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1 **Reconstructing the sedimentary history of Lezetxiki II**

2 **cave (Basque Country, northern Iberian Peninsula)**

3 **using micromorphological analysis**

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15 16 **Abstract**

17 Micromorphological analysis is an invaluable research tool for reconstructing detailed
18 depositional and post-depositional processes of cave infill sequences and for providing
19 paleoenvironmental insight. In this work, we present the results of a
20 micromorphological and mineralogical study of the sedimentary sequence at the
21 Lezetxiki II cave (northern Iberian Peninsula). The cave forms part of the Lezetxiki
22 archaeological complex which has yielded early Middle Palaeolithic tools and archaic
23 human remains. We have identified three main clastic sedimentary processes as being
24 significant at Lezetxiki II: 1) fluviokarst or runoff processes, which are characterised by
25 yellow sandy illite-rich microfacies; 2) infiltration processes, which produce a massive
26 red silty-clay vermiculite-rich microfacies; and 3) inwash processes, which generate a

27 reworked illite and vermiculite rich silty sand microfacies. The most common post-
28 depositional processes observed are calcite precipitation infilling pore spaces, and
29 compression structures derived from specific vertical loading events. In order to
30 improve the chronological framework of the sedimentary sequence at Lezetxiki II, we
31 have revised previous radiometric and relative dating results from faunal and
32 archaeological remains and have dated the lowermost stratigraphic level using single-
33 grain thermally-transferred optically-stimulated luminescence dating. Sedimentation at
34 the Lezetxiki II cave started during Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 7 through fluviokarst
35 processes. We interpreted that runoff prevailed during MIS 6, while soil infiltration
36 processes became more significant toward the MIS 5 optimum. Gradually, inwash
37 processes prevailed over infiltration until the end of the interglacial phase. During the
38 following glacial phases, runoff and erosion dominated but were subsequently replaced
39 by inwash processes during MIS 1.

40

41 **Keywords:** cave sedimentary processes; sedimentary petrology; single-grain dating;
42 paleoenvironmental changes; Lezetxiki II cave.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45

46 Karstic caves are complex geological environments in which a great variety of
47 sedimentological processes can occur within a particularly limited area (Sasowsky and
48 Mylroie, 2007; White, 2007). As in any other sedimentary environment, the
49 sedimentary sequence in a cave represents records of local to regional
50 paleoenvironmental changes that took place during its deposition (White, 2007).
51 However, caves have been studied relatively less frequently than other sedimentary

52 environments, and are generally absent or poorly documented in generic
53 sedimentological books (e.g., Reineck and Singh, 1980; Reading, 1996; Nichols, 2009;
54 Boggs, 2012). This is probably because of their limited accessibility and the large
55 variability of factors involved in cave sedimentation. An exception to this is the study of
56 speleothems, which have attracted the interest of the scientific community because of
57 the accurate paleoclimatic information they can preserve (Fairchild and Baker, 2012),
58 their spectacular morphology and their diverse mineralogy (Hill and Forti, 1997).

59 As Karkanas and Goldberg (2013) point out, cave sedimentary sequence studies are
60 generally based on field description of sedimentary facies and grain-size characteristics
61 with an emphasis on coarse-grained sediments and sediments transported by karstic
62 aquifers (Bull, 1981; Bosch and White, 2004). However, much of the cave sediments
63 are fine-grained deposits, and despite being an important source of information, they
64 have been under-studied compared to other unconsolidated sedimentary bodies (van der
65 Meer and Menzies, 2011). Over recent years, microstratigraphic studies of cave clastic
66 sediments have been growing in importance, in part because sedimentological
67 information is required to better understand accumulation processes of archaeological
68 remains (Turk, 2011; Canti and Huisman, 2015). Karkanas and Goldberg (2013)
69 reviewed cave sediment micromorphology studies published pre-2010, and summarised
70 the main depositional and post-depositional processes detected in caves, as well as their
71 paleoenvironmental and diagenetic interpretation. A number of recent works have been
72 published that show existing correlations between cave depositional and post-
73 depositional processes with climatic oscillations (Inglis et al., 2017; Morley et al., 2017;
74 Nejman et al., 2018), landscape evolution (Ward et al., 2017) and diagenetic evidence
75 (Stephens et al., 2017). However, most cave sedimentary sequences provide

76 environmental information at a local scale, and normally additional geomorphological
77 data from the surrounding area is needed to better understand the regional context.

78 During the past two decades several micromorphological studies have been carried
79 out in cave clastic sediments at sites located within the Cantabrian Margin region
80 (northern Iberian peninsula), where Lezetxiki II cave is located (Fig. 1). Courty and
81 Vallverdú (2001) worked at El Mirón cave (located within the Cantabrian Margin) and
82 another two caves, and found some correlation between environmental conditions and
83 cave sedimentary process in a sequence spanning the late Upper Pleistocene to the early
84 Holocene. Mallol et al. (2010) used micromorphology to show that limited post-
85 depositional processes had affected the Esquilleu cave sequence since the Upper
86 Pleistocene. Extreme flood events have been identified in speleothems from different
87 caves located along the Cantabrian Margin, with chronologies spanning the Holocene
88 and the Middle Pleistocene (Gázquez et al., 2014; González-Lemos et al., 2015a;
89 2015b). Lastly, Ballesteros et al. (2017) correlated MIS5d-c coarse-grained layers of a
90 rhythmite deposits in the Torca la Texa shaft (Picos de Europa, Cantabrian Margin)
91 with seasonal ice melting of surrounding glaciers, and fine-grained lamina forming by
92 sedimentation of glacial flour during the non-melting season. These works have
93 relatively limited geographical and chronological scope, and more data are now needed
94 to improve our knowledge of the depositional and post-depositional processes affecting
95 caves located in the Cantabrian Margin. Similarly, additional micromorphological
96 information is needed to help better understand the climatic and geomorphological
97 evolution of the region.

98 In this work we present a detailed study of the sedimentary sequence at Lezetxiki II
99 cave (part of Lezetxiki archaeological complex, Arrasalte, Cantabrian Margin), which
100 records sediment accumulation spanning the Middle Pleistocene through to the late

101 Holocene. The study is based in micromorphological analysis, and it follows on from
102 previous work that investigated the provenance of the Lezetxiki II endokarstic
103 sediments (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015). The aims of the current study are to (i)
104 determine the sedimentary processes that took place within the cave during the various
105 climatic cycles; (ii) understand how these sedimentary processes responded to ongoing
106 environmental changes; and (iii) assess whether post-depositional events affected the
107 sedimentary sequence through time. The results from this study will contribute towards
108 our current knowledge on general cave sedimentary processes, aid in
109 paleoenvironmental reconstruction at the local and regional scale, and provide a
110 geological context for the archaeological and paleontological remains from the
111 Lezetxiki archaeological complex, which is one of the most important sites in the
112 northern Iberian Peninsula (Castaños et al., 2011; Arrizabalaga and Rios-Garaizar,
113 2012; Rofes et al., 2012; Villaluenga et al., 2012; Álvarez-Alonso, 2014; Arrizabalaga
114 et al., 2014; Gómez-Olivencia et al., 2014; Rios-Garaizar et al., 2015a; Garcia-
115 Ibaibarriaga et al., 2015).

116

117 **2. Geological Context**

118

119 *2.1. Setting*

120

121 The Lezetxiki II cave is situated in the northern margin of the Iberian Peninsula
122 (Basque Country), near the village of Arrasate (Fig. 1), and within the upper Deba river
123 basin, which discharges in the Cantabrian Sea. Within this basin, several caves preserve
124 sedimentary sequences composed of distinct allostratigraphic units, where fluviokarstic

125 processes, both erosive and sedimentary, prevailed during cold periods, and flowstone
126 formation was dominant in temperate periods (Aranburu et al., 2015).

127 The Lezetxiki II cave is part of the Lezetxiki archaeological complex and is formed
128 within the Aptian-Albian stratified reef limestones (García-Mondéjar, 1990; EVE,
129 1992), which are traversed from north to south by the Bostiturrieta watercourse (Fig. 1).
130 At least nine caves have been documented along the valley. The layout of these caves,
131 as well as their phreatic geomorphologies in the horizontally developed galleries,
132 suggest the presence of two cave levels in the Bostiturrieta valley (Expósito et al., 2015)
133 that formed during pauses in base-level lowering. The upper level is situated at 20-30 m
134 above the current stream level, while the lower cave level is equivalent to that of the
135 stream. Three types of soils have been identified in the Bostiturrieta valley (Fig. 1b),
136 and these represent the source materials (i.e., surface clastic sediments) that were
137 remobilised and then redeposited inside the cave (Fig. 1). These include: 1) soils formed
138 above siliciclastic rocks (S_1), which, in a steep landscape, suffer relatively continuous
139 erosion and soil rejuvenation (Velde and Meunier, 2008), and so are relatively richer in
140 illite clay mineral; 2) soils above limestones (S_2), which suffer less erosion than S_1 , and
141 so are relatively richer in vermiculite, a pedogenic clay mineral formed from illite
142 through loss of potassium; and, 3) a *terra rossa*-type soil (S_3), which forms above
143 limestone and is almost unaffected by erosion, and is therefore, the soil with the richest
144 vermiculite mineral content (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015).

145

146 2.2. *Lezetxiki Archaeological Site*

147

148 The Lezetxiki archaeological site complex is located in the upper cave level,
149 approximately 25 m above the current stream, between the entrance of the Leibar cave

150 and the end chamber of the Iturralde cave (Fig. 2). Both Leibar and Iturralde caves are
151 actually part of the same cave system. However, the galleries connecting them were
152 completely filled by sediments and they have therefore been treated as two separate
153 caves. The sedimentary infill separating these two caves contains the archaeological and
154 paleontological remains that make up the Lezetxiki site, where sedimentation began in
155 the Middle Pleistocene (Arrizabalaga, 2006).

156 The site was first excavated from 1956 to 1968 (Barandiarán and Altuna, 1970) and
157 then re-excavated from 1996 to 2016 (Arrizabalaga et al., 2004; Arrizabalaga, 2006).
158 The second phase of fieldwork extended Barandiarán's first excavation laterally (Fig.
159 2), and also included the opening of the Lezetxiki II cave pit, which was excavated
160 between 2001 and 2011. The original trench excavated by Barandiaran starts from the
161 so called "tunnel of Lezetxiki" and ends ~10 m below it, at the entrance of the Leibar
162 cave (Fig. 2). The sedimentary sequence of this trench is divided into eight stratigraphic
163 levels (Altuna, 1972). A *Homo heidelbergensis* humerus was found at this site (i.e.,
164 Leibar entrance), but its exact stratigraphic ascription is unknown (Basabe, 1966;
165 Arrizabalaga, 2006). The main chronological study undertaken at Lezetxiki, which
166 included ESR dating, as well as alpha and gamma spectrometry, dating of bones,
167 produced uncertain results, and the most relevant information obtained from that study
168 is that level VII (second level starting from the base of the sequence) must be younger
169 than 260 ka (Falguères et al., 2005/2006). The authors reasoned that meteoric waters
170 percolated the sediment and contaminated the dated bone samples, thus increasing their
171 apparent age (Falguères et al., 2005/2006).

172 The trench excavated by Arrizabalaga (2nd excavation; Fig. 2) is 8 m deep, but work
173 is currently ongoing and final results regarding its stratigraphy and chronology are not
174 yet available. Villaluenga et al. (2012) studied the macro-fauna remains from levels L,

175 M, N and O (early Upper Pleistocene) of the 2nd excavation (Fig. 2), which are situated
176 5-6 m below the surface. A roof collapse occurred during the formation of these levels,
177 separating the stratigraphic sequence into two different sedimentary environments: the
178 upper part of the stratigraphy is classed as a rockshelter environment, while the lower
179 part is classed as a cave environment.

180 Lezetxiki II is a small sediment-filled cave (6 m long and 3 m wide) that was
181 originally excavated after the discovery that the cave was connected directly to the
182 Leibar section. A trench of 4 x 1 m in area, and 3 m deep was excavated (Figs. 2, 3),
183 until the presence of large limestone boulders impeded any further work. Lezetxiki II is
184 topographically paired with the lower part of the other two excavation areas at Lezetxiki
185 (Fig. 2), but the correlation between the various levels among the three trenches is still
186 part of ongoing work. In this sense, the sedimentary context obtained in the present
187 work will provide valuable information for improved correlations of the various infill
188 sequences at Lezetxiki.

189

190 2.3. *The Lezetxiki II cave stratigraphy*

191

192 A sedimentary record of ca. 3.9 m was obtained from the excavated trench (Fig. 3).
193 The sedimentary record encompasses eleven major lithostratigraphic levels - labelled
194 from the base upwards, as K to A - and two main erosive surfaces (Fig. 3; Table 1). The
195 bottom of the sequence is characterized by allochthonous fluviokarst sediments (levels
196 K and J). With the exception of levels H, E and D, the higher levels are fine-grained
197 deposits and have a massive structure. Levels H and E are also fine-grained levels, but
198 level H is additionally composed of speleothem fragments, while in level E clastic
199 sediments are cemented by calcium carbonate. Level D is the only *in situ* flowstone

200 level of the sequence, and has been dated to 74 ka using uranium series analysis by
201 alpha spectrometry (Falguères et al., 2005/2006). Occasionally, subangular limestone
202 boulders can be found randomly distributed along the sequence, which correspond to
203 episodic cave roof breakdown events.

204 Arriolabengoa et al. (2015) were able to find two main sources for the clastic
205 sediments using mineralogical and geochemical analysis of the cave sediments, and
206 similar analyses performed on soils and rocks from the surrounding valley, as follows:
207 i) the siliciclastic rocks of the upper valley and their soils (S₁) were carried to the cave
208 by fluviokarstic processes and enriched the level in illite mineral. This process was
209 dominant in level K, but decreased in importance in levels I, E and C; and ii) soils
210 formed on limestone (S₂ and S₃) were eroded and introduced into the cave through the
211 epikarst via infiltration processes, enriching some levels with vermiculite mineral. This
212 process prevailed in level H, and to a lesser extent in levels G and B. The rest of the
213 clastic sedimentary levels (levels J and F) preserve similar illite and vermiculite
214 composition, and were interpreted as being affected equally by both processes (i.e.,
215 fluviokarst and infiltration).

216

217 **3. Methods**

218

219 The principal method used in this work is micromorphological analysis. However,
220 we also present mineralogical data obtained by X-ray diffraction (XRD) in
221 Arriolabengoa et al. (2015), since this helps with interpreting microfacies and
222 sedimentary processes, and provides additional environmental information. Finally, we
223 present new chronological data for level K obtained using single-grain thermally
224 transferred optically stimulated luminescence (TT-OSL) dating of sedimentary quartz.

