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1	Bone deep: variation in stable isotope ratios and histomorphometric											
2	measurements of bone remodelling within adult humans											
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4	Fahy, G.E. ^{1*} , Deter, C. ¹ , Pitfield, R. ¹ , Miszkiewicz, J.J. ² , Mahoney, P ¹											
5												
6	¹ Human Osteology Lab, Skeletal Biological Research Centre, School of Anthropology and											
7	Conservation, University of Kent, Canterbury, UK											
8	² School of Archaeology and Anthropology, College of Arts and Social Sciences, A.D. Hope											
9	Building, The Australian National University, 14 Ellery Crescent, Acton ACT 2601 Australia											
10												
11												
12	Corresponding author: Dr. Geraldine Fahy*											
13	School of Anthropology and Conservation,											
14	Marlowe Building, University of Kent.											
15	Canterbury. UK. CT2 7NR.											
16	Email: <u>g.fahy@kent.ac.uk</u>											
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31 Abstract

Stable carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) isotope studies of ancient human diet increasingly 32 33 sample several skeletal elements within an individual. Such studies draw upon differences in 34 bone turnover rates to reconstruct diet during different periods of time within an individual's 35 lifetime. Rib and femoral bone, with their respectively fast and slow remodeling rates, are the bones most often sampled to reconstruct shorter and longer term signals of diet prior to death. 36 It is poorly understood if δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N vary between bone types within a single individual. 37 or if this variation corresponds with bone turnover rate (BTR). Here, we determined δ^{13} C and 38 δ^{15} N for ten different bones from ten adult human skeletons (n=5 males; n=5 females). 39 Isotope values were compared to the rate that each bone remodeled, calculated from osteon 40 population (OPD) density. Results reveal that isotope ratios varied within each skeleton 41 $(\delta^{13}C: max = -1.58\%; \delta^{15}N: max = 3.05\%)$. Humeri, metacarpals, and ribs had the highest rate 42 of bone remodelling; the occipital bone had the lowest. A regression analyses revealed that 43 higher rates of bone remodeling are significantly and negatively correlated with lower $\delta^{15}N$. 44 Our results suggest that the occipital bone, with its slow rate of bone renewal, may prove 45 useful for isotopic studies that reconstruct diet over longer periods of time within an 46 individual's lifetime. Isotope studies that compare individual skeletal elements between 47 48 populations should standardize their methodology to bones with either a slow or fast turnover rate. 49

50

51 Highlights

- We present stable carbon and nitrogen isotope ratios and bone remodelling rates for
 ten different bones in ten adult human skeletons.
- Humeri, ribs and metacarpals had the fastest bone turnover.
- Occipital had the slowest bone turnover.
- Bones with higher turnover rates generally had lower δ^{15} N.
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58 Keywords
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- 59 Stable isotopes. Bone remodelling.
- 60
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63 **1. Introduction**

Stable isotope analyses of biological tissues can provide a long-term record of diet (Deniro & 64 Epstein 1978; Rundel et al. 2016). Because of this, stable carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) 65 isotope analyses of bone and dentin collagen have become a standard approach in 66 archaeological science for reconstructing dietary ecology of past modern human populations 67 (Ambrose & DeNiro 1989; Deniro & Epstein 1978; DeNiro & Epstein 1981; Hedges & Law 68 69 1989; Reynard & Hedges 2008), with applications extending to non-human primates and fossilized remains (Bocherens et al. 1999; Fahy et al. 2013; Fahy et al. 2014; Fahy et al. 70 71 2015; Sponheimer et al. 2013). Increasingly, such studies incorporate isotopic signals from 72 several skeletal elements to reconstruct ancient diet during different periods of time within an individual's lifetime (Sealy et al. 1995; Cox & Sealy 1997; Schroeder et al. 2009; Pollard et 73 74 al. 2012; Chenery et al. 2012; Lamb et al. 2014). The adult human rib and femur are the skeletal elements most commonly sampled because of apparent differences in bone turnover 75 rates (see Section 1.3). However, little is known about relationships between $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ 76 and remodelling in other skeletal elements. Here we 1) explore variation in $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ in 77 ten different bones from ten archaeological human skeletons and 2) identify associations 78 79 between these ratios and histomorphometric measurements of bone remodelling.

80

81 1.1 Stable carbon and nitrogen isotopes

Ratios of heavy to light stable isotopes of carbon $({}^{13}C/{}^{12}C)$ and nitrogen $({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)$ display 82 distinctive patterns of distribution that enable them to be employed in the interpretation of 83 84 various aspects of life history. Body tissue isotopic composition is highly influenced by food and drink consumed in life (Sealy et al., 1995), variation in food sources (Hopkins & 85 86 Ferguson 2012) and water availability (Stewart et al. 1995; Amundson 2003; Swap & Aranibar 2004); consequently isotopic analyses of body tissues can offer clues to aspects of 87 88 diet and lifestyle. The main source of terrestrial carbon is atmospheric CO₂ whereas the main source of marine carbon is dissolved CO₂ and biocarbonate ions (HCO₃.). These sources of 89 carbon express δ^{13} C of -7.5 and +1.5‰, respectively (Lee-Thorp et al. 1989; Van Klinken 90 1991). The differences then continue up the food chain from primary producers to apex 91 predators (Lee-Thorp et al. 1989; Van Klinken 1991). This expression is dependent on the 92 biochemical mode of photosynthesis with most plants utilizing the C₃ cycle (expressing δ^{13} C 93 around -26‰) compared to those few utilizing the C₄ pathway (expressing δ^{13} C around -94 12‰) (Smith & Epstein 1971). Nitrogen incorporation into plant biomolecules can occur in 95 three different ways: direct nitrogen fixation from air, ammonium or nitrate in soil water, 96

