



1           **Assessing the most severe subsistence crisis of the 17th century in the**  
2           **Northwest of the Iberian Peninsula: a meteorological perspective.**

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13           **Abstract**

14           The analysis of climate behavior over centuries reveals how environmental forces shaped society and helps  
15           contextualize modern climate trends and future projections. The torrential rains in several regions of the Eastern  
16           Atlantic during 1768-1769 triggered the last and most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and Northern  
17           Portugal, resulting in unprecedented mortality. The atmospheric conditions of this historical episode were  
18           analyzed using the EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis dataset, which spans from the 17th century to the early 21st  
19           century. From June 1768 to May 1769, the rainfall anomaly in Galicia and Northern Portugal was positive in  
20           11 out of 12 months. Although the rainfall in Northern Portugal appeared less intense than in Galicia, June 1768  
21           had the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the second-highest. This excess  
22           precipitation agrees with the occurrence of pro-Serenitate rogations and written testimonies indicating an  
23           unusually high number of rainy days between June 1768 and May 1769. The atmospheric synoptic patterns for  
24           the rainiest months show negative anomalies in both sea level pressure and 500 hPa geopotential height in the  
25           northeast Atlantic. These patterns are associated with troughs in the northeastern Atlantic that induce the  
26           formation of surface low-pressure systems and hinder the eastward progression of anticyclones into the region,  
27           resulting in more frequent episodes of rain and cold than usual.

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

30           **1. Introduction**

31           The climate and weather conditions play a fundamental role in human health and in the  
32           development and evolution of societies, configuring some of their characteristics (Lamb,  
33           1995). The impacts of climate and weather states on societies are complex and  
34           interconnected, affecting various aspects of human life. Seasonal variations and their extreme



35 patterns condition the daily lives of individuals, determining clothing, house construction,  
36 food production and consumption, water resources, and social well-being among others.  
37 When frequent deviations from the normal climatic pattern occur, illnesses, economic losses,  
38 and even deaths can result. Climate variability and extreme weather events can affect  
39 agricultural productivity and food availability. Droughts, floods, and storms can damage  
40 crops and livestock, leading to food shortages and insecurity, particularly in vulnerable  
41 regions with limited access to resources.

42 The analysis of climate behavior over centuries allows us to examine how these  
43 environmental forces shaped various sectors of society throughout history, analyzing the  
44 vulnerabilities generated in different socioeconomic sectors such as agriculture,  
45 transportation, energy, as well as the resilience and adaptability of society to weather  
46 anomalies and climatic dynamics (Fagan, 2001). In recent decades, the scientific community  
47 has become aware of the importance of going back in time to deepen our understanding of  
48 the climate, as longer data records lead to more reliable and consistent interpretations of  
49 climate (Degroot et al., 2021). This will allow for a better identification and understanding  
50 of the mechanisms responsible for natural climate variability and the impact that  
51 anthropogenic activities may have on these mechanisms. Given the absence of reliable local  
52 or regional details in climate projections for precipitation and changes in extreme events,  
53 identifying similar patterns from the pre-industrial era could aid in understanding the  
54 mechanisms underlying future extreme hydrometeorological events.

55 The analysis of historical climatic processes predating the industrial era is a highly  
56 challenging task, as it involves handling datasets of diverse origins, including instrumental  
57 data from *in situ* measurements and non-instrumental data obtained from proxies such as  
58 ecclesiastical rogations or written testimonies found in letters, diaries, and reports  
59 (Brönnimann, 2015). Additionally, these datasets often vary in terms of reliability,  
60 completeness, and spatial coverage, further complicating the analysis and interpretation of  
61 historical climate patterns. The complexity of this task is compounded by the need to  
62 carefully validate and reconcile disparate sources of historical climate data, ensuring  
63 consistency and accuracy in the analysis. Furthermore, interpreting historical climate records  
64 requires a deep understanding of the context in which the data were collected, including



65 social, cultural, and environmental factors that may have influenced observations and  
66 recording practices over time. Despite these challenges, studying historical climatic  
67 processes offers valuable insights into long-term climate variability and helps contextualize  
68 modern climate trends and future projections (White et al., 2018).

69 Paleoclimatic reconstructions and modelling approaches (Moravec, 2019) have been used  
70 over the two past decades to analyze primarily droughts and rainfall patterns across Europe  
71 (Murphy et al., 2020; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2020; Noone et al., 2017; Noone et al., 2016;  
72 Spraggs et al., 2015; Brázdil et al., 2015; Todd et al., 2013; Potop et al., 2014) and drying  
73 trends in the Mediterranean region (Nicault et al., 2008). In particular, numerous historical  
74 studies in the Iberian Peninsula (IP) have primarily focused on droughts (Dominguez-Castro  
75 et al., 2008; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2012; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2021; Bravo-Paredes  
76 et al., 2020) with limited attention to extreme rainfall events (Dominguez-Castro et al., 2015).  
77 Thus, most of the studies linked to an excess rain refer to flood linked events (see Gonzalez-  
78 Cao et al., 2021; Fernandez-Novoa et al., 2023; Fernandez-Novoa et al., 2024, Beneyto et  
79 al., 20220; Benito et al., 2021; Peña et al., 2022; among others). Note that, according to the  
80 Köppen classification (Köppen, 1884), most of the south and Mediterranean IP has a  
81 temperate climate with dry and hot summers (Csa). However, the northwestern IP and the  
82 west coast of Portugal is classified as having a temperate climate with dry and warm summers  
83 (Csb) (see AEMET-IM, 2011 for more details). Annual precipitation is highly variable across  
84 the IP (AEMET-IM, 2011). The highest precipitation levels, exceeding 2000 mm, occur in  
85 the mountainous regions of Serra do Gêres in north-eastern continental Portugal, and in areas  
86 near the “Rias Baixas” in the southwestern Galicia (northwest of the IP). Conversely, the  
87 lowest annual rainfalls, below 300 mm, is found in the southeast of Spain.

