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Title: Rediscovering lessons of adaptation from the past

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Title

Rediscovering lessons of adaptation from the past

Abstract

We argue that the deep time perspectives offered by historical disciplines, such as archaeology and history, provide important human-scale data about climate-adaptation over long timescales, and that these insights are currently lacking in global change research and Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change reports. Pre-modern societies are not comparable with contemporary societies, but the completed experiments they represent can offer evidence of the consequences of climate change, the challenges of uncertainty and socio-cultural limits to adaptation. The limited visibility of data on long-term human interactions with climate change in global change research could be overcome through a 'new social contract', a two-way movement between global change and historical disciplines to, 1) make use of, and apply, historical data to contemporary climate-related challenges; 2) to design robust interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research, 3) publish synthesised research in high-impact climate-adaptation journals and 4) communicate research to the public in cultural history museums.

1 *1. Introduction*

2

3 Anthropogenic climate change is having profound impacts on social and cultural practices, requiring
4 novel approaches to understand the interaction between culture and climate (Hulme, 2009, 2016). In
5 the last decade, numerous authors have highlighted the need for a critical integration of the social
6 sciences and humanities into Global Change Research (GCR) and associated institutional bodies, such
7 as the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC; see Hulme, 2011; Castree et al. 2014).
8 Archaeology and history, however, have received little attention in mainstream the climate-adaptation
9 literature and institutional reports despite significant research at the interface between human and
10 natural systems (Riede, 2014a; Hudson et al., 2012; Hambrecht and Rockman, 2017). In this paper,
11 we address this lack by proposing a new social contract; a two-way movement by GCR and historical
12 disciplines to make use of and apply historical data to contemporary climate-related challenges.

13

14 *2. Global Change Research*

15 GCR examines the impacts of human activities on bio-geo-physical processes (IPCC, 2014).
16 Integrated monitoring efforts have recorded significant changes to these processes, and the crossing of
17 environmental thresholds that define safe operating spaces for humanity (Rockström et al., 2009).
18 While substantial progress has been made towards understanding physical changes to Earth system
19 processes since Assessment Report (AR) 1 (1990) of the IPCC, until IPCC AR4, the social sciences
20 and humanities had limited influence over the consideration of human dimensions within GCR
21 (Corbera et al., 2016). It is now recognised that successful responses to climate change need to
22 overcoming socio-cultural limits and barriers (Moser and Ekstrom, 2010; Barnett et al., 2015). This
23 highlights crucial issues, that include how to adjust social practices to avoid dangerous climate change
24 and to understand cultural capacities to adapt to change (Adger et al., 2013a).

25

26 The limited visibility of archaeology and history in GCR is perhaps unsurprising because recognisable
27 changes to climate, driven by human activities, are a modern phenomenon and societies of the past
28 differ from those of the present in terms of world views, technology, demography and governance
29 structures. Hence, climate change adaptation might be considered solely a challenge for modern

30 societies and thus modern science. Indeed, global production, economic systems, demographic and
31 population trends, and—critically—modes of knowledge have changed dramatically since the
32 Enlightenment (Withers, 2005) and industrial revolutions (Urry, 2014). This development has been so
33 profound that in the case of Western societies, Hannah Arendt (1998) has characterised a new *human*
34 *condition* capable of ever-greater destruction. Linked to this, the ‘Anthropocene’ concept has sought
35 to define humanity’s transformed relationship with the Earth system (Crutzen, 2006). The industrial
36 revolution’s influence on global atmospheric composition (c. 1750-1800 AD), socio-economic trends
37 of the post-1950 ‘great acceleration’ (Steffen et al., 2015) and the creation of an artificial global
38 radionuclide marker horizon from atomic detonations (Zalasiewicz et al., 2008) are used as evidence
39 for a post-industrial global environmental threshold. But defining this threshold potentially shifts
40 attention from antecedent processes of cultural-ecological change (Erlandson and Braje, 2013) and
41 past human resource-use and decision-making in response to climate stimuli. As argued by Hartman
42 et al. (2017), the notion of the new human condition is in need of updating in light of past human-
43 environment interactions, and how these impinge on the present and future of human planetary
44 stewardship.