97 recycled organic nitrogen from soil (Lee-Thorp 2008). Similar to δ^{13} C, there is a stepwise 98 increase in δ^{15} N with trophic level (DeNiro & Epstein 1981). Isotope data from bone collagen 99 have long been shown to largely reflect the protein component of an individual's diet 100 (Ambrose & Norr 1993; Lee-Thorp et al. 1989; Schoeninger et al. 1997; Schoeninger et al. 101 1998; Schroeder et al. 2009).

102

103 1.2 Bone remodeling rates

Human bones form through intramembranous and endochondrial ossification. Bone modeling 104 105 commences in utero and continues until the early teenage years, depending upon the bone type (Pitfield et al., 2017). Bone remodelling occurs throughout the whole human lifespan 106 (Burr & Allen 2014; Katsimbri 2017; Robling et al. 2006; Peacock 2010) as osteoclasts 107 resorb old tissue and osteoblasts produce new tissue (Robling et al. 2008; Miszkiewicz & 108 Mahoney 2016). Metabolic activity, including the exchange of nutrients, calcium, oxygen and 109 mechanical signaling (Miszkiewicz & Mahoney 2016), along with targeted remodeling, 110 maintains and repairs bone (Burr 2002; Robling et al. 2001). As new bone forms, it 111 incorporates the isotopic composition of an individual's diet (Fry & Arnold 1982). However, 112 the rate that different bone within a skeleton remodel is not consistent. Age, health, 113 114 biological sex, mechanical loading, and genetic predisposition can all regulate the rate at which Bone Multicellular Units (BMUs) add or remove bone (Burr 2002; Sealy et al. 1995; 115 116 Pfeiffer et al. 2006; Hedges et al. 2007; Pollard et al. 2012; Robling et al. 2001; Wolff 1899).

Evidence of remodelling is retained in bone as basic structural and somewhat 117 118 independent functional units, as secondary osteons. Osteon population density (OPD) is a measure of complete and fragmentary secondary osteons per section area, which together 119 120 represent past remodeling events (Frost 1994; Gocha & Agnew 2016). As such, OPD can represent a measure of bone remodeling dynamics, or accrued bone density (Miszkiewicz 121 122 2015). Increasing OPD is closely associated with advancing age, and eventually an asymptote is reached where new secondary osteon formations begin to remove traces of earlier osteons 123 (Stout & Lueck 1995). When age-at-death is controlled for, OPD variation may indicate 124 differences in bone structure and response to mechanical stress (Britz et al. 2009; Schlecht et 125 al. 2012), dietary changes (e.g., Pfeiffer, S. K., & Lazenby 1994; Paine & Brenton 2006), or 126 health status (e.g., Martin & Armelagos 1979; Storm et al. 1993), or general human lifestyle 127 128 (Miszkiewicz & Mahoney 2016).

129 An estimated rate of remodelling varies across bone types, because of surface to 130 volume ratio differences in bone shape and size (Parfitt 2002). For example, a cancellous 131 bone sample (~135 μ m thick) from a modern adult human ilium remodels at an average rate of 17.7% per year, whereas a turnover rate for a cortical sample (~1225 µm thick) from the 132 same individual would remodel at approximately 7.7% per year (Parfitt 2002). When 133 considering cortical bone only, its renewal varies quite substantially throughout the skeleton 134 (Hobson & Clark 1992; Klinken & Mook 1990). For example, ribs are bones are never at rest 135 due to the load arising from respiration (Skedros et al. 2013); with a greater surface area to 136 volume ratio ribs have a relatively fast cortical turnover rate, which is approximately 4% a 137 year after age 50 (Frost 1969; Hill & Orth 1998). The dense cortical bone of the femoral shaft 138 139 is thought to have a slow turnover rate relative to rib bone (Hill & Orth 1998; Hedges et al. 2007; Skedros et al. 2013). 140

141

142 1.3 Human bone remodelling and isotope variation

Dietary reconstruction using standard isotope methodology tries to account for variation in 143 bone remodelling. Studies compare various skeletal elements between individuals; usually 144 only one bone type is sampled, though sometimes one bone is substituted for another (e.g. 145 Fahy et al. 2015). Multiple sampling of bone (and teeth) is increasingly utilised to reconstruct 146 diet during different periods of time from an individual's lifetime (e.g. Lamb et al. 2014). 147 148 For example, it is thought that the slower turnover of femoral bone collagen, isotopically, reflects a longer-term and average dietary signal, which may be more than ten years prior to 149 150 death (Hedges et al. 2007). In contrast, ribs, with faster turnover rates, may represent diet from a more recent period prior to death (e.g. Cox & Sealy 1997). 151

