

# 1 **Ancient DNA shows high faunal diversity in the Lesser Caucasus during** 2 **the Late Pleistocene**

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## 24 ABSTRACT

25 In this study, we explore the Late Pleistocene (LP) vertebrate fauna diversity in south-eastern Lesser  
26 Caucasus based on morphological and genetic identification of fossil bones from Karin Tak cave. For the  
27 first time in this under-studied region, we used a bulk bone metabarcoding genetic approach to  
28 complement traditional morphology-based taxonomic identification hampered by highly fragmented fossil  
29 bones. Excellent ancient DNA (aDNA) preservation allowed for a successful species identification of  
30 many bone remains and improved paleoenvironmental interpretations for the region. The identification of  
31 fossil bones revealed a high diversity of animal taxa inhabiting the region between ca. > 42,000 and  
32 25,683-24,803 calibrated years before present (cal. BP).

33 The reconstructed taxonomic assemblage comprises 29 taxa, including 11 mammalian and three avian  
34 families currently inhabiting the region, together with a few taxa that are regionally extinct today. Despite  
35 limited temporal resolution, the taxonomic assemblage identified points to faunal continuity in the study  
36 region during the LP. This suggests that the transition between warm and humid Marine Isotope Stage  
37 (MIS) 3 and cold and arid MIS 2 did not cause a dramatic change in the faunal makeup of the region.

### 38 *Keywords*

39 Karin Tak cave; Lesser Caucasus; Late Pleistocene; ancient DNA; Bulk bone metabarcoding;  
40 Biodiversity; Palaeoenvironmental reconstruction

### 41 **1. Introduction**

42 It has long been recognized that the distribution and population density of many species have expanded  
43 and contracted in tandem with glacial-interglacial cycles throughout the Quaternary (Provan and Bennett,  
44 2008). The end of the Pleistocene witnessed a dramatic series of megafaunal extinctions and it remains  
45 debated whether human activity, climate change, or a combination of the two caused this reduction in  
46 biodiversity. Overkill hypotheses draw on the inferred characteristics of human colonization (Barnosky et  
47 al., 2004), while rapid climatically-driven environmental change, particularly associated with the

48 transition from warmer interglacial Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 3 to the last glacial cycle (MIS 2), is the  
49 main alternative extinction driver. The onset of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; MIS 2; 26,500 to 20-  
50 19,000 calibrated years before present (cal. BP) by Clark et al., 2009) led to ecological restructuring,  
51 species redistribution and extinctions that shaped the current environment (Provan and Bennett, 2008).  
52 During the LGM, thermophile plants and animals were confined to isolated temperate climate refugia,  
53 with their current distribution and genetic diversity often reflecting post-glacial expansions from these  
54 areas (Tarkhnishvili et al., 2012). Being climatically buffered by the Caucasus Mountains and benefiting  
55 from the ameliorating effects of the Black and Caspian Seas, the Lesser Caucasus evidently served as such  
56 a biogeographical refugium throughout the Pleistocene (Bar-Yosef et al., 2006; Fernández-Jalvo et al.,  
57 2016; Gabunia et al., 2000; Orth et al., 2002; Tarasov et al., 1846). Though the human and environmental  
58 history of this area is now being explored scientifically (Adler et al., 2008; 2014; Adler and  
59 Tushabramishvili, 2004; Bar-Oz and Adler, 2005; Bar-Yosef et al., 2011; Gasparyan et al., 2014; Kandel  
60 et al., 2017; Lordkipanidze et al., 2013; Pinhasi et al., 2011; 2014), the Late Pleistocene (LP) environment,  
61 and faunal occupation and composition history of the Lesser Caucasus at this time still remain unclear.  
62 To address this gap and improve reconstruction of the LP environment of the Lesser Caucasus region,  
63 Karin Tak cave was explored. Test excavations at this site have yielded numerous animal bones, charcoal  
64 fragments, lithics and hominin remains. Moreover, a human tooth dated to ca. 6,900 (BP) yielded high-  
65 quality ancient DNA (aDNA) (Margaryan et al., 2017), indicating that biomolecule preservation in the  
66 cave may be sufficient to help identify ancient taxa with a genetic approach.  
67 As is commonly the case, excavations at Karin Tak have mainly provided highly fragmented and  
68 morphologically undiagnostic bones, which are not informative for reconstructing prehistoric faunal  
69 dynamics associated with climate shifts across glacial-interglacial cycles. The excavations yielded only a  
70 few bones that were taxonomically identified based on morphological traits. In this context, aDNA  
71 analysis of the fossils represents an effective complementary tool for detailed mapping of faunal diversity.

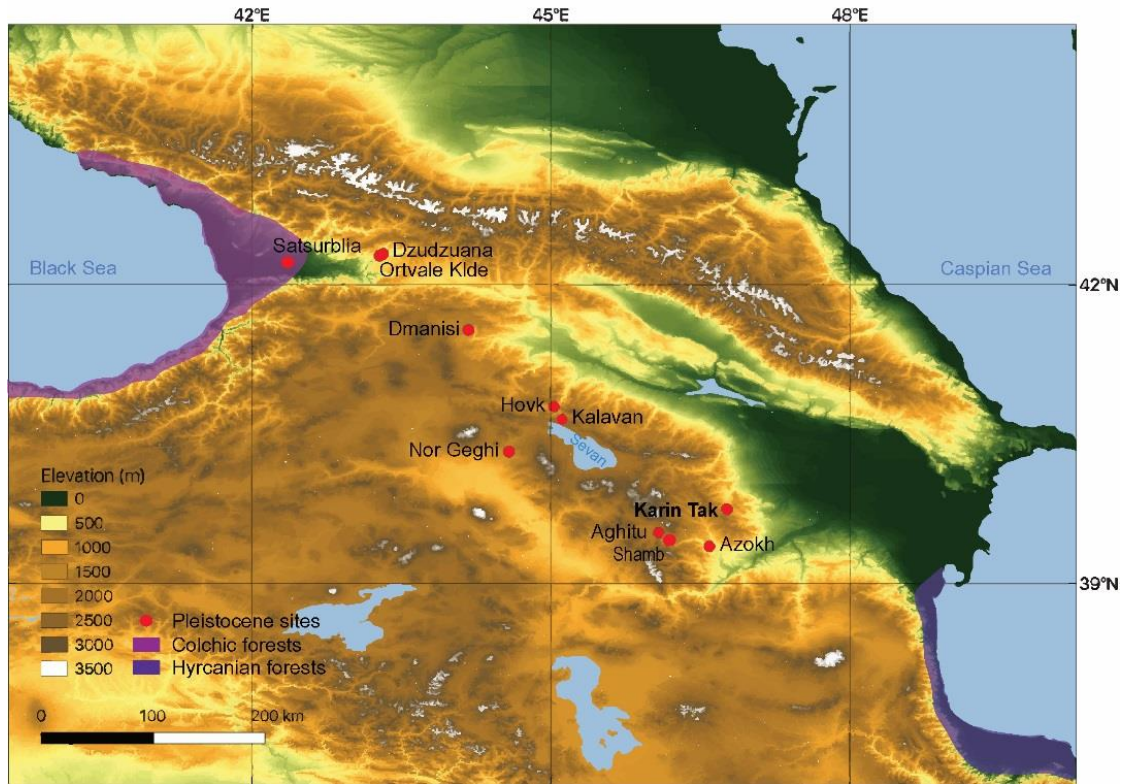
72 Bulk bone metabarcoding is one such aDNA method that characterizes DNA extracted from  
73 morphologically unidentifiable bone fragments, in order to provide records of taxonomic diversity  
74 (Murray et al., 2013; Grealy et al., 2015; Seersholm et al., 2018).

