

Dosimetric performance of continuous EPID imaging in stereotactic treatment conditions

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1 Dietary traits of ungulates in northeastern Iberian Peninsula: Did

2 these Neanderthal preys show adaptive behaviour to local

3 habitats during the Middle Palaeolithic?

4

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23 Abstract. Diet is closely connected to the habitat exploited by ungulates and is one of the main

24 links between them and the surrounding environment. When climatic fluctuations modified

25 the vegetal coverture and habitat, ungulates' dietary behaviours and ecological niches could

26 have been impacted severely. During the Middle Palaeolithic, the Mediterranean peninsulas

27 were known to be climatic refuges because they seemed less susceptible to these changes.

28 However, the altitude or latitude of a given site may have resulted in local particularities that

29 could have influenced the vegetal composition and therefore the feeding behaviour of

30 ungulates from the same region. In the present research we investigate whether these

31 variables necessitated adaptive changes in the feeding behaviours of ungulates hunted by

32 Neanderthals through the study of two archaeological sites, Arbreda Cave (Serinyà, Girona,

33 Spain) and Teixoneres Cave (Moià, Barcelona, Spain). We use a combined analysis of dental

34 wear (meso- and microwear) and dental cementum analysis of *Cervus elaphus, Equus ferus,*

35 and *Equus hydruntinus* teeth. Dental wear reflects the immediate and average annual dietary

- 36 traits of ungulates as well as the environmental conditions in the surroundings. Dental 37 cementum analysis allows accurately identifying the season of ungulate death and linking an 38 individual's dietary preferences with the seasonal conditions in its last moments of life. As 39 results, red deer at both sites were mixed-feeders in the annual cycle. A slight increase in grass 40 consumption was identified during winter for populations from sub-unit Illa of Teixoneres Cave. Horse and wild ass based their diet on grasses, but the latter showed seasonal 41 42 adaptation toward a mixed consumption of grasses and concentrate resources (i.e. leaves, 43 shrubs, forbs, and other woody plants). The seasonal feeding adaptations observed for some 44 of the studied species did not strongly influence their general dietary trends because they kept feeding on the same resources annually. 45
- 46 Keywords.
- 47 Late Pleistocene, Paleodiet, Paleoenvironment, Adaptive behaviour, Dental wear, Dental48 Cementum

49

1. Introduction

50 Global environmental conditions and the specific ecological features in a given region 51 directly impact the composition and distribution of flora and fauna (Hewitt, 2000; Uriarte, 52 2003; Rivera Arrizabalaga, 2004; Sánchez-Goñi and D'Errico, 2005; Sánchez-Goñi and Harrison, 53 2010). The Late Pleistocene displays continuous climatic oscillations, especially during the 54 Marine Isotopic Stage 3 (MIS 3, ca. 60-30 ka BP). The advance and retreat of glaciers drastically 55 modified the European landscape and, in turn, the adaptive and survival capabilities of flora and fauna (Lowe and Walker, 1984; Dansgaard et al., 1993). The large mammals inhabiting the 56 57 continent during this period, mostly ungulates, showed a wide range of responses to ecological 58 issues, varying from phenotypically and migratory aspects to disappearance (Graham et al., 59 1996; Brown and Lomolino, 1998; Forchhammer et al., 2002; Martínez-Meyer et al., 2004). 60 Even on a seasonal and regional basis, environmental features affect the availability and 61 phenology (e.g. nutritional quality) of the plants consumed by ungulates, thereby having 62 implications on their biological and behavioural responses to these changes (Jarman, 1973; 63 Denium, 1984; Helle, 1984; Van Soest, 1994; Weladji et al., 2002; Pettorelli et al., 2005; Arnold 64 et al., 2015). Therefore, ungulates' adaptive success to specific environmental features 65 depends on the habitat tolerance of the communities and the specific dietary limits of each 66 taxa (Graham, 1985; Graham et al., 1996; Williams and Jackson, 2007; Stewart, 2008).

67 As each taxa shows different degrees of or no dietary plasticity, the current research 68 aims to determine how the main ungulates (Cervus elaphus, Equus ferus, and Equus 69 hydruntinus) hunted by Neanderthals in the northeast of the Iberian Peninsula responded to 70 local environmental features. The study focus on two archaeological sites located above the 71 40° N parallel and at different altitudes: Arbreda Cave (211 m a.s.l.) and Teixoneres Cave (760 72 m a.s.l.) (Fig. 1. A). Cervids and equids are known for developing differentiated adaptive 73 strategies to cope with environmental variations. Their presence in the same territory during a

74	period of expected environmental fluctuations can provide a much more accurate view of local
75	and regional features through their dietary strategies. Cervus elaphus is well known to have
76	great dietary plasticity, feeding in a wide range of resources and being able to adapt to very
77	diverse habitats (Hofmann and Stewart, 1973; Hofmann, 1989; Fonseca, 1998; Azorit et al.,
78	2012; Berlioz et al., 2017). Equus ferus is expected to show more restricted dietary plasticity;
79	however, extant and extinct populations demonstrated that they could feed on resources that
80	are not exclusively grasses (Duncan, 1991; Nowak, 1999; Rivals et al., 2009, 2015). Equus
81	hydruntinus seems restricted to open areas and the resources available therein (Orlando et al.,
82	2006; van Asperen et al., 2012; Crees and Turvey, 2014; Boulbes and van Asperen, 2019).
83	Otherwise, some morphological and size aspects (a longer protocone and increased
84	hypsodoncy) of their teeth suggest wider dietary plasticity (Eisenmann, 1991; Boulbes, 2009).
85	The aim of the present research is to identify the feeding traits of the above-
86	mentioned ungulates (Cervus elaphus, Equus ferus, and Equus hydruntinus) to test whether
87	they show adaptive dietary behaviour influenced by local environmental features like
88	latitudinal and altitudinal gradients. This knowledge would generate an interesting context to
89	recognise Neanderthals relationship with the environment they inhabit and how these groups
90	respond to the adaptations (whether seasonal or local) of their potential preys. These
91	objectives will be achieved using a combination of two high-resolution techniques, namely,
92	dental wear (meso- and microwear) and dental cementum.
93	The study of ungulates' dental wear gives information about diet because both meso-
94	and microwear are sensitive to dietary changes on different temporal scales (Grine, 1986;
95	Fortelius and Solounias, 2000). Mesowear reveals the average annual diet of the last
96	months/year (> 6 months) before death correlated with the general surrounding
97	environmental features (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Ackermans et al., 2018). On the other
98	hand, microwear reflects a very precise moment in an individual diet as it is generated by the

99 diet of the last days/weeks before death (Grine, 1986), thereby highlighting specific 100 environmental conditions at that point and seasonal climatic changes (Merceron et al., 2004; 101 Semprebon et al., 2004; Rivals and Semprebon, 2012). Furthermore, dental cementum 102 analysis-also called cementochronology-provides accurate estimates of the season of death of 103 the animals (Scheffer, 1950; Laws, 1952; Lieberman, 1991; Pike-Tay, 1991a; Gourichon, 2004; 104 Rendu, 2007; Naji et al., 2015), allowing us to correlate the seasonal feeding patterns with a 105 specific period of the annual cycle (Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2019). In addition, even if the 106 taxa show homogenous feeding traits through the stratigraphic sequences or the 107 archaeological sites, cementum analysis enables assessing whether these patterns are due to 108 seasonal mortality (same season) or stable environmental features allowing them to feed on 109 the same resources. In this study, dental cementum analysis was only applied to red deer 110 because the properties of equid cementum make it difficult to interpret the observations.