88 Multiple records highlight the connection between excessive rainfall and crop losses  
89 throughout history leading to famine both across Europe (Alfani & Ó Gráda 2017) and more  
90 regionally in Ireland (Ó Gráda, 2017), Great Britain (Hoyle, 2017), France (Béaur & Chevet,  
91 2017), Spain (Pérez-Moneda, 2017) and Northern Portugal (Amorín, 2017; Silva, 2019),  
92 among others. Particularly in Galicia, the biennium of 1768-1769 was characterized by  
93 incessant and torrential rains, resulting in the last and most significant agricultural crisis due  
94 to crop losses (Mejide-Pardo, 1965; Labrada, 1804; González-Fernández, 2000; Losada-



95 [Sanmartín, 2008](#); [Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017](#)), leading to a persistent famine that claimed  
96 human lives ([Martín-García, 2001](#); [Losada- Sanmartín, 2008](#); [Silva 2019](#)). This situation,  
97 which historically occurred several times, gave rise to a saying that “in Galicia, hunger comes  
98 swimming” ([Fernández-Cortizo, 2005](#)). The same author analyzes the Galician subsistence  
99 crisis during the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, identifying that over 67% of the rogations during  
100 these centuries were attributed to an excess of precipitation. A similar situation was observed  
101 in Northern Portugal ([Silva 2019](#)). However, famine was not observed in the rest of the IP,  
102 as documented by multiple sources of data collected in Table 3.2 of [Pérez-Moneda \(2017\)](#),  
103 which accounts for epidemic, death and famines occurring in the IP from 1500- 1800,  
104 showing the years of excess mortality and famine in 60 small towns across Castile, Aragon  
105 and Extremadura.

106 Regions described above are included in the Atlantic Arc region which refers to a  
107 geographical area encompassing the western and northern coastal regions of Europe that  
108 border the Atlantic Ocean (<https://cpmr-atlantic.org/>). The Atlantic Arc encompasses the  
109 region III (Celtic Seas) and region IV (Bay of Biscay and Iberian Coast) of the OSPAR  
110 Maritime Area ([https://oap.ospar.org/en/ospar-assessments/quality-status-reports/qsr-  
111 2023/synthesis-report/introduction/](https://oap.ospar.org/en/ospar-assessments/quality-status-reports/qsr-2023/synthesis-report/introduction/)). This area, which typically includes countries such as  
112 Portugal, Spain, France, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, is characterized by its proximity  
113 to the Atlantic Ocean and shares similar climatic, environmental, and economic  
114 characteristics due to this coastal influence.

115 The objective of this study is to analyze the atmospheric conditions in the Atlantic Arc from  
116 June 1768 to May 1769, which precipitated the most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and  
117 Northern Portugal in the 18th century, resulting in unprecedented mortality. To achieve this,  
118 precipitation and atmospheric pressure data obtained from a paleo-reanalysis dataset  
119 spanning from the 17th century to the early 21st century will be utilized. Current climate data  
120 generated by ERA5 and precipitation data from a precipitation gauge at Santiago de  
121 Compostela will be used to corroborate that the synoptic conditions observed during that  
122 biennium are reproduced in the present day.

## 123 **2. 1768-1769 Event Identification and Databases**

### 124 **2.1. Identification of the 1768-1769 event**



125 The continuous and torrential rainfall event of 1768-1769, which led to a famine in Galicia  
126 and Northern Portugal, resulting in human casualties in excess due to the complete  
127 devastation of crops, was identified through various sources of information with diverse  
128 characteristics and locations. In any case, historical sources verified that the event impacted  
129 not only the Atlantic coast of the Iberian Peninsula but also the entire Atlantic Arc. However,  
130 in other regions, the event did not have as severe consequences on contemporary society as  
131 it did in Galicia and Northern Portugal.

132 There are multiple sources confirming the biennium 1768-1769 as extraordinarily rainy in  
133 the Atlantic European region. Particularly in England, [Barker \(1771\)](#) identifies 1768 as one  
134 of the three rainiest years in the period from 1683 to 1771 in London (Rutlandshire). [Clarck  
135 \(1999\)](#) analyzes the synoptic pattern preceding the major flood that occurred in Somerset on  
136 first of September 1768. Additionally, [Macdonald and Sangster \(2017\)](#) include the 1768  
137 floods in the historical flood list, although they did not attribute it significant importance.

138 In France, there are both instrumental records and contemporary testimonies regarding the  
139 abundant rainfall in Bordeaux and in Vendée. Particularly, testimonies from the priest of La  
140 Limouzinière (Vendée) stating, “*Cette année 1768 a été une des plus pluvieuses qu’ont ait vu  
141 de mémoire d’homme, les pluies ont commencées au mois de juin et ont été presque toujours  
142 continuelles...*”<sup>1</sup>, from the priest of Lairoux (Vendée) mentioning, “*cette année (1768) fut  
143 remarquable par l’abondance des eaux au plus fort de l’été qui commencèrent à tomber la  
144 fête du dit Saint Médard (June 8)...*”<sup>2</sup>, and from the prior of Lasse (Maine-et-Loire) who  
145 wrote, “*Dans la présente année (1768) les pluies ont été si continues que de mémoires  
146 d’hommes on en avait vu de pareille...*”<sup>3</sup>.

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148 <sup>1</sup>This year 1768 has been one of the rainiest that we have seen in living memory, the rains began in June and  
149 were almost continuous...”

150 <sup>2</sup>this year (1768) was remarkable for the abundance of water in the height of summer, which began to fall on  
151 the feast day of Saint Médard (June 8) ...”

152 <sup>3</sup>In the current year (1768), the rains have been so continuous that in the memory of men, they have never seen  
153 the like...”



154 Finally, [Le Roy \(2011\)](#) discusses the impact of climatic conditions on crops, stating, “*À partir*  
155 *de 1768, en raison de circonstances météo défavorables, trop fraîches et/ou trop humides,*  
156 *les mauvaises récoltes et la hausse des prix frumentaires s’imposent ...*”<sup>4</sup>, although it is also  
157 mentioned that its effect on mortality was smaller than that observed in 1740.

