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Past human impact in a mountain forest: geoarchaeology of a medieval glass production and charcoal hearth site in the Erzgebirge, Germany

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Abstract

30 Since the twelfth century, forest areas in the upper reaches of the low mountain ranges of central
Europe provided an important source of wood and charcoal especially for mining and smelting as
well as glass production. In this case study from a site in the upper Erzgebirge region (Ore
33 Mountains), results from archeological, geophysical, pedo-sedimentological, geochemical,

anthracological, and palynological analyses have been closely linked to allow for a diachronic reconstruction of changing land use and varying intensities of human impact with a special focus on the fourteenth to the twentieth century. While human presence during the thirteenth century can only be assumed from archeological material, the establishment of glass kilns together with quartz mining shafts during the fourteenth century has left behind more prominent traces in the landscape. However, although glass production is generally assumed to have caused intensive deforestation, the impact on this site appears rather weak compared to the sixteenth century onwards, when charcoal production, probably associated with emerging mining activities in the region, became important. Local deforestation and soil erosion has been associated mainly with this later phase of charcoal production and may indicate that the human impact of glass production is sometimes overestimated.

Keywords: LiDAR, Forest clearance, glasswork, mining, pollen analysis, soil erosion

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Introduction

Mountain areas have been out of the scope of most geoarchaeological studies for several methodical problems: From the archeological point of view, sites are very difficult to identify in these often forested regions with low construction activities and most of the sites identified derive from rather episodic and specialized use (Gassiot Ballbè et al. 2016). Hence, the spatial and chronological resolution of human impact over a longer period of time is difficult to reconstruct. From the aspect of palaeoenvironmental proxies, mountain areas are characterized by local sedimentation systems, often disturbed by catastrophic events, that either need to be studied by combining a number of discontinuous colluvial layers (Larsen et al. 2013) or by using more continuous off-site records like peats or alluvial sediments (Matschullat et al. 1997; Bebermeier et al. 2018). In spite of these methodical obstacles, recent studies have highlighted the importance of peripheral areas, such as mountain ranges, mires, and sandy areas, either to supply medieval to pre-industrial centers with raw materials (ores, timber, tar) and energy (charcoal) (Knapp et al. 2013; Raab et al. 2015; Py-

Saragaglia et al. 2017), or to produce energy-consuming goods like potash and glass (Cílová and
60 Woitsch 2012; Östlund et al. 1998; Kirsche 2014). While previous studies have focused on the
technology and composition of different Late Medieval glass types and their attribution to distinct
regions in Germany (Wedepohl and Simon 2010) or Bohemia (Cílová and Woitsch 2012; Cílová et al.
63 2015), case studies on the spatial organization of the glass production sites and their environmental
impact including geoarchaeological research and geophysical prospection are rather cursory in
Bohemia (Křivánek 1995; Schmitt et al. 2006; Seidel et al. 2013; Horák and Klír 2017) but also beyond
66 (Riols 1992). Although these activities must have triggered drastic changes in the local environment,
historical sources often underestimate the development in these peripheral areas (Garnier 2000;
Durand 2016) and archeological evidence is confined to structures like charcoal hearths or small
69 activity areas, today mostly covered by dense forest (Schmidt et al. 2016). The Erzgebirge region (Ore
Mountains) (Fig. 1a) remained largely uninhabited until the onset of rural colonization (Billig and
Geupel 1992) began in the mid-twelfth century, and accelerated during the last quarter of the
72 twelfth century due to the discovery of silver ore and the granting of privileges to flourishing mining
centers like Freiberg (Richter 2013; Tolksdorf et al. 2018). In the course of this medieval economic
development, a considerable number of glass kilns were established in the area with glass production
75 remaining an important business until modern times (Černá 1996, 2014). Situated at the border zone
between East-Germany (GDR) and Czechoslovakia, research activities were low for nearly half a
century (1945–1990). Only recently has research by the German-Czech EU-project ArchaeoMontan
78 2018 been able to greatly improve our understanding of the emergence of the mining centers and
their environmental impact (Tolksdorf et al. 2015, 2018). However, information on the development
of more peripheral areas with specialized industries like glass production is still scarce. Using the site
81 of Ullersdorf in the Erzgebirge as a local case study provides the opportunity to develop a diachronic
model of the human impact on the surroundings by comparing the changes of vegetation and
landscape based on the palynological, anthracological, and sedimentological record with data on
84 historic land use deriving from archeological evidence, remote sensing, and geochemical analyses of

the produced raw materials (glass and charcoal). Comparison on this very local scale may help to quantify human impact during distinct stages of land use and to understand chaînes opératoires within these production activities (Mannoni and Giannichedda 2011). The results can be related at a regional scale to identify economic and political incentives that may have been involved. Not only do these results have implications for refining regional history and archeology, but they may also contribute more generally to planning activities and development with long-term environmental perspectives such as forest conversion and adaptation to climate change (e.g., Milad et al. 2011), sectoral environmental modeling (Reinhardt-Imjela et al. 2018), as well as environmental education and participation (e.g., Slavíková et al. 2017).

Archaeological and environmental setting and regional palynological records

The Ullersdorf site (13° 15' 40" E, 50° 36' 32" N) is located in the middle Erzgebirge region at 730 m a.s.l., about 12 km southeast of the historic mining town Marienberg (Fig. 1b). It lies within the Ullersdorfer Teichbächel stream valley, a tributary of the Schwarze Pockau river (Suppl. 1A). The geological substrate consists of weathered gneiss, which is covered by periglacial deposits including shallow loess layers as well as fluvial, colluvial and telmatic (peat) sediments. The current land use consists mainly of forest plantations dominated by *Picea abies* (Norway spruce) and supplemented by *Fagus sylvatica* (European beech). The present day mean annual temperature and mean annual precipitation at nearby Kühnhaide weather station at 740 m a.s.l. are 5 °C and 790 mm, respectively. Apart from probably only seasonal mining activities (Tolksdorf et al. 2020), there are no indications for permanent prehistoric settlement of these upper reaches. Although historical records are scarce, the initial rural colonization in this region probably took place during the late 12th/13th century and was followed by a phase of abandonment during the fourteenth century as indicated for the Hilmersbach site on the Saxonian side (Geupel 1994) and for the Spindelbach site on the Bohemian side (Horák and Klír 2017; Houfková et al. 2019), located north and south of the mountain crest. Fortifications at the Nonnenfelsen and at the Raubschloss Liebenstein sites (Geupel 1984a, 1995) in the Schwarze Pockau river valley guard an important transition corridor towards Bohemia and infer

111 that the economic development of this area during the late 12th/13th centuries may have been a
purposefully conducted process fostered by local authorities (Fig. 1b). The city of Marienberg was
founded in 1521 following the discovery of silver ore in this area in 1519 (Wagenbreth 1990). Based
114 on ceramic surface finds from the thirteenth century and the field name of “Ullersdorf,” a
characteristic name type for medieval colonization villages using the founders name (here deriving
from “Ullrich,” a German male name), an abandoned medieval settlement has been suggested in this
117 area (Geupel 1990). Surface finds of glass slags and glass crucibles prove glass production at this site.
A geomagnetic survey identified at least three glass kilns (Fig. 2b, Křivánek 1995), features that have
been discovered at several locations in the upper reaches of the Erzgebirge (Křivánek 1998). The
120 reinvestigation of the site was initiated by the German-Czech project ArchaeoMontan in 2016–2017.
Palynological records of the immediate surroundings (Fig. 1b) have been published from the
Mothäuser Heide peat bog, ca. 4 km SW of the study site (Lange et al. 2005), covering the Preboreal
123 to the Subatlantic palynostratigraphical period, from the Schwarze Heide peat bog (Schleich 2006;
Seifert-Eulen 2016), comprising pollen spectra from the Boreal to the late Subatlantic, as well as the
Lehmhaide peat bog (Schlöffel 2010; Seifert-Eulen 2016), covering the Allerød to Subatlantic period,
126 and the Hühnerheide peat bog (Seifert-Eulen 2016), covering the Atlantic to the Subatlantic period.
While a chronological model for the Schwarze Heide sequence has been proposed based on four ¹⁴C-
ages and ²¹⁰Pb-ages, independent age control was still missing for the Mothäuser Heide sequence. In
129 this study, we present an age-depth model for this key sequence based on five ¹⁴C-ages from a
replicate core at the same site.

132 **Method and material**

Remote sensing, geophysical survey and profile sampling

To identify anthropogenic microrelief structures a digital elevation model (DEM) based on high-
135 resolution LiDAR data (GeoSN/LfA Sachsen) was created for an area of 42 km² around the glass kiln

site. The filtered ground points were gridded using LASTools (Isenburg 2014) with a cell size of 0.4 m based on the average spacing of the ground points. Further data processing was carried out using
138 ArcGIS 10.4.1. After smoothing of the grid by application of a lowpass filter and a five times
superelevation, a slope relief visualization with stretched values (standard deviation, $n = 2.5$) and an
inverted greyscale was deemed most suitable for identifying charcoal hearths (Fig. 1c). Shaded relief
141 and local relief index maps (Hesse 2010) were used as independent control. Charcoal hearths appear
as circular or near-circular structures with different morphologies on DEM-derived maps (Hesse
2010; Deforce et al. 2013). In mountainous regions they are predominantly build into slopes (Nelle
144 2003; Hildebrandt et al. 2007) where they are visible as circular or oval, planar platforms (Suppl. 1B;
Raab et al. 2017). Furthermore, we derived an aggregated DEM with a cell size of 20 m to analyze the
sites in terms of slope and aspect. The site density was calculated by means of a circular
147 neighborhood (radius = 250 m) around each site and given as sites per km². Geophysical
measurements on the plateau south of the stream and beside the sunken road tracks (Fig. 2a) had
already been conducted in 1993 (Křivánek 1995) using a FM-36 Magnetic Gradiometer (Geoscan
150 research) and are reprocessed for this study. While an area of 40 m × 40 m was measured with a
grid-width of 1 m, detailed measurements with a grid width of 0.5 m have been performed on a
subarea of 20 m × 17 m where magnetic anomalies appeared most prominent (Fig. 2b). All samples
153 derive from four key profiles (Fig. 2a) that cover different local sedimentary environments. Profile 2
(a replicate of test profile 1 that was not sampled) is situated within a small drained peat area on a
stream terrace that was fed by water from a spring horizon at about 90 m distance from the position
156 of the glass kilns. The maximum peat thickness is 80 cm (Suppl. 1C). It was sampled for palynological,
pedo-sedimentological, and geochemical analyses by increments of 1 cm in the upper part and 2 cm
and 3 cm spacing in the lower part. A thin section for micromorphological analysis was prepared
159 from the transition of the peat layer to the overlying colluvial sediment. Charred material was
extracted for ¹⁴C-analyses at depths of 14, 16, and 32 cm. Profile 3 is located beside the Ullersdorfer
Teichbächel at the opposite site of the glass production area where alluvial and colluvial layers are

162 intercalated. The profile was sampled for palynological and pedo-sedimentological analyses as well
as optically stimulated luminescence (OSL) and micromorphological assessment. Profile 4 was used
to resolve the age and to unravel the possible relation of an isolated fall shaft to the glass
165 production. It is situated at the side of the circular mining heap 100 m to the southwest of the glass
production site. Profile 5 covers colluvial layers on the downhill slope between the glass kilns and the
stream. Archeological material within the profile trench was recovered by stratigraphical units and
168 every unit was sampled for pedo-sedimentological analysis. Ten charcoal hearth plateaus in the
immediate vicinity of the site were sampled for anthracological spectra to provide complementary
spatial and chronological information about the possible exploitation strategies and deliberate
171 selection of wood species.

Palynological, anthracological and macrobotanical analyses

Samples of 0.5 cm³ sediment were prepared according to standard acetolyse method (Moore et al.
174 1991; Berglund and Ralska-Jasiewiczowa 1986). A minimum of 500 palynomorphs was counted for
each sample with identification based on the standard literature (Beug 2004). *Lycopodium* spores
were added to calculate the pollen concentration (Stockmarr 1971). Local wetland taxa like
177 *Cyperaceae*, *Alnus*, *Sphagnum*, *Caltha*, and *Equisetum* were excluded from the calculation of the
pollen sum. Combination of PCA and constraint single link cluster analysis as implemented in PolPal
(Nalepka and Walanus 2003) was used for a zonation of the pollen record in profile 2. The number of
180 charcoal particles was recorded without further subdivision into size classes (Clark 1984). To
translate the pollen percentages of selected main taxa into an estimation of the vegetation
composition, a REVEALS model was calculated using the Rpackage DISCOVER (parameters =
183 peatland, 30 m diameter; see Theuerkauf et al. 2016). Material for anthracological analysis of the
charcoal kilns was extracted by dry-sieving of material from different random sampling spots within
the features. In general, the kiln features did not allow for the recognition of distinct stratigraphical
186 subdivisions that might reflect several use-phases. A sample of 30 charred pieces was determined to
estimate the general composition of the charcoal spectrum. Additionally, subfossil wood embedded

in the fluvial layers and three pieces of charcoal from a colluvial layers in profile 3 were determined
189 based on wood-anatomical features (Schweingruber 1990). Flotation and wet sieving (2, 1, 0.5, 0.25
mm mesh width) was used to retrieve plant macroremains and 14C dating material from peat layers
in profile 2 (slices of 1 cm thickness, ca. 100 g peat) at a depth of 10, 14, 16, and 18 cm and from
192 charcoal kiln 1 (3 l). The material was identified according to standard literature (Cappers et al. 2012)
and a reference collection of domestic and wild plants.

