

New insights into late Devensian late glacial and early Holocene environmental change: two high-resolution case studies from SE England

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New insights into Late Devensian Lateglacial and early

2 Holocene environmental change: two high-resolution case

studies from SE England

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- 10
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14 **1. Introduction**

Despite a number of palaeoenvironmental records across south-east (SE) England, they are 15 16 unevenly distributed and concentrated in coastal regions, especially the Kent and East 17 Sussex coast (Kerney et al., 1980; Thorley, 1981; Waller, 1993; Waller and Marlow, 1994; 18 Preece and Bridgland, 1998; Waller et al., 1999; Waller and Hamilton, 2000; Waller and 19 Long, 2010), and the Solent (Scaife, 1980, 1987) (Figure 1). There is also a considerable 20 bias towards records from floodplain locations, particularly along the lower reaches of the 21 River Thames (Gibbard and Hall, 1982; Branch and Lowe, 1994; Wilkinson et al., 2000; 22 Corcoran et al., 2011; Batchelor et al., 2012; Branch et al., 2012; Batchelor et al., 2014; Batchelor et al., 2015; Batchelor et al., 2019) and the Upper River Thames and River 23 Kennett (Healy et al., 1992; Lewis et al., 1992; Parker and Robinson, 2003; Chisham, 2004). 24 There are only a small number of sites from inland, lowland wetland locations that have 25 26 provided well-dated palaeoenvironmental records, including Spartum Fen (Parker, 2000), Bagshot (Groves, 2008), Conford (Groves et al., 2012) and Elstead Bog (Farr, 2008), 27 although they do not all provide a continuous Lateglacial and early Holocene sequence. 28 29

30 Current understanding from the limited available data suggests that four main biostratigraphic zones exist (Branch and Green, 2004; Groves, 2008; Groves et al., 2012) 31 during the Lateglacial and early Holocene (Table 1). Pre 11,500 cal. BP, there was open 32 scrubby tundra style vegetation comprising Juniperus type, Betula and Salix woodland that 33 often continued into the early Holocene. From 11,500-11,200/10,500cal. BP Pinus became 34 35 dominant in dryland areas alongside Betula. On the wetland edge Salix continued to be the dominant taxon, alongside Cyperaceae. Between 10,200-8900 cal. BP mixed deciduous 36 37 woodland of Quercus, Betula, Corylus and Ulmus developed in previously Pinus dominated 38 areas; Salix dominated the wetland edge. From 8900-7000 cal. BP mixed deciduous woodland dominated drier areas, with the emergence of Tilia, the loss of Betula, with Alnus-39 carr woodland formation in the wetter areas. 40

41

- Table 1. Palaeoenvironmental sites in SE England with evidence for one or more of the
 biostratigraphic zones
- 45

This observed framework requires testing and refinement however due to the uneven 46 47 distribution and paucity of sites. Here we present a comparison and discussion of the pollen-48 stratigraphical and sedimentary results from two new unique Lateglacial and early Holocene sequences in SE England: Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B, which are integrated with data 49 from Elstead Bog (Carpenter and Woodcock, 1981; Farr, 2008), other sites in SE England 50 (Figure 1) and more widely in Britain and NW Europe. These two sites develop our 51 52 knowledge on the nature of vegetation succession, and temporal variability in vegetation 53 dynamics, during the Lateglacial and early Holocene, and provide an opportunity to 54 contribute to current debates about vegetation change as a response to known periods of abrupt climate change and human activity (Barton and Roberts, 2004; Barton, 2009; 55 56 Rasmussen et al., 2014).

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Figure 1. Location map of the two study sites and other key palaeoenvironmental sites in SEEngland.

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1.1. The sites: Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B

62 Langshot Bog (Figure 1) is located on the southern side of Chobham Common (51° 21' 43.0"N 00° 35' 53.2"W; elevation: c. 30m a.s.l.) and is a 0.12km² area of superficial peat, 63 situated on the Bracklesham Group. Chobham Common is a large expanse of heathland in 64 Surrey and is the largest National Nature Reserve in SE England, managed by the Surrey 65 Wildlife Trust. On Langshot Bog, species of Sphagnum occupy the bog surface (Sphagnum 66 compactum, S. papillosum, S. recurvum and S. palustre) alongside other plants such as 67 Drosera rotundifolia, Narthecium ossifragum, Eriophorum angustifolium, Osmunda regalis, 68 69 and Gentiana pneumonanthe. Much of the bog surface is wooded, with Betula pubescens 70 and Alnus glutinosa the dominant tree taxa. The modern-day vegetation across the Common

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- itself is dominated by *Calluna vulgaris, Erica cinerea,* and *Ulex minor* (plant nomenclature
 follows the flora of the British Isles Stace (2010)).
- 73
- Figure 2. The location of Langshot Bog highlighting the coring transects and sampling location

Elstead Bog B (Figure 1) is a ~0.003km² peat basin located within pine woodland in Surrey 76 77 (51° 10' 18.3"N 00° 43' 00.6"W; elevation: c. 52m a.s.l.), situated on gently downward sloping ground towards the Wey Valley to the north, with the ground rising steeply to the 78 79 south. The site is nearby to the previously investigated Elstead Bog (Seagrief and Godwin, 1960; Carpenter and Woodcock, 1981; Farr, 2008). The underlying geology is well sorted 80 Folkestone Bed sands of the Lower Greensand (Carpenter and Woodcock, 1981). Soils are 81 thin and podzolised, immediately resting on the Lower Greensand. Bog surface vegetation is 82 dominated by Molinia caerulea and Sphagnum (Sphagnum compactum, S. papillosum, S. 83 recurvum, and S. palustre), with Betula pubescens on stable areas. Around the bog margins, 84 Calluna vulgaris and Erica tetralix prevail, with Pinus sylvestris in the wider woodland. 85

86

Figure 3. The location of Elstead Bog B showing the coring transects and the site of Elstead
Bog

89

90 2. Methods

91 A stratigraphic coring survey was used to understand the size and shape of the two sites. At 92 Langshot Bog, two transects, running east-west, and north-south, were sampled at 20m intervals, which resulted in 9 cores running west to east, and 13 cores running south to north 93 94 (Figure 2). Cores were extracted until the corer hit sandy Bracklesham group sediments, 95 identified within sediments in the base of each core, or observed whilst coring. At Elstead 96 Bog B an east to west transect of 9 boreholes (5 metre spacing) and a north to south 97 transect of 11 boreholes (10 metre spacing) cored down to the parent material, the Sandgate Formation (Figure 3). The deepest surveyed points were used as master coring locations. All 98

99 cores were collected using a Russian corer (or D-section corer), a hand coring device that 100 cuts an undisturbed 500mm x 50mm section of core, a method widely used in 101 palaeoenvironmental sampling because of the high quality of extracted sample (Moore et al., 102 1991) and the speed and ease of operation (Jowsey, 1966). At each site, two boreholes, 103 situated no more than 30cm apart, allowed for each core section to have an overlap of 104 10cm, and meant there was no disturbance of lower samples. Cores for further analysis were wrapped in rigid plastic downpipe and kept in cold storage (<4°C) at the University of 105 106 Reading. Core stratigraphy was described by reference to the Troels-Smith classification 107 scheme (Troels-Smith, 1955). Colour was noted from a Munsell Colour Chart and determination of organic content by loss-on-ignition (Bengtsson and Enell, 1986). 108

