

**ACTA MVSEI APVLENSIS**

**APULUM LI**

series *ARCHAEOLOGICA ET ANTHROPOLOGICA*

***CARPATHIAN HEARTLANDS***

*Studies on the prehistory and history of Transsylvania in European contexts, dedicated to Horia Ciugudean on his 60<sup>th</sup> birthday*

***NUCLEUL CARPATIC***

*Studii privind preistoria și istoria Transilvaniei în context european, dedicate lui Horia Ciugudean la aniversarea a 60 de ani*

**Edited by /  
Volum îngrijit de:**

**Nikolaus Boroffka  
Gabriel Tiberiu Rustoiu  
Radu Ota**



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Adresa de corespondență:

**MUZEUL NAȚIONAL AL UNIRII**

510010 ALBA IULIA

Str. Mihai Viteazul, 12-14

Tel. 0258/813300

[revista.apulum@yahoo.com](mailto:revista.apulum@yahoo.com)

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Correspondence address:

**MUZEUL NAȚIONAL AL UNIRII**

RO – 510010 ALBA IULIA

Mihai Viteazul St., 12-14

Tel. (+40) (258) 813300

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**Radu Ota**

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**Horia Ciugudean**



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## COPPER AND GOLD – BRONZE AGE ORE MINING IN TRANSYLVANIA

Peter THOMAS  
Deutsches Bergbau-Museum Bochum  
Forschungsbereich Montanarchäologie

**Key words:** Bronze Age, ore mining, metal production, Transylvania, Eastern Alps  
**Cuvinte cheie:** Epoca Bronzului, exploatarea minereurilor, producția de metal, Transilvania, Alpii Estici

### **Introduction.**

Transylvania and the encircling mountains of the Carpathians are among the most important mining regions in Europe. Large deposits of gold, silver, copper and tin ores, as well as rock salt and brine springs, have consistently attracted humanity's attention<sup>1</sup>. Consequently, an abundance of mining monuments testify to their extensive and long-lasting exploitation<sup>2</sup>.

Our knowledge about the history of mining, however, is not equally good throughout the ages. While some periods are well known and documented by various sources, others are not. This becomes especially apparent when tracing back mining activities to the period of Roman Dacia and beyond.

The time of Roman occupation is one of the best-researched periods in Transylvania and its surroundings. Archaeological finds, architectural remains, and written sources help to reconstruct an unusually clear image of this time, including also the mining. Time and again, modern exploitation work has revealed the remains of Roman mines. Both their extent and the artefacts found yield an impression of the vast scope of the mining activities, as well as their structure and organisation<sup>3</sup>.

The frequency of the findings thereby led to a scientific perception already in early modern times<sup>4</sup>. It was intensified later in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when important research was performed by scholars like Gábor Téglás or František

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<sup>1</sup> In summary: Boroffka 2009, p. 191-121, fig. 1.

<sup>2</sup> Wollmann 2010/2011.

<sup>3</sup> In summary: Ciugudean 2012, p. 222-223.

<sup>4</sup> Köleséri de Keres-Eér 1780.

Pošepný<sup>5</sup>. And today, Roman mining is again the focus of mining archaeological research, as the monuments in the gold district of Roşia Montană are immediately endangered by modern exploitation, requiring large-scale rescue excavations<sup>6</sup>.

Regarding the pre-Roman periods, the situation is completely different. Only prehistoric salt mining is evinced beyond doubt, by several well-dated mining sites<sup>7</sup>. Yet the exploitation of metal ores is indicated only indirectly by several tools and stray finds, and with one possible exception<sup>8</sup>, no prehistoric ore mines have so far been identified with certainty.

### History of Research.

The existence of prehistoric mining for metal ores has been assumed frequently. Already Téglás concluded that the exploitation of the gold and silver deposits of Transylvania in particular predated the Romans. He could not believe that the extent of Roman mining could have been achieved only during the short timespan of the province Dacia. Therefore he assumed already existing mines had been reorganised and continued by the Romans<sup>9</sup>. Remarkably, this assumption is now supported by new research carried out in the Roman gold mines of Transylvania<sup>10</sup>.

Ore mining and metal production in the Carpathians is likewise assumed to have taken place during the Copper Age and the Bronze Age. Frequently used arguments for this assumption are abundant ore sources and large amounts of metal objects found in the Carpathian Basin, dated to different periods of prehistory<sup>11</sup>.

