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Title: Climatic and palaeoecological changes during the mid- to Late Holocene transition in eastern China: high-resolution pollen and non-pollen palynomorph analysis at Pingwang, Yangtze coastal lowlands.

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Keywords: Neolithic; coastal east China; palynology; climate change; Neoglacial; vegetation history

Corresponding Author: Dr. James Innes,

Corresponding Author's Institution: Durham University

First Author: James Innes

Order of Authors: James Innes; Yongqiang Zong; Zhanghua Wang; Zhongyuan Chen

Abstract: The transition to the Late Holocene/Neoglacial occurred as a worldwide process of climatic deterioration from the optimum thermal conditions of the mid-Holocene, culminating in an abrupt decline around 4200 cal yr ago, in a period of severe climatic deterioration that lasted for two or three centuries. This sudden climatic event has been recorded in many proxy data archives from around the world, and its effects were manifest in different ways depending on the reaction of regional weather systems and conditions, but often as greatly increased aridity and/or cold temperatures. It has been regarded as causing or contributing to the sudden collapse of several well-established human societies at that time, including advanced agricultural Late Neolithic cultures in eastern China. We have used high-resolution pollen and non-pollen palynomorph analysis to examine the nature of this climatic transition through its impacts on the vegetation and hydrology at Pingwang, a site in the Yangtze coastal lowlands which has no evidence of complicating environmental influences such as sea-level rise or significant human land-use activity, factors previously suggested as alternative reasons for changes in forest composition. Our results show two phases of forest alteration, one gradual from about 5500 cal BP and one sudden at about 4200 cal BP., in which the frequencies of subtropical forest elements fall and are replaced by those of conifers and cold-tolerant trees. Total arboreal pollen frequencies do not decline and the proportion of temperate forest trees, tolerant of a wide range of temperatures, remains unchanged throughout, both ruling out human land clearance as a cause of the change in forest composition. As these dates accord very well with the known timings of climate deterioration established from other proxy archives in the region, we conclude that climate was the main driver of vegetation change in eastern China at the mid- to Late Holocene transition. Our hydrological results support the view that a combination of rising local water level and climatic cooling during the 4200 cal BP event was the probable cause of societal collapse in the lower Yangtze valley.

1 Climatic and palaeoecological changes during the mid- to Late Holocene
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5 James B. Innes ^{a,*}, Yongqiang Zong ^b, Zhanghua Wang ^c, Zhongyuan Chen ^c

6
7 ^aGeography Department, Durham University, South Road, Durham, DH1 3LE, UK

8 ^bDepartment of Earth Sciences, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

9 ^cDepartment of Geography, East China Normal University, Shanghai 200062, China

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11 **Abstract:**

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38 *Corresponding author (e-mail address: j.b.innes@durham.ac.uk)

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45 **1. Introduction**

46 Holocene climate history is now relatively well understood at the global scale, with the
47 recognition of a series of significant temperature events that occurred within the longer-term
48 evolution of the present interglacial's temperate climate, some of which represent tipping points,
49 major shifts that mark phase transitions between longer periods of more stable thermal
50 conditions. One of the most important of these climatic shifts is Holocene event 3 (Bond et al.,
51 2001), occurring relatively abruptly around 4200 years ago (hereafter cal BP) and having major
52 environmental impacts worldwide, recognised (Walker et al., 2012) as the global transition from
53 early and mid-Holocene thermal maxima (Renssen et al., 2012) to the Late Holocene
54 (Neoglacial), with its colder, more extreme and more variable climatic regimes (Jessen et al.,
55 2005; Marchant and Hoogiemstra, 2004; Wanner et al., 2011). This major climatic shift to
56 unstable Neoglacial conditions in the centuries preceding 4000 cal BP has been recorded across
57 the globe in a range of proxy climate data archives (Gear and Huntley, 1991; Jian et al., 1996;
58 Phadtare, 2000; Stott et al., 2004; Booth et al., 2005; Magny et al., 2009; Geirsdóttir et al., 2013),
59 affecting major atmospheric systems such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (Olsen et al. 2012),
60 ENSO (Schulmeister and Lees, 1995), the Indian Monsoon (Overpeck et al., 1996; Gupta et al.,
61 2003; Staubwasser et al. 2003) and the East Asian Monsoon (EAM) through global climatic
62 teleconnections (Wang et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2004; Hong et al., 2005; Tan et al., 2008). A
63 gradual onset of globally cooler conditions can be noted at around 5500 cal BP, with the major
64 Neoglacial intensification at ca 4200 cal BP (Geirsdóttir et al., 2013). The EAM, which forms
65 the focus of this paper, accords very well with the global data, with ample evidence of its
66 progressive weakening after the mid-Holocene at ca 5500 cal BP, culminating in an abrupt
67 decrease in its strength in the centuries before 4000 cal BP (An, 2000; An et al., 2000; Morrill et

68 al., 2003; He et al., 2004; Yuan et al, 2004; Wang et al., 2005; Selveraj et al., 2007; Cosford et
69 al., 2008; Cai *et al.*, 2010).

70 *1.1. Neoglacial climatic deterioration and human societies*

71 The link between climatic and societal change can be very strong (Perry and Hsu, 2000;
72 Caseldine and Turney, 2010; Zhang et al., 2011). It is not deterministic (Coombes and Barber,
73 2005) to assume that the change from the mid-Holocene climatic optimum to the much less
74 congenial Neoglacial climate would have had significant effects upon human societies,
75 particularly those that had developed intensive agricultural systems that supported high,
76 sedentary populations, but which had become dependent upon stable, favourable and reliable
77 climatic conditions. The more economically and socially specialized such societies became, the
78 more vulnerable they would have been to any rapid environmental change (O’Sullivan, 2008).
79 Human communities are resilient and adaptable (Anderson et al., 2007; Lu, 2007) and were able
80 to cope and even flourish during the gradual climatic decline from the mid-Holocene thermal
81 maximum around the world, the development of advanced agrarian societies based on the control
82 of water resources in the major river valleys of the Middle East and China being good examples.
83 In China such advanced, highly productive farming systems sustained the dense Neolithic
84 populations of the Longshan, Shijiahe, Qijia and Liangzhu cultures in the Yellow River and
85 Yangtze valleys during the millennium after 5000 cal BP (Liu and Feng, 2012; Zhuang et al.,
86 2014). Abrupt climatic deterioration would have been difficult for such complex agrarian
87 societies to cope with, however (Mo et al., 2011), and there is abundant archaeological and
88 palaeoecological evidence that the rapid climate changes around 4200 cal BP caused severe
89 economic and political dislocation, and even societal collapse, in many regions of the world
90 (Dalfes et al., 1997; Sandweiss et al., 1999; Peiser, 1998; deMenocal, 2001). Major civilizations

91 disintegrated at this time in India and the Middle East and the coincidence of societal failure and
92 settlement abandonment with the rapid change to Neoglacial cold and arid conditions in these
93 areas implies an environmental cause and a cultural effect, with climate as the driving force
94 (Weiss et al., 1993; Cullen et al., 2000; Staubwasser et al., 2003; Drysdale et al., 2006;
95 Staubwasser and Weiss, 2006; Riehl, 2012), although of course such a direct relationship can
96 never be proven conclusively.

