

Between Valleys and Mountains. The Dzedzvebi Plateau as an Intermediate Settlement Site of Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age Communities in the Lesser Caucasus

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Abstract

The question of how societies have appropriated the resource-rich montane landscapes of the South Caucasus since the 5th millennium BCE and in which temporal rhythms this development took place is linked with regional mobility as well as the social and economic negotiation of the participating communities. Intermontane settlement areas like the large Dzedzvebi Plateau near Kazreti in south-east Georgia probably played an important role as intermediate centres of exchange within the South Caucasian mountain corridors. That role is illuminated here, based on the findings of archaeological investigations that started in 2007. In the valley area of Kazreti, this function was closely linked with the exploitation of ore and the processing of metals, especially the gold of Sakdrisi. The establishment of permanent settlements on the Dzedzvebi Plateau exemplifies the social and economic developments that led to the settlement and integration of mountain corridors, connecting valleys and plateaus to the cultural activities of Kura-Araxes-period communities in the South Caucasus in the period around 3000 BCE.

Keywords

Late Chalcolithic, Early Bronze Age, metallurgy, husbandry, subsistence, obsidian, aDNA, burial practices, social integration

Zusammenfassung – *Zwischen Bergen und Tälern. Das Dzedzvebi Plateau als Zwischenstation spätkalkolithischer und frühbronzezeitlicher Gesellschaften im Kleinen Kaukasus*

Die Frage, wie sich Gesellschaften seit dem 5. Jahrtausend v. u. Z. die ressourcenreichen montanen Landschaftsräume des Südkaukasus angeeignet haben und in welchen zeitlichen Rhythmen diese Erschließung geschah, ist mit der regionalen Mobilität sowie den sozialen wie auch wirtschaftlichen Aushandlungen der involvierten Gemeinschaften verknüpft. Gebirgsnahe bzw. gebirgsumschlossene Plätze wie das große Siedlungsplateau von Dzedzvebi bei Kazreti in Südostgeorgien spielten dabei wohl als intermediäre Orte des Austausches eine wichtige Rolle innerhalb der südkaukasischen Gebirgskorridore. Diese Rolle wird vor dem Hintergrund der seit 2007 durchgeführten archäologischen Untersuchungen und ihrer zahlreichen Ergebnisse beleuchtet, die im Talraum von Kazreti eng mit der Erzausbeute und der Verarbeitung von Metallen, allen voran des Goldes von Sakdrissi, verbunden war. Die Etablierung der Dauersiedlung auf dem Dzedzvebi-Plateau lässt jene sozialen und wirtschaftlichen Entwicklungen erkennen, die im Südkaukasus zu einer Besiedlung und Integration von Gebirgskorridoren führten, die Täler und Hochplateaus mit den kulturellen Aktivitäten der Kura-Araxes-zeitlichen Gemeinschaften im Südkaukasus in der Zeit um 3000 v. u. Z. verbanden.

Schlüsselbegriffe

Spätkalkolithikum, Frühbronzezeit, Metallurgie, Herdenhaltung, Subsistenz, Obsidian, aDNA, Bestattungspraktiken, soziale Integration



Fig. 1. The Early Transcaucasian Culture (Kura-Araxes) in West Asia in its early stages of development (after 3500 BCE and before 3200/3000 BCE) and during its expansion (after 3200/3000 BCE till 2600/2400 BCE). – Red dot: Balichi-Dzedzevbi site. – Black dots: other important archaeological sites (Deutsches Bergbau-Museum Bochum [DBM] / Ruhr-University Bochum [RUB]; T. Stöllner, after ROTHMAN 2015).

1. Introduction. Appropriating Valleys and Mountains: The Georgian-German Caucasus Project and its Research Questions

The Transcaucasian areas saw dramatic changes in the 5th and 4th millennia BCE. In the 5th millennium BCE, the Late Neolithic communities of the Shulaveri-Shomutepe Culture transformed into communities of the Sioni tradition, a cultural complex that remains poorly understood. Especially little is known about its early phase;¹ the social and economic developments of the Late Chalcolithic (LC), which occurred in the late 5th millennium BCE at the latest, are better understood. The connections between the Kura and Araxes river basins and the intermediate areas of the Armenian Plateau and the surrounding west Asian regions, especially the Syrian-Mesopotamian lowlands, developed

in this period and were further strengthened in the late phases of the Late Chalcolithic, as can be observed in the material culture and architecture.² The Transcaucasian Sioni tradition shaped the cultural development from the late 5th millennium until the early 4th millennium BCE, particularly in the great valleys of the Kura and the Araxes. The area also experienced the social development of distinctly regionally oriented elites.³ The southern Caucasus became a major source of attraction for communities living in Iran, Mesopotamia and beyond; hence its development into an important component of the dynamics that progressively shaped southwest Asia at the dawn of urban civilisation

1 SAGONA 2017. – ISERLIS 2018.

2 Already LYONNET 2007. – LYONNET 2009. – MARRO 2010. – LYONNET 2018. – MARRO 2022.

3 E.g. LYONNET et al. 2008.

(the Ubeid and Uruk complexes).⁴ The subsequent changes to the Kura-Araxes communities therefore seems all the more striking, especially the representation of social status in burials and the clear focus on domestic cults and rituals.⁵ Their activities around the mining complex of Sakdrisi⁶ – as well as the metallurgical tradition of the Transcaucasian communities of the Early Bronze Age (EBA) – illustrate the increasing importance of metal extraction and other uses of raw materials and resources that started in the 5th millennium BCE.⁷ Some of these groups (e.g. Sioni groups in eastern Georgia and Leilatepe communities in western Azerbaijan) mastered elaborate techniques, such as metallurgy, and favoured specific biotopes on the mountain slopes of the Lesser Caucasus. One could therefore raise the question of whether the increasing economic and social complexity of Kura-Araxes cultural manifestations also marked the transition to more specialised economic and social practices in the second half of the 4th millennium BCE.⁸ Economic reorganisation and the production of new goods may, in return, have been the force that propelled Kura-Araxes groups towards eastern Anatolia and southwestern Iran at the beginning of the Early Bronze Age (Fig. 1).

Examination of the settlement pattern, especially between the 5th and the early 3rd millennium in the Kura Valley system (Mtchvari),⁹ makes it clear that Late Chalcolithic sites in particular (henceforth Late Chalcolithic 3¹⁰ and the latest stage, Late Chalcolithic 4¹¹) tended to spread along the main courses of the Kura and the lower reaches of its tributaries (e.g. Aragvi, Chramis, Mashavera). In a few cases, settlements extended to the middle courses of the main tributaries during this phase (e.g. Dzedzvebi, Abanoskhevi).¹² These early permanent settlements were situated in an intermediary position between the lower valleys and the high mountain pastures. They were important supply posts or rest areas for groups driving their herds up

to the summer pastures. Evidence of seasonal presence on the plateaus of the Lesser Caucasus mountains (e.g. Areni Cave, Bavra Alavari) since the Neolithic is particularly interesting here, because it indicates the appropriation of the highland plateaus long before the development of permanent settlement there.¹³ These settlements coincide with the continuous but sporadic and seasonal mining of obsidian sources at Mount Chikiani and many other locations on the Armenian Plateau.¹⁴ Only in the second half of the 4th and in the 3rd millennium BCE did the high altitudes around the valleys of the North Caucasus or the Javakheti Mountains and the Trialeti Plateau become more permanently developed.¹⁵ A similar development has been observed in the Araxes Valley, where permanent settlements and camps were established in the piedmont of the South Caucasus, but rarely in the upper valleys.¹⁶ This pattern appears to have changed in the first half of the 4th millennium. The site of Godedzor in the Vorotan Valley represents a semi-permanent or seasonal settlement with evidence of crop planting.¹⁷ These sites likely reflect special resource conditions; the more inhospitable higher-lying regions could thus be settled more easily. In the area of Godedzor, the earliest evidence of cereal cultivation dates to the middle of the 4th millennium BCE; the settlement, which is located above 1800 m asl, is probably connected to the nearby obsidian sources.¹⁸

This new evidence makes it clear that research should focus on the relationships between the mountain corridors between the Greater and the Lesser Caucasus mountain ranges. Intra-montane sites are of special interest, as they appear to have facilitated access and connectivity between the lower valleys and larger main valleys (e.g. the Kura and the Araxes valleys) and the plateaus and the highlands. One of these fascinating sites is the Dzedzvebi Plateau near Balichi/Kazreti, where a series of Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age settlements has been discovered; excavation of these sites started in 2007 and is ongoing (see below). The present study sheds light on social and economic dynamics and practices

4 In general, for the chaff-faced pottery ware communities or the LC-Leilatepe/Berikldeebi tradition, see e.g. MUNCHAEV 1975. – MAKHARADZE 2007. – KAVTARADZE 2014. – MUSEIBLI 2021. – MARRO 2022.

5 Recently BATIUK 2013. – PALUMBI, CHATAIGNER 2014.

6 E.g. GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER et al. 2014. – STÖLLNER et al. 2021. – MARRO, STÖLLNER 2021.

7 STÖLLNER 2021a, 449–453.

8 STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER 2021a.

9 See also HELWING et al. 2017.

10 After the chronological system established in LYONNET 2007. – Tsopi/Sioni group in a somewhat broad and unspecific definition, see NEBIERIDZE 2010. – ISERLIS 2018.

11 Leilatepe/Berikldeebi phase: MUSEIBLI 2021.

12 RAMISHVILI et al. 1987.

13 WILKINSON et al. 2012. – VAROUTSIKOS et al. 2018.

14 CHATAIGNIER, GRATUZE 2014a. – CHATAIGNIER, GRATUZE 2014b. – See the comments in STÖLLNER 2021a. – For Chikiani, see recently BIAGI, NISBET 2023.

15 STÖLLNER 2016, 223–224 and Fig. 10.

16 BERTHON et al. 2021. – GAILHARD et al. 2021. – MARRO 2022.

17 PALUMBI et al. 2021.

18 Satanakar, Sevkar: PALUMBI et al. 2021, 302–306 (C. Chataigner).



Fig. 2. Mashavera Valley around Kazreti and Balitschi: potential ancient mining sites, prehistoric settlements and graveyards and those for which evidence has been found (Draft: DBM; S. Senczek).

based on recent research results from this site.¹⁹ Dzedzvebi's topographical situation not only raises the question of when and on which economic basis the stable settlement of higher mountain plateaus was achieved, but also if preludes of intensification occurred earlier, for instance continuous usage of summer pastures and certain transhumance strategies. Intermediate sites may also have served as winter camps for people who used the higher pastures, for those who

travelled up the stream to acquire secondary products such as wool, metal, or dairy products and those who brought up their stock to be managed by individuals who were better acquainted with the higher mountainous regions.

2. Dzedzvebi Plateau and its Settlements: Topography, Chronology and Fieldwork

The Dzedzvebi Plateau is situated south of the village of Balitschi and the small town of Kazreti in southeast Georgia. The basaltic plateau stretches 1730 m, from 708 m asl to 768 m asl (between Area I [latitude: 41,3718488, longitude: 44,3915731] and Area IV.3 [latitude: 41,3643273, longitude: 44,38397]). The elongated plateau lies between the Mashavera and the Ukangorula (Dampcludka) rivers, dominating the intra-montane valleys south of Kazreti (Fig. 2). At its widest point, the plateau is approximately 400 m wide, while at its narrowest it is just over 100 m wide. Due to its location,

¹⁹ DFG STO 458/27-1. We are especially grateful to the boards of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) and their referees. Dr. Christoph Kümmel, Bonn, helped realise many aspects of the project. This article is based on long-term stratigraphical and chronological investigations and excavations, surveys and further analyses by archaeometallurgical, archaeometric and archaeobiological (archaeobotany, archaeo-genetics, archaeozoological and stable isotopes) methods, which are described in their subchapters.

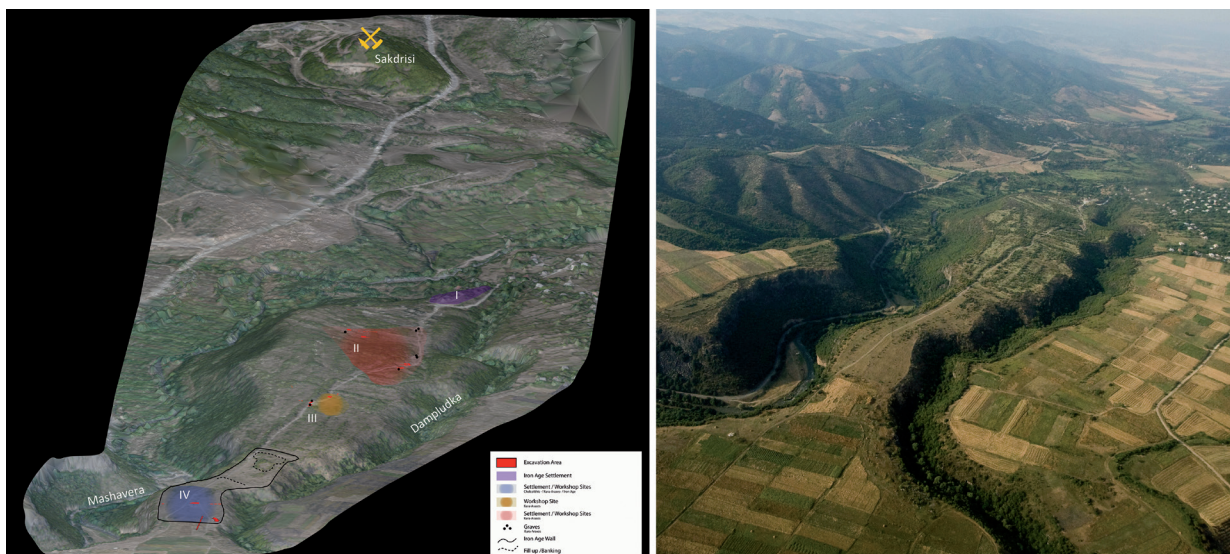


Fig. 3. Left: The settlement plateau of Balichi-Dzedzvebi and its archaeological sites on the northern hilltop (Dzedzvebi, Area I, Iron Age), northern slope (Dzedzvebi, Area II, Early Bronze Age), on the northern part of the central plateau (Dzedzvebi, Area III, Early Bronze Age) and on the southern plateau (Dzedzvebi, Area IV, Chalcolithic, Early Bronze Age and Iron Age) (Plan processing/3D visualisation: DBM/RUB/Georgian National Museum [GNM]; A. Hornsusch, F. Klein). – Right: Aerial photograph of the intra-montane position of Dzedzvebi Plateau according to the fluvial systems and the accessibility to pastures and plateaus of the Lesser Caucasus (RUB/DBM; T. Stöllner).

it also cordons off the north-south connection of the valley area. On its northern side, the small Dampludka River flows into the Mashavera, naturally protecting access to the northern plateau. To the south, the plateau between Mashavera and Ukangorula (Dampludka) narrows considerably.

The terrain gently rises towards the south, where it has been protected by a fortification rampart since the Iron Age at the latest. The earliest occupation layers appear to belong to the Middle Bronze Age (MBA) Trialeti period (see below), but it is unclear if a fortification has stood there since that time. The plateau thus encloses a settlement area of approximately 60 ha and can be divided into four distinct areas. In the north, the plateau ends in a spur-like plain (Area I) with an Iron Age settlement and an access road on its eastern slope, which continues to provide access from the northeast to this day. Whether this area was fortified during the Iron Age is not clear at present as detailed excavations have not yet been carried out in Area I. Also enclosed is a relatively broad slope area that rises slightly to the south (Area II), towards the almost flat, narrower Area III, which eventually merges into the southern plateau (Area IV) after a first plateau constriction from both river valleys in the west and the east. An additional, larger Iron Age settlement core has been found there.²⁰ The occupation of the plateau therefore provides insight into

the developments of the beginning and end of the 5th millennium (the Early Chalcolithic and Late Chalcolithic 3 stages) and during the earlier phases of the Kura-Araxes period, between the 2nd half of the 4th and the beginning of the 3rd millennium BCE.

The area constitutes an intermediate location, between the lower parts of the Kura Valley and its tributaries and the mountainous highlands of the Shirak, Tsalka and Samtskhe-Javakheti plateaus. The Kazreti and Balichi area lies within a one- or two-day walk from the Bolnisi zone and the lower Mashavera and its confluence with the Chramis River, south of present-day Marneuli. From Dzedzvebi Plateau, the Transcaucasian plateaus can be reached via Didi Dmanissi within a two- or three-day journey as well (Fig. 3, below).

The Dzedzvebi Plateau is not the only site known in the middle Mashavera Valley. On the flanks of the Dzedzvebi Plateau near the Mashavera River, early Holocene abri use has been recorded, although little is known about the material culture remains found there and their chronology (Fig. 3).²¹ Older studies have also documented finds from the wider valley area. Iron Age settlements are known in Kazreti, while medieval settlements are spread across the left, western bank of the Mashavera Valley; the latter include the Late Antique Christian village of Orsakdrebi and

20 Already summarising GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016.

21 BERDZENISHVILI 2006.

the Muslim village of Abulmulg, located near the exit of a side valley of Abanoskhevi.²² The toponym Orsakdrebi was later used to designate the geological deposits of Sakdrisi I to V. Excavations conducted in 2012 (led by Irina Gambashidze) and again in 2013, documented prehistoric sites, mainly Late Chalcolithic ones; unfortunately, the 2013 rescue excavations led by Vakhtang Licheli have not been published, but it seems their documentation was done rather randomly. However, the site of the Early Bronze Age gold mine of Sakdrisi (Sakdrisi II, Kachagiani Hill), which was excavated by a Georgian-German team between 2004 and 2013 but opened to commercial mining in 2014 despite national and international protests, has attracted some attention.²³

From the start, the research at the Sakdrisi gold mine was concerned with locating a settlement and evidence of the labour-intensive gold ore processing. Such evidence was found when a complete Kura-Araxes vessel was discovered by a gravedigger in the cemetery of Balichi, on the Dzedzvebi Plateau (Area II, Grave 1). Excavations started in 2007 and have yielded ample results since then.²⁴ It is now clear that several settlement nuclei were established at different locations on the plateau during different chronological phases. Chalcolithic settlement of the 5th millennium BCE has only been found on the southern plateau, an area that is easily accessible, especially from the south (Area IV.3) (see radiocarbon dates, Tab. 1 and Fig. 4). So far, evidence of Chalcolithic settlement has not been found in other excavation areas (areas IV.1–2, IV.4–6) on the southern plateau; this suggests that settlement was certainly smaller than the Iron Age occupation in the same area. The next chronological focus is the Kura-Araxes occupation, which can be dated between the 36th/35th century and the 27th century BCE (see radiocarbon dates, Tab. 1 and Fig. 4). These settlements are mainly distributed on the southern plateau (Area IV) and along the slopes of Dzedzvebi II and the northern part of Dzedzvebi III. This area can be characterised as a settlement dominated by crafting activities with smaller, interspersed burial groups (see below). Its temporal overlap with mining activity at Sakdrisi and additional evidence of artefact and metallurgical features (e.g. stone tools, see below)²⁵ indicates that this settlement is related to the copper and gold exploitation of the Madneuli-Sakdrisi

deposit district (see below). Isolated Middle Bronze Age occupations have also been found in the same area, mainly represented by Trialeti burials and ritual deposits. In contrast to the settlement in areas II and III, the Kura-Araxes occupation of the southern plateau is difficult to assess. Like in Dzedzvebi II and III, evidence of occupation during the oldest Kura-Araxes period, dating to the early 3rd millennium, has been found on the southern plateau, represented by late Kura-Araxes pottery in the style of Shengavit ware and two AMS (Accelerator Mass Spectrometry) ¹⁴C dates (MAMS 20637, MAMS 20640, Tab. 1). A few indications of Middle Bronze Age occupation have been found there as well, but no regular pits or architectural features from this period have been identified thus far. The third major period began with settlements in the Early and Middle Iron Age, from the 11th century BCE onwards. The Iron Age occupation of the northern plateau has not yet been investigated, but its pottery spectrum is typologically identical to that of the southern plateau, where it has been found in all excavation areas (IV.1–6). The Iron Age layers reach thicknesses of up to 1.5 to 2 m, completely covering the older occupation horizons. The Iron Age settlement on the southern plateau significantly disturbed the older Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age settlement features, mainly due to its deep storage pits. The Iron Age settlement, approximately 5 to 6 ha in size, was surrounded by a fortification of rubble stone walls (Fig. 3) with gateways to the south and probably also to the north and the area of Dzedzvebi III.

Archaeological fieldwork on the Dzedzvebi Plateau is difficult because the area is covered by whitethorn bushes (Dzedzvi bushes) and is subject to erosion, especially in Area II, where medieval field cropping took place and terraces were constructed. The plateaus consist of Mashavera basalt, which has been dated by Argon/Argon to 1.85 million years ago.²⁶ Therefore, it is difficult to carry out large-scale magnetic surveys; an extensive georadar survey is planned for the near future. Because of these conditions, surveys consisted of traditional field survey and small-scale soundings. The construction of a dirt road by bulldozer in 2008 across the full length of the plateau also provided important insights about pottery scatter and the distribution of features. During the 2007–2021 field campaign, the team investigated a series of trenches between Dzedzvebi II and the southern plateau (Dzedzvebi IV). A firm chronological frame was established based on stratigraphical sequences, typological studies of ceramics and other artefacts, and a series of 59 AMS ¹⁴C dates,

22 MUSKHELISHVILI 1941. – SINAURIDZE 1985.

23 STÖLLNER et al. 2014. – GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER et al. 2021.

24 STÖLLNER et al. 2010. – STÖLLNER, GAMBASHIDZE 2011. – STÖLLNER et al. 2014. – GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER, GAMBASHIDZE 2018.

25 STÖLLNER et al. 2014. – GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER et al. 2021.

26 FERRING et al. 2011.

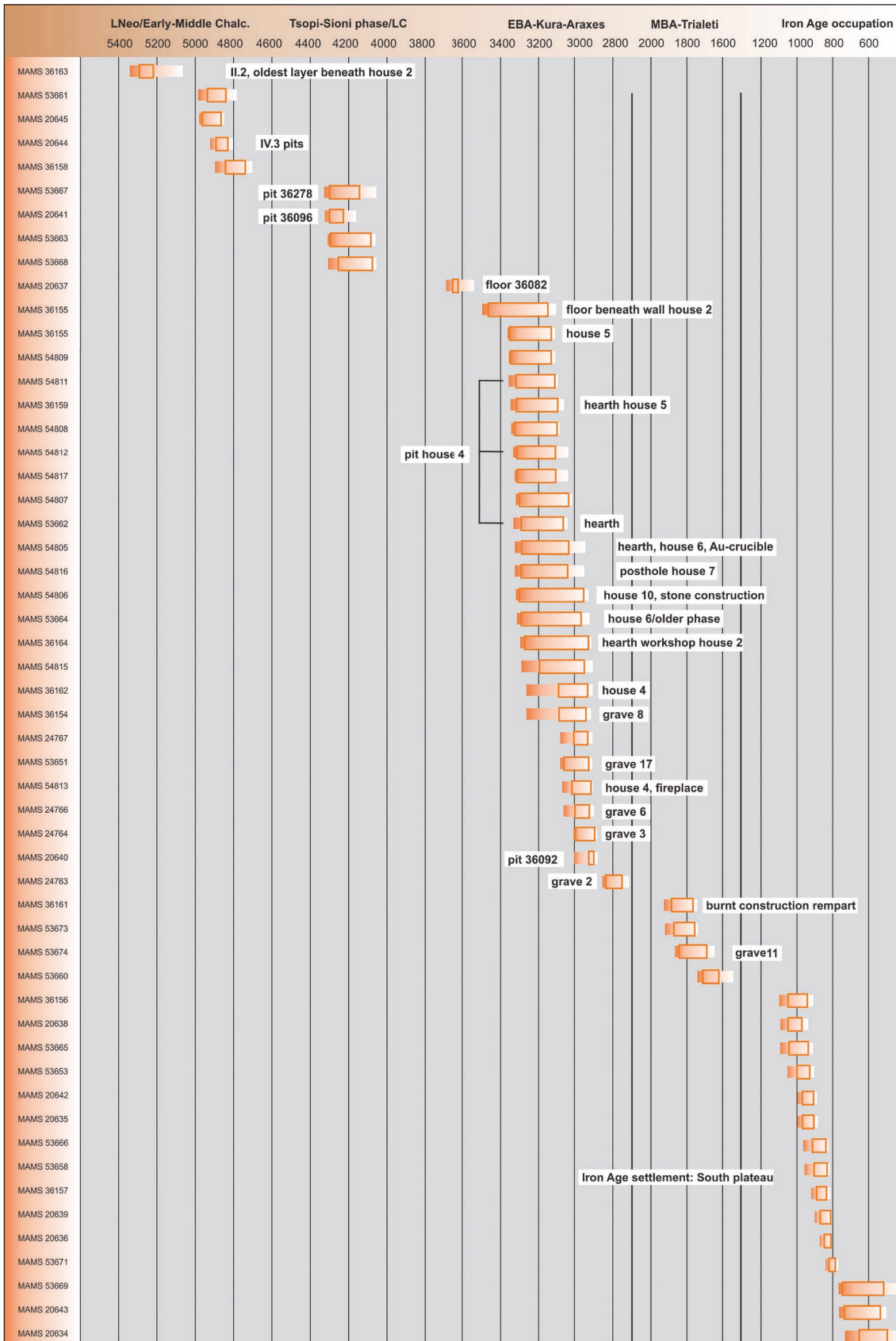


Fig. 4. Calibrated AMS ¹⁴C datings (OxCal v4.4.4) from the Early Bronze Age Sakdrisi and Dzedzvebi mining and settlement complex according to the 1σ- and 2σ-confidence interval (Draft: DBM/RUB; T. Stöllner; see Tab. 1).

Lab. No.	Feature	Feature description	Material	Delta ¹³ C ‰			¹⁴ C BC 1	¹⁴ C BC 2	¹⁴ C Age BP	C:N	C [%]	Colla-gen [%]	Period
				±									
MAMS 36163	34029	Neolithic layer	Bone	±	46	-14.1	calBC 5306–5222	calBC5363–5078	6282	3.3	35.5	6.3	Late Neolithic/Early-Middle Chalcolithic
MAMS 20645	36131	Early Chalcolithic Layer	Charcoal	±	18	-32	calBC 4945–4851	calBC4982–4846	6020		32.0		
MAMS 53661	36533	Pit 79	Seed fragment	±	31	-22.4	calBC 4934–4841	calBC 4987–4795	5996		66.7		
MAMS 20644	36128	Chalcolithic Layer	Charcoal	±	18	-25.7	calBC 4907–4839	calBC4935–4801	5985		25.7		
MAMS 36158	36323	Filling of Pit 11	Charred plant remains	±	29	-27.4	calBC 4841–4748	calBC4894–4723	5930		49.4		
MAMS 20641	36094	Disturbance of Pit 27	Charcoal	±	17	-27.5	calBC 4318–4237	calBC4327–4175	5383		27.5		Tsopi-Sioni phase/LC
MAMS 53667	36278	Pit 4	Cereal fragments	±	30	-30.8	calBC 4321–4071	calBC 4328–4055	5363		81.5		
MAMS 53663	36540-1	Filling of Pit 84	Seed fragment	±	29	-13.4	calBC 4306–4062	calBC 4320–4053	5343		64.5		
MAMS 53668	36311-1	Filling of Pit 1	Cereal fragments	±	25	-20.4	calBC 4239–4061	calBC 4311–4051	5329		60.0		EBA-Kura-Araxes
MAMS 20637	36082	Cultural layer	Cereal fragments	±	21	-20.7	calBC 3651–3639	calBC 3692–3540	4848		20.7		
MAMS 36155	34029	Slope colluvium	Charcoal	±	26	-27.2	calBC 3483–3146	calBC 3493–3123	4578		46.3		
MAMS 54809	38107	Floor	Charcoal	±	28	-16.2	calBC 3360–3111	calBC 3366–3102	4536		61.9		
MAMS 36160	37042	Backfilling of Grave 8	Charcoal	±	26	-23.8	calBC 3352–3119	calBC3357–3104	4527		36.0		
MAMS 54811	38134	Deepest filling of Pit 6	Charred cereal grain fragments	±	29	-18.7	calBC 3356–3109	calBC 3362–3102	4527		68.6		
MAMS 54808	38114	Floor	Charcoal	±	29	-22.7	calBC 3344–3105	calBC 3355–3099	4510		65.1		
MAMS 54812	38133	Middle filling of Pit 6	Charcoal	±	28	-17.2	calBC 3331–3101	calBC 3346–3037	4488		64.9		
MAMS 54817	37118	Filling of Pit 5	Charred cereal grain fragments	±	24	-18.4	calBC 3331–3100	calBC 3341–3041	4485		64.4		
MAMS 36159	37017	Filling of Pit 37006	Charred plant remains	±	26	-23.4	calBC 3328–3099	calBC 3340–3039	4484		53.1		
MAMS 53662	38046-1	Upper filling of Pit 6	Seed fragment	±	28	-15.2	calBC 3325–3032	calBC 3335–3025	4463		58.5		
MAMS 54807	37155	Filling of Pit 11	Charred cereal grain fragments	±	30	-18.6	calBC 3322–3028	calBC 3338–3012	4454		68.5		
MAMS 54816	40047	Posthole	Charred fruitstone	±	24	-20	calBC 3314–3026	calBC 3332–2939	4446		69.1		
MAMS 54805	40034	Hearth in House 9	Charred particles	±	29	-19.2	calBC 3316–3023	calBC 3332–2935	4444		64.2		
MAMS 54806	37161	Grave 21	Charred particles	±	29	-21.6	calBC 3312–2940	calBC 3328–2925	4431		61.5		
MAMS 53664	40012	Waste dump area	Charcoal fragment	±	28	-20.1	calBC 3307–2939	calBC 3326–2926	4430		65.4		
MAMS 36164	34053	Hearth in House 1	Charcoal	±	25	-21.3	calBC 3261–3013	calBC 3310–2925	4423		57.2		
MAMS 36154	37023	Grave 8	Bone	±	24	-20.8	calBC 3093–2944	calBC 3261–2925	4413	3.2	42.7	9.0	
MAMS 54815	37159	Pit 9	Charcoal (branch wood?)	±	24	-23.6	calBC 3094–2937	calBC 3307–2920	4413		69.2		
MAMS 36162	38017	Deposit of stones and pottery	Charcoal	±	29	-27	calBC 3089–2939	calBC3262–2919	4406		61.6		
MAMS 24767	34809/34810	Grave 6	Bone	±	22	-20.8	calBC 3086–2934	calBC 3090–2926	4401		No data	5.1	
MAMS 53651	40027	Grave 17	Bone fragment	±	18	-20.1	calBC 3078–2932	calBC 3091–2922	4397		20.1		
MAMS 24766	34809/34810	Grave 6	Bone	±	23	-22.2	calBC 3016–2928	calBC 3085–2915	4378	3.0	25.6	3.4	
MAMS 54813	38117	Hearth in Trench 2	Charred cereal grain and seed fragments	±	24	-16.2	calBC 3011–2916	calBC 3076–2907	4361		65.5		
MAMS 24764	33026	Grave 3	Bone	±	22	-19.6	calBC 3008–2902	calBC 3012–2899	4333	3.1	28.2	6.1	
MAMS 20640	36092	Cultural layer	Charcoal	±	21	-28.5	calBC 2925–2899	calBC 3010–2893	4321		28.5		
MAMS 24763	34801	Grave 2	Bone	±	21	-18.8	calBC 2833–2579	calBC 2852–2506	4091	3.0	23.1	1.7	

Tab. 1. List of AMS ¹⁴C datings of Dzedzvebi excavations (DBM/RUB; T. Stöllner, A. Belošić).

Lab. No.	Feature	Feature description	Material	Delta ¹³ C ‰			¹⁴ C BC 1	¹⁴ C BC 2	¹⁴ C Age BP	C:N	C [%]	Colla-gen [%]	Period
				±									
MAMS 36161	39029	Burned layer	Charcoal	±	25	-24.4	calBC 1911–1779	calBC 1934–1770	3529		57.2		MBA-Trialeti
MAMS 53673	36432	Pit 71	Charred annual plant material	±	24	-23.5	calBC 1893–1775	calBC 1931–1750	3523		65.4		
MAMS 53674	38062	Grave 11	Bone fragments	±	21	-17.9	calBC 1867–1694	calBC 1876–1646	3444	3.2	43.6	2.1	
MAMS 53660	36557	Pit 91	Seed fragment	±	26	-15.6	calBC 1732–1628	calBC 1747–1567	3388		61.7		

Tab. 1. Continued.

of which 39 date from the 6th to the 2nd millennium BCE and are published here (Fig. 4 and Tab. 1).

3. Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age Settlement:

Results of the Archaeological Excavation

3.1. Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age Settlement on the Southern Plateau (Area IV)

As early as 2010, fundamental insights into the settlement stratigraphy of the southern plateau were brought to light when a test trench was dug in Dzedzvebi IV.3 (trenches 4/5), where a Chalcolithic phase with Sioni-period pottery had been documented. The first ¹⁴C dates confirmed an early and late 5th millennium BCE occupation (Fig. 4 and Tab. 1), significantly older than the Kura-Araxes-period occupation of the plateau, which in turn was followed stratigraphically by Middle Bronze Age and Iron Age layers and features. This exceptional discovery was confirmed by a larger-scale excavation, conducted in 2014–2015 and 2019. A total of 17 pits with Sioni-period pottery were discovered and at least partially excavated. Chalcolithic features are represented by six pits in Trench 2 and another ten to eleven features in Trench 4 (Fig. 5).²⁷ It is evident that some of these features were disturbed by later Early Bronze Age and especially Iron Age features. These disturbances are the reason the assignment of some pit features is not certain, as Chalcolithic pottery could be intrusive in younger features (pits 5, 39 and 84). A series of AMS ¹⁴C dates allows a chronological estimation of both Chalcolithic phases. The older phase clearly spans from the 49th to the 47th century BCE (Early Chalcolithic), while a second, Late Chalcolithic, phase has been dated to the 44th–40th centuries BCE. This was unexpected, as the pit inventories did not initially reveal any significant differences between the certainly Late Chalcolithic pits 1, 3, 4, 24, 91 and 93 and the older Early Chalcolithic features (pits 7, 11 and 79). Based on their pottery characteristics, Pit 2 and Pit 89 can also be assigned to the latter phase.²⁸ Other pits cannot

be more precisely dated without ¹⁴C dating (pits 5–6, 39, 78 and 80–81). The pits, which are often cauldron shaped, were originally used as storage pits and most of them contained pottery, obsidian and animal bone deposits. Particularly striking is the pottery found in some of the Late Chalcolithic pits, such as pits 1 and 4, which contain large pieces, indicating the intentional storage of vessel sets. The pottery forms and types cannot be described as chaff-faced ware *sensu strictu*.²⁹ Since the older Sioni pottery also included organic temper (in combination with mineral temper), it instead appears to reflect a regional pottery tradition that involves hand-building techniques. Obsidian debitage flakes and debris were also recovered; some of these point to core modification, the production of blades and other tools near the pits, and the disposal of larger quantities of obsidian (as in pits 1, 4 or 11, which together contained 611 flakes and blades). The find variation observed in the disposal of bones also suggests that the waste that was discarded in the pits relates to specific practices. The same is true for the Late Chalcolithic pits that contain significant amounts of pottery (pits 1, 4, 7 and 91). The interpretation of special food consumption and food storage practices is supported by additional evidence, for example the composition of the vessel inventories, which include stretched storage vessels, bowls and so-called mangals (flat, pan-like vessels with perforations on the rim) (Fig. 6). That certain activities are reflected in the pit contents can also be supposed for Pit 4, where, in addition to metallurgical equipment, uncommon obsidian flakes from the deposits of Sarikamis (eastern Turkey) were found (almost all the other obsidian artefacts originate from Mount Chikiani near Paravani Lake; see section 4.3). The smelted copper also originates from a foreign copper-ore deposit, which can be assumed to be on the Armenian Plateau.³⁰ The presence of these artefacts indicates exchange relations over great distances, involving the inhabitants of the Dzedzvebi Plateau.

²⁷ BALDUS 2022.

²⁸ STÖLLNER in press.

²⁹ In the sense of MARRO 2010 of the Late Chalcolithic (Leilatepe/ Amuq F horizon). – See also LYONNET 2018. – MARRO 2022.

³⁰ STÖLLNER 2021b.

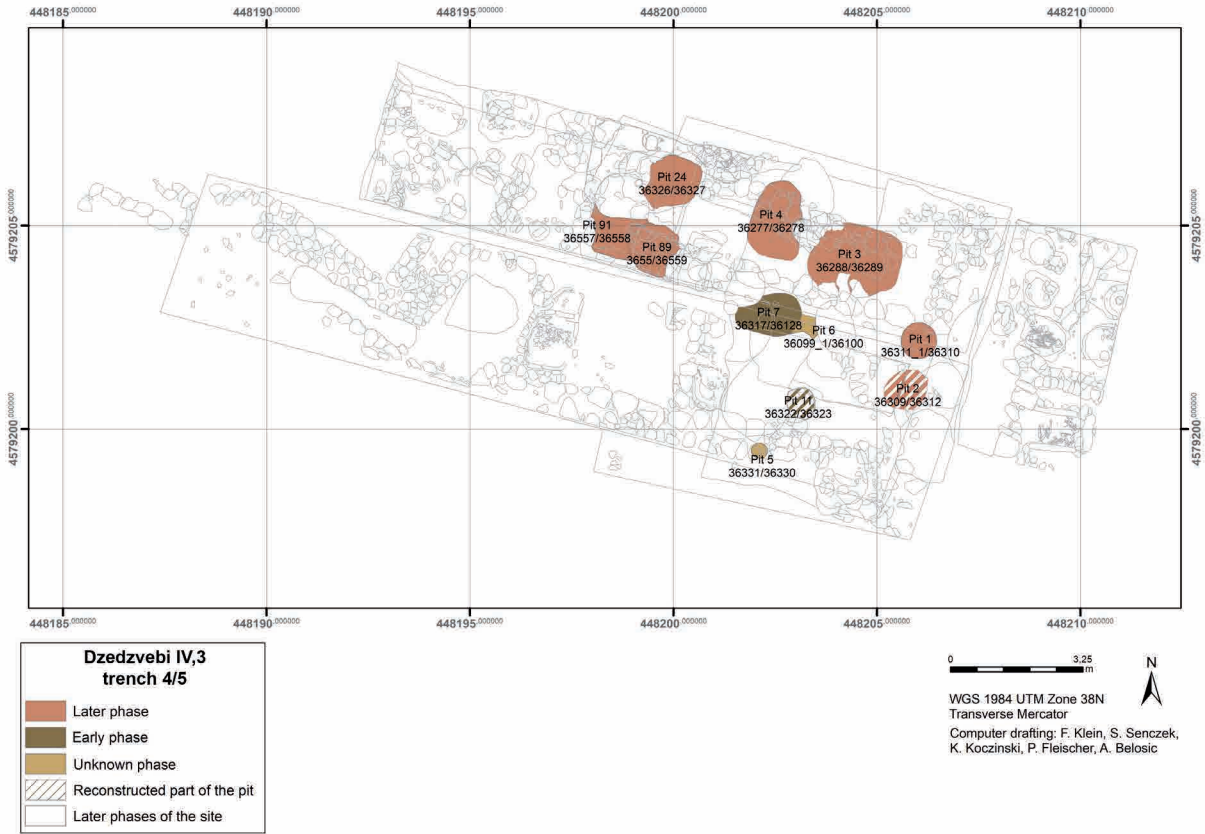


Fig. 5. Chalcolithic pits from the southern plateau settlement at Balichi-Dzedzvebi Plateau, according to their Early Chalcolithic, Late Chalcolithic, classic Sioni and general Chalcolithic dating (Draft: DBM; S. Senczek, A. Belošić).

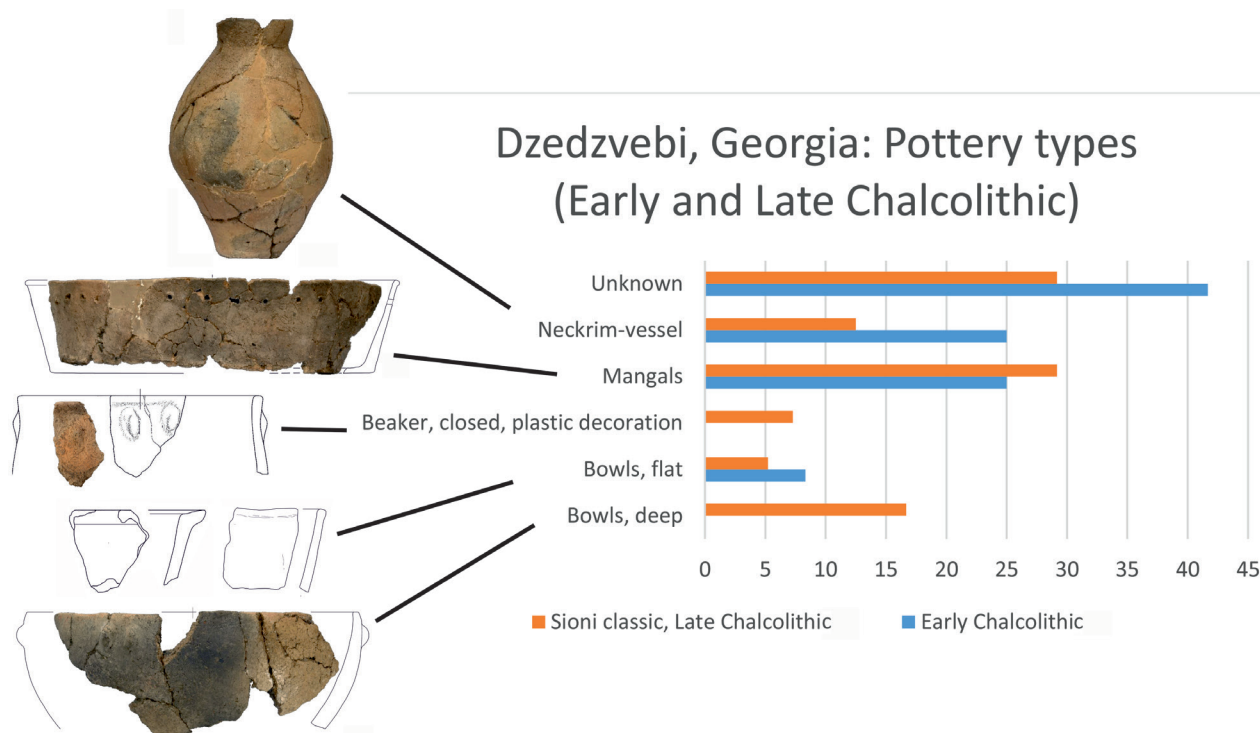


Fig. 6. Pottery types according to their dating in various pits of the southern plateau settlement at Balichi-Dzedzvebi Plateau (Draft: DBM/RUB; T. Stöllner).

Kura-Araxes-period layers are more difficult to assess than the numerous Chalcolithic pits. It is clear that during the early phase of the Kura-Araxes period (36th to 35th century BCE), a flat levelling of sandy-silty material occurred (observable in trenches 2 and 4/5 of IV.3). Some of these deposits are nearly 50 cm thick (36082). These features also contained remarkable domestic debris (see section 4.4), representing a dwelling horizon. A few pit features and, most importantly, most of the find assemblages, can be attributed to the fully developed Kura-Araxes period (around 3000 BCE and even later), which indicates a longer occupation period. However, little can be said about the structure of this settlement. The younger layers of the Middle Bronze Age (Trialeti Culture) are more informative; these are represented by a layer on top of a Chalcolithic pit (Pit 91), a burnt feature on the southern rampart (39029) and a posthole structure (36434). These features indicate that the plateau was used and settled at least sporadically during this period.

3.2. Early Bronze Age Settlement and Metallurgical Activities on Dzedzvebi's North Slope (Areas II and III)

3.2.1. Workshops and Houses in Dzedzvebi, Area II.2

Area II.2 has been under investigation since 2007, when a hearth was incidentally discovered during construction of the Dzedzvebi dirt road (the hearth of what was later

labelled House 1). In 2008, the excavation focused on the southwest, where House 2 was discovered (Fig. 7). Excavations were resumed in 2013 and were finally completed in 2014. Multiphase occupation and metallurgical activities can be observed across the area. As early as 2008, it became clear that the double-shelled wall of House 2, on its southwest side, had been added to the older house wall of House 1. Further excavations confirmed these findings. However, the features were disturbed by the old dirt road running through the middle of houses 1 and 2. The 2014 excavations further to the southwest, along the newer dirt road, also showed that the preservation condition of the features would likely make further archaeological observations difficult, due to erosion. The excavation of an area (II.6) to the north and adjacent to excavation Area II.2 unexpectedly did not reveal any relevant features aside from medieval rubble stone wall terraces. Nevertheless, these findings are significant, because they make it clear that scattered settlement activity can be expected in various areas of the Early Bronze Age occupation.

House 1 is a circular house feature, c. 8 m in diameter, with a single-shelled outer wall and central hearth. An attempt to record an older soil layer in the north of the feature failed to reveal any clear features but showed that numerous Kura-Araxes-period pottery fragments were embedded in

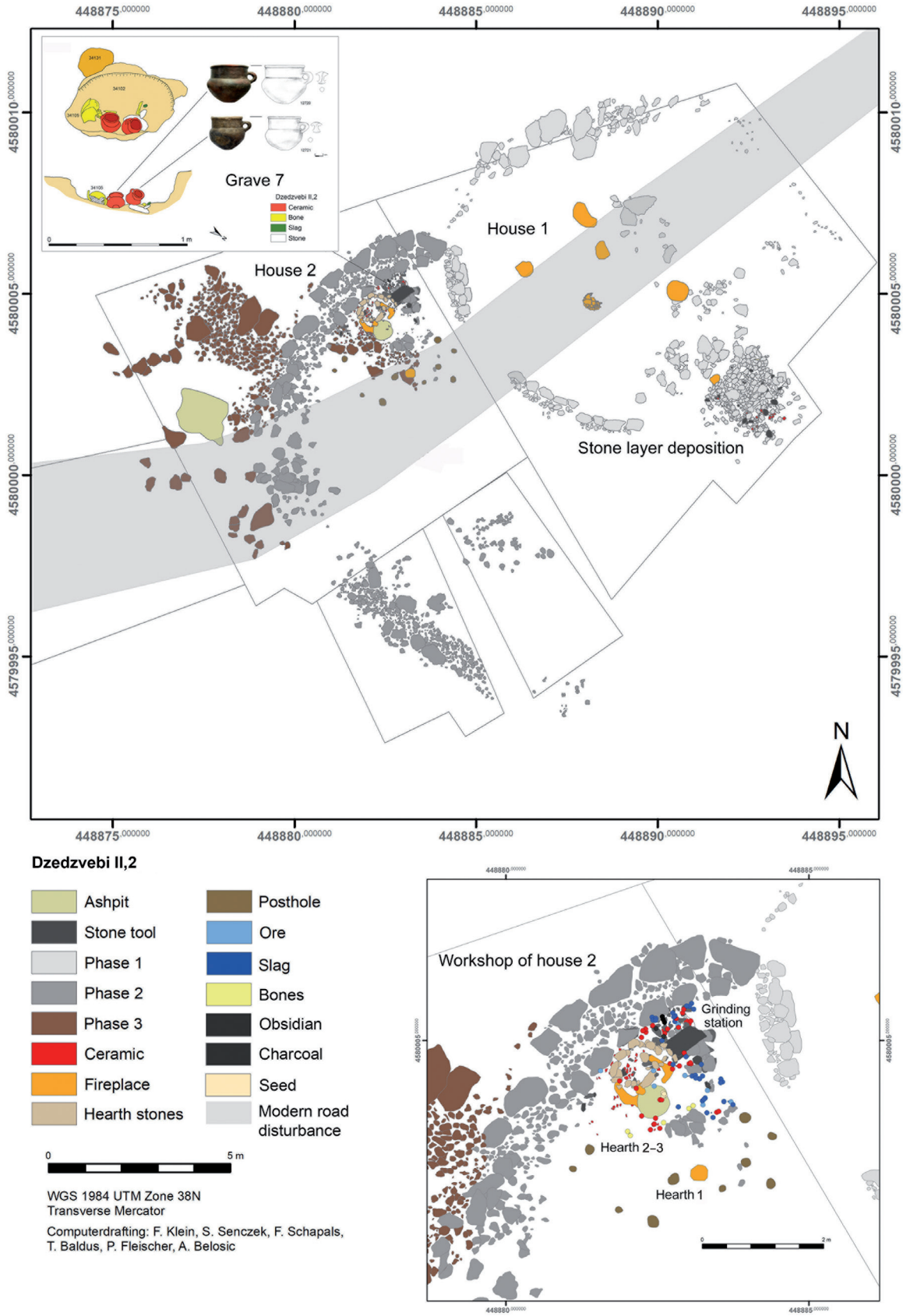


Fig. 7. Dzedzvebi, Area II.2, features of the Kura-Araxes building phases 1–3 (House 1, House 2, stone layer deposition, workshop and Grave 7) and an older ash pit in the west (Draft: DBM/RUB; A. Belošić, S. Senczek).

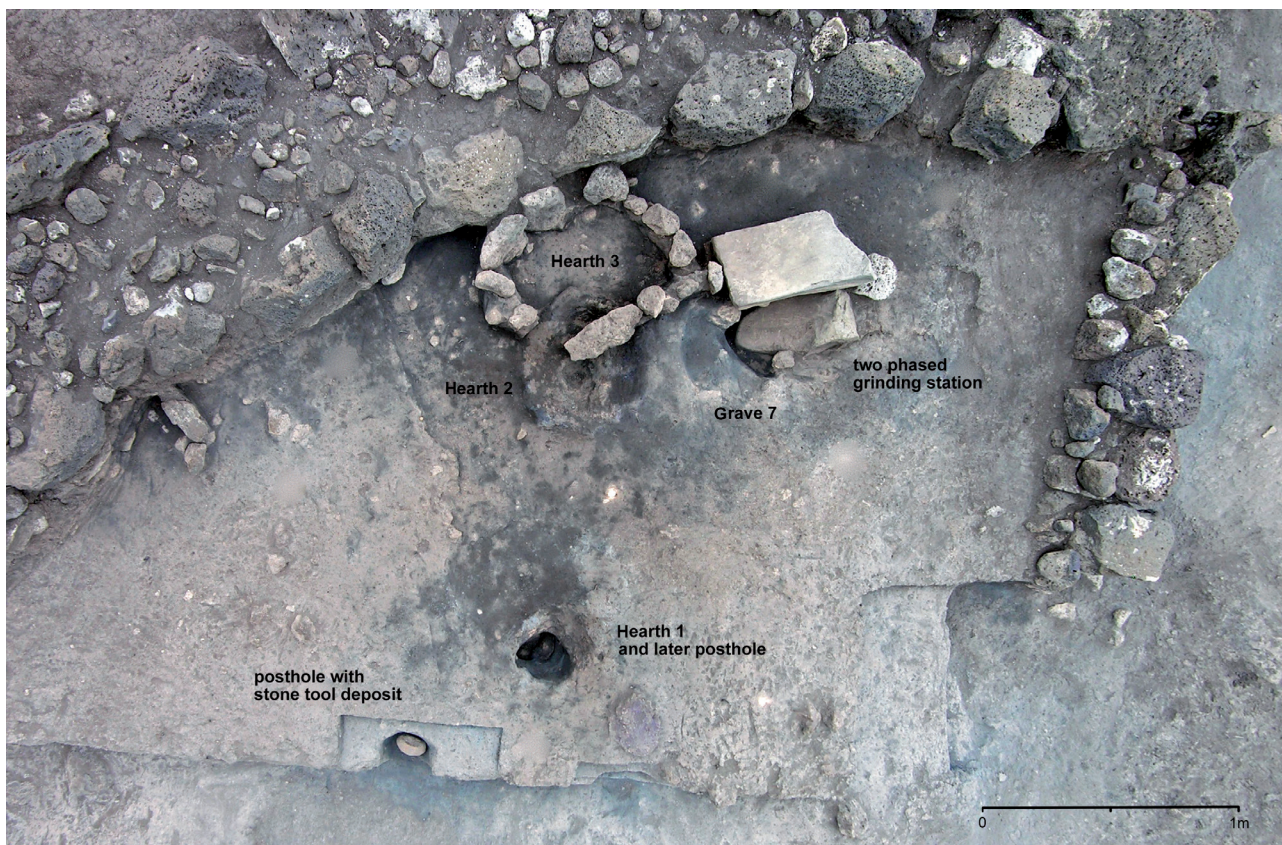


Fig. 8. Dzedzvebi, Area II.2, bird's-eye view of the workshop area of House 2 in its younger phases with grinding station (beneath the pit of Grave 7 is visible), hearths 1–3 and postholes (Photo: DBM/GNM/RUB; T. Rabsilber).

the floor loam, indicating the presence of older feature layers in the surrounding area. In 2008, an extension of the excavation to the southeast of House 1 finally yielded a layer consisting of quarry stones and macrolithic tools that had been placed on an old surface (Feature 34014) (Fig. 7). A similar find was documented in II.8 (Feature 38022). A comparable quarry stone deposit (Feature 34024) was also discovered in the workshop area of House 2, to the north of House 1, in the spandrel of the double-shelled wall (34026). This area turned out to be the location of a metallurgical workshop, which seems more than a sheer coincidence, as it seems that such layers covered places of important practices in the Dzedzvebi EBA settlement (e.g. areas II.2, II.3, II.8). The double-shelled wall was only partially preserved, due to the old dirt route, which curved to the southeast. Interior structures cannot be clearly distinguished in the eastern part, but a waste area outside Wall 34026 was documented in Feature 34051. The multiphase workshop finds investigated in the northwestern area of House 2 are significant (Figs. 7–8). One of the *in situ* features consisted of two superimposed hearths (hearths 2 and 3) from the Kura-Araxes period (34053: MAMS 36164, calBC 2 σ BC3310–2925, Tab. 1). This sequence corresponded

to an arrangement of two superimposed grinding bases found above a pit (34067). Another, smaller, hearth, was found in the surrounding area, along with slag and ore heaps. An area of waste mixed with crucible remains was located to the north of House 2 (under an originally transverse wall) and investigated in 2014. Surprisingly, during the 2014 excavation, Pit 34067 was discovered to be a burial pit for a skull burial of a juvenile with two accessory vessels (then 34105) (Fig. 7, top left). Two large grinding plates were later placed on each other and on top of the fill, indicating a two-phase grinding station and attesting to the ritual nature of the metallurgical practice.³¹ Another, older, hearth was located to the south (Feature 34074). Numerous slag deposits on the reddened subsoil attest to metallurgical use. This hearth feature (Hearth 1; the oldest hearth feature) was cut by a posthole (34076) from a later workshop phase, again indicating the multiphase nature of the site (Fig. 8). The hearth was found in the subsoil close to a stone setting (36131) and is therefore likely one of the oldest metallurgical installations at the workshop. Two

31 STÖLLNER 2017, 124–125 and Fig. 2,2; 127–128.

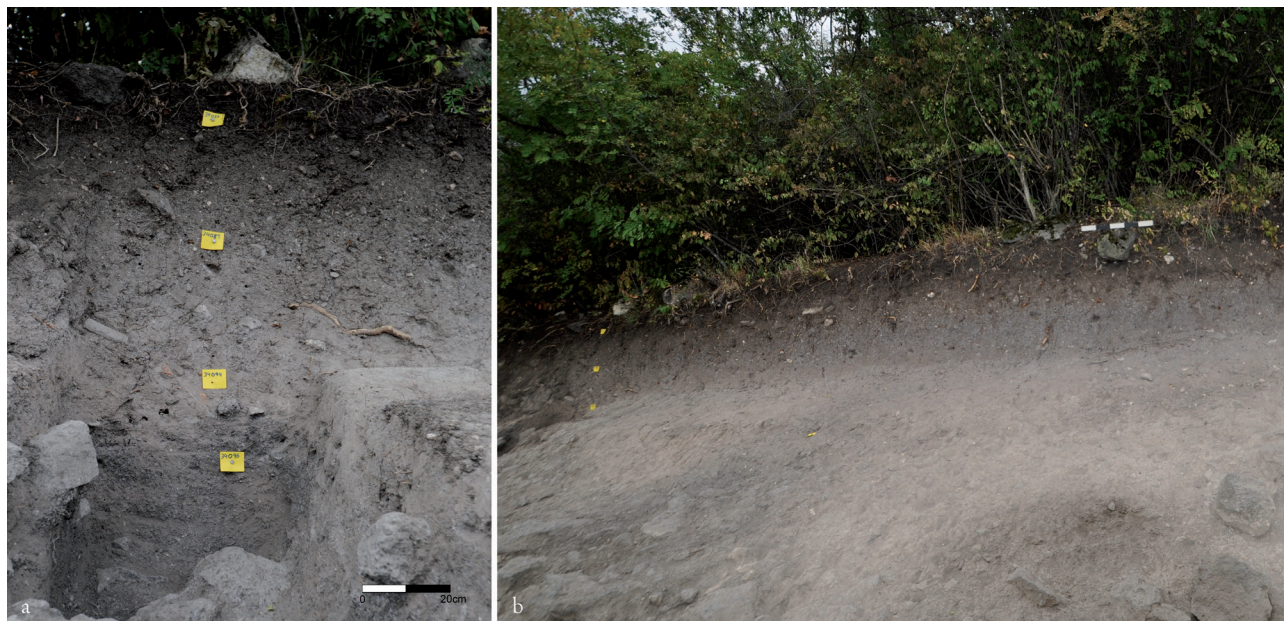


Fig. 9. Dzedzvebi, Area II.2, east profile alongside the old dirt road, showing soil colluvium on top of Kura-Araxes layers. – a. Colluvium layer 34096 on top of ancient topsoil; view towards a sounding/E-profile. – b. E-profile from NW (Photos: GNM/RUB; F. Schapals).

large postholes to the east of the feature also indicate that the hearth was covered with some kind of roofing. Thus, after the removal of a massive building post (34070), a rubbing stone fragment was deposited in the posthole, again suggesting ritual activities in the vicinity of the metallurgical activities. The workshop's use during multiple phases is also confirmed by stratigraphic analysis and construction finds.

House 2 and its workshop were probably not the oldest Kura-Araxes features at this site. The 2013 and 2014 investigations to the northwest and west of Wall 34026 yielded stratigraphically older features: a hearth (34051, in the old dirt road), an ash pit (34096, Fig. 7) and an ash-filled hearth (34106). These features probably lay under a slope colluvium (34029/34098) and indicate the presence of older house features from the Kura-Araxes period there. In the northwestern corner of the excavation area, a stone pack with wall features (34097 and 34099) was also documented; however, any association with the aforementioned features cannot be determined. Parallel to the later wall alignment of House 2, a downhill erosion channel was also documented, which was filled by the slope colluvium and contained some random stone and crucible material. The dating of the slope colluvium thus provides evidence of older metallurgical activity at this site, predating the activity that took place in the workshop of House 2 (see above, 34029: MAMS 36155, calBC 2 σ 3493–3123, see Tab. 1). Whether an animal bone fragment also found in this Late Neolithic layer (late 6th millennium BCE) points to a distinctly older date (Find 6481:

MAMS 36163, calBC 2 σ 5363–5078, see Tab. 1), however, cannot be determined at present, as no corresponding features have been identified to date. A suspicious stone packing (34097) in the northwest corner of the excavation may also be Kura-Araxes-period terracing, which has been documented in two places during the excavations along the old dirt road. Its east profile also shows the various slope colluvia (34094) that developed along the terraces and clearly had a damming effect (Fig. 9).

3.2.2. Workshops, Houses and Graves in Dzedzvebi, Area II.3

The investigation of settlement sections further downhill revealed a similar multiphase stratigraphy. The first features were documented there in the vicinity of House 3 as early as 2009 (Fig. 10).³² Excavations resumed in 2019 and house complexes 6, 7 and 8 were also investigated in 2021. The current settlement plan shows three honeycomb-like ground plans with massive, double-shelled foundation walls. These ground plans have different interior dimensions: House 6 measures approximately 60 to 70 m² (depending on the construction phase), while House 3 is considerably larger, at 110 m² and House 7 is larger still, measuring approximately 180 m² (Fig. 10). The preservation conditions of the architectural remains vary, as the slope has led to erosion-related damage, especially in the downhill sections.

³² STÖLLNER et al. 2014, 97–99.

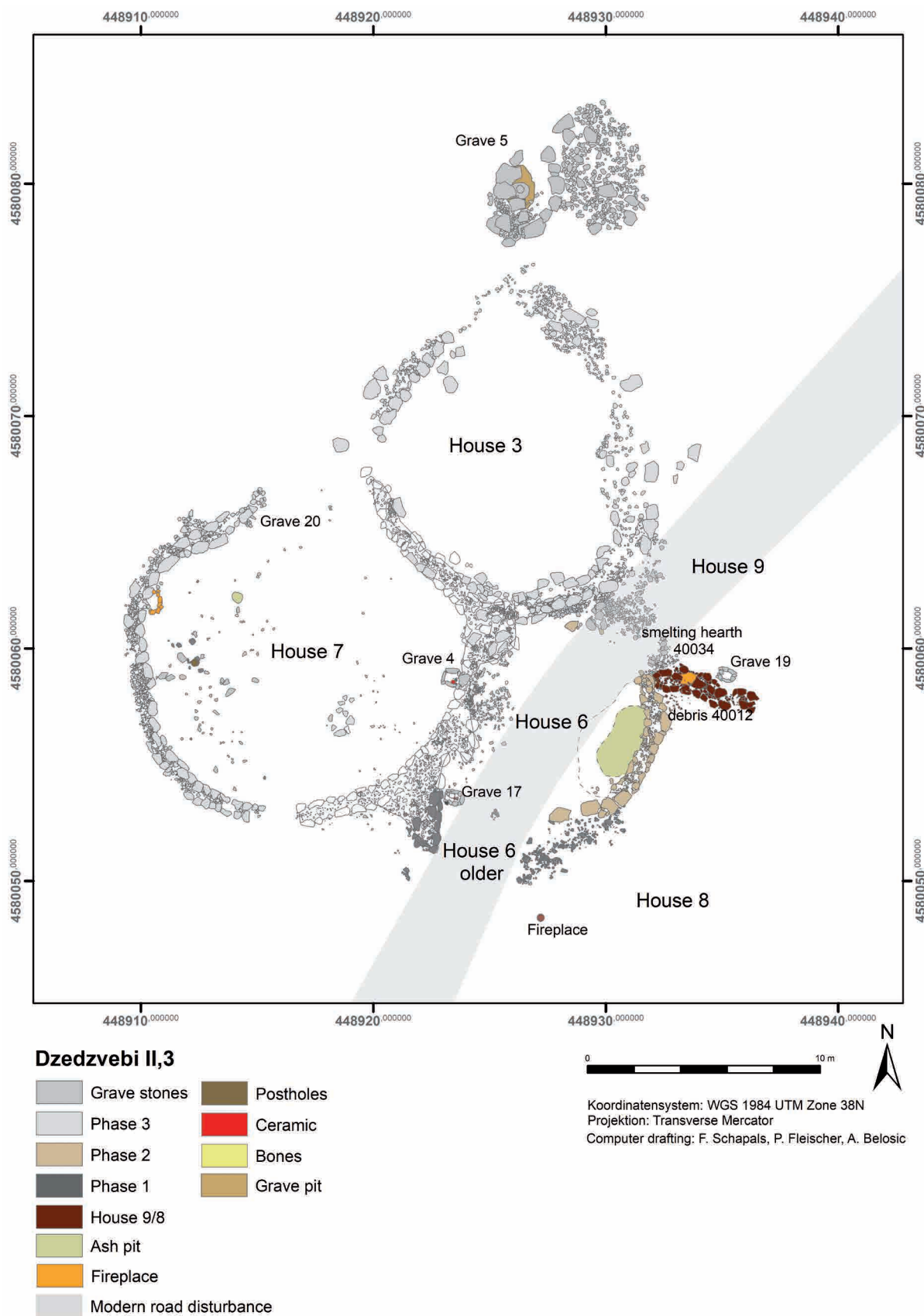


Fig. 10. Dzedzvebi, Area II.3, features of the Kura-Araxes building phases 1–3 (houses 3, 6–9) (Draft: DBM/GNM/RUB; F. Schapals, P. Fleischer, A. Belošić).

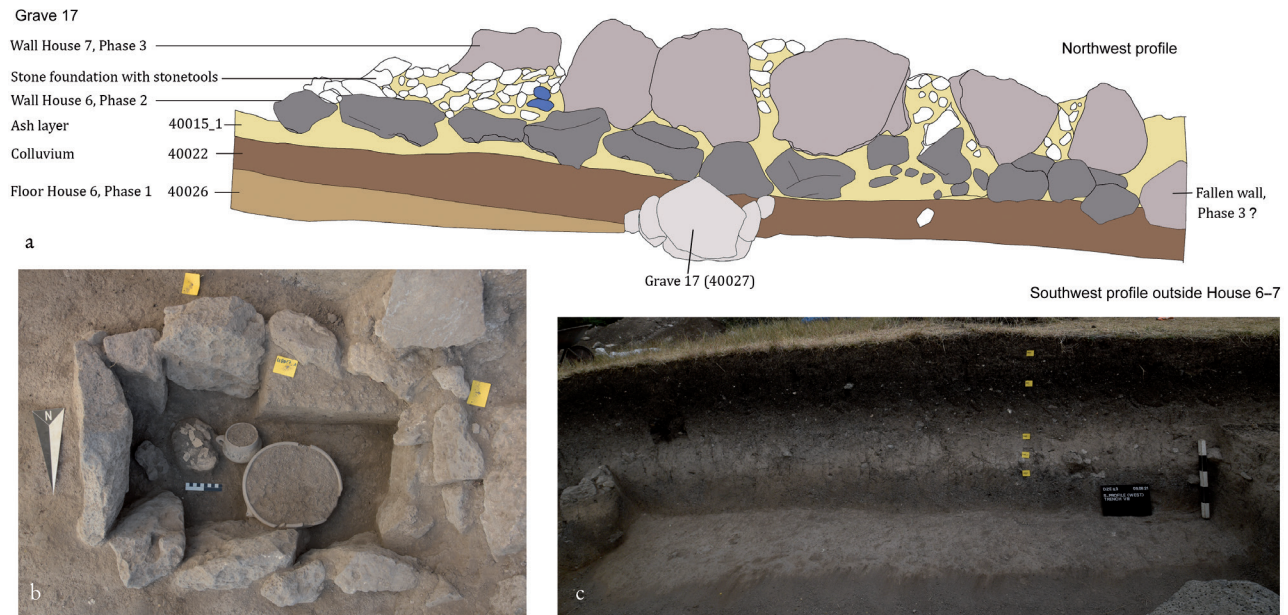


Fig. 11. Dzedzvebi, Area II.3, stratigraphic sequence around houses 6 and 7 and Grave 17 as well as the Early Bronze Age slope colluviums 40022. – a. W-profiles of house walls of houses 6 and 7. – b. Grave 17 with juvenile skull, jug and bowl. – c. S-profile south of houses 6 and 7 with stratigraphical sequence (the ancient topsoil is visible below) (Draft/photos: DBM/GNM/RUB; S. Senczek, F. Schapals, T. Stöllner).

