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High-Fidelity Archeointensity Results for the Late Neolithic Period From Central China

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23 **Abstract**

24 Archeomagnetism focuses on exploring high-resolution variations of the geomagnetic
25 field over hundreds to thousands of years. In this study, we carried out a
26 comprehensive study of chronology, absolute and relative paleointensity on a late
27 Neolithic site in central China. Ages of the samples are constrained to be ~3500–3000
28 BCE, a period when available paleointensity data are sparse. We present a total of 64
29 high-fidelity absolute paleointensities, demonstrating the field varied quickly from
30 ~55 to ~90 ZAm^2 between ~3500–3000 BCE. Our results record a new
31 archeomagnetic jerk around 3300 BCE, which is probably non-dipolar origin. The
32 new results provide robust constraints on global geomagnetic models. We calculated a
33 revised Chinese archeointensity reference curve for future application. The variations
34 of absolute and relative paleointensity versus depth show good consistency,
35 reinforcing the reliability of our results. This new attempt of combining absolute and
36 relative paleointensity provides a useful tool for future archeomagnetic research.

37 **Plain language summary**

38 The geomagnetic field is generated in the Earth's liquid outer core; its behavior can
39 provide us information on the Earth's interior and help us understand processes deep
40 in the planet we live on. The magnetic field surrounds the Earth and acts like an
41 umbrella protecting the planet from strong solar winds, and thus the geomagnetic
42 behavior can affect life on the Earth. Understanding the evolution of the geomagnetic
43 field allows us to learn about the Earth in the past and can help us predict what will
44 happen in the future. The geomagnetic field includes both dipolar and non-dipolar
45 components, with the former related to global and the latter to regional features.
46 Studying regional geomagnetic variations from different areas is essential for
47 outlining regional features and global distributions of the field. In this study, we
48 carried out archeomagnetic research on a late Neolithic archeological site in central
49 China. The high-fidelity results fill a gap of the present data set in both space and time,
50 and thus refine both the regional and global geomagnetic models significantly. The

51 newly released Chinese archeointensity reference curve in this study can be used for
52 regional geomagnetic comparison as well as for archeological dating in this region.

53 **1. Introduction**

54 The geomagnetic field is one of the Earth's fundamental properties with a history of at
55 least ~3.5 Ga (Biggin et al., 2011). It is a window into the deep interior of the Earth
56 (Aubert et al., 2013; Bono et al., 2019; Davies & Constable, 2018) and may play a
57 key role in evolution of life on the Earth (Lin et al., 2017). Baked archeological
58 materials provide us an efficient way to explore detailed geomagnetic variations
59 during the Holocene. Archeomagnetic studies in various areas contribute significantly
60 to understanding of regional features and global distributions of the field. A number of
61 regional reference curves (Cai et al., 2017a; Gallet et al., 2015; Goguitchaichvili et al.,
62 2018; Gómez-Paccard et al., 2016; Hervé et al., 2013a, 2013b; Kovacheva et al., 2014;
63 Tema & Kondopoulou, 2011) and global geomagnetic models (Constable et al., 2016;
64 Nilsson et al., 2014; Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014) have been established based partly
65 or entirely on archeomagnetic data. In addition to regional comparisons, the
66 established geomagnetic reference curves have applications in archeomagnetic dating
67 (Hervé & Lanos, 2018; Peters et al., 2017).

68 The longevity of Chinese civilization and the abundance of archeological artifacts
69 make archeomagnetic studies within China promising. New progress has been made
70 in Chinese archeomagnetism in recent years (Cai et al., 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017a,
71 2017b) after ~20 years' quiescence. However, the recent studies are mainly from
72 eastern China (Figure 1) and concentrated in the past 5 kyr. Data from other parts of
73 China and older time periods are sparse. In this study, we focus on a late Neolithic
74 archeological site in central China, whose age can be controlled through multiple
75 dating techniques. The results fill gaps of the present data set in both space and time,
76 and thus refine both the regional and global geomagnetic models significantly.

77 **2. Archeological background and sampling**

78 The site studied in this paper is located at Xi'an of Shanxi province, central China

79 (GPS: 34°28.175'N, 109°0.903'E) (Figure 1a) and named after the nearby village
80 Yang-guan-zhai (YGZ). The YGZ site is a large habitation surrounded by a roughly
81 square moat with a perimeter of ~2 km. Relics excavated from the moat were
82 estimated to belong to Miaodigou culture in the late Neolithic Period according to
83 their archeological characteristics, *e.g.*, typology and decoration of excavated
84 potteries.

85 A segment at the southwest corner of the moat was excavated and two symmetrical
86 sections of ~5.5 m including 16 cultural layers were exposed (Figure 1b and c), where
87 the south and north section were named S1 and S2, respectively. Sediments through
88 the section are generally silty sand and can be divide into four approximate parts
89 (Figure 1b), which are greyish-yellow sand (part I), loose greyish-green sand mixed
90 with ash (part II), transition between loose and compact sediments (part III) and
91 compact silty sand (part IV). We collected a number of artifacts, mostly pottery sherds,
92 from each layer of both sections for absolute paleointensity studies (Figure 1d). We
93 measured the depth below the ground surface of each sample. Additional samples
94 were collected from the storehouse for S1 in the intervals in which limited or no
95 samples were found *in situ*.

96 Oriented sediments also were collected from S1 to investigate paleosecular variation,
97 including relative paleointensity (Figure 1e). We collected block samples from
98 different depth along the section by shaving a horizontal plane and marking the north
99 direction of each sample with a magnetic compass. Samples were then removed from
100 the wall. A total of 26 hand samples were collected through S1 and cut into 2-cm
101 cubic specimens in the lab. Nomenclature of the samples is explained in Text S1 of
102 the supporting information (SI).

103 Charcoals were collected for radiocarbon dating wherever available through both
104 sections. A total of 14 charcoals (10 from S1 and 4 from S2) were collected (Figure
105 S1).

106 **3. Methods**

107 **3.1 Radiocarbon dating**

108 In order to constrain ages of the samples investigated here, the 14 charcoal samples
109 were sent to the AMS Laboratory of University of Arizona for ^{14}C analysis. The
110 accelerator mass spectrometry dating method was adopted. Detailed information for
111 the experimental procedure can be found in Jull et al. (2003).