158 In the IP, [Font-Tullot \(1988\)](#) identifies 1768 as a particularly rainy year in the Galico-  
159 Cántabra region (northwest of Spain). In the specific case of Galicia, [Perez-Constanti \(1925\)](#)  
160 compiles information from several doctors in Santiago de Compostela on April 17, 1769 who  
161 stated “*...desde el mes de Mayo del año pasado de 68, hasta el tiempo presente, está casi*  
162 *siempre lloviendo ... como lo hizo en los meses de febrero, marzo y abril del presente*  
163 *año...*”<sup>5</sup>. The same doctors also remarked “*van pasados diez y ocho meses que no hemos*  
164 *conocido los influjos saludables de las estaciones del año, casi continua lluvia y vientos fríos*  
165 *han confundido verano, invierno, otoño y primavera...*”<sup>6</sup>. The coincidence of these  
166 testimonies with the earlier ones described by the French priests is striking. Lastly, in  
167 Northern of Portugal, [Silva \(2019\)](#), through an annual precipitation index (Fig. 23 of his  
168 thesis), indicated that the end of summer and the fall of 1768 were characterized by high  
169 amounts of rain, serving the prelude to a severe agrarian crisis. Additionally, [Amorín \(2017\)](#)  
170 identifies severe floods in the Porto region due to continuous rains in 1768-1769.

171 These specific climatic conditions were reflected in numerous ecclesiastical rogations “*pro*  
172 *Serenitate*” held in various locations in Galicia and Northern Portugal ([Silva, 2019](#); [González](#)  
173 [Fernández, 2000](#); [Losada-Sanmartín, 2008](#)). These authors have referred to the crisis of 1768-  
174 1769 as one of the two most severe in the 18<sup>th</sup> century, accompanied by episodes of hunger  
175 and excess mortality throughout the region, as documented in numerous studies ([Ávila and](#)  
176 [LaCueva, 1852](#); [Meijide-Pardo, 1965](#)).

177

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178 <sup>4</sup>“From 1768 onwards, due to unfavorable weather conditions, too cool and/or too wet, poor harvests and the  
179 rise in grain prices became prevalent...”

180 <sup>5</sup>“...since the month of May of last year 1768, until the present time, it has almost always been raining... as it  
181 did in the months of February, March, and April of this year...”

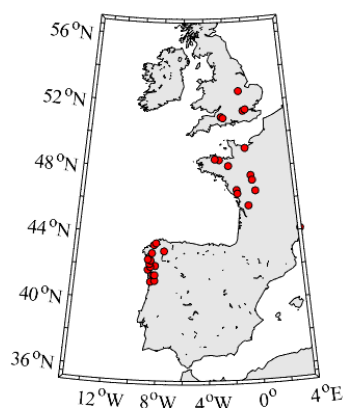
182 <sup>6</sup>“...it has been eighteen months since we have known the beneficial influences of the seasons, almost continuous  
183 rain and cold winds have confused summer, winter, autumn, and spring...”

184



185 Other studies emphasize the impact of the extraordinary climatic conditions on cereal harvest  
186 ([Pérez-Costanti, 1925](#); [Mejjide-Pardo, 1965](#); [Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017](#)), which is also  
187 reflected in tithe records ([Eiras, 1978](#)).

188 All instrumental or documentary testimony collected regarding the extraordinary rainy event  
189 of 1768-1769 are marked with red points in Figure 1, representing the study region. This  
190 region corresponds with the Atlantic Arc and encompasses Portugal, Spain, France, England  
191 and Ireland.



192  
193 **Figure 1:** Area under scope. All instrumental or documentary testimony collected regarding  
194 the extraordinary rainy event of 1768-1769 are marked with red points.

## 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., 2020](#)). 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 XVIII century to the beginning of the XXI century. For  
210 further 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 analyze the forgotten drought in 1765–1768 that affected the British-Irish Isles.

225 *In situ* monthly precipitation data were obtained from precipitation gauges located at Lyndon  
226 and Cornwall in England, and Bordeaux in France. The precipitation series at Lyndon spans  
227 from 1737 to 1770, while at Bordeaux it covers from 1751 to 1770, and in Cornwall from  
228 1767 to 1771. Moreover, the cumulative number of rainy days in Exeter, England, from 1755  
229 to 1775 was obtained from Exeter weather diaries, accessible at  
230 [https://digital.nmla.metoffice.gov.uk/IO\\_11c660bd-60c1-4d59-a079-64fdbdb20144](https://digital.nmla.metoffice.gov.uk/IO_11c660bd-60c1-4d59-a079-64fdbdb20144).

231 Current daily precipitation data in Galicia were obtained from a rain gauge located at  
232 Santiago de Compostela (42° 53' 17''N, 8° 24' 30''W), available at  
233 [https://www.aemet.es/es/datos\\_abiertos](https://www.aemet.es/es/datos_abiertos). This rain gauge is one with the longest precipitation  
234 series in Galicia from 1944 to 2023. Additionally, monthly sea-level pressure and  
235 geopotential height at 500 hPa were retrieved from ERA5 database



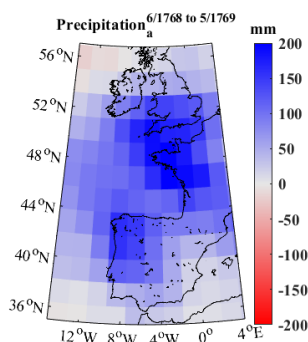


236 ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form)  
237 [means?tab=form](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form) ) at a spatial resolution of  $0.5^\circ$  covering the region from  $60^\circ\text{N}$  to  $25^\circ\text{N}$  and  
238 from  $5^\circ\text{E}$  to  $45^\circ\text{W}$  for the period 1940-2023.

239 The cumulative annual precipitation for each month was calculated by considering the  
240 preceding six months and the subsequent five months relative to the month under study. The  
241 same methodology was applied for calculating the number of rainy days per month. This  
242 approach enables the determination of both the cumulative precipitation and the number of  
243 rainy days per year without relying on calendar years.

