finné et al. 2011). Over the course of the Holocene, these episodes changed in frequency and character (Fletcher et al. 2007). Arguably, the most severe of these episodes, among them the 4.2 kaBP event, are related to North Atlantic Bond cycles (e.g. Marino et al. 2009) and thus considered to be driven and/or modulated by large-scale oceanic and atmospheric circulation changes. The 4.2 kaBP event, in particular, is considered to have its strongest effect in the subtropical realm, dominated by monsoonal climate constraints, where broad areas suffered from resulting monsoon failures. This view may be skewed by the archaeological evidence itself, since the sources for societal responses are most accessible in the most densely occupied region of the northern hemisphere of this time. In the eastern Mediterranean and Near East, the 4.2 kaBP event manifests as a brief episode of barely 300 years' duration (22<sup>nd</sup> century BC to 19<sup>th</sup> century BC; e.g. Weiss 2012), following a general, long-term shift from humid to drier conditions (Rohling/Rijk 1999). Aegean records show environmental change related to altered Mediterranean circulation. In Anatolia, drought evidence is reported from lacustrine records; nevertheless Anatolian vegetation appears to have responded only moderately to climate forcing (cf. Dörfler in the present volume). Interestingly, no evidence for a climatic event matching the 4.2 kaBP event chronology has been reported so far from the Peloponnese, despite high-resolution humidity records obtained from lagoonal environments there (I. Unckel pers. comm. 2015). A compilation of central Mediterranean climate records (Magny et al. 2013), integrating lake level, pollen, and speleothem records from Italy to North Africa, and marine records from adjacent ocean basins, reveals a broader climate episode of general instability at the Middle to Late Holocene transition, lasting for 400 years from 4300 BP to 3900 BP. A steep latitudinal gradient, situated at approximately 40° N, was found, separating sites marked by drought to the south from northern sites which coevally received enhanced precipitation. This broader interval easily encloses a potentially narrower 4.2 kaBP event, supporting the idea of a widespread climate disturbance, although with inverted sign in Central Europe.

A comparable compilation is still lacking for the western Mediterranean, which is under the immediate influence of Atlantic climate constraints. Such a compilation would reveal potential east to west Mediterranean climate gradients (EW gradients), such as those which can be observed in modern and past Mediterranean climate patterns (e.g. Kageyama et al. 2001; Martrat et al. 2004; Lionello et al. 2006). This gap needs to be filled for a better understanding of the patterns of the 4.2 kaBP event. Only then will it be possible to assess the potential roles of abrupt climate change vs. social constraints in the 4.2 kaBP upheaval of western Mediterranean societies, from the perspective of a supra-regional crisis scenario. A few high-resolution archaeological records from the Iberian Peninsula, providing a continuous record of the whole Middle Holocene, report a sharp shift towards an increased frequency of fire events from around 4.0–4.2 kaBP onward. This was accompanied by profound forest change and is tentatively attributed to the onset of drier and warmer conditions (and/or enhanced human land use activities) (Carrión et al. 2003; Pérez Obiol et al. 2011). Marine climate records from the Alboran Sea suggest drier yet cooler conditions (Cacho et al. 1999; Cacho et al. 2001). In contrast, the western Iberian Peninsula appears to have been affected by drought to a lesser degree (Pérez-Obiol et al. 2011).

From the interval spanning the last two centuries of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC, abundant archaeological evidence of major cultural change is available from the western Mediterranean area, coinciding with the Copper/Bronze Age transition. Mapping of cultural entities per chronological phase (Buchvaldek et al. 2007), as well as numerous more detailed studies of individual sites, reveals a widespread discontinuity of settlement patterns, accompanied by a widespread abandonment of entire districts and the occupation of new terrains. These studies suggest a dramatic shrinkage of territories occupied by Late Chalcolithic cultural entities in Southern Spain and Portugal, including the large sites of long-term occupation at Los Millares and Zambujal, in Andalusia and the Peninsula of Lisbon in the central Portuguese region respectively, as well as sites in the Meseta Central. Indeed, only a few sites in Southern Spain display continuous occupation across the 4.2 kaBP event, among them the site of Úbeda, province of Jaén, with its rich and well-dated record of economic and ecological change (Nocete et al. 2010). Large changes in Copper Age settlement patterns are also evident in the coastal zone of Mediterranean France, and in the Balearic Islands and Corsica. Surprisingly little is known about the Copper to Bronze Age transition in Mediterranean France, predominantly characterised by the Bell Beaker phenomenon. Here the previously rich record of a rapidly evolving material culture, in the eastern sector revealing a close relationship with Italy, appears to fade out with the declining Copper Age (Lemerrier et al. 2014). The rapid spread of Early Bronze Age cultures (El Argar, Motillas Cultures) in the south eastern Iberian Peninsula appears to be accompanied by a demographic boost (Lull et al. 2011; cf. Lull et al. in the present volume) as projected from regional land use reconstructions (Lull et al. 2011) and supported by cereal production estimates (Delgado Raack/Risch forthcoming). Recent studies

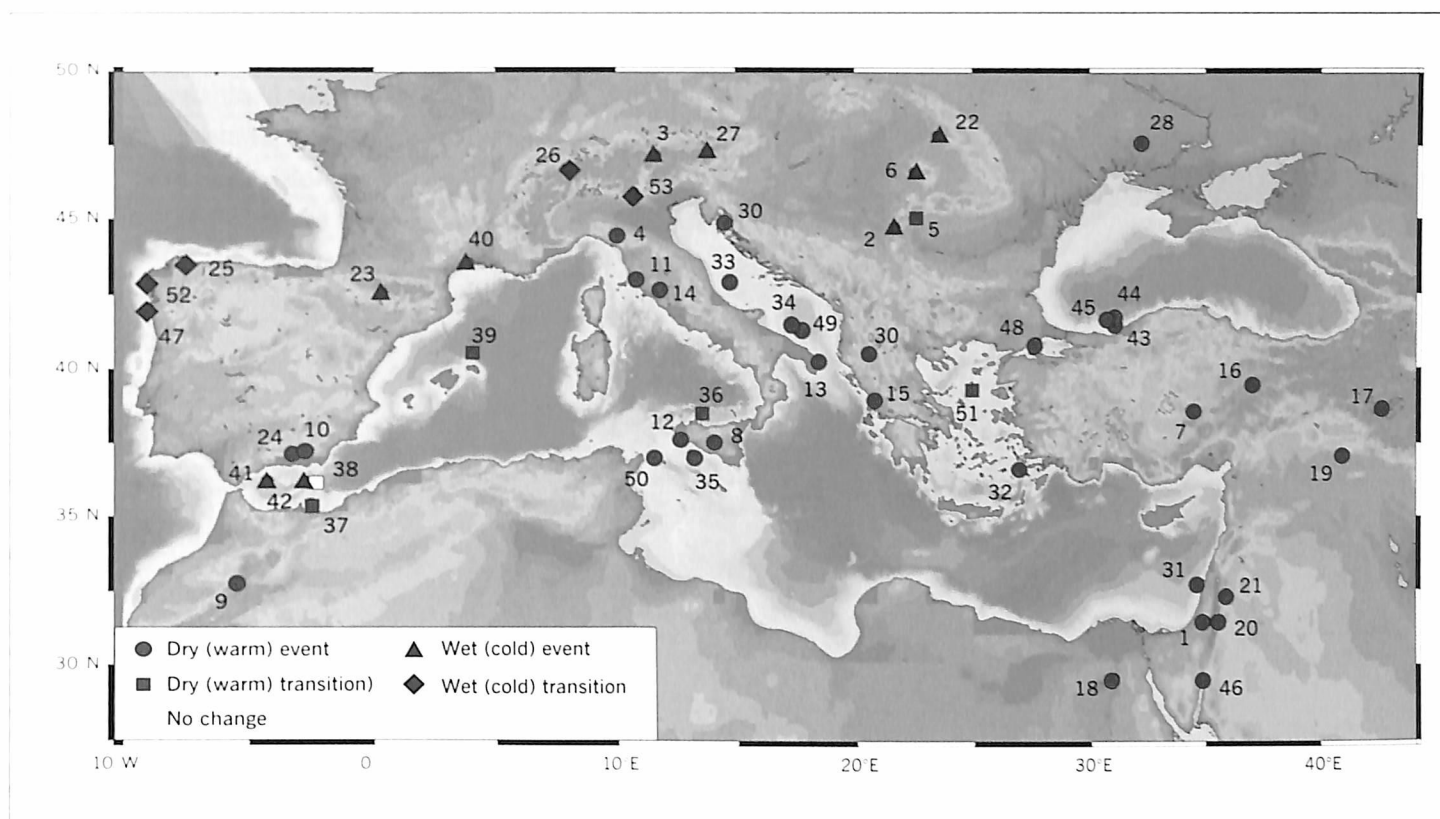


Fig. 1 Map showing finding places and climatic conditions in the circum-Mediterranean realm. Numbers correspond to those in table 1 and appendix.

