

Contribution to special issue “Cross-Disciplinary Approaches to Prehistoric
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A Manifesto for Palaeodemography in the 21st Century

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1. Defining palaeodemography: aims and scope

Demography is the study of human populations and their structure, i.e. the composition of populations, and the subdivision of the metapopulation into smaller subunits. Palaeodemography refers to the study of the demography of ancient populations for which there are no written sources (broadly synonymous with ‘prehistoric demography’) [1]. Palaeodemography shares the core aims of its present-day counterpart; namely, to document and explain changes within, and variations between, the size and structure of human populations. However, by definition, no direct demographic data—equivalent to modern-day censuses or registration forms—exist for prehistoric populations. Instead, palaeodemographic information is derived from a wide range of proxies, which only indirectly inform on demographic processes and parameters.

36 Accordingly, at present we consider palaeodemography to be less an independent field akin to
37 demography proper, and more an interlinked set of cross-disciplinary interests sharing the
38 common aims of reconstructing and analysing prehistoric population histories. Archaeology is
39 presently driving this agenda as the primary discipline relevant to human prehistory. The
40 archaeological record is the origin of most data gathered to explore prehistoric population change
41 and to test competing hypotheses. Elsewhere, other established fields – most prominently
42 genomics, (biological and evolutionary) anthropology, and cultural evolution – exhibit a growing
43 interest in palaeodemography. This is unsurprising: population size and structure, and the basic
44 demographic parameters of mortality, fertility, and migration that underlie them, deeply affect
45 human societies, in all times and places, and are therefore highly relevant to a wide array of
46 research questions. Processes such as gene flow, social network scaling, cultural complexity,
47 innovation and trait accumulation, environmental footprint, and societal resilience both influence,
48 and in turn are influenced by, population change across multiple parameters [e.g. 2-6].

49
50 Researchers have long emphasised the benefits of a multi-proxy, cross-disciplinary approach to
51 palaeodemography [7]. No single discipline or dataset can inform on all aspects of prehistoric
52 demography nor at all spatial and temporal scales (Table 1) and the shortcomings and limitations
53 of individual palaeodemographic proxies are well-documented, even if often overstated [e.g. 8-
54 10]. Against the backdrop of the recent maturation of palaeodemographic method and theory, we
55 take this opportunity to reflect on the state of the art, outline broader ambitions for
56 palaeodemography, and identify concrete challenges for future research to address; our
57 ‘manifesto’ for palaeodemography in the 21st century, the central premise of which is that the
58 future of prehistoric demographic research lies in the *combination* of data sources, methods, and
59 theories engendered by palaeodemography. Synthetic approaches provide both a more
60 encompassing picture of prehistoric demography and a means of cross-checking the validity of
61 palaeodemographic reconstructions and interpretations. Here, we take this emphasis one step

62 further. As exemplified by the papers assembled in this issue, we propose that palaeodemography
63 is *necessarily* cross-disciplinary.

64

65 **[Insert Table 1 here]**

66

67 The papers collected in this special issue of *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*
68 stem from a pair of international workshops hosted in Tarragona at the Institut Català de
69 Paleoecología Humana i Evolució Social (1st-2nd March 2018) and London at the UCL Institute of
70 Archaeology (29th-30th March 2019), after a conference session held during the 23rd European
71 Association of Archaeologists meeting in Maastricht (31st August 2017). The three events shared
72 the name *Cross-Disciplinary Approaches to Prehistoric Demography* (CROSSDEM), and now
73 lend it to this issue. The workshops were sponsored respectively by the European Research
74 Council and the Leverhulme Trust and the UCL Institute of Advanced Studies. At the time of
75 writing, a third workshop is scheduled to take place in 2021 hosted by Aarhus University, in
76 collaboration with the University of Cologne. Scholars at several other institutions have also
77 expressed interest in hosting further CROSSDEM workshops. The popularity of the CROSSDEM
78 endeavour reflects the wider growth in scholarly interest in the topic of prehistoric demography. It
79 is this growth that motivated us to choose to write a manifesto for the future study of
80 palaeodemography to introduce this collection of papers.

