

Mobility and land use in the Greater Khorasan Civilization: Isotopic approaches (87Sr/86Sr, *δ***18O) on human populations from southern Central Asia**

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- Surrounded by the great empires of the ancient Near East, it exhibited a high ethnic and genetic diversity. In this paper we present a regional study for southern Central Asia of isotopic analyses of
- 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O of human samples from several Bronze Age sites in southern Turkmenistan (Ulug
- Depe), south/central Uzbekistan (Dzharkutan, Sapallitepa, Tilla Bulak, Bustan and Bashman 1) and
- southern Tajikistan (Saridzhar, Gelot and Darnaichi). The three geographical zones manifest different
- patterns of mobility. The analysis of the Ulug Depe people demonstrates a high rate of immigration
- during the early periods (EBA) and a tendency for permanent residence. The later periods (MBA) are
- marked by a decrease in immigration and mobility, indicating a more extensive use of the surrounding
- landscape. Dzharkutan people displayed a different and complex pattern of mobility and subsistence,
- with frequent movements during individual lifetime within a limited area. The other sites in the Surkhan Darya Valley and southern Tajikistan indicate active mobility in which individuals migrated
- within a wide area of southern Central Asia.
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Keywords: ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and δ ¹⁸ O isotopes, southern Central Asia, Greater Khorasan Civilization (GKC),

- **human mobility and land use**
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Authors contribution:

- Sonja Kroll: data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, project administration,
- conceptualization, visualization, writing original draft, review and editing
- Julio Bendezu-Sarmiento: excavator, provision of samples, project administration, funding
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- Marjan Mashkour: overall supervision, provision of samples, project administration, funding
- acquisition, conceptualization, writing review and editing
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1. Introduction

 During the Middle and Late Bronze Age, the emergence of complex societies is observed in southern 94 Central Asia. With the rise of the Greater Khorasan Civilization (hereafter GKC¹, ca. 2400–1500 BCE, 95 e.g., Lyonnet, Dubova 2021) major transformations led to deep cultural and economic shifts. Archaeological remains evidence the establishment of intensive trade networks and long-distance 97 interactions (cf. e.g., Hiebert 1994; Possehl 2007; Frachetti, Rouse 2012). The location between harsh 98 deserts and high mountain ranges was a natural passage since Neolithic periods (Thomalsky et al. 2013), which later developed into the Silk Road (historical *Great Khorasan Road*, cf. e.g., De la Vaissière 2002; Wilkinson 2014). Due to the prevailing climatic conditions, structural migrations such as pastoralism or nomadism to access natural and economic resources, were always essential subsistence strategies of the communities who settled in this region (e.g., Mashkour 2013; Spengler et al. 2014). Hence, the impact of migration and of changes in land use and territorial management remains a matter of ongoing discussions among scientists (cf. e.g., Biscione 1976; Vinogradova, Kuz'mina 1996; Kohl 2007; Cattani 2008; Salvatori 2008; Frachetti 2011, 2012; Lamberg-Karlovsky 2013; Luneau 2014, 2019; Rouse, Cerasetti 2018). In this context analyses of isotopes such as strontium (87Sr/86Sr) and 107 oxygen (δ^{18} O) are today a common and powerful tool for a better understanding of interactions and exchange of past populations. This study takes a first step in exploring human mobility in southern Central Asia presenting isotopic analyses of a main corpus of samples from Ulug Depe in Turkmenistan and Dzharkutan in Uzbekistan, both sites belonging to the first urban centers in the region during the 3rd and 2nd mill. BCE. The results will be compared with single samples from other Bronze Age sites, such as Sapallitepa, Tilla Bulak and Bustan in southern Uzbekistan, Bashman 1 in central Uzbekistan, 113 and Saridzhar and the nearby graveyards Gelot and Darnaichi in southern Tajikistan (fig. 1). The following discussion is based on the first analysis of human material from southern Central Asia. We are aware that the data at our disposal cannot yet produce statistically reliable results; however, since no isotopic studies on residential mobility have previously been conducted on populations in southern 117 Central Asia, this study will provide a first biogeochemical data set of Sr/ 86 Sr isotopes and an initial idea of the dynamics during the Bronze Age.

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 Biscione, Vahdati 2021, also called Oxus Civilization or Bactria-Margiana Archaeological Complex (BMAC) cf. e.g., Hiebert 1994; Sarianidi 2005; Francfort 2009; Lamberg-Karlovsky 2013; Teufer 2015; Salvatori 2016.

 Fig. 1 Topographic map of the studied region with the investigated sites including symbols of the analysed material after<https://maps-for-free.com/>

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- **2. Context**

2.1. Archaeological Background

 Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan delivered the major part of the human material in this study. Ulug Depe is located in southern Turkmenistan in the northern submontane plains of the Kopet Dagh Mountains, 175 km south-east of the capital Ashgabat at 288 m a.s.l. (cf. e.g., Lecomte 2007a, 2011, 2013; Bendezu-Sarmiento 2013; Bendezu-Sarmiento, Lhuillier 2016, 2019). In ancient times, Ulug Depe was situated adjacent to the Kelet River, which traverses the Kopet Dagh in the direction of Nishapur and 135 presents a natural pass through the mountains (Lecomte 2013). Already in the Chalcolithic period, the first social changes towards a more centralized system are evidenced. The construction of a fortification wall, as well as the separation of craft areas and the beginning of irrigated agriculture, reflects the changing nature of property and territorial management, as well as a certain social

139 differentiation (Lecomte 2011). With the appearance of the GKC, Ulug Depe had a period of particular prosperity. Impressive public monuments, such as the remains of high terraces were discovered (Lecomte 2011; Bendezu-Sarmiento, Lhuillier 2019). Numerous finds of gold, lapis lazuli, carnelian and 142 alabaster reflect widespread connections to the Indus Valley and the Iranian Plateau (Bendezu-Sarmiento, Lhuillier 2016: 527 figs. 4–6).