### 244 3. Results

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

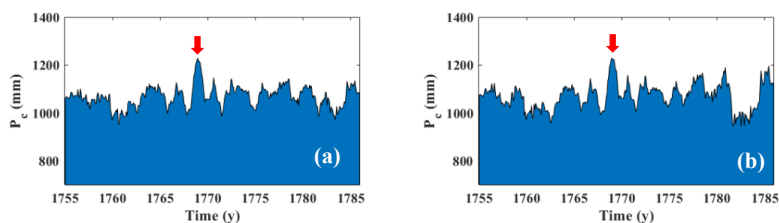


251

252 **Figure 2:** Precipitation anomaly (mm) during the period of maximum cumulative rainfall  
253 (6/1768-5/1769) relative to the annual mean for period 1755- 1785.

#### 254 3.1 Analyzing the historical persistent and torrential rainfall event

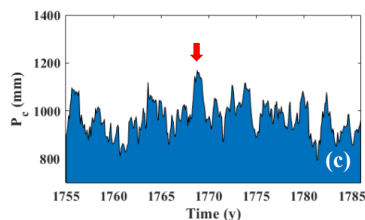
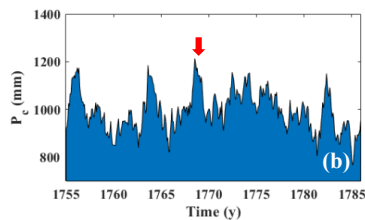
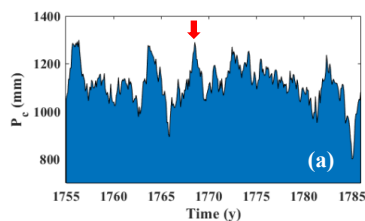
255 The cumulative annual precipitation provides by EKF400v2 data in Galicia (Fig. 3a) and  
256 Northern Portugal (Fig. 3b) over the period 1755 to 1785 shows a peak during the final six  
257 months of 1768 and the initial six months of 1769, with values exceeding 1200 mm.



258

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

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





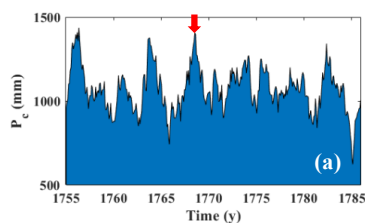
265 **Figure 4:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in Ireland (a), Wales-England (b) and  
266 Normandy and French Brittany (c). Data obtained from EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis  
267 database. Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

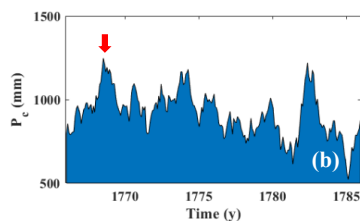
268 Figure 4a illustrates the precipitation in Ireland for the decades just before and after the  
269 extreme rain event observed from mid-1768 to mid-1769 in NW IP. The drought period of  
270 1765- 1768, as analyzed by [Murphy et al. \(2020\)](#), immediately precedes the peak rainfall of  
271 1768-1769. While the period 1768-1769 appears significantly rainy, it is comparable to other  
272 rainy events identified in preceding and subsequent decades. These findings align with those  
273 derived from Murphy's reconstructed database for Ireland, [Murphy et al., \(2020\)](#), as depicted  
274 in Figure 5a.

275 In Wales-England (Fig. 4b), similar to the case of Ireland, a peak in cumulative precipitation  
276 between 1768 and 1769 is observed following the drought of 1765-1768. Once again, the  
277 precipitation peak is comparable to that observed at the beginning of the decade. As was the  
278 case with Ireland, the results are comparable to those from the reconstructed database for  
279 Wales-England ([Alexander and Jones, 2001](#); [Simpson and Jones, 2014](#)) used in [Murphy et  
280 al., \(2020\)](#) as depicted in Figure 5b.

281 In France (Fig. 4c), it is also evident that the peak in cumulative precipitation spanning from  
282 1768 to 1769 is the highest of the period under study (1755-1785), although it is not as  
283 pronounced as the peak identified in Galicia and Northern Portugal.

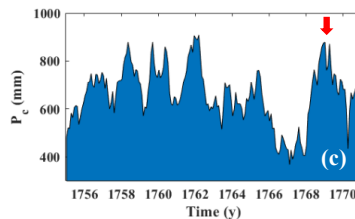
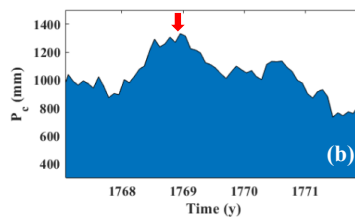
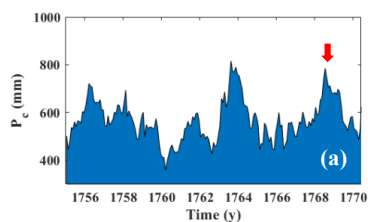
284





285 **Figure 5:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in Ireland (a) and Wales-England (b). Data  
286 from [Murphy et al., \(2018\)](#) for Ireland and from [Alexander and Jones, \(2001\)](#) and [Simpson](#)  
287 [and Jones \(2014\)](#) for Wales-England. Red arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

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

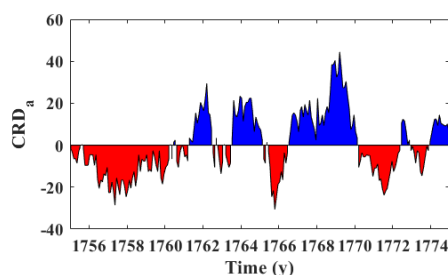




291 **Figure 6:** Cumulative annual precipitation (mm) in (a) Lyndon (England), (b) Cornwall  
292 (England), and Bordeaux (France). Data derived from local *in situ* precipitation gauges. Red  
293 arrow marks the 1768- 1769 precipitation peak.

294 *In situ* data corroborate the presence of a peak in rainfall at these locations between 1768 and  
295 1769. Unfortunately, the limited duration of the precipitation series restricts our ability to  
296 gain a broader perspective.

