

1 **A palaeoenvironmental investigation of two prehistoric burnt mound sites in**
2 **Northern Ireland**

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15
16 **ABSTRACT**

17 This paper provides a summary of the palaeoenvironmental evidence from a spread
18 of Late Mesolithic burnt material and two Late Neolithic to Early Bronze Age burnt
19 mounds. The burnt mounds were up to 10 m diameter, had an amorphous shape
20 and were consistently less than 0.8 m thick. Monoliths were collected from two sites,
21 Ballygawley and Roughan, in Co. Tyrone, Northern Ireland. This provided an
22 opportunity to use a detailed palaeoecological approach for the first time to
23 investigate the use and function of burnt mounds. Pollen, non-pollen palynomorphs,
24 micro- and macroscopic charcoal were used to place these features within their
25 environmental context, and to establish if such an approach could provide further
26 insights into their function. The palynological results shared similar characteristics:
27 high microscopic charcoal values, repetitive fluctuations in tree and shrub taxa,
28 increased *Sphagnum* and the presence of NPPs HdV-114 and HdV-146, all of which
29 could be diagnostic indicators of burnt mound use in palynological records. While
30 the data do not allow us to ascribe a specific function for the burnt mounds, their
31 environmental setting is discussed. A 'seesaw' pattern of arboreal pollen, combined

32 with the macroscopic charcoal data, indicate possible species selection and
33 management of local woodland for fuelwood.

34

35 *Keywords:* Mesolithic, Late Neolithic, Early Bronze Age, burnt mounds, pollen, non-
36 pollen palynomorphs, charcoal, Northern Ireland.

37

38 **INTRODUCTION**

39 Anthropogenically-constructed mounds commonly appear in the archaeological
40 record and have various ages, shapes and sizes, as well as different types of
41 construction material, including earth, stone and remnants of burnt fuel. These
42 include presumed burial mounds, dating back 6000 years in Louisiana (Keenan &
43 Ellwood, 2014), earthen burial and platform mounds in southeast and southwest of
44 North America (Lindauer & Blitz, 1997; Pluckhahn et al., 2015) , the Stege Mounds
45 (middens) of California (Eerkens et al., 2014), monumental building of flat-topped
46 mounds in central Georgia, USA, (Bigman & Lanzarone , 2014) and numerous Pre-
47 Columbian earthworks to build dwellings in the Amazon (Lombardo & Prümers,
48 2010). Outside the Americas, mounds are also widely distributed including the
49 Anatolian mounds in the Near East (Steadman, 2000), the monumental mound of
50 Silsbury Hill and burial mounds in southern Britain (Bayliss et al., 2007; Semple,
51 1998), and burnt mounds across the British Isles (Buckley, 1990).

52 Burnt mounds or '*fulacht fiadh*' are a common feature in the Irish and British
53 archaeological record (Brindley et al., 1989; Buckley, 1990; Feehan, 1991). They date
54 from the Neolithic to the medieval period (Anthony et al, 2001; Ó Néill, 2009) and
55 were widely used during the second millennium BC. They occur in various shapes
56 and sizes. Crescent- or horseshoe- shaped burnt mounds are typical in Ireland but
57 they can also be also circular, oval- and d-shaped. Their size ranges from over 1

58 metre in height and range over 30 metres in diameter (O'Sullivan and Downey, 2004)
59 whereas in north Wales burnt mounds have more amorphous shapes and sizes
60 ranging from 3 metres in diameter to spreading over 15 metres (Fairburn, pers
61 comm.) Despite being ubiquitous, we know little about their function. The most
62 favoured hypothesis is cooking (O'Kelly, 1954; Hawkes, 2013) but this theory
63 continues to be contested. Other alternative uses include brewing (Quinn & Moore,
64 2007; Wilkins, 2011), butter-making (Sayce, 1945), bathing (O'Driscóil, 1988), dying
65 and textile processing (Jeffrey, 1991), butchery (Tourunen, 2008), leather working,
66 saunas/sweat lodges and baths (Barfield and Hodder, 1987; O'Sullivan and Downey,
67 2004), the rendering of animal fats (Monk, 2007) and funerary and ritual practices
68 (Bradley, 1978). However, cooking continues to be the most likely activity (Hawkes,
69 2013). There have been few attempts to progress these generalised interpretations.
70 Whilst these functions are plausible, all are falsifiable and require convincing
71 evidence. Consequently burnt mounds remain an archaeological enigma.

72 Few palaeoenvironmental studies have focussed specifically on
73 understanding the function and wider environmental context of burnt mounds (e.g.
74 Innes, 1998; Gonzalez et al., 2000). Palaeoenvironmental analyses can provide
75 useful insights into the history and function of an archaeological site and provide an
76 environmental setting for past activities (Dimbleby, 1985; Whittington and Edwards,
77 1994; Tipping *et al*, 2009). The combination of palynological and anthracological
78 studies is now well established to provide complementary data sets to investigate
79 changes in woodland composition (Gowen et al., 2005; Newman et al., 2007; Nelle et
80 al., 2010) and management (Ludemann et al., 2004; Mighall *et al.*, 2010; Wheeler,
81 2011; Crew and Mighall, 2013). Such an approach is adopted in this study. The study

82 aims to: (i) place these burnt mounds into their environmental context; (ii)
83 reconstruct any vegetational changes associated with the use of the burnt mounds
84 using pollen, NPPs, microscopic charcoal data and archaeo-anthracological data; and
85 (iii) determine if the palaeoenvironmental record can provide insights into the
86 function of burnt mounds.

87

88 **ARCHAEOLOGY AND SITE DETAILS**

89 This study centres around two Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age burnt mounds from
90 two sites, Ballygawley and Roughan. Palaeoenvironmental sampling was carried out
91 as part of the archaeological evaluation and excavation strategy associated with the
92 A4/5 road improvement scheme between Dungallen and Ballygawley, Co Tyrone,
93 Northern Ireland, undertaken by Headland Archaeology Ltd. A total of 25 sites were
94 evaluated, with 12 of these sites going on to excavation, between August 2006 and
95 April 2007. Excavation across these sites revealed 29 burnt mounds and associated
96 features (e.g. hearths and troughs), Bronze Age cremation burials and ring ditches,
97 two Early Christian ringforts, and an Early Christian cemetery (Figure 1a, b).

98

99 **Ballygawley**

100 The Ballygawley site is located in low lying pasture approximately 5 km east
101 of the Ballygawley Water, on the edge of the floodplain that lies at the foot of higher
102 ground formed by drumlins (Figure 1b, c). Palaeochannels and alluvial islands,
103 representing a system of lateral migration and anastomosing channels (Lewin et al.,
104 2005), run across the site. These palaeochannels were infilled with intercalated

105 deposits of peats and alluvial silts and clays (Figure 1c). Upon excavation 23 burnt
106 mounds were discovered, including ten wooden and wicker-lined troughs (in eight
107 different styles) dated from the Neolithic to the medieval period (e.g. Supplementary
108 Figure 1a,b), some being *Sphagnum* lined and with associated pits and hearths
109 (Bailey, 2010a; Bamforth et al., 2010). The analysis of planks and wattle sails, which
110 were made of mainly hazel, used in the construction of troughs associated with the
111 burnt mounds suggest that some form of woodland management was practiced,
112 possibly coppicing or new growth cut within an interval of less than 10 years
113 (Bamforth et al., 2010). One burnt mound deposit (9031) was sampled at this
114 location, measuring 3.7 m x 3.2 m. The deposit was up to 0.14m thick (Bailey,
115 2010a).

116 A monolith was collected from the northern limit of excavation and truncated
117 a single-phase section of burnt mound [context no 9031] (Figure 1c). Charcoal from
118 the base of the feature was radiocarbon-dated to 3865 ± 35 (2465-2210 cal yr BC,
119 2σ ; GU-17350). A section of the stratigraphy of the sediments is shown the figure 2a.

120 A radiocarbon chronology of these features indicates that activity took place
121 at Ballygawley from c. 3350 cal yr BC to cal yr AD 1270 (Supplementary Figure 2);
122 with six burnt mounds dated to the Late Neolithic to Early Bronze Age. The earliest
123 radiocarbon date from a burnt mound is dated to 2830-2475 cal yr BC (2σ) and the
124 youngest has been dated to cal yr AD 1040-1220 (2σ). A hiatus of activity of
125 approximately 900 years occurred between the Late Iron Age and early medieval
126 period at the site, yet the overall longevity of activity indicates Ballygawley was a
127 place that people returned to in order to use hot stone technology. The construction

128 of new burnt mounds followed the migration of the palaeochannels and their
129 changing course to maintain access and proximity to a water supply (Figure 1c).

130 The finds assemblage recovered from Ballygawley is amongst the largest
131 from any Irish burnt mound complex, with a considerable quantity of material
132 coming from the palaeochannel deposits. The majority of finds were of prehistoric
133 age including pottery fragments relating to five different vessels from the Late
134 Neolithic/Early Bronze Age, together with 16 flint scrapers and two bone points
135 indicative of butchery practices and hide preparation. Butchery is also indicated by
136 the faunal bone assemblage, which consists of cattle, pig and sheep/goat, largely
137 contains parts associated with slaughter (skull, mandible, lower leg bones) and
138 primary butchery (upper leg bones) (Tourunen, 2009). However, the lack of blades
139 recovered suggests meat preparation was not taking place (Lochrie, 2010a, 2010b,
140 2010c).

141

142 **Roughan**

143 Roughan is located on an area of low-lying pasture approximately 9 km to the south
144 west of Ballygawley (Figure 1d), fringing an area of reclaimed peatland. The site lies
145 within a small valley running from east to west with ground rising to the north and
146 further low-lying land to the south. Excavations at Roughan revealed a group of six
147 burnt mounds, which are amorphous in shape ranging from 1 m to 10 m diameter
148 and less than 1 m thick (Figure 1e). Burnt mound (8413) measured 8.80 m by 4.90 m
149 and up to 0.25 m thick. Associated features included troughs and pits. Troughs were
150 found to be mainly unlined, although one trough did contain a layer of organic
151 material which may have been the remains of a lining (Bailey, 2010b).

152 Observations made during the course of the excavation indicated that there
153 had been two possible attempts to stabilize the surface of the peat around the burnt
154 mounds during prehistory. The first used collected brushwood (no evidence of tool
155 marks were found (Bamforth et al., 2010)) and the second utilized actual burnt
156 mound material in a linear spread leading from one of the mounds (Bailey, 2010b).
157 There was a dearth of finds at Roughan.

158 A monolith was taken through the base of one of the burnt mounds [context
159 no 8413] (Figure 1e; Figure 2b, c). A radiocarbon date (3885 ± 35 ; 2466-2208 cal yr BC;
160 GU-15850) places this feature into the Bronze Age, and is comparable with a series
161 of radiocarbon dates from other features which suggest that burnt mound use took
162 place during the third millennium BC between c. 2900 to 2100 cal yr BC
163 (Supplementary Figure 3). An earlier spread of burnt material was discovered at the
164 base of the monolith, confirmed by radiocarbon dating to be of Late Mesolithic age
165 c. 6400-5900 cal yr BC (Supplementary Figure 3).

166

167 **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

168 In order to obtain pollen sequences that could be linked directly to periods of burnt
169 mound use, it was decided to take samples directly through the mounds. Monoliths
170 were analysed which encompassed the burnt mound layers (charcoal and heat-
171 fractured stone), together with intercalated peat and/or alluvial deposits. This
172 allowed for the close-interval sampling for periods of activity immediately preceding,
173 during and after burnt mound use.

174

175 **Microfossils**

176 Sub-samples from both monoliths were taken over selected intervals (112-66 cm at
177 Ballygawley and from 58 to 18 cm at Roughan). Each 1cm³ sub-sample was prepared
178 for pollen and NPPs analyses following Barber (1976). The organic component of
179 each sub-sample was separated from the mineral component using density flotation
180 (Nakagawa et al., 1998). A sum of 500 total land pollen (TLP) was achieved for all
181 sub-samples except for the burnt mound material at Ballygawley. Data are expressed
182 as a percentage of the TLP, with spores and aquatic taxa excluded from the TLP sum.
183 NPPs were also counted during routine pollen analysis (cf. van Geel et al. 1982/1983,
184 2003) and they are expressed as a percentage of TLP plus total NPPs. Rare types are
185 indicated by a cross (+), where one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP. Pollen
186 samples were spiked with *Lycopodium clavatum* tablets (Stockmarr, 1971) in order
187 to calculate pollen concentrations using the method described by Benninghoff
188 (1962). Identification, including cereal-type pollen, was aided by reference keys in
189 Fægri et al. (1989), Moore et al. (1991), Beug (2004) and Reille (1999), and supported
190 by a modern type-slide reference collection housed at the University of Aberdeen. As
191 the separation of *Myrica gale* from *Corylus avellana*-type can be difficult these
192 pollen grain types are classified as *Corylus avellana*-type (Edwards 1981). Plant
193 nomenclature follows Stace (2001). Basic land use designations interpreted from the
194 pollen records follow Brown et al.(2007). Microscopic charcoal was counted in three
195 fractions (<21µm, 21-50µm, and >50µm). Loss on Ignition percentages (LOI) were
196 also determined (Schulte and Hopkins, 1996).

197

198 **Radiocarbon dating**

199 Selected bulk sediment, humic acid fraction or charcoal samples were carefully
200 extracted from the monoliths and submitted to the NERC Radiocarbon Laboratory
201 and Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory for AMS radiocarbon dating.

202

203 **Macroscopic charcoal**

204 A maximum of fifty charcoal fragments were selected from each sub-sample based
205 on size to allow for positive species identification and also to maximise ring
206 curvature data. The standardised quantitative sampling strategy (Asouti, 2001;
207 Wheeler, 2007) was deemed appropriate to provide adequate material for inter-
208 feature/inter-site assessments. Standard methods of identification followed Leney &
209 Casteel (1975) with charcoal samples being fractured to reveal the three sectional
210 surfaces (transverse section (TS), tangential longitudinal section (TLS), and radial
211 longitudinal section (RLS) necessary for microscopic wood-type identification to
212 genus. Charcoal fragments were securely positioned onto slides for examination
213 under an incident light microscope at magnification 100x, 200x and 400x.
214 Identifications were assisted by using wood keys by Schweingruber (1990) and a
215 modern reference collection. Nomenclature follows Schweingruber (1990). Ring
216 curvature was measured using the key in Marguerie and Hunot (2007): where weak
217 curvature is thought to denote large-sized timbers; medium curvature, medium-
218 sized timbers; and strong curvature representative of small-sized timbers or
219 branchwood. When ring curvature could not be observed or genus not identified, an
220 indeterminate result was recorded.