House 6 was also disturbed in the central areas by the old dirt road. Nevertheless, certain common building principles can be observed: the outer sections of the double walls are constructed with large blocks of basalt, filled with smaller rocks. Postholes were not observed in the house walls; only House 7 includes individual, apparently randomly scattered postholes in its interior. These findings suggest light wick constructions for walls and roofs, probably wattle-and-daub structures consisting of light poles with mud or other organic coverings and a single supporting post inside the large buildings. Central hearths – typical for Kura-Araxes house features (e.g. in Shida Kartli or on the Armenian Plateau) – are also absent here.³³ While no hearths were discovered in the houses themselves, one was found south of House 6, which suggests another house was located to the southwest (House 8?). All the features investigated so far are associated with stone cist graves. For example, a skull burial of a juvenile was discovered in Grave 4 in 2009; it can now be assigned to the interior of House 7. Another stone deposition site with a vessel was discovered in the northwestern part of the building (Grave 20). It has been identified as a possible cenotaph. The oldest construction phase of House 6 also included a stone cist, Grave 17 (MAMS 53651, calBC 2 σ 3091–2922), while to the north of House 6, another stone cist, without burial (Grave 19) was

discovered (another house interior, tentatively identified as House 9, likely adjoins here) (Fig. 11). Finally, as early as 2009, House 3 yielded a roundish stone set in the northwest, in the centre of which a Middle Bronze Age burial (Grave 5) was discovered. Vessel deposits from the Trialeti Culture indicate that ritual activities continued well beyond the actual use of the house. It is likely the house construction was still visible in the first half of the 2nd millennium BCE. The stratigraphic position of the stone cist, Grave 17, is interesting, as it clearly belongs to the oldest construction phase of House 6 and was covered by its younger western stone wall (second phase) (Fig. 11). Nevertheless, the grave likely remained accessible, and it cannot be ruled out that ritual activity continued at the cist. The features in the south of houses 6 and 7 provide insights into the multiphase use of the site: House 6 was built in a first phase with a stone cist, before the area was covered by colluvium (40022) with relatively few finds and renewed humus formation (Fig. 11, bottom right). House 6 was then rebuilt with a new wall that extends further to the south and corresponds with a find-rich ash layer (Layer 40015-1), on the surface of which a distinct find-rich surface (40015) was found, probably a waste layer from the third phase in this area. That third phase consists of the construction of House 7, which was partly set on the western outer walls of House 6. Since the radiocarbon dating of ashy posthole fill from within House 7 (40047: MAMS 54816, calBC 2 σ 3332–2939) is roughly contemporaneous with the presumed most recent occupation of Grave 17 (House 6), it

³³ SAGONA 2017, 230–234.



Fig. 12. Dzedzvebi, Area II.3, ash-filled metallurgical hearth 40034 and debris area at the spandrel of houses 6 and 9 (Feature 40012) (Photo: DBM/GNM/RUB; F. Schapals).

is unlikely that much time passed between the reconstruction of House 6 and the occupational activities of House 7. A metallurgically used hearth (40034) of a house feature to the north (House 9?) has also been dated to this time range (MAMS 54805, calBC 2σ 3332–2935), along with a waste area (40012) in the house spandrel outside House 6 and the presumed House 9 (MAMS 53664, calBC 2σ 3326–2926) (Fig. 12). These features probably correspond to the second phase (House 3, House 7 and House 6, younger building phase). They indicate the repeated use of the house areas, accompanied by reconstruction work, for which light and easily renewable roof constructions were probably well suited.

The evidence of craft activities in II.3 is significant. The high number of ore crushing and rubbing tools, crucible fragments, slags and pieces of ore found in House 3 in 2009 was striking.³⁴ The excavations in 2019 and 2021 confirmed these findings, documenting rubbing implements in the younger settlement features distributed around House 7

(south and east) and east of House 6, indicating the presence of specific waste areas outside the house features. The processing of gold-bearing ores was demonstrated by sediment analyses from soil samples;³⁵ further evidence was found in a hearth pit to the northeast of House 6 (probably House 9?). A pit filled with ash (40034, built into an outer wall) yielded crucible fragments near light slag crusts that also included molten gold remains (see section 4.2). This evidence is significant not only because it confirms gold extraction took place here, but also because, as an analysis of the ore remains has already shown, it links the area to gold ore mining activities at Kachagiani (Sakdrisi).³⁶

3.2.3. Workshops, Graves, Pits and Houses in Areas II.7–8

Trenches in this area were excavated in 2014–2015, 2019 and 2021. Here, too, initial prospection was based on test trenches made across the terraced terrain. Three exploratory

³⁴ STÖLLNER et al. 2014, Fig. 24.

³⁵ STÖLLNER et al. 2021. – STÖLLNER 2021b.

³⁶ JANSEN, STÖLLNER, COURCIER 2014, 105 and Fig. 31.

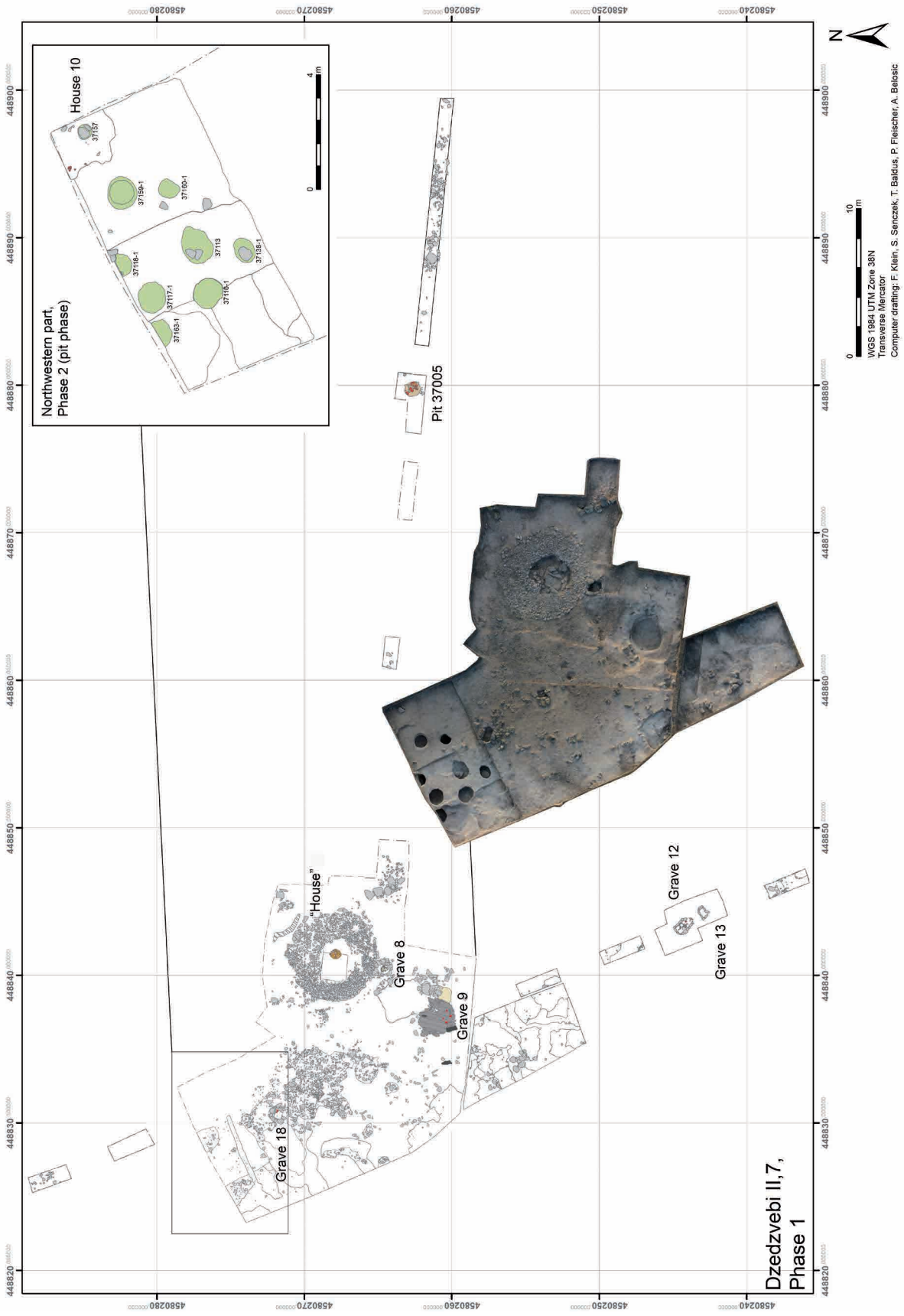


Fig. 13. Dzedzvebi, Area II.7, features around the platform 'House 5' and the graves 8-9, 12-13 and 18 according to the phases (Draft/photos: DBM/GNM/RUB; F. Klein, T. Baldus, S. Senczek, P. Fleischer, A. Belošić).

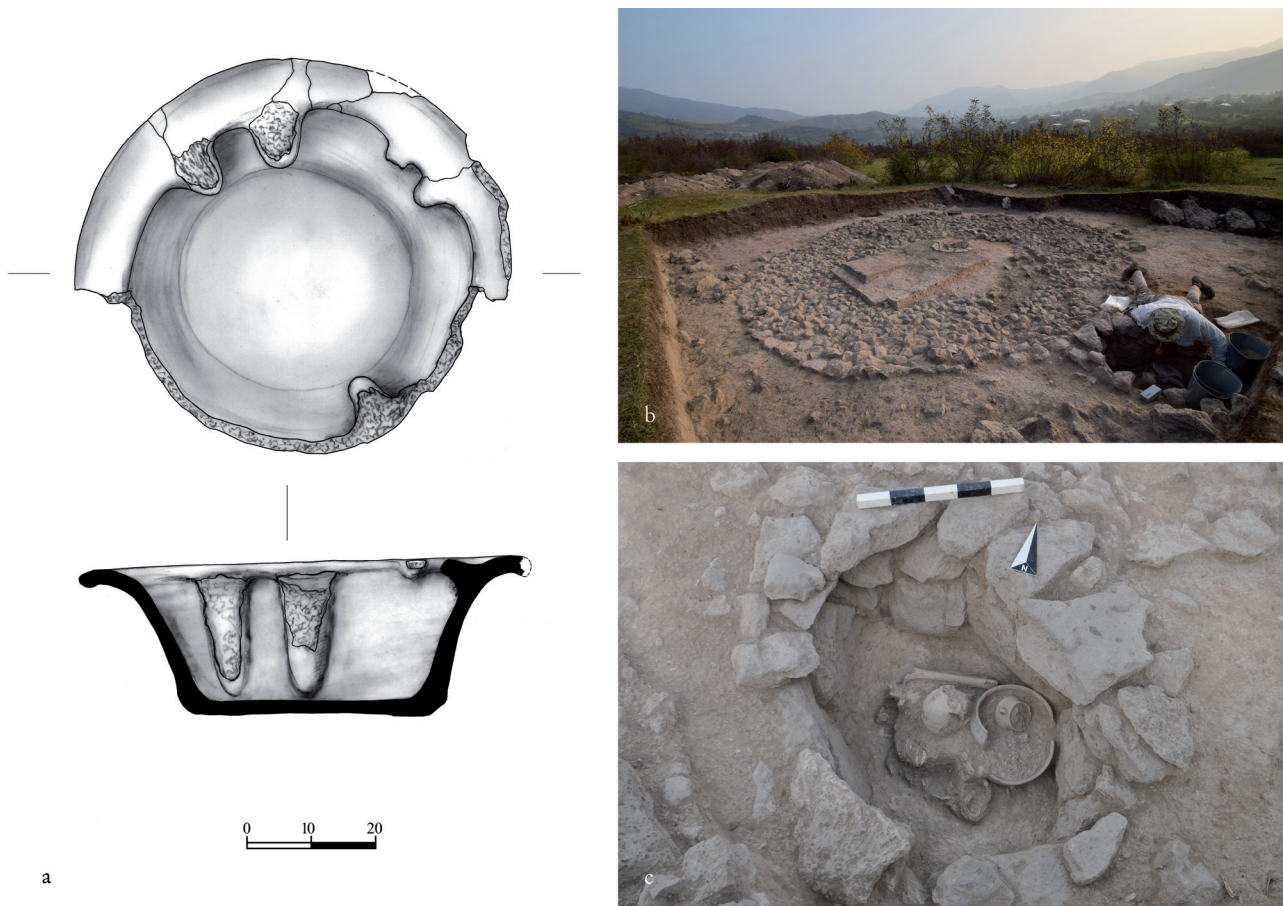


Fig. 14. Dzedzvebi, Area II.7, 'House 5' and Grave 8: Multi-tongued clay hearth (a), view from the southeast to 'platform' House 5 and Grave 8 during excavation 2014 (b) and view to Grave 8 (c) (Photo/drawing: DBM/GNM/RUB; T. Sachvadze, F. Klein).

trenches running approximately E–W were opened along the surface excavation of II.8, while in II.7, five search trenches were initially laid out over a length of 38 m that covered both terraces (Fig. 13). As Kura-Araxes-period stone settings and pit features were encountered everywhere, individual areas were investigated and documented in detail. In Trench 2, a shallow, cauldron-shaped pit was documented (Feature 37006) and the deposit of four vessels (an amphora-like large vessel, a deep bowl, a handle jug and a calotte-shaped bowl), a rubbing stone and hearth remains were discovered there, clearly the remains of a commensal activity that were later deposited here.³⁷ Like the pottery, the pit dates to the 34th to 31st century BCE (MAMS 36159, calBC 2 σ 3340–3039). Results from testing on the upper terrace were more significant (initially II.7, Trench 5) (Fig. 13): Most notable were a roundish stone platform with a large, central hearth (House 5), an adjacent stone cist burial (Grave 8), and the

conspicuously elaborate tholos-shaped Grave 9. The hearth is embedded in a central clay level of c. 3 m diameter, but a follow-up investigation did not reveal any underlying features, only larger basalt slabs embedded in the loess soil. The hearth itself, with at least five inwardly turned tongue-shaped prolongations, resembles a particular Transcaucasian type and suggests that extensive (commensal?) activities took place in this structure; this interpretation is supported by the presence of an animal bone deposit on the eastern edge of the platform.³⁸ Grave 8, which contained the skull and long bones of a mature male, was probably added to the burrow later (MAMS 36154, calBC 2 σ 3261–2925) (Fig. 14). It was backfilled with material that indicates the presence of older layers near the platform (MAMS 36160, calBC 2 σ 3357–3104). Finally, in the southern part of the 2015 excavation areas, one of the most remarkable grave finds of the Dzedzvebi Plateau was discovered (Grave 9: Fig. 15). The

³⁷ STÖLLNER 2017, 123 and Figs. 2, 4–5.

³⁸ In general SAGONA 2017, 250–252 and Fig. 5.7.5 (Tsikhiagora B2).

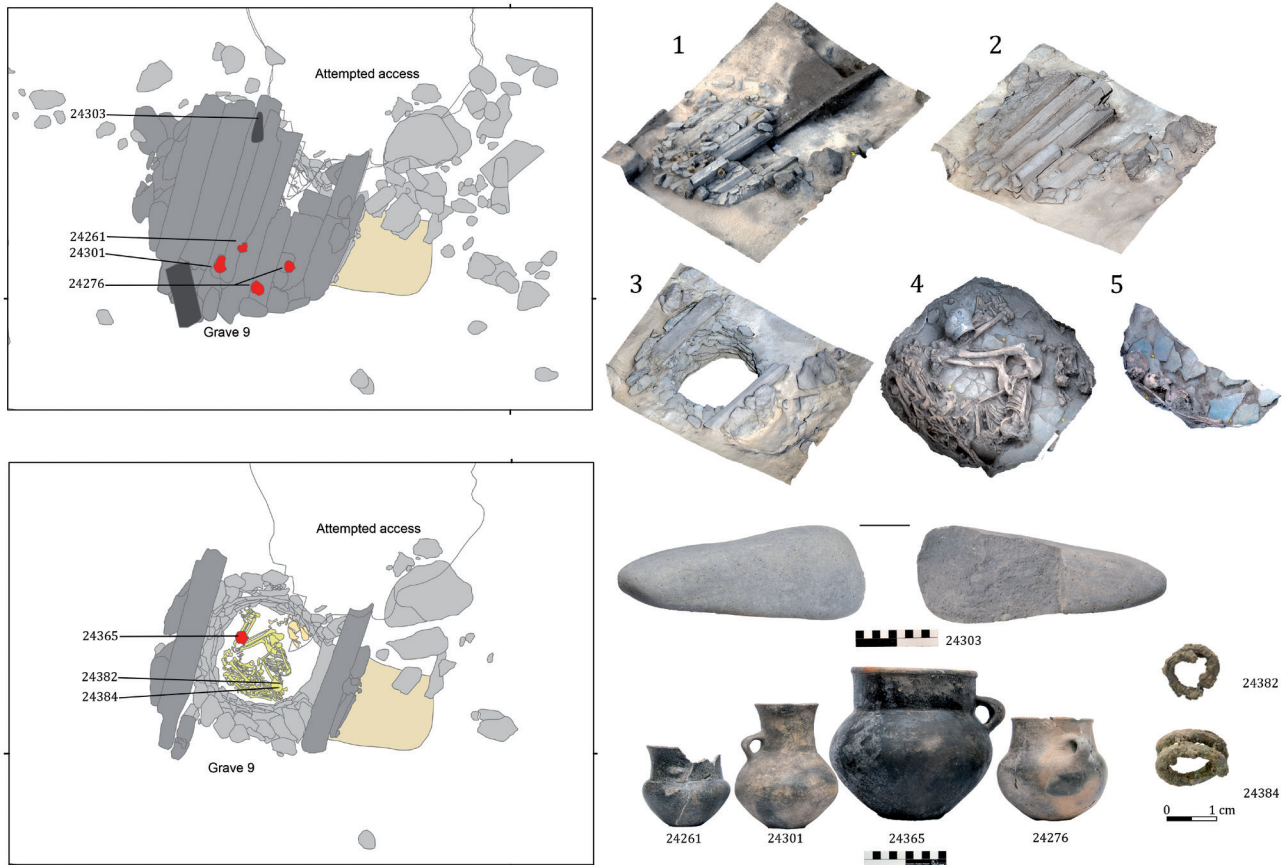


Fig. 15. Dzedzvebi, Area II.7, Grave 9, maps of basalt needle covering and deposits, interior part of the grave and SFM (Structure from Motion)-3D-modelling (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Belošić, H.-J. Lauffer, F. Klein, S. Senczek).

roundish burial pit, measuring 2 m in diameter, was lined on the inside with a dry-stone wall and a floor made of platy stones; it was accessible via a c. 80 cm-wide entrance with a 1.2 m-long *dromos* on the south side. The *dromos* was closed by two larger basalt slabs, covered with eight needle-shaped basalt rocks, each approximately 2 to 2.5 m long, and finally encircled with basalt quarry stones. A disturbance from the north corresponded with a 4 × 3 m pit and destroyed a small section of the basalt needle cover on the northeast side, but without penetrating the grave. Stratigraphic observations suggest that the disturbance occurred not long after the burial itself. The deposition of a piece of basalt needle, chipped by the disturbance near the surface of the grave cover, also suggests that the grave was not covered by additional sediment at the time, but was still at least partly visible. Three vessels and a stone implement, on the other hand, were found directly on top of the grave covering and probably indicate ritual deposits after construction of the grave (Fig. 15). Why the burial chamber was disturbed by a pit from the north remains unknown, but an intention to rob must not necessarily be assumed. The grave itself shows

multiple reuses: the presence of a bone package with the remains of three male individuals on the southwest side, which likely represents older burials, in addition to the last of the crouched burials, probably indicates this was a burial place for male individuals. The last crouched burial, which included one lamb and two adult sheep skulls, an amphora-like shoulder vessel and a copper spiral ring, was a physically tall man (see section 4.6). Not only the location of this burial, but also the different isotopic origins of the ewes (see section 4.5) suggests this last addition to the collective burial played an important role, as the ewes might have been grave goods from persons from different regional backgrounds.

New insights were obtained during the 2019 and 2021 excavations. Individual medieval intrusions (the younger intrusions in Feature 37138: MAMS 54814, calAD 2σ 1215–1271; Feature 37090: MAMS 53670, calAD 2σ 1168–1264) became visible; they disturbed strata that included ashy cultural layers and stone layers over a large area, indicating the agricultural use of the site in later periods (Fig. 13). These Kura-Araxes-period features, as the 2021 excavation in particular has made clear, represent a younger phase. The stone

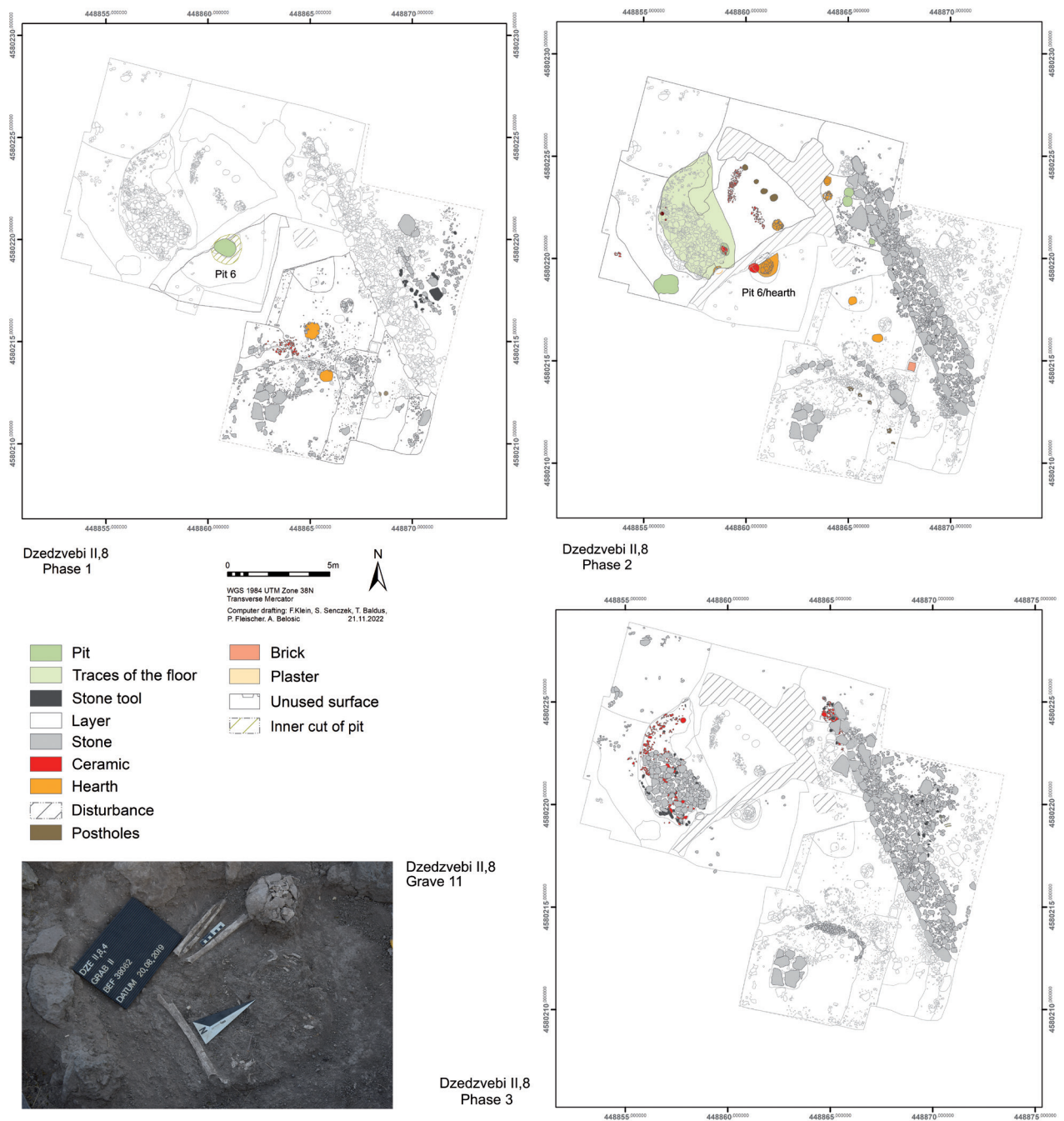


Fig. 16. Dzedzvebi, Area II.8, features according to the stratigraphic sequence (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Belošić, M. Büyükyaka).

cist grave Grave 18 is of particular interest here; its grave rim was partially fitted with millstones and rubbing stones and it contained the cranium of a juvenile individual and two accessory vessels. This feature can be compared with similar ritual activities documented in the workshop areas of II.2 and II.3. Most importantly, the 2021 excavation in the northern part of Trench 11 provided insight into the older features that were located under the younger overburden

of grave features, stone rolling and cultural layer remains. No fewer than eight cauldron-shaped pits were discovered there. The dating of Pit 5 and Pit 11 reflects a slightly older calibration range (Pit 5: MAMS 54817, calBC 2σ 3341–3041, base of Pit 11: MAMS 54807, calBC 2σ 3338–3012) than the nearby Pit 9 (MAMS 54815, calBC 2σ 3307–2920) and the adjacent clay platform. A stone cist was erected underneath this platform, designated as Grave 21; it did not contain a

burial deposit (MAMS 54806, calBC 2 σ 3328–2925). This indicates that the lower stratigraphic horizon in II.7 represents a settlement feature that was in use during the 34th and the beginning of the 30th centuries BCE and that ritual features and graves were probably added towards the end of this period, before the central features were covered with settlement waste, ash and stone rubble. Further investigations are needed not only to more closely examine these older settlement features, but also to understand their connection to the ritual appropriation of the site. It is clear, however, that the scattered grave features 12 and 13 (which do not include dumping), uncovered in the south, should also be seen in this context.

A similarly complex development can be observed in the adjacent Area II.8, where a complicated stratigraphic sequence was excavated in 2014 and 2021, initially starting from three search trenches (Fig. 16). In 2015, the area where settlement features were recorded in 2014 was extended by a large trench and a multiphase house area was discovered (House 4). To the east, the feature is delimited by a massive wall. This stone block wall, nearly 2 m wide, runs NNW–SSE and most likely represents a terracing wall, as it could still be observed in the east of the central Cut 5 in II.7 (38020). If this is the case, the feature would have extended approximately 50 m along the edge of the terrace, which is still visible today. Unlike the house features in areas II.2 and II.3, House 4 is not framed with double-shelled quarry stone walls, but with a semicircular clay bank (38035), which formed the edge of a possible interior room in the west.³⁹ In the east, four shallow post pits were discovered in 2019, which may belong to a roof construction (Fig. 16, Phase 2). However, since the feature as a whole was disturbed by a large animal burrow, it is difficult to determine the exact extent of a possible house interior. Some of the features suggest activity zones, such as three hearths, the outstanding feature ‘gold washing hearth’ (38046) built over a pit (No. 6), and a central dump consisting of quarry stones, grinding tools and pottery (38011, 38017). In the latter, stone layer 38011 covered the ceramic deposit 38017, consisting of storage vessels, bowls, jugs with handles and aniconic stands, as well as an *in situ* arrangement of two stands and a three-handled vessel with haematite filling on the semicircular clay bank (38037) (Fig. 16, phases 2–3). The stone layer covered the crockery layer as well as the stand-vessel deposit and thus probably represents the remains of a specific activity.⁴⁰

Particularly striking was the hearth discovered in the south of the feature; on its central, indented inner surface, a pan-like bowl was discovered, still *in situ*. Based on its relatively high gold content, this particular find could be interpreted as a washing hearth (Fig. 17).⁴¹ The adjacent lower part of a storage vessel may have contained ground material that was processed further here. However, follow-up investigations revealed that the feature only covered the upper part of Pit 6, partially excavated in 2019 and further investigated in 2021. Further excavation revealed three additional hearths under Hearth 38046, which closed the rather narrow mouth of a pit that widened into a cauldron shape to a depth of approximately 1.1 m and a diameter of approximately 1.4 m (Fig. 17). Three ¹⁴C dates indicate that the oldest fill (Feature 38134: MAMS 54811 calBC 2 σ 3362–3102) is slightly older than the fill found above it (Feature 38133: MAMS 54812, calBC 2 σ 3346–3037) as well as the washing hearth at the top of the pit (Feature 38046-1: MAMS 53662, calBC 2 σ 3335–3025). This suggests that the pit initially served as a storage pit and was later transformed into a feature with a ritual-technical use. Significantly, Deposit 38017 (pottery, utensil and stone deposits to the northwest of the pit) is younger and thus marks the conclusion of the events in House 4 (MAMS 36162, calBC 2 σ 3262–2919).

Pit 6 clearly suggests the presence of an older settlement feature in the vicinity of House 4 but also demonstrates the continuous social and ritual practice that took place in older parts of the settlement that were remembered through deliberate actions (Fig. 16, Phase 1). The 2019 and 2021 investigations finally recorded older settlement activities parallel to Storage Pit 6 by extending the excavation area to the east and southeast. These findings suggest that the above-mentioned Wall 38020 most likely represents a younger phase of settlement activity in this area. This phase also includes the stone tools (rubbing stones and underlying grinding plates) found to the east of the wall, which may have been placed there intentionally with quarry rocks. At the end of the chronological sequence, a much younger burial, Grave 11, was placed on the surface of the features there. Next to the skeletal remains of the crouched inhumation burial, a Middle Bronze Age bowl was set down upside down (Fig. 16, bottom left). Like in II.3, these findings indicate later ritual activities (collagen from Grave 11 bones: MAMS 53674, calBC 2 σ 1876–1646). In contrast, rows of stones found in the same area (38077-1, 38096) appear to be older, with

³⁹ STÖLLNER 2017, 124–126 and Fig. 3. – See also GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016.

⁴⁰ SAGONA 2017, 230–234.

⁴¹ SKOWRONEK, COURCIER, STÖLLNER 2017, 132–133. – The hearth type is also known from Abanoshevi: RAMISHVILI et al. 1987, 74 and Tab. 135.

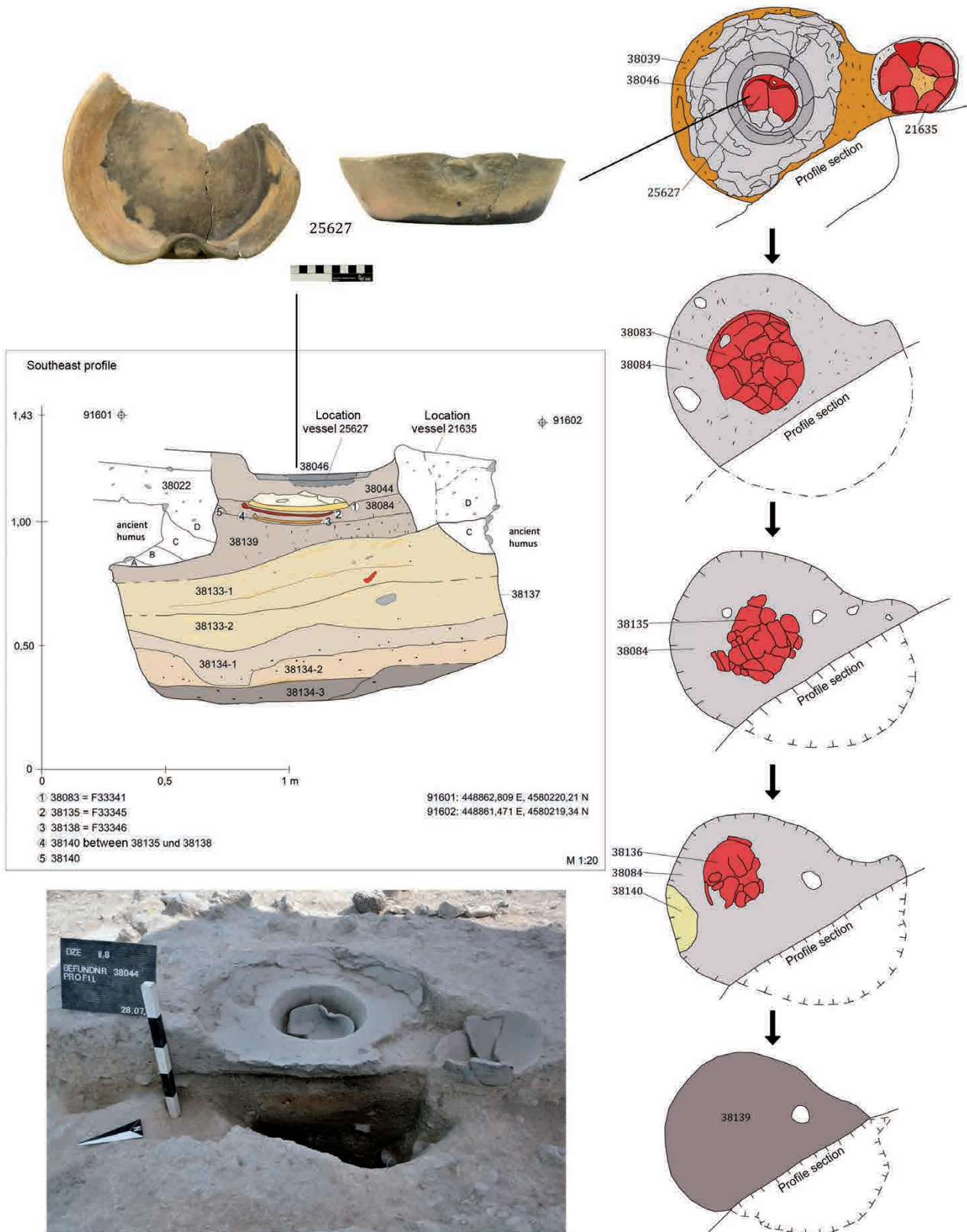


Fig. 17. Dzedzvebi, Area II.8, Pit 6 and hearths in their stratigraphic sequence (DBM/GNM/RUB; S. Senczek, P. Fleischer).

