

# The *fumier* sequences of El Mirador cave: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent

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## Abstract

*Fumier* sequences play a primary role in the study of livestock management and the use of space in prehistoric pastoralist societies. These sequences are formed when dung accumulated in sheepfold caves and rock shelters is burnt, resulting in an overlapping of burnt and unburnt sedimentary layers. Thus, fire is a key taphonomic agent in the formation and alteration of *fumier* sequences.

The characteristics, functions, and management of burning events influence the preservation of the macro- and micro-remains potentially biasing the

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interpretation of the archaeological record. Therefore, it is important to understand the taphonomic effects of fire in *fumier* sequences.

In this chapter, we use a multi-scalar and interdisciplinary approach to the study of burning events at El Mirador cave. We analyzed the phytolith, fecal spherulites, pollen, non-pollen palynomorphs (NPP), and parasite remains in the *fumier* sequence, together with the mineral (FTIR) and magnetic properties of the sediments. In addition, we studied the effects of fire on the macrofaunal assemblages. The results obtained here provide the basis for a tapho-diagenetic framework that illustrates robustly the formation dynamics of the El Mirador *fumier* sequences.

## 1 Introduction

Fire is a structural agent in the formation of a type of archaeological sequence called a *fumier*, a French term used to describe sedimentary sequences produced by the accumulation and burning of dung in prehistoric caves and rock shelters. The deposit of El Mirador cave mainly constitutes a *fumier* sequence, which contains an extensive and varied archaeological record. Since Brochier first described this type of sequence from a geoarchaeological and geo-ethnoarchaeological perspective (Brochier, 1991, 1983; Brochier et al., 1992), the phenomenon of sheepfold caves has been documented throughout the Mediterranean basin (Angelucci et al., 2009). The earliest studies of *fumiers* focused on describing these sequences at a macro- and microscopic scale in order to identify them in archaeological sites (Angelucci et al., 2009; Canti, 1999; Macphail et al., 1997; Shahack-Gross, 2011). Macroscopically, *fumier* sequences have been described as complex stratigraphies made up of anthropogenic sediments resulting from the accumulation of burned and unburned dung, generating successive thin sub-horizontal layers that exhibit abrupt terminations and constant lateral changes (Brochier et al., 1992; Friesem, 2016; Goldberg and Macphail, 2006; Macphail et al., 1997). The term *facies* at El Mirador cave, make reference to archaeo-sedimentary units based on chromatic, texturing and composition variations (for facies description see Angelucci et al., 2009; Vergès et al., 2016a). *Facies* have been related to the conditions and characteristics of combustion, as well as to the humidity,

compaction or degradation conditions of the dung before burning (Angelucci et al., 2009; Vergès, 2011; Vergès et al., 2016b). A scarcity of archaeological material has also been proposed as a characteristic trait of *fumier* sequences (Angelucci et al., 2009), although in the specific case of El Mirador cave this criterion is not met, as an abundant and varied archaeological record has been documented throughout the sequence (Vergès et al., 2016a). Microscopically, *fumier* sequences have been characterized by the identification of microlaminations, dung spherulites, authigenic phosphates and abundant phytoliths (Canti and Brochier, 2017; Shahack-Gross, 2011; Shahack-Gross et al., 2005, 2003).

The macro- and microscopic records that characterize *fumier* sequences are affected by the use of fire for economic and cultural purposes, linked to the reduction of the volume of accumulated dung (Acovitsioti-hameau et al., 1999; Macphail et al., 1997; Shahack-Gross et al., 2005; Vergès et al., 2016b) and the cleaning of penning space (Acovitsioti-hameau et al., 1999; Brochier, 2005, 1991). Although these practices have been extensively identified in the Mediterranean archaeological record, their impact on the formation and preservation of the archaeological record has not been addressed yet.

In this chapter we present a multidisciplinary approach to fire as a taphonomic agent, determining burning conditions and its incidence in macro- and microscopic assemblages. To do this, we performed a multidisciplinary analysis based on a wide range of studies and to describe the effects of combustion generated by the burning of dung, in order to subsequently examine the formation processes. Understanding the role of fire in the formation, alteration, and destruction of the archaeological record is necessary to correctly interpret the archaeological record, both at El Mirador cave and in other archaeological sites containing *fumier* sequences. Here we include the results from archaeomagnetism, palynology, paleoparasitology, FTIR (applied to sediments and bones), phytolith analyses, and bone diagenesis analysis. The structure of the chapter is around two main objectives: First, to evaluate the impact of fire in the preservation of the macro- and micro-archaeological record contained in *fumier* sequences. Second, to understand and characterize the combustion of dung and its importance as a livestock management practice.

The materials studied in this chapter come from different areas and levels of El Mirador cave and the methods used encompass different fields of study and approaches. For this reason, we have summarized the materials included in this chapter in Supplementary information 1 and the description of the methods in Supplementary Information 2.

## 2 Results

### 2.1 Bone diagenesis

From a microscopic perspective, El Mirador cave raises questions about the preservation of bone remains. Bone diagenesis refers to physical and chemical degradation of bone materials over time. Monitoring diagenetic parameters is important in order to achieve high enough resolution to obtain biomolecular information, but it is also important in order to understand cultural and taphonomic processes. This is the case of boiled, cooked, and intentionally burned bones or bones non-intentionally burned during *fumier* formation.

The bone assemblage from four facies (*a*, *v*, *tf*, *r(m)*) has been analyzed (Supplementary Information 1) focused on bone preservation and taphonomic features that allow distinguishing between *facies* (Del Valle et al., 2022).

In facies *a*, the bone collagen and bioapatite crystals are well preserved, with crystallinity index (CI) values around  $3.59 \pm 0.55$  (Supplementary Information 3). Crystallinity values also are strongly related to the carbonate / phosphate ratio (C/P), suggesting incorporation of carbonate ions ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) in the crystal lattice. However, this absorption does not translate into the incorporation of calcium carbonate. These data suggest that the bone of facies *a* preserve a high collagen amount, slightly high C/P, and low CI in no burned bones remains (Supplementary Information 3).

As for facies *v*, the unaltered and boiled bones have retained good percentages of collagen content, even recovering 16% of extracted collagen (18% concerning 3.60 N wt% through estimated collagen by ATR-FTIR) (Supplementary Information 3). The crystallinity index is consistent with the results of the collagen content, with an CI of close to  $3.45 \pm 0.09$ . In other words,

the crystalline lattice is preserved in stable degrees because a sufficient fraction of collagen content is preserved (Hedges, 2002). These values are close to the modern bone values and, therefore these bones are considered to be well-preserved (WP). However, the need to evaluate the bone remains individually before being used for isotopic analyses is pointed out due to the slight increase in  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  ions observed, especially for boiled bones ( $\text{C/P} = 0.33 \pm 0.03$ ). In this type of facies is identify boiled bones, however, this taphonomic modification in the *fumier* deposits needs to be further investigated (Supplementary Information 3). Boiled bones are identifiable at the macroscopic level in keeping with the criteria proposed by several authors (Nicholson, 1996, 1998; Botella, 2000; Martín-Rodríguez, 2016). It is said, smoothness, light transparency, yellowish-cream color, and oily bone surface (White, 1992; Botella et al. 2000; Pijoan et al., 2007; Cáceres et al., 2007). In our results, boiled remains have presented a good amount of preserved collagen confirming what has already been reported in other studies (Roberts et al., 2002; Koon et al., 2003, 2010; Munro et al., 2007), even recording Amide III (Chadefaux et al., 2009; Bobbroff et al., 2016; Leskovar et al., 2020).

It was observed that in the diagenetic parameters of facies *a* and *v* statistically significant differences are not observed except for the API index, that is, a difference from A-type carbonates in the crystal lattice of bioapatite. This is important because it has been suggested that A-type carbonate substitution could be given when water is excluded from the burial environment (Bayarı et al., 2020), affecting bone preservation in facies *a* (Del Valle et al., 2022).

In facies *tf*, the preservation of the collagen content in the bones is very homogeneous and close to 3%, which means recrystallization occurred, increasing the CI values around  $4.06 \pm 0.29$  (Supplementary Information 3). In other words, the bones underwent a thermal impact close to carbonization at 300 °C in a more or less homogeneous way (Fig. 1a). These results are interpreted as postdepositional burning and cleaning. The reduced carbonate content is according to this thermal alteration as it has been observed in other experimental works (Lebon et al., 2010, Marques et al., 2018). The bones of the facies *tf* are characterized by a high crystallinity index and reduced carbonate and organic content values.

**Fig. 1 a.** Example of ATR-FTIR spectra of bone samples from facies and assignments of the main bands. **b.** Sediment spectra of some of the studied samples. MIR104-187 facies *b*; MIR104-103 facies *c*; MIR105-106 facies *a*; MIR105-101 facies *a*

Facies *r(m)* has been characterized as a light brown massive accumulation of ash. The CI obtained in the bone remains is around  $5.39 \pm 0.39$  with the complete degradation of collagen (Supplementary Information 3). Studying the exposure of the bones to high temperatures through the use of ATR-FTIR and bone surface show that they reached temperatures in the range close to 700 °C (Fig. 1a). The carbonate content is very low due to the significant loss of the bioapatite carbonate content during cremation. Secondary calcite was observed related to the sediment composition (mainly ash).

For the sediment, it is a benign and non-corrosive soil for the conservation of bones with a pH  $\approx 8$  (Karkanas et al., 2000; Weiner, 2010). It is characterized by loamy substrate with moderately alkaline pH values, high  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and, in general, have higher organic contents than corrosive soils. All facies are characterized by maintaining a basic pH. Starting from the Mas del Peper experimental context (del Valle, 2018; Vergès et al., 2016b), it is seen that the ash burned sediments have high basicity after burning (pH  $\approx 13$ ), which is buffered over time to values close to pH  $\approx 8$  due to  $\text{CaCO}_3$  amount, being observed in the burned facies of El Mirador cave (Del Valle, 2018).

