

Fire in the round: a holistic approach to the Lower Palaeolithic record

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6 **Fire in the Round: A holistic approach to the Lower Palaeolithic record**

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13 **Abstract**

14
15 Whilst several explanations have been proposed for the absence of fire-related behaviours at well
16 preserved Lower Palaeolithic sites, much of the emphasis of previous research has concentrated on
17 our ability to find fire in the archaeological record. Furthermore, evolutionary models of early
18 hominin fire engagement have often been developed and discussed in the context of early African
19 hominins. Here we explore the role of fire in the behaviours, choices and lives of hominins during
20 the earliest occupations of temperate regions, with a focus on Europe. We consider fire use in the
21 context of Europe's specific palaeoenvironmental conditions and discuss whether a long or short fire
22 chronology model best fits the current evidence for the use of controlled fire in these regions during
23 the Lower Palaeolithic.

24 We propose two models for hominin fire behaviours in the temperate latitudes, using a heuristic
25 'macroscale to microscale' approach to understanding the needs for — and the use of — fire during
26 this period. We argue that such holistic approaches must combine experimental work, experiential
27 observations and cost-benefit approaches and should consider site context and function, fire
28 function, social behaviour, and mobility, to evaluate the limited evidence for fire use in the Lower
29 Palaeolithic. We highlight that, varying with seasonality, fire function (and the associated costs and
30 benefits) was of particular importance and may explain the overall paucity of evidence for fire use in
31 temperate regions prior to the Middle Palaeolithic. This has implications for other potential survival

32 strategies that are invisible in the early archaeological record, such as shelter, clothing, and the
33 putrefaction of meat for later consumption.

34 Key words

35

36 Controlled use of fire, Lower Palaeolithic, hearths, Europe, hominin use of fire

37

38 Highlights

39

- 40 • Review of European Lower Palaeolithic fire evidence
- 41 • Posits two heuristic models of fire needs and likely settings
- 42 • Key issues for understanding the Lower Palaeolithic fire record are highlighted
- 43 • Recommends a 'holistic' approach to understanding the needs for and use of fire

44

45 1. Introduction

46 Understanding the use of fire before the later Middle Pleistocene (c. 478–130 thousand years ago
47 [ka]) in the temperate latitudes (broadly defined as between 30–60° N and S of the equator) is
48 fundamental to our understanding of hominin behavioural adaptations prior to the Middle
49 Palaeolithic. Evidence of hominin occupation in northern Europe before c. 780 ka (e.g., in the Loire
50 River basin, central France; Despriée et al., 2011; Moncel et al., 2013) is suggested to represent
51 relatively brief forays into this region as opposed to sustained occupations (Dennell and Roebroeks,
52 1996; Hosfield and Cole, 2018; Roebroeks and Kolfschoten, 1994). The increasing size and number of
53 lithic artefact assemblages post-500 ka suggest the development of new technologies and
54 environmental adaptations associated with more substantial and/or sustained occupations (Lewis et
55 al., 2019). One of these emerging new technologies is suggested to be the controlled use of fire
56 (Davis and Ashton, 2019), with the earliest accepted European evidence for this in the form of
57 hearths from sites at Vértesszőlős (Hungary), dated to MIS 13, and Beeches Pit (UK), Menez-Dregan

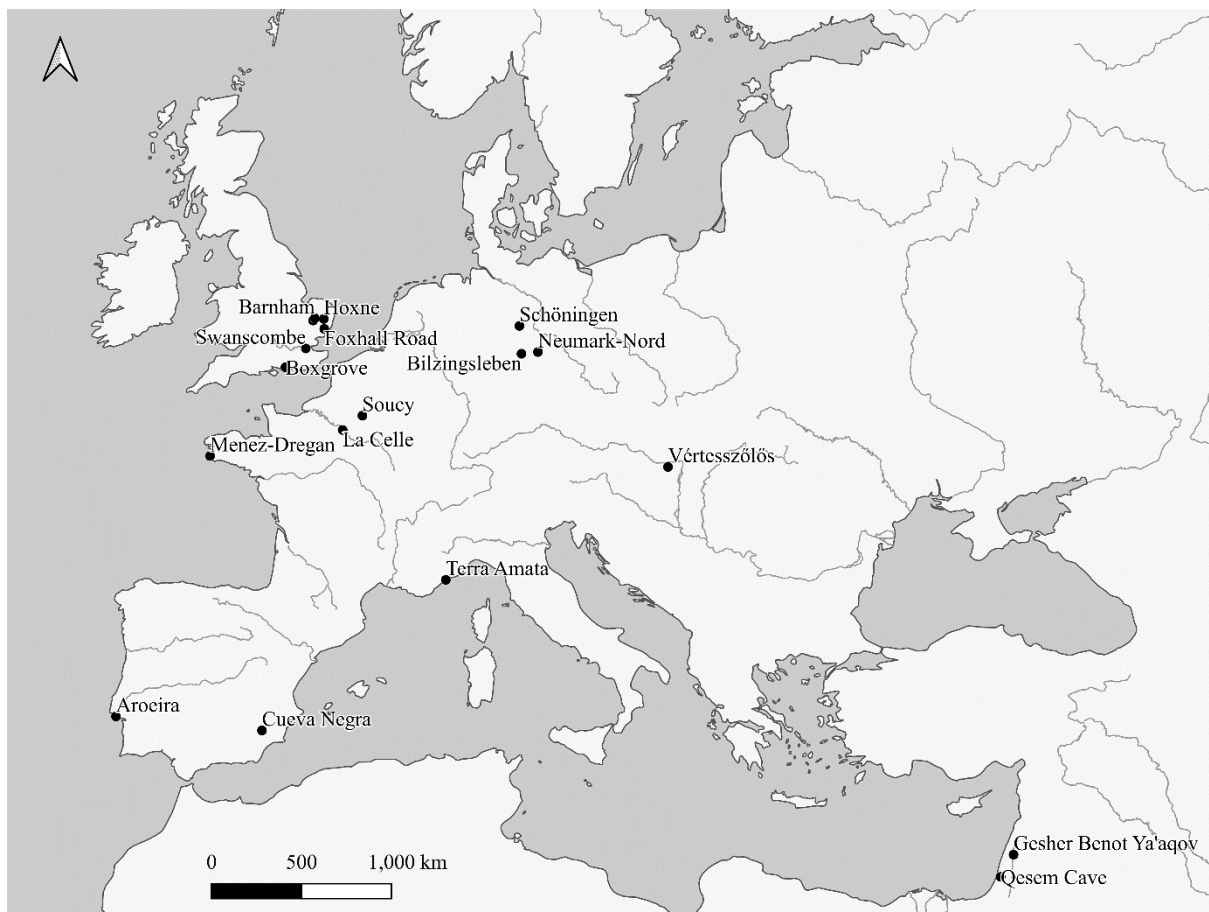
58 and Terra Amata (France; Figure 1), dated to MIS 11 in the Middle Pleistocene (see Kretzoi and
59 Dobosi, 1990; de Lumley, 2006; Moigne et al., 2015; Preece et al., 2006; Ravon et al., 2016).

