

1 Seasonal records of palaeoenvironmental change and resource use from archaeological 2 assemblages

3
4 Amy L. Prendergast¹, Alexander J. E. Pryor², Hazel Reade³, Rhiannon E. Stevens³

5
6 ¹ School of Geography, The University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia

7 ² Department of Archaeology, University of Exeter, UK

8 ³ Institute of Archaeology, University College London, London, UK

9 10 **Abstract**

11
12 Seasonal climate variability can affect the availability of food, water, shelter and raw
13 materials. Therefore, robust assessments of relationships between environmental change and
14 changes in human behaviour require an understanding of climate and environment at a
15 seasonal scale. In recent years, many advances have been made in obtaining seasonally-
16 resolved and seasonally-focused palaeoenvironmental data from proxy records. If these proxy
17 records are obtained from archaeological sites, they offer a unique opportunity to reconstruct
18 local climate variations that can be spatially and temporally related to human activity.
19 Furthermore, the analysis of various floral and faunal remains within archaeological sites
20 enables reconstruction of seasonal resource use and subsistence patterns. This paper provides
21 an overview of the growing body of research on seasonal palaeoenvironmental records and
22 resource use from archaeological contexts as well as providing an introduction to a special
23 issue on the same topic. This special issue of *Journal of Archaeological Science Reports*
24 brings together some of the latest research on generating seasonal-resolution and seasonally-
25 focused palaeoenvironmental records from archaeological sites as a means to assessing
26 human-environment interaction. The papers presented here include studies on archaeological
27 mollusc shells, otoliths, bones and plant remains using geochemical proxies including stable
28 isotopes ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and trace elements (Mg/Ca). The geographical scope encompasses
29 parts of Europe, North America and the Levant, whilst temporally the studies range from
30 Palaeolithic to historical times.

31
32 Keywords: seasonality, palaeoenvironment, archaeology, sclerochronology, high-resolution
33 proxy records

34 35 36 **1. Climate and seasonality**

37
38 Anthropogenic climate and environmental change is one of the most pressing issues in
39 today's world, yet our understanding of how human-induced environmental change fits into
40 the Earth's pre-industrial, natural climate variability is limited by the shortness of the
41 instrumental record. Instrumental records of past climate rarely extend beyond AD 1860
42 (Jones et al., 2001; 2009), yet many modes of climate variability operate on decadal to
43 millennial timescales. Therefore, knowledge of past climate variability over longer timescales
44 is essential to better understand the mode, scale and periodicity of natural climate variability
45 and to establish a longer-term context from which to understand and interpret anthropogenic
46 climate change. We can reconstruct climatic and environmental conditions prior to the
47 instrumental record by analysing proxies preserved within palaeoenvironmental archives. It is
48 essential to develop a broad range of proxy records of climatic and environmental change to
49 enable an understanding of patterns of past climate and environmental change at various
50 spatial and temporal scales (IPCC, 2013). Such data provide a framework of past changes,

51 offer baselines for environmental monitoring, and provide data that can be used in climate
52 modelling scenarios to better predict anthropogenic impacts on the natural climate system
53 (McCarroll, 2010; Schmidt et al. 2014; IPCC, 2013).

54

55 Understanding seasonal variations in climate is of fundamental importance for understanding
56 the dynamics of the Earth's system as a whole (Luterbacher et al. 2004; Denton et al., 2005).
57 Climate seasonality significantly influences mean climate and in many components of the
58 climate systems, summer and winter variability can differ significantly. For example,
59 instrumental data since 1861 in the northern hemisphere show increases in winter air
60 temperature during the 20th century of ~0.8°C whereas summer temperatures only increased
61 by ~0.4°C (Jones, 2001; Jones et al., 1999). In the past, these variations may have been more
62 extreme. Additionally, the operation of many climate modes such as the North Atlantic
63 Oscillation (NAO) is weighted towards a single season. However, many of the most widely
64 studied palaeoenvironmental archives such as ice cores, marine sediment cores and lake cores
65 generally only provide annual or lower resolution palaeoenvironmental proxies. Whilst these
66 records enable an understanding of climate at the broader scale, their resolution is often too
67 low to allow validation with instrumental data (Rutherford et al., 2005).