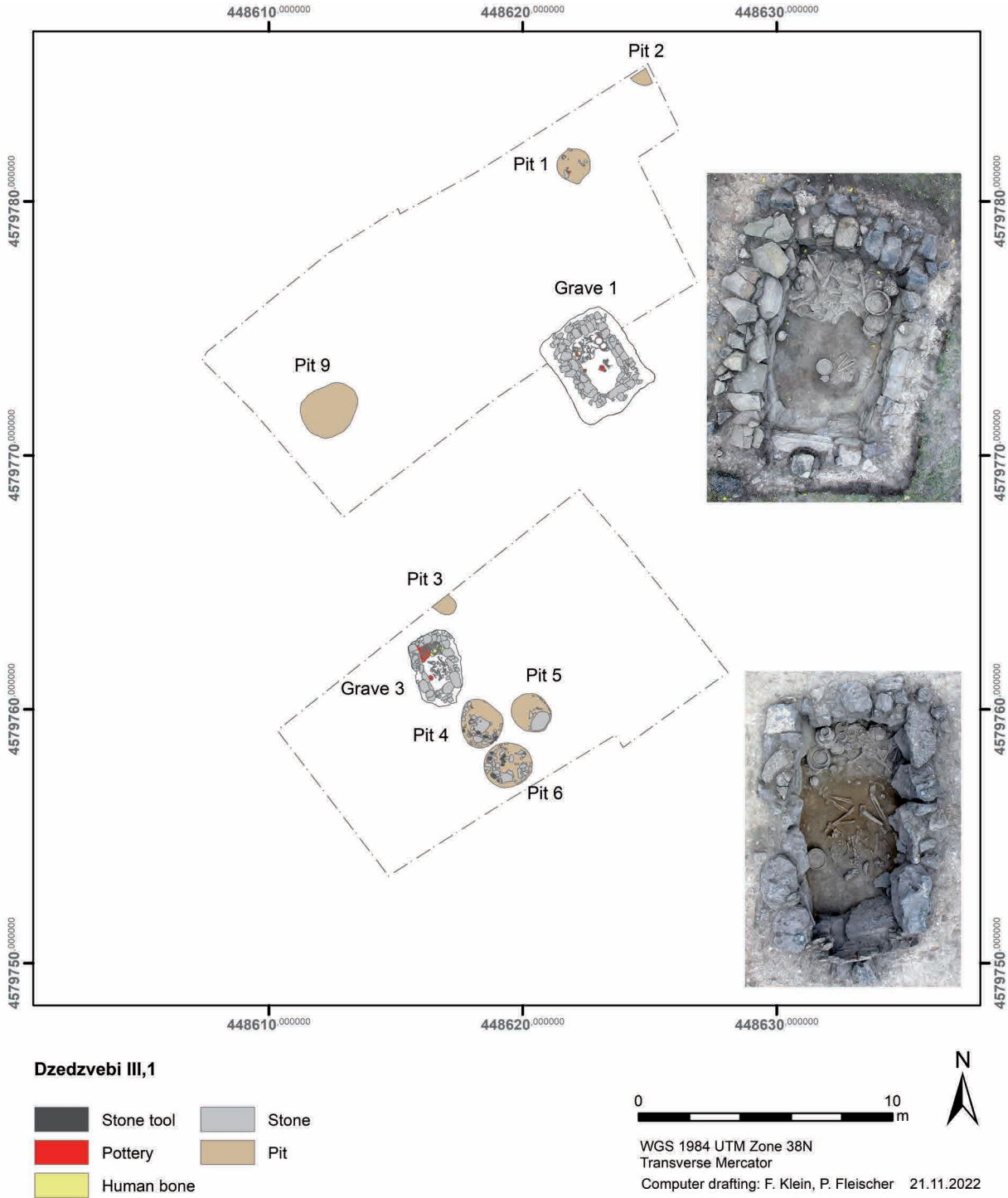


Fig. 18. Dzedzvebi, Area III.1, graves 1 and 3 and accompanying pits (DBM/GNM/RUB; F. Klein, P. Fleischer).

evidence of soil levelling under Wall 38020. Investigations in trenches 5 and 6 produced clearer evidence of these older settlement activities, which included the presence of older soils that appear to have been levelled (including 38114, 38112, 38107), a row of post pits (38111-1 to 38112-6) and at least two hearths (38117/118; 38115/116) and smaller pits.

Two dates from these features indicate they were created between the 34th and late 32nd centuries BCE (38114: MAMS 54808, calBC 2σ 3355–3099; 38107: MAMS 54809, calBC 2σ 3366–3102). These dates appear to correspond to the storage phase of Pit 6. One hearth (38117/118: MAMS 54813, calBC 2σ 3076–2907), however, is associated with the more recent

activities documented in House 4. The results so far clearly show that Area II.8 was occupied over a longer period of time. Like in Area II.7, the activities that took place here were increasingly influenced by ritual activities, probably associated with gold processing.

3.2.4. Workshop, Pits and Graves in Areas III.1 and III.5

The workshop area on the north slope was bordered by two relatively loosely occupied areas to the north and the south (Area III and areas II.1 and II.4). In Area III.1 (Fig. 18), a burial chamber constructed of stone blocks, measuring 3.3×2 m (interior: 2.2×1.5 m, depth 0.7 m) was discovered in 2007. When the excavation area was extended north of the dirt road in 2009, additional features were unearthed in an area measuring 22×17 m, including several shallow pits (pits 1, 2 and 9). These yielded vessel deposits with calcined bones, indicating ritual activities in the vicinity of Grave 1. Grave 1 itself produced a bone and vessel deposit in the northwestern part of the chamber (at least three individuals with eleven vessels), probably three adult individuals (at least one male and one female burial), as well as a subadult burial still *in situ* in the southeastern part of the burial (with two accompanying vessels and another vessel lying further away). The layout of the burial suggests that access was gained from the southeast and that burials and later ritual activities were carried out in that area. It is clear that skeletal parts were moved to the northwest. Grave 1 was the first location where typical Kura-Araxes collective burials were documented on the Dzedzvebi Plateau; other burials of this type were found in graves 3 and 6 (Dzedzvebi II.4). The excavation was also extended to the south of the dirt road in 2009, after a chamber burial (Grave 3) was discovered there as well. Here, too, additional features were found in the vicinity of the burial in the 15×7 – 9 m excavation area, including a shallow pit (Pit 3) and three shallow cauldron pits to the southeast of the burial. Chamber Grave 3, measuring 2.3×1.4 m (interior: 1.9×0.9 – 1 m, depth 0.7 – 9 m), includes features similar to Grave 1 and dates to a calibration period between the 31st and the beginning of the 29th century BCE (MAMS 24764, calBC 2σ 3012–2899). At least six individuals (at least one female, one male and one subadult) have been identified, accompanied by a total of 16 accessory vessels and a few limestone beads. Again, one individual, the youngest burial, was laid down in a crouched position in the southeastern part of the grave. Another individual was moved to the eastern wall of the chamber, while others lay with stacked vessel deposits and a bone package in the northwest of the chamber. Like in Grave 1, the absence of vertebral columns and pelvic parts is conspicuous; aside from skulls and rib arches, mainly the long bones of the postcranial skeleton were found.

To the southeast of the grave, the three pits, c. 0.7–0.9 m deep, were examined in more detail. No organic remains that could indicate a possible grain storage function were found, but the pits had been filled in with quarry stones as well as grinding and rubbing implements (including typical rubbing stones used in gold processing). Pits 4 and 5 each contained 10 implements, while Pit 6 produced only five.⁴² These deposits indicate a link between the persons in the nearby burial and gold production. Researchers suggested in 2009 that a related site may have been located in the immediate vicinity. In 2014, such a site was finally discovered in Area III.5, after several test trenches had been laid out in the surrounding area in 2010, in which Kura-Araxes-period artefacts were found (areas III.2 to III.4), but no definite features. By contrast, the Kura-Araxes-period ore-beneficiation site discovered on the surface of the Dzedzvebi dirt road was highly interesting. An oval find accumulation was discovered in the centre of the find area, measuring c. 2.3×2.4 m, in a dark cultural layer (33038), containing a total of 36 ore-dressing tools (mainly rubbing stones) on top of a shallow pit. In the northwest corner of the feature was a pit (33042) measuring 1×0.7 m and approximately 0.5 m deep, which was backfilled with an ash-rich cultural layer and an ash bed, in which several crucible fragments were found, including several larger pieces (Fig. 19). The backfill of the pit (Feature 33039, Samples 18204 and 18205) yielded gold contents between 3.3 ppm and 12 ppm, indicating the infill of gold-bearing sands formed during processing adjacent to the probable smelting pit.⁴³ The other three shallow pits (33043–45) found in the vicinity cannot be connected to metallurgical activities. They may represent traces of posts that were part of a light flying roof construction. In no case, however, can the feature be described as a stable workshop. It was most likely a short-term processing station, probably operated for a single season. This illustrates the temporary character of the gold processing on the Dzedzvebi Plateau, which is also evident in the multiphase nature of the house features and workshops in II.2 and II.3.

3.2.5. Graves in Areas II.1 and II.4

In 2007, the gravedigger of the cemetery of Dzedzvebi found an amphora-shaped vessel and a lid while digging a fresh grave.⁴⁴ The completeness of the vessels suggested it was a grave good. Further finds, such as hearth fragments, were

⁴² STÖLLNER et al. 2014, 100–101 and Figs. 26–27.

⁴³ SKOWRONEK, COURCIER, STÖLLNER 2017, 131–133 and Fig. 5/2, Tab. 2.

⁴⁴ STÖLLNER et al. 2010, 6000–6001 and Fig. 12.

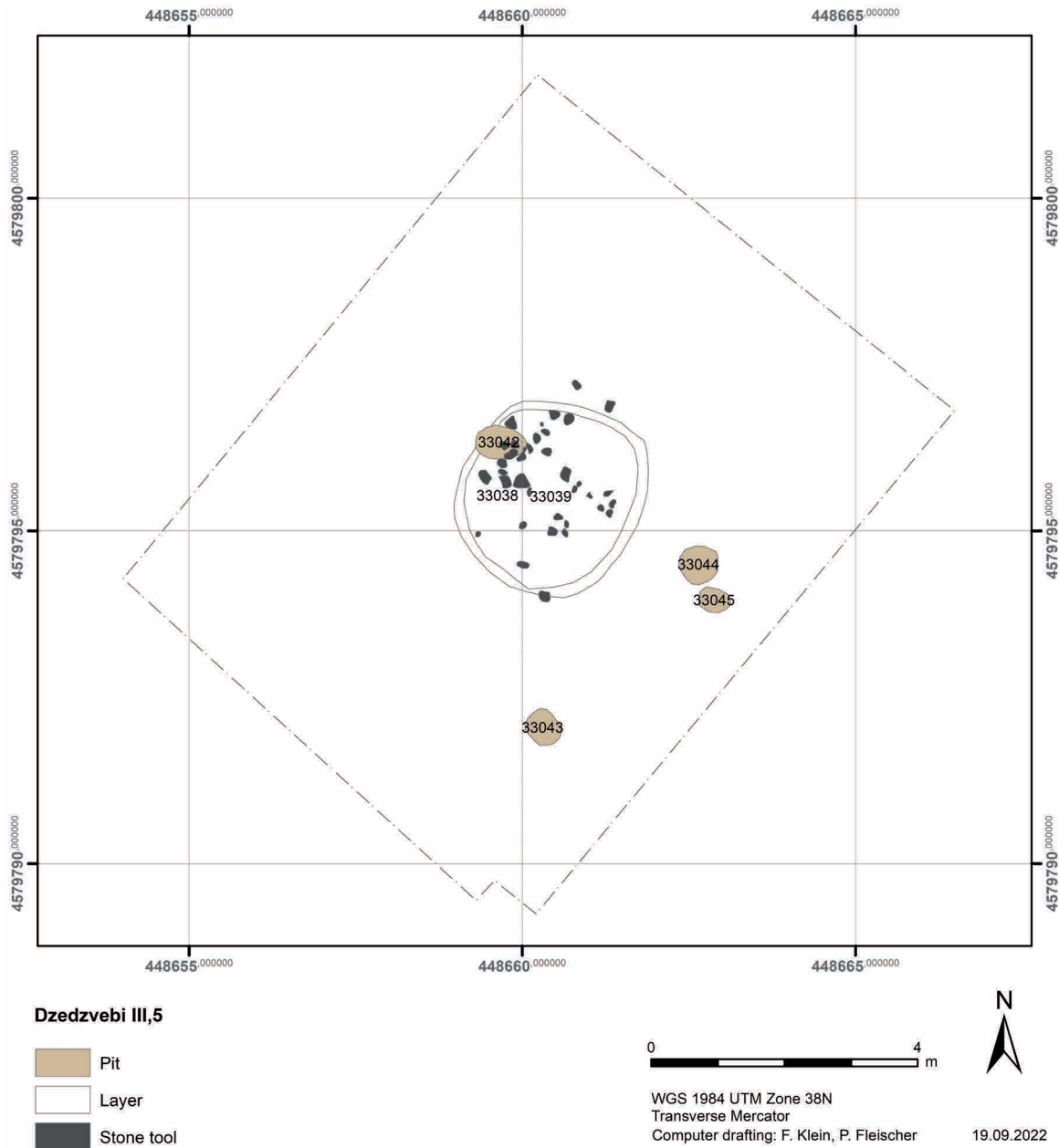


Fig. 19. Dzedzvebi, Area III.5, open-air beneficiation area. – Top: Dump with work tools and pitspits. – Bottom: Northwest profile cutting the dump features 33038 to 38040 (DBM/GNM/RUB; F. Klein, P. Fleischer, I. Luther).

later recovered in the current graveyard, but only during the 2008 excavations was a closed grave discovered near the Dzedzvebi dirt road (Grave 2). The neighbouring Grave 6 was discovered some years later, approximately 30 m to the north. These finds suggest that this, like Area III.1, is the location of a cemetery. How densely occupied this cemetery is cannot be assessed because larger and more comprehensive excavations have not yet been undertaken in this area (Fig. 20). Grave 6, which was investigated in 2011, is similar in its construction and orientation as well as its dating to graves 1 and 3 (MAMS 24766, calBC 2σ 3085–2915; MAMS 24768, calBC 2σ 3090–2926). It is a collective grave, including the remains of a male in a crouched position; a bone package consisting of a further four individuals, three females and one subadult, was found near the feet of the first individual, in the northwestern part of the grave. Again, vertebral columns and pelvic areas were missing from the bone package. Four vessels were included as grave goods, which had clearly been moved from their original position to their final position. A good ancient DNA profile could be obtained from the adult male individual due to its good preservation (see section 4.7); again, the vertebral column was missing, but parts of the pelvis were preserved *in situ*. Pollen analysis on several samples yielded interesting results about plant remains.⁴⁵ Honey was found in the vessel deposited with Individual 1, particularly near the bottom of the vessel. Honey-related pollen were discovered under the head and the right heel; this location suggests the possible use of a balm or healing agent. In the bent right hand, a dark, possibly plant-enriched soil material was discovered, which has not yet been identified more precisely. The pollen found in this location could not be associated with a specific plant species. The observation is interesting, as microscopic analysis indicates low numbers of insects and ticks, suggesting a burial in the cold season, which, in combination with the pollen spectra (e.g. grain pollen), points to an overall agro-pastoral cultivated environment during the Kura-Araxes period.

Another grave (Grave 2) was located c. 30 m to the south, but it is not as well preserved as Grave 6 (Fig. 20).⁴⁶ Grave 2 is younger than the other burials, as evidenced by its furniture and ¹⁴C dating, which indicate it was created during a late Kura-Araxes phase, at the transition to the Martkopi-Bedeni phase (MAMS 24763, calBC 2σ 2852–2506) (Fig. 21). The burial customs observed here differ from the older collective graves 1, 3 and 6. Two adult individuals were possibly ritually

disturbed, and a total of four vessels was added. Finally, a juvenile individual was added to the clearly manipulated burial. Adding a juvenile can be considered a ritual constant of Dzedzvebi communities. The presence of a necklace that was added to the grave also illustrates this ritual context. The necklace was made of limestone beads and two pendants, which can be interpreted as miniature votive items of shaft-hole implements (Fig. 21). This may indicate a connection to metal production but is more certainly an indicator of social status. The question of whether this change in the custom of burial gifts (and the appearance of metal, which was previously rarely included in burials) also indicates changes in the social structure must, however, remain unanswered for the time being. Later Kura-Araxes burials in general contain a higher amount of precious metal items, indicating the growing importance of status displays in burials.⁴⁷

4. Analytical Investigations

4.1. Copper Metallurgy in the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age: Metallurgical and Provenance Studies⁴⁸

Previous investigations on copper metallurgy have focused on the workshop of House 2 in Dzedzvebi II.2 and the Late Chalcolithic copper crucible from IV.3. In more recent investigations, numerous other finds from the excavations in areas II.8 and II.3 have come to light, which are currently being investigated. The number of finds relating to metallurgy, such as crucibles, ores and slags, distributed across the entire settlement, is significant (Fig. 22): Numerous crucibles were found in areas II.3, II.8 and III.5, but very few were found in the vicinity of the workshop of House 2 (II.2). The location of the two crucible fragments at this site probably indicates a relocated or undated context. Many of the slags and crucibles found in House 3 may have been displaced by downslope erosion processes. In contrast to the *in situ* find north of House 6 (40034), no metallurgical installations were found in houses 3, 6 and 7 of Area II.3. More significant, however, is the relocation of crucible fragments in the waste area of House 4 (II.8), south of the large wall of Feature 38022. These crucible fragments are likely related to metallurgical processes with hearth features in House 4. As previously mentioned, no crucible fragments were found in the workshop area of House 2, but there is a slagged hearth in Feature 34074, which suggests that crucibles may not have been the only equipment used for the reduction of copper during the Kura-Araxes

⁴⁵ We are grateful to Dr. E. Kvavadze from the Georgian National Museum, who provided us with a scientific report about the palynological features of the graves and the vessel contents.

⁴⁶ STÖLLNER, GAMBASHIDZE 2011, 195 and Fig. 10. – GAMBASHIDZE, STÖLLNER 2016, 84–95.

⁴⁷ POULMARC'H, PECQUEUR, JALILOV 2014. – STÖLLNER 2016.

⁴⁸ This section is based on work that was carried out by Dr. A. Courcier and this section's author during a DFG/ANR (Agence Nationale de la Recherche, France) project between 2013 and 2018.

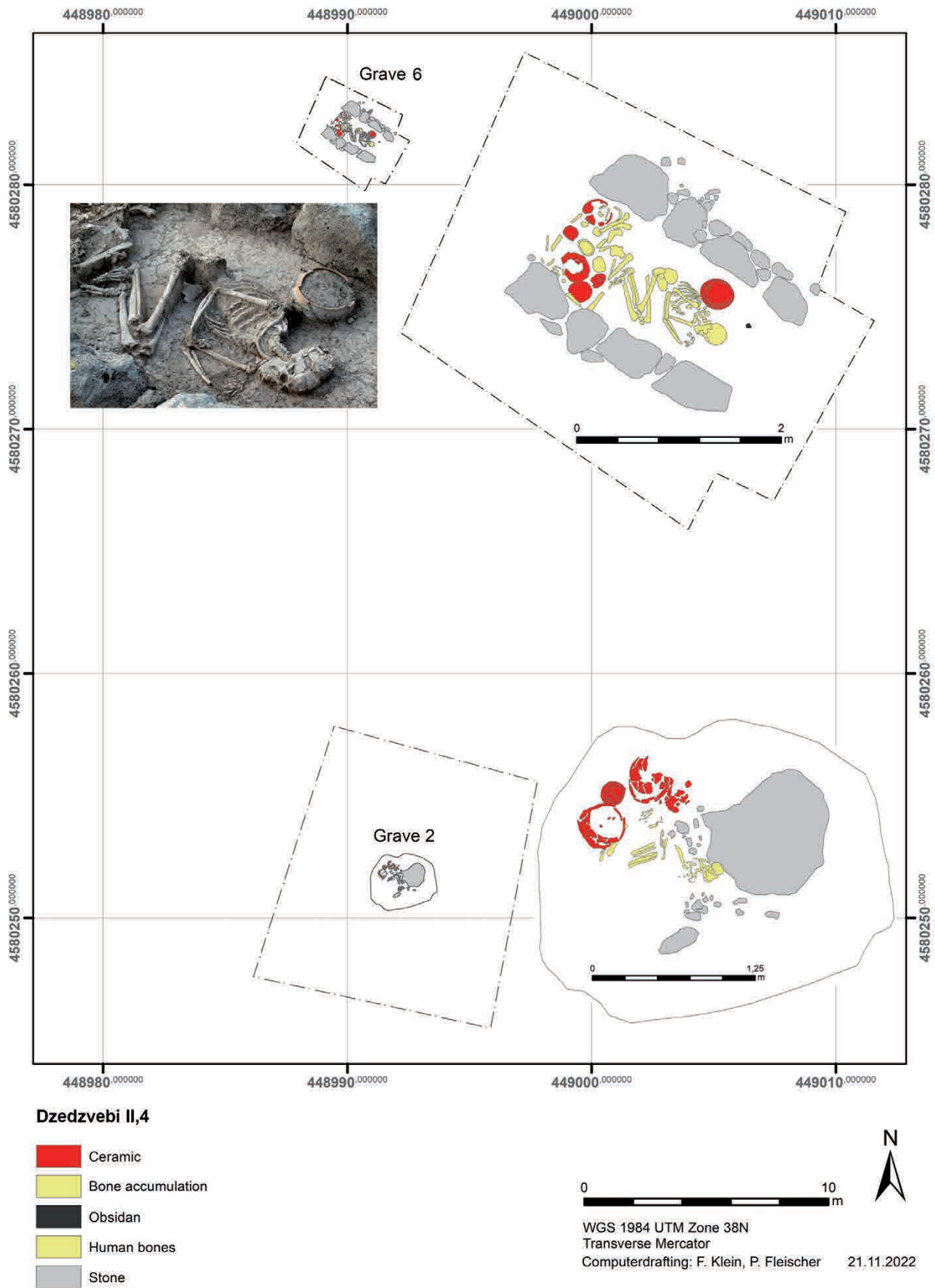


Fig. 20. Dzedzvebi, Area II.4, graves 2 and 6 according to their position and details (DBM/GNM/RUB; P. Fleischer, F. Klein, T. Rabsilber).



Fig. 21. Dzedzvebi, Area II.4, selection of the inventory of Grave 2 (Drafts/photos: DBM/GNM/RUB; T. Sachvadze, T. Rabsilber).

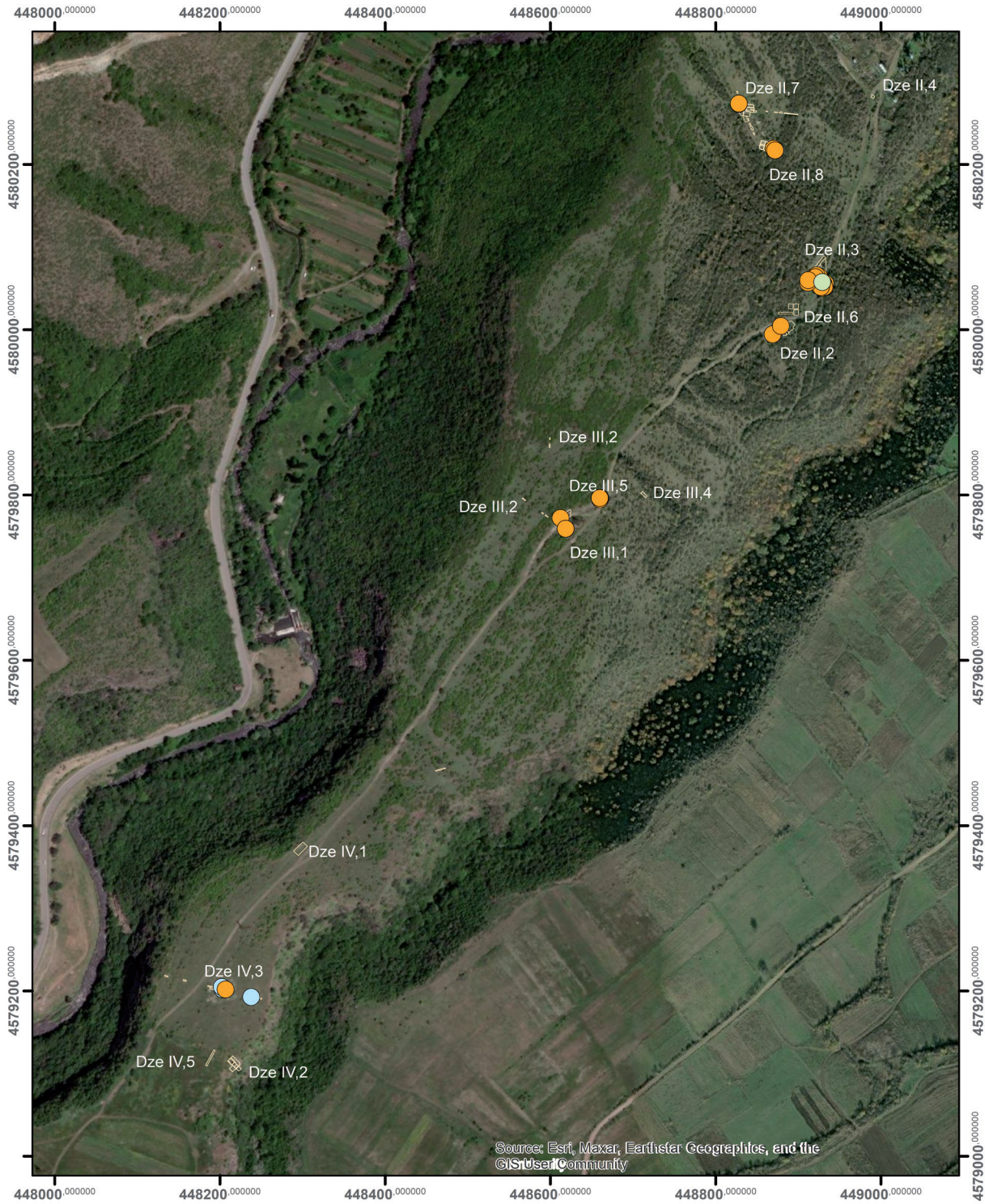
period (Fig. 8). Ores and slags found in this area have been studied more extensively and were found to occur in small concentrations in the floor layers of the workshop (38029, 34059). These findings, in combination with the large rubbing stones found on top of Pit 34067, indicate the processing and crushing of slag and ore in this location. In contrast, the find contexts of the Late Chalcolithic metallurgical tools from Pit 4 (Feature 36278) on the southern plateau (Area IV.3) are less informative. Casting crucible 27905 and the heavy equipment casting mould 27906 were found in a pottery-rich pit (Fig. 23). A further metallurgical context is missing. This also applies to slag from the neighbouring Chalcolithic Pit 7, which may even constitute the oldest slag evidence from the early 5th millennium BCE (29241).

The archaeometallurgical investigation of crucibles, crucible fragments, slags and ores associated with copper metallurgy was based on the examination of 29 samples in the Deutsches Bergbau-Museum (DBM) research laboratory (Tab. 3). For the purpose of studying slags and crucibles, a cross-section of each sample was mounted in resin. Microscopic studies were carried out with a Zeiss Axioplot microscope to distinguish the microstructure of metal objects. Two different etching solutions were used for the copper samples: 1) hydrogenate ammonium peroxide, and 2) a combination of

aqueous ammonium persulfate with acidified thiosulphate/acetate.⁴⁹ In addition, we examined the slags via scanning electron microscopy (SEM), using a Zeiss Supra 40VP SEM, equipped with a Noran System Seven Thermo UltraDry Silicon Drift X-ray detector (SDD) for energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry analyses (EDS). We normalised the results of these micro analyses. Some of the slags and ores were crushed and milled. In some cases, we were able to separate metallic prills from the milled slags, particularly from the slag crust of the Chalcolithic crucible 27905 (Fig. 23). This allowed a geochemical characterisation.⁵⁰ Therefore, chemical analyses of prills and slag crusts were carried out separately. Powdered slags were analysed for their mineralogical composition by X-ray diffraction analysis, using Panalytical X'pert Pro. We carried out X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using an XL3T Nitron portable XRF analyser on the three metal objects and crucible 22434 to examine the major elements. All the artefacts were quantitatively analysed for trace and major element composition by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), using an Element XR high resolution single collector

⁴⁹ SCOTT 2012, 282–283.

⁵⁰ STÖLLNER 2021b, 105–106 and Figs. 5–6.



Dzedzevi crucible finds

- Crucible Strayfind
- Early Bronze Age crucible
- Chalcolithic crucible

0 350 m
 N
 Koordinatensystem: WGS 1984 UTM Zone 38N
 Projektion: Transverse Mercator
 Computer drafting: A. Belosic, J. Bungardt

Fig. 22. Dzedzevi, distribution of crucibles from the Chalcolithic and the Early Bronze Age in excavated areas II, III and IV (DBM/GNM/RUB; J. Bungardt, A. Belošić).

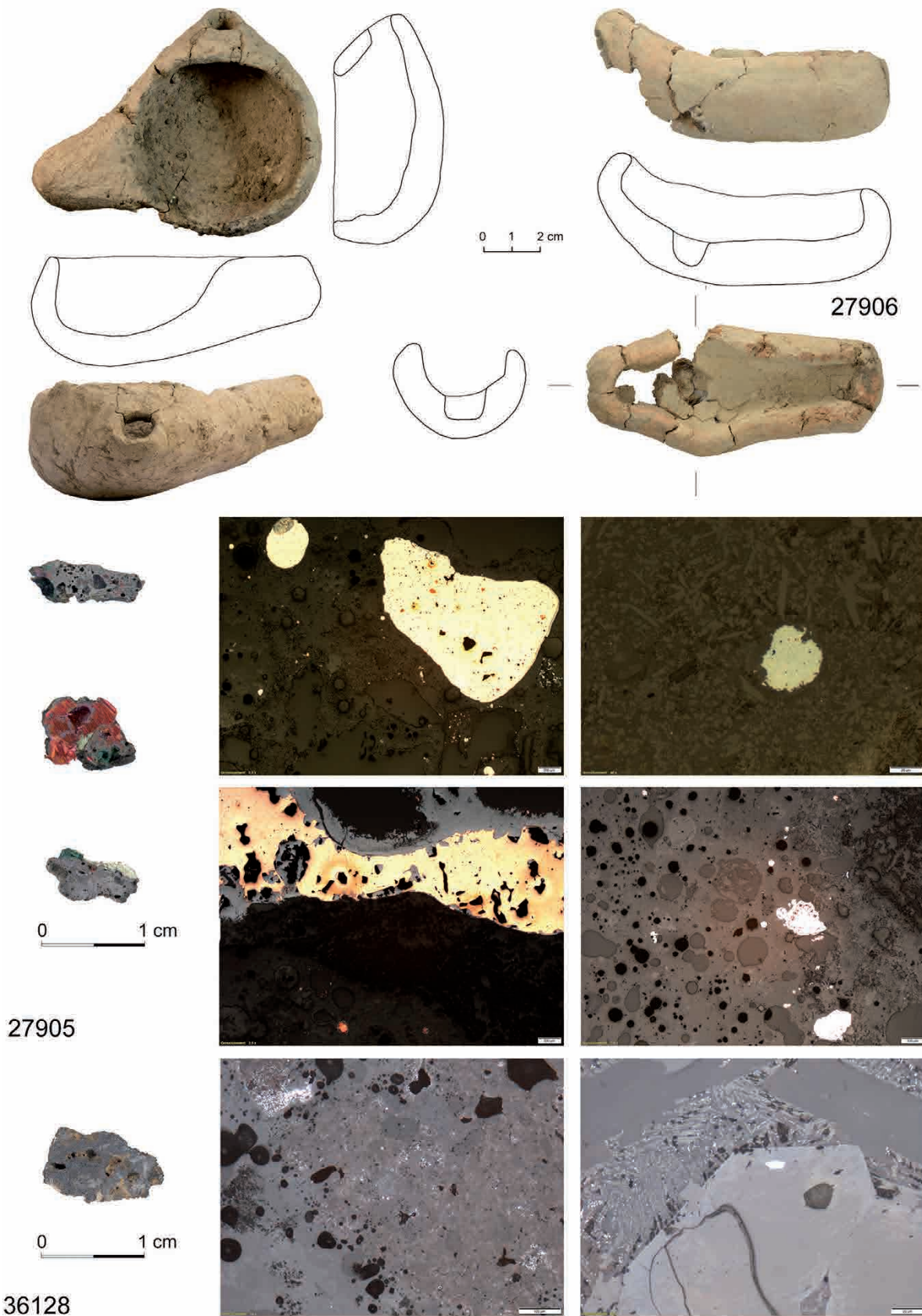


Fig. 23. Dzedzvebi, Area IV.3, crucible 27905 and casting mould 27906 from the Chalcolithic Pit 4 and slags/dross from the crucible with trapped copper prills in thin sections (polarisation microscope) (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Courcier, H.-J. Lauffer, T. Sachvadze).

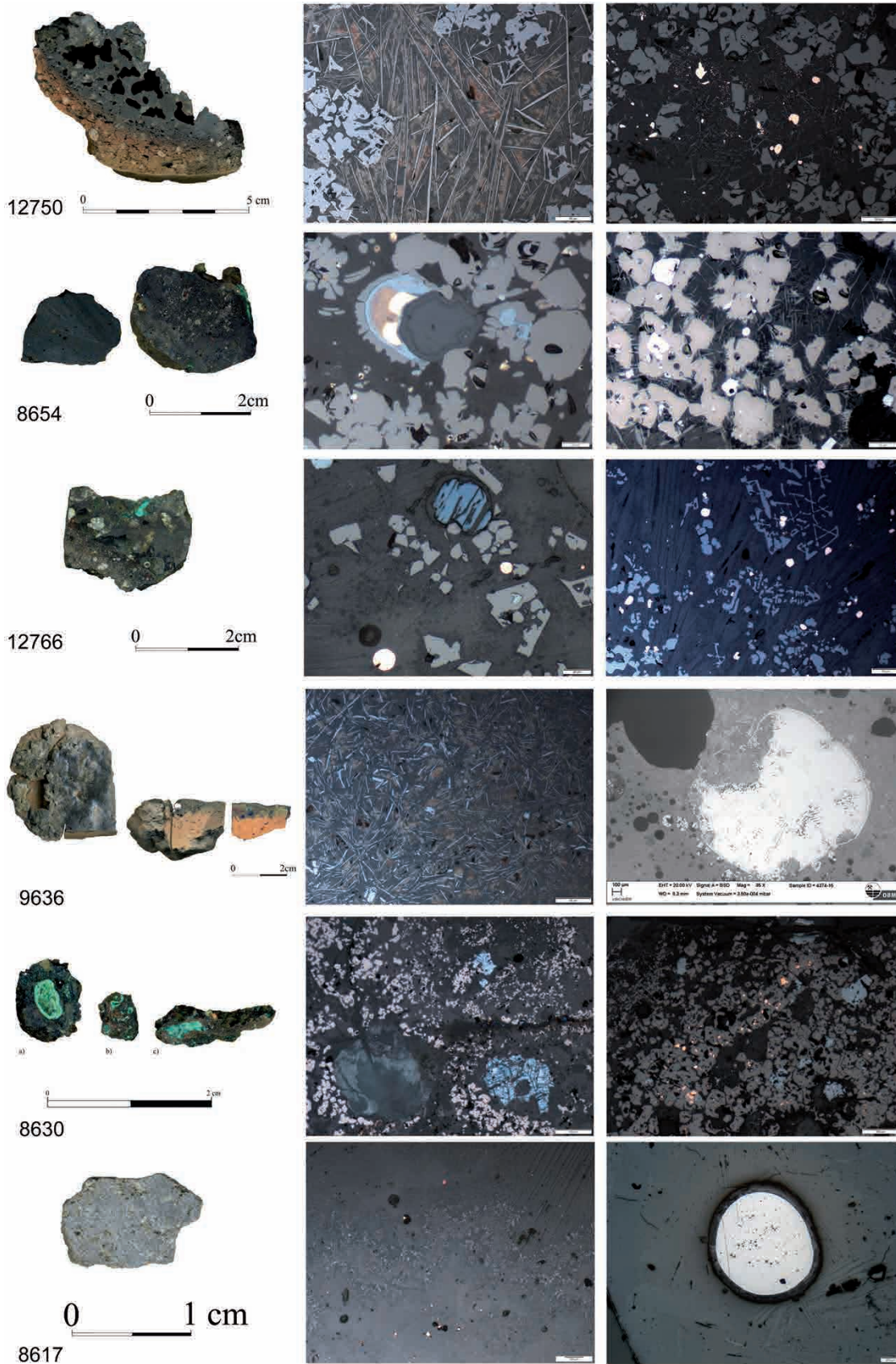


Fig. 24. Early Bronze Age slags/crucible dross from excavation areas II.2 and II.3, thin sections in SEM and polarisation microscope (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Courcier).