97 *1.2. The East China example*

98 One of the world's regions that has a clear correlation between cultural 'collapse' and the 4200
99 cal BP climate event is eastern China, and in particular the lower Yangtze valley, one of the
100 historic heartlands of Chinese society and agricultural development. Liu and Feng (2012) and
101 Wu et al. (2012) have evaluated the evidence for the development in the fifth millennium cal BP
102 of the advanced agrarian cultures of central and eastern China mentioned above, and their
103 sudden, almost synchronous demise around 4200 cal BP, when severe climate deterioration
104 occurred. Many major Neolithic archaeological sites have culturally sterile sediments of this age
105 that seal the rich cultural layers and are interpreted as flood deposits. Many authors (e.g. Yu et
106 al., 2000, 2003; Jin and Liu, 2002; Wu and Liu, 2004; Zhang et al., 2005; Gao et al., 2007; Chen
107 et al., 2008) are convinced that the 4200 cal BP event must have been responsible for site
108 abandonment and for the culturally impoverished interlude of a few centuries recorded almost
109 everywhere in north and east China around 4200 cal BP. Clear, independent evidence that the
110 severe climatic deterioration of Holocene Event 3 had an impact on the east Asia region at this
111 time may be seen in marine sediment records from the South China Sea, the East China Sea and
112 the North-west Pacific generally. Jian et al. (1996) used oxygen isotope analysis on planktonic
113 foraminifera from deep water marine sediments in the East China Sea to reconstruct sea-surface

114 temperatures during the transition to the late Holocene, observing major cooling at the start of
115 the Neoglacial around 4200 cal BP. Sun et al. (2005)'s oxygen isotope analyses from corals in
116 the South China Sea show a major weakening of the monsoon and increase in its variability
117 during the same period. Wang et al. (1999a, b), also using oxygen isotope data, identified a very
118 clear abrupt cooling, the most severe in the Holocene apart from the 8200 cal BP event, at 4200-
119 4000 cal BP in the northern South China Sea, a feature also observed by Wei et al. (1998) and by
120 Chinzei et al. (1987) in the Sea of Japan. The ca. 4200 cal BP major cooling event is well
121 attested in proxy climate records from the east Asia region, and it coincides with the apparent
122 collapse of the late Neolithic cultures of the lower Yangtze area.

123 Although the circumstantial evidence that environmental pressures of varying kinds led to the
124 collapse of the Liangzhu culture of the lower Yangtze around 4200 cal BP is very persuasive, we
125 still do not know in detail the vegetation changes that preceded and accompanied the 4200 cal
126 BP event there. New, high resolution palaeoecological data are required from within the
127 Liangzhu's core settlement and agricultural area with which to establish these environmental
128 preconditions. Most previous palynological research has been of low resolution, or situated too
129 close to archaeological sites to be able to separate clearly any cultural impacts from the
130 background vegetation history, or too far away to provide evidence of conditions within the
131 cultural heartland itself. Also, not every pollen record agrees with the hypothesis that agricultural
132 production almost ceased in the Taihu lowlands at this time (Itzstein-Davey et al., 2007b). In this
133 paper we use high resolution palynology (both pollen and non-pollen palynomorphs) to
134 investigate the nature and severity of the environmental changes during the transition to the
135 Neoglacial in the Yangtze coastal lowlands of eastern China, as expressed in vegetation patterns
136 and hydrology. A site at Pingwang has been selected where a more regional pollen signal might

137 be expected, minimizing the influence of local human land-use in this intensively settled area, so
138 that natural factors rather than agricultural impacts will have been the main driving force behind
139 the vegetation history and environmental change. Zong et al. (2011) have shown that direct
140 inundation by marine transgression could not have been the reason for the abandonment of the
141 Taihu lowlands by Neolithic people at this time, and this paper will explore in detail whether
142 climate deterioration and its consequences was the environmental driving force, if one existed.

143

144 **2. The study area and site**

145 The study area chosen is the coastal lowland around the Taihu lake west of Shanghai (Fig.1).
146 Between the valley of the Yangtze river and Hangzhou Bay, throughout the mid- and Late
147 Holocene this flat plain, mostly less than 5 m above sea level, was naturally occupied by
148 woodland and by wetland ecosystems which had developed during and after the main postglacial
149 sea-level rise on this coast (Tao et al. 2006; Zong et al., 2011, 2012a, b; Wang et al., 2012).
150 Higher ground to the west and north (Fig. 1a) and low hills within the wetland would have
151 naturally carried forest. As well as the main Lake Tai (Qu, 2000; Wang et al., 2001) these
152 wetlands included many other lakes and smaller water bodies and a wide expanse of peat-
153 forming bogs, swamps and marshes. Although sheltered from direct marine inundation after the
154 mid-Holocene by a system of coastal barrier ridges (Yan et al., 1989), these wetland systems
155 remained affected by the groundwater influence of sea-level fluctuation (Zong et al., 2011).
156 While their fertile marsh soils made them highly attractive for Neolithic settlement and intensive
157 wet rice agriculture under the warm and wet climate of the mid-Holocene Megathermal phase
158 (Cao et al., 2006; Lu, 2007; Atahan et al., 2008; Qin et al., 2011), the Taihu lowlands would have
159 been highly vulnerable to any changes to their hydrology, sedimentation regime and natural

160 vegetation cover caused by even small-scale fluctuations in sea level or climate, or by fluvial
161 input from the nearby Yangtze river. Lying at the biogeographical boundary between
162 northeastern China's warm temperate broadleaf forests and southeastern China's sub-tropical
163 evergreen forests (Box, 1995; Li et al., 1995; Ren and Beug, 2002; Ren, 2007; Cao et al., 2013),
164 the natural vegetation of the lower Yangtze region would have been sensitive (Guiot et al., 2008)
165 to climatic deterioration caused by the proposed reduction of the strength of the EAM during the
166 transition to the Late Holocene (Morrill et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2005). It is an ideal location to
167 test the environmental consequences of climate change during the transition to the Late Holocene
168 Neoglacial in east China, and provide firmer evidence to assist interpretation of the
169 archaeological record and evaluate the putative cultural responses (Chen et al., 2005, 2008). It
170 can be difficult to distinguish vegetation changes caused by major climatic change from those set
171 in train by human land-use (Liu and Qiu, 1994), particularly if both may be occurring at the same
172 time and place, as both involve disturbance of established plant communities and the
173 regeneration of changed vegetation units through seral pathways. This is particularly so in the
174 Taihu lowlands, where usually population levels were high and agricultural activities were
175 intensive during the mid- to late Holocene (Wu et al., 2012). For the purposes of this study a site
176 was required that was at a significant distance from known Neolithic centres of agricultural
177 activity, identified by archaeological sites and their concentrations of cultural material that are
178 usually situated upon slightly higher land in the wetland. This should therefore contain a more
179 'natural' environmental signal with the influence of anthropogenic impacts on the vegetation
180 reduced as much as possible, although there would still be a regional cultural signature in the
181 pollen rain. It is not easy to get far away from known Neolithic cultural sites in this area, as there
182 are so many. Nevertheless such locations do exist, mainly in areas that were very wet and