Abb. 1 Karte mit Fundorten und Klimabedingungen im zirkummediterranen Raum. Die Nummerierung stimmt mit Tabelle 1 und Anhang überein.

based on improved and refined absolute chronologies, have further pin pointed a marked Copper Age/Bronze Age discontinuity in the eastern Iberian Peninsula (e.g. Balsera et al. 2015). Based on a broad inter-regional study, tracing the differential trajectories of western Mediterranean societies by means of detailed chronologies of stone architecture and ditched enclosures, the latter have found converging, diverging, and disruptive patterns, and have pointed out that the diverging patterns of south-eastern and south-western Iberia, where those of the western region are less disruptive, also need to be explored from the perspective of a climate driven environmental change.

Evidence for ecological and economic responses to increased climate-induced stress, related to the 4.2 ka BP event, still remain scarce. Substitutions of resources may indicate strategic responses to environmental constraints. However, these changes are rarely unambiguous, since they may be – and in archaeological literature mostly are – as well explained by resource shortages, resulting from overexploitation by a rapidly increasing population. At many sites, social upheaval and resource shortages appear to precede the climatic event, either slightly or considerably (if more subtle early indicators are considered). Thus climate change may be rejected as a trigger (cf. Müller in the present volume), but may still, nevertheless, have functioned as a modulator. An increasing trend of Early Bronze Age economies towards a barley monoculture, on the Iberian Peninsula and elsewhere, has been cautiously attributed to drought (Stika 2001). Archaeozoological evidence from the site of long term occupation at Ubeda suggests changes in subsistence strategies (Nocete et al. 2010); the causes, however, remain un-

clear. Interestingly, in archaeobotanical records from Mediterranean France, the Early Bronze Age is poorly represented, or not represented at all, suggesting a gap in occupation here. In general, a coincidence of unfavourably evolving societal and environmental variables may well have caused aggregation effects in socio-environmental pressure.

To highlight the patterns and roles of these variables, in this study we compare climate and population patterns in the western Mediterranean area on an inter-regional scale.

#### Mediterranean climate variability across the 4.2 ka BP event

##### Modern Mediterranean climate and reconstruction of the 4.2 ka BP event climate patterns

Today, the regions bordering the Mediterranean Sea are characterised by an arid to semi-arid climate, with some regions receiving less than 200 mm of precipitation per year (Lionello et al. 2006). The borderlands of the Mediterranean Sea, including the southern Iberian Peninsula, are therefore prone to desertification and droughts, and climate exerts a strong influence on local societies and economies (Lionello et al. 2006). In general, the Mediterranean climate exhibits a strong seasonality, with dry and hot summers and mild and rainy winters. However, the general climate pattern is complex, due to the interrelation, strength, and extent of various climate processes such as the monsoon, El Niño system, the Siberian High, and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO). Imprints of these processes can be traced

| Nr. in map | Name, Location                    | Latitude      | Longitude     | Variables   | Resolution (years) | References  |
|------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---|--------------------|---|
| 1          | Soreq, Israel                     | 31.45° N      | 35.03° E      | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$                       | 19                 | Bar-Matthews et al. 2003                                    |
| 2          | Poleva, Romania                   | 44.71444° N   | 21.74119° E   | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$                       | 60                 | Constantin et al. 2007                                      |
| 3          | Spannagel, Austria                | 47.116667° N  | 11.66667° E   | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   | 1.6                | Fohlmeister et al. 2013                                     |
| 4          | Buca della Renella, Italy         | 44.4° N       | 10° E         | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , Mg/Ca, Fluorescence | 60                 | Drysdale et al. 2006  |
| 5          | Ascunsa, Hungary                  | 45° N         | 22.6° E       | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$                       | 86                 | Dragusin et al. 2014  |
| 6          | Ursilor, Romania                  | 46.55388° N   | 22.569166° E  | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   | 150                | Onac et al. 2002  |
| 7          | Eski Acigöl, Turkey               | 38.55082° N   | 34.544722° E  | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   | 86                 | Roberts et al. 2011   |
| 8          | Pergusa, Italy                    | 37.5° N       | 14.1° E       | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , Pollen                                      | 150                | Zanchetta et al. 2007; Sadori et al. 2011                   |
| 9          | Tigalmamine, Marocco              | 32.73763° N   | 5.45272° W    | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , Pollen                                      | 120                | Cheddai et al. 1998; Roberts et al. 2008                    |
| 10         | Cañada del Gitano, Spain          | 37.2333° N    | 2.7° W        | Pollen, Micro-charcoal  | 67                 | Carrión et al. 2007   |
| 11         | Accesa, Italy                     | 42.98333° N   | 10.88333° E   | Pollen, Lithology   | 25                 | Magny et al. 2009; Peyron et al. 2011                       |
| 12         | Gorgo Basso, Italy (Sicily)       | 37.61666° N   | 12.65° E      | Pollen  | 120                | Tinner et al. 2009  |
| 13         | Lago Alimini Piccolo, Italy       | 40.18333° N   | 18.4333° E    | Pollen  | 120                | Di Rita et al. 2009   |
| 14         | Mezzano, Italy                    | 42.61666° N   | 11.9333° E    | Pollen  | 150                | Sadori et al. 2011  |
| 15         | Limni Voukaria, Greece            | 38.86666° N   | 20.83333° E   | Pollen  | 100                | Sadori et al. 2011  |
| 16         | Tecer, Turkey                     | 39.43133° N   | 37.08355° E   | Lithology   | 36                 | Kuzucuoğlu et al. 2011                                      |
| 17         | Van, Turkey                       | 38.6333° N    | 42.81666° E   | Pollen, Lithology   | 120                | Wick et al. 2003; Lemcke/Sturm 1997                         |
| 18         | Faiyum, Egypt                     | 29.6° N       | 31° E         | Lithology   | ?                  | Hassan 1986   |
| 19         | Mozan, Syria                      | 37.056944° N  | 40.997222° E  | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ plant remains                                 | 150                | Riehl et al. 2008   |
| 20         | Dead Sea, Israel/Palestine/Jordan | 31.4833° N    | 35.48333° E   | Isotopes tree, Lithology, Pollen                                    | 75                 | Frumkin et al. 2009; Migowski et al. 2006; Litt et al. 2012 |
| 21         | Jableh, Syria                     | 32.3716472° N | 35.9368333° E | Pollen  | 120                | Kaniewski et al. 2008                                       |
| 22         | Preluca Tiganului, Romania        | 47.81333° N   | 23.5472168° E | Pollen  | 120                | Feurdean et al. 2008  |
| 23         | Basa de la Mora, France           | 42.5333° N    | 0.316666° E   | Pollen, XRF   | 120                | Perez-Sanz et al. 2013                                      |
| 24         | Borreguilles de la Virgen, Spain  | 37.0541666° N | 3.3777° W     | Pollen  | 150                | Jiménez-Moreno/Anderson 2012                                |
| 25         | Penido Vello, Spain               | 43.5333° N    | 7.5666° W     | Trace metals (Hg)   | 150                | Martinez-Cortizas et al. 1999                               |
| 26         | Sägistalsee, Switzerland          | 46.679722° N  | 7.976388° E   | Chironomid  | 120                | Heiri and Lotter 2005                                       |
| 27         | Landschitzsee, Austria            | 47.256111° N  | 13.83833° E   | Pollen  | 150                | Schmidt et al. 2002   |
| 28         | Compilation Ukraine               | 47.6° N       | 32.2° E       | Pollen  | 100                | Kremenetski 1995  |
| 29         | Ohrid, Macedonia                  | 40.5° N       | 20.71666° E   | Pollen, Diatoms, TOC, etc.  | 46                 | Wagner et al. 2008  |
| 30         | Vrana, Croatia                    | 44.8° N       | 14.5° E       | Pollen  | ?                  | Schmidt et al. 2000   |
| 31         | GeoTü SL112, Levantine Basin      | 32.742° N     | 34.65033° E   | Grain size, EM, forams  | 120                | Hamann et al. 2008; Kuhnt et al. 2008                       |