75 In the current study, we aimed to estimate ancient faunal diversity using morphology-based and aDNA  
76 technologies, and discuss our results in relation to the palaeoclimate and palaeoecology of the south-  
77 eastern Lesser Caucasus region during the MIS 3 and early MIS 2 stages.

## 78 **2. Regional setting**

### 79 *2.1. Exploration site*

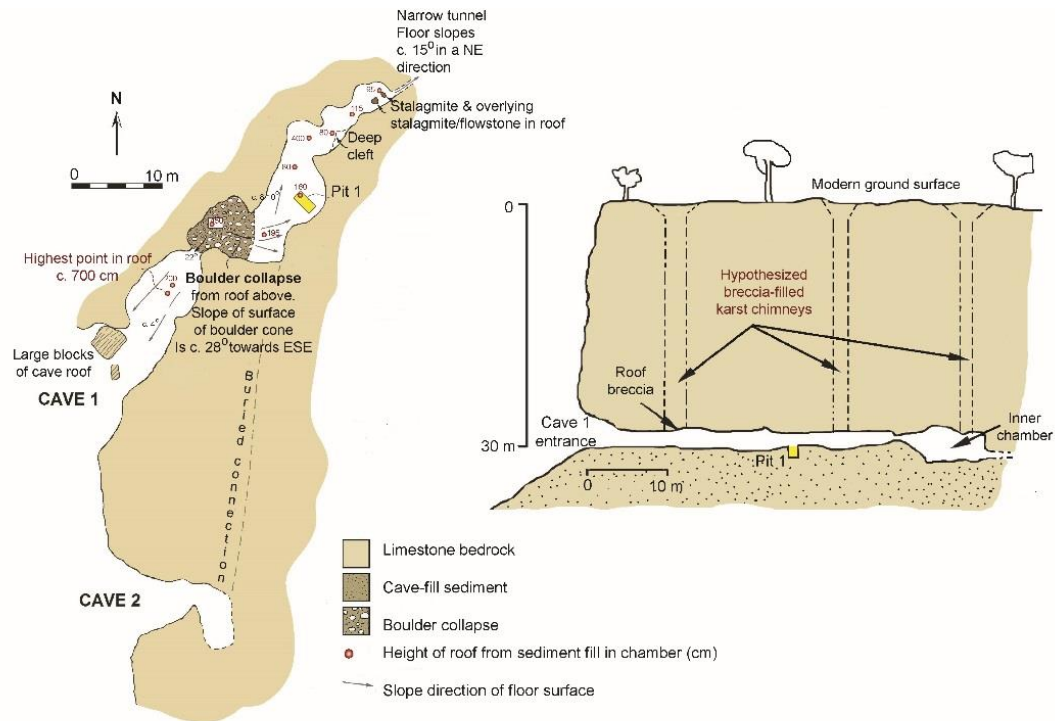
80 Karin Tak cave is an undisturbed site located at the south-eastern end of the Lesser Caucasus mountain  
81 range that stretches between the Black Sea in the west and the Caspian Sea in the east and delimits the  
82 north-eastern border of the Armenian Highland (Fig. 1). More specifically, the cave is situated in the  
83 midst of the lush Karintak forest, on the bank of the Karkar River. The cave is developed within thickly  
84 bedded, tabular Jurassic limestone at an elevation of 1,396 m above sea level (a.s.l.; Avagyan et al., 2018).  
85 The site derives its name from a nearby village, situated in a valley ca. 600 m from the cave.



86

87 **Fig. 1.** Map of the Lesser Caucasus with Pleistocene sites, Hyrcanian and Colchic refugia. [1-column  
 88 fitting image]

89 The cave system comprises two separate passages conventionally termed Cave 1 and Cave 2 (Fig. 2).  
 90 Cave 1 is considerably longer, extending to ca. 60 m in a northeastern direction (inwards from the  
 91 entrance). It constricts and widens several times along its length producing a series of small sub-  
 92 chambers. Cave 2 extends in from the entrance in an eastern direction for only ca. 10 m before turning 90°  
 93 southward for another 5 m. A potential (buried and inaccessible) link between these two caves is  
 94 tentatively suggested on the map in Figure 2. A preliminary geological survey suggested the presence of  
 95 an open chimney in the inner chamber of Cave 1 before the collapse of the cave system .



96

97 **Fig. 2.** Sketch map and schematic cross section of Karin Tak cave. Pit 1 is located approximately 25 m  
 98 from the cave mouth. Vertical solution chambers (karst chimneys) are drawn hypothetically and are based  
 99 on a limestone breccia and a sediment-filled chamber in the ceiling near the cave mouth and the presence  
 100 of sediments with no obvious stream source. [1.5-column fitting image]

101 The currently explored extent of Cave 1 includes six chambers. Stalactites, stalagmites, and flowstone are  
 102 observed in the rear of the cave. The site is still active and wet today, and exhibits minimal seasonal  
 103 temperature fluctuations:  $13^\circ\text{C}$  in summer and  $8^\circ\text{C}$  during winter. Inner chambers are devoid of any  
 104 daylight penetration. These conditions at the site are conducive for DNA preservation (Stone, 2000).