225 The micromorphological study focused on five unaltered sediment samples taken
226 from levels I, H, G, F and B, including the contact between the levels (Fig. 3). Sampling
227 was performed using aluminium kubiena boxes (7 cm wide and 13 cm long, taken
228 vertically). Levels K, J and E could not be sampled due to the presence of a large
229 number of pebbles. Level C was not sampled because of the fragile, non-cohesive
230 nature of the sediment and level A was not studied because it is the modern altered
231 surface layer. Thin sections were produced in the SCT Micromorphology and Image
232 Analysis Laboratory at University of Lleida using the protocol developed by Benyarku
233 and Stoops (2005). The thin sections were studied using an Olympus BH2 petrographic
234 microscope equipped with an Olympus DP10 digital camera and Nikon Elements
235 imaging software. Thin sections were described according to terminology used in soil
236 micromorphology (Bullock et al., 1985; Stoops, 2003) and classical sedimentary
237 petrology studies: these included descriptions of microfabric, microfacies and
238 microstructure, grain size and shape, composition and distribution of skeleton grains
239 and groundmass.

240 Mineralogical characterization of the sedimentary record was performed after
241 obtaining one representative sample of loose sediment from each level. Due to the
242 thickness of levels K and F, three samples were obtained for each at these two levels
243 (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015) (Fig. 3). Whole-rock mineralogy was determined by
244 powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Bruker D8 Discover diffractometer with
245 DAVINCI design and the DIFFRACplus basic EVA software with ICDD database, at
246 the Science and Technology Park in Burgos University. Air-dried samples were sieved
247 at 2 mm, finely ground in an agate mortar to less than 63 μm particle size and processed
248 using a continuous scan range of 2-80 $^{\circ}2\theta$ with Cu K α radiation (ceramic X-ray tube
249 KFL-Cu, 40 kV, 40 mA) with a programmable divergence slit, and a LynxEye detector.

250 Semi-quantitative estimations were calculated from peak areas on XRD patterns. The
251 clay fraction (<2 μm) mineralogy was identified with a PANalytical X'Pert Pro
252 diffractometer at the Research Facilities (SGIker) of the University of the Basque
253 Country. The samples were first decarbonated by treatment with 0.1 M HCl, washed
254 several times with deionized water to avoid calcium chloride precipitation and the clay
255 fraction was collected by centrifugation. The oriented aggregates were prepared by
256 carefully pipetting the clay suspension onto glass slides that later were placed in a glass
257 dessicator for 24 h with ethylene glycol solvent. Thermal treatments at 300°C and
258 550°C were also applied to identify the clay minerals following the procedures detailed
259 in Arostegui et al. (2006). After each treatment step, the glass slides were measured by
260 XRD with CuK α radiation (40 kV, 40 mA), graphite monochromator, a programmable
261 divergence slit, and a PIXcel detector.

262 In order to obtain a better chronological understanding of the sedimentary sequence,
263 a sediment sample (LZ12-6) was collected from level K for single-grain thermally
264 transferred optically stimulated luminescence (TT-OSL) dating (e.g., Arnold and
265 Demuro, 2015; Demuro et al., 2015). Single-grain TT-OSL provides an estimate of
266 when sedimentary quartz grains were last exposed to light prior to burial at the site. This
267 technique also offers the advantage of establishing extended-range depositional
268 chronologies that exceed the traditional upper age limits of quartz OSL dating (Arnold
269 et al., 2015). The TT-OSL sample was dated at the CENIEH Luminescence Dating
270 Laboratory, Burgos (Spain). Equivalent dose (D_e) values were determined for individual
271 quartz grains using the instrumentation, single-aliquot regenerative-dose (SAR)
272 procedure and TT-OSL quality assurance criteria outlined in Arnold et al. (2014). The
273 environmental dose rate for LZ12-6 was estimated using a combination of *in situ* field
274 gamma spectrometry and low level beta counting, taking into account cosmic ray

275 contributions (Prescott and Hutton, 1994), an assumed minor internal alpha dose rate
276 (Bowler et al., 2003), beta-dose attenuation and present-day water content.

277

278 **4. Results**

279

280 *4.1. Micromorphology*

281

282 In general terms, studied levels show a massive microstructure and porphyric coarse-
283 fine (*c/f*) related distribution. However, there are differences between the type of fine
284 and coarse sediment that characterizes each microfacies. The main micromorphological
285 features are summarised in Table 2. It should be noted that some fissure type cracks
286 could have developed during the sampling or preparation stages.

287

288 *4.1.1. Level I*

289 Level I has a massive microstructure and heterogeneous groundmass. The
290 heterogeneous aspect of the microfacies in this level is due to poor mixing of two
291 different sediment types: 1) a yellow sandy sediment (YSS) with greater content of
292 medium-size quartz sand and yellow clays (Fig. 4a); and 2) reddish silty sediment
293 (RsS), with less sand, richer in anorthic ferruginous nodules and red clays (Fig. 4a).
294 Skeleton grain components are poorly sorted and are made up of rounded
295 equidimensional opaque minerals 0.1-1.0 mm in size, aggregates of rip-up clasts, sand
296 and granules that are 0.1-2.8 mm in size (Fig. 4b), <4 mm-diameter lutite pebbles with
297 blade to rod shape, flat or rounded morphology and non-eroded microfauna bone
298 fragments. Some bones are chemically altered (Fig. 4d), forming a secondary phosphate
299 mineral precipitate as discussed by Karkanas et al. (2000). The porosity is low (10%)

300 and the pores are characterised by vughy and fissure types (Fig. 4a). In the upper part of
301 the level, the pores are sometimes partially filled with calcite acicular crystals in a radial
302 arrangement (Fig. 4c).

303

304 *4.1.2. Level H*

305 There are two microstructures in Level H. The first microstructure has a breccia-type
306 structure and bimodal fabric (Figs. 5, 6a) formed by subangular speleothem fragments.
307 Some of the fragments are in a sub-horizontal position, forming a pseudo-linear
308 structure which reflects the bedding (Fig. 5). The skeleton grain is made up of
309 flowstone-type speleothem fragments that are up to 1 cm thick. Most are altered,
310 corroded and micritized, while a few preserve their original dendritic crystalline texture.
311 Most of the speleothem fragments are upturned (Fig. 6a), others are on their side and a
312 few are in the original growth position (Fig. 5). In addition to the speleothem fragments,
313 some microfaunal bone remains and anorthic ferruginous grains can be observed. About
314 the groundmass, two types of fine-sediments can be differentiated (Fig. 6b). The most
315 common is a red homogeneous groundmass (RsS) (Fig. 6a, b), however, in the lower
316 part of Level H there are two discontinuous intercalated layers of yellow sandy-silt
317 sediment (YSS) (Figs. 5, 6).

318 The second microstructure is matrix-supported by RsS sediment (Fig. 6c, d), which
319 gives it a massive microstructure and reddish homogeneous fine-sediment microfacies.
320 It contains small rounded and totally micritized speleothem fragments that are 0.05 to 1
321 mm in size, and can be found "floating" in the groundmass. This microstructure
322 alternates with the previous clast-supported microfacies in the upper part of the level
323 (Fig. 6c, d).

324 Both microstructures display vesicular and vughy porosity that sometimes tends to be
325 elongated in the vertical plane (Fig. 5).

326

327 4.1.3. Level G

328 Level G has a massive microstructure with a homogeneous groundmass consisting of
329 reddish-brown sandy-silt sediment (RBS). The skeleton grains consist mainly of
330 rounded and spherical allochthonous pebbles that are 0.3-1.0 cm in size, formed by
331 sandstone and lutite lithoclasts, and opaque minerals, as well as a large number of bone
332 fragments (0.2-3.4 mm), many with fractures occurring *in situ* (Fig. 7a, b). The
333 groundmass is relatively homogeneous, with medium sand-size quartz grains and coarse
334 silt (0.03-0.30 mm), as well as red clay. Some areas display clay-rich patches
335 surrounded by a sandier matrix (Fig. 7c, d). Inside these clay-rich patches, there is an
336 alternation between red clayey and siltier microfacies, showing possible original
337 bedding of the sediments. Vertically elongated vesicular and vughy pores normally
338 emerge from these fractured clay laminae patches (Figs. 7c, d). There are also a few
339 fissure-type pores throughout the level.

340

341 4.1.4. Level F

342 Similar to the microfacies in level G, level F has a massive and fissure-type
343 microstructure and homogeneous groundmass. The level consists of a sandy matrix with
344 some vesicular and vughy porosity (Fig. 8). The skeleton grain is mainly comprised of
345 very rounded and spherical allochthonous pebbles (0.3-1.0 cm) of sandstone and lutite
346 lithoclasts, opaque minerals (Fig. 8) and 0.02-2.00 mm bone fragments (Fig. 8a). In the
347 upper part of the level, one layer contains more anorthic ferruginous nodules, which
348 slightly changes the ratio of skeleton grains to groundmass (Fig. 8b). The groundmass is

349 relatively homogeneous with quartz grains from coarse silt to medium sand (0.03-0.30
350 mm), as well as silt and brown clay (BS) (Fig. 8). Remains of modern roots can be seen
351 in some of the pores.

352

353 *4.1.5. Level B*

354 The microfacies in level B are practically the same as those described in level F,
355 apart from the presence of calcite crystals. Level B has a massive microstructure with a
356 homogeneous brown sandy-silt groundmass (BS). The skeleton grains consist of
357 centimetric fragments of speleothems, very rounded and spherical allochthonous
358 sandstone and lutite lithoclast and anorthic ferruginous pebbles that are 0.3-1.0 cm in
359 size, and 0.2-0.5 mm bone fragments. The matrix is relatively homogeneous, with
360 coarse silt to medium sand (0.03-0.30 mm) quartz grains embedded in brown and
361 reddish clays (Fig. 9). There is also a 4 x 5 cm area cemented by sparitic calcite crystals,
362 which enclose aggregates of different clastic cements, some similar to the matrix, others
363 seen here for the first time, as well as some anorthic ferruginous nodules (Fig. 9).

364

365 *4.2. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) Mineralogy*

366

367 The XRD results are given in Table 3. Due to the variety of clay-type microfacies
368 differentiated in the micromorphological study, these mineralogical data have been re-
369 evaluated and compared with the micromorphological study to determine whether or not
370 they are complementary.

371 Bulk mineralogy data highlights that the calcite proportion in levels H and E is
372 higher when compared to other levels. This is reasonable since one of the
373 microstructures in level H was rich in flowstone fragments (Fig. 6), and level E appears

374 cemented by the calcium-carbonate rich waters probably filtrated from the upper
375 flowstone level D (Fig. 3). The rest of the levels show less variability in their
376 mineralogy. Levels C and B display larger quantities of calcite than the rest of the levels
377 (except E and H). Finally, level K has relatively higher proportion of feldspar.

378 The clay mineralogy in the levels studied exhibit different proportions of illite,
379 vermiculite and some kaolinite. There is a noticeably high proportion of illitic clay in
380 level K, as well as in levels I and E, which contrasts with the smaller amount of illite
381 and increasing values of vermiculite found in levels H, G and B (Table 3).
382 Arriolabengoa et al. (2015) established that vermiculite originates from the loss of
383 potassium from illite. The origin of kaolinite clay mineral is more difficult to determine,
384 since part of it can be inherited from the rocks, and some from the weathering of
385 feldspar grains.

386

387 *4.3. TT-OSL dating*

388

389 The single-grain TT-OSL dating results are summarised in Table 4 and Fig. 10.
390 ~3.7% of the individually measured grains were deemed suitable for D_e determination
391 after applying the single-grain quality assurance criteria of Arnold et al. (2014). The D_e
392 distribution (n=84 grains) is normally distributed according to the log skewness test
393 outlined by Arnold and Roberts (2011). The D_e dataset is also characterised by
394 relatively low overdispersion of $25 \pm 5\%$, and the D_e scatter is well-represented by the
395 weighted mean burial dose (as indicated by the large proportion of individual D_e values
396 lying within the 2σ grey band in Fig. 10). These favourable D_e distribution
397 characteristics are considered to reflect sufficient optical resetting of the accepted grain
398 population prior to burial, and the absence of post-depositional sediment mixing (e.g.,

399 Bailey and Arnold, 2006; Arnold and Roberts, 2009; Arnold et al., 2013). The final
400 burial dose has therefore been calculated using the central age model of Galbraith et al.
401 (1999), and the resultant single-grain TT-OSL age for sample LZ12-6 is 215.7 ± 15.1 ka
402 (1σ uncertainty range).

403

404

405 **5. Discussion**

406

407 *5.1. Endokarstic Sedimentary Processes*

408

409 The microfacies observed and described in the different stratigraphic units are the
410 result of the interaction of diverse sedimentary and post-depositional processes. To
411 determine these processes, and to understand their interactions and possible connection
412 with environmental changes, it is necessary to characterise and interpret the sedimentary
413 data and microstructures observed.

414

415 *5.1.1. Calcite precipitation*

416 Calcite precipitates have been found in levels I, H and B. However, their
417 characteristics and interpretations vary in every level. In level I, the precipitates were
418 only found locally filling the vesicular porosity at the top of the level, and the XRD
419 analysis barely detected calcite (Table 3). The tabular and acicular crystal growth is
420 perpendicular to the surface of the alveolar porosity (Fig. 4c) and is produced by the
421 percolation of water saturated in carbonate, which precipitates in the pores, often
422 assisted by roots (Hill and Forti, 1997; Karkanas and Goldberg, 2010). As the overlying
423 Level H contains a large quantity of carbonate (Table 3), it is very likely that the

424 carbonate-enriched water percolated and was later precipitated in the pore spaces of
425 level I. This is therefore a post-depositional precipitation. In contrast, calcite in level H
426 come from speleothem fragments (Figs. 5, 6). Fragments that still display structures
427 marking the polarity of crystalline growth indicate that they have been redeposited (Fig.
428 6a) and have therefore not formed *in situ*. Even so, the fact that some fragments still
429 preserve their original structure and are only slightly rounded shows that they were
430 formed in close proximity and were not transported far. These calcite fragments
431 probably formed through the circulation of a sheet of water (Ford and Williams, 2007),
432 either in some inner part of the cave or coating the wall, and eroded or spalled when the
433 sheet of water dried. The final example of calcite precipitation occurs in level B, where
434 large sparite crystals agglutinate different types of lenticular micro-aggregates and
435 anorthic ferruginous nodules (Fig. 9). Because of the rounded form of the cemented
436 clast and the allochthonous micro-aggregates it contains, we believe that the level B
437 calcite was not formed *in situ*, and is therefore considered to be a lithoclast.