221

222 **RESULTS**

223 **Stratigraphy**

224 The monoliths were described using the Troels Smith (1955) classification and they
225 are provided in Table S11.

226

227 **Radiocarbon Dating**

228 All radiocarbon dates quoted in this paper are listed in Table 1 and Supplementary
229 Figures 1 and 2. The radiocarbon dates are given to + 1 σ and calibrated ages to a
230 two σ age range, using Calib 7.0 software (Reimer et al., 2009) in conjunction with
231 Stuiver and Reimer (1993). An age-depth model for Roughan was constructed using
232 CLAM (Blaauw, 2010) and shown in Figure 3. As clay dominated the stratigraphy at
233 Ballygawley prevented reliable dates from being obtained on sediment above the
234 burnt mound material. Only two radiocarbon dates were determined at the top and
235 bottom of the burnt mound and this is considered an insufficient number to model.

236

237 There are some uncertainties with all radiocarbon dates and some of these might
238 apply to this study. There has been some discussion over which fraction of the peat
239 to date (Shore et al., 1995; Brock et al., 2011). Dating the humic acid fraction of a
240 sample can be problematic as humic acids are mobile and generally yield dates
241 which are younger than the humin fraction of the same sample (Shore et al., 1995;
242 Brock et al., 2011). For example, Bartley and Chambers (1992) suggest that the
243 humin fraction is preferable for dating purposes although Johnson et al. (1990)
244 recommend using the humic acid fraction in certain contexts. AMS dates from bulk
245 sediment can also be badly skewed by small amounts of intrusive material (e.g.
246 Chapman and Gearey, 2013). There could be a significant old wood offset with

247 radiocarbon dates obtained from charcoal and charcoal of different ages could have
248 been included in the same deposit (Pilcher, 1991). Moreover, the differences in ages
249 between GU-15850 and GU-15852 indicate a possible hiatus or very slow rates of
250 accumulation. There is significant potential for disturbance to the on-site deposits
251 given the evidence for repeated human activity.

252 While recognising the limitations described above, radiocarbon dates from
253 the humic acid fraction and charcoal at Ballygawley (GU-15849 & GU-17350) do not
254 have any great offset compared to one another, and dates from bulk sediment and
255 the humic acid fraction at Roughan produce similar ages (GU-15852 & Poz-46459).
256 Furthermore, the radiocarbon dates from Ballygawley and one from Roughan (GU-
257 15850) fit the chronological framework provided by the radiocarbon dates from
258 other archaeological structures at these sites (Figure SI2 & 3). Any age-offset is
259 therefore not considered to adversely affect comparisons with the
260 palaeoenvironmental records and the archaeological features.

261 When interpreting fossil peat archives, Telford *et al.* (2004) and Piotrowska *et*
262 *al.* (2010/2011) consider that all radiocarbon dates and all age-depth models are
263 uncertain. The limited number of radiocarbon dates (3 for Roughan and 2 for
264 Ballgawley) associated with the monolith sequences compromise the robustness of
265 the CLAM age-depth models (Figure 3). Therefore the models should be treated with
266 caution. Unless stated otherwise all cited ages are derived as best estimates from
267 the CLAM models.

268

269 **Microfossils**

270 The pollen and non-pollen palynomorphs (NPPs) diagrams for both monoliths were
271 constructed using Tilia.graph (Grimm, 2004) and are presented in Figures 4, 5, 6 and
272 7. The diagrams have been divided into local pollen assemblage zones (LPAZs) using
273 CONISS (Grimm 1987). Preservation is variable across all zones in both diagrams.
274 Poor pollen preservation ranges between 20 and 40% across all damaged categories
275 of indeterminate pollen; with the exception of two sequences of raised
276 indeterminate peaks in Ballygawley LPAZ BG1.

277

278 **INTERPRETATION**

279 **Ballygawley**

280 *BG1 (113-102 cm)* (Figures 4 and 5)

281 A Late Neolithic date (c. 2470-2270 cal yr BC) was determined for the top of this
282 zone. Tree and shrub percentages exceed 60% TLP and indicate local woodland. As
283 Martin and Mehringer (1965) have shown, most pollen found in alluvial sediments is
284 derived from a local source. Therefore, the high values of *Alnus*, *Salix* and possibly
285 *Corylus avellana*-type are indicative of a local carr (Waller et al. 2005). Deciduous
286 woodland, whilst local, was probably situated on higher ground, and is characterised
287 by *Quercus*, *Corylus avellana*-type, *Betula* and *Ulmus* with *Polypodium* occupying
288 shaded areas beneath the woodland canopy. Repetitive peaks and troughs create a
289 'see-saw' pattern in the pollen curves for *Corylus avellana*-type and also for *Quercus*,
290 *Alnus* and Poaceae at the base of the burnt mound material (from 107 cm up core).
291 Rough, wet pasture is inferred by the representation of *Plantago lanceolata*,
292 Ranunculaceae, *Rumex acetosa*, *Aster*-type and Caryophyllaceae (Brown et al.,

293 2007). Cyperaceae, *Pedicularis palustris*-type, *Peucedanum palustre*-type and
294 *Filipendula* are all commonly found on fens. Indicators of disturbance include
295 Chenopodiaceae and *Urtica*.

296 The pollen record in the basal zone, immediately before the deposition of the
297 burnt mound deposits, is characterised by a number of noteworthy observations. As
298 expected, microscopic charcoal counts, indicative of burning, increased from 105 cm
299 with this rise sustained until 94 cm. Wood detritus can be inferred from the
300 occurrence of scalariform perforation plates (SPPs) (HdV-114), which peaked at
301 106.5 cm, and grazing and/or the presence of decayed wood from *Sordaria*-type
302 (HdV-55A). Small peaks in *Glomus cf. fasciculatum* chlamydospores (HdV-207)
303 between 107 cm and 105 cm may also represent an inwash of debris as this
304 particular NPP is considered to be a marker for erosion in fluvial/lacustrine contexts
305 (van Geel et al., 1983, 2003) but not for peat (Kofacek et al., 2013). HdV-184 is
306 associated with the deposition of sandy clay (van Geel, 1983).

307 Relatively high amounts of indeterminate, degraded, folded/crumpled and
308 corroded pollen grains occurred throughout the zone, which most likely represents
309 inwash from the palaeochannels (Delcourt and Delcourt, 1980; Moore et al., 1991).
310 Pollen corrosion and degradation can also be caused by chemical and biochemical
311 oxidation, raised pH (Moore et al., 1991) and/or the result of increased
312 eutrophication. Eutrophication is suggested by the presence of HdV-150 and HdV-
313 167. *Gloeotrichia* (HdV-146), an aquatic pioneer, is indicative of nutrient poor
314 conditions and has the ability to fix nitrogen (van Geel, 2005). Consistently higher
315 numbers of *Sphagnum* spores and the occurrence of *Tilletia sphagni* (HdV-27) at 106
316 cm were recorded. These features all occurred from 107 cm depth, which is

317 tentatively dated using a polynomial regression age-depth model (using Clam;
318 Blaauw, 2010) to a best estimate of c. 2760 cal yr BC. The earliest burnt mound use
319 (BM 9003, see Figure 1c) at the site is dated to 2833 to 2475 cal yr BC and therefore
320 the changes described above could be associated with contemporary burnt mound
321 use.

322

323 *LPAZ BG2 (102-94.5cm)*

324 The age-model tentatively places this zone between c. 2470 and 2200 cal yr
325 BC. At 103 cm the stratigraphy changed from clay to burnt mound material. The
326 burnt mound material appears to have been deposited over a short period of time as
327 indicated by the radiocarbon dates. High microscopic charcoal values characterise
328 this zone, indicative of intense burning. This has adversely affected the preservation
329 of pollen, probably as a result of exposure to high temperatures (Delcourt and
330 Delcourt, 1980; Havinga, 1967). This possibly explains the loss of the repetitive
331 fluctuations of tree taxa and the decline in total tree pollen percentages. Although
332 the latter might also be the result of a loss of woodland cover as a result of sustained
333 burnt mound use from c. 2800 cal yr BC to 1420 cal yr BC. *Sphagnum* (used as a
334 lining in the burnt mound troughs) peaked but SPPs (HdV-114) and *Gloeotrichia*
335 (HdV-146) were only recorded in trace amounts until 96 cm when both increased in
336 percentage. HdV-184 was regularly recorded in trace amounts, being associated with
337 the deposition of sandy clay.

338 The occasional trace of Poaceae >35µm may be representative of cereal-
339 types and/or wild grasses (Dickson, 1988; Edwards and Borthwick, 2010), possibly in
340 wet meadow/fen or within the floodplain system along with Cyperaceae and

341 *Peucedanum palustre*-type. The lack of cultural, herbaceous pollen taxa is probably
342 the result of poor pollen preservation rather than a lack of human activity or grazing.
343 *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) and *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) were recorded at the end
344 of the LPAZ suggesting low intensity grazing and/or the presence of decayed wood.
345 Whereas the re-occurrence of *Glomus cf. fasciculatum* chlamydospores (HdV-207)
346 can be associated with the inwash of eroded material.

347

348 *LPAZ BG3 (94.5-75cm)*

349 The age range of this zone is uncertain given the lack of radiocarbon dates for the
350 top 90 cm. An immediate decline in microscopic charcoal in this zone suggests the
351 use of the burnt mound [context no 9031; Figure 1c] subsided. The continual
352 presence of microscopic charcoal implies less intense burning in the immediate
353 vicinity (>50 µm fraction), and/or more distant burning, most probably within the
354 wider burnt mound complex (<21 µm and 21-50 µm fractions). However, the
355 radiocarbon chronology across the site suggests a pause in burnt mound use
356 between c. 2100 and 1900 cal yr BC.

357 The pollen and NPP records replicate those observed in the end of LPAZ BG1.
358 Relatively stable total arboreal pollen (AP) percentages, similar to those noted just
359 before the deposition of the burnt mound material, were recorded. Repetitive
360 changes in *Corylus avellana*-type and possibly *Quercus* continued until 89 cm but the
361 pattern is less evident for *Alnus*, *Ulmus* and *Betula*. Wet pasture/marsh indicators
362 were present including Poaceae >35 µm, *Rumex acetosa* and *Plantago lanceolata*,
363 Cyperaceae, *Galium*-type and *Peucedanum palustre*-type, together with indicators
364 of disturbed ground, such as Chenopodiaceae and Apiaceae (Brown et al., 2007).

365 Coprophilous fungi *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) and *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) were
366 also recorded suggesting that herbivores grazed nearby (Mighall et al., 2008).

367 *Sphagnum*, SPPs (HdV-114) and *Gloeotrichia* (HdV-146) all reappeared and
368 may relate to continued burnt mound use, which could have continued for
369 approximately another 100 years in proximity of the sampling site. These patterns
370 continued until approximately 87 cm when the sampling resolution becomes coarser
371 and/or activities on the site either changed or ceased.

372 Microscopic charcoal values increased slightly at 85 cm and may reflect a
373 resumption of burnt mound use at the site (for e.g.) BM9011 at location 9009; Figure
374 4). This activity did not have a major impact on woodland cover. Total tree and shrub
375 percentages did not diminish but show a pattern of occasional decline and recovery.
376 Grazing indicators *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) and *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) occurred
377 in trace amounts. A suite of herbaceous taxa normally associated with pasture
378 (Brown et al., 2007) were recorded in trace amounts, including Ranunculaceae,
379 *Rumex acetosella*, *Plantago lanceolata*, *Plantago media/major* and Caryophyllaceae.
380 *Urtica*, *Sphagnum*, SPPs (HdV-114) and *Gloeotrichia*-type (HdV-146) were also
381 regularly recorded but at much lower values. *Tilletia sphagni* (HdV-27) occurred
382 sporadically.

383

384 *LPAZ BG4 (75-66cm)*

385 Mixed carr and deciduous woodland, comprising *Alnus*, *Salix*, *Corylus avellana*-type,
386 *Quercus* and *Ulmus*, were still present locally. *Corylus avellana*-type pollen values
387 see-sawed again. Poaceae has an inverse pattern with *Corylus avellana*-type. The
388 appearance of cereal-type pollen at 72cm and *Triticum*-type (wheat) pollen at 70 cm

389 implies the onset of small-scale cereal cultivation. Their occurrence corresponds with
390 a continual presence of *Plantago lanceolata* and *Plantago media/major*. Aster-type
391 and other indicators of disturbed ground and pasture remained present from the
392 preceding zone but only in trace amounts. Any grazing, as suggested by the presence
393 of *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A), appears to have been at a lower intensity at this time.
394 LOI peaked at 72 cm suggesting that inwash from the palaeochannel has subsided.
395 Microscopic charcoal values remained fairly stable and might be related to another
396 phase of burnt mound activity. *Gloeotrichia*-type, SPPs (HdV-114) and *Sphagnum*
397 were all recorded but sporadically and in low values. If changes in these taxa were
398 related to burnt mound use, they were minor, despite the sampling site being within
399 100-150 metres.

400

401 **Roughan**

402 *LPAZ Rou1* (Figures 6 & 7)

403 The radiocarbon date of 6385-6100 cal yr BC at 51-52 cm (Poz-46459) confirms a
404 Late Mesolithic date for this LPAZ. *Corylus avellana*-type pollen was abundant,
405 peaking at 51-50 cm, indicating a strong local presence of hazel and typical of early
406 Holocene woodlands across the British Isles (Huntley, 1993). Its abundance might
407 relate to quantitative over-representation (Binney et al., 2005). *Pinus*, *Betula*,
408 *Quercus* and *Ulmus* formed mixed woodland with *Corylus*. Fluctuations in the pollen
409 of *Corylus avellana*-type, and to a lesser extent, *Quercus*, *Ulmus*, *Alnus*, *Betula* and
410 *Salix* created a 'see-saw' pattern in the total tree and shrub pollen sum leading up to
411 the deposition of burnt material. The presence of *Viburnum* in association with
412 *Prunus*-type (*P. avium* and *P. spinosa* were both present in the charcoal record)

413 suggests open woodland, possibly comprising fringe vegetation with enough shade
414 to support pteridophytes. Carr woodland, comprising *Alnus* and *Salix*, was also
415 present. Rough wet grassland and/or damp woodland floor indicators were present,
416 including Poaceae, Cyperaceae, Aster-type, *Narthecium ossifragum*, *Filipendula* and
417 *Galium*-type. Disturbed ground taxa (e.g. *Urtica* and Apiaceae) also occurred (Brown
418 et al., 2007). The presence of *Urtica* suggests that local soils had relatively high
419 nutrient levels (Yeloff et al., 2007).