| Nr. in map | Name, Location  | Latitude     | Longitude    | Variables                                    | Resolution (years) | References   |
|------------|---|--------------|--------------|--|--------------------|--|
| 32         | NS-14, Aegean Sea   | 36.648611° N | 27.00777° E  | CCC, FCC, Pollen                             | 150                | Triantaphyllou et al. 2000                                       |
| 33         | AMC99-1, Adriatic Sea                                       | 42.86333° N  | 14.761166° E | FCC  | 120                | Piva et al. 2008   |
| 34         | SA03-9, Adriatic Sea  | 41.361666° N | 17.317° E    | FCC  | 120                | Piva et al. 2008   |
| 35         | ODP 963, Strait of Sicily                                   | 37.0358° N   | 13.1781° E   | FCC, CCC                                     | 86                 | Incarbona et al. 2008  |
| 36         | BS79-38, Tyrrhenian Sea                                     | 38.412° N    | 13.577° E    | Alkenone, FCC, $\delta^{18}O$                | 100                | Cacho et al. 2001; Sbaffi et al. 2004                            |
| 37         | GeoB 13731-1, Western Mediterranean and Alboran Sea (WM/AS) | 35.4133° N   | 2.55366° W   | XRF  | 86                 | Fink et al. 2013   |
| 38         | MD95-2043, WM/AS  | 36.1433° N   | 2.62166° W   | Alkenone, FCC, Diatoms, TOC                  | 150                | Cacho et al. 2001; Perez-Folgado et al. 2003; Moreno et al. 2004 |
| 39         | MD99-2343, WM/AS  | 40.49733° N  | 4.02816° E   | $\delta^{18}O$ , XRF, Lithology, FCC, Coccos | 150                | Frigola et al. 2008  |
| 40         | PB06, WM/AS   | 43.50833° N  | 3.8733° E    | Lithology                                    | 25                 | Sabatier et al. 2012   |
| 41         | TTR17-434G, WM/AS   | 36.205216° N | 4.31225° W   | Alkenone, LDI                                | 86                 | Rodrigo-Gamiz et al. 2013  |
| 42         | TTR12-293G, WM/AS   | 36.17356° N  | 2.74566° W   | Lithology, XRF, Alkenone, LDI                | 120                | Rodrigo-Gamiz et al. 2011; Rodrigo-Gamiz et al. 2013             |
| 43         | GeoB 7625-2, Black Sea                                      | 41.445° N    | 31.0666° E   | Dino, Lithology                              | 50                 | Lamy et al. 2006; Verleye et al. 2009                            |
| 44         | GeoB 7622-2, Black Sea                                      | 41.535° N    | 31.166667° E | Lithology                                    | 50                 | Lamy et al. 2006   |
| 45         | MD04-2788, Black Sea  | 41.527833° N | 30.88333° E  | XRF  | 7                  | Kwiecien et al. 2008   |
| 46         | GeoB 5804-4, Red Sea  | 29.5017° N   | 34.9567° E   | $\delta^{18}O$ , clay                        | 24                 | Arz et al. 2003; Lamy et al. 2006                                |
| 47         | SMP02-3, Iberian Margin                                     | 42.036783° N | 9.0393833° W | C/N  | 150                | Bernardez et al. 2008  |
| 48         | Geo Tü KL 71, Marmara Sea                                   | 40.841833° N | 27.763166° E | TOC, FCC                                     | 120                | Sperling et al. 2003   |
| 49         | MD 90-917, Adriatic Sea                                     | 41.297833° N | 17.613° E    | Pollen                                       | ?                  | Magny et al. 2013  |
| 50         | MD04-2797, Strait of Sicily                                 | 36.95° N     | 11.6666° E   | Pollen                                       | ?                  | Magny et al. 2013  |
| 51         | MNB 3, Aegean Sea   | 39.25° N     | 25° E        | FCC  | 150                | Geraga et al. 2010   |
| 52         | EUGC-3B, Iberian Margin                                     | 42.75175° N  | 9.037183° W  | Biomarker                                    | <60                | Pena et al. 2010   |
| 53         | Ledro, Italy  | 45.866° N    | 10.75° E     | XRF  | <61                | Vanniére et al. 2013   |

Tab. 1 List of palaeoclimatic cores (cf. Fig. 1).

Tab. 1 Liste palaoklimatischer Kerne (vgl. Abb. 1).

in all sub basins of the Mediterranean Sea, yet they have various intensities from the east to the west. The Afro – south western Asian monsoonal rainfall regimes exert a strong influence over the eastern part of the Mediterranean

(e.g. Ziv et al. 2004), while the NAO is one of the main influencing factors for rainfall patterns and amounts in Western Europe. The Iberian Peninsula is especially sensitive to changes in NAO (e.g. Trigo et al. 2004). During a positive

NAO mode, the westerly wind belt, bringing moisture from the Atlantic Ocean, is strengthened and diverted to the north, bringing moisture to Northern Europe and dryness to the south-western Mediterranean region (e.g. Hurrell 1995). On the other hand, a negative NAO mode results in a weakened and more southerly track for the westerly winds, bringing moisture to the south-western Mediterranean Sea. Additionally, the precipitation pattern in the (western) Mediterranean region is controlled by cyclogenesis, which is related to cold katabatic winds originating from the Siberian High during winter (e.g. Rogers 1997).

To assess the impact of a potentially climate-driven 4.2 kaBP event on western Mediterranean societies, an extensive dataset of terrestrial and marine palaeoclimate records was compiled from existing literature. This dataset initially comprised more than 150 individual proxy records from 110 sites located in the Mediterranean Sea and adjacent areas. These records encompass qualitative and quantitative proxy estimations of temperature and moisture availability based on geochemical, micro- and nannopalaeontological, botanical, and sedimentological analysis. Unfortunately, most records exhibited a temporal resolution too low to allow rapid climate changes, relating to an event of an expected duration of only two to three centuries, to be properly traced, or compared with detailed archaeological records. Taking into account the expected 300 year duration of the 4.2 kaBP event (Weiss 2012), only records with a temporal resolution of at least 125 years were retained in our compilation. This left approximately 80 records from 53 sites (Fig. 1; Tab. 1; Appendix), still sufficient for a comprehensive spatial picture. The age models of the different records were adopted from the literature. Dating density may still be poor in some records and the age models of some marine records require to be revised in the light of more recent findings concerning Mediterranean marine reservoir ages (Siani 2001). Furthermore, the proxy records were interpreted without regard to their potential seasonal bias, and this needs to be assessed in future studies. Nevertheless, this compilation provides an overview of the general climatic state at 4.2 kaBP in the Mediterranean region.

