

Assessing the most severe subsistence crisis of the 18th century in the Northwest of the Iberian Peninsula: a climatological perspective.

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Abstract

The analysis of climate variability over centuries reveals how environmental forces shaped society and helps contextualize modern climate trends and future projections. The persistent and heavy rains across several regions of the Eastern Atlantic in 1768-1769 triggered the last and most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and Northern Portugal, leading to high mortality. The atmospheric conditions of this historical episode were analyzed using the EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis dataset, which spans from the 18th century to the early 21st century. From June 1768 to May 1769, the rainfall anomaly in Galicia and Northern Portugal was positive in 11 out of 12 months. Although the rainfall in Northern Portugal appeared less intense than in Galicia, June 1768 had the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the second-highest. This excess precipitation agrees with the occurrence of pro-Serenitate rogations and written testimonies indicating an unusually high number of rainy days between June 1768 and May 1769. The atmospheric synoptic patterns for the rainiest months show negative anomalies in both sea level pressure and 500 hPa geopotential height in the northeast Atlantic. These patterns are associated with troughs in the northeastern Atlantic that induce the formation of surface low-pressure systems and hinder the eastward progression of anticyclones into the region, resulting in more frequent episodes of rain and cold than usual.

Keywords: precipitation, paleo-reanalysis dataset, ecclesiastical rogations, atmospheric synoptic conditions, Atlantic Arc, agricultural crisis.

1. Introduction

The climate and weather conditions play a fundamental role in human health and in the development and evolution of societies, configuring some of their characteristics (Lamb, 1995; Pfister and Wanner, 2021). The impacts of climate and weather states on societies are complex and interconnected, affecting various aspects of human life. Seasonal variations and their extreme patterns condition the daily lives of individuals, determining clothing, house

35 construction, food production and consumption, water resources, and social well-being
36 among others. When frequent deviations from the normal climatic pattern occur, illnesses,
37 economic losses, and even deaths can result. Climate variability and extreme weather events
38 can affect agricultural productivity and food availability (White et al., 2018a). Droughts,
39 floods, and storms can damage crops and livestock, leading to food shortages and insecurity,
40 particularly in vulnerable regions with limited access to resources (IPCC, 2019).

41 In recent decades, the scientific community has become aware of the importance of going
42 back in time to deepen our understanding of the climate, as longer data records lead to more
43 reliable and consistent interpretations of climate (Degroot et al., 2021). Analyzing climate
44 behavior over centuries allows us to investigate how environmental forces have historically
45 shaped various sectors of society, analyzing the vulnerabilities generated in different
46 socioeconomic sectors such as agriculture, transportation, energy, as well as the resilience
47 and adaptability of society to weather anomalies and climatic dynamics (Ljungqvist et al.,
48 2021, Pfister and Wanner, 2021). Given the absence of reliable local or regional details in
49 climate projections for precipitation and changes in extreme events, identifying similar
50 patterns from the pre-industrial era could aid in understanding the mechanisms underlying
51 future extreme hydrometeorological events (e. g. Diodato et al., 2019; Diodado et al., 2020).
52 Famines are often attributed to the interplay of climate-related and societal stressors within
53 a framework of pre-existing environmental and social vulnerabilities (Slavin, 2016).
54 Research on famine crises in medieval and early modern Europe provides a valuable, largely
55 unexplored archive of societies that faced challenges akin to those of today (Ljungqvist et
56 al., 2024). Examining the famines of the 'Little Ice Age' (1300–1850) offers key insights into
57 human-environment interactions, advancing our understanding of how past societies
58 managed natural challenges and strengthening the foundation for future decision-making
59 (Collet and Schub, 2018; Wanner et al., 2022).

60 The analysis of historical climatic processes predating the industrial era is a highly
61 challenging task, as it involves handling datasets of diverse origins, including instrumental
62 data from *in situ* measurements and non-instrumental data obtained from proxies such as
63 ecclesiastical rogations or written testimonies found in letters, diaries, and reports
64 (Brönnimann, 2015; White et al., 2018b). Additionally, these datasets often vary in terms of

65 reliability, completeness, and spatial coverage, further complicating the analysis and
66 interpretation of historical climate patterns. The complexity of this task is compounded by
67 the need to carefully validate and reconcile disparate sources of historical climate data,
68 ensuring consistency and accuracy in the analysis. Furthermore, interpreting historical
69 climate records requires a deep understanding of the context in which the data were collected,
70 including social, cultural, and environmental factors that may have influenced observations
71 and recording practices over time. Despite these challenges, studying historical climatic
72 processes offers valuable insights into long-term climate variability and helps contextualize
73 modern climate trends and future projections (White et al., 2018b; Pfister and Wanner, 2021).

74 Paleoclimatic reconstructions and modelling approaches (Moravec, 2019) have been
75 employed over the two past decades to analyze climate history, primarily focusing on
76 droughts and rainfall patterns across Europe (Murphy et al., 2020; Diodato et al., 2020;
77 Vicente- Serrano et al., 2020; Noone et al., 2017; Noone et al., 2016; Spraggs et al., 2015;
78 Brázdil et al., 2015; Todd et al., 2013; Potop et al., 2014) and on drying trends in the
79 Mediterranean region (Nicault et al., 2008). Additionally, historical documentary data has
80 enabled a millennium-long reconstruction of damaging hydrological events across Italy and
81 the broader Mediterranean, revealing 674 events from 800 to 2017 (Diodato et al., 2019). In
82 particular, numerous historical studies on the Iberian Peninsula have primarily focused on
83 droughts (Dominguez-Castro et al., 2008; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2012; Dominguez-Castro
84 et al., 2021; Bravo-Paredes et al., 2020), with relatively limited attention to extreme rainfall
85 events (Dominguez-Castro et al., 2015). Thus, most of the studies linked to an excess rain
86 refer to flood linked events (see Gonzalez-Cao et al., 2021; Fernandez-Novoa et al., 2023;
87 Fernandez-Novoa et al., 2024, Beneyto et al., 20220; Benito et al., 2021; Peña et al., 2022;
88 among others). Note that, according to the Köppen classification (Köppen, 1884), much of
89 the southern and Mediterranean Iberian Peninsula experiences a temperate climate with hot,
90 dry summers (Csa). In contrast, the northwestern Iberian Peninsula and the western coast of
91 Portugal are classified as having a temperate climate with warm, dry summers (Csb) (see
92 AEMET-IM, 2011 for further details). Annual precipitation is highly variable across the
93 Iberian Peninsula (AEMET-IM, 2011). The highest precipitation levels, exceeding 2000 mm,
94 occur in the mountainous regions of Serra do Gêres in north-eastern continental Portugal,
95 and in areas near the “Rias Baixas” in the southwestern Galicia (northwest of the Iberian