## 2.2 FTIR from bulk sample

The facies analyzed by means of FTIR present variations in their mineralogical composition related to their differing formation processes. Facies *a*, *tf* and *v* of El Mirador cave are made up primarily of clay, followed by calcite, whereas in facies *b* and *r(m)* calcite dominates (Supplementary Information 4 and Fig. 1b). The presence of other minerals such as quartz, dahllite and opal is common in the composition of most of the samples.

In all of the facies studied, the calcite is pyrogenic in origin (ash) and is associated with thermally altered clay (Supplementary Information 4 and Fig. 1b). The exceptions are facies *a*, in which non-thermally altered clay was documented in some samples, and facies *v*, in which non-thermally altered clay and calcite of geogenic origin was found in a large number of samples.

The temperature reached during the combustion of dung in the El Mirador cave sequence can be determined using the identification of high disorder calcite (HDC) and the thermal alteration of the clay, which can be observed into account the positions of the major clay peaks on the spectra (Supplementary Information 4 and Fig. 1b). The combination of these two approaches to inferring paleotemperatures of the *fumier* record using FTIR indicates the presence of clear variations between the studied facies.

Facies *b* and specialty facies *r(m)*, reached temperatures of up to 600 °C and facies *ff* temperatures are in all samples lower than 600 °C. However, some samples from facies *b*, *r(m)* and *ff* containing HDC, indicative of having reached 800 °C. On the other hand, the analysis of facies *c* suggests that its temperature never exceeded 600 °C and the study of facies *v* identifies it as a present-day clay facies with no thermal alterations except for two samples, which evidence exposure to low temperatures (Supplementary Information 4). Only facies *a* exhibits significant internal variability, with samples containing calcite formed at high temperatures (>600 °C), other samples with clay burned at low temperatures (400 and 500 °C) and several samples without any thermally altered clay.

## **2.3 Rock magnetism**

### **Reversibility of thermomagnetic curves**

Magnetite or partially maghemitized magnetite (oxidized magnetite) was the main ferromagnetic mineral detected in the ash and subjacent carbonaceous facies (see Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book for further details). However, the degree of reversibility (coincidence between heating and cooling cycles) of the thermomagnetic curves is clearly different depending on the facies. The ashes tend to present highly reversible curves, indicating high thermomagnetic stability (Fig. 1b-e in Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book). This stability suggests that these facies may have reached temperatures of >700 °C (the maximum temperature applied during the experiment). Otherwise, chemical changes due to heating would be expected.

Carbonaceous facies (facies c), on the other hand, systematically exhibit irreversible curves (Fig. 1f-g in Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book). The increase in magnetization on the cooling cycles is interpreted as the formation of secondary magnetite. The thermal instability is presumably caused by the relatively low temperatures (at least lower than 700 °C) reached by these facies. The identification of partial thermoremanences in the carbonaceous facies with maximum unblocking temperatures up to 450 °C (Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book) indicates that the maximum heating temperatures reached by this facies fall in that range. This has been previously observed at El Mirador site and elsewhere (e.g., Carrancho et al., 2009, 2013) and is in agreement with the lack of thermomagnetic reversibility observed in this facies. If it had been exposed to temperatures higher than those reached during the experiment (700 °C), the sample would have been thermochemically stabilized and, consequently, no mineralogical transformation would have been observed during the experiment

**Fig. 2** Results of anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) for the burning events Ci2 and Ci3 (level MIR 104), Ci5, Ci6 and Ci7 (level MIR107), ordered according to their relative stratigraphic position (Ci2 is the shallowest, and Ci7 the deepest). All of them were located in Sector 100. The graphics correspond to Equal area projection of the magnetic ellipsoid axes (left), corrected anisotropy degree [P<sub>J</sub>] vs. magnetic susceptibility [K<sub>m</sub>] plot (center) and shape parameter [T] vs. P<sub>J</sub> plot (right). In the equal area projection plot, K1 = blue squares, K2 = green triangles and K3 = pink circles (small symbols show the results for each specimen, and large symbols represent the mean direction). Confidence ellipses (95%) are also shown

### **Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS)**

The corrected degree of anisotropy (P<sub>J</sub>; Jelinek, 1981) was found to be low in all episodes ( $\leq 1.016$ ) and magnetic foliation (oblate shape) predominates over magnetic lineation (prolate shape) (Table 1). Three main types of magnetic fabric were observed: (1) episodes with K1 (maximum axis), K2 (intermediate axis) and poorly defined K3 orientations (minimum axis) (Ci2 and Ci3, Fig. 3a-b); (2) episodes with K3 aligned with the vertical and K1 and K2 in the horizontal plane, with not very well defined orientations (Ci5 and Ci6, Fig. 3c-d); (3) episodes with K3 slightly tilted in relation to the vertical plane, and well-differentiated K1-K2 defining a magnetic foliation plane with K1 aligned with the maximum slope of this foliation plane (Ci7, Fig. 3e).

**Table 1** Statistical parameters of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) (N= number of samples considered for the calculations / N'= total number of measured samples/ St. D = Standard deviation / K<sub>m</sub>= susceptibility



value / L= magnetic lineation / F= magnetic foliation /  $P_J$ = corrected anisotropy degree / T= shape parameter)

Considering the sedimentary characteristics of prehistoric combustion structures like those studied here (Mallol et al., 2017), the expected fabric should be similar to that from well-preserved, natural cave sediments. This means that K3 should be perpendicular to the plane of the depositional surface and K1-K2 should form a girdle in the bedding plane (Tarling and Hrouda, 1993 and references therein). The vertical K3 is interpreted as an effect of gravitational forces during the formation episodes and posterior covering by younger materials. Magnetic fabric Type 2 (Ci5 and Ci6, Fig. 2c-d) presents a similar pattern. In the case of Type 3 (Ci7, Fig. 2e), the slight deviation of K3 in relation to the horizontal plane may be an effect of formation on a slight slope (e.g., Bradák et al., 2020). The alignment of K1 with the maximum slope inside the foliation plane is consistent with this explanation.

The poorly defined orientation of all the axes of Type 1 reflects the random orientation of the ferromagnetic grains in episodes Ci2 and Ci3 (Fig.2a-b). This could be interpreted as an effect of a mechanical process. However, the mean archaeomagnetic directions of these combustion episodes are not widely scattered and exhibit directions consistent with normal polarity, as is expected for the time at which they were formed. In fact, it must be said that the quality of the directional record of all the studied episodes is generally high, regardless of the type of magnetic fabric (see Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book). This indicates the relatively good preservation of the sample areas of these combustion episodes.

### **White ash-like facies**

Finally, it is worth mentioning the particular behavior of white facies (described as type b) with an ash-like appearance taken from Ci2. Hysteresis cycles show a high contribution of the diamagnetic fraction and low content of ferromagnetic minerals (Fig. 3a). This explains the noisy thermomagnetic curves (Fig. 3b). Considering that ash facies presents high ferromagnetic (s.l.) mineral content (e.g., Carrancho et al., 2009; McClean and Kean, 1993; Peters et al., 2001), the evidence reported here strongly suggests that the white facies studied from the

Ci2 event is not actually an ash facies (s.s.) or, at least, its ash content is rather low. This anomalous behavior seems to be related to the identification of speleothem fragments in this facies observed in thin section analyses (Dr. A. Polo-Díaz, personal communication). As speleothems are extremely poor in ferromagnetic minerals, it would explain the low magnetic signal detected.

**Fig. 3 a-b.** Hysteresis loops and c-d. thermomagnetic curves (temperature vs. magnetization) of white facies from Ci2 event (level MIR104). Pannel e. shows the white patch inside Ci2.

## 2.4 Phytolith and fecal spherulite results

The phytolith results show a clear predominance of monocotyledons, classified as Poaceae (grasses) due to the absence of Cyperaceae and palm tree morphologies in the studied assemblages (Supplementary Information 5). The percentage of Poaceae is up to 90% in some samples from level MIR104. Most of the samples exhibit values between 80% and 90%, with one outlier in sample 188 from MIR104 (51.74%). Between 20 and 30% of grass morphotypes were determined as leaves/stem (ELONGATE ENTIRE and CYLINDROID ENTIRE), with only a few samples exceeding 30%. The morphotypes of grass inflorescences (Elongate dentate and Papillate) do not represent more than 10% of the phytolith assemblage.

The group of dicotyledonous plants (Blocky and Tabular entire) is represented with values below 10% of the total of the assemblage, except for sample 186 from MIR105 (15.15%). Anatomically, the identified morphologies related to wood and the values obtained for dicot leaves are irrelevant throughout the sequence.

Taphonomically, the most common alterations identified in the phytolith assemblages are weathered morphologies, and to a lesser extent, melted morphologies, although weathered morphotype never exceed 10% (Supplementary Information 5). The exceptions are the samples taken from the top of each level: in sample 108 from MIR105 13% of the morphologies were altered beyond recognition, and in sample 188 from MIR104 a total of 24% of phytoliths were weathered morphotypes. Most of the samples present a low percentage of phytoliths in anatomical connections, fewer than 10%, with

multicellular structures formed between two and three phytoliths per multicellular structure.

Fecal spherulite concentrations are in most cases much higher than the phytolith concentrations per unit of weight. Three samples have faecal spherulites concentrations exceeding 1000 million of phytoliths per gram of sediment, four samples have values of between 600 and 800 million, and the remaining samples were found to have values of between 50 and 600 million of faecal spherulites per gram of sediment (Supplementary Information 5). Yet, in most of the samples, the phytolith concentration is less than 250 million per gram of Acid Insoluble Fraction (AIF), and only four samples present values between 700 million and 1000 million. Sample 100 from level MIR105, is an exception in the sequence with a concentration of 1700 million phytoliths per gram of AIF.