45

46 Anthropologists Smith and Zeder (2013) have challenged the post-industrial designation of
47 Anthropocene, arguing “focus should be on cause rather than [a measurable] effect” (p.11), such as a
48 ‘golden spike’. The cause in question is, for Smith and Zeder (2013), the ‘agricultural revolution’ of
49 ~11,000-9000 yr BP. This period marked a significant transition in human impacts, from those of
50 hunter-gatherers to the domesticators of plants and animals (Zeder, 2015). The social and ecological
51 consequences of agriculture are significant, and their imprint is discernible today. The adoption of
52 agriculture increased and expanded human population and human-favoured taxa across the globe —
53 primarily the newly domesticated plant and animal species common to modern diets (Boivin et al.,
54 2016). Major environmental impacts from Holocene agricultural expansion, such as the
55 transformation of central Eurasian forests and grasslands through grazing, are responsible for
56 engineering the familiar cultural landscapes of today (Miehe et al., 2009).

57

58 The spread of agriculture is significant to modern GCR because it fundamentally altered human
59 adaptive responses to climate variability. Whereas hunter-gatherer societies used mobility to respond
60 to climate-induced shifts in wild resource distribution, agriculturalists use past experience to inform
61 local economic decisions (Kennett and Marwan, 2015). Decisions about cropping, harvesting,
62 grazing, irrigation, grain storage, trade and political-economic integration require the navigation of
63 economic constraints and memory of climatic variability as important today as long ago. Likewise,
64 managing private and local common-pool resources is as much a socio-environmental and economic
65 challenge of the present as it was in the past (Ostrom et al., 1994, 2007).

66

67 Climate change, political and economic stability, food security and human migration have been major
68 concerns to past as well as contemporary societies, but examples of how these problems become
69 interrelated, and ‘wicked’, are missing from future scenario planning (Palmer and Smith, 2014).
70 History can tell us how vulnerable societies functioned before and after disaster events (Riede,
71 2014b), what impact cultural limits played in long-term adaptation to climate variability (Dugmore et
72 al., 2012; Speilmann et al., 2016), and how multiple exposures undermined societal resilience
73 (Dugmore et al., 2013).

74

75 *3. The Use of the Past in the Present*

76 In the 21st century, archaeology and history have increased their efforts to apply long-term data to
77 contemporary social and environmental challenges—including climate-adaptation and sustainability
78 (Redman, 2005; Costanza et al., 2007). New and expanded archaeological methods, such as those
79 using stable isotopes, statistical models and microfossil analysis, have enhanced reconstructions of
80 human-environment interaction, human dietary response to changing resource abundance, human
81 migration and settlement abandonment (Boivin et al., 2016; d’Alpoim Guedes et al., 2016); historians
82 have shown how culture shapes changing ideas of climate (Adamson et al., 2018; Hulme, 2008).

83

84 Developing more effective interdisciplinary collaborations can provide holistic information on
85 climate-adaptation using extended timescales to explain how vulnerabilities develop across different

86 spatial and socio-cultural contexts—to reconstruct a global perspective on climate impacts and
87 adaptation in the past. Box 1 provides six well-known examples of environmental and social change.
88 North Atlantic researchers from the geosciences, historical ecology, environmental humanities and
89 social sciences have outlined the benefits of long-term integrative approaches using the comparative
90 cases of Medieval Greenland and Iceland (Box 2). In the following subsections we explore two
91 further cases of societal transformation (Classic Maya and the pre-Hispanic US Southwest) to
92 illustrate the potential of historical records and their completed experiments to inform contemporary
93 and future climate-adaptation scenario planning.

94

95 --

96 Box 1

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99 Box 2

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102 *3.1. Classic Maya: Climate Variability, Uncertainty and Conflict*

103 The decline of Classic Maya (~750-1050 AD) is among the most widely discussed cases of societal
104 “collapse” (Middleton, 2017). Recent comparative climate and archaeological research supports the
105 hypothesis that prolonged, multiyear drought triggered regional political disintegration during the
106 Terminal Classic (9th-10th centuries CE) (Kennett et al., 2012; Hoggarth et al., 2016). In wealthy Maya
107 polities, conflict and tribute-based status encouraged population agglomeration. This escalated
108 environmental stress, increasing the chance of local-scale soil erosion and reduced crop yields (Turner
109 and Sabloff, 2012). In the elevated interior of the Yucatan, an extensive dry season made settlements
110 dependent on household and urban reservoirs to store water (Dunning et al., 2012). Multiyear drought
111 increased resource stress, triggering conflict for political and economic gain over neighbouring
112 polities (Kennett and Beach, 2013). This resulted in increased political disintegration and population

113 decline as resource stress and conflict reinforced one another in a ‘risk spiral’ (Hoggarth et al., 2016,
114 2017; Dunning et al., 2012).

