

# Crop manuring on the Beauce plateau (France) during the second iron age

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- <sup>1</sup> Crop manuring on the Beauce plateau (France) during the Second Iron Age
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#### 24 Abstract

The studied area on the Beauce plateau (France) was densely inhabited during the Iron Age and several archaeological excavations have enriched our knowledge of agrarian systems during this period. This study investigates fertilisation management between 400 and 80 BCE focusing on numerous crop storage remains from three neighbouring farms. We sampled 18 cereal groups with 50 grains to conduct stable carbon and nitrogen isotope analyses commonly used for reconstructing past agricultural practices, in particular  $\delta^{15}$ N as a proxy for manuring.

The  $\delta^{15}N$  values range between 1.3‰ and 7.6‰, with an increase over time from 3.2‰ to 5.6‰ 31 32 (mean by occupation phase), reflecting a continuous use of manure, consistent with the dynamism of 33 agricultural activities during the Second Iron Age. All three farms seem to have applied the same manuring strategies. Barley and emmer may have been manured more often than free-threshing 34 35 wheats, even when free-threshing wheats are the dominant crop. This contrasts with the 36 neighbouring Ile-de-France region and indicates diversity in agropastoral systems between regions. The analysis of several grain groups from the same silo shows diversified  $\delta^{15}$ N values between crops, 37 38 reflecting various manuring rates: some fields were fertilised while others were less so. This is 39 consistent with the description of a large-scale farming system, with a large cultivated area and a 40 mosaic landscape.

#### 42 Keywords: Manuring, Crop stable isotopes, Rural settlements, Iron Age

#### 43 1. Introduction

#### 44 1.1. Research context

45 Agricultural productions during the Second Iron Age are relatively well known in the northern half of 46 France (Zech-Matterne et al., 2013, Malrain et al., 2018). In earlier periods, crops were diversified and 47 appear to have been cultivated at the household level. Changes occurred during the Second Iron Age 48 with a reorganisation of agricultural practices to increase production. Through the study of 49 archaeological weed ecology, an extensification of cropping systems can be claimed in some regions 50 (Normandie, Picardie, Île-de-France and Champagne) (Zech-Matterne and Brun, 2016). The 51 occurrence of nitrophilous weeds (75 out of 211 taxa) combined with crops suggests the 52 maintenance of soil fertility for several centuries, possibly through crop rotation, grass or tilled 53 fallow, farmyard manure, penning livestock on the fallows or in fields during intercrop periods (Zech-54 Matterne et al., 2018). In north-western France, the increase in pulses may indicate a cereal-legume 55 rotation (Neveu et al., 2021). This technique slows down soil depletion and reduces amendment 56 rates. In north-eastern France, farm production was less diversified and specialized in the culture of 57 one or two cereals (Zech-Matterne et al., 2013, 2014). Fertility maintenance must thus have involved 58 other solutions than legume rotations. However, the weed ecology approach cannot identify the 59 (natural or anthropic) origin of soil fertility.

60 Characterising fertilisation practices enhances our understanding of (more or less intensive or 61 extensive) cereal production modes, impacting crop yields, labour force, labour productivity and land 62 use. In intensive cropping systems, a large amount of labour is invested per unit area to ensure good 63 crop growth, which allows high yields (Morrison 1994). The choice of an extensive cropping system 64 affects the use of manure: manure is supposed to be spread more heterogeneously across the 65 numerous farmland fields than in intensive agriculture. Manure inputs involves livestock 66 management and collection, storage and transport of dung. Moreover, fertility management was not 67 necessarily homogeneous from one territory to another, depending on environmental constraints 68 and farmers' or owners' choices. We therefore consider the interest of detecting these practices on a 69 finer scale than the weed ecology studies described above. In this study, fertilisation practices were 70 investigated in three neighbouring farms from the Second Iron Age in the Centre region of France, 71 using biogeochemical analysis of crop remains, a methodology proven to be suitable for exploring 72 past soil fertility (Bogaard et al., 2007, 2013; Fraser et al., 2011).

73 1.2. Description of the sites

The farms are located on the Beauce plateau within 2 km of each other, halfway between Chartres and Orléans (Figure 1). Aerial surveys and trial trenching have shown that the surrounding land was densely inhabited during the Iron Age, with a predominance of enclosed rural settlements during the Second Iron Age. The Roman Chartres-Orléans Road, probably of protohistoric origin, runs between the studied sites and highlights their inclusion in a wider network of agricultural settlements, with likely interdependent relationships between farms (Malrain, 2020).

