

1 Evolutionary ecology of ungulates in northern Iberia during the Late 2 Pleistocene through isotopic analysis on teeth

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18 19 **Abstract**

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

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

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Understanding local and regional climatic variability during the Late Pleistocene in southern Europe is crucial
42 for assessing the potential impact of climate on the adaptation and decline of Neanderthals and the
43 subsequent expansion and resilience of Anatomically Modern Humans during the Upper Paleolithic (e.g.,

44 D'Errico and Sánchez Goñi, 2003; Finlayson and Carrión, 2007; Sepulchre et al., 2007; Staubwasser et al.,
45 2018). During the Late Pleistocene, the climatic records demonstrate stadial and interstadial continuous
46 fluctuations during the Marine Isotope Stage 3 (MIS 3, ca. 60-27 ka) and MIS 2 (ca. 27-11 ka). Human
47 groups had to face those episodes, which affected vegetation and fauna to different extents, depending on
48 the region. Northern Iberia is a key study area due to the abundance of well-preserved archaeological caves
49 and rock shelters where, in the last decade, an updated and multidisciplinary approach has been applied to
50 disentangle how changing environmental conditions affected the subsistence dynamics of Middle and Upper
51 Paleolithic hominins. Recent chronological, technological, subsistence studies and ecological
52 reconstructions are revealing a more complex regional panorama than previously known (e.g., Klein et al.,
53 2023; Sánchez Goñi, 2020; Timmermann, 2020; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022, 2023).

54 The Vasco-Cantabrian region, located in northwestern Iberia, is subject to the influence of Atlantic climatic
55 conditions, where recently has been evaluated the impact of the glacial-interglacial oscillations during MIS3
56 (Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). Modelling of traditional environmental proxies (small vertebrates and pollen)
57 associated to archaeo-paleontological deposits show a progressive shift in the climatic conditions with
58 decreasing temperatures and rainfall levels detected during the late Mousterian (Fernández-García et al.,
59 2023). Ecological alterations have been observed in large mammals, such as niche partitioning between
60 horses and cervids (Jones et al., 2018), a decrease in the available biomass for secondary consumers, and
61 consequently, a reduction in the ungulate carrying capacity (Jones et al., 2018; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022).
62 Cold and arid conditions are observed during the Aurignacian and the Gravettian until the onset of MIS2.
63 Afterwards, during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 23-19 ka), the global climatic deterioration associated
64 with this glacial phase results in colder and more arid conditions in the region, with a predominance of open
65 landscapes. However, this region still provided resources for human survival acting as a refugia with more
66 humid conditions in comparison to the Mediterranean area (Casalheira et al., 2021; Fagoaga, 2014;
67 Fernández-García et al., 2023; Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019a; Lécuyer et al., 2021; Posth et al., 2023).
68 By the end of the LGM, a climate amelioration and a moderate expansion of the deciduous forest are
69 documented from the late Solutrean through the Magdalenian (Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019a; Jones et
70 al., 2021).

71 In contrast, northeastern Iberia is influenced by the Mediterranean climate. The MIS 3 human settlement in
72 this region have been linked to cooler temperatures and with higher rainfall, compared to the present, but
73 with climatic fluctuations less pronounced compared to the Vasco-Cantabrian region (López-García et al.,
74 2014; Fernández-García et al., 2020; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). Archaeobotanical and small vertebrate
75 evidence indicate relatively stable climatic conditions, but also suggest the persistence of open forests
76 during the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transition, as found in northwestern Iberia (Allué et al., 2018; Ochando
77 et al., 2021). However, certain archaeological records indicate specific climatic episodes, such as increased
78 aridity and landscape opening during Heinrich Events 4 and 5 (e.g., Álvarez-Lao et al., 2017; Daura et al.,
79 2013; López-García et al., 2022; Rufí et al., 2018).

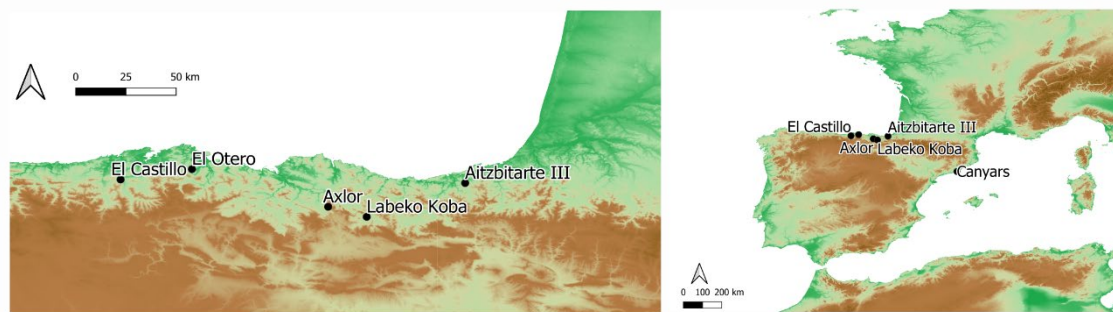
80 These multi-proxy studies have significantly expanded our understanding of the environmental evolution in
81 Iberia, alongside proxies derived from marine core records in Iberia margins (Fourcade et al., 2022; Martrat
82 et al., 2004; Naughton et al., 2007; Roucoux et al., 2001; Sánchez-Goñi et al., 1999, 2009) and other regional
83 paleoclimatic records sourced from local natural deposits (e.g., Pérez-Mejías et al., 2019; Moreno et al.,
84 2010, 2012; González-Sampériz et al., 2020; Ballesteros et al., 2020). However, the availability of proxies
85 enabling the direct connections between these environmental shifts and human activities remains limited.

86 In this study, we investigate the palaeoecological and palaeoenvironmental dynamics in northern Iberia
87 during the late Middle and Upper Paleolithic by measuring the carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of
88 bioapatite carbonates ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}/\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$) preserved in archaeological mammal teeth. These analyses provide
89 high-resolution snapshots of ecological information from animals accumulated during human occupations at
90 the caves. Tooth enamel forms incrementally and does not biologically remodel (Kohn, 2004; Passey and
91 Cerling, 2002), in contrast to other bodily tissues such as bone, which implies that the isotope values
92 measured on them reflect the animal diet and water sources consumed during its mineralisation, around

93 one to two years of life for the species included in our study (bovids, equids, cervids)(e.g., Hoppe et al.,
94 2004; Pederzani and Britton, 2019; Ambrose and Norr, 1993; Luz et al., 1984). The preserved carbon
95 isotope composition relies on animal dietary choices reflecting mainly the type of plant consumed (C3/C4),
96 exposition to light and humidity levels. Otherwise, the oxygen isotope composition reflects mainly the
97 environmental water consumed by animals, directly by drinking or through diet, which reflects isotopic
98 information derived from water sources as well as changes in climatic conditions. Both indirectly provide
99 information on the vegetation and climate that allows estimating past temperatures, rainfall, and moisture
100 on a sub-annual scale, returning isotopic data of the foraging areas where animals were feeding during teeth
101 formation.

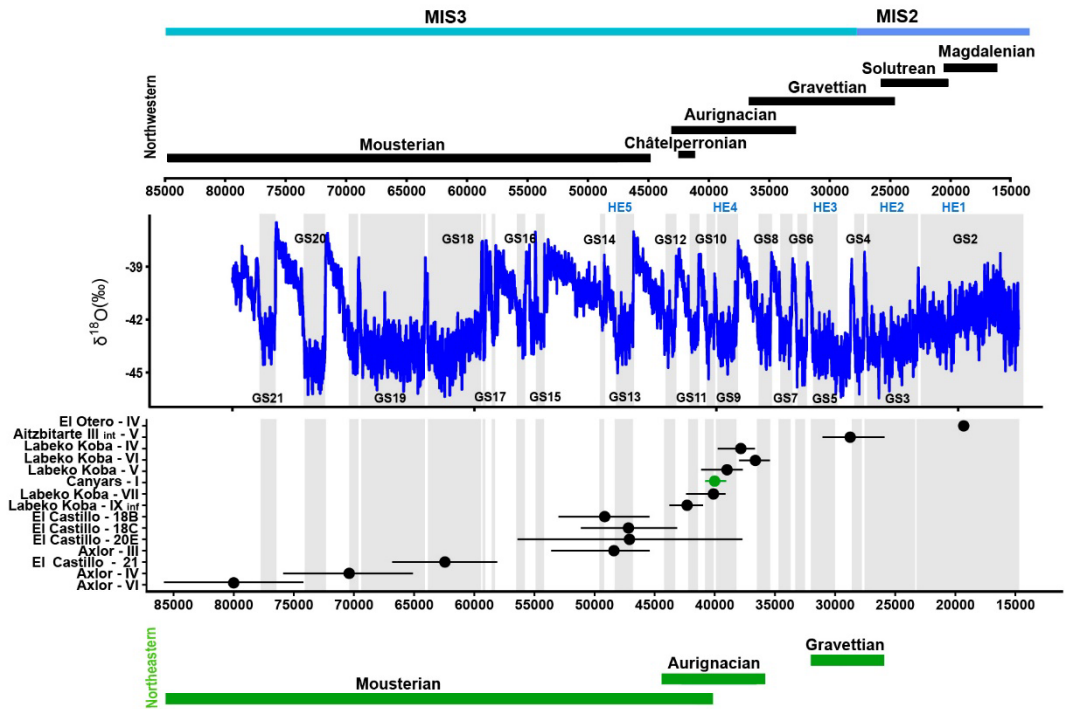
102 By analysing the stable isotopic composition of 44 ungulate teeth obtained from 15 archaeological levels
103 directly associated with human occupation, including El Castillo, Axlor, Labeko Koba, Aitzbitarte III interior
104 and El Otero in northwestern Iberia, and Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars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

108 The main objectives of this work are: 1) to assess how regional environmental conditions, including changes
109 in moisture and vegetation cover, but also temperatures and rainfall, are recorded in the stable isotopic
110 composition of tooth enamel; 2) to characterize animal diet and their ecological niches; 3) to obtain
111 quantitative temperature data to compare with available proxies; 4) to characterise seasonal patterns of
112 animals found in the archaeological sites by identifying winter and summer fluctuations.



113

114 **Figure 1.** Location of the archaeological sites included in this study. From west to east, in the autonomous community of
115 Cantabria, El Castillo, and El Otero; in the Basque Country, Axlor and Aitzbitarte III interior; in Catalonia, Canyars.



116
 117 **Figure 2.** Representation of the duration each archaeological level (dots represent the median values, bars represent 95%
 118 confidence intervals for ^{14}C dates and 68% for ESR and OSL dates) related to techno-complexes in both northwestern (in black)
 119 and northeastern Iberia (in green) and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the NGRIP (North Greenland Ice Core Project members, 2004;
 120 Rasmussen et al., 2014). Grey bands indicate Greenland Stadials (GS). Detailed information on OSL, ESR and ^{14}C dates, along
 121 with ^{14}C calibration, are shown in Appendix B and C.

122 **2. Archaeological sites and sampled material**

123 This study selected a total of 44 ungulate teeth including 25 bovines (*Bos primigenius*, *Bison priscus*,
 124 *Bos/Bison* sp.), 14 equids (*Equus* sp. and *Equus ferus*), and five cervids (*Cervus elaphus*) originating from
 125 five archaeological sites in the Vasco-Cantabrian region (El Castillo, El Otero, Axlor, Labeko Koba,
 126 Aitzbitarte III interior) and one in the northeastern area (Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars, henceforth
 127 Canyars). These teeth were recovered from 15 archaeological levels attributed to the following
 128 technocomplexes: Mousterian (n=14), Transitional Aurignacian (n=10), Châtelperronian (n=2), Aurignacian
 129 (n=12), Gravettian (n=1) and Magdalenian (n=5) (Table 1 and 2). Archaeozoological studies of the
 130 archaeological sites are available (synthesis in Marín-Arroyo and Sanz-Royo, 2022; Daura et al., 2013) and
 131 most prove that faunal remains were accumulated by human acquisition during the different cultural phases.
 132 The isotopic results of equids teeth and other ungulates bone collagen from El Castillo were previously
 133 published by Jones et al. (2019) in combination with the stable isotopes of ungulates from the site, as well
 134 as the combined bioapatite carbonate and phosphate analyses of bovines from Axlor (Pederzani et al.,
 135 2023). A comprehensive description of each archaeological site is provided in Appendix A.

136 **3. Methods**

137 **3.1 Methods: Dating methods**

138 Individual Bayesian age models were built for Canyars, El Castillo, Labeko Koba and Aitzbitarte III interior
 139 based on radiocarbon dates (AMS UF and non-UF, ABOx-SC and ABA pretreatments on bones and
 140 charcoal remains) using OxCal4.4 software (Ramsey, 2009), considering the INTCAL20 calibration curve
 141 (Reimer et al., 2020) (Appendix C). The Bayesian model enables the modification of the calibrated
 142 Probability Distribution Function (PDF) of individual dates based on the existing relative stratigraphic and
 143 other relative age information. A resolution of 20 years was assumed, being a reasonable balance between

144 required accuracy and computational costs. An order function in the OxCal was used to calculate the
 145 probability that one PDF predated another, providing information to assess synchronicity and temporal
 146 overlap of individual archaeological levels and cultural phases in each of the four separate sites modelled.
 147 Dates were organised into a 'Sequence,' and chronological information for each level was grouped into a
 148 single 'Phase' with start and end 'boundaries' to bracket each archaeological level. The interval between the
 149 start of each level and its end provided the duration of each level. In all cases, convergence was greater
 150 than 95%. CQL codes, individual Bayesian models and modelled dates per site are reported in Appendix C.

151 No chronological models were built for El Otero because only a single date was obtained for level IV and El
 152 Castillo levels 20E and 21 (ESR dated) and Axlor levels III, IV and VI (OSL dated) because dates go beyond
 153 the limit of the radiocarbon. To show the duration of these levels in combination with the other sites and
 154 levels, each of these dates was estimated by adding and subtracting the sigma (68% Confidence Interval)
 155 from the uncalibrated date. In this way, we estimated the duration of these levels to be beyond 55 ka cal
 156 BP.

157 3.2 Tooth sampling

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

173

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

174

175

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

177 3.3 Sample treatment and stable isotope mass spectrometry

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

189 Pretreatment was followed for above-mentioned samples from fourteen teeth, where around 7 mg of
190 powdered enamel was prepared and pretreated with 3% of sodium hypochlorite (NaOCl) at room
191 temperature for 24 h (0.1 ml/mg sample) and thoroughly rinsed with deionised water, before a reaction with
192 0.1M acetic acid for 4 h (0.1 ml/mg sample) (Balasse et al., 2002; equivalent protocol in Jones et al., 2019).
193 Samples were then thoroughly rinsed, frozen, and freeze-dried. NaOCl is one of the most common agents
194 used for pretreating carbonates and works as a base that removes organic matter by oxidation. Although it
195 is considered one of the most efficient agents for removing organic matter, it can induce the absorption of
196 exogenous carbonates, such as atmospheric CO₂ and secondary carbonates (Pellegrini and Snoeck, 2016;
197 Snoeck and Pellegrini, 2015). It is argued that acetic acid after NaOCl pretreatment can remove exogenous
198 carbonates absorbed during NaOCl application. However, it is unclear if all newly introduced carbonates are
199 finally released and which effect they produce on the original isotopic composition. These samples were
200 analysed in the Godwin Laboratory (Department of Earth Sciences, University of Cambridge). Enamel
201 powder samples were reacted with 100% orthophosphoric acid for 2 h at 70°C in individual vessels in an
202 automated Gasbench interfaced with a Thermo Finnigan MAT253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Results
203 were reported in reference to the international standard VPDB and calibrated using the NBS-19 standard
204 (limestone, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = +1.95\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -2.2\text{‰}$; Coplen, 2011) for which the precision is better than 0.08‰
205 for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.11‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

206 For the non-pre-treated samples, carbon and oxygen stable isotopic ratios were measured using continuous
207 flow-isotope ratio mass spectrometry, specifically a Europa Scientific 20-20 IRMS coupled to a
208 chromatograph, at the Iso-Analytical laboratory in Cheshire, UK. The samples were weighed into clean
209 exetainer tubes after being flushed with 99.995% helium. Phosphoric acid was then added to the samples,
210 and they were allowed to react overnight to ensure the complete conversion of carbonate to CO₂, following
211 the method outlined by Coplen et al. (1983). The reference materials used for VPDB calibration and quality
212 control of the analysis included IA-R022 (calcium carbonate, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -28.63\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -22.69\text{‰}$), NBS-18
213 (carbonatite, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -5.01\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -23.2\text{‰}$), IA-R066 (chalk, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = +2.33\text{‰}$; $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -1.52$). The accepted
214 values of the in-house standards IA-R022 and IA-R066 were obtained by calibrating against IAEA
215 international reference materials, NBS-18 and NBS-19, and NBS-18 and IAEA-CO-1 (Carrara marble, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
216 = 2.5‰, and $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -2.4\text{‰}$), respectively. Additionally, in-house standards long-term measured were used:
217 ILC1 (calcite, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = 2.13$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -3.99\text{‰}$), and Y-02 (calcite, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = 1.48$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -9.59\text{‰}$). The analytical
218 precision of quality control standard replicates was better than 0.09‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and better than 0.12‰ for
219 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The calcium carbonate content test of these samples, ranging between 3.9% and 8.9%, does not

220 indicate a substantial presence of secondary carbonates, considering Chesson et al. (2021). Additionally,
221 phosphate results on samples from Axlor showed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}-\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$ offsets within the expected range for well-
222 preserved samples (Pederzani et al., 2023).

223 3.4 Carbon stable isotopic compositions as environmental and ecological tracers

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

233 (Eq. 1) $\epsilon^* = 2.34+0.05 \text{ (BM)}$ $[\text{r}^2=0.78; \text{p-value}=0.008]$

234 (Eq. 2) $\epsilon^* = 2.42+0.032 \text{ (BM)}$ $[\text{r}^2=0.74; \text{p-value}=0.003]$

235 This work compares species with different digestive physiology, ruminants for bovines and cervids, and non-
236 ruminants for equids. The ϵ^* value was adjusted for each animal to avoid bias from digestive physiology
237 when comparing these species. The following enrichment factors have been used: 14.6‰ for *Bos taurus*
238 (Passey et al., 2005a), 13.7‰ for *Equus caballus* (Cerling and Harris, 1999), and 13.2‰ for *Cervus elaphus*
239 (Merceron et al. (2021) following (Eq. 1) for ruminants with a mean body mass of 125 kg.

240 In body tissues, carbon isotopic composition is considered a combination of diet (understood as consumed
241 food), environment openness (and associated exposure to light), and the amount of precipitation. Assuming
242 that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of past vegetation is close to $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ of ungulates, Lécuyer et al. (2021) proposed to estimate Mean
243 Annual Precipitations (MAP) from $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$, derived from diets based on C3 plants. After transforming $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$
244 to $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ using the enrichment factors established above, this work suggested transforming this value to
245 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from vegetation ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}$). However, the isotopic composition of animals' diet may not directly reflect
246 vegetation cover, but rather the food preference of the animal and this approach should be discussed
247 alongside other environmental data.

248 The MAP estimation is based on least square regression developed by Rey et al. (2013) and based on Kohn
249 (2010) dataset (Eq.4), which requires first to estimate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}$ (Eq. 3). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of atmospheric
250 CO_2 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$) are fixed in -7‰ (Lécuyer et al., 2021; Leuenberger et al., 1992; Schmitt et al., 2012).
251 Atmospheric CO_2 levels have varied throughout the Late Pleistocene, with $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ range between -7 to -
252 6.4‰ (Eggleston et al., 2016), favouring an age-specific correction approach. However, maintaining general
253 corrections is preferred considering the chronological uncertainty of the studied levels.

254 (Eq.3) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}} \text{ (VPDB)} = (\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}) / [1+(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} / 1000)]$

255

256 (Eq.4) $\text{Log1}(\text{MAP}+300) = 0.092(\pm 0.004) \times \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}} + 1.148(\pm 0.074)$

257

258 Additionally, Lécuyer et al. (2021) equation also accounts for the pCO_2 effect on $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{leaf}}$ estimation, which
259 is expected to result in an offset of +1‰ from current levels (considering that pCO_2 was lower than that
260 experienced after the deglaciation period). If this correction was not applied, MAP results could be
261 underestimated by -150mm. In agreement with Lécuyer et al. (2021) appreciation, these MAP estimations

262 are a preliminary approximation and should be cross-validated with other environmental proxies. The
263 associated uncertainties range from ± 100 to 200 mm, influencing the interpretation of the final values.