68

69 Seasonally resolved palaeoclimate records enable a better understanding of the intricacies of
70 the climate system, yet, there are comparatively few archives that capture the full range of
71 seasonal variation (Denton *et al.*, 2005; Ferguson *et al.*, 2011; Prendergast et al. 2016a;
72 2017). Speleothems and tree-rings can offer continuous terrestrial records at seasonal
73 resolution (e.g. Abram et al. 2013; Orland et al. 2014; Wong and Breecker 2015; McCarroll
74 and Loader, 2004), whilst archives such as terrestrial gastropods, pollen, microfauna and
75 insects may provide seasonally weighted proxies of the terrestrial system (Colonese et al.
76 2007, 2013; Ngomanda et al. 2009; Mignino et al. 2018; Prendergast et al. 2016b; Yanes et
77 al. 2009, 2014). Corals (e.g. Gagan et al. 2000; Cobb et al., 2003, 2013; Tierney et al. 2015)
78 and coralline red algae (Halfar et al., 2008, 2011; Kamenos et al., 2008; Herzinger et al.
79 2009; 2011) can capture long, continuous records of marine seasonal variability, however,
80 their growth is generally restricted to tropical waters. Other biogenic proxies such as bivalve
81 shells (e.g. Goodwin et al., 2003; Grossman and Ku, 1986; Schöne et al., 2004, 2005;
82 Versteegh et al. 2012), gastropod shells (e.g. Mannino et al. 2003, 2008; Schöne et al. 2007;
83 Burman and Pässe 2008; Surge & Barrett 2012; Wang et al. 2012; Prendergast et al. 2013;
84 Prendergast & Schöne 2017), and fish otoliths (e.g. Müller et al., 2015; Surge and Walker,
85 2005; Disspain et al. 2011) can provide high-resolution internally temporally well-
86 constrained palaeoenvironmental archives from aquatic ecosystems in both tropical and
87 temperate regions. However, they offer only short time windows of climate reconstruction
88 based on the longevity of the organisms from years to decades and occasionally, centuries
89 (Schöne 2008). Other aquatic archives such as alkenones and ostracods may offer weighted-
90 seasonal reconstructions, generally biased towards either summer or winter reconstructions
91 (Börner et al. 2013; Prahl et al. 2001; Timmerman et al. 2014).

92

93 **2. Seasonal records and human activity**

94 Understanding seasonal variability is of fundamental importance to reconstructing human-
95 environment interactions. Seasonal changes in climate and environment play a critical role in
96 the interplay between humans and their environment. Changes in seasonality can affect the
97 timing and availability of resources including food, water, shelter and raw materials. Many
98 studies of human-environment interaction use regional-scale climate records or climate
99 records that may be tens to hundreds of kilometres away from the archaeological sites used to
100 reconstruct behavioural changes. The application of such records to understand human-

101 environment interaction can be problematic because local climatic conditions may not
102 necessarily mirror regional-scale changes and environments may change dramatically over
103 kilometer scales due to factors such as local topographic changes. Furthermore, many
104 regional-scale records of past climate have decadal to millennial resolution at best, whereas
105 humans primarily respond to climate on seasonal to annual timescales (Denton et al. 2005;
106 Shea et al. 2008; Prendergast et al. 2016b; Roberts et al. 2016). Robust assessments of the
107 impact of climate change on human behaviour therefore require knowledge of climate at both
108 local and seasonal scales. The best way to ensure that palaeoenvironmental records directly
109 relate to human behavioural records is to get them directly from archaeological sites from
110 which the human behavioural changes are interpreted.

