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Meta-analysis of Queensland's coastal Indigenous fisheries: Examining the archaeological evidence for geographic and temporal patterning

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12 Abstract

Marine fisheries have been a critical part of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people's 13 connection to land and sea country in Queensland, Australia for millennia. However, no 14 archaeological studies have examined regional variability in the role of fish within subsistence 15 regimes or the distribution of targeted fish species throughout the Holocene. We utilised a 16 17 meta-analysis approach to conduct the first comprehensive assessment of Indigenous fisheries along the eastern Queensland coast. Data from 44 archaeological sites were grouped according 18 to marine bioregion to facilitate broad comparison between sites across the study area. These 19 20 sites were predominantly associated with mid-to-late Holocene occupation, and provided an assemblage of 45,052 recovered fish bones, of which 6,606 were identified most commonly to 21 22 family-level. Results indicate clear geographic patterning in the ubiquity of fish species captured, and for some marine bioregions an increase through time in the range of species 23 24 targeted. Archaeological data indicate mixed species fisheries, with a complex range of habitats 25 and diverse fish species harvested by people in relative proximity to the sites. These harvesting 26 decisions were mediated by local ecological knowledge, awareness of fish behaviour, and 27 cultural preference for certain species. These outcomes support existing models for the region, 28 which document a shift in subsistence regimes during the mid-to-late Holocene, particularly an increased reliance on marine resources and expansion in diet breadth. Future research needs to 29 address geographic gaps in data availability and implement globally recognised 30 ichthyoarchaeological quantification and identification protocols to comprehensively examine 31

geographic and temporal variability in Queensland's Holocene Indigenous fisheries, and
 contribute to regional models of long-term subsistence change.

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Keywords: fisheries; ichthyoarchaeology; coastal foragers; meta-analysis; zooarchaeology;
Australia; Great Barrier Reef

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38 Highlights

- Archaeological evidence of Queensland's Indigenous fisheries examined
- Ubiquity measures tracked commonly occurring fish species across space and time
- Multiple species from diverse habitats were targeted as part of mixed fisheries
- 42 Some indications that range of targeted species increased throughout the Holocene
- 43 Local ecological knowledge and cultural preference guided species selection

45 **1. Introduction**

46 The sea holds pivotal economic, social, cultural, and spiritual significance for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander traditional owners of Queensland's coasts and islands. Oral histories, 47 documentary sources and archaeological evidence clearly demonstrate that over millennia, 48 coastal foraging and fishing were fundamental to lifeways across this region (e.g. Barker 1989; 49 Haddon 1912; Johannes and MacFarlane 1991; McNiven 2004; McNiven et al. 2006; Petrie 50 1904; Rowland 1982; Sharp 2002; Steele 1972; Ulm and Vale 2006; Weisler and McNiven 51 52 2016). Archaeological research along the eastern coast of Queensland, including the Torres Strait Islands, has been intensive over the past 50 years, and in the case of southeast 53 Queensland, the region has been characterised as one of the most extensively investigated 54 coastal zones in Australia (Smith and McNiven 2019; Ulm and Hall 1996). 55

56 An increase in the establishment of new archaeological sites throughout the Holocene, including offshore island colonisation and use, has been reported for the Queensland coast. 57 However, the majority of coastal site occupation sequences and evidence for increases in site 58 use post-date the mid-Holocene (e.g. Barker 2004; McNiven 1999; Ulm 2006; Walters 1989). 59 This broad regional trend in Queensland coastal Holocene occupation has been attributed to an 60 interplay between diverse social, cultural, environmental, and climatic factors operating at both 61 local and regional scales, such as population expansion, enhanced land-use activities, sea-level 62 stabilisation, increased predictability of marine resource communities, and the emergence of 63 marine specialist economies embedded in social-cultural connections to the coastal landscape 64 and seascape (e.g. Barker 2004; Beaton 1985; McNiven and Feldman 2003; Morwood 1987; 65 Ulm 2011; Walters 1992). The earliest direct dates for the exploitation of coastal resources in 66 67 this region are from the Whitsunday Islands on the central Great Barrier Reef, where oyster (Saccostrea sp.) was dated to 7069-7366 cal BP (ANU-11381, 6700±60 BP) from Nara Inlet 1 68 69 and 6700-7150 cal BP (Beta-56976, 6440±90 BP) from Border Island 1 (Barker 2004; Lamb and Barker 2001). It has been suggested that from the mid-to-late Holocene broad changes in 70 subsistence regimes occurred throughout this region, with more engagement with the marine 71 environment and an expansion in diet breadth, potentially driven by a shift to more generalised 72 shore-based foraging strategies (Barker 2004; David and Weisler 2006; McNiven 1999; 73 Morwood 1987; Ulm 2006; Ulm and Hall 1996; Walters 1989). 74

The role of stone-walled intertidal fishtrap construction in late Holocene cultural change has
been widely discussed (e.g. Lourandos 1997), however, dating the construction and use of these

structures has proven challenging, and generally achieved through dating adjacent deposits 77 (e.g. Bowen 1998; Ulm 2006). These structures serve important economic functions, but are 78 also key components of the cultural and social landscape (McNiven 2004). Rowland and Ulm 79 (2011) reported 159 coastal weir and fishtrap sites for Queensland. The distribution of these 80 sites along the east coast is variable, with fishtraps rare south of Mackay when compared to 81 higher densities to the north, particularly from Mackay to Cairns and the Torres Strait. Few 82 fishtraps sites have been recorded in southeast Queensland, but the greatest concentration is in 83 the Great Sandy Strait at Booral, a region afforded protection by Fraser Island. While it is 84 85 possible that recent development activities have impacted sites in this region, traps and weirs appear to have been less frequently constructed in southeast Queensland (McNiven 1994; 86 Rowland and Ulm 2011). 87

Walters (1986, 1989, 1992) argued for the intensification of southeast Queensland Holocene 88 fisheries from ~3000 BP, as indicated archaeologically by increases in fish bone discard rates 89 90 and the number of sites with evidence of fish exploitation through time. Contrarily, Ulm (2002) reported spatial and temporal variability in the discard of fish remains, indicating the available 91 evidence did not support a regionally uniform intensification of late Holocene southeast 92 Queensland fisheries. However, Ulm (2002) was specifically interested in discard rates and 93 presence/absence of fish remains, rather than variability in species selected and ecological 94 communities exploited across southeast Queensland throughout the Holocene. 95

The most comprehensive archaeological records of mid-to-late Holocene marine fisheries for 96 97 the entire east Queensland coast are currently from the western Torres Strait (Crouch et al. 98 2007; David et al. 2008; David and Weisler 2006; Ghaleb 1990; McNiven et al. 2006; McNiven 99 et al. 2008; McNiven et al. 2015; Weisler and McNiven 2016). Significantly, these fish bone assemblages are unique when compared to other tropical Pacific archaeological sites, due to 100 101 high relative abundances of shark and ray remains, low taxonomic richness, and the small size of captured fish and sharks (Weisler and McNiven 2016). However, the western Torres Strait 102 103 fishing evidence has yet to be considered in the wider context of Great Barrier Reef Indigenous 104 fisheries, which is largely due to an absence of comparative datasets throughout this region. A similar trend is evident when examining the documentary sources of Queensland Indigenous 105 marine fisheries, whereby the most comprehensive ethnographic studies are from the Torres 106 107 Strait (e.g. Haddon 1912; Johannes and MacFarlane 1991), but with almost no equivalent studies available to facilitate a broader regional examination. Most frequently historical 108

accounts of this region emphasised turtle and dugong hunting (e.g. Haddon 1912; Thomson1934).

111 The importance of the marine landscape and seascape throughout the Holocene along the Queensland coast is apparent, as was the increased interaction with and exploitation of diverse 112 marine resources (e.g. molluscs, fish, turtle, dugong, cetacean, etc.) by Aboriginal and Torres 113 Strait Islander peoples (e.g. Crouch et al. 2007; McNiven et al. 2015; Rowland 1982; Smith 114 and McNiven 2019; Ulm 2006; Walters 1992). Yet, large gaps in archaeological knowledge 115 116 along this vast coastline have hindered systematic consideration of the local and regional factors driving variability in subsistence regimes across millennia. In recent years, a 117 118 comprehensive re-analysis of key coastal southeast Queensland sites was undertaken by Smith 119 (2016), with a strong focus on the molluscan records, to examine human behavioural variability throughout the mid-to-late Holocene. Additionally, recent zooarchaeological analyses on sites 120 from the northern Great Barrier Reef have focused on mollusc assemblages (e.g. Aird 2014; 121 122 Ulm et al. in press; Wright 2018). With the exception of the Torres Strait Islands (e.g. Ghaleb 1988; Weisler and McNiven 2016), researchers working on Queensland coastal sites have 123 frequently reported low abundances of fish bone when compared to mollusc remains (e.g. 124 Barker 2004; Beaton 1985; McNiven 1990), a trend potentially driven by preservation, 125 recovery techniques or cultural activity, such as spatially separated discard of fish bone remains 126 127 (McNiven 1991; Ross and Tomkins 2011; Ulm 2002; Ulm and Vale 2006). Regional variability in targeted finfish species exploited throughout the Holocene has not previously been 128 synthesised, nor has the broader role of finfish exploitation in subsistence regimes been 129 assessed in the context of the wider documented changes in coastal economies occurring during 130 the mid-to-late Holocene, such as the localisation of resource use and settlement (e.g. Ulm 131 2011). 132

133 In this paper, we adopt a meta-analysis approach, which has been employed widely in archaeology to examine regional drivers of ecological, social, and cultural change, across a 134 135 range of proxies, including faunal records (Conolly et al. 2011), palaeoclimate (Macklin et al. 136 2015), demography (Armit et al. 2013), palaeopathology (Holloway et al. 2011), and vegetation histories (Payne et al. 2013). In the case of zooarchaeology, meta-analyses facilitate 137 consideration of the broad-scale factors that have influenced resource availability, providing 138 139 an opportunity to explore geographic and temporal variability in resource exploitation (Gaastra et al. 2019), and consider cultural practices and preferences that directly mediate resource 140 selection through time (McKechnie and Moss 2016; Nims and Butler 2019). Here we utilised 141

a meta-analysis approach to examine available fish bone evidence to assess the long-term role
of finfish exploitation on the Queensland coast, and specifically explore geographic and
temporal patterning of Holocene Indigenous fisheries across the region.