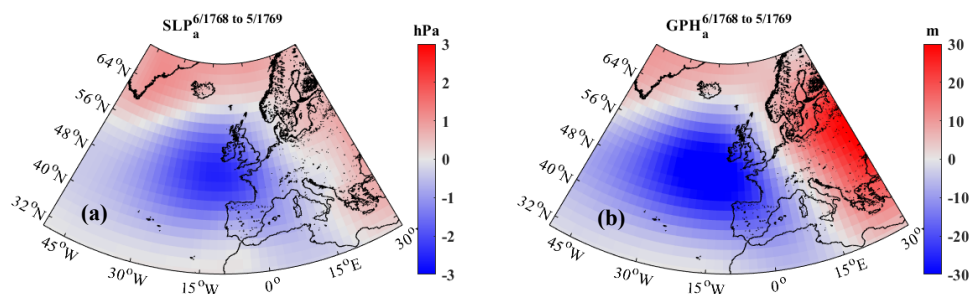
297 In the same line, the cumulative number of rainy days calculated from *in situ* precipitation  
298 data at Exeter (England) from 1755 to 1775 demonstrates a notable positive anomaly of  
299 between 20 and 40 days between mid- 1768 and mid-1769 (Fig. 7).



300

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

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





306 **Figure 8:** (a) SLP anomaly (hPa) and (b) 500 GPH anomaly (m) during the period 6/1768-  
307 5/1769, relative to the annual mean for the period 1755- 1785. Data obtained from EKF400v2  
308 paleo-reanalysis database.

309 Both subplots depict a negative anomaly minimum of approximately 3 hPa in the SLP (Fig.  
310 8a) and of 30 m in the GPH (Fig. 8b), locating the area of strongest anomaly (negative) in  
311 the Bay of Biscay and covering the westernmost part of Europe inside the low anomalies  
312 area.

### 313 3.2 Analyzing current persistent and torrential rainfall events

314 After identifying the synoptic conditions that led to the extraordinary rainfall during the  
315 period 6/1768 to 5/1769, the next step will be to analyze whether similar patterns have been  
316 observed over the past 80 years, during which abundant instrumental records facilitate the  
317 identification of unusual rainfall events. Considering that documentary records point out the  
318 presence of incessant rains over the period 1768-1769, the number of rainy days per month  
319 was calculated from 1944 to 2023 using data from the Santiago de Compostela rain gauge.  
320 A day was considered rainy when at least 1 mm of precipitation was collected (AEMET-IM,  
321 2011). The number of days corresponding to the mean and the 50<sup>th</sup> (median), 90<sup>th</sup>, and 95<sup>th</sup>  
322 percentiles is shown in Table 1. Note that Santiago de Compostela was one of the places most  
323 affected by the 1768-1769 and has one of longest meteorological series in the area of study,  
324 which makes it an optimal candidate to analyze how current patterns can be related to those  
325 obtained almost three centuries ago.

326 **Table 1.** Number of days corresponding to mean and the 50<sup>th</sup> (median), 90<sup>th</sup>, and 95<sup>th</sup>  
327 percentiles of rainiest days per month from 1944 to 2023 using data from the Santiago de  
328 Compostela rain gauge.

Month	Mean	50 <sup>th</sup>	90 <sup>th</sup>	95 <sup>th</sup>
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

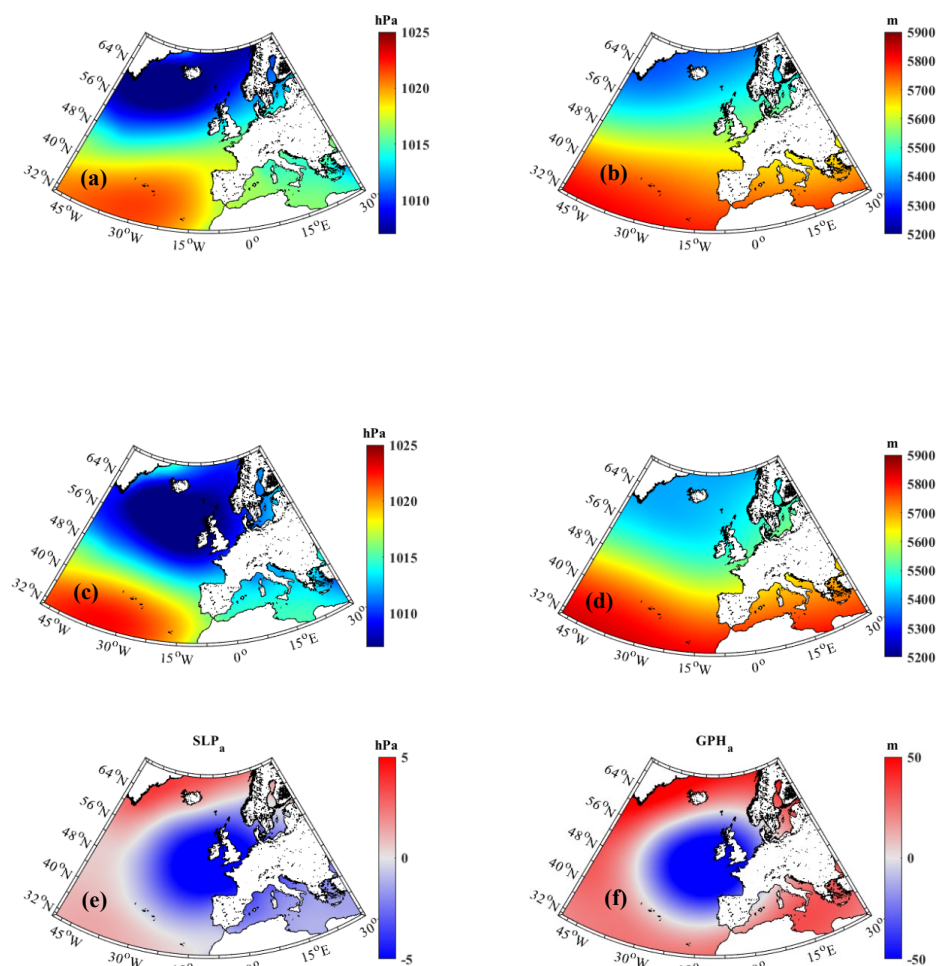
329

330 The 50<sup>th</sup> percentile serves as a reference on the number of rainy days per month in a normal  
331 year, while the 90<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile provide information on the number of rainy days per  
332 month in extreme years. In fact, the total number of days in Santiago de Compostela during  
333 a normal year (50<sup>th</sup> percentile) with precipitation equal to or greater than 1 mm is 146 days.  
334 This is similar to the value reported in the Iberian Climatic Atlas (AEMET-IM, 2011), which  
335 states that the highest number of days with precipitation equal to or greater than 1 mm (over  
336 150 days) in the IP occurs, among other regions, in the northeastern Galicia. Additionally,  
337 the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile is exceeded by 23 days of precipitation per month in seven months, which  
338 include January to April and October to December (JFMAOND). In the summer months, the  
339 95<sup>th</sup> percentile for June, July, and August is 15, 10, and 14 days, respectively.