The greatest variability on concentration results was documented in the phytoliths and spherulites, and several discontinuities were recorded within the sequence (Supplementary Information 5). Sample 188 from level MIR104 exhibited very low phytolith concentrations, with over 50% of the sample being the weathered morphotype. In the remainder of the samples, lower phytolith concentrations in facies *c* were lower than in facies *b*. In level MIR105, the highest concentrations, both for spherulites and phytoliths, were identified at the top and the base of the level, while a clear decrease in phytolith concentrations was recorded in the middle section.

## **2.5 Pollen results**

The palynological analysis of the samples from level MIR4, which focused on the characterization of four sedimentary facies (*a*, *b*, *g*, *m*), allowed for the identification of several general features. Samples from facies *a*, which has been described as yellowish-brown clayey silt with dispersed organic matter, ash and microcharcoal fragments, and facies *b*, *g* and *m*, which correspond to ashy layers related to different degrees of thermal disturbance. In addition to considering the pollen richness and taxonomic variability of pollen and non-pollen palynomorphs, we categorized the post-depositional damage observed in

the pollen grains into three types: thermal alteration, fragmentation and compaction (Expósito and Burjachs, 2016).

Fragmentation or thermal alteration grains are common and represent more than 20% of the remains identified. The maximum percentages of fragmentation (18.2%) were documented in samples from facies *g*, and the highest values of thermal alteration (30.4%) were in samples from facies *m*.

In addition, thermal alteration is the most relevant modification associated with low palynological concentrations. However, we found that oxidation did not give rise to the artificial over-representation of a specific pollen taxon when the results of the samples affected by thermal alteration were compared with the taxa numbers in the level average.

The expected characteristics of burned facies are a low CP, the presence of thermally altered pollen grains, little palynological taxonomic variability and low resolution for landscape reconstruction. In this sense, samples from same facies show similar results, mainly in terms of the preservation of the pollen record. However, we have observed that some of the facies classified as burned facies (especially *b* and *g*) include the input of pollen without burning damage.

## **2.6 Paleoparasitology results**

All analyzed samples (Supplementary Information 1) contained micro-charcoals as well as other recognized particles, including phytoliths, spores, and pollen. All 20 samples were determined to be free of parasitological remains, although there were also five undeterminable microfossils (samples no. 1 and 44).

All of the undeterminable microfossils from El Mirador cave have some characteristics of potential parasite eggshells. Due to the lack of a complete set of current characteristics, scarce data, and endless other potential identification possibilities, we were unable to determine the nature of these specimens.

## **3 Discussion**

### **3.1 Fire as a taphonomic agent: the alteration of micro and macroscopic assemblages in *fumier* sequences**

To sum up, as a taphonomic agent, fire, influences the preservation of the archaeological record in the aftermath of *fumiers* in a variety of ways. Phytoliths and spherulites resist the effects of fire well because of their mineral composition and concentration process generated by fire. On the other hand, other micro-remains such as parasites and pollen tend can be altered or even obliterated by the action of fire at high temperatures. However, the preservation of pollen grains can be quite good if they are deposited after burning. This differential pattern in deposition and preservation may explain the abundance of phytoliths and spherulites, and in some cases pollen, in *fumier* sequences, and why they have been identified as a defining feature of this type of archaeological sequence (Angelucci et al., 2009; Shahack-Gross, 2011). The faunal assemblages, like the micro-remain assemblages, present different diagenetic trajectories that influence the macroscopic preservation of the assemblage as well as its mineral composition.

The presence of micro-remains, especially phytoliths and spherulites, and autogenic minerals like carbonate hydroxylapatite (dahllite) or calcite of pyrogenic origin is one of the most diagnostic traits of *fumier* sequences (Angelucci et al., 2009; Shahack-Gross, 2011). These micro-remains preserved in dung pellets provide key information about aspects related to diet, herd composition, seasonality, environment and landscape characteristics, enclosure spaces, and cave use, among others (Albert et al., 2008; Burguet-Coca et al., 2020; Delhon et al., 2008; Panadès et al., 2016; Portillo and Albert, 2011). The high temperatures identified in dung combustion have not completely eliminated these diagnostic micro-residues, demonstrating their resistance to the action of fire (Burguet-Coca et al. 2020; Portillo and Albert, 2011). Phytolith alterations are generally low and mainly weathered-type chemical alterations, with a low presence of melted morphologies indicative of fire alteration. The resistance of phytoliths at these temperatures is explained by their silica composition, which has a melting point of 1,713 °C (Piperno, 2006). Furthermore, sedimentary contexts formed by large amounts of organic matter and urine can lower the melting point of phytoliths to between 600 °C and 900 °C (Matthews, 2010;

Brönnimann et al., 2017; Canti and Brochier, 2017). Apparently, the phytolith assemblages at El Mirador are not particularly affected by fire. The uppermost samples from the MIR104 and MIR105 units show phytolith weathering associated with subaerial exposure and dissolution by water. In addition, these phytolith assemblages were previously affected by fire.

Dung spherulites survive at temperatures below 650–700 °C (Canti, 1999; Matthews, 2010; Shahack-Gross, 2011). Although temperatures higher than those exceeding this threshold have been documented by FTIR and Rock-magnetism in the sequences studied, it seems that they did not completely affect the spherulite assemblages. The large number of spherulites produced by herbivores such as goats or sheep increases their preservation chances despite fire effects. Furthermore, volume reduction processes together with variable temperatures within the same heap can favor the concentration and, as a result, the preservation of spherulites, giving rise to variable quantities identified in the El Mirador sequence.

However, fire has generated a process of concentration that may have relevance in the interpretation of both the macro- and microscopic record. This process is related to the reduction of the volume in which botanical remains such as phytoliths and mineral remains such as spherulites are concentrated and can also generate concentrations of archaeological remains such as bones, lithic industry and ceramics. Some experimental have found that burning can reduce the initial volume of accumulated material by 80 to 90% (Shahack-Gross et al., 2005; Vergès et al., 2016). In short, the material accumulated in one meter of dung is concentrated in 10 to 20 centimeters after burning. In addition, the new entry of animals into the cave or pressure from the sediments themselves can generate even finer facies where the macroscopic archaeological material will concentrate further. Volume reduction and materials concentrations may increase the challenges for interpreting the archaeological record on a spatial-temporal scale. Even so, the analysis of anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility and paleomagnetic results (Herrejón-Lagunilla et al., this book) show good preservation of the archaeomagnetic directions in the studied facies. It is worth to mention that, in a strict sense, archaeomagnetic directions are recorded after the heating, during the cooling (just when the blocking

temperature is surpassed). That is, this process takes place when the greatest volume reduction has already occurred.

The lack of parasite remains can be attributed to the effectivity of burning practices to eliminate them and prevent the spread of potential infections. This is likely the result of the burning practices that took place in the cave, which pays testimony to the effectiveness of burning strategies for cave cleaning and disease prevention purposes. Indeed, the practice seems to have exterminated any existing parasites, thereby preventing the spread of potential infections (Acovitsioti-hameau et al., 1999; Brochier, 2005). However, it is not possible to rule out that biotic decomposition or abiotic processes could also have led to the absence of parasites, especially in facies apparently without apparent fire impact.

Pollen grains undergo specific alteration processes that are different from other micro-remains present in *fumiers* such as phytoliths, spherulites or parasites. The differential preservation of pollen grains in archaeological deposits is commonplace and expected. Several taphonomic works have explored the representativeness and reliability of palynomorph assemblages from archaeological sites in caves (Weinstein-Evron, 1981; Weinstein-Evron, 1994; Coles et al., 1989; Diot, 1991; Simpson and Hunt, 2009). Processes such as burning, recycling and bioturbation can relocate material throughout archaeological deposits and soils and can produce marked biases in the pollen record (Bryant et al., 1994; Bryant and Holloway, 1996). Specifically, fire contributes to the alteration of pollen assemblages, as high temperatures can affect their preservation and generate observable morphological features.

However, in the burned facies at El Mirador cave (especially *b* and *g*), the pollen does not always reflect the alterations typical of the processes that the sediment at the site has undergone. This could imply that pollens without thermal alterations were deposited on the burned facies after the combustion event. These assemblages represent an important contribution to our understanding of the modification of the landscape and human pressure on plant environments.

The use of fire in *fumier* sequences modifies bone remains in several ways. The practice may reflect a mixture of anthropic processes related to the mastery of fire. However, distinguishing between these different possible anthropogenic processes (i.e., intentional burning, cooking, boiling, roasting, hearths, etc.) can prove challenging. This issue also arises when examining and attempting to classify boiled, cooked and intentionally burned bones from bones burned non-intentionally during the formation of the *fumier* (Del Valle, 2018).

One of the main aims of the analysis of burned bones is to detect those exposed to low temperatures affecting bones and cooking processes in order to better understand the cooking activities of past peoples. However, due to the burning processes that characterize *fumier* sequences, it was only possible to identify these cooked faunal remains in the unburned facies (facies *v*). However, to optimize the identification of such remains, the diagenetic modifications that can occur must also be considered.

The preservation of bones in *fumier* contexts is good once a neutral pH environment is reached. As Nicholson (1996, 1998) described in reference to compost heap experiments, burned bones tend to be well-preserved as a consequence of the cross-linking of collagen with humic substances in the soil (neutral pH reached), resulting in a structure resistant to enzymatic attack. The preservation of bones in *fumier* sequences presents two clear trends. First, the diagenetic pathway of the unburned facies *v* and bones unburnt in re-elaborated facies *a*, which implies good preservation of organic material with a differential but low thermal impact. Second, the pathway of the burned facies *tf* and *r(m)*, in turn, illustrate two trends based on the temperatures reached: the accelerated hydrolysis of collagen and the loss of previous biostratigraphic processes due to cremation.

### **3.2 The role of fire: management of sheepfold caves and characteristics of dung combustion**

At the El Mirador cave, the characteristics of the combustion of dung, especially the paleotemperature, have been approached through the mineralogical analysis of sediments and bones by means of FTIR and rock magnetic analysis.



