

# **Temperature and precipitation regime in LGM human refugia of southwestern Europe inferred from** *δ***13C and** *δ***18O of large mammal remains**

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18 Abstract – The climate shift of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) strongly impacted the 19 vegetation cover and related trophic chains of western Europe. Harsh, cold and dry conditions 20 then prevailed in most regions, strongly impacting migrations and survival of human beings. 21 Nonetheless, environments suitable for mammalian fauna to survive persisted in SW Europe 22 thus providing refugia for hunters. Tooth enamel from large herbivorous mammal remains 23 from archeological sites located in southwest France and Spain were analyzed for their stable 24 carbon and oxygen isotope compositions for documenting paleotemperatures and 25 paleoprecipitations. These sites were occupied by humans between 25 ky and 16 ky. Skeletal 26 remains of Cervidae, Equidae and Caprinae suggest colder and drier conditions relative to 27 present-day. Paleoprecipitations were reconstructed from a modern-based transfer function 28 using  $\delta^{13}$ C-values of apatite carbonate, then corrected for the low atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> value of 29 the LGM. They ranged from ≈250 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> on the Mediterranean façade, to ≈550 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> on 30 the Atlantic side. Setting the  $\delta^{18}O$ -value of the northeastern North Atlantic LGM-surface 31 water to +0.8‰, based on Biscay Golf marine core studies, mean air temperatures inferred 32 from <sup>18</sup>O-data in apatite calcite were close to  $14-15^{\circ}$ C (Mediterranean) and  $6^{\circ}$ C to 10<sup>°</sup>C 33 (Atlantic), i.e., about 4–5°C and 5–8°C higher than pre-industrial temperatures, respectively. 34 The two areas thus define distinct clusters of air temperatures and precipitation regimes with 35 strong negative offsets vs the Present. These isotopically-reconstructed climate conditions 36 indicate a strong control from proximal surface ocean/marine waters, in particular of mean 37 annual air temperatures.

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41 Keywords: Last Glacial; temperature; precipitation; stable isotopes; apatite; mammals; 42 Western Europe

# 44

### 45 1. Introduction

46 The Last Glacial, also named Weichselian in Northwest Europe, covers a time period 47 from 115 ka to 11.7 ka. It was characterized by rapid, large amplitude climatic fluctuations 48 recorded in the Greenland ice cores (Dansgaard et al., 1993; Grootes et al., 1993; NGRIP 49 members, 2004; Rasmussen et al., 2014) and North Atlantic marine sediments (Heinrich, 50 1988; Bond et al., 1992; Sanchez Goñi et al., 2008). During this period, global climate 51 conditions oscillated between stadial and interstadial conditions, sometimes punctuated by 52 abrupt climate events known as Heinrich events. These highly contrasted climate regimes 53 influenced faunal communities, including humans, through the development of new migration 54 pathways, allopatric speciation in refugia, and enhanced rates of extinction during the coldest 55 and driest stages of the Last Glacial.

56 The Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), conventionally dated between 23 and 19 ka ago 57 (MARGO, 2009; Mix et al., 2001), is defined as the most recent period of maximum global 58 ice volume (Mix et al., 2001). It featured lowered greenhouse gas (CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>) concentrations, 59 a mean sea level ~120 m lower than today and generally cold and dry climatic conditions 60 resulting in significant modifications of both floral and faunal assemblages (Lister, 2004; 61 Sommer and Nadachowski, 2006; Clark et al., 2009; Binney et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2019). 62 During this interval, and in response to global tropospheric cooling, the Northern Hemisphere 63 experienced a southward expansion of continental ice sheets, which reached as far as 52°N in 64 western Europe. Various models suggest a decrease in global mean surface air temperatures 65 during the LGM ranging from  $4^{\circ}$ C to  $10^{\circ}$ C vs pre-industrial (PI) climatic conditions (Masson-66 Delmotte et al., 2006; Schneider von Deimling et al., 2006; Annan and Hargreaves, 2013). 67 The main causes of this decrease are thought to be the combined effect of lower atmospheric 68 CO2 values (with a partial pressure as low as 190 ppm; Bouttes et al., 2011) and ice-sheet 69 forcing, which would jointly account for about 75% of the total LGM cooling (Schneider von 70 Deimling et al., 2006). Additional cooling effects are related to changes in atmospheric dust 71 content and vegetation cover. In response to this maximal extent of continental ice (glaciers 72 and ice caps), mean global sea level dropped by  $120\pm10$  m (Lambeck et al., 2014).

73 Faunal associations described in the archaeological sites of southwestern Europe are 74 generally compatible with cold and dry, open environments, such as tundra and dry steppe, 75 but there are important regional differences as suggested by Yravedra and Brugal (2005) who 76 defined several biogeographic zones in southwest Europe. During the LGM, the vegetation in 77 Europe was characterized by an expansion of tundra and steppe. In Southwestern France and 78 in the northern part of the Iberian Peninsula, cold temperate fauna (horse, reindeer, ibex) 79 dominated vertebrate assemblages during the LGM, but co-existed with cold-adapted fauna 80 such as mammoth, woolly rhinoceros and reindeer (Yravedra and Brugal, 2005; Sommer and 81 Nadachowski, 2006; Álvarez-Lao and García, 2011; Álvarez-Lao and García, 2011). Recent 82 models suggest that the most suitable habitats for humans during the LGM were concentrated 83 in southwest France and the Iberian Peninsula, excluding the interiors, as also demonstrated 84 by the distribution of archaeological sites (e.g., Ludwig et al., 2018; Burke et al., 2017; Wren 85 and Burke, 2019). Modern humans who had arrived in Europe  $\approx 45,000$  years ago survived 86 the LGM in the SW Europe refugia (Fu et al., 2016). A post-ice age expansion followed, with 87 their descendants spreading out in Iberia, after  $\approx$  19,000 years ago, then defining the 88 Magdalenian culture (Fu et al., 2016).

89 The LGM in Southwest Europe illustrates a major faunal and vegetation partitioning in 90 biogeographic provinces, which constrained the human strategy of land occupation. Whether 91 Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) or Mean Annual Air Temperature (MAAT) were limiting 92 factors in this strategy remains to be fully elucidated. In thus study, special attention is paid to 93 sites from coastal areas under the influence of the Atlantic Ocean or the Mediterranean Sea. 94 They represent three distinct biogeographic zones, following the classification of Yravedra 95 and Brugal (2005) for southwestern Europe: southwest France (zone VI), Cantabria/Asturias 96 (zone IV) and the Mediterranean coast (zone IIIa).

97 MAAT and MAP may be reconstructed using oxygen and carbon isotope compositions of 98 the apatite carbonate from vertebrate skeletons. As highlighted by Pederzani and Britton 99 (2019), in particular the oxygen isotope analyses of skeletal remains  $(\delta^{18}O)$  are a powerful 100 tool for exploring past human-environment interactions as well as to reconstruct paleoclimatic 101 parameters. An approach not yet used for documenting the LGM refugia of SW Europe will 102 fill this gap using large mammal remains (teeth) from the above defined human occupation 103 areas. We also intend to demonstrate that carbon isotope  $(\delta^{13}C)$  from such remains may 104 inform specifically on paleoprecipitation.

105 The basic principles to interpret  $\delta^{13}$ C as MAP and  $\delta^{18}$ O as MAAT are summarized as 106 follows:

107 The most common strategy consists in estimating air temperature from the oxygen isotope 108 composition of the carbonate or the phosphate groups of the tooth enamel of the vertebrate 109 apatite. During tooth growth, the oxygen isotope composition of apatite carbonate  $(\delta^{18}O_c)$ 110 records body temperature (a near constant close to 37°C) and body water composition 111 ( $\delta^{18}O_{bw}$ ) (Koch et al., 1989; Bryant et al., 1996; Chenery et al., 2012). The oxygen isotope 112 composition of body water reflects that of meteoric water (Bryant and Froelich, 1995; Kohn, 113 1996; Langlois et al., 2003) and depends principally on the composition of oceanic moisture 114 source(s), the length and precipitation history of humid air mass trajectories, 115 evapotranspirative processes along these trajectories, air temperature (MAAT) during 116 precipitation, the relative amount of precipitation and altitude relative to sea level (Dansgaard, 117 1964; Rozanski et al., 1992; Fricke and O'Neil, 1999). At mid- and high-latitudes (tropical

118 bands excluded), MAAT of areas close to oceanic moisture sources are linearly related to the 119 weighted mean annual  $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$  (Dansgaard, 1964; Yurtsever, 1975; von Grafenstein et al., 120 1996; Fricke and O'Neil, 1999; Skrzypek et al., 2011; Lécuyer, 2013). This property of the 121 water cycle has already been used for the reconstruction of past air temperatures from the 122 oxygen isotope composition of vertebrate tooth enamel from large mammals (e.g., Ayliffe et 123 al., 1992; Bryant et al., 1994; Tütken et al., 2007; Bernard et al., 2009; Fabre et al., 2011).

124 The reconstruction of MAP from the carbon isotope composition of apatite carbonate was 125 made in several steps. In the first step, the  $\delta^{13}C$  values of plants ( $\delta^{13}C_{pl}$ ) can be estimated from 126 tooth enamel carbonate  $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}})$  taking into account the isotopic fractionation that takes 127 place between diet-derived carbon ingested by the herbivores and the carbon mineralized as 128 carbonate present in the apatite crystal lattice of their teeth (Tejada-Lara et al., 2018). In a 129 second step, MAP values are calculated using  $\delta^{13}C_{pl}$  and a transfer function based on plant 130 leaf discrimination factors (Kohn, 2010) that may be estimated in the case of animal diets 131 strictly based on Calvin Cycle (C3) plants. Atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub>-changes and reduced biomass 132 production by plants during glacials (Gerhart and Ward, 2010) may have led to some global 133 relative increase in the abundance of C4 plants, thus to some possible dietary changes, but 134 C3/C4 plant ratios within given biomes remained broadly stable if biome distributions 135 differed (Ehleringer, 2005). Moreover, C4 plants amount to only about 1% in the European 136 vegetation (Collins and Jones 1985). They are slightly more abundant in herb-dominated 137 biomes (see their taxonomic distribution in Pyankov et al. (2010). Now, if such biomes 138 experienced a ~ 10% relative increase over other biomes during the LGM (Binney et al., 139 2017), their content in C4 plants is unlikely to have increased as these plants are strongly 140 sensitive to temperatures (Pyankov et al., 2010), adding to the equivocal response of the 141 C4/C3 plant ratio of Poaceae, one of their major components, to  $pCO<sub>2</sub>$  changes (Wand et al.,

142 1999). One may thus assume a nearly exclusive C3-plant vegetation during the LGM interval 143 whatever the changes in biome distribution.

