

Ancient arctic pyro-technologies: Experimental fires to document the impact of animal origin fuels on wood combustion. Journal of Archaeological Science: Reports

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1 Ancient arctic pyro-technologies: 2 Experimental fires to document the impact of animal origin fuels on wood 3 combustion

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17 **Abstract**

19 Remains of animal fuel and driftwood fires are evident in Birnirk and Thule sites of northwestern 20 Alaska (AD 11th-14th century). To better understand these fires, a robust experimental protocol was 21 designed to study the effects of multi-fuel fires, in particular, the addition of fat to woody fuels. In Arctic 22 regions, permafrost and climate conditions do not allow for the development of tree vegetation. Marine 23 mammal oil and bones served as fuel substitutes, as did locally shrubby vegetation and driftwood 24 accumulations. The excavation of numerous thick burnt areas in many Arctic sites confirms the use of 25 multiple fuels including wood, animal fat, and bone in large quantities. These burnt areas correspond to a 26 wide range of fire activities—cooking, smoking, firing ceramics, and others—but the actions and effects 27 of each fuel are still poorly known.

28 We describe conditions necessary to achieve a reproducible and statistically representative 29 experimental fire sample. We compared fuel combinations of driftwood or non-drifted wood, animal fat, 30 and caribou bones over 55 combustions. Experiments were conducted under controlled conditions in a 31 laboratory in France and on the coast of northwestern Alaska. We found that a minimum of 30 test assays 32 was needed to obtain statistically significant results but many research avenues can be obtained from 33 smaller series. We obtained key figures and descriptive data on the impact of different animal fuels on fire 34 temperature and duration, as well as on the firewood spectrum, with important implications for the 35 representation of different woody fuels and the fragmentation patterns of charcoals. We report a relatively 36 rapid rate of formation for blackened and crusted sediments when seal oil is burned along with driftwood. 37 This means that thick accumulations of burnt material may not be a reliable signal of long-term 38 occupations and that the relationship between the duration of site occupation and fuel management 39 deserves further study.

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41 **Keywords**

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43 Fire Experiments; Statistical analysis; Animal fuels; Driftwood; Arctic Archaeology

44 **1. Introduction**

46 In Arctic regions, permafrost and climate conditions do not allow for the development of tree 47 vegetation, with driftwood and willow shrubs as the only woody fuels available in northwestern Alaska 48 (Giddings, 1952; Saario, 1962, p. 5,6; Saario and Kessel, 1966, p. 972; Burch, 1985, p. 101; Alix, 2016). 49 Woody fuels were supplemented with marine mammal fat and bones. Marine mammal fats improve the 50 heat capacity of a hearth, producing significant amounts of light and heat with little smoke (Lyon, 1824, 51 p. 246; Jenness, 1922, 1946; Birket-Smith, 1929, p. 98; Heizer, 1963, p. 188; Hall, 1975, p. 65; 52 Schledermann, 1990, p. 50; Mason, 1998, p. 1991; Morseth, 1997, p. 250; Burch, 1998, 2006; Møbjerg, 53 1999; McGhee, 2001; Odgaard, 2003; Alix, 2008, p. 47). Bone-fueled fires provide heat and light and 54 help eliminate waste (Spennemann and Colley, 1989, p. 51; Costamagno et al., 2005, p. 5; Cain, 2005, p. 55 882; Hoare, 2020). While fuel sources may have been limited in the Arctic, communities were never 56 completely devoid of them.

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58 Hearths and fuel management hold an important place in the Arctic domestic economy. Oil lamps and 59 hearths provided heat and light needed to live and cook in dwellings (Damas, 1984, p. 308; Plumet, 60 1989). During the Neo-Inuit period, in particular, at Thule sites in the western Arctic, combustion features 61 have been uncovered outside houses. These burnt areas contain fire-cracked bone flakes, charcoals, and 62 thick concentrations of marine mammal fat welded together by heat¹. Some external combustion features, 63 unconnected to the house, might have been used for "specialized" combustion, such as ceramics firing 64 (Anderson, 2011, 2017; Anderson et al., 2017), smoking skins, or drying food (Foote and Cooke, 1960, p. 65 44,46; Burch, 2006, pp. 106, 165,187). Despite extensive archaeological excavations conducted at 66 western Arctic Thule sites, these burnt areas remain poorly understood, including their function, the 67 process by which residues accumulated, and the meaning of fuel ratios (intentional choice *vs*. selection-68 driven by fuel availability).