111
112 Seasonal information can be obtained from various biological material types routinely
113 preserved in archaeological sites. Faunal material, such as mollusc shells, otoliths and
114 mammalian skeletal elements, accumulated in archaeological deposits as a result of hunting
115 and foraging activities, can provide insights into palaeoenvironments and seasonal site use,
116 through traditional zooarchaeological studies and geochemical analyses. Meanwhile,
117 macrobotanical and pollen remains, incorporated into archaeological sediments, can offer
118 insights into seasonal temperature or precipitation variations and the length of growing
119 seasons.

120
121 Geochemical and growth pattern signatures from biogenic carbonates are being increasingly
122 employed to understand seasonal palaeoenvironmental variability and resource use from
123 archaeological sites (Prendergast et al. 2017). Mollusc shells, fish otoliths and faunal teeth in
124 particular are routinely preserved in the archaeological record. Many archaeological sites
125 contain freshwater, marine, terrestrial and estuarine mollusc shells, and freshwater, marine,
126 and estuarine otoliths likely to be refuse from foraging and fishing activities (Andrus 2011;
127 Colonese et al. 2011; Prendergast and Stevens 2014; Disspain et al. 2016; Twaddle et al.
128 2016), and faunal teeth and antler likely to be the result of hunting activities (Hillson, 2005;
129 Pryor et al. 2016; Reade et al 2016, 2018; Pilaar-Birch et al 2016; Stevens and O’Connell
130 2016). These archives are particularly relevant to reconstructing human-environment
131 interaction as their presence in archaeological sites is generally the result of foraging, fishing,
132 and hunting activities (thus live-collection). Therefore, these archives can provide local
133 palaeoenvironmental records that can be directly linked both spatially and temporally to
134 records of human habitation and behaviour. Such data are crucial for generating robust data
135 on human-environment interaction (Prendergast and Stevens 2014; Prendergast et al. 2016b).
136 Biogenic carbonates also offer the additional advantage that they can be directly dated using
137 methods such as radiocarbon (e.g. Magnani et al. 2007; Butler et al. 2009a; Reimer 2015;
138 Bosch et al. 2015b; Hill et al. 2017), U-Th series (e.g. Magnani et al. 2007; Rowe et al.
139 2015), or amino acid racemisation (e.g. Murray-Wallace et al. 2005; Demarchi et al. 2015).
140 This allows the reconstruction of high resolution, time-series of palaeoenvironmental change.

141
142 The incremental growth structures in many biogenic carbonate proxy archives such as
143 mollusc shells, otoliths and teeth enable the reconstruction of chronologically-constrained,
144 high-resolution records of palaeoenvironmental variability (Prendergast et al. 2017). The
145 study of the structure and chemistry of the incrementally deposited hard parts of organisms is
146 known as sclerochronology. This field has expanded exponentially in the past few decades
147 (see Schöne and Surge, 2005; Gröcke and Gillikin, 2008; Oschmann, 2009; Wanamaker et
148 al., 2011; Schöne and Gillikin 2013; Butler and Schöne 2017; Prendergast et al. 2017 for
149 recent overviews). The time span and resolution that can be obtained for palaeoenvironmental
150 records from sequentially deposited biogenic carbonates depends upon on the sampling

151 method used, and the growth rates and longevity of the organism (Schöne 2008). Physical
152 and chemical analyses of the annual, and in some cases, fortnightly and daily increments
153 allow the reconstruction of chronologically constrained records of palaeoenvironmental
154 variability at unparalleled high temporal resolutions.