420 SPPs (HdV-114), indicative of woody debris, and *Glomus cf. fasciculatum*
421 chlamydospores (HdV-207) appear to be associated with the inwash of eroded
422 material. HdV-150 and 167 indicate shallow eutrophic water. In contrast,
423 *Gloeotrichia*-type (HdV-146) indicates the presence of nitrogen poor conditions (van
424 Geel, 2005). *Sphagnum* was also consistently recorded.

425

426 *LPAZ Rou2*

427 This LPAZ represents the burnt material. Two radiocarbon dates either side of this
428 deposit confirm the burning took place during the Mesolithic (Table 1). There is a
429 cross-fraction increase of microscopic charcoal across the LPAZ boundary and values
430 remain much higher throughout the burnt material. It is not clear whether this
431 represented a fire deliberately set by humans or a natural occurrence (cf. Chambers,
432 1993). An increase in the total amount of tree pollen was characterised by *Alnus* and
433 *Quercus*, whereas *Corylus avellana*-type declined from 72% to 56% TLP, allowing for
434 the greater representation of other trees and shrubs (Waller et al., 2005). This
435 fluctuation could represent an actual change in woodland structure, or alternatively
436 be a taphonomic variable. *Ilex* and *Prunus*-type suggest that woodland was open.

437 Higher percentages of Poaceae suggest that open areas existed within the
438 woodland or at the woodland edge. Some taxa, considered to be disturbance
439 indicators (e.g. Apiaceae and *Urtica*; Brown et al., 2007), recorded in the microfossil
440 diagrams may reflect natural perturbations operating in a floodplain environment
441 (e.g. Anderson et al., 2000). Herbivores may have grazed pasture and/or wet
442 meadow close by as *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) also occurred. *Sordaria*-types HdV-
443 55A/B are commonly recorded during Mesolithic disturbance phases suggesting the
444 presence of dead wood and/or that animals were making use of openings in
445 woodland (Mighall et al., 2008). Obligate coprophilous fungi, however, have not
446 been recorded. The lack of these fungi supports the idea that these disturbances are
447 natural as it is possible that the fungi occurred on dead wood. Woody debris is also
448 indicated by the presence of SPPs (HdV-114) throughout the burnt material. *Glomus*
449 *cf. fasciculatum* (HdV-207) and *Eurycerus cf. lamellatus* (HdV-72D) may also
450 represent an inwash of debris (van Geel et al., 1982/83, 2003).

451 Wet meadow/fen vegetation is inferred locally by the presence of Poaceae
452 (including those >35µm), Cyperaceae, *Filipendula* and *Peucedanum palustre*-type.
453 Taxa often associated with pasture and disturbance were also recorded in trace
454 amounts, including Apiaceae, Ranunculaceae, *Plantago lanceolata*, *Rumex acetosa*,
455 *Aster*-type and Caryophyllaceae (Brown et al., 2007). Indicators of nutrient poor
456 conditions included *Sphagnum* and *Gloeotrichia*-type (HdV-146).

457

458 *LPAZ Rou3*

459 The radiocarbon date of 6070-5910 cal yr BC (GU-15852) at 43-42 cm provides a Late
460 Mesolithic date for the beginning of this LPAZ which culminates in the Late Neolithic,

461 c. 2470-2415 cal yr BC. A phase of carr and mixed woodland expansion is suggested
462 by the steady, gradual rise of total tree pollen. Immediately after the deposition of
463 burnt material ends a see-saw pattern was observed in many of the tree and shrub
464 taxa and Poaceae percentages. Percentages of *Salix* and, to a lesser extent, *Pinus*,
465 *Betula*, *Quercus*, *Corylus avellana*-type and Cyperaceae have an inverse relationship
466 to *Alnus* and Poaceae. A strong signal of *Salix* pollen suggests local on-site growth
467 (Waller et al., 2005) which may have replaced *Corylus* on the floodplain as its
468 percentages decrease from the start of the zone to 38 cm. A constant background
469 signal for burning is inferred from the microscopic charcoal, which is dominated by
470 the <21 µm fraction, until the upper part of the LPAZ. These patterns continued until
471 approximately 38 cm (c. 5520 cal yr BC) when the sampling resolution becomes
472 coarser.

473 There was a major increase in Poaceae and Cyperaceae values indicating an
474 expansion of wet grassland/fen. Taxa often associated with pasture and disturbance
475 were also recorded in trace amounts, and albeit more sporadically than compared to
476 the previous zone. Such taxa include Apiaceae, Ranunculaceae, *Plantago lanceolata*,
477 *Rumex acetosa*, *Aster*-type, *Artemisia*-type, Caryophyllaceae and *Urtica*. Isolated
478 traces of *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) and *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) indicate that
479 grazing may have occurred locally. *Agropyron*-type (wheat-grass) is recorded as a
480 rare-type mid-LPAZ; it is possible that it was used by humans as the leaves, tuber and
481 seeds are edible, and the roots also produce a grey dye (Coon, 1978).

482 The total percentage of trees and shrubs peaked at 23 cm. The finer
483 resolution of the pollen data reveals a see-saw pattern particularly for *Salix* and
484 Poaceae. The major tree taxa also fluctuate: *Pinus*, *Quercus*, *Ulmus* and *Corylus*

485 generally have an inverse relationship with *Alnus*. These changes may be a response
486 to the decline of relatively high pollen producers such as *Alnus* and Poaceae. Once
487 *Alnus* and Poaceae recover and started to produce large quantities of local pollen,
488 the dispersal of pollen particularly from the trunk space and canopy signal from the
489 trees on higher, drier ground became spatially restricted.

490 Grazing intensity appeared to increase from 22 cm as the amount of
491 *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) rose. This observation is supported by the increased
492 occurrence of pasture and disturbance indicators, including Poaceae and
493 Chenopodiaceae from 24 cm to the top of the LPAZ. Microscopic charcoal values
494 peaked at 22 cm and remained slightly higher, especially the <21 and 21-50 μm
495 fractions. This suggests increased burning, and may represent a major phase of burnt
496 mound use at the site. A burnt spread (context 8467) and mound (context 8422)
497 have been radiocarbon dated to the Neolithic period c. 2850 cal yr BC
498 (Supplementary Figure 3), which equates to 22 cm in the pollen diagram. This
499 represents a new phase of activity at the site with activity lasting until c. 2040 cal yr
500 BC. Local soils appear to become less eutrophic at this time as *Urtica* percentages fall
501 in value throughout the LPAZ.

502 *Sphagnum* was recorded at consistently higher levels from 34 cm onwards,
503 together with HdV-146 (*Gloeotrichia*-type). The occurrence of HdV-62, HdV-128 and
504 HdV-143 on the upper LPAZ zone boundary indicates that the water was meso- to
505 eutrophic (van Geel, 1978; van Geel et al., 2003). Woody debris and decomposed
506 wood is indicated by HdV-114 and an isolated occurrence of *Kretzschmaria deusta*
507 (HdV-44). This may indicate the presence of local trees as the ascospores are

508 generally dispersed only several metres from their source (van Geel, 2005), but they
509 may have travelled further within the palaeochannel network.

510

511 *LPAZ Rou4*

512 The radiocarbon date at 19-18 cm provides a Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age date of
513 2466-2208 cal yr BC (GU-15850; Table 1) for the charcoal (considered part of the
514 burnt mound material) at the top of the sequence. Repetitive fluctuations in *Corylus*
515 *avellana*-type, *Alnus*, *Quercus*, *Pinus* and *Ulmus* were apparent in the arboreal and
516 shrub pollen sums. The synchronicity between *Alnus* and Poaceae weakened. *Alnus*
517 and *Quercus* had an inverse relationship with *Corylus avellana*-type. Fluctuations
518 were also witnessed in the Poaceae and Cyperaceae pollen curves. Rises in micro-
519 charcoal counts across all fractions also began at this point, being most evident in
520 the lowermost sample of the burnt material.

521 Other changes observed in association with burnt material were also
522 recorded. *Sphagnum* increased slightly, together with possible woody debris
523 indicators *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A) and SPPs (HdV-114); the latter being
524 representative of *Betula*, *Alnus* or *Corylus* (van Geel, 1978; Hather, 2000). Increases
525 in eutrophy are suggested by the presence of *Zygnemataceae* (HdV-62), *Diporotheca*
526 *rhizophila* (HdV-143) and HdV-128 (van Geel et al., 1983; Kuhry, 1985).

527 Fen/wet meadow vegetation remained present, which may have been used
528 for grazing animals due to the presence of possible disturbance indicators *Cicuta*
529 *virosa*, *Plantago media/major* pollen and the reappearance of coprophilous fungal
530 spores: *Sporormiella*-type (HdV- 113) and *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) (van Geel et
531 al., 2003). Their presence coincided with a large increase of microscopic charcoal at

532 18.5 cm and, assuming the monolith chronology is sufficiently robust, the probable
533 resumption of burnt mound use across the site (Figures 5, 6).

534

535 **Macroscopic charcoal**

536 The charcoal results presented are collated from those burnt mounds and associated
537 features (e.g. troughs and pits) that have been dated to the Late Neolithic to Early
538 Bronze Age period are shown in Figures 8 and 9. Notwithstanding the limitations of
539 the age-depth models, they are of broadly comparable age to the pollen sequences
540 taken at Ballygawley through burnt mound [9031], and at Roughan through burnt
541 mound [8413].

542 The charcoal condition varied from firm and well preserved to poor and
543 friable. In some cases charcoal fragments were partially vitrified, caused by exposure
544 to temperatures in excess of 800°C (Prior and Alvin, 1983). A fraction of the charcoal
545 assemblage was in a poor condition due to orange mineral discolouration, a common
546 feature associated with material from burnt mounds, as waterlogged conditions can
547 result in the charcoal incorporating minerals such as calcium and iron, which hinders
548 identification (Stuijts, 2007). The anthracological information gained from the
549 charcoal analysis provides a complementary data set to the pollen analysis and
550 reveals the presence of insect pollinated arboreal taxa such as *Maloideae* sp.
551 fruitwoods and *Sorbus* sp. Trace amounts of *Prunus*-type are regularly recorded at
552 both sites. However, these taxa are low pollen producers, with their pollen being
553 difficult to detect, unless they grow close to the sampling site (Stuijts 2005).

554

555 *Ballygawley*

556 A total of 1109 charcoal fragments were analysed from six burnt mound groups of
557 Late Neolithic to Early Bronze Age date (Figure 8). Eleven different taxa were
558 identified as fuelwood from the burnt mound deposits. Individual mounds have
559 fuelwood assemblages of between 1 and 10 taxa. However, a potential skewing of
560 results is acknowledged as some burnt mound features have more samples analysed
561 than others (e.g. burnt mound [9782] compared with burnt mound [9031]). The
562 most dominant taxa within the assemblage are *Alnus glutinosa* and *Corylus avellana*,
563 with *Alnus glutinosa* in particular being prominent in all six burnt mound deposits,
564 and especially from burnt mounds 9782, 9034 and 9986. Other taxa present include
565 *Salix* sp., *Quercus* sp., Maloideae sp. (a group including *Pyrus communis*, *Malus*
566 *sylvestris* and *Crataegus* sp., which cannot be differentiated based on their
567 anatomical composition), *Ulmus* sp. and *Prunus avium*, together with *Prunus spinosa*.

568 The growth ring curvature of the charcoal fragments indicates that all taxa
569 were representative of small- to medium-sized wood, with strongly to moderately
570 curved growth rings, suggesting the bulk of the fuel wood assemblage consisted of
571 branch wood. Large-sized timbers, such as trunk wood indicated by weakly curved
572 growth rings were also present in the assemblage, and were limited to three taxa:
573 *Quercus* sp., *Corylus avellana* and *Alnus glutinosa*.

574

575 *Roughan*

576 A total of 601 charcoal fragments were analysed from five burnt mound (or spread)
577 groups of Late Neolithic to Early Bronze Age date (Figure 9). Eight taxa were
578 identified at Roughan. *Alnus glutinosa* is the dominant fuel wood but it is not most
579 prevalent in all burnt mound fuel wood deposits. *Corylus avellana* and *Quercus* sp.

580 are the most abundant species within the assemblage. Other taxa identified include
581 *Betula* sp., *Salix* sp., *Ulmus* sp., *Prunus avium* and *Prunus spinosa*.

582 The growth ring curvature of the charcoal fragments from Roughan is similar
583 to that at Ballygawley with all taxa present being represented by strongly to
584 moderately curved growth rings. This indicates the use of small- to medium-sized
585 timbers suggestive of branch wood. However, there is more variety of taxa with
586 weakly-curved growth rings suggesting the utilisation of large-sized timbers with six
587 taxa represented: *Quercus* sp., *Corylus avellana*, *Betula* sp., *Alnus glutinosa*, *Salix* sp.
588 and *Prunus avium*.

589

590 **DISCUSSION**

591 **Mesolithic burning**

592 The earliest evidence of burning has been dated to the Late Mesolithic period at
593 Roughan. This episode of burning has been labelled a “burnt spread” as no related
594 features or finds were discovered. Only a single fragment of *Corylus avellana*
595 charcoal was found in the spread. The pollen data indicate that burning of *Corylus*-
596 scrub woodland took place (Figure 6a). Burning appears to have been spatially
597 constrained as other tree and shrub taxa do not appear to have been adversely
598 affected except *Salix* which was possibly used for fuel but without charcoal data it is
599 difficult to establish.

600 Simmons and Innes (1996) suggested that Mesolithic peoples deliberately
601 burnt the ground layer of woodlands or exploited naturally created openings to
602 encourage browsing of animals. In the absence of any archaeological evidence for
603 Mesolithic activity in this study, it is not possible to firmly ascribe this burning

604 episode to human activity. Tipping (2004) has suggested that the likelihood of
605 natural fire was arguably much higher during the Early Holocene. However, the
606 changes recorded in the Roughan pollen diagram (Figure 6a,b) do share similar
607 characteristics with woodland openings attributed to Mesolithic activity. Support for
608 disturbance to create areas of browse for wild animals is suggested by taxa often
609 linked with disturbance (e.g. Innes & Blackford, 2003) from the pollen assemblage in
610 the burnt material. Evidence for herbivore grazing from the NPP record was less
611 forthcoming with only *Sordaria*-type (HdV-55A; Figure 7) present in trace amounts.
612 In the absence of red deer and other major herbivores, it has been suggested that
613 Mesolithic people in Ireland did not have a reason to maintain clearings (Woodman
614 et al., 1997). The primary target for any hunters would be wild pig (Woodman et al.,
615 1999): *Pteridium* is a favoured food of wild pigs (Grigson, 1982) and it features in the
616 latter part of LPAZs Rou1 and Rou2 (Figure 6b). *Rumex* and *Pteridium* often occur
617 naturally in woodlands and they would respond in increased numbers and wider
618 dispersal if the woodland canopy was more open (Tipping, 2004). Alternatively the
619 disturbance indicators simply could be responding to natural perturbations in and
620 around the palaeochannel system.