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70 Experimentation is the most appropriate method to investigate these questions since certain variables can 71 be controlled and the experiment can be replicated. The main objective of our experimental program is to 72 obtain numerical data and quantitative information about the combustion of different fuel types within a 73 hearth, specifically using fuel resources available in the Arctic. Most combustion experiments are 74 conducted using "regular" wood sources but see Caruso Fermé (2012; 2014) and Vanlandeghem (2014, 75 2017). Comparing driftwood and non-drifted wood fuels provides further data on the properties of woody 76 fuels. Recently, a number of experiments have examined the use of bone as a main or secondary fuel 77 source (Théry-Parisot, 2002; Théry-Parisot et al., 2005; Costamagno et al., 2005; Crass and Behm, 2005; 78 Crass et al., 2011; Lejay et al., 2016; Lejay, 2018; Buonasera et al., 2019; Hoare, 2020). Even more 79 limited are experiments focused on animal fat as fuel (Odgaard 2003). Our experiments provide details on 80 how animal material and woody fuels burn and highlight the advantages of combining them. We also 81 investigate if the presence of fat in the combustion processes differentially affects the representation, 82 morphology, and anatomical deformations of woody species in the charcoal remains. These fire 83 experiments provide preliminary data on the number of combustion episodes needed to form the burnt 84 areas uncovered at archaeological sites and to examine the range of activities related to fire in 85 northwestern Alaska sites.

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87 In this paper, we present 55 initial fire experiments conducted under controlled laboratory conditions and 88 in an outdoor setting at Cape Espenberg on the coast of northwestern Alaska (Figure 1). Fifty-five fires 89 provide scientifically valid results that will guide our future protocol and experimentation of a larger 90 number of fires to test a wider set of fuels. Considering that experimental combustions with animal fat

¹ This baked and fused fat-cemented sand is often called « clinker ».

91 have rarely been conducted, we chose to highlight the experimental results related to the action of animal 92 fat on driftwood and on the combustion deposit.

93 **2. Material and Methods**

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95 **2.1. Materials and Experimental protocol**

96 Local driftwood collected along the beach at Cape Espenberg was used for the 34 outdoor 97 experiments (*Picea* sp. *Salix* sp., *Populus* sp.) and for six of the laboratory experiments (*Picea* sp. *Salix* 98 sp., *Populus* sp., *Larix* sp., *Alnus* sp., *Betula* sp., Table 1, Table 2). Due to a limited supply of driftwood 99 for the laboratory experiments, 15 fires were conducted using only European non-drifted wood taxa 100 corresponding to the genera used for the driftwood experiments. The use of non-drifted wood also makes 101 it possible to initiate a comparison of fire behaviors using these two types of potential wood sources. All 102 wood was dried to a moisture content measured with a Wöhler HF300 hygrometer at 12%.

103 We used seal fat (blended oil and blubber) and/or caribou bones to fuel hearths in outdoor conditions. 104 We fragmented all caribou bones and measured all fragments (length, diameter) before combustion. 105 Laboratory experiments were performed with pork fat (lard) marketed in France. Even though it differs 106 from marine mammal oil, pork fat was the best choice due to its 100% fat composition and low melting 107 point $(36^{\circ}C-40^{\circ}C)$. Pork fat falls between the melting point range of seal oil $[-8^{\circ}C$ to 15^oCl (Iverson, 108 2009) and of the marrow of caribou bones [40°C-48°C for femur and tibia, 15°C-22°C for metatarsus] 109 (Meng et al., 1969).

110 We replicated a total of 55 fires: 19 wood-only fires, and 33 "mixed" fires combining wood with fat 111 and/or bones (Figure 2). Each fire of the same context (laboratory or outdoor) used identical fuel 112 quantities and types. We recorded all pre-combustion characteristics (Table 3). Twenty-one controlled 113 archaeological experiments were conducted in the laboratory under fixed conditions. Our variables were 114 wood composition – driftwood or non-drifted wood – and the addition of fat – soaked or deposited. Each 115 of the 21 controlled fires had an equal wood mass of 600 to 900g., depending on the type of wood 116 (driftwood or non-drifted wood) using identical species composition. In fat and wood fires, we added 200 117 to 600g. of pork fat. Thirty-four outdoor archaeological experiments at Cape Espenberg aimed to create 118 fires under conditions close to those encountered in the past environment. We dug small basin-shaped pits 119 into the natural beach sand (50cm in diameter and 10cm deep). A series of combustion events using the 120 same fuel types took place in the same pits. Outdoor fires had an equal wood mass (3kg). We used either 121 driftwood-only, or mixed driftwood with fat fuel (150 to 220g. of seal oil per fire) and/or caribou bones 122 (approximately 200g., Table 2, Figure 2). Fuel weights were kept constant within each type of fire. In all 123 cases, the total fuel mass of each fire was accounted for in the analyses because it can have a direct 124 impact on the duration and the temperatures reached by the fire.