112 **3.2 Rock magnetism**

113 We conducted rock magnetic studies, including hysteresis loops, first order reversal
114 curves (FORCs) and variation of magnetization versus temperature (M–T), on
115 selected potteries and sediments to detect properties of the magnetic minerals. Details
116 of these experiments were described in Text S2 in SI.

117 **3.3 Absolute paleointensity**

118 A total of 107 samples with 69 from S1 and 38 from S2 were prepared for absolute
119 paleointensity experiments by preparing them into 355 specimens with 226 from S1
120 and 129 from S2. Among these specimens, 76 were processed at the Paleomagnetism
121 and Geochronology Laboratory (PGL), Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese
122 Academy of Sciences (IGGCAS) while the other 279 were measured in the
123 Paleomagnetism Laboratory of the Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO),
124 University of California, San Diego, USA.

125 An ‘IZZI’ protocol (Yu et al., 2004) was employed for the paleointensity experiment.
126 Temperature intervals were set from 100 °C to 20 °C, larger at low temperatures and
127 smaller at high temperatures. The pTRM checks were inserted at every other step to
128 detect potential alteration during heating (Coe et al., 1978). The laboratory field of 30
129 μT was applied along +z axis of the specimens at PGL and -z at SIO, with a precision
130 better than 0.1 μT for the ‘in field’ steps. The anisotropy of TRM (ATRM) was
131 determined on each successful specimen in the intensity experiment, including eight
132 steps of baseline, +x, +y, +z, -x, -y, -z and +x (Veitch et al., 1984). The last step is for
133 an alteration check. A total TRM was used for calculating the anisotropy tensors to
134 correct the specimen intensities for the effect of anisotropy. The cooling rate

135 correction experiment includes four steps: baseline, fast cooling, slow cooling and a
136 second fast cooling for an alteration check (Genevey & Gallet, 2002). The
137 slow-cooling step takes ~6 and ~12 hours for the MMTDSC oven at PGL and for the
138 laboratory-built oven at SIO, respectively. Specimens processed in the French furnace
139 at PGL need not to be corrected for cooling rate effect because they were cooled
140 naturally. More details about the experimental procedure are described in Text S3 of
141 the SI.

142 **3.4 Relative paleointensity**

143 The oriented hand samples were further cut into 2-cm cubes (76 in total) for relative
144 paleointensity study. Bulk susceptibilities (κ) of these cubes were measured by a
145 Kappa-bridge magnetometer with an applied field of 300 A/m under a frequency of
146 875 Hz. After measuring their natural remanent magnetizations (NRMs), specimens
147 were step-wise demagnetized in an alternating field (AF) demagnetizer with an
148 interval of 5 mT up to 30 mT and 10 mT up to 80 mT. Anhysteretic remanent
149 magnetizations (ARMs) were imparted to specimens under a bias field of 0.05 mT in
150 an alternating peak field of 100 mT and step-wise AF demagnetized under peak field
151 of 20 to 80 mT with an interval of 10 mT. Isothermal remanent magnetizations (IRMs)
152 were imparted to specimens with a field of 1 T using a pulse magnetizer and then AF
153 demagnetized following the same procedure for ARMs. All the original remanent
154 magnetizations and remanences remaining after each step were measured with the 2G
155 760 SQUID magnetometer. These experiments were conducted at PGL.

156 **4. Results**

157 **4.1 Radiocarbon dating**

158 Among the analyzed 14 charcoal samples, 5 of them dissolved during pretreatment
159 while the other 9 yielded results. The detailed dating information of all samples is
160 listed in Table S1. The measured dates were calibrated by the atmospheric curve of
161 IntCal13 (Reimer et al., 2013) with the software OxCal v4.3.2 (Bronk Ramsey, 2017).
162 Unfortunately, ages of the samples fall on a plateau of the calibration curve (Figure

163 S2), which limits the age resolution through the section. Calibrated ages were plotted
164 versus depth in Figure S3a, where ages of samples from different depths are not
165 distinguishable from each other except Y2xra1 records an older age than others. We
166 conducted a depth correction on these ages using the ‘Sequence’ function
167 incorporated in OxCal by assuming deeper samples to be older (Bronk Ramsey, 1995).
168 Depth-calibrated ages are shown in red dots in Figure S3b. Ages of samples between
169 two radiocarbon dates were constrained by the younger boundary of the radiocarbon
170 date above and older boundary of the date below (blue squares in Figure S3b). Ages
171 of bottom samples from the sections were constrained by the younger boundary of the
172 deepest radiocarbon date and the older boundary of archeological estimation for the
173 site. Ages of the studied samples were constrained to ~3500–3000 BCE by
174 combination of radiocarbon and archeological dating.

175 **4.2 Rock magnetism**

176 The hysteresis and FORCs (Harrison & Feinberg, 2008) results indicate magnetic
177 carriers are mainly low-coercivity magnetic minerals with mixed superparamagnetic
178 (SP) and single-domain (SD) particles for both potteries and sediments (Figure S4a-f
179 and g-l). M–T curves for potteries show good consistency between heating and
180 cooling curves, with curie temperatures (T_c s) around 550 °C (Figure S4m-n). This
181 indicates thermally-stable (titano)magnetite to be dominant magnetic minerals in
182 these potteries, which are suitable for absolute paleointensity study. M–T curves for
183 sediments show some alteration after heating (Figure S4o-r), with T_c s around
184 580–590 °C, which indicates magnetite is dominant among the samples. Rock
185 magnetic results for sediments from different parts of the section show minimal
186 discrepancy, which supports the feasibility of relative paleointensity study on these
187 samples.

188 **4.3 Absolute paleointensity**

189 We adopted a modified version of the stringent criteria ‘CCRIT’ put forward by
190 Cromwell et al. (2015), with deviation angle (DANG) less than 6° instead of 10° in