81

82 **2. State of the art in palaeodemography**

83

84 To establish the background to our manifesto, we summarise briefly here the current state of the
85 art in the main fields that contribute to palaeodemographic research. More thorough, general
86 summaries of palaeodemography can be found in **[1; 11-16]**, including information on the
87 historical development of approaches to the study of prehistoric demography.

88

89 *a. Indirect archaeological proxies*

90 Archaeological data are used primarily to reconstruct and analyze relative temporal and spatial
91 trends in aggregate demographic measures (population density, size, and distribution), ranging
92 in scale from individual sites to continents. Archaeological approaches to palaeodemography fall
93 into two broad groups: 1) those that assume a relationship between quantities of archaeological
94 material and the intensity of past occupation/activity (a measure of population size and/or density),
95 and 2) those that infer palaeodemographic trends from the cultural or environmental response to
96 demographic change and/or that estimate demographic parameters from contemporary
97 palaeoenvironmental and palaeogeographic reconstructions, usually in combination with
98 demographic data from ethnographically-documented subsistence-level societies. The first of
99 these approaches currently dominates archaeological palaeodemographic research and is our
100 focus here.

101

102 Georeferenced radiocarbon data, as a proxy for relative change in activity over time, are presently
103 the *de facto* first port of call for archaeologists conducting palaeodemographic research, as
104 reflected in the contributions to this volume [17-21]. These works rely on summed probability
105 distributions of calibrated radiocarbon dates (SPDs), although recently bootstrapped kernel
106 density estimation (KDEs) has seen useful and increasing application [22-23] for analogous
107 purposes: the aggregation of radiometric assemblages to reconstruct palaeodemography.

108

109 This trend, instigated by Berry [24] and more famously by Rick [25], is driven by the disciplinary
110 ubiquity of radiocarbon dates and a growing literacy in computational methods, primarily the R
111 statistical language [26], but also Python. That radiocarbon modelling dominates the
112 archaeological discussion on demography appears to be a fair observation and should be
113 acknowledged in the context of critiques levelled against the use of SPDs. Cautions against

114 relying overly on radiocarbon to infer cultural processes is virtually as old as the method itself
115 **[27]**. Current approaches are grounded in hypothesis testing and modelling uncertainty, and to
116 suggest its use is purely problematic would be a disservice to the strides made and ongoing
117 development of analytical frameworks **[22; 28-31]**. Nonetheless, advances in methods that are
118 on the horizon, which capitalise on Bayesian frameworks to overcome the intrinsic limitations of
119 frequentist approaches, are highly promising for accurately resolving palaeodemographic
120 parameters **[32]**. The recent publication of the IntCal20, SHCal20, and Marine20 curves will likely
121 lead to further refinements, particularly in Pleistocene settings where dates are sparser **[33]**.

122

123 Despite their ubiquity, the aggregate analyses of dates are not universally applicable as a robust
124 palaeodemographic proxy. The half-life of ^{14}C precludes the use of radiocarbon dating beyond
125 ~55,000 years ago. Human palaeodemographic studies before the second half of the Late
126 Pleistocene must seek alternative proxies, with an accompanying decrease in the temporal
127 resolution available **[34-35 this volume; 36]**. At the other end of the timescale, the preference for
128 cross-referencing the archaeological record to numismatic data, high quality seriations, or written
129 records in proto-historic (as well as historical) periods can also lead to the under-representation
130 of comparatively low-resolution radiocarbon dates. This form of investigation bias is known to
131 produce artefacts in summary measures, for example in the Roman period of the British Isles
132 **[37]**. Nonetheless, aggregate analyses of ^{14}C are apparently sensitive to historical events of
133 sufficient duration and intensity, some notable examples being the Black Death and First Nations
134 oral accounts of ethnocide **[23, 38]**. At present, equifinality of date assemblages and their possible
135 (non-)response to such events must be evaluated on a case-by-case basis. There is,
136 consequently, great potential in developing rigorous approaches that can distinguish the effects
137 of systematic under sampling from a genuine dearth of archaeological deposits.