125 To measure fire temperatures throughout the combustion process, we placed thermocouple K sensors 126 (Oakton™, Testo™) connected to 4 channel thermometers (Dostmann-Electronic™ TC309, REED-127 Instruments SD-947) in each fire. We systematically recorded the progression of each combustion 128 (ignition, phase with flame, pyrolysis: phase without flame). For the outdoor combustion, we also 129 recorded atmospheric conditions (wind velocity, humidity, ambient temperature) prior to each ignition 130 using a Multifunction Anemometer (PCE-THA10). We followed previous fire experiments (Théry-131 Parisot, 2013, p. 68) in arbitrarily setting the end of combustion at the conventional temperature of 100°C.

132 At the end of each combustion, we collected the fuel residues (charcoals and burnt materials). 133 Charcoals were sorted and counted to assess the rate of fragmentation of each wood taxa. We identified 134 charcoal fragments greater than 4 mm using a reflected light microscope. We also produced a reference

135 collection of wood samples used in the experiments for future reference². At the end of all outdoor 136 combustions, we recorded the nature of the fire bed's encrustation (thickness, friability) and collected 137 micromorphological samples from the bottom of the four different pits **following sampling and analysis** 138 procedures implemented by J. Wattez³ (Wattez, 1988, 1992, 2000; Vanlandeghem et al., 2016).

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140 **2.2. Statistical analysis**

141 Data from the experiments are heterogeneous, including measures and qualitative modalities. There is 142 no statistical procedure that would allow for the simultaneous processing of such a heterogeneous set of 143 variables (Table 4). This is a common issue in archaeology. One solution is to group the values of the 144 quantitative variables into a number of intervals (or "classes") which may be processed as qualitative 145 modalities. This discretization method minimizes information loss while transforming continuous to 146 discrete values and making data evaluation easier. The resulting table is entirely composed of qualitative 147 values and can be processed using a correspondence analysis and an automatic classification (Bouroche 148 and Saporta, 1980; Djindjian, 1991).

149 Due to a low number of observations (55 fires), we dichotomized each qualitative variable into only 150 two modalities. Similarly, each quantitative values series was split at the fixed value of the median to 151 form two categories (50% of the values are below the median and 50% of the values are above the 152 median), described as "Low" and "High" for instance (Rucker et al., 2015). The goal of such a 153 dichotomization strategy is to highlight the major association and opposition in a statistical way, at the 154 risk of losing some subtleties and temporarily putting aside a finer analysis of all the parameters observed.

155 We use a multidimensional approach to analyze the data. A multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) 156 was applied. It involves transforming the table for qualitative data into a binary table (coded 1 if the 157 individuals present value above the median, 0 if not) and running a correspondence analysis directly on 158 the binary table (Bouroche and Saporta, 1980). A cluster analysis was then performed on the coordinates 159 of the individuals obtained from the MCA. To evaluate the risk that our results are due to chance, we then 160 ran Yates's chi-squared tests and a Fisher's exact tests, which are applicable to low numbers of 161 observations (Mialaret, 1996; Baxter, 2003).

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163 **3. Results**

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165 **3.1. Statistical significant results and emerging tendencies**

166 3.1.1 All 55 fires: the experimental conditions stand out

167 The results of the MCA and cluster analysis on all 55 fires (Table 4, Figure 3) show a clear distinction 168 between the two groups that corresponds to the two sets of experiments—laboratory (controlled) and 169 outdoor (contextual). This confirms the need to analyze the two series of experiments separately. Given 170 the small size of each set of experiments, we retained four key variables following the median split: with 171 or without fat, few or many charcoal fragments produced (below or above 102 charcoals for outdoor 172 experiments and below or above 166 charcoals for laboratory experiments), short or long fire duration 173 (below or above 149min for outdoor experiments and below or above 140min for laboratory

² It is housed and available at the Archaeobotany Laboratory of the Maison de l'Archéologie et de l'Ethnologie (MAE) in Nanterre, France.