111

112 2. European and Iberian environmental contexts

113 The MIS 3 is marked by extreme oscillations characterised by the predominance of 114 notably cold and dry periods (Heinrich events (HE)) interspersed by temperature and humidity 115 recovery events with less extreme environmental conditions (Dansgaard-Oeschger events 116 (DO)) (Dansgaard et al., 1982; Heinrich, 1988; Johnsen et al., 1992; Rasmussen et al., 2014). 117 These cyclical HE and DO alternations affected the European continent in different ways 118 depending on the region because other factors such as latitude and altitude are also deeply 119 involved (Álvarez-Lao and Méndez, 2016; Rivals and Semprebon, 2016). During the HE (also 120 stadial periods), most of the European territory was dominated by tundra and steppe as well 121 as 'mammoth fauna' in areas without ice sheets (Guthrie, 1982; Vereshchagin and 122 Baryshnikov, 1982; Kahlke, 2014). On the other hand, mid-climate-adapted vegetation and 123 animals were pushed toward southern areas, considered as climate refugia, such as the

Mediterranean peninsulas and the Balkans (Hewitt, 2000; Sommer and Nadachowski, 2006;
Álvarez-Lao and Méndez, 2016). These ecologic refugees allowed a rapid recovery of forested
areas and animals adapted to temperate conditions in the rest of the continent during DO.

127 The Iberian Peninsula would not have been strongly affected by the climatic changes 128 occurring during the MIS 3 despite the marginal presence of some cold-adapted taxa like the 129 woolly mammoth (Sánchez-Goñi et al., 2010; Álvarez-Lao and García, 2011; Álvarez-Lao and 130 Méndez, 2016; Rivals and Álvarez-Lao, 2018). The Pyrenees Mountains act as a natural barrier 131 in the north which isolates the Peninsula from the rest of the continent, leaving only two 132 narrow natural paths in the occidental and oriental slopes of these mountains. The Iberian 133 Peninsula is characterised by relatively mild environmental conditions even during the coldest 134 phases (HE) of MIS 3 (Hewitt, 2000; Sommer and Nadachowski, 2006; Álvarez-Lao and Méndez, 135 2016). The relative stability of the environmental features and the vegetal coverture's 136 resilience to global climatic changes are some of the main particularities of this region. These 137 conditions could have guaranteed the constancy of the available resources and the absence of 138 drastic adaptive behaviours resulting in stable faunal ecological niches, especially for 139 ungulates. Nevertheless, the orography and the several oceanic influences observed (i.e. 140 Atlantic and Mediterranean) reflect a wide range of climatic parameters that allow us to 141 consider the Peninsula as a mini-continent in itself. With an average altitude of 600 m a.s.l. and 142 various mountain ranges and river valleys, this territory can be divided into three main areas 143 characterised by distinct ecological features (i.e. latitude, orography, and altitude): the central 144 Iberian area, and the Cantabrian and the Mediterranean basins.

The latitudinal and altitudinal gradients related with climate and vegetation as well as climate instability usually affect ungulate populations (Rivals et al., 2007b, 2010; Rivals and Semprebon, 2016). Along the Iberian Mediterranean basin, several studies indicate a northeast area as cold and dry as the southern area but relatively more humid (Uzquiano-Ollero, 2008;

149 Badal-García et al., 2012; Allué et al., 2017, 2018; Vidal-Matutano, 2018). The north-eastern 150 region was dominated by vegetal coverture typical of open forested areas dominated by 151 conifers like Pinus sylvestris associated with deciduous and mesophilous taxa (e.g. Quercus, 152 Betula, and Corylus) that suggest warm and humid episodes (Ros-Mora, 1987; Burjachs and 153 Julià, 1994; Rivals et al., 2017; Allué et al., 2017, 2018). Otherwise, open landscapes and dryer 154 conditions dominated in the southern regions with the occurrence of pine forests (Pinus nigra-155 sylvestris and Pinus pinea) along with Quercus, Juniperus, and Ephedra taxa (Ros-Mora, 1987; 156 Uzquiano-Ollero et al., 2008; Badal et al., 2012; Allué et al., 2017, 2018; Vidal-Matutano, 2017, 157 2018).

158

159 3. Archaeological sites

160 **3.1. Arbreda Cave**

161 The Arbreda Cave is an archaeo-palaeontological site located in the Serinyà locality (42° 9' 38" N, 2° 44' 49" E) (Fig. 1A). Along with other cavities such as Reclau Viver or Mollet I, it 162 163 forms part of a karstic system belonging to the Banyoles-Besalú basin (Julià, 1980; Roqué et al., 164 1999). The cave is located in a low area of the pre-Pyrenean region, in an elongated but 165 narrow travertine strip of the river Serinyadell valley. In its surroundings, there is a platform of 166 lacustrine origin called Pla d'Usall to the west and small rivers. The 10 m sedimentary sequence 167 comprises 14 levels from the Middle Pleistocene at the bottom to the Holocene at the top (Fig. 168 1B) (Soler et al., 1987a, 2014; Bischoff et al., 1989; Kehl et al., 2014). The Mousterian sequence 169 shows an extensive chronological frame: the basal level (i.e. N) was dated by U-series/ESR ca. 170 120 ka BP (Soler i Subils et al., 2012, 2014), whereas the upper Mousterian level (i.e. I) is dated 171 to 45.840–41.410 cal BP based on AMS radiocarbon dates (Maroto et al., 1996a, 2005, 2012; 172 Wood et al., 2014). The sequence presents alternating occupations by human groups and 173 carnivores. The faunal assemblage documented for the Late Mousterian levels corresponds to

174 a broad spectrum of both herbivore and carnivore mammals adapted to Eurosiberian and 175 Mediterranean environmental conditions (Soler et al., 1987b, 2014; Galobart et al., 1996; 176 Lloveras et al., 2010, 2018; Rufí et al., 2018). These include a few species from semi-open and 177 wooded areas, like Cervus elaphus, Capreolus capreolus, Bos primigenius, and Capra pyrenaica, 178 as well as species typical of open areas, like Equus ferus and Equus hydruntinus. A calf tooth of 179 Mammuthus primigenius represents cold-adapted fauna in level J, whereas a molar of Castor 180 fiber indicates running rivers in the vicinity. Carnivores are represented by Ursus spelaeus, 181 Crocuta crocuta, Canis lupus, Vulpes vulpes, Felis silvestris, Panthera pardus, and Lynx cf. 182 spelaea. Among lagomorphs, Oryctolagus cuniculus predominates versus the marginal 183 presence of Lepus europaeus (Soler i Masferrer and Maroto, 1987b; Maroto et al., 1996; 184 Lloveras et al., 2010). Level I is the unique Mousterian level where small mammal assemblage 185 has been recovered and studied (Alcalde, 1987; Galobart et al., 1996; Alcalde and Galobart, 186 2002; López-García et al., 2015). This assemblage, which may be used as a reference for level J 187 on which the present research focuses, is dominated by species with Eurosiberian climatic 188 preferences, such as Microtus arvalis or Talpa europaea, as well as by generalist taxa such as 189 Microtus agrestis or Apodemus sylvaticus. There is also an important component of species 190 with Mediterranean requirements, like *Eliomys quercinus*. The climatic and environmental 191 conditions had lower annual temperatures and higher degree of humidity than those seen 192 nowadays (Sans-Fuentes and Ventura, 2000). An alternation between two warm and humid 193 periods and another cold and dry one was identified for level I (López-García et al., 2015). 194 Previous palynological and anthracological studies suggest a landscape of open-wet and 195 forested areas dominated by Pinus sylvestris and herbaceous vegetation around the cave (Ros-196 Mora, 1987; Burjachs and Renault-Miskovsky, 1992; López-García et al., 2015).

197 3.2. Teixoneres Cave

198 More than 60 km southwest of the previous site, Teixoneres Cave (41° 48' 25" N, 2° 09' 199 02" E) (Fig. 1A) belongs to the 'Coves del Toll' karstic system (Rosell et al., 2010a, 2017). The 200 cave is located south of the pre-Pyrenean region (Moià, Barcelona, Spain) in a zone of 201 transition between the Mediterranean coast and the hinterland of the North-East region (Fig. 202 1A). The surrounding landscape is characterised by highlands with the presence of small hills 203 and rivers of little importance, except for the Llobregat River to the south and the Ter River to 204 the north which delimit the region. The cavity presents ~8 m deep sedimentary sequence 205 where nine stratigraphic units were identified (Fig. 1C) (Serra et al., 1957, 1973; Rosell et al., 206 2017). The present research focuses on unit III, divided into two sub-units (i.e. IIIa and IIIb) and 207 ranging from >51 ka ¹⁴C BP to 43.4 ka cal BP (Talamo et al., 2016). Unit III is characterised by an 208 alternation between human occupation at the entrance of the cave and carnivore occupation 209 in the back and darker areas (Rosell et al., 2010b).

