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SHORT REPORT



## Untangling Neolithic and Bronze Age mitochondrial lineages in South Asia

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### ABSTRACT

Two key moments shaped the extant South Asian gene pool within the last 10 thousand years (ka): the Neolithic period, with the advent of agriculture and the rise of the Harappan/Indus Valley Civilisation; and Late Bronze Age events that witnessed the abrupt fall of the Harappan Civilisation and the arrival of Indo-European speakers. This study focuses on the phylogeographic patterns of mitochondrial haplogroups H2 and H13 in the Indian Subcontinent and incorporates evidence from recently released ancient genomes from Central and South Asia. It found signals of Neolithic arrivals from Iran and later movements in the Bronze Age from Central Asia that derived ultimately from the Steppe. This study shows how a detailed mtDNA phylogeographic approach, combining both modern and ancient variation, can provide evidence of population movements, even in a scenario of strong male bias such as in the case of the Bronze Age Steppe dispersals.

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### Introduction



We recently proposed a chronology for the peopling of South Asia by combining information from uniparental markers and genome-wide patterns (Silva et al. 2017). After the initial settlement in the Pleistocene, and the dispersal of some lineages south-eastwards from refugial areas in the Near East after the Last Glacial Maximum, two key moments brought additional layers of diversity to South Asia: (i) the Neolithic period, with the advent of farming and the rise of the Harappan/Indus Valley Civilisation in the north-west of the Subcontinent; and (ii) the upheavals in the Late Bronze Age that followed the 4.2 ka BP climatic event (which caused a dramatic increase in aridity in the Indus Valley region) (Staubwasser et al. 2003) and comprised the abrupt end of the Harappan Civilisation and the probable arrival of the Indo-European languages to the region (Parpola 2015).

Here, we take advantage of published ancient mitogenomes (whole mitochondrial DNA, or mtDNA, genomes) from Eurasia (Haak et al. 2015; Mathieson et al. 2015; Olalde et al. 2018), with special focus on the recently reported samples from Central and South Asia (Narasimhan et al. 2018) and reassess the findings advanced in our previous work (Silva et al. 2017) by focusing on two distinct lineages whose distributions exceptionally span Europe, the Near East and South Asia: H2 and H13. Haplogroup H is one of the most common lineages found in present-day European

populations (~45%) (Soares et al. 2010; Pala et al. 2016), but it is also found in the Near East, Caucasus, Central and South Asia, Siberia and North Africa (Loogväli et al. 2004). Given its presence at considerable frequencies in the European genetic substrate since the Neolithic (Brandt et al. 2013), it was most likely involved in diverse population movements in Eurasia, and can provide evidence of demographic events connecting Europe and Central/South Asia.

### Subjects and methods

We built phylogenetic trees for each haplogroup using MtPhyl v5.003 (<http://eltsov.org>), guided by PhyloTree Build 17 (van Oven and Kayser 2009). We calculated maximum likelihood (ML) node age estimates with baseml v.4.7 from PAML package (Yang 1997), using a mutation rate of one substitution in every 3,624 years, and correcting for purifying selection (Soares et al. 2009). We used a total dataset of 621 (H2) and 326 (H13) modern sequences, and applied the HKY85 (Hasegawa et al. 1985) mutation model with gamma-distributed rates (discrete distribution of 32 categories), considering two partitions to differentiate HVS-I and HVS-II from the rest of the molecule. The age estimates reported in the Results and discussion section for specific H2 and H13 branches result from this analysis.

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## Results and discussion

With a Late Glacial age estimate of  $\sim 14$  ka (95% confidence interval = 0.9–19.3 ka), H2 most likely originated in Eastern Europe or the Caucasus and is divided into three main branches: H2a ( $\sim 11$  [7.9–13.6] ka), H2b and H2c (both  $\sim 8$  ka [4.9–10.2] and [2.0–14.5] ka, respectively). The oldest H2 genome known is a H2a1 lineage from the Russian Steppe Eneolithic (Mathieson et al. 2018), dating to earlier than 6 ka, with other H2a1 lineages from the Armenian Chalcolithic and Ukrainian Eneolithic dating to  $\sim 6$  ka (Lazaridis et al. 2016; Mathieson et al. 2018). A basal H2 was also found in the Russian Steppe Eneolithic (Wang et al. 2019). H2a is by far the largest and most complex branch, comprising  $\sim 95\%$  of the modern H2 mitogenome sequences in our dataset. After 5 ka, H2a appears in the Corded Ware in Poland (Juras et al. 2018) and in the Bell Beaker culture of Germany, reaching western Europe with the Copper or Bronze Age at  $\sim 4$  ka (Allentoft et al. 2015). Additional sequences of H2a have been retrieved from Bronze and Iron Age individuals from the Pontic-Caspian steppe (Krzewińska et al. 2018). This earlier H2/H2a seems to be distributed around the Black Sea, before being dispersed from the Steppe with the Yamnaya pastoralist expansions across northern Europe.

