Ecological evolution of ungulates in northern Iberia (SW Europe) during the Late Pleistocene in northern Iberia during the Late Pleistocene through stable isotopic analysis of ungulate ungulate teeth

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Abstract

During the Late Pleistocene, stadial and interstadial fluctuations affected vegetation, fauna, and human groups that were forced to cope with these pronounced spatial-and-temporal climatic and environmental changes in time and space. These changes were especially abrupt during the Marine Isotopic Stage (MIS) 3. However, little is still known about the local and regional climatic conditions experienced by hominins in Europe. Here, we reconstruct the climatic trends in northern Iberia considering the stable isotopic composition of ungulate skeletal tissues found in archaeological deposits dated between 80 to 15 ka;000 cal BP. The carbon and oxygen isotopic composition preserved in the carbonate fraction of tooth enamel provides a reliable and high-resolution proxy of the food and water consumed by these animals, which is indirectly related to the local vegetation, environment, and climate, allowing us to estimate paleotemperatures and rainfall dataintensity. This study presents new isotope data from 44 bovine, equid, and cervid teeth from five archaeological sites in the Vasco-Cantabrian region (El Castillo, El Otero, Axlor, Labeko Koba, Aitzbitarte III interior and El Otero,) and one in the Mediterranean areanortheastern Iberia (Canyars), where human evidence is attested from the Mousterian to the Magdalenian. The carbon isotope values reflect animals feeding on diverse C3 plants with a mix feeder diet mainly developed in open environments, and point to. However, carbon isotope value ranges point to differentiated ecological niches for equids and bovines, especially during the Aurignacian in the Vasco-Cantabrian region. Temperature estimations based on oxygen isotopic compositions and rainfall obtained from carbon isotopic compositions indicate colder and more arid conditions than nowadays from the Late Mousterian to the Aurignacian. The contemporary Mediterranean-northeastern Iberia site shows slightly lower temperatures related to an arid period when animals mainly graze in open landscapes. In the Vasco-Cantabrian region, during the MIS2, the Gravettian data reflect a landscape opening, whereas the Magdalenian points to warmer conditions (but still arid) conditions

43 Keywords: Middle and Upper Palaeolithic; Neanderthal; Homo sapiens, palaeoecology; geochemistry

1. Introduction

Understanding the local and regional climatic evolution-variability during the Late Pleistocene in southern Europe is crucial for assessing the potential impact of climate on the adaptation and decline of Neanderthals; as well asand the subsequent expansion and resilience of Anatomically Modern Humans during the Upper Paleolithic (e.g., D'Errico and Sánchez Goñi, 2003; Finlayson and Carrión, 2007; Sepulchre et al., 2007; Staubwasser et al., 2018). During the Late Pleistocene, the climatic records demonstrate stadial and interstadial continuous fluctuations during the Marine Isotope Stage 3 (MIS 3, ca. 60-27 ka) and MIS 2 (ca. 27-11 ka). Human groups had to face those episodes, which affected different-vegetation and fauna to different extents, depending on the region. Northern Iberia is a key study area due to the abundance of well-preserved archaeological caves and rock shelters where, in the last decade, an updated and multidisciplinary approach has been applied to disentangle how changing environmental conditions affected the subsistence dynamics of Middle and Upper Paleolithic hominins. Recent chronological, technological, and-subsistence studies and ecological reconstructions are revealing a wider regional circumstance more complex regional panorama than previously known (e.g., Sánchez Goñi, 2020; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022; 2023; Timmermann, 2020; Klein et al., 2023).

The Vasco-Cantabrian region, located in northwestern Iberia, is subject to the influence of Atlantic climatic conditions, and haswhere been widely recently has been evaluated debated as a region that was significantlythe impacted of by the glacial-interglacial oscillations during the MIS3 (Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). Modelling of traditional environmental proxies (small vertebrates and pollen) from archaeopaleontological deposits show a progressive shift in the climatic conditions with decreasing temperatures and rainfall levels detected during the late Mousterian (Fernández-García et al., 2023). Ecological alterations have been observed in large mammals, such as niche partitioning between horses and cervids (Jones et al., 2018), a decrease in the available biomass for secondary consumers, and consequently, a decrease reduction in the ungulate herbiveres carrying capacity with regards to ungulates (Jones et al., 2018; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). Cold and arid conditions are maintained during the Aurignacian and the Gravettian until the onset of MIS2. Afterwards, during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 23-19 ka), the global climatic deterioration associated with this glacial phase results in colder and more arid conditions in the region, with a predominance of open landscapes. However, this region still provided resources for human exploitation survival acting as a refugia area-with more humid conditions in comparison to the Mediterranean area (Cascalheira et al., 2021; Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019a; Lécuyer et al., 2021; Fernández-García et al., 2023; Fagoaga, 2014; Posth et al., 2023). By the end of the LGM, a climate amelioration and a moderate expansion of the deciduous forest are documented from the late Solutrean through the Magdalenian (Jones et al., 2021; Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019a).

In contrast, northeastern Iberia is influenced by the Mediterranean climate. During MIS 3, this period in temperatures in this region has frequently been described asis oftenwere characterised as being cooler by colder temperatures and with, and with higher rainfall, higher rainfall compared to the present, but and lesswith climatic fluctuations described as being less pronounced climatic fluctuations when compared to the Vasco-Cantabrian region in the same period. (López-García et al., 2014; Fernández-García et al., 2020; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). Archaeobotanical and small vertebrate evidence Small vertebrate communities and archaeobotanical evidence indicate relatively stable climatic conditions, but also suggest the persistence of open forests during the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transition, as found in northwestern Iberia (Allué et al., 2018; Ochando et al., 2021). However, certain records indicate specific climatic excursionsepisodes, such as increased aridity and landscape opening during Heinrich Events 4 and 5 (e.g., Álvarez-Lao et al., 2017; Daura et al., 2013; López-García et al., 2022; Rufí et al., 2018).

These multi-proxy studies have significantly expanded our understanding of the environmental evolution in Iberia, alongside proxies derived from marine core records in Iberia margins (Naughton et al., 2007; Roucoux et al., 2001; Sánchez-Goñi et al., 1999, 2009; Martrat et al., 2004; Fourcade et al., 2022) and other regional paleoclimatic records sourced from local natural deposits (e.g., Pérez-Mejías et al., 2019; Moreno et al., 2010; González-Sampériz et al., 2020; Ballesteros et al., 2020), thereby providing a valuable

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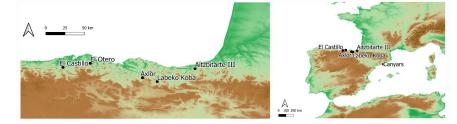
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framework for understanding environmental evolution. However, the availability of proxies enabling the establishment of direct connections between these environmental shifts and human activities remains limited.

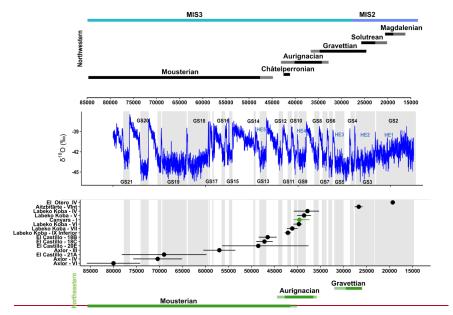
These While multi-proxy studies have significantly expanded our understanding of the environment in Iberia However,, there is still limited availability of high-resolution proxies directly linked directly to human activity. In this study, we propose to investigate the palaeoecologicaly and palaeoenvironmental dynamics of past ungulates of this region in northern Iberia during the late Middle and Upper Paleolithic by measuring the carbon and oxygen isotopic composition (δ13C, δ18O) of bioapatite carbonates (δ13C_{carb}/δ18O_{carb}) preserved in archaeological mammal teeth. These analyses provide high-resolution snapshots of ecological information from animals accumulated during human occupations at the caveites. Tooth enamel forms incrementally and does not biologically remodel (Passey and Cerling, 2002; Kohn, 2004), in contrast to other bodilyy tissues such as bone, which implies that the isotope values measured on them reflect the animal diet and water sources consumed during its mineralisation, around one to two years of animal life in our study species life for the species included in our study (bovids, equids, cervids)(e.g., Hoppe et al., 2004; Pederzani and Britton, 2019; Ambrose and Norr, 1993; Luz et al., 1984). The preserved carbon and exygen isotope composition in the carbonate fraction of tooth enamel offers a high resolution record of the dietary choices of the plants and water animals consume, which indirectly reflects the vegetation, environmental conditions, and climate. The preserved carbon isotope composition rely on dietary choices of animals reflecting mainly the type of plant consumed (C3/C4), exposition to ligh and levels of humidity is on animal dietary choices reflecting mainly the type of plant consumed (C3/C4), exposition to light and humidity levels. Otherwise, the oxygen isotope composition reflects mainly the environmental water consumed by animals. directly by drinking or through diet, which reflects isotopic information derived from water sources as well as changes in climatic conditions. Both indirectly provide information on the vegetation and climate that This allows us to estimatinge past temperatures, rainfall, and moisture levels on a sub-annual scale, returning isotopic information data of the foraging areas where animals were feeding during tooth teeth formation.

By analysing the stable isotopic composition of 44 ungulate teeth obtained from 15 archaeological levels directly associated with human occupation, including El Castillo, El Otero, Axlor, Labeko Koba, Aitzbitarte III interior and El Otero in northwestern Iberia, and Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars in northeastern Iberia, this study presents novel insights into local and regional environmental and climatic trends during the Late Pleistocene (Fig.1; Fig.2; Appendix A). Specifically, it focuses on the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transition in both areas and the post-LGM period in the Vasco-Cantabrian region.

The main objectives of this work are: 1) to assess how regional environmental conditions, including changes in moisture and vegetation cover, but also temperatures and rainfall, are recorded in tooth enamel in the stable isotopic composition of tooth enamel; 2) to approach characterize animal diet and their ecological niches; 3) to obtain quantitative temperature data to compare with available proxies; 4) to characterise seasonal patterns of animals found in the archaeological sites by identifying winter and summer fluctuations. The chronological resolution information in associated to the study studied areas levels for this period allows us to correlate regional paleoenvironmental changes with global records.







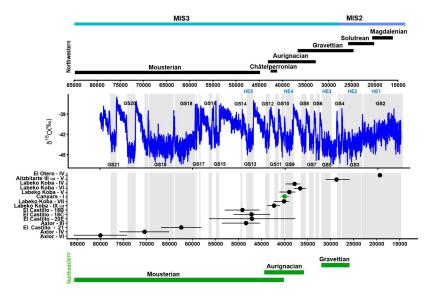


Figure 2. Representation of the The temporal position of the almeanedian chronological dates from cach archaeological levels (bars represent 95% confidence intervals) included in the study is are shown to the occurrencein relation-related to of different techno-complexes in both northwestermorth-westerm (in black) and northeastermorth-eastern lberia (in green). Additionally and the ras well as the data of the data of the core (North Greenland Ice Core Project members, 2004; Rasmussen et al.,

2. Archaeological sites and sampled material

This study selected a total of 44 ungulate teeth including 25 bovines (Bos primigenius, Bison priscus, Bos/Bison sp.), 14 equids (Equus sp. and Equus ferus), and five5 cervids (Cervus elaphus) found inoriginating from five archaeological sites in the Vasco-Cantabrian region (El Castillo, El Otero, Axlor, Labeko Koba, Aitzbitarte III interior) and one in the Mediterranean area (Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars, henceforth Canyars). These teeth were recovered from 15 archaeological levels attributed to the following technocomplexes: Mousterian (n=14), Transitional Aurignacian (n=10), Châtelperronian (n=2), Aurignacian (n=12), Gravettian (n=1) and Magdalenian (n=5) (Table 1 and 2; Appendix B). Archaeozoological studies of the archaeological sites are available (synthesis in Marín-Arroyo and Sanz-Royo, 2022; Daura et al., 2013) and most prove that faunal remains were accumulated by human acquisition during the different cultural phases. The isotopic results of equids from El Castillo-The isotopic results of equids teeth and other ungulates bone collagen from El Castillo were previously published by Jones et al. (2019) in combination with the bone collagen stable isotopes of ungulate prey capture at s from the site, as well as the combined bioapatite carbonate and phosphate analyses of bovines from Axlor (Pederzani et al., 2023). Single radiocarbon dates for each site were calibrated using OxCal4.4 software (Ramsey, 2009), considering the INTCAL20 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2020). Dates provided represent an approximate age for each level where ungulate remains were recovered, incorporating either multiple dates or a single date. For sites with multiplevarious dates, Bayesian chronology modeling was performed using OxCal4.4. A comprehensive description of each archaeological site is provided in Appendix A, while further details on dating methods and selected dates for each level can be found in Appendix B.

3. Methods

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3.1 Tooth sampling

All teeth included were sequentially sampled to reconstruct the complete $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ intratooth profiles based on enamel carbonate bioapatite. Intratooth sequential sampling was applied to the second and third molars and third and fourth premolars. Bovine and horse teeth sampled exceeded 3-4 cm of crown height to ensure that at least a one-year isotopic record of animal life was obtained (Hoppe et al., 2004; Britton et al., 2019). Samples were taken perpendicular to the growth axis on the tooth where the enamel was best preserved, avoiding, whenever possible taphonomic alterations such as cracks or postdepositional damages. Samples were performed in the labial-buccal face for the lower teeth and the lingual part for the upper ones. The outermost enamel surface was abraded to remove the superficial enamel, calculus, cementum, or concretions adhering to the surface to avoid contaminations. The sequential sampling consisted of straight strips (ca. 8 x 1.5 x 1 mm) covering the width of the selected lobe, approximately every 2-3 mm, from the crown to the Enamel-Root-Junction (ERJ). The sample depth covered around 75% of the enamel depth, and dentine inclusion was avoided. A low-revolution variable-speed manual drill was used, equipped with 1 mm diamond-coated drill bits of conical and cylindrical shape. About 10-15mg of enamel powder was collected in each subsample, generating 693 subsamples for IRMS measurements (see complete intratooth profiles in Appendix C).

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Site	Level - Cultural period	Bovines	Horses	Red deer	Teeth	Subsamples
	VI - Mousterian	2			2	32
Axlor	IV - Mousterian	1			1	12
	III - Mousterian	4			4	62
	21 A - Mousterian	2	1		3	47
El Castillo	20 E - Mousterian	2	2		4	56
El Castillo	18C - Trans. Aurignacian	4			4	66
	18B - Trans. Aurignacian	3	2	1	6	93
	IX - Châtelperronian		1	1	2	24
	VII - ProtoAurignacian	3			3	68
Labeko Koba	VI - Aurignacian		1		1	16
	V - Aurignacian	1	1		2	39
	IV - Aurignacian		1		1	16
Canyars	I - Aurignacian	2	3		5	76
Aitzbitarte III	V - Gravettian	1			1	18
El Otero	El Otero IV - Magdalenian		2	3	5	68
	TOTAL	25	14	5	44	693

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	VI - Mousterian	2			2	32
Axlor	IV - Mousterian	1			1	12
	III - Mousterian	4			4	62
	21A - Mousterian	2	1		3	47
El Castillo	20E - Mousterian	2	2		4	56
El Casullo	18C - Trans. Aurignacian	4			4	66
	18B - Trans. Aurignacian	3	2	1	6	93
	IX inf - Châtelperronian		1	1	2	24
	VII - ProtoAurignacian	3			3	68
Labeko Koba	VI - Aurignacian		1		1	16
	V - Aurignacian	1	1		2	39
	IV - Aurignacian		1		1	16
Canyars	I - Aurignacian	2	3		5	76
Aitzbitarte III interior	V - Gravettian	1			1	18
El Otero	El Otero IV - Magdalenian		2	3	5	68
	TOTAL	25	14	5	44	693

Table 1. Number of teeth sampled by species, archaeological sites and cultural periods.

3.2 Sample treatment and stable isotope mass spectrometry

Several authors have debated the necessity of chemical pre-treatments to remove organic matter and secondary carbonates from bioapatite carbonates before stable isotopic analysis. Some chemical treatments can introduce secondary carbonates, increase carbonate content, and alter the original isotopic signal (Snoeck and Pellegrini, 2015; Pellegrini and Snoeck, 2016). The "side effects" of these pre-treatments can compromise the final isotopic signal measured. For this reason, in this work, most of the samples were not pretreated, except for the equids and cervids samples from Labeko Koba, and Aitzbitarte III interior, and the cervids and equids from El Otero and El Castillo that were sampled and pretreated in the context of the initial projectin an earlier phase of the project. The absence of pretreatment can elevate the risk of secondary carbonates (France et al., 2020; Chesson et al., 2021). Nonetheless, any pretreatment method cannot guarantee their complete removal, and the 'side effects' may compromise the final isotopic signal to a greater extent. While variations in pretreatment methods exist among samples in this study, the lack of a universally accepted protocol necessitates careful consideration of any potential isotopic effects resulting from these differences.

Pretreatment was followed for above-mentioned samples of this workfrom fourteen teethwas established by Balasse et al. (2002), where around 7 mg of powdered enamel was prepared and pretreated with 3% of

sodium hypochlorite (NaOCI) at room temperature for 24 h (0.1 ml/mg sample), and thoroughly rinsed with deionised water, before a reaction with 0.1M acetic acid for 4 -h (0.1 ml/mg sample) (Balasse et al., 2002; equivalent protocol in Jones et al., 2019). Samples were then thoroughly rinsed, frozen, and freeze-dried. NaOCI is one of the most common agents used for pretreating carbonates and works as a base that removes organic matter by oxidation. Although it is considered one of the most efficient agents for removing organic matter, it can induce the absorption of exogenous carbonates, such as atmospheric CO2 and secondary carbonates (Snoeck and Pellegrini, 2015; Pellegrini and Snoeck, 2016). It is argued that using acetic acid after NaOCI pretreatment can remove exogenous carbonates absorbed during NaOCI application. However, it is unclear if all newly introduced carbonates are finally released and which effect they produce on the original isotopic composition. While variations in pretreatment methods exist among samples in this study, the lack of a universally accepted protocol necessitates careful consideration of any potential isotopic effects resulting from these differences. These samples were analysed in the Godwin Laboratory (Department of Earth Sciences, University of Cambridge). Enamel powder samples were reacted with 100% orthophosphoric acid for 2 h at 70°C in individual vessels in an automated Gasbench interfaced with a Thermo Finnigan MAT253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Results were reported in reference to the international standard VPDB and calibrated using the NBS-19 standard (limestone, δ^{13} C = +1.95% and δ^{18} O = -2.2‰; Coplen, 2011) for which the precision is better than 0.08‰ for δ^{13} C and 0.11‰ for δ^{18} O.