138

139 Archaeological alternatives to ¹⁴C-based proxies include settlement residency estimates – for
140 example, numbers of assemblages, densities of archaeological material, size of sites and
141 catchments areas – whose implementation varies considerably between mobile [35,39] and
142 sedentary societies [40], tree-ring dating [41] (this volume) and historical documentation including
143 death registers, population censuses, and epigraphy [42- 43]. Combining one or more of these
144 diverse datasets with date assemblages provides useful controls on the limitations of radiocarbon
145 summaries mentioned above [44]. In ancient urban contexts, modelling palaeodemographic
146 parameters or effective population sizes is rarely an end unto itself, usually forming an
147 intermediate step for applications of theory that engages with the emergent socio-political
148 properties of dense populations [18;45-46].

149

150 *b. Indirect genomics proxies*

151 Demographic history is one of the key variables influencing genetic variation. Genetic variation
152 and diversity between individuals within a population and between different populations are
153 largely attributable to differences in ancestry and are driven by demographic processes. The
154 spread and prevalence of genes are intrinsically related to patterns and rates of fertility and
155 mortality (surviving into adulthood to be able to reproduce). Additional demographic variables
156 affecting whom people have children with are also important (e.g. the rate of migration between
157 populations).

158

159 Genetic variation and diversity tell us about three demographic variables and processes that are
160 largely unferrable from other palaeodemographic data sources: effective population size (N_e -an
161 idealised measure equivalent to the number of reproducing individuals in a population), admixture,
162 and migration. There are two types of genetic data relevant for reconstructing prehistoric
163 population histories: genetic data from living individuals/contemporary populations (modern
164 DNA), and ancient DNA (aDNA) obtained directly from prehistoric fossil remains.

165

166 Genetics is the fastest growth area within palaeodemography. Much of this growth is attributable
167 to the continued increase in data availability. Recent advances in sequencing and genotyping
168 technologies (advances that have simultaneously lowered the costs of generating genetic data)
169 have resulted in the creation of large high-quality genomic databases of present-day populations
170 **[47]**. The development of Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) and High Input Sequencing (HTS)
171 methods have similarly increased the availability of ancient genetic data. In addition to reducing
172 the costs of DNA retrieval, and the size of the archaeological/palaeontological sample required
173 for extraction, these methods allow for the retrieval of whole genome data **[48-49]**. In contrast to
174 the earlier Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) method that could only reliably target the longest
175 DNA sequences in ancient samples – usually restricted to multicopy mitochondrial sequences
176 **[50]** – NGS/HTS methods allow for the targeting of the shorter and more degraded autosomal
177 DNA molecules, which are more representative of the whole genome, and provide a more
178 complete record of genetic inheritance than uniparentally-inherited loci (currently, the oldest
179 autosomal hominin aDNA sequences retrieved come from the ~400,000 year old pre-Neanderthal
180 populations at Sima de los Huesos **[51]**. Concurrently, new protocols to both prevent and detect
181 contamination of archaeological samples have also been developed, particularly those that detect
182 contamination from modern human DNA **[52-53]**. The emerging field of palaeoproteomics (the
183 study of ancient proteins) also provides insights into some variables relevant to demography–
184 most notably phylogeny–with ancient proteins providing an alternative source of biomolecular
185 data in contexts where ancient DNA has already degraded beyond retrievability **[54]**.

186

187 The increase in high-quality genetic data does not in and of itself equate with a better
188 understanding of prehistoric population histories. As with all sources of palaeodemographic data,
189 genetic data only provide indirect information of past demographic patterns and processes, and
190 issues of equifinality abound. Genetic variation is not just the result of past demographic histories–

191 migrations, expansions and colonizations—but also of the mechanisms underlying genetic
192 inheritance; random mutations, genetic drift, and natural selection [55]. Several different
193 population histories can be consistent with observed genetic diversity. Conversely, the same
194 population history can give rise to different genetic patterns [56]. As reviewed by Loog in this
195 volume [57] reconstructing past demography using genetic data (both ancient and modern)
196 requires an inferential approach that compares patterns of genetic variation with model
197 expectations from theoretical population genetics. These approaches divide into two broad
198 categories: pattern-based, descriptive approaches, and explicit models. We refer the reader to
199 Loog’s paper for a thorough up-to-date summary of current approaches to demographic and
200 palaeodemographic inference from genetic data.

