

# The environmental impact of cultural change: palynological and quantitative land cover reconstructions for the last two millennia in northern Poland

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Evidence for the onset of mining activities during the 13 <sup>th</sup> century in Poland using lead
isotopes from lake sediment cores
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#### ABSTRACT 11

12 Efforts to study how human activities have influenced the environment since the end of the Roman period to present day are lacking for North Central Europe. Here, we present new lead (Pb) 13 14 isotope data determined from two sediment cores collected from ancient lakes spanning the last 15 1,500 years, located in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship, Poland. Study sites at Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd were used to differentiate Pb sources. Radzyń Chełmiński is located in 16 17 the vicinity of a late Medieval Teutonic Order castle and town, while Rywald is situated within a relatively pristine area until the 19<sup>th</sup> century when it became used for agricultural purpose. Core 18 samples were analyzed for Pb concentration and isotopes (<sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, <sup>208</sup>Pb). Bayesian modelling 19 was used to isolate the anthropogenic signal at each site over time. 20

21 For both sites, Pb enrichment factors relative to titanium (Ti) and upper continental crust values range from 13 to 159. Lead isotopic ratios range from background, pre-anthropogenic local 22 values  $({}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.31 \pm 0.03\%, {}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 1.97 \pm 0.04\%)$  to anthropogenic values (SW 23 Poland coal, ore, slag  ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.17 \pm 0.01\%$ ,  ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 2.09 \pm 0.01\%$ ). Modeled 24 anthropogenic contribution varies greatly over time, ranging from 14 to 100%. At Radzyń 25 Chełmiński, modeled anthropogenic Pb contribution and measured Pb concentration follow 26 similar trends. However, at Rywald, from around A.D.1000 to A.D. 1400 these profiles diverge 27 significantly. Our new insights highlight different sources of Pb from the 12<sup>th</sup> century to present 28 day: (1) short range agricultural activities from the town, and (2) long range mining activities. 29 Additionally, prior to the 12<sup>th</sup> century, our data suggest continental anthropogenic activity possibly 30 favored by a warmer climate. 31

32

#### 33 KEYWORDS

34 Lead – Isotopes – Sediments – Anthropogenic – Sources – Medieval

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### 36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Lead (Pb) is a toxic, non-essential, trace element particularly useful for tracking anthropogenic input in environmental archives (e.g. Lanphear et al., 2005). Using Pb isotopes, we can differentiate between anthropogenic (industrial and mining activities, coal and fuel burning; e.g. Cheng and Hu, 2010) and natural sources (i.e. natural weathering processes) that release Pb into the environment (Grousset et al., 1994; Thevenon et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2014); and as a result, hypothesize on the timing and locations of past human activities (Fagel et al., 2014; Hosono
et al., 2016; Zohar et al., 2014).

Three radioisotopes (<sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, <sup>208</sup>Pb) are commonly measured for this type of study 44 (Alfonso et al., 2001; Komarek et al., 2008; Reimann et al., 2012). Due to the durations of their 45 half-lives, these isotopes are considered meta-stable in geologically recent sediment (e.g. Russell 46 47 and Farquhar, 1960). There are no known environmental or industrial processes that fractionate Pb isotopes, and thus the isotopic composition of Pb is affected by Pb source and geologic location 48 (Cheng and Hu, 2010; Doe, 1970; Flegal and Smith, 1995). Additionally, Pb is relatively stable 49 within the sediment column and not readily susceptible to remobilization by early diagenetic 50 processes or biological activities (Audry et al., 2011; Gallon et al., 2004; Harlavan, 1998; Huerta-51 Diaz, 1998; McIntyre and Gueguen, 2013; Schultz et al., 1987; Tessier et al., 1996). By analyzing 52 ratios of these three isotopes: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb, it is possible to assess how source 53 contributions of Pb have changed over time for a given location (Baron et al., 2006; Harlavan et 54 al., 2010; Zohar et al., 2014). 55

Within the environment, Pb isotope ratios may be influenced by local, regional, or global 56 sources (e.g. Choi et al., 2007, Martinez Cortizas et al., 2002, 2016, Mil-Homens et al., 2013, 57 2017). For example, In the Iberian Peninsula a number of studies have used Pb isotope ratios to 58 document evidence of regional metallurgy and mining from the Chalcolithic (~3000 BC) to 59 60 modern period (last 200 years; Martinez Cortizas et al., 2002, 2016, Mil-Homens et al., 2013). In marine sediment within the Portuguese Margin, Pb isotope ratios were also able to record Roman 61 and modern mining activities from the adjacent Iberian region (Mil-Homens et al., 2017, (Include 62 63 examples from above refs.) Global signatures from atmospheric transport and deposition of Pb, such as Saharan dust storms, and leaded gasoline emissions in modern times, has also been 64

documented (e.g. Bi et al., 2017, Mil-Homens et al., 2017, Shotyk et al., 1998). For this study, 65 regional sources are defined as mining of coal ore, smelting, and leaded gasoline exhaust. 66 Historical mining activities 300 to 500 km to the southwest of the study site may have introduced 67 Pb to the atmosphere, allowing for transport downwind to the study site. This Pb transported over 68 long range is deposited, via association with sinking particles, in lake and peat sediments (e.g. 69 70 Novak et al., 2003). Local sources, on the scale of kilometers or less, can also contribute to Pb enrichments and/or changes in the Pb isotope ratios in sediments. They include enhanced 71 weathering and erosion of the surrounding landscape due to agricultural activities, building 72 73 development, metalwork, and domestic coal burning.

Regional patterns of Pb transport are of particular interest in Poland due to Poland's unique 74 75 climatic signal in comparison to the rest of Europe, which is sensitive to both oceanic and 76 continental influences (e.g. Zamoyski, 1987). Specifically, the Medieval Warm Period (MWP) ended in Poland earlier than the rest of Europe (Medieval Warm Period: MWP; A.D. 800 to 1300; 77 e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009a). The portion of the MWP that influenced Poland is known as 78 the Climatic Optimum in Poland (COP, A.D. 800 to 1150; e.g. Pluskowski, 2013). These climatic 79 patterns may have played two non-mutually exclusive impacts on anthropogenic Pb contributions: 80 81 directly by impacting efficiency of atmospheric Pb long range transport from mining regions, and indirectly through changes in human activity at the vicinity of our study sites associated with these 82 climatic changes. 83

Historical Pb contamination associated with mining activities in Poland has been documented. The Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Silesia, in Southwestern Poland were heavily mined for coal, copper (Cu), iron (Fe), silver (Ag), and zinc-lead (Zn-Pb) ores (e.g. Cabala et al., 2013; Kierczak et al., 2013; Rybicka, 1996). There is historical documentation of ore mining since the 12<sup>th</sup> century, but there may have been mining activity as early as the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D.
(Ciarkowska et al., 2016; Kierczak et al., 2013; Kylander et al., 2005; Tyszka et al., 2012). Mining
activities were recorded as Pb isotopic ratios and other trace element concentrations in Baltic Sea
sediment from the 12<sup>th</sup> to 17<sup>th</sup> century A.D. (Zaborska, 2014), and in a bog located in Northern
Poland (De Vleeschouwer et al, 2009a, b) from the 9<sup>th</sup> to 18<sup>th</sup> century A.D.

93 Previous studies throughout Europe measured Pb isotopes in lake and bog sediment to estimate the importance and origin of anthropogenic Pb (e.g. Martínez Cortizas et al., 2002). 94 Sedimentary records from lake and wetland systems act as environmental archives for local and 95 96 regional anthropogenic activity over time. Ideal study sites for differentiating between local and regional, anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic Pb sources comprise at least two nearby locations: 97 one rural (relatively pristine) and a second that was influenced by documented human activities. 98 Previous results obtained from sedimentary cores using Pb isotopes from A.D. 500 (post Roman 99 period) to around A.D. 1800 (pre-Industrial Revolution) focus on Western and Central Europe. 100 The few previous studies based to the east of Germany analyzed sediment samples from 101 mountainous regions (Monna et al., 2000; Shotyk, 1998; Véron et al., 2014) and the Baltic Sea 102 (Zillen et al. 2012). Only one study in Northern Poland aimed to track solely regional signals of 103 coal and mining from Southwest Poland (De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). 104

105 No known high temporal resolution data has been previously published for Pb isotopes in 106 the Kulmerland region. The main objective of this research was to quantify anthropogenic Pb 107 pollution over the last 1,500 years at Radzyń Chełmiński, using primarily Pb isotopic signatures. 108 By comparing similar cores from two nearby sites (one in a rural area and a second in the vicinity 109 of a town), we investigated short range (activity from a surrounding town) versus long range 110 (mining signal from Southwestern Poland) transport pollution, as well as potential indirect climatic impacts on human development. Our combination of historical context with detailed geochemicaldata provide new insights about the extent of local and regional pollution dispersal.

113

#### 114 **2. METHODOLOGY**

#### 115 **<u>2.1 Study Sites</u>**

Two distinct ancient lake systems within the Chełmo Land, Kuyavian-Pomeranian 116 Voivodeship, Poland were sampled for this study: Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd (Figure 1). The 117 Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship lies along the border of historic Prussia and Poland. It came 118 under Polish control from the mid-10th century and was at the frontier between Polish and Prussian 119 territories. There were increasing raids by Prussians into the 12th and early 13th century in 120 response to attempts by Poland to conquer Prussian territories, and eventually Konrad I Duke of 121 Masovia invited in the Teutonic Order to help defend his territories in the early 1230s - with the 122 first timber fortification built at Radzyn in 1234. Historical texts and archaeological studies 123 indicate human settlement from the end of the Roman period (around 300 A.D.) to present (e.g. 124 Pluskowski, 2013). The wetlands, including the Castle Lake, are now largely infilled and covered 125 in sedges, with surface water present to ca. 10–20 cm within the interior of the lake, mostly during 126 the wet winter/spring months. 127

The site at Radzyń Chełmiński lies within 300 m of Radzyń Chełmiński Castle, a Teutonic
Order castle built between 1310 and 1340 A.D., and a town of approximately 2,000 inhabitants,
settled in concurrence with the settlement of the Teutonic Order (early 13th century; Brown et al.,
2015). The castle remained an important commander center into the 15th century, but was

dissolved in 1454 during the Thirteen Years War (1454–1466). By the 16th century much of the
western wing of the castle was a disused ruin. The castle was partly dismantled in the 19th century.

134 Rywałd, located 7 km due East of Radzyń Chełmiński, is a rural site with evidence of 135 woodland, and minor human impact within the pollen record of the same core during the 11th to 12th centuries (Brown et al., 2015). The surrounding area only was used within the past century 136 137 for agricultural purposes (Brown et al., 2015). The Vistula and Drweca rivers are in proximity to both sites. The Vistula River runs through the center of the Voivodeship which was once the 138 frontier zone between Slavic Pomeralia (East Pomerania), Prussian Pomesania, and Piast Poland 139 (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011; Pluskowski, 2013; Zamoyski, 1987). The underlying sediment is 140 made up of glacial till deposited by the Scandinavian ice sheet during the Vistulian (Weichselian) 141 Glaciation (receded 11,700 years ago; Marks, 2012). 142

143

#### 144 2.2 Sampling

Two sediment cores, 100 cm (Radzyń Chełmiński) and 120 cm (Rywałd) depth, were 145 collected in August 2013 from the center of each wetland basin using a Russian auger. The 146 coordinates of the two sequences are 53°22'27.4" N, 19°03'13.7" E (Rywald) and 53°23' N, 18°56' 147 E (Radzyn). Sampling intervals were adjusted to obtain high-resolution records during the 148 Crusading Period and Teutonic Order occupation focused on the late medieval period (13th to 16th 149 centuries) based on age models derived from radiocarbon dating. For Radzyń Chełmiński and 150 Rywałd, 60 and 59 samples were considered, respectively. In March 2014, "background" samples 151 of glacial sediment at 100-200 cm depth below land surface were collected adjacent to both lakes 152 using a gouge auger to provide the natural background signature for each site. Four background 153

samples for Radzyń were collected at Golebiewko, including 6 subsamples (N 53 degrees 23'39.
7" E 018 degrees 59'31. 1"). Three background samples for Rywałd were collected in Rywałd,
including 9 subsamples (N 53 degrees 20'58.5" E 019 degrees 05'22.0"). All samples were stored
at 4°C prior to analysis.