191 ‘CCRIT’, unanchored maximum angular deviation (MAD_{free}) less than 6° instead of
192 5° and standard deviation of sample-average intensity less than $5 \mu\text{T}$ instead of $4 \mu\text{T}$.
193 The other parameters are the same as ‘CCRIT’ (Table S2). Each parameter is
194 explained briefly in the table caption and detailed description can be found in Shaar &
195 Tauxe (2013) and Paterson et al. (2014). The parameter $|\vec{k}|$ was first defined by
196 Paterson (2011), describing the absolute curvature of the data points obtained during
197 the paleointensity experiment. Cromwell et al. (2015) modified it somewhat ($|\vec{k}'|$) to
198 restrict the calculation to those data points used for calculating the paleointensity.
199 Paterson (2011) suggested a criterion of $|\vec{k}| \leq 0.164$ can yield reliable
200 paleointensities according to their simulated paleointensity results, but also mentioned
201 that it is very strict, especially for many natural specimens, and may exclude reliable
202 results in some cases. Therefore, we modified the criterion for $|\vec{k}'|$ slightly: if there is
203 at least one specimen with $|\vec{k}'| \leq 0.164$, we accept sister specimens from the same
204 sample with $|\vec{k}'| > 0.164$ yet obtaining comparable paleointensities. We attempt to
205 guarantee the reliability of paleointensities and save more data simultaneously by
206 modifying the ‘CCRIT’ criteria slightly. Data were analyzed with the ‘Thellier GUI’
207 program (Shaar & Tauxe, 2013) incorporated in the PmagPy software package (Tauxe
208 et al., 2016). A total of 64 out of 107 samples (221 out of 355 specimens) passed the
209 selection criteria. Results of the accepted samples and specimens are listed in Table
210 S3 and Table S4, respectively. Representative Arai plots (Nagata et al., 1963) yielding
211 accepted paleointensities are shown in Figure 2a and b, showing straight lines and
212 single components with limited viscous remanent magnetizations (VRMs). Alterations
213 of the accepted specimens during the anisotropy correction experiments are all less
214 than 10% (90% of them less than 5%) while those during cooling rate correction are
215 all less than 5% except one being 9%. The extent of anisotropy correction for ~58%
216 of the accepted specimens are less than 10% while the others have strong anisotropic

217 effect with maximum correction reaches 62%. The cooling rate correction is generally
218 less than 10% (Table S4). Accepted paleointensities, which vary from ~30 to ~50 μT ,
219 were plotted versus depth in Figure 3a through the section. Intensities of samples
220 collected *in situ* from S1, S2 and from the storehouse are shown with different
221 symbols; these are generally consistent with each other, reinforcing the reliability of
222 our data.

223 **4.4 Relative Paleointensity**

224 The measured parameters of oriented sediments, including step-wise NRM, κ , ARM
225 and IRM, through the section are shown in Figure S5. Variation in the trends of these
226 parameters is very consistent. κ versus ARM and IRM were divided into four groups
227 according to lithology in Section 1 (Figure S6). Distributions are slightly different
228 among groups but all show good linear relationship, demonstrating grain sizes of the
229 sediments within each group are generally uniform, satisfying one of the most basic
230 requirements for relative paleointensity study (Tauxe, 1993). Relative paleointensities
231 were calculated following the pseudo-Thellier approach of Tauxe et al. (1995),
232 normalizing NRM with ARM and IRM selecting the remanence between 20–80 mT
233 (Figure 3b and c). AF demagnetization data of oriented sediments were analyzed with
234 the ‘Demag GUI’ function incorporated in PmagPy. The criteria of $\text{MAD}_{\text{free}} \leq 6^\circ$,
235 $\text{DANG} \leq 6^\circ$ and $n \geq 9$ were used to constrain the data quality, where n is the number
236 of data points used in calculating the characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM).
237 A total of 51 out of 76 specimens pass the criteria (Table S5). Representative
238 successful specimens are shown in Figure 2c and d; these have a characteristic
239 component after removal of a soft component by 15 mT on the Zijderveld plot
240 (Zijderveld, 1967). Accepted declinations and inclinations were plotted versus depth
241 in Figure 3d and e, where the former vary between ~330° and ~10° and the latter vary
242 from ~36° to ~64° through the section.

243 **5. Discussion**

244 We carried out an absolute paleointensity study on potteries from two sections in a

245 moat and obtained 64 high-fidelity paleointensities for the time period of ~3500–3000
246 BCE. We employed stringent criteria modified from ‘CCRIT’ (Cromwell et al., 2015)
247 to ensure data quality. The reliability of the intensities is also cross checked by results
248 from independent sections, *e.g.*, S1 *in situ*, S1 from the storehouse and S2 *in situ*, and
249 confirmed by the consistency among them (Figure 3a).

250 We compared variations of absolute paleointensity, relative paleointensity
251 (NRM/ARM and NRM/IRM), declination and inclination through the section (Figure
252 3). The variation trends between absolute and relative paleointensity in each part of
253 the four generally show good consistency, especially at certain depths of abrupt
254 change, marked by orange dashed lines. It is worth mentioning that pottery ages at a
255 given depth must be older than the deposition age of the sediments at the same depth
256 since potteries were made first and then buried in the strata. Therefore, geomagnetic
257 signals recorded by potteries at a given depth should be synchronous with those
258 recorded by deeper sediments. Interestingly, we can indeed identify this pattern in our
259 results (see dashed lines in Figure 3). The consistency between absolute and relative
260 paleointensity provide us two key points: Firstly, it reinforces the reliability of our
261 absolute paleointensity data with independent evidence; Secondly, the results
262 convince us that sediments from archeological sites as in this study can sometimes
263 record geomagnetic signals although their depositional contexts are more
264 human-involved compared to sediments from natural sites. These suggest possibilities
265 for future study about similar archeological sites.

266 Virtual axial dipole moments (VADMs) of our new data are plotted together with
267 published data from 1980s–1990s (Huang et al., 1998; Shaw et al., 1995; Wei et al.,
268 1982, 1986) and from recent years (Cai et al., 2014, 2015, 2017a) in China (Figure 4).
269 Data from studies published prior to 2000 were selected with the criteria of $N_{\min} \geq 3$,
270 $\sigma_{\text{age}} \leq 500$ yr and $\sigma_B \leq 5$ μT or 10%, while data published since were reanalyzed with
271 the same criteria used in this study. The recently published data from Korea (Hong et
272 al., 2013) and Japan (Yu, 2012) are also shown on the plot. We recalculated the

273 Chinese archeointensity reference curve (Archint_China2) with new data from this
274 study and our reanalyzed data published in recent years, following the
275 bootstrap-running average method described in Cai et al. (2017a)— resampling 1,000
276 times at each data point and then applying a running average with a time window of
277 200 y shifted by 10 y on the resampled dataset. The calculated curve is attached in
278 Table S6 for readers' convenience. When comparing Archint_China2 to predictions at
279 the center of China (35°N, 105°E) from global models pfm9k.1a (Nilsson et al., 2014)
280 and ARCH10k.1 (Constable et al., 2016), large discrepancies can be found for certain
281 time periods (*e.g.*, 3000–2000 BCE). Our local reference curve provides more detail
282 and the underlying data can be used to refine the global models.