145 2. Environmental Context

Queensland's mainland coastline is some 6,900 km in length, and its 1955 islands contribute
an additional ~6,400 km of coastline. The eastern Queensland coastal region is
characteristically diverse in marine faunal distributions and habitat complexity.

149 2.1. Queensland coastal palaeoenvironmental variability

150 Coastal conditions were not consistent along the eastern Queensland coast throughout the Holocene, which has been attributed to variation in the width of the continental shelf among 151 other local factors and their corresponding influence on sea level change across the region (e.g. 152 Hinestrosa et al. 2019; Lewis et al. 2013). Particularly, the magnitude of Queensland's mid-153 154 Holocene sea level highstand and the timing of the successive fall to modern sea levels still requires refinement (Chappell et al. 1982; Lewis et al. 2013; Lewis et al. 2015; Nakada and 155 156 Lambeck 1989; Sloss et al. 2018). Records predominantly from the Great Barrier Reef suggest the occurrence of a drowning event during the early Holocene with more of the shelf flooded 157 158 and increased sediment flux all prior to the modern Holocene reef turn-on ~9,000 years ago (Webster et al. 2018). Evidence for the eastern Queensland coast broadly indicates that sea 159 levels reached modern levels by ~8,000 years ago (Woodroffe 2009), then continued to rise, 160 reaching a +1.0 to 1.5 m highstand by the mid-Holocene, approximately 7,000 to 4000 years 161 ago, prior to falling to modern levels (e.g. Lewis et al. 2008; Perry and Smithers 2011). 162 However, whether this fall was stepped or smooth is unclear (e.g. Perry and Smithers 2011), 163 and regardless it was likely variable across the region. However, current estimations indicate a 164 sustained highstand did occur with a marked fall post-2000 cal BP across the region (Lewis et 165 al. 2008; Lewis et al. 2015; Woodroffe 2009). 166

167 2.2. Characterising marine bioregions and associated biodiversity

The Integrated Marine and Coastal Regionalisation of Australia (IMCRA) provides a spatial framework to classify Australia's marine environments, and facilitates regionally targeted planning and management initiatives (Commonwealth of Australia 2006). Regionalisation allows spatial patterning in the relationship between distributions of species and ecosystems to be evaluated. The provincial bioregions utilised in this study reflect modern biogeographic

patterns in the distributions of demersal (or bottom-dwelling) fish, and by extension these 173 bioregions are assumed to reflect broader patterns in marine biodiversity in extant marine 174 environments (Heap et al. 2005; Last et al. 2005). There are 41 provincial bioregions in 175 Australia's waters. Provinces are regions of biotic endemism, and transitions are areas of 176 mixing, where overlap in species distributions between provinces occur. There are four 177 bioregions represented within the study area, one temperate bioregion, the Central Eastern 178 Shelf Transition (CEST), and three tropical bioregions, the Northeast Shelf Province (NESP), 179 Northeast Shelf Transition (NEST), and Cape Province (CP) (Figure 1). 180

181 The CEST bioregion is situated in southeast Queensland. The input of riverine sediments 182 occurs along the length of the coast in this region (e.g. Logan/Albert Rivers, Brisbane River, and Mary River). Wave action and longshore drift have successively moved sand northwards 183 184 along the inner shelf, and continues to form Moreton and Fraser (K'gari) Islands (Department of Environment 2007). Moreton Bay is one of the largest estuarine systems in Australia, its 185 186 waters extend from Caloundra to the southern tip of South Stradbroke Island, and this region is associated with diverse biota and ecosystem complexity. For instance, extensive seagrass 187 beds provide important feeding habitats for turtles and dugongs, and mangrove forests offer 188 critical nursery habitats for juvenile fish (Dennison and Abal 1999; Morelli and Gasparon 189 2015). Intertidal sand and mudflats are expansive along the coastline of this region (e.g. Great 190 Sandy Strait, Hervey Bay, and Moreton Bay). Recreational fishers in this region most 191 commonly capture whiting (Sillaginidae) and yellowfin bream (Acanthopagrus australis) 192 (Webley et al. 2015). The total annual commercial finfish catch in Queensland over the past 193 five years has been between 8,000-9,000 tonnes and it is valued at ~\$65 million annually 194 (Heaven 2018). Key line and net commercial fisheries in this region include the Rocky Reef 195 Finfish Fishery, which primarily targets snapper (Chrysophrys auratus), and the East Coast 196 197 Inshore Finfish Fishery, Queensland's largest multispecies fishery; subtropical species are normally captured in the southern extent of this fishery, such as mullet (Mugilidae), whiting, 198 199 and yellowfin bream (Heaven 2018).

The NESP is broadly associated with the waters of the central and southern Great Barrier Reef region, NEST, western Torres Strait Islands, CP, eastern Torres Strait Islands, and collectively these marine bioregions are considered a tropical climatic zone. The surface waters of this northeast Queensland region are associated with low primary productivity, and the shallow waters are dominated by coral, which supports diverse faunal communities. Sediment inputs, the frequency and intensity of tropical storms, and strength and distribution of currents

differentially impact the oceanography across these bioregions (Department of Environment 206 2007). The Great Barrier Reef World Heritage Area (GBRWHA), which extends from the tip 207 of Cape York in the north to Lady Elliot Island in the south, incorporates the Great Barrier Reef 208 Region and the Queensland internal waters and islands within its boundary. The 348,000 km² 209 region incorporates ~1050 islands, more than half of the islands in Queensland's waters (Great 210 Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority 2014). The marine ecosystem is unique and biologically 211 diverse, including ~3061 hard and soft coral species and sponges, 3000 mollusc species, 1625 212 bony fish species, and 136 species of sharks and rays; this biodiversity is an aspect of the 213 214 region's outstanding universal value (Lucas et al. 1997; Mapstone et al. 2008; Veron et al. 2009). Recreational fishers commonly capture mullet, whiting, coral trout (*Plectropomus* spp. 215 and Variola spp.), snapper (Lutjanus spp.), grass emperor (Lethrinus laticaudis), parrotfish 216 (Scaridae), and herring (Clupeidae) (Webley et al. 2015). The Torres Strait (NESP and CP 217 bioregions) connects Australia to Papua New Guinea, and is bordered on the east by the ribbon 218 reefs of the Great Barrier Reef. The 275 islands of the Torres Strait extend across 50,000 km². 219 The waters are generally shallow (<20 m), dominated by individual and patch reef complexes, 220 221 and the most extensive seagrass beds in the world (Coles et al. 2003; Harris et al. 2008; Haywood et al. 2007). The marine ecosystems of this region have been characterised as some 222 223 of the healthiest documented globally, and are associated with sizeable populations of finfish, dugong and turtle (Johnson et al. 2015). There are 326 coral reef associated fish species 224 225 documented in the Torres Strait, and these communities are considered to be more similar to northern Great Barrier Reef populations than those from Papua New Guinea (Osborne et al. 226 227 2013). Recreational fishers in this region predominantly capture yellowtail scad (Trachurus novaezelandiae), shark mackerel (Grammatorcynus bicarinatus), coral trout, pilchard 228 (Clupeidae), and trevally (Carangidae) (Webley et al. 2015). 229

230 There are diverse line and net commercial fisheries operating in Queensland's tropical waters (approximately north of Fraser Island). The Coral Reef Finfish Fishery operates within the 231 waters of the GBRWHA and this line fishery predominantly targets common coral trout 232 (Plectropomus leopardus) and red throat emperor (Lethrinus miniatus) (Tobin et al. 2010). The 233 East Coast Spanish Mackerel Fishery targets the entire east Queensland coast, but the largest 234 effort annually is focused between the waters of Bowen and Ingham, given this region provides 235 important spawning habitats for Spanish mackerel (Scomberomorus commerson). The East 236 Coast Inshore Finfish Fishery operates within all east coast waters, but predominantly captures 237 238 tropical species from northern Queensland waters, including barramundi (*Lates calcarifer*),

- 239 blacktip shark (Carcharhinus limbatus), and grey mackerel (Scomberomorus semifasciatus)
- 240 (Heaven 2018).
- 241





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<u>Figure 1:</u> Map of Australia, showing the location of Queensland, with all island and coastal
archaeological sites with fish bone reported and identified labelled. The dotted line shows the
extent of the Great Barrier Reef World Heritage Area and the shaded areas are the IMCRA 4.0:
Provincial Bioregions established by Commonwealth of Australia (2006). Spatial data: Great
Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority (2012) and Natural Earth.

