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Böhringer See, western Lake Constance (Germany): an 8500 year record of vegetation change

JUTTA LECHTERBECK & MANFRED RÖSCH

Abstract
During the last 35 years, a number of high-resolution pollen diagrams were made for the western Lake Constance area. Up to now, 12 such records exist, most of them covering the time from the early Neolithic to the present, and all of them independently dated by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon dates. Here, we present a new pollen record from Böhringer See, a small dead ice lake, analysed in the course of a project on land-use change in the Neolithic and Bronze Age. Pollen analysis was carried out in closed sampling in 1 cm or 0.5 cm sections, amounting to 465 samples. For all samples at least 1000 terrestrial pollen were counted and 334 taxa were identified. Twenty-three local pollen assemblage zones were distinguished covering the time from 6400–2000. The pollen record fits well into the regional framework. It depicts the regional vegetation development and human impact in detail but shows also minor local variations to the regional development featuring some original, local traits. The pollen record is rather similar to that from Litzelsee and Steisslinger See, both of which are located in close vicinity to the Böhringer See. The older pollen zones correlate very well chronologically with all pollen records in the area, the younger ones (from the Neolithic onwards) show stronger differentiation with regard to the duration and timing of pollen zones and the intensity of human impact. The raw data for this study will be published in the European Pollen Database.

Keywords: pollen analysis, Böhringer See, western Lake Constance area

During the last 35 years, a number of high-resolution pollen studies have been carried out at Lake Constance and at smaller dead ice lakes and mires in the vicinity (Rösch 1983, 1985a, 1985b, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1997, 2002, 2013; Lechterbeck 2001; Wick & Rösch 2006; Lechterbeck et al. 2014a, 2014b; Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016; Rösch & Wick 2019a, 2019b). Up to now, 12 such records exist (Figure 1, Table 1), most of them covering the time span from the early Neolithic to the present day; all of them are independently dated by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon dates on terrestrial material. This region is well suited for such studies, because it provides numerous small lakes, as well as mires, all formed during the last ice age. Due to favourable climate and soils particularly suitable for agriculture, the human impact since the Neolithic has been intense and the region can be considered as one of the longsettled landscapes in Europe. The archives of the region allow to study the development and intensity of human influence over time in great detail and resolution.

Böhringer See is one of them and was analysed in the course of a project on land-use and land-use change in the Neolithic and Bronze Age (DFG grants PL 95/39 and RO 2282/8).

Material and methods

Site details
The western Lake Constance region extends over an area of c. 800 km² at elevations between 395 and 750 m above sea level (a.s.l.). The climate is sub-oceanic, with annual mean temperatures of 9 °C and an annual precipitation of 900 mm. Most common

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soils are luvisols and haplic luvisols on glacial tills or Mollassic sandstones. The potential natural vegetation would be deciduous woodland dominated by *Fagus sylvatica*. The actual vegetation is dominated by farmland. The Böhringer See (Lake Böhringen, 8° 56' 18" E, 47° 45' 47" N, 406 m a.s.l.) is situated in the Northern alpine foreland in the western Lake Constance area. It has a size of 5.1 ha and a maximum depth of 9 m. The lake is surrounded by farmland in the south, by woodland in the west and east, and by wet meadows in the north. In the south at a distance of 400 m, the village of Böhringen is located.

A sediment core of 7 m length, in seven segments of 1 m each, was retrieved from the lake’s centre at 9 m water depth using a modified Livingstone sampler (Merkt & Streif 1970). The sediments consisted of calcareous lake marl and mud on top of glacial clay and silt. Apart from pollen analysis, organic and inorganic carbon was measured by loss-on-ignition (LOI) at 1 cm intervals. The samples were dried at 102 °C for 12 h and then weighed for the determination of dry weight. Afterwards the samples were transferred to a muffle furnace and heated to 550 °C for 2 h to combust organic matter. After measuring the difference between dry weight and ash the samples were heated again to 925 °C for 4 h to combust inorganic carbon from calcite (procedure after Berglund & Ralska-Jasiewiczowa 1986).