158

### 159 **2.3 Analyses**

Sediment cores were logged to determine macroscopic lithofacies. Mastersizer Laser analysis was used to specify particle size within each macro layer. Samples were collected every 162 10 cm for each lithofacies section. Samples were placed on a plastic crucible where a minimal amount of Calgon solution was added and mixed into sample with a rubber stamper until all 164 particles were separated. All organic material and particles above 2mm were removed. The 165 solution was washed with ultra-pure water into the Mastersizer Laser for analysis.

166 Extruded sediment samples dried at room temperature for three days, and homogenized with mortar and pestle prior to digestion. Aliquots of 500 mg for each sample were transferred to 167 digestion tubes and cold digested at room temperature for 12 hours using 10 ml ultra-high purity 168 169 HNO<sub>3</sub> under clean lab conditions. Tubes were moved to hot baths and heated at 60°C for three hours, then at 110°C for an additional 12 hours. We wanted to extract metal deposition from the 170 sediments bound to organic matter, metal that had adhered to particles as a result of atmospheric 171 deposition and metals and elements bound to sediment surfaces. We did not want to digest all the 172 inorganic, silicate material as this leads to a much more complex Pb isotope signal with the 173 potential to mix from multiple geological sources. Studies have shown (Cook et al. 1997) that hot 174 HNO3 digestion delivers similar results to other digestion techniques as the bulk of the metal 175

concentration is absorbed to the mineral surfaces and/or in organic matter, not in the mineral
silicate components. Digested samples were filtered using a 0.45 µm filter and diluted to 100 ml
in ultra-pure water for analysis.

179 Reference materials (Sewage Reference 5RSS53) and full instrument blanks were included for all analyses. In order to quantify the recovery rates from our digestion methods we used an 180 181 internal sewage sludge standard normalized against an international standard (ERM CC144), which has reported values for extractable metals in sewage sludge. The reason we chose these 182 standards is that they have reported values for both total digestion and extractable metals (using 183 nitric acid), and have relatively high TOC (36 wt %) which was similar to the peaty, organic 184 sediments from the core materials. The reported values for our internal standard (normalized to 185 ERM CC144) for Pb were 118 mg/kg and 8.8 mg/kg for Ti. The average of our extracted values 186 over four runs (n=8) were 128 +/- 13 mg/kg and 9.7 +/- 2.1 mg/kg for Pb and Ti respectively, 187 resulting in a recovery of 108 +/- 9% and 111 +- 18%, respectively. This indicates that the nitric 188 acid extraction used was capable of liberating all of the available metal components in the organic 189 fraction. 190

Lead and titanium concentrations were determined using a Perkin Optima 7300 Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) at the University of Reading, UK. For each depth horizon, the enrichment factor (E.F.) for Pb was calculated using the equation (1) provided below (Gloaguen and Passe, 2017; N'guessan et al., 2009) and average upper crustal Pb and Ti concentrations (McLennan, 2001). Enrichment Factor quantifies the amount of enrichment of Pb from natural levels within sediment (e.g. Chester and Stoner, 1973, N'guessan et al., 2009):

197

$$EF = \frac{\left(\frac{Pb}{Ti}\right)_{sample}}{\left(\frac{Pb}{Ti}\right)_{upper \ continental \ crust}} \tag{1}$$

(04)

To determine Pb isotopic compositions, digested samples were further diluted to 4 ppb of 198 Pb for each sample, based on individual Pb concentrations per sample as quantified by ICP-OES, 199 to maintain the same concentration throughout samples. This was done so that Pb concentration 200 would not affect Pb isotope analysis. Reference NIST SRM 981 was used as the external standard 201 for <sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, and <sup>208</sup>Pb measurements. All analyses were run in bracket configuration (standard-202 sample-standard) to allow for mass drift correction. Three Pb isotopes, namely <sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, and 203 <sup>208</sup>Pb, were analyzed via Inductively Coupled Plasma - Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS) 204 (ThermoFisher iCapQ) equipped with a collision cell. The external calibration standard NIST SRM 205 981 was used to allow for mass drift correction. The mass drift for <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb were 206 routinely <0.5%. Two Pb isotope ratios were calculated: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb. These ratios 207 have been the most widely used in similar studies to determine anthropogenic inputs (e.g. Alfonso 208 et al., 2001, Bi et al., 2017, Díaz-Somoano et al., 2009, Monna et al., 2000,). 209

210

#### 211 2.4 Sediment Dating

Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) <sup>14</sup>C dating was used to determine absolute age and accumulation rates of sediment. Twelve samples were processed for Radzyń Chełmiński, at 10 cm intervals, with 10 samples taken from Rywałd, at 5-15 cm intervals. Samples for radiocarbon dating were sent to the Scottish Universities Research Centre (SUERC), Glasgow, Scotland. Linear regression modelling was conducted using Bayesian accumulation to provide age-to depth estimations through each core (SI\_1; Bacon; Blaauw and Christen, 2011). To represent sediment dates, the notation "A.D." was used for the age.

Reliable chronologies are a fundamental component of palaeoecological investigation of 219 lakes and peat bogs. Terrestrial plant macrofossils are considered the most reliable material for 220 radiocarbon dating (Blaauw et al 2004), although unfortunately none were recovered from either 221 Radzyń or Rywałd. Radiocarbon dates were therefore derived on samples of gyttja (Radzyń) and 222 in the case of Rywald on both peat and gyttja. Care was taken to identify any potential issues of 223 224 contamination with old or young. Contamination by young carbon may occur through root penetration, whilst lake sediments may exhibit older radiocarbon ages (reservoir effect) reflecting 225 226 inclusion of old carbon eroded from calcareous soils/bedrock, or through the uptake of dissolved 227 inorganic carbon by aquatic plants (Bjőrk and Wohlfarth 2004; Butz 2017).

Samples of bulk peat from Rywald are derived from herbaceous fen considered reliable material for radiocarbon dating (e.g. Nilsson et al 2001; Blaauw et al 2004). The peat deposits reflect treeless habitats, although some herbaceous plants growing in fens, such as sedges, have root systems which can penetrate down to 2m, with the potential to introduce young carbon unless removed (e.g. Valiranta et al 2014). However, no roots or evidence for rooting by either trees or herbaceous plants was recorded during the detailed examination and sampling of the cores.

234 The core from Radzyń was the final of three cores (Radzyń 3) sampled and analysed from the Castle lake, with dates derived on gyttja (Radzyń 2 and Radzyń 3) and in the case of the first 235 Radzyń core (Radzyń 1) on both peat and gyttja. Although the occurrence and/or magnitude of a 236 237 reservoir effect can be difficult to determine without supporting dates from plant macrofossils or lake varves, comparison between the four lake sequences from Radzyń and Rywałd suggest that if 238 present at all, the reservoir effect had a negligible effect on the chronologies. All four sequences 239 240 show a strong linear progression in radiocarbon dates. There is a high degree of temporal similarity in pollen signals between sites, irrespective of whether dates are derived from peat or gyttja. 241

Similarity is apparent in the timing of key changes in vegetation and land-use, most apparent in 242 the decline in hornbeam, and the onset of major anthropogenic activity from c. AD 1100 (Brown 243 2019); these changes are considered to reflect comparable local-regional processes, reflected with 244 varying magnitude in all four sequences from Radzyń and Rywałd. One could reasonably expect 245 to observe spatial and temporal variations in the magnitude of a reservoir effect, reflecting 246 247 variation in carbon input within and between sites and pollen sequences as a result of lake catchment, vegetation and land-use (e.g. Tranvik et al 2009; Shou et al 2015) The high degree of 248 similarity therefore argues against a significant reservoir effect at Radzyń and Rywałd. 249

250

#### 251 **<u>2.5 Modelling</u>**

The Bayesian mixing model Food Reconstruction Using Isotopic Transferred Signals 252 (FRUITS; Fernandes et al., 2014) was run with our Pb isotope data (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb) 253 to model the anthropogenic contribution (in % of total Pb) versus time for both sites. Although 254 FRUITS was made for dietary reconstruction, it is a general mixing model suitable for 255 environmental isotopic modeling (e.g. Fernandes et al., 2014). FRUITS manual recommends to 256 not using too many sources vs proxies, no more than +1 (i.e. if you have 2 isotope ratios, you 257 shouldn't be asking FRUITS to attribute to more than 3 sources which is our case). For our 258 modeling, natural endmembers comprised the mean background values specific to each site. The 259 260 anthropogenic endmember for both sites was calculated from the mean of published Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag lead isotopic signatures (Tyszka et al., 2012). The dust endmember for 261 both sites was taken from Veron et al. (2014). 262

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#### **3. RESULTS**

#### 265 <u>3.1 Sediment Characterization</u>

Troel-Smith core logging results show sediment at Radzyń Chełmiński is composed of 1) highly humified *Turfa herbacea* and organic lake mud from 0 to 27 cm with a diffuse boundary; 2) organic lake mud with 10% to 1% roots from 27 cm to the bottom of the core. At Rywałd, sediment is composed of 1) *Argilla granosa*: silt with roots to partially humified *Turfa herbacea* peat from 0 to 43 cm with a sharp boundary; 2) silt and clay *argilla* with 5% roots from 43 to 68 cm with a sharp boundary; 3) organic lake mud composed of silty sand to sandy silt from 87 cm to the bottom of the core (SI 2, SI 3).

