

Forest and agricultural dynamics in the Haouz plain over the last millennium: archaeobotanical and isotopic research at Aghmat (Morocco)

Jérôme Ros, Fatima-Ezzahra Badri, Amandine Cartier, Benoit Marie, Abdallah Fili, Chloé Capel, Leïa Mion, Sandrine Canal, François Fourel, Violaine Heritier-Salama, et al.

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Introduction 41

Numerous studies over the last several decades have addressed the relationship between human societies and their environments (both agricultural and forestry) in the medieval and modern western Mediterranean using written and iconographic sources (e.g., Bourin-derruau, 1987), archaeological sources (e.g., Demians d'Archimbaud, 1982), or a combination of several of these sources (e.g. Ouerfelli & Voguet, 2009). With rare exceptions (e.g., Durand, 1998; Puig, 2003; Ros et al., 2014), this extremely rich body of work has focused on the occupation of the countryside in the broadest sense (occupation dynamics, land structuring), without specifically focusing on characterizing the exploited plant resources, cultivation practices (manure, irrigation), or agrosilvopastoral landscapes, which are fundamental to establishing how past societies adapted their methods of exploiting plants and animals, and the landscapes in which they evolved, according to the socio-economic (local, global) and environmental context (climate change, availability of resources). The study of agricultural and forestry systems is particularly interesting over the long term as it provides the necessary hindsight to understand their evolution, their resilience, and the role of each parameter (cultural, economic, political, environmental) that has influenced them.

The development of archaeobotany in the 1970s and 1980s in France and Spain led to the production of the first synthesis documenting, on a local or regional scale, the agricultural and forestry systems of the historic western Mediterranean (e.g., Durand, 1998; Ruas, 2005; Peña-Chocarro et al., 2019; Ros et al., 2019; Ros, 2020). In Morocco, these systems have long been studied solely through the prism of textual sources, in particular works by geographers and travel accounts. Over the same decades, several archaeological missions have initiated research into medieval agrosilvopastoral production, practices, and landscapes, resulting in a number of pioneering publications (Pollock, 1986), although several studies remained unpublished and difficult to access. The 2000s saw a new development (Ruas, 2018) resulting from interdisciplinary approaches in ancient and medieval sites, such as Lixus and Volubilis (Grau Almero et al., 2001, 2010; Fuller, 2002, 2004; Pérez Jordà, 2005; Fuller & Stevens, 2009; Fuller & Pelling, 2018). Since the 2010s, new sites have been and are still being investigated on a large scale, with research dedicated to the palaeoenvironmental reconstructions. Examples include the large-scale excavations at Îgîlîz, Rirha, and Thamusida (Ruas et al., 2011, Allevato et al., 2013, 2016; Ruas et al., 2016a, b; Carrato et al., 2020). Among these regions, Al Haouz has been the focus of particularly important archaeological, bioarchaeological and ethnological research in recent years, particularly in the area of Aghmat, a town of medieval origin located at the foot of the High Atlas (Ros et al., 2021),

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because of its chronology of occupation, which spans the whole of the High and Late Middle 76 Ages, and part of the Modern era. 77 78 Aghmat: Environmental and archaeological context 79 The city of Aghmat is located about 35 km south-southeast of Marrakesh (Morocco) at an 80 altitude of about 541 m.a.s.l. in the high altitude plain of the Haouz, at the foot of the High 81 Atlas Mountains (Ait El Mekki & Laftouhi, 2016) (Fig. 1). According to Héritier-Salama et 82 al. (2016), its location on the plain at the mouth of the Ourika valley was highly conducive to 83 the early development of large-scale irrigated agriculture. It has a warm, semi-arid climate 84 (BSh climate type according to Koppen climate classification, Koppen 1936), the minimal 85 and maximal mean temperatures ranging from 10.9°C to 24.8°C (AQUASTAT Climate 86 Information Tool, FAO; http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquastat/climateinfotool/index.stm). The 87 annual average precipitation is 541 mm/year (Saidi et al., 2010). The soil, with modern 88 Quaternary formations, is Fersiallitic (medium Sandy Clay Loam) of good permeability and 89 90 drainage (i.e., gravel, sand) (Ait El Mekki & Laftouhi, 2016). These climatic and environmental conditions allow the development of the Quercetea ilicis, an often evergreen 91 and sclerophyllous Mediterranean shrub/tree vegetation (Achhal, 1979; Barbéro & Quézel, 92 1981; Benabid, 1982). Groups of araar trees (Tetraclinis articulata) are found on the foothills 93 of the Atlas mixed with other species (Juniperus phoenicea, J. oxycedrus, Pistacia lentiscus, 94 Cistus monspeliensis, and, on shady slopes, with Ouercus ilex subsp. rotundifolia, Arbutus 95 unedo, Phillyrea angustifolia, Cistus salviifolius) (Benabid, 1985; Fennane, 1988; Ouhammou 96 & Aubin, 1991). Further downstream from Aghmat a thermophilous shrubland develops 97 (Pistacia lentiscus, Ziziphus lotus, wild Olea europaea) (Quézel & Médail, 2003). The fertile 98

Ourika valley allows cultivation of cereal and tree crops (Héritier-Salama, 2019).

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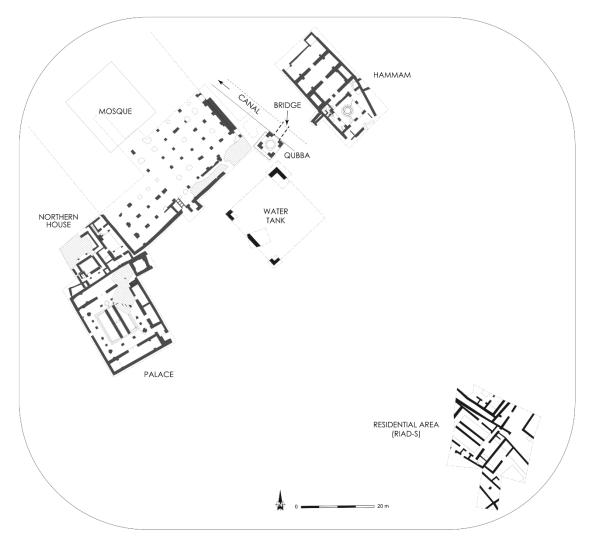
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Fig. 1: Location of the archaeological site of Aghmat and aerial view of the site (in the photo on the right, the white area corresponds to the current village and the dotted area to the entire archaeological site).

During the Middle Ages, Aghmat is described by textual sources at the beginning of the ninth century as "a major commercial crossroads, a flourishing city and a very important agricultural production centre." It became a capital under the Almoravids in 1058, but was then gradually abandoned towards the end of the fourteenth century in the face of the hegemony of the new Almoravid capital: Marrakech. In the sixteenth century, Leon the African described a ruined city occupied by rural inhabitants. Since 2005, archaeological studies of Aghmat have allowed a better understanding of this transitional period during the Late Middle Ages (fourteenth-fifteenth centuries) (Fig. 2). The archaeological data show that the period of abandonment was very gradual, over nearly two centuries from the fourteenth to the end of the fifteenth, and partial, never really leading to a total desertion, with certain districts being reinhabited or changing function (Héritier et al., 2016). The sixteenth century was characterized by the arrival of a more rural and modest population, the Sufis, a brotherhood of ascetics (Héritier et al., 2016). Aghmat also saw immigration linked to the Portuguese incursions on the coast. The town then underwent a settlement breakdown and an agricultural conversion (Héritier et al., 2016). While these major socio-economic dynamics are becoming well understood from a historical and archaeological point of view, their possible effects on landscapes use and on agropastoral productions and practices are only beginning to be explored (Ros et al., 2021). Consequently, we propose a preliminary pilot study that demonstrates the great value of combining different methods and materials.