³ Julia Wattez is a french geoarchaeologist at the 'Institut National d'Archéologie Préventive (INRAP)' (UMR 5140 ASM). She specialises in hearths micromorphology.

174 experiments), and medium or high temperatures (below or above 957°C for outdoor experiments and 175 below or above 525°C for laboratory experiments).

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177 3.1.2. Outdoor experiments: Adding fat significantly increases the duration of fires

178 An MCA was performed on 32 of the outdoor experimental fires. Two fires were excluded from the 179 analysis due to unexpected technical failure during the experiment which led to missing values (Table 5). 180 Figure 4 shows the correlations between some of the variables. Based on the counts provided by a Burt 181 Table (symmetric matrix of all two-way cross-tabulations between the variables, Table 6), the results of 182 the Yates's chi-squared tests and the Fisher's exact tests (Table 7) show significance between the 183 variables "temperature" and "quantities of charcoal", and between "addition of fat "and "fire duration". 184 There is no statistically significant correlation between "addition of fat" and "temperature", or between 185 "addition of fat" and "amount of charcoal".

186 The significant correlation between "addition of fat" and "duration of fire" can be interpreted 187 archaeologically: adding fat to hearths may correspond to the need for a longer flame duration or longer 188 pyrolysis. This result is a statistical confirmation of hypotheses and observations described in previous 189 archaeological and ethnographic studies (Saario, 1962, p. 51; Costamagno et al., 1998; Chabal et al., 190 1999, p. 55; Théry-Parisot, 2000, 2002; Hoffecker, 2005; Glazewski et al., 2006, p. 18,23). Animal fat 191 (oil, blubber, bones grease, marrow) is an important fuel that contributes to the versatility of hearth 192 functions. The control of flames may have helped gain a higher luminosity, useful for manufacturing 193 tools, socializing, and/or storytelling. Longer pyrolysis would have been required for heating, indirect 194 cooking, slow roasting, fire maintenance (Théry-Parisot, 2013), and specialized combustion activities 195 such as ceramic firing.

196 The other significant correlation, between "temperature" and "amount of charcoal" has a natural 197 explanation: a higher temperature leads to more complete combustion and a smaller quantity of residual 198 charcoal. 199

200 3.1.3 Laboratory experiments: Adding fat tends to increase the duration of fires

201 We ran an MCA on all 21 fires (Table 4, Table 8). This plot shows that adding fat results in a longer fire 202 (±15-20min), although this relationship is not statistically significant (Burt Table test *P>0.1*).

203 This relationship however is similar to that tested as significant in the above outdoor experiments. 204 This suggests that it is the same information which is conveyed in the two sets of experiments, outdoor 205 and laboratory, and that the lack of statistical significance of the laboratory experimental results is due to 206 a lower number of repeated fires than in the outdoor experiments. Especially since the MCA points to 207 another minor association between the variables "temperature" and "quantities of charcoal", which is also 208 not statistically significant but reflects the result obtained from the outdoor experiments as well (Figure 209 5).

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211 3.1.4. Discussion: Establishing a minimum number of observations for experimental studies

212 How many observations are needed for a meaningful statistical analysis? This question has no 213 absolute answer. A number of studies quote the value of n=30 as sufficient for any statistical analysis 214 (Hogg and Tanis, 2006; Sullivan and LaMorte, 2016). Here, we tested the relationships between variables 215 by means of contingency tables crossing two variables. The minimum total number of observations to 216 obtain meaningful results depends on the number of rows and columns (number of modalities of the two 217 variables). The more this number increases, the greater the total number of observations must be. By 218 using variables with only two modalities, we achieved significant results with 32 observations (outdoor 219 experiments), but not with only 21 observations (laboratory experiments). This difference corroborates

220 the threshold of n=30 mentioned above. So, further experimentation will use comparisons between two 221 samples with a minimum size of 15 fires (i.e. the threshold of 30 individuals minimum), within each 222 population defined by the experimental conditions (outdoors, and in the laboratory). We now know that 223 this minimum of 30 individuals is needed to reach significance in statistical analyses of results in terms of 224 differences based on one or a combination of parameters (with up to 10% risk for the observed difference 225 to be due to chance). In all cases, the priority is to increase the number of laboratory experiments to reach 226 this minimum threshold.