144 The goal of the present study is thus to build paleoclimate reconstructions for several 145 archaeological sites of the LGM (Figure 1) using the above isotopic approaches. The specific 146 sampled sites are Laugerie-Haute (Dordogne, France), El Cierro (Asturias Province), Hornos 147 de la Peña, El Pendo and El Ruso (Cantabria Province), Nerja (Málaga Province) and 148 Malladetes (Valencia Province). The present study provides the first quantitative information 149 about LGM-MAAT and -MAP ranges of these sites. They will be discussed in the light of 150 proxies based on pollen assemblages (continental climate) and foraminiferal- $\delta^{18}O$  data 151 (marine moisture sources), climatic model outputs, past topography, as well as in that of 152 reconstructed vegetation cover and faunal communities.

153

154 2. Archaeological sites and sample collection

155 2.1. Description of the sampled archaeological sites

156 *Laugerie Haute Est* (LHE) forms part of a much larger rock-shelter on the right bank of 157 the Vézère river in the Dordogne region of France (Fig. 1). The shelter, which is about 30 m 158 deep and 180 m long, is separated into two excavated sections (East and West) due to the 159 presence of a house occupying the centre of the shelter. First discovered at the end of the 19th 160 Century the site's stratigraphic integrity has come under close scrutiny (Texier, 2009; 161 Delpech, 2012; Verpoorte et al., 2019). The occupation sequence of the site spans the 162 Aurignacian and the Solutrean. For this study, level 4-8, attributed to Magdalenian II, level 163 10-16 (F. Bordes collection) attributed to Magdalenian I and level 18-20, attributed to 164 Magdalenian 0, were sampled. Biostratigraphically, levels attributed to Magdalenian I-III 165 form a unit, with faunal assemblages dominated by reindeer, while the Magdalenian 0 level, 166 which is dominated by horse, is distinct (Delpech, 2012). The Magdalenian levels are

167 bracketed by ages of  $\sim 23$  and  $\sim 21^{14}$ C cal. kyr (Delpech, 2012) and can thus be assigned to 168 the LGM. Four sites were sampled in northern Spain, including: El Ruso, Hornos de la Peña 169 and El Pendo in Cantabria, and El Cierro in Asturias (Fig. 1). El Ruso is a small cave located 170 about 6 km from the modern coastline, near El Pendo and El Juyo (unsampled). The cave 171 contains a sequence of occupation that spans from the Mousterian to the Solutrean Level 3, 172 the Upper Solutrean level sampled here overlies a Solutrean level (IV) dated  $20-19$  <sup>14</sup>C cal. 173 kyr (Yravedra, 2010a).

174 At El Pendo level 4, the samples are labelled "level 4" and attributed to the Upper 175 Solutrean. If this corresponds to level IV (Eschegaray excavations) this level is attributed to 176 the Late Aurignacian, although it is intercalated between Gravettian and Magdalenian levels 177 (Hoyos Gómez and Laville, 1982). Unfortunately, the stratigraphic integrity of this site is in 178 some doubt (de los Terreros and Castanedo, 2010; Barquin, 2014). Consequently, results from 179 this site must be interpreted with caution.

180 At Hornos de la Peña, we sampled level B. This level is dated  $23-21^{14}C$  cal. kyr and is 181 attributed to the Aurignacian in its lower part, and the Solutrean in its upper part (Breuil and 182 Obermeier, 1912 cited in Tejero et al., 2008; Yravedra, 2010b). The faunal assemblage at 183 Hornos de la Peña is dominated by horse (Tejero et al., 2008). At El Cierro (Asturias), 184 another deeply stratified cave site excavated by several different teams over the years, a 185 revised chronostratigraphy and several AMS dates are available (Alvarez-Fernandez et al., 186 2016). We sampled levels G (Magdalenian), G1 and H (Solutrean) which form part of the 187 earliest occupation sequence of the cave. AMS dates obtained for these levels indicate that the 188 site was occupied during the LGM  $(^{14}C$  cal. ages of 20–19 kyr) (Alvarez-Fernandez et al., 189 2016).

190 Two sites on the Mediterranean seaboard of Spain were sampled: Nerja and 191 Malladetes (aka Mallaetes) (Fig. 1). Nerja, the southernmost sample site, is a deeply stratified

192 cave located on the coastal plain of eastern Andalusia. The site contains one of the longest 193 occupation sequences in Mediterranean Spain, spanning the Gravettian to the Copper Age 194 (Aura Tortosa et al., 2006; Jordá Pardo and Aura Tortosa, 2008). Paleoclimate proxies and a 195 large number of recently reviewed radiocarbon dates provide a robust chronostratigraphic 196 frame for the sequence (Jordá Pardo and Aura Tortosa, 2008). Unit 8 (vestibule) was sampled 197 for this study. This unit contains Solutrean material and is generally considered to date to the 198 LGM, based on paleoclimate proxies and conventional and AMS radiocarbon dates yielding 199  $^{14}$ C cal. ages comprised between 23 and 21 kyr (Vallejo et al., 2005; Aura Tortosa et al., 2006), although a much younger and possibly unrepresentative AMS date ( $\approx 14.4$  <sup>14</sup>C cal. 201 kyr) has also been reported (Jordá Pardo and Aura Tortosa, 2008).

202 Malladetes (or Mallaetes) is located in the central Mediterranean region of Spain, in 203 Valencia. The levels sampled for this study include levels 7 (entrada D), 8 and 9 (entrada D) 204 which should be associated with the Gravettian (de la Peña Alonso, 2013). An AMS  $^{14}C$  cal. 205 age of 30–26 kyr was obtained from modern human remains associated with unspecified 206 Gravettian levels in sector E, likely corresponding to levels VII to XI (Fortea Perez and Jorda 207 Cerda, 1976; Arsuaga et al., 2002), indicate that our samples probably predate the LGM and 208 level 8 at Nerja (Fumanal and Dupré, 1983; Aura Tortosa et al., 2006).

209

#### 210 2.2. Sample collection

211 The samples recovered from the seven archaeological sites described above (Table 1) 212 include mammal remains assigned to Cervidae (*Cervus elaphus*, *Rangifer tarandus*), Equidae 213 (*Equus* sp.) and Caprinae (*Capra pyreneica*, *Rupicapra rupicapra, Saiga tatarica*). The 214 cervids (*Cervus elaphus*) and caprids (*Capra pyreneica*) were sampled as a priority, but 215 wherever these taxa were poorly represented, we sampled alternate species including smaller 216 cervids and small bovids. At Laugerie Haute Est and Hornos de la Peña we sampled horse 217 remains because of their abundance at both sites.

218

219 2.3. Habitat and diet of Cervidae, Equidae and Caprinae

220 *Cervus elaphus* (red deer) is a large mammal observed in semi-open habitats, often 221 found in forest margins and clearings, while it also occupied open environments such as 222 steppes during the Last Glacial (Straus, 1981; Bugalho and Milne, 2003). It tolerates a wide 223 range of temperature, as long as the habitat is not too dry. Its diet is highly eclectic and 224 seasonally variable, although it shows a 60-70% herbaceous source. *Cervus elaphus* mainly 225 browses leaves, conifer needles, twigs, nuts, shoots and bark of trees in winter, and grazes 226 more on grasses, herbs, ferns, mosses, mushrooms, sedges or even rushes, during the summer 227 and intermediate seasons.

228 *Rangifer tarandus* (reindeer) lives in subarctic and arctic regions (taiga and tundra), 229 however some sub-species such as *R. tarandus tarandus* (woodland caribou) occupy the 230 boreal forests (Ihl and Klein, 2001; Thompson et al., 2015) In winter, reindeers mainly feed 231 on lichens which they access by digging holes in the snow cover. In the mild seasons, their 232 diet is mainly based on grasses, green leaves of shrubs, tree bark and sedges as well as tree 233 shoots such as larch, willow and birch. Mushrooms are also consumed during the late summer 234 and early autumn.

235 *Equus caballus* (horse) was widely distributed in Eurasia and the Americas during the 236 late Pleistocene. Equids are adapted to open habitats and are found in steppe, tundra and taiga 237 habitats, as well as in more temperate grasslands. They are non-selective grazers and tolerate 238 a wide range of temperatures (Berger, 1986).

239 *Capra pyreneica* (ibex) is a montane species living exclusively in open environments 240 with high relief (cliffs and stone ravines; pastures in spring) at altitudes ranging from about

241 500 m to about 3500 m as observed in the Alps (Villaret et al., 1997). Its diet is essentially 242 composed of herbaceous plants.

243 *Rupicapra rupricapra* (chamois) feeds on herbs and lives in mountains meadows and 244 on the edge of forests. Chamois are well-adapted to rough terrain and tolerate a large range of 245 temperatures as low as -20 $^{\circ}$ C in winter and up to 25 $^{\circ}$ C in summer (Christie, 1967; La Morgia 246 and Bassano, 2009) although they are actually distributed in a wide range of temperate 247 conditions.

248 *Saiga tatarica* (Eurasian antelope) feeds on salt-coated herbs, some grasses (Poaceae), 249 Euphorbiaceae and Artemisia. This antelope lives in hilly areas and is considered an indicator 250 of a dry climate (steppe environment) with highly-seasonally contrasted temperatures 251 (Bekenov et al., 1998).

252 Among these large mammals, obligate to semi-obligate drinkers are horse (strict 253 obligate drinker), red deer (drinks large amounts of water during the warm season), reindeer 254 (free water in summer, snow during the cold season) whilst semi-obligate to non-obligate 255 drinkers are ibex, chamois and antelope that drink free water occasionally (Macdonald, 2006).