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Fig. 2: Location map of the different archaeological areas excavated by the Mission Archéologique d'Aghmat (state at the end of the 2019 campaign): the architectural remains are those which have been abandoned at the end of the 14th century as the urban occupation phase of the settlement was coming to an end (Document: Mission Archéologique d'Aghmat).

Reconstruct the diversity and evolution of the forest cover over the last millennium in

Document the main cultivated/exploited plant species and any changes they may have

Highlight agricultural practices (fertilization, irrigation, land used) in relation to cereal

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Research Goals

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Materials and methods

growing.

relation to changes in the city's status

undergone (diversity, type of remains, frequency)

Origin of the archaeobotanical samples and method of extraction and identification

We analyzed a total of 26 archaeobotanical samples from 23 archaeological features. These features mainly correspond to secondary deposits from 'open' features, such as ditches, living spaces (e.g., houses), gardens, rubbish dumps, plantation pits and hearths. The original volume of the samples ranges from 0.5 to 14 liters. All the samples were sieved using a flotation machine (2 mm and 250 μ m) during the different excavation campaigns.

The identification of the seed and charcoal remains was carried out at the ISEM laboratory (Montpellier, France), using a Nikon SMZ645 stereoscopic magnifier (x0.8 to x10 magnification). For the identification of seed remains, we used a reference collection of fresh and archaeological seeds as well as Cappers et al., 2006; Jacomet, 2006; Rameau et al., 2008. The remains were quantified, either as entire specimens or as fragments and the frequency of occurrence of cultivated taxa was calculated per sample / phase. For anthracological analysis, specific recognition was done using an Olympus BH2-UMA reflection microscope, with black/white background and x100, x200 and x500 magnification, with the help of reference atlases (Jacquiot, 1955; Jacquiot et al., 1973; Schweingruber, 1990; Vernet et al., 2001) and the reference collection of the team "Dynamique de la biodiversité, anthropo-écologie" (ISEM, UMR 5554). The latin nomenclature follows the French 'Inventaire National du Patrimoine Naturel' (Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris).

Radiocarbon datings

Radiocarbon age determinations were performed on eight charred seeds (naked wheat and barley caryopses, olive kernel, jujube kernel fragment) extracted from eight different stratigraphic units, using AMS (Accelerator Mass Spectrometry) facilities at Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory (Table 1). The calibration of ¹⁴C-dates was performed using OxCal 4.4 program version and the calibration data set was IntCal20 Northern Hemisphere atmospheric curve (Reimer et al., 2020) (Table 1).

Sample name	Lab. No	Age 14C (B	P) and error	Age range, Cal AD (2σ) 99	.6% probability	¹⁴ C Cal I	3P Mean 2σ	¹⁴ C Cal BP Median 2σ			
AGH4204	Poz-135619	930	30	1026	1217	1107	44	1104			
AGH1561	Poz-135847	800	30	1166	1283	1242	21	1244			
AGH2361	Poz-135647	645	30	1278	1402	1342	35	1353			
AGH4327	Poz-135633	625	30	1281	1409	1346	32	1350			
AGH2032	Poz-135645	590	30	1293	1425	1354	31	1348			
AGH2419	Poz-135649	560	30	1300	1440	1371	36	1361			
AGH2438	Poz-135648	530	30	1307	1450	1401	32	1412			
AGH1523	Poz-135968	525	30	1312	1452	1406	30	1414			

Table 1: Radiocarbon dating on 8 charred seeds (naked wheat and barley caryopses, olive kernel, jujube kernel fragment) extracted from 8 different stratigraphic units, using AMS (Accelerator Mass Spectrometry) facilities at Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory

Isotopic analysis 175 A total of 40 archaeobotanical charred seeds of hulled barley (n=20) and naked wheat (n=20) 176 were selected for carbon, nitrogen and sulfur isotopic analysis (δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and δ^{34} S). All were 177 rinsed three times for 10 min in ultrapure Milli-O® water at room temperature, dried 178 overnight (40°C), before being crushed and homogenized. About 0.5 to 2 mg of powder was 179 then weighed using a precise balance ($\pm 1 \mu g$) and loaded into small tin capsules (3.5 x 5 mm) 180 for N and C. For sulfur, 10 to 15 mg of material were introduced in bigger tin capsules (5 x 8 181 mm size). The crushing and encapsulation were carried out using tweezers that were cleaned 182 between each sample. 183 Isotopic and elemental contents analysis for C, N and S were measured by dry 184 combustion using a Pyrocube Elemental Analyser (EA, Elementar GmbH) equipped with a 185 purge and trap gas separation system configured in combustion mode (Fourel et al., 2014). 186 The elemental Analyser was connected on line in continuous flow mode to an IsoPrime 100 187 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Elementar UK Ltd). Data were calibrated against 188 international reference material IAEA-600, IAEA-CH6 and IAEA-N2. The δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and 189 δ^{34} S values are expressed in δ notation, deviation from standards in parts per thousand (%), 190 relative to V-PDB (Vienna Pee Dee Bee Belemnite), V-N2 (atmospheric N₂) and V-CDT 191 (Vienna-Cañon Diablo Troilite) respectively: $\delta^m X = (R_{sample}/R_{standard} - 1) \times 1000$ where R =192 13 C/ 12 C for carbon, 15 N/ 14 N for nitrogen or 34 S/ 32 S for sulfur. The precision for δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and 193 δ^{34} S is better than 0.1 %. The results of elemental C, N, S contents are expressed as (%) and 194 are also presented as C/N and N/S atomic ratios. 195 Correction factors are applied to the δ^{13} C seed samples due to long term changes of 196 the carbon isotopic composition of the atmospheric CO₂ (δ^{13} C_{AIR-CO2}) over time according to 197 Antarctic ice core records (Francey et al., 1999; Leuenberger et al., 1992), as described in 198 Ferrio et al. (2005). δ^{13} C seed values and δ^{15} N seed values were also corrected for the effect 199 of charring (+0.11% for the δ^{13} C and +0.31% for the δ^{15} N; Nitsch et al., 2015). During 200 biological processes, isotopic differences (i.e. between tissues, species) can be calculated and 201 those represented by the "\Delta" symbol corresponds to isotopic discrimination. We calculated 202 the carbon isotopic discrimination ($\Delta^{13}C_{SEED-CO2}$) by adapting the equation of Farquhar et al. 203 (1982), $\Delta^{13}C_{\text{SEED-CO2}} = (\delta^{13}C_{\text{AIR}} - \delta^{13}C_{\text{SEED}})/(1 + \delta^{13}C_{\text{SEED}}/1000)$, where $\delta^{13}C_{\text{AIR}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{SEED}}$ 204 refer to the $\delta^{13}C$ of the atmospheric CO₂ and $\delta^{13}C$ of the plant, respectively. In C3 plants, 205 carbon isotopic composition is determined by the diffusive discrimination of ¹³C in air 206 through the stomata (4.4%), the net discrimination caused by carboxylation through the 207

RuBisco enzymatic activity (29 ‰) and by the ratio of intercellular (ci) to ambient (ca) leaf partial pressures of CO₂ (Farquhar et al., 1989; Maxwell et al., 2018).

Charred seed $\Delta^{13}C$ were compared with the reference threshold $\Delta^{13}C$ values that differentiate between plant growth under well-watered and drier conditions. We used the reference threshold $\Delta^{13}C$ values of 17.0 to 18.5 % for moderately watered barley and 16.0 to 17.0 for moderately watered wheat (Araus et al., 1997; Wallace et al., 2013).