438

439 5.1.2. Red and yellow clay matrix: source and transport mechanisms

440 The clays that form the different stratigraphic levels generally display a massive
441 microstructure. Indeed, two main types of silty-clay matrixes were differentiated in this
442 study, the reddish silty sediment (RsS) and the yellow sandy sediment (YSS) (Figs. 4a,
443 6b), which could be associated with both types of identified clastic sedimentary
444 processes: infiltration and fluviokarstic processes (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015).

445 The groundmass in level H consists almost entirely of reddish silty-clay sediment
446 (RsS) (Fig. 6), arranged massively (matrix-supported) and between speleothem
447 fragments (clast-supported). RsS-type microfacies are characterised by the absence of
448 allochthonous and coarse elements and good sorting of the massive red mud (aside from

449 speleothem fragments) and correspond to low-energy sedimentary environments. The
450 bedding in this level is provided by the intercalated speleothem fragments, while the
451 RsS does not show any internal lamination. The lack of internal structure is a primary
452 feature that occurs under the following possible scenarios: i) rapid deposition from
453 suspension in the absence of traction transport (Boggs, 2012); ii) deposition from very
454 highly concentrated sediments - hyperconcentrated flow - (Bertran and Texier, 1999); or
455 iii) due to the stability of the sedimentary process (Valen et al., 1997). The
456 mineralogical data show that the RsS from level H has the highest quantity of
457 vermiculite (Table 3), a pedogenic clay mineral abundant in *terra rossa*-type soils
458 formed on limestone substrates, corresponding to soil infiltration processes previously
459 identified in this cave (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015). Infiltration of the upper soils into the
460 cave could have occurred through diffuse drainage, which would have introduced the
461 red silty-clay sediment into the cave, as well as produce the dripping along the gallery.
462 The accumulation of the dripping water in the gallery can create small local pools in
463 which RsS would deposit from suspension, and form these massive, homogeneous and
464 fine-sediment deposits. In addition, diffuse drainage does regulate the recharge in caves,
465 making the process relatively constant (Audra and Palmer, 2013) which would help in
466 the formation of an absent bedding.

467 On the other hand, level H also displays small intrusions of a yellow sandy sediment
468 (YSS) (Figs. 5, 6b) that has a different mineralogical composition, indicating a different
469 source area and a higher energy transport process (Courty et al., 2012). In this regard,
470 level I has the highest proportion of YSS but it is always poorly mixed with RsS (Fig.
471 4). Level I also contains rip-up clasts and millimetric size rounded lithoclasts in the
472 skeleton (Fig. 4b), indicating erosion and resedimentation of other allochthonous
473 deposits by higher energy processes, such as water flooding (Knapp et al., 2007). The

474 mineralogical data show that the quantity of illite in level I is slightly lower than in level
475 K (a fluviokarstic level), but higher than in the other stratigraphic levels (Table 3). A
476 larger quantity of illite is characteristic of relatively young allochthonous soils formed
477 on siliciclastic rocks in the valley (Arriolabengoa et al., 2015). It may, therefore, be
478 concluded that the yellow sandy matrix (YSS) comes from the entry of allochthonous
479 edaphic sediment through runoff or the entry of floodwater from a stream into the cave.
480 The lack of bedding in those deposits could be related to hyperconcentration of the
481 flow, which occurs in flood events if there is enough sediment available (Bertran and
482 Texies, 1999).

483 Levels G, F and B are composed of a well-mixed RsS and YSS. level G also shows
484 a reddish-brown silt and sand (BRS) groundmass while levels F and B show a brown
485 sandy-silt (BS) groundmass; all of them display a massive homogeneous appearance
486 and are poorly sorted (Figs. 7b, 8, 9). The clay mineralogy exhibits intermediate
487 illite/vermiculite ratios compared to those in levels H and I. In level G, a primary
488 intercalation of RsS and YSS layers can be observed forming a subtle lamination (Fig.
489 7c, d). At the same time this level contains higher vermiculite content than levels F and
490 B (Table 3). Therefore, we deduce that level G displays alternating periods of relatively
491 larger supply of sediment derived from percolation, rather than runoff. This alternation
492 has led to the formation of bedding, which has been almost entirely destroyed by
493 diagenetic processes. In contrast, level F does not contain rip-up clasts from other levels
494 or patches of yellow sand; as such runoff, or river flooding, did not deposit
495 allochthonous sediments during the formation of this level. However, anorthic
496 ferruginous nodule grains are abundant in some parts of this level (Fig. 8). We therefore
497 deduce that these deposits could have formed from inwash events, when part of the soil
498 in the surroundings areas was eroded and transported into the cave through small

499 entrances or shaft drains (Bosch and White, 2007). This type of process is more
500 common during periods of low vegetation cover, when soil erosion is greater and
501 materials can be remobilised (Courty and Vallverdu, 2001; Oliva-Urcia et al., 2014).
502 The flow responsible for this could also have been hyperconcentrated in sediment,
503 resulting in poor sorting of the microfabric (Courty and Vallverdu, 2001; Oliva-Urcia et
504 al., 2014).

505

506 5.1.3. Post-depositional processes

507 In addition to the precipitation of secondary porosity-filling calcite in level I, other
508 features also denote the action of post-depositional processes. In levels H and G,
509 embedded in the red clay matrix (RsS), the vesicular and vughy porosity is sometimes
510 elongated vertically (Figs. 6d, 7). This type of porosity forms when trapped air or water
511 escapes due to pressure (van der Meer and Hiemstra, 1998; Phillips et al., 2007;
512 Karkanis and Goldberg, 2013). Similarly, the fracturing of thin clay lamina in level G
513 (Fig. 7c, d) are also interpreted as structures formed by porewater escape (Menzies et
514 al., 2010; van der Meer and Menzies, 2011). In this interpretation, water was confined
515 in the sand (YSS) layers and vesicular pores in the red clay (RsS) and escaped upwards
516 by breaking the clay layers because of vertical compression. This post-depositional
517 compression process is also observed in some microfauna bones from level G, which
518 were broken *in situ*, indicating compression forces due to vertical loads (Fig. 7a, b). In
519 cave dynamics, vertical pressure could be produced by roof collapse, however in
520 Lezetxiki II this process has not been registered to occur with sufficient force. On the
521 other hand, some studies have shown that broken-bone features can be formed due to
522 trampling by large animals (e.g., Estévez et al., 2014). Taking into account that the
523 upper level F is the richest level in *Ursus spelaeus* with 114 remains (Villaluenga et al.,

524 2012), we assume that the vertical pressure was caused by the presence of those bears.
525 Finally, evidence of dissolution and amorphous features of some bones (Fig. 4d)
526 indicates that authigenic phosphates might have formed in level I (Karkanas et al.,
527 1999).

528

529 *5.2. Cave Chronology*

530

531 Resolving the chronostratigraphy of Lezetxiki II has previously proved contentious
532 because of difficulties in obtaining reliable and precise radiometric ages over the time
533 range of interest, and because of potentially unclear assignments of paleontological
534 remains to specific stratigraphic levels. Three radiometric ages have been published
535 previously for Lezetxiki II cave: Falguères et al. (2005/2006) obtained an U/Th age of
536 74 ka for the flowstone corresponding to level D, after applying a correction for the high
537 clay content of the speleothem, while Castañós et al. (2011) obtained amino acid
538 racemisation (AAR) ages of 70.0 ka and 86.8 ka for two *Ursus* teeth from level J. As
539 part of the present study, we have obtained a new TT-OSL age of 215 ± 15.1 ka for
540 sediment from the upper part of level K.

541 Following reassessment of the available chronological data, we interpret the AAR
542 ages obtained from level J to be potentially compromised on the grounds of
543 methodological complications, poor consistency with surrounding ages, and weak
544 correlation with faunal climatic interpretations. Our latest MIS 7 TT-OSL age for level
545 K, together with the MIS 5/4 age obtained by Falguères et al. (2005/2006) for the
546 flowstone located 1.5 m above Level J, suggest that the intervening AAR ages may be
547 too young. The climatic associations and the relative age obtained from faunal remains
548 from level J also show poor correspondence with the existing MIS 5 AAR ages. In

549 particular, *Sicista betulina* (Rofes et al., 2012) found in level J is interpreted as a cold
550 climate fauna, and its presence is more consistent with an MIS 6 age assignment, as
551 inferred from the bracketing U/Th and TT-OSL ages. Additionally, the *Muscardinus*
552 fossil found in level G is hypothetically linked to warm and humid conditions associated
553 with an interstadial period of MIS 5 (Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2015), which would
554 reinforce the apparent AAR age underestimation for the underlying level J. From a
555 methodological perspective, the AAR ages may have been compromised by the choice
556 of dating material or absence of a site-specific numerical calibration curve. Bones
557 ultimately exhibit open system behaviour (Pike et al., 2002; Grün, 2006; Dobberstein et
558 al., 2008), and numerical AAR ages obtained from such materials have been shown to
559 be erroneous in comparable contexts (e.g., Rios-Garaizar et al., 2015b).

560

561 *5.3. Sedimentary evolution and palaeoenvironmental insight*

562

563 The Lezetxiki II cave is part of the upper cave level of the Bostiturrieta valley and
564 was formed during an ancient stable base-level time interval (Expósito et al., 2015). The
565 known sedimentary record of Lezetxiki II began to accumulate when the local phreatic
566 level was still relatively close in height. The fluviokarstic deposits in level K belong to
567 that initial phase. Taking into account that river incision rates in the Deba valley were
568 ~ 0.08 mm/yr (Aranburu et al., 2015), and our latest TT-OSL study of the upper part of
569 this level has yielded an age of 215 ± 15 ka (MIS 7), we can infer that the Bostiturrieta
570 stream was more or less around 17.2 m above the current stream level. Probably the
571 cave conduit was perched, but still the local phreatic level was close to the altitude of
572 the floor of the cave (Fig. 11a). Level K also has an abundant microfauna assemblage

573 with no evidence of reworking and/or transportation (García-Ibaibarriaga, 2012),
574 suggesting that fluviokarstic processes were not continuous.

575 Level J was subsequently deposited and, although it contains some finer fluvial
576 gravel, the relative percentage of vermiculite clay in this level is higher than in level K
577 (Table 3), indicating a greater influence of infiltration from karstic soils (Fig. 11b).
578 Therefore, the proportion of sediments derived from fluviokarst processes decreased
579 while infiltration processes from autochthonous soils overlying the karst increased,
580 probably due to the ongoing incision of the river.

581 The overlying level I attests to flowing water depositing allochthonous siliciclastic
582 material into the karst system (pedosediments derived from siliciclastic soils in the
583 valley) and the resedimentation of previous endokarstic deposits (Fig. 11c). The change
584 from greater sedimentation by percolation in level J to the runoff processes in level I
585 might be a consequence of climate cooling and/or reduced precipitation, which would
586 have resulted in a diminished vegetation cover and subsequent soil erosion and
587 redeposition by runoff into the cave (Goldberg and MacPhail, 2000; Courty and
588 Vallverdu, 2001). As the River Bostiturrieta was cutting through the valley, it would
589 have been unable to transport centimetric sized cobbles into the cave during flood
590 events, as it did in level J, and only sand and silt was introduced, together with rip-up
591 clasts. The transition from level I to H is erosive (Fig. 5), reflecting the high-energy
592 nature of the water courses that entered the cave.

593 Level H was deposited onto the irregular upper contact of level I (Fig. 5). Level H
594 thins out towards the entrance and eventually disappears. During sedimentation of level
595 H, runoff stopped and red clay infiltration and speleothem formation predominated (Fig.
596 11d), as evidenced by a large sedimentary change. Eventually, relatively small pools of
597 water formed in the cave resulting in the deposition of percolating vermiculite-rich RsS

598 clay, while at times laminar sheets of water flowed and flowstone formed on nearby
599 ground surfaces or cave walls. In the transition between the two processes, thin calcite
600 flowstone clasts would have broken off and become resedimented on the quasi-
601 horizontal surfaces, representing ancient cave floors (Fig. 5). During the onset of
602 sedimentation in level H, high-energy water flows appear to have increased in
603 frequency, depositing some sandy layers. In contrast, towards the top of the level, the
604 sediment becomes finer, creating a matrix-supported deposit rather than clast-supported
605 deposit (Figs. 6c, d). This might indicate a decrease in the intensity of water flows,
606 likely in connection with thick vegetation cover and more developed soils that would
607 retain surface runoff during relatively warm, wet periods (Li et al., 2011; Zhang et al.,
608 2015). Both the formation of speleothems (Stoll et al., 2013; Moreno et al., 2013;
609 Aranburu et al., 2015) and the development of soils and vegetation cover (Courty and
610 Vallverdu, 2001; Bertran et al., 2008; Karkanis et al., 2008) would have been associated
611 with relatively warmer and wetter periods. Because of the great change in sedimentary
612 dynamics, from runoff processes to infiltration processes, we hypothesize that this
613 might reflect the transition from a glacial stage MIS 6 (level I) to an interglacial stage
614 MIS 5 (level H).

615 Level G thins out towards the inner part of the cave, where it finally disappears
616 (Table 1, Fig. 3). Its base is defined by a sharp contact and the disappearance of
617 speleothem fragments. It is mainly formed by inwash sedimentation of
618 hyperconcentrated sediment flows (i.e., YSS) alternating with periods dominated by
619 infiltration (i.e., RsS). Level G would have been a transitional level with sedimentary
620 processes changing from relatively warm and wet conditions, in which infiltration of
621 soil and speleothem growth predominated (level H), to a level formed by repeated
622 inwash at the cave entrance (level F), associated with drier and colder periods. In any

623 case, the presence of *Muscardinus avellanarius* in level G has been related to the warm,
624 wet interstadial of MIS 5 (García-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2015). In addition, post-
625 depositional microstructures caused by vertical compaction have been documented in
626 both level G and level H. This vertical pressure was possibly created by the *Ursus*
627 *spelaeus* that inhabited Lezetxiki II cave during the formation of level F (Villaluenga et
628 al., 2012).

