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**Abstract:** We report the first major study of cryptotephra (non-visible volcanic ash layers) on Late Palaeolithic archaeological sites in northern Europe. Examination of thirty-four sites dating from the Last Termination reveals seven with identifiable cryptotephra layers. Preservation is observed in minerogenic and organic deposits, although tephra is more common in organic sediments. Cryptotephra layers normally occur stratigraphically above or below the archaeology. Nearby off-site palaeoclimate archives (peat bogs and lakes <0.3 km distant) were better locations for detecting tephra however only indirectly can the archaeology be correlated with the cryptotephra. Patterns affecting the presence/absence of cryptotephra include geographic position of sites relative to the emitting volcanic centre; the influence of past atmospherics on the quantity, direction and patterns of cryptotephra transport; the nature and timing of local site sedimentation; sampling considerations and subsequent taphonomic processes. Overall, while tephrostratigraphy has the potential to improve significantly the chronology of such sites many limiting factors currently impacts the successful application.

## Highlights

- Cryptotephra study of 34 north European Late Palaeolithic archaeological sites.
- Seven sites have identifiable cryptotephra layers.
- Best preservation occurs in low-energy off-site palaeoclimate archives.
- Geographic position to emitting centre and past atmospherics are influential.
- In situ sediment record, preservation and taphonomy impact on outcomes.

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# Examination of Late Palaeolithic archaeological sites in Northern Europe for the preservation of cryptotephra layers

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1 potential to improve significantly the chronology of such sites many limiting factors currently  
2 impacts the successful application.

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#### 4 **1. Introduction**

5 It has been observed that tephrostratigraphy and tephrochronology have the potential to be of  
6 major significance to the study of the environmental history of the Last Termination, c.18-8 ka BP  
7 (Davies et al., 2002; Turney et al., 2004, 2006). Tephra layers, once securely identified, provide the  
8 means to accurately link and synchronize diverse sedimentary records including terrestrial and  
9 marine palaeo-environmental and archaeological sites, with their archives of palaeoclimate and past  
10 human behaviour (Lowe 2011). Developments in the detection, isolation and characterisation of  
11 cryptotephra (Turney, 1998; Blockley et al., 2005) have allowed tephrostratigraphy to be applied to  
12 more situations than hitherto was the case (Davies et al., 2002) including the application to  
13 archaeological settings (Balascio et al., 2011). The new contexts open up interesting developments,  
14 but as this paper demonstrates, do not come without attendant complexities for the taphonomy of  
15 the depositional layers have an all-important influence. Recovery of trustworthy data is not always  
16 straightforward and is dependent on multiple, sometimes interrelated, factors.

17 The focus of this paper is the application of tephrostratigraphy to distal Late Palaeolithic sites in  
18 northern Europe which date from the Last Termination (i.e. the Oldest Dryas, Bølling, Older Dryas,  
19 Allerød, Younger Dryas and Preboreal Chronozones). The research took place in the context of the  
20 RESET research initiative, a 5-year Consortium funded by the UK's Natural Environment Research  
21 Council (NERC). The aim of RESET was to bring together archaeologists, volcanologists,  
22 tephrochronologists and stratigraphers to investigate the chronology of major phases of human  
23 dispersal and development in Europe in the past 100,000 years, and to examine the degree to which  
24 these were influenced by abrupt environmental transitions (<http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/reset/>). A  
25 survey of Late Palaeolithic sites from north of the Alps, Sudeten, Tatra and Carpathian mountains

1 reveals only one-fifth have identifiable cryptotephra. Tephra is detected in both organic and  
2 minerogenic sediments, however depositional context, temporal duration of sediment accumulation  
3 and site taphonomy appear to be important influencing factors.

4

## 5 **2. Tephrostratigraphy in the context of the north European Late Palaeolithic**

### 6 *2.1 The Principles and Application of Tephrostratigraphy*

7 Tephrostratigraphy is a method for correlating diverse sedimentary sequences, whether they are  
8 palaeoenvironmental, geological or archaeological in nature. It has the advantage over many other  
9 chronological tools in that the precision is commonly significantly better (Lowe, 2011). The use of  
10 tephra is grounded in the principle that layers are deposited in a stratigraphic sequence and the  
11 position is governed by the Law of Superposition (Feibel 1999). If a tephra layer can be identified and  
12 characterised, it can be correlated to another tephra layer in another locality and this links the two  
13 loci in time (Westgate and Gorton, 1981). Matching of tephra layers can be done by physical  
14 properties in the field or using single grain geochemical analyses in the laboratory (e.g. electron  
15 microprobe WDS-EPMA and LA-ICP-MS). In some instances the palaeoenvironmental or  
16 palaeoclimatic context of a tephra in conjunction with its geochemical-signature may be significant  
17 thus allowing correlation (the Borrobol and Penifiler, Vedde Ash and AF555 tephtras are prime  
18 examples of this, see Matthews et al., 2011). Where an existing age for the tephra is known, be it  
19 from historical records, radiometric dating (e.g.  $^{14}\text{C}$  or Ar-Ar; Sarna-Wojcicki, 2000), or an  
20 incremental archive (e.g. varves or ice core layers; Grönvold et al., 1995), the age may be transferred  
21 from one locality to another provided compositional properties, e.g. chemical characteristics, are the  
22 same. In such situations tephrostratigraphy becomes tephrochronology, a powerful tool for dating.

