Diet of Indus Civilization: Reinterpretations from Multi–Site Stable Isotopic Mortuary Analysis

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ABSTRACT

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Several insights on the identification and mobility of the Indus Civilization were provided by previous researchers based on the results limited towards archaeological context. In this study, several such published data of Mortuary samples from the major urban centre of Harappa, the eastern frontier town of Farmana, and the post–urban necropolis at Sanauli are re–evaluated in context with the modern dental samples. The results are compared to the compositional signatures found within teeth from modern humans from the USA, East Asia, Mexico and Bulgaria, which is expected to show variance in their isotopic signature depending upon regional level precipitation and diet. The results from δ^{18} O signatures from the Indus Valley point towards dependence on riverine water for drinking.

Key-words-Indus Civilization, Harappa, Sanauli, Farmana, Diet, Water.

INTRODUCTION

 $T^{\rm HE}$ application of stable isotope analysis in the field of anthropological studies, especially in the process of identification of human remains, has become increasingly popular over the past decade (Dupras & Schwarcz, 2001; Chenery, 2003; White et al., 2004; Chesson et al., 2018). Human skeletal remains are primarily found in the form of bone, tooth enamel and hair. Unlike tooth enamel and hair tissues, which remain unchanged once they are formed, bone undergoes periodic remodelling. The stable isotopic composition of bones reflects the dietary patterns of an individual for a period ranging from several months to years prior to their death, depending on the bone type and location. Unlike permanent teeth, which develop between birth and age 12, deciduous teeth are formed at the time of gestation. Once teeth are formed, their isotopic values become fixed and remain unchanged throughout an individual's life, as teeth do not undergo remodelling. By comparing the isotopic values of teeth and bones, it is possible to infer changes in an individual's diet and migration patterns over time. Therefore, the analysis of stable isotopes in multiple tissues can provide a measurable dietary history of an individual. While the stable isotope signal from bone reflects the chemistry of diet and place of residence, enamel, on the other hand, is formed

during early childhood (Price et al., 1994; Kohn et al., 1999; Budd et al., 2000; Hillson, 2005). The deposition of carbon in the enamel occurs in the form of carbonate ions, which are incorporated into the crystal structure of inorganic apatite or bioapatite. This incorporation happens in two ways: as "structural carbonate," which substitutes the phosphate position in the crystal structure, and as "adsorbed carbonate," which attaches to hydration layers and crystal surfaces. Both forms of carbon are influenced by the individual's diet. Carbon isotopes in bone and tooth enamel are used for reconstruction of the paleo-diet dependent upon the source of ¹³C derived from the plants and animals ingested (Lee-Thorp et al., 1989; Sullivan & Krueger, 1981; Tieszen & Fagre, 1993; Cerling & Harris, 1999; Froehle et al., 2012). Dental enamel derives its oxygen component from the water present in the body. The isotopic make up of this body of water is influenced by the isotopic composition of the water that individuals consume from their surroundings, which in turn is determined by the local precipitation patterns. The variations in oxygen isotopes in fossils, on the surface, largely depend on the isotopic composition of the water source and in turn, on rainfall (Dansgaard, 1964; Kohn, 1996; Luz & Kolodny, 1985, 1989). Secondary influences, such as water ingested from food and atmospheric oxygen are minor. Isotopes in rainfall are determined by the relative abundance of the heavy

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¹⁸O isotope to lighter ¹⁶O in water, due to physical processes such as evaporation and precipitation (e.g., Dansgaard, 1964). Significant factors affecting rainfall δ^{18} O values are latitude, elevation, amount of precipitation, and distance from the evaporation source (e.g., an ocean). When water evaporates over the ocean, it becomes relatively lighter isotopically (more ¹⁶O) than the water left behind. As this moisture moves over land, the first precipitation accommodates more of the heavy isotope and with progressive higher elevations; the rain becomes lighter in isotopic content. Thus, oxygen isotope ratios have great potential to vary geographically and provide a tool to reconstruct human settlement and migration. In this study, we have used modern human tooth data from previously published literature where tooth enamels were analysed from samples from the diverse region across the world with different dietary habits; the USA and South East Asia (Regan, 2006), Mexico (Juarez, 2011) and, Bulgaria (Kamenov & Curtis, 2017). These baseline data were used to infer the diet and drinking water of the individuals sampled from the Indus burial sites obtained from Kenoyer et al., 2013 for Harappa and Valentine, 2013 for Farnama and Sanauli as shown in Fig. 1.



Fig. 1—Map of India showing study site Harappa (red circle), Sanauli (Green circle) and Farmana (Blue Circle) from which the stable isotope data for Indus civilisations skeletal remains were collected in the present study.

DISCUSSION

Carbon isotope signature of mammalian carbonates has been used to reconstruct diet in animals and humans (Luz et al., 1990; Ambrose & Norr, 1993; Passey & Cerling, 2002; Passey et al., 2005a, b; Stevens et al., 2006). As foods eaten by human/animals, $\delta^{13}C$ values in dental enamel carbonate tend to be enriched about 14‰ in comparison to primary food source (Cerling & Harris, 1999). The enrichment in ¹³C is likely the result of fractionation during the precipitation of bioapatite minerals from dissolved inorganic carbon within the body. Thus, the $\delta^{13}C$ of human tooth enamel reflects the diet, which varies with the intake of the relative proportion of C₃vs C₄ plant diet, and the intake of meat, in the regional context. Results of previous isotopic ratios studies are shown in Fig. 2. In these studies, tooth enamels were analysed from samples retrieved from the diverse region across the world with different dietary habits; the USA and South East Asia (Regan, 2006), Mexico (Juarez, 2011) and Bulgaria (Kamenov & Curtis, 2017). The results show that the lowest δ^{13} C, i.e.– 17.2‰ is inferred to be influenced by a diet of C₃ crop, i.e. rice from the population surveyed from Southeast Asia (Vietnam, Korea, Laos, Cambodia and Philippines) (Regan, 2006). The tooth samples from Bulgaria are enriched compared to that of the Southeast Asian cluster to around-11.7‰. This enrichment is inferred to be influenced by a diet rich in a mixture of C, (legumes) and C_4 (millets) types of vegetation. Tooth samples from the USA and Mexico have shown a higher enrichment in ¹³C, reflecting a diet dominated by C₄ plants, such as corn or maize, sugarcane, sorghum, and millets in their region (Juarez, 2011).