105 **2.2. Palaeoenvironmental background**

106 The mountainous relief of the Caucasus is a consequence of geological activity (collision of the Arabian  
 107 and Eurasian Plates) and Pleistocene glaciations. Investigations of the last glaciation in the Lesser  
 108 Caucasus revealed that the firm line was lowest on the ranges located closest to the Black Sea (2,200–

109 2,300 m a.s.l.) and highest on the ranges in the east (2,500–2,600 m a.s.l.). The nival zone encompassed  
110 the crests exceeding 2,200–2,400 m a.s.l. (Gobejishvili et al., 2011).

111 Recent studies of geomorphological processes and past climatic conditions in the southern region of the  
112 Lesser Caucasus have focused on the Early to Middle Pleistocene (MP) (Joannin et al., 2010; Ollivier et  
113 al., 2010) and the Holocene (Joannin et al., 2013; Leroyer et al., 2016), whereas knowledge of LP  
114 Caucasus environmental conditions remains limited.

115 Both pollen and macroflora studies of the Shamb section in southern Armenia indicate that the Plio-  
116 Pleistocene climate was similar to that in the Mediterranean region, and was characterized by cold and dry  
117 glacial periods followed by warm, locally humid interglacials (Joannin et al., 2010). The lack of  
118 periglacial features within the loess sections in northern Armenia suggests an absence of permafrost in  
119 that area during the Pleistocene (Wolf et al., 2016). Fluvio-lacustrine sediments in the highlands of  
120 southern Armenia indicate glacial activity during MIS 12, 6, and 4, as well as temperate and humid  
121 conditions during MIS 3 and MIS 1 (Ollivier et al., 2010). The reconstruction of the vegetation, fire and  
122 climate history in the 10,000-year record of Zarishat fen, located in the steppe grasslands of Armenia,  
123 provides snapshots of the shift from an arid and cold Early Holocene to a more humid and warmer Mid-  
124 Late Holocene at 8,200 cal. BP. Furthermore, fire history and sedge-based fen development recorded drier  
125 phases at approximately 6,400, 5,300–4,900, 3,000, 2,200–1,500 and 400 cal. BP (Joannin et al., 2013).  
126 The pollen-inferred climate reconstruction in Vanevan peat (south-eastern shore of the Lake Sevan,  
127 Armenia) complements the pollen study at Zarishat by documenting open-land vegetation to ca. 7,700 cal.  
128 BP, followed by a more forested landscape during the Mid Holocene (to ca. 5,700 cal. BP) compared to  
129 today and ending with open land vegetation up until 5,100 cal. BP (Leroyer et al., 2016).

### 130 2.3. *Present regional environment*

131 The present-day climate of the southern area of the Lesser Caucasus is mild and mostly subtropical. The  
132 warmest areas are found in the Araks lowlands whereas the coldest parts are in the northern Mrav

133 mountains. The hottest months are July and August, with mean temperatures of 22°C and 21°C,  
134 respectively. January and February are the coldest months with average temperatures fluctuating between  
135 -1°C and 0°C. Mean annual precipitation varies between 480 and 840 mm depending on the zone: 410–480  
136 mm in the lowlands, and 560–840 mm in the highlands (Arakelyan et al., 2011).

137 The mountainous nature of the region results in a diverse array of associated landscapes ranging from sand  
138 deserts and semi-deserts situated at 400 m a.s.l. to alpine meadows and carpets at 3,000 m a.s.l, from xeric  
139 mountain formations to wetland vegetation, or from mesophile forest to feather grass steppes (Fayvush  
140 and Aleksanyan, 2016).

141 Karin Tak cave is located close to the boundary between a semi-arid subtropical climate characterized by  
142 semi-deserts or dry steppe, and a region with a thermo-moderate humid climate that supports forests. The  
143 general pattern of present vegetation is of hornbeam (*Carpinus caucasica*) and oak (*Quercus iberica*)  
144 woodland regrowth around the cave-site. At lower elevations (topographically) the forest is composed of  
145 about 90% hornbeam; however, at higher elevations (towards the cave entrance), the character of the tree  
146 cover is different with ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), maple (*Acer campestre*), hornbeam, juniper (*Juniperus*  
147 *sp.*) and plum (*Prunus spp.*) present. Proximal to Karin Tak cave, the forest looks to be in a stage of  
148 secondary growth after human disturbance (clearing) ca. 50 years ago.

149 Although the south-eastern Lesser Caucasus has not been thoroughly investigated, present ecosystems are  
150 typically associated with biodiversity richness, and the diverse herpetofauna of the region (Arakelyan et  
151 al., 2011) suggests that the diversity within other groups of animals might be equally high. Furthermore,  
152 the territory is part of the Caucasian biogeographical region, which is an important center of endemism:  
153 the World Wildlife Fund for Nature has identified it as a Global 200 Ecoregion, and Conservation  
154 International has identified it as a global “hotspot” (one of the world’s 25 biologically richest and  
155 endangered regions) (Arakelyan et al., 2011). The high levels of diversity are supported by the complex  
156 relief and different altitudes producing a high variety of ecosystems and microclimates and by the