250 **3. Methods**

251 3.1. Establishing a database of available ichthyoarchaeological evidence

A database was compiled of all fish bone identifications from Queensland island and coastal 252 253 archaeological sites. The study area included the New South Wales/Queensland border and 254 extended north to Torres Strait (Figure 1). All available literature was examined for relevant 255 data including published books, edited volumes, journal articles, and unpublished consultancy reports and theses. Few consultancy reports were available for use, and it is assumed this data 256 257 source is underrepresented in the study. The database records key site information, excavation methods, radiocarbon determinations, zooarchaeological analytical protocols, and fish bone 258 259 identification and quantification data. Each site was also grouped according to the four marine 260 bioregions represented within the study area (Figure 1).

Taphonomy, volume/area excavated, mesh size, sample size recovered, and fish bone 261 identification protocols are all factors that can influence the comparability of sites across a 262 region (Lambrides and Weisler 2016; Nims and Butler 2019). The data compiled for this study 263 revealed many inconsistencies in recovery and analytical approaches between investigators. 264 The majority of studies did conduct some fine mesh screening (≤ 3 mm), however, it was 265 frequently unclear whether the fine meshed samples were analysed (Supplementary Table 1). 266 There was inconsistent reporting of the range of fish bone elements considered for 267 identification, and when this data was reported, the majority of analysts considered only a 268 269 limited selection of elements, such as cranials (i.e. most commonly dentaries and premaxillae), 270 teeth and otoliths, which is not consistent with current zooarchaeological standards (e.g. Allen 2017; Bouffandeau et al. 2019; Giovas 2016; Lambrides and Weisler 2015; McKechnie et al. 271 272 2014). For some sites an expanded range of elements was analysed, such as vertebrae and additional cranial elements, including the hyomandibular, posttemporal, and supraoccipital 273 274 (e.g. Ulm and Vale 2006; Vale 2002, 2004; Walters 1979, 1986; Weisler and McNiven 2016). 275 The majority of analysts completed taxonomic identifications without access to extensive 276 reference collections, but there are key exceptions, such as the majority of western Torres Strait archaeological sites (Weisler and McNiven 2016). Additionally, most analysts did not describe 277 278 the quality of the reference collection or provide basic overview data to characterise its suitability and facilitate data quality assessments (e.g. number of specimens, capture 279 techniques, range of species present, key gaps, etc.). There was also inconsistent reporting of 280 quantification protocols and raw bone counts, necessary for inferring identification rates. Some 281

studies reported only minimum number of individuals (MNI) values with limited justification
of how these values were derived (Barker 2004; Bowen 1989; Hall and Bowen 1989; Hermes
1984).

The cited above examples of inconsistent reporting of key primary data (e.g. mesh size, volume 285 excavated, sampling procedures, identification, and quantification protocols, etc.) from sites 286 across the study area made it challenging to directly test the influence of analytical decisions 287 on taxonomic identification, and more broadly their effects on conducting a regional meta-288 analysis of Holocene Queensland Indigenous fisheries. This is critical given previous 289 zooarchaeological meta-analyses have demonstrated that analytical decisions can 290 291 systematically bias outcomes and should be directly accounted for prior to formal modelling (e.g. Orton et al. 2016). As the primary data were not consistently available for all sites, no 292 293 data cleaning or directives for site exclusion from the meta-analysis could be applied, and all available fish bone evidence from the study area was included where possible. Furthermore, 294 295 the decision was made to utilise ubiquity measures and exploratory data analyses, rather than adopt formal modelling approaches that rely on relative taxonomic abundance (i.e. NISP and 296 MNI). For these reasons, the outcomes of the following meta-analysis are considered to be 297 coarse-grained, with results intended to highlight broad scale trends in geographic and temporal 298 patterning of Indigenous fisheries across the region, which should usefully inform future 299 research directives (e.g. Koricheva and Gurevitch 2014). 300

301 3.2. Ubiquity measures and taxonomic representation

302 Ubiquity was the only measure of taxonomic abundance utilised to explore patterning in this regional dataset. Ubiquity measures presence and absence of a species in any given context 303 304 (e.g. stratigraphic units, sites, regions, etc.), which is displayed as a percentage of the total number of contexts in which the species was identified (e.g. Lambrides et al. 2018; McKechnie 305 306 and Moss 2016; Weisler et al. 2016). Ubiquity measures are less influenced by individual bone 307 counts and do not rely on the relative proportion of other species (Lyman 2008), which are 308 particularly impacted by variability in sampling, identification and quantification procedures between contexts. For this reason relative abundance measures including number of identified 309 310 specimens (NISP) and MNI were not evaluated in this study. Following McKechnie and Moss (2016), we consider ubiquity to be a measure of the regularity any given species is used or 311 present across the study area. Ubiquity values are useful for examining local and regional 312

patterning in species use, as well as temporal continuity or discontinuity in the exploitation ofa taxon.

Ubiquity values are still influenced by sample size and analytical procedures. Well sampled 315 and comprehensively analysed fish bone assemblages would predictably be associated with 316 more representative ubiquity values (i.e., identification of rare species), and in the opposite 317 case, only the most common species are likely to be identified (McKechnie and Moss 2016). 318 A Spearman's correlation coefficient (r_s) was calculated to test whether NISP was correlated 319 320 with NTAXA (number of taxa identified) across all sites and verify whether sample size was driving NTAXA estimations. Toulkerrie (1989), Border Island 1, Hill Inlet 1, Mazie Bay, and 321 322 Nara Inlet 1 were excluded from this test as only MNI values were reported for these sites (Supplementary Table 1). A correlation between NISP and NTAXA was reported ($r_s = 0.79$, p323 324 = <0.001). Further examination of this trend suggests that on average NTAXA is very low at ~4.0 across all sites. In addition, the sites in the lowest 20th percentile—determined using 325 NISP—have a lower than average NTAXA of 1.0, and the sites in the 80th or higher percentile 326 range have a larger than average NTAXA of ~8.0. When each archaeological site is grouped 327 according to the four IMCRA Provincial Bioregions (CEST, NESP, NEST, and CP) 328 329 represented in the study area, it is apparent that each bioregion is associated with a relatively even distribution of both small and large assemblages. As such, we concur with McKechnie 330 331 and Moss (2016) and argue that given ubiquity tracks the most regularly occurring taxa, even for those assemblages with comparatively low sample size, the most common taxa should still 332 333 be represented in these cases. Therefore, ubiquity measures are particularly useful in this study to facilitate broad comparison between sites distributed across each bioregion. 334

335 3.3. Examining geographic and temporal patterning in taxonomic ubiquity

336 The evaluation of geographic and temporal patterning in taxonomic ubiquity follows methods established by McKechnie and Moss (2016) for a meta-analysis of Indigenous fisheries of the 337 northwest coast of North America. NTAXA values were used to examine geographic and 338 temporal variability in Holocene Queensland Indigenous fisheries to provide a conservative 339 approximation of taxonomic richness at each site. The use of NTAXA in this case was intended 340 to account for inter-analyst variability in analytical protocols and also instances of potential 341 342 over-identification given comprehensive reference collections were not consistently available. All fish bone identifications allocated a cf. or uncertain taxonomic designation were collapsed 343

to the highest certain taxonomic rank, however, uncertain identifications at the family level or
above were excluded from analysis and reassigned to 'unidentified fish bone'.

Geographic variability was tested by grouping archaeological sites according to IMCRA 346 Provincial Bioregions (Figure 1) to characterise broad differences in species selection along 347 the eastern Queensland coast. Due to inconsistent availability of radiocarbon dates between 348 sites, temporal patterning could only be examined across 500 year intervals, whereby broad 349 scale changes in fisheries exploitation were examined for each bioregion. A number of sites 350 351 and excavation units were excluded from consideration of temporal variability. Specifically, 11 sites were excluded entirely from consideration of temporal variability, however 75% of 352 353 sites identified within the study area were suitable for analysis. For some sites, no dates were 354 directly associated with the identified fish bone remains – Broadbeach Burial Ground (Square 355 P53), Hollywell (Square 3B), NRS 7, NRS 8, NRS 10, Sandstone Point (Squares 31F and 50F), White Patch Site 1, and White Patch Site 2. At other sites the vertical distribution of fish bones 356 357 (e.g. XUs and/or XU depths) into 500 year temporal units was compromised by either insufficient reporting or chrono-stratigraphic complexities (Border Island, Goemu (1985), Hill 358 Inlet, Mask Cave, Nara Inlet 1, Nara Inlet Art Site, and Wallen Wallen Creek). Correspondence 359 360 analysis (CA) was used to test similarity and dissimilarity in faunal composition using ubiquity data aggregated by NTAXA. This broad scale exploratory data analysis is useful for examining 361 whether a taxon is more associated with a particular bioregion and how this may change 362 through time. CA was conducted to explore associations between taxonomic composition and 363 (a) IMCRA Provincial Bioregions (geographic patterning), and (b) 500 year temporal units 364 within IMCRA Provincial Bioregions (temporal variability). This approach was adopted to 365 identify geographic gaps in the archaeological knowledge for the study area, as well as 366 highlight preliminary local and regional trends in the Indigenous fisheries literature that will 367 368 require further examination.