629 The transition between level G and F is gradual, as the red clay (RsS) content
630 decreases slightly, supporting the hypothesis that level G is a transition level between
631 two periods with different climates. During the formation of level F, inwash introduced
632 sediment from the soils surrounding the cave (Fig. 11e). The flow energy was variable
633 and, as a result, layers with coarser grain size have been found, consisting of a large
634 amount of anorthic ferruginous nodule gravel (Fig. 8b). Therefore, the climate when
635 level F was formed may have been cooler and drier than in previous levels, resulting in
636 less dense vegetation cover and greater surface runoff, which would have eroded and
637 redeposited soil sediment inside the cave (Courty and Vallverdú, 2011).

638 The grain size in level E is relatively coarse. However, this is not a primary feature,
639 but is due to water percolation depositing the flowstone in level D and the formation of
640 aggregates of cemented sediment. The flowstone in level D has been dated to 74 ka
641 (Falguères et al., 2005/2006) and indicates the end of MIS 5 and the start of MIS 4.

642 The deposition of level C would have begun at the start of the relatively cold MIS 4-
643 2 period (Stoll et al., 2013; Alvarez-Lao et al., 2015) (it contains Upper Palaeolithic
644 archaeological remains). As the mineralogical traits of level C are very similar to those
645 in level F (Table 3), it was probably also formed by sediment inwash into the cave.
646 Additionally, one or several erosive processes (e.g., runoff) removed part of the
647 endokarst sedimentary sequence in the area nearest to the cave entrance. These erosive

648 events in endokarst sequences appear to be characteristic of colder and drier conditions
649 predominating during the transition from interglacial to glacial periods (Aranburu et al.,
650 2015).

651 Level B, based on its Chalcolithic archaeological assemblage (Table 1), was
652 deposited during MIS 1 on top of the aforementioned erosional surface. The surface
653 between the two levels is almost imperceptible at a microscopic scale, as inwash
654 processes produced sedimentation in both units.

655

656 **6. Conclusions**

657

658 Micromorphological analysis of the sedimentary record at Lezetxiki II, aided by
659 XRD data, has enabled us to reveal correlations between paleoenvironmental changes
660 and sedimentary processes in this cave, which started during MIS 7 (level K). A
661 considerable sedimentary change is identified from level I to level H, where runoff
662 processes that carry allochthonous sediment were replaced abruptly by low energy
663 infiltration processes carrying autochthonous upper soils into the cave. We interpret this
664 variation as reflecting abrupt climatic change, hypothetically associated with the MIS 6-
665 MIS 5e transition. The remaining variations in microfacies were not as abrupt as from
666 levels I to H. The changes from infiltration to inwash processes in level F, and their
667 intensity, are interpreted as corresponding to the MIS 5 interstadial / stadial
668 oscillations. Finally, level B showed practically the same microstructure and microfacie
669 as level F, suggesting that during the main parts of these interglacial periods (i.e., MIS 5
670 and MIS 1) inwash processes were the most common occurrences at this site. In a
671 general sense, the microstratigraphic changes registered in this work are consistent with
672 other sedimentary records obtained from speleothem growth (Stoll et al., 2013) and

673 cave stratigraphy studies from the Cantabrian Margin (Aranburu et al., 2015), and help
674 to further connect local and regional paleoenvironmental oscillations with global
675 climatic changes.

676 The Lezetxiki archaeological complex contains a sedimentary record that is at least
677 215 ± 15.1 ka, and is currently one of the oldest prehistoric human sites in the northern
678 Iberian Peninsula. The archaeological and paleontological remains at Lezetxiki II have
679 not suffered severe diagenetic processes, and show limited instance of breakage and
680 alterations in microfaunal bones. The data obtained in this work provide an overview of
681 the sedimentary processes affecting the Lezetxiki cave environment and allow
682 microstratigraphic correlations with the rest of the excavations. As such, this study
683 represents the first step towards reconstructing the broader sedimentary history of the
684 Lezetxiki archaeological complex. The application of similar micromorphological
685 studies at other sites of the Cantabrian Margin should help to broaden our knowledge of
686 how related sedimentary systems responded to regional paleoenvironmental changes, as
687 well establishing firmer paleoenvironmental frameworks for understanding prehistoric
688 human occupation patterns across the region.

689

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691

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704

705

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997

998

999 Figure captions

1000

1001 **Fig. 1.** (a) Iberian Peninsula, Cantabrian Margin and the location of the study area; (b) types of soil along
1002 the Bostiturrieta valley. The limit between S2 and S3 is extrapolated from a limited number of outcrops
1003 and is subject to change.

1004

1005 **Fig. 2.** (a) Position of the Lezetxiki archaeological complex and Lezetxiki II cave in the Bostiturrieta
1006 valley (modified from Expósito et al., 2015); (b) General view of the Lezetxiki archaeological site; (c)
1007 View from the Arrizabalaga excavation trench toward the Barandiaran excavation. Dashed line represents
1008 the limits of the Barandiaran excavation trench, while the diagonal lines at the background of the image
1009 represent the excavated profile; (d) Plan view of the Lezetxiki archaeological complex excavation
1010 trenches and Lezetxiki II cave location.

1011

1012 **Fig. 3.** Stratigraphic column and profile of the sedimentary sequence of Lezetxiki II cave (modified from
1013 Arriolabengoa et al., 2015), showing the location of the samples taken for micromorphological, X-ray
1014 diffraction and TT-OSL analysis. Levels A-K are described in Table 1.

1015

1016 **Fig. 4.** Microphotographs of level I: (a) Mixing of reddish silty sediment (RsS) and yellow sandy
1017 sediment (YSS), giving the level a heterogeneous aspect; (b) Rip-up clasts aggregates (A); (c) Vughy
1018 porosity filled with acicular crystals of CaCO_3 (C); (d) Fragments of bone (B) and altered bone (AB).

1019

1020 **Fig. 5.** Microstructure and microfacies of the lower part of Level H, showing the irregular boundary
1021 between Levels I and H. The position of the speleothem fragments according to the direction of
1022 crystalline growth, and intercalations of yellow sandy sediment (YSS) sediment.

1023

1024 **Fig. 6.** Microphotographs of level H: (a) Inverted speleothem fragment (S, the arrow shows the direction
1025 of crystal growth), embedded in RsS; (b) Intercalation of different sediment types (RsS and YSS), under
1026 cross-polarised light (XPL); (c) Alternation of the reddish clay microstructure (matrix support - MS) and
1027 the speleothem-fragment-supported microstructure (Clast support - CS); (d) RsS microfacies with many
1028 vesicular and vughy pores (V), under XPL.

1029

1030 **Fig. 7.** Microphotographs of level G. (a) and (b) *In situ* broken bone fragments (B), embedded in reddish-
1031 brown sandy silt sediment (RBS); (c) Clay-rich patches (P) areas surrounded by sandy matrix and
1032 vertically elongated pores (V), which have been interpreted as porewater escape structures. Blue arrows
1033 represent the water movement; (d) Detail of 6c microphotograph, showing the intercalation between red
1034 clayey and fine-sandy microfacies inside the clay-rich patches, representing the original bedding (OB).

1035

1036 **Fig. 8.** Microphotographs of level F. (a) Microvertebrate tooth fragment (T) embedded in brown sandy
1037 silt sediment (BS); (b) Anorthic ferruginous nodules (N) rich layer with vesicular and vughy pores (V);
1038 (c) vesicular voids (V) and sandstone clast (S) embedded in BS; (d) same as (c) under XPL.

1039

1040 **Fig. 9.** Microphotographs of Level B. (a) The area cemented by sparitic calcite crystals (S) embedding
 1041 aggregates (A) of different composition, as well as some anorthic ferruginous nodules (N). Outside the
 1042 cemented area, there is brown sandy sediment (BS); (b) detail of the previous photograph; (c) same as 8b
 1043 under XPL; (d) BS microfacies with some modern root remains (R).

1044

1045 **Fig. 10.** Single-grain TT-OSL equivalent dose (D_e) distribution for sample LZ12-6, shown as a radial
 1046 plot.

1047

1048 **Fig. 11.** Schematic evolution of sedimentary fill in Lezetxiki II cave and proposed evolution of
 1049 depositional processes and environmental conditions. Red coloured soils represent a well-developed soil,
 1050 while the yellow coloured soil represents a less developed soil. Colours of cave sediments are given
 1051 representing each stratigraphic level used in Fig. 3.

1052

1053 Table captions:

1054

1055 **Table 1.** Main features of the stratigraphic levels in Lezetxiki II cave and their archaeological and
 1056 paleontological content (modified from Arriolabengoa et al., 2015).

1057

1058 **Table 2.** Main micromorphological characteristics of the stratigraphic levels in Lezetxiki II cave.

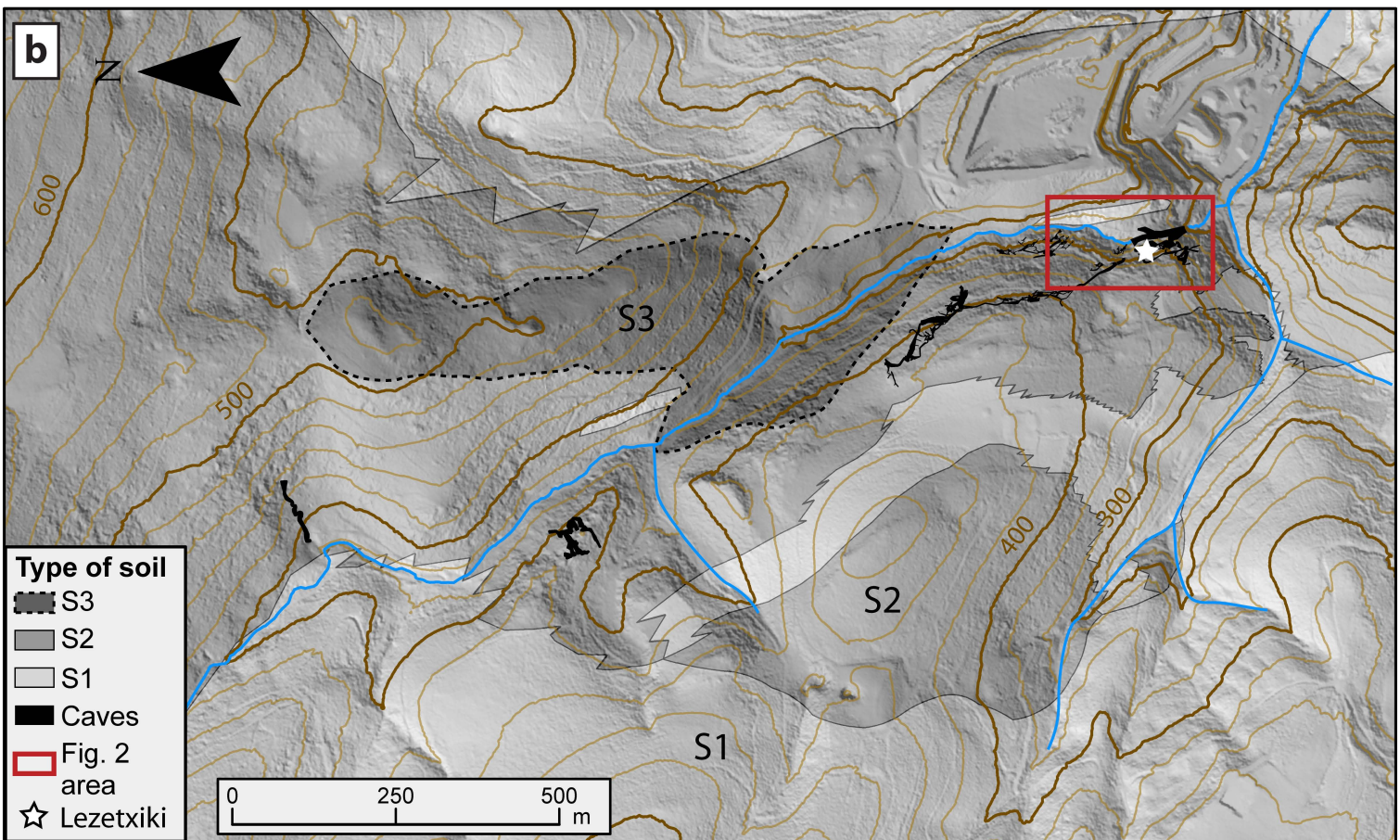
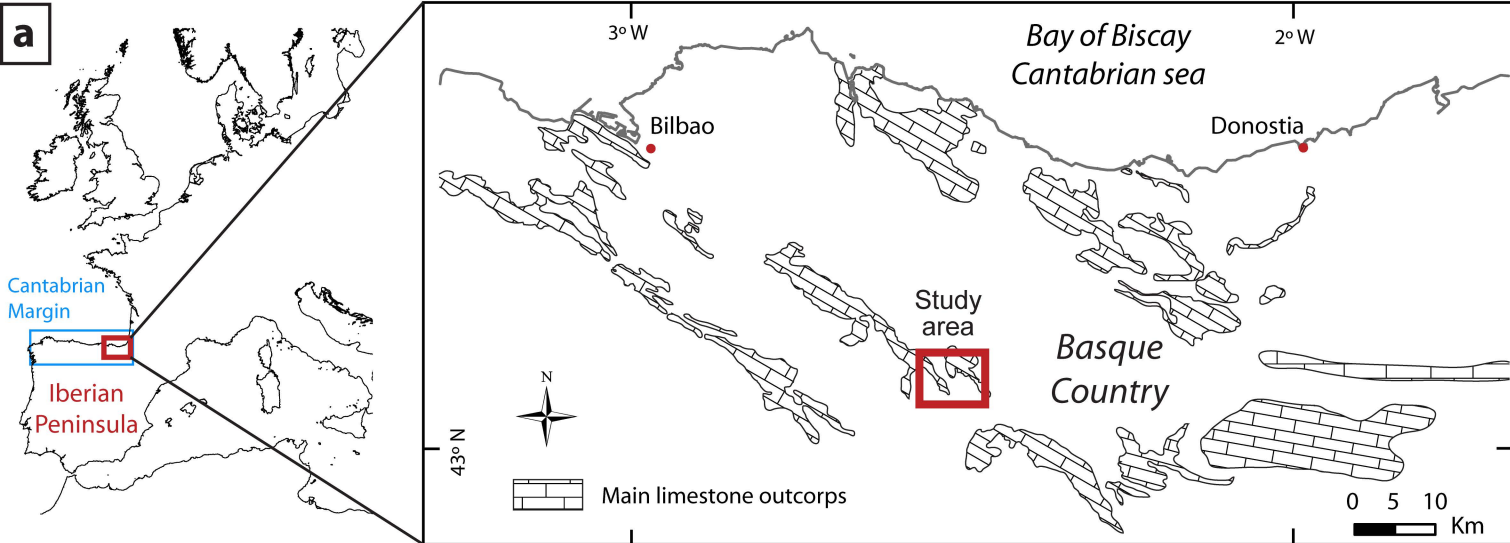
1059