Using the Δ^{13} C_{SEED-CO2}, we assessed the water use efficiency (WUEi expressed in μ mol CO₂ mol -1 H2O) as leaf net photosynthesis (A) is related to the leaf conductance of the water vapor (gH₂O) as described in Du et al., (2021): WUEi = $(b-\Delta^{13}C_{SEED-CO2})/1.6*(b-a)$, where a is 4.4‰ and b is 27‰. We also evaluated the water input during cereal filling (expressed in mm) using the model described for wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) in the South-West Mediterranean region (Araus et al., 1997; Ferrio et al., 2004, 2005; Speciale et al., 2020).

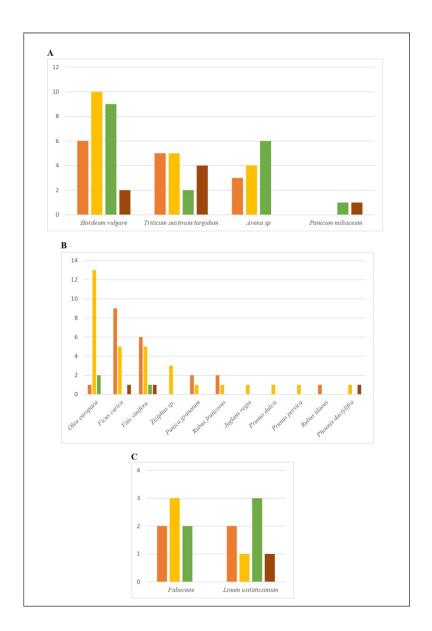
Results

Seed remains

Of the 26 available samples, 21 were fully sorted, identified and quantified; the remaining six samples were surveyed, i.e., their taxonomic diversity was recorded and their abundance assessed. We studied a total of 7545 carpological remains preserved by carbonization, of which were identified 7473 (see Appendix 1 for raw data).

The plant taxonomic spectrum is made up of 60 taxa, classified into five categories: cereals, legumes, technical/textile plants, fruit trees and wild plants. Cereals formed the most abundant category of cultivated plants, with 2050 remains (27.4% of all the identified remains) and also the second most frequent in the samples (present in 20 samples out of 26) (Fig. 3). We recorded at least 6 cereals: hulled barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), naked wheat (*Triticum aestivum/turgidum*), millet (*Panicum miliaceum*), oat (*Avena* sp.), a possible hulled wheat (*Triticum* type *monococcum/dicoccum/spelta*) and potentially rye (cf. *Secale*). Among the chaff remains, the presence of some well-preserved rachis suggests the presence of both hexaploid and tetraploid wheats. Fruit trees were the most abundant cultivated plants, with 843 remains (11.3% of the identified remains, present in 21 samples out of 26) (Fig. 3). We recorded 11 taxa: olive (*Olea europaea*), fig (*Ficus carica*), grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*), walnut (*Juglans regia*), date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), almond (*Prunus dulcis*), peach (*Prunus persica*), pomegranate (*Punica granatum*), blackberry (*Rubus fruticosus*), raspberry (*Rubus fruticosus*).

idaeus) and jujube (Ziziphus sp.). Most of these remains were food residues (seeds or pits without flesh). Pulses and technical/textile plants were fairly rare (Fig. 3). Pulses were only recorded by 25 remains (0.3% of total remains, present in seven samples), and their bad state of preservation did not allow them to be identified beyond the family, although a possible Lathyrus might have been present. Flax (Linum usitatissimum) was recorded by four seeds (0.1% of remains) in 4 samples, but was observed in two of the surveyed samples. Finally, wild plants were recorded by 4552 remains (60.9% of the total remains, present in 16 samples), corresponding to 40 taxa, 13 of which were identified to species. Most of these wild plants came from a single sample (SUQ2363-north, fifteenth-sixteenth centuries).



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251 Fig. 3: Frequencies of carpological taxa (A: cereals; B: fruits; C: cultivated pulses and flax) for each phase (x axis indicates the taxa; y axis indicates the number of contexts in which the taxa is recorded) (orange: 11th-12th 252 c.; yellow: 13th-14th; green: 15th-16th; brown: 17th-20th) 253 254 255 Charcoal remains Of all the available samples, eight yielded sufficient charcoal fragments to complete the 256 257 anthracological study. We studies a total of 1363 charcoal fragments, of which we identified 1301 at the family, genius or species level (see Appendix 2 for raw data). At least 17 different 258 taxa were identified, with the anthracological spectrum dominated by olive (Olea europaea), 259 which represented 36.5% of the studied charcoals, followed by evergreen oak (potentially 260 holm oak, *Quercus ilex* subsp. rotundifolia, established in this region), which accounts for 261 14.7% of the anthracological spectrum, and arear tree with 7.9% (*Tetraclinis articulata*). 262 Although junipers and the araar tree are very similar in anatomy, the latter was identified by 263 the presence of warts on its tracheids walls (Schweingruber, 1990: 145) (Fig. 4). 264 Approximately 9.8% of the fragments correspond to wadi edge species, i.e. 5.4% grass-type 265 monocotyledons, 4.3% poplar/willow (*Populus/Salix*) and 0.1% tamarisk (*Tamarix*). The 266 267 identification of ash (5.6%) is difficult to attribute ecologically, as there are two types of ash in this part of Morocco: Fraxinus angustifolia, which is a riparian/wadi edge species, and 268 Fraxinus dimorpha, which is an endemic forest species found in association with Quercus ilex 269 on the High Atlas slopes. Fruit trees make up around 13.8% of the corpus, i.e., 7% Rosaceae 270 maloideae, 2.1% pomegranate (Punica granatum), 1.8% Rosaceae prunoideae, 1.3% fig 271 (Ficus carica) and 1% grapevine (Vitis vinifera). Among the prunoideae charcoals identified, 272 there is a diversity that is not due to intraspecific anatomical variation. On the tangential 273 274 longitudinal plane, some rays are one to three series while others have seven-eight series (Appendix 2); the latter can be attributed to the *Prunus armeniaca/dulcis/persica* group, i.e., 275 almond, apricot and peach. Next, 0.4% of pistachio trees (Pistacia lentiscus) and 0.7% of 276 potential pistachio trees (Anacardiaceae/cf. Pistacia) and finally, 0.3% of filaria/buckthorn 277 (Phillyrea/Rhamnus), 0.2% of acacia/fig tree (Acacia/Ficus) and 0.1% for the following taxa: 278 strawberry tree (Arbutus), Cistaceae/Ericaceae, rockrose (Cistus) and jujube (Ziziphus). The 279

results for the SU that yielded the greatest number of identifiable charcoals were represented

in diagrammatic form (Fig. 5), showing the relative proportions of taxa exploited over time.

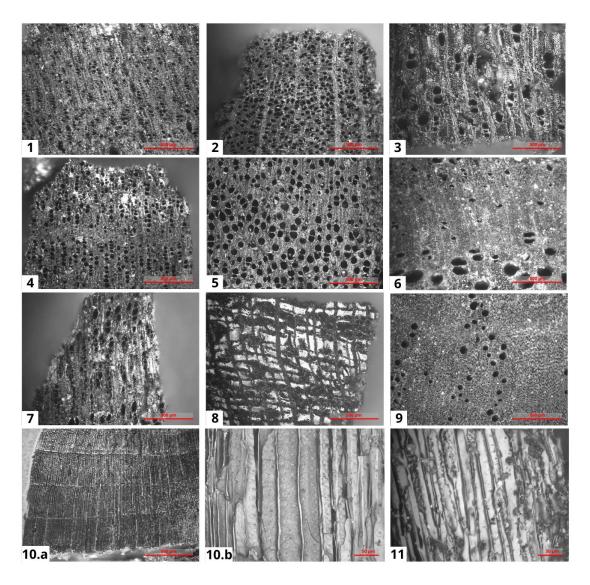


Fig. 4: Anatomy of Aghmat's charcoal fragments. 1) Transverse plane of *Olea europaea*, 2) Transverse plane of Rosaceae *Prunoideae*, 3) Transverse plane of *Ficus*, 4) Transverse plane of *Punica granatum*, 5) Transverse plane of *Populus/Salix*, 6) Transverse plane of *Fraxinus*, 7) Transverse plane of *Pistacia*, 8) Transverse plane of *Fabaceae Faboideae*, 9) Transverse plane of *Quercus* evergreen, 10. a) Transverse plane of *Tetraclinis articulata*, b) Verrucose walls of *Tetraclinis articulata* in radial longitudinal plane, 11) Non-verrucose walls of *Juniperus* sp. in radial longitudinal plane.