Radiocarbon analyses, dendrochronology and OSL dating

195 Radiocarbon (¹⁴C) analyses were performed on seven samples by the Curt-Engelhorn-Zentrum für
Archäometrie at Mannheim (CEZ) and calibrated according to the IntCal13 dataset (Reimer et al.
2013) (Table 1). The age-depth model for profile 2 was built on the statistical procedure of Haslett
198 and Parnell (2008) implemented in the R-package Bchron (Parnell 2016). Fragments with the
maximum amount of visible tree rings were submitted for dendrochronological analyses but
provided no results due to irregular growth patterns. A sample for OSL analyses (HUB0749) was
201 extracted from profile 3 using an opaque box. The grain size fraction 90–200 µm was subsequently
processed at the Luminescence laboratory of the HU Berlin according to standard procedure.
Equivalent dose was measured using a Risø TL/OSL DA-15C/D reader running a SAR protocol (Murray
204 and Wintle 2000) with a preheat of 200 °C. The equivalent dose aliquots showed a distinct skewed
distribution that is typical for incomplete bleached sediments. Consequently, a minimum age model
(Galbraith et al. 1999) was used for the calculation of the sedimentation age. The dose rate was
207 calculated based on the content of ²³⁸U, ²³²Th, and ⁴⁰K measured by gamma ray spectroscopy as well
as the cosmic dose at the sampling position and depth using the software DRAC (Durcan et al. 2015).

Pedo-sedimentological, micromorphological and geochemical analyses

210 Soil horizons were recorded and sampled according to the guidelines of the German soil classification
standard (AG Boden 2005). A total of 12 samples were subjected to pedosedimentological analyses
on the matrix matter < 2 mm (Supplement 4). Grain size distribution was determined after removal

213 of organic matter by laser diffraction (BeckmanCoulter particle analyzer). Organic matter was
estimated by combustion at 550 °C (loss-on-ignition; [Heiri et al. 2001](#)). Two thin sections for
micromorphological analyses were prepared from the upper layers in profile 2 and profile 3 in order
216 to study the sedimentation milieu and post-depositional alterations. Sediment monoliths were
recovered by boxes and impregnated with resin. Microscopic description of features under plain and
crossed polarized light refers to the nomenclature of [Stoops \(2003\)](#). Portable X-ray fluorescence
219 (pXRF) measurements were applied on homogenized dried material from the pollen monoliths for a
first assessment of vertical element distribution using an Innov X Delta device equipped with a 4 W
Rh tube and 25 mm silicon drift detector (SSD) in soil analysis mode (each measurement consists of
222 two 30 s beams). As these measurements are strongly influenced by changes in the soil texture and
organic matter as well as their compensation by the measurement mode of the device used, the
contents of Zn, Pb, Fe, K, Mn, Cr, and Cu were additionally measured for 14 sample points after
225 complete drying (106 °C), homogenization in a mortar and microwave digestion (ultraCLAVE IV MLS
GmbH, with HNO₃ at 240 °C, 100 bar) by inductively coupled plasma–optical emission spectrometry
(ICP-OES) using a Spectro Ametec Arcos II device (Side-On Plasma, 1400 W). The results of ICP-OES
228 are given as mean values from triple measurement of the same sample. Although a broad set of
elements is available in the profile ([Supplement 5](#)), we decided to focus on As and especially Pb as
elements that have been established as reliable indicators of regional mining activities ([Bohdálková
231 et al. 2018](#)). A specific geochemical signal from potash production cannot be expected as the main
component KOH is easily soluble therefore not accumulated in the sediment. We also neglected S as
it has been massively introduced into the soils of the region by intensified lignite firing in Bohemia
234 since the 1940s that caused severe forest dieback ([Armbruster et al. 2003](#)). Quartz raw material and
glass slags have been analyzed by wavelength-dispersive spectrometry (WDS) using a JXA 8230 and
JXA 8500F electron microprobe with 15 kV, 20 nA and a 20 µm probe size. Energy-dispersive
237 spectrometry (EDS) was used for pre-characterization to verify that all noticeable elements got
measured. For quartz, the SiO₂ content was set to 99.5 wt% and all other elements were measured

quantitatively by WDS. The glass slags have been measured entirely by WDS. Natural minerals such
240 as orthoclase (Si, Al, K), hematite (Fe), albite (Na), diopside (Ca, Mg), rutile (Ti), rhodonite (Mn),
apatite (P), naumannite (Ag), chalcopyrite (S), tugtupite (Cl), Cr₂O₃ (Cr), and galena (Pb) were used for
calibration. Si and Na were measured simultaneously. Acquisition times on peaks were 10–20 s
243 except for S, P (40 s), Ag (50 s), and Pb (60 s) whereas the background level on both sides of the peak
were measured in half of the peak acquisition time. A well-characterized natural volcanic glass from
Lipari Island (Italy) was used as cross-reference material.

246

3D Visualization

To support the overall outcome, a 3D visualization ([Lungershausen et al. 2013](#)) was created for five
249 selected time spans ([Schulz 2019](#)). Using the software Cinema 4D R19, the DEM data were combined
with information about the prevailing vegetation composition and examples for infrastructure
associated with land-use activities.

252 **Results**

Remote sensing and geophysical survey

In total 348 potential charcoal hearth sites have been identified, of which 6 sites could not be
255 classified within reasonable certainty and were therefore excluded from further analysis. Three
groups have been identified: (1) west of the Schwarze Pockau in the Mothäuser Heide with a density
of up to 61 sites per km², (2) in the direct vicinity of the Ullersdorf glass kiln with a density of up to 81
258 sites per km², and (3) north east of the glass kiln site in the Schwarze Heide with a density of up to 40
sites per km² ([Fig. 1c](#)). Similar site densities are reported for other low mountain ranges in Germany,
e.g., 5–166 sites per km² in the Harz ([von Kortzfleisch 2009](#)), 40–150 sites per km² in the Black Forest
261 ([Ludemann 2003, 2011](#)), and 23 sites per km² in the Kellerwald ([Schmidt et al. 2016](#)). Two
morphological types can be recognized: Type 1 are distinctly circular features with a ridge

surrounding the hearth bearing platform (Fig. 1c, inset 1), which are located predominantly in the western aggregation, although individual sites are scattered across the whole area (n=58). A comparable morphology has been described for areas in Belgium (Hardy and Dufey 2015), the Pfälzerwald (Hildebrandt et al. 2007), the Osthartz (Swieder 2019), and Brandenburg (Raab et al. 2019). Type 2 are sites with a typical configuration for slopes (Fig. 1c, inset 2) that can be found evenly distributed in the study area (n=280). Four sites could not be classified morphologically due to disturbances of the relief. Sites with a surrounding ridge are located in areas with lower inclination (mean $3.3^\circ \pm 1.5^\circ$, range from 0.4° to 8.6°), while the other type of charcoal hearth is generally found on steeper slopes (mean $5.9^\circ \pm 1.5^\circ$, range from 5.9° to 17°). Most sites with a surrounding ridge are located on steeper slopes with a north-east to south-east aspect, while the charcoal hearths on slopes are predominantly located on north and south facing slopes. The geomagnetic measurement reveals three anomalies in the form of extremely high magnetic values surrounded by strong negative signal values (Fig. 2b, features 1–3). A number of smaller anomalies is present but does not form any clear spatial structure. These anomalies probably derive from slags that scatter near the topsoil. Based on the comparison with geomagnetic features from excavated glass kiln sites in the Erzgebirge, these features 1–3 correspond to typical kiln features in size, shape and signal amplitude (Křivánek 1998, 2001).

Profile 2

Weathered gneiss covered by gneiss blocks in a silty matrix (VI Gr) make up the base of the stratigraphic sequence in profile 2 (Fig. 3). It is overlain by a periglacial solifluction layer (V Gr-Cx horizon). On top, a fine-layered organic gyttja (IV fF) is covered by peat (III fHr). The latter contains well identifiable plant remains, such as sedge roots, mosses and wood. The diminishing mineral fraction is dominated by sand. The wide variation of the calculated total pollen concentration, e.g., at 29 cm depth, indicates that the development of this sediment layer has probably been affected by changing peat growth rates, caused by local desiccation and rewetting. At a depth of 14 cm below the surface, a sharp but undulating transition of a silt-dominated yellow-brown layer with lower

organic content occurs (II Gr-fM). Based on the micromorphological assessment of the thin section, microcharcoals are incorporated both in the peat (Fig. 4A and B) and the overlying layer. Although
291 some signs of in situ bioturbation can be identified in the silt layer, most of the organic material is
consisting of partly decomposed and fragmented plant material with visible cell structures,
transported together with rounded micro-aggregates from 20 to 100 µm size and no layering can be
294 observed (Fig. 4C). Beside fecal pellets and paraphyses of fungi, an aggregate of *Meliola ellisii* spores,
which is a parasite on *Calluna vulgaris* (van Geel et al. 2006; Chambers et al. 2011), was identified
(Fig. 4D). The silt-dominated unit II Gr-fM cannot have developed from the peat layer but is
297 allochthonous material that could derive from the nearby slope. Although the micromorphological
features do not provide unequivocal evidence for colluvial dynamics, the observed rounded micro-
aggregates could support the idea that the material was relocated. The in situ bioturbation does not
300 contradict this idea and could have developed after the deposition of the layer. The uppermost part
of the sequence from 9 cm depth is a peat layer (Hv), with a strong silt component. Due to modern
drainage, the upper peat layer shows strong signs of mineralization. While wet sieving of the layer at
303 10 cm depth only retrieved three very small charcoal particles (indet.), sample slices at 14, 16, and 18
cm depth provided very small quantities of charred *Picea abies* needles that were used for ¹⁴C-
analysis.

306 The pXRF results show strong increases of Pb and As from the sample depth of 23 to 20 cm and the
trend of increasing Pb-contents, peaking between 23 and 14 cm depth, is corroborated by the ICP-
OES.

309 From 78 to 70 cm below the surface, the record is dominated by pollen of shrubs and herbs (Fig. 5).
Tree pollen, mostly of pine and birch, make up less than 50% of the terrestrial pollen sum. Pollen
attributable to *Corylus* are present in small numbers only. Overall, the pollen record suggests that
312 this section has been deposited during the early Holocene before the main expansion of hazel at
10,600 cal BP (Giesecke et al. 2011). The samples between 63 and 71 cm, however, show less herb
pollen and more tree pollen, including pollen of tree taxa related to warmer climate such as *Alnus*,

315 *Tilia*, and *Fagus*. These trees expanded in central Europe only after ca. 10,000 cal BP, i.e., the pollen suggest that this section is younger than the sediments above. However, the processes that could have caused this biostratigraphical inconclusive result in this part of the stratigraphy are not capable.

318 The pollen of tree taxa indicative of a warmer climate might originate from eroded peat layers of earlier interglacials. Alternatively, the age reversals may represent redeposition of sediment layers, perhaps including bioturbation. At ca. 50 cm, increasing percentages of pollen from *Corylus*, followed

321 by the appearance of pollen from trees dependant on warmer climates probably represent the expansion of these tree taxa between 10,600 and 9000 cal BP (Giesecke et al. 2011). The next prominent biostratigraphical features are the sharp increase in pollen from *Picea* at 42 cm and the

324 increase in pollen percentages of *Fagus* and *Abies* at 38 cm. These events are dated at 7300 cal BP and 6000 cal BP, respectively, in the Mothäuser Heide record (Suppl. 4). At this point, very low abundances of shrub and herb pollen show that the area was covered by dense forest vegetation

327 with no recognizable open areas or clearances. A first very weak increase in herb pollen (Poaceae, *Artemisia*, *Asteraceae*) is observed between 32 cm and 26 cm depth (approx. 250–850 cal AD). This can be correlated to the Mothäuser Heide record, which shows elevated pollen percentages of

330 several herbs, including *Secale*, during this time period. High pollen percentages of e.g. Poaceae and the presence of *Rumex acetosella*-type and *Secale* pollen above 18 cm depth indicates human activity close to the study site at about 1450 cal AD.

