

1 Climate driven history of Holocene erosion in Eastern Europe- the example of a catchment at a giant  
2 Chalcolithic settlement at Maidanetske, central Ukraine

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33 **Abstract**

34 The younger Quaternary erosion history was reconstructed in a catchment close to the Chalcolithic  
35 giant settlement Maidanetske, central Ukraine based on dated sediment sequences. Four trenches and  
36 a long percussion drill-core were analyzed in a valley grading from a Loess covered plateau towards  
37 the Talianky River. The sediments were dated via a combination of radiocarbon dating, optical  
38 stimulated luminescence (OSL) and embedded artefacts. A suspicious non-coincidence between  
39 phases of soil erosion and the settlement history at the site over long periods of the Holocene is  
40 noticeable and suggests a climatically driven erosion at the site. The detected phases of erosion during  
41 the past >20,000 years coincide with global (cal 27.6 +/- 1.3 kyrs BP, 12.0 +/- 0.4 kyrs BP), northern  
42 hemispheric (cal 8.5 ± 0.3 kyrs BP), Mediterranean (cal 3.93 ± 0.1 kyrs BP) as well as western to central  
43 European (2,700 to 2,000 cal BP) climate anomalies. For these anomalies, characterized by colder than  
44 usual conditions in western and central Europe and dry conditions in the eastern Mediterranean and  
45 the research area, a common trigger process seems possible. Increased occurrences of heavy  
46 precipitation events, probably during phases of a weakened vegetation cover, could explain the  
47 observed record.

48 A comparison of the Ukrainian record with other European erosion records raises the question again  
49 about the contribution of climate variability on Holocene erosion processes. Whereas climatic  
50 influence might be easier detectable in Eastern Europe, with a comparatively late onset of intensive  
51 agricultural land use, in southern, central and western Europe the impact of climate variability might  
52 be masked to a part according to the long history of intensive agricultural land use.

53 The composition of the sediments implies changes of the slope-channel connectivity during the  
54 deposition history. Whereas the periglacial to early Holocene sediments were derived from the whole  
55 catchment area, since the mid-Holocene a tendency to lower slope storage of colluvial material and  
56 valley incision is noticeable.

57 **Keywords:** Holocene Erosion, climate and land-use, Ukraine, connectivity

58 1. Introduction

59 Based on numerous geomorphological investigations in southern and central Europe soil erosion has  
60 been identified as one of the major and most serious impacts of humanity on the environment (e.g.  
61 van Andel et al., 1990, Bork and Lang 2003, Butzer, 2005, Dotterweich, 2008, Thornes, 2009, Dreibrodt  
62 et al., 2010a). Within the research region, few data about the younger Quaternary and Holocene  
63 geomorphological processes at the slope scale are available. Without giving information about the land  
64 use history of the catchment area Belyaev et al. (2004) report phases of gully activity in small  
65 catchments in western Russia at ca. cal BP 1090-970 and 880-570. Similarly, without information about  
66 Holocene land use history, Belyaev et al. (2005) report gully activity at two additional sites in western  
67 Russia at ca. cal BP 8,950-8,480, 4,100-3,400, 3,140-2,870, 2,310-2,170, 1,590-1,031, and 640-490.  
68 Panin et al. (2009) found a pre-Holocene origin of 15 of 19 studied gully systems in western Russia.  
69 During the Holocene, these authors detected longer phases of erosion and gully activity from ca. 4,800  
70 to 2,800 cal BP and 1,200 cal BP until today. Shorter periods of intensive erosion were reconstructed  
71 for the intervals ca. 4,800- 4,600, 3,900-3,600, 3,800- 2,800, 2,300- 2,100, 1,600-1,800, 1,000-800, and  
72 700-500 cal BP. The phases of erosion were explained mainly by climate variability. Sycheva (2006) and  
73 Sycheva et al. (2003) report a quasi-cyclicity of erosion and soil formation at the Russian part of the  
74 East European Plain based on a compilation of radiocarbon dates from soils and slope deposits. The  
75 observed cyclicity is ascribed to periodical climatic changes throughout the Holocene. Intervals of  
76 intensive soil erosion were dated to ca. 10,200-9,500, 8,100-7,700, 6,600-6,300, 4,700-4,200, 2,700-  
77 2,300, and 950-450 cal BP. Whereas researchers from southern and central Europe underline the role  
78 of agricultural land use on soil erosion histories of the respective landscapes, eastern European  
79 scholars rather see climatic variability and their effects on vegetation as the main drivers of Holocene  
80 relief change. Thus, a comparison of the land use history known from intensive archaeological research  
81 with the detectable phases of soil erosion at the research site is one focus of this paper.

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84           2. Material and methods

85           2.1 The research site

86   The investigated catchment area is located at Majdanetskoe, district of Talne, central Ukraine  
87   (48°48'N, 30°38'E) (Fig. 1). The close by archaeological site of Madanestske is a giant settlement of  
88   the Tripyllia C1-period (Müller et al., 2013, 2016, Hofmann et al., 2019). Archaeological sites of this  
89   type are unique because of their extremely large dimensions. At Maidanetske, on an area of 200 ha  
90   approximately 3,000 houses arranged in a series of oval structures around an unbuilt central space  
91   were inhabited approximately from 3,990 to 3,640 BCE (Müller et al., 2016, Ohlrau, 2018, Pickartz et  
92   al., 2019). Surveys of the many potshards present on the recent surface, magnetic surveys,  
93   excavations and exhaustive dating campaigns revealed a maximum number of ca. 1,500 houses was  
94   inhabited contemporaneously by probably more than 10,000 people (Ohlrau, 2018, Pickartz et al.,  
95   2019). The climate in the region is humid continental (Dfb) today, with hot summers and cold wet  
96   winters. The potential natural vegetation of the region belongs to the climate sensitive forest-steppe  
97   transition zone. Where there is no agricultural land use, deciduous forests are present in the  
98   landscape today. A mosaic of loess-covered plateaus dissected by small valleys characterizes the  
99   recent topography. The surface soils are classified as particularly thick Chernozems in the research  
100   area (Atlas of soils of the Ukrainian SSR, 1979). The studied catchment area covers ca. 6.3 km<sup>2</sup> and  
101   grades from a Loess plateau towards the valley of the Talianky River spanning a relief gradient from  
102   ca. 210 to 150 m a.s.l. Ditches and a small pond subdivide the valley nowadays. Meadows and shrubs  
103   cover parts of the valley. The catchment area is used for large agricultural fields, subdivided by wind-  
104   breaking tree lines, ditches and unpaved roads.

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109 2.2 Methods

110 2.2.1 Field methods

111 Five trenches were dug at the lower slopes of the catchment area of the investigated valley (Fig. 1).  
112 Additionally, a sediment sequence was extracted from a long (5m) percussion-drilling core situated on  
113 the colluvial fan of the investigated valley close to its outlet into the larger valley of the Talianky River.  
114 The sequences of soils and sediments were documented in scaled drawings and described according  
115 to field instructions (AG Boden, 2005). Sediments are termed as slope deposits (abbr. S) respectively  
116 colluvial layers (abbr. M), if they are of pre-Holocene respectively Holocene age and numbered in the  
117 order of their genesis. Samples were taken for dating and standard laboratory analyses.

118 2.2.2 Laboratory analysis

119 Dating

120 Dating of the soils and sediments was achieved through radiocarbon measurements, optical  
121 stimulated luminescence (OSL) and typological analysis of embedded artifacts. Given the scarcity of  
122 datable bioremain, radiocarbon dating of bulk samples soil organic matter samples was performed  
123 after removal of carbonates. The results were calibrated using OxCal v4.2.3 (Bronk Ramsey and Lee,  
124 2013) with the IntCal13 atmospheric calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013) and are presented in cal  
125 years BP (2 Sigma). OSL dating was carried out on unexposed samples taken in small tubes in  
126 exposure 2 and from segments of a parallel core from drilling point 1. A RISO TL/OSL DA-15  
127 luminescence reader equipped with a calibrated  $^{90}\text{Sr}/^{90}\text{Y}$  source was used for measurements.  
128 Stimulation was carried out using blue (470 nm) or IR (870 nm) LEDs, depending on the applied  
129 mineral fraction. Detection was made through either a U-340 filter (quartz) or the combination of  
130 BG39 and CN-7-59 filters (feldspar). Throughout the measurements different types of the Single  
131 Aliquot Regeneration (SAR) protocol was used (Murray and Wintle, 2000, 2003, Wintle and Murray,  
132 2006, Thiel et al., 2011, Buylaert et al., 2012). Prior to the measurement of the equivalent dose ( $D_e$ )  
133 tests were carried out to determine optimal temperature parameters and the reproducibility of the

134 SAR procedure (combined preheat and dose recovery test). The equivalent dose was determined on  
135 several aliquots in case of each sample. Only those aliquots were considered for De calculation which  
136 passed the following rejection criteria (recycling ratio:  $1.00 \pm 0.10$ ; maximum dose error: 10%;  
137 maximum recuperation: 5%, maximum IR/OSL depletion ratio: 5%). Sample De was determined on  
138 the basis of each accepted aliquot De, using different statistical techniques (Galbraith et al., 1999).  
139 Decision was made on the basis of over dispersion, skewness and kurtosis values. Environmental  
140 dose rate  $D^*$  was determined using high resolution, extended range gamma spectrometer (Canberra  
141 XtRa Coaxial HpGe detector). Dry dose rates were calculated using the conversion factors of Liritzis et  
142 al. (2013). Wet dose rates were assessed on the basis of in situ water contents. The dose rate  
143 provided by cosmic radiation was determined on the basis of the geographical position and depth of  
144 the samples below ground level, using the equation of Prescott and Hutton (1994). All OSL ages given  
145 in the text and figures of this paper are given in cal years BP (1 Sigma). Artifacts embedded in soil or  
146 sediments were dated according to prevailing typochronologies by the archaeologists. All radiometric  
147 age data are given completely in Table 1a and 1b.