144 The situation in Dzharkutan is different: at the end of the $3rd$ mill. BCE the Sapalli culture, a local variant of the GKC, arose in northern Bactria and several new settlements such as Dzharkutan, Sapallitepa, Bustan, Molali, and Tilla Bulak developed in the Surkhan Darya Valley (fig. 1) (Askarov, Abdullaev 1983; Shirinov 2002; Huff et al. 2001, Huff, Teufer 2010; Bendezu-Sarmiento, Mustafakulov 2013; Kaniuth 2021). The establishment of these new settlements has been associated with an increased mobility of the populations (e.g., Frachetti 2011, 2012; Bendezu-Sarmiento, Mustafakulov 2013). The Surkhan Darya Valley is located in southern Uzbekistan, ca. 50 km north of the district capital Termez, at an altitude around 350 m a.s.l. Dzharkutan with a size of about 40–50 ha is the biggest site in the Shurkan Darya Valley, including several mounds with traces of occupation, a citadel with a palace, a temple and large necropolises (Shirinov 2002; Huff et al. 2010; Bendezu-Sarmiento, Mustafakulov 2013). Artifacts, mainly pottery influenced by the Andronovo Culture from the steppes were discovered in Dzharkutan, reflecting dynamic interactions with the related farmer-breeder culture from the Pamir foothills of southwestern Tajikistan, the so called Vakhsh culture (Luneau et al. 2013, 2017).

 There is considerable uncertainty regarding the regional cohesion and territorial hegemony of the GKC. In particular throughout south/western Tajikistan, researchers have documented numerous instances of mixed cultural remains that include next to GKC-type materials also materials described as "local" (Vakhsh) as well as related to the "steppe" (Andronovo, Federovo) (e.g., Rouse 2020, Teufer 2021, Vinogradova 2021). Our sampling thus includes several other sites in addition to the GKC-related centres of Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan. The nearby site of Sapallitepa and the cemetery of Bustan help round out the picture of GKC-related sites in southern Uzbekistan, while the cemeteries of Gelot/Darnachi and the Saridzhar settlement in Tajikistan represent a complex intersection with communities in the upper Yakh-Su River Valley (Teufer 2018, et al. 2014). Likewise, the samples from Bashman 1 in central Uzbekistan will help establish baselines of communication between the GKC and Andronovo related communities (e.g., Luneau 2017).

2.2. Chronological and anthropological context

 The human material analysed in this study was collected by different archaeological expeditions during the last decades and often the local possibilities as well as availability and preservation of the material limited the selection. Hence, it was not possible to present a representative sample of all sexes and age groups. Nevertheless, the remains of 32 human individuals from eight sites in southern Central Asia were used for the present study: eleven individuals from Ulug Depe, eleven from Dzharkutan, two from Sapallitepa, one from Bustan, two from Gelot/Darnaichi, three from Saridzhar and two from Bashman 1 (cf. tab. 1 and 4). In Ulug Depe four burials (2 men, 1 undetermined adult, 1 child) date to the Early Bronze Age (EBA, Namazga IV (NMG IV), ca. 2800–2500 BCE), two burials (1 woman, 1 child) date to the transition from the Early to the Middle Bronze Age (EBA–MBA, NMG IV–V) and five burials (1 man, 1 woman, 2 undetermined adults, 1 child) to the later phase of the Middle Bronze Age (MBA (NMG V), ca. 2200–1900 BCE, cf. also Bendezu-Sarmiento 2013). The Ulug group consisted of three men, two women, three undetermined adults and three children.

 The eleven individuals from Dzharkutan date between 2100 and 1700 BCE, corresponding to 186 the transition from the MBA to the LBA and the LBA (NMG V–VI, NMG VI; cf. also Bendezu-Sarmiento, Mustafakulov 2013). A young woman and one undetermined adult dated back to the end of the 3rd/beginning of the 2nd mill. BC (MBA/LBA), nine individuals (1 man, 4 women, 3 undetermined adults, 1 child) dated back to the LBA, ca. 1900 and 1700 BC. In a total the group consists of five women, one man, four undetermined adults and one child.

 The two individuals from nearby Sapallitepa coincides with the earliest phase of the LBA (Askarov 1973). Sapallitepa is located about 40 km southwest of Dzharkutan, close to the northern bank of the Amu Darya River. The hills of Bustan are located 5 km south of Dzharkutan and dates to the final phase of the Bronze Age (Avanesova 2016). The graveyards of Gelot/Darnaichi and the neighboured settlement Saridzhar are located on the banks of the Yakh-Su River in southern Tajikistan (Teufer, Vinogradova 2010; Teufer 2014; Lombardo et al. 2014, Vinogradova, Kutimov 2018). The two burials from Gelot/Darnaichi belong to the so called Pjandzh culture and date between 2450 and 1900 cal. BCE (Teufer 2018, et al. 2014), while the three individuals from Saridzhar date between 1700 and 1500 BCE (Teufer 2014). The two individuals from Bashman 1 are culturally related to the Andronovo tribes and date to ca. 1600–1400 BCE. The site is located in central Uzbekistan in the northern range 201 of the Nuratau Mountains (Luneau personal communication).²

 The choice of human material was made mainly on the basis of the in-situ conservation of the 203 burials after excavation, since a large part of the burials were looted in the past. Teeth were removed as a priority according to their maxillo-mandibular state of preservation. The lower or upper molars (preferably M2 and M3) were selected if possible. The high variety of teeth used for this study makes

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 Corresponding tables for chronology can be found in Teufer 2018: 77-78, Bendezu-Sarmiento, Lhuillier 2019: 99 fig. 1 and Lyonnet, Dubova 2021: 8 tab.1.

206 inter-individual comparisons difficult as the teeth evolve in different stages of life (cf. Knipper 2004: 602 fig. 6; Hillson 2005). In this study mainly molars (M3) were analysed, which represent a later stage of child- and teenager years. The human bone material consisted mainly of ribs, vertebras and phalanges. Theirremodelling rate depends on the particular bone and can vary between 5 and 30 years 210 (cf. Tütken 2010: 35 fig. 2). Long-bones as femurs, tibias and cranium have slow remodelling rates of 211 20 to 30 years, whereas ribs and pelvic bones have faster turnover rates of 5 to 10 years (cf. e.g., Knipper 2004: 610–615; Tütken 2010: 35). The detailed description of the methods used for the anthropological determination of gender and age can be found in Bendezu-Sarmiento 2013.