210 In the faunal record, up to 19 different taxa were identified, including carnivores and 211 herbivores. In the unit III, the carnivores correspond to Ursus spelaeus, Crocuta crocuta, Canis 212 lupus, Vulpes vulpes, Lynx spelaea, and Meles meles. The broad spectrum of ungulates 213 recovered in this unit indicates a complex environment formed by different habitats such as 214 steppe-like, open forest, and mountains areas (Álvarez-Lao et al., 2017; Rosell et al., 2017). The 215 presence of mixed wooded and semi-open areas is indicated by Sus scrofa, Cervus elaphus, 216 Capreolus capreolus, and Bos primigenius. The open spaces around the cave are suggested by 217 the occurrence of Equus ferus and Equus hydruntinus and by the cold-adapted taxa Coelodonta 218 antiquitatis and Mammuthus primigenius. Finally, remains of Capra pyrenaica and Rupicapra 219 rupicapra were found in the assemblage. The small vertebrate assemblage shows differences 220 in composition and proportion between the sub-units IIIa and IIIb (López-García et al., 2012, 221 2014). Generalist species like Apodemus sylvaticus, Eliomys quercinus, or Bufo calamita 222 dominate the entire unit III. The Mediterranean species take a significant part, such as 223 Microtus (Terricola) duodecimcostatus. The strict Eurosiberian species present in both sub-

224 units include Rana temporaria, Microtus arvalis, and Sorex coronatus. Sub-unit IIIa is 225 characterised by species with a preference for high altitude and rocky terrain, such as 226 Chionomys nivalis and Terricola gerbei and Mediterranean taxa such as Anguis fragilis. This 227 combination suggests a decrease in temperature but still humid conditions, as indicated by the 228 presence of forest. Instead, sub-unit IIIb yielded species of generalist and Mediterranean 229 requirements which are absent in IIIa: Natrix cf. natrix, Coronella austriaca, Glis glis, and 230 Rhinolophus ferrumequinum. They show a predominance of forested areas and humid 231 conditions. The pollen and charcoal studies indicate the prevalence of humid and temperate 232 environments in a Mediterranean region characterised by open forest landscape mostly 233 comprising Pinus sylvestris and Quercus sp., whereas herbaceous taxa (Poaceae, 234 Amaranthaceae, Asteraceae) dominated in open areas (López-García et al., 2012).

235

236 4. Material and Methods

237 The material involved in the present research was selected following specific protocols 238 related to each technique (see below) and by taking as a basic premise a good preservation of 239 the morphological integrity and dental tissues. Ideally, it is preferable to perform the whole 240 study on a single type of molar (e.g. the second upper molar). Nevertheless, owing to the 241 relatively high degree of fragmentation in the assemblages (especially those from Arbreda 242 Cave) and to the low amount of cheek teeth, the upper and lower molars as well as the forth 243 premolar were chosen for all the analyses, in particular for microwear. Xafis et al. (2017) 244 suggested that differences between the microscopic patterns of premolars and molars are not 245 significant, which was also observed for the Schöningen equids by Rivals et al. (2015). We also 246 tested for differences between tooth positions in our material (see section 5.2). The teeth 247 sampled for dental wear belong to Cervus elaphus (n = 132) Equus ferus (n = 120) from Arbreda 248 and Teixoneres caves and Equus hydruntinus (n = 43) which was only present at Teixoneres

249 Cave (Table 1; see Table S1 and S2 from supplementary data). The teeth sampled for 250 cementum analysis belong exclusively to Cervus elaphus: seven teeth from sub-unit IIIb of 251 Teixoneres Cave (n = 7) as well as three from Arbreda Cave (n = 3) (Table 3; see Table S3 from 252 supplementary data). It should be noted that one tooth from sub-unit Illa was sampled but 253 excluded as it presented taphonomic alterations hiding/obliterating cementum increments. All 254 the mesowear and microwear analyses performed were ran by a single observer (CSH) to avoid 255 possible inter-observer errors. The complexity of cementum analysis required a combined 256 observation between two observers (i.e. CSH and LG).

257 The success rate of the analysis varies between techniques and the general state of 258 conservation of the different type of teeth (position and laterality) (Table 1; see Table S4 from 259 supplementary data). We developed an ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis) and Tukey's test to check 260 whether there are or not statistical differences between the dietary traits of the studied teeth 261 (premolars and molars) (see Table S5 from supplementary data). All the samples studied were 262 recovered at levels with a clear anthropic context, associated with invariable evidences of 263 faunal processing, lithic industry, and hearths (Rosell et al., 2010b, 2017; Soler i Subils et al., 264 2014). The material from Arbreda Cave is curated at the local museum of Banyoles (Girona, 265 Spain) and at the Universitat de Girona (Girona, Spain). The material belonging to Teixoneres 266 Cave is curated at the Institut Català de Paleoecologia Humana i Evolució Social (IPHES) 267 (Tarragona, Spain).

Tooth mesowear. The technique developed by Fortelius and Solounias (2000) macroscopically describes the physical modifications over individual dentition owing to the relative amount of attritive-abrasive dental wear caused by the diet. There are two variables to consider, namely, sharpness (sharp, rounded, or blunt) and relief (high or low) of tooth cuspids, which are directly affected by the intrinsic (plant phytoliths) and extrinsic (dust, sand, and grit) abrasive items present in the resources consumed. Precisely, browsers (i.e. feeding on concentrate resources: leaves, shrubs, forbs, and woody plants) are characterised by diets with relatively

275 low levels of abrasion and high attrition producing sharp apices and high relief, whereas 276 grazers (i.e. eating grass and pasture) feed on items of high abrasion and low attrition 277 producing blunt apices and lower relief than browsers. The mixed feeders occupy the gap 278 between the last two dietary groups and are characterised by rounded cusp sharpness and 279 intermediate relief. We follow the Mesowear Score (MWS) developed by Mihlbachler et al. 280 (2011) on equids, which improve the previous scoring method applied for several taxa and 281 based on a four points scale (i.e. from 0 to 3). It was tested on cervids by Rivals and Takatsuki 282 (2015). The new score consists on seven points referring to different cusps shape and relief, 283 where the highest attrition value is represented by stage 0 and the highest abrasion value by 284 stage 6. The selection protocol for the mesowear study includes adult teeth presenting good 285 integrity of both the crown and the cusps (especially in the buccal facet), and teeth with low or 286 high wear rates from young and senile individuals were discarded (Fortelius and Solounias, 287 2000; Rivals et al., 2007a).

288 Tooth microwear. The technique standardised by Solounias and Semprebon (2002) describes 289 the microscopic signals produced by intrinsic and extrinsic particles within the feeding bolus. 290 This microscopic signal over the occlusal surface has a very fast turnover known as the 'Last 291 Super Effect' (Grine, 1986), a process by which the old micro-features are over-written by new 292 ones during each new food intake on the occlusal enamel. Precisely, this allows one to know 293 the diet briefly prior to the moment of death, i.e. daily/weekly feeding behaviour (Solounias 294 and Semprebon, 2002) and seasonal/local environmental conditions in the vicinity (Merceron 295 et al., 2004; Semprebon et al., 2004; Rivals and Semprebon, 2012). The relative proportion of 296 microscopic signals, i.e. scratches (NS) and pits (NP), allows distinguishing the main dietary 297 groups (Fig. 2): browsers display a higher proportion of pits than scratches, whereas grazers 298 typically show a higher number of scratches than pits (Semprebon et al., 2004; Solounias and 299 Semprebon, 2002). Mixed-feeders overlap the two previous groups because they show an 300 intermediate number of scratches and pits. Mixed-feeders can also show some