155
156 Shelled bivalve and gastropod molluscs have been consumed by humans all over the world
157 from Palaeolithic to recent times (Colonese et al. 2011; Twaddle et al. 2016). They can
158 provide records of palaeoenvironmental change stretching over tens of thousands of years.
159 Such records are particularly important in coastal regions where sea level changes may have
160 obscured coastal records of human habitation and environmental change (Gutiérrez-Zugasti
161 et al. 2016). These archives can cover both tropical and temperate regions in both the
162 northern and southern hemispheres and allow reconstructions from terrestrial, marine,
163 freshwater, and estuarine palaeoenvironments. They therefore offer the opportunity for high-
164 resolution palaeoenvironmental reconstructions across many time intervals, all over the globe
165 (see Andrus 2011; Prendergast and Stevens 2014; Leng and Lewis 2015; Thomas 2015; and
166 Twaddle et al. 2016; Butler and Schöne 2017; Prendergast et al. 2017 for recent reviews).
167 The analysis of mollusc shells for palaeoenvironmental reconstruction has been growing
168 steadily over the last couple of decades (Butler and Schöne 2017). Additionally, by analysing
169 the pattern of geochemical variation in the terminal growth increments of archaeological
170 mollusc shells, the season in which the shellfish were foraged can be determined. Combining
171 such data with other archaeological subsistence data enables a more complete picture of site
172 use patterns (e.g. Helama & Hood 2011; Mannino et al. 2007; Burchell et al. 2013; Jew and
173 Fitzpatrick 2015; Prendergast et al. 2016a; Hausmann and Meredith-Williams 2016).

174
175 Otoliths are small calcium carbonate structures found in the inner ear of teleost fish (Popper
176 and Fay 2011). Otoliths have been used to determine the seasonality of archaeological site
177 occupation and palaeoenvironmental conditions in both the northern and southern
178 hemispheres (Higham and Horn 2000; Hufthammer et al. 2010). Although preservation in the
179 archaeological record can be quite variable they can provide important seasonal
180 palaeoenvironmental information. At some archaeological sites, only a few otoliths may be
181 recovered, whereas at others large assemblages from multiple species may be present (Gabriel
182 *et al.* 2012; Scartascini and Volpedo, 2013). Their aragonite structure makes them more
183 susceptible to diagenesis than bone in certain burial contexts (Disspain *et al.* 2016). Otoliths
184 can provide several lines of seasonality evidence. First, as many species of fish move
185 seasonally, the presence of otolith of a specific species at an archaeological site shows that
186 people were exploited those species at a particular time of the year. The absence of certain
187 species could however, be due to human choice rather than not being available for
188 exploitation. Second, growth bands in the aragonite structure of the otoliths of temperate
189 species coincide with seasonal variations in environmental conditions. Thus, the season of
190 death and exploitation by humans can be established through examining a cross section of the
191 otolith and recording whether the growth lines at the outer edge represent the faster growing
192 warm season or slower growing cool season (Disspain *et al.* 2016). Third, geochemical
193 analyses such as trace-element and stable isotope analysis of growth increments can be used
194 to provide information on the seasonal changes in environmental conditions during the fish's
195 life and the season of fish exploitation (Andrus et al. 2002; Hufthammer *et al.* 2010;
196 Scartascini *et al.* 2014). Furthermore, advances in high-resolution sampling and in situ
197 analyses are enabling high resolution isotope profiles to be constructed which provide very
198 detailed palaeoenvironmental data (Aubert *et al.* 2012, Disspain *et al.* 2016).