621 Evidence for Mesolithic burning is rarely recorded in pollen studies from
622 Northern Ireland, possibly because previous studies have not included microscopic
623 charcoal analysis as part of their study (e.g. Pilcher, 1973; Pilcher and Smith, 1979;
624 Smith and Goddard, 1991). Peaks in microscopic charcoal have been recorded at
625 Ballynahatty, Co. Down, and they were interpreted as a possible domestic fire as
626 there was no evidence for any detrimental impact on the woodland (Plunkett *et al.*,
627 2008). However, the presence of Late Mesolithic populations is well established from

628 archaeological evidence (e.g. Bayliss and Woodman, 2009; Meiklejohn and
629 Woodman, 2012), in particular along the Bann River Valley (e.g. Mitchell, 1955;
630 Woodman, 1977, 1985; Spaulding et al., 1999), while finds of Mesolithic flints occur
631 in Co. Tyrone (Ivens and Simpson, 1988). The phase of burning at Roughan adds to
632 this body of evidence and it represents possibly the only Mesolithic archaeology
633 discovered along the new road corridor.

634

635 **Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age**

636 *Environmental setting of the burnt mounds*

637 Pollen evidence from the Late Neolithic/Early Bronze Age phase of burnt mound use
638 (c. 2860 cal yr BC to 2140 cal yr BC) reveals that this activity took place in a landscape
639 where mixed woodland and *Alnus* carr were both locally predominant (Figures 4 and
640 6). High pollen percentages of *Alnus* and *Corylus* derived from trees growing on both
641 floodplains places the burnt mounds at a fen carr-edge, where the pollen source
642 area could have been limited to anywhere between 50 and >100 m radius (Binney et
643 al., 2005; Bunting et al., 2005).

644 A decline in total arboreal pollen percentages at Ballygawley coincided with
645 the deposition of the burnt material. This possibly represents a short-lived phase of
646 woodland clearance associated with the use of the burnt mound. However, this
647 decrease might be artificial as the pollen content of the burnt material was
648 extremely low. Therefore counts will not be an accurate reflection of the local
649 vegetation. Moreover, arboreal pollen percentages recover to their original values
650 when the deposition of the burnt material ends at 93 cm (Figure 4). The radiocarbon
651 chronology is insufficient to firmly ascertain the impact of later burnt mound use in

652 the local area. Assuming that that subsequent period of use is recorded in the peat
653 above burnt mound deposit, and notwithstanding the coarser sampling resolution,
654 the microfossil and microscopic charcoal records suggests that any impact was mute.
655 Microscopic charcoal values remained low and there were no major perturbations in
656 total arboreal pollen or for individual tree and shrub taxa. Non-arboreal pollen taxa
657 and coprophilous fungi commonly associated with human activity and disturbance
658 only occurred in trace amounts and sporadically. This suggests that the impact of
659 other burnt mounds close to the sampling site was not detected due the pollen
660 source area being spatially restricted (Figure 1b).

661 There was an apparent hiatus in the Roughan archaeological record between
662 the Mesolithic and the latter half of the third millennium BC. The coarse resolution
663 of the pollen diagram in LPAZ Rou3 hinders any attempt to identify any human
664 impact (Figure 6a,b). Radiocarbon dates from a stone spread [8502], a burnt spread
665 [8467] and a burnt mound [8422] (Supplementary Figure 3) provide the next
666 definitive evidence for human activity at Roughan c. 2870 cal yr BC. Notwithstanding
667 the crude chronology and slow sediment accumulation rate between 43 and 18 cm,
668 this phase of activity tentatively correlates with around 21 cm in the pollen diagram.
669 This is slightly later than the resumption of the see-saw pattern in the arboreal
670 pollen and the increase and/or regular presence of pollen taxa and NPPS often
671 associated with human activity (Figures 6a,b and 7). Microscopic charcoal values also
672 increased during this time. Until the chronology is improved it is unclear as to
673 whether this represents human presence before the burnt mounds were used.
674 Notwithstanding this, the evidence for human activity is still relatively mute given
675 the close proximity of the burnt mounds.

676 The data have also revealed a common set of features in the pollen and NPP
677 records at both sites which appear to be associated with the burnt material. These
678 trends are discussed further below.

679

680 *i) Regular fluctuations in the pollen of the tree and shrub taxa*

681 Regular fluctuations in the pollen values of tree and shrub taxa have been recorded
682 prior to and following the burnt spread and mounds recorded in the two monoliths.
683 The exact reason for what we describe as the 'see-saw' pattern is unknown. In
684 particular these peaks and troughs are recorded in the pollen curves of *Quercus* and
685 *Corylus avellana*-type at Ballygawley and *Pinus*, *Ulmus*, *Salix*, and to a lesser extent,
686 *Alnus*, *Quercus* and *Corylus avellana*-type at Roughan (Figures 3 and 5). The high
687 values of both *Alnus* and *Corylus avellana*-type pollen infer that these tree types
688 were growing near to the burnt mound sites (Brown, 1999; Waller et al., 2005). The
689 macroscopic charcoal records suggest that they were used for fuelwood (Figures 8
690 and 9).

691 In order to determine if the see-saw pattern was real rather than an artefact
692 of expressing the pollen data as percentages, and to negate the effect of the
693 abundance of one pollen type depressing the value of others (Simmons & Innes,
694 1988), concentrations were also calculated. Pollen concentrations for major taxa
695 from Ballygawley and Roughan are shown in Supplementary Figures 4, 5a and b.
696 With the exception of some minor differences, they show a consistent pattern which
697 suggests that they have been influenced by changing sediment accumulation rates
698 and possible variations in pollen productivity. When the pollen concentrations are
699 normalised against the total pollen concentrations (excluding each taxon), the see-

700 saw pattern is clearly seen (Supplementary Figure 4c-e). This suggests that the see-
701 saw pattern observed reflects real changes in the vegetation. The normalised pollen
702 concentrations patterns are in good agreement with the percentage data for each
703 taxon. Such see-saw patterning in pollen diagrams is enigmatic. The patterns could
704 be the result of several processes including woodland management, natural
705 fluctuations or taphonomic processes. A discussion of each of these possibilities
706 follows:

707

708 *Human activity*

709 The see-saw pattern seen in the pollen data infers that some form of management
710 may have been practised to maintain local woodland availability. This might have
711 been inadvertent assuming there were sufficient trees available to provide a
712 continuous supply of wood fuel for the burnt mounds or through deliberate
713 coppicing and/or pollarding. Rackham (2005) also observes that trees such as *Corylus*
714 *avellana* are best coppiced on a short rotation cycle so that the wood can be easily
715 worked. Thus, if the hot stone technology associated with the burnt mounds
716 required a significant volume of wood fuel, the use of fairly intensive coppicing (4-7
717 years) may have been required in order to resource this activity without completely
718 removing areas of woodland.

719 Attempts to recognise episodes of coppicing within pollen diagrams have met
720 with limited success (e.g. Waller and Schofield, 2007). Waller et al. (2012) also found
721 it difficult to identify cutting cycles and growth responses within pollen diagrams.
722 Using a modelled scenario of coppice within *Alnus glutinosa* carr on a 20-year
723 rotation, Waller et al. (2012) showed a shift in pollen productivity (declining A.

724 *glutinosa* and increasing *C. avellana*). This scenario might explain the inverse
725 relationship between these taxa in the pollen record at Roughan. Despite being
726 dominant species in the charcoal record (Figure 8) *Alnus* does not demonstrate a
727 see-saw pattern at Ballygawley. If this species was managed, any rotation or
728 management markers could not be identified in the pollen record.

729 *Corylus avellana*-type is the second most and most abundant type of charcoal
730 recovered from the burnt mounds (Figures 8 and 9). Its exploitation may explain the
731 see-saw pattern in the pollen percentage and concentration data (Figures 4, 6,
732 Supplementary Figures 4 and 5). However, the known rotation patterns described
733 above (6-20 years) are probably much shorter than the see-saw pattern observed in
734 the pollen records here. The pollen data are constrained by a limited chronology
735 and the time span encapsulated in a 0.5 cm thick sample is unknown.

736 *Quercus* and *Betula* are also common in the Roughan macroscopic charcoal
737 assemblages. At Llwyn Du, northwest Wales, a see-saw pattern for both taxa was
738 reconstructed from fine resolution pollen data during iron production at a medieval
739 bloomery. Crew and Mighall (2013) argued that the pattern was probably caused by
740 woodland management of oak and birch. Wheeler (2007, 2011) also observed
741 correlating see-saw patterns at Rievaulx and Bilsdale in North Yorkshire. Wickham et
742 al. (2010) observed that short rotation coppicing (2-3 years) of willow can lead to a
743 higher wood yield which may explain the see-saw pattern in the *Salix* pollen record
744 at Roughan, although *Salix* wood was only recovered in small quantities (Figure 11).

745 *Corylus*, *Quercus* and *Alnus* charcoal is commonly recovered from burnt
746 mounds (Stuijts, 2005; O'Donnell, 2007, 2009; Miller and Ramsey, 2009). The
747 differences in the frequency of trees from site to site may also reflect changes in the

748 composition of woodland (Ludemann et al., 2004; Ludemann, 2009) rather than
749 preferential selection.

750 Growth ring curvature of the charcoal fragments indicates that the majority
751 of the fuel wood was derived from small to medium-sized wood such as twigs,
752 branch wood and possibly rods/stemwood. These sizes might indicate the deliberate
753 collection through coppicing and/or pollarding (Boyd, 1988). Larger pieces of wood
754 were also used, probably trunk wood, suggested by charcoal fragments displaying
755 weakly curved growth rings (Marguerie and Hunot, 2007). At Ballygawley these
756 larger timbers are restricted to *Corylus avellana*, *Alnus glutinosa* and *Quercus* sp.,
757 while at Roughan they include *Betula* sp., *Salix* sp. and *Prunus avium* suggesting
758 some deliberate selection or simply a wider availability.

759 The worked wood analysis of planks and wattle sails used in the construction
760 of troughs also suggest that some form of woodland management was practiced.
761 Wattle sails were mainly constructed from long straight hazel stems that had similar
762 ring counts (4-7 years) and diameter sizes (10-30 mm). This stemwood may have
763 been from coppiced or new growth cut within an interval of less than 10 years
764 (Bamforth et al., 2010).

765

766 *Natural fluctuations and taphonomic processes*

767 Other explanations may have also influenced the pattern of pollen percentages and
768 concentrations. Fluctuations in arboreal pollen assemblages are to be expected
769 within local *Alnus* carr-woodland, reflecting natural cycles of woodland in a
770 floodplain environment (Waller, 1998; Waller et al., 2005). These *Alnus glutinosa*-
771 dominated communities often exhibit small-scale heterogeneity due to the

772 instability of the ground substrates and tree weight (Rodwell, 1991). Changes in the
773 herbaceous pollen assemblage, mainly of Poaceae and Cyperaceae pollen, also may
774 indicate some opening of the local carr and increased presence of fen-reedswamp.

775

776 *ii) Increases across the cross-fraction micro-charcoal*

777 There is a cross-fraction increase in microscopic charcoal values during burnt mound
778 activity (Figures 5 and 6). These elevated charcoal levels are expected given the
779 nature of the hot stone technology and large quantities of macroscopic charcoal
780 present. This is particularly evident in the >50 µm size class, signifying the
781 intensification of local on-site burning.

782

783 *iii) Greater presence of wood detritus*

784 An increase in probable dead wood indicators, SPPs (HdV-114) and *Sordaria*-type
785 (HdV-55A) (van Geel et al., 1983, 2003) in levels associated with burnt mound
786 deposits occurred at both sites. *K. deusta* (HdV-44) was also present at Roughan and
787 HdV-72D also feeds off vegetation debris. It is likely that the SPPs represented a
788 combination of decomposed *Corylus avellana*, *Alnus glutinosa* and *Betula* sp.
789 remains (Schweingruber, 1990). Chopping and/or storing of wood fuel may have
790 occurred near to the burnt mounds with fungi (e.g. *Sordaria* sp.) attacking stored
791 wood (Feist et al., 1973). Fungal hyphae were observed within macroscopic charcoal
792 fragments, which could also represent the use of deadwood for fuel (Marguerie and
793 Hunot, 2007) or simply woody debris derived from the catchment. There is no
794 evidence of working debris from the waterlogged wood recovered from Ballygawley.
795 Wood may have been fashioned prior to being brought to site to line the troughs.

796 Alder bark can also be used to create a black dye (Stuijts, 2005), so an
797 increase in SPPs indicative of detritus may be related to bark stripping. Stone
798 scrapers were present within the finds assemblage (Lochrie, 2010b).

799

800 *iv) Presence of herbivores and cereal cultivation*

801 It appears that burnt mound activity is strongly associated with a pastoral economy.
802 Coprophilous fungal spores occur in both assemblages suggests that animals were
803 present locally. Cugny et al. (2010) consider *Cercophora*-type (HdV-112) to be a
804 reliable dung indicator. Evidence for pasture is strong in the pollen records and the
805 discovery of burnt bone has indicated that animal butchery was taking place at
806 Ballygawley (Tourunen, 2009). Such activity has also been advocated for other burnt
807 mound sites in Ireland (Tourunen, 2008).

808 Evidence for cereal cultivation is less forthcoming. Only one *Triticum*-type
809 was recorded at Ballygawley and it is not associated with the burnt mound. Poaceae
810 grains (>35 µm in diameter) were recorded at both sites. However, these could be
811 wild grasses such as *Glyceria* and *Elytrigia* (Stace, 2001; Tweddle et al., 2005).
812 Moreover, the poor dispersal ability of large grasses and cereal pollen, combined
813 with relatively dense woodland, might have dampened any cultivation signal in the
814 pollen record (Vuorela, 1973; Tweddle et al., 2005).