109

The alkali-soluble ('humic acid') and alkali- and acid-insoluble ('humin') fractions of bulk peat 110 111 samples taken from above and below lithostratigraphic and biostratigraphic unit boundaries were dated by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) at the Scottish Universities 112 Environmental Research Centre (SUERC) and ¹⁴CHRONO centre, Queen's University 113 Belfast. The samples dated at Queen's University Belfast were pre-treated and measured 114 115 following the methods described in Reimer et al. (2015). Despite six attempts trying both hydrogen reduction (four times), and zinc reduction (twice) the humin sample (UBA-26775) 116 from Langshot Bog (137–138cm) failed to graphitise. Usually a sample fails to graphitise due 117 to a higher than normal sulphur content and thus the laboratory increased the amount of 118 119 silver present in the combustion tube but unfortunately this failed. Subsequent analysis of 120 the sediment from this portion of the core identified very high concentrations of pyrite (FeS₂). Pyrite releases sulphur oxides when combusted which can hamper the reduction of carbon 121 122 dioxide to graphite (Proske et al., 2015).

123

The samples dated at SUERC were pre-treated using methods outlined in Stenhouse and
Baxter (1981), combusted following Vandeputte et al. (1996), graphitised as described by
Slota et al. (1987), and measured by AMS (Freeman et al., 2010). Internal quality assurance

127 procedures and international inter-comparisons (Scott, 2003; Scott et al., 2010) indicate no 128 laboratory offsets and validate the measurement precision quoted. Details of the dated 129 samples, radiocarbon ages, and associated stable isotopic measurements are provided in 130 Tables 2-3. The radiocarbon results are conventional radiocarbon ages (Stuiver and Polach, 131 1977). A weighted mean (Ward and Wilson, 1978) has been taken as providing the best 132 estimate for the age of formation of the dated horizons (Tables 2–3) before inclusion in the age-depth model. The age-depth model (Figure 5) has been constructed using the program 133 134 OxCal v4.2 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009; Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) and the atmospheric 135 calibration curve for the northern hemisphere published by Reimer et al. (2013). The P_Sequence Poisson process model (Bronk Ramsey, 2008) employs a variable k parameter 136 (Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) with the overall age-depth model defined as P_Sequence 137 (1,1,U(-2,2)), with k_0 (the base k parameter) =1cm⁻¹, the interpolation rate = 1cm⁻¹ (output 138 139 from the model given every 1cm), and variability in k allowed between a factor of 10^{-2} and 10². 140

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Sub-samples for pollen analysis were derived from a 1cm³ volumetric sampler (Bennett and 142 143 Willis, 2002). At Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B, sampling at an interval of 2cm provided a very high-resolution vegetation record in respect to core length. At Langshot Bog this 144 equated to an average time-depth resolution of 50 years per sample (25 years cm⁻¹). 145 Samples were prepared for pollen analysis with the addition of the exotic pollen marker 146 147 Lycopodium (Stockmarr, 1971) and then underwent heavy liquid flotation (Branch et al., 148 2005). Acetolysis removed extraneous organic matter (Moore et al., 1991). A Leica DME microscope at ×400 and oil immersion ×1000 magnification was used for all identifications. 149 150 Identification involved the use of the University of Reading reference collection and pollen 151 keys (Moore et al., 1991; Reille, 1995), and pollen nomenclature follows Moore (et al. 1991). Pollen percentage values were calculated in Tilia version 1.7.16 (Grimm, 2011) based upon 152 a pollen sum of ~300 total land pollen (TLP). This count excluded aquatic species and 153 154 spores; subsequently calculated as a percentage of their totals + TLP. Microscopic charred

155 particles were recorded quantitatively using a modified method from Robinson (1984) where 156 MCP were counted relative to the trees, shrub and herb pollen count at the same time as 157 pollen grains (Simmons and Innes, 1996; Innes et al., 2004; Innes et al., 2010). Different 158 size classes for the charcoal were not implemented, due to the potential for fragmentation 159 during the pollen preparation process, potentially artificially increasing charcoal counts in 160 small size classes (Innes et al., 2004; Innes et al., 2010). Tilia.graph (Grimm, 2011) was used to draw pollen diagrams, and constrained incremental sum of squares clustering 161 162 (CONISS) was used to help divide the percentage pollen diagram into a number of local 163 pollen assemblage zones (Grimm, 1987). Pollen influx values were calculated for the Langshot Bog sequence, based upon the pollen concentration (grains cm⁻³) and deposition 164 time (years cm⁻¹). Values are expressed as a pollen deposition rate (grains cm⁻²year⁻¹) and 165 represent the number of grains incorporated into the unit area of sediment each year. 166

167

168 Samples for stable isotope analysis (δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H) were extracted at the same locations as the pollen samples from the Langshot Bog sequence. Individual culm and leaf macrofossils 169 of Carex were extracted from the core and checked under a Leica S6D zoom-stereo 170 171 microscope at x10 magnification to ensure homogeneity throughout the sequence. These leaf macrofossil samples were dried and weighed into silver capsules and analysed for $\delta^2 H$ 172 and δ^{18} O on a Thermo-Fisher Delta V Advantage IRMS fitted with a TC Flash EA at the 173 University of Reading in the Chemical Analytical Facility. The IRMS data was corrected for 174 both drift and stretch corrections using international standards following blank corrections 175 (Eley et al., 2014). Precision on independent standards run alongside the unknown samples 176 was ±0.15‰ for δ^{18} O and 1.58‰ for δ^{2} H. 177

178

179 **3. Results**

180 **3.1. Langshot Bog: Lithostratigraphy, chronology and stable isotopes**

The transect survey at Langshot Bog indicates that the unconsolidated sediments running east–west have a depth of 150–210cm. The north–south sequence has an undulating profile of shallow and deeper cores up to 242cm in depth. The deepest location on this north–south transect (51° 21' 43.0"N 00° 35' 53.2"W) was chosen as the master core sequence for Langshot Bog (Figure 4).

186

187 Figure 4. Stratigraphic results from the two Langshot Bog transects.

188

The sediments at the base of the sequence (unit 1) are sand-rich, representing the local 189 Bracklesham geology at the site, with low organic matter values (~40%). Organic sediment 190 accumulation (unit 2) started prior to 12,570–11,910 cal. BP (95% probability¹, LB1/2, Figure 191 5) and lake sediment has been observed at the base of other sequences from the site, 192 immediately overlying the Bracklesham Beds. Palaeo-hydrological studies often interpret 193 shifts in sedimentary organic matter $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{18} O$ values in terms of palaeo-precipitation 194 (Pagani et al., 2006; Schefuß et al., 2011; Magill et al., 2013). This relies on the assumption 195 that any temporal change in the isotopic composition of plant $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{18} O$ values of the 196 197 sedimentary archives reflects shifts in the isotopic composition of source water through time 198 (Leider et al., 2013). The trends observed within the Langshot Bog isotopic data appear to show that the δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H records are not synchronous and are decoupled, matching 199 trends observed previously in other stable-isotope studies (Eley et al., 2014) where the $\delta^2 H$ 200 data reflects the plant community, whilst a climatic signal is provided by the δ^{18} O data. 201 202 During this period of peat formation, it is likely that small pools were present across the site 203 occupying natural hollows in an undulating sandy land surface. A short period of decreasing evaporation (as indicated by depleted δ^{18} O values) may indicate slightly drier conditions to 204

^{1 1} Highest Posterior Density intervals which describe the posterior distributions derived from age-depth modelling are given in italics (and quoted at 95% probability) to distinguish them from simple calibrated dates that are given in plain text (and are quoted at 2σ).

allow peat formation to begin, although the low humification of the peat in this unit suggeststhat the bog surface was still relatively wet.