227 **3.2. Beyond statistical evidence, future research avenues**

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228 3.2.1. Different fire behavior of driftwood and non-drifted wood

230 In our laboratory experiments, we observe that driftwood has a greater sensitivity to the addition of 231 fat in comparison to non-drifted wood. Six fires were operated in the laboratory with driftwood, including 232 three where fat was added; the other 15 laboratory fires used non-drifted wood, including 10 where fat 233 was added (Table 4). As discussed, these numbers of test assays are too small to meet statistical 234 significance. However, our laboratory experiments show that the average maximum temperatures (557° C) 235 reached by the three driftwood and fat fires is higher than that of driftwood only fires (501°C, Table 9). 236 We do not observe such difference in experiments where non-drifted wood is used: the average maximum 237 temperature of the 10 non-drifted wood and fat fires is, in fact, lower (510°C) than that of the 5 fires 238 without fat (559°C).

239 In addition, when looking at fire duration, we observe, although with no statistical significance (see 240 above 3.1.3), that fat has a greater lengthening effect when added on a driftwood fire. The average 241 duration of fires using driftwood and fat (149') is 23 minutes longer than that of driftwood fires without 242 fat (126'); it is only 10 minutes longer for fires using non-drifted wood (average duration is 139' for fires 243 without fat, and 149' when fat is added, Table 9).

244 In our outdoor experiments using only driftwood to which fat was added, we also measured a 245 statistically significant increase in fire duration. In terms of temperatures, even though the results are not 246 all statistically significant, adding fat on driftwood in our outdoor fires did have an impact on the 247 temperature of the fire (an increase of over 100 degrees, Table 10).

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249 With our laboratory fires, we observe that "driftwood only" fires reach a lower maximum 250 temperature (501°C) than "non-drifted wood only" fires (559°C). It can be suggested that driftwood, or at 251 least this combination of driftwood used, has less calorific value than the same non-drifted wood species. 252 On the other hand, driftwood burned with fat (here pork fat) allows a maximum temperature of 557° C to 253 be obtained. This result approaches those obtained by a "non-drifted wood only" fire (559°C, Table 9). 254 This result is major because it seems that the addition of fat increases the efficiency of driftwood and 255 therefore this fuel combination is "improved" and places them on the same level of fuel as wood in a 256 forest environment.

257 This observed difference may be due to certain properties of driftwood, such as mineral salts 258 [sodium (Na +)] soaked in the wood cell structure due to seawater contamination (Caruso Fermé et al., 259 2014; Yamada et al., 2014; Steelandt et al., 2016; Mooney, 2018). This could depend on the consequences 260 of drifting (washout, drying, etc.) on the mechanical qualities of wood (Alix, 2001, pp. 117–118, 2004, p. 261 117).

262 This result allows us to better describe the fuel behavior of these resources, which are available but 263 limited in the Arctic coast because these results do not correspond to what people say about driftwood in 264 certain contexts. Interior Alaska people identify driftwood as lighter in weight, usually warmer than other 265 wood if dried, a wood that burns well and throws a lot of heat (Williams, Sr., 2002). In other regions, 266 driftwood is also described as a "clean fuel" due to the absence of sap (Russell, 1994; Lepofsky et al., 267 2003). On the northwest coast of Alaska, Burch (2006) and Saario and Kessel (1966) state that adding fat 268 to a wood fire served to improve the heat capacity of a hearth.

269 These first concrete data on the fire behavior of driftwood, if confirmed, will have important 270 implications for future studies of fireplaces in the Arctic and subarctic regions, in particular on the 271 performance sought for a hearth according to its function. For our future fire experiments, the increase in 272 test assays, with the same fuels and in the same quantities, will make it possible to reproduce these 273 combinations and to test if they are statistically significant.

274 In this article, we discuss the modulation that can be obtained with different fuels (fat, bone, wood) 275 in order to adapt the fire as needed. Here, we highlight the ability of people to adapt to available fuels to 276 achieve similar or even better returns and the proof of a well mastered and optimized pyro-technology.