201 *c. Direct proxies (Skeletal palaeodemography)*

202 Skeletal data and biological anthropology are the most direct form of palaeodemographic
203 evidence, able to inform on demographic parameters at the level of the individual and on
204 population dynamics at a comparatively higher level of spatial resolution. The two main measures
205 of population composition, and the determining factors of most demographic behaviours, are age
206 and biological sex: individual attributes that are ascertainable from human skeletons and from
207 which demographic profiles and parameters of prehistoric populations can be generated. Skeletal
208 palaeodemography is reliant on a principle of demographic uniformitarianism for both its
209 theoretical and methodological foundations—the assumption that both demographic processes
210 and biological markers for inferring age and sex are universal across human populations and
211 through time [58-59].

212

213 McFadden’s contribution to this volume [60] summarises succinctly both the history of skeletal
214 analysis in palaeodemography and prevailing approaches, to which we refer the reader. In brief,
215 her review of the state-of-the-art of this subfield emphasises recent methodological developments
216 in two crucial areas: 1) the improvement of estimation methods and statistical procedures to

217 calculate both individual age-at-death and the age-at-death distribution of skeletal assemblages
218 (as laid out in [61]), and 2) the development of new demographic proxy estimators. This latter
219 development is particularly noteworthy. The use of proxy estimators reduces the influence of
220 potentially inaccurate age estimates on the resultant demographic signature by minimising the
221 number of age categories and the corresponding number of points for potential error [62].
222 Furthermore, the skeletal data themselves provide the measured demographic rate, rather than
223 life table data from hypothetical or historical populations; data that risk introducing inaccuracies
224 due to their in-built assumption of stationarity (defined as a population that is closed to migration,
225 and with stable age-specific fertility and mortality rates resulting in 0% growth; conditions that very
226 few real populations meet). Demographic proxy estimators therefore provide the most robust – if
227 somewhat generalised – skeletally-derived palaeodemographic measures. An improved
228 estimator for fertility [63] as well as new estimators for population increase [64] and for maternal
229 mortality [65] are important recent additions to the skeletal palaeodemography toolkit, although the
230 long-recognised problem of the distorting influence of the underrepresentation of infants and the
231 elderly in skeletal assemblages [66] on the resultant demographic signature persists [67].

232
233 Outside of this ‘formal’ skeletal palaeodemographic analysis, the human skeleton also provides
234 data on other variables relevant to prehistoric demography, including (some) causes of mortality,
235 morbidity and health (palaeopathology) and life-history-related variables. Of these life-history
236 related variables, the increased analysis of the age-at-weaning of prehistoric children (a proxy
237 for the inter-birth interval and a key determinant of overall fertility in non-contracepting
238 populations; [68]) through trace element distributions and isotopic values of teeth is a particularly
239 notable contribution to our understanding of demographic parameters among non-literate
240 populations (e.g. [69-71]).

241

242 **3. Looking forward: grand challenges for palaeodemography**

243

244 As is typical of any growing multi-disciplinary research endeavor, each of the fields described
245 above has its own challenges and priorities moving forward. We do not presume to speak for
246 specialists within each of these fields and direct the reader to the relevant papers discussed above
247 to learn more about the specific methodological and theoretical concerns of each of these
248 approaches. Here, we highlight the ‘grand challenges’ facing palaeodemographic research: those
249 that unite practitioners across multiple fields and that several papers in this special issue address.

