

Analysis of the Abundance of Radiocarbon Samples as Count Data

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Abstract

The analysis of the abundance of radiocarbon samples through time has become a popular method to address questions of demography in archaeology. The history of this approach is marked by the use of the Sum of Probability Distributions (SPD), a key methodological development that first allowed researchers to visualize the abundance of radiocarbon samples on a calibrated temporal scale. However, the lack of a mathematical definition hinders the use of SPD in a proper statistical framework. Recent developments of model-based approaches have allowed a more rigorous statistical analysis of the abundance of radiocarbon data. Despite these advances, these methods inherit from the SPD an interpretation of the abundance of samples as a probability distribution. In this work we propose a change of perspective by treating radiocarbon data as count data. We present an approach that models the expected number of samples occurring at each year. We argue that this model provides more interpretable parameters and better accounts for the uncertainty in the number of samples. The performance of the proposed approach is evaluated through simulations and compared to an alternative state-of-the-art approach. Our new method is competitive with the state-of-the-art model. Furthermore, we demonstrate the computational burden of using the SPD as summary statistics under an approximate Bayesian computation analysis and propose more efficient summary statistics. Finally, we use a dataset of radiocarbon samples from Ireland and Britain to provide an application example. The results of these analyses are largely congruent with previous work on the same dataset except in revealing an earlier start of the Neolithic demographic expansion.

Keywords: radiocarbon dating, demography, likelihood-free inference, simulation

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Introduction

The development of radiocarbon dating (Libby et al., 1949) has revolutionized the study of the past, finding applications in archaeology, geology, paleobiology, and paleoclimatology (Bronk Ramsey, 2008; Carleton and Groucutt, 2021; Taylor, 1995). As this technique became a standard in research, the accumulation of dated samples has led to the investigation of sample abundance over time, addressing various questions related to environmental processes (changes in sea level, forest fire frequency, or fluvial activity; Geyh, 1980; Pierce et al., 2004; Thorndycraft and Benito, 2006), as well as studying population size changes in humans and other species (e.g. Broughton and Weitzel, 2018; Rick, 1987) and ecological interactions (Marom and Wolkowski, 2024). There is a growing interest in the analysis of radiocarbon sample abundance, notably fueled by the recent availability of extensive ^{14}C databases (e.g. Bird et al., 2022) and the development of new statistical methods (reviewed in Crema, 2022).

Until very recently, the analysis of radiocarbon data abundance relied predominantly on the Sum of Probability Distributions (SPD). The SPD is derived by aggregating the posterior distributions for the calibrated age of each sample in the dataset. However, the interpretation of the SPD encounters a main challenge because it lacks a precise definition of its underlying meaning. Despite speculation by some authors on the meaning of such sums of probabilities, a formal mathematical definition is notably absent (e.g. Carleton and Groucutt, 2021; Crema, 2022, ; also see the supplementary (e.g. Carleton and Groucutt, 2021; Crema, 2022, also see the supplementary text S.1). Despite this lack of a clear interpretation, the SPD is considered informative regarding changes in radiocarbon sample abundance over time. Nevertheless, the absence of a formal model hinders the full use of this intuition, as there is no established measure of the significance and uncertainty associated with variations in the SPD.

In recent years, significant progress has been made with the introduction of model-based methods, as extensively reviewed by Crema (2022). This advancement has opened up new avenues for analyzing the abundance of radiocarbon dates, enabling the testing of models, making model comparisons, and estimating model parameters. However, ~~in these innovative approaches still heavily rely on the SPD or a probabilistic interpretation thereof. In these models, radiocarbon dates are conceptualized as independent samples drawn from a probability distribution, with the expectation that the distribution's shape mirrors that of the normalized SPD. Such models serve either to generate pseudo-observed data or as the foundation for inference (Carleton, 2021; Crema and Shoda, 2021; Porčić et al., 2020; Timpson et al., 2020). This assumption implies an immutable data-generating process in which each new radiocarbon sample is randomly drawn from the same distribution.~~ However, ~~interpreting the SPD treating the abundance of radiocarbon samples~~ as a probability distribution overlooks the inherent nature of radiocarbon data, which is essentially count data. The number of samples (whether total or within a specific period) is an outcome of the whole data-generating process, not a fixed parameter ~~determined set~~ by the experiment or researcher. Consequently, models that assume a fixed number of samples fail to fully account for the inherent uncertainty associated with the sampling process.

~~In this study, we advocate for a departure from the use of the SPD or methods derived from it in statistical inference for the analysis of radiocarbon data abundance. Instead, we~~ Furthermore, ~~this perspective imposes a static view of the abundance of radiocarbon samples, attributing it solely on factors acting at time the sample was formed (e.g. population size, intensity of fire use or waste disposal practices). Under this framework, new samples are expected to come from~~

46 the same distribution and a statistical reanalysis of the new data merely refines the estimation
47 of that distribution. However, the generation of radiocarbon-dated samples is influenced by
48 factors specific to the each sample (e.g. research question or availability of alternative dating
49 procedures) and factors that depend on the time of the sampling (e.g. damage or destruction of
50 archaeological heritage, shift of research interests). The data-generating process is mutable and
51 we argue that any new data should lead to a revised model that integrates all factors affecting
52 the entire radiocarbon record.

53 In this study, we advocate for the use of model-based methods that more accurately describe
54 the data-generating process. We propose a novel model that treats radiocarbon data as count
55 data ~~and characterizes the expected number of samples per year,~~ allowing the total amount of
56 samples to be determined by the model rather than imposed as if it were part of an experimental
57 design. The parameters of this model ~~offer provide~~ a natural interpretation in the context of the
58 studied process, characterizing the expected number of samples per year and can be interpreted
59 as combining all the factors that affect the abundance of radiocarbon samples. Inference within
60 this model is executed within the approximate Bayesian computation framework, and its applica-
61 tion to pseudo-observed data allows for an exploration of differences with ~~approaches inspired~~
62 ~~by the SPD~~ a state-of-the-art model-based approach.

63 To illustrate the application of our proposed model, we reanalyze a published dataset of ar-
64 chaeological radiocarbon dates from Britain and Ireland (Bevan et al., 2017). This case study
65 serves as an example of the practical application of our approach, shedding light on its potential
66 advantages over the SPD. Our results are in congruence with those by Bevan et al. (2017), but
67 provide formal statistical support to the conclusions.

68 Material and methods

69 Models for the abundance of radiocarbon samples

70 *Model of counts.* In the newly proposed model, the radiocarbon-dated samples are represented
71 as a vector \mathbf{R} (refer to Table S1 for notation in the article). Each element R_t of vector \mathbf{R} denotes
72 the number of samples at each year t within a specified time range $[t_{\min}, t_{\max}]$. The abundance of
73 radiocarbon samples is conceptualized as a Poisson distribution ($R_t \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_t)$). This model
74 offers a straightforward formulation with interpretable parameters: assuming that at each year
75 t there were a potential number of ~~items~~ samples n_t that could contribute to the dataset with a
76 probability p_t , the rate parameter $\lambda_t = n_t p_t$ represents the expected number of samples at year
77 t . In the context of archaeological data, for example, n_t would encompass all organic objects
78 associated with or connected to human activity, qualifying as anthropogenic samples. The prob-
79 ability p_t encapsulates a multifaceted process, including sample deposition, preservation over
80 time, discovery or sampling, and decision to conduct radiocarbon dating. Consequently, vector
81 λ encapsulates this intricate data-generating process, with its values representing the expected
82 values for vector \mathbf{R} (see figure 1a and b for a visual representation).

83 However, \mathbf{R} is not directly observable because the true age of each radiocarbon sample is
84 unknown. Radiocarbon dating provides the Conventional Radiocarbon Ages (CRA), also referred
85 to as uncalibrated dates. The CRA values would correspond to the true dates if the environment
86 ^{14}C proportion was constant through time and geography and equal to that of the atmosphere
87 in 1950, if the true ^{14}C half-life was Libby et al.'s (1949) estimate of 5730 years (Bronk Ramsey,
88 2008), and if the ^{14}C proportions were measured without error. In reality, these assumptions

89 do not hold. Thus, radiocarbon data has the form of vector \mathbf{R}' , which contains the number of
 90 samples, R'_u , dated at uncalibrated date u within a range $[u_{\min}, u_{\max}]$ (figure 1c). The relationship
 91 between \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{R}' is given by the calibration curve, as in well established Bayesian analysis of
 92 radiocarbon dates (Bronk Ramsey, 2008). Assuming that radiocarbon dating uncertainty can be
 93 modelled with a normal distribution, the radiocarbon age u of a sample of age t is modelled as
 94 $u \sim \mathcal{N}\left(u_{c,t}, \sqrt{e_{c,t}^2 + e_{\text{CRA}}^2}\right)$, where $u_{c,t}$ and $e_{c,t}$ are the values of the calibration curve for time t
 95 and e_{CRA} is the measurement error in the CRA for that sample. Using this normal distribution it
 96 is possible to model the observed number of uncalibrated dates (\mathbf{R}') from the expected number
 97 of samples contributed by each 'calibrated' year (λ).