369 **4. Results**

The study area is represented by 44 archaeological sites associated with the recovery and taxonomic identification of fish remains. The majority of sites have mid-to-late Holocene occupation sequences (Supplementary Table 2). These sites excavated over the past 50 years provide a dataset of 45,052 recovered fish bones, and of these, 14.3% have been identified to family, genus or species by 19 different analysts, and as such, the NISP of 6,606 was the complete dataset examined for this study. It should be noted that total fish bone counts and NISP values were not consistently reported in the literature, nor were identifications
systematically completed for all sites, as in the case of the Lazaret Midden and eastern Torres
Strait sites where the fish bone assemblages were sub-sampled for analysis, and this is expected
to have influenced counts of recovered and identified fish bone remains (Supplementary Table
1). This study sourced data from grey literature where available, including unpublished theses
(42.9%) and consultancy reports (9.5%), and peer-reviewed literature, such as books, edited
volumes and journal articles (47.6%).

Across all sites, the reported NTAXA was 31, and when grouped by bioregion, lower NTAXA values were associated with each bioregion (CEST=20, NESP=15, NEST=15, and CP=6), demonstrating the variability in the range of taxa represented at archaeological sites grouped within each bioregion (Table 1). Sparids and sillaginids are the most ubiquitous taxa across the study area, and are represented at approximately half of the sampled sites (Figure 2). An additional five taxa—labrids, mugilids, scarids, elasmobranchs, and lethrinids—were present at ~20% of sites within the study area.

391 <u>Table 1:</u> Ubiquity values for fish identified from all island and coastal sites in Queensland
392 within the study area. Sites are grouped by IMCRA 4.0: Provincial Bioregions established by
393 the Commonwealth of Australia (2006) and fish identifications were aggregated by mutually
394 exclusive categories (NTAXA). Taxa that are associated with greater than 20% of sites are
395 shaded grey.

			Central	Northeast	Northeast	
			Eastern Shelf	Shelf	Shelf	Cape
		All sites	Transition	Province	Transition	Province
		<i>n</i> = 44	<i>n</i> = 21	<i>n</i> = 11	<i>n</i> = 8	<i>n</i> = 4
Taxon	Common name	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Sparidae	Breams	61	81	82	13	-
Sillaginidae	Whiting	48	67	64	-	-
Labridae	Wrasses	36	5	45	75	100
Mugilidae	Mullets	32	43	27	25	-
Scaridae	Parrotfishes	32	-	36	100	50
Elasmobranchii	Sharks, Skates and Rays	27	5	9	100	25
Lethrinidae	Emperors	23	-	36	50	50
Ariidae	Catfish	11	19	9	-	-
Platycephalidae	Flatheads	11	10	27	-	-
Serranidae	Groupers	11	-	9	50	-
Tetraodontidae	Pufferfish	11	-	-	63	-
Atherinidae	Hardyheads	9	10	18	-	-
Carangidae	Jacks	9	-	-	38	25
Lutjanidae	Snappers	9	-	18	25	-
Haemulidae	Grunts	7	5	9	13	-
Hemiramphidae	Halfbeaks	7	14	-	-	-
Sciaenidae	Drums	7	14	-	-	-
Siganidae	Rabbitfish	7	14	-	-	-
Anguilliformes	True Eels	5	-	9	13	-
Latidae	Barramundi	5	5	9	-	-
Plotosidae	Eeltail Catfish	5	10	-	-	-
Centropomidae	Snooks	2	-	-	13	-
Chaetodontidae	Butterflyfishes	2	-	-	13	-
Clupeidae	Herring	2	5	-	-	-
Diodontidae	Porcupinefish	2	-	-	13	-
Kyphosidae	Sea Chubs	2	5	-	-	-
Polynemidae	Threadfins	2	5	-	-	-
Pomatomidae	Tailor	2	5	-	-	-
Scombridae	Mackerel, tuna and bonito	2	_	-	-	25
Synanceiidae	Stonefishes	2	5	-	-	-
Uranoscopidae	Stargazers	2	5	-	-	-



400

399

401 <u>Figure 2:</u> Ubiquity values of all fish identified from island and coastal sites (n = 44) in 402 Queensland within the study area. Fish identifications were aggregated by mutually exclusive 403 categories (NTAXA).

404

405 4.1. Geographic patterning in taxonomic ubiquity

Figure 3a presents the correspondence analysis of taxonomic ubiquity across bioregions, with
all data grouped to broadly characterise geographic variability in species selection. Axis 1
accounts for 63.7% of variance and axis 2 accounts for 22.7%. Axis 1 discriminates between

IMCRA Provincial Bioregions; positive axis 1 scores are associated with the CEST (a 409 temperate bioregion) and the NESP (a tropical bioregion). Given the Curtis Coast sites are 410 situated near estuarine habitats and represent 45% of the sites for the NESP bioregion, this 411 likely accounts for the higher than expected taxonomic similarity between sites grouped in the 412 CEST and NESP. Negative axis 1 scores are associated with the NEST and CP, both tropical 413 bioregions, and are characterised by waters that tend to be dominated by coral. Accordingly, 414 axis 1 scores are positively loaded by estuarine and inshore coastal species (e.g. sparids, 415 sillaginids, and ariids), and negatively loaded by reef dwelling species (e.g. scarids, 416 417 elasmobranchs, lutjanids, and serranids). Together the NEST and CP bioregions are the most distinct in terms of unique taxonomic categories from the CEST bioregion. Specifically, there 418 are four families that only occur at sites within the NEST (Chaetodontidae, Centropomidae, 419 Diodontidae, and Tetraodontidae), one family within the CP (Scombridae), and ten families 420 unique to sites within the CEST (Clupeidae, Hemiramphidae, Kyphosidae, Plotosidae, 421 Polynemidae, Pomatomidae, Sciaenidae, Siganidae, Synanceiidae, and Uranoscopidae). 422

423 4.2. Temporal variability in taxonomic ubiquity

Figures 3b-d present the correspondence analyses on temporal variability in taxonomic 424 ubiquity for each bioregion. Variability was assessed across 500 year temporal periods due to 425 the uneven representation of radiocarbon dates for each site across the study area. Hence, a 426 427 high-resolution consideration of change through time was not feasible. In terms of sample size, the most detailed records available are for the last ~2000 years, and accordingly the majority 428 of fish bone taxonomic identifications are associated with the late Holocene. There were 429 insufficient records available for the Cape Province bioregion to consider temporal variability, 430 431 and the sites grouped within this bioregion were excluded from analysis.

432 *4.2.1. Central Eastern Shelf Transition*

Axis 1 accounts for 43.1% of the variance and axis 2 accounts for 17.7% (Figure 3b). Positive axis 1 scores are associated with temporal units that post-date 2000 cal BP (0-2000 cal BP), and are characterised by more taxonomic categories, when compared to negative axis 1 scores, which are associated with temporal units that pre-date 2000 cal BP (2000-3500 cal BP), and are associated with only three families (ariids, sciaenids, and sparids). In terms of variability in the representation of distinct taxa through time, five families only occur in 0-500 cal BP deposits (Clupeidae, Kyphosidae, Labridae, Platycephalidae, and Uranoscopidae), one family 500-1000 cal BP (Polynemidae), and two families were unique to 1500-2000 cal BP deposits
(Latidae and Synanceiidae).

442 *4.2.2. Northeast Shelf Province*

Axis 1 accounts for 31.0% of the variance and axis 2 accounts for 20.3% (Figure 3c), which suggests limited association of axis 1 scores with temporal units. The majority of taxonomic categories are associated with all temporal units, particularly labrids, sillaginids, and sparids, which are reported from sites across the majority of temporal units (0-5500 cal BP). Two distinct taxonomic categories are associated with 0-500 cal BP deposits (Anguilliformes and Lethrinidae), and one family was unique to 1000-1500 cal BP (Scaridae) and 2000-2500 cal BP (Ariidae) deposits.

450 *4.2.3. Northeast Shelf Transition*

Axis 1 accounts for 35.3% of the variance and axis 2 accounts for 33.0% (Figure 3d). Negative axis 1 scores are associated with temporal units that pre-date 1000 cal BP (1000-3500 cal BP, and are strongly associated with three taxonomic categories (elasmobranchs, scarids, and sparids). Positive axis 1 scores are associated with temporal units that post-date 1000 cal BP (0-1000 cal BP), and are characterised by the majority of taxonomic categories. Distinct taxa were associated with some temporal units, including 0-500 cal BP (Anguilliformes), 500-1000 cal BP (Carangidae, Diodontidae, and Mugilidae), and 1500-2000 cal BP (Sparidae) deposits.



460

<u>Figure 3:</u> Correspondence analysis of taxonomic ubiquity. (a) geographic patterning between
IMCRA Provincial Bioregions, and temporal variability across 500 year temporal units for the
(b) Central Eastern Shelf Transition (CEST), (c) Northeast Shelf Province (NESP), and (d)
Northeast Shelf Transition (NEST). Temporal variability for Cape Province (CP) was not
considered due to low sample size.