333

Profile 3

Profile 3 is located at the transition from the hillslope to the floodplain of the stream valley (Fig. 6; 336 Suppl. 1D). The base of the stratigraphy consists of fluvial sands (VI Cv) covered by dark-gray sand and silts with an upwardly increasing darkhumic layering in the upper part (V M2/3), which contained a crushed piece of quartz. From the northwestern part of the profile a layer of medium to fine-

339 grained sands with charcoal particles (IV M1) is situated on top of this silt layer. Micromorphological

analysis (Fig. 4) shows that the dark gray layer (V M2/3) is superimposed on an unlayered coarse sandy material (VI Cv) (Fig. 4E). Differences in the grain sizes between layer VI Cv and the unit V M2 and V M3 indicate that these layers derive from different sedimentation events. As the organic material in units VI Cv and V M2 does not form any coatings around the minerals a vertical relocation of the organic matter in the form of podsolization can be excluded (Phillips and FitzPatrick 1999; Wilson and Righi 2010). Regarding the sharp contrast in the organic content between unit VI Cv and V M1 as well as the topographic context, an interpretation as former topsoil material relocated at different events is more feasible and could explain the admixture of organic matter. Unit V M2 bears a higher content of silt material compared to the underlying V M1 (Fig. 4F and G). The homogenous distribution of minerogenic and organic material including charred organic matter could indicate that some of the organic material was already incorporated into this unit during the sedimentation process. Other features like mycorrhiza hyphae, roots, fecal pellets, and burrow features (Kooistra and Pulleman 2010) indicate that this horizon has been a surface for some time (Gerasimova and Lebedeva-Verba 2010). The boundary towards the unit IV M1 with coarser grain sizes is sharp (Fig. 4H). Although direct evidence by micromorphological features is missing, the observations about grain size, organic matter and bioturbation features are consistent with an interpretation of layer V M3/M2 and IV M3 as material relocated at different occasions along the slope as it is indicated by the topographic position and the inclination of the sediment units visible in the profile. The comparatively wide DE-distribution of the OSL measurements (Table 2) with positively skewed multimodal distribution indicates an insufficient resetting of the latent OSL signal before burial (i.e., incomplete exposition of the sediments to daylight) that could lead to an age overestimation. The calculated minimum-age-model therefore gives more weight to the DE-aliquots with weaker luminescence signals (i.e., better resetting of luminescence signal due to exposure to light) and results in an estimated minimum deposition age of 0.15 ± 0.04 ka (HUB-0749). Therefore, the deposition of this sandy layer should have occurred around 1860 ± 40 AD or some decade prior to that. Towards the stream, this colluvial sequence is covered by overbank deposits with relatively low

366 organic content in the basal part (II Go and III Go, Fig. 6, samples 6 and 7). The sequence of pollen
spectra from the lowest colluvial layer and the alluvial sequence contain not only *Picea*, *Abies alba*,
Fagus, *Alnus*, *Ulmus*, *Tilia*, and *Carpinus betulus*, but also pollen indicative of a more open vegetation
369 caused by human activities, like *Secale cereale*, *Plantago lanceolate*, *Calluna vulgaris*, and *Rumex*
acetosella-type. In comparison to the nearby profile 2, the deposition could be contemporary or
postdating the biostratigraphical zone above 18 cm, representing the late Medieval to early Modern
372 period. While the subfossil driftwood in the alluvial sediments was determined as *Picea* and as
Picea/Abies type, the charcoals in the sandy colluvial layers represent *Picea* and *Fagus*.

375 *Profile 4*

Profile 4 is located next to an isolated falls shaft feature (Fig. 2a) and shows a sequence with a mining
heap on top of the weathered parent bedrock (gneiss) (Suppl. 5). Immediately below the mining
378 heap, remains of topsoil material (buried paleosol) with charcoal particles were found (II fAh
horizon). ¹⁴C analysis of some charcoal fragments yielded an age of 1292–1395 cal AD (Table 1) and
provided a maximum age for the mining activities. The overburden mainly consists of gneiss
381 containing hammered pieces of quartz, probably originating from the locally occurring quartz veins.

Profile 5

384 This profile directly downslope of the glass kilns represents a sequence of at least three layers of silty
material (M-Ah, II M, III M, IV M-Ah; Fig. 7a, samples 1–3) above a sandy substrate with weathered
gneiss (V Bv). Given position of the profile on the slope below the plateau with the glass kilns and
387 indicated by the high organic content and the large number of chaotically admixed artifacts, these
three layers are labeled as colluvial layers. Anyway, human activities like cleaning up of the plateau
above may have contributed to the origin of these layers. The ceramic material (Fig. 7c) with high

390 collared rims (German: Hohe Kragenränder) and lids indicates a deposition of the material during or
after the fourteenth century (Mechelk 1981; Geupel 1990). Fragments of glass crucibles, crushed
quartz and glass slags (Fig. 7b) can be linked to the glass kilns situated directly above. Two samples of
393 glass slags as well as one piece of crushed quartz were selected for geochemical analyses (see
below).

396 *Anthracological spectra and macrobotanical remains from charcoal hearths*

The sampled charcoal hearth sites indicate a high variability of the tree species used as fuel (Fig. 8).
While the charcoal kilns in the west at the outlet of the valley are dominated by *Fagus* (hearths 2, 3,
399 6), a higher share of *Picea* is visible within the valley (hearths 1, 4, 5, 7, 10), *Abies* is mostly present in
smaller quantities here as well. Uphill to the north, the share of *Abies* increases at the expense of
Picea (hearths 8, 9). The wet-sieving of 3l of sediment from charcoal hearth 1 retrieved many
402 thousands of charred needle fragments from *Picea* and *Abies*, therefore being in accordance with the
anthracological spectrum, but no remains of any other plant material were found. As the
dendrochronological dating of larger charcoal pieces failed, ¹⁴C ages were obtained from charcoal
405 hearth 1 and 2 (Table 1). Both ¹⁴C-ages span rather long periods with 1470–1633 cal AD (MAMS-
30567) for hearth 1 and 1666–1950 cal AD (MAMS-30568) for hearth 2, hence pointing to early
modern to modern local charcoal production. Neither the ¹⁴C-age obtained for the quartz mining nor
408 the artefact spectrum at the kiln area indicates glass production later than the fourteenth century
why the charcoal production is chronologically at least partly disconnected at the Ullersdorf site.

411 *Geochemical analyses of glass slags and quartz from profile 5*

The crushed quartz from profile 5 contains on average only a hundred ppm of Mg, Ca, P, and about
200 ppm Pb and Mn. In comparison to the glass slags, the quartz is pure and all elements detected in

414 the glass need to be additives because the glass shards are well preserved, homogeneous (Fig. 9a)
and any randomly appearing alteration and secondary grown mineral was not observed. Totals are
between 97.9 and 99.3 wt% for the glass slags which is indicative for a very low H₂O or CO₂ content.

417

Discussion

The onset of local human impact

420 The anthracological data (Fig. 8) could match the natural zonation of the forest cover in this
topography showing a prevalence of *Picea abies*, a tree tolerant to wet (and cool) conditions
(Leuschner and Ellenberg 2017), in charcoal hearths near the wet valley floor. Rising shares of *Abies*
423 *alba* could be observed on the hillslopes where this taxon can compete with *Fagus sylvatica*. The
latter is dominant on the SW exposed hillslopes at the valley entrance, where more sunlight is
available (Fig. 10, phase 1). The local presence of *Picea* on the valley floor is supported by charred
426 needle fragments in the upper layers of profile 2 as well as by the dominance of uncharred remains
in the alluvial sediments in profile 3. A similar forest composition, strongly depending on local site
conditions, could be reconstructed for the Medieval period in other uplands of central Europe (Kaiser
429 et al. 2019). Earlier studies (Geupel 1990) have suggested that settlement in the area may have
started during the thirteenth century already, based on the toponym “Ullersdorf” and the typological
assessment of some parts of the ceramic artifact assemblage. However, this phase becomes neither
432 visible in the pollen record in profile 2 nor in the artifacts observed in profile 5. Although our results
do not contradict the assumption of an early rural settlement in this area, the possible location and
duration of this settlement remains unresolved (Fig. 10, phase 2). Generally, the establishment of
435 early rural villages is corroborated by the nearby Hilmersdorf site (Geupel 1994). The isolated
occurrence of pollen from *Secale cereale* and *Plantago lanceolata* pollen in profile 2 at 32 cm depth
could be linked to the Roman Iron Age and is probably a result of long-distance input from the

438 settled foreland as already observed in other pollen sequences in the Erzgebirge such as in the mire
Georgenfelder Hochmoor (Stebich 1995).

441 *Glass production phase*

Mining for quartz as well as glass production at this site have occurred during the fourteenth century based on the ¹⁴C-age obtained below the mining heap in profile 4 and the dating of the diagnostic
444 artifacts mixed with glass slags and remains of glass melting containers in profile 5 downhill (Fig. 10,
phase 3). The result of the geomagnetic survey shows three distinct anomalies on the nearby plateau that could match the layout and size of glass kilns. Compared with other sites in this region (Křivánek
447 1998, 2001), there is probably one central glass melting kiln (Fig. 2b, feature 1) with two auxiliary cooling kilns (Fig. 2b, features 2 and 3) that are smaller in size and show less pronounced geomagnetic amplitudes. Remarkably, quartz mining in the shaft near profile 4 predates any other
450 archeological evidence for mining in this part of the Erzgebirge so far. Mining technology in general flourished in the context of ore exploration in other parts of the Erzgebirge since the mid-twelfth century (Hemker et al. 2012; Hemker 2014, 2018; Schröder 2015) and may indicate the transfer of
453 mining technology to satisfy the need of the glass industry for quartz. Generally, the increasing demand for glass as a luxurious commodity led to the establishment of glass production sites in many European mountain ranges during the Late Medieval period (thirteenth/fourteenth centuries) (Černá
456 1996). These mountain environments could sufficiently meet the high demand for wood that was indispensable for the production of potash necessary for the glass making process and the fuel for glass kilns. In addition, commonly occurring quartz deposits, mostly found as veins in massive rock,
459 delivered the minerogenic raw material. Comparing the quartz and glass samples from profile 5, we observed that K₂O, Al₂O₃, CaO, and MgO must have been entered the material either deliberately or unintended during the manufacturing process or by taphonomic processes. Several authors (e.g.,
462 Hartmann 1994; Wedepohl et al. 2009; Jackson and Smedley 2016) have investigated the

composition of medieval glass and the composition of beech and oak ashes but none of those glass compositions show such an elevated Al_2O_3 content as in the sample from Ullersdorf. While the contents of K_2O and CaO could vary by either using trunk or branch ash or ashes from both to save valuable trunk wood (Fig. 9B, Wedepohl et al. 2009), Al_2O_3 is always $\leq 1.5\%$ in those glasses. Elevated contents of Al_2O_3 and K_2O in the glass could in theory point to the use of either white mica, like muscovite, or K-feldspar as Mining for quartz as well as glass production at this site have occurred during the fourteenth century based on the ^{14}C -age obtained below the mining heap in profile 4 and the dating of the diagnostic artifacts mixed with glass slags and remains of glass melting containers in profile 5 downhill (Fig. 10, phase 3). The result of the geomagnetic survey shows three distinct anomalies on the nearby plateau that could match the layout and size of glass kilns. Compared with other sites in this region (Křivánek 1998, 2001), there is probably one central glass melting kiln (Fig. 2b, feature 1) with two auxiliary cooling kilns (Fig. 2b, features 2 and 3) that are smaller in size and show less pronounced geomagnetic amplitudes. Remarkably, quartz mining in the shaft near profile 4 predates any other archeological evidence for mining in this part of the Erzgebirge so far. Mining technology in general flourished in the context of ore exploration in other parts of the Erzgebirge since the mid-twelfth century (Hemker et al. 2012; Hemker 2014, 2018; Schröder 2015) and may indicate the transfer of mining technology to satisfy the need of the glass industry for quartz. Generally, the increasing demand for glass as a luxurious commodity led to the establishment of glass production sites in many European mountain ranges during the Late Medieval period (13th / 14th centuries) (Černá 1996). These mountain environments could sufficiently meet the high demand for wood that was indispensable for the production of potash necessary for the glass making process and the fuel for glass kilns. In addition, commonly occurring quartz deposits, mostly found as veins in massive rock, delivered the minerogenic raw material. Comparing the quartz and glass samples from profile 5, we observed that K_2O , Al_2O_3 , CaO , and MgO must have been entered the material either deliberately or unintended during the manufacturing process or by taphonomic processes. Several authors (e.g., Hartmann 1994; Wedepohl et al. 2009; Jackson and Smedley 2016) have investigated

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492 valuable trunk wood (Fig. 9b, Wedepohl et al. 2009), Al_2O_3 is always $\leq 1.5\%$ in those glasses. Elevated
contents of Al_2O_3 and K_2O in the glass could in theory point to the use of either white mica, like
muscovite, or K-feldspar as quartz veins and are easily accessible. The possibility of using feldspar-
495 rich sands with or without additives of lime and ashes for ancient glass production is described in
Henderson (2013). Preliminary calculations suggest, that a mixture of K-Feldspar ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3=18\%$, $\text{K}_2\text{O} =$
 17% , $\text{SiO}_2 = 65\%$; Deer et al. 2013) with e.g. beech ash from trunks and branches ($\text{K}_2\text{O} = 20\%$, $\text{CaO} =$
498 45% , $\text{MgO} = 12\%$, $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5 = 10\%$; (Hartmann 1994)) and pure quartz in the ratio 3:1:4 could match the
observed glass composition. However, as parallels from medieval glasses are absent so far,
unintended alterations during production and post-depositional processes provide alternative
501 explanations. Direct contact of the glass with ashes during processing could account for elevated K-
contents as well as direct contact with the oven wall or crucibles. It would need a larger sample from
a representative spectrum of glass artefacts from this site (that could only be obtained by larger and
504 highly destructive excavation) to further substantiate the presence of Al_2O_3 and elevated K_2O -values.
Several analyses have proven the wide use of lead in medieval glass production (Wedepohl et al.
2009; Mecking 2013) and have suggested a lead pollution of the nearby sediments (Seidel et al.
507 2013). Our results however do not indicate an addition of lead to the glass produced at the Ullersdorf
site. The Pb-concentration instead reaches its maximum in those layers of profile 2 that postdate the
operation of the glass kilns (Fig. 3). Besides ore mining, glass production became one of the most
510 important early industries in the upper Erzgebirge region (Fig. 1a) and continued to supply the
markets in Bohemia and Saxony and beyond from the late thirteenth century until modern times
(Černá 1996, 2016; Kirsche 2014).

