



Hydroclimate reconstruction through MIS 3 in the Middle Paleolithic site of Crvena Stijena (Montenegro) based on hydrogen-isotopic composition of sedimentary *n*-alkanes

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ABSTRACT

This study presents a hydroclimatic reconstruction from Crvena Stijena (Montenegro, Balkan Peninsula), a rock shelter that has yielded evidence for Middle Paleolithic human occupation. The integration of lipid biomarkers, hydrogen (δD) isotopic compositions of *n*-alkanes, and organic elemental geochemistry in the 7-m deep vertical sedimentary sequence enables reconstruction of the main hydrological and environmental changes during the MIS 3 and their correlation with the presence at the site. We apply agglomerative hierarchical clustering and principal component analysis to the geochemical, molecular, and stable isotopic data to obtain a robust hydrological record. We find evidence of three aridity trends from the studied period, one of them correlated with the Heinrich Event 5, and humid and cold-temperate conditions in archaeology-rich layers. Our dataset also contributes to the knowledge of past hydrological variability in the Balkan Peninsula, a sensitive area to short-lived climatic shifts, and overall, in the Mediterranean region during the last glacial/interglacial cycle.

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1. Introduction

Temperature, aridity and humidity changes, the occurrence of abrupt millennial-scale oscillations and overall climatic variability may have been influential in the distribution and movement of past human populations (Gilligan, 2007; Cohen and Gibbard, 2019). Since the Neanderthals appeared in Europe around 430 Ka (Meyer et al., 2014, 2016) during Marine Isotope Stage 12 (MIS 12; ~478–424 Ka) and for a long expanse of time covering MIS 3 up to ~40 Ka (Benazzi et al., 2011; Higham et al., 2014), human

populations experienced glacial/interglacial cycles and numerous abrupt climatic fluctuations. Looking at the site frequency as a rough proxy of Neanderthal presence, there are more sites around globally warm MIS 5e and MIS 3 than around cold MIS 4 (van Andel and Davies, 2003; Mallol et al., 2019). The apparent reduction in the number of Neanderthal sites from the end of MIS 5 through MIS 4 could be related with the long-term global cooling trend associated with MIS 5a-4. MIS 5e (~125–119 Ka) was one of the warmest interglacial periods of the last 800 Ka (Jouzel et al., 2007; Lang and Wolff, 2011) and MIS 3 (~60–27 Ka) was a highly unstable climatic period with six cold periods (Heinrich events, HE) and fourteen warm periods (Dansgaard–Oeschger events, D-O) (Heinrich, 1988; Dansgaard et al., 1993; Rasmussen et al., 2014).

In Europe, the terrestrial response to HE and D-O oscillations

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have been recorded as rapid changes in precipitation and temperature as evidenced in lacustrine sedimentary sequences (Lago Grande di Monticchio, Ohrid and Prespa; [Lézine et al., 2010](#); [Vogel et al., 2010](#); [Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014](#); [Sinopoli et al., 2018](#)) and speleothems ([Weber et al., 2018](#); [Columbu et al., 2020](#)). These climatic events have also been identified through multiproxy studies at different Middle Palaeolithic human occupation sites (e.g., [Courty and Vallverdu, 2001](#); [d'Errico and Goñi, 2003](#); [Boschian et al., 2017](#); [Biltekin et al., 2019](#)), covering short or discontinuous periods of time.

Here we focus on the Middle Palaeolithic site of Crvena Stijena (CS) (Montenegro, Balkan Peninsula) to provide a picture of climatic and environmental changes at the last interglacial/glacial cycle (MIS 5-2) and to understanding the relationship between past climate changes and human adaptation. Excavations of the CS rock shelter in the mid 1950's through the early 1960's uncovered a 20-m deep sedimentary sequence spanning from the Middle Paleolithic through the Bronze Age ([Basler, 1975](#)); later from 2004 to 2015, Mesolithic and late Middle Paleolithic deposits were excavated ([Baković et al., 2009](#); [Whallon, 2017](#)) and from 2016 to the present excavations have continued within the Middle Paleolithic deposits ([Monnier et al., 2020](#)).

CS is a karstic rock shelter with a 20-m deep sedimentary sequence that comprises thirty-one lithostratigraphic units ([Brunnacker, 1975](#)) covering from MIS 4 (Unit XXIV, at 9.5 m depth, a 52.2 ± 6.6 Ka-TL date) to the early Holocene (Unit II, 8.4 ka cal BP-an AMS date at 50 cm depth) ([Morley, 2017](#)) and anchored by a tephra layer date (Unit XI, at 7.5 m depth, a Y5 tephra date from the Campanian Ignimbrite at 39.9 ka, [Morley and Woodward, 2011](#)). However, the chronology of the lower part of the sequence (Unit XXIV) is uncertain, considering the oldest thermoluminescence (TL) date (70.0 ± 6.2 ka) and electron spin resonance (ESR) date (78.3 ± 0.3 ka) data, which extend the sequence to MIS 5a ([Mercier et al., 2017](#)). Independently of the uncertainties associated with the chronometric data from different dating methods ([Mercier et al., 2017](#)), archaeological assemblages ([Mihailović and Whallon, 2017](#); [Mihailović et al., 2017a](#)) combined with sedimentology and bulk chemical analysis ([Morley, 2017](#)), zooarchaeological ([Morin and Soulier, 2017](#)) and anthracological data ([Shaw, 2017](#)) appear to indicate that the upper part of the CS sequence (Units XI-XIII, 7.5–9 m depth) correlates with MIS 3 (see [Whallon and Morin, 2017](#)), a key period in human evolution involving the demise of the Neandertals and their replacement by Anatomically Modern Humans. These studies, compiled in [Whallon \(2017\)](#) and previous work by [Brunnacker \(1975\)](#) have provided valuable archaeological and environmental insights, together with results from recent archaeomagnetic ([Bradák et al., 2021](#)) and rRNA sequencing ([Jones et al., 2021](#)) studies.

Regarding sedimentary organic matter (OM), the archaeology-rich units (combustion-rich layers: Units XXIV, XXII and XX), have been the object of molecular and isotopic analyses mainly focused on tracing the source of animal fats and exploring combustion temperatures. Different proxies have been measured to this end: 1) fatty acid and sterol identification and palmitic and stearic acid carbon isotope composition, i.e. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{16:0}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{18:0}$ from Unit XX and the middle of Unit XXIV (archaeology-rich) and Unit XXIII (natural sedimentation: coarse gravelly layers) ([March et al., 2017](#)), 2) *n*-alkyl nitrile identification and isotopic ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{16:0}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{18:0}$) composition in combustion features from the middle of Unit XXIV ([Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2019](#)), 3) identification of *n*-alkanes, aromatics, *n*-ketones and fatty acids and isotopic ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{16:0}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{18:0}$) on resin-impregnated sediment slabs by [Rodríguez de Vera et al. \(2020\)](#) from the middle of Unit XXIV, and 4) micro-Raman spectroscopic measurements on micromorphological thin sections of microscopic char particles from the middle of Unit XXIV

([Lambrech et al., 2021](#)).

Past vegetation studies through molecular approaches (*n*-alkanes and sterols) at the site are limited and focus on combustion structures from Units XX and the middle of Unit XXIV, and on a coarse gravelly layer (natural sedimentation) from Unit XXIII ([March et al., 2017](#)). The latter *n*-alkane study pointed to a grass and herb input, except for one sample associated with the white/ash layer in Unit XX, which yielded presence of deciduous or coniferous trees, although the sample showed signs of degradation ([March et al., 2017](#)). Despite these insights on the OM sources and the degree of OM preservation, they pertain only to three units, and the potential of possibly preserved primary *n*-alkanes and their compound-specific stable hydrogen composition to reconstruct past hydroclimatic changes remain unexplored. Thus, here we investigate the origin and preservation of OM in the CS sequence (from Unit X to XXV) by analysing *n*-alkane distributions and explore the use of long-chain length *n*-alkanes δD values as a potential indicator for reconstructing past hydroclimatic conditions.

Leaf wax-derived *n*-alkanes and their compound-specific stable hydrogen ($\delta\text{D}_{\text{alkanes}}$) are used for paleovegetation and paleohydrological reconstructions in lacustrine records (e.g., [Rach et al., 2014](#); [García-Alix et al., 2021](#)) and in archaeological sequences (e.g., [Collins et al., 2013](#); [Connolly et al., 2019](#)). Long-chain *n*-alkanes ($n\text{C}_{27}$, $n\text{C}_{29}$, $n\text{C}_{31}$) are produced by higher land plants and stay well-preserved in sediments because of their resistance against bacterial degradation ([Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967](#)). $\delta\text{D}_{\text{alkanes}}$ in long chain *n*-alkanes record the isotopic composition of precipitation ([Sachse et al., 2006, 2012](#); [Hou et al., 2018](#)), which is determined by air temperature and moisture source in temperate regions and by the amount effect accounts in tropical and subtropical regions ([Dansgaard, 1964](#); [Sachse et al., 2012](#); [Kahmen et al., 2013](#)).

The CS sequence comprises natural (coarse gravels) and anthropogenic (combustion features) units. There are at least five archaeology-rich units dominated by combustion-derived sediment features (XXIV, XXII, XX, XVIII, XII-M2C) intercalated with archaeology poor unit of natural sedimentation. Combustion features are characterized by a sedimentary sequence of thermally altered sediment at the base, overlain by the charred topsoil (black layer) and capped by the ash layer (white layer) ([Mallol et al., 2017](#)). Black layers from simple anthropogenic combustion features reach average temperatures ≤ 300 °C ([Mallol et al., 2013](#); [Aldeias et al., 2016](#); [Buonasera et al., 2019](#)). At ≤ 350 °C, incomplete combustion protects OM from oxidation and microbial activity preserving their original molecular fingerprint ([Braadbaart and Poole, 2008](#); [Wiesenberg et al., 2009](#); [Knicker et al., 2013](#); [Diefendorf et al., 2015a](#); [Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018](#)) and δD *n*-alkane values remain unaltered preserving their near-primary isotopic signature ([Wang et al., 2017](#); [Connolly et al., 2021](#)). In fact, the presence of long-chained nitriles in black layers from the middle of Unit XXIV implies combustion at temperatures around 300–350 °C ([Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2019](#)). These insights provide the opportunity to obtain a complete hydroclimate reconstruction from the CS Middle Paleolithic sequence based on hydrogen-isotopic composition of sedimentary *n*-alkanes.