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208

209 Peat formation continued in unit 3 until 12,010-11,640 cal. BP (95% probability, LB2/3, 210 Figure 5). Shallow bog pools and wet peaty conditions were present at this point. The wet bog surface conditions indicated by the vegetation community correlate with the isotope 211 212 records through this period (Figure 6), which indicate a marked shift to wetter conditions 213 (depleted δ^2 H) with increased evaporation (enhanced δ^{18} O). A small influx of sands and silts in units 2 and 3 are thought to represent in-washing from the higher elevated slopes around 214 the edge of the basin, potentially caused by strong storm events, corresponding with wetter 215 conditions or a loss of surface vegetation. An increase of trees on the surface of the bog 216 217 (unit 4) from 12,010–11,640 cal. BP (95% probability, LB2/3, Figure 5), suggested from wood peat (unidentified) found within this unit, correlates with a distinctive shift in the $\delta^{18}O$ 218 values indicating lower levels of evaporation. This may be a response to an early Holocene 219 drying out of the surface of the bog. A period of relatively stable peat accumulation then 220 221 continues from the onset of the Holocene until 9790-9470 cal. BP (95% probability, 96cm, Figure 5). During this time, localized changes in wetness are highlighted within the isotope 222 data, which shows a period of instability, with overall trends indicating increased evaporation 223 and slightly wetter conditions as this unit progresses. Two events within this period of 224 225 instability stand out, with decreased evaporation at 11,350-10,715 cal. BP (95% probability, 226 162cm, Figure 5) and at 10,850-10,520 cal. BP (95% probability, 140cm, Figure 5), although any response from the vegetation (δ^2 H values) appears muted. An increase in humification 227 228 in unit 5, aligned with an increase in Substantia humosa, indicates a further drying out of the 229 bog surface from 9790-9470 cal. BP (95% probability, 96cm, Figure 5) to 8430-8350 cal. *BP* (95% probability, wm65, Figure 5). The δ^2 H record identifies a broad drying trend, 230 alongside a reduced amount of evaporation suggested by the δ^{18} O profile. An increase in 231 232 mineral influx and decline in organic matter is attributed to an increase in burning events

(Figure 6), causing increased runoff and in-washing of mineral matter into the basin. A hiatus
in the sedimentary record is identified between units 5 and 7, thought to have occurred from *8430–8350 cal. BP* (*95% probability, wm65,* Figure 5) (unit 6), where there is a large influx of
mineral material.

Figure 5. Bayesian age-depth model of the chronology of the sediment sequence at Langshot Bog (P_Sequence model (k=0.01–100); Bronk Ramsey 2008). For each of the radiocarbon dates two distributions have been plotted: one in outline, which is the result of simple calibration, and a solid one, which is based on the chronological model used. Figures in brackets after the sample numbers are the individual indices of agreement which provide an indication of the consistency of the radiocarbon dates with the prior information included in the model (Bronk Ramsey, 1995).

244

Table 2. Radiocarbon dates from Langshot Bog. Replicate measurements have been tested for statistical consistency and combined by taking a weighted mean before calibration as described by Ward & Wilson (1978; T'(5%)=3.8, v=1).

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Figure 6. Composite stratigraphy, isotopic results, and age-depth model for Langshot Bog.

3.2. Langshot Bog: Pollen Stratigraphy

The Lateglacial at Langshot Bog (Figure 7: Local Pollen Zone (LB-1)) shows vegetation

253 indicative of a cold, tundra-style landscape of shrubland and short turf grassland with

254 Ericaceae and Cyperaceae. It was species-poor with natural burning events and

characterised by a very sparse scrubby scatter of *Betula* and *Juniperus* type. These species

are cold tolerant, which is important as this zone can be chronologically correlated with the

start of the Loch Lomond Stadial (Walker et al., 1994), dating from 13,210–12,430 cal. BP

258 (95% probability, 241cm, Figure 8) to 12,570–11,910 cal. BP (95% probability, LB1/2, Figure

8). Ericaceae is present due to its ability to regenerate after fires (Averis, 2013), which based

260 on the charcoal record would have been regular occurrences throughout this period. Regular

261 fires have been observed at other sites in the UK and NW Europe during the last Glacial

262 period (Kolstrup, 1992; Edwards et al., 2000) although understanding their onset has been

263 difficult, a point explored further in the discussion. Ericaceae, and *Betula*, are resistant to

wind exposure and are likely to indicate the presence of small heathland patches as

observed elsewhere in the UK (Bennett, 1983; Walker et al., 2003). *Juniperus* type colonises
unstable ground surfaces and can survive in poor soils with low nutrient content (Averis,
2013). The low percentages (predominantly <5%) suggest that dwarf *Juniperus* type was
present, and alongside *Artemisia* indicate year-round temperatures would have been
relatively cold (Kolstrup, 1980). *Pinus* might have been present on both drier and wetter soils
but the low influx values (Figure 9) may also indicate long distance pollen transport.

271

272 Figure 7. Langshot Bog, Chobham Common: pollen percentage diagram.

273

274 LB-2 is a similar tundra-style vegetation mosaic, and the dating has enabled correlation with the mid-late Loch Lomond Stadial: 12,570-11,910 cal. BP (95% probability, LB1/2, Figure 8) 275 276 to 12,010-11.640 cal. BP (95% probability, LB2/3, Figure 8). A consistent influx of Salix suggests it is underrepresented in the pollen percentage data and that it would have formed 277 278 a component of the local woodland cover, around the wetland margins. The relatively open 279 landscape present at this time suggests that Salix and Betula are likely to have been dwarf 280 species, with both Betula nana and Salix herbacea identified in British Lateglacial contexts 281 (Blackburn, 1952; Birks, 1965; Beerling, 1998). There was no attempt to do size frequency 282 measurements on the Betula (Birks, 1968), as no distinct difference was observed and 283 therefore, we cannot be definitive about the Betula species present during this time. Juniperus type increases, potentially due to a reduction in burning, and there is a small 284 285 expansion of various herbaceous taxa, including Filipendula and Poaceae, which could quickly colonise bare ground on the wetland margin along with Artemisia. An increase in the 286 pollen influx of Equisetum, Sphagnum and Typha latifolia in this zone represents the growth 287 of these species in small pools or damp areas of this undulating landscape. 288