256

257 3. Sample preparation and isotopic analysis

258 The tooth samples were prepared and analyzed at the Stable Isotopes Laboratory of the 259 Geotop research center (Université du Québec à Montréal). Prior to any treatment, tooth 260 crowns were mechanically cleaned to remove any trace of remaining glue or altered hard 261 tissues. They were then immersed in an ultrasonic bath in order to eliminate potential remains 262 of sedimentary particles. From 10 mg to 20 mg of enamel powder samples were collected 263 using a micro-drill equipped with a diamond-studded drill bit. Grooves were drilled 264 perpendicularly to the tooth growth axis from the cervix to the apex of the tooth crown.

265 Following the protocol used by Vigeant et al. (2017), organic matter was removed from 266 tooth enamel apatite by soaking an aliquot of the untreated sample in a 2% sodium 267 hypochlorite (NaOCl) solution for 24 h. Then, the samples were rinsed with large amounts of 268 water, then dried before being treated with 1 M acetic acid-Ca acetate buffer ( $pH = 4.75$ ) for 269 24h at 20°C to remove secondary carbonate phases (Bocherens et al., 1996), and finally 270 washed with distilled water and dried at ambient temperature. For each sample, about 1 mg of 271 enamel powder was analyzed for  $\delta^{13}$ C-values (% VPDB) and  $\delta^{18}$ O-values (% VPDB) of the 272 carbonate using a Micromass Isoprime™ isotopic ratio mass spectrometer operated in dual 273 inlet mode and coupled to a Multicarb<sup>™</sup> system. Overall analytical uncertainties ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) for 274  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O were close to 0.05‰ and 0.1‰, respectively, based on statistics from replicate 275 measurement of samples, compared to  $\pm 0.02$  and  $\pm 0.03\%$ , respectively, on reference 276 carbonate materials (e.g., NBS 19, IAEA-603 and the home reference carbonate), thus 277 suggesting some isotopic heterogeneity in the ground carbonate samples.

278

279 4. Results

280 The dataset is characterized by  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O values ranging respectively from -12.89‰ 281 to  $-8.93\%$  (mean =  $-10.42\pm0.76\%$ ) and  $-8.65$  to  $-0.14\%$  (mean =  $-5.19\pm1.99\%$ ). An 282 examination of data compiled in Table 1 reveals that they form two distinct clusters 283 corresponding to sites located on the Atlantic side and along the Mediterranean coast (Figure 284 1). As a first approach, pooling the taxa in each geographic cluster reveals that the  $\delta^{18}O$ 285 values of mammal remains from Nerja and Malladetes have much higher  $\delta^{18}O$  values (-286 1.45±0.74) than those (-6.03±0.94) from the sites located on the Atlantic side (Table 1). The 287 difference is not so striking for  $\delta^{13}$ C values which average -10.60 $\pm$ 0.70‰ in the Atlantic sites, 288 i.e., slightly but significantly lower than that the mean value of Mediterranean sites, which is - 289 9.65 $\pm$ 0.44‰ (Welch t-test:  $p = 4.4x10^{-7}$ ; H<sub>0</sub> = means are equal).

290 Discrimination between the datasets increases further when distinguishing Cervidae from 291 Caprinae in the cluster of Atlantic sites, which removes a sampling bias as only Caprinae 292 were sampled in the Mediterranean sites. In the case of Cervidae, the distribution of data 293 satisfies the statistical criteria required by a normal distribution when using Shapiro-Wilk test 294 (p = 0.30 and W = 0.963 in the 95% critical range [0.937; 1.000] for  $\delta^{13}$ C values; p = 0.15 and 295 W = 0.953 in the 95% critical range [0.937; 1.000] for  $\delta^{18}$ O values). Similar conclusions are 296 obtained for the Caprinae when using Shapiro-Wilk test ( $p = 0.50$  and W = 0.964 in the 95% 297 critical range [0.920; 1.000]) for  $\delta^{13}$ C-values; p = 0.37 and W = 0.957 in the 95% critical 298 range [0.920; 1.000] for  $\delta^{18}$ O-values).

299 Cervidae have  $\delta^{13}$ C values ranging from -12.89‰ to -9.47‰ (mean = -10.96±0.66‰) 300 and  $\delta^{18}$ O values ranging from -8.65‰ to -3.67‰ (mean = -5.96±1.03‰) in the Atlantic sites. 301 These data statistically differ for  $\delta^{13}$ C values (Welch t-test: p = 1.03x10<sup>-6</sup>; H<sub>0</sub> = mean are 302 equal), but not for  $\delta^{18}O$  values (Welch t-test: p = 0.71; H<sub>0</sub> = mean are equal) of Caprinae 303 coming from the same sites (mean δ<sup>13</sup>C = -10.12±0.49‰ and mean δ<sup>18</sup>O = -6.06±0.88‰).

304 Caprinae from the Atlantic sites have slightly lower  $\delta^{13}$ C-values (-10.12±0.49‰ against -305 9.65 $\pm$ 0.44‰) and much lower  $\delta^{18}$ O-values (-6.06 $\pm$ 0.88‰ against -1.45 $\pm$ 0.74‰), than those 306 originating from Mediterranean sites with  $\delta^{13}$ C-values of -9.65 $\pm$ 0.44‰ and  $\delta^{18}$ O -values of -307 1.45 $\pm$ 0.74‰ (Welch t-test for  $\delta^{13}$ C: p = 3.6x10<sup>-3</sup>; H<sub>0</sub> = mean are equal; Welch t-test for  $\delta^{18}$ O: 308  $p = 1.7x10^{-16}$ ; H<sub>0</sub> = mean are equal).

309 Few samples are available for Equidae: 2 samples from Hornos de la Peña and 2 from 310 Laugerie-Haute, have  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  values in the range of values from other herbivorous 311 mammals at sites located on the Atlantic side. It is worth pointing out that no temporal trend 312 is observed for either  $\delta^{13}C$ - or  $\delta^{18}O$ -values of both Cervidae and Caprinae in the Atlantic sites 313 (Table 1). Nevertheless, whatever their age, Caprinae from this study are characterized by

314 Iower  $\delta^{18}$ O values and higher  $\delta^{13}$ C values than Cervidae. In addition, statistics that show a 315 normal distribution with relatively small standard deviations are consistent with inter-annual 316 variations of considered climatic parameters.

317

318 5. Discussion

319 5.1. Preservation and meaning of the isotopic compositions

320 Assessing the potential blurring effect of diagenetic processes represents the greatest 321 challenge for geochemists hoping to reconstruct environmental parameters based on isotopic 322 proxies. Biogenic apatites have undergone diagenesis, at least during the first step of the 323 mineral transformation commonly referred to as "early diagenesis", which follows the decay 324 of the organic matter. Changes in the content of major and trace elements of biogenic apatites 325 do not necessarily mean that their initial stable C- and O-isotope compositions have been 326 fully reset or even partly modified (Goedert et al., 2018). The acquisition of secondary 327 isotopic signatures mainly takes place during the first stages of burial, when processes of 328 mineral dissolution and recrystallization under microbially-mediated conditions may alter the 329 skeletal tissues (Kolodny et al., 1996; Trueman et al., 2003; Zazzo et al., 2004). Enamel is 330 considered a more suitable material for paleoenvironmental or paleoclimatic reconstructions 331 because its apatite carbonate fraction has been shown to be generally resistant to isotopic 332 alteration during early diagenesis due to its highly dense and packed crystallites (Zazzo et al., 333 2004).

334 Nonetheless, the preservation of pristine isotopic records needs to be assessed before 335 attempting paleoenvironmental interpretations of the oxygen and carbon isotope compositions 336 of fossil apatites. Whereas there is no method for determining whether the original isotopic 337 compositions are preserved, several tests may help assess the preservation state of the initial 338 isotopic signatures. In the present study, three complementary approaches are used:

339 i) Although  $\delta^{13}C$ - and  $\delta^{18}O$ -values may covariate in the case of specific climate variations, 340 usually detected through geographic or temporal trends (e.g., a combination of higher 341 precipitation and lower temperatures), a linear correlation generally indicates a mixing 342 relationship between two endmembers: the original isotopic signature and a contaminant, 343 such as soil carbonate. Our data do not reveal any such mixing (Atlantic sites  $\{2 \text{ outliers}\}\$ : n = 344 61;  $R^2 = 10^{-3}$ ;  $p = 0.76$  for H<sub>0</sub>: no correlation; Mediterranean sites:  $n = 13$ ;  $R^2 = 3 \times 10^{-2}$ ;  $p =$ 345  $0.57$  for H<sub>0</sub>: no correlation).

346 ii) Loose clusters and scrambling of isotopic compositions should affect all tooth material 347 independently of the taxa. Here, the systematic differences in  $\delta^{13}$ C- and  $\delta^{18}$ O-values of 348 Cervidae vs Caprinae supports the hypothesis of a preserved isotopic imprint of their 349 respective diets and habitats.

350

#### 351 5.2. Reconstitutions of MAP

#### 352 5.2.1. Method: principles and limits

353 The  $\delta^{13}$ C of consumed food by vertebrates mainly controls the  $\delta^{13}$ C of their skeleton 354 (Ambrose, 1993; Ballasse et al., 1999; Szostek, 2009). Carbon isotope ratios of apatite 355 carbonate may be considered as a "dirty window" that opens on a combination of factors: the 356 diet, the degree of openness of the environment (exposure to light) and the amount of 357 precipitation. The reconstruction of MAP is thus done in two steps.

358 The first step consists in converting the  $\delta^{13}C$  of carbonate ( $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ ) into the  $\delta^{13}C$  of diet 359 ( $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$ ), and the second one in converting the  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{diet}}$  into MAP values (mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>). As a MAP 360 proxy,  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>carb</sub> is basically tarnished with several important sources of uncertainty. Therefore, 361 we consider that only broad estimates may be obtained. The commonly used isotopic  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$  $362$   $-δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>diet</sub>$  offset value ( $Δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>pl</sub>$ ) of 14.1‰ (Cerling and Harris, 1999) cannot be used in this study 363 as it varies from one species to another. More recently, Tejada-Lara et al. (2018) proposed a 364 series of equations that consider the specificities in the digestive system as well as the body 365 mass of different herbivorous mammals. Calculations of  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{dict}}$  of the study taxa in Table 1 366 follow this model. It must be kept in mind that animal diets do not necessarily reflect the 367 composition of the vegetation cover; the stricter an animal's food preferences, the larger the 368 bias between the isotopic composition of the diet and that of the vegetation cover.

