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ABSOLUTE CHRONOLOGY OF FLUVIAL EVENTS IN THE UPPER DNIEPER RIVER SYSTEM AND ITS PALAEOGEOGRAPHIC IMPLICATIONS

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Abstract: A set of 121 radiocarbon and OSL dates has been compiled from the Upper Dnieper River and tributary valleys, Western European Russia. Each date was attributed according to geomorphic/sedimentological events and classes of fluvial activity. Summed probability density functions for each class were used to establish phases of increasing and reducing fluvial activity. The oldest detected reduction of fluvial activity was probably due to glacial damming at LGM. Within the Holocene three palaeohydrological epochs of millennial-scale were found: (1) high activity at 12,000-8,000 cal BP marked by large river palaeochannels; (2) low activity at 8,000-3,000 cal BP marked by formation of zonal-type soils on -floodplains; short episodes of high floods occurred between 6,500-4,400 cal BP; (3) contrasting hydrological oscillations since 3,000 cal BP with periods of high floods between 3,000-2,300 (2,000) and 900-100 cal BP separated by long interval of low floods 2,300 (2,000)–900 cal BP when floodplains were not inundated — zonal-type soils were developing and permanent settlements existed on floodplains. In the last millennium, four centennialscale intervals were found: high flooding intervals are mid-11-mid-15th century and mid-17-mid-20th 19th century. Intervals of flood activity similar to the present-day were: mid-15-mid-17th century and since mid-19th century till present. In the context of palaeohydrological changes, discussed are selected palaeogeographic issues such as: position of the glacial boundary at LGM, role of changing amounts of river runoff in the Black Sea level changes, floodplain occupation by Early Medieval population.

Keywords: glacial damming, Holocene palaeohydrology, palaeofloods, buried floodplain soils, Dnieper River, Black Sea.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, large arrays of absolute age determinations have been widely used to extract geomorphic and hydrologic signals from the past. Frequency distribution of radiocarbon dates from river floodplains provided uncovering periods of active sedimentation (alluviation) and high flooding in Britain (Macklin and Lewin, 1993, 2003), Spain (Thorndycraft and Benito, 2006), Poland (Starkel et al., 2006) and Germany (Hoffmann et al., 2008). Revelation of river regime variations in the Holocene based on statistical treatment of radiocarbon dates has become a tool for correlation of palaeohydrological phenomena at sub-continental scale (Macklin et al., 2006) and studying hydrological responses to climate and land use changes (Macklin et al., 2005; Johnstone et al., 2006; Starkel et al., 2006; Hoffmann et al., 2008).

Since the late 1990s, a big collection of absolute age determinations has been accumulated from the Upper Dnieper river and its tributaries within the Smolensk Region (Russia). Dnieper is the third largest river in Europe with today's length of 2200 km (2290 km before construction of reservoirs) and catchment area of 512 000 km², which discharges into the Black Sea on average 53 km³ of water annually (Sukhodolov *et al.*, 2009). Dnieper starts in the Valdai Hills in North-Western Russia along with Rivers Volga and Western Dvina (Daugava) that flow to the Caspian Sea and Baltic Sea respectively (**Fig. 1**). Due to its geographic position at the triple divide, the Upper Dnieper fluvial system has being involved into palaeoenvironmental context far outside the catchment boundaries (**Fig. 1**).

Fluvial history of the Dnieper River and its tributaries has been studied in Byelorussia (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992, 1998; Kalicki 1995, 2006; Kalicki *et al.*, 2008), in the Dnieper's left tributary catchments (Panin *et al.*, 2001; Borisova *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless, a systematic

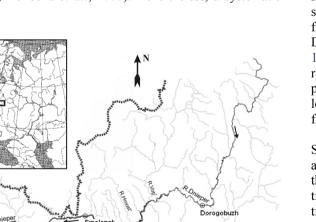


Fig. 1. Dashed line — ice sheet margin during LGM (after Barashkova et al., 1998).

chronology of fluvial events in the Dnieper River system has not been proposed yet. Not the last reason why it has not been done is the lack of absolute chronology data that had existed till now. In the last decade, a large number of radiocarbon and OSL dates have been obtained by the authors. This data set when statistically treated is potentially perspective to obtain information on fluvial history which value extends beyond the Dnieper river system itself. In this paper we aim at geomorphic and palaeohydrologic evaluation of these dates, establishing chronology of fluvial events and linking it to regional palaeogeographic context, namely the LGM and postglacial delivery of freshwater to the Black and Caspian Seas and river regime in the Holocene.

2. STUDY SITE

At Smolensk the Upper Dnieper River has catchment area of 14 100 km², mean annual discharge 97 m³/s, mean maximum discharge 1990 m³/s. Seasonal amplitude of river level reaches 10 m with highest levels occurring during the spring snowmelt flood and low water seasons in summer and winter. River channel makes irregular meanders divided by long relatively straight segments (**Fig. 2**).

The Dnieper River valley at its upper course was formed in the end of OIS-6 after the territory was left by the Moscovian (Late Saalian) ice sheet. In the Early Valdai (Early Vistulian, OIS-4) epoch the ice margin was far from the valley, but during the Late Valdai (Late Vistulian, OIS-2) time valley was subject to direct influence of the ice sheet. During the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 23-20 ka cal BP) the ice margin was located in the vicinity of the upper Dnieper valley (Fig. 1). Upstream from Smolensk it stayed 50-70 km to north/north-west from the valley. Glacial melt waters were transported to the Dnieper valley via its right tributaries — rivers Vop', Hmost', etc. and contributed much both to water and to sediment discharge of the Dnieper River. Downstream from Smolensk the LGM ice margin approached the Dnieper valley and according to some authors (Salov, 1972; Kvasov, 1979) could have crossed the valley which resulted in formation of a glacial dammed lake. Well pronounced esker/kame ridge lying across the right-side low river terrace at the Katyn' town 15 km downstream from Smolensk (Fig. 2) supports this view.

Clear alluvial surfaces at the valley reach around Smolensk are presented by the low terrace (10-14 m above the river) and floodplain (5–9 m). Morphology of the low terrace provides its subdivision into two generations of different ages that do not clearly differ in elevation but can be designated in surface morphology and cover sediments (**Fig. 2**). The older part of the terrace has low relief and unclear fluvial topography and is covered by a thin (typically <1 m) shawl of loess-like silts. There are not absolute dates from channel alluvium of this terrace, but its blocking by glacio-fluvial ridge at Katyn'

10 20 30 km

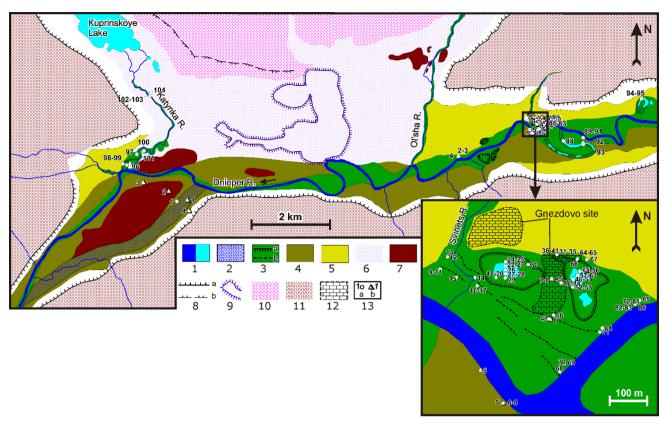


Fig. 2. Geomorphic map of a selected section of the Upper Dnieper valley with location of dated cores and exposures. Numbers correspond to date numbers in Tables 1 and 2.