Support for this hypothesis was gleaned from several artefacts interpreted as mining tools, such as bronze picks, grooved stone implements, and some types of heavy copper tools, though only few pieces were actually found in a context directly connected to mining<sup>12</sup>. The aforementioned heavy copper tools, moreover, affected the interpretation of several stone steles as further

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<sup>5</sup> For example: Pošepný 1868; Téglás 1883; 1894. Further references: Wollmann 2002, p. 125-126; 2010, p. 36-37, annot. 1.

<sup>6</sup> Cauuet *et alii* 2003; Cauuet 2011.

<sup>7</sup> Szathmáry 1867; Preisig 1877; Harding, Kavruk 2010; Cavruc, Harding 2012.

<sup>8</sup> Zimmermann 1993, p. 53, fig. 45.

<sup>9</sup> Téglás 1888, p. 463; 1889.

<sup>10</sup> Cauuet *et alii* 2003, p. 474; Cauuet 2005, p. 41; Wollmann, Ciugudean 2005, p. 102-108; Baron *et alii* 2011, p. 1093-1094.

<sup>11</sup> For example: Rusu 1963; 1981; Mozsolics 1984, p. 22-23.

<sup>12</sup> See below.

indications for old mining activities<sup>13</sup>. This is due to the fact that metal axes of similar appearance are depicted on these and were, in analogy to the copper artefacts, interpreted as mining tools, thus interpreting the steles as representations of prehistoric miners<sup>14</sup>.

This state of research, reached in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, remained widely unchanged for a long time and was extended only infrequently by chance finds<sup>15</sup>. Only recently has research on prehistoric mining and metal production intensified again.

In this context the work of Horia Ciugudean has to be pointed out. In his studies he did not merely summarize, reconsider, or reinterpret known artefacts and data, as done frequently before. With his fieldwork and analysis of archive materials he gathered new information and further indications to find assured evidence for prehistoric ore mining and metal production<sup>16</sup>.

### **Indications for prehistoric ore mining.**

The emphasis in the argumentation for prehistoric ore mining has hitherto been on archaeological artefacts. This remains mostly true even today, since the analyses of the composition as well as the isotopy of ores and metal objects from Transylvania and its surroundings are still in their initial stage<sup>17</sup>. However, the relevance of some of these artefacts in the argumentation is regarded with retention or is even rejected so far.

Heavy copper axe-adzes and hammer-axes are now interpreted predominantly as weapons or symbols of power and status<sup>18</sup>. In fact, only in one case were implements like these actually found in a mining context,<sup>19</sup> and it is questionable whether this isolated instance is sufficient to broaden the common interpretation of these artefacts. This of course, negatively affects the interpretation of the stone steles as representations of prehistoric miners too<sup>20</sup>.

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<sup>13</sup> Compilation: Ciugudean 2011, p. 33, Appendix 2.

<sup>14</sup> Téglás 1885; 1887; Makkay 1996, p. 44; Wollmann 1996, p. 24, annot. 52, p. 336, p. 360; Rotea 2002/2003, p. 7; Andrițoiu 2007, p. 58, annot. 31.

<sup>15</sup> Boroffka 2009, p. 121, annot. 2.

<sup>16</sup> Ciugudean 2002, 2012; Wollmann, Ciugudean 2005.

<sup>17</sup> In summary: Boroffka 2009, p. 124; Lazarovici *et alii* 2012, p. 7. In detail with bibliography: Constantinescu *et alii* 2009; 2010; Baron *et alii* 2011; Pop *et alii* 2011.

<sup>18</sup> With history of research: Vulpe 1970.

<sup>19</sup> Černych 1978, p. 212-213, pl. 20, 1-2.

<sup>20</sup> Already: Hoernes 1925, p. 620. Also: Ciugudean 2011, p. 27; Wollmann, Ciugudean 2005, p. 95.

The abundance of grooved stone implements<sup>21</sup> could be more convincing in this respect, since tools like these, and in particular grooved hammer stones, are typical indications of prehistoric mining<sup>22</sup>. However, their distribution pattern in the Carpathians only marginally covers the locations of the large ore deposits<sup>23</sup>. In some cases, it rather seems to match the areas with rock salt deposits or brine springs, suggesting their preferred use in salt mining<sup>24</sup>. This also seems likely based upon the results of the excavations in the salt mining district of Băile Figa, where several hammer stones have been found<sup>25</sup>.