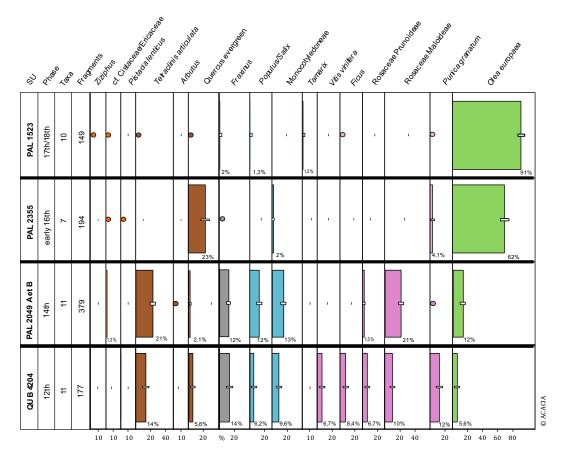


Fig. 5: Diachronic anthracological diagram produced in Excel 2003 ACACIA macro (Nourissier *et al.*, 2016). The species proportions are colored according to the vegetation assemblage to which they are assimilated: brown= oak/tetracline forest; grey= ash that may belong to the oak/tetracline forest or to the wadis banks; blue=alluvial/riparian/wadis forest; pink=potentially cultivated taxa, green=olive tree.

Charred seeds isotopic compositions

The carbon, nitrogen and sulfur isotopic ratios of the studied taxa (*Hordeum vulgare, Triticum aestivum/turgidum*) for the period spanning the eleventh-twelfth through the seventeenth-twentieth centuries are presented in Appendix 3, as well as the details of the mean and standard deviation per periods. Over the 40 charred seeds selected for isotopic analyses, three of them did not provide enough gas for their isotopic analysis (below the detection limit of the mass spectrometer) and were not useful. Hence, we obtained 20 and 17 carbon isotopic records of barley and naked wheat, respectively.

Naked wheat samples had $\delta^{15}N$ (n= 16) and $\delta^{13}C$ values (n=17) ranging from 3.3 to 8.9 ‰ (mean value 6.0 ± 2.0 ‰), and from -23.6 to -21.1 ‰ (mean value -22.6 \pm 0.7 ‰) respectively, and $\delta^{34}S$ (n = 9) ranging from 2.0 ‰ to 17.8 ‰ (mean value 10.8 ± 7.0 ‰). The mean values of C, N and S contents of the charred naked wheat seeds were on average 40.7 ± 12.3 %, 2.5 ± 1.0 % and 0.2 ± 0.1 % respectively. Hulled barley samples had $\delta^{15}N$ (n = 19)

values ranging from 2.3 to 9.0 % (mean value 5.6 ± 1.9 %) and δ^{13} C (n = 20) values ranging 308 from -24.9 to -21.6 % (mean value -23.3 \pm 0.8 %), and δ^{34} S (n = 10) ranging from - 1.1 to 309 19.5 % (mean value 12.5 ± 7.9 %). The mean values of C, N and S contents of the charred 310 hulled barley seeds were on average 43.1 ± 10.2 %, 1.8 ± 0.5 % and 0.2 ± 0.1 % respectively. 311 312 For the entire period, the WUEi, expressed in µmol CO₂ mol⁻¹ H₂O, calculated for 313 barley and naked wheat ranged between 62.2 and 88.4 (75.3 \pm 6.9 μ mol CO₂ mol⁻¹ H₂O, n= 314 20) and between 73.8 and 94.0 (80.9 \pm 6.0 μ mol CO₂ mol⁻¹ H₂O, n= 17), respectively. Water 315 input during barley and wheat cereal filling ranged between 39.7 and 368.7 mm (144.1 \pm 81.5 316 mm, n=20) and from 38.4 to 163.4 mm (102.8 \pm 40.2 mm, n=17) respectively. 317 318 Carbon and nitrogen contents of the naked wheat charred seeds showed an increase 319 320 between the eleventh-twelfth through the seventeenth-twentieth centuries. The same trend was observed for hulled barley, although the N content increase over time seems to be less 321 322 important (Fig. 6). C/N ratios ranged from 17 to 31 (24 \pm 4) for barley and from 10 and 25 (18 \pm 4) for naked wheat (Fig. 6). 323

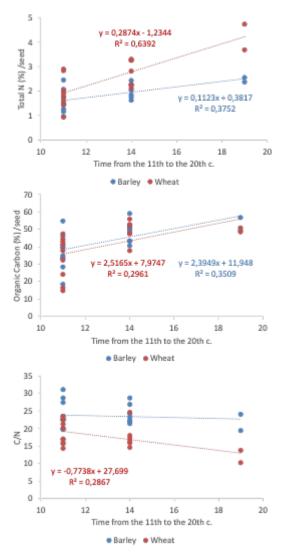


Figure 6: Nitrogen, carbon and C/N ratios for the wheat (red bold circle) and barley (blue bold circles). The time axis is only indicative of the period spanning from the 11th to the 20th c.

For each period, mean δ^{13} C values of naked wheat were always higher (-22.7 ‰ to -22.5 ‰) compared to hulled barley (-23.7 ‰ to -23.0 ‰), and showed smaller variations between the three periods. On the contrary, naked wheat mean δ^{15} N values showed higher variations from 5.4 ‰ (eleventh-twelfth centuries) to 8.0 ‰ (seventeenth-twentieth centuries 17^{th} -20th c.) compared to hulled barley (5.4 ‰ during the fourteenth -sixteenth centuries to 6.1 ‰ for the seventeenth-twentieth centuries). For both naked wheat and hulled barley, δ^{34} S showed two groups of values (below 7 ‰ and above 15 ‰, Appendix 3, Fig. 7) during the first period, but not during the two following periods, exhibiting only δ^{34} S values higher than 15 ‰. The lowest reconstructed precipitation rate during cereal filling derived from the nitrogen isotopes were calculated for both naked wheat and hulled barley for the 17^{th} -20th c. (53 ± 22 mm and 92 ± 13 mm respectively), while the highest precipitation rate was found

during the eleventh-twelfth centuries both for naked wheat $(133 \pm 74 \text{ mm})$ and hulled barley $(128 \pm 81 \text{ mm})$, although the latter was very close to the mean value calculated for the fourteenth -sixteenth centuries (Appendix 3). The higher calculated annual precipitation using the $\Delta^{13}C$ of hulled barley were observed during the fourteenth -sixteenth centuries $(190 \pm 102 \text{ mm})$ or $142 \pm 52 \text{ mm}$ if we remove the two outliers JR 61 and JR 62 samples) and the lowest during the eleventh-twelfth centuries $(109 \pm 45 \text{ mm})$.

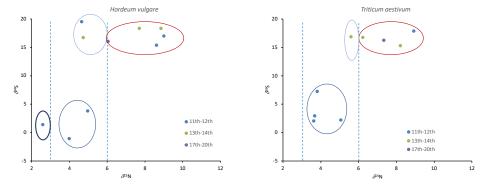


Figure 7: $\delta^{34}S$ values with respect to the $\delta^{15}N$ of hulled barley and naked wheat for the three studied periods.