98 *Changes through time of the abundance of radiocarbon samples.* The model for the abundance of
 99 radiocarbon samples as described above is determined by the set of parameters λ_t in λ . In most
 100 cases, periods of hundreds if not thousands of years will be analysed, which makes models with
 101 large number of parameters (one λ per year). This is impractical because large amounts of data
 102 would be necessary to fit that many parameters and there would be a very likely risk of over-
 103 fitting the model. Instead, additional models can be used to determine the change of λ through
 104 time, assuming that consecutive years will have similar λ values. In this work, three models are
 105 explored. The first two are the exponential model ($\lambda_t = \lambda_0 e^{-rt}$, as in figure 1a) and the logistic
 106 model ($\lambda_t = \frac{k\lambda_0}{\lambda_0 + (k - \lambda_0)e^{-rt}}$). These are simple models often associated to demographic processes
 107 and used in the context of the analysis of abundance of radiocarbon samples (e.g. Bevan et al.,
 108 2017). For a demographic interpretation of the changes in abundance of radiocarbon samples,
 109 the parameters of these models represent the initial population size ($N_0 = C\lambda_0$), the carrying
 110 capacity ($K = Ck$) and the growth rate (r), with C being an unknown constant of proportionality.

111 However, assuming that a single mathematical function governs the changes in λ_t over large
 112 periods of time might not be appropriate. Piecewise models can be used to set a different rela-
 113 tionship between λ and t at different periods. The whole range of time considered $[t_{\min}, t_{\max}]$ is
 114 divided in m periods defined by $m + 1$ times t_0, t_1, \dots, t_m (with $t_0 = t_{\min}$ and $t_m = t_{\max}$). Here,
 115 we consider a piecewise exponential model defined by $m + 1$ parameters $\lambda_{t_0}, \lambda_{t_1}, \dots, \lambda_{t_m}$. Within
 116 each period $x \in [1, m]$, λ changes exponentially with rate $r_x = \frac{\log(\lambda_{t_x}) - \log(\lambda_{t_{x-1}})}{t_x - t_{x-1}}$. For simplicity,
 117 we consider the specific case in which all time intervals are of the same length.

118 *Comparisons between two sets of radiocarbon data.* Some research questions require the compar-
 119 ison of two sets of samples of radiocarbon data (e.g. comparison of two geographical regions, or
 120 different food sources on the same region). For two sets a and b, the total data is $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}^a + \mathbf{R}^b$.
 121 Each set of radiocarbon data can be modelled with a Poisson distribution: $R_t^a \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_t^a)$, $R_t^b \sim$
 122 $\text{Pois}(\lambda_t^b)$, and $R_t \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_t) = \text{Pois}(\lambda_t^a + \lambda_t^b)$. We define $q_t = \frac{\lambda_t^a}{\lambda_t}$, which describes the proportion
 123 of category a contributing to the total amount of samples. Our interest here is to understand
 124 whether the relationship of the changes of λ_t^a and λ_t^b with time is determined by some common
 125 factors or if their histories are independent. We consider three scenarios for the relationship
 126 between two sets of samples. In the first scenario, that we name "independent", λ_t^a and λ_t^b val-
 127 ues are independent. In the second scenario, that we name "interdependent", parameters λ_t and
 128 q_t determine $\lambda_t^a = q_t \lambda_t$ and $\lambda_t^b = (1 - q_t) \lambda_t$. The third scenario, that we name "parallel", is a
 129 special case of the interdependent scenario in which q_t is constant through time. The depen-
 130 dency among parameters in these scenarios is obtained through conditional prior probability
 131 distributions among λ^a , λ^b and \mathbf{q} (see below).

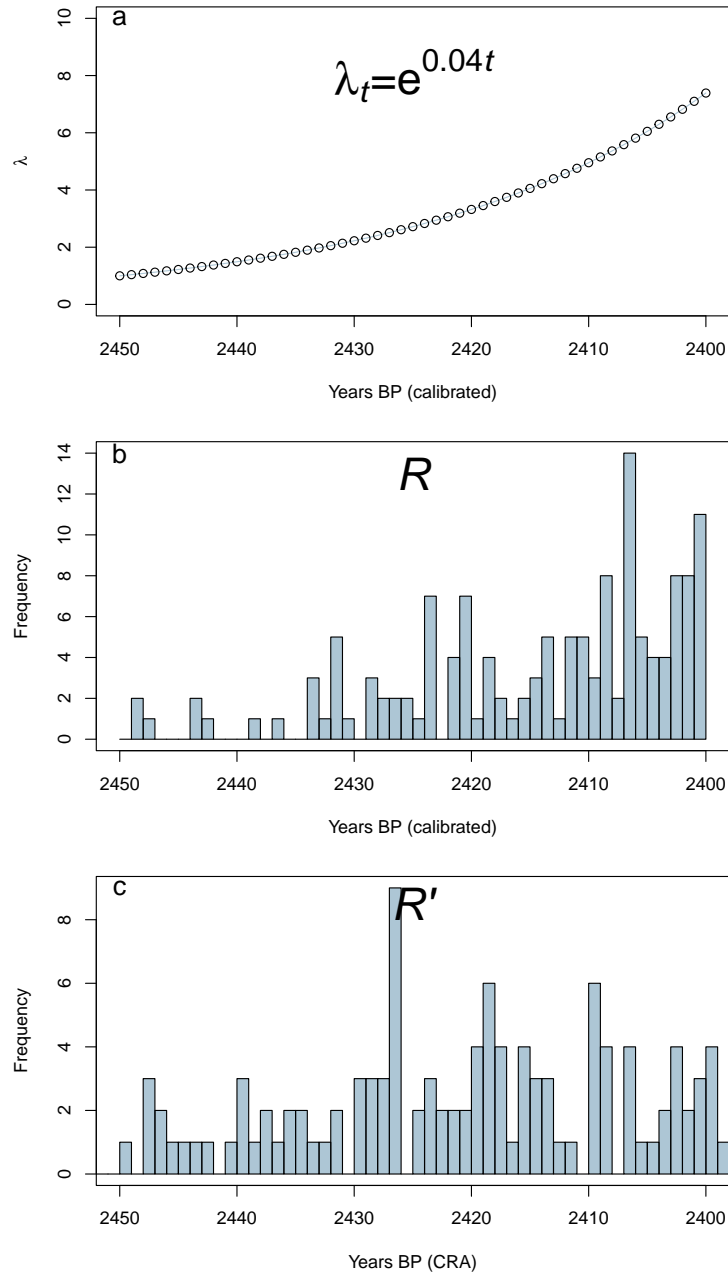


Figure 1 – Model for the abundance of radiocarbon samples (example). (a) A mathematical law determines the relationship between the expected number of samples per year (λ , the rate parameter of a Poisson distribution) and time (t): in this example an exponential law with initial value $\lambda_0 = 1$ at time $t_0 = 2450$ YBP (*i.e.* $t = t_0 - t_{\text{YBP}}$) and growth rate $r = 0.04$. (b) Number of samples per year (true age) in the data set (\mathbf{R} , not observable) of one random realization of model in (a); that is, random draws from Poisson distributions with parameters in λ . (c) Number of samples per year (conventional radiocarbon age, CRA) in the data set (\mathbf{R}'); that is, random draws from Normal distributions with parameters determined by the calibration curve and ages in (b).

132 *Model of probabilities.* Previous works have considered similar models (*e.g.* exponential change)
 133 to describe a probability distribution of the age of a sample. A fixed number of draws from this
 134 distribution is assumed to constitute the data set of radiocarbon dates (Crema and Shoda, 2021;
 135 Porčić et al., 2020; Timpson et al., 2020). These “probability distribution” models, describe the
 136 change of probability π through time instead of the change of λ through time. In this model, π_t

137 is the probability that a radiocarbon sample is from year t . For any of the models of counts, an
 138 equivalent model of probabilities can be obtained by setting $\pi_t = \frac{\lambda_t}{\sum_{t_{\min}}^{t_{\max}} \lambda_t}$, so the total probability
 139 of the model equals one for the period considered. It is important to note that by doing this nor-
 140 malization the model of probabilities has one degree of freedom less than the model of counts.
 141 For instance, the exponential count model has parameters λ_0 and r , while the exponential prob-
 142 ability model is determined solely by r (there is a single possible value of π_0 for each value of r).
 143 Also, the probability model is restricted to the studied period (formally, the probability outside
 144 the range is zero), while the count model can be extrapolated beyond that period of time.