#### 148 Geophysical and geochemical analysis

149 Soil and sediment samples were air dried (35°C), carefully disintegrated with mortar and pestle and  
150 sieved through a 2 mm mesh sieve.

151 Grain size distribution analysis was carried out for profiles 2, 3, and the sediment core 1. After removal  
152 of soil organic matter ( $H_2O_2$ , 70 °C) and carbonates (acetic acid buffer, 70°C, pH 4.8) a laser particle  
153 sizer (Malvern Mastersizer 2000) was used to measure the grain size distribution (core1, profiles  
154 2 and 3). Each sample was measured for at least 45 seconds, and the measurement was repeated  
155 at least 10 times, and finally averaged. The magnetic susceptibility was measured on 10 ml samples  
156 (< 2 mm fraction) using a Bartington MS2B susceptibility meter (resolution  $2 \cdot 10^{-6}$  SI, measuring range  
157  $1-9999 \cdot 10^{-5}$  SI, systematic error 10 %). Measurements were carried out at low (0.465 kHz) and high  
158 (4.65 kHz) frequency. A 1 %  $Fe_3O_4$  (magnetite) was measured regularly to check for drift and calibrate  
159 the results. Mass-specific susceptibilities and frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{fd}$ ) were

160 calculated (Dearing, 1999). The color of the samples was measured using a Voltcraft Plus RGB-2000  
161 Color Analyzer set to display in a 10-bit RGB color space within a spectral range of 400 to 700 nm  
162 (Rabenhorst et al., 2014, Sanmartin et al., 2014). Loss on Ignition (LOI) values were measured as  
163 estimates of the organic matter and carbonate content of the sediments (Dean, 1974). After drying the  
164 samples at 105°C overnight, the weight loss of the samples was determined after heating times of 2 h  
165 at 550 °C and 940 °C each. For selected profiles, some additional analysis was carried out. The total  
166 carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN) were determined with an Elementar Vario EL-III CNS analyser  
167 following standard procedures. Sulfanic acid (S= 18.5 weight %) was used for instrument calibration  
168 and an analytical error of ± 0.01 % was determined. On selected samples from the soil and sediment  
169 sequence of core 1 a lipid analysis was carried out to infer about the catchment vegetation. Lipids were  
170 extracted using pressurized liquid Extraction (DIONEX ASE200) using a solvent mixture of  
171 hexane/dichloromethane (9/1; v/v) and separated into non-polar and polar compound classes by  
172 automated SPE (LC-Tech Freestyle) on 2 grams of pre-extracted and activated silica. Non-polar  
173 compounds were eluted with hexane/dichloromethane (9/1; v/v) and subjected to gas  
174 chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) using an Agilent 7890A GC equipped with a Phenomenex  
175 Zebron ZB-5 column (30m × 0.25mm i.d.; 0.25 µm film thickness) and coupled to an Agilent 5975B mass  
176 chromatograph. The injection temperature was held at 60°C for 4 min, after which the oven  
177 temperature was raised to 140°C at 10°C/min and subsequently to 320 °C at 3°C/min, at which it was  
178 held for 8 min. The MS was operated at an electron energy of 70 eV and an ion source temperature of  
179 250°C. The homologues series of n-alkanes was detected via the m/z 85 mass chromatograms and peak  
180 areas used for calculation of relative abundance ratios.

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185 3. Results

186 Deposition history

187 Sequences of sediments deposited during the younger Quaternary and soils that had formed within  
188 these sediments during phases of slope stability were detected at the different exposures (Fig. 1) and  
189 at the drilling point (Fig. 2).

190 Sediment core 1

191 At the drilling point on the colluvial fan of the investigated valley, the thickest sediment sequence (ca.  
192 5m) was recovered (Fig. 2). The base layer S1 (4.4- > 5.0 m) comprises of a larger amount of gravel (ca.  
193 4.7- > 5.0 m) and sand of a light greyish color and dates to the LGM according to an OSL datum. Above,  
194 a layer of Loess was deposited (S2, ca. 4.0- 4.4 m). This pale yellowish layer is composed mainly of silt  
195 with some sand and clay admixed. It is unclear so far, whether S2 originated from aeolian deposition  
196 or is a fluvial redeposition. S2 dates to a period between the LGM and the YD. A YD fluvial sediment  
197 was detected above (S3, 3.3- 4.0 m). Its dark brown color and silty texture (finer than the lying Loess)  
198 points to an Allerød soil within the catchment as the source of the sediment. An OSL age, backed by a  
199 radiocarbon age of the soil organic matter, pointing to a deposition of S3 at ca. 12.0 +/- 0.4 ka BP. S3  
200 was buried by an early Holocene deposit M1 (3.0- 3.3m). Although the texture of M1 again is comprised  
201 mainly of silt, a significant switch towards finer silt particles implies a change in the depositional  
202 conditions. The still dark brownish color indicates that the source of M1 was an early Holocene soil  
203 that covered the catchment area. According to an OSL age, the deposition of M1 occurred at 8.5 +/-  
204 0.3 ka BP. A radiocarbon age of soil organic matter from the layer is slightly younger (ca. 8.160- 7880  
205 cal BP, 2 Sigma). Additional radiocarbon ages from the upper part of M1 imply that a soil has formed  
206 after the deposition of the sediment. The numerical data suggest that this soil formation started by ca.  
207 5,900 cal BP (2 Sigma). M1 was buried by M2 at ca. 3.93 +/- 0.3 ka BP according to an OSL age (backed  
208 by a radiocarbon age of soil organic matter). M2 (1.95- 3.0 m) has a slightly paler color (dark grayish  
209 brown), and, while still dominated by silt, a significant increase in sand (coarse and middle sand). In



210 the upper part of M2 another soil has formed from ca. 2,750 cal BP until it became buried by M3.  
211 Whether M3 was deposited during Iron Age or Medieval Times is not clear due to sparse numerical  
212 age information. Data from the other exposures within the catchment area point to the former.  
213 Changes in the sediment composition could be used to subdivide M3. A change in sediment color  
214 (darker), grain size (little sand), and the C:N ratio of the sediment indicates a former soil surface (A-  
215 horizon, soil formation) in a depth of ca. 1.5 m, coinciding with a radiocarbon age of ca. 910- 730 cal  
216 BP (Medieval Times). Another noticeable change of the sediment properties is visible in ca. 1.0 m  
217 depth. Similarly, few sand, additionally higher clay content, a switch to darker sediment colors and  
218 wider C:N ratios indicate another former surface horizon (A-horizon, soil formation). Thus, although  
219 not dated numerically the deposition of an Iron Age colluvium followed by two subsequent colluvial  
220 layers could be derived from the sediment properties.

221 The  $nC_{27}/(nC_{27+31})$  plant wax alkane ratio of the sediment indicates increasing amount of tree leaves  
222 within the soil organic matter comparing the Late Glacial to mid-Holocene sediment record. It is the  
223 smallest in one YD sample, increases in the samples of the early Holocene layer, and further to a more  
224 tree-dominated value in the mid-Holocene samples.