513

From the end of glass production to modern times

None of the dated nearby charcoal hearths or any colluvial/ alluvial layer dated in profiles 2 and 3
516 coincides with the local production of glass that started during the fourteenth century. Instead these
features postdate this time period. These results are in accordance with the decline of arboreal
pollen in profile 2, indicating deforestation and an increased influx of charcoal particles probably
519 from the fifteenth century onwards (Fig. 10, phase 4). Based on the analysis of the regional DEM, this
area stands out by a high density of charcoal hearth features. This development long after the onset
of glass production is remarkable given the general conception of glass production to have caused
522 massive, i.e., almost total local forest clearances (Bachmann 1996; Kirsche 2003). The rising
concentration of the elements Pb and As in the layers above 18 cm in profile 2 is therefore not
connected to the production of stained lead-glass. It is rather interpreted as a signal connected to
525 the increased mining and smelting activities in the Marienberg mining district since at least the early
sixteenth century (Wagenbreth 1990). This explains why the Pb-concentration develops parallel to
the concentration of arsenic as characteristic element from ore processing. Comparable rises of Pb-
528 concentration as proxy for intensified mining activities are known from other regions of the
Erzgebirge (Tolksdorf et al. 2018, 2019). As shown by the stratigraphical position of the colluvial layer
in profile 2 and the OSL-dated colluvial layers in profile 3, most of the local soil erosion seems to have
531 occurred during the nineteenth century in the context of ongoing charcoal production (Fig. 10, phase
4). Following a forest dieback in this area in the 1980s the hilltops were successfully reforested, it is
mainly spruce plantations that cover the area now (Sachsenforst 2017; Fig. 10, phase 5).

534 *Glass production and mining activities: competing for resources?*

It seems that later phases of charcoal production since the sixteenth century after the abandonment
of the glass kilns have had a much greater impact on the local environment, causing deforestation,
537 soil erosion as well as colluvial and alluvial sedimentation. It therefore needs careful discussion
whether the environmental impact of glass production may have been exaggerated generally,
perhaps due to the overweighted considerations of historical sources on wood shortages, as these
540 may have been biased by competing interests (Radkau 1983; Schmidt 2002). In this light, the absence

of any later glass industry in this area could be explained by the rise of mining and smelting in the Erzgebirge since the early sixteenth century as driving factors of economic development, which was supported by the local authorities. Another close connection between glass production and mining activities becomes apparent on a technological level with the need to prospect, mine, and process local quartz resources. It implies that knowledge about these technologies must have been present in this area but did not result in any ore mining activities. Why did mining in this area start later in comparison with other parts of the Erzgebirge, although glass production requiring similar technology was present and mining flourished elsewhere? Other sites with metallurgical activities, such as the “Schwedengraben” 9 km north of the Ullersdorf site, were already in operation during the thirteenth/fourteenth century (Geupel 1984b, 1992). In respect of these divergent regional developments the influence of changing political structures on the industrial activities may have yet been underestimated compared to factors like technological abilities and resource availability.

Conclusions

The expected strong impact of a glass kiln site on the environment in a small catchment was studied by the application and combination of a broad set of methods. While evidence for settlement activities prior to the fourteenth century is rare, the operation of glass kilns together with the mining of quartz is evident at the Ullersdorf site during the fourteenth century. However, an environmental impact of this industry could not be identified in the on-site records, whereas strong implications of later charcoal production are evident based on charcoal hearths off-site. The rising occurrence of elements like lead or arsenic could conclusively be explained by the onset of mining activities in the nearby district of Marienberg. Against this backdrop, local charcoal production could have served the supply for metallurgical activities. Our results suggest that it may be problematic to presume a strong connection of charcoal production, soil erosion and the operation of glass kilns based on their spatial occurrence (Schneider et al. 2020) without sufficient chronological resolution to support synchronicity. Instead our case studies suggests that the role of glass kilns as consumers of wood may be overestimated based on contemporary sources, especially when compared in a diachronic

567 perspective to the impact caused by charcoal production in the context of mining. Future
environmental studies in central European mountain areas should therefore not be limited to the
direct impact of glass production but also include later phases as suitable reference and to address
570 the question about competing industries and the political and economic development of the wider
region.

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879 **Figures:**

Fig. 1 A: Erzgebirge / Krušné hory Mountain region with sites of glass production (compiled from
Gühne 1983; Černá 1995, 1996; Křivánek 1998; Kirsche 2003; Crkal and Černá 2009); B: Topographic
882 situation of study area with archaeological sites and palynological records (Lange et al. 2005; Schleich
2006; Schlöffel 2010; Seifert-Eulen 2016) covering the Mediaeval period; C: Density of charcoal
hearth features (RCH) in the region of the Ullersdorf site. Inset 1: Digital elevation model (DEM,
885 shaded relief) showing a concentration of hearth type 1 with a ridge; Inset 2: DEM with
Concentration of hearths type 2 constructed as platforms on slope.

Fig. 2: A: Archaeological features with sampled profiles and charcoal hearths at Ullersdorf site. B:
888 Results of a 0.5 m grid geomagnetic survey.

Fig. 3: Stratigraphy, sedimentology and geochemistry of profile 2 located in a peat on a stream terrace (see Fig. 2A).

891 Fig. 4: Left: Scan of thin sections; Right: A: microcharcoal in peat layer (III Hr); B: microcharcoal in
overlying layer (II Gr-fM); C: microaggregates (brown) and dislocated fragmented organic material
(arrows); D: aggregate of *Meliola ellisii* spores; E: unlayered coarse sandy material in VI Cv; F: sharp
894 boundary between V M2 (finer material) and V M3 (coarser material); G: fine material in V M2; H:
sharp boundary between IV M1 (coarse material) and V M2 (fine material)

Fig. 5: Palynology and chronology of profile 2.

897 Fig. 6: Stratigraphy, palynology and chronology of profile 3 located in the stream floodplain.

Fig. 7A: Stratigraphy and sedimentology of profile 5 immediately downhill of the glass kilns; 7B: Glass
slags from colluvial layers M1-M3; 7C: Selected ceramic fragments including remains from glass
900 melting containers (1-2), broad rim (3), high collar rim (4), and lid fragment (5).

Fig. 8: Anthracological spectra from the charcoal hearths at the Ullersdorf site with topographic
situation and ^{14}C ages.

903 Fig. 9A: Mounted glass sample from Ullersdorf site with SEM-EDX measurement spots (see [Table 3](#));
B: CaO/K₂O plot with results from Ullersdorf, reference samples from the medieval glass production
site Moldava I site in Bohemia (Černá 2016), typical ranges of different glass types from literature
906 (Wedepohl and Simon 2010; Wedepohl et al. 2011), and glass from experimental production
according to different formulas (Cílová and Woitsch 2012).

Fig. 10: Scenes from idealized 3D reconstruction of the landscape dynamics at the Ullersdorf site.
909 Phase 1: Forest vegetation undisturbed by any local human impact, early 12th century; Phase 2:
Tentative land-use associated with rural colonization in this area, mid-13th century; Phase 3: Glass
production during the 14th century AD; Phase 4: After the glass production has been abandoned

912 charcoal production is still very active and causes local clearances and soil erosion up to the 19th
century; Phase 5: Today the area is completely reforested by managed stands of mainly *Picea*.

915 Tab. 1: Results of ¹⁴C-analyses

Tab. 2: Result of OSL-analyses

Tab. 3: Results of SEM-EDX analyses of glass slag and quartz

918

Supplements

Suppl. 1: A: Aerial view on study area, B: Example of ridges typical for charcoal hearth as seen on the
921 ground; C: Photo of profile 2; D: Photo of profile 3; E: Photo of profile 5

Suppl. 2: Soil data

Suppl. 3: Geochemical data from profile 2

924 Suppl. 4: Comparison of biostratigraphical units between Ullersdorf profile 2 and the corresponding
units in the time-depth-models of the Mothäuser Heide record. Changes in the abundance or decline
of specific taxa are indicated as trends by arrows.

927 Suppl. 5: Stratigraphy of profile 4 at the mining heap feature; inset 8B: Samples from the mining heap
containing the overburden material (gneiss) and quartz of lesser purity left behind.

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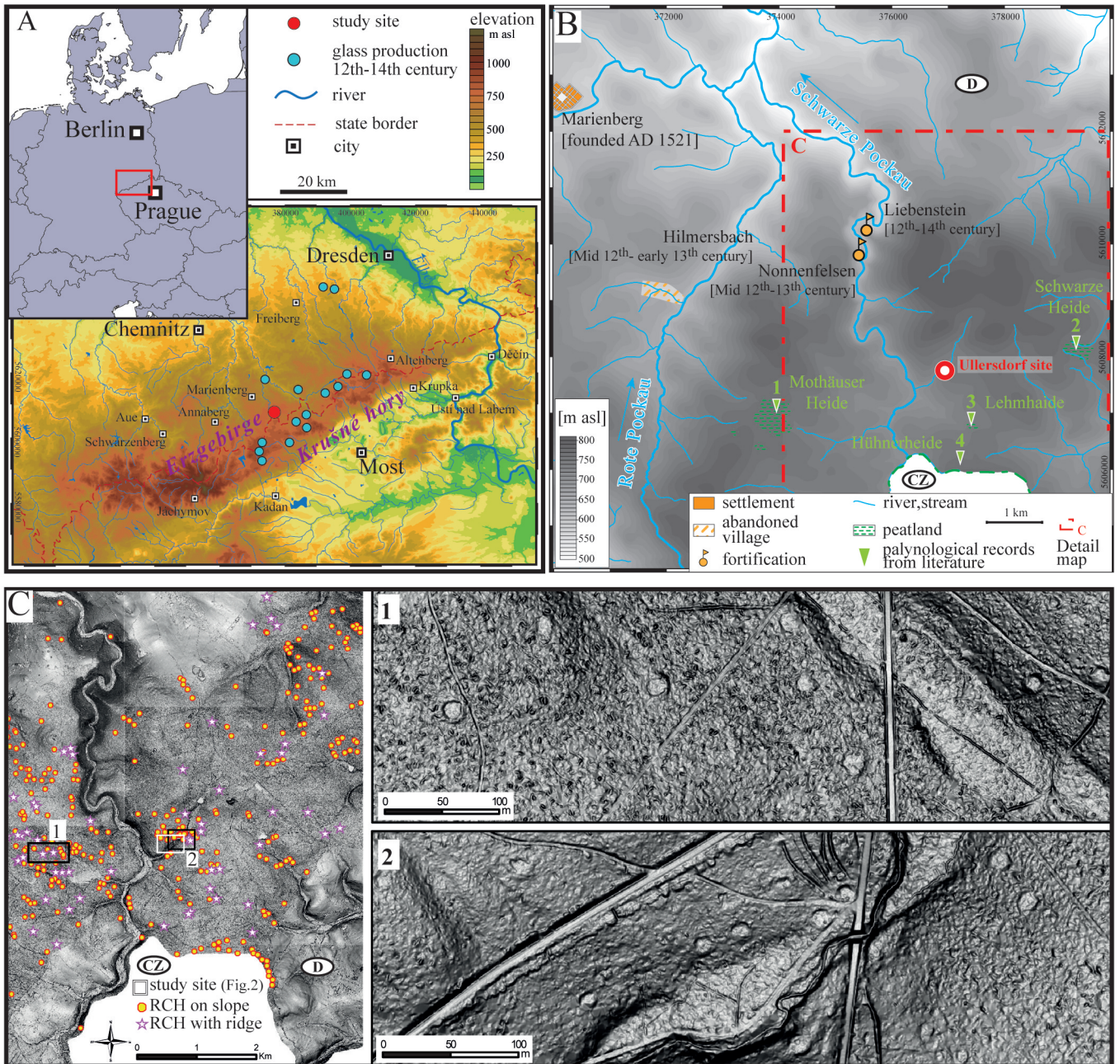


Fig. 1 A: Erzgebirge / Krušné hory Mountain region with sites of glass production (compiled from Gühne 1983; Černá 1995, 1996; Krivánek 1998; Kirsche 2003; Crkal and Černá 2009); B: Topographic situation of study area with archaeological sites and palynological records (Lange et al. 2005; Schleich 2006; Schlöffel 2010; Seifert-Eulen 2016) covering the Mediaeval period; C: Density of charcoal hearth features (RCH) in the region of the Ullersdorf site. Inset 1: Digital elevation model (DEM, shaded relief) showing a concentration of hearth type 1 with a ridge; Inset 2: DEM with concentration of hearths type 2 constructed as platforms on slope.