340 The precipitation observed during the rainiest months (95<sup>th</sup>) over the recent period 1944 to  
341 2023 was analyzed using composite maps. Initially, the mean composite map for SLP and  
342 GPH was calculated from 1944 to 2023. Subsequently, the composites maps (SLP and GPH)  
343 for extreme rainy conditions were determined as follows: i) the monthly 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles of  
344 the rainiest days presented in Table 1 served as threshold values; ii) for each month, its  
345 composite maps were generated by averaging SLP or GPH only for the years when the  
346 number of rainy days in that month exceeded the threshold; iii) the monthly composite maps  
347 were then averaged to obtain the annual composite maps corresponding to rainy months.  
348 Finally, the mean annual composite map was subtracted from the rainy composite map to  
349 yield the anomaly. The composite and anomaly maps for SLP and GPH are illustrated in  
350 Figure 9, with the left column representing SLP and the right column GPH. The SLP for the  
351 region under study from 1944 to 2023 are represented in Figs. 9a and 9d. The mean composite  
352 map for SLP (Fig. 9a) is subtracted from the SLP composite map corresponding to rainy



353 months (Fig. 9c) to obtain the SPL anomaly (Fig. 9e). Similarly, the GPH anomaly (Fig. 9f)  
354 is obtained from subtracting Fig. 9b from Fig. 9d.



355 **Figure 9:** (a) Annual SLP composite (hPa) from 1944 to 2023, (b) Annual GPH composite  
356 (m) from 1944 to 2023, (c) Annual SLP composite during the rainiest months (exceeding the  
357 95<sup>th</sup> percentile for that month), (d) Annual GPH composite during the rainiest months  
358 (exceeding the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of that month), (e) Annual SLP composite of anomalies,  
359 calculated as the difference between subplots c and a, (f) Annual GPH composite of  
360 anomalies, calculated as the difference between subplots d and b.





361 The synoptic patterns shown in Figure 9 are similar to the ones obtained during the 1678-  
362 1679 rainy event (Fig. 8) with the Iceland low anomaly low and displaced southeastward  
363 over the Bay of Biscay.

#### 364 **4. Discussion**

365 The period from June 1768 to May 1769 was characterized by incessant and torrential rains  
366 in the northwestern region of the IP, resulting in the last and most significant agricultural  
367 crisis due to crop losses and leading to a persistent famine that claimed human lives. During  
368 these years, Spain was a country immersed in Bourbon reformism and, in particular, in the  
369 reforms led by King Charles III, which were characterized by enlightened ideas, as long as  
370 these did not endanger his absolute power and the traditional social order (enlightened  
371 absolutism). In 1766, a strong crisis occurred that triggered the so-called "Esquilache Riot",  
372 largely motivated by a subsistence crisis as a result of a very sharp rise in the price of bread.  
373 This rise in the price of bread was motivated by a combination of poor harvests and the  
374 promulgation of a decree in 1765 that liberalized the grain market (Domínguez Ortiz, 2005).

375 The poverty and low level of socioeconomic development in the northwestern region of the  
376 IP were also contributing factors to the absence of instrumental measurements, which were  
377 already incipient at other European locations during the period of interest. The first  
378 instrumental readings of the weather in Galicia were located in El Ferrol in 1788  
379 (Domínguez-Castro et al. 2014). Additionally, the first instrumental meteorological readings  
380 in northern Portugal were made by Joao da Veiga in Lamego, from 1770 until 1784  
381 (Alcoforado et al. 2012). This lack of instrumental information was partially mitigated by  
382 utilizing other documentary sources such as rogation ceremonies, convent diaries, letters,  
383 which allowed for the categorization of meteorological events following the method  
384 proposed by Pfister (1984, 1992). The ecclesiastical rogations "*pro-Serenitate*" constitute a  
385 fundamental source of information used to characterize the historical rainy event in Galicia  
386 and Northern Portugal (Fernandez-Cortizo, 2005; Silva, 2019) complementing the written  
387 testimonies previously described (Silva, 2019). In particular, the ecclesiastical rogation  
388 database corresponding to Santiago de Compostela, possibly the ground zero of the event in  
389 terms of deaths and socio-economic impact, contains 283 rogation masses over the period  
390 1670-1804 (approximately 2 per year), among which 70 were for rain (*pro-Pluvia*) and 181



391 for fair weather (*pro-Serenitate*). This strongly contrasts with observations in other parts of  
392 the IP, where *pro-Serenitate* rogations are less common (Dominguez-Castro et al., 2008;  
393 Dominguez-Castro et al., 2012; Dominguez-Castro et al., 2021; Bravo-Paredes et al., 2020)  
394 due to particular climate conditions that characterize the NW corner of the IP. For comparison  
395 purposes, Table 2 exhibits the current annual precipitation levels at the most rainfall-prone  
396 locales within the Atlantic Arc, encompassing Santiago de Compostela (Spain) and Porto  
397 (Portugal), both situated within the designated area of interest.