**Dating**

For radiocarbon dates, terrestrial plant macro remains were extracted by sieving sediment samples with a mesh size of 0.5 mm. Plant remains were selected under a stereo microscope. It was not always possible to determine the plant remains to species level as these were mostly leaf fragments, bud scales, bark, charcoal and twig fragments.
Table I. Details and references for all analysed pollen profiles in the western Lake Constance area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Coordinates</th>
<th>Above sea level</th>
<th>Size (ha)</th>
<th>Maximum Core depth (m)</th>
<th>Core length (m)</th>
<th>Levels (m)</th>
<th>Pollen $^{14}$C Dates</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>MAI</td>
<td>Mainau-Obere Güll</td>
<td>47° 42' 20&quot; N 9° 11' 01&quot; E</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>473 km$^2$</td>
<td>2/147</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>Rösch and Wick (2019a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>Mindelsee</td>
<td>47° 45' 20&quot; N 9° 01' 22&quot; E</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>Rösch (2013); Rösch et al. (2014a, 2014b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>BUC</td>
<td>Buchensee- Südost</td>
<td>47° 46' 01&quot; N 8° 59' 05&quot; E</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>Rösch and Wick (2019b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>BOH</td>
<td>Böhringer See</td>
<td>47° 45' 48&quot; N 8° 56' 18&quot; E</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>Lechterbeck, Rösch, this article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>LIT</td>
<td>Litzehsee</td>
<td>47° 46' 08&quot; N 8° 55' 50&quot; E</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>Rösch and Lechterbeck (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>UFR</td>
<td>Feuenried</td>
<td>47° 44' 40&quot; N 8° 54' 13&quot; E</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>N/K</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>Rösch (1985a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>STK</td>
<td>Steisslinger See</td>
<td>47° 47' 57&quot; N 8° 55' 01&quot; E</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>Lechterbeck (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>GRS</td>
<td>Grasseee</td>
<td>47° 44' 30&quot; N 8° 48' 9&quot; E</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>N/K</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lechterbeck, unpublished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>HAR</td>
<td>Hardtsee</td>
<td>47° 44' 29&quot; N 8° 45' 11&quot; E</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>N/K</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lechterbeck, unpublished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>GDU</td>
<td>Durchenbergrowd</td>
<td>47° 46' 34&quot; N 8° 58' 48&quot; E</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N/K</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>Rösch (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>HOB</td>
<td>Homstadt-Bodensee</td>
<td>47° 41' 45&quot; N 9° 00' 31&quot; E</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>63 km$^2$</td>
<td>2/45</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>862</td>
<td>Rösch (1992, 1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>NUS</td>
<td>Nussbaumer See</td>
<td>47° 37' 01&quot; N 8° 49' 05&quot; E</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>Haas and Philippe (1998); Rösch (1983, 1985b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The chronology is based on 21 mass spectrometer carbon-14 ($^{14}$C) dates measured on terrestrial plant material (Table II). The dates were calibrated with the OxCal radiocarbon calibration program and a time-depth model (Figure 2) was constructed using Bayes modelling (Bronk Ramsey et al. 2008).

**Pollen analysis**

After the initial pollen analysis with sampling intervals of 10 cm carried out by one of the authors (MR) the upper part of the core starting with the first occurrence of *Fagus sylvatica* (400 cm) was sampled in continuous intervals: between 349 and 260 cm in 0.5 cm, between 260 and 2 cm (top of core) in 1 cm distances. This amounted to a total of 464 samples. One of the authors (JL) analysed all samples up to 260 cm, MR all samples from 260 cm to the top.

Preparation of the samples for pollen analysis was done using hot hydrochloric acid (HCl), hot hydrogen fluoride (HF), hot potassium hydroxide (KOH) or chlorination, and acetolysis (Berglund & Ralska-Jasiewiczowa 1986).

The material was stored in glycerol and the analysis was carried out on unstained mounted slides. For pollen determination Beug (2004), Punt (1976, 1980, 1981, 1984, 1988, 1991, 1995, 2003), Reille (1992) and the reference collection of the Laboratory for Archaeobotany at the Landesamt für Denkmalpflege Baden-Württemberg were used. The data were recorded and processed using the programs Taxus (Schnelke unpublished) and Tilia (Grimm 1991).