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215 **Table 1:** Simplified comparative chronology of the sites according to the analysed human remains

| Period | approximate date cal. BCE | Phase | Kopet Dagh Mountains | Surkhan Darya Valley | Yakh-Su Valley | Nuratau Range |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Late Bronze Age | 2000-1600 | NMG VI | Ulug Depe | Bustan Sapallitepa Tilla Bulak Dzharkutan | Saridzhar Gelot/ Darnaichi | Bashman 1 |
| Middle Bronze Age | 2400-2000 | NMG V | Ulug Depe | Dzharkutan | Gelot/ Darnaichi | |
| Early Bronze Age | 2800-2400 | NMGIV | Ulug Depe | | | |

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219 **2.3. Ecological and geo-chemical realities**

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221 One of the main issues of the present study was the description of the distribution of ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ isotopes 222 in southern Central Asia. The general concept of mobility studies is based on the comparison of the 223 biogenic signature of an individual with the so called isolandscape (cf. Evans et al. 2010, Bowen 2012, 224 Maurer et al. 2012). Isolandscapes record the spatial distribution of the local isotopic composition of 225 environmentally bioavailable 87 Sr/ 86 Sr.

226 All the sites analysed here are located along the northern foothills of Kopet Dagh Mountains, 227 the eastern foothills of Kugitang Mountains and the southern foothills of the Khodzhasartes Mountains 228 (fig. 2). The Kopet Dagh submontane region is formed from alluvial fan deposits and younger 229 Quaternary loess deposits (Fet, Atamuradov 1994; Atamuradov et al. 1999). The Surkhan Darya Valley 230 is covered by layers of clayish and sandy loess, underneath a thick layer of continental deposits mainly 231 consists of sedimentary rocks (sandstone and aleurolite) with sporadic volcanic outcrops (Mukin 1997; 232 Kaniuth 2021). Also, the Yakh-Su River Valley is covered by deep loess deposits, which are up to 200 m 233 thick (Teufer 2014). The geological formation of Turkmenian cretaceous rocks and carbonates in the

- 234 Amu Darya Basin provided ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios between 0.7078 and 0.7084 (Meisel et al. 1995; Zheng et al.
- 235 2011), while Caspian Sea deposits resulted in ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ranges around 0.7081 (Clauer et al. 2000).

 Fig. 2: Geological maps of southern Central Asia after Ghassemi et al. 2019: 127 fig. 2 (Turkmenistan) and Sanchez de Corral, Thum 2012: 92 fig. 3 (Uzbekistan, Tajikistan)

 The climate in Ulug Depe is similar to that of the Karakum Desert, a forbidding environment, 241 tempered through the influence of the Kopet Dagh Mountains (Tengberg 2013). The average annual 242 temperature is 16°C, with a maximum of 48°C and a minimum of -26°C; the annual precipitation is around 220 mm, permitting the cultivation of cereals, grapes, vegetables and fruits without irrigation. 244 The Central Karakum lies directly northward of the Kopet Dagh submontane plains. Characteristic vegetation types are open steppes dominated by shrub species in the piedmont region and open scrub 246 woodlands followed by juniper forests in the Kopet Dagh Mountains (Fet, Atamuradov 1994, 1999; Moore et al. 1994; Miller 1999, 2003; Tengberg 2013). The climate in Dzharkutan is characterized by seasonal rainfalls in winter and early spring resulting in an early and short growing season. From May to October the climate is dry and hot. Average annual precipitation is 200–240 mm; the mean annual temperature is +16.8°C. Wide areas are covered by a xeric savanna ecosystem, dominated by wild 251 pistachio trees (Mukin 1997). The hot and arid climate results in rather high δ^{18} O averages of modern precipitation around -5.1‰ (VSMOW) in Ulug Depe and -4.2‰ (VSMOW) in Dzharkutan (after the

- OIPC, www.waterisoptopes.org). Analyses of Callovian carbonates from the Caspian Sea resulted in 254 δ^{18} O ranges between 0‰ and -5.5‰ (VPDB, after Zheng et al. 2011).
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3. Material and Methods

3.1. Isotopic applications and their problems

 Isotope analysis is a reliable method for tracking human and animal origins and mobility at a lifetime scale (cf. e.g., Price et al. 2002, 2004; Tütken 2003; Knipper 2004; Ventresca Miller, Makarewicz 2018). 263 The ratio of strontium ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr depends on water sources and the geological formation with which the water has interacted. Strontium is dissolved out of rocks by the groundwater, permeating through rivers and other water sources into soils and plants. It enters the body through drinking and eating and is incorporated without substantial fractionation into the hydroxyapatite of hard tissues like bones and teeth, often referred to as biogenic strontium (e.g., Tütken 2003; Bentley 2006). The water and food 268 ingested by an organism is thus directly connected to the nature of the geological substrates (Faure 269 1986; Faure, Mensing 2005). Moreover, tooth enamel is synthesized during childhood and remains static. Therefore, the isotopic ratio of tooth enamel reflects the environment in which the organism evolved during the first years of its life. Bones undergo continuous modification during the whole life and isotopes reflect the situation of the last years before death. Differences between bones and teeth, therefore, provide evidence for changes and the mobility of humans and animals during their lifetime (Price et al. 2002; Bentley 2006; Burton, Price 2013).

275 The ratio of oxygen $^{18}O/^{16}O$ ($\delta^{18}O$) in mammals reflects the sources of incorporated water, such 276 as drinking water and the water in edible plants (e.g., Balasse et al. 2002, 2009). The values reflect the composition of local meteoric water, derived from precipitation as rain, snow, or atmospheric moisture. The oxygen composition varies with different factors such as humidity, temperature, rain shadow effects, altitude, latitude and distance from the sea (Longinelli 1984; White et al. 1998, 2004). 280 It can be evidence of local water sources and climate conditions in which an individual grew up and is, therefore, another indicator for the origins and movements of humans and animals (Budd et al. 2004; Millard et al. 2004; White et al. 2004; Bentley, Knipper 2005). The oxygen signal of an individual is not 283 only impacted by the surrounding habitat but also by several physiological factors, such as individual metabolism and water intake, body temperature, or heat loss mechanisms (Makarewicz, Pederzani 2017, Ventresca Miller 2018). Moreover, culturally related manners as the intake of brewed, 286 fermented, or cooked beverages can affect the δ^{18} O ratios (Brettell et al. 2012; Royer et al. 2017), as 287 well as weaning can have an impact on the δ^{18} O ratio in body tissues (White et al. 2004). Additionally,

 seasonal variations have to be taken into account. The mineralization of body tissues generally covers a period of several years and might be impacted by seasonal changes through time. Central Asia is dominated by a dry, hot and arid vegetation, groundwater sources like springs, wells, rivers, or lakes may have been seasonal and differ over time. Furthermore, many regions in the world as e.g., tropical $\,$ zones have similar δ^{18} O values, ranging from approximately -2.0 to -8.0 (VSMOW), so that a distinction 293 of these regions is difficult (Bowen et al. 2005, Sjögren, Price 2012). Therefore, δ^{18} O results will be 294 taken only for the interpretation of inter-individual variations.

