
Typeface Specimen

June is a refined serif shaped by classical book type and longform reading. Its balanced contrast, open forms, and steady rhythm create a calm, dependable texture. Warmly academic and quietly confident, it's built for pages that ask to be read.

And yes, it's named after my cat.

June Collection

June Display

June Text

June Display

SUBORDINATE
Topographically

CHARISMATIC
Sycophantically

June Display Semibold 90 pt / Tracking -10

VANQUISHERS
Countrywomen

June Display Bold 90 pt / Tracking -10

ANNUALIZING
Outperforming

WEEKNIGHTS Audiocassettes

INTERTROPICAL CONVERGENCE ZONE
Lower rainfalls (630–1,100 mm (25–43 in))
EST. 21.9 GIGATONNES BIOMASS/YEAR
Production of commodities: wood, beef, soy

AGRICULTURE OF THE UNITED NATION
Founded 16 October 1945, Quebec City, CN
1ST WORLD FOOD SUMMIT TO ADDRESS
Budget for 2018–2019 is \$105.6 million USD

FOREST RESOURCE ASSESSMENT (FRA)
1960s: Paleontologist Charles B. Beck was
LOWER CARBONIFEROUS (382 — 323M)
Trees could grow to 24 m (80 ft) in height!

1998 FIELD EST. GLOBAL PRODUCTION
Per a 2020 study published in Nature, it's
BIOMASS OF PROKARYOTES IS 30B
The priming effect phenomenon in 1926

IRON OXIDE, CARBONATE AND CLAY
“Textures, structures, density, porosity”
2: CLIMATES (CL) / 3: ORGANISMS (O),
Diazotroph Bacteria (i.e, Cyanobacteria)

A climate normal is defined as the arithmetic average of a climate element (e.g. temperature) over a 30-year period. A 30-year period is used as it is long enough to filter out any interannual variation or anomalies such as El Nino–Southern Oscillation, but also short enough to be able to show longer climatic trends.

Alpine permafrost is particularly difficult to study, and systematic research efforts did not begin until the 1970s. Consequently, there remain uncertainties about its geography. As recently as 2009, permafrost had been discovered in a new area – Africa’s highest peak, Mount Kilimanjaro (4,700 m (15,400 ft) above

Some wave-cut caves are now above sea level because of later uplift. Elsewhere, in places such as Thailand's Phang Nga Bay, solutional caves have been flooded by the sea and are now subject to littoral erosion. Sea caves are generally around 5 to 50 metres (16 to 164 ft) in length, but may exceed 300 metres (980 ft).

In Europe, it is found in much of Central Europe: Germany (in the east and southeast part of the country), Austria (generally below 700 m (2,297 ft)), Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary (generally above 100 m (328 ft)), Croatia (mostly Slavonia region), in much of Eastern Europe:

The distinction between vegetation (the general appearance of a community) and flora (the taxonomic composition of a community) was first made by Jules Thurmann (1849). Prior to this, the two terms (vegetation and flora) were used indiscriminately, and still are in some contexts.

June Display Regular
June Display Medium
June Display Semibold
June Display Bold
June Display Black

Uppercase

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

Lowercase

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

Numerals

0123456789

Punctuation

.,:;!/_---_()“”‘’”

Symbols

\$

June Text

June Text Regular 90 pt / Tracking -10

PROMETHIUM
Interchangeable

June Text Medium 90 pt / Tracking -10

OVERBOUGHT
Backwoodsmen

June Text Semibold 90 pt / Tracking -10

CONCLUSIONS
Proprietorships

June Text Bold 90 pt / Tracking -10

RETROGRADE
Anthropologist

“BIOME” IS OFTEN USED TO MEAN BIOGEOGRAPHIC
A 1978 study on North American grasslands found a correlation
BOTANIST/CLIMATOLOGIST LESLIE HOLDRIDGE (1947)
Whittaker used 2 abiotic factors: precipitation and temperature,
SUMMED THE EFFECTS OF GRADIENTS (3) AND (4) TO GET
Robert G. Bailey developed more biogeographical classifications