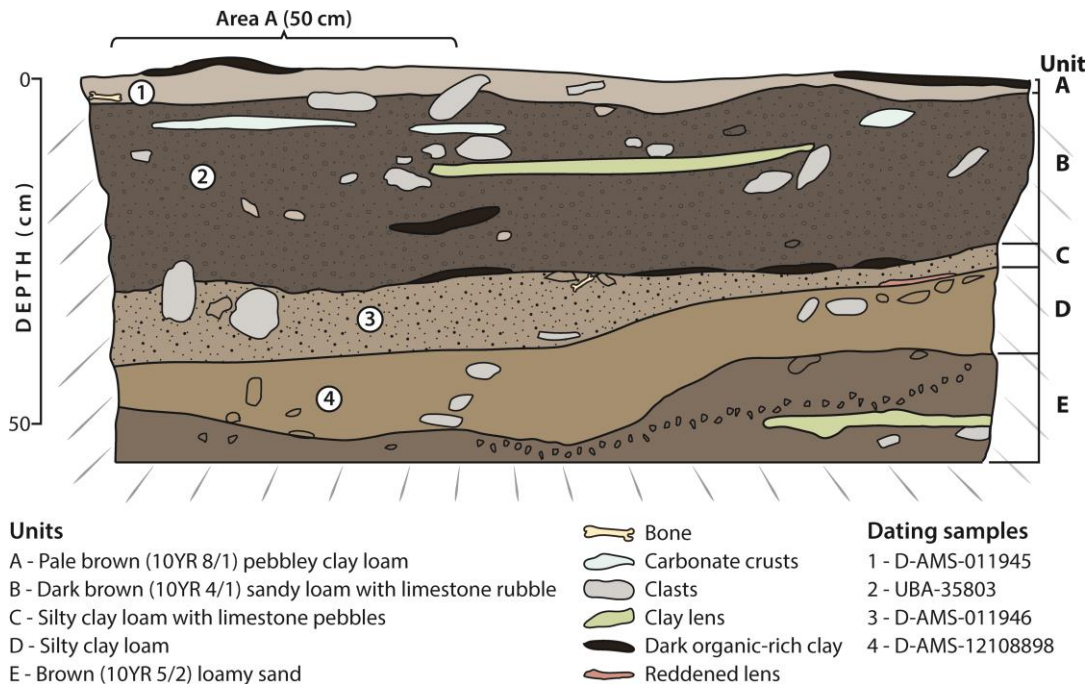


157 biogeographical position of the region at the crossroads of faunal exchange between Africa, Europe and  
158 Asia. Many of the species that occur here are at the edge of their range, or are endemic populations, and  
159 are therefore of major importance for modern conservation efforts (Blain, 2016).

### 160 **3. Materials and Methods**

#### 161 3.1. *Excavation and sampling*

162 The first brief scientific description of the cave was completed in 2011 followed by preliminary  
163 archaeological surveys in 2014 and 2015. Large-scale excavations at the site started in 2016 and continued  
164 in 2017 and 2018. The fossil material presented here was recovered from the inner chamber of Cave 1  
165 during the the 2015 exploratory field season. In 2015, Pit 1 was excavated in one square meter areas (A  
166 and B) to a depth of 50 cm below the present day cave floor (Fig. 3). The stratigraphy of the excavated pit  
167 revealed visible differences in the sedimentary sequence. Currently, it is unknown whether the differences  
168 are due to post-depositional mineral staining or mixing of deposits. To minimize bias in the chronology,  
169 which might be caused by mixed sediments, the analysed bones were sampled exclusively from the area A,  
170 from which where all dated specimens were collected. This confined the number of facies to four with  
171 four dated bones.



172

173 **Fig. 3.** The stratigraphy of excavated Pit 1. Studied material was recovered from the first 50 cm of area A.

174 The soil colors are referenced to a Munsell Color System. [1.5-column fitting image]

175 The bones acquired during the field season were excavated *in situ*, following standard paleontological

176 methods, which include three-dimensional recording and registration of finds (Grant et al., 2005).

177 Excavated sediment was removed (in 5 cm thick stratigraphic splits) for dry sieving with 2- and 0.5-mm

178 sieves to recover small specimens. All finds were brushed and dry cleaned in a field laboratory and stored

179 in airtight and opaque bags. Contamination reduction methodologies (Allentoft, 2013) were employed

180 during all phases of fieldwork, in order to minimize contamination of fossils with exogenous DNA.

### 181 3.2. Studied material

182 About 500 bones were recovered during the 2015 field season. The fossils were highly fragmented and

183 morphologically indistinct, only ca. 50 bones (approximately 1% of all excavated fossils) preserved

184 taxonomically significant morphological features. All osteological remains were well-preserved physically

185 (with visible original organic material) and were very light to light brown with waxy to matte lusters.

186 Permineralization and other physical diagenetic alterations were limited to 1 mm thick coatings of  
187 pyrolusite (MnO<sub>2</sub>) on 1-3% of bone surfaces.

### 188 3.3. Sample preparation and DNA extraction

189 Five bulk bone collections (total of 250 bones) from the Karin Tak cave were analyzed at the TRACE  
190 (Trace Research Advanced Clean Environment) aDNA facility at Curtin University, Western Australia.  
191 For bone grinding, morphologically indistinct fossils were subsampled into pools of 50 bone fragments  
192 representing different nominal units (10 cm each; Table 1). Each pool was ground to a fine bone powder  
193 using a Retsch PM200 Planetary Ball Mill. To ensure that only bones of roughly equal size were pooled  
194 together, larger bones were added to the pool by breaking off a smaller piece or by drilling the bone for 30  
195 seconds using a Dremel drill and adding the resulting bone powder to the pool.

196 **Table 1.** Bone material from Karin Tak cave subjected to aDNA analysis.

Sample ID	Field Season	N of Bones	Depth (mm)	Primers
AD 2372	2015	50	0-100	12Sv5, Mam16S
AD 2373	2015	50	100-200	12Sv5, Mam16S
AD 2374	2015	50	200-300	12Sv5, Mam16S
AD 2375	2015	50	300-400	12Sv5, Mam16S
AD 2376	2015	50	400-500	12Sv5, Mam16S

197 DNA was extracted from the bulk bone pools by dissolving 100 mg bone powder in a lysis buffer  
198 consisting of 0.49 M EDTA, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 10 mM DTT, 10% Triton X-100 and 1 mg/mL  
199 proteinase K, followed by incubation overnight at 55°C. Next, samples were centrifuged for 10 min at  
200 13,000 rpm and the supernatant concentrated to a volume of 50 µl using 30,000 MWCO Vivaspin 500  
201 centrifugal concentrators. Subsequently, concentrated DNA was purified using a MinElute polymerase  
202 chain reaction (PCR) Purification Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions, except for the  
203 use of a modified binding buffer optimized for ancient DNA (0.26 mL of 100% isopropanol, 0.325 µL of

204 100% Tween 20, 19.5 µL 3 M sodium acetate pH 5.2, 0.31g GuanHydCh and up to a final volume of 650  
205 µL in Ultrapure water).

#### 206 3.4. Amplification and sequencing

207 DNA was amplified using two sets of primers, 12Sv5 (FWD–TAGAACAGGCTCCTCTAG, RVS–  
208 TTAGATACCCCACTATGC) and Mam16S (FWD–CGGTTGGGGTGACCTCGGA, RVS–  
209 GCTGTTATCCCTAGGGTAACT), targeting a short section of the mitochondrial *12S* and *16S rRNA*  
210 gene regions, respectively, following the methods of Seersholm et al. (2018). DNA reads were sequenced  
211 on the MiSeq platform. After DNA sequencing, raw FASTQ files were filtered using Obitools  
212 (<http://metabarcoding.org/obitools>), discarding unique DNA reads shorter than 80 base pairs or  
213 represented by less than five copies. Reads that were likely to be a result of PCR error were filtered out  
214 using obiclean (obiclean -r 0.2 -d 2–H) and sumaclust in two steps: ‘sumaclust -R 0.5 -t 0.95’ and  
215 ‘sumaclust -R 0.01 -t 0.93’.