225 Trenches at the lower slopes

226 At the lower slopes that incline towards the studied valley (trenches 2, 3, 5, 6), varying but smaller  
227 thicknesses of sediments of water erosion were exposed (Fig. 1, 2; between 1-2 m). All sediments are  
228 composed of silt, clay, and fine sand, and containing no significant amount of coarser particles. There  
229 are different occurrences of Late Glacial to early Holocene sediments (trenches 2, 3). In one trench, a  
230 thin Early Bronze Age colluvium was detected (trench 3). All trenches contain a colluvial layer that  
231 dates to ca. 4,000 cal BP. In two trenches, the presence of a sediment deposited ca. 2,700- 2,300 yrs  
232 cal BP (trenches 2, 5) is proven. In all trenches, spurs of buried soils are present. At the base of the  
233 trenches, remnants of a buried Bw-horizon (Cambisol) indicate the presence of a wooded landscape  
234 prior to the nowadays-widespread Chernozems. Additionally, pronounced A-horizons subdivide the  
235 sediment sequences indicating a succession of alternating phases of slope stability and erosion

236 throughout the younger Quaternary. Within the YD sediment deposited at trench 2, a humic surface  
237 soil horizon has formed dating to ca. 5,900- 5,650 yrs cal BP. In trench 3, similar phases of soil formation  
238 are indicated. These occurred in the upper part of the early Holocene colluvial layer at ca. 7,800-7,600  
239 yrs cal BP until burying at ca. 5,000- 4,900 yrs cal BP and in the colluvial layer suspicious to have been  
240 deposited at ca. 4,000 yrs BP at ca. 3,900-3,700 yrs cal BP until burying at ca. 3,000- 2,900 yrs cal BP.

241 In general, the sediments and soils exposed at the lower slopes resemble the chronostratigraphy  
242 detected in the long percussion-drilling core at the colluvial fan. Fig. 2 b and c illustrate properties of  
243 the deposited sediments and soils in the trenches 2 and 3. Noteworthy is the comparable similar grain  
244 size distribution (mainly silt with some clay) in trench 2 and 3. This might be explained by their  
245 delivering sediment sources comprising of Loess at the investigated slopes. While there are similar  
246 trends in LOI, magnetic susceptibility and colors of the sediment sequences in trench 2 and 3, there is  
247 an obvious difference at the base of the Holocene part of the sequences. All, the LOI 940 values, the  
248 magnetic susceptibility and the colors in trench 2 show an abrupt step at this chronostratigraphical  
249 border whereas there is a gradual transition in trench 3. This indicates an erosional discordance in  
250 trench 2 between the Late Glacial and the mid-Holocene. Erosion of parts of the soil developed in the  
251 Late Glacial deposit immediately before the onset of soil formation (ca. 5,900- 5,650 yrs cal BP) seems  
252 the most probable reason for the observed data.

253 An additional exposure was studied in a small quarry ca. 3 km southwest of the investigated catchment  
254 area (trench 4). Whereas the start of erosion was found to have happened ca. 3,700- 3,500 yrs cal BP,  
255 the subsequent colluvial layer dates to ca. 2,700- 2,400 yrs cal BP, resembling an erosional phase  
256 detected in the investigated valley. A pronounced buried Bw-horizon is present at the base of the  
257 sequence.

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261 4. Discussion

262 A comparison of the reconstructed phases of erosion and soil formation with the well known  
263 settlement history of the region and Holocene erosion histories from the Russian Plain and Germany  
264 is given in Fig. 3. The data from the investigated trenches and the percussion-drilling core indicate that  
265 the younger Quaternary erosion at the sites occurred in discrete phases. Slight deviations between  
266 datings can be ascribed to uncertainties in using bulk samples for radiocarbon dating. A comparison  
267 with the settlement history, thoroughly investigated through extensive archaeological surveys and  
268 excavations near the research area shows a conspicuous non-coincidence between land-use and  
269 erosion history. The only noticeable exception is the last millennium, where we do not have numerical  
270 age information about the sediment deposition. No traces of erosion were found to be related with  
271 the phases with the largest number of prehistoric settlements in the area (20 km radius) at ca. 6,450-  
272 5,350 yrs cal BP (Tripyllia culture) or at ca. 1,700-1,500 yrs cal BP (Late Roman Iron Age). This  
273 strengthens the opinion of a group of eastern European geomorphologists that Holocene erosion in  
274 Eastern Europe was mainly driven by climate variability (Sycheva et al., 2003, Belyaev et al. 2004, 2005,  
275 Sycheva 2006, Panin et al. 2009). A comparison of the numerical ages of the detected erosion phases  
276 reveals a weak accordance between the results from central Ukraine and the Russian Plain for some  
277 erosion phases. Whereas the records from Russia show no pronounced consistence viewed by itself,  
278 the erosion phases at ca. 8.0 kyrs BP, ca. 4,000 yrs cal BP, at ca. 2,700-2,300 yrs cal BP and during the  
279 last millennium detected in central Ukraine are also visible in the Russian record.

280 Considering them separately, all erosion phases detected at Maidanetske coincide with periods of  
281 known extreme climatic conditions or rapid climate variability.

282 An in generally cooler and drier than today environment has been reconstructed for the LGM (e.g.  
283 Lowe et al., 2008). Large regions of the non-glaciated forelands were characterized by permafrost (e.g.  
284 Renssen and Vandenberghe, 2003), leading to increased amounts of runoff during summer thawing or  
285 precipitation events (Panin et al., 2009). This resulted in widespread increased erosion processes as  
286 described for the Mediterranean (Rossato and Mozzi, 2016) or Russia (Panin et al. 2009). Of 19 gullies

287 studied by Panin et al. (2009) in central Russia 15 were incised initially already during the Pleistocene.  
288 The deposition of a sediment in the sequence of Maidanetske, rich in stones and sand, at 26.5 +/- 0.7  
289 ka cal BP could have been related to an intense runoff event on partly frozen ground. Its coarse texture  
290 might reflect high runoff energy and resulting incision of gullies/ channels into the bedrock. Loess  
291 contributed, if even, only a small amount to the sediment.

292 The YD climate oscillation is well studied in a large number of palaeoenvironmental archives (e.g. Bar-  
293 Matthews et al., 1997, Brauer et al., 2001, Andersen et al., 2004, Dykoski et al., 2005, Staubwasser and  
294 Weiss, 2006, Bordon et al., 2009) and characterized as a cold and dry phase across Europe. Slope  
295 instability associated with abrupt climate change has been reported from various sites in Europe (e.g.  
296 Andres et al., 2001, Dotterweich et al., 2013) or Anatolia (e.g. Dreibrodt et al., 2014). Regardless if  
297 permafrost processes affected the research region during the YD, the vegetation cover and thus the  
298 shelter of the surface soil was very probably affected by climate change. These conditions could explain  
299 the observed erosion phase in central Ukraine by runoff events produced during water rich snow-melts  
300 or intensive precipitation events on unsheltered surface soils. The layers detected at two points in the  
301 sedimentation area contain a large amount of silt, indicating the presence of a Loess cover in the  
302 catchment area that was not cut through by the erosion processes.

303 The detection of a slope instability phase at ca. 8,000 yrs cal BP coincides with another well-known  
304 climate oscillation phase (e.g. Alley and Ágústsdóttir, 2005). Response to this phase of rapid climate  
305 change has been reported widespread from different types of palaeoenvironmental archives, such as  
306 lakes (e.g. Migowski et al., 2006, Prasad et al., 2007, Bordon et al., 2009), tree rings (e.g. Spurk et al.,  
307 2002), or speleothems (e.g. Bar-Matthews et al., 1997, Bar-Matthews and Ayalon, 2011). While it is  
308 accepted that the 8 ka BP phase was related to cold conditions in the northern mid-latitudes its  
309 hydrologic impact is less clear. In spite of few evidence for flooding (e.g. Macklin et al., 2006) most  
310 researchers interpret the occurrence of slope instability as a result of wetter conditions (e.g. Zolitschka  
311 and Negendank, 1998). However, dry spells, which led to a destruction of the vegetation cover  
312 (wildfires), might provide an alternative reason for slope instability (e.g. Dreibrodt et al. 2010b). Since

313 lake level highstands were used as an additional argument for wetter conditions across western and  
314 central Europe (e.g. Magny et al., 2003) it might be considered that both, colder temperatures and a  
315 sparser vegetation cover in the lakes catchment might also result in lake level increases. From the  
316 eastern Mediterranean, there is indication for drier climate conditions at around 8,000 cal BP (e.g. Bar-  
317 Matthews et al., 1997, Migowski et al., 2006, Bar-Matthews and Ayalon, 2011). Some scholars even  
318 argued about a close relationship between the climate anomaly and early societal evolution in the  
319 Mediterranean (Weninger et al., 2006). Investigations on slope deposits have revealed a pronounced  
320 phase of slope instability at this interval reported from sites as distant as western and central Europe  
321 (e.g. Dreibrodt et al., 2010b, Vincent et al., 2010, Lubos et al., 2011, Schumacher et al., 2018) or  
322 Anatolia (Dreibrodt et al., 2014). The 8.0 ka climate oscillation is considered to have been of smaller  
323 amplitudes in temperature and moisture changes as well as duration compared with the YD phase.  
324 Effects of permafrost or enduring changes of the vegetation cover are less probable to explain the  
325 observed erosion in central Ukraine. A weakened vegetation cover could have well played a role, but  
326 an accentuation of patterns of precipitation events is also quite possible.