Legend: 1 — modern hydrographic objects: Dnieper river channel, lakes, small rivers; 2 — palaeochannels; 3 — floodplain terrace (5-9 m) with individual topographic elements (a — erosion pits, b — levees); 4 — 10–13 m loess-devoid terrace (Late Glacial — Early Holocene); 5 — 10–14 m loess-covered terrace (LGM); 6 — alluvial valley bottoms reworked by glacio-fluvial processes (LGM); 7 — erosion remnants composed of glacial tills of different ages; 8 — valley shoulders and valley sides (a — contemporary, b — pre-LGM, visible through glacial/glacio-fluvial sedimentary cover); 9 — glacio-fluvial ridges (eskers), LGM; 10 — morain terrain of the Late Valdaian glaciation (MIS 2); 11 — partly reworked morain/glacio-gluvial terrain of the Moscovian glaciation (MIS 6); 12 — living space of the Gnezdovo Early Medieval settlement; 13 — location of dated samples (a — ^{14}C , b — OSL) and their numbers in Tables 1, 2.

Note: elevation of river terrace are related to the Dnieper valley and expressed in meters above the river at typical low-water stage.

confirms its LGM age The younger part of the low terrace at Smolensk bears clear levee-hollow topography with up to 3 m relief. It was dated to the Late Glacial — Early Holocene time (this study). The 10 m Dnieper terrace some 100 km downstream Smolensk at the Orsha city (Byelorussia) has also post-LGM age as follows from the radiocarbon date of 17150 ± 300 BP (uncal) that was obtained from lacustrine silts underlying terrace alluvium (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992).

Floodplain at the Smolensk section of the valley contains only few palaeochannels (**Fig. 2**), but bears also large erosion pits that evidence powerful palaeofloods (**Fig. 2**, inset). These features are characteristic for the older (Mid-Holocene) part of the floodplain, which outside these forms exhibits low-relief surface smoothed by overbank sedimentation. The Late Holocene floodplain is featured by levee-hollow topography produced by active lateral migration of the channel. Both generations of the floodplain constitute the major archives of the river Holocene palaeohydroogy both in their sedimentology (buried soils and overbank alluvium) and geomorphic features which parameters allow their interpretation in palaeohydrological terms.

3. METHODS

The study has been conducted in three stages.

Stage 1. Collection of the data base. The gathered set of dates refers to the Russian part of the Upper Dnieper and tributary valleys. A big part of them was obtained at a short valley segment downstream from Smolensk during the multi-disciplinary research of the Gnezdovo archaeological site, an Early Medieval Scandinavian settlement in the Dnieper valley, one of key stops at the trade route "from Varangians to the Greeks" that was linking Scandinavia and the Byzantine Empire. All dates have been verified by independent data — sedimentary and geomorphic settings, pollen analysis of sediments. The dates that do not correspond to local stratigraphy, including inverse dates, were excluded from further analysis. In total, there remained 121 entries: 110 radiocarbon (**Table 1**) and 11 OSL dates (**Table 2**). Few of them have already been published elsewhere but most of the dates have so far been presented in technical reports and conference abstracts only. The majority of the dates are published here in a paper form for the first time.

To avoid bias generated by land use and disturbance of natural sedimentary contexts, dates directly correlated with archaeological sites have been excluded from analysis in some studies (Macklin and Lewin, 2003; Hoffman *et al.*, 2008). In the Upper Dnieper catchment cultural layers from Early Medieval settlements located on river floodplains can be clearly associated with sedimentation history as their economical and living patterns revealed by archaeologists (Pushkina *et al.*, 2001; Murasheva *et al.*, 2009) evidence that they existed in the absence of flooding. We therefore do use the dates from cultural layers of permanent settlements to specify temporal limits of low flooding intervals.

Stage 2. Division of dates into classes according to *fluvial activity*. There have been several approaches proposed to classify absolute dates in terms of fluvial dynamics and/or palaeoflood hydrology.

- The "active" "passive" dates approach with the 1) former ones presenting any sediment that is accumulated in fluvial environment, and the latter exhibiting time spans with no minerogenic sedimentation occurring (ex., dates on peats or buried soils). This approach was used to find the chronology of erosion events on slopes, gullies and dry valleys, i.e. in simply organized one-dimensional erosion/sedimentation systems (Lang, 2003; Panin et al., 2009). In riverine environments this approach is applicable if sedimentation is known for its discontinued temporal pattern. This is true for bedrock channels where any date from slackwater deposits indicates an extreme flood event (Harden et al., 2010). Alluvial channels require a more sophisticated procedure.
- 2) The "change" dates approach. It consists in separating dates into different depositional environments (channel deposits, abandoned channels, overbank sedimentation, flood basins) and extracting ones that relate to geomorphologically significant changes in river activity within each group (Macklin and Lewin, 2003). Such dates called "change dates" (Macklin *et al.*, 2006) refer, for example, to overbank sediments that bury floodplain soils or floodplain mire peats. Thorndycraft and Benito (2006) complement the above list of depositional environments with slackwater flood deposits. This approach allows identifying major flood episodes and periods of low flood activity as troughs in flood record.
- 3) The facial interpretation of dated sediments in terms of fluvial activity/stability (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2008).

The advantage of this approach is that a large data set on geomorphic results of river flooding can be used such as dates on channel avulsions. Further development of this approach consists in accounting for sedimentary context with separate processing of dates from within the alluvial units (change dates the ones taken from the base of alluvial unit, the midpoint dates — those taken from middle of alluvial sequence) and the dates that bracket sedimentation events --- "bracketing dates" (Thorndycraft and Benito, 2006). The 8-member classification of depositional environments in Starkel et al. (2006) combines the sedimentary environment and sedimentary context (relation of date to flood event). Observations on recent floodplain accretion reveal strong dependence of sedimentation rates on site position relative to the river (Golosov, 2009; Belyaev et al., 2013; etc.). Therefore, in order to be able to interpret changes in floodplain accretion rate in terms of flooding history, lateral migration of river channel should be taken into account.