96 Peninsula). Conversely, the lowest annual rainfalls, below 300 mm, is found in the southeast
97 of Spain.

98 Multiple records highlight the connection between excessive rainfall and crop losses
99 throughout history leading to famine both across Europe (Alfani & Ó Gráda 2017; White et
100 al., 2018a; Ljungqvist et al., 2023; Ljungqvist et al., 2024; Slavin, 3016) and more regionally
101 in Ireland (Ó Gráda, 2017), Great Britain (Hoyle, 2017), France (Béaur & Chevet, 2017),
102 Spain (Pérez-Moneda, 2017) and Northern Portugal (Amorín, 2017; Silva, 2019), among
103 others. Particularly in Galicia, the biennium of 1768-1769 was characterized by incessant
104 and heavy rains, resulting in the last and most significant agricultural crisis due to crop losses
105 (Mejide-Pardo, 1965; Labrada, 1804; González-Fernández, 2000; Losada-Sanmartín, 2008;
106 Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017), leading to a persistent famine that claimed human lives (Martín-
107 Garcia, 2001; Losada- Sanmartín, 2008; Silva 2019). This situation, which historically
108 occurred several times, gave rise to a saying that “*in Galicia, hunger comes swimming*”
109 (Fernández-Cortizo, 2005). The same author analyzes the Galician subsistence crisis during
110 the 17th and 18th centuries, identifying that over 67% of the rogations during these centuries
111 were attributed to an excess of precipitation. A similar situation was observed in Northern
112 Portugal (Silva 2019). However, famine was not observed in the rest of the Iberian Peninsula,
113 as documented by multiple sources of data collected in Table 3.2 of Pérez-Moneda (2017),
114 which accounts for epidemic, death and famines occurring in the Iberian Peninsula from
115 1500- 1800, showing the years of excess mortality and famine in 60 small towns across
116 Castile, Aragon and Extremadura.

117 Regions described above are included in the Atlantic Arc region which refers to a
118 geographical area encompassing the western and northern coastal regions of Europe that
119 border the Atlantic Ocean (<https://cpmr-atlantic.org/>). The Atlantic Arc encompasses the
120 region III (Celtic Seas) and region IV (Bay of Biscay and Iberian Coast) of the OSPAR
121 Maritime Area ([https://oap.ospar.org/en/ospar-assessments/quality-status-reports/qs-
122 2023/synthesis-report/introduction/](https://oap.ospar.org/en/ospar-assessments/quality-status-reports/qs-2023/synthesis-report/introduction/)). This area, which typically includes countries such as
123 Portugal, Spain, France, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, is characterized by its proximity
124 to the Atlantic Ocean and shares similar climatic, environmental, and economic
125 characteristics due to this coastal influence.

126 The objective of this study is to analyze the atmospheric conditions in the Atlantic Arc from
127 June 1768 to May 1769, which precipitated the most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and
128 Northern Portugal in the 18th century, resulting in high mortality. To achieve this,
129 precipitation and atmospheric pressure data obtained from a paleo-reanalysis dataset
130 spanning from the 18th century to the early 21st century will be utilized. Current climate data
131 generated by ERA5 and precipitation data from a precipitation gauge at Santiago de
132 Compostela will be used to corroborate that the synoptic conditions observed during that
133 biennium are reproduced in the present day.

134 **2. 1768-1769 Event Identification and Databases**

135 **2.1. Identification of the 1768-1769 event**

136 The intense and persistent rainfall event of 1768-1769, which led to a famine in Galicia and
137 Northern Portugal, resulting in human casualties in excess due to the complete devastation
138 of crops, was identified through various sources of information with diverse characteristics
139 and locations. In any case, historical sources verified that the event impacted not only the
140 Atlantic coast of the Iberian Peninsula but also the entire Atlantic Arc. However, in other
141 regions, the event did not have as severe consequences on contemporary society as it did in
142 Galicia and Northern Portugal.

143 There are multiple sources confirming the biennium 1768-1769 as extraordinarily rainy in
144 the Atlantic European region (red points in Figure 1). Particularly in England, Barker (1771)
145 identifies 1768 as one of the three rainiest years in the period from 1683 to 1771 in London
146 (Rutlandshire). Clarck (1999) analyzes the synoptic pattern preceding the major flood that
147 occurred in Somerset on first of September 1768. Additionally, Macdonald and Sangster
148 (2017) include the 1768 floods in the historical flood list, although they did not attribute it
149 significant importance.