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For the non-pre-treated samples, carbon and oxygen stable isotopic ratios were measured using continuous flow-isotope ratio mass spectrometry, specifically a Europa Scientific 20-20 IRMS coupled to a chromatograph, at the Iso-Analytical laboratory in Cheshire, UK. The samples were weighed into clean exetainer tubes after being flushed with 99.995% helium. Phosphoric acid was then added to the samples, and they were allowed to react overnight to ensure the complete conversion of carbonate to CO2, following the method outlined by Coplen et al. (1983). The reference materials used for VPDB calibration and quality control of the analysis included: IA-R022 (calcium carbonate, δ^{13} C = -28.63‰, δ^{18} O = -22.69‰), NBS-18 (carbonatite, δ^{13} C = -5.01%, δ^{18} O = -23.2%), IA-R066 (chalk, δ^{13} C = +2.33%; δ^{18} O = -1.52). The accepted values of the in-house standards IA-R022 and IA-R066 were obtained by calibrating against IAEA international reference materials, NBS-18 and NBS-19, and NBS-18 and IAEA-CO-1 (Carrara marble, δ13C = 2.5%, and $\delta^{18}O$ = -2.4%), respectively. Additionally, in-house standards long-term measured were used: ILC1 (calcite, δ^{13} C = 2.13, δ^{18} O = -3.99‰), and Y-02 (calcite, δ^{13} C = 1.48, δ^{18} O = -9.59‰). The analytical precision of quality control standard replicates was better than 0.09‰ for δ¹³C and better than 0.12‰ for δ¹⁸O. The calcium carbonate content test enof theses samples, ranging between 3.9% teand 8.9%, does not indicate a substantial presence of secondary carbonates, considering (Chesson et al. (,-2021). Additionally, phosphate results on samples from Axlor showed δ18O_{carb}-δ18O_{phos} offsets within the expected range for well-preserved samples (Pederzani et al., 2023).

3.3 Carbon stable isotopic compositions as environmental and ecological tracers

To unravel animal diet and to-compare the different species, in standardised terms, it is necessary to consider the <u>fractionation enrichment</u> factor (ϵ^*) between δ^{13} C obtained by the animal on its diet $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{clet}})$ and δ^{13} C recorded on enamel carbonates $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}})$ (Bocherens, 2003; Cerling and Harris, 1999). The ϵ^* estimated for large ruminant mammals results in an offset of around 14.1% between diet and dental enamel, <u>which is commonly applied generallycommonly applied</u> to medium-sized herbivores. However, it is well-known that this offset varies between species, considering animals' different physiological parameters. Recently, a formal model to predict species-specific diet-consumer isotopic offsets has been proposed, which uses body mass (BM) and digestive physiology as the main factors that <u>regulating regulate</u> the ϵ^* (Tejada-Lara et al., 2018). This model proposes the following prediction equations for ruminant or foregut fermenters (Equation 1: Eq.1) and hindgut fermenters (Eq. 2):-

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245 (Eq. 1) £* = 2.34+0.05 (BM) [r²=0.78; p-value=0.008]
246 (Eq. 2) £* = 2.42+0.032 (BM) [r²=0.74; p-value=0.003]
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In this work, we compare This work compares species with different digestive physiology, ruminants for bovines and cervids, and non-ruminants for equids. The £* value was adjusted to for each animal to avoid bias from digestive physiology when comparing these species. The following fractionation enrichment factors have been used: 14.6% for Bos taurus (Passey et al., 2005a), 13.7% for Equus caballus (Cerling and Harris, 1999), and 13.2% for Cervus elaphus (Merceron et al. (2021) following (Eq. 1) for ruminants with a mean body mass of 125 kg.

In body tissues, cCarbon isotopic composition in body tissues is considered a combination of diet (understood as consumed food), environment openness (and associated exposure to light), and the amount of precipitation. Assuming that δ^{13} C of past vegetation is close to δ^{13} C_{diet} of ungulates, Having the precipitation in mind, Lécuyer et al. (2021) proposed to estimate Mean Annual Precipitations (MAP) from δ^{13} C_{carb} preserved in enamel carbonates, derived from diets based on C3 plants. After transforming δ^{13} C from enamel earbonate (δ^{13} C_{carb}) to δ^{13} C of the diet (δ^{13} C_{diet}) using the fractionation enrichment factors established above, this work suggested transforming this value to δ^{13} C from vegetation (δ^{13} C_{leaf}). However, the isotopic composition of animals' diet may not directly reflected vegetation cover, but rather the food preference of the animal and this approach should be discussed alongside other environmental data.

The MAP estimation is based on least square regression developed by Rey et al. (2013) and based on Kohn (2010) dataset (Eq.4), which requires first to estimate the $\delta^{13}C_{leaf}$ (Eq. 3). The $\delta^{13}C$ values of atmospheric CO₂ ($\delta^{13}C_{atm}$) are fixed in -7% (Lécuyer et al., 2021; Leuenberger et al., 1992; Schmitt et al., 2012). Atmospheric CO₂ levels have varied throughout the Late Pleistocene, with $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$ range between -7 to -6.4% (Eggleston et al., 2016), favouring an age-specific correction approach. However, maintaining general corrections is preferred considering the chronological uncertainty of the studied levels.

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(Eq.3) \delta^{13}C_{leaf} (VPDB) = (\delta^{13}C_{atm} - \delta^{13}C_{diet}) / [1+(\delta^{13}C_{diet}/1000)]
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 $(Eq.4) Log1(MAP+300) = 0.092(\pm 0.004) \times \delta^{13}C_{leaf} + 1.148(\pm 0.074)$

Additionally, The Lécuyer et al. (2021) equation also incorporates accounts for the consideration of the pCO2 effect on $\delta^{13}C_{leaf}$ estimation, which is expected to result in an offset of +1% from current levels (considering that pCO2 was 180 ppm during the LGM, which is lower than thate 300ppm experienced during the post post-after the deglaciation period-around 15 ka). If this correction was not applied, MAP results will-could be underestimated by -150mm. In agreement with Lécuyer et al. (2021) appreciation, these MAP estimations are a preliminary approximation and should be cross-validated with other environmental proxies. The associated uncertainties range from ± 100 to 200 mm, influencing the interpretation of the final values.

3.4 Oxygen stable isotope compositions as environmental tracers

Intrateoth profiles are known to provide a time-averaged signal compared to the input isotopic signal ($\delta^{43}C/\delta^{48}Q_{\text{part}}$) during enamel formation (Passey et al., 2005b). This signal attenuation is caused both by time-averaging effects incurred through the extended nature of amelogenesis and tooth formation, and through the sampling strategy. During mineralisation, the maturation zone, which is time-averaged, often affects a large portion of the crown height and might affect the temporal resolution of the input signal of the sample taken. To obtain climatically informative seasonal information on the analysed teeth, the application of the

inverse modelling method proposed by (Passey et al. (2005b) is, therefore, requiredapplied in this work. This method allows us to computationally estimate the time-averaging effects of sampling and tooth formation to obtain more accurately the original amplitude of the isotopic input signal, thusthe original amplitude of the isotopic input signal more accurately, thus, to summer and winter extremes (Appendix D). This method considers parameters based on the amelogenesis trends of each species and sampling geometry, which are critical for a meaningful interpretation of intratooth isotope profiles. To evaluate the data's reproducibility and precision, the model also estimates the error derived from the uncertainty of the sampling and the mass spectrometer measurementshe model also estimates the error derived from the sampling uncertainty and the mass spectrometer measurements to evaluate the data's reproducibility and precision. This method was initially developed for continuously growing teeth, taking into account a constant growth rate within a linear maturation model, which with a progressive time average increment as sampling advances along the teeth profile. The species studied in this research exhibit non-linear tooth enamel formation, particularly in later-forming molars (Bendrey et al., 2015; Zazzo et al., 2012; Passey and Cerling, 2002; Kohn, 2004; Blumenthal et al., 2014). Although the aforementioned modelmodel mentioned above is not ideal, as it does not account for non linear enamel formation and certain growth parameters for the species included are unknown, it is the best estimation based on the current state of the field and remains widely used (Pederzani et al., 2023, 2021a, b). Flat and less sinusoidal profiles are less suitable for the application of the model, given its inherent assumption of an approximately sinusoidal form. Therefore, we chose not to apply this methodology in the analysis of intratooth δ¹³C profiles, and it is recommended to approach the interpretation of model outcomes for non-sinusoidal δ^{48} O curves with caution. Further details on the application of this method can be found in Appendix D.

Stable oxygen isotopes from meteoric water (mainly derived from rainfall) have a strong relationshipstrongly correlate with mean air temperatures in mid to high latitudes (Rozanski et al., 1992; Dansgaard, 1964) on a regional-to-local scale. Obligate drinkers, such as like bovines and horses, acquire this water and record its isotopic composition in their teeth and bones with a fixed; but species-specific offset (Pederzani and Britton, 2019). Considering this two-step relationship, past climatic conditions can be estimated. However, most of the temperature reconstructions based on δ^{18} O have considered the δ^{18} O from the phosphate fraction of bioapatite enamel (δ^{18} O_{phos}) to build linear correlations between tooth enamel and drinking water δ^{18} O and obtain climatic information. For this reason, the δ^{18} O_{carb} from carbonates values obtained in this work (δ^{18} O_{carb}) were converted into δ^{18} O_{phos} from phosphates (δ^{18} O_{phos}). To do so, first, to express in VSMOW notation, the δ^{18} O_{carb} was corrected using the following correlation (Coplen et al., 1983; Brand et al., 2014):

(Eq.5) $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ (VSMOW)= 1.0309 x $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ (VPDB) + 30.91

Second, considering the relationship existent in tooth enamel between the carbonate and phosphate fraction (lacumin et al., 1996; Pellegrini et al., 2011), from a compilation of the existent bibliography of modern animals measurements (Trayler and Kohn, 2017; Pellegrini et al., 2011; Bryant et al., 1996), Pederzani et al. (2023) proposed the following correlation:

 $(Eq.6) \delta^{18}O_{phos} (VSMOW) = 0.941 \times \frac{5^{18}O_{carb.C}}{(VSMOW)} - 7.16$

Once the isotopic information is expressed in $\delta^{18}O_{phos}$ (VSMOW), we can estimate the $\delta^{18}O$ on meteoric waters ($\delta^{18}O_{mw}$). It is known that different physiological factors will condition how oxygen isotope composition is fixed in each mammalian group. Thus, usually, the correlations—are usually species-specific and developed considering the particular physiology of each animal group. The correlation employed by this work relies on recent data compilations (Pederzani et al., 2021b, 2023). In the case of horses (Eq. 7), it has been considered the data combination of Blumenthal et al. (2019); Chillón et al. (1994); Bryant et al., 1994; Delgado Huertas et al., 1995), whereas for bovines (Eq. 8) the data from D'Angela and Longinelli (1990)

332 and Hoppe (2006) have been put together in Eq. 4. To estimate $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ from red deer remains, we selected 333 D'Angela and Longinelli (1990) correlation (Eq. 9): $(Eq.7) \delta^{18}O_{mw} (VSMOW) = (\delta^{18}O_{phos} (VSMOW) - 22.14) / 0.6287$ 334 (Eq.8) $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ (VSMOW)= ($\delta^{18}O_{phos}$ (VSMOW) - 22.436) / 0.785 335 (Eq.9) $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ (VSMOW)= ($\delta^{18}O_{phos}$ (VSMOW) - 24.39) / 0.91 336 337 Finally, paleotemperatures estimations from δ18O_{mw} are typically approached using a geographically 338 adjusted linear regression, which can vary from precise adjustments (aimed at reducing errors) to broader 339 geographical adjustments that encompass more variability and but also introduce greatermore significant uncertaintybut are less precise (e.g., Pryor et al., 2014; Skrzypek et al., 2011; Tütken et al., 2007), the mean 340 annual temperatures (MAT) were calculated from 518Omm, In this work, temperatures were calculated 341 considering the linear regression model relating δ18O_{mw} and air temperatures from lberia proposed by 342 343 Pederzani et al. (2021). Fernández-García et al. (2019). This correlation is based on monthly climatic records (monthly mean $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ and monthly mean air temperatures), from Western, Southern and Central 344 345 Europe all Iberian-stations from the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation, operated by the International Atomic Energy Association and the World Meteorological Organization (IAEA/ WMO, 2018/2020). 346 347 Considering current IAEA data sets from northern Iberia, there is a strong positive relationship between 348 δ18Omw and annual or monthly temperatures (Moreno et al., 2021). However, it is known that Iberia is 349 under a mixed influence between Atlantic and Mediterranean moisture sources that affects the isotopic 350 composition of rainfall (Moreno et al., 2021; Araguas-Araguas and Diaz Teijeiro, 2005; García-Alix et al., 351 2021). Given uncertainties in past atmospheric circulation patterns and the limited availability of reference 352 stations, it was deemed most appropriate to select an equation that extends beyond the borders of Iberia 353 and incorporates higher variability. Different correlations were for mean annual temperature (Eq. 10), 354 summer (Eq. 11), and winter (Eq. 12) temperatures (T): (Eq.10) $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ (VSMOW)= (0.50 x T) - 13.64 355 $(Eq.11) \delta^{18}O_{mw}(VSMOW) = (0.46 \times T) - 14.70$ 356 357 $(Eq.12) \delta^{18}O_{mw} (VSMOW) = (0.52 x T) - 11.26$ 358 $(Eq. 10) MAT (°C) = 2.38(\pm 0.10) \times \delta^{18}O_{mw} + 28.19(\pm 0.58)$ 359 $[r^2 = 0.65; n = 304; p value > < 0.0001]$ 360 Nonetheless, oscillations between glacial and interglacial conditions in the past have influenced global ice 361 volume and sea level fluctuations (Dansgaard, 1964; Shackleton, 1987), impacting seawater oxygen isotope 362 composition and the surface hydrological cycle on a global worldwide scale, including δ18Omw (Schrag et al., 2002). Prior studies have used sea level information to correct δ¹⁸O_{mw} (e.g., Fernández-García et al., 2019; 363 364 Schrag et al., 2002). Given the chronological uncertainty in the studied levels, a general correction was 365 applyied to δ¹8O_{mw} before temperatures estimations, following Fernández-García et al. (2020) approach. 366 Considering the mean sea level descent for the MIS3 period (50 meters below present-day sea 367 level)(Chappell and Shackleton, 1986), this may have contributed to a potential increase in the global δ18O_{mw} 368 value by ≈0.56‰, inferring a bias in calculated air temperatures of ≈1°C. Following (Pederzani et al., (2021b), mean annual temperatures (MAT) wereas deduced from the δ¹⁸O mean 369 average of 5180 early values between summer and winter detected in original sinusoidal intratooth profiles 370

(Appendix C) in each tooth before modeling to reduce associated error and maximise number of usable data

records. This work shows that comparable results can be obtained before and after model application, but

doing it beforehand avoids the associated errors induced by the inverse model. Summer and winter

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estimations were extracted from the obtained δ^{18} O values after inverse modeling application, to identify seasonal variation. o maximize data, in non-sinusoidal teeth profiles, MAT was deduced from the average of all points within a tooth. However, this approach is less reliable when complete annual cycles are not recorded. When possible, summer and winter estimations were derived from the obtained δ^{18} O_{sati} values after inverse modelling application, aiming to identify the seasonal amplitude, which is dampened in the original δ^{18} O_{sati} signal.

Due to the uncertainties incurred from converting stable isotope measurements to palaeotemperature, the final estimations in this work should be considered exploratory and as a method of standardisation to make results comparable with among different sites, data from different species, and other non-isotopic palaeoclimatic records. In these estimations, the associated error from converting $\delta^{18}O_{phos}$ to MAT is enlarged by the uncertainty derived from the transformation of $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ (VPDB) to $\delta^{18}O_{phos}$ (VSMOW) (see Pryor et al., 2014; Skrzypek et al., 2016 for further discussion). However, Pryor et al. (2014) and Pederzani et al. (2023) concluded that the impact of this conversion is negligible compared to the error propagation in subsequent calibrations used for temperature estimations from $\delta^{18}O_{phos}$. These associated errors were quantified following the methodology outlined by Pryor et al. (2014).

3.5 Inverse modelling applied to intratooth profiles

Intratooth profiles frequently provide a time-averaged signal compared to the input isotopic signal (δ^{13} C/ $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$) during enamel formation (Passey et al., 2005b). This signal attenuation is caused by time-averaging effects incurred through the extended nature of amelogenesis and tooth formation, and through the sampling strategy. During mineralisation, the maturation zone, which is time-averaged, often affects a large portion of the crown height and might affect the temporal resolution of the input signal of the sample taken. To obtain climatically informative seasonal information on the analysed teeth, the the-inverse modelling method proposed by (Passey et al. (2005b) is applied in this work. This method computationally estimates the timeaveraging effects of sampling and tooth formation to obtain the original amplitude of the isotopic input signal more accurately, thus, to summer and winter extremes (Appendix D). This method considers parameters based on the amelogenesis trends of each species and sampling geometry, which are critical for a meaningful interpretation of intratooth isotope profiles. The model also estimates the error derived from the sampling uncertainty and the mass spectrometer measurements to evaluate the data's reproducibility and precision. This method was initially developed for continuously growing teeth, taking into account a constant growth rate within a linear maturation model, with a progressive time-average increment as sampling advances along the teeth profile. The species studied in this research exhibit non-linear tooth enamel formation, particularly in later-forming molars (Bendrey et al., 2015; Zazzo et al., 2012; Passey and Cerling, 2002; Kohn, 2004; Blumenthal et al., 2014). Although the model mentioned above is not ideal, as it does not take into account for non-linear enamel formation and certainspecific growth parameters for the species included are unknown, it is the best estimation based on the current state of the field and remains widely used (Pederzani et al., 2023, 2021a, b). Flat and less sinusoidal profiles are less suitable for the application of the model, given its inherent assumption of an approximately sinusoidal form. Therefore, we chose not to apply this methodology in the analysis of intratooth δ^{13} C profiles, and it is recommended to approach the interpretation of model outcomes for non-sinusoidal δ18O curves with caution. Further details on the application of this method can be found in Appendix D.