To use advantages of each of the above approaches we tried to put each date into the context of specific hydrologic event or state of river channel in comparison to the present. This task was achievable due to the authors having collected almost all of the dated samples themselves and being aware of the details of section/ core location. We grouped all the dates into three classes of fluvial activity with the present-day river regime, sedimentation style and channel parameters taken as the reference. Each activity class was designated from the following geomorphic and sedimentation indications, some of them being rather widespread (such as buried soils), the others being specific for the studied valley reaches:

- 1) Low activity (LA) indicated by:
 - a) overbank sedimentation is weak or not occurring at all (floodplain peats, well developed soils);
 - b) small size of river palaeochannels;
 - c) lacustrine environments over the valley bottom (oxbows are not included).
- 2) Medium activity (MA), *i.e.* geomorphic and sedimentation events which magnitude is similar to that of the present-day river:
 - a) active overbank sedimentation at low floodplain levels, in floodplain hollows and in palaeochannels with limited sedimentation at high floodplain levels;
 - b) channel size and pattern similar to the present-day channel;
 - c) lateral river migrations of modern rate and type.
- 3) High activity (HA):
 - a) unusually active overbank sedimentation;
 - b) erosion over valley bottoms produced by extremely powerful floods;
 - c) large palaeochannels.

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IGAN-3310	IGAN-3752 IGAN-3729	IGAN-3727	IGAN-3309 IGAN-3317	IGAN-3750 IGAN-3751	IGAN-2645	IGAN-2644	IGAN-2615	IGAN-2614	IGAN-3829 IGAN-3832	IGAN-3943	LU-6108	GIN-14611	LU-5864	IGAN-3273	IGAN-3331	IGAN-3311	GIN-14615	GIN-14614	GIN-14370	GIN-14374	IGAN-2265	IGAN-2545	IGAN-2546	GIN-14375	River Dniener	Index	
750 ± 70	110 ± 70 640 ± 70	450 ± 80	/ 50 ± /0 1700 ± 90	500 ± 80 820 ± 70	1890 ± 30	840 ± 40	760 ± 40	1040 ± 90	390 ± 90 780 ± 70	760 ± 100	1260 ± 80	1580 ± 30	1130 ± 80	1160 ± 100	1050 ± 50	920 ± 30	21500 ± 650	9460 ± 90	10120 ± 70	1520 ± 280	1200 ± 100	940 ± 90	90 ± 30	7450 ± 320	,	14C age (BP)	
1200AD-1380AD	1680AD-1930AD 1280AD-1440AD	1400AD-1620AD	1200AD-1380AD 220AD-510AD	1310AD-1470AD 1150AD-1280AD	60AD-140AD	1160AD-1260AD	1220AD-1280AD	890AD-1150AD	1440AD-1640AD 1180AD-1290AD	1150AD-1390AD	660AD870AD	430AD-540AD	780AD-990AD	770AD-990AD	890AD-1030AD	1040AD-1160AD	24780BC-22990BC	9120BC8620BC	10020BC-9550BC	140AD-780AD	690AD-950AD	1010AD-1190AD	1690AD-1920AD	6660BC5980BC		68.2% interval (BC/AD)	Calibrated age
1250 ± 70	140 ± 90 610 ± 50	470 ± 80	700 ± 70 1610 ± 110	530 ± 80	1830 ± 40	760 ± 50	700 ± 30	960 ± 110	410 ± 90 730 ± 70	720 ± 90	1170 ± 80	1470 ± 40	1060 ± 90	1090 ± 100	970 ± 60	850 ± 40	25910 ± 890	10770 ± 170	11730 ± 170	1480 ± 300	1120 ± 100	850 ± 90	130 ± 80	8330 ± 350		M±s (cal BP)	l age
S040W060	S030W060	S010W060	N007W060	N000W060	Bezdonka- 1-02	Bezdonka- 1-02	Bezdonka- 1-02	Bezdonka- 1-02	GN-11-07 GN-11-07	GN-15-07	Proran-1	SV-1	GN-18-07	GN-1-05	GN-1-05	GN-1-05	GN-10-02	Gn-10-02	Gn-10-02	Gn-10-05	Olsha	P-20-00	P-20-00	Gn-10-21		Name	
54.77778	54.77787 54.77787	54.77804	54.7782 54.7782	54.77813 54.77813	54.77778	54.77778	54.77778	54.77778	54.77762 54.77762	54.77785	54.77784	54.77834	54.77834	54.77807	54.77807	54.77807	54.77468	54.77468	54.77468	54.77555	54.76897	54.76897	54.76897	54.75739		Latitude (°N)	Core/s
31.870146	31.87015 31.87015	31.87015	31.87014 31.87014	31.87013 31.87013	31.86966	31.86966	31.86966	31.86966	31.86889 31.86889	31.86798	31.86885	31.86766	31.86766	31.86735	31.86735	31.86735	31.87013	31.87012	31.87012	31.86911	31.84044	31.84044	31.84044	31.72718		Longitude (°E)	Core/section location
164.5	163.5 163.5	163.5	164.5 164.6	163.0 163.0	164.5	164.5	164.5	164.5	168.5 168.5	168.6	164.3	165.5	165.5	168.5	168.5	168.5	170.5	170.5	170.5	169.0	166.5	166.5	166.5	169.5		Absolute height (m)	on
4.0	3.0 3.0	3.0	4.0 4.0	2.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0 8.0	8.1	3.8	5.0	5.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	8.5	6.0	6.0	6.0	9.5		Elevation above the river (m)	
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1.17–1.25	1.47–1.57 2.46–2.56	3.00-3.10	1.22-1.32 1.80-1.90	1.60-1.66 2.47-2.57	1.50	1.10	0.77	0.70	0.90–1.00 1.07–1.17	1.20	2.00	1.80	1.00-1.05	4.45–4.60	3.50-3.55	1.60-1.65	8.00	5.60-5.70	4.00-4.30	8.00	0.80-1.18	0.72-0.93		2.10-2.20		Depth (m)	Sample
BP	88	B	ይ የ	3 3 3	FB	BP, foot	BP, roof	BP, roof	OB+BS OB+BS, foot	ß	OB	BP	CI+BP, roof	BP	BP+CL	BS	FB	С	сŀ	OB	OB+BS	BS+CL	OB+BS	OB+BP. foot		Stratigraphy ²	Sample characteristics
Ρ	סס	ס	דס	H/B	H/B	P	×	ס	H/B	C	W	W	W	P	<	H/B	V	≤	Μ	C	н	H/B	H/B	P		Dated material ³	ics
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Table 1. Radiocarbon dates from the upper Dnieper River and tributary valleys.