115

116 *3.2. US Southwest: Climate Variability and Infrastructure Rigidity*

117 Research focused on the pre-Hispanic ancestral Puebloan communities of the US Southwest has
118 examined decision-making and actions that contributed to both vulnerability and adaptive capacity
119 (Nelson et al., 2016). Using archaeological records and climate reconstructions, multidisciplinary
120 approaches have compared long-term records of social-ecological stability and change across the US
121 Southwest (Kohler et al., 2012). In the Mesa Verde region, there is a strong correlation between
122 maize-niche size and ancestral Puebloan populations. From 1200 AD, declining maize productivity
123 contributed to food shortages followed by violence and regional social collapse (Schwindt et al.,
124 2016). In the Phoenix basin, Hohokam, communities successfully managed interannual water scarcity
125 using large-scale canal networks. The irrigation capacity they generated for agricultural productivity
126 supported the creation of a regional-scale economy, but over-dependence on a predictable water
127 supply formed *rigidity traps*. Extreme climatic events in the 14th century, including floods that
128 disrupted channel-head connections to the river, devastated irrigation infrastructures that supported
129 agriculture (Nelson et al., 2012). At a broader scale, regional networks became balkanized by social-
130 ecological change, triggering depopulation and the collapse of trade networks. A comparative study
131 by Hegmon et al. (2008) found more rigidly organised settlements—including those of Mesa Verde
132 and the Phoenix Basin—to be more prone to severe transformation than less integrated and less
133 hierarchical societies such as Mimbres (and Zuni; see Speilmann et al., 2016).

134

135 These case studies illustrate how unanticipated and unprecedented low-frequency, multiyear drought
136 undermined powerful institutions that managed predictable, high-frequency variability with
137 substantial infrastructure investment (Kennett and Marwan, 2015; Nelson et al., 2012). Systems that
138 attempt to manage social-ecological variation are more likely to become rigid and homogenous
139 (Scheffer et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2015). Flexibility and redundancy is integral to social-
140 ecological resilience; helping societies withstand low frequency, high-magnitude events (Carpenter

141 and Brock, 2008). In both Central America and the southwestern USA, medieval climate variability
142 exacerbated food shortage, leading to conflict and the decentralization of power. In the contemporary
143 world, changing patterns of resource access driven by climate have caused human displacement and
144 violent conflict (Barnett and Adger, 2010; Eriksen and Lind, 2009), but there remain major gaps in
145 climate-conflict research—and a timely opportunity for collaboration between GCR and historical
146 disciplines (Solow, 2013; Adger et al., 2013b; Hsiang et al., 2013; Ide, 2015).

147

148 *3.3. Scenario Planning: Historical Data and QSS*

149 Within archaeology and history, an increasing number of publications consider the use of historical
150 data for scenario-based planning and risk reduction (Riede, 2014b, 2017a, 2017b; Kennett and
151 Marwan, 2015; Rohland, 2017; Adamson et al., 2018). Many suggest that coupled climate models are
152 required to understand human-environment interaction (Riede, 2014a; Palmer and Smith, 2014), but
153 few focus on direct channels of engagement in existing GCR frameworks (Beckage et al., 2018).
154 Qualitative Scenario Storylines (QSS) are used by global change researchers in IPCC reports, to add
155 information about the potential social effects of modelled climate impacts (Rounsevell and Metzger,
156 2010). The addition of history's long-term perspective would provide valuable extra information on
157 potential outcomes of multiple, complex changes for human populations.