273 According to particle size analyses and the Wentworth scale (Wentworth, 1922), Particle 274 size for both sites ranged from 0.46 to 3080 microns, ranging in grain size class from fine clay to very fine gravel. The average grainsize at Radzyń Chełmiński was silt (55.56 to 62 microns) from 275 0 to about 30 cm, and very fine sand (62 microns to 104 microns) from 30 cm to the bottom of the 276 core. Percentages for clay, silt, and sand ranged from 0.67 to 3%, 50 to 69%, and 27 to 49%, 277 respectively. At Rywald all sediment was very fine sand (62 to 125 microns) apart from 42 cm 278 with an average particle size 126.25 microns (fine sand) (SI 4). Percentages for clay, silt, and sand 279 ranged from 0.02 to 2%, 40 to 61%, and 23 to 50%, respectively. 280

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#### 282 <u>3.2 Lead Enrichment Factor and Isotopic Compositions</u>

Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd profiles for Pb enrichment factor relative to average continental crust (E.F.; McLennan, 2001), and  $^{206}Pb/^{207}Pb$  are provided in Figure 2. Age values are based on the average age modelled by  $2\sigma$  Bayesian modelled uncertainties. Lead is enriched

by a factor of 14 to 60, and 13 to 159 for Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd, respectively. At Rywałd, 286 there is a sharp decrease from ~150 at the top of the core to 75 around A.D. 1980, then further 287 decrease to a minimum Pb E.F. of 37 around A.D. 1755±147. Lead enrichment factor at Rywald 288 then varies between 33 and 70 down to A.D. 1104±80, increases to the maximum E.F. of 159 289 around A.D.  $1024\pm94$ , and steadily decreases to 14 (A.D.  $731\pm109$ ), where the Pb E.F. becomes 290 291 relatively stable around 15±2 to the bottom of the core (A.D. 572±8). At Radzyń Chełmiński, Pb E.F. decreases from 81 at the top of the sediment core to 38 at A.D. 1621 ±166, with a minor 292 increase to 58 (A.D. 1587±148) and continuing decrease to 30 at A.D. 1500±130. Enrichment 293 factor remains relatively stable with minor variations between 11 and 38 down to A.D. 979±102, 294 before decreasing to the minimum value of 14 at A.D. 894±85, maintaining the same Pb E.F. until 295 the bottom of the core (A.D.  $803\pm99$ ). 296

For both sites, the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio ranges from 1.17 to 1.27‰. At Radzyń Chełmiński, 297 three zones can be defined. From the top of the core the ratio increases with age from 1.18 % to 298 1.27‰ at A.D 1227±112, then decreases to 1.18‰ at A.D. 934±97. From this minimum, the 299 <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio increases to 1.25‰ at the bottom of the core (A.D. 803±99). Five <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb 300 zones can be identified for Rywald. From the top of the core to A.D. 1443±114, the isotopic ratio 301 302 increases from 1.17‰ to 1.21‰, then remains constant at 1.21±0.05‰ down to A.D. 1395±68. The <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio continues to increase to 1.25‰ at A.D. 1253±44, decreases to 1.18‰ at A.D. 303 1083±82, remains constant at 1.18‰ to A.D. 768±106, and significantly increases to 1.25‰ at 304 A.D. 572±81. These isotopic profiles are very different from those of previous published data of 305 nearby sites from Northern Poland and Belgium (Fig. 2C; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b, Fagel 306 et al., 2014), which show a similar trend to one another over time, with much lower and rather 307 constant  ${}^{206}$ Pb/ ${}^{207}$ Pb values (1.14 – 1.18‰) than our new dataset. 308

From the top of both cores to about A.D. 1700, as Pb E.F. decreases, the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio increases. Lead E.F. and isotope ratios have a weak negative correlation, with higher Pb E.F.s coinciding with lower <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb values.

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#### 313 **4. DISCUSSION**

#### 314 <u>4.1 Identification of Lead Sources</u>

Three-point plots are a useful approach to differentiating among natural and anthropogenic 315 Pb sources by comparing <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb ratios (Fig. 3; Alfonso et al., 2001, Bi et al., 316 2017, Díaz-Somoano et al., 2009, Harlavan et al., 2010, Monna et al., 2000, Zohar et al., 2014). 317 Background sample averages from both sites (natural Pb isotopic ratio endmember: Radzyń 318 Chełmiński: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb= 1.33±0.01‰; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb = 1.97±0.004‰; Rywałd: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb = 319  $1.30\pm0.02\%$ ; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb = 1.96±0.03‰) and Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag combined 320 average (anthropogenic endmember:  ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.17 \pm 0.01\%$  and  ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 2.09 \pm 0.01\%$ ; 321 Tyszka et al., 2012) were also included in Figure 3. Lead isotopic ratios for both Radzyń 322 Chełmiński fall along a single trend line between the anthropogenic endmember and an 323 endmember similar to the background averages. Due to the glacial till composition of background 324 sediment, Pb isotopic ratios for samples are not perfectly linear with background ratios. Overall, 325 the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio ranges from 1.18 to 1.28‰ for Radzyń Chełmiński, and 1.17 to 1.25‰ for 326 Rywałd. The <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb ratio for Radzyń Chełmiński ranges from 1.96 to 2.08‰, and 1.98 to 327 2.10% for Rywald. Error bars representing 1 standard deviation for all averages are included 328 (Southern Poland coal, ore and slag <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb= 1.17±0.01; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb =2.09±0.01; Radzyń 329

Chełmiński background <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb=1.33±0.01; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb=1.97±0.004; Rywałd background
 <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb =1.30±0.03; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb=1.96±0.03).

332 Compared to other similarly aged Central European sedimentary records, our new dataset 333 displays significant differences (e.g. Fagel et al., 2014, Zillen et al., 2012, De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). Previously published data from the North Poland Bog (Słowińskie Błoto Bog; De 334 335 Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b) fall along the same trend line. However, the North Poland bog displays an isotopic composition almost entirely from Southwest Poland coal and ore, indicating a much 336 stronger regional anthropogenic signal, with little to no natural Pb input as indicated in the previous 337 study (Fig. 3; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). In addition, the North Poland Bog indicates an 338 entirely anthropogenic source, with lower <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb than that of the Southwest 339 Poland anthropogenic end members. Such source dissimilarity is expected. Unlike Radzyń 340 Chełmiński and Rywałd, Słowińskie Błoto is a raised (ombrotrophic) peat bog. Signals from peat 341 sediment are expected to record mostly atmospheric inputs (solely rain), versus lake sediment from 342 the current study which include both terrestrial sediment (from runoff) and atmospheric inputs 343 (e.g. Fagel et al., 2014, Thevenon et al., 2011). 344

345

#### 346 4.2 Changes in Lead Sources Over Time

#### 347

#### 4.2.1 Anthropogenic Sources

Lead isotopic data processed using FRUITS, a Bayesian mixing model, quantified the importance of anthropogenic Pb inputs for each depth sampled (Fig. 4). Climatic periods included in bars below both graphs present cold periods as blue bars, and warm periods as red bars. Arrows along the top of Figure 4 indicate the building of a Teutonic Order fort (A.D. 1234; Urban, 1980) and castle (late 13<sup>th</sup> century; Urban, 1980) at Radzyń Chełmiński; this activity would not have
 impacted Rywałd.

Modeled anthropogenic Pb contribution is described from oldest to most recent inputs (Fig. 4). At Radzyń Chełmiński, the fraction of total lead attributed to anthropogenic inputs in the oldest sediments appears to be influenced by anthropogenic Pb pollution from A.D. 883±99 to A.D. 1054±104. Contribution of Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag during that period reaches a maximum of 35% at A.D. 979±97. The anthropogenic fraction of total Pb remains below 1% from A.D. 1168±114 to with A.D. 1296±94, then increases from the beginning of the 14th century towards a dominantly anthropogenic contribution at the top of the core (up to 65%).

At Rywald, the modeled anthropogenic contribution increases from the core bottom to reach a maximum in A.D. 973±80 of 65%, and decrease to 1% at A.D. 1223±45. Subsequently, the contribution sharply increases to 49% in A.D. 1303±54 and remains relatively stable with an average value of 38±8% to the top of the core, with the exceptions of the two most recent samples (74 and 86%).

366

### 367 4.2.2 Mining Activity – Long Range Transport

Atmospheric anthropogenic Pb signatures are expected to have been transported from regional mines. Approximately 400 km to the south of Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd, in the Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Southwest Poland, a series of mines were active periodically over the last millennium (e.g. Kierczak and Pietranik, 2011). Primary ores from Southwest Poland include bituminous and brown coal, Cu, Zn, and Pb ores, native S, and rock salt (Rybicka, 1996). Samples from Janowice, Wielkie, Szklary, Legnica, Miedzianka, and Wałbrzych sites in Southwest Poland were used to represent an anthropogenic contribution (Fig. 4; Tyszka et al.,
2012). These mines are the nearest likely source of anthropogenic Pb in sediments from both
Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd. Documentation and precise dates are scarce prior to the 1800s,
but evidence can be pieced together through the few historical records available and archaeological
evidence.

379 First known Zn-Pb ore exploitation in Southwest Poland began in the Cracow-Silesia district during the 12<sup>th</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> centuries (Cabala et al., 2013). Mining and smelting of Cu in the 380 Rudawy Janowickie Mountains has occurred from the 14th century to present (e.g. Bukowski, 381 2011, Kierczak et al., 2013). Miedzianka, in particular was the largest center of mining and 382 smelting Cu, As, and Ag in Silesia, beginning as early as A.D. 1310 (Kierczak and Pietranik, 383 2011). These mining activities are probably responsible for the change in Pb isotopic ratios 384 observed at Rywald just after A.D. 1200 (Fig. 4). Copper slags were deposited in the mountains 385 from the 14<sup>th</sup> to 16<sup>th</sup> century (Kierczak et al., 2013). Exploitation peaked in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, when 386 resources were exhausted, declining until the end of the 17th century (Kierczak and Pietranik, 387 2011). Our data indicates that this historical record of mining activity resulted in lead pollution 388 throughout the region, as shown by the relatively stable anthropogenic contribution in Rywald for 389 the same time period followed by a small decrease. Ore mining activities became prevalent again 390 from the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century to the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, focusing on Cu-rich 391 ore, as anthropogenic Pb again increases at Rywald. Mining and smelting in the Rudawy 392 Janowickie mountains ceased entirely in A.D. 1925 (Kierczak and Pietranik, 2011, Kierczak et al., 393 2013). 394

Coal exploitation was also prevalent in the Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Southwest
 Poland from the 12<sup>th</sup> century onwards, including two key basins, the Upper Silesian Coal Basin

(Bukowski, 2011, Rybicka, 1996) and the Lower Silesian Coal Basin (LSCB; Rybicka, 1996). Ore
was also mined in these basins. In Bytom and Olkusz, sub districts of the Upper Silesian Coal
Basin, Pb, Zn, and Cd ores were mined since the 12<sup>th</sup>-14<sup>th</sup> century (depending on source;
Ciarkowska et al., 2016, Rybicka, 1996,).

Additionally, from the 1800s onwards, anthropogenic contributions from modern mining,
bituminous coal combustion, and leaded gasoline exerted substantial control of the sedimentary
Pb isotopic compositions and concentrations at both sites, as documented in previous studies (e.g.
De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b, Fialkiewicz-Koziel et al., 2018).

To test our hypothesis, a simple mass-balance calculation was applied. At Radzyn by considering only the first 60 cm with a bulk density of approximately 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, where a mean increase in total Pb of about 5-10 ppm above baseline values can be observed, and by simplifying the time required to accumulate these sediments to 1000 years, we can estimate an average deposition rate of 3-6 mg.m<sup>-2</sup>y<sup>-1</sup>. Considering this range of deposition rate, we cannot exclude influences from other sources either local or distant.

411

### 412 4.2.3 Land Use within Castle Lake Watershed – Short Range Transport

Earliest palynological records at Radzyń Chełmiński suggest the region was dominated by woodland with evidence of local small-scale agricultural activities present around A.D. 0-700 (Brown et al., 2015). The Wielbark culture was present in the area from the 2<sup>nd</sup> to the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D., during the Migration period (A.D. 300 to 700). The 5<sup>th</sup> to 9<sup>th</sup> century is marked by archaeological evidence of tumuli and stone graves in the forest surrounding Radzyń Chełmiński, with remains of a Slavonic settlement adjacent to the forest (Samojlik et al., 2013). There is also archaeological evidence of depopulation from the 4<sup>th</sup> century until Slavic settlement from the 7<sup>th</sup>
century (Buko, 2008). A Slavic stronghold was constructed in proximity to Castle Lake around the
late 9<sup>th</sup> century (e.g. Urban, 1980).

Prior to Teutonic settlement, the land surrounding Castle Lake at Radzyń Chełmiński was 422 controlled by a Slavic Stronghold, occupied from the late 9th to mid 12th century when it may have 423 been burnt down in an attack (Brown et al., 2015, Chudziak, 1994). Concurrently, there was an 424 intensification in agricultural activity and decrease in woodland, causing increased soil erosion 425 into the surrounding wetland, as presented by palynological evidence (Brown et al., 2015; 426 Chudziak, 1996). Such erosion and increased land-use may have contributed to a decrease in 427 recorded anthropogenic contribution and Pb concentration at Radzyń Chełmiński. Palynological 428 evidence describes an increasingly open landscape in the pre-Crusading period (11th to 12th 429 430 century) of both intensifying arable and pastoral activity, with woodland retained on nearby land 431 (Brown et al., 2015).