60 Discussions of fire are complicated by terminology. Sandgathe (2017) has highlighted problems with
61 the term 'control': namely that it overlooks the process of development of pyrotechnology, as it
62 does not imply fire-making abilities (Sandgathe, 2017: S361). Here, we define 'control of fire' to
63 mean an intentional act of manipulating fire, whether kindled at will or not. In contrast 'routine' (or
64 'habitual') fire use is defined here as when its use became a regular occurrence in the hominin
65 technological repertoire. Extant fire studies have also varied markedly in scale. Villa and Roebroeks
66 (2011) take a continental perspective to understanding the development of controlled fire use,
67 whilst other research has focused on understanding the use of fire from a site-specific perspective
68 (e.g., Tabun Cave, Israel; Shimelmitz et al., 2014; Roc de Marsal and Pech de l'Aze, France; Goldberg
69 et al., 2012; Aldeias et al., 2012).

70 A variety of models have discussed the circumstances of the earliest hominin engagement with fire
71 and its 'discovery' (e.g., Chazan, 2017; Gowlett, 2010, 2016 ; Parker et al., 2016; Wrangham, 2009).
72 Yet models of fire discovery have often been developed and discussed in the context of early African
73 hominins; there are few that consider the specific conditions of temperate latitudes, especially if an
74 earlier (pre-500 ka BP) age for controlled fire use is favoured. A key ongoing debate is therefore
75 whether a long fire chronology (beginning with early *Homo*, potentially *H. erectus*, e.g., Gowlett,
76 2016; Wrangham and Carmody, 2010) or shorter fire chronology model (arguing that habitual
77 controlled fire use did not begin until the late Pleistocene, e.g. Sandgathe et al., 2011b) best fits the
78 evidence for the use of controlled fire in temperate regions. Robustly evaluating these competing
79 chronological hypotheses is critical for understanding the scale and scope of fire use in the earliest
80 occupations of Europe.

81 We review the Lower Palaeolithic archaeological record of the temperate regions and models for the
82 use of fire, illustrated with examples from central and western Europe. Using known archaeological

83 and ethnographic examples as a basis for definition, we define a hearth as a *localised, spatially*
84 *discrete* and *maintained* fire. With specific regard to size, both ethnographic and archaeological
85 examples (e.g. de Lumley, 2006; Gowlett et al., 2000; Mallol et al., 2007) suggest hearth sizes from
86 around 30 cm to c. 1 m in diameter. We aim to examine why the fire record for the European Lower
87 Palaeolithic is so scarce and build a heuristic model of fire needs, likely settings, and potential fire
88 'signatures', contrasted against existing models of Middle Palaeolithic fire use by Neanderthals. We
89 conclude by offering predictions of what this fire evidence may look like, and where and how we can
90 develop our understanding in future. This review therefore posits new models for the use of fire in
91 the European Lower Palaeolithic and aims to highlight the key issues and challenges in our
92 understanding of the Lower Palaeolithic fire record in temperate environments.



93
94 *Figure 1: Map of Lower and Middle Palaeolithic sites mentioned in the text. Made with Natural Earth.*
95 *Free vector and raster map data @ naturalearthdata.com*

96

97 2. Fire use

98

99 2.1 A long or short chronology?

100

101 Roebroeks and Villa (2011) present a convincing argument that the routine use of fire became a part
102 of hominin life from around MIS 9 (c. 330 ka), with a steady increase in both the frequency of fire
103 evidence and the diversity of fire use from MIS 5 (c. 130 ka) onwards. It is suggested that routine fire
104 use was not an essential pre-adaptation to the occupation of northwest Europe (Aldeias, 2017;
105 Aldeias et al., 2012; Dibble et al., 2018; Sandgathe, 2017), although others have proposed that the
106 sustained occupation of the high latitudes led to the routine use of fire as a cultural development
107 (e.g., Attwell et al., 2015). The former view is broadly supported by Sandgathe et al.'s suggestion of
108 a late date for *habitual* use of fire, perhaps even as late as MIS 3 (c. 60 ka) (Sandgathe et al., 2011b).
109 The ability of Neanderthals to produce fire is also under debate with the evidence for fire use by
110 Neanderthals variable across time and space (see Dibble et al., 2018; Sandgathe et al., 2011a, 2011b;
111 Sorensen, 2017; Sorensen et al., 2018). These ongoing debates highlight the difficulties and
112 complexities in understanding fire use, even in later contexts.