All samples were counted up to a pollen sum of 1000 terrestrial pollen grains, Cyperaceae, water plants, moss spores and pteridophytes were excluded from the pollen sum. Of the 334 pollen taxa identified only the most common and important could be documented in the pollen diagram (Figures 3, 4). They are shown as percentages of the terrestrial pollen sum. The zonation of the diagram was done with CONISS (Grimm 1987). Twenty-three local pollen assemblage zones (LP AZs) can be distinguished.

**Results**

**Local pollen assemblage zones**

*LP AZ 1 (6391–5705 BC, 399–392 cm).* — The pollen record is dominated by *Corylus* and *Quercus*, accompanied by other taxa of the oak-mixed-forest (*Quercetum mixtum*, Q M) such as *Acer, Fraxinus, Ulmus* and *Tilia*. The low values of *A lmus* indicate that *Corylus* also dominated on wet stands. Based on the continuous curve, *Fagus* is already present in the vegetation, although with low percentages.

*LP AZ 2 (5705–5150 BC, 392–384.5 cm).* — *Quercus* is more abundant than *Corylus*, while all other Q M taxa remain unchanged. *Fagus* is spreading further, which indicates that *Fagus* might have replaced *Corylus* on well-drained sites.

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**Table II. Radiocarbon dates measured on terrestrial macro remains for the profundal of Böhringer See.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lab.-Nr. MAMS</th>
<th>Depth (cm)</th>
<th>C$^{14}$ Age</th>
<th>±</th>
<th>$^{13}$C</th>
<th>Cal 1 sigma</th>
<th>Cal 2 sigma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11475</td>
<td>226–228</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>−10.6</td>
<td>AB 692–774</td>
<td>AB 672–857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11476</td>
<td>280–281</td>
<td>2371</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>−3.9</td>
<td>734–382 BC</td>
<td>763–233 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11477</td>
<td>293–294</td>
<td>2418</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>−26.1</td>
<td>716–406 BC</td>
<td>750–399 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11478</td>
<td>308–310</td>
<td>2777</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>−15.8</td>
<td>977–849 BC</td>
<td>1012–830 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11479</td>
<td>315–318</td>
<td>2897</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>−30.8</td>
<td>1126–1018 BC</td>
<td>1246–980 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11480</td>
<td>318–319</td>
<td>3072</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>−25.6</td>
<td>1399–1311 BC</td>
<td>1423–1262 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11481</td>
<td>320–322</td>
<td>3447</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1870–1693 BC</td>
<td>1879–1687 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11482</td>
<td>325–326</td>
<td>3549</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>−35.6</td>
<td>1952–1777 BC</td>
<td>2020–1751 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11483</td>
<td>327–328</td>
<td>3869</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>−31.1</td>
<td>2461–2236 BC</td>
<td>2546–2143 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11484</td>
<td>330–332</td>
<td>3804</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>−29.5</td>
<td>2293–2151 BC</td>
<td>2454–2136 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11485</td>
<td>333–335</td>
<td>3858</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>−14.6</td>
<td>2453–2235 BC</td>
<td>2461–2209 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11486</td>
<td>335–336</td>
<td>3802</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>−28.0</td>
<td>2290–2152 BC</td>
<td>2432–2136 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11488</td>
<td>343–344</td>
<td>4159</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>−32.9</td>
<td>2872–2676 BC</td>
<td>2885–2586 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11489</td>
<td>345–346</td>
<td>4221</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>−34.6</td>
<td>2897–2705 BC</td>
<td>2910–2668 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11491</td>
<td>352–354</td>
<td>4237</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>−28.4</td>
<td>2904–2762 BC</td>
<td>2917–2679 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11493</td>
<td>356–358</td>
<td>4547</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>−46.0</td>
<td>3365–3117 BC</td>
<td>3487–3098 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11494</td>
<td>362–364</td>
<td>4758</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>−40.8</td>
<td>3637–3385 BC</td>
<td>3645–3376 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11495</td>
<td>364–366</td>
<td>4894</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>−42.8</td>
<td>3694–3650 BC</td>
<td>3759–3638 BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11496</td>
<td>402–404</td>
<td>7739</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>−33.1</td>
<td>6632–6504 BC</td>
<td>6678–6460 BC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- A first strong increase of *Fagus* is recorded. This increase is accompanied by a decline in *Quercus*, *Corylus* stays roughly at the same level and the increase of *Alnus* towards the end of the zone shows that *Alnus* is now beginning to spread on wet stands as well. The end of the zone is characterised by a massive decline in *Fagus*, a strong increase of *Corylus* and the final *Ulmus* decline.