Rock shelters function as a sediment trap encompassing natural deposition because of regional environment changes, as well as anthropogenic sediment since they have been used as natural shelters by humans ([Mentzer, 2017](#); [Goldberg et al., 2009](#); [Miller et al., 2013](#)). Post-depositional processes may affect these deposits resulting in gaps in the sedimentary sequence ([Kuehn and Dickson, 1999](#)). The CS sequence is mostly continuous except for a hiatus recorded between Units X and XI by the Y5 tephra layer ([Morley, 2017](#)). The sedimentary CS sequence may be key to understanding past climate changes in the Balkan peninsula and overall Mediterranean region and to place the human occupations

in the context of past environmental changes. The Central Balkans are a key region for paleoclimate reconstructions because they are a transitional area between two bioclimatic regions (with a temperate-continental climate in the north and a Mediterranean climate in the south) (Rivas-Martínez, 1987) and are also key for the study of hominid migration due to the likely corridor route of the western Europe (Kozłowski, 2004).

In this paper we report the results of molecular (*n*-alkanes), isotopic (compound-specific stable hydrogen isotope compositions of long-chain *n*-alkanes) and organic geochemical analyses (total organic carbon and total sulfur) performed on the vertical sedimentary sequence of the Middle Paleolithic rock shelter of Crvena Stijena (Montenegro). We investigate past hydroclimatic changes in the CS sequence to i) identify climatic fluctuations at time that correlate these with human occupation episodes ii) contribute to interpretations of the CS sequence chronology and its correlation with MIS stages reported by geological and faunal models (Whallon and Morin, 2017) and iii) contribute to existing paleoclimate reconstructions for the Balkan peninsula and overall, for the Mediterranean region during the last glacial/interglacial cycle.

2. Site description

Crvena Stijena (CS) (42°46'40.4"N, 18°28'53.9"E, 700 m a.s.l., southwest Montenegro) is located between Nikšić and the border of Bosnia and Herzegovina, in the eastern side of the artificial Lake Bileća (Fig. 1a and b). This south facing cave is formed in a steep cliff with a large talus slope which runs down to Lake Bileća and is

approximately 26 m wide by 15 m high, with a horizontal depth of around 25 m (Morley, 2017) (Fig. 1c). The karstic rock shelter was formed via dissolution of Mesozoic dolomite within the limestone bedrock and tectonic shattering (large sub-vertical faults in the cliff) (Brunnacker, 1975; Morley, 2017). The climate is transitional Mediterranean and humid temperature type, characterized by hot and dry summers (Temperature <22 °C) and temperate and rainy winters (Temperature ranging from −3 to 18 °C). The CS area show an average annual precipitation of ca. 2000 mm and an average annual air temperature of 10.7 °C (climate period 1961/90, Nikšić meteorological station located 45 km from CS) (Burić et al., 2014a) (Fig. 1d). The Mediterranean Oscillation index (MO) strongly influences the climate in this region, there is a strong correlation with rainfall parameters for winter season during negative MO mode (Burić et al., 2014b).

Present-day vegetation around CS is characterized by sub-Mediterranean and Mediterranean climatogenic communities up to 700 m a.s.l. (forest of pubescent oak-*Quercus pubescens* and eastern hornbeam-*Carpinus orientalis*), and epi-Mediterranean and Mediterranean-montaine climatogenic communities over to 950 m asl (forests of pubescent oak and European hophornbeam-*Ostrya carpinifolia*). At the highest altitude (1893 m asl) appear forest of Heldrich's pine (*Pinetum heldreichii* s.lat.), a Tertiary relic of the Balkan peninsula (Jovanović et al., 1986; Čulafić et al., 2017).

Modern precipitation δD values were obtained from the Online Isotopes in Precipitation Calculator (OIPC, Bowen and Revenaugh, 2003). Modeled-OIPC mean annual precipitation δD ($\delta DMAP$) is −47‰ (95% CI). Higher precipitation δD values were recorded

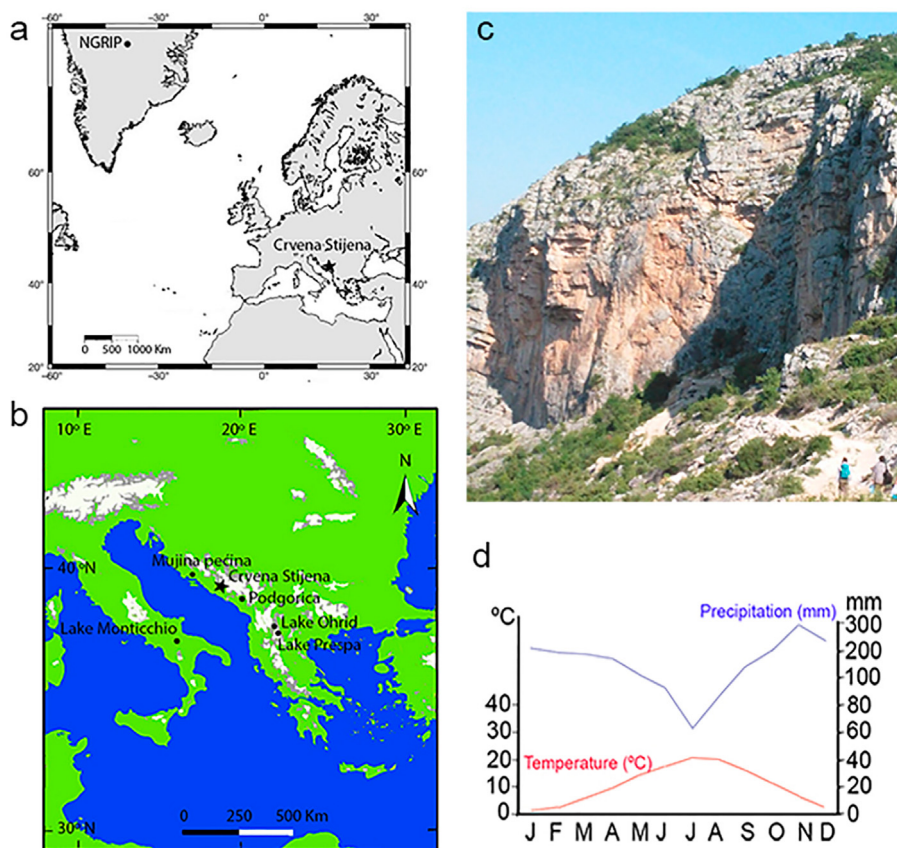


Fig. 1. Location of Crvena Stijena (CS) along with other records mentioned in the text: a) NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004), b) Lake Monticchio Lake Ohrid (Lézine et al., 2010; Vogel et al., 2010; Sinopoli et al., 2018); Lake Prespa (Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014), Middle Paleolithic site of Mujina Pećina (Boschian et al., 2017). c) View of the CS karstic rockshelter; d) Mean monthly air temperature and precipitation for Nikšić meteorological station (Burić et al., 2014a).

from May to September (δD ranges from -35% to -23%) and lower precipitation δD values from October to April (δD ranges from -62% to -44%). The OIPC model estimated that mean autumn-winter precipitation δD values were ca. 23% D-depleted relative to those obtained in spring and summer. Similarly, δD values in modern precipitation at Montenegro (Podgorica), from an annual cycle (March 2017–February 2018), recorded more negative values δD in winter (mean value $\delta D = -34\%$) and less negative values in summer (mean value $\delta D = -28\%$), with a mean annual precipitation δD of -31% (Živković et al., 2020). However, the OIPC underestimates δD on the annual scale (a mean annual value of -47% vs. measured -31%).

3. The sedimentary sequence

Crvena Stijena has one of the longest Middle Palaeolithic sequences covering from the end of MIS 5a (~78 ka, Unit XXIV) to the early Holocene (8.5 ka, Unit II) (Mercier et al., 2017). Previous sedimentological analysis (particle size, mineralogical and chemical analyses) carried out by Brunnacker (1975) on 20 m long sequence defined thirty-one lithostratigraphic units (SU) (I, top–XXXI, base). Later, Morley (2017) characterized the Units X–XXIV (9.5 m long sequence) based on particle size, magnetic properties, charcoal counts, and bulk chemical analyses and defined three main lithofacies based on different modes of deposition (Morley, 2017). Sedimentological description and radiometric dating are detailed in Morley (2017) and Mercier et al. (2017), but in summary, the sedimentary sequence from the top (Unit X) to the base (Unit XXIV) is comprised by:

- (i) Lithofacies 1: a ~3 m thick of well bedded and coarse orange limestone gravels in a sandy matrix. It comprises the Units X (13.4–28.0 Ka, ~1.10 m thick, higher carbonate and low OM values, low magnetic susceptibility (MS) and absence of charcoal and bone fragments), XI (39.0 Ka, ~10 cm thick of ashes identified as the Y-5 tephra-Campanian Ignimbrite (Morley and Woodward, 2011), XII (37.6–43.2 Ka, ~1.25 m thick, high carbonate and low OM content) and XIII (44.2 Ka, ~65 cm thick, high carbonate and low OM contents and high MS values, very occasional charcoal, and no faunal fragments).
- (ii) Lithofacies 2: a ~6 m thick of yellowish brown to brownish black coarse gravels and fine-grained layers with abundant anthropogenic material (ash, charcoal, bone fragments and burnt flint). It comprises the Units XIV (~20 cm thick, low carbonate and low MS values, high OM content, variable amounts of charcoal and absence of faunal fragments), XV (~15 cm thick, variable carbonate content and very low OM and MS values, the charcoal content and faunal fragments are low, but the base is rich in charcoal), XVI (~5 cm thick, variable carbonate and OM values, high MS values, low charcoal content, burnt limestone clast), XVII (~1 m thick, high carbonate and low OM content, variable MS and abundant charcoal and faunal -often burnt- fragments), XVIII (~30 cm thick, low carbonate content, high OM and MS values, frequent charcoal fragments), XIX (~25 cm thick, high carbonate and low OM values, low charcoal content and absence of faunal material), XX (48.3–65.5 Ka, ~25 cm thick, charcoal and ash-rich layer, variable carbonate and OM values), XXI (~25 cm thick, low carbonate values and variable charcoal and bone remains), XXII (~30 cm thick, low carbonate and MS values and high OM content, frequent charcoal and burnt bones remains), XXIII (~25 cm thick, high carbonate and low OM content, low charcoal and bone fragments) and XXIV (52.2–78.3 Ka, ~2 m thick, low carbonate values in the base

but high at the top, high OM content, extremely rich in charcoal, ash, burnt and unburnt bone fragments, and reddened materials limestone clasts).