 Diagenesis can have a critical impact on the isotopic composition of human remains. Bones, but especially tooth dentine are very sensible to diagenesis – the ability of isotopes to penetrate from the surrounding milieu into the material. Decay processes as well as bone density, temperature and 298 humidity/aridity can strongly modify the original isotopic composition (e.g., Behrensmeyer 1978; Budd et al. 2000; Denys 2002; Hedges 2002; Hoppe et al. 2003; Tütken 2003, 2010; Maurer et al. 2012). Depending on the conservation of the material, diagenetic effects, especially of recent, well-preserved material, can be more or less completely eliminated by careful mechanical ablation of the topmost layers of the bone compacta followed by a specific leaching treatment with NaOCl and NaOH or acetic acid solutions (Hedges 2002: 322; Hoppe et al. 2003: 25–26; Tütken 2003: 217). Carbonized plant remains also strongly undergo diagenetic changes. Although exogenous strontium does not replace all biogenic strontium and is removable through leaching with strong acid (Fiorentino et al. 2014; Styring et al. 2019), potential diagenetic alterations always have to be taken into account when interpreting 307 isotopic data. The strong homogeneity of Sr/ 86 Sr results of Ulug Depe bones attracts attention, as all of them fall within a very narrow strontium range. It may be feared that these results are caused by contamination through diagenetic processes. Although the assessment of the diagenetic effect on the 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios through measuring the concentration of the elements was not performed on the samples, Ulug Depe bones were in very good conditions and leaching with strong acid should have removed the diagenetic impact for isotopic measurements. Moreover, both chemical extractions and measurements were conducted in multiple sessions over a period of two years with each session incorporating samples of different material, species and origins. Therefore, systematic mistakes within the analytical process can be excluded and the results will be considered as reliable.

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3.2. Reference material

320 For the determination of the bioavailable local ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ranges in this study material of nine rodents (*Mus spec.*), two carnivores (*Canis familiaris, Panthera spec.*), eleven samples of barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), three samples of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), two tamarisks (*Tamaris spec*.), one juniper

 (*Juniperus spec.*) and one willow (*Salix spec.*) were analysed (cf. tab. 2 and Mashkour 2013; Tengberg 2013, et al. 2020). Rodents, such as mice, have a natural lifespan of around 2–3 years and form territorial family clans. Hence, their bone compositions can be considered as representative of the surrounding environment and deliver reliable information about the bioavailable strontium (e.g., Knipper 2004; Bentley et al. 2004). When only human material was available as it was the case in Bashman 1, tooth dentine was analysed. Primary dentine is particularly susceptible to diagenetic alterations and represents the bioavailable strontium of the environment rather than the biogenic signal of the individual (cf. e.g., Gerling 2015). Plants were used in form of carbonized grains and charred wood from Bronze and Iron Age layers (Tengberg 2013, et al. 2020). In general, all reference samples were collected during the excavations, and we avoided using modern material because of possible complications with the influence of fertilizers or imported animal feed (Böhlke, Horan 2000; Bentley, Knipper 2005; Maurer et al. 2012).

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3.3. Applied laboratory methods

 Analyses were conducted on bone compacta, tooth enamel and primary tooth dentine. All steps were performed in a sterile atmosphere, tools were cleaned with ethanol and in the ultrasonic bath. Bones were cleaned of dirt with a toothbrush and a diamond drill. The sampling was proceeded with a micro saw followed by careful crushing with an agate mortar and pestle. Teeth were cleaned with a toothbrush and a diamond drill, enamel and dentine sampling was undertaken with a diamond drill. Charred plants were mechanically cleaned of sand and dust with a needle and tweezers under the 345 microscope. After crushing and the treatment with 6 M HCl for 24 hours after Styring et al. (2019), the samples were transformed into ash in a ceramic beaker at 750°C for 12 hours. The residues were solved 347 in 1 ml 13 M HNO₃ in the Ultrasonic bath followed by the evaporation of the acid solution on a hot 348 plate (100°C) overnight.

 The extraction of strontium was performed with 10–15 mg tooth enamel and 20–25 mg bone compacta/tooth dentine. The leaching procedure to remove the diagenetic strontium was undertaken with 7% acetic acid in an ultrasonic bath (45°C) for 30 minutes followed by several rinsing steps with 352 ultrapure H₂O Milli-Q®, changing the solution every 10 minutes until it became clear (only enamel and bones were leached, dentine was only rinsed in water). The samples were dried overnight. The cleaned, leached and oven dried samples were transferred to a clean Teflon beaker and dissolved in 1 355 ml 13 M HNO₃ in the Ultrasonic bath at 65°C. Acid was evaporated on a hot plate at 100°C and samples 356 were dissolved in 2 ml 2 M HNO₃. Strontium was extracted through a Teflon column using "Sr-Eichrom" resin (Pin et al. 1994) after the following protocol: columns were washed 6 times alternately with 5 ml

358 6 M HCl and 0.05 M HNO₃ followed by the conditioning step with 3 ml 2 M HNO₃. After uploading the 359 samples, the elimination of other elements was performed with 2 ml 2 M HNO₃, 3 ml 7 M HNO₃ and 360 0.5 ml 3 M HNO₃. The extraction of strontium was accomplished with 4 ml 0.05 M HNO₃. The lab work of the strontium extraction was carried out in the clean isotope laboratory of the Geoscience Montpellier (CNRS – University of Montpellier). The measurements were realized using a Thermo Scientific MC-ICP-MS (MultiCollector-Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer) Neptune Plus at the AETE-ISO Platform from the OSU-OREME (Montpellier). To assess the reproducibility and accuracy of the isotopic ratios, standards were repeatedly run every five samples. All ratios were normalized 366 using a value of 0.1194 for the ⁸⁸Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio. The standard average values were 0.710243 \pm 6 (\pm 2σ, n = 20) for the NBS987 Sr standard.