113 There is further opposition to the short chronology model for habitual fire use suggested by
114 Sandgathe et al. (2011a; 2011b). The 'Cooking Hypothesis', proposed by Wrangham (2009) and
115 Wrangham and Carmody (2010), advocates a long chronology for fire use by *Homo*, linked with the
116 expansion of brain size and other biological changes (e.g., gut reduction). Optimal foraging models
117 suggest energy gain is maximised through pre-digestion processing of food (e.g., by cooking,
118 pounding, consumption of rotting or rotten foods, or gastrophagy; see Buck et al., 2016; Speth,
119 2017). Wrangham and Carmody (2010) argue that the small mandible, smaller post-canine tooth
120 areas, reduced masticatory strain in the form of facial shortening, and the 'barrel-shaped' thoracic
121 cage of *H. erectus* are evidence of an early cooked diet, with the use of fire in cooking developing
122 from fire's initial role in providing night-time protection from predators. As Wrangham and Carmody
123 (2010) state, this is a solution to the seemingly paradoxical human life history model as the efficiency

124 of provisioning is increased, and extrinsic mortality is reduced (Wrangham and Carmody 2010: 193).
125 However, archaeological evidence for Wrangham's hypothesis is weak, and other causes of brain
126 expansion in hominins during this time have been suggested (e.g., Cornélio et al., 2016; Shipman,
127 2009; Wrangham, 2017). Gowlett (2010) also argues for a long chronology of fire use, linked with
128 encephalisation and beginning over 1.5 Ma. He argues that its use is deeply tied both to our
129 biological, social, and technological evolution (Gowlett, 2010: 342).

130 2.2 Beyond the site?

131
132 Discussions of controlled fire use, with their emphasis on cooking, toolmaking, and sociality, have
133 sometimes ignored the geography of hominin fire. As Gowlett (2010) explicitly summarises, larger
134 scale fire use, such as landscape burning, taking advantage of foraging in fire-prone environments,
135 (Herzog et al., 2016; Hoare, 2019; Parker et al., 2016; Pruetz and Herzog, 2017), or niche
136 construction (the process of modifying one's local environment; Odling-Smee et al., 2003) has been
137 somewhat neglected within the archaeological community. As Gowlett argues, concentrating on the
138 identification of preserved hearths likely misses a large part of the overall picture of fire use by
139 Pleistocene hominins, since even if heat-altered materials such as flint and bone are not indicators of
140 hearths, they infer the availability of fire in the wider landscape (Gowlett, 2010). Optimal models of
141 foraging by extant species in fire-prone environments, using prey choice models (as highlighted by
142 Hoare, 2019 and Pruetz and Herzog, 2017), indicates a reduction in biomass, which increases
143 encounter rates with profitable resources, search efficiency for high ranked food items and energetic
144 profitability of food items cooked in natural fires. In short, models of potential fire use by the earliest
145 European hominins need to look beyond the hearth and the site and consider the importance of
146 burnt landscapes within those discussions.

147 3. Where are the Lower Palaeolithic hearths?

148 The lack of evidence for the controlled use of fire in the form of hearths before the later Middle
149 Pleistocene in the temperate latitudes, and the general paucity of the Lower Palaeolithic fire record,

150 is fundamental to our understanding of hominin behavioural adaptations prior to the Middle
151 Palaeolithic. It has implications for the likelihood, and relative importance, of other survival
152 strategies that are largely invisible in the early archaeological record. These external 'cultural
153 insulation features' (*sensu* Hosfield, 2016) such as shelter and clothing (Gilligan, 2010; Hosfield,
154 2016; MacDonald, 2018) would likely have been required for hominin occupation in these higher
155 latitudes *in the absence of significant body hair* (see MacDonald, 2018; Hosfield, 2020). This would
156 have been the case even during peak interglacials, as pronounced seasonality requires insulation
157 from cool winter temperatures, regardless of the robust bodies indicated by the hominin fossil
158 record (e.g., Trinkaus et al., 1999) and other potential physiological adaptations (e.g., Stegmann et
159 al., 2002). An absence of fire for cooking raises further questions with regards to the nutritional and
160 processing challenges posed by raw foods, although the putrefaction of meat for later consumption
161 may have been an alternative dietary behaviour in the northern latitudes (Speth, 2017).

162 There are two potential answers to the question of why there is such a limited record of controlled
163 fire use evidence in Lower Palaeolithic Europe: the first is that hominins did not control fire during
164 the Middle Pleistocene; the second is that preservation and sampling biases hinder the identification
165 of fire behaviours (e.g. because these fires are small in scale, highly ephemeral, and/or because we
166 are looking at locations in the landscape in which fire use is unlikely to have taken place; Table 1
167 illustrates the nature of the currently known Lower Palaeolithic evidence from northern Europe).
168 Here we evaluate these two hypotheses by developing a holistic model of what pristine Lower
169 Palaeolithic fire records *might* look like (whilst acknowledging that there is likely to be more than
170 one *type* of record), and by generating predictions of the traces that we should be seeking, and
171 where these might be located.

172 *Table 1: Key sites with direct and indirect evidence for fire or fire use in northern Europe during the*
173 *Middle Pleistocene. Data from Roebroeks and Villa (2011; Supplementary data). Note the paucity of*
174 *sites and the predominance of sheltered locations (e.g., springs, rock shelters). There are also small*
175 *numbers of other possible 'fire sites' in adjacent areas of Europe: e.g., Vértesszőlős (Hungary: Kretzoi*
176 *and Dobosi, 1990), Terra Amata (southern France: de Lumley, 2006), Aroeira (Portugal: Sanz et al.,*
177 *2020), and Cueva Negra (Spain: Rhodes et al., 2016; Walker et al., 2013).*

Site and location	Age	Nature of evidence	Landscape setting	Original source(s)
Beeches Pit (UK)	MIS 11	Direct and indirect (heated lithics, burned bone and sediment)	Spring	(Gowlett, 2006; Preece et al., 2006)
Bilzingsleben (Germany)	MIS 11-9	Direct and indirect (charcoal, reddened/cracked pebbles, and tufa)	Spring	(Mania and Mania, 2005)
Barnham (UK)	MIS 11	Indirect (dispersed charcoal, heated lithics)	Alluvial	(Ashton et al., 1994)
Menez-Dregan (France)	MIS 11-7	Direct and indirect (dispersed charcoal, heated lithics, quartz pebbles, and granite slabs)	Rock shelter	(Mercier et al., 2004; Ravon et al., 2016; Monnier et al., 2016; Ravon et al., 2019)
Foxhall Road (UK)	MIS 11	Indirect (? heated sediment and lithics)	Alluvial and lacustrine	(White and Plunkett, 2004)