369 The second step consists in estimating MAP from the  $\delta^{13}C$  of vegetation, here 370 assumed to be close to  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub>. The empirical relationship proposed by Rey et al. (2013), 371 which we will use below, is valid if the vegetation cover was composed of C3 plants. This is 372 still an open debate, however, and conflicting reconstructions of the LGM paleovegetation of 373 western Europe from models vs pollen data exist in the literature (e.g., Elenga et al., 2000; 374 Leng, 2006; Woillez et al., 2011; Hatté et al., 2013; Binney et al., 2017; see a discussion and 375 an explanatory hypothesis in Kaplan et al., 2016). Thus, our estimates of MAP from  $\delta^{13}$ C data 376 must be seen as a first approximation that needs to be confronted with estimates from other 377 approaches. The method established by Rey et al. (2013), using a least square regression from 378 the dataset of Kohn (2010), is based on relationship (1) below, established between plant leaf 379 discrimination ( $\Delta^{13}C_{pl}$ ) as defined above and mean annual precipitations (MAP):

$$
180 \qquad Log_{10}(MAP + 300) = 0.092(\pm 0.004)\Delta^{13}C_{pl} + 1.148(\pm 0.074) \tag{1}
$$

381 with 
$$
\Delta^{13}C_{pl} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{atm} - \delta^{13}C_{pl}}{1 + \frac{\delta^{13}C_{pl}}{1000}}
$$
 and MAP in mm yr<sup>-1</sup>

382  $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$  values of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> have been measured in air bubbles trapped within the 383 Vostok ice cores between 20 and 43 ka (Leuenberger et al., 1992; Schmitt et al., 2012). For 384 the LGM, this value has been estimated to be close to -7‰ (VPDB). Calculations of MAP are 385 given in Table 1. However, this equation does not consider the pCO<sub>2</sub> effect on  $\delta^{13}C$  values of 386 the vegetation (Farquhar et al., 1982; Schubert and Jahren, 2012). Hare et al. (2018) related 387 the  $\delta^{13}$ C increase by  $\approx 1\%$  of plants and faunal collagen to the low pCO<sub>2</sub> values ( $\approx 180$  ppm) 388 of the LGM relatively to those ( $\approx$  300 ppm) of the post deglacial rise that took place about 15 389 kyr ago (Peacock et al., 2006). Consequently, it is most likely that our calculated MAP values 390 according to equation (1) are underestimated by about 150 mm  $y^{-1}$ . Final estimates from the 391 model will thus be corrected using this offset.

392 The validity and robustness of this empirical approach were tested successfully in a study 393 (Prud'homme et al., 2018) devoted to the reconstruction of MAP in Germany (Nussloch) 394 during the Last Glacial, which was based on the  $\delta^{13}$ C of earthworm granule calcite crystals. In 395 this study, the estimated MAP values range from  $\sim$  270 to 460 mm with a mean value of  $\sim$ 396 370 mm for the Upper Pleniglacial (~LGM) and of ~ 300 mm, for the Middle Pleniglacial, 397 covering a time interval between 17 ka and 55 ka. Uncertainties associated with the estimated 398 MAP values are on the order of  $\pm$  100 to 200 mm. Based on  $\delta^{13}$ C values of organic matter 399 preserved in the Nussloch loess deposits and using an inverse modelling approach (BIOME 400 4), Hatté and Guiot (2005) estimated MAP values ranging from  $280^{+120}_{-60}$  to  $460^{+80}_{-160}$  mm. 401 Considering the large uncertainties associated with the various methods of MAP 402 reconstructions, Prud'homme et al. (2018) concluded that the empirical method developed by 403 Kohn (2010) may be used for MAP estimates in the absence of other proxies or modelling 404 approaches.

405

# 406 5.2.2. Interpretation

407 The reconstructed  $\delta^{13}$ C-values of animal diet ( $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub>) suggest that they mainly fed on 408 C3 plants as revealed by a mean  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub> of -23.5±1.0‰ for the whole data base (Table 1), 409 thus supporting the scenario of a C3-plant dominated vegetational cover (compare with Hare 410 et al., 2018). The C3 Calvin-Benson pathway (~75 wt% of the present-day vegetal biomass 411 including trees, temperate grasses, some forbs, shrubs) is the most discriminating regarding 412 the heavy carbon isotopes, thus leading to low  $\delta^{13}$ C values ranging from -34‰ to -22‰ and 413 averaging -26‰ (Park and Epstein, 1960; 1961; Smith and Epstein, 1971; O'Leary, 1981). 414 Variations within this range of  $\delta^{13}C$  values result from external factors such as air 415 temperature, water stress, exposure to light,  $\delta^{13}C$  of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, pCO<sub>2</sub> and rate of CO<sub>2</sub> 416 recycling (O'Leary, 1981). Worth mentioning is the fact that a  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub> of -23.5±1.0‰ could 417 as well be compatible with a diet of up to ~ 20% of C4 plants, as illustrated for grazers from 418 modern steppe environments (Auerswald et al., 2009). Interestingly, this study also 419 demonstrates that despite a large overall variability of the relative abundance of C4- vs C3- 420 plants, no preferential grazing is observed.

421 Nevertheless, on the Atlantic side of the Iberian Peninsula, Caprinae have higher  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub> 422 (mean =  $-22.8\pm0.5\%$ ) than Cervidae and Equidae (mean for both =  $-24.3\pm0.6\%$ ), all 423 populations being characterized by normal distributions (Caprinae:  $p = 0.11$  and  $W = 0.953$  in 424 the 95% critical range [0.944; 1.000]; Cervidae and Equidae:  $p = 0.19$  and  $W = 0.960$  in the 425 95% critical range [0.942; 1.000]). Such distinct carbon isotope compositions reflect diet 426 differences related to distinct habitats or grazing habits (Figure 2). This observation is in 427 agreement with Jones et al. (2020) who concluded that ibex adapted their niche during the 428 LGM.

Among Cervidae, *C. elaphus* have lower  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub> values (mean = -24.4±0.6‰) than *T*. 430 *rangifer* (mean = -23.2±0.36‰), even though only three samples were available of *C.*  431 *elaphus*. A higher  $\delta^{13}$ C<sub>diet</sub> for reindeers, relative to other animals, has been explained by their 432 specific diet mainly based on lichens, especially consumed during the cold season (Park and 433 Epstein, 1960; Máguas and Brugnoli, 1996; Ben-David et al., 2001)

434 Based on the estimated  $δ$ <sup>13</sup>C<sub>diet</sub> values, MAP values were calculated in the range  $\sim$  100 to 435  $\,$  400 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> for Atlantic sites (100 to 200 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> recorded by Caprinae and 200 to 400

436 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> recorded by Cervidae and Equidae), while they are close to 100 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> for the two 437 Mediterranean sites (Table 2). The present-day reference values (Table 2) extracted from 438 meteorological records (IAEA/WMO database) correspond to cities in the vicinity of the 439 studied archaeological sites, specifically Almeria  $(202\pm66 \text{ mm.yr}^{-1})$ , for the Nerja site, 440 Valencia (532 $\pm$ 173 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>), for the Malladetes site, Santader (1050 $\pm$ 140 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>), for the 441 sites located in Asturias and Cantabria (Spain), and Cestas-Pierroton (937 $\pm$ 192 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>), for 442 the Laugerie-Haute site. The Caprinae record of drier environmental conditions than those 443 inferred from Cervidae and Equidae, suggests differences in diets and/or seasonal/altitudinal 444 grazing habitats between some of the representative herbivorous species sampled.

445 Diet preferences between C3 and C4 may cause  $\delta^{13}$ C differences by several  $\%$  between 446 sheep and goat, for example, as shown by Balasse and Ambrose (2005) for C4 grassland 447 environments of the Central Rift Valley of Kenya. However, C4 was most likely absent or 448 very scarce in the studied LGM-environments (Collins and Jones, 1985).  $\delta^{13}$ C differences 449 among C3-eating large mammals may result from differences in water stress and/or exposure 450 to light (O'Leary, 1981). It means that  $\delta^{13}C$  values of Caprinae should be higher than those of 451 Cervidae and Equidae if the Caprinae habitat was open (sparse vegetation cover in a rocky 452 environment) and characterized by a vegetation submitted to water stress (e.g. dry sides of 453 mountains).

454 Nevertheless, during the LGM, precipitation followed a pattern similar to the modern one 455 (Figure 3), with sites under Atlantic vs Mediterranean influence defining two distinct clusters. 456 The Mediterranean cluster is significantly drier than the Atlantic one, but both depict much 457 drier conditions than at present. LGM precipitation estimates obtained here broadly agree 458 with pollen-based reconstructions (e.g., Peyron et al., 1998), but disagree with the wetter 459 conditions reconstructed from climate model experiments (e.g., Ludwig et al., 2016; Arpe et 460 al., 2011).

# 462 5.3. Reconstitutions of MAAT

463 5.3.1. Method: principles and limits

464 Oxygen isotope ratios of apatite carbonate may be seen as a "frosted glass window" open 465 on the composition of dietary sources of water and local meteoric water, ultimately used as a 466 proxy for air temperatures (e.g. Fricke and O'Neil, 1998; Daux et al., 2005). The  $\delta^{18}O$  of 467 consumed water by vertebrates mainly controls the  $\delta^{18}O_c$  of their skeleton (Longinelli, 1984; 468 Kohn, 1996). The oxygen isotope composition of leaf water can somewhat blur the 469 relationship between the  $\delta^{18}O_c$  of apatite carbonate and the  $\delta^{18}O$  of drinking water (Ayliffe 470 and Chivas, 1990; Cormie et al., 1994; Luz et al., 1990; Pederzani and Britton, 2019). It 471 constitutes, however, a good indicator of aridity (Levin et al., 2016; Blumenthal et al., 2017).

