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## New Late Neolithic (c. 7000–5000 BC) archeointensity data from Syria. Reconstructing 9000years of archeomagnetic field intensity variations in the Middle East

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1 **New Late Neolithic (c.7000-5000 BC) archeointensity data from Syria.**  
2 **Reconstructing 9000 years of archeomagnetic field intensity variations in the**  
3 **Middle East**

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17

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19 Holocene

20

21 **ABSTRACT**

22 We present new archeomagnetic intensity data from two Late Neolithic archeological  
23 sites (Tell Halula and Tell Masaikh) in Syria. These data, from 24 groups of potsherds  
24 encompassing 15 different time levels, are obtained using the Triaxe experimental  
25 protocol, which takes into account both the thermoremanent magnetization anisotropy  
26 and cooling rate effects on intensity determinations. They allow us to recover the  
27 geomagnetic intensity variations in the Middle East, between ~7000 BC and ~5000 BC,  
28 i.e. during the so-called pre-Halaf, proto-Halaf, Halaf and Halaf-Ubaid Transitional  
29 cultural phases. The data are compared with previous archeointensity results of similar  
30 ages from Northern Iraq (Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto) and Bulgaria. We find that  
31 previous dating of the Iraqi material was in error. When corrected, all northern  
32 Mesopotamian data show a relatively good consistency and also reasonably match with  
33 the Bulgarian archeointensity dataset. Using a compilation of available data, we  
34 construct a geomagnetic field intensity variation curve for the Middle East  
35 encompassing the past 9000 years, which makes it presently the longest known regional  
36 archeomagnetic intensity record. We further use this compilation to constrain variations

37 in dipole field moment over most of the Holocene. In particular, we discuss the  
38 possibility that a significant dipole moment maximum occurred during the third  
39 millennium BC, which cannot easily be identified in available time-varying global  
40 geomagnetic field reconstructions.

41

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 Recent studies have been focused on the construction of time-varying global  
44 archeomagnetic field models that cover most of the Holocene (e.g. Korte et al., 2011;  
45 Nilsson et al., 2014; Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014). These models have been developed  
46 with the aim to decipher core dynamics over centennial and millennial time scales, the  
47 evolution of the past solar activity and the interactions between geomagnetic field and  
48 external processes (e.g. Korte et al., 2009; Licht et al., 2013; Usoskin et al., 2014). In all  
49 these studies, however, the authors acknowledge the fact that for the more ancient  
50 periods, i.e. beyond the first millennium BC, the reliability and accuracy of the  
51 geomagnetic field models are strongly penalized by the low number and the poor  
52 temporal and geographical distributions of the available archeomagnetic and volcanic  
53 paleomagnetic data. To overcome this problem, often paleomagnetic data from  
54 sediments have been included in the models reference dataset; nevertheless  
55 sedimentary data do not significantly improve the accuracy of the models because a part  
56 of them, difficult to estimate, may be biased by experimental errors and/or because  
57 these data often lack precise dating (e.g. Valet et al., 2008; Nilsson et al., 2010). There is  
58 therefore a critical need for new well dated archeomagnetic data dated with ages older  
59 than the first millennium BC.

60 The Middle East, thanks to its rich archeological and historical heritage, offers the  
61 possibility to travel back through the geomagnetic field history over most of the  
62 Holocene, recovering what could be the longest known archeomagnetic field record.  
63 Archeomagnetic studies conducted up to now were mainly focused on the Bronze and  
64 Iron Age archeological periods, allowing a better characterization of the regional  
65 geomagnetic field intensity behavior for the last 3 millennia BC (i.e. Genevey et al., 2003;  
66 Gallet and Le Goff, 2006; Gallet et al., 2008, 2014; Ben-Yosef et al., 2008, 2009; Gallet and  
67 Al Maqdissi, 2010; Thébaud and Gallet, 2010; Shaar et al., 2011; Ertepinar et al., 2012;  
68 Gallet and Butterlin, 2014). These studies have revealed significant field intensity

69 variations, and in particular a series of intensity maxima between ~2600 and 2500 BC,  
70 between ~2300-2000 BC, around 1500 BC and at the very beginning of the first  
71 millennium BC (e.g. Gallet et al., 2014). These studies have further shown that the  
72 beginning of the first millennium BC was most probably marked by the highest  
73 geomagnetic field intensity so far detected during the Holocene and perhaps even before  
74 (Ben-Yosef et al., 2009; Shaar et al., 2011; Ertepinar et al., 2012; Livermore et al., 2014).

75 In contrast, for older periods between ~7000 BC and 3000 BC, i.e. during the Late  
76 Neolithic (or Pottery Neolithic) and the Chalcolithic, the archeointensity data from the  
77 Middle East remain relatively scarce, which prevents an accurate description of the  
78 regional geomagnetic field intensity variations (e.g. Genevey et al., 2003; Ben-Yosef et al.,  
79 2008). However, several possibilities exist to sample pre-Bronze Age archeological sites.  
80 This is particularly true for the 6th millennium BC, which saw the development of the  
81 Halaf culture throughout the northern Mesopotamian region. This culture was named  
82 after the Tell Halaf archeological site in northern Syria (Fig. 1a), which was discovered  
83 and first excavated by the German diplomat Max von Oppenheim at the beginning of the  
84 20th century. The Halaf culture is notably characterized by a plentiful pottery  
85 production presenting a fine and light-colored clay paste, with brown or black  
86 monochrome or polychromatic painted decorations (e.g. Akkermans and Schwartz,  
87 2003; Nieuwenhuys et al., 2013 and references therein). This well-fired ceramic  
88 production thus constitutes a promising target for archeointensity investigations.

89 Going further back in time, archeomagnetic studies may benefit from recent  
90 archeological studies conducted in Syria that focused on the 7th millennium BC, which  
91 saw the emergence of the first pottery production in the Near East (e.g. Tsuneki and  
92 Miyake, 1996; Le Mière and Picon, 1998; Nishiaki and Le Mière, 2005; Molist et al., 2007;  
93 Nieuwenhuys et al., 2010, 2013). At first rare, the pottery was sometimes of a  
94 surprisingly elaborated conception with a painted decoration during a primitive phase  
95 referred to as the "Initial Pottery Neolithic" (~7000-6700 BC; e.g. Van der Plicht et al.,  
96 2011). By the middle of the 7th millennium BC, the use of ceramics spread over northern  
97 Mesopotamia (Nieuwenhuys et al., 2010, 2013 and references therein). This pre-Halaf  
98 period is mainly represented by undecorated plant-tempered pottery with a coarse clay  
99 paste shaped into baskets. The fineness of the clay paste improved at the end of the 7th  
100 millennium BC during a period referred to as proto-Halaf (~6050-5900 BC), just



101 preceding the Halaf period, with the use of mineral-tempered clay (e.g. Cruells and  
102 Nieuwenhuysse, 2004). According to Akkermans and Schwarz (2003), the pre-Halaf  
103 coarse pottery was produced in open fires, with heating temperatures of about 700-  
104 750°C, while the elaborate Halaf ceramics were most probably heated at higher  
105 temperatures in chambered kilns. For the pre- and proto-Halaf periods encompassing  
106 the 7th millennium BC, archeointensity studies are thus still possible, but they may be  
107 further complicated by the characteristics of the ceramic production.

108 To extend the Syrian geomagnetic field intensity record, which presently mainly  
109 documents the Bronze and Iron Age periods, we conducted an archeomagnetic study on  
110 the pre-Halaf, proto-Halaf, Halaf and Halaf-Ubaid Transitional archeological periods, a  
111 time interval of nearly two millennia (~7000 to ~5000 BC) covering the Pottery  
112 Neolithic, at the end of the Neolithic (e.g. Campbell, 2007; Campbell and Fletcher, 2010;  
113 Van der Plicht et al., 2011; Nieuwenhuysse et al., 2013 and references therein). The new  
114 archeointensity data reported in this study were mostly obtained from potsherds  
115 collected from the archeological site of Tell Halula located in northern Syria (Fig. 1a).  
116 These results were complemented by few data obtained from potsherds discovered at  
117 the archeological site of Tell Masaikh, located south-east along the middle course of the  
118 Euphrates river (Fig. 1a). It is of interest to note that the longest and almost continuous  
119 regional archeointensity record presently available was obtained from Bulgaria  
120 (Kovacheva et al., 2014). It begins around 6000 BC, i.e. a date during the proto-Halaf  
121 period, which means that some of the new data presented in this study are the oldest  
122 archeointensity data recovered until now. Furthermore, we recall the recent effort of  
123 data compilation of archeomagnetic, volcanic and sedimentary paleomagnetic results  
124 that led to the construction of global archeomagnetic field models encompassing almost  
125 the entire Holocene (Korte et al., 2011; Nilsson et al., 2014; Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014).  
126 Any new archeomagnetic intensity data dated to the Late Neolithic-Early Chalcolithic  
127 period, now rather rare (e.g. Genevey et al., 2008; Knudsen et al., 2008), will therefore  
128 allow us to test, at least regionally, the accuracy of the available models and in return  
129 will better constrain these models. This point is particularly critical and we will also  
130 report in this study on erroneous dating of a relatively large archeointensity dataset  
131 previously obtained in the Middle East for the 7<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> millennia BC (Nachasova and  
132 Burakov, 1995, 1998).

133

134 **2. Archeomagnetic sampling**135 *2.1. Tell Halula*

136 Tell Halula ( $\lambda=36^{\circ}25'N$ ,  $\varphi=38^{\circ}10'E$ ) is located in the modern Syrian  
137 administrative province of Raqqqa, about 80 km west of the city of Raqqqa and 85 km east  
138 of the city of Aleppo. This archeological site, ~4 km west of the Euphrates, forms a sub-  
139 circular artificial mound (360 m x 300 m), with an archeological deposit thickness of  
140 ~14 m (Fig. 1b). Archeological excavations conducted since 1991 by a team of the  
141 Universitat Aut3noma de Barcelona revealed a total of 38 phases of occupation. From  
142 the stratigraphic and archeological constraints (including chipped stone artefacts,  
143 pottery typology, figurines and architecture), it has been determined that the site was  
144 occupied continuously from the Middle Pre-Pottery Neolithic B (PPNB) to the Late Halaf  
145 periods, i.e. from ~7800 to 5300 cal BC (Molist et al. 2007, 2013; Molist 1996, 2001).  
146 The systematic archeological fieldwork at Tell Halula has brought significant knowledge  
147 about the development of farming, especially in the final stages of the Neolithisation  
148 process, when economic, technological and cultural changes were being consolidated.