145 Inference using approximate Bayesian computation

146 Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) is a statistical approach to make model-based in-
 147 ference without the calculation of likelihoods (see Sunnåker et al., 2013, for a review). ABC is
 148 often used for inference under models with analytically intractable likelihoods, which is not nec-
 149 essarily the case for the models of abundance of radiocarbon samples (e.g. Crema and Shoda,
 150 2021). However, it has other advantages such as the fast implementation under different mod-
 151 els and priors, which is one of the main reasons for its use in this work (see below for a discussion
 152 of other reasons). In ABC, the calculation of the likelihood of a model is substituted by the sim-
 153 ulation of data under the model. The similarity between the real and simulated data reflects the
 154 likelihood of the model.

155 *Summary statistics.* The similarity between the real and simulated data is typically evaluated by
 156 comparing several summary statistics of the data. Previous applications of ABC to the analysis
 157 of the abundance of radiocarbon samples used the values of the SPD at each year as summary
 158 statistics (DiNapoli et al., 2021; Porčić et al., 2020). In this work we also explore the alternative
 159 of using summary statistics based directly on CRAs (i.e. \mathbf{R}'). Specifically we use: T , the total
 160 number of uncalibrated dates; H_{u_i} , the number of uncalibrated dates at interval $[u_i, u_i - \delta)$ (with
 161 values covering the whole period of analysis and $u_{i+1} = u_i + \delta$) and using several values of δ
 162 (10, 50, 100, 500); and ΔH_{u_i} , the difference between consecutive H_{u_i} and $H_{u_{i+1}}$ values. A visual
 163 example of H_{u_i} statistics is the histogram of CRA from Britain and Ireland in figure 2.

164 In the case of real archaeological data, dates belonging to the same site are given a lower
 165 weight for the calculation of all these statistics. This is done to compensate biases due to large
 166 variance in sample size among sites that could reflect, for instance, differences in the resources
 167 or research questions of the teams working on them rather than the abundance of materials.
 168 These weights are calculated by using the binning procedure proposed by Shennan et al. (2013).
 169 The weight for each uncalibrated date is the inverse of the number of dates within the bin. For
 170 instance, all the dates within a bin count as a single sample for computing T . Here we have used
 171 a binning range of 100 years.

172 In the case of the analysis of two sets of radiocarbon data, we define additional summary
 173 statistics. These additional statistics capture the relationship between the two sets in their abun-
 174 dance of samples or its change. This is captured by the calculation of the correlation and covari-
 175 ance between \mathbf{H}^a and \mathbf{H}^b , and between $\Delta \mathbf{H}^a$ and $\Delta \mathbf{H}^b$ (for sets a and b).

176 *Approximate Bayesian computation via random forests.* Previous applications of ABC to the anal-
 177 ysis of abundance of radiocarbon samples have used the ABC rejection algorithm (DiNapoli et

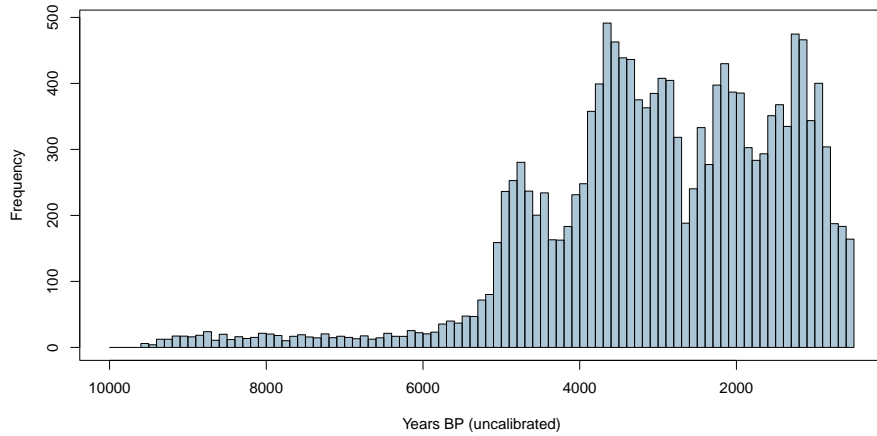


Figure 2 – Conventional radiocarbon ages composing the dated archaeological record from Britain and Ireland (Bevan et al., 2017). Histogram with number of radiocarbon samples in bins of 100 (uncalibrated) years (samples from the same site are weighted similarly to the procedure proposed by Shennan et al., 2013). This is a visual representation of summary statistics H_{u_i} with u_i taking values from 9900 to 500 YBP and $\delta = 100$.

178 al., 2021; Porčić et al., 2020). This algorithm represents the most basic way of performing ABC
 179 and presents several limitations respect to other algorithms proposed for the comparison of ob-
 180 served and simulated summary statistics. Here, we use ABC via Random Forests (ABCRF; Pudlo
 181 et al., 2016; Raynal et al., 2019), which uses the eponymous machine learning algorithm to learn
 182 the relationship between summary statistics similarity and posterior probability of the model or
 183 the parameters. In the learning step, random forests are grown from a training set constituted
 184 by a large number of simulations known as the reference table. One random forest is grown for
 185 each parameter or for each model comparison and they can be used to make predictions about
 186 the real data. An important advantage of this algorithm is that a lower number of simulations are
 187 required for inference (reducing the computational cost) and there is no need to set an arbitrary
 188 tolerance level.

189 *Simulation.* The simulation of radiocarbon data requires to set a specific model for the relation-
 190 ship between λ_t with time (e.g. the logistic model) and the values of its parameters (e.g. λ_0^* , r^* and
 191 K^* , for the logistic model; where * denotes simulation values). These will determine all values in
 192 λ^* , which are then used to simulate \mathbf{R}^* by sampling from Poisson distributions. The uncalibrated
 193 date u^* for each sample of known date t^* in \mathbf{R}^* will be simulated by sampling from a Normal
 194 distribution with mean and standard deviation taken from the CRA and error associated to t^*
 195 in the appropriate calibration curve (Shennan et al., 2013). This will result in \mathbf{R}^* . An example of
 196 this procedure is presented in figure 1. This simulation process is rather similar to the procedure
 197 proposed by Shennan et al. (2013) and widely used in other works. The main difference is that
 198 the total number of samples in the simulated data set depends on the model, allowing to account
 199 for this additional source of stochasticity. The IntCal20 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2020) is
 200 used throughout this paper.

201 Evaluation of the proposed model and approach

202 The performance of the method can be evaluated on simulated data for which the generating
 203 model and parameter values are known. This is done by exploiting the properties of the random
 204 forest algorithm. Random forests are a collection of decision trees that are grown from random

205 subsets of the training data (the reference table in the case of ABC), in a processed called boot-
 206 strap aggregating or “bagging”. Because of this, for each simulation in the reference table there
 207 is a subsets of trees in the random forest that have been grown without the information of that
 208 simulation. That subset of trees can be used to make inferences for that simulation, which are
 209 called the “out-of-bag” (OOB) predictions. True values and OOB predictions can be compared to
 210 estimate the error of the method, without the need of an additional testing set. In the context of
 211 model choice, OOB error is used to provide confusion matrices. In the context of parameter infer-
 212 ence, OOB predictions are used to calculate mean squared error and the correlation coefficient
 213 between true values and their corresponding OOB prediction.

214 *Choice of summary statistics.* The reduction of the data to a set of summary statistics can produce
 215 loss of information for the ABC. Therefore, it is recommended to use a set of summary statis-
 216 tics that are informative about the models and parameters to be inferred. Using the SPD (as in
 217 DiNapoli et al., 2021; Porčić et al., 2020) is a logical choice since SPD is considered to be highly
 218 informative about the changes in abundance of radiocarbon samples. However, the calculation
 219 of SPD is computationally costly. Also, strictly speaking, the SPD is not a summary of the data
 220 but a combination of the data with the calibration curve. Here we propose an alternative set of
 221 summary statistics based on the CRA data as described above.

222 It is important to determine if these summary statistics are as informative as the SPD for the
 223 inference and if there is a gain in computational time by using them. First, the computational
 224 time for the calculation of the two sets of summary statistics was measured in 300 simulated
 225 datasets of 1343 CRA dates. This simulated CRA datasets were generated by sampling 1343
 226 calibrated dates uniformly between 7000 and 5000 YBP and using a CRA error of 30 years for
 227 simulating their corresponding CRA. The bench-marking procedure compares the SPD calcula-
 228 tion as implemented in R package rcarbon (Crema and Bevan, 2021), and an implementation of
 229 the new set of statistics in R (de Navascués, 2024). Then, the performance of the two sets of
 230 summary statistics for ABC inference was also evaluated. A reference table of 20000 simulations
 231 was produced using the model of probabilities with probability changing exponentially between
 232 7000 and 5000 YBP (*i.e.* the same model used in the ABC example in Crema, 2022). The growth
 233 rate parameter, r , was sampled from a uniform prior distribution between -0.01 and 0.01 . Two
 234 random forest models with 5000 trees were trained from this reference table, one using the SPD
 235 as predictors and another one using the new set of summary statistics (T , H_{U_i} and ΔH_{U_i}).