199

200 Teeth are readily preserved in the archaeological record due to the high crystallinity and low
201 porosity of enamel hydroxyapatite (Hillison, 2005; LeGeros, 1991), thus offering the
202 opportunity to extract seasonal data from a multitude of locations and time periods (e.g.
203 Balasse et al., 2003; Julien et al., 2012; Hartman et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2004). The
204 application of stable isotope analysis to enamel ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and dentine ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$)
205 provides seasonal data spatially resolved to the animal's home range, related to seasonal
206 variations in temperature, rainfall, landscape use, vegetation cover, resource competition, and
207 in the case of domesticated animals, human-controlled management practices (e.g. Feranec et
208 al., 2009; Makarewicz, 2017; Nelson, 2005). These archives can therefore provide seasonal
209 climatic and environmental data at spatial-scales relevant to understanding seasonal
210 landscape use and resource exploitation by past human populations. However, understanding
211 the complex, often species-specific tooth formation processes, is key to the interpretation of
212 these geochemical signals and to the development of appropriate sampling strategies. There is
213 an ever-growing body of work that is contributing to this area of research (e.g. Bendrey et al.,
214 2015; Blumenthal et al., 2014; Guiry et al., 2016; Reade et al., 2015; Trayler and Kohn, 2017;
215 Zazzo et al., 2005; 2012). While the geochemical signatures of enamel and dentine are set
216 during the process of tooth growth, which occurs in early life, dental cementum can provide
217 additional end-of-life information. Cementum incremental analysis, or cementochemistry,
218 uses the cyclic variations of cementum deposition to provide season of death and age
219 estimations, offering a further proxy to explore the seasonality of human resource
220 exploitation (e.g. Pryor et al. 2016; Jones, 2012; Niven et al., 2012; Schmaus et al., 2018).

221
222 Animal bones can provide information on season of animal exploitation and animal
223 management patterns. The presences of animals such as geese and duck, which migrate
224 seasonally, provide evidence that people used an archaeological site at a particular time of the
225 year (Serjeantson 1998; Yeomans and Richter 2018). Age estimate and season of death data
226 can be obtained from foetal bone length, the sequence of epiphyseal fusion of bones, antler
227 casting, tooth eruption sequences, crown height and tooth wear (Carden and Hayden 2015;
228 Speiss 1979; Aaris-Sørensen et al. 2007; Greenfield et al. 2015). Individually these methods
229 have their limitations, for example the epiphyseal fusion of bones does not provide a
230 continuous record of growth once adulthood is achieved (Greenfield et al. 2015).
231 Collectively, however, these techniques can build up a picture seasonality of human resource
232 exploitation at specific sites, and more broadly of human presence or movement within a
233 landscape. Nevertheless season of death determinations rely on the assumption that the
234 timing of conception and birth, and rates of development were the same in past animal
235 populations as today. This may or may not have been the case for wild animals, and in
236 domestic animals season of birth is often manipulated by humans in order to extend the
237 duration of availability of animal resources such as milk and meat (Balasse et al. 2017).

238
239 Human and animal hair are formed of the protein keratin. Preservation of hair is best in very
240 arid locations or cool, permafrost environments, and so the recovery of hair from
241 archaeological settings is more limited than skeletal remains. Yet where hair is present its
242 geochemical signatures can provide very high-resolution seasonal data as hair grows rapidly
243 and does not remodel. Mammal hair growth patterns vary between species. Some have cycles
244 of synchronous hair growth followed by seasonal molting, whereas others such as humans
245 have a mosaic pattern of hair growth where different follicles are at different stages of the
246 hair growth cycle (Thompson *et al.* 2015). Carbon, nitrogen, sulphur, oxygen and hydrogen
247 isotopes analyses of sequential hair samples of ancient humans and animals can provide
248 evidence for seasonal changes in diet, mobility, physiological state and climate (O'Connell
249 and Hedges 1999; Iacumin *et al.* 2005; Williams et al 2011; Williams and Katzenberg 2012;

250 d'Ortenzio et al 2015, Britton et al. 2018). However, determining the geographical
251 movements of an individual or climate variations through stable isotope analysis of hair can
252 be confounded by a number of factors. These include differential incorporation of different
253 elements such as oxygen and hydrogen, and differing seasonal variability in isotope
254 signatures between locations (Reynard *et al.* 2015).