466

467 **5. Discussion**

The east Queensland coast is an expansive region and throughout the Holocene was associated with significant cultural and ecological variability (e.g. Barker 2004; Smith and McNiven 2019; Ulm 2011), and this study aimed to synthesise the available archaeological evidence for Holocene Indigenous fisheries across this region. The majority of sites in the study area have mid-to-late Holocene occupation sequences, and the most detailed records of finfish exploitation currently available are for the late Holocene. Given the acknowledged limitations of the dataset, ubiquity rather than taxonomic abundance was considered the most meaningful

measure for assessing the regularity any given species was used or present across the study 475 area, and for examining coarse-grained geographic and temporal patterning within and across 476 the designated marine bioregions (CEST, NESP, NEST, and CP). Broadly, results indicate that 477 multiple species were targeted across Queensland by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander 478 peoples during the late Holocene as part of mixed fisheries, in contrast with single species 479 480 fisheries that have been documented in other global settings (e.g. Orton *et al.* 2014). This result importantly indicates that Queensland Indigenous peoples interacted with a complex range of 481 marine and estuarine habitats, and developed locally and regionally diverse subsistence 482 483 regimes.

484 Clear geographic variability was documented across marine bioregions, with no single fish species associated with the majority of sites in the study area. This variability in targeted 485 486 species was pronounced between the temperate (CEST) and tropical (NESP, NEST, and CP) zones, and is likely a result of habitat variability and the associated range of species available 487 488 for acquisition. However, there are some commonalities in the distribution of species; for instance sparids, sillaginids, labrids, mugilids, and scarids are associated with >30% of sites 489 across the study area. These trends are largely driven by sites situated in the CEST bioregion, 490 which account for almost 50% of all sites within the study area, but the majority of the fish 491 bone analyses were completed pre-2000 (e.g. Frankland 1990; Walters 1986), and analytical 492 methods have since developed. Overall, results indicate that people were exploiting the marine 493 494 and estuarine habitats in relative proximity to the occupation sites and targeting readily available fish species, such as sillaginids and sparids from more temperate and inshore waters 495 of southeast Queensland, and further north, labrids and scarids, where more tropical reef 496 dwelling species occur. While local ecology will influence the range of species available for 497 exploitation, cultural practice and preference also importantly determine resource selection 498 499 (Barber 2004; Jones 2009; Leach and Davidson 2000; McKechnie and Moss 2016; Speller et al. 2005). In the western Torres Strait, one of the few regions in the study area where sufficient 500 501 evidence is available, indications suggest cultural preference was a critical factor in mediating 502 resource selection (Weisler and McNiven 2016). Western Torres Strait fisheries are unique within a tropical Pacific context; specifically, the archaeological record indicates low fish 503 species richness, small exploited fish size, and a dominance of sharks and rays (e.g. Crouch et 504 al. 2007; David et al. 2008; McNiven et al. 2006; Weisler and McNiven 2016). Ethnographic 505 and archaeological evidence suggests western Torres Strait fish catch composition relates to 506 both cultural dictates and the overall role of fish within subsistence regimes, given the 507

preference for dugong and turtle hunting due to the associated social, spiritual and ritual
significance (e.g. Ghaleb 1990; Haddon 1912; Johannes and MacFarlane 1991; McNiven and
Bedingfield 2008).

511 Temporal variability in taxonomic ubiquity was considered across bioregions and some changes in the acquisition of species through time were documented by this study. The CEST 512 and NEST bioregions, situated at the southern and northern extents of the study area 513 respectively, provided the most comprehensive fish bone records by which to consider 514 515 temporal variability. Broadly, there is evidence for an increase in the range of fish species exploited through time (CEST and NEST bioregions). However, to what extent this is a 516 517 reflection of changes in resource selection or a product of taphonomy, given identification rate is higher for the more recently deposited assemblages, requires further examination such as 518 519 targeted taphonomic studies. These preliminary outcomes do support existing models for the region that document a shift in subsistence regimes during the mid-to-late Holocene, 520 521 specifically an expansion in diet breadth, potentially related to the adoption of more generalised shore-based foraging strategies (e.g. Barker 2004; McNiven 1999; Ulm 2011; Ulm and Hall 522 1996; Walters 1989). 523

In the case of southeast Queensland (CEST bioregion), Walters (1986) argued that an 524 intensification of fisheries in this region occurred from ~3000 BP, as supported by increases 525 through time in fish bone discard rates and the number of sites with evidence of fish bone 526 discard. Conversely, Ulm's (2002) review of the available fish bone evidence documented 527 regional variability in fish bone discard rates, rather than a uniform late Holocene 528 529 intensification. Alterations through time in fish species acquisition across southeast Queensland had not previously been considered, and the results of this preliminary study 530 suggest an increase in diet breadth or range of fish species targeted throughout the late 531 532 Holocene. These outcomes do highlight a research avenue that requires further analysis, particularly the local and regional drivers for this previously unreported increase in the range 533 534 of fish species targeted across southeast Queensland over the past ~3500 years. A combination of reanalysing existing fish bone collections and renewed excavation and recovery efforts will 535 provide additional datasets necessary for assessing the long-term dynamics of Indigenous 536 fisheries in this region. 537

This meta-analysis of Holocene Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander finfish exploitation alongthe east Queensland coast has demonstrated that the available sample of identified

archaeological fish bone remains is limited. The region is associated with ~13,000 km of 540 expansive coastline, but there are only 6,606 fish bone identifications (an average of only one 541 identified fish bone for every 2 km of coastline) available to examine local and regional 542 variability in fisheries. Comparability between sites in the study area is hindered by a 543 combination of factors, such as variability in analytical techniques, sampling protocols, and 544 inconsistency in the quality and availability of comparative reference collections over the past 545 50 years. However, it is the inconsistent reporting of this primary data (e.g. mesh size, volume 546 excavated, sampling procedures, identification, and quantification protocols, etc.) that limits 547 548 our ability to directly test the effects of sampling and analytical decision-making on taxonomic 549 identifications (Nims and Butler 2019).

550 Due to the uneven representation of sites across the study area, variable fish bone assemblage 551 size between sites, and the non-uniform reporting of primary data by analysts, this study was principally concerned with tracking variability in the occurrence of the most commonly 552 553 targeted species across space and time, to report broad changes in subsistence regimes and directives for future research. The most comprehensive datasets currently available from the 554 study region are southeast Queensland and western Torres Strait, however, unquestionably the 555 Torres Strait records provide an unparalleled record of Queensland Indigenous fisheries (e.g. 556 Weisler and McNiven 2016). There are currently significant geographic gaps in our knowledge 557 of Holocene Indigenous fisheries throughout the islands of the Great Barrier Reef and the 558 559 coastline of central Queensland. Given the majority of research detailed in this study was conducted 20+ years ago, where possible, reanalysis of these fish bone assemblages would 560 produce renewed insights into the fisheries of this region. 561

562 **6.** Conclusion

This study documented local and regional variability in the fish species captured by Aboriginal 563 564 and Torres Strait Islander peoples along Queensland's east coast throughout the Holocene. Results demonstrate that these were mixed fisheries, where diverse fish species and a complex 565 566 range of marine and estuarine habitats were exploited, likely in accordance with local ecological knowledge, understandings of fish behaviour and seasonality, and cultural 567 568 preference for certain species. However, available archaeological records of Indigenous fisheries are geographically patchy and heavily weighted towards the late Holocene, which 569 restricts our ability to disentangle these complex human-environmental interactions, as well as 570 peoples changing connections with the marine landscape and seascape over millennia. The 571

572 potential of meta-analyses for discerning temporal and geographic patterning in Queensland's 573 Indigenous fisheries has been established by this study. Future research will aim to target the 574 islands of the Great Barrier Reef, implement fine mesh screening, and globally recognised 575 ichthyoarchaeological quantification and identification protocols. This approach will enhance 576 our ability to build local and regional models of long-term subsistence change along 577 Queensland's east coast, and importantly discern the economic and cultural role of fish and 578 fishing practices at diverse spatial and temporal scales.

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855 Supplementary material

856 <u>Supplementary Table 1:</u> Summary of available archaeological fish bone evidence from all island and coastal sites (n = 44) in Queensland within

the study area. Note — total recovered fish bone calculation method: For sites where total bone count was provided, this number was used. For

- sites where only NISP was provided, this number was used. For each site, NISP *or* total bone count was summed to find the total number of bones
- 859 recovered for the study area.