327 The erosion phase at ca. 4,000 yrs cal BP coincides with a climate anomaly reported from different  
328 sites across Eurasia. Whereas northern Europe and the Alps experienced a colder than usual phase  
329 (e.g. Bakke et al., 2010, Le Roy et al., 2017) from southern Europe and the Mediterranean the climate  
330 oscillation is rather known because of prominent drought phases (e.g. Weiss and Bradley, 2001,  
331 Staubwasser and Weiss, 2006, Migowski et al., 2006, Cheng et al., 2010, Schirrmacher et al., 2019). A  
332 prominent dry phase was also reconstructed from the lake level of Lake Balqash (Kremenetski, 1997)  
333 and through pollen studies for the research region in the period from ca. 4,300 to 3,600 yrs cal BP  
334 (Gerasimenko, 1997). Intensive erosion during the period was detected in Greece (e.g. van Andel et  
335 al., 1990) or Anatolia (Dusar et al., 2014). Thus, accentuated precipitation events during an in general  
336 drier than usual phase with a weakened vegetation cover, could explain the erosion phase detected at  
337 Maidanetske.

338 Between ca. 2,700 and 2,300 yrs cal BP another erosion phase occurred at Maidanetske. This coincides  
339 with a climatic deterioration phase recorded across western and central Europe (e.g. van Geel et al.,  
340 1996). Prominent dry conditions were reconstructed for ca. 3,000- 2,000 cal BP from marine sediments  
341 of the eastern Mediterranean (Schilman et al., 2001) and for the period between ca. 2,700- 2,000 cal  
342 BP from the lake level of Lake Balqash (Kremenetski, 1997). Pollen studies from the research region  
343 indicate a drier than usual phase from ca. 3,000 to 2,400 yrs cal BP (Gerasimenko, 1997). In central  
344 Europe, frequent erosion has been reported from a large number of sites during this period (e.g. Lang,  
345 2003, Dreibrodt et al., 2010a), including phases of gullyng (Dreibrodt and Wiethold, 2015). Note the  
346 presence of a high number of colluvial layers deposited in Germany in the period between 2,700 to  
347 2,300 yrs cal BP (Fig. 3). Erosion is reported during the period from Anatolia (Kaniewskie et al., 2008,  
348 Dreibrodt et al., 2014, Dusat et al., 2014) and Greece (van Andel et al., 1990, Fuchs, 2007), additionally.  
349 Thus, accentuated precipitation events during a generally drier than usual phase with a weakened  
350 vegetation cover, could explain the erosion phase detected at Maidanetske.

351 Since we do not have numerical age information about the erosion processes that were in action during  
352 the past millennium at Maidanestke, we can only state that this phase was the strongest influenced by  
353 intensive agricultural land use at the research site. Maxima of erosion are reported from central Europe  
354 (e.g. Bork and Lang, 2003, Dotterweich, 2008, Dreibrodt et al., 2010a) and Russia (Panin et al., 2009)  
355 to have happened during this period. If we consider the record at the colluvial fan in core 1 we could  
356 deduce that about 150 cm of the Holocene record was deposited during the last 1,000 years  
357 (representing ca. 42 % of the Holocene sediment). That underlines again the crucial importance of  
358 intensive agricultural land use on Holocene soil erosion processes. Additionally, it implies that the  
359 intensity of prehistoric land use was below a critical threshold, thus no or very little soil erosion was  
360 triggered by their subsistence systems.

361 Summarizing the discussion of the long-term Younger Quaternary erosion history at Maidanetske  
362 (LGM- 1,000 yrs BP) there is a non-coincidence of erosion with the local and regional settlement history  
363 but an obvious pattern of coincidence of erosion at the site with well-known phases of climate

364 anomalies. The latter reflect anomalies reported from western and central Europe and the  
365 Mediterranean climate system. Their visibility in central Ukraine might reflect the convergence of the  
366 two climate systems in that part of Eastern Europe. As the climate anomalies conspicuous to have  
367 resulted in the observed erosion were characterized by similar conditions (colder than usual in central  
368 and western Europe and drier than usual in the eastern Mediterranean and the research area) a  
369 common trigger of the observed erosion phases might be possible. Episodic occurrences of more  
370 intensive than usual precipitation events in the research area one a perhaps weakened vegetation  
371 could explain the observed record. This is corroborated by the accordance of dating of sediment layers  
372 at the different investigation points that implies discrete phases of Holocene erosion. A response of  
373 the local vegetation cover to slight climatic changes seems probable considering the position of the  
374 site in the sensitive ecotone of the forest-steppe transition. If occurrences of heavy precipitation  
375 events coinciding with the climate anomalies were triggered by short response mechanisms of the  
376 climate system as occurrences of meridional transfer of heat and water from the eastern  
377 Mediterranean towards the interior of Eurasia remains speculative and is a matter of ongoing research.

378 The sensitivity of the central Ukrainian landscape we claim here is probably related to two  
379 preconditions. The first is the late onset of intensive agricultural land use in the region, similar as  
380 pointed out for Russia (Panin et al., 2009). This is visible in the thick layer of colluvial material deposited  
381 during the last millennium in our long percussion-core. The second precondition is related to the  
382 location of the area in the forest-steppe borderland zone, considered to be sensitive to slight climatic  
383 changes and, additionally located in a position where western and southern European climate systems  
384 converge.

385 Considering the erosion processes in action during the Younger Quaternary deposition history an  
386 additional observation could be made. The sediment deposited during the periglacial to early Holocene  
387 erosion processes show properties that resemble the Loess cover deposited over the whole catchment  
388 area (Fig. 2). Since the 4,000 yrs cal BP erosion phase, the sediment on the colluvial fan contains more  
389 sand in general. This is not visible in the trenches at the lower slopes, where the Loess cover was

390 nowhere found to have been cut through completely. This hints to the start of a stronger incision in  
391 the valley itself and aggradation of colluvial material at the lower slopes. Additionally, the biomarker  
392 signal of increasing amounts of tree leave organic matter in the valley sediments points to erosion and  
393 redeposition of soil in the valley bottom, because the valley bottom is the most probable place for the  
394 growth of gallery forests throughout the Holocene. Thus, a change in the overall geomorphic  
395 connectivity within the investigated catchment area occurred at the mid-Holocene (since 4,000 yrs cal  
396 BP). This could reflect changes in the intensity of the reconstructed erosional events in an order (from  
397 stronger to weaker): LGM > YD > early Holocene >> mid-Holocene.

398

## 399 5. Conclusions

400 A long-term Younger Quaternary erosion history mainly driven by climate variability was reconstructed  
401 at a central Ukrainian site. This is in accordance with observations from neighboring regions. It might  
402 reflect the late onset of intensive agricultural land use in the region and the position of the site in an  
403 environment sensitive to slight climatic shifts where the western and southern European climate  
404 systems converge. Additionally, in western, central and southern European records of Holocene  
405 erosion response to climate variability might be present but masked by the anthropogenically  
406 intensified erosion of early intensive land use.

407 Changes in the properties of the sediment deposited at a colluvial fan indicate a change from a stronger  
408 connectivity of erosion processes during the glacial to early Holocene erosion phases towards a  
409 weakened connectivity since the mid-Holocene (4,000 yrs cal BP).

410

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637 Figure captions

638 Figure 1. Location of the investigation site a) in Eastern Europe, b) the investigation points in the  
639 valley of the Talyanki River close to the Tripyllia Giant Settlement Maidanetske (plan of burned  
640 houses indicated), and c) simplified chronostratigraphy of the investigated trenches (number on the  
641 left side of the columns: MUNSELL color values); data of core 1: Fig. 2a).

642 Figure 2. Selected laboratory data from a) the long percussion-drilling core 1, b) trench 3 and c)  
643 trench 2. Fig. 2 a) TOC- red line, C/N ratio- black line; Fig. 2 c) LOI 500- upper axis, LOI 940- lower axis.

644 Figure 3. Comparison of the detected Late Quaternary Erosion phases at Maidanetske with the  
645 known settlement history, and records of Holocene soil erosion from Russia (Sycheva, 2006, Panin et  
646 al., 2009) and Germany (histogram: orange- dated via embedded/ buried archaeological record,  
647 green- dated via radiocarbon dating, blue- dated via OSL, Dreibrodt et al., 2010a).