236 *Model of probabilities versus model of counts.* The effect of using a model of counts instead of
 237 using a model of probabilities is studied by generating one reference table from each of the
 238 two models under exponential change on the period from 7000 YBP to 5000 YBP. Parameter
 239 values are sampled from the following prior probability distributions: uniform between -0.005
 240 and 0.005 for r , and log-uniform between 0.005 and 5 for λ_0 . A condition of $\sum_{t=0}^{2000} \lambda_0 e^{-rt} < 5000$
 241 is imposed to avoid simulations with an unrealistic high value of samples. For each parameter
 242 value combination, r^* and λ_0^* , two simulations are run, one for each of the two separate reference
 243 tables. The first simulation uses r^* and λ_0^* to simulate under the model of counts and the second
 244 uses only r^* to simulate 1343 CRA dates from a model of probabilities. Summary statistics based
 245 on the CRA data (T , H_{U_i} and ΔH_{U_i}) are calculated and random forests are trained for r and λ_0 for
 246 the count model, and r and π_0 for the probability model (note that the estimation of π_0 is done
 247 for comparison with λ_0 but is unnecessary in practice if parameter r has already been estimated).

248 In addition to the evaluation through the OOB predictions, a separate set of independent
 249 simulations (pseudo-observed data-sets, PODs) was produced to study the properties of the
 250 posterior distributions obtained under the two different models. These PODs were simulated
 251 in a model of counts with $\lambda_0 = 0.01$, exponential rate change of $r = 0.003$, with starting time
 252 7000 YBP and final time 5000 YBP. Simulations were run until 300 PODs were obtained that con-
 253 tained exactly 1343 samples (the expected number of samples under that model). Conditioning
 254 the simulation to a specific number of samples was done in order to analyse those PODs with
 255 the reference tables from both models (counts and probabilities) since the probabilities model
 256 assumes a fixed number of samples. The first 300 PODs were used to estimate posterior proba-
 257 bility distributions for r under the model of counts and the PODs with 1343 samples were used
 258 to estimate posterior probability distributions for r under the model of probabilities.

259 Case study: archaeological radiocarbon dates from Britain and Ireland

260 In order to illustrate the approach presented in this work, we reanalyse data of archaeological
 261 radiocarbon dates from Britain and Ireland (Bevan, 2017). This data base comprises 30516 ra-
 262 diocarbon dates from 200 to 9580 uncalibrated YBP from Ireland (7797 entries), Scotland (6401
 263 entries), North-West England and Wales (5333 entries), and South-East England (10985 entries).
 264 In more than three quarters of the entries, the taxonomic origin of the material is identified. The
 265 taxonomic level of this identification is heterogeneous across the data: sometimes identification
 266 is at species level but often it is only at genus or higher levels. Among the taxon identified, there
 267 are several food sources, such as as wheat (*Triticum*, 678 entries) and barley (*Hordeum*, 1102
 268 entries).

269 The original article by Bevan et al. (2017) studies the change of human population size and
 270 usage of food resources based on those data. Our work is not intended as a thorough reanalysis
 271 of this dataset but as an illustration of the model and method proposed. Therefore, we only focus
 272 on two questions: the global pattern of change in abundance of radiocarbon samples (interpreted
 273 as a population size proxy in the original article) and the relationship between the abundance of
 274 samples of barley and wheat through time.

275 *Estimation of population size changes in Britain and Ireland.* For the analysis of the population
 276 size change in Britain and Ireland, we consider the three models described above: exponential
 277 change, logistic change and piecewise exponential change. The time period explored is restricted
 278 between 10000 and 500 YBP. For the exponential and the logistic models, the parameters λ_0 and
 279 λ_f (value of λ at 500 YBP) were taken from a log-uniform prior distribution in the range $[0.001, 12]$,
 280 conditional to histories of increasing λ ($\lambda_0 < \lambda_f$). For the logistic model, parameter k value was
 281 sampled from a log-uniform distribution in the range $[\lambda_f + 0.001, \lambda_f + 12]$. Rate of change r is
 282 obtained from the values of those parameters.

283 In the piecewise exponential model there are $m + 1$ parameters λ ($\lambda_{t_0}, \lambda_{t_1}, \dots, \lambda_{t_m}$). The value
 284 of m is set to divide the analysed total range of ages in periods of approximately 400 years.
 285 Thus, for the range 10000 to 500 YBP, $m = 24$. The value of λ_{t_0} is taken from a log-uniform prior
 286 distribution in the range $[\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}]$ and consecutive values $\lambda_{t_x} = \max(\min(\phi\lambda_{t_{x-1}}, \lambda_{\max}), \lambda_{\min})$
 287 with ϕ taken from a log-uniform distribution in the range $[0.1, 10]$ (as in Boitard et al., 2016).
 288 This way of sampling the evolution of λ through time reflects the prior belief that large jumps
 289 over a short period of time are unrealistic (this prior prevents changes larger than one order of

290 magnitude for consecutive λ_{t_x} values). The minimum and maximum λ values for the whole model
 291 are $\lambda_{\min} = 0.001$ and $\lambda_{\max} = 12$.

292 For each model, a reference table of 30 000 simulation was ~~build~~^{built} taking parameter
 293 values from the prior distributions described above. Model choice and posterior probability for
 294 the observed data were obtained through ABCRF, using 2000 trees for the training of the random
 295 forest and 2000 trees for the calculation of the posterior probability. The pertinence of the
 296 approach was evaluated in two ways. First, OOB prediction were used to calculate the confusion
 297 matrix to evaluate the general performance of the approach. Second, a visual evaluation of the
 298 goodness-of-fit of the model to the observed data is also provided: the variability of patterns
 299 produced by the different models is represented using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of
 300 the summary statistics in the reference table, then the observed data set is projected into the
 301 PC space.

302 A larger reference table of 100 000 simulation was used to estimate the parameters of each
 303 model. Random forest of 2000 trees were trained on $\log(\lambda_0)$, $\log(\lambda_f)$, $\log(k)$ for the exponen-
 304 tial and logistic model. For the piecewise exponential model random forest of 2000 trees were
 305 trained for $\log(\lambda_{t_x})$ at each the 25 time points defining the periods and r_x for each of the 24
 306 periods. Refer to the full description of the model and parameters above for more details.

307 *Testing the relationship between abundances of wheat and barley in Britain and Ireland.* For the
 308 study of the abundances of wheat and barley, we considered a piecewise exponential model and
 309 explored the time range from 6000 to 500 YBP divided in $m = 14$ periods of approximately 400
 310 years. The model describes the abundance of radiocarbon samples of two categories: wheat (w)
 311 and barley (b). The samples were ascribed to these two categories following the same criteria as
 312 in Bevan et al. (2017). The relationship between the changes of abundance through time of these
 313 two categories was modelled according to the above mentioned independent, interdependent
 314 and parallel scenarios. All three scenarios are produced with the same model, which have 15
 315 parameters $\lambda_{t_x}^w$ and 15 parameters $\lambda_{t_x}^b$; the differences among scenarios reside in the conditional
 316 prior probability distributions.

317 For the independent scenario, parameters $\lambda_{t_x}^w$ and $\lambda_{t_x}^b$ are sampled independently using the
 318 same procedure as described above. That is, $\lambda_{t_0}^w$ is sampled from a log-uniform distribution in
 319 the range $[\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}]$ and consecutive values $\lambda_{t_x} = \max(\min(\phi\lambda_{t_{x-1}}, \lambda_{\max}), \lambda_{\min})$ with ϕ taken
 320 from a log-uniform distribution in the range $[0.1, 10]$. For the interdependent scenario, param-
 321 eters λ_{t_x} (i.e. λ for the sum of both categories), are sampled with the same procedure; then q_{t_x}
 322 are sampled from a uniform distribution in the range $[0, 1]$ which determines the proportion of
 323 categories $\lambda_{t_x}^w$ and $\lambda_{t_x}^b$ at each time t_0, t_1, \dots, t_m . Finally, the parallel scenario is a special case of
 324 the interdependent scenario, in which a single q value is taken from a uniform distribution in
 325 the range $[0, 1]$ and the proportion of the two categories does not change through time. The
 326 minimum and maximum λ values for the whole model are $\lambda_{\min} = 0.001$ and $\lambda_{\max} = 2$.

327 Implementation

328 All the calculations presented in this work were done in R (R Core Team, 2021) with scripts
 329 (available in de Navascués, 2024) that use: package extraDistr (Wolodzko, 2020) to sample from
 330 prior distributions; package rcarbon (Crema and Bevan, 2021) to simulate CRA; packages Hmisc

331 (Harrell Jr, 2022), moments (Komsta and Novomestky, 2022) and weights (Pasek, 2021) to calcu-
 332 late summary statistics; and package abcrf (Marin et al., 2022) to perform ABC analyses. Simula-
 333 tions are run in parallel using doParallel (Microsoft Corporation and Weston, 2022b), doSNOW
 334 (Microsoft Corporation and Weston, 2022a) and doRNG (Gaujoux, 2023).