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72 74 75	71	2	6 <u>0</u>	67	66	65 65	63	62	61	60	59	57	56	55	54	53	52	51	50	49	4	41	45	44	43	42	41	40	39	38	37	36	з <u>5</u>	34	မ္သ	32	31	30
LuS-8145 IGAN-3705 LU-5865 LU-6076	IGAN-3835	LU-5869	GIN-14613	Ki-13989	IGAN-1804	IGAN-1801 IGAN-1826	LuS-8788	IGAN-3834	IGAN-3830	LU-5986	111-5985	LuS-8147	IGAN-3732	IGAN-3745	IGAN-3733	IGAN-3325	IGAN-3276	IGAN-3753	LU-5984	IGAN-3744	111-2083	GIN-14377	IGAN-3833	IGAN-2639	IGAN-2646	IGAN-2628	IGAN-2471	IGAN-2469	IGAN-2437	IGAN-2436	IGAN-2434	IGAN-2435	IGAN-2326	IGAN-2325	IGAN-2327	IGAN-2328	IGAN-2329	IGAN-3386
245 ± 100 1260 ± 60 1350 ± 70 1250 ± 60	6540 ± 70	910 ± 80	780 ± 250	2250 ± 150	1120 ± 120	1240 ± 100 1300 ± 60	1895 ± 50	1440 ± 60	1680 ± 80	1120 ± 60	550 + 60	555 ± 120	620 ± 70	80 ± 60	340 ± 90	1390 ± 90	360 ± 50	380 ± 60	960 ± 70	790 ± 60	170 ± 200	1050 + 200	540 ± 60	950 ± 60	1130 ± 30	1140 ± 40	1180 ± 70	1220 ± 120	1140 ± 40	1080 ± 70	1290 ± 60	1150 ± 50	1330 ± 40	1080 ± 90	1870 ± 50	1280 ± 50	1590 ± 60	2360 ± 150
1490AD-1960AD 670AD-860AD 610AD-770AD 680AD-860AD	5620BC-5390BC	1030AD-1190AD	1220AD-1280AD	510BC-50BC	770AD-1030AD	680AD-890AD 660AD-780AD	50AD-210AD	560AD660AD	240AD510AD	820AD-1000AD	1310AD-1440AD	1280AD-1450AD	1290AD-1400AD	1690AD-1920AD	1470AD-1640AD	560AD-770AD	1460AD-1630AD	1440AD-1630AD	1020AD-1160AD	1180AD-1280AD	1300AD-1/00AD	7704D_11704D	1040AD-1230AD	1020AD-1160AD	880AD-980AD	830AD-980AD	770AD-970AD	670AD-940AD	830AD-980AD	880AD-1030AD	660AD-780AD	780AD-970AD	650AD-770AD	780AD-1040AD	80AD-220AD	670AD-780AD	410AD-540AD	760BC-230BC
260 ± 140 1180 ± 70 1260 ± 70 1170 ± 70	7450 ± 70	830 ± 70	710 ± 280	2280 ± 200	1050 ± 130	1150 ± 100 1220 ± 60	1830 ± 60	1350 ± 50	1590 ± 100	1040 ± 70	580 ± 50	560 ± 100	600 ± 40	130 ± 80	370 ± 110	1300 ± 90	410 ± 60	410 ± 60	860 ± 70	730 ± 60		000 ± 30	550 ± 70	850 ± 60	1030 ± 40	1050 ± 60	1110 ± 80	1130 ± 120	1050 ± 60	1010 ± 80	1210 ± 60	1070 ± 70	1250 ± 40	1010 ± 100	1800 ± 60	1210 ± 60	1480 ± 70	2430 ± 200
GN-1-07 GN-1-07 GN-1-07 GN-1-07	GN-3-07	GN-5-07	GN-11-10 GN-11-02	N017E160	P-4	Sedov Sedov	S031E138	S031E138	S031E138	S031E138	S031E130	S031E138	S020E140	S020E140	S020E120	S060E120	S060E120	S040E140	S040E120	S040E120	SUL-2-10	DP_2_10	P-8-0/	P-8-02	P-8-02	P-8-02	P-2-01	P-2-01	P-2-01	P-2-01	P-2-01	P-2-01	P-2-00	P-2-00	P-2-00	P-2-00	P-2-00	BD
54.77723 54.77723 54.77723 54.77723	54.77653	54.77568	54.77572	54.77829	54.77831	54.77831 54.77831	54.77787	54.77787	54.77787	54.77787	54 77787	54.77787 54.77787	54.77796	54.77796	54.77796	54.77758	54.77758	54.77778	54.77778	54.77778	5/ 77778	54 7768	54.///81	54.77776	54.77776	54.77776	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77836	54.77814
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840 ± 70 2510 ± 60 2800 ± 170	960 ± 100	2790 ± 90		100 ±		5890 ± 100	2070 ± 80	830 ± 70	370 ± 80	2290 ± 130	5170 ± 130	1380 ± 100	3130 ± 90	3980 ± 70		3190 ± 350	3120 ± 120	1980 ± 70	2120 ± 110	5200 ± 130	310 ± 70	170 ± 60	2030 ± 60	1820 ± 70	1330 ± 30	550 ± 100	1200 ± 100	2230 ± 40	1530 ± 40	2370 ± 80	2100 ± 60	1340 ±	1870 ±	1850 ±	1200 ±
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0.45 (0.50) 0.58–0.70 0.95 (0.97)	2.20-2.30	3.40		1.80-1.90		2.17-2.27	0.58-0.63	0.34-0.39	1.38	5.85-5.90	4.50-4.80	0.60-0.70	6.10-6.25	3.80-4.10		4.47	3.63–3.66	5.57–5.68	6.00-6.30	2.02-2.06	0.95-0.98	0.59-0.62	3.30-3.90	3.60-4.60	3.20-3.30	2.20-2.48	2.65	6.00	3.10-3.30	5.00-5.10	3.75-3.78	3.58-3.60	3.20-3.23	3.18-3.20	2.99-3.09
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	Index (GdTL)	il ș	1466	1467	1239	1238	1235	1237	1236	1470	1468	1469
	Date (cal yrs BP)	μ	8690 ± 570	8200 ± 440	4690 ± 700	21400 ± 280	1140 ± 140	780 ± 60	590 ± 60	11020 ± 830	10050 ± 670	8850 ± 670
	Equivalent dose (Gy)	È	13.93 ± 0.75	15.77 ± 0.61	7.90 ± 0.11	19.30 ± 0.23	2.71 ± 0.28	2.43 ± 0.13	1.66 ± 0.14	17.50 ± 0.11	17.37 ± 0.96	11 1469 8850 ± 670 19.10 ± 0.13 2.141 ± 0
y/ka)	Effective dose rate (G	Ŀ	1.591 ± 0.57	1.908 ± 0.67	1.653 ± 0.68	0.896 ± 0.42	2.248 ± 0.91	2.89 ± 0.11	2.525 ± 0.99	1+	I I	1+
	Name	2 N	Ch-11-04	Ch-11-05	Gn- 10-24	Gn-10-02	Dp-2/2010	P-8/2010	P-8/2010	Kor-11-02	Kor -11-05	Kor-11-06
G	Latitude (°N)		54.7598	54.7617	54.7553	54.7747	54.7768	54.7778	54.7778	54.9250	54.9166	54.9114
Core/section location	Longitude (°E)		31.7241	31.7138	31.7324	31.8701	31.8721	31.8721	31.8721	32.7230	32.7422	32.7679
ocation	Absolute height (m)	ξA	187	175	173	170.5	168.5	168.5	168	176	195	172
	Elevation above the river (m)		27	15	13	10	8	8	7.5	9	28	ъ
	Geomorphology ¹	; G	R:	Т	-	Т	т	т	т	Ч	ER	ŦP
Sample characteristics	Depth (m)		1.40	1.60-2.00	1.60	9.40	1.40	1.00	0.37	3.20-3.60	1.40-1.45	1.60-1.65
ple pristics	Stratigraphy ²	s	Ae	Ch	SW	FB	OB	OB	OB	Ch	Ae	Ch
Flu eve	post-dated	р						11				
Fluvial events ⁴	dated	3 d	38	33	37	15	31	31	31	33	38	သ
Fluvial activity class ⁵	post-dated	р						-				
ʻity s⁵	dated	d	т :	н	т		т	т	т	н	н	т
	Source ⁶	s	<u> </u>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	→