The Beauce plateau, in the Paris Basin, is an area of limestone outcrops, covered with fertile silts. The topography is not very contrasted. Valley bottoms are currently dry, but they were probably formerly wet and wooded. The dry and deforested plateaus hosted grasslands and crops. The farms are located on plateaus, close to slopes, at the interface between these two environments (Coussot, 2010; Martin, 2010; Pradat, 2010).



Figure 1. Location of the sites in their archaeological environment (a) and phased plans of Prasville
"Les Grandes Canettes" (b), Prasville "Vers Chesnay" (c) and Ymonville "Les Hyèbles" (d). The sampled
structures are shown on the plans. Data: Yvernaut, 2010; Bailleux, 2010; Lusson, 2011; Josset, 2012;
IGN BD Parcellaire 2020; EAA EU-DEM 2020.

At the intermediate-sized farm of Prasville "Vers Chesnay" (Bailleux, 2010), five building phases 90 91 between 325 BCE and 300 CE have been identified. During phases 1 and 2 (325/150 BCE), a silo 92 cluster organised around small post-mounted buildings provided good storage capacity. Some small 93 ditches mark the early stages of structuring the habitat. From 200 BCE onwards, the settlement 94 extended over a larger area while building size also increased, and large ditches were established, 95 forming an open enclosure. The settlement comprised agricultural and craft activities: inhabitants 96 bred Caprinae and cultivated mainly free-threshing wheats (45% of food plant remains) and emmer 97 (45%). The other food plant species are rare. In the third phase (150/80 BCE), the habitat moved 98 150 m to the east, with no chronological hiatus, and three successive ditched enclosures were 99 constructed. Emmer became the main cultivated crop (74%). Cattle and horses were raised. From the 100 following phases onwards, the architecture became monumental and during the Roman Empire, 101 production focused on cattle breeding.

The excavation of Prasville "Les Grandes Canettes" (Lusson, 2011) was carried out over a small surface, on the edge of a smaller farm. Little is known of spatial organisation, as the habitat continues northwards, outside the excavation limits. The site is mainly characterised by the presence of silos and pits and no ditches structuring the space were observed. Two phases were identified (400/300 BCE and 325/250 BCE) with agricultural activities focusing on emmer cultivation (73% of food plant remains) and pig and caprine husbandry. Millet cultivation was secondary (11%) and some cattle were also raised.

109 Ymonville "Les Hyèbles" (Josset, 2012) was intensively settled between its foundation in the 110 sixth/fifth centuries and its abandonment in the first century BCE. The settlement was an aristocratic 111 farm. Phases 2 (500/325 BCE) and 3 (325/150 BCE) correspond to the establishment of the 112 occupation centred around two founding graves. A large D-shaped enclosure was installed, 113 encompassed by a wider one. The main D-shaped enclosure comprised a building facing an empty 114 area (potentially a public place), surrounded by trophies exhibition posts and numerous silos. 115 Multiple activities were carried out: crafting (metallurgy, leather working, weaving and milling), 116 husbandry, cereal cropping (mainly free-threshing wheats - 61% - and secondarily barley - 26%) and 117 social events (trophies exhibition and assemblies). This was thus a dual-purpose settlement 118 (agriculture and sanctuary). During phase 4 (150/50 BCE), the initial settlement was still occupied, 119 but a new centre was built 100 m to the south. A new residential building was enclosed by a large 120 quadrangular ditch. The last settlement phase dates from the end of the first century BCE and 121 corresponds to the abandonment of enclosures and the digging of a Roman limestone quarry.

122 1.3. The use of stable nitrogen isotope values in highlighting soil fertility management

123 Cereals take up nitrogen from the soil, largely derived from the decomposition of organic matter by 124 microorganisms. These processes of transformation of organic nitrogen into bioavailable mineral 125 forms lead to different isotopic compositions, subject to many environmental factors, such as 126 rainfall, temperature, soil depth, topographic position, and the overall nature of the parent material 127 (Amundson *et al.*, 2003; Högberg, 1997). The anthropogenic history of the soil and agricultural 128 activities are also important factors in stable nitrogen isotope ratio variation ( $\delta^{15}N$ ).

From the 1970s onwards, ecologists and agronomists noticed that  $\delta^{15}N$  values in soil increase with the application of farmyard manure (Riga *et al.*, 1971; Choi *et al.*, 2003; Bol *et al.*, 2005). During storage and composting, animal manure loses part of its nitrogen, preferentially the lighter <sup>14</sup>N isotope, through ammonia volatilization, leading to significant relative enrichment in the heavier <sup>15</sup>N isotope (Högberg, 1997; Szpak, 2014). The application of manure thus causes relative <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment in soil and plants. When charred under temperatures between ~215-260°C (i.e. the charring window for preservation of grain morphology; Charles et al., 2015), charred plant remains are likely to preserve their in vivo  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N values (DeNiro and Hastorf, 1985; Nitsch *et al.*, 2015) and is currently used to investigate manuring in archaeological contexts (Bogaard *et al.*, 2007, 2013; Aguilera *et al.*, 2008; Fraser *et al.*, 2011; Kanstrup *et al.*, 2011).