432 Teutonic influence is documented at the location from A.D. 1234 to around A.D. 1454 when the Order ceded the territory to Polish control (Pluskowski, 2013; Urban, 1980). The 433 Crusading period began in A.D. 1230, concurrent with the founding of the Teutonic Order castle 434 and town at Radzyń Chełmiński (Brown et al., 2015). During this period agricultural and pastoral 435 land-use was relatively stable surrounding the Castle Lake (Brown et al., 2015). A timber fort was 436 constructed in A.D. 1234, and the castle was later built between A.D. 1310 and 1340 (e.g. Brown 437 et al., 2015). Previously published palynological evidence from Radzyń Chełmiński recorded 438 changes in vegetation and land use during this period, including a decrease in arboreal pollen and 439 440 increase in cereal pollen (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011; Pluskowski, 2013). The period between A.D. 1350 and 1400 is known as the "Golden Age" of Teutonic Order influence (e.g. Pluskowski, 441

2013). Heathland developed along with agricultural intensification from the late 14th to 15th 442 century, accompanied by a decrease in woodland area (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011). In addition 443 to landscape changes with the arrival of the Teutonic Order, trade routes also developed by efforts 444 to exploit Prussian resources, adding to human impact from the nearby settlements (Harte and 445 Ponting, 1983). As the frontier land between Teutonic Order Prussia and Poland, the Chełmo land 446 447 (Kulmerland in German), including Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd experienced intermittent raids from Prussian tribes, including the Great Prussian Uprising of the 1260s, and subsequent 448 transformation of the landscape (Lukowski and Zawadzki, 2001; Pluskowski, 2013). Such 449 450 agricultural intensification and castle building may have contributed to altered the regional anthropogenic isotopic signal from the opening of mines within the sediment records, minimizing 451 the expected increase in anthropogenic Pb contribution that was detected at Rywald, while at the 452 same time causing an increase in Pb concentration. 453

In A.D. 1410, Radzyń Chełmiński Castle was damaged by Polish-Lithuanians (e.g. 454 Pluskowski, 2013). From A.D. 1412 to 1439, the surrounding landscape was subjected to multiple 455 seasons of crop failure, causing many villages in the area to be covered by woodland by A.D. 1444. 456 The Thirteen Years war occurred shortly after, from A.D. 1453 to 1466, with many conflicts 457 458 occurring near Radzyń, after which the castle became occupied by Poland (e.g. Pluskowski, 2013), falling into ruin by the 16<sup>th</sup> century (Brown et al., 2015). Further damage occurred during the 459 Swedish Invasion from A.D. 1626 to 1629 (e.g. Brown et al., 2015). Wooded areas contribute 460 minimal weathered and eroded sediment to the surrounding basin, compared to predominantly 461 open fields (arable and pastoral land). The decrease in local influence from the nearby castle and 462 town, and re-establishment of woodlands, may have allowed for a return to a predominantly 463 regional, atmospheric Pb-derived signal in the sediment record during this period. 464

465

#### 466 4.2.4 Regional Climatic Influence

Differentiating between climatic and historical influences remains challenging. Although 467 Pb isotopes are not climate proxies, it is possible climate change or influencing meteorological 468 conditions (e.g. change in dominant wind direction patterns, increase in rainfall, flood events, etc.) 469 might indirectly influence Pb isotopic signatures by promoting the development of human 470 activities (e.g. Büntgen et al., 2016, 2011), mostly during warmer and dryer periods. According to 471 472 our sediment data (SI 2, SI 3), the Radzyń Chełmiński core is made entirely of lake mud/sediment; while Rywald contains peat sediment from 0 to 68 cm, and lake mud/sediment 473 from 68 cm to the bottom of the core. 474

475 Sedimentary records for both cores span five climatic periods: 1) Late Antique Little Ice Age (LALIA, A.D. 536 to 660; e.g. Berglund et al., 2003; Büntgen et al., 2016); 2) the Climatic 476 Optimum in Prussia (COP, A.D. 800 to 1150; e.g. Pluskowski, 2013); 3) the Medieval Warm 477 Period (MWP; A.D. 800 to 1300; e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b); 4) the Little Ice Age (LIA; 478 A.D. 1300 to 1850; e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b; Hegerl et al., 2017; Lockwood, 2001); 479 and 5) Global Warming (GW; A.D. 1890 to present; e.g. Chiriloaei et al., 2012; Hegerl et al., 480 2017). Unlike in Western Europe, Prussian communities did not experience a regression after the 481 medieval warm period, and instead thrived (Pluskowski, 2013). We hypothesize that promotion of 482 483 human activities during favorable climatic conditions (Büntgen et al., 2016) included behaviors 484 that mobilize lead, such as coal burning and ore utilization.

485

#### 486 5. CONCLUSION

In this study, Pb concentrations and isotope ratios were used to quantify anthropogenic lead inputs and sources, as well as to identify trends in human activity in Northern Poland over the last 1,500 years. The use of a rural lake sediment core at Rywałd and a lake core influenced by a nearby town and Teutonic Order castle at Radzyń Chełmiński enabled differentiation between local and regional anthropogenic inputs.

492 Two primary Pb sources have been identified: (1) coal, ore, and slag originated from Southwestern Poland mining activities (long range transport); and (2) erosion from the surrounding 493 watershed associated with the development of human activities (short range transport). High 494 495 anthropogenic Pb contributions from the 9th to 11th centuries A.D., in the absence of historical evidence for mining activity in Southwestern Poland, point to a previously-unrecognized, 496 497 substantial anthropogenic pb source during that time period. Local activities dominated the Pb isotopic record from the 11th to 13th centuries A.D., during periods of Slavic and subsequent 498 Teutonic Order settlement and castle building, and agricultural intensification. The long range, 499 anthropogenic, mining signal was elevated around the 16<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> to 19<sup>th</sup> centuries A.D., during 500 periods of decreased local human agricultural activity. 501

502 Overall, the sediments at Rywałd recorded mostly long range mining inputs originating 503 from Southwest Poland, while Radzyń Chełmiński sediments recorded both sources long range 504 mining signal and local signal from an increase in agricultural and other human activities related 505 to the development of the town and castle. Further studies are required to identify the sources 506 responsible for the anthropogenic signal observed for our sites prior to A.D. 1000.

507

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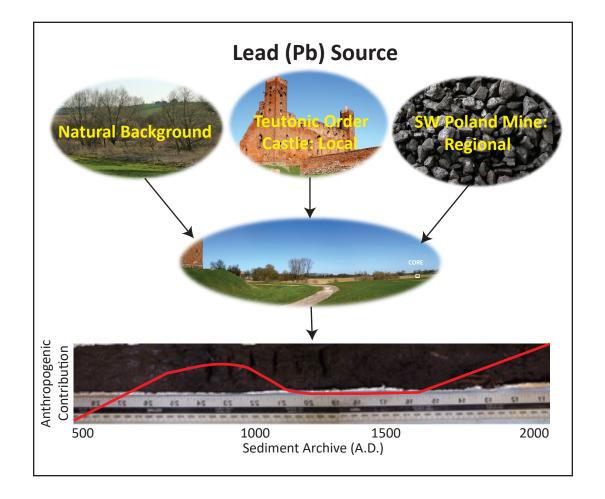
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# Highlights

- 1,500 years of paleo-reconstruction using lead isotopes
- Mining contributed significantly to the lead inventory as early at the 13<sup>th</sup> century via long range transport
- Warmer climate in between 800 and 1,000 A.D. may have favored anthropogenic activities

1	Evidence for the onset of mining activities during the 13 <sup>th</sup> century in Poland using lead
2	isotopes from lake sediment cores
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10	

# 11 ABSTRACT

12 Efforts to study how human activities have influenced the environment since the end of the Roman period to present day are lacking for North Central Europe. Here, we present new lead (Pb) 13 isotope data determined from two sediment cores collected from ancient lakes spanning the last 14 15 1,500 years, located in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship, Poland. Study sites at Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd were used to differentiate Pb sources. Radzyń Chełmiński is located in 16 17 the vicinity of a late Medieval Teutonic Order castle and town, while Rywald is situated within a relatively pristine area until the 19<sup>th</sup> century when it became used for agricultural purpose. Core 18 samples were analyzed for Pb concentration and isotopes (<sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, <sup>208</sup>Pb). Bayesian modelling 19 was used to isolate the anthropogenic signal at each site over time. 20

21 For both sites, Pb enrichment factors relative to titanium (Ti) and upper continental crust values range from 13 to 159. Lead isotopic ratios range from background, pre-anthropogenic local 22 values  $({}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.31 \pm 0.03\%, {}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 1.97 \pm 0.04\%)$  to anthropogenic values (SW 23 Poland coal, ore, slag  ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.17 \pm 0.01\%$ ,  ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 2.09 \pm 0.01\%$ ). Modeled 24 anthropogenic contribution varies greatly over time, ranging from 14 to 100%. At Radzyń 25 Chełmiński, modeled anthropogenic Pb contribution and measured Pb concentration follow 26 similar trends. However, at Rywald, from around A.D.1000 to A.D. 1400 these profiles diverge 27 significantly. Our new insights highlight different sources of Pb from the 12<sup>th</sup> century to present 28 day: (1) short range agricultural activities from the town, and (2) long range mining activities. 29 Additionally, prior to the 12<sup>th</sup> century, our data suggest continental anthropogenic activity possibly 30 favored by a warmer climate. 31

32

#### 33 KEYWORDS

34 Lead – Isotopes – Sediments – Anthropogenic – Sources – Medieval

35

# 36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Lead (Pb) is a toxic, non-essential, trace element particularly useful for tracking anthropogenic input in environmental archives (e.g. Lanphear et al., 2005). Using Pb isotopes, we can differentiate between anthropogenic (industrial and mining activities, coal and fuel burning; e.g. Cheng and Hu, 2010) and natural sources (i.e. natural weathering processes) that release Pb into the environment (Grousset et al., 1994; Thevenon et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2014); and as a result, hypothesize on the timing and locations of past human activities (Fagel et al., 2014; Hosono
et al., 2016; Zohar et al., 2014).