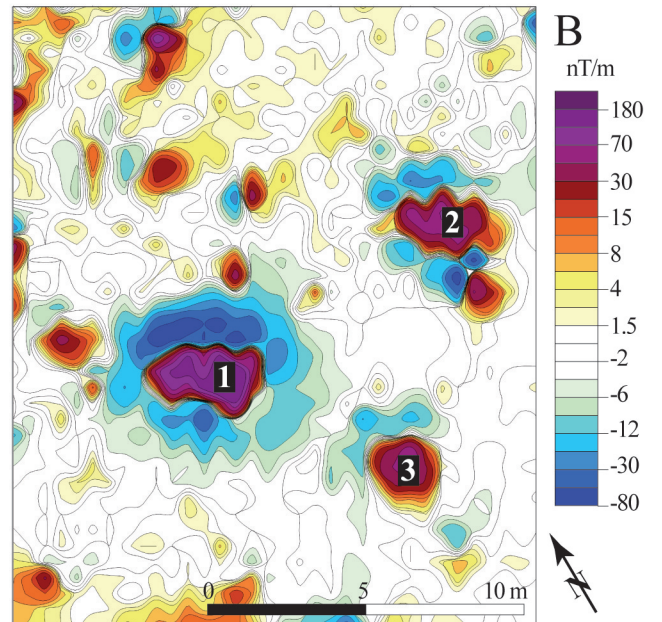
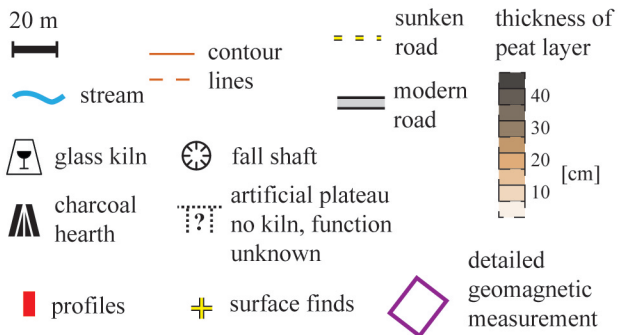
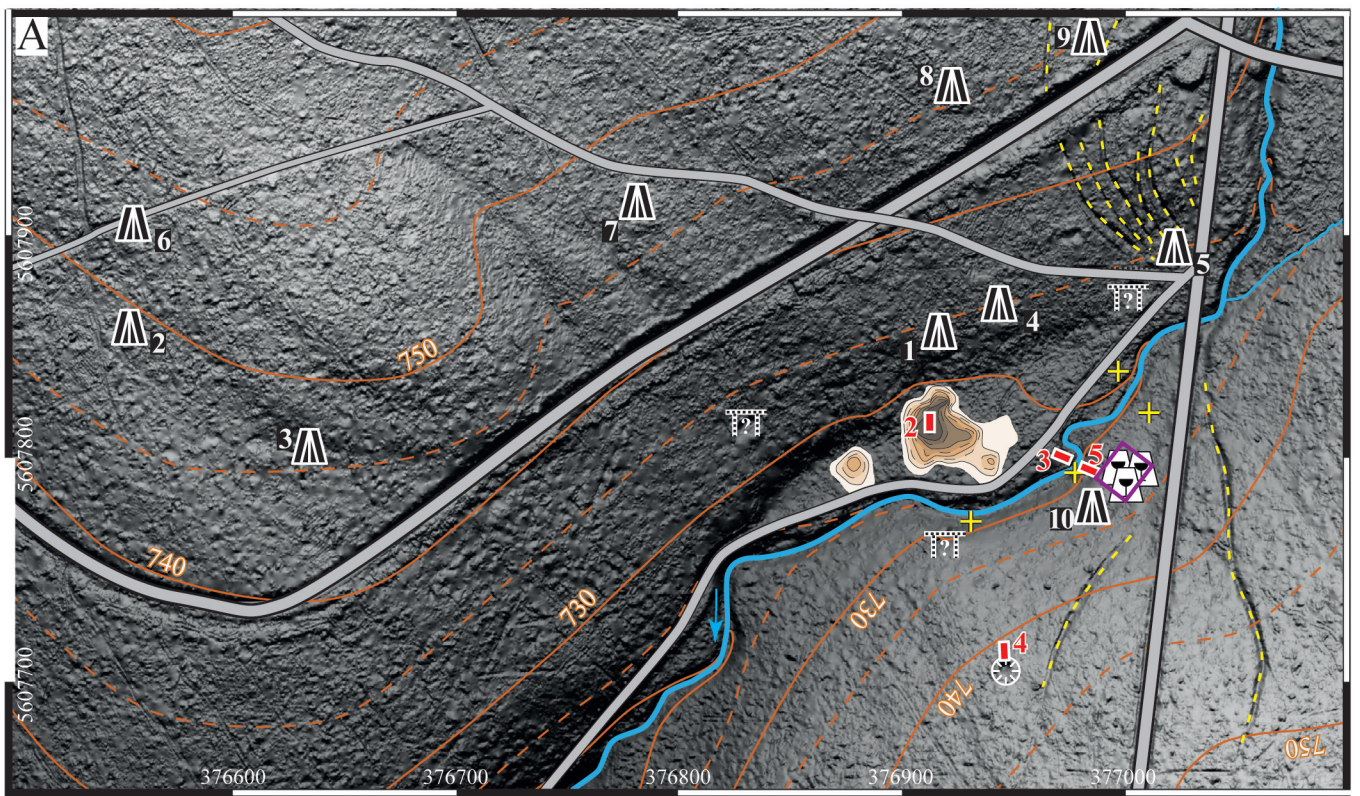


Fig. 2: A: Archaeological features with sampled profiles and charcoal hearths at Ullersdorf site. B: Results of a 0.5 m grid geomagnetic survey.

Ullersdorf, profile 2

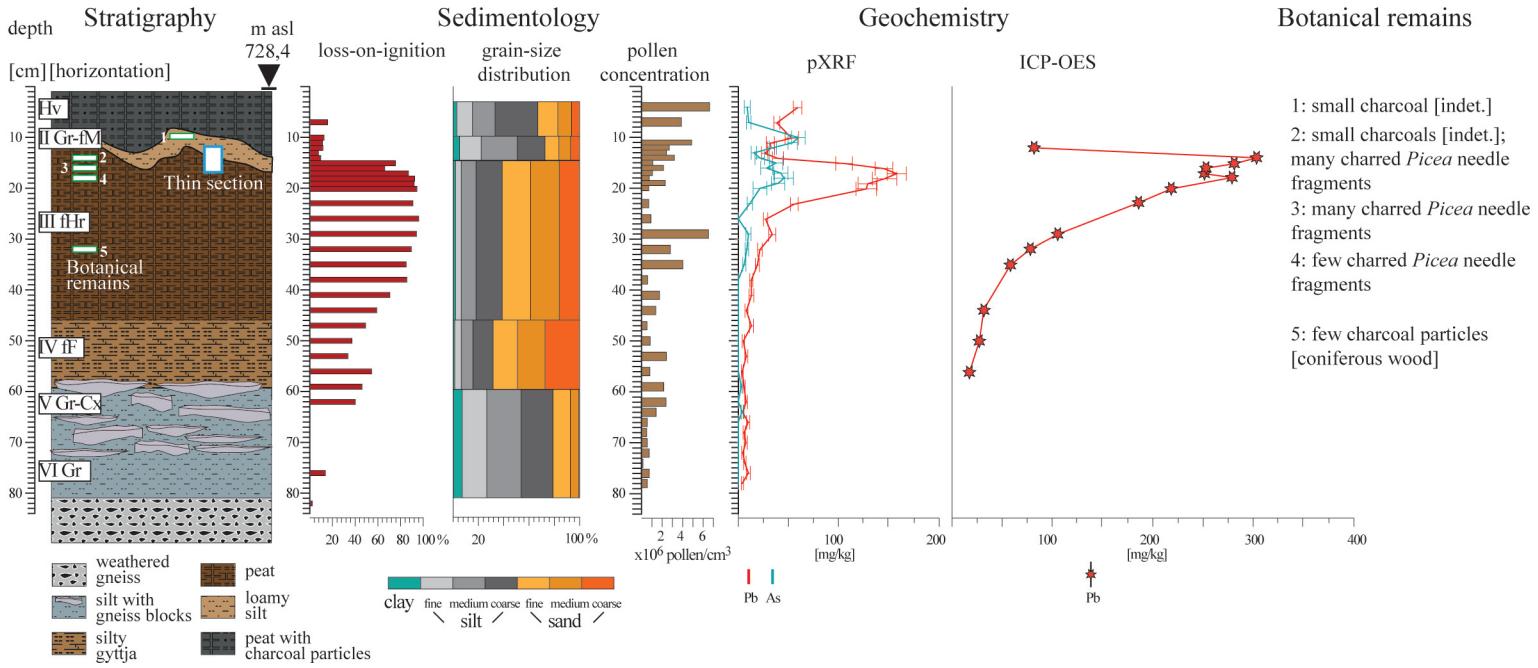


Fig. 3: Stratigraphy, sedimentology and geochemistry of profile 2 located in a peat on a stream terrace (see Fig. 2A).

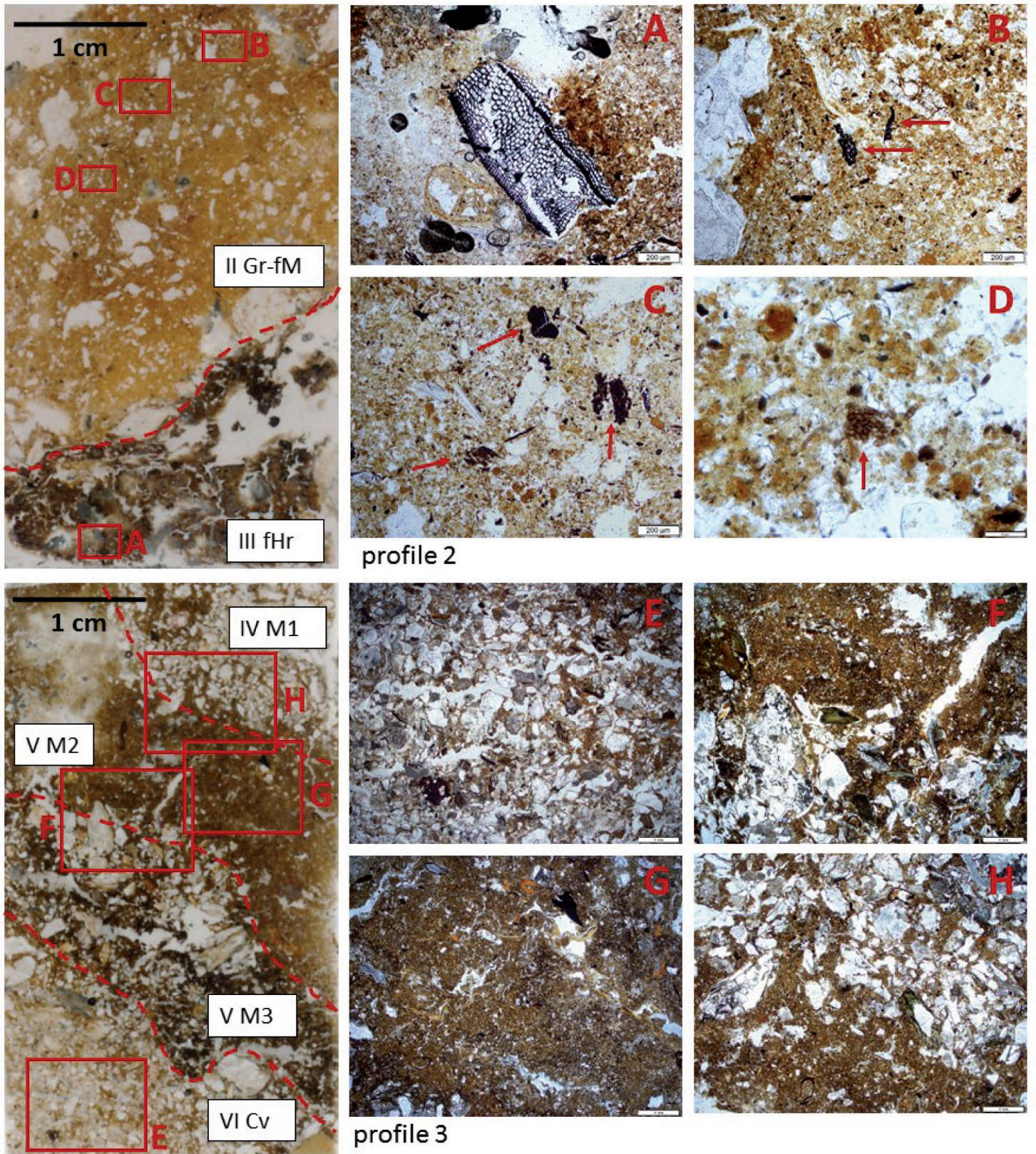


Fig. 4: Left: Scan of thin sections: Right: A: microcharcoal in peat layer (III Hr); B: microcharcoal in overlying layer (II Gr-fM); C: microaggregates (brown) and dislocated fragmented organic material (arrows); D: aggregate of *Meliola ellisii* spores; E: unlayered coarse sandy material in VI Cv; F: sharp boundary between V M2 (finer material) and V M3 (coarser material); G: fine material in V M2; H: sharp boundary between IV M1 (coarse material) and V M2 (fine material)