Additionally, the complete absence of parasites remains and the low presence of pollen grains in some facies also has been used as an indirect paleotemperature reference. For the ashy facies, the results are consistent in determining high combustion temperatures for facies *r(m)* and *b* and lower for facies *tf* (<600 °C). The results for facies *c* (carbonaceous) point to a lower temperature, with results yielding more variable definitions depending on the analysis technique used, but coinciding with a carbonization process such as that which characterizes this facies (Angelucci et al., 2009). As far as the magnetic analyses are concerned, the carbonaceous facies reached maximum heating temperatures of around 450 – 500 °C. These ashes and carbonaceous facies correspond to the remains of the combustion episode and the basis of the combustion episode, respectively (the floor above which the fire was done and that resulted thermally altered) and have been identified in other *fumier* sequences (Polo-Díaz et al., 2014, 2016; Égüez et al., 2016), and were observed in the Mas del Pepet experimental project as well (Vergès et al., 2016).

The results of the FTIR of the sediments and faunal remains are also consistent when characterizing facies *a* as that with the most internal variability in terms of temperatures reached by both the sediments and the bones. In this case, the divergent presence of fire is related to removal processes that generated facies with multiple origins. This observation based on the analysis of the archaeological record from the facies at the site supports the proposal to define these facies *a* using a micromorphological approach (Angelucci et al., 2009).

The temperatures identified in burned episode identified in level MIR105 are consistent with those of experimental works that replicate the combustion of dung (Vergès, 2011; Martín-Rodríguez and Vergès, 2016; Vergès et al., 2016; Burguet-Coca and Expósito, 2018). However, these experimental references document differences in temperature within the same heap. In the archaeological sequence, although dung piling is the most likely formation method, it has not been possible to specifically study the differences in temperature within the same heap. The experimental references focus on the documentation of the temperatures in the ash facies, and do not provide data on the formation of carbonaceous facies such as facies *c* identified in the El

Mirador cave deposit. Facies c (carbonous facies) developed below the facies b (ash facies), with different conditions and lower temperatures (Burguet-Coca, 2020; Vergès et al., 2016b). In addition, the temperatures that are reached in a *fumier* sequence are related to the condition of the dung before combustion, which includes variables such as compaction, disintegration, humidity, degradation and the period of the year in which the cave was occupied before the combustion (Vergès, 2011; Vergès et al., 2016; Burguet-Coca and Expósito, 2018). With the high temperatures identified in Sector 100 of El Mirador cave through FTIR and rock magnetic analysis, it is quite possible that the burned dung had good characteristics for combustion in terms of humidity and degradation.

#### **4 Conclusion**

In this multidisciplinary approach to the El Mirador cave sequences, we have been able to observe different patterns of alteration and preservation of the macro- and micro-archaeological assemblages. The impact of fire varied depending on the material it affected. We characterized fire as the primary agent of alteration in the different facies studied and found evidence that the ash facies reached high temperatures (> 600–700 °C), as opposed to the lower temperatures (up to 450–500 °C) reached by the subjacent carbonous facies. Not only fire alter archaeological remains and micro-remains, it can also significantly reduce the volume of accumulated material, resulting in concentration phenomena with considerable implications for the evaluation of the diachrony of the levels and their socioeconomic significance. In this chapter, we have attempted an initial analytical effort to link combustion with the preservation of the archaeological record from a multiscale perspective in order to do a better interpret prehistoric *fumier* sequences. Recognizing and evaluating these alteration processes has proven one of the greatest challenges to extracting the most information possible from the *fumier* sequence at El Mirador cave with regard to livestock activities, stabling spaces and the management of livestock landscapes, among many other aspects. Assessing the impact of fire – the primary agent of alteration – on this type of archaeological sites is the key to correctly interpreting the archaeological record. Known the important effects of the fire in archaeological deposits,

assessing its impact on these records is essential to understand their formation and alteration. Thus, it is necessary to face this assessment when starting any work in a deposit like prehistoric sheepfold caves.

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## Figures and table captions

**Fig. 1 a.** Example of ATR-FTIR spectra of bone samples from facies and assignments of the main bands. **b.** Sediment spectra of some of the studied samples. MIR104-187 facies *b*; MIR104-103 facies *c*; MIR105-106 facies *a*; MIR105-101 facies *a*

**Fig. 2** Results of anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) for the burning events Ci2 and Ci3 (level MIR 104), Ci5, Ci6 and Ci7 (level MIR107), ordered according to their relative stratigraphic position (Ci2 is the shallowest, and Ci7 the deepest). All of them were located in Sector 100. The graphics correspond to Equal area projection of the magnetic ellipsoid axes (left), corrected anisotropy degree [PJ] vs. magnetic susceptibility [Km] plot (center) and shape parameter [T] vs. PJ plot (right). In the equal area projection plot, K1 = blue squares, K2 = green triangles and K3 = pink circles (small symbols show the results for each specimen, and large symbols represent the mean direction). Confidence ellipses (95%) are also shown. **Fig. 3 a-b.** Hysteresis loops and **c-d.** thermomagnetic curves (temperature vs. magnetization) of white facies from Ci2 event (level MIR104). Pannel **e.** shows the white patch inside Ci2. **Table 1** Statistical parameters of the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) (N=

number of samples considered for the calculations /  $N'$ = total number of measured samples/ St. D = Standard deviation /  $K_m$ = susceptibility value / L= magnetic lineation / F= magnetic foliation /  $P_J$ = corrected anisotropy degree / T= shape parameter)

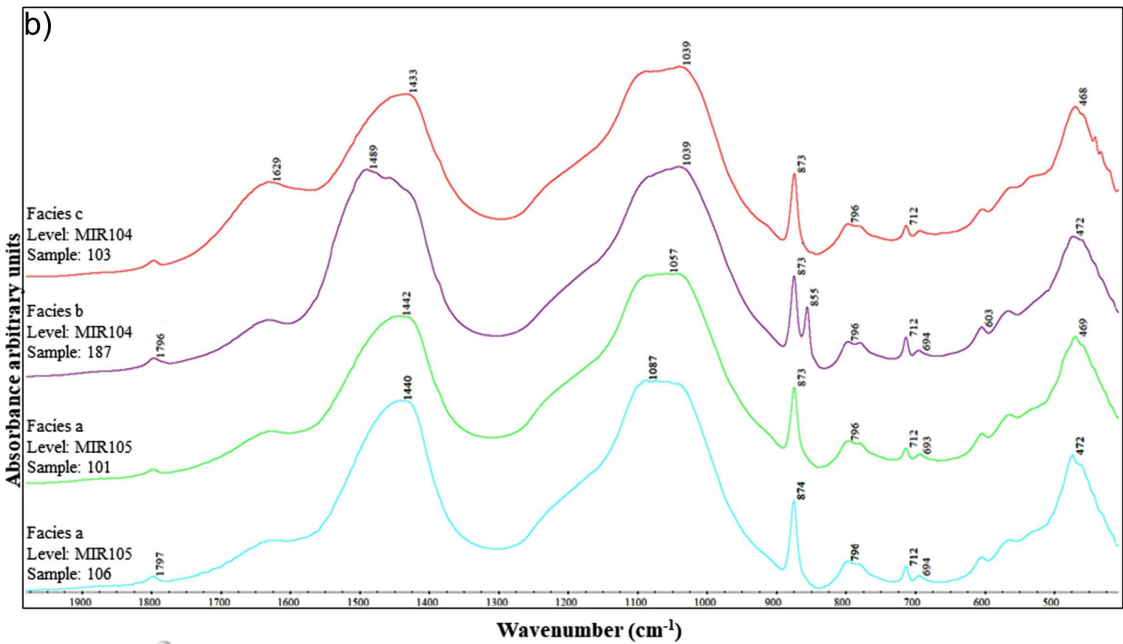
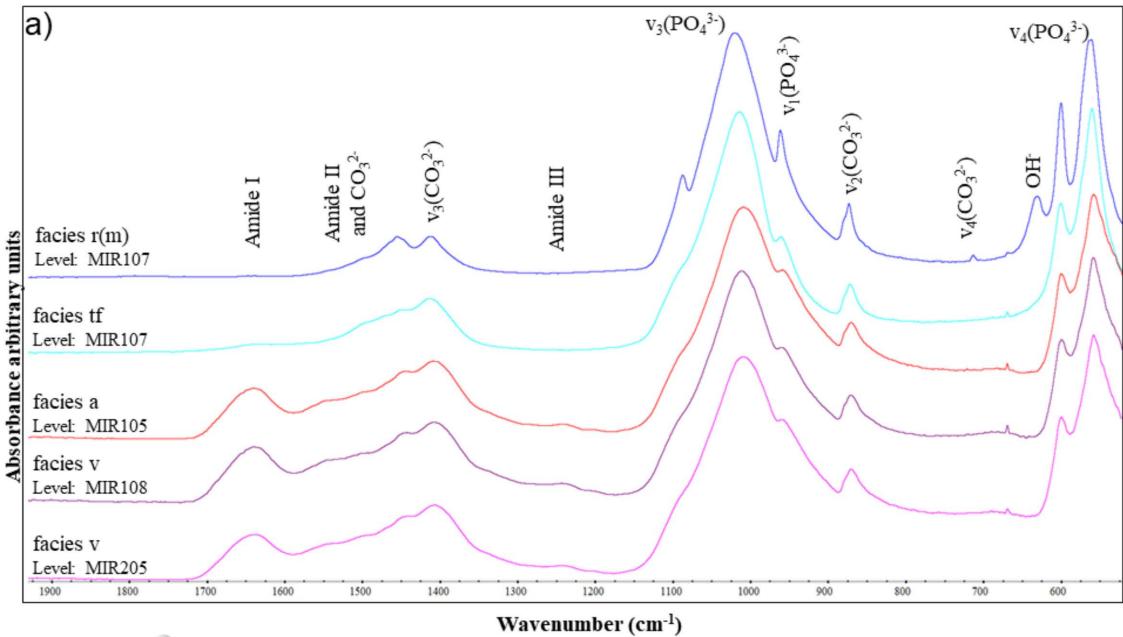
**Supplementary information 1** Materials