Following Pederzani et al. (2021b), mean annual temperatures (MAT) were deduced from the average of δ^{18} O_{carb} values between summer and winter detected in original sinusoidal intratooth profiles (Appendix C). This work shows that comparable results for annual means can be obtained before and after model application, but doing it beforehand avoids the associated errors induced by the inverse model. To maximize data, in non-sinusoidal teeth profiles, MAT was deduced from the average of all points within a tooth. However, this approach is less reliable when complete annual cycles are not recorded. When possible,

summer and winter temperature estimations were derived from the obtained $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values after inverse modelling application, aiming to identify the corrected seasonal amplitude, which is dampened in the original $\underline{\delta^{18}O_{carb}}$ signal.

3.64 Present-day isotopic and climatic data

Present-day climatic conditions surrounding each site have been considered, allowing an inter-site comparison, essential for compare our this study but also a regional to a with other regional and global perspectivedata. Considering current MATs and MAPs, estimated climatic data is expressed in relative terms as MAT and MAP anomalies. Present-day summer and winter temperatures were also considered. Present-day temperatures and precipitation values were obtained from the WorldClim Dataset v2 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) (Appendix B). This dataset includes the average of bioclimatic variables between 1970-2000 in a set of raster files with a spatial resolution every 2.5 minutes. The exact location of the selected archeopalaeontological sites was used, using geographical coordinates in the projection on modern climatic maps with QGIS software.

Present-day $\delta^{18}O_{_{DWV}}$ values from the analysed sites' areas were obtained using the Online Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator (OIPC Version 3.1 (4/2017); Bowen, 2022) based on datasets collected by the

Global Network for Isotopes in Precipitation from the IAEA/WMO (Appendix B).

Site	Level	Culture	Species	Tooth type	Code	CCE (%)	n	δ13Ccarb VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range	δ180carb VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	AXL59	5.6	14	-8.9	-9.6	-8.2	1.4	0.4	-6.0	-7.3	-5.2	0.7	2.1
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL60	5.5	18	-9.7	-10.0	-8.9	1.1	0.3	-5.7	-6.8	-4.6	0.7	2.2
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	AXL65	6.2	13	-8.9	-9.3	-8.1	1.2	0.4	-6.0	-7.2	-4.6	0.8	2.6
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL66	5.6	16	-8.9	-9.8	-8.3	1.5	0.5	-4.8	-6.1	-3.8	0.7	2.3
Axlor	IV	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL70	5.7	12	-9.1	-9.4	-8.6	0.7	0.3	-5.3	-7.3	-3.9	1.2	3.4
Axlor	VI	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AXL77	5.9	14	-9.7	-10.2	-9.2	1.0	0.4	-6.2	-7.9	-5.0	0.9	2.9
Axlor	VI	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AXL86	5.5	18	-9.9	-10.2	-9.3	0.9	0.3	-5.4	-6.5	-3.8	0.7	2.6
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS60		14	-11.9	-12.5	-11.5	1.0	0.3	-3.3	-4.1	-2.4	0.4	1.6
El Castilo	20E	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS61		14	-12.2	-12.4	-12.1	0.3	0.1	-4.9	-5.8	-4.3	0.4	1.5
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM2	CAS139	6.7	16	-11.6	-12.2	-11.2	0.9	0.3	-5.6	-6.3	-4.9	0.5	1.4
El Castilo	20E	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM2	CAS140	5.7	12	-11.5	-11.9	-11.1	0.8	0.3	-5.5	-6.3	-4.6	0.6	1.7
El Castillo	21A	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS141	5.7	15	-11.2	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.2	-5.4	-6.5	-4.3	0.6	2.2
El Castilo	21A	Mousterian	Bison priscus	LLM3	CAS142	6.1	15	-11.2	-11.7	-10.9	0.7	0.2	-5.0	-5.7	-4.4	0.4	1.3
El Castillo	21A	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LLM3	CAS143	6.5	17	-12.6	-12.9	-12.5	0.4	0.1	-6.2	-7.2	-5.4	0.5	1.8
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS132	6.2	13	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.2	-6.2	-7.4	-4.9	0.7	2.6
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS133	6.8	18	-10.9	-11.6	-10.5	1.1	0.3	-5.4	-6.5	-4.2	0.7	2.2
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS134	6.6	18	-12.4	-12.8	-11.6	1.2	0.3	-5.4	-6.3	-4.5	0.5	1.8
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS135	6	17	-11.3	-11.5	-11.0	0.5	0.2	-6.1	-6.6	-5.5	0.3	1.1
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS136	5.8	17	-12.0	-12.5	-11.7	0.9	0.2	-5.8	-6.7	-5.0	0.6	1.7
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS137	6.6	14	-10.2	-10.6	-9.9	0.7	0.2	-5.8	-6.5	-4.1	0.7	2.4
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS138	6.1	18	-11.6	-11.8	-11.4	0.4	0.1	-5.3	-5.9	-4.8	0.3	1.2
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Cervus elaphus	ULM2+ULM3	CAS8		11	-13.0	-14.9	-12.1	2.8	1.0	-6.8	-10.4	-4.1	2.1	6.3
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Equus sp.	ULP3/ULP4	CAS58		19	-11.7	-11.8	-11.5	0.3	0.1	-6.6	-7.5	-5.6	0.5	1.8
El Castilo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP3	CAS59		14	-11.5	-11.7	-11.0	0.7	0.2	-4.0	-4.7	-3.5	0.4	1.2
Labeko Koba	IX inf	Chatelperronian	Equus sp.	URM3	LAB38		17	-12.0	-12.2	-11.9	0.3	0.1	-6.6	-7.7	-5.9	0.5	1.9
Labeko Koba	IX inf	Chatelperronian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2	LAB02		7	-12.3	-12.4	-12.1	0.3	0.1	-4.7	-6.0	-3.7	1.0	2.3
Labeko Koba	VI	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	URM2	LAB20		16	-12.0	-12.2	-11.8	0.4	0.1	-5.3	-6.1	-4.4	0.6	1.7
Labeko Koba	V	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LRM3	LAB42		17	-11.9	-12.3	-11.5	0.2	0.7	-5.7	-6.6	-5.0	0.5	1.6
Labeko Koba	IV	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LRM2	LAB36		17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.3	0.6	0.2	-5.9	-6.2	-5.5	0.2	0.7
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	URM3	CAN01	7.8	12	-10.0	-10.4	-9.5	0.9	0.3	-4.8	-5.3	-4.3	0.3	1.1
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Equus ferus	URM3	CAN02	6.2	17	-10.5	-10.7	-10.3	0.4	0.1	-4.4	-5.0	-3.6	0.5	1.4
Canyars	- 1	Aurignacian	Equus ferus	URP3/URP4	CAN03	6.4	17	-10.7	-11.2	-10.4	0.8	0.2	-4.8	-5.3	-4.0	0.4	1.4
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB53	5.2	23	-9.5	-10.1	-8.7	1.4	0.3	-5.7	-7.0	-4.2	0.9	2.8
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB55	5.6	23	-10.4	-11.5	-9.8	1.6	0.3	-5.1	-7.0	-2.7	1.2	4.3
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	LAB62	6.5	21	-9.7	-10.2	-9.1	1.2	0.3	-7.2	-8.1	-6.2	0.6	2.0
Labeko Koba	V	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB69	5.5	21	-9.3	-10.3	-7.3	3.0	0.9	-7.2	-8.8	-5.5	0.9	3.3
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	ULM3	CAN04	6.8	14	-9.3	-9.8	-8.7	1.1	0.3	-3.6	-4.2	-2.6	0.5	1.6
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	ULM3	CAN05	6.6	14	-9.0	-9.5	-8.5	0.9	0.3	-5.5	-6.2	-5.0	0.4	1.2
Aitzbitarte III	V (int)	Gravettian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AITI10	5.5	17	-9.2	-9.6	-8.7	0.9	0.3	-5.5	-6.5	-4.3	0.5	2.2
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE1		11	-11.4	-11.6	-11.2	0.4	0.1	-4.4	-5.8	-2.9	1.0	2.9
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE5		10	-11.3	-11.5	-11.0	0.5	0.2	-5.1	-5.7	-3.8	0.6	1.9
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE6		14	-11.4	-11.8	-10.6	1.2	0.3	-4.6	-5.4	-4.0	0.4	1.4
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE11		17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.4	0.5	0.1	-5.0	-6.3	-3.9	0.7	2.4
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE12		16	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.1	-3.9	-4.9	-3.3	0.6	1.6
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE12		16	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.1	-3.9	-4.9	-3.3	0.6	1.6

Site	Level	Culture	Species	Tooth type	Code	n	δ13Ccarb VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range	δ18Ocarb VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	AXL59	14	-8.9	-9.6	-8.2	1.4	0.4	-6.0	-7.3	-5.2	0.7	2.1
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL60	18	-9.7	-10.0	-8.9	1.1	0.3	-5.7	-6.8	-4.6	0.7	2.2
Axlor	Ш	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	AXL65	13	-8.9	-9.3	-8.1	1.2	0.4	-6.0	-7.2	-4.6	0.8	2.6
Axlor	III	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL66	16	-8.9	-9.8	-8.3	1.5	0.5	-4.8	-6.1	-3.8	0.7	2.3
Axlor	IV	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM2	AXL70	12	-9.1	-9.4	-8.6	0.7	0.3	-5.3	-7.3	-3.9	1.2	3.4
Axlor	VI	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AXL77	14	-9.7	-10.2	-9.2	1.0	0.4	-6.2	-7.9	-5.0	0.9	2.9
Axlor	VI	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AXL86	18	-9.9	-10.2	-9.3	0.9	0.3	-5.4	-6.5	-3.8	0.7	2.6
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS60	14	-11.9	-12.5	-11.5	1.0	0.3	-3.3	-4.1	-2.4	0.4	1.6
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS61	14	-12.2	-12.4	-12.1	0.3	0.1	-4.9	-5.8	-4.3	0.4	1.5
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM2	CAS139	16	-11.6	-12.2	-11.2	0.9	0.3	-5.6	-6.3	-4.9	0.5	1.4
El Castillo	20E	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM2	CAS140	12	-11.5	-11.9	-11.1	0.8	0.3	-5.5	-6.3	-4.6	0.6	1.7
El Castillo	21A	Mousterian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS141	15	-11.2	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.2	-5.4	-6.5	-4.3	0.6	2.2
El Castillo	21A	Mousterian	Bison priscus	LLM3	CAS142	15	-11.2	-11.7	-10.9	0.7	0.2	-5.0	-5.7	-4.4	0.4	1.3
El Castillo	21A	Mousterian	Equus sp.	LLM3	CAS143	17	-12.6	-12.9	-12.5	0.4	0.1	-6.2	-7.2	-5.4	0.5	1.8
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS132	13	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.2	-6.2	-7.4	-4.9	0.7	2.6
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS133	18	-10.9	-11.6	-10.5	1.1	0.3	-5.4	-6.5	-4.2	0.7	2.2
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	ULM2	CAS134	18	-12.4	-12.8	-11.6	1.2	0.3	-5.4	-6.3	-4.5	0.5	1.8
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS135	17	-11.3	-11.5	-11.0	0.5	0.2	-6.1	-6.6	-5.5	0.3	1.1
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS136	17	-12.0	-12.5	-11.7	0.9	0.2	-5.8	-6.7	-5.0	0.6	1.7
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS137	14	-10.2	-10.6	-9.9	0.7	0.2	-5.8	-6.5	-4.1	0.7	2.4
El Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	CAS138	18	-11.6	-11.8	-11.4	0.4	0.1	-5.3	-5.9	-4.8	0.3	1.2
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Cervus elaphus	ULM2+ULM3	CAS8	11	-13.0	-14.9	-12.1	2.8	1.0	-6.8	-10.4	-4.1	2.1	6.3
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Equus sp.	ULP3/ULP4	CAS58	19	-11.7	-11.8	-11.5	0.3	0.1	-6.6	-7.5	-5.6	0.5	1.8
El Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP3	CAS59	14	-11.5	-11.7	-11.0	0.7	0.2	-4.0	-4.7	-3.5	0.4	1.2
Labeko Koba	IX inf	Chatelperronian	Equus sp.	URM3	LAB38	17	-12.0	-12.2	-11.9	0.3	0.1	-6.6	-7.7	-5.9	0.5	1.9
Labeko Koba	IX inf	Chatelperronian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2	LAB02	7	-12.3	-12.4	-12.1	0.3	0.1	-4.7	-6.0	-3.7	1.0	2.3
Labeko Koba	VI	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	URM2	LAB20	16	-12.0	-12.2	-11.8	0.4	0.1	-5.3	-6.1	-4.4	0.6	1.7
Labeko Koba	V	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LRM3	LAB42	17	-11.9	-12.3	-11.5	0.2	0.7	-5.7	-6.6	-5.0	0.5	1.6
Labeko Koba	IV	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	LRM2	LAB36	17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.3	0.6	0.2	-5.9	-6.2	-5.5	0.2	0.7
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Equus sp.	URM3	CAN01	12	-10.0	-10.4	-9.5	0.9	0.3	-4.8	-5.3	-4.3	0.3	1.1
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Equus ferus	URM3	CAN02	17	-10.5	-10.7	-10.3	0.4	0.1	-4.4	-5.0	-3.6	0.5	1.4
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Equus ferus	URP3/URP4	CAN03	17	-10.7	-11.2	-10.4	0.8	0.2	-4.8	-5.3	-4.0	0.4	1.4
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB53	23	-9.5	-10.1	-8.7	1.4	0.3	-5.7	-7.0	-4.2	0.9	2.8
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB55	23	-10.4	-11.5	-9.8	1.6	0.3	-5.1	-7.0	-2.7	1.2	4.3
Labeko Koba	VII	Aurignacian	Bos/Bison sp.	LRM3	LAB62	21	-9.7	-10.2	-9.1	1.2	0.3	-7.2	-8.1	-6.2	0.6	2.0
Labeko Koba	V	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	LRM3	LAB69	21	-9.3	-10.3	-7.3	3.0	0.9	-7.2	-8.8	-5.5	0.9	3.3
Canyars	- 1	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	ULM3	CAN04	14	-9.3	-9.8	-8.7	1.1	0.3	-3.6	-4.2	-2.6	0.5	1.6
Canyars	1	Aurignacian	Bos primigenius	ULM3	CAN05	14	-9.0	-9.5	-8.5	0.9	0.3	-5.5	-6.2	-5.0	0.4	1.2
Aitzbitarte III	V (int)	Gravettian	Bos/Bison sp.	LLM3	AITI10	17	-9.2	-9.6	-8.7	0.9	0.3	-5.5	-6.5	-4.3	0.5	2.2
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE1	11	-11.4	-11.6	-11.2	0.4	0.1	-4.4	-5.8	-2.9	1.0	2.9
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE5	10	-11.3	-11.5	-11.0	0.5	0.2	-5.1	-5.7	-3.8	0.6	1.9
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Cervus elaphus	LLM2+LLM3	OTE6	14	-11.4	-11.8	-10.6	1.2	0.3	-4.6	-5.4	-4.0	0.4	1.4
El Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Equus sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE11	17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.4	0.5	0.1	-5.0	-6.3	-3.9	0.7	2.4
FI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	Equus sp.	11 P3/11 P4	OTE12	16	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.1	-3.9	-4.9	-3.3	0.6	1.6

Table 2. Mean, maximum value (Max), minimum value (Min), and standard deviation (SD) of δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values per archaeological site and level organised by cultural periods. <u>CCE, calcium carbonate equivalent;</u> n= number of intratooth subsamples measured. In tooth type: position (U, upper; L, lower); laterality (R, right; L, left); tooth (M, molar; P, premolar).

4. Results

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In northwestern Iberia, specifically in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values range from -138.9% to -8.913%, with a mean value of -11% (SD = 1.2%) (Table 2; Table 3). Considering species' different fractionation enrichment factors, the $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ were transformed in $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$, resulting in mean values that extend from -2723.5% to -23.527% (Fig. 4). It must be considered that average values may reflect slightly different periods or be affected by seasonal bias because different teeth encompass different diverse periods, but it has been verified in our teeth that the variations are limited when the seasonal information of the sequential sampling is incorporated (±0.2; Appendix B). The carbon isotopic composition varies between species. The bovines have generally higher mean $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ (from -12.48.9% to -8.912.4%) than the horses (from -12.6-11.3-11.3-12.6-%), whereas the red deer-samples fall within the horses' range (from -14.3-%) to -11.3‰). Average values of δ^{18} O_{carb} in all Vasco-Cantabrian individuals extend between -7.23.3‰ and -3.37.2% (mean = -5.5%; SD = 0.8%). When transformed to δ^{18} O expected from meteoric waters (δ^{18} O_{mw}), with species-adapted correlations, the $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values range from $-\underline{10.63.9}\%$ to $-\underline{5.59.9}\%$. Less clear patterns in δ¹⁸O_{carb} are observed between bovines and horses, with mean values of -5.7% and -5.2%, respectively. In the Mediterranean area, the site of Canyars, both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values that fall inside the range of variation observed in the Cantabria region, between -5.5-3.6% and -3.6-5.5% in bovines and between -4.84% and -4.48% in case of horses.