150 In France, there are both instrumental records and contemporary testimonies regarding the
151 abundant rainfall in Bordeaux and in Vendée. Particularly, testimonies from the priest of La
152 Limouzinière (Vendée) stating, “*This year 1768 has been one of the rainiest that we have
153 seen in living memory, the rains began in June and were almost continuous... (Cette année
154 1768 a été une des plus pluvieuses qu'ont ait vu de mémoire d'homme, les pluyes ont*

155 *commencées au mois de juin et ont été presque toujours continuelles...*) “, from the priest of
156 Lairoux (Vendée) mentioning, “*this year (1768) was remarkable for the abundance of water*
157 *in the height of summer, which began to fall on the feast day of Saint Médard (June 8) ...*
158 *(cette année (1768) fut remarquable par l'abondance des eaux au plus fort de l'été qui*
159 *commencèrent à tomber la fete du dit Saint Médard (June 8)...*”, and from the prior of Lasse
160 (Maine-et-Loire) who wrote, “*In the current year (1768), the rains have been so continuous*
161 *that in the memory of men, they have never seen the like... (Dans la présente année (1768)*
162 *les pluies ont été si continues que de mémoires d'hommes on en avait vu de pareille...)*”.
163 Finally, Le Roy Ladurie (2011) discusses the impact of climatic conditions on crops, stating,
164 “*From 1768 onwards, due to unfavorable weather conditions, too cool and/or too wet, poor*
165 *harvests and the rise in grain prices became prevalent... (À partir de 1768, en raison de*
166 *circonstances météo défavorables, trop fraîches et/ou trop humides, les mauvaises récoltes*
167 *et la hausse des prix frumentaires s'imposent ...)*”, although it is also mentioned that its effect
168 on mortality was smaller than that observed in 1740.

169 In the Iberian Peninsula, Font-Tullet (1988) identifies 1768 as a particularly rainy year in the
170 Galico-Cántabra region (northwest of Spain). In the specific case of Galicia, Perez-Constanti
171 (1925) compiles information from several doctors in Santiago de Compostela on April 17,
172 1769 who stated, “*...since the month of May of last year 1768, until the present time, it has*
173 *almost always been raining... as it did in the months of February, March, and April of this*
174 *year... (...desde el mes de Mayo del año pasado de 68, hasta el tiempo presente, está casi*
175 *siempre lloviendo ... como lo hizo en los meses de febrero, marzo y abril del presente*
176 *año...)*”. The same doctors also remarked, “*...it has been eighteen months since we have*
177 *known the beneficial influences of the seasons, almost continuous rain and cold winds have*
178 *confused summer, winter, autumn, and spring... (van pasados diez y ocho meses que no*
179 *hemos conocido los influjos saludables de las estaciones del año, casi continua lluvia y*
180 *vientos fríos han confundido verano, invierno, otoño y primavera...)*”. The coincidence of
181 these testimonies with the earlier ones described by the French priests is striking. Lastly, in
182 Northern of Portugal, Silva (2019), through an annual precipitation index (Fig. 23 of his
183 thesis), indicated that the end of summer and the fall of 1768 were characterized by high
184 amounts of rain, serving the prelude to a severe agrarian crisis. Additionally, Amorín (2017)
185 identifies severe floods in the Porto region due to continuous rains in 1768-1769.

186 These specific climatic conditions were reflected in numerous ecclesiastical rogations “*pro*
187 *Serenitate*” held in various locations in Galicia and Northern Portugal (Silva, 2019; González
188 Fernández, 2000; Losada-Sanmartín, 2008). These authors have referred to the crisis of 1768-
189 1769 as one of the two most severe in the 18th century, accompanied by episodes of hunger
190 and excess mortality throughout the region, as documented in numerous studies (Ávila and
191 LaCueva, 1852; Meijide-Pardo, 1965).

192 Other studies emphasize the impact of the extraordinary climatic conditions on cereal harvest
193 (Pérez-Costanti, 1925; Meijide-Pardo, 1965; Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017), which is also
194 reflected in tithe records (Eiras, 1978).

195 **2.2. Databases**

196 Historical data of precipitation, sea level pressure (SLP), and geopotential height at 500 hPa
197 (GPH) at a monthly scale were obtained from the EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis database with
198 approximately 2° spatial resolution (Valler et al., 2022). According to these authors, the
199 EKF400v2 utilizes atmospheric-only general circulation model simulations (CCC400). The
200 30 ensemble members were generated with the ECHAM5.4 general circulation model. These
201 simulations are augmented by a significantly expanded observational network comprising
202 early instrumental temperature and pressure data, documentary evidence, and proxy records
203 derived from tree-ring width and density. Additionally, new types of observations, including
204 monthly precipitation amounts, the frequency of wet days, and coral proxy records, have
205 been incorporated into the assimilation process. In this version 2 system, the assimilation
206 procedure has undergone methodological enhancements, notably the estimation of the
207 background-error covariance matrix through a blending technique involving both time-
208 dependent and climatological covariance matrices. The EKF400v2 model simulations cover
209 the period from the beginning of 18th century to the beginning of the 21st century. For further
210 de details, the reader is referred to Valler et al. (2020).

211 Two additional long-term regional precipitation series were considered. For Ireland, the
212 Island of Ireland 1711 (IoI_1711) series, was used, providing continuous monthly
213 precipitation data from 1711 to 2016 (Murphy et al., 2018). The post-1850 series was
214 constructed using quality-assured monthly precipitation records compiled by Noone et al.
215 (2016), while the pre-1850 series was derived from instrumental and documentary sources

216 compiled by the UK Met Office (Jenkinson et al., 1979). The monthly IoI series was accessed
217 from PANGAEA (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.887593>). For Wales-
218 England, the England and Wales Precipitation (EWP) series (Alexander and Jones, 2001;
219 Simpson and Jones, 2014) were considered. These series represent an area-averaged
220 precipitation record derived from five rainfall regions representing England and Wales. It
221 provides a continuous monthly precipitation record from 1766 and is regularly updated by
222 the UK Met Office (UKMO) Hadley Centre, from whom monthly data were accessed
223 (<https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadukp/>). Both data sets were combined by Murphy
224 et al (2020) to reconstruct and analyze monthly precipitation in England and Wales, Scotland
225 and Ireland, and to reevaluate historical droughts over the period 1748-2000. Notably, the
226 overlooked drought of 1765–1768, which impacted the British-Irish Isles, was identified as
227 the most significant event in their 250-year reconstruction. This event can serve as a valuable
228 benchmark for stress- testing current systems to ensure resilience.