**Supplementary information 2** Methods

**Supplementary information 3** Main diagenetic parameters through ATR-FTIR and thermal alterations

**Supplementary information 4** FTIR results from bulk samples

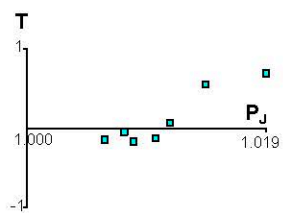
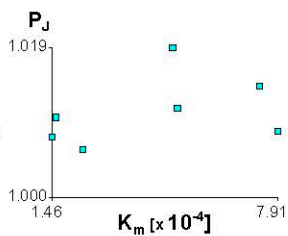
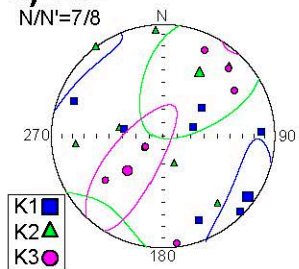
**Supplementary information 5** Phytoliths and dung spherulites results



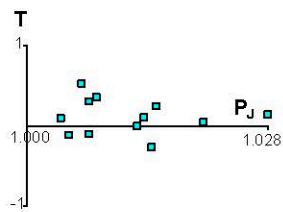
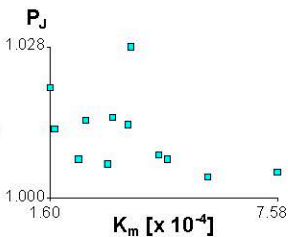
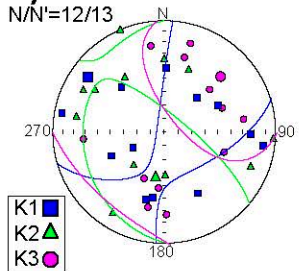


**a) Ci2**

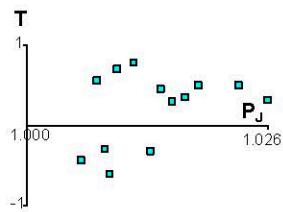
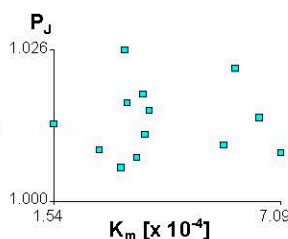
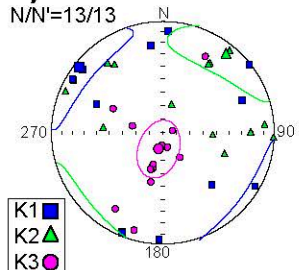
N/N'=7/8

**b) Ci3**

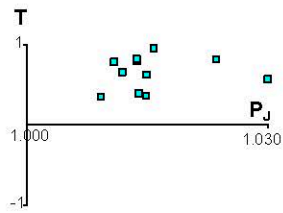
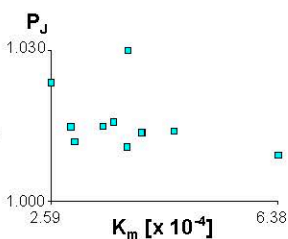
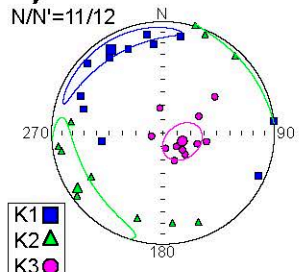
N/N'=12/13

**c) Ci5**

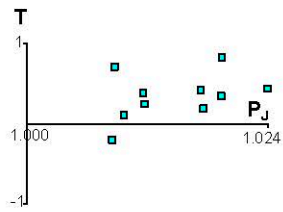
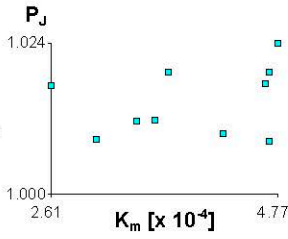
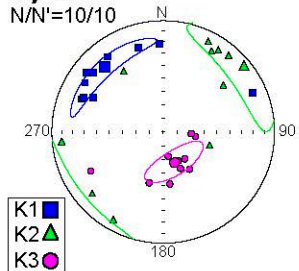
N/N'=13/13

**d) Ci6**

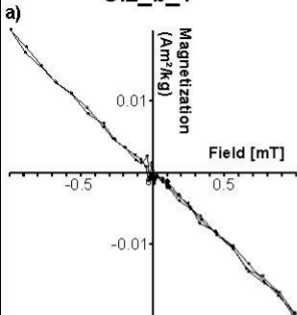
N/N'=11/12

**e) Ci7**

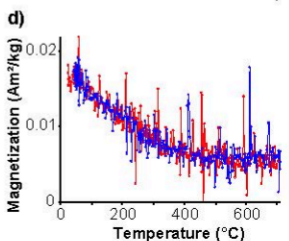
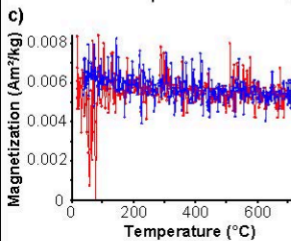
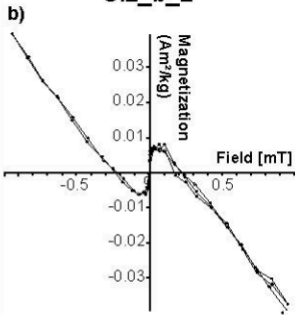
N/N'=10/10



Ci2\_b\_1



Ci2\_b\_2



Combustion episodes	N	N'	K <sub>m</sub>		L			F			P <sub>j</sub>			T		
			Average	Standard deviation	Mean	Average	Standard deviation	Mean	Average	Standard deviation	Mean	Average	St.D	Mean	Average	Standard deviation
Ci2	7	8	4.37E-04	2.67E-04	1,003	1,004	0.001	1,002	1,007	0.005	1,005	1,011	0	-0.088	0.117	0.353
Ci3	12	13	3.69E-04	1.73E-04	1,001	1,005	0.003	1,002	1,006	0.004	1,003	1,012	0.01	0.446	0.114	0.223
Ci5	13	13	4.17E-04	1.64E-04	1,002	1,005	0.002	1,007	1,009	0.005	1,009	1,014	0.01	0.534	0.220	0.464
Ci6	11	12	3.86E-04	1.03E-04	1,001	1,003	0.002	1,010	1,012	0.005	1,013	1,016	0.01	0.764	0.648	0.209
Ci7	10	10	3.94E-04	7.76E-05	1,004	1,004	0.002	1,007	1,010	0.004	1,011	1,015	0.01	0.306	0.351	0.292

**CHAPTER 6: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

**The fumier sequences of El Mirador: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent.**

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**Supplementary material 1 (SM 1): Materials**

Type analysis	Level	Square	Num.	facies	Type sample	X	Y	ZINF
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	T15	188	b	bulk sample	95	32	1267
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	T15	187	b	bulk sample	92	31	1274
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	T15	185	b	bulk sample	89	57	1283
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	T15	186	c	bulk sample	89	28	1287
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	S15	104	b	bulk sample	92	57	1295
Phyt., Sph.	MIR104	S15	103	c	bulk sample	88	81	1305
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	108	a	bulk sample	83	82	1313
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	107	a	bulk sample	82	82	1322
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	106	a	bulk sample	83	85	1332
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	105	a	bulk sample	82	8	1342
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	104	a	bulk sample	81	82	1362
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	103	a	bulk sample	81	82	1374
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	102	a	bulk sample	82	84	1394
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	101	a	bulk sample	83	87	1404
Phyt., Sph.	MIR105	S15	100	a	bulk sample	85	86	1420
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	79	a	bulk sample	77	20	1536
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	130	a	bulk sample	16	35	1544
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	148	a	bulk sample	10	40	1544
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	154	a	bulk sample	51	48	1547
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	172	a	bulk sample	42	53	1555
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	177	a	bulk sample	68	25	1550
FTIR	MIR 105	T13	104	a	bulk sample	20	69	1530
FTIR	MIR 105	T13	121	a	bulk sample	25	47	1544
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	77	a	bulk sample	82	10	1536
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	175	a	bulk sample	28	83	1553
FTIR	MIR 105	V12	5	a	bulk sample	35	7	1520
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	18	v	bulk sample	94	76	1563
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	20	v	bulk sample	79	71	1561
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	6	v	bulk sample	97	29	1557
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	13	v	bulk sample	69	74	1561
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	16	v	bulk sample	85	70	1561
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	22	v	bulk sample	91	67	1561
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	24	v	bulk sample	90	62	1560
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	61	v	bulk sample	90	65	1565
FTIR	MIR 108	V13	50	v	bulk sample	65	85	1558
FTIR	MIR 108	W13	94	v	bulk sample	2	78	1560
FTIR	MIR 108	V13	64	v	bulk sample	60	62	1559
FTIR	MIR 205	O37	7	v	bulk sample	37	88	1331
FTIR	MIR 205	O37	10	v	bulk sample	42	0	1331
FTIR	MIR 205	O38	37	v	bulk sample	57	40	1341
FTIR	MIR 205	P36	19	v	bulk sample	82	60	1344
FTIR	MIR 205	P36	21	v	bulk sample	44	85	1335
FTIR	MIR 205	P38	26	v	bulk sample	21	95	1331
FTIR	MIR 205	Q37	27	v	bulk sample	35	34	1343
FTIR	MIR 205	Q37	36	v	bulk sample	51	6	1351
FTIR	MIR 205	Q38	29	v	bulk sample	38	57	1337
FTIR	MIR 205	Q38	54	v	bulk sample	54	72	1343
FTIR	MIR 205	O37	14	v	bulk sample	32	97	1335
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	195	tf	bulk sample	79	10	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	197	tf	bulk sample	70	74	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	201	tf	bulk sample	6	48	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	202	tf	bulk sample	68	77	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	204	tf	bulk sample	4	47	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	212	tf	bulk sample	5	63	1539
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	215	tf	bulk sample	10	55	1540
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	218	tf	bulk sample	12	55	1542
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	226	tf	bulk sample	51	56	1541
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	228	tf	bulk sample	40	64	1542
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	208	tf	bulk sample	50	50	1545
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	98	r(m)	bulk sample	81	9	1513
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	99	r(m)	bulk sample	74	13	1514
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	114	r(m)	bulk sample	43	23	1511
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	116	r(m)	bulk sample	42	27	1510
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	105	r(m)	bulk sample	56	8	1513
FTIR	MIR 107	V14	209	r(m)	bulk sample	50	50	1520
FTIR	MIR 105	T13	103	a	bone	30	53	1529
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	76	a	bone	82	10	1536
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	78	a	bone	77	20	1536
FTIR	MIR 105	T13	122	a	bone	60	30	1545
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	129	a	bone	16	35	1544
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	147	a	bone	10	40	1544
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	153	a	bone	51	48	1547

