

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 km² 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 ± 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 (χ_{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, Duser 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 leaf 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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