23 Many factors potentially limit the application of tephrostratigraphy (Lowe 2011). Those of most  
24 relevance in the context of this investigation are:

- 1 (i) The possibility of tephra being reworked leading to the dissemination or remobilisation  
2 of glass shards. This can significantly influence whether correlation is feasible as  
3 reworked (remobilised) tephra form diachronous, rather than isochronous, surfaces. The  
4 non-reworked part of a tephra deposit does provide an isochron of maximum age (the  
5 date of the tephra eruption and primary deposition) but any reworked components are  
6 always younger.
- 7 (ii) The vertical spread (dissemination) of shards in a vertical profile may conceal the exact  
8 point in the sediments where a primary tephra layer was deposited.
- 9 (iii) Patchy tephra distribution patterns in peat deposits have sometimes been attributed to  
10 post-depositional processes associated with fallout on snow cover, including re-  
11 deposition by wind and meltwater. Snow entrapment, wherein cold conditions with little  
12 or no summer melt cause a significant lag between the initial deposition of ash and its  
13 subsequent deposition into a lake, was identified by Davies et al. (2007) as another  
14 factor that could lead to an incorrect interpretation of the true position of the  
15 tephrostratigraphic isochron in cold environment lacustrine deposits.
- 16 (iv) Multiple profiles will sometimes document periods of erosion and reworking, revealing  
17 differential effects even when distances are small. Within-site variability is a factor,  
18 suggesting that local geographic and stratigraphic taphonomic processes may be  
19 complex, requiring careful study and interpretation. Boygle (1999) and Pyne-O'Donnell  
20 (2011) highlight the drawbacks of single profile crypto-tephrostratigraphic surveys.
- 21 (v) Repeated eruptions may sometimes result in chemically similar geochemical datasets.  
22 Indeed many Icelandic tephra produced by different eruptions tend to have very similar  
23 major element geochemical compositions (Larsen and Eiríksson, 2007). External dating  
24 control may be required to differentiate temporally-separate, but compositionally  
25 similar, tephra.

1 Tephra detection, albeit the crucial starting point in a tephrostratigraphical study, is not sufficient on  
2 its own; there are many ancillary requirements if good chronological data are to come from the  
3 presence of tephra on an archaeological site.

#### 4 *2.2 Linking Volcanic Ash Layers and Late Palaeolithic Archaeology*

5 Association between Late Palaeolithic archaeology and tephra is most commonly observed in areas  
6 proximal to active Late Pleistocene volcanoes. In such settings volcanic and archaeological layers  
7 may be readily observed and characterised in the field. Association between archaeology and  
8 volcanic eruption need not be direct, for volcanic sediments can overlie abandoned sites. Lateglacial  
9 northern European examples of this include the open-air Magdalenian sites of Andernach-  
10 Martinsburg and Gonnersdorf in the middle Rhine, which were discovered beneath thick Laacher See  
11 tephra (LST) deposits (Baales et al., 2002); and the Grotte du Coléoptère in the Ardennes, a  
12 Magdalenian cave site in which the occupation horizon was covered by tephra of the same east Eifel-  
13 sourced eruption (Dewez 1975; Juvigné 1977).

14 More direct 'Pompeii-like' association between ash-fall and cessation of human occupation would be  
15 expected but are not easily demonstrated in the Lateglacial of north Europe. The situation at l'Abri  
16 Durif à Enval, a rockshelter in the commune de Vic-Le-Comte, Puy-de-Dôme excavated between  
17 1969 and 1979 by Yves Boudelle, illustrates some of the complexities. On this site volcanic ash was  
18 identified in layers I, II and IV in direct contact with a Magdalénien supérieur occupation horizon  
19 (Boudelle 1979). The tephra originates from the French Massif Central and is dated to  $12\,010 \pm 150$   
20  $^{14}\text{C}$  yr BP (GifTan-91102). On the basis of geochemistry Vernet and Raynal (1995) correlate it with the  
21 eruption of La Tephra des Roches. However direct contact is not enough to demonstrate a causal  
22 connection between ash-fall and human abandonment since subsequent reworking may bring  
23 remobilised tephra into contact with archaeological material. Layer Ia on l'Abri Durif à Enval « ...  
24 contained a large amount of volcanic ash. These ashes are in contact with the flints and bones found  
25 in this level (0.02 m)». This would suggest direct association, whilst the ash in the underlying layers

1 (Niveau Ib, II and IVa) could represent remobilised tephra. Residuality of archaeological material  
2 needs to be considered. For these reasons, in the absence of compelling associations, direct linkage  
3 of ash-fall to human abandonment is hard to prove.