178

179 3.1. Option A: Hominins occupying Europe during the Early and Middle Pleistocene did

180 not control fire

181 Option A suggests that the hominin species present in Europe at this time (i.e. *H. heidelbergensis*

182 *sensu lato* and/or early *H. neanderthalensis*) could not control fire, or that, despite the

183 contemporary presence of fire traces in other parts of the Lower Palaeolithic/Early Stone Age world

184 such as the Middle East (e.g. Gesher Benot Ya'aqov, Israel; Alperson-Afil, 2008; Goren-Inbar et al.,

185 2004) and East Africa (e.g. Koobi Fora, Kenya; Hlubik et al., 2019), controlled fire use was not a

186 necessary behavioural adaptation for Lower Palaeolithic hominins in this region. The latter seems

187 unlikely given the position of Europe at the high latitude 'edge' of the Lower Palaeolithic world. The

188 environmental context of hominin occupation in temperate regions, e.g., Europe, is significant for

189 our understanding of fire use, particularly in relation to fire function. Table 2 summarises

190 palaeoclimatic and palaeoenvironmental conditions for a selection of Lower Palaeolithic sites in

191 north-central and north-western Europe, based on Ashton and Lewis (2012). This regionally specific

192 list is not intended to be comprehensive but rather to convey the variable conditions associated with

193 hominin occupations, and the environmental contexts of the significant changes that occur in

194 occupation patterns and technological behaviours in northern Europe post-MIS 13 (Hosfield and
 195 Cole, 2018).

196 *Table 2: Temperature estimates and environmental contexts for selected northern European Lower*
 197 *Palaeolithic sites highlighting the variety of conditions associated with hominin occupation of the*
 198 *region.*

Site	Age	T _{min} (°C)	T _{max} (°C)	Landscape setting	Local vegetation	Regional vegetation	Evidence	Source
Happisburgh 3 (UK)	MIS 25/21	-3 – 0	16 – 18	Alluvial	Grassland	Coniferous	Coleoptera	Ashton and Lewis (2012); Parfitt et al., (2010)
Pakefield (UK)	MIS 19/17	-6 – 4	17 – 23	Alluvial	Grassland	Deciduous	Coleoptera	Coope (2006)
Boxgrove (Unit 4b and 4c) (UK)	MIS 13	-4 – 4	15 – 20	Spring, lagoon	Grassland/scrub	Mixed	Ostracods (MOTR), herpetofauna (MCR)	Ashton and Lewis (2012); Holman, (2000); Holmes et al., (2010)
Barnham (Unit 5c) (UK)	MIS 11	?	>17	Alluvial	Grassland	Deciduous	Herpetofauna	Holman (1998)
Beeches Pit (Bed 3b) (UK)	MIS 11	-8 – 15	9 – 24	Spring	Forest	Deciduous	Ostracods (MOTR)	Benardout (2015)
Swanscombe (Lower Loam) (UK)	MIS 11	-3 – 4	15 – 19	Alluvial	Grassland	Deciduous	Ostracods (MOTR)	White et al., (2013)
Soucy (France)	MIS 9	Temperate	Temperate	Alluvial	Forest	Deciduous	Molluscs	Limondin-Lozouet (2001)
Bilzingsleben (Germany)	MIS 11	-0.5 – 3	20 – 25	Spring	Grassland	Deciduous	Molluscs, ostracods	Mania and Mania (2005); Mania (1995)
La Celle (France)	MIS 11	Temperate	Temperate	Spring	Forest	? Deciduous	Molluscs	Limondin-Lozouet et al., (2010)

199

200 From a Lower Palaeolithic perspective, it is important to acknowledge the potential need for fire as
 201 cultural insulation in other, non-European, regions and settings, for example in the highlands of East
 202 Africa (e.g., between Nov-Jan at Addis Ababa, at c. 2350 m asl, average minimum temperatures for
 203 the period 1982–2012 were c. 7°C; Climate-Data.org, n.d.). The possibility that the ‘discovery’ and
 204 ‘re-discovery’ of fire-making was a punctuated event that occurred multiple times in different
 205 regions and at different times during the Middle Pleistocene due to independent invention and/or
 206 cultural exchange behaviours could (at least in part) explain the sporadic on-site fire record, both in

207 Europe and elsewhere (Sandgathe, 2017). Moreover, an inability to reliably produce fire does not
208 necessarily mean an inability to exploit it (i.e., obtain benefits), and so other fire signatures, e.g.,
209 hominin activity in association with wildfire traces, might still occur, particularly given the
210 advantages of foraging in fire-prone landscapes (e.g., new plant growth, the opening of the
211 landscape enabling different mobility strategies). The key challenge in evaluating this scenario
212 concerns the identification of wildfire evidence and establishing whether traces of hominin activity
213 are related to it.

214 3.2 Option B: Hominins occupying the Europe during the Early and Middle Pleistocene did 215 control fire, but the record is hindered by poor preservation, identification and/or 216 recovery

217 Option A has of course ignored the problems of preservation. Detection of fire-making and fire-
218 altered materials on open air sites dated to the Lower Palaeolithic is rare (see Table 1) regardless of
219 the range of techniques able to identify heated archaeological materials (e.g., FTIR, magnetic
220 susceptibility and remanence, thermoluminescence, organic petrology, lipid analysis; see Goldberg
221 et al., 2017; Mentzer, 2014 for a full list of analytical approaches). The most common fire proxies
222 (products resulting from burning, *sensu* Aldeias, 2017) from fires are seldom preserved in open air
223 sites since they are readily removed by wind and water (e.g., remains of fuel such as ash and
224 charcoal). These problems are accentuated by the relatively small number of cave and rock shelter
225 sites (e.g., Menez-Dregan, northern France), compared to temperate open-air sites for this period.