type characteristic for ower discharges; 14 — debilan activity on safety rendees that indicates dry conditions; 15 — niver damming. 2. Medium activity events: 21 — usual overbank and basin sedimentation; 22 — palaeochannels of modern type and size; 31 — lateral river migrations of modern rate an type. 3. High activity: 31 — active overbank sedimentation on high floodplain levels (coarser grainsize, distinct lamination), 32 — erosion of floodplain surface by flood flows; 33 — large slopewash on valley sides; 38 — aeolian activity that indicates existence of wide channels with extensive sandbars. palaeochannels; 34 — chute cutoffs; 35 — channel type characteristic for higher discharges; 36 — type and rate of lateral river migrations characteristic for higher discharges; 37 — active

⁵ L — low, M — medium (similar to present-day), H — high.

⁶ 1 — this study, 2 — Aleksandrovskiy et.al., 2005, 3 — Bronnikova et.al., 2003, 4 — Bronnikova and Uspenskaya, 2007

We accounted also for indirect features such as:

- d) sand covers blown from the valley from wide alluvial plains formed due to migration of large channels.
- e) active slopewash on valley sides;

For each date its concurrence, pre-dating and postdating of corresponding events was also indicated (see Tables 1, 2). A given date is regarded as concurrent to a fluvial event that produced the dated sedimentary unit. In addition, dates from basal part of a sedimentary unit may also post-date an event that preceded the unit formation. For example, a date from the base of a palaeochannel infill is a post-date for an avulsion event. A date from the top part of a sedimentary unit may also pre-date an event that followed the unit formation. For example, the top of a buried floodplain soil or peat predates the sedimentation event that has buried it. The time offset between ages of the dated sediment and desirable event is usually unknown and may reach several centuries, which should be taken into account while interpreting bracketing dates, particularly at centennial time scale.

Stage 3. Producing integral probability density func-tions.

The high, medium and low activity sets of dates were treated using the Sum function of the OxCal program, version 4.2 [74] (Bronk Ramsey, 2009) with the IntCal'09 calibration curve (Reimer *et al.*, 2009). For the high activity class we analyzed also bracketing dates: those that post-date fluvial events and make their younger constraints, and those pre-dating events and making their older constraints.

The form of the Probability Density Function (PDF) is determined by three arguments: (1) frequency distribution of studied events, (2) the young age bias — rising trend of date frequency in with decreasing age that comes from better preservation of younger sediments and landforms, (3) the form of calibration curve. Of them only the first one represents the wanted signal while the two latter factors make statistical noise. To account for the form of calibration curve Lewin *et al.* (2005) suggested constructing a synthetic regularly spaces data set and subtracting its PDF from the PDF of real data. Hoffmann *et al.* (2008) proposed normalization of PDF for each data group through dividing it by PDF of the complete data set. This procedure permits to eliminate not only the effect of wiggles of the calibration curve, but also the young age bias.

The application of correcting procedures makes sense at time intervals with continuous coverage by computed PDF. Our data set is characterized by repeated gaps beyond the Late Holocene (**Fig. 3**). Therefore we apply the correction proposed by Hoffmann *et al.* (2008) for the time span 3.0–0 ka only. To do that the summed PDFs for each group were divided by the total data set PDF (**Fig. 3**) to obtain relative PDFs (RPDF). RPDF were calculated for the whole time interval but were analyzed only for the last 3 ka.

The PDFs were computed for three classes of fluvial activity (low — LA, medium — MA, high activity — HA) using the respective groups of concurrent dates. OSL and uncalibrated radiocarbon dates were put together in combined data sets using the C_Date and R_Date functions of OxCal. OSL dates were calculated with respect to AD1950, and option "Use BC/AD not BP" was switched to "False". For the high activity class PDFs of the two groups of bracketing dates (pre-dates and post-dates) were also constructed.

All ages in the text are presented in calibrated years before present (cal BP) where 0 cal BP corresponds to AD 1950.

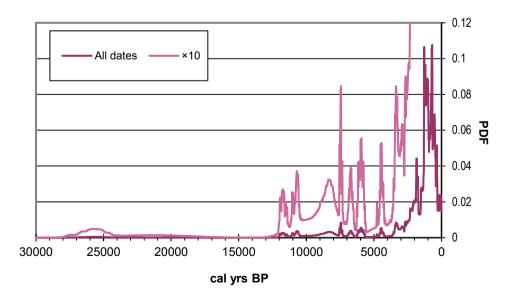


Fig. 3. Probability density function (PDF) of all dates. Note: pre-Holocene time is supplied with only one OSL date 21400 \pm 280 (no.5 in Table 2) obtained from sedimentary units at the base of the Late Glacial – Early Holocene terrace interpreted as sediments of the glacial-dammed lake.

4. RESULTS

There are only two pre-Holocene dates in the data set (no.8 in **Table 1**, no.5 in **Table 2**) that produce a slight rise of PDF in the interval 27–20 ka cal BP (**Fig. 3**). Both dates were attributed to the low activity class. They were obtained from aquatic silts and clays found at the base of low river terrace downstream from Smolensk. These deposits were also found by coring under the Holocene floodplain and present-day point-bars, *i.e.* widely across the valley bottom. Within the generally fine sediments lenses of coarse sand are found evidencing existence of periodical flows in shallow channels probably of braiding or anastomosing type. The sedimentary environment looks like a semi-closed periodically (seasonally?) drained-out lake established in the valley around LGM.