Long-term experiments conducted in temperate Europe have shown that plants growing in a poorly 139 140 anthropized environment, or in plots that have not been manured for a long time, generally have 141  $\delta^{15}$ N values below 3‰. Values above this threshold refer to plants grown on soils enriched in  $^{15}$ N by a 142 high concentration of organic matter, deriving from natural conditions or human activities. Above 6‰,  $\delta^{15}$ N values would reflect high manuring rates (*e.g.*, 25-35 t/ha) in the long term (Fraser *et al.*, 143 144 2011; Bogaard et al., 2013). For other regions, further experiments were conducted to define locally 145 adapted thresholds (Larsson et al., 2019). The manuring effect can be detected as early as the first year after manure application (Fraser et al., 2011). Manuring rates and application frequency affect 146 the manuring effect on  $\delta^{15}$ N values: <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment is greater the more a plot is fertilised in quantity 147 and over time. After the cessation of fertilisation,  $\delta^{15}N$  values gradually decrease. Measurements of 148 149 intermediate  $\delta^{15}N$  values could indicate either abundant recent fertilisation, medium fertilisation 150 over the long term or the residues of long-term fertilisation abandoned some time ago. Very high 151  $\delta^{15}$ N values (over 7-9‰) indicate intensive management practices, with high manuring rates 152 comparable to those applied in garden agriculture.

153 Other agricultural practices may affect the  $\delta^{15}N$  values of the soil and plant (Szpak, 2014). Clearing 154 lands by burning them alters the nitrogen cycle and leads to an increase in  $\delta^{15}N$  values, through 155 various complex processes with impacts that can last for several years or even decades. Tillage brings 156 formerly mineralised nutrients to the soil surface, but its influence on crop  $\delta^{15}N$  values is unlikely 157 (Selles et al., 2011). Other fertilisation techniques, such as cereal-legume rotation combined with 158 green manure (a legume crop voluntarily cut and buried in the ground), decrease  $\delta^{15}$ N values in soil 159 (Riga et al., 1971) and probably those of the following crops. For this reason, it may be difficult to 160 differentiate cereals cultivated after legumes from cereals grown without manuring. Further experiments are needed to understand the impact of legumes cultivation on soil  $\delta^{15}$ N values. 161

In order to measure a baseline for  $\delta^{15}$ N values of unfertilised flora, we use the deer bone collagen 162 proxy (Bogaard *et al.*, 2013). Wild fauna is very rare in Second Iron Age sites and only  $\delta^{15}$ N values 163 164 from 20 deer bone were published for the early Roman sites of Jouars-Pontchartrain "La Ferme d'Ithe" (n=10, range: 3.1-6.1‰) and Palaiseau "Les Trois Mares" (n=10, range: 4.9-6.5‰), localised 165 166 60km north-east of the three Beauce farms, also in the south-western Paris Basin (Aguilera et al., 2018). The mean of the  $\delta^{15}$ N values is 5.0±1.0‰ (Supplementary Material 1). After subtracting a 3‰ 167 value for the trophic level shift (Caut *et al.*, 2009), the  $\delta^{15}$ N values of the deer diet can be estimated 168 to 2.0±1.0‰. As discussed in Styring et al. (2017),  $\delta^{15}N$  values above mean+1 standard deviation of 169 deer diet could be interpreted as <sup>15</sup>N-enriched with respect to non-anthropic flora. According to 170 these local deer samples, the local baseline for  $\delta^{15}$ N values of unfertilised flora is 3.0‰, similar to the 171 172 3‰-threshold established by long-term manuring experiments in others parts of temperate Europe 173 (Fraser et al., 2011).

174 1.4. Objectives and hypothesis

Dense land use in the area and high storage capacity (numerous silos) during the whole Second Iron Age illustrate the dynamism of agricultural production, alongside other activities, reflecting the transformation of protohistoric society (Malrain et al., 2018). The development and enrichment of rural settlements during the Second Iron Age relied heavily on agricultural profits, which in turn depended on fertilisation techniques for increasing yields. Here, we investigate manure fertilisation and variations in manuring, depending on the cereals, production units and time periods. The
 sampling protocol was adapted in a way to approach these different spatiotemporal scales.
 Production modes are compared across three neighbouring farms, over several centuries of
 occupation, but also within the same storage structure, in order to detect fine variations between
 fields.