264 3.5 Oxygen stable isotope compositions as environmental tracers

265 Stable oxygen isotopes from meteoric water (mainly derived from rainfall) strongly correlate with mean air
266 temperatures in mid to high latitudes (Dansgaard, 1964; Rozanski et al., 1992) on a regional-to-local scale.
267 Obligate drinkers, like bovines and horses, acquire this water and record its isotopic composition in their
268 teeth and bones with a fixed but species-specific offset (Pederzani and Britton, 2019). Considering this two-
269 step relationship, past climatic conditions can be estimated. However, most of the temperature
270 reconstructions based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ have considered the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from the phosphate fraction of bioapatite enamel
271 ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$) to build linear correlations between tooth enamel and drinking water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and obtain climatic
272 information. For this reason, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values obtained in this work were converted into $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$. To do so,
273 first, to express in VSMOW notation, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ was corrected using the following correlation (Brand et al.,
274 2014; Coplen et al., 1983):

$$275 \quad (\text{Eq.5}) \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}} (\text{VSMOW}) = 1.0309 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}} (\text{VPDB}) + 30.91$$

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

$$280 \quad (\text{Eq.6}) \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}} (\text{VSMOW}) = 0.941 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}} (\text{VSMOW}) - 7.16$$

281 Once the isotopic information is expressed in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$ (VSMOW), we can estimate the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ on meteoric
282 waters ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$). It is known that different physiological factors will condition how oxygen isotope composition
283 is fixed in each mammalian group. Thus, the correlations are usually species-specific and developed
284 considering the physiology of each animal group. The obligate drinkers heavily rely on consuming large
285 amounts of liquid drinking water, being the relative contribution of water from plants negligible and then
286 minimizing the possible impact of isotopic enrichment through evapotranspiration in plants (Hoppe, 2006;
287 Maloij, 1973; Pederzani and Britton, 2019). However, certain types of drinking behaviours can impact δ
288 ^{18}O , such as systematic consumption of certain highly buffered water sources (rivers or lakes), can
289 significantly attenuate the final signal recorded. The correlation employed by this work relies on recent data
290 compilations (Pederzani et al., 2021b, 2023). In the case of horses (Eq. 7), it has been considered the data
291 combination of Blumenthal et al. (2019); Chillón et al. (1994); Bryant et al., 1994; Delgado Huertas et al.,
292 1995), whereas for bovines (Eq. 8) the data from D'Angela and Longinelli (1990) and Hoppe (2006) have
293 been put together in Eq. 4. To estimate $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ from red deer remains, we selected D'Angela and Longinelli
294 (1990) correlation (Eq. 9):

$$295 \quad (\text{Eq.7}) \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} (\text{VSMOW}) = (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}} (\text{VSMOW}) - 22.14) / 0.62$$

$$296 \quad (\text{Eq.8}) \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} (\text{VSMOW}) = (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}} (\text{VSMOW}) - 22.36) / 0.78$$

$$297 \quad (\text{Eq.9}) \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} (\text{VSMOW}) = (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}} (\text{VSMOW}) - 24.39) / 0.91$$

298 Finally, paleotemperatures estimations from $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ are typically approached using a geographically
299 adjusted linear regression, which can vary from precise adjustments (aimed at reducing errors) to broader
300 geographical adjustments that encompass more variability but are less precise (e.g., Pryor et al., 2014;
301 Skrzypek et al., 2011; Tütken et al., 2007). In this work, temperatures were calculated considering the linear
302 regression model relating $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ and air temperatures proposed by Pederzani et al. (2021) based on
303 monthly climatic records (monthly mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ and monthly mean air temperatures), from Western,

304 Southern and Central Europe stations from the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (IAEA/ WMO,
305 2020). Considering current IAEA data sets from northern Iberia, there is a strong positive relationship
306 between $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ and annual or monthly temperatures (Moreno et al., 2021). However, it is known that Iberia
307 is under a mixed influence between Atlantic and Mediterranean moisture sources that affects the isotopic
308 composition of rainfall (Araguas-Araguas and Diaz Teijeiro, 2005; García-Alix et al., 2021; Moreno et al.,
309 2021). Given uncertainties in past atmospheric circulation patterns and the limited availability of reference
310 stations, it was deemed most appropriate to select an equation that extends beyond the borders of Iberia
311 and incorporates higher variability. Different correlations were for mean annual temperature (Eq. 10),
312 summer (Eq. 11), and winter (Eq. 12) temperatures (T):

313 (Eq.10) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (VSMOW) = (0.50 x T) - 13.64

314 (Eq.11) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (VSMOW) = (0.46 x T) - 14.70

315 (Eq.12) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (VSMOW) = (0.52 x T) - 11.26

316 Nonetheless, oscillations between glacial and interglacial conditions in the past have influenced global ice
317 volume and sea level fluctuations (Dansgaard, 1964; Shackleton, 1987), impacting seawater oxygen isotope
318 composition and the surface hydrological cycle on a worldwide scale, including $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (Schrag et al., 2002).
319 Prior studies have used sea level information to correct $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (e.g., Fernández-García et al., 2019; Schrag
320 et al., 2002). Given the chronological uncertainty in the studied levels, a general correction was applied to
321 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ before temperature estimations, following Fernández-García et al. (2020) approach. Considering the
322 mean sea level descent for the MIS 3 period (50 meters below present-day sea level)(Chappell and
323 Shackleton, 1986), this may have contributed to a potential increase in the global $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ value by $\approx 0.5\text{‰}$,
324 inferring a bias in calculated air temperatures of $\approx 1^\circ\text{C}$.

325 Due to the uncertainties incurred from converting stable isotope measurements to palaeotemperature, the
326 final estimations in this work should be considered exploratory and as a method of standardisation to make
327 results comparable among different sites, species, and other non-isotopic palaeoclimatic records. In these
328 estimations, the associated error from converting $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$ to MAT is enlarged by the uncertainty derived
329 from the transformation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ (VPDB) to $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$ (VSMOW) (see Pryor et al., 2014; Skrzypek et al.,
330 2016 for further discussion). However, Pryor et al. (2014) and Pederzani et al. (2023) concluded that the
331 impact of this conversion is negligible compared to the error propagation in subsequent calibrations used
332 for temperature estimations from $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$. These associated errors were quantified following the
333 methodology outlined by Pryor et al. (2014) (Appendix B).

334 **3.6 Inverse modelling applied to intratooth profiles**

335 Intratooth profiles frequently provide a time-averaged signal compared to the input isotopic signal ($\delta^{13}\text{C}/$
336 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$) during enamel formation (Passey et al., 2005b). This signal attenuation is caused by time-averaging
337 effects incurred through the extended nature of amelogenesis and tooth formation, and through the sampling
338 strategy. During mineralisation, the maturation zone, which is time-averaged, often affects a large portion of
339 the crown height and might affect the temporal resolution of the input signal of the sample taken. To obtain
340 climatically informative seasonal information on the analysed teeth, the inverse modelling method proposed
341 by (Passey et al. (2005b) is applied in this work. This method computationally estimates the time-averaging
342 effects of sampling and tooth formation to obtain the original amplitude of the isotopic input signal more
343 accurately, thus, to summer and winter extremes (Appendix E). This method considers parameters based
344 on the amelogenesis trends of each species and sampling geometry, which are critical for a meaningful
345 interpretation of intratooth isotope profiles. The model also estimates the error derived from the sampling
346 uncertainty and the mass spectrometer measurements to evaluate the data's reproducibility and precision.
347 This method was initially developed for continuously growing teeth, taking into account a constant growth

348 rate within a linear maturation model, with a progressive time-average increment as sampling advances
349 along the teeth profile. The species studied in this research exhibit non-linear tooth enamel formation,
350 particularly in later-forming molars (Bendrey et al., 2015; Blumenthal et al., 2014; Kohn, 2004; Passey and
351 Cerling, 2002; Zazzo et al., 2012). Although the model mentioned above is not ideal, as it does not take into
352 account non-linear enamel formation and specific growth parameters for the species included are unknown,
353 it is the best estimation based on the current state of the field and remains widely used (Pederzani et al.,
354 2021a, b, 2023). Flat and less sinusoidal profiles are less suitable for the application of the model, given its
355 inherent assumption of an approximately sinusoidal form. Therefore, we chose not to apply this methodology
356 in the analysis of intratooth $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ profiles, and it is recommended to approach the interpretation of model
357 outcomes for non-sinusoidal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curves with caution. Further details on the application of this method can
358 be found in Appendix E.

359 Following Pederzani et al. (2021b), mean annual temperatures (MAT) were deduced from the average of
360 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values between summer and winter detected in original sinusoidal intratooth profiles (Appendix D).
361 This work shows that comparable results for annual means can be obtained before and after model
362 application, but doing it beforehand avoids the associated errors induced by the inverse model. To maximize
363 data, in non-sinusoidal teeth profiles, MAT was deduced from the average of all points within a tooth.
364 However, this approach is less reliable when complete annual cycles are not recorded. When possible,
365 summer and winter temperature estimations were derived from the obtained $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values after inverse
366 modelling application, aiming to identify the corrected seasonal amplitude, which is dampened in the original
367 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ signal.

368 **3.7 Present-day isotopic and climatic data**

369 Present-day climatic conditions surrounding each site have been considered, allowing an inter-site
370 comparison, essential for compare this study with other regional and global data. Considering current MATs
371 and MAPs, estimated climatic data is expressed in relative terms as MAT and MAP anomalies. Present-day
372 summer and winter temperatures were also considered. Present-day temperatures and precipitation values
373 were obtained from the WorldClim Dataset v2 (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) (Appendix B). This dataset includes
374 the average of bioclimatic variables between 1970-2000 in a set of raster files with a spatial resolution every
375 2.5 minutes. The exact location of the selected archeo-palaeontological sites was used, using geographical
376 coordinates in the projection on modern climatic maps with QGIS software.

377 Present-day $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values from the analysed sites' areas were obtained using the Online Isotopes in
378 Precipitation Calculator (OIPC Version 3.1 (4/2017); Bowen, 2022) based on datasets collected by the
379 Global Network for Isotopes in Precipitation from the IAEA/WMO (Appendix B).

Site	Level	Culture	Species	Tooth type	Code	CCE (%)	n	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ VPDB (‰)	min	max	SD	Range
Axlor	III	Mousterian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	20E	Mousterian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS60	14	14	-11.9	-12.5	-11.5	1.0	0.3	-3.3	-4.1	-2.4	0.4	1.6
EI Castillo	20E	Mousterian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LRP3/LRP4	CAS61	14	14	-12.2	-12.4	-12.1	0.3	0.1	-4.9	-5.8	-4.3	0.4	1.5
EI Castillo	20E	Mousterian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	20E	Mousterian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	21A	Mousterian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	21A	Mousterian	<i>Bison</i> <i>priscus</i>	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
EI Castillo	21A	Mousterian	<i>Equus</i> 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
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18C	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	ULM2+ULM3	CAS8	11	11	-13.0	-14.9	-12.1	2.8	1.0	-6.8	-10.4	-4.1	2.1	6.3
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	ULP3/ULP4	CAS58	19	19	-11.7	-11.8	-11.5	0.3	0.1	-6.6	-7.5	-5.6	0.5	1.8
EI Castillo	18B	Transitional Aurignacian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LLP3/LLP4	CAS59	14	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	<i>Equus</i> sp.	URM3	LAB38	17	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	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	LLM2	LAB02	7	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	<i>Equus</i> sp.	URM2	LAB20	16	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	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LRM3	LAB42	17	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	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LRM2	LAB36	17	17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.3	0.6	0.2	-5.9	-6.2	-5.5	0.2	0.7
Canyars	I	Aurignacian	<i>Equus</i> 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	I	Aurignacian	<i>Equus ferus</i>	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	I	Aurignacian	<i>Equus ferus</i>	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	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	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	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	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	<i>Bos/Bison</i> 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	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	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	I	Aurignacian	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	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	I	Aurignacian	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	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
Atxibartarte III	V (mt)	Gravettian	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	LLM3	AIT110	5.5	17	-9.2	-9.6	-8.7	0.9	0.3	-5.5	-6.5	-4.3	0.5	2.2
EI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	LLM2+LLM3	OTE1	11	11	-11.4	-11.6	-11.2	0.4	0.1	-4.4	-5.8	-2.9	1.0	2.9
EI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	LLM2+LLM3	OTE5	10	11	-11.3	-11.5	-11.0	0.5	0.2	-5.1	-5.7	-3.8	0.6	1.9
EI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	LLM2+LLM3	OTE6	14	14	-11.4	-11.8	-10.6	1.2	0.3	-4.6	-5.4	-4.0	0.4	1.4
EI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE11	17	17	-11.6	-11.8	-11.4	0.5	0.1	-5.0	-6.3	-3.9	0.7	2.4
EI Otero	IV	Magdalenian	<i>Equus</i> sp.	LLP3/LLP4	OTE12	16	16	-11.3	-11.5	-10.9	0.6	0.1	-3.9	-4.9	-3.3	0.6	1.6

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

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4. Results

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In northwestern Iberia, specifically in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values range from -13‰ to -8.9‰, with a mean value of -11‰ (SD = 1.2‰) (Table 2; Table 3). Considering species' different enrichment factors, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ were transformed in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$, resulting in mean values that extend from -27‰ to -23.5‰ (Fig. 4). It must be considered that average values may reflect slightly different periods or be affected by seasonal bias because different teeth encompass 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 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ (from -12.4‰ to -8.9‰) than the horses (from -12.6‰ to -11.3‰), whereas the red deer fall within the horses' range (from -13‰ to -11.3‰). Average values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ in all Vasco-Cantabrian individuals extend between -7.2‰ and -3.3‰ (mean = -5.5‰; SD = 0.8‰). When transformed to $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ expected from meteoric waters ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$), with species-adapted correlations, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values range from -10.6‰ to -5.5‰. Less clear patterns in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ are observed between bovines and horses, with mean values of -5.7‰ and -5.2‰, respectively. In northeastern Iberia, the site of Canyars, both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values that fall inside the range of variation observed in the Cantabria region, between -5.5‰ and -3.6‰ in bovines and between -4.8‰ and -4.4‰ in horses.

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		Vasco-Cantabrian region (NW Iberia)				Northeastern Iberia			
		$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$
		VPDB (‰)	VPDB (‰)	VPDB (‰)	VSMOW (‰)	VPDB (‰)	VPDB (‰)	VPDB (‰)	VSMOW (‰)
Total	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
	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
Bovines	Mean	-10.4	-25.0	-5.7	-7.7	-9.1	-23.7	-4.5	-6.2
	Max	-8.9	-23.5	-4.8	-6.5	-9.0	-23.6	-3.6	-5.0
	Min	-12.4	-27.0	-7.2	-9.5	-9.3	-23.9	-5.5	-7.4
	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
Horses	Mean	-11.8	-25.5	-5.2	-8.5	-10.4	-24.1	-4.7	-7.6
	Max	-11.3	-25.0	-3.3	-5.5	-10.0	-23.7	-4.4	-7.2
	Min	-12.6	-26.3	-6.6	-10.6	-10.7	-24.4	-4.8	-7.9
	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

401

402 **Table 3.** Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from enamel carbonate ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$) and diet ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$), and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from enamel carbonate ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$) and meteoric
403 waters ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$), by species on the Vasco-Cantabrian and northeastern Iberia areas. Max: maximum value; Min: minimum value;
404 SD: standard deviation.

405 4.1 Axlor (Mousterian, ca. 80 ka BP - 50 ka cal BP)

406 A total of seven bovine teeth were included from levels III (n = 4), IV (n = 1), and VI (n = 2) of Axlor cave
407 (Pederzani et al., 2023). The mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ range from -9.9‰ to -8.9‰ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -24.5‰$ to -23.5‰);
408 whereas mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values are between -6.2‰ and -4.8‰ ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} = -8.3‰$ and -6.5‰), indicating a
409 range of variation around 1‰ and 1.4‰, respectively (Fig. 3; 4). Considering isotopic compositions by levels,
410 mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ decreases from level III to level IV, whereas mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ remains stable through the
411 sequence (Table 2; Appendix B). A range between 0.3‰ and 0.5‰ is observed in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ variation within
412 tooth profiles. Individuals show clear $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ sinusoidal profiles, with peaks and troughs and intratooth ranges
413 from 2.1‰ to 3.4‰. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ after inverse modelling intratooth profiles range from -9.1‰ to -7.35‰
414 (Appendix D; E). Mean Annual Temperatures (MATs) oscillated between 9.1°C and 12.6°C (MATAs = -
415 3.1/+0.4°C) (Table 4). From sinusoidal profiles, summer temperatures were extracted from peaks, resulting
416 from 15.4°C to 23.7°C, and winter temperatures from troughs provided values ranging from -7°C to 10.8°C.
417 Mean Annual Precipitation (MAPs), extracted from $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$, extend between 204mm and 326mm (MAPAs =
418 -843/-721mm). Based on these estimations, a non-clear climatic trend is observed through these levels.

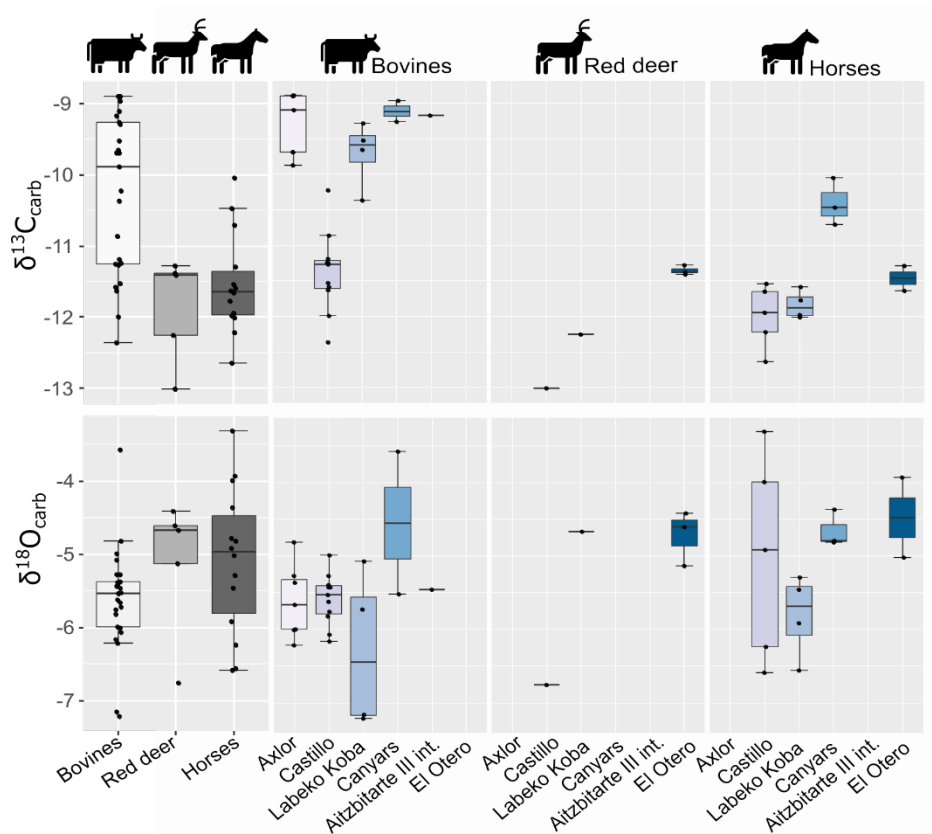
419 4.2 El Castillo (Mousterian and Transitional Aurignacian, 62.5 ka BP – 46.4 ka cal BP)

420

421 From El Castillo, this work includes bovines (n = 11), horses (n = 5), and red deer (n = 1) teeth from the
422 Mousterian (21 and 20E) and the Transitional Aurignacian levels (18B and 18C). The mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values
423 are lower for horses, bovines, and red deer (-13‰ to -10.2‰) than other sites. Between -12.4‰ and -10.2‰
424 for bovines ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -24.6‰$ to -25.8‰) and between -12.6‰ and -11.5‰ for horses ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -26.3‰$ to
425 -25.2‰) (Fig. 3). The mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values extend from -6.8‰ and -3.3‰. Horses and bovines overlap in
426 their isotopic niche (Fig. 4), mainly due to the notably lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ reported by bovines. The mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$
427 (-13‰) of the single red deer tooth is inside the variation range of bovines and horses but with a lower
428 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ mean value (-6.8‰). Considering these isotopic compositions by levels, bovine mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values
429 highly increase the variation range from Mousterian levels (20E and 21A) to Transitional Aurignacian levels
430 (18C and 18B). In contrast, horses increase mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values (Fig. 5). Bovine mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values
431 decrease from level 21A to level 18B, while horses from 18B have a large intra-level amplitude.

432 The mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values from horses have a more significant variation (range = 3.3‰) than bovines (range
433 = 2.2‰). All individuals show flat $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth profiles (<0.4‰), except for red deer (1‰) (Appendix D).
434 Intratooth $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ ranges of individuals are around 1-2‰ for horses and 1-3‰ for bovines. Some of the
435 individuals analyzed do not show non-complete annual cycles. No precise $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ sinusoidal profiles are

436 detected in three teeth; the other six have particularly unclear profiles. After modelling, individual $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$
 437 ranges oscillated between 2.7‰ and 7.4‰ (Appendix E). MATs oscillated between 4.6°C and 12.6°C
 438 (MATAs = -8.8°C/-0.9°C), with mean summer temperatures from around 20.5°C and mean winter
 439 temperatures around -1.1°C. MAPs extend between 376mm and 784mm (MAPAs = -656/-248mm) (Table
 440 4). Non-important differences in rainfall estimations based on bovines and equids are noticed, probably
 441 because they feed on similar ecological resources. Diachronic trends are unclear along the sequence but
 442 mean annual and winter temperatures from levels 18C and 18C seem slightly lower. MAPs estimations
 443 oscillated more in the upper levels.



444

445 **Figure 3.** Distribution of mean carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$) and oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$) isotopic values of enamel carbonate by species and
 446 archaeological site.

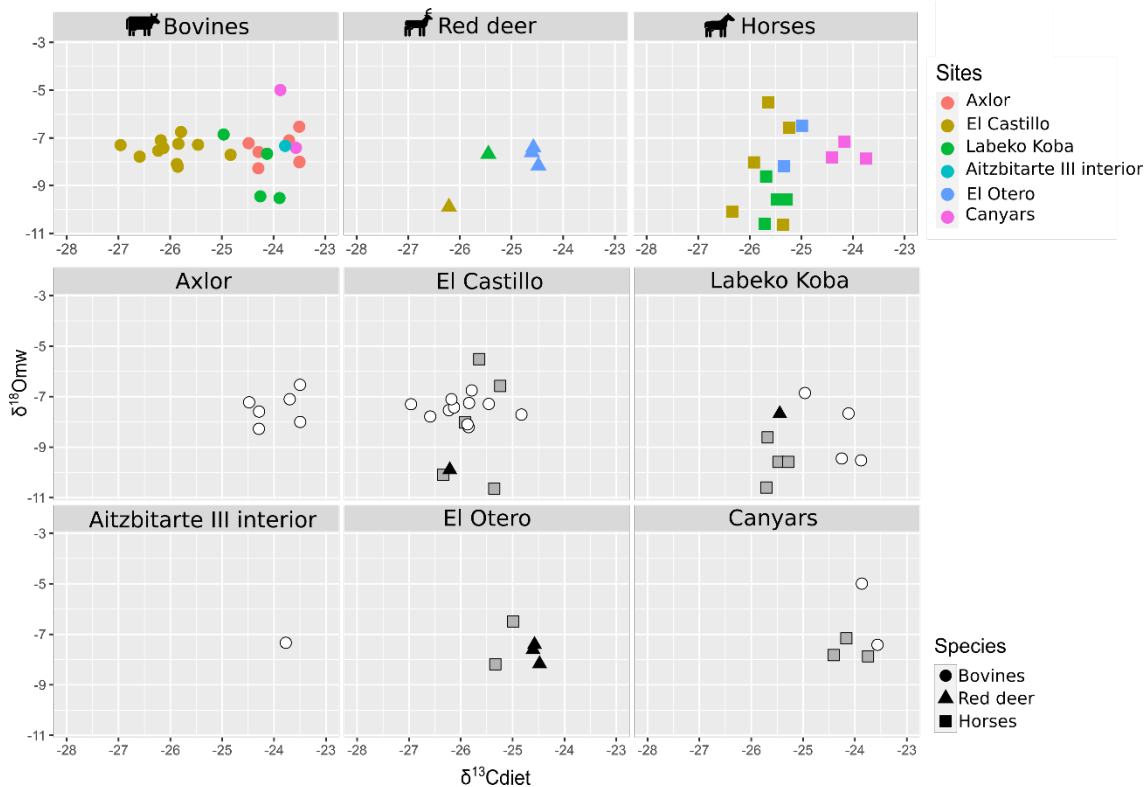


Figure 4. Biplot crossing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from diet ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from meteoric waters ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$) by species and archaeological site.