**LPAZ 4** (4654–4150 BC, 378–371.5 cm). — *Corylus* has a second maximum. There is also a slight increase in non-arboreal pollen (NAP). — mostly grasses, which might indicate the presence of open spaces. Otherwise, there are almost no indicators for human impact.

**LPAZ 5** (4150–3532 BC, 371.5–362.5 cm). — A forest regeneration phase with the spreading of *Fagus* occurs. As mentioned before this is a regional feature because alternating *Corylus*– and *Fagus*-peaks can be observed between 7000 and 2000 BC roughly corresponding with the Younger Neolithic (for a summary see Lechterbeck et al. 2014a; Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016).
**LPAZ 6 (3532–2849 BC, 362.5–350.5 cm).** — Corylus has another maximum, but now also Betula and Alnus increase. In the course of the Neolithic slash-and-burn cultivation, new plots were opened, cultivated for a short time, and then left again to reforestation and the cultivation plots were opened elsewhere. This zone corresponds to the Late Neolithic.

**LPAZ 7 (2849–2061 BC, 328.5–321 cm).** — Fagus is dominating for a rather long period. During these almost 800 years, the human impact near the lake was very weak and the forest could re-establish. However, the presence of Plantago lanceolata and Artemisia evidence human presence and animal browsing. Corresponds to the Late and Final Neolithic and the Earliest Bronze Age.

**LPAZ 8 (2061–1721 BC, 328.5–321 cm).** — The pattern of alternating Corylus and Fagus peaks indicating changes of land-use intensity is replaced by a different pattern: For the first time, land use is recorded by high values of non-arboreal pollen and Quercus peaks. At the end of this phase, Corylus and/or Betula peaks indicate a decrease of land use and reforestation of open land. The pattern is fairly distinct in this zone, but less pronounced than in subsequent pollen zones. It is accompanied by an increase of cultural indicators such as Artemisia and Plantago lanceolata and by a now quite continuous presence of various cereal pollen grains (Hordeum type, Triticum type). Cereal pollen grains were already recorded in the lower parts of the profile but not as regularly as now. This zone corresponds to the Early Bronze Age.

**LPAZ 9 (1721–1294 BC, 321–316.5 cm).** — This short zone consists of a strong Quercus peak and a rise in non-arboreal pollen. All other arboreal pollen decline. It is a phase reflecting strong human impact. During the Middle Bronze Age, the specific kind of land use is indicated that had been practised since the Early Bronze Age and was based on extensive ard cultivation and animal browsing.

**LPAZ 10, (1294–1113 BC, 316.5–312 cm).** — A short reforestation phase with decreasing land-use activity during the transition from the Middle to the Late Bronze Age.

**LPAZ 11 (1113–992 BC, 312–309 cm).** — A short rise in NAP and cultural indicators occur; probably
quite local as the arboreal pollen as well as the NAP peaks coincide with a *Fagus* maximum. This pollen zone corresponds to the older part of the Late Bronze Age.

**LPAZ 12 (992–858 BC, 309–302.5 cm).** — A strong decrease of NAP and human indicators, a short *Betula* maximum and afterwards an increase of *Fagus* indicates farmland abandonment during the younger part of the Late Bronze Age.