301 preferences/tendencies for one type of resource (i.e. attritive or abrasive) on a daily or 302 seasonally based pattern, including a slightly higher proportion of attritive or abrasive items. 303 They are referred to as browse- or grass-dominated mixed-feeders, respectively (Solounias and 304 Semprebon, 2002). The average NS and NP obtained from the archaeological record are 305 represented in a bivariate plot. Similarly, calculating the low range of scratches (LSR) of 306 individuals per taxon (i.e. individuals with NS between 0 and 17) allows recognising the dietary 307 particularities of a given population (Solounias and Semprebon, 2002; Semprebon and Rivals, 308 2007). Browsers show an LSR between 72.73% and 100%, whereas grazers show an LSR 309 between 22.2% and 0%. Mixed-feeders show an intermediate LSR between 20.93% and 70%. 310 Other qualitative variables are recorded, such as the scratch width score (SWS) (0 = fine; 1 = 311 mixture of fine and coarse; 2 = coarse; 3 = hyper-coarse, 4 = mixture of coarse and hyper-312 coarse), the presence of large pits (LP), and gouges (G) (Solounias and Semprebon, 2002; 313 Semprebon et al., 2011). The sampling protocol includes adult teeth presenting occlusal wear 314 facets without strong damage (Solounias and Semprebon, 2002). Initially, the occlusal surfaces 315 are washed using acetone and 96% ethanol. Then, for each tooth, a mould of the occlusal 316 surface is created using a high-resolution silicone (vinylpolysiloxane HeraeusProvil Novo Light 317 Regular Set). Finally, positive casts are made with a transparent and high-resolution epoxy 318 resin (C.T.S.[®] EPO 150) and catalyst (K 151). Teeth presenting post-depositional damages are 319 excluded (King et al., 1999; Martínez and Pérez-Pérez, 2004). For quantifying the microscopic 320 features, we use a Zeiss-Stemi 2000C stereomicroscope of transmitted light at x35 321 magnification with an ocular reticule delimiting a 0.16 mm² square area. The counting process 322 took place in two independent enamel areas, which were also separately analysed in duplicate 323 to obtain the average of microwear features per tooth (Semprebon et al., 2004; Solounias and 324 Semprebon, 2002). This system allows minimizing intra-observer errors (Semprebon et al., 325 2004). The analysis in those teeth with an integral structure conservation were focused on the 326 protocone (upper molars) and the protoconid (lower molars) (Semprebon et al., 2004;

327 Solounias and Semprebon, 2002). Otherwise, we also analysed small good preserved enamel
328 zones in tooth partially broken or taphonomically affected to increase the sample size.

329 Dental cementum. The technique is based on the study of the growth marks registered 330 seasonally within the dental cementum which covers the root surface (Scheffer, 1950; Laws, 331 1952; Sergeant and Pimlott, 1959; Klevezal and Kleinenberg, 1969; Grue and Jensen, 1979; 332 Stott et al., 1982). The analysis is primarily focused on the acellular cementum (specifically, the 333 Acellular Extrinsic Fibre Cementum (AEFC)) owing to its regular and predictable growing 334 pattern throughout the annual cycle (Schroeder, 1986; Sequeira et al., 1992; Naji et al., 2015). 335 The acellular cementum growth is characterised by two types of increment layers which differ 336 by the collagen deposition rate and the mineralisation degree (Klevezal and Kleinenberg, 1969; 337 Jones, 1987; Burke, 1993; Gordon, 1993; Gourichon, 2004). Viewed in transmitted light, these 338 increments appear respectively as translucid (TB) and opaque bands (OB) (Fig. 3) (Scheffer, 339 1950; Lieberman, 1991, 1993, 1994; Lieberman and Meadow, 1992; Burke and Castanet, 1995; 340 Pike-Tay, 1995; Gourichon, 2004). The hypo-mineralised TB, also called 'growth zones', result 341 from a fast growth pattern and are generally thicker than the OB. The hyper-mineralised OB, 342 also called 'annuli' or 'rest line', result from a slow growth pattern and may sometimes appear 343 as thin lines of arrested growth (Fig. 3) (LAG; e.g. Burke and Castanet, 1995). A wide range of 344 mammals from temperate regions is characterised by presenting seasonality within the 345 increment growing patterns (e.g. cervidae, bovidae, caprinae). The causes of seasonal 346 increment depositions cannot be strictly defined although multiple factors (exogenous and 347 endogenous) could be involved in the process; however, latitude seems to play an important 348 role (i.e. arctic, temperate, or tropical regions). It is also suggested that not all mammals 349 cohabiting the same region (e.g. some carnivores from Denmark) necessary follow the same 350 increment deposition schedule (Grue and Jensen, 1979). In other words, for the ungulates 351 studied here, the TB are generally deposited during seasons of greater amount of daily light, 352 also called 'good seasons' (i.e. spring to fall) (Pike-Tay, 1991a, 1991b, 1995), whereas the OB

353 are seen during the 'bad season' (i.e. winter) (Pike-Tay, 1991b, 1995; Lieberman, 1994). One 354 pair of bands (TB+OB) is therefore expected to correspond to a whole annual cycle. The age at 355 death of an individual can be estimated by adding the total number of pairs of bands observed 356 to the time of tooth eruption, whereas the season at death is deduced from the nature and 357 growth rate of the last cementum increment. When it corresponds to a TB, a more accurate 358 estimation can be reached by assessing its development ratio in comparison with the mean 359 thickness of the preceding and fully formed TB: beginning of the 'good season' (up to one-third 360 of the mean thickness; 1%–33.3%), middle (from one- to two-thirds; 33.4%–66.6%), or late 361 (more than two-thirds; 66.7%–100%) (Gourichon, 2004). Because of its small thickness, the OB 362 can hardly be measured and provides only a general estimation ('bad season'). According to 363 the available literature, the period of OB formation in the dental cementum of Cervus elaphus 364 appears to be partly related to latitudinal gradients: November–January in southern Iberia and 365 January–April in Scotland (Mitchell, 1967; Azorit et al., 2002, 2004; Azorit, 2011). Because the 366 formation of rest lines is delayed as the latitude decreases, we propose that the bad season in 367 northern Iberia would correspond to December-February, whereas the good season would 368 correspond to March–November (see Supplementary Fig. S1). Furthermore, we performed a 369 comparison between the growth percentage of the last cementum band and the NS/NP ratio 370 obtained for each individual to assess whether a specific dietary trend corresponds to a 371 particular season within the annual cycle.

The tooth samples were prepared following the standard techniques used for ground thinsections (Lieberman et al., 1990; Pike-Tay, 1991a; Stutz, 2002; Gourichon, 2004; Rendu, 2007; Naji et al., 2015). As recommended by one of us (LG), only one root was extracted to keep the maximum tooth integrity. Upper and lower molar with apparent good preservation state (no or only few fractures on the cementum surfaces) were chosen for the analysis. Primarily, the root was embedded within a transparent epoxy resin and, after drying, was separated from the crown. Next, 2–4 sections with thickness of 0.5–1 mm were cut from the root using a slowspeed rotating saw (Buehler Isomet 1000 or 5000), glued separately on a glass support, and
then abraded to the required thickness using a semi-automatic grinding device (Buehler
PetroThin) (Gourichon, 2004; Rendu, 2007; Naji et al., 2015). The analysis was performed using
a polarising light microscope Leica 2500P with x100, x200, x400, and x500 magnifications and
connected to a computer via a high-resolution digital camera (full-screen video) using three
distinct light filters: plane-polarised light, cross-polarised light, and full-wave retardation plate
(λ plate) (Stutz, 2002).

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387 5. <u>Results</u>
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388 5.1. Mesowear analysis

389 The tooth mesowear values (MWS) observed for Cervus elaphus from both sites 390 present a remarkable heterogeneity ranging from 1 to 4.5 (Table 2), that is, from browsers 391 (concentrated resource feeders) to grazers (grass and other herbaceous plant feeders). Red 392 deer from sub-units IIIa (n = 14) and IIIb (n = 34) of Teixoneres Cave have values corresponding 393 to animals with a typical annual diet pattern of mixed feeders (Table 2, Fig. 4A). Although the 394 Cervus elaphus sample from Arbreda Cave is too small to obtain reliable results (Table 2), we 395 obtained approximate information from all levels where the red deer is present except for 396 levels J and N. Data from level I (n = 3) suggest mixed feeders, whereas that from level K (n = 1) 397 suggested a browser diet. Levels L (n = 1) and M (n = 2) show the highest values (MWS = 3 and 398 4.5, respectively) (Table 2, Fig. 4A). These results suggest grass-dominated mixed-feeding for 399 level L, whereas higher levels of abrasion characterised the pure grazer, namely, red deer, for 400 level M (Fig. 4A).