FTIR	MIR 105	T12	171	a	bone	42	73	1554
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	174	a	bone	28	83	1552
FTIR	MIR 105	T12	176	a	bone	68	25	1549
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	17	v	bone	93	75	1562
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	21	v	bone	92	68	1560
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	15	v	bone	86	69	1560
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	60	v	bone	89	75	1564
FTIR	MIR 108	V13	93	v	bone	1	77	1559
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	19	v	bone	80	72	1561
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	5	v	bone	98	28	1556
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	23	v	bone	91	61	1559
FTIR	MIR 108	V13	49	v	bone	64	84	1557
FTIR	MIR 108	V12	12	v	bone	80	73	1560
FTIR	MIR 205	Q37	35	v	bone	50	6	1351
FTIR	MIR 205	O38	36	v	bone	58	42	1341
FTIR	MIR 205	Q38	53	v	bone	24	72	1343
FTIR	MIR 205	Q38	28	v	bone	48	57	1337
FTIR	MIR 205	O37	6	v	bone	37	88	1331
FTIR	MIR 205	P36	20	v	bone	44	85	1335
FTIR	MIR 205	P38	25	v	bone	22	95	1330
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FTIR	MIR 205	P36	18	v	bone	82	60	1344
FTIR	MIR 205	Q37	26	v	bone	35	33	1342
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	54	tf	bone	71	73	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	35	tf	bone	5	62	1505
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	66	tf	bone	4	48	1537
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	77	tf	bone	11	57	1540
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	59	tf	bone	5	51	1538
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	45	tf	bone	80	9	1536
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	19	tf	bone	52	57	1541
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	52	tf	bone	39	65	1542
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	43	tf	bone	23	35	1542
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	46	tf	bone	69	75	1536
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	113	r(m)	bone	43	23	1511
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	97	r(m)	bone	74	13	1514
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	104	r(m)	bone	56	8	1513
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	92	r(m)	bone	81	9	1513
FTIR	MIR 107	V13	115	r(m)	bone	42	27	1510
Paleoparasitology	MIR208	Q38	1	v	bulk sample	12	42	1377
Paleoparasitology	MIR208	O38	19	v	bulk sample	14	52	1388
Paleoparasitology	MIR208	Q37	16	m	bulk sample	69	16	1382
Paleoparasitology	MIR208	P37	41	m	bulk sample	66	36	1391
Paleoparasitology	MIR208	O39	23	m	bulk sample	9	87	1373
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	43	tf	bulk sample	72	5	1485
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	44	c	bulk sample	67	8	1492
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	46	m	bulk sample	68	8	1494
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	47	bg	bulk sample	73	32	1493
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	48	tf	bulk sample	74	26	1499
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	50	c	bulk sample	20	32	1513
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	59	m	bulk sample	40	47	1517
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	60	tf	bulk sample	32	35	1520
Paleoparasitology	MIR108	V14	74	v	bulk sample	67	10	1567
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	90	c	bulk sample	9	54	1535
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	119	tf	bulk sample	12	42	1550
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	127	m	bulk sample	12	67	1548
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	128	a	bulk sample	23	52	1551
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	141	f	bulk sample	46	80	1562
Paleoparasitology	MIR107	V14	142	c	bulk sample	23	31	1555
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2 Grey ash facies 1	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2 Grey ash facies 2	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2 White facies	White facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2 Carbonaceous facies	Carbonaceous facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2-59	Carbonaceous facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci2-60	Carbonaceous facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci3 Ash facies	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci3 Grey ash facies	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR103		Ci3 Carbonaceous facies	Carbonaceous facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-1	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-3	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-4	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-7	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-8	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-9	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci6-12	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-1	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-

Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-2	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-4	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-5	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-7	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci5-11	Carbonaceous facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci7-3	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci7-6	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci7-9	Ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci7-10	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Archaeomagnetism	MIR107		Ci7-12	Grey ash facies	bulk sample	-	-	-
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P20	34	a	bulk sample	80	15	1179
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P22		a	bulk sample	30	45	1195
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	Q22		a	bulk sample	5	5	1198
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P20	33	b	bulk sample	80	15	1176
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P22		b	bulk sample	35	40	1182
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	Q22		b	bulk sample	5	5	1193
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P22		g	bulk sample	35	40	1192
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	Q21	192	g	bulk sample	79	50	1245
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P20	180	g	bulk sample	16	37	1250
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	Q21		m	bulk sample			1210
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	P20	166	m	bulk sample	41	78	1243
Pollen, NPP	MIR4	Q22	180	m	bulk sample	20	34	1250

## **CHAPTER 6: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

### **The *fumier* sequences of El Mirador: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent.**

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#### **Supplementary material 2 (SM 2): Methods**

**Phytoliths:** Phytoliths were extracted following the extraction method Katz et al. (2010) extraction method. Between 30 and 40 mg of dry sediment were weighed and transferred to 0.5 conical centrifuge tubes. Then, 50  $\mu$ l of 6N HCl was added in order to dissolve carbonate minerals. After the reaction ceased, 450  $\mu$ l of sodium polytungstate 2.4 g/ml density was added to the solution. The tubes were then sonicated ca.10 min and centrifuged 5 min at 5000 rpm. The supernatant was transferred to a new 0.5-ml centrifuge tube. Then, the samples was homogenized an aliquot of 50  $\mu$ l was placed on a microscope slide and covered with a 24  $\times$  24 coverslip. Phytolith quantification and identification was carried out using a petrographic microscope Olympus BX41. To reduce quantification and identification errors, we counted the number of phytoliths present in a total of 20 fields at  $\times$  200 (Katz et al. 2010) and we identified a minimum of 200 individual phytoliths at  $\times$  400 (Albert and Weiner 2001). Phytolith concentrations are provided in grams of acid insoluble fraction (AIF) to avoid the effects of sediment diagenesis (Schiegl et al. 1996). Phytolith morphological identification followed the standard literature (Twiss et al. 1969; Piperno 1988, 2006; Rapp and Mulholland 1992; Twiss 1992; Portillo et al. 2014) and modern plant reference collections (Albert et al. 2000, 2016; Albert

and Weiner 2001; Tsartsidou et al. 2007). We followed the terminology of the International Code for Phytolith Nomenclature (ICPN 2.0) (Neumann et al. 2019).

**Spherulites:** Dung spherulites extraction, identification, and quantification follow the method developed by Gur-Arieh et al. (2013). Between 30 and 40 mg of sediment was sieved through a 150- $\mu$ m sieve mesh and placed in a 0.5-ml conical centrifuge tube. Then, 500  $\mu$ l of 2.4 g/ml sodium polytungstate was added and the sample was homogenized and sonicated for 10 min before placing an aliquot of 50  $\mu$ l on a microscope slide. The counting process was performed selecting 15 random fields at  $\times$  400 using crossed-polarized light (XPL) for a better identification of dung spherulites (Canti 1999).

**FTIR (bulk samples):** The mineral composition of the samples was identified using a Fourier Jasco FT/IR-600 PLUS spectrometer. Infrared spectra were obtained using the conventional KBr pellets methods collected between 4000 and 400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  wavelength range at 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  resolution (Weiner et al. 1993). The spectra were interpreted using the position of the main peaks and the standards from the Kimmel Center of Archaeological Sciences (Weiner 2010). Thermally altered clay was identified on the basis of specific absorption picks in the clay spectrum (Berna et al. 2007). The origin of calcite Presence of anthropogenic or geogenic calcite was determined following Poduska et al. (2011) and Regev et al. (2010). The temperature determined for the bulk sediments has been obtained by crossing the data of the analysis of the altered clay with the presence/absence of high disordered calcite (HDC) in the spectra's.

**Bone diagenesis:** Bone surface were analyzed with Stereomicroscope Euromex between 20x and 60x under a strong light (60 W). After, the



preparation of bone samples for ATR-FTIR measurements was done by removing external surface areas with a micro-drill and a rotatory tool equipped with an abrasive diamond disc. Finally, each sample was hand-ground in an agate mortar in order to homogenize its size. We have attended to several diagenetic parameters that allow us screening the preservation stage.

The crystallinity of bone samples were measured through Splitting factor of the phosphate band at  $567\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $605\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (IRSF). Usually around 2.8-3.3 for modern bone and above 4.0 for extremely degraded bone (Weiner and Bar-Yosef 1990; Smith et al. 2007). Half-maximum of the  $\nu_3\text{PO}_4$  at  $1035\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (FWHM) was used in order to preview the bioapatite crystal size, decreasing from  $\sim 115$  in modern bones to around 60 in degraded bone (Ellingham et al. 2016; Kimura-Suda and Ito 2017).