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449 4.3 Labeko Koba (Châtelperronian and Aurignacian, 45.1-36.3 ka cal BP)

450 This work includes bovines ($n = 4$), horses ($n = 4$), and red deer ($n = 1$) teeth from levels related to
 451 Châtelperronian (IXb inf), ProtoAurignacian (VII), and Aurignacian (VI, V, and IV). Significant differentiation
 452 in mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ between bovines and horses is observed, with higher values between -9.3‰ and -10.4‰
 453 in bovines ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -25\text{‰}$ to -23.8‰) than equids, whose values extend from -12‰ to -11.6‰ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -$
 454 25.8‰ to -25.2‰) (Fig. 3;). These horses' values are within the ranges observed from this species in the
 455 region. Red deer have similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values to those of horses ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}} = -12.3\text{‰}$; $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -25.5\text{‰}$). Mean
 456 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values are similar between species from -7.2‰ to -4.7‰ ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} = -8.5\text{‰}$ to -6.1‰). However,
 457 bovines have a very high variation within mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values (2.1‰), also reflected in the intratooth
 458 profiles. These $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are lower than in other Vasco-Cantabrian sites, especially for two individuals in
 459 levels VII and V (Table 3). Differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values between bovines and horses result in isotopic niche
 460 differentiation between both species (Fig. 4). The red deer niche is placed within the horses' niche. The
 461 evolution of niche over time cannot be evaluated by levels due to the limited sample. Considering the isotopic
 462 compositions by levels (Fig. 5), both bovines and horses experienced a slight increase in mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ from
 463 levels IX inf to IV, from Châtelperronian to Aurignacian. Mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values of bovines decrease from VII
 464 to V, whereas horses increase from XIinf to VI to decrease from VI to IV.

465 Variability of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values in intratooth profiles is slightly higher (0.1‰ - 0.7‰), especially in bovines (0.3‰ -
 466 0.9‰), with more oscillating profiles than generally flat profiles observed in horses and red deer (Appendix
 467 D; E). Intratooth profiles ranges of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ are also larger within bovines (2‰ - 4‰) than in horses (1‰ - 2‰).
 468 Inverse-modelled individual $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ ranges oscillated between 5‰ - 8‰ and 2‰ - 4‰ , respectively. Sinusoidal
 469 curves are observed in horses and bovines, but bovine profiles are noisier. The red deer has an extensive
 470 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ range (6.3‰) from summer peak to an incomplete winter trough. We detect an inverse relation
 471 between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ in some points of these individual profiles. MATs oscillated between 5.2°C and
 472 11.4°C (MATAs = $-5.6 \pm 1.1\text{°C}$), with summer temperatures from 14.5°C to 27.3°C and winter temperatures
 473 from 1.9°C to -4.9°C . MAPs extend between 248mm and 521mm , notably drier than nowadays (MAPAs = -

474 798/-525mm) (Table 4). Lower rainfall levels and higher seasonal amplitudes are recorded along the
475 sequence, especially in samples from the ProtoAurignacian level VII. Relevant differences are noticed
476 between MAPs estimated from bovines and equids, the first providing more arid conditions.

477 **4.4 Aitzbitarte III interior (Gravettian, 27.9 ka cal BP)**

478 A single bovine individual was analysed from Gravettian level V located in the inner part of the cave. It has
479 a high mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ (-9.2‰) considering the observed range in bovines from the Vasco-Cantabrian region,
480 whereas the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ mean value (-5.5‰) is inside the common $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ variation observed (Fig. 3). The
481 mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ value of -23.8‰ is comparable with Canyars and some individuals from Axlor but different
482 from Labeko Koba and El Castillo individuals. The individual $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ fluctuation is slight (0.3‰) (Appendix
483 D; E). These teeth show not quite sinusoidal profile shape in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$, with an intratooth range of around
484 2.2‰. Climatic information is extracted but may be considered cautiously due to the profile shape and the
485 limited sample size. From the inverse modelled mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ value (-5.4‰), we estimate a MAT of 13°C
486 (MATA = -0.4°C) with a summer temperature of 19.7°C and winter temperature of -2.9°C. The MAP
487 estimation reached 235mm (-1127mm to nowadays) (Table 4).

488 **4.5 El Otero (Magdalenian, ca. 17.3 ka cal BP)**

489 Two equids and three cervids are included from level IV from El Otero, recently redated and chronologically
490 related to the Magdalenian (Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018). The mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values are close, between -11.4‰
491 and -11.3‰ for red deer ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ = -24.4‰ and -24.6‰) and -11.6‰ and -11.3‰ for horse ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ = -25.3‰
492 and -25.3‰) (Fig. 3). These $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for both species are relatively high concerning other studied
493 samples, especially for cervids (around +1-2‰). Both species have higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values concerning the
494 common range of variation observed in the Vasco-Cantabria region, between -5‰ and -3.9‰ for horses
495 and between -5.1‰ and -4.4‰ for red deer. When values are transformed to $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$, equids
496 and cervids isotopic niches are separated (Fig. 4). All individuals show low amplitude $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth
497 profiles (<0.3‰), but especially equids with an intratooth variation around 0.1‰ (Appendix D; E). Equids
498 and cervids show $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ sinusoidal profiles, with intratooth ranges between 1.4‰ and 2.4‰. Climatic
499 estimations are proposed only for equids, providing MATs estimations from 8.8°C to 12.6°C (MATAs = -4.9/
500 1°C) and MAP between 400mm and 456mm (MAPAs = -755/-699mm) (Table 4). A high-temperature
501 seasonality can be seen, with summer temperatures between 19.7°C and 23.8°C and winter temperatures
502 from -10.4°C to -3.1°C.

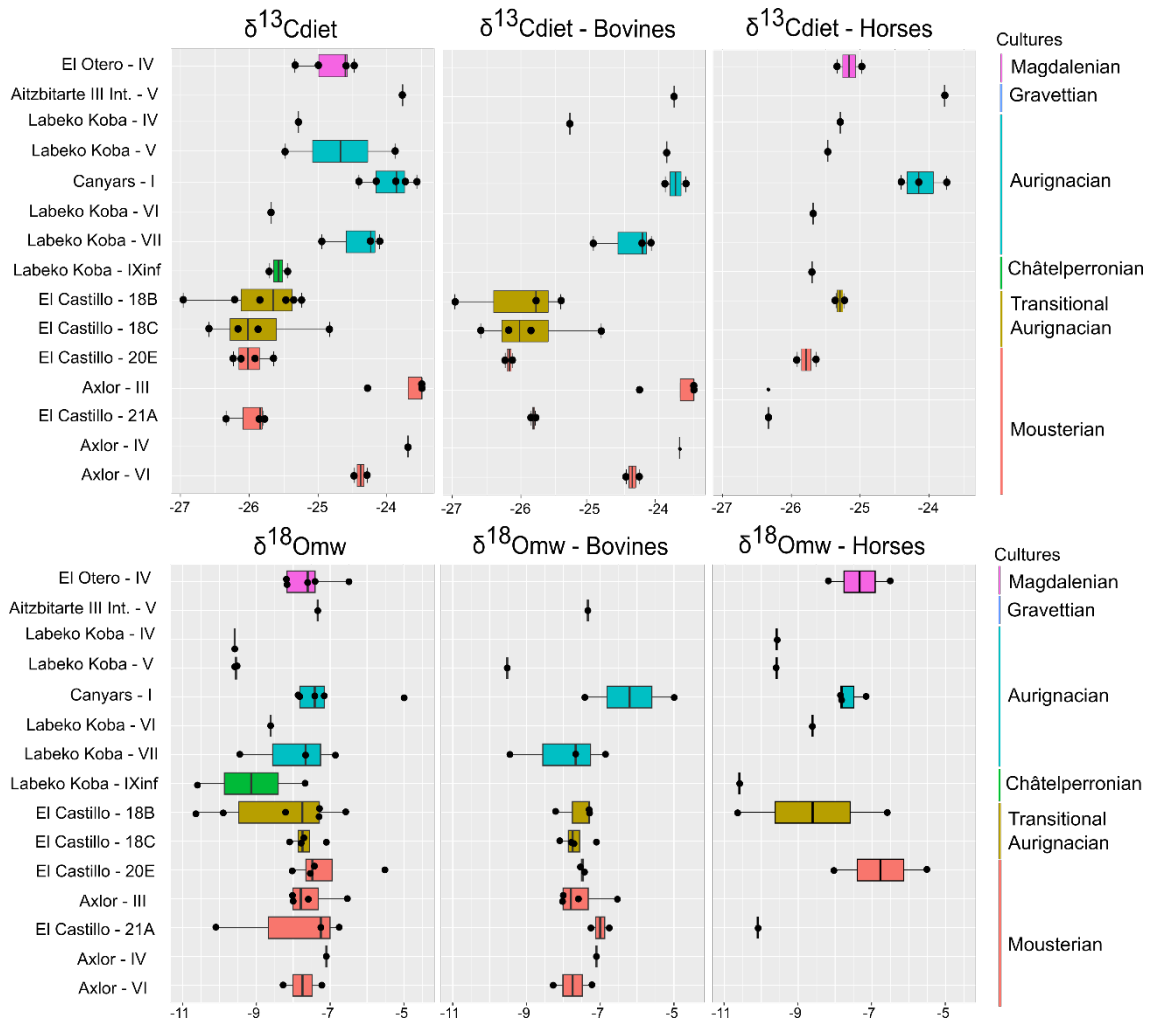


Figure 5. Evolution of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in diet ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in meteoric waters ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$) by archaeological levels in a diachronic order. From right to left: all species, including cervids, bovines and horses. Colours correspond to different chrono-cultures.

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506 4.6 Canyars (Aurignacian, 39.7 ka cal BP)

507 From the archaeological level I at Canyars, corresponding to the Aurignacian, this work includes bovines (n
508 = 2) and equids (n = 3) teeth. The mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values for bovines are between -9‰ to -9.3‰ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -$
509 23.6‰ and -23.8‰), and for horses between -10‰ and -10.7‰ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}} = -23.7\text{‰}$ and -24.4‰) (Fig.3). In
510 this site, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values for horses are notably higher than in the Vasco-Cantabrian region (around $+1-$
511 2‰) (Table 3). Both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values, but they fall inside the range of variation
512 observed in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, between -5.5‰ and -3.6‰ in bovines and between -4.8‰ and $-$
513 4.4‰ in horses. Bovine and equid isotopic niches overlap (Fig. 4), but different responses are seen in mean
514 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values between the two bovines, with one high mean value but close $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ mean values.

515 All individuals show flat $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth profiles ($<0.3\text{‰}$ variation). Some individuals analysed do not show
516 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ sinusoidal profiles, with intratooth profiles moderately flat and ranging from 1.1‰ to 1.6‰ . We detect
517 an inverse relation between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ in some points of bovine individual isotopic profiles. MATs
518 oscillated between 9.8°C and 11.9°C (MATAs = $-5.4\text{°C}/-3.3\text{°C}$), with summer temperatures from 16.3°C to
519 27.5°C and winter temperatures from -0.5°C to 1.8°C (Table 4). MAPs extend between 211mm and 316mm
520 (MAPAs = $-431/-326\text{mm}$). No substantial differences are noticed in the estimations based on bovines and
521 equids because mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ diet values differed relatively little.

Site	Sample	Level	Species	MAT (°C)		Summer (°C)		Winter (°C)		Seasonality (°C)	MAP (mm)	
				Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative	Estimated	Relative		Estimated	Relative
Axlor	AXL59	III	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	9.4	-2.8	17.6	-0.3	-3.9	-11.0	21.5	204	-843
	AXL60	III	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	10.8	-1.4	22.7	4.7	4.8	-2.3	17.9	300	-747
	AXL65	III	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	9.7	-2.5	22.7	4.8	-2.5	-9.6	25.2	204	-843
	AXL66	III	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	12.6	0.4	22.8	4.8	-3.2	-10.3	26.0	204	-843
	AXL70	IV	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.1	-1.1	21.9	3.9	-8.0	-15.1	29.9	227	-820
	AXL77	VI	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	9.1	-3.1	20.4	2.5	-10.9	-17.9	31.3	300	-747
	AXL86	VI	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.1	-1.1	25.9	8.0	3.1	-4.0	22.8	326	-721
El Castillo	CAS141	21A	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.7	-1.7	24.2	5.6	-0.8	-9.9	25.1	546	-486
	CAS142	21A	<i>Bison priscus</i>	12.6	-0.9	19.6	1.0	3.1	-5.9	16.5	536	-496
	CAS143	21A	<i>Equus</i> sp.	5.7	-7.8	20.7	2.1	-5.6	-14.7	26.3	645	-387
	CAS60	20E	<i>Equus</i> sp.					1.6	-7.5		510	-522
	CAS61	20E	<i>Equus</i> sp.	9.7	-3.8	25.9	7.3	-4.1	-13.2	30.1	561	-471
	CAS139	20E	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.2	-2.3	18.8	0.2	1.8	-7.3	17.0	622	-410
	CAS140	20E	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.3	-2.1						602	-430
	CAS135	18C	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.			17.0	-1.6				551	-481
	CAS136	18C	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	10.6	-2.9						699	-333
	CAS137	18C	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.					0.0	-9.1		376	-656
	CAS138	18C	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	11.8	-1.7	18.3	-0.3	3.1	-6.0	15.3	612	-420
	CAS132	18B	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	9.8	-3.6	26.3	7.6	-1.2	-10.3	27.5	548	-484
	CAS133	18B	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.					-0.1	-9.2		477	-555
	CAS134	18B	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.					0.8	-8.3		784	-248
	CAS58	18B	<i>Equus</i> sp.	4.6	-8.8	13.5	-5.1	-11.2	-20.3	24.7	460	-572
CAS59	18B	<i>Equus</i> sp.	13.0	-0.5						440	-592	
Labeko Koba	LAB38	IX inf	<i>Equus</i> sp.	5.2	-7.4	14.5	-4.1	-1.8	-9.1	16.2	521	-526
	LAB36	IV	<i>Equus</i> sp.	7.0	-5.6	16.3	-2.3	-2.4	-9.7	18.7	448	-599
	LAB42	V	<i>Equus</i> sp.	7.6	-5.0				-7.3		501	-546
	LAB69	V	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	6.3	-6.3	17.3	-1.2	-4.9	-12.2	22.2	248	-799
	LAB20	VI	<i>Equus</i> sp.	9.1	-3.5	15.7	-2.9	-0.9	-8.2	16.6	517	-530
	LAB53	VII	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	11.3	-1.3	27.3	8.7	-2.4	-9.7	29.7	278	-769
	LAB55	VII	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	11.4	-1.2	26.3	7.8	1.9	-5.4	24.4	397	-650
	LAB62	VII	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	7.2	-5.4	20.6	2.1	-2.9	-10.2	23.5	295	-752
Canyars	CAN01	I	<i>Equus</i> sp.	9.8	-5.4	16.3	-5.9	1.7	-7.5	14.6	232	-410
	CAN02	I	<i>Equus ferus</i>	11.9	-3.3						284	-358
	CAN03	I	<i>Equus ferus</i>	10.4	-4.7	18.6	-3.6	-0.5	-9.7	19.1	316	-326
	CAN04	I	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	17.2	2.1	27.5	5.3				247	-395
	CAN05	I	<i>Bos primigenius</i>	11.3	-3.9	17.5	-4.7	1.8	-7.4	15.7	211	-431
Aitzbitarte III int	AIT110	V	<i>Bos/Bison</i> sp.	13.0	-0.4	19.7	0.7	-2.9	-11.4	22.6	235	-1127
Otero	OTE11	IV	<i>Equus</i> sp.	8.8	-4.9	19.7	0.9	-10.4	-19.8	30.1	456	-699
	OTE12	IV	<i>Equus</i> sp.	12.6	-1.0	23.8	5.0	-3.1	-12.5	26.8	400	-755

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Table 4. Summary of paleoclimatic estimations, based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for temperatures (Mean Annual Temperatures, MAT; summer; winter) and in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for precipitation (Mean Annual Precipitations, MAP). Summer and winter temperature estimations were obtained from teeth with clear seasonal profiles after modelling, while MAT was averaged between summer and winter before modelling. In profiles with an unclear seasonal shape, MAT was deduced from the original average of all teeth points (values marked in italics). Mean 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.

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5. Discussion

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5.1 Diet and ecological niches: carbon ratios

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Carbon isotopic ratios are valuable indicators for discerning past animal diets, partially influenced by the physiology of the animal. Considering species trends in the studied sites, bovines have generally higher mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values (from -12.4‰ to -8.9‰) than horses (from -12.6‰ to -11.3‰), whereas the red deer fall within the horses' range (from -13‰ to -11.3‰). In the northeastern site of Canyars, bovines also show higher mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values (-9‰ to -9.3‰) compared to horses (-10.7‰ to -10‰). These differentiated isotopic ranges for equids and bovines can be potentially linked to feeding behaviour. Still, these species are expected to present different basal $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ driven by their feeding behaviour and distinct physiological characteristics. Bovines, being ruminants, have been suggested in previous studies to exhibit higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values due to increased methane production (Cerling and Harris, 1999; Tejada-Lara et al., 2018). Therefore, transforming $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ to $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values using species-specific equations is crucial to mitigate the species-specific impact, particularly when comparing ruminants and non-ruminants. Bovines report $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values between -27.5‰ and -23.5‰ and horses between -26‰ and -25‰ . These carbon compositions are typical of animals feeding on C3 plants (commonly accepted range between -34‰ and -23‰), as can be expected

545 from high-latitude ecosystems during the Pleistocene (Bocherens, 2003; Cerling and Harris, 1999; Drucker,
546 2022).

547 Environmental factors such as light exposure, water stress, temperature fluctuations, salinity, and
548 atmospheric CO₂ changes can influence variations in δ¹³C values in a diet primarily based on C3 plants
549 (Bocherens, 2003; Kohn, 2010). Typically, δ¹³C_{diet} values below -27‰ (δ¹³C_{carb} = -13‰) are associated with
550 animals feeding on C3 vegetation found in closed forested environments, whereas δ¹³C_{diet} values between
551 -27‰ and -23‰ are linked to C3 open landscapes, which could include grasslands and steppe areas
552 (Bocherens, 2003). The relatively high δ¹³C_{diet} observed here points to animals predominantly feeding in
553 open environments. The canopy effect, characterised by a depletion in ¹³C isotopes due to dense tree cover,
554 seems unlikely among the analysed samples since none of the individuals reported δ¹³C_{diet} below the
555 standard cut-off of -27‰ (Drucker et al., 2008; Kohn, 2010; van der Merwe, 1991). Therefore, in general
556 terms, open mosaic landscapes, ranging from light forests to meadows and grasslands, can be inferred for
557 northwestern Iberia. Given the generally higher δ¹³C_{diet} values reported by bovines, it is likely that they were
558 foraging in more open environments than horses and can be considered predominantly grazers. Particularly,
559 bovines from El Castillo exhibit distinct feeding behaviour compared to other Vasco-Cantabrian sites, as
560 evidenced by their lower δ¹³C_{diet} values, indicating a potential preference for browsing and feeding in closer
561 environments, possibly in lightly forested areas. Both extinct aurochs (*Bos primigenius*) and steppe bison
562 (*Bison priscus*) are usually classified as grass-dominant mix-feeders during the Pleistocene, although it
563 should be noted that modern European bison (*Bison bonasus*) could include browsing in their diet (Rivals
564 et al., 2022). For aurochs, a browse-dominated mixed feeding behaviour is also frequently described.

565 The δ¹³C_{diet} range in equids also indicates feeding in open environments, suggesting a general mixed-
566 feeding pattern for the Vasco-Cantabrian region. However, individuals from northeastern Iberia are likely
567 grazing in more open environments, as evidenced by their notably higher δ¹³C_{diet} values compared to the
568 Vasco-Cantabrian region (+1-2‰). Evaluating if other factors contribute to lower δ¹³C_{diet} values in horses is
569 critical. In the case of equid from the Vasco-Cantabrian region, it should be considered that they have been
570 pretreated with a combination of NaClO and acetic acid, which could potentially affect the isotopic values.
571 Samples after organic removal pretreatment can potentially show either higher or lower δ¹³C values and
572 higher δ¹⁸O values based on previous experiments (Pellegrini and Snoeck, 2016; Snoeck and Pellegrini,
573 2015), with δ¹³C values generally varying below 0.3‰. Based on the observation that horses in the Vasco-
574 Cantabrian region present lower δ¹³C_{carb} values compared to bovines but similar mean δ¹⁸O_{carb} value ranges,
575 the influence of the pre-treatment on our samples is deemed to be limited.

576 Furthermore, the high variability in δ¹⁸O_{carb} values at El Castillo and Labeko Koba does not correlate with a
577 significant variation in δ¹³C_{carb} values. Based on dental wear and stable isotopes analysis, Middle and Late
578 Pleistocene horses (*Equus ferus*) were primarily grazers, although some rare cases have been reported as
579 mixed feeders or browsers, such as at Igue des Rameaux and Schöningen (Kuitens et al., 2015; Rivals et
580 al., 2009, 2015; Uzunidis, 2020). Horse populations from northern and eastern Europe were found to be
581 browsers or mixed feeders, while those from the Mediterranean region tend to be grazers (Rivals et al.,
582 2022).

583 Finally, the few cervids included in this study exhibit δ¹³C_{diet} values that frequently overlap with horses,
584 indicating a mixed feeding behaviour that varies from more closed environments in El Castillo to more open
585 habitats in El Otero. During the Pleistocene, the red deer (*Cervus elaphus*) exhibit a flexible, mixed-feeding
586 behaviour, consuming leaves, shrubs, forbs, grass, and sedges, similar to their present-day counterparts
587 (Merceron et al., 2021; Rivals et al., 2022). Today, this species inhabits diverse habitats ranging from
588 steppes to closed temperate forests.