- (iii) Lithofacies 3: a 75 cm of yellow-orange coarse gravels in a sandy matrix without anthropogenic material. It comprises the Unit XXV (~20 cm thick, high carbonate values, high MS values, low charcoal content and no faunal remains).

4. Sampling and methods

4.1. Samples

The CS sequence presented in this study is composed of three profiles (Fig. 2). In field (June 2017), SUs from Brunnacker (1975) and Morley (2017) were identified, and three stratigraphy columns were designed based on field-macroscopic observations (Fig. 2). Profiles were cleaned before being subsampled removing the surface (~3 cm deep) to remove surface microbial biomass. 76 samples were collected using sterilized tools, wrapped in Al-foil, and preserved at 4 °C before laboratory analysis. From the ~2 m thick of SU XXIV we only had accessibility to the first 40 cm (top of the SU) and the last 50 cm (base of the SU). From the top to the base, the 7 m-deep sedimentary sequence is comprised by:

- i) Profile 1. 68 cm vertical long profile located close to the SW wall. This profile comprises from the top to the base the SUs: X (7-cm-thick, 1 sample), XI (12-cm-thick, 1 sample) and XII (M1: 30-cm-thick, 1 sample; M2: 8-cm-thick, 1 sample and M2C: 10-cm-thick, 1 sample).
- ii) Profile 2. 462 cm vertical long profile located in the innermost part of the shelter (NE side). This profile comprises from the top to the base the SUs: XII (33-cm-thick, 3 samples every 10 cm), XIII (70-cm-thick, 3 samples every 15 cm), XIV (8-cm-thick, 1 sample), XV (30-cm-thick, 1 sample at the base of the SU, no samples were collected from the clast-supported coarse gravels), XVI (10-cm-thick, 1 sample), XVII (60-cm-thick, 4 samples every ~10 cm, no samples were collected from the clast-supported coarse gravels), XVIII (25-cm-thick, 5 samples every ~5 cm), XIX (30-cm-thick, 5 samples every ~5 cm), XX (40-cm-thick, 11 samples every ~5 cm, including 3 samples from each of the 3 white layers and 3 samples from each of the 3 black layers), XXI (20-cm-thick, 2 samples every 10 cm), XXII (63-cm-thick, 10 samples every ~5 cm, including 2 samples from each of the 2 white layers and 1 sample from each of the 1 black layer), XXIII (30-cm-thick, 2 samples every 15 cm) and XXIV (43-cm-thick, 4 samples every ~10 cm).
- iii) Profile 3. 160 cm vertical long profile located in the innermost part of the shelter (NW side). This profile comprises from the top to the base the SUs: XXIV (50-cm-thick, 15 samples including 4 samples from each of the 4 white layers, 6 samples from each of the 6 black layers, 2 samples from each of the 2 red layers and 3 natural sediments at the top and base of the unit), XXV (100 cm-thick, 3 samples every ~30 cm) and XXVI (20 cm-thick, 1 sample).

4.2. Elemental organic analysis

Total carbon (TC), total organic carbon (TOC), total inorganic carbon (TIC) and total sulfur (TS) analyses were performed with a LECO SC 144DR elemental analyser (LECO Corporation, St Joseph, MI, USA) at the Instituto Pirenaico de Ecología (IPE-CSIC), Spain. For TOC analyses, carbonates were removed by acidification with HCl

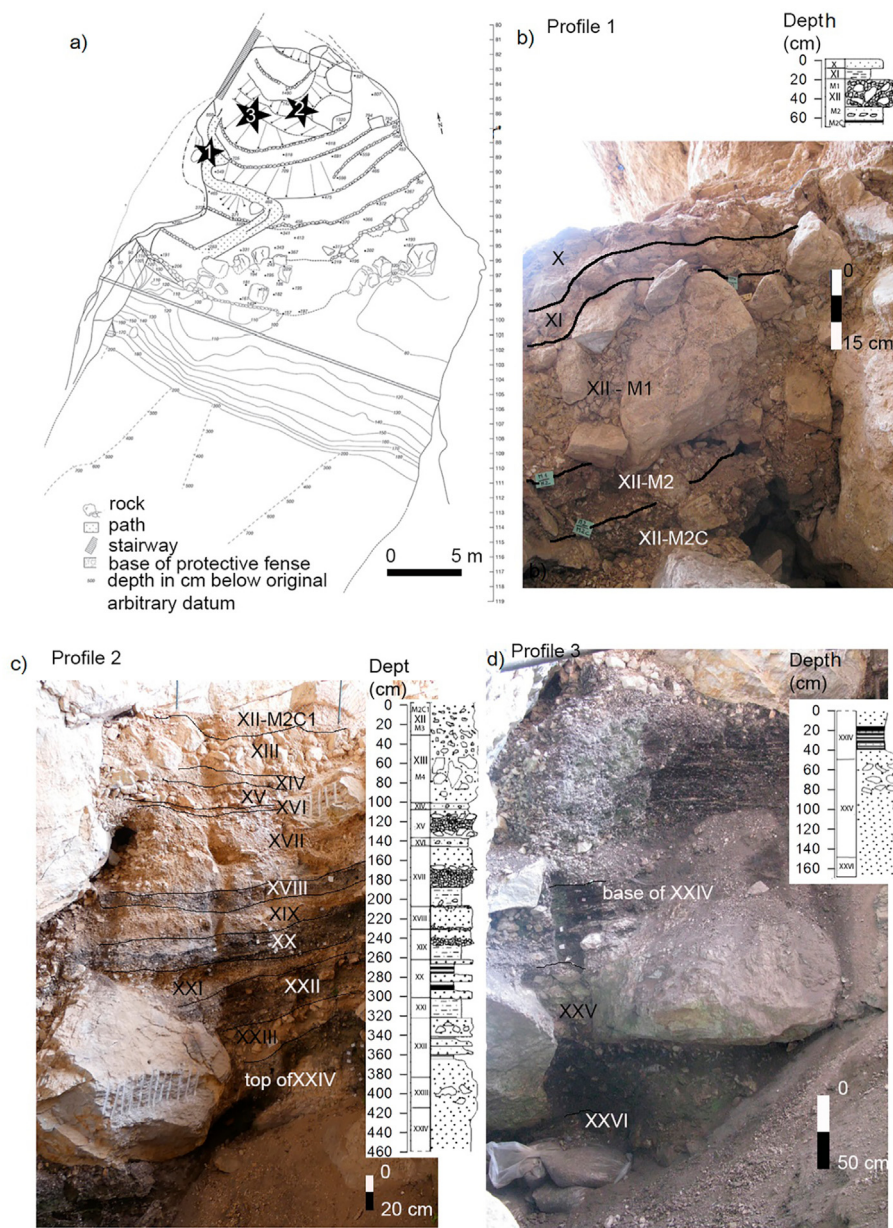


Fig. 2. a) Plan of CS (modified from Whallon, 2017). Stars mark the locations for sedimentary profiles; b, c, and d) view of the profiles and the sedimentary sequence.

1:1. Precision of the TOC and TS measurement were 1% RSD or ± 25 ppm (RMS 0.053648) and 1% RSD or ± 2.5 ppm (RMS 0.044829) respectively. TOC/TS ratio was used to track changes in redox conditions.

4.3. n-Alkane extraction, identification and quantification

The n-alkanes from 1 to 5 g of each oven-dried (60 °C during 24 h) and homogenized sample were extracted using QuEChERS method with some modifications (Herrera-Herrera et al., 2020) which combine a solid-liquid extraction and a dispersive solid-phase extraction. 10 mL of dichloromethane (DCM) as extraction solvent was added to each sediment in a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tube with a spherical glass ball, and the tube was shaken for 1 min. After addition of 1 μ L of 5 α -androstane (2000 mg/L in DCM, purity $\geq 99.9\%$, Sigma-Aldrich) as internal standard (IS) and 30 s of shaking, 4 g of MgSO₄ and 1 g of NaCl were added into the PTFE tube

and shaken during 1 min before centrifugation (4700 r.p.m. for 5 min). The supernatant was transferred to another PTFE tube containing 150 mg of MgSO₄ and 25 mg of primary secondary amine as clean-up sorbent, shaken for 30 s and centrifuged at 4700 r.p.m. for 5 min. The supernatant which contains the n-alkanes was transferred to GC-MS vials and evaporated under nitrogen flow using an Organomation evaporator. Before the injection into the GC-MS system the residue was redissolved in 50 μ L of hexane.