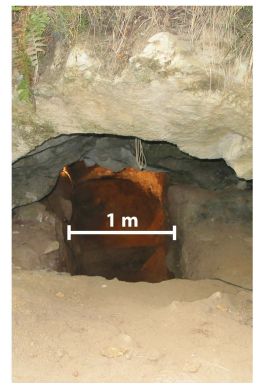
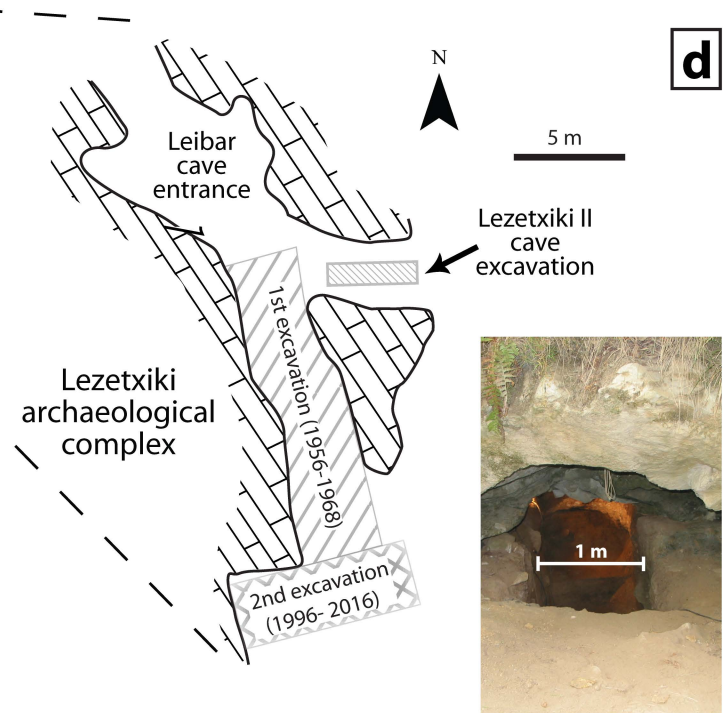
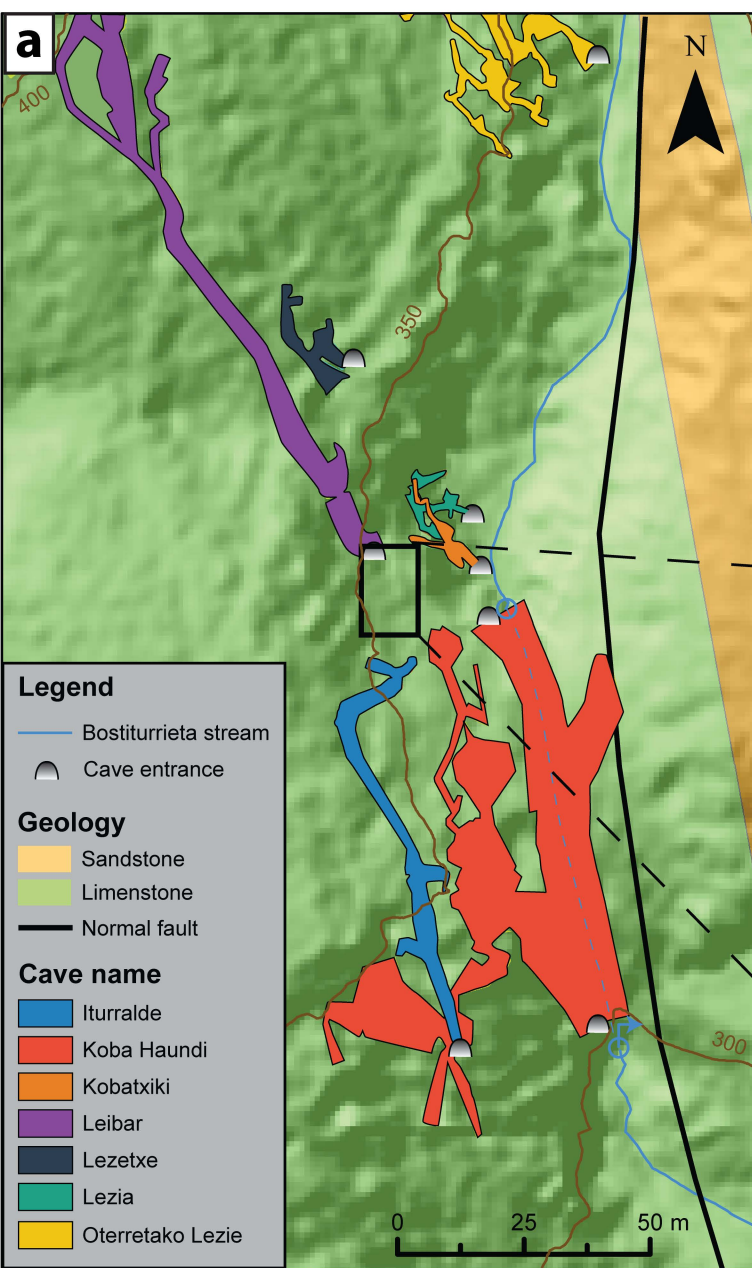
1060 **Table 3.** Semi-quantitative (%) XRD analysis of endokarstic sediment samples from Lezetxiki II cave
 1061 (modified from Arriolabengoa et al., 2015). Mineral abbreviations: Qtz: quartz, Cal: calcite, CM:
 1062 phyllosilicates (mainly as clay minerals), Fsp: feldspar, Hap: hydroxylapatite, Gt: goethite, Vrm:
 1063 vermiculite, Ill: illite, Kln: kaolinite.

1064

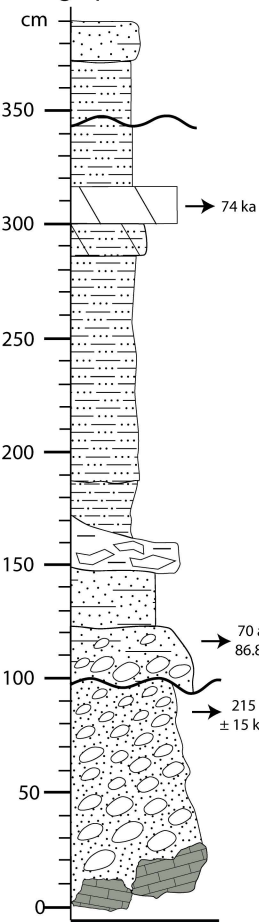
1065 **Table 4.** TT-OSL dose rate data, single-grain equivalent dose and final age for sample LZ12-6. The final
 1066 TT-OSL age has been derived by dividing the weighted mean equivalent dose (D_e) by the total dose rate.

1067

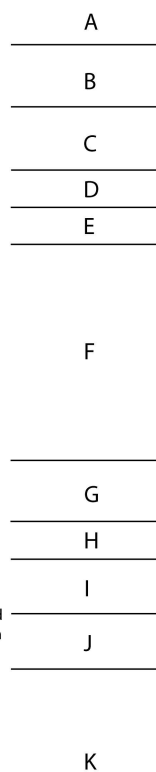




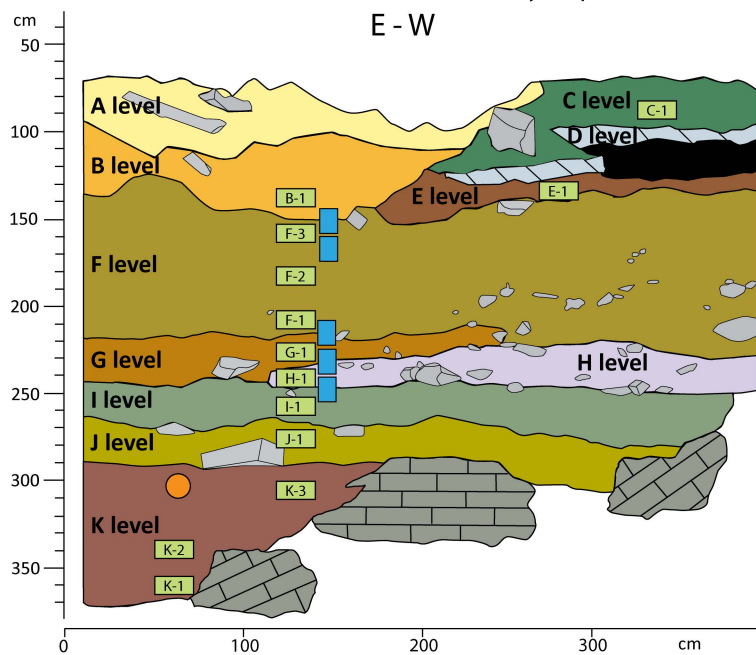
Stratigraphic column



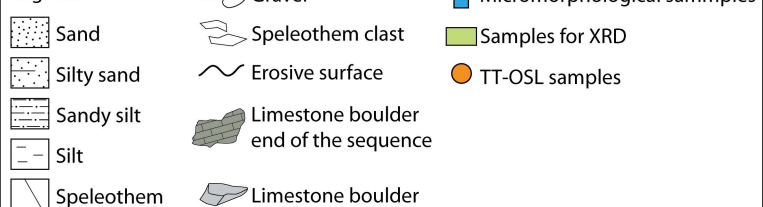
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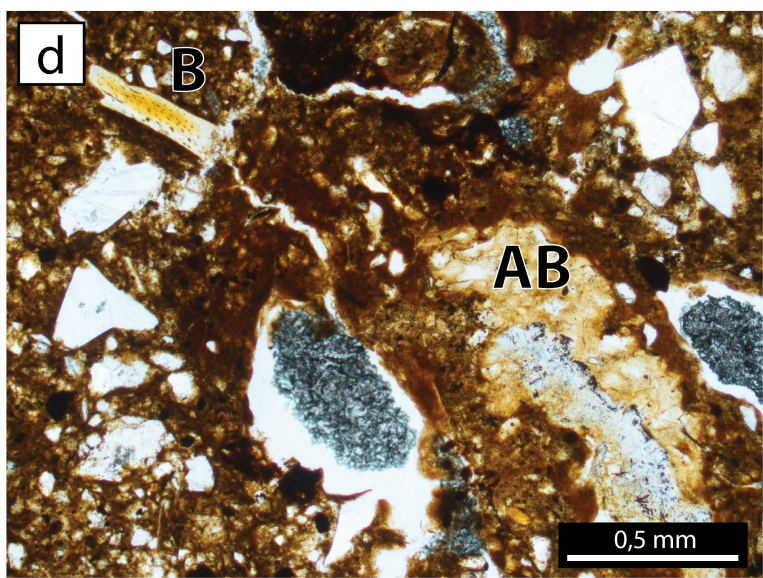
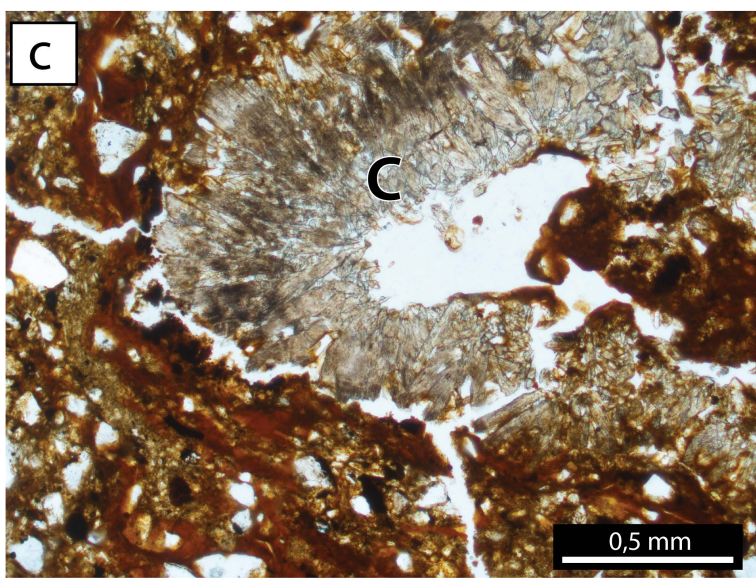
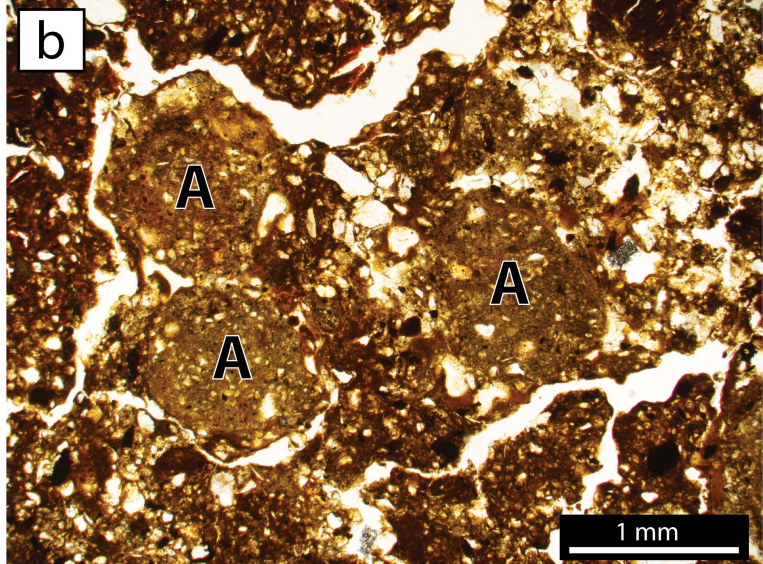
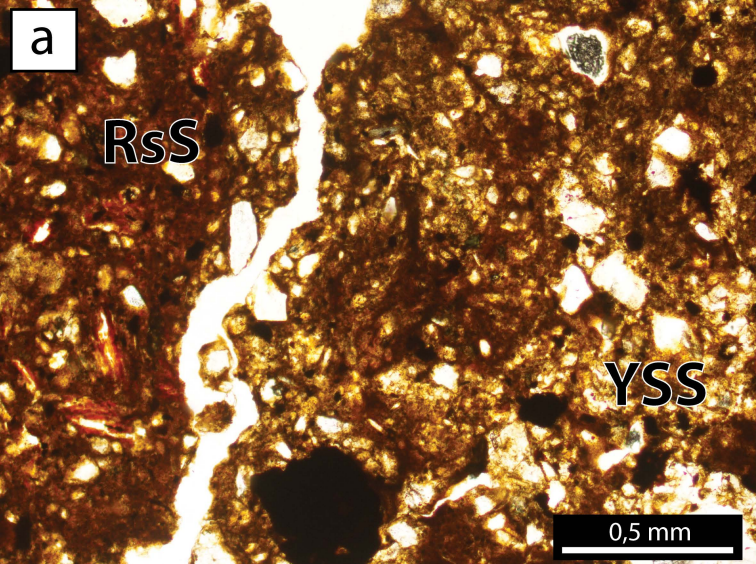