589 **5.2 Seasonality, mobility and water acquisition: oxygen ratios and intratooth profiles**

590 Average values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ in Vasco-Cantabrian individuals extend between -7.2‰ and -3.3‰ (Table 3).
591 Even if no clear species patterns in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ are observed, in general, bovines present slightly lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$
592 values from -7.2‰ to 4.8‰ than other species; horses have a significant variation from -6.6‰ to -3.3‰ and
593 red deer from -6.8‰ to -4.4‰. In Canyars, both species have relatively high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values that fall inside
594 the variation range observed in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, between -5.5‰ and -3.6‰ in bovines and
595 between -4.8‰ and -4.4‰ in horses. Each species shows different $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth ranges, with bovines
596 between 1‰ and 3‰, horses mostly around 1.5‰, and red deer from 1‰ to 6‰ presenting the higher
597 ranges (Table 3; Appendix D). After applying inverse modelling to correct the dampening effect (Passey et
598 al., 2005b), the majority of teeth increase the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ intratooth range, between 3‰ and 8‰ for bovines and
599 2‰ and 7‰ for horses (Appendix E). Most bovines from Axlor and Labeko Koba and horses from El Castillo
600 and El Otero exhibit well-defined sinusoidal profiles in their $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ and large intratooth individual ranges,
601 related to the predominant consumption of water sources that reflect seasonal fluctuations between summer
602 and winter. Although not all samples consistently follow this pattern, specific intratooth profiles, particularly
603 those from bovines in El Castillo and Canyars, exhibit sharp profiles with narrow ranges (<1.5‰). This
604 phenomenon was previously reported in the region in preliminary studies conducted at the sites of El Castillo
605 (Jones et al., 2019) and in the Magdalenian levels of El Mirón cave (Geiling, 2020).

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

628 Based on these arguments, it is suggested that the non-sinusoidal $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ signal observed in some
629 individuals may not be attributed to poor preservation; instead, it likely reflects the original isotopic signature
630 from water input, which appears to be non-seasonal. Several factors can explain why some teeth do not
631 reflect an evident seasonal fluctuation, which could be related to animals' mobility, the isotopic composition
632 of the water sources, and seasonal buffering within those water sources (Pederzani and Britton, 2019). The
633 main factors considered in our study are 1) the high mobility of the animals analysed among ecosystems
634 with different isotopic baselines due to large migrations; 2) the inland-coastal or short altitudinal movements
635 through the region, which lead to the acquisition of water from sources with different isotopic signal; and 3)
636 the acquisition of water from sources with no clear seasonal signal, such as large bodies of water, rivers,

637 groundwaters, or meltwaters. Furthermore, variability between species and within the same species, even
638 within populations living in the same habitat, is also possible. This can be attributed to multiple factors, from
639 minor differences in foraging and drinking behaviour to slight metabolic and physiological variations,
640 including body size, metabolic rate, breathing rate, moisture content of food, and faeces, among others
641 (Hoppe et al., 2004; Kohn, 1996; Magozzi et al., 2019).

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

657 **5.3 Regional trends and ecological niches**

658 This study provides valuable insights despite the limited sample size at each archaeological level. It
659 establishes a baseline of isotopic values for northern Iberia, allowing for the evaluation of regional trends.
660 In the northwest, in the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values obtained oscillated between -13‰ and
661 -8.9‰ and between -7.2‰ and -3.3‰ in the case of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values. These values are within the range
662 expected, considering previous regional studies in ungulates (Carvalho et al., 2022; Jones et al., 2019;
663 Lécuyer et al., 2021; Pederzani et al., 2023). Although oxygen variability trends are less precise, the main
664 factor distinguishing the observed changes over time is the variation of carbon isotopic composition among
665 species and regions. The combination of mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values (Fig. 4; 5) accentuates disparities
666 in ecological niche overlap between horses and bovines, whereas cervids and horses frequently exhibit
667 shared ecological niches. The dissimilarities between bovines and horses could be attributed to shifts in
668 feeding behaviour, which may be accompanied by ecological and environmental changes, either
669 independently or in parallel.

670 Comparing the entire dataset and across all sites, the consistently lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values in horses compared
671 to bovids throughout time suggest both animals inhabited open landscapes, with bovines exhibiting a grazer
672 preference while horses show a mix-feeding diet. Only in the Middle-to-Upper Paleolithic transition 18B and
673 18C levels of El Castillo, an exception is observed with lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values in bovines, linked to a higher
674 browser input due to a higher habitat in closer environments, such as open forests, similar to those inhabited
675 by the horses. This generates a niche overlapping between horses and bovines, most likely reflecting stable
676 conditions that could support both species in similar ecosystems. Contrarily, in the Châtelperronian and
677 early Aurignacian levels from Labeko Koba, a clear differentiation between horses and bovines is observed,
678 mainly in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values, highlighting the occupation of different parts of the landscape by both species. This
679 spatially-driven niche separation between species could result from resource competition derived from an
680 unstable climatic period, where species needed to specialise to adapt to the changing conditions. Notable
681 changes are also observed in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values from Labeko Koba compared to the older El Castillo and
682 Axlor sites, with bovines exhibiting a higher fluctuation range and the lowest values in the region. These

683 trends are consistent with values observed on bone collagen from previous studies in these sites. During
684 the Middle-to-Upper Paleolithic transition in the region, by comparing horses and red deer, a decrease in
685 mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (from -21‰ to -20‰) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (from 2.5‰ to 6‰) in bone collagen was observed in
686 contrast to stable red deer mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Fernández-García et al., 2023; Jones et al., 2018, 2019). This
687 decrease was previously interpreted as niche fractionation, derived from an opening landscape, that drove
688 equids into low-quality pastures compared to cervids. Pollen evidence in the region suggests a prevalence
689 of steppe vegetation and low tree cover for the Châtelperronian and Aurignacian (Iriarte-Chiapusso, 2000).

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

697 Aridity is a plausible explanation for the higher niche partitioning observed in Labeko Koba and the higher
698 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values found in Canyars for both species during the Aurignacian. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ results of bovines from
699 Aitzbitarte III interior during the Gravettian are consistent with the trend observed in Labeko Koba, where
700 previous studies have already suggested this time to be notably arid and cold (Arrizabalaga et al., 2010).
701 Finally, in the Magdalenian level of El Otero, higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ values resemble those observed in Canyars.
702 However, this time, carbon values are related to niche partitioning between horses and red deer. In contrast,
703 higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values might indicate warmer conditions but are still associated with open landscapes in the
704 Vasco-Cantabrian area.

705 **5.4 Late Pleistocene climatic evolution in Northern Iberia**

706 Carbon and oxygen isotopes were used to estimate quantitative parameters related to past temperatures
707 and precipitation. In the case of oxygen isotopic compositions, an evaluation of environmental water
708 composition can be addressed before approaching temperature estimations. When transformed to $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$
709 using species-adapted correlations and correcting bias in sea water $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$, the summer $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ values
710 obtained from the modelled teeth range from -8.9‰ to -2.2‰ , while the winter values range from -17.1‰ to
711 -8.9‰ . These values can be tentatively compared with the current trends observed in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ range recorded
712 by the IAEA station (IAEA/ WMO, 2022) in Santander (from -3.5‰ in summer to -6.6‰ in winter) and in
713 Barcelona (from -2.2‰ in summer to -6.3‰ in winter) and the OIPC (Bowen, 2022) estimations for studied
714 locations (from -1‰ to -9‰) (Appendix B). As observed in the present, Canyars exhibit mean annual $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$
715 values around -8.2‰ , which is lower than the current $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ estimated for this location (-5.4‰) but higher
716 than Labeko Koba mean annual $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$ (-9.5‰). This raises the question of whether the baseline $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}}$
717 differences between Canyars and the other sites can be attributed to Mediterranean influence rather than
718 the Atlantic, assuming equivalent air circulation patterns and moisture sources experienced in the past as
719 in the present (Araguas-Araguas and Diaz Teijeiro, 2005; García-Alix et al., 2021; Moreno et al., 2021).
720 However, it's important to note that these comparisons must be approached thoughtfully, considering that
721 moisture fluxes and precipitation trends may have varied significantly during the Pleistocene and the
722 Holocene (Dansgaard, 1964; Shackleton, 1987).

723 As indicated by the climate reconstructed here, temperatures were colder, and precipitation levels were
724 notably lower in the Late Pleistocene period in this region than they are nowadays (Table 4; Appendix B).
725 From 80 to 50 ka BP, in the Mousterian levels of Axlor, temperatures were slightly colder than today, but
726 older levels showed higher differences between summer and winter temperatures. Rainfall estimations
727 exhibit an unusual arid pattern, possibly affected by bovines predominantly feeding in open areas at that

728 time. This aligns with the impact of basal feeding behaviour on rainfall estimations, as previously advised by
729 Lécuyer et al. (2021). In this case, it is not possible to isolate the effect of diet from environmental
730 interference, but previous studies have highlighted stable climatic conditions at the site (Pederzani et al.,
731 2023). Climatic reconstruction, relying on a compilation of lake sediments from northern Iberia (Moreno et
732 al., 2012) suggests that from late MIS4 to 60 ka cal BP, cold but relatively humid conditions predominated,
733 with drier conditions emerging later. Additionally, stalagmites from the Ejulve cave in the Iberian range
734 indicate a dry climate until 65.5 ka BP, preceding HE6, followed by more humid conditions afterwards (Pérez-
735 Mejias et al., 2019).

736 During the late Middle Paleolithic and early Aurignacian occupations, the observed shift in the niche
737 configuration of species suggests potential climatic perturbations. There is a decreasing trend in
738 temperatures from the Transitional Aurignacian levels in El Castillo (18C and 18B; ca. 47-46 ka cal BP) to
739 the Châtelperronian (Xinf; 45.1 ka cal BP) and Early Aurignacian (VII-V; from 40.7 to 36.3 ka cal BP) levels
740 in Labeko Koba. Lower mean annual and winter temperatures are particularly notable at El Castillo and
741 Labeko Koba. Labeko Koba levels exhibit high seasonal amplitude, especially at level VII. Additionally, there
742 is a slight decrease in rainfall and increased fluctuations from the Transitional Aurignacian levels from El
743 Castillo (18B-18C) to the Aurignacian levels in Labeko Koba (VII-V). Previous studies in the northern Iberian
744 region underlined an environmental and ecological shift after GS13/HE5, from 48 to 44 ka cal BP, based on
745 a progressive trend to colder temperatures, aridity increase, and open environmental conditions, matching
746 with the late Neanderthal occupations, followed by a population hiatus before the arrival of Anatomically
747 Modern Humans (Fernández-García et al., 2023; Vidal-Cordasco et al., 2022). This episode coincides with
748 the maximum extent of glaciers in this region, as recorded in Lake Enol and Vega Comeya and a significant
749 decrease in plant biomass and herbivore abundance around 44 to 38 ka BP (Ballesteros et al., 2020;
750 Jiménez-Sánchez et al., 2013; Ruiz-Fernández et al., 2022). Moreover, previous isotopic analyses in the
751 region pointed to some ecological alterations considering perturbations observed in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of
752 bone collagen (Jones et al., 2018, 2019). This tendency of increased aridity aligns with observations made
753 in regional lake sediments from northern Iberia between 60 and 23.5 ka cal BP, marked by abrupt climate
754 changes associated with HE (Moreno et al., 2012). Supporting this, the marine core MD04-2845 in the
755 northern margin of Iberia reveals a decline in the Atlantic forest and an expansion of steppe and cold grasses
756 from 47 to 40 ka BP (Fourcade et al., 2022).

757 When comparing the environmental reconstruction of the Aurignacian period between the Vasco-Cantabrian
758 (levels V-IV from Labeko Koba) and the northeastern region (Layer I from Canyars), which are synchronous
759 to HE4 (39 ka BP), this study reveals notably lower rainfall levels for the latter. This is due to the feeding
760 behaviour observed in animals, mainly in open areas. However, these drier conditions align with the specific
761 climatic conditions expected for this period and support previous findings revealing aridity and the
762 predominance of open landscapes (Daura et al., 2013; Rivals et al., 2017). The temperature data indicates
763 that, at Canyars, colder conditions were experienced, especially during the winter season, compared to the
764 present. However, in comparison to Labeko Koba, Canyars experienced warmer conditions. As explained
765 earlier, the Mediterranean basin had consistently higher temperatures, even during colder periods. This is
766 consistent with the persistence of Mediterranean open forests in the surroundings, as indicated by other
767 studies (López-García et al., 2013; Rivals et al., 2017). Continuous natural records are lacking in the
768 northeastern Iberian margin. However, the inland stalagmite record from Ejulve Cave (Pérez-Mejías et al.,
769 2019) and the sedimentary lacustrine sequence of Cañizar de Villarquemado (González-Sampéris et al.,
770 2020) have identified the most arid intervals during HE5 and HE4. These periods were characterized by
771 steppe vegetation expansions, followed by deciduous woodland expansion. To the south, the Padul
772 sequence agrees with cold and dry conditions alternating with forest recovery (Camuera et al., 2019), as
773 documented in the Alborean Sea (Martrat et al., 2004).

774 Finally, the sites Aitzbitarte III interior (27.9 ka cal BP) and El Otero (17.3 ka cal BP) provided valuable
775 climatic insights into the Vasco-Cantabrian region during the Upper Paleolithic, specifically during the
776 Gravettian and Magdalenian, respectively. Considering previous research in the region, the climatic trend
777 reported for the Aurignacian, characterised by colder and more arid conditions, was expected to continue or
778 even intensify during the Gravettian (Fernández-García et al., 2023; Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2019b;
779 Lécuyer et al., 2021). Both sites indicate lower precipitation than today in this area, indicating significant
780 aridity, with ungulates feeding predominantly in open landscapes. However, El Otero's higher mean annual
781 temperatures recorded in the Magdalenian horses respect to other sites within the Vasco-Cantabrian, are
782 consistent with a climatic amelioration following the Last Glacial Maximum (Jones et al., 2021). MIS 2 is
783 marked by the most extreme glacial conditions, as indicated by NGRIP and marine cores in Iberian margins
784 (Martrat et al., 2004; Sánchez Goñi et al., 2002). However, other regional proxies, such as lake sediment
785 and the stalagmite sequence in Pindal Cave (Moreno et al., 2010), suggest a complex and highly variable
786 climate during MIS 2. These proxies identify the coldest and most arid period within MIS 2 as the interval
787 from 18 to 14 ka cal BP rather than the global Last Glacial Maximum (23 to 19 ka cal BP).

788 **5. Conclusions**

789 This study provides a detailed analysis of the temporal evolution of the environment and climatic conditions
790 in northern Iberia, spanning from the Middle Paleolithic to the late Upper Paleolithic, this is from the GS21
791 to the GS2, ranging from 80 ka BP to 17 ka cal BP. In the Vasco-Cantabrian region, the results reveal a
792 heterogeneous open mosaic landscape, ranging from light forest to meadows and grasslands. This
793 landscape reconstruction is primarily inferred by the feeding locations of the studied animals and,
794 consequently, related to the ecosystems where hominins captured them. Despite shifts in niche
795 configuration observed between equids and bovines, both species typically foraging in open areas, with
796 bovines showing a higher preference for grazing. Only in El Castillo, during the late Mousterian and the
797 Transitional Aurignacian levels, bovines show unusually low $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{diet}}$ related to higher browsing and
798 overlapping with horse isotopic niche. This might indicate a slightly closed mosaic landscape that could
799 sustain both species. In contrast, only horses from Canyars exhibit a preference for grazing behaviour.

800 Stable climatic conditions are described for Mousterian in Axlor and El Castillo levels from 80 to 50 ka cal
801 BP. However, some elements indicate environmental perturbations initiated during the Transitional
802 Aurignacian levels of El Castillo, around 48-45 ka BP and after HE5/GS13. After GS12 (44.2-43.3 ka BP),
803 horses and bovines are potentially occupying different ecological niches during the Châtelperronian and
804 early Aurignacian levels of Labeko Koba, pointing to a species' environmental specialisation, which can be
805 a consequence of competition for food resources during an unstable ecological period. The climatic
806 estimations indicate a temperature shift during this period, with a slight decrease in temperatures and
807 evidence of fluctuations in rainfall. Previous environmental studies on the region have underlined ecological
808 stress and increasing aridity from around 42.5 ka cal BP, which may relate to a broader ecosystem decline.
809 When comparing the environmental conditions during the Aurignacian period in the northeast (Canyars) and
810 the northwest (Labeko Koba), the first had higher baseline temperatures but also experienced higher aridity.
811 Animals continued to feed on open landscapes during the Gravettian and Magdalenian levels in the Vasco-
812 Cantabrian region, represented by Aitzbitarte III interior and El Otero. However, there is evidence of a
813 temperature recovery after the LGM at the El Otero.

814 The results presented here, derived from the first extensive sampling in the Vasco-Cantabrian, establish the
815 basis of future stable isotopic studies on faunal tooth enamel in Iberia. Despite the uncertainties inherent in
816 this work, both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ contributed to the regional climatic characterisation, including the estimation
817 of temperatures and precipitations, as well as the seasonality range between summer and winter. The
818 potential influence of pretreatment effects and uncontrolled diagenetic alterations on the enamel carbonate
819 fraction has been assessed. However, complementary diagenetic test, using new techniques like $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{phos}}$

820 and FTIR analyses are advised in further works to gain more insights into sample preservation. Ongoing
821 sulphur, hydrogen and strontium studies will provide additional information on the mobility patterns of
822 animals hunted by Late Pleistocene hominins and, therefore, will help better understand the ecological and
823 environmental context occupied by Neanderthal and modern humans and their landscape use in this
824 particular region. Finally, a more comprehensive characterisation of the baseline oxygen values would also
825 enhance the environmental interpretation of the existing data.

826 **Appendices**

827 Appendices A, C, D and E are presented after bibliography. Raw data is presented in Appendix B, available
828 at https://github.com/ERC-Subsiliencia/Ungulate_enamel-carbonate

829 **Code availability**

830 R code used to perform plots, temperature and error calculations, Bayesian models code and inverse
831 models in this manuscript can be accessed at GitHub (https://github.com/ERC-Subsiliencia/Ungulate_enamel-carbonate).
832

833 **Data availability**

834 The available datasets used for this article are provided in the supplementary materials (Appendix A-E).

835 **Author contribution**

836 A.B.M.-A. got the funding and designed the research. A.B.M.-A and M.F.-G. get the permissions for sampling
837 in the regional museums. M.F.-G., K.B, and S.P. defined the analysis strategy. M.F.-G. analysed the data
838 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.
839 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
840 responsible for the excavations in Canyars and contribute to the discussion. All the authors revised and
841 commented on the manuscript.

842 **Competing interests**

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

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1305

1306 **Appendix A. Sites description**

1307

1308 **A1. Vasco-Cantabrian sites**

1309 **Axlor (Dima, Vizcaya, País Vasco)**

1310 Axlor is a rock-shelter located in Dima (43.2706; -1.8905), with a continuous Middle Paleolithic sequence
1311 from the MIS5 to the MIS3 (DeMuro et al., 2023; Pederzani et al., 2023; Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018). It is
1312 placed on the southwestern slope of the Dima Valley, with an elevation of approximately 320 m above sea
1313 level (a.s.l.), at 33 km straight from the present-day coastline, next to one of the lowest mountain passes
1314 linking the Cantabrian basins and the Alavese Plateau. The site was discovered in 1932 and initial
1315 excavations were performed by Barandiarán (1967-1974). J. M. Barandiarán undertook the excavations
1316 between 1967 and 1974, identifying eight Mousterian levels (I-VIII) (Barandiarán, 1980).

1317 From 2000 to 2008, new excavations by González-Urquijo, Ibáñez-Estévez and Rios-Garaizar were
1318 achieved and, since 2019, these are ongoing by González-Urquijo and Laszúén. Due to the lack of
1319 chronology during Barandiarán excavations, among other aspects, work was focused on obtaining a detailed
1320 stratigraphy on the new excavation areas to correlate it with Barandiarán's levels (González-Urquijo &
1321 Ibáñez-Estévez, 2021; González Urquijo et al., 2005). The new stratigraphic sequence is roughly equivalent
1322 to the previous one, but with additional levels not previously identified or excavated by Barandiarán. Some
1323 of these levels were deposited before Level VIII (Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018; 2020). The Middle Paleolithic
1324 sequence extends from layers VIII to III (or from N to B-C). Levallois production is predominant in the lower
1325 levels (VI to VIII), while Quina Mousterian technocomplex does in the upper ones (from III to V) (Rios-
1326 Garaizar, 2012, 2017). Recent chronological data by radiocarbon (Pederzani et al., 2023; Marín-Arroyo et
1327 al., 2018) and OSL (Demuro et al., 2023) methods confirm that a sequence Axlor levels VI, VIII, and VIII
1328 probably accumulated during MIS5d-a (109–82 ka), while levels D to B probably were formed during the
1329 period encompassing the start of MIS 4 (71–57 ka) through to the beginning or middle of MIS 3 (57–29 ka)
1330 and upper Level III to 46,200 ±3,000 BP, which calibrates between 45,350 cal BP and beyond the calibration
1331 curve at > 55,000 cal BP.

1332 The archaeozoological study indicates an anthropic origin of the faunal assemblage with scarce carnivore
1333 activity documented (Altuna, 1989; Castaños, 2005; Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2018). In lower layers, the most
1334 abundant taxa are *Cervus elaphus* (VIII) and *Capra pyrenaica* (VII), while in upper layers III-V, *Cervus*
1335 *elaphus* is substituted by *Bos primigenious/Bison priscus* and *Equus sp.* The material included in this work
1336 comes from the faunal collection of the Barandiarán excavation currently curated at the Bizkaia Museum of
1337 Archaeology (Bilbao), where teeth were sampled, and the stable isotope analyses on enamel phosphate
1338 were included in Pederzani et al. (2023).

1339

1340 **El Castillo (Puente Viesgo, Cantabria)**

1341 El Castillo cave is located in Puente Viesgo (43.2924; -3.9656), with an elevation of approximately 195m
1342 a.s.l., at 17 km straight from the present-day coastline. The cave belongs to the karstic system that was
1343 formed in the Monte Castillo, which dominates the Pas Valley. The site was discovered in 1903 by H. Alcalde
1344 del Río. H. Obermaier carried out the first excavation seasons between 1910 and 1914 when many of the
1345 archaeological remains were recovered, mainly from the cave hall. These interventions were done under
1346 the supervision of the "Institut de Paléontologie Humaine" (IPH) and Prince Albert I of Monaco. From 1980
1347 to 2011, V. Cabrera and F. Bernaldo de Quirós underwent new excavations focusing on the cave entrance,
1348 on the Middle to Upper Paleolithic transitional levels, mainly 16, 18 and 20 (Cabrera-Valdes, 1984). The site
1349 has yielded an important stratigraphic sequence, composed by 26 sedimentological units (1-26) related to

1350 different anthropic occupational units, often separated by archaeologically sterile units: Eneolithic (2), Azilian
1351 (4), Magdalenian (6 and 8), Solutrean (10), Aurignacian (12, 14, 16 and 18), Mousterian (20, 21 and 22) and
1352 Acheulean (24) (Cabrera-Valdés, 1984).