472 In this approach, the reconstitution of MAAT is done in four steps.

473 First, oxygen isotope compositions of apatite carbonate  $(\delta^{18}O_c)$  measured on the VPDB 474 scale (Coplen et al., 1983) must be converted into those of their phosphate counterparts 475  $(\delta^{18}O_p)$  before being used to estimate the composition of drinking water on the basis of the 476 equations available in the literature. This step is achieved by using equation (2) that was 477 determined by Iacumin et al. (1996) for modern herbivorous mammals. Unfortunately, this 478 step is a source of large uncertainties ( $\delta^{18}O_p$ : standard error of estimate = 0.73). We computed 479 Equation (2) using the original data set published in Iacumin et al. (1996) in order to tighten 480 uncertainties as follows:

481 
$$
\delta^{18}O_p = 0.975(\pm 0.031) \delta^{18}O_c - 8.43(\pm 0.81) \quad (n = 17; R^2 = 0.985)
$$
 (2)

482 The second step consists in calculating the oxygen isotope composition of water 483 consumed (free water and water derived from the food such as leaves and herbs) by the 484 animals. Several oxygen isotope fractionation equations between apatite phosphate  $(\delta^{18}O_p)$ 485 and water  $(\delta^{18}O_w)$  have been published for large herbivorous mammals, covering all taxa 486 investigated in the present study. It is worthy to note that animal physiology is integrated in 487 the oxygen isotope fractionation equations (Longinelli, 1984; Luz and Kolodny, 1985; Kohn, 488 1996; Langlois et al., 2003) that have been established on present-day fauna, either the same 489 species or close relatives. The relevant equations have also been recalculated to set the  $\delta^{18}O_w$ 490 variable as the estimator (Y-axis) in the regression line along with the associated statistics, as 491 follows:

492 - Deer (*Cervus elaphus*) (D'Angella and Longinelli, 1990):

493 
$$
\delta^{18}O_w = 0.88(\pm 0.03)\delta^{18}O_p - 22.50(\pm 0.52) \qquad (n = 7; R^2 = 0.99)
$$
 (3)

494 - Reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus*) (Iacumin and Longinelli, 2002):

495 
$$
\delta^{18}O_w = 1.21(\pm 0.01)\delta^{18}O_p - 26.41(\pm 1.31) \qquad (n = 34; R^2 = 0.74)
$$
 (4)

496 Note that 2 outliers were removed from the original database for the setting of equation 4, as 497 recommended by Iacumin and Longinelli (2002).

- 498 Horse (*Equus burchelli, E. zebra, E. caballus*) (Bryant et al., 1994; Sanchez Chillon et al.,
- 499 1994; Delgado-Huertas et al., 1995):

500 
$$
\delta^{18}O_w = 1.09(\pm 0.128)\delta^{18}O_p - 25.83(\pm 1.08) \qquad (n = 25; R^2 = 0.77)
$$
 (5)

501 Note again that 2 outliers were removed from the original database deduced from linear 502 regression analysis

503 - Wild Goat (*Capra hircus and C. ibex*) (Delgado-Huertas et al., 1995)

504 
$$
\delta^{18}
$$
O<sub>w</sub> = 1.09( $\pm$ 0.06) $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>p</sub> - 26.45( $\pm$ 0.98)   
 ( $n = 21$ ;  $R^2 = 0.95$ )   
 (6)

505 A major caveat here is the possibility of distinct  $\delta^{18}O_w$  vs  $\delta^{18}O_p$  relationships during 506 the cold LGM, due to reduced evapotranspiration (e.g., Kohn, 1996). Isotope enrichment from 507 precipitation to plant-water and finally to the animal body-water could have prevailed. Thus, 508 under LGM conditions, the  $\delta^{18}O_w$ -value calculated with the above equations must be seen as a 509 maximum value.

510 The third step consists in correcting the  $\delta^{18}$ O of seawater from the volume of 511 continental ice. Indeed, any change in the isotopic composition of oceanic sources will 512 propagate throughout the entire surface water cycle. Knowing that the mean depth of the 513 oceans is 3,700 m (Charette and Smith, 2010), a decrease in sea level by 120 $\pm$ 10 m (Lambeck 514 et al., 2014) results in a mean increase of the global ocean reservoir  $\delta^{18}$ O-value by +1.2±0.1‰ 515 provided the mean  $\delta^{18}O$  of the LGM ice-sheets is close to -40% (Blunier and Brook, 2001). 516 This isotopic offset is very close to that proposed by Schrag et al. (2002) and Steele et al. 517 (2009), but perhaps a little overestimated, based on isotopic composition for the Laurentide 518 Ice Sheet proposed by Hillaire-Marcel and Causse (1989) or Sima et al. (2006). Duplessy et 519 al. (2002) proposed an offset of 1.05 $\pm$ 0.20‰ probably encompassing the effective overall 520 change in the ocean isotopic composition. However, moisture sources relate to ocean surface 521 water masses: their isotopic composition differs from that of the whole ocean, and may show 522 large regional offsets, especially in the present case, between the Bay of Biscay and the 523 western Mediterranean. The Bay of Biscay was likely the major moisture supplier for the 524 Atlantic sites, whereas a mixture of Atlantic and western Mediterranean moisture supplies 525 may be hypothesized for the Mediterranean sites. The two marine areas were of course 526 characterized by distinct MAAT, mean salinity and isotopic composition.

527 Based on Schrag et al. (2002), one may assume an isotopic composition of surface 528 waters from the northeast North Atlantic in the +0.7±0.1 to +0.8±0.1‰ range vs VSMOW, a 529 range compatible with model estimates from Paul et al. (2001). According to Loncaric et al. 530 (1998), MAAT depicted large amplitude oscillations between <5°C and up to 15°C, with a 531 mean value of about 7 to 9°C (e.g., Kuhlemann et al., 2008). Comparatively, surface waters  $532$  from the western Mediterranean were not only warmer but enriched in  $^{18}O$ . Planktic 533 foraminifera (Hayes et al., 2005) and biomarkers (Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., 2014), both 534 suggesting a mean LGM sea-surface temperature (SST) of  $\sim 13.5^{\circ}$ C, whereas  $\delta^{18}$ Ocarb values 535 reported from this sector of the Mediterranean during the same interval range from 536 +3.5±0.5‰ vs VPDB in planktic foraminifera (Thunell and Williams, 1989) to +3.9±0.2 ‰ in 537 shallow mollusk shells (Fergusson et al., 2011). Combining these values, one may set the 538 LGM  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ -value at about +3‰ vs VSMOW in the western Mediterranean, to be compared 539 with a modern value of ~ +1.3‰ (Goddard Institute data base; Schmidt et al., 1999; see also 540 Benetti et al., 2017). Potential moisture generated during the evaporation of the western 541 Mediterranean Sea, which had a  $\delta^{18}O$  higher than the Atlantic Ocean by ~ +2‰, may thus 542 have played some role during the LGM. However, climate models suggest a southward shift 543 of the North Atlantic jet stream during the LGM, governing the relatively abundant winter 544 precipitation in comparison with summer rains which were somewhat controlled by local 545 processes (e.g., Beghin et al., 2016). Thus, the most likely LGM moisture source, for both the 546 Mediterranean and the Atlantic sites, would have been the northeastern North Atlantic Ocean, 547 leading to adopt the  $\delta^{18}O_{sw} \sim +0.8\%$  value for the primary source water, and allowing for 548 some <sup>18</sup>O-enriched precipitation in summer, influenced by the high  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ -values of the 549 western Mediterranean waters  $({\sim} + 3\%)$ . Perhaps worth of mention here is the fact that under 550 the modern conditions, i.e., with a  $\Delta \delta^{18}$ O offset of ~ +0.8‰ between surface waters of the 551 western Mediterranean ( $\delta^{18}O_{sw} \sim 1.3\%$ ) and those of the northeastern North Atlantic ( $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ 552 ~ 0.5‰; Benetti et al., 2017), the long-term isotopic composition of precipitation in both areas 553 is almost similar (~ -6‰; Araguas-Araguas et al., 2005), thus pointing even today to a major 554 contribution of Atlantic moisture sources to precipitation on the Iberian Peninsula.

555 We used the  $+0.8\%$  offset between modern vs LGM moisture sources as a base line 556 for both regions and subtracted it from the  $\delta^{18}O_w$ -values derived from equations (3) to (6) (see 557 Table 1). Nevertheless, we also increased this offset to +1.2‰ for the Mediterranean sites, a 558 value that would account for about 20% of Mediterranean moisture source supplies on a 559 yearly basis, based on the  $\sim 2\%$  offset in  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ -values between the Bay of Biscay and the 560 Western Mediterranean. Again, this seems a reasonable estimate considering the regional 561 atmospheric circulation in SW Europe during the LGM (cf. Ludwig et al., 2016; see also 562 Kuhlemann et al., 2008; Beghin et al., 2016).

563 The fourth step aims at converting  $\delta^{18}O_w$  to MAAT. Here again, one may question 564 whether or not present-day relationships fully apply to the LGM. Firstly, all of the sites of the 565 present study are close to coastlines, thus, they are not affected by continental Rayleigh-566 evolution of humid air-masses or by major altitudinal effects (e.g., Gat et al., 2001), a process 567 well illustrated by Rozanski et al. (1982) for inland precipitation patterns in Europe. Isotopic 568 compositions of precipitation at the study sites should then follow a relatively linear 569 relationship with mean annual temperatures, as observed at global scale, despite some 570 latitudinal/regional variations in the slope and intercept of the local regression lines (e.g., Lee 571 et al., 2008). The slope of a MAT- $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$  linear relationship is mainly temperature– 572 dependent at mid- and high-latitudes. This point is firstly well illustrated by the existence of a 573 strongly positive linear correlation ( $R^2 = 0.83$ ) between the dew point ( $T_d$ ) and the oxygen 574 isotope composition of meteoric water (Figure 4). T*d*, expressed in °C, represents the 575 temperature at which the actual water vapour pressure equals the saturated water vapour 576 pressure (RH = 100%). This climatic parameter plays a key role in the distribution of  $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ 577 over the continental masses located in the mid-latitudes (Lécuyer et al., 2020). Secondly, 578 there is a unique MAT– $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$  linear relationship for present-day (Figure 5A) for latitudes > 579 32°, even if it samples various continental areas from both hemispheres, which are submitted 580 to various moisture-bearing prevailing winds.