4 Visible ash horizons may sometimes be observed in contact with archaeological material in distal  
5 and mid distal settings. The early Upper Palaeolithic sites in Kostenki-Borshchevo (Sinitsyn 2001;  
6 Anikovitch 2005; Anikovitch et al., 2007) are examples which have been known for many years  
7 (Melekestsev et al., 1984). At Kostenki-Borshchevo aeolian reworking of the tephra together with  
8 cryoturbation is believed responsible for making a 1-2 cm ash-fall into 10-30 cm in thickness horizons  
9 (Pyle et al., 2006). Distance from source in this instance is 2250 km. Bettenroder Berg IX in the valley  
10 of the River Leine in central Germany is a Lateglacial example of a visible volcanic layer on a mid  
11 distal site located 280 km from source. Here layer 17a – an occupation horizon of the Federmesser-  
12 Gruppen technocomplex is overlain by layer 16, a substantial 20-40 cm thick primary deposit of LST,  
13 demonstrating thickness and distance from source are influenced by the dynamics of ash transport,  
14 fall and sedimentation (Riede, 2008; Riede et al., 2011). This example would appear to represent the  
15 rapid fallout of very fine ash occurring as ‘mass deposition’, the result of meteorological aggregation  
16 processes a few hundred kilometres downwind of the emitting source.

17 In distal localities removed from the eruptive vent, recognition of tephra by the naked eye is rarely  
18 possible. However, development of laboratory processing methods (Turney, 1998; Blockley et al.,  
19 2005) have allowed systematic screening for cryptotephra so that the ash ‘footprints’ of eruptions  
20 have been significantly extended into new geographical regions. Bearing these points in mind,  
21 attention now turns to cryptotephra, which are subject to additional constraints.

### 22 **3. Cryptotephra associated with Late Palaeolithic sites**

23 Between 2008 and 2012 thirty-four north European Late Palaeolithic sites were investigated for  
24 cryptotephra (**figures 1a and 1b**). On- and off-site loci were sampled. On-site locations had *in situ*  
25 Late Palaeolithic or early Mesolithic archaeology (**table 1, figure 2**), whilst off-site contexts were



1 natural sediments which accumulated concurrent with nearby human activity (typically c.10-300 m  
2 distant). **Tables 2 and 3** summarize the results, recording the presence/ absence of cryptotephra.  
3 Supplementary Materials (**S2**) contains an individual site-by-site compendium, and (**S3**) details the  
4 methodology used. Because individual site studies appear elsewhere (Brock et al., 2011; Housley et  
5 al., 2012, 2013, 2014a, b, c; MacLeod et al., in prep.; Tipping et al., in prep.; Torksdorf et al., 2013;  
6 Weber et al., 2010) this paper focuses on only the broad patterns.

7 Seven sites yielded identifiable analysable tephra, a success rate of 21% (**table 4**). Thirty-two  
8 sampling localities were open-air sites, with only two caves / rockshelters. Neither of the latter  
9 recorded cryptotephra but two is too small a sample to properly assess the viability of such  
10 sediment traps. The low representation of caves and rockshelters reflects a sampling bias to the  
11 North European Plain, where sites such as these are rare.

12  
13 In the first stage of processing, where bulk 5-10 cm depth samples were examined, a few sites  
14 yielded occasional isolated tephra shards. Such records may be accessed from the RESET database  
15 (Bronk Ramsey et al., this volume). Bulk samples with isolated shards proved impossible to process  
16 further or prepare for geochemical analysis and have been excluded from the 7 'successful' sites.  
17 Precisely what this 'background' level of tephra represents is difficult to define – very low input,  
18 residual material, disturbance and reworking may all be responsible.