335 Results

336 The choice of model and summary statistics for ABC inference

337 We evaluated the performance of two distinct sets of summary statistics. One set comprises
 338 the values of the SPD for each year, while the second set is calculated from counts of uncali-
 339 brated dates as detailed in the Methods section. Summary statistics based on counts of uncali-
 340 brated dates offer a significant computational advantage, being approximately 250 times faster
 341 to calculate. Despite this difference, both sets of summary statistics demonstrate very high ac-
 342 curacy in inference with no discernible difference in statistical results (Figure 3).

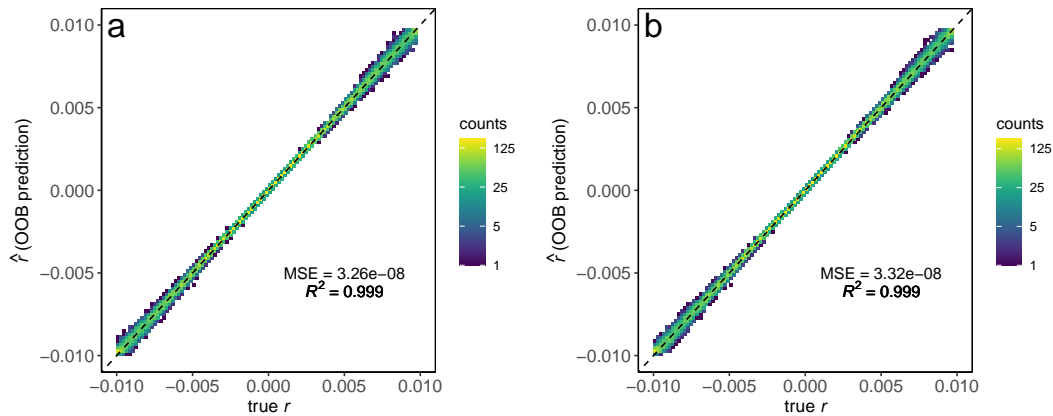


Figure 3 – Influence of choice of summary statistics on the estimation of parameters. Out-of-bag (OOB) estimates of the exponential growth rate, r , compared to the true value from simulations in the reference table. The ABC was performed either using: (a) the SPD as summary statistics, or (b) a set of summary statistics calculated from the count of CRA. The performance is very similar despite the much higher computational cost of using the SPD.

343 We also evaluated the use of two different models, referred to as the model of probabilities
 344 and the model of counts, each offering a distinct perspective on the process generating radiocar-
 345 bon data. Notably, parameter inference under the model of probabilities demonstrated higher
 346 accuracy compared to the model of counts (see Figure 4). This discrepancy in accuracy primarily
 347 stems from larger errors observed in simulations with low values of r or λ_0 (refer to Figure 4a
 348 and b), which consequently results in less data for the model of counts.

349 For PODs generated under the model of counts ($\lambda_0 = 0.01$, $r = 0.003$, with a range of 2000
 350 years), analysis under either the model of probabilities or the model of counts yielded comparable
 351 levels of error (mean squared error of 9.57×10^{-9} and 9.31×10^{-9} respectively for parameter
 352 r). However, it's worth noting that the 95% credibility intervals were wider for the model of
 353 counts (refer to Figure 5b). Furthermore, nominal coverage was more accurate for the model of
 354 probabilities (see Figure 5a).

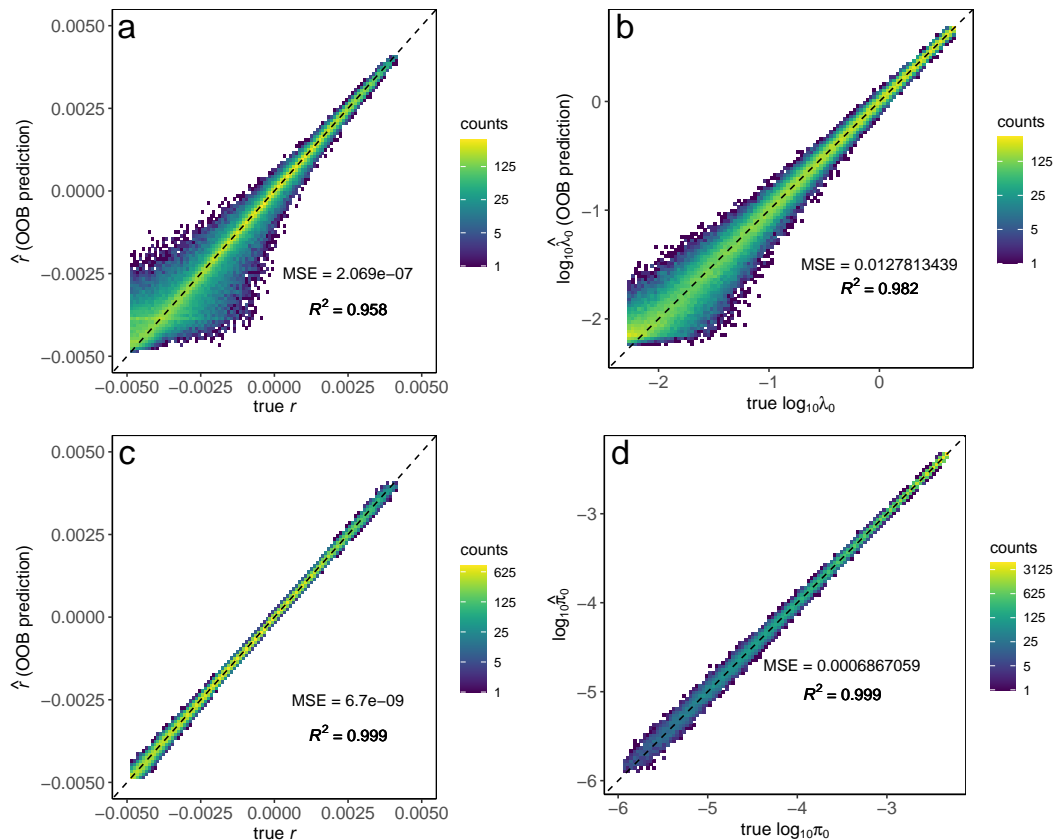


Figure 4 – Parameter inference differences between modeling counts and modeling probabilities. Out-of-bag (OOB) estimates compared to the true value from simulations in the reference table. (a) and (b) model of counts. (c) and (d) model of probabilities. (a) and (c) growth rate, r . (b) and (d) initial value (λ_0 or π_0).

355 Analysis of archaeological radiocarbon dates from Britain and Ireland

356 *Estimation of λ as a proxy of population size.* Three models (exponential, logistic and piecewise
 357 exponential) were explored to explain the change in abundance of radiocarbon samples from
 358 Britain and Ireland. According to the OOB estimates from the training set, the ABCRF approach
 359 is able to identify the piecewise exponential model with very little error and the logistic model
 360 with a somehow higher error. However, the exponential model is difficult to identify, being often
 361 wrongly classified as the logistic model (table S2). For the real data, the piecewise exponential
 362 model has a clear superior fit than the two alternative models, with the ABCRF analysis indicating
 363 a high posterior probability for that model (0.869). The PCA of the summary statistics diversity
 364 across simulations further reveals the lack of fit of the exponential and logistic models, which
 365 are unable to reproduce the patterns found in real data (figure S1b and c). Parameter estimates
 366 under the piecewise model reveal a history of fluctuations of λ through time closely resembling
 367 the SPD curve (figure 6a). Five of the periods (6833–6438, 6042–5646, 4854–4458, 4458–4062 and
 368 1688–1292 YBP) have estimates of the rate of change r with credibility intervals excluding **the**
 369 zero, indicating a significant increase of λ during those periods (figure 6b).