226 3.2.1 Preservation of direct fire proxies

227

228 Ash and charcoal are the primary solid products of burning. Their appearance in archaeological
229 contexts is dependent on soil chemistry, weathering, and other biochemical processes. Ash is not
230 always visible in archaeological contexts owing to its easy removal from the soil surface and poor
231 preservation potential (Braadbaart et al., 2012): it is especially vulnerable to dissolution in
232 temperate environments by percolating water, and in acidic soil conditions (Mentzer, 2014). Given

233 this, the absence of Lower Palaeolithic fire evidence in some areas of the Mediterranean, with hot,
234 dry summers, is potentially striking, although ash traces on open-air sites would be vulnerable to
235 percolating water during mild, moist winters. In that regard, the sheltered context of the fire traces
236 at Aroeira, Portugal and Cueva Negra, Spain is noteworthy (see Sanz et al., 2020; Rhodes et al., 2016;
237 Walker et al., 2013). The occurrence of charcoal in archaeological contexts is dependent on fuel type
238 (and condition), and the preservation and combustion conditions (Mentzer, 2014: 630). Although
239 less subject to physical and chemical decompositions in soils compared to ash, charcoal degrades
240 more quickly in alkaline environments due to oxidation processes (Cohen-Ofri et al., 2006), including
241 being buried alongside ash (Huisman et al., 2012). Excavation and analysis introduce further
242 methodological challenges; both ash and charcoal are vulnerable to trowelling, sieving and flotation
243 (Matthews, 2010), and block sampling of sediments is usually required where ash is thought to be
244 present (Braadbaart et al., 2012).

245 *3.2.2 Preservation of indirect fire proxies*

246 Owing to the challenging preservation of charcoal and ash, indirect proxies (fire-altered
247 archaeological materials; Aldeias, 2017: S193) offer alternative means to identify past uses of fire.
248 These include materials that were exposed to fire, such as heated flints, bone, or sediment (Aldeias,
249 2017). Heated flints are found occasionally at archaeological sites (e.g., Barnham, UK; Debenham,
250 1998), but they have also been identified in pre-Quaternary soils in France (Rolland, 2004) making
251 their presence at some archaeological sites ambiguous since materials can be heated during natural
252 landscape burning. This is a critical consideration when dealing with heated materials in contexts
253 contemporary with a known presence of hominins in the local or regional landscape. Spatial analysis
254 of heated flint assemblages has been undertaken at selected sites, e.g., at Gesher Benot Ya'aqov in
255 Israel where it led to interpretations of 'phantom hearths' (Alperson-Afil, 2017, 2012, 2008; Goren-
256 Inbar et al., 2004). The clustering of these artefacts across multiple layers may indicate repeated
257 burning and re-visiting of the landscape by hominin groups, over a timescale of around 100,000
258 years (Goren-Inbar et al., 2000). As Gowlett (2010) highlights, even if these indirect proxies are not

259 conclusive evidence of anthropogenic fire use, they do at the very least indicate the availability of
260 fire in the wider landscape, forming a resource which humans could have taken advantage of
261 (Herzog et al., 2016).

262 *3.2.3 Variations in direct and indirect proxies*

263

264 There are differences in the likelihood of finding traces of past fire-use in both 'off-site' and 'on-site'
265 settings (see McCauley et al., 2020; Scherjon et al., 2015 for surveys of both on-and off-site fire use
266 by modern hunter-gatherers). Experimental work, including ethno-geoarchaeological studies, have
267 enabled a more nuanced understanding of the preservation of fires used for different functions and
268 other variables controlling fire visibility (e.g., Aldeias et al., 2016; Bentsen, 2012; Canti and Linford,
269 2000; Liedgren et al., 2017; Mallol et al., 2007). Broadly speaking, the most visible fire features are
270 those that are either protected from erosion, and/or have experienced burning at high
271 temperatures, or for long durations of time (e.g., continuous burning for weeks or months; see
272 Mallol et al., 2007). Both experimental and ethno-geoarchaeological studies have shown that the
273 factors controlling the rubification (reddening) of sediments beneath hearths are unclear (Canti and
274 Linford, 2000). It has been suggested that the amount and type of fuel has a strong influence on
275 temperatures reached (and therefore the depth of hearth traces) beneath hearths (e.g. Liedgren et
276 al., 2017), whilst in contrast, other experimental work suggests that there is little correlation
277 between fuel load and the depth of hearth traces (Bentsen, 2012). Further research is required to
278 determine the variables responsible for the visibility of past hearths, to fully assess the lack of
279 evidence for small scale fire use in the Palaeolithic record.

280 **4. What is a likely model of fire use?**

281 Considering the above points, we propose two models for early fire use in Europe, dubbed habitual,
282 or 'high fire' and opportunistic, or 'low fire'. Both propose hominin fire use, but within contrasting
283 frameworks in terms of the types, purposes, locations, and frequencies of fire use (Table 3). The
284 models are grounded in the idea that fire use has deep origins (in that sense they are in keeping with

285 both Gowlett and Wrangham) and are also grounded in the current archaeological evidence for the
 286 use of fire in the Lower and Middle Palaeolithic periods. Whilst analysis of modern hunter-gatherers
 287 has shown a huge diversity in both on-and off-site fire use (e.g. McCauley et al., 2020; Scherjon et
 288 al., 2015) and is a potential source of insights, we are wary of using ethnographic comparisons which
 289 may not be sufficient to account for any differences between *Homo* species (see French, 2019). The
 290 ‘high fire’ model has a strong emphasis on habitual use, including for cooking, whilst the ‘low fire’
 291 model is grounded in sporadic, opportunistic use and ‘non-cooking’ applications (i.e., cultural
 292 insulation, extending the day, foraging in fire-prone landscapes). The opportunistic, or ‘low fire’
 293 model therefore follows the earlier stages of the Gowlett model (2010) and is based on a cost-
 294 benefit approach – i.e., an economic framework that compares the advantages of fire use to the
 295 costs associated with its control (e.g., Henry et al., 2018). Both models are intended as testable
 296 propositions that may be supported or refuted by future discoveries and further data.