Climate changes within the timeframe 4.4 kaBP to 3.8 kaBP were examined in the individual records. Since the climate event probably occurred between 4.2 kaBP and 3.9 kaBP, this allowed for full capture of the range of the event, as well as previous and subsequent levels. This time window has also been proposed by M. Magny et al. (2013) as the interval where the climate oscillation related to the 4.2 kaBP event occurs in palaeoclimate records. In addition, the wide span accounts for the general dating inaccuracy of  $\pm 100$  years normally associated with  $^{14}\text{C}$  dated palaeoclimate records, due, for example, to uncertainties in reservoir ages. So far, the compilation allows drier or more humid and warmer or colder conditions to be distinguished, according to the common interpretation of the different proxies and/or according to the interpretation of the respective authors of the records. If both precipitation and temperature estimates were available at a site, the precipitation record was used for the compilation map. The observed changes between 4.4 kaBP and 3.8 kaBP were classified into »events« (rapid changes) and »transitions« (»long term«

changes). The following criteria were used to define events: a) single excursions (minima/maxima) of the proxy records within the 4.4 kaBP to 3.8 kaBP timeframe; b) rapid transitions occurring between two data points in the investigated timeframe which are less than 125 years apart; c) gradual changes that culminate in a minimum/maximum between 4.4 kaBP and 3.8 kaBP; d) changes explicitly defined as events by the relevant authors. The following criterion was used to define transitions: a) »long-term« gradual changes that started within or before the investigated time period (4.4 kaBP to 3.8 kaBP), and b) that lasted longer than the investigated timeframe.

### The circum-Mediterranean climate around 4.2 kaBP

Warm conditions are not necessarily associated with dryness, as in the case of the Aegean, where cold and dry conditions prevailed during the 4.2 kaBP event (Kotthoff et al. 2008; Schmiedl et al. 2010). Nevertheless, a strikingly coherent picture emerges from our compilation, showing dry or warm conditions in the circum-Mediterranean region between 4.4 kaBP and 3.8 kaBP and more humid or colder conditions further north (cf. Fig. 1), similar to conditions found during a modern positive NAO mode. These results accord well with other recent regional climate compilations from the Mediterranean region for this period. Although not fully unambiguous, a warm and dry episode around 4.2 kaBP can be inferred from the eastern Mediterranean compilation by M. Finné et al. (2011). A similar picture has been drawn by Magny et al. (2013) for the central Mediterranean area. Based on their compilation, a warm and dry episode prevailed in the southern central Mediterranean region at 4.2 kaBP, while more humid conditions were found in Northern Italy.

Further evidence for a strengthening of the westerly wind belt (associated with a positive NAO) around 4.2 kaBP comes from a core from near the Azores Islands in the mid-ocean subtropical North Atlantic (Fig. 2a; Repschläger et al. 2015). There, the 4.2 kaBP event is marked by a sharp transition, within 130 years (from 4.21 kaBP to 4.08 kaBP), characterised by a 13 % drop in the abundance of the subtropical foraminiferal species *Globigerinoides ruber*, an indicator for subtropical gyre water. According to the authors, its retreat from the site hints at a southward displacement of the Azores front and a contracted subtropical North Atlantic Gyre. As the latitudinal position of the front is controlled by the strength of the westerly wind (Volkov/Fu 2010), the observed change indicates an abrupt shift towards stronger westerlies.

Although profound and rapid climatic changes at 4.2 kaBP are found globally (Booth et al. 2005), the climate dynamics and hence their regional manifestations are complex, due to the interplay of high and low latitude and long and short term processes. On millennial timescales, the 4.2 kaBP event correlates with the well known millennial scale Bond cycles (Bond Event 3; Bond et al. 2001), which are related to fresh water anomalies in the North Atlantic that alter the oceanic and atmospheric circulation patterns. On longer timescales the 4.2 kaBP event occurs during the transition from the

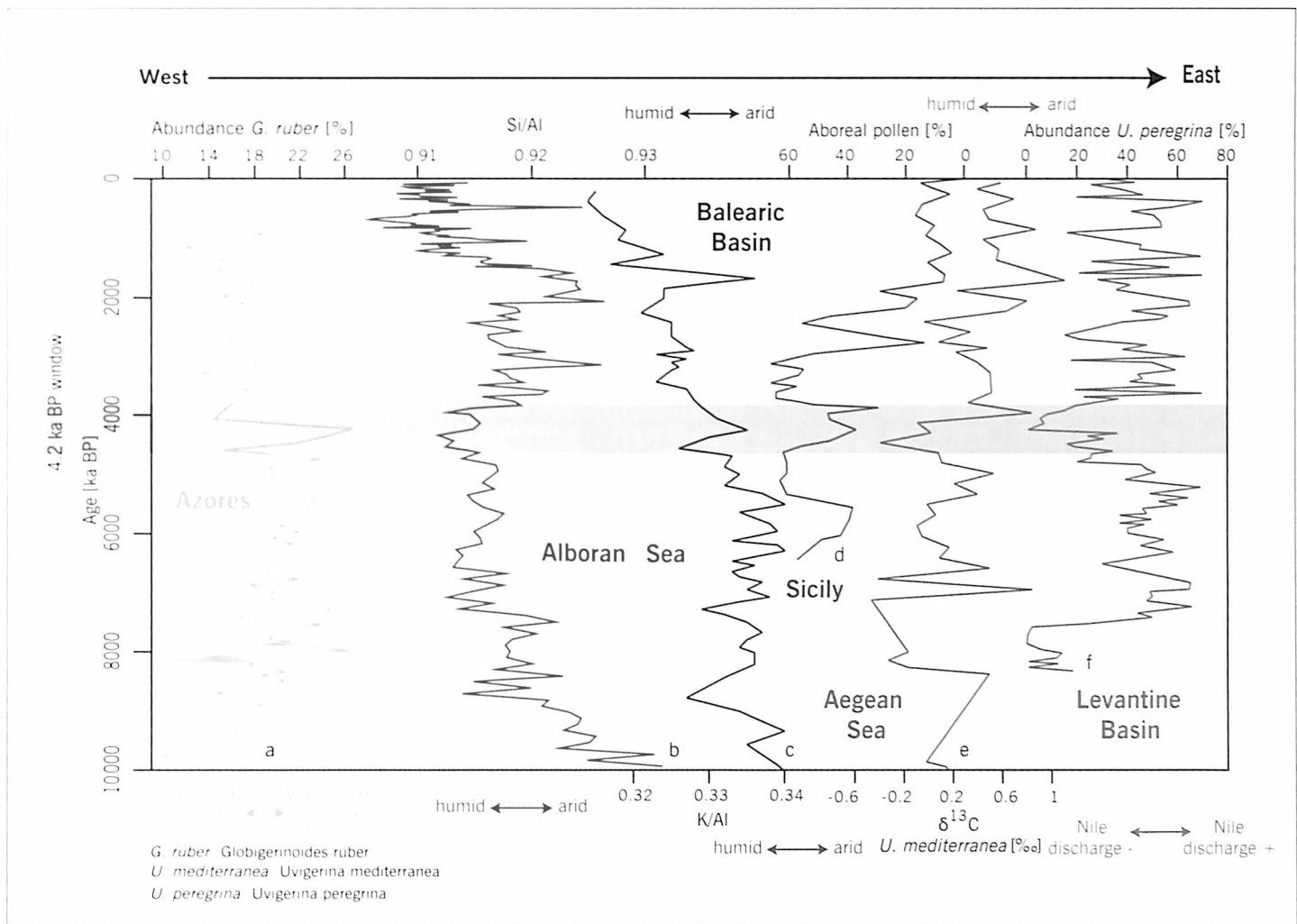


Fig. 2a–f West east transect across the Mediterranean Sea, showing selected palaeoclimatic records. a Abundance of foraminiferal species *Globigerinoides ruber*; b X-ray fluorescence (XRF) based reconstruction of river runoff from southern Iberia; c X-ray fluorescence (XRF) record from a sediment core from the Balearic Basin; d pollen record from Lake Gorgo Basso in Sicily; e carbon isotope record from benthic foraminifera from a sediment core from the Aegean Sea; f abundance of *Uvigerina peregrina* from the Levantine Basin. Blue vertical bar indicates the time window 4.4 ka BP to 3.8 ka BP.