In addition to mining activities, also other reasons for their distribution are to be taken into consideration. Typological differences, suggesting a range of different tools represented in this material, whose function does not need to be restricted to mining alone, could also be a possible explanation<sup>26</sup>.

Thus an evaluation of the entire range of grooved stone implements in terms of their relevance to prehistoric ore mining can be performed only after a detailed analysis of these artefacts, and is so far only possible in some exceptional cases. Among these is a grooved hammer stone from the gold mining district of Căraciu. It was discovered in the 19<sup>th</sup> century already, when modern exploitation cut old workings<sup>27</sup>. Due to its shape, this artefact was immediately interpreted as a prehistoric mining tool. And although the old workings in Căraciu are attributed to the Roman era<sup>28</sup> and no further prehistoric traces are known, it is one of the best indications for prehistoric exploitation of gold ores in Transylvania<sup>29</sup>.

A further argument for prehistoric gold mining is a stone tool found by Horia Ciugudean in the vicinity of large ore dressing sites in the Vâlcoi-Corabia massif close to Bucium<sup>30</sup>. Two shallow depressions on its upper side led to the interpretation as a mortar for crushing ore. The lower side, on the other hand, is slightly convexly abraded, a feature typical for grinders of alternating mills. This, together with a groove running around the circumference of the tool,

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<sup>21</sup> Compilation: Schuster 1998. Additional: Boroffka 2009, p. 127; Hegyi 2012.

<sup>22</sup> Craddock 1995, p. 37-39.

<sup>23</sup> Boroffka 2009, p. 125, fig. 4, p. 127-128.

<sup>24</sup> Schuster *et alii* 2012, p. 202, p. 209-210, fig. 10.

<sup>25</sup> Harding, Kavruk 2010, p. 149-150, fig. 30; Cavruc, Harding 2012, p. 189, fig. 9, p. 192, p. 194.

<sup>26</sup> Schuster 1998, p. 116-117; Wollmann, Ciugudean 2005, p. 96. Compare with: Ciugudean 1998, p. 31-33, fig. 1; Kašuba, Kaiser 2009.

<sup>27</sup> Téglás 1888, p. 464; 1889, p. 263, p. 333; Papp 1906, p. 309-311.

<sup>28</sup> Wollmann 1999, p. 28.

<sup>29</sup> Popescu 1951, p. 27-28; 1956, p. 197; Mareş 2002, p. 59-60; Rotea 2002/2003, p. 7. Similar: Wollmann, Ciugudean 2005, p. 96.

<sup>30</sup> Ciugudean 2012, p. 225, p. 232, pl. 11.

shows a great similarity to grinders of Bronze Age stone mills as used in the Eastern and Southern Alps, to grind the ore for subsequent wet beneficiation<sup>31</sup>. Given the gold bearing loads of the Vâlcoi-Corabia massif, this tool was likely used in prehistoric gold mining and production.

Several bronze tools are of similar significance. Winged bronze picks deserve mention here, originating from the large hoards of Uioara de Sus and Gușterița II<sup>32</sup>. Their interpretation as mining tools has been expressed quite early and has never been seriously in doubt<sup>33</sup>. Close analogies from the salt mining district of Hallstatt are supporting this interpretation<sup>34</sup>.

Due to their certain Bronze Age dating, these tools represent conclusive evidence for prehistoric mining in Transylvania. Although it still has to be discussed which kind of raw material has been mined with them. This is because both the Alpine analogues and the Transylvanian sites are associated with salt mining<sup>35</sup>. Yet although salt exploitation in Bronze Age Transylvania is known<sup>36</sup>, this possibility seems unlikely. Though large amounts of artefacts have recently been recovered from the salt mining district of Băile Figa, no handles for winged tools are reported so far<sup>37</sup>. Note that pick handles are among the most abundant finds in mines where their use is proven<sup>38</sup>.

On the other hand, the use of these tools in ore mining has been discussed also<sup>39</sup>. An argument for this could be the fracture patterns of the Transylvanian pieces which differ from those found in the Alps. A heavy bronze hammer that was found together with the picks in the hoard of Uioara de Sus supports this interpretation<sup>40</sup>, because this hammer has its closest analogues in the copper mining areas of the Eastern and Southern Alps<sup>41</sup>.