#### 216 3.5. Faunal analysis

217 The DNA reads were queried against the NCBI nt database using BLAST, set to report up to 100 of the  
218 best hits to the database per read. For taxonomic assignments, BLAST files were parsed using the  
219 blast\_getLCA algorithm (Seersholm et al., 2018), which assigns reads to the lowest common ancestor of  
220 the best hits to the database for each DNA read. Thereafter, raw taxonomic assignments were individually  
221 assessed by an experienced operator, correlating each assignment with data on species known to inhabit  
222 the area and data on relevant species missing from the reference database. Based on this, certain nodes  
223 were either upgraded to species level or downgraded to genus or family level. For instance, the read  
224 initially assigned to *Ursus*, had a 100% match with the reference sequences of *Ursus maritimus* and *Ursus*  
225 *arctos*. As *Ursus maritimus* does not inhabit the area, this assignment was upgraded to *Ursus arctos*.

226 Anatomical identifications and morphological taxonomic affiliation of the faunal remains were carried out  
227 based on osteological catalogs (Schmid, 1972; Hillson, 2005) and comparative collections of recent  
228 specimens.

229 To estimate differences in the taxonomic composition of identified fauna in different time periods,  
230 correspondence analysis was conducted using SPSS ver. 19 software package (SPSS Inc.).

### 231 3.6. *Dating*

232 The chronology is based on Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) <sup>14</sup>C ages, performed in Direct AMS  
233 lab, Washington, USA, and CHRONO centre, Queens University Belfast, UK, on four bones representing  
234 different depths (1-47 cm) of excavated area A. The dating suggested an age from 25,683- 24,803 to  
235 34,486 - 33,657 cal. BP for the first 40 cm while the age of sediments below 46 cm exceeded the  
236 radiocarbon dating range of 41,700 BP (Table 2). The dating results illustrate that some stratigraphic  
237 disturbance may have occurred in the upper layers, while the deeper strata maintain a consistent  
238 chronological succession.

239 **Table 2.** Accelerator Mass Spectrometry <sup>14</sup>C dates. Gelatin<sup>1</sup> - 0.45 µm-filtered gelatin from alkali-  
240 extracted, demineralized collagen; Gelatin<sup>2</sup> > 30 kDa gelatin from demineralized collagen.

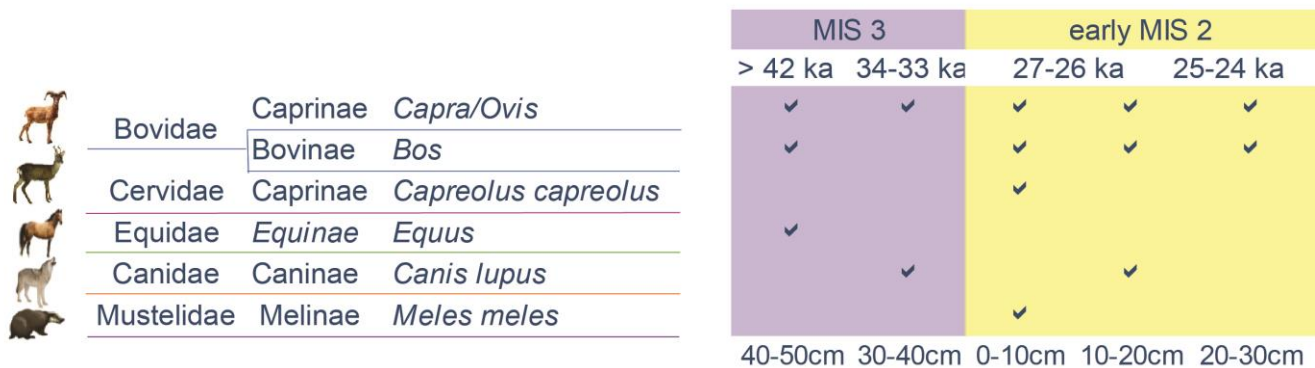
AMS Lab Number	Sample Dated	Depth (mm)	Chemical Fraction	δ <sup>13</sup> C‰ (VPDB)	<sup>14</sup> C Age ± 1 SD RC yr BP	Cal BP Range 2 SD (95.4% C.I.)
D-AMS-011945	Bone	80	Gelatin <sup>1</sup>	-10.2	24,589 ± 149	27,013 - 26,326
UBA-35803	Bone	230	Gelatin <sup>2</sup>	-14.1	22,947 ± 204	25,683- 24,803
D-AMS-011946	Bone	370	Gelatin <sup>1</sup>	-17.1	32,148 ± 185	34,486 - 33,657
D-AMS-1210-8898	Bone	470	Gelatin <sup>1</sup>	-17.7	> 41,700	Beyond calibration

