

2. ARCHIVES AND PROXIES ALONG THE PEP III TRANSECT

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Introduction

The PEP III Transect (Gasse and Battarbee, this volume) spans an immense range of environmental and cultural diversity. It includes regions that have been the cradle of Old World civilisations dating back many millennia, it is home to some of the most advanced and favoured societies on the planet, some of the least hospitable environments and some of the most vulnerable and economically impoverished peoples on earth. Documenting and understanding the ways in which climate has varied across the whole length of the Transect and teasing out the past interactions between climate and human welfare pose immense challenges to the scientific community. Moreover, the challenges encompass themes that are of outstanding practical importance for our future as well as part of our compulsive fascination with the past.

The challenges require us to make full use of the instrumental record of recent climate variability and this is the concern of the first part of this chapter. But that alone does not suffice. Valuable though it is, the brief instrumental record fails to encompass the full range of natural climate variability in both time and space that has characterised the last few thousand years. In order to provide a record of that variability, it is necessary to turn to a whole range of 'archives', both documentary and environmental, and to analyse them using methods that can capture datable and decipherable signals of past variability. For this, we rely largely on what are usually termed 'proxies'. After outlining the scope for instrumentally based climate reconstructions across the whole length of the Transect, the present chapter seeks to give a brief introduction to the archives and proxies that provide

a basis for reconstructing past environmental and climatic variability within the F domain.

The main archives

Instrumental climate records

Instrumental records are a vital part of any research strategy for palaeoenvironmental reconstructions, especially where our interest focuses on time intervals during which the boundary conditions do not differ too greatly from those over which the records are available. Instrumental data (e.g., Vose et al. (1992)) provide a backbone for palaeoclimatology and enable us to quantify objectively how the climate has varied and offer the most statistically robust data from which to establish the spatial coherence of the currently dominant modes of climate variability. Furthermore they provide the basis on which diverse proxies can be calibrated to measured climatic properties, as well as forming a bridge that links the proxy records to the period of present day monitoring. Instrumental records cover a wide range of climatic parameters.

For much of the 20th century climate was viewed as being effectively stationary, only varying slowly over geological time. This static view dominated human decision making. Recently however, the increasing body of evidence from instrumental records of warming temperatures and of changing patterns of precipitation has led to a new dynamic view of climate change. Instrumental observations of the weather have been aggregated to build up detailed records of climate change as far back as the seventeenth century. In recent years many previously forgotten old ledgers have been unearthed and their valuable contents incorporated into climatic databases. Also during the past decade much progress has been made in improving the fidelity of instrumental climate records by removing systematic biases and by gathering together and analysing daily data rather than relying on monthly averages.

Today the vast observational network (surface and upper-air information from radiosondes), largely established for weather forecasting, coupled with satellite sounder and imagery has led to millions of weather observations being made each day. Data are typically recorded at thousands of synoptic and climatological stations on land; hundreds of ships and moored buoys; hundreds of radiosondes and from many satellites. Reanalysis studies, in which daily observations since 1948 have been assimilated into a comprehensive global representation of the daily state of the atmosphere, provide a synthesis of the wealth of instrumental weather data. These retrospective analyses of weather observations have great potential for providing very valuable data sets to researchers in the scientific community. A particularly appealing aspect of reanalysis is that its four-dimensional assimilation and modelling system can transport information from data-rich to data-poor regions, providing internally consistent climatic time-series in observationally sparse localities.

The PEP III pole-to-pole transect is rich in instrumental meteorological reconstruction proxy data. It passes through Europe, the region of the world's longest instrumental record (e.g., Camuffo and Jones (2002)), as well as Sub-Saharan Africa a locality which has experienced some of the most pronounced recent climate change of anywhere on the globe (Nicholson and Grist 2001). The instrumental data available for each of the

III geographical regions of the TS1 (time stream one) science plan (Gasse and Battarbee this volume) are briefly described.

High latitude, high altitude Europe

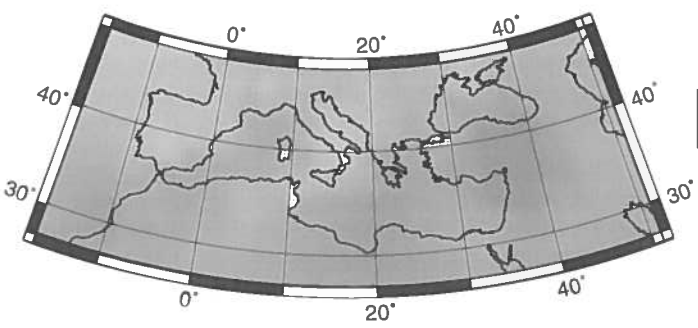
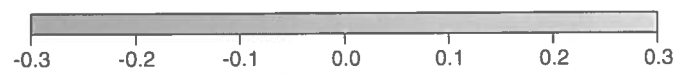
Climate reconstructions can be generated for the last three hundred years, even for localities beyond the timberline in sub-arctic Lapland, by using regression analysis to extrapolate the instrumental records from the more populated regions of North and Central Europe. The excellent skill exhibited by the multiple regression methodology relates to the high quality of the European data and to the SW-NE anisotropy of air-temperatures across Europe (Sorvari et al. 2002). High altitude climates, from above the timberline, can similarly be reconstructed from lowland weather series (Agustí-Panareda and Thompson 2002). The high Alps in particular are found to have warmed steadily in recent decades (Schönwiesner and Rapp 1997; Böhm et al. 2001). At many localities, permafrost, normally protected from annual and inter-annual temperature fluctuations by its low thermal diffusivity, is now experiencing conditions outside the range of natural climatic variability and is thawing for the first time in millennia (Hoelzle and Haeberli 1995).