The n-alkanes analysis was performed using a gas chromatography system with a single quadrupole mass spectrometer (GC-Agilent 7890B, MSD Agilent 5977A) equipped with a HP-5MS capillary column ((5%-phenyl)-methylpolysiloxane, 30 m \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 μ m film thickness) and an electron impact interface. The GC was programmed to an initial temperature of 70 °C for 2 min, heated with a rate of 12 °C/min to 140 °C and to final temperature of 320 °C for 15 min with a heating rate of 3 °C/

min and a total run time of 82.83 min, using a Helium carrier gas (2 mL/min). The multimode injector was held at a split ratio of 5:1 at an initial temperature of 70 °C during 0.85 min and heated to 300 °C at a rate of 720 °C/min. The MS was operated in full scan mode (m/z 40–580) with an electron ionization energy of 70 eV and with the temperatures of the ion source and quadrupole set at 230 °C and 150 °C, respectively. All measurements were repeated three times.

n-Alkanes and IS were identified taking the four most intense fragment ions (m/z 43, 57, 71 and 85 for *n*-alkanes, and m/z 67, 95, 81 and 245 for IS) and by comparison of their retention times and mass spectra with those of reference compounds (C_8 – C_{40} mix and 5- α -androstane, Supelco). *n*-Alkanes were quantified using calibration curves obtained by plotting the area/areaIS ratio versus the concentration of each reference compound. Correlation coefficients were >0.995. The *n*-alkane concentrations were normalized to sample weight (dry sediment) and expressed as μg of individual compound per gram of dry sediment ($\mu\text{g/gds}$). All the *n*-alkanes analysis (extraction, identification, and quantification) were performed at the Archaeological Micromorphology and Biomarker Laboratory (AMBI-Lab), Universidad de La Laguna, Tenerife (Spain).

4.4. Compound-specific stable hydrogen isotope analysis in *n*-alkanes

Hydrogen isotopic composition of long sedimentary *n*-alkanes (nC_{29} and nC_{31}) was measured with a Thermo Scientific Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer Delta V Advantaged coupled to a GC Trace1310 through a Conflo IV interfaced with a temperature converter GC Isolink II equipped with a silica capillary column ((5%-diphenyl)-dimethylpolysiloxane, 30 m \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm film thickness) and a Trace Gold 5-MS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). Pyrolysis was performed in a microvolume ceramic tube at 1420 °C. The Programmed Temperature Vaporising injector (PTV) was held in splitless mode (splitless to split 1:50). The temperature started from 60 to 79 °C (held 30 s with a rate of 10 °C/min), then increased to 325 °C at 10 °C/s (held for 3 min) and finally was increased to 350 °C and held 3 min (rate 14 °C/s). For the GC oven, a 2 min isothermal period at 70 °C increasing to 140 °C (held 2 min) at a rate of 12 °C/min followed by an increase to 320 °C and held for 15 min at a rate of 3 °C/min. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.5 mL/min. Data acquisition and processing were carried out using the Isodat 3.0 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). To ensure stable ion-source conditions during measurement, the H_3^+ factor was constant over the 7 weeks measurement period at 3.2 (SD = 0.3). Each sample was analysed in triplicate. Only compounds with sufficient signal intensity (>1500 mV) on the IRMS were used for hydrogen isotopic data evaluation. The δD measurements were normalized to the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) and calibrated with a standard containing nC_{16} to nC_{30} alkanes (MIX A6 obtained from Arndt Schimmelmann, Indiana University) of known isotopic composition. The hydrogen isotope values are reported in conventional delta notation (δD values) in per mil (‰) units. In triplicate analyses of samples, standard deviations for *n*-alkane δD were usually better than 5‰.

5. Results

Results are provided in [Supplementary Table S1](#). Gaps between SUs are due to absence of fine-grained sedimentary matrix in clast-supported layers.

5.1. TOC, TIC and TS content

TOC, TIC and TS values vary between 0.04% and 13.84%, 1.05% and 10.90% and 0.01% and 0.86%, respectively. TOC/TS weight ratio varied between 0.01 and 0.50. Higher TOC (>5%) and lower TIC (<5%) values were recorded in Units XX, XXII and XXIV, and lower TOC (<1%) and higher TIC (>8%) values in Units X–XIII, XIX, XXI and XXIII. Higher TS (>0.2%) values were recorded in Units XX, XXII and XXIV. TOC/TS weight ratios were constant along the sedimentary sequence (<0.2) with some peaks in Units XII and XXIV (>0.4).

5.2. *n*-Alkane concentration and distribution patterns

n-Alkane concentrations (nC_{22} to nC_{35}) ranged from 0.1 to 1.7 $\mu\text{g/gds}$. Higher concentrations (>0.5 $\mu\text{g/gds}$) were recorded in Unit XII and in combustion/black layers from Units XX and XXIV, and lower (<0.2 $\mu\text{g/gds}$) in Unit X and ash layers from Units XX, XXII and XXIV. The *n*-alkane distribution pattern exhibits a mostly unimodal distribution (peaking at nC_{29} or nC_{31}) with a strong odd over even carbon number preference. Some samples from Unit XXII showed a clear even over odd carbon number predominance centered at nC_{28} . nC_{31} was the most abundant *n*-alkane in all the sequence except in Units XII–XV, XXI–XXIII which recorded nC_{29} as the dominant alkane.

The distribution of *n*-alkanes was evaluated using long chain *n*-alkane ratios i.e. $nC_{31}/(nC_{29} + nC_{31})$ and $nC_{31}/(nC_{27} + nC_{31})$ and $(nC_{31} + nC_{33})/(nC_{27} + nC_{29} + nC_{31} + nC_{33})$, the Carbon Preference Index (CPI, [Bray and Evans, 1961](#)), Odd over Even Predominance (OEP, [Hoefs et al., 2002](#)), and the Average Carbon Length (ACL, [Poynter et al., 1989](#)).

$$\text{CPI}_{25-33} = \left[\frac{\sum (nC_{25} nC_{33}) \text{ odd}}{\sum (nC_{24} nC_{32}) \text{ even}} + \frac{\sum (nC_{25} nC_{33}) \text{ odd}}{\sum (nC_{26} nC_{34}) \text{ even}} \right] / 2$$

$$\text{OEP}_{27-33} = \frac{(nC_{27} + nC_{29} + nC_{31} + nC_{33})}{(nC_{26} + nC_{28} + nC_{30} + nC_{32})}$$

$$\text{ACL}_{25-33} = \frac{\sum (Ci * Ci)}{\sum [Ci]}$$

Ci is the concentration of each *n*-alkane with i carbon atoms, $25 < i < 33$

All the indices showed a covariant variation along the sedimentary sequence. The CPI and OEP values varied between 1.1 and 7.3, and 0.9 and 7.4, respectively. The ACL values ranged from 28.3 to 30.5. Higher CPI (>5), OEP (>5) and ACL (~30) values were recorded in Units XII (M2), XVIII and XIX, and low CPI (~1), OEP (~1) and ACL (~28) values in samples from Unit XXII with an even-numbered *n*-alkanes predominance.

5.3. Compound specific stable hydrogen isotope ratios in long chain *n*-alkanes

nC_{29} and nC_{31} alkanes were not abundant enough in all samples to obtain robust δD values ([Table S1](#)). The δD values of the odd numbered long chain *n*-alkanes (nC_{29} and nC_{31}) of CS sequence range from $-403 \pm 3\text{‰}$ to $-141 \pm 2\text{‰}$ and $-372 \pm 4\text{‰}$ to $-147 \pm 3\text{‰}$ respectively. The long-term δD changes reveal co-variability between nC_{29} ($-223 \pm 3\text{‰}$ mean value) and nC_{31} ($-232 \pm 3\text{‰}$ mean value) with an increasing trend during the analysed period. The δD values were more negative in the older part of the sequence (Units XXVI/XXV boundary, XXV and XXIV), followed by an increase towards more positive δD values (Units XXIV–X) and occasionally negative values at the top of the sequence (Unit XII–M2C). The average δD values of nC_{29} and nC_{31} changed from $-326 \pm 4\text{‰}$ and $-321 \pm 4\text{‰}$ (Units XXVI/XXV boundary and XXIV) to $-205 \pm 3\text{‰}$ and $-210 \pm 3\text{‰}$ (Units XXIV–X) (a difference of 122 and 111‰), respectively.