The average value of δ^{13} C from Harappa is -11.85 ± 0.99 (n= 32) whereas δ^{18} O is -4.82 ± 0.94 (n= 32). From the 36 samples in Farmana, the average value is δ^{13} C -9.65 ± 2.43 and δ^{18} O is -3.17 ± 1.31 . From the 66 samples from Sanauli the average value is δ^{13} C -11.89 ± 1.15 and δ^{18} O is $-4.33 \pm$ 0.82 (Kenoyer *et al.*, 2013; Valentine, 2013).

In comparison to the modern samples mentioned above, Harappa and Sanauli both have mean δ^{13} C of-11.9‰, whereas the mean value at Farmana is-10.0% suggesting millets or other C44 crops were consumed by individuals in the mortuary populations of Sanauli and Harappa, but millets contributed significantly to diet at Farmana. According to the archaeobotanical data (Bates et al., 2018), it was inferred that millets comprised a significant portion of the crop remains at all Harappan sites. The diversity of foodstuffs discovered in the archaeobotanical analysis (Weber & Kashyap, 2016) suggests the possibility that dietary choices may have been guided in part by group affiliation. The overall assemblage of plants revolved around cereals and pulses and incorporated both summer and winter crops. There is the combined use of Southwest Asian cereals, like barley and wheat with indigenous millets.

The δ^{18} O value found in meteoric water differs depending on the region, and is influenced by various climatic parameters such as latitude, altitude, distance from the coastline, and temperature. Despite relatively large standard deviations within the same locations, due to our understanding of the several metabolic fractionations in the human body that influences the δ^{18} O values. Linear equations between the drinking water oxygen isotopes (δ^{18} Ow) values and of dental carbonate oxygen isotopes (δ^{18} Oc) can be drawn. These equations are region specific, for example, the Middle East was defined by Posey (2011), the relationship for the USA was established by Ehleringer et al., (2010) (based on the human tooth). For Europe Longinelli (1984) established a relationship based on phosphate remains in the tooth enamels. The slope and intercept from these plots may vary due to the various factors like sources of drinking water ingested and metabolic effect.

In this study, the relationship (Equation 1) between the ionic forms of oxygen (phosphate oxygen and structural carbonate) in archaeological human dental enamel between dental carbonate by Chenery *et al.*, (2012) was used. This equation allows direct comparison of data produced by the different methods and allows drinking water values to be calculated from structural carbonate data with confidence.

$\delta^{18}O_{Drinking Water}(VSMOW) = 1.509(\pm 0.105) \times \delta^{18}O_{Carbonate}(VSMOW) - 48.635 \quad (1)$

Based on this relationship between drinking water δ^{18} O and apatite carbonate the estimated environmental water values in Harappa would be–7.39 ± 1.55 ‰ with a minimum of–12.27‰ and a maximum of–4.08‰ at Harappa. However, ~80% of the samples are between–6 to–10‰ which is the seasonal variation of the δ^{18} O for the river Ravi–11.2‰ for summer and–6‰ for winter seasons (Ajaz & Jan, 2002). Similarly in Sanauli, the environmental water estimated



Fig. 2— δ^{13} C vs δ^{18} O of plot of the retrieved data of modern human dental isotopes from Mexico, USA and Bulgaria. Note that the Southeast Asian samples show lower δ^{13} C and followed by Bulgaria and subsequently by USA and Mexico.

would be -6.60 ± 1.35 ‰, -10.31 and -2.27. Here ~86% of the samples are between -5 to -9% which is similar to the seasonal variation of the δ^{18} O for the river Yamuna which is -6.2 to -10.3% (Dalai *et al.*, 2002). Whereas, in Farmana the average δ^{18} O is $-4.99 \pm 1.29\%$ with a minimum of -7.68%and a maximum -2.93% where ~88% of the samples shown in Fig. 2 are between -3 to -7% which is enriched compared to Sanauli and Harappa due to the absence of any riverine source of drinking water indicating stored water for drinking.

CONCLUSION

The study conducted on the remains of humans buried in Harappa, Sanauli and Farmana burials aimed to determine the average diet and water intake of the people living in the region. The findings indicate that millets or other C_4 crops were consumed by individuals in the mortuary populations of Sanauli and Harappa, but millets contributed significantly to diet at Farmana. This can be inferred from the presence of these crops in the archaeological assemblage and the fact that millets were the most commonly utilized crop in the region.

Moreover, the study also revealed that the people of Harappa ingested water from rivers such as Ravi. This suggests that these rivers played a crucial role in providing water to the local population and supporting their livelihoods. The utilization of river water for drinking purposes also sheds light on the resourcefulness of the Harappan people in adapting to the environmental conditions of the region. The people of Sanauli ingested water from rivers such as the river Yamuna. People of Farmana may have stored water for drinking.

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