229 *In situ* monthly precipitation data were obtained from precipitation gauges located at Lyndon
230 and Cornwall in England, and Bordeaux in France. The precipitation series at Lyndon spans
231 from 1737 to 1770, while at Bordeaux it covers from 1751 to 1770, and in Cornwall from
232 1767 to 1771. Moreover, the cumulative number of rainy days in Exeter, England, from 1755
233 to 1775 was obtained from Exeter weather diaries, accessible at
234 https://digital.nmla.metoffice.gov.uk/IO_11c660bd-60c1-4d59-a079-64fdbdb20144.

235 Current daily precipitation data in Galicia were obtained from a rain gauge located at
236 Santiago de Compostela (42° 53' 17''N, 8° 24' 30''W), available at
237 https://www.aemet.es/es/datos_abiertos. This rain gauge is one with the longest precipitation
238 series in Galicia from 1944 to 2023. Additionally, monthly sea-level pressure and
239 geopotential height at 500 hPa were retrieved from ERA5 database
240 ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form)
241 [means?tab=form](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form)) at a spatial resolution of 0.5° covering the region from 60°N to 25°N and
242 from 5°E to 45°W for the period 1940-2023.

243 The cumulative annual precipitation for each month was calculated by considering the
244 preceding six months and the subsequent five months relative to the month under study. The
245 same methodology was applied for calculating the number of rainy days per month. This

246 approach enables the determination of both the cumulative precipitation and the number of
247 rainy days per year without relying on calendar years.

248 **3. Results**

249 The precipitation anomaly was calculated using EKF400v2 data for the period of maximum
250 cumulative rainfall 6/1768-5/1769, documented in the data sources described in previous
251 section, relative to the annual mean for the period 1755- 1785 (Fig. 2). The precipitation
252 anomaly reached values of 200 mm in French Brittany and southern England, and values of
253 approximately 150 mm in Galicia and North Portugal, where typical annual precipitation
254 ranges from 1000 to 1200 mm (AEMET-IM, 2011).

255 **3.1 Analyzing the historical persistent and heavy rainfall event**

256 The cumulative annual precipitation provides by EKF400v2 data in Galicia (Fig. 3a) and
257 Northern Portugal (Fig. 3b) over the period 1755 to 1785 shows a peak during the final six
258 months of 1768 and the initial six months of 1769, with values exceeding 1200 mm.

259 This persistent and heavy rainfall event was also observed in neighboring regions such as
260 Ireland (Fig. 4a), Wales-England (Fig. 4b) and Normandy and French Brittany (Fig. 4c),
261 where similar peaks in cumulative precipitation occurred simultaneously.

262 Figure 4a illustrates the precipitation in Ireland for the decades just before and after the
263 extreme rain event observed from mid-1768 to mid-1769 in NW Iberian Peninsula. The
264 drought period of 1765- 1768, as analyzed by Murphy et al. (2020), immediately precedes
265 the peak rainfall of 1768-1769. While the period 1768-1769 appears significantly rainy, it is
266 comparable to other rainy events identified in preceding and subsequent decades. These
267 findings align with those derived from Murphy's reconstructed database for Ireland, Murphy
268 et al., (2020), as depicted in Figure 5a.

269 In Wales-England (Fig. 4b), similar to the case of Ireland, a peak in cumulative precipitation
270 between 1768 and 1769 is observed following the drought of 1765-1768. Once again, the
271 precipitation peak is comparable to that observed at the beginning of the decade. As was the
272 case with Ireland, the results are comparable to those from the reconstructed database for
273 Wales-England (Alexander and Jones, 2001; Simpson and Jones, 2014) used in Murphy et
274 al., (2020) as depicted in Figure 5b.

275 In France (Fig. 4c), it is also evident that the peak in cumulative precipitation spanning from
276 1768 to 1769 is the highest of the period under study (1755-1785), although it is not as
277 pronounced as the peak identified in Galicia and Northern Portugal.

278 Similar information can be obtained from local *in situ* precipitation gauges, such as illustrated
279 in Figure 6 for Lyndon and Cornwall in England, (Figs. 6a and b, respectively) and Bordeaux
280 in France (Fig. 6c).

281 *In situ* data corroborate the presence of a peak in rainfall at these locations between 1768 and
282 1769. Unfortunately, the limited duration of the precipitation series restricts our ability to
283 gain a broader perspective.

284 In the same line, the cumulative number of rainy days calculated from *in situ* precipitation
285 data at Exeter (England) from 1755 to 1775 demonstrates a notable positive anomaly of
286 between 20 and 40 days between mid- 1768 and mid-1769 (Fig. 7).

287 The origin of this precipitation anomaly pattern can be analyzed in terms of the anomaly in
288 SLP (Fig. 8a) and in GPH (Fig. 8b), for the region under study during the period from 6/1768
289 to 5/1769, relative to the annual mean for the period 1755- 1785.

290 Both subplots depict a negative anomaly minimum of approximately 3 hPa in the SLP (Fig.
291 8a) and of 30 m in the GPH (Fig. 8b), locating the area of strongest anomaly (negative) in
292 the Bay of Biscay and covering the westernmost part of Europe inside the low anomalies
293 area.

294 **3.2 Analyzing current persistent and heavy rainfall events**

295 After identifying the synoptic conditions that led to the extraordinary rainfall during the
296 period 6/1768 to 5/1769, the next step will be to analyze whether similar patterns have been
297 observed over the past 80 years, during which abundant instrumental records facilitate the
298 identification of unusual rainfall events. Considering that documentary records point out the
299 presence of incessant rains over the period 1768-1769, the number of rainy days per month
300 was calculated from 1944 to 2023 using data from the Santiago de Compostela rain gauge.
301 A day was considered rainy when at least 1 mm of precipitation was collected (AEMET-IM,
302 2011). The number of days corresponding to the mean and the 50th (median), 90th, and 95th
303 percentiles is shown in Table 1. Note that Santiago de Compostela was one of the places most

304 affected by the 1768-1769 and has one of longest meteorological series in the area of study,
305 which makes it an optimal candidate to analyze how current patterns can be related to those
306 obtained almost three centuries ago.