Three radioisotopes (<sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, <sup>208</sup>Pb) are commonly measured for this type of study 44 (Alfonso et al., 2001; Komarek et al., 2008; Reimann et al., 2012). Due to the durations of their 45 half-lives, these isotopes are considered meta-stable in geologically recent sediment (e.g. Russell 46 47 and Farquhar, 1960). There are no known environmental or industrial processes that fractionate Pb isotopes, and thus the isotopic composition of Pb is affected by Pb source and geologic location 48 (Cheng and Hu, 2010; Doe, 1970; Flegal and Smith, 1995). Additionally, Pb is relatively stable 49 within the sediment column and not readily susceptible to remobilization by early diagenetic 50 processes or biological activities (Audry et al., 2011; Gallon et al., 2004; Harlavan, 1998; Huerta-51 Diaz, 1998; McIntyre and Gueguen, 2013; Schultz et al., 1987; Tessier et al., 1996; ). By analyzing 52 ratios of these three isotopes: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb, it is possible to assess how source 53 contributions of Pb have changed over time for a given location (Baron et al., 2006; Harlavan et 54 al., 2010; Zohar et al., 2014). 55

Within the environment, Pb isotope ratios may be influenced by local, regional, or global 56 sources (e.g. Choi et al., 2007, Martinez Cortizas et al., 2002, 2016, Mil-Homens et al., 2013, 57 2017). For example, In the Iberian Peninsula a number of studies have used Pb isotope ratios to 58 document evidence of regional metallurgy and mining from the Chalcolithic (~3000 BC) to 59 60 modern period (last 200 years; Martinez Cortizas et al., 2002, 2016, Mil-Homens et al., 2013). In marine sediment within the Portuguese Margin, Pb isotope ratios were also able to record Roman 61 and modern mining activities from the adjacent Iberian region (Mil-Homens et al., 2017, (Include 62 63 examples from above refs.) Global signatures from atmospheric transport and deposition of Pb, such as Saharan dust storms, and leaded gasoline emissions in modern times, has also been 64

documented (e.g. Bi et al., 2017, Mil-Homens et al., 2017, Shotyk et al., 1998). For this study, 65 regional sources are defined as mining of coal ore, smelting, and leaded gasoline exhaust. 66 Historical mining activities 300 to 500 km to the southwest of the study site may have introduced 67 Pb to the atmosphere, allowing for transport downwind to the study site. This Pb transported over 68 long range is deposited, via association with sinking particles, in lake and peat sediments (e.g. 69 70 Novak et al., 2003). Local sources, on the scale of kilometers or less, can also contribute to Pb enrichments and/or changes in the Pb isotope ratios in sediments. They include enhanced 71 weathering and erosion of the surrounding landscape due to agricultural activities, building 72 73 development, metalwork, and domestic coal burning.

Regional patterns of Pb transport are of particular interest in Poland due to Poland's unique 74 75 climatic signal in comparison to the rest of Europe, which is sensitive to both oceanic and 76 continental influences (e.g. Zamoyski, 1987). Specifically, the Medieval Warm Period (MWP) ended in Poland earlier than the rest of Europe (Medieval Warm Period: MWP; A.D. 800 to 1300; 77 e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009a). The portion of the MWP that influenced Poland is known as 78 the Climatic Optimum in Poland (COP, A.D. 800 to 1150; e.g. Pluskowski, 2013). These climatic 79 patterns may have played two non-mutually exclusive impacts on anthropogenic Pb contributions: 80 81 directly by impacting efficiency of atmospheric Pb long range transport from mining regions, and indirectly through changes in human activity at the vicinity of our study sites associated with these 82 climatic changes. 83

Historical Pb contamination associated with mining activities in Poland has been documented. The Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Silesia, in Southwestern Poland were heavily mined for coal, copper (Cu), iron (Fe), silver (Ag), and zinc-lead (Zn-Pb) ores (e.g. Cabala et al., 2013; Kierczak et al., 2013; Rybicka, 1996). There is historical documentation of ore mining since the 12<sup>th</sup> century, but there may have been mining activity as early as the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D.
(Ciarkowska et al., 2016; Kierczak et al., 2013; Kylander et al., 2005; Tyszka et al., 2012). Mining
activities were recorded as Pb isotopic ratios and other trace element concentrations in Baltic Sea
sediment from the 12<sup>th</sup> to 17<sup>th</sup> century A.D. (Zaborska, 2014), and in a bog located in Northern
Poland (De Vleeschouwer et al, 2009a, b) from the 9<sup>th</sup> to 18<sup>th</sup> century A.D.

93 Previous studies throughout Europe measured Pb isotopes in lake and bog sediment to estimate the importance and origin of anthropogenic Pb (e.g. Martínez Cortizas et al., 2002). 94 Sedimentary records from lake and wetland systems act as environmental archives for local and 95 96 regional anthropogenic activity over time. Ideal study sites for differentiating between local and regional, anthropogenic and non-anthropogenic Pb sources comprise at least two nearby locations: 97 one rural (relatively pristine) and a second that was influenced by documented human activities. 98 Previous results obtained from sedimentary cores using Pb isotopes from A.D. 500 (post Roman 99 period) to around A.D. 1800 (pre-Industrial Revolution) focus on Western and Central Europe. 100 The few previous studies based to the east of Germany analyzed sediment samples from 101 mountainous regions (Monna et al., 2000; Shotyk, 1998; Véron et al., 2014) and the Baltic Sea 102 (Zillen et al. 2012). Only one study in Northern Poland aimed to track solely regional signals of 103 coal and mining from Southwest Poland (De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). 104

105 No known high temporal resolution data has been previously published for Pb isotopes in 106 the Kulmerland region. The main objective of this research was to quantify anthropogenic Pb 107 pollution over the last 1,500 years at Radzyń Chełmiński, using primarily Pb isotopic signatures. 108 By comparing similar cores from two nearby sites (one in a rural area and a second in the vicinity 109 of a town), we investigated short range (activity from a surrounding town) versus long range 110 (mining signal from Southwestern Poland) transport pollution, as well as potential indirect climatic impacts on human development. Our combination of historical context with detailed geochemicaldata provide new insights about the extent of local and regional pollution dispersal.

113

#### 114 **2. METHODOLOGY**

#### 115 **<u>2.1 Study Sites</u>**

Two distinct ancient lake systems within the Chełmo Land, Kuyavian-Pomeranian 116 Voivodeship, Poland were sampled for this study: Radzvń Chełmiński and Rywałd (Figure 1). The 117 Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship lies along the border of historic Prussia and Poland. It came 118 under Polish control from the mid-10th century and was at the frontier between Polish and Prussian 119 territories. There were increasing raids by Prussians into the 12th and early 13th century in 120 response to attempts by Poland to conquer Prussian territories, and eventually Konrad I Duke of 121 Masovia invited in the Teutonic Order to help defend his territories in the early 1230s - with the 122 first timber fortification built at Radzyn in 1234. Historical texts and archaeological studies 123 indicate human settlement from the end of the Roman period (around 300 A.D.) to present (e.g. 124 Pluskowski, 2013). The wetlands, including the Castle Lake, are now largely infilled and covered 125 in sedges, with surface water present to ca. 10–20 cm within the interior of the lake, mostly during 126 the wet winter/spring months. 127

The site at Radzyń Chełmiński lies within 300 m of Radzyń Chełmiński Castle, a Teutonic Order castle built between 1310 and 1340 A.D., and a town of approximately 2,000 inhabitants, settled in concurrence with the settlement of the Teutonic Order (early 13th century; Brown et al., 2015). The castle remained an important commander center into the 15th century, but was dissolved in 1454 during the Thirteen Years War (1454–1466). By the 16th century much of the
western wing of the castle was a disused ruin. The castle was partly dismantled in the 19th century.

134 Rywałd, located 7 km due East of Radzyń Chełmiński, is a rural site with evidence of woodland, and minor human impact within the pollen record of the same core during the 11th to 135 12th centuries (Brown et al., 2015). The surrounding area only was used within the past century 136 137 for agricultural purposes (Brown et al., 2015). The Vistula and Drweca rivers are in proximity to both sites. The Vistula River runs through the center of the Voivodeship which was once the 138 frontier zone between Slavic Pomeralia (East Pomerania), Prussian Pomesania, and Piast Poland 139 (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011; Pluskowski, 2013; Zamoyski, 1987). The underlying sediment is 140 made up of glacial till deposited by the Scandinavian ice sheet during the Vistulian (Weichselian) 141 Glaciation (receded 11,700 years ago; Marks, 2012). 142

143

### 144 2.2 Sampling

Two sediment cores, 100 cm (Radzyń Chełmiński) and 120 cm (Rywałd) depth, were 145 collected in August 2013 from the center of each wetland basin using a Russian auger. The 146 coordinates of the two sequences are 53°22'27.4" N, 19°03'13.7" E (Rywald) and 53°23' N, 18°56' 147 E (Radzyn). Sampling intervals were adjusted to obtain high-resolution records during the 148 Crusading Period and Teutonic Order occupation focused on the late medieval period (13th to 16th 149 centuries) based on age models derived from radiocarbon dating. For Radzyń Chełmiński and 150 Rywałd, 60 and 59 samples were considered, respectively. In March 2014, "background" samples 151 of glacial sediment at 100-200 cm depth below land surface were collected adjacent to both lakes 152 using a gouge auger to provide the natural background signature for each site. Four background 153

samples for Radzyń were collected at Golebiewko, including 6 subsamples (N 53 degrees 23'39.
7" E 018 degrees 59'31. 1"). Three background samples for Rywałd were collected in Rywałd,
including 9 subsamples (N 53 degrees 20'58.5" E 019 degrees 05'22.0"). All samples were stored
at 4°C prior to analysis.

158

# 159 **2.3 Analyses**

Sediment cores were logged to determine macroscopic lithofacies. Mastersizer Laser analysis was used to specify particle size within each macro layer. Samples were collected every 162 10 cm for each lithofacies section. Samples were placed on a plastic crucible where a minimal amount of Calgon solution was added and mixed into sample with a rubber stamper until all 164 particles were separated. All organic material and particles above 2mm were removed. The 165 solution was washed with ultra-pure water into the Mastersizer Laser for analysis.

166 Extruded sediment samples dried at room temperature for three days, and homogenized with mortar and pestle prior to digestion. Aliquots of 500 mg for each sample were transferred to 167 digestion tubes and cold digested at room temperature for 12 hours using 10 ml ultra-high purity 168 HNO<sub>3</sub> under clean lab conditions. Tubes were moved to hot baths and heated at 60°C for three 169 hours, then at 110°C for an additional 12 hours. We wanted to extract metal deposition from the 170 sediments bound to organic matter, metal that had adhered to particles as a result of atmospheric 171 deposition and metals and elements bound to sediment surfaces. We did not want to digest all the 172 inorganic, silicate material as this leads to a much more complex Pb isotope signal with the 173 potential to mix from multiple geological sources. Studies have shown (Cook et al. 1997) that hot 174 HNO3 digestion delivers similar results to other digestion techniques as the bulk of the metal 175

concentration is absorbed to the mineral surfaces and/or in organic matter, not in the mineral
silicate components. Digested samples were filtered using a 0.45 µm filter and diluted to 100 ml
in ultra-pure water for analysis.