The interval between LGM and the beginning of the Holocene is not characterized by any absolute dating. For the Early Holocene in the interval 12-7.5 ka cal BP, characteristic is high fluvial activity (Fig. 4c). It is supported by dates from large palaeochannels and attendant phenomena (aeolian sand transport from wide alluvial plains) in the Dnieper valley (Table 2 - no.1-3 and 9-11). The younger boundary of this epoch is constrained by low-activity dates at 7.5-6 ka cal BP (Fig. 4a). The extending high-activity epoch into ages younger than 8 ka cal BP is supported only by the OSL date 7160 ± 620 from alluvium of the large palaeochannel at the Chekulino village (no. 1 in Table 2; Fig. 2). The radiocarbon date 8330 ± 350 (no.1 in **Table 1**) from the base of the peat deposits that cover the same palaeochannel and postdate its activity evidences that the above OSL date is too young. Therefore the younger boundary of this highactivity epoch has been shifted to 8 ka cal BP. Individual peaks within the high-activity epoch reflect rather a deficit of data (some 10 dates for the >4-ka period) than any internal variations of fluvial activity. We do admit that this epoch may not be homogeneous, but the small amount of collected data is not sufficient to sub-divide it.

In the period 7.5-6 ka cal BP, several well developed forest-type soils were dated in the floodplains indicating low flood activity (Fig. 4a; Table 1 — no.71, 91, 104). No alluvial sediments have been dated from the interval between 6-4 ka cal BP, which evidences indirectly that the low activity epoch had still been going on. It was interrupted by high activity episodes between 6.0-6.5 and <4.4 ka cal BP (Fig. 4c). These high activity events were found only in tributary valleys (Table 1 - no.99, 96). The latter episode may be correlated to the active slopewash event at the Dnieper valley side dated around 4.7 ka cal BP (Table 2 - no.4). Since 4 ka cal BP the total number of dates increases considerably. Till 3 ka cal BP, prevailing are low- and medium-activity dates. Therefore the interval 7.5-3 ka cal BP may be in general considered as a low fluvial activity epoch with short lasted breaks by high activity episodes that exhibited mostly in tributary valleys of small rivers.

The interval since 3 ka cal BP till present is characterized by occurrence of all activity classes (**Fig. 5**). Sometimes they follow each other, in other cases they overlap, which demand additional comments. For this interval we use relative PDFs (normalized to the total data set) that show a clearer picture than the initial sum of PDFs. The number of dates is sufficient for the designation of some centennial rhythms of fluvial activity.

The first episode of high activity is detected between 2.7 and 3.0 ka. It starts with a decline of the LA PDF and rise of the HA PDF at 3.2–3.0 ka cal BP and ends with a drop of HA RPDF with a concurrent sharp rise of the HA post-date PDF and LA PDF at ~2.7 ka cal BP (**Fig. 5a**, **5c**). A change to more active fluvial development in this interval is illustrated also by the peak of MA RPDF (**Fig. 5b**) which almost mirrors the trough of the LA curve. On the other hand, this MA maximum shows that the activity was not too high.

The period 2.7-1.8 ka cal BP is marked by a prominent flat-topped peak of the HA post-date RPDF Fig. 5c). Its big width evokes doubt that the peak may be totally attributed to the preceding 3.0-2.7 ka rise of HA. All the HA post-dates refer to the base of the sedimentary infill of palaeochannels or ancient flood erosion forms on floodplains in both, Dnieper and its tributary, valleys (Table 1 — nos. 30, 67, 81, 83, 87, 88, 92, 93, 103, 109). The time offset between the age of the lower units of infill and an extreme event responsible for channel chute cutoff or boring large erosion pots on floodplain, may be from several decades to a few centuries, not 700-900 years. Therefore most probably the right (younger) part of the HA post-date peak indicates a separate HA episode, or the sequel of the 3.0-2.7 ka rise, which is not characterized by concurrent dates. Indicative is also the form of LA RPDF with relatively low values around 2.5-2.6 ka and rising trend till 2.3–2.0 ka (Fig. 5a). To a large extent the LA and post-date HA RPDFs are produced here in a big part by the common set of dates: many dates are marked concurrent to LA conditions but post-date HA events. Given that, we infer that the interval about 2.3-2.7 ka cal BP should be designated as an HA episode. In total, the HA phase is limited to 3.0-2.3 ka cal BP. Given the number of dates and geomorphic objects evidencing extreme events, the second half of this interval (2.3-2.7 ka cal BP) was probably characterized by the highest activity.

The subsequent interval of low activity is best exhibited by the LA RPDF that peaks between 2.3-0.9 ka cal BP (**Fig. 5a**). A drop of LA RPDF between 1.0-0.9 ka cal BP corresponds to the initial rise of HA which peaks at 0.6-0.5 ka cal BP (**Fig. 5c**). The whole interval 0.9-0 ka cal BP is characterized by the presence of all activity classes. Most LA dates are taken from the bases and tops of buried organic horizons and both indicate concurrent low flooding and post-date or pre-date high flooding episodes with active mineral sedimentation on floodplains. Therefore in spite of the major contribution from

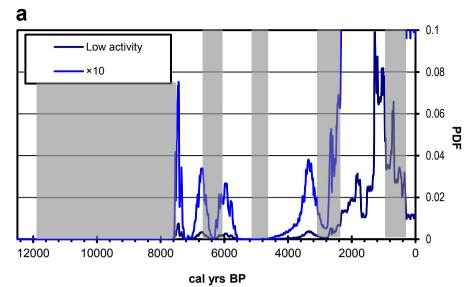
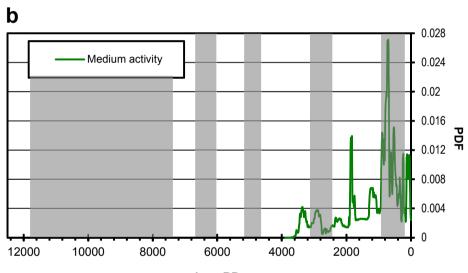
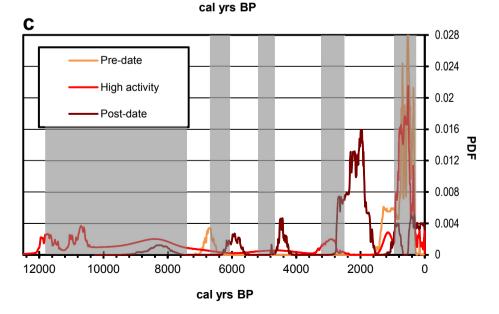
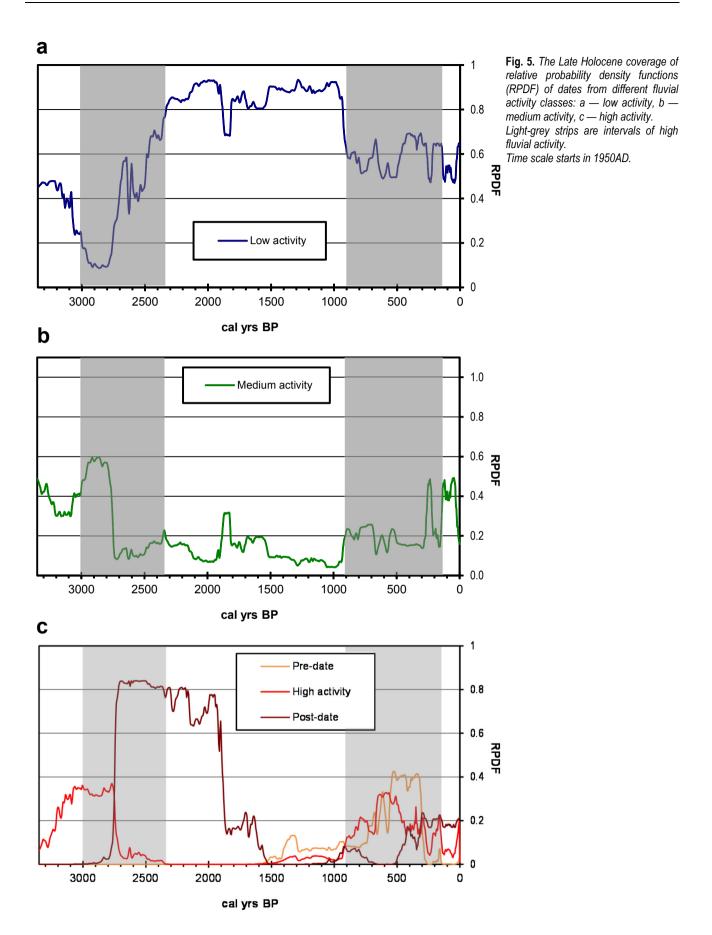