 For the preparation of structural carbonate for the oxygen analyses, because of the state of preservation varying amounts of mechanically cleaned bone compacta were required: Ulug bones 10– 15 mg; Dzharkutan, Gelot/Darnaichi, Saridzhar, and Bashman1 bones 20–30 mg. The required amount of tooth enamel was 5–10 mg. The purification was performed following the protocol of Balasse et al. (2002). To remove the diagenetic carbonate, bone samples were treated with NaOCl (2–3%) for 24–48 373 hours at room temperature, stirred every 4–6 hours. After rinsing (4–5 times with H₂O Milli-Q®), 1 M acetic acid was added to the bone powder for 1 hour at room temperature, stirred every 20 minutes. Teeth enamel samples were treated with 1 M HCl for 4 hours, stirred every 30 minutes. After rinsing 376 (4–5 times with H₂O Milli-Q®), all samples were dried at 50–70°C for 24–36 hours until all water was thoroughly evaporated. The lab work was carried out in the Cosmochemistry Lab of the Mass Spectrometry Service at the National Museum of Natural History (SSMIM) in Paris. The analyses were performed using a Thermo Scientific Mass-spectrometer DeltaV-Advantage with a Kiel IV automated processor. Oxygen ratios are reported compared to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite standard (VPDB) 381 using δ notation. Uncertainties (1 σ) for δ^{18} O were 0.06‰, the measurements are expressed relative to the standard in parts per thousand (‰).

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4. Results

4.1. Determination of the local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr ranges

Several methods exist for the calculation of local Sr/ 86 Sr signals to get the most reliable results (e.g., Grupe et al. 1997; Price et al. 2002, 2004; Bentley et al. 2004; Knipper 2004). In order to compare our 391 results with already published data, we followed Price et al. (2002) by expanding the mean value with 2σ. The itemized results of the faunal and botanical references, including the calculated local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr 393 ranges, are listed in table 2; the two human dentine results can be found in table 3; all Sr/ 86 Sr ranges are shown in fig. 3.

395 The bio-available local Sr/ 86 Sr range of Ulug Depe was determined using three samples of 396 rodents and two of carnivores (Mashkour 2013), supplemented by four samples of barley, supposed to be grown locally, one sample of juniper wood, a mountainous species, and one sample of tamarisk, with a high variety of adaptation, but in this region mainly growing along rivers and in the plain (Tengberg et al. 2020). The ratios ranged between 0.707885 and 0.708045 with an average of 0.707964 (± 0.000045), resulting in a local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr range for Ulug Depe of **0.707874 – 0.708054** (±2σ, n = 11).

401 For the bio-available local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr range of Dzharkutan, two samples of rodents, five botanical samples and two human dentine samples were analysed (Mashkour et al. 2016; Tengberg 2013; Tengberg et al. 2020). The plants were three samples of barley, most probably locally grown; one sample of willow, riverine and probably also locally grown; and one sample of tamarisk. The ratios ranged between 0.708191 and 0.708356 with an average of 0.708273 (± 0.000062), resulting in a local Sr/⁸⁶ Sr range for Dzharkutan of **0.708149 – 0.708397** (±2σ, n = 9).

Fig. 3: ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr signals from southern Central Asia; sites are in geographical order from west to east. Dashed 410 boxes mark the determined local ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ signals; the yellow box marks the calculated regional range (dark $±1\sigma$, light ±2σ).

 To get a better idea of the surrounding situations, further faunal samples were added from Tilla Bulak, a small village 25 km west of Dzharkutan, dating around 2000–1750 BCE (Kaniuth 2016). 415 Seven samples of barley and wheat were analysed (Peters in Kaniuth 2009, 89-91): the ratios ranged between 0.708930 and 0.708968 with an average of 0.708948 (± 0.000015), resulting in a narrow, but significantly different local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr range of **0.708918 – 0.708978** (±2σ, n = 7).

418 The two human individuals from Bashman 1 were tested for their dentine Sr $/86$ Sr ratios. The results were close to each other (0.709297 and 0.709343), giving an impression of the strontium distribution in this region. The enamel ratio of the child was also close to the two dentine ratios; as it was a young child (below 7 years) and the analysed tooth a molar (formation not finished within this age), the child was added to the calculation to get the widest possible description of local strontium 423 distribution. Then, the ratios ranged between 0.709297 and 0.709445 with an average of 0.709362 (\pm 0.000062), resulting in a local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr signal of **0.709238 – 0.709485** (±2σ, n = 3).

 Several analyses of rodents were included as further references: these do not provide reliable 426 Iocal ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ signals, but serve as indicators for the isotopic distribution of the archaeological sites. Hence, the bone material of one rodent from Sangir-tepe, of one from Erkurgan (Mashkour et al. 2016) 428 and of two from Geoktchik Depe (Mashkour 1998) were analysed. Geoktchik Depe is located in the Dehistan Plain, in southwestern Turkmenistan, adjacent to the Caspian Sea, which is today an arid and flat region (Lecomte 2005, 2007b). The two rodents from Geoktchik Depe showed completely different Sr/⁸⁶ Sr ratios, resulting in a wide range of **0.708102 – 0.709616** (±2σ, n = 2). The rodent from Sangir-432 tepe displayed a similar Sr/ 86 Sr ratio of 0.709224 (\pm 0.000006), while that from Erkurgan a ratio of 0.708273 (± 0.000003) closer to those from Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan.

435 Table 2⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr results of botanical and faunal references and calculation of the local signals

 The calculated local signals of the single sites were resultful within the available references 439 and are well distinguishable at a micro-regional scale (cf. fig. 3). The calculated strontium signal of the whole region was calculated resulting in a range of **0.707466 – 0.709469** (±2σ, n = 34).

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4.2. Interpolation on an interregional scale

 The geographic regions of southern Central Asia comprise a large area with very diverse geological conditions, making interregional comparisons difficult. But the obtained local signals are sufficiently distinctive for a first evaluation on an interregional scale. The background strontium isotope values for the region were reconstructed by interpolating the data for the geological units using the kriging method. The strontium isotope values of the geological units with references can be found in the supplementary. Although the accuracy of this reconstruction is limited by the available data and their 451 Iocations, higher ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶ Sr ratios (~0.70800–0.70850) are seen to the north of Dzharkutan while lower 452 values (~0.70605–0.70700) were observed near Ulug Depe ($fig. 4$).

 Fig. 4: Strontium isotope values of the geological units. Blue stars denote the isotopic values of Caspian Sea water. Values in red and green denote the local mean values obtained on rodents (*Mus sp.*) and barley (*Hordeum vulg.*) respectively.