**LPAZ 13 (858–487 BC, 302.5–284 cm).** — Quite a long zone with high NAP and cultural indicator values. The very high *Alnus* values indicate that the nearby lake was not affected by human impact. This zone starts with the Bronze Age/Iron Age transition and covers the older part of the pre-Roman Iron Age, obviously a long phase with strong human impact and not much change in the land-use intensity.

Towards the end of the zone, the common pattern of a rise of *Betula* followed by a rise of *Fagus* indicating reforestation and less land-use pressure can be observed.

**LPAZ 14 (487–408 BC, 284–280 cm).** — This is a short phase of decreased land-use intensity with some reforestation. However, human impact does not cease altogether. The pollen record of the nearby lakes Steißlinger See and Litzelsee show similar patterns at this time (Lechterbeck 2001; Kerig & Lechterbeck 2004; Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016).

**LPAZ 15 (408–296 BC, 280–275 cm).** — The strong *Quercus* peak in connection with an increase in NAP as well as a decrease in *Alnus* and *Fraxinus* indicates that during this phase land use again increased close to the lake. It is a very distinct phase, corresponding to the late Latène period, which is also present in the profiles of Litzelsee and Steißlinger See (see earlier).
LPAZ 16 (296–94 BC, 275–266 cm). — Very distinct increases of *Betula, Alnus* and *Fraxinus* indicate an initial reforestation, all cultural indicators and other NAP decline. This is the younger part of the late pre-Roman Iron Age.

LPAZ 17 (94 BC—AD 265, 266–250.5 cm). — A strong land-use phase, followed by a decline of land use and increase of *Betula* and *Alnus*. This is the first phase when *Secale cereale* is recorded regularly and in large quantities and the *Cannabis/Humulus* curve becomes continuous.

LPAZ 18 (AD 265–557, 250.5–237 cm). — This zone covers two *Betula* maxima, separated by an increase of *Corylus, Quercus, Fraxinus*; NAP are decreasing. Overall, this is a reforestation phase though with some fluctuation. The cultural indicators and the charcoal values are very low throughout the zone.

LPAZ 19 (AD 557–737, 237–229 cm). — A last *Fagus* maximum together with high *Alnus* and low NAP values indicate weak human impact and a wet climate. Towards the end of this zone, NAP and anthropogenic indicators increase. The phase corresponds to the Merovingian period.

LPAZ 20 (AD 737–1247, 229–136 cm). — In this zone, the NAP values rise to very high values around 30%. *Juniperus* becomes very common indicating openness of the landscape. Cereal pollen and all other cultural indicators are very abundant. The openness of the landscape actually equals or even exceeds that of today. At the end of the zone, the *Cannabis* values rise to 60% of the pollen sum. This indicates retting of hemp in the lake as it is also recorded for Litzelsee and Steißlinger See. Human impact is increasing at the beginning, has a short decline in the eighth century, increases afterwards and remains at very high levels between the ninth and twelfth centuries. Afterwards it is decreasing slightly. The zone corresponds to the Early and High Medieval periods.

LPAZ 21 (AD 1247–1507, 136–90 cm). — *Quercus* becomes dominant again, after short and weak maxima of *Betula* and *Corylus*. The NAP sum is relatively low at the beginning but slowly increases throughout the zone with short decreases in the fifteenth century. *Juniperus* is less abundant; *Pinus* and *Picea* start to increase. A reduction of human impact is clearly visible.

LPAZ 22 (AD 1507–1755, 90–46 cm). — *Pinus* is increasing and becomes dominant. *Quercus* is less abundant but maintains high percentages. *Picea* and NAP are also slowly increasing. This zone corresponds to the early Modern times.

LPAZ 23 (AD 1755–2003, 45–2 cm). — This last zone is characterised by dominance of *Pinus* and a further increase of *Picea*. The NAP values rise again, because of a strong increase of Poaceae. Only in the uppermost centimetre, in the twentieth century, they decline. In the uppermost part, *Pinus* is slightly less abundant and *Carpinus, Alnus*, and *Betula* increase. NAP has a maximum of more than 50%.

The regional pollen biostratigraphy has long since been established (Rösch 1983, 1985a, 1985b, 1990) and was confirmed by further studies (Lechterbeck 2001; Kerig & Lechterbeck 2004; Rösch 2013; Rösch & Wick 2019a, 2019b). The zonation of the Böhringer See profile fits into this regional framework and we did not observe any hiatus.