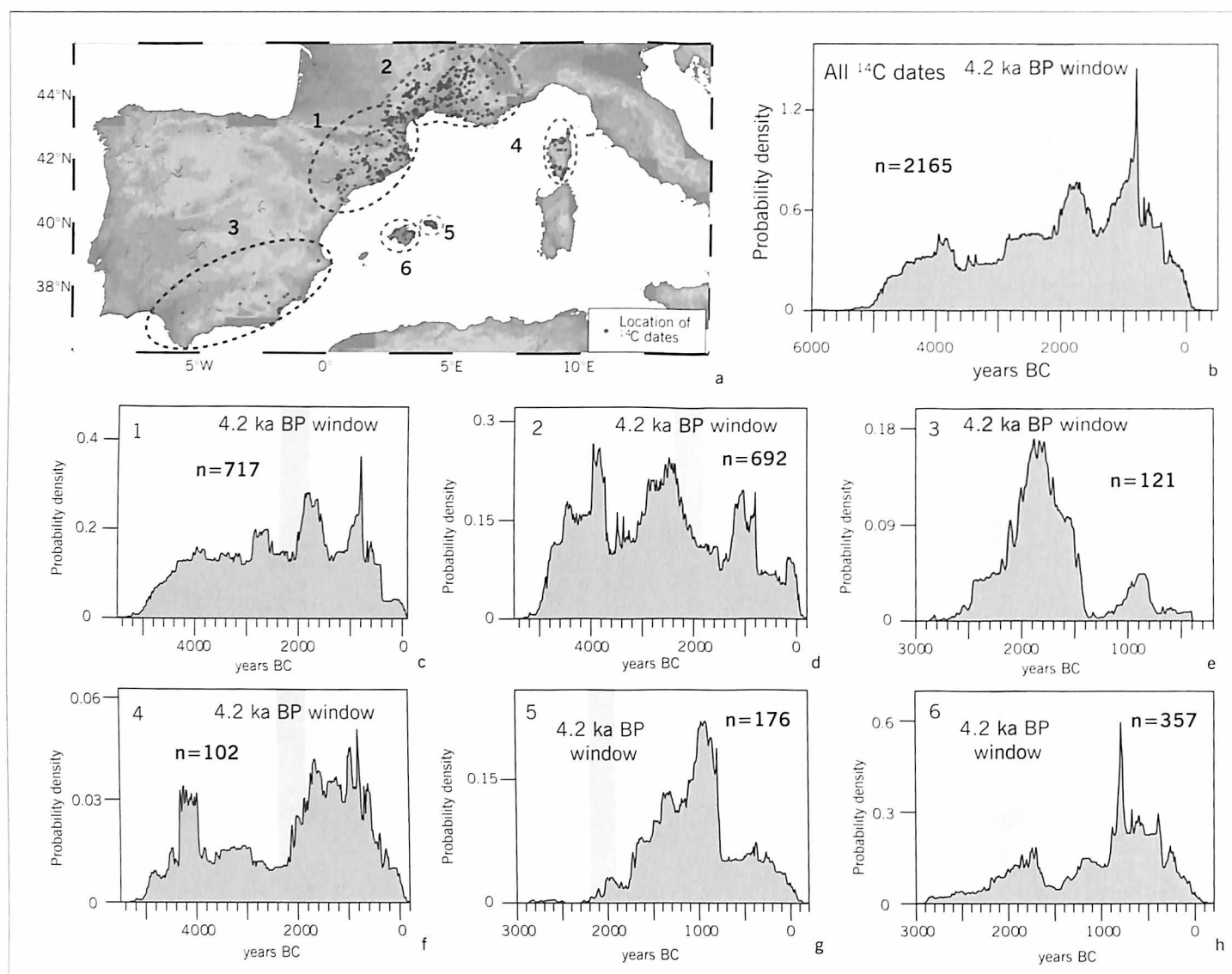
Abb. 2a–f West Ost Transekt durch das Mittelmeer mit ausgewählten paläoklimatischen Daten. a Reichliches Vorkommen der Foraminiferenart *Globigerinoides ruber*; b Röntgenfluoreszenz Rekonstruktion der Wasserabflussmengen in Südsiberien; c Röntgenfluoreszenz-Daten eines Sedimentkerns aus dem Balearien Becken; d Pollendaten aus dem Gorgo Basso See in Sizilien; e Kohlenstoffisotopendaten von benthischen Foraminiferen aus einem Sedimentkern aus der Agais; f Vorkommen von *Uvigerina peregrina* im Levantischen Becken. Der horizontale blaue Bereich markiert das Zeitfenster zwischen 4,4 ka BP und 3,8 ka BP.

Middle to the Late Holocene, as characterised by a general, global climate reorganisation due to insolation changes (e.g. Steig 1999). In the Mediterranean realm, this transition is characterised by the gradual change from a humid Middle Holocene Climate Optimum to a dryer Late Holocene (e.g. Rohling/Rijk 1999).

During the time window of interest (cf. Fig. 1; 2a), climate changes of a transitional yet often abrupt and very rapid character are especially observed in the western Mediterranean and adjacent regions. In general, this shift is characterised by a permanent transition towards a drier climate, as observed, for example, in an abrupt increase of natural fire activity in southern Iberia (Carrión et al. 2007), or in a decreased river runoff from southern Iberia (Fig. 2b). The apparently contradictory temperature pattern in the western Mediterranean Alboran Sea during the 4.2 ka BP event, where studies show either no significant change or a climate cooling (cf. Fig. 1), may be explained by the seasonal bias of the proxies. Here the alkenone-based temperature reconstruction (cf. Fig. 1, site 38) may report annual aver-

age or warm season temperatures, whereas the laser desorption ionisation (LDI)-based reconstructions may show cold season temperatures (Fig. 1, sites 41 and 42; Rodrigo-Gamiz et al. 2013). Furthermore, an increased winter storm activity has been reconstructed in the western Mediterranean, based on storm layer frequencies in a lagoonal sediment core (Fig. 1, site 40; Sabatier et al. 2012). As well as reduced rainfall, therefore, cold winters and, increased storm activity during the cold season may increased the difficulties faced by local societies around 4.2 ka BP in the western Mediterranean.

In contrast to the western Mediterranean pattern, the 4.2 ka BP event in the central Mediterranean region (Italy, Sicily, Adriatic Sea) manifests as a pronounced single excursion in the palaeoclimatic reconstructions (see e.g. Fig. 2d). A pronounced dry spell from 4.1 ka BP to 3.8 ka BP in North-Western Italy has been reconstructed from a calcite flowstone, based on stable isotope, trace element, and fluorescence data (Fig. 1, site 4; Drysdale et al. 2006). Similarly, reduced winter precipitation between 4.2 ka BP and 3.8 ka BP



**Fig. 3a–h** Compiled archaeological  $^{14}\text{C}$  data. **a** Map showing spatial distribution of all compiled  $^{14}\text{C}$  data. Note that some locations contain more than one  $^{14}\text{C}$  age. Different regions where individual sum-calibrations were performed are indicated and numbered. **b** Sum-calibration of all  $^{14}\text{C}$  data (number = 2165); **c** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from South-Eastern Spain and South-Western France (region number 1 on map; number = 717); **d** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from South-Eastern France (region number 2 on map; number = 692); **e** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from Southern Spain (region number 3 on map; number = 121); **f** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from Corsica (region number 4 on map; number = 102); **g** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from Minorca (region number 5 on map; number = 176); **h** sum-calibration of  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from Majorca (region number 6 on map; number = 357). Blue vertical bar indicates the time window 4.4 ka BP to 3.8 ka BP, the same time window, which was investigated in the palaeoclimatic records.