We did not find isotopic differences between the different studied periods for naked wheat (Kruskal Wallis tests, δ^{13} C: chi-squared = 1.2476, p-value = 0.583, δ^{15} N: chi-squared = 2.4835, p-value = 0.345, δ^{34} S: chi-squared = 2.2044, p-value = 0.413) and hulled barley (Kruskal Wallis tests, δ^{13} C: chi-squared = 2.7036, p-value = 0.26, δ^{15} N: chi-squared = 1.0665, p-value = 0.616, δ^{34} S: chi-squared = 2.2182, p-value = 0.437).

Discussion

To gain a detailed understanding of changes in the wooded and agricultural landscapes of the Haouz plain over the last millennium, we decided to structure the discussion chronologically, by cross-referencing the archaeobotanical and isotopic data available for each period. We discuss the isotopic values of the first period (eleventh-twelfth centuries) in detail compared to the other periods, as it presents the higher number of samples. It also seemed important to detail for this first period our interpretations of the δ^{15} N, δ^{34} S and δ^{13} C in terms of the presence/absence of manure, the homogeneity/heterogeneity of the terroirs and the availability of water, allowing us to get straight to the point for the following periods.

The golden age of Aghmat (eleventh-twelfth centuries)

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Founded around the tenth century, Aghmat underwent rapid development during the eleventh-366 twelfth centuries, experiencing strong economic growth. Samples from this period provide the 367 earliest known archaeological evidence of the plant landscapes and productions of this region. 368 At that time, the inhabitants of the site collected wood on the shaded slopes of the High Atlas 369 (Tetraclinis articulata, Quercus coccifera/ilex, Fraxinus) and on the Ourika riverbanks 370 (Populus/Salix, Monocotyledon) (Fig. 5). These woods account for half of the fuel, the other 371 half being made up of a wide variety of fruit trees (Vitis vinifera, Ficus, Punica granatum, 372 373 Olea europaea, Rosaceae prunoideae, R. maloideae). In textual sources, the recurrent description of abundant gardens, both on the outskirts of the city and within the city, 374 underlines the importance of local horticulture and arboriculture (Al-Bakrî, 1911; Al-Idrîsî, 375 1866). We can assume that the abundance of pruning waste generated by urban arboriculture 376 meant that this wood was regularly available and reused as domestic fuel. Seed remains also 377 378 confirm local consumption of these fruits, with figs and grapes being the most prevalent, as well as the production of olive oil. The latter is thought to have been small-scale, and intended 379 380 for domestic consumption, given the absence of large production structures (olive presses). Other consumed plant species include hulled barley, naked wheat, large-seeded legumes, and 381 flax, in other words a typical agrohorticultural diversity for Morocco at that time (Ruas 2018). 382 The scarcity or absence of chaff and pod elements suggests that these were ready-to-eat 383 elements, and it remains to be seen whether they were locally grown or imported. 384 This question can be addressed to some extent with the δ^{34} S of both barley and wheat, 385 showing two distinct groups of values for both cereals, with mean values of $2.6 \pm 2.5\%$ (n=7) 386 387

This question can be addressed to some extent with the $\delta^{-4}S$ of both barley and wheat, showing two distinct groups of values for both cereals, with mean values of $2.6 \pm 2.5\%$ (n=7) and $17.0 \pm 1.3\%$ (n=12) (Fig. 7). As sulfur is a crucial microelement for plant metabolism, and as the main source for the plants is taken from the soil through the roots, with a limited isotopic fractionation between soil S and seed S (1‰; Tcherkez & Tea, 2013), hence the $\delta^{34}S$ of Aghmat charred seeds may enhance the hypothesis of two distinct cultivation areas with distinct soil $\delta^{34}S$. To our knowledge, no direct studies providing the $\delta^{34}S$ of the soil in the very specific area of Aghmat is available. However, in the Amensif ore deposit located in the Haouz plain, at about 57 km SW of our study area, Jinari et al. (2023) identified two distinct groups of $\delta^{34}S$ values, one centered around 6 ‰ and the other between 11 and 15‰. If we take into account the concomitant $\delta^{15}N$ values carried out on charred seed remains (Fig. 6), we can suggest for this specific phase two to four different wheat and barley cultivated lands, characterized by different manure managements.

Regarding cereal cultivation, for each suggested lands, the small difference between values of $\delta^{15}N$ of barley and wheat suggests that both crops were grown under the same

manuring conditions (Fraser et al., 2011). Both barley and wheat $\delta^{15}N$ values reflect mixed 400 agricultural practices, likely with lands cultivated without manuring (<3%), and lands 401 managed with low (4 to 6 %) to high (>7%) manuring intensity (Bogaard et al., 2013; Styring 402 et al., 2016). It is difficult to disentangle the multiple causes of the $\delta^{15}N$ variations of both 403 cereal crops, and hence to explain precisely the farming conditions. The higher $\delta^{15}N$ may be 404 explained by stall manure input (with and offset of about 4 % compared to unmanured crops; 405 Steele and Daniel, 1978), but also by soil types and environmental factors affecting soil 406 nitrogen isotopic composition, such as aridity and nitrogen loss (Fiorentino et al., 2014). 407 Using our δ^{15} N barley values and the annual precipitation reconstructed following Hartman & 408 Danin, (2010) and Styring et al., (2016) methods, our data plot in the no/low to medium 409 manuring level bands and in the low precipitation level (50 to 300 mm). These reconstructed 410 low precipitations are in agreement with the anomalies of precipitation described by Till & 411 Guiot (1990), showing several drought years and generally dryer conditions for the eleventh-412 twelfth centuries, when the North Atlantic oscillation (NAO) is positive on the Mediterranean 413 414 Basin (before 1350 AD), as suggested by Esper et al. (2007), Trouet et al. (2009), and Wassenburg et al., (2013), enhancing the hypothesis of the aridity impact on the δ^{15} N values. 415 These dryer conditions are also suggested by hulled barley $\Delta^{13}C$ (Fig. 8). Five barley samples 416 417 were under hydric stress, against only one for naked wheat, suggesting that wheat is moderately to well-watered, likely through irrigation (Fig. 8). Including the sulfur isotopes 418 (Fig. 9), we identified four different groups of crops, cultivated in at least three different soils. 419 Barley cereal filling water input is on average 109±45 mm (Appendix 4, 5), close to the SE 420 Spain values described by Araus et al. (1997) for older chronologies. In fact, when we 421 compare the WUEi values with Mora-Gonzales (2017), we observe that most of the wheat and 422 barley are below the proposed theoretical level of hydric stress (85 µmol CO₂ mol-1 H₂O, 423 Appendix 4). Even taking into account the limits for each species and the differences that 424 could be expected, irrigation appears as a likely solution adopted in most lands, with few 425 exceptions. However, the observed $\delta^{15}N$ barley range might also suggest different winter and 426 spring crop varieties, associated to different agronomic practices of local farmers in diverse 427 428 environments of the Haouz plain, or reflect imported crops.

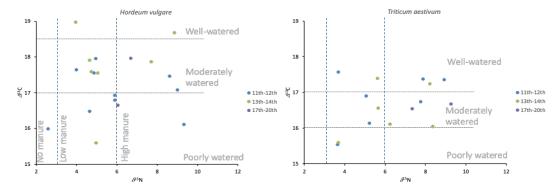


Figure 8: $\Delta^{13}C$ against $\delta^{15}N$ of both barley (left panel) and wheat (right panel)

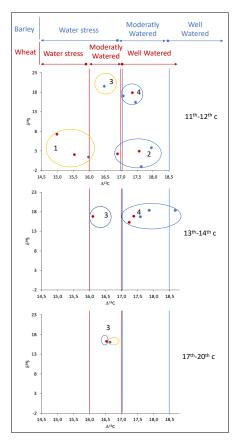


Figure 9: $\Delta^{13}C$ against $\delta^{34}S$ of both hulled barley (blue) and naked wheat (red), using Wallace *et al.*, 2013 thresholds.