Ullersdorf, profile 2

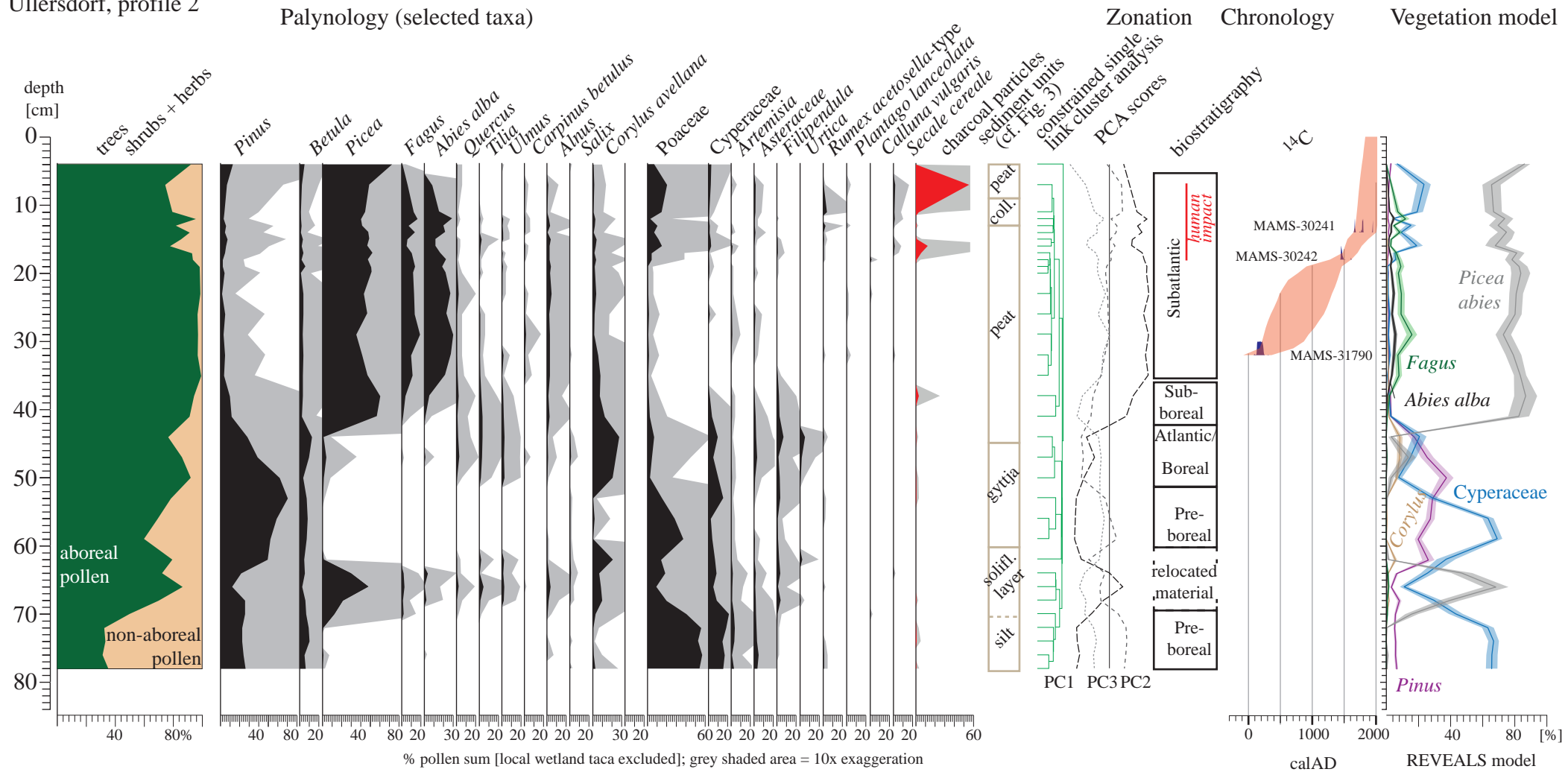


Fig. 5: Palynology and chronology of profile 2.

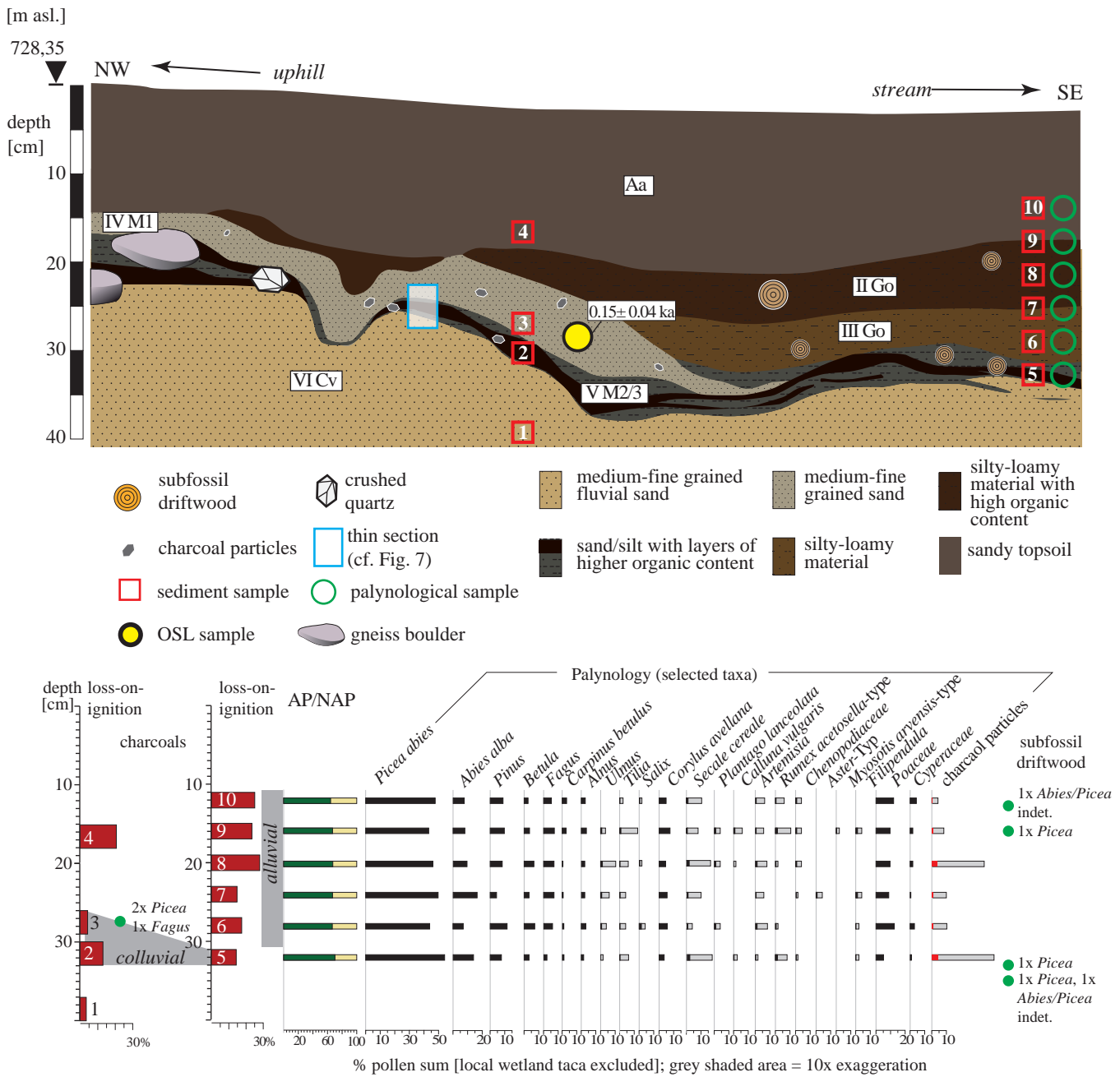


Fig. 6: Stratigraphy, palynology and chronology of profile 3 located in the stream floodplain.

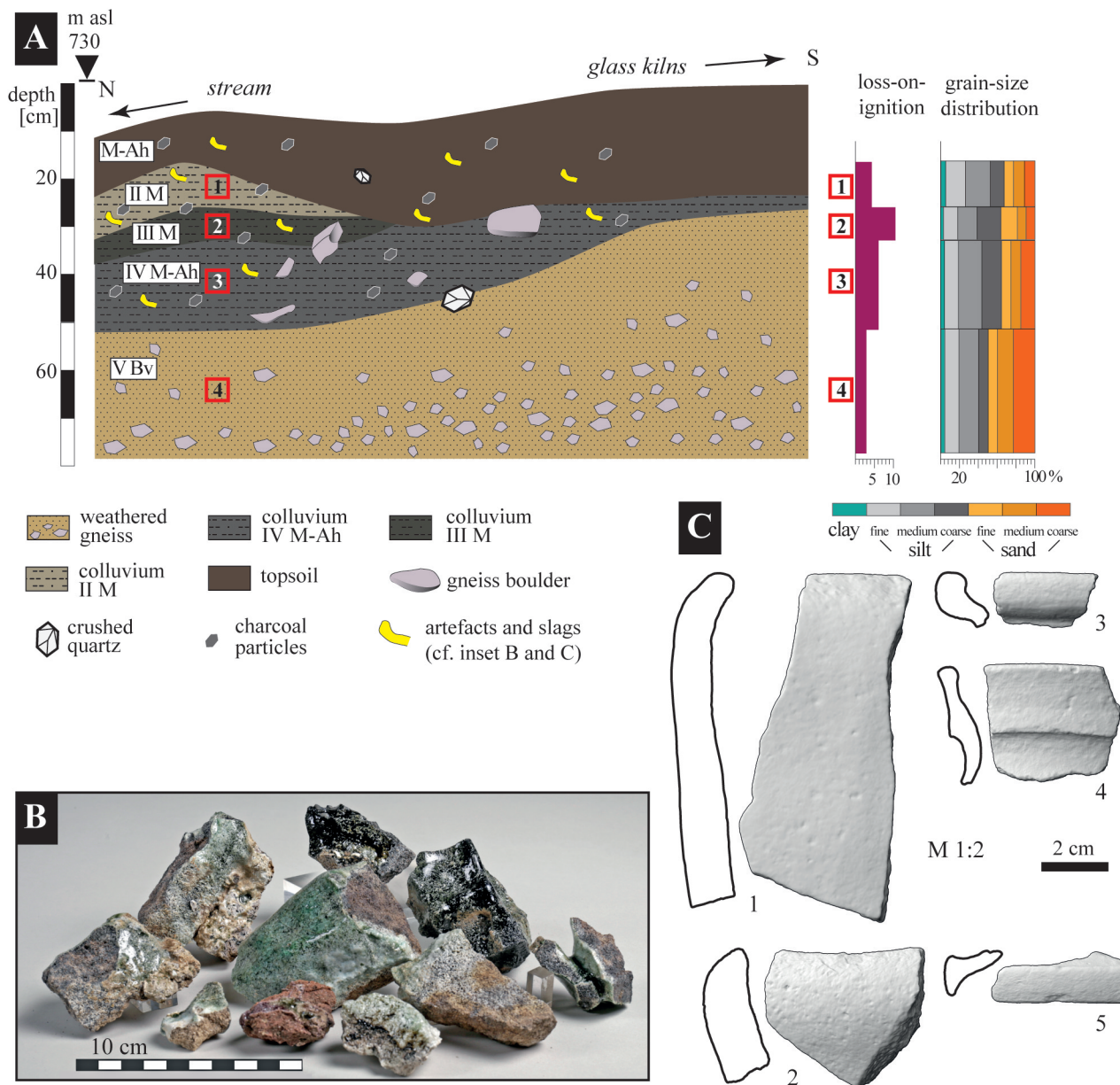


Fig. 7A: Stratigraphy and sedimentology of profile 5 immediately downhill of the glass kilns; 7B: Glass slags from colluvial layers M1-M3; 7C: Selected ceramic fragments including remains from glass melting containers (1-2), broad rim (3), high collar rim (4), and lid fragment (5).