581 The MAAT (in  $^{\circ}$ C) vs  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>w</sub> linear relationship from equation (7), established for 582 Europe (Skrzypek et al., 2011), is indistinguishable in terms of slope and intercept from 583 equation (8) obtained at a global scale (Figure 5A). For a reliable comparison, equation (8)

584 was computed by excluding data from the tropics as well as those corresponding to air 585 temperatures lower than 0°C (Figure 5B).

586 
$$
MAAT(^{\circ}C) = 1.41 \delta^{18}O_{w-MAP} + 21.63
$$
 (7)

587 where MAT represents the mean annual temperature and  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$ , the weighted mean 588 isotopic composition of annual precipitation.

589 MAAT (
$$
^{\circ}
$$
C) = 1.40( $\pm$ 0.08)  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>w-MAP</sub>+ 21.86( $\pm$ 0.64) (8)

590  $(n = 90; R^2 = 0.81)$ 

591 Equation (7) was thus used to calculate MAAT (reported in Table 1) during the LGM in 592 southwestern Europe. There are three caveats when using this method:

593 1) Altitude effect: in Spain, the rate of air-temperature decrease with altitude is close to  $5^{\circ}$ C 594 per 1000 m in mountain areas (Navarro-Serrano et al., 2018). In the Pyrenees, altitudinal 595 oxygen isotope gradients average -3‰ per 1000 m (Hughes et al., 2018), a value within 596 the range observed in southern Europe (e.g., Tazioli et al., 2019). Consequently, 597 differences between present-day reference stations (cities are close to sea-level) and 598 mammal ranges (between 0 and 1000 m) during the LGM may lead to overestimates of 599 temperature differences by about 2°C in northern Spain and up to 4°C in south and 600 southeast Spain.

601 2) Source effect: the source of drinking water may differ isotopically from local meteoric 602 waters, for example in rivers since their sources are located at altitudes. A comparison 603 between present-day river and precipitation  $\delta^{18}$ O maps (Nan et al., 2019) reveals that 604 differences between those two parameters are close to 2‰ over Europe on a yearly 605 average. Once again, true air temperatures may be higher than those calculated following 606 the above method. Similarly, animals that seasonally migrate may have a  $\delta^{18}O_w$  record 607 that is biased relative to their place of death.

608 3) Reservoir effect: water stored in ponds, lakes or in snow cover may suffer evaporation or 609 sublimation that tends to enrich the residual liquid–solid water in heavy isotopes. Such 610 processes may induce oxygen isotope biases in the order of a few per mil.

611 However, a sporadic influence of the above boundary conditions on the isotopic approach 612 should be detectable by altering the normal distribution of the studied population; which does 613 not seem to be the case here.

614

615 5.3.2. Interpretation

616  $\delta^{18}O_{w\text{-MAP}}$  have been calculated according either to ocean surface water having a  $\delta^{18}O$  of 617 +1.2 or +0.8‰. Inferred temperatures using equation (7) are shifted by  $\approx +0.6^{\circ}$ C. In the case 618 of a prevailing oceanic surface source of moisture having a  $\delta^{18}O$  of +1.2‰, calculated mean 619  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$  are -10.1 $\pm 0.9\%$  (n = 46) and -10.3 $\pm 1.0\%$  (n = 17) for northern Spain and 620 Laugerie-Haute, respectively (Table 1). Pooled data follow a normal distribution (Figure 6) 621 according to the Shapiro-Wilk test ( $p = 0.26$  and  $W = 0.976$  in the 95% critical range [0.9620; 622 1.000]). The range of  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$  values comprised between ~ -12‰ and ~ -8‰ correspond to 623 present-day compositions of precipitation in south Scandinavia and Central Europe 624 (IAEA/WMO database and maps). Calculated mean  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$  are -5.4 $\pm 0.8\%$  (n = 8) and -625 5.8±0.8‰ (n = 6) for Malladetes and Nerja, respectively. Pooled data follow a normal 626 distribution (Figure 6) according to the Shapiro-Wilk test ( $p = 0.93$  and W = 0.975 in the 95% 627 critical range [0.875; 1.000]). The range of  $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$  values between ~ -7‰ and ~ -4‰ 628 correspond to present-day compositions of precipitation along the Mediterranean rim 629 (IAEA/WMO database and maps).

630 The calculated  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$  values based on a  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  of +0.8% range from ~ 6°C to ~ 631 10°C for Atlantic sites. This range may be explained by altitudinal gradients recorded by the 632 faunal remains and/or by the large amplitude oscillations of LGM-SST and LGM- $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carb}}$ 

633 values in the Bay of Biscay reported by Loncaric et al. (1998). It is interesting that the range 634 of temperature inferred for the Atlantic sites in the present study is within the range proposed 635 by these authors for surface waters of the Bay of Biscay during the LGM. On the 636 Mediterranean side, the estimated LGM-MAAT values are close to 14–15°C for both sites 637 ( $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  of +0.8% $\omega$ ) or close to 13.5–14.5°C ( $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  of +1.2% $\omega$ ) when accounting for some 638 contribution of Mediterranean moisture to summer precipitations (Table 2). Here also, this 639 value is practically identical to LGM-SST values in the Western Mediterranean estimated by 640 Hayes et al. (2005) or by Rodrigo-Gámiz et al., (2014).

641 The air temperatures reconstructed during the LGM are lower than the present-day ranges 642 recorded in meteorological stations located either in the vicinity of the Atlantic sites 643 (Santander: 14.8±0.4°C and Cestas-Pierroton: 13.1±0.6°C), or close to the Mediterranean 644 sites (Almeria: 19.2±0.4°C; Valencia: 18.5±0.6°C). As shown in Figure 7, MAAT decreased 645 during the LGM from South to North according to a trend roughly similar to the modern one. 646 As a whole, MAAT values in southern Spain were about  $4-5^{\circ}$ C below modern pre-industrial 647 temperatures, and by  $5-8$ °C in northern Spain and southwest France (Figure 7).

648

649 5.4. LGM climate inferred from large mammal isotopes and biogeographic patterns.

650 Faunal associations described in the archaeological sites of southwestern Europe are 651 generally compatible with cold and dry, open environments, such as tundra and dry steppe, 652 but there are important regional differences. The sites sampled in this study are from three 653 distinct biogeographic zones, following the classification suggested by Yravedra and Brugal 654 (2005) for southwestern Europe. The zones sampled for this study are: southwest France 655 (zone VI), Cantabria/Asturias (zone IV) and the Mediterranean coast (zone IIIa). A general 656 reduction in faunal diversity is observable in Southwestern Europe during the LGM, signaling 657 the severity of the climate downturn, but the relative diversity of herbivores and carnivores 658 differs between zones. Diversity decreases in zone VI reaching minimum levels during the 659 LGM, in zone IV (Cantabria/Asturias) diversity also decreases but reaches a minimum after 660 the LGM, while carnivore diversity actually increases with time, whereas the opposite pattern 661 occurs in zone IIIa (e.g., Valencia) where a gradual increase in herbivore diversity is 662 observable over the course of the last Glacial (Yravedra and Brugal, 2005).

663 In SW France (zone VI), horse dominates sites such as Laugerie Haute Est at the 664 beginning of the LGM (e.g., in the Magdalenian 0 level; Table 1) but reindeer, a taxon 665 associated with tundra environments, increases dramatically in importance throughout the 666 sequence, eventually dominating during Magdalenian I and II (see: Delpech, 2012). In 667 northwest Spain (zone IV), on the other hand red deer, a taxon generally considered more 668 indicative of temperate, wooded contexts often dominates late Glacial faunal assemblages, 669 while the proximity of sites to the coastal ranges is signaled by the presence of ibex and 670 chamois (Straus, 2018). Our results are consistent with the biogeographic patterns described 671 above, indicating strong contrasts between Mediterranean sites (in Zone IIIa) and sites in 672 zones IV and VI in terms of MAAT and MAP.

673 During the LGM, tundra extended across northern Europe while steppes dominated 674 the Mediterranean areas, resulting in a geographic reduction and fragmentation of boreal 675 evergreen forests (taiga) and temperate deciduous forests (Tarasov et al., 2000). The mean 676 value of 350 $\pm$ 100 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> reconstructed for MAP from the  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$  of the dental apatite of 677 herbivorous mammals (above) is consistent with this observation. However, a few samples of 678 *Cervus elaphus* from zone IV, El Cierro and El Ruso, the closest to the Atlantic ocean depict 679 a  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ -value low enough to suggest that some years or periods in the year were 680 characterized by MAP  $>$  500 mm. vr<sup>-1</sup>. This could mean that the climate in northern Spain was 681 rather unstable at inter-decadal or inter-centennial scales towards the end of the LGM, or 682 simply that *C. elaphus* used a large seasonal altitudinal range, as observed in modern 683 specimens in the Alps (Luccarini et al., 2006) or from the Rockies (Morgantini et al., 1989).

684 Geochemical proxies similar to those used in this study were applied to faunal remains 685 (horse, deer and ibex) recovered from the archaeological site of Peña Capón (Yravedra et al., 686 2016), a rock shelter located in central Iberia which contains sedimentary deposits assigned to 687 Marine Isotope Stage 2 (MIS 2). Yravedra et al. (2016) estimated MAAT for archaeological 688 Levels with a <sup>14</sup>C cal. age of ~23.8 kyr, ranging from 9°C to 12°C, i.e. only slightly below the 689 present-day MAAT of 12°C–13°C recorded in the locality of Muriel. These estimates for the 690 central part of the Iberian Peninsula may reflect milder conditions prior to the onset of the 691 LGM. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that they are bracketed by our results. It is also 692 worthy to note that ibex recorded higher  $\delta^{13}$ C values and lower  $\delta^{18}$ O values than the other co-693 habitating mammals such as Cervidae and Equidae. These data point to a specific habitat for 694 Caprinae as recently suggested by Jones et al. (2020) who analyzed both carbon and nitrogen 695 isotope compositions of bone collagen. These authors concluded that the existence of refugia 696 in south Europe allowed most herbivores to adapt despite harsh and fluctuating climatic 697 conditions.