815

816 *v) Increased levels of eutrophy and peaks in Sphagnum*

817 *Sphagnum* peaks occur during the phase of burnt mound use and could be related to
818 the use of bogmoss in the lining of troughs. Increased levels of meso- or eutrophy
819 were also implied by *Diportheca rhizophila* (HdV-143), HdV-62, HdV-128 and possibly

820 HdV-55A at Roughan (Pals et al., 1980; van Geel et al., 1983). This could be the result
821 of water either used in the troughs, pooling during periods of non-activity, or from
822 stagnant water lying close by. In contrast, high amounts of *Gloeotrichia*-type (HdV-
823 146) are indicative of nutrient poor conditions.

824

825 **CONCLUSIONS**

826 The results of this study suggest that burnt spread and mound activity can be
827 characterised in the following way:

- 828 1. Activity appears to have had a small non-permanent impact on the local
829 environment during the Mesolithic, Late Neolithic and Bronze Age. The spatial
830 impact of such activity appears to have been restricted but needs to be constrained
831 by multiple pollen profiles and more robust chronologies for the
832 palaeoenvironmental deposits.
- 833 2. Activity took place at water side locations in small clearings with pasture close by,
834 as suggested by the occurrence of herbs associated with pasture and the regular
835 presence of coprophilous fungi. However, despite the wealth of local activity
836 especially from the Late Neolithic onwards, the occurrence of non-arboreal pollen
837 taxa associated with human activity is generally limited to trace amounts. This might
838 be due to taphonomic effects including a limited pollen source area and/or pollen
839 filtering by high arboreal pollen producers and relatively dense woodland. Natural
840 perturbations in a floodplain environment could also account for some of the
841 changes recorded.
- 842 3. Burnt mound use appears to be associated more with local pasture rather than
843 cereal cultivation. Cereal-type pollen only occurred in trace amounts and then only

844 sporadically in the pollen records. Although not conclusive, evidence for animal
845 butchery and pasture point towards cooking as the most likely activity.

846 4. Each burnt mound deposit/burnt spread was associated with specific changes in
847 the pollen, NPPs and microscopic charcoal records, irrespective of the age of the
848 burnt material. These included a repetitive see-saw pattern in the pollen
849 percentages and concentrations of major trees, shrubs and herbs, high microscopic
850 charcoal values, presence of coprophilous fungi, peaks in *Gloeotrichia*-type (HdV-
851 146), SPPs (HdV-114) and peaks in *Sphagnum*. Whether these are indicative of burnt
852 mound use is unclear but possible.

853 5. It is reasonable to suggest that: (a) charcoal is associated with fuelwood and
854 repetitive exploitation of wood for fuel (e.g. deliberate cyclical coppicing) is known in
855 prehistory (Rasmussen, 1990) which could be implied in the context of the burnt
856 mounds at Ballygawley and Roughan; (b) increases in SPPs (HdV-114) and *Sordaria*-
857 type (HdV-55A) may represent detritus from possible wood preparation (e.g.
858 chopping/leaf stripping/bark removal etc.) which may have been taken from trees
859 that were naturally present in the floodplain environment; (c) *Sphagnum* was used
860 to line and seal the troughs; and (d), burnt mound activity changed water conditions
861 leaving them eu- to mesotrophic. These markers may be diagnostic indicators of burnt
862 mound use in the palaeoecological record but this hypothesis now requires further
863 testing.

864

865 Although the results of this study provide little direct insight into the function of
866 burnt mounds, they do provide us with a greater understanding of human-

867 environmental interaction at these enigmatic sites. Further multi-proxy studies
868 would provide useful information.
869
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878

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1402

1403 **Figure captions**

1404 **Figure 1** Location of study sites (a) in Northern Ireland; (b) in Co Tyrone, Northern
1405 Ireland; (c) excavation site at Ballygawley showing the palaeochannels and burnt
1406 mounds (circles); (d) excavation site at Roughan showing Area C (e) the location of
1407 the monoliths and burnt mounds in Area C, Roughan.

1408 **Figure 2** Stratigraphic sections for (a) Ballgawley; (b) Roughan; (c) Burnt mount
1409 context 8413 and the position of the Roughan monolith taken in this study.

1410 **Figure 3** Age depth graph for Roughan (smooth spline model) using Clam (Blaauw,
1411 2010).

1412 **Figure 4a** Percentage pollen diagram of trees, shrubs, dwarf shrubs and microscopic
1413 charcoal from Ballygawley, Co. Tyrone. Rare types are indicated by a cross (+), where
1414 one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP.

1415 **Figure 4b** Percentage pollen diagram of herbs from Ballygawley, Co. Tyrone. Rare
1416 types are indicated by a cross (+), where one cross is equal to one pollen grain or
1417 NPP.

1418 **Figure 5** Percentage NPP diagram from Ballygawley, Co. Tyrone. Rare types are
1419 indicated by a cross (+), where one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP.

1420 **Figure 6a** Percentage pollen diagram of trees, shrubs, dwarf shrubs and microscopic
1421 charcoal from Roughan, Co. Tyrone. Rare types are indicated by a cross (+), where
1422 one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP.

1423 **Figure 6b** Percentage pollen diagram of herbs from Roughan, Co. Tyrone. Rare types
1424 are indicated by a cross (+), where one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP.

1425 **Figure 7** Percentage NPP diagram from Roughan, Co. Tyrone. Rare types are
1426 indicated by a cross (+), where one cross is equal to one pollen grain or NPP.

1427 **Figure 8** Charcoal identifications from Late Neolithic and Early Bronze Age Features
1428 at Ballygawley, Co. Tyrone.

1429 **Figure 9** Charcoal identifications from Late Neolithic and Early Bronze Age Features
1430 at Roughan, Co. Tyrone.

1431

1432 **Supplementary Figure 1a.** An example of a trough of the late Neolithic/Bronze Age
1433 found during this study at Ballgawley.

1434

1435 **Supplementary Figure 1b.** An example of a trough of the late Neolithic/Bronze Age
1436 found during this study at Ballgawley.

1437

1438 **Supplementary Figure 1c, d.** Examples of the burnt mounds at Ballgawley.

1439

1440 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Chronology of the archaeological features radiocarbon
1441 dated from Ballygawley, Co. Tyrone. Radiocarbon dates have been calibrated using
1442 OxCal 4.1 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009a) to 93.4% probability using IntCal04 (Bronk Ramsey,
1443 2009b). All calibrated dates are referred to in calibrated years AD/BC.

1444

1445 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Chronology of the archaeological features radiocarbon
1446 dated from Roughan, Co. Tyrone. Radiocarbon dates have been calibrated using
1447 OxCal 4.1 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009a) to 93.4% probability using IntCal04 (Bronk Ramsey,
1448 2009b). All calibrated dates are referred to in calibrated years AD/BC.

1449

1450 **Supplementary Figure 4.** Pollen concentrations for selected taxa from Ballygawley,
1451 Co. Tyrone. (a) total pollen concentrations; (b) Pollen concentrations for major taxa;
1452 (c) normalised pollen concentration ratio for *Corylus* and Cyperaceae; (d) normalised
1453 pollen concentration ratio for *Quercus* (Values between 94 and 102 cm were
1454 excluded as they were much higher than those data plotted in order to see the
1455 patterning either side of the burnt deposit. The pattern seen is not affected by their
1456 exclusion). Each taxon is expressed as ratio of individual taxon concentration divided
1457 by total pollen concentration minus the individual taxon (to avoid any effects derived

1458 from auto correlation); (e) Normalised Poaceae concentration ratio; (f) Normalised
1459 *Alnus* concentration ratio.

1460

1461 **Supplementary Figure 5a** Pollen concentrations for selected taxa from Roughan, Co.
1462 Tyrone. (a) total pollen concentrations (dashed line for all graphs) and *Corylus* pollen
1463 concentrations (solid line); (b) Cyperaceae (solid line); (c) *Alnus* (solid line); (d)
1464 *Quercus* (solid line); (e) *Salix* (solid line); (f) Poaceae (solid line).

1465

1466 **Supplementary Figure 5b** Normalised pollen concentrations for selected taxa from
1467 Roughan, Co. Tyrone. Each taxon is expressed as ratio of individual taxon
1468 concentration divided by total pollen concentration minus the individual taxon (to
1469 avoid any effects derived from auto correlation). (a) *Corylus*; (b) Cyperaceae; (c)
1470 *Alnus*; (d) *Quercus*; (e) *Salix*; (f) Poaceae.

1471

1472 **Table 1.** Radiocarbon dates from the burnt mound monoliths (Ballygawley and
1473 Roughan).

1474

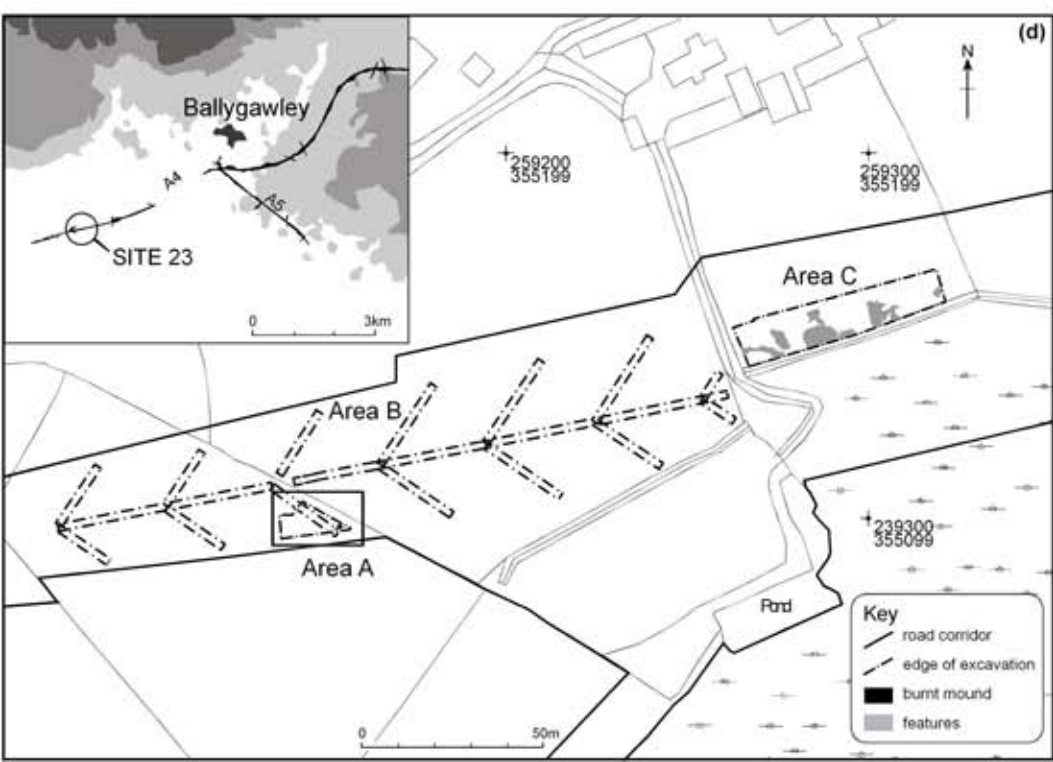
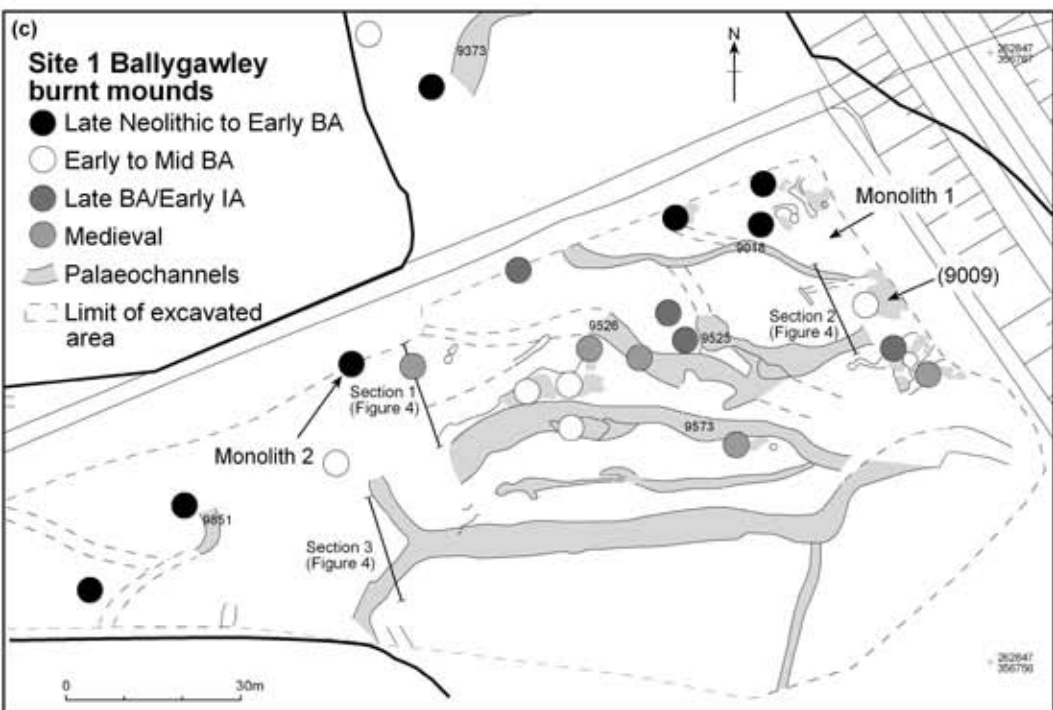
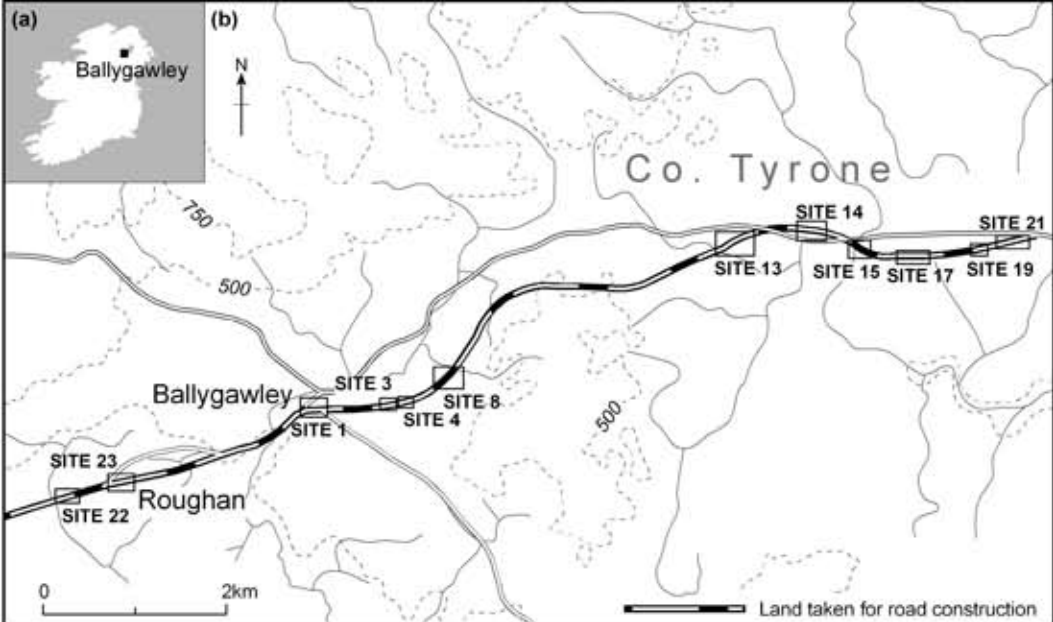
1475 **Supplementary Table 1.** Stratigraphical description of the monoliths used in this
1476 study.