(TEMPERATE DECIDUOUS/TEMPERATE BROADLEAF)
Northern Hemisphere’s forests include oak, maple, basswood
AROUND 750 TO 1,500 MILLIMETERS OF PRECIPITATION
Spring and Summer months that could last from 120 – 250 days.
NORTH AMERICAN FORESTS HAVE ACER SACCHARUM!
Located in the M230 Subtropical Division – Mountain Provinces

**TAIGA HAS ONLY EXISTED FOR THE LAST 12,000 YEARS
Scandinavian Ice Sheet in Eurasia and the Laurentide Ice Sheet
(THE 1ST GROWING SEASON IS ALWAYS SLIGHTLY LONGER)
17 million square kilometres (6.6 million square miles) or 11.5
IN EASTERN SIBERIA; ADJACENT OUTER MANCHURIA
Data for locations in southwest Yukon gives 80–120 frost-free**

**DESERTS AND XERIC SHRUBLANDS ARE A BIOME DEFINED
Annual rainfall they receive, less than 250 millimetres (10 in)
CLIMATIC SHIFTS SUCH AS THE MILANKOVITCH CYCLE!
Xeric shrubland ecoregion located in South Africa and Namibia.
CHIHUAHUAN DESERT, THE MOST BIODIVERSE DESERT
The spider tortoise (*Pyxis arachnoides*), the radiated tortoise**

The origin of America’s forests can be traced across geological and climatic timelines spanning 300M years, shaped by continental drift, glacial cycles, and long-term ecological succession. Fossil evidence suggests that early forest systems began stabilizing during the late Paleozoic era, with primitive tree forms establishing large-scale canopy structures capable of sustaining complex biodiversity. During successive glacial periods (c.2.6M–11,700 years ago), ice sheets advanced across northern latitudes, compressing soil layers, redirecting hydrological systems, and forcing vegetation zones to migrate southward before gradually returning as temperatures increased. By 10,000 BP, as the last major ice age receded, foundational forest systems began to resemble present-day distributions: hardwood-dominant regions expanding across the eastern

United States, while conifer systems established themselves in colder, higher-elevation zones. These forests operated as dynamic systems, governed by disturbance-regrowth cycles including fire frequency, storm impact, and seasonal variation, each contributing to species diversity and structural resilience. Pre-colonial land management practices by Indigenous communities—such as controlled burns, selective harvesting, and long-term observation—introduced a form of ecological stewardship that maintained forest productivity without systemic collapse. By the 1600s, forest cover across eastern North America was estimated at 85–90, representing one of the most extensive continuous woodland systems globally. However, between 1700–1900, accelerated deforestation driven by agriculture, timber extraction, and industrial expansion reduced forest coverage

The origin of America’s forests is a story written across deep time, shaped by shifting climates, continental movement, and cycles of growth and collapse that span millions of years. Long before human settlement, vast stretches of land across what is now the eastern United States were covered in dense, ancient woodlands formed during periods when temperature, rainfall, and soil conditions aligned to support continuous canopy growth. Fossil records and geological surveys suggest that by 300 million years ago, early forest systems had already begun to stabilize, with primitive tree forms establishing the first large scale ecosystems capable of supporting complex biodiversity. Over time, glacial cycles repeatedly altered the landscape. Ice sheets advanced and retreated across the northern regions, compressing soil, redirecting waterways, and forcing plant life to migrate southward before slowly returning as temperatures rose. These movements created layered forest zones, each defined by species adapted to specific conditions. By roughly 10,000 years ago, as the last major ice age receded, the foundations of modern American forests began to take shape. Hardwood species expanded across the east, while conifer dominated regions developed in colder northern climates and higher elevations. The structure of these forests was not uniform. Instead, it

reflected a dynamic balance between disturbance and regrowth, where fire, storms, and seasonal variation played essential roles in maintaining ecological diversity. Indigenous communities interacted with these systems in ways that were both intentional and sustainable. Controlled burns, selective harvesting, and long term observation allowed forests to remain productive without collapsing under overuse. Early accounts describe landscapes that were neither untouched nor overdeveloped, but actively maintained through practices that respected natural cycles. By the time European settlers arrived in the 1600s, forests covered an estimated 90 percent of the eastern landmass. Timber became a primary resource, used for construction, fuel, and trade. As settlements expanded, large sections of forest were cleared, particularly between 1700 and 1900, when agricultural demand and industrial growth accelerated deforestation. By the late 1800s, some regions had lost more than 50 percent of their original tree cover. This period marked a turning point. Forests were no longer seen as endless resources but as systems that could be depleted. Conservation efforts began to emerge, leading to the establishment of protected lands, national forests, and new approaches to land management. These changes did not restore forests to their original state, but