Aghmat's last centuries (thirteenth-fourteenth centuries)

After this golden age, the city persists for another two centuries before being impacted by the wider economic crisis affecting Morocco during the fourteenth century, resulting in abandonment by its elites. The two centuries leading up to this abandonment show subtle differences from the previous phase in terms of supply strategies, particularly for fuel. Firstly, we note changes in the relative importance of the various fruit taxa, with the disappearance of grapevine and fig tree in the anthracological spectrum, while we observe a significant increase

in the Maloideae, from 10% to 21%, and the olive tree, from 5.8% to 12%. At the same time, the proportion of riparian species increases (from 15.8 to 25%), while the proportion of oak forest species remains stable, although with a significant increase in the proportion of araar trees. These variations in fuel composition could be explained by a change in resources availability: a reduction in the fruitwood resource could have led to more intensive exploitation of certain nearby areas, in particular the Ourika riverbanks. The increase in the proportion of Maloideae is difficult to interpret, as these may correspond to cultivated fruit species (e.g. Malus, Pyrus) as well as hedge or forest edge species (e.g. Crataegus, Rosa). In terms of consumed species, there is continuity, both in the exploited diversity and in the type of remains encountered, with the appearance of three new fruit trees: the almond (Prunus dulcis), the date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*) and the jujube (*Ziziphus* sp.). Although palm and jujube trees were known in southern Morocco at this time, this is the first archaeobotanical record of almond tree in the country (Ruas 2018). The local nature of the encountered fruit species is debatable; charcoal analysis confirms the presence of pomegranate, olive and possibly apricot/almond/peach trees (Rosaceae prunoideae with large rays) in the local landscape.

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The frequency of cereals in the samples indicates their central role in the diet of urban populations during this period. The question remains as to whether they came from local or imported sources. The narrow range of variations of the δ^{34} S of hulled barley (16.7 to 18.3 ‰) and naked wheat (from 15.3 to 16.9 ‰) contrasts with the previous period, highlighting that crops were cultivated in the same region/land. These seeds were grown under no/low to medium manure inputs, as shown with δ^{15} N range values of both hulled barley (3.7 to 8.6 ‰) and naked wheat (from 3.4 to 8.0 ‰). Generally, the conditions of crop cultivation seem moderately-watered, as suggested by the Δ^{13} C (16.5 ‰ for wheat and 17.7 ‰ for barley) and WUEi with values below 85 µmol CO₂ mol⁻¹ H₂O (Appendix 4, 5). If we focus on barley WUEi, it is likely that climate conditions were slightly wetter compared to the previous period (71.8 and 78.2 µmol CO₂ mol⁻¹ H₂O, respectively) in agreement with the negative North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) phase with cooler and wetter conditions downwards from 1300 AD onwards (Esper et al., 2007; Trouet et al., 2009).

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Towards the ruralization of Aghmat (fifteenth-sixteenth centuries)

Archaeological excavations in this phase indicate a clear ruralization of the town, reflected in both material culture and architectural changes. For example, we identified in the palatial

complex of the site the construction of mud walls aimed at redefining the internal spaces. The natural resources exploited during this period also bear witness to a radical change. As a result, riparian vegetation has almost completely disappeared, with rare monocotyledons being the last possible evidence of its existence. Regarding the exploitation of the oak forest, Tetraclinis has disappeared, Fraxinus is still present, and Quercus has increased significantly, rising from 2.1% in the 14th c. to 23% in the sixteenth century. But the most notable change concerns fruit trees: only pomegranate and olive remain in the spectrum, the latter alone accounting for 62% of the charcoal fragments studied for this phase. This sudden boom of olive proportions in the anthracological spectrum is remarkable, and the question arises as to whether these results are a sign of the emergence of a specialized production area, the economic scope of which remains to be defined (local, regional production?). The sudden disappearance or decline of the riparian vegetation, *Tetraclinis* and *Fraxinus* seems more difficult to explain: does it depend on climatic factors, leading to the instability of the Ourika riverbanks and to conditions unfavorable for some forest species, such as Tetraclinis and Fraxinus? Or on the development of certain crops which have taken the place of said species, for example by dedicating the Ourika riverbanks to olive cultivation? Or to the rise of other practices that our approach cannot highlight, such as pastoralism, some species, such as Fraxinus, being particularly affected by grazing? The data needs to be amplified before a more solid hypothesis can be proposed.

Changes are also observed in agrohorticultural production, although not in terms of the consumed/exploited diversity, since the spectrum remains broadly the same, although two new taxa appeared: peach (*Prunus persica*) and common millet (*Panicum miliaceum*). It is interesting to note that, until now, only sites in the north of Morocco have yielded millet, the main medieval site in the south, Îgîlîz, having yielded another Panicoideae, sorghum (Ruas 2018). Another striking difference with the previous phase is the discovery in one of the houses of cereal threshing by-products, composed of cereals (oat, probably *Avena fatua*, and barley), mixed with rachis (barley, naked wheat) and numerous seeds of wild plants, mainly grasses (see Appendix 1). This sample is the first indisputable evidence of local cereal production and processing within the ruralized city. Most of the weeds encountered in this sample are winter therophytes growing on dry, clayey soils (i.e. *Anthemis cotula, Avena fatua, Lolium temulentum, Medicago polymorpha, Sherardia arvensis*), which is consistent with the immediate surroundings of the site.

This phase is the least understood for the site, due to the scarcity of excavated contexts. From an archaeobotanical point of view, only one sample was studied, which yielded both charcoal and seeds; for this reason, the proposed results are exploratory and need to be strengthened. It should be noted, however, that this is the only modern/contemporary archaeobotanical sample studied in Morocco to date.

In terms of tree vegetation, the trends observed during the previous phase seem to be strengthening, with the proportion of olive trees increasing still (91% of the identified charcoal fragments), and forest species decreasing further (less than 1% oak). Some species appear to make a tentative comeback, particularly the riverbank species, perhaps as a result of different management of this area. For the time being, the Aghmat Ourika riverbanks have been preserved, and tree vegetation is fully developing. As far as agriculture is concerned, the diversity is similar to that identified in the previous phases (barley, naked wheat, fig, date, grapevine, and flax), but the sample does not allow us to ascertain the local nature of these crops, apart from the fig and pomegranate trees, identified by charcoal fragments. Regarding agricultural practices derived from stable isotopes, the small number of samples available for this period does not permit strong conclusions. The very similar δ^{34} S values for naked wheat (16.2 ‰) and barley (16.1 ‰) suggest these two cereals were probably grown in the same region or on land in close proximity, and likely cultivated with higher levels of manure inputs compared to the previous periods, as shown by the $\delta^{15}N$, especially for wheat $(8.0 \pm 1.4 \%)$ in comparison with barley (6.1 \pm 0.5 %). $\Delta^{13}C$, WUEi and the water input for naked wheat and hulled barley (Fig. 8, 9, Appendix 1, 4, 5, 6) suggest these crops were generally moderately watered. The mean nitrogen and carbon contents of the wheat and barley crops are the highest compared to the previous periods in agreement with the increase of manure inputs all along the three studied periods.

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Conclusion

Our interdisciplinary pilot study makes it possible to establish for the first time the agricultural and forestry dynamics over the last millennium in this region that seem related to changes that are essentially socio-economic in nature, but may also be environmental. Although the exploited species appear to have remained relatively stable, their relative importance and frequency suggest a change in practices, which can no doubt be linked to changes in economic priorities when the settlement's status changed at the end of the Middle Ages. Environmental conditions would have favored regional or even local farming that did

not necessarily require large-scale irrigation, at least not for cereal growing, the question remaining open for fruit growing.