283 Our new results suggest that the field varied quickly, from ~55 to ~90 ZAm², between
284 3500 and 3000 BCE, which is also accompanied by variations of declinations
285 (~330°–10°) and inclinations (~36°–64°) of the oriented sediments. Although our new
286 data could not provide a high-resolution variation curve of the geomagnetic field as
287 the ages fall on a plateau of the calibration curve, we nonetheless constrained the
288 variation range of the field over ~500 years with many new high-quality points (see
289 insert in Figure 4).

290 Our new results, combined with published data from adjacent period, outline a
291 maximum of the field intensity around 3300 BCE, which is possibly a new
292 archeomagnetic jerk. Archeomagnetic jerks were first reported in Europe (Gallet et al.,
293 2003), representing a moderate field behavior between 'geomagnetic jerks' (Mandea
294 et al., 2010) and 'geomagnetic spikes' (Ben-Yosef et al., 2009). The archeomagnetic
295 jerks recorded in Europe were characterized by intensity maxima as well as abrupt
296 directional changes. Unfortunately, published archeodirectional data from a similar
297 time in this area are too sparse to provide convincing evidence. Further study on
298 archeodirection should be carried out in the future. However, the intensity maxima
299 (recorded by potteries from ~420–480 cm), accompanied by convincing directional
300 changes in the companion sediments (~440–510 cm) recorded by our new data

301 together constitute reasonably strong evidence of the existence of an archeomagnetic
302 jerk at ~3300 BCE in China.

303 In order to characterize the global context of this new possible jerk, we compiled data
304 from west-mid Asia and Europe, where enough data from this time period are
305 available from Geomagia50.v3.3 database (Brown et al., 2015), and compared them
306 to east Asia (Figure 5). Neither data from west-mid Asia (Figure 5c) nor from Europe
307 (Figure 5d) record such a clear jerk as in our data (Figure 5a), indicating this
308 geomagnetic behavior is probably a regional feature of non-dipolar origin.

309 **6. Conclusions**

310 We conducted archeomagnetic studies on two excavated sections of a moat at the late
311 Neolithic site YGZ in central China. Combined radiocarbon and archeological dating
312 constrain ages of the studied samples to ~3500–3000 BCE. High-fidelity absolute
313 paleointensities from 64 samples were acquired, whose reliability is ensured by
314 stringent selection criteria and further confirmed by consistency between two
315 independent sections as well as coincidence of variation between absolute and relative
316 paleointensity through the section. Our new intensities indicate that the field varied
317 quickly, from ~55 to ~90 ZAm², between 3500 and 3000 BCE. Our results record a
318 new archeomagnetic jerk around 3300 BCE in China, which is probably a regional
319 (non-dipolar) feature. The regional reference curve of archeointensity in China,
320 Archint_China2, is an update combining new data from this study with reanalyzed
321 data published in recent years. Future studies are recommended to use this new
322 version of reference curve for regional geomagnetic field comparison. Our new
323 results fill a gap of the present Chinese archeointensity data set and provide robust
324 constraints for global models. The new attempt of combining absolute and relative
325 paleointensity in this study shed light on future archeomagnetic research.

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488 **Figure 1.** Site locality and field photos. (a) Locations of Chinese archeological sites.
489 Red star represents location of this study. China_new pub (purple squares) means
490 locations of data published in recent years since 2014. China_old pub (black solid
491 circles) means locations of data published in the 1980s and 1990s. (b) and (c) Field
492 photos of the south and north section. (d) and (e) Sampling photos of unoriented
493 potteries and oriented sediments from the south section.

494 **Figure 2.** Representative absolute paleointensity and AF demagnetization results. (a)
495 and (b) Examples of accepted Arai plots and the relative orthogonal projections (a1
496 and b1) and NRM remaining (blue)-pTRM gained curves (red) (a2 and b2). Numbers
497 on the Arai plot and orthogonal projections are temperature steps in centigrade ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).
498 The green line on each plot shows the temperature section used to calculate the
499 paleointensity. Photos of the samples are shown as inserts. (c) and (d) Representative
500 orthogonal projections of accepted specimens. Red solid circles/blue squares
501 represent projections on horizontal/vertical plane. The green line on each plot shows
502 the temperature section used to calculate the characteristic direction. Numbers on the
503 diagrams are AF steps in mT. Related plots of equal area (c1 and d1) and normalized
504 magnetization versus AF steps (c2 and d2) are shown as inserts.

505 **Figure 3.** Comparison of absolute and relative paleointensity. (a) Absolute
506 paleointensities from S1 (black solid and open circles) and S2 (purple solid circles).
507 (b) and (c) ARM and IRM normalized relative paleointensities. Remanence intervals
508 of 20–80 mT were used. (d) and (e) Declinations and inclinations versus depth.
509 Symbols in green/ blue/ red/ dark in (b-e) represent samples from part I / II/
510 II/ IV of Section 1, respectively. Orange dashed lines between (a) and (b) show
511 correlations between absolute and relative paleointensities.

512 **Figure 4.** Comparison of VADM in this study to published data in Eastern Asia and
513 predictions from global models. Red stars are data from this study. Amplified plot is
514 shown as insert. Black solid circles are data published in the 1980s and 1990s after
515 selection. Purple squares are our reanalyzed data published in recent years since 2014.

516 Cyan hexagons/blue pentagons are published data in Japan (Yu, 2012)/Korea (Hong et
517 al., 2013) in recent years. The grey and yellow lines are predictions from global
518 models of ARCH10k.1 (Constable et al., 2016) and pfm9k.1a (Nilsson et al., 2014) at
519 the center of China (35°N, 105°E). The orange line is the updated Chinese
520 archeointensity reference curve.

521 **Figure 5.** Regional comparison of the archeomagnetic jerk around ~3300 BCE. (a)
522 Distribution map of compiled data. (b) Compilation of data from east Asia. Only data
523 published in the recent years were included. (c) Compilation of data from west-mid
524 Asia. (d) Compilation of data from Europe (between 40–60°N and 10°W–30°E). Data
525 from the Geomagia50.v3.3 database were selected with the criteria of $N_{\min} \geq 3$, $\sigma_{\text{age}} \leq$
526 500 yr and $\sigma_B \leq 5 \mu\text{T}$ or 10%. The regional curves were calculated following the same
527 technique for ArchInt_China.2. The cyan rectangles indicate age ranges of the
528 archeomagnetic jerk in China.