398 Table 2: Current annual rainfall at the rainiest locations in the Atlantic-Arc. Source  
399 <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)	1241
Porto (Portugal)	1285

400

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



414 This high precipitation event was not confined exclusively to this area of the IP but extended  
415 to other areas of France, Wales, England, and Ireland, although in these regions, it did not  
416 lead to agricultural and demographic crises. This may be attributed to the proactive measures  
417 taken in other areas such as France, following the "Great Winter" of 1709, where strategies  
418 like product substitution were adopted. As a result, wheat was replaced by less prized  
419 substitutes such as buckwheat, rye, and chestnuts (Béaur and Chevet, 2017). The introduction  
420 of buckwheat in western France is believed to have contributed to the region's relatively mild  
421 impact during the great famines of the eighteenth century (Nassiet, 1998). Similarly, in the  
422 UK, some authors (Hoyle 2017) suggest that the climatic variability of the early eighteenth  
423 century may have prompted the cultivation of root crops in fields as an emergency fodder  
424 crop. By the late 1720s, potatoes had become a common part of the diet among the poor.  
425 Nevertheless, there remains the possibility that famine was averted because potatoes, like  
426 oats, provided the option for people to switch to cheaper, albeit less desirable, foodstuffs  
427 during years of high prices. In Ireland, potato had become the base of the diet as the popular  
428 saying stated "ditty prátaí ar maidin, prátaí um nóin; is dá n-éireoinn meánoíche, prátaí  
429 gheobhainn"<sup>7</sup>.

430 In Galicia and North Portugal, all sources indicate a severe famine. To comprehend the  
431 diverse implications of the historical rainy event on the societies on these regions, it is  
432 imperative to understand the socio-economic context of Galicia and North Portugal at that  
433 time. One reason for the famine in this area stemmed from the predominant reliance on wheat  
434 and rye crops during that period. Traditionally, the most agriculturally productive regions of  
435 the IP were the south and center, where Mediterranean agriculture thrived, particularly with  
436 the cultivation of wheat. Conversely, the north faced challenges due to its humid climate,  
437 which posed difficulties for staple crops such as olive trees and vines to adapt. The  
438 introduction of crops from the Americas significantly transformed the agricultural and  
439 commercial landscape. For the northern regions, the emergence of potatoes and corn  
440 provided a solution to their historical agricultural constraints. However, by 1768-1769, these  
441 new crops had not yet been widely adopted.

442

---

443 <sup>7</sup> "potatoes in the morning, potatoes at noon; and if I rose at midnight, it would still be potatoes"

444



445 Corn, native to the Americas, arrived in Europe around 1604, initially being cultivated in  
446 Cantabria (NW, Spain). Despite its early introduction, corn initially faced resistance and was  
447 primarily used as fodder. Similarly, the potato, encountered by Spanish conquistadors in the  
448 Andean regions in the mid-16th century, was initially disregarded as food and used primarily  
449 for animals and ornamental purposes until the early 18th century. Consequently, the  
450 widespread acceptance and culinary use of potatoes, as exemplified by the Spanish potato  
451 omelet, did not occur until the late 18th century, 1798 (López Linage, 2008). Table 3 provides  
452 details on the planting and harvesting seasons for various crops in the current area of interest  
453 (Galicia-North Portugal).

454 Table 3: Planting and harvesting periods for different crops in the area of interest at present.

455

Crop	Planting	Harvesting
Wheat	Apr	Jul
Rye	Nov	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

456

457 It is apparent that an agricultural system reliant exclusively on cereals (wheat and rye) is  
458 more prone to encountering subsistence crises in comparison to one integrating  
459 supplementary crops. Such a system, predominantly centered on wheat and rye, exhibits  
460 heightened vulnerability to heavy rainfall during late spring and early summer.

461 Nearly contemporary authors like Labrada, (1804) highlight that it was the famines of 1768  
462 and subsequent years that forced the poorest peasants to sow and eat potatoes, which were  
463 previously only consumed by pigs. Additionally, Meijide-Pardo (1965), recounts that the  
464 copious and continuous rains during the summer of 1768 ruined almost the entire wheat and  
465 rye crops in all the provinces existing in Galicia at that time. This situation worsened at the



466 beginning of autumn when the corn harvest, which was the main resource in rural areas,  
467 failed. Consequently, by mid-May 1769, the price increase compared to that of the previous  
468 3 years was 141% for wheat, 181% for rye and 173% for corn highlighting that the local  
469 authorities aid was less than expected (Martínez-Rodríguez, 2017). Furthermore, the  
470 situation exacerbated due to the lack of repaired roads or adequate means of transportation  
471 to distribute foreign grain. All food transportation was carried out using rudimentary carts  
472 and horses. It should also be noted that part of the livestock was fed with grain, which led to  
473 a cascading effect. This agricultural crisis resulted in an influx of poor people, as documented  
474 by Ávila and LaCueva (1852): *“desde principios del año de 1769, se padeció una muy*  
475 *grande hambre por la escasez de frutos de todos los granos que hubo en el año anterior á*  
476 *causa de las muchas llubias que sobrevinieron en él, de cuyas resultas bajaron de las*  
477 *montañas á esta Ciudad inñinidad de pobres; murieron muchos de suma necesidad”*<sup>8</sup>. The  
478 mortality crisis that occurred as a result of this agricultural crisis in Galicia is also  
479 documented by Martín-García (2001), who states, *“La famosa crisis de 1768-1769 castigó a*  
480 *la práctica totalidad de Galicia y tuvo su prólogo en las pésimas cosechas de 1768,*  
481 *provocadas por las incesantes lluvias, que fueron el caldo de cultivo de hambrunas y*  
482 *epidemias”*<sup>9</sup> and by Silva (2019) in northern Portugal.

483 Data assimilation techniques have gained popularity in the field of climate reconstruction, as  
484 they estimate historical climate states by integrating observational data and model  
485 simulations. The EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis database (Valler et al, 2021) spanning from the  
486 17th century to the early 21st century enabled us to reconstruct the historical rainy event of  
487 1768-1769. Rain anomalies relative to the century (1701-1800) can provide valuable insights  
488 into the singularity of the event.

489

---

490 <sup>8</sup> "Since the beginning of the year 1769, there was a great famine due to the scarcity of grain resulting from the heavy rains  
491 of the previous year, from which countless poor people descended from the mountains to this City; many died of extreme  
492 necessity."