Olsen et al. (2014) directly compared δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N to an inferred rate of remodelling for 152 different bones within 59 adult human skeletons. While they suggest that paleodiet 153 154 researchers should avoid sampling collagen close to pathological lesion sites due to differing isotope values, they state that normal, non-pathological bone show limited intraskeletal 155 variation in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. Similarly, DeNiro & Schoeniger (1983) examined the mean 156 isotopic composition of collagen extracted from mink humeri and femora and found that it 157 did not differ significantly for either δ^{13} C or δ^{15} N, leading them to suggest that differences in 158 the isotopic composition of collagen extracted from different bones of an individual are 159 small. Research by Larson & Longstaffe (2007) on deer, Brady et al. (2008) on sheep and 160 Luz & Kolodny (1985) on rat bone, looked at the relationship between $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ and 161 osteon lacunar density, and research by Balasse et al. (1999) examined the intra-individual 162 variability in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N of mineralized tissues in modern steers. All of these studies 163 reported significant variation in isotopic ratios for different bones from the same individual. 164

- 165 **2. Materials and methods**
- 166

167 2.1 Samples

Ten human skeletons, dating to the early medieval period, from St Gregory's cemetery in 168 Canterbury, England, were selected (Hicks and Hicks 2001). Historical texts state that burials 169 were from a single socio-economic group that lived and worked in Canterbury, and represent 170 171 non-catastrophic mortality (Brent 1879; Duncombe 1785; Somner 1703). We selected complete individuals without skeletal signs of pathology. This collection is curated in the 172 Skeletal Biology Research Centre, University of Kent, UK. All sectioning adhered to the 173 British Association of Biological Anthropology and Osteoarchaeology code of practice 174 (2014), and guidelines for invasive sampling (Mays, et al., 2013). No permits were required 175 as these are archaeological samples from before the 19th Century AD. 176

177

178 2.2 Collagen extraction and IRMS

Bone samples were taken from the same location on each bone from ten skeletons. Sampled 179 bones were femur, tibia, rib (right 5th), humerus, metacarpal, occipital, pelvis, clavicle, radius 180 and thoracic vertebrae. Samples were taken from the anterior mid shaft region of the tibia and 181 182 humerus, the posterior mid shaft region of the femur, and from the mid-shaft metacarpal, radius, left 5th rib, clavicle, and the planum region of the occipital. An attempt was made to 183 184 separate cortical and cancellous bone for isotope ratios, but this proved difficult for cancellous-rich bones such as the rib. Prior to sampling, bone surfaces were cleaned by air 185 186 abrasion with Al₂O₃; approximately 100-300mg of bone was sampled. Collagen extraction was done following Longin (1971), Brown et al. (1988) and Richards & Hedges (1999). 187 188 Isotopic measurements were carried out using Elemental Analysis - Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry (EA-IRMS) by Iso Analytical Limited (UK). The analytical precision, 189 190 calculated from repeated analysis of internal and international standards, was better than 0.2‰ (1 σ) for δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. 191

192

193 2.3 Histological sample preparation and analysis

194 Standard histological methods were used (e.g., Crowder & Stout 2011; Miszkiewicz 2015; 195 Miszkiewicz 2016). Dry un-decalcified transverse thin sections (each section was 196 approximately 0.7 ± 0.2 cm thick) were removed from the anterior mid shaft region of the tibia 197 and humerus, the posterior mid shaft region of the femur, and complete sections were

removed from the mid-shaft metacarpal, mid-shaft radius, mid-shaft left 5th rib, mid-shaft 198 clavicle, and occipital. Sections were taken adjacent to isotope sampling locations in all 199 cases. All sections were removed using an electronic drill (Dremel Rotary Tool®) with a 200 diamond wafering blade. Sections were embedded in epoxy resin (Buehler EpoxiCure®), 201 202 further reduced to 0.3 ± 0.1 cm using a Buehler Isomet 4000 precision saw, and fixed to glass microscope slides (Evo Stick® resin). Each section was ground (Buehler EcoMet® 300), 203 polished with a 0.3 mm aluminum oxide powder (Buehler® Micro-Polish II), cleaned in an 204 ultrasonic bath, dehydrated in 95-100% ethanol, cleared (Histoclear®), and mounted with a 205 206 coverslip using a xylene-based mounting medium (DPX[®]).