179 Reference materials (Sewage Reference 5RSS53) and full instrument blanks were included for all analyses. In order to quantify the recovery rates from our digestion methods we used an 180 181 internal sewage sludge standard normalized against an international standard (ERM CC144), which has reported values for extractable metals in sewage sludge. The reason we chose these 182 standards is that they have reported values for both total digestion and extractable metals (using 183 nitric acid), and have relatively high TOC (36 wt %) which was similar to the peaty, organic 184 sediments from the core materials. The reported values for our internal standard (normalized to 185 ERM CC144) for Pb were 118 mg/kg and 8.8 mg/kg for Ti. The average of our extracted values 186 over four runs (n=8) were 128 +/- 13 mg/kg and 9.7 +/- 2.1 mg/kg for Pb and Ti respectively, 187 resulting in a recovery of 108 +/- 9% and 111 +- 18%, respectively. This indicates that the nitric 188 acid extraction used was capable of liberating all of the available metal components in the organic 189 fraction. 190

Lead and titanium concentrations were determined using a Perkin Optima 7300 Inductively Coupled Plasma – Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) at the University of Reading, UK. For each depth horizon, the enrichment factor (E.F.) for Pb was calculated using the equation (1) provided below (Gloaguen and Passe, 2017; N'guessan et al., 2009) and average upper crustal Pb and Ti concentrations (McLennan, 2001). Enrichment Factor quantifies the amount of enrichment of Pb from natural levels within sediment (e.g. Chester and Stoner, 1973, N'guessan et al., 2009):

197

$$EF = \frac{\left(\frac{Pb}{Ti}\right)_{sample}}{\left(\frac{Pb}{Ti}\right)_{upper \ continental \ crust}} \tag{1}$$

(DL)

To determine Pb isotopic compositions, digested samples were further diluted to 4 ppb of 198 Pb for each sample, based on individual Pb concentrations per sample as quantified by ICP-OES, 199 to maintain the same concentration throughout samples. This was done so that Pb concentration 200 would not affect Pb isotope analysis. Reference NIST SRM 981 was used as the external standard 201 for <sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, and <sup>208</sup>Pb measurements. All analyses were run in bracket configuration (standard-202 sample-standard) to allow for mass drift correction. Three Pb isotopes, namely <sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb, and 203 <sup>208</sup>Pb, were analyzed via Inductively Coupled Plasma - Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS) 204 (ThermoFisher iCapQ) equipped with a collision cell. The external calibration standard NIST SRM 205 981 was used to allow for mass drift correction. The mass drift for <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb were 206 routinely <0.5%. Two Pb isotope ratios were calculated: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb. These ratios 207 have been the most widely used in similar studies to determine anthropogenic inputs (e.g. Alfonso 208 et al., 2001, Bi et al., 2017, Díaz-Somoano et al., 2009, Monna et al., 2000,). 209

210

#### 211 2.4 Sediment Dating

Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) <sup>14</sup>C dating was used to determine absolute age and accumulation rates of sediment. Twelve samples were processed for Radzyń Chełmiński, at 10 cm intervals, with 10 samples taken from Rywałd, at 5-15 cm intervals. Samples for radiocarbon dating were sent to the Scottish Universities Research Centre (SUERC), Glasgow, Scotland. Linear regression modelling was conducted using Bayesian accumulation to provide age-to depth estimations through each core (SI\_1; Bacon; Blaauw and Christen, 2011). To represent sediment dates, the notation "A.D." was used for the age.

Reliable chronologies are a fundamental component of palaeoecological investigation of 219 lakes and peat bogs. Terrestrial plant macrofossils are considered the most reliable material for 220 radiocarbon dating (Blaauw et al 2004), although unfortunately none were recovered from either 221 Radzyń or Rywałd. Radiocarbon dates were therefore derived on samples of gyttja (Radzyń) and 222 in the case of Rywald on both peat and gyttja. Care was taken to identify any potential issues of 223 224 contamination with old or young. Contamination by young carbon may occur through root penetration, whilst lake sediments may exhibit older radiocarbon ages (reservoir effect) reflecting 225 226 inclusion of old carbon eroded from calcareous soils/bedrock, or through the uptake of dissolved 227 inorganic carbon by aquatic plants (Bjőrk and Wohlfarth 2004; Butz 2017).

Samples of bulk peat from Rywald are derived from herbaceous fen considered reliable material for radiocarbon dating (e.g. Nilsson et al 2001; Blaauw et al 2004). The peat deposits reflect treeless habitats, although some herbaceous plants growing in fens, such as sedges, have root systems which can penetrate down to 2m, with the potential to introduce young carbon unless removed (e.g. Valiranta et al 2014). However, no roots or evidence for rooting by either trees or herbaceous plants was recorded during the detailed examination and sampling of the cores.

The core from Radzyń was the final of three cores (Radzyń 3) sampled and analysed from 234 the Castle lake, with dates derived on gyttja (Radzyń 2 and Radzyń 3) and in the case of the first 235 Radzyń core (Radzyń 1) on both peat and gyttja. Although the occurrence and/or magnitude of a 236 237 reservoir effect can be difficult to determine without supporting dates from plant macrofossils or lake varves, comparison between the four lake sequences from Radzyń and Rywałd suggest that if 238 present at all, the reservoir effect had a negligible effect on the chronologies. All four sequences 239 240 show a strong linear progression in radiocarbon dates. There is a high degree of temporal similarity in pollen signals between sites, irrespective of whether dates are derived from peat or gyttja. 241

Similarity is apparent in the timing of key changes in vegetation and land-use, most apparent in 242 the decline in hornbeam, and the onset of major anthropogenic activity from c. AD 1100 (Brown 243 2019); these changes are considered to reflect comparable local-regional processes, reflected with 244 varying magnitude in all four sequences from Radzyń and Rywałd. One could reasonably expect 245 to observe spatial and temporal variations in the magnitude of a reservoir effect, reflecting 246 247 variation in carbon input within and between sites and pollen sequences as a result of lake catchment, vegetation and land-use (e.g. Tranvik et al 2009; Shou et al 2015) The high degree of 248 similarity therefore argues against a significant reservoir effect at Radzyń and Rywałd. 249

250

#### 251 **<u>2.5 Modelling</u>**

The Bayesian mixing model Food Reconstruction Using Isotopic Transferred Signals 252 (FRUITS: Fernandes et al., 2014) was run with our Pb isotope data (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb) 253 to model the anthropogenic contribution (in % of total Pb) versus time for both sites. Although 254 FRUITS was made for dietary reconstruction, it is a general mixing model suitable for 255 environmental isotopic modeling (e.g. Fernandes et al., 2014). FRUITS manual recommends to 256 not using too many sources vs proxies, no more than +1 (i.e. if you have 2 isotope ratios, you 257 shouldn't be asking FRUITS to attribute to more than 3 sources which is our case). For our 258 modeling, natural endmembers comprised the mean background values specific to each site. The 259 260 anthropogenic endmember for both sites was calculated from the mean of published Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag lead isotopic signatures (Tyszka et al., 2012). The dust endmember for 261 both sites was taken from Veron et al. (2014). 262

263

#### **3. RESULTS**

#### 265 <u>3.1 Sediment Characterization</u>

Troel-Smith core logging results show sediment at Radzyń Chełmiński is composed of 1) highly humified *Turfa herbacea* and organic lake mud from 0 to 27 cm with a diffuse boundary; 2) organic lake mud with 10% to 1% roots from 27 cm to the bottom of the core. At Rywałd, sediment is composed of 1) *Argilla granosa*: silt with roots to partially humified *Turfa herbacea* peat from 0 to 43 cm with a sharp boundary; 2) silt and clay *argilla* with 5% roots from 43 to 68 cm with a sharp boundary; 3) organic lake mud composed of silty sand to sandy silt from 87 cm to the bottom of the core (SI 2, SI 3).

273 According to particle size analyses and the Wentworth scale (Wentworth, 1922), Particle 274 size for both sites ranged from 0.46 to 3080 microns, ranging in grain size class from fine clay to very fine gravel. The average grainsize at Radzyń Chełmiński was silt (55.56 to 62 microns) from 275 0 to about 30 cm, and very fine sand (62 microns to 104 microns) from 30 cm to the bottom of the 276 core. Percentages for clay, silt, and sand ranged from 0.67 to 3%, 50 to 69%, and 27 to 49%, 277 respectively. At Rywald all sediment was very fine sand (62 to 125 microns) apart from 42 cm 278 with an average particle size 126.25 microns (fine sand) (SI 4). Percentages for clay, silt, and sand 279 ranged from 0.02 to 2%, 40 to 61%, and 23 to 50%, respectively. 280

281

# 282 <u>3.2 Lead Enrichment Factor and Isotopic Compositions</u>

Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd profiles for Pb enrichment factor relative to average continental crust (E.F.; McLennan, 2001), and  $^{206}$ Pb/ $^{207}$ Pb are provided in Figure 2. Age values are based on the average age modelled by  $2\sigma$  Bayesian modelled uncertainties. Lead is enriched

by a factor of 14 to 60, and 13 to 159 for Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd, respectively. At Rywałd, 286 there is a sharp decrease from ~150 at the top of the core to 75 around A.D. 1980, then further 287 decrease to a minimum Pb E.F. of 37 around A.D. 1755±147. Lead enrichment factor at Rywald 288 then varies between 33 and 70 down to A.D. 1104±80, increases to the maximum E.F. of 159 289 around A.D.  $1024\pm94$ , and steadily decreases to 14 (A.D.  $731\pm109$ ), where the Pb E.F. becomes 290 291 relatively stable around 15±2 to the bottom of the core (A.D. 572±8). At Radzyń Chełmiński, Pb E.F. decreases from 81 at the top of the sediment core to 38 at A.D. 1621 ±166, with a minor 292 increase to 58 (A.D. 1587±148) and continuing decrease to 30 at A.D. 1500±130. Enrichment 293 factor remains relatively stable with minor variations between 11 and 38 down to A.D. 979±102, 294 before decreasing to the minimum value of 14 at A.D. 894±85, maintaining the same Pb E.F. until 295 the bottom of the core (A.D.  $803\pm99$ ). 296

For both sites, the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio ranges from 1.17 to 1.27‰. At Radzyń Chełmiński, 297 three zones can be defined. From the top of the core the ratio increases with age from 1.18 % to 298 1.27‰ at A.D 1227±112, then decreases to 1.18‰ at A.D. 934±97. From this minimum, the 299 <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio increases to 1.25‰ at the bottom of the core (A.D. 803±99). Five <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb 300 zones can be identified for Rywald. From the top of the core to A.D. 1443±114, the isotopic ratio 301 302 increases from 1.17‰ to 1.21‰, then remains constant at 1.21±0.05‰ down to A.D. 1395±68. The <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio continues to increase to 1.25‰ at A.D. 1253±44, decreases to 1.18‰ at A.D. 303 1083±82, remains constant at 1.18‰ to A.D. 768±106, and significantly increases to 1.25‰ at 304 A.D. 572±81. These isotopic profiles are very different from those of previous published data of 305 nearby sites from Northern Poland and Belgium (Fig. 2C; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b, Fagel 306 et al., 2014), which show a similar trend to one another over time, with much lower and rather 307 constant  ${}^{206}$ Pb/ ${}^{207}$ Pb values (1.14 – 1.18‰) than our new dataset. 308

From the top of both cores to about A.D. 1700, as Pb E.F. decreases, the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio increases. Lead E.F. and isotope ratios have a weak negative correlation, with higher Pb E.F.s coinciding with lower <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb values.

312

#### 313 **4. DISCUSSION**

### 314 <u>4.1 Identification of Lead Sources</u>

Three-point plots are a useful approach to differentiating among natural and anthropogenic 315 Pb sources by comparing <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb ratios (Fig. 3; Alfonso et al., 2001, Bi et al., 316 2017, Díaz-Somoano et al., 2009, Harlavan et al., 2010, Monna et al., 2000, Zohar et al., 2014). 317 Background sample averages from both sites (natural Pb isotopic ratio endmember: Radzyń 318 Chełmiński: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb= 1.33±0.01‰; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb = 1.97±0.004‰; Rywałd: <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb = 319  $1.30\pm0.02\%$ ; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb = 1.96±0.03‰) and Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag combined 320 average (anthropogenic endmember:  ${}^{206}Pb/{}^{207}Pb = 1.17 \pm 0.01\%$  and  ${}^{208}Pb/{}^{206}Pb = 2.09 \pm 0.01\%$ ; 321 Tyszka et al., 2012) were also included in Figure 3. Lead isotopic ratios for both Radzyń 322 Chełmiński fall along a single trend line between the anthropogenic endmember and an 323 endmember similar to the background averages. Due to the glacial till composition of background 324 sediment, Pb isotopic ratios for samples are not perfectly linear with background ratios. Overall, 325 the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratio ranges from 1.18 to 1.28‰ for Radzyń Chełmiński, and 1.17 to 1.25‰ for 326 Rywałd. The <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb ratio for Radzyń Chełmiński ranges from 1.96 to 2.08‰, and 1.98 to 327 2.10% for Rywald. Error bars representing 1 standard deviation for all averages are included 328 (Southern Poland coal, ore and slag <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb= 1.17±0.01; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb =2.09±0.01; Radzyń 329

Chełmiński background <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb=1.33±0.01; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb=1.97±0.004; Rywałd background
 <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb =1.30±0.03; <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb=1.96±0.03).