**Discussion**

It is possible to directly compare the Böhringer See record to the closest neighbouring sites Litzelsee (Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016) and Steißlinger See (Lechterbeck 2001; Kerig & Lechterbeck 2004).

The most important factor for vegetation development in the originally forested parts of middle Europe is human impact. The scale and nature of past climate changes in the Holocene are either not likely to have a lasting effect on the stable, resilient climax vegetation of Middle Europe or the effects of climatic events are obscured by human action (Lechterbeck 2001). The picture is different for less stable ecosystems in fringe positions, for example at the tree line in the Alps or at high latitudes (e.g. Barnekow 1999; Bjune et al. 2005; Nussbaumer et al. 2011). The present climatic changes though have a magnitude that already affects hitherto stable systems – but also these changes are brought about by human action. One might say that this development starts with the onset of the Neolithic when humans started to not only exploit resources but also shape their environment to the needs of agricultural production. Pollen analysis allows to detect, quantify and qualify human impact (Behre 1981, 1986). In pollen diagrams, human impact on the landscape is mainly indicated by deforestation, visible as a decrease of tree pollen, by changes of the forest composition and structure, visible as fluctuating abundances of arboreal pollen types, and by the occurrence of introduced taxa such as Cerealia, *Linum usitatissimum*, *Juglans regia*, *Castanea sativa*
and others. It is also indicated by the development of a substitute vegetation for forest, consisting of shrubs, dwarf shrubs, herbs and grasses – species which either immigrated into the region or were indeed present in the natural vegetation before, but were so rare that they were not recorded or were present only as single grains in the pollen record.

The pollen record of Böhringer See starts around 6500 BC with high amounts of Corylus and of oak mixed forest taxa between 6000 and 5100 BC. The comparatively high values for Poaceae and Artemisia are due to the fact that herbaceous vegetation could thrive in the relatively light oak-dominated forests. Human impact on the vegetation cannot be detected at that time. However, it has been frequently discussed whether Mesolithic hunter-gatherers fostered hazel for the enhancement of nuts and wood resources. Hazelnuts provide a fat- and protein-rich food resource and were extensively used in the Mesolithic (e.g. Holst 2010, 2014; Groß et al. 2019). The presence of large amounts of charcoal in Mesolithic contexts in combination with nitrogen indicators and light indicators is seen as evidence for deliberate burning to favour the spreading of hazel (Bos & Urz 2003). Burning for the enhancement of hunting possibilities was discussed for the British Mesolithic (Bell & Walker 1992) but this could not be proven for the Lake Constance area (Clark et al. 1989). The Böhringer See profile has relatively high charcoal values at that time but that is a unique feature, as the neighbouring profiles do not have increased micro-charcoal values. The charcoal records of the Western Lake Constance region need a thorough analysis, which exceeds the scope of this article.

For the time between 5500 and 5000 BC – corresponding to the Linear Pottery Culture (LBK) period – some single cereal pollen grains are recorded. There are two grains of Avena-type which are almost certainly from wild oat as Avena was first cultivated in the pre-Roman Iron Age (cf. Behre 2007). Two single finds of Triticum-type pollen grains might be related to cereal cultivation in the area but otherwise no significant signs for human impact are recorded in the pollen record. LBK settlements are not known from the direct vicinity of the Böhringer See. LBK settlement in the area is concentrated in the Hegau region at a distance of more than 5 km from Böhringer See. Early Neolithic land use has only a small impact on woodland communities. Bogaard (2004) describes intensive garden cultivation as ‘the most plausible and wide-spread form of crop husbandry’ for the Early Neolithic Linear Pottery Culture. Kreuz (1990) states that from an archaeobotanical point of view intensive soil cultivation without ploughing is most probable, amongst other reasons because of the occurrence of annual weeds. Schier (2009) and Kerg (2008, 2013) argue that there is no proof for either plough or traction in the Early Neolithic in Europe and that the required agricultural land might well have been worked by hand. For intensive garden cultivation, only small patches of woodland have to be cleared, the consequences of which are commonly invisible in the pollen record.