289

The end of the stadial is indicated by a rise in *Betula* from *12,010–11,640 cal. BP* (*95% probability, LB2/3,* Figure 8), and a decline in *Juniperus* type and Cyperaceae (LB-3). A transition from *Betula*-dominated to *Pinus/Betula* woodland occurs during the very early 293 Holocene at 11,810-11,150 cal. BP (95% probability, LB3/4, Figure 8), and represented a 294 period of drier bog surface conditions as Sphagnum declines (LB-4). At this time, woodland 295 began to expand in the local area, indicated by an increase in the total tree pollen sum and 296 tree pollen influx data (Figure 13). Although *Pinus* appears dominant, the influx data (Figure 297 9) indicates Betula did not decline as rapidly as the percentage data implies. This mixed 298 Pinus/Betula woodland lasts until 10,440-10,230 cal. BP (95% probability, LB4/5, Figure 8) 299 and was dense, due to a lack of an herbaceous understory, with woodland also present on 300 drier parts of the bog itself. A small increase in Corylus across LB-4 indicates continued 301 warming of the climate in the early Holocene (Birks, 1989) as Corylus prefers warmer conditions, extended growth seasons and a less variable climate (Tallantire, 2002). 302 However, the very low pollen influx values indicate these are either scattered trees rather 303 304 than Corylus woodland or indicate long-distance transport of Corylus pollen.

305

Figure 8. Probability distributions of key events from Langshot Bog (derived from the age depth model described in Figure 5) and their relationship to key climatic events.

309 As temperatures warm during the early Holocene (Davis et al., 2003), thermophilous species are observed in abundance in LB-5 from 10,440-10,230 cal. BP (95% probability, LB4/5, 310 Figure 8). Corylus rapidly expands at this point, along with the arrival of Ulmus, potentially 311 indicating a reduction in precipitation (Hall, 1978). A rapid decline in the influx of *Pinus* pollen 312 indicates an inability to compete with newly arriving species (Birks, 1989). An increase in 313 microscopic charcoal could be evidence for human induced woodland clearance, potentially 314 for attracting animals to the water source, although drier conditions would also have led to 315 an increased chance of natural burning events. A sustained increase in Calluna vulgaris 316 317 suggests small heathland areas may have been present in the landscape. Although present in small amounts in LB-5, Quercus expands slightly later than the other thermophilous taxa, 318 at the start of LB-6, from 9540-9480 cal. BP (95% probability, wm95; Figure 8). Additionally 319 320 during LB-6, Corylus started to form the understorey vegetation (Godwin, 1975) as the

321 canopy of the deciduous woodland grew denser. An increase in humification, aligned with an 322 increase in Substantia humosa, indicates a drying of the bog surface, supported by enhanced δ^{18} O values representing increased evaporation. An increase in Poaceae as well 323 as the presence of other herbaceous (Plantago media/major) and shrub (Ericaceae, Calluna 324 vulgaris) species suggests the continued development of clearings within the woodland, 325 326 although it is not known whether these clearings were permanent or intermittent in nature. 327 Burning events increased and could be due to either anthropogenic or natural causes, 328 although the increase in Poaceae and relative stability of many arboreal species may 329 indicate selective burning of woodland species to create cleared areas, likely helped by, or 330 focused around the fall of senescent trees. The mixed open deciduous woodland remains 331 established until 8430-8350 cal. BP (95% probability, wm65, Figure 8). The subsequent 332 hiatus means timings past this point are uncertain and zones LB-7, 8, and 9 are not discussed further. 333

334

Figure 9. Langshot Bog, Chobham Common: selected pollen taxa influx.

337 **3.3. Elstead Bog B: Lithostratigraphy and chronology**

Two transects helped understand the morphological characteristics of the basin at Elstead 338 Bog B and a 221cm core was extracted at their crossover point (51° 10' 18.3"N 00° 43' 339 340 00.6"W); which is the deepest part of the basin (Figure 10). The core consists of 32 separate lithological units (Figure 11). Three radiocarbon determinations were obtained from the 341 Elstead Bog B core (Figure 11) with the samples taken from locations in the core where LOI 342 indicated high organic matter content (>10%), however, no age-depth model could be 343 344 created for the sequence (Simmonds, 2017, 261–262). An 8410–8915 year interval (95% 345 probability) between the dates at 168–169cm and 138–139cm suggests the existence of a hiatus in the sequence, tentatively placed at 158cm due to a large reduction in organic 346 matter and corresponding lithological shift at this depth. The age of the sample at 168-347 169cm, 11,820–11,400 cal. BP (WM-168, 2σ), indicates that there are early Holocene, and 348

- 349 potentially Lateglacial, deposits surviving. The presence of the hiatus at 158cm means
- discussion will be focused on material below this level. Due to the low organic matter content
- 351 of the material at the base of the sequence no further samples were submitted for
- 352 radiocarbon dating.
- 353
- Figure 10. Stratigraphic results from the two transects at Elstead Bog B.
- 355

Table 3. Radiocarbon dates from Elstead Bog B. Replicate measurements have been tested for statistical consistency and combined by taking a weighted mean before calibration as described by Ward & Wilson (1978; T'(5%)=3.8, v=1), except for those in bold that are not consistent at the 5% level.

- 360
- 361 The basal lithostratigraphic units (1–4) of fine and coarse sands indicate the bedrock
- 362 geology of the Lower Greensand (Gallois, 1965). Organic matter and organic lake sediment
- 363 (units 5 and 7) are interspersed with sand (units 6, 8, and 9), potentially at a time when there
- 364 was a slight destabilisation of the slopes on the edges of the bog, either through increased
- 365 storminess or changes in vegetation cover (Orme et al., 2016). A period of lake
- sedimentation is observed (units 10–13) and continued until the transition from the
- 367 Lateglacial to the early Holocene. High values of *Potamogeton* subgenus *Potamogeton* type
- at this time suggest a small pool of still or slow flowing water (Fitter, 1987). A gradual shift
- 369 from Potamogeton subgenus Potamogeton type to Myriophyllum alterniflorium suggests a
- slight shallowing and infilling of this pool towards the onset of the Holocene (Fitter, 1987).
- The beginning of the Holocene (units 14–18) is characterised by an increase in herbaceous
- 372 peat growth. *Sparganium* would have grown in the shallow water margins of the water body
- 373 (Cook, 1961), and its presence indicates a reduction in the size of the pool and the gradual
- development of peat encroaching from the margins.
- 375
- 376 Figure 11. Elstead Bog B: stratigraphy, organic matter, and radiocarbon dates.
- 377

378 **3.4. Elstead Bog B: Pollen Stratigraphy**

379 The Lateglacial vegetation record from Elstead Bog B (EBB-1) indicates a cold, open 380 landscape (Figure 12). Salix and Alnus would have been present on moist to wet ground 381 with *Pinus* and *Betula* present across a range of soil types. As suggested at Langshot Bog, 382 Salix and Betula may have been dwarf species. Ericaceae would have been present on 383 moist slopes, present here due to its ability to regenerate after fire events. Herbaceous taxa 384 Ranunculus type, Poaceae and Artemisia would have been scattered across disturbed parts 385 of the landscape (Clapham et al., 1987; Averis, 2013). During EBB-2, high values of 386 Potamogeton subgenus Potamogeton type suggest a body of still or slow flowing water (Fitter, 1987) with Cyperaceae on the edges of this water body (Chapin and Chapin, 1980). 387 The dry-ground flora remains relatively consistent with the most significant development 388 389 being the arrival of Juniperus type, suggesting lower year-round temperatures. The 390 radiocarbon chronology suggests that EBB-1 and EBB-2 may be correlated to the onset of the Loch Lomond Stadial, with both a lowering of temperatures and increased precipitation 391 (Lowe and Walker, 2015). In EBB-3, the relatively high Juniperus type values suggest that 392 the climate was still cold (Rawat and Everson, 2012), and the landscape continued to be 393 394 relatively species poor. Calluna vulgaris represents a scrubby heathland element and has previously been identified in Late Devensian Lateglacial records (Godwin, 1975). High levels 395 of Poaceae, Cyperaceae and Rumex undiff. suggest that disturbed open ground is present 396 (Pennington et al., 1977), with a shift from Potamogeton subgenus Potamogeton type to 397 398 *Myriophyllum alterniflorium* indicative of shallowing of the water body because of warming at 399 the end of the Lateglacial.