183 perhaps agriculturally marginal, and one was selected at Pingwang to the south-east of Lake
184 Taihu (Fig. 1) which lay more than 10 km from the nearest known archaeological site, and even
185 further from any significant Neolithic settlement. The local hydrological history at Pingwang
186 (30° 57' 30"N; 120° 38' 25"E; altitude 1.6 m Yellow Sea Datum) was summarised by Zong et al.
187 (2011, 2012b). The sediments (Table 1) cover the whole of the mid- and late Holocene and
188 record the development of various freshwater habitats above estuarine sediments after the
189 postglacial rise of sea level was complete (Zheng and Li, 2000; Wang et al., 2012) and the final
190 withdrawal of estuarine conditions from the area by 7000 cal BP after the establishment of
191 coastal barrier ridges. Radiocarbon dating showed that the profile included the period of
192 Liangzhu settlement and the Neoglacial cultural hiatus.

193

194 **3. Material and methods**

195 Samples were prepared for palynological analysis at 5 cm intervals using standard laboratory
196 techniques, including alkali digestion, sieving at 180 µm, hydrofluoric acid digestion and
197 acetolysis (Moore et al., 1991). Microfossils (all palynomorphs <180 µm in size) were identified
198 using reference keys and type slides and counted using a stereomicroscope at magnification of
199 ×400, using ×600 oil immersion lenses for critical features. Identification of pollen grains
200 followed Wang et al. (1995) and pteridophyte spores Zhang et al. (1990). Where very similar
201 pollen taxa cannot be differentiated with certainty, they are shown as a composite genus, i.e.
202 *Ulmus/Zelkova*, *Corylus/Ostrya* and *Castanopsis/Lithocarpus*. *Quercus* includes *Lepidobalanus*.
203 *Typha angustifolia* includes *Sparganium*. A minimum of 200 land pollen grains was counted at
204 each sampled level, plus all aquatic pollen and pteridophyte and bryophyte spores observed
205 while attaining that sum. Non-pollen palynomorphs (NPPs), mainly comprising fungal spores

206 and algae, were also recorded with at least 200 identified on the pollen slides at each level.
207 Taxonomic identification of NPPs was achieved where possible, otherwise they were identified
208 using the catalogue of Type (HdV) numbers at the Hugo de Vries laboratory, Amsterdam, using
209 illustrations and descriptions published in several papers (e.g. van Geel, 1986, 2001; van Geel
210 and Aptroot, 2006). Microscopic charcoal particles (microcharcoal) were counted upon the
211 microscope slides relative to the pollen sum, providing a pollen/microcharcoal ratio.

212 Our dates on the Pingwang profile comprise AMS radiocarbon results and in this study, as in
213 most other recent research in this area, only fragile terrestrial plant macrofossils, pollen residues
214 or basal peat that has accumulated in situ have been dated, bulk alluvial sediment being avoided.
215 Pollen residues have been shown in recent published studies from the area (Itzstein-Davey et al.,
216 2007a; Atahan et al., 2008; Qin et al., 2011) to provide reliable age curves. A statistically
217 significant inversion occurs low in the profile in Table 2, but these dates refer to the early
218 Holocene Megathermal which is not the main focus of this study. It is considered that the pollen
219 residue date at 321 cm depth is more likely to be correct, based on existing regional pollen and
220 radiocarbon evidence. The upper dates, bracketing the age period of interest in this study, are
221 consistent and are accepted as accurate. Dates were calibrated according to Calib6.1 (Reimer et
222 al., 2009) using the IntCal09 programme. Microfossil diagrams were constructed using the
223 TILIA program TGView (Grimm, 2004).

224

225 **4. Results and interpretation**

226 While Zong et al. (2012a) showed only selected summary curves from Pingwang, here we
227 present full microfossil data. Tree and shrub pollen percentages are shown on Fig. 2, herb pollen
228 and pteridophyte spores on Fig. 3 and NPPs on Fig. 4, all with frequencies calculated as

229 percentages of the total arboreal (tree + shrub) sum that reflects the more regional pollen rain.
230 Fig. 2 includes summary curves for trees and shrubs based upon their life-form and temperature
231 tolerances, although warm temperate and cool temperate are not separated. The CONISS
232 (constrained incremental sum of squares) cluster analysis function (Grimm, 1987) within
233 TGView has been used to zone the diagram based on the total land pollen percentages, and has
234 recognised four pollen assemblage zones (PW-a to d) which are applied to all of the diagrams.
235 The CONISS dendrogram is shown on Fig. 2.

236 Zone PW-a (380-362.5 cm). This zone is dominated by the subtropical tree
237 *Cyclobalanopsis* and the warm temperate trees *Quercus* and *Salix*, the latter perhaps abundant in
238 local carr habitat with its locally sourced pollen frequencies depressing *Cyclobalanopsis*
239 percentages. There are background levels of temperate taxa such as *Ulmus/Zelkova*, *Castanea*
240 and *Liquidambar*. Cooler climate taxa are poorly represented, with only *Pinus* pollen significant,
241 probably not locally sourced. Poaceae, Cyperaceae and *Typha angustifolia* dominate the herb
242 assemblage. Prominent NPP types include Sordariaceae (55A), *Coniochaeta* cf. *ligniaria* and
243 HdV-11, as well as marsh/reedswamp taxa HdV-306 and 708. This zone corresponds to the basal
244 peat layer at the site (Table 1) and includes evidence of carr and shallow water marsh
245 environments. Zong et al. (2011) recorded a mixed diatom assemblage in this lower part of the
246 profile, with evidence of saltmarsh or estuarine influence. The non-wetland vegetation was a
247 subtropical forest with temperate elements which the date suggests existed not long after the start
248 of the Megathermal mid-Holocene climate optimum.

249 Zone PW-b (362.5-232.5 cm). This zone is dominated by the subtropical genera
250 *Cyclobalanopsis* and *Castanopsis/Lithocarpus* which consistently provide 50% of arboreal
251 pollen, with temperate deciduous *Quercus* accounting for most of the rest. Other temperate trees

252 are also significant, including *Ulmus/Zelkova*, *Castanea*, *Pterocarya* and *Liquidambar*. Conifers
253 and cold tolerant trees are poorly represented, with a low background curve for *Pinus*. Non-
254 arboreal pollen and spores are low, supplied mainly by Poaceae and Cyperaceae. Aquatic taxa
255 are important, and *Potamogeton* and *Ceratopteris* increase later in the zone and there is a peak of
256 the aquatic *Salvinia*. NPPs become increasingly dominated by aquatic types, with shallow water
257 marsh taxa like *Zygnema*, *Mougeotia*, HdV-306 and HdV-708 being replaced in the upper part of
258 the zone by more open water algal types, especially *Pediastrum*, HdV-128 and the
259 cyanobacterium *Gloeotrichia*. The regional forest comprised a typical Megathermal optimum
260 assemblage with evergreen subtropical trees dominant but with a significant temperate
261 component. The local environment changed from shallow water marsh to aquatic and eutrophic,
262 biologically productive habitats with deeper standing water, as shown by *Pediastrum* abundance,
263 nearer to 5000 cal BP. Such *Pediastrum* frequencies are typical of limnic environments with
264 emergent aquatic vegetation under warm, mid-Holocene climates (Jankovská and Komárek,
265 2000).