Besides salt and gold, copper ores are another mineral resource, the exploitation of which is likely to date back to prehistoric times. This assumption is supported by numerous plane-convex casting cakes found in the large hoards

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<sup>31</sup> Klose 1918, p. 23-24, fig. 33, 7; Preuschen, Pittioni 1937, p. 56-57, p. 94; 1954, p. 48-49, fig. 28, 1-2, p. 80; Šebesta 1992, p. 38-40, fig. 71; Stöllner *et alii* 2010, p. 21-22, fig. 14, 7074.

<sup>32</sup> Vulpe 1975, p. 79-80, pl. 45, no. 457-459, pl. 46, no. 460-464.

<sup>33</sup> Roska 1942, p. 91-93, fig. 117; Vulpe 1975, 80.

<sup>34</sup> Mayer 1977, 228, pl. 92, no. 1357; Windholz-Konrad 2003, p. 41-42, p. 154, pl. 25, no. 352; 2012, p. 120-122, fig. 4-5.

<sup>35</sup> Rusu 1981, p. 381, p. 388; Wollmann 1996, p. 408.

<sup>36</sup> Harding, Kavruk 2010; Cavruc, Harding 2012.

<sup>37</sup> Harding, Kavruk 2010.

<sup>38</sup> For example: Barth 1998, p. 123-124.

<sup>39</sup> Barth 1970, p. 48, annot. 11.

<sup>40</sup> Mayer 1977, p. 230-233; Höglinger 1996, p. 43-44. In summary: Thomas 2012, p. 455-457.

<sup>41</sup> Mayer 1977, p. 223, pl. 89, no. 1328; Teržan 1989, p. 246-247, fig. 7, 6.

of the Transylvanian Basin and the Maramureş. In the eight large “*workshop and foundry hoards*,” for example, almost 7,000 pieces and fragments thereof were discovered, with a total weight of nearly four tons. Sizes range from small examples of up to 15 cm diameter to large ones with a diameter of 30 cm weighing up to 10 kg<sup>42</sup>.

In this context, the larger pieces are of special interest. Whereas the small examples are thought to be the result of melting and recycling of metal in the crucibles of foundries<sup>43</sup>, the larger ones are thought to be products of smelting ore to metal<sup>44</sup>. Consequently, their abundance in large numbers is an enormous accumulation of raw copper, originating directly from the furnaces and being thereby the direct product of primary production of metal.

In summary, the existence of prehistoric mining of metal ores in Transylvania and its surroundings has to be considered very likely. In particular, the exploitation of gold and copper ores is indicated by the aforementioned artefacts. For gold, the stone hammer from Căraciu and the grinder from the Vâlcoi-Corabia massif have to be mentioned. For copper ore mining and copper production it is the sheer number of plane-convex casting cakes from Transylvania and the Maramureş. The use of winged bronze picks as well as of heavy bronze hammers has to be considered for both cases and cannot be narrowed down due to the lack of further information.

### **Dating.**

Concerning the chronological framework, the bronze picks are of special interest. Both Transylvanian hoards containing tools of this type belong to the horizon of Cincu-Suseni and therefore to the Ha A1 period, or approximately to the 12<sup>th</sup> century BC<sup>45</sup>. In the case of Uioara de Sus, material from the preceding horizon of Uriu-Dragomireşti is also found in the hoard, making a dating of the picks to the Bz D period or the 13<sup>th</sup> century BC another possibility<sup>46</sup>. The same is applicable for the bronze hammer and the plane-convex casting cakes from this hoard.

This chronological frame is supported by the Alpine pieces. The best analogies for the picks are, as mentioned earlier, from the salt mining district of Hallstatt and the hoard of Sipbachzell, where three additional pieces were

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<sup>42</sup> Rusu 1981, p. 378-379, tab. 1; Popa, Totoianu 2010, p. 326-327, annot. 1741.

<sup>43</sup> Rusu 1981, p. 382-383; Mozsolics 1981; 1984, p. 35-37.

<sup>44</sup> Drescher 1958, p. 19, annot. 1; Bachmann *et alii* 2002/2003, p. 81-89.

<sup>45</sup> Rusu 1963, p. 184-189.