H2b, on the other hand, is a minor branch (Figure 1). It contains several ancient samples from Russia, all basal to the rest of the branch, including one individual from the Yamnaya culture (I0441: 3010–2622 BCE) (Haak et al. 2015) and one from the Late Bronze Age Srubnaya culture (I0431: 1850–1600 BCE) (Mathieson et al. 2015), both from the Pontic-Caspian Steppe region, and five other Bronze Age samples from east of the Volga river: three from Sintashta (I1024, I0942: 2050–1650 BCE, and I1053: 1922–1763 BCE) and two from Krasnoyarsk (I1851: 1611–1459 BCE and I1853: 1611–1503 BCE) (Narasimhan et al. 2018). Also in a basal position, there are three modern Russian samples (two from the Altai region) and one Danish sequence (Derenko et al. 2014; Li et al. 2014; Lippold et al. 2014). Interestingly, while the

vast majority ( $\sim 70\%$ ) of H2 modern sequences in our dataset are of European origin, H2b displays a strong South Asian component, with seven samples from Pakistan, India and Sri Lanka. The newly published Sintashta and Middle Bronze Age Krasnoyarsk (Russian) sequences (Narasimhan et al. 2018), together with the previously released Yamnaya and Srubnaya, span a period from  $\sim 5$  to 3.5 ka. These, plus the modern South Asian sequences, support our earlier suggestion that H2b was involved in movements east and southwards from the Pontic-Caspian region into South Asia (Silva et al. 2017), by documenting its progress eastwards across the Eurasian Steppe. The Sintashta Culture in the Ural Mountains, or a “Sintashta-derived” culture (such as the Andronovo), is thought to have expanded eastwards into Central Asia  $\sim 3.8$  ka, reaching South Asia within several hundred years (Gimbutas 1963; Anthony et al. 1986) and, based on linguistic and archaeological evidence, they are thought to have been responsible for spreading the Indo-European language family across Central and South Asia (Parpola 2015).

Despite some similarities with H2, haplogroup H13 provides a contrasting phylogeographic pattern. H13 dates to the end of the Last Glacial Maximum,  $\sim 19$  [13.8–23.5] ka, and divides into three main clades, all dating to the early Late Glacial period: H13a ( $\sim 17$  [10.3–24.1] ka), H13b ( $\sim 17$  [11.5–21.9] ka) and H13c ( $\sim 16$  [10.7–21.6] ka). Although, once again, the majority of modern sequences are European, there is a considerable fraction of samples from more easterly regions (namely, the Caucasus, the Near East and South Asia), accounting for  $\sim 15\%$  of our modern dataset (20% excluding sequences of unknown geographic origin)—more than twice as many as is the case for H2. The oldest H13 mitogenomes known are from the early Holocene of Georgia (Jones et al. 2015) and the famous Iron Gates Mesolithic in Romania and Serbia, close to 10 ka (Mathieson et al. 2018). It reappears  $\sim 5$  ka as H13a1a in Yamnaya and Poltavka pastoralist burials from Russia (Haak et al. 2015; Mathieson et al. 2015), in Bell Beaker burials from Germany  $\sim 4$  ka (Brotherton