Bioregion ^a	Site	Area excavated ^b (m ²)	Volume excavated ^b (m ³)	Mesh size (mm)	Total bones	NISP ^c	% identified	NTAXA	Reference
Central East	tern Shelf Transition								
	Booral Shell Mound	0.25	0.34	5 & 2	1470	47	3.2	8	Frankland 1990
	Broadbeach Burial Ground	228	-	-	-	6	-	1	Bartholomai 1976
	Cameron Point 62	0.5	0.26	3	2	2	100	1	McNiven 1990; Smith 2016
	Double Island Point 1	13.21	2.10	3	-	4	-	1	McNiven 1990
	First Ridge 19B	0.25	0.50	6&3	-	1	-	1	Robins 1983
	Hollywell	1.50	0.75	6&3	56	50	89.2	4	Robins et al. 2005
	Lazaret Midden	0.75	0.38	6, 3 & 1	572	2	0.3	1	Ross and Tomkins 2011
	Little Sandhills	90	4.50	6&3	-	18	-	3	Robins 1983
	Minner Dint	2	2.80	6&3	-	33	-	4	Walters 1979
	NRS 7	0.75	0.38	3	126	37	29.4	4	Neal 1984; Walters 1986
	NRS 8	1	0.13	3	61	27	44.3	2	Neal 1984; Walters 1986
	NRS 10	0.25	0.17	3	87	25	28.7	5	Neal 1984; Walters 1986
	Sandstone Point (1972)	5	2.50	-	-	57	-	4	Crooks 1982; Haglund 1974
	Sandstone Point (1984)	0.5	0.60	3	906	166	18.3	7	Walters 1986
	Sandstone Point (1985)	1	0.50	3	1871	762	40.7	10	Nolan 1986

	St Helena Island	0.25	0.13	2	576	177	30.7	7	Alfredson 1984; Walters 1986
	Teewah Beach Site 26	2.25	6.21	3	-	4	-	1	McNiven 1990
	Tin Can Bay Site 75b	0.5	0.46	3	5	1	20	1	McNiven 1990; Smith 2016
	Toulkerrie (1978)	5.5	7.18	6, 3 & 1	1599	1594	99.7	6	Hall 1984; Walters 1979, 1980
	Toulkerrie (1985)	0.5	-	3	738	180	24.4	5	Walters 1986
	Toulkerrie (1989)	0.75	0.41	3	-	57 ^d	-	4	Bowen 1989; Hall and Bowen 1989
	Wallen Wallen Creek	4	-	-	297	48	16.2	3	Neal and Stock 1986; Walters 1986
	White Patch Site 1	3	-	-	-	2	-	1	Crooks 1982; Haglund 1974
	White Patch Site 2	3	-	-	-	3	-	1	Crooks 1982; Haglund 1974
	White Patch Site 3	4.5	-	-	-	36	-	3	Crooks 1982; Haglund 1974
Northeast S	Shelf Province								
	Border Island 1	0.25	0.10	3	-	10 ^d	-	5	Barker 2004
	Eurimbula Site 1	1	0.81	3	1044	16	1.5	3	Ulm 2004, 2006b; Vale 2002, 2004
	Hill Inlet 1	0.25	0.20	3	-	8 ^d	-	4	Barker 2004
	Ironbark Site Complex	0.5	0.17	3	3	3	100	1	Ulm 2004, 2006b; Vale 2002, 2004
	Mazie Bay	12	-	3.2	-	94 ^d	-	6	Hermes 1984; Rowland 1981, 1985
	Mort Creek Site Complex	0.25	0.16	3	1635	34	2.1	4	Ulm 2004, 2006b; Vale 2002, 2004
	Nara Inlet 1	0.75	-	3	-	36 ^d	-	6	Barker 1989, 2004
	Nara Inlet Art Site	0.5	-	3	103	14	13.6	3	Barker 2004; Brian 1994
	Otterbourne Island Site 4	1	0.41	2.1	233	152	65.2	6	McNiven et al. 2014
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	0.25	0.25	3	1346	54	4.0	4	Ulm 2004, 2006b; Vale 2002, 2004
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	1.25	1.07	3	2633	15	0.6	4	Ulm 2004, 2006b; Vale 2002, 2004
Northeast S	Shelf Transition								

	Badu 19	1	0.52	3	63	29	46.0	5	Crouch <i>et al.</i> 2007; Weisler and McNiven 2016
	Freshwater Bay Midden (1992)	0.25	0.30	5 & 2.5	60	53	88.3	3	Mills 1992
	Freshwater Bay Midden (2009)	0.24	0.34	4	-	1	-	1	Lentfer et al. 2013
	Goemu (1985)	0.75	0.30	4 & 2	19176	767	4.0	10	Ghaleb 1990
	Goemu (2005)	1	2.02	2.1	4519	1538	34.0	8	McNiven <i>et al.</i> 2015; Weisler and McNiven 2016
	Kurturniaiwak	0.5	0.51	3	931	24	2.6	7	David and Weisler 2006; Weisler and McNiven 2016
	Mangrove Beach Headland	1	1.52	2.36	63	31	49.2	2	Aird 2014; Ulm et al. in press
	Mask Cave	0.25	0.28	3	94	39	41.5	3	McNiven <i>et al.</i> 2006; Weisler and McNiven 2016
	Mua	0.25	0.15	3	48	10	20.8	4	David <i>et al.</i> 2008; Weisler and McNiven 2016
	Tigershark Rockshelter	0.25	0.08	3 & 1	338	288	85.2	10	McNiven <i>et al.</i> 2008; Weisler and McNiven 2016
Cape Provi	nce								
	Kurkur Weid	1	1.3	6 & 3	30	1	3.3	1	Carter 2004
	Ormi	2	4.6	6 & 3	2121	23	1.1	3	Carter 2004
	Pitkik	1	0.5	6 & 3	34	1	2.9	1	Carter 2004
	Sokoli	2	4.7	6&3	1842	26	1.4	6	Carter 2004

860 ^a Following IMCRA 4.0: Provincial Bioregions established by the Commonwealth of Australia (2006).

861 ^b Area and volume excavated was calculated only for the units where fish bone was recovered and identifications attempted.

862 ^c NISP values exclude unidentified and tentatively identified specimens.

863 ^d Represents MNI values as NISP values were not published for these sites.

864 <u>Supplementary Table 2:</u> Radiocarbon determinations for island and coastal archaeological sites in Queensland within the study area. Radiocarbon 865 ages were only included for the sites and squares where fish bone identifications were reported and available site data allowed grouping of these

in 500 year temporal units. Dates were calibrated using OxCal 4.3 (Bronk Ramsey 2009). For organics and charcoal dates, SHCal13 calibration

dataset (Hogg *et al.* 2013) were used for sites south of and including the Northumberland Group, and IntCal13 calibration dataset (Reimer *et al.*

868 2013) for sites north of and including Lizard Island. Note all dated organics and charcoal samples were unidentified. For marine shell, a Marine 13

calibration dataset (Reimer *et al.* 2013), with a ΔR of -12±10 was used (Ulm 2006a). * = date may extend out of range.

Bioregion ^a	Site	Lab. Code	SQ.	XU	Depth (cm)	Sample	¹⁴ C Age (years BP)	Calibrated Age BP (95.4%)	Median Calibrated Age BP	Reference
Central East	tern Shelf Transition									
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-37394	А	2	9.5	charcoal	980±60	734-954	846	Frankland 1990
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-36303	А	7	39.5	charcoal	1750±60	1434-1805	1624	Frankland 1990
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-36304	А	11	59	charcoal	2480±60	2353-2711	2519	Frankland 1990
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-38415	А	14	75	charcoal	2660±60	2490-2869	2744	Frankland 1990
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-38242	А	17	91.2	charcoal	2790±80	2740-3070	2863	Frankland 1990
	Booral Shell Mound	Beta-32046	А	25	137.1	charcoal	2950±60	2869-3223	3049	Frankland 1990
	Broadbeach Burial Ground	ANU-67/2	T52-53	-	65-97	charcoal	440±100	154-630	429	Haglund 1976
	Broadbeach Burial Ground	ANU-67/3	T52-53	-	65-97	charcoal	460±100	283-636	449	Haglund 1976
	Broadbeach Burial Ground	ANU-68/1	Q54- 55, R55	-	49-72	charcoal	1190±100	820-1280	1063	Haglund 1976
	Broadbeach Burial Ground	ANU-68/2	Q54- 55, R55	-	49-72	charcoal	1390±100	988-1470	1246	Haglund 1976
	Cameron Point 62	Beta-34400	В	6	14-17	charcoal	190±50	0*-291	164	McNiven 1990
	Cameron Point 62	Beta-34401	В	10	27-30	charcoal	950±60	690-930	823	McNiven 1990
	Double Island Point 1	Beta-34059	T3/3	6	47-54	charcoal	160±90	0*319	149	McNiven 1990
	First Ridge 19B	Beta-1946	D	1-2	0-12	marine shell ^j	1150±70	555-849	696	Kelly 1982