<sup>46</sup> Vulpe 1975, p. 72.

found<sup>47</sup>. Their main characteristics are a massive spike and large wings with parallel sides, separated from the spike by a clear shoulder. In general they date to the Urnfield Period<sup>48</sup>. The composition of the hoard of Sipbachzell, however, could indicate an earlier date. This is because in addition to the predominant artefacts from the Early and Older Urnfield Period it also contains some Middle Bronze Age ones<sup>49</sup>. A dating for these picks from the Middle Bronze Age to the Urnfield Period is supported by finds of corresponding wooden handles. These were recovered in several parts of the prehistoric salt mine of Hallstatt, dating roughly between 1400 BC and 1000 BC<sup>50</sup>.

For the heavy bronze hammer, the closest analogy originates from the Bronze Age copper mines of the Mühlbach-Bischofshofen mining district, the so-called Mitterberg Area. Since the piece was discovered already in the 19<sup>th</sup> century it is not possible to date it precisely, though a date between the late 13<sup>th</sup> century BC and the 11<sup>th</sup> century BC is likely<sup>51</sup>. A similar dating range was suggested for a comparable piece from the Hudinja valley in Slovenia<sup>52</sup>.

For the stone grinder from the Vâlcoi-Corabia massif a dating is difficult to obtain, since it is a stray find and the only datable artefacts from the surrounding area belong to the Roman period<sup>53</sup>. A Roman date for this piece, however, seems very unlikely. The aforementioned analogies from the Eastern and Southern Alps in fact would suggest a Bronze Age date. The earliest examples originate in the Mitterberg area and date back at least to the early 14<sup>th</sup> century BC<sup>54</sup>. Other pieces are known from ore dressing sites of the 13<sup>th</sup> century BC<sup>55</sup> and even the Late Bronze Age<sup>56</sup>. Thus a date within this time span seems likely also for the piece from Transylvania.

Finally, the stone hammer from Căraciu is not suitable for narrowing down the date of possible prehistoric mining activities. The shape of these tools is far too common and does not show any development of chronological significance. It, therefore, can only be referred to as being of general prehistoric origin.

The indications for prehistoric ore mining, as far as described here, thus focus on the Late Bronze Age. Especially the 13<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> century BC appears

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<sup>47</sup> Höglinger 1996, p. 41-42, p. 129, pl. 20, no. 349-354.

<sup>48</sup> Mayer 1977, p. 230.

<sup>49</sup> Höglinger 1996, p. 78.

<sup>50</sup> Barth 1993/1994, p. 29-31, tab. 1; 1998, p. 124, p. 126; Stadler 1999.

<sup>51</sup> Mayer 1977, p. 223, pl. 89, no. 1328. In summary: Thomas 2012, p. 244-247, p. 451.

<sup>52</sup> Teržan 1989, p. 246-247.

<sup>53</sup> Ciugudean 2012, p. 225.

<sup>54</sup> Stöllner *et alii* 2010, p. 19-22.

<sup>55</sup> Preuschen, Pittioni 1937, p. 56-57, p. 94; 1954, p. 48-49, fig. 28, 1-2, p. 80; Pichler *et alii* 2009.

<sup>56</sup> Šebesta 1992, p. 38-40.

as a time of large-scale exploitation, when in particular the copper ore mining and copper production is clearly noticeable in the archaeological record. Gold mining is also indicated, though it is not possible to accurately assess its extent, as the number of related pieces is too small.

### **Interpretation.**

In the preceding sections, the known indications for prehistoric ore mining were considered in terms of the raw material mined and their dating. In doing so it became apparent that most of the considered artefacts have close analogies in the Eastern and Southern Alps. This poses the question whether these analogies are merely coincidental, to be explained by the functional requirements of specific implements, or rather, as expressions of contacts and interactions between different prehistoric mining regions.

The former hypothesis, still possible for simple forms such as the heavy hammers, is unlikely to hold for pieces like the winged picks, which are comparable even in detail. The hexagonal spike, for example, which is found on all pieces except one can be explained as providing stability, but is not at all an indispensable feature. Thus a common source as origin of the formal similarities appears likely.

A different aspect that, moreover, yields deeper insight into the nature of these contacts is provided by engraved markings. These are found on picks from both Transylvania and the Alps<sup>57</sup>. Although their full meaning is not yet understood, they are variously interpreted as markings for control, signs of production, or even ownership<sup>58</sup>. In these cases not only the purpose-specific design of a tool would have been transported and adopted, but also significant contextual meanings as part of the social infrastructure. It is an interesting question whether such associated meanings would have been transported by distant contacts and exchange of objects or rather, through the mobility of the people themselves.