401 *Equus ferus* teeth display similar MWS values ranging from 4 to 6 from an intra- and 402 inter-site perspective at both Mediterranean sites (Table 2). Horse are well-represented at 403 Teixoneres Cave, where sub-units IIIa (n = 17) and IIIb (n = 10) are representative of annual

dietary traits typical of pure grazers (Table 2, Fig. 4A). Regarding the horse from Arbreda Cave,
the small sample size limits the interpretation of the results (Table 2). However, the MWS
values from all levels suggest dietary patterns based on very abrasive items such as grass
(Table 2, Fig. 4A). It is therefore possible to observe small intra- and inter-site variations but
always within the same dietary group, namely, the grazers.

At Teixoneres Cave, the dietary pattern of *Equus hydruntinus* is comparable to that shown by the horse. Wild asses from sub-unit IIIa (n = 18) and sub-unit IIIb (n = 8) are characterised by an annual dietary pattern typical of grazers (Table 2, Fig. 4A).

412 **5.2. Microwear analysis**

413 The ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis) and Tukey's test indicate non-significant differences 414 between the six molar positions (upper and lower M1 to M3) both in Cervus elaphus (F = 415 0.782; p= 0.568) and Equus ferus (F = 2.631; p= 0.083). The comparison of the different dental 416 position in the red deer from Teixoneres sub-units IIIa and IIIb did not show any significant 417 difference (F = 1.189; p= 0.334). Similarly, the statistical analysis between the samples from 418 sites do not show significant differences: Cervus elaphus (F= 0.104; p= 0.748) and Equus ferus 419 (F= 0.191; p= 0.670) (see Table S5 from supplementary dataset). Premolars were excluded 420 from the analysis due to the extremely low sample size. We can conclude that there are no 421 significant differences in microwear patterns among the different dental positions in red deer 422 and horse, and that all molars can be lumped together to increase sample size.

423 *Cervus elaphus* do not show strong variations in dental microwear at the two sites, as 424 evidenced by the average NS and NP (Fig. 5A) as well as by LSR (Fig. 4B) (Table 2). Red deer 425 from sub-units IIIa (n = 15) and IIIb (n = 42) of Teixoneres Cave and level J (n = 14) of Arbreda 426 Cave were mixed-feeders (Table 2, Fig. 4B and 3A). Nevertheless, the sample from level I of 427 Arbreda Cave (n = 3) suggests grass-dominated mixed-feeders and that from level L (n = 2) 428 suggests a mixed-feeder diet (Table 2, Fig. 4B and 3A); however, they do not allow obtaining

statistically reliable results because the number of teeth is very low. Instead, the approximate
results from level K (n = 1) appear to be shifted toward the browser zone of the confidence
ellipse and differ from the general dietary features evidenced for the other levels (Fig. 5A).
Level M (n = 2) show NS and NP values that suggest mixed-feeder traits (Fig. 5A).

433 Looking at the results individually, the red deer population from level J of Arbreda Cave is characterised by a scratch width score (SWS) predominated by fine scratches that reflect the 434 435 consumption of more attritive resources than abrasive ones. In addition, the intermediate 436 value of large pits (LP) suggests the occasional consumption of hard items like twigs, whereas 437 the absence of gouges and puncture pits suggests no regular consumption of fruits (Table 2). 438 Red deer from Teixoneres Cave present a similar pattern at both sub-units, where the slightly 439 higher SWS at sub-unit IIIb agrees with the results observed at level J of Arbreda Cave (Table 440 2), suggesting the ingestion of hard items. In addition, they present an increase in LP values 441 with respect to level J (Table 2), suggesting greater ingestion of hard elements such as twigs. 442 Similarly, the absence of gouges suggests no fruit/seed consumption (Table 2).

443 *Equus ferus* shows similar grazer dietary traits at an intra- and inter-site level (Table 2). 444 The horse tooth samples from sub-units IIIa (n = 29) and IIIb (n = 12) of Teixoneres Cave and 445 from level J (n= 10) of Arbreda Cave (with slightly higher NP) lie outside the grazer confidence 446 ellipse despite their NS values being representative of grazers (Fig. 5B). Otherwise, the LSR 447 values indicate grazer dietary patterns (Table 2, Fig. 4B) and agree with the NS values (Fig. 5B). 448 Therefore, although the high NP values are placed three levels above the grazer confidence 449 ellipse, the NS range still corresponds to typical grazers, highlighting a very abrasive diet for 450 horse (Table 2, Fig. 5B). Regarding the levels of Arbreda Cave with small sample size (i.e. I, K, L, 451 M, and N) (Table 2), all showed NS and NP values as well as LSR values close to the three levels 452 described previously, which are typical of a grazer dietary pattern (Table 2, and Figs. 2B and 453 3B).

The SWS values observed at both sites correspond to a mixture of fine and coarse scratches, which indicate the ingestion of resources with abrasive properties (Table 2). The high XS and low LP values observed for sub-unit IIIa and level J correlate with typical grazers, whereas data from sub-unit IIIb show an XS intermediate value and an elevated LP proportion, which are atypical for grazers (Table 2). The absence of gouges (G) and puncture pits indicates that seeds and fruits were not regularly consumed (Table 2).

460 Regarding the Equus hydruntinus sample from Teixoneres Cave, both sub-units (IIIa 461 and IIIb) show a high NP and lie outside the modern grazer confidence ellipse; however, the NS 462 corresponds to grazer dietary patterns (Table 2, Fig. 5C). The LSR data from sub-unit IIIa agree 463 with the NS values because they indicate a grazer diet, whereas those from sub-unit IIIb 464 indicate a grass-dominated mixed-feeder diet (Table 2) (Fig. 4B). The SWS values observed at 465 both sub-units (IIIa and IIIb) show a mixture of fine and coarse scratches typical of animals 466 consuming abrasive resources (Table 2). However, sub-unit IIIa shows a higher proportion of 467 XS and lower values of LP, representing grazer features, whereas at sub-unit IIIb, the XS and LP 468 values show increased attritive resource consumption as mixed-feeders (Table 2).

469 **5.3. Cementum analysis**

The cementum analysis was performed on *Cervus elaphus* from both Teixoneres and Arbreda caves. The study of the samples from Teixoneres Cave produced data for sub-unit IIIb (n = 7) but not for sub-unit IIIa (n = 1) (Table 3) owing to the bad preservation of cementum tissue. The seven teeth from IIIb provide a large variety of estimates regarding the season of death (Table 3). For five of them, the last increment identified is a translucid band (TB) either at the first growth stage (n = 3) or at an intermediate stage (n = 2) (Fig. 6).The two remaining teeth show a final opaque band whose degree of growth cannot be measured (Table 3, Fig. 6).

477 Concerning Arbreda Cave, data from only three *Cervus elaphus* teeth are available
478 owing to the extreme fragmentation and bad preservation of the dental assemblage. In the

two samples from level L, the cementum sequence ends with a TB in its intermediate growth
stage, whereas the single tooth from level M shows a final OB (Table 3 and Table S3 from
supplementary data). However, the samples from these levels (i.e. L and M) is not large
enough to provide interpretable data, neither to be integrated into the discussion.

483 Finally, we compared the microwear dietary results with the estimated season of 484 death for each individual (Table 4, Fig. 7). Considering the complex histological processes 485 involved in the formation and deposition of dental cementum in the equid teeth as well as the 486 poor state of preservation of red deer teeth at Arbreda level J and Teixoneres sub-unit Illa, we 487 only have interpretable data for sub-unit IIIb. Although red deer from sub-unit IIIb comprise a 488 wide range of death times throughout the annual cycle (Table 3; Fig. 6), we cannot identify any 489 distinct feeding pattern related to the natural seasons (i.e. spring, summer, autumn, winter). 490 However, by dividing the annual cycle between good season (i.e. spring to fall) and bad season 491 (winter), the data reveal a slight increase in the intake of attritive items during the bad season 492 (Table 4; Fig. 7).