they did create the conditions for recovery. Today, American forests represent a layered history of adaptation, intervention, and resilience. Growth patterns reflect both natural processes and human influence, creating environments that are neither fully wild nor entirely controlled, but something in between, shaped by centuries of interaction and change. In the present day, America’s forests continue to evolve under a new set of pressures and opportunities, defined by climate change, urban expansion, and advances in ecological understanding. Forest coverage has increased in some regions compared to the late 19th century, with secondary growth forests now covering large portions of the eastern United States. These forests differ from their ancient predecessors in structure and composition. They are younger, more uniform in age, and often less diverse in species distribution. At the same time, they play a critical role in carbon storage, water regulation, and habitat support. Scientific measurement allows these functions to be quantified with increasing precision. A single acre of mature forest can store tens of thousands of pounds of carbon, while large forest systems influence regional temperature and rainfall patterns. However, rising global temperatures introduce new variables. Shifts in seasonal timing, increased frequency of extreme

Mountain biomes represent one of the most structurally complex and biologically diverse ecological systems on Earth, shaped by steep environmental gradients, rapid climatic shifts, and highly localized conditions that can vary dramatically across vertical distances as small as 100 to 500 m. Across major global ranges such as the Andes, Himalayas, Rockies, Alps, and Ethiopian Highlands, elevation functions as a primary organizing variable, influencing temperature, precipitation, atmospheric pressure, and solar radiation in ways that directly determine species distribution and ecological structure. At lower elevations, forest systems dominate, often transitioning from tropical or temperate zones into montane forests characterized by reduced canopy height, increased moisture retention, and distinct species assemblages. As

elevation increases beyond 2500 to 3500 m, tree lines begin to emerge, marking a critical ecological boundary where conditions no longer support sustained arboreal growth. Above this threshold, alpine systems develop, composed of grasses, mosses, lichens, and highly specialized flowering plants adapted to short growing seasons, cold temperatures, and limited soil depth. Despite these constraints, mountain biomes support disproportionately high levels of biodiversity relative to their total land area, often serving as refugia for endemic species found nowhere else in the world. Research suggests that mountain regions contain approximately 20 to 25 of global terrestrial biodiversity while occupying a significantly smaller portion of the Earth's surface. This concentration is driven by habitat fragmentation, isolation, and microclimatic

In contemporary contexts, mountain biodiversity is increasingly influenced by global environmental change, introducing new pressures that alter long established ecological patterns. Rising global temperatures are driving upward shifts in species distribution, with many plant and animal populations migrating higher in elevation in response to changing climatic conditions. This movement compresses available habitat as species approach the physical limits of mountain summits, reducing total viable area and increasing competition for resources. Changes in precipitation patterns further complicate these dynamics, affecting snow accumulation, water availability, and seasonal growth cycles. In some regions, reduced snowpack leads to earlier melting periods, altering soil moisture levels and impacting plant development. These shifts cascade through the ecosystem, influencing herbivore populations, predator behavior, and overall species interaction networks. Invasive species, previously restricted by colder conditions, are now establishing themselves at higher elevations, competing with native species and disrupting existing ecological balances. Human activity introduces additional layers of complexity, including infrastructure development, tourism, and resource

extraction, all of which contribute to habitat fragmentation and reduced connectivity between populations. Conservation strategies increasingly rely on data driven approaches, incorporating satellite monitoring, longitudinal field studies, and predictive modeling to assess biodiversity trends and identify critical areas for protection. Metrics such as species richness, population density, and genetic variation are used to evaluate ecosystem health, often tracked over multi decade timeframes to identify patterns of change. For example, some studies document measurable declines in specific alpine plant populations over periods of 20 to 50 years, alongside shifts in flowering cycles and reproductive timing. At the same time, certain species demonstrate adaptive capacity, adjusting to new conditions through changes in behavior, migration patterns, or physiological traits. The future of mountain biodiversity is therefore shaped by the interaction between environmental pressure and adaptive response, operating within systems that are both measurable and inherently complex. These biomes function as early indicators of broader ecological change, reflecting shifts in climate, land use, and species interaction with a level of sensitivity that is rarely observed in lower elevation systems. Their continued stability