Fig. 4. The Holocene coverage of probability density functions (PDF) of dates from different fluvial activity classes: a — low activity, b — medium activity, c — high activity. Light-grey strips are intervals of high fluvial activity. Time scale starts in 1950AD.







the LA class, we consider this picture as exhibition of irregular chronological structure — alternation of decadal to centennial episodes of high and moderate to low flooding. High flooding intervals may be best drawn from concurrent, pre-dating and post-dating HA RPDF (**Fig. 5c**): 0.9–0.5 ka cal BP (mid-11–mid-15th c.) with the most active phase at 0.6–0.5 ka cal BP (mid-14–mid-15th c.), and 0.3–0.1 ka cal BP (mid-17–mid-19th c.). Obtaining more exact constraints for historical hydrological epochs is not possible because of limited accuracy of radiometric methods.

5. DISCUSSION AND FINAL REMARKS

The findings on the lacustrine environments occurring in the Dnieper valley around LGM contribute to the longlasting discussion on the ice sheet boundary at its maximal stage and its influence on the Dnieper River. The northernmost part of the Dnieper catchment was covered by the Valdaian (Weichselian) glaciation around the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), but the exact position of the LGM ice-sheet boundary is steel debatable. On maps released by Russian Geological Survey the LGM glacial boundary is shown northwards from the Dnieper valley (Stolyarova, 1970; Barashkova et al., 1998). A possible crossing of the Dnieper valley by the Late Valdaian ice sheet proposed by Salov (1972) gave rise to the hypothesis of the Smolensk-Dorogobuzh, or Dnieper, glacial dammed lake that was thought to have overflowed into the Oka-Volga basin and contributed the Pleistocenehighest level rise of the Caspian sea — the Khvalyn' transgression (Kvasov, 1979).

The lacustrine sediments near Smolensk dated to around the LGM support the idea of the ice sheet reaching the valley and promoting formation of the glacialdammed lake. On the other hand, maximal elevation of lacustrine sediments found at Smolensk does not exceed 170 m a.s.l. Traces of flow — sand lenses within the lacustrine fines — speak against the existence of big depths in this lake. Therefore the lake level could not rise to 215 m abs, which according to Kvasov (1979) was necessary for the lake water to have overflowed into the Volga Basin.

The glacial melt water output is regarded as an important governing factor for the post-LGM level changes of the Black Sea (Lericolais *et al.*, 2011; Sidorchuk *et al.*, 2011). Large pulses of glacial-melt waters delivered to the Black Sea have been interpreted from geochemical composition of bottom sediments in the north-western shelf and dated to 18–16 ka cal BP (Major *et al.*, 2006). Traces of this transportation of huge amounts of water were thought to be extremely large braiding palaeochannels of Dnieper found in the Russian and Byelorussian sections of the river from the confluence with the Vop' River downstream to the Rogachov city. Wide and long abandoned channels separated from the modern river by moraine hills similar to that found in the Upper Dnieper

(see **Fig. 2**) were interpreted in the Byelorussian part of the valley as dead valley branches formed by glacial-fed high-discharge river and abandoned after the glacial water inflow had ceased (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992, 1998). Based on specific morphology of these palaeochannels, Kalicki (1995) suggested the new type of disparity between the present-day river and its valley bottom — the Dnieper type of river underfitness.

Glacio-fluvial explanation of the traces of large water flows through the Dnieper valley should now be questioned by the Early Holocene ages (9-7 ka cal BP) of two large palaeochannels presented in this paper. Channel sands from two different palaeochannels at the Chekulino and Korovniki villages were dated by OSL and gave 7160 ± 620 years (no.1 in **Table 2**) and 8850 ± 670 years (no.11 in Table 2), respectively. The former (downstream) palaeochannel surface is 10 m above the river and thus relates to the low terrace level, and the latter (upstream) one lies only 5 m above the river and is subject to inundation by spring floods along with the modern floodplain (Table 2); these differences are probably due to glacioisostatic crustal movements (forebulge rebound). The date 8200 ± 440 years (no.3 in **Table 2**) gives the age of the low terrace at the opposite side of the high erosion remnant (Fig. 2) and indicates the moment of channel avulsion through the relic moraine hill. This avulsion must have been conditioned by high flood stages of the river so that the stream could overflow the hill at its lowest site.

Aeolian sands on top of erosion remnants alongside the large palaeochannel were dated to 8690 ± 570 and 10050 ± 670 years respectively (no.2 and 10 in Table 2). We suppose that aeolian activity in Early Holocene had local character and was maintained by existence of vast bare sand areas in the close vicinity. With respect to confidence intervals, proximity of dates on aeolian sands and alluvial sands from nearby large palaeochannels support that there may have been bars of these palaeochannels to supply sand for aeolian covers. If so dates on aeolian sands indirectly support the Early Holocene formation of large palaeochannels. Another support is from the radiocarbon date 8330 ± 350 cal BP (no.1 in Table 1) derived from the base of the peat lens inset into the palaeochannel whose accumulation must have started shortly after the alluvial activity in the palaeochannel was finished.