277 In addition to this important result, our observations in the laboratory also show the tendency for 278 spruce to be better preserved when fat is added to a driftwood fire. Larger pieces of charcoal are 279 produced; a phenomenon not observed when non-drifted spruce wood is burned. While spruce (*Picea* sp.) 280 largely dominates Arctic driftwood deposits (Alix, 2005; Steelandt et al., 2015), our results suggest that 281 the high ratio of spruce charcoal regularly identified in archaeological sites of northwestern coastal 282 Alaska where fat is omnipresent as fuel, may also result from issues of differential species preservation 283 leading to an overrepresentation of spruce. However, it may also reflect a deliberate selection of the 284 abundant spruce driftwood preferred for certain hearths functions. Future experimental and archaeological 285 work is needed to assess these questions.

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287 3.2.2. The question of mass and fragmentation of charcoal fragments

288 Charcoal analyses in Arctic contexts are rare and detailed data on driftwood used as fuel scant (Alix, 289 2016). Experimental combustion allows for better documenting the physico-chemical and mechanical 290 transformations of wood when fat is added and how this can affect residual mass and fragmentation in 291 archaeological assemblages.

293 Laboratory experiments showed that the addition of animal fat to a fire contributed to a higher 294 quantity of charcoal remains and ashes (Table 10 and Table 11). In all our experiments, the presence of 295 fat correlates with more combustion deformation of the wood's structure (radial cracks, shrinkage, 296 vitrification, greasy appearance). This is consistent with the results obtained by Théry-Parisot (2000, 297 2002) in contexts where bones are used as fuel. These experiments may encourage anthracologists to look 298 for these specific anatomical alterations (*i.e.* cracks, local deformations, vitrification) which may be 299 discrete indicators of fat addition in fires. The inclusion of fatty residues within the cell structure of 300 charcoal remains has been proposed as a key feature to identify the use of fat as fuel in hearths (Crawford, 301 2012). However, during the microscopic observation of charcoal remains from fires with fat, we found no 302 trace or deposit of fat within the cell structures of the wood (Table 11).

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304 3.2.3. The development of fire bed encrustations

305 The action of each fire assays left visible physical traces in the sandy soil of outdoor fire pits with 306 noticeable differences according to fuel types.

- 307 Six driftwood fires burned the sand only superficially, producing a thin red layer, with white and 308 black ash stains, which was hardened but friable (Figure 6-1).
- 309 Seal fat in a driftwood fire left a thin crust after only one combustion test assay. After two 310 successive assays, the walls of the firepit were burned and some agglomerates of fat-cemented 311 sand and red ash stains were clearly visible. At the end of the third assay, these fatty and sandy 312 agglomerates were even thicker and, after six successive combustions, the soil was completely 313 burned and a 3cm thick hardened crust was formed (Figure 6-2).
- 314 Caribou bones in driftwood fires did not produce the same hardened crust than when driftwood 315 was burnt with seal oil. This is not surprising since the amount of fat present in 200 gr. of caribou 316 bones is much lower than 200 gr. of pure seal oil. At the end of the six assays, a thin and brittle

317 burned layer covered the loose sand of the surface and walls of the hearth pit (Figure 6-3). The 318 ash was thick (red, white and black) and we observed a loose and fatty mixture of ash and bone 319 powder.

320 - Fires with driftwood, seal fat, and caribou bones produced a cemented sand crust at the bottom of 321 the pit, similar to that created by the driftwood and seal fire, but this time, embedded with caribou 322 bones (Figure 6-4).

323 Given the rapid formation of this crust when fat is burned, we suggest that the thick burnt layers 324 found in archaeological contexts (e.g. 50cm to 1m thick pits at the *Rising Whale* site) are not necessarily a 325 sign of long-term occupation over many seasons, nor a period of extended hearth use. For future work, we 326 will address questions such as: what does this mean when you have a large hearth (or small hearths lit in 327 the same area)? If the fire goes on for an extended period of time, what is the rate of soil surface crusting 328 thickening? Does the crust compact over time? Experimentation allows us to test the statistical 329 significance of different fire configurations to create experimental references that can inform future 330 analyses of archaeological combustion features

331 Soil micromorphology analyses of our experimental pits are on-going using Wattez methodological 332 approach (Wattez, 1988, 1992, 2000; Vanlandeghem et al., 2016). This will help study the sedimentary 333 expression of temperature's actions and address taphonomical and post-depositional questions. The future 334 protocol will also stress the study of thermal alteration on the substrate of the combustion structures, and 335 increasing the number of outdoor fires will help in obtaining statistically significant results for our 336 analysis.