	Vasco-	Cantabrian	region (NW	Iberia)	Medi	terranean r	egion (NE It	peria)
	δ ¹³ Ccarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹³ Cdiet VPDB (‰)		d18Omw VSMOW (‰)	δ ¹³ Ccarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹³ Cdiet VPDB (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Ocarb VPDB (‰)	d18Omw VSMOW (‰)
Mean	-11.0	-25.1	-5.5	-6.7	-9.9	-24.0	-4.6	-5.4
Max	-8.9	-23.5	-3.3	-3.9	-9.0	-23.6	-3.6	-4.3
Min	-13.0	-27.0	-7.2	-9.9	-10.7	-24.4	-5.5	-6.5
Range	4.1	3.5	3.9	6.0	1.7	0.8	1.9	2.2
SD	1.2	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.8	0.3	0.7	8.0
Mean	-10.4	-25.0	-5.7	-6.8	-9.1	-23.7	-4.5	-5.4
Max	-8.9	-23.5	-4.8	-5.7	-9.0	-23.6	-3.6	-4.3
Min	-12.4	-27.0	-7.2	-8.5	-9.3	-23.9	-5.5	-6.5
Range	3.5	3.5	2.4	2.7	0.3	0.3	1.9	2.2
SD	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	1.4	1.6
Mean	-11.8	-25.5	-5.2	-6.0	-10.4	-24.1	-4.7	-5.4
Max	-11.3	-25.0	-3.3	-3.9	-10.0	-23.7	-4.4	-5.1
Min	-12.6	-26.3	-6.6	-7.6	-10.7	-24.4	-4.8	-5.6
Range	1.4	1.4	3.3	3.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.5
SD	0.4	0.4	11	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3

		Vasco	o-Cantabria	n region (N\	N Iberia)		Northea	stern Iberia	
		δ ¹³ Ccarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹³ Cdiet VPDB (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Ocarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Omw VSMOW (‰)	δ ¹³ Ccarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹³ Cdiet VPDB (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Ocarb VPDB (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Omw VSMOW (‰)
	Mean	-11.0	-25.1	-5.5	-8.0	-9.9	-24.0	-4.6	-7.1
_	Max	-8.9	-23.5	-3.3	-5.5	-9.0	-23.6	-3.6	-5.0
Total	Min	-13.0	-27.0	-7.2	-10.6	-10.7	-24.4	-5.5	-7.9
-	Range	4.1	3.5	3.9	5.1	1.7	0.8	1.9	2.9
	SD	1.2	0.9	0.8	1.2	0.8	0.3	0.7	1.2
	Mean	-10.4	-25.0	-5.7	-7.7	-9.1	-23.7	-4.5	-6.2
sət	Max	-8.9	-23.5	-4.8	-6.5	-9.0	-23.6	-3.6	-5.0
Bovines	Min	-12.4	-27.0	-7.2	-9.5	-9.3	-23.9	-5.5	-7.4
ĕ	Range	3.5	3.5	2.4	3.0	0.3	0.3	1.9	2.4
	SD	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	1.4	1.7
	Mean	-11.8	-25.5	-5.2	-8.5	-10.4	-24.1	-4.7	-7.6
Sa	Max	-11.3	-25.0	-3.3	-5.5	-10.0	-23.7	-4.4	-7.2
Horses	Min	-12.6	-26.3	-6.6	-10.6	-10.7	-24.4	-4.8	-7.9
Ĭ	Range	1.4	1.4	3.3	5.1	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7
	SD	0.4	0.4	1.1	1.8	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4

Table 3. Mean δ¹³C from enamel carbonate (δ¹³C_{garb}) and diet (δ¹³C_{giet}), and δ¹⁸O from enamel carbonate (δ¹⁸O_{garb}) and meteoric waters (δ¹⁸O_{gaw}), by species on the Vasco-Cantabrian and Mediterranean northeastern Iberia areas. Max: maximum value; Min: minimum value: SD: standard deviation.

4.1 Axlor (ca. 80 ka BP - 5045 ka cal BP)

A total of seven bovine teeth were included from levels III (n = 4), IV (n = 1), and VI (n = 2) of Axlor cave (Pederzani et al., 2023). The mean $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ range from -98.9% to -89.9% ($\delta^{13}C_{\text{diel}}$ = -243.5% to -243.5%); whereas mean $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carb}}$ values are between -6.2-4.8% and -4.86.2% ($\delta^{18}O_{\text{mw}}$ = -8.35.7% and -6.57.3%), indicating a range of variation around 1% and 1.4%, respectively (Fig. 3; 4). Considering isotopic compositions by levels, mean $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ decreases from level III to level IV, whereas mean $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carb}}$ remains stable through the sequence (Table 2; Appendix B). A range between 0.3% and 0.5% is observed in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ variation within tooth profiles. Individuals show clear $\delta^{18}O$ sinusoidal profiles, with peaks and troughs, and intratooth ranges from 2.1% to 3.4%. The $\delta^{18}O_{\text{mw}}$ after inverse modelling intratooth profiles range from -9.15% to -7.36.5% (Appendix C; D). Mean Annual Temperatures (MATs), estimated from mean $\delta^{18}O_{\text{mw}}$ values, with seasonal control, oscillated between $109.1^{\circ}C$ and $12.64^{\circ}C$ (MATAs = -3.1/+0.4+1-8/-2.1°C) (Table 4). From sinusoidal profiles, summer temperatures were extracted from peaks, which are estimated to extendresulting from 15.4°C to 23.7°C, and winter temperatures from troughs provided values ranging from -7°C to 10.8°C. Mean Annual Precipitation (MAPs), extracted from $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$, extend between 204mm and 326mm (MAPAs = -843721/-721843mm). Based on these estimations, a non-clear climatic trend is observed through these levels.

4.2 El Castillo (ca. 75 ka BP - 42.97 ka cal BP)

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From El Castillo, this work includes bovines (n = 11), horses (n = 5), and red deer (n = 1) teeth from the Mousterian (21 and 20E) and the Transitional Aurignacian levels (18B and 18C). The mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values are lower for horses, bovines, and red deer (-13% to -10.2%) than other sites. Between -12.4% and -10.2% for bovines ($\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ = -24.6% to -25.8%) and between -12.6% and -11.5% for horses ($\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ = -26.3% to -25.2%) (Fig. 3). The mean $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values extend from -6.8% and -3.3%. Horses and bovines overlap in their isotopic niche (Fig. 4), mainly due to the notably lower $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ reported by bovines. The mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ (-13%) of the single red deer tooth is inside the variation range of bovines and horses but with a lower $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ mean value (-6.8%). Considering these isotopic compositions by levels, bovine mean $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values highly increase the variation range from Mousterian levels (20E and 21A) to Transitional Aurignacian levels (18C and 18B). In contrast, horses increase mean $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values (Fig. 5). Bovine mean $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values decrease from level 21A to level 18B, while horses from 18B have a large intra-level amplitude.

The mean $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values from horses have a more significant variation (range = 3.3%) than bovines (range = 2.2%). All individuals show flat $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ intratooth profiles (<0.4%), except for red deer (1%) (Appendix C).

The mean δ¹⁸O_{carb} values from horses have a more significant variation (range = 3.3%) than bovines (range = 2.2%). All individuals show flat δ¹³C_{carb} intratooth profiles (<0.4%), except for red deer (1%) (Appendix C). Intratooth δ¹⁸O_{carb} ranges of individuals are around 1-2% for horses and 1-3% for bovines. Some of the individuals analyzed do not show non-complete annual cycles. No precise δ¹⁸O_{carb} sinusoidal profiles are detected in three teeth; the other six have particularly unclear profiles. After modelling, individual δ¹⁸O_{carb} ranges oscillated between 2.7% and 7.4% (Appendix D). MATs oscillated between 4.6°C and 12.6°C (MATAs = -8.8°C/-0.9°C), with mean summer temperatures from around 20.5°C and mean winter temperatures around -1.1°C. MAPs extend between 376mm and 784mm (MAPAs = -656/-248mm) (Table 4). Non-important differences in rainfall estimations based on bovines and equids are noticed, probably because they feed on similar ecological resources. Diachronic trends are unclear along the sequence, but mean annual and winter temperatures from levels 18C and 18C seem slightly lower. MAPs estimations oscillated more in the upper levels.

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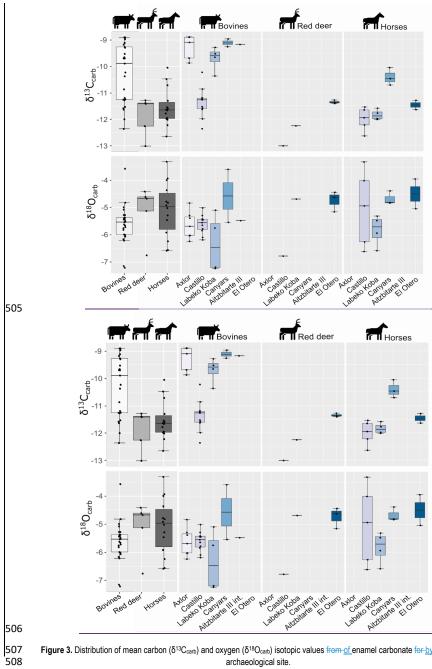


Figure 3. Distribution of mean carbon ($\delta^{13}C_{carb}$) and oxygen ($\delta^{18}O_{carb}$) isotopic values from of enamel carbonate for by species and archaeological site.

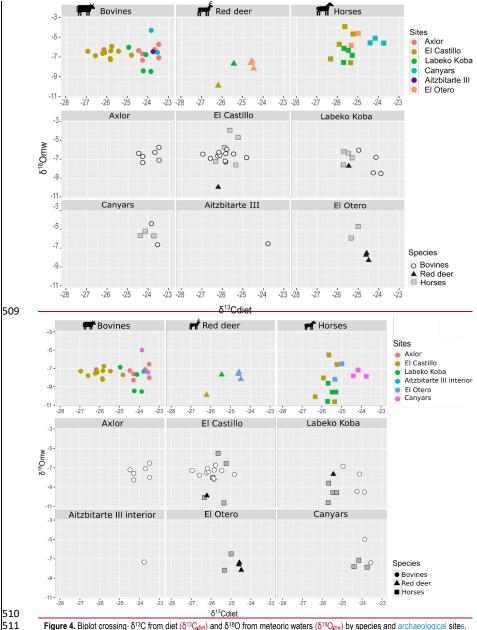


Figure 4. Biplot crossing- δ^{13} C from diet $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}})$ and δ^{18} O from meteoric waters $(\delta^{18}O_{\text{graw}})$ by species and archaeological sites.

4.3 Labeko Koba (ca. 43.4-35.4 ka cal BP)

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This work includes $\frac{\text{teeth of}}{\text{of}}$ bovines (n = 4), horses (n = 4), and red deer (n = 1) $\frac{\text{teeth}}{\text{from levels related to}}$ Châtelperronian (IXb inf), ProtoAurignacian (VII), and Aurignacian (VI, V, and IV). Significant differentiation in mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ between bovines and horses is observed, with higher values between -9.3% and -10.4%

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in bovines ($\delta^{13}C_{diet} = \frac{-25-23.8}{25.8}$ % to $\frac{-23.8-25}{25.8}$ %) than equids, whose values extend from $\frac{12}{12.6}$ % to -4211.6% (δ13C_{diet} = -25.82% to -25.28%) (Fig. 3;). These horses' values are within the ranges observed from this species in the region. Red deer have similar $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values to those of horses ($\delta^{13}C_{carb} = -12.3\%$; $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ = -25.5%). Mean $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values are similar between species from -7.24.7% to -4.77.2% ($\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ = -8.56.1% to -6.18.5%). However, bovines have a very high variation within mean δ¹8Ocarb values (2.1%), also reflected in the intratooth profiles. These $\delta^{18}O$ values are lower than in other Vasco-Cantabrian sites, especially for two individuals in levels VII and V (Table 3). Differences in δ13C_{diet} values between bovines and horses result in isotopic niche differentiation between both species (Fig. 4). The red deer niche is placed within the horses' niche. The evolution of red this deer niche over time cannot be evaluated by levels due to the limited sample. Considering the isotopic compositions by levels (Fig. 5), both bovines and horses experienced a slight increase in mean $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ from levels IX_inf to IV, that is, from Châtelperronian to Aurignacian. Mean δ¹⁸O_{mw} values of bovines decrease from VII to V, whereas in the case of horses increase in the case of horses in th

527 528 from Xlinf to VI to thenhorses increase from Xlinf to VI to decrease from VI to IV.

Variability of δ¹³C_{carb} values in intratooth profiles is slightly higher (0.1-0.7‰), especially in bovines (0.3-0.9%), with more oscillating profiles than generally flat profiles observed in horses and red deer (Appendix C; D). Intratooth profiles ranges of δ¹⁸O_{carb} are also larger within bovines (2-4‰) than in horses (1-2‰). Inverse_modelled individual δ^{18} O_{carb} ranges oscillated between 5-8% and 2-4%, respectively. Sinusoidal curves are observed both in horses and bovines, but bovine profiles are noisier. The red deer has a largn extensive δ¹⁸O_{carb} range (6.3‰) from summer peak to an incomplete winter thought. We detect an inverse relation between $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ and $\delta^{18}C_{carb}$ in some points of these individual profiles. MATs oscillated between 5.27° C and $11.43.7^{\circ}$ C (MATAs = -5.6/+1.1°C), with summer temperatures from $14.5.3^{\circ}$ C to 27.35° C and winter temperatures from 01.9°C to -4.99.1°C. MAPs extend between 248mm and 521mm, which are notable drier conditions notably drier than nowadays (MAPAs = -798/-525mm) (Table 4). Lower rainfall levels and higher seasonal amplitudes are recorded along the sequence, especially in samples from the ProtoAurignacian level VII. Relevant differences are noticed between MAPs estimated from bovines and equids, the first providing more arid conditions.

4.4 Aitzbitarte III interior (ca. 30.8-26.9 ka cal BP)

A single bovine individual was analysed from Gravettian level V located in the inner part of the cave, related to Gravettian. It has a high mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ (-9.2%) considering the observed range in bovines from the Vasco-Cantabrian region, whereas the $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ mean value (-5.5%) is inside the common $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ variation observed (Fig. 3). The mean δ¹³C_{diet} value of -23.8% is comparable with Canyars and some individuals from Axlor, but different from Labeko Koba and El Castillo individuals. The individual δ13Ccarb fluctuation is small <u>slight</u> (0.3%) (Appendix C; D). These teeth show not quite sinusoidal profile shape in $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$, with an intratooth range of around 2.2‰. Climatic information is extracted but may be considered cautiously due to the profile shape and the limited sample size. From the inverse modelled mean $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ value (-5.4%), we estimate a MAT of $13\underline{4.5}^{\circ}$ C (MATA = $\underline{-0.4} + 1.1^{\circ}$ C) with a summer temperature of $19\underline{.7} + 5^{\circ}$ C and winter temperature of _2.94°C. The MAP estimation reached 235mm (-1127mm to nowadays) (Table 4).

4.5 El Otero (ca. 19 ka cal BP)

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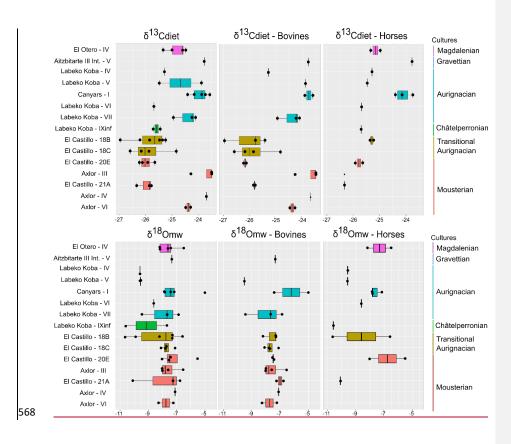
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Two equids and three cervids are included from level IV from El Otero, recently redate and chronologically related to the Magdalenian-phase (Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018). The mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values are close, between -11.43% and -11.34% for red deer ($\delta^{13}C_{diet} = -24.4\%$ and -24.6%) and -11.63% and -11.36% for horse $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}} = -25.3\%)$ and $\div 25.3\%)$ (Fig. 3). These $\delta^{13}C$ values for both species are relatively high concerning other studied samples, especially for cervids (around +1-2‰). Both species have higher δ18O_{carb} values concerning the common range of variation observed in the Vasco-Cantabria region, between -53.9% and -3.95% for horses and between -5.14.4% and -4.45.1% for red deer. When values are transformed to $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ and δ¹⁸O_{mw}, equids and cervids isotopic niches are separated (Fig. 4). All individuals show low-_amplitude

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 δ^{13} C_{carb} intratooth profiles (<0.3‰), but especially equids with an intratooth variation around 0.1‰ (Appendix C; D). Equids and cervids show δ^{18} O_{carb} sinusoidal profiles, with intratooth ranges between 1.4‰ and 2.4‰. Climatic estimations are proposed only for equids, providing MATs estimations from $43.48.8^{\circ}$ C to $12.6.7^{\circ}$ C (MATAs = $-4.90.3^{\circ}$ C/ $-1+3^{\circ}$ C) and MAP between 400mm and 456mm (MAPAs = -755/-699mm) (Table 4). A high-temperature seasonality can be seen, with summer temperatures between 19.74° C and $23.82.5^{\circ}$ C and winter temperatures from $0.7-10.4^{\circ}$ C to $-3.17.2^{\circ}$ C.



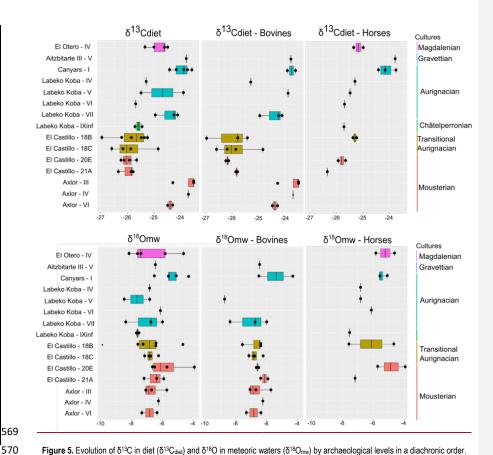


Figure 5. Evolution of δ1°C in diet (δ1°C_{diet}) and δ1°C in meteoric waters (δ1°C_{mw}) by archaeological levels in a diachronic order. From right to left: all species, including cervids, bovines and horses. Colo<u>u</u>rs correspond to different chrono-cultures.

4.6 Canyars (ca. 40 ka cal BP)

From the archaeological <code>layer_level_1</code> at Canyars_ corresponding to the Aurignacian, this work includes bovines (n = 2) and equids (n = 3) teeth. The mean $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values for bovines are between -9% to -9.3% ($\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ = -23.6% and -23.8%), and for horses between -10% and -10.7% ($\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ = -23.7% and -24.4%) (Fig.3). In this site, the $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values for horses are notably higher than <code>samples</code>-in the Vasco-Cantabrian region (around +1-2%) (Table 3). Both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values, but they fall inside the range of variation observed in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, between -5.5-3.6% and -5.53.6% in bovines and between -4.84% and -4.48% in horses. Different responses are seen in mean $\delta^{18}O$ values between the two bovines, with one high mean value; _butbut with close $\delta^{13}C$ mean values. Bovine and equid isotopic niches overlap (Fig. 4), but d-ifferent responses are seen in mean $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values between the two bovines, with one high mean value but close $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ mean values.

All individuals show flat $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ intratooth profiles (<0.3% variation). Some individuals analysed do not show $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ sinusoidal profiles, with intratooth profiles moderately flat and ranging from 1.14% to 1.66%. We detect an inverse relation between $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ in some points of bovine individual isotopic profiles. MATs oscillated between $\frac{12.59.8}{0.3}$ °C and $\frac{114.98}{0.3}$ °C (MATAs = $\frac{5.42.60.3}{0.3}$ °C/ $\frac{30.32.6}{0.3}$ °C), with summer temperatures from $\frac{16.35.2}{0.3}$ °C to $\frac{27.5.2}{0.3}$ °C and winter temperatures from $\frac{7.3}{0.5}$ °C to $\frac{1.81.4}{0.3}$ °C (Table 4).