19  
20 With exceptions, most sites were associated with one of several lithics industries (techno-  
21 complexes: Magdalenian, classic Hamburgian, Havelte, Federmesser and Ahrensburgian. However,  
22 some sites had more than one industry (e.g. Dourges, Sowin 7). Approximate dating of the  
23 archaeological techno-complexes is presented in **table 1**. Palaeoenvironmental archives could be  
24 proximal to more than one Late Palaeolithic activity area (e.g. Węgliny) or featured both on- and off-  
25 site archaeology (e.g. Lille Slotseng). Non-diagnostic lithics assemblages were encountered,  
26 inhibiting typological classification (e.g. Strumiенno). Selection of sites was sometimes deliberate –

1 to target key Palaeolithic sequences (e.g. Pincevent, Étiolles and Neuchâtel) – at other times  
2 opportunistic, governed by access considerations (e.g. Wesseling-Eichholz, Lengfeld). Archived  
3 sediment was used where advantageous, or where original deposits have been removed (e.g.  
4 Reichwalde) or have become inaccessible (e.g. Neuchâtel). The degree of sampling in part reflected  
5 availability of open sections, stored material or known taphonomic issues. Absence of reported  
6 tephra from a site does not mean future cryptotephra sampling should be avoided if better  
7 sequences come available. On some sites we only undertook limited sampling - for further details,  
8 see the site compendium (**S2**).

9

10 What follows is an assessment of the factors which potentially influence the presence and  
11 deposition of cryptotephra on north European Late Palaeolithic archaeological sites.

12

### 13 *3.1 Influence of Sedimentary Context*

14 Given the diverse sedimentary contexts from where archaeological material of this age is recovered,  
15 it was deemed important to examine this variable to determine if this was indeed a governing factor.  
16 To assess whether the nature of the sedimentary matrix was influencing the cryptotephra record a  
17 simple classification system for describing the depositional matrix was applied. Sediments of this age  
18 are varied and hence what is presented here inadequately describes the complexities, though a  
19 simple grouping of broadly similar deposits helps identify common patterns in the data. Four  
20 categorizations are recognised for sedimentary context of the tephra layers:

- 21 1. Predominantly minerogenic sediments (i.e. sands, silts, clays, with/without larger stone  
22 clasts);
- 23 2. Predominantly organic sediments (i.e. peat, detritus mud, marl, gyttja);
- 24 3. Contexts where the zone of tephra extends over a stratigraphic boundary, thus the same  
25 tephra is present in both a minerogenic and an organic sediment unit;

1 4. Mixed contexts, the result of either human activity or pedogenic processes. Soil  
2 micromorphology is often needed to establish this.

3 This classification informs **tables 2-4**. Although twice as many on-site contexts were sampled  
4 (respectively, n=23 and n=11) the data show off-site contexts preserved cryptotephra layers better.  
5 Of the off-site contexts 36% recorded one or more cryptotephra (n=4, t=11), only 13% of on-site  
6 contexts had tephra (n=3, t=23). Organic and minerogenic sediments are represented in both  
7 settings, although archaeological remains were commonly associated with aerobic minerogenic  
8 sediments and anaerobic organic deposits were better represented in off-site locations. The pattern  
9 is clear however, off-site organic contexts result in better cryptotephra preservation than on-site  
10 minerogenic sediments.

### 11 *3.2 Influence of Geographical Position*

12 We observe a clear weighting to better tephra representation on sites from northerly latitudes  
13 (**table 4c**). This conclusion is simplistic and misleading, however. Iceland is the major volcanic source  
14 for northern Europe and prevailing winds carry the ash eastwards, with greater quantities of ash  
15 falling in northerly latitudes. The study by Lawson et al. (2012) is particularly important in  
16 understanding the spatial patterning of tephra originating from Iceland. Based on 22 eruptions in the  
17 last 7 ka, the investigation observed that past ash plumes have shown a wide range of behaviour in  
18 that they can be dense and widespread (e.g. Hekla 4); spatially patchy but widespread (e.g. Hekla 3);  
19 restricted to one region but found at practically all sites within its bounds (e.g. Glen Garry); or  
20 restricted to one region and patchily distributed within it (e.g. Hekla 1510). Based on space-, air- and  
21 ground-based monitoring and research reported following the Eyjafjallajökull 2010 event, the  
22 patchiness of tephra distributions would seem to be consequent on varying prevailing atmospheric  
23 conditions. We believe this patchiness is particularly important to this study.

24 In relation to the late Pleistocene previous research has shown the ash foot print of the Vedde Ash  
25 extends south to the Alps (Blockley et al., 2007). This distribution is explicable however by different

1 atmospheric conditions in Europe during the Younger Dryas Stadial (Isarin et al., 1998; Brauer et al.,  
2 2009). A more accurate conclusion would be that two contributing factors influence the presence of  
3 cryptotephra: proximity to a volcanic source is clearly important but so is location downwind of an  
4 emitting centre – hence Scandinavia, the British Isles and northern Europe have a record of Icelandic  
5 volcanic activity whereas the Balkans record eruptions originating in Italy. Regardless of other  
6 influences, tephra must first be present in a region for it to be preserved. For this reason some parts  
7 of Europe are more likely to be impacted by tephra than are others (Davies et al., 2010; Lawson et  
8 al., 2012).