158

159 QSS are used to explore uncertainties about the impacts of climate model projections on societal
160 resilience (Rounsevell and Metzger, 2010). The scenario method offers plausible impact narratives in
161 the *storyline* and *simulation* approach (Metzger et al., 2010). In IPCC AR5, a range of temperature
162 and precipitation scenarios are modelled using the Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES) and
163 Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) frameworks. Model outputs are used to indicate
164 potential social-ecological impacts, such as those from heatwaves, droughts, flooding and land-use
165 change (Kovats et al., 2014). The potential outcomes of model projects are then explored using the
166 QSS method (Rounsevell and Metzger, 2010). For example, temperature and precipitation scenarios
167 have been used to inform potential impacts on the European wine industry (Metzger and Rounsevell,
168 2011), flood risk (Rojas et al., 2013) and transport and infrastructure hazards (Palin et al., 2013).

169 Qualitative scenarios are not predictions, but potential outcomes of climate change, based on hitherto
170 observed phenomena (Bryson et al., 2010). Historical data cannot be incorporated in the same way but
171 could have great relevance as ‘possibilistic’ scenarios (Clarke, 2007; Riede, 2014b).

172

173 As some archaeologists have argued, without sufficient time-depth, contemporary scenarios can be
174 constrained by the lack of diachronicity (Redman, 2005). A combination of hazard frequency and how
175 they are remembered—in collective memory and cultural knowledge (Riede, 2017a)—is likely to
176 influence society’s preparedness and capacity to absorb and adjust to impacts (Wisner et al., 2004).
177 Icelanders, for example, are alert to the effects of volcanic eruptions on aviation, settlements, and
178 economic activities (Donovan and Oppenheimer, 2011). As a result of both long experience and
179 effective memory (Dugmore and Vésteinsson, 2012), Icelandic society has developed suitable crisis
180 management protocols. In contrast, continental Europe was ill-prepared for the synergistic effects of
181 the 2010 eruption of Eyjafjallajökull, persistent winds towards Europe and limited crisis management
182 (Alexander, 2013). This illustrates a key limitation of short-term datasets—they are unlikely to
183 include synergistic or conjunctive impacts of low-frequency, high-magnitude events (Dugmore and
184 Vésteinsson, 2012; Riede, 2017b). Completed experiments of the past can, however, provide effective
185 knowledge of far-reaching impacts on vulnerable social groups, critical infrastructure and resources
186 systems.

187

188 Historical data could be incorporated into QSS as examples of long-term human response to climate
189 impacts. For example, food shortages in the Medieval Norse settlements of the North Atlantic and the
190 pre-Hispanic US Southwest resulted as a consequence of socio-political and demographic instability
191 and limited access to dependable resources (Nelson et al., 2016). In these long-term cases, high
192 adaptive capacity is not equal to low vulnerability. The Greenland Norse, for example, adjusted to
193 declining home-field yields by utilising abundant marine and terrestrial wild resources (Dugmore et
194 al., 2012). Rare periods of climate variation and cooling, however, created unanticipated barriers to
195 domestic and wild resources. Unanticipated hazards, such as these, can also be reinforced by the
196 conjuncture of social, economic and political uncertainty (*see* Box.2). Long-term records could

197 hereby provide qualitative information for considering potential vulnerabilities arising from the
198 interaction of human and biophysical processes.

199

200 *A New Social Contract for Archaeology and History*

201

202 There are concerns that GCR requires better communication of ‘matters of fact’ to reach politically
203 uncomfortable conclusions and cultivate ‘solution-oriented’ research regarding ‘matters of concern’
204 (O’Brien, 2012; Stewart and Lewis, 2017). Designing research that attends to societal concerns and
205 engages with policy-makers, demands changes to practices of GCR (Castree, 2016). These arguments
206 are not new, and stem from earlier calls for a ‘social contract in science’ that engages with public
207 concerns (Lubchenco, 1998). Disciplinary social contracts have encouraged open-access
208 communication of research (Björk et al., 2010), interdisciplinary collaboration to embolden holistic
209 thinking (Barnes et al., 2013), and problem-based knowledge transfer to policy-makers (Turner et al.,
210 2016).

211

212 In environmental archaeology and history, similar questions have been raised, about what historical
213 disciplines can offer and what obligation there is to “engage with debates... at [the] interface between
214 politics, public affairs and science.” (Riede et al., 2016a: 1; Armstrong et al., 2017). The (sub)sections
215 that follow form the basis for a ‘new social contract’; a two-way movement in GCR and historical
216 disciplines to (i) make use of and apply historical data to contemporary climate-related challenges,
217 and (ii) for archaeology and history to increased engagement with GCR and climate-adaptation
218 research.

