

‘THERE’S NO PLACE LIKE HOME’—NO ISOTOPIC EVIDENCE FOR MOBILITY AT THE EARLY BRONZE AGE CEMETERY OF SINGEN, GERMANY*

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The Early Bronze Age necropolis of Singen (Hohentwiel), located near Lake Constance, represents a population from a period of technological transition in southwestern Germany. The site contains several graves with metal artefacts that originated in other parts of Central and Western Europe, and therefore these could be interpreted as being the graves of non-local individuals. The purpose of this study was to investigate this possibility through the application of isotopic analysis. The ratios of strontium and oxygen isotopes in human enamel reflect the geological origin of food and drinking water consumed during enamel formation in early life stages. Additionally, the ratio of sulphur isotopes from bone collagen reflects the origin of foods consumed during the last 10–20 years of life of an adult individual. We used these three isotope systems to attempt to identify local and non-local individuals at the site. We found that the isotope ratios of Sr, O and S of the humans were relatively homogeneous and generally correspond to the isotope signature of the local geology, climate and environment. We conclude that the sampled population is of local origin and does not show patterns of individual mobility, even though there is evidence for long-distance trade and exchange of the metal artefacts at this site.

KEYWORDS: BRONZE AGE, MOBILITY, STABLE ISOTOPES, STRONTIUM, OXYGEN, SULPHUR

INTRODUCTION

The Early Bronze Age site of Singen (Hohentwiel) is the largest known Early Bronze Age period (EBA A1) cemetery in southern Germany (Krause 1988; Harding 2000). The site is located in the valley next to the Hohentwiel volcano, a prominent landmark within the hilly landscape of the Hegau region, north-west of Lake Constance. During excavation campaigns in the 1950s, a total of 96 graves were discovered, which can be divided into four or five distinct zones (Fig. 1) and have been interpreted as kin-related groups. Many graves contained elaborate stone settings, and in some cases the distribution of wedging stones indicated the presence of wooden coffins (Krause 1988). Radiocarbon dates of seven human bone samples from the site range in age from approximately 2200 to 2000 cal BC (Krause 1988; Kromer 1988). The overall preservation of organic material at Singen is poor and only the remains of approximately 30 inhumations could be recovered, some of them only represented by bone and tooth fragments. However, in most cases age and sex could still be estimated. This anthropological evidence supports a sex-

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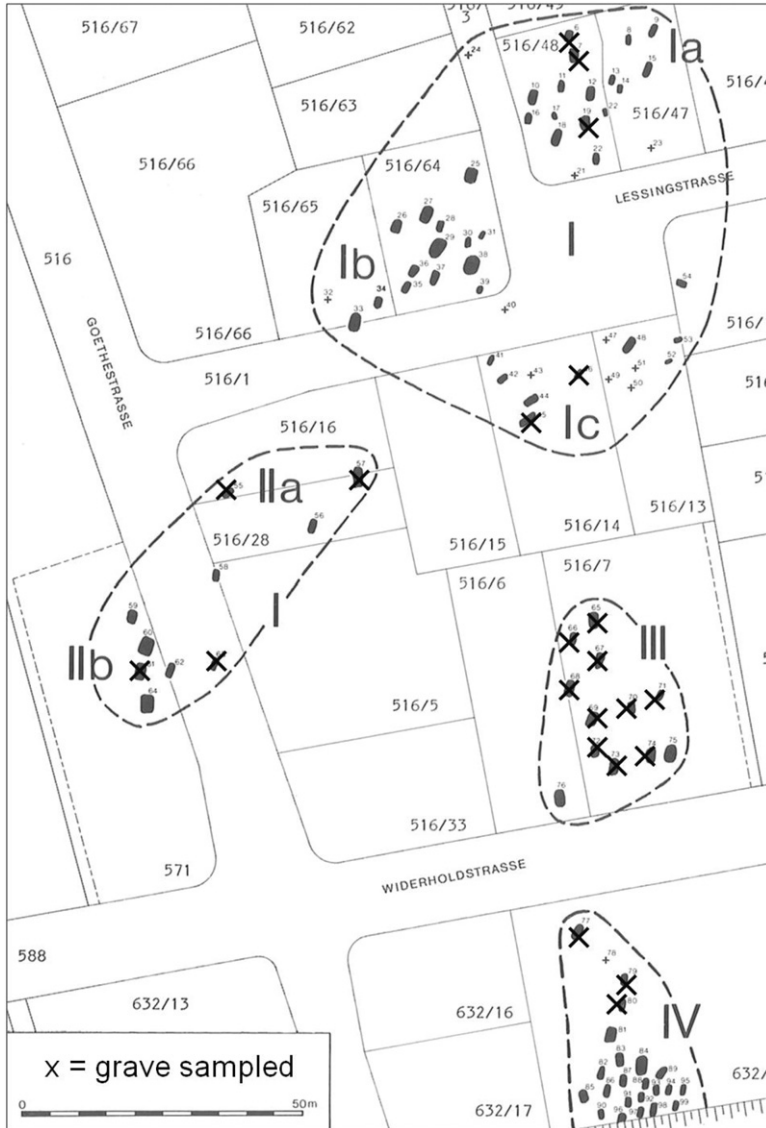


Figure 1 A map of the archaeological site of Singen am Hohentwiel and the graves sampled (grave 101 lies outside the mapped area), modified after Krause (1988).

differentiated burial practice (females oriented south; males oriented north) and a sex-specific distribution of grave goods. Females tended to be buried with awls, pins, a neck ring or bracelets, whereas males were buried with bracelets, pins and a dagger at their waist (Sprenger 1995). The few exceptions to this pattern have brought up speculations as to whether females buried with daggers could be widows taking over male roles in the family or non-local individuals that entered the community by marriage (Harding 2000). The well-preserved and rich assemblage of metal artefacts at the cemetery has become a reference collection for bronze artefact typology for

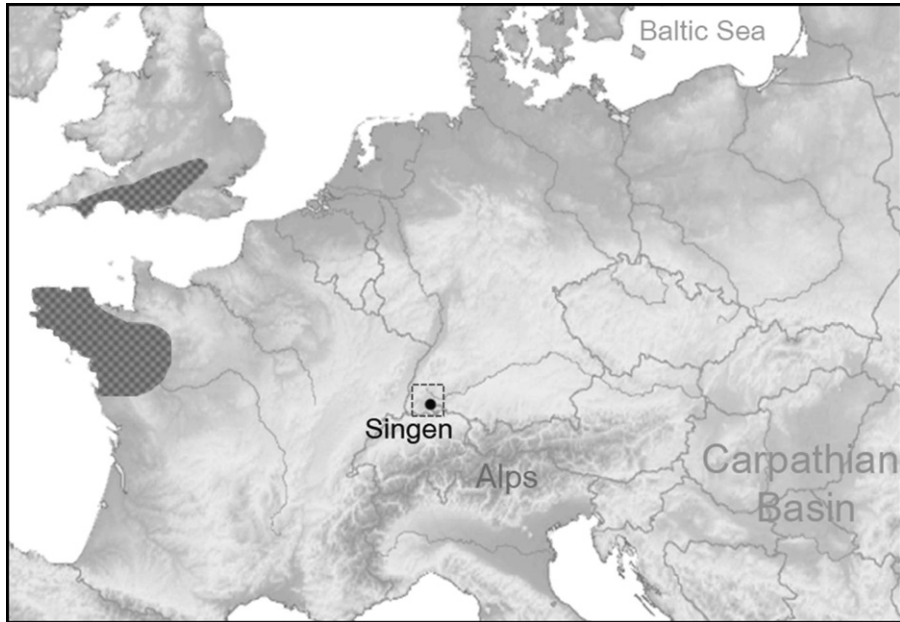


Figure 2 A topographic map of Central Europe. The site and map section used in Figures 3 and 4 are marked with a dashed box. The areas of the 'Atlantic' Early Bronze Age cultures are patterned (after Krause 1988).

the north alpine Bronze Age. The copper alloys found at Singen revealed high levels of the trace elements antimony, nickel, arsenic and silver, and predate the knowledge of alloying with tin. This 'Singen metal', or 'Singen copper', is widely distributed within the European 'Blechkreis' and beyond, from the Western Alps to the Baltic Sea and the Carpathian basin (Harding 2000; Krause 2003; Kienlin and Stöllner 2009). Findings of contemporary flanged axes made of 'Singen copper' in Swiss sites and around Lake Constance have led to the hypothesis that the copper was mined in the Alps, and that the Singen community played an important role in the transfer of this metal, perhaps even controlling its trading north of the lake (Krause 1988; Kienlin and Stöllner 2009). Other specific features at the site of Singen are the four bronze daggers, referred to as the so-called 'Atlantic daggers'. Their style and *pointiliè* decoration resembles the Armorico-British style (type A) from the Wessex Culture in Great Britain (Fig. 2). The same type of dagger is also well known as the Loucè and Rumèdon types in coastal Brittany, France (Krause 1988). Chemical metal analysis strongly supports this assumption and reports high levels of tin, typical for the Atlantic region (Christoforidis and Pernika 1988; Krause 1988). Additionally the surface of all four Singen daggers was treated with arsenic bronze, a procedure commonly found in contemporary daggers from Brittany (Krause 1988).