1353 Unit 21 is mostly sterile (Cabrera Valdés, 1984; Martín-Perea et al., 2023), and ESR dated it, yielding a
1354 mean date of $69,000 \pm 9,200$ years BP (Rink et al., 1997). However, Martín-Perea et al. (2023) suggested
1355 some dating uncertainty from interpreting the initial stratigraphic nomenclature. They suggest that the ESR
1356 dates provided for level 21 by Rink et al. (1997) were erroneously attributed to this unit and it might
1357 correspond to 20E, indicating that below that subunit, the chronology is older than 70,000 years BP (Martín-
1358 Perea et al., 2023). The Mousterian Unit 20 cave is divided into several subunits (Martín-Perea et al., 2023).
1359 In Unit 20, a cave roof collapse took place, transforming the cave system into an open rock shelter. This unit
1360 contains abundant archaeological and paleontological remains. Lithic industry consists of sidescrapers,
1361 denticulates, notches and cleavers, the majority on quartzite and presents both unifacial, bifacial discoid
1362 debitage and Levallois debitage. Unit 20E was attributed to Quina Mousterian by Sánchez-Fernández and
1363 Bernaldo De Quiros (2009) and contains a Neanderthal tooth (Garralda, 2005). Considering the
1364 geochronological uncertainties for dates on 20E related to Rink et al. (1997), we have decided to rely solely
1365 on ESR date of $47,000 \pm 9400$ BP provided by Liberda et al. (2010) for this level. Unit 20C presents clear
1366 evidence of the Mousterian lithic industry and radiocarbon dates of $48,700 \pm 3,400$ uncal BP (OxA-22204)
1367 and $49,400 \pm 3,700$ uncal BP (OxA-22205) (Wood et al., 2018) and mean ESR date of $42,700 \pm 9900$ BP
1368 (Liberda et al., 2010). Level 19 is archaeologically sterile and separates Unit 20 from Unit 18 (Wood et al.,
1369 2018).

1370 Unit 18 is divided into 18A (archaeologically sterile), 18B, and 18C. Levels 18B and 18C were classified as
1371 Transitional Aurignacian, representing a gradual transformation from the Mousterian to the Aurignacian,
1372 which is unique to El Castillo cave (Cabrera et al., 2001; Maíllo and Bernaldo de Quirós, 2010; Wood et al.,
1373 2018). These levels' dates and cultural attribution have been the subject of much debate (e.g. Zilhao and
1374 D'Errico, 2003; Wood et al., 2018). According to Wood et al. (2018), the last dates of these levels range
1375 between $42,000 \pm 1,500$ uncal BP (OxA-22203) and $46,000 \pm 2,400$ uncal BP (OxA-21973), which is much
1376 earlier than the start of the Aurignacian period in the Cantabrian region (Marín-Arroyo et al., 2018; Vidal-
1377 Cordasco et al., 2022). The lithic assemblage of Unit 18 appears to be dominated by Discoid/Levallois
1378 technology (Bernaldo de Quirós and Maíllo-Fernández, 2009) but with a high percentage of "Upper
1379 Paleolithic" pieces. Additionally, punctual bone industry and pieces with incisions and engravings were
1380 discovered in Unit 18 (Cabrera-Valdés et al., 2001). Three deciduous tooth crowns attributed to
1381 Neanderthals were found in Unit 18B (Garralda et al., 2022). Above, Unit 17 is sterile but contains scarce
1382 lithic and faunal materials, while Level 16 was attributed to the Proto-Aurignacian, with dates of
1383 $38,600 \pm 1,000$ uncal BP (OxA-22200) (Wood et al., 2018).

1384 According to Luret et al. (2020), there was a shift in hunting practices between the Late Mousterian (unit 20)
1385 and the Transitional Aurignacian (unit 18). During the Late Mousterian, hunting strategies were less
1386 specialized, and the species hunted included red deer, horses, and bovines. However, in Unit 18, a
1387 specialization in red deer hunting is observed. However, the explanation of this shift has been proposed as
1388 a response to a cultural choice or induced by climatic changes. However, recent taphonomic studies by
1389 Sanz-Royo et al. (2023) on the old collections of Aurignacian Delta level reveal a more significant role of
1390 carnivores than shown by Luret et al. (2020). The material included in this work comes from the faunal
1391 collection recovered during the Cabrera-Valdés and Bernaldo de Quirós excavations curated at Museo de
1392 Prehistoria y Arqueología de Cantabria (MUPAC, Santander).

1393

1394 **Labeko Koba (Arrastre, Guipúzcoa, País Vasco)**

1395 Labeko Koba is a cave in the Kurtzetxiki Hill (43.0619; -2.4833), at 246 m a.s.l. and 29 km straight from the
1396 present-day Atlantic coast. In 1987 and 1988, the site was discovered due to the construction of the Arrabalaga
1397 ring road, and a savage excavation was carried out (Arrabalaga, 2000). Unfortunately, the site was
1398 destroyed after that. The stratigraphic sequence identified nine different levels. The lower Level IX was
1399 attributed to the Châtelperronian, based on the presence of three Châtelperron points. Although there is a
1400 lack of human remains in few Cantabrian Châtelperronian sites, recent research has suggested that this
1401 techno-complex was produced by Neanderthals (Maroto et al., 2012; Ríos-Garaizar et al., 2022). Level VII
1402 marks the beginning of the Aurignacian sequence, likely Proto-Aurignacian, with a lithic assemblage
1403 dominated by Dufour bladelets (Arrabalaga, 2000). Levels VI, V, and IV contain lithic assemblages that
1404 suggested an Early Aurignacian attribution (Arrabalaga, 2000; Arrabalaga et al., 2009). This site is
1405 significant because it is one of the few sites with Châtelperronian assemblages and with both Proto-
1406 Aurignacian and Early Aurignacian separated (Arrabalaga et al., 2009).

1407 Initial radiocarbon dates were inconsistent with the stratigraphy of the site and much more recent than
1408 expected for the Early Upper Paleolithic (Arrabalaga, 2000). This incoherence was determined to be
1409 affected by taphonomic alterations (Wood et al., 2014). Later radiocarbon dates undertaken with an
1410 ultrafiltration pre-treatment provided a new regional framework for the regional Early Upper Paleolithic
1411 (Wood et al., 2014). The Châtelperronian layer IX inf is dated to 38,100±900 uncal BP (OxA-22562) and
1412 37,400±800 uncal BP (OxA-22560). The Proto-Aurignacian levels cover a period from 36,850±800 uncal
1413 BP (OxA-21766) to 35,250±650 uncal BP (OxA-21793). The three Early Aurignacian levels are dated to
1414 35,100±600 uncal BP (OxA-21778) for level VI, ~ 34,000 uncal BP (OxA-21767 and OxA-21779) for level
1415 V, and ~ 33,000 BP (OxA-21768 and OxA-21780) for level IV (Arrabalaga et al., 2009).

1416 Taphonomic studies indicate an alternation in the use of the cave between carnivores and humans, the latter
1417 during short occupation periods (Villaluenda et al., 2012; Ríos-Garaizar et al., 2012; Arrabalaga et al.,
1418 2010). Labeko Koba is considered to have functioned as a natural trap where carnivores, mainly hyenas,
1419 access animal carcasses. At least in the base of Labeko Koba IX, carnivore activity was higher, and they
1420 would have consumed the same prey as humans (Villaluenda et al., 2012). The presence of humans is
1421 linked to strategic use as a campsite associated with a small assemblage of lithic artifacts. The most
1422 consumed species by Châtelperronian groups were red deer, followed by the consumption of large bovids,
1423 equids, and woolly rhinoceros. During the Aurignacian period, there was some stability in human
1424 occupations, although they still alternated with carnivore occupations (Arrabalaga et al., 2010). Cold-
1425 adapted fauna such as reindeer and woolly rhinoceros were identified in association with the
1426 Châtelperronian. Reindeer and the woolly mammoth and arctic fox were still present during the Aurignacian
1427 levels. The original sampling of the teeth studied by this work was performed in the San Sebastian Heritage
1428 Collection headquarters, where the Guipuzcoa archaeological materials were deposited at that time.

1429

1430 **Aitzbitarte III interior (Rentería, Guipúzcoa, País Vasco)**

1431 Aitzbitarte III is an archaeological site located within the Landarbaso karstic system comprising nine caves
1432 (43.270; -1.8905). The cave is situated 220 m.a.s.l. and is 10 km away from the present-day coastline. Initial
1433 archaeological interventions were carried out at the end of the 19th century by P.M. de Soraluze (Altuna,
1434 2011). Recent excavations were initially conducted in the deep zone inside the cave between 1986 and
1435 1993, where the studied tooth was recovered, and later focused on the cave entrance between 1994 and
1436 2002, by J. Altuna, K. Mariezkurrena, and J. Ríos-Garaizar (Altuna et al., 2011; 2017).

1437 While the cave's entrance area contains a sequence comprising possible Mousterian and Evolved
1438 Aurignacian and Gravettian levels (Altuna et al., 2011; 2013), the stratigraphy in the inner cave presents
1439 eight levels: level VIII (some tools with Mousterian features), VII (sterile), VIb, VIa and V (Middle Gravettian

1440 technocomplex with abundance of Noailles burins), IV-II (disturbed archaeological levels) and I (surface)
1441 (Altuna et al., 2017). Levels V have dates of 24,910 uncal BP (I-15208) and 23,230 uncal BP (Ua-2243);
1442 whereas level VI extends from 23,830 ± 345 uncal BP (Ua-2628) and 25,380± 430 uncal BP (Ua-2244)
1443 (Altuna, 1992; Altuna et al., 2017), with a possible outlier dated at 21,130 uncal BP (Ua-1917).

1444 The Gravettian occupation in the inner part of the cave was initially thought to be more recent than the one
1445 in the cave entrance. However, it was not easy to correlate the two excavation areas due to different
1446 sedimentation rates. The abundant human occupations took place during a singular cold phase in the Middle
1447 Gravettian with a specialized paleoeconomy focused on the hunting of *Bos primigenius* and *Bison priscus*
1448 (85% in level VI and 68% in level V), which is unusual in the Cantabrian region mostly focused on red deer
1449 and ibex. Other ungulates present are *Cervus elaphus* and *Rupicapra rupicapra*, and to a lesser extent
1450 *Capra pyrenaica*, *Capreolus capreolus*, *Rangifer tarandus*, and *Equus ferus* (Altuna et al., 2017; Altuna &
1451 Mariezkurrena, 2020). There is a scarce representation of carnivores. The tooth studied was sampled at the
1452 Gordailua Center for Heritage Collections of the Provincial Council of Gipuzkoa.

1453

1454 **El Otero (Secadura, Voto, Cantabria)**

1455 El Otero cave is located in Secadura (Voto) (43.3565; -3.5360), at 129 m.s.a.l and 12 km from the present-
1456 day coastline, near the Matienzo valley in a coastal plain environment covered by meadows and gentle hills.
1457 The discovery was made in 1908 by Lorenzo Sierra. The site was excavated in 1963 by J. Gonzalez
1458 Echegaray and M.A. García Guinea, in two different sectors (Sala I and Sala II) with an equivalent
1459 stratigraphic sequence (González Echegaray, 1966). Nine levels were identified in Sala I, from level IX to
1460 level I. Levels IX and VIII were initially related to the “Aurignacian-Mousterian, based on lithics assemblages
1461 with a combination of both technocomplex features. The overlying levels VI-IV were separated by a
1462 speleothem crust (level VII) and were initially related to Aurignacian, due to the presence of end-scrapers,
1463 bone points, blades, or burins on truncation (Freeman, 1964; Rios-Garaizar, 2013). Also, perforated deer,
1464 ibex, and fox teeth were found in levels V and IV. This site lacked chronological dating methods, until a
1465 selection of material from levels VI, V and IV revealed a difference in chrono-cultural attribution (Marín-
1466 Arroyo et al., 2018). Radiocarbon results yielded younger dates for such a cultural attribution and showed
1467 significant stratigraphic inconsistency. Level VI gave a result of 12,415±55 uncal BP (OxA-32585), two dates
1468 in Level V are 12,340±55 (OxA-32509) and 10,585±50 uncal BP (OxA-32510), and a date in Level IV is
1469 15,990±80 uncal BP (OxA-32508). All these results fall into the range of the Late Upper Paleolithic
1470 (Magdalenian-Azilian initially identified in levels III-I), eliminating attribution of these levels to the Aurignacian
1471 despite the presence of apparently characteristic artefacts. Further assessments of archaeological materials
1472 will be needed.

1473 Red deer dominate the assemblage, except for level IV where horses are more abundant. Wild boar, roe
1474 deer, and ibex are also present, but large bovids are relatively rare (González Echegaray, 1966). Level IV
1475 is the richest and most anthropogenic level, with evidence of butchering in red deer (captured in winter and
1476 early summer) and chamois (in autumn). The formation of this level involved humans and carnivores, and
1477 although certain data may suggest an anthropogenic predominance, the limited sample analyzed
1478 taphonomically and the pre-selection of preserved pieces do not allow for a definitive conclusion (Yravedra
1479 & Gómez-Castanedo, 2010). The material included in this work is curated at the Museo de Prehistoria y
1480 Arqueología de Cantabria (MUPAC, Santander).

1481

1482 **A2. Northeastern Iberia sites**

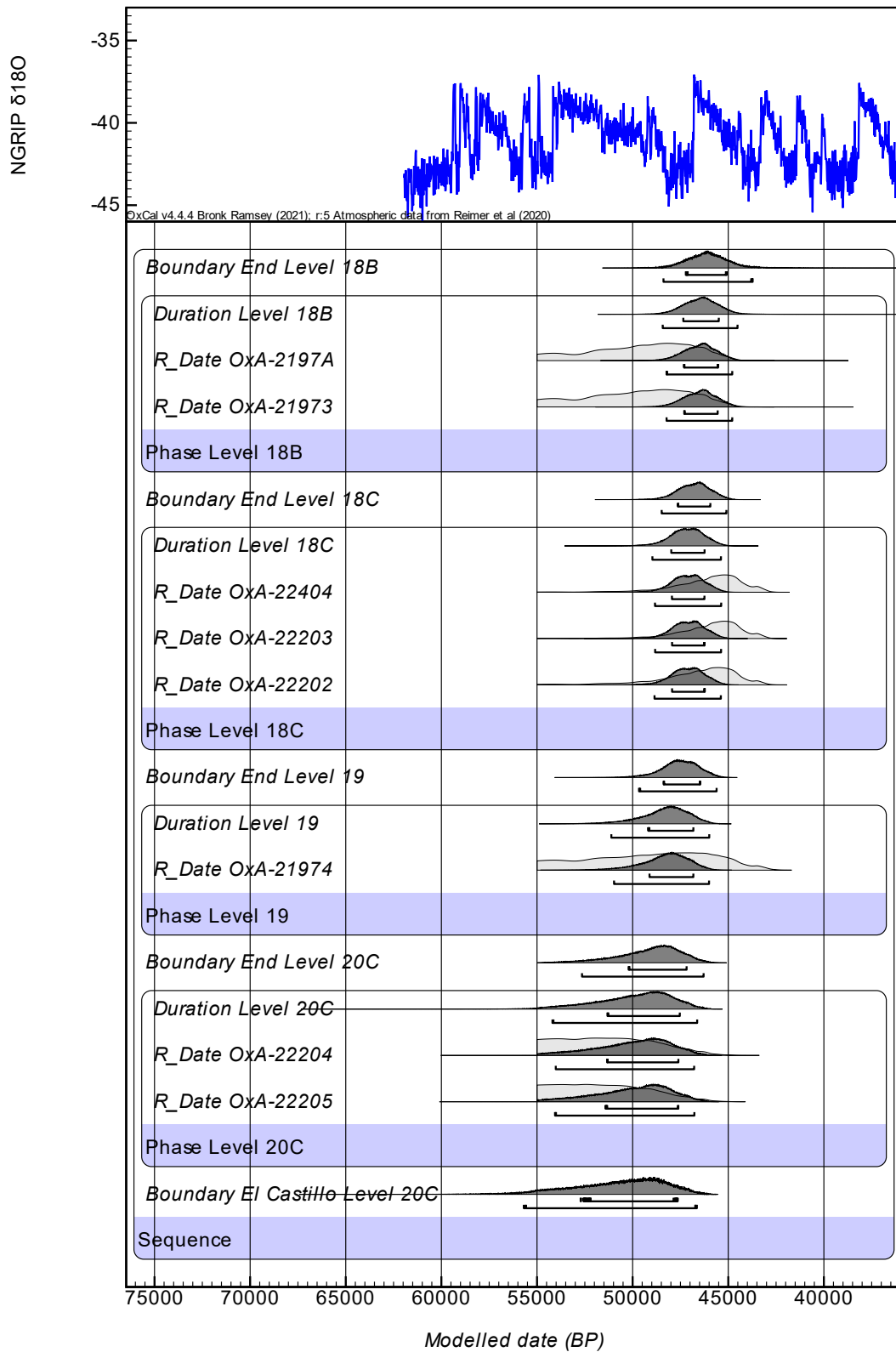
1483 **Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars (Gavà, Barcelona, Cataluña)**

1484 Terrasses de la Riera dels Canyars (henceforth, Canyars) is an open-air site located near Gavà (Barcelona)
1485 (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
1486 terrace at the confluence of Riera dels Canyars, a torrential stream between Garraf Massif, Llobregat delta
1487 and Riera de Can Llong (Daura et al., 2013). Archaeo-paleontological remains were discovered during
1488 quarries activities in 2005 and was complete excavated on 2007 by the *Grup de Recerca del Quaternari*
1489 (Daura and Sanz, 2006; Daura et al., 2013). This intervention determined nine lithological units. The
1490 paleontological and archaeological remains come exclusively from one unit, the middle luthitic unit (MLU),
1491 and specifically from layer I. The MLU is composed of coarse sandy clays and gravels, filling a paleochannel
1492 network named lower detrital unit (LDU) (Daura et al., 2013). Five radiocarbon dates were obtained on
1493 charcoals from layer I, which yield statistically consistent ages from 33,800 ±350 uncal BP to 34,900 ±340
1494 uncal BP, which results in mean age of 39,710 cal BP (from 40,890 to 38,530 cal BP) (Daura et al., 2013;
1495 this work).

1496 The layer I of the site has yielded a rich faunal assemblage, consisting of over 5,000 remains. Among the
1497 herbivores, the most common species found are *Equus ferus*, *Bos primigenius*, *Equus hydruntinus*, and
1498 *Cervus elaphus* (Daura et al., 2013; Sanz-Royo et al., 2020). *Capra* sp. and *Sus scrofa* are also present,
1499 although in lower frequencies. The carnivores found at the site are also noteworthy, with *Crocuta crocuta*
1500 and *Lynx pardinus* being the most frequent. Presence of cold-adapted fauna associated to stepped
1501 environments is recorded, such as cf. *Mammuthus* sp., *Coelodonta antiquitatis*, and *Equus hydruntinus*.
1502 Small mammal analysis, pollen, and use-wear analysis have provided further evidence that a steppe-
1503 dominated landscape surrounded the Canyars site, supporting a correlation with the Heinrich Event 4, in
1504 coherence with the chronology obtained for the layer (López-García et al. 2013; 2023; Rivals et al., 2017).
1505 However, the presence of woodland is also attested by forest taxa within charcoal and pollen assemblages
1506 (Daura et al., 2013).

1507 Taphonomic study is ongoing. But several evidences point that hyenas have played an important role in the
1508 accumulation of the faunal assemblage (Daura et al., 2013; Jimenez et al. 2019). However, sporadic human
1509 presence is documented by few human modifications found in faunal remains (cutmarks and fire alterations).
1510 Although the paucity of the lithic assemblage in the site, it shows a clear attribution to Upper Palaeolithic
1511 technocomplex, most likely the Early Aurignacian (Daura et al., 2013). Recently, it was documented a
1512 perforated bone fragment, which has been identified as a perforated board for leather production (Doyon et
1513 al., 2023). All teeth included in this work were sampled in *Laboratori de la Guixera* (Ajuntament de
1514 Castelfelers) where the material is stored.