250

251 *a. Generating absolute estimates for demographic parameters*

252 Perhaps the most notable challenge – and one that is oft-remarked by those new to
253 palaeodemography and its research outputs – is generating absolute estimates for demographic
254 parameters. Frustratingly, this challenge also applies to the aggregate demographic outcomes of
255 these parameters (population size, density and growth rate) that are the main variables of interest
256 in palaeodemographic research and are more readily inferred from the proxy records discussed
257 above. Absolute estimates are not a prerequisite for the study of prehistoric demography. They
258 do, however, offer multiple benefits over relative trends, including permitting the closer
259 examination of the relationship(s) between population and other socio-cultural variables (including
260 their analysis within cultural evolutionary frameworks - see below). Methods for generating
261 absolute estimates of prehistoric population parameters vary, but typically combine direct data
262 from one of the disciplines discussed above with quantitative demographic data from recent small-
263 scale or subsistence-level societies (e.g. [72-74]. The ‘Cologne Protocol’, summarised by Schmidt
264 and colleagues in this issue [35] is the most robust method for producing absolute demographic
265 estimates from archaeological data, quantifying prehistoric population sizes and densities using
266 a combination of geospatial analysis and demographic data from ethnographically-documented
267 foraging and/or farming groups. Originally developed for application to sedentary societies, the
268 Cologne Protocol has subsequently been adapted for use on mobile populations and applied to

269 multiple periods of European prehistory from the Upper Palaeolithic to the Iron Age (references
270 in [35]) and modified to aid wider geographical applicability [39].

271
272 One of the advantages of the 'Cologne Protocol' is the scalability of its estimates from the regional
273 to the supra-regional level; an important methodological advantage in a research area where the
274 transfer of estimates of prehistoric population size and density across different spatial scales
275 remains difficult [75]. More widely, integrating data that informs on prehistoric demography at
276 disparate temporal and spatial scales (**Table 1**), and combining these with models and data from
277 present-day demography and ecology, is an on-going challenge in the pursuit of an inherently
278 multi-proxy cross-disciplinary palaeodemography. Failure to recognise these different scales can
279 lead to misinterpretations of the data. A good case in point is the 'forager population paradox'
280 [76]; the differences in population growth rate estimates between those recorded among recent
281 hunter-gatherers and those estimated for prehistoric hunter-gatherers based on back-projections
282 of known global population sizes. One possible solution to this paradox is that prehistoric and
283 recent hunter-gatherers are demographically different (although as French and Chamberlain [59]
284 (this issue) show, this interpretation violates the principle of demographic uniformitarianism that
285 underlies all palaeodemographic research). A more persuasive solution, as presented by
286 Tallavaara and Jørgensen [42] in this volume relates to the differences in temporal scale inherent
287 in the data on population growth rate(s) of past and present hunter-gatherers. By comparing
288 growth rate estimates derived from historical sources (Sámi tax records) with growth rates derived
289 from simulated SPDs, reproducing the Belovsky's model of oscillating population dynamics [77]
290 under different regimes of environmental productivity, Tallavaara and Jørgensen show that
291 historical/ethnographic and archaeological sources are actually measuring different parameters.
292 While the former are recording actual changes in population size, archaeological data are not of
293 sufficient resolution to detect comparable population dynamics and instead track long-term mean
294 variance in population size controlled by environmental productivity.

295

296 *b. Definition and delimitation of 'population'*

297 In addition to differences in temporal and spatial scale, different disciplines and proxies vary in
298 how they define and use 'populations' as a unit of analysis, which must be taken into account
299 when integrating data from multiple proxies. In archaeology, populations are defined as the people
300 present within an area over a given period; the 'census' (N_c) or 'on the ground' population. In
301 contrast, within genetics, populations are defined and measured via the relatedness and
302 similarities between individuals (and by extension, the populations to which they belonged) and
303 population size refers to effective population size (N_e). As such, estimates of past population size
304 from genetic data on the one hand, and archaeological data on the other, are not directly
305 comparable. Confusion over the difference between census and effective population size, and
306 how the two measures relate to each other, may be partly responsible for the ambiguity and
307 debate surrounding the empirical evidence of the relationship within cultural evolutionary
308 frameworks between population size and cultural complexity – a topic reviewed expertly by
309 Strassberg and Creanza in this volume [78].