Fig. 25. Early Bronze Age metals from areas IV.3 and II.2, metallographic investigations, thin sections under the polarisation microscope (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Courcier, H.-J. Lauffer).

ICP-MS. Lead isotopic analyses (LIA) were also carried out on these artefacts, using a Thermo Scientific Neptune XT equipped with a multi-collector platform Thermo Scientific Triton.⁵¹

⁵¹ This analysis was undertaken in the Department of Petrology and Geochemistry at the Goethe University in Frankfurt am Main under the direction of apl. Professor Dr. Sabine Klein, to whom we are grateful.

Slags and slaggy encrusting from crucibles found in the workshop area of House 2 and some other relocated find spots illustrate attempts at smelting hydrocarbonates (azurite, malachite, e.g. crucible 12750, slags 8654, 12766), sulphur copper ores (chalcopyrite, chalcocite, bornite, slags 6200, 6416, 6431, 6437, 12756) and indeed even co-smelting hydrocarbonates and sulphur copper ores (crucible 8617, slag 8630). In one case, the arsenic and antimony levels indicate the usage of fahlores (6418). Samples from the workshop occupation level 34059 demonstrate

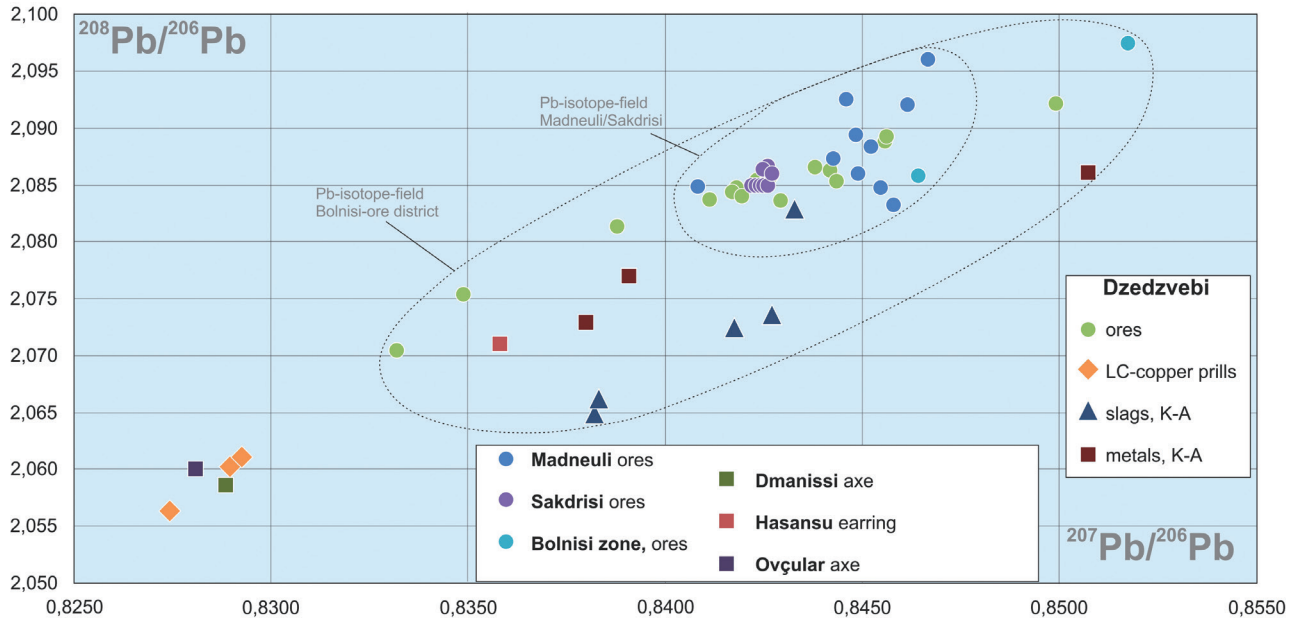


Fig. 26. Madneuli/Bolnisi zone, Pb isotope ratios $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$, ores, Sakdrisi gold flakes, slags and metals from Dzedzvebi settlement, copper prills from a LC crucible, and from two shaft-hole axes from Dmanisi and Ovçular as well as from the spiral rings of Hasansu (Data: DBM. – HAUPTMANN et al. 2010. – GAILHARD et al. 2017. – JANSEN 2019).

the coexistence of the different ore combinations during the smelting activities (Fig. 24). These ores are not typical for the haematite-free gold deposits of the Kachagiani hill-ock but are present in the Madneuli/Bolnisi ore district. All the slags studied are manganese free, heterogeneous, largely glassy (alkaline aluminium silicates) and porous. They contain large inclusions of gangue minerals, ore fragments, metal prills and sometimes charcoal fragments. The phases consist of magnetite, wüstite, delafossite, Fe-rich diopside, glass, akermanite, albite and calcite. A fayalite phase was also detected in numerous slags, suggesting smelting under reduction conditions. The Cu phases consist of cuprite and copper, mainly in tiny prills trapped in the slag. Very occasionally, large copper prills or flakes were formed close to the slag surface. The significant amounts of lead, zinc and antimony detected in some slags or slaggy encrusting suggest the use of polymetallic ores. One crucible and some slags (8617, 9636 and 9645) suggest a voluntary production of arsenical copper (1–9.5 % As); their higher sulphide and iron contents suggest this is most likely the result of co-smelting with arseno-pyrites, although a speiss alloy has not been found so far.⁵²

The study of three metal objects from Dzedzvebi II.2 and IV.3 completes these observations (27918, 12761 and

12707) (Fig. 25). The trace elements from copper prills isolated from a slag and a crucible of Area II.3 (9636, 9645) and of these three copper artefacts are similar in their Ag, Pb and Sb ratio, indicating they may derive from polymetallic ores with some accessory fahlores. Two objects (12761, 12707) are rich in arsenical copper (4.3–4.5 % As), while the last one (27918) consists of unalloyed copper. As the LIA results may also be related to regional deposits (Fig. 26 and Tabs. 2–3), it is likely that those ores were derived from nearby ore deposits of the Madneuli-Bolnisi ore zone.

A different picture can be derived from Late Chalcolithic crucible 27905 (Pit 5) and from Early Chalcolithic slags from Pit 7 (29141). Additional crucible fragments found in Pit 91, of which one is covered by a dross with copper prills, have not yet been studied (Find 32137). The bullous heterogeneous slaggy dross of crucible 27905 included corrosion of copper ores, numerous small copper metal prills surrounded by a rim of cuprite trapped in it and the occasional file inclusions of gangue host rock such as digenite/bornite copper sulphurs and some haematite (Fig. 23). The chemical and LIA investigations, especially of the metal prills from the crucible, show a different ore composition with higher levels of Sb/Ag and Pb traces (Tab. 2 and Fig. 27). The different compositions, shown in Figure 27, indicate different smelting charges may have been used, suggesting a multifunctional use of the crucible or a high variety in copper-ore concentrates smelted

⁵² REHREN, BOSCHER, PERNICKA 2012. – BOSCHER 2016.

Sample/ Find-No.	Sample character	Location	²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁴ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	Bibliography
Geo-32/1	Ore	Madneuli	2.087	0.8443	0.05409	38,592	15.609	18.488	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/2	Ore	Madneuli	2.093	0.8446	0.05395	38.785	15.655	18.535	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/3	Cu-Pb-Zn Sulfide	Madneuli	2.092	0.8461	0.05418	38.614	15.618	18.458	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/4	Ore	Madneuli	2.088	0.8452	0.05420	38.528	15.593	18.449	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/5	Ore	Madneuli	2.089	0.8448	0.05416	38.578	15.599	18.464	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/6	Ore	Madneuli	2.086	0.8449	0.05412	38.541	15.610	18.476	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/7	Ore	Madneuli	2.085	0.8455	0.05411	38.528	15.625	18.480	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/8	Ore	Madneuli	2.083	0.8458	0.05411	38.502	15.632	18.482	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/9	Ore	Madneuli	2.096	0.8467	0.05401	38.810	15.676	18.515	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-24/031	Cu-Fe ore	Madneuli	2.089	0.8456	0.05412	38.605	15.625	18.477	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-32/1	Ores	Madneuli	2.085	0.8408	0.05370	38.825	15.659	18.623	JANSEN 2019
Geo-32/1	Ores	Madneuli	2.08483	0.84083	0.05370	38.82521	15.65860	18.62272	JANSEN 2019
Geo-5/314	Ores	Bolnissi	2.08583	0.84642	0.05422	38.46927	15.61061	18.44312	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-29/II	Fe-Cu ore	Mamulo/ Gomareti	2.09747	0.85173	0.05451	38.48058	15.62605	18.34657	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-28/15b1	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine A	2.0566	0.8312	0.0532	38.6432	15.6176	18.7899	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-28/15b2	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine A	2.0865	0.8425	0.0540	38.6406	15.6022	18.5193	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-28/15	Fe-Cu ore	Sakdrisi, Mine A	2.08660	0.84260	0.05398	38.65280	15.60850	18.52400	HAUPTMANN et al. 2010
Geo-28/P-1	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/3	2.0850	0.8423	0.0540	38.6100	15.6000	18.5200	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-5	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/3	2.0850	0.8425	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-6	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/3	2.0850	0.8424	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-6_2	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/3	2.0860	0.8427	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-10	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/2	2.0850	0.8426	0.0541	38.5800	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-12	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/2	2.0850	0.8424	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-16	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/1	2.0860	0.8427	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-19	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 2	2.0850	0.8423	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-20	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 2	2.0850	0.8423	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-21	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine A3	2.0850	0.8426	0.0541	38.5700	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-22	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine A3	2.0850	0.8426	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-24	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 2	2.0850	0.8422	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-32	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine B3	2.0850	0.8422	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-33	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine B3	2.0850	0.8425	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5000	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-34	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine B3	2.0850	0.8422	0.0540	38.6000	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
Geo-28/P-37	Ore	Sakdrisi, Mine 1/1	2.0850	0.8424	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5100	JANSEN 2019
25524	Cerussite/Haematite, concentrate, found in a vessel	Dzedzvebi	2.09222	0.84992	0.05432	38.51563	15.64557	18.40810	Data DBM
6418b	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08658	0.84380	0.05407	38.59038	15.60589	18.49518	JANSEN 2019
8617a	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08584	0.84268	0.05402	38.61428	15.59868	18.51090	JANSEN 2019
9721d	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08140	0.83877	0.05369	38.76596	15.62246	18.62643	Data DBM
9721e	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08630	0.84419	0.05413	38.53935	15.59485	18.47325	JANSEN 2019
9721f	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08545	0.84234	0.05399	38.62946	15.60266	18.52338	JANSEN 2019
12764	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08376	0.84112	0.05390	38.65575	15.60373	18.55136	JANSEN 2019
18034	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08480	0.84180	0.05397	38.62970	15.59732	18.52820	JANSEN 2019
18042_1	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.07046	0.83320	0.05331	38.83697	15.62902	18.75804	Data DBM
18172	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08441	0.84170	0.05394	38.64609	15.60537	18.54075	JANSEN 2019
24042_1	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.07536	0.83487	0.05338	38.86958	15.63749	18.73211	Data DBM
24042_3	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08912	0.84562	0.05414	38.58807	15.61948	18.47120	Data DBM
25108-1	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08889	0.84556	0.05414	38.58190	15.61727	18.46944	Data DBM
25291	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08536	0.84433	0.05405	38.58063	15.62083	18.50147	Data DBM
25433-6	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.08401	0.84195	0.05401	38.58758	15.58983	18.51536	Data DBM
6450/34029	Ore	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.08363	0.84292	0.05400	38.58797	15.61033	18.51950	Data DBM
Geo-118/28	Ore	Dzedzvebi	2.0850	0.8422	0.0540	38.5900	15.5900	18.5100	Data DBM
Feat. 36278 / FNo 27905	Slag, prill, LC	Dzedzvebi	2.05631	0.82744	0.05285	38.90959	15.65740	18.92204	Data DBM

Tab. 2. List of Pb isotope ratios of regional Madneuli/Bolnisi ores, ores from Dzedzvebi settlement and LC and EBA metals, according to the published data and recent investigation.

Sample/ Find-No.	Sample character	Location	²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁴ Pb/ ²⁰⁶ Pb	²⁰⁸ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	²⁰⁷ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²⁰⁴ Pb	Bibliography
Feat. 36278 / FNo 27905	Slag, prill, LC	Dzedzvebi	2.06027	0.82897	0.05295	38.91187	15.65648	18.88677	Data DBM
Feat. 36278 / FNo 27905	Slag, prill, LC	Dzedzvebi	2.06109	0.82925	0.05297	38.90800	15.65412	18.87761	Data DBM
Feat. 34506/ FNo 9636	Slag, Kura-Araxes	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.06587	0.83831	0.05353	38.59621	15.66210	18.68284	Data DBM
Feat. 34029/ FNo 6416	Slag, Kura-Araxes	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.07330	0.84272	0.05381	38.53288	15.66210	18.58542	Data DBM
Feat. 34029/6431	Slag, Kura-Araxes	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.07221	0.84175	0.05375	38.55236	15.66037	18.60446	Data DBM
Feat. 34059/8630	Slag, Kura-Araxes	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.08259	0.84327	0.05396	38.59765	15.62885	18.53332	Data DBM
Feat. 34522/9645	Slag, Kura-Araxes	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.06462	0.83822	0.05350	38.58806	15.66657	18.69026	Data DBM
FNo. 27918	Cu metal	Dzedzvebi IV.5	2.08611	0.85073	0.05434	38.38769	15.65477	18.40160	Data DBM
FNo. 12707	Cu metal	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.07701	0.83909	0.05371	38.67290	15.62342	18.61928	Data DBM
FNo 12761	Cu metal	Dzedzvebi II.2	2.07290	0.83799	0.05357	38.69230	15.64160	18.66548	Data DBM
Lab Nr 4243/13	Pick-axe, LC	Ovçular	2.06	0.8281		38.91	15.644	18.892	GAILHARD et al. 2017
Lab Nr 4871/13	Pick-axe, LC	Dmanisi	2.05859	0.82884	0.05292	38.89942	15.66200	18.89617	Data DBM
Aze-160a	Au spiral, Kura-Araxes	Hasansu	2.0710	0.8358	0.0533	38.8200	15.6700	18.7500	JANSEN 2019

Tab. 2. Continued.

Artefact	Provenance	Period	Archaeo n°		DBM Lab n°
	Place		Find	Feature	
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	8654	34059	4038/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12766	34098	4039/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12756	34097	4040/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	6200	34012	4367/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	6416	34029	4368/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	6418	34029	4369/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	6437	34029	4370/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	6431	34029	4371/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	8617	34059	4378/15
Slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	8630	34059	4373/15
Crucible + slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12561	34088	4375/15
Crucible + slag	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12750	34097	4035/15
Small tool? object	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12707	34090	4032/15
Awl fragment	DZ II.2	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	12761	34097	4033/15
Crucible + slag	DZ II.3	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	9636	34506	4374/15
Slag	DZ II.3	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	9645	34522	4376/15
Ore	DZ II.3	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	9721	34513	4377/15
Slag	DZ II.8	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	25473	38017	3140/16
Crucible	DZ III.5	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	18209	33046	4034/15
Crucible + slag	DZ III.5	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	18185	33039	4036/15
Awl	DZ IV.3	EBA (Kura-Araxes)	27918	36082	4031/15
Slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3134/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3135/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3136/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3137/16
Prill trapped in slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3138/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36278	27905	3139/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Early Chalcolithic	36128	29141	3141/16
Slag	DZ IV.3	Early Chalcolithic	36128	29141	3142/16
Surface	DZ IV.3	Late Chalcolithic (Sioni)	36100	22434	No number

Tab. 3. List of copper metallurgical artefacts and educts from LC and Kura-Araxes copper metallurgy at Dzedzvebi (DZ) studied in the laboratory.

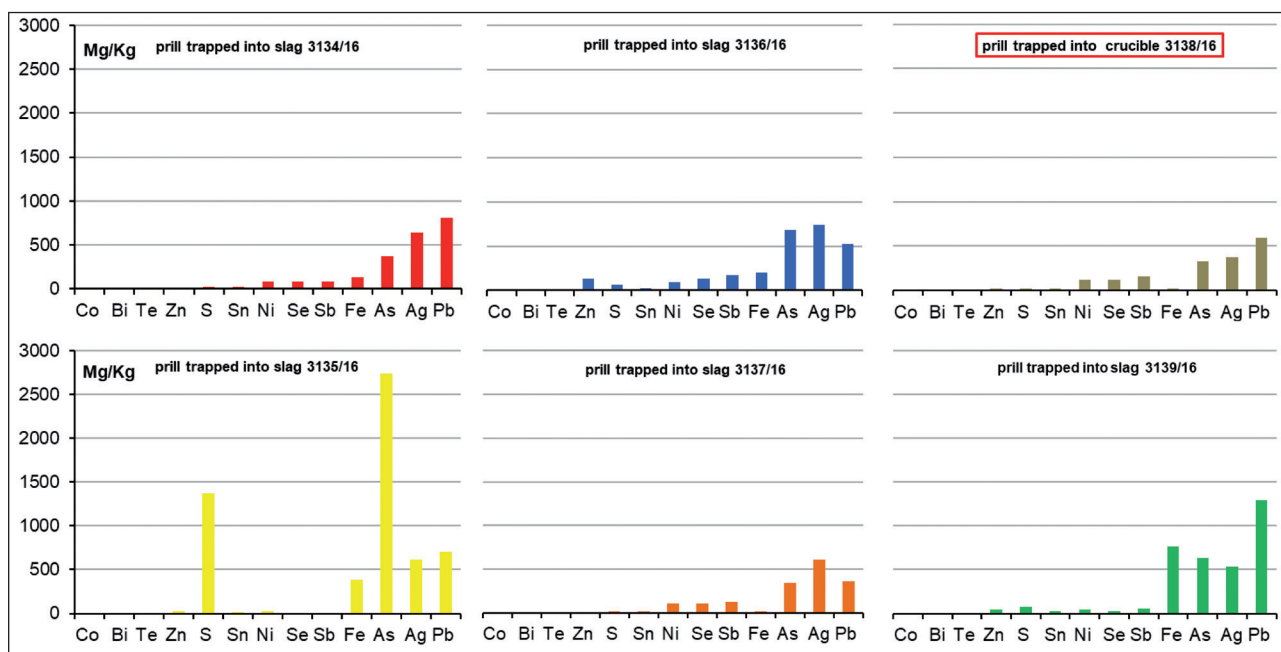


Fig. 27. Composition of trace elements of Chalcolithic slag/dross trapped in the Chalcolithic crucible 27905 (DBM/GNM/RUB; A. Courcier).

in one charge. As the Pb isotope ratios also differ from regional LIA spectra, it seems likely that the copper ore (concentrate) came from a different deposit, possibly the Armenian Plateau.⁵³ The Early Chalcolithic slag, which constitutes one of the oldest examples of pyrometallurgy in the Lesser Caucasus, is different: These are dense slags with large host-rock Fe-rich inclusions and numerous magnetite clusters in fayalite formation, with cuprite precipitation between fayalite needles. A few tiny metal prills are also embedded into an anamorphous glassy matrix. However, as we do not know more about the metallurgical process, further comments cannot be made at present.

4.2. Gold Metallurgy of the Early Bronze Age: Metallurgical and Provenance Studies

Compared to copper metallurgy, the issue of gold metallurgy is significantly more complex. This is mainly because – in contrast to copper – the melting of a heavy metal concentrate in a crucible, presumably produced by gold panning, leads to the sintering together of gold prills into reguli.⁵⁴ These prills were usually removed from the slag crusts of the crucibles; therefore, they are rarely found. The crucible from Dzedzvebi II.3, the last one identified with gold adhesions, illustrates this problem especially

clearly (see below). In principle, however, gold metallurgy can be approximated by various findings. The most common ones are grinding devices with characteristic grooves that point to the grinding of harder material (characteristic grooves have also been proven for rotary mills used in gold processing since antiquity)⁵⁵ and speak to the processing of metal-bearing ores. Thus, milling devices of the type series 6a–c as well as the grinders of type 7b1–g can be traced in certain focal points, especially in the workshop areas of the Kura-Araxes settlement.⁵⁶ Type 6a (grinding slabs) may also be related to grain grinding and is therefore less definitive (Fig. 28). A comparison of the tools found during the excavations at the Kachagiani mound (Sakdrisi) and those in Dzedzvebi has shown that the same tools were used at both sites; the only difference is that in Sakdrisi, mining tools are more numerous, while in Dzedzvebi, processing tools are more numerous.⁵⁷ However, they are the same type of equipment, usually made of dense basalt rocks and andesites. It is striking that the depositional practices led to the accumulation of implements in rock layers apparently laid down at specific locations, which

⁵³ See also Stöllner 2021b, 105–106 and Fig. 4.

⁵⁴ Timberlake 2017. – Stöllner et al. 2021, esp. 104–110.

⁵⁵ Weisgerber 2001. – Cauuet 2004.

⁵⁶ For types, see Stöllner et al. 2014, 93 and Fig. 18.

⁵⁷ Stöllner et al. 2014, 93 and Fig. 18.

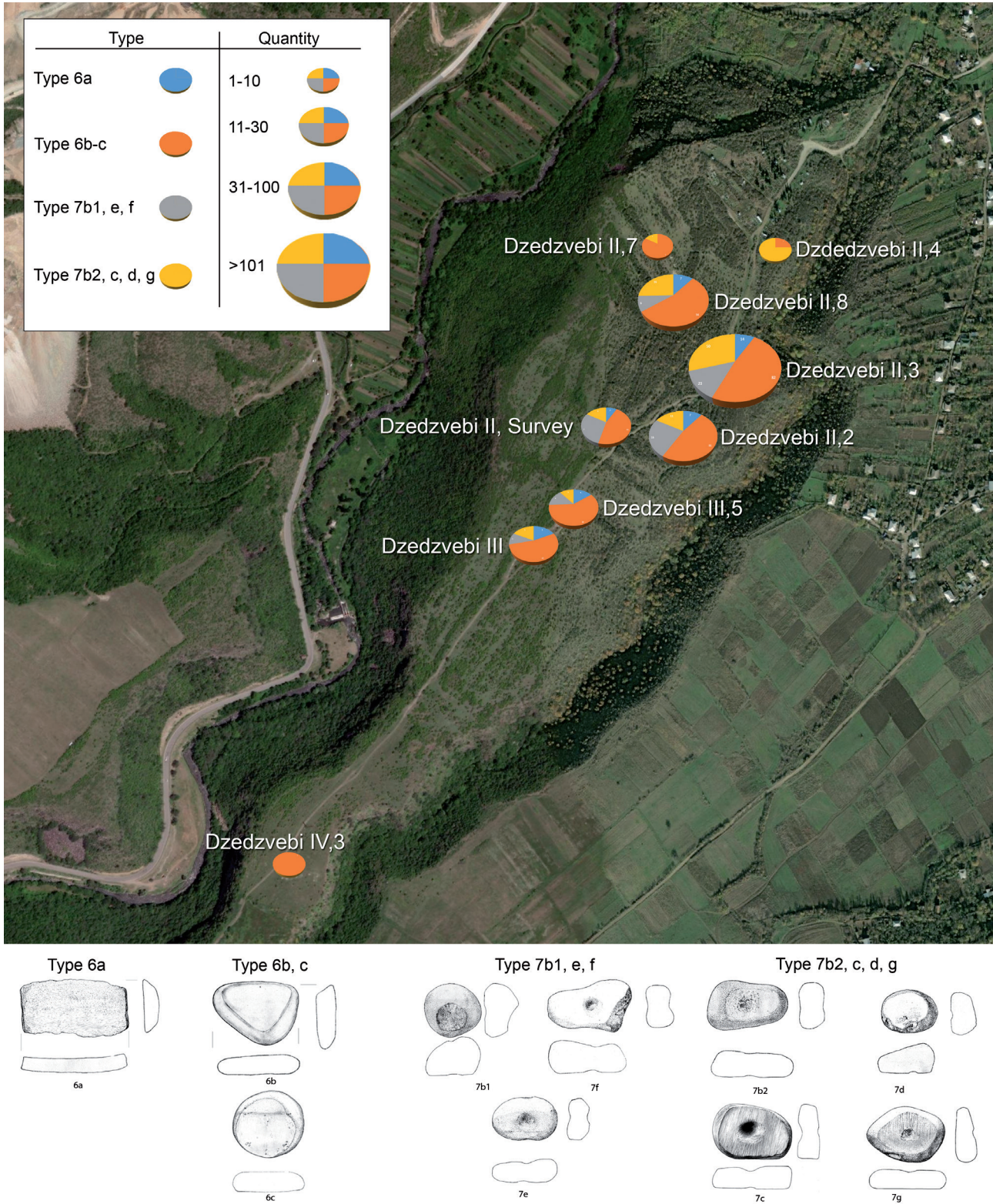


Fig. 28. Dzedzvebi Plateau, distribution of ore-beneficiation stone implements (grinders and grinding slabs) according to their typology and their numbers (DBM/GNM/RUB; S. Senczek).

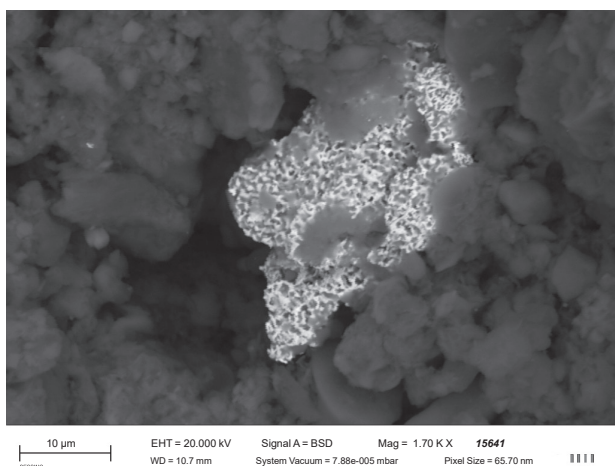


Fig. 29. Scanning electron micrograph (BSD) of crucible 15641 showing a bright gold alloy particle on the inner surface. The chemical analysis reveals 66 wt.-% Au, 32 wt.-% Cu and 1.5 wt.-% Ag (SEM-EDS).

probably represents part of a practice of ore beneficiation associated with ritual acts.⁵⁸

This clear connection to mining on the Kachagiani Hill is also illustrated in the distribution of ore pieces in the Kura-Araxes settlement of Dzedzvebi II/III: Haematite and quartz-rich ores are not expected from the geological subsoil of the Dzedzvebi Plateau; they must have come from the mineralisation of the Sakdrisi I–V deposits.⁵⁹ The mineralogical examination of the ores indicates a similarity to ores from the Kachagiani Hill; this finding was confirmed by a consistency in their lead isotope signatures compared to samples from the original ore lodes.⁶⁰ The intercalation of free-gold flakes in the ore matrix is especially striking.⁶¹ That this presumably gold-bearing quartz-haematite ore was also ground in Dzedzvebi is demonstrated by the gold content of sediments found in the vicinity of House 3 (Dzedzvebi II.3), the open processing and smelting site (III.5) and the area of House 4 (II.8), at a presumed washing site.⁶² This evidence shows relatively conclusively that gold-bearing ores were processed at Dzedzvebi II/III, and that these activities mainly included preparation tasks such as grinding and pounding. It is likely that the separation of the ores was carried out at Sakdrisi by coarse crushing. There, the discovery of a processing site in front of Pit 1/Pinge A provides evidence of testing of the gold

content by assaying,⁶³ but the majority of the ores may have been worked at the Dzedzvebi settlement. In this respect, the discovery of a hearth site with crucibles at the edge of House Complex 6 (40034) was significant, as it was possible to recover some crucible remains from an ashy backfill. An initial microscopic examination of the crucible 15641 at the Georgian National Museum confirmed the initial suspicion that it could be a gold-melting crucible. The follow-up investigation, using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) at the Deutsches Bergbau-Museum in 2021–2022 has shown an adhering gold particle. The chemical analysis with an energy dispersive spectroscope of the SEM revealed a composition high in copper, at approximately 30 % (Fig. 29). This composition is unusual for gold extracted from ore lodes and alluvial sources and was not encountered among the other materials from Sakdrisi, where all of the approximately 250 free-gold particles extracted from the ore lodes showed Cu contents of less than 0.2 wt.%.⁶⁴ However, taking into account the ore-beneficiation process, including the washing process, it seems highly likely that the amount of copper, ten times higher than the gold in bulk analyses of the ores,⁶⁵ would have led to copper-rich heavy mineral concentrates.⁶⁶ Smelting of such concentrates would have led not only to the sintering of gold prills, but also to an enrichment of Cu in the smelting dross.⁶⁷ The composition of the crucible gold therefore may indicate a metallurgical processing leading to an enrichment of copper by – possibly coincidental – co-smelting with copper minerals present in the same heavy mineral concentrate from panning. Two polished cross-sections did not reveal any additional gold prills trapped in the slagged portion at random cuts of the crucible's inner surface; instead, particles of lead and silver were observed. They were probably removed mechanically by the ancient smelters. The crucible may have been used for different purposes in the production of artefacts made of various precious metals. Testing of additional fragments of crucibles from House Complex 6 is currently underway and will improve our understanding of the technical processes performed at this important site.

⁵⁸ STÖLLNER 2017.

⁵⁹ GUGUSHVILI et al. 2002. – HAUPTMANN et al. 2010.

⁶⁰ JANSEN 2019, 260–262.

⁶¹ See JANSEN, STÖLLNER, COURCIER 2014, 105–106 and Fig. 31.

⁶² See on this already STÖLLNER 2017, 132–133 and Tab. 2.

⁶³ Dump 10042 and cistern in STÖLLNER et al. 2014, 86–91 and Fig. 17. – See also TIMBERLAKE 2017.

⁶⁴ JANSEN 2019, 156.

⁶⁵ See JANSEN, STÖLLNER, COURCIER 2014, 106 and Tab. 4.

⁶⁶ TIMBERLAKE 2017, 128–130.

⁶⁷ See JANSEN 2019, 173–174 for melting of gold concentrates from Sakdrisi leading to a higher copper content even under oxidising conditions.

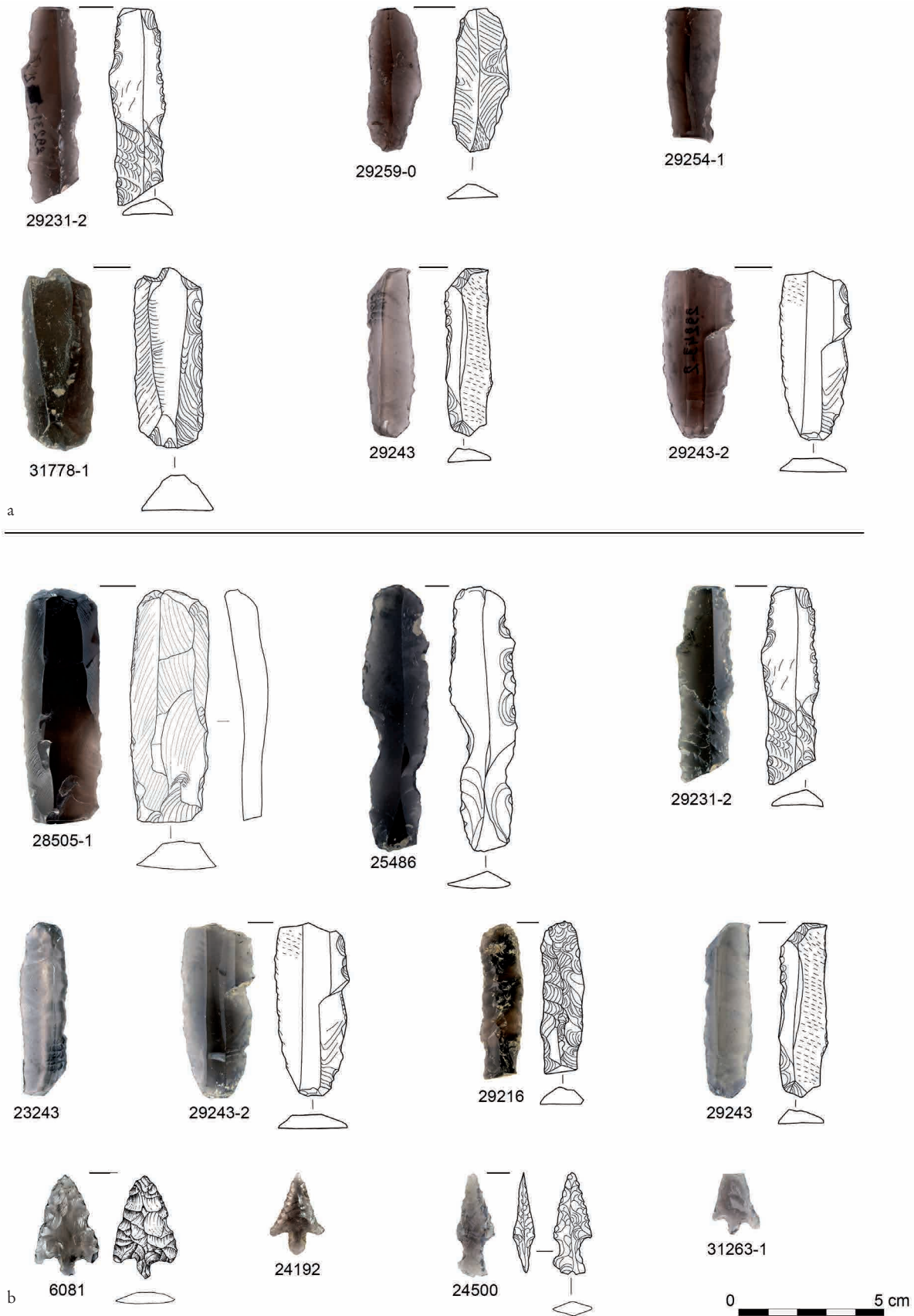


Fig. 30. Obsidian artefacts from Dzedzvebi. – a. Late Chalcolithic. – b. Early Bronze Age (DBM/GNM/RUB; S. Senczek, H.-J. Lauffer, T. Sachvadze).