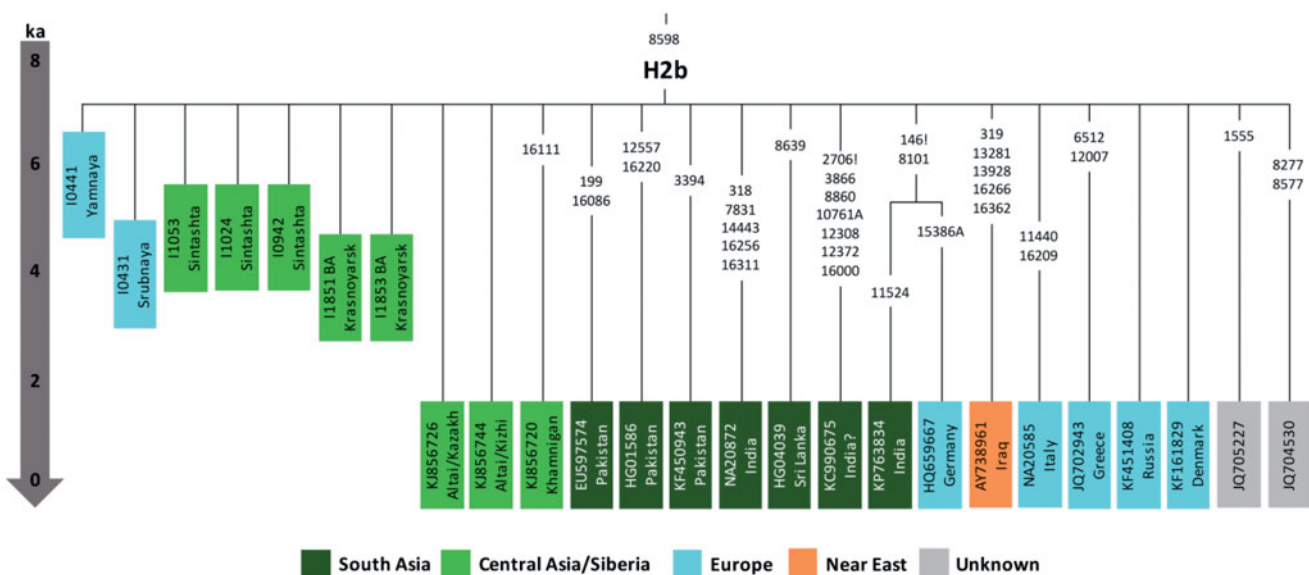


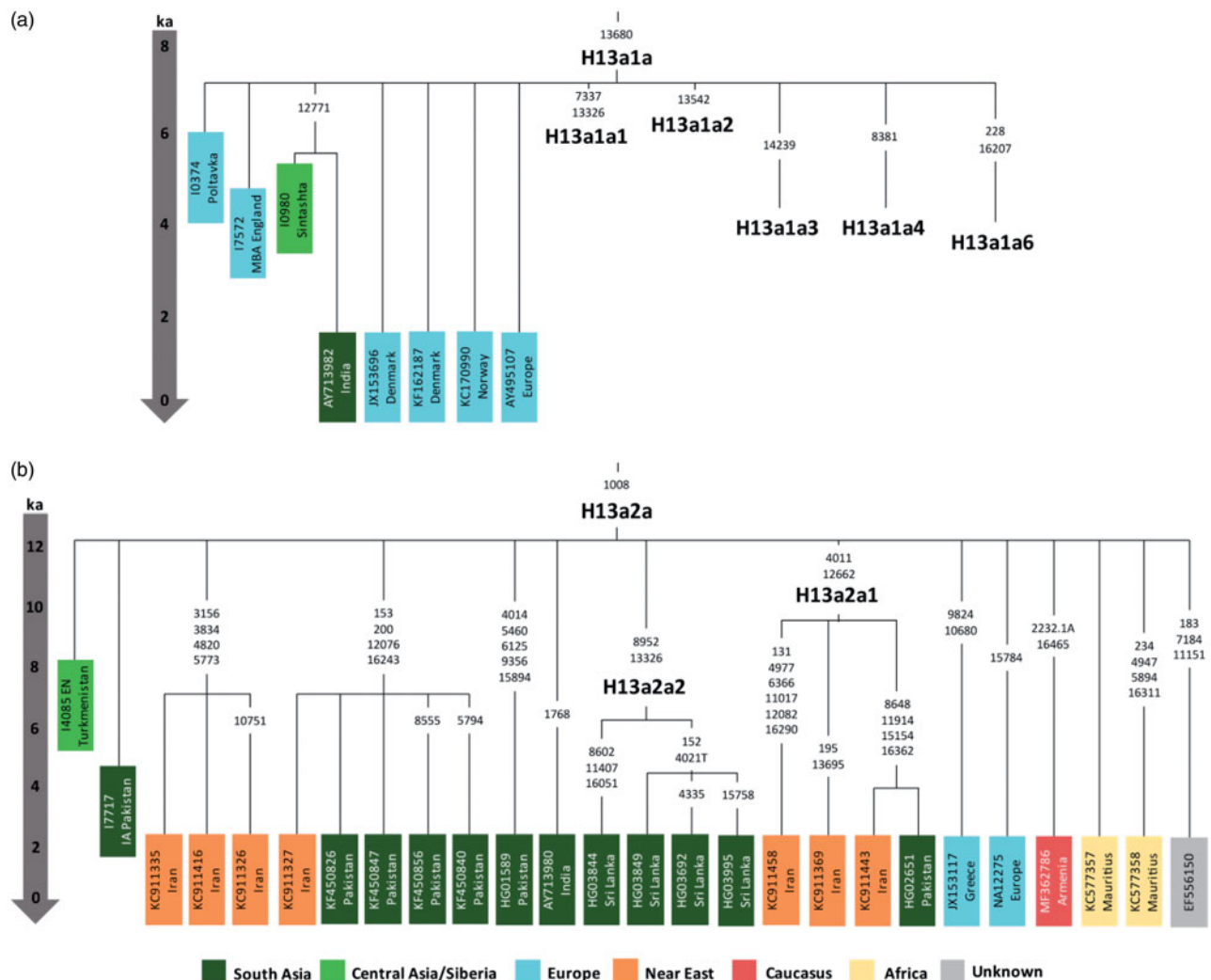
Figure 1. Schematic tree of mtDNA subclade H2b.

et al. 2013; Haak et al. 2015), and a few hundred years later in the Minoan Bronze Age of Crete (Lazaridis et al. 2017).