The latter notion is supported by the similarity between the ore grinders from the different regions. In this context it is necessary to stress that the grinding of ore is only one step in a complex process including several steps of repeated breaking and subsequent sorting of ore<sup>59</sup>. Technically speaking, the grinding should thus not be seen as isolated from the other steps of ore dressing. The similarity of the grinders, whose significance is furthermore underlined by

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<sup>57</sup> Mayer 1976; 1977, p. 230-233.

<sup>58</sup> In summary with bibliography: Mayer 1976; Thomas 2012, p. 190-192.

<sup>59</sup> Stöllner *et alii* 2010.

their limited distribution, may therefore be assumed to be representative of the similarity of the entire process. If so, the final step of sorting, using water, the so-called shaking or tying is of particular interest. For example, in the Eastern Alps a special type of trough is documented, whose use certainly required special skills and training<sup>60</sup>. The spreading and transfer of these techniques are most easily explained through the mobility of skilled craftsmen.

Interactions between the mining regions of the Alps and the Carpathians have been considered before, as was the mobility of people as medium for the transfer of techniques<sup>61</sup>. The direction of influence, however, is to be discussed. Hitherto, it was mostly assumed that the relevant impulses came from the Eastern Mediterranean, finding their way through the Carpathian Basin to the Eastern Alps. Arguments for this reconstruction were based upon analogies between both the tools (such as the picks) and the engraved markings, as well as dating attempts, which at that time suggested a chronological succession along the delineated route.

With new dating, especially from the Alps, the situation has changed. The Alpine picks actually predate their analogies in Transylvania by at least one century. The same is true for the engraved markings which already appear between the 15<sup>th</sup> and the 13<sup>th</sup> century BC on socketed bronze picks from the Mitterberg copper mines<sup>62</sup>. Further examples appear on wooden objects. In addition to two possible pieces from the Mitterberg Area, dating back to the 14<sup>th</sup> century BC, they are known in greater number on artefacts found on the ore dressing site of the Kelchalm in Northern Tyrol, dating to the mid-13<sup>th</sup> century BC<sup>63</sup>.

Besides the chronological aspect, both the distribution pattern and the quantity of markings in the regions concerned are also relevant for the reconstruction of their dispersal. In the Eastern Alps they appear on at least forty bronze tools like winged axes, winged and socketed mining picks, chisels, anvils, and plane-convex casting cakes<sup>64</sup>. The mentioned wooden objects are likewise relevant in this respect. In Transylvania, on the other hand, the markings are found only on the mining picks and on one plane-convex casting

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<sup>60</sup> Pošepný 1880, p. 279-280; Klose 1918, p. 26-27. In detail: Thomas 2012, p. 369-374.

<sup>61</sup> Mayer 1976; 1977, p. 230-233; Barth 1993/94, p. 31; 1998, p. 124, 126.

<sup>62</sup> Unpublished results of the author's research. Concerning the dating see: Thomas 2012, p. 237-244.

<sup>63</sup> In summary: Thomas 2012, p. 190-192.

<sup>64</sup> Mayer 1976, p. 371, fig. 2. In addition: Mayer 1977, p. 230-233; Höglinger 1996, p. 40-43, 129, pl. 19, no. 347-348; Windholz-Konrad 2012, p. 120-122, fig. 4-5. Also unpublished observations. A second concentration of objects with engraved markings is to be found in Upper and Middle Italy. Due to their dating they are not considered here: Mayer 1976, p. 367.

cake<sup>65</sup>. And whilst their practice in the Alps seems to extend to various fields of activity, as indicated by their appearance on various objects, in Transylvania they are restricted to artefacts related to ore mining and metal production. Thus it is likely that the practice of engraved markings was in common use in the Eastern Alps and was introduced to Transylvania as part of the transfer of skills and knowledge concerning mining and primary production of metals.