207 2.4 Microscopy

208 Imaging and histomorphometric procedures followed standard methods (e.g., Villa & Lynnerup 2010; Miszkiewicz & Mahoney 2016). Imaging was undertaken using an Olympus 209 210 BX51 compound microscope with an Olympus DP25 microscope camera. Images were obtained from five regions of interest (ROIs) from each bone using CELL® Live Biology 211 212 Imaging software. Each ROI was positioned adjacent to the periosteum within the anterior cortex, with the exception of the femur (sub-perisotealy within the posterior cortex), ribs and 213 214 occipital (sub-periostealy within the external cortex). The number of secondary osteons and secondary osteon fragments were counted in each ROI at a magnification of 10x, meeting the 215 current standards of data representing 25-50 osteons per section (Stout, S. D., & Crowder 216 2012) (Stout and Crowder, 2011). Secondary osteons were identified by the presence of an 217 intact cement line and complete Haversian canal (Currey 2012) and fragments were identified 218 as partial secondary osteons with >10% of the Haversian canal remodeled. All osteons which 219 had their Haversian canals within or touching the border of the ROI were included (Britz et 220 al. 2009). These osteon counts formed the OPD, which was calculated by dividing the 221 number of osteons and fragments by the area of ROI (2.24mm²). OPD was calculated for 222 223 cortical bone only. It was not possible to consistently calculate OPD for cancellous bone in our sample because of differential preservation. Thus, OPD was not calculated for the 224 225 vertebrae and pelvis which has a high proportion of cancellous bone.

226 2.5 Age and sex

Biological sex estimation was carried out using multiple standard methods to increase the
accuracy of the determination (Buikstra & Ubelaker 1994; Martin, Harrod, & Pérez 2013).
We relied upon standard morphological characteristics of the pelvis and occipital. The pelvic
methods included the three Phenice characteristics (Phenice 1969), and the greater sciatic

notch described in Buikstra & Ubelaker (1994). Cranial features included the mastoid
process, supraorbital margin, mental eminence, and nuchal crest (Buikstra & Ubelaker 1994).
When determinations from cranial and pelvic features conflicted, priority was given to the
pelvic criteria (White et al. 2012). Differences between males and females are not one of the
main focuses of this study.

Only young adults were selected. We estimated age from the morphology of the pubic symphysis, and the auricular surface of the pelvis (e.g. Meindl & Lovejoy, 1985; Lovejoy et al., 1985). All samples were between 25-35 years old, falling into classic anthropological age-at-death categories (Buikstra & Ubelaker 1994).

240

241 2.6 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was undertaken using IBM Statistics SPSS 22 (2014). First, we combine 242 data for the ten skeletons and examine variation in isotopic ratios, and bone turnover rates, 243 between the different bone types when subdivided by sex. These log-transformed data are 244 then analysed using linear regression analysis. We present the r^2 value (coefficient of 245 determination) which measures the proportion of explained variation, and the r value 246 (correlation coefficient) which measures the strength and direction of the relationship 247 248 between isotope ratios and OPD. Following this, we examine variation in isotopic ratios and bone turnover rates within each skeleton using a non-parametric Spearman's Rho. 249

250

251 **3. Results**

252 3.1 Isotopic variation between bone types

When data for the 10 skeletons are combined, mean δ^{13} C ranged between -19.4‰ in the radius to -19.1‰ in the ribs and pelvis (Table 1). Mean δ^{15} N ranged from 11.2‰ in the radius, to 12.2‰ in the thoracic vertebrae.

- 256
- 257 3.1.1 Males vs females

258 Slightly different trends emerge when δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N are subdivided into males and females.

- Amongst the males, mean δ^{13} C ranged between -19.6‰ to -19.4‰ in the long bones (femur
- and radius) to -18.9% for the rib. Females also showed depleted mean δ^{13} C of -19.7% in the
- long bones (radius), but had a relatively higher value of -19.1% in the occipital. The δ^{15} N for
- males ranged between 11.2‰ in the radius, to 12.4‰ in the thoracic vertebrae and pelvis.
- Amongst the females, δ^{15} N ranged from 11.4‰ in the radius, to 12.5‰ in the occipital.

Table 1: Mean δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N isotopic (‰) ratios for each bone type

		δ ¹³ C		δ ¹⁵ N			
Bone	All (n=10)	Males (n=5)	Females (n=5)	All (n=10)	Males (n=5)	Females (n=5)	
Femur	-19.4	-19.6	-19.2	11.5	11.3	11.6	
Tibia	-19.2	-19.2	-19.1	11.9	11.7	12.1	
Rib	-19.1	-19.0	-19.2	12.0	12.2	11.7	
Radius	-19.4	-19.5	-19.3	11.3	11.2	11.4	
Occipital	-19.3	-19.4	-19.1	12.2	11.8	12.5	
Metacarpal	-19.3	-19.4	-19.1	11.7	11.5	11.8	
Humerus	-19.2	-19.3	-19.2	11.6	11.6	11.7	
Thoracic vertebrae	-19.2	-19.2	-19.2	12.2	12.4	12.0	
Pelvis	-19.1	19.1	-19.1	12.1	12.4	11.9	
Clavicle	-19.3	19.4	-19.2	11.7	11.7	11.7	

265

264

266 3.2 Isotopic variation within each skeleton

267

268

Table 2: Maximum change in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N isotopic (‰) within each skeleton