297 *Table 3: Two potential models for early fire use in Europe. Both models are intended as testable*
 298 *propositions that may be supported or refuted by future discoveries and further data.*

Opportunistic or ‘low fire’ use	Habitual or ‘high fire’ use
Not for technology (e.g., mastics) or (or only rarely) for cooking; potentially for extending the day	Likely for cooking
Related to environmental conditions (i.e., keeping warm and dry)	Re-use of fire features
Not sustained	Sustained
Seasonal, geographically uneven patterns of use	Year-round, geographically even patterns of use

299

300 4.2 A habitual / ‘high fire’ model

301 In a long chronology model of controlled fire use (Section 2.1; e.g., Wrangham 2009), where control
 302 is both habitual and sustained and fire is explicitly linked to cooking, traces of past fire use are likely
 303 to be year-round and geographically even (assuming that Lower Palaeolithic hominins were
 304 residentially mobile through the year), with fire features likely to be re-used at residential sites.

305 There is some evidence for the re-use of hearths in the Lower Palaeolithic, for example at the MIS 11

306 site of Beeches Pit it is suggested that there are several discrete, separate burning events at
307 overlapping locations, based on the intersection of two burnt areas, interpreted as repetitive
308 activities and evidence of repeated occupations (Gowlett et al., 2000; Preece et al., 2006). Longer
309 term re-use of hearth locations, spanning separate occupation horizons, is also suggested at Menez-
310 Dregan (MIS 11-7), Qesem Cave (MIS 11-9) and Gesher Benot Ya'aqov (MIS 19; Alperson-Afil, 2008;
311 Karkanas et al., 2007a; Monnier et al., 2016; Shahack-Gross et al., 2014).

312 There is some claimed evidence for 'home bases' from sites such as Bilzingsleben, interpreted by
313 Mania and Mania (2005) to indicate spatial differentiation, living structures and potential cleaning of
314 the area, but differing interpretations of the patterns and the taphonomic complexities of the site
315 have also been highlighted (Gamble, 1999; Müller and Pasda, 2011). Indeed, as Gamble writes, if the
316 explicit aim is to identify shelters/home bases to outline Palaeolithic social behaviour then our
317 analytical ingenuity means that we are likely to be able to find them (Gamble 1999: 169). Similar
318 sentiments might perhaps be posited with respect to an over-focus on hearths as an on-site, social
319 focus?

320 The fundamental current problem with the high fire model is that we simply do not have much
321 evidence for fire and its use during the Early and Middle Pleistocene. Table 1 shows the landscape
322 settings of the small number of northern European sites in which we do have some evidence. It is
323 telling from these examples that the sites in which we do have evidence for controlled fire use are
324 sheltered locations close to sources of water (e.g., springs and rock shelters). The number of well-
325 preserved sites in which we do not find any evidence (e.g., Boxgrove, Hoxne, Schöningen) argues
326 against our 'high fire' model, as otherwise we should expect to find fire traces in the other types of
327 landscape settings represented at these latter sites.

328 4.2 An 'opportunistic' / low fire model

329 By considering the many ways and places in which fire can be accessed and used, we propose an
330 alternative 'low fire' model which avoids casting early European hominins as truly 'fire free', but also

331 recognises the current realities of the Lower Palaeolithic fire record. In this model, fire use is unlikely
332 to be for technological (e.g., tool manufacturing) purposes since there is no evidence for mastics
333 such as birch bark pitch in the archaeological record in this region at this time, with the earliest
334 European evidence known from the site of Campitello Quarry, Italy, attributed to MIS 5 (the Late
335 Pleistocene; Mazza et al., 2006). Whilst there is evidence for Lower Palaeolithic wooden tools (e.g.,
336 the Clacton spear point; Warren, 1911, Oakley, 1950, Oakley et al., 1977), the earliest evidence for
337 fire use in wooden tool manufacture comes from MIS 6 at Poggetti Vecchi (Italy; Aranguren et al.,
338 2018; but see also Fluck 2007). In this low fire model, the sporadic or 'opportunistic' nature of fire
339 use implies that cooking occurred only rarely, or not at all. This view can be supported because of
340 the potential for other mechanisms of pre-digestion (Speth, 2017), and because of the complex
341 balance of costs/benefits with regards to cooking fires. Henry et al.'s calculations of the energetic
342 costs of fuel gathering in different environments (e.g., forest, grassland), compared to energetic
343 benefits (i.e., calories from cooked foods), suggests that at least some of the variability in the
344 evidence of the use of fire may be due to hominins sometimes choosing not to make fire, i.e., when
345 the costs would outweigh the benefits (Henry et al., 2018). Speth (2017) further highlights the
346 potential importance of putrid meat and fish for Neanderthal diets with reference to modern
347 Northern-forager diets, since in these high protein and fat-rich diets cooking is not required to
348 preserve meat and fish, circumventing the need for fire where fuel is scarce, and/or bypassing the
349 need to make fire at will. Fermentation and putrefaction of these foods could be undertaken by
350 burial in shallow pits or by submerging under water, making it an energetically 'low-cost' method for
351 softening and pre-digesting protein. It also allows for the preservation of these foods for weeks or
352 even months, and produces and preserves essential vitamins (e.g., B-vitamins, vitamin C) that are
353 often lost during cooking, drying or smoking processes (Speth, 2017: 56).

354 In this low fire model, the need for fire is not static and varies both with geography and changing
355 seasonality. In the middle latitudes, including during peak interglacials, seasonality is pronounced,
356 with cool winter temperatures that are often exacerbated by wind chill factors (Hosfield, 2016). In

357 such a context the emphasis would be on fire as cultural insulation, although these benefits would
358 be limited to the fire-side locations (see also Gilligan, 2017). Daylight hours are also reduced in
359 winter, critically limiting the time for foraging during a period when the overall availability and
360 quality of resources was low. Fire use would extend the day and enable all-day foraging, by
361 backloading specific activities (e.g., socialising, eating) into the dark hours. To some extent this
362 agrees with Gowlett's (2010) suggestion that the extension of daylight hours was a driving force for
363 the controlled use of fire by hominins.