Hollywell	Wk-15967	1D	4	-	marine shell ^c	644±30	147-386	279	Robins et al. 2005
Hollywell	Wk-15968	1D	7	-	marine shell ^c	1167±39	636-785	702	Robins et al. 2005
Hollywell	Wk-15969	1D	14	-	marine shell ^c	1430±39	882-1070	965	Robins et al. 2005
Hollywell	Wk-15970	2D	4	-	marine shell ^c	717±35	276-437	353	Robins et al. 2005
Hollywell	Wk-15971	2D	7	-	marine shell ^c	984±37	504-634	567	Robins et al. 2005
Hollywell	Wk-15972	2D	9	-	marine shell ^c	1248±42	685-889	779	Robins et al. 2005
Lazaret Midden	Wk-8012	B4	1	0	marine shell ^q	480±50	0*-230	91	Ross 2000
Lazaret Midden	Wk-8009	B4	12	30	charcoal	500±50	332-557	507	Ross 2000
Lazaret Midden	Wk-8013	B4	12	30	marine shell ^q	840±50	331-532	460	Ross 2000
Lazaret Midden	Wk-8014	B4	17	47	marine shell ^q	1420±50	824-1082	957	Ross 2000
Little Sandhills	Beta-1945	F4	-	0-7	marine shell ^j	0±0	26*-48*	36	Kelly 1982
Minner Dint	I-11095	В	SUB2	-	charcoal	520±75	325-642	513	Hall 1980
Sandstone Point (1972)	SUA-478	42/G	3	-	charcoal	620±95	466-722	585	Gillespie and Temple 1977
Sandstone Point (1972)	SUA-479	42/G	3b	-	charcoal	780±95	540-904	681	Gillespie and Temple 1977
Sandstone Point (1984)	SUA-2358	1	24	60-62	charcoal	500±50	332-557	507	Walters 1986
Sandstone Point (1984)	SUA-2357	1	32	87-90	charcoal	740±50	559-722	644	Walters 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-15805	2	15-20	40-58	charcoal	1190±100	820-1280	1063	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta- 15806/A	4	6-7	10-15	charcoal	320±50	154*-487	373	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta- 15806/B	4	6-7	10-15	charcoal	340±70	152*-500	376	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-16837	4	8-9	15-20	charcoal	810±80	557-903	703	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-15807	4	15-18	31-40	charcoal	1500±110	1094-1606	1369	Nolan 1986

Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-16838	5	9	18-23	charcoal	1600±80	1302-1690	1454	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta- 15810/A	5	10-11	23-33	charcoal	1990±60	1739-2040	1900	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta- 15810/B	5	10-11	23-33	charcoal	2290±100	2000-2694	2245	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-15808	7	11	23-25	charcoal	0±0	124*-135*	130	Nolan 1986
Sandstone Point (1985)	Beta-15809	7	21-23	49-57	charcoal	740±80	542-763	646	Nolan 1986
St Helena Island	Beta-6140	1	9	18.5- 21.5	marine shell ^m	1370±60	759-1045	901	Alfredson 1983
St Helena Island	Beta-6141	1	13	33-36	marine shell ^m	2240±70	1635-2003	1829	Alfredson 1983
Teewah Beach Site 26	Beta-30401	H15-4	3	146- 150	charcoal	340±70	152*-500	376	McNiven 1990
Teewah Beach Site 26	Beta-25511	H16- 3&-4	19- 20,19 -20	173- 177	charcoal	950±100	664-1046	825	McNiven 1990
Teewah Beach Site 26	Beta-30399	I16-3+- 4&H16 -1	23,23 ,24	181- 185	charcoal	1070±70	773-1067	930	McNiven 1990
Teewah Beach Site 26	Beta-30400	H16- 1+- 2&I16- 3	27- 28,28 ,26	190- 195	charcoal	3140±100	3005-3559	3291	McNiven 1990
Teewah Beach Site 26	Beta-25512	H16-3	27	199- 206	charcoal	4780±80	5305-5640	5470	McNiven 1990
Tin Can Bay Site 75b	Beta-19421	А	7	18-21	marine shell ⁿ	700±70	147*-480	340	McNiven 1990
Toulkerrie (1978)	I-11096	G50/16 /C	SU2	~97	charcoal	370±75	154*-516	391	Hall 1984
Toulkerrie (1989)	Beta-32049	Tr 3	III	56	charcoal	310±80	0*-501	333	Hall and Bowen 1989
Toulkerrie (1989)	Beta-32796	Tr 2	Ι	25	charcoal	350±70	153*-503	382	Hall and Bowen 1989
Toulkerrie (1989)	Beta-32048	Tr 2	II	72	charcoal	2150±80	1919-2317	2100	Hall and Bowen 1989
Toulkerrie (1989)	Beta-32047	Tr 1	II	70	charcoal	2290±80	2017-2459	2240	Hall and Bowen 1989
White Patch Site 3	SUA-480	C50b	SUb	0	charcoal	450±95	284*-630	442	Gillespie and Temple 1977

	White Patch Site 3	SUA-481	C50d	SUd	25	charcoal	670±95	502-730	607	Gillespie and Temple 1977
Northeast Sh	helf Province									
	Eurimbula Site 1	Wk-10967	А	5	9.68- 12.44	charcoal	379±121	0*-555	376	Ulm 2004
	Eurimbula Site 1	Wk-10968	В	12	34.4- 38.04	charcoal	2218±126	1838-2677	2176	Ulm 2004
	Eurimbula Site 1	Wk-7688	А	17	43.66- 46.64	charcoal	2390±70	2162-2705	2408	Ulm 2006b
	Eurimbula Site 1	Wk-7687	D	15	45.4- 47.92	charcoal	2770±110	2499-3166	2856	Ulm 2006b
	Ironbark Site Complex	Wk-8556	0	9a	27.38	marine shell ^c	910±55	430-620	512	Ulm 2004
	Ironbark Site Complex	Wk-8557	Р	7	16.3	charcoal	200±140	0*-455	204	Ulm 2002a
	Ironbark Site Complex	Wk-8558	Р	7	17.6	marine shell ^c	590±60	0*-328	202	Ulm 2002a
	Mazie Bay	ANU-2488	A1	1	5-10	marine shell ^o	670±50	147-436	310	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	ANU-2489	A1	2	15-20	marine shell ^o	1520±50	932-1180	1061	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	Beta-1243	A1	3	55-60	marine shell ^o	3450±70	3119-3485	3307	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	Beta-1244	A1	5	125- 130	marine shell ^o	4190±80	4038-4492	4258	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	Beta-1245	A5	6	165- 170	marine shell ^o	4030±90	3801-4327	4037	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	Beta-1246	A5	7	180- 190	marine shell ^o	4190±80	4038-4492	4258	Rowland 1983
	Mazie Bay	ANU-2393	A5	9A	240- 250	marine shell ^o	4160±100	3935-4495	4216	Rowland 1983
	Mort Creek Site Complex	Wk-7458	С	6	11.3- 15.8	charcoal	1970±80	1702-2086	1876	Ulm 2002a
	Mort Creek Site Complex	Wk-6987	С	7	15.8- 18.1	marine shell ^c	2260±50	1715-1980	1853	Ulm 2002a
	Mort Creek Site Complex	Wk-7836	С	6	11.3- 15.8	marine shell ^c	2320±50	1797-2072	1923	Ulm 2002a

Mort Creek Site Complex	Wk-6988	С	18	53.6- 56.4	marine shell ^c	3380±90	2970-3440	3222	Ulm 2004
Mort Creek Site Complex	Wk-6986	В	19-20	65	marine shell ^c	3430±140	2915-3626	3277	Ulm and Lilley 1999
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-14636	В	1	0-3.9	marine shell ¹	586±35	95*-294	206	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32249	В	2	3.9-9.4	charcoal	128±25	0*-255	89	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-26911	В	3	9.4- 14.2	charcoal	470±30	340-527	496	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32250	В	4	14.2- 16.8	charcoal	768±25	573-723	669	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32251	В	5	16.8- 20.9	charcoal	771±25	575-723	671	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-26912	В	6	20.9- 26.4	charcoal	751±30	566-719	659	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32252	В	7	26.4- 32.6	charcoal	972±25	775-918	853	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32253	В	8	32.6- 38.6	charcoal	1129±25	932-1058	982	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32254	В	9	38.6- 45.3	charcoal	1514±25	1307-1405	1348	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-26913	В	10	45.3- 52.6	charcoal	1229±30	985-1183	1101	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-26914	В	11	52.6- 58.8	charcoal	2785±30	2761-2925	2831	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32255	В	12	58.8- 65.1	charcoal	3474±25	3591-3826	3683	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-26915	В	13	65.1- 69.5	charcoal	3834±32	3996-4350	4175	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-12990	В	14	69.5- 76.6	charcoal	4068±62	4296-4813	4512	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32256	В	15	76.6-85	charcoal	4534±25	4985-5298	5167	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32257	В	16	85-89.7	charcoal	4456±25	4865-5271	4988	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-32258	В	17	89.7-93	charcoal	4494±25	4892-5286	5109	McNiven et al. 2014
Otterbourne Island Site 4	Wk-12991	В	17	89.7-93	charcoal	4580±45	4986-5438	5166	McNiven et al. 2014