266 Zone PW-c (232.5-177.5 cm). At the start of this zone subtropical tree frequencies,
267 *Cyclobalanopsis* and *Castanopsis/Lithocarpus*, fall from 50% to 25% of arboreal pollen. Of the
268 warm temperate trees, the more cool-tolerant *Betula*, *Fagus* and *Alnus* increase but the more
269 thermophilous, including *Pterocarya* and *Castanea*, decline markedly. Against this trend pollen
270 of Moraceae, usually subtropical trees in east China (Sun et al., 2003), appears and rises in
271 frequency in mid-zone. Distinct increases occur in the cold-tolerant trees Cupressaceae (which
272 includes *Juniperus*), *Picea* and *Pinus*. Frequencies of the main warm temperate forest trees
273 *Quercus*, *Liquidambar* and *Ulmus/Zelkova* are unaffected. The summary curves on Fig.1 show an
274 almost direct replacement of the subtropical genera by the cold-tolerant taxa. There is little

275 change in the non-arboreal pollen and spores except for peaks in *Potamogeton*, *Myriophyllum*
276 and Adiantaceae, all floating aquatics. The NPP assemblage shows major changes with
277 *Gloeotrichia* rising to dominance and *Pediastrum* reduced, although still important. Peaks of the
278 cyanobacterium *Anabaena*, intolerant of high temperatures, accompany *Gloeotrichia*'s rise. The
279 local aquatic habitat seems to have become colder, deeper and less eutrophic, while the regional
280 forest also adapted to colder temperatures during this zone.

281 Zone PW-d (177.5-130 cm). At the start of this zone, which has an interpolated date of
282 4200 cal BP, the frequencies for the subtropical trees *Cyclobalanopsis* and
283 *Castanopsis/Lithocarpus* continue to fall, dropping to 15% of arboreal pollen. Moraceae,
284 however, maintains values of almost 10% of total tree and shrub pollen. Warm temperate trees
285 are little changed, but the cold-tolerant and coniferous taxa rise to 35% of the total. *Pinus* and
286 Cupressaceae are particularly increased, and Taxodiaceae is consistently recorded. Aquatic
287 pollen is still important although the rise of *Typha* and *Ceratopteris* late in the zone implies
288 falling water levels. Present in low frequencies throughout, *Artemisia* increases late in the zone.
289 *Gloeotrichia* is still abundant early in the zone, but decreases as marsh herbs, ferns and NPPs
290 increase after ca 2800 cal BP. This zone sees a continued expansion of conifers in the forest at
291 the expense of the subtropical genera.

292

293 **5. Discussion**

294 *5.1. Yangtze region vegetation history*

295 The biogeographical location of the lower Yangtze region means that its natural vegetation
296 contains elements of both subtropical and temperate forests, and during the mid-Holocene

297 Megathermal optimum phase, subtropical forest trees were common there as the monsoon front
298 lay to the north and the Yangtze had a very warm, humid and wet climate (Shi et al., 1993;
299 Zheng et al., 2004; Zong et al., 2007; Innes et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010a; Cao et al., 2013).
300 *Castanopsis* and *Cyclobalanopsis* were the dominant taxa, associated with thermophilous
301 deciduous trees *Quercus*, *Liquidambar* and *Ulmus/Zelkova*. There are several published pollen
302 profiles from the lower Yangtze region with which the Pingwang Megathermal record can be
303 compared (Liu et al., 1992; Xu et al., 1996; Chen et al., 2005; Tao et al., 2006; Yi et al., 2006;
304 Shu et al., 2007; Innes et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010b) as well as more general regional syntheses
305 for east China (Liu, 1988; Sun and Chen, 1991; Ren and Beug, 2002; Zhang et al., 2005; Ren,
306 2007), and all show this general forest history. Zhao et al. (2009) have analysed the data from
307 many pollen records across all of EAM China and conclude that whatever the Megathermal
308 forest type, there was a shift to a more cold-tolerant forest community, in many regions with
309 major expansion of conifers in particular, after about 4200 cal BP, and it may well have been
310 responsible for the major forest decline that occurred in more arid regions (Zhao et al., 2009;
311 Herzsuh et al., 2010), instead of the human impact explanation favoured by earlier workers
312 (Liu and Qiu, 1994; Ren, 2000). This climate shift is well represented in the lower Yangtze (Wu
313 et al., 2012), with a broadleaf temperate and conifer woodland established. As most rice
314 agriculture occurred here on sites reclaimed from wetlands (Li et al., 2012), human impacts on
315 the forest were probably not great except close to settlement sites (Atahan et al., 2008). This
316 remained the case until major human forest clearance occurred after ca 2500 cal BP. (Atahan et
317 al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011).

318 5.2. *The 4200 cal BP climatic deterioration in China*

319 While reservations exist (Maher, 2008; Maher and Thompson, 2012), the severe climatic
320 deterioration at ca 4200 cal BP appears to be well attested in speleothem records from caves in
321 several areas of China (Wang et al., 2001; Dykoski et al., 2005; Shao et al., 2006; Cosford et al.,
322 2008; Hu et al., 2008; Dong et al., 2010). This widespread switch to cold conditions (Shi et al.,
323 1993) is substantiated by many other forms of proxy data (Hong et al., 2000; Li et al., 2010b),
324 including pollen records (Xiao et al., 2004; Lim and Fujiki, 2011; Chen et al., 2012). In more
325 northerly and westerly areas of China towards the EAM margins the 4200 cal BP climatic
326 deterioration and instability was expressed by a rapid switch to much more arid conditions (Hong
327 et al., 2001; Schettler et al., 2006; Jiang and Liu, 2007; Mischke and Zhang, 2010; Wang et al.,
328 2010; Wen et al., 2010), as the summer monsoon weakened and the winter monsoon
329 strengthened (Yu et al., 2006; Jiang and Liu, 2007; Yancheva et al., 2007; Yang and Scuderi,
330 2010). Precipitation would have been the dominant factor controlling vegetation distributions
331 (Wen et al., 2013). In the western part of the Chinese Loess Plateau, the climate until 4200 cal
332 BP was humid (An et al., 2003; 2004; Gao et al., 2007), with organic palaeosol development.
333 Southeast of Lanzhou, for example, wetlands seem to have existed in several river valleys,
334 adjacent to Neolithic settlements (Feng et al., 2004, 2006). At about 4200 cal yr BP, the climate
335 suddenly became drier in this region and from the reduction in the number of archaeological sites
336 from this time, An et al. (2004, 2005) concluded that this period of intense aridity, which lasted
337 for some centuries, had a major effect on the Neolithic Qijia people who lived in these river
338 valleys, causing the collapse of their farming culture (Mo et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2010a).
339 Previously distinct pollen and charcoal records of major human land-use impacts in this area also
340 terminate at this time (Li et al., 2012). At the western and northern margins of the area of
341 monsoonal influence, this period of maximum aridity (Wei and Gasse, 1999) caused lakes to

342 dessicate almost completely (Chen et al., 1991; Morrill et al., 2006; Zhai et al., 2011). This
343 drying tendency since about 4900 cal BP extended even to eastern coastal China, where some
344 lake levels started to fall (Wu et al., 2010).