185 We assume that if Second Iron Age farmers used manure to increase yields, then this practice should 186 be reflected in the nitrogen isotopic composition of cereals. In an extensive farming system, the 187 cultivated area is large and manure spreading cannot reasonably be uniform across all fields. 188 Variations in cereal  $\delta^{15}$ N values are expected. Some species may have been favoured over others, 189 and would have received more manure.

#### 190 2. Material and methods

#### 191 2.1. Sample selection and preparation

192 Samples were obtained from detrital deposits with a high density of charred grains. These 193 concentrations consist of aggregate cereal grains, dominated by one or two taxa, and weed seeds, 194 charred and eliminated at the same time, and most probably harvested in the same year or at most a 195 few years apart. We selected the three dominant taxa of the sites: hulled barley (Hordeum vulgare), 196 free-threshing wheats (Triticum aestivum ssp. aestivum/T. turgidum ssp. durum/T. turgidum ssp. 197 turgidum group) and emmer wheat (Triticum turgidum ssp. dicoccum). Fifty grains of the same taxon 198 (herein "one grain group") were collected from each archaeobotanical deposit to accurately reflect 199 crop values at the field scale. The grain group is subdivided into five samples composed of 10 grains 200 each to reflect part of intra-field variability, which can be significant within a single plot (Bogaard et 201 al., 2007; Larsson et al., 2019). A total of 18 grain groups were studied (90 samples with a total of 900 202 grains).

Archaeological events at the sites have been relatively dated on the basis of artefacts. The sampled
 structures can be grouped into three consistent periods between the three farms (Figure 2 and Table
 1):

- Period 1 (400/325 BCE): silos F1001, F1221 and F3149 are from phase 2 of Ymonville "Les
   Hyèbles". This is the period during which Second Iron Age farms were installed in this area.
   We sampled six grain groups for this period.
- Period 2 (325/150 BCE): silos F180 (phase 2 of Prasville "Les Grandes Canettes"), F1121
  (phase 1-2 of Prasville "Vers Chesnay"), F1006, F1071 and F2057 (phase 3 of Ymonville "Les
  Hyèbles") correspond to a period of continuity or even increasing storage capacity with the
  creation of the Prasville "Vers Chesnay" farm. Eight grain groups were obtained from these
  silos.
- Period 3 (150/80 BCE): silos F1251 and F4096 (four grain group) belong to phase 3 of Prasville
   "Vers Chesnay". This phase corresponds to the relocation and creation of an establishment in
   Prasville "Vers Chesnay" and Ymonville "Les Hyèbles", reflecting new dynamics in rural
   habitat management.

The grains were cleaned of sedimentary concretions and roots by gently scraping under a stereomicroscope. In order to remove soil contaminants (mainly carbonates in this calcareous region), samples were treated with a gentle acid treatment (adapted from Vaiglova *et al.*, 2014; Aguilera *et al.*, 2018): 10 whole grains were treated in 10 mL of a solution of 0.5 M HCl for 1 h at 70° C, soaked in distilled water at room temperature with water changed after 24h, 8h and 16h, freeze-dried and milled to a fine powder with an agate pestle and mortar.



225 Figure 2. Silo dating and site periodisation.

226

#### 227 2.2. Isotopic analyses

Measurements were performed on 1 mg of grain powder in an elemental analyser (Thermo Flash 228 229 2000), interfaced with an isotope mass spectrometer (Thermo DeltaV Advantage), at the Muséum 230 national d'Histoire naturelle (Paris, France). Stable isotope ratios measurement results are expressed 231 using  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{13}$ C values (‰), relative to atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> and the VPDB standard, respectively. The precision and accuracy of analyses are determined using a laboratory standard (alanine) normalized 232 233 to the IAEA-600 caffeine international standard, and a peach leaf standard (NIST SRM 1547). Over the course of all analyses, the alanine standard (n = 24) gave mean values of  $0.72 \pm 0.13\%$  for  $\delta^{15}N$ 234 (expected value = 0.60%), -21.82  $\pm$  0.13% for  $\delta^{13}$ C (expected value = -22.17%), and 40.50  $\pm$  0.29 % 235 for C content (expected value = 40.44 %) and the peach leaf standard (n = 21) gave mean values of 236 237 2.87 ± 0.05 % for N content (expected value = 2.97 %). Analytical precision, determined within each 238 run from eight alanine analyses, varied between  $\pm 0.06\%$  and  $\pm 0.16\%$  for  $\delta^{13}$ C;  $\pm 0.09\%$  and  $\pm\,0.17\%$  for  $\delta^{15}N;\,\pm\,0.15\,\%$  and  $\pm\,0.30\,\%$  for C content. For the N content, analytical precision, 239 240 determined from seven peach leaf analyses, ranges from  $\pm 0.02$  % to  $\pm 0.04$  %.