1515



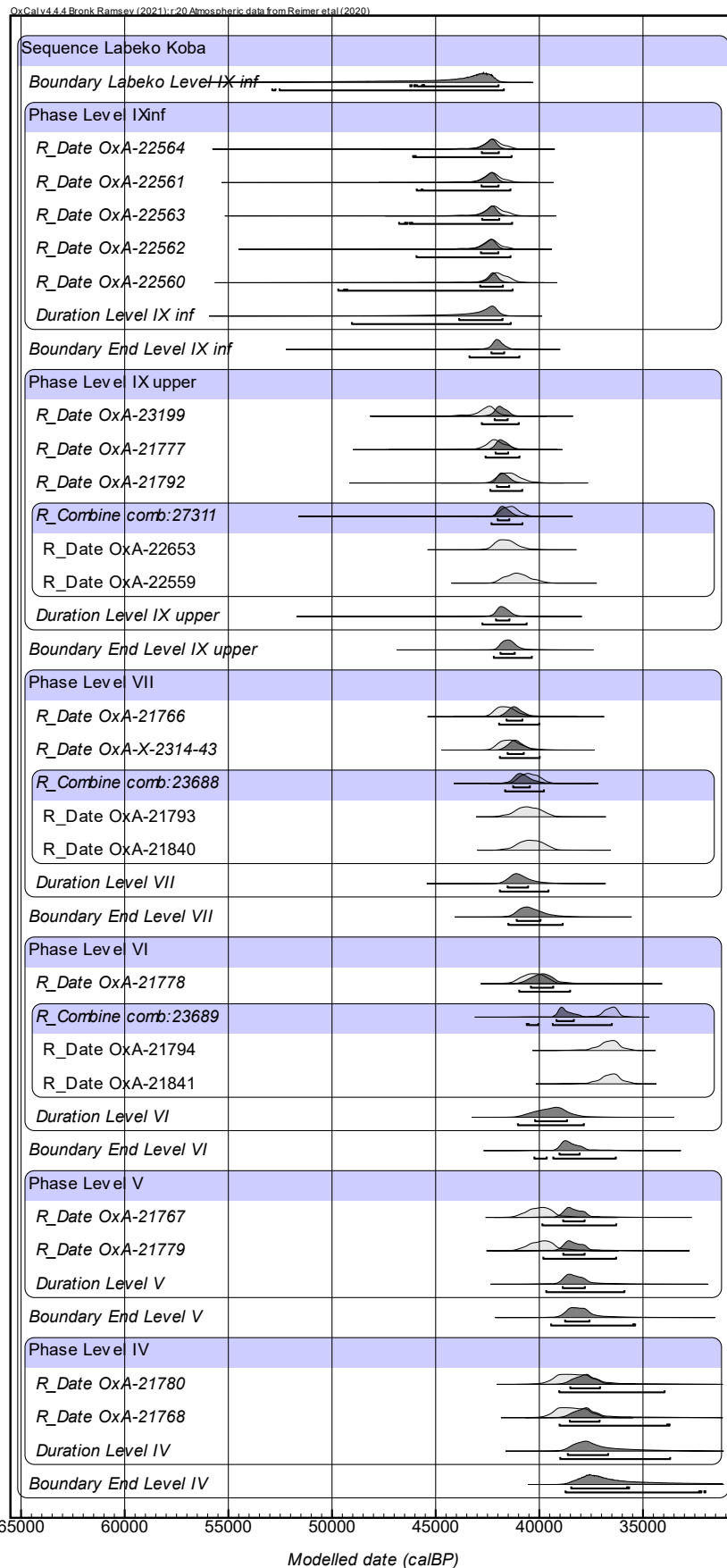
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Figure C1. Radiocarbon dates from El Castillo modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

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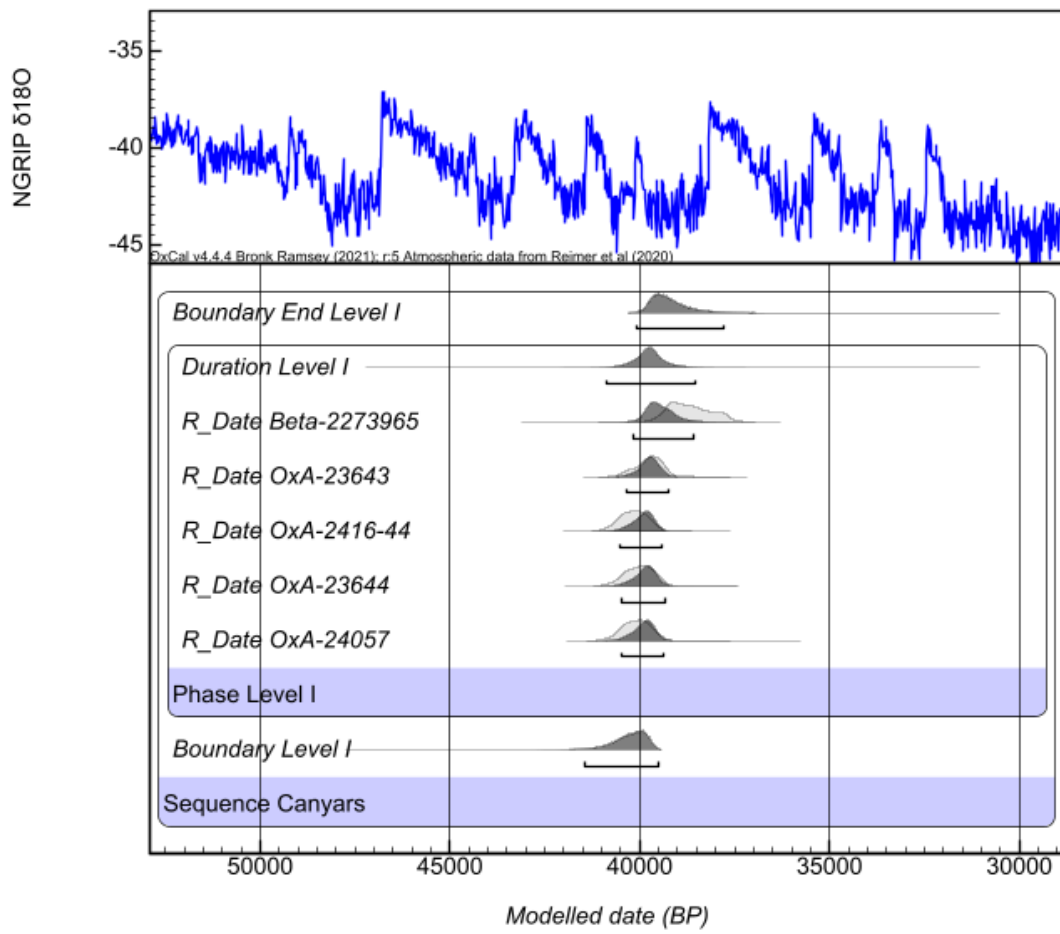


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Figure C2. Radiocarbon dates from Labeko Koba modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

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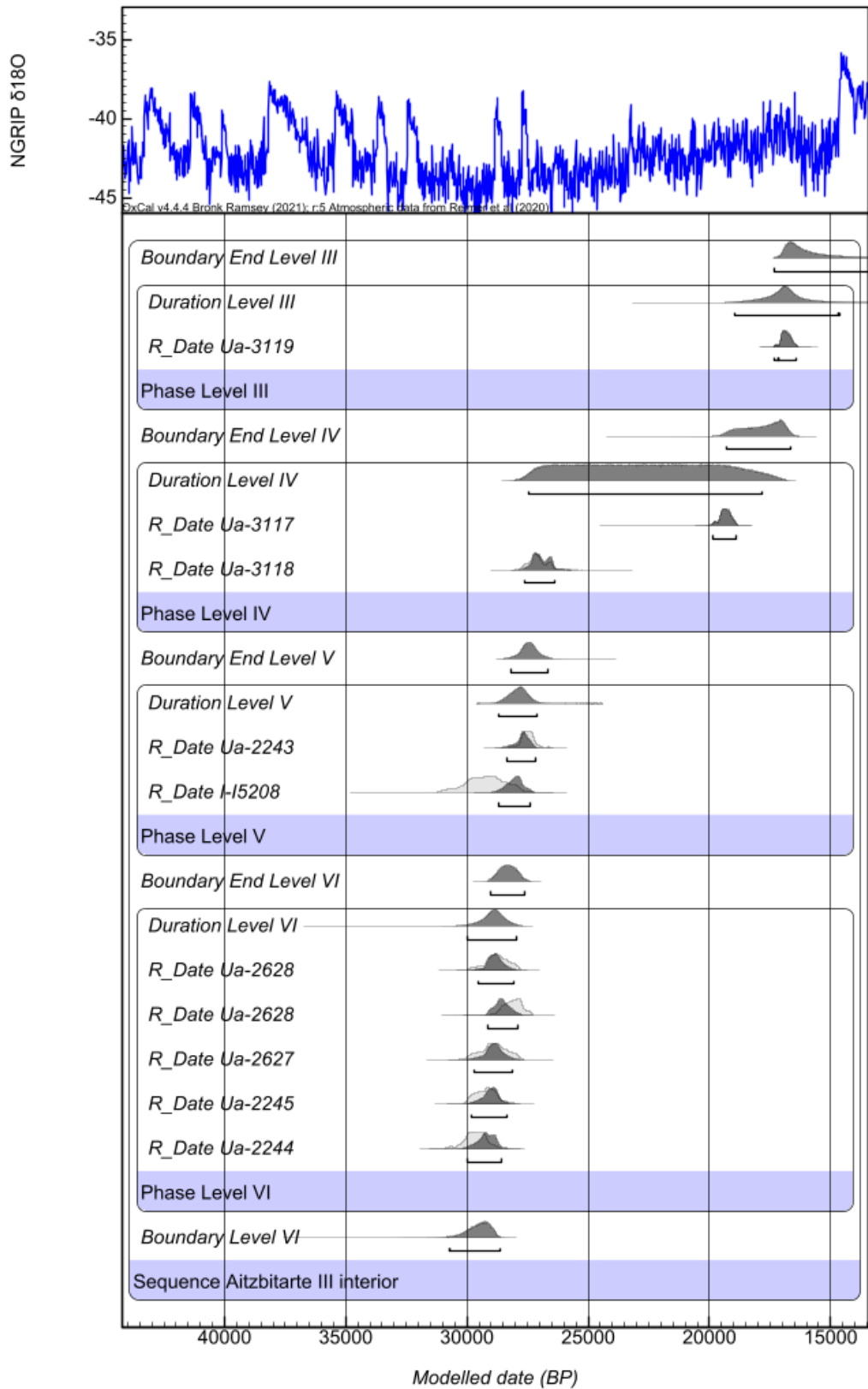


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Figure C3. Radiocarbon dates from Canyars modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

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Figure C4. Radiocarbon dates from Aitzbitarte III-interior modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

1529

Results of Bayesian Models

El Castillo	Unmodelled (BP)			Modelled (BP)			Indices Amodel 78.8, Aoverall 82.4			
	from	to	%	from	to	%	A	L	P	C
Boundary End Level 18B				48383	43733	95.449.974				97.1
Duration Level 18B				48438	44536	95.449.974				99.8
R_Date OxA-2197A	...	45427	95.449.973	48235	44793	95.449.974	98.1		95.2	99.8
R_Date OxA-21973	...	45655	95.449.973	48240	44793	95.449.974	91.9		95.2	99.8
Phase Level 18B										
Boundary End Level 18C				48470	45117	95.449.974				99.8
Duration Level 18C				48977	45382	95.449.974				99.9
R_Date OxA-22404	49976	42918	95.449.974	48833	45383	95.449.974	82.2		95.3	99.8
R_Date OxA-22203	49451	42999	95.449.974	48819	45381	95.449.974	76.1		95.2	99.8
R_Date OxA-22202	51146	43039	95.449.974	48861	45386	95.449.974	101.2		95.4	99.8
Phase Level 18C										
Boundary End Level 19				49629	45623	95.449.974				99.7
Duration Level 19				51060	45997	95.449.974				99.7
R_Date OxA-21974	...	44367	95.449.974	50965	45998	95.449.974	120.2		95.3	99.8
Phase Level 19										
Boundary End Level 20C				52583	46286	95.449.974				99.5
Duration Level 20C				54134	46593	95.449.974				99.3
R_Date OxA-22204	...	47048	95.449.974	53958	46713	95.449.974	94		95.3	99.3
R_Date OxA-22205	...	47348	95.449.974	53965	46715	95.449.974	86.9		95.3	99.3
Phase Level 20C										
Boundary El Castillo Level 20C				55552	46609	95.449.974				95.3
Sequence										
U(0)	68.268.949	3.99E-17	4	68.268.949	5.38E-17	3.776		100		
T(5)	-2.65	2.65	95.449.974							99.9
Outlier_Model General				-2684	2502	95.449.974				100

1530

1531

Table C1. Radiocarbon dates from El Castillo modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

Aitzbitarte III Interior	Unmodelled (BP)			Modelled (BP)			Indices Amodel 78.8, Aoverall 82.4			
	from	to	%	from	to	%	A	L	P	C
Boundary End Level III				17300	12910	9.544.997				98
Duration Level III				18960	14630	9.544.997				99.6
R_Date Ua-3119	17270	16390	9.544.997	17300	16430	9.544.997	100.8		95.8	99.8
Phase Level III										
Boundary End Level IV				19320	16640	9.544.997				99.3
Duration Level IV				27430	17820	9.544.997				98.9
R_Date Ua-3117	19830	18900	9.544.997	19840	18910	9.544.997	99.9		95.3	99.6
R_Date Ua-3118	27700	26430	9.544.997	27600	26360	9.544.997	98.1		95.2	99.5
Phase Level IV										
Boundary End Level V				28210	26680	9.544.997				99.7
Duration Level V				28680	27130	9.544.997				99.9
R_Date Ua-2243	28260	26610	9.544.997	28370	27190	9.544.997	88.8		95.4	99.8
R_Date I-15208	30830	27760	9.544.997	28710	27370	9.544.997	57.7		94.8	99.8
Phase Level V										
Boundary End Level VI				29010	27630	9.544.997				99.7
Duration Level VI				29990	27930	9.544.997				99.8
R_Date Ua-2628	29760	27840	9.544.997	29570	28080	9.544.997	118.2		96	99.8
R_Date Ua-2628	28760	27360	9.544.997	29150	27920	9.544.997	67		94.3	99.8
R_Date Ua-2627	29920	27870	9.544.997	29680	28110	9.544.997	120.5		96	99.8
R_Date Ua-2245	30070	28280	9.544.997	29820	28360	9.544.997	108		95.9	99.8
R_Date Ua-2244	30720	28760	9.544.997	30010	28570	9.544.997	77.7		94.9	99.7
Phase Level VI										
Boundary Level VI				30730	28650	9.544.997				96
Sequence										
U(0,4)	3.99E-17	4	9.544.997	5.38E-17	3.772	9.544.997	100			99
T(5)	-2.65	2.65	9.544.997							95.5
Outlier_Model General				-1420	1280	9.544.997				99.9

1532

1533

Table C2. Radiocarbon dates from Labeko Koba modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

Canyars	Unmodelled (BP)			Modelled (BP)			Indices Amodel 78.8, Aoverall 82.4		
Boundary End Level I				40090	37770	95.45			95.3
Duration Level I				40890	38530	95.45			99.7
R_Date Beta-2273965	39630	37570	9.544.997	40190	38560	95.45	63.2	93.4	99.6
R_Date OxA-23643	40520	39140	9.544.997	40330	39240	95.45	114.2	96.1	99.8
R_Date OxA-2416-44	40880	39450	9.544.997	40540	39400	95.45	99.2	96	99.8
R_Date OxA-23644	40740	39300	9.544.997	40470	39340	95.45	110.5	96	99.8
R_Date OxA-24057	40790	39390	9.544.997	40490	39380	95.45	104.3	96	99.8
Phase Level I									
Boundary Level I				41450	39500	95.45			96.6
Sequence Canyars									
U(0,4)	3.99E-17	4	9.544.997	5.38E-17	3.82	95.45	100		100
T(5)	-2.65	2.65	9.544.997						99.4
Outlier_Model General				-800	1480	95.45			99.9

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Table C3. Radiocarbon dates from Canyars modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

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Labeko Koba	Unmodelled (BP)			Modelled (BP)			Indices Amodel 78.8, Aoverall 82.4			
	from	to	%	from	to	%	A	L	P	C
Boundary End Level IV				38710	32030	9.544.997				98.4
Duration Level IV				39000	33710	9.544.997				99.8
R_Date OxA-21768	39700	37030	9.544.997	39050	33820	9.544.997	75.5		80	99.8
R_Date OxA-21780	39780	36910	9.544.997	39050	33960	9.544.997	81.3		82.3	99.8
Phase Level IV										
Boundary End Level V				39470	35440	9.544.997				99.8
Duration Level V				39730	35950	9.544.997				99.8
R_Date OxA-21779	41170	38260	9.544.997	39830	36330	9.544.997	21		87.2	99.8
R_Date OxA-21767	41230	38500	9.544.997	39860	36340	9.544.997	15.5		85.5	99.8
Phase Level V										
Boundary End Level VI				40240	36360	9.544.997				99.8
Duration Level VI				41030	37860	9.544.997				99.9
R_Date OxA-21841	37710	35420	9.544.997							
R_Date OxA-21794	38040	35460	9.544.997							
R_Combine comb:23689	37350	35900	9.544.997	40620	36500	9.544.997	4.3			99.8
R_Date OxA-21778	41390	39190	9.544.997	40970	38550	9.544.997	90		94.4	99.9
Phase Level VI										
Boundary End Level VII				41490	38890	9.544.997				99.9
Duration Level VII				41910	39570	9.544.997				99.9
R_Date OxA-21840	41610	39250	9.544.997							
R_Date OxA-21793	41720	39390	9.544.997							
R_Combine comb:23688	41290	39570	9.544.997	41650	39780	9.544.997	87.3			99.9
R_Date OxA-X-2314-43	42350	40260	9.544.997	41900	40000	9.544.997	96.5		95.4	99.9
R_Date OxA-21766	42520	40530	9.544.997	41950	40020	9.544.997	80.3		94.6	99.9
Phase Level VII										
Boundary End Level IX upper				42190	40360	9.544.997				99.9
Duration Level IX upper				42750	40580	9.544.997				99.9
R_Date OxA-22559	42090	39850	9.544.997							
R_Date OxA-22653	42520	40530	9.544.997							
R_Combine comb:27311	42120	40600	9.544.997	42330	40800	9.544.997	95			99.9
R_Date OxA-21792	42370	40330	9.544.997	42380	40820	9.544.997	113.4		95.7	99.9
R_Date OxA-21777	43160	40960	9.544.997	42600	40950	9.544.997	99.5		95.6	99.9
R_Date OxA-23199	43980	41490	9.544.997	42800	40990	9.544.997	52.4		92.8	99.9
Phase Level IX upper										
Boundary End Level IX inf				43420	40970	9.544.997				99.9
Duration Level IX inf				48940	41340	9.544.997				99.8
R_Date OxA-22560	42780	40980	9.544.997	49670	41300	9.544.997	75.3		76	99.8
R_Date OxA-22562	43830	41220	9.544.997	45860	41380	9.544.997	102.8		90.9	99.8
R_Date OxA-22563	43250	41010	9.544.997	46280	41300	9.544.997	99.1		89.7	99.8
R_Date OxA-22561	43790	41130	9.544.997	45920	41340	9.544.997	102.3		90.7	99.8
R_Date OxA-22564	43370	41050	9.544.997	46060	41320	9.544.997	101		90.2	99.8
Phase Level IXinf										
Boundary Labeko Level IX inf				52660	41740	9.544.997				96.6
Sequence Labeko Koba										
N(0,2)	-4	4	9.544.997							99.4
Outlier_Model SSimple				...	840	9.544.997				97.5
U(0,4)	3.99E-17	4	9.544.997	5.38E-17	3.932	9.544.997	100			98.3
T(5)	-2.65	2.65	9.544.997							97.5
Outlier_Model General				-6130	9280	9.544.997				99.4

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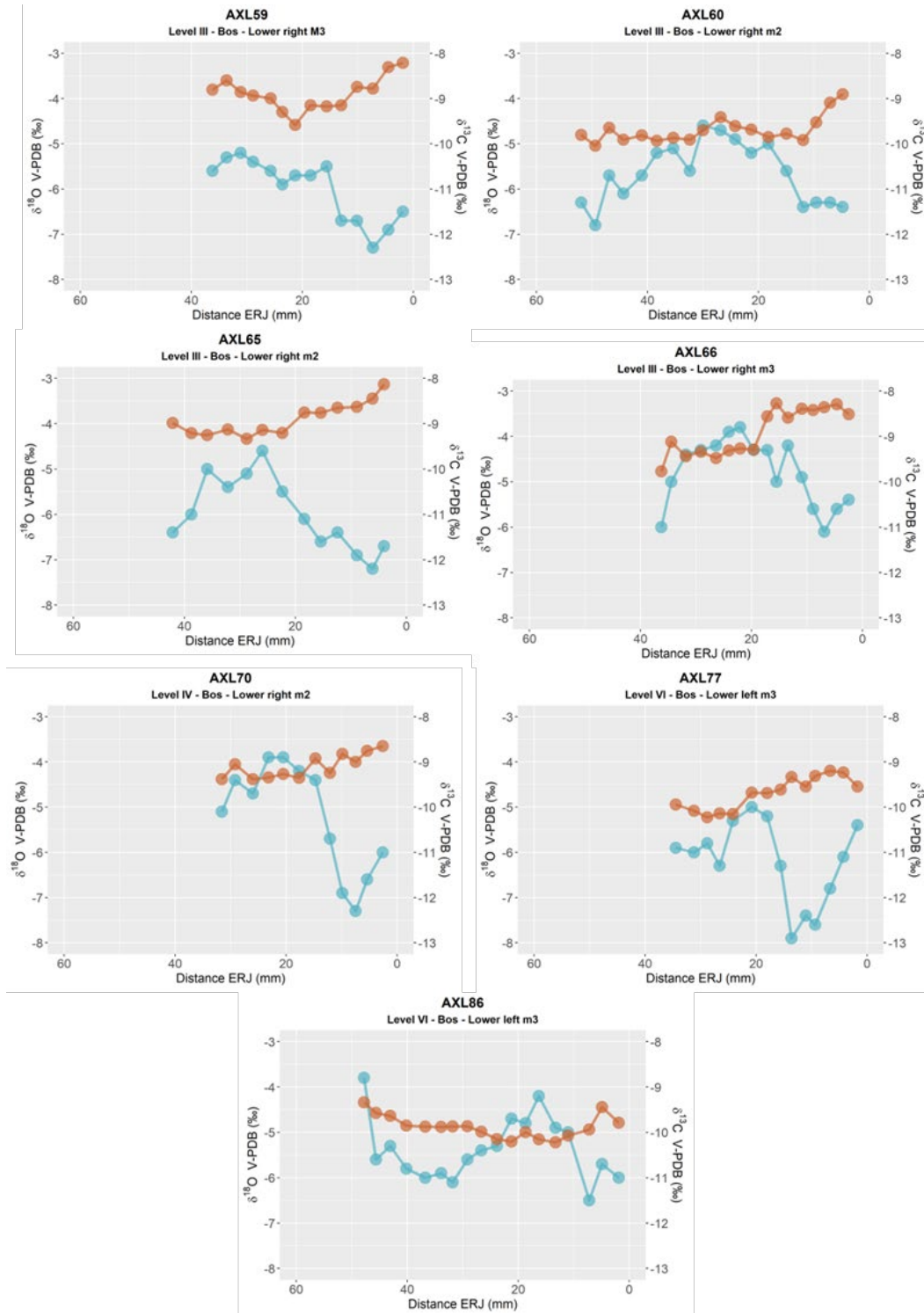
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Table C4. Radiocarbon dates from Aitzbitarte III-interior modelled in OxCal4.4 against INTCAL20.

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1540 **Appendix D. Intratooth curve plots**

1541 Original curves derived from enamel intratooth sampling on enamel carbonate. Provided by sites. In blue,
1542 oxygen stable isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$), and, in brown, carbon stable isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$). In the
1543 x-axis, the distance from Enamel Root Junction (ERJ). Notice that the y-axis can experience some
1544 variations between sites.