### 9 *3.3 Influence of Site Taphonomy*

10 We hypothesize that cryptotephra is less likely to be recognised on archaeological sites if ash-fall  
11 occurs in periods of human occupation. This is because disturbance by humans and non-continuous  
12 sedimentation will inhibit discrete accumulation and preservation of discrete cryptotephra layers.  
13 Our open-air study sites have shallow stratigraphies with Lateglacial deposits commonly located  
14 near modern ground surface; biological activity, land-use practices and pedological processes were  
15 visible influences. Albeit weakly, the data in **table 2** appear to support this contention for two of the  
16 three sites with cryptotephra in on-site contexts (Ahrenshöft, Mirkowice) have cryptotephra over- or  
17 underlying the archaeological layer; Lille Slotseng, in contrast, has archaeology and cryptotephra in  
18 the same layer. However a 2:1 ratio does not make a compelling case and we conclude this  
19 hypothesis needs more investigation.

20 This point requires further qualification for although in Slotseng archaeological material is present in  
21 the same layer as tephra, no causal relationship can be demonstrated. Tephra is observed over 60  
22 cm of vertical sedimentation in Slotseng, coinciding with the archaeological layer but also being  
23 present in the sediments above. The geochemistry is complex, suggesting at least three different  
24 rhyolite layers from Iceland, one of which has not been recognised previously (MacLeod et al., in  
25 prep.). Nothing in the archaeological supports the contention that Palaeolithic humans took

1 particular account of the tephra to change their behaviour. The other study sites with in situ  
2 archaeology and cryptotephra, i.e. Ahrenshöft LA 58D (Weber et al., 2010; Brock et al., 2011;  
3 Housley et al., 2012) and Mirkowice 33 (Housley et al., 2014a) have their own accounts and factors.  
4 The linking theme to all these sites is the need for careful evaluation of site processes.

### 5 *3.4 Sampling Bias and Local Sediment Hiatuses*

6 Many of our more southern sites date from the late Magdalenian period (approximately the Bølling  
7 Chronozone). Geographically those in Germany and Poland could be expected to be situated within  
8 the ash fall zone of the Laacher See Tephra, however we detected little presence of this tephra. It is  
9 possible sample selection had a part to play, for example if sampling did not extend sufficiently high  
10 in the stratigraphic sections to take in the end of the Allerød. However, this is unlikely to be true for  
11 all sites in that, where feasible we extended sampling into the early Holocene. We can only conclude  
12 that either this reflects an inherent patchiness to tephra distributions, or some of the sequences we  
13 sampled have unrecognised periods of hiatus. This temporal 'patchiness' is perhaps more common  
14 with the onsite aerobic sediments than the offsite anaerobic contexts.

## 15 **4. Conclusions**

16 This is no more than a beginning. The parallel study by Swindles et al. (2013) is of particular  
17 relevance in this context, albeit the focus of their investigation is re-deposited cryptotephra in  
18 Holocene peats linked to anthropogenic activity. Whereas Balascio et al. (2011) report a single site  
19 investigation of a distal cryptotephra found in a Viking boathouse in Iron Age Norway, our study  
20 focuses on fisher-gatherer-hunter sites from the Last Termination. General lessons for future  
21 cryptotephra research in the context of such sites are:

- 22 • Cryptotephra do survive directly on Late Palaeolithic open-air sites, whether the sediments  
23 are minerogenic (e.g. Mirkowice) or organic (Lille Slotseng). But the frequency of survival is  
24 relatively low.

- 1 • There appears to be a general patchiness to tephra distributions but it is not easy to resolve  
2 if this is due to atmospheric factors influencing the availability of tephra in an area, the input  
3 of tephra into a sedimentary environment, or hiatus periods within sediment accumulation  
4 on particular sites.
- 5 • Geographical position in relation to emitting volcanic centres is significant.
- 6 • Detection may require the analysis of multiple profiles, from both on-site and off-site  
7 contexts.
- 8 • Site taphonomy is important, with local depositional conditions and subsequent processes  
9 appearing to play a crucial role in the preservation of recognisable tephra marker horizons.
- 10 • Continuous low energy sedimentation favours preservation. Where concentrations of  
11 cultural finds are high, sedimentary deposition is intermittent, and bioturbation is attested,  
12 the probability of successful tepthrostratigraphic study diminishes.
- 13 • Although cryptotephra research may best be concentrated in lower energy sediments, to  
14 permit integration with archaeological interpretations one ideally needs good stratigraphic  
15 correlations between off-site contexts and the main human activity areas.
- 16 • Making connections between human activity on dry land and anaerobic palaeoclimate  
17 archives is challenging. However, future methodological developments, e.g. applying lipid  
18 biomarkers to lacustrine environments (Holtvoeth et al., 2010) to detect the presence of  
19 neighbouring human activity, may facilitate correlation of profiles thereby allowing for the  
20 greater application of tepthrostratigraphy within archaeology.