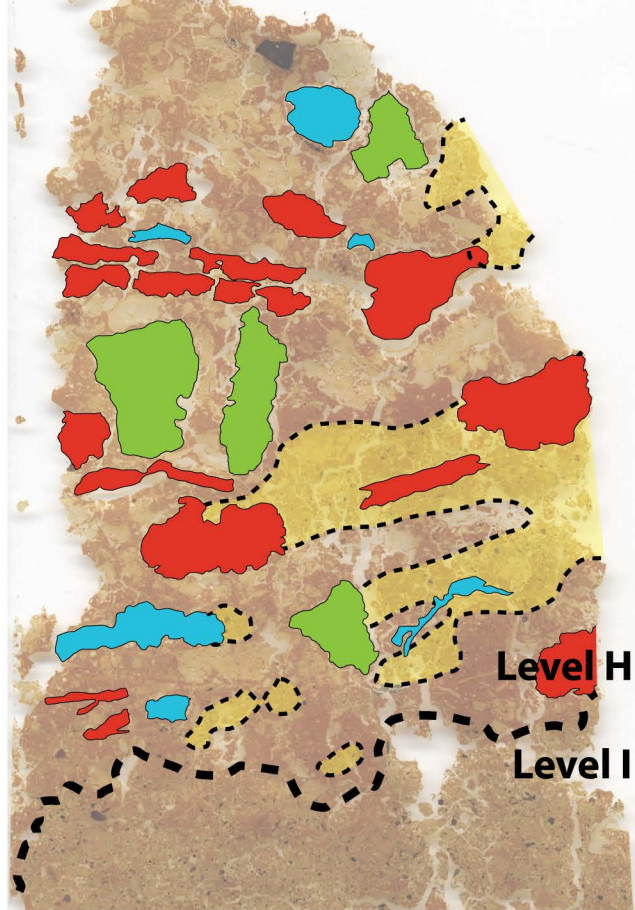
Lezetxiki II cave sedimentary sequence




Legend





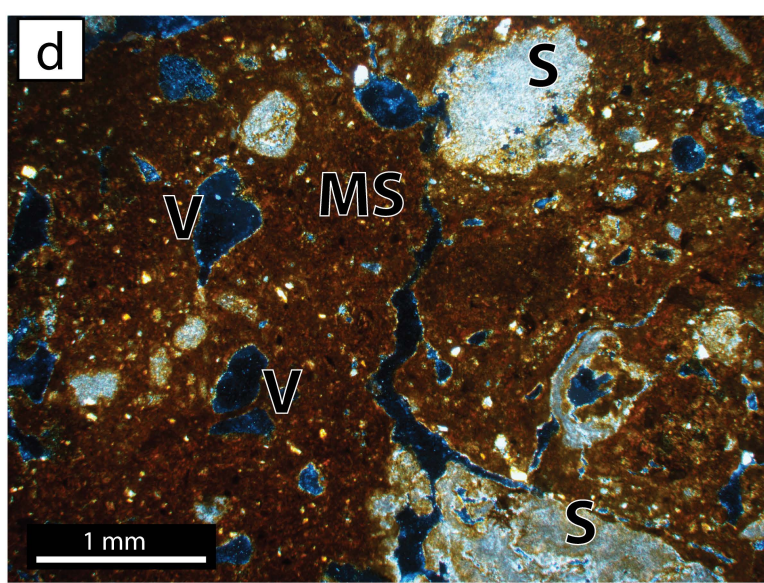
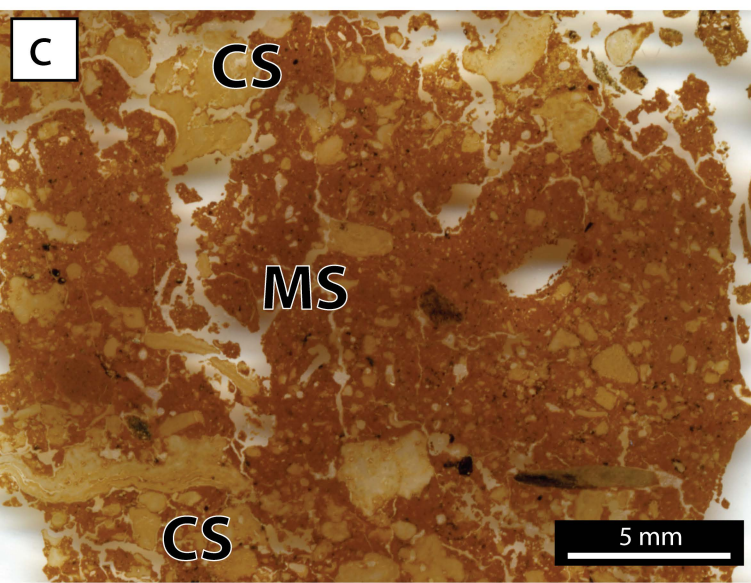
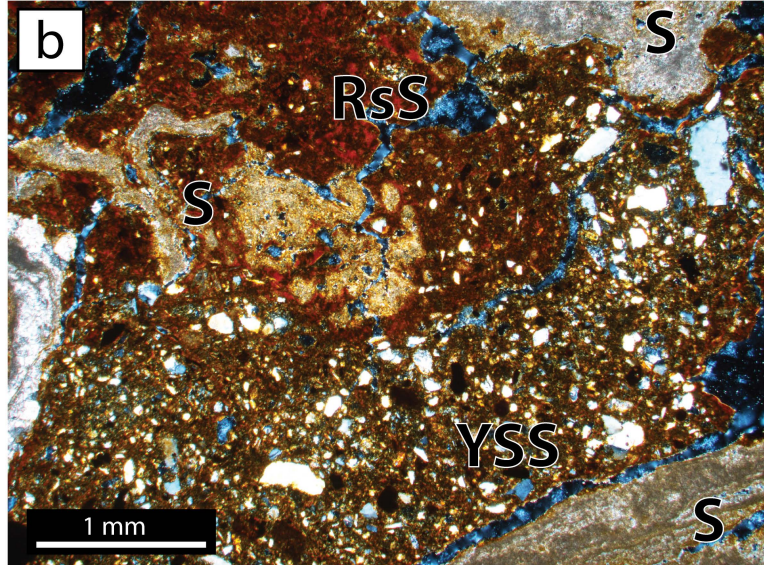
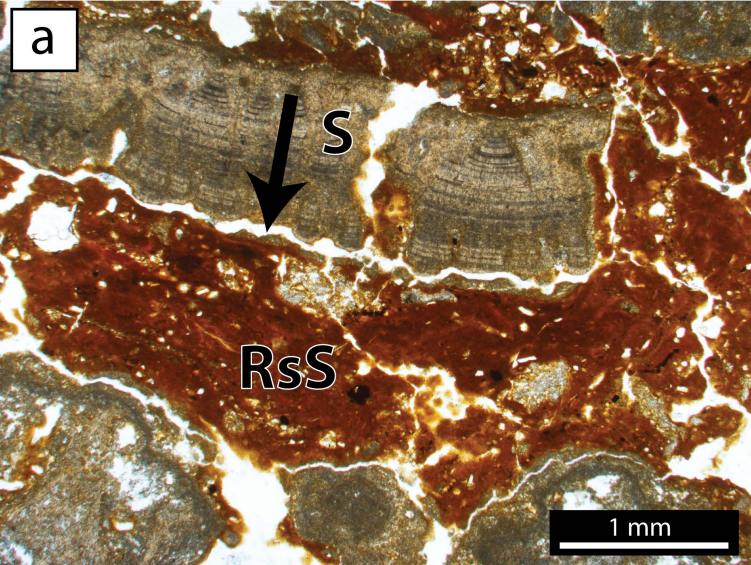