Males (n=5) Fe				Females (I	n=5)) Males (n=5)			Females (n=5)			
		All b	ones			Femur to Rib						
Sk	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁵ N	Sk	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁵ N	Sk	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁵ N	Sk	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁵ N	
1	-0.8	1.7	6	-0.4	1.5	1	0.7	1.1	6	-0.1	0.4	
2	-1.2	1.0	7	-0.8	1.4	2	0.6	0.1	7	0.0	0.7	
3	-0.4	1.3	8	-0.7	1.2	3	0.3	0.6	8	-0.7	-0.7	
4	-0.5	1.2	9	-1.0	1.3	4	0.2	0.2	9	0.7	0.7	
5	-1.6	3.1	10	-1.6	1.9	5	0.9	2.4	10	-0.2	-0.2	
Mean	-0.9	1.7		-0.9	1.5		0.5	0.9		-0.1	0.2	

269

Variation in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N within each skeleton was broadly similar for males and females 270 (Table 2). On average δ^{13} C differed by -0.9‰ within all skeletons. Mean δ^{15} N differed by 271 1.7‰ within the female skeletons, compared to 1.5‰ for males. When skeletons are 272 considered individually, $\delta^{13}C$ changed from -18.6% in the occipital to -20.2% in the pelvis of 273 female skeleton number 10. δ^{15} N ranged between 1.0% to 3.1% in male skeleton number 5 274 (Sk5) (Fig. 1), who also had the greatest change in δ^{13} C. The femur of each male skeleton 275 was consistently depleted in δ^{13} C, and δ^{15} N, when compared to the rib. Differences between 276 277 these bones in females were inconsistent.



279 280

Fig. 1.: δ^{15} N for the 10 bones from each skeleton (males = Sk1 – Sk5; females = Sk6 – Sk10)



282 3.3. Variation in bone turnover rate between bone types

- 283
- 284

	All	Males	Females				
Bone ¹	(n=10)	(n=5)	(n=5)				
Humerus	15.10	14.32	15.89				
Metacarpal	14.06	12.20	15.93				
Rib	13.90	11.83	15.98				
Femur	13.48	11.36	15.60				
Tibia	12.54	12.60	12.49				
Radius	12.23	10.20	14.26				
Clavicle	11.82	10.89	12.76				
Occipital	4.23	5.01	3.46				
1=Ordered by fastest to slowest turn over.							

Table 3: Mean OPD for each bone type

285 286

When data for the 10 skeletons are combined, and OPD is used as proxy for the amount of bone produced and, by extension, past evidence of bone remodelling, mean values are highest in the humerus, metacarpals, and ribs. Values were lowest in the occipital. Relative to the other bones, the femur, and tibia have medium to high remodelling rates (Table 3).

- 291
- **292** 3.3.1 Males vs females

Table 3 illustrates differences in mean OPD between males and females. Generally, females in our sample display higher mean OPD values for bones with faster turnover rates (humerus, metacarpal, rib), when compared to males. This variation in bone turnover rates between the sexes could relate in part to differences in activity due to occupation (Pitfield et al., 2017), or instead, it may reflect a relationship between the underlying histology and overall size or robusticity of the sampled bone (Miszkiewicz and Mahoney, 2017). Our sample sizes are small, so it is difficult to draw firm conclusions, but future research can explore this variationfurther using larger sample sizes.

- 301
- 302 3.4. Relationship between isotope ratios and bone turnover compared between bone types
- 303
- 304

δ¹³C δ¹⁵N OPD Bone All Males All All Females Males Females Males Females (n=10) (n=5) (n=5) (n=10) (n=5) (n=5) (n=10) (n=5) (n=5) Femur -19.4 -19.6 -19.2 11.5 11.3 11.6 13.48 11.36 15.60 Tibia -19.2 -19.2 -19.1 11.9 11.7 12.1 12.54 12.60 12.49 Rib -19.1 -19 -19.2 12 12.2 11.7 13.90 11.83 15.98 Radius -19.4 -19.5 -19.3 11.3 11.2 11.4 12.23 10.20 14.26 Occipital -19.3 -19.4 -19.1 12.2 11.8 12.5 4.23 5.01 3.46 Metacarpal -19.3 -19.4 -19.1 11.7 11.5 11.8 14.06 12.20 15.93 Humerus -19.2 -19.3 -19.2 11.6 11.7 15.10 14.32 15.89 11.6 Thoracic -19.2 -19.2 -19.2 12.2 12 vertebrae 12.4 -19.1 -19.1 Pelvis 19.1 12.1 12.4 11.9 -19.2 Clavicle -19.3 19.4 11.7 11.7 11.7 11.82 10.89 12.76



305

Average δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N and OPD data for each bone type is presented in Table 4. When all 306 skeletons are combined, a linear regression analysis of log-transformed data indicates that 307 there is a significant and negative correlation between $\delta^{15}N$ and bone turnover rates (slope = -308 1.986, intercept =3.171, r = -0.231; $r^2=0.053$, p=0.050). Figure 1 illustrates the negative 309 relationship between these variables. The occipital bone is highlighted in the figure to 310 illustrate the low bone turnover rates associated with this bone type. When the analysis was 311 repeated on δ^{13} C and OPD, there was no significant relationship between the variables 312 (r=0.064, p=0.571). 313