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649 Tables

650 Table 1 Radiocarbon data

651 Table 2 OSL data

652 Table 3 Settlement history of the site (5 km radius) and the region (20 km radius)

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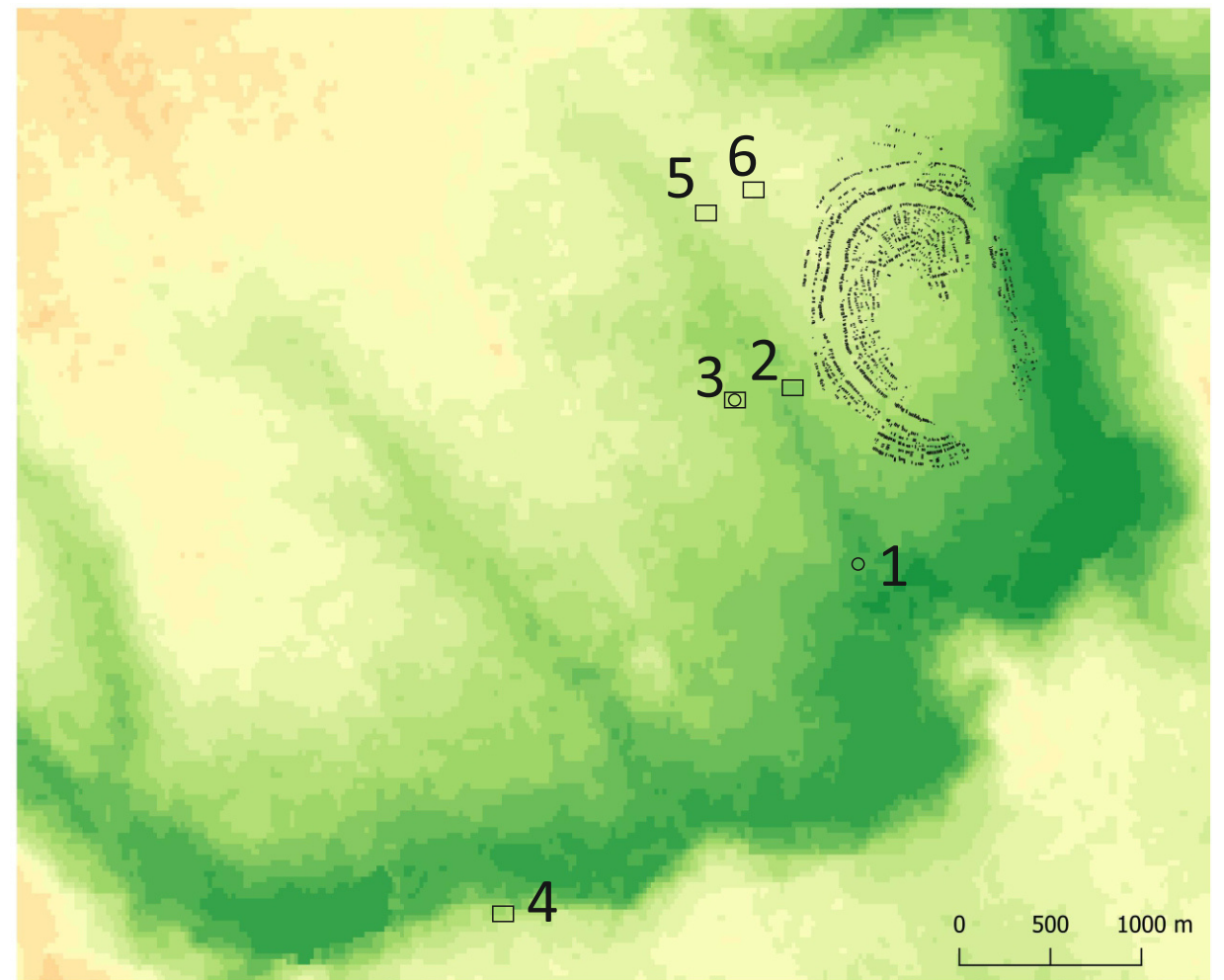
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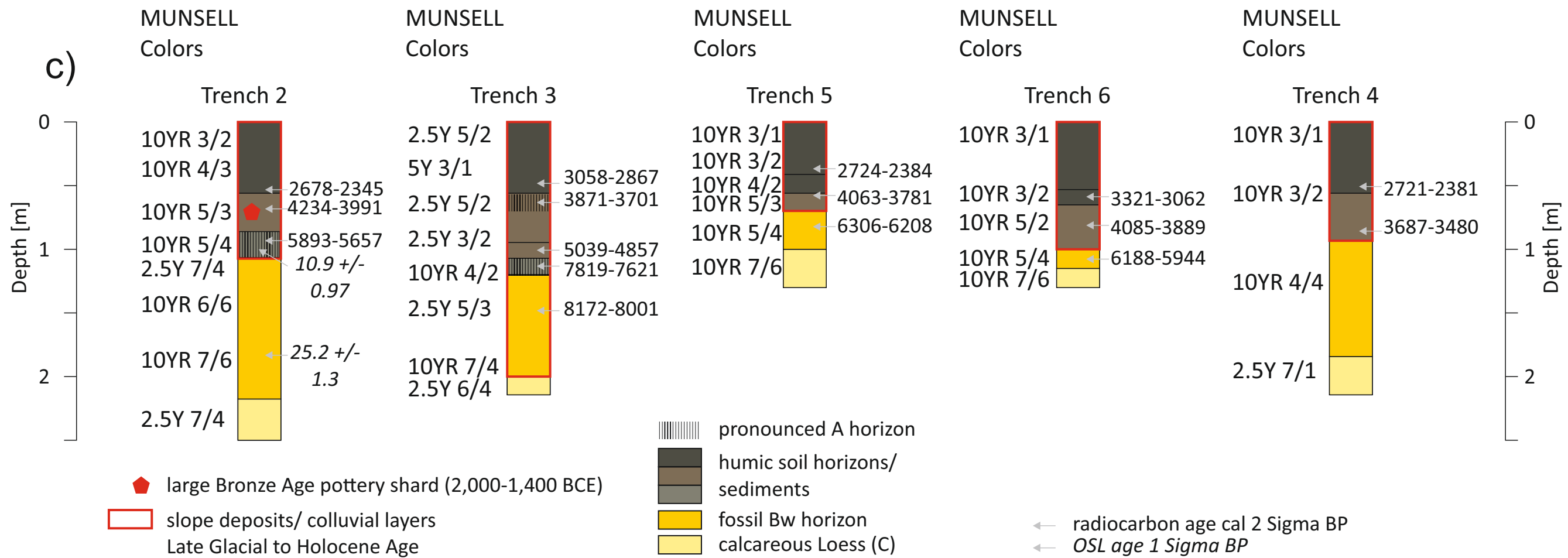