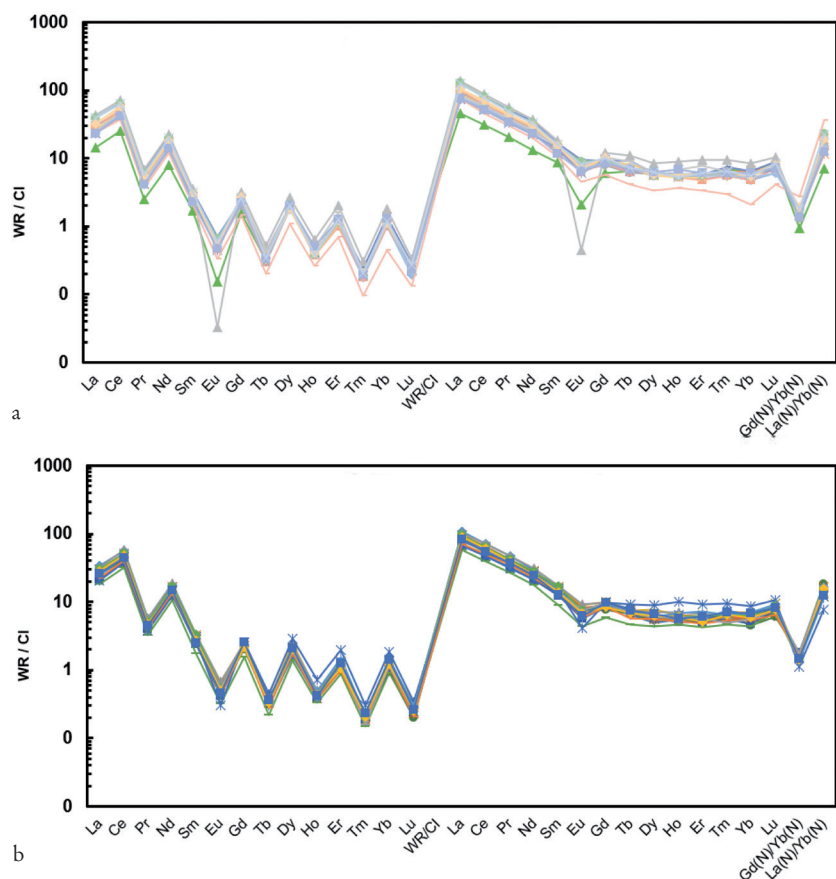


Fig. 31. Spider diagrams of the rare earths of the obsidian finds analysed with mass spectrometry. – a. Late Chalcolithic. – b. Early Bronze Age. – The thick lines show the Chikiani samples (DBM/RUB; J. Bungardt).

4.3. Obsidian from the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age

Since the Chalcolithic, the highland regions of the Caucasus have been exploited more intensively due to livestock farming; this exploitation opened up numerous new trade routes.⁶⁸ Examination of these new connections raises new questions, including ones about the procurement of obsidian in the Caucasus. These questions can be addressed at the Dzedzvebi site. The technological aspects of 429 obsidian artefacts from Dzedzvebi were studied, based on a study by Judith Thomalsky (Fig. 30 a–b).⁶⁹ The aim was to identify any signs of on-site production. Provenance studies were also undertaken to investigate possible exchange routes. To study the provenance of the obsidian from Dzedzvebi, 289 finds were analysed by pXRF, 50 of which were analysed by mass spectrometry in the research laboratory of the Deutsches Bergbau-Museum

to determine their rare earth trace elements. A discussion on trace elements as indications of provenance follows older studies,⁷⁰ which already emphasised the importance of the Chikiani sources for communities from the upper Kura Valley and its tributaries during the later Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age.⁷¹

An examination of the Chalcolithic material from the Dzedzvebi site (n=115) makes it clear that this material is of high quality and includes a wide range of colours. The material mainly consists of flakes and a few modified (retouched) basic forms. Workplace activities through the *chaîne opératoire* can be detected via examination of the composition of debris assemblages from various pit fillings from Dzedzvebi IV.3. The phases of production and disposal can be established with certainty. Core preparation has not been

68 STÖLLNER 2021a, 445–448.

69 THOMALSKY 2021.

70 BADALYAN 2010. – CHATAIGNER, GRATUZE 2014a. – CHATAIGNER, GRATUZE 2014b.

71 BIAGI, NISBET, GRATUZE 2017.

identified. The modification and the utilisation phase cannot be proven with certainty, but it is likely that these also took place on-site (see a selection of bladelets including a crested bladelet [29216], an elongated end scraper [28505-1] and one flat, retouched bladelet [29231-2], illustrated in Fig. 30b).

Geochemically, the Chalcolithic assemblage shows basic agreement, but some samples deviate from the average in terms of their element concentrations. However, the majority of the samples agree with the values of the Chikiani deposit (mainly assigned to Chikiani 2 and 3, based on the Ba/Zr variation).⁷² Even some of the samples with deviating values agree with a formation of this type. However, two samples do not match the values of the Chikiani complex. In some cases, samples match the Sarikamis deposit (east Turkey), while other samples do not match any of the deposits used as comparisons for this study (Fig. 31a). A basic supply of obsidian thus most likely came from the Chikiani obsidian flows, but a seasonal supply from the Sarikamis region cannot be excluded. It is interesting to note that this evidence derives from the Late Chalcolithic Pit 4, in which metallurgical debris (crucibles, mould) were also found. The copper ore smelted there also appears to have a foreign provenance, most likely the Armenian Plateau (see above, section 4.1).

Although the Early Bronze Age finds (n=237) are similar to those of the Chalcolithic, some differences can be observed. The quality remains very good on average, but the material shows more frequent inclusions. The colour variety is the same as in the Chalcolithic. Here, too, the majority of the pieces are flakes, which again suggests a predominant production of primary basic forms. Workplace activities can therefore also be demonstrated for this period. The phases of production and disposal can again be reliably determined. Core preparation is conceivable, but difficult to prove. The modification and use phases cannot be proven with certainty here either, but it is likely that these also took place on-site (Fig. 31b).

In terms of geochemistry, the Early Bronze Age samples are more uniform than those of the Chalcolithic. The element concentrations here predominantly match a formation of the Chikiani complex (Koyun Dağ). Some samples also match the Chikiani deposit, and thus the majority of the Chalcolithic samples (Fig. 31a–b). A basic supply of obsidian from the Chikiani mining complex can thus also be assumed for the Early Bronze Age. It was possibly extracted from a different formation than during the Late Chalcolithic

period, as the Ba/Zr variation appears more concentrated around the Chikiani 2 volcanic flow.

The supply of obsidian was most likely discovered by pastoralists, who increasingly used the highland regions for their livestock, starting in the Chalcolithic. During the Chalcolithic, however, other, presumably seasonal routes, such as those to the Sarikamis region, were also used. The predominant use of the Chikiani source during the Early Bronze Age points to directional access to raw material sources and thus to territorial concepts (possibly in combination with pastoral activities, see below).

4.4. Subsistence During the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age 1: Archaeobotany

Despite the rich archaeological legacy of Georgia, relatively few archaeobotanical publications focused on Georgian sites are available.⁷³ At Dzedzvebi, over 300 soil samples have been collected so far, of which 16 belong to the Chalcolithic period and 115 to the Kura-Araxes Early Bronze Age. Due to the multi-period nature of the site, the archaeobotanical evaluation is not clear in all cases, as botanical remains generally cannot be dated by their appearance. Therefore, the number of samples used for this evaluation was reduced. The following arguments are based on 16 Chalcolithic and 47 Kura-Araxes samples derived from 63 unequivocally single-phased fillings of structures, several of which were dated by AMS radiocarbon dating.

The samples represent the archaeobotanical evidence of the excavations at Dzedzvebi from 2013 to 2021. Several of the soil samples were significantly disturbed by roots, as evidenced by the high percentage of root debris found in them. In particular, near-surface or bioturbation-influenced soil contained recent seeds and fruits, vegetative remains, wood, insect remains and mouse faeces (Fig. 32).

The soil samples were processed by wet sieving using 1 mm, 0.5 mm and – at the start – 0.25 mm mesh. More recently, only 1 mm and 0.5 mm mesh were used, because the smaller sizes contained only severely fragmented remains and did not provide any useful information. During the sieving process, the light organic fraction was also separated from the heavy mineral fraction to improve sorting efficiency. The material was sorted and examined at 6x to 40x magnification. Identification was based on common

⁷² See BIAGI, NISBET, GRATUZE 2017, Fig. 14.

⁷³ LISITSINA 1984. – A relatively recent compilation of old and new findings is provided in HOVSEPYAN 2015. – See also LONGFORD, SAGONA 2022.

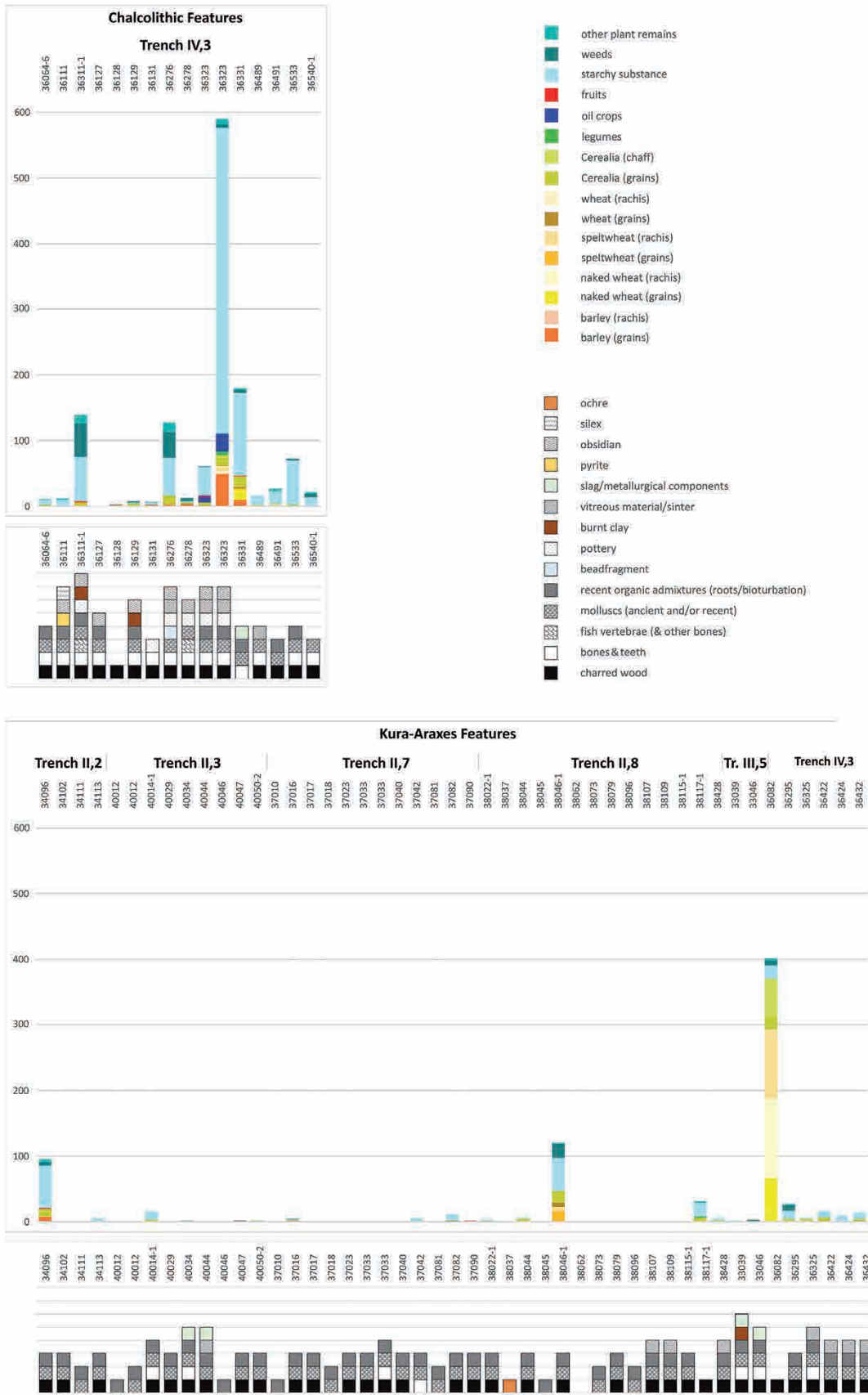


Fig. 32. Presence of plant remains and other material inside the samples of Dzedzvebi (Draft: RUB; N. Boenke).

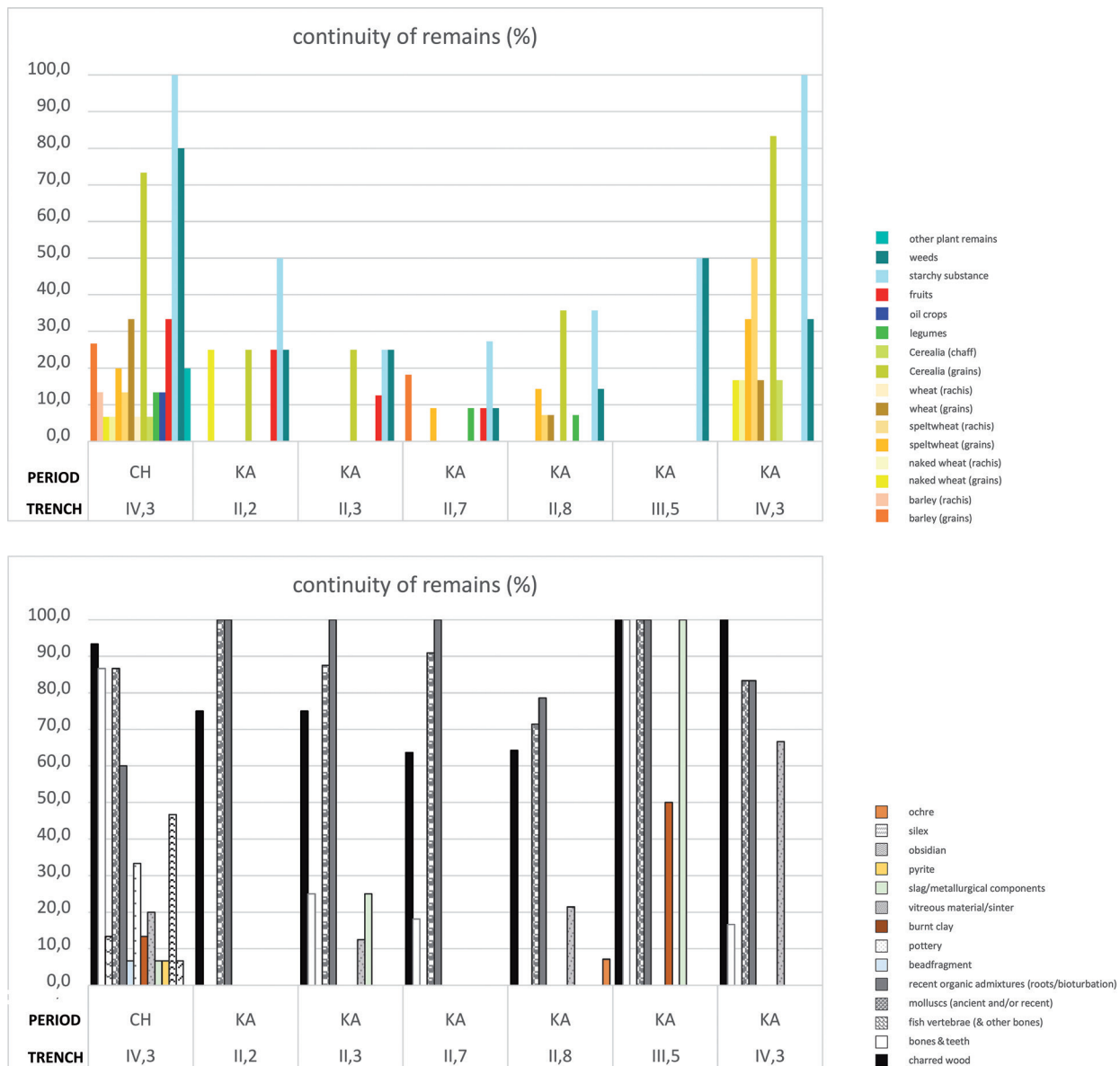


Fig. 33. Continuity of plant remains and other materials inside the features. The continuity is given as the percentage of presence in the features available for each section and period. The underlying feature/sample relation for the single groups is as follows: Chalcolithic (CH) Trench IV,3: 15/16; Kura-Araxes (KA) Trench II,2: 4/4; Trench II,3: 8/9; Trench II,7: 11/12; Trench II,8: 14/14; Trench III,5: 2/2; Trench IV,3: 6/6 (Draft: RUB; N. Boenke).

identification literature,⁷⁴ a guide to the recent flora of Georgia,⁷⁵ and additional available literature. The plant remains are mainly preserved charred, but some are mineralised. For wild plants from near-surface strata, it is not clear when mineralisation occurred. For others, a prehistoric origin is

plausible, because some species are preserved both mineralised and charred.

The total number of plant remains is relatively small. The samples contain 2082 seeds, fruits, vegetative remains and charred fragments of starchy substances (Tabs. 4a–c). Although 75 percent of the samples are from the Kura-Araxes period, these samples contain just 40 percent of the residues. Outside of Trench IV.3, the continuity of seeds and fruits is relatively low (Fig. 33). Chalcolithic pits were found exclusively in Trench IV.3. The final

⁷⁴ BROUWER, STÄHLIN 1975. – BERGREN 1981. – CAPPERS, BEKKER, JANS 2006. – JACOMET et al. 2006. – NESBITT 2006. – CAPPERS, NEEF, BEKKER 2009.

⁷⁵ FISCHER, GRÖGER, LOBIN 2018.

interpretation of this result must be left to the comparison with the archaeological finds and features.⁷⁶ Either different areas of use existed within the settlement, or a generally different waste behaviour occurred in the Kura-Araxes period, which is reflected taphonomically. It is conceivable that the investigated areas were deliberately kept clean, or that the organic remains were burned in a blazing fire. The latter does not lead to charring, but to the nearly complete ashing of organic substances. The powdery, ashy consistency of the Dzedzvebi soil samples may be indicative of this. Additionally, the proportion of very fine, non-determinable charcoal fragments smaller than 1 mm appears normal in comparison with typical archaeobotanical samples. In contrast, the number of charcoal pieces larger than 1 mm is often very low.

In addition to the archaeobotanical remains, the wet-sieved samples provide evidence of the presence of other basics of subsistence. A correlation between crops, charred starchy substances as a sign of food production and bone fragments can be noted in distinct areas (Fig. 32). Two Chalcolithic samples also contained fish vertebrae (most likely from the Mashavera and Dampludka rivers). Residues of metallurgical activities like slag or tiny pieces of malachite were found in the Late Chalcolithic as well as the Early Bronze Age samples, while tiny obsidian and silex flake fragments were found only in the Chalcolithic samples from Trench IV.3. This may illustrate the difference between the production and (re)use of stone tools.

Most of the botanical finds that are not charcoal fragments are charred cultivated plants (Figs. 32–33). The archaeobotanical evidence is dominated by cereals. The species found in samples from the Chalcolithic and Kura-Araxes periods at Dzedzvebi do not show a larger variation compared to what is known from the Neolithic Shulaveri-Shomutepe Culture (6th millennium BCE).⁷⁷ Unlike what has been documented regarding early agriculture in other regions outside the so-called ‘Fertile Crescent’ (e.g. the Linear Pottery Culture), we did not find a limited set of species dominated by emmer and einkorn, but a much larger variety.⁷⁸ Gorislava N. Lisitsina, like other authors before, already emphasised the great natural diversity and the variety of grain cultivation in the Caucasus region,

which regionally gave rise to the cultivation of different types of wheat.⁷⁹

The documented crops (Fig. 34) are einkorn (*Triticum monococcum* L.), naked as well as hulled barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), and naked wheat, with clear evidence of common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* s.l. hexaploid). Emmer (*Triticum dicoccum* Schrank) can exclusively be reported in three features from the Kura-Araxes period. Other Kura-Araxes features included small amounts of naked wheat, einkorn and/or barley. This range is comparable to that found in other places in the South Caucasus.⁸⁰ As residues, both grains and chaff were documented. Most of the material appears to consist of charred grains from food preparation, but evidence of cereal processing by glume bases or rachis fragments and even of free-threshing cereals has also been found for both periods; therefore, local production is likely. The different cereals can be interpreted either as species used for various purposes or as plants used for different needs and locations. Common wheat is generally used as bread wheat, while barley grains can also be used as pearl barley or for brewing beer. In addition, barley also has lower demands on soil and climate and grows at higher altitudes as well as in the lowlands. Its vegetation period is shorter; therefore, it can be grown as a summer crop. Summer crops can also be an alternative if a winter crop is failing. The same applies to emmer and einkorn, while growing common wheat as a winter crop is the better choice. Common wheat also has higher demands in terms of soil moisture and nutrients than einkorn and emmer.

Very little evidence of other crops has been found. Two poorly preserved lentils (cf. *Lens culinaris* Med.) were found in Chalcolithic samples, as well as fragments of large legumes that may have been cultivated. Lallelantia seeds (*Lallelantia* spec. e.g. *Lallelantia* cf. *iberica*) were found in Kura-Araxes samples; these plants may have been cultivated as oil crops.

Preserved fruits were much rarer. Compared to cooked food, taphonomically, they have a much lower chance of being charred. Some fruit stone fragments indicate the use of collected wild fruits like hackberry (*Celtis* spec.). Grape (*Vitis* spec.) was documented twice in the Chalcolithic features. Evidence of viticulture in Georgia since the Epipalaeolithic and Neolithic periods has recently been revisited by Reinder Neef, who also discusses the range of the moisture- and

⁷⁶ STÖLLNER, GAMBASHIDZE 2011, 196 already suggested that the different record of domestic debris suggested a different interpretation of the settlement areas II and IV.

⁷⁷ Compared to LISITSINA 1984, 288 and Tab. 1.

⁷⁸ NEEF, DECAIX, TENGBERG 2017, 371–377.

⁷⁹ LISITSINA 1984, 285.

⁸⁰ LONGFORD, SAGONA 2022, 347–374. – MANOUKIAN et al. 2022, 4.



Fig. 34. Dzedzvebi, figures of selected plant remains. – A. *Triticum aestivum* s.l. hexaploid/6n-naked wheat (rachis fragments, charred, feature B36082/sample F23284). – B. *Triticum aestivum/durum/turgidum*/naked wheat (compactum type, grain, charred, feature B36082/sample F23284). – C. *Hordeum vulgare* L., naked barley (grains, charred, feature B36331/sample F29315). – D. *Celtis* spec. (stone core, mineralised, feature B36128/sample F23282). – E. *Vitis* spec. (pip fragment, mineralised, feature B36311-1/sample F29256). – F. *Vitis* spec. (pip fragment, charred, feature B36331/sample F29315). – G. *Lallelantia* spec. (seeds, charred, feature B36323/sample F29336). – H. *Neslia paniculata* (L.) Desv. (seeds, charred, feature B36295/sample F28641) (Photos: RUB; N. Boenke).

heat-loving wild form.⁸¹ The lower altitudes of the Caucasus region offer excellent conditions, and occurrences of wild grape can still be observed today around Dzedzvebi,

in the valleys of the small rivers Mashavera and Dampludka. However, it remains unclear if the residue inside the vessel is wine or a different form of fruit preparation.⁸² No evidence of domesticated grapes or of cultivation from that period has

⁸¹ See OLMO 1995. – ZOHARY 1995. – MCGOVERN et al. 2017, e10313–e10315. – NEEF 2018, esp. 88–89.

⁸² NEEF 2018, 95.

been found in the region. An overview of the archaeobotanical record of the Transcaucasus area by Patrick McGovern and others mentioned only pips with metric attributes that correspond to the wild form of grape.⁸³ Unfortunately, neither of the Dzedzvebi grape pips from the late 5th millennium are well preserved. For this reason, a simple assignment based on their metric characteristics is not possible; however, morphologically the seeds appear closer to the metric characteristics of wild grape. Three charred barley fragments from the same sample as one mineralised grape pip date to the late 5th millennium; this date would make that pip the earliest evidence of grapes in the area.⁸⁴

Finally, a small number of weeds have also been identified. Unfortunately, most of the identified weeds grow as well in fields as they do on paths or rubble. There is no clear indication of whether these weeds represent the settlement's vegetation or field weeds. Only rubbish pepperwort (*Lepidium ruderalis* L.) could be identified as a ruderal plant. Both rubbish pepperwort and black bindweed (*Fallopia convolvulus* (L.) A. Löve) are nitrogen indicators; their presence thus may indicate settled areas, although these plants are also associated with melioration or grazing on harvested fields and fallow land. Neither unambiguous growing conditions nor harvesting techniques are readable since any such statements can only be made on the basis of individual findings in each case due to the small number of positive samples. Only certain tendencies are ascertainable. Most of the weeds are annual plants but they can also/occasionally be perennial. Some of the plants grow close to the ground, while others can grow over 80 cm tall. None of the identified species exclusively flower high on the plant, making ear harvesting unlikely. Deep-rooting species like black bindweed, corn gromwell (*Lithospermum arvense* L.), ball mustard (*Neslia paniculata* (L.) Desv.) and lamb's quarters (*Chenopodium album* L.) indicate favourable soils, which is a requirement for the cultivation of common wheat, among other crops. Due to the small number of finds, neither those weeds that can be associated with winter crops, like corn gromwell and ball mustard, nor those that are more typically associated with summer crops, like lamb's quarters or wild millet (e.g. green foxtail, *Setaria* cf. *viridis* (L.) P.B.), correlate clearly with distinct species of cereals.

However, in conclusion, the occurrence of cereal residues alongside weeds may indicate an interpretation as field weeds (Fig. 32). Arable farming, especially the more

demanding cultivation of common wheat can be seen as an indicator of the sedentariness of (groups of) people. In addition to the orientation towards the metallurgical resources in the vicinity (see sections 4.1–2) and the keeping of animals (see section 4.5), a focus on agricultural production can also be observed.

4.5. Subsistence During the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age 2: Archaeozoology and Isotope Studies

Analyses of faunal remains were carried out in 2016 and 2021 at the excavation house.⁸⁵ Over 4300 bone remains were recorded from the Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age periods (1812 remains from Chalcolithic contexts and 2521 remains from EBA ones) (Tab. 5). Approximately 20 % of the remains in the Chalcolithic assemblage were identified, while 17 % of the identified specimens belong to the EBA (Tab. 5). The exploitation of animal resources mainly consisted of the breeding of domestic species: caprines (*Caprinae*), including sheep (*Ovis aries*) and goats (*Capra hircus*), have been identified, as well as cattle (*Bos taurus*) (for both periods, approximately 90 % of the identified specimens). Although the share of caprines and cattle is similar for both periods, we found some remains of pigs (*Sus domesticus*) in the EBA (Fig. 35). Wild mammals represent only c. 5 % of the identified specimens (n=21 in both periods) (Fig. 36). We identified remains of foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*), wild boars (*Sus scrofa*), cervids (red deer [*Cervus elaphus*] and roe deer [*Capreolus capreolus*]), hares (*Lepus* sp.) and equids (*Equus* sp.). Although the assemblages are small, we can distinguish a greater importance of wild boar in the EBA. Carnivores are less represented in this period.

In order to define husbandry practices more precisely, we created kill-off patterns expressed in number of teeth (number of identified dental specimens [NISPd]=36) for caprines, according to the method established by Sebastian Payne (Figs. 37–38).⁸⁶ Harvest profiles were created by using a correction of each age group to figure in the histogram. This method is linked to the various lengths of the age classes.⁸⁷ In contrast to the relatively large number of bone remains from the Chalcolithic and EBA, very few dental remains could be studied. The profiles are therefore not statistically robust. However, we note for both periods the absence of age classes A and B (young lamb up to 6 months), which may reflect an economic choice by herders not to slaughter young animals, off-site slaughter or an absence of

⁸³ MCGOVERN et al. 2017, e10315.

⁸⁴ Feature 36311-1: MAMS 53668, calBC 4311–4051. – Compare section 3.1.

⁸⁵ See BERTHON et al. 2021 for a list of methodological references used.

⁸⁶ PAYNE 1973.

⁸⁷ DUCOS 1968. – VIGNE, HELMER 2007.

Period	Trench	Feature No.	Find No.	CEREALS	FRUITS	LEGUMES	Other		
CH	IV,3	36064-6	31701						
		36111	29237						
		36127	23283						
		36128	23282						
		36129	29213						
		36131	23281						
		36276	28586		1				
		36278	27997		2				
		36311-1	29256						
		36323	29312						
		36323	29336		2	48			
		36331	29315		1	2	6		
		36489	31591				9		
		36491	31921				6		
		36533	31951						
		36540-1	32052						
		KA	II,2	34096	12680				
				34102	12720-1		4	3	1
34111	12785								
34113	12786								
II,3	40012		15196						
	40012		15252						
	40014-1		15317-5						
	40029		15822						
	40034		15698						
	40044		15829						
	40046		15832						
	40047		15831						
40050-2	15864								
II,7	37010	24095							
	37016	24106		1					
	37017	24123-3							
	37018	24114							
	37023	24193							
	37033	24338							
	37033	24338							
	37040	24301-1							
	37042	24345							
	37081	24702							
37082	24551		1						
37090	24475								
II,8	38022-1	25762							
	38037	25524-2							
	38044	25913							
	38045	25538							
	38046-1	25915							
	38062	25842							
	38073	33136							
	38079	33069							
	38096	33063							
	38107	33129							
	38109	33171							
	38115-1	33195							
38117-1	33209								
38428	31319								
III,5	33039	18204							
	33046	18214							
IV,3	36082	23284		2	64	121			
	36295	28641							
	36325	29307							
	36422	32136							
	36424	31290							
36432	31289								

Tab. 4a. List of Chalcolithic (CH) and Kura-Araxes (KA) plants cultivated and gathered at Dzedzvebi (Data: RUB; N. Boenke).

Period	Trench	Feature No.	Find No.	OTHER PLANT REMAINS seed/fruit indet. seed/fruit indet. (inner fruit) min. stalk fragments vegetative remains	WOOD charcoal fragments mineralized wood charred roots charred bark	OTHER ORGANICS starchy substance bones&teeth fish vertebrae (& other bones) molluscs (ancient and/or recent) RECENT AD MixTURES (Bioturbation/roots) recent seeds/fruits recent vegetative plant remains recent wood recent roots recent insects recent mice faeces	OTHERS bead/fragment pottery burnt clay vitreous material vitreous material/sinter sinter with plant imprint ash lumps slag/metallurgical components pyrite obsidian silex ochre	
CH	IV,3	36064-6	31701		x	7	x	x
		36111	29237	2		9	x	x x x
		36127	23283			x	x x	x
		36128	23282			x	2	
		36129	29213			x	1	x x
		36131	23281	1		x x	3	x
		36276	28586	6 8		x	57	x x
		36278	27997			x x	2	x x x
		36311-1	29256	1 12		x x	68	x x x
		36323	29312	1		x	43	x x
		36323	29336	9		x	466	x x x
		36331	29315	2			126	x x
		36489	31591			x	15	x x
		36491	31921	4		x	18	x
36533	31951	1		x	67	x x		
36540-1	32052	2		x	13	x x		
KA	II,2	34096	12680	4 1	x	64	x x	
		34102	12720-1		x		x	
		34111	12785				x	
	34113	12786			x	5	x	
	II,3	40012	15196					x
		40012	15252					x
		40014-1	15317-5			x	13	x x
		40029	15822			x		x
		40034	15698	1		x	x x	x x
		40044	15829			x		x
		40046	15832					x x
		40047	15831	1		x		x
		40050-2	15864			x	1	x
		37010	24095					x x x
		37016	24106			x	1	x
		37017	24123-3			x		x
		37018	24114					x x x x
		37023	24193			x		x x
	37033	24338			1		x x	
	37033	24338			x		x	
	37040	24301-1			x		x	
	37042	24345				5	x x	
	37081	24702					x x	
	37082	24551			x	9	x	
	37090	24475			x	x	x x	
	II,8	38022-1	25762		x	3	x	x x
		38037	25524-2					
		38044	25913			x	2	x
		38045	25538					x
		38046-1	25915	2		x	50	x
38062		25842						
38073		33136					x	
38079		33069			x		x x	
38096		33063					x	
38107		33129			x		x	
38109		33171			x		x	
38115-1		33195			x		x	
38117-1		33209	2		x	x	20	
38428	31319			x	3	x		
III,5	33039	18204		x	2	x x	x x	
	33046	18214	1		x	x x	x	
IV,3	36082	23284	3		x	20		
	36295	28641	2		x	13	x	
	36325	29307			x	2	x x	
	36422	32136			x	10	x x	
	36424	31290			x	9	x	
36432	31289			x	9	x		

Tab. 4c. List of unspecified Chalcolithic (CH) and Kura-Araxes (KA) plant remains and other materials at Dzedzevi (Data: RUB; N. Boenke).