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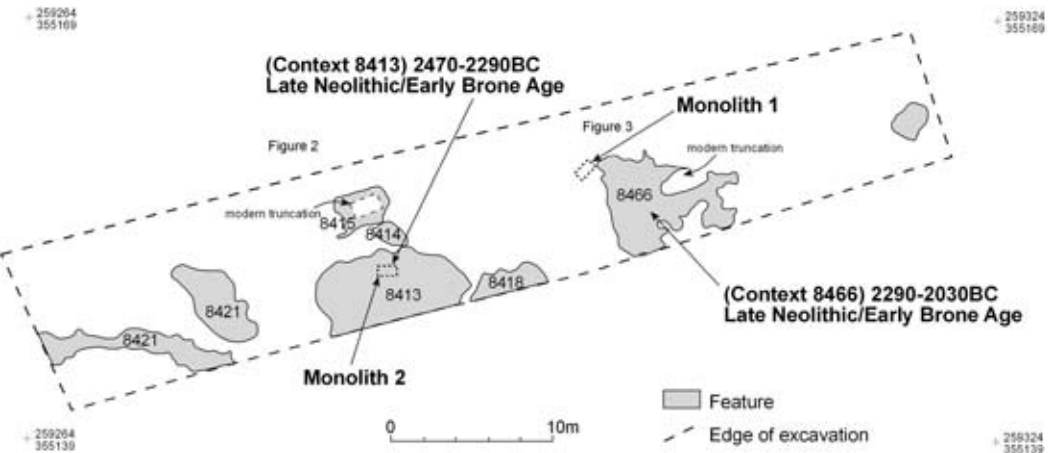
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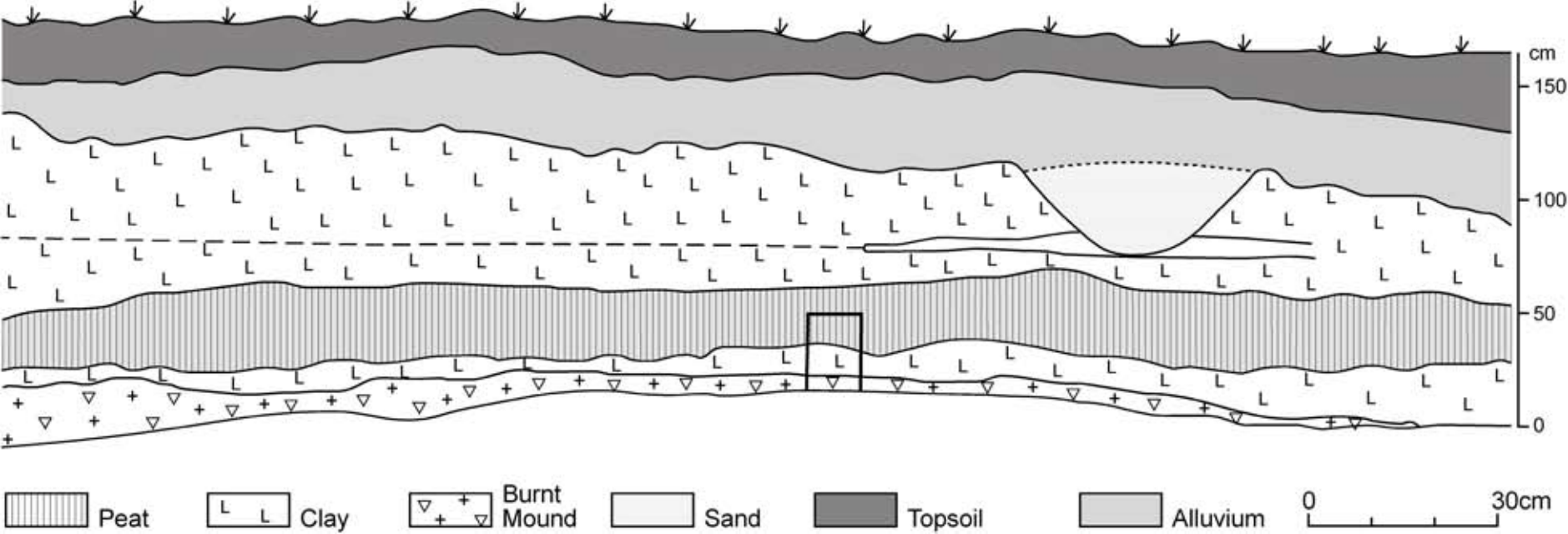
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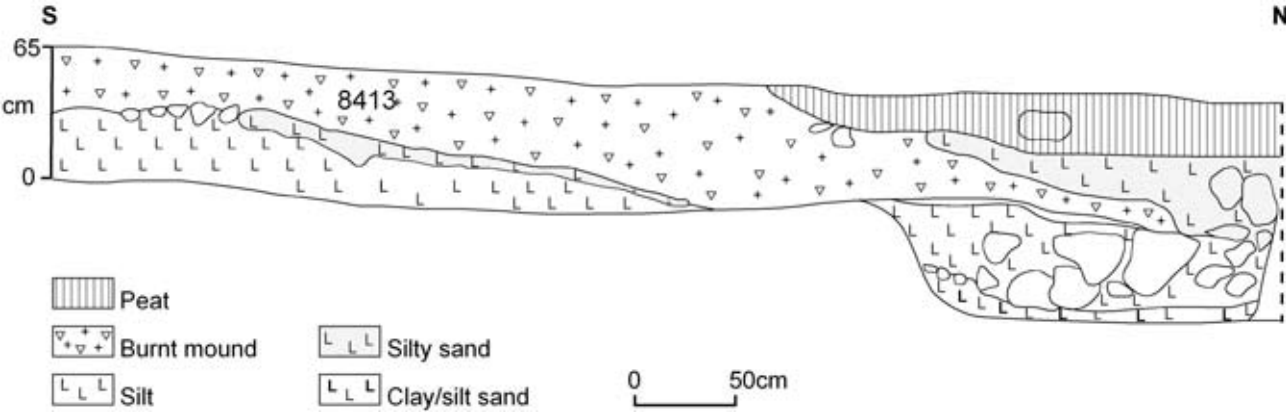
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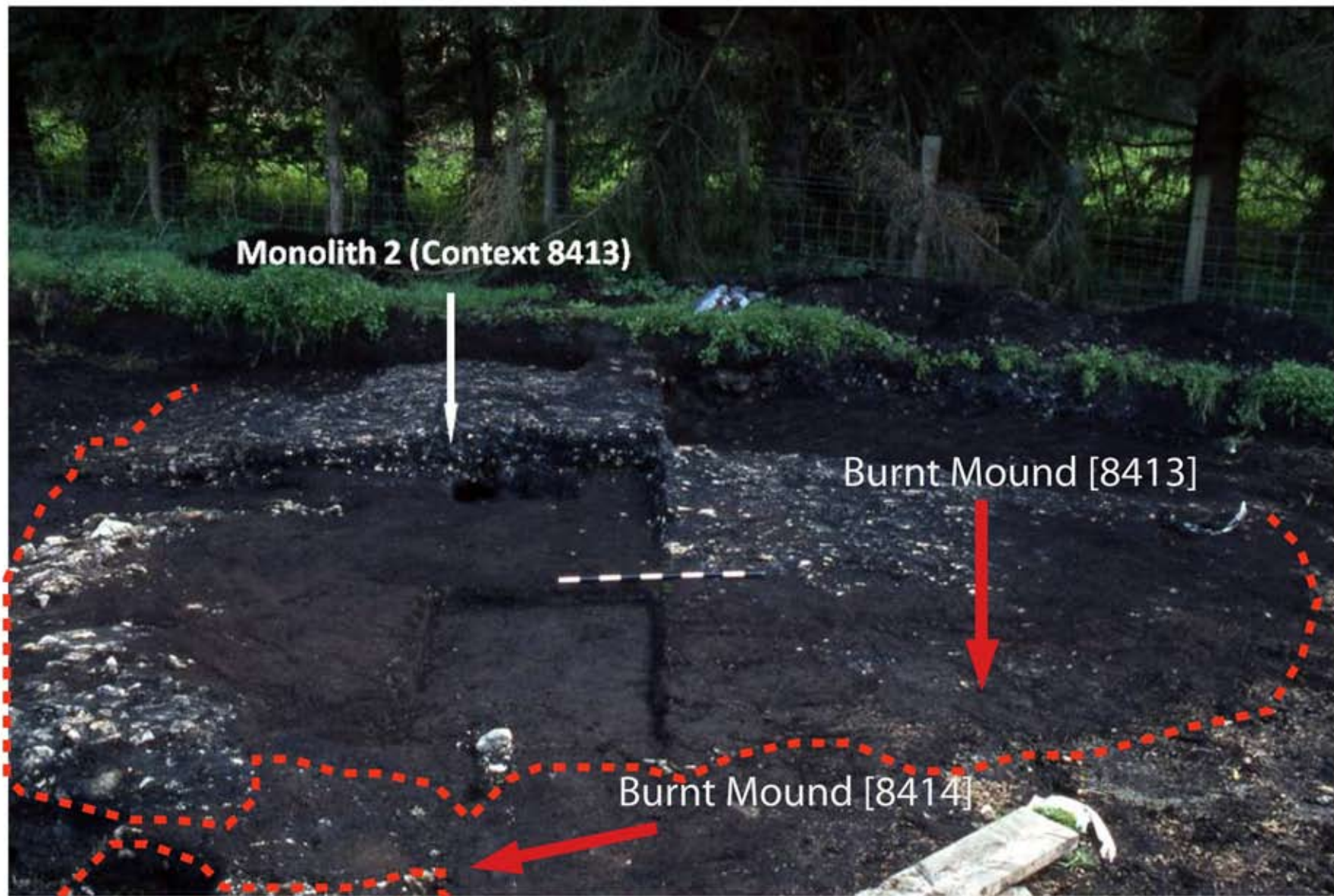


(e) Roughan [Site 23]