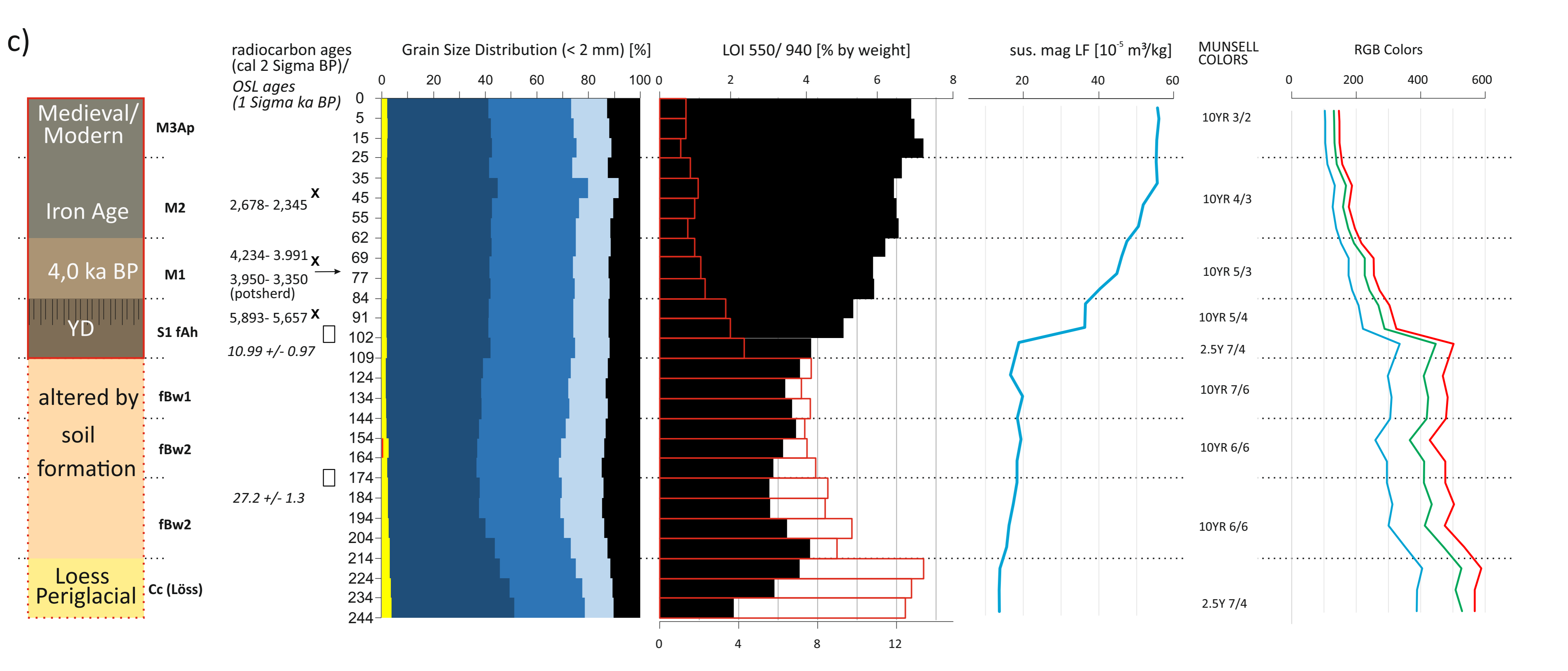
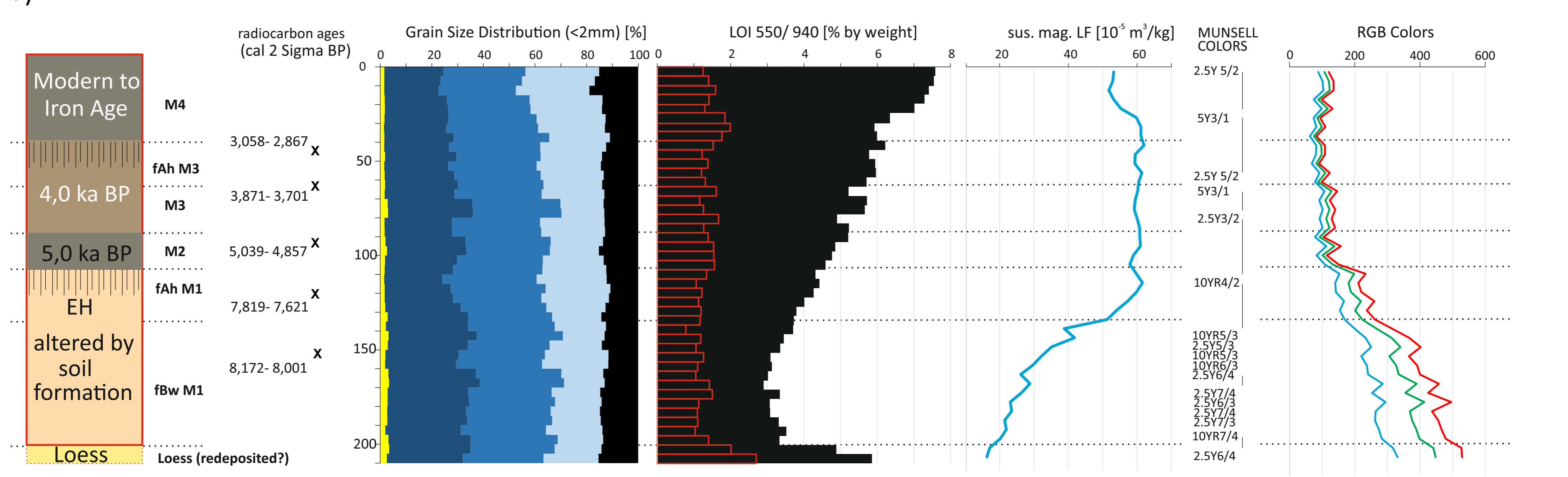
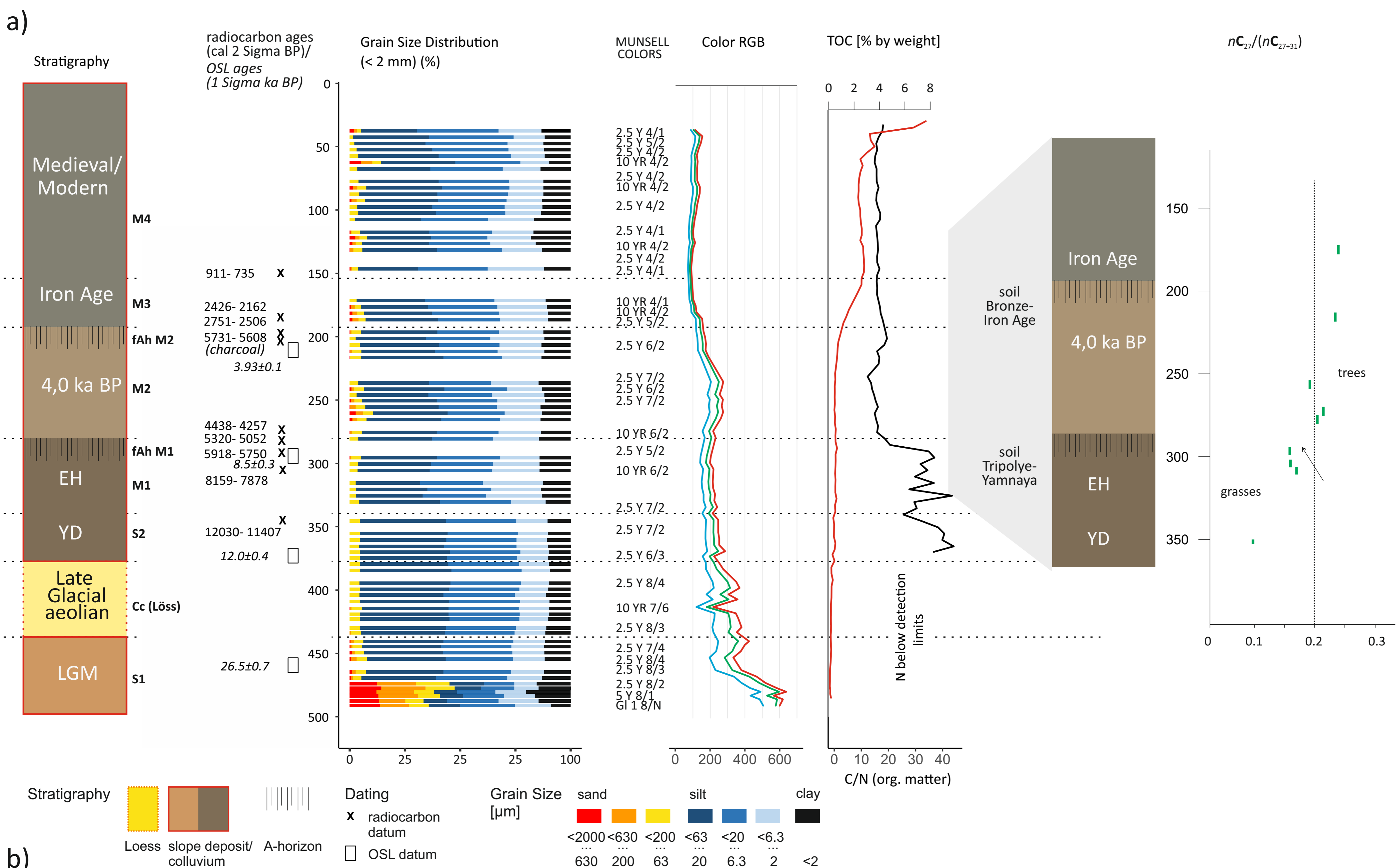
a)

b)



c)