219

220 *Research design and collaboration*

221 A key challenge for global change researchers is to use climate change as an opportunity to engage in
222 new collaborations with archaeologists and historians, and vice versa. Many disciplines, including
223 history and archaeology, already engage in interdisciplinary research with the natural sciences—to
224 understand human interactions with changing environments—and with the humanities—to examine
225 environmental knowledge through art, literature and historical texts (Hartman et al., 2017; Holm and

226 Brennan, 2018). Existing research frameworks of historical ecology and environmental humanities,
227 have forged integrated projects that combine past climate, environment and human datasets—for
228 example, IHOPE (Integrated History and Future of People on Earth, <http://ihopenet.org>) and PAGES
229 (Past Global Changes, <http://www.pastglobalchanges.org>). Organisations such as these aim to build
230 understanding of the past to inform future projections and strategies for sustainability (Costanza et al.,
231 2012), but more could be done to design projects that integrate historical disciplines and GCR.

232

233 Field-based research, for example, offers opportunities for engagement across disciplines (e.g.
234 Normand et al. 2017) and with local and indigenous groups (Barnes et al., 2013). Protecting heritage
235 sites from the impacts of climate change—such as rain, frost damage or sea-level rise— is both a
236 cultural and academic concern, and also offers an opportunity to engage and educate the public using
237 tangible evidence of climate impacts on their heritage (Dawson et al., 2017). Likewise,
238 anthropologists (including archaeologists) and geographers can learn from traditional knowledges of
239 climate-adaptation in indigenous communities, such as Inuit communities in the circumpolar north, by
240 engaging in reciprocal information exchange (Ford et al., 2015; Krupnik, 2002).

241

242 *Historical social perspectives in GCR Journals*

243 While many archaeologists and historians have turned their attention to contemporary climate
244 challenges, their studies still lack visibility in climate-adaptation journals and thus connections with
245 global change researchers. In AR5, for instance, ‘historical perspectives’ are limited to a single-page
246 box with a broad overview of climate-induced stress in past societies (IPCC, 2014: 920). Historical
247 perspectives of human interactions with environmental change are framed around the ‘collapse’ thesis
248 and research papers cited in this section are mostly collected from Butzer and Enfield’s (2012) special
249 feature in *PNAS* about historical transformation in pre-modern societies. Several historical case
250 studies are cited, but restrictions on space limit a full appraisal of what historical perspectives offer to
251 climate-adaptation research.

252

253 Following the lead of Butzer and Enfield (2012), we consider it necessary for historians,
254 archaeologists and anthropologists to publish in high-impact GCR journals cited in the IPCC reports.
255 A challenge in this type of publication is to ensure that papers are framed and written in a suitable
256 way to synthesise historical and natural scientific data into concise research articles that highlight the
257 relevance of long-term perspectives and the lessons learned from past societies (Altschul et al., 2017).
258 This provides some exciting opportunities for new collaborative research between GCR and historical
259 disciplines. Table 1 shows a rank of journals publishing climate-adaptation research. Journals
260 highlighted in dark grey have aims and scope suitable for historical perspectives relevant to global
261 change, and so present a suitable opportunity to enhance these perspectives in GCR and IPCC
262 Assessment Reports.

263

264 --

265 Table 1

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267

268 *GCR and Public Engagement – Museums*

269 In the last 30 years, museums have shifted focus from collection to educational and public
270 engagement (Black, 2005), but focus on contemporary environmental issues remains rare (Payne,
271 2015). As scientific evidence alone is insufficient to overcome public inaction, public communication
272 and inspiring action requires evidence presented as practical and relatable ‘matters of concern’
273 (Marshall, 2011; Stewart and Lewis, 2017). Museums are trusted educational spaces with large public
274 attendance figures (Cameron et al., 2013). The British Museum (6.42M, <http://www.alva.org.uk>),
275 Smithsonian Museum of Natural History (7.1M, <https://newsdesk.si.edu/about/stats>) and National
276 Museum of China (7.55M, TEA, 2017) each engaged in excess of 6 million visitors in 2016. But
277 museums continue to play a limited role at engaging the public with the human impacts of climate
278 change (Rees, 2017; Cameron et al., 2013). Cultural history museums have the potential to exhibit
279 meaningful information (matters of fact and concern) to the public because they communicate
280 tangible stories—using material evidence—of human history (Hebda, 2007).