During the first half of the Middle Neolithic, the Fagus expansion takes place in the Böhringer See region. Fagus immigrates already around 6000 BC and investigations of pollen influx in Lake Steisslingen show that Fagus could spread without a decline of Quercus (Lechterbeck 2001; Kerg & Lechterbeck 2004). Corylus still prevails on wet stands.

It is possible that the previous clearance activities of Linear Pottery people supported the expansion of Fagus. As they are shade tolerant, the saplings of beech could survive under the canopy of the oak mixed forest and could then blend in the forest community on a small scale where single trees were felled or where larger clearings were made (Rösch 1990; Haas & Philippe 1998). The first Fagus expansion in the lake Constance area took place between 5000 and 4500 BC. By the end of that time, the post-glacial forest development can be considered as having reached an equilibrium state in accordance with soil and climatic conditions and Fagus has become the major tree taxon. From the Middle Neolithic onwards, human impact is recorded constantly but with varying intensities. At Böhringer See, some pollen grains of Hordeum-type occur in the Middle Neolithic. A first major phase of human impact is recorded at the transition to the Younger Neolithic: the Fagus curve declines dramatically, the curve of Corylus increases, also the values of Artemisia and Plantago lanceolata increase. This phase lasts up to 4000 BC, when the Fagus curve increases again. The nearby Litzelsee profile records an increase in charcoal during the Corylus increase (Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016) – a feature which is not visible in the Böhringer See record. The charcoal record might thus be a very local signal. The following phase, which is largely synchronous with the Young Neolithic Pfyn culture, is characterised by reforestation and a decrease of human impact. However, it does not cease altogether, some cereal pollen grains, Plantago lanceolata and Artemisia still evidence human activities. During the Pfyn culture – and the preceding Hornstaad phase – the first pile dwellings occur at Lake Constance. The Böhringer See profile indicates a lessening of land-use activities in the hinterland of the pile dwellings at this time. At the transition from Pfyn to the following Horgen culture there is a settlement gap at the lake shore
which corresponds to the maximum of the *Fagus* curve in the Böhringer See profile. This *Fagus* maximum is recorded in all profiles from the region, although it is not entirely synchronous. We interpret this as a shift of the settlement focus towards the lake shore and an abandonment of the hinterland, correlated with a demographic decline (Lechterbeck et al. 2014a). The charcoal curve has a peak in the second half of this phase – possibly indicating an opening of the forest in the vicinity of the lake. Once again, strong human impact occurs between 3300 and 2900 bc with an increase of the *Corylus* and a decrease of the *Fagus* curve. Furthermore, pollen grains of *Triticum*- and *Hordeum*-type are recorded. This phase dates to the Young Neolithic Horgen culture. It is again connected with a rise in the charcoal curve. The end of the Neolithic phase is characterised in the Böhringer See profile as a phase of reforestation and little human impact is visible though the charcoal values have a high maximum. Steisslinger See and Litzelsee record substantial human impact at that time. Thus, these impacts must have been small and local.

Human impact in the Neolithic at Lake Constance is generally characterised by alternating *Corylus* and/or *Betula* and *Fagus* peaks. During phases with strong human impact in the Neolithic, NAP stay low, but micro-charcoal and other indicators of human impact – such as ruderals or even cereals – might be frequent. In the course of the assumed Neolithic slash-and-burn cultivation (Rösch et al. 2017), new plots were opened, cultivated for a short time and then left again to reforestation and the cultivation plots were opened elsewhere. This explains the similarity of the overall pattern as well as the lacking synchrony of the single *Fagus* and *Corylus*/*Betula* peaks in the different pollen records.