These various lines of evidence have led to the assumption that the Singen community had far-reaching connections in southern Germany, and possibly even reaching the Atlantic coast or eastern parts of Europe. However, the extent to which these connections required the actual physical mobility of members of the Singen community remained unknown. Did the transfer of metal objects or metallurgical expertise require long-range movement of group members? Or did the trading networks include consolidation and exchange in form of exogamic marriage systems?

The aim of this study was to investigate possible mobility or migration by applying biochemical analysis to the human remains of the Singen cemetery. By analysing different complementary

isotope systems, we sought to gain novel information on whether individuals originated locally or derived from other geographical and geological regions. Moreover, analysis of different tissues can provide isotopic information on different stages in life history, such as childhood and adolescence (tooth enamel), as well as the last 10–20 years before death (bone). Isotope analysis has been applied in various regions and time periods to reconstruct human mobility and diet (Price 1989; Ambrose 1993; Richards *et al.* 2000, 2008; Bentley 2007). Many studies have shown the potential of stable isotope analysis of strontium and oxygen to reveal individual mobility during life history (Evans *et al.* 2006a), or to prove that groups of people migrated due to their lifeways (Price *et al.* 2004) or due to force (Schroeder *et al.* 2009), or that only a certain portion of a population was mobile—for example, due to exogamic traditions (Bentley 2007).

The stable strontium isotope ^{87}Sr forms through radioactive decay of ^{87}Rb in bedrock (Faure and Powell 1972) and is measured in relation to the lighter isotope ^{86}Sr ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$). The isotopic signature of a geological formation is determined by the age of the underlying rock, with older geological units having more radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios. The particular $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature of a geological area enters the biosphere by leaching and weathering and is finally absorbed by plants (Graustein 1989). Animals feeding on these plants will incorporate the ‘local’ $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature in their bones and teeth because of the similar chemical properties of strontium and calcium (Ericson 1985). Tooth enamel has shown to be the best substance for the analysis of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ in archaeology as its compact structure is largely resistant to post-mortem diagenetic alteration and strontium uptake from the burial environment (Budd *et al.* 2000). The same applies to the analysis of stable oxygen isotopes. The ratio between the heavy and light isotope of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) is incorporated in the oxygen bonds of the enamel during formation and reflects the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the local drinking water. Local $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in water are determined by the local geography, climate and corresponding meteoric precipitation (Longinelli 1984). The resulting local $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ratio relates to temperature and coastal proximity, as well as to latitude and altitude (Yurtsever 1975; Gat 1980; Cuntz *et al.* 2002), except if non-local drinking water is largely introduced by rivers or streams. Hence, the combination of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures allows the reconstruction of human mobility and residential patterns (Bentley and Knipper 2005). Tooth enamel is an ideal sampling tissue for this purpose, as it does not change its isotopic composition once it is formed (Humphrey *et al.* 2008). In humans, the anterior teeth and the first molar are formed in the first years of life, whereas the premolars and second molars form in childhood, and third molars may not be completely formed until adolescence (Hillson 1996; Reid and Dean 2006). Therefore, $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in enamel reflect the residence of an individual during early life stages (childhood/adolescence) and does not carry information about the area of residence in adulthood.

Similar to strontium, sulphur isotopes in body tissues are also related to the isotopic signature of the local geology. Sulphur isotopes can be measured in bone collagen, which remodels more or less constantly during life (Hedges *et al.* 2007). Therefore, depending on the sampled bone, sulphur isotopes can be used to trace the provenance of the last years of an individual’s life (Richards *et al.* 2001, 2003). Some bones, however, may reveal much slower turnover rates than others. The bone of the skull for example may not have completely remodelled after childhood (Wild *et al.* 2000; Geyh 2001). Sulphur isotope ratios ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$) in bone collagen strongly correspond to dietary protein sources and give particular insight into whether terrestrial, freshwater or marine foods were preferentially consumed (Richards *et al.* 2003; Privat *et al.* 2007; Nehlich *et al.* 2010; Nehlich *et al.* submitted). Vika (2009) was able to identify immigrants to Bronze Age Thebes by using sulphur isotope analysis. She showed that humans and animals had the same sulphur

isotopic signature, but one individual had a significantly more ^{34}S -depleted isotopic composition, which was concluded to result from non-local food sources: therefore, this individual had immigrated to ancient Thebes.

MATERIALS

We sampled archaeological human bone, dentine and enamel for isotope analyses. Due to limited skeletal preservation at the site, only 29 individuals could be sampled. However, we could sample individuals from all of the four major grave groups in the cemetery (Fig. 1). Unfortunately, three out of four of the burials with the 'Atlantic' daggers (graves 60, 67, 76 and 84) did not contain preserved skeletons for analysis. In total, we sampled bone from 29 burials, yet only 22 of these also contained teeth for sampling. In two sub-adult individuals (graves 6 and 66), we could sample one deciduous and one permanent tooth from the jaw, resulting in a subset of 24 tooth enamel samples in this study. All information on age and sex (Table 1) was taken from Gerhardt (1964), with some additions by J. Wahl (Krause 1988).

For the analysis of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, we sampled tooth enamel because enamel reflects biogenic strontium and oxygen incorporated during tooth formation and is resistant to contaminations due to its dense structure (Budd *et al.* 2000; Hoppe *et al.* 2003). We also randomly sampled the dentine of eight individuals as a proxy for local soluble strontium in the burial environment, as $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values in dentine are probably affected by diagenetic uptake of soil-derived strontium (Budd *et al.* 2000).

We were only able to measure the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of nine enamel samples due to sampling, funding and measurement limitations. The aim of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analysis was to find further evidence of local or non-local origin for those individuals that yielded the most heterogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures in our sample set, in comparison to a number of individuals with presumably very 'local' $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signals. For measurement of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ we therefore selected those samples that showed the 'highest' (graves 65, 74 and 77) and 'lowest' (graves 55, 73 and 80) $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values, as well as samples that revealed 'intermediate/local' $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values (graves 19, 57 and 70).

Unfortunately, animal bones or teeth for comparison were not recovered at the site of Singen. However, stable isotope ratios of associated fauna are a valuable proxy for the bioavailability of strontium, oxygen and sulphur in a given environment (Price *et al.* 2002; Bentley and Knipper 2005; Craig *et al.* 2006). Alternative sampling of animal bones from several other Bronze Age sites in the proximity of Singen was also not possible, because material was not accessible in the depots of the State Office for Heritage Management and Archaeology, Konstanz, Germany.

To assess the bioavailable strontium isotope ratios of the region between Lake Constance and the southern Black Forest, we collected a variety of modern snail shells and plants in June 2009 (Fig. 3). Snails have a limited range of movement and are therefore an ideal candidate to detect the local variability in bioavailable strontium (Price *et al.* 2002; Evans *et al.* 2010). Strontium is deposited in the shell, as it substitutes for calcium, which is the main component of snail shells (Rosenthal *et al.* 1965). Plant strontium values reflect the mobile strontium in the local soil at different root depths, as well as the strontium introduced by rainwater and atmospheric dust (Evans *et al.* 2009). During field sampling, the different major geological formations in the region were located using geological mapping information (LGRB maps dGk25s: 7916 Villingen-Schwenningen-West, 8218 Gottmadingen, 8219 Singen [Hohentwiel], by the Landesamt für Geologie, Rohstoffe und Bergbau, Freiburg). In each geological unit, we selected elevated forest patches where anthropogenic contamination (e.g., fertilizers or traffic pollution) is unlikely. At each sampling location (recorded using GPS), snail shells were collected alongside botanical

Table 1 Individual data (age, sex, bone/tooth sampled), collagen quality criteria (S wt%, C:S, N:S, % collagen) and isotope data ($\delta^{14}\text{C}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) for each grave: the radiocarbon dates are reported after Krause (1988)