MAPs extend between 211mm and 316mm (MAPAs = -431/-326mm). No substantial differences are noticed in the estimations based on bovines and equids because mean δ^{13} C diet values differed relatively little.

				MAT	(°C)	Summ	er (°C)	Winte	r (°C)	Seasonality	MAP	mm)
Site	Sample	Level	Species	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative	(°C)	Estimated	Relative
Axlor	AXL59	III	Bos/Bison sp.	9.4	-2.8	17.6	-0.3	-3.9	-11.0	21.5	204	-843
	AXL60	III	Bos/Bison sp.	10.8	-1.4	22.7	4.7	4.8	-2.3	17.9	300	-747
	AXL65	III	Bos/Bison sp.	9.7	-2.5	22.7	4.8	-2.5	-9.6	25.2	204	-843
	AXL66	III	Bos/Bison sp.	12.6	0.4	22.8	4.8	-3.2	-10.3	26.0	204	-843
	AXL70	IV	Bos/Bison sp.	11.1	-1.1	21.9	3.9	-8.0	-15.1	29.9	227	-820
	AXL77	VI	Bos/Bison sp.	9.1	-3.1	20.4	2.5	-10.9	-17.9	31.3	300	-747
	AXL86	VI	Bos/Bison sp.	11.1	-1.1	25.9	8.0	3.1	-4.0	22.8	326	-721
El Castillo	CAS141	21A	Bos/Bison sp.	11.7	-1.7	24.2	5.6	-0.8	-9.9	25.1	546	-486
	CAS142	21A	Bison priscus	12.6	-0.9	19.6	1.0	3.1	-5.9	16.5	536	-496
	CAS143	21A	Equus sp.	5.7	-7.8	20.7	2.1	-5.6	-14.7	26.3	645	-387
	CAS60	20E	Equus sp.					1.6	-7.5		510	-522
	CAS61	20E	Equus sp.	9.7	-3.8	25.9	7.3	-4.1	-13.2	30.1	561	-471
	CAS139	20E	Bos/Bison sp.	11.2	-2.3	18.8	0.2	1.8	-7.3	17.0	622	-410
	CAS140	20E	Bos/Bison sp.	11.3	-2.1						602	-430
	CAS135	18C	Bos/Bison sp.			17.0	-1.6				551	-481
	CAS136	18C	Bos/Bison sp.	10.6	-2.9						699	-333
	CAS137	18C	Bos/Bison sp.					0.0	-9.1		376	-656
	CAS138	18C	Bos/Bison sp.	11.8	-1.7	18.3	-0.3	3.1	-6.0	15.3	612	-420
	CAS132	18B	Bos/Bison sp.	9.8	-3.6	26.3	7.6	-1.2	-10.3	27.5	548	-484
	CAS133	18B	Bos/Bison sp.					-0.1	-9.2		477	-555
	CAS134	18B	Bos/Bison sp.					0.8	-8.3		784	-248
	CAS58	18B	Equus sp.	4.6	-8.8	13.5	-5.1	-11.2	-20.3	24.7	460	-572
	CAS59	18B	Equus sp.	13.0	-0.5						440	-592
Labeko Koba	LAB38	IX inf	Equus sp.	5.2	-7.4	14.5	-4.1	-1.8	-9.1	16.2	521	-526
	LAB36	IV	Equus sp.	7.0	-5.6	16.3	-2.3	-2.4	-9.7	18.7	448	-599
	LAB42	V	Equus sp.	7.6	-5.0				-7.3		501	-546
	LAB69	V	Bos primigenius	6.3	-6.3	17.3	-1.2	-4.9	-12.2	22.2	248	-799
	LAB20	VI	Equus sp.	9.1	-3.5	15.7	-2.9	-0.9	-8.2	16.6	517	-530
	LAB53	VII	Bos primigenius	11.3	-1.3	27.3	8.7	-2.4	-9.7	29.7	278	-769
	LAB55	VII	Bos primigenius	11.4	-1.2	26.3	7.8	1.9	-5.4	24.4	397	-650
	LAB62	VII	Bos/Bison sp.	7.2	-5.4	20.6	2.1	-2.9	-10.2	23.5	295	-752
Canyars	CAN01	- 1	Equus sp.	9.8	-5.4	16.3	-5.9	1.7	-7.5	14.6	232	-410
	CAN02	- 1	Equus ferus	11.9	-3.3						284	-358
	CAN03	1	Equus ferus	10.4	-4.7	18.6	-3.6	-0.5	-9.7	19.1	316	-326
	CAN04	1	Bos primigenius	17.2	2.1	27.5	5.3				247	-395
	CAN05	1	Bos primigenius	11.3	-3.9	17.5	-4.7	1.8	-7.4	15.7	211	-431
Aitzbitarte III int	AITI10	V	Bos/Bison sp.	13.0	-0.4	19.7	0.7	-2.9	-11.4	22.6	235	-1127
Otero	OTE11	IV	Equus sp.	8.8	-4.9	19.7	0.9	-10.4	-19.8	30.1	456	-699
	OTE12	IV	Equus sp.	12.6	-1.0	23.8	5.0	-3.1	-12.5	26.8	400	-755

				MAT (°C)		Summer (°C)		Winter (°C)		MAP	(mm)
Site	Sample	Level	Species	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative
Axlor	AXL59	III	Bos/Bison sp.	10.5	-1.7	15.4	-2.6	0.9	-6.2	204	-843
Axlor	AXL60	III	Bos/Bison sp.	12.0	-0.2	20.4	2.5	10.8	3.7	300	-747
Axlor	AXL65	III	Bos/Bison sp.	10.8	-1.4	20.5	2.5	2.5	-4.6	204	-843
Axlor	AXL66	III	Bos/Bison sp.	14.0	1.8	20.5	2.5	1.7	-5.4	204	-843
Axlor	AXL70	IV	Bos/Bison sp.	12.4	0.2	19.6	1.6	-3.8	-10.9	227	-820
Axlor	AXL77	VI	Bos/Bison sp.	10.1	-2.1	18.2	0.2	-7.0	-14.1	300	-747
Axlor	AXL86	VI	Bos/Bison sp.	12.3	0.2	23.7	5.7	8.9	1.8	326	-721
El Castillo	CAS141	21A	Bos/Bison sp.	13.1	-0.4	22.0	3.3	4.4	-4.7	546	-486
El Castillo	CAS142	21A	Bison priscus	14.0	0.5	17.3	-1.3	8.9	-0.2	536	-496
El Castillo	CAS143	21A	Equus sp.	10.8	-2.7	20.1	1.5	5.0	-4.1	645	-387
El Castillo	CAS60	20E	Equus sp.					11.3	2.3	510	-522
El Castillo	CAS61	20E	Equus sp.	14.2	0.7	24.2	5.6	6.3	-2.8	561	-471
El Castillo	CAS139	20E	Bos/Bison sp.	12.5	-1.0	16.5	-2.1	7.3	-1.8	622	-410
El Castillo	CAS140	20E	Bos/Bison sp.	12.6	-0.9					602	-430
El Castillo	CAS135	18C	Bos/Bison sp.			14.8	-3.8			551	-481
El Castillo	CAS136	18C	Bos/Bison sp.	11.8	-1.6					699	-333
El Castillo	CAS137	18C	Bos/Bison sp.					5.4	-3.7	376	-656
El Castillo	CAS138	18C	Bos/Bison sp.	13.1	-0.4	16.1	-2.5	8.8	-0.3	612	-420
El Castillo	CAS132	18B	Bos/Bison sp.	11.0	-2.5	24.0	5.4	4.0	-5.1	548	-484
El Castillo	CAS133	18B	Bos/Bison sp.					5.2	-3.9	477	-555
El Castillo	CAS134	18B	Bos/Bison sp.					6.2	-2.9	784	-248
El Castillo	CAS58	18B	Equus sp.	9.9	-3.6	14.5	-4.1	0.1	-9.0	460	-572
El Castillo	CAS59	18B	Equus sp.	17.0	3.6					440	-592
Labeko Koba	LAB38	IXinf	Equus sp.	10.3	-2.3	15.3	-3.3	8.4	1.1	521	-526
Labeko Koba	LAB36	IV	Equus sp.	11.9	-0.7	16.7	-1.9	7.8	0.5	448	-599
Labeko Koba	LAB42	V	Equus sp.	13.1	0.5					501	-546
Labeko Koba	LAB69	V	Bos primigenius	7.0	-5.6	15.1	-3.5	-0.2	-7.6	248	-799
Labeko Koba	LAB20	VI	Equus sp.	13.7	1.1	16.2	-2.3	9.1	1.8	517	-530
Labeko Koba	LAB53	VII	Bos primigenius	12.5	-0.1	25.0	6.4	2.6	-4.7	278	-769
Labeko Koba	LAB55	VII	Bos primigenius	12.7	0.1	24.0	5.5	7.5	0.2	397	-650
Labeko Koba	LAB62	VII	Bos/Bison sp.	8.1	-4.5	18.3	-0.2	2.1	-5.3	295	-752
Canyars	CAN01	1	Equus sp.	14.3	-0.9	16.7	-5.5	11.4	2.2	232	-410
Canyars	CAN02	1	Equus ferus							284	-358
Canyars	CAN03	1	Equus ferus	14.8	-0.3	18.5	-3.7	9.5	0.3	316	-326
Canyars	CAN04	I	Bos primigenius			25.2	3.0			247	-395
Canyars	CAN05	1	Bos primigenius	12.5	-2.6	15.2	-7.0	7.3	-1.8	211	-431
Aitzbitarte III	AITI10	V	Bos/Bison sp.	14.5	1.1	17.5	-1.5	2.1	-6.5	235	-1127
Otero	OTE11	IV	Equus sp.	13.4	-0.3	19.4	0.6	0.8	-8.6	456	-699
Otero	OTE12	IV	Equus sp.	16.7	3.0	22.5	3.7	7.2	-2.2	400	-755

Table 4. Summary of paleoclimatic estimations, based on δ¹⁸O for temperatures (Mean Annual Temperatures, MAT; summer; winter) and in δ¹³C for precipitation (Mean Annual Precipitations, MAP). <u>SOnly teeth with validated seasonal curves are included in the summer and winter temperature estimations were obtained from teeth with clear seasonal profiles after modelling, teeth peaks and troughwhile MAT was averaged between summer and winter before modelling profiles. For In cases some of profiles with an unclear seasonal shapes. MATs were was deduced from the original average of all points of the teethprofiles with an unclear seasonal shape, MAT was deduced from the original average of all teeth points without a seasonal profile (values marked in reditatics). Mean Details on teeth selection are presented in Appendix B-error associated to temperature estimations is 5.1±0.6 (see details in Appendix B). Seasonality is calculated as the temperature difference between summer and winter.</u>

5. Discussion

5.1 Diet and ecological niches: carbon ratios

and Harris, 1999; Tejada-Lara et al., 2018). Therefore, transforming $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ to $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values <u>using species-specific equations</u> is crucial to mitigate the species-specific impact, particularly when comparing ruminants and non-ruminants. Bovines report $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values between <u>-27.5‰ -23.5‰</u> and <u>-23.5‰ -27.5‰</u> and horses between <u>-26‰ -25‰</u> and <u>-26‰ -25‰</u>. These carbon compositions are typical of animals feeding on C3 plants (commonly accepted range between -34‰ and -23‰), as can be expected from high-latitude ecosystems during the Pleistocene (Cerling and Harris, 1999; Bocherens, 2003; Drucker, 2022).

Environmental factors such as light exposure, water stress, temperature fluctuations, salinity, and atmospheric CO₂ changes can influence variations in δ¹³C values in a diet primarily based on C3 plants (Kohn, 2010; Bocherens, 2003). Typically, $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values below -27% ($\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ = -13%) are associated with animals feeding on C3 vegetation found in closed forested environments, whereas δ¹3C_{diet} values between -27% and -23% are linked to C3 open landscapes, which could include grasslands and steppe areas (Bocherens, 2003). The relatively high δ¹³C_{diet} observed here points to animals predominantly feeding in open environments. The canopy effect, characterised by a depletion in ¹³C isotopes due to dense tree cover, seems unlikely among the analysed samples since none of the individuals reported $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ below the common-standard cut-off of -27% (van der Merwe, 1991; Kohn, 2010; Drucker et al., 2008). Therefore, in general terms, open mosaic landscapes, ranging from light forests to meadows and grasslands, can be inferred for northwestern Iberia. Given the generally higher $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values reported by bovines, it is likely that they were foraging in more open environments than horses and can be considered predominantly grazers. Particularly, bovines from El Castillo exhibit distinct feeding behaviour compared to other Vasco-Cantabrian sites, as evidenced by their lower $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ values, indicating a potential preference for browsing and feeding in closer environments, possibly in lightly forested areas. Both extinct aurochs (Bos primigenius) and steppe bison (Bison priscus) are usually classified as grass-dominant mix-feeders during the Pleistocene, although it should be noted that modern European bison (Bison bonasus) could include browsing in their diet (Rivals et al., 2022). For aurochs, a browse-dominated mixed feeding behaviour is also frequently described.

The $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ range in equids <u>also</u> indicates feeding in open environments—as well, suggesting a general mixed-feeding pattern for the Vasco-Cantabrian region. However, individuals from the thenortheastern Mediterranean—lberia area are likely grazing in more open environments, as evidenced by their notably higher $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values compared to the Vasco-Cantabrian region (+1-2‰). It is important to evaluate if other factors are contributing to lower $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values in horses Evaluating if other factors contribute to lower $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values in horses is critical. In the case of equid samples from the Vasco-Cantabrian region, it should be considered that they have been pretreated with a combination of NaClO and acetic acid, which could potentially affect the isotopic values. Samples after organic removal pretreatment can potentially show either higher or lower $\delta^{13}C$ values and higher $\delta^{18}O$ values based on previous experiments (Pellegrini and Snoeck, 2016; Snoeck and Pellegrini, 2015), with $\delta^{13}C$ values generally varying below 0.3‰. Based on the observation that horses in the Vasco-Cantabrian region present lower $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ values compared to bovines but similar mean $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carb}}$ value ranges, the influence of the pre-treatment on our samples is deemed to be limited—.

Furthermore, the high variability in $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carb}}$ values at EI Castillo and Labeko Koba does not correlate with a significant variation in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ values. Based on dental wear and stable isotopes analysis, Middle and Late Pleistocene horses (*Equus ferus*) were primarily grazers, although some rare cases have been reported as mixed feeders or browsers, such as at Igue des Rameaux ament or and Schöningen (Kuitems et al., 2015; Rivals et al., 2009, 2015; Uzunidis, 2020). Horse populations from northern and eastern Europe were found to be browsers or mixed feeders, while those from the Mediterranean region tend to be grazers (Rivals et al., 2022).

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Finally, the few cervids included in this study exhibit $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values that frequently overlap with those of horses, indicating a mixed feeding behaviour that varies from more closed environments in El Castillo to more open habitats in El Otero. During the Pleistocene, the red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) exhibit a flexible, mixed-feeding behaviorbehaviour, consuming leaves, shrubs, forbs, grass, and sedges, similar to their present-day counterparts (Rivals et al., 2022; Merceron et al., 2021). Today, this species inhabits diverse habitats ranging from steppes to closed temperate forests.

5.2 Seasonality, mobility and water acquisition: oxygen ratios and intratooth profiles

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Average values of $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ in Vasco-Cantabrian individuals extend between -7.2% -3.3%-and -3.3%-7.2%-(Table 3). Even if no clear species patterns in $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ are observed, in general, bovines present slightly lower δ¹⁸O_{carb} values from -7.2‰-4.8‰ to 4.8‰-7.2‰ than other species; horses have a large-significant variation from -6.6% -3.3% -6.6% and red deer from -6.8% to -4.4% to -6.8%. In Canyars, both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}O_{carb}$ values that fall inside the variation range observed in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, between <u>-5.5‰</u>-and -3.6‰ and -5.5‰ in bovines and between <u>-4.8‰-4.4‰</u>-and <u>-4.4‰</u>-4.8% in horses. Each species shows different δ¹⁸O_{carb} intratooth ranges, with bovines between 1% and 3%, equids horses mostly around 1.5%, and eervids red deer from 1% to 6% presenting the higher ranges, from 11/20 to 65/20 (Table 3; Appendix C). After applying inverse modelling to correct the dampening effect (Passey et al., 2005b)(Passey et al., 2005), the majority of teeth increase the 5¹⁸O_{carb} intratooth range, between 3‰ and 8‰ for bovines and 2‰ and 7‰ for horses (Appendix D). Most bovines from Axlor and Labeko Koba and equids-horses from El Castillo and El Otero exhibit well-defined sinusoidal profiles in their 518Ocarb and large intratooth individual rangesvalues, related to the predominant consumption of water sources that reflects seasonal indicating potential seasonal-fluctuations between δ¹⁸O values of environmental-summer and winter-meteoric waters. A, although not all samples consistently follow this pattern consistently, c. Certain specific intratooth profiles, particularly those from bovines in El Castillo and Canyars, exhibit sharp profiles with narrow ranges (<1.5%). This phenomenon was previously reported in the region in preliminary studies conducted at the sites of El Castillo (Jones et al., 2019) and in the Magdalenian levels of El Mirón cave (Geiling, 2020).

Non-sinusoidal profiles observed in the data can be attributed to various factors, including issues related to sample techniques and preservationsample techniques and preservation issues and the inherent variability in the original isotopic signal. Factors related to sampling and methods can be connected to 1) the sampling process (e.g. too deep or too distant sampling grooves); 2) the imprecision of the mass spectrometer measurements; 3) uncontrolled effects of samples pretreatments; 4) diagenetic alterations affecting the carbonate fraction. However, it must be noted that technical reasons, whether related to sampling or pretreatment, do not appear to impact the obtained results significantly. First, this study reproduces the same intratooth sampling methods that previously yielded reliable results in similar research (e.g., Pederzani et al., 2023, 2021a). Second, non-significant alterations in intratooth profiles of pretreated horse samples (El Castillo, Labeko Koba, Otero) are noticed in comparison to untreated bovid samples (Appendix C). Some bovid samples are equally showing these non-sinusoidal profiles show these non-sinusoidal profiles equally. In sites where both species are analysed, no correlation is observed between $\delta^{18}O_{\underline{carb}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\underline{carb}}$. In tooth enamel, diagenetic alterations are generally less pronounced than in bone due to its larger higher mineral content. However, carbonates within tooth enamel can be more susceptible to diagenesis and recrystallisation compared to the phosphate fraction, which contains a larger-more extensive reservoir of oxygen and stronger oxygen bonds (Zazzo et al., 2004; Chenery et al., 2012; Bryant et al., 1996). The carbonate content in our samples, ranging from 3.9% to 8.9%, is similar to the proportion found in modern tooth enamel, suggesting no immediate indication of diagenetic alteration. Diagenesis can also be evaluated by comparing the isotopic values of the carbonate and phosphate fractions in a sample, as there is a predictable difference between them. However, phosphate fraction measurements were still unavailable in our study, except inat the site of Axlor (Pederzani et al., 2023) —where good preservation was attested. Additionally, in the case of diagenetic alteration, we would expect specimens from the same archaeological levels to be affected similarly, which is not the case.