## 241 4. Reconstructed faunal composition

### 242 4.1. *Taxonomic identification*

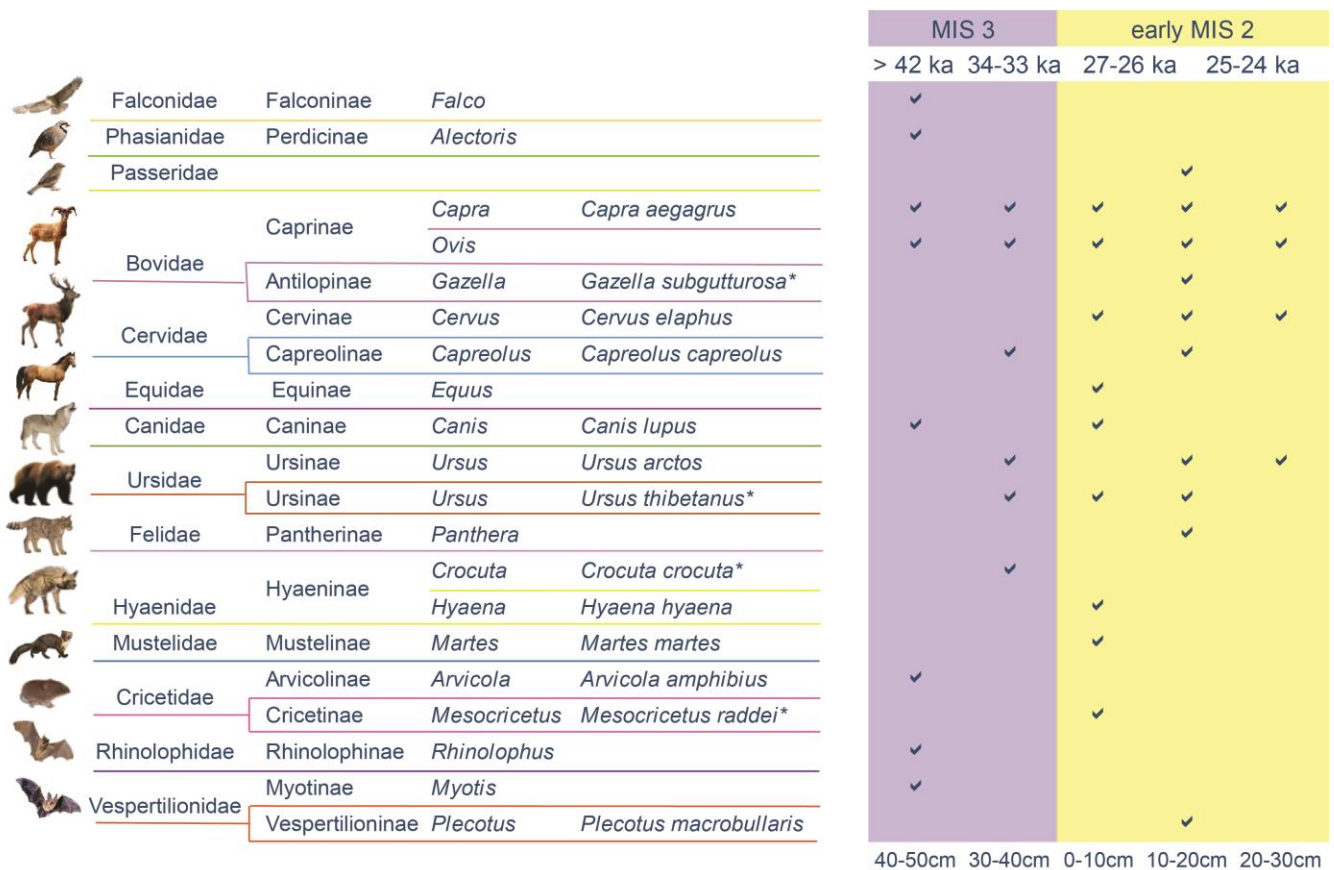
243 The main feature of the Karin Tak fossil assemblage is a high rate of fragmentation. The main factors  
244 causing fragmentation are likely the combination of chimney collapse, post-burial diagenetic sediment

245 compaction, high humidity, trampling by large animals and anthropogenic modifications. From the LP  
 246 assemblage only ca. 50 bones bear taxonomically significant diagnostic features enabling identification.  
 247 The morphological taxonomic identification revealed only six taxa belonging to five mammalian families  
 248 (Fig. 4), representatives of which are currently inhabiting the region.



249  
 250 **Fig. 4.** Morphologically identified taxonomic composition in chronologically different frames (years cal.  
 251 BP). The chronology illustrates stratigraphic disturbance in the upper layers, while the deeper strata  
 252 maintain a consistent chronological succession. [1.5-column fitting image]

253 The morphologically reconstructed set of taxa is insufficient for comprehensive description of ancient  
 254 faunal composition and dynamics. Hence, to obtain a more complete pattern of the actual ancient faunal  
 255 diversity we endeavored to acquire additional information from fragmented fossils using modern  
 256 molecular techniques. To complement the morphology-based data we genetically identified taxa from five  
 257 bulk bone pools totaling 250 morphologically non-diagnostic bone fragments. The genetic screening of  
 258 fossil bones revealed a high faunal diversity between ca. > 42 and 24 ka (Fig. 5). We identified a total of  
 259 27 different taxa, represented by 11 mammalian and three avian families. The majority of the sequences  
 260 obtained were assigned to a species (13 specimens), however, in some cases, identification was restricted  
 261 to a genus (nine taxa), subfamily (three taxa) or family (two taxa; Fig. 5).



262

263 **Fig. 5.** Taxa identified via the bulk bone method in different temporal intervals (years cal. BP).

264 \*regionally extinct species. [1.5-column fitting image]

265 The genetically recovered mammalian taxonomic composition is rich and diverse, and predominantly  
 266 consists of extant wild species together with regionally extinct ones. Large mammals dominate the record,  
 267 with eight families representing 18 taxa (~66%). Small mammals are considerably less common in our  
 268 dataset represented by six taxa (~22%). The identified avian fauna comprises three extant taxa  
 269 representing, in aggregate, ~11% of the identified assemblage.

270 Overall, the genetically identified assemblage agrees with the morphologically-based reconstruction, with  
 271 the exception of *Bos* and *Meles*, which appear to be absent in the collection screened by the bulk bone  
 272 method.

273 4.2. MIS 3 faunal diversity (> 42-33 ka)

274 Samples dated to ca. > 42,000 and 34,486-33,657 cal. BP are associated with the last phase of interstadial  
275 MIS 3 (57-29,000 BP) characterized by a relatively warm and humid climate (Ollivier et al., 2010). The  
276 morphological and genetic identification of MIS 3 Karin Tak sub-samples revealed 14 extant and extinct  
277 mammalian and avian taxa (Fig 6, A).

278 The large mammals are represented by ungulate and carnivore species. *Capra aegagrus* (bezoar goat) and  
279 *Ovis sp.* (sheep) constitute the two dominant groups throughout the assemblage and are distinctive of dry  
280 open environments. The other ungulate taxa identified are: *Capreolus capreolus* (roe deer), typical for  
281 forested zones and shrublands; *Equus sp.* and *Bos sp.* associated with dry open environments. The  
282 carnivore assemblage is represented by *Canis lupus* (grey wolf) and *Ursus arctos* (brown bear), both  
283 inhabiting a great variety of habitats (dry Asian steppes, Arctic shrublands and temperate forests), as well  
284 as *Ursus tibethanus* (Asiatic black bear) and *Crocuta crocuta* (spotted hyena), both of which are currently  
285 absent in the region (Dal` , 1954; Hayrapetyan et al., 2017). Spotted hyenas, typical of dry open habitats,  
286 are known to have become extinct from northern Eurasia about 40 ka, but persisted until ca. 31 ka in the  
287 south and west of Europe (Stuart and Lister, 2013) and appear to have survived in the South Caucasus  
288 region (Karin Tak cave) until at least ca. 34-33 ka. Similarly, following the last interglacial, the range of  
289 the Asiatic black bear, associated with forested habitats, was significantly reduced and it disappeared from  
290 Europe, the Caucasus and northern Asia (Kosintsev et al., 2016), but is shown to survive in the Karin Tak  
291 region until ca.34-33 ka. Additionally, these two species (*C. crocuta*, *U. tibethanus*) have been identified  
292 in the neighboring Azokh cave, indicating their presence in the Lesser Caucasus region at least since the  
293 MP (Van der Made et al., 2016).