Grave number	^{14}C cal bc	Old number	Age	Sex	Bone	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	S (wt%)	C:S	N:S	% collagen	Tooth	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ enamel	Sr (ppm)	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ dentine	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ enamel	$\pm 1\sigma$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ dw
6		55/25	Infans	?	Long bone	1.0	0.23	480	149	5.27	Dec. molar	0.70833	40				
6			?	?							Perm. M1	0.70836	47				
7	2140–1985	55/24	Adult	f?							M1	0.70853	21				
8		55/23	?	?	Fragment												
12		55/18	Infans II	?	Fragment	-0.6	0.21	562	165	4.67	M3	0.70825	38	0.70815	15.2	0.43	-12.17
19	2280–2050	55/13	Infans II	?	Long bone	1.7	0.19	592	191	8.44							
33		52/27	?	?	Fragment	0.6	0.20	568	162	2.01							
45		51/11	Adult	?	Rib	2.2	0.22	494	147	3.72	M1	0.70853	48				
46		51/6	Infans II	?	Long bone	1.5	0.21	528	166	9.41	M1	0.70829	30				
55		53/22	Adult	m	Skull						Canine	0.70784	53		16.6	0.11	-9.13
57		53/18	Adult	f	Long bone	0.9	0.24	463	144	5.37	M3	0.70821	78	0.70825	15.7	0.35	-11.09
61		58/2	Adult	?	Long bone	1.2	0.24	435	130	4.86	Premolar	0.70808	34	0.70868			
63		52/5	Adult	m	Rib	1.0	0.22	527	156	6.31	M3	0.70791	41	0.70773			
65	2460–2150	53/4	Adult	f	Long bone	-0.1	0.15	0	0	3.65	M3	0.70940	44		15.3	0.19	-11.96
66		52/24	Infans	?	Long bone						Dec. molar	0.70877	40				
66											Perm. M1	0.70852	24	0.70840			
68	2140–1975	52/19	Adult	m	Long bone	3.4	0.25	364	106	2.26	Premolar	0.70847	38				
69		52/17	Adult	m?	Long bone	2.3	0.25	437	128	3.53							
70	2280–2135	52/14	Adult	m	Long bone	0.9	0.21	489	147	3.82	M2/M3	0.70850	21		15.8	0.00	-10.87
71		52/15	Adult	m	Long bone	1.0	0.26	372	110	4.76	Incisor	0.70804	94				
72		52/2a	?	?	Rib	0.6	0.22	464	145	6.38	Premolar	0.70805	41				
73		52/3	Adult	m	Skull	1.3	0.22	509	148	4.06	Canine	0.70740	39		15.3	0.09	-11.96
74	2135–1950	52/6	Adult	f	Long bone	0.6	0.15	462	145	5.78	Canine	0.70908	29		13.8	0.96	-15.22
77		50/19	Adult	?	Long bone	2.8	0.24	452	108	2.45	M2	0.70906	34	0.70842			
79	2140–1985	50/15	Adult	?	Long bone	1.0	0.19	581	178	5.56	M1	0.70877	40		16.0	0.50	-10.43
80	2175–1985	50/16	Adult	f	Fragment	2.1	0.21	452	132	1.82	Premolar	0.70799	66	0.70817	15.9	0.04	-10.65
82		50/21	Infans	?	Fragment	0.1	0.21	540	159	4.33							
86		50/20	?	?	Fragment												
87		50/18	?	?	Skull	1.7	0.27	432	132	4.42	M1	0.70845	95				
101		59/1	Adult	m	Skull						M1	0.70834	47	0.70834			
67*		52/22	Adult	m	Skull	1.4	0.26	415	120	2.39	M1						

*This grave contained an 'Atlantic' dagger.

Infans = 1–13 years old, infans II = 6–13 years old; m = male, f = female, ? = sex undetermined; Dec. molar = deciduous molar, Perm. M1 = permanent first molar.

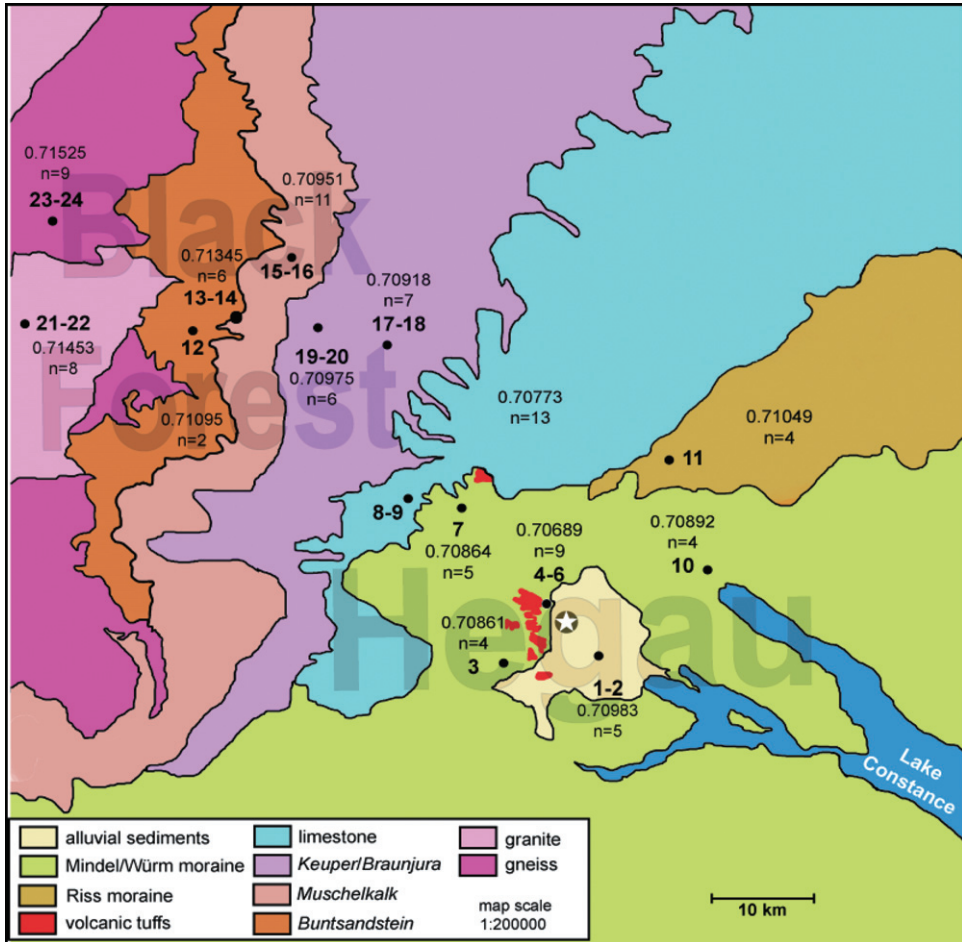


Figure 3 A geological map of the study area in southwestern Germany. The archaeological site of Singen is marked with a star. The black dots mark the sites of environmental sampling. Information on the mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value and the number of samples are reported for each sampling location: Überlingen am Ried I–II (1–2), Gottmadingen (3), Hohentwiel I–III (4–6), Zimmerholz (7), Aulfingen (8–9), Espasingen (10), Hecheln (11), Pfaffenweiler (12), Magdalenenberg (13–14), Weilersbach (15–16), Tuningen (17–18), Hochemmingen (19–20), Furtwangen (21–22) and Triberg (23–24).

samples from a deep-rooting deciduous tree, a shallower-rooted shrub and a shallow-rooted terrestrial herb. We did not sample modern environmental samples for oxygen and sulphur, because $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values may vary through time according to climate changes, and because modern samples for $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ are probably affected by anthropogenic sulphur pollutants (Krouse *et al.* 1991).

METHODS

Strontium was extracted and purified from tooth enamel and dentine as well as plants and snail shells following the ion exchange method outlined by Deniel and Pin (2001) at the clean laboratory and MC–ICP–MS facility at the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology in Leipzig, Germany (Richards *et al.* 2008). First, tooth samples were manually cleaned with a

dental drill to remove superficial contaminations. Then, after cutting a chip of the tooth crown, the enamel was mechanically separated from attached dentine. The opposite procedure was applied to dentine samples, where the attached enamel was removed. The pieces of enamel and dentine were then cleaned by rinsing and in an ultrasonic bath with deionized water. Samples were transferred to the clean laboratory, rinsed in ultrapure acetone and dried overnight. Subsequently ~10–20 mg of enamel or dentine was weighed into clean Teflon beakers and digested in 1 ml of 14.3M HNO₃ on a hotplate (120°C).

Snail shells were cleaned by repeated rinsing (and ultrasonic cleaning) with deionized water to remove attached sediments. Then each sample (1–4 g) of snail shell or plant leaves was combusted at 800°C in clean ceramic beakers for 12 h. The remaining ash was transferred to the clean laboratory, where 10–50 mg of ash was weighed into clean Teflon beakers and digested in 1–2 ml of 14.3M HNO₃ on a hotplate (120°C).

The dissolved samples of enamel, dentine and ash were evaporated to dryness and were combined with 1 ml of 3M HNO₃ before being loaded on clean, pre-conditioned 2 ml columns containing cleaned Sr-specTM resin (EiChrom, Darien, IL, USA). Samples were reloaded three times to maximize the amount of strontium attached to the resin. After several washes with 3M HNO₃, the strontium was eluted from the resin with ultrapure deionized water into clean Teflon beakers and dried down on a hotplate. The remaining samples, again re-dissolved in 3% HNO₃, were then ready for the measurement parallel to the standards SRM 987 and SRM 1486, as well as one beaker blank per run, in a Thermo Fisher NeptuneTM MC-ICP-MS instrument (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Dreieich, Germany).