Based on these arguments, it is suggested that the non-sinusoidal δ¹8O_{carb} signal observed in some individuals may not be attributed to poor preservation; instead, it—is likely attributed to the preservation efreflects the original isotopic signature from water input, which appears to be non-seasonal. Several factors can explain why some teeth do not reflect a—clearn evident seasonal fluctuation, which could be related to animals' mobility—or, the isotopic composition of the water sources, and seasonal buffering within those water sources (Pederzani and Britton, 2019). The main factors considered in our study are 1) the high mobility of the animals analysed among ecosystems with different isotopic baselines due to large migrations; 2) the inland-coastal or short altitudinal movements through the region, which lead to the acquisition of water from sources with different isotopic signal; and 3) the acquisition of water from sources with no clear seasonal signal, such as large bodies of water, rivers, groundwaters, or meltwaters. Furthermore, variability between species and within the same species, even within populations living in the same habitat, is also possible. This can be attributed to multiple factors, from minor differences in foraging and drinking behaviorbehaviour to slight metabolic and physiological variations, including body size, metabolic rate, breathing rate, moisture content of food, and faeces, among others (Kohn, 1996; Magozzi et al., 2019; Hoppe et al., 2004).

Analyses of nitrogen and sulphur stable isotopes on ungulate bone collagen from Axlor, El Castillo and Labeko Koba (Jones et al., 2019, 2018; Pederzani et al., 2023) have already revealed large variation ranges linked to the existence of several microenvironments just in a few kilometres within the Vasco-Cantabria region. Long migrations and long hunting distances cannot solely explain these diversified diverse values because of the range of species involved and their likely small-scale movements. In our study, the minimal $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth variation within individuals (<1‰) indicates limited seasonal changes in their feeding behavior behaviour that influenced the carbon isotopic composition (Appendix C). Therefore, considering the diverse topography of the Vasco-Cantabrian, characterized by steep diverse orgaraphy with perpendicular valleys that connecting the Cantabrian Cordillera with the Atlantic Ocean through rivers over short distances (30-50 km), the availability in the past of a wide range of water sources in small areas seems highly likely. Certain drinking behavior behaviours can influence δ^{18} O, as animals may acquire water from various sources, with small streams better reflecting seasonal isotopic oscillations than large lakes or evaporating ponds (see synthesis in Pederzani and Britton, 2019). Systematic consumption of highly buffered water sources can significantly attenuate the final recorded signal. Furthermore, rivers in the region frequently contain meltwater from snow during the winter-spring months, and water springs are also common.

5.3 Regional trends and ecological niches

This study provides valuable insights despite the limited sample size at each archaeological level. It establishes a baseline of isotopic values for northern Iberia, allowing for the evaluation of regional trends. In the northwest, in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values obtained oscillated between $\underline{-13\%}$ - 8.9% and between $\underline{-7.2\%}$ -3.3% and $\underline{-3.3\%}$ -7.2% in the case of $\delta^{18}C_{carb}$ values. These values are within the range expected, considering previous regional studies in ungulates (Lécuyer et al., 2021; Pederzani et al., 2023; Jones et al., 2019; Carvalho et al., 2022). Although oxygen variability trends are less precise, the main factor distinguishing the observed changes over time is the variation of carbon isotopic composition among species and regions. The combination of mean $\delta^{13}C_{diet}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values (Fig. 4; 5) accentuates disparities in ecological niche overlap between horses and bovines, whereas cervids and horses frequently exhibit shared ecological niches. The dissimilarities between bovines and horses could

be attributed to shifts in feeding behaviorbehaviour, which may be accompanied by ecological and environmental changes, either independently or in parallel.

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Upon evaluating the entire dataset by sites Comparing the entire dataset and across all sites, the consistently lower δ13C_{diet} values in horses compared to bovids throughout time suggest both animals inhabited open landscapes, with bovines exhibiting a grazer preference while horses show a mix-feeding diet. Only in the Middle-to-Upper Paleolithic transition 18B and 18C levels of El Castillo, an exception is observed with lower δ¹³C_{diet} values in bovines, linked to a higher browser input due to a higher habitat in closer environments, such as open forests, similar to those inhabited by the horses. This generates a niche overlapping between horses and bovines, most likely reflecting stable conditions that could support both species in similar ecosystems. Contrarily, in the Châtelperronian and early Aurignacian levels from Labeko Koba, a clear differentiation between horses and bovines is observed, mainly in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values, highlighting the occupation of different landscapes parts of the landscape by both species. This niche fractionation-spatially-driven niche separation between species could result from resource competition derived from an unstable climatic period, where species needed to specialise to adapt to the changing conditions. Notable changes are also observed in the δ¹⁸O_{carb} values from Labeko Koba compared to the older El Castillo and Axlor sites, with bovines exhibiting a higher fluctuation range and the lowest values in the region. These trends are consistent with values observed on bone collagen from previous studies in the studiedse sites. During the Middle-to-Upper Paleolithic transition in the region, by comparing horses and red deer, a decrease in mean δ^{13} C (from -210%) to -204%) and δ^{15} N values (from 2.56% to 62.5%) in bone collagen was observed in contrast to stable red deer mean δ¹³C- (Fernández-García et al., 2023; Jones et al., 2018, 2019). This decrease was already previously interpreted as niche fractionation, derived from an opening landscape, that drove equids into lowquality pastures compared to cervids. Pollen evidence in the region suggests a prevalence of steppe vegetation and low tree cover for the Châtelperronian and Aurignacian (Iriarte-Chiapusso, 2000).

In the same period, Canyars in the northeastern at the Mediterranean sitearea of Canyars, higher mean δ^{13} C_{diet} are observed in both species (between -23.6% and -24.4%), indicating a preference for more open landscapes by bovines and equids. The indication of open areas could be linked to the arid climatic conditions associated with the Heinrich Event 4, which coincides with the formation of the archaeological studied level at Canyars. This predominance of open areas coincides with the presence of typical steppe herbivore species, such as Equus hydruntinus and Coelodonta antiquitatis, the microfauna and pollen taxa, and the data offered by the use-wear analysis on ungulate remains identified at the site (Daura et al., 2013; López-García et al., 2022; Rivals et al., 2017).

Aridity is a plausible explanation for the higher niche partitioning observed in Labeko Koba and the higher $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values found in Canyars for both species in-during the Aurignacian-levels. The $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ results of bovines from Aitzbitarte III interior during the Gravettian are consistent with the trend observed in Labeko Koba, and-where previous studies have already suggested this time to be notably arid and cold (Arrizabalaga et al., 2010). Finally, in the Magdalenian level of El Otero, higher $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ values resemble those observed in Canyars. However, this time, carbon values are related to niche partitioning between horses and red deer. In contrast, higher $\delta^{19}O_{\text{mw}}$ values might indicate warmer conditions but are still associated with open landscapes in the Vasco-Cantabrian area.

5.4 Late Pleistocene climatic evolution in Northern Iberia

Carbon and oxygen isotopes were used to estimate quantitative parameters related to past temperatures and precipitation. In the case of oxygen isotopic compositions, an evaluation of environmental water composition can be addressed before approaching temperature estimations. When transformed to $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ using species-adapted correlations and correcting bias in sea water $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$, the summer $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values obtained from the modelled teeth range from $\underline{-84.9}$ 1% to $\underline{-42.2}$ 4.9%, while the winter values range from $\underline{-}$

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17.0-16-4-2‰ to -8.94-2 10.6‰. These values agree-can be tentatively compared with the current trends observed in $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ range of values recorded by the IAEA station (IAEA/ WMO, 2022) in Santander (from -3.5‰ in summer to -6.6‰ in winter) and in Barcelona (from -2.2‰ in summer to -6.3‰ in winter) and the OIPC (Bowen, 2022) estimations for studied locations (from -1‰ to -9‰) (Appendix B). As observed in the present, Canyars exhibit higher-mean annual $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ values of around -8.25-5‰, which are close is lower to than the current $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ estimated for this location (-5.4‰) but higher than Labeko Koba mean annual $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ (-9.5‰).- This raises the question of whether suggests that—the baseline $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ differences between Canyars and the other sites can be primarily—attributed to the-Mediterranean influence rather than the Atlantic, assuming equivalent air circulation patterns and moisture sources in the past as experienced in the past as in the present-(Moreno et al., 2021; Araguas-Araguas and Diaz Teijeiro, 2005; García-Alix et al., 2021) and considering IAEA stations.

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Considering this work's climatic reconstruction, As indicated by the climate reconstructed here, temperatures are were generally colder and precipitation levels were are notably lower in the Late Pleistecene period in this region than, and precipitation levels were notably lower in the Late Pleistocene period in this region than they are nowadays (Table 4; Appendix B). From 80,000 to 57_46 ka,000 cal BP, in the Mousterian levels of the Axlor-site, temperatures weare generally sligthly colder than today, but there is no clear trend observed throughout the sequence, but with older levels showing showed higher differences between summer and winter temperatures. Rainfall estimations in these levels exhibit an unusual arid pattern, possibly affected by bovines mainly predominantly feeding in open areas at that time. Indeed, even if the species' impact has een corrected through δ¹³C_{riet} estimation (Tejada-Lara et al., 2018), tThis <u>aligns</u>-study observed that <u>with</u> the impact the influence of basal feeding behavior behaviour on rainfall estimations, as previously advised by Lécuyer et al. (2021) should be considered. In this case, it is not possible to isolate the effect of diet from environmental interference, but previous studies have highlighted stable climatic conditions for at the site (Pederzani et al., 2023). Climatic reconstruction, relying on a compilation of lake sediments from northern Iberia (Moreno et al., 2012) suggests that from late MIS4 to 60 ka cal BP, cold but relatively humid conditions predominated, with drier conditions emerging later. Additionally, stalagmites from the Ejulve cave in the Iberian range indicate a dry climate until 65.5 ka BP, preceding HE6, followed by more humid conditions afterwards (Pérez-Mejías et al., 2019).

During the late Middle-to-Upper Paleolithic transition and early Aurignacian occupations, the observed shift in the niche configuration of species is observed, suggests potential indicating climatic perturbations. There is a decreasing trend in temperatures from the Transitional Aurignacian levels in El Castillo (18C and 18B; ca. 47 ka,000 cal BP) to the Châtelperronian (Xinf; 42.1 ka,100 cal BP) and Early Aurignacian (VII-V; from 41,136.1 to 37.88,570 ka cal BP) levels in Labeko Koba. Lower mean annual and winter temperatures are particularly notable atin El Castillo and , while Labeko Koba Labeko Koba levels exhibits high seasonal amplitude, especially in at level VII. Additionally, there is a slight decrease in rainfall and increased fluctuations from the Transitional Aurignacian levels from El Castillo (18B-18C) to the Aurignacian levels in Labeko Koba (VII-V). Previous studies in the northern Iberian region underlined an environmental and ecological shift after GS13/HE5, from 48,000 to 44 ka,000 cal BP, based on a progressive trend to colder temperatures, aridity increase, and open environmental conditions, matching with the late Neanderthal occupations, followed by a population hiatus before the arrival of Anatomically Modern Humans (Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022; Fernández-García et al., 2023). This episode coincides with the region's maximum extension of the glaciers maximum extent of glaciers in this region, as recorded in Lake Enol and Vega Comeya and thean associated a significant decrease in plant biomass and herbivore abundance around 44 to 38 ka BP (Jiménez-Sánchez et al., 2013; Ruiz-Fernández et al., 2022; Ballesteros et al., 2020; Vidal-Cordasco et al 2022). Moreover, previous isotopic analyses in the region pointed to some ecological

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alterations considering perturbations observed in the $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ of bone collagen (Jones et al., 2019, 2018). This tendency of increased aridity aligns with observations made in regional lake sediments from northern Iberia between 60 and 23.5 ka cal BP, marked by abrupt climate changes associated with HE (Moreno et al., 2012). Supporting this, the marine core MD04-2845 in the northern margin of Iberia reveals a decline in the Atlantic forest and an expansion of steppe and cold grasses from 47 to 40 ka BP (Fourcade et al., 2022).

When comparing the environmental reconstruction of the Aurignacian period in-between the Vasco-Cantabrian region (levels V-IV from Labeko Koba) and the Mediterranean northeastern region (Layer I from Canyars), which are synchronous to HE4 (39,000 ka BP), thise study reveals notably lower rainfall levels for the northeastern sitelatter Mediterranean. This is, consistent with implied by due to the feeding behaviorbehaviour-described for observed in animals mainly feeding, mainly in open areas. But However, these drier conditions alignalign with the unique-specific climatic expectations conditions expected for this period and support previous findings suggesting revealing aridity and the predominance of open landscapes (Rivals et al., 2017; Daura et al., 2013). The temperature data indicates that, at-Canyars, colder conditions were experienced, -colder conditions, especially during the winter season, compared to the present. However, in comparison to Labeko Koba, Canyars experienced warmer conditions. As explained earlier, the Mediterranean basin had consistently higher temperatures, even during colder periods. In line with this, previous studies conducted at the site have also highlighted the This is consistent with the persistence of Mediterranean open forests in the surroundings, as indicated by other studies (Rivals et al., 2017; López-García et al., 2013). Continuous natural records are lacking in the northeastern Iberian margin. However, the inland stalagmite record from Ejulve Cave (Pérez-Mejías et al., 2019) and the sedimentary lacustrine sequence of Cañizar de Villarquemado (González-Sampériz et al., 2020) have identified the most arid intervals during HE5 and HE4. These periods were characterized by steppe vegetation expansions, followed by deciduous woodland expansion. To the south, the Padul sequence agrees with cold and dry conditions alternating with forest recovery (Camuera et al., 2019), as documented in the Alborean Sea (Martrat et al., 2004).

Finally, the sites Aitzbitarte III interior (26.7,692 ka cal BP) and El Otero (19.,393 ka cal BP) provided valuable climatic insights into the Vasco-Cantabrian region during the Upper Paleolithic, specifically during the Gravettian and Magdalenian-periods, respectively. Considering previous research in the region, the climatic trend reported for the Aurignacian, characterised by colder and more arid conditions, was expected to continue or even intensify during the Gravettian period (Fernández-García et al., 2023; Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019b; Lécuyer et al., 2021). Both sites-exhibit indicate lower precipitation-levels compared to the presentthan presently found in these area, indicating significant aridity, supported by thewith ungulates animals predominantly feeding in open landscapes predominantly today in this area, indicating significant aridity, with ungulates feeding predominantly in open landscapes. Finally, However, E⊟ Otero's higher mean annual temperatures_recorded in the Magdalenian horses respect to other sites within the Vasco-Cantabrian, are consistent with a climatic amelioration following the Last Glacial Maximum (Jones et al., 2021). MIS 2 is marked by the most extreme glacial conditions, as indicated by NGRIP and marine cores in Iberian margins (Sánchez Goñi et al., 2002; Martrat et al., 2004). However, other regional proxies, such as lake sediment and the stalagmite sequence in Pindal Cave (Moreno et al., 2010), suggest a complex and highly variable climate during MIS 2. These proxies identify the coldest and most arid period within MIS 2 as the interval from 18 to 14 ka cal BP, rather than the global Last Glacial Maximum (23 to 19 ka cal BP).

5. Conclusions

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This study provides a <u>comprehensive-detailed</u> analysis of the temporal evolution of the environment and climatic conditions in northern Iberia, spanning from the <u>late</u> Middle Paleolithic to the late Upper Paleolithic,

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this is from the GS21 to the GS2, ranging from $\underline{\text{ca.}}$ 80 $\underline{\text{ka BP}}$,000 to 1975 $\underline{\text{ka cal}}$,000 eal-BP. In the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the results reveal a heterogeneous $\underline{\text{open mosaic}}$ landscape $\underline{\text{characterised by an open mosaic}}$, ranging from light forest to meadows and grasslands. This landscape reconstruction is primarily $\underline{\text{influenced-inferred}}$ by the feeding locations of the studied animals and, consequently, related to the ecosystems where hominins captured them. Despite shifts in niche configuration observed between equids and bovines, both species typically foraginge in open areas, with bovines showing a higher preference for grazing. Only in El Castillo, during the late Mousterian and the Transitional Aurignacian levels, bovines show unusually low $\delta^{13}C_{\underline{\text{diet}}}$ related to higher browsing and overlapping with horse isotopic niche. This might indicate a slightly closed mosaic landscape that could sustain both species. In contrast, only horses from Canyars exhibit a preference for grazing $\underline{\text{behaviorbehaviour}}$.

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Stable climatic conditions are described for Mousterian in Axlor and El Castillo levels from 80,000 to 50,000 ka cal BP. However, some elements indicate some environmental perturbations initiated during the Transitional Aurignacian levels from of El Castillo, around 48-46-43 ka -000-BP and after HE5/GS13. After GS12 (44, 200-43, 3 ka00 BP), horses and bovines are potentially occupying different ecological niches during the Châtelperronian and early Aurignacian levels from of Labeko Koba, pointing to a species' environmental specialisation, which can be a consequence of competition for food resources during an unstable ecological period. The climatic estimations indicate a temperature shift during this period, with a slight decrease in temperatures and evidence of fluctuations in rainfall-from the Transitional Aurignacian levels of El Castillo to the early Aurignacian levels of Labeko Koba. Previous environmental studies on the region have underlined ecological stress and aridity increase increasing aridity from around 42.58,000 ka cal BP, which could sustain this biological impoverishment which may relate to a wibroader ecosystem decline. When comparing the environmental conditions during the Aurignacian period in the Mediterranean-northeast (Canyars) and the Vasco-Cantabrian regionnorthwest (Labeko Koba), the Mediterranean arefirsta had higher baseline temperatures but also experienced higher aridity. Animals continued to feed on open landscapes during the Gravettian and Magdalenian levels in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, represented by Aitzbitarte III interior and El Otero-sites. However, there is evidence of a temperature recovery after the LGM at the FI Otero-site.