- Following the arguments of Nitsch *et al.* (2015), who recommend considering an offset of 0.31‰ for  $\delta^{15}N$  and 0.11‰ for  $\delta^{13}C$  for the charring effect, the measured values were corrected. Other studies also show a charring effect (Fraser *et al.*, 2013; Styring *et al.*, 2013), and although some did not (Aguilera *et al.*, 2008; Kanstrup *et al.*, 2012; Szpak and Chiou, 2019), the correction is necessary when comparing cereal  $\delta^{15}N$  values to deer diet  $\delta^{15}N$  baseline (Nitsch *et al.*, 2015).
- 246 The results for  $\delta^{13}$ C values are given and discussed in Supplementary Material 2, since we do not 247 interpret them in terms of agricultural practices.
- 248 2.3. Statistical analyses

In order to understand variations in  $\delta^{15}N$  measurements, a linear mixed-effects model was calculated, with the taxon and period as fixed effects (independent variables) and cereal grain group as a random effect. We use a mixed model because samples from the same grain group are correlated, and considered to be repeated measurements from the same deposit. Grain groups are compared two by two with the non-parametric Wilcoxon rank-sum test. All statistical tests and models are evaluated at an alpha level of 10%. Statistical analyses were carried out using the statistical programming language R 4.0.2 (R Core Team,
2020). Models and their pseudo-R<sup>2</sup> were calculated with the nlme and the piecewiseSEM packages
(Pinheiro *et al.*, 2021; Lefcheck, 2016). Graphics were produced with the ggplot2 package (Wickham,
2016).

### 259 **3. Results**

Results from stable isotope analyses are shown in the Supplementary Material 3. Figure 3 shows  $\delta^{15}N$ 260 and  $\delta^{13}$ C values for each sample (10 grains each), grouped by archaeological features. All grain 261 262 groups are clearly distinguished from each other on the basis of combined  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{13}$ C values, even 263 when they were retrieved from the same silo. Moreover, variability within each grain group is low (standard deviation within a grain group is on average 0.4‰ for  $\delta^{15}N$  and 0.2‰ for  $\delta^{13}C$ ). This 264 265 suggests limited alteration of the grains' original stable isotope ratios by diagenesis. Summarized data for each grain group are shown in Table 1 and in Figure 4. Overall,  $\delta^{15}N$  values range between 266 267 1.0‰ (emmer wheat in silo F3149) and 7.5‰ (emmer wheat in silo F1251).

268 Overall,  $\delta^{15}N$  values of the three taxa overlap, due to their wide range of variation.  $\delta^{15}N$  values

increase from one period to the next, on average +1.2‰ at each step, visible in Figure 4 (mean [90%
CI] for Period 1: 2.9‰ [2.5; 3.3]; Period 2: 4.2‰ [3.9; 4.4]; Period 3: 5.3‰ [4.9; 5.7]). Linear mixed-

effects models have been calculated to verify these observations (Table 2).



Figure 3. Plot of  $\delta^{15}N$  and  $\delta^{13}C$  of archaeological grains, grouped by archaeobotanical deposit. Each point is one sample of 10 grains. The black dots and crosses show the mean and 1 standard deviation for each grain group. Orange lines ( $\delta^{15}N$ ): thresholds for manuring rates after Fraser et al. 2011 and Bogaard et al. 2013 (below 3‰, no manuring; 3-6‰, moderate or ancient manuring; above 6‰, high