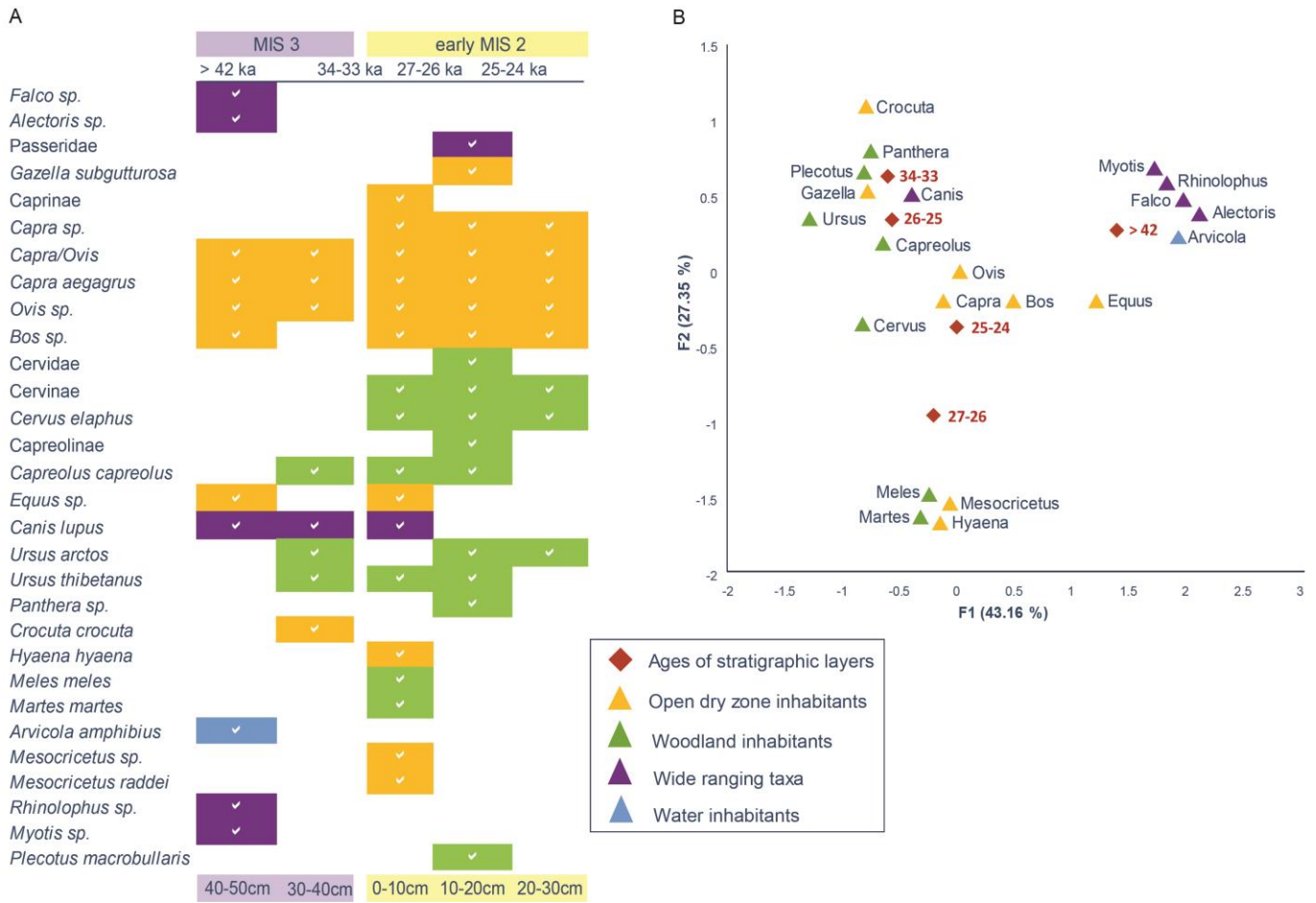
294 The existence of wetland in the vicinity of the site is proved by the presence of the only representative of  
295 rodents in this assemblage: *Arvicola amphibius* (water vole) commonly inhabiting territories around rivers  
296 and streams. The small mammals are generally very scarce in these layers and include extant horseshoe  
297 bat (*Rhinolophus sp.*) and mouse-eared bat (*Myotis sp.*).



298 The identified bird assemblage consists of only two contemporary representatives (Dal', 1954; Klem,  
299 1997): *Falco*, a diverse genus comprising birds of prey inhabiting a variety of habitats, and *Alectoris*, a  
300 genus of partridges, mainly associated with dry, open and mountainous environments.

#### 301 4.3. Early MIS 2 faunal diversity (27-24 ka)

302 MIS 2 (29,000-14,000 BP) coincides with the beginning of the last glacial cycle and marks the onset of  
303 the LGM (Clark et al., 2009). The taxonomic composition of layers dated between 27,013-26,326 and  
304 25,683-24,803 cal. BP is richer (in comparison to MIS 3 ones), including 22 taxa of extant and extinct  
305 mammals and birds identified (Fig. 6, A). Here, large mammals are most commonly encountered in the  
306 record and dominated by ungulates such as Caprinae (*Ovis sp.*, *Capra sp.*, and *C. aegagrus*), Bovinae (*Bos*  
307 *sp.*), Cervinae (*Cervus elaphus*), Capreolinae (*C. capreolus*), Equinae (*Equus sp.*) and Antilopinae  
308 (*Gazella subgutturosa*) subfamilies. *G. subgutturosa* (goitered gazelle) is associated with a semi-arid  
309 steppe environment and mostly occurs in foothills and mountain valleys. It is currently extirpated from the  
310 south-eastern Lesser Caucasus and appears only through Oman, across the Arabian Peninsula to southern  
311 Turkey, following the steppes of Central Asia into central Mongolia (Wacher et al., 2011). Although  
312 presumably hunted to extinction in the Near East by Neolithic hunter-gatherers (Legge and Rowley-  
313 Conwy, 1987), the goitered gazelle appears to have survived in Armenia until the Early Iron Age  
314 (Mirzoyan and Manaseryan, 2016). Carnivores are also frequently registered, with the genera *Ursus* (*U.*  
315 *arctos* and *U. tibetanus*), *Canis* (*C. lupus*), *Hyaena* (*H. hyaena*), *Panthera sp.*, and small carnivores  
316 *Martes martes* (pine marten) and *Meles meles* (Eurasian badger). The striped hyena (*H. hyaena*) occurs in  
317 open habitat or in arid to semi-arid environments, whereas red deer, pine marten and Eurasian badger  
318 inhabit deciduous, mixed and coniferous woodlands.