Mid latitude Europe

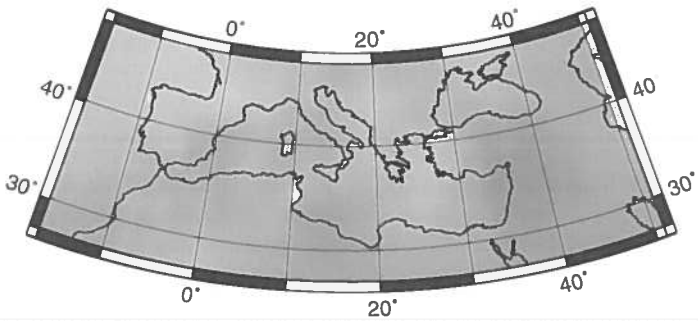
Europe is particularly well endowed with instrumental series (Thompson 1995; 1999). The climatic parameter that provides the longest record is mean air temperature. The renowned Manley (1974) series for Central England starts in 1659. Precipitation series are available from 1697 (Kew), while the longest continuous surface-pressure sequence commences in 1722 at Uppsala in Sweden. The wide geographical coverage of European instrumental records since 1781, means that fluctuations to the regional atmospheric circulation pattern can be established (Luterbacher et al. 1999) and hence climate change hindcast even in the less populated hinterlands of mid latitude Europe. For example, in the Annecy region of the pre-Alps, daily discharge can be reconstructed for rivers back to the 1800s (Foster et al. 2003) and growing season degree-days estimated for marginal agricultural land on an annual basis back to the 1600s (Crook et al. 2002).

The Mediterranean Basin

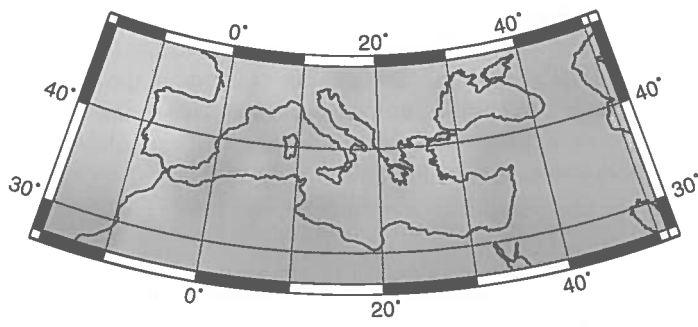
The Mediterranean climate is characterised by dry summers and wet winters. Mediterranean precipitation records reach back to 1749. Good spatial coverage is provided by over 100 precipitation series spanning the last 150 years. Winter months (NDJF) exhibit a teleconnection seesaw pattern as demonstrated by the correlation coefficients in Table 1. Winter with higher than usual precipitation in the west (Portugal/W. Spain) tend to be dry winter in the east (Israel/N. Egypt), and vice versa. Exactly the same teleconnection pattern is found in the long term precipitation trends (Plate 1) which reveal a 150 year drying trend in the S. and E. Mediterranean ($-0.1 \text{ mm/month yr}^{-1}$) which contrasts with an increasing trend in winter precipitation in the N. and W. Mediterranean ($+0.1 \text{ mm/month yr}^{-1}$). The S. European trend has recently reversed and S. Europe is currently drying in agreement with predictions based on $2\times\text{CO}_2$ modelling (Ulbrich and Christoph 1999). The consistency of the teleconnection across frequency bands (from annual to centennial) suggests it is no unreasonable to search for the same teleconnection pattern in millennial long proxy records



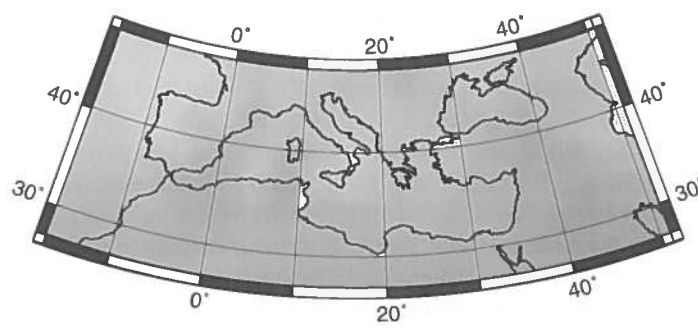
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Plate 1. Long-term linear trend in Mediterranean precipitation (mm/month/yr) during the 136 year period (185 to 1990). Note the drying trend (purple) for all four-winter months in the Near East compared to the increases (blue) for Western Iberia. The null change line runs approximately through Gibraltar-Sicily-Greece-Black Sea. Note how the same east-west teleconnection seesaw is found for precipitation as in the interannual variation in Table 1. (Albers equal area projection). Colour version of this Plate can be found in Appendix, p.627

Table 1. Correlation coefficients (r) between the inter-annual precipitation for seven stations in Portugal/Western Spain and nine Eastern Mediterranean stations for the four winter months (NDJF), during the 136-year period (1855 to 1990). Note the block of negative East-West teleconnections in the lower left quadrant, which contrasts with the blocks of positive teleconnections in the upper left and lower right quadrants.

	Lis	Coi	Evo	Bad	Por	Val	Bur	Lim	Nic	Bey	Jer	Ism	Sai	Cai	HQ	Alx
Lisbon	1	.70	.88	.82	.69	.70	.66	-.14	-.13	-.02	-.11	-.04	-.04	-.10	-.08	-.16
Coimbra	.70	1	.80	.62	.77	.79	.74	-.20	-.11	-.15	-.18	-.05	-.12	-.12	-.12	-.16
Evora	.88	.80	1	.86	.73	.75	.67	-.13	-.11	-.16	-.23	-.20	.00	-.28	-.25	-.17
Badajoz	.89	.62	.86	1	.56	.70	.66	-.20	-.17	-.19	-.18	-.12	-.16	-.17	-.17	-.17
Porto	.69	.77	.73	.56	1	.69	.63	-.15	-.11	.03	-.12	.03	-.04	-.06	-.14	-.15
Valladolid	.70	.79	.75	.70	.69	1	.81	-.16	-.15	-.03	-.19	-.03	-.11	-.15	-.12	-.15
Burgos	.66	.74	.67	.66	.63	.80	1	-.26	-.20	-.17	-.23	-.12	-.13	-.21	-.26	-.17
Limassol	-.14	-.19	-.13	-.20	-.15	-.16	-.26	1	.48	.15	.35	.11	.06	.17	.63	.19
Nicosia	-.13	-.11	-.11	-.17	-.19	-.15	-.20	.49	1	.15	.37	.10	.14	.08	.39	.49
Beyrouth	-.02	-.15	-.16	-.19	.03	-.03	-.17	.15	.15	1	.31	.59	.41	.58	.22	.24
Jerusalem	-.11	-.18	-.22	-.18	-.12	-.19	-.23	.34	.37	.31	1	.23	.32	.27	.30	.41
Ismaïlia	-.04	-.05	-.20	-.12	.03	-.03	-.12	.10	.10	.59	.23	1	.42	.85	.17	.19
Port Said	-.04	-.12	.00	-.16	-.04	-.11	-.13	.06	.14	.41	.32	.42	1	.34	.17	.43
Cairo	-.10	-.12	-.28	-.17	-.06	-.15	-.21	.17	.08	.58	.27	.85	.34	1	.15	.19
Cairo HQ	-.08	-.12	-.25	-.17	-.14	-.12	-.26	.63	.40	.22	.30	.17	.17	.15	1	.30
Alexand	-.16	-.16	-.17	-.17	-.14	-.15	-.17	.18	.49	.24	.41	.19	.43	.19	.30	1