310 At a more fundamental level, identifying or demarcating prehistoric 'populations' continues to
311 challenge palaeodemographers. One archaeological means of recognising a 'population' –
312 through material culture – embodies these challenges. The idea that material culture patterning
313 corresponds to past populations is both long-standing and heavily debated with archaeology (e.g.
314 [79]). This approach assumes (frequently more implicitly than explicitly) that spatial and temporal
315 typological variation in material culture assemblages (stone tools/lithics, ceramics etc.) can
316 demarcate and identify past populations. These variants are usually grouped into discrete
317 'technocomplexes': cultural taxonomic units with which populations (sometimes in the form of self-
318 conscious 'ethnic groups') are frequently equated (i.e. people who manufactured stone tools
319 attributed to the Aurignacian technocomplex become 'the Aurignacians'). There are several

320 problems with this approach, not least that many technocomplexes as ill-defined, historically
321 contingent, and poor descriptors of spatial and temporal variability of assemblages [80-81]. As
322 Bevan and Crema demonstrate in this issue [82], the temporal component of these
323 technocomplexes – which often act as shorthands for periodisations – can furthermore distort any
324 long-term reconstructions of population trends when they are used as the chronological
325 framework.

326 The methodological limitations of these technocomplexes as ‘modifiable reporting units’ [82] in
327 palaeodemography aside, if we assume that cultural traits are socially transmitted– that ‘ways of
328 doing things’ are learnt by people from others in their society [83]– some association between
329 specific attributes of material culture and specific populations should exist, although the nature
330 and strength of this relationship is context dependent. The development of methods to relate
331 material culture variability to demography is a key priority for archaeological palaeodemography,
332 particularly in earliest prehistory (Palaeolithic) where the archaeological record is more limited
333 and consists primarily of lithics (stone tools). A growing body of research drawing upon cultural
334 evolutionary models uses temporal and spatial patterning in multiple lithic attributes to identify
335 instances of migration and population interaction, and the structure of Palaeolithic populations
336 (i.e. the way(s) in which the metapopulation was spatially segregated into sub-populations) (e.g.
337 [84-85]). One key finding of these studies is that clusters (i.e. population groupings) often crosscut
338 those based on traditional technocomplexes.

339 *c. Integration of non-demographic datasets*

340 The challenges facing palaeodemography extend beyond the reconstruction of past population
341 trends to analysing the consequences and drivers of prehistoric population change. In addition to
342 the multi-proxy approach to generating palaeodemographic data, this analysis requires the
343 development of methods to test and examine these data against non-demographic data sets.

344 Setting trends in human demography against palaeoenvironmental and climatic records is a
345 widespread practice (e.g. [37; 86-89]), and comparisons between radiocarbon time series and
346 independent environmentally- or archaeologically derived proxies for human activity also offers
347 interesting new directions [44; 90-94]. Where sufficiently resolved data are available, correlations
348 (or the lack thereof) between proxies may be explicitly tested for in a similar vein to established
349 hypothesis-testing frameworks [95]. Consequently, we believe that radiocarbon-based methods
350 will have an enduring place among palaeodemographic proxies. We also anticipate this role will
351 be augmented, rather than diminished, by being cross-referenced with datasets and models
352 generated by other approaches, in particular population and behavioural ecology.

353 Several papers presented here embody the potential different ways in which the dynamic
354 relationship between population size and ecology were articulated in the past, specifically as
355 regards environmental carrying capacity. McLaughlin et al. [19] analyze demographic changes
356 during the Late Glacial and Early Holocene in Atlantic Iberia, an area dramatically impacted by
357 postglacial eustatic changes and climatic-induced shifts in upwelling patterns. The adoption of a
358 multi-proxy approach allowed the study of long-term changes of population density against shifts
359 in settlement organization and diet. The study clearly shows population growth during the
360 Mesolithic favored by an increase in environmental carrying capacity, especially in estuarine
361 areas, prompting an increasing dependence on marine and estuarine food sources. Vander
362 Linden and Silva [21] explore the relationship between population dynamics and farming
363 dispersals. While the relationship between density dependent population growth and human
364 dispersals is a classic topic in population ecology, the originality of this contribution lies in the
365 implementation of a new methodology to detect deviations from a model of density dependence
366 in an archaeological context. The paper by Arroyo-Kalin and Riris [20] reconstructs prehistoric
367 demography of the South American tropical lowlands during the Late Holocene (between 1050
368 BC and AD 1500). The examination of aggregate patterns derived from SPD time series against