Figure1.

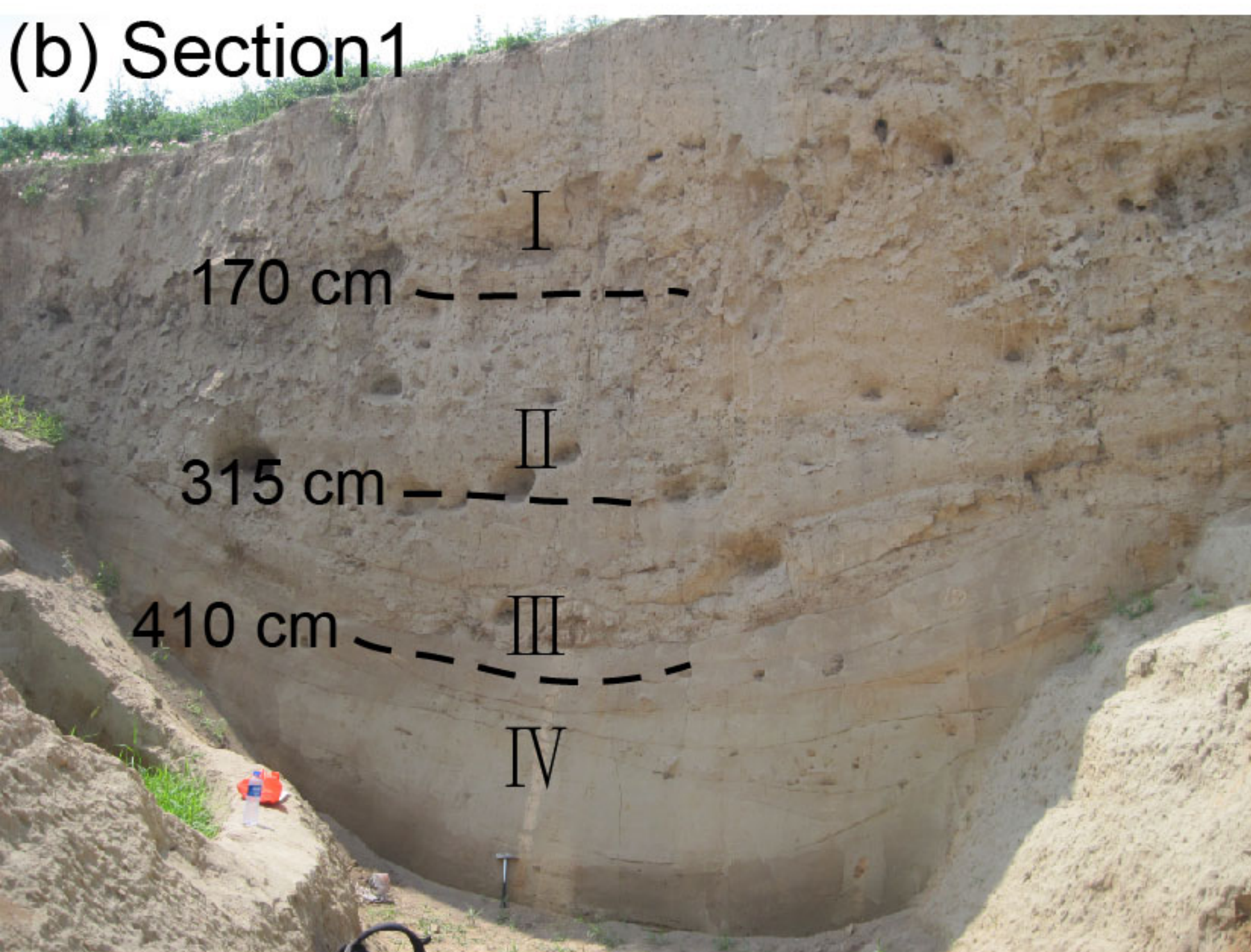
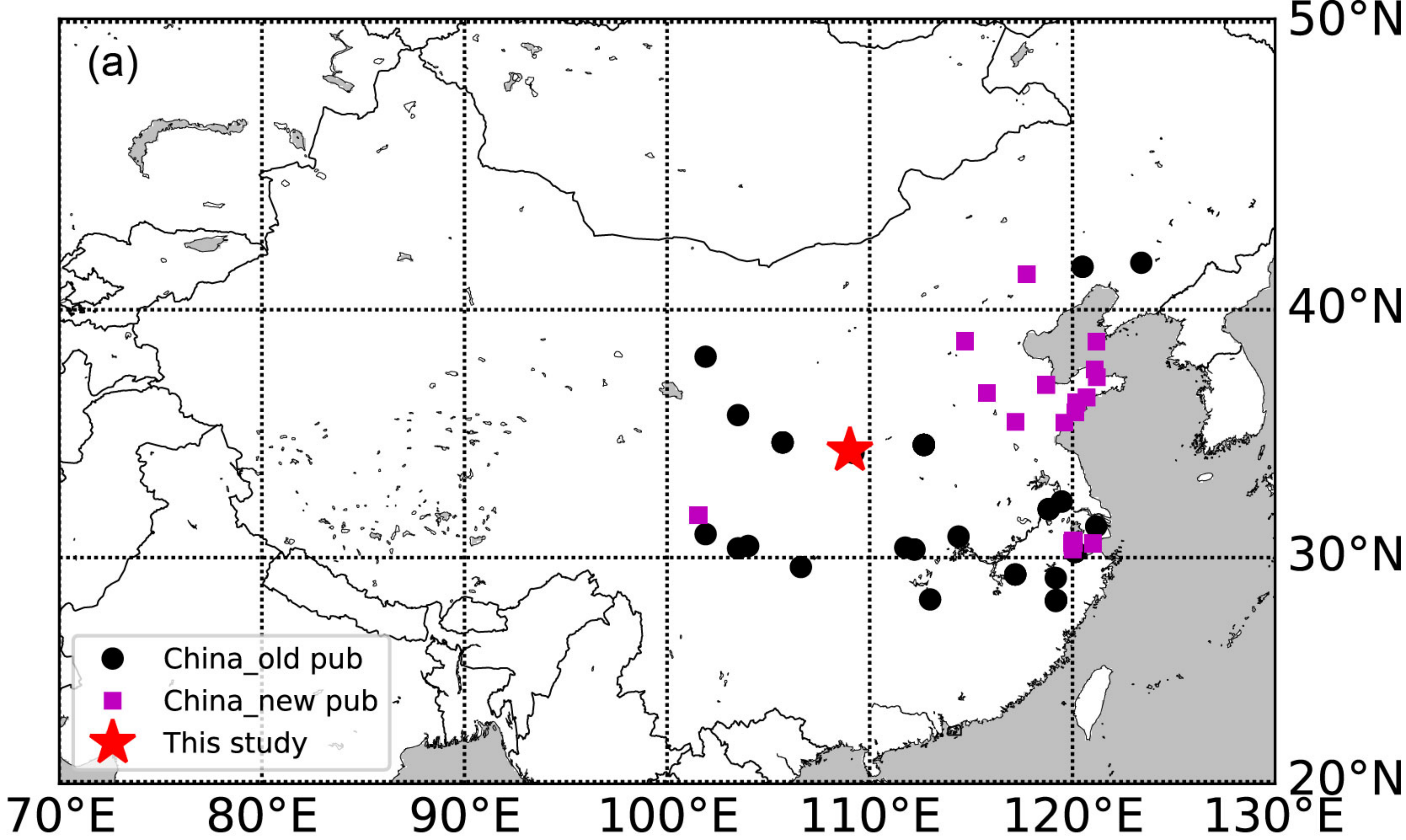