For the first time, a regional approach is obtained by measuring δ¹³C and δ¹⁸O in enamel carbonates from ungulates teeth for the late Middle and Upper Paleolithic in northern Iberia. Stable isotope composition of oxygen and carbon from ungulate teeth has provided valuable insights into the diet and foraging areas of bovines, equids, and cervids. These results, The results presented here, derived from this the first extensive sampling in the Vasco-Cantabrian, establish the basis of future stable isotopic studies on-teeth faunal tooth enamel in this region beria, which were slightly explored in the region. Despite the uncertainties inherent in this work, derived from using the carbonate enamel fraction for paleoclimatic estimations, both δ18O and $\delta^{13}C$ contributed to the regional climatic characterisation, including the estimation of temperatures and precipitations, as well as the seasonality range between summer and winter. The potential influence of pretreatment effects and uncontrolled diagenetic alterations on the enamel carbonate fraction has been assessed. However, further investigation complementary diagenetical test, using new techniques like <u>\delta^{18O}_{phos}_phosphate analysis and FTIR analyses are needed advised in further works in the region, to gain</u> more insights into sample preservation. Ongoing sulphur, hydrogen and strontium studies will provide additional information on the animal mobility patterns of animals that were hunted by Late Pleistocene consumed for hominins and, therefore, will help better understandus better understand the landscape exploitation ecological and environmental context efoccupied by the through this transition between late Neanderthal and early-modern humans-groupshabitations in this region and their landscape use in this particular region. Finally, a A more comprehensive characterisation of the baseline oxygen values in the region would also enhance the environmental interpretation of the existing data.

- 932 Appendices A, C and D are presented after bibliography. Raw data is found-presented in Appendix B, -All
- available at https://github.com/ERC-Subsilience/Ungulate_enamel-carbonate 933

934 Code availability

- 935 R code used to perform plots, error calculations, and models in this manuscript can be accessed at GitHub
- (https://github.com/ERC-Subsilience/Ungulate_enamel-carbonate). 936

937 Data availability

- 938 The available datasets used for this article are provided in the supplementary materials (Appendix A-D).
- 939 **Author contribution**
- A.B.M.-A. got the funding and designed the research. A.B.M.-A and M.F.-G. get the permissions for sampling 940
- 941 in the regional museums. M.F.-G., K.B, and S.P. defined the analysis strategy. M.F.-G. analysed the data
- 942 and wrote the manuscript with critical inputs from A.B.M.-A., K.B, and S.P. J.M.G., L.A., M.F.-G., and A.C.
- 943 M.F.-G., L.A., J.M.G., and A.C. achieved the teeth sampling and lab sample preparation. J.D. and M.S. are
- responsible for the excavations in Canyars and contribute to the discussion. All the authors revised and
- 944
- 945 commented on the manuscript.

946 Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests. 947

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A1. Vasco-Cantabrian sites

Axlor (Dima, Vizcaya, País Vasco)

Axlor is a rock-shelter located in Dima (43.2706; -1.8905), with a continuous Middle Paleolithic sequence from the MIS5 to the MIS3 (DeMuro et al., 2023; Pederzani et al., 2023; Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018). It is placed on the southwestern slope of the Dima valley Valley, with an elevation of approximately 320 m above sea level (a.s.l.), at 33 km straight from the present-day coastline, next to one of the lowest mountain passes linking the Cantabrian basins and the Alavese Plateau. The site was discovered in 1932 and initial excavations were performed by Barandiarán (1967-1974). J. M. Barandiarán undertook the excavations between 1967 and 1974, identifying eight Mousterian levels (I-VIII) (Barandiarán, 1980).

From 2000 to 2008, new excavations by González-Urquijo, Ibáñez-Estévez and Rios-Garaizar were achieved and, since 2019, these are ongoing by González-Urquijo and Lazuén. Due to the lack of chronology during Barandiarán excavations, among other aspects, work was focused on obtaining a detailed stratigraphy on the new excavation areas to correlate it with Barandiarán's levels (González-Urquijo & Ibáñez-Estévez, 2021; González Urquijo et al., 2005). The new stratigraphic sequence is roughly equivalent to the previous one but with additional levels, not previously identified or excavated by Barandiarán. Some of these levels were deposited before Level VIII (Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018; 2020). The Middle Paleolithic sequence extends from layers VIII to III (or from N to B-C). Levallois production is predominant in the lower levels (VI to VIII), while Quina Mousterian technocomplex does in the upper ones (from III to V) (Rios-Garaizar, 2012, 2017). New-Recent chronological data by radiocarbon (Pederzani et al., 2023; Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018) and OSL (Demuro et al., 2023) methods confirm that a sequence Axlor levels VI, VIII, and VIII probably accumulated during MIS5d-a (109–82 ka), while levels D to B probably were formed during the period encompassing the start of MIS 4 (71–57 ka) through to the beginning or middle of MIS 3 (57–29 ka) (Demuro et al., 2023) and upper Level III to 46,200 ±3,000 BP, which calibrates between 45,540–350 cal BP and the end of beyond the calibration curve at > 55,000 cal BP (see Pederzani et al., 2023; Fig. 1).

The archaeozoological study indicates an anthropic origin of the faunal assemblage with scarce carnivore activity documented (Altuna, 1989; Castaños, 2005; Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018). In lower layers, the most abundant taxa are *Cervus elaphus* (VIII) and *Capra pyrenaica* (VII), while in upper layers III-V, *Cervus elaphus* is substituted by *Bos primigenious/Bison priscus* and *Equus sp*. The material included in this work comes from the faunal collection of the Barandiarán excavation currently curated at the Bizkaia Museum of Archaeology (Bilbao), where teeth were sampled, and the stable isotope analyses on enamel phosphate were included in Pederzani et al. (2023).

El Castillo (Puente Viesgo, Cantabria)

El Castillo is-cave is located in Puente Viesgo (43.2924; -3.9656), with an elevation of approximately 195m a.s.l., at 17 km straight from the present-day coastline. The cave belongs to the karstic system that was formed in the Monte Castillo, which dominates the Pas valleyValley. The site was discovered in 1903 by H. Alcalde del Río. H. Obermaier carried out the first excavation seasons between 1910 and 1914, when many of the archaeological remains were recovered, mainly from the hall of the cavecave hall. These interventions were done under the supervision of the "Institut de Paléontologie Humaine" (IPH) and of Prince Albert I of Monaco. From 1980 to 2011, V. Cabrera and F. Bernaldo de Quirós underwent new excavations focusing on the cave entrance, on the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transitional levels, mainly 16, 18 and 20 (Cabrera-Valdes, 1984). The site has yielded an important stratigraphic sequence, composed by 26 sedimentological

units (1-26) related to different anthropic occupational units, often separated by archaeologically sterile units: Eneolithic (2), Azilian (4), Magdalenian (6 and 8), Solutrean (10), Aurignacian (12, 14, 16 and 18), Mousterian (20, 21 and 22) and Acheulean (24) (Cabrera-Valdés, 1984).

Unit 21 is mostly sterile (Cabrera Valdés, 1984; Martín-Perea et al., 2023), and it was dated by ESRESR dated it, yielding a mean date of 69,000 ± 9,200 years BP (Rink et al., 1997). However, Martín-Perea et al. (2023) suggested some dating uncertainty arising from the interpretation of interpreting the initial stratigraphic nomenclature. They suggest that the ESR dates provided for level 21 by Rink et al. (1997) were erroneously attributed to this unit and it might correspond to 20E, indicating that below that subunit, the chronology is older than 70,000 years BP (Martín-Perea et al., 2023). The Mousterian Unit 20 cave is divided into several subunits (Martín-Perea et al., 2023). In Unit 20, a cave roof collapse took place, transforming the cave system into an open rock shelter. This unit contains abundant archaeological and paleontological remains. Lithic industry consistent consists in of sidescrapers, denticulates, notches and cleavers, the majority on quartzite and presents both unifacial, bifacial discoid debitage and Levallois debitage. Unit 20E was attributed to Quina Mousterian by Sánchez-Fernández and Bernaldo De Quiros (2009) and contains a Neanderthal tooth remain-(Garralda, 2005). Considering the geochronological uncertainties for dates on 20E related with to Rink et al. (1997), we have decided to solely rrely solely on ERSR date of 47,000 ± 9400 BP provided by Liberda et al. (2010) for this level. Unit 20C presents clear evidence of the Mousterian lithic industry and radiocarbon dates of 48,700±3,400 uncal BP (OxA-22204) and 49,400±3,700 uncal BP (OxA-22205) (Wood et al., 2018) and mean ESR date of 42,700 ±9900 BP (Liberda et al., 2010). Level 19 is archaeologically sterile and separates Unit 20 from Unit 18 (Wood et al., 2018).

Unit 18 is divided into three parts: 18A (archaeologically sterile), 18B, and 18C. Levels 18B and 18C were classified as Transitional Aurignacian, representing a gradual transformation from the Mousterian to the Aurignacian, which is unique to El Castillo cave (Cabrera et al., 2001; Maíllo and Bernaldo de Quirós, 2010; Wood et al., 2018). The dates and the cultural attribution of these levels: dates and cultural attribution have been the subject of much debate (e.g. Zilhao and D'Errico, 2003; Wood et al., 2018). According to Wood et al. (2018), the last dates of these levels range between 42,000±1,500 uncal BP (OxA-22203) and 46,000±2,400 uncal BP (OxA-21973), which is much earlier than the start of the Aurignacian period in the Cantabrian region (Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 20232022). The lithic assemblage of Unit 18 appears to be dominated by Discoid/Levallois technology (Bernaldo de Quirós and Maíllo-Fernández, 2009) but with a high percentage of ""Upper Paleolithic" pieces. Additionally, punctual bone industry, as well as pieces with incisions and engravings, and pieces with incisions and engravings were discovered in Unit 18 (Cabrera-Valdés et al., 2001). Three deciduous tooth crowns attributed to Neanderthals were found in Unit 18B (Garralda et al., 2022). Above, Unit 17 is sterile but contains scarce lithic and faunal materials, while Level 16 was attributed to the Proto-Aurignacian, with dates of 38,600±1,000 uncal BP (OxA-22200) (Wood et al., 2018).

According to Luret et al. (2020), there was a shift in hunting practices between the Late Mousterian (unit 20) and the Transitional Aurignacian (unit 18). During the Late Mousterian, hunting strategies were less specialized, and the species hunted included red deer, horses, and bovines. However, in Unit 18, a specialization in red deer hunting is observed. However, the explanation of this shift has been proposed as a response to a cultural choice or induced by climatic changes. However, recent taphonomic studies by Sanz-Royo et al. (2023) on the old collections of Aurignacian Delta level reveal a more significant role of carnivores than shown by Luret et al. (2020). The material included in this work comes from the faunal collection recovered during the Cabrera-Valdés and Bernaldo de Quirós excavations curated at Museo de Prehistoria y Arqueología de Cantabria (MUPAC, Santander).

Labeko Koba (Arrastre, Guipúzcoa, País Vasco)

Labeko Koba is a cave located-in the Kurtzetxiki Hill (43.0619; -2.4833), at 246 m a.s.l. and 29 km straight from the present-day Atlantic coast. In 1987 and 1988, due to the construction of the Arrasate ring road, the site was discovered to the construction of the Arrasate ring road, and a savage excavation was carried out (Arrizabalaga, 2000a). Unfortunately, the site was destroyed after that. The stratigraphic sequence identified nine different levels. The lower Level IX was attributed to the Châtelperronian, based on the presence of three Châtelperron points. Although there is a lack of human remains in few Cantabrian Châtelperronian sites, recent research has suggested that this techno-complex was produced by Neanderthals (Maroto et al., 2012; Rios-Garaizar et al., 2022). Level VII marks the beginning of the Aurignacian sequence, likely Proto-Aurignacian, with a lithic assemblage dominated by Dufour bladelets (Arrizabalaga, 2000a). Levels VI, V, and IV contain lithic assemblages that suggested an Early Aurignacian attribution (Arrizabalaga, 2000b; Arrizabalaga et al., 2009). This site is significant because it is one of the few sites with Châtelperronian assemblages and with both Proto-Aurignacian and Early Aurignacian separated (Arrizabalaga et al., 2009).

Initial radiocarbon dates were inconsistent with the stratigraphy of the site and much more recent than expected for the Early Upper Paleolithic (Arrizabalaga, 2000a). This incoherence was determined to be affected by taphonomic alterations (Wood et al., 2014). Later radiocarbon dates undertaken with an ultrafiltration pre-treatment provided a new regional framework for the regional Early Upper Paleolithic (Wood et al., 2014). The Châtelperronian layer IX inf is dated to 38,100±900 uncal BP (OxA-22562) and 37,400±800 uncal BP (OxA-22560). The Proto-Aurignacian levels cover a period from 36,850±800 uncal BP (OxA-21766) to 35,250±650 uncal BP (OxA-21793). The three Early Aurignacian levels are dated to 35,100±600 uncal BP (OxA-21778) for level VI, ~ 34,000 uncal BP (OxA-21767 and OxA-21779) for level V, and ~ 33,000 BP (OxA-21768 and OxA-21780) for level IV (Arrizabalaga et al., 2009).

Taphonomic studies indicate an alternation in the use of the cave between carnivores and humans, the latter enes-during short occupation periods (Villaluenda et al., 2012; Ríos-Garaizar et al., 2012; Arrizabalaga et al., 2010). Labeko Koba is considered to have functioned as a natural trap where carnivores, mainly hyenas, accessed to animal carcasses. At least in the base of Labeko Koba IX, carnivore activity was higher, and they would have consumed the same prey as humans (Villaluenga et al., 2012). The presence of humans is linked to strategic use as a campsite associated with a small assemblage of lithic artifacts. The most consumed species by Châtelperronian groups were red deer, followed by the consumption of large bovids, equids, and woolly rhinoceros. During the Aurignacian period, there was some stability in human occupations, although they still alternated with carnivore occupations (Arrizabalaga et al., 2010). Cold-adapted fauna such as reindeer and woolly rhinoceros were identified in association with the Châtelperronian. Reindeer were still present during the Aurignacian levels, as well as the woolly mammoth and arctic fox were still present during the Aurignacian levels. The original sampling of the studied teeth studied by this work was performed in the San Sebastian Heritage Collection headquarters, where the Guipuzcoa archaeological materials were deposited at that time.

Aitzbitarte III interior -(Renteríla, Guipúzcoa, País Vasco)

Aitzbitarte III is an archaeological site located within a-the Landarbaso karstic system comprising ef-nine caves in Renteria (43.270; -1.8905). The cave is situated 220 m.a.s.l. and is 10 km away from the present-day coastline. Initial archaeological interventions were carried out at the end of the 19th century by P.M. de Soraluce (Altuna, 2011). Recent excavations were initially conducted in the deep zone inside the cave between 1986 and 1993, where the studied tooth was recovered, and later focused on the cave entrance between 1994 and 2002, by J. Altuna, K. Mariezkurrena, and J. Ríos-Garaizar (Altuna et al., 2011; 2017).

While the cave's entrance area contains a sequence comprising <u>possible</u> Mousterian_and _—Evolved Aurignacian; and Gravettian <u>layers_levels</u> (Altuna et al., 2011; 2013), the stratigraphy in the inner cave presents <u>8_eight_levels</u>: level VIII (some tools with Mousterian features), VII (sterile), VIb, VIa and V (Middle Gravettian technocomplex with abundance of Noailles burins), IV-II (disturbed archaeological levels) and I (surface) (Altuna et al., 2017). Levels V have dates of 24,910 uncal BP (I-15208) and 23,230 uncal BP (Ua-2243); whereas level VI extends from 23,830 ± 345 uncal BP (Ua-2628) and 25,380± 430 uncal BP (Ua-2244) (Altuna, 1992; Altuna et al., 2017), with a possible outlier dated at 21,130 uncal BP (Ua-1917).

The Gravettian occupation in the inner part of the cave was <u>originally-initially</u> thought to be more recent than the ones in the cave entrance. However, it was <u>not-difficult easy</u> to correlate the two excavation areas due to different sedimentation rates. The <u>rich-abundant</u> human occupations took place during a singular cold phase in the Middle Gravettian with a specialized paleoeconomy focused on the hunting of *Bos primigenius* and *Bison priscus* (85% in level VI and 68% in level V), which is unusual in the Cantabrian region mostly focused on red deer and ibex. Other ungulates present are *Cervus elaphus* and *Rupicapra rupicapra*, and to a lesser extent *Capra pyrenaica*, *Capreolus capreolus*, *Rangifer tarandus*, and *Equus ferus* (Altuna et al., 2017; Altuna & Mariezkurrena, 2020). There is a scarce representation of camivores. The tooth studied was sampled at the Gordailua Center for Heritage Collections of the Provincial Council of Gipuzkoa.

El Otero (Secadura, Voto, Cantabria)

El Otero cave is located in Secadura (Voto) (43.3565; -3.5360), at 129 m.s.a.l and 12 km straight-from the present-day coastline. N, near the Matienzo valley in a coastal plain environment covered by meadows and gentle hills. The discovery was made in 1908 by Lorenzo Sierra. The site was excavated in 1963 by J. Gonzalez Echegaray and M.A. García Guinea, in two different sectors (Sala I and Sala II) with an equivalent stratigraphic sequence (González Echegaray, 1966). A total of n in levels were identified in Sala I, from level IX to level I. Levels IX and VIII were originally initially related to the "Aurignacian-Mousterian, based on lithics assemblages with a combination of both technocomplex features. The overlying levels VI-IV were separated by a speleothem crust (level VII) and were initially related to Aurignacian, due to the presence of end-scrappers, bone points, blades, or burins on truncation (Freeman, 1964; Rios-Garaizar, 2013). Also, perforated deer, ibex, and fox teeth were found in levels V and IV. This site lacked chronological dating methods, until a selection of material from levels VI, V and IV revealed a difference in chrono-cultural attribution (Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018). Radiocarbon results yielded younger dates for such a cultural attribution and showed significant stratigraphic inconsistency. Level VI gave a result of 12,415±55 (OxA-32585), two dates in Level V are 12,340±55 (OxA-32509) and 10,585±50 (OxA-32510), and a date in Level IV is 15,990±80 (OxA-32508). All these results fall into the range of the Late Upper Paleolithic (Magdalenian-Azilian initially identified in levels III-I), eliminating attribution of these levels to the Aurignacian, despite the presence of apparently characteristic artefacts. Further assessments of archaeological materials will be needed.