369 their geographic distribution suggests that Amazonian populations reached carrying capacity in
370 the final millennia before European Conquest and describe a long-term regime of logistic growth
371 under a diversified tropical subsistence base. The coincidence of palaeodemographic patterns
372 alongside geographical expansions of Indigenous Amazonian language families highlighted by
373 these authors suggests that socio-cultural data (such as historical linguistics) might provide
374 another source of proxies with which to cross-reference ancient population data. Notably, the
375 paper by Roscoe et al. [18] investigates the effects of population density on political centralisation,
376 and ultimately, its role as a driver of ancient state formation. They focus particularly on the
377 precocious emergence of complex societies on the desert coast of Peru against the backdrop of
378 the rise in integrative (ceremonial) and productive (irrigation) infrastructure. The effects of
379 increased population density are clearly not limited to generating power differentials among
380 formerly unranked groups or individuals, but may be expressed in a range of material evidence
381 from rates of cultural transmission to the chances of a variety of types of social encounter taking
382 place [96-97].

383

384 In general, however, few studies have examined the interplay between palaeodemography and
385 other dimensions of human sociality, including but not limited to linguistics, social network
386 structure, and political organisation. The fine scale of prehistoric social dynamics and how they
387 articulate with population history are rarely preserved in any detail. In rare cases where
388 preservation, sampling interval, and chronological resolution can all be taken advantage of with
389 appropriate analytical techniques, however, profound insights into prehistoric demography can
390 emerge. Recent examples include marriage patterns and possible institutionalised inequality in
391 the central European Bronze Age [98] and the emergence of a dynastic elite in early Neolithic
392 Ireland, with striking evidence of anomalous mating patterns potentially sanctioned through the
393 extant power structure of the time [99]. Exceptional examples such as these will likely never be
394 the norm in palaeodemographic research, which will continue to focus on the shifts of averages

395 over a great span of years, but they are illustrative of the limits of what is possible with current
396 methods.

397

398 **4. A manifesto for palaeodemography in the 21st century**

399

400 To conclude we present here our manifesto for palaeodemography in the 21st century – our
401 recommendations of best practice and collegial suggestions for priorities for future research in
402 palaeodemography, building on the work presented in this special issue. While distinct, each
403 element of this manifesto is united by our central premise: that the future of prehistoric
404 demographic research lies in the *combination* of data sources, methods, and theories engendered
405 by palaeodemography.

406

407 **1) Adoption of multi-proxy approaches.** Palaeodemographic parameters can be drawn
408 from various sources, including ethnographic, genomic, historic, and archaeological. All
409 these proxies differ in scale, scope, and sampling resolution. Adopting approaches
410 combining several of these proxies can compensate for limitations of individual proxies
411 and provide richer and deeper views of demography-related processes from the deep
412 past.

413

414 **2) Discussion of underlying assumptions and elaboration of palaeodemographic**
415 **models.** The data-driven nature of palaeodemographic research means that interpretation
416 of results usually occurs within the wider framework of the mathematical and/or
417 computational models employed. Discussion of the underlying assumptions and
418 limitations of these models is vital to the assessment of the results and their interpretation
419 and a necessary step in the improvement or elaboration of palaeodemographic methods
420 and databases. In particular, applying experimental approaches to explore quantitative

421 models from population ecology (and related fields) and further actualistic and
422 experimental studies of the key assumptions of these models (including, for example, the
423 analysis of taphonomic loss under different kind of sedimentary regimes or modeling the
424 effects of different mobility regimes on the accumulation of anthropogenic carbon) merit a
425 special place in the future of palaeodemographic research, allowing for the improved
426 testing of competing hypotheses and refining theoretical frameworks (see below).

427

428

429 **3) Development of a theory of palaeodemography.** Palaeodemography is not just a
430 methodological endeavour; several of the challenges mentioned above also need to be
431 considered theoretically. Issues such as whether and how demography impacts the
432 quantity and patterning of settlements and radiometric dates are not merely
433 epistemological but also ontological challenges. An ideal starting point is increased
434 engagement with existing demographic and taphonomic theory; developing a more
435 robust “middle range theory” of palaeodemography, focusing on the nature of the
436 relationship(s) between demography and the archaeological data we employ to infer
437 them.