depends on the balance between preservation and change, where even small variations in temperature, precipitation, or human activity can produce significant and sometimes irreversible effects on ecological structure and biodiversity. Mountain biomes represent one of the most structurally complex and biologically diverse ecological systems on Earth, shaped by steep environmental gradients, rapid climatic shifts, and highly localized conditions that can vary dramatically across vertical distances as small as 100 to 500 m. Across major global ranges such as the Andes, Himalayas, Rockies, Alps, and Ethiopian Highlands, elevation functions as a primary organizing variable, influencing temperature, precipitation, atmospheric pressure, and solar radiation in ways that directly determine species distribution and ecological structure. At lower elevations, forest systems dominate, often transitioning from tropical or temperate zones into montane forests characterized by reduced canopy height, increased moisture retention, and distinct species assemblages. As elevation increases beyond 2500 to 3500 m, tree lines begin to emerge, marking a critical ecological boundary where conditions no longer support sustained arboreal growth. Above this threshold, alpine systems develop, composed of grasses,

Human influence on temperate broadleaf and mixed forests has shaped their structure, composition, and long term stability for centuries, often in ways that are both visible and deeply embedded within the landscape. These forests, found across regions such as eastern North America, Europe, and parts of East Asia, are defined by seasonal variation, diverse tree species, and relatively fertile soils that have made them highly attractive for settlement and agriculture. As a result, large scale land conversion began as early as the 1600s and accelerated through the 1700s and 1800s, when expanding populations cleared forests for farming, timber extraction, and urban development. In some regions, forest cover declined from approximately 80 to 90 of total land area to less than 50 within a span of 200 years. Timber became a primary resource,

used for construction, fuel, and industrial production, leading to selective logging practices that altered species composition by removing large, mature trees while leaving younger or less commercially valuable species behind. This process created uneven age structures and reduced biodiversity, particularly in areas where monoculture replanting replaced naturally diverse systems. Infrastructure development further fragmented these forests, introducing roads, railways, and settlements that divided continuous ecosystems into smaller, isolated patches. Fragmentation affects not only plant distribution but also wildlife movement, limiting access to food sources, breeding areas, and migration routes. Edge effects emerge along these boundaries, where changes in light, temperature, and wind exposure alter growing conditions and create environments

In modern contexts, the impact of human activity on temperate broadleaf and mixed forests continues to evolve, shaped by a combination of technological advancement, environmental awareness, and ongoing development pressures. Urban expansion remains a significant driver of change, with cities extending outward into previously forested areas, reducing total coverage and increasing fragmentation. At the same time, recreational use, including hiking, camping, and tourism, introduces localized disturbances that can affect soil composition, plant regeneration, and wildlife behavior. Climate change adds another layer of influence, altering temperature patterns, precipitation cycles, and seasonal timing in ways that affect growth rates, species distribution, and ecosystem resilience. Warmer temperatures may extend growing seasons in some regions, while also increasing the frequency of drought conditions, pest outbreaks, and extreme weather events. Invasive species, often introduced through global trade and travel, compete with native plants and disrupt established ecological relationships, sometimes leading to measurable declines in biodiversity over periods of 20 to 50 years. Advances in ecological monitoring provide new tools for understanding these changes, with satellite

imaging, remote sensing, and long term data collection enabling more precise measurement of forest health, canopy density, and species variation. These systems allow researchers and policymakers to track trends, identify areas of concern, and implement targeted conservation strategies. Reforestation efforts, sustainable logging practices, and habitat restoration projects represent attempts to balance human use with ecological preservation, though their effectiveness varies depending on scale, consistency, and long term commitment. Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests now exist as hybrid systems, shaped by both natural processes and human intervention, where the outcomes are neither entirely controlled nor fully predictable. Their future depends on how these influences are managed, requiring coordination across ecological, economic, and social systems to maintain biodiversity while accommodating the realities of continued human presence. Human influence on temperate broadleaf and mixed forests has shaped their structure, composition, and long term stability for centuries, often in ways that are both visible and deeply embedded within the landscape. These forests, found across regions such as eastern North America, Europe, and parts of East Asia, are defined by