### **Conclusion.**

The mining of metal ores and the primary production of metal in prehistoric Transylvania appears to be beyond doubt, although the final proof is still lacking. However, it is already clear that the development and meaning of mining activities at the start of the Late Bronze Age are to be interpreted in a wider context. The influences and relations between the Alpine and Transylvanian mining regions are apparent, but demand further investigation, especially in Transylvania, as started by Ciugudean. The geographical gap between the two regions furthermore seems to close with findings of Alpine mining tools in Northern and Southern Hungary<sup>66</sup>. This would indicate that interactions as outlined above took place not only in a bilateral but in a multilateral system, encircling and fusing with the Carpathian Basin, one of the richest regions of European prehistory.

### **Zusammenfassung**

Der Metallreichtum in den Hinterlassenschaften vieler prähistorischer Kulturen des Karpatenraumes sucht in der Vorgeschichte Europas seinesgleichen. Aufgrund der reichen Erzvorkommen in den Karpaten und insbesondere in Transsylvanien wird in der Forschung meist eine eigenständige Primärproduktion als Quelle dieses Reichtums angenommen, ohne aber, dass sich eine solche direkt nachweisen ließe. Nur vereinzelte Funde lassen sich als indirekte Hinweise anführen, verdeutlichen aber, dass vor allem mit dem Beginn der Spätbronzezeit mit einem intensiven Bergbau auf Gold und Kupfererz zu rechnen ist. Parallelen zu den bronzezeitlichen Bergbaurevierern der Ostalpen lassen darüber hinaus intensive Verbindungen zwischen den verschiedenen Montanräumen erkennen und unterstreichen somit die Bedeutung, die eine Erforschung des prähistorischen Bergbaus in den Karpaten hat.

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<sup>65</sup> Vulpe 1975, p. 79-80, pl. 45, no. 457-459; Ciugudean *et alii* 2006, p. 98-99, p. 110, fig. 9.

<sup>66</sup> Unpublished results of the author's research.

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**LISTA AUTORILOR**

**Dan Anghel** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, dnanghel@yahoo.com

**Sote Angeleski** - Cluj-Napoca, s\_angeleski@yahoo.com

**Tiberius Bader** - Hemmingen, tib.bader@web.de

**Dan Băcuet-Crișan** - Muzeul Județean de Istorie și Artă, Zalău, bacuet@yahoo.com

**Radu Băjenaru** - Institutul de Arheologie "Vasile Pârvan", București, radu.bajenaru@gmail.com

**Gabriel Bălan** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, liviugabrielbalan@yahoo.com

**Corneliu Beldiman** - «Dimitrie Cantemir» Christian University, Faculty of History, Bucharest; Romanian Scientific Society for Interdisciplinary Research, Bucharest; belcor@gmail.com

**George Bounegru** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, bounegru\_g\_viziru@yahoo.com

**Björn Briewig** - German Archaeological Institute, Berlin, bjoerndebrie@yahoo.de

**Vasile Budui** - "Ștefan cel Mare" University, Suceava, Faculty of History and Geography, Department of Geography, vbudui@yahoo.com

**Raluca Burlacu-Timofte** - Universitatea "Babeș-Bolyai", Cluj-Napoca, raluburlacu@gmail.com

**Dan-Lucian Buzea** - National Museum of the Eastern Carpathians, Sfântu Gheorghe, buzealuci@yahoo.com

**Sergiu Cadar** - Institutul de Cercetări pentru Instrumentație Analitică Cluj-Napoca, sergiu.cadar@icia.com

**Mircea Chintoanu** - Institutul de Cercetări pentru Instrumentație Analitică Cluj-Napoca, chintoanu\_m@yahoo.com

**Radu Ciobanu** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, pufu\_ciobanu@yahoo.com

**Beatrice Ciută** - Universitatea "1 Decembrie 1918", Alba Iulia, beatriceciuta@yahoo.com

**Marius Ciută** - Universitatea "Lucian Blaga", Sibiu, mariusciuta@yahoo.com

**Sorin Colesniuc** - Muzeul de Arheologie Callatis, Mangalia, sorinmarcelcolesniuc@yahoo.com

**Călin Cosma** - Institutul de Arheologie și Istoria Artei, Cluj-Napoca, cosma.calin@yahoo.com

**Aurel Dragotă** - Universitatea „Lucian Blaga”, Sibiu, reludragota@yahoo.com

**Nicolae Gudea** - Universitatea "Babeș-Bolyai", Cluj-Napoca

**Nicolae Har** - Universitatea "Babeș-Bolyai", Facultatea de Biologie și Geologie, Departamentul de Geologie, Cluj-Napoca, nicolae.har@ubbcluj.ro