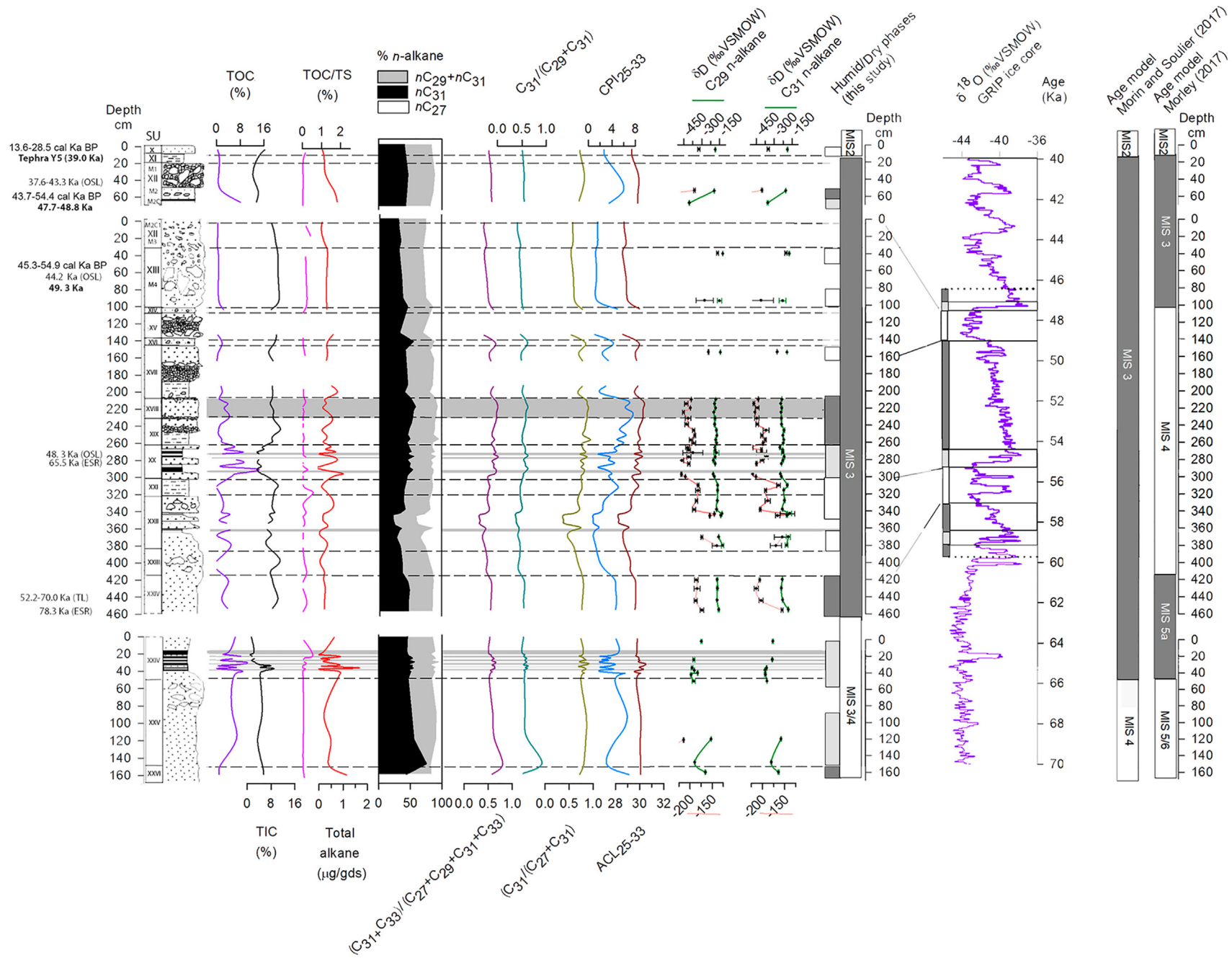


Fig. 5. a) CS stratigraphic column with geochemical and biomarker components (*n*-alkane and $\delta D_{C_{29}}$, $\delta D_{C_{31}}$) represented with respect to depth (grey bands indicate human occupation layers). Humid and dry phases inferred through our study are indicated with white boxes (cold and dry conditions), dark grey boxes (warm-temperate and humid climate), and light grey boxes (cold-temperate and humid climate). AMS data were recalibrated using the IntCal20 (Reimer et al., 2020); b) comparison with the $\delta^{18}O$ record of the NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2007); and c) CS age models based on geological (Morley, 2017) and faunal (Morin and Soulier, 2017) studies (dark grey: warm stages and white: cold stages).

composed by white and/or grey ash facies (white layers) and their underlying black or dark brown facies (black layers) were identified (Morley, 2017; Bradák et al., 2021). Micromorphological studies in this SU indicated these combustion features are *in-situ* (Morley, 2007). In SU XX, three combustion features intercalated within the natural sedimentary layers were identified, along with one black layer and two white and grey layers intercalated within the natural sedimentary layers in SU XXII, and one black layer in the SU XII (XII-M2C). However, no distinct white and black combustion layers have been reported for SU XVIII. Both anthropogenic (black and white layers) and natural sediments (coarse gravels), reveal a good state of organic matter preservation with clear odd-over-even carbon number alkane predominance and higher CPI and OEP (CPI and OEP between 2 and 6), and ACL values (~30) (Fig. 5). The exception is SU XXII, whose natural sediments show degradation in contrast to the good OM preservation of the black layer.

Thermal degradation of plant biomass under laboratory-controlled conditions has shown that *n*-alkane distributions exhibit a strong odd-over-even carbon chain predominance at low temperatures (≤ 350 °C for leaves, Wiesenberg et al., 2009; Diefendorf et al., 2015a; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018; and ≤ 250 °C for branches and twigs, Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018). Above those temperatures, the CPI and ACL decrease significantly (Wiesenberg et al., 2009; Knicker et al., 2013; Diefendorf et al., 2015a; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018). The good OM preservation of black layers (average CPI and OEP = 4, average ACL = 30, N = 17) suggest that combustion temperatures of black layers are ≤ 350 °C. These findings agree with previous experimental data, which shows that the average temperature associated with black sedimentary layers is ≤ 300 °C (Mallol et al., 2013; Aldeias et al., 2016; Buonasera et al., 2019). On the other hand, the good preservation of OM in the CS white layers, which reach combustion temperatures higher than 600 °C (Mallol et al., 2013; Aldeias et al., 2016) (average CPI and OEP = 2, and average ACL = 3, N = 8), could be explained by the presence of charred remains (e.g., charred topsoil residues or microcharcoal) embedded in the ashes as relicts of incomplete combustion.

6.2. Distribution and sources of organic matter

n-Alkanes distribution patterns provide additional insights on the sources of OM (Cranwell et al., 1987; Ficken et al., 2000). An odd-over-even carbon number predominance is produced over long-chains by terrestrial land plants (Cmax: nC_{27} , nC_{29} or nC_{31}), over mid-chain *n*-alkanes in submerged/floating and emergent aquatic plants (Cmax: nC_{21} , nC_{23} or nC_{25}) and over short-chain *n*-alkanes in bacteria and alga (Cmax: nC_{15} , nC_{17} , nC_{19}) (Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967; Rieley et al., 1991; Cranwell, 1981; Cranwell et al., 1987; Meyers and Ishiwatari, 1993). The distribution of *n*-alkanes in CS is dominated by long-chain alkanes (nC_{25} - nC_{35}), with high concentrations of nC_{29} or nC_{31} , both indicative of terrestrial land plant contribution (Bush and McInerney, 2013; Diefendorf et al., 2015b). nC_{29} is abundant in trees (Schwark et al., 2002; Bush and McInerney, 2013; Diefendorf et al., 2015b), and has been reported as the dominant *n*-alkane during the deposition of SUs XXIII-XXI, XV-XIII, XII_M2C1 and X (1st Euclidean cluster group). On the other hand, nC_{31} maxima have been documented in grasses (Bush and McInerney, 2013; Diefendorf et al., 2015b) but also in conifers (Schwark et al., 2002; Bush and McInerney, 2013; Diefendorf et al., 2015b) as well as in some angiosperms (Bush and McInerney, 2013; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018), and the dominant *n*-alkane during the deposition of SUs XII-M2, XIX, XVIII, top of XXIV and XXVI/XXV boundary (2nd Euclidean cluster group) and in SUs XII-M2C, XX, XXIV and XXV (3rd Euclidean cluster groups), which include both anthropogenic (black and white layers) and natural sediments

(coarse gravels). Some SUs from 1st and 2nd Euclidean cluster groups show bimodal distributions with maximum at nC_{29} and nC_{31} (X, XIII, XVII, top of XXI). These variations in the dominant *n*-alkanes are also inferred by long-chain *n*-alkane ratios, $(nC_{31} + nC_{33})/(nC_{27} + nC_{29} + nC_{31} + nC_{33})$, $nC_{31}/(nC_{29} + nC_{31})$ and $nC_{31}/(nC_{27} + nC_{31})$ (Fig. 5) and could tentatively represent changes in the environmental drivers of plant communities (e.g., taxa adapted to more humid and less humid conditions).

The CS sequence reveals fluctuations in TIC (carbonate) content, which may reflect different availability of water for: i) carbonate dissolution (low TIC values) and nC_{31} contribution from taxa adapted to humid conditions (3rd Euclidean cluster group: XII-M2C, XX, XXIV and XXV) or ii) carbonate precipitation processes (high TIC values) and nC_{29} (1st Euclidean cluster group: X, XIII, XVII and XXI-XXII) and nC_{31} (2nd Euclidean cluster group: XII-M2, XIX, XVIII, top of XXI, top of XXIV and XXVI/XXV boundary) contributions from taxa adapted to less humid conditions. Although low TIC content mostly pertains to the 3rd Euclidean cluster group, both natural sediments and archaeological layers (combustion features) show low TIC values, suggesting that a climatic humidity signal can be inferred for these units. In fact, SU XXV represents natural sedimentation (archaeologically poor or sterile coarse gravels in a sandy matrix) and shows a low TIC content (3rd Euclidean cluster group, Figs. 3 and 4).

These differences in TIC values and the *n*-alkane dominant are remarkable during the intense human occupation levels (combustion features): nC_{31} derived from taxa adapted to humid conditions in SUs XXIV, XX and XII-M2C, nC_{31} derived from taxa adapted to transitional or less humid conditions in SU XVIII and nC_{29} derived from taxa adapted to less humid conditions in SUs XXII. This is consistent with the archaeomagnetic and magnetic fabric data that suggest water-lain sedimentation processes (SUs. XXIV) (Bradák et al., 2021).

Predominance of long-chain *n*-alkanes in the CS black layers indicates that the fine OM is the charred ground beneath the fire (mainly leaves nC_{29} or nC_{31}) and not carbonized fuel (branches) which are characterized by higher mid-chain *n*-alkanes concentrations (O'Malley et al., 1997; Knicker et al., 2013; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018); leaves produce higher concentrations of *n*-alkanes (~500 μ g per gram of dry sample) than branches (~20 μ g per gram of dry sample) (Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018). Black layers from a wood-fuelled Middle Palaeolithic combustion structure recorded an odd-over-even *n*-alkane predominance and higher mid-chain alkanes concentrations, suggesting that the branches were topsoil residues and not fuel (Leierer et al., 2019) since the *n*-alkane distribution of charred wood is preserved up to 150 °C (at 250 °C there is a loss of the primary *n*-alkane pattern) (Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018). Although the odd-over-even predominance of *n*-alkanes peaking at nC_{31} in the white layers from SUs XXIV and XX, or nC_{29} in the SU XXII white layer could be consistent with charred topsoil residues incorporated into the ash from the underlying black layer. However, we cannot rule out microcharcoal contribution, since long-chain *n*-alkanes have been identified in twigs (Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018) and given the limited current reference data on charred wood lipid biomarkers (plant species, state of biodegradation, calibre of the wood) (O'Malley et al., 1997; Knicker et al., 2013; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018) and the absence of phytoliths in the ash layer in SU XXIV (Morley, 2007). On the other hand, bone-fuelled fires do not contribute to the concentration of sedimentary alkanes since they are in trace amounts and nC_{15} - nC_{17} are the dominant alkanes (Buonasera et al., 2019).