Fig. 2. Linear regression analyses of log-transformed δ^{15} N against log-transformed osteon population density. 315 Blue circles = occipital bone. Black circles are data for all other bone types¹. Excluding Sk 5 which showed a 316 positive correlation between the variables, and the greatest variation in δ^{15} N of any skeleton: see Fig 1. 317 318

3.4.1 Relationships between isotope ratios and bone turnover rates within each skeleton 319

When each skeleton is considered separately, $\delta^{15}N$ and products of bone remodelling are 320 negatively correlated for eight of the 10 skeletons (Table 5). For one male (SAC89), the 321 negative relationship is significant (p=0.007). For the five females the relationship is not 322 significant (p>0.05) but all of the r values are negative. Thus, higher $\delta^{15}N$ values are 323 generally associated with lower products of remodelling, within each skeleton. When each 324 skeleton is considered separately δ^{13} C are OPD are positively correlated for eight of the 10 325 skeletons (Table 5). For one skeleton (SAC 92), this relationship is significant. 326

327

	δ	¹⁵ N	δ ¹³ C						
Sk	r	р	r	р					
Males									
SAC 88	0.168	0.691	0.025	0.954					
SAC 89	-0.855	0.007*	-0.12	0.778					
SAC 90	-0.036	0.932	0.409	0.314					
SAC 91	-0.133	0.754	0.703	0.053					
SAC 92	0.431	0.286	0.952	0.000*					
		Females							
SAC 93	-0.539	0.168	0.501	0.206					
SAC 94	-0.602	0.114	0.458	0.254					
SAC 95	-0.659	0.076	0.05	0.906					
SAC 96	-0.494	0.213	0.564	0.146					
SAC 97	-0.586	0.127	-0.17	0.688					

Table 5: Spearma 328 n. *Significant

330 4. Discussion

When the different bone types are compared to each other, the rib, humeri and metacarpals all 331 have a high mean OPD. This high OPD indicates increased remodelling, suggesting these 332 skeletal elements are all suitable to gain insights into an individual's diet during a relatively 333 334 recent period prior to death, compared to bones with a slower rate of remodelling. The occipital bone had the lowest mean OPD, implying that this skeletal element had the slowest 335 rate of remodelling of all bone types in our sample. The slower remodelling of the occipital 336 suggests that this bone might provide a dietary record for a longer period of time from an 337 individual's lifetime, compared to other bone types. $\delta^{15}N$ were also clearly elevated in the 338 occipital (Table 1). When considered together, these results support current isotopic 339 methodological practice that samples human ribs to access diet from a period that is relatively 340 near to the point of death (Section 1.3). Results suggest that the humerus is an appropriate 341 substitute for the rib, when the rib is not available for sampling. 342

Our findings suggest that current isotopic sampling strategies can be modified to 343 incorporate the occipital, rather than the femur, to access a longer-term dietary signal. Our 344 data does not support the idea that the femur has a slow rate of turnover when compared to 345 346 the rib. Mean bone turnover rates of 13.48 (SD: 3.05) of the femur did not differ significantly 347 when compared to the mean turnover rate of 13.90 (SD: 3.69) for the rib (Mann Whitney U= 51.000; p = 0.940; Table 3). In contrast, mean OPD of the rib differed significantly when 348 349 compared to the occipital (mean=4.23, SD=1.31; U=0.000; p=0.000). This latter finding is inconsistent with the long standing idea that a slower turnover of femoral bone collagen 350 351 reflects a longer-term dietary signal (Hedges et al. 2007) when compared to a faster turnover of rib bone collagen that represents a more recent period prior to death (Cox & Sealy 1997). 352

Previous studies have reported varying results in terms of isotopic differences 353 between bones of the same skeleton. Olsen et al. (2014) analysed δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N in four bones 354 (rib, metacarpal, fibula, vertebrae) of the skeleton, with sample sizes that were similar in size 355 to the current study. They found limited variation in either δ^{13} C (0.0 ± 0.1‰) or δ^{15} N (-0.1 ± 356 0.4‰). Similarly a study by Pollard et al. (2012) found that variation in δ^{13} C didn't exceed 357 analytical error; variation in δ^{15} N was slightly higher, but not statistically significant. Olsen et 358 al. (2014) also reported significant intra-skeletal variation in nitrogen values related to non-359 specific disease. Skeletons selected for our study did not retain any evidence of non-specific 360 disease, though we cannot rule out the presence of active diseases at the point of death that do 361 not leave a record on bone (Wood et al. 1992). 362