149 The different phases of human occupation have been recovered in several  
150 sectors, especially in the south, south-east and central parts of the settlement (Sectors 1,  
151 2, 7, 14, 30, 44 and 45). The Neolithic ceramic horizon encompasses most of the seventh  
152 millennium BC and part of the sixth millennium BC (Architectural Phases 20 to 38),  
153 spanning the pre-Halaf (or Period 5 according to Lyon's School terminology; Hours et al.,  
154 1994), the proto-Halaf or Halaf Transitional and the Halaf (Early, Middle, Late) periods.  
155 The archeological and stratigraphic data indicate the presence of a sedentary  
156 population, with several large houses or architectural structures relatively dispersed  
157 over a surface of ~6 ha, i.e. with large open areas between households and buildings for  
158 domestic use. Furthermore, several structures for a collective use were discovered for  
159 the pre-Halaf period, with a massive enclosing wall in Sector 1 and a drainage channel in  
160 Sector SS7 (Molist, 1996, 1998; Molist and Faura, 1999; Molist et al., 2013).

161 The pottery assemblages analyzed in the present study were sampled following  
162 the main chronocultural phases documented at Tell Halula (Fig. 2; see description in  
163 Molist et al., 2013 and Supplementary Text1). Here, we used the same chronological

164 time scale as in Molist et al. (2013). For the first pottery production within the Early Pre-  
165 Halaf (Ceramic Phase I; ~7000-6600 BC), two groups of fragments collected from the  
166 top of Sector 2 were analyzed. The first group of fragments (SY 127) was recovered from  
167 a pit located in an open area and the second (SY 125), a little younger than the previous  
168 one, was collected from an occupation level associated with a rectangular building. For  
169 the intermediate pre-Halaf period (Ceramic Phase II; ~6600-6300 BC), three pottery  
170 groups were collected from a large outdoor space between several domestic units. Their  
171 age assignment was established via stratigraphy, with the group of potsherds SY96  
172 being the most recent, SY97-129 intermediate and SY98-128 being the oldest. Finally,  
173 pottery group SY130, comprising pottery fragments found in a pit from Sector 49, comes  
174 from the late pre-Halaf (Ceramic Phase III; ~6300-6050 BC).

175 For the period referred to as proto-Halaf (~6050-5900 BC), corresponding to  
176 Ceramic Phase IV defined at Tell Halula, two pottery groups of household artifacts were  
177 collected in Sectors 44 (SY94-137) and 40 (SY95). A single group (SY91) lies within the  
178 Early Halaf period (Ceramic Phase V; ~5900-5750 BC), which was recovered from a  
179 multicellular house located in sector 44. Different pits discovered in the same area of  
180 Sector 45 yielded four contemporaneous groups of pottery (SY87, SY88, SY89, SY90)  
181 dated within the Middle Halaf period (Ceramic Phase VI; ~5750-5550 BC).

182 Nine groups of fragments were collected from the most recent chronological  
183 phases at Tell Halula dated in the Late Halaf (Ceramic Phase VII; ~5550-5300 BC). This  
184 relatively dense sampling was possible due to a relatively complete stratigraphic  
185 sequence from Sector 49 (Gómez, 2011). For most of these groups, the fragments were  
186 recovered from different pits excavated in a large open yard, that were used for the  
187 disposal of ash and domestic waste. The stratigraphic data and the ceramic typology  
188 distinguish five successive temporal intervals, each being documented by one or several  
189 pottery groups (from older to younger: SY86-131; SY135; SY84 and SY138; SY82 and  
190 SY83-136; SY80, SY81 and SY132).

191 In summary, 22 different pottery groups from 14 successive occupation levels  
192 were thus sampled at Tell Halula, whose dates span ~1700 years, between ~7000 and  
193 ~5300 BC. For displaying the results in a relative chronological framework for phases II  
194 and VII, we made the rough approximation of an equi-temporal distribution for  
195 respectively the three and five successive occupation levels (i.e. assuming a duration of

196 100 years for each intermediate pre-Halaf level between 6600 BC and 6300 BC and a  
197 duration of 50 years for each Late Halaf level between 5550 BC and 5300 BC; dating  
198 with \* in Table 1).

199

## 200 2.2. Tell Masaikh

201 The archeological site of Tell Masaikh ( $\lambda=34^{\circ}25'N$ ,  $\varphi=40^{\circ}01'E$ ) is located on a  
202 river terrace in the middle Euphrates Valley (left bank), in the modern province of Deir  
203 ez-Zor (eastern Syria). Discovered in 1996 by the *Mission Archéologique Française de*  
204 *Ashara/Terqa* led by O. Rouault, excavations at Tell Masaikh (~4 km from Terqa),  
205 conducted under the leadership of M.-G. Masetti-Rouault, have revealed several phases  
206 of occupation starting with the Late Neolithic (Halaf). More recent periods include  
207 significant Neo-Assyrian remains, with a citadel and a palace dated in the 9<sup>th</sup>-8<sup>th</sup>  
208 centuries BC (Iron Age period), which led the identification of Tell Masaikh as the  
209 Assyrian city named Kar-Assurnasirpal (see general discussion in Masetti-Rouault,  
210 2010).

211 The discovery in the western sector D of Tell Masaikh of an artisanal Halaf  
212 settlement makes this site also quite unique. It is located away from most other known  
213 Halaf archeological sites situated more to the North with rainfall above 250 mm/year  
214 (while rainfall is below this isohyet in the Tell Masaikh region; e.g. Masetti-Rouault,  
215 2006; Robert, 2010), which opens discussion on farming systems and on the use of  
216 irrigation at this time.

217 Excavations of the Halaf levels at Tell Masaikh unearthed several occupation  
218 levels in open areas with fire places (tannurs), several kilns probably for pottery  
219 production and a 1.5 m-thick, ~20 m-long stone wall that supported a terrace. A rich  
220 ensemble of Late Halaf potsherds was also recovered. The potsherds analyzed in the  
221 present study were found in the uppermost layers dated in the Halaf-Ubaid Transitional  
222 (~5300-5000 BC; e.g. Campbell and Fletcher, 2010) based on their typology and from  
223 the painted decoration that used manganese pigments for black color. The youngest  
224 Halaf pottery belongs to polychrome Late Halaf types associated with some Impressed  
225 Ware known as Dalma types and Ubaid-style ceramics (Masetti-Rouault, 2005; Robert et  
226 al., 2008; Robert, 2010). We sampled in Locus K171 two groups of these fragments with

227 fine mineral-tempered clay paste (pottery groups SY37, SY38), the first in the  
228 occupation layer referred to as E2, and the second on floor E7 on top of layer E2.

229

### 230 3. New archeomagnetic intensity results

231 All the archeointensity measurements reported in this study were obtained using  
232 the experimental protocol developed by Le Goff and Gallet (2004) for the Triaxe  
233 magnetometer. The details of this experimental protocol can be found in Le Goff and  
234 Gallet (2004) (see also Genevey et al., 2009; 2013; Hartmann et al., 2010; Gallet et al.,  
235 2014). We only recall here that it relies on magnetization measurements of a small  
236 specimen ( $<1\text{cm}^3$ ) directly carried out at high temperatures and on a sequence of  
237 measurements (with successive heating and cooling cycles) automatically performed  
238 over a fixed temperature range between a low temperature referred to as  $T_1$  (typically  
239 of  $150^\circ\text{C}$ ) and a high temperature referred to as  $T_2$  (typically between  $500^\circ\text{C}$  and  $530^\circ\text{C}$ ).  
240 In the past few years, a relatively large collection of archeointensity data of different  
241 ages and of different origins was obtained using the Triaxe, and comparative studies  
242 with results derived from more classical methods (i.e. from the Thellier and Thellier's  
243 (1959) method as revised by Coe (1967) or from the IZZI version of Thellier and  
244 Thellier's (1959) method; e.g. Yu et al., 2004) demonstrated the reliability of the Triaxe  
245 intensity data when quality criteria are taken into account. In our study, we use the  
246 same quality criteria relative to the intensity determination for a specimen as those  
247 described by Genevey et al. (2009) and Hartmann et al. (2010, 2011), and which were  
248 also used more recently by Genevey et al. (2013), Gallet et al. (2014) and Gallet and  
249 Butterlin (2014) (Supplementary Table 1). In particular, these criteria allow us to  
250 eliminate the data that could be biased due to alteration of the magnetic minerals during  
251 heating. Moreover, the temperature range over which the intensity determinations are  
252 recovered from each specimen is precisely adjusted so that the analyzed magnetization  
253 component is univectorial and corresponds to the magnetization acquired during the  
254 manufacture of the pottery. Fig. 3 shows two examples of demagnetization behaviors.  
255 After the removal of the viscous low-temperature component, the first behavior shows a  
256 single magnetization component above  $\sim 200^\circ\text{C}$  (SY89-08), while the second behavior  
257 reveals two components (SY140-06). In these cases, the temperature range was  
258 adjusted above  $\sim 200^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\sim 340^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively for obtaining intensity determinations

259 at the specimen level. Finally, the intensity data should not be affected by the presence  
260 of multidomain magnetite grains and they take into account both the thermoremanent  
261 magnetization (TRM) anisotropy and cooling rate effects on TRM acquisition (for a  
262 thorough discussion on these aspects, see for instance in Le Goff and Gallet, 2004;  
263 Genevey et al., 2008, 2009; Hartmann et al., 2010).