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4.3. Human ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and δ¹⁸ O results

463 The Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O results of all human samples from Ulug Depe, Dzharkutan, Sapallitepa, Bustan, 464 Bashman 1, Gelot/Darnaichi and Saridzhar are listed in table 3 and presented in figures 5, 6 and 7 (the individuals from Bashman 1 were only tested for strontium, and are therefore not in figs. 6 and 7). A preliminary cluster analysis of Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan individuals provided two distinguishable clusters with several outliers. Hence the sites can be considered as capable of being differentiated. A

468 Levene test confirmed that there was no homogeneity of variances between the sites (F = 2.16, p < 469 0.02). But since the small sample number made statistical analyses unreliable, we desisted from further 470 calculations. Moreover, the deviations of the individual results were negligibly small, when plotting 471 them on the figures the error bars were overlapped by the applied symbols so that the symbols in 472 figures 5, 6 and 7 encompass the error margins at 2σ level for the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios and 1σ level for δ¹⁸O 473 ratios.

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477 Fig. 5: ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr results of humans and references showing the variation between samples from the same 478 individual. Tooth enamel samples are plotted with the sign of the particular gender as well as the colour of the 479 date, bone samples are plotted as-, dentine samples as X. Dashed boxes mark the determined local ranges, the 480 yellow boxes mark the calculated regional range (dark ±1σ, light ±2σ). Abbreviations: ULG Ulug Depe, DZH 481 Dzharkutan, TB Tilla Bulak, SD Sangir-tepe, EK Erkurgan.

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484 The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of all samples from Ulug Depe ranged between 0.707864 and 0.709960, 485 6¹⁸O ratios were between -6.9‰ and -2.4‰ (VPDB). Bone ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios ranged between 0.707864 486 and 0.707948 with a mean of 0.707893 ($±$ 0.000026, n = 11), δ¹⁸O bone ratios ranged between -5.3‰ 487 and -2.4‰ and showed a mean of -3.7‰ (\pm 0.97, n = 11). Tooth enamel 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ranged between 488 0.707819 and 0.709960 and showed a mean of 0.708156 (\pm 0.000605, n = 11), while δ^{18} O ranged 489 between -6.9‰ and -3.2‰ with a mean of -4.4‰ (\pm 1.08, n = 11). The 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios of all samples 490 from Dzharkutan ranged between 0.708052 and 0.709200, δ^{18} O ratios of all samples ranged from -

491 6.9‰ to -3.8‰ (V-PDB). The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio of human bones ranged between 0.708160 and 0.708474 492 and showed a mean of 0.708352 (\pm 0.000081, n = 9), bones δ^{18} O ranged between -6.5‰ and -4.8‰ 493 and showed a mean of -5.6‰ (\pm 0.52, n = 9). Tooth enamel 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios ranged between 0.708052 494 and 0.709200 and showed a mean of 0.708267 (\pm 0.000316, n = 11), while enamel δ^{18} O ranged 495 between -6.9‰ and -5.0‰ with a mean of -6.2‰ (± 0.49, n = 11). The bone sample of burial 20 from 496 Sapallitepa provided an 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio of 0.708418 (\pm 0.000006), while enamel 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio of burial 497 8 was 0.709030 (\pm 0.000026). The single bone sample from Bustan had an ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ratio of 0.707893 498 (\pm 0.000007), δ^{18} O was -5.7‰. The five individuals from Gelot/Darnaichi and Saridzhar range in the 499 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio between 0.708616 and 0.709374 (± 0.000241‰), δ¹⁸O ratios ranged between -2.8‰ and 500 -7.8‰ (\pm 1.4‰). The two individuals from Bashman 1 showed in their $87Sr/86Sr$ enamel ratios two very 501 different results. The 87 Sr/ 86 Sr enamel ratio of the adults was 0.710410 (\pm 0.000040), the child provided 502 an ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ enamel ratio of 0.709445 (\pm 0.000007). The preparation of structural carbonate was not 503 sufficient for all individuals; therefore, oxygen values are not available for one sample from Sapallitepa 504 and all samples from Bashman 1.

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508 508 **Fig. 6:** Human δ¹⁸O results out of apatite of bones and teeth with intra-individual variations: minus mark the 509 bone samples, geometric signs mark tooth enamel samples (M3: full coloured, M n.d: striped). Coloured lines 510 mark the averages, dashed boxes the averages ±1σ.