Figure2.

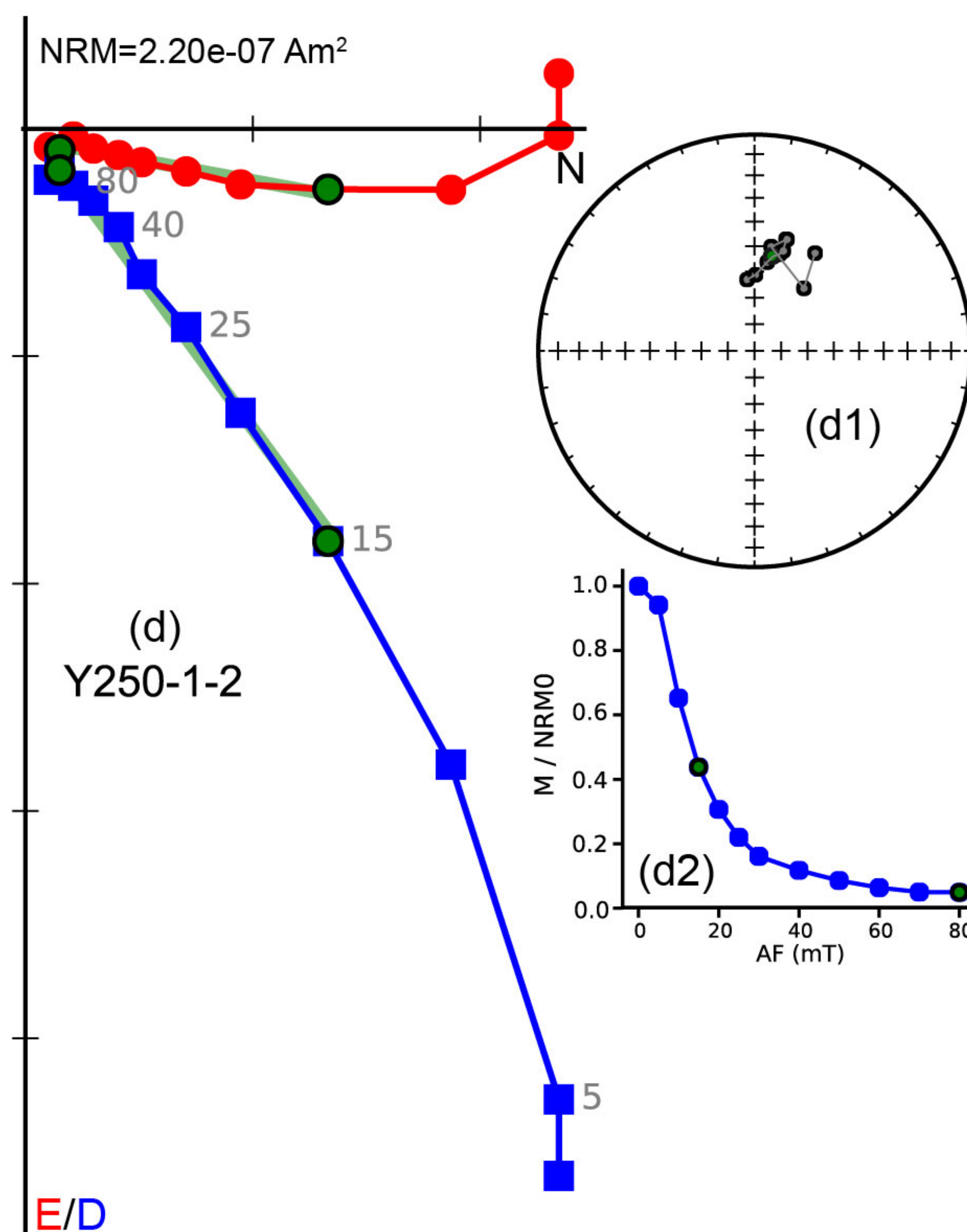
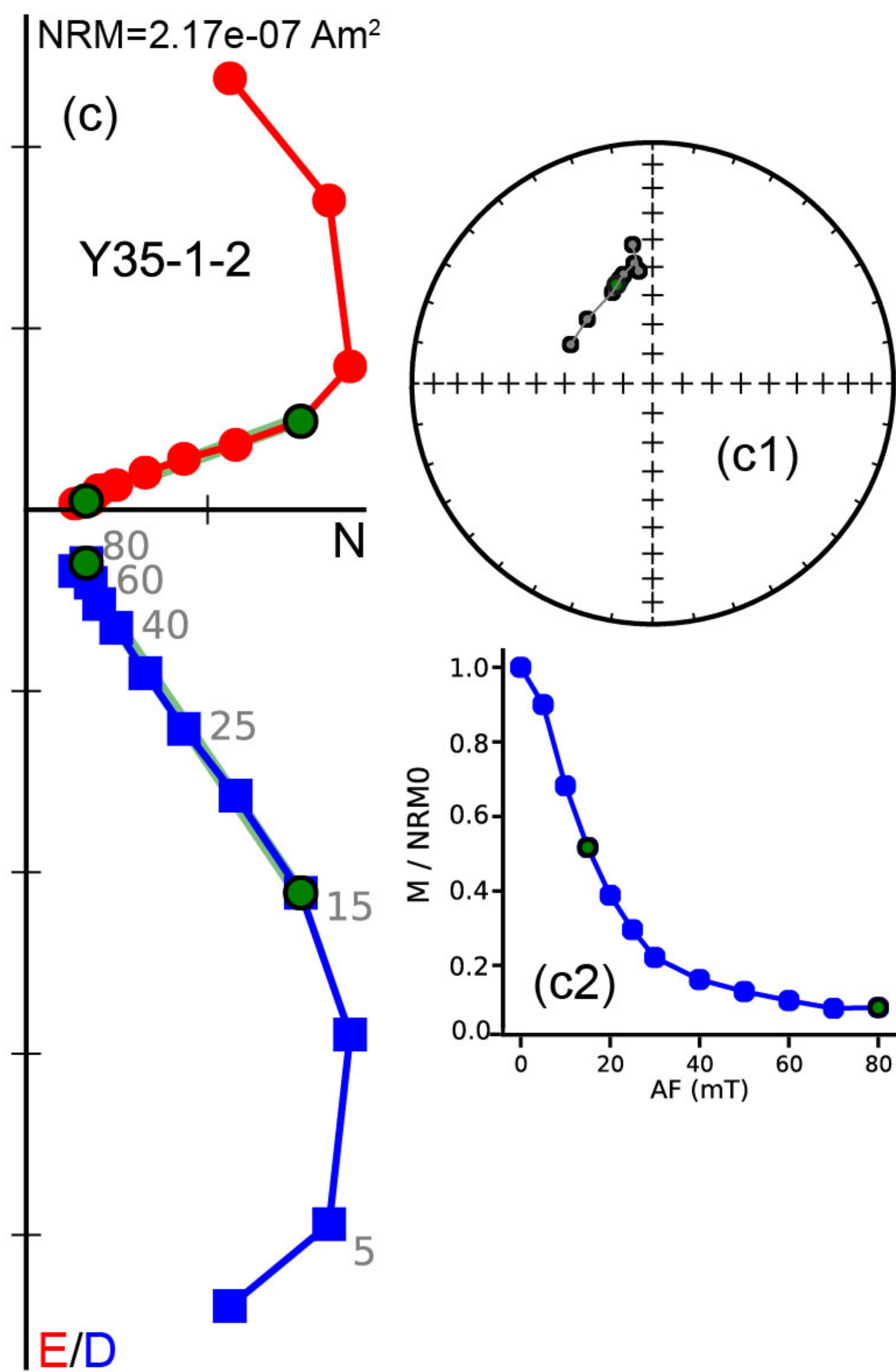