400

A rapid increase in *Betula* is observed at the transition from the Lateglacial to the Holocene at 11,820–11,400 cal. BP (WM-168; 2σ) at Elstead Bog B (Figure 12). As the climate began to ameliorate pioneering taxa such as *Betula* and *Pinus* would have formed woodland (Bennett, 1983; Birks, 1989). *Salix* would have been present in wetter areas (Averis, 2013), and *Equisetum* and *Sparganium erectum* would also have grown in damp shallow water margins of the lake (Cook, 1961; Clapham et al., 1987). Their presence indicates a reduction
in the size of the water body and the gradual encroachment of peat. The decline in Poaceae,
Cyperaceae and other herbaceous taxa suggests that the woodland was closed with little or
no understorey (Godwin, 1975).

410

411 Figure 12. Elstead Bog B: Pollen percentage diagram.

412

413 **4. Discussion**

Contextualising these two new palaeoenvironmental records in their contemporary
timescape (Figure 13) helps develop our understanding of sedimentary history, vegetation
succession, climatic change and human activity during the Lateglacial and early Holocene in
both SE England and more widely across NW Europe.

418

Both Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B formed as small pools within hollows in the naturally 419 undulating sandy Bracklesham Beds and Lower Greensand, respectively. A lack of ramparts 420 suggest these sites were not formed from the collapse of cryogenic mounds (pingos), as 421 422 thought to be the case at Elstead Bog (Carpenter and Woodcock, 1981). Unusually, the radiocarbon dated sedimentary records indicate that the onset of organic sedimentation at 423 both sites occurred during the Late Devensian Lateglacial and can be chronologically 424 425 correlated with the Loch Lomond Stadial. This indicates that there was sufficient vegetation 426 and low levels of landscape erosion permitting organic sedimentation. Importantly, this is in 427 contrast to records from the north and west of Britain where sediments are often highly mineral rich, with no organic component, such as at Mill House 1, The Flasks 69 (Innes et 428 al., 2009), Whitrig Bog (Mayle et al., 1997), Llyn Gwernan (Lowe and Lowe, 1989), Llanilid 429 (Walker et al., 2003) and Sluggan Bog (Lowe et al., 2004). At other sites in SE England, 430 431 organic sedimentation started prior to the Loch Lomond Stadial, during the Windemere Interstadial, including those at Holywell Coombe (Preece and Bridgland, 1999). It is unclear 432 why earlier sediments are not present at Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B, but it may be due 433

434 to the survey and sampling strategy, drier climatic conditions preventing sediment 435 accumulation, the absence of impeded drainage (forming a 'closed' basin) until later in the 436 Lateglacial or sediment erosion by fluvial or aeolian processes. These processes could have 437 been exacerbated by climatic fluctuations in the Lateglacial Interstadial, as observed at 438 Holywell Coombe (Preece and Bridgland, 1999). Organic sediment deposition during the 439 Stadial at Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B probably occurred due to a combination of 440 factors, reflecting both regional climatic and geological influences. A warmer climate during 441 the Loch Lomond Stadial in SE England is indicated by molluscan records from Holywell 442 Coombe (Kent) with mean summer temperatures of ~16°C (Rousseau et al., 1998) compared to mean summer temperatures of ~10-11°C at Llanilid (Wales) (Walker et al., 443 2003), 6–7.5°C at Hawes Water (northern England) (Marshall et al., 2002) and ~7.5-9°C at 444 Whitrig Bog (Scotland) (Brooks and Birks, 2000), based upon coleopteran and chironomid 445 446 data. Warmer southern temperatures may have meant a muted response to the reversal to colder climatic conditions, which would mean that erosive processes would not take hold as 447 quickly or as significantly as it did in other areas, where species-poor slopes brought 448 unweathered minerogenic material into the basins (Walker et al., 2003). 449

450

Organic sedimentation during the Loch Lomond Stadial permits a reconstruction of the 451 452 vegetation history during this period, which is unusual in SE England. Significantly, similar successional trends between Elstead Bog B and Langshot Bog, sites over 20km apart, 453 454 suggest these basins provide a coherent regional signal of vegetation history. The two 455 records indicate that herbaceous taxa (Poaceae, Artemisia, Caryophyllaceae) would have 456 been present across much of the open ground with Cyperaceae, Sphagnum, Equisetum and 457 Typha latifolia indicating reed and sedge swamp and small pools at Langshot Bog, whilst 458 Elstead Bog B would have been a small open water body during the Stadial. This 459 herbaceous dominated landscape is consistent with that observed from river valley and coastal wetlands in SE England (Figure 13). There is also evidence for the development of 460 461 patchy heathland, with Ericaceae, Calluna vulgaris and Empetrum nigrum ssp. nigrum type

462 present. Dwarf-shrub heath is found in both low and high arctic vegetation communities (Razzhavin, 2012) and may offer a modern analogue for this landscape. Such a dwarf-shrub 463 464 heathland community is also present locally at Bagshot (Groves, 2008) and Gatcombe Withy 465 Bed (Scaife, 1987), wider afield in Britain at Llanilid (Walker et al., 2003), The Flasks 69 466 (Innes et al., 2009) and is recorded in other north-western Europe pollen diagrams 467 (Verbruggen, 1979; Huntley and Birks, 1983; Bohncke et al., 1988; Walker et al., 1994). The presence of *Empetrum nigrum* ssp. *nigrum* type indicates a cool and cold climate as it (in 468 469 addition to Calluna vulgaris and many Ericaceae species) tolerates windy exposed habitats 470 and cold climatic conditions (Averis, 2013). Arboreal taxa primarily consisted of Betula (potentially the dwarf species Betula nana) with smaller amounts of Pinus, alongside Alnus 471 and Corylus. The presence of Pinus, Alnus and Corylus warrant further examination, as their 472 presence during this period is not universally observed at sites in NW Europe. These 473 474 species may be present in the landscape, or may appear in the record due to contamination, long-distance transport, or reworking of older material (Cundill and Whittington, 1983; 475 Edwards and Whittington, 2010). In this study, contamination is unlikely due to the use of a 476 Russian corer, with material for analysis obtained from the centre of the core. Analysis of a 477 478 pollen trap in the laboratory also indicated that there was no contamination by atmospheric 479 pollen. Reworking of pollen also seems unlikely, as a limited range of unusual taxa are 480 present, with reworking likely to lead to a broader range of anomalous pollen. There were also no obviously deteriorated pollen grains of specific taxa from either site, and these 481 482 species have been identified at other sites in a regional setting. Studies of *Pinus* in 483 Lateglacial contexts in Britain and Scandinavia have highlighted its susceptibility to longdistance pollen transportation (Day, 1996; Barnekow, 1999; Kullman, 2002; Birks et al., 484 485 2005) and without the presence of *Pinus* macrofossils, the exact relationship between long-486 distance transportation and local growth cannot be defined (Birks and Birks, 2000). However, studies have shown that percentage pollen counts of 5% (Bennett, 1995; 487 McGeever and Mitchell, 2016) can to indicate local growth, and in some cases this can be as 488 low as 0.4% (Froyd, 2005). With percentage values around 5% during this period at both 489