264 Our archeointensity analyses were complemented by hysteresis measurements  
265 and by isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquisition up to 0.8 T performed at  
266 Saint Maur using a laboratory-built inductometer coupled with an electro-magnet. In  
267 most cases, two fragments were analyzed for each group of fragments. IRM  
268 measurements show very similar behaviors with saturation reached in relatively low  
269 magnetic fields ( $\sim 0.2\text{-}0.3$  T), indicating the absence of high-coercivity minerals (Fig. 4a).  
270 We note that the hysteresis loops are generally not constricted (Fig. 4b-c).  
271 Thermomagnetic low-field susceptibility curves obtained using a KLY-3 Kappabridge  
272 coupled with a CS3 thermal unit show that the existing magnetic grains have maximum  
273 unblocking temperatures below  $600^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 4d-g). All these magnetic properties indicate  
274 that the magnetization of our specimens is most probably predominantly carried by  
275 minerals of the (titano)magnetite family. Furthermore, the thermomagnetic curves  
276 exhibit variable behaviors, independently of the age of the fragments, which suggests  
277 the presence of (titano)magnetite with different titanium contents or different grain  
278 sizes. We also observe a good reversibility between the heating and cooling  
279 susceptibility vs. temperature curves, which constitutes a good marker of the stability of  
280 the magnetic mineralogy on heating. We note that these magnetic properties are very  
281 similar to those we previously obtained from Syrian fired-clay artifacts of younger ages  
282 (e.g. Genevey et al., 2003; Gallet et al., 2008; 2014; Gallet and Butterlin, 2014).

283 Except for one case, the hysteresis parameters obtained for the fragments from  
284 Tell Halula lie within the pseudo-single domain (PSD) range of magnetite defined by  
285 Dunlop et al. (2002a) when projected on a Day plot (Day et al., 1977). Most  $M_{RS}/M_S$  and  
286  $H_{CR}/H_C$  ratios are concentrated inside a restricted area, with  $\sim 0.30 > M_{RS}/M_S > \sim 0.15$  and  
287  $\sim 4 > H_{CR}/H_C > \sim 2.5$ ), above the theoretical mixing curves for mixture of SD and MD  
288 magnetite grains but also well below the mixing curve of SD and superparamagnetic  
289 (SP) magnetite grains (Fig. 4h). According to Dunlop (2002b), this may reflect a large  
290 distribution of grain sizes, including SP, SD and MD magnetite grains. In contrast, most

291 of the hysteresis parameters obtained from Tell Masaïkh (open blue triangles in Fig. 4h)  
292 fall within the theoretical SD-MD mixing curves defined by Dunlop (2002a), therefore  
293 indicating a coarser grain size distribution for those specimens. It is worth mentioning  
294 that the evolution of the techniques (preparation of the clay paste, firing conditions)  
295 used to produce ceramics at Tell Halula between the pre-Halaf and Halaf periods is  
296 clearly not reflected in the hysteresis ratios, their dispersions being very similar  
297 regardless of the age of the fragments (colored symbols in Fig. 4h). Further considering  
298 the data from Tell Masaïkh and the previous ones obtained from Ebla/Tell Mardikh  
299 (grey dots in Fig. 4h; Gallet et al., 2014), it appears that the distribution of the hysteresis  
300 parameters obtained at a given archeological site constitutes a magnetic signature of the  
301 clay source used to produce pottery at this site, and it may be used as an identification  
302 tool complementary to more classical chemical analyses.

303 Fig. 5 shows the intensity results obtained from eight pottery groups. Each curve  
304 from each panel shown in this figure exhibits the intensity data obtained for one  
305 specimen over a temperature range often exceeding 200-250°C. In general, we only  
306 analyzed one specimen per fragment. However, when the number of favorable  
307 fragments was  $\leq 5$  (i.e. for pottery groups SY127, SY125, SY95, SY38), we analyzed three  
308 specimens from each fragment and we first estimated a mean intensity value at the  
309 fragment level before computing a mean value at the group level. The success rate of our  
310 archeointensity analyses significantly varies according to the archeological periods.  
311 While it is only 36% for the pre-Halaf period (54 fragments from 151 analyzed  
312 fragments) and 56 % (22 from 39 fragments) for the proto-Halaf period, it increases up  
313 to 70% for the sites dated in the Halaf period (133 from 191 fragments) and 67% for the  
314 Halaf-Ubaid Transitional period (16 favorable fragments from 24 studied fragments).  
315 The relatively low success rate for the pre-Halaf fragments is mainly due to the presence  
316 of two magnetization components, which is likely related to the use of these ceramics for  
317 cooking (hence preventing in many cases the clear isolation of a primary  
318 magnetization). Examples of failed results are reported in Supplementary Fig. 1. Overall,  
319 we analyzed a total of 405 fragments, among which 225 fragments (254 specimens)  
320 yielded favorable archeointensity results, allowing us to determine 24 mean intensity  
321 values at the pottery group level. Results obtained at the specimen/fragment level are  
322 detailed in Supplementary Table 2, while Table 1 provides the group-mean intensity  
323 values. These intensity values are generally well defined, with a number of fragments

324 analyzed per site larger or equal to 7 for 19 pottery groups ( $\geq 10$  for 10 sites) and a  
325 standard deviation always of less than 5  $\mu\text{T}$ , ranging between 1.8 % and 11.4 % of the  
326 corresponding group-mean intensity values ( $\leq 5.0$  % for 10 sites and  $\leq 7.5$  % for 21  
327 among the 24 studied pottery groups). We note, however, that the mean intensity value  
328 obtained for group SY125 ( $\sim 6650$ - $6550$  BC) is only defined by two fragments (6  
329 specimens), but it was kept for the discussion below because of the scarcity of such old  
330 archeointensity data.

331

#### 332 4. Late Neolithic archeointensity variations in the Middle East

333 The new archeointensity data are reported in Fig. 6 (see also Supplementary Fig.  
334 2, where the results are averaged over the successive occupation levels). The new  
335 results show that the time interval between  $\sim 7000$  BC and  $\sim 5000$  BC was apparently  
336 marked in the Middle East by an overall decreasing trend in geomagnetic field intensity.  
337 This decrease was however not regular. In particular, a relative intensity minimum is  
338 observed at the beginning of the Late Halaf period (pottery group SY86-131 with 20  
339 favorable fragments), around the middle of the 6th millennium BC. An intensity peak  
340 appears to have occurred during the Late Halaf period, between  $\sim 5550$  and  $\sim 5300$  BC.  
341 This intensity peak is supported by the low geomagnetic field intensity values obtained  
342 at Tell Masaikh for the Halaf-Ubaid Transitional period.

343 We compared the new Tell Halula and Tell Masaikh data with two other  
344 archeointensity datasets of the same age previously obtained in relatively nearby  
345 regions (Fig. 7). The first dataset includes results obtained at Yarim Tepe II and Tell  
346 Sotto, two multi-level archeological sites from northern Iraq (Fig. 1a; Nachasova and  
347 Burakov, 1995, 1998). In these two studies, the pottery fragments were selected and  
348 dated according to their stratigraphic position within a sequence of archeological  
349 deposits (with a total thickness of 780 cm at Yarim Tepe II and 280 cm at Tell Sotto), and  
350 assuming a constant accumulation rate of archeological deposits. Although such a  
351 sampling procedure may obviously introduce large uncertainties in the dating of the  
352 studied fragments, it nevertheless appears that this approach can provide satisfactory  
353 results (e.g. Nachasova and Burakov, 1998; Kostadinova-Avramova et al., 2014).  
354 However, in both cases, the dating considered by Nachasova and Burakov (1995, 1998)



355 appears systematically shifted by several centuries relative to the most recent  
356 chronological Pottery Neolithic time scale (see Campbell, 2007; Bernbeck and  
357 Nieuwenhuys, 2013). Indeed, the fragments from Yarim Tepe II are unambiguously  
358 archeologically dated to the Middle-Late Halaf period (~5750-5300 BC; e.g., Campbell,  
359 2007; Robert, 2009; Bernbeck and Nieuwenhuys, 2013 and references therein), but  
360 their ages were mostly assigned in the 5th millennium BC. Similarly, the fragments  
361 collected at Tell Sotto were dated to the middle of the 6th millennium BC by Nachasova  
362 and Burakov (1998), but the studied ceramics are dated to the Late Pre-Halaf (Late  
363 proto-Hassuna and Archaic Hassuna cultural phases), i.e. between ~6400 and ~6050 BC  
364 (e.g. Bader, 1989; Bader and Le Mière, 2013; Le Mière pers. comm. 2014).

365 For these reasons, we assigned new ages to Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto  
366 considering first, the stratigraphic position of the concerned fragments as provided by  
367 the authors and second, assuming that the entire Middle-Late Halaf and Late Pre-Halaf  
368 periods were represented in the Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto deposits (like the authors  
369 considered but for two other time intervals). Finally, for displaying in Fig. 7a the data  
370 obtained at Yarim Tepe II, with only a single specimen studied per fragment, and at Tell  
371 Sotto we also performed intensity averaging over several fragments when the latter  
372 come from the same stratigraphic intervals, i.e. each time there was a group of  
373 fragments considered of the same age. We observe an overall good agreement with the  
374 data obtained at Tell Halula and Tell Masaikh. In particular, this agreement confirms the  
375 occurrence in northern Mesopotamia of a relative intensity minimum around the middle  
376 of the 6th millennium BC, which further strengthens the occurrence of an intensity peak  
377 at the beginning of the second half of the 6th millennium BC.

378 The second archeointensity dataset comprises the results encompassing the 6th  
379 millennium BC from Bulgaria that were recently updated by Kovacheva et al. (2014)  
380 (Fig. 7b). From this new analysis, a century-scale intensity peak seems to be emerging  
381 around the middle of the 6<sup>th</sup> millennium, which might coincide, within age uncertainties,  
382 with that observed from the Syrian Late Halaf data. According to this interpretation, the  
383 data available for the Halaf-Ubaid Transitional period would come prior to the  
384 geomagnetic field intensity increase observed in the Bulgarian data at the end of the 6<sup>th</sup>  
385 millennium BC. Constraining further this preliminary correlation will require the  
386 acquisition of new archeointensity data in the Balkans and in the Middle East.