345 One of the clearest expressions of the climatic deterioration is in vegetation records (Zhao
346 et al., 2009), many of which show major changes in the centuries leading up to 4000 cal BP. On
347 the Western Loess Plateau and in the uplands of central China there was an abrupt change from
348 forest to steppe as a response to the greatly increased aridity (Feng et al., 2006; Zou et al., 2009;
349 Herzsuh et al., 2010; Zhou and Li., 2012). Elsewhere in north and west China at this time this
350 much colder and arid phase changed mixed forest to domination by conifers (Sun and Weng,
351 1992; Jarvis, 1993; Ren, 2000; Makohonienko et al. 2004; Xiao et al., 2004; Jiang and Liu, 2007;
352 Liu et al., 2010b; Xu et al., 2010; An et al., 2012), as pine was particularly favoured over oaks
353 under the more arid and cold conditions (Ren and Zhang, 1998; Yi et al., 2003). Although there
354 has been discussion as to whether human activity or climate change was responsible for the
355 spread of *Pinus* in northeast China around 4200 cal BP (Ren, 2000; Xu et al., 2010), there is little
356 evidence for human interference with the woodland during that period and climate change seems
357 to be the most likely cause. In central eastern China the evergreen trees common during the
358 Megathermal (Shi et al., 1994) were everywhere displaced by conifers within mixed, cool
359 temperate woodland (Ren and Beug, 2002; Zhu et al., 2010), a change to a cooler forest biome
360 recorded even in south China and Taiwan (Liew et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2010;
361 Wu et al., 2012). There is more persuasive evidence for human activity having had an influence
362 on the forest in the Yangtze region (Chen et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010b; Wu et al., 2012), but it
363 declines and then stops almost everywhere in the centuries leading up to the 4200 cal BP event.

364 In contrast to the aridity phase in north and west China, in many places at this time in
365 eastern and southern China peat deposits begin to form or expand markedly (Zhao et al., 2007;
366 Zhang et al., 2011), including in the Taihu lowlands (Zhu et al., 2006), under greatly wetter
367 conditions, providing pollen and other proxy records that confirm the abrupt and major climatic
368 cooling at ca 4200 BP (Hong et al., 2000; Yu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2007; Ma et al. 2008,
369 2009) following the southerly withdrawal and weakening of the EAM (Wang et al., 2005; Liu et
370 al., 2010c) which coincided with stronger winter monsoons (Yancheva et al., 2007). An
371 important consequence of the 4200 cal BP climatic decline in eastern China seems to have been a
372 dramatic increase in the incidence and severity of flooding in river valleys (Tan et al., 2008; Wu
373 et al. 2012), where much of Late Neolithic settlement and agriculture was concentrated. Fields
374 and settlements were often located close to water sources, lakes and river channels, making them
375 highly vulnerable to rapid fluctuations in water levels (Wu et al., 2010). Often cultural deposits
376 are terminated by major flood sediment layers that date to this event (Huang and Zhang, 2000;
377 Bai et al., 2008; Yao et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2010, 2011, 2012a, b; Zhang et al., 2010) and
378 represent disasters that must have buried fields and forced settlement evacuation (Xia et al.,
379 2003; Liu et al., 2012), including some in the Yangtze Delta itself (Zhang, 2007; Zhang et al.,
380 2004a) and at the termination of the Liangzhu (Zhu et al., 1996; Zhang et al. 2004b; Shi et al.,
381 2008). Huang et al. (2011) record repeated floods which must have made cultural recovery in
382 these locations very difficult.

383 5.3. *Environmental evidence at Pingwang*

384 5.3.1. *Hydrological evidence*

385

386 After the withdrawal of brackish marsh conditions from Pingwang, the site became dominated
387 throughout its history by freshwater wetland environments, and increasingly by fully aquatic
388 conditions, which probably explains the absence of archaeological material nearby and the lack
389 of palynological evidence for agriculture throughout the profile (Figs. 3 and 4). The NPP record
390 is particularly informative regarding the local hydrology, with HdV-128, *Spirogyra*,
391 *Gloeotrichia*, *Zygnema* and *Pediastrum* all abundant and reflecting open water of various depths
392 and trophic status, and the aquatic herb taxa *Potamogeton*, *Typha* and *Salvinia* support this. The
393 significance of HdV-128, *Zygnema* and HdV-708 in zone PW-b suggests mesotrophic open
394 water of relatively shallow depth (Bakker & van Smeerdijk, 1982; Pals et al., 1980). The
395 microcharcoal curve is not high and probably represents a background regional signal of human
396 activity, presumably on drier land but perhaps also burning of carr scrub within the wetland to
397 establish paddy fields (Innes et al. 2009) and of dead plant stubble material to maintain them
398 (Cao et al. 2006; Dodson et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2009; Li et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2013; Zhuang
399 et al., 2014). Although moderate throughout, the increased values at the top and base of the
400 profile correlate with periods of shallower-water marsh conditions, when some increase in local
401 human presence might be expected. It is interesting that microcharcoal frequencies fall sharply
402 during the episode at the end of zone PW-c correlated with the 4200 cal BP event, supporting
403 theories of greatly reduced human activity throughout the Taihu plain. The non-arboreal pollen
404 and the NPPs indicate deeper water at this time, with *Gloeotrichia* abundant and replacing
405 *Pediastrum* as a deeper and cooler but perhaps more eutrophic (van Geel et al., 1996) aquatic
406 environment developed. Some eutrophication due to drainage from agricultural land during the
407 Liangzhu period in zone PW-c might be expected, and low peaks of *Anabaena* would support
408 this (van Geel et al., 1994; Hillbrand et al., 2014), although the major bloom in *Gloeotrichia*

409 would suppress the abundance of the light-demanding *Anabaena*. *Gloeotrichia* might also have
410 been favoured by rising water levels and thus clearer water at this time, being favoured by
411 increased light levels (Chmura et al., 2006). Presumably Pingwang was subsumed within the
412 expanded water bodies of Taihu and the other lakes in the area which came into being after 4600
413 cal BP (Wang et al., 2001; Zong et al., 2012a, b), following significantly increased rainfall and
414 drainage discharge from the Yangtze valley (Long et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2014).