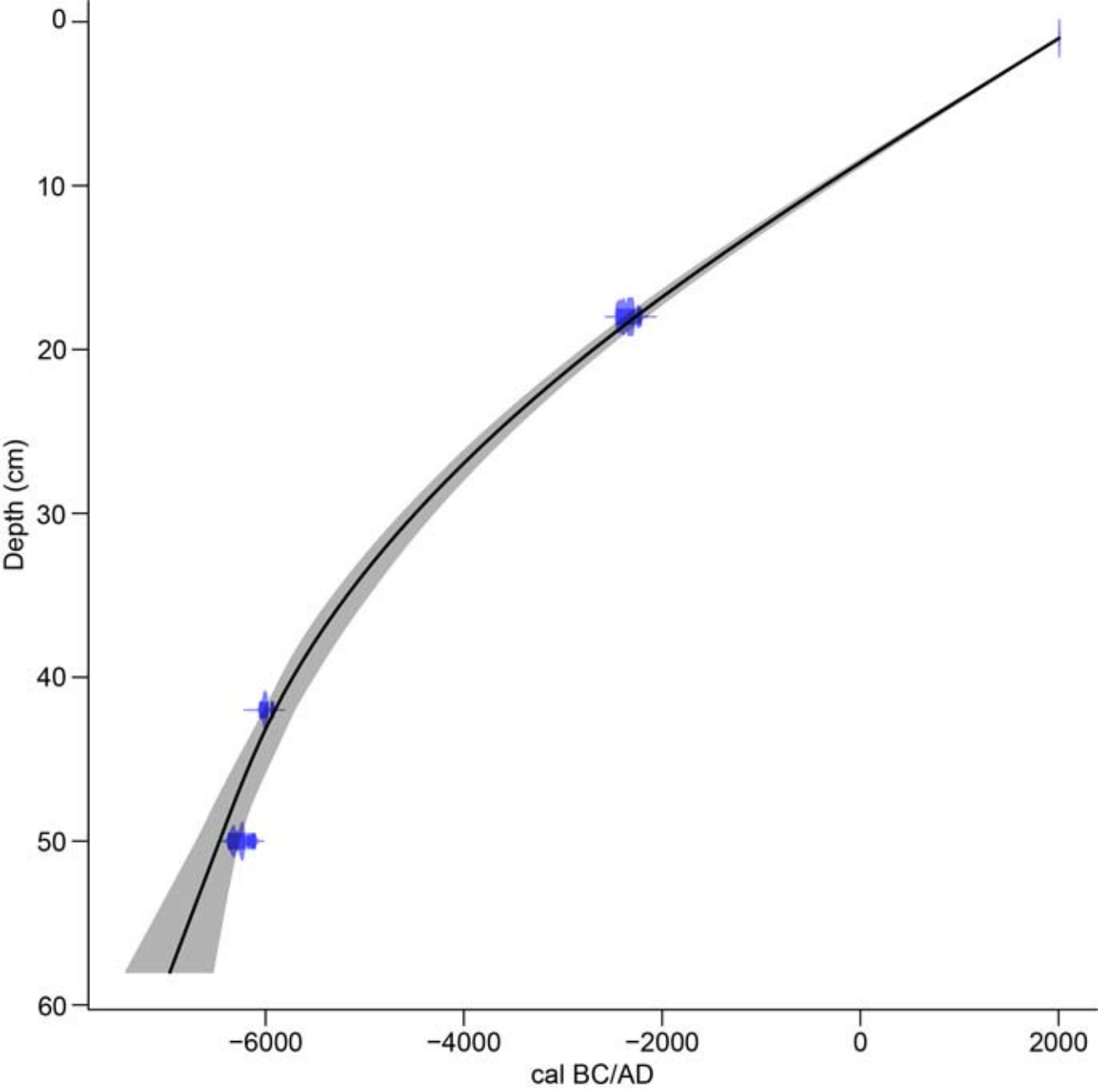


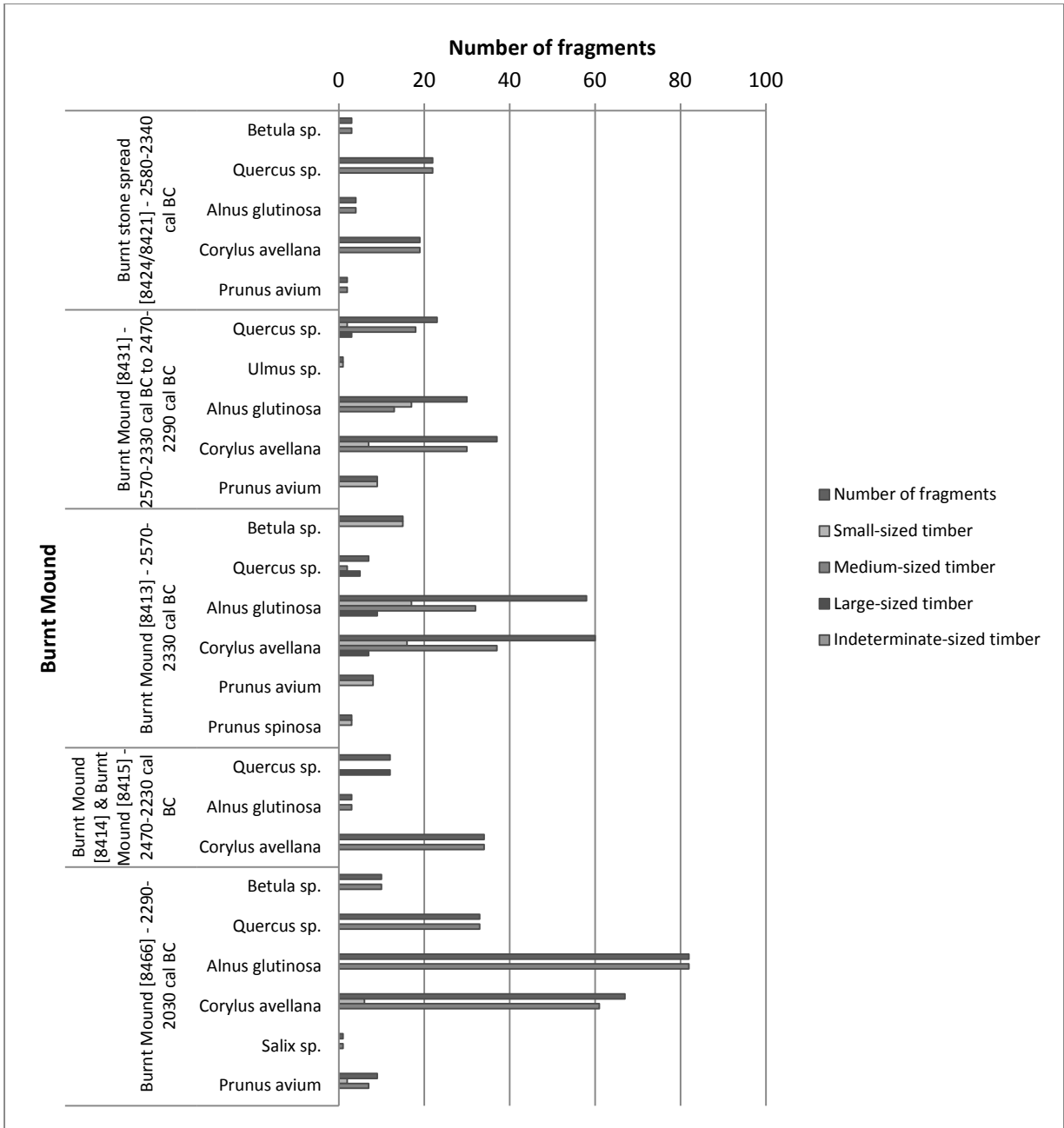


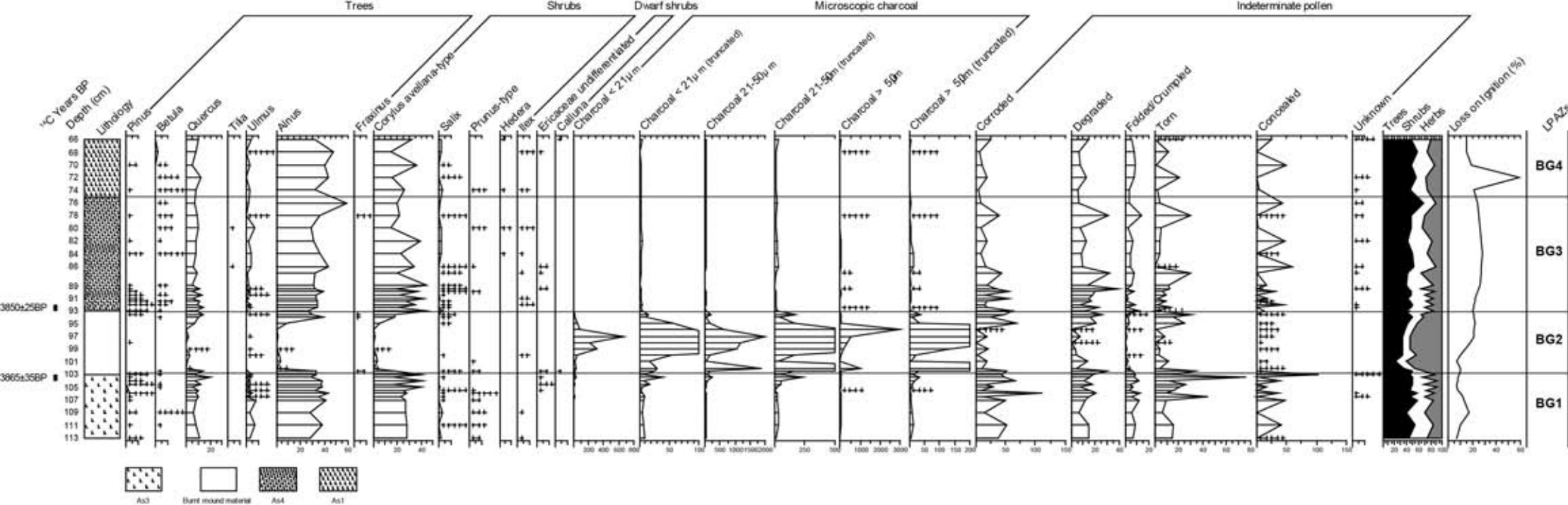
Monolith 2 (Context 8413)

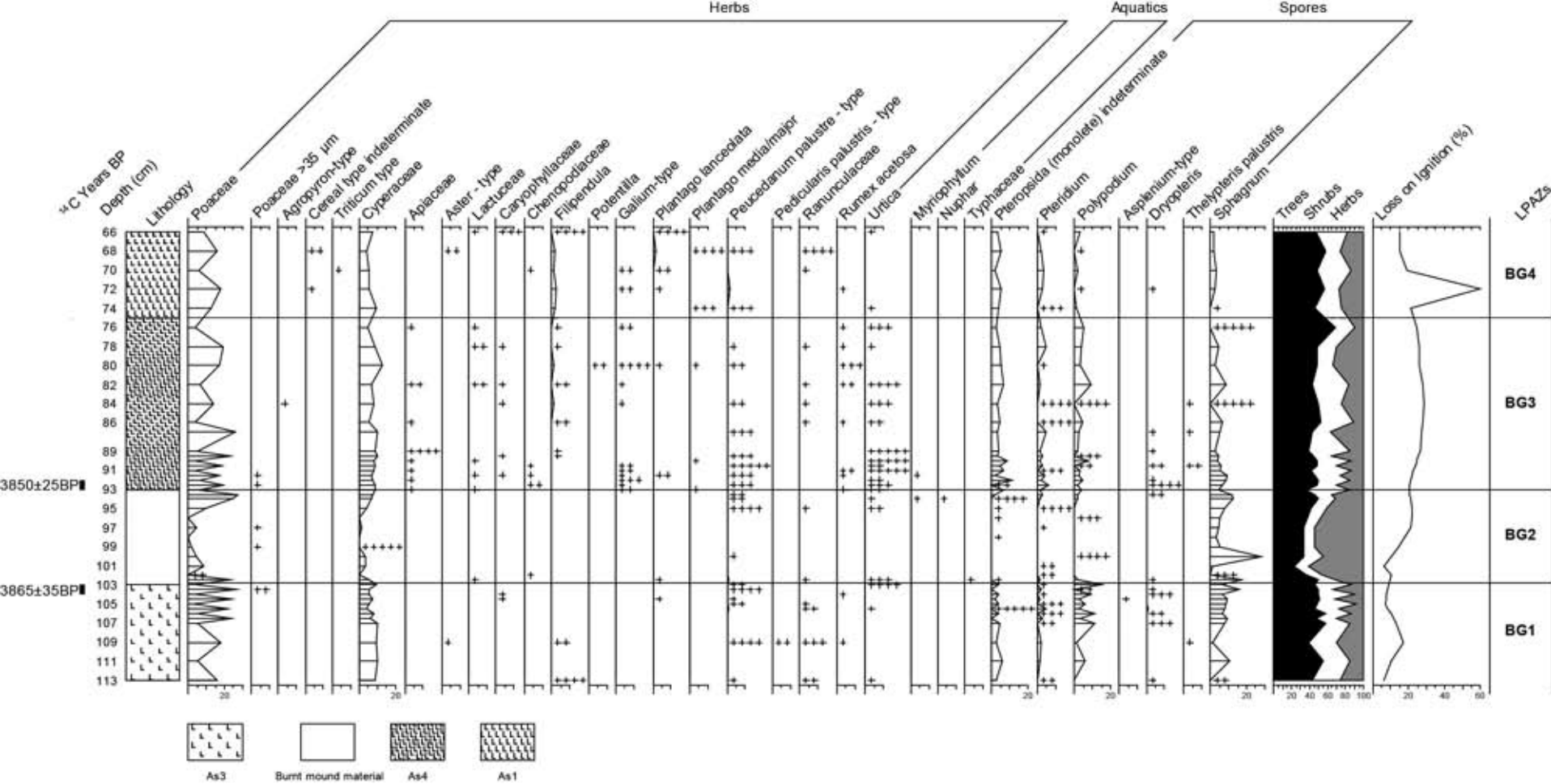
Burnt Mound [8413]

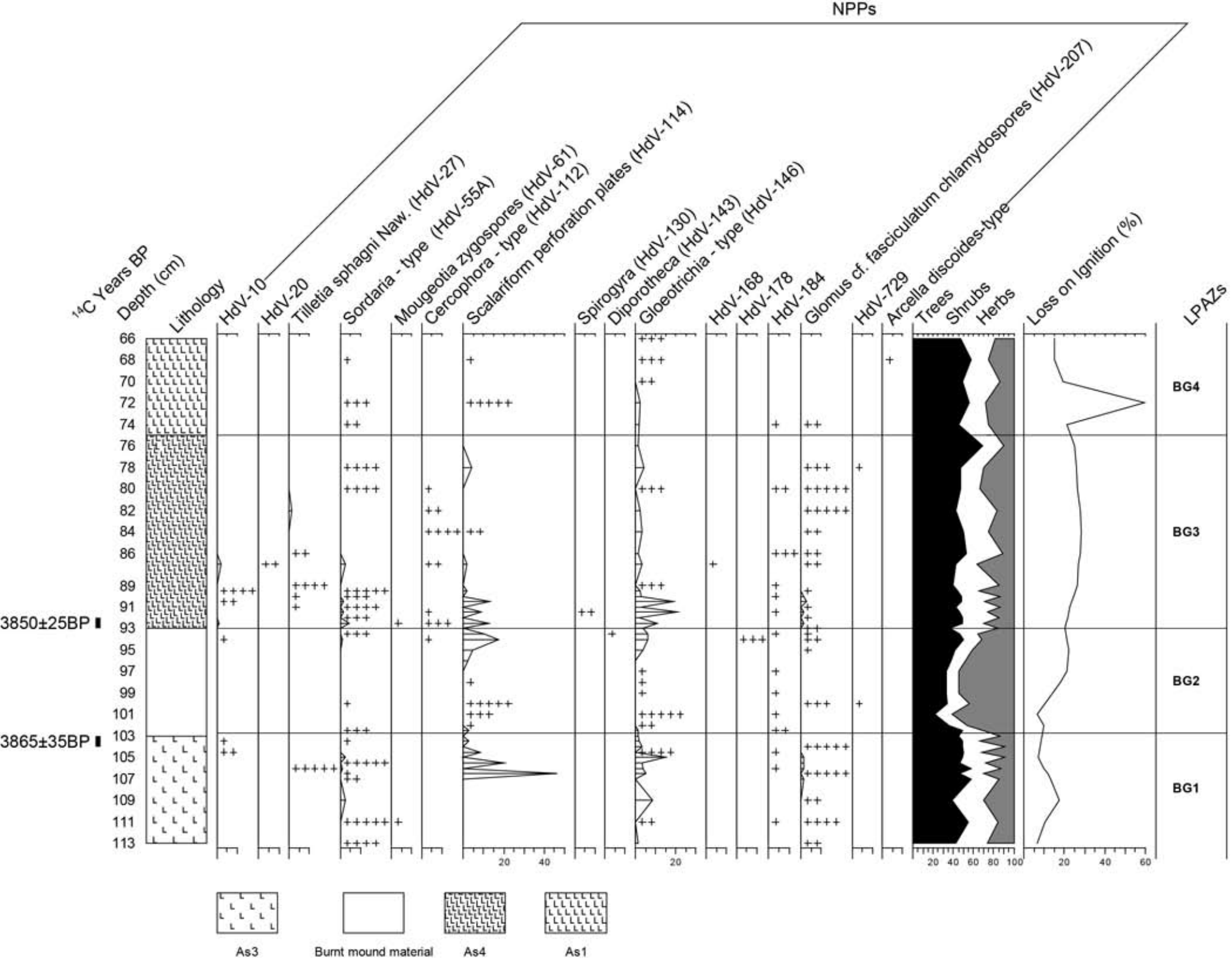
Burnt Mound [8414]