The assumption of Neolithic slash-and-burn cultivation is not undisputed (for example Baum et al. 2016; Jacomet et al. 2016; Rösch et al. 2017; Schier 2017). From a palynological point of view the extent of the observed vegetation changes and the massive increase in secondary woodland cannot be explained by permanently working of small plots – this would rather result in a LBK like vegetation pattern. Patterns similar to the typical alternating *Fagus* and *Corylus*/*Betula* peaks can be observed in other regions of the Lake Constance basin (e.g. Degerssee, Mainberger et al. 2015) or the central Swiss plateau (e.g. Lobsigensee, Ammann 1989). This kind of agricultural technique was probably widespread in temperate Middle Europe though clear evidence is lacking up to now. Probably similar practices were in use during the early Funnel Beaker culture (Kirleis & Fischer 2014) but the pollen record is ambiguous (Wiethold & Erlenkeuser 1998; Dörfler et al. 2012). Whether the Neolithic slash-and-burn cultivation is a direct reaction to the vast expansion of *Fagus* or whether the presence of *Fagus* just makes it more easily visible in the pollen record remains to be discussed.

With the onset of the Bronze Age, the pattern changed. In the Bronze Age, land use is for the first time recorded by high values of non-arboreal pollen and *Quercus* peaks, accompanied by a rise of cultural indicators. A *Corylus* and/or *Betula* peak indicating the beginning of a reforestation marks the end of such phases of strong human impact. This new pattern reflects a change in land use: whereas Neolithic agriculture was mainly forest based, the Bronze Age land-use system had for the first time open spaces that were kept open for a longer period. This was also the time when grassland is indicated. However, *Quercus* peaks in a landscape, where *Fagus* had already been established, can only be explained by forest management. Evidence from pollen records and macro remains show that this development already started at the transition from the Neolithic to the Bronze Age in the region (Lechterbeck et al. 2014b). The end of the Bronze Age is marked by decreasing land-use pressure.

At the transition from the Bronze Age to the pre-Roman Iron Age there is a long phase of strong land use recorded, which ends with a short reforestation phase (c. 500–400 BC).

A major phase of abandonment is recorded in the period between c. 300 and 100 BC: distinct peaks of *Betula*, *Alnus* and *Fraxinus* witness an initial reforestation. All non-arboreal pollen as well as cultural indicators decline. Apparently, some land was abandoned. This might correspond – at least partly – to a major phase of land abandonment in the late pre-Roman Iron Age – the so-called ‘Helvetian-Einöde’, although the archaeological record and the written sources are ambiguous (Dobesch 1999).

The Roman occupation of the area occurred during the first century AD and the impact of the Roman land use is recorded in various ways in the different archives in the region.

Major changes in the land-use system occur between c. 100 BC to AD 270. Here, for the first time, *Secale* is recorded regularly and in large quantities and the *Cannabis/Humulus*-curve becomes continuous. Both features indicate major changes in land-use strategies regarding crops as well as weeds. The relatively small amounts of *Cannabis/Humulus* seem to indicate the growing of *Cannabis*...
rather than retting in the lake. At Steißlinger See (Lechterbeck 2001; Keg & Lechterbeck 2004) and at Litzelsee (Rösch & Lechterbeck 2016) the hemp curve sets in roughly at the same time.

The migration period when Alemannic tribes occupied the northern shore of Lake Constance and the Roman economy declined, is recorded by a reforestation phase. Cultural indicators as well as charcoal values during this period are very low but do not disappear altogether. The early and high medieval period is characterised by high values of hemp indicating that now hemp retting takes place in the lake. Modern forest management becomes visible by the spread of *Picea*. The deforestation of the region reaches a maximum in the nineteenth century, during the twentieth century a reforestation is visible, mostly due to the expansion of deciduous trees and shrubs.

Conclusions

With the high-resolution and well-dated pollen record from Böhinger See a new pollen profile is added to the western Lake Constance area, which represents one of the most thoroughly analysed regions in Europe. The pollen record of Böhinger See fits well within the regional framework. Although the Böhinger See profile largely confirms the regional biostratigraphy, local traits are visible. Especially the charcoal record seems to carry a markedly local signal, as it is not even correlated with the charcoal record from nearby Litzelsee. It would be worthwhile to investigate the charcoal records of the region in more detail to see whether there is an underlying regional pattern.

The raw data presented here will be published in the European Pollen Database.

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