387

388 **5. Discussion**

389 We have undertaken the construction of a geomagnetic field intensity secular  
390 variation curve in the Middle East during the Holocene. For this purpose, we selected all  
391 the archeointensity data available inside a circle with a radius 1000 km around the  
392 archeological site of Tell Halaf ( $\lambda=36^{\circ}49'N$ ,  $\varphi=40^{\circ}02'E$ ; Supplementary Fig. 3). The data  
393 were retrieved from the ArcheoInt database (Genevey et al., 2008) and complemented  
394 with the more recent studies (Ben-Yosef et al., 2009; Gallet and Al Maqdissi, 2010; Shaar  
395 et al., 2011, 2014; Ertepinar et al., 2012; Gallet et al., 2014; Gallet and Butterlin, 2014).  
396 They were obtained from the eastern part of Turkey, Cyprus, Syria, the Levant, Iraq,  
397 from the western part of Iran and from the Caucasus. Note that the large dataset from  
398 the Balkans and Greece (e.g. De Marco et al., 2008; Tema and Kondopoulou, 2011;  
399 Kovacheva et al., 2014) has not been included to allow it to be compared to different  
400 regional secular variation behaviors from elsewhere (e.g. between the Middle East,  
401 Eastern Europe and Western Europe). Genevey et al. (2008) proposed a set of selection  
402 criteria in order to distinguish between all available data those that meet minimum  
403 quality criteria. This approach enabled the construction of two datasets referred to as  
404 "Selected data" and "All data" in Genevey et al. (2008). Hereafter we have considered the  
405 compilation of selected data to calculate the Middle East geomagnetic field intensity  
406 variation curve, considering the new dating we estimated for Tell Sotto and Yarim Tepe  
407 II and using, for these two sites, the mean intensity values computed from fragments  
408 associated with the same stratigraphic level (Fig. 7a).

409 To calculate our curve, we first applied a method based on the use of sliding  
410 windows of 200 years successively shifted by 10 years through the past 9 millennia. We  
411 computed VADM values only for those time intervals containing at least 3 results.  
412 Following Thébaut and Gallet (2010) and Licht et al. (2013), we also used the bootstrap  
413 technique with 1000 runs by introducing random noise in the data within their  
414 experimental and age uncertainties. This allowed us to compute 1000 intensity variation  
415 curves. In Fig. 8a we displayed the averaged VADM (thick line) together with the  
416 minimum and maximum VADM values obtained for the different sliding windows, hence  
417 defining an envelope of equally possible VADM values. Due to the insufficient number of  
418 archeointensity data spanning the 5th and 4th millennia BC, no averaged curve could be

419 determined between ~4930 BC and ~3650 BC, i.e. during the Ubaid and Uruk periods in  
420 Mesopotamia. This time interval therefore constitutes a particularly important target for  
421 future archeomagnetic studies in the Middle East. For other periods, the computed curve  
422 appears very consistent with almost all the Syrian data (blue dots in Fig. 8a; Genevey et  
423 al., 2003; Gallet and Le Goff, 2006; Gallet et al., 2006, 2008, 2014; Gallet and Al Maqdissi,  
424 2010; Gallet and Butterlin, 2014 and this study). We observe the same variation trends,  
425 with distinct intensity maxima during the second half of the first millennium AD, at the  
426 beginning of the first millennium BC and around the middle of the third millennium BC.  
427 Supplementary Fig. 4 also exhibits the averaged intensity curve computed without the  
428 Syrian data, showing in particular that the latter data set allows us to better constrain  
429 the curve during the third millennium BC (note that this curve takes into account the  
430 new dating of the Tell Sotto and Yarim Tepe II data). The temporal resolution of 200  
431 years of the regional averaged curve most probably prevents the recovery of distinct  
432 century-scale intensity (VADM) maxima at ~1500 BC, ~2550 BC and ~2300 BC clearly  
433 observed from Syrian data at Ebla and Mari (Gallet et al., 2008, 2014; Gallet and  
434 Butterlin, 2014), as well as the maximum in intensity between ~5500 and ~5300 BC  
435 exhibited by the Tell Halula data or the spike events proposed by Ben-Yosef et al. (2009)  
436 and Shaar et al. (2011) at the very beginning of the first millennium BC.

437         The second approach is similar to the method described above but relies on the  
438 more complex cubic B-splines time parameterization and uses an iterative scheme to  
439 identify and then to weight the data that are considered as outliers (Fig. 8b; modified  
440 from Thébault and Gallet, 2010). The algorithm first proposes a set of possible spline  
441 knots irregularly spaced. The spacing is designed to take full advantage of the varying  
442 time resolution between epochs that arises from the uneven time distribution of the  
443 reference archeomagnetic data. For instance, it is found that the maximum achievable  
444 time resolution is about 150 years between 7000 BC to about 5000 BC and between  
445 ~3000 BC and 2000 AD, while searching for features with time resolution lower than  
446 800 years makes little sense between ~5000 BC and ~3000 BC. Then, the data are as  
447 before 1000 times randomly noised within their a priori error bars. For each curve, the  
448 algorithm checks whether the maximum likelihood solution belongs to the a priori 95%  
449 error bar of the data and weights accordingly the data that are systematically outside  
450 this confidence interval. Fig. 8b displays the final solution with the maximum probability

451 in black and its 95% fluctuation envelope in light blue. This envelope contains 95% of  
452 the maximum likelihood curves estimated by the bootstrap for the 1000 iterations, and  
453 it highlights the variability between the different curves. This parameter is important for  
454 testing the precision of the most probable curve and for identifying the fine time  
455 variations that persist after resampling. Formally, however, the statistical significance of  
456 a time variation can be assessed only after the computation of the 95% confidence  
457 interval (in red) that is traditionally calculated *a posteriori* from the misfit function  
458 between the data and the ensemble of models. Compared to the first approach, the  
459 likelihood solution provided in supplementary Table 3 is generally smoother. This  
460 feature is desired for testing whether the apparent fine time variation of the maximum  
461 likelihood can be considered as robust. A striking feature emerging from the comparison  
462 between Fig. 8a and Fig. 8b is that the final solution is independent of the chosen  
463 modeling scheme. This is seemingly positive evidence that the observed magnetic field  
464 intensity variations are well constrained (within the given time resolution) by the  
465 available data in the chosen geographical area.

466 We then sought to constrain the variations in global geomagnetic dipole field  
467 moment over the past 9 millennia. For this, we averaged the archeointensity data  
468 available in the Middle East over sliding windows of 500 years, roughly assuming that  
469 this rather long duration may suffice to average out most of the non-dipole  
470 contributions (e.g. Hulot and Le Mouél, 1994; Genevey et al., 2008; Knudsen et al., 2008).  
471 On the other hand, this averaging smoothes out the more rapid variations in dipole  
472 moment over centennial time scales (Genevey et al., 2009; 2013). The curve constructed  
473 using the same technique as in Fig. 8a is shown in Fig. 9a, together with the VADM  
474 computed by Knudsen et al. (2008) using the global GEOMAGIA50 database (Korhonen  
475 et al., 2008) and applying both temporal and geographical averaging to eliminate the  
476 non-dipole components. As a general comment, the two curves exhibit the same dipole  
477 behavior during the past three millennia (although the magnitude and the amplitude of  
478 the variations are not strictly the same), characterized by two periods of stronger dipole  
479 moment during the first millennium BC and during the second half of the first  
480 millennium AD (see also Genevey et al., 2008; Hong et al., 2013). In contrast, these  
481 curves are significantly different during the third millennium BC, with a smooth VADM  
482 evolution in the case of the Knudsen et al. (2008) curve but with a distinct dipole  
483 maximum in our Middle East curve. For older periods, there is again a good consistency

484 between the two curves, but we note the large error bars of Knudsen et al.'s (2008)  
485 curve for the 7th-6th millennium segment. Thus the question remains as to the  
486 significance of the dipole maximum observed in the Middle East during the third  
487 millennium BC, which is well constrained by a significant number of data. Owing to the  
488 rather good agreement between the two curves, especially during the past three  
489 millennia, the VADM maximum we observe during the third millennium BC might well  
490 be a global (dipole) geomagnetic feature that requires further confirmation. If true, it  
491 would indicate that the dipole evolution varied more erratically than previously thought,  
492 with an oscillatory behavior at least between  $\sim 3000$  BC and 2000 AD of typical time  
493 scale of about 1700 years (see also Burakov et al., 1998).

494 Fig. 9b compares our VADM variation curve with dipole moments derived from  
495 global geomagnetic field modeling that was recently constructed using only  
496 archeomagnetic and volcanic data (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014, in blue) and another that  
497 also incorporated paleomagnetic data from sediments (Nilsson et al., 2014 in orange and  
498 green; note that this latter reconstruction supersedes the previous field reconstruction  
499 of Korte et al., 2011). The field models that partly rely on sediment data naturally show  
500 time variations smoother than that of the models constructed using only the  
501 archeomagnetic and volcanic data. Hence, the dipole moments derived by Nilsson et al.  
502 (2014) during the 7th millennium BC are lower than the ones proposed by Pavón-  
503 Carrasco et al. (2014) and lower than the averaged VADM we estimated from the Middle  
504 East. However, at the beginning of the first millennium BC, the VADM values from the  
505 Middle East are much higher than the dipole moments from either models. Neither of  
506 two reconstructions shows the distinct dipole maxima previously observed during the  
507 past three millennia (Fig. 9a; Genevey et al., 2008; Knudsen et al., 2008), in particular the  
508 one dated to the first millennium AD. This clearly poses the question of the consistency  
509 between the VADM estimates and the time-varying dipole moment reconstructions.  
510 Nevertheless, it could be argued that the field modeling of Pavón-Carrasco et al. (2014)  
511 gives some support to the occurrence of a dipole moment maximum during the third  
512 millennium BC (Fig. 9b). Such an agreement still needs to be confirmed because the  
513 proposed field reconstruction shows numerous centennial-scale fluctuations with  
514 similar amplitudes over the entire sequence, a feature whose geomagnetic origin is  
515 questionable.

516 As a concluding remark, we point out that the different time-varying  
517 archeomagnetic field reconstructions encompassing the 7th-5th millennium time  
518 interval all suffer from the erroneous dating affecting the Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto  
519 data. Together with the corrected Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto ages, the new  
520 archeointensity data obtained in the present study dated to between 7000 BC and 5000  
521 BC will help improve the reliability of the next generation of geomagnetic field models  
522 spanning the Late Neolithic period. Besides implications for geomagnetism, this  
523 improvement may be of particular interest in providing chronological time constraints  
524 for archeological purposes, during a fascinating period (e.g. Berger and Guilaine, 2009)  
525 that was marked by the beginning of the Neolithic expansion from the Middle East  
526 toward Western Europe.