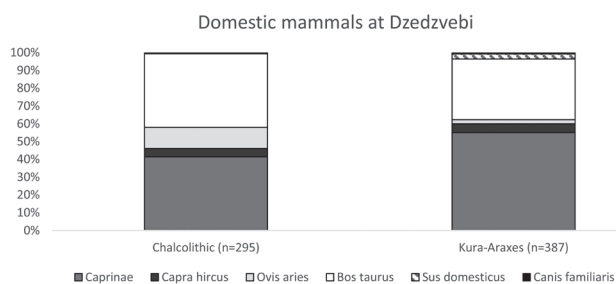


Fig. 35. Relative representation of domestic mammals from Chalcolithic and EBA levels at Dzedzvebi (in % of the domestic mammals NISP) (Draft/data: MNHN; A. Vautrin, R. Berthon).

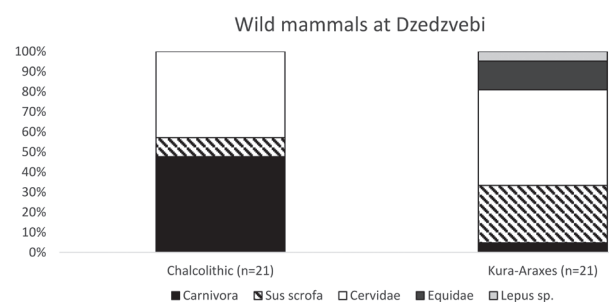


Fig. 36. Relative representation of wild mammals from Chalcolithic and EBA levels at Dzedzvebi (in % of the wild mammals NISP) (Draft/data: MNHN; A. Vautrin, R. Berthon).

DZ, CHALC, Caprinae, corr%NISPd, n=15

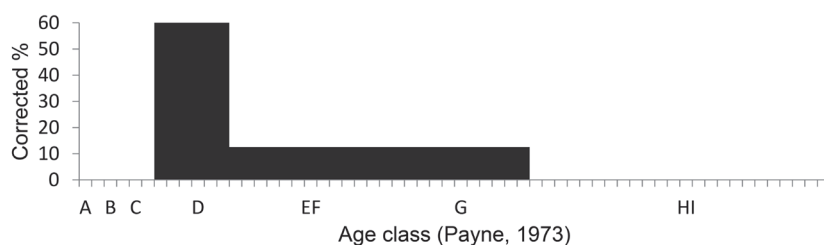


Fig. 37. Kill-off pattern of *Caprinae* (sheep and goats), Chalcolithic (Draft/data: MNHN; A. Vautrin, R. Berthon).

DZ, EBA, Caprinae, corr%NISPd, n=21

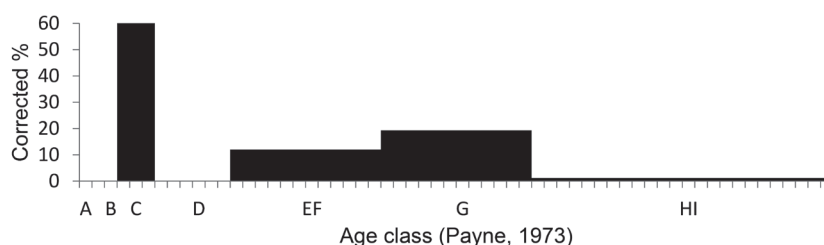


Fig. 38. Kill-off pattern of *Caprinae* (sheep and goats), EBA (Draft/data: MNHN; A. Vautrin, R. Berthon).

herds, suggesting pastoral mobility.⁸⁸ Most of the slaughtered caprines had reached their optimal meat weight (age classes C and D). Older animals that may have been kept for their fleece or for reproduction purposes represent a smaller percentage of the slaughtered caprines.

Husbandry strategies such as feeding, lambing seasonality and mobility were also investigated using an isotopic approach. We measured the variation of carbon

and oxygen isotope ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) in sequentially sampled enamel from Dzedzvebi Chalcolithic and EBA caprine and cattle teeth. These analyses were performed at the Service de Spectrométrie de Masse Isotopique du Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle (MNHN) in Paris. The results show a difference in diet between caprines and cattle, with a higher consumption of C_4 plants in summer for cattle than for caprines (Fig. 39). This could be explained in several ways: (1) these two species were raised in different areas and eventually slaughtered in Dzedzvebi, (2) Dzedzvebi herds were pastured in different territories, (3) different species

88 ARNOLD, GREENFIELD 2006.

Taxon	Common name	Chalcolithic	Kura-Araxes	% Chalcolithic	% Kura-Araxes	% id. Chalcolithic	% id. Kura-Araxes
<i>Lepus</i> sp.	Hare	0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Carnivora	Carnivore	1	1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.2
Felidae	Felid	1	0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
Canidae	Canid	1	0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
<i>Canis familiaris</i>	Domestic dog	2	3	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.7
<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	Red fox	6	0	0.3	0.0	1.7	0.0
<i>Meles meles</i>	European badger	1	0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
<i>Equus</i> spp.	Horse/Donkey	0	3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.7
<i>Sus</i> spp.	Pig/Boar	1	0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0
<i>Sus domesticus</i>	Pig	0	11	0.0	0.4	0.0	2.7
<i>Sus scrofa</i>	Wild boar	2	6	0.1	0.2	0.6	1.4
Cervidae	Cervid	2	0	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.0
<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	Red deer	6	9	0.3	0.4	1.7	2.2
<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	Roe deer	1	1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.2
Bovinae	Cow/Auroch	0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
<i>Bos taurus</i>	Domestic cow	122	132	6.7	5.2	34.1	31.8
Caprinae	Goat/Sheep	162	213	8.9	8.4	45.3	51.3
<i>Capra hircus</i>	Goat	14	19	0.8	0.8	3.9	4.6
<i>Ovis aries</i>	Sheep	35	9	1.9	0.4	9.8	2.2
Aves	Bird	1	5	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.2
Mollusca	Molluscs	0	1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Total identified		358	415	19.8	16.5	100.0	100.0
Unidentified large		192	127	10.6	5.0		
Unidentified medium		0	5	0.0	0.2		
Unidentified small		0	4	0.0	0.2		
Large mammals		300	282	16.6	11.2		
Medium mammals		511	618	28.2	24.5		
Small mammals		1	5	0.1	0.2		
Unidentified size category		450	1065	24.8	42.2		
Total unidentified		1454	2106	80.2	83.5		
Total		1812	2521	100.0	100.0		

Tab. 5. Faunal spectrum at Dzedzvebi (Data: MNHN; R. Berthon, A. Vautrin).

had different plant preferences in the same environment, or (4) farmers chose to keep cattle and caprines in different pastures. In order to understand better the preliminary results of the carbon- and oxygen-isotope studies, a complementary study of strontium, also recorded in dental enamel, is in progress at the DBM research laboratory. This analysis will allow us to investigate whether cattle display a different carbon isotope ratio in summer when pastured in the same area as the other cattle and caprines. The results for EBA specimens are different, especially for caprines, since three ewes from Grave 9 had access to a diet containing a significant C₄ plant component. Two ewes display higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in summer, while the third ewe consumed C₄ plants in winter (Fig. 39). Strontium analyses will allow us to determine if

the C₄-plant-rich grasslands were located in the same area for the three ewes from Grave 9 as well as the two Chalcolithic cattle. As C₄ plants are not expected in the vicinity of Dzedzvebi in winter, we will use strontium isotope ratio values to discuss potential foddering.

4.6. Physical Anthropology of Early Bronze Age Graves

Modern anthropological studies concerning Caucasian Late Chalcolithic and Kura-Araxes populations are rare, and none exist that focus on mining populations. During the recent excavations, we conducted a study of 31 individuals from twelve Early Bronze Age graves from the Dzedzvebi settlement. The state of preservation of the bones can be described as very poor, which also suggests that the actual

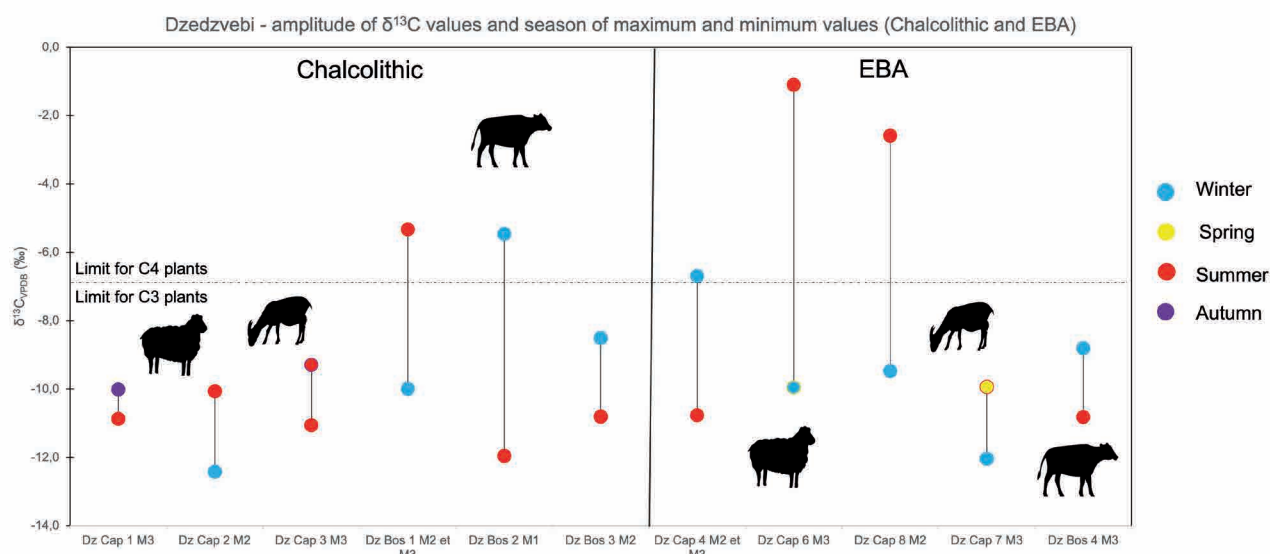


Fig. 39. Amplitude of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values during Chalcolithic and EBA. The colours designate the season for which the minimum/maximum of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is reached (blue = winter, yellow = spring, red = summer, purple = autumn, when mixed colours = late season / early season, e.g.: red/purple = late summer–early autumn). The season was determined according to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the sample (Draft/data: MNHN; A. Vautrin).

number of individuals buried in these grave contexts may have been higher (Tab. 6). These graves were associated with the mining and metallurgical complex of Settlement Area II, based on partial overlap. In one case, the connection to mining activities was even clearer, as a unique broken stone tool, most likely a mining hammer, was deposited on top of the outer stone slabs that covered the chamber construction (Grave 9). Some of the graves were collective burials (graves 1, 2, 3, 6, 9), which may correspond to kinship structures within the mining community. Single burials (graves 8, 12, 15) of a child, a juvenile and a mature male were also found. Some graves were located in special connection to the workshop installations, as was the case for skull graves of juveniles and children that had been integrated into the workshops of houses 2 and 3, as well as the younger debris layer in Trench 11 of II.7 (graves 4, 7, 17–18).⁸⁹ Some grave constructions did not contain any preserved human bones and can be interpreted as cenotaphs (graves 13, 19, 20–21).

The collective graves 1, 2, 3 and 6 represent a special funerary context. The bones found there suggest a minimum number of individuals (MNI) of three to six, with one subadult and several adults represented in each context. For Grave 6, analyses of sex-determining skeletal markers resulted in the identification of one male (the main burial) and three female adult individuals. For one adult individual, the preservation was too poor to determine the sex.

The main male individual died at the age of 35 to 45 years. For Grave 3, the success rate for sex determination was much lower. One male and one female could be identified there, while for the other three adult individuals, no discriminating traits were preserved. For graves 1 and 2, the MNI is four and three, respectively. For each of the graves, again one subadult individual was identified, while the rest of the bones derived from adult individuals. For Grave 1, one of those individuals was determined to be male and another female. The subadults found in graves 1 and 2 show a skeletal development status suggesting an age at death of 10–13 years and 5–9 years, respectively. The subadult bones found in a ceramic vessel in Grave 6 also belong to a 5–9-year-old individual. For the subadult found in Grave 3, the preserved skeletal elements did not allow a more detailed age-at-death determination. Another collective burial was discovered in the impressive tholos-shaped burial (Grave 9), which contained three males and two females. Only the youngest set of remains, that of a crouched male, was an adult, while the others reached mature and even senile ages. Interesting is an adult-to-mature male found in a redeposited position in Grave 8 nearby. A healed trauma was observed in the skull of this individual, above the right orbital arch, possibly related to an accident or interpersonal violence.

Another group of graves comprises children's graves, which include skull burials of younger children (infants I, graves 4, 7, 17–18) and that of an almost juvenile in Grave 12. All of these graves were clearly reopened to

⁸⁹ STÖLLNER 2017.

Site	Grave	Date	MNI	Age		Sex		Undetermined	Burials
				Subadult	Adult	Male	Female		
Dzedzvebi	1	EBA	4	1	3	1	1	2	Age of adults not analysed; subadult, 10–13 years
Dzedzvebi	2	calBC 2852–2506	3	1	2	0	0	3	Age of adults not analysed; subadult, 5–9 years
Dzedzvebi	3	calBC 3012–2899	6	1	5	1	1	4	Age of adults not analysed; subadult, age unclear
Dzedzvebi	4	EBA	1	1				1	Age of adults and child not determined
Dzedzvebi	6	calBC 3085–2915 calBC 3090–2926	6	1	5	1	3	2	Male, 35–45 years; age of further adults mostly unclear, one female approximately 18–19 years; subadult, 5–9 years
Dzedzvebi	7	EBA	1	1				1	Child, 4 years
Dzedzvebi	8	calBC 3261–2925	1		1	1			Male, 30–40 years
Dzedzvebi	9	EBA	5		5	3	2		Male, 30 years; male skull, 50 years; male skull, 33–42 years; female skull, 60 years; pelvis, 45 years
Dzedzvebi	11	calBC 1876–1646	1			1?			Male?, adult, 25 years
Dzedzvebi	12	EBA	1	1				1	Child, 9–11 years
Dzedzvebi	15	EBA	1	1				1	Child, 5–6 years (teeth)
Dzedzvebi	17	calBC 3091–2922	1	1				1	Child skull, 4–5 years
Dzedzvebi	18	EBA	1	1				1	Child skull, 3–4 years

Tab. 6. Main results of the morphological analyses of the human remains found at Dzedzvebi. – MNI = minimum number of individuals (Data: RUB/University College Santa Cruz [UCSC]; I. Al-Oumaoui, L. Fehren-Schmitz).

remove parts of the bodies (graves 1–3, 6, 9, 12), to rearrange the grave by including new individuals (graves 1–3, 6, 9) or to redeposit the bodies (for instance Grave 8). The infant skulls were likely rearranged, as virtually no parts of postcranial skeletons or even complete skulls have been found in their stone cists. The absence of vertebrae in many graves (especially in those that were rearranged: 1–3, 6, 8, 9, 12) is especially notable, as it demonstrates multilevel ritual practices involving the dead. Only the most recent burial, the *in situ* positioned crouched inhumation burial of an adult male, included a spine and pelvis bones. Two dates could be obtained from Grave 6, from the main individual and one of the others. Both dates fall into the same range (main individual: calBC 3090–2926, other individual: calBC 3085–2915), which suggests that these individuals were buried at the same time or shortly after each other.

No remarkable signs of pathological alterations were observed in most of the available bones from the various graves, for instance from the six individuals placed in Grave 3. In Grave 2, a degree of dental wear can be seen in a decidual first molar belonging to the child aged 5–9 years old; this wear pattern is normal for an individual of that age, due to the mixed teeth. No signs of pathology or stress could be detected in this individual. Grave 6 shows a different pattern of pathology than the other graves. A female of approximately 18–19 years old shows a moderate degree of dental wear in the upper first molar and a slight degree in the second, both from the right

upper quadrant. The two individuals, one male between 35–45 years and one of unknown age and sex, show muscular development in the upper and lower extremities. The upper extremities show more one-sided muscular development, in both cases on the right side. In brief, one side was used more in activities than the other, while the development in the lower extremities is related to locomotion.

This pattern of an intensified right-hand-sided muscular development was also observed in the mature male in Grave 8 and the *in situ* crouched adult male in Grave 9. The physical activity level of the individual in Grave 8 was estimated to not have been intensive, in contrast with the adult male in Grave 9: the upper extremities of the latter individual show considerable muscle development. Again, the right side is more developed than the left; this can be observed in the activity markers at the attachment site of the flexors and the extensors, like the *biceps brachii* in the humerus, while the ulna shows a kind of *myositis ossificans* in the region of the *pronator quadratus* muscle, which indicates a healed traumatic injury. These findings suggest a pattern of physical activity that is consistent with the nature of the environment and the work that likely took place there (possibly mining). The lower extremities also show more robusticity on the right side than on the left side. The vertebral column shows several lesions; these are not severe, but likely impactful for a person of that age. These findings provide insight into the considerable stress this individual experienced

in his life: the development of schmorl's nodes was detected in the cervicals C₃ and C₄, with sharp edging and exostosis from the atlas to C₄, which reduced gradually beyond that point. The thoracic vertebrae show slight to moderate exostosis and ossification of the *ligamentum flavum*; the lumbar is in a similar condition. The development of schmorl's nodes was noticed in L2, while depressions were noted in the rest of the vertebral bodies, developing into schmorl's nodes. It seems likely that the schmorl's nodes and lesions in the vertebrae, as well as the particular muscular development of the right extremities are all related to physical stress. A possible explanation is that the mining work may have led to one-sided physical stress, especially when it took place in narrow galleries. Further comparison among this population and others from the same period is needed to understand better the lifestyle and the type of activity.

4.7. Genome-Wide Data of Ancient Human Individuals from Dzedzvebi

We screened twelve samples from human skeletal remains from two different archaeological sites in Georgia (Dzedzvebi and Sakdrisi) for ancient DNA preservation. Two Late Antique individuals from Sakdrisi mine are not discussed further here. All processing steps were carried out at dedicated ancient DNA facilities in Santa Cruz, USA, and Leipzig, Germany. All of the samples underwent initial screening steps via shotgun sequencing and passed the standard quality thresholds with respect to the amount of endogenous DNA content (in %) and ancient DNA authenticity criteria; they were thus subsequently enriched for ~1.24 million ancestry-informative SNPs (Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms) (1240k SNP panel, Tab. 7). The total number of SNPs across this panel ranged from 22,937 to 782,932 SNPs. After capture, the genome-wide SNP data were subjected to additional series of quality checks, also applying a minimum cut-off of 30,000 SNPs. Only one individual (A19277) did not pass and was therefore removed from downstream analysis. The remainder of the data were subjected to chromosomal sex determination, assignment of uniparentally inherited haplogroups, and estimation of biological relatedness. In-depth, comparative analyses of genome-wide data in conjunction with relevant published ancient and modern-day data are the subject of ongoing studies.

4.7.1. Chromosomal Sex Determination

We calculated the mean number of reads mapping to the autosomes and to each sex chromosome and used the ratio of the sex chromosome to the autosomes to estimate the chromosomal (i.e. genetic) sex of individuals. Under the assumption of contamination-free data, we expect an X-ratio

of ~0.8 and a Y-ratio of 0 for females, while the expected ratios of X and Y chromosomes to autosomes for males are ~0.4. Genetic sex could be determined for all individuals: four were females and eight were males (Fig. 40 and Tab. 7). We detected no sign of sex chromosome contamination.

4.7.2. X-Contamination Estimates

Since males only have one copy of the X chromosome, we used the ANGSD (Analysis of Next Generation Sequencing Data) method, which estimates contamination based on observed levels of heterozygosity at the known polymorphic sites of the X chromosome of the male individuals.⁹⁰ To assess contamination with confidence, we used a minimum of 100 SNPs on the X chromosome that had to be covered at least twice. Only three male individuals (A19269, A19277, A19279) did not reach this quality threshold, although all had estimated levels of background contamination that were considerably lower than 5 % (Tab. 7).

4.7.3. Uniparentally Inherited Haplogroups

Mitochondrial haplogroups were determined by extracting the sequencing reads from the 1240k data that exclusively mapped to the human mitochondrial reference genome. Using the software Geneious Primer, we generated consensus sequences for each individual, which had over 3000 reads mapped to the human mitochondrial reference genome.⁹¹ The assignment of mitochondrial haplotypes from the consensus sequences was done using Haplogrep 2.0.⁹²

To assign Y-chromosome haplogroups for all genetically male individuals, we called the Y-chromosome SNPs of the 1240k SNP panel using pileup from the Rsamtools package⁹³ (base quality ≥ 30 and mapping quality ≥ 30). On the basis of these calls, Y-chromosome haplogroups were then assigned manually using the Y-SNPs pileup included in the ISOGG (International Society of Genetic Genealogy) SNP index v.14.07.

4.7.4. Biological Relatedness

To estimate biological relatedness within our dataset, we calculated the pairwise mismatch rate between all pairs of samples using READ software. We detected two sets of samples, (XXX001.A19269, XXX001.A19273 and XXX001.A19274) and (XXX001.A19271 and XXX001.

⁹⁰ KORNELIUSSEN, ALBRECHTSEN, NIELSEN 2014.

⁹¹ KEARSE et al. 2012.

⁹² KLOSS-BRANDSTÄTTER et al. 2011.

⁹³ Bioconductor/Rsamtools: Binary Alignment (BAM), FASTA, <https://github.com/Bioconductor/Rsamtools> (last access 12.10.2023).

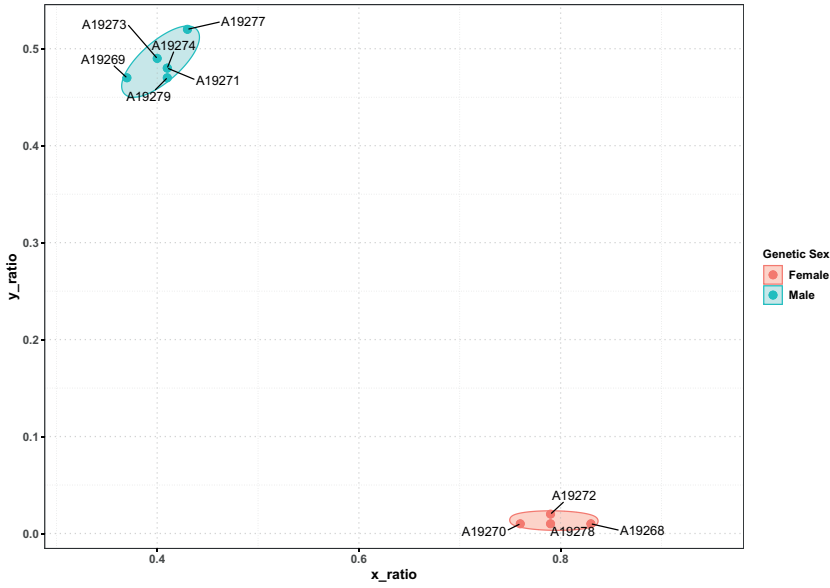


Fig. 40. X-ratio to Y-ratio scatterplot showing the mapping clusters according to chromosomal sex of all individuals under study (Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology [MPI] Leipzig; W. Haak and research group).

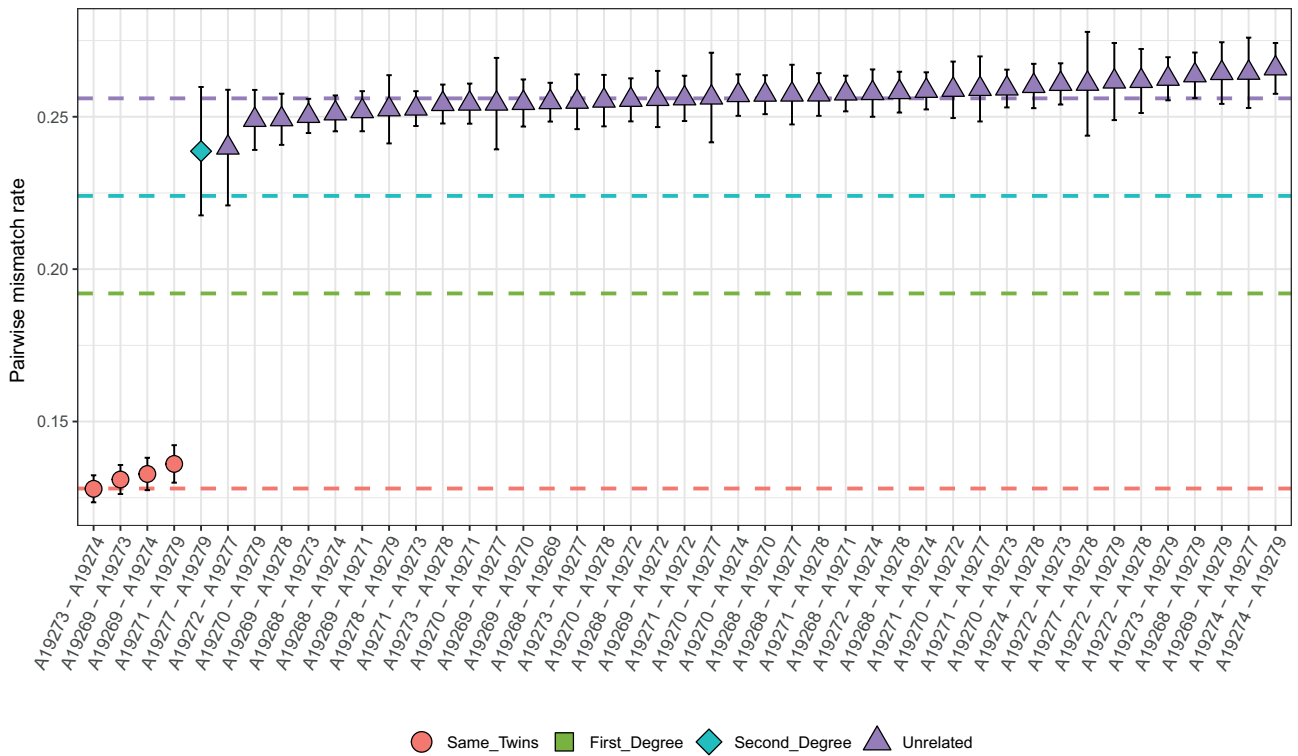


Fig. 41. READ estimates for the genetic relatedness among the individuals (MPI Leipzig; W. Haak and research group).

Sample ID	Area	Ind. ID	Archaeo ID	Endogenous DNA (%)	Genetic Sex	X-contam.	1240k SNPs covered	Y chrom. hg	mtDNA hg	Relatedness estimate	Further analyses
A19268	III.1	1	DZ_G3_5	10.83	F	–	529.679		I		Yes
A19269	II.4	2	DZ_G6_15	1.111	M	0.048	164.344	J	K1a	Identical with /73 and /74	Yes
A19270	II.4	3	DZ_G6_19	1.764	F	–	164.188		U4c1		Yes
A19271	II.4	4	DZ_G6_21	6.294	M	0.004	400.117	J	U3b1a1	Identical with /79	Yes
A19272	III.1	5	DZ_G3_11	0.592	F	–	81.010	T			Yes
A19273	II.4	2	DZ_G6_32	56.92	M	0.007	744.902	J1a	K1a1	Identical with /69 and /74	Yes
A19274	II.4	2	DZ_G6_14	3.261	M	0.004	332.228	J	K1a	Identical with /69 and /73	Yes
A19277	III.1	6	DZ_G1_M6	0.1376	M	–	22.937	BT			No
A19278	II.4	7	DZ_G6_24	2.51	F	–	116.809		T2a1b2b		Yes
A19279	II.4	4	DZ_G6_31	0.7105	M	–	64.973	J	U3b1a1	Identical with /71	Yes

Tab. 7. Overview of genetic results, including quantity and quality of DNA content, contamination estimates, genetic relatedness, and Y chromosomal and mitochondrial haplogroups (MPI Leipzig; W. Haak and research group).

A19279), all skeletal elements that either originated from the same individual or from an identical twin. Since the samples in each set also shared the same sex and uniparentally inherited markers, we merged the data of the identical samples as belonging to one individual each and used these for downstream analysis (Fig. 41). The remainder of the samples/individuals were not closely related.

4.7.5. Results and Discussion

We report preliminary results from eight out of nine successfully genotyped individuals from twelve samples from two sites in Georgia, dating to the Bronze Age and medieval periods. Results include genetic sex determination, contamination estimation, uniparentally inherited haplogroup assignments and estimation of biological relatedness. It should be noted that the individuals from three collective burials do not show any close biological relation (graves 1, 3 and 6). Mitochondrial DNA analyses were successful for six samples from Dzedzvebi, which most likely belong to six distinct individuals. Two of the individuals carried HVR (hypervariable region) I polymorphisms characteristic of mitochondrial haplogroup J, while another two could be assigned to haplogroup K, and one each to I and C. All of these haplogroups are also represented in modern Georgian populations, with the exception of the East Asian/Siberian haplogroup C, which is also found in European and Anatolian populations at a very low frequency. For four of the individuals, it was also possible to amplify genetic markers associated with Lactase Persistence (LP), eye colour and hair colour (the crouched male in Grave 6). These results were obtained using Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) protocols that provide insight not only into the study of maternal genetic patterns, but also into genome-wide information.

The genotypes suggest dark hair and brown eyes for all individuals. Recent ancient DNA studies conducted on Bronze Age individuals from the Pontic-Caspian steppe also exclusively found these phenotypes.⁹⁴ Additional, in-depth population genetic analyses are currently being conducted and will be included in a large-scale time transect study based on comparative data from Mesolithic to Late Bronze Age individuals across the wider Caucasus region.

5. Discussion: Dzedzvebi as a Site of Interconnectivity

5.1. Sedentarism and Mobility in the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age Settlement

The investigation into the rhythms that shaped the communities in the middle Maschavera Valley aims at an overall understanding of their social and economic activities. In the second half of the 4th millennium and in the early 3rd millennium BCE, the extraction of raw materials in the vicinity of the rich gold deposit of the Kachagiani Hill probably played an important role. Previous investigations have not only shown that the extraction of free gold took place in close connection with the processing activities in Dzedzvebi (see also below), but also raised questions about the permanence of the gold exploitation activities in general (Fig. 42).⁹⁵ The Paravani model was developed to integrate various data into an operational model, showing how much gold could be won in what amount of time. The model made it apparent that the gold deposit did not need to be mined permanently, based on the results of experimental archaeological investigations.⁹⁶

⁹⁴ ALLENTOFI et al. 2015.

⁹⁵ ¹⁴C dates from Sakdrisi published by STÖLLNER et al. 2014.

⁹⁶ Most recently summarised by STÖLLNER et al. 2021.

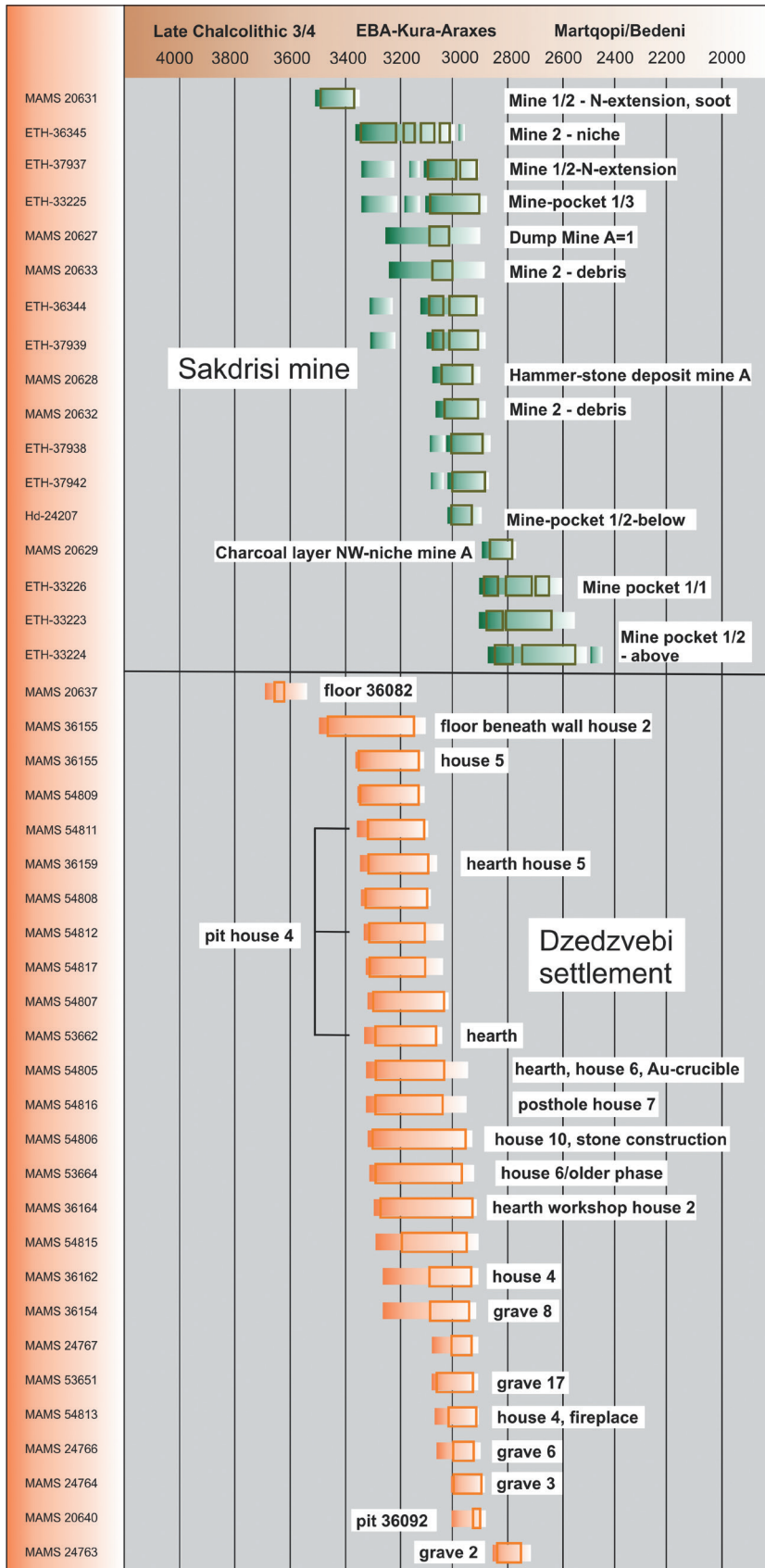


Fig. 42. Comparison of AMS ¹⁴C datings from the Kura-Araxes mining of Sakdrisi and the Kura-Araxes features of Dzedzvebi Plateau (DBM/RUB; T. Stöllner).