307 The 50th percentile serves as a reference on the number of rainy days per month in a normal
308 year, while the 90th and 95th percentile provide information on the number of rainy days per
309 month in extreme years. In fact, the total number of days in Santiago de Compostela during
310 a normal year (50th percentile) with precipitation equal to or greater than 1 mm is 146 days.
311 This is similar to the value reported in the Iberian Climatic Atlas (AEMET-IM, 2011), which
312 states that the highest number of days with precipitation equal to or greater than 1 mm (over
313 150 days) in the Iberian Peninsula occurs, among other regions, in the northeastern Galicia.
314 Additionally, the 95th percentile is exceeded by 23 days of precipitation per month in seven
315 months, which include January to April and October to December (JFMAOND). In the
316 summer months, the 95th percentile for June, July, and August is 15, 10, and 14 days,
317 respectively.

318 The precipitation observed during the rainiest months (95th) over the recent period 1944 to
319 2023 was analyzed using composite maps. Initially, the mean composite map for SLP and
320 GPH was calculated from 1944 to 2023. Subsequently, the composites maps (SLP and GPH)
321 for extreme rainy conditions were determined as follows: i) the monthly 95th percentiles of
322 the rainiest days presented in Table 1 served as threshold values; ii) for each month, its
323 composite maps were generated by averaging SLP or GPH only for the years when the
324 number of rainy days in that month exceeded the threshold; iii) the monthly composite maps
325 were then averaged to obtain the annual composite maps corresponding to rainy months.
326 Finally, the mean annual composite map was subtracted from the rainy composite map to
327 yield the anomaly. The mean composite from 1944 to 2023 and anomaly maps for SLP and
328 GPH are illustrated in Figure 9, with the left column representing SLP and the right column
329 GPH. The mean composite map for SLP (Fig. 9a) was subtracted from the SLP composite
330 map for rainy months (Fig. 9c) to obtain the SPL anomaly (Fig. 9e). Similarly, the GPH
331 anomaly (Fig. 9f) was obtained by subtracting Fig. 9b from Fig. 9d.

332 The synoptic patterns shown in Figure 9 are similar to the ones obtained during the 1768-
333 1769 rainy event (Fig. 8) with the Iceland low anomaly low and displaced southeastward
334 over the Bay of Biscay.

335 **4. Discussion**

336 The period from June 1768 to May 1769 was characterized by incessant and heavy rains in
337 the northwestern region of the Iberian Peninsula, resulting in the last and most significant
338 agricultural crisis due to crop losses and leading to a persistent famine that claimed human
339 lives. During these years, Spain was a country immersed in Bourbon reformism and, in
340 particular, in the reforms led by King Charles III, which were characterized by enlightened
341 ideas, as long as these did not endanger his absolute power and the traditional social order
342 (enlightened absolutism). In 1766, a strong crisis occurred that triggered the so-called
343 "Esquilache Riot", largely motivated by a subsistence crisis as a result of a very sharp rise in
344 the price of bread. This rise in the price of bread was motivated by a combination of poor
345 harvests and the promulgation of a decree in 1765 that liberalized the grain market
346 (Domínguez Ortiz, 2005).

347 The poverty and low level of socioeconomic development in the northwestern region of the
348 Iberian Peninsula were also contributing factors to the absence of instrumental
349 measurements, which were already incipient at other European locations during the period
350 of interest. The first instrumental readings of the weather in Galicia were located in El Ferrol
351 in 1788 (Domínguez-Castro et al. 2014). Additionally, the first instrumental meteorological
352 readings in northern Portugal were made by Joao da Veiga in Lamego, from 1770 until 1784
353 (Alcoforado et al. 2012). This lack of instrumental information was partially mitigated by
354 utilizing other documentary sources such as rogation ceremonies, convent diaries, letters,
355 which allowed for the categorization of meteorological events following the method
356 proposed by Pfister (1984, 1992). The ecclesiastical rogations "*pro-Serenitate*" constitute a
357 fundamental source of information used to characterize the historical rainy event in Galicia
358 and Northern Portugal (Fernandez-Cortizo, 2005; Silva, 2019) complementing the written
359 testimonies previously described (Silva, 2019). In particular, the ecclesiastical rogation
360 database corresponding to Santiago de Compostela, possibly the ground zero of the event in
361 terms of deaths and socio-economic impact, contains 283 rogation masses over the period

362 1670-1804 (approximately 2 per year), among which 70 were for rain (*pro-Pluvia*) and 181
363 for fair weather (*pro-Serenitate*). This strongly contrasts with observations in other parts of
364 the Iberian Peninsula, where *pro-Serenitate* rogations are less common (Dominguez-Castro
365 et al., 2008; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2012; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2021; Bravo-Paredes
366 et al., 2020) due to particular climate conditions that characterize the NW corner of the
367 Iberian Peninsula. For comparison purposes, Table 2 exhibits the current annual precipitation
368 levels at the most rainfall-prone locales within the Atlantic Arc, encompassing Santiago de
369 Compostela (Spain) and Porto (Portugal), both situated within the designated area of interest.

370 During the decade encompassing the event (from 1761 to 1770), 20 *pro-Serenitate* and 6 *pro-*
371 *Pluvia* rogations were celebrated in Santiago, which aligns with the average during the longer
372 period (1670-1804) mentioned above. However, the summer of 1768 stood out for the
373 frequency of rogations for fair weather, with four ceremonies held in Santiago from June to
374 August of that year. In Pontevedra, located 60 km south of Santiago, *pro-Serenitate* rogations
375 occurred in May and September 1768 and May 1769. Similarly, rogations for fair weather
376 were documented in Braga (North Portugal) in September and October 1768 (Silva, 2019).
377 The same author (refer to page 214) indicates that 1768 witnessed the highest number of *pro-*
378 *Serenitate* rogative processions in the 17th-18th centuries for northern Portugal. Another
379 noteworthy aspect highlighting the intensity of the 1768-1769 event is that in the city of
380 Santiago de Compostela during the historical record (1670-1804), *pro-Serenitate* rogations
381 took place only on six occasions in two summer months of the same year, 1768 (June and
382 August) being one of those years.