493

494 **6.** <u>Discussion</u>

495 6.1. Ungulates' dietary traits

The vegetation composition and distribution in the Iberian Peninsula have been affected by the climatic fluctuations of the MIS 3 (Roucoux et al., 2005; Sánchez-Goñi and D'Errico, 2005; Uzquiano-Ollero, 2008; Sánchez-Goñi et al., 2010; Uzquiano-Ollero et al., 2016; Allué et al., 2017). In addition, the latitudinal location of the Peninsula along with the complex orography favours a broad diversity of faunal and vegetal resources. Consequently, substantial changes can be expected in the quality and type of vegetal cover along with the environmental conditions within a small area and over short distances. While located in a relatively stable

503 climatic Mediterranean zone characterized by patchy landscapes as attested in several 504 stratigraphic sequences of the MIS 5 to 3, e.g. Abric Romaní, Cova Gran, Coll Verdaguer, Riera 505 de les Terrases dels Canyars, or Cova del Rinoceront (Allué et al., 2018, 2017; Daura et al., 506 2017, 2015; Fernández-García, 2019; Fernández-García et al., 2016; López-García et al., 2015), 507 the latitude and altitude characteristics of Arbreda and Teixoneres Caves could have 508 influenced the feeding strategies of the fauna living around. However, the dietary behaviour 509 observed for the two most common ungulates, Cervus elaphus and Equus ferus, do not show 510 adaptive changes irrespective of the site and stratigraphic level (Ramírez-Pedraza et al., 2019). 511 The same was not true of *Equus hydruntinus*, which showed seasonal variations in its dietary 512 behaviour.

513 The feeding plasticity observed in the extant red deer refers to an alternation of 514 browsing (i.e. concentrate resources) and grazing (i.e. grasses and other herbaceous plants) as 515 mixed-feeders (i.e. attritive-abrasive items) (Staines and Crisp, 1978; Hofmann, 1989; Gebert 516 and Verheyden-Tixier, 2001; Solounias and Semprebon, 2002; Berlioz et al., 2017). Specifically, 517 this selective alternation between different types of resources is indicative of seasonal 518 patterns shifting along the annual cycle as a consequence of their availability and nutritional 519 quality (Mátrai and Kabai, 1989; Bugalho et al., 2001; Carranza, 2011; Azorit et al., 2012; Ismaili 520 et al., 2018). Indeed, annual (mesowear) and daily/weekly (microwear) dietary trends 521 observed for the red deer from Teixoneres Cave correspond to the pattern observed for some 522 extant populations as typical mixed-feeders. However, we are not able to identify adaptive 523 behaviours related to seasonal preferences, probably owing to a continuous input throughout 524 the year by Neanderthals within the cave (Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2014, 2016). A slight 525 predominance of concentrate items over grasses could be argued for because of the 526 predominance of fine scratches (low SWS) at both sub-units (IIIa and IIIb), suggesting browse-527 dominated mixed-feeders. However, the absence of other features related to strict hard 528 element consumption (e.g. lignified forage plants, bark, seeds, or fruits) like coarse or mixed

scratches type and gouges suggest that the high percentage of large pits could not be
exclusively attributed to browsing episodes during the mixed diet. Indeed, in mixed-feeders,
grass consumption close to the ground may also increase the number of large pits owing to the
abundance of extrinsic particles in the bolus (i.e. dust, grit) (Solounias and Semprebon, 2002;
Semprebon and Rivals, 2007).

The level J of Arbreda Cave lacks annual dietary data (mesowear); however, this interpretation could be approached by combining the microwear results of this level and the extant reference database. Both suggest a typical mixed-feeder diet without concentrate or grass preferences (browser or grazer, respectively). The lower percentage of large pits observed at level J of Arbreda Cave may indicate minor consumption of both hard items and extrinsic particles in comparison to that at Teixoneres cave.

540 Cervus elaphus seems to alternate between concentrate resources and grasses (i.e. 541 attritive and abrasive) as long as they are available in the surroundings of both sites and their 542 quality is enough to cover their nutritional demands for survival. This perspective could be 543 reinforced by the combined results of Arbreda Cave levels M and L, where annual and 544 daily/weekly diets show different results (i.e. grazer and mixed-feeder, respectively). It seems 545 to be a common feeding behaviour within the region because red deer from the Abric Romaní 546 (Capellades, Barcelona, Spain) shelter also show a wide dietary pattern (i.e. from browser to 547 grass-dominated mixed-feeders) (Fernández-Laso et al., 2011; Allué et al., 2012; Burjachs et al., 548 2012).

549 Similarly, *Equus ferus* shows a stable average annual and daily/weekly dietary pattern 550 at both sites that is focused exclusively on grass consumption (abrasive items). These dietary 551 traits are indicative of strict grazer behaviour and are supported by the high proportion of 552 coarse scratches on the enamel surface. Nevertheless, an unexpectedly high number of pits is 553 seen for typical grazers, which could initially suggest concentrate resource ingestion (attritive

554 wear). This may be conceivable because it has been suggested that modern (Duncan, 1991; 555 Nowak, 1999; Baskin and Banell, 2003; Ungar, 2010) and ancient horse populations (Rivals et 556 al., 2009, 2015; Ecker et al., 2013) occasionally browsed. However, MWS and LSR values 557 unequivocally indicate a grazing diet at both sites, with no suggestion of concentrate item 558 consumption and opening new alternatives to explain the high number of pits. The grazing 559 behaviour combined with the high number of pits have already been seen in the 560 archaeological record of Payre level D (Rhone Valley, France), Wallertheim level F (Mainz, 561 Germany), and Covalejos levels 8 and 7 (Cantabria, Spain) (Rivals et al., 2009; Sánchez-562 Hernández et al., 2019). Specifically, Wallertheim (level F) and Covalejos (levels 8 and 7) caves 563 are related to the appearance of colder and dryer pulsations that increase dust particles in the 564 ingested resources. We suggest that this explanation is also relevant for Arbreda and 565 Teixoneres caves, where both concentrate resources and grasses would contain elevated 566 amounts of extrinsic particles.

567 According to the dental wear results, the dietary traits of Equus hydruntinus show an 568 annual grazing pattern at both Teixoneres sub-units, indicating strict grass consumption. 569 However, these annual dietary traits, always as a grazer, present lower values than those for 570 horse (less abrasiveness). This could be related to the phenotypic variation of plants 571 (Dzieciolowski, 1970; Janis, 1976; Albon and Langvatn, 1992; Walker et al., 1995; Langvatn et 572 al., 1996; Walsh et al., 1997; Post and Stenseth, 1999; Pettorelli et al., 2005), pushing equids to 573 feed on diverse sections of the same plants or even on different herbaceous species. In fact, 574 the annual and daily/weekly diets at sub-unit IIIa reflect strict grass consumption. On the other 575 hand, the sub-unit IIIb daily/weekly diet indicates seasonal intake of concentrate items shifting 576 toward a mixed-feeder diet. The fact that this dietary shift does not have a significant influence 577 on the annual feeding pattern suggests that it could correspond to short event(s) within similar 578 environmental conditions through time.

579 Therefore, these equids seem to adopt similar dietary strategies at Teixoneres Cave 580 because both annually feed on grasses despite different abrasiveness values. It could be 581 considered that they do not simultaneously inhabit the area, which would allow them to feed 582 on the same resources without interspecific competition. Although the wild ass is proposed to 583 be a seasonal migrator within limited and small areas as a taxa with a strong territorial habit 584 (Burke et al., 2003; Burke, 2006), some authors questioned these seasonal movements as well 585 as the long-distance migratory character of Palaeolithic horse (Britton et al., 2012). On the 586 assumption that both equid species cohabited in the same area throughout the year, we 587 consider other ways to explain the absence of interspecific competition and different adaptive 588 strategies at sub-unit IIIa. Actually, there are similarities with the Serengeti ungulates that have 589 shown a dietary succession within ungulate species in the same space (Vesey-Fitzgerald, 1960; 590 Gwynne and Bell, 1968). Specifically, ungulates feeding on grasses could get partitioned access 591 to food both qualitatively (i.e. fed on different parts of the same plants) as well as seasonally. 592 Furthermore, Fortelius and Solounias (2000) later confirmed these feeding behaviours in the 593 same region through dental mesowear. In this perspective, for sub-unit IIIa, the lower annual 594 abrasive values observed for the wild ass, along with the territorial behaviour of this taxa, 595 suggest differential access to the same grasses compared to contemporary horse. On the 596 contrary, at sub-unit IIIb, we identified different adaptive behaviours of the wild ass, which 597 complemented grass intake with concentrate resources. Here, wetter environmental 598 conditions appear to have seasonally influenced the quality or/and availability of grasses on 599 which both equids fed (López-García et al., 2012). This periodically pushed wild asses to adapt 600 their feeding strategies and to perform a seasonal partitioning of the resources to survive.