332 Compared to other similarly aged Central European sedimentary records, our new dataset 333 displays significant differences (e.g. Fagel et al., 2014, Zillen et al., 2012, De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). Previously published data from the North Poland Bog (Słowińskie Błoto Bog; De 334 335 Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b) fall along the same trend line. However, the North Poland bog displays an isotopic composition almost entirely from Southwest Poland coal and ore, indicating a much 336 stronger regional anthropogenic signal, with little to no natural Pb input as indicated in the previous 337 study (Fig. 3; De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b). In addition, the North Poland Bog indicates an 338 entirely anthropogenic source, with lower <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb than that of the Southwest 339 Poland anthropogenic end members. Such source dissimilarity is expected. Unlike Radzyń 340 Chełmiński and Rywałd, Słowińskie Błoto is a raised (ombrotrophic) peat bog. Signals from peat 341 sediment are expected to record mostly atmospheric inputs (solely rain), versus lake sediment from 342 the current study which include both terrestrial sediment (from runoff) and atmospheric inputs 343 (e.g. Fagel et al., 2014, Thevenon et al., 2011). 344

345

### 346 **4.2 Changes in Lead Sources Over Time**

#### 347

# 4.2.1 Anthropogenic Sources

Lead isotopic data processed using FRUITS, a Bayesian mixing model, quantified the importance of anthropogenic Pb inputs for each depth sampled (Fig. 4). Climatic periods included in bars below both graphs present cold periods as blue bars, and warm periods as red bars. Arrows along the top of Figure 4 indicate the building of a Teutonic Order fort (A.D. 1234; Urban, 1980) and castle (late 13<sup>th</sup> century; Urban, 1980) at Radzyń Chełmiński; this activity would not have
 impacted Rywałd.

Modeled anthropogenic Pb contribution is described from oldest to most recent inputs (Fig. 4). At Radzyń Chełmiński, the fraction of total lead attributed to anthropogenic inputs in the oldest sediments appears to be influenced by anthropogenic Pb pollution from A.D. 883±99 to A.D. 1054±104. Contribution of Southwest Poland coal, ore, and slag during that period reaches a maximum of 35% at A.D. 979±97. The anthropogenic fraction of total Pb remains below 1% from A.D. 1168±114 to with A.D. 1296±94, then increases from the beginning of the 14th century towards a dominantly anthropogenic contribution at the top of the core (up to 65%).

At Rywald, the modeled anthropogenic contribution increases from the core bottom to reach a maximum in A.D. 973±80 of 65%, and decrease to 1% at A.D. 1223±45. Subsequently, the contribution sharply increases to 49% in A.D. 1303±54 and remains relatively stable with an average value of 38±8% to the top of the core, with the exceptions of the two most recent samples (74 and 86%).

366

# 367 4.2.2 Mining Activity – Long Range Transport

Atmospheric anthropogenic Pb signatures are expected to have been transported from regional mines. Approximately 400 km to the south of Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd, in the Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Southwest Poland, a series of mines were active periodically over the last millennium (e.g. Kierczak and Pietranik, 2011). Primary ores from Southwest Poland include bituminous and brown coal, Cu, Zn, and Pb ores, native S, and rock salt (Rybicka, 1996). Samples from Janowice, Wielkie, Szklary, Legnica, Miedzianka, and Wałbrzych sites in Southwest Poland were used to represent an anthropogenic contribution (Fig. 4; Tyszka et al.,
2012). These mines are the nearest likely source of anthropogenic Pb in sediments from both
Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd. Documentation and precise dates are scarce prior to the 1800s,
but evidence can be pieced together through the few historical records available and archaeological
evidence.

379 First known Zn-Pb ore exploitation in Southwest Poland began in the Cracow-Silesia district during the 12<sup>th</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> centuries (Cabala et al., 2013). Mining and smelting of Cu in the 380 Rudawy Janowickie Mountains has occurred from the 14th century to present (e.g. Bukowski, 381 2011, Kierczak et al., 2013). Miedzianka, in particular was the largest center of mining and 382 smelting Cu, As, and Ag in Silesia, beginning as early as A.D. 1310 (Kierczak and Pietranik, 383 2011). These mining activities are probably responsible for the change in Pb isotopic ratios 384 observed at Rywald just after A.D. 1200 (Fig. 4). Copper slags were deposited in the mountains 385 from the 14<sup>th</sup> to 16<sup>th</sup> century (Kierczak et al., 2013). Exploitation peaked in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, when 386 resources were exhausted, declining until the end of the 17th century (Kierczak and Pietranik, 387 2011). Our data indicates that this historical record of mining activity resulted in lead pollution 388 throughout the region, as shown by the relatively stable anthropogenic contribution in Rywald for 389 the same time period followed by a small decrease. Ore mining activities became prevalent again 390 from the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century to the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, focusing on Cu-rich 391 ore, as anthropogenic Pb again increases at Rywald. Mining and smelting in the Rudawy 392 Janowickie mountains ceased entirely in A.D. 1925 (Kierczak and Pietranik, 2011, Kierczak et al., 393 2013). 394

Coal exploitation was also prevalent in the Rudawy Janowickie Mountains of Southwest
 Poland from the 12<sup>th</sup> century onwards, including two key basins, the Upper Silesian Coal Basin

(Bukowski, 2011, Rybicka, 1996) and the Lower Silesian Coal Basin (LSCB; Rybicka, 1996). Ore
was also mined in these basins. In Bytom and Olkusz, sub districts of the Upper Silesian Coal
Basin, Pb, Zn, and Cd ores were mined since the 12<sup>th</sup>-14<sup>th</sup> century (depending on source;
Ciarkowska et al., 2016, Rybicka, 1996,).

Additionally, from the 1800s onwards, anthropogenic contributions from modern mining,
bituminous coal combustion, and leaded gasoline exerted substantial control of the sedimentary
Pb isotopic compositions and concentrations at both sites, as documented in previous studies (e.g.
De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b, Fialkiewicz-Koziel et al., 2018).

To test our hypothesis, a simple mass-balance calculation was applied. At Radzyn by considering only the first 60 cm with a bulk density of approximately 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, where a mean increase in total Pb of about 5-10 ppm above baseline values can be observed, and by simplifying the time required to accumulate these sediments to 1000 years, we can estimate an average deposition rate of 3-6 mg.m<sup>-2</sup>y<sup>-1</sup>. Considering this range of deposition rate, we cannot exclude influences from other sources either local or distant.

411

# 412 4.2.3 Land Use within Castle Lake Watershed – Short Range Transport

Earliest palynological records at Radzyń Chełmiński suggest the region was dominated by woodland with evidence of local small-scale agricultural activities present around A.D. 0-700 (Brown et al., 2015). The Wielbark culture was present in the area from the 2<sup>nd</sup> to the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D., during the Migration period (A.D. 300 to 700). The 5<sup>th</sup> to 9<sup>th</sup> century is marked by archaeological evidence of tumuli and stone graves in the forest surrounding Radzyń Chełmiński, with remains of a Slavonic settlement adjacent to the forest (Samojlik et al., 2013). There is also archaeological evidence of depopulation from the 4<sup>th</sup> century until Slavic settlement from the 7<sup>th</sup>
century (Buko, 2008). A Slavic stronghold was constructed in proximity to Castle Lake around the
late 9<sup>th</sup> century (e.g. Urban, 1980).

Prior to Teutonic settlement, the land surrounding Castle Lake at Radzyń Chełmiński was 422 controlled by a Slavic Stronghold, occupied from the late 9th to mid 12th century when it may have 423 been burnt down in an attack (Brown et al., 2015, Chudziak, 1994). Concurrently, there was an 424 intensification in agricultural activity and decrease in woodland, causing increased soil erosion 425 into the surrounding wetland, as presented by palynological evidence (Brown et al., 2015; 426 Chudziak, 1996). Such erosion and increased land-use may have contributed to a decrease in 427 recorded anthropogenic contribution and Pb concentration at Radzyń Chełmiński. Palynological 428 evidence describes an increasingly open landscape in the pre-Crusading period (11th to 12th 429 430 century) of both intensifying arable and pastoral activity, with woodland retained on nearby land 431 (Brown et al., 2015).

432 Teutonic influence is documented at the location from A.D. 1234 to around A.D. 1454 when the Order ceded the territory to Polish control (Pluskowski, 2013; Urban, 1980). The 433 Crusading period began in A.D. 1230, concurrent with the founding of the Teutonic Order castle 434 and town at Radzyń Chełmiński (Brown et al., 2015). During this period agricultural and pastoral 435 land-use was relatively stable surrounding the Castle Lake (Brown et al., 2015). A timber fort was 436 constructed in A.D. 1234, and the castle was later built between A.D. 1310 and 1340 (e.g. Brown 437 et al., 2015). Previously published palynological evidence from Radzyń Chełmiński recorded 438 changes in vegetation and land use during this period, including a decrease in arboreal pollen and 439 440 increase in cereal pollen (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011; Pluskowski, 2013). The period between A.D. 1350 and 1400 is known as the "Golden Age" of Teutonic Order influence (e.g. Pluskowski, 441

2013). Heathland developed along with agricultural intensification from the late 14th to 15th 442 century, accompanied by a decrease in woodland area (Brown and Pluskowski, 2011). In addition 443 to landscape changes with the arrival of the Teutonic Order, trade routes also developed by efforts 444 to exploit Prussian resources, adding to human impact from the nearby settlements (Harte and 445 Ponting, 1983). As the frontier land between Teutonic Order Prussia and Poland, the Chełmo land 446 447 (Kulmerland in German), including Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd experienced intermittent raids from Prussian tribes, including the Great Prussian Uprising of the 1260s, and subsequent 448 transformation of the landscape (Lukowski and Zawadzki, 2001; Pluskowski, 2013). Such 449 450 agricultural intensification and castle building may have contributed to altered the regional anthropogenic isotopic signal from the opening of mines within the sediment records, minimizing 451 the expected increase in anthropogenic Pb contribution that was detected at Rywald, while at the 452 same time causing an increase in Pb concentration. 453

In A.D. 1410, Radzyń Chełmiński Castle was damaged by Polish-Lithuanians (e.g. 454 Pluskowski, 2013). From A.D. 1412 to 1439, the surrounding landscape was subjected to multiple 455 seasons of crop failure, causing many villages in the area to be covered by woodland by A.D. 1444. 456 The Thirteen Years war occurred shortly after, from A.D. 1453 to 1466, with many conflicts 457 458 occurring near Radzyń, after which the castle became occupied by Poland (e.g. Pluskowski, 2013), falling into ruin by the 16<sup>th</sup> century (Brown et al., 2015). Further damage occurred during the 459 Swedish Invasion from A.D. 1626 to 1629 (e.g. Brown et al., 2015). Wooded areas contribute 460 minimal weathered and eroded sediment to the surrounding basin, compared to predominantly 461 open fields (arable and pastoral land). The decrease in local influence from the nearby castle and 462 town, and re-establishment of woodlands, may have allowed for a return to a predominantly 463 regional, atmospheric Pb-derived signal in the sediment record during this period. 464

465

# 466 4.2.4 Regional Climatic Influence

Differentiating between climatic and historical influences remains challenging. Although 467 Pb isotopes are not climate proxies, it is possible climate change or influencing meteorological 468 conditions (e.g. change in dominant wind direction patterns, increase in rainfall, flood events, etc.) 469 might indirectly influence Pb isotopic signatures by promoting the development of human 470 activities (e.g. Büntgen et al., 2016, 2011), mostly during warmer and dryer periods. According to 471 472 our sediment data (SI 2, SI 3), the Radzyń Chełmiński core is made entirely of lake mud/sediment; while Rywald contains peat sediment from 0 to 68 cm, and lake mud/sediment 473 from 68 cm to the bottom of the core. 474

475 Sedimentary records for both cores span five climatic periods: 1) Late Antique Little Ice Age (LALIA, A.D. 536 to 660; e.g. Berglund et al., 2003; Büntgen et al., 2016); 2) the Climatic 476 Optimum in Prussia (COP, A.D. 800 to 1150; e.g. Pluskowski, 2013); 3) the Medieval Warm 477 Period (MWP; A.D. 800 to 1300; e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b); 4) the Little Ice Age (LIA; 478 A.D. 1300 to 1850; e.g. De Vleeschouwer et al., 2009b; Hegerl et al., 2017; Lockwood, 2001); 479 and 5) Global Warming (GW; A.D. 1890 to present; e.g. Chiriloaei et al., 2012; Hegerl et al., 480 2017). Unlike in Western Europe, Prussian communities did not experience a regression after the 481 medieval warm period, and instead thrived (Pluskowski, 2013). We hypothesize that promotion of 482 483 human activities during favorable climatic conditions (Büntgen et al., 2016) included behaviors 484 that mobilize lead, such as coal burning and ore utilization.