Arid and sub-arid belt

Along the African and Arabian segments of the PEP III Transect, instrumental records are much shorter than those from Europe (Nicholson 2001) and tend to be restricted to the coast. Nevertheless in some places records of air temperature and precipitation are available for over 150 years. There have been dramatic climatic changes even over these times, especially in the W. Sahel, with the most pronounced drying of anywhere in the world (Senegal, 1884–1990, JJA, -1.3 mm/month yr^{-1}). At a similar latitude, but further east, through Mali, Niger and Ethiopia the same drying trend is found and averaged around -0.2 to -0.5 mm/month yr^{-1} .

Inter-tropical Africa

20th century instrumental data allow spatial climatic patterns and teleconnections to be well mapped through the tropics. Good coherence is found between various climatic parameters in the tropics. For example, rainy season daytime (maximum) air-temperature and precipitation anomalies in Zimbabwe are closely anti-correlated, due to the effects of clouds (Unganai 1997). Long-term precipitation trends tend to have been low, with the exception of the Angolan coast (Luanda, 1879–1985, MAM, $+0.3$ mm/month yr^{-1}) and

Zimbabwe (1890–1989, DJF, $-0.3 \text{ mm/month yr}^{-1}$). Various regions such as South Uganda and Central Zimbabwe show statistically significant ENSO signals (Philli McIntyre 2000; Unganai 1997). These ENSO signals are however both climatically and geographically limited compared to those from the other PEP transects (Markgraf and Thompson 2001).

Southern Africa

Southern Africa encompasses a particularly wide range of climatic zones, ranging from desert through Mediterranean and humid sub-tropical to tropical, and a strongly contrasting range of seasonalities all within a small geographic region ($500 \times 1000 \text{ km}$). Thin precipitation series span the last 100 years. However, they reveal no century long precipitation trends (Richard et al. 2000; 2001). Interannual variability of summer precipitation is linked to sea-surface temperatures in the Indian Ocean (Rocha and Simmonds 2001). Air-temperature data are available from 1857.

Documentary records

Europe especially abounds in documentary records of weather and climate spanning centuries (e.g., Frenzel et al. (1992), Glaser and Hagedorn (1991)). The special value of documentary evidence lies partly in its spatial and temporal specificity and the insight with which the massive quantities of diverse evidence can be objectively translated into more or less quantifiable descriptors (e.g., Pfister (1992)). These in turn permit analysis with seasonal, even daily resolution as well as interpretation in terms of synoptic patterns, although one must beware of the limitations in comparison to direct instrumental measurements of the weather. For example, a comparison of the spatial coherence of sea surface temperatures, at the inter-annual time scale, between Germany and Switzerland revealed a marked drop in correlation coefficient as the data used changes from instrumental to documentary evidence. Counter-balancing such limitations are the insights that interpreted documentary records can provide into extreme events and their impacts on hydrology, ecosystems and human populations. In most cases, it is extreme events to which human populations are vulnerable, rather than changes in mean annual climate.

Evidence linking changing climatic conditions to contemporary indicators of human welfare, demographic changes and socio-cultural responses increases the value of documentary evidence, for it can deepen our understanding of the nature of the interaction between environment and society during periods of stress (Brázdil et al. 1999). The richness of the documentary record in providing indicators of human response as well as evidence of change gives it the added benefit of precluding and indeed transcending interpretation in simple deterministic terms. The full range of applications for documentary reconstruction of past climate has yet to be realised. One novel application is illustrated by the work of Bugmann and Pfister (2000) in which Bugmann's forest succession model has been 'driven' by Pfister's reconstructed climate variability over the last five centuries in order to explore the reliability of the model as a predictor of tree line behaviour in the Alps (Fig. 1).

In the prevailing intellectual climate, those environmental historians whose work is essentially a humanistic methodology to areas of application in the natural sciences risk being undervalued by both communities. One of the roles of the leader