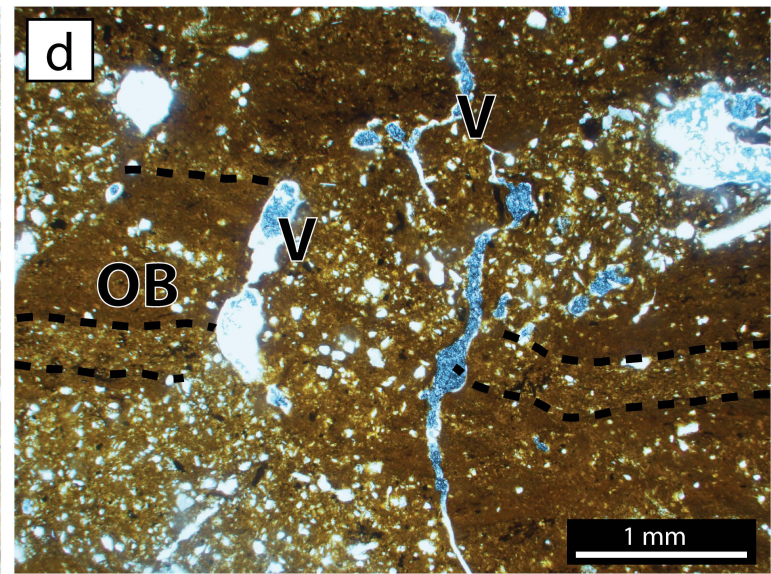
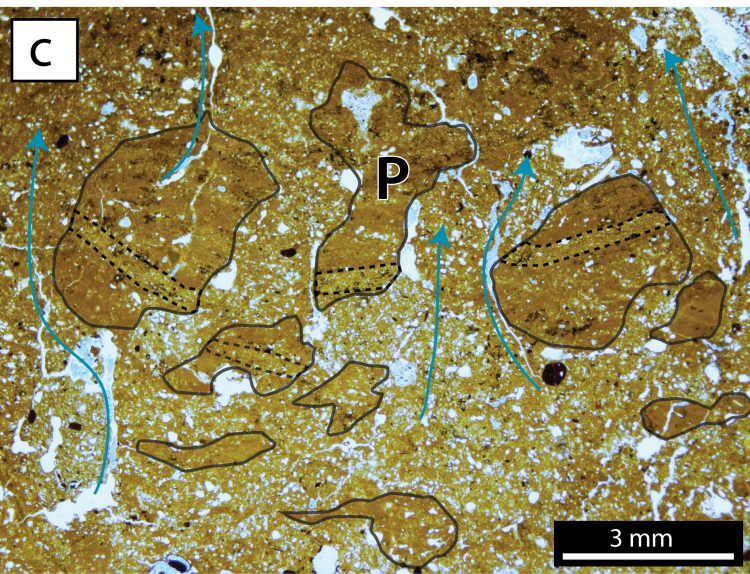
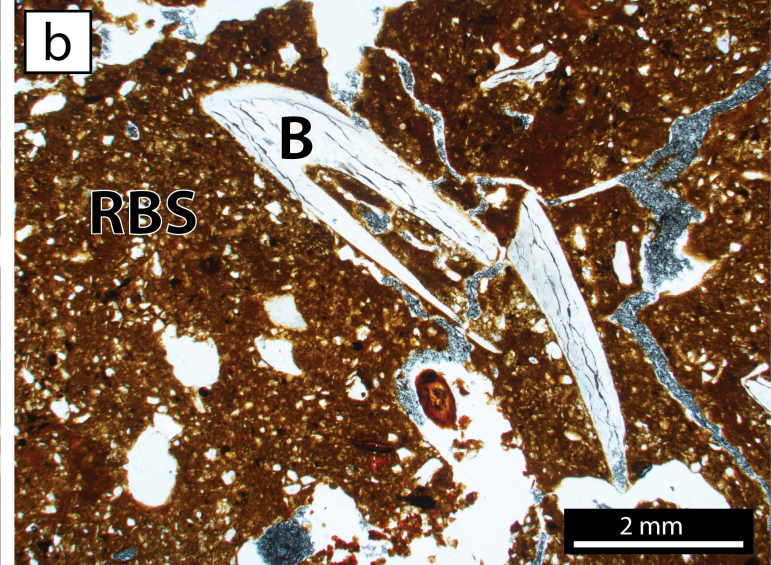
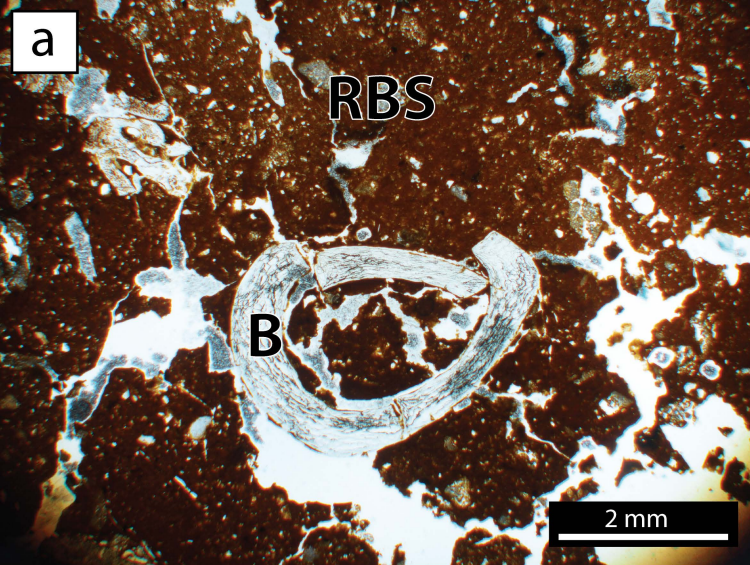
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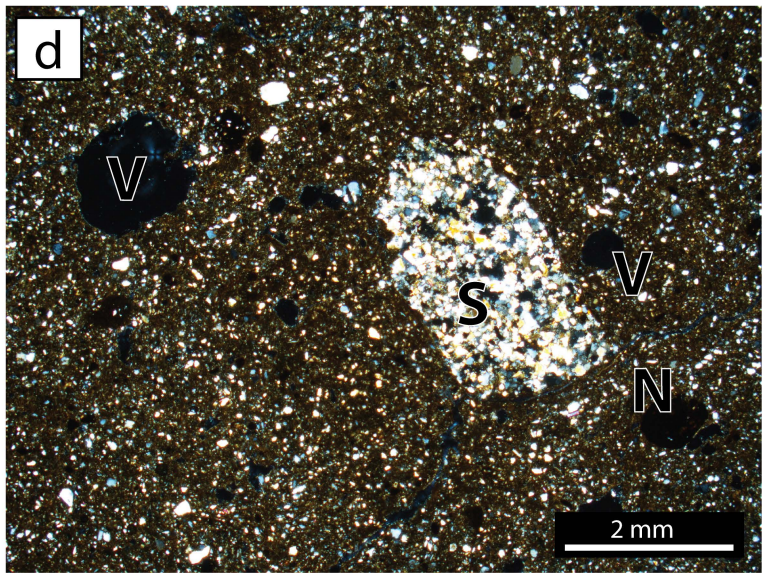
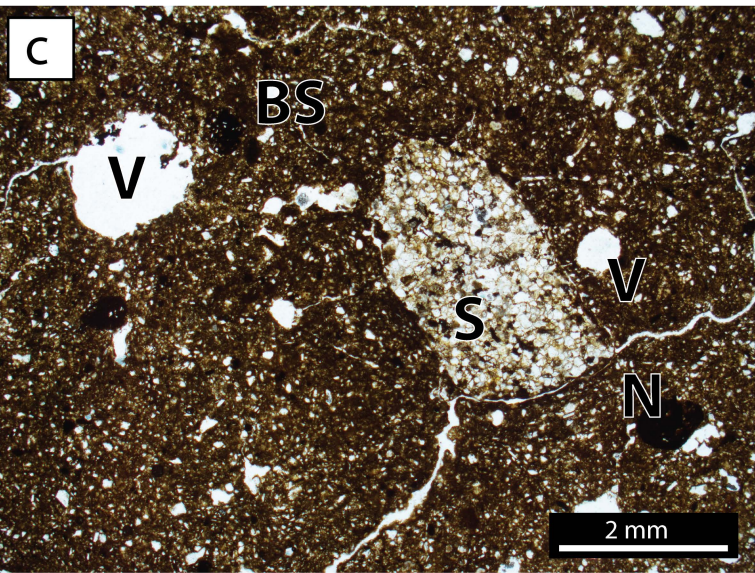
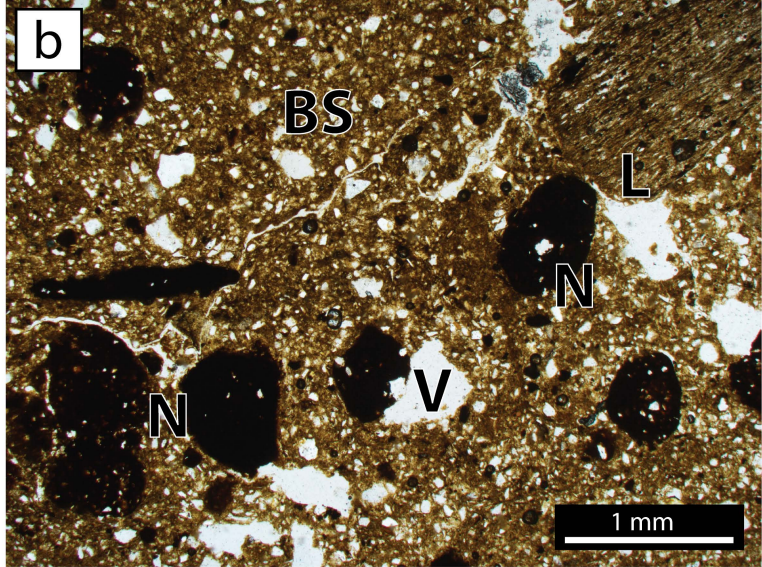
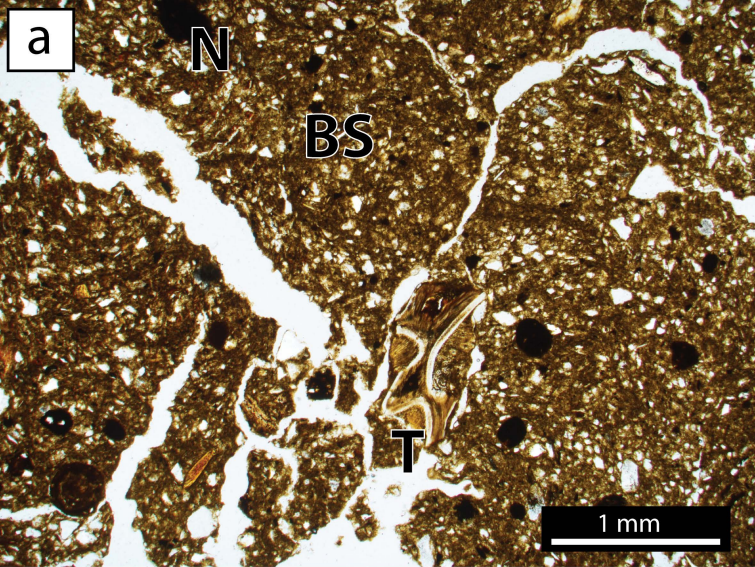
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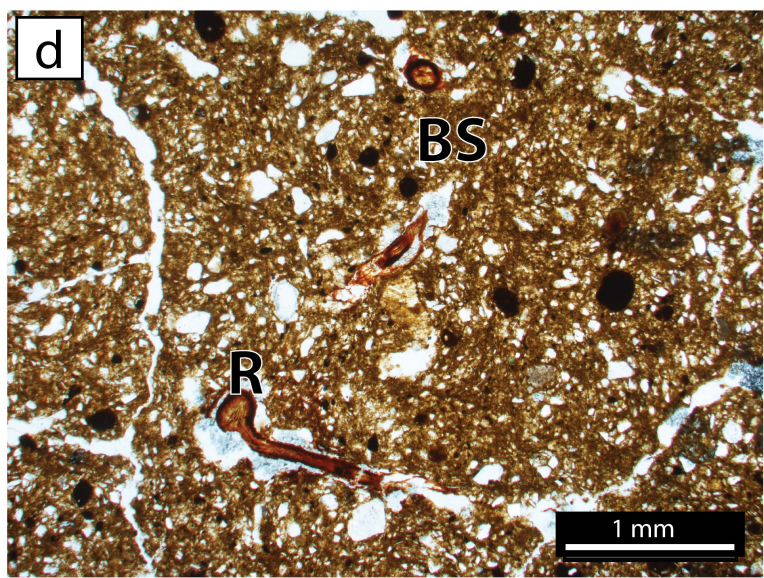
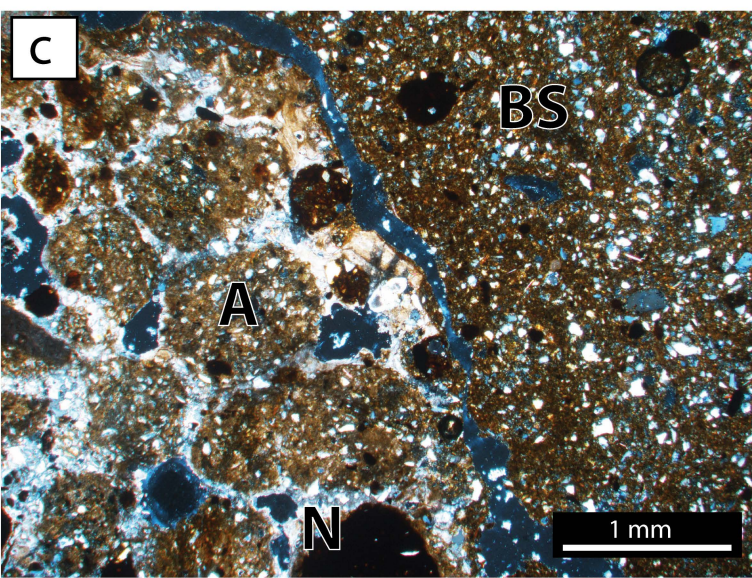
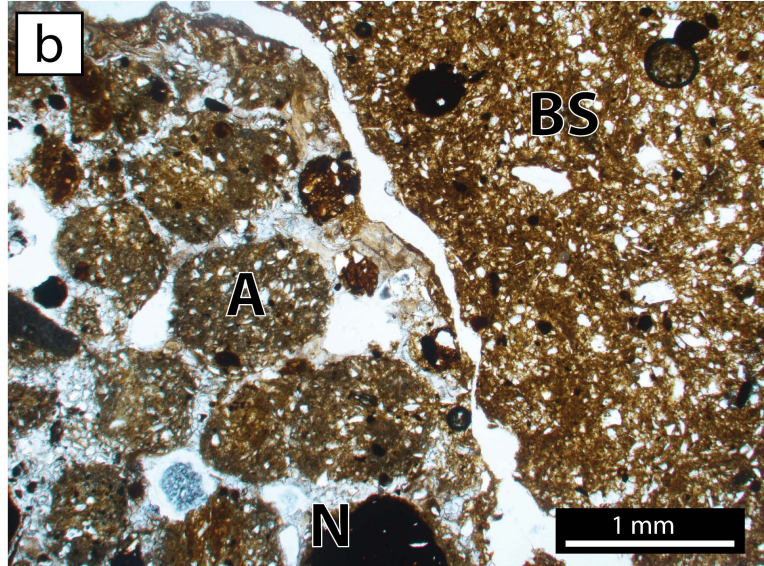
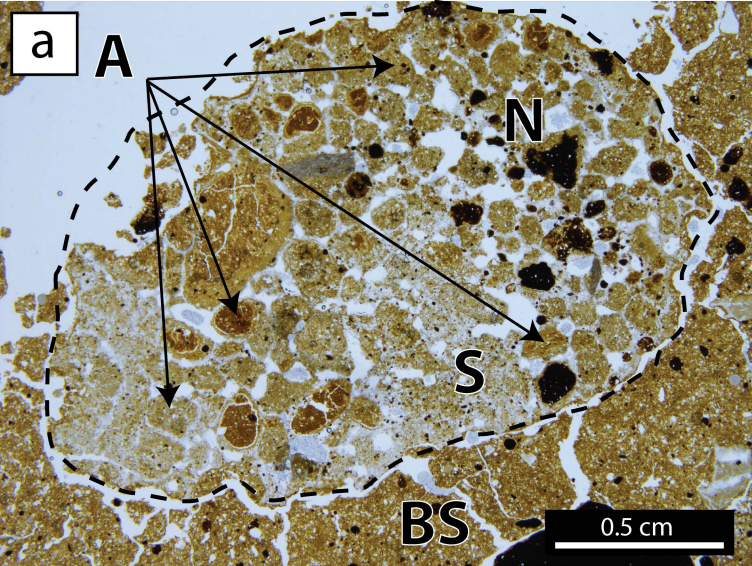
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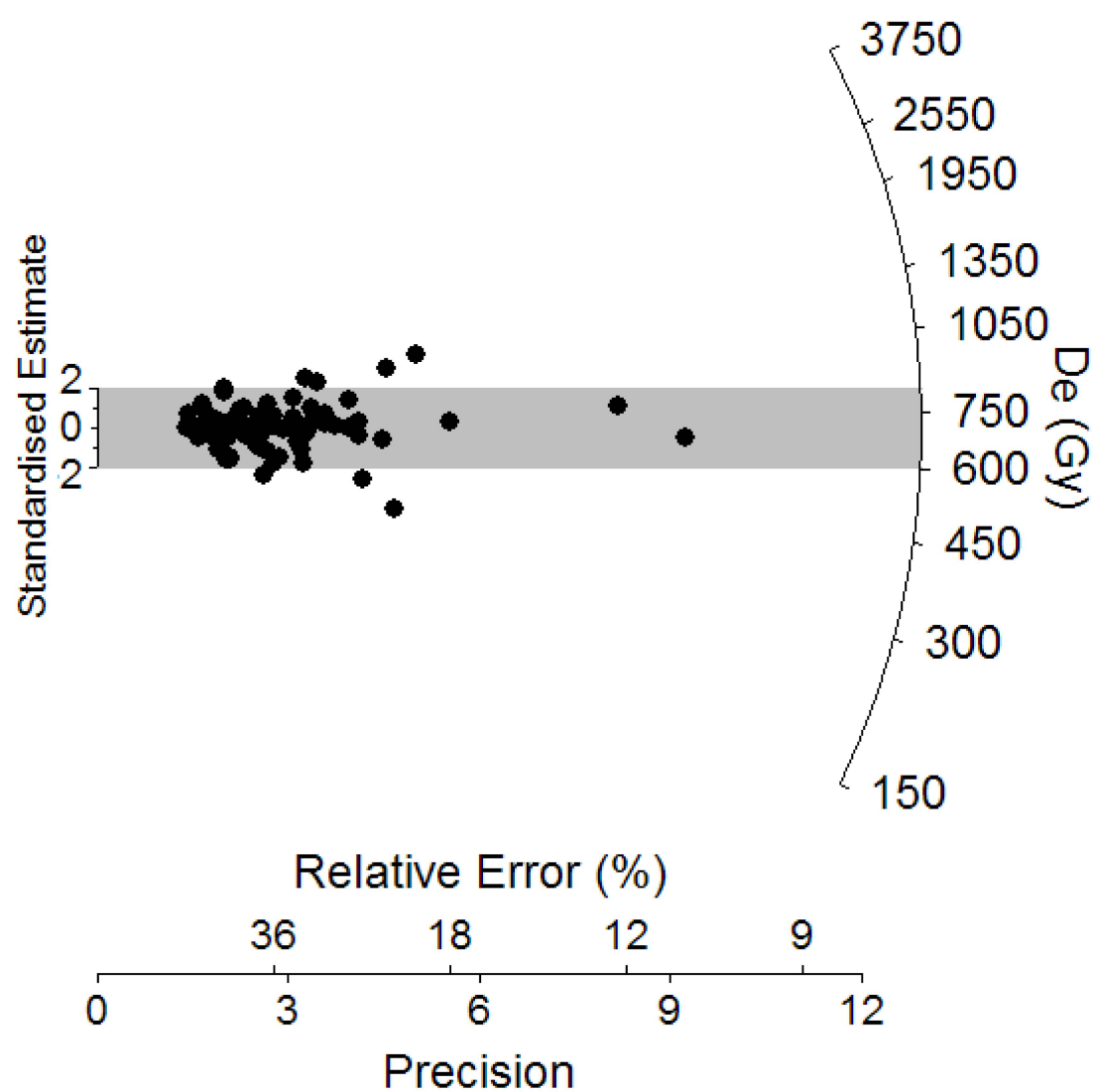
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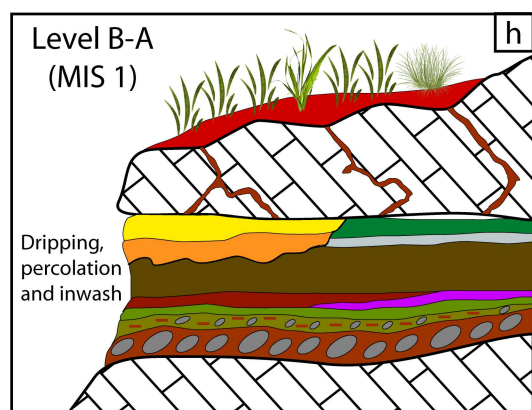
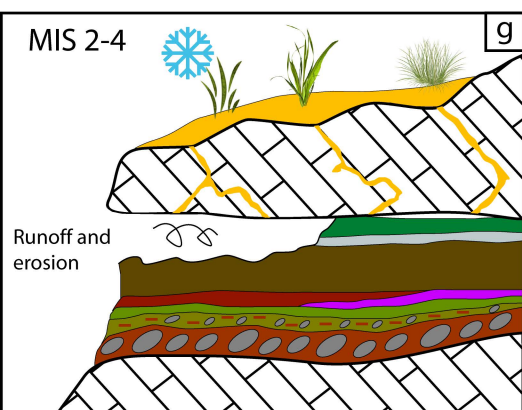
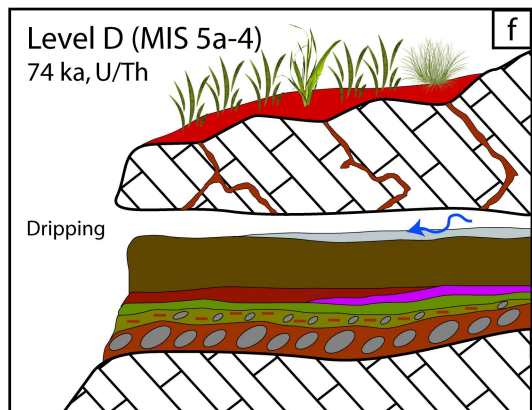
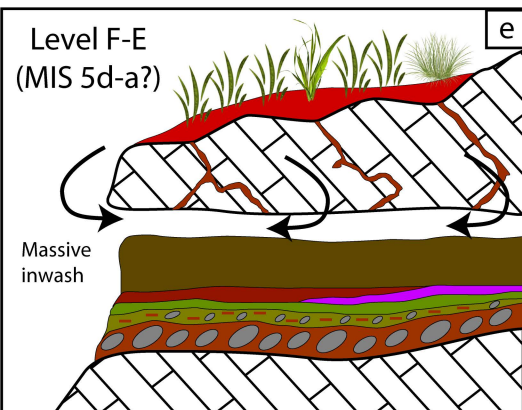
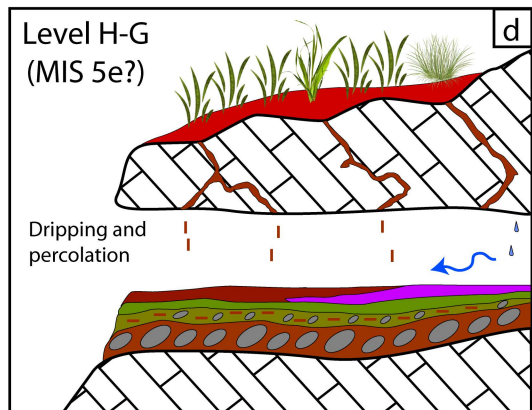
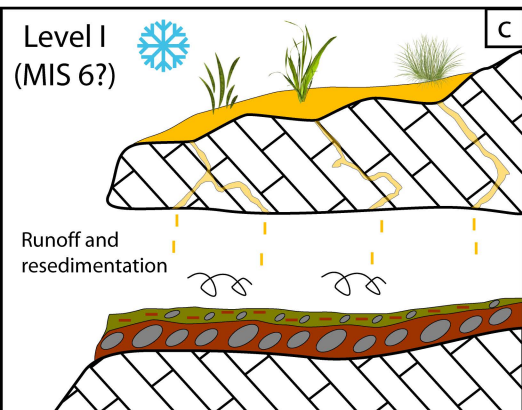
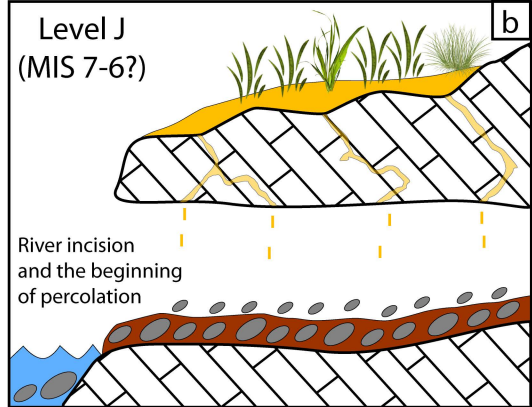
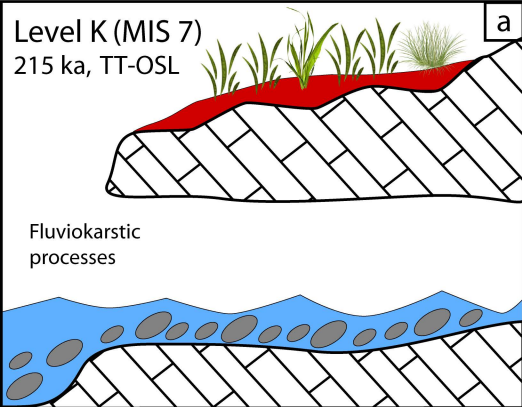