21

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8

1 **Captions**

2 **Figure 1a:** Map of sampling localities, ‘circles’ represent sites with analysable cryptotephra, ‘plus’  
3 and ‘square’ symbols are respectively open-air and cave/rock shelter sites with no cryptotephra.

4 **Figure 1b:** Map of sampling localities showing the archaeological stone tool techno-complexes.  
5 Approximate dating for these techno-complexes is shown in **table 1**.

6 **Figure 2:** Chronostratigraphical sequence of the Last Termination in relation to the NGRIP and GRIP  
7 ice cores ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  per mil), Icelandic and Eifel volcanic eruption record from the RESET database (Bronk  
8 Ramsey et al., this volume); INTIMATE events and episodes from Lowe et al. (2008);  $^{14}\text{C}$  dated sites  
9 (human remain, cut-marked bone and bone/antler tool samples) by region and open-air site / rock  
10 shelter or cave (updated S2AGES database of calibrated radiocarbon estimates from western Europe  
11 in the period 25,000–10,000 years ago: Gamble et al., 2005). Saksunarvatn, Askja 10-ka, Abernethy  
12 AF555, Vedde Ash, Laacher See Tephra, Penifiler and Borrobol Tephra have been highlighted in red.

13 **Table 1:** Chronostratigraphy of the Last Termination and the archaeological stone tool techno-  
14 complexes for the regions sampled (after Reide et al. 2010; Terberger 2006; Weber and Grimm,  
15 2009).

16 **Table 2:** Seven northern European sites analysed between 2008 and 2012, with Late Palaeolithic  
17 archaeology and confirmed cryptotephra layer(s).

18 Key to table 2: ‘on-site’ – sediments where archaeology is present in the sampled profile; ‘off-site’ -  
19 nearby palaeoclimate archives sampled; “(A)” – inferred position of archaeology where tephra is  
20 detected in an off-site setting; (A) – direct in situ position of archaeology where tephra is detected  
21 on-site; see colour key for sediment categorization.

22 Key to references: (1) Brock et al., 2011; (2) Housley et al., 2012; (3) Housley et al., 2013; (4) Housley  
23 et al., 2014b; (5) Housley et al., 2014c; (6) Housley et al., 2014a ; (7) MacLeod et al. (in prep.); (8)  
24 Tipping et al. (in prep.); (9) Torksdorf et al., 2013; (10) Weber et al., 2010.



1

2 **Table 3:** Twenty-seven north European Late Palaeolithic sites sampled 2008-12 with no significant  
3 tephra. Key: HRT/RT: Hauterive/Rouge-Terre; 'On-site' - sediments with archaeology; 'Off-site' – off-  
4 site deposits believed contemporary with Late Palaeolithic archaeology; 'brown' - minerogenic  
5 aerobic sediments; 'green' – peat / detritus mud / gyttja anaerobic sediments.

6

7 **Table 4:** Summary of cryptotephra presence/absence by type of site, associated sedimentation and  
8 by latitude of location.

Table 1

Greenland stadial / interstadial	Chronozone	Techno-complex		
Holocene	Pre-boreal	Early Mesolithic		
GS-1	Younger Dryas	Ahrensburgian		Late Palaeolithic
GI-1a GI-1b GI-1c1 GI-1c2 GI-1c3	Allerød	Federmesser Groups (FMG)	Bromme	
GI-1d	Older Dryas	Late	Havelte	
GI-1e	Bølling (Meiendorf)	Magdalenian	Hamburgian	

Table 2

Site	Howburn Scotland UK	Ahrenshöft LA58D N Germany	Grabow N Germany	Oldendorf / Schünsmoor N Germany	Lille Sloseng Denmark	Węgliny SW Poland	Mirkowice 33 NW Poland
Location	55 40' 22" N 3 29' 1" W	54 33' 57" N 9 6' 29" E	53 00' 41" N 11 7' 00" E	53 15' 28" N 9 14' 39" E	55 16' 14" N 9 20' 5" E	51 49' 57" N 14 43' 30" E	52 46' 27" N 17 24' 18" E
Context	Offsite	Onsite	Offsite	Offsite	Onsite	Offsite	Onsite
Late Holocene			AD1875 / Glen Garry Askja Iceland				Glen Garry Askja Iceland
Early Holocene		Suðuroy / AF555 tephra / Vedde Ash Katla Iceland		Suðuroy / AF555 tephra / Vedde Ash Katla Iceland		Hasseldalen Snæfellsness Iceland	
Younger Dryas (GS-1)	Vedde Ash Katla Iceland				Vedde Ash Katla Iceland		
Late Allerød (GI-1a)						LST Laacher See East Eifel	
Early Allerød (GI-1c)						T642/655 East Eifel	
Bølling (GI-1e)					Borrobol / Torfajökull Iceland	Borrobol / Katla / Snæfellsness Iceland	
Late Pleni- glacial (GS- 2)							
Reference	8	1, 2, 10	5, 9	4	7	3	6