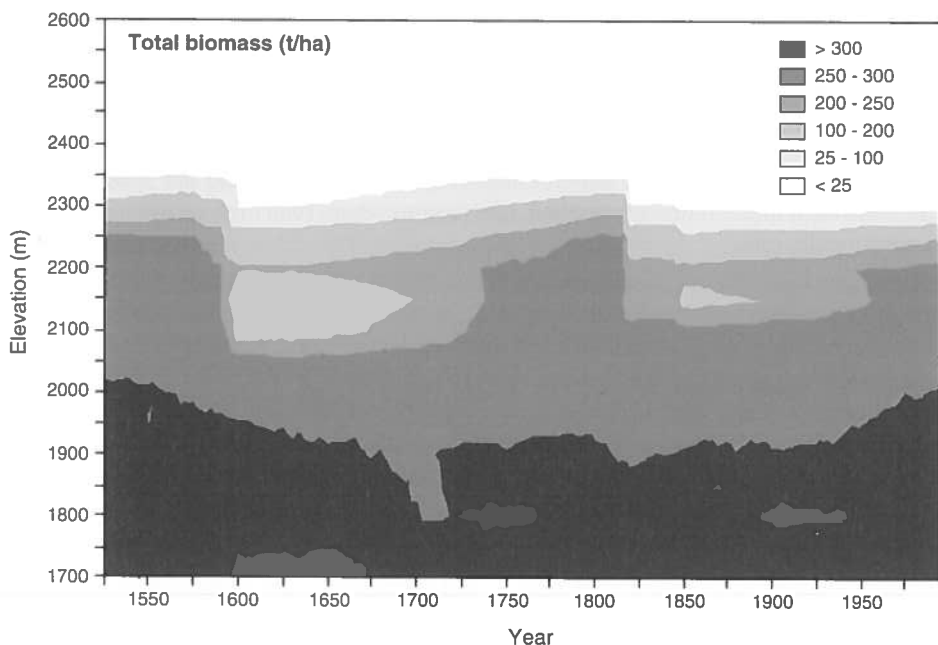


Figure 1. Total biomass (t/ha) on a south-facing slope in the European Alps simulated by a model of forest dynamics as 'forced' by a 470-year compilation of historical climate change from 1525 to 1995. Note the two dramatic drops in the upper-tree line caused by major dieback events following two series of extremely cold summers (1593-97 and 1812-18). (From Bugmann and Pfister (2000)).

palaeoclimate community might be to enhance recognition of the value of document-based reconstructions as well as to encourage those bold and scrupulous enough to bridge the two cultures with skill and success.

Tree rings

One of the most powerful palaeoclimatic tools to emerge over the last few decades has been dendroclimatology, which, by definition, achieves annual resolution and can often be linked to specific characteristics of the growing season (e.g., Lindholm and Eronen (2000)). By now, networks of researchers have developed circum-boreal records distinguished by both rigorous calibration to instrumental records and compelling regional coherence. Spatial cover is also matched by long time series that have served to calibrate radiocarbon dates provide powerful chronologies in their own right and document high frequency climate variability, including the transient responses to volcanic events (Briffa et al. 1998), throughout the late Holocene. PEP III benefits from the fact that some of the leaders in this research field have spent many years refining and extended the record in Europe and adjacent areas: of the former Soviet Union (Briffa 2000; Briffa et al. 2001; Briffa and Matthews 2002). The research field has thus benefited from the creation of major databases that contain evidence which combines precise chronologies with the results obtained by applying a common methodology to comparable archives over a wide area (e.g., Schweingruber et al. (1996)).

In this regard, the community of dendroclimatologists has set an excellent example for the rest of the research community.

Research along the PEP III Transect also includes tree ring, or at least, growth increment studies, from the east Mediterranean (D'Arrigo et al. 2001), the mountains of the S region (Pelfini et al. 2001) and the sub-Saharan Miombo woodland (Trouet et al. 2001). These extend the application of dendroclimatological method beyond the spatial region where it has been most commonly applied, into regions where such high-resolution data are exceptionally rare.

Speleothems

An increasing number of studies exploits the paleoenvironmental signals contained in calcite precipitated by cave water. Speleothem based studies along the PEP III transect span an amazing range of latitudes and environments from Northern Norway (Lauritzen 1996; 2003) to South Africa (Holmgren et al. 1999; Lee-Thorp et al. 2001), the eastern Mediterranean region (Aylon et al. 2001; Bar-Matthews et al. 2001; Causse et al. 2001) and Oman (Fleitmann et al. 2001; 2002). The time-span covered is remarkably varied, reflecting differences in growth rate and also the way in which conditions for stalagmite growth sometimes occupied quite narrow and diverse time intervals, depending on the local climate and water supply to the site. Thus, even the discontinuities in speleothem development may themselves reflect significant changes in regional climate.

The growing number and wide geographical spread of speleothem records has led to the establishment of a thematic group (SPEP) concerned with this type of archive, led by Stein-Eric Lauritzen (Lauritzen 2001). Palaeoclimatic signatures reside in speleothem properties ranging from luminescence to geochemical and stable isotope data (Lauritzen and Lundberg 1999). One of their major advantages is the scope they offer for dating using the U/Th method (Rosendal et al. 2001). In all cases though, there is a need to understand and, in so far as possible, make quantitative adjustment for all the processes that intervene to modify a climate signature as water passes from the lower atmosphere through soil and bedrock to the point of calcite precipitation. These processes are region-, even site- or speleothem-specific. They therefore call for careful study of the sequence of changes that is derived from speleothem analysis can be translated into climate parameters. The scope speleothems offer, for resolving both high and low frequency variability, gives them special value particularly when viewed alongside high resolution, precisely datable archives such as tree rings or varved lake sediments.

Corals

Coral records, mainly spanning the last one to two centuries at most, have been studied from favourable localities from the Red Sea (e.g., Klein et al. (1990), Felis et al. (2001)) to the coast of Madagascar (Zinke et al. 2001). The reliability with which sea surface temperature is reflected in the fluorescent banding of corals coupled with their location in shallow marine environments, makes them uniquely valuable palaeo-archives. The calibration of stable isotope signatures and chemical ratios in corals usually involves comparison with short instrumental time-series. The correlations that often emerge have encouraged

the use of coral records as indispensable indicators of Sea Surface Temperature (SST) and salinity changes on a seasonal and inter-annual basis. This in turn makes them extremely attractive for documenting the effects of ENSO variability not only in the Pacific region but also along the east coast of tropical Africa. Coral research has important implications for exploring changes to the periodicity of ENSO on decadal to century time-scales, as well as the strength of the Indian Ocean-western Pacific teleconnection and its changes through time.

In addition, increases in the barium/calcium quotient in corals have been shown to reflect increases in fluvial input and associated terrigenous sediment supply to the reef environment as a result of land clearance and soil erosion in recent times (Cole 2001). The sum total of evidence from the coral record therefore provides an elegant illustration of the way in which human-induced changes on land can interact with an overall warming trend to exacerbate the damaging effects of coral bleaching and associated degradation of reef environments.