**Abb. 3a–h** Zusammenstellung archäologischer  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten. **a** Karte mit der Verbreitung aller  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten. Man beachte, dass von einigen Orten mehrere  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten vorliegen. In verschiedenen Regionen wurden einzelne Summenkalibrationen durchgeführt; diese sind eingekreist und nummeriert. **b** Summenkalibration aller  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten (Anzahl = 2165); **c** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten aus Südostspanien und Südwestfrankreich (Region 1 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 717); **d** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten aus Südostfrankreich (Region 2 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 692); **e** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten aus Südspanien (Region 3 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 121); **f** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten von Korsika (Region 4 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 102); **g** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten von Minorca (Region 5 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 176); **h** Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten von Mallorca (Region 6 auf der Karte; Anzahl = 357). Der senkrechte blaue Bereich grenzt das Zeitfenster zwischen 4,4 ka BP und 3,8 ka BP ein. Dasselbe Zeitfenster wurde mithilfe der paläoklimatischen Daten untersucht.

has been inferred from pollen counts from Lake Accessa in Central Italy (Fig. 1, site 11; Peyron et al. 2011). Although the low winter precipitation is accompanied by an increase in summer precipitation (Peyron et al. 2011), the 4.2 ka BP event at Lake Accessa has been identified as a non-season-specific short-term lake level lowstand (see Magny et al. 2009). Therefore the net precipitation change seems to be negative. Furthermore, for the dry farming communities of the Mediterranean realm, changes in winter conditions (the season with the most precipitation) are potentially the most influential. Pronounced dryness along with strengthened southerly (African) winds between 4.4 ka BP and

3.8 ka BP have been reconstructed for Sicily, based on generally low arboreal pollen concentrations and the occurrence of North African pollen, respectively (Fig. 1, site 12; Tinner et al. 2009). Contrasting patterns of increased moisture availability, marking the alpine region in Northern Italy, have been reconstructed from various records (cf. Fig. 2), coinciding with increased pile construction activity on the part of resident lake-dwelling communities.

Evidence for dryness in the Aegean region (cf. Fig. 1) is based on low  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of benthic foraminifers from the Aegean Sea between 4.4 ka BP and 4.0 ka BP, indicating a decreased runoff from the bordering landmasses in re-



sponse to decreased precipitation (Fig. 2e; Kuhnt et al. 2007), and on the sharp decrease of deciduous tree pollen in the borderlands of the Aegean Sea (Kotthoff et al. 2008). In the Black Sea region, too (cf. Fig. 1), a reduced frequency of clay layers between 4.25 kaBP and 3.90 kaBP in Black Sea sediment core GeoB7622 2 (Fig. 1, site 44) indicates a reduced river runoff and hence reduced precipitation, at least in the southern borderlands of the Black Sea (Lamy et al. 2006).

Conventionally, the 4.2 kaBP event hypothesis has been proposed as an explanation for the potential collapse of Near Eastern and eastern Mediterranean societies (e.g. Weiss et al. 1993). Ever since, a growing body of evidence for extended drought in the region has emerged and an increasingly sharp and detailed picture of its magnitude and timing has been revealed by an array of independent proxy reconstructions. Our compilation once more underlines that the region became unambiguously drier at 4.2 kaBP (cf. Fig. 1). Underlying evidence includes quantitative estimates of precipitation change that show that the level of the Dead Sea dropped between 4.3 kaBP and 3.9 kaBP (Migowski et al. 2006) in response to a 50% reduction in rainfall (from 100 mm to 50 mm per year; Frumkin 2009). Reduced precipitation, related to a decline in monsoon activity, is also supported by reduced abundances of the benthic foraminifer *Uvigerina peregrina* between 4.2 kaBP and 3.8 kaBP in the Levantine Basin, indicating reduced Nile runoff (Fig. 2f; Schmiedl et al. 2010). Also, evidence for dry winds blowing from North Africa is found in the eastern basin (e.g. Box et al. 2008).

In summary, based on the compilation of circum-Mediterranean climate records, it can be inferred that the thoroughly investigated dry conditions at 4.2 kaBP found in the eastern Mediterranean<sup>1</sup>, which are related to the collapse of eastern Mediterranean and Near Eastern societies (e.g. Bell 1971; Weiss et al. 1993; Weiss 2012), extend well into the western basin. However, although all the investigated climate records from the western Mediterranean and adjacent regions show considerable climate fluctuations that can be related to the 4.2 kaBP event, the low dating densities, dating inaccuracies, and/or uncertainties in the reservoir ages of the respective age models still hamper a conclusion concerning the exact timing and duration of the observed climate changes in this area.

Episodes of drought subsumed under the label »4.2 kaBP event« seem to have prevailed in the entire Mediterranean region, and could potentially have impacted on the economic stability of local societies owing to their inevitable influence on dryland farming (e.g. Lionello et al. 2006). The similar context of the so-called 8.2 kaBP event produced a well known drought in the eastern Mediterranean (Weninger et al. 2006). The climatic pattern observed in the (western) Mediterranean region, with humid conditions to the

north and dry conditions to the south resembles, in various aspects, conditions found today during a positive NAO mode (strengthened westerly wind belt), as already noted by Magny et al. (2013) for the central Mediterranean area. Yet in our compilation, the boundary between dry and humid conditions is located at 45° N in the central Mediterranean rather than at the 40° N boundary proposed by Magny et al. (2013). In contrast to a well-defined 4.2 kaBP climatic »event« in the eastern and central Mediterranean, we observe a (rapid) climatic »transition« towards generally drier conditions in the western basin.

Severe winters with an increase in storm activity in the western Mediterranean around 4.2 kaBP may have posed an additional challenge to local societies. So far, scenarios of severe cooling in the western Mediterranean have been reconstructed and modelled for the Last Glacial Maximum and the millennial-scale Heinrich Events (e.g. Kageyama et al. 2001; Martrat et al. 2004; MARGO 2009). The question as to whether a similar bipartite pattern (warmer eastern and colder western Mediterranean) also prevailed during millennial-scale Holocene events (Bond events; Bond et al. 2001) and, in particular, the Bond event 3 that is linked to the 4.2 kaBP event cannot be solved here, but this should be considered as a potential scenario. Further research is needed to constrain the exact timing, duration, and magnitude of the 4.2 kaBP event in the western Mediterranean, and, in particular, to deduce seasonal changes that may have impacted on local ancient societies.

## Population dynamics

### Approach

Sum-calibrated <sup>14</sup>C ages of archaeological contexts have recently become a powerful proxy, which is increasingly employed to deduce changes in population density and/or human activities in a broader sense. So far, this approach has been applied to an array of European Neolithic to Bronze and Iron Age settings<sup>2</sup>. Arguably, a variety of shortcomings is inherent to this approach, including its failure to allow for the frequent ambiguity of the archaeological contexts of dated materials, for possible differences between natural vs. man-made signal carriers, for the uneven distribution of sampling in space and time, for possible differences between grave contexts vs. settlement and household contexts and for the nonlinearity of chronologies; its sensitivity to differential preservation and selective loss of materials; and, perhaps most important, its dependence on regional and temporal research intensity. A desirable random distribution is *per se* unachievable and, accordingly, the underlying data base is inevitably biased. These uncertain-

1 Cullen et al. 2000; Stanley et al. 2003;

Alz et al. 2006; Schmiedl et al. 2010.

2 Shennan et al. 2013; Armit et al. 2014; Capuzzo et al. 2014; Balsera et al. 2015.

This is not the place to discuss the method in full detail, however, there is a whole corpus of literature on the subject, see Armit et al. 2014; Buchanan et al. 2008; Collard et al.

2010; Gamble et al. 2005; Gkiasta et al. 2003;

Hinz et al. 2012; Hoffmann et al. 2008; Johnstone et al. 2006; Kelly et al. 2013; Mulrooney 2013; Rick 1987; Riede 2009; Rieth et al.

2011; Shennan/Edinburgh 2007; Shennan 2009; Shennan 2012; Tallavaara et al. 2010; Timpson et al. 2014; Whitehouse et al. 2014 in favour of the method, while Ballenger/

Mabry 2011; Bamforth/Grund. 2012; Bayliss

et al. 2007; Bleicher 2013; Chiverrell et al.

2011; Contreras/Meadows 2014; Crombé/Robinson 2014; Culleton 2008; Prates et al.