277 *manuring rates).* 

Id Sito	Silo	Data	Devied	Tayan	-	δ <sup>15</sup> N	δ <sup>13</sup> C	
id Site	5110	Date	Period	Taxon	n	(mean ± 1sd)	(mean ± 1sd)	
YLH	F 1001, SU 18	400-325 BCE	Period 1	Free-threshing wheats	5	4.5 ± 0.3	-22.7 ± 0.3	
YLH	F 1001, SU 19	400-325 BCE	Period 1	Barley	5	2.2 ± 0.5	-23.6 ± 0.3	
YLH	F 1001, SU 19	400-325 BCE	Period 1	Free-threshing wheats	5	2.2 ± 0.6	-22.7 ± 0.2	
YLH	F 1221	400-275 BCE	Period 1	Barley	5	3.9 ± 0.4	-23.4 ± 0.2	
YLH	F 1221	400-275 BCE	Period 1	Free-threshing wheats	5	3.2 ± 0.8	-22.8 ± 0.2	
YLH	F 3149	400-275 BCE	Period 1	Emmer	5	$1.4 \pm 0.3$	-23.0 ± 0.2	
PGC	F 180	325-250 BCE	Period 2	Emmer	5	$4.6 \pm 0.1$	-22.2 ± 0.2	
PVC	F 1121	325-150 BCE	Period 2	Emmer	5	4.6 ± 0.7	-23.1 ± 0.3	
PVC	F 1121	325-150 BCE	Period 2	Free-threshing wheats	5	3.8 ± 0.4	-22.8 ± 0.3	
YLH	F 1006	200-150 BCE	Period 2	Barley	5	$4.4 \pm 0.3$	-23.5 ± 0.4	
YLH	F 1006	200-150 BCE	Period 2	Free-threshing wheats	5	3.2 ± 0.2	-22.6 ± 0.2	
YLH	F 1071	200-150 BCE	Period 2	Barley	5	5.8 ± 0.7	-23.6 ± 0.3	
YLH	F 2057	275-250 BCE	Period 2	Barley	5	3.9 ± 0.3	-22.3 ± 0.2	
YLH	F 2057	275-250 BCE	Period 2	Free-threshing wheats	5	3.2 ± 0.1	-21.7 ± 0.2	
PVC	F 1251	150-80 BCE	Period 3	Emmer	5	6.8 ± 0.5	-22.9 ± 0.3	
PVC	F 1251	150-80 BCE	Period 3	Free-threshing wheats	5	$4.1 \pm 0.4$	-23.0 ± 0.2	
PVC	F 4096	150-80 BCE	Period 3	Emmer	5	$5.3 \pm 0.1$	-22.0 ± 0.1	
PVC	F 4096	150-80 BCE	Period 3	Free-threshing wheats	5	$5.0 \pm 0.4$	-21.0 ± 0.2	

Table 1. Stable nitrogen and carbon isotope values of cereal grains analysed for each grain group. n:

number of analysed samples. Each sample includes 10 grains.



Figure 4.  $\delta^{15}$ N of archaeological grains, grouped by grain group. Each point is one sample of 10 grains. 

Orange lines: thresholds for manuring rates after Fraser et al. 2011 and Bogaard et al. 2013 (below

*3‰, no manuring; 3-6‰, moderate or ancient manuring; above 6‰, high manuring rates).* 

	Group 1	Group 2	Difference δ <sup>15</sup> N (‰) [90% Cl]	DF	t	р
	Barley	Emmer	-0.2 [-1.5; 1.0]	13	-0.332	0.745
δ <sup>15</sup> N depending on taxon and period pseudo-R <sup>2</sup> =0.91	Barley	Free-threshing wheats	-0.7 [-1.8; 0.4]	13	-1.199	0.252
Taxon: p=0.348 – <b>Period: p=0.015</b>	Period 1	Period 2	1.2 [0.2; 2.2]	13	2.088	0.057
	Period 1	Period 3	2. 4 [1.2; 3.7]	13	3.403	0.005
Model bis: $\delta^{15}$ N depending on taxon	Emmer	Free-threshing wheats	-0.5 [-1.6; 0.6]	13	-0.834	0.419
and period (extract)	Period 2	Period 3	1.3 [0.0; 2.5]	13	1.831	0.090

Table 2. Results of the linear mixed-effects models ( $\delta^{15}N$ ), with taxon and period as fixed effects and grain group as a random effect. p values <0.1 are shown in bold. Modelled difference:  $\delta^{15}N_{group 2}$ - $\delta^{15}N_{group 1}$ 

293

As the studied deposits are not necessarily synchronous within each period (each dating phase covers several decades), it is essential to analyse at a finer scale, *i.e.*, to compare the different cereal species from a same concentration, in order to compare agricultural treatments between cereals. Comparisons are made between barley and free-threshing wheats and between emmer and freethreshing wheats (Table 3). Sampling does not allow for direct comparisons between emmer and barley, because they were not found together.

In a given deposit, inter-cereal differences in  $\delta^{15}$ N values can be high (1.3‰ and 2.7‰ for silos F1006 and F1251 respectively). In the four silos where both barley and free-threshing wheats are present, barley always yielded higher  $\delta^{15}$ N values on average, even though this difference is only relatively high in two cases (+0.7‰ in silo F2057, +1.3‰ in silo F1006), low in silo F1221 (+0,5‰) and null in F1001. Emmer always yielded similar or higher  $\delta^{15}$ N values compared to free-threshing wheats (+2.7‰ in silo F1251, +0.7‰ in silo F1121, not significant difference in F4096).