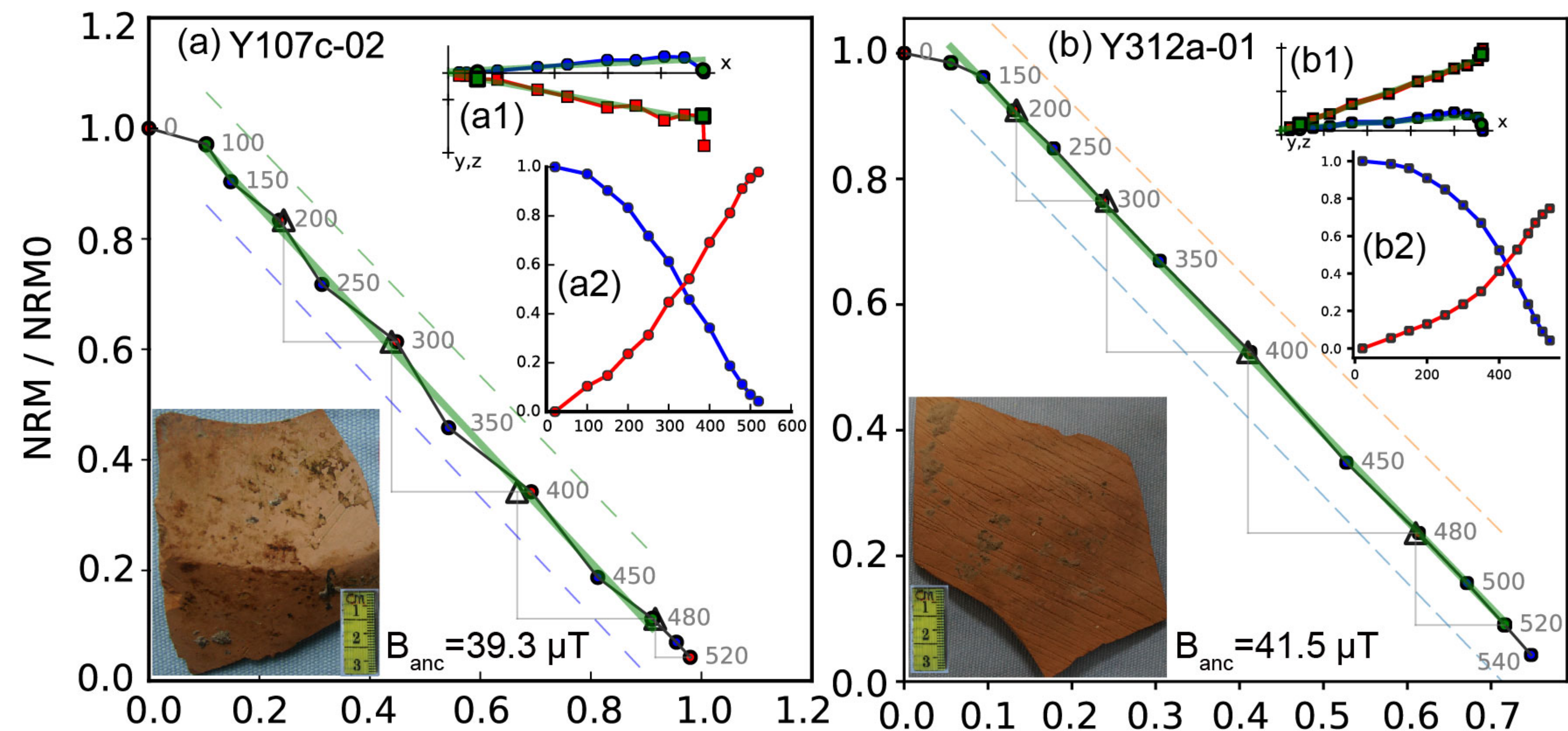


Figure 3.