527

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777 **Table caption**

778 **Table 1.** Pottery group-mean intensity values obtained at Tell Halula ( $\lambda=36^{\circ}25'N$ ,  
 779  $\varphi=38^{\circ}10'E$ ; pottery groups SY127 to SY132) and Tell Masaikh ( $\lambda=34^{\circ}25'N$ ,  $\varphi=40^{\circ}01'E$ ;  
 780 pottery groups SY37 and SY38). Information on the different archeological dating,  
 781 relative chronology and references are provided in the second, third and fourth  
 782 columns. See text for references on absolute dating (fifth column). \* indicates that an  
 783 approximation was made on the dating (see text). The mean intensity values and their  
 784 standard deviations are provided in column 6. Column 7 shows the number Nb of  
 785 fragments (/n specimens) retained for computing the pottery group-mean intensity  
 786 values.

787

788 **Figure captions**

789 **Fig. 1.** (a) Location of the two Syrian archeological sites studied herein (Tell Halula and  
 790 Tell Masaikh) and of three other sites discussed in the text (Tell Halaf, Yarim Tepe II and  
 791 Tell Sotto). ©Google Earth. (b) General view of the Tell Halula archeological site. ©  
 792 Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB)/SAPPO.

793 **Fig. 2.** Examples of pottery sherds discovered at Tell Halula. These fragments are dated  
 794 to phases I, II and III of the pre-Halaf (photos 1-2, 3-4 and 5-6, respectively), to the  
 795 proto-Halaf (photos 7-8), and to the Early, Middle and Late Halaf (photos 9, 10-11 and  
 796 12-13, respectively). © Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB)/SAPPO.

797 **Fig. 3.** Triaxe intensity data obtained for two specimens from Tell Halula (SY89-08,  
 798 SY140-06). (a,c) Thermal demagnetization data; (b,d) Triaxe measurement series; (e)  
 799 Archeointensity results at the specimen level. See text and further explanations in Le  
 800 Goff and Gallet (2004).

801 **Fig. 4.** (a) Normalized IRM acquisition curves obtained for one fragment from each time  
 802 level. (b-c) Two examples of hysteresis loop. (d-g) Four examples of normalized  
 803 thermomagnetic low-field susceptibility (heating and cooling) curves obtained from  
 804 fragments collected at Tell Halula. These fragments are dated to the pre-Halaf (d,e),  
 805 Middle Halaf (f) and to the Late Halaf (g). (h) Hysteresis ratios ( $M_{RS}/M_s$  vs.  $H_{CR}/H_C$ )  
 806 obtained at Tell Mardikh/Ebla (grey color, Gallet et al., 2014), Tell Masaikh (blue

807 triangles) and Tell Halula (see color code on the figure according to the archeological  
808 periods of the fragments).

809 **Fig. 5.** Intensity data obtained from eight different archeomagnetic pottery groups (a-e,  
810 Tell Halula; f, Tell Masaikh). Each colored curve on each of these plots shows the  
811 intensity data obtained for one specimen over the temperature range of analysis (for  
812 further explanations, see in Le Goff and Gallet, 2004). Altogether, the results from 93  
813 specimens are hence reported in this Figure.

814 **Fig. 6.** Archeomagnetic field intensity variations recovered from the new data obtained  
815 at Tell Halula (blue circles) and Tell Masaikh (blue triangles). All results are converted in  
816 Virtual Axial Dipole Moments. The chronological time scale is provided in the text (see  
817 also in Table 1).

818 **Fig. 7.** Comparison between our new archeointensity data (in blue) and previous results  
819 obtained (a) from Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto (green circles and triangles, respectively),  
820 two multi-level archeological sites located in North Iraq (Nachasova and Burakov, 1995,  
821 1998) and (b) from Bulgaria (in red; Kovacheva et al., 2014). As discussed in the text, the  
822 dating of the Yarim Tepe II and Tell Sotto data was modified from the original papers.  
823 The solid vs. open circles indicate the intensity values obtained from several vs. one  
824 specimen(s).

825 **Fig. 8.** Regional averaged geomagnetic field intensity variation curve in the Middle East  
826 over the past 9000 years. The data were selected inside a 1000 km-radius circle around  
827 the location  $\lambda=36^{\circ}49'N$ ,  $\varphi=40^{\circ}02'E$  (archeological site of Tell Halaf). All data were  
828 transformed into VADM. Two different approaches were successively considered to  
829 compute the curve. (a) We used sliding windows of 200 years shifted every 10 years and  
830 the bootstrap technique for taking into account the experimental and age uncertainties  
831 on the available intensity data. 1000 curves were hence computed and are shown here  
832 the mean (thick black line), the minimum and the maximum VADM values obtained for  
833 the different time windows. The Syrian data are also reported (blue dots) together with  
834 all other available archeointensity data (grey dots) satisfying minimum selection criteria  
835 (Genevey et al., 2008). (b) We used an iteratively reweighted least-squares algorithm,  
836 combined with a bootstrap, modified from that of Thébault and Gallet (2010). The



837 continuous black line shows the maximum of probability, and the light blue lines its 95%  
838 fluctuation envelope. The 95% confidence interval is displayed by the red lines.

839 **Fig. 9.** Comparison between the geomagnetic field intensity (transformed into VADM)  
840 variation curve in the Middle East, with averaging over sliding windows of 500 years  
841 (black lines; see text), and previous dipole field moment reconstructions. The  
842 comparison is made with (a) the VADM variation curve computed by Knudsen et al.  
843 (2008) using temporal and geographic averaging (in red), (b) dipole moment  
844 reconstructions derived from different time-varying global geomagnetic field modeling  
845 (blue lines, modeling proposed by Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014; orange and green lines,  
846 the pfm9k.1b and pfm9k.1a modeling proposed by Nilsson et al., 2014).