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| | | | | | tooth enamel | | | | | bone compacta/tooth dentine | | | | | |
| Site | Name of sample | #Ref | Period | Age in years sex | Materia | s^2 sr $\sqrt{s^6}$ Sr | (last digits) 2σ | (NPDB) $\delta^{^{18}}$ O _{apa} | 유 | Material | s^2 sr $\sqrt{s^6}$ Sr | (last digits) 2σ | $\delta^{^{18}}\!{\rm O}_{\rm ap}$ (NPDB) | $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ | Table 4 Material and results of |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 53 | ULG01-Sep53 | EBA | m/0 | | 0.708488 | $\frac{8}{1}$ | -4.3 | 0.05 $+1$ | phalanx | 0.707918 | ± 03 | -5.3 | 0.01 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 54 | ULG01-Sep54 | EBA | $1 - 3 / n.d.$ | Σ | 0.707856 | $\overline{5}$ | -5.0 | 0.02 $+1$ | ąĻ | 0.707890 | ±06 | \ddot{a} | 0.01 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 55 | ULG05-Sep55 | EBA | m/0 | $\widetilde{\Xi}$ | 0.708247 | ±03 | -4.0 | 0.04 $+1$ | مة - | 0.707948 | ± 04 | $3 - 4$ | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 56 | ULG01-Sep56 | EBA | adult / n.d. | $\mathsf{\circ}$ | 0.709960 | ± 04 | -3.4 | 0.05 $+1$ | 음 | 0.707921 | ± 07 | -3.2 | 0.03 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 90 | ULG06-CH17-Sep90 | | ca.3/nd. | Σ | 0.707857 | ± 04 | -3.3 | 0.02 $+1$ | ą | 0.707867 | ±06 | -3.1 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 92 | ULG05-CH17-Sep92 | EBA-MBA EBA-MBA | $1/0$ t< | $\tilde{\Xi}$ | 0.708061 | ±05 | င့်ခဲ့ | 0.02 $+1$ | bone fragm. | 0.707864 | ±05 | 4.8 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 61 | ULG04-Sep61 | MBA | $21 - 28/m$ | $\overline{}$ | 0.707826 | ±08 | -3.4 | 0.03 $+1$ | bone fragm. | 0.707873 | ± 04 | -3.3 | 0.03 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 62 | ULG04-Sep62 | MBA | adult / n.d. | $\tilde{\Xi}$ | 0.707859 | ± 06 | -4.5 | 0.02 | phalanx | 0.707886 | ± 06 | -2.5 | 0.04 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 66 | ULG04-CH1Est-Sep66 | MBA | $1/0$ t< | \tilde{z} | 0.707880 | ±04 | -4.0 | ± 0.04 | bone fragm. | 0.707894 | ±05 | -2.8 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 76-1 | ULG04-Sep76-Ind1 | MBA | $4 - 6 / n.d.$ | Σ | 0.707865 | ± 05 | -3.6 | 0.03 $+1$ | vertebra | 0.707899 | ± 04 | -2.4 | 0.01 $+1$ | |
| Ulug Depe | ULG 83 | ULG05-CH17-Sep83 | MBA | adult / n.d | \tilde{z} | 0.707819 | ± 06 | -5.8 | 0.03 $+1$ | vertebra | 0.707865 | \pm 04 | $\frac{4}{3}$ | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1001B | DZH-2007 Sep1001B | MBA-LBA | $20 - 29 / f$ | \circ | 0.708487 | ± 07 | -5.0 | 0.04 $+1$ | bone fragm. | 0.708343 | ± 05 | ဒို့ | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1028-1 | DZH-2009 Sep1028-1 | MBA-LBA | adult / n.d. | $\mathop{\mathsf{M}}\nolimits$ | 0.708055 | ±06 | -6.3 | 0.03 $+1$ | phalanx | 0.708358 | ±05 | -5.1 | 0.03 $+1$ | ⁸⁷ Sr/ ⁸⁶ Sr and $\delta^{18}O$ |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 999 | DZH-2007 Sep999 | LBA | $20-39/m$ | \circ | 0.708142 | ± 07 | -6.0 | ± 0.03 | phalanx | 0.708355 | ±03 | 4.8 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1001A | DZH-2007 Sep1001A | LBA | $20 - 29 / f$ | M | 0.708178 | ±08 | -6.2 | 0.01 $+1$ | carpal | 0.708314 | ±05 | -5.7 | 0.01 $+1$ | οt |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1019 | DZH-2008 Sep 1019 | LBA | adult / n.d. | Ξ | 0.709200 | ± 08 | 59- | 0.07 | phalanx | 0.708474 | ±03 | -6.2 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1022 | DZH-2009 Sep1022 | LBA | adult / n.d. | $\mathop{\mathsf{M}}\nolimits$ | 0.708082 | ±08 | 99- | 0.02 $+1$ | ąŗ | 0.708430 | ± 04 | -5.3 | 0.03 $+1$ | human |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1025 | DZH-2009 Sep1025 | LBA | $17-40/f$ | $\qquad \qquad -$ | 0.708190 | ± 06 | -5.8 | 0.08 $+1$ | bone fragm. | 0.708362 | ±06 | -5.4 | 0.03 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1028-2 | DZH-2009 Sep1028-2 | LBA | child / n.d. | Σ | 0.708223 | ±06 | ۇم | ± 0.07 | humerus | 0.708368 | ±04 | -5.3 | ± 0.02 | and |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1033 | DZH-2009 Sep1033 | LBA | $1/0$ t< | ΣĀ | 0.708185 | ± 06 | -6.3 | ±0.03 | مية | 0.708160 | ± 04 | -6.5 | 0.03 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutan | DZH 1049 | DZH2011 Sep1049 | LBA | adult / n.d. | M ₃ | 0.708052 | ± 04 | <u>م.</u> | ± 0.03 | M3 dentine | 0.708330 | ±05 | -5.5 | 0.07 $+1$ | |
| Dzharkutar | DZH 1051 | DZH2011 Sep1051 | LBA | $15 - 20 / f$ | \tilde{m} | 0.708138 | ± 05 | -6.9 | 0.07 $+1$ | M3 dentine | 0.708346 | ±05 | -4.1 | 0.06 $+1$ | |
| Sapallitepa | SK17-24 | Sep 8 (2) 00-149 | LBA | adult / n.d. | Ξ | 0.709030 | ± 26 | -6.8 | ±0.03 | | | | ï | | |
| Sapallitepa | SAP ₂ | 1971 Sep. 20 0027 | LBA | adult / n.d. | | | | | | bone fragm. | 0.708418 | $\frac{1}{2}06$ | | | trom |
| Bustan | SK17-23 | Sep 23 59-30 | LBA | adult / n.d. | $\overline{\Sigma}$ | | | 6.9 | ±0.04 | bone fragm. | 0.707893 | ± 07 | -5.7 | 0.04 $+1$ | |
| Gelot | SK17-05 | N6 grave 2 | MBA-LBA | 1/04 | Σ | 0.708739 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | -2.8 | 0.05 $+1$ | bone fragm. | 0.709270 | ± 03 | 9.9 | 0.04 $+1$ | |
| Damaichi | SK17-13 | N ₂ grave 1 | MBA | adult / n.d. | \geq | 0.709147 | ± 04 | -6.5 | ± 0.03 | skull (frontal bone) | 0.709302 | ±08 | -7.0 | 0.04 $+1$ | |
| Saridzhar | SK17-10 | B1 grave 1 | LBA | adult / n.d. | ΣÑ | 0.709188 | ± 09 | -6.9 | ± 0.03 | skull (frontal bone) | 0.709143 | ±05 | -7.8 | 0.04 $+1$ | southern Central Asia* |
| Saridzhar | SK17-11 | B3 grave 2 | LBA | adult / n.d. | Σ | 0.708616 | ± 16 | -7.2 | ± 0.04 | bone fragm. | 0.709143 | ±10 | 5.7 | 0.02 $+1$ | |
| Saridzhar | SK17-12 | N1 grave 1 | LBA | adult / n.d. | | | | | | bone fragm. | 0.709374 | ± 09 | -7.2 | 0.01 $+1$ | |
| Bashman1 | SK18-119 | 2018; GPS 150 | LBA | adult / n.d. | \overline{M} | 0.710410 | ± 40 | | | M3 dentine | 0.709297 | ±05 | | | |
| Bashman1 | SK18-120 | 2018; GPS 150 | LBA | child / n.d | Σ | 0.709445 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | | | M dentine | 0.709343 | ±05 | | | |
| Ulug Depe | SK18-18 | Chantier 1 | EBA-MBA | Canis fam. | | | | | | Mandibel | 0.707908 | ±05 | -3.0 | ± 0.07 | |
| Ulug Depe | SK18-25 | Chantier 5 | | Panthera spec. | | | | | | ulna | 0.707961 | ± 03 | -1.6 | ± 0.05 | |

514 515 *Abbreviations: f: female; m: male; n.d.: not determined; M: Molar, C: Canine, I: Incisor. "M" or "bone. fragm." 516 stand for samples where the determination was unsure, especially when samples were very little; "adult" stand
517 for individuals where the preservation did not allow a further age determination; "child" stand for chil for individuals where the preservation did not allow a further age determination; "child" stand for children below

518 14 years, but the preservation also did not allow a further age determination.