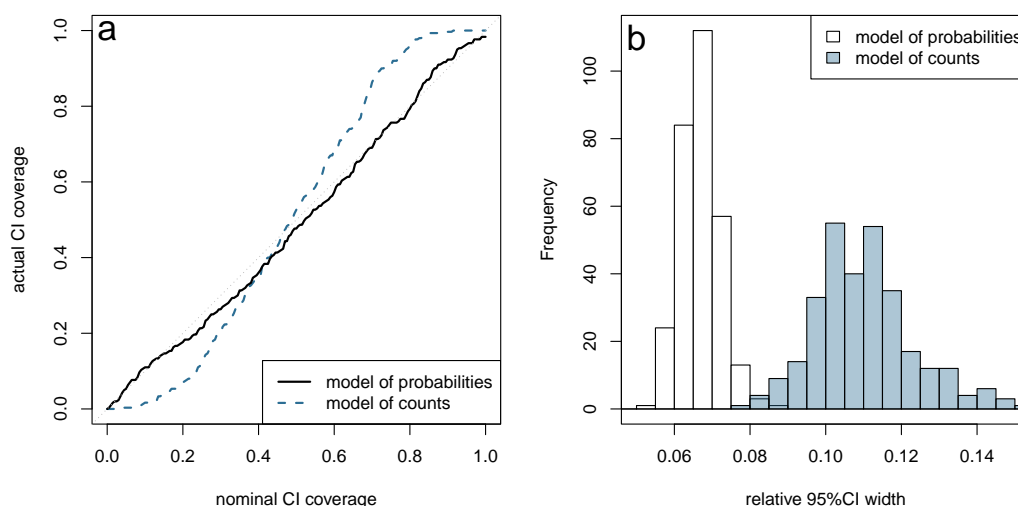


Figure 5 – Influence of the model on the credibility interval width. (a) Quantile-quantile plot of the actual and nominal coverage of 300 estimated posterior distributions estimated from pseudo-observed data-sets. (b) Relative width of the 95% credibility interval of the parameter r estimated under a model of probabilities or under a model of counts. The histogram represent 300 values from pseudo-observed data-sets generated with a model of exponential change with $r = 0.003$ and $\lambda = 0.01$.

370 *Relationship between the abundances of radiocarbon samples from wheat and barley.* The change
 371 in abundance of radiocarbon samples for wheat and barley was modeled using a piecewise ex-
 372ponential model. Three different scenarios within this model were considered based on the de-
 373gree of independence between the trajectories of the two cereals: the independent scenario,
 374 where both trajectories are completely independent; the parallel scenario, where both trajecto-
 375ries change in parallel; and the interdependent scenario, where both trajectories are correlated.
 376 These three scenarios can be distinguished with relatively low error using ABCRF, as indicated
 377 by the confusion matrix (table S2). For the empirical data, the chosen scenario is the interde-
 378pendent scenario, with a posterior probability of 0.863. Visual evaluation of the goodness of
 379 fit through Principal Component Analysis (PCA) shows that the observed data falls within the
 380 expected diversity of summary statistics values for the interdependent scenario (figure S2). Pa-
 381rameter λ estimates indicate that the abundance of both cereals sharply increased between 6000
 382 and 5500 years before present (YBP), then decreased until 4500 YBP, and increased again until
 383 3500 YBP, remaining stable with some minor fluctuations until 500 YBP (figure 7a). The relative
 384 abundance of the two cereals (q) also changed dramatically around 5500 YBP, with wheat be-
 385ing more abundant in the first period and barley becoming more abundant in the second period
 386 (figure 7b).

387 Discussion

388 Performance of the new approach

389 The present work proposes a novel approach to analyzing the abundance of radiocarbon
 390 samples. This new method moves away from using the **Sum of Probability Distributions (SPD)**,
 391 **which we regard as useful only for visualization purposes. Instead of trying to fit models to the**
 392 **SPD assumption that the abundance of radiocarbon samples can be described with a probability**
 393 **distribution, which is the currently widespread view (e.g. Carleton, 2021; Crema and Shoda, 2021; Porčić et al., 2021).**

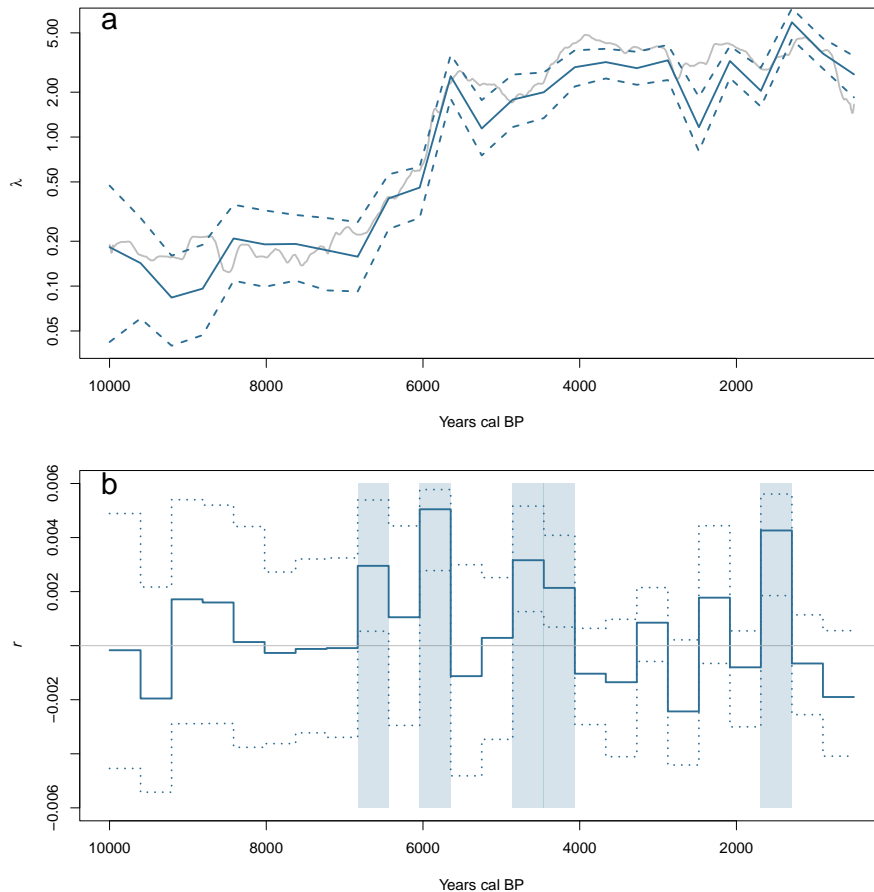


Figure 6 – Parameter estimates under piecewise exponential model. (a) Abundance of dated archaeological record through time measured as the expected number of dated archaeological samples per year (λ). Solid blue line indicate the point estimate ($\hat{\lambda}$) and dashed lines indicate 95% credibility interval. The Sum of Probability Distributions (grey line) of the data is plotted for reference. Note log scale for λ . (b) Rate of change in the abundance of dated archaeological record through time (r). Solid blue line indicate the point estimate (\hat{r}) and dotted lines indicate 95%CI. Periods in which the 95%CI for r does not include zero (horizontal grey line) are marked with **an asterisk (*) a light blue vertical band**.

394 . Instead, we propose using a model based on **the Poisson distribution** Poisson draws to repre-
 395 sent the number of samples per year. We argue that this model offers a parametrization with a
 396 natural interpretation, where λ_t is the expected number of radiocarbon samples at year t , and
 397 aligns better with the inherent nature of the data.

398 Through simulations, we demonstrate that analyzing data under this model allows for ac-
 399 curate inference of the expected abundance of radiocarbon samples and the rate of change in
 400 these abundances (figure 4a and b). The model of probabilities exhibits lower errors in estimating
 401 equivalent parameters (figure 4c and d). While this may appear desirable, we view it as a failure
 402 to capture the full uncertainty of the data. The model of probabilities treats the total number
 403 of samples, T , as a sample size controlled by the researcher. This model implies an experimen-
 404 tal process where the researcher decides to sample T times from a probability distribution. In
 405 reality, the researcher has no control over the number of radiocarbon samples in the dataset,
 406 which usually derives from the accumulation of prior research in the geographical area of inter-
 407 est. By fixing the total number of samples, a strong dependence is generated on the modeling