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The future of global biomes is being shaped by the interaction between long standing ecological processes and rapidly accelerating environmental change, creating conditions that are both measurable and uncertain. Across forests, grasslands, deserts, tundra, and aquatic systems, shifts in temperature, precipitation, and seasonal timing are altering the structure and distribution of ecosystems at multiple scales. In many regions, species ranges are moving in response to changing conditions, with plants and animals migrating toward higher latitudes or elevations in search of suitable habitats. This movement does not occur evenly, leading to imbalances where some species adapt or expand while others decline or disappear. Biodiversity patterns that once developed over thousands of years are now changing within

decades, compressing timelines and increasing the likelihood of mismatch between species and their environments. For example, changes in flowering cycles can disrupt pollination relationships, while shifts in migration timing affect predator and prey dynamics. At the same time, extreme weather events such as prolonged droughts, intense storms, and temperature fluctuations introduce additional variability, testing the resilience of ecosystems that evolved under more stable conditions. These pressures interact with existing factors such as habitat fragmentation, land use change, and resource extraction, creating layered challenges that affect both local and global biodiversity. Despite this, many biomes retain a degree of adaptive capacity, supported by genetic variation, ecological redundancy, and the ability of systems to reorganize

Looking forward, the diversity within and across biomes will depend on how effectively human systems align with ecological realities, balancing development, conservation, and long term stability. Advances in scientific understanding and data collection provide increasingly detailed insights into ecosystem function, allowing for more informed decision making at regional and global levels. Tools such as remote sensing, longitudinal studies, and predictive modeling enable the tracking of species distribution, biomass, and environmental change over time, offering a clearer picture of how biomes are evolving. Conservation strategies are shifting from isolated protection toward more integrated approaches that emphasize connectivity, resilience, and adaptive management. This includes the preservation of migration corridors, restoration of degraded habitats, and the management of resources in ways that account for future conditions rather than past baselines. At the same time, economic and social systems continue to influence outcomes, shaping how land is used, how resources are allocated, and how environmental priorities are defined. The future of biodiversity is therefore not determined by ecological factors alone, but by the interaction between natural systems

and human decisions. Some biomes may transform into new configurations, supporting different combinations of species than those historically present, while others may retain core characteristics despite external pressures. What remains consistent is the role of biodiversity as a foundation for ecosystem function, supporting processes such as nutrient cycling, climate regulation, and habitat stability. The challenge moving forward is to maintain this diversity within systems that are continuously changing, recognizing that stability may no longer mean preservation of a fixed state, but the capacity to adapt while sustaining ecological integrity. Across all biomes, a defining feature of the future will be the increasing overlap between natural systems and human designed systems, creating environments that are neither fully wild nor entirely controlled but exist along a spectrum of influence and adaptation. Urban areas will continue to expand, yet they may also incorporate elements of ecological design, introducing vegetation, water systems, and habitat structures that support localized biodiversity within built environments. Agricultural landscapes may shift toward more diversified and regenerative practices, blending production with ecological function to maintain soil health,

water retention, and species presence. At larger scales, the concept of biome boundaries may become less rigid, as transitional zones expand and previously distinct systems begin to merge or overlap due to changing climate conditions. This does not necessarily reduce diversity, but it alters how it is distributed and experienced, with some regions becoming more varied while others simplify. The role of technology will likely increase, not as a replacement for natural processes, but as a tool for observing, measuring, and guiding intervention with greater precision. At the same time, uncertainty will remain a constant factor, as complex systems respond in ways that are not always predictable. The future of biodiversity will therefore depend on maintaining flexibility within both ecological and human systems, allowing for adjustment as conditions evolve rather than relying on static models of preservation. In this context, diversity is not only a measure of species count, but an indicator of resilience, reflecting the capacity of biomes to absorb change, reorganize, and continue functioning across shifting environmental conditions. The future of global biomes is being shaped by the interaction between long standing ecological processes and rapidly accelerating environmental

Current Family Styles

June Text Regular
June Text Medium
June Text Semibold
June Text Bold

Current Character Set

Uppercase

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

Lowercase

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

Numerals

0123456789

Punctuation

.,:;!/\-__ _()“”‘’”’

Symbols

\$

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