490 Elstead Bog B and Langshot Bog, and its identification in Lateglacial deposits at a range of 491 other SE England sites (Figures 13-14) it is likely that there would have been small levels of 492 local growth in sheltered areas, alongside some level of long-distance transportation. The 493 distinct size differentiation in the *Pinus* grains observed at Langshot Bog is thought to relate 494 to natural variations within the pollen morphology. The species is likely to be *Pinus* 495 sylvestris, as it is the only species of Pinus identified in Pleistocene/Holocene Britain 496 (Bennett, 1984), and has a wide variation in total grain size (Desprat et al., 2015). The 497 presence of Alnus at Elstead Bog B highlights its importance in this vegetation community 498 and may have been present at the wetland/dryland interface (The Museum of London, 2000; Figures 13–14). Alnus is now becoming a more established component of the Lateglacial 499 vegetation cover at sites across SE England dating to both the Windermere Interstadial and 500 501 the Loch Lomond Stadial (Figure 14), including at Minchery Farm and Spartum Fen (Parker 502 and Preston, 2014), West Silvertown (Wilkinson et al., 2000), Bramcote Green (Thomas et al., 1996) and Ockley Bog (Simmonds, 2017). Macrofossil records of Alnus have also been 503 identified across Britain from as early as 14,700-14,000 cal. BP at Turker Beck, north-east 504 England (Young et al., In Press), indicating that the presence of Alnus at these sites is not 505 506 solely explained by long-distance transport of Alnus pollen. The presence of Alnus in SE 507 England suggests that microclimates would have been hospitable enough to allow for its 508 survival. This is also indicated by Corylus, present during the Lateglacial at Langshot Bog (>30% probability at c. 12,800 cal. BP: Figure 14) and at the very end of the Loch Lomond 509 510 Stadial at Elstead Bog B (>90% from c. 12,000 cal. BP). Corylus has also been identified 511 during the Loch Lomond Stadial at Minchery Farm and Spartum Fen (Parker and Preston, 2014) and Thursley Bog (Simmonds, 2017). The presence of Corylus is significant because 512 513 although pollen values are relatively low (Figure 14), it may indicate that small stands were 514 able to survive the climatic conditions of the stadial in SE England, and could represent a refugia location for the species in NW Europe. However, it presence during this period has 515 also been attributed to long-distance transport (Birks and Mathewes, 1978), and without the 516 identification of *Corylus* macrofossils in SE England, this could also be applicable here. 517

519 Figure 13. Vegetation synthesis for the Lateglacial and early Holocene period (13,000-8000 520 cal. BP) in SE England. Numbers refer to sites as follows:

LB-Langshot Bog; EBB-Elstead Bog B;1-Ockley Bog (Simmonds, 2017); 2-Thursley 521 Bog (Simmonds, 2017); 3-Bagshot (Groves, 2008); 4-Elstead Bog A (Farr, 2008); 5-522 Bramcote Green (Thomas et al., 1996; Branch and Green, 2004); 6-Nutfield Marsh (Farr, 523 2008); 7-Runnymede Bridge (Scaife, 2000a); 8-Farm Bog (Jennings and Smythe, 2000); 524 9-Holywell Coombe (Preece and Bridgland, 1999); 10-West Silvertown (Branch and 525 526 Lowe, 1994; Wilkinson et al., 2000); 11–Colnbrook (Gibbard and Hall, 1982); 12–New Ford Road (Corcoran et al., 2011); 13-Meridian Point (Corcoran et al., 2011); 14-Spartum Fen 527 (Parker and Preston, 2014); 15–Northmoor (Shotton et al., 1970); 16–Standlake (Sandford, 528 1965); 17–Queenborough (Pratt et al., 2003); 18–Munsley Peat bed (Scaife, 1980, 1982); 529 19-Intertidal peats in Hampshire (Long et al., 2000); 20-The Isle of Wight (Scaife, 1987); 530 21-Bouldnor Cliff (Momber et al., 2011); 22-Borthwood Farm (Scaife, 1987); 23-531 Yarmouth Marsh (Scaife, Unpublished-b); 24-Panel Bridge (Waller, 1993); 25-Enfield 532 Lock (Chambers et al., 1996); 26–Cothill (Day, 1991); 27–Farlington Marsh (Scaife, 533 2000b); 28–The Lower Brede and Tillingham (Waller and Long, 2010); 29–West Quay 534 535 Road (Godwin, 1940; Nicholls and Scaife, 2008); 30-George V Docks (Godwin, 1940); 31-Portsmouth Harbour (Godwin, 1945; Nicholls and Scaife, 2008); 32-London Cable Car 536 (Batchelor et al., 2015); 33-Fleet and Rownhams (Scaife, Unpublished-a); 34-New Pond 537 (Scaife, 2001); 35-Newbury Sewage Works (Carter, 2001; Chisham, 2004); 36-538 Woolhampton (Carter, 2001; Chisham, 2004); 37-Thatcham Reedbeds (Carter, 2001; 539 Chisham, 2004); 38-Minchery Farm (Parker, 2000); 39-Cranes Moor (Barber and Clark, 540 1987); 40–Church Moor (Barber and Clark, 1987); 41–Warwick Slade Bog (Barber and 541 Clark, 1987); 42–Wateringbury (Kerney et al., 1980; Garnett et al., 2004); 43–Stonehenge 542 543 (Scaife, 1995); 44–Durrington (French et al., 2012); 45–Chatham Dockyard and the Medway Tunnel (Scaife, Unpublished-c); 46-Eton Rowing Lake (Parker and Robinson, 544 2003); 47-Uxbridge (Wessex Archaeology, 2006); 48-Riverside Way (Wessex 545 Archaeology, 2006); 49-Ferry Lane (Scaife, 2004); 50-Three Ways Wharf (Lewis, 1991; 546 547 Lewis et al., 1992; Lewis and Rackham, 2011); 51-Lewes I and II (Waller and Hamilton, 2000; Waller and Long, 2010); 52-Ufton Green (Chisham, 2004). 548 549