For the analysis of δ¹⁸O, we selected nine individuals. We extracted PO₄ radicals out of enamel bioapatite by applying the modified silver phosphate precipitation method (O'Neil *et al.* 1994; Dettmann *et al.* 2001). First, 10–15 mg of tooth enamel was cut from the tooth crown, manually cleaned with a dental drill and then ground to fine powder. The sample was then dissolved in 1 ml of 2M HF. After 24 h, the samples were centrifuged and the solution containing the phosphate was transferred into a new tube, where 300 µl of NH₄OH was added to buffer the HF. Several drops of BTB (Bromothymol blue) were previously added to check the pH (<7). When the sample was neutral, ~700 µl of 2M AgNO₃ was added. Subsequently, the silver phosphate crystals precipitated corresponding to the decrease in pH, while NH₃ was discharged from the solution. The resulting residue, consisting of Ag₃PO₄ crystals of light yellow colour, was centrifuged and rinsed with deionized water four times. The residue was then dried down in a freeze dryer. The measurement of the Ag₃PO₄ samples in duplicates was conducted in the Department for Hydrology at the Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research—UFZ, Halle, Germany. After weighing ~700 µg of Ag₃PO₄ into silver capsules, ~0.5 mg of graphite was added (Vennemann *et al.* 2002). The capsules were then combusted to CO in a HekaTech high-temperature combustion oven with helium carrier gas at 1450°C. The CO was led via a Thermo Finnigan ConFlow III into a Thermo Finnigan DeltaXLplus IRMS (Thermo-Finnigan®, Bremen, Germany) for isotope analysis. Measurement precision was controlled using two duplicates of the commonly accepted NBS 120c standard, as well as external (Durham horse enamel) and internal laboratory standards.

To analyse the sulphur isotope ratios, we extracted collagen from 29 human bone samples. The collagen extraction followed a modified Longin method (Longin 1971; Brown *et al.* 1988; Collins and Galley 1998). Bone samples were cleaned by air abrasion and then demineralized in 0.5M HCl for several weeks at 4°C, with acid changes every few days. Demineralized samples were then rinsed three times with deionized water and gelatinized at 70°C in a solution of pH 3 for 48 h. The insoluble fraction was first filtered with a 5µm EZEE^(c) filter, and then filtered again using Amicon^(c) ultra filters (>30 kDa). The purified solution was frozen and freeze dried for 48 h.

Finally, 10 mg of dried collagen sample was weighed into tin capsules. The measurement was performed in duplicate in a HekaTech EuroVector coupled to a Delta V plus mass spectrometer (Thermo-Finnigan®, Bremen, Germany) at the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology in Leipzig, Germany.

RESULTS

Strontium

The repeated $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ measurement of the standard SRM 987 resulted in an average value of 0.710268 ± 0.000026 (2σ , $n = 24$) and was subsequently corrected to the accepted value of 0.710240 ± 0.00004 (Terakado *et al.* 1988; Johnson *et al.* 1990). Total procedural blanks, one for each batch of 13 samples, were considered negligible. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ measured in 24 enamel samples ranged from 0.70740 to 0.70940, with a mean of 0.70838 ± 0.00044 (1σ). This mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value for enamel is almost identical to the mean value of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ measured in the dentine samples (0.70827 ± 0.00028 , 1σ , $n = 8$), which probably reflects the soil $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature. Finally, the deciduous and permanent molars of two infants revealed $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio pairs that were almost identical (grave 6, 0.70833 and 0.70836; grave 66, 0.70877 and 0.70853—for further details, see Table 1). Environmental samples were obtained from 24 sampling sites in 11 geological units, reaching from the Swiss/German border south of the site of Singen, to approximately 70 km north-west in the southern Black Forest (Fig. 3). The mean values as well as more details on sampling sites for each geological unit are presented in Table 2.

Oxygen

Oxygen isotope ratios are reported relative to the international standard VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water). The measurement error calculated from the standard materials was less than 0.6‰. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values measured in the NBS 120c standards were $21.4 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ and $21.8 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$ (1σ), which is in agreement with a value of $21.7 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$ reported for NBS 120c from other laboratories (summarized in Chenery *et al.* 2010). The duplicate measurement of an external laboratory standard (Durham horse enamel) yielded values of $14.7 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$ and $14.6 \pm 0.6\text{‰}$ (1σ). The average reproducibility of the analysis of human enamel was better than $0.30 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$ (1σ). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ratios measured in the nine human enamel samples ranged from 13.8‰ to 16.6‰, with a mean of 15.5‰ (± 0.8 , 1σ , $n = 9$).

Sulphur

We extracted sufficient amounts of collagen (>9 mg) for sulphur isotope analysis out of 23 human bone samples. Six bone samples had insufficient collagen yield for sulphur isotope analysis. The total amounts of extracted collagen (% collagen), atomic ratios (C : S, N : S) and measures of the sulphur weight per cent (S wt%) are presented in Table 1. All 23 samples meet the recommended quality criteria for collagen (DeNiro 1985; Ambrose 1990). The ratios of C : S and N : S meet the recommended values of 600 ± 300 and 200 ± 100 , respectively, and the weight per cent of sulphur in the collagen ranges between 0.15 and 0.35 (Nehlich and Richards 2009). The analytical error, calculated from repeated analysis of internal and international standards, was less than $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{34}\text{S}$. The sulphur isotope ratios, scaled against the standard V-CDT, measured in human collagen ranged from -0.6‰ to $+3.4\text{‰}$ (mean $+1.2 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$, 1σ).

[Correction to the value of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ measurement of SRM 987 added on the 04th of June 2012 after first online publication on the 15th of December 2011.]

Table 2 Details of the environmental sampling in the Hegau and Black Forest regions: the sampling sites are named after the neighbouring villages, and for each sampling location, the type of sample, the species and GPS coordinates are reported next to a description of the geological conditions and the results of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ analysis

No.	Site	Sample	Species	GPS coordinates (UTM 32)	Geology	Sample (mg)	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	Sr conc. (ppm)
1a	Überlingen am Ried I	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	T 0491659	Alluvial sediments	39	0.70947	166
1b		Herb	Wild strawberry			30	0.70979	831
1c		Bush	Beech			4	0.71087	1060
1d		Tree	Broadleaf			17	0.71036	359
2a	Überlingen am Ried II	Snail	Snail	T 0491901	Alluvial sediments	25	0.70865	240
						Mean	0.70983	
						s.d.	0.00085	
3a	Gottmadingen	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	T 0483490	Moraine (Mindel glacial)	37	0.70823	210
3b		Herb	Grass			36	0.70849	84
3c		Bush	Young ash			30	0.70820	240
3d		Tree	Beech			25	0.70950	564
						Mean	0.70861	
						s.d.	0.00061	
4a	Hohentwiel I	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	T 0486328	Tuffs (foot of volcano)	27	0.70585	432
4b		Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>			45	0.70570	465
4c		Herb	Ivy			29	0.70616	841
4d		Bush	Elder			31	0.70741	251
4e	Tree	Chestnut	43	0.70621	329			
5a	Hohentwiel II	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	T 0486333	Tuffs (flank of volcano)	32	0.70763	437
5b		Herb	Dandelion			44	0.70754	191
5c	Hohentwiel III	Bush	Hazelnut	T 0486433	Tuffs, phonolith (top of volcano)	31	0.70822	262
6		Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>			35	0.70733	217
						Mean	0.70689	
						s.d.	0.00091	

Table 2 (Continued)

No.	Site	Sample	Species	GPS coordinates (UTM 32)	Geology	Sample (mg)	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	Sr conc. (ppm)		
7a	Zimmerholz	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	T 0479491	Molasse	27	0.70793	85		
7b		Snail	<i>Perforatella umbrosa</i>			25	0.70856	150		
7c		Herb	Woodruff			24	0.70882	134		
7d		Bush	Fern			33	0.70899	118		
7e		Tree	Beech			24	0.70892	141		
						Mean	0.70864			
						s.d.	0.00043			
8a	Aulfingen I	Snail	<i>Perforatella incarnata</i>	T 0473506	Limestone	34	0.70726	166		
8a		Snail	<i>Perforatella umbrosa</i>			29	0.70738	127		
8a		Snail	<i>Trichia</i>			38	0.70735	155		
8b		Herb	Dandelion			23	0.70868	129		
8c		Bush	Elder			30	0.70866	439		
8d		Tree	Ash			31	0.70797	246		
9a		Aulfingen II	Snail	<i>Perforatella incarnata</i>		T 0473597	Limestone	20	0.70732	222
9b			Snail	<i>Perforatella umbrosa</i>				26	0.70736	158
9c	Snail		<i>Perforatella incarnata</i>		43	0.70731		179		
9d	Snail		<i>Helix pomatia</i>		32	0.70728		157		
9e	Herb		Dandelion		33	0.70816		102		
9f	Bush		Hazelnut		28	0.70783		202		
9g	Tree		Beech		28	0.70785		92		
						Mean		0.70773		
					s.d.	0.00052				
10a	Espasingen	Snail	Two small snails	T 0500938	Moraine (Wirm glacial)	37	0.70861	140		
10b		Herb	Grass			43	0.70897	29		
10c		Bush	Hazelnut			36	0.70896	287		
10d		Tree	Oak			34	0.70914	326		
						Mean	0.70892			
						s.d.	0.00022			