The Early Holocene age estimations of the large palaeochannels in the Upper Dnieper imply that formation of these palaeochannels was rather a climatic than glaciofluvial phenomenon and high river runoff that produced these channels had meteoric origin and was climatically driven. It brings up the question of chronology of the high river runoff epoch in Central and Eastern Europe. In the central part of the East European Plain large meandering palaeochannels (macromeanders) were dated between 18 and 13 ka cal BP (Borisova *et al.*, 2006; Sidorchuk *et al.*, 2009). Active development or abandonment of large meanders in various regions of Central Europe were dated to different but in all cases to pre-Holocene times in the range 16–12 ka cal BP: since the Bølling till the end of Younger Dryas in Poland (Szumanski, 1983, 1986; Vandenberghe *et al.*, 1994; Gębica *et al.*, 2009) and Hungary (Kasse *et al.*, 2010), about 15.5 ka cal BP (12.8 ka ¹⁴C BP) in the Lower Danube region (Howard *et al.*, 2004). In southern Poland some rivers did not change their pattern from braiding to large meanders during the Late Glacial and kept braiding to the beginning of the Holocene (Starkel *et al.*, 1996; Gębica, 2011), other rivers transformed from meandering back to braiding in the Younger Dryas (Starkel and Gębica, 1995), but in all cases the Late Glacial phase of increased fluvial had declined almost exactly at the Younger Dryas / Holocene transition (Gębica, 2013).

The Upper Dnieper exhibits the only case of large palaeochannels in Europe to have been dated to the Early Holocene. Both in Poland (Gębica, 2013) and in the European part of Russia (Borisova *et al.*, 2006; Sidorchuk *et al.*, 2012) dated to this time were small palaeochannels whose sizes and consequently river channel-forming discharges were similar to that of present-day rivers. On the other hand, continuation of high runoff from the Late Glacial into the first half of the Holocene has been found in some parts of North America: large river meanders were dated to 12–9.5 ka cal BP in the Great Lakes region (Arbogast *et al.*, 2008) and to 15–5 ka cal BP in the Southeastern USA (Leigh, 2006). It demonstrates principal possibility of large palaeochannel formation in the Holocene, though it has not yet been known in Europe.

The evidence of high runoff production by the Upper Dnieper in the Early Holocene contributes to better understanding the post-glacial level change of the Black Sea which receives the Dnieper's waters. According to Lericolais *et al.* (2010), in the period 13.0–9.5 ka cal BP (11.0–8.5 ka ¹⁴C BP) the Black Sea exhibited regression and low stand, which was followed by rapid ultimate transgression starting immediately after ~9.5 ka cal BP (8.5 ka ¹⁴C BP). According to our results, the Upper Dnieper River had high discharges since the very beginning of the Holocene till about 8 ka cal BP. Therefore it makes unlikely the Black Sea to have kept low stage in the Early Holocene. Even if this lowstand had been really occurring, it could hardly be governed by river runoff decrease as it was proposed in (Lericolais *et al.*, 2010).

The Mid-Holocene at the Upper Dnieper was marked by dominating low fluvial activity at 8–3 ka cal BP marked by formation of zonal-type soils on floodplains, with short episodes of high floods occurred between 6.5– 4.4 ka cal BP. In coincidence with this chronology is the occurrence of buried floodplain soils in the downstream Byelorussian section of the valley dated between 6.5 and 5.5 ka cal BP (¹⁴C dates 5450 ± 170 and 5040 ± 110) (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992, 1998). The Mid-Holocene drop of fluvial activity at the Upper Dnieper was interrupted by period of high floods around the Subboreal-Subatlantic transition. Summary of high and low activity dates provided its constraints between 3.0 and 2.3 ka cal BP, though a number of dates that post-date high-flood events extend to less than 2.0 ka cal BP (**Fig. 5c**). Probably in favor of some younger limit of this high flood epoch is occurrence of buried floodplain soil between Orsha and Shklov dated between 2.3–2.0 ka cal BP (^{14}C date 940 ± 90) (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992, 1998).

Dnieper palaeohydrology in the Middle and Late Holocene corresponds well to changes of water regime in the sources of Volga and Western Dvina rivers catchments, which was estimated from the location of stationary ancient settlements in river valleys (Panin and Nefedov, 2010). In the Neolithic and Bronze Age (8-5 and 5-2.8 ka cal BP, respectively) a big part of settlements was located at the present-day floodplain elevations above rivers, *i.e.* within the action of modern floods. It proves that during these epochs intervals with low floods were prevailing. For the Late Holocene, contrasting hydrological changes were characteristic. In the Early Iron Age (2.8–1.8 ka cal BP), settlements occupied the highest position throughout the Holocene, and the percentage of settlements on low altitudes was minimal, which can be associated with the extremely high flood levels in that time. In the Middle Ages (1.8–0.3 ka cal BP), the percentage of settlements on modern floodplains rose considerably, which indicates the occurrence of long enough time intervals characterized by low floods. In general, this succession of palaeoflood changes is quite similar to that established in this paper in the Upper Dnieper from absolute dating.

Prominent feature of the Late Holocene palaeohydrology is the occurrence of the nearly millennium-long period (since between 2.3 (2.0) ka cal BP) when river floodplains had not been inundated. The Early Medieval lowflood period was reported from all over the central East European Plain (Butakov et al., 2000) with the Upper Dnieper River being the westernmost location. Floodplain inundation at the upper Dnieper resumed around the XII-XIII century boundary (date no.7 in Table 2). Presumably similar chronology has been found in the Dnieper floodplain at Orsha (Byelorussia) where organic and peaty silts on floodplain were buried by overbank silty sands after 940 ± 90 BP (uncal) which has been regarded as the effect of deforestation (Kalicki and Sańko, 1992, 1998; Kalicki et al., 2008). Nevertheless, rough contemporaneity of the rise in flood activity over the centre of the East European Plain evidences rather climatic than anthropogenic factors to be responsible for that. In the south-western regions of the East European Plain chronology of flood activity is some different: in the X-XII century AD a high frequency of floods is reported from the Upper Dniester River basin within the Eastern Carpathian foreland, Western Ukraine (Gebica et al., 2013). On the contrary, low floods at the Upper Dnieper around the 10th century AD promoted establishing stationary settlements on its floodplain such as the above-mentioned Gnezdovo settlement at the portage routes through the Dvina-Dnieper divide.

Gnezdovo flourished in the Dnieper valley in the $9-10^{\text{th}}$ centuries AD. After more than a century lasting archaeological excavations, it was only in 1995 that a large portion of the settlement was unraveled within the Dnieper floodplain (Pushkina *et al.*, 2001). The artifactbearing horizon(s) is buried under 1–3 m of overbank alluvium — the result of flood rise after the settlement decline in the mid-11th century. A covering of the cultural layer with overbank fines had hidden it from archaeologists but, on the other hand, it preserved the artifacts and alluvial stratigraphy in pristine conditions providing opportunities for detailed reconstructions.

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