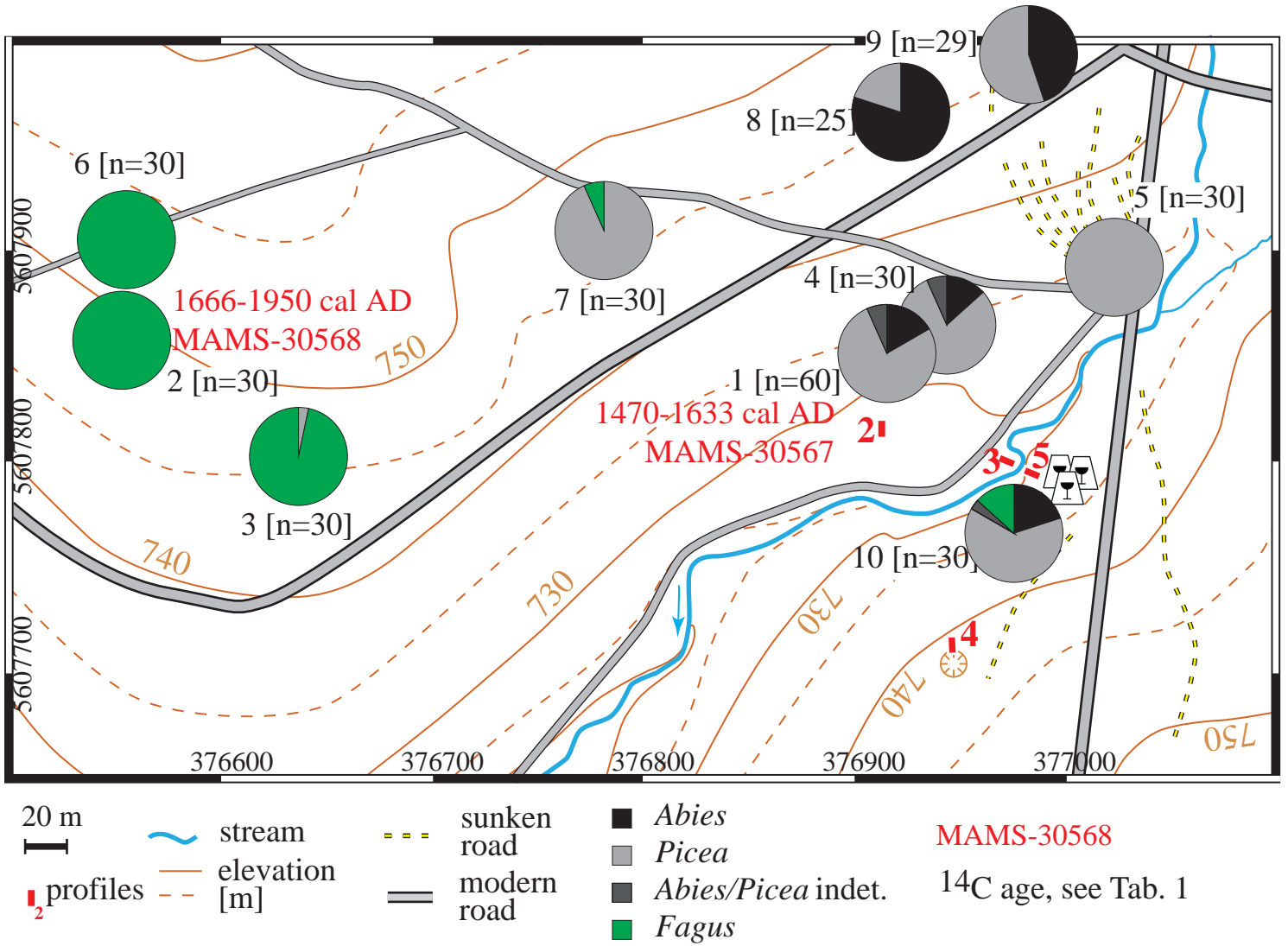


Fig. 8: Anthracological spectra from the charcoal hearths at the Ullersdorf site with topographic situation and ¹⁴C ages.

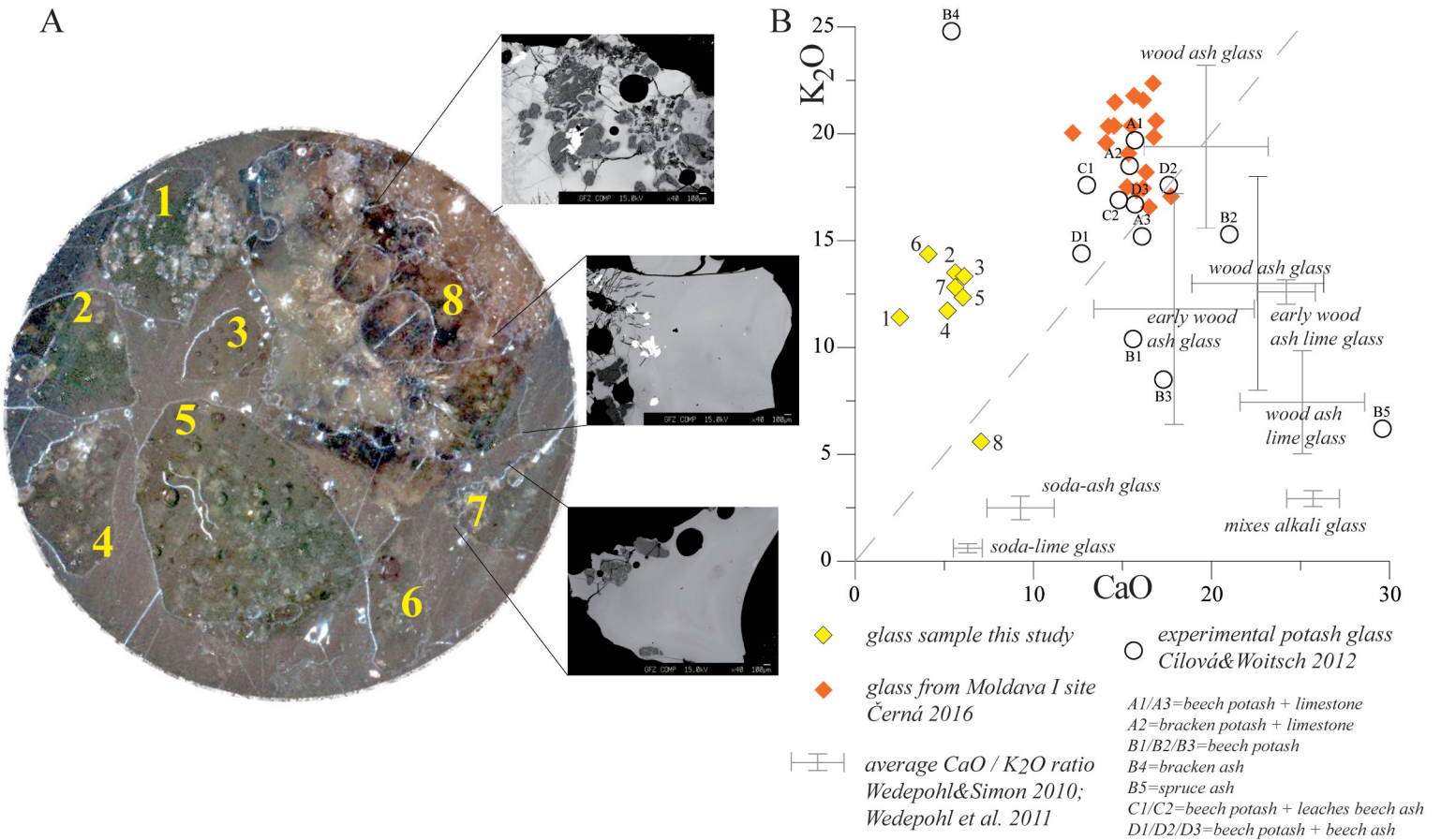


Fig. 9A: Mounted glass sample from Ullersdorf site with SEM-EDX measurement spots (see Table 3); B: CaO/K₂O plot with results from Ullersdorf, reference samples from the medieval glass production site Moldava I site in Bohemia (Černá 2016), typical ranges of different glass types from literature (Wedepohl and Simon 2010; Wedepohl et al. 2011), and glass from experimental production according to different formulas (Cílová and Woitsch 2012).

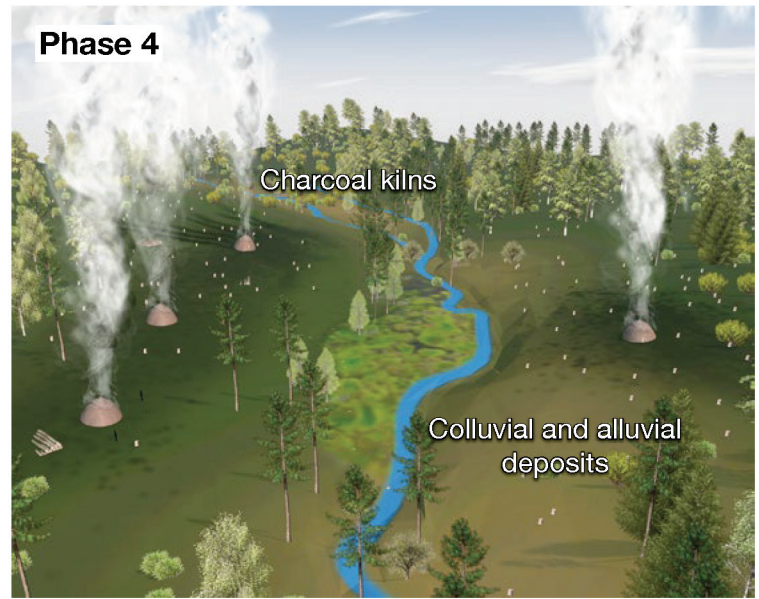
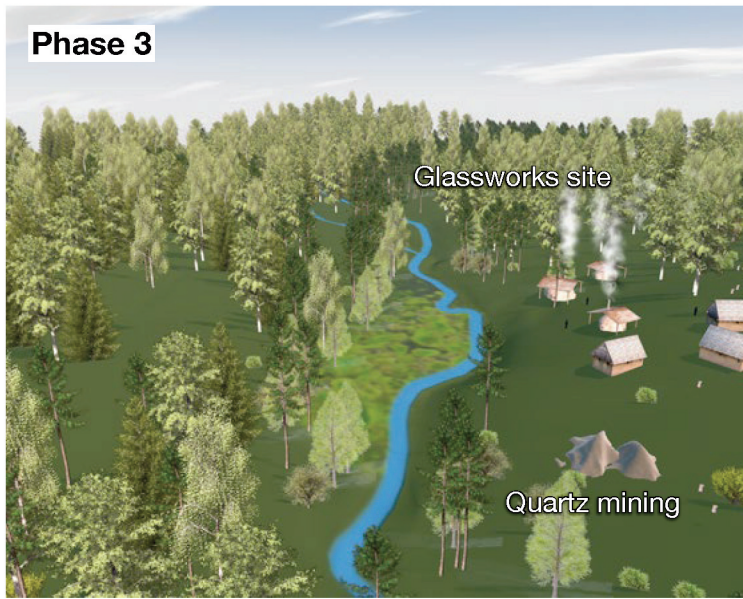
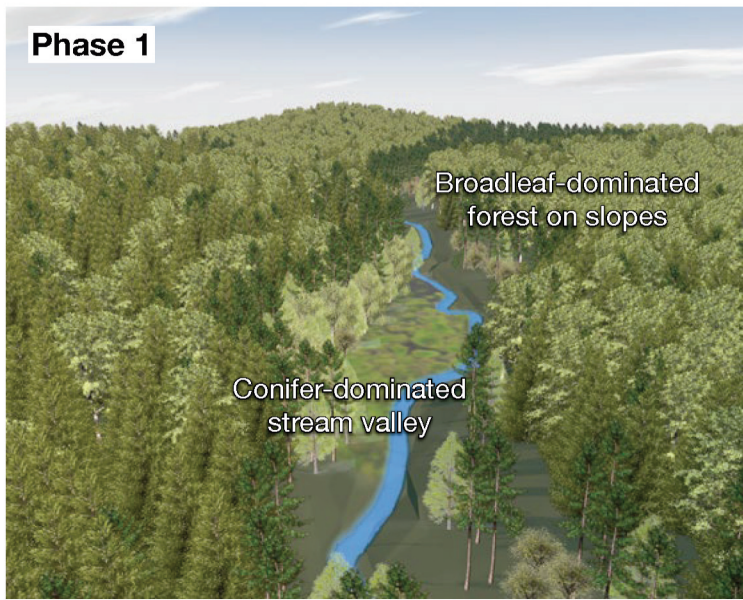


Fig. 10: Scenes from idealized 3D reconstruction of the landscape dynamics at the Ullersdorf site. Phase 1: Forest vegetation undisturbed by any local human impact, early 12th century; Phase 2: Tentative land-use associated with rural colonization in this area, mid-13th century; Phase 3: Glass production during the 14th century AD; Phase 4: After the glass production has been abandoned charcoal production is still very active and causes local clearances and soil erosion up to the 19th century; Phase 5: Today the area is completely reforested by managed stands of mainly *Picea*.