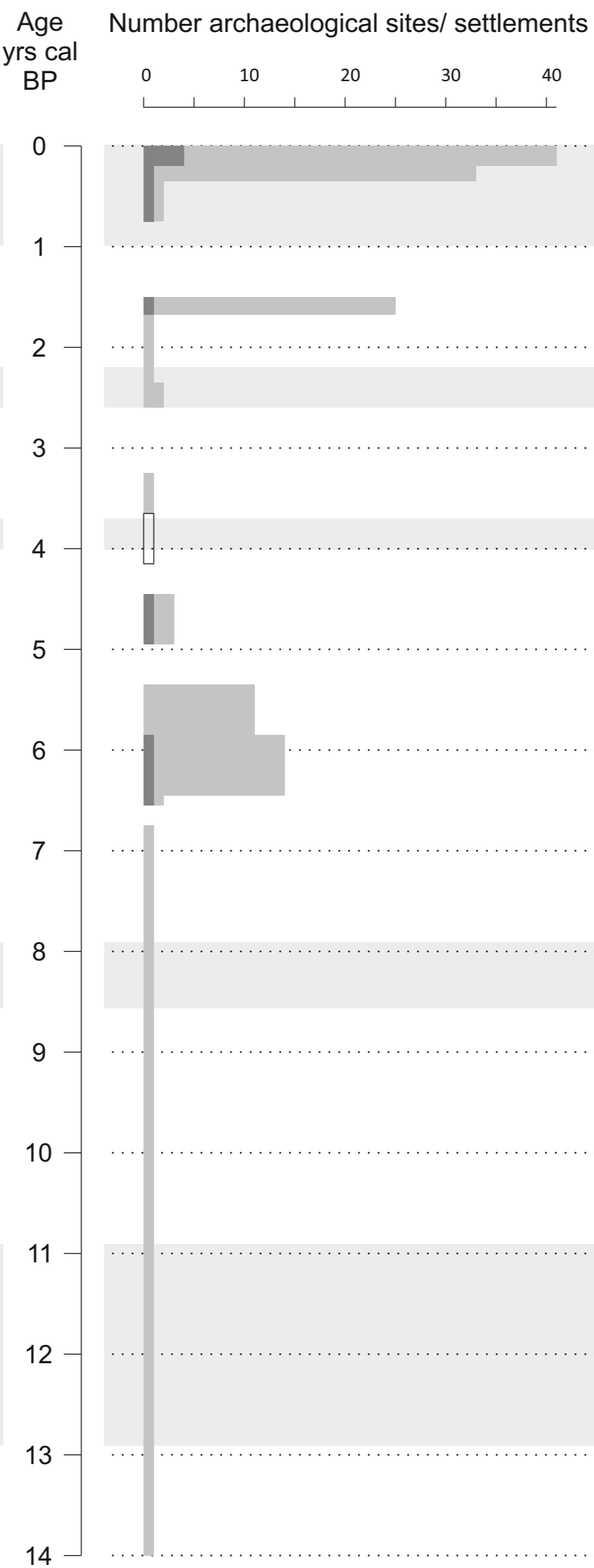




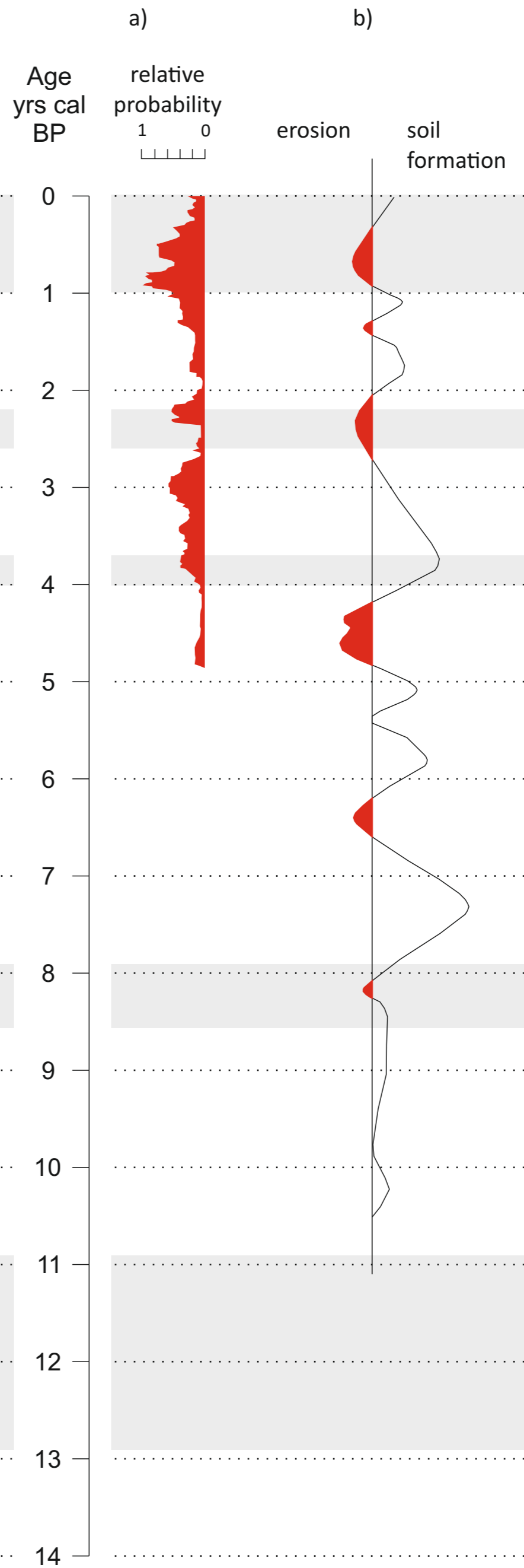
Phases of Erosion at Maidanetske, central Ukraine



Regional settlement history  
(20 km radius, dark grey:  
5 km radius)



Erosion history Russian Plain



Erosion history Germany

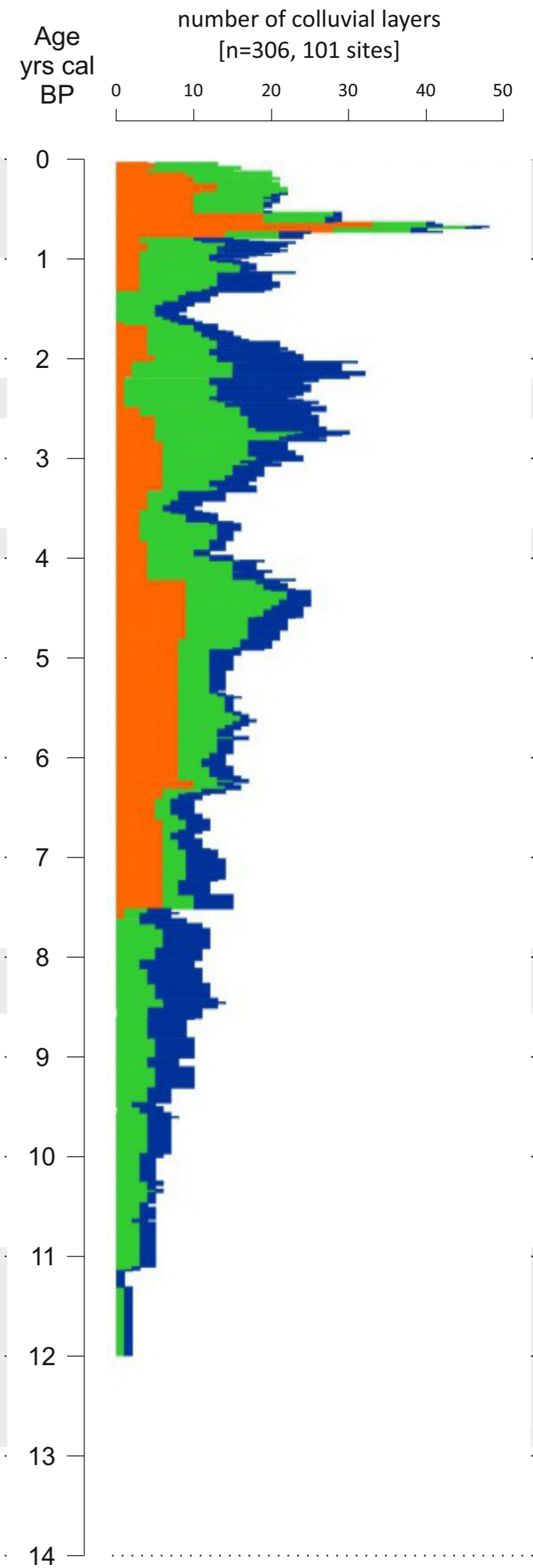


Table 1a Radiocarbon data

Lab	Lab ID	profile	Depth (cm)	radiocarbon age BP	cal 2 Sigma BP	remarks
Kiel	52670	1	340-344	10130±55	12030-11597(86.4%), 11561-11472(6.3%), 11454-11407(2.7%)	Sediment
Kiel	53079	1	323-338	6410±35	7420-7275(95.4%)	Sediment, outlier (krotowina?)
Kiel	53078	1	298-303	7175±55	8159-8087(10.2%), 8069-7931(83.4%), 7893-7878(1.8%)	Sediment
Beta	529991	1	293-298	5100±55	5918-5846(37.2%), 5831-5750(58.2%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Beta	529992	1	288-293	6710±30	7653-7639(1.8%), 7624-7556(75.7%), 7545-7511(17.8%)	Sediment, outlier, too few org. C
Beta	529993	1	283-288	2999±40	3336-3290(7.3%), 3261-3028(87.7%), 3014-3008(0.4%)	Sediment, outlier, too few org. C
Kiel	52669	1	280-284	4550±40	5320-5213(37.1%), 5193-5052(58.3%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Kiel	53077	1	234-239	3927±26	4438-4286(93.0%), 4273-4257(2.4%)	Sediment
Kiel	52667	1	200-204	4949±27	5731-5608(95.4%)	Charcoal, outlier (redeposition?)
Kiel	53076	1	194-199	2550±24	2751-2698(67.2%), 2635-2617(8.2%), 2591-2537(15.9%), 2531-2506(4.1%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Kiel	52668	1	180-184	2310±40	2426-2392(2.1%), 2382-2302(76.9%), 2246-2178(15.8%), 2171-2162(0.7%)	Sediment
Kiel	53075	1	144-149	895±30	911-735(95.4%)	Sediment
Posznan	62408	2	95-100	5015±35	5893-5805(38.9%), 5796-5781(2.5%), 5774-5657(54.0%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Posznan	62410	2	65-70	3755±30	4234-4198(10.4%), 4184-4070(68.6%), 4045-3991(16.3%)	Sediment
Posznan	62407	2	45-50	2385±30	2678-2667(1.3%), 2656-2644(1.6%), 2492-2345(92.5%)	Sediment
Posznan	113975	3	150-155	7260±40	8172-8001(95.4%)	Sediment
Posznan	113974	3	120-125	6880±40	7819-7814(0.6%), 7796-7621(94.8%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Posznan	113973	3	95-100	4370±30	5039-5005(9.7%), 4981-4857(85.7%)	Sediment
Posznan	113971	3	60-65	3515±30	3871-3701(95.4%)	Sediment, Soil formation
Posznan	113970	3	40-45	2840±30	3058-3049(1.5%), 3040-2867(93.9%)	Sediment