Lake sediments

Lake sediment records of almost infinite variety have clearly been among the most popular archives along the whole length of the transect. They defy generalisation. In terms of time spans covered, they range from sites in Northern Fennoscandia where the development of a truly limnic environment postdates the time of isolation from the Baltic as a result of Holocene isostatic rebound (e.g., Hedenstrom and Risberg (1999)), to volcanic or impact crater lakes in central (Creer et al. 1990; Zolitschka 1998) and southern (Allen et al. 1999; 2000; Ramrath et al. 2000; Roberts et al. 2001) Europe, or South Africa (Partridge et al. 1997) respectively, where the sediment record may span several glacial-interglacial cycles. Spatial extent and morphometry are equally varied and we may contrast the small glacial lakes of much of highland Europe (e.g., Birks (2000), Ammann (2000)) with both the major lakes of the African rift system (Johnson 1996) and the once extensive but now dry lake that formerly covered vast areas of the Southern Sahara region during the early Holocene (Gasse et al. 1987; Kroepelin et al. 2001).

Lake sediments in much of Europe especially, have begun to provide quantitative palaeoclimate proxies through the development of transfer functions linking aspects of lake biology, recoverable from fossil remains, to variations in water and air temperature (e.g., Lotter et al. (1997), Lotter (2003 and Fig. 2)). Other lakes have yielded palaeoclimate records from variations in the stable isotope ratios in ostracods (von Grafenstein et al. 1999), authigenic carbonates (Jones et al. 2002), organic extracts and diatom silica.

Of especial value are lake sediments in which the annual rhythm of sedimentation gives rise to varves, which in turn can be used to provide potentially annual resolution in the palaeo-record as well as to establish a precise and accurate chronology of sediment accumulation (e.g., Zolitschka (1998)). Indeed, variations in the character and thickness of the varves themselves may constitute a quantifiable climate proxy in favourable circumstances and, like other annually resolvable archives, they can give vital information on the incidence and the hydrological and sedimentological impacts of extreme events (e.g. Thorndycraft et al. (1998)). Varves vary greatly in type and origin, but where they can be shown consistently to reflect an annual cycle over a long period of time, their presence

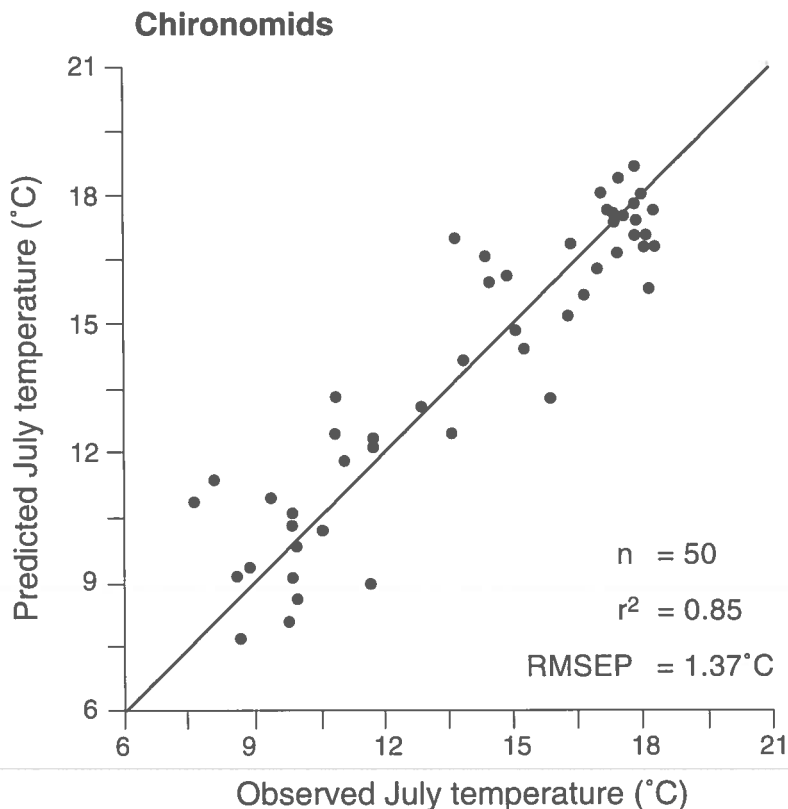


Figure 2. Chironomid data from the Alps illustrates the skill that can now be achieved in climate reconstructions. Here a spatial calibration of July temperatures, based on a training set of lakes along an elevation gradient, achieved a cross validation r^2 of 0.85 and a prediction error of 1.37°C . (From Lotter et al. (1997)).

endows any sediment sequence with added significance, for without them, establishing a reliable chronology of sedimentation can often provide a major and at times, in the present state of knowledge, insurmountable obstacle to making the fullest possible use of palaeolimnological evidence.

Lake basins and their sediments often provide crucial evidence about past lake levels and hence about changes in the balance between precipitation and evaporation. This is especially significant in regions where major fluctuations in available moisture have had crucial significance for human welfare and even survival. In much of Africa, particularly south of the Equator, the evidence for major changes in lake level during the Holocene provides one of the most powerful counters to the polar-centric view of the Holocene as a period of relatively stable climate (Gasse and Van Campo 1994; Verschure 2000; Bergner et al. 2001). These changes can be identified using both geomorphological and sedimentary evidence; they occur on time-scales ranging from sub-decadal to millennial. The dramatic implications for human societies in the past are becoming increasingly documented. While climate/vegetation models for N. Africa in the mid-Holocene, which predict strengthened summer monsoon, predict pronounced shifts in the climate and in vegetation,

patterns, the direct effects of orbital changes alone are found to be insufficient to generate the major changes indicated in the palaeoenvironmental reconstructions. Vegetation feedback can produce further intensification in monsoonal precipitation during the mid-Holocene, especially in W Africa (Ganopolski et al. 1998; Doherty et al. 2000). However, the dramatic and widespread shifts of lake levels in N. Africa are still not fully explained. Soil and ocean feedbacks in fully coupled vegetation-atmosphere-ocean models may provide a means of resolving some of the remaining discrepancies between the modeled and proxy lake-level data.