The present-day vegetation at CS, the C_3 -plant type, has been described by Čulafić et al. (2017): the sub-Mediterranean and Mediterranean-type climatogenic communities comprise *Petteria*

ramentacea and *Juniperus oxycedrus* shrubs, *Paliurus pina-christi* and *Ficus carica* at lower elevations, together with *Rhamnus orbiculata*, *Frangula rupestris*, *Pistacia terebinthus*, and *Celtis australis*. On the cliffs above CS and growing between rocks, there are *Muscari racemosum*, *Muscari botryoides*, *Euphorbia wulfeni*, *Athionema saxatile*, *Cerastium glomeratum*, *Sanguisorba*, *Seseli globiferum*, *Sesleria robusta*, *Tanacetum corymbosum*, *Ephedra campilopoda*. On the northern and northeastern slopes above CS, appear *Fraxinus ornus*, *Acer monspessulanum*, *Carpinus orientalis*, *Quercus pubescens*, *Quercus cerris*, *Corylus avellana*, and *Petteria ramentacea* (Ćulafić et al., 2017). *n*-Alkane distribution studies of present-day vegetation identified higher concentrations of nC_{31} in *Pinus cembra*, *Juniperus* and *Abies* (Schwark et al., 2002; Bush and McInerney, 2015 and reference therein), *Celtis australis* (Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018), *Carpinus* and *Fraxinus ornus* (Bush and McInerney, 2015 and reference therein) and higher concentrations of nC_{29} in *Pinus sylvestris* and *Quercus* (Bush and McInerney, 2015 and reference therein). Angiosperms produce significantly higher *n*-alkane abundances than gymnosperms (Diefendorf et al., 2011), but Cupressaceae (*Juniperus*) produce significantly higher amounts of *n*-alkanes than pinaceae (*Pinus*) (Diefendorf et al., 2015b).

Based on our observed *n*-alkane distribution pattern and elemental geochemical data, as well as previous micromorphological (Morley, 2007), archaeomagnetic (Bradák et al., 2021) and archaeobotanical (Shaw, 2017) data, we tentatively relate more humid stages (XXV/XXIV and XX) with nC_{31} contribution from taxa adapted to wetter climatic conditions (e.g., *Pinus cembra*, *Abies*). This is consistent with cold conditions and a predominantly coniferous forested environment, in agreement with archaeozoological and archaeobotanical data from SUs XXIV and XX (Morin and Soulier, 2017; Shaw, 2017). Nevertheless, we cannot rule out an anthropic input to the shelter to explain the presence of grasses and herbs (nC_{31} dominant alkane, e.g., SU XII-M2C). Higher nC_{31} contribution in transitional or less humid stages (XXVI/XXV boundary, top of the XXIV, top of the XXI, XIX-XVIII and XII_M2-XI) with presence of angiosperms (e.g., *Celtis australis*, *Carpinus*, *Fraxinus*) and gymnosperms as *Juniperus*, and a higher nC_{29} or $nC_{29}+nC_{31}$ input in less humid stages, i.e., XXIII-XXI, XVII-XIII, XII_M2C1, X with *Pinus sylvestris*-*Juniperus* derived alkanes and grasses (Fig. 5).

Although present-day forest pines (*Pinetum heldreichii* s.lat) only appear at the highest altitudes (1893 m asl) (Jovanović et al., 1986), anthracological data from CS show the dominance of pine taxa (*Pinus sylvestris*) (Shaw, 2017). In SUs XI-XV and XXII the 89% of the charcoal assemblage is dominated by conifers (*Pinus*: 63%, *Abies* sp., *Juniperus* sp.: 2.5%), and 3% by angiosperms (*Prunus* sp., *Fraxinus* sp., *Fagus* sp., *Cornus* sp., *Juglans* sp., *Salix* sp. and *Sambucus* sp.) (Shaw, 2017). Whereas in SUs XXIV and XX *Pinus sylvestris* and *Pinus peuce/cembra* were the dominant taxa (75%), with less than 2% abundance of other conifer and angiosperm taxa. Although *Pinus sylvestris* was the most abundant taxon in the CS sequence, the 88% of the *Pinus peuce/cembra* fragments at CS were identified in SU XXIV (Shaw, 2017). *Pinus peuce* is a soft pine native to the Balkan Peninsula which requires cool temperatures and high humidity and altitudes above 800 m asl (Alexandrov and Andonovski, 2011). On the other hand, *Pinus sylvestris* grows in the supra-Mediterranean bioclimatic belt and is adapted to cold and humid climates as well as to high altitude areas with sufficient rainfall (above 1000–1200 m asl) (Rivas-Martínez, 1987; Gutiérrez, 1990).

Despite the dominance of pine in the anthracological record, we cannot dismiss the fact that charcoal is an anthropogenic element and, although it may inform us about human behaviour and past fuel management, it does not necessarily represent a complete picture of the natural surrounding landscape because it may be reflecting a human selection bias for specific properties conducive

of lighting, cooking, smoking, drying, etc. In fact, pollen records from lake sedimentary sequences covering from MIS 5 to MIS 2 in the Balkan peninsula (Lake Ohrid, Albania by Lézine et al., 2010; Lake Prespa, on the Albania/Macedonia/Greece boundary by Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014) show a significant predominance of deciduous taxa such as *Quercus* sp. and *Carpinus* and evergreen conifers (*Juniperus* and *Abies*) during the MIS 3, even though no *Quercus* charcoal has been identified so far in the CS sequence (Shaw, 2017). Mediterranean pollen records from lake sequences (e.g., Lake Monticchio, Allen et al., 1999; Lake Ohrid, Lézine et al., 2010; Lake Prespa, Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014) recorded open landscapes with significant temperate-tree presence during the MIS 3, interrupted by cold events (Heinrich events) characterized by *Juniperus* and *Pinus* taxa (Lézine et al., 2010; Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014).

6.3. Drivers of variation in the hydrogen isotope composition (δD) of *n*-alkanes

Variability of *n*-alkane hydrogen stable isotopic composition is potentially driven by changes in precipitation amount and source, evapotranspiration, atmospheric temperatures and plant types (Gamarra et al., 2016; Sachse et al., 2012; Wirth and Sessions, 2016). We evaluated linear relationships between $\delta D_{C_{29}}$, $\delta D_{C_{31}}$, *n*-alkane concentrations (nC_{29} and nC_{31}), $ACL_{29+31+33}$ and TIC based on Pearson's regressions by comparing the 95% confidence intervals of intercepts and slopes (Table 1). Moderate correlation of $ACL_{29+31+33}$ and the δD values of C_{29} and the C_{31} record suggests that aridity, which is closely related to evapotranspiration, may have had a moderate influence on hydrogen isotopic composition (Table 1). Temperature and humidity variations can also affect the ACL and CPI values (Dodd and Poveda, 2003; Sachse et al., 2004, 2006; Xie et al., 2004; Rao et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2015; Bush and McInerney, 2015). To reduce cuticular transpiration under warm conditions and aridity, deciduous plants produce longer *n*-alkanes (high ACL values) and under cold and dry climates, evergreen plants also increase the production of longer *n*-alkanes (high ACL values) to protect themselves from winter desiccation and freezing (Dodd and Poveda, 2003; Sachse et al., 2006; Bush and McInerney, 2015). However, increased ACL values have been also related with warm and wet climatic conditions (Sachse et al., 2004; Castañeda et al., 2009; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2016). Higher production of odd-over-even *n*-alkanes (high CPI values) have been evidenced during cold and dry periods because under these conditions microbial degradation is less effective than under warm and wet climatic conditions (low CPI values) (e.g., Kuder and Krueger, 1998; Xie et al., 2004; Rao et al., 2009). However, higher CPI values have also been related with warm temperatures and higher OM content (Brincat et al., 2000; Sachse et al., 2004; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2016). If a relationship exists between ACL-CPI and aridity (cold and dry or warm and dry) we would expect to find higher ACL and CPI values during the sedimentation of SUs XXIII-XXI and XVII-XII (1st Euclidean cluster group), which exhibits the highest $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values (high TIC and low TOC values). However, we found the lowest ACL and CPI values in these SUs, which would suggest climate deterioration and low vegetation cover in the CS surroundings. These results fit well with previous findings that reported low CPI and ACL values during periods of low OM production (e.g., Brincat et al., 2000; Sachse et al., 2004; Castañeda et al., 2009; Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2016).

δD values within each *n*-alkane homologue are correlated at a significant level ($p < 0.05$) with negative correlation coefficients ($R > -0.6$). Highly significant correlations were found within δD values of C_{29} and C_{31} ($R = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$) and between $\delta D_{C_{29}}$, $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ and the TIC content ($R = 0.6$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting a common source

Table 1

Correlation indices for the hydrogen isotopes of every individual *n*-alkane, cumulative concentration of long-chained odd *n*-alkanes (ACL₂₉₊₃₁₊₃₃), their individual concentrations, and the total inorganic carbon (TIC) (N = 42). Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

	$\delta D_{C_{31}}$	ACL ₂₉₊₃₁₊₃₃	nC_{29}	nC_{31}	TIC
$\delta D_{C_{29}}$	R = 0.965 $p = 8.301E-25$	R = -0.431 $p = 0.00441$	R = -0.588 $p = 0.0000426$	R = -0.655 $p = 0.0000025$	R = 0.626 $p = 0.000012$
$\delta D_{C_{31}}$		R = -0.407 $p = 0.0075$	R = -0.613 $p = 0.0000158$	R = -0.678 $p = 0.00000828$	R = 0.595 $p = 0.0000409$
ACL ₂₉₊₃₁₊₃₃			R = 0.177 $p = 0.262$	R = 0.395 $p = 0.00967$	R = -0.318 $p = 0.043$
nC_{29}				R = 0.947 $p = 2.059E-21$	R = -0.562 $p = 0.00013$
nC_{31}					R = -0.595 $p = 0.0000405$

and precipitation amount or source as potential driving parameters for the hydrogen isotopic signal (Table 1). Indeed, recent $\delta^{18}O$ and δD studies on modern precipitation (March 2017–February 2018) in Montenegro (Podgorica) identified seasonal variations, with more negative values in winter (mean value $\delta D = -34\text{‰}$) when the temperature was the lowest and the amount of precipitation was very high under the influence of air masses originating from the Mediterranean, and less negative values (mean value $\delta D = -28\text{‰}$) in summer under the influence of Atlantic air masses (Živković et al., 2020). Similar seasonal δD variations were estimated with the OIPC model (Bowen and Revenaugh, 2003). In temperate regions the δD values from plant (leaf) water is controlled by δD precipitation values, which is mainly determined by air temperature and moisture source region (Dansgaard, 1964; Sachse et al., 2012; Kahmen et al., 2013). Thus, we assume that not only a decrease in air temperature but also changes in the moisture source region and/or changes in temperature at the moisture region may have been dominant drivers of the *n*-alkane hydrogen variability observed in the CS sequence.