550

551 During the Loch Lomond Stadial, the presence of micro-charcoal has provided a record of

- regional burning at both Elstead Bog B pre 11,820–11,400 cal. BP (WM-168, 2σ) and
- Langshot Bog from 13,210–12,430 cal. BP (95% probability, Start of Sequence, Figure 8),
- although a large decline is recorded at the start of the Loch Lomond Stadial from Langshot
- 555 Bog at *12,940–12,420 cal. BP* (*95% probability, 236cm*; Figure 5). Burning is observed
- across NW Europe, in Scotland (Edwards et al., 2000) and Denmark (Kolstrup, 1992) where
- 557 multi-causal models have been suggested for these fires, Including aridity, anthropogenic

558 activity and taphonomic processes due to a lack of data highlighting a single cause. Across 559 SE England during the Lateglacial; at Minchery Farm (Parker and Preston, 2014) burning 560 was attributed to lightning strikes, and at Holywell Coombe it was similarly identified as the 561 product of natural, local fires (Preece and Bridgland, 1999). In both cases the fires were 562 attributed to natural causes due to a paucity of regional archaeological evidence, as is also 563 thought to be the case at Elstead Bog B and Langshot Bog. Evidence for the natural occurrence of wildfires in tundra-style ecosystems has been observed from modern studies 564 565 (Gowlett, 2016), and the decreasing frequency of fires at Langshot Bog during the Loch 566 Lomond Stadial is attributed to declining summer temperatures (Wein, 1976; Racine et al., 1985), and may also reflect changes in fuel availability as woodland declined. These burning 567 events are significant, because burning in modern tundra ecosystems has shown that post-568 fire soils can be 1–4°C warmer, with a deeper active layer than unburned soil (Rocha and 569 570 Shaver, 2011), possibly creating improved growing conditions for warmth loving anomalous taxa, such as Corylus and Alnus. 571

572

Figure 14. Schematic diagram showing the presence of selected taxa (Pinus, Alnus and
Corylus) and the timing of their first sustained presence in inland SE England. Pinus values
of less than 5% are not shown due to the long-distance transport of Pinus pollen.

577 The onset of the Holocene at 11,700 cal. BP (Walker et al., 2012) is marked by a rapid increase in *Betula* woodland, and low levels of other arboreal taxa including *Juniperus* type, 578 Salix, Pinus, Corylus and Carpinus type at Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B. A decline in 579 herbaceous and heathland taxa are thought to be related to the reduced amount of light 580 581 penetrating a denser *Betula* dominated canopy. Climatic warming at the start of the Holocene was rapid, with a rise in mean annual temperatures of 1.7–2.8°C per 100 years 582 (Lowe and Walker, 2015) and in SE England, mean summer temperatures could have 583 increased by up to 7.5°C in comparison to the Loch Lomond Stadial (Coope et al., 1998). 584 The isotopic data from Langshot Bog indicates that after the initial early Holocene shift to 585

warmer conditions, with lower levels of evaporation, there was a prolonged period of 586 587 climatic instability lasting until 9790-9470 cal. BP (95% probability, 96cm, Figure 5) as woodland expansion continued, and herbaceous taxa declined. Due to the truncated 588 589 sequence at Elstead Bog B, similar trends to that observed at Langshot Bog, such as this woodland expansion, are only observed in the record from Elstead Bog (Farr, 2008; Figure 590 591 15). Comparable vegetation trends, with a decline in herbaceous taxa alongside the dominance of Betula and Pinus woodland are also observed at Panel Bridge (Waller, 1993), 592 Holywell Coombe (Kerney et al., 1980; Preece and Bridgland, 1998), and Wateringbury 593 (Kerney et al., 1980), as well as many of the sites on the Hampshire Coast (Figure 13). 594

595

596 Two potential climatic events were identified in the early Holocene from the δ^{18} O isotopic data at Langshot Bog. The 11,350-10,715 cal. BP (95% probability, 162cm, Figure 5) period 597 of decreased evaporation may relate to the Pre Boreal Oscillation (PBO) at 11,300–11,150 598 599 cal. BP (Björck et al., 1997) or ice rafted debris (IRD) event 8 (11,100 years BP) (Bond et al., 600 1997). Large-scale syntheses highlight a variable vegetation response to the PBO event 601 around the Nordic Seas (Björck et al., 1997) and evidence for early Holocene IRD Events 602 (Bond et al., 1997) are also variable both within SE England and around the Atlantic fringe of 603 Europe (Wilkinson et al., 2000; Whittington et al., 2003; Garnett et al., 2004; Farr, 2008; 604 Groves, 2008; Ghilardi and O'Connell, 2013), related to a paucity of (continuous) records, a 605 lack of multi-proxy studies and poor sediment deposition rates. However, some evidence is 606 observed in north-west Europe for either the PBO or the 11,100 years BP event from oxygen 607 isotope values of Lough Inchiquin, Ireland (Diefendorf et al., 2006) and Crudale Meadow (Whittington et al., 2015), tufa at Wateringbury (Garnett et al., 2004) and from Hawes Water 608 at both 11,400 cal. BP and 11,200 cal. BP (Lang et al., 2010). At Kingbeekdal in The 609 Netherlands, cooling is identified between 11,400 and 11,300 cal. BP in both oxygen 610 isotopes and the pollen record, with a decrease in Betula and subsequent opening of the 611 612 woodland (Bohncke and Hoek, 2007). The second period of decreased evaporation, dated

613 to 10,850-10,520 cal. BP (95% probability, 140cm, Figure 5) does not appear to tie in with 614 IRD Event 7 (10,300 years BP) (Bond et al. 1997) but lower temperatures (based on 615 chironomid data) are observed from 10,400 cal. BP at Hawes Water (Lang et al., 2010). 616 Cooler, moister and less seasonal conditions observed from lake records in the Faroe 617 Islands at 10,600, 10,450 and 10,300 cal. BP (Hannon et al., 2003; Andresen et al., 2007) 618 and an advance in glacier limits was also observed in Western Norway, dated to 10,235 cal. 619 BP (Nesje et al., 2004). These studies all serve to highlight widespread climatic instability 620 across a broad period. Identifying these events at Langshot Bog through the isotopic data is 621 significant, as neither period of climatic instability appears clearly in either in the pollen record or δ^2 H values, although general climatic instability could have assisted the 622 widespread Pinus woodland development during this period. These results suggest that 623 624 there may have been a climatic downturn at Langshot Bog around both the PBO and 625 10,850-10,520 cal. BP (95% probability, 140cm, Figure 5), but the magnitude or duration of either event was not enough to trigger widespread vegetation change. 626

627

Figure 15. Elstead Bog: selected taxa percentage pollen diagram, after Farr (2008).