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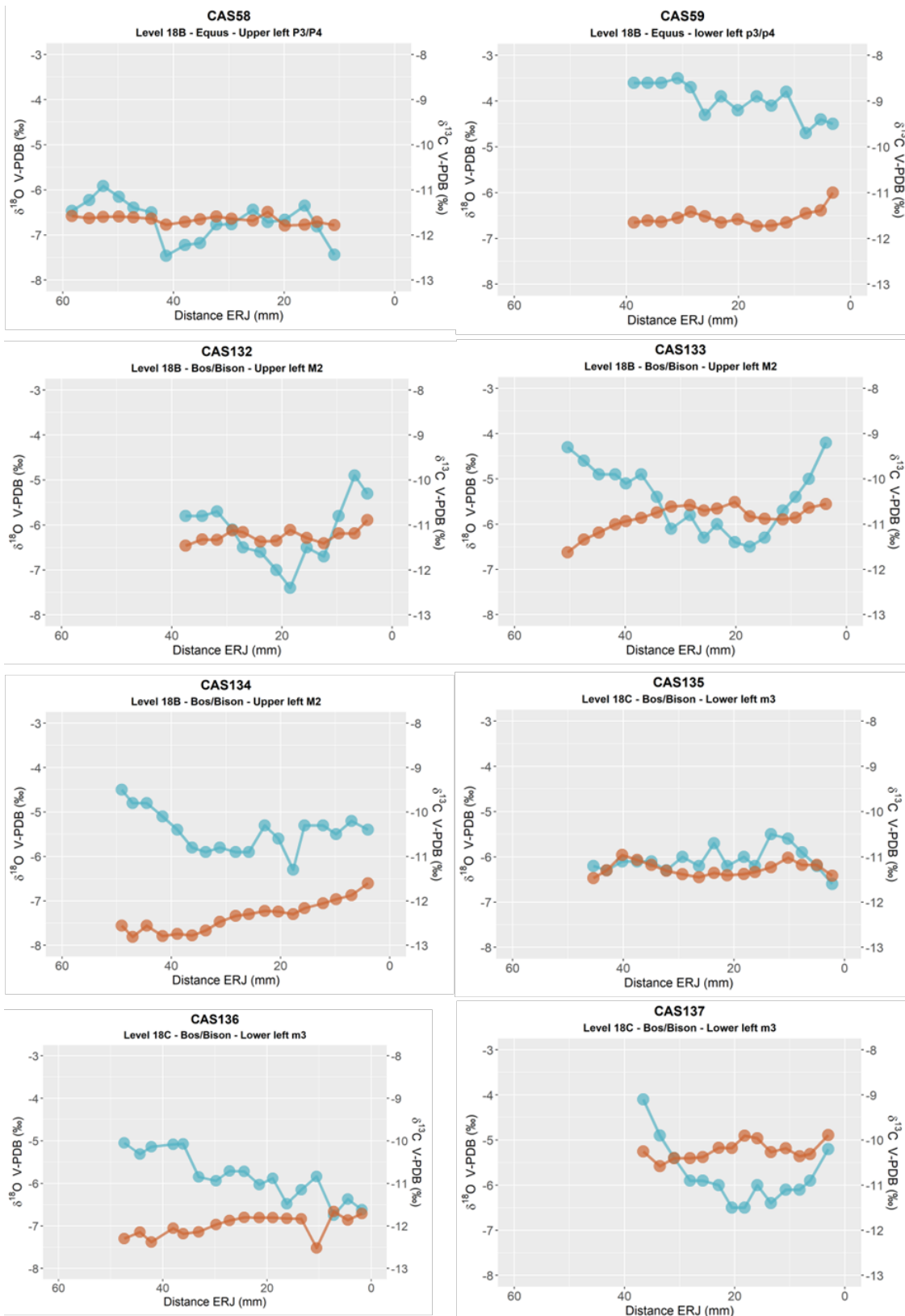
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Figure D1. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from Axlor, considering distance from enamel root junction (ERC).

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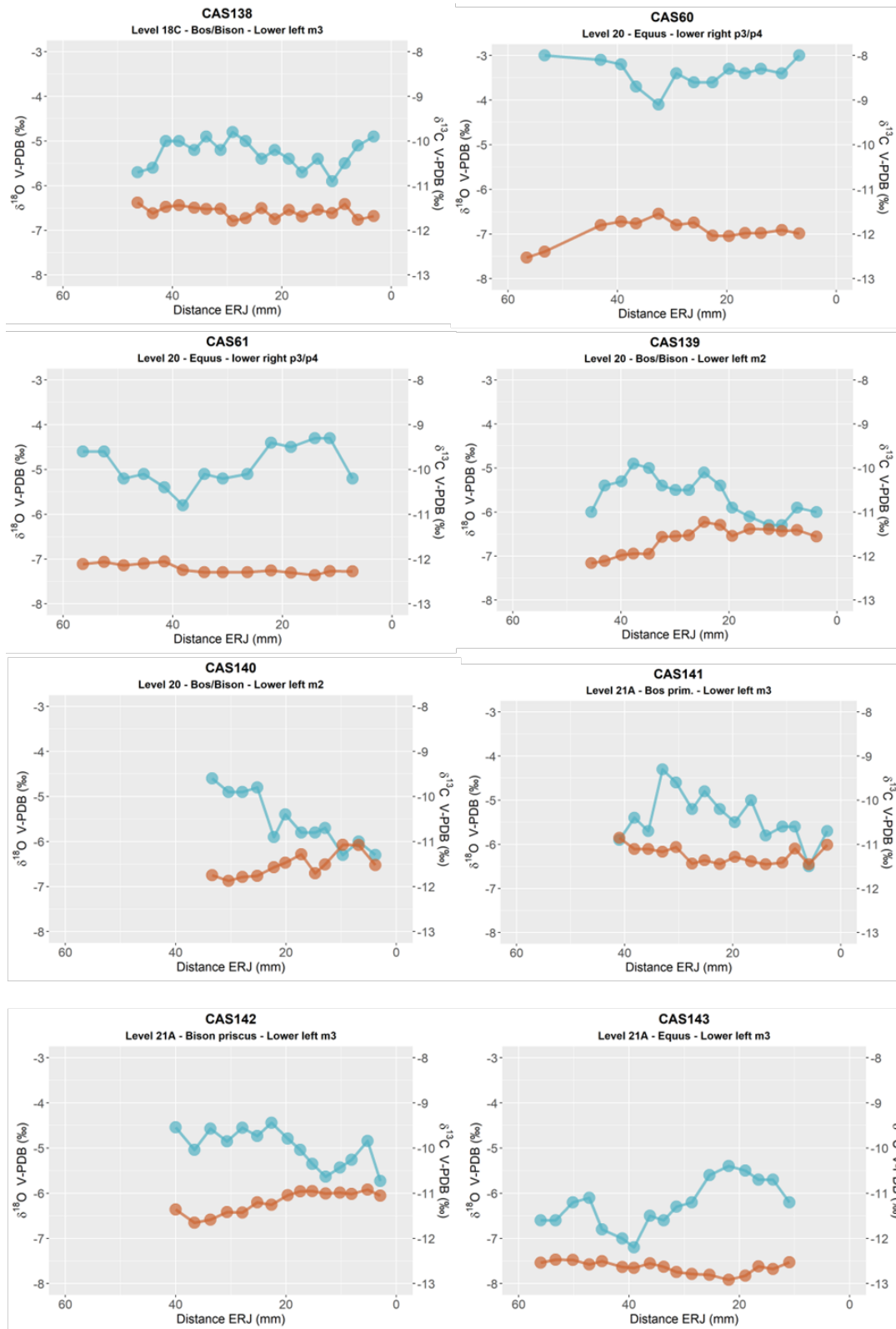


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Figure D2. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from El Castillo, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).



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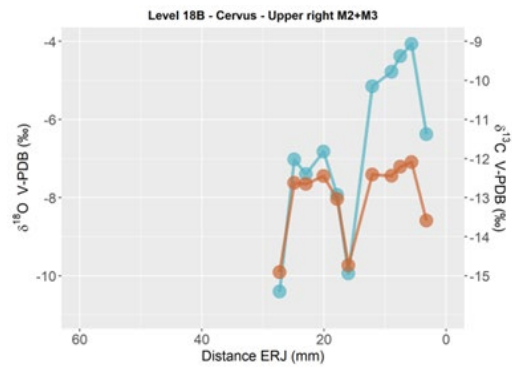
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Figure D3. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from El Castillo, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

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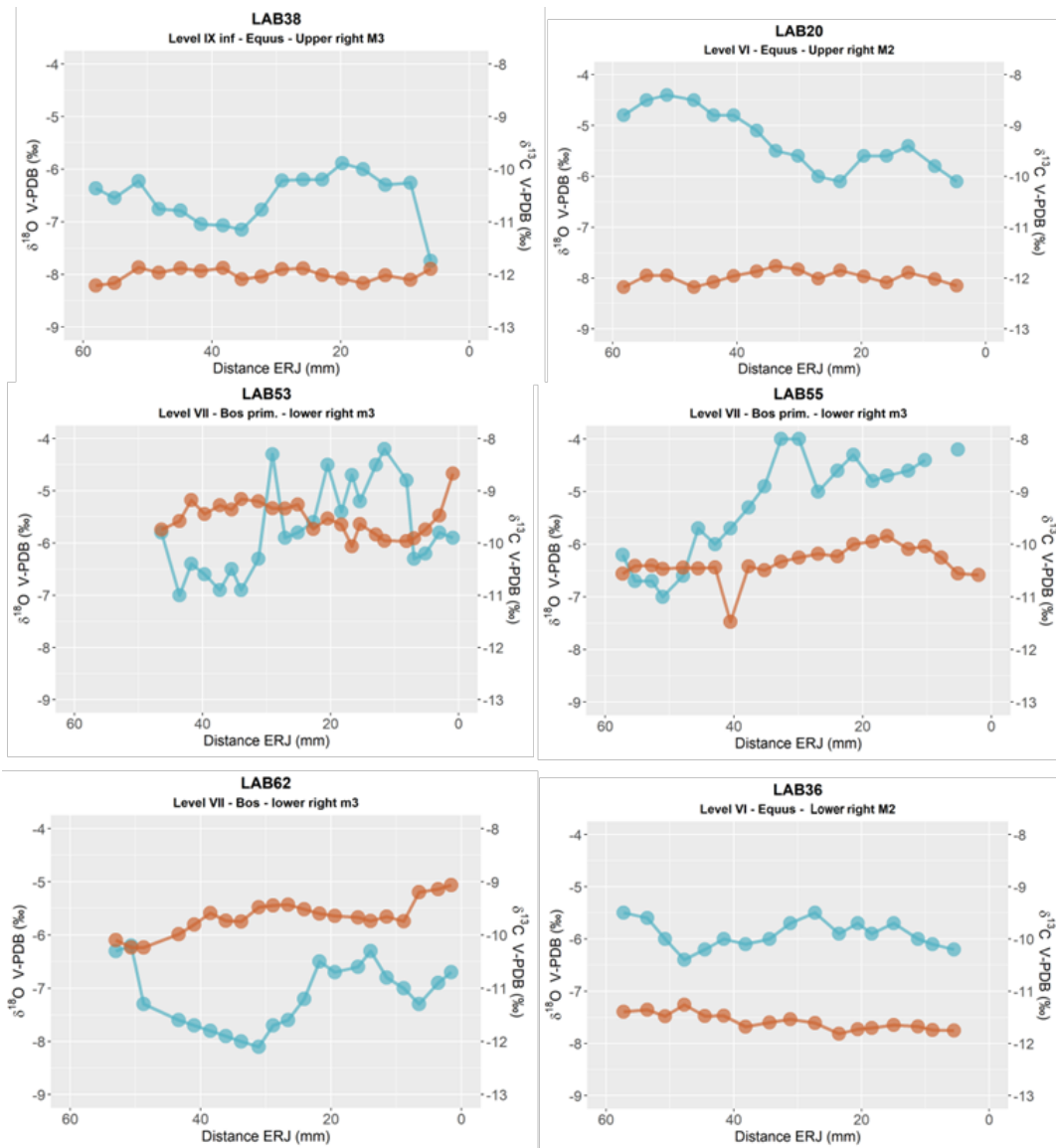
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Figure D4. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from El Castillo, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

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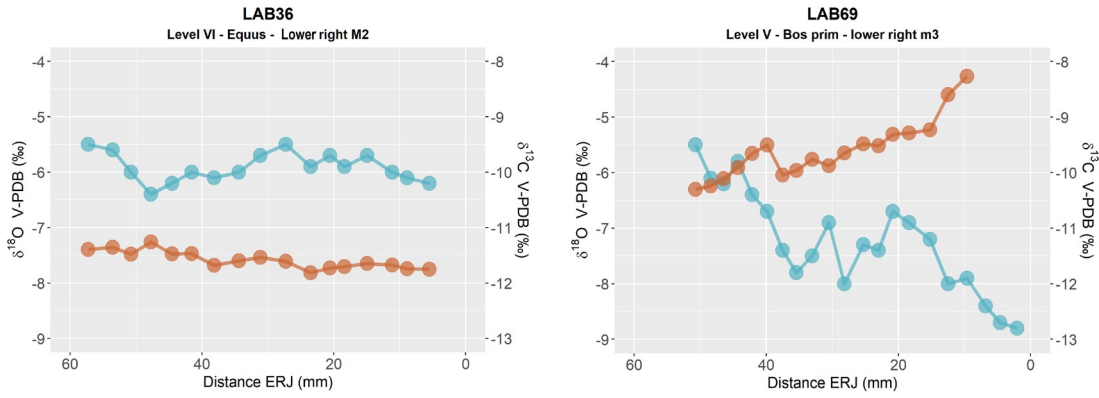


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Figure D5. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from Labeko Koba, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).



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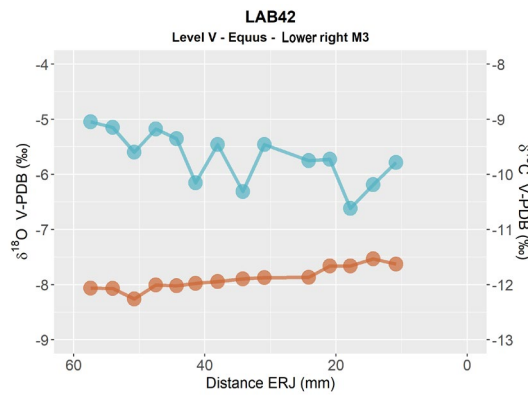
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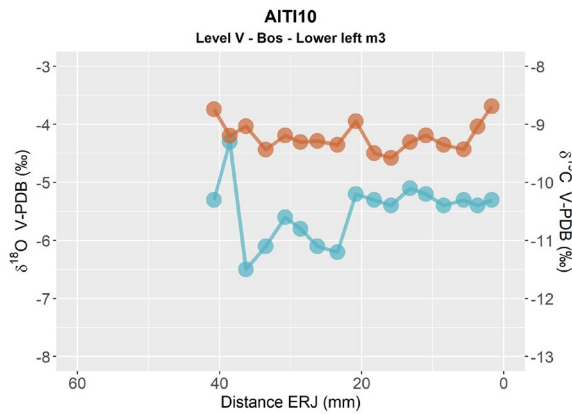
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Figure D6. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from Labeko Koba, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

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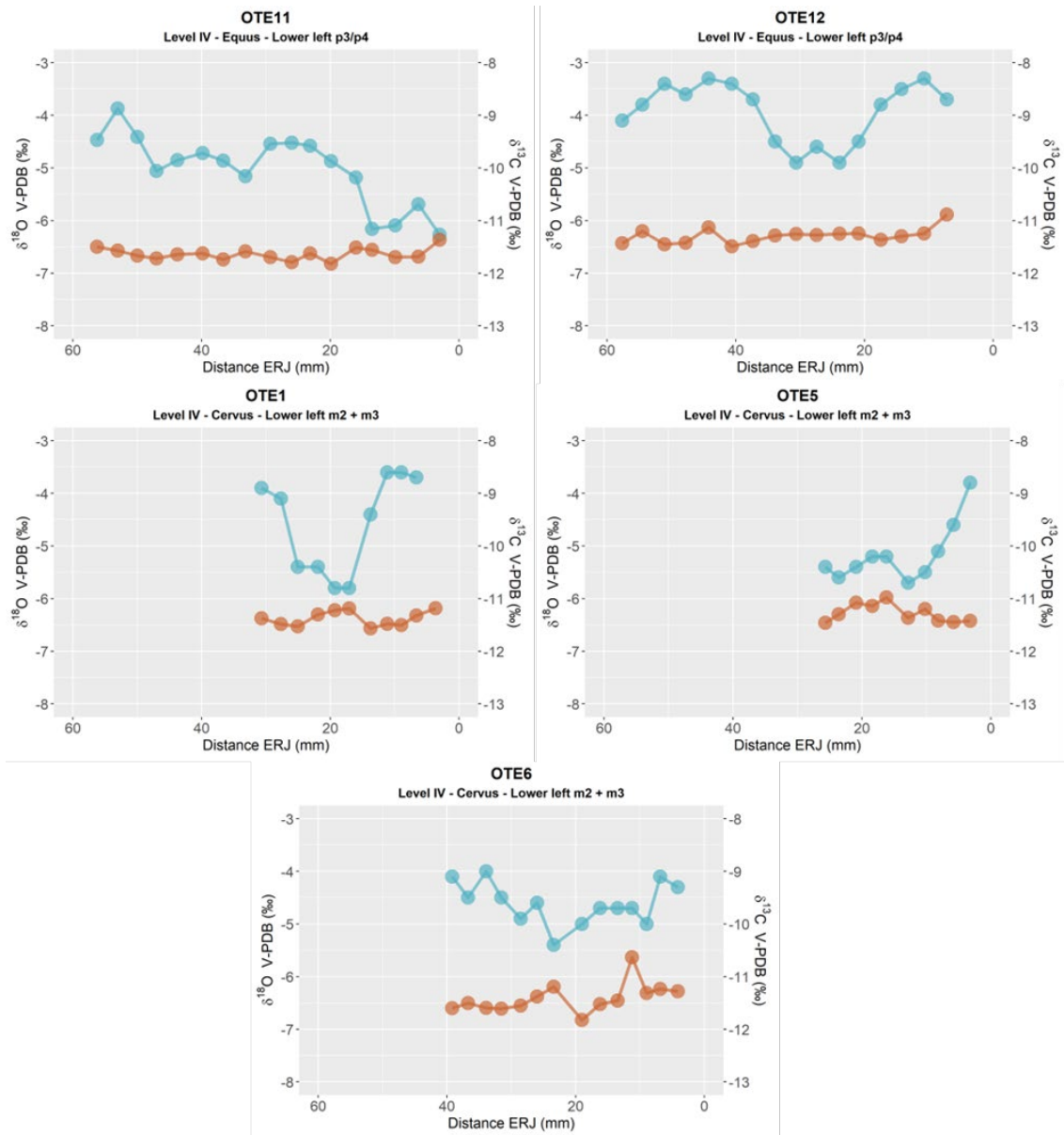


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Figure D7. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from Aitzbitarte III interior, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

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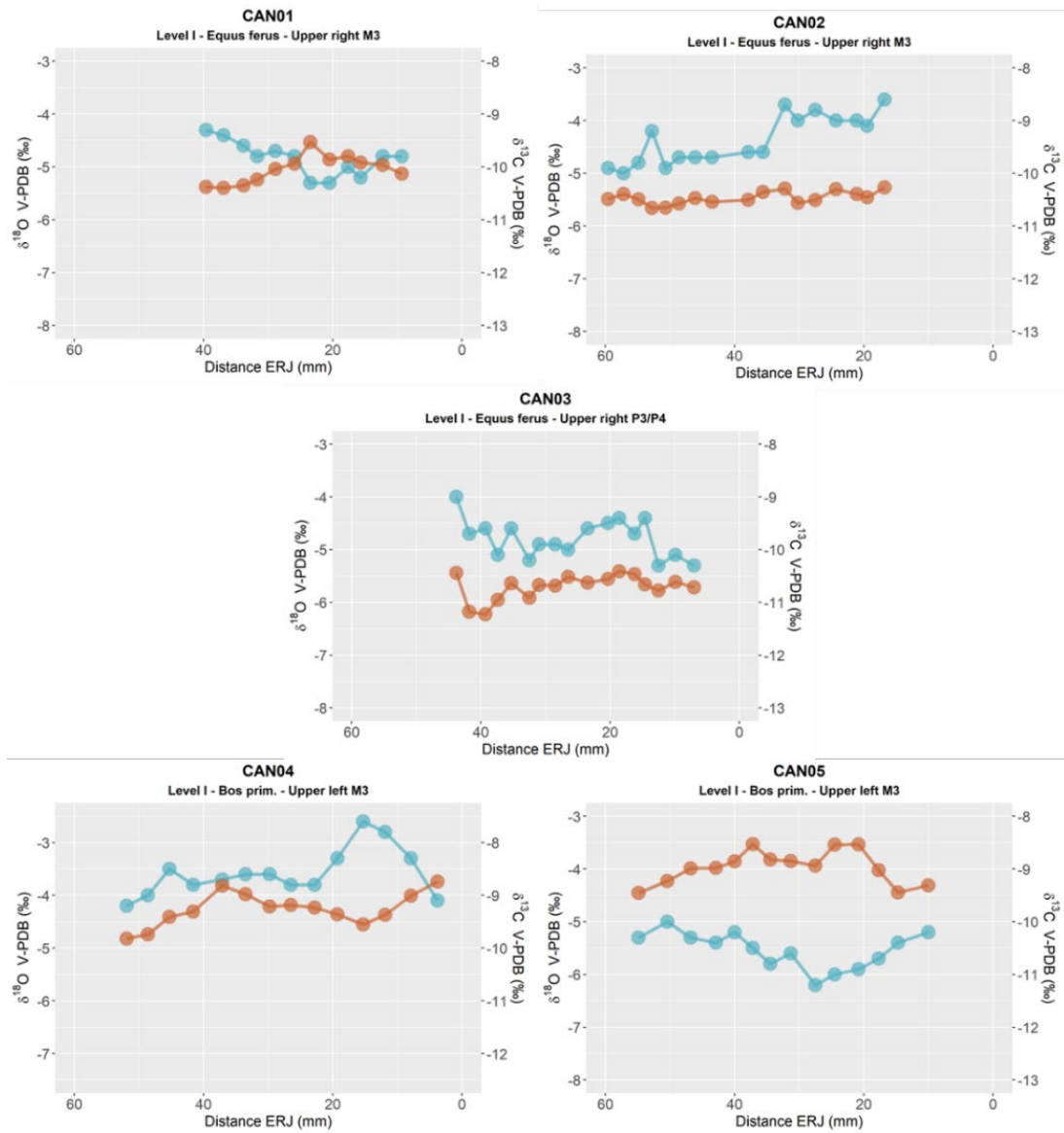


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Figure D8. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from El Otero, considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).



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Figure D9. Intratooth plots of oxygen ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) isotope composition from teeth from Canyars considering the sample's distance from the enamel root junction (ERC).