Peat

Here we consider only those instances where peat stratigraphy and the contained fossil record have been used to provide direct proxies for climate change. This excludes the more numerous instances where peat profiles have provided the context for pollen analytical studies. Ombrotrophic (precipitation-dependent) peatlands are widespread in the cool temperate and boreal parts of the Transect and their direct link with the atmosphere make them attractive archives for recording past changes in the balance between precipitation and evaporation. It is over a hundred years since peat stratigraphy was first interpreted as a record of climate change in Northern Europe during the Holocene and the terminology to which these early studies gave rise still has wide currency. Plant macrofossils, including *Sphagnum* species with well established habitat requirements relative to the water table, testate amoebae and peat humification measurements have all been shown to reflect variation in surface moisture status at the point of sampling (Charman and Hendon 2001; Barber and Langdon 2001; Barber and Charman 2003). Current work includes several studies designed to quantify this relationship and to test the extent to which the temporal sequences of surface wetness reconstructed from individual cores can be replicated within and between sites (Barber et al. 2000; 2003). This work requires detailed and precise chronological control. Fortunately, ombrotrophic peat can provide the raw material for this, especially if care is taken to eliminate time-transgressive components in the dated material and if the density of radiometric determinations undertaken is close enough to open up the opportunity to establish precise dates by matching onto dendrocalibration 'wiggles' (Van Geel and Mool 1989; Mauquoy et al. 2002).

Groundwater

Groundwater is both an archive and a vital human resource (Edmunds 1999). Its availability as a recorder of past climate in areas where many of the other commonly used archives are absent adds to its attraction. Within the saturated zone of major aquifers in arid and semi-arid regions, and despite the rather low temporal resolution of the record, the combined result from stable isotope and noble gas (Stute and Talma 1998) measurements have provided evidence of outstanding importance for developing quantitative estimates of difference in mean annual temperature between the present day and the last glacial maximum. It is also important in currently arid and semi-arid regions, to combine evidence from groundwater with that derived from changing lake levels, for the lakes are often simply the surface expression of water bodies that lie mainly below ground level (Fontes et al. 1993; Edmunds

et al. 1999). Interpreting past hydrological changes from the lakes alone thus provide part of the story.

Much of the evidence already obtained from groundwater studies highlights that in many areas, currently exploited groundwater is 'fossil' and dates from periods of greater moisture availability thousands of years ago. In too many cases, from countries as diverse as Spain, Libya and Northern Nigeria, it is being mined at a rate vastly exceeding rates of recharge possible under current climatic conditions. So societies find themselves in a dangerous dilemma. While populations and demands on water are growing, inappropriate management is leading to rapidly declining water resources. Human societies fail to heed the incontrovertible evidence of the extremely slow recharge rates of groundwaters do so at their peril.

Records of climate changes in the more recent past can be obtained from profiles of chemistry within the unsaturated zone (Goni and Edmunds 2001). Conservative elements such as chlorine can be used as tracers that record changes in the degree of evaporation concentration in past groundwater. In this way, the groundwater profiles can preserve a clear record of such events as the Sahel drought of the 1970's and 80's.

Other types of continental archive

A wide range of other archives such as alluvial or colluvial sequences, loess profiles and geomorphic or stratigraphic indicators of past glacier behaviour have all contributed vital information along the Transect. Although, in many cases, they lack the corroboration of some of the other archives they can nevertheless often provide essential confirmation on inferences derived from other lines of evidence. Many also provide contexts in which palaeo-environmental and archaeological evidence can be directly linked. Special mention is inherent to archives in which a direct association can be established between evidence of environmental variability and the archaeological record of societal response.

Special mention should be made of the Kilimanjaro ice core record (Thompson 2001). It forms the only African example of a whole series of ice core records from tropical glaciers ranging from the Andean peaks of South America to the mountains of Central Asia. These thus form one of the most significant of several emerging links between the PEP Transect. The importance of the record from Kilimanjaro, as from other low latitude ice cores, is enhanced by the rate at which such archives are disappearing.

Marine sediments

Over the last few decades, the temporal resolution achievable in favourably located sediment sequences has made them of increasing interest as a complement to the terrestrial derived evidence that has been the main concern of the PEP Transects. High-resolution records from giant piston cores obtained during IMAGES cruises have proved especially valuable (Cortijo et al. 2000). Much of the marine evidence available over the PEP Transect takes the form of stable isotope analyses particularly on planktonic foraminifera. From these, along with additional sedimentological, biological and geochemical analyses, reconstructions of past changes in SST, salinity, ventilation, sediment provenance, deposition and sea ice extent have been made. These marine proxies provide para-

the terrestrial record (e.g., Cullen et al. (2000)) as well as evidence for the role that changing ocean circulation has played in modifying and, at times, dramatically amplifying the impact of changes due to external forcing. In the context of the PEP III domain, special interest attaches to past changes in North Atlantic deep-water formation and its impact on ocean circulation (Bond et al. 2001). One of the most important messages inherent in the long-term records from PEP III is the close link on all timescales from decadal to millennia between largely salinity-driven changes in thermohaline circulation in the North Atlantic and dramatic changes in climate regime over a wide area including, but extending well beyond the Atlantic margins of the PEP III Transect (Peterson et al. 2000).

The position of the Mediterranean Sea within the Transect endows its sedimentary record with special significance. One of the most striking features is the presence of sapropelic layers (Rossignol-Strick 1985), which are now believed to be linked to periods of increased freshwater discharge into the basin. The coherence of the link between marine evidence for sapropel formation and the terrestrial evidence for moister conditions over much of the Mediterranean region during parts of the early to mid-Holocene is a striking example of the way in which marine and terrestrial archives can be mutually reinforcing. There is scope for exploiting this linkage much more, especially in marine cores with high temporal resolution where continental 'signatures' such as pollen, or markers of changing terrigenous sediment flux, can be set alongside evidence for changes in the marine realm (e.g., Oldfield et al. (2003a)). In this regard, contexts with rapid sediment accumulation like the western flank of the Adriatic or the Nile delta may prove especially attractive.