Pollard et al. (2012) found rib $\delta^{15}N$ to be higher compared to femora by an average of 363 ~0.5 - 1‰ in a group of tenth-century young males. A similar trend was observed by Chenery 364 et al. (2012) who reported elevated rib δ^{15} N in comparison to femora by 0.9 – 1.2‰ in 31 365 individuals analysed. In contrast, Jørkov et al. (2007) reported no measureable rib-femora 366 367 isotopic difference in 58 individuals from a static community from Holbæk, Denmark. We found negligible difference between average $\delta^{15}N$ rib (11.7‰) and femora (11.6‰) in 368 females, but there was a 0.9% difference between average δ^{15} N rib (12.2%) and femora 369 (11.3‰) in males (table 1). Hedges et al. (2007) suggest that male adolescent collagen 370 turnover rates are higher than in female adolescents. The differences observed between males 371 and females were related to femoral stable isotope values that reflect a substantial portion of 372 collagen synthesized during adolescence, when the rate of turnover is thought to be higher in 373 males (Hedges et al. 2007). Although we found a negligible difference in OPD in our samples 374 between the rib and the femur, it is possible that the difference in $\delta^{15}N$ between males and 375 females reflects increased BTR during adolescence. 376

The lack of a measurable difference in δ^{13} C is likely indicative of a typical diet based 377 primarily on a C₃-photosynthetic system. Pollard et al. (2012) suggest potential explanations 378 for the lack of variation they observed in δ^{13} C compared to δ^{15} N: 1) the lack of a systematic 379 shift in δ^{13} C may stem from increased consumption of marine resources as adults and 2) that 380 a change in metabolic activity may have been brought about as a result of increased stressful, 381 activity as adults. For our sample, it is possible, given the origin of the samples (Canterbury, 382 United Kingdom), that there was some level of increased marine resource consumption in 383 adulthood, at least for the male skeletons, which may account for the variation in δ^{15} N. 384 However, while plausible, this idea is not strongly supported as there is no corresponding 385 alteration in δ^{13} C. Additionally the female skeletons appear to have consistently high δ^{15} N in 386 their cranial bone, suggesting a consistent long-term diet with little change in adulthood. 387

The variation in δ^{13} C, and particularly in δ^{15} N, across different bones, warrants further 388 discussion. This may perhaps be linked to the proportion of cancellous to cortical bone in the 389 isotopic samples. Brady et al. (2008) reported significantly different $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ for 390 compact and cancellous bone, illustrating the relationship between bone remodelling and 391 isotopic heterogeneity in bone. Research by Hill & Orth (1998) suggests that cancellous bone 392 with higher surface-to-volume ratios tends to turnover at a faster rate. Therefore, even with a 393 similar cortical OPD's, bones with proportionally more cancellous bone than cortical bone, 394 such as the rib, metacarpal, clavicle, could still reflect different ages compared to bones with 395

more cortical bone such as the femur and tibia, which could ultimately have impacted uponour isotopic results.

Our study highlights that caution should be applied when substituting one bone for 398 another in isotope studies that compare single skeletal elements between individuals or when 399 sampling a small population of individuals for individual dietary interpretations. Our $\delta^{15}N$ 400 ranged from 10.2% to 13.3% in male Sk5, and δ^{13} C changed from -18.6% in the occipital to 401 -20.2‰ in the pelvis in female Sk10. Thus, comparing different bone types between 402 individuals can potentially introduce additional variation into analyses, clouding diet-isotope 403 relationships. However, more freedom is allowed if the sample population is larger and the 404 goal is a population-wide dietary interpretation as interestingly, while individual δ^{15} N, and to 405 some extent δ^{13} C, vary greatly among individuals depending on the type of bone that is 406 sampled, when taken as a group these differences disappear for $\delta^{13}C$ (females = -19.2±0.6‰; 407 males = $-19.3\pm0.5\%$) and $\delta^{15}N$ (females = $11.8\pm0.9\%$; males = $11.8\pm0.6\%$). 408

409

410 5. Conclusion

Our study sampled ten bones from ten individuals to examine the range of variation in 411 δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N across the skeleton and to determine relationships between δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N and 412 static indicators of bone remodelling. Lower $\delta^{15}N$ were significantly correlated with higher 413 values of remodelling products when compared between individuals. Given that many studies 414 415 utilize the differences in turnover rates to demonstrate dietary changes in individuals and populations, and that much emphasis is put on $\delta^{15}N$ and potential high or low protein diets, 416 we suggest that future stable nitrogen isotope studies of diet should standardize bone 417 sampling, to bones with either high or low turnover rates. 418

419

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608 Appendix 1

Supp. Table 1: Stable carbon and nitrogen isotope data and OPD data for each bone sampled.