383 This high precipitation event was not confined exclusively to this area of the Iberian
384 Peninsula but extended to other areas of France, Wales, England, and Ireland, although in
385 these regions, it did not lead to agricultural and demographic crises. This may be attributed
386 to the proactive measures taken in other areas such as France, following the "Great Winter"
387 of 1709, where strategies like product substitution were adopted. As a result, wheat was
388 replaced by less prized substitutes such as buckwheat, rye, and chestnuts (Béaur and Chevet,
389 2017). The introduction of buckwheat in western France is believed to have contributed to
390 the region's relatively mild impact during the great famines of the eighteenth century
391 (Nassiet, 1998). Similarly, in the UK, some authors (Hoyle 2017) suggest that the climatic

392 variability of the early eighteenth century may have prompted the cultivation of root crops in
393 fields as an emergency fodder crop. By the late 1720s, potatoes had become a common part
394 of the diet among the poor. Nevertheless, there remains the possibility that famine was
395 averted because potatoes, like oats, provided the option for people to switch to cheaper, albeit
396 less desirable, foodstuffs during years of high prices. In Ireland, potato had become the base
397 of the diet as the popular saying stated “*potatoes in the morning, potatoes at noon; and if I*
398 *rose at midnight, it would still be potatoes (ditty prátaí ar maidin, prátaí um nóin; is dá n-*
399 *éireoinn meánoíche, prátaía gheobhainn)*”.

400 In Galicia and North Portugal, all sources indicate a severe famine. To comprehend the
401 diverse implications of the historical rainy event on the societies on these regions, it is
402 imperative to understand the socio-economic context of Galicia and North Portugal at that
403 time. One reason for the famine in this area stemmed from the predominant reliance on wheat
404 and rye crops during that period. Traditionally, the most agriculturally productive regions of
405 the Iberian Peninsula were the south and center, where Mediterranean agriculture thrived,
406 particularly with the cultivation of wheat. Conversely, the north faced challenges due to its
407 humid climate, which posed difficulties for staple crops such as olive trees and vines to adapt.
408 The introduction of crops from the Americas significantly transformed the agricultural and
409 commercial landscape. For the northern regions, the emergence of potatoes and corn
410 provided a solution to their historical agricultural constraints. However, by 1768-1769, these
411 new crops had not yet been widely adopted. Corn, native to the Americas, arrived in Europe
412 around 1604, initially being cultivated in Cantabria (NW, Spain). Despite its early
413 introduction, corn initially faced resistance and was primarily used as fodder. Similarly, the
414 potato, encountered by Spanish conquistadors in the Andean regions in the mid-16th century,
415 was initially disregarded as food and used primarily for animals and ornamental purposes
416 until the early 18th century. Consequently, the widespread acceptance and culinary use of
417 potatoes, as exemplified by the Spanish potato omelet, did not occur until the late 18th
418 century, 1798 (López Linage, 2008). Table 3 provides details on the planting and harvesting
419 seasons for various crops in the current area of interest.

420 It is apparent that an agricultural system reliant exclusively on cereals (wheat and rye) is
421 more prone to encountering subsistence crises in comparison to one integrating

422 supplementary crops. Such a system, predominantly centered on wheat and rye, exhibits
423 heightened vulnerability to heavy rainfall during late spring and early summer.

424 Nearly contemporary authors like Labrada (1804) highlight that it was the famines of 1768
425 and subsequent years that forced the poorest peasants to sow and eat potatoes, which were
426 previously only consumed by pigs. Additionally, Meijide-Pardo (1965), recounts that the
427 copious and continuous rains during the summer of 1768 ruined almost the entire wheat and
428 rye crops in all the provinces existing in Galicia at that time. This situation worsened at the
429 beginning of autumn when the corn harvest, which was the main resource in rural areas,
430 failed. Consequently, by mid-May 1769, the price increase compared to that of the previous
431 3 years was 141% for wheat, 181% for rye and 173% for corn highlighting that the local
432 authorities aid was less than expected (Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017). Furthermore, the
433 situation exacerbated due to the lack of repaired roads or adequate means of transportation
434 to distribute foreign grain. All food transportation was carried out using rudimentary carts
435 and horses. It should also be noted that part of the livestock was fed with grain, which led to
436 a cascading effect. This agricultural crisis resulted in an influx of poor people, as documented
437 by Ávila and LaCueva (1852), “*Since the beginning of the year 1769, there was a great*
438 *famine due to the scarcity of grain resulting from the heavy rains of the previous year, from*
439 *which countless poor people descended from the mountains to this City; many died of extreme*
440 *necessity (desde principios del año de 1769, se padeció una muy grande hambre por la*
441 *escasez de frutos de todos los granos que hubo en el año anterior a causa de las muchas*
442 *llubias que sobrevinieron en él, de cuyas resultas bajaron de las montañas a esta Ciudad*
443 *infinidad de pobres; murieron muchos de suma necesidad)”. The mortality crisis that*
444 *occurred as a result of this agricultural crisis in Galicia is also documented by Martín-García*
445 *(2001), who states, “The famous crisis of 1768-1769 affected practically all of Galicia and*
446 *had its prelude in the poor harvests of 1768, caused by incessant rains, which were the*
447 *breeding ground for famines and epidemics (La famosa crisis de 1768-1769 castigó a la*
448 *práctica totalidad de Galicia y tuvo su prólogo en las pésimas cosechas de 1768, provocadas*
449 *por las incesantes lluvias, que fueron el caldo de cultivo de hambrunas y epidemias)” and by*
450 *Silva (2019) in northern Portugal.*

451 Data assimilation techniques have gained popularity in the field of climate reconstruction, as
452 they estimate historical climate states by integrating observational data and model
453 simulations. The EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis database (Valler et al, 2022) spanning from the
454 18th century to the early 21st century enabled us to reconstruct the historical rainy event of
455 1768-1769. Rain anomalies relative to the century (1701-1800) can provide valuable insights
456 into the singularity of the event.