485

# 486 5. CONCLUSION

In this study, Pb concentrations and isotope ratios were used to quantify anthropogenic lead inputs and sources, as well as to identify trends in human activity in Northern Poland over the last 1,500 years. The use of a rural lake sediment core at Rywałd and a lake core influenced by a nearby town and Teutonic Order castle at Radzyń Chełmiński enabled differentiation between local and regional anthropogenic inputs.

492 Two primary Pb sources have been identified: (1) coal, ore, and slag originated from Southwestern Poland mining activities (long range transport); and (2) erosion from the surrounding 493 watershed associated with the development of human activities (short range transport). High 494 495 anthropogenic Pb contributions from the 9th to 11th centuries A.D., in the absence of historical evidence for mining activity in Southwestern Poland, point to a previously-unrecognized, 496 497 substantial anthropogenic pb source during that time period. Local activities dominated the Pb isotopic record from the 11th to 13th centuries A.D., during periods of Slavic and subsequent 498 Teutonic Order settlement and castle building, and agricultural intensification. The long range, 499 anthropogenic, mining signal was elevated around the 16<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> to 19<sup>th</sup> centuries A.D., during 500 periods of decreased local human agricultural activity. 501

502 Overall, the sediments at Rywałd recorded mostly long range mining inputs originating 503 from Southwest Poland, while Radzyń Chełmiński sediments recorded both sources long range 504 mining signal and local signal from an increase in agricultural and other human activities related 505 to the development of the town and castle. Further studies are required to identify the sources 506 responsible for the anthropogenic signal observed for our sites prior to A.D. 1000.

507

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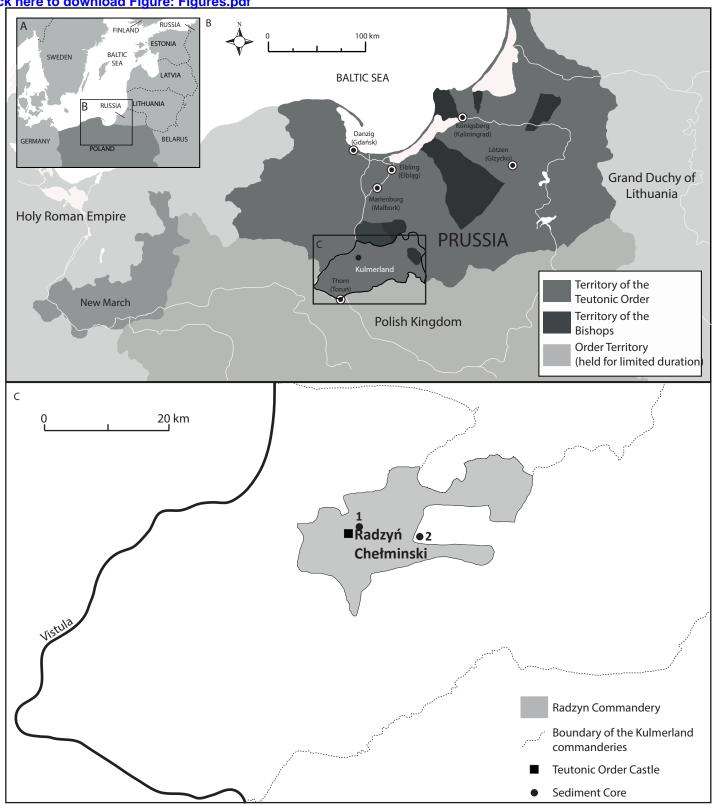
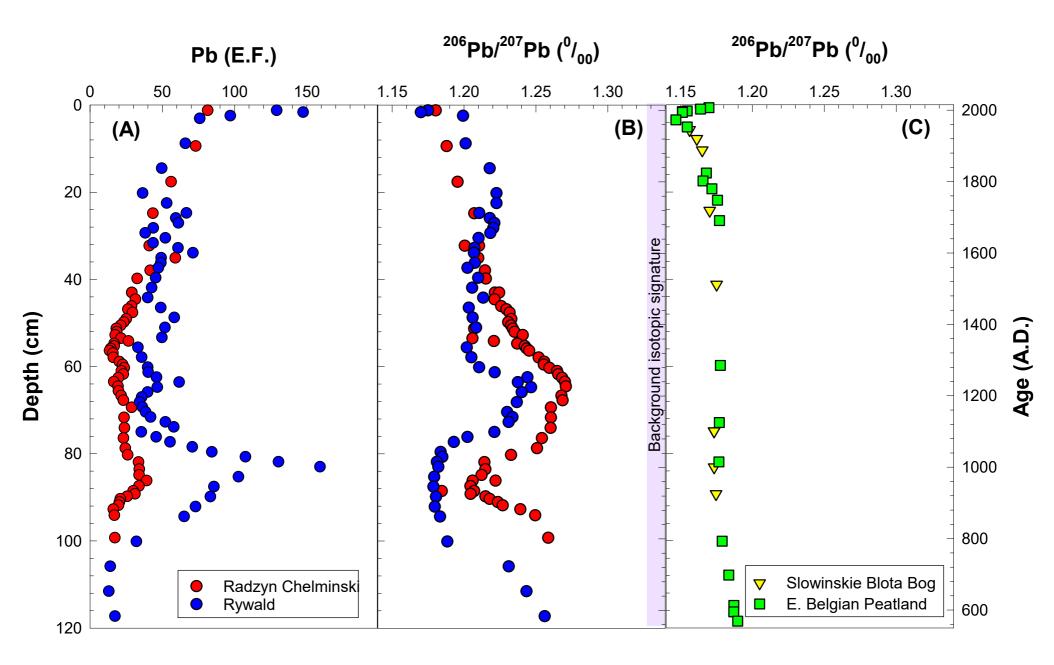


Figure 1



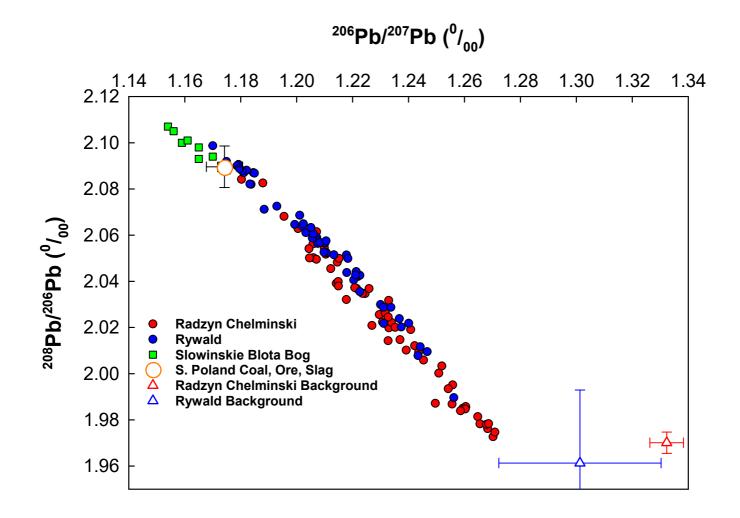
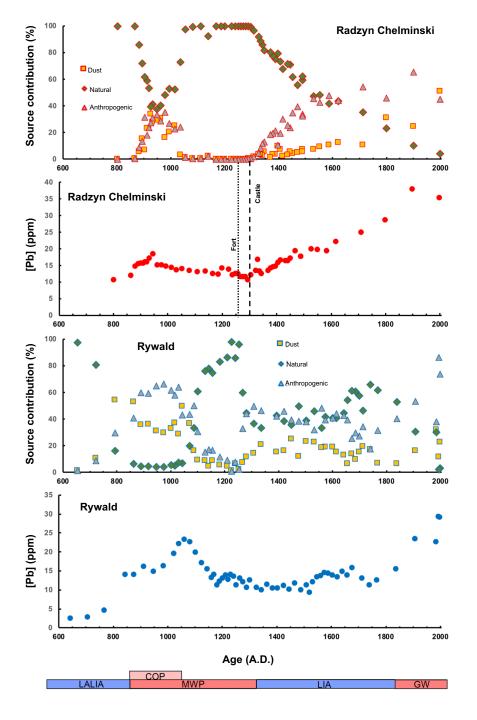


Figure 3



#### **Figure captions**

**Figure 1:** Site Map. A) Central and Eastern Europe, B) Location of the Kulmerland within Medieval Prussia, including lands controlled by the Teutonic Order, C) The Kulmerland region including (1) Radzyń Chełmiński core, Radzyń Chełmiński Castle, and (2) Rywałd core (modified from Brown et al., 2015).

**Figure 2:** Sedimentary profiles of Pb enrichment factors (E.F., left panel), <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb (‰) isotopic ratios for Radzyń Chełmiński and Rywałd (middle panel, the vertical light purple represents the <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb isotopic signature of the background, i.e. underneath earth material layer), and previously published profiles (right panel) from a bog located in Northern Poland (De Vleeschower et al., 2009) and a Belgian Peatland (Fagel et al., 2014).

**Figure 3:** <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb isotopic ratio three-point plot. Red dots, blue dots, green squares, open orange circle, open red triangle and open blue triangle represent Radzyń Chełmiński, Rywałd, Slowinskie Blota Bog (De Vleeschower et al., 2009), Poland ore, slag, coal (Tyszka et al., 2012), Radzyń Chełmiński background and Rywałd background, respectively.

**Figure 4:** Source contribution -dust, natural and anthropogenic-(top panel for Radzyń Chełmiński and third panel for Rywałd) and Pb concentration (second panel for Radzyń Chełmiński and bottom panel for Rywałd) versus time (horizontal bottom axis). Source contribution was calculated

using a Bayesian code (FRUITS) using <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ‰ and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb ‰. See main text for detailed explanation about the modeling. Horizontal bars (blue and red) below the plot displays climatic periods. Late Antique Little Ice Age (LALIA, 536 to 660 AD; left blue bar). Climatic Optimum in Prussia (COP, 800 to 1150 AD; light red bar on the top). Medieval Warm Period (MWP; 800 to 1300 AD; left red bar). Little Ice Age (LIA; 1300 to 1850 AD; right blue bar). Global Warming (GW; 1890 to present; right red bar). Vertical arrows are only relevant to Radzyń Chełmiński and represent the Teutonic timber fort built (1234 AD; Urban, 1980) and the Radzyń Chełmiński Castle Built (late 13<sup>th</sup> century; Urban, 1980), respectively.

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