Red deer dominate the assemblage, except for level IV where horses are more abundant. Wild boar, roe deer, and ibex are also present, but large bovids are relatively rare (González Echegaray, 1966). Level IV is the richest and most anthropogenic level, with evidence of butchering in red deer (captured in winter and early summer) and chamois (in autumn). The formation of this level involved humans and carnivores, and although certain data may suggest an anthropogenic predominance, the limited sample analyzed taphonomically and the pre-selection of preserved pieces do not allow for a definitive conclusion (Yravedra & Gómez-Castanedo, 2010). The material included in this work is curated at the Museo de Prehistoria y Arqueología de Cantabria (MUPAC, Santander).

A2. Mediterranean sites

Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars (Gavà, Barcelona, Cataluña)

Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars (henceforth, Canyars) is an open-air site located near Gavà (Barcelona) (41.2961;1.9797), at 28 m.s.a.l and 3 km straight from the present-day coastline. The site lies on a fluvial terrace at the confluence of Riera dels Canyars, a torrential stream between Garraf Massif, Llobregat delta and Riera de Can Llong (Daura et al., 2013). Archaeo-paleontological remains were discovered during quarries activities in 2005 and was complete excavated on 2007 by the *Grup de Recerca del Quaternari* (Daura and Sanz, 2006; Daura et al., 2013). This intervention determined nine lithological units. The paleontological and archaeological remains come exclusively from one unit, the middle luthitic unit (MLU), and specifically from layer I. The MLU is composed of coarse sandy clays and gravels, filling a paleochannel network named lower detrital unit (LDU) (Daura et al., 2013). Five radiocarbon dates were obtained on charcoals from layer I, which yield statistically consistent ages from 33,800 ±350 uncal BP to 34,900 ±340 uncal BP, which results in mean age of 39,600 cal BP (from 37,405 to 40,916 cal BP) (Daura et al., 2013).

The layer I of the site has yielded a rich faunal assemblage, consisting of over 5,000 remains. Among the herbivores, the most common species found are *Equus ferus*, *Bos primigenius*, *Equus hydruntinus*, and *Cervus elaphus* (Daura et al., 2013; Sanz-Royo et al., 2020). *Capra* sp. and *Sus scrofa are* also present, although in lower frequencies. The carnivores found at the site are also noteworthy, with *Crocuta crocuta* and *Lynx pardinus* being the most frequent. Presence of cold-adapted fauna associated to stepped environments is recorded, such as cf. *Mammuthus* sp., *Coelodonta antiquitatis*, and *Equus hydruntinus*. Small mammal analysis, pollen, and use-wear analysis have provided further evidence that a steppedominated landscape surrounded the Canyars site, supporting a correlation with the Heinrich Event 4, in coherence with the chronology obtained for the layer (López-García et al. 2013; 2023; Rivals et al., 2017). However, the presence of woodland is also attested by forest taxa within charcoal and pollen assemblages (Daura et al., 2013).

Taphonomic study is ongoing. But several evidences point that hyenas have played an important role in the accumulation of the faunal assemblage (Daura et al., 2013; Jimenez et al. 2019). However, sporadic human presence is documented by few human modifications found in faunal remains (cutmarks and fire alterations). Although the paucity of the lithic assemblage in the site, it shows a clear attribution to Upper Palaeolithic technocomplex, most likely the Early Aurignacian (Daura et al., 2013). Recently, it was documented a perforated bone fragment, which has been identified as a perforated board for leather production (Doyon et al., 2023). All teeth included in this work were sampled in *Laboratori de la Guixera* (Ajuntament de Casteldefels) where the material is stored.

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Appendix C. Intratooth curve plots

Original curves derived from enamel intratooth sampling on enamel carbonate. Provided by sites. In blue, oxygen stable isotope composition ($\delta^{18}O$), and, in brown, carbon stable isotope composition ($\delta^{13}C$). In the x-axis, the distance from Enamel Rooth Junction (ERJ). Notice that the y-axis can experience some variations between sites.

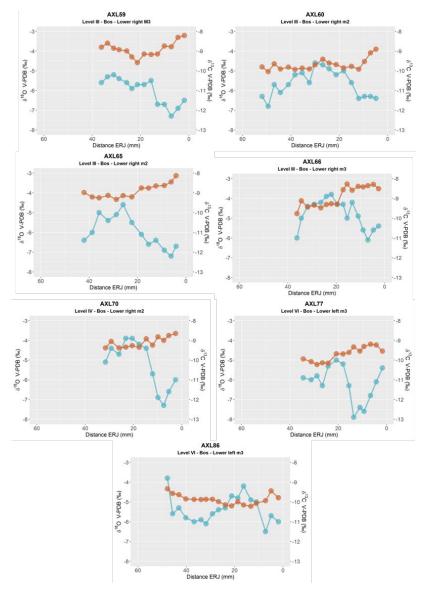
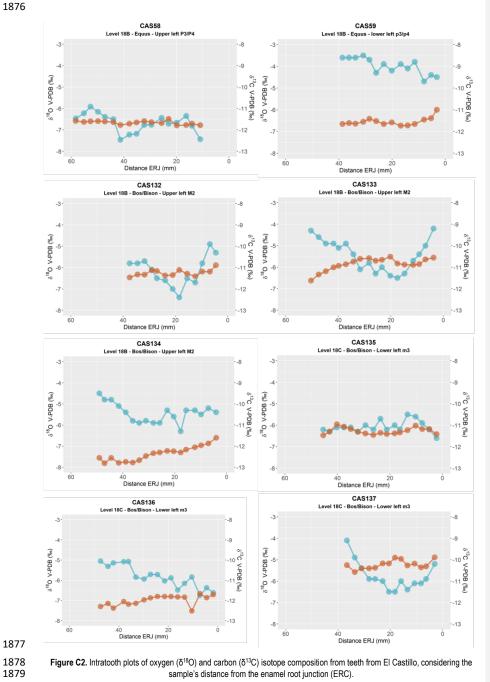
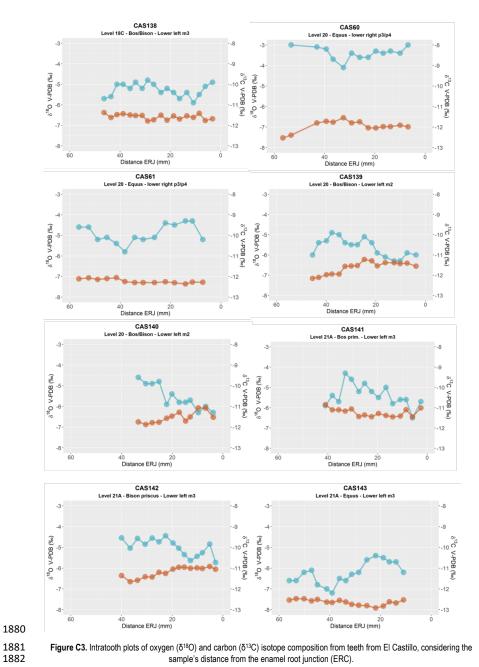
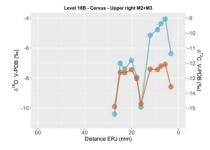


Figure C1. Intratooth plots of oxygen (δ¹⁸O) and carbon (δ¹³C) isotope composition from teeth from Axlor, considering distance from enamel root junction (ERC).



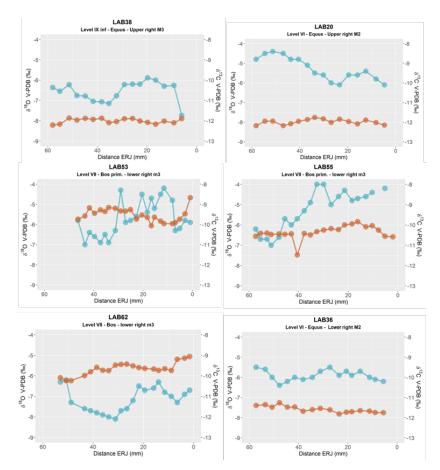
 $\label{eq:c2.power} \textbf{Figure C2.} \ \ \text{Intratooth plots of oxygen } (\delta^{18}\text{O}) \ \ \text{and carbon } (\delta^{13}\text{C}) \ \ \text{isotope composition from teeth from El Castillo, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).$

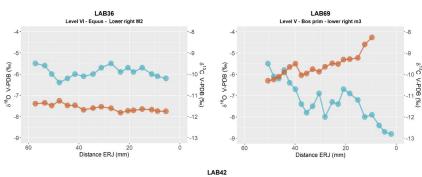




 $\label{eq:c4.power} \textbf{Figure C4.} \ \ \text{Intratooth plots of oxygen (δ^{18}O) and carbon (δ^{13}C) isotope composition from teeth from El Castillo, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).$







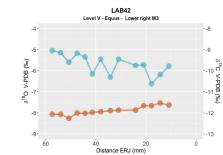


Figure C6. Intratooth plots of oxygen $(\delta^{18}O)$ and carbon $(\delta^{13}C)$ isotope composition from teeth from Labeko Koba, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

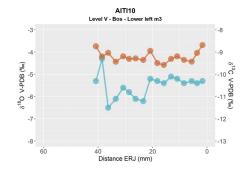
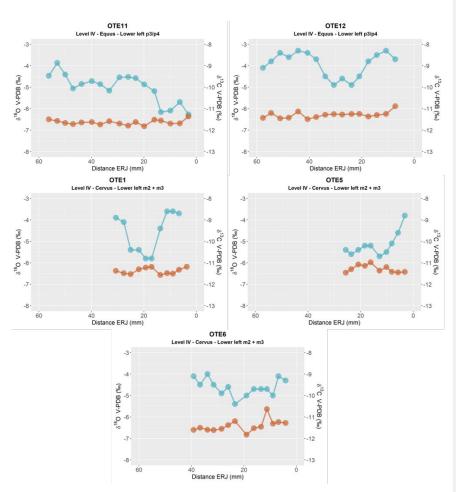
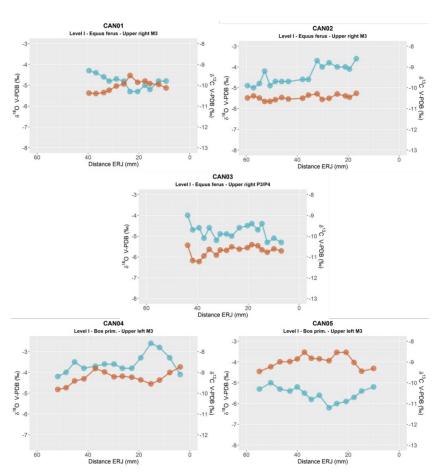


Figure C7. Intratooth plots of oxygen (δ^{18} O) and carbon (δ^{19} C) isotope composition from teeth from Aitzbitarte III interior, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).



 $\label{eq:constraint} \textbf{Figure C8.} \ \, \text{Intratooth plots of oxygen (δ^{18}O) and carbon (δ^{13}C) isotope composition from teeth from El Otero, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).$



 $\label{eq:c9.posterior} \textbf{Figure C9.} \ \, \text{Intratooth plots of oxygen } (\delta^{18}\text{O}) \ \, \text{and carbon } (\delta^{13}\text{C}) \ \, \text{isotope composition from teeth from Canyars considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).}$

Appendix D. Inverse Modelling: Methodological Details and Models

The intratooth $\delta_i^{18}O$ profiles presented in this study were obtained through the application of inverse modelling, –using an adapted version of the code published in reference (Passey et al., 2005b). This modeling approach allowed for the correction of the damping effect and the reconstruction of the original $\delta_i^{18}O$ input time series. The model reproduces the temporal delay between $\delta_i^{18}O$ changes in the animal's input and their manifestation in tooth enamel, exhibiting a consistent x-direction delay in the modelled $\delta_i^{18}O$ curve relative to the enamel $\delta_i^{18}O$ input time series. The model utilizes different species-specific parameters related to enamel formation, which vary between bovines and equids. These parameters have been established based on previous studies (Bendrey et al., 2015; Zazzo et al., 2012; Passey and Cerling, 2002; Kohn, 2004; Blumenthal et al., 2014). For Bos/Bison sp., the initial mineral content of enamel is fixed at 25%, the enamel appositional length is set at 1.5 mm, and the maturation length is 25 mm. For Equus sp., the initial mineral content of enamel is fixed at 22%, the enamel appositional length is 28 mm.

In addition, the model requires other variables related to sampling geometry, as well as error estimates derived from mass spectrometer measurements. The distance between samples varies for each tooth, but as a general trend, the sampling depth on the tooth enamel surface in the samples of this study represents approximately 70% of the total enamel depth. The standard deviation of the measurements obtained from the mass spectrometer was typically set at 0.12%, taking into account the uncertainty associated with the standards. Finally, the models require a damping factor that determines the cumulative damping along the isotopic profile by adjusting the measured error (Emeas) to the prediction error (Epred). In the teeth analysed in this study, the damping factor ranged from 0.001 to 0.1.

The most likely model solutions were selected, and summer and winter values were extracted from the $\delta_i^{18}O$ profiles, considering the original peaks and troughs identified in the unmodelled $\delta_i^{18}O$ profile. This approach was adopted to prevent the introduction of artificial peaks that the model may produce, particularly in teeth without a distinct sinusoidal shape. Flat and less sinusoidal profile are less suitable for the application of the model, given its inherent assumption of an approximately sinusoidal form. Non-sinusoidal curves can lead to complex interpretations in the model outcomes. Consequently, this methodology was not applied to analysed intratooth $\delta^{13}C$ profiles, as the examined individuals did not exhibit appreciable seasonal change.

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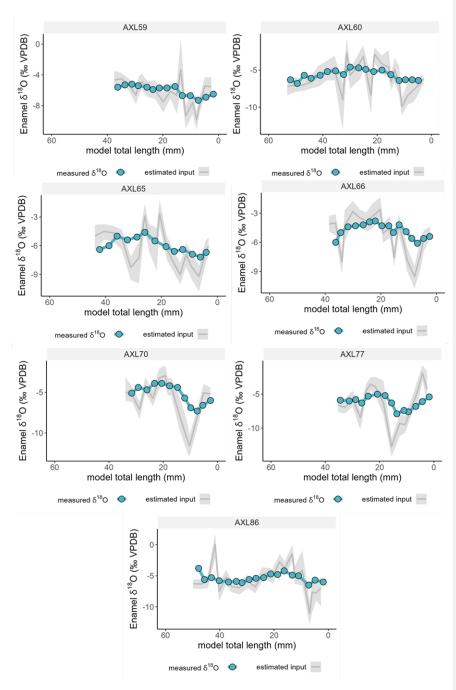


Figure D1. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ^{18} O) from teeth from Axlor, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

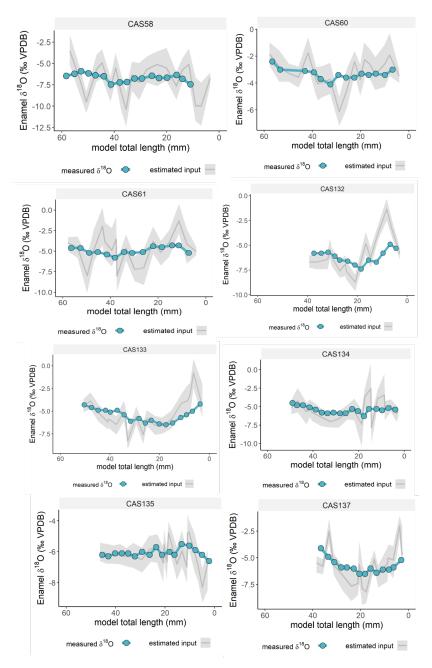


Figure D2. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ¹²O) from teeth from El Castillo, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

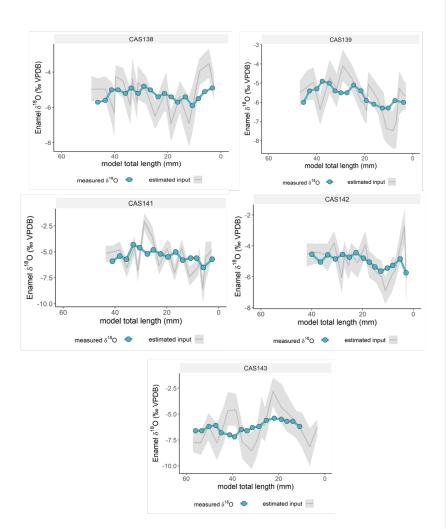


Figure D3. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ¹⁸O) from teeth from EI Castillo, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

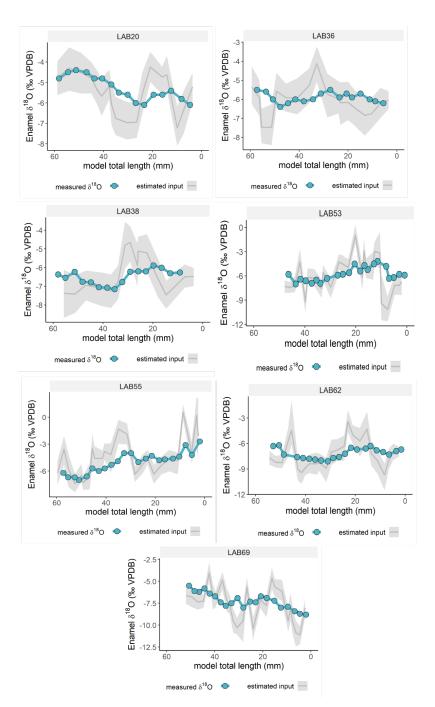


Figure D4. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ¹⁸O) from teeth from Labeko Koba, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

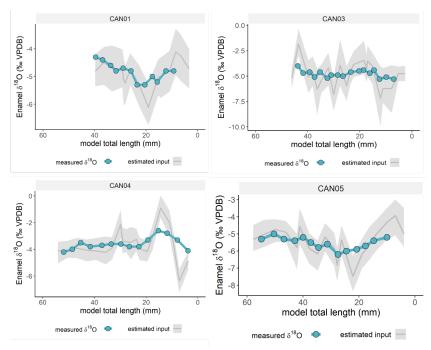


Figure D5. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ^{18} O) from teeth from Canyars considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

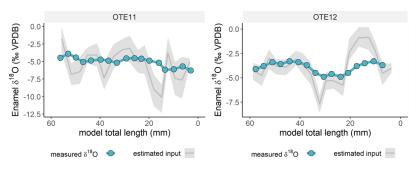


Figure D6. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ^{18} O) from teeth from El Otero, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

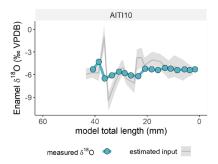


Figure D7. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition (δ¹8O) from teeth from Aitzbitarte III interior, considering distance from enamel root

1971 1972 1973 junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

References Appendix D

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