255

256 Various floral proxies are available for investigating seasonality of past human
257 activities (Dark 2004). Palynological data may be recovered from contexts ranging from lake
258 sediments (Kealhofer and Penny 1998) to coprolite samples (Reinhard and Bryant 1992;
259 Shahack-Gross 2011) and can provide reconstructions of changing temperature and
260 precipitation seasonality based on the changing vegetation composition through time (Peyron
261 et al. 2011). Meanwhile, size variations in annual growth rings in woody taxa have been
262 widely studied for decades for dendrochronological dating purposes (Schweingruber 1989),
263 yet growth rings also encode useful information concerning seasonality in the proportion of
264 early and late wood in each growth ring (Hughes et al. 2002; Marguerie and Hunot 2007).
265 Alongside dendrochronological applications, growth features in wood and charcoal have
266 therefore been used for seasonal palaeoclimatic reconstruction (Beresford-Jones et al. 2011)
267 and understanding seasonal human activity via reconstructing the felling season of wood
268 (Rocek 1988; Eckstein 2007). Analysis of carbon isotope ratios in fresh and charred plant
269 remains has also been successfully applied in non-archaeological situations to recover useful
270 palaeoenvironmental information (see review in McCarroll and Loader 2004; Bégin et al.
271 2015), and less commonly to plant remains in archaeological contexts (Voltas et al. 2008;
272 Hall et al. 2008).

273

274

275 **3. The papers in this special issue**

276

277 This special issue brings together some of the latest research on seasonal records from
278 archaeological sites. Methodologically, this special issue encompasses geochemical
279 approaches (stable isotopes, trace elements) as well as growth increment analyses. Some of
280 the papers provide traditional palaeoenvironmental and palaeoseasonality reconstructions,
281 whilst others offer more novel applications including the determination of collection
282 environments. Geographically, the papers cover many regions of the northern hemisphere
283 including North America, Europe and the Levant. The temporal scope of the studies ranges
284 from Palaeolithic to historic times. The archives include mollusc shells, otoliths, plants and
285 animal bones and the environmental proxies include $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, Mg/Ca, and growth
286 increment analyses. This special issue stems from a session entitled “Seasonal
287 palaeoenvironmental records from archaeological sites” held at the XIX INQUA Congress in
288 Japan. The session attracted a wide range of presentations, some of which are included in this
289 special issue, with additional papers arising from an open call for submissions. The papers in
290 this special issue have been organised based on the environmental archives analysed. The
291 first three papers focus on mollusc shell geochemistry (Bosch et al. 2018, this issue; Burchell
292 et al. 2018 this issue; Mouchi et al. 2018, this issue). The next paper focuses on otoliths
293 (Hesler et al. 2018, this issue); whilst the final two papers focus on bones and plants
294 (Shishlina et al. 2018, this issue) and bones (Carlson et al. 2018, this issue).

295

296 The first paper in this special issue (Bosch et al., 2018, this issue) uses $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analysis of
297 marine gastropods to investigate the seasonality of shellfish exploitation during the
298 Palaeolithic in the Levant. They focus on the archaeological assemblage from Ksâr ‘Akil,
299 revealing year-round use of shellfish resources throughout most of the Upper Palaeolithic,

300 and use this data both as a proxy from the timing of site occupation and in the discussion of
301 seasonal resource exploitation strategies.

302

303 Burchell et al. (2018, this issue) reconstruct seasonality of shellfish consumption at an Inuit
304 campsite in southern Labrador using stable oxygen isotope analysis of mussel shells. Their
305 study includes some valuable method development work comparing two different methods
306 for assessing season of death in mussel shells, namely stable isotopes versus seasonal growth
307 line markers based on colour bands in the shell. Their results show that high-resolution
308 isotopic sampling produces the most reliable indicator of season-of-death and thus harvesting
309 seasonality, while the growth marker method failed to produce clear or consistent data and
310 was often inaccurate for the mussel species they analysed. This is despite the fact that colour
311 is a reliable method in other shellfish species in other parts of the world.