	MALES			FEMALES					
Lab #	Bone	δ ¹³ C	δ^{15} N	OPD	Lab #	Bone	δ ¹³ C	$\delta^{15}N$	OPD
SAC88F	Femur	-19.2	11.5	10.42	SAC93F	Femur	-18.5	12.9	16.07
SAC88T	Tibia	-18.4	12.1	7.44	SAC93T	Tibia	-18.5	13.0	13.99
SAC88R1	Rib	-18.5	12.6	8.71	SAC93R1	Rib	-18.6	13.3	13.33
SAC88R2	Radius	-18.6	11.4	8.33	SAC93R2	Radius	-18.8	11.8	14.58
SAC88O	Occipital	-18.7	11.8	4.46	SAC93O	Occipital	-18.9	13.3	4.48
SAC88M	Metacarpal	-18.7	11.8	9.82	SAC93M	Metacarpal	-18.6	12.5	18.60
SAC88H	Humerus	-18.5	11.9	15.03	SAC93H	Humerus	-18.5	12.7	17.86
SAC88TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-18.6	13.0		SAC93TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-18.9	13.1	
SAC88P	Pelvis	-18.5	13.1		SAC93P	Pelvis	-18.5	12.9	
SAC88C	Clavicle	-18.5	12.2	11.01	SAC93C	Clavicle	-18.6	12.0	13.84
SAC89F	Femur	-20.1	12.0	14.73	SAC94F	Femur	-19.1	10.3	17.71
SAC89T	Tibia	-20.2	11.5	15.77	SAC94T	Tibia	-18.8	11.7	12.28
SAC89R1	Rib	-19.4	12.1	14.56	SAC94R1	Rib	-19.1	10.9	15.70
SAC89R2	Radius	-20.6	11.8	11.31	SAC94R2	Radius	-19.2	10.6	14.73
SAC89O	Occipital	-19.7	12.2	6.70	SAC94O	Occipital	-19.5	11.3	3.57
SAC89M	Metacarpal	-19.8	11.6	18.10	SAC94M	Metacarpal	-18.7	10.9	19.20
SAC89H	Humerus	-19.9	11.8	15.18	SAC94H	Humerus	-19.2	10.2	17.26
SAC89TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.6	12.4		SAC94TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.5	11.1	
SAC89P	Pelvis	-19.9	11.7		SAC94P	Pelvis	-19.3	11.4	
SAC89C	Clavicle	-20.0	11.7	15.77	SAC94C	Clavicle	-19.3	10.6	16.52
SAC90F	Femur	-19.4	11.0	9.38	SAC95F	Femur	-18.4	12.6	16.96
SAC90T	Tibia	-19.4	11.5	8.26	SAC95T	Tibia	-18.6	12.8	12.95
SAC90R1	Rib	-19.1	11.6	6.79	SAC95R1	Rib	-19.1	11.9	15.89
SAC90R2	Radius	-19.4	11.4	9.66	SAC95R2	Radius	-18.5	12.6	14.00
SAC90O	Occipital	-19.5	11.6	4.64	SAC95O	Occipital	-18.5	13.0	3.90
SAC90M	Metacarpal	-19.4	12.1	6.14	SAC95M	Metacarpal	-18.6	12.4	14.43
SAC90H	Humerus	-19.2	11.7	13.39	SAC95H	Humerus	-18.5	12.6	15.03
SAC90TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.2	12.0		SAC95TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-18.4	12.7	
SAC90P	Pelvis	-19.0	12.3		SAC95P	Pelvis	-18.5	12.8	
SAC90C	Clavicle	-19.4	11.7	9.82	SAC95C	Clavicle	-18.6	12.7	14.55
SAC91F	Femur	-19.5	11.6	11.31	SAC96F	Femur	-20.0	10.9	15.63
SAC91T	Tibia	-19.4	11.8	15.48	SAC96T	Tibia	-19.9	11.6	11.46
SAC91R1	Rib	-19.3	11.8	15.58	SAC96R1	Rib	-19.3	11.4	19.54
SAC91R2	Radius	-19.5	11.0	9.67	SAC96R2	Radius	-20.0	10.9	15.92
SAC91O	Occipital	-19.6	12.2	3.87	SAC96O	Occipital	-19.8	12.2	1.59
SAC91M	Metacarpal	-19.8	11.2	13.57	SAC96M	Metacarpal	-19.6	11.8	16.37
SAC91H	Humerus	-19.4	11.5	15.63	SAC96H	Humerus	-19.7	11.5	16.37
SAC91TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.7	11.8		SAC96TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.3	11.9	
SAC91P	Pelvis	-19.8	11.5		SAC96P	Pelvis	-19.0	11.6	
SAC91C	Clavicle	-19.6	11.6	6.86	SAC96C	Clavicle	-19.7	12.0	11.61

SAC92F	Femur	-19.6	10.7	10.94	SAC97F	Femur	-19.8	11.2	11.61
SAC92T	Tibia	-18.5	11.7	16.07	SAC97T	Tibia	-19.9	11.4	11.76
SAC92R1	Rib	-18.6	13.0	13.53	SAC97R1	Rib	-20.0	11.0	15.42
SAC92R2	Radius	-19.6	10.2	12.05	SAC97R2	Radius	-19.8	11.1	12.05
SAC92O	Occipital	-19.8	11.3	5.36	SAC97O	Occipital	-18.6	12.7	3.75
SAC92M	Metacarpal	-19.5	10.8	13.36	SAC97M	Metacarpal	-20.1	11.4	11.03
SAC92H	Humerus	-19.5	11.1	12.35	SAC97H	Humerus	-19.9	11.4	12.95
SAC92TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-18.9	12.8		SAC97TV	Thoracic vertebrae	-19.9	11.1	
SAC92P	Pelvis	-18.3	13.3		SAC97P	Pelvis	-20.2	10.8	
SAC92C	Clavicle	-19.7	11.1	11.01	SAC97C	Clavicle	-20.0	11.3	7.30