LabNo.	profile and depth below surface	material	¹⁴ C	¹⁴ C (calibrated; IntCal13, 1σ)	¹⁴ C (calibrated ; IntCal13, 2σ)	δ ¹³ C (AMS)	comment
			[BP]	[cal AD]	[cal AD]	[‰]	
MAMS-30241	profile 2, 14 cm depth	charred needles (<i>Picea abies</i>)	207 ± 17	1661-1950	1652-1950	-23.8	pollen profile
MAMS-30242	profile 2, 18 cm depth	charred needles (<i>Picea abies</i>)	408 ± 20	1446-1472	1439-1613	-40.5	pollen profile
MAMS-31406	profile 4, 45-51 cm depth	charcoal particle indet.	626 ± 19	1299-1390	1292-1395	-40.5	below mining heap
MAMS-30567	charcoal hearth 1, 10 cm depth	charred needles (<i>Abies alba</i> and <i>Picea abies</i>)	345 ± 18	1490-1628	1470-1633	27.7	charcoal hearth
MAMS-30568	charcoal hearth 2, 10 cm depth	charred twig (<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>)	171 ± 18	1670-1944	1666-1950	-29.7	charcoal hearth
MAMS-31790	profile 2, 32 cm depth	charcoal particle indet.	1831 ± 24	138-216	93-244	-29.6	pollen profile

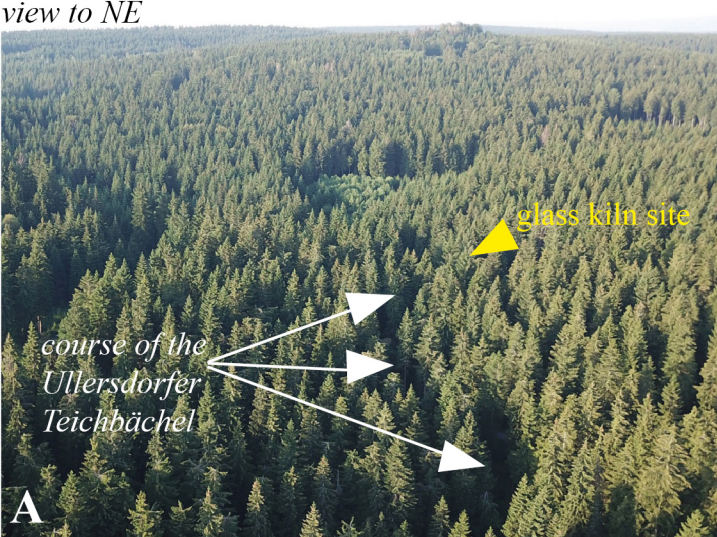
Table 1

Lab-No.	HUB-0749
Profile No.; depth below surface [cm]; elevation [m a.s.l.]; H ₂ O content [mass %]; processed grain size fraction [μm]	profile 3; 25 cm depth; 728 m a.s.l.; 40 ± 10 % H ₂ O; 90-200 μm
Measurement equipment	Risø TI/OSL-DA-15C7C unit; ⁹⁰ Sr/ ⁹⁰ Y β-ray emission 0.085 Gy/s
D _E measurement parameters	preheat: 200°C; 4 mm stencil; recycling ratio: 0.9-1.1; recuperation < 10%; OSL IR depletion ratio >0.9
Content of ²³⁸ U / ²³² Th / ⁴⁰ K in the sediment [ppm]	²³⁸ U: 4.31 ± 0.19 ppm; ²³² Th: 10.05 ± 0.52 ppm; ⁴⁰ K: 2.84 ± 0.05 ppm
D ₀ Dose rate [Gy/ka]	3.29 ± 0.19 Gy/ka
D _E Equivalent dose	0.49 ± 0.13 Gy (Minimum Age Model (MAM) according Galbraith et al. (1999) was applied. An overdispersion of sigma b = 0.2 was set within the MAM)
OSL age	0.15 ± 0.04 ka

Technical report and results used to calculate the OSL age

measurement area (see fig. 10)	Al ₂ O	K ₂ O	Fe O	Na ₂ O	Ca O	SiO ₂	Mg O	TiO ₂	Mn O	P ₂ O ₅	SO ₃	Pb O	Ag ₂ O
1	5.32	11.4 1	1.8 6	0.23	2.5 0	76.2 3	0.63	0.20	0.13	0.12	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.00</i>
2	5.85	13.5 1	1.8 3	0.33	5.6 1	69.2 3	1.17	0.37	0.27	0.18	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.00</i>
3	4.61	13.3 4	1.5 4	0.33	6.1 2	70.2 9	1.12	0.25	0.32	0.19	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>
4	6.45	11.7 3	1.6 6	0.25	5.1 8	72.0 4	1.07	0.40	0.25	0.15	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>
5	6.26	12.3 5	1.5 1	0.27	6.0 4	70.1 3	1.23	0.36	0.28	0.17	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>
6	4.86	14.3 7	1.5 8	0.36	4.1 0	72.4 9	0.79	0.26	0.20	0.10	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>
7	4.88	12.8 2	1.4 4	0.33	5.6 1	70.4 9	1.13	0.30	0.28	0.15	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>
8	7.17	5.59	2.2 7	0.07	7.0 7	73.6 8	1.13	0.49	0.30	0.18	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>1</i>	<i>0.00</i>
crushed quartz from profile 5	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	99.5 0	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>0</i>	<i>0.0</i> <i>2</i>	<i>0.00</i>

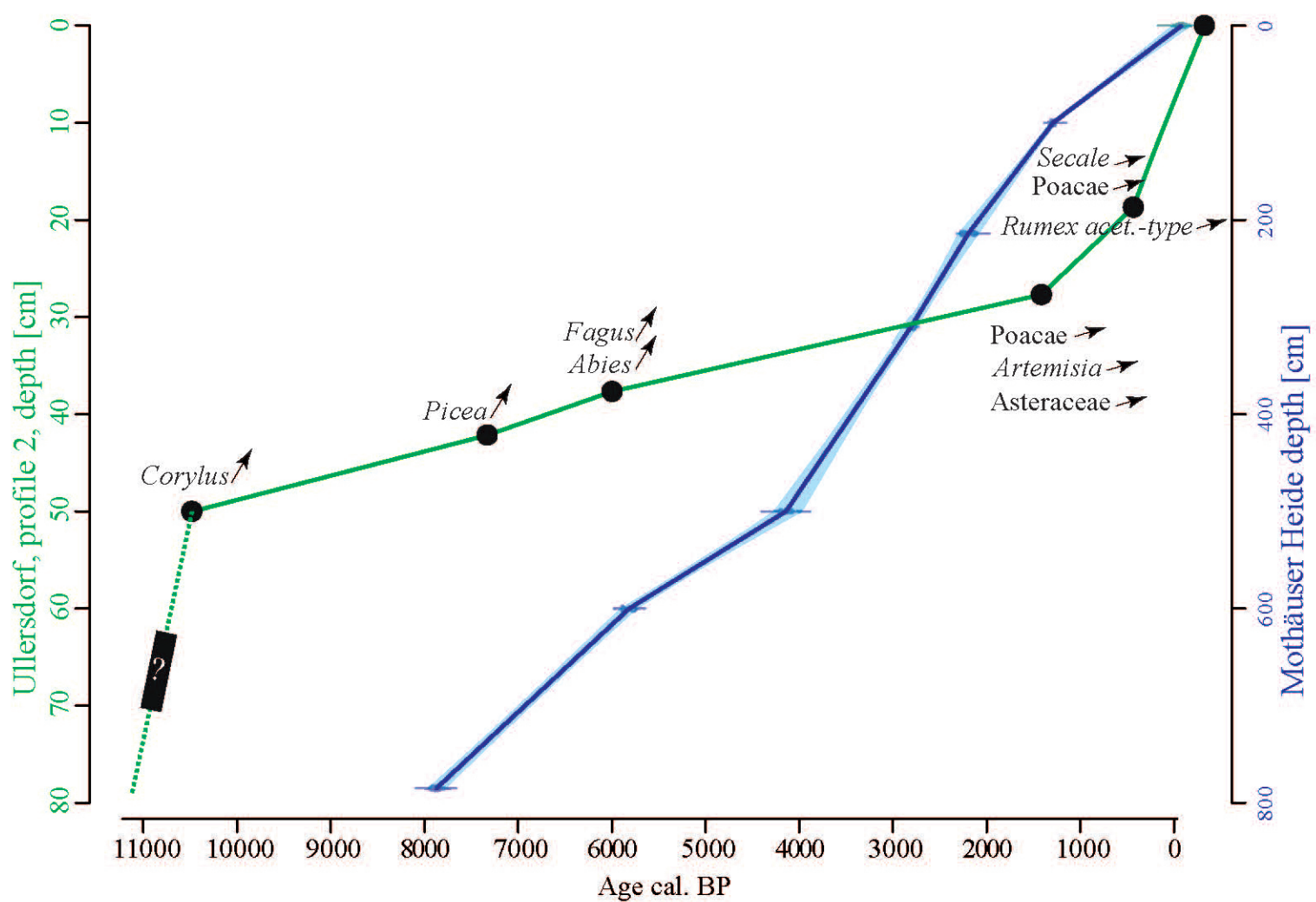
Median values of mass % of oxides from repeated measurements with JXA 8500F EPMA. Values in italics are below detection limit. Natural volcanic glass from Lipari was used as cross reference material.

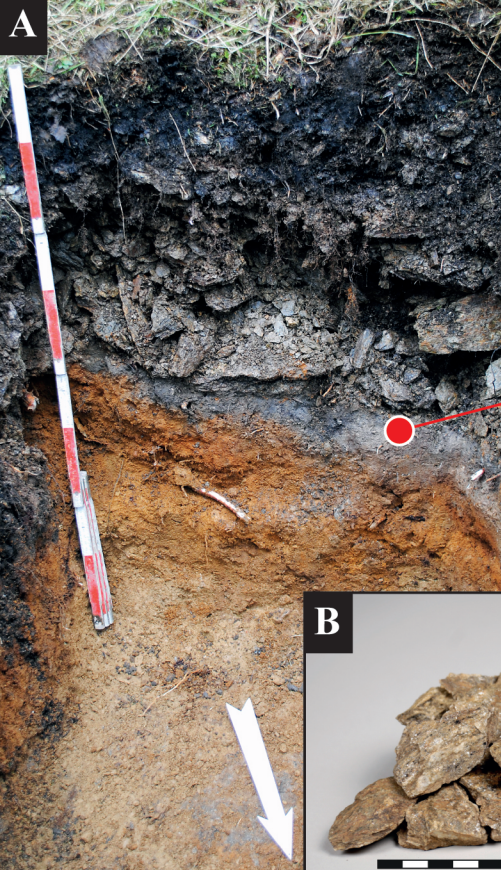


Profile ID	Sample ID	Sampling depth (cm)	Sediment facies	Soil horizon (KAS) ¹	Soil horizon (FAO) ²	Colour	Grain-size composition, main fractions			Textural class (KA5)	Grain-size composition, single fractions						Loss-on-ignition (%)	
							Clay <0.002 mm (%)	Silt <0.063 mm (%)	Sand <2 mm (%)		Clay <0.002 mm (%)	Fine silt <0.0063 mm (%)	Medium silt <0.02 (%)	Coarse silt <0.063 mm (%)	Fine sand <0.2 (%)	Medium sand <0.63 (%)		Coarse sand <2 mm (%)
2	KG-121	5-7	Peat	Hv	He	black	1,7	65,2	33,1	Us	3,0	12,5	17,8	33,6	16,0	10,7	6,4	55,5
2	KG-122	7-14	Colluvial (silt)	II Gr-fM	2Crb	yellow brown	2,7	70,0	27,3	Us	5,0	17,2	28,5	22,0	10,9	9,3	7,1	12,0
2	KG-123	36-40	Peat	III fHr	3Heb	black	3,7	37,3	59,0	Su3	1,9	5,1	11,0	21,2	22,3	22,4	16,1	88,9
2	KG-124	56-60	Lacustrine (organic gyttja)	IV fF	4Lrb	dark greyish brown	4,7	30,4	64,9	Su3	1,4	4,9	9,7	15,8	19,3	21,6	27,4	80,8
2	KG-125	60-75	Soilfluction layer (stones, silty matrix)	V Gr-Cx	5Cr	olive grey	5,7	73,1	21,2	Us	7,2	19,5	27,2	24,9	14,1	6,5	0,6	10,4
2	-	75-80	Cover bed (gravel), weathered gneiss	VI Gr	6Cr	grey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	KG-12	15	Fluvial (loam)	Go-aAa	Ah/Cl	black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	KG-35	20	Fluvial (loam)	II Go-faAa	2Ah/Cl	dark brown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	KG-33	28	Fluvial (loam)	III Go-faAa	3Ah/Cl	brown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	KG-30	25-30	Colluvial (sand)	IV Go-M1	4Cl	light grey brown	1,7	43,2	55,1	Su4	3,8	9,3	13,9	20,0	18,4	22,5	12,1	4,5
3	KG-29	30-35	Colluvial (silt)	V Go-M2	5Cl	dark brown	2,7	54,0	43,3	Us	2,7	8,9	14,6	30,5	31,9	9,4	2,0	13,2
3	KG-28	40	Fluvial (sand)	VI Go	6Cl	reddish brown	3,7	44,0	52,3	Su4	5,4	11,0	16,0	17,0	19,7	19,4	11,5	3,8
4	-	0-5	Mining rubble (gravel)	yAh	Ahu	black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	5-40	Mining rubble (gravel and stones)	yC	Cu	dark grey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	40-45	Palaeosol (formed from silty cover bed)	II fAh	2Ahb	grey with black dots	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	45-80	Weathered gneiss	III Bv, III ICv	3Bw, 3C	reddish brown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	0-10	Colluvial (silt)	M-Ah	Ah	black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	KG-129	10-18	Colluvial (silt)	II M	2Ahb	brown-grey	3,7	64,0	32,3	Us	5,6	20,3	27,0	14,8	10,1	11,4	10,8	4,4
5	KG-130	18-25	Colluvial (silt)	III M	3Ahb	dark grey-brown	4,7	59,9	35,4	Us	3,4	14,3	20,8	26,1	17,2	9,2	9,0	10,6
5	KG-131	25-32	Colluvial (silt)	IV M-Ah	4Ahb	light grey-brown	5,7	59,2	35,1	Us	3,8	15,3	24,6	21,2	9,4	11,2	14,5	6,1
5	KG-132	32-62	Cover bed (sand), weathered gneiss	V Bv	5Bw	brown	6,7	46,7	46,6	Su4	3,9	15,4	20,8	10,5	9,5	17,0	22,9	2,9

¹Ad-hoc-AG Boden, 2005. Bodenkundliche Kartieranleitung (KA5), 5th edition. Schweizerbart, Hannover.

²FAO, 2006. Guidelines for Soil Description, 4th edition. FAO, Rome.





topsoil (Ah)

mining heap
(see inset B)

1292-1395 cal AD (MAMS-31406)

reworked buried topsoil (II fAh)
with charcoals

weathered gneiss material and
cambisol features (III Bv/Cv)

B



quartz

10 cm