2013; Steele 2010; Williams 2012 take a critical approach.

ties require careful examination and filtering of the data sets, including pooling the data per site (i.e. each site will contribute then with the weight of 1 to the final sum calibration, irrespective of the number of  $^{14}\text{C}$  samples taken) as well as crosschecking with independent quantitative population data. The main advantage of the approach clearly lies in the ever-increasing availability and quality of archaeological  $^{14}\text{C}$  data and the statistical robustness of large data sets, the resulting absolute chronologies and the continuous nature of the records, where each single sample represents a two-dimensional record of a variable and time. Moreover the inherent independence of this proxy from regional archaeological settings allows the comparison of regional patterns for different cultural entities over wide distances, as well as the synchronisation of these patterns with patterns of environmental change. It is thus particularly well suited for exploring transitions in archaeology and past socio-environmental developments on a regional to supra-regional scale. For the south-eastern Iberian Peninsula, here represented by a relatively small data set (namely a subset limited to geo-referenced and published data), it certainly holds true that a strong focus on El Argar Culture has regionally biased the  $^{14}\text{C}$  data base. In France, too, a strong research focus on the Neolithic period, including the Late Neolithic Bell Beaker phenomenon, may relatively underestimate the regional Early Bronze Age developments in Mediterranean France. Yet considering the multi-centennial scale of this study, such a bias must be of secondary significance and may even be advantageous, since at this scale even a highly restrictive research focus on a selected cultural unit will inevitably also reveal the lower and upper limits of its occupation, thus sharply depicting transitions to preceding and subsequent developments.

So far the RADON and RADON B data bases (Hinz et al. 2012; Kneisel et al. 2013) contain a total of >17000  $^{14}\text{C}$  records. Spatially they cover Europe, and temporally they cover the Neolithic to Iron Age, but the spatio-temporal distribution of data is highly uneven, although steadily improving. For this reason, although only data displaying geo-references, and from safe archaeological contexts were included, the data set used in this study should be considered as a first approximation, since time-consuming filtering processes and definition of criteria are still under way.

A total of 2165  $^{14}\text{C}$  records, from the south-eastern and north-eastern Iberian Peninsula, Mediterranean France, the Balearic Islands and Corsica, met our criteria for use. The data set benefits in particular from data from existing data bases, including the Catalan data  $^{14}\text{C}$  Catalunya Data Base<sup>3</sup> and the French data base, EUBAR.

## Results

Sum calibrated  $^{14}\text{C}$  data, based on a total of 2165  $^{14}\text{C}$  data records covering the south east and north east of the Iberian Peninsula, Mediterranean France, the Balearic Islands of Majorca and Menorca, and the Island of Corsica, display

distinct patterns which may be tentatively interpreted in terms of changes in population density. On a regional scale, the single sequences show marked similarities as well as distinct differences. For the Late Copper Age, overall data (Fig. 3b) reveal a plateau of about 500 years' duration (4.8–4.3 kaBP), ending with a relative but subtle minimum around 4.2 kaBP, which marks the transition from the Copper to the Bronze Age and coincides with the climate event *sensu strictu*. Subsequently, in the second half of the broader interval where the climate transition is most likely to have occurred, a sharp increase is observed, suggesting a population boost which almost doubled the previous level of within less than 300 years. This peak is followed in turn by a rapid decline. Not surprisingly, a similar pattern is observed for north-eastern Iberia (Fig. 3c), which is represented by the largest random sample in the overall set (717 data, accounting for approx. one third of the total assemblage). A noteworthy difference in the north-eastern Iberian group (here also including the borderland of the French Pyrenees), as compared to the total assemblage, is, however, the Chalcolithic sequence, where a first population/activity maximum evolves between 4.8 kaBP and 4.4 kaBP. Subsequently values sharply decline and reach a minimum at 4.2 kaBP, prior to the general Early Bronze Age rise. This early peak is not observed in the other Iberian records, but is a dominant feature in the record of Mediterranean France (Fig. 3d). In south-eastern Iberia (Fig. 3e), after an initial rise, values remain stable and then rapidly almost triple immediately after 4.2 kaBP. A contemporary boost is also recorded on the Island of Corsica (Fig. 3f) and, though on very modest scale, on the Islands of Menorca and Majorca (Fig. 3g–h). In contrast, the record from Mediterranean France (Fig. 3d) reveals a very different and partially inverse course, with an earlier two-step boost occurring during the Chalcolithic, culminating as early as at 4.3 kaBP, and from then on steadily declining to reach its minimum by 3.8 kaBP.

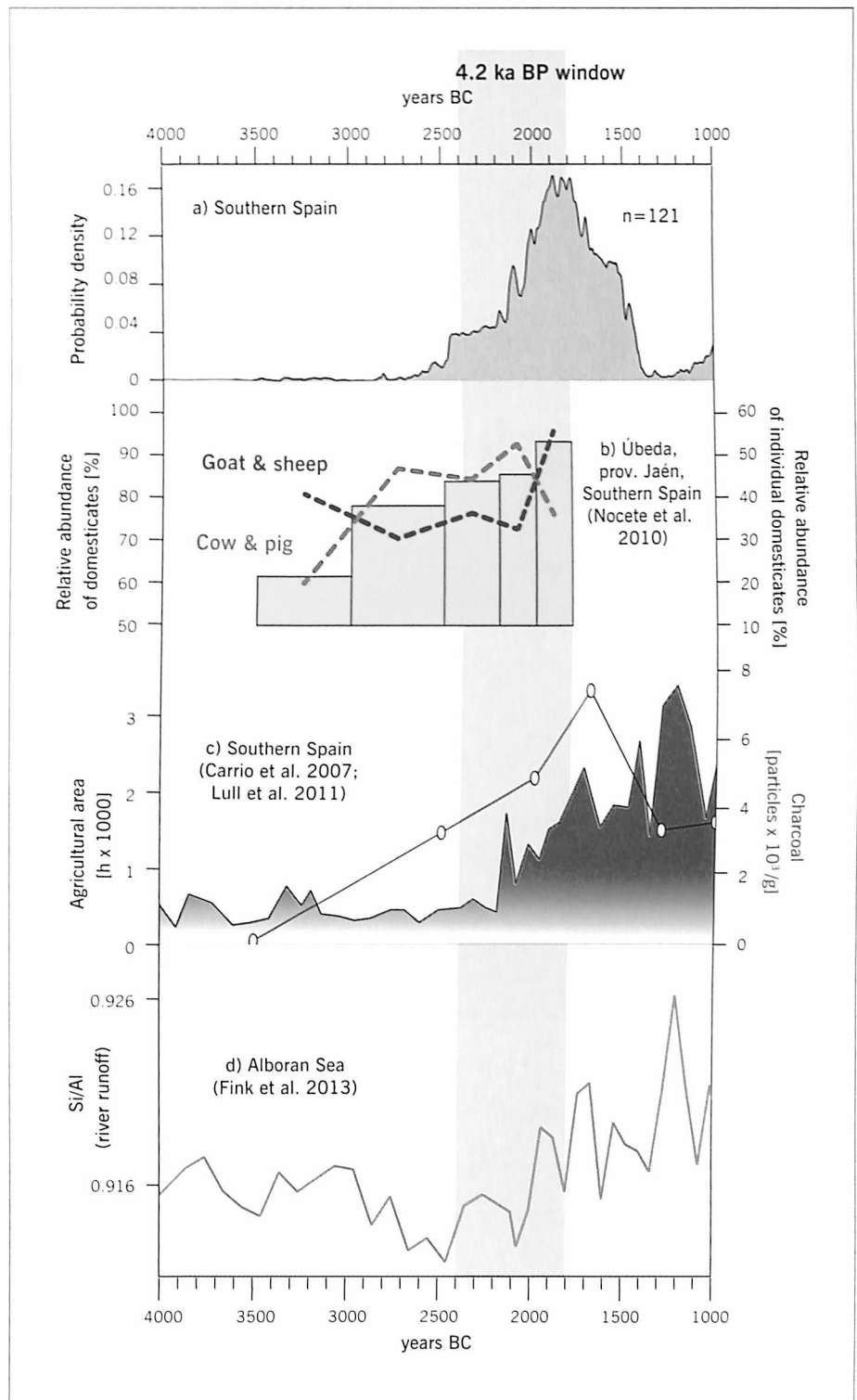
## Discussion

An Early Bronze Age population boost is thus jointly reported in all the regions considered, except for Mediterranean France, making it a very robust supra-regional feature. However, its magnitude varies greatly from region to region and evolves from different starting positions. Arguably, the patterns outlined above must be considered as preliminary, representing a working hypothesis while a proper filtering of the underlying database is pending, and should therefore be interpreted with caution. Yet the validity of a regional Early Bronze Age population boost is further supported by recent studies using the same proxy and based on a partially overlapping  $^{14}\text{C}$  data base, as well as by independent evidence. Independent estimates of arable land and production evolution in south-eastern Iberia closely match the  $^{14}\text{C}$  pattern (Fig. 4), supporting interpretations in terms of a boost in population. Accepted at face value, and within the