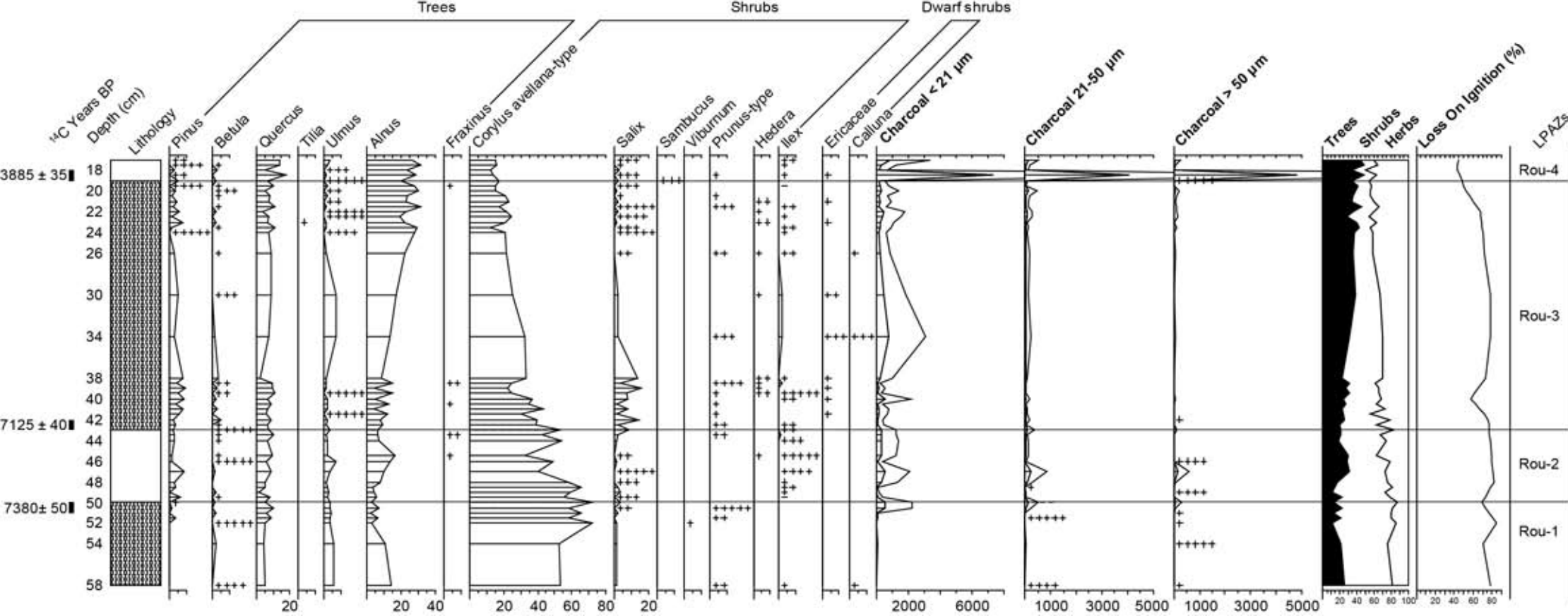


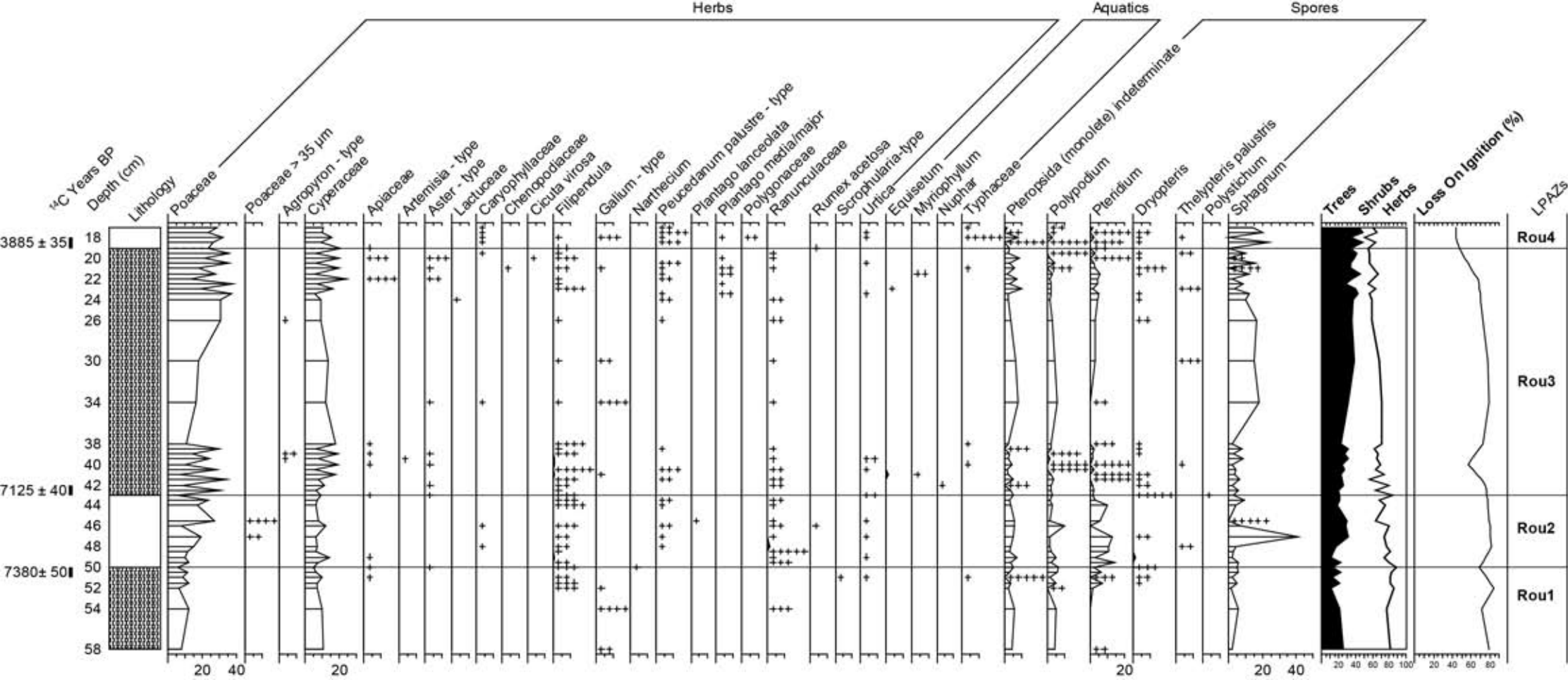


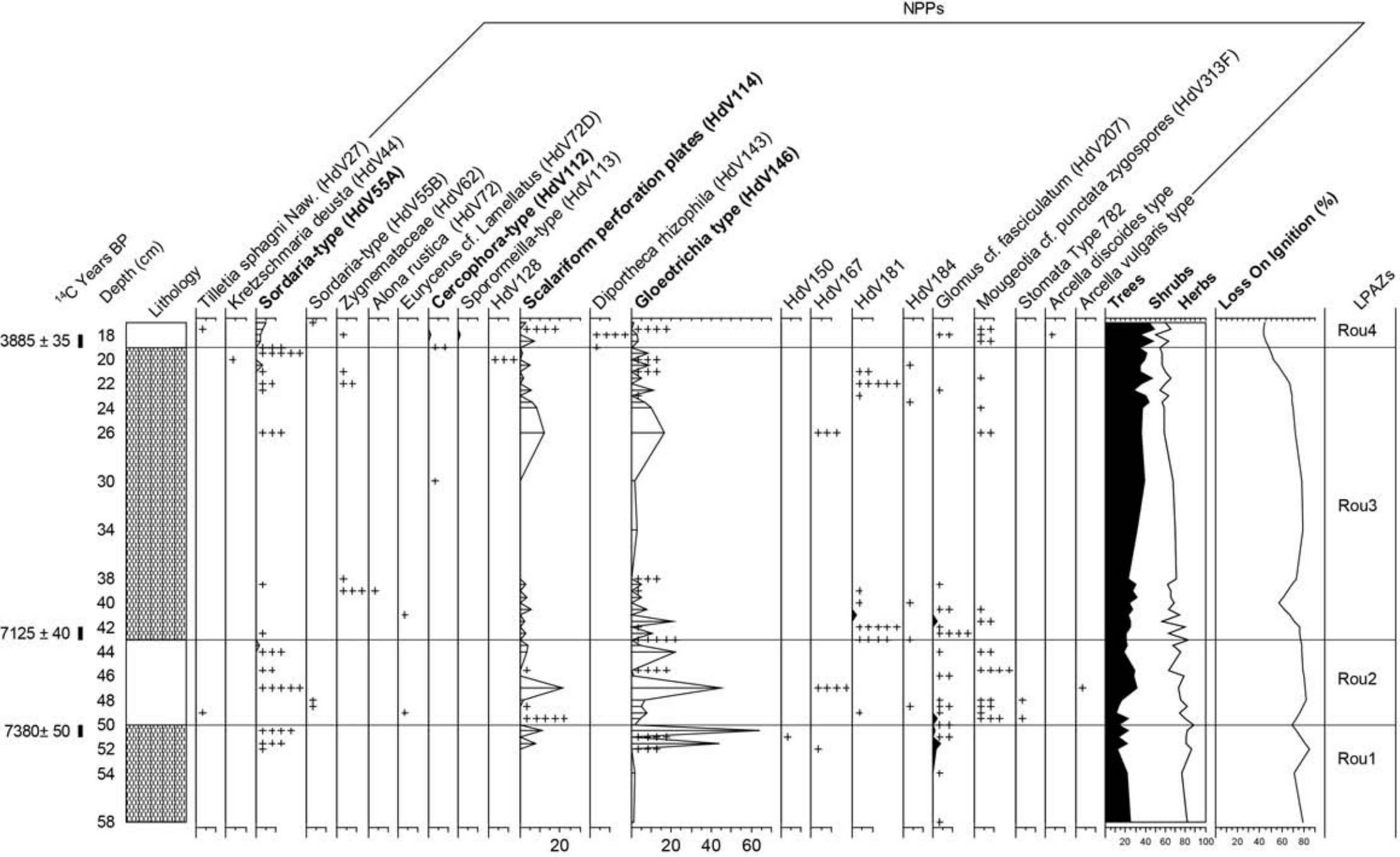


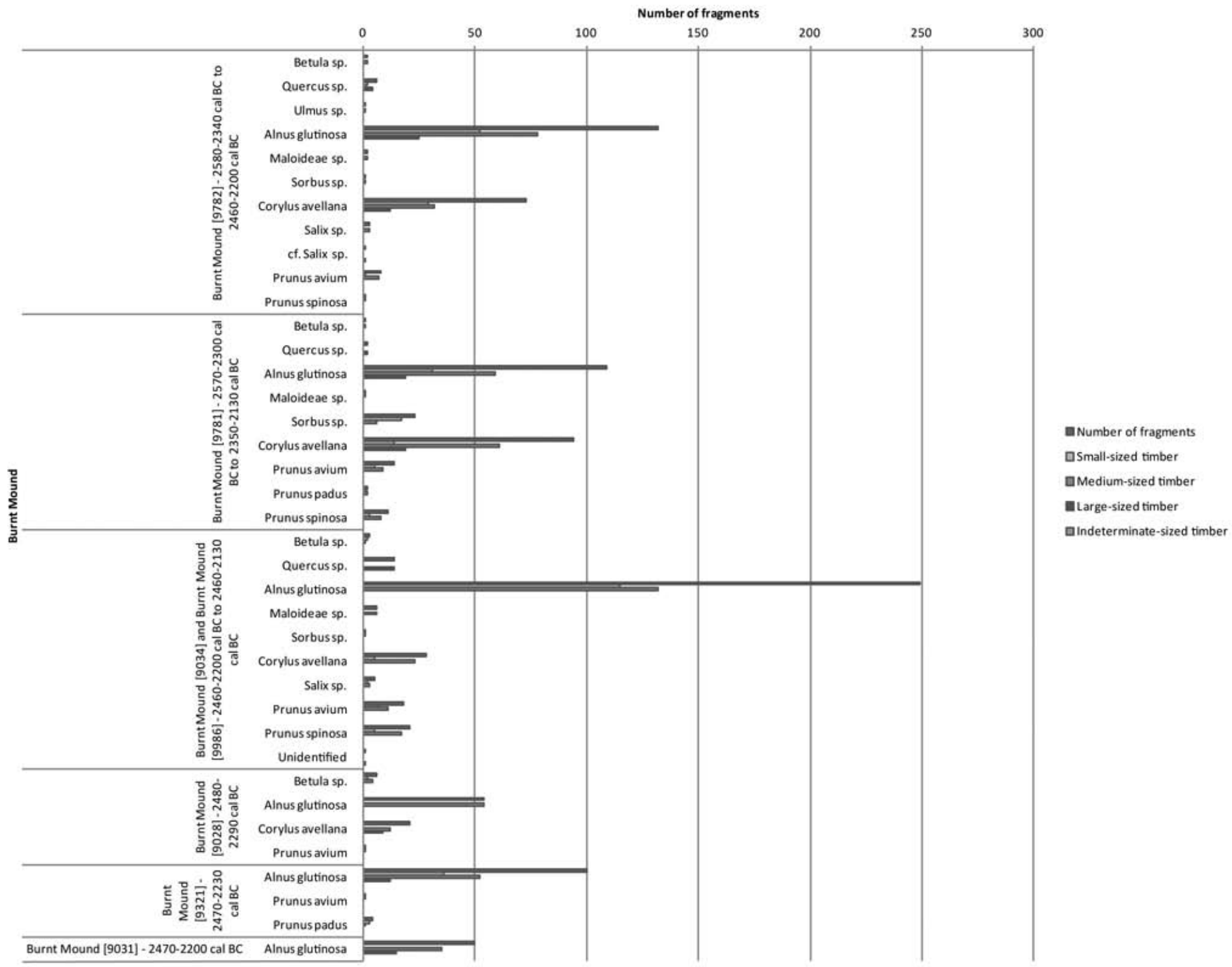












Roughan	Depth (cm)	Material	Lab number	¹⁴C age (BP)	Calibrated age range (95.4%)
Monolith	18-19	<i>Corylus avellana</i> charcoal	GU-15850	3885 ± 35	2466-2208 BC
	42-43	Peat – humic acid	GU-15852	7125 ± 40	6068-5913 BC
	50-51	Bulk sediment	Poz-46459	7380 ± 50	6385-6100 BC
Ballgawley	Depth (cm)	Material	Lab number	¹⁴C age (BP)	Calibrated age range (95.4%)
Monolith	91-92	Peat – humic acid	GU-15849	3850 ± 35	2460-2200
	103-104	<i>Corylus avellana</i> Charcoal	GU-17350	3865 ± 35	2465-2210