On the other hand, there is an influence of the distribution of C_3 and C_4 plants on the hydrogen isotopic variability due to the different photosynthetic pathways with most D-depleted values in C_3 plants compared to C_4 plants (Gamarra et al., 2016). Moreover, shrubs and trees are most D-enriched than graminoids (Sachse et al., 2012). Based on archaeobotanical data (Shaw, 2017), the vegetation in CS is composed of C_3 -plant types. If nC_{31} is dominant in grasses, then the most negative $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ ($\sim -290\text{‰}$) in 3rd Euclidean cluster group (XII-M2C, XX, XXIV and XXV) could be indicative of more graminoid input than in the 2nd Euclidean cluster group (XII-M2, XIX, XVIII, top of XXI, top of XXIV and XXVI/XXV boundary) ($\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ $\sim -200\text{‰}$); the highest $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values ($\sim -170\text{‰}$) in the 1st Euclidean cluster group (X, XIII, XVII and XXI-XXII), with nC_{29} as dominant, are indicative of woody plant contribution. However, the archaeobotanical, zooarchaeological, micromorphological, archaeomagnetic and geochemical data discussed in the previous section suggest nC_{31} contribution in SUs XXIV and XX from woody taxa adapted to humid and cold conditions rather than grasses. Nevertheless, in XII-M2C we cannot rule out the input of grasses to the mixture with woody taxa adapted to humid conditions due to the limited complementary proxies obtained from this SU.

6.4. Past precipitation changes from sedimentary *n*-alkane D/H ratios

Based on the combination of elemental geochemistry and *n*-alkanes stable isotope proxies, we identified three main palaeoenvironmental stages of overall enhanced Mediterranean sourced precipitation. Humid periods are characterized by the most negative $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ ($\sim -290\text{‰}$) and lower TIC and higher TOC

values (SUs XXV-XXIV and XX, and a single event XII_M2C), alternating with moderate humid conditions characterized by less negative $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ ($\sim -200\text{‰}$) and higher TIC and relatively higher TOC values (XXVI/XXV boundary, top of the XXIV, XIX-XVIII, XII-M2 and XI), and less humid stages with more positive $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values ($\sim -170\text{‰}$) and higher TIC and lower TOC values (SUs XXIII-XXI, XVII-XIII and X) (Fig. 5).

After the moderate humid stage (SU XXVI/XXV boundary) identified within the 2nd Euclidean cluster group, the sedimentary proxies from SU XXV to the base of XXIV (lower $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values and TIC content, but higher TOC, identified within the 3rd Euclidean cluster group) reveal a sharp increase in humidity and subsequently, a gradual shift to less humid conditions at the top of SU XXIV (2nd Euclidean cluster group: less negative $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values and higher TIC content but relatively higher TOC) (Fig. 5).

The most negative $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values correspond both natural (coarse gravels) and anthropogenic (black and white layers) sediments (SUs XXIV, XX, XVIII and XII-M2C), except for the positive $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values in the SUs XXII (natural and anthropogenic sediments). As mentioned in the previous section, black layers from SUs XXIV, XXII, XX, XVIII and XII-M2C (combustion features) exhibit a strong odd-over-even carbon chain predominance indicating low-temperature combustion ($\leq 300\text{ °C}$, Mallol et al., 2013; Aldeias et al., 2016; Buonasera et al., 2019). Wang et al. (2017) reported that combustion at temperatures $\leq 300\text{ °C}$ under oxygen-free conditions results in a D-enrichment of δD by $< 10\text{‰}$ in long-chain alkanes relative to the original hydrogen isotopic composition. Similarly, combustion experiments performed by Connolly et al. (2021) under limited-oxygen conditions, which represent real conditions in archaeological contexts (combustion processes are not produced in oxygen-free conditions), demonstrated D-enrichment of δD by $< 7\text{‰}$ in long-chain alkanes relative to the original hydrogen isotopic signature up to 350 °C , and D-enrichment of δD by $\sim 35\text{‰}$ at 450 °C . Thus, thermal alteration in combustion substrates (black layers) do not alter the original hydrogen isotope signatures to a significant degree and may convey and report past hydroclimate information. On the other hand, white layers from combustion features in SUs XXIV, XX and XXII reported a strong odd-over-even carbon chain predominance with nC_{31} (SUs XXIV and XX) and nC_{29} (SU XXII) as dominant *n*-alkanes (low-temperature combustion), and negative (SUs XXIV and XX) and positive (SU XXII) $\delta D_{C_{29}}$ and $\delta D_{C_{31}}$ values. In view of all of the above, if the well preserved OM in the white layers represents the charred ground beneath the fire (mainly leaves), the combustion temperature was $\leq 350\text{ °C}$ and the long-chain alkanes preserve the original hydrogen isotopic signature. If this charred OM represent the charred wood fuel, the good state of OM preservation suggests incomplete combustion and temperatures $\leq 150\text{ °C}$. Combustion of branches under limited oxygen conditions

results in D-enrichment of δD by $< 10\%$ in long-chain alkanes relative to the original hydrogen isotopic composition up to $150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Connolly et al., 2021). At $250\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ the combustion under limited-oxygen conditions in wood samples result in a loss of the primary *n*-alkane pattern (an even-over-odd *n*-alkane predominance) (Jambrina-Enrriquez et al., 2018) and D-enrichment of δD by $\sim 80\%$. Thus, the δD values in the CS white layers preserve the primary hydrogen isotope signatures.

Fluctuations in TIC (carbonate) are covariant with the most negative δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} values at the basal units and increase up to the top in XXIV. Archaeomagnetic and magnetic fabric data from the SU XXIV combustion features suggest water-lain sedimentation processes (freezing and thawing processes with gelifluction) (Bradák et al., 2021). These findings agree with our isotopic and elemental analysis, which reveal a dominant humid stage during the deposition of SU XXIV ($\delta D \sim -290\%$, 3rd Euclidean cluster group). Climatic deterioration at the top of SU XXIV ($\delta D \sim -200\%$, 2nd Euclidean cluster group) culminates with the deposition of SUs XXIII-XXI, which exhibit the highest δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} values ($\delta D \sim -170\%$, 1st Euclidean cluster group) indicative of less humid conditions and a transitional or moderated humid SU XXI (2nd Euclidean cluster group) (Fig. 5). With the sedimentation of SU XX, a return to more humid conditions is recorded (3rd Euclidean cluster group). As in SU XXIV, this unit exhibits several combustion features (three white layers and three black layers) indicative of human occupation but not as intensive as in SU XXIV. In fact, the sedimentation of combustion features is not as recurrent as in SU XXIV and is interrupted and intercalated by the deposition of coarse gravels. After this second humid stage, there is decreasing humidity up to the top of the sequence (2nd Euclidean cluster group), more intense in SUs XVII-XIII and X (1st Euclidean cluster group) and interrupted by a single humid event at SU XII-M2C (3rd Euclidean cluster group) and the transitional SU XII-M2. However, as mentioned in the previous section, we can rule out that the lowest δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} values in SU XII-M2C could also result from a mixture of grasses and woody plants.

δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} fluctuations along the CS sequence possibly indicate a change in the rain season: From a predominance of autumn-winter rainy months under the influence of Mediterranean air masses during the deposition of SUs XXV-XXIV, XX, XIX-XVIII, XII-XI to a predominance of late spring-summer rainy months influenced by Atlantic air masses from the SUs XXIII to XXI XVII-XIII, and X. On the other hand, the lowest δD values recorded in SUs XXV-XXIV and XX could suggest a cold-temperate (and humid) stage whereby a decrease in air temperature would lead to an isotopic depletion in precipitation (Dansgaard, 1964), and the increase of TOC could reflect the anthropogenic input of OM rather than a shift to more favourable climatic conditions linked to expansion of the vegetation cover around the site. This agrees with the findings of freezing and thawing processes in SU XXIV (Bradák et al., 2021).

6.5. Paleoenvironmental conditions and chronology of the CS sequence, a general overview

Crvna Stijena offers one of the longest Middle Palaeolithic sequences spanning the last ~ 79 ka (78–52 ka, Unit XXIV, Mercier et al., 2017). Previous paleoenvironmental studies based on sedimentological and geochemical analysis (Brunnacker, 1975; SUs XXXI-I, MIS 6-Holocene) suggested warm and wet conditions during MIS 5e (SU XXIV), MIS 5a and MIS 5c (SUs XXIII-XVII) and the Holocene (SUs IV-I) based on carbonate dissolution, and dry and cold climatic conditions in SU XXV and above SU XVII based on good carbonate preservation. Later, high-resolution sampling and subsequent analyses of sedimentological, chemical, and magnetic

properties (Morley, 2017) provided a more detailed paleoenvironmental interpretation along with new absolute chronometric dates that allowed for the following hypothesis (Mercier et al., 2017): Wet and warm climatic conditions associated with carbonate dissolution and periods of intense human occupation at the top of XXIV, XXI-XIX, and XVI-XIV, and dry and cold climatic conditions associated with carbonate preservation in SUs XXV, the base of XXIV, XXIII-XXII and XVIII-XVII. In this hypothesis, SU XXIV was correlated with the MIS 5a/4 boundary, XXIII-XIV with MIS 4, XIII-XI with MIS 3 (US XI was identified as Y-5 Campanian Ignimbrite, marking the 39.0 ka event, Morley and Woodward, 2011) and X with MIS 2 (Morley, 2017).