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Cultural history museums could seize a much-needed opportunity to use their potential as spaces for critical thinking about current societal concerns (Cameron, 2011; Sandell, 2011), rather than following linear narratives—such as the rise and fall of civilizations. Material artefacts together with historical research have been used to construct accessible climate narratives, offering ‘windows into the past’ (Hebda, 2007: 329). The ‘Mild Apocalypse’ exhibition at Moesgaard Museum (Denmark), for example, invited visitors to explore artefacts dating from the 1950s ‘golden spike’, as an entry point into the Anthropocene debate (Riede et al., 2016b, <http://anthropocene.au.dk/exhibitions/mild-apocalypse-2016/>). Exhibitions at Moesgaard Museum use multi-media displays to examine material artefacts. This is also an essential tool for communicating climate-impacts and adaptation. The *Preserving Maya Heritage* project between the British Museum and Google Arts and Culture, used virtual reality to engage the public with archives and ‘what the Maya story tells us about global warming and urbanisation’ (<https://artsandculture.google.com/theme/HgIy1yrF4KwFJg>). Narratives and storylines that trace human interaction with climate, and its punctuated history, have been widely discussed (Nikoleris et al., 2017), but have seen little explicit application in museums (Cameron et al., 2013). This presents a major opportunity to communicate matters of concern through themed exhibitions showing diachronic evidence of socio-cultural and environmental change imprinted on materials, texts and other records.

300 *Conclusion*

301 To date, historical perspectives have limited influence in GCR, and this seems to relate in part to the
302 disjunction between pre-industrial and modern societies, and the limited visibility of historical data to
303 global change researchers. Historical data has the potential to offer lessons and practical examples for
304 scenario planning, but to offer this critical perspective research must be more visible to key audiences:
305 global change researchers, policy-makers and the public. To promote this, we suggest a social
306 contract is necessary, a two-way movement in GCR and historical disciplines to make use of and
307 apply historical data to contemporary climate-related challenges, in order for (1) for new
308 collaborations between the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences to engage archaeologists and

309 historians and to connect with the public, (2) to gain visibility for historical perspectives by targeting
310 high-impact climate-adaptation journals, cited in the IPCC reports and across GCR, and (3) to
311 communicate GCR through museums of cultural history to offer the public critical and tangible
312 evidence of climate-adaptation and human modification of environments over human history.