11a	Hecheln	Insect	Dung beetle	T 0498697	5305654	Moraine (Rib glacial)	10	0.71118	115
11b		Herb	Dandelion				31	0.70891	157
11c		Bush	Elder				45	0.71052	230
11d		Tree	Beech				46	0.71135	144
							Mean	0.71049	
							s.d.	0.00111	
12a	Pfaffenweiler	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0455955	5321586	<i>Buntsandstein</i>	45	0.71035	193
12b		Herb	Wild strawberry					Machine error	
12c		Bush	Elder					Machine error	
12d		Tree	Ash				45	0.71154	234
							Mean	0.71095	
							s.d.	0.00084	
13a	Magdalenenberg, site	Herb	Grass	U 0458595	5321374	<i>Buntsandstein</i>	41	0.71359	128
13b		Bush	Rose hip				37	0.71488	31
13c		Tree	Oak				34	0.71143	221
14a	Magdalenenberg, forest	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0458820	5321374	<i>Buntsandstein</i>	12	0.71214	171
14b		Herb	Clover				15	0.71375	317
14c		Herb II	Fern				20	0.71489	167
14d		Tree	Beech				Mean	0.71345	
							s.d.	0.00141	
15a	Weilersbach I	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0462087	5326612	<i>Muschelkalk</i>	58	0.71175	123
15b		Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>				31	0.70873	146
15c		Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>				37	0.70887	101
15d		Herb	Clover				27	0.70965	146
15e		Bush	Rowan				37	0.70890	397

Table 2 (Continued)

No.	Site	Sample	Species	GPS coordinates (UTM 32)	Geology	Sample (mg)	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	Sr conc. (ppm)
15f		Tree	Maple			29	0.70928	180
16a	Weilersbach II	Snail	<i>Perforatella incarnata</i>	U 0463229	Muschelkalk	4	0.70898	118
16b		Snail	<i>Perforatella incarnata</i>	5327538		31	0.70876	119
16c		Herb	Wild strawberry			51	0.71055	175
16d		Bush	Elder			28	0.70938	303
16e		Tree	Beech			34	0.70973	91
						Mean	0.70951	
						s.d.	0.00092	
17a	Tuningen I	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	U 0471959	Braunjura	30	0.70901	285
17b		Herb	Dandelion	5319218		37	0.70882	133
17c		Bush	Hazelnut			45	0.70939	124
18a	Tuningen II	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	U 0472265	Braunjura	4	0.70863	174
18b		Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>			3	0.70830	156
18c		Herb	Strawberry			39	0.70871	178
18d		Tree	Maple			30	0.71143	355
						Mean	0.70918	
						s.d.	0.00105	
19a	Hochemmingen I	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	U 0466814	Keuper	3	0.70893	139
19b		Herb	Wild strawberry	5320049		37	0.70951	340
19c		Bush	Elder			54	0.70938	259
19d		Bush	Hazelnut			53	0.70962	242
20a	Hochemmingen II	Snail	<i>Helix pomatia</i>	U 0466369	Keuper	4	0.71059	110
20b		Tree	Beech	5320144		29	0.71046	164
						Mean	0.70975	
						s.d.	0.00065	

21a	Furtwangen I	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0440858	5320973	Gneiss, higher altitude	33	0.71502	85
21b		Herb	Grass				29	0.71614	68
21c		Bush	Rowan				42	0.71865	75
21d		Tree	Beech				41	0.71877	59
22a	Furtwangen II	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0441246	5321486	Gneiss, foothills/ floodplain	34	0.71272	221
22b		Herb	Dandelion				27	0.71033	419
22c		Bush	Raspberry				57	0.71233	235
22d		Tree	Apple tree				28	0.71228	718
							Mean	0.71453	
							s.d.	0.00313	
23a	Triberg I	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0442326	5330273	Granite	20	0.71532	278
23b		Herb	Fern				13	0.71564	339
23c		Bush	Raspberry				40	0.71421	116
23d		Tree	Beech				22	0.71677	267
23e		Bush	Elder				15	0.71518	406
24a	Triberg II	Snail	<i>Cepaea hortensis</i>	U 0442237	5330302	Granite	7	0.71318	179
24b		Herb	Fern				22	0.71156	80
24c		Bush	Elder				56	0.71346	188
24d		Tree	Beech				29	0.72190	343
							Mean	0.71525	
							s.d.	0.00293	

DISCUSSION

Environmental samples

Most of the environmental background samples had $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values that mainly reflected the expected Sr isotope values of the underlying bedrock, while a number of environmental samples had Sr ratios that were outside of the expected values. The Hegau region (sample locations 1–11) west of Lake Constance is the result of the formation and modification of the Alps. The region is dominated by alluvial sediments (1–2), molasses (7) and moraines from different glacial periods (3, 10–11). Except for the volcanic tuffs (4–6), these sediments revealed consistent $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures with an average of $0.70919 (\pm 0.00098, 1\sigma, n = 22)$, reflecting relatively young geological formations. The alluvial sediments surrounding the site of Singen were sampled at Überlingen am Ried (1–2) and revealed values of $0.70983 (\pm 0.00085, 1\sigma, n = 5)$, similar to those measured in biological samples from alluvial sediments by Price *et al.* (2003). However, it is important to note that the sample location of Überlingen am Ried is dominated by Holocene sediments superposed on the Pleistocene gravels. This stratigraphy probably caused slightly more radiogenic values in the deep-rooting trees of this subset (1c and 1d), whereas the snails (1a and 2a) seem to have sourced less radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$, which is more representative for the more recent overlying sediments at Überlingen am Ried. The present-day city of Singen itself is located in the alluvial sediments (Figs 3 and 4), while the burial site of Singen itself is probably partly covered by smaller extensions of the Würm moraine (represented by sample location 10) and therefore has also been influenced by strontium from the moraine. The Würm moraine itself had a slightly lower mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature of $0.70892 (\pm 0.00022, 1\sigma, n = 4)$, which matches well with the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios that we measured in the human dentine ($0.70827 \pm 0.00028, 1\sigma, n = 8$).

The lowlands of the Hegau are interrupted by very small scale volcanic outcrops; for example, the Hohentwiel volcano (4–6) west of the city of Singen. Samples from this volcano revealed the lowest $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values measured in this study. Here, the three different sample locations at the volcano demonstrate a range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values at one single geological site: probably due to weathering and leaching of the rock, the ‘lowest’ values were measured in biosphere samples from the foot of the volcano (4a–e), with a mean of $0.70628 (\pm 0.00067, 1\sigma, n = 5)$. Slightly higher values (mean $0.70767 \pm 0.00038, 1\sigma, n = 4$) were measured at the volcano’s flank (5) and top (6), which are dominated by phonolite rocks.

A strip of Late Jurassic limestone bordering the Hegau to the west revealed a mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of $0.70773 (\pm 0.00052, 1\sigma, n = 13)$ for the sample location Aulfingen (8–9). At Aulfingen, we see only a small variation in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ among the 13 different samples, indicating that we probably sampled biological materials representative of the underlying geology. Even though the sampled forest patch at Aulfingen may also contain small outcrops of molasse, the values measured here are similar to those reported for Jurassic deposits elsewhere (Horn *et al.* 1985; Price *et al.* 2004). Further north/north-west of the Hegau region, the lithostratigraphy of the landscape changes to the Middle Jurassic *Braunjura* and *Keuper* strata (17–20) of the Neckar valley, which had a mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of $0.70944 (\pm 0.00090, 1\sigma, n = 13)$. One maple tree (18d) in the *Braunjura* at Tuningen revealed an unusual radiogenic value of 0.71143, for which we have no explanation, as the geology in this area is very homogeneous. If the result from this tree is excluded, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values measured in the remaining 12 samples range from 0.70830 to 0.71059, resembling those reported by Bentley and colleagues (Horn, pers. comm., in Bentley *et al.* 2003). Further westwards are the foothills of the Black Forest, with the characteristic *Muschelkalk* and *Buntsandstein* deposits. In the uniform *Muschelkalk* area at Weilersbach (15–16), we found very variable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$