601 Indeed, neither the latitude nor the almost 600 m difference in altitude between the 602 two sites seem to have strongly modified the surrounding resources because the red deer and 603 horse were not forced to adapt their annual feeding strategies. The natural course of the 604 annual cycle seems to have a low impact on available resources except for sub-unit IIIb, where

grasses are temporarily reduced, thus modifying the diet of the wild ass. Therefore, although
we could consider that the annual dietary homogeneity of these taxa was due to the low
mesowear sensitivity in detecting seasonal variations (i.e. suitable for long-term
measurements), the microwear results are conclusive with the annual dietary pattern.
Thereby, no long-term shifts and interspecific competition between cervids and equids related
to latitude or altitude can be detected for these contexts; they are seen only at the
intraspecific level for equids.

612 6.2. Seasonality of diet

613 The feeding behaviour of red deer at sub-unit IIIb shows a slight seasonal pattern with 614 increased consumption of grasses and other herbaceous plants during winter, as evidenced by 615 the correlation of daily/weekly feeding traits and the season of death. This trend contradicts 616 the expected seasonal variation observed for the extant European red deer, which usually tend 617 to increase browsing during winter as a result of nutritional constraints (Staines and Crisp, 618 1978; Gebert and Verheyden-Tixier, 2001). However, Mediterranean environments reach the 619 richest nutritional period at the end of autumn and during winter. During this period, the 620 extant red deer prioritises grasses and other herbaceous items because the tissue of 621 concentrate resources would lignify, thus hindering the digestive process (Gutman and 622 Seligman, 1979; Seligman, 1996; Bugalho et al., 2001; Bugalho and Milne, 2003; Weladji et al., 623 2002; Azorit et al., 2012). This could explain the increased NP and NS. In addition, this case is 624 not isolated; the same trend has also been observed in the M level of Abric Romaní, whose 625 individuals were hunted from October to December and showed a predominance of grass 626 consumption within the mixed diet (Fernández-Laso et al., 2011a). 627 However, this dietary particularity in sub-unit IIIb cannot be considered a drastic

adaptive response to seasonal environmental oscillations because it occurs within the same
 dietary group: mixed-feeder. Instead, it could suggest that the dietary behaviour of Palaeolithic

630 red deer at these sites was closer to that of current Iberian cervids than in the rest of the 631 European continent. This implies that their current dietary behaviour in this area could have 632 begun to generalise during the Middle Palaeolithic. The previous interpretation also reinforces 633 the idea of the Iberian Peninsula as a climatic refuge during the Palaeolithic climatic 634 oscillations and supports the important role of the Mediterranean as a determining factor for 635 the environmental, vegetal, and faunal development of this area in this period. With regard to 636 vegetal issues, the Mediterranean winter would favour an increase in grass quality and a 637 decrease in concentrate resources and their availability. Therefore, the seasonal increase in 638 the consumption of concentrate resources by the wild ass could be indirectly placed during the 639 summer because the expected lower quality or availability of grasses in this season could push 640 them to complement their diet with leaves or shrubs (Rodríguez-Berrocal, 1978; Gutman and 641 Seligman, 1979; Bugalho et al., 1998; Seligman, 1996).

Given these results, questions arise about the type of mixed-feeding behaviour of the red deer, that is, seasonal or meal-by-meal (Solounias and Semprebon, 2002). Although the regression line indicates a slight increase in grasses in winter suggesting seasonal influences, the variation is minimal and remains within the same dietary group. Therefore, in the absence of a larger study, the regular alternation between concentrate items and grass consumption could correspond to a meal-by-meal mixed-feeding pattern.

648 6.3. Paleoenvironmental conditions

The dietary reconstruction of ungulates through dental wear and cementum analysis may be used as an indirect proxy to reconstruct the paleoenvironmental conditions and the landscape features in which they inhabited. The homogenous dietary pattern of *Cervus elaphus* at both sites is characterised by undifferentiated feeding on concentrate items and grasses, suggesting immediate access to both open and wooded habitats. The feeding behaviour of *Equus ferus* indicates the permanent presence of open areas in the surroundings

655 of both sites, whereas that of Equus hydruntinus indicates some seasonal fluctuations within a 656 relatively stable environment for Teixoneres Cave during the year. Therefore, ungulates' 657 dietary patterns as observed at Arbreda and Teixoneres caves suggest similar landscapes 658 mainly comprising patched areas with comparable proportions of open and wooded areas. 659 This landscape reconstruction is in accordance with the temperate environmental 660 requirements of large and small vertebrates and the vegetal assemblages identified at these 661 sites (López-García et al., 2012, 2015; Álvarez-Lao et al., 2017; Luzi et al., 2017; Rosell et al., 662 2017; Rufí et al., 2018). The dietary features observed for ungulates correlate well with the 663 relative temperate and humid conditions for the three studied assemblages.

664 Regarding Arbreda Cave, such conditions as described above for level J could have 665 been similar to those proposed for level I through the study of micro-vertebrates (as data are 666 not available yet for level J), where the relative degree of humidity could occasionally decrease 667 (López-García et al., 2015). For Teixoneres Cave, temperate and humid conditions were also 668 recognised for the whole unit III by other micro-vertebrate studies (López-García et al., 2012; 669 Luzi et al., 2017). However, our data allow identifying small variations for sub-units IIIa and IIIb. 670 Specifically, the seasonal increase in the consumption of concentrate items by the wild ass 671 indicates a major pressure over grasses, probably because of the seasonal intensification of 672 humidity around the cave. On the contrary, sub-unit Illa is characterised by an increase in grass 673 consumption by both the red deer and the wild ass along with the strict grazer diet of the 674 horse, suggesting the presence of open areas around the cave. It could also evidence the 675 worsening of environmental features toward colder and dryer conditions with respect to sub-676 unit IIIb, as identified previously, which eventually culminate in unit II (López-García et al., 677 2015; Fernández-García, 2019).

678 Deriving out from a regional perspective, the unexpectedly high number of pits for
679 horse at both sites could be a consequence of the occurrence of dry pulsations, especially for

level J and sub-unit IIIa. This was previously observed at Covalejos Cave (Cantabria, Spain) and was attributed to an aridity increase (Sánchez-Hernández et al., *in press*). At the two caves, the marginal and occasional presence of cold-adapted taxa such as *Mammuthus primigenius* (level J and sub-unit IIIa) and *Coelodonta antiquitatis* (sub-unit IIIb) support the hypothesis about the persistence of open areas (i.e. steppes) and the effects of cold and dry pulsations (Álvarez-Lao et al., 2017; Rufí et al., 2018).