847

Figure 1

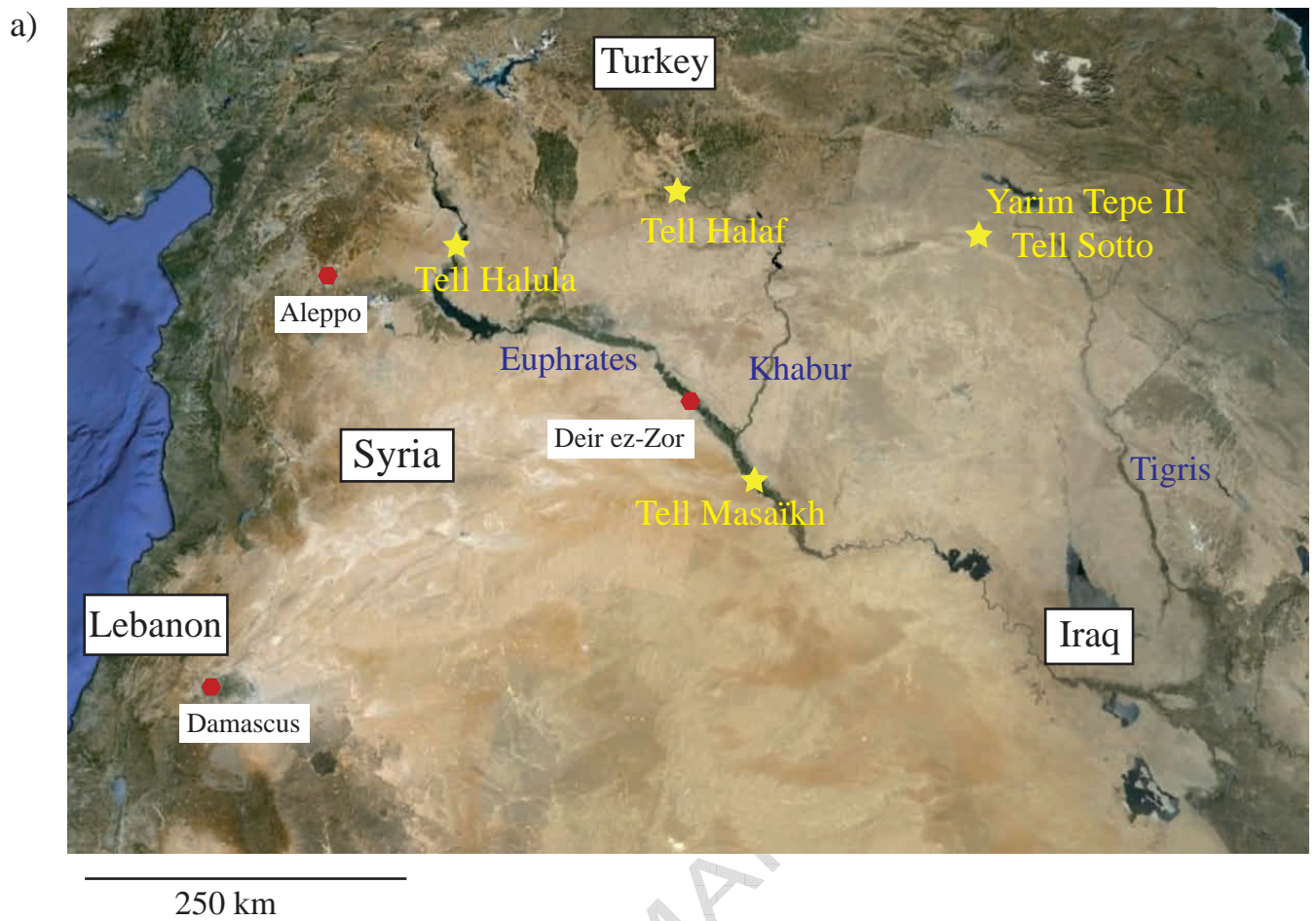


Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 2

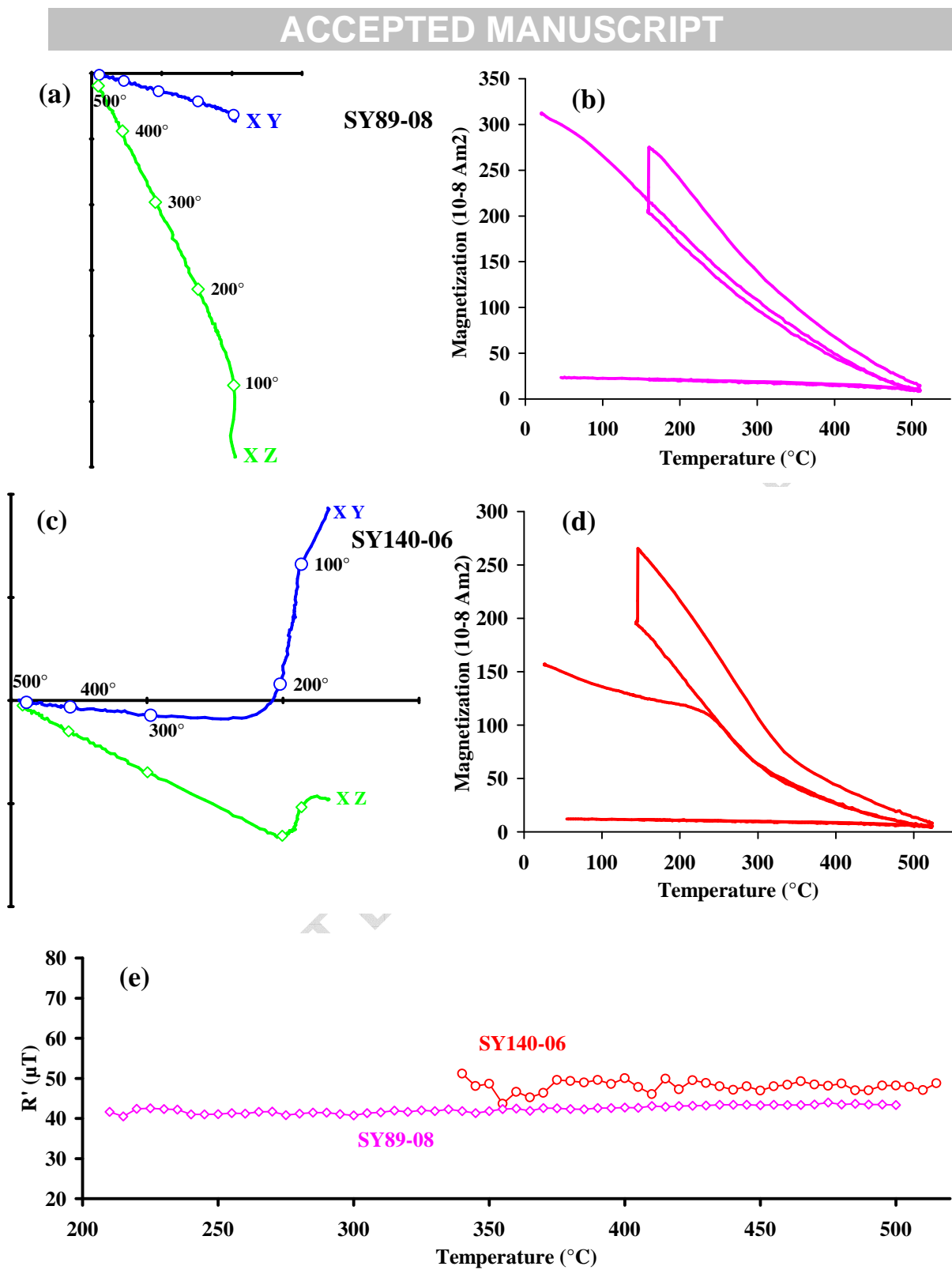


Figure 3

Figure 4

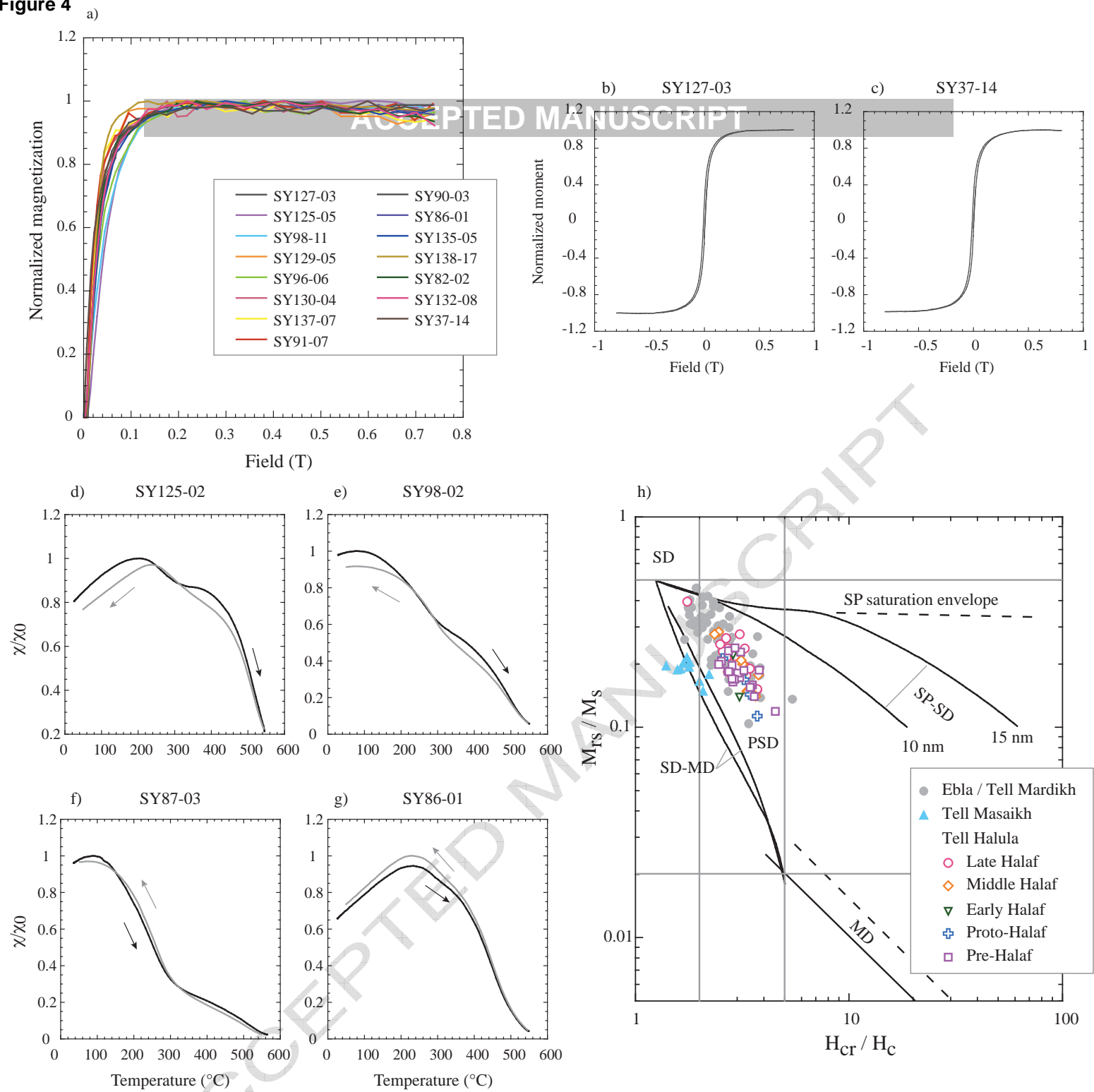


Figure 4

Figure 5

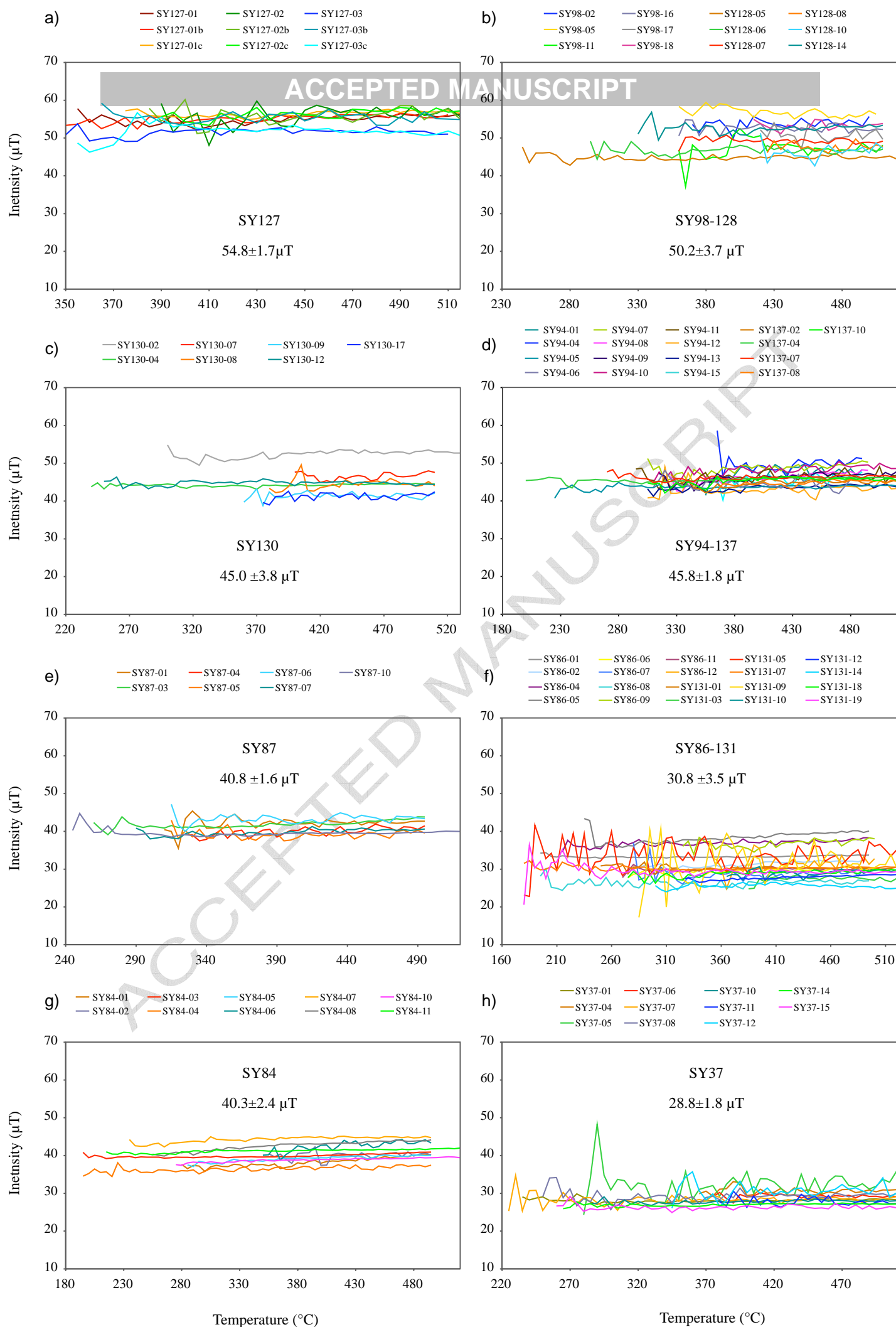


Figure 5

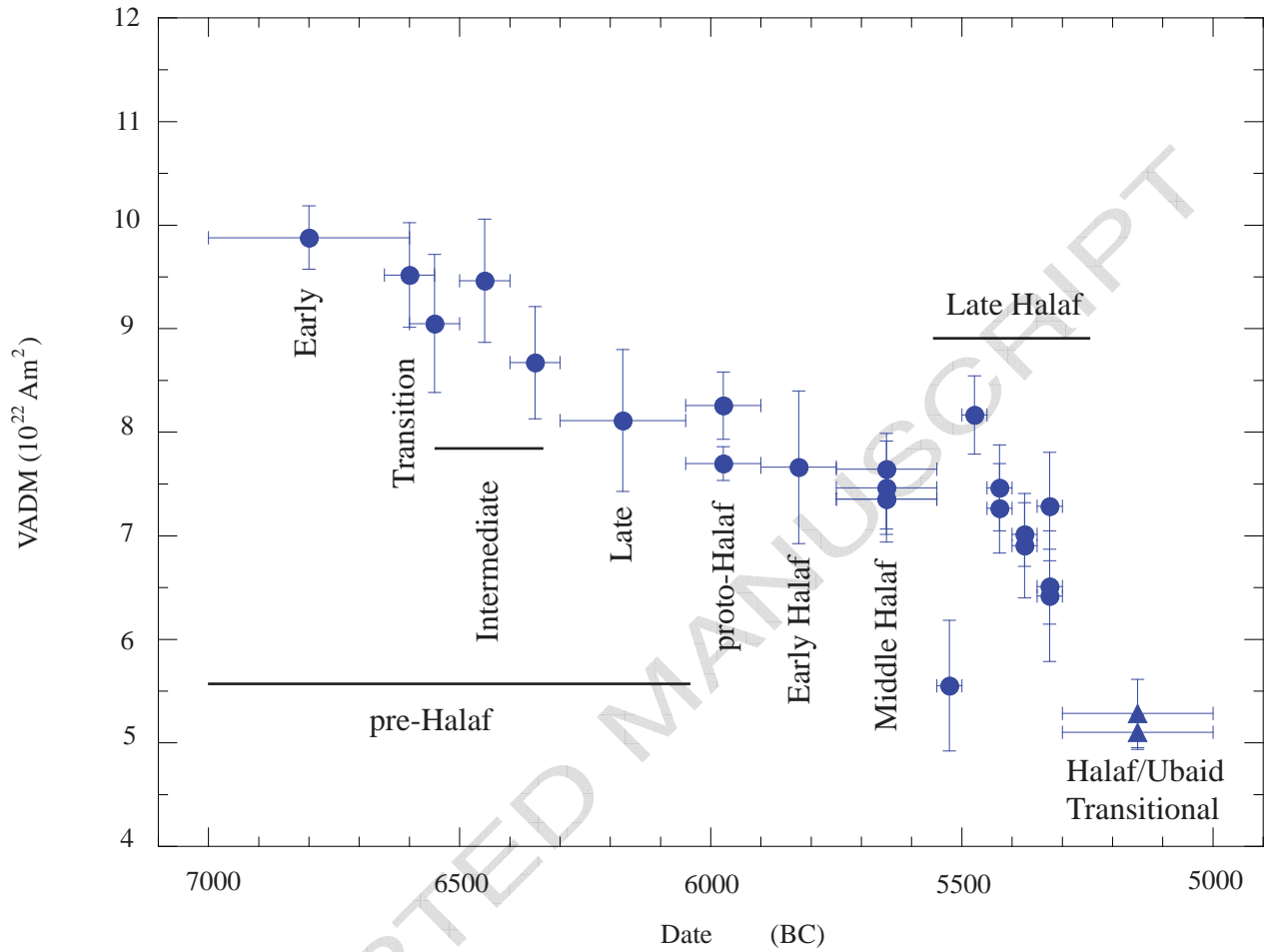


Figure 6

Figure 7

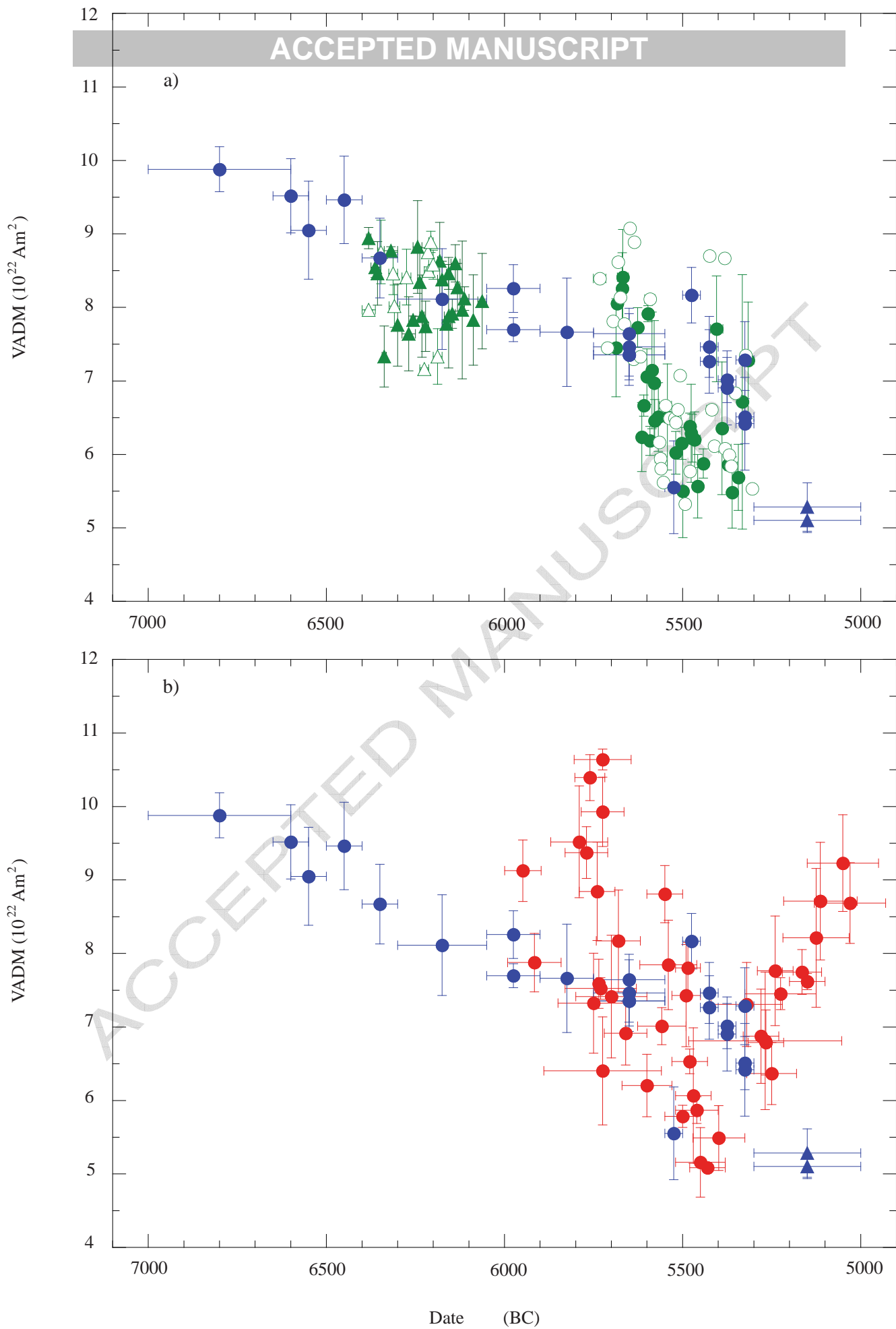


Figure 7



Figure 8

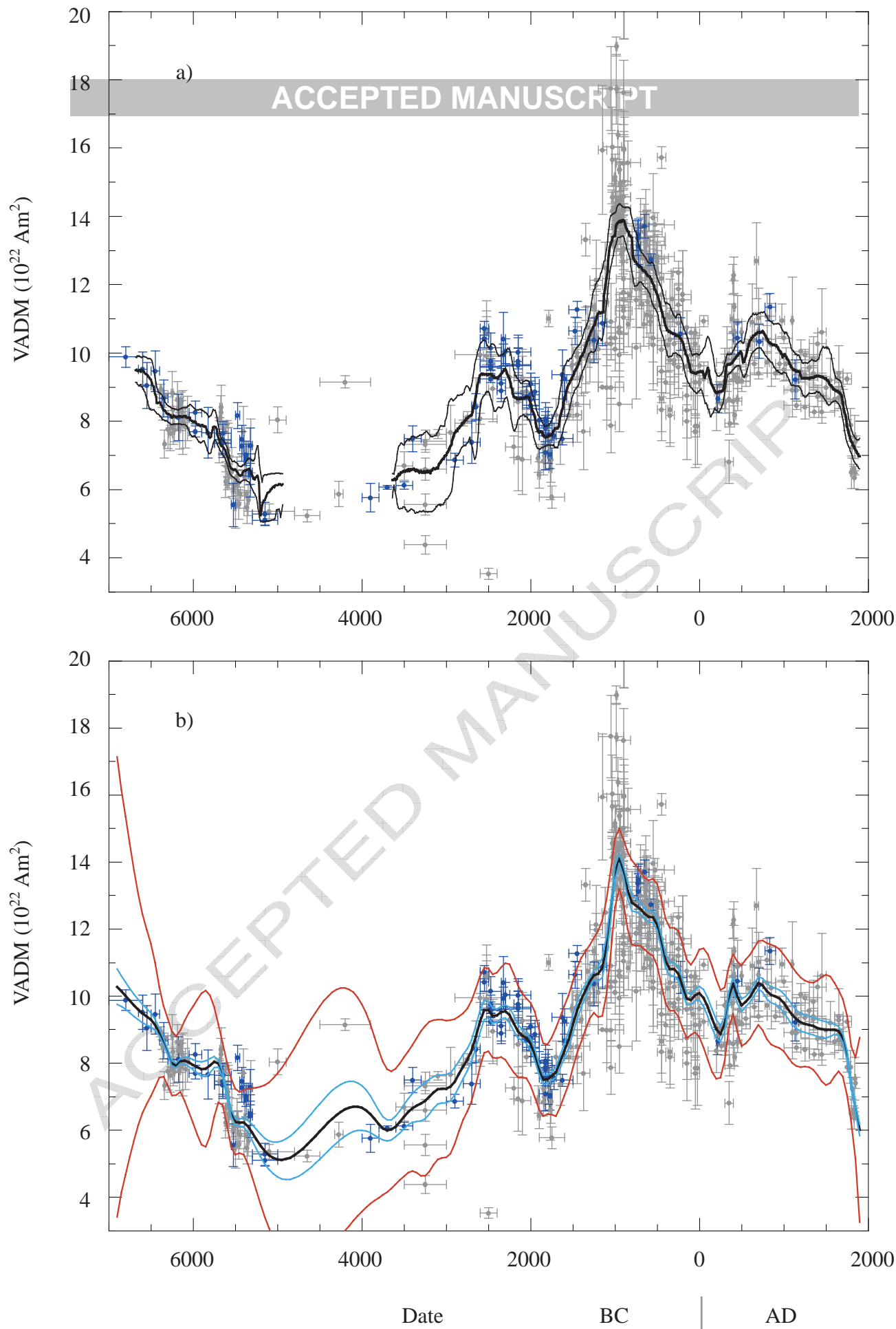


Figure 8

Figure 9

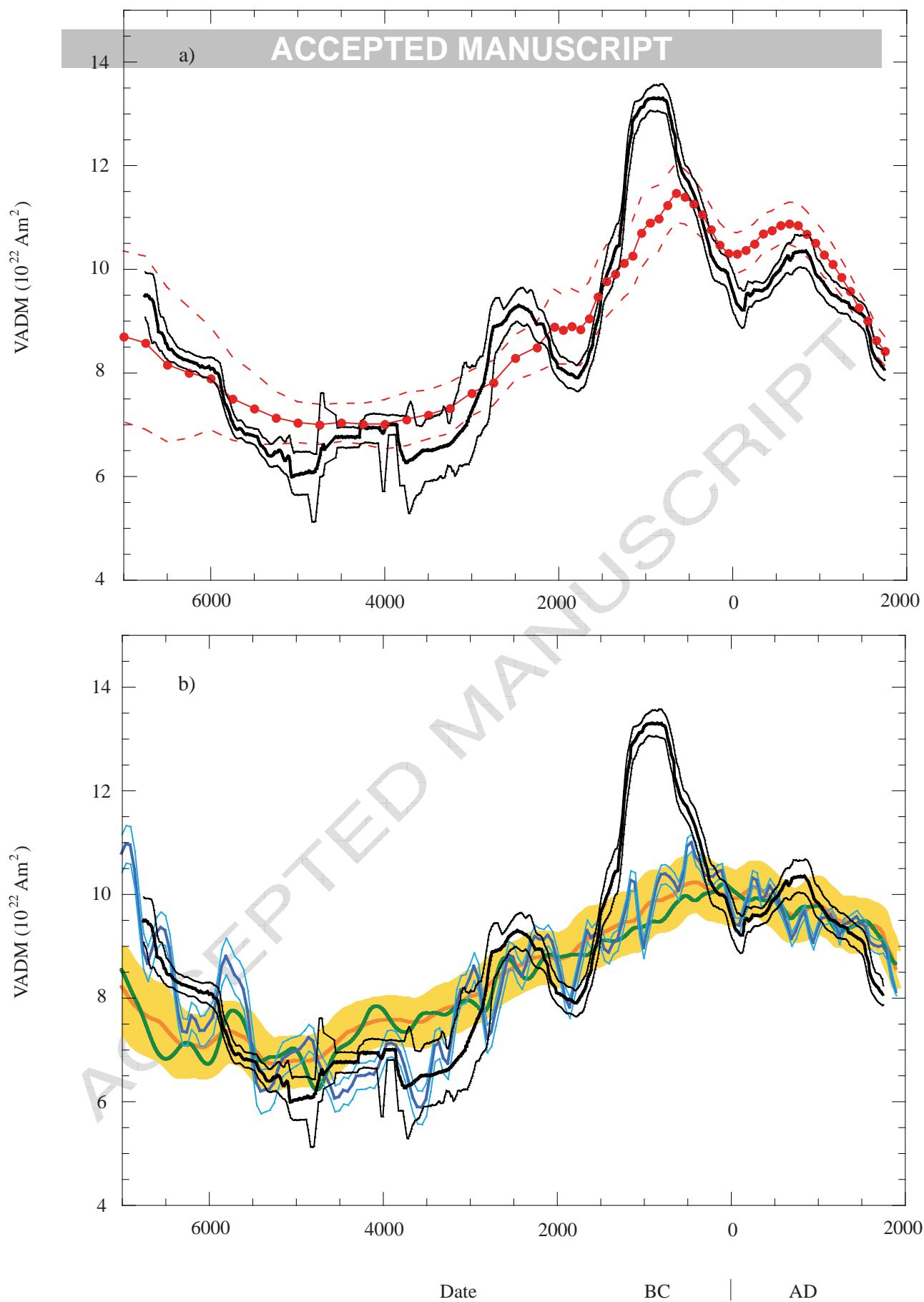


Figure 9

Pottery Group	Archeological Period	Relative chronology (Tell Halula)	Archeological reference	Age (BCE)	Intensity ( $\mu$ T)	N frag. (n spec.)
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SY127	Early Pre-Halaf	Phase I	Sector 2, square G, peat E10	6800 $\pm$ 200	54.8 $\pm$ 1.7	3 (9)
SY125	Transition Early-Intermediate Pre-Halaf	Phase I/II	Sector 2, square I, A25	6600 $\pm$ 50	52.8 $\pm$ 2.8	2 (6)
SY98-128	Intermediate Pre-Halaf	Phase II -early phase	Sector SS14-Y, A6	6650 $\pm$ 50*	50.2 $\pm$ 3.7	12 (12)
SY97-129	Intermediate Pre-Halaf	Phase II -interm. Phase	Sector SS14-Y, A5a	6450 $\pm$ 50*	52.5 $\pm$ 3.3	17 (17)