364 5. Where did fire use take place? Hominin habitats in the Early and Middle 365 Pleistocene

366
367 One requirement of fully testing the low fire and high fire models is an assessment of where in the
368 landscape fire traces are found. Unfortunately, such comparisons are complicated: Ashton et al.
369 (2006) highlight the bias that impacts on landscape interpretations of hominin activity at interfluvial,
370 cave, and coastal localities in the British Lower Palaeolithic record of MIS 11 (the Hoxnian
371 interglacial). Only detailed analysis of lake and river-edge habitats for Middle Pleistocene hominins
372 in northwest Europe was possible, and this remains an ongoing problem (see also Pope et al., 2016).
373 As currently understood the majority of the Lower Palaeolithic archaeological record from Europe
374 represents fluvial landscape settings (Santonja and Villa, 2006), although at least some of the
375 material evidence may have been derived from interfluvial areas. Fluvial locales provide a diverse
376 landscape of animal, plant and lithic resources but are also important route-ways throughout these
377 wider landscapes, although interfluvial areas may have seen more regular visits from early *Homo* in
378 periods characterised by cooler, more open conditions (Ashton et al., 2006). Since they currently
379 dominate the record an important initial question concerns whether these fluvial locations were
380 landscape settings within which fire use was likely to take place. These were relatively open
381 environments in which hominins were likely to have experienced increased threats, e.g., from
382 predators around water sources. This is not necessarily to say that these are locations in which fire
383 use would not take place *at all* (e.g., as demonstrated by the burning traces at Barnham), but in our

384 opinion any records are more likely to be ‘low fire’ traces of a highly ephemeral nature, and unlikely
385 to be re-used hearths. Notably, the majority of those sites in which we do have some – often
386 repeated – fire evidence (e.g., Menez-Dregan, Beeches Pit, and Bilzingsleben) are all located within
387 either rockshelters (e.g., Menez-Dregan), or travertine/tufa outcrops (e.g., Beeches Pit and
388 Bilzingsleben) indicating spring locations. The latter would have provided sheltered areas within
389 ‘bowl-like’ depressions created by springs, as at Vértesszőlős (Fluck and McNabb, 2007: 63).

390 6. Finding fire: Testing the opportunistic / ‘low fire’ model

391

392 We have highlighted the key challenges to understanding the use of fire in the European Lower
393 Palaeolithic record: 1) The amount of fire evidence and the location(s) of that evidence; 2) The fire
394 use behaviours this evidence represents; and 3) The related question of fire function. Based on the
395 evidence described in Sections 4 and 5, we tentatively propose that our opportunistic, or ‘low fire’,
396 model is supported by the currently known archaeological record. To further test the ‘low fire’
397 model, a truly holistic approach is required. This should include experimental work, experiential
398 observations, and cost-benefit analysis of the ‘micro-scale’ factors such as fuel provisioning (e.g.,
399 Henry et al., 2018), alongside further understanding of the wider archaeological and environmental
400 context (the ‘macro-scale’ issues).

401 6.1 The quantity and location of fire evidence

402

403 We have shown that not only is the amount of evidence for fire use in the Lower Palaeolithic record
404 of temperate regions limited to a very small number of sites (e.g., Beeches Pit, Menez-Dregan,
405 Bilzingsleben and Vértesszőlős in central and north-western Europe; Table 2), but the location of
406 these sites is focused on springs and rock shelters. The limited range of landscape settings
407 represented by those sites in comparison to the wider archaeological record suggests either a) fire
408 use was only taking place in selected locations within the landscape, or b) these landscape locations
409 are those where fire is more likely to be preserved. Most plausible is a combination of both a) and

410 b), leading to the currently observed bias in the overall Lower Palaeolithic fire record. Advancing our
411 understanding of this issue will involve further, multi-disciplinary investigations of the taphonomy of
412 fire proxies in a wider range of landscape settings (e.g., uplands and interfluvial areas). Whilst
413 experimental work is key for understanding the taphonomic controls on the preservation and
414 alteration of fire evidence in both open air and closed environments, ethnographic studies are
415 potentially also useful in establishing the range of fire behaviours in these different locations, with
416 the caveat that we are dealing with unique hominins for which we have no modern analogue
417 (McNabb 2007: 348). Utilising ethno-geoarchaeological approaches to the visibility of anthropogenic
418 fires in different geographic locations will certainly facilitate our understanding of fire preservation
419 and how these differ between varying landscapes and climatic regimes (e.g., Mallol et al., 2007). As
420 Mallol and Henry (2017: S227) have argued, experiments should not be replaced by ethno-
421 archaeological research but rather the two approaches should be used in tandem to test hypotheses
422 about archaeological contexts.

423 6.2 The type(s) of fire the evidence represents

424

425 The second key issue for our current understanding of the Lower Palaeolithic hominin fire record in
426 temperate environments regards the nature of the evidence we do have, particularly the indirect
427 evidence (e.g., heated lithics and bone) which are much more common in the temperate latitudes
428 compared to direct proxies (see Section 4.2). The key issue here is understanding both how different
429 types of fire use may (or may not) be preserved in the archaeological record (and what these traces
430 may look like), and how other types of fire use might be distinguished from natural burning
431 episodes. Sandgathe and Berna (2017) highlight Hlubik et al.,'s approach to the patterning of burned
432 artefacts at Koobi Fora, Kenya (Cutts et al., 2019; Hlubik et al., 2019, 2017) which may be utilised for
433 determining the likelihood of a natural fire as a cause of heated artefacts. Controlled wildfire
434 experiments (e.g., Gowlett et al., 2017) and drawing on wildfire data from other disciplines should
435 be a priority both for establishing a 'wildfire background' and understanding how different types of

436 fire behaviour may (or may not) be preserved in the archaeological record. Similarly, the ethno-
437 geoarchaeological approach highlighted in Section 6.3 will not only facilitate our understanding of
438 fire preservation, but also what the traces of different types of fire may look like and how these may
439 be identified in the archaeological record. Caution is advised when basing interpretations on
440 macroscopic observations alone, as recent analysis of reddened patches formerly interpreted as
441 hearths (now attributed to post-depositional iron precipitation and oxidation) at Schöningen 13 II-4
442 (Germany), has shown (Stahlschmidt et al., 2015). A reassessment of other known 'fire sites' using
443 the micro-contextual approach undertaken in the analysis of Schöningen 13 II and 12 B should be a
444 key future priority given the many approaches that can now be employed to assess whether
445 sediments or artefacts have undergone heating. These micro-contextual approaches have already
446 been applied to several sites (Qesem Cave, Israel; Schöningen, Germany; Wonderwerk Cave, South
447 Africa, and Zhoukoudian, China; see Goldberg et al., 2017), but an assessment of more sites from the
448 temperate latitudes is necessary. Where possible, a palaeoenvironmental approach should be used
449 in conjunction with this micro-contextual analysis, assessing charcoal and microcharcoal
450 assemblages, alongside palynological work. There are, of course, considerable difficulties with this
451 approach, most importantly the potential time-averaging of Pleistocene deposits. Additionally, there
452 are problems estimating the potential impacts of a wildfire background (e.g., transport of
453 microcharcoal) as has been highlighted by Lebreton et al., (2019) for open-air Acheulean sites in
454 Southern Italy.