The sporadic occurrence of Corylus, during the Late Glacial and Early Holocene, alongside 630 both coniferous (*Pinus*) and deciduous (*Betula*) taxa, may indicate the presence of brown 631 632 earth soils, able to support this mixed woodland. This woodland continued at Langshot Bog 633 until 10,440-10,230 cal. BP (95% probability, LB4/5, Figure 8) and represents a pattern observed across SE England (Chambers et al., 1996; Preece and Bridgland, 1999; Scaife, 634 635 2001; Corcoran et al., 2011). From this time onwards, the records from Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog indicate woodland diversification: the colonisation of thermophilous species, 636 specifically the rapid expansion of Corylus, followed by Ulmus and Quercus and a reduction 637 638 in *Pinus* due to increased competition from deciduous trees. This pattern is recorded at inland and coastal wetlands in SE England including Wateringbury (Kerney et al., 1980), 639 Holywell Coombe (Kerney et al., 1980; Preece and Bridgland, 1998), Lewes I and II 640

(Thorley, 1981), Panel Bridge (Waller, 1993), Brede Bridge (Waller and Marlow, 1994),
Horsemarsh Sewer (Waller et al., 1999), Mount Caburn (Waller and Hamilton, 2000; Waller
and Long, 2010), Queenborough (Pratt et al., 2003) and Tilling Green, Rye (Waller and
Kirby, 2002). An increase in Poaceae, *Calluna vulgaris* and other herbaceous taxa implies
clearings or openings in the woodland canopy in contrast to the dense *Pinus/Betula*woodland of the earliest Holocene.

647

648 The decline of *Pinus* and dominance of *Corylus* at Langshot Bog and across SE England 649 warrants further discussion, because a number of studies have highlighted the importance of 650 hazelnuts during the Mesolithic period both in Britain (Radley et al., 1974; Godwin, 1975) and in Europe (Holst, 2010). It has been suggested that Mesolithic hunter-gatherers may 651 have contributed to this spread, by removing shading species to promote Corylus flowering 652 653 and expansion (Mithen et al., 2001) or undertaking selective pruning to produce greater nut yield (Groß et al., 2018). A significant Mesolithic presence around the Elstead Bog sites is 654 suggested from the archaeological record and therefore these human groups may have 655 facilitated the expansion of Corylus around these sites. However, a lack of evidence for 656 657 Mesolithic sites around the Langshot Bog site, and across the region more generally (Simmonds et al., 2019), together with a lack of burning and other anthropogenic indicators 658 659 at the time of Corylus expansion at both Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog, suggests that the expansion is related to climatic amelioration and not human manipulation. This would include 660 661 warmer conditions, extended growth seasons and a more stable climate (Tallantire, 2002), 662 and therefore changes in vegetation composition and the formation of woodland clearings are unlikely to have been anthropogenic in origin. At Elstead Bog, there is no immediate 663 664 decline in *Pinus* with the onset of deciduous woodland expansion, a pattern observed both 665 at Conford (Groves et al., 2012) and in the Glynde Valley (Waller and Hamilton, 2000; Waller and Long, 2010) and attributed to the freely draining sandy geology. These substrates can 666 often lead to low nutrient level soil, whereby invading species would have had less of an 667 advantage over *Pinus*, allowing it to survive longer within the local woodland. Prolonged 668

regular burning would have also influenced the *Pinus* record, as fires consume the humus
soil layer, allowing *Pinus* to thrive in the bare mineral soil whilst other species struggle to
survive (Richardson, 2000).

672

673 At Elstead Bog, a decline in several taxa is observed from 9290–9000 cal. BP (Wk-1422, 2σ) 674 including Betula, Corylus and Ulmus, whilst Pinus, Poaceae and ferns increase. This indicates wetter conditions, possibly connected to either the 9400-year BP IRD Event (Event 675 676 6 - Bond et al., 1997), or the onset of the 9000-8000 cal. BP rapid climate change period 677 (Mayewski et al., 2004). At this time, the isotopic record from Langshot Bog initially indicates a trend toward decreasing evaporation from 9540-9480 cal. BP (95% probability, wm95) 678 followed by a trend toward increased evaporation and wetter conditions from 9010-8520 cal. 679 680 BP (95% probability, 76cm, Figure 5) until at least 8430-8350 cal. BP (95% probability, 681 wm65, Figure 8). Again, palaeoenvironmental evidence for either climatic event from sites in SE England is sparse. However, across Britain, lower temperatures are observed at 9300 682 cal. BP from chironomid data at Hawes Water (Lang et al., 2010) and wetter conditions 683 identified from Sphagnum records at 9200 cal. BP from Bolton Fell Moss (Barber et al., 684 685 2003). A climatic event following the 9400-year BP IRD event is also observed from a speleothem record in Ireland, where variability continues until 8800 cal. BP (McDermott et 686 al., 2001). As with IRD Events 8 and 7, IRD Event 6 did not appear to result in identifiable 687 alterations to the vegetation composition at Langshot Bog, and although some woodland 688 689 decline was identified at Elstead Bog, it suggests these events were not definitively of 690 sufficient duration or magnitude to result in expansive modification of the vegetation cover.

691

692 **5. Conclusions**

Palaeoenvironmental records from lowland, inland wetlands in SE England are rare, with
most sites situated in riverine or coastal settings. There is also a paucity of sites containing
organic deposits formed during the Loch Lomond Stadial. Langshot Bog and Elstead Bog B
are therefore highly significant for furthering the understanding of vegetation dynamics

697 during this period of climatic instability in Britain and NW Europe. The use of a multi-proxy 698 approach, focusing on the Lateglacial and early Holocene, has led to the enhancement of 699 previously identified biostratigraphic zones (Branch and Green, 2004; Groves, 2008; Groves 700 et al., 2012) while providing greater detail and more robust timings for climatic events, 701 vegetation change, species abundance and composition during this period. Significantly, 702 there is evidence for *Pinus*, *Alnus* and *Corylus* as components of the Late Glacial vegetation 703 around these sites. Although the presence of these species could be due to long-distance 704 transport of pollen, it is not thought to fully account for the observed distributions, which are 705 considered likely to have grown in sheltered parts of the landscape, perhaps offering insights 706 into Glacial refugia locations. This is an area where the identification of plant macrofossils would assist greatly, as observed with Alnus at Turker Beck. Woodland development during 707 708 the Holocene is characterised by the expansion of a dense Betula and Pinus forest. Mixed 709 thermophilous woodland expansion is then observed, with a reduction in *Pinus*, apart from at sites with freely draining geologies or frequent burning events, where *Pinus* forms a 710 component of the mixed woodland. The use of stable isotope records alongside pollen and 711 sedimentological analysis has highlighted possible short-term climatic events, the first of 712 713 which may chronologically correlate with the Pre-Boreal Oscillation, or the 11,100-year BP IRD event. A second, similar magnitude event seems too early for the 10,300-year BP IRD 714 715 event, and may represent part of a period of climatic uncertainty, as represented by various studies in NW Europe which highlight climatic change across 10,800-10,200 cal. BP. A 716 717 longer trend towards decreasing evaporation from 9540-9480 cal. BP (95% probability, 718 wm95) may indicate the 9400 year BP IRD event or early onset of the 9000-8000 year BP 719 period of Rapid Climate Change, and although not represented clearly in the Langshot Bog 720 pollen record, evidence is observed in the vegetation record at Elstead Bog for a decline in 721 thermophilous taxa, potentially indicating a more severe or prolonged event than earlier periods of short-term climate change. These climatic shifts do not appear to be consistently 722 observed in the vegetation record, and therefore the use of stable-isotope records for 723 724 identifying these short-term shifts in climate is significant. Further studies should attempt to

identify these short-term climatic shifts, which would allow for a greater understanding of thetiming and impact of these early-Holocene events.

727

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