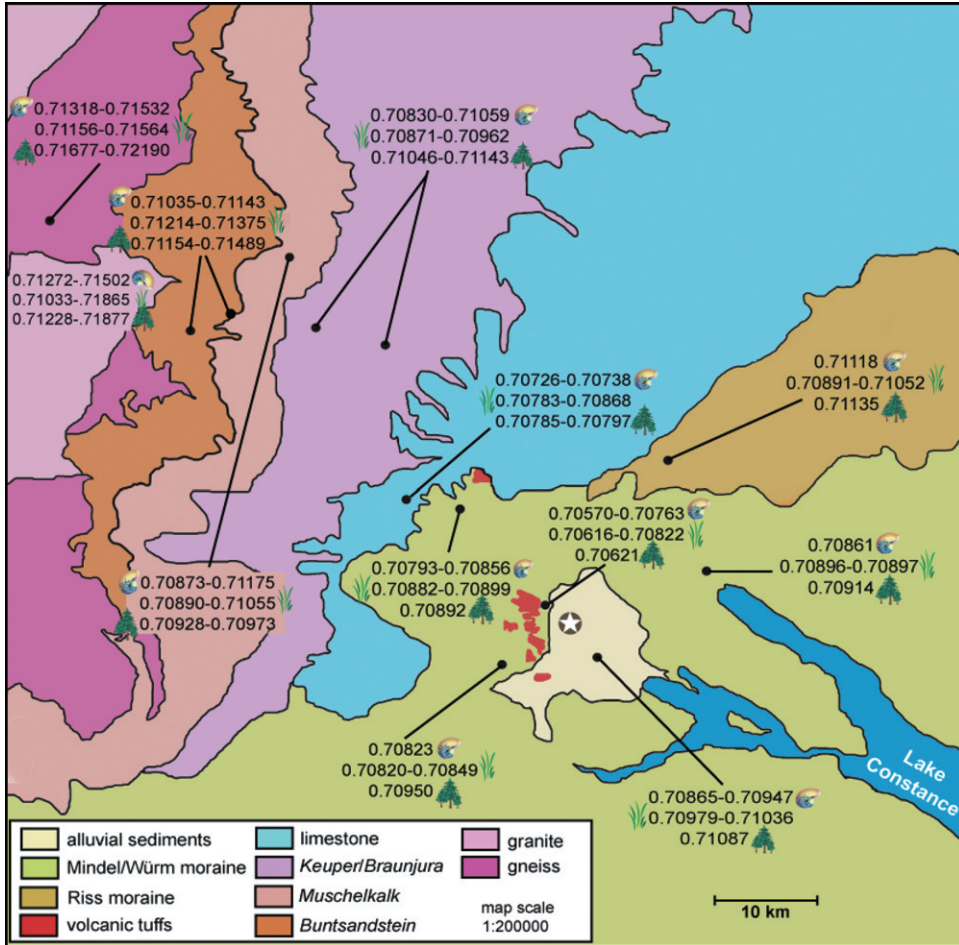


Figure 4 A geological map of the study area in southwestern Germany, with the related range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios measured in snail shells, herbs/shrubs and trees, as indicated by the accompanying symbols.

values, ranging from 0.70873 to 0.71175. Strontium isotope data reported for the *Muschelkalk* in south-west Germany range broadly between 0.708 and 0.709 (Price *et al.* 2003). The data from Weilersbach I (15) suggests that data measured in the plants and the two large snails (*Helix pomatia*) are representative for the *Muschelkalk*, whereas the more radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of 0.71175 measured in the white-lipped snail (15a) is probably due to Sr contamination, as the snail could possibly have been feeding on fertilized agricultural fields that are located several hundred metres away from the sampling spot. At Weilersbach II (16), however, the highest value of 0.71055 is measured in a wild strawberry (16c), while the four remaining samples of snails and deeper-rooting plants reveal a lower mean value of 0.70921 ± 0.00042 (1σ). It is possible that the strawberry was growing close to the forest path (which are often paved with non-local sediments) and may therefore not be representative. If these two samples (15a and 16c) are excluded, the range is 0.70873–0.70973 and the mean is 0.70914 (± 0.00038 , 1σ , $n = 9$) for the *Muschelkalk* at Weilersbach, which is in agreement with results reported in previous studies (Price *et al.* 2003).

The *Buntsandstein*, a red sandstone of the Black Forest, was sampled in two locations (12 and 13–14), which revealed distinct $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures. For Pfaffenweiler (12), a snail and a tree were measured, resulting in a mean of $0.71095 (\pm 0.00084, 1\sigma, n = 2)$. Thus, the values measured for the archaeological site of Magdalenenberg (13) and the adjoining ‘Laible’ forest patch (14) are much more radiogenic. Magdalenenberg is located on a small accumulation of *Buntsandstein*, which had pushed through the *Muschelkalk* bedrock and formed a small hill. Contamination of the soil by leached fertilizers appears unlikely, as the sampling loci are elevated relative to the surrounding fields. The average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature measured for Magdalenenberg is $0.71345 (\pm 0.00141, 1\sigma, n = 6)$. The range of values measured at Pfaffenweiler and Magdalenenberg compares well to those reported for *Buntsandstein* bedrock (Horwath 2000; Bentley *et al.* 2003; Price *et al.* 2003), but exceeds the values measured in the biosphere (Price *et al.* 2003). Much older geological units with even higher $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values for the biosphere appear approximately 40 km north-west of the site of Singen in the more radiogenic gneiss (mean 0.71453 ± 0.00313 $1\sigma, n = 8$) and granite bedrocks (0.71525 ± 0.00293 $1\sigma, n = 9$) of the Black Forest, with values similar to those reported for the bedrocks’ isotope signatures (Baumann and Hofmann 1988; Price *et al.* 2003). At the sampling location of Furtwangen, a region strongly dominated by gneiss bedrock, we sampled in two locations, one at higher altitudes (21), and one in the foothills next to a small stream (22). The higher-altitude sample location had much more radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures ranging from 0.71502 to 0.71877 and with a mean of $0.71715 (\pm 0.00186, 1\sigma, n = 4)$, which can be expected from older metamorphic rocks (Baumann and Hofmann 1988). In the foothills of the gneiss, however, we measured much lower $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values (mean $0.71192, \pm 0.00107$ $1\sigma, n = 4$), which are less representative for gneiss. We suggest that we sampled a very small scale geological outcrop of a much younger geological stratum, which is probably caused by the small stream and is not marked on the geological maps. In the granite mountainous region above the waterfall of Triberg (23–24), we gained the highest $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of our biosphere sampling. This value was measured in the leaves of a deep-rooting tree (24d with 0.72190), indicating that much of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ utilized by the tree derived almost directly from the underlying granite rock. More shallow-rooting plants, on the other hand, revealed much lower values, suggesting a more mixed sourcing for $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$.

The critical aspect of the application of strontium isotope analysis of archaeological remains is to determine which isotope signature is local and which is not (Bentley *et al.* 2004; Budd *et al.* 2004). In this study, we mapped the landscape surrounding the archaeological study site to reveal the local and the more remote $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures. We found a quite homogeneous isotopic pattern for the site and the surrounding area of approximately 20 km, if the small-scale volcanic tuffs are excluded (Figs 3, 4 and 5). Only the Hohentwiel volcano featured less radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values (0.70570–0.70822), yet we can exclude the possibility that the growing of crops on the steep volcanic slopes was relevant for the local subsistence agriculture, despite the fact that volcanic tuffs seem to have been relevant as pastures for livestock in the Neolithic (see below). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature of the landscape becomes significantly more radiogenic 40 km north-west of the site of Singen, in the *Buntsandstein* and the older rocks of the gneiss and granite.

Strontium isotope signatures in human enamel

Although the cemetery of Singen was used over a time period of more than 200 years, the values that we measured in the human enamel appear quite homogeneous. We suggest that the overall variation in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of 0.02000 within the 24 enamel samples can be explained by the consumption of plants and animals from local geologies close to the site. Additionally, none of the Singen individuals featured $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios higher than 0.70940, and hence none showed clear

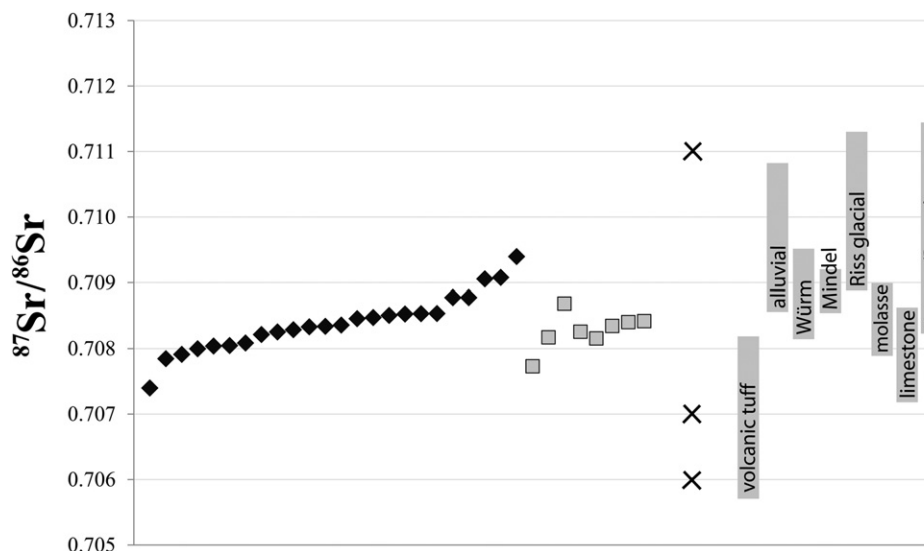


Figure 5 *Strontium isotope ratios measured in human enamel (black diamonds), human dentine (grey squares) and Neolithic pigs (crosses; data reported by Bentley & Knipper 2005). The grey bars represent the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios measured for the geological units in this study within a ~25 km radius around the site of Singen.*

evidence for distant residence during the period of tooth formation (Fig. 5). All individuals incorporated an isotopic signature similar to the one that is present at the cemetery and in its surroundings, leading to the conclusion that the location of residence and the source of everyday diet were closely linked to the Hegau region and the western shores of Lake Constance, respectively. Given the strong correlation between the enamel and dentine $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios measured in eight individuals, mean values of $0.70830 (\pm 0.00036, 1\sigma)$ and $0.70827 (\pm 0.00028, 1\sigma)$, one could suggest that the area of residence was located in the proximity of the cemetery, or at least on very similar alluvial sediments and Pleistocene moraines. Thus, our finding is in agreement with the discovery of pottery fragments near the cemetery site, which have been suggested to indicate the presence of a related settlement (Krause 2001).