Lab	Lab ID	profile	Depth (cm)	radiocarbon age BP	cal 2 Sigma BCE*/CE**	remarks
Posznan	113547	4	80-90	3345±35	3687-3665(5.2%), 3645-3480(90.2%)	Sediment
Posznan	113546	4	40-60	2475±30	2721-2427(93.6%), 2413-2406(0.6%), 2395-2381(1.3%)	Sediment
Posznan	114060	5	70-80	5460±30	6306-6208(95.4%)	Relict Bw-horizon
Posznan	114059	5	50-60	3595±35	4063-4051(1.0%), 3986-3829(93.9%), 3787-3781(0.5%)	Sediment
Posznan	114058	5	30-40	2480±30	2724-2432(94.6%), 2391-2384(0.5%)	Sediment
Posznan	114064	6	100-110	5290±40	6188-5986(89.4%), 5973-5944(6.0%)	Relict BW-horizon
Posznan	114062	6	70-80	3650±30	4085-3889(95.4%)	Sediment
Posznan	114061	6	50-60	2980±30	3321-3309(1.1%), 3247-3062*(94.3%)	Sediment

Table 1 b OSL data

Lab	Lab ID	profile	Depth (cm)	Water content (%)	OSL grain size ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	U (ppm)	Th (ppm)	K (%)	D* (Gy/ka)	De (Gy)	OSL age (ka)
Szeged	1504	1	465	20 $\pm$ 5	11-20	2.77 $\pm$ 0.02	10.03 $\pm$ 0.15	1.63 $\pm$ 0.04	2.61 $\pm$ 0.06	69.47 $\pm$ 0.81	26.5 $\pm$ 0.7
Szeged	1505	1	380	19 $\pm$ 5	11-20	2.98 $\pm$ 0.03	9.23 $\pm$ 0.16	1.89 $\pm$ 0.06	2.86 $\pm$ 0.07	34.68 $\pm$ 0.67	12.0 $\pm$ 0.4
Szeged	1506	1	295	17 $\pm$ 5	11-20	2.98 $\pm$ 0.03	9.76 $\pm$ 0.16	1.87 $\pm$ 0.05	2.94 $\pm$ 0.07	25.30 $\pm$ 0.41	8.5 $\pm$ 0.3
Szeged	1507	1	210	19 $\pm$ 5	11-20	2.95 $\pm$ 0.03	10.09 $\pm$ 0.15	1.68 $\pm$ 0.04	2.76 $\pm$ 0.06	10.84 $\pm$ 0.09	3.93 $\pm$ 0.1

Lab	Lab.-Nr.	profile	Depth (cm)	$^{238}\text{U}$ (ppm)	$^{232}\text{Th}$ (ppm)	$^{40}\text{K}$ (ppm)	D* (Gy/ka)	De (Gy), aliquots	OSL age (ka)
Gdynia	GdTL-1892	2	180	29.14 $\pm$ 0.74	42.5 $\pm$ 0.12	498 $\pm$ 33	2.54 $\pm$ 0.11	69.2 $\pm$ 1.4	27.2 $\pm$ 1.3
Gdynia	GdTL-1893	2	100	24.30 $\pm$ 0.70	40.5 $\pm$ 0.12	576 $\pm$ 40	2.53 $\pm$ 0.12	28.0 $\pm$ 2.0	10.99 $\pm$ 0.97



Period	Numerical age (BCE*/CE**//BP)	Archaeological sites in the micro-region bold = 5 km radius, black =20 km radius, grey = 20 km, no precise dating available	“material-culture”	Reference
Palaeolithic	Lower ...//until 150,000 Middle ...//until 35,000 Upper ...//until 9,950	- - Gordashovka, Lashova		Shidlovsky et al., 2004: 364
Mesolithic	8,000– 6,000*// 9,950- 7,950	Dobryanka 1	Kukrek	Neradenko, 2011 Zalizniak et al., 2005
Neolithic	6,000– 4,800*// 7,950- 6,750	Dobryanka 3	Buh-Dniester culture	Zalizniak et al., 2005
Chalcolithic	Early (Tripolye A) 4,600 –4,500*// 6,550- 6,450	<b>Grebenukiv Yar</b> , Romanovka	Tripolye	
	Middle (Tripolye B) 4,500-3,900*// 6,450- 5,850	Onoprievka, Vesely Kut, Gordashovka 1, Hlybochok, Rozsohovatka, Kolodyste 1, Krivi kolina, Pischana, Sverdlukove, Nebelivka	Tripolye	
	Late (Tripolye C) 3,900-3,400*// 5,850- 5,350	<b>Maidanetske</b> , Kobrinovo, Romanovka, Moshurov 1, Moshurov 2, Moshurov 3, Gordashovka 2, Talne 1, 2 and 3, Rohy, Talianki, Kamyaneche, Kolodyste	Tripolye	
Bronze Age	Early Bronze Age 3,000– 2,500*// 4,950- 4,450	Kurgans close to <b>Maidanetske</b> , Legedzyne, Dobrovody, settlement Maidanetske (Shirokiy bereg), Belashki “Oksanichev yar”, Vishnopil, Talne (3), Rohy, Moshurov	Yamnaya culture, kurgans	Отчеты, Иванова, 2016: 273-290; Kruts et al., 1981: 4
	Middle Bronze Age 2,600– 2,200*// 4,550- 4,150	-		
	Transitional period 2,200– 1,700*// 4,150- 3,650	<b>Maidanetske (?)</b>		
	Late Bronze Age 1,700– 1,300*// 3,650- 3,250	Legedzyne 2		Magomedov and Didenko, 2009: 56; Куштан, 2013: 84
Early Iron Age	Final Bronze Age 1,300– 900*// 3,250- 2,850	-		
	Pre Scythian time 9 <sup>th</sup> – mid 7 <sup>th</sup> c.*// 2,750- 2,600	No settlements		Terenozkin, 1961

	Scythian time mid 7 <sup>th</sup> – 3 <sup>rd</sup> c. **// 2,600- 2,350	Kurgans close to Legedzyne, Kolodiste Belashki, Moshurov (settlements)- „early iron age“ Kurgan in Kolodiste	Scythian, kurgans	Kruts et al., 1981: 4.
Late Roman time	Sarmat time 3 <sup>rd</sup> - 2 <sup>nd</sup> c. *- 4 <sup>th</sup> c. **//2,350- 1,550 mid 3 <sup>rd</sup> - first half 5 <sup>th</sup> c. **// 1,700- 1,500	<b>Maidanetske</b> , Legedgyne 1 and 2, Legedzyne graveyard, Sverdlikove (burials), Kobrinovo, Belashki (4), Glibochok 1 and 2, Vesely Kut, Potash, Papuzentci, Pavlivka 1, Zelenkiv, Gordashivka 1, 2 and 3, Vishnopil (2), Talne, Rohy, Oksanine 1 and 2, Kolodiste Moshurov, Pishana (Penkovska culture)	Chernyakhov culture	Magomedov and Didenko, 2009: 56; Kruts et al., 1981: 4
Middle Ages	Early middle Age 5 <sup>th</sup> -10 <sup>th</sup> c. **// 1,450- 950  High Middle Ages 10 <sup>th</sup> c.-1250**// 950- 750	-		
	Late middle age 1250- 1500**// 750- 450	1/1 villages		IYMIC, 1972
Early modern period	1500- 1750**// 450- 200	1/33 villages		IYMIC, 1972
Late modern period	since 1750**// since 200	1/41 villages At the end of the 19 <sup>th</sup> c. a sugar factory was built in Maidanetske, in action until the end of the 20 <sup>th</sup> century. Construction of cascade ponds.		IYMIC, 1972