Climate proxies

The dominant concern of the PEP Transects has been with the reconstruction of past climate. As a consequence, the interpretation of most of the palaeo-environmental records has been in predominantly climatic terms, sometimes at a rather descriptive, qualitative level, but increasingly in more quantitative ways. This calls for at least two types of interaction between instrumental and non-instrumental data. Wherever proxy climate signatures, whether documentary or environmental, are interpreted in quantitative terms, this requires calibration against instrumental records. This can be achieved by using a spatially distributed training set of observations that span a wide climatic range at the present day (Fig. 2), or by comparing the proxy with an instrumental time series during the period of overlap (Fig. 3).

An elegant example of the use of time series of instrumental data in deciphering the climatic signal preserved by clastic varves is provided by the validation study of Wohlfarth et al. (1998). Multiple regression analysis of the 90-year sequence, from 1860 to 1950, from the Ångermanälven Estuary in North Central Sweden revealed strong correlations between spring/summer precipitation and varve thickness. The clearest climatic relationships were found between the precipitation in the mountains (the source region for the river discharge) and the estuarine varves. Turning to another striking example, dates of the beginning of the grape harvest from wine regions in Central Europe correlate ($r = +0.85$) extremely well with one another (Ladurie and Baulant 1981) and with spring and summer temperature (Fig. 3). The validation of the grape harvest dates against the thermometer records not only provides reassurance as to the reliability of phenological sources but also a quantitative measure of the dominant climatic variables that control ripening date. Tree-ring widths are

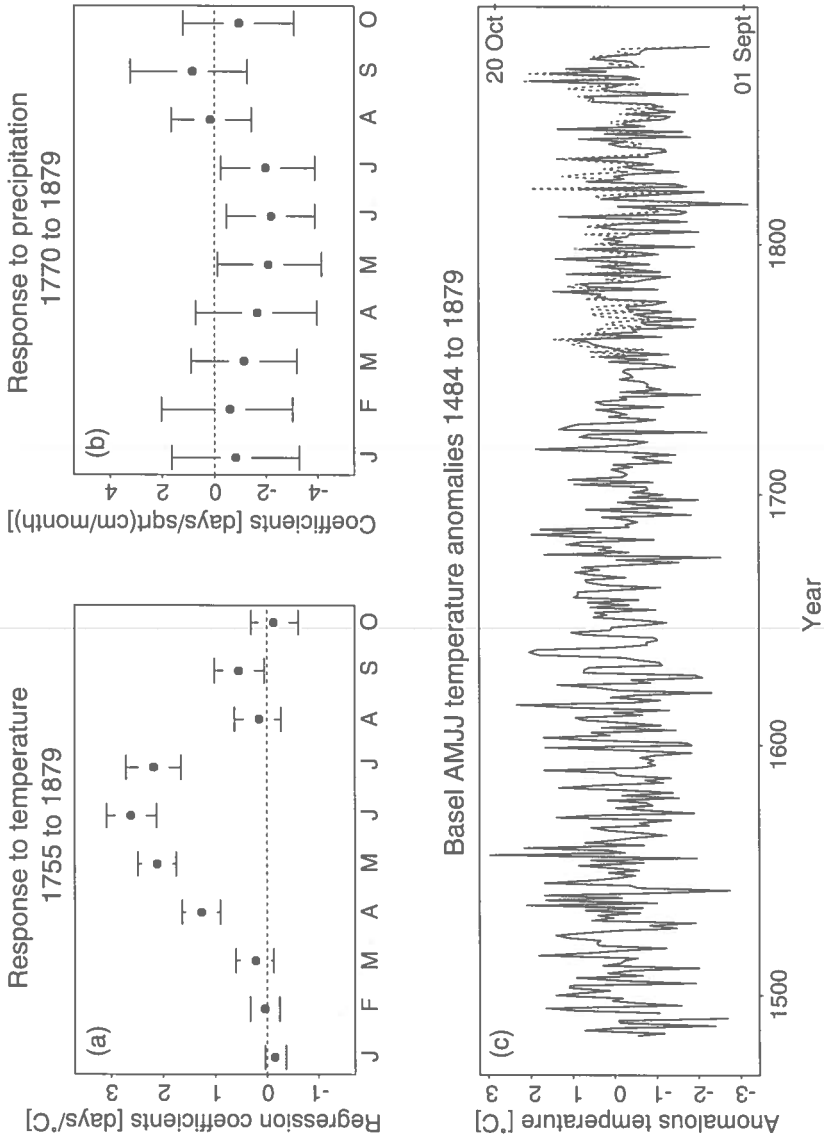


Figure 3. Reconstruction of Basle temperatures, from the fifteenth through nineteenth centuries, based on archival records of grape harvest dates. (a) Temperature anomalies of four months (April through July, AMJJ) are found to display significant relationships with grape harvest date. Warmer months lead to earlier grape harvests (positive correlations). (b) For three months (May through July, MJJ at Paris) wet years are found to result in later harvests (negative correlations). The 95% confidence interval limits

late-wood densities provide a third example of calibration of proxy records using the time series approach. Tree-ring calibrations make a major contribution to most reconstruction of the climate of the past millennium (see e.g., Mann et al. (1999)). These reconstructions are currently of great concern as they demonstrate how the abrupt 20th-century warming has ended a 900-year natural cooling trend. They also strikingly highlight how the 1990s were the warmest decade of the millennium. Consequently they have been a major contribution to the influential 2001 IPCC report being able to reaffirm, in much stronger language than previously, that *'the present climate is changing in ways that cannot be accounted for by natural variability'* (Houghton et al. 2001).

In addition to the need for calibration, developing transcontinental or regional syntheses of past climate change imposes the requirement to harmonise all the many data types both instrumental and non-instrumental, in terms of their climatic implications and spatial representation. Only through the co-ordination, intercalibration and fusion of all available sources of evidence will it be possible to express the nature of past climate change at a range of spatial and temporal scales and thereby gain an improved understanding of the complex interactions between environmental change and human societies.