Our molecular and isotopic results correlate well with the humid and dry stages previously identified by Brunnacker (1975) and Morley (2017) with some discrepancies. Both SU XXIV and XX represent wet conditions and XXIII-XXI less humid conditions and Mediterranean vs. Atlantic sourced precipitation, respectively. However, above SU XX and up to X our data do not fit exactly with the previous findings. Climate deterioration toward less humid conditions and Atlantic sourced precipitation is recorded from SUs XIX to X (more evident in SUs XVII-XIII and X), and a potential wet event in SU XII-M2C (and transitional XII_M2) (Fig. 5).

We have identified two cold and dry phases and three temperate and wet phases that we tentatively correlated with cold/warm pulses recorded in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record of the NGRIP ice core within MIS 3 (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004) (Fig. 5). Given the small number of dates below SU XIII and the uncertainty of the available dates, SUs XXVI-XXIV could be correlated with the Greenland Stadial G17/Greenland Interstadial 16 (GS17/GI16) transition, a warm and wet phase, with a low temperature pulse in SU XXV and the base of XXIV (cold-temperate and wet). The first cold and arid phase (XXIII-XXI) could be tentatively correlated with GS15 (~ 54.3 ka BP, Svensson et al., 2008) which preceded the GI14 (SUs XXI-XX-XVIII, cold to warm-temperate and wet phase). The second cold and arid phase (SUs XVII-XIII_XII-M2C1) could be tentatively correlated with GS13, coinciding with HE5 which preceded GI12 (SU XII-M2C-XI, cold to warm-temperate and wet phase). This paleoenvironmental model fits well with the faunal model (MIS4 in SUs XXVI-XXV, MIS3 in SUs XXIV-XII and MIS2 in SU X; Morin and Soulier, 2017) and is supported by the AMS data from SUs XII (M2C/C1, $43.7\text{--}54.4$ Ka cal BP) and XIII (M3, $45.3\text{--}54.9$ Ka cal BP) and OSL data of SUs XII ($37.6 \pm 2.9\text{--}43.2 \pm 3.7$ Ka) and XIII (44.2 ± 3.4 Ka), as well as the youngest ESR data of SU XX (48.3 ± 2.4 Ka) and TL data from SU XXIV (52.2 ± 6.6 Ka) that places SUs XII-XXIV within MIS 3 (Fig. 5). Although the archaeological assemblages (Mousterian points and retouched Levallois flakes, Mihailović and Whallon, 2017a) combined with geological, faunal and wood charcoal data correlate the upper part of the CS sequence (XIII-XI) with MIS 3, the chronology of the lower part of the sequence is uncertain considering the oldest TL data in SU XX (65.5 ± 14 Ka) and in SU XXIV (TL: 70.0 ± 6.2 ka and ESR: 78.3 ± 0.3 ka), which place these layers in MIS 4 and MIS 5a, respectively.

Interstadial conditions in Europe are characterized by warming and increase in humidity, while stadial climatic conditions are associated with cooling and decrease in humidity (e.g., Voelker, 2002; van Meerbeeck et al., 2011; Agosta and Compagnucci, 2016). Substantial increase in precipitation during GIs have been related with an increase of winter precipitation and an increase of deciduous woody taxa (*Quercus*, *Abies* and *Fagus*) in Lake Ordhir (Lézine et al., 2010), Lake Prespa (Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014) and Lake Monticchio (Italy, Allen et al., 1999). These findings agree with our low δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} values (high CPI, ACL and TOC values, nC_{31} as tree-derived alkane, 2nd Euclidean cluster groups) and the predominance of autumn-winter rainy months under the influence of Mediterranean air masses which would favour and increase of

the vegetation cover (Mediterranean forest) in the CS area (Fig. 5). Our humid and relatively cold-temperate climatic conditions correspond with the levels of intense human occupation in the CS rock shelter (3rd Euclidean cluster group) and agree with the faunal spectrum from SUs XXVI and XXIV (Bos/Bison, *Equus ferus caballus*, *Stephanorhinus/Coelodonta*) (Morin and Soulier, 2017), the cool-wet-adapted plant taxa (Shaw, 2017) and freezing and thawing processes (Bradák et al., 2021) identified in SU XXIV. Cold and arid phases (high δD_{C29} and δD_{C31} , low CPI, ACL and TOC values, n_{C29} as tree-derived alkanes, 1st Euclidean cluster group) possibly reduced the Mediterranean-tree cover allowing the presence of crioromediterranean tree species (e.g., *Pinus sylvestris*).

Despite the dating uncertainties, some correlation could be attempted with Middle Palaeolithic sites in the northern Balkans (i.e., Mujina Pećina, 49 and ~39 cal ka, Boschian et al., 2017). At Mujina Pećina, human occupation was more intense during the cold/arid Heinrich Event 5 (HE5), and more sporadic after HE5 (during a warm but environmental unstable phase), with two Mousterian hearths (~45 - 43 Ka) found in layers associated with cold or fresh conditions where freezing and thawing processes have been identified (Boschian et al., 2017). Human occupation levels in Mujina Pećina could be tentatively correlated with the human occupation recorded in CS SU XVII-M2C1 during cold and dry conditions (HE5) and under cold-temperate and wet conditions (SU XII-M2C, 47.7–48.8 Ka). Since the studied CS sequence spans from MIS 4/3, the most intense occupation in CS (SUs XXIV and XX) has been related with humid (and tentatively cold-temperate) climatic conditions.

7. Conclusions

Our compound-specific hydrogen (δD_{C29} and δD_{C31}) leaf wax (i.e., *n*-alkanes) study of a 7 m-deep sedimentary sequence in the Crvena Stijena Middle Paleolithic site has shed light on paleohydrological variability and climate/human interaction. Agglomerative hierarchical clustering and principal component analysis of our data show three different groups, which have been related with hydroclimate changes:

- i) Units X (13.6–28.5 Ka), XIII–XVII (XIII: 49.3 Ka) and XXI–XXIII were deposited under dry (and tentatively cold) conditions and Atlantic sourced precipitation. OM preservation is relatively low (CPI<2). These SUs recorded few or relatively few (XV, XVII, XXI, XXIII) and moderate (XIII, XVI) artifacts, except for SUs XXII (numerous artifacts and remain of fauna, occasional combustion features composed by white and/or grey ash layer and their underlying black or dark brown, charcoal-rich thermally altered layer) and XIV (numerous artifacts) (Mihailović et al., 2017a,b).
- ii) Units XI (39 Ka, Y5 tephra layer), XII-M2, XVIII–XIX, top of XXI, top of XXIV (78.3–52.2 Ka) and XXVI, were deposited during relatively humid conditions (and tentatively warm-temperate conditions) and Mediterranean sourced precipitation. OM is well preserved (CPI >5). These SUs recorded few (XI, XXI, XXVI) and relatively few (M2) artifacts except for SU XVIII (numerous artifacts and remain of fauna, no distinct white and black combustion layers) (Mihailović et al., 2017a,b).
- iii) Units XII-M2C (48 - 47 Ka), XX (65.5–48.3 Ka) and base of XXIV–XXV (78.3–52.2 Ka), related with humid (and tentatively cold-temperate) conditions and Mediterranean sourced precipitation. OM is well preserved in the anthropogenic layers (CPI=4). Comparison with experimental fire data (e.g., Mallol et al., 2013; Jambrina-Enríquez et al., 2018) suggests that combustion temperatures were <350 °C and

thus preserve their original paleoprecipitation signal (Connolly et al., 2021). These SUs recorded human occupation layers with numerous artifacts and hearth (M2C) and numerous artifacts and remain of fauna as well as distinct combustion features (white and black layers) (XX and XXIV) except for SU XXV (few artifacts) (Mihailović et al., 2017a,b).

Our molecular and compound specific stable hydrogen isotope ratios in long chain *n*-alkanes bracket the CS sequence between the MIS 4/3 boundary (SU XXVI/XXV) and MIS 3 (SUs XXV–X). Despite chronometric uncertainty based on the available dates, we tentatively correlated our data with specific warm/cold phases in the $\delta^{18}O$ record of the NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project Members, 2004), lake pollen sequences (Lake Ohrid, Lézine et al., 2010; Lake Prespa, Panagiotopoulos et al., 2014; Lake Monticchio, Allen et al., 1999), and geological (Morley, 2017), faunal (Morin and Soulier, 2017) and palaeobotanical (charcoal, Shaw, 2017) age-models previously proposed for CS (Whallon and Morin, 2017). Our results indicate at least three aridity trends between MIS 4/3 (SU XXV) and MIS 3 (SU XI): i) from SU XXV to XXI (52.2/78.3 to 48.3/65.5 Ka), ii) from SU XX to XII-M2C1 (48.3/65.5 to 49.3 Ka) and iii) from SU XII-M2C to SU XI (48–39 Ka). The robust available dates from the upper part of the CS sequence (SUs XIII–XI; MIS3) allowed us to correlate the dry (and tentatively cold) stage identified in SU XIII with HE5. The layers representing intense human occupation in CS (i.e., base of SU XXIV, SUs XX and XII-M2C) are associated with humid and tentatively cold-temperate conditions during MIS 3. SU XII-M2C (47.7–48.8 Ka) could be tentatively correlated with the human occupations associated with cold or cool conditions recorded in Mujina Pećina (northern Balkans) at ~45 - 43 Ka.

Our molecular and compound-specific hydrogen isotope dataset contributes a more accurate paleoenvironmental reconstruction for CS and brings us closer to the local climatic conditions that prevailed during the Middle Paleolithic human occupations recorded at the site. This new dataset also addresses past hydrological variability in a region that is sensitive to short-lived climatic shifts (i.e., the Balkan peninsula) and overall, in the Mediterranean region during the last glacial/interglacial cycle.

Author contributions statement

Margarita Jambrina-Enríquez: Conceptualization; Investigation; Formal analysis; Writing – original draft. **Carolina Mallol:** Conceptualization; Resources; Writing - review and editing. **Gilbert Tostevin and Gilliane Monnier:** Funding acquisition; Project administration, Writing - review & editing. **Goran Pajović, Nikola Borovinić and Mile Baković:** Project administration.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

I have shared the link to my data at the Attach File step

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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