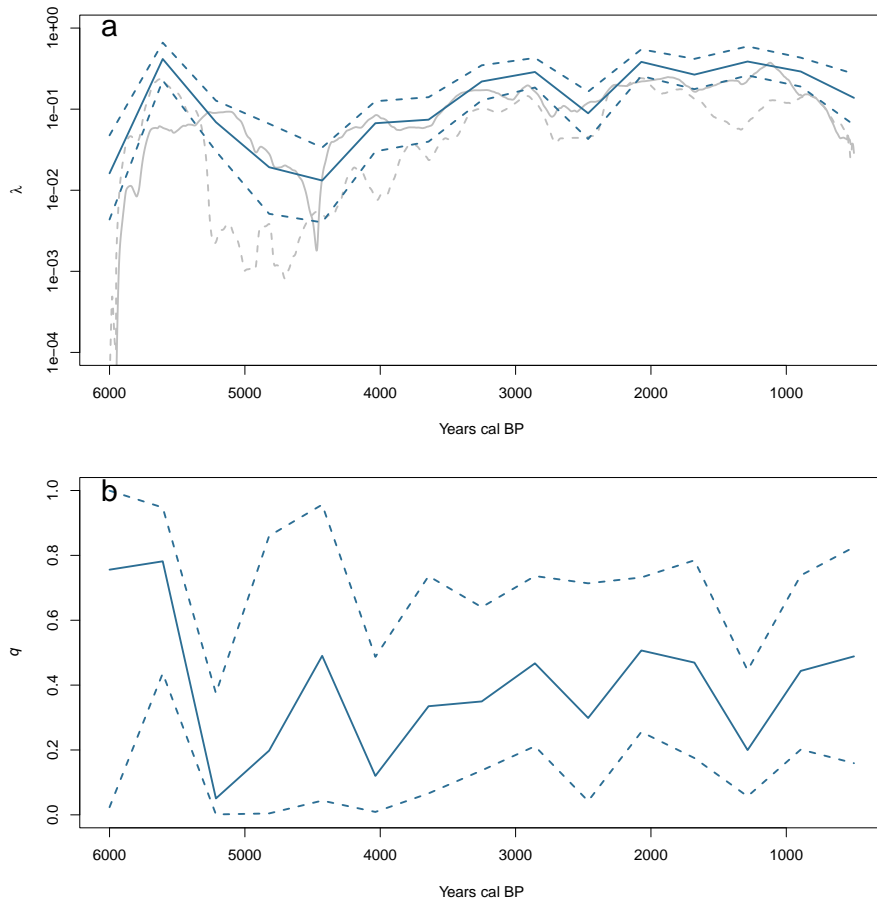


Figure 7 – Parameter estimates under the interdependent scenario for cereals (*Hordeum/Triticum*). (a) Estimate of the expected number of *Hordeum* and *Triticum* samples through time (λ). Solid blue line indicate the point estimate ($\hat{\lambda}$) and dashed lines indicate 95% credibility interval. The Sum of Probability Distributions (grey line) of *Hordeum* (solid line) and *Triticum* (dashed line) are plotted for reference. Note log scale for λ . (b) Proportion of *Triticum* (q) expected among the samples. Solid blue line indicate the point estimate (\hat{q}) and dotted lines indicate 95%CI.

408 of abundance of samples from different periods. Consider the initial abundance (expressed as λ_0
 409 or π_0) and the final abundance (λ_f or π_f) of samples. If we consider the extreme case in which
 410 all dates occur close to $t = 0$, the model of counts will provide a good estimate of parameter λ_0
 411 but will have little information to estimate λ_f , this is why we observe larger error for estimates
 412 of λ when the true value is small (figure 4b). However, the model of probabilities will provide an
 413 accurate estimate of π_f , despite having little information from samples of that period, since all
 414 the information is coming from the initial period and the constraints of the model.

415 The credibility interval coverage obtained under the model of probabilities is closer to the
 416 nominal value than that of the model of counts (figure 5). This difference likely arises from the
 417 limitation of ABCRF, which estimates the marginal posterior probability distribution of each pa-
 418 rameter independently, rather than their joint posterior probability distribution. Since the model
 419 of probabilities has only one parameter in the example, its posterior probability distribution is

420 easier to estimate. For future applications, it would be interesting to consider other simulation-
421 based inference approaches that estimate the joint distribution of parameters and provide con-
422 fidence intervals with better coverage properties (Rousset et al., 2017, and unpublished results
423 by F. Rousset).

424 An additional advantage of the model of counts is that simulations of the reference table can
425 be reused to analyze different datasets. The generation of a reference table requires to assume
426 a calibration curve and some prior distribution for the parameters; however, the number of
427 samples is not fixed. Therefore, a reference table generated with non informative priors could
428 be reused for dataset for which the same calibration curve are appropriate. This will save com-
429 putational time and reduce the carbon footprint of the analyses (Lannelongue et al., 2021).

430 The use of the SPD values as summary statistics for simulation-based inference is a good
431 idea only at first sight. The intuition that SPD is informative about the abundance of radiocarbon
432 samples is confirmed independently of the type of model assumed (e.g. DiNapoli et al., 2021, and
433 figure 6a). However, the computational cost of calculating the SPD offers no gain compared to
434 simpler summaries of the CRA data. In addition, transforming the data into the SPD assumes
435 a specific calibration curve for the data. This could be appropriate for many cases, but we can
436 also imagine cases in which a proportion of samples might have some intake of marine carbon in
437 an uncertain proportion. In a Bayesian framework, it would be straightforward to propose prior
438 distributions for the proportion of marine carbon intake of those samples and incorporate their
439 uncertainty on the calibration by doing so. In such a case, summarising the data with a different
440 calibration curve could be prone to produce misunderstandings.

441 **Application of the new approach to data from Britain and Ireland**

442 The main features of the demography of Britain and Ireland inferred in the original analysis
443 by Bevan et al. (2017) are recovered in our analysis. Three periods (Early Neolithic, around 6000
444 YBP; Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age, approximately between 5000 and 4000 YBP; and Early
445 Medieval, around 1500 YBP) of demographic expansion show strong support, with distinct es-
446 timates (*i.e.* non-overlapping 95% credibility intervals) of λ at the beginning and end of those
447 periods and positive estimates of the growth rate r with 95% credibility intervals excluding zero
448 (figure 6). Some other features discussed by Bevan et al. (2017) have lower support, such as the
449 decline after the peak at the Early Neolithic, the decline after the Bronze Age and its recovery:
450 95%CI of r include zero, but they have non-overlapping 95%CI of λ . What it is noteworthy is
451 the significant increase during the period 6833–6438 YBP which was not noted by Bevan et al.
452 (2017). This observation of an early increase in λ suggests a demographic expansion that starts
453 several hundreds years before the peak around 6000 YBP. This last result highlights the impor-
454 tance of using the model-based statistical analyses developed in the last few years by several
455 authors (reviewed by Crema, 2022) over visual evaluation of SPD curves.

456 The analysis of abundances of wheat and barley reveals that they are not independent of each
457 other. Their total abundance (figure 7a) appears to follow the same fluctuations as the whole data,
458 suggesting that demographic size could determine the amount of wheat and barley cultivated,
459 potentially generating this correlated pattern of abundance between these two cereals. Bevan et
460 al. (2017) already noticed the similarity between demography (*i.e.* abundance of all samples) and
461 starchy food plants abundance, which is congruent with them being staple food. Regarding the
462 relative abundance of these two cereals, the notably result is the transition of higher abundance
463 of wheat in the Early Neolithic to the larger abundance of barley thousand years later. Relative

464 abundance might have fluctuated afterwards, but the largely overlapping confidence intervals
465 prevent any meaningful discussion of these results.

466 **Combining radiocarbon data with other types of data**

467 The analysis of the abundance of radiocarbon data in archaeology has primarily focused on
468 its use as a proxy for demography. The validity of this proxy has been thoroughly discussed in the
469 literature (e.g. Rick, 1987; Williams, 2012). Some criticisms regarding the statistical uncertainty
470 of the SPD (e.g. Carleton and Groucutt, 2021) are addressed in the recent works developing
471 model-based approaches such as the one presented here. Biases arising from archaeological
472 research (questions drive which sites or periods are studied and which samples are dated) might
473 be attenuated by the weighting procedure proposed by Shennan et al. (2013). Taphonomy can
474 also be modelled to correct for different preservation across samples (Contreras and Coddling,
475 2023). However, some differences in the abundance of samples might be driven by changes in
476 human practices (e.g. use of fire dependent on climate or cultural changes in the way to dispose
477 objects) that might be more difficult to take into account. In that sense, it is important to highlight
478 that the proposed model studies the abundance of radiocarbon samples. Its application to study
479 demography (or any other process) requires understanding the limits of the data and model used
480 and acknowledging those caveats. Nevertheless, inferring the past demographic dynamics is an
481 important component for understanding the prehistoric populations and, despite its limits, the
482 abundance of radiocarbon samples seems to be informative about it.

483 In order to produce more robust inferences of demography, the use of multiple sources of
484 information has been suggested (Crema and Kobayashi, 2020; Hinz et al., 2022). The approach
485 that we propose here could be developed for this purpose. First, the Poisson law proposed to
486 model the number of artifacts that a given year contributes to the archaeological record can be
487 extended to other types of dated archaeological remains. The key to this is to properly model the
488 uncertainty about the age of those remains (*i.e.* the equivalent to the calibration curve for the
489 radiocarbon samples). For dating methods based on the natural sciences (radiocarbon and opti-
490 cally stimulated luminescence dating) there is a wealth of information about how to model those
491 uncertainties. For other methods of assigning dates (numismatic, aoristic approaches) proper sta-
492 tistical models can also be proposed (e.g. Crema, 2024).

493 Analyzing the data under an ABC approach may also facilitate the combination with other
494 sources of information such as genetic diversity. ABC is widely used in population genetics to
495 obtain demographic inferences, including in studies using ancient DNA from prehistoric sites.
496 Simulating both archaeological and genetic data based on the same demographic trajectory can
497 be envisioned and would allow the combination of two disparate sources of information. Never-
498 theless, it must be noted that population genetics “demographic” inference provides a measure
499 of genetic drift (the so-called effective population size) rather than census population size. As
500 with for the abundance of radiocarbon samples, there are good reasons to assume that the ef-
501 fective population size offers information about demography, but the interpretation of results
502 should bear in mind the limits of the data and the models used. For instance, there is ancient
503 DNA data from Britain and Ireland (e.g. Patterson et al., 2022) that could be used jointly with the
504 radiocarbon data from Bevan et al. (2017) to infer demography. However, the genetic structure
505 and admixture of those people would need to be taken into account to disentangle their effects
506 on genetic diversity from that of population size. Studies trying to combine archaeological and
507 genetic data will need to address the question of whether they are indeed inferring a common

508 process, two separate processes with irreconcilable differences, or, more likely, an intermediate
509 situation.