aeolian

fluvial / limnic minerogenic  
sediments

organic

organic & minerogenic  
sediments

'mixed' sediments



Table 3a

	tephra		no tephra		total
Open sites	7	22%	25	78%	32
caves / rockshelters	0	0%	2	100%	2
Total no sites	7	21%	27	79%	34

Table 3c

	Tephra Presence vs Site Latitude									
Latitude	55°N	54°N	53°N	52°N	51°N	50°N	49°N	48°N	47°N	
Sites with tephra	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	
Sites without tephra	1	2	0	1	9	7	2	4	1	

Table 3b

	tephra		no tephra		total
onsite organic	3	13%	2	87%	23
onsite minerogenic			18		
offsite organic	4	36%	6	64%	11
offsite minerogenic			1		
Total no sites	7		27		34

Figures 1a & 1b

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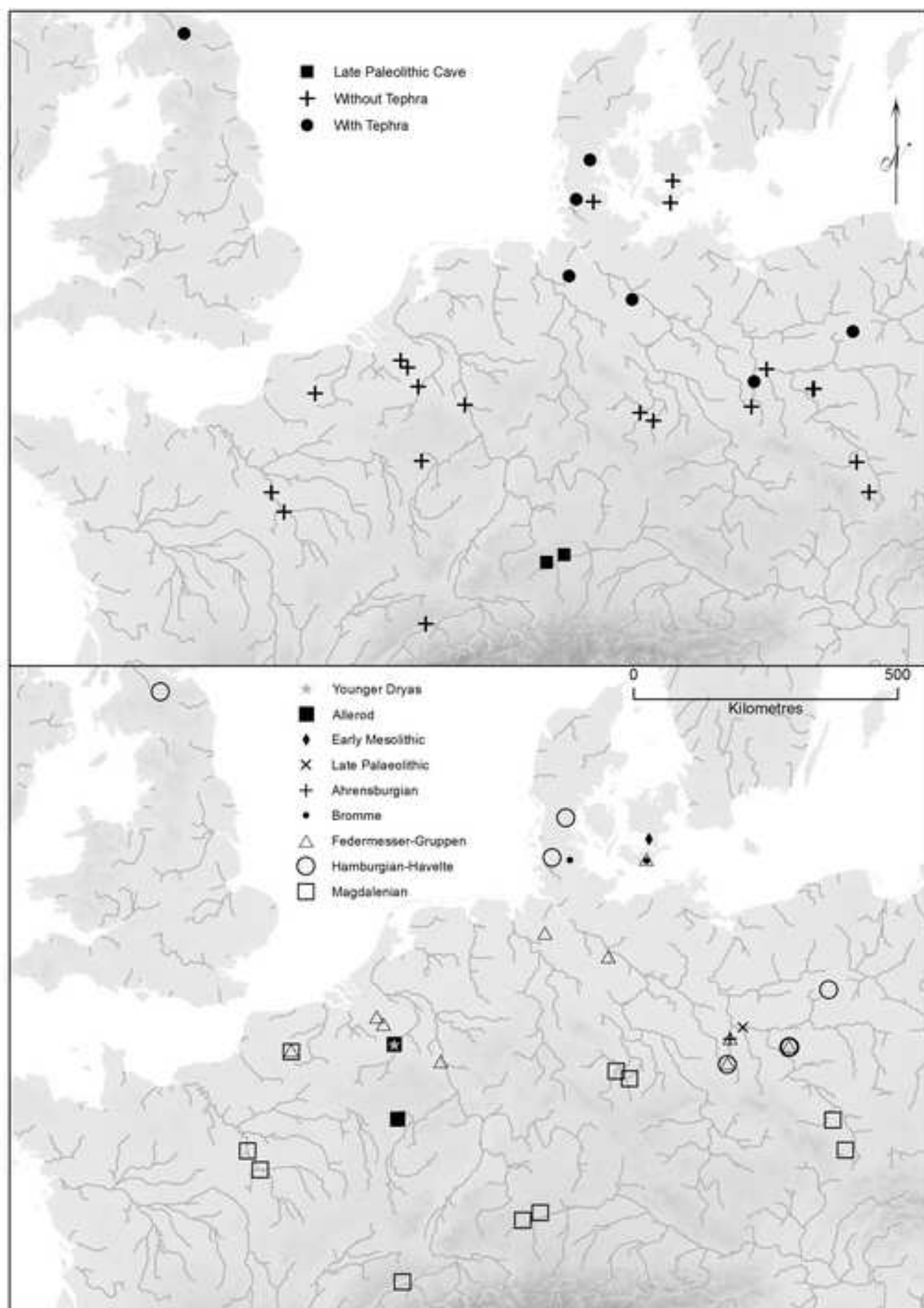
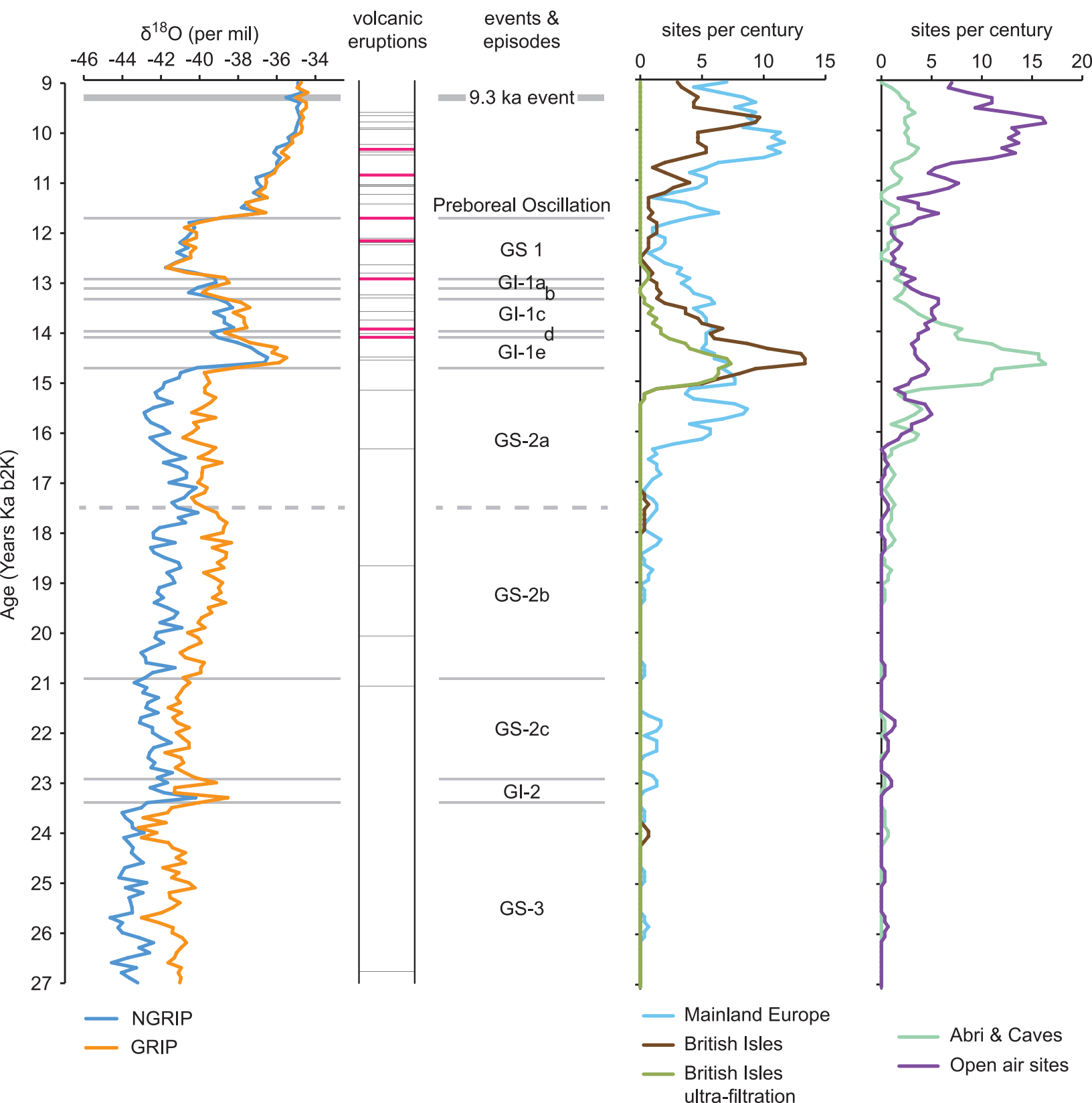


Figure 2



**Supplementary Data S1**

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