	Seven Mile Creek Mound	Wk-8324	А	4	7.14	marine shell ^c	3540±80	3210-3615	3418	Ulm 2000
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	NZA-12117	А	13	38.96- 43.64	charcoal	3500±60	3572-3884	3726	Ulm 2002b
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	Wk-8326	А	13	40.44	marine shell ^c	3610±70	3338-3677	3496	Ulm 2000
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	NZA-12273	А	20	67.84- 71.46	charcoal	3570±60	3641-3976	3803	Ulm 2002b
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	Wk-8327	А	20	67.84	marine shell ^c	3780±60	3549-3871	3706	Ulm 2000
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	NZA-12118	А	26	88.68- 92.18	charcoal	3660±60	3723-4143	3932	Ulm 2002b
	Seven Mile Creek Mound	Wk-8328	А	26	88.24	marine shell ^c	3750±60	3500-3835	3667	Ulm 2000)
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7681	D	3	3.9	charcoal	0±0	124*-135*	130	Ulm 2002a
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-10966	D	8	22.24- 25.52	charcoal	269±125	0*-486*	261	Ulm 2004
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7682	D	3	3.3	marine shell ^c	620±50	100*-396*	248	Ulm 2002a
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7684	D	17	55.7- 59.5	charcoal	880±70	666-912	757	Ulm 2004
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7683	D	15	50	marine shell ^c	940±50	464*-628	534	Ulm 2004
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7685	D	18	59.5-64	charcoal	1110±70	801-1173	975	Ulm and Lilley 1999
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7686	S	8	20.52- 23.96	charcoal	540±50	470-630	526	Ulm 2002a
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-7838	S	8	20.52- 23.96	marine shell ^c	630±50	120*-407*	261	Ulm 2002a
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	Wk-10965	S	11	31.7- 35.02	charcoal	1070±115	689-1185	935	Ulm 2004
	Tom's Creek Site Complex	NZA-13385	R&S (core)	-	62.5-67	organics	1956±57	1730-1998	1860	Ulm 2004
Northeast Sl	helf Transition									
	Badu 19	Wk-16464	L10	1	0-5.7	marine shell ^f	2826±36	2426-2700	2573	Crouch et al. 2007

Badu 19	Wk-16465	L10	3	10.7- 16.7	marine shell ^f	2860±36	2477-2720	2617	Crouch et al. 2007
Badu 19	Wk-9675	L10	5	20.7- 25.5	marine shell ^p	2859±88	2345-2765	2586	Crouch et al. 2007
Badu 19	OZH-968	L10	8B	41.3- 51.5	marine shell ^d	4060±50	3912-4233	4074	Crouch et al. 2007
Freshwater Bay Midden (1992)	Wk-2689	Tr 1	1	0-5	marine shell ^k	450±55	0*-227	74	Mills 1992
Freshwater Bay Midden (1992)	Wk-2690	Tr 1	7	30-35	marine shell ^k	2150±60	1564-1869	1725	Mills 1992
Freshwater Bay Midden (1992)	Wk-2691	Tr 1	20	120- 130	charcoal	2970±80	2928-3360	3136	Mills 1992
Freshwater Bay Midden (2009)	Wk-30014	Tr 2	7	60-70	charcoal	1059±29	926-1052	962	Lentfer et al. 2013
Freshwater Bay Midden (2009)	Wk-30012	Tr 2	12	110- 120	charcoal	2919±34	2961-3165	3062	Lentfer et al. 2013
Freshwater Bay Midden (2009)	Wk-30013	Tr 2	14	130- 140	charcoal	3408±31	3575-3812	3656	Lentfer et al. 2013
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29690	А	3	1.5-3.4	marine shell ^e	710±25	280-419	345	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29691	А	7	9.5- 12.5	marine shell ^e	654±28	233-402	287	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29692	A	11	24.1- 28.3	marine shell ^e	730±25	289-434	361	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29693	А	15	37.5- 41.1	marine shell ^e	1163±25	647-758	695	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29694	А	18C	49.8- 54.9	marine shell ^e	1213±25	669-813	736	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29695	А	23	81.6- 90.1	marine shell ^e	1273±25	729-891	806	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29696	А	25	98.3- 104.7	marine shell ^e	2018±25	1500-1672	1568	McNiven et al. 2015
Goemu (2005)	Wk-29697	А	32	156.2- 171.2	marine shell ^e	1892±25	1346-1512	1427	McNiven et al. 2015
Kurturniaiwak	Wk-14181	А	6	17.9- 21.8	charcoal	331±44	305*-489	392	David and Weisler 2006
Kurturniaiwak	Wk-16234	В	8	21.3- 23.4	charcoal	409±42	318-525	468	David and Weisler 2006

Kurturniaiwak	Wk-16235	В	15	39.9- 42.7	charcoal	705±43	559-727	663	David and Weisler 2006
Kurturniaiwak	Wk-14184	А	13	42.5- 44.1	marine shell ^e	953±38	486-623	541	David and Weisler 2006
Kurturniaiwak	Wk-14182	А	15	46.9- 50.6	marine shell ^e	986±35	505-634	568	David and Weisler 2006
Kurturniaiwak	Wk-14183	А	22	77.4- 81.1	marine shell ^e	1005±38	514-645	580	David and Weisler 2006
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38696	А	3	5.12- 7.54	charcoal	747±21	665-723	681	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38697	А	10	23.32	charcoal	1836±21	1711-1824	1772	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38698	А	16	39.92	charcoal	3144±21	3268-3444	3372	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38699	А	20	50.02	charcoal	3151±21	3275-3445	3377	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38700	А	24	60.62	charcoal	3149±21	3273-3445	3376	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38701	А	27	66.42	charcoal	3148±21	3272-3445	3375	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38702	А	30	72.42	charcoal	3136±21	3258-3441	3365	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mangrove Beach Headland	Wk-38703	А	44	108.82	charcoal	3689±21	3932-4090	4036	Aird 2014; Ulm <i>et al.</i> in press
Mua	Wk-11941	K40	1	0-1.7	marine shell ^b	559±37	0*-277	181	David <i>et al</i> . 2008
Mua	Wk-16432	K41	6	11.3- 13.9	marine shell ^b	532±42	0*-248	149	David <i>et al</i> . 2008
Mua	Wk-11942	K42	13	31.7- 33.8	charcoal	727±35	569-728	675	David <i>et al.</i> 2008
Mua	Wk-11943	K40	19	58.8	charcoal	1333±36	1182-1306	1270	David et al. 2008
Tigershark Rockshelter	Wk-8496	А	1	0-2	charcoal	490±45	474-634	524	McNiven et al. 2008
Tigershark Rockshelter	Wk-8497	А	7	13.9- 16.6	charcoal	830±45	675-901	743	McNiven et al. 2008
Tigershark Rockshelter	Wk-19548	А	9	19.4- 22.7	charcoal	1102±29	938-1064	1006	McNiven et al. 2008

	Tigershark Rockshelter	Wk-7304	А	11	25.7- 28.8	charcoal	1390±50	1185-1390	1308	McNiven et al. 2008	
Cape Province											
	Kurkur Weid	Wk-13368	1	-	25	marine shell ⁱ	949±38	484-620	538	Carter 2004	
	Kurkur Weid	Wk-13369	1	-	72	marine shell ⁱ	1623±38	1069-1263	1179	Carter 2004	
	Kurkur Weid	Wk-6749	SE (1,2.7)	17	130	marine shell ^g	1290±50	705-924	822	Carter 2001	
	Ormi	Wk-10161	1	-	15.2	marine shell ⁱ	2074±48	1517-1773	1634	Carter 2002	
	Ormi	Wk-8885	1	7	40	marine shell ⁱ	2370±50	1856-2121	1982	Carter 2001	
	Ormi	Wk-10162	1	-	99	marine shell ⁱ	2148±48	1589-1854	1723	Carter 2002	
	Ormi	Wk-8917	1	16	110	charcoal	2050±80	1826-2304	2023	Carter 2001	
	Ormi	Wk-10163	1	-	178	marine shell ⁱ	2435±48	1917-2240	2060	Carter 2002	
	Ormi	Wk-8918	1	24	210	marine shell ^h	2840±60	2388-2726	2577	Carter 2001	
	Pitkik	Wk-13366	1	-	30	marine shell ⁱ	726±38	280-446	360	Carter 2004	
	Pitkik	Wk-13367	1	-	69	marine shell ⁱ	1314±38	745-928	845	Carter 2004	
	Pitkik	Wk-6750	1	8	110	marine shell ⁱ	1270±50	690-910	803	Carter 2001	
	Sokoli	Wk-7444	SE (1,21)	7	33	marine shell ^g	1180±45	636-822	714	Carter 2001	
	Sokoli	Wk-7480	SE (1,21)	11	70	marine shell ^g	2280±50	1729-2005	1877	Carter 2001	
	Sokoli	Wk-10164	SE (1,21)	-	125	marine shell ^g	1951±43	1370-1602	1486	Carter 2002	
	Sokoli	Wk-10165	SE (1,21)		170	marine shell ^g	2044±51	1470-1752	1601	Carter 2002	
	Sokoli	Wk-7481	SE (1,21)	23	195	marine shell ^g	2230±50	1686-1951	1818	Carter 2001	

SokoliWk-7445SE $(1,21)$ 25235marine shell ^g }2840±502411-27202583Carter 20	001
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870 ^a Following IMCRA 4.0: Provincial Bioregions established by the Commonwealth of Australia (2006).

871 Marine shell (species identified for dating): ^b Anadara antiquata, ^c Anadara trapezia, ^d Asaphis violascens, ^e Atactodea striata, ^f Chama sp., ^g Conomurex luhuanus, ^h Conus

872 sp., ⁱ Lambis lambis, ^j Plebidonax deltoides, ^k Rochia nilotica, ^l Saccostrea cuccullata, ^m Saccostrea glomerata, ⁿ Saccostrea glomerata and Pyrazus ebeninus, ^o Saccostrea

873 *scyphophilla*, ^p*Tapes sulcarius*, and ^q*Trichomya hirsuta*.

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