SY96-140	Intermediate Pre-Halaf	Phase II -late phase	Sector SS14-Y, A3c	6350 $\pm$ 50*	48.1 $\pm$ 3.0	13 (13)
SY130	Late Pre-Halaf	Phase III	Sector 49, A9a, E25	6175 $\pm$ 125	45.0 $\pm$ 3.8	7 (7)
SY94-137	Proto-Halaf	Phase IV	Sector 44/3, A23, E27	5975 $\pm$ 75	45.8 $\pm$ 1.8	17 (17)
SY95	Proto-Halaf	Phase VI	Sector 40, A10	5975 $\pm$ 75	42.7 $\pm$ 0.9	5 (14)
SY91	Early Halaf	Phase V	Sector 44/4	5825 $\pm$ 75	42.5 $\pm$ 4.1	9 (9)
SY87	Middle Halaf	Phase VI	Sector 45, peat E5	5650 $\pm$ 100	40.8 $\pm$ 1.6	7 (7)
SY88	Middle Halaf	Phase VI	Sector 45, peat E9	5650 $\pm$ 100	42.4 $\pm$ 1.5	7 (7)
SY89	Middle Halaf	Phase VI	Sector 45, peat E1	5650 $\pm$ 100	40.8 $\pm$ 1.9	8 (8)
SY90	Middle Halaf	Phase VI	Sector 45, peat E3	5650 $\pm$ 100	41.4 $\pm$ 2.9	8 (8)
SY86-131	Late Halaf	Phase VII -early phase	Sector 49, A5	5525 $\pm$ 25*	30.8 $\pm$ 3.5	20 (20)
SY135	Late Halaf	Phase VII -interm./early Phase	Sector 49, A1g	5475 $\pm$ 25*	45.3 $\pm$ 2.1	11 (11)
SY84	Late Halaf	Phase VII -interm./interm Phase	Sector 49, A1c	5425 $\pm$ 25*	40.3 $\pm$ 2.4	10 (10)
SY138	Late Halaf	Phase VII -interm./interm. Phase	Sector 49, A1c, E8	5425 $\pm$ 25*	41.4 $\pm$ 2.3	11 (11)