698 The LGM climate conditions have been reconstructed from palynological data (e.g., 699 Peyron et al., 1998). In the north of Spain (Lago Ajo) and in the south (Padul), MAAT values 700 were estimated in the 10°C to 5°C range. Palynological estimates of MAP, range from 900- 701 600 mm in the north of Spain, to close to 200 mm in the south. The temperatures from 702 palynological records are congruent with the estimates of the present study. However, 703 whereas paleoprecipitation estimates from palynology or from the present isotopic approach 704 fit well in zone IIIa, on the Mediterranean side, the MAP estimates for Northern Spain from 705 pollen proxies are somewhat higher than those based on  $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$  values. This leads us to 706 consider the possibility that isotopic reconstructions, such as used here, vs reconstructions 707 from transfer function using palynological assemblages, do not necessarily encompass the 708 same space-time dimensions. For example, differences in the seasonality of pollen production 709 and patterns of altitudinal grazing may result in distinct signals.

710 As mentioned above, the study sites are close to either the Bay of Biscay (in zones IV 711 and VI) or the western Mediterranean (zone IIIa). Hayes et al. (2005) and Rodrigo-Gámiz et 712 al. (2014) estimated LGM-SSTs of ~ 13.5°C off the Mediterranean coastline of Spain, 713 whereas Kucera et al. (2005) estimated LGM-SST of ~ 8°C for the Bay of Biscay on the basis 714 of foraminifera  $\delta^{18}O$  values. Both values fit with the corresponding inland, but coastal 715 temperatures reconstructed here, highlighting the strong influence of adjacent marine basin 716 SSTs on proximal inland MAAT. Moreover, these temperature estimates based on marine as 717 well as on continental proxies, enforce the hypothesis of cold regional conditions as well as of 718 a marked difference between the Atlantic and Mediterranean zones; the latter being less 719 affected by global LGM cooling.

720 At odds with these results are the model outputs of paleo-glaciers (Allen et al., 2008), 721 which provided both large amounts of precipitation (1000 to 1400 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>) and temperature 722 anomalies from -16°C to -11°C in northern and southern Spain, respectively. Such climatic 723 patterns cannot be easily reconciled with the present knowledge of the LGM vegetation cover 724 and faunal associations (Sommer and Nadachowski, 2006; Benito Garzón et al., 2007; 725 Morales-Molino and García-Antón, 2014; Binney et al., 2017; Quinzin et al., 2017).

726 Atmosphere-ocean global climate models (GCMs) computed global mean LGM-air 727 temperatures  $4^{\circ}$ C to  $7^{\circ}$ C lower than Present, when adding feedback effects due to changes in 728 the vegetation cover and the amount of atmospheric dust (Crucifix and Hewitt, 2005; Jansen 729 et al., 2007; Roche et al., 2007; Cao et al., 2019). In southwest Europe, the air temperature 730 anomaly was estimated between -8°C and -4°C based on a multi-model regression of proxy 731 data and PMIP2 model output (Annan and Hargreaves, 2013). Mean annual air temperatures 732 anomalies were also estimated in the range -10°C to -5°C for ice-free areas of Europe, based 733 on a regional climate model (Strandberg et al., 2011). Jost et al. (2005) emphasized the need 734 of high-resolution spatial climate models to solve discrepancies with reconstructions based on 735 proxies such as pollen assemblages. Models tend to underestimate the magnitude of cooling 736 (especially in winter) with the consequence of overestimating the amount of precipitation. 737 When applied to Europe, most simulated climates, such as the those of the *Paleoclimate*  738 *Modelling Intercomparison Project* (PMIP) or from refined General Climate Model (GCM), 739 generate warmer and wetter LGM-conditions than those inferred from palynological or 740 geochemical proxies (Kageyama et al., 2001; Latombe et al. 2018; present study). Latombe et 741 al. (2018) study indicates temperatures and precipitation were close to 5-6°C and 200-250 742 mm y<sup>-1</sup> in northern Spain, close to 7 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$  and 160 mm y<sup>-1</sup> at Laugerie-Haute, and close to 11 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ 743 and 225 mm  $y^{-1}$  at Nerja, in southern Spain. Within uncertainties, such air temperatures are 744 coherent with those estimated from our isotopic proxy approach even though Latombe et al. 745 (2018) obtained slightly lower temperatures for Nerja. Our MAP estimates are generally 746 slightly higher than those modeled by Latombe et al. (2018), especially in the case of northern 747 Spain.

748 Spatial resolution is critical in areas either close to the ocean (e.g., Atlantic Ocean) or 749 along a mountain range (e.g., Pyrenees). Kageyama et al. (2006) performed a comparison of 750 PMIP models, SSTs from MARGO (*Multiproxy Approach for the Reconstruction of the*  751 *Glacial Ocean surface*) and pollen-based reconstructions over Europe. These authors 752 highlighted the main data-model discrepancy observed for western Europe, with winter 753 temperatures underestimated by all models that could be at least partly explained by a high 754 interannual variability in the temperatures of the coldest months. However, more recent high-755 resolution climatic simulations tend to reduce the discrepancy vs geochemical proxy-derived 756 temperature estimates. This is for example the case of the central part of Iberia  $(21 \text{ ka})$  with 757 a computed MAAT close to 7±3°C (Burke et al., 2014) that are comparable or only slightly 758 higher than those inferred from the oxygen isotope composition of large mammals (Yravedra 759 et al., 2016).

760 The geochemical data presented in our study do not provide a temporal resolution at 761 the seasonal scale, but large inter-annual variations in winter air temperatures should be 762 imprinted on the half-year or full year time record provided by mammal tooth enamel. For the 763 studied archaeological sites located on the Atlantic side, the range of  $\delta^{18}O_{w-MAP}$  is 4‰ (Figure 764 6), which corresponds to a temperature variation of  $\pm$ 5.5°C around the mean, according to 765 equation (7). If interpreted as inter-decadal or inter-centennial variations in MAAT, such a 766 magnitude is higher than that observed  $(2\pm 1^{\circ}C)$  during periods of relative climate steadiness 767 (e.g., Corona et al., 2010; Ljungqvist et al., 2019). Whether this temperature variation of 768 ±5.5°C indicates high-frequency climate instabilities in western Europe during the LGM, in 769 agreement with Jones et al. (2020)'s or Loncaric et al. (1998), remains to be further 770 investigated.

771 Climate conditions on the Iberian Peninsula are driven by large-scale processes that 772 create strong regional contrasts in rainfall and temperature values. Our results demonstrate 773 that these contrasts are reliably recorded in hard tissues and that isotope analyses of vertebrate 774 remains can be used as proxies of mean annual temperature and precipitations on a regional 775 scale. We confirm that, during the LGM, populations living in Franco-Cantabria and on the 776 Mediterranean coast faced different environmental challenges. As the paleontological and 777 archaeozoological records demonstrate it (Brugal and Yravedra, 2005) this difference 778 impacted the relative availability of different prey species, which would have required 779 adjustments of human hunting strategies, potentially driving technological change. Indeed, the 780 LGM coincides with the appearance of the Solutrean technocomplex, which is geographically 781 limited to the Iberian Peninsula and France. Three Solutrean "culture areas" (Andalucia,

782 Portugal and Vasco-Cantabria) are described for the Iberian Peninsula (Straus, 2000) and 783 these differences in the material culture used by human groups could reflect regional 784 adaptations to contrasting environmental conditions such as those described here. These 785 results are also consistent with archaeological research using an agent-based model that 786 suggests that the population of Western Europe was spatially fragmented during the LGM as 787 a result of climate-driven differences in habitat suitability (Wren and Burke, 2018). In this 788 latter study, the SE region of the Iberian Peninsula was described as a "sink" during the LGM, 789 with human population numbers declining periodically and being replenished from a larger 790 "source" population, located in SE France and NE Spain.

791 Considering the uncertainties associated with our stable isotope proxy approach, 792 including the altitudinal effect that is not easy to constrain, the present MAAT estimates are 793 coherent with those inferred from other proxies (pollens, foraminifera) and some recent model 794 outputs. In the case of MAP reconstructions, the isotopic approach suggests dry environments 795 in agreement with our knowledge of LGM-flora and faunal associations. However, most 796 modeling approaches still generate divergent patterns with some of them suggesting 797 paleoenvironments as wet as those of today, or even more, along with similar MAAT.

798 Future research priorities may focus on the initial conditions required by the GCM 799 models to reproduce the dry and cold conditions of the LGM in southwestern Europe. In 800 addition, reconstructing the amplitude of precipitation and air temperature seasonality by 801 high-resolution incremental sampling of tooth enamel may be of great interest. Indeed, 802 mammals could have fed on resources (water, vegetation) mainly renewed during the winter 803 and intermediate seasons, not in summer, hence biasing the isotopic record at least toward too 804 negative mean air temperatures.

805

806 6. Conclusions

807 Our study documents the carbon and oxygen isotope composition of tooth enamel 808 carbonate of Cervidae, Equidae and Caprinae remains dated to the LGM in southwest Europe. 809 The  $\delta^{13}$ C of tooth enamel carbonate was ultimately used to obtain semi-quantitative estimates 810 of MAP. Precipitation in the range of  $\sim$  250 to 550 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup> were obtained for Atlantic sites 811 and values close to  $250 \text{ mm}$ ,  $yr^{-1}$  for the Mediterranean sites; both estimates are lower than 812 local precipitation today (200–1000 mm.yr<sup>-1</sup>). Despite the large uncertainties associated with 813 each step of the method, the reconstruction of a dry and cold LGM environment is consistent 814 with the faunal and floral associations documented for this period. The limitation of the  $\delta^{13}C$ 815 method for estimating paleo-precipitation is mainly related to the behavior of the studied 816 vertebrate species. The observed  $\delta^{13}$ C differences between Caprinae and Cervidae or Equidae, 817 for example, most likely reflects habitat use, with Caprinae occupying possibly drier habitats.

818 The  $\delta^{18}O$  of tooth enamel carbonate was used for estimating MAAT. In southern Spain, 819 temperatures during the LGM were lower by about 4–5°C relative to modern times and lower 820 by 5–8°C in northern Spain and southwest France. Several steps are necessary to calculate 821 MAAT, and each one potentially propagates sizable uncertainties due to the combined use of 822 empirical linear equations relating the isotopic compositions of the biomineral, the meteoric 823 water and the air temperature. Moreover, we identified additional sources of uncertainties. 824 The first two are related to an "altitude effect" and a "source effect" that lead to an 825 overestimate of the air temperature differences between the LGM and the present day on the 826 order of a few  $\degree$ C. The third one, which we refer to as the "reservoir effect", relates to the  $^{18}O-$ 827 enrichment of meteoric waters stored in a natural reservoir (pond, lake, snow cover) open to 828 the atmosphere and subsequently exposed to evaporation. In this case, the lower the residence 829 time of water in the reservoir, the higher the increase in the  $\delta^{18}$ O of stored water, hence 830 leading to a potential overestimation of air temperatures.