Additional insights into the life histories of two infant individuals (graves 6 and 66) were possible, although their poor skeletal preservation did not allow a precise age estimate. From the deciduous molars, we found that the residence of their mothers was local during pregnancy and the first few months of breastfeeding. From the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios measured in the crowns of two non-erupted permanent molars, we can reconstruct evidence that the children's place of residence remained the same over the years that followed (Reid and Dean 2006; Humphrey *et al.* 2008).

Further data for the determination of the local bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ comes from archaeological fauna from prehistoric sites in direct proximity to the Singen cemetery. Bentley and Knipper (2005) analysed pig enamel samples from the Neolithic sites of Hilzingen and Singen-Offwiese (<4 km distance). The mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of all three pigs is 0.708 (Bentley and Knipper 2005), which would resemble the human enamel data from Singen. However, one of the Hilzingen pigs had a more radiogenic $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of 0.711, which could not have been formed from consuming foods from the local geology around the site of Singen. According to our biosphere data, a possible source of this higher Sr isotope signal could be the Riss moraine, north-west of the Singen site, or the *Keuper*, *Braunjura* or *Muschelkalk* layers to the west (Fig. 5). A second pig

from Hilzingen had a much lower $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of 0.706, which may reflect feeding on the slopes of the Hohentwiel volcano or the neighbouring volcanic tuffs (<2 km distance). A similar pattern is found in the pig from Singen-Offwiese, which had a $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signature of 0.707 (Bentley and Knipper 2005) and may also have derived from a region of volcanic tuffs (Fig. 5). From our modern environmental samples, we infer that due to the potential of pigs to feed in more remote or forested pastures, archaeological pig data might not always give a good proxy for humans, in terms of the local bioavailability of strontium.

Modern isotope data for comparison with the human enamel data in this study derives from Lake Constance itself. Radiocarbon-dated sediment cores from the lake revealed very homogeneous $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values for the Holocene. For the period of the Bronze Age, the values measured in crustacean shell material ranged between 0.786 and 0.788 (Kober *et al.* 2007). Although strontium uptake from drinking water is negligible, these values give a good proxy for the lake basin geology, which is tertiary molasse. Modern $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data from molluscs collected in Lake Constance had values of 0.7085 and 0.7084 (Buhl *et al.* 1991), which are similar to the mean $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values for the Singen people (0.70838 ± 0.00044). Nevertheless, we find similar $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ signatures in other parts of Europe; for example, in Britain (Chenery *et al.* 2010), the Carpathian Basin (Giblin 2009), other areas of southern Germany (Schweissing and Grupe 2003; Price *et al.* 2006) and in the Swiss region between Lake Constance and Lake Zurich (Tütken *et al.* 2008). Therefore, although unlikely, it is possible that if people had migrated from these other areas to Singen, they could have similar Sr values to the local values, and therefore mistakenly be identified as local. Therefore, we also measured isotope ratios of other elements to further confirm our conclusions that the humans who we sampled from Singen are indeed local.

Oxygen isotope ratios in human enamel

Oxygen isotope ratios of enamel are related to the oxygen isotope composition of drinking water. Lake Constance serves as the major drinking water reservoir in the region and is a good proxy for the local oxygen isotope composition of the Hegau region, including its lakes, streams and groundwater. If the Early Bronze Age population from Singen lived in the Hegau area west of Lake Constance, as their strontium isotope ratios suggest, their oxygen isotope ratios should match the local water and meteoric precipitation oxygen isotope values. We found quite consistent $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the human enamel from Singen (mean $15.5 \pm 0.8\text{‰}$, 1σ , $n = 9$) with two outliers (Fig. 6). One individual from Grave 74 had a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 13.8‰ , which is outside the average and 1σ range of our data set. This data point should be considered with caution, because the measurement error of this sample was high (0.96‰ , 1σ , measurement a: 13.11‰ , measurement b: 14.47‰), suggesting that either the sample was contaminated or an error occurred during measurement. The second sample falling slightly out of the 1σ range is a canine from grave 55, with a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 16.6‰ . This tooth, and the canines from the graves 74 and 73, might be reflecting breastfeeding oxygen isotope values rather than drinking water values. As the canine forms, on average, between the ages of 1.5 and 5 or 6 years (Reid and Dean 2006), the consumption of ^{18}O -enriched mother's milk during this developmental stage may influence the tooth's isotopic composition (Wright and Schwarcz 1998). However, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value measured in the canine of grave 73 (15.3‰) falls close to the mean value, indicating no influence from mothers' milk. We can conclude, then, that the outliers in our small oxygen data set are more likely to be the cause of technical issues, rather than representing humans with slightly different drinking water sources.

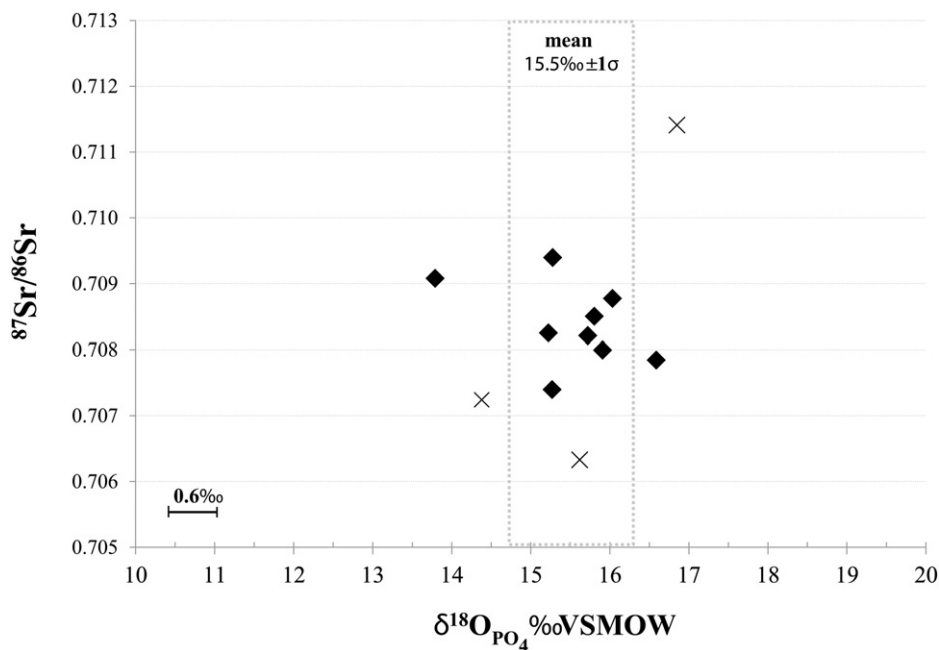


Figure 6 The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios plotted against the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values measured in human enamel phosphate ($n = 9$). The dashed box indicates the predicted local $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ range (mean value $\pm 1\sigma$), and the $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$ error bar represents the measurement error (1σ). The data from the three local Neolithic pigs (crosses) are taken from Bentley and Knipper (2005).