5. Discussion

Fig. 7: Scatterplot correlation of δ¹⁸O vs. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratios of all analysed individuals. Abbr.: E stands for enamel. B for bones, ULG for Ulug Depe, DZH for Dzharkutan, G./D. for Gelot/Darnaichi. Dashed boxes mark the δ¹⁸O mean 541 value out of human samples $\pm 1\sigma$ in combination with the calculated local ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr signals ($\pm 2\sigma$). Big yellow boxes 542 mark the inter-regional Sr/ 86 Sr signal (dark ±1σ, light ±2σ).

545 When comparing the distribution of Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O of bones and teeth from Dzharkutan individuals, two clusters are clearly visible: the bones form a cluster on the upper limit of the local 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and on the lower limit of the local δ^{18} O range, and the teeth on the opposite limits of the local ranges (figs. 5, 6). Both clusters are only partly in the determined local ranges, but as a group they fit well together. None of the Dzharkutan individuals (except DZH 1019) lie outside these clusters or in 550 other local ranges (figs. 5, 7), demonstrating a homogeneous group of people. The δ^{18} O ratios ranged between -6.9‰ and -4.8‰ with a range of 2.1‰ and an average of -5.9‰ (± 0.7‰, n = 20). The results 552 are lower than in Ulug Depe (fig. 6), suggesting a more moderate climate. The inter-individual variations are even smaller than in Ulug Depe, indicating that the people buried in Dzharkutan also ingested water from particular water sources and not from multiple sources across the valley. The surrounding landscape of Dzharkutan was characterized by the flood plains of the Sherabad, Surkhan Darya, and Amu Darya rivers and theirtributary streams. Hence, the signals of Dzharkutan people could be expected to display more variety. The small intervals between the individuals, however, suggest little mobility. Interestingly, the clusters of teeth and bones indicate a complex pattern of mobility or

 subsistence of Dzharkutans´ people with movement between the place of birth/childhood and residence during later lifetime in a limited area. The individuals date to the transition from MBA to the LBA and to the LBA, and the results show a certain continuity over this time period. But the real cause for this unusual pattern of movements of the people from Dzharkutan remains unexplained, until more results can be evaluated.

 Special patterns in terms of biological criteria such as age, sex and the archaeologically indicated social position of the individuals, are only weakly reflected in the small sample size. The "foreigners" from Ulug Depe were two men and one not determined adult from the EBA (ULG 53, 55, 56), and one woman from the EBA/MBA (ULG 92). It is not clear if the degree of mobility is connected to the social position or gender of the people. The two men, who were buried in complex burial constructions after the prevailing burial traditions of the EBA with rich grave inventories, were both non-locals. Conspicuous, but comparable female burials are missing. In Dzharkutan, the selection of samples excluded specific interpretations in terms of gender or the archaeologically indicated social position, since only one man was part of the test series. This one man (DZH 999) did not differ in the Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O results. Furthermore, the only very rich grave of a young woman (DZH 1051) did not show any differences to the group. Hence, whether there is a pattern in the mobility caused by gender or social position cannot be recognised in the present evidence.

 Concerning the question of migration and the movements of single individuals between populations, the correlation of strontium and oxygen seems to point to the fact that the origins of some of our non-locals are quite clear and inter-regional connections really existed. The enamel Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O results of Burial no. 1019 from Dzharkutan and Burial no. 8 from Sapallitepa fit perfectly within the cluster of Gelot/Darnaichi and Saridzhar people (fig. 7), demonstrating that with 581 the exchange of material (cf. Luneau 2013) also individuals moved. The Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O ratios of Gelot/Darnaichi and Saridzhar individuals highlight a homogeneous group of people (fig. 7). It is conspicuous, however, that all analysed bone samples fell in the same range but only two of four tooth enamel samples. The results suggest that immigration also played an important role during the Bronze Age in southern Tajikistan (cf. Kroll et al. forthcoming). Moreover, the adult individual from Bashman 1 is noticeable, as it fell together with ULG 56 outside the calculated regional signal, suggesting an external origin of this individual too (fig. 5). Bashman 1 is located south of the Syr Darya which marks the northern border of the GKC and an area inhabited by both– the GKC groups and Andronovo groups $-$ in the first half of the 2nd mill. BCE. Isotopic studies from the northern communities, where nomadic pastoralism is argued to be a reason for the spread of the Andronovo culture, did not provide evidence for long distance migration (Ventresca Miller et al. 2017). Although providing a contrasting image, our results are provisional but, nevertheless the high variation in the results suggests active mobility among the inhabitants of southern Central Asia during the Bronze Ages.

6. Conclusion

598 The present study has provided a first biogeochemical dataset of Sr $/86$ Sr isotopes from southern Central Asia and has enabled the initial evaluation of the isotopic distribution on a micro-regional scale. 600 The analyses of Sr/ 86 Sr and δ^{18} O isotopes on human material indicate that the populations in Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan were mainly sedentary with an intensive use of the surrounding landscape. The results revealed Ulug Depe during the early periods (EBA, EBA–MBA) with a high rate of immigration, four of six analysed individuals from these time periods did not fall within the local range. Remarkably, the individuals from the GKC phase showed little mobility and almost no immigration. Although this represents a time period of great changes, powerful empires and widespread networks, it seems the inhabitants of Ulug Depe and Dzharkutan remained local. The mobility pattern of Dzharkutan people was different; analyses displayed homogeneous clusters on the upper and lower limit of the local ranges. The results suggest complex patterns of mobility or subsistence, where movements between a person's place of birth/childhood and residence were a regular feature, observable throughout the centuries. The isotopic results of the other sites in the Surkhan Darya Valley and southern Tajikistan indicate active mobility and corroborate the known exchange of artifacts and technologies. However, the limited number of samples provides only a glimpse of the complex dynamics during Bronze Age in southern Central Asia and further studies are necessary to confirm or broaden the obtained insights.

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