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RESULTS OF RESEARCH AT THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL COMPLEX SIMONOVKA 11 (AKKANBURLYK) IN 2023

The study of medieval archaeological sites of Northern Kazakhstan is one of the important directions in Kazakhstani science. However, until recently, no full-fledged archaeological work was carried out in the North Kazakhstan region.

During the work at the Simonovka-11 complex in 2023, a comprehensive set of scientific research activities was conducted using traditional excavation methods and modern technologies for documentation, collection, and study of materials. Prior to excavation, a field survey of the site was carried out, and a location for the excavation was selected based on the results.

A big event was the opening in 2022 of the branch of the Margulan Institute of Archaeology at the M.K. Kozybayev North Kazakhstan University in Petropavlovsk. The following year, a joint archaeological survey was conducted in seven districts of the North Kazakhstan region. This led to the discovery of the Simonovka 11 (Akkanburlyk) complex in the G. Musrepov district, comprising a structure, a cluster of four boulders and large stones, a circular mound, and a kurgan. In the same season, excavations were carried out at the complex. As a result, a flagstone building with a basement was investigated, dated by radiocarbon dating data from the second half of the 19th – early 20th century) and a kurgan of the 11th–14th centuries. The kurgan turned out to be looted, but the grave pit provided rich material – silver earrings, lapis lazuli and paste pendants, paste, jade and carnelian beads and a bone whistle from the arrowhead. Lapis lazuli pendants and carnelian beads are analogous to finds from the burials of the famous Basandai burial mound of the 11th–14th centuries in the Tomsk-Ob interfluve. The bone whistles have a long and interesting history of origin and distribution. Excavations at the Simonovka 11 site highlighted the need for further research in the North Kazakhstan region.

Key words: Northern Kazakhstan, archaeology, ethnography, construction, the Middle Ages, kurgan, lapis lazuli pendants, whistle.

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Симоновка 11 (Аққанбұрлық) археологиялық кешеніндегі зерттеу нәтижелері 2023 ж.

Солтүстік Қазақстанның ортағасырлық археологиялық ескерткіштерін зерттеу Қазақстан ғылымындағы маңызды бағыттардың бірі болып табылады. Алайда, соңғы жылдарға дейін Солтүстік Қазақстан облысында толыққанды археологиялық жұмыстар жүргізілген жоқ.

«Симоновка-11» кешеніндегі жұмыстар барысында 2023 жылы қазба жұмыстарының дәстүрлі әдістері мен құжаттаудың, материалдарды жинау мен зерттеудің заманауи технологияларын пайдалана отырып, ғылыми-зерттеу жұмыстарының толық кешені жүргізілді. Жер жұмыстары басталар алдында учаскеге далалық зерттеу жүргізіліп, оның нәтижелері бойынша жер жұмыстары үшін орын таңдалды.

2022 жылы Петропавл қаласындағы М. К. Қозыбаева атындағы Солтүстік Қазақстан университетінде А.Х. Марғұлан атындағы Археология институты филиалының ашылуы маңызды оқиға болды. Келесі жылы Солтүстік Қазақстан облысының жеті ауданында бірлескен археологиялық барлау жұмыстары жүргізілді. Ғ. Мүсірепов ауданында Симоновка 11 (Аққанбұрлық) кешені ашылды, ол құрылыстан, төрт тас пен ірі тастардың, дөңгеленген үйінді мен қорғанның шоғырынан тұрады. Аталған маусымда кешенде қазба жұмыстары жүргізілді. Нәтижесінде радиокөміртекті талдау арқылы уақыттары белгілеген ХІХ ғасырдың басындағы жертөлесі бар тақташатастан жасалған құрылыс және XI–XIV

зерттелді. Қорған тоналған, бірақ қабір шұңқыры бай материал берді-күміс сырғалар, лазурит және пастадан жасалған алқалар, паста, нефрит және ақық моншақтары және жебе ұшының сүйек ысқырығы. Лазурит алқалары және ақық моншақтары Томск–Обск өзен аралығында құрамдас бөлігі болып табылатын XI-XIV ғғ.Басандай қорған қорымының жерлеу орындарынан табылған аналогиялар. Сүйек ысқырықтарының пайда болуы мен таралуының ұзақ және қызықты тарихы бар. Симоновка 11 ескерткішін қазу Солтүстік Қазақстан облысының аумағында одан әрі зерттеу қажеттілігін көрсетті.