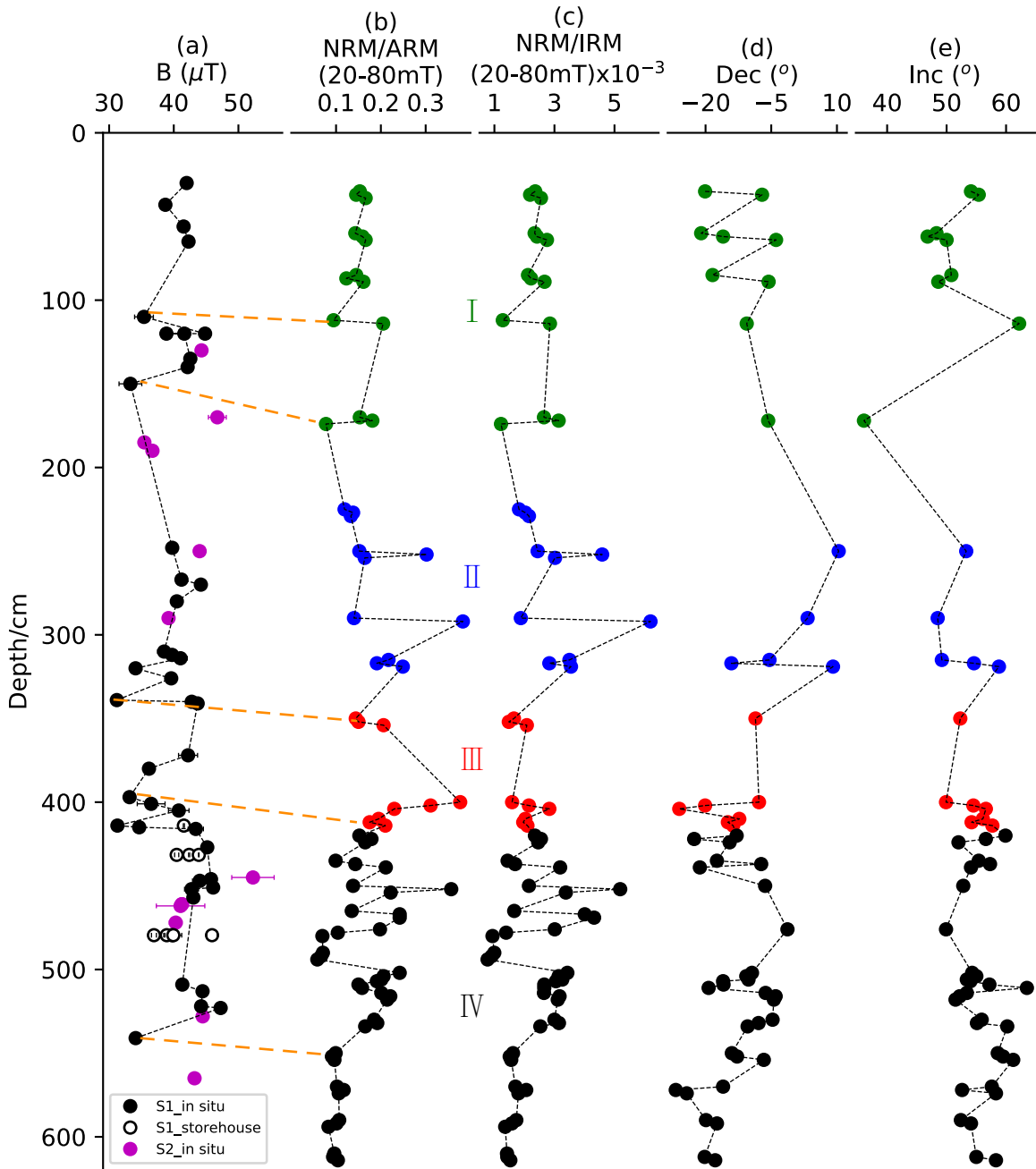


Figure4.

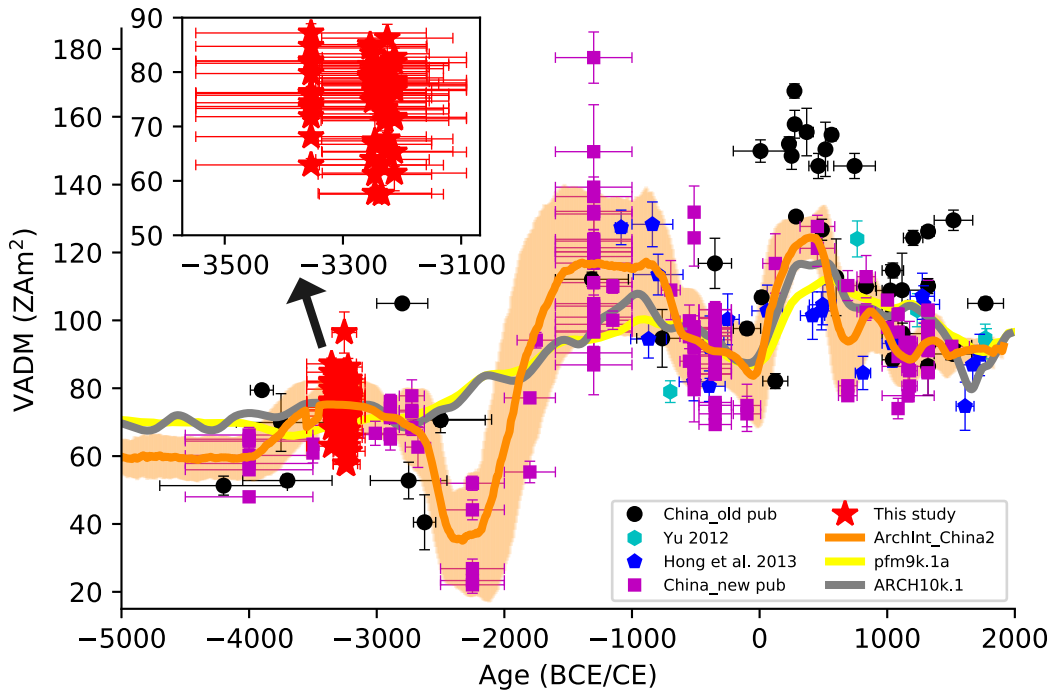


Figure 5.