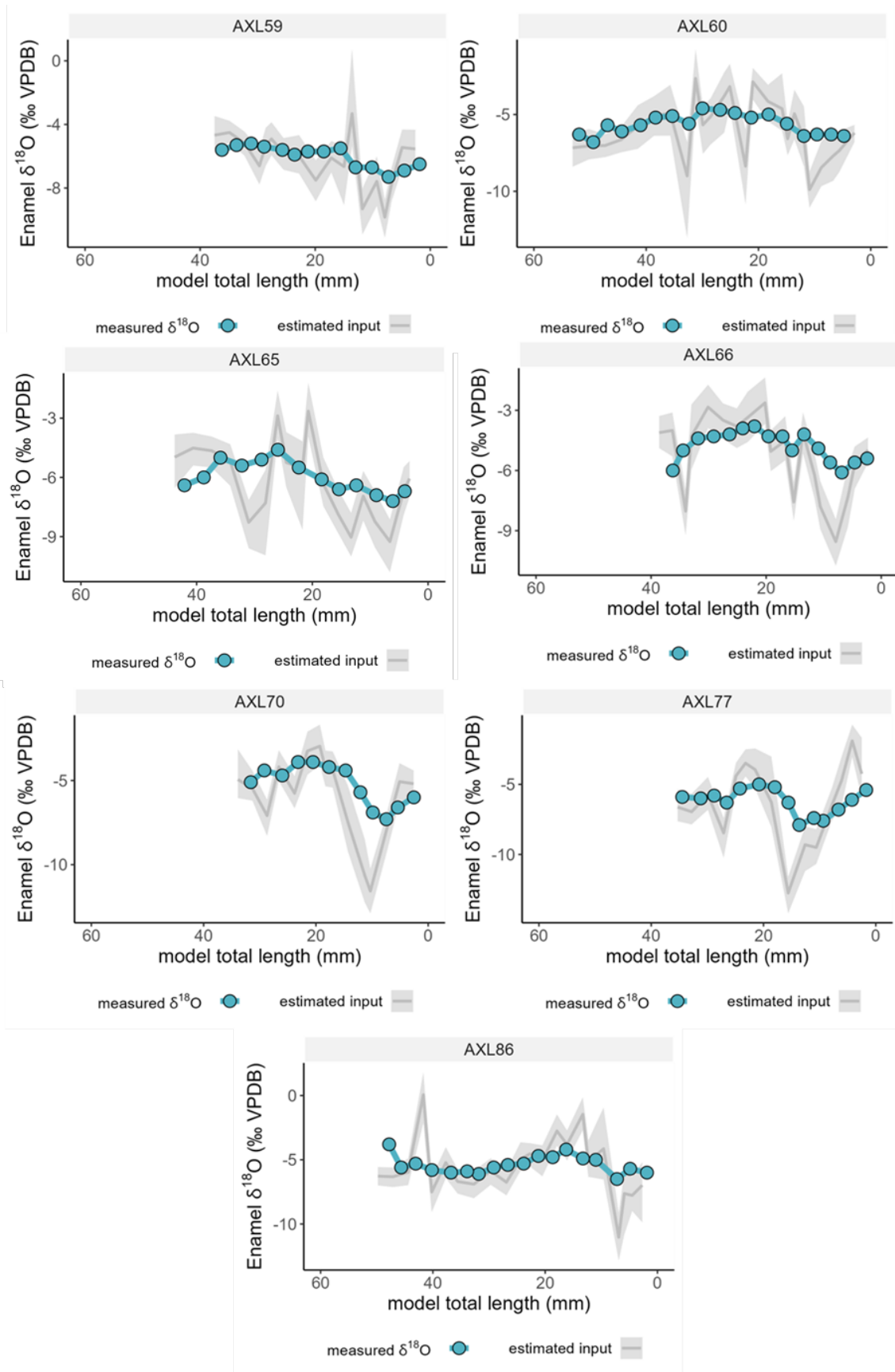
1586 **Appendix E. Inverse Modelling: Methodological Details and Models**

1587 The intratooth $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ profiles presented in this study were obtained through the application of inverse
1588 modelling, using an adapted version of the code published in reference (Passey et al., 2005b). This modeling
1589 approach allowed for the correction of the damping effect and the reconstruction of the original $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ input
1590 time series. The model reproduces the temporal delay between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ changes in the animal's input and their
1591 manifestation in tooth enamel, exhibiting a consistent x-direction delay in the modelled $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve relative
1592 to the enamel $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ input time series. The model utilizes different species-specific parameters related to
1593 enamel formation, which vary between bovines and equids. These parameters have been established based
1594 on previous studies (Bendrey et al., 2015; Zazzo et al., 2012; Passey and Cerling, 2002; Kohn, 2004;
1595 Blumenthal et al., 2014). For *Bos/Bison* sp., the initial mineral content of enamel is fixed at 25%, the enamel
1596 appositional length is set at 1.5 mm, and the maturation length is 25 mm. For *Equus* sp., the initial mineral
1597 content of enamel is fixed at 22%, the enamel appositional length is set at 6 mm, and the maturation length
1598 is 28 mm.

1599 In addition, the model requires other variables related to sampling geometry, as well as error estimates
1600 derived from mass spectrometer measurements. The distance between samples varies for each tooth, but
1601 as a general trend, the sampling depth on the tooth enamel surface in the samples of this study represents
1602 approximately 70% of the total enamel depth. The standard deviation of the measurements obtained from
1603 the mass spectrometer was typically set at 0.12%, taking into account the uncertainty associated with the
1604 standards. Finally, the models require a damping factor that determines the cumulative damping along the
1605 isotopic profile by adjusting the measured error (E_{meas}) to the prediction error (E_{pred}). In the teeth analysed
1606 in this study, the damping factor ranged from 0.001 to 0.1.

1607 The most likely model solutions were selected, and summer and winter values were extracted from the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
1608 profiles, considering the original peaks and troughs identified in the unmodelled $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ profile. This approach
1609 was adopted to prevent the introduction of artificial peaks that the model may produce, particularly in teeth
1610 without a distinct sinusoidal shape. Flat and less sinusoidal profile are less suitable for the application of the
1611 model, given its inherent assumption of an approximately sinusoidal form. Non-sinusoidal curves can lead
1612 to complex interpretations in the model outcomes. Consequently, this methodology was not applied to
1613 analysed intratooth $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ profiles, as the examined individuals did not exhibit appreciable seasonal change.

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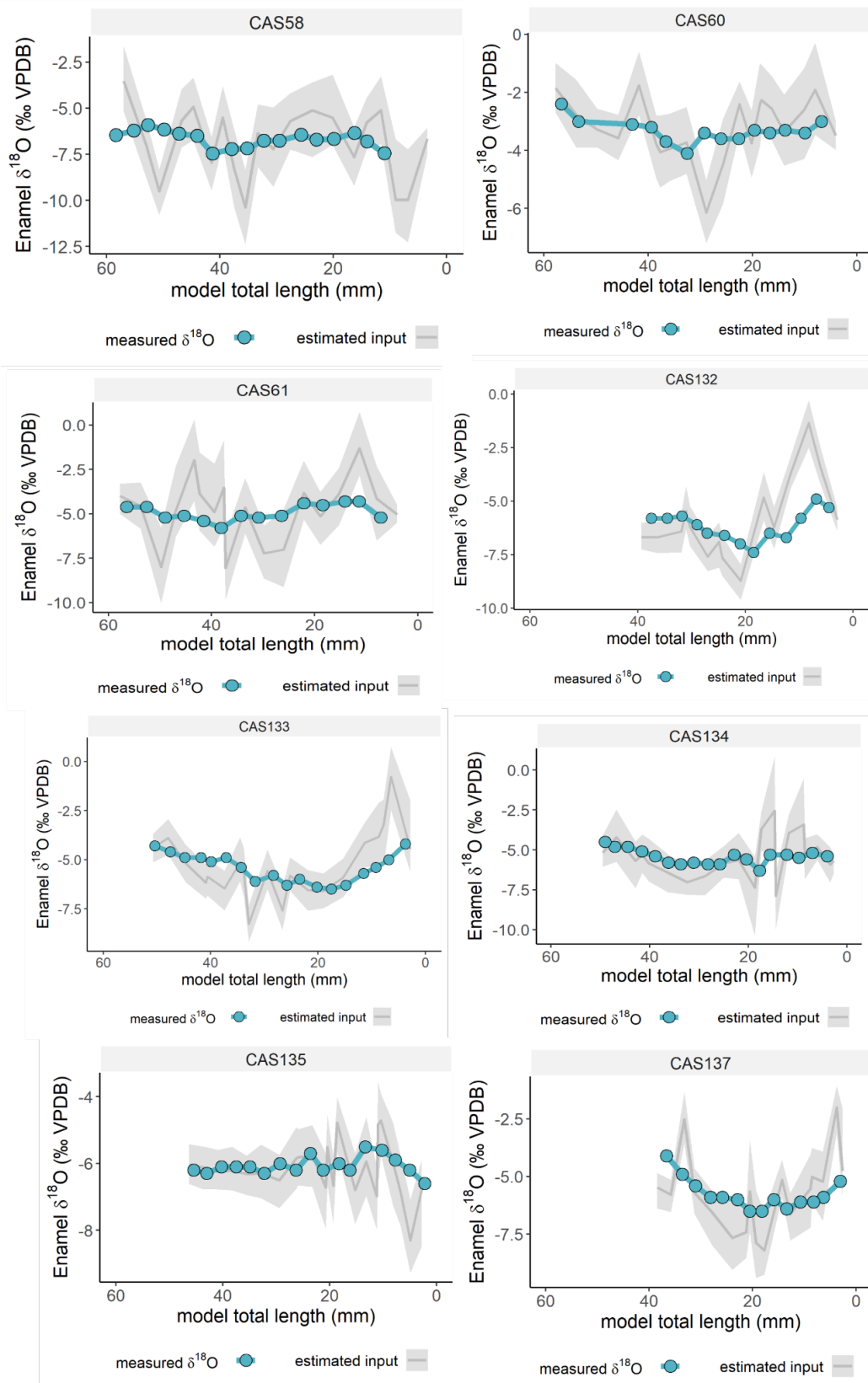


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Figure E1. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from Axlor, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.



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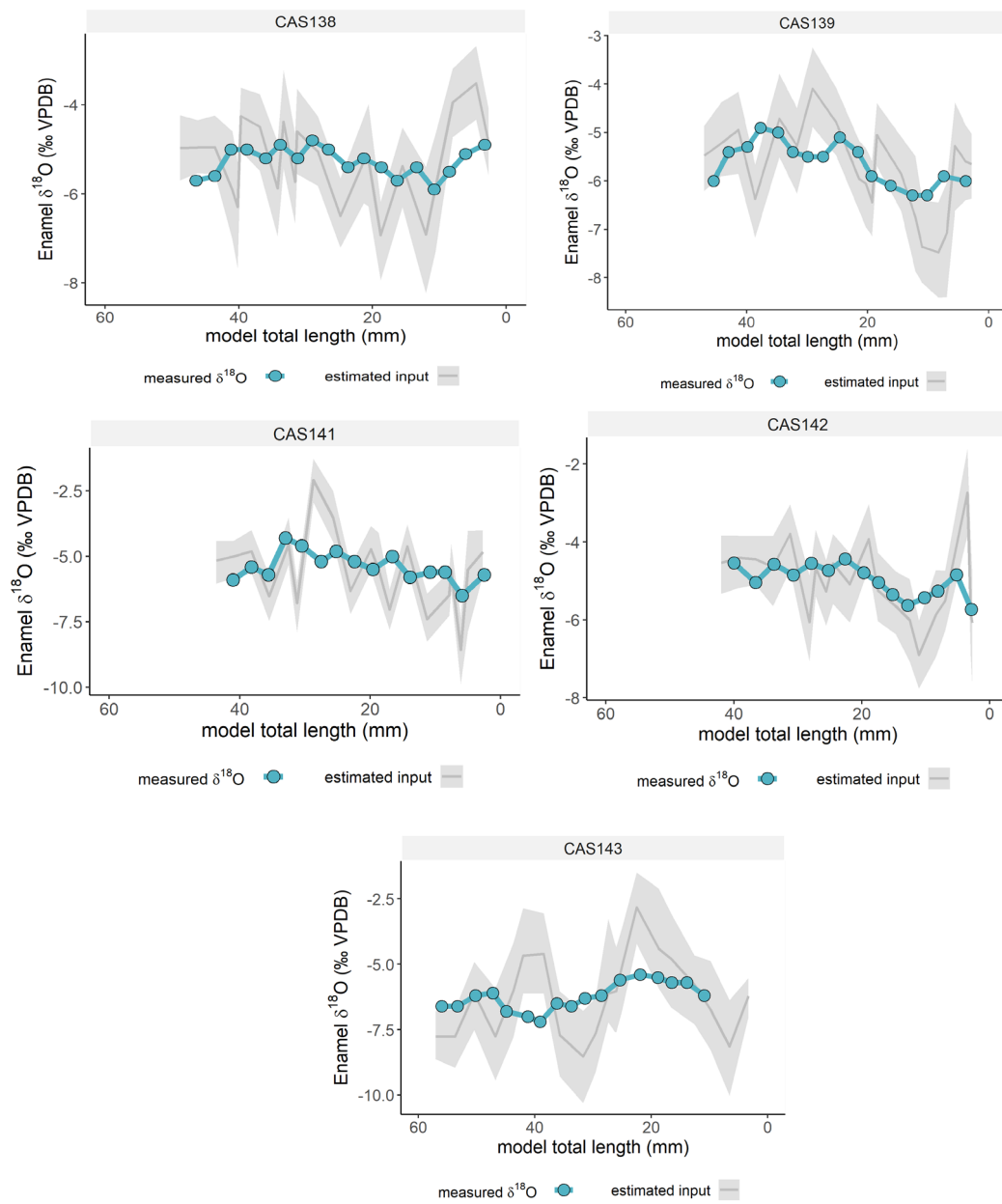
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Figure E2. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from El Castillo, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

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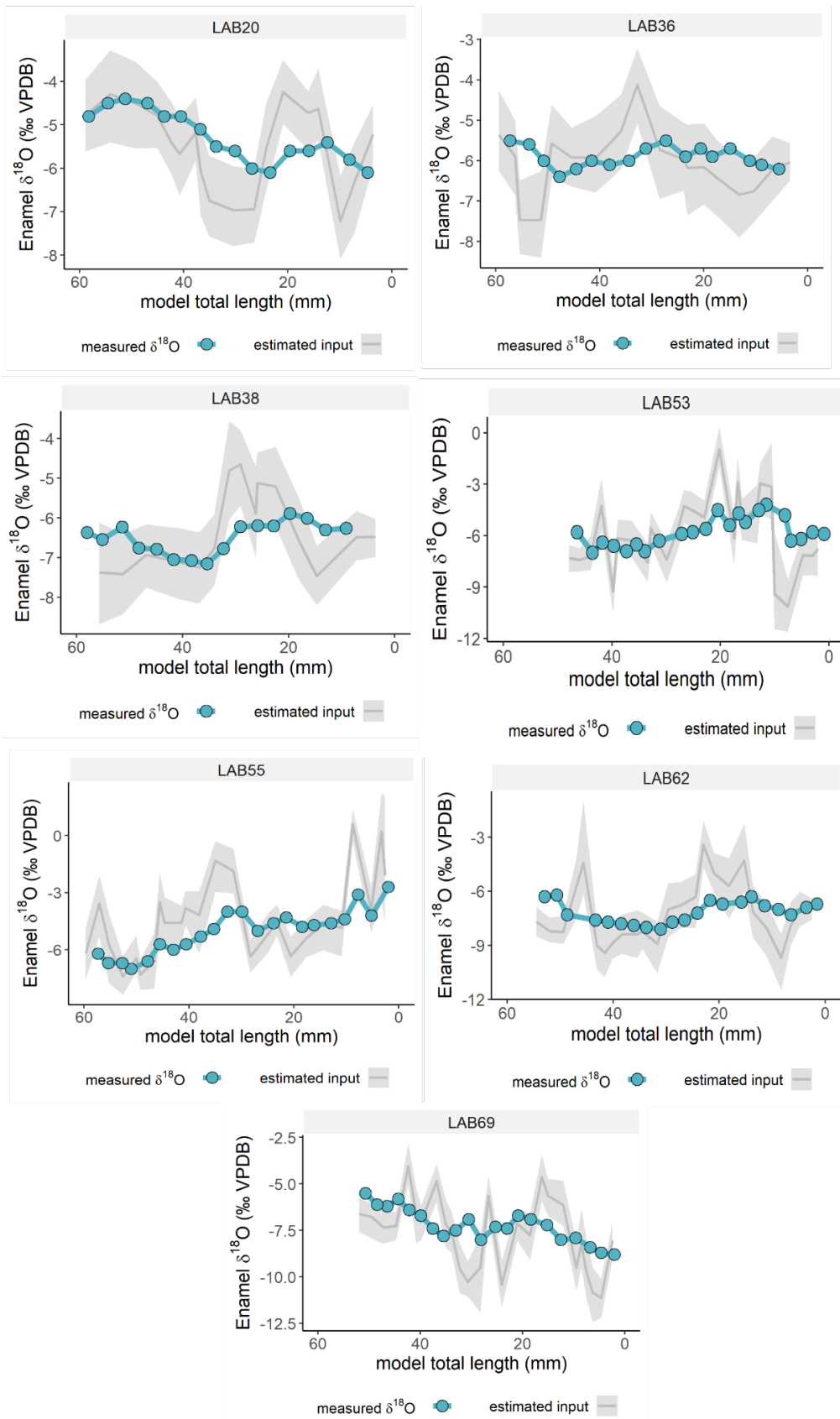
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Figure E3. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from El Castillo, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.



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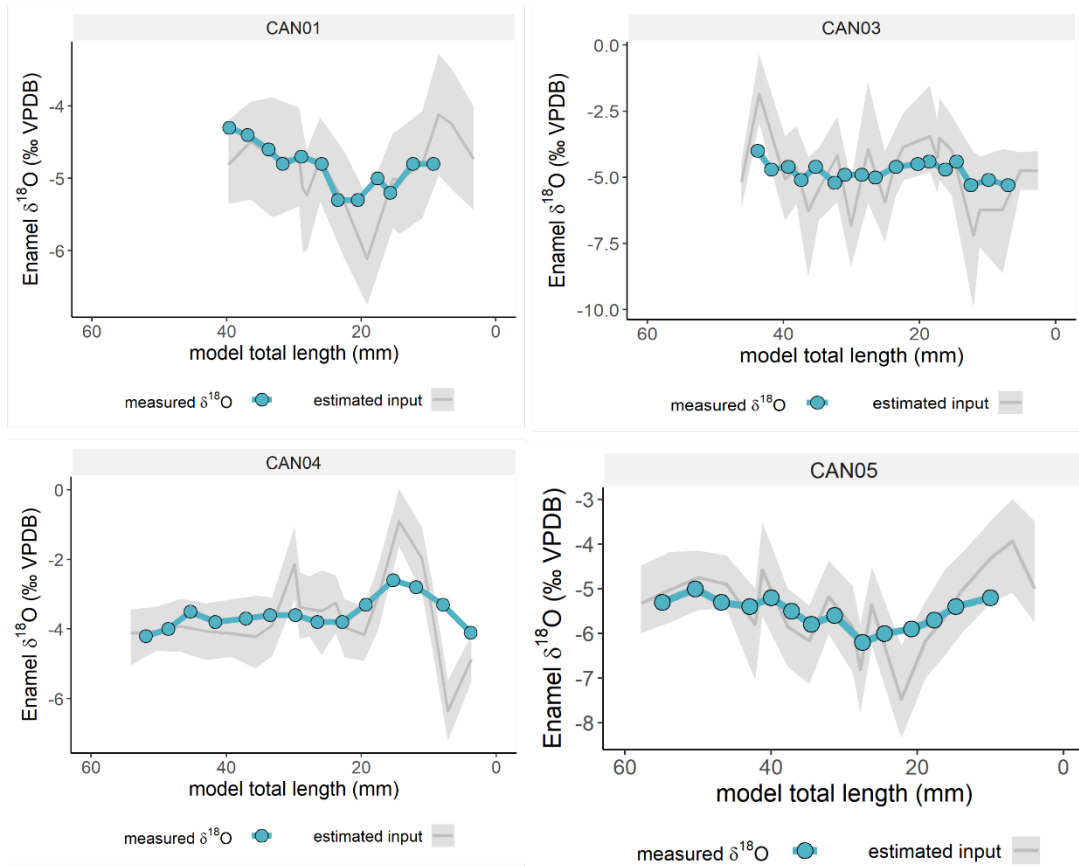
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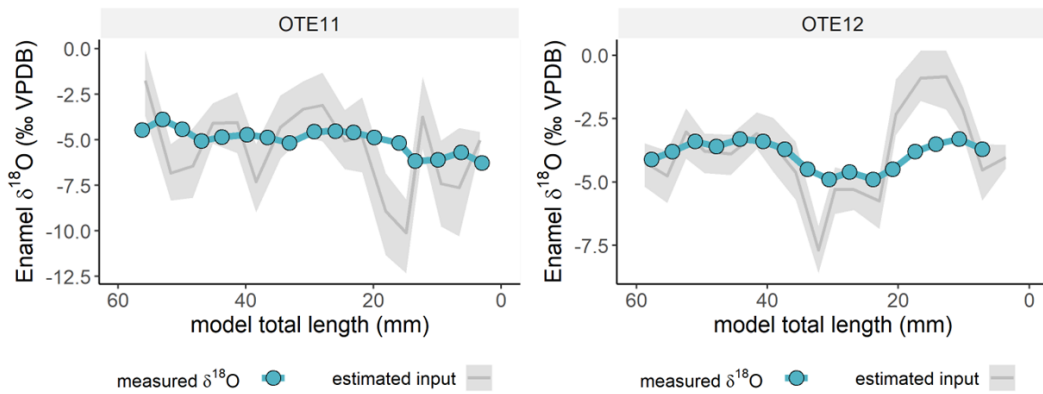
Figure E4. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from Labeko Koba, considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.

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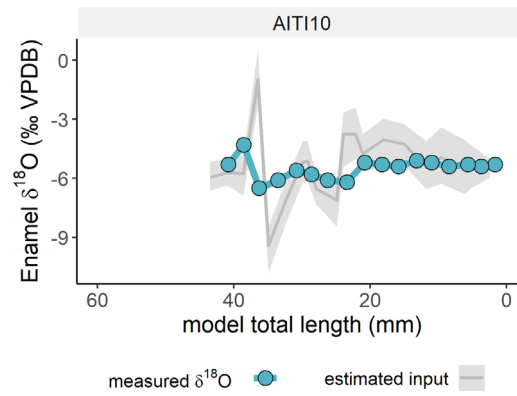
Figure E5. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from Canyars considering distance from enamel root junction. The blue line and points correspond to original data and grey line the most likely model solution, with the 95% confidence interval shown in shaded areas.



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Figure E6. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) 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.



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Figure E7. Inverse models for oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from teeth from Aitzbitarte III interior, 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.

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