The need for quantitative calibration applies to proxy signatures as contrasted, wide used and 'archive-transgressive' as pollen and stable isotopes as well as to a range of much less popular lines of evidence. Among the long list of proxy signatures used, two types merit consideration that is more general.

In the first of these two types the varying frequency of biological remains such as pollen (Guiot et al. 1989; Huntley 1993), diatoms (Bigler and Hall 2002) or chironomids (Broecker et al. 1997), are used to derive statistical relationships between assemblage characteristics in contemporary training sets and climatic parameters. These kinds of statistically based proxy signature have proved highly successful in generating palaeoclimate reconstructions, provided that the range of variability in both the climate space and the biological assemblages has remained reasonably comparable to that of the present day. Uncertainty increases greatly once the record from the past indicates no-analogue situations or present unrepresented domains of variability (Huntley and Prentice 1993). By contrast, when using the second type of approach to climate reconstruction, for example when using stable isotopes, the interpretation often rests more on an understanding of the processes at the physicochemical laws that control any link between atmospheric properties and the environmental archive.

Increasingly, multiproxy studies are the norm and the climatic inferences derived from a range of proxies can be compared (Birks 2000; Ammann 2000). The multiproxy approach can lend much greater confidence and statistical rigour to the palaeoclimatic inferences derived from a single site or region. It can also open up a rich vein of future research especially where the climate inferences derived from mutually independent proxies differ significantly. Such frustrating discrepancies are among the best points of departure for improving future understanding.

Chronologies and temporal resolution

Our best estimate suggests that less than 15% of the research presented at the PEP Aix-en-Provence Conference (August 2001) has the potential for annual resolution and a

the ascription of a calendar date with an error of less than three percent. An add few may be resolvable at a decadal level or thereabouts, with a similar accuracy ascription. It follows that the vast majority of the work has a time resolution at c level at best and, in many cases, a dating uncertainty equally is great. This unfavourable situation reflects the intractable nature of the problem of chronology for many of the popular archives, such as lake sediments, which, despite the chronological problems often pose, can provide proxy records of outstanding interest. Despite the existence of dating problems, it is abundantly clear that much of the evidence presented has enormous significance for documenting climate variability on all timescales, for providing the material from which greater insight into the spatial coherence, persistence and the expression of major modes of variability can be derived, for developing regional synthesis of past climate change (notable examples of which are contained within this volume) and for identifying the key mechanisms of external forcing and internal dynamics and for testing climate models against the ground truth of the past.

This said, future progress in all these respects will depend in part on better chronology. A greater investment in dating is a prerequisite for improving insights into the timing, phasing and spatial coherence, for achieving better harmonisation of data sets between archives, proxies and regions and for the full realisation of many of the main initiatives of the PEP III Transect. The investment must include both a widening of access to facilities, especially for those working in less developed countries, and a continuing commitment with testing and refining the evidence upon which some standard procedures such as the reservoir correction of ^{14}C dates are based.

Proxies, ecosystems and people

Using every available line of evidence to reconstruct past climate precludes excluding the effects of climate change on ecosystems without resorting to unacceptably cautious argument. Nevertheless, a significant proportion of the work completed along the PEP III Transect does deal explicitly with ecosystem responses, using lines of evidence such as pollen, phytoliths and ^{13}C ratios (Huang et al. 1999) indicative of shifts in the relative importance of plants using different metabolic pathways.

At the stage where the most robust climate proxies have been tested and, in so far as possible, validated, there is a case for using them as independent variables, thus allowing more of the biological records to be interpreted as indicators of ecosystem response to past climate change (Oldfield et al. 2000). It seems inevitable that this type of approach in the future research agenda of the PEP III scientific community will become attractive, indeed essential, as policy makers become increasingly concerned with understanding the likely response of ecosystems to future climate change. The research encompassed within the PEP III Transect can make a vital contribution to this; impact studies without compromising its primary aim of palaeoclimate reconstruction.

PEP III spans regions of the world more severely impacted by human activity than any others. Evidence for human activities and their effect on terrestrial ecosystems goes back thousands of years, especially in those areas close to the cradle of ancient civilisations. Alongside the reconstruction of climate change, there is the parallel need to document the history of human impacts. Several papers demonstrate how such impacts have been superimposed on any decipherable signature of climate change (e.g., Oldfield et al. 2000).

Others illustrate well the difficulty of either disentangling the two types of influence or shedding light on the many ways in which they have interacted in the past (see e.g., Oldfield and Dearing (2003)). Our present biosphere is a no-analogue one created by the combined and interactive influences of human and natural processes. Any suggestion that we may use the past to inform policy for the future has to recognise the crucial importance of both natural and anthropogenic influences. Documenting the history of their interaction in all its richness and complexity is therefore an essential task. At the heart of PEP III has been the need to isolate climate influences, by careful selection of sites and types of archive, as well as by the ingenious use and calibration of proxies. In the longer term, there will also be a parallel and interlocking need to address more explicitly the history of the relationship between natural variability and human activities, not as a one-way street in which human societies merely respond, but as an interactive process. The progress achieved so far within the framework of PEP III encourages us to believe that this challenge too will be met. One of the next steps will be achieved through the European Science Foundation sponsored HOLIVAR initiative which seeks to coordinate and present the full range of evidence for climate variability during the Holocene (www.esf.org/holivar).

Summary

The PEP III Transect is concerned with climate change through Western and Eastern Europe, the Middle-East and Africa. The PEP programme aims to: understand how and why climate has varied in the past; assess how climate change and variability has affected natural ecosystems and human society in the past; and provide a basis both for developing and testing climate models that are needed to forecast climate change in the future. This chapter outlines and illustrates the range of archives and proxies used in the PEP III Transect. In view of the special importance of instrumental records, both for documenting recent climate variability and for calibrating proxies, these are dealt with at some length. Many of the special characteristics of the main archives and proxies are discussed, along with the kinds of information they provide. The major themes of palaeoclimate reconstruction chronologies and temporal resolution, and past human impact and ecosystem change are considered towards the end of the chapter.

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