The deposit may have been visited repeatedly by groups who extracted ores there for a few days and processed the concentrates later on the Dzedzvebi Plateau. Is there evidence for this hypothesis? On the one hand, the analysis of the Sakdrisi pottery assemblage revealed a close connection with the finds from the Dzedzvebi Plateau. On the other hand, mineralogical analysis revealed the presence of different mineralogical compositions, which suggests that the extraction of gold ore was not undertaken by a single group, but that several communities from the lowlands of the Mashavera and the Kura Valley system were involved.⁹⁷ As no evidence of pottery workshops has been discovered in Balichi-Dzedzvebi to date, it can be assumed that these communities brought ceramic vessels to the mining fields. This indicates a certain level of mobility among the communities in Dzedzvebi and Sakdrisi. Can this picture be corroborated by further findings? The settlement finds of the Kura-Araxes period initially suggested largely sedentary populations, but even then, the small amount of domestic waste (animal bones) found at the workshop settlement was conspicuous. The pottery is highly fragmented, and no large-format pottery waste is known, aside from special ritual deposits.⁹⁸ The same applies to complete non-mining and beneficiation implements made out of metal and obsidian (e.g. awls, sickle knives, bladelets, see e.g. Fig. 30). This could indicate that usable objects were taken away and only rarely discarded. The house architecture is not as durable as it appears at first glance, despite the large floor areas, especially of the milling houses in Area II.3. Evidence of more durable roof constructions is lacking, and no clay plaster has been found, which may be another indication of the impermanence of the structures. These findings suggest lighter roof constructions were used, made of yurt-like rod frames with skin and textile coverings.⁹⁹ This could indicate that the houses were repeatedly repaired. In addition, ore beneficiation and smelting activities were not only carried out inside more solid house features, as evidenced by the open-air ore beneficiation and smelting area, Area III.5. The stratigraphic sequences are also interesting: Thin colluvium layers in Area II.2 and especially Area II.3 show that these partial coverings and destructions led to maintenance and repairs. This is particularly clear in houses 6 and 7 in Area II.3. The radiocarbon chronology demonstrates that the renovation most likely took place a short time after the erosion event and the destruction of the older house features (see above;

MAMS 53651, MAMS 53664, MAMS 54805). It is remarkable that the older, already known sites were clearly resettled and reused, even though the large open spaces in the settlement areas would have allowed the construction of buildings elsewhere (see section 5.4).

The study of the isotope patterns of domestic animals reveals that some animals (e.g. caprids) consumed seasonally different C₃/C₄ plants. This suggests that some exchange of animals took place between the lower valleys (lower Mashavera/Kura Valley/Chrami Valley) and the area surrounding the middle Mashavera Valley (the possible location of C₃ plants), assuming that fodder was not supplied from the lowlands (see Fig. 43). During the Kura-Araxes period, the caprids in Grave 9 may have grazed in a specific lower-valley context, while other caprids and cattle appear to have grazed in the vicinity of C₃ plant sites (which includes the high pastures of the Transcaucasus). The latter coincides with the main use of the Chikiani obsidian, which points to regular exchange or access to the resources of the Javakheti and Trialeti plateaus (pastures, raw materials) of the Dzedzvebi communities. Further and indirect evidence on the question of sedentarism can also be seen in the lack of close kinship relations within the graves that have been genetically investigated so far (graves 1, 3 and 6). These investigations make it clear that biological kinship did not play a decisive role in the formation of burial communities. This suggests that several biologically unrelated communities gathered at Dzedzvebi, but that no longer-settled community emerged, with higher proportions of biological kinship, as genetic evidence of such a community would have been observed among the buried people.

It is more difficult to assess the permanency aspect of the Chalcolithic settlement. Only pit complexes have been found, some of which, like those with a cauldron-shaped structure, can be interpreted as storage pits. However, certain shallower features also suggest other uses, such as shallowly deepened housing pits. In contrast to the mud-brick architecture documented in the lower Kura Valley (e.g. from contemporaneous Mentesh III),¹⁰⁰ clear architectural features in Sioni settlements are relatively rare.¹⁰¹ The closest settlement is at Grmakhevistavi, near Vardisubani; it has yielded numerous pit complexes as well as soil and hearth remains from the Late Chalcolithic 4 stage (first half of the 4th millennium BCE).¹⁰² However, the site should probably be assigned to a younger chronological stage (LC3/4) than the Dzedzvebi Chalcolithic settlement in the first half of

⁹⁷ OTKHAVANI et al. 2015. – OTKHAVANI et al. 2021.

⁹⁸ Such as Pit 37006: STÖLLNER 2017, Figs. 2, 4–5.

⁹⁹ Such constructions can possibly also be assumed for other sites with similar architectural constructions, e.g. the site of Godedzor in PALUMBI et al. 2021.

¹⁰⁰ LYONNET 2017. – LYONNET, GULIYEV 2017.

¹⁰¹ NEBIERIDZE 2010. – SAGONA 2017. – SHAPARDON 2020.

¹⁰² ABRAMISHVILI, GIGUASHVILI, KAKHIANI 1980.

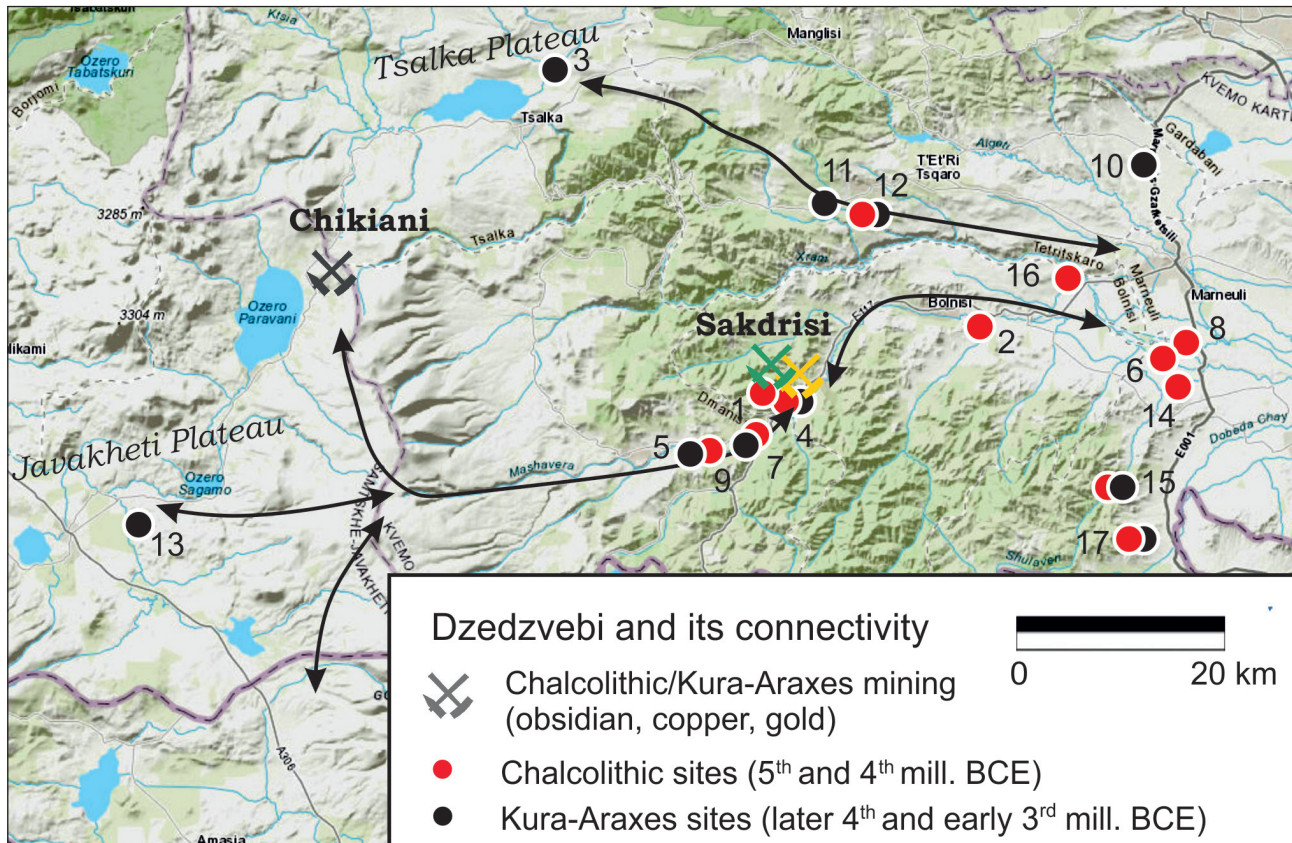


Fig. 43. Mountain corridors and connectivity of the Dzedzvebi/Sakdrisi complex during the 5th to the early 3rd millennia BCE. – 1. Abulmulg, Abanoshevi Valley; Chalcolithic. – 2. Arukhlo VI; Chalcolithic. – 3. Bestasheni, Tsalka Plateau; Kura-Araxes. – 4. Dzedzvebi; Chalcolithic/Kura-Araxes. – 5. Gantiadi/Dmanisi, various sites; Kura-Araxes. – 6. Gadachrili Gora; Chalcolithic. – 7. Grmakhevistavi; Chalcolithic/Kura-Araxes. – 8. Imiris gora, Marneuli; Chalcolithic. – 9. Javakhi; Chalcolithic. – 10. Koda; Kura-Araxes. – 11. Nachivchavebi; Chalcolithic/Proto-Kura-Araxes. – 12. Samshvilde, Tetriskaro; Chalcolithic/Kura-Araxes. – 13. Satkhe; Kura-Araxes. – 14. Shulaveris Gora; Chalcolithic. – 15. Sioni; Chalcolithic/Kura-Araxes. – 16. Tsetli Sopeli; Chalcolithic. – 17. Tsopi; Chalcolithic/Kura-Araxes (DBM/RUB; T. Stöllner, after ISAAC et al. 1994. – NEBIERIDZE 2010. – STÖLLNER 2016. – STÖLLNER in press).

the 4th millennium BCE. Thus, very little can be said with certainty about the degree of sedentarism. In Dzedzvebi, however, the presence of obsidian objects (Chikiani and Sarikamis volcanoes) and the presumed supply of copper-ore concentrates or scrap metal¹⁰³ indicate that close relations with the Armenian Plateau (Shirak Plain) and the Javakheti/Baraleti Plateau were most likely maintained (see Fig. 43).¹⁰⁴ This connection is probably related to pastoral activities involving flocks of sheep and goats, which were most likely driven into these areas for grazing. That parts of the herd may have been absent is suggested by the slaughter pattern

¹⁰³ STÖLLNER 2021b.

¹⁰⁴ According to the research results of A. Vautrin concerning ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values of Meskhetian (Orchosani, Rabati, Chobareti) and Dzedzvebi bovid samples, there is a common pasturage zone with values around 0.7070. Further isotope studies of the highland pastures and their variation of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values is needed.

(see section 4.5).¹⁰⁵ Animals aged up to 6 to 9 months do not appear to have been slaughtered at Dzedzvebi, which could indicate that these animals were absent (although other explanations are also possible). The evidence of later LC sites in the upper Mashavera Valley (Abulmulg;¹⁰⁶ Javakhi, Grmakhevistavi) is interesting, as it suggests a pathway connection to high-altitude summer pastures.

5.2. Subsistence Practices and Storage Activities in the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age: Herding and Crop Planting

Closely related to the question of mobility is the question of herding. As mentioned above, herding has been an essential component of the subsistence economy. Sheep/goat and

¹⁰⁵ BERTHON et al. 2021, 272–273.

¹⁰⁶ STÖLLNER in press.

cattle can be described as the most important meat suppliers in both periods. However, concrete slaughtering techniques cannot be reconstructed due to the poor preservation of the animal bones and their high fragmentation. Hunting played only a subordinate role. It should be noted that domestic pigs were kept in the Kura-Araxes period, indicating a proportionate stationary domestic animal husbandry. However, the share of pigs is very small, at 0.4 % of the total share of domestic animals. The examination of the weed communities and ruderal plants is also interesting, as they are probably connected to cereal cultivation, especially naked wheat, einkorn, emmer and millet. Like in other sites of the Transcaucasus,¹⁰⁷ naked wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) is the dominant food of the Kura-Araxes society of Dzedzvebi, while a greater variability of cereals can be observed in the Late Chalcolithic. The use of specialised harvesting techniques is indicated by the presence of sickle blades with denticulated working edges, which have been preserved in the settlement in relatively large numbers.¹⁰⁸ The bladelets, like the plant remains themselves, indicate harvesting close to the ground. Examining the seasonality of the harvests on the basis of the cereal weed communities¹⁰⁹ makes it clear that indications for harvests in late spring to July are more apparent in the Late Chalcolithic features (especially Buglossoides, for instance *Lithospermum arvensis* [field stonewort] and *Silene spec.* [campion]) (see Tab. 4b). Autumn sowing and therefore also the maintenance of the fields over winter likely indicate the presence of populations in the cold season during both the LC and the EBA. *Fallopia spec.* (bindweed), *Neslia paniculata* (finch seed) and *Galium spec.* (bedstraw species) suggest a somewhat different sowing time or longer ripening times, as well as deep soils with good phosphate conditions (somewhat different sites also seem conceivable) but are generally also associated with a summer harvest. They were found in Chalcolithic contexts as well as in Bronze Age features, in smaller quantities. These findings suggest summer/autumn harvests and therefore year-round cropping activities.

It must be emphasised that cauldron-shaped storage pits are attested for both the Late Chalcolithic and the Early Bronze Age settlement (for example in IV.3, II.7). They are not necessarily directly connected with metallurgical activities (as in the grinding house of II.3 and the copper workshop of II.2 or in the surroundings of House 4 [Pit 6 there belongs to the older settlement phase of II.8]). This

finding could indicate a specific division of labour between different groups of people in Dzedzvebi during the Early Bronze Age. The three cauldron-shaped storage pits found near Grave 3 (Area III.1) (see above)¹¹⁰ and later refilled with stone implements associated with gold processing activities, provide interesting insights into the interconnected practices of gold processing and subsistence activities.

5.3. Managing Mineral Resources: Access and Processing in the Late Chalcolithic and Early Bronze Age

The sites of the middle Mashavera Valley were, at least during the Early Bronze Age, closely linked to the extraction of gold- and copper-bearing ores. Sites such as the Kachagiani Hill (Sakdrisi) and the valley of Abanoskhevi can be identified as probable mining zones.¹¹¹ The connection is particularly clear in relation to the processing of ores with free gold at Kachagiani (see above). These ores were scattered especially across the workshops in areas II.2, II.3, II.8, and III.5, and demonstrate a regular supply of ore concentrates to the Early Bronze Age settlement. Meanwhile, installations for gold panning as well as crucible smelting of heavy mineral concentrates have also been documented. These findings show that gold grinding, washing of the ground material and melting did not take place in the same locations as copper-ore processing. Significant distribution patterns of gold-grinding tools and crucibles suggest different specialisations (see Fig. 28). In addition, the craft areas suggest that these activities took place at specific, ritually significant sites (such as skull burials of children) and not necessarily year-round, but perhaps only at specific times or for special occasions. The size of the houses associated with gold preparation (especially houses 3, 6–7) suggests that relatively large groups of people were involved in the time-intensive fine beneficiation activities of grinding and milling. Results from experiments indicate that gold milling is the most time-intensive part of the processing chain and it can be assumed that only assaying was done at the deposit itself.¹¹² It is more difficult to determine the origin of the copper ores discovered in the workshop of Area II.2: in addition to oxide carbonate ores, chalcocite and chalcopyrite must also have been processed there. Furthermore, the increase of arsenic contents with arsenic-rich ores such as fahlores or arsenopyrites is probable. These ores may have come from the Madneuli-Sakdrisi mineralisation zones

¹⁰⁷ LONGFORD, SAGONA 2022.

¹⁰⁸ THOMALSKY 2021, 397 and Fig. 10b.

¹⁰⁹ Also N. Boenke in STÖLLNER et al. 2021, 120 and Tab. 3.

¹¹⁰ Also STÖLLNER et al. 2014, 100 and Fig. 26.

¹¹¹ STÖLLNER et al. 2014. – STÖLLNER 2021a, 463–464 and Fig. 9. – STÖLLNER et al. 2021.

¹¹² For the amount of time required, see STÖLLNER et al. 2012. – TIMBERLAKE 2017. – STÖLLNER et al. 2021, 110–111 and Fig. 7.

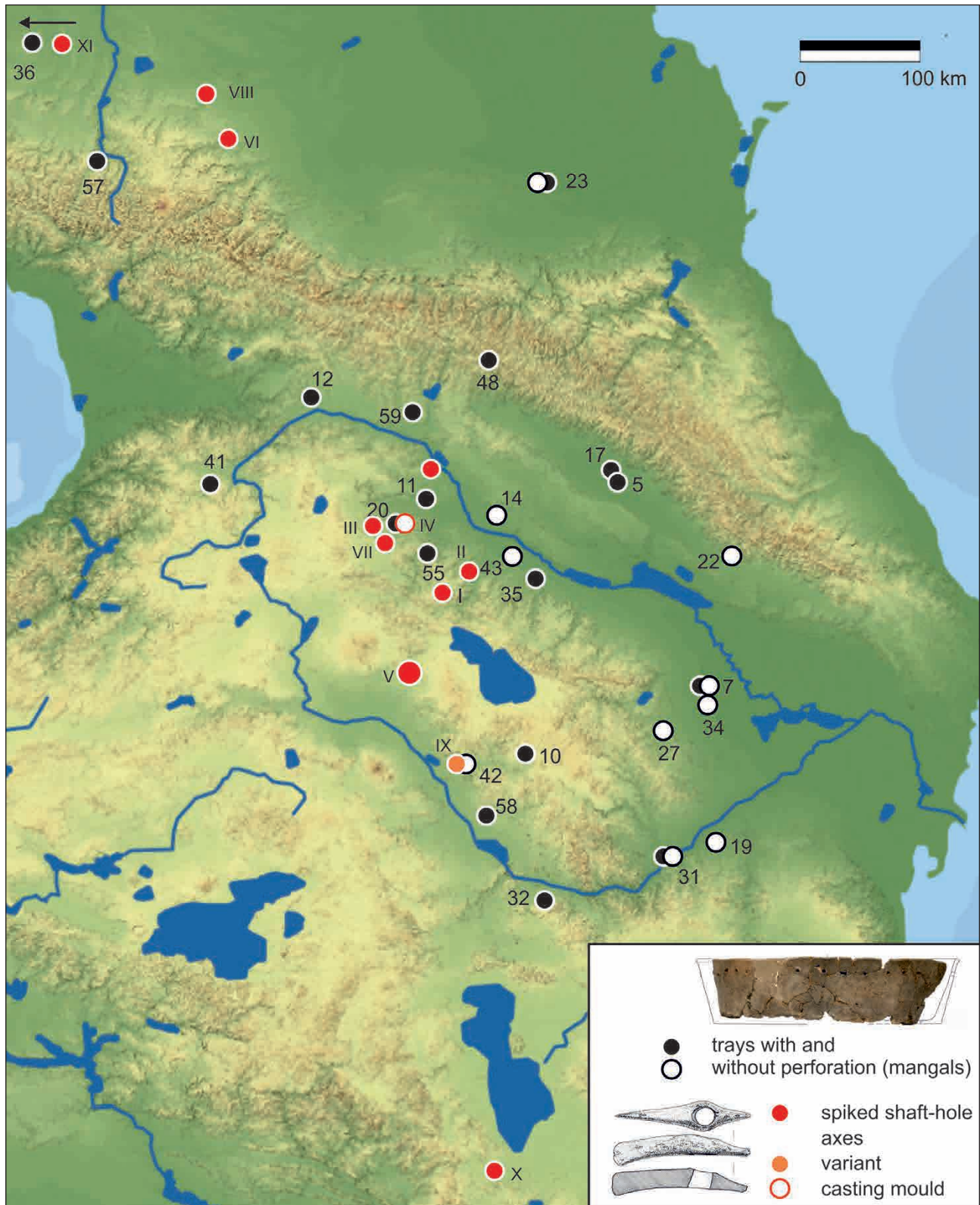


Fig. 44. Distribution of Sioni mangals and spiked shaft-hole axes of the late 5th millennium in and around the Caucasus (after STÖLLNER in press).

(e.g. Mount Kvirazchoveli [Sakdrisi V]; volcanogenic massive sulphide deposit of Madneuli). The LIA data of a piece of slag from II.2 suggest this is the case. In contrast, the slags and metals that have been studied so far scatter into a broader regional lead isotopic field (see Fig. 26).¹¹³ This field is so unspecific that a supply from other ore zones of the Caucasian TEMB (Tethyan-Eurasian Metallogenic Belt) cannot be excluded.

For the Sioni-period occupation of the Dzedzvebi Plateau, such a specialised link to the deposits of the Bolnisi-Madneuli zone cannot be demonstrated as clearly. So far, no evidence of specialised working areas like those of the Early Bronze Age occupation has been found. However, some metallurgical remains and pieces of equipment have been found that can be compared with those of the late 5th millennium BCE in the Kura Valley.¹¹⁴ Individual pure copper objects such as the rod-shaped device (29242) from Pit 1 do not match the regional deposits, nor do the copper prills from crucible 27905. While the metal object thus provides no evidence for the local processing of copper ores, the crucible not only reveals local smelting took place, but also provides insight into the complexity of social and technical practices. The connection of the crucible and the metallurgical ensemble with a shaft-axe casting mould for axe types of the late 5th millennium points to the Armenian Plateau as a possible catchment area (Fig. 44).¹¹⁵ However, the deposits of origin have not yet been determined, either in the case of the copper prills and the associated axes or in the case of the small implements. It is clear that ore concentrates from non-regional deposits were processed locally. Whether this also applies to precious metals is unclear. In the small crucible from Pit 6 (22434), increased gold contents and copper contents are noticeable.¹¹⁶ A regular processing of silver and gold can only be proven in the later Leilatepe/Berikldeebi period.¹¹⁷ That lead and silver contents could enter the slag crusts via the ores that were used is also shown by the prills from crucible 27905 (see above). Thus, the processing of precious metals cannot be proven at present.

¹¹³ STÖLLNER 2021b, 105 and Fig. 4.

¹¹⁴ Especially Mentesh Tepe: COURCIER 2014, 594–595. – ASTRUC et al. 2021.

¹¹⁵ Shaft-hole axes with a tapered pick end: HANSEN 2021, Fig. 23. – Close lead isotopic agreement with specimens from Ovçular Tepesi (Nakhicevan) and Dmanisi in STÖLLNER 2021b. – See also GAILHARD et al. 2017.

¹¹⁶ STÖLLNER et al. 2014, Fig. 21.

¹¹⁷ COURCIER 2014, 623–426.

5.4. Emerging Identity: Ritual and Social Practices in Kura-Araxes Communities at Dzedzvebi Plateau

Finally, we discuss the question of the social identity of the communities found at Dzedzvebi. The Chalcolithic communities identified in pits on the southern plateau largely elude this question, mainly because no graves from this period are known so far. Grave finds from this period are extremely rare, and the few known settlement burials are difficult to interpret.¹¹⁸ However, the question is even more interesting for the Kura-Araxes period. The features known from the craftsmen's settlement at Dzedzvebi II and III reveal a wealth of ritual activities in grave finds as well as in the vicinity of gold processing and extraction. Thus, commensality plays an important role in the environment of gold preparation practices, as indicated by the pottery deposits in House 4 or Pit 37006 from II.7 (Fig. 45).¹¹⁹ The deposition of gold-grinding implements in stone layers has been attested at least five times in areas II.2, II.3, II.8 and III.5, in house features that are most likely associated with the grinding of gold-bearing ores. Also particularly striking is the context of the presumed washing hearth in House 4, which is associated with the deposition of aniconic idols and feasting dishes.¹²⁰ The installation of the washing hearth over a ritually reused storage pit also indicates an incipient connection to tradition at this settlement site, which took place over four hearths above the pit mouth for a certain period of time and was eventually linked to gold extraction. The connection seen in houses 2, 3, 6 and 7 between metallurgy and gold extraction activities and the burial of children's skulls also points to common ritual practices that were developed alongside gold extraction traditions. The very specific burial rites also point in this direction, with evidence of the reopening of graves and the removal of skeletal parts, especially the spine. The regular co-burial of a juvenile also points to the special role of juveniles in the gold-making society of Dzedzvebi. This is also true of the children up to 6 years of age, who, in skull burials, may have played a kind of founding role in the houses and workshops. The overall finding is made particularly significant by the lack of evidence of any biological relationship between the individuals buried in the collective graves that have been examined so far (see section 4.7). Clearly, biological kinship did not play a role in the formation of common ritual ideas. Conversely, it could be hypothesised that the clear evidence of rites and

¹¹⁸ In general, see NEBIERIDZE 2010. – SAGONA 2017. – ISERLIS 2018. – SHAPARDON 2020.

¹¹⁹ See already STÖLLNER 2017, Figs. 2, 5–6.

¹²⁰ STÖLLNER 2017, 125–127 and Fig. 3.

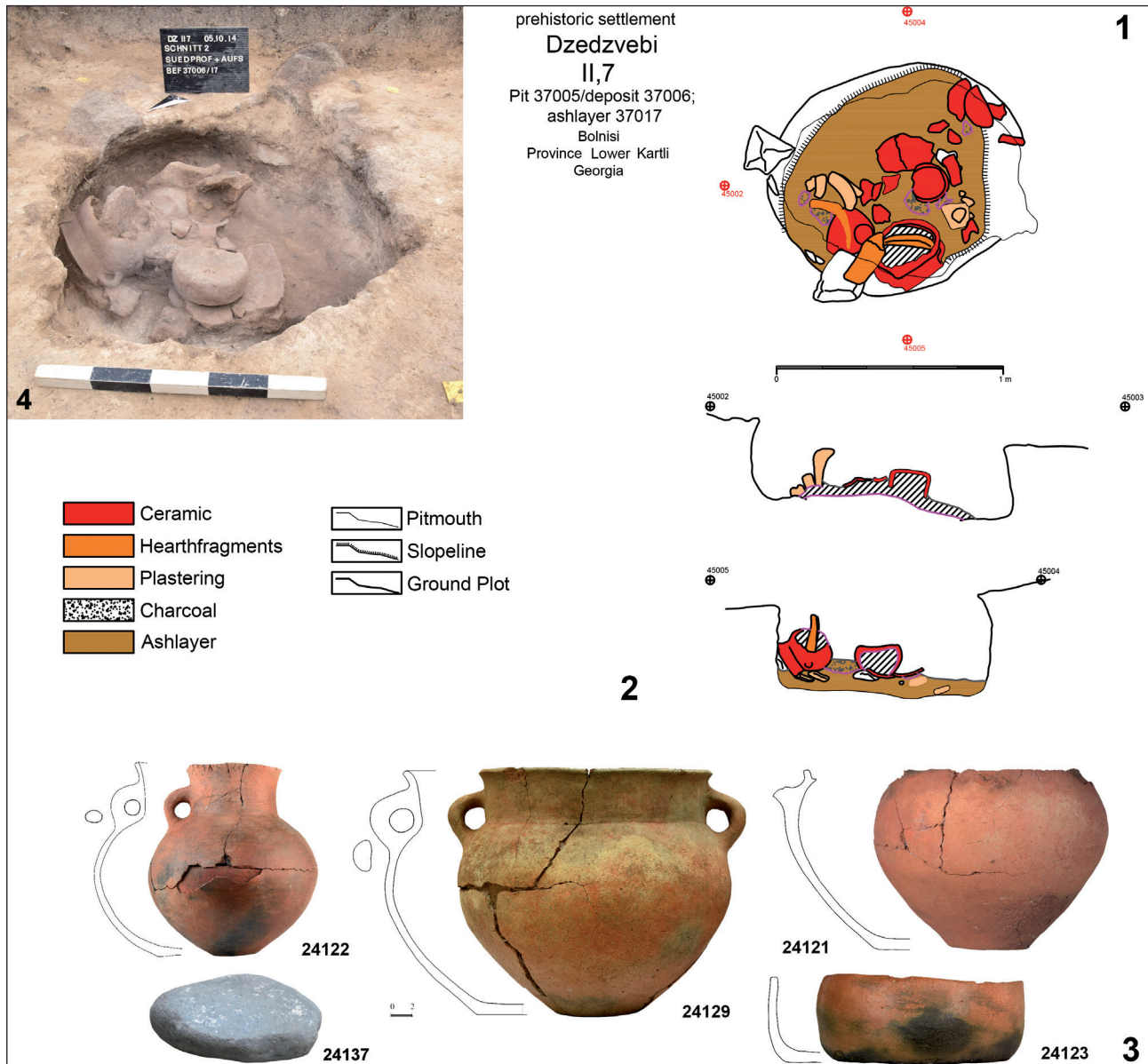


Fig. 45. Dzedzvebi, Area II,7, Pit 37005/37006. – 1–2, 4. Sections through Pit 37005/37006 and photograph. – 3. Pottery and stone tool from the pit (Graphics/photos: GNM and DBM/RUB; H.-J. Lauffer [artefacts], F. Klein [drawings], T. Stöllner [photo]).

the peculiarities of these findings are in fact the expression of newly formed ritual practices associated with a complex division of labour involving different groups and lineages, the ritual connotation of gold making and the appeasement of the dangers associated with it. In this regard, elders and physically prominent persons may have had a role in managing these processes and the associated negotiation processes. The complex around the round platform (House 5) with a conspicuously large central hearth, as well as graves 8–9 close to it, are particularly striking in this respect. For example, mainly older people, four men and two women, were buried in these graves. The fact that rites *a priori*, *iugiter* and

a posteriori can be proven speaks for an all-encompassing ritual penetration of daily work and life practices (a ritual interplay), which brought together and held together the perhaps very diverse community in the Dzedzvebi settlement in a cooperative way – at least for a certain time.

6. Conclusions: Dzedzvebi as an Intermediate Site in South Caucasian Mountain Corridors

The Dzedzvebi Plateau was probably an important point of exchange between the Kura Valley and the plateaus of the Lesser Caucasus as early as the 5th millennium BCE. It is likely that the summer pastures were accessed from here via

the upper Mashavera Valley and with them, the resources located there (Fig. 43). The plateau may also have served as winter quarters for the pastoralists of these communities and as an access point during summer from the lower Kura Valley and its tributaries, as indicated mainly by the mobility of grazing animals. It is interesting to note that as early as the Late Chalcolithic (Late Chalcolithic 1–2), the Dzedzvebi Plateau developed into an intermediate station from which activities emanated and towards which activities from the lowlands were directed at the same time. The fact that Dzedzvebi lies in a rich metallogenic zone may also have been an important advantage in the late 5th millennium BCE, a time when metallurgy was first extensively documented, as was the location itself. Nevertheless, despite the documented diversity of resource use, no clear mining specialisation of the communities who settled at least partially in Dzedzvebi can yet be discerned. Nevertheless, the specific cultural pattern of the Sioni Group¹²¹ may have been rooted precisely in these ambivalent living environments between valleys and mountains.

Conversely, the Kura-Araxes communities, which originated around the middle of the 4th millennium BCE, characterised by gold mining and other metallurgical activities, regional agriculture and a herding economy oriented towards an exchange between the lowlands and the summer pastures, appear much more specialised, particularly in terms of gold mining and processing activities.¹²² The aim of ongoing studies within the current research project is to determine whether some of the people and animals in these communities were mobile at times and whether different communities participated in the activities around and on the Dzedzvebi Plateau. However, it is highly likely that the Dzedzvebi Plateau continued to play an intermediary role, although the various social and economic activities may have become more regular. This is indicated not only by the division of labour around gold extraction, which presumably required numerous social activities to create a sense of community. Although it remains unclear how the extracted gold was distributed among the Transcaucasian communities, especially during the early phase of gold extraction, it is likely that a resident group exercised a certain amount of control over metal or deposits (such as Sakdrisi). These communities preserved the ritual as well as technical knowledge (for example, the lineages of the older remains in the graves of Area II.7 or the continued ritual use of Pit 6 in

II.8). The metals extracted in the craftsmen's settlement in association with surrounding deposits (e.g. those of Sakdrisi-Kachagiani) may thus have acquired an increasingly explicit role in the social networks and the narratives associated with their extraction. They may have enabled social control over other, ultimately more important resources, such as the high-altitude grazing areas of the Transcaucasus. An investigation of the relationships between the Javakheti/Baraleti and Trialeti plateaus and the valleys of the Kura and the Mashavera is planned in the next phase of this project. It is already clear, however, that numerous settlements (especially in the younger phases of the Early Bronze Age) were founded at these heights and, from the early 3rd millennium BCE onwards, Kurgan burials were established there.¹²³ As territorial markers, these burials may have symbolised the control of these zones by individual communities. One can only suggest that the new function and presentation of individuals and lineages in ceremonial burials, which has been highlighted elsewhere,¹²⁴ was also justified in the sense of increased competition for such resources.

Author Contributions

T. Stöllner: sections 1, 2, 3.1, 3.2.1–5, 4.1–2, 4.6, 5, 6; I. Gambashidze: sections 3.1, 3.2.1–5; I. Al-Oumaoui: section 4.6; T. Baldus: section 3.1; R. Berthon: section 4.5; A. Belošić: section 3.2.3; N. Boenke: section 4.4; N. Broomandkshosbacht: section 4.7; J. Bungardt: section 4.3; L. Fehren-Schmitz: sections 4.6–7; A. Ghalichi: section 4.7; G. Gogochuri: sections 3.1, 3.2.3–5; W. Haak: section 4.7; M. Jansen: section 4.2; E. Kvavadze: section 3.2.5; I. Löffler: section 3.2.1; G. Mindiashvili: sections 3.2.1, 3.2.3; B. Murvanidze: sections 3.2.1–4; N. Otkhvani: sections 3.2.1–4; F. Schapals: sections 3.2.1–2; S. Senczek: sections 3.1, 3.2.1–5; K. Tamazashvili: sections 3.2.1–4; A. Vautrin: section 4.5.

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¹²¹ E.g. KIGURADZE, SAGONA 2003. – ISERLIS 2018. – LYONNET 2018. – MARRO 2022.

¹²² STÖLLNER et al. 2021.

¹²³ STÖLLNER 2016, Fig. 10. – STÖLLNER 2018.

¹²⁴ STÖLLNER 2017.

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