686 Due to the rapid and extreme climatic fluctuations during the MIS 3, strong 687 fluctuations should be expected in the habitats at each site. Indeed, the paleoenvironmental 688 reconstruction based on ungulates' palaeodiets at both sites agree well with the cyclical HE 689 and DO oscillations (Dansgaard et al., 1982; Heinrich, 1988; Johnsen et al., 1992; Rasmussen et 690 al., 2014), as evidenced by the alternation of temperate-humid and cold-dry phases. However, 691 we suggest softer consequences than expected for the northeast Iberian because neither the 692 dietary patterns nor the ecological features corresponding to these levels seem to have been 693 strongly affected; only seasonal variations were seen. Previous anthracological and pollen 694 studies support our hypothesis because they show a transitional vegetal coverture where the 695 patched landscape was dominated by Pinus sylvestris along with steppe taxa during cold 696 pulsations and tree taxa with temperate requirements (Allué, 2002; Burjachs et al., 2012b; 697 Carrión et al., 2010; Rubiales et al., 2010; Daura et al., 2013; Allué et al., 2017, 2018). 698 Furthermore, available data from other archaeological sites in the same region and dated to 699 similar periods agree with the environmental features exposed herein. Indeed, level J from 700 Abric Romaní (50.4 ± 1.6 to 49.3 ± 1.6 ka BP) (Bischoff 1988; Vallverdu, 2012, Vaquero 2013) 701 and the Mousterian sequence from Cova Coll de Verdaguer (Barcelona, Spain) (56 to 34 ka BP) 702 (Daura et al., 2017) show the predominance of temperate conditions. Besides the significant 703 presence of wooded areas similarly to that observed in sub-unit IIIb of Teixoneres Cave (Allué 704 et al., 2012; Daura et al., 2015). By contrast, level J (Arbreda Cave) and sub-unit IIIa (Teixoneres 705 Cave) are consistent with the spread of open areas and maintenance of forests during the

706 colder-dryer environmental pulsations. This trend will culminate in the worsened 707 environmental features identified at unit II of Teixoneres Cave and Terrasses de la Riera dels 708 Canyars (López-García et al., 2012; Daura et al., 2013; Allué et al., 2017; Fernández-García, 709 2019). The contextualisation of our results highlighted that even during pulsations of severe 710 climate deterioration, the region remained an environmental refuge with relatively temperate 711 and humid conditions and without complete disappearance of woodland areas. The features of 712 these landscapes could generate an environmental context conducive to the survival of 713 Neanderthal groups, where the availability of different preys would guarantee their acquisition 714 at any time of the year (Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2019). The new perspective could suggest as 715 hypothesis that the short but repetitive occupations observed for Teixoneres Cave (Sánchez-716 Hernández et al., 2016, 2014) would not be determined by factors such hominin ecological 717 pressure over the resources, but that other factors would be involved in decision-making 718 within the dynamics of settlement and movement of these populations.

719

720 **7.** <u>Conclusion</u>

Starting from a methodological perspective, we can conclude that the combination of dental wear and cementum analyses has provided fundamental information for the dietary behaviour of red deer and equids and for environmental reconstructions. The maintenance of the homogenous dietary behaviour of red deer and horse at both sites revealed similar local environmental features over a long-term scale despite the latitude and altitude. By contrast, the wild ass (without a counterpart at Arbreda Cave) suggested a slight influence of the season and altitude on resource quality and availability during the annual cycle at Teixoneres Cave.

This combination also proved itself useful in identifying and placing the dietary trends
of red deer within the annual cycle and in linking them to possible seasonal environmental

730 factors. Nevertheless, a larger sample size for cementum analysis is required to assess whether

the dietary trend of the red deer in sub-unit IIIb is due to seasonal influences or the

732 circumstantial behaviour of these seven individuals with a meal-by-meal mixed-feeder diet.

The more accurate knowledge of ungulate palaeodiets would help in further research with

archaeological perspectives to precise the relevance of the ungulates preys and environmental

735 features within the decision taken by Neanderthal groups for survival within the

736 Mediterranean region of the Iberian Peninsula.

737 Therefore, further investigations should expand the archaeological cementum sample

- to corroborate these observations and to extend them to other ungulates like equids at these
- sites. This will provide a broader view of the dietary behaviours of various species. The present

study also highlights the need to work on the extant counterpart of Neanderthal prey like

741 equids to create a more solid reference database and to develop studies of increased

742 deposition schedules of north Iberian red deer.

743

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 RB, FR, JS, and NS provided materials for the research. CSH performed the dental wear and
 cementum sampling processes. CSH analysed the materials and the results with contributions
 from LG and FR. CSH wrote the original draft with inputs from FR and LG. All authors have read
 and approved the manuscript.

- 761 Data Availability. All data generated during this study are included here and in the
- 762 Supplementary Information file.
- 763 **Competing Interests.** The authors declare no competing interests.
- 764 Figure captions
- 765 **Figure 1.** Location (A) and stratigraphy of Arbreda Cave (B) and Teixoneres Cave (C).
- 766 **Figure 2.** Microscopic images (x35) of molar enamel surfaces with observable microwear
- 767 features (i.e. scratches and pits). From left to right: (A) Cervus elaphus from Arbreda Cave; (B)

768 Equus ferus and (C) Equus hydruntinus from Teixoneres Cave.

- Figure 3. Microscopic view with natural (A) and polarized light plus λ lame (B) of translucid and
 opaque cementum bands (TB & OB). Crosses point out the observed translucid bands (TB); Red
 square represents a small zone of cementum, which extends on a northeast / southwest axis.
- Figure 4. Mesowear (A) and microwear (B) results of the three selected ungulates from
 Arbreda (level J) and Teixoneres caves (sub-units IIIa and IIIb) and dietary bars of extant
 ungulates (Fortelius and Solounias, 2000; Solounias and Semprebon, 2002).
- 775 Figure 5. Bivariate plot of the average number of pits and scratches from the three selected 776 ungulate taxa from Arbreda and Teixoneres caves: Cervus elaphus (A), Equus ferus (B), and 777 Equus hydruntinus (C). Errors bar correspond to standard deviation (±1 S.D.) for the fossil 778 samples. Plain ellipses correspond to Gaussian ellipses (p = 0.95) on the centroid for the extant 779 leaf browsers (B) and grazers (G) from Solounias and Semprebon (2002). Abbreviations: ab 780 (Alcelaphus buselaphus), AA (Alces alces), AM (Antilocapra americana), BE (Boocercus 781 eurycerus), bu (Bubalus mindorensis), CB (Camelus bactrianus), CL (Camelus dromedaries), CE 782 (Cervus elaphus), ct (Connochaetes taurinus), Dd (Dama dama), DB (Diceros bicornis), eg 783 (Equus grevi), GC (Giraffa Camelopardalis), ha (Hippopotamus amphibius), hn (Hippotragus 784 niger), ke (Kobus ellipsiprymnus), Lgu (Lama guanicoe), LW (Litocranius walleri), Ly (Loxodonta 785 cyclotis), and Mr (Muntiacus reevesi).
- Figure 6. Schematic representation of *Cervus elaphus* death events in sub-unit IIIb of
 Teixoneres Cave. Percentages correspond to the degree of development of the last TB.
- Figure 7. Dispersion graph between the percentage of cementum band development and the
 ratio of number of scratches (NS) and number of pits (NP) of *Cervus elaphus* at death from sub unit IIIb of Teixoneres Cave. Abbreviators: GS= Good Season; BS= Bad Season.
- 791
- 792 Table captions
- **Table 1.** Summary of Sample Size by Taxa Site and Techniques. Abbreviations: TX = Teixoneres
 Cave; ARB = Arbreda Cave; N = number of specimens with interpretable data per technique.
- **Table 2.** Summary of meso- and microwear data of Arbreda and Teixoneres caves.
- 796 Abbreviations: N = number of specimens; MWS = mesowear score; LSR = microwear score; NS
- 797 = average number of scratches; NP = average number of pits; %LP = percentage of individuals

- with large pits; %G = percentage of individuals with gouges; and SWS = scratch textureanalysis.
- Table 3. Summary of cementum data from levels L and M of Arbreda Cave and sub-unit IIIb of
 Teixoneres Cave. Abbreviations: Ref = reference number attributed by the authors; Nº CB=
 number of pairs of bands observed in the acellular cementum; LCB = last cementum band
 observed; % Dev = % growth ratio of the last cementum increment; Seasonality = season at the
- individual's death; OP = dark and hyper-mineralised cementum band; TB = clear and hypo-
- 805 mineralised cementum band; M = upper molar; and m = lower molar.
- **Table 4.** Summary of cementum and NS/NP data from sub-unit IIIb of Teixoneres Cave.
- 807 Abbreviations: Ref = reference number attributed by the authors; Nº CB= number of pairs of
- 808 bands observed in the acellular cementum; LCB = last cementum band observed; % Dev = %
- growth ratio of the last cementum increment; OB = dark and high mineralized (opaque)
- 810 cementum band; TB = clear and low mineralized (translucid) cementum band; NS = number of
- 811 scratches; NP= number of pits; NS/NP= ratio of number of scratches and pits; NP/NS= ratio of
- 812 number of pits and scratches; M = upper molar; and m = lower molar.



Monitor Units