415

416 5.3.2. Climatic or human influence

417

418 The arboreal pollen curves at Pingwang record woodland history all through the mid-
419 Holocene Megathermal, across the Late Holocene transition and into recent times, and providing
420 evidence from beyond the local aquatic environments at Pingwang. The expansion of conifers,
421 mainly *Pinus*, and the decline of subtropical evergreens after ca 5400 cal BP is very clear and is
422 the important feature of the vegetation history. In this respect it records the gradual onset of the
423 Neoglacial in eastern China at this time as recorded in other sites (Zhong et al., 2010). The
424 choice of the Pingwang site was designed to reduce the human element in woodland history as
425 far as possible, as there are no records of significant Neolithic settlement near the site, even at
426 the time of the greatest Liangzhu expansion. A complete absence of human influence on the site
427 cannot be assumed, however, as there would be few areas beyond all human activity in the
428 intensively settled Taihu lowland, if any, even the constantly flooded Pingwang locality. The
429 complete absence of any big grass pollen grains that could be attributed to rice in the Pingwang
430 pollen record, however, suggests that the site was well away from any cultivation throughout the
431 Neolithic period. There are also no NPP indicators of pastoral farming and concentrations of

432 livestock such as the dung fungi *Sporormiella* or *Podospora*, as were found near the early
433 Neolithic agricultural settlement at Kuahuqiao (Zong et al., 2007; Innes et al., 2009). All are
434 absent from Pingwang, and virtually all NPPs reflect wetland environments. It is possible that the
435 rise in *Pinus* and Moraceae frequencies during zone PW-c might have been caused by
436 regeneration of secondary woodland after forest clearance in this lower Yangtze region (Huang
437 and Zhang, 2000; Chen et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010b), as this is the main Liangzhu settlement and
438 farming period and area, and some authors have reported extensive forest clearance and
439 agricultural intensification in the Late Neolithic in the lower Yangtze catchment between 5000
440 and 4200 cal BP, when it abruptly stopped (Yasuda et al., 2004; Zhuang et al., 2014). Liu (1988),
441 Liu et al. (1992), Liu and Qiu (1994) and Okuda et al. (2003) have suggested that both climatic
442 cooling and human disturbance may have contributed to the late Holocene *Pinus* rise in the lower
443 Yangtze. This cannot be the case at Pingwang, however, where effects of significant forest
444 clearance would be visible in the pollen record, even if none took place near to the site. During
445 zone PW-c, when the Liangzhu culture was flourishing, tree pollen values generally remain high,
446 with no increase in non-tree pollen that might indicate deforestation. The rise of Moraceae in
447 zone PW-c is strange, however, if subtropical tree genera were in progressive decline. It is
448 possible that Moraceae genera, mainly secondary trees, were increasing locally in successional
449 woodlands as populations of *Cyclobalanopsis* and *Castanopsis/Lithocarpus* declined. An
450 alternative, however, is that the Moraceae curve reflects human activity of a particular kind,
451 taking advantage of the extensive water body at Pingwang. Retting of cannabis for fibres (e.g.
452 Schofield and Waller, 2005) in the shallow lake edges could account for the increase in
453 Moraceae pollen when subtropical genera are otherwise in decline. Moraceae frequencies are
454 also high in zone PW-d, in later prehistory, when human activity might also be expected,

455 although there remains no sign of rice agriculture. Similar high Moraceae frequencies attributed
456 to human activity have been recorded elsewhere in the Taihu region (Itzstein-Davey et al.,
457 2007b). It is interesting that Moraceae percentages fall abruptly at the end of zone PW-c, during
458 the end-Neolithic cold phase and cultural hiatus, before recovering later. This would support
459 both the origin of the Moraceae pollen in a human activity and the effectiveness of the ca. 4200
460 cal BP cold phase in temporarily stopping it, along with all other human activity and settlement
461 in the Taihu plain.

462 The percentage representation of temperate trees, including the forest co-dominant *Quercus*,
463 is almost unchanged throughout the Pingwang pollen profile, and forest composition changes are
464 caused dominantly by the replacement of sub-tropical genera by cold-tolerant trees, mainly
465 conifers. It is unreasonable to suggest that human land clearance for farming would have affected
466 only sub-tropical trees and leave unscathed the deciduous temperate trees, especially the
467 abundant oaks, that grew alongside them in the mixed forest. Only climate change and colder
468 conditions can account for the direct replacement of the sub-tropical component of the forest by
469 pine and other conifers. Although closer to the lower end of their temperature tolerance ranges,
470 the deciduous temperate trees like *Quercus* could withstand the new colder environment and
471 survive, whereas the sub-tropical genera could not. Given a competitive advantage by the colder
472 climate, conifers moved in to occupy the place in the forest community vacated by the
473 subtropical evergreens, particularly after the abrupt shift to the Neoglacial at ca 4200 cal BP,
474 while the proportion of temperate deciduous trees remained unchanged.

475 **6. Conclusions**

476 The profile from Pingwang in the centre of the Taihu coastal plain contains no pollen evidence of
477 cultivation, other forms of human land-use or clearance of woodland, except perhaps for the
478 equivocal evidence of a slight increase in open ground weeds after ca 2500 cal BP. Certainly
479 there is no indication of agricultural activity there throughout the Late Neolithic, despite the
480 intensive settlement and agricultural use of the Taihu lowlands by the Liangzhu culture. Because
481 of its palaeogeography, Pingwang therefore provides a record of sub-regional forest history,
482 uncomplicated by local human activity, unless the Moraceae pollen curve indicates fibre
483 processing in the lake. It shows very clearly the rise of *Pinus* and other conifers after ca 5400 cal
484 BP, and the rapid acceleration of that rise at ca 4200 cal BP. These two dates agree very well
485 with the timings of the onset of climatic deterioration and its severe intensification noted around
486 the globe (e.g. Geirsdóttir et al., 2013). It also clarifies the reasons for that radical transformation
487 of the forests of the lower Yangtze region, and by extension for the same changes in forest
488 composition that can be seen throughout eastern China at this time, with change beginning at ca
489 5400 cal BP. Although it has been suggested previously that the rise of pine and other
490 successional tree taxa in the Late Neolithic might have resulted from regeneration after major
491 deforestation for agriculture, the Pingwang data make clear that the gradual and then sudden
492 switch to a cold Neoglacial climate can account for the forest changes observed in regional
493 vegetation history. The increased dominance of fully aquatic conditions across the Late
494 Holocene transition at Pingwang is shown particularly clearly by the NPP results and accords
495 with the evidence from several other Yangtze valley sites for severe flooding events at this time.
496 It supports the hypothesis that severe and regular freshwater flooding or rising local water level
497 (Stanley et al., 1999; Zong et al., 2012a; Long et al., 2014) on the Taihu plain, allied to
498 significantly lower temperatures, is the explanation for the collapse of the Liangzhu culture, as

499 well as other Late Neolithic cultures of the Yangtze valley, at ca 4200 cal BP. The abrupt switch
500 to such adverse conditions would have made organised rice farming and complex settlement
501 virtually impossible until a measure of climatic amelioration occurred some centuries later.