831 At first glance, our estimates of MAP and MAAT are compatible with the faunal 832 associations described in the archaeological sites of southwestern Europe with generally cold 833 and dry, open environments such as tundra and dry steppe. Sea surface temperatures inferred 834 from the oxygen isotope composition of planktonic foraminifera enforce the hypothesis of 835 cold regional conditions as well as a marked difference between the Atlantic and 836 Mediterranean sides; the latter being less impacted by the global cooling.

837 Close to montane areas, topography is highly variable with a juxtaposition of micro-838 climates that makes a comparison of geochemical proxy results with model outputs risky and 839 potentially fruitless, considering the unresolved differences in temporal and spatial resolution 840 inherent in both scientific approaches. Nevertheless, there is room for improvement with, for 841 example, the reconstitution of the seasonal amplitude of precipitation and air temperature 842 performed by high-resolution incremental sampling of vertebrate tooth enamel. Precipitation 843 and air temperature for the coldest and warmest months could be directly compared to model 844 output with the aim to identify potential biases intrinsic to each method.

845

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- 1429 1430

### 1432 **Table captions:**

1433

1434 Table 1: Carbon and oxygen isotope compositions of tooth enamel from large herbivorous 1435 mammal remains of the LGM recovered from southwest France (Laugerie-Haute), north 1436 Spain (El Cierro, El Ruso, El Pendo, Hornos de la Peña), east Spain (Malladetes) and 1437 southeast Spain (Nerja). See the Figure 1 for the geographic locations of these 1438 archaeological sites. Studied taxa and  ${}^{14}C$  ages are also provided along with the 1439 calculated oxygen isotope compositions of drinking and diet water  $(\delta^{18}O_w)$  and the 1440 carbon isotope composition of their diet  $(\delta^{13}C_{\text{dict}})$ . See the text for more explanations. 1441 Calendar ages were determined using the most recent calibration curve data for the 1442 Northern Hemisphere, IntCal20 (Reimer et al., 2020). Calibrated date ranges correspond 1443 to 92.9% probability  $(2\sigma)$ .

1444

1445 Table 2: Synthesis of calculated mean annual air temperatures (MAAT) and mean annual 1446 precipitation (MAP) during the LGM, estimated. from the  $\delta^{13}$ C- and  $\delta^{18}$ O-values of 1447 tooth enamel carbonate from large herbivorous mammal remains.

#### 1450 **Figure captions:**

1451

1452 Figure 1: Location of the archaeological sites investigated: Laugerie-Haute, in southwestern 1453 France; El Cierro in the Province of Asturias, Hornos de la Peña, El Pendo and El Ruso 1454 in Cantabria, Nerja in the Province of Málaga and Malladetes, in the Province of 1455 Valencia.

1456

1457 Figure 2: Frequency histogram of the calculated  $\delta^{13}$ C-value of mammal diets. Cervidae and 1458 Equidae are represented in blue; Caprinae, in red. The Gaussian curves were obtained 1459 by parametric estimation using PAST4.02 software (Hammer et al., 2001). These curves 1460 may slightly differ from those obtained by least-squares approximations (performed 1461 using 10,000 iterations) according to the general equation of normal distribution as follows:  $y = m1 + m2 * exp^{-\frac{(x - m3)^2}{(m4)^2}}$ 1462 follows:  $y = m_1 + m_2 * exp^{-\frac{(x-m_2)}{(m_1)^2}}$ . Constant uncertainties are  $\pm 1\sigma$ . For Cervidae 1463 and Equidae: m1 =  $0.35\pm0.37$ ; m2 =  $7.75\pm1.24$ ; m3 =  $-24.02\pm0.06$  and m4 =  $0.48\pm0.09$ 1464 with  $R^2 = 0.71$ ; for Caprinae: m1 = 0.17±0.20; m2 = 8.33±0.62; m3 = -22.46±0.03 and 1465  $m4 = -0.60 \pm 0.05$  with  $R^2 = 0.92$ .

1466

1467 Figure 3: A) Modern and reconstructed MAP (mm  $yr^{-1}$ ) for the various French and Spanish 1468 archaeological sites. Modern cities (Cestas-Pierroton for Laugerie-Haute, Santander for 1469 northern Spain, Valencia for Malladates and Almeria for Nerja) in the vicinity of 1470 studied sites were ranked according to increasing MAP that roughly follow a S–N 1471 geographic trend. See Table 2 for the output of calculation. B) estimated MAP taking 1472 into account the lower atmospheric  $pCO<sub>2</sub>$  during the LGM relatively to the Holocene 1473 (see section 5.2.1 for a detailed explanation).

1475 Figure 4: Present-day linear relationship between the dew point temperature in  ${}^{\circ}C$  (T<sub>d</sub>) and 1476 the mean weighted  $\delta^{18}O$ -value ( $\delta^{18}O_{mw}$ ) of precipitations, extracted from the 1477 IAEA/WMO database. The database was filtered to only include meteorological sites 1478 above  $|32^{\circ}|$  latitude. T<sub>d</sub> is the dew point (°C). The equation of the linear regression is T<sub>d</sub> 1479 =  $1.30(\pm 0.06)\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{mw}} + 15.69(\pm 0.67)$  with  $R^2 = 0.83$ .

1480

1481 Figure 5: Present-day MAAT $-\delta^{18}O_{mw}$  linear relationships extracted from the IAEA/WMO 1482 database. A) Global data above 32°N with 15 outliers removed after linear regression 1483 analysis:  $MAAT = 1.42(\pm 0.04)\delta^{18}O_{mw} + 22.02(\pm 0.44)$ ; B) Global data for sites above 1484 32°N and with a MAAT > 0°C: MAAT =  $1.40(\pm 0.08)\delta^{18}O_{mw} + 21.86(\pm 0.64)$ .

1485

1486 Figure 6: Frequency histogram of  $\delta^{18}O$  of meteoric waters calculated from the  $\delta^{18}O$  of apatite 1487 carbonate from the sampled teeth of Cervidae, Equidae and Caprinae. Archaeological 1488 sites located from northern Spain and SW France, are represented in blue while the 1489 Mediterranean sites of Malladates and Nerja are represented in red. The Gaussian 1490 curves were obtained by parametric estimation using PAST4.02 software (Hammer et 1491 al., 2001). These fitting curves may slightly differ from those obtained by least-squares 1492 approximations (performed by using 10,000 iterations) according to the general equation of normal distribution as follows:  $y = m1 + m2 * exp^{-\frac{(x-m3)^2}{(m4)^2}}$ 1493 equation of normal distribution as follows:  $y = m_1 + m_2 * exp^{-\frac{(N-m_2)}{(m_1)^2}}$ . For Atlantic sites: m1 =  $1.35\pm0.79$ ; m2 =  $13.17\pm1.57$ ; m3 =  $-9.98\pm0.09$  and m4 =  $0.97\pm0.15$  with R<sup>2</sup> 1494 1495 = 0.89. For Mediterranean sites: m1 =  $0.12 \pm 0.84$ ; m2 =  $3.74 \pm 1.09$ ; m3 =  $-5.28 \pm 0.19$  and 1496  $m4 = 0.97 \pm 0.41$  with  $R^2 = 0.70$ . The constant uncertainties are  $\pm 1\sigma$ .

1498 Figure 7: Modern and reconstructed MAAT (°C) of the sampled archaeological sites. Modern 1499 cities (Cestas-Pierroton for Laugerie-Haute, Santander for northern Spain, Valencia for 1500 Malladates and Almeria for Nerja) in the vicinity of studied sites were ranked according 1501 to a decreasing MAAT that roughly follow a S–N trend. See Table 2 for the output of 1502 calculation. Temperatures were calculated assuming an oxygen isotope composition of 1503 oceanic surface waters of  $+0.8\%$  (VSMOW).











A)

B)







 $\delta^{13}$ Cc: carbon isotope composition of apatite carbonate

 $\delta^{13}$ Cdiet: calculated carbon isotope composition of the vertebrate diet

 $\Delta^{13}$ C leaf:  $\delta^{13}$ Ccarb -  $\delta^{13}$ Cdiet offset value

P: calculated amount of precipitation (mm)

 $\delta^{18}$ Oc: oxygen isotope ratio of apatite carbonate

- $\delta^{18}$ Op calc.: calculated oxygen isotope composition of apatite phosphate
- $\delta^{18}$ Osw: oxygen isotope composition of Atlantic oceanic surface waters during the LGM
- $\delta^{18}$ Ow cor. Ice (+1.2): calculated oxygen isotope composition of vertebrate diet water corrected from contiental volume ice (corresponding to a  $\delta^{18}$ Osw = +1.2‰)
- $\delta^{18}$ Ow cor. Ice (+0.8): calculated oxygen isotope composition of vertebrate diet water corrected from contiental volume ice (corresponding to a  $\delta^{18}$ Osw = +0.8‰)
- T ( $\delta^{18}$ Osw = +1.2): calculated mean air temperature assuming a  $\delta^{18}$ O of +1.2‰ for the oceanic surface waters
- T ( $\delta^{18}$ Osw = +0.8): calculated mean air temperature assuming a  $\delta^{18}$ O of +0.8‰ for the oceanic surface waters



MAP = Mean Annual Precipitation in mm

 $MAP^* = Mean$  Annual Precipitation in mm corrected from the LGM  $pCO_2$  estimate

 $\delta^{18}$ Ow = mean oxygen isotope composition of precipitations

 $\delta^{18}$ Osw = mean oxygen isotope composition of oceanic surface waters

MAAT = Mean Annual Air Temperatures obtained from IAEA/WMO database

MAT = calculated Mean Air Temperatures at archaeological sites

MAT anomaly = anomaly in MAT relative to present-days

MAP anomaly  $=$  anomaly in MAP relative to present-days