Regarding carbonates we have used Carbonates to phosphate ratio ( $\text{CO}_3/\text{PO}_4$ ) and calcite to phosphate ratio ( $\text{Cal}/\text{PO}_4$ ) in order to understand secondary calcite precipitated.  $\text{CO}_3/\text{PO}_4$  is calculated by dividing bands at  $1415\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1015\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . This ratio is related to the carbonate content of carbonate bioapatite. It is estimated around 0.31 in modern bone decreasing to  $\sim 0.15$  in heavily degraded mineral. Additional carbonate from soils could increase the ratio above modern values (Wright and Schwarcz 1996).  $\text{Cal}/\text{PO}_4$  used to show the amount of secondary calcite precipitated during diagenesis ( $\text{Cal}/\text{PO}_4$ ). It is calculated by dividing the band intensity at  $712\text{ cm}^{-1}$   $\nu_4(\text{CO}_3)$  characteristic for calcite by the band intensity at  $1015\text{ cm}^{-1}$  of phosphate. Similarly, the  $\text{CO}_3/\text{PO}_4$  correction ( $\text{CO}_3/\text{PO}_4\text{-corr}$ ) has been applied in cases where we have detected secondary calcite (Dal Sasso et al. 2016)

Taking into account the organic phase from archaeological bone remains we have attended to collagen content through ATR-FTIR. Amide I/PO<sub>4</sub> calculated by dividing the peak intensity of the Amide I band at 1660 cm<sup>-1</sup> by the peak intensity of the phosphate band at 1035 cm<sup>-1</sup>. This parameter was determined in order to check the collagen degradation, following proposal in Lebon et al. (2016).

Finally attending to the need to understand the use of fire in a fumier context we have used FTIR parameters and bone coloration (Shipman et al. 1984; Nicholson 1993; Stiner et al. 1995; Surovell and Stiner 2001; Cáceres 2002; Lebon et al. 2010; Pérez et al. 2017) related to heating and burning. For this issue, we have used the indexes presented in Thompson et al. (2013) and Ellingham et al. (2016): IRSF; CO<sub>3</sub>/PO<sub>4</sub>; PHT; amide I/PO<sub>4</sub>; amide I/CO<sub>3</sub>; 900/1035 cm<sup>-1</sup>; FWHM; CO<sub>3</sub>/CO<sub>3</sub>.

The baseline used to calculate band and area intensities was defined by two points for each parameter. The phosphate  $\nu_3$ PO<sub>4</sub> band was measured between values from 1160 to 890 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The Amide I band area was measured between values from 1710 to 1590 cm<sup>-1</sup>. For  $\nu_3$ CO<sub>3</sub> band at 1415 cm<sup>-1</sup> a baseline between values from 1590 to 1290 cm<sup>-1</sup> was applied and for  $\nu_4$ CO<sub>3</sub> between values from 730 and 700 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Finally,  $\nu_4$ PO<sub>4</sub> was measured between 495 and 750 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

FTIR bone analysis was performed in ATR mode (Beasley et al. 2014). Spectra were collected on a Vertex 70 spectrometer (Bruker) from MNHN (Paris) with a resolution of 2 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 64 scans in the range 4000-370 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Around 1 mg of sample powder was pressed on the surface of a diamond crystal. In order to determine homogeneity to statistically compare, anvil pressure on the ATR

crystal was adjusted from 0.5 N.m<sup>-2</sup> to obtain a raw absorbance of 0.5 for the  $\nu_3\text{PO}_4$  band around 1015 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Lebon et al. 2016). Spectra analysis was performed using Omnic 9.8 software (Thermo Scientific).

**Paleoparasitologist:** Samples for Paleoparasitological testing were taken during the 2019 field campaign, in total, collecting 20 samples in various sizes from 45 gr to 210 gr. Following our proposed sampling strategy, samples were collected from the fumiers layers formations avoiding the areas that might have been mostly affected by the intense heat and pinpointing the potentially unburned formation parts. In total, we received 2271 gr of sediment, represented as 20 samples.

For samples processing, we used the same methodology for each sample independently and tested the samples together with the Paleoparasitologists team in Besancon, France. The used protocol consists of three major steps such as rehydration, homogenization and micro-sieving (RHM). The RHM protocol does not involve flotation techniques and micro-sieving is used instead. This adjustment allows recovering all types of parasite eggs with no selection. The RHM protocol may be time-consuming but allows the detection of higher parasite diversity in comparison to other protocols where some parasites species eggs damaging acids and sodium hydroxide are being used (Dufour and Le Bailly 2013).

To perform samples preparation, we used 5 gr of the original sample and followed RHM extraction protocol. First, 5 gr of the sample (sediment) were weighted and isolated from the original and remaining sample content. Second, the isolated 5 gr of the sediment were rehydrated for 7 days in a solution composed of 50ml 0,5% trisodium phosphate, 50ml 5% glycerinated solution

and several drops of 10% formalin solution. After 7 days of rehydration, we performed homogenization where we crushed the sample in a mortar and submitted it to ultra-sounds (50–60 Hz) for 1 min. Then the crushed and treated sample was strained through 315  $\mu\text{m}$ , 160  $\mu\text{m}$ , 50  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 25  $\mu\text{m}$  meshes under a constant flux of ultrapure water. Finally, the two screenings (50  $\mu\text{m}$  and 25  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were transferred into 4 ml polyvinyl chloride (PVC) tubes, named after fraction 50 and fraction 25.

For the microscopic analysis, we used a light microscope (Leica DM-2000 LED) coupled with a digital camera (Leica ICC50-HD) and analysed either 4 or 6 slides per fraction from fraction 50  $\mu\text{m}$  and 25  $\mu\text{m}$  independently.

**Rock magnetic:** Hereunder, the Rock magnetic laboratory procedures are briefly summarized. All the analyses were carried out at the Paleomagnetic Laboratory of the University of Burgos.

#### **a. Thermomagnetic curves (magnetization vs. temperature)**

Thermomagnetic curves consist of the measurement of the induced magnetization under the application of a constant field (in this case,  $\sim 38$  mT) while temperature is increased/decreased, respectively. This experiment allow to infer the main ferromagnetic minerals present in the samples (through the determination of the Curie temperature/s), as well as to assess the temperatures reached by means of the reversibility degree (coincidence of the heating/cooling curves) (i.e. Hrouda et al. 2003; Carrancho et al. 2016). Mineralogical transformations during the experiment (resulting in irreversible thermomagnetic curves) suggest that the sample had reached temperatures lower than the maximum one applied.

Thermomagnetic curves up to 700 °C (on air) were carried out on bulk (unoriented) samples from representative facies. The experiments were performed with a Magnetic Measurements' Variable Field Translation Balance.

### **b. Anisotropy of Magnetic Susceptibility (AMS)**

Anisotropy of Magnetic Susceptibility (AMS) is used to know the magnetic fabric of the materials. This parameter is useful to assess possible mechanical alterations (i.e.: water flows) through the orientations of the axes of the magnetic ellipsoid obtained from the tensor of magnetic susceptibility.

56 oriented specimens (volumen of each specimen: ~3.6 cm<sup>3</sup>) of ash and carbonaceous facies were used to analyse the AMS. It was measured with a Kappabridge KLY-4S (AGICO), using the automated rotator system.

### **c. Hysteresis loops**

This experiment illustrates the variation of the induced magnetization according to the applied field and is useful to assess the domain state, the granulometry and the contribution of ferro-, dia- and paramagnetic minerals. Hysteresis loops up to ±1 T were performed with a Magnetic Measurements' Variable Field Translation Balance.

### **Palynology:**

The palynological samples analysed were collected from the different facies that are described for MIR4 level simultaneously to the archaeological work. We study three samples from four sedimentary facies (a, b, g and m).

The samples are treated with HCl, NaOH, HF, and flotation with Thoulet's solution (Goeury and de Beaulieu 1979; Burjachs et al. 2003). Fossil pollen,

spores and NPP were identified using published keys (Van Geel 1978; Jarzen and Elsik 1986; van Geel 1986; Moore et al. 1991; Reille 1992, 1995; Miola 2012) and a modern pollen reference collection. The samples were analysed with an Olympus Cx41 microscope at 600 magnifications.

AP/ NAP percentages have been calculated excluding Asteraceae and Cerealia-type from the basic sum since they have a specific pollination system and/or are favoured by anthropic activity. The minimum statistically meaningful values of NPPs were established until maximum pollen counts had been reached (minimum of 100-150 pollens counted). We have excluded from the NPPs basic sum the types with an indeterminate ecological origin (Pseudoschizaea, type 303 and protists). For the Palynological Concentration (PC) we have used the volumetric method proposed for Loublier (1978).

We have categorized the post-depositional damage observed in pollen grains into three types: thermoalteration, fragmentation and compaction and we have calculated the percentages of the alterations with respect to the total pollen identified.

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CHAPTER 6: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

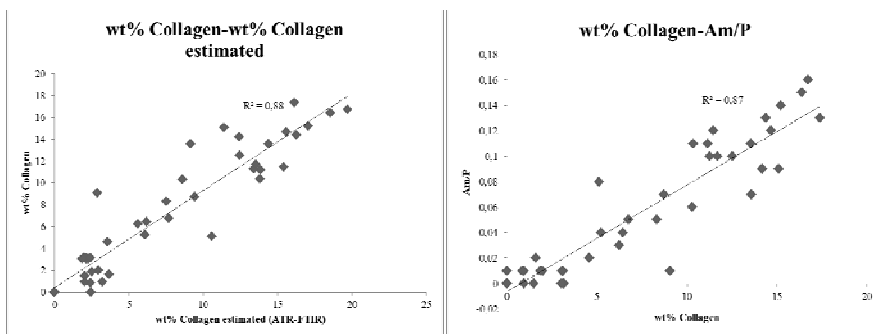
The fumer sequences of El Mirador: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent.