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338 3.2.4. The question of fire-related activities

340 Based on our results (Table 11), and considering the different characteristics of fuel types, past Arctic 341 inhabitants may have strategized their use of fuel resources for specific activities. The wood-only fire 342 heats quickly and powerfully but is of short duration. The temperatures reached in a driftwood and 343 caribou bones fire are lower than in fires with seal oil but produce enough heat to meet basic energy 344 requirements and intermediate heat needs for boiling, heating, or lighting. Seal oil seems to be an ideal 345 fuel for activities requiring higher temperatures over a longer period, potentially for craft functions (firing 346 of ceramics) or the thermal treatment of the specific resources (meat drying, hide smoking).

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348 The presence of marine mammal fat and burned bones in relatively high quantities in burned areas of 349 some Arctic archaeological sites is unlikely to represent only the disposal of food refuse. Fat and bones 350 recovered from these contexts are more likely the results of "secondary burning", meaning "not being 351 prepared for consumption but rather burned as fuel during the process of cooking, heating, or lighting" 352 (Norman, 2015, p. 126). Deliberately adding animal products as fuel to the fire would have allowed past 353 inhabitants of coastal northwestern Alaska to alter the functions of their hearths according to their needs 354 and supplement woody resources.

355

356 **4. Conclusion: implications for the archaeological record**

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358 Our results show that to statistically test two variables, a minimum of 30 observations is needed. We 359 have found significant correlations between fire duration and the use of fat, and between fire temperature 360 and the amount of charcoal. Observations also indicate that charcoal preservation changes with the 361 addition of fat and that driftwood and non-drifted wood tend to burn differently in the presence of fat.

362 Using the threshold of 30 test assays as a necessary condition to reach statistical significance, future 363 research will examine additional variables to further test for fuel characteristics of wood types (driftwood 364 vs. non-drifted wood), of bone and fat (impact of animal products on fire brightness and smoke, incidence

- 365 of burning wood soaked in fat vs. coated in fat), as well as charcoal taphonomy (effect of fragmentation 366 on quantifying wood charcoal; effect of animal fuel on differential preservation of charcoals).
- 367 Results from our laboratory and outdoor experiments provide a framework to discuss why, when, and
- 368 how past inhabitants of coastal northern Alaska used fires. Based on our experimental protocol, we are
- 369 able to test how our empirical knowledge of archaeological data compares to the technical realities of past
- 370 societies. This research encourages to further explore the taphonomic processes of fuel residues formation
- 371 and contributes to developing additional research on past pyrotechnology.

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399 **Author contributions** 400

- 401 MV, CA, CP, ME and IT-P contributed to the design and implementation of the research.
- 402 MV, CA, TB, LN and AC have helped with collecting and preparing samples, performing the analyses, 403 and collecting the data.
- 404 MV, CA, and BD contributed to the analysis tools, discussed the results, performed the statistical 405 analyses, and wrote the paper.
- 406 All authors validated the results and contributed to the editing of this manuscript.

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Main Appendices List of Figures

Figure 1: Cape Espenberg spit, in northwestern Alaska, location where the archaeological burnt areas were excavated and the outdoor experiments carried out. Inset map shows the study area (modified map © Alaska Office of History and Archaeology) --- 17 Figure 2: Schematic representation illustrating the several types of fire set up in this experimental protocol, in laboratory conditions in France and in outdoor arctic conditions at Cape Espenberg, Alaska. -- 18 Figure 3: Hierarchical ascendant classification tree (left) and Symmetric Correspondence Map (right) with net partition between laboratory fires (triangle) and outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg (square) --- 19 Figure 4: Scatter plot of individuals in the first plan of the MCA for the 32 experimental outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg --- 20 Figure 5: Scatter plot of individuals in the first plan of the MCA for the 21 experimental laboratory fires -- 21 Figure 6: Encrustation of firebeds after six trials of each experimental outdoor combustion type at Cape Espenberg -- 22

List of Tables

Figure 1: Cape Espenberg spit, in northwestern Alaska, location where the archaeological burnt areas were excavated and the outdoor experiments carried out. Inset map shows
the study area (modified map © Alaska Office of H

Figure 2: Schematic representation illustrating the several types of fire set up in this experimental protocol, in laboratory conditions in France and in outdoor arctic conditions at Cape Espenberg, Alaska.