457 In Galicia, during the period from June 1768 to May 1769, the rain anomaly was positive in
458 11 out of 12 months, with March 1769 being the only exception. Additionally, June 1768
459 exhibited the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the
460 second-highest positive rain anomaly. These findings align well with the occurrence of *pro-*
461 *Serenitate* rogations in Santiago de Compostela. Similarly, in North Portugal, over the same
462 period, the rain anomaly was also positive in 11 out of 12 months, with March 1769 being
463 the only exception. However, the rain event appeared to be less intense, with only February
464 1769 presenting the second- highest positive anomaly of the century for that month, and
465 September 1768 corresponding to the fifth-highest positive anomaly. Furthermore, June 1768
466 had the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the second-
467 highest positive rain anomaly. According to Silva (2019), rogation ceremonies took place in
468 September and October 1768 in Braga (North Portugal). The same author created a
469 classification by assigning numerical values between 0 and ± 1 to each season of the year,
470 with +1 indicating an excess (rainy season), -1 indicating a deficit (dry season), and 0
471 indicating "normal" seasons. Consequently, the summer and autumn of 1768 and the spring
472 of 1769 are classified with an index of 1.

473 Written testimonies indicate an unusually high number of rainy days between June 1768 and
474 May 1769, however the lack of instrumental historical data in Galicia and North Portugal
475 hinders our ability to estimate the number of rainy days. To discern the significance of an
476 unusually high number of rainy days, the number of days corresponding to the 50th, 90th and
477 95th percentiles of rainiest days per month were analyzed using data from the Santiago de
478 Compostela rain gauge from 1944 to 2023. Remarkably, from the analysis of the current
479 precipitation data, it is evident that over an eighty-year period, there were three natural years
480 with more than five months experiencing precipitation exceeding the 90th. These natural

481 years include November to December 1950, February, May, and August 1951; July,
482 September, and November 1965, to January, February, April, and June 1966, and finally,
483 April, November, and December 2000 to January and March 2001. This fact clearly
484 demonstrates that using a limited record (only 80 years), the chances of having extreme rainy
485 years, with several months experiencing a high number of rainy days, are not negligible.
486 Additionally, the composite of the rainiest months, those that exceed the 95th percentile of
487 that month, exhibits synoptic patterns similar to those obtained during the 1768-1769 rainy
488 event. Synoptic patterns obtained from the ERA5 database for the wettest months (Figures
489 8a and b) show negative anomalies in both SLP and 500GPH in the northeast Atlantic. This
490 type of anomaly is normally associated with a circulation in which the jet stream adopts a
491 very meridional mode. These meridional modes exhibit greater persistence compared to the
492 zonal ones. This persistence leads to the association with significant anomalies, as observed
493 in this study. Regions situated within the colder sector of the circulation experience
494 continuous influx of low-pressure systems traveling along the jet stream. This is evident in
495 Figure 8, particularly over the NW Iberian Peninsula, accounting for the notable surplus in
496 rainy days. Conversely, areas farther east or west may experience prolonged periods of
497 anticyclonic influence, resulting in reduced rainfall.

498 Figures 8a and 8b, depicting SLP and 500GPH data extracted from the EKF400v2 paleo-
499 reanalysis database for the 1768-1769 rainy event, closely resemble those obtained from
500 contemporary records (Figures 9e and 9f). This similarity allows us to interpret the
501 atmospheric circulation dynamics during this event. It is likely that a pronounced planetary
502 circulation pattern, predominantly influenced by meridional modes in the northern
503 hemisphere, contributed to the frequent occurrence of troughs in the northeastern Atlantic.
504 These troughs, characterized by cold air in the mid-to-upper atmospheric layers, induce the
505 formation of surface low-pressure systems. Additionally, they hinder the eastward
506 progression of anticyclones into the region, resulting in more frequent episodes of rain and
507 cold than usual.

508 Moreover, broadening the analysis to encompass other geographical regions on the map
509 enables us to elucidate why this event primarily impacted areas in Portugal, northwest Spain,
510 parts of France, and the British Isles, while sparing other regions in Europe. The trough

511 depicted in Figures 9c and 9f encompasses all the affected areas during this event. However,
512 as elucidated in the preceding paragraph, regions lying beyond its influence are not subjected
513 to the frequent arrival of low-pressure systems and thus remain unaffected by excessive
514 rainfall. This is exemplified by the central and eastern regions of Spain.

515 **5. Conclusions**

516 The incessant and heavy rainfall in several regions of the Atlantic Arc (Ireland, England,
517 France, Galicia and Northern Portugal) over the period June 1768- May 1769 precipitated
518 the last and most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and Northern Portugal during the 18th
519 century, resulting in high mortality. The atmospheric conditions that led to this historical
520 episode were analyzed using the EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis dataset, which spans from the
521 18th century to the early 21st century. The following main conclusions were obtained:

522 - The rainfall anomaly in Galicia and North of Portugal from June 1768 to May 1769 was
523 positive in 11 out of 12 months, with March 1769 being the only exception. Although the
524 rainfall event in North Portugal appeared to be less intense than in Galicia, June 1768
525 exhibited the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the
526 second-highest positive rain anomaly.

527 - This excess precipitation aligns well with the occurrence of *pro-Serenitate* rogations in
528 Santiago de Compostela and Braga, and with written testimonies indicating an unusually high
529 number of rainy days between June 1768 and May 1769. Additionally, the excess mortality
530 in 1769 and 1770, which is documented in different sources, highlights the unusual nature of
531 the event.