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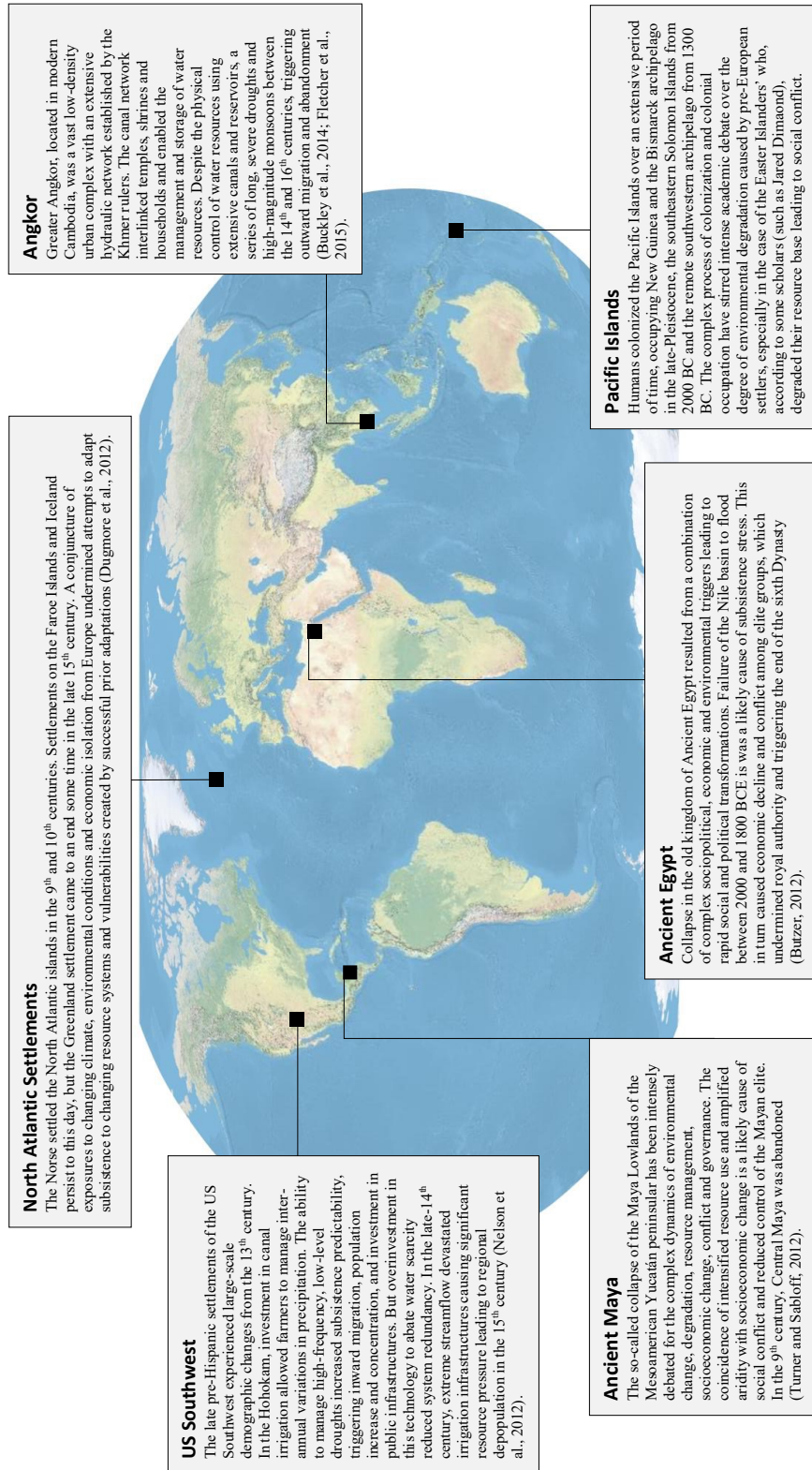
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Box 1: An example of a global perspective on climate change adaptation in the past. Here we offer just a few examples, but archaeological and historical data has the potential for long-term global coverage. Base map: World Physical Map [US National Parks Service] created using ArcGIS™ software by Esri.

Integrated historical research in the North Atlantic can help us address research questions about long-term climate impacts, cultural limits to adaptation and exposures to multiple climate-related environmental and socio-political challenges. Treating these examples as ‘completed experiments’ of the past offers empirical evidence of extended exposure to social and environmental stressors. Examples such as this could offer scenarios of political, economic and environmental uncertainty that are equally possible in integrated market economies.



Norse societies in Greenland and Iceland, both settled in the Viking Age (793-1066), had a shared cultural and biological heritage (Jesch, 2015). Icelandic society has survived environmental, economic and demographic transformations to become a highly developed 21st century economy (Karlsson, 2000). Norse Greenland, by contrast, came to an end in the mid-15th century (Arneborg, 2003). Evidence of the impacts of climate on subsistence/resource management have become increasingly resolved through modern archaeological investigations and climate reconstructions (Hartman et al., 2017). Zooarchaeological studies and stable isotope analyses provide evidence of a changing diet at the settlement scale—evidence of adaptation to food scarcity (Smiarowski et al., 2017; Arneborg et al., 2012). Multidisciplinary studies have combined human-scale data from Greenland with regional-scale environmental and political-economic data. This suggests that the Norse became increasingly dependent on a narrow marine-focused diet, which increased vulnerability to food shortage in the mid-15th century (Nelson et al., 2016). Historical evidence indicates that this coincided with Greenland’s isolation from the Norwegian crown, an essential trade partner, as walrus ivory become devalued on European markets (Frei et al., 2015). The combination of declining food security with economic isolation to support subsistence failure left the Norse with few options in the 15th century. Modern societies could learn from such scenarios playing out in contemporary political economies. Declining trade, energy security and political instability at national and regional scales, in tandem with the social and physical impacts of climate change, could present major adaptive challenges for policy and governance.

