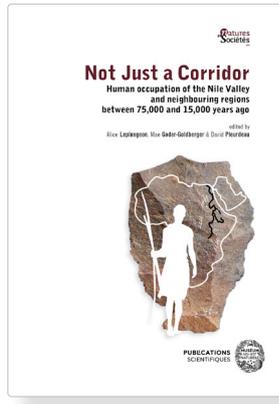


the Sahara through western Sudan. In fact, the Wadi Howa joined the Nile east from the Kharga oases. It then and may have been a communication route. The nearby site of Abadi 23, on the opposite bank of the Nile River, shows close similarities with Mahagiya 200. This includes the presence of a core as well as the prevalence of distaloid and subcores. The lack of bifacial tools and the core of Levallois flake and Levallois products, even though Levallois cores are more common at Abadi 23 (Ouyahidi & Ouyahidi 2005; Ouyahidi et al. 2010). This core represents a 15,000 and 14,000 BP (Ouyahidi & Ouyahidi 2005), but revised calibration methods have provided a date closer to 16,000 BP (Ouyahidi & Ouyahidi in press).



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Not just a corridor

Human occupation of the Nile Valley and neighbouring regions between 75,000 and 15,000 years ago

coordonné par
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LE LIVRE

Le Pléistocène récent (~75000-15000 ans) est une période clé pour la préhistoire de la Vallée du Nil. Au gré des changements climatiques de cette période, les populations humaines ont dû s'adapter à un Nil changeant. En particulier les changements environnementaux majeurs aux sources du Nil, tel que l'assèchement de certains lacs est africains, ont eu de profondes conséquences, bien qu'encore débattues, sur l'environnement de la Vallée du Nil à cette période, et son rôle de refuge écologique pour les populations humaines. En outre, bien que la Vallée du Nil constitue l'une des routes possibles de migrations hors d'Afrique ainsi que retour en Afrique, les différences dans les méthodes employées et les usages terminologiques empêchent toute comparaison systématique entre la Vallée du Nil d'une part et les régions voisines d'autre part.

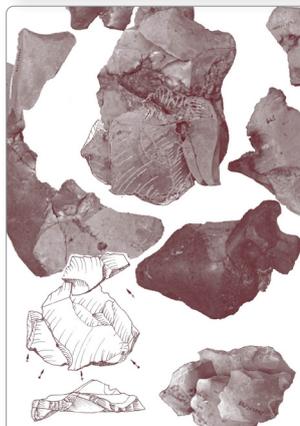
Cette monographie réunit des contributions proposant des synthèses actualisées et de nouvelles données sur l'enregistrement archéologique, paléoenvironnemental, paléanthropologique et géologique de l'Afrique du Nord-Est et des régions voisines (Afrique du Nord, Afrique orientale et le Levant) entre 75000 et 15000 ans. A travers une approche pluridisciplinaire, cette monographie permet d'explorer des questions d'actualité, telles que la capacité d'adaptation des Hommes modernes, en particulier aux changements climatiques, ainsi que les interactions et dispersions humaines dans le passé.

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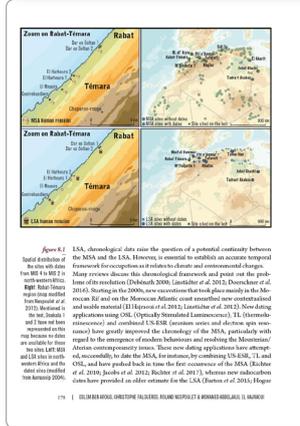
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Upper Nubia and beyond during the Terminal Pleistocene
New premises for the late occurrence of the Middle Stone Age

Introduction
The Nile Valley acts as a prominent contact region between East Africa and the large part of the Nile Valley, and the Mediterranean zone (as well as the Sinai, the Negev and possibly Arabia) (Figure 4.1). During the Terminal Pleistocene (from Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) to recent parts of the world including the Middle East and the Mediterranean region), human communities were mobile, reflected in the changes in lithic technology aimed at the dominance of microlithic blades and production methods (Pleurdeau 2010). Implications of the research concerning the cause of these changes, yet another question has rarely appeared in scientific publications, namely human migrations and the spread of the material correlates of culture, as well as the possibility of including these directions and pace (see Scalet et al. 2014). The Trans-Saharan corridor, a particularly important role in the discussion, among which the Nile Valley was one of the most important (see Figure 4.1).