455 6.3 Fire function

456

457 The third key outstanding question in our understanding of Lower Palaeolithic fire use relates to fire
458 function. The desired function of a fire or hearth is important both for understanding the
459 behaviours, choices and lives of hominins in the Lower Palaeolithic and because it is likely to
460 determine the duration over which a fire burns, the location in the landscape a fire occurs at, the
461 size of the fire, and the choice (type, amount, and state) of fuel collected (although a number of

462 researchers suggest preferential use of dead, seasoned and/or partly decayed wood by both hunter-
463 gatherers and early sedentary societies; see Delhon, 2018), all of which are factors affecting the
464 archaeological visibility of past hearths (see Section 4.2.3). However, as Aldeias (2017) highlights,
465 determining the function of a hearth is challenging for several reasons, including the fact that many
466 functions are untestable, and light and warmth result from the burning of fuel, regardless of the
467 intended function. Additionally, fires may serve more than one desired function at a time and the
468 needs for different functions are likely to change seasonally and at shorter temporal intervals,
469 depending on the environment and preferred hominin habitats. As Aldeias (2017) suggests, it might
470 be possible to begin to assess fire function by using specifically targeted experiments, comparing
471 evidence from multiple sites, and building testable hypotheses based on these comparisons (e.g.,
472 assessment of heat and light properties of different fuels; see Hoare, 2020). Utilising cost-benefit
473 approaches, such as Henry et al. (2018)'s approach to cooking, for different fire functions will also be
474 useful for advancing understanding of hominin fire behaviours.

475 Establishing local environmental conditions at Middle Pleistocene sites is slightly less elusive than
476 determining fire function. However, exactly how these environmental conditions related to needs
477 such as keeping warm and dry, extending the day, or cooking, and the likelihood of hearths being a
478 manifestation of all (or any combination) of these functions is challenging. Interestingly, the
479 correlation of the Beeches Pit sequence to the Marks Tey $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record suggests the earliest examples
480 of fire use identified at Beeches Pit (Bed 3b) took place during a period of climatic cooling. Similarly,
481 the later evidence for fire in Beeches Pit (Beds 5 and 6) is associated with climatic deterioration at
482 the end of the MIS 11 interglacial, tentatively suggesting that this particular use of fire was
483 associated with keeping warm and dry during climatic deteriorations (Sherriff, 2016: 326). Fire use as
484 niche construction has received much less attention to date than the use of hearths per se, although
485 it has been considered for Neanderthals in forested environments during the last interglacial (e.g., at
486 Neumark-Nord 2; see Roebroeks and Bakels, 2015). Nonetheless it is an important avenue to
487 consider, although again truly interdisciplinary work will be required to establish whether any traces

488 of larger-scale landscape burning is a) preserved and b) can be distinguished from natural burning
489 episodes. Identifying the re-use of hearth features is also difficult, with re-use able to be identified
490 only at those sites where fires have taken place in overlapping locations (e.g., Beeches Pit), or those
491 that have undergone sediment deposition between burning episodes (e.g., Qesem Cave; Barkai et
492 al., 2017; Karkanas et al., 2007b; Shahack-Gross et al., 2014). Other sites (e.g., Gesher Benot Ya'aqov,
493 Menez-Dregan) indicate repeated visits, alongside associated burning events, but these represent
494 re-use on a much longer timescale, over hundreds of thousands of years (Goren-Inbar et al., 2000;
495 Monnier et al., 2016).

496 7. Conclusions and final comments

497

498 We have argued that the nature of fire records can be valuably understood using a holistic approach
499 encompassing experimental, experiential, and cost-benefit approaches. Considering these aspects in
500 combination allows us to build a more detailed understanding of the behaviours, choices, and lives
501 of hominins during the earliest occupations in the temperate latitudes. We suggest that, in the
502 absence of habitual cooking, fire was used for other purposes, such as niche construction through
503 cultural insulation, but ultimately as an opportunistic technology. This is consistent with the current
504 evidence for fire use in temperate regions prior to MIS 9 (c. 300 ka), as evidenced by indirect proxies
505 at sites such as Barnham, Beeches Pit, Bilzingsleben, Menez-Dregan, and Vértesszőlős. Our analysis
506 complements other long chronology models of hominin fire engagement, particularly that of
507 Gowlett (2010, 2016) and Chazan (2017), where a long chronology of opportunistic fire use is
508 favoured. Both models of fire use presented here have pertinent implications for understanding
509 evolving hominin behaviours and human-environment interactions during the early spread of
510 hominins through the temperate latitudes e.g., cultural insulation and dietary strategies in Europe
511 prior to the Middle Palaeolithic.

512 It is not the intention of this paper to be pessimistic about research regarding the use of fire in the
513 early archaeological record. Instead, we have aimed to highlight some of the complexities involved.

514 We have emphasised the various methods through which we can continue to interpret the
515 archaeological record of fire us, underpinned by an evolutionary approach *sensu* Sandgathe and
516 Berna (2017). Future research can only be improved by a ‘holistic’ approach to the archaeological
517 record, which encompasses wider landscape-scale and contextual issues around the Palaeolithic
518 record itself (the ‘macroscale’) and smaller-scale processes at the meso-and microscale.

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