Figure 3: Hierarchical ascendant classification tree (left) and Symmetric Correspondence Map (right) with net partition between laboratory fires (triangle) and outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg (square)

Symmetric plot(axis F1 and F2 : 50.68 %)

Figure 4: Scatter plot of individuals in the first plan of the MCA for the 32 experimental outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg

Figure 5: Scatter plot of individuals in the first plan of the MCA for the 21 experimental laboratory fires

Figure 6: Encrustation of firebeds after six trials of each experimental outdoor combustion type at Cape Espenberg

1. Driftwood only fires

Driftwood only fire after the $6th$ assay

2. Driftwood and Seal oil fires

Driftwood and Seal oil fire after the $2nd$ assay

Driftwood and Seal oil fire after the 6th assay

3. Driftwood and Caribou bones fires

Driftwood and Caribou bones fire after the $6th$ assay

4. Driftwood, Seal oil and Caribou bones fires

Driftwood, Seal oil and Caribou bones fire after the $4th$ assay

Table 1: Composition of the fire in wood taxa

Table 2: Composition of the fire and wood batches for outdoor experiments (above) and laboratory experiments (below) prior to combustion

Table 3: Complete instrumentation chain, from sample preparation to experimental combustions' data processing

Table 4: Results from the different types of experiments and their values (55 individuals x 21 variables) used for the multidimensional analysis (Figure 3) where the measured variables were grouped *into two classes separated by the median. The underscore symbol means that data were not obtained.*

Table 5: Results from the outdoors experiments and their values (32 individuals x 4 variables) used for the multidimensional analysis ; the measured variables (amount of charcoal, fire duration and temperatures) were each grouped into two classes separated by the median of Cape Espenberg observations

Table 6: Burt Table for the 32 experimental outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg. Framed in bold: the contingency matrices (Burt's table sub-tables) that gave us significant results

Table 7: Chi-square test on different values tested statistically for the 32 experimental outdoor fires at Cape Espenberg

Variables Tests (null hypothesis tested: there is no link between rows and columns)		"Temperatures" and "Amount of charcoal"	"Fat" and "Fire" duration"	"Fat" and "Amount of charcoal"	"Fat" and "Temperatures"
Chi-Squared test (with Yate's Correction for Continuity);	Chi ² (observed value)	3.229	4.518	0.142	0.111
	Chi ² (critical value)	2.706	2.706	2.706	2.706
	DDL				
	p-value (bilateral)	0.072	0.034	0.706	0.739
	Probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true	$< 7.24\%$ null hypothesis can be rejected (alpha 0.1)	$< 3.35\%$ null hypothesis can be rejected (alpha 0.05)	70.61% null hypothesis cannot be rejected	73.93% null hypothesis cannot be rejected
Fisher's exact test	p-value (bilateral)	0.042	0.032	0.502	0.723
	Probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true	$< 4.16\%$ null hypothesis can be rejected (alpha 0.05)	$< 3.20\%$ null hypothesis can be rejected (alpha 0.05)	50.23% null hypothesis cannot be rejected	72.35% null hypothesis cannot be rejected

Table 8:Results from the laboratory experiments and their values (21 individuals x 4 variables) used for the multidimensional analysis ; the measured variables (amount of charcoal, fire duration and temperatures) were each grouped into two classes separated by the median of laboratory observations

Fires		Laboratory conditions		Outdoor conditions	
Variables		Driftwood + Pork fat	Non-drifted wood + Pork fat	Driftwood + Seal oil	Driftwood + Seal oil + Caribou bones
Temperatures	Higher Temperature		$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}$		
Duration	Longer flame phase		when soaked $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}$ when coated		
	Longer Pyrolysis				
	Longer fire				
Charcoal Fragmentation	Better spruce preservation		$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}$		
Charcoal Analysis	Higher quantities of remains				X
	Higher deformation of wood's structures				
	Fat-like substance deposits	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}$	$\boldsymbol{\mathsf{x}}$	$\pmb{\times}$	Х

Table 11: Comparison table between fires where fat has been added (wood fires are used as reference): variables that seem to be impacted by the addition of animal fat, -*variables that do not show any difference following the addition of animal fat*