**Tünde Horváth** - Budapest, tundehorvath4@gmail.com

**Cornelia-Magda Lazarovici** - Institutul de Arheologie, Iași, magdamantu@yahoo.com

**Gheorghe Lazarovici** - Universitatea „Lucian Blaga”, Sibiu, ghlazarovici@yahoo.com

**Adrian Luca** - Muzeul Național Brukenthal, Sibiu, luca\_adrian\_sibiu@yahoo.com

**Sabin Adrian Luca** - Universitatea „Lucian Blaga”, Sibiu, sabinadrian.luca@ulbsibiu.ro; Muzeul Național Brukenthal, Sibiu, sabin.luca@brukenthalmuseum.ro

**Florentina Martiș** - Muzeul Banatului, Timișoara, tina.martis@yahoo.com

**Sascha Mauel** - Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, kontakt@mauel.dk

**Teodor Munteanu** - Universitatea "Alexandru Ioan Cuza", Iași, teddy\_muntean@yahoo.com

**Bianka Nessel** - ERC Project "BronzeAgeTin" Institute of Earth Sciences Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Bianka.Nessel@geow.uni-heidelberg.de

**Bogdan Petru Niculică** - Bukovina Museum, Suceava, niculicab@yahoo.com

**Radu Ota** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, eractum@yahoo.com

**Dalia Anna Pokutta** - Department of Archaeology, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, dalia.anna.pokutta@gu.se

**Anca-Diana Popescu** - Institutul de Arheologie "Vasile Pârvan", București, [ancadiana\\_popescu@yahoo.com](mailto:ancadiana_popescu@yahoo.com)

**Marcin S. PRZYBYŁA** - Institute of Archaeology, Jagiellonian University, Cracow, [mszprzybyla@gmail.com](mailto:mszprzybyla@gmail.com)

**Marius Râza** - Universitatea "1 Decembrie 1918", Alba Iulia, [raza\\_marius@yahoo.com](mailto:raza_marius@yahoo.com)

**Cristian Schuster** - Institutul de Arheologie „Vasile Pârvan” – Centrul de Tracologie, București, [cristianschuster@yahoo.com](mailto:cristianschuster@yahoo.com)

**Csaba Szabó** - University of Pécs, Pécs, [szabo.csaba.pte@gmail.com](mailto:szabo.csaba.pte@gmail.com)

**Zsolt Székely** - UBB, Extensia Sf. Gheorghe, Sf. Gheorghe, [szekely.zsolt@fspac.ro](mailto:szekely.zsolt@fspac.ro)

**Diana-Maria Sztancs** - «Dimitrie Cantemir» Christian University, Faculty of History, Bucharest; Romanian Scientific Society for Interdisciplinary Research, Bucharest; [beldiana22@yahoo.com](mailto:beldiana22@yahoo.com)

**Claudiu Tănăselia** - Institutul de Cercetări pentru Instrumentație Analitică Cluj-Napoca, [claudiu@tanaselia.ro](mailto:claudiu@tanaselia.ro)

**Biba Teržan** - Univerza v Ljubljani Filozofska fakulteta Oddelek za arheologijo, Ljubljana, [ljubinka.terzan@ff.uni-lj.si](mailto:ljubinka.terzan@ff.uni-lj.si)

**Peter Thomas** - Deutsches Bergbau-Museum Bochum Forschungsbereich Montanarchäologie, [Peter.Thomas@Bergbaumuseum.de](mailto:Peter.Thomas@Bergbaumuseum.de)

**Anca Timofan** - Muzeul Național al Unirii, Alba Iulia, [anca.timofan@yahoo.com](mailto:anca.timofan@yahoo.com)

**Anamaria Tudorie** - Muzeul Național Brukenthal, Sibiu, [anamaria.tudorie@brukenthalmuseum.ro](mailto:anamaria.tudorie@brukenthalmuseum.ro)

**Claes Uhnér** - Department of historical studies, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, [claes\\_uhner@hotmail.com](mailto:claes_uhner@hotmail.com)

**Monica Ursu** - Institutul de Cercetări pentru Instrumentație Analitică, Cluj-Napoca, [monaursu5@yahoo.com](mailto:monaursu5@yahoo.com)