<sup>3</sup> See [www.telearchaeology.org](http://www.telearchaeology.org)

Fig. 4a–d Synthesis of socio-cultural and environmental (climatic) changes in southern Iberia. a Sum-calibrated  $^{14}\text{C}$  data from Southern Spain (this study, see Fig. 3); b subsistence changes record from Southern Spain (Úbeda, prov. Jaén) based on zooarchaeological remains; c modelled changes in the area used for agrarian activity in Southern Spain, and record of (natural) fire activity in the same region; d X-ray fluorescent (XRF) record from the Alboran Sea indicating river runoff from southern Iberia and hence precipitation.

Abb. 4a–d Synthese der soziokulturellen und ökologischen (klimatischen) Veränderungen in Südb Spanien. a Summenkalibration der  $^{14}\text{C}$  Daten aus Südb Spanien (vorliegende Untersuchung, s. Abb. 3). b Veränderungen in der Subsistenzgrundlage in Südb Spanien (Úbeda, Prov. Jaén) auf der Basis von archäozoologischen Überresten. c modellierte Veränderungen in den landwirtschaftlich genutzten Gebieten in Südb Spanien sowie Daten zu den (natürlichen) Brandereignissen in derselben Region. d Röntgenfluoreszenz Daten vom Alboran Meer, die auf Wasserabfluss und entsprechende Niederschlagsmengen in Südb Spanien hinweisen.



dating accuracy of the climatic transition, they show that the south-eastern population, after a brief halt or decline, rose during a phase of obvious climate deterioration, characterised by dryness and probably more severe winter conditions (see above), demonstrating the efficiency of these societies in handling environmental change. The Late Copper Age sequences, in contrast, show highly diverse patterns, with individual regions peaking at different times. In North-Eastern Spain, an early boost may have been disrupted, at the onset of the drier climate conditions, for a 300 year period. It is thus very possible that the onset of a new climate regime, resulting in distinct environmental conditions, may initially have decelerated or delayed developments already under way.

V. Balsera et al. (2015) have pointed out a similar phenomenon, where regional differences in the progress of developments already initiated may be explained by differential environmental developments (i. e. the development of stone architecture settlements and ditched enclosures, which was disrupted in the south-east and here displaying a short-lived peak of c. 400 years throughout the middle of the 3<sup>rd</sup> millennium BC, but not in and south-west Iberia).

A collapse of the Late Copper Age population at 4.2 ka BP, which would be expected in a climate-deterministic view, is only weakly expressed in the overall data, if at all. This observation is again shared by Balsera et al. (2015), who invoke a more regional sequential »collapse« of Copper Age societies than hitherto assumed. We cannot decide whether

the opposing trend in the Mediterranean French record, which shows steadily declining values after a Late Copper Age peak and lacks the Early Bronze Age peak, is due to a bias caused by lack of research interest, or in fact reflects a true population minimum during the Early Bronze Age and broad depopulation of the coastal zone. The latter interpretation is at least supported by the poor Early Bronze Age representation in the archaeobotanical subsistence record (Stika 2001; Kneisel et al. forthcoming). Here environmental conditions may have reached a threshold, but evidence to support such a scenario is so far also lacking in the regional climate and environmental records.

In the end it is not the climate itself that leads to the collapse or prosperity of a society; it is the breadth and efficiency of the strategies that society applies for coping with environmental change. Assuming that the proxy data for population development give us a tool to estimate the changes that those societies were subject to, then the next step is to compare the strategies deducible from the archaeological record to arrive at an explanation for the different trajectories.

## Conclusions

Comparing climate and population patterns allows some tentative conclusions to be drawn, relating socio-environmental change with the 4.2 kaBP event in the western Mediterranean area:

The climate compilation yields a coherent pattern of drought, extending into the western Mediterranean and reaching as far north as 45° N. The interval of rapid change

can be narrowed down to the period between 2200 BC and 2000 BC. The dating accuracy of western Mediterranean climate records is insufficient to allow for the reconstruction of a detailed sequence of events on a generational scale, which would require decadal time resolution.

Late Copper Age population growth was relatively slow, displaying a complex pattern at regional level. A discrete minimum marks the 4.2 ka BP event.

An Early Bronze Age population boost in the eastern Iberian Peninsula within dating accuracy of both population and climate records (starting from 2200 BC) coincided with, or was closely followed by, the rapid onset of a new climate regime, with generally drier conditions and probably cold winters and increased winter storm activity.

Inverse population patterns in Mediterranean France, displaying a population maximum in the Late Copper Age and gradually dwindling population data thereafter, are a so far unexplained.

The <sup>14</sup>C based patterns accord well with independent evidence of population evolution, including land use estimates and resource reconstructions, and lend further encouraging support to the <sup>14</sup>C proxy as a basis on which to reconstruct population density.

This article summarises the current state of an ongoing project. Although the dataset presented here may be regarded as preliminary, a seemingly robust pattern of archaeological and climatological patterns emerges from it. However, further work is needed, including expansion of the datasets, improvement of the chronologies, and statistical treatments (e.g. Monte Carlo Random Simulation), to validate the observed changes, especially in the western Mediterranean region.

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## Source of figures

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| 1 | authors  | 4      | authors; a data from RADON and RADON B databases; b Nocete et al. 2010; c Lull et al. 2011; Carrion et al. 2007; d Fink et al. 2013 | Appendix 1 | authors |
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| 3 | authors, data from the RADON and RADON B databases   | Tab. 1 | authors   |            |         |

## Addresses

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**Appendix 1 (next page)** Selected palaeoclimatic records from the individual sites shown in figure 1. The numbers of the records correspond to the numbers in figure 1 and table 1. Interpreted changes are shown as arrows. Vertical arrows correspond to an event (the duration of the event is indicated as a horizontal bar). Oblique arrows correspond to a transition. Interpretation of proxies in terms of precipitation and temperature is given. P+ / P- correspond to increase / decrease of precipitation respectively. T+ / T- correspond to increase / decrease in temperature respectively. Although a cold event is shown in record 32, the observed changes are within the error of the estimation and therefore no significant change is indicated in figure 1.

**Anhang 1 (nächste Seite)** Ausgewählte paläoklimatische Daten der in Abbildung 1 kartierten Fundstellen. Die Nummerierung entspricht jener in Abbildung 1 und Tabelle 1. Interpretierte Veränderungen sind durch Pfeile gekennzeichnet. Senkrechte Pfeile entsprechen einem Ereignis (die Dauer des Ereignisses ist mittels eines horizontalen Streifens angezeigt). Schräge Pfeile weisen auf einen Übergang hin. Die Interpretation der Proxydaten bezieht sich auf Niederschlagsmenge und Temperatur. P+ / P- bezeichnen eine Zu- oder Abnahme der Niederschlagsmenge. T+ / T- beziehen sich auf eine Zu- oder Abnahme der Temperatur. Während sich im Datensatz 32 ein Kaltereignis abzeichnet, bewegen sich die beobachteten Veränderungen im Bereich der normalen Abweichung, sodass in Abbildung 1 keine wesentliche Veränderung festgestellt werden kann.

# Appendix