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Supplementary material 3 (SM 3): Main diagenetic parameters through ATR-FTR and thermal alterations

Legend: Bones organic parameters (Am/P; AmIII/P; Am/C; Am/C<sub>2</sub>; N wt%; Collagen wt%); Bones inorganic parameters (Cl or IRSF; C/P; B/P; APi; C/C; CO<sub>2</sub>/P; FWHM; PHT); Secondary calcite in bone structure (Cal/P). Correlation of the amount of collagen obtained by the extraction protocol and by ATR-FTR through the Am/P index. The data set is found in (Del Valle et al., JAS)

	Facies a MIR 105 Middle Bronze Age		Facies v MIR 205 5748-5610 cal yr B.P.		Facies v MIR 108 6447-6310 cal yr B.P.		Facies tf MIR 107 6491-6390 cal yr B.P.		Facies r(m)MIR 107 6491-6390 cal yr B.P.	
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
Am/P	0.076	0.050	0.075	0.047	0.081	0.046	0.005	0.002	0.000	0.000
Cl	3.593	0.547	3.438	0.082	3.464	0.098	4.061	0.294	5.394	0.388
C/P	0.297	0.079	0.322	0.056	0.305	0.035	0.191	0.023	0.127	0.022
B/P	0.635	0.205	0.686	0.156	0.644	0.136	0.375	0.070	0.206	0.035
APi	0.138	0.055	0.278	0.101	0.309	0.145	0.080	0.018	0.032	0.006
C/C	0.850	0.097	0.786	0.032	0.792	0.025	0.788	0.078	0.914	0.052
Cal/P	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.011	0.006
CO <sub>2</sub> /P	0.139	0.062	0.153	0.030	0.143	0.021	0.123	0.014	0.116	0.033
Am/C <sub>1</sub>	0.366	0.203	0.445	0.214	0.404	0.189	0.101	0.063	0.000	0.000
PHT	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.047	0.081	0.353	0.034
AmIII/P	0.016	0.009	0.012	0.009	0.014	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Am/C <sub>2</sub>	0.821	0.516	0.970	0.485	0.913	0.468	0.155	0.101	0.000	0.000
FWHM	81.142	8.560	86.333	7.949	82.360	5.777	70.474	3.790	67.138	5.019



Sample	facies	Burnt Stage
MIR105/T12/153	a	2
MIR105/T12/78	a	1
MIR105/T13/103	a	2-3
MIR105/T12/147	a	Boiled
MIR105/T13/122	a	1
MIR105/T12/129	a	2
MIR105/T12/174	a	1
MIR105/T12/176	a	5
MIR105/T12/171	a	2
MIR105/T12/76	a	2-3
MIR205/Q38/53	v 200	Boiled
MIR205/Q37/26	v 200	2-3
MIR205/P36/18	v 200	Boiled
MIR205/P36/20	v 200	Boiled
MIR205/O38/28	v 200	2
MIR205/O38/36	v 200	Boiled
MIR205/P38/25	v 200	3
MIR205/Q37/35	v 200	2
MIR205/O37/6	v 200	Boiled
MIR205/O37/9	v 200	Boiled
MIR108/V13/49	v 100	Boiled
MIR108/V12/12	v 100	2-3
MIR108/V12/17	v 100	1
MIR108/V12/5	v 100	Not Burned
MIR108/V12/21	v 100	2-3
MIR108/V12/19	v 100	Boiled
MIR108/V12/15	v 100	Not Burned
MIR108/W13/93	v 100	2
MIR108/V12/60	v 100	Boiled
MIR108/V12/23	v 100	2
MIR107/V13/214	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/198	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/200	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/196	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/211	tf	4
MIR107/V13/217	tf	2
MIR107/V13/203	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/194	tf	2-3
MIR107/V13/227	tf	2
MIR107/V13/225	tf	4
MIR107/V13/115	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/104	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/92	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/113	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/97	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/93	r(m)	5
MIR107/V13/103	r(m)	5

**CHAPTER 6: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

**The fumier sequences of El Mirador: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent.**

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**Supplementary material 4 (SM 4): FTIR results from bulk samples**

**Legend:** Ca=Calcite; Cl=Clay; Qz=Quartz; Dah=Dahlite (carbonated hydroxylapatite); b=thermally altered clay; nb= not thermally altered clay; HDC=High disorder calcite.

Level	Square	Num.	facie	Episode	Main Mineral	Clay	Temperature range from clay	Calcite origin	HDC
MIR105	S15	108	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR105	S15	107	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	800-700	Ash	
MIR105	S15	106	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR105	S15	105	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	HDC?
MIR105	S15	104	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	HDC
MIR105	S15	103	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR105	S15	102	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR105	S15	101	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	> 600 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR105	S15	100	a	-	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	> 600 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR105	T12	79	a		Cl=Op, Ca,Dah	b	>400 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T12	130	a		Cl, Ca, Dah	b?	unburnt	Ash	
MIR105	T12	148	a		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR105	T12	154	a		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b	<500 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T12	172	a		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T12	177	a		Cl=Ca, Op?, Dah	b	>500 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T13	104	a		Op, Cl, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR105	T13	121	a		Op, Cl, Ca, Dah	b	>500 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T12	77	a		Cl=Op, Ca, Dah	b	>500 °C	Ash	
MIR105	T12	175	a		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b	<500 °C	Ash	
MIR105	V12	5	a		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR104	T15	188	b	1	Ca, Cl, Qz, Dah	b	800-700	Ash	HDC
MIR104	T15	187	b	1	Ca=Cl, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR104	T15	185	b	2	Cl=Ca, Qz, Dah	b	400	Ash	HDC
MIR104	S15	104	b	2	Ca, Cl, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	HDC
MIR104	T15	186	c	1	Ca=Cl, Qz, Dah	b	400-300	Ash	HDC
MIR104	S15	103	c	2	Cl, Ca, Qz, Dah	b	500-400	Ash	
MIR107	V13	98	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op?, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	99	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op?, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	114	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op?, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR107	V13	116	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op?, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR107	V13	105	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op?, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	
MIR107	v13	209	r(m)		Ca, Cl, Op, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR107	V13	195	tf		Cl,Op?, Ca, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	197	tf		Ca=Cl, Op, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	201	tf		Ca,Cl,Op?,Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	202	tf		Cl, Ca, Op?, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	204	tf		Ca, Cl, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	212	tf		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	215	tf		Cl, Ca, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	218	tf		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b	<600 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	226	tf		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b	700-800 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR107	V13	228	tf		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	b	>700 °C	Ash	
MIR107	V13	208	tf		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	b	700 °C	Ash	HDC
MIR108	V12	18	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR108	V12	20	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V12	6	v		Op, Cl, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V12	13	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR108	V12	16	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR108	V12	22	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V12	24	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V12	61	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V13	50	v		Cl, Ca, Dah, Qz	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V13	94	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR108	V13	64	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	
MIR205	O37	7	v		Cl=Op, Ca, Dah	b?	<400 °C	Ash	
MIR205	O37	10	v		Cl, Op, Ca, Dah	b?	<400 °C	Ash	
MIR205	O38	37	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	geogenic calcite	HDC
MIR205	P36	19	v		Cl=Op, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR205	P36	21	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR205	P38	26	v		Cl, Op?, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR205	Q37	27	v		Op=Cl, Ca, Dah	nb	unburnt	Ash	
MIR205	Q37	36	v		Op, Cl, Ca, Dah	b	400-500 °C	Ash	
MIR205	Q38	29	v		Op=Cl, Dah, Qz	nb	unburnt	-	
MIR205	Q38	54	v		Op, Cl, Dah, Qz	nb	unburnt	-	
MIR205	O37	14	v		Ca, Cl, Op, Dah	b	<500 °C	Ash	

**CHAPTER 6: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL****The fumier sequences of El Mirador: an approach to fire as a sociocultural practice and taphonomic agent.**

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**Supplementary material 5 (SM 5): Phytoliths and Dung Spherulites results**

Sample	Square	Level	facie	hered	morp	lited	morph	out	anatomic	ass	infloresc	%Grass	leaf:	otyledonous	Wood and B:	Phyt x g/AIF	Spherulites x g/sediment
188	T15	MIR104	b	23.55	18.15	19.31	3.47	28.96	0.00	6.56	70,558,332	53,708,453					
187	T15	MIR104	b	3.29	0.41	56.38	4.94	29.63	0.00	5.35	227,166,093	727,969,024					
186	T15	MIR104	c	3.03	0.00	37.66	7.79	36.36	0.00	15.15	146,747,702	215,393,276					
185	T15	MIR104	b	2.25	0.00	53.18	8.24	29.21	0.00	7.12	718,872,638	1,620,213,819					
104	S15	MIR104	b	6.69	0.79	49.21	4.72	33.46	0.00	4.72	134,961,503	1,425,388,519					
103	S15	MIR104	c	1.61	0.00	50.40	5.65	34.68	0.00	7.66	397,293,418	290,218,484					
108	S15	MIR105	a	12.93	0.76	50.19	7.98	21.67	0.00	6.08	731,398,732	737,819,877					
107	S15	MIR105	a	7.09	0.79	54.33	6.69	27.56	0.00	3.54	998,183,201	468,678,834					
106	S15	MIR105	a	7.09	0.37	55.22	7.09	25.75	0.00	4.48	213,079,790	587,255,458					
105	S15	MIR105	a	6.40	0.00	52.40	10.00	26.00	0.00	5.20	212,073,329	496,113,693					
104	S15	MIR105	a	1.16	0.39	51.16	11.63	31.01	0.00	4.65	190,226,055	510,406,979					
103	S15	MIR105	a	9.34	0.39	51.36	7.39	26.85	0.00	4.67	197,555,407	455,342,445					
102	S15	MIR105	a	4.28	1.17	43.19	9.34	33.07	0.00	8.95	121,390,393	754,104,156					
101	S15	MIR105	a	6.41	2.14	50.89	4.98	29.89	0.00	5.69	977,534,533	1,136,459,196					
100	S15	MIR105	a	3.93	0.36	52.14	7.86	29.64	0.36	5.36	1,782,567,907	670,958,956					