& Barham 2005). The transition from the MSA to the LSA is characterized by a cultural discontinuity. This discontinuity, apart from the technological 'signature' of microliths, must be questioned because, for example, an occupation gap has been highlighted in the Eastern Nile Valley (ENLV) and the Eastern Nile Valley (ENLV) (Dobosi et al. 2006), whereas substantial sequences with lithic industries are present in the Nile Valley (Pleurdeau 2010). In the Nile Valley, other authors have highlighted a continuity gap that can be related to a lack of technological discontinuity during the transition (Pleurdeau 2010). A general lack of archaeological continuity (Pleurdeau et al. 1999).
Current data in North Africa show the MSA disappearance between 70,000 and 22,000 years. It is difficult to reduce this time range due to a) a low number of MSA sites, b) the presence of the MSA in the Nile Valley, and c) difficulties in using dating techniques in certain contexts (e.g. the Nile Valley, Pleurdeau & Barham 2005; Barham et al. 2008; Schenker et al. 2010; Jochims et al. 2012; Barham et al. 2012; Barham et al. 2013; Barham et al. 2014). In this paper, we will focus on the second aspect.

Most of the MSA sites in North Africa come from coastal or inland Mediterranean sites (Figure 4.1). The general well-documented data on human occupations, although over a long period of time. This is the case for some sites in the Eastern Nile Valley (ENLV) (Pleurdeau 2010). However, a well-documented archaeological record covering the last 120 millennia (Schwenker et al. 2010; Barham et al. 2012). Because of strategic location, some major excavations, the coastal region may have played a role in the cognitive development of H. sapiens and their dispersal towards the Nile (Pleurdeau & Schwenker 2010). The Nile Valley archaeological sequence provided by MSA and LSA occupations offers the opportunity to study the transition from the MSA to the LSA at one regional scale. For example, El Bahariya 2 can be seen as the case response to present both periods in a good context (Barham et al. 2012).
The aim of this paper is to review the current archaeological data on the Nile Valley, and to focus on the relevance of this current chronological data compared with other data from different sites in order to discuss a possible human occupation continuity during the end of Last Pleistocene.

Available stratigraphies in the Ternara region: overview
The Ternara region (Figure 4.1) is located 4 km to the south of the city of Ternara in the Ternara region, north of the Nile Valley in the north-west. Several dated cores have been known since the 1930s for well-preserved Ternara flint (Dobosi 2000; Tappin et al. 2006). Some of them



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and/or horizontal research, usually from a glabrous, uniface or distaloid nucleus. After the nucleus was split, each piece (some displaying the distal or ventral face) was regularly decorticated and flaked. The flapping usually took advantage of the split surface and used as the lateral face or back of the core excavating preparation and used as a working platform (Figure 11.4). However, occasionally the split surface was used as the lateral face or back of the core excavating preparation and used as a working platform (Figure 11.4). In some cases the platform was formed by the removal of a cortical flake from the nucleus (see Figure 11.4).
The splitting method was occasionally practiced during the Early and Late Epipaleolithic, and not commonly used during the Middle Epipaleolithic. This method may have been favored by the knapper as it is a highly efficient way to reduce small glabrous nodules. This method of splitting method during the Late Epipaleolithic may also be linked to the use of chalcocopy. As chalcocopy was not locally found, there was a need to maintain activities and the splitting method made the need for nodules certification redundant (Figure 11.4).
Nodule decortication mainly involved the removal of cortical blades from small platform cores, with slight differences between the two main types. The 'ventral' 'sieve-like' peeling of mainly uniface and occasionally compressed blades (see Figure 11.4) was usually performed through the use of the Epipaleolithic (Ouyahidi 2000, figs 1-3) (Figure 11.5). The ventral decortication method is mainly glabrous cores. During the Late Epipaleolithic (Terminal Pleistocene/Early Neolithic transition) the decortication was done by ventral decortication of mainly uniface and occasionally compressed blades, forming a single platform uniface platform (Figure 11.4). The 'ventral' peeling of the nodules, evident in the ventral view. Adapted from the book Upper Nubia lithic reduction sequences. The

Figure 4.16: A photograph of a lithic tool, possibly a flint core or flake, with a distinct shape.

Figure 4.17: A photograph of a lithic tool, possibly a flint core or flake, with a distinct shape.

Here enabled pre-planning and systematic chipping-out of specifically selected surface areas or lateral nodules (Ouyahidi 2000, 2005; Tappin et al. 2006; Moore 2003; Goring-Morris & Davidson 2004). In the Early Epipaleolithic (Figure 11.4) there are some examples of core reduction sequences that resemble Upper Epipaleolithic sequences.



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