In the last 10 years, researchers from the North Atlantic Biocultural Organisation (NABO) have increased engagement with global change researchers; examining historical data through concepts of ‘human security’ (Dugmore et al., 2013; O’Brien et al., 2013), social and cultural limits to adaptation (Dugmore et al., 2009; Adger et al., 2009), and multiple exposures (Dugmore et al., 2012; Liechenko and O’Brien, 2008). North Atlantic researchers have applied GCR concepts to studies of the past to better understand complex human-environment interaction and, in turn, to extend the scope of human climate-adaptation using deep-time perspectives. Contemporary studies, for example, warn that exposure to multiple stressors are likely to produce winners and losers as societies experience global environmental change (O’Brien and Liechenko, 2000). In Medieval Greenland, the climate-economy conjuncture undermined the capacity of Norse settlers to adapt subsistence and resort to imports for food provisions (Dugmore et al., 2012). This lesson from the Greenland case is although the Norse adjusted to climate change, cultural practices limited the level of adaptive flexibility in response to climate volatility and economic change.

North Atlantic researchers have more recently outlined channels for integration with global change research programmes (Hartman et al., 2017; Holm and Brennan, 2018). Integrating research from a number of disciplines and spatial-temporal scales has provided opportunities for long-term analysis across local and regional scales (Hambrech and Rockman, 2017). Long-term historical-archaeological records and historical literatures have been combined with natural and earth science data to understand how humans understood environmental change and influenced terrestrial and marine environments (Kwok, 2017).

IPCC AR5 WG2 Part A – Global and Sectoral Aspects			Scopus Search			Journal	Overall Rank
Rank	Journal Name	Citation Frequency	Rank	Journal Name	Publications: ‘*adapt*’ & ‘Climate Change’		
1	<i>Climatic Change</i>	481	1	<i>Climatic Change</i>	648	<i>Climatic Change</i>	1
2	<i>Global Environmental Change</i>	426	2	<i>PLoS ONE</i>	378	<i>Global Environmental Change</i>	2
3	<i>PNAS</i>	267	3	<i>Global Environmental Change</i>	326	<i>PLoS ONE</i>	3
4	<i>Global Change Biology</i>	260	4	<i>Regional Environmental Change</i>	289	<i>Global Change Biology</i>	3
5	<i>Nature Climate Change</i>	175	5	<i>Global Change Biology</i>	288	<i>PNAS</i>	5
6	<i>Mitigation & Adaptation Strategies for Global Change</i>	116	6	<i>Mitigation & Adaptation Strategies for Global Change</i>	286	<i>Mitigation & Adaptation Strategies for Global Change</i>	5
7	<i>PLoS ONE</i>	83	7	<i>Environmental Science & Policy</i>	211	<i>Regional Environmental Change</i>	7
8	<i>Environmental Science & Policy</i>	80	8	<i>Climate & Development</i>	182	<i>Environmental Science & Policy</i>	8
9	<i>Ecological Economics</i>	75	9	<i>PNAS</i>	167	<i>Climate & Development</i>	9
10	<i>Regional Environmental Change</i>	70	10	<i>Climate Research</i>	165	<i>Nature Climate Change</i>	10
11	<i>Climate Research</i>	66	11	<i>Forest Ecology & Management</i>	158	<i>Climate Research</i>	10
12	<i>Natural Hazards</i>	58	12	<i>Ecology and Society</i>	152	<i>Climate Policy</i>	12
12	<i>Climate Policy</i>	58	13	<i>Shengta Xuebao Acta Ecologica Sinica</i>	131	<i>Ecology and Society</i>	13
12	<i>Climate & Development</i>	58	14	<i>Climate Policy</i>	124	<i>Natural Hazards</i>	14
15	<i>Ecology and Society</i>	54	15	<i>Environmental Research Letters</i>	121	<i>Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change</i>	15

Table 1: Journal citation frequency analysis of IPCC Assessment Report 5, Working Group 2, Global and Sectoral Aspects and journal publication frequency in Scopus research results [TITLE-ABS-KEY(“*adapt*” AND “climate change”)]. Using a comparative methodology for selecting high-impact climate change adaptation literatures applied by Bassett and Fogelman (2013) and Lorenz et al. (2014), journal citation and publication results were ranked and an average rank across both fields was used as a measure of impact. Journals in dark grey have sufficient aims and scope and publication history to include historical perspectives.