Table 1.

Stratigraphic Level	Level description	Archaeological and paleontological remains
A	Ca. 20-30 cm-thick level, ending laterally against level C. Matrix-supported and consisting of silty sediment with gastropods and some subangular limestone boulders.	No archaeological remains
B	10-40 cm-thick level, lying on an erosive surface. It ends laterally against levels E, D and C. Matrix-supported, consists of massive clayey-silt sediments with some subangular limestone boulders.	Chalcolithic potsherds and lithic industry
C	Ca. 30 cm-thick laterally continuous level that is eroded towards the cave entrance. Matrix-supported, massive silty-clay with gastropods, pieces of flint and anorthic ferruginous nodule fragments.	Aurignacian lithic assemblage
D	Ca. 15 cm-thick speleothem flowstone with the outer part eroded.	No archaeological remains
E	Ca. 10-25 cm-thick, laterally continuous level eroded towards the cave entrance. Matrix-supported massive silty-clay sediment cemented by calcium carbonate.	No archaeological remains
F	Ca. 1 m-thick, laterally continuous, matrix-supported, massive clayey-silt sediment. Coarse fraction components are few quartzite and anorthic ferruginous nodule pebbles, and few subangular limestone boulder.	Numerous faunal remains, especially <i>Ursus spelaeus</i> (Villaluenga et al., 2012)
G	Ca. 25 cm-thick, laterally disappearing towards the cave interior. Matrix-supported, massive silty-clay sediment. The coarse fraction consist in few subangular limestone boulders.	Mousterian lithic assemblage. Faunal remains, notably <i>Muscardinus avellanarius</i> (Garcia-Ibaibarriaga et al., 2015)
H	Ca. 25 cm-thick level, laterally disappearing towards the cave entrance. Clast-supported deposit, consist on poorly sorted granule and pebble of calcite fragments and clayey matrix. Additionally it contains few subangular limestone boulders.	Mousterian lithic assemblage, faunal remains
I	Ca. 20-30 cm-thick, laterally continuous level, matrix-supported, massive silty-sand sediments with anorthic ferruginous nodule fragments. Additionally there is some subangular limestone boulder.	Mousterian lithic assemblage, faunal remains
J	Ca. 20-30 cm-thick, laterally continuous upward-finning sequence, from clast to matrix-supported, lying on an erosive surface. Silty sand matrix with well sorted cobbles and pebbles that consist of rounded allochthonous sandstone and anorthic ferruginous nodules. Additionally there is some subangular limestone boulder.	Some bone fragments, most notably <i>Sicista betulina</i> (Rofes et al., 2012) and <i>Macaca sylvanus</i> (Castaños et al., 2011)
K	Ca. 1 m-thick upward-finning sequence of clast-supported conglomerate. Clast are well sorted, varying from cobble to pebble and consisting of rounded allochthonous sandstone and anorthic ferruginous nodules. The level outcrops in the outer part of the cave.	No archaeological remains. Microfaunal remains

Table 2.

Stratigraphic level	Micromorphological description
B	Matrix-supported, displaying massive microstructure, open porphyric coarse-fine (<i>c/f</i>) related distribution and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass is BS type. Skeleton grains consist of speleothem fragments (40%), anorthic ferruginous nodules (30%), sandstone lithoclasts (15%) and lutite lithoclasts (15%).
F/B	Gradual, barely perceptible. Appearance of calcite crystals filling some of the fissure porosity.
F	Matrix-supported, displaying a massive and fissure-type microstructure, mainly an open porphyric <i>c/f</i> related distribution - also a single spaced porphyric in the upper part of the level -, and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass is BS type. Skeleton grains consist of anorthic ferruginous nodules (50%), sandstone lithoclast (20%), lutite lithoclasts (20%) and bone fragments (10%).
G/F	Gradual contact. The groundmass change gradually from RBS to BS, and the proportion of allochthonous components increase.
G	Matrix-supported, displaying a massive microstructure, open porphyric <i>c/f</i> related distribution and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass is RBS type. Skeleton grains consist of microfauna bones (40%), anorthic ferruginous nodules (30%), lutite pebbles (20%), and sandstone pebbles (10%).
H/G	Irregular contact marked by the absence of speleothem fragments and the appearance of RBS.
H	<p>Alternation of clast-supported and matrix-supported microfabric.</p> <p>Clast-supported, displaying a massive microstructure, close porphyric <i>c/f</i> related distribution and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass is basically RsS, with some YSS (YSS/RsS ratio is 20/80). Skeleton grains consist of sub-angular flowstone fragments (95%), microfauna bones (3%) and anorthic ferruginous grains (2%).</p> <p>Matrix-supported, displaying an open porphyric <i>c/f</i> related distribution and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass is RsS (100%). Skeleton grains are speleothem fragments (100%).</p>
I/H	Highly irregular contact marked by the appearance of speleothem fragments and RsS.
I	Matrix-supported, displaying a massive microstructure, single spaced porphyric <i>c/f</i> related distribution and undifferentiated b-fabric. The groundmass present YSS and RsS irregularly mixed (YSS/RsS ratio is 55/45). Skeleton grains are rounded rip-up clasts (50%), anorthic ferruginous nodules (25%) and lutite litoclasts (25%).

Table 3.

Stratigraphic Level	Bulk sample (%)						Clay minerals (%)		
	Qtz	Cal	C.M.	Fsp	Hap	Gt	Vrm	Ill	Kln
B	42.4	5.9	43.4	7.4	0.4	0.5	21	69	10
C	41.9	5.8	42.2	9.3	0.4	0.5	14	79	7
E	23.0	46.4	25.4	4.1	0.5	0.6	11	80	9
F3	45.1	0.1	47.0	6.4	0.6	0.8	14	76	10
F2	45.7	0.1	48.3	4.7	0.5	0.7	18	71	11
F1	45.7	0.2	46.9	5.7	1.0	0.6	16	75	9
G	42.5	0.1	48.8	6.5	1.1	1.1	23	68	9
H	17.8	46.1	28.5	5.5	0.9	1.2	30	59	11
I	44.0	0.4	47.2	6.7	0.5	1.2	12	82	6
J	42.5	0.2	49.3	6.0	0.8	1.2	17	73	10
K3	36.4	0.1	48.6	13.1	0.6	1.2	13	82	5
K2	38.8	0.1	48.2	11.6	0.5	0.7	6	86	8
K1	38.5	0.1	50.5	9.4	0.5	1.0	5	90	5

Table 4.

Sample	Layer	Grain size (μm)	Measured water content ^a	Environmental dose rate (Gy/ka)				Equivalent dose (D_e) data				TT-OSL age (ka) ^{f,k}
				Beta dose rate ^{b,c}	Gamma dose rate ^{c,d}	Cosmic dose rate ^e	Total dose rate ^{f,g}	No. of grains ^h	Overdispersion (%) ⁱ	Age Model ^j	D_e (Gy) ^f	
LZ12-6	K	90 – 125	17 \pm 2	1.94 \pm 0.1	1.27 \pm 0.05	0.06 \pm 0.01	3.29 \pm 0.15	84 / 2300	25 \pm 6	CAM	710.0 \pm 34.8	215.7 \pm 15.1

^a Field water content, expressed as % of dry mass of mineral fraction, with an assigned relative uncertainty of $\pm 10\%$.

^b Calculated on dried and powdered sediment samples using a Risø GM-25-5 low-level beta counter.

^c Specific activities and radionuclide concentrations have been converted to dose rates using the conversion factors given in Guérin et al. (2011), making allowance for beta-dose attenuation (Mejdahl, 1979; Brennan, 2003).

^d Calculated from *in situ* measurements made at each sample position with a NaI:Tl detector, using the ‘energy windows’ approach (e.g., Arnold et al., 2012).

^e Cosmic-ray dose rates were calculated using the approach of Prescott and Hutton (1994), and assigned a relative uncertainty of $\pm 10\%$.

^f Mean \pm total uncertainty (68% confidence interval), calculated as the quadratic sum of the random and systematic uncertainties.

^g Includes an internal dose rate of 0.03 Gy/ka with an assigned relative uncertainty of $\pm 30\%$.

^h Number of D_e measurements that passed the SAR rejection criteria of Arnold et al. (2014) and were used for D_e determination / total number of grains analysed.

ⁱ The relative spread in the D_e dataset beyond that associated with the measurement uncertainties for individual D_e values, calculated using the central age model (CAM) of Galbraith et al. (1999).

^j The CAM was used to calculate the final D_e of as this sample had a low overdispersion value, consistent with that observed in ‘ideal’ well-bleached and unmixed sample from similar settings (Arnold and Roberts, 2009; Arnold et al., 2014; Demuro et al., 2014).

^k Total uncertainty includes a systematic component of $\pm 2\%$ associated with laboratory beta-source calibration.