306

ld Site	Silo	Group 1	Group 2	Difference δ <sup>15</sup> N (‰) [90% Cl]	р
YLH	F 1001, SU 19	Barley	Free-threshing wheats	0,0 [-0.8; 0.7]	0.675
YLH	F 1006	Barley	Free-threshing wheats	-1.3 [-1.6; -0.9]	0.012
PVC	F 1121	Emmer	Free-threshing wheats	-0.7 [-1.5; -0.3]	0.076
YLH	F 1221	Barley	Free-threshing wheats	-0, 5 [-1.5; 0.1]	0.222
PVC	F 1251	Emmer	Free-threshing wheats	-2.7 [-3.4; -2.2]	0.008
YLH	F 2057	Barley	Free-threshing wheats	-0.7 [-0.9; -0.4]	0.008
PVC	F 4096	Emmer	Free-threshing wheats	-0.4 [-0.8; 0.1]	0.151

Table 3. Results of the Wilcoxon rank-sum test, comparing the taxa by archaeobotanical deposit. 308 p values <0.1 are shown in bold. Difference =  $\delta^{15}N_{group 2}-\delta^{15}N_{group 1}$ 

309

ld Site	Silo	Group 1 (SU 18)	Group 2 (SU 19)	Difference δ <sup>15</sup> N (‰) [90% Cl]	р
YLH	F 1001	Free-threshing wheats	Free-threshing wheats	-2.4 [-3.0; -1.7]	0.008
PVC	F 1001	Free-threshing wheats	Barley	-2.4 [-2.9; -1.8]	0.012

Table 4. Results of the Wilcoxon rank-sum test, comparing the grain groups from different stratigraphic units of the same silo F 1001. SU 18 is earlier than SU 19. p values <0.1 are shown in bold. Difference =  $\delta^{15}N_{group 2}-\delta^{15}N_{group 1}$ 

315

#### 316 4. Discussion

#### 317 4.1. Manuring as a cause of increased $\delta^{15}N$ values

318 The great majority of cereal δ<sup>15</sup>N values are above 3‰, reflecting <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment of cultivated soils 319 by human activities in most cases. Nitrogen cycles are complex (Szpak, 2014) and several agricultural 320 practices can influence the nitrogen isotopic composition of the environment (manuring, slash-and-321 burn cultivation, green manure). As shown by paleoenvironmental studies in the study area (Coussot, 322 2010; Martin, 2010; Pradat, 2010) and palynological analyses at a regional scale (Blancquaert et al., 323 2012), deforestation intensified during the Iron Age. The area was densely inhabited for a long time, 324 with long-term shifting habitats. Even if the whole area was not cultivated at the same time (e.g., 325 with fallow spaces), the land must have been cleared a long time ago and potential clearing or 326 burning effects are unlikely. At the three farms, evidence for legume cultivation is scarce (less than 327 3% of food plant remains), as observed on a very large corpus of sites in the Paris Basin (Zech-Matterne et al., 2014, 2020), so their impact on soil quality must have been minimal. Hence, one of 328 329 the main causes of  $\delta^{15}$ N evolution is, in this case, the spreading of animal and human excrement 330 either in the form of manure collected from stalls or by the mobile penning of livestock on land.

331 Stables and dung-yards are rare on Iron Age sites. Very few of them are known in France (Bosche et 332 al., 2009, pp. 68–71; Gaudefroy, 2016, p. 107; Hinguant et al., 1998, pp. 74–83; Mathiot, 2012) and 333 none was positively identified at the sites studied here. This rarity can be explained by cultural as 334 well as taphonomic factors (these features are identified in Roman farms). Indeed, it has been argued 335 that livestock (Caprinae, pigs, and a few cattle; Bayle, 2011, 2010) were not stalled, but herded outdoors, with light shelters (Zimmermann, 1999). Penning livestock on cultivated plots during 336 337 intercrop periods after daily grazing fertilises the land without having to store and transport manure. 338 Ditch cleaning, farm waste, as well as human or pig excrement may have been another source of 339 fertiliser, especially for fields closer to the farm, due to transport limitations.

340 During Period 1 (400/325 BCE), the  $\delta^{15}N$  values of half the grain groups are below 3‰. Thereafter, 341  $\delta^{15}N$  values increase continuously, with all measurements exceeding the 3‰-threshold and one of 342 more than 6‰ at the Period 3 (emmer from silo F1251). This increase can be explained by 343 continuous fertilisation over three centuries, gradually enriching the soil and plants in <sup>15</sup>N.

344 4.2. Relationship between agricultural practices and land use

The increase in  $\delta^{15}$ N values from Period 1 (400/325 BCE) to Period 3 (150/80 BCE) suggests the repeated use of manure. This result is consistent with studies of other areas in northern France for Second Iron Age and Roman period (Aguilera *et al.*, 2018). This increase can be related to the evolution of habitats. Period 1 (400/325 BCE) corresponds to the installation of the major site of 349 Ymonville "Les Hyèbles", adding a new large centre of production on the plateau, with agricultural 350 activities contributing to the <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment of cereals. During Period 2 (325/150 BCE), the 351 occupation of the area was dynamic, with the rise of Prasville "Vers Chesnay". Sheep grazing 352 between crops and the use of pig and human manure may have increased soil and plant  $\delta^{15}$ N values. 353 The third period was one of habitat restructuration (farm displacement and expansion). Another 354 source of manure may have been used, with cattle and horse rearing alongside sheep and pigs.