312

313 Seasonal to sub-seasonal resolution analyses of biogenic carbonates from samples such as
314 mollusc shells and mammalian teeth are useful for distinguishing the different types of
315 environments these were collected from by ancient human foragers (e.g. Andrus et al. 2012).
316 This has the potential to provide an extra layer of detail in the foraging practices of ancient
317 humans. In this issue, Mouchi et al. (2018, this issue) use high-resolution Mg/Ca and stable
318 isotope analyses from oyster shells (*Ostrea edulis*) to provide information on the
319 environments in which the shells grew. They provide constraints on the environment of
320 collection of oyster shells from Gallo-Roman sites in France.

321

322 Geochemical analyses of otoliths are being increasingly used to obtain palaeoenvironmental
323 records from archaeological sites (e.g. Disspain et al., 2011; 2016). Helser et al. (2018, this
324 issue) report seasonally-resolved, high resolution measurements of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in modern and
325 archaeological Pacific cod otoliths recovered from the Pacific coast of Alaska. They quantify
326 the relationship between seawater temperature and otolith aragonite $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the modern
327 samples. They then use this relationship to predict the themography of fish life history,
328 enabling estimates of nearshore water temperature for the last 200 years. Their
329 reconstructions indicate significant cooling of ocean waters during the Little Ice Age c. 1810
330 to 1880, followed by a period of warming over the last 100 years. Helser et al. conclude by
331 linking these changes to cultural transitions and altered settlement patterns visible in the
332 archaeological record of coastal communities.

333

334 The impact of seasonal extremes in climatic parameters including temperature and
335 precipitation amount on the isotopic composition of tissues averaged over long time periods
336 is becoming ever-more widely appreciated when interpreting datasets. In another
337 demonstration of this, Shishlina et al. (2018, this issue) combine archaeological and
338 contemporary data to demonstrate the effects of increased seasonality and particularly
339 summer aridity on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of plants and animals in the Bronze and Early Iron
340 Ages of the North Caucasus and south Russian Plain. Variations in the isotopic compositions
341 of contemporary plants between 2006-2015 are linked with changes in summer temperatures
342 showing a particular increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in hotter summers. The impact on drought-
343 intolerant pasture-fed sheep is then presented and the results applied to refine the
344 interpretation of seasonal grazing practises observed among the archaeological pastoral
345 communities.

346

347 Finally, Carlson et al. (2018, this issue) use analyses of bison bone as a proxy for
348 environmental change during the Younger Dryas. They found a latitudinal grade of climate

349 intensity occurred across their study area and surmised that droughts occurred during both
350 Bolling/Alerod and Younger Dryas phases.

351

352 **Conclusion**

353 Climate seasonality significantly influences mean climate and plays a critical role in the
354 interplay between humans and their environment. Robust seasonal-resolution palaeoclimatic
355 and palaeoenvironmental data are important for understanding the Earth's climate system as a
356 whole. Understanding past climate change at seasonal and sub-seasonal resolution allows
357 current and future climate change to be contextualised. These high-resolution
358 palaeoenvironmental records are useful for testing and refining global and regional climate
359 models, enabling a better understanding of the overall climate system and an enhanced ability
360 to predict future climate change. When these seasonal records are obtained from
361 archaeological sites, they enable more robust interpretations of human-environment
362 interaction. Providing environmental frameworks from which to understand the behavioural
363 changes and interactions of past peoples with their environment. Furthermore, many of these
364 palaeoenvironmental proxies along with other floral and faunal evidence preserved in
365 archaeological assemblages also enable reconstructions of seasonal site use, resource use and
366 subsistence patterns. This allows a more detailed and nuanced understanding of past resource
367 use and human-landscape interaction through time, particularly where several different lines
368 of seasonality evidence are studied from a single archaeological assemblage. The
369 contributions in this volume provide several new records of seasonal palaeoenvironment and
370 seasonal resource use directly associated with archaeological sites. These studies provide
371 valuable data that allows a more thorough assessment of the complex interplay between
372 humans and their environment.

373

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