Түйін сөздер: Солтүстік Қазақстан, археология, этнография, құрылыс, орта ғасырлар, қорған, лазурит алқалары, ысқырық.

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Результаты исследований археологического комплекса Симоновка 11 (Акканбурлык) в 2023 году

Изучение средневековых археологических памятников Северного Казахстана является одним из важнейших направлений в казахстанской науке. Однако до последних лет полноценных археологических работ в Северо-Казахстанской области не проводилось.

В ходе работ на комплексе «Симоновка-11» в 2023 году был проведен полный комплекс научно-исследовательских работ с использованием традиционных методов раскопок и современных технологий документирования, сбора и изучения материалов. Перед началом земляных работ было проведено полевое обследование участка, и по его результатам было выбрано место для земляных работ.

Важным событием стало открытие в 2022 году филиала Института археологии им. А. Х. Маргулана в Северо-Казахстанском университете им. М.К. Козыбаева в г. Петропавловске. В следующем году были проведены совместные археологические исследования в семи районах Северо-Казахстанской области. В районе Г. Мусирепова был открыт Симоновский комплекс 11 (Акканбулык), состоящий из сооружения, группы из четырех камней и крупных камней, округлой насыпи и Кургана. В этот сезон в комплексе проводились раскопки. В результате методом радиоуглеродного анализа были исследованы сооружение из плит с погребом второй половины XIX-начала XX веков и Курган XI-XIV вв. Курган был разграблен, но могильная яма давала богатый материал-серебряные серьги, ожерелья из лазурита и пасты, бусы из пасты, нефрита и акыка, а также костяной свист наконечника стрелы. Ожерелья из лазурита и бусины акыка относятся к XI–XIV вв., являющимся составной частью реки Томск-Обск.Аналогии, найденные в захоронениях Курганского некрополя Басандай. Костные свистки имеют долгую и интересную историю возникновения и распространения. Раскопки 11 памятников симоновки показали необходимость дальнейших исследований на территории Северо-Казахстанской области.

Ключевые слова: Северный Казахстан, археология, этнография, строительство, средневековье, курган, лазуритовые ожерелья, свисток.

Introduction

To date, the archaeological sites of the North Kazakhstan region are significantly less studied compared to other regions of the country, even though the area has a long history of exploration. The earliest records of these sites are found in the "Drawing Book of Siberia" and its atlas, compiled in 1701 by S. Remezov and republished in 1937 by the USSR Academy of Sciences. Interesting information about ancient monuments and the region's archaeology frequently appeared in the reports of the Northern Expeditions organized by the Russian Academy of Sciences, which aimed to "illuminate the history of previously unknown lands". (Svod, 2007: 16). The numerous and diverse works of geographers, geologists, naturalists, surveyors, and topographers provide information on archaeological monuments: ancient mines, kurgan cemeteries, remnants of cities, settlements, mazars, drawings and inscriptions on stones, stone idols, etc. (P.I. Rychkov, P.S. Pallas, I.P. Shangin, A. Levshin, A.K. Gaines). From the second half of the 19th century, the Western Siberian Department of the Russian Geographical Society and the Archaeological Commission became actively involved in the study of the region. Initially, their work was sporadic, with only occasional notes on antiquities or accidental finds appearing in their publications. Among the members of the Archaeological Com-

mission, I.A. Castagne stands out. Besides registering, inspecting, and describing archaeological monuments, he also conducted excavations of kurgans. He created a preliminary classification and a detailed list of all known archaeological monuments in Kazakhstan up to 1910, categorized by type and location. His work, "Antiquities of the Kirghiz Steppe and the Orenburg Region," summarizes the study of Kazakhstan's antiquities, maintaining its significance even today. A significant period in the archaeological study of Kazakhstan was 1954-1956 under K. Akishev's leadership. During this time, large-scale archaeological investigations were conducted in the virgin lands, playing a crucial role in collecting additional material for Kazakhstan's archaeological map. In 1967, the North Kazakhstan Archaeological Expedition, led by G.B. Zdanovich, was organized based on the North Kazakhstan Regional Museum of Local History and the Petropavlovsk Pedagogical Institute. This marked the beginning of large-scale research of archaeological sites in Northern Kazakhstan. Over forty years, the expedition excavated hundreds of monuments ranging from the Stone Age to the Middle Ages, developing a detailed classification of Stone Age cultures, developed Bronze Age cultures, and the history of tribes living in the early Iron Age and early Middle Ages. (Svod, 2007: 19).