The approximate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the drinking water can be assessed by calculating the fractionation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phosphate}}$. We followed the calculation by Levinson *et al.* (1987) with a correction of the enamel phosphate value for the NBS 120c standard of -1.4 , as outlined and recommended by Chenery *et al.* (2010). The corrected $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values for the humans from the site of Singen result in a mean predicted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{drinking water}}$ of $-11.5 \pm 1.7\text{‰}$, 1σ . This prediction matches with the modern water from Lake Constance itself. Water samples from the lake revealed $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of -12.1‰ and -11.9‰ in spring, and -13.4‰ and -12.2‰ in autumn, demonstrating the influence of annual temperature variation on water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Buhl *et al.* 1991). Also, the modern annual precipitation data for Germany shows remarkable similarity between the predicted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{drinking water}}$ for the site of Singen and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in meteoric water in the southern part of Germany, ranging from -10.6‰ to -11.2‰ (Tütken *et al.* 2004). Archaeological human $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data with similar signatures are reported 35 km south of Singen, in the Canton of Zurich. With a mean of $14.7 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$ ($n = 4$), these human enamel samples are regarded as typical for the southern German and Swiss region (Tütken *et al.* 2008). More local archaeological $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data are available for the Neolithic pig enamel from Hilzingen (16.6‰ and 15.4‰) and Singen-Offwiese (14.2‰ and 13.6‰) (after Bentley and Knipper 2005, corrected after Iacumin *et al.* 1996). The range found in pig teeth is remarkably similar to the range that we measured in the Bronze Age human teeth, including the previously discussed outliers (13.8 – 16.6‰). Bentley and Knipper (2005) reconstructed the local meteoric water of the Hegau using these samples and obtained mean annual meteoric water values (SMOW) of -12.2‰ for Singen-Offwiese and -9.7‰ for Hilzingen. These various data from archaeological and modern samples indicated that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values measured in the Singen population resemble the local drinking waters, including lakes,

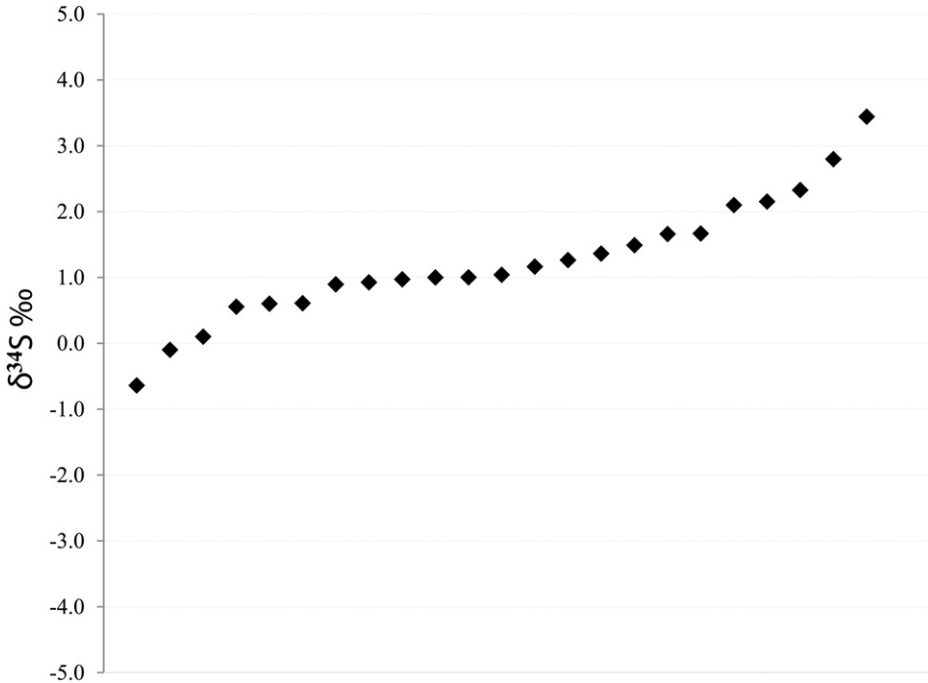


Figure 7 The distribution of all of the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values measured in human bone collagen.

streams and local rainfall. We found no evidence for a suggested coastal influence that was inferred from the ‘Atlantic’ style of metal artefacts. Drinking water in southern Britain has an oxygen isotope value of -5‰ to -7‰ , which resulted in enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of $\sim 16\text{--}19\text{‰}$ for prehistoric British populations (Evans *et al.* 2006a; Eckardt *et al.* 2009; Chenery *et al.* 2010). Although there is little data available for coastal France, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of drinking water from northern Bordeaux (~ 50 km from the Atlantic coastline) of -8.1‰ resulted in a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of 18.3‰ for human enamel (Daux *et al.* 2008). Other clearly coastal data derive from two Neolithic sites from the Netherlands, with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between $\sim 17\text{‰}$ and 18‰ for local individuals (Smits *et al.* 2010). A range of historic human tooth samples from southern Lorraine (western France) revealed $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the range $\sim 16\text{--}18\text{‰}$ (Daux *et al.* 2005). Currently, there are no archaeological or environmental $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data available for Hungary or the Carpathian Basin for a comparison with the Singen data. Nevertheless, Evans *et al.* (2006b), also searching for points of comparison with present-day Hungary, suggested that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of drinking water was lower than -9.0‰ . Therefore, we conclude that despite the limited data set, the measured oxygen isotope values of the humans from Singen support the strontium isotope evidence for the individuals being local to the Singen region.

Sulphur isotope ratios in human bone

The human bone collagen sulphur isotope values are very similar to each other, with a mean $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value of $1.2 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ (Fig. 7), which is typical for a terrestrial diet in temperate Europe (Nehlich *et al.* 2010). The sulphur isotope data support what we found in the oxygen isotopes; there is no

evidence for a marine influence or for slightly elevated $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ ratios due to the effects of sea spray (Craig *et al.* 2006). The mean $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value of $1.2 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ shows a clear terrestrial signal (Krouse and Levinson 1984) and suggests no measurable input of freshwater fish protein in human diets from Lake Constance, since the average modern $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value of the water sulphates from Lake Constance is 7.6‰ (Hoepfner *et al.* 1981). The range of the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values is clustered tightly (Vika 2009; Nehlich *et al.* 2010) and suggests a very homogeneous composition of the diet. These results are similar to the carbon and nitrogen isotope data of these individuals, which demonstrates that the individuals from Singen had terrestrial omnivorous diets (K. Kupke, pers. comm.). Unfortunately, there are no human or animal $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ data available from this region for comparison. The closest archaeological site with sulphur isotopic results is the Late Bronze Age necropolis of Neckarsulm (Nehlich and Wahl 2011). The humans from Neckarsulm averaged at $2.2 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$, and no immigrants or individuals with non-local sulphur isotopic compositions could be found. For rough estimations of the possible available local sulphur isotopic signature, geochemical information might be helpful (Nehlich *et al.*, submitted). The sulphur isotope ratios of the southeastern Black Forest range from -3.4‰ to $+9.8\text{‰}$ (Gehlen *et al.* 1962). The evaporites from the Northern Alps range in their sulphur isotope values from 11.3‰ to 32.0‰ (Niedermayr *et al.* 1989). These geochemical signatures are not particularly helpful in this case, because they are too far away from the cemetery site. Nevertheless, the results of the archaeological tissues fall within the range of the modern, local, geochemical data and suggest a probable local origin from the area around the Hohentwiel and the western shores of Lake Constance.

CONCLUSION

Following these various lines of evidence, the isotope evidence has shown that the sampled individuals from Singen can be considered to be a local population. Even the single male buried with an Atlantic dagger in his grave (grave 67) had local $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values of 0.70834 in both his enamel and dentine, implying that the area of childhood and burial are probably the same. We also found no proof for exogamy, at least for the five sampled female individuals in this study. But if this group was largely local, how did they acquire foreign metal objects? We cannot rule out the possibility that the exchange networks did require mobility by the Singen people. However, long-distance travelling did not occur during childhood, and did not include long-term stays in coastal areas with significant inputs of marine diets. Were foreign metal objects traded into the Hegau region by other related populations? If so, this probably required participation in exchanging networks, which have been described for the Later Bronze Age in Europe (Wells 2008). One could argue that if the Singen people can be considered as a local elite, it is likely that goods were imported to Singen and exchanged for Singen copper. Evidence from copper mining sites in the Balkans indicates that there was a strong preference for exotic metal even close to their own mines (Chapman 2008). However, the hypothesis considering the Singen community as some kind of social elite due to its control over the copper ores in the Western Alps has been challenged. Kienlin and Stöllner (2009) argue that according to the archaeological and ethnological record, there is no need for social stratification in the development of mining and metallurgy. Additionally, the cemetery of Singen itself does not show strong indications of social ranking. Hence, we would rather expect to deal with a small-scale community. Also, we see no variation in $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ that could indicate freshwater fish consumption (Nehlich *et al.* 2010), which is known to indicate social stratification in other historic periods (Richards *et al.* 1998), although Lake Constance would have been suitable for local fishing.

By applying complementary isotope systems, we found evidence that the Singen people we studied were all of local origin, and there was no evidence for migrants from the Atlantic regions of France or Britain. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that the Singen people were connected with the region between Lake Constance and Lake Zurich, as the region has very similar strontium and oxygen isotope values. The closest regional copper ores are located approximately 80 km south-west of this region, in the mountainous area of Grisony (*Graubiinden*) and the Montafon valley, and could have been utilized for the copper mining industries (Krause 2009). Also, a connection to the Carpathian Basin cannot be ruled out, due to the lack of isotopic background information from this region. Finally, the main limitation of this study derives from the fact that only 25 out of 96 graves were sampled for mobility patterns. We cannot completely exclude the possibility that some individuals—for example, the three non-sampled males with ‘Atlantic’ daggers—were of foreign provenance. Due to the insufficient skeletal preservation, this question remains unresolved.

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