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507

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1237 Table 1. Lithostratigraphy at Pingwang (30° 57' 30"N; 120° 38' 25"E; altitude 1.6 m YSD)

Depth (m)	Descriptions
0.00 – 0.45	Paddy field soils
0.45 – 1.10	Brown to yellowish grey, hard to firm, clay
1.10 – 1.25	Blackish grey, soft, clay
1.25 – 1.80	Greenish grey, soft, clay
1.80 – 2.10	Brownish grey, soft, organic rich clay
2.10 – 3.10	Dark grey, soft, organic rich clay with small shells found in upper part
3.10 – 3.70	Greenish grey, soft, silt and clay
3.70 – 3.80	Blackish brown peat
3.80 – 4.00	Sticky hard clay (pre-Holocene)

1238

1239 Table 2. AMS Radiocarbon dates at Pingwang. Calibrated results are shown, using the Calib6.1

1240 and IntCal09 programmes (Reimer et al., 2009). There is an inversion in the bottom two dates,

1241 but based on regional pollen and radiocarbon data Beta-253340 is more likely to be correct.

1242

Depth (m)	Dated material	¹⁴ C date (a BP)	Calibrated age range (cal BP) (2σ)	Mid-point age (cal BP)	Laboratory code
1.59-1.61	pollen residue	2700±40	2750-2869	2810±60	Beta-255432
1.85-1.87	pollen residue	4430±40	4872-5280	5076±204	Beta-266433
2.25-2.27	plant macrofossil	4720±40	5324-5584	5454±130	Beta-243208
3.20-3.22	pollen residue	6800±50	7573-7724	7649.5±75.5	Beta-253340
3.75-3.77	peat	6290±50	7026-7322	7174±148	Beta-228442

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1245 Captions to figures

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1247 Fig. 1. Location of the study area, around Taihu lake in the Yangtze coastal plain, showing the
1248 topography and the position of other, smaller lakes, the barrier ridges to the east that protect the
1249 plain from the sea, and the location of the coring site at Pingwang. Figures 1a and 1b show the
1250 distribution of the main Late Neolithic archaeological sites of the Liangzhu and Maqiao cultures.

1251

1252 Fig. 2. Percentage tree and shrub pollen diagram from Pingwang. Frequencies are calculated as
1253 percentages of the total tree and shrub sum, with major stages in vegetation history and summary
1254 curves for ecological groupings also shown. Calibrated radiocarbon age ranges before present
1255 (cal BP) are shown on the left of the diagram, which is zoned at major changes in the tree and
1256 shrub pollen curves using the CONISS program. The timings of the following major
1257 environmental events are shown on the diagram. 1: Early in the mid-Holocene Megathermal 2:
1258 The end of major saline estuarine influence at the site (after Zong et al., 2011) 3: The maximum
1259 of the Megathermal optimum 4: The start of the climatic decline towards the Late Holocene 5:
1260 Abrupt climate deterioration ca 4200 cal BP. Depths are in centimetres below present ground
1261 surface.

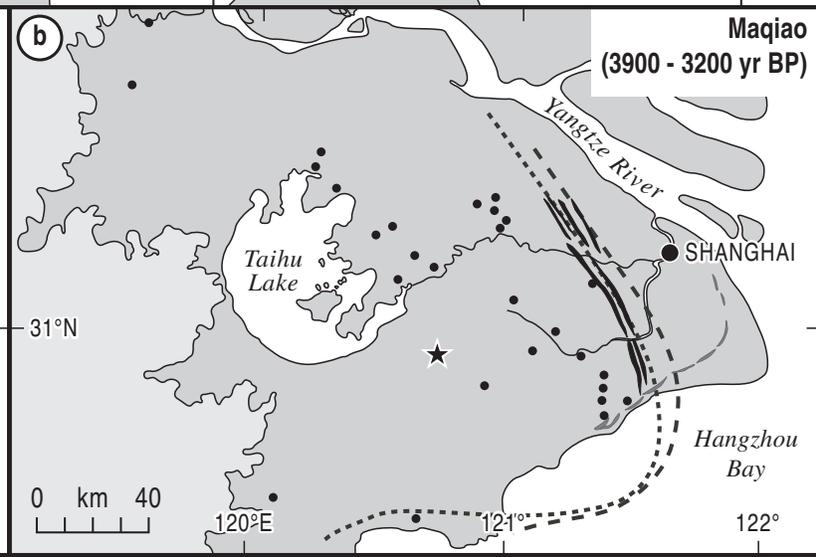
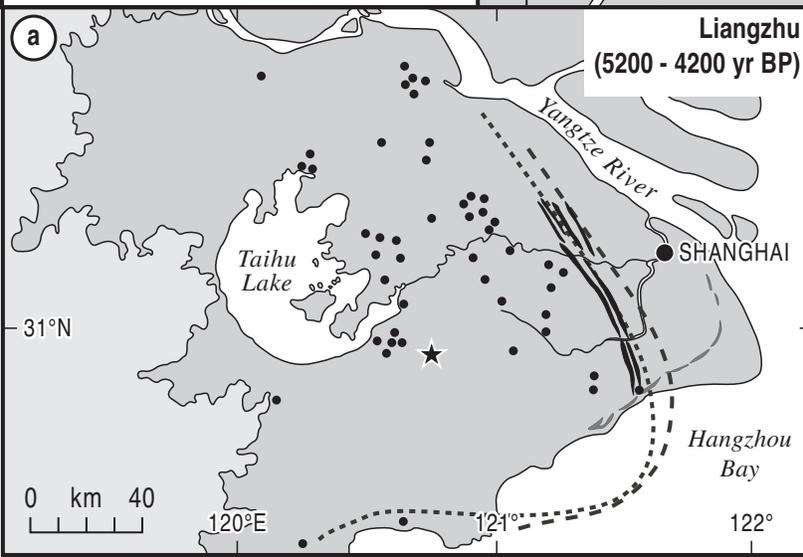
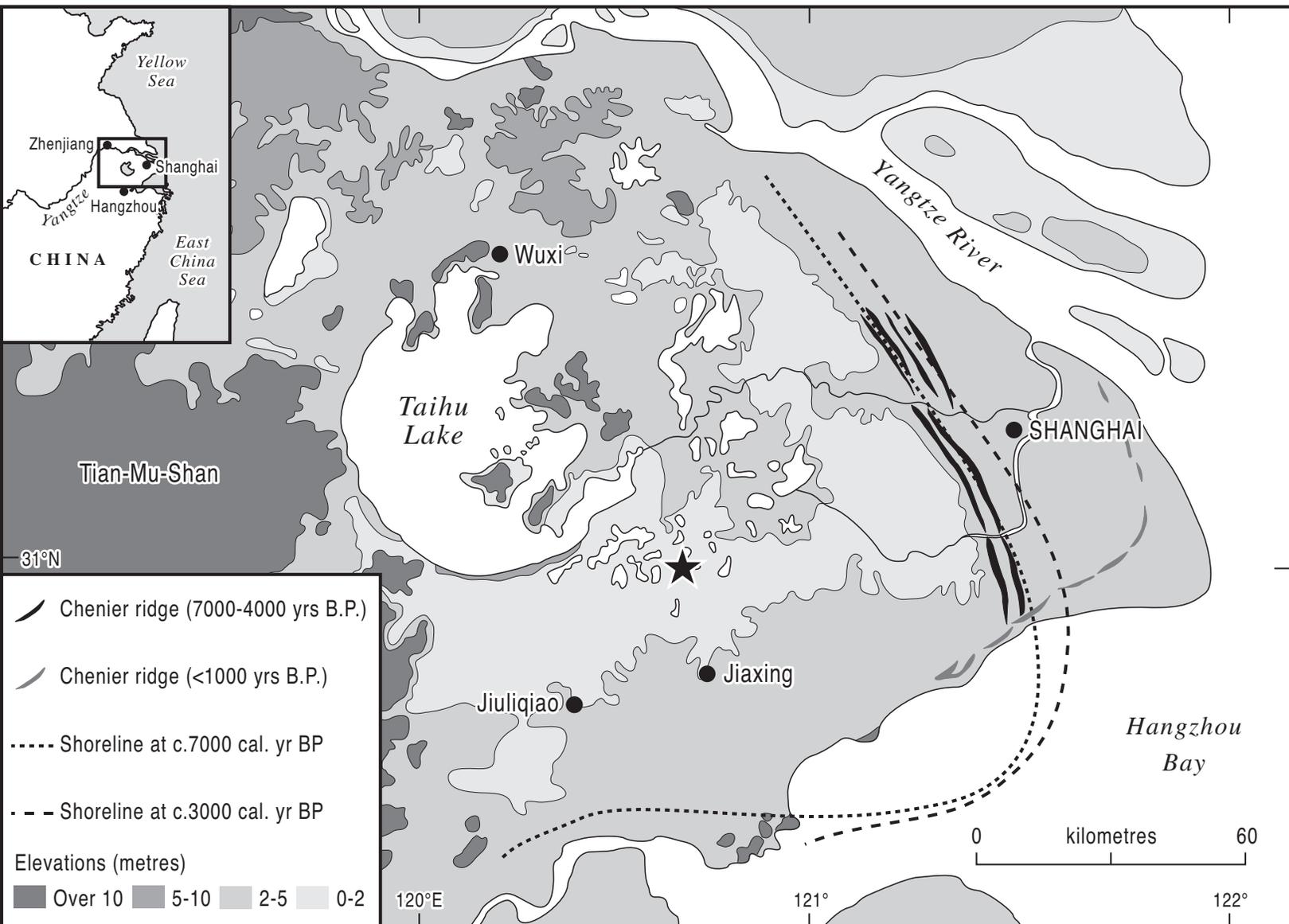
1262