A great event for the development of archaeology in the region was the opening of a branch of the Margulan Institute of Archaeology at the M.K. Kozybayev North Kazakhstan University in Petropavlovsk in 2022. The following year, a joint archaeological survey was conducted in seven districts of the North Kazakhstan region. In the area of Musrepov, 1.5 km southeast of the village of Simonovka, the archaeological complex Simonovka 11 (Akkanburlyk) was discovered, consisting of four objects located close to each other: buildings made of flagstone, a cluster of four boulders with stones, a rounded mound and a kurgan (Fig. 1). In the same season, excavations were carried out at the complex. Previously, only exploration work was carried out in the Simonovka village district. In 1972, the exploration team of the North Kazakhstan Archaeological Expedition led by T.A. Boyko and S.S. Zayev discovered and investigated nine monuments of different times. They were re-examined by the exploratory team of the North Kazakhstan Archaeological Expedition in 1988, led by A.G. Shalagin (Shalagin, 1989: 47). It was reviewed in 2005 by the NKAE exploratory team (Otchet, 2006: 18).



Figure 1 – Location archaeological complex Simonovka 11 (Akkanburlyk)

Materials and methods

During the work at the Simonovka-11 complex in 2023, a comprehensive set of scientific research activities was conducted using traditional excavation methods and modern technologies for documentation, collection, and study of materials. Prior to excavation, a field survey of the site was carried out, and a location for the excavation was selected based on the results. During the excavation, the cultural layer (10-25 cm) was removed in stages and scanned with a metal detector. Samples for radiocarbon dating were collected from the excavation surface and the lower part of the building (object 1). The excavation of the building was done in layers, using conditional spits (20-25 cm) across the entire area until the upper edges of structures, floors, and spots were identified. At the kurgan, the turf was initially removed, and the stone mound was cleared. After documenting the mound, it was removed, and the surface was cleaned horizontally to reveal the grave spot. After the spot was identified, the grave pit was excavated in 10 cm layers, and the soil was sifted using sieves. Upon completion of the excavations at Simonovka-11, field conservation methods were applied by backfilling the excavations with soil from the spoil heap (a loader was used for conserving the main object). Observations made during the excavations were regularly recorded in field diaries. The collection, cleaning, and coding of mass archaeological finds were done in the field, while the laboratory processing and restoration of artifacts were conducted under stationary conditions after the fieldwork. All collected materials from the excavations were included in the find registers. In writing the article, general scientific research methods were used: descriptive, summarizing, comparative-historical, comparative-contrastive, and analytical methods.

Results and discussion

The Simonovka-11 site is located on the second floodplain terrace of the right bank of the Akkanburlyk River, a left tributary of the Ishim River. The site consists of several features: a building made of flagstone, a cluster of four large stones, a round mound, and a kurgan. Before excavation, the stone building appeared as a rectangular mound measuring 14x11 m and 0.5-0.8 m high, oriented roughly along the cardinal directions. In the central part, there was a depression 3-3.5 m in diameter and 0.5-0.8 m deep. A 15x15 m excavation was laid out, revealing a stone building measuring 9.35x7.5 m. The walls, constructed from gray slabs, were 0.45 m high and 0.9 m thick, consisting of 5-6 layers held together with clay mortar. The average stone sizes were 70x50x10 cm, 45x30x8 cm, 50x25x9 cm, and 30x20x6 cm, with some smaller stones also present. The structure had a single large room measuring 7.6x5.7 m fig. 2). Blocked entrance openings, 1.9 m wide, were noted in the northeast and northwest walls, each with decayed wooden thresholds.

The southeastern part of the building, measuring 7.5 x 3 m, had an earthen floor. Four fragments of ceramic with a matte finish were selected from it. There were two flat stones in the very center of the floor. A yellow clay stain appeared around the stones. The spot width is 1 m, length is 2 m. After removing the flat stones, a hole with a diameter of 0.3 m and a depth of 0.25 m appeared under them. The filling of the pit consisted of sandy loam. Most likely, the pit could have been the base of the central column to support the roof. The place of the column is located 1 m from the southeastern wall. The second column was probably located on the site where the basement was subsequently formed. In the northern corner of the building, a cluster of flagstones was recorded, above which there were remnants of birch bark. After removing the accumulation of flagstones, a pit with a diameter of 0.3 m and a depth of 0.2 m appeared.