Interestingly, as with H2, we also found a possible signal of Bronze Age arrivals to the Indian Subcontinent in H13. H13a1a (~7 [5.6–8.8] ka) may have arisen in the Caucasus, but is largely a typical North European branch, with Middle Bronze Age samples from the Poltavka Culture (the successor to the Yamnaya in the Samara region in Russia, I0374: 2800–2200 BCE) (Mathieson et al. 2015) and England (I7572: 1510–1302 BCE) (Olalde et al. 2018) at its root, and includes a Russian Yamnaya sequence in a deep Eastern European subclade (Haak et al. 2015). In our dataset, one modern Indian sample (Palanichamy et al. 2004) clusters within H13a1a, together with a Sintashta sequence (I0980: 2050–1650 BCE) from Russia (Narasimhan et al. 2018), far to the east, north of the Aral Sea (H13a1a + 12771) (Figure 2(a)). Thus, H13a1a (similarly to H2b) likely participated in the long-range dispersals associated with the Yamnaya expansions, both westwards across northern Europe and eastwards into Central Asia, showing that, despite the significant male bias in the composition of these dispersals, some women at least were involved. H13a1a in India is reportedly found

predominantly amongst the present-day Indo-Aryan-speaking Uttar Pradesh Brahmin communities (Palanichamy et al. 2015). We focus here, however, on H13a2a, which arose ~12 [8.1–15.5] ka, probably somewhere between the South Caucasus and Iran, and is very unusual amongst haplogroup H sub-clusters in harbouring a diverse range of South Asian lineages.

The earliest archaeological evidence of the Neolithic in the Indian Subcontinent is from the site of Mehrgarh, dating to before 9ka in Baluchistan (Jarrige and Jarrige 2006; Petrie 2015), to the west of the Indus Valley. This region was more moist in the early Holocene than it is today, with humidity values peaking ~8ka (Van Campo 1986), providing good conditions for agriculture and allowing for the eventual rise of the Harappan Civilisation (Coningham and Young 2015). The analysis of non-autochthonous South Asian mtDNA haplogroups (i.e. lineages introduced towards the end of the Pleistocene and during the Holocene, as opposed to those that arose indigenously within the descendants of the earliest *Homo sapiens* settlers who dispersed from Africa around 60ka) corroborates the archaeological record, with several lineages, including H13a2a, evidently entering the



**Figure 2.** Schematic trees of mtDNA subclades H13a1a (only basal samples and H13a1a + 12771 shown) (a) and H13a2a (b). Abbreviations for ancient samples: MBA, Middle Bronze Age; EN, Early Neolithic; IA, Iron Age.

Subcontinent in this period from a putative source in the eastern end of the Fertile Crescent, potentially associated with the Dravidian language family (Silva et al. 2017).

H13a2a1 (dating to ~10 [5.3–13.7] ka) is shared between Iran and the Subcontinent and a previously unnamed H13a2a sub-cluster, labelled here as H13a2a2, is a Sri Lanka (Tamil, i.e. Dravidian-speaking) branch (The 1000 Genomes Project Consortium 2015) dating to ~7 ka [2.1–12.4] (albeit with wide confidence intervals, as it is a small sub-cluster). Moreover, H13a2a harbours two recently released ancient lineages (Narasimhan et al. 2018) that corroborate this scenario: one from Early Neolithic Turkmenistan, from the site of Tepe Anau (I4085) and dating to ~4000–3000 BCE (well before the pastoralist expansions from the north), and another from Iron Age Pakistan (I7717: 350–400 BCE) (Narasimhan et al. 2018) (Figure 2(b)). Therefore, H13 arrived in South Asia initially from Iran with agricultural dispersals, in the form of H13a2a, where it is still present today. It entered again later in the Bronze Age, when a different branch (H13a1a) was picked up during the Indo-European movements from the Steppe.

In a context of male-biased population movements, such as in the case of the Late Bronze Age movements into South Asia (Silva et al. 2017), evidence in the maternal gene pool is expected to be scarce. Nevertheless, we show here how a detailed phylogeographic approach, combining both modern and ancient variation, can provide additional clues into population movements, even in the case of strong male bias.

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## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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