These various results represent the completion of a first stage of work, which is now being continued in the form of a doctoral thesis (Badri ongoing). One of the medium-term objectives is to strengthen the archaeobotanical approach by analyzing over a hundred new samples from different sectors and phases of the site. Isotopic analysis will be further developed by creating a current local reference base, including both cereals and fruit trees (grapevine, olive), as they are key elements of the local agricultural system over the last millennium. In addition, two cutting-edge approaches will be carried out on the remains of fruit trees. Firstly, a geometric morphometry approach will be applied to the archaeological grape seeds and olive stones (Terral et al., 2004, 2010), with the aim of shedding light on the varieties used and how they may have changed over time. Lastly, a quantitative ecoanatomical approach will be applied to olive trees charcoals (Terral 2000), to highlight any irrigation of this species over time.

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Ethical Approval

Not applicable

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Appendix 1: Carpological raw data from Aghmat (SU= Stratigraphic Unit; fg.= fragment; XX= the taxa is present).

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saure sp.	seed seed fg.												1												38	1	
lentago lencealata	seed and fo																								4		
loringo sp.	seed 1g.																								129	2	
necoso	seed fg.	3	ī			9						- i													48		- 7
******	seed fg.	-	12			15																			14		2
	tom fg. reet fg.		1		1							2															
ortulaca olerocea	seed		- 6		1	-		-																			
macese swert sp.	epidermal spine seed		1		1	7		1				5													192	4	
nathalaria car	seed fg.					-																			-	1	1
cranita ervendi	seed	í		-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	=	-		-	-		-	-			-	
erandia sp. lose multico	seed seed					1		2																	464		
	seed fg.		-																						93	-	
sone up.	seed seed fg.		1																						59 29	7	
iyerbrium sp.	seed fg.																								3		
Kolum ervene	seed seed																								3		-
sonderes orientes motor () mot	seed seed											1			-										3		
	ment of the control o											-	1		-												
Tetal nun	ber of plants identified remains	62	392	9	58	74	-	48	5	5	51	414	88	33	15	4	-	- 6	5	-	-	13	- 1	-	6064	129	47
Teta	ber of plants identified remains number of unidentified remains Total number of carpophores	62 15 27	392	5	58 XX 58	1 75		4	3		-	415	1 89	3	15	5		-	-			- 13	-		5064 38 6102	129	47
Indeterminate charred corpo	phones seed				XX	- 13	-	-"-	3	-	- 31	*15	1		- 19	5		-	-			-	-	-	6167	-	
	seed fg.	15		5										3													
																	-		-	-				-			
	Tetal number of carpophores phores seed seed fg. inser almond frait pedicel poduncie Amorphous Organie Matter Caprolite					-						- 1					-		-						6		

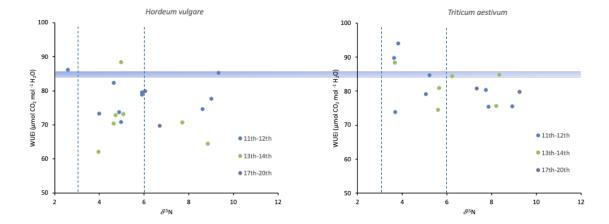
Appendix 2: Anthracological raw data from Aghmat.

Space	VIII	V	XXXIII		XVI	XVI	XXXII	V-VI-VII		
Zone	Qubba	West Palace Garden	South Cistern		West Garden/Courtyard of	North House - North Corridor	Maison nord-Nord	Basin		
Relative dating	11th-12th c.	middle 12th cmiddle	14th cmiddle 14th	14th c.	14th c.	14th c.	early 16th c.	16th-17th c.		
¹⁴ C dating	930 ± 30 BP	800 ± 30 BP	645 ± 30 BP					140 ± 140 BP		
Stratigraphic unit	QUB 4204	PAL 1561	PAL 2361	PAL 1231	PAL 2049 A	PAL 2049B	PAL 2355	PAL 1523		
Type of context	Coal pocket within landfill/Séguia meadow fill	Charcoal pocket (from planting pit?) within garden stratum	Charcoal-rich level end: residual occupation? / discards? / colluvial deposits?	Palace courtyard pit	Charcoal pocket included in 2032 (Ash pocket in a destruction level/garden soil)		Charcoal circulation level	discards		
Sample volume (L)	5	9	2,5	-	4	5	1	7		
Taxon									Total number	r Total %
Acacia /Ficus	2			-	1	-	-	-	3	0,2
Anacardiaceae/cf. Pistacia				5	3	1	1		10	0,7
Arbutus			-	-		1	-		1	0,1
cf. Cistaceae/Ericaceae				-		1	-	-	1	0,1
Cistus				-			1		1	0,1
Ficus	15			2		-		1	18	1,3
Fraxinus	23		5	-	35	9	1	3	76	5,6
cf. Fraxinus	2		1		2				5	0,4
Monocotyledoneae	17	1			40	13	4		74	5,4
Olea europaea	10	60	163	-	35	9	128	132	477	35,0
cf. Olea europaea			6		2	2	6	4	20	1,5
Pistacia lenticus				3		1		1	5	0,4
Populus /Salix	8			-	25	24		2	59	4,3
cf. Populus /Salix	3			-		-			3	0.2
Punica granatum	22	1					6	1	29	2,1
cf. Punica granatum				-	1	-	2		3	0,2
Quercus semp.	10			136	4	4	44	1	199	14.6
Quercus							1		1	0.1
Phillyrea /Rhamnus				4		-			4	0,3
Rosaceae Maloideae	18			-	5	74			97	7,1
cf. Rosaceae Maloideae	-					1			1	0,1
Rosaceae Prunoideae	10		8		6				24	1,8
cf. Rosaceae Prunoideae	2			-				-	2	0,1
Tamarix	-							2	2	0,1
Tetraclinis articulata	25				31	51		1	108	7,9
Vitis vinifera	12		2	-			-	-	14	1,0
Ziziphus								1	1	0,1
Not determinable	3		1				1	-	5	0,4
Undetermined	18	1	14	-	10	9	5	1	57	4,2
Total number of studied fragments	200	63	200	150	200	200	200	150	1363	100,0
Bark	2	1	4	-	6	4	2	-	18	1,3
Node	9	2	2	2	5	1	1	1	21	1,5
Pith	11	2	3	21	2	3	7	5	52	3,8

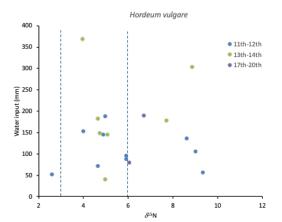
Appendix 3: Isotopic raw data from Aghmat.