In the northwestern half of the building, at a depth of 0.5-0.7 m, a basement was revealed, the walls of which are also made of flagstone. Its parameters are: length 6.3 m, width 2 m, depth 1.1 m (according to the height of the preserved walls). The filling is represented by construction debris and flagstone. From the southwestern wall of the basement, closer to the western corner, there is a corridor leading towards the floodplain of the Akkanburlyk river. The walls of the corridor with a thickness of 0.4 m and a height of 0.8-1 m are also made of flagstone. The width of the corridor passage is 1.5 m, the length within the excavation is 5.5 m. The masonry level of the corridor walls is 0.1-0.15 m higher than the base of the walls of the building, and there is also a 0.1 m wide gap at the junction of the two walls. The corridor to the basement runs under the southwestern wall of the building. A part of the rotted wooden threshold has been preserved at the entrance.

Judging by the remains of ash and charcoal at the bottom of the basement, it was covered with a wooden floor at the level of the earthen floor. Subsequently, due to the fire, the wooden floor burned down. The surface of the basement was uneven, and objects of ethnographic time were found here. These are fragments of ceramic dishes with glossy glaze, an axe, glass, nails, bolts, nuts and animal bones.



Figure 2 – The building

Samples of burnt charcoal for C14 analysis were taken from the basement and from the surface of the earthen floor. Analysis from the surface of the earthen floor of the building dates back to the end of the 19th century, while the basement room functioned in the first half of the 20th century (see Table 1).

 Table 1 – Results of radiocarbon analysis (Scientific services company "BARNAS", Vilnius radiocarbon)

Site name	Laboratory code	14C dating BP	Calibrated values, BC		»MC*
			1σ (68,3%)	2σ (95,4%)	pivic.
Building, upper part	FTMC- SF12-27	113±30	1694-1917 Cal AD	1681-1940 Cal AD	
Building, basement	FTMC-SF12-28	75±29	1698-1910 Cal AD	1692-1919 Cal AD	
Note: *pMC (percentagemoderncarbon) – current carbon percentage					

Based on the reconstruction facts and the results of radiocarbon analysis, the building had at least two periods of use. Initially, the building was constructed at the end of the 19th century. Originally, it was a residential building, and later a basement was added to it. Initially, the building from the end of the 19th century consisted of a single room (7.6 x 5.7 m). Then, in the early 20th century, entry openings were made, and a basement (6 x 2 x 1.1 m) with a corridor leading to the Akkamburlyk River was constructed. The sandstone used for the construction was sourced from the rocky banks nearby. Given the absence of a furnace, it appears that the building was seasonal. During the summer, the floodplain was more suited for livestock grazing and fishing. Therefore, it was rational to establish settlements along the river during this period. Both Russian settlers and local Kazakhs could have lived here. It is also important to mention the official Russian policy regarding land issues in the second half of the 19th century. This policy was primarily aimed at the agricultural Russian popula-

tion. The issue of land use and settlement of Kazakh society was addressed in the legislative acts of 1867-1868, which introduced the principle of state ownership over all the territory of Kazakhstan. "All lands of the Kyrgyz, who are subjects of Russia, do not constitute their property but belong to the government, which allows the Kyrgyz to roam on them and protects them from foreigners with its troops". (Brodel', 1997: 97). Since the Kazakhs did not use the right of inheritance of land as immovable property and had no concept of personal ownership, the Russian government had a formal basis to declare Kazakh lands as state property. At the same time, the 1867-1868 reforms allowed Kazakhs to acquire rights to land, residential, and economic buildings on the condition of engaging in agriculture and transitioning to a sedentary lifestyle. During this period, settlement was occurring not just by individual families or poor auls, which had been observed since the late 18th century, but by entire tribes. Such support from the Russian administration played a significant role in determining the status of social-political groups. Many tribes that were previously weak, receiving support from colonial authorities, became politically superior to strong nomadic tribes, and, by taking advantage of benefits and sometimes "price gaps," also became economically stronger. (Amosov, 1917: 16). In the 18th and early 19th centuries, traditional nomadic agriculture was widespread throughout Kazakhstan. However, in the second half of the 19th and early 20th centuries, Kazakh society exhibited various forms of economic activity. These represented a series of transitional stages from a purely nomadic lifestyle to semi-sedentary and sedentary modes of life. (Tuleuova, 2012: 41).