438

439 **4) Fostering cross-disciplinary discussions and initiatives.** The challenge of future
440 palaeodemographic research is targeting scientific audiences from very different
441 disciplines (archaeology, human biology, ecology, genetics). As any other cross-
442 disciplinary effort, this challenge requires setting multi-disciplinary discussion spaces to
443 share research goals, concepts and methodologies. This is the approach adopted by the
444 CROSSDEM initiative and exemplified by Sear & Shennan’s contribution to this volume
445 **[100]** that takes the form of a dialogue between leading figures in the fields of evolutionary
446 demography and archaeological demography, respectively.

447

448 **5) Adhering to the Open Science basic principles.** Since most of the present and future
449 palaeodemographic research relies on data-driven approaches, the adoption of an Open
450 Science framework is compulsory. This entails the full publication of data, metadata and
451 methods allowing assessment of data quality and supporting research reproducibility. In
452 particular, as exemplified by different papers from this special issue, the adoption of open
453 source statistical packages (as R), as well as common repositories for quantitative
454 methods and data sets (GitHub) has become a common practice in radiocarbon
455 palaeodemography. Future research on other classes of archaeological data sets must
456 seek to follow the same principles. Generally speaking, the acquisition of data sets for
457 palaeodemographic research and the production of high-quality metadata needs to be
458 considered a priority in future research agendas, which needs to be recognized by funding
459 agencies.

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461 Palaeodemography is an emerging field of inquiry in which the drive to historicise past events is
462 juxtaposed – and often in conflict – with the search for evolutionary dynamics and long-term
463 trends. At present, questions are in abundance; definitive resolutions or concrete answers less
464 so. We argue that this open playing field should be seen as an opportunity to overcome past
465 shortcomings, as we find our species at a point in history when the limits of ecological resilience
466 have never been of greater concern. Societal and demographic collapse continue to loom large
467 in both popular **[101]** and scientific imaginaries **[102-103]**. Malthus casts long shadows, and one
468 only needs to consider the identification of prehistoric boom and bust cycles as an example **[104]**.
469 We envision that palaeodemography may one day provide a uniquely long-term foil to the more
470 immediate and contemporary concerns of demography, *sensu stricto*. Our attention is drawn to
471 the parts of the world for which no written census or population records exist, and the entire span
472 of our genus' history since its emergence in Africa. The very nature of the archaeological and

473 palaeoanthropological record means that inference becomes increasingly constrained the closer
474 in time one gets to the dawn of what may be termed a “human population” to study. Matching the
475 resolution and sampling quality of modern population studies (be they ethnographic, archival,
476 WEIRD, or otherwise based on observational data) in, for example, *Homo naledi* is in all
477 probability a non-starter. As demonstrated by this collection of papers, however,
478 palaeodemographic researchers across the world have the reach and ability to address profound
479 questions across timescales that dwarf most demographic studies. In other words, we propose
480 that palaeodemographic research must be pragmatic and focused in scope to mature as a field
481 of inquiry. Our manifesto establishes the guidelines for achieving this goal, and we hope to see it
482 realised in forthcoming work.

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509 **Editor biographies**
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Table

Field	Data sources	Demographic variables	Scale of analysis
<i>Archaeology</i>	Radiocarbon dates, settlement data (room counts, site numbers, settlement phasings), material culture	Population size, density, distribution, growth	Regions, continents, cultures, food production systems over multi-centennial timescales and above.
<i>Genomics/genetics</i>	Modern and ancient DNA	Population size, admixture, migrations	Multiscalar, depending on sampling strategy
<i>Biological anthropology (skeletal palaeodemography)</i>	Biological remains including dental and skeletal samples	Age at death distributions, population structure (age-sex distribution), fertility, life history variables, causes of death, morbidity	Local (cemeteries) to continental/global (palaeodemes) Intra- and inter-generational time

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Table 1. The three main disciplinary sources of palaeodemographic data and the demographic variables on which they can inform

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