The three sites correspond to different social statuses. Ymonville "Les Hyèbles" was a major aristocratic farm, Prasville "Vers Chesnay" an intermediate farm and Prasville "Les Grandes Canettes" a smaller settlement. Despite these hierarchical differences, cereals show similar isotopic composition, reflecting the sharing of agricultural practices and the same manure production capacity between farmers from the same area. The variability of  $\delta^{15}N$  values (over 5‰ amplitude) suggests a wide range of soil fertility conditions, most probably linked to different manuring rates and the history of plots.

362 4.3. Interspecific differences in nitrogen isotopic composition

Different cereal species growing under the same environmental conditions have comparable 363 nitrogen isotopic composition (Fraser *et al.*, 2011). Crops with similar  $\delta^{15}N$  values (*e.g.* barley and 364 365 free-threshing wheats from the F 1001, SU 19) do not necessarily indicate that they were grown in 366 the same field, but rather that they were grown on soils with the same fertility. The majority of the 367 grain groups could have been fertilised, but differences are visible within the same archaeobotanical 368 deposit (Table 3).  $\delta^{15}$ N values are greater for barley than for free-threshing wheats in two out of four 369 silos (F1006, F2057). The average difference is slight (around 1‰) but could nonetheless show that 370 barley was sometimes more carefully cultivated (more often manured), as observed during the 371 Hallstatt period in Germany (Styring et al., 2017) and during the fifth century BCE in the city of 372 Lattara in southern France (Alagich et al., 2018). The same observation applies to emmer, which is 373 more fertilised than free-threshing wheats (F1121, F1251). This contrasts with agronomic knowledge 374 of current varieties, where free-threshing wheats are more nutrient-demanding than barley and 375 emmer to ensure good yields. Farmers in Beauce chose to focus on fertilising certain crops, and not 376 necessarily the dominant crop (around 70% of cereal grains are free-threshing wheats during Period 377 1 in Ymonville "Les Hyèbles" and Period 2 in Prasville "Vers Chesnay"; Pradat, 2010, unpublished). By 378 contrast, Aguilera et al. (2018) observed preferential manuring of free-threshing wheats in the 379 neighbouring lle-de-France region. This reflects regional differences already observed in agricultural 380 production at that time (Lepetz and Zech-Matterne, 2018).

381 4.4. Seizing agricultural practices in the very short term

382 Silo F1001 at Ymonville "Les Hyèbles" yielded grain groups from two successive stratigraphic units 383 (belonging to the same occupation phase). We can consider that these two infillings are closely 384 related in time, on account of the rapid obliteration of the holes by inhabitants, and the related harvest dates separated by a few years at most.  $\delta^{15}N$  values are very different between grain groups 385 (Table 4 and Figure 4), with cereals from the later stratigraphic unit yielding  $\delta^{15}$ N values lowered by 386 387 2.4‰ compared to the earlier ones. Such a decrease in the soil nitrogen isotope composition is 388 unlikely over a few years, at most. Alternatively, the difference between the two successive harvests could be explained by a wide variety of management strategies for different cultivated plots around 389 390 the farm. Some were manured while others were not. This assumption may explain diversity of  $\delta^{15}N$ 391 values through silos from a same period.

392 Methodologically, the case of silo F1001 (Ymonville "Les Hyèbles") is interesting for sampling 393 strategies. Sampling archaeobotanical remains from several successive stratigraphic units from a 394 same structure records the short-term diversity of agricultural practices.

### 395 **5. Conclusion**

396 Results from the stable isotope analysis of charred cereal grains show that manuring was a solution 397 adopted by the Second Iron Age inhabitants of these three neighbouring farms to fertilise cultivated soils. The main argument for this is high  $\delta^{15}N$  values and their continuous increase over time, 398 399 reflecting the dynamism of agricultural activities in this area, causing <sup>15</sup>N-enrichment in the 400 environment as a result of manure application. The lack of stalling features raises the question of 401 livestock management and the possible mobile penning of livestock. These results suggest a mosaic 402 landscape around the farm, with cereal fields fertilised or not from one year to the next. Different manuring rates may have been applied over time, space and cereal species, reflecting variability in 403 404 farmers' choices. Manuring is not correlated with the dominant crop. The use of manure provided 405 the conditions for improving the agricultural economy.

406

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