510 Conclusion

511 The analysis of the change in frequency of radiocarbon samples though time is an attractive
512 and useful approach to address diverse questions in archaeology and other sciences of the past.
513 A key development for that analysis was the SPD, which allows to visualize the abundance of
514 radiocarbon samples in the natural (calibrated) time scale, yet it lacks a formal mathematical defi-
515 nition. We argue that the ~~SPD has constrained later developments on the statistical inference of~~
516 ~~use of the SPD has lead recent model-based approaches to conceptualize the~~ abundance of ra-
517 ~~diocarbon samples ; misleading them to suboptimal concepts as a probability distribution, which~~
518 ~~we consider a suboptimal model~~ for the underlying data ~~and models~~. We propose a new model
519 for the conceptualization of abundances of radiocarbon samples, allowing powerful statistical
520 inference of parameters that have a natural interpretation, as the number of expected samples
521 contributed by each year to the total.

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537 Conflict of interest disclosure

538 The authors of this article declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the
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540 Evolutionary Biology.

541 Data, script, code, and supplementary information availability

542 Scripts to reproduce the analyses presented here are available at Zenodo (de Navascués,
543 2024). Data used in this work are from previous publications and were made available by Bevan
544 (2017).

Author contributions

545

546 MdN (Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology,
547 Project administration, Software, Validation, Writing – original draft), CB (Conceptualization,
548 Writing – review & editing), MJ (Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Resources, Writing –
549 review & editing).

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Supplementary Materials

679

680 **S.1. An interpretation of Sum of Probability Distributions (SPD) as the expected number of**
681 **samples per year**

682 As far as we know, a formal mathematical interpretation of the SPD is lacking, as the algorithm
683 defining it lacks a rigorous mathematical justification for aggregating independent probability dis-
684 tributions. Nevertheless, we find it more intuitive to interpret the SPD as the expected number
685 of samples from each year rather than as a probability distribution. Consider the meaning of the
686 SPD value at a specific year. Each sample in the radiocarbon data set has a probability of being
687 ‘sampled’ in that year, given by the posterior probability distribution from the calibration process.
688 Consequently, each sample actually originating from that year can be viewed as a ‘success’ and
689 samples from other years as ‘failures’ akin to independent binomial trials. The sum of these suc-
690 cesses, *i.e.*, the number of samples from that year, follows a Poisson-binomial distribution. The
691 expected value of a Poisson-binomial distribution (*i.e.* the expected number of samples at that
692 year) is the sum of the probabilities of each trial, representing the SPD value for that year. This
693 rationale provides the insight that the SPD somehow quantifies the expected number of sam-
694 ples for each year, suggesting that the analysis of radiocarbon abundance data should focus on
695 modeling the number of samples at each year. However, SPD values from different years are not
696 independent, rendering the Poisson-binomial model inapplicable to the entire SPD. Remarkably,
697 our proposed model, utilizing Poisson distributions to model the number of samples at each year,
698 yields inferences closely aligning with SPD values (figure 6).

Table S1 – Notation^a

	meaning
CRA	conventional radiocarbon age
H_u	number of samples in an interval starting at uncalibrated year u and ending at uncalibrated year $u + \delta$
k	upper bound value of λ under a model of logistic change
n_t	number of objects in year t that can potentially become a radiocarbon sample in the data set
\mathcal{N}	normal or Gaussian distribution
p_t	probability of an object to become a sample in the radiocarbon data at year t
q	ratio between λ of subset a (λ^a) and λ for the total dataset
r	growth rate of λ under a model of exponential or logistic change
R	vector of number of radiocarbon samples for each year between t_{\min} and t_{\max}
R^a	vector of number of radiocarbon samples for each year between t_{\min} and t_{\max} for the subset of samples a
R_t	number of radiocarbon samples at year t , an element of vector R
R'	vector of number of radiocarbon samples with CRAs between u_{\min} and u_{\max}
R'_u	number of radiocarbon samples with CRA = u , an element of vector R'
t	time in years (calibrated)
T	total number of samples in the radiocarbon data
u	uncalibrated radiocarbon year (measurement unit for CRA)
δ	size of the interval of uncalibrated years used to calculate summary statistics of the data
ΔH_u	Difference between values H_u and $H_{u+\delta}$
λ	vector of expected number of radiocarbon samples for each year between t_{\min} and t_{\max}
λ_t	expected number of radiocarbon samples at year t , an element of vector λ
π_t	probability that the age of a sample is t

^a We follow the convention of marking vectors with bold font.

Table S2 – Confusion matrix

true model	prediction			error rate
	exponential	logistic	piecewise	
exponential	15067	14873	60	0.498
logistic	4631	25277	92	0.157
piecewise	132	324	29544	0.015

true model	independent	interdependent	parallel	error rate
	independent	26348	2480	
interdependent	980	25290	3146	0.140
parallel	619	2479	26318	0.105

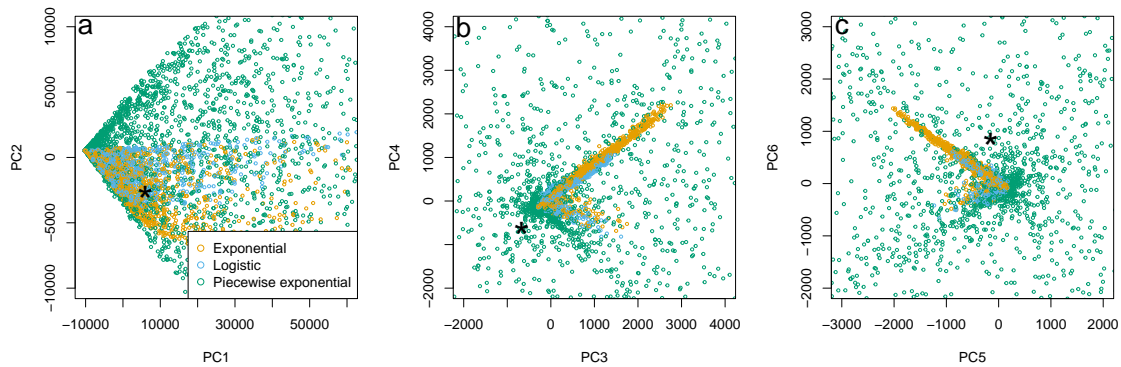


Figure S1 – PCA for goodness-of-fit evaluation. PC values from 3000 randomly selected simulations are plotted for each model for the first six axes. The projection of the observed summary statistics is represented by an asterisk (*). The first six principal components capture 97.06% of the variance in the data and are presented by consecutive pairs in panels (a), (b) and (c).

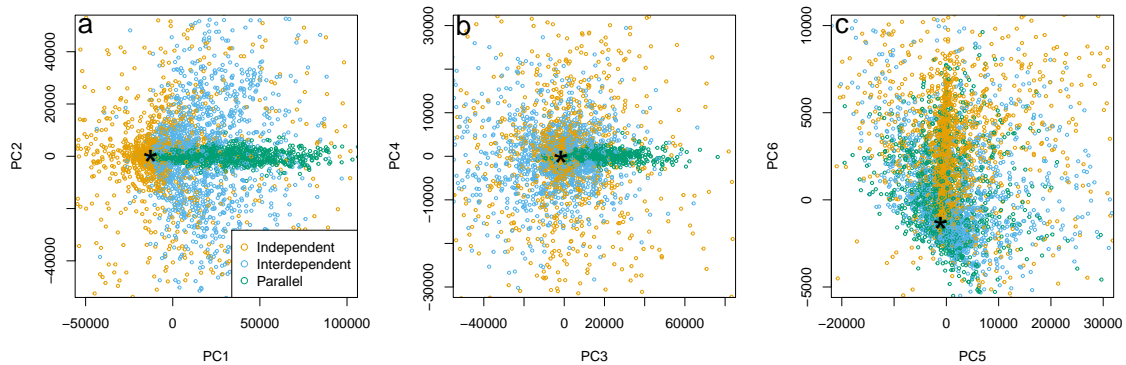


Figure S2 – PCA for goodness-of-fit evaluation, cereals. PC values from 3000 randomly selected simulations are plotted for each model. The projection of the observed summary statistics is represented by an asterisk (*). The first six principal components capture 99.60% of the variance in the data and are presented by consecutive pairs in panels (a), (b) and (c).