SY82	Late Halaf	Phase VII -interm./late Phase	Sector 49, A7	5375 $\pm$ 25*	38.3 $\pm$ 2.8	7 (7)
SY83-136	Late Halaf	Phase VII -interm./late phase	Sector 49, A1b	5375 $\pm$ 25*	38.9 $\pm$ 1.7	13 (13)
SY80	Late Halaf	Phase VII -late phase	Sector 49, A7d, peat 24	5325 $\pm$ 25*	35.6 $\pm$ 3.5	8 (8)
SY81	Late Halaf	Phase VII -late phase	Sector 49, A7c, peat 32	5325 $\pm$ 25*	36.1 $\pm$ 2.0	6 (6)
SY132	Late Halaf	Phase VII -late phase	Sector 49, A7a, E21	5325 $\pm$ 25*	40.4 $\pm$ 2.9	8 (8)
SY37	Halaf-Ubaid Transitional	-	Locus K171 I/2, layer E2	5150 $\pm$ 150	28.8 $\pm$ 1.8	11 (11)
SY38	Halaf-Ubaid Transitional	-	Locus K171 I, floor E7	5150 $\pm$ 150	27.8 $\pm$ 0.9	5 (15)

Table 1

848 New archeomagnetic intensity data from two Syrian Late Neolithic archeological sites  
849  
850 We recover the regional geomagnetic intensity variations between ~7000 BC and  
851 ~5000 BC  
852  
853 A 9000-years long archeointensity variation curve is constructed for the Middle East  
854  
855 We constrain the variations in the dipole field moment over most of the Holocene  
856  
857

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