493 <sup>9</sup> "The famous crisis of 1768-1769 affected practically all of Galicia and had its prelude in the poor harvests of 1768, caused  
494 by incessant rains, which were the breeding ground for famines and epidemics."

495



496 In Galicia, during the period from June 1768 to May 1769, the rain anomaly was positive in  
497 11 out of 12 months, with March 1769 being the only exception. Additionally, June 1768  
498 exhibited the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the  
499 second-highest positive rain anomaly. These findings align well with the occurrence of *pro-*  
500 *Serenitate* rogations in Santiago de Compostela. Similarly, in North Portugal, over the same  
501 period, the rain anomaly was also positive in 11 out of 12 months, with March 1769 being  
502 the only exception. However, the rain event appeared to be less intense, with only February  
503 1769 presenting the second- highest positive anomaly of the century for that month, and  
504 September 1768 corresponding to the fifth-highest positive anomaly. Furthermore, June 1768  
505 had the highest positive rain anomaly of the century, and September 1768 had the second-  
506 highest positive rain anomaly. According to Silva (2019), rogation ceremonies took place in  
507 September and October 1768 in Braga (North Portugal). The same author created a  
508 classification by assigning numerical values between 0 and  $\pm 1$  to each season of the year,  
509 with +1 indicating an excess (rainy season), -1 indicating a deficit (dry season), and 0  
510 indicating "normal" seasons. Consequently, the summer and autumn of 1768 and the spring  
511 of 1769 are classified with an index of 1.

512 Written testimonies indicate an unusually high number of rainy days between June 1768 and  
513 May 1769, however the lack of instrumental historical data in Galicia and North Portugal  
514 hinders our ability to estimate the number of rainy days. To discern the significance of an  
515 unusually high number of rainy days, the number of days corresponding to the 50<sup>th</sup>, 90<sup>th</sup> and  
516 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles of rainiest days per month were analyzed using data from the Santiago de  
517 Compostela rain gauge from 1944 to 2023. Remarkably, from the analysis of the current  
518 precipitation data, it is evident that over an eighty-year period, there were three natural years  
519 with more than five months experiencing precipitation exceeding the 90<sup>th</sup>. These natural  
520 years include November to December 1950, February, May, and August 1951; July,  
521 September, and November 1965, to January, February, April, and June 1966, and finally,  
522 April, November, and December 2000 to January and March 2001. This fact clearly  
523 demonstrates that using a limited record (only 80 years), the chances of having extreme rainy  
524 years, with several months experiencing a high number of rainy days, are not negligible.  
525 Additionally, the composite of the rainiest months, those that exceed the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of  
526 that month, exhibits synoptic patterns similar to those obtained during the 1678-1679 rainy



527 event. Synoptic patterns obtained from the ERA5 database for the wettest months (Figures  
528 8a and b) show negative anomalies in both SLP and 500GPH in the northeast Atlantic. This  
529 type of anomaly is normally associated with a circulation in which the jet stream adopts a  
530 very meridional mode. These meridional modes exhibit greater persistence compared to the  
531 zonal ones. This persistence leads to the association with significant anomalies, as observed  
532 in this study. Regions situated within the colder sector of the circulation experience  
533 continuous influx of low-pressure systems traveling along the jet stream. This is evident in  
534 Figure 8, particularly over the NW IP, accounting for the notable surplus in rainy days.  
535 Conversely, areas farther east or west may experience prolonged periods of anticyclonic  
536 influence, resulting in reduced rainfall.

537 Figures 8a and 8b, depicting SLP and 500GPH data extracted from the EKF400v2 paleo-  
538 reanalysis database for the 1678-1679 rainy event, closely resemble those obtained from  
539 contemporary records (Figures 9e and 9f). This similarity allows us to interpret the  
540 atmospheric circulation dynamics during this event. It is likely that a pronounced planetary  
541 circulation pattern, predominantly influenced by meridional modes in the northern  
542 hemisphere, contributed to the frequent occurrence of troughs in the northeastern Atlantic.  
543 These troughs, characterized by cold air in the mid-to-upper atmospheric layers, induce the  
544 formation of surface low-pressure systems. Additionally, they hinder the eastward  
545 progression of anticyclones into the region, resulting in more frequent episodes of rain and  
546 cold than usual.

547 Moreover, broadening the analysis to encompass other geographical regions on the map  
548 enables us to elucidate why this event primarily impacted areas in Portugal, northwest Spain,  
549 parts of France, and the British Isles, while sparing other regions in Europe. The trough  
550 depicted in Figures 9c and 9f encompasses all the affected areas during this event. However,  
551 as elucidated in the preceding paragraph, regions lying beyond its influence are not subjected  
552 to the frequent arrival of low-pressure systems and thus remain unaffected by excessive  
553 rainfall. This is exemplified by the central and eastern regions of Spain.

554

## 555 **5. Conclusions**



556 The incessant and torrential rainfall in several regions of the Atlantic Arc (Ireland, England,  
557 France, Galicia and Northern Portugal) over the period June 1768- May 1769 precipitated  
558 the last and most severe agricultural crisis in Galicia and Northern Portugal, resulting in  
559 unprecedented mortality. The atmospheric conditions that led to this historical episode were  
560 analyzed using the EKF400v2 paleo-reanalysis dataset, which spans from the 17th century  
561 to the early 21st century. The following main conclusions were obtained:

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

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

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

579

#### 580 *Credit Author Statement*

581 **Maite deCastro:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal Analysis, Writing – Original  
582 Draft, Writing – Review, Editing, Elaboration of tables, visualization. **José González-Cao:**  
583 Writing – Review, Editing, Formal Analysis. **Nicolás G. deCastro:** Software, Validation and  
584 comparison between different data sources, elaboration and revision of tables, Writing –





585 Review. **Juan J. Taboada**: Writing – Review, Editing, Formal Analysis. **Jose M. Vaquero**:  
586 Writing – Review, Formal Analysis. **Moncho Gómez-Gesteira**: Conceptualization,  
587 Methodology, Supervision, Software, Graphing.

588 *Competing interests*

589 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests

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597



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