15 meters east of the building, there was a cluster of four boulders and large stones. After excavating and removing a 20 cm layer, no construction traces were found. However, during the removal of the sod layer, 11 small ceramic fragments were discovered. 10 meters north of the building, there was a mound that was round in plan and flattened-spherical in cross-section. The mound had a diameter of 10 meters and a height of 0.5 meters. The top of the mound was covered with a layer of small sandstone. In the central part of the mound, at a depth of 0.3 meters, a patch of lime (marl) measuring 90 x 70 cm was found. Within the mound, two ceramic fragments, a metal saw blade, and iron nails were discovered. After conducting a horizontal clean-up of the area, four post holes were identified, one of which contained remnants of a log. It is likely that a temporary structure with a canopy was situated here. No traces of cultural layers were observed, except for the two ceramic fragments found.

Kurgan investigation. The kurgan is located 150 meters south of the building. The stone-and-earth mound has a flattened-spherical shape with a diameter of 3.5 meters and a height of 0.3-0.4 meters. After removing the mound and conducting a horizontal clean-up, a burial patch measuring $2.1 \times 0.6-0.7$ meters was revealed, oriented with its longer side along the north-south line. The grave was found to be looted, with the remains of the deceased scattered at different depths. At the bottom of the grave in its northern part, a human skull and a horse skull were discovered.

The burial inventory includes two silver earrings in the shape of the letter "C" with pointed ends (diameter: 3.6 cm, thickness: 0.2-0.3 cm) (fig. 1, 1); twelve lapis lazuli pendants – amulets in purple color, decorated with incised lines (fig. 1, 2); ten paste pendants in diamond, triangular, and paddle shapes $(3 \times 1.5 \times 2.5 - 1.5 \times 0.4 \text{ cm})$ (fig. 1, 3); twelve paste beads in rounded-elongated shapes, light blue and beige in color with holes for stringing $(1 \times 0.6 \text{ cm})$ (fig. 1, 4); fifty small black beads (diameter: 0.2-0.3 cm), presumably made of jadeite (fig. 1, 5); one round pendant with ribbed edges, featuring a plantlike geometric ornament, with a protruding loop on top (fig. 1, 6); four red carnelian beads in two forms: one elongated diamond shape with eight facets and a through hole for stringing $(1.8 \times 0.9 \text{ cm})$, and the other round with fourteen facets (diameter: 0.7-0.5 cm) (fig. 1, 7); and six large white cowrie shells of amorphous shape, flat (surface partially peeling), decorated with a stamp of concentric circles on both sides, some with threading holes (6 x 3 cm, 4 x 3 cm, 5×3 cm, 3×2 cm) (fig. 1, 8). The lapis lazuli pendants and carnelian beads bear a strong resemblance to finds from the Basandayk kurgan cemetery of the 11th-14th centuries, located in the Tomsk-Ob interfluve. (Pletneva, 2019: Fig. 1-9). The semantic significance of jewelry and its symbolism in the medieval period requires specialized study. The shapes of lapis lazuli pendants and beads - such as triangles, diamonds, or circles—are associated with symbols of fertility and prosperity, known since ancient times. "Stones have long been endowed with special significance; they were attributed with healing and magical properties. Wearing them expressed not only a desire to adorn oneself and one's loved ones but also to protect them from danger and illness," writes M.V. Sazonova in her examination of Uzbek jewelry. (Sazonova, 1970: 113).

A particular interest is the finding of a bone whistle from an arrowhead, which has an oval-

elongated cross-section and a tapered profile (fig. 1, 9). The whistle features a projection in the form of a spike (1.5 cm), with a length of 5 cm, a diameter of 2.6-1.6 cm, and a hole diameter of 1.1-0.9 cm. Various specialists have explained the functional purpose of whistling arrows differently: the whistle could scare horses and enemy warriors, thus signaling commands to different military units. In hunting, the sound of the whistle could cause game to freeze, allowing for a more accurate shot. Additionally, such arrows might have been used for fishing. These whistles might also serve to reinforce the shaft in the arrow's fletching, pro-

tecting it from splitting upon impact with the target, and adding weight to the arrow overall. It is possible that the initial form of "whistling arrows" was inspired by horned, sleeve-shaped arrowheads with a whistle sleeve and an elongated triangular or quadrangular fletching. The earliest finds of such items in Southern Siberia date to the end of the 1st millennium BC – the first half of the 1st millennium AD (Teterin, 2004: Fig. 7, 7, 8; Seregin et al., 2020: 91, Fig. 2, 6-13) in the region of the Altai Mountains. Horned "bows with whistling arrows" were also present among the Göktürks. (Bichurin, 1950: 229).