1263 Fig. 3. Percentage herb pollen and pteridophyte spore diagram from Pingwang, frequencies
1264 calculated as percentages of the total tree and shrub pollen sum. Diagram zonation, calibrated
1265 radiocarbon dates and environmental events follow Fig. 2. Depths are in centimetres below
1266 present ground surface.

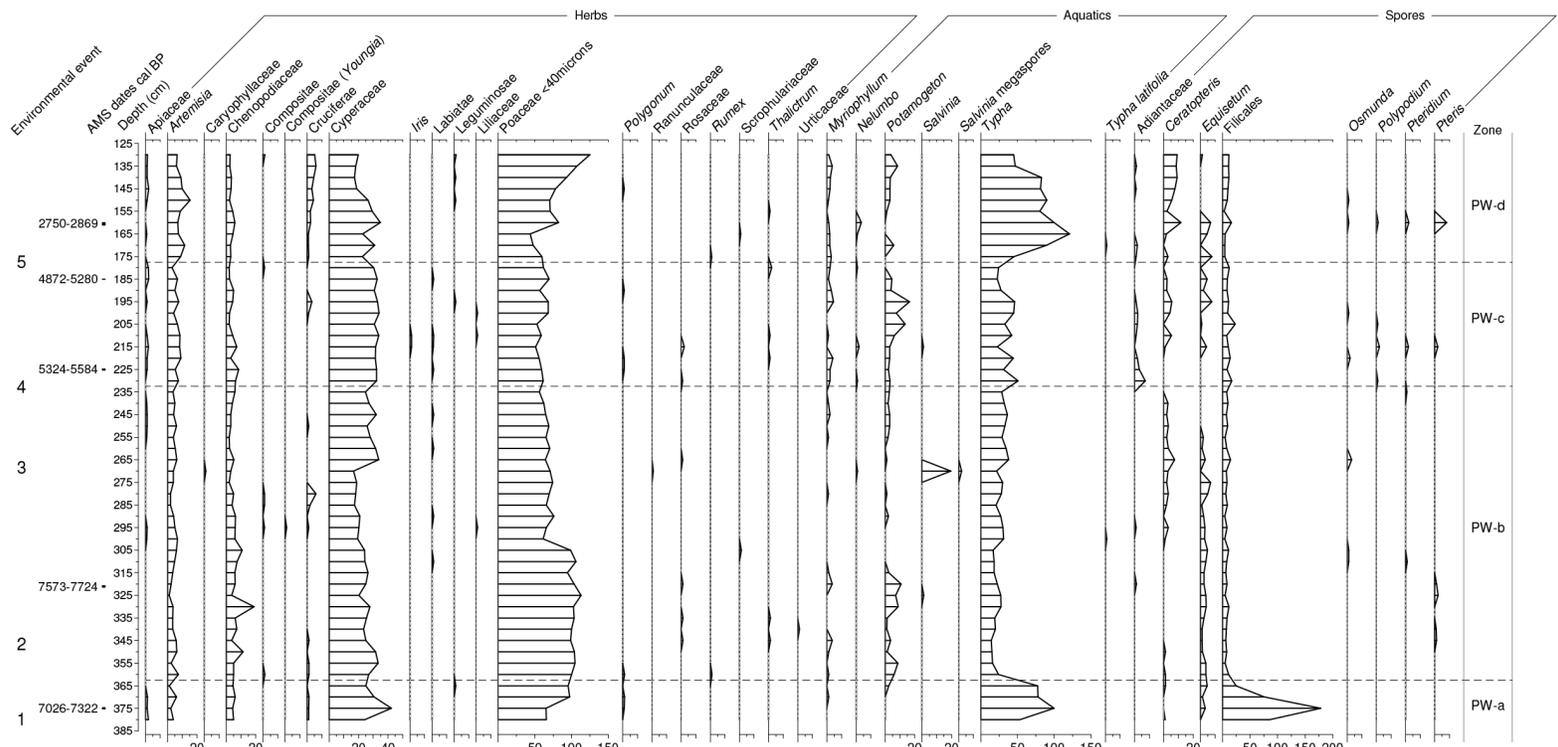
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1268 Fig. 4 Percentage non-pollen palynomorph (NPP) diagram from Pingwang. NPPs and
1269 microscopic charcoal fragment (microcharcoal) frequencies are shown as percentages of the tree
1270 and shrub pollen sum. X axis NPP type numbers refer to the catalogue of the Hugo de Vries
1271 laboratory, Amsterdam, and where taxon names are unknown they are assigned the prefix HdV.
1272 Diagram zonation, radiocarbon dates and environmental events follow Fig. 2. Depths are in
1273 centimetres below present ground surface.
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*Figure



*Figure



*Figure