532 - The atmospheric synoptic patterns for the rainiest months show negative anomalies in both
533 SLP and 500GPH in the northeast Atlantic. These patterns are associated with a pronounced
534 planetary circulation predominantly influenced by the meridional mode of the jet stream in
535 the Northern hemisphere. This circulation contributes to the frequent occurrence of troughs
536 in the northeastern Atlantic, which induce the formation of surface low-pressure systems and
537 hinder the eastward progression of anticyclones into the region, resulting in more frequent
538 episodes of rain and cold than usual.

539

540 *Credit Author Statement*

541 **Maite deCastro**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original
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544 comparison between different data sources, elaboration and revision of tables, Writing –
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546 Writing – Review, Formal Analysis. **Moncho Gómez-Gesteira**: Conceptualization,
547 Methodology, Supervision, Software, Graphing.

548 *Acknowledgments*

549 The authors would like to acknowledge funding from the Xunta de Galicia under project
550 ED431C 2021/44 (Grupos de Referencia Competitiva), and from the Interreg POCTEP
551 program under project RISC_PLUS (0031_RISC_PLUS_6_E).

552 During the preparation of this work the authors used ChatGPT-4 in order to improve language
553 and readability. After using this tool/service, the authors reviewed and edited the content as
554 needed and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

555

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560 [estudios/publicaciones/Atlas-climatologico/Atlas.pdf](https://www.aemet.es/documentos/es/conocerlas/recursos_en_linea/publicaciones_y_estudios/publicaciones/Atlas-climatologico/Atlas.pdf).
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771

772 **Tables**

773 **Table 1.** Number of days corresponding to mean and the 50th (median), 90th, and 95th
 774 percentiles of rainiest days per month from 1944 to 2023 using data from the Santiago de
 775 Compostela rain gauge.

Month	Mean	50 th	90 th	95 th
1	16.5	17	25	26
2	14.1	14	23	25
3	14.3	15	24	25
4	13.7	14	20	23
5	12.4	12	19	21
6	8.0	8	14	15
7	5.3	5	10	10
8	6.8	7	12	14
9	9.2	9	16	17
10	13.9	14	21	24
11	15.5	15	23	26
12	16.0	16	25	27

776

777 **Table 2:** Current annual rainfall at the rainiest locations in the Atlantic-Arc averaged over
 778 the period 1991-2021. Source <https://es.climate-data.org/>.

City	Annual Rainfall (mm)
Brest (France)	941
Cardiff (Wales, UK)	1071
Manchester (England, UK)	1047
Londonderry (Northern Ireland, UK)	1102
Galway (Ireland)	1117
Santiago de Compostela (Spain)	1242
Porto (Portugal)	1285

779

780 **Table 3:** Planting and harvesting periods for various crops are exemplified by the provinces
 781 of A Coruña and Pontevedra in Galicia, which were the most affected areas
 782 ([https://www.mapa.gob.es/es/estadistica/temas/estadisticas-agrarias/01-calendariosiembra-](https://www.mapa.gob.es/es/estadistica/temas/estadisticas-agrarias/01-calendariosiembra-nuevo-sencilla-1_tcm30-514260.pdf)
 783 [nuevo-sencilla-1_tcm30-514260.pdf](https://www.mapa.gob.es/es/estadistica/temas/estadisticas-agrarias/01-calendariosiembra-nuevo-sencilla-1_tcm30-514260.pdf)).

Crop	Planting	Harvesting
Wheat	Apr	Jul
Rye	Oct-Nov	May-Jun
Corn	Apr-May	Sep-Oct
Fodder Corn	Jun	Sep
Potato	Oct-Nov	Jan-Apr
	Dec-Feb	Apr-Jun
	Mar-Apr	Sep-Oct
	Jul-Aug	Nov-Dec

784

785

786 **Figure Captions**

787 **Figure 1:** Atlantic Arc region, encompassing Portugal, Spain, France, England and Ireland.
788 Red points indicate all instrumental or documentary testimony collected regarding the
789 extraordinary rainy event of 1768-1769.

790 **Figure 2:** Precipitation anomaly (mm) during the period of maximum cumulative rainfall
791 (6/1768-5/1769) relative to the annual mean for period 1755- 1785.

792 **Figure 3:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in Galicia (a) and Northern Portugal (b).
793 Data obtained from EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis database. Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769
794 precipitation peak.

795 **Figure 4:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in Ireland (a), Wales-England (b) and
796 Normandy and French Brittany (c). Data obtained from EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis
797 database. Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

798 **Figure 5:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in Ireland (a) and Wales-England (b). Data
799 from Murphy et al., (2018) for Ireland and from Alexander and Jones, (2001) and Simpson
800 and Jones (2014) for Wales-England. Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

801 **Figure 6:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in (a) Lyndon (England), (b) Cornwall
802 (England), and (c) Bordeaux (France). Data derived from local *in situ* precipitation gauges.
803 Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

804 **Figure 7:** Cumulative number of rainy days at Exeter (England). Data derived from local *in*
805 *situ* precipitation gauges.

806 **Figure 8:** (a) SLP anomaly (hPa) and (b) 500 GPH anomaly (m) during the period 6/1768-
807 5/1769, relative to the annual mean for the period 1755- 1785. Data obtained from EKF400v2
808 paleo-reanalysis database.

809 **Figure 9:** (a) Annual SLP composite (hPa) from 1944 to 2023, (b) Annual GPH composite
810 (m) from 1944 to 2023, (c) Annual SLP composite during the rainiest months (exceeding the
811 95th percentile for that month), (d) Annual GPH composite during the rainiest months
812 (exceeding the 95th percentile of that month), (e) Annual SLP composite of anomalies,

813 calculated as the difference between subplots c and a, (f) Annual GPH composite of
814 anomalies, calculated as the difference between subplots d and b.

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