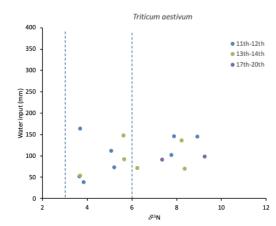
Archeological site	Taxa	Sector	SU	Age	Archeological type remains	Lab Ref	Number of remains	Weight (mg)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰) corrected	Precip (mm) during grain filling Dartman &	N (%)	δ ¹³ C (‰) corrected	C (%)	pCO2 ppm (Law Dome CMAR 2006)	δ ¹³ C _{air} (‰)	Δ ¹³ C (Farquhar et al., 1989)	WUEI (µmol CO2 mol -1 H2O)	Annual precip (mm)	δ ³⁴ S _{VCDT} corrected	S (%)	C/N
						JR19	1	20.17	4.3	158	1,1	-22,5	33.0	283	-6,4	16.5	82,3	71	19,5	0,5	28.8
						JR20	1	14,57	8,3	45	1,4	-23,5	33,7	283	-6,4	17,5	74,7	136	15,4	0,2	23,5
						JR21	1	12,63	8,7	40	2,1	-23.1	34.7	283	-6,4	17.1	77,7	106	17,0	0,3	16,8
						JR22	1	8,52	9,0	36	2.4	-22.2	54.5	283	-6.4	16.1	85.2	56			22.3
		QUB	4204	11th-12th		JR23	1	17,45	4,7	143	1.7	-24,0	39.4	283	-6,4	18.0	70,8	188	3,8	0.1	22,9
						JR24	1	26,11	2,3	300	0,9	-22,1	18,4	283	-6,4	16,0	86,2	52	1,4	0,0	19,7
						JR25	1	12,6	5,6	106	1,5	-23,0	41,0	283	-6,4	16,9	78,9	96			27,4
						JR26	1	14,52	3,7	194	1,3	-23,7	28,2	283	-6,4	17,6	73,2	153	-1,1	0,1	22,6
		PALAIS	1895 1/2	12th	1	JR38	1	8,37	5,6	106	2,0	-22,8	39,4	282	-6,4	16,8	79,6	88			19,8
		PALAIS	1055 1/2	1201		JR39	1	9,26	4,6	147	1,5	-23,6	45,7	282	-6,4	17,6	73,7	145			31,1
]	JR47	1	14,89	7,4	61	1,8	-23,8	40,5	280	-6,4	17,9	70,7	178	18,3	0,2	22,2
		HAMMAM	4327	14th	caryopse	JR48	1	7,37	4,3	158	2,2	-23,9	50,9	280	-6,4	17,9	70,4	183			23,2
						JR49	1	14,32	4,4	154	2,0	-23,6	43,1	280	-6,4	17,6	72,9	148	16,7	0,2	21,4
						JR58	1	9,61	4,7	143	2,3	-21,6	49,8	280	-6,4	15,6	88,4	40			22,1
1	Hordeum vulgare			14th-16th	,	JR59	1	5,61	4,8	138	2,4	-23,5	58,8	280	-6,4	17,6	73,2	145			24,3
		JARDIN/COUR OUEST MAISON NORD	2032			JR60	1	10,5				-23,6	51,8	280	-6,4	17,7	72,3	156			
						JR61	1	14,02	8,6	42	1,6	-24,6	43,3	280	-6,4	18,7	64,5	303	18,3	0,5	26,9
						JR62	1	11,91	3,7	196	1,7	-24,9	49,6	280	-6,4	19,0	62,2	369			28,7
						JR79	1	8,51													
						JR80	1	7,46													
		BASSINS	1523	17th-20th		JR81	1	9,38						070							
						JR82	1	22,05	5,7	102	2,5	-22,6	49,3 56.7	279	-6,3	16,6	79,9	80	16,1	0,2	19,4
				Mean 11tl		JR83	1	8,17	6,4 5.7	83 128	2,4	-23,9 -23,0		279	-6,3	18,0	69,8	189		0.2	24,1
				2,3	128 81	1,6 0,5	0,6	36,8 9,8	283	- 6,4	17,0 0,7	78,2 5.2	109 45	9,3 9,0	0,2	4,4					
				5,4	127	2,0	-23,7	48,5	280	-6,4	17,7	71,8	190	17,8	0,2	24,1					
Aghmat (541 m.a.s.l)				Mean 14 SD 14tl					1.8	55	0,3	1.0	5.9	280	0.0	1.0	71,8	102	0.9	0,3	24,1
				6.1	92	2,4	-23,2	53,0	279	-6,3	17.3	74,8	135	16,1	0,2	21,7					
				0,5	13	0.1	0.9	5.2	2/9	0,0	0,9	7.2	77	10,1	0,2	3,3					
				SD 17th	-2011 C	JR27	1	10,65	7,5	60	1.9	-22,8	42.6	283	-6,4	16.7	80.4	102			22,5
		QUB				JR28	1	18,44	7,3	00	1,0	-23,5	16,4	283	-6,4	17,5	74,3	158			22,3
			4204	11th-12th	h caryopse	JR29	1	15,15	3,3	216	2.9	-21,6	41.1	283	-6,4	15.5	89,7	52	2,0	0,1	14,3
						JR30	1	6,8	7,6	57	2.0	-23,4	47.1	283	-6.4	17.4	75.4	146	2,0	0,1	23,5
						JR31	1	12.11	8,6	41	1,8	-23,4	37.6	283	-6,4	17.4	75.5	145	17.8	0.2	21.2
						JR32	1	16.6	3,4	213	1,4	-23,6	23.9	283	-6.4	17,6	73.8	163	2,9	0.1	17.0
						JR33	1	16,85	3,5	204	1,6	-21,1	32.3	283	-6.4	15,0	94,0	38	7,2	0,1	20,0
						JR34	1	18,78	4,8	138	0,9	-22,9	14,6	283	-6,4	16,9	79,1	112	2,2	0,0	16,1
		PALAIS	1895 1/2	12th	fragment	JR40	1	7,1	4,9	132	2,8	-22,2	44,2	282	-6,4	16,1	84,7	73	/	- 92	15,6
1	l	HAMMAM	4327	14th	1	JR50	1	4,77	8,0	49	2,1	-22,1	37,7	280	-6,4	16,0	84,8	69			17,9
1	l				1	JR63	1	13,92	5,3	117	2,8	-23,3	47,8	280	-6,4	17,4	74,4	147	16,9	0,3	17,1
	Triticum aestivum/durum					JR64	1	12,24	7,9	52	3,2	-23,2	47,2	280	-6,4	17,2	75,6	136	15,3	0,3	14,6
	,	JARDIN/COUR OUEST MAISON NORD	2032	14th-16th		JR65	1	8,73	3,4	214	2,3	-21,6	55,6	280	-6,4	15,6	88,4	54			24,7
1	l				caryopse	JR66	1	10,86	5,3	115	3,3	-22,5	52,0	280	-6,4	16,6	80,9	92			15,8
						JR67	1	14,97	5,9	96	3,2	-22,1	52,7	280	-6,4	16,1	84,4	72	16,8	0,3	16,2
		DASSINS	4522	4.7kt 20kt]	JR84	1	7,89	8,9	37	3,7	-22,6	50,6	279	-6,3	16,7	79,7	98			13,8
									7,0	68	4,7	-22,5	48,4	279	-6,3	16,5	80,7	91	16,2	0,2	10,2
			Mean 11th - 12th c								1,9	-22,7	33,3	283	-6,4	16,7	80,8	110	6,4	0,1	18,8
				Mean 11tl	n - 12th c			SD 11th-12th c													3,5
									2,1	74	0,7	0,9	12,2		0,0	0,9	7,3	47	6,7	0,1	3,3
					-12th c				2,1 6,0	74 107	0,7 2,8	0,9 - 22,5	12,2 48,8	280	0,0 -6,4	0,9 16,5	7,3 81,4	47 95	6,7 16,3	0,1	17,7
				SD 11th	-12th c th-16th									280							
				SD 11th Mean 14	-12th c th-16th h-16th h-20th c				6,0	107	2,8	-22,5	48,8	280	-6,4	16,5	81,4	95	16,3	0,3	17,7

Appendix 4: Water use efficiency against $\delta^{15}N$ of both barley (left panel) and wheat (right panel). The blue line represents the reference limit of hydric stress (> 85 um)



Appendix 5: Water input during cereal filling (mm) against $\delta^{15}N$ of both barley (left panel) and wheat (right panel)





Appendix 6: Mean $\Delta^{13}C$ Wheat against mean $\Delta^{13}C$ Barley of the three studied periods at Aghmat. The blue shaded areas represent the water limits as described by Wallace et al. 2013.