Figure 3 – Finds from the grave

The appearance and spread of whistles are commonly associated with the Eurasian steppe during the Hunnic-Sarmatian period. This phenomenon is often linked to the legend of the Hunnic chanyu Modu, whose whistling arrow indicated the direction of his warriors' shots. In 209 BC, north of the Great Wall of China, the future founder of the empire, Modu (Mao Dun), "made a whistle and began to train his people in horseback archery." The commentary on this story notes that "a whistle is an arrow that produces a whistling sound during flight." (Bichurin, 1950: 46-47). It is believed that the decisive role in the military successes of the Huns was played by the horned bow and the "iron whistling arrows that hit the target precisely." In flight, these arrows would spin and produce a piercing, wailing whistle, which frightened the horses of enemy warriors and had a demoralizing effect on the opponents. They could also serve as "sleeves to prevent the splitting of the arrow shaft into which the iron socket of the head was driven." (Nikonorov, Hudjakov 2004: 55). However, it is worth noting that the earliest evidence of their appearance has been found in Tuva at the Saglyn burial mound, dating to the mid-4th century BC. (Semenov, 2019: 175). The latest archaeological finds date to the 18th–

19th centuries. (Harinskij, 2003: 119-120, Fig. 3, 1, 2, 4), in the "living" culture of the 20th century, they were used in traditional sporting competitions. (Trebuhovskij, 1927: Fig. 4). References to fishing with whistling arrows are also intriguing. (Ides, Brand, 1967: 154-155). Signal arrows with conical prism-shaped heads featuring multiple holes at the end are known from ethnographic collections of the Kazakhs. These arrows were believed to produce a loud whistling sound. (Ahmetzhan, 2007. Fig. 66). Some researchers believe that whistles originally appeared not in the military context but among mountain-taiga hunters, from whom they were later adopted by the steppe dwellers. (Mit'ko, Polovnikov, 2023: 148). By analogy with the pendants from the Basandayk burial site, the kurgan near the village of Simonovka is preliminarily dated to the 11th–14th centuries. In the early 11th century, the territory of Northern, Central, and Eastern Kazakhstan, which was ruled by the Kimeks, came under the control of the Kipchaks. As a result of significant political and military actions, the Kipchaks expanded their dominance over much of the territory of presentday Kazakhstan, as well as over the southern Russian steppes and the Black Sea region. These lands are known in medieval written sources as "Desht-i-Kipchak".

Conclusion

As a result of the initial scientific research at the Simonovka-11 site, a stone building and a kurgan were excavated. The building, originally constructed at the end of the 19th century, consisted of a single room $(7.6 \times 5.7 \text{ meters})$. Then, in the early 20th century, a basement ($6 \ge 2 \ge 1.1$ meters) with a corridor leading to the Akkamburlyk River was added to the building. Given the absence of a furnace, the building was likely seasonal. It is probable that during the summer, livestock grazing and fishing were conducted in the floodplain. Despite being looted, the kurgan provided a rich array of materials. The burial inventory included two silver earrings, twelve lapis lazuli and eleven paste pendants, twelve paste beads, fifty jade beads, four carnelian beads, and a bone whistle from an arrowhead. The lapis lazuli pendants and carnelian beads are similar to finds from the Basandayk kurgan cemetery of the 11th-14th centuries. The discovery of the bone whistle is particularly noteworthy. Its appearance and spread are often associated with the Eurasian steppe during the Hunnic-Sarmatian period, with the first mention in the legend of the Hunnic chanyu Modu. Whistles persisted through a long period, even into ethnographic times. Archaeological research conducted at the Simonovka-11 complex has revealed that the North Kazakhstan region contains unique archaeological sites, the study of which will help illuminate gaps in the history of Kazakhstan.

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