319

320 **Fig. 6.** (A) Taxonomic composition of samples identified by morphological and bulk bone methods in  
 321 different time frames. (B) Visualization of the results of correspondence analysis based on the abundance  
 322 variation of taxa through time. [2-column fitting image]

323 The reconstructed small mammals assemblage includes *Mesocricetus raddei* (Ciscaucasian hamster),  
 324 associated with shrublands and open grassland, *Plecotus macrobullaris* (mountain long-eared bat) typical  
 325 to oak shrub, as well as beech and pine forests and shrublands. It is noteworthy that the Ciscaucasian  
 326 hamster, extending in lowlands of the North Caucasus (Gromov and Ebraeva, 1995) and only bordering  
 327 Georgia in the northeast, has not been previously described from the south-eastern Lesser Caucasus, and  
 328 therefore this species might be considered a locally extinct taxon.

329 The MIS 2 assemblage revealed only one family of birds: Passeridae (old world sparrows), whose  
330 representatives are widely distributed through the region and mostly associated with dry environments  
331 (Dal', 1954; Klem, 1997).

332 To visualize genetic and morphological variation in the abundance of identified taxa across different time  
333 periods, correspondence analysis was applied (Fig. 6, B). The results revealed four clusters of taxa  
334 associated with different time periods; in all clusters the proportions of forest adapted and arid associated  
335 taxa are roughly equal. The only exception is the > 42 ka cluster, where taxa are associated with a wide  
336 range of environments together with a single species (*Arvicola amphibious*) indicating a humid climate.

### 337 **5. Regional comparison**

338 The faunal record from Karin Tak is represented by a diverse set of taxa: some that are still common and  
339 widespread, others that are rare today and have highly restricted distributions, and some that are regionally  
340 extinct. The identified faunal assemblage offers unique insights into the MIS 3–early MIS 2 transition and  
341 onset of LGM in the Lesser Caucasus. The reconstructed MIS 3 assemblage is rich with arid-adapted  
342 ungulates (*Bos sp.*, *Capra sp.*, *Ovis sp.* and *Equus sp.*) and their predators—wolves (*C. lupus*), hyenas (*C.*  
343 *crocuta*) and forest inhabitants such as deer (*C. elaphus*, *C. capreolus*) and bears (*U. arctos*, *U.*  
344 *tibethanus*). The early MIS 2 collection comprises a similar set of both arid and humid environment  
345 occupants. The MIS 2 assemblage also includes species typical for forested zones (pine marten (*M.*  
346 *martes*), Eurasian badger (*M. meles*), *Panthera sp.*) and open dry landscapes (gazelle (*G. subgutturosa*),  
347 hyena (*H. hyaena*), hamster (*M. raddei*)). The correspondence analysis based on the abundance variation  
348 of taxa through time did not reveal a clear clustering of forest and arid environment associated taxa in the  
349 examined time period. Although large mammals are rather imprecise indicators of climatic conditions, the  
350 data support continuity of the same biota from MIS 3 to early MIS 2, with species distinctive of  
351 broadleaved forest and arid steppe environments. This environmental pattern persists to the present day,

352 with the cave currently surrounded by a thick forest on the mountain slopes and a steppe located in the  
353 low land.

354 The assemblage of Karin Tak is supplemented by the neighboring LP sites of Ortvale Klde (Bar-Oz and  
355 Adler, 2005), Satsurbliia (Pinhasi et al., 2014) and Dzudzuana (Bar-Yosef et al., 2011) in Georgia; Hovk-1  
356 (Pinhasi et al., 2011), Kalavan-2 (Ghukasyan et al., 2011) and Aghitu-3 (Kandel et al., 2017) in Armenia,  
357 where bone and lithic-rich collections indicate that hominins and fauna prospered throughout much of the  
358 region during the LP. Comparison with the faunal assemblages of regional LP sites revealed many  
359 mammalian species similar to the ones from Karin Tak (Supplementary information, Table A1). The cave  
360 deposits at Aghitu-3 have yielded both arid zone (*Ovis*, *Capra*, *Equus*, *Bos/Bison*) and forest (*C. elaphus*,  
361 *Vulpes vulpes*, *Sus scrofa*) associated mammals from the 39,000-24,000 cal. BP horizons. Similarly,  
362 Hovk-1 Unit 4 (35,000 cal. BP) assemblage is dominated by forest taxa (*V. vulpes*, *C. elaphus*, *C.*  
363 *capreolus*, *M. meles* and *Martes foina*) with few arid area representatives (*C. aegagrus* and *Lepus*  
364 *europaeus*). Likewise, the LP faunal assemblages of Georgian sites Dzadzuana (Unit D at 35-32,000 cal.  
365 BP and Unit C at 27-24,000 cal. BP), Satsurbia (Layers B/III and B/II at 26-24,000 cal. BP) and Ortvale  
366 Klde (Layers 4 at 40-26,000 cal. BP and 3 at 26-22,000 cal. BP) are often dominated by open-landscape  
367 taxa (*Capra*, *Ovis*, *Equus*, and *Bos/Bison*) together with forest associated ones such as *U. arctos*, *V.*  
368 *vulpes*, *C. elaphus* and *C. Capreolus*. These results demonstrate that Upper Palaeolithic hunters targeted  
369 both forest-dwelling and open landscape ungulates.

370 The overall composition of the micro mammalian species in the LP sites shows a strong biogeographic  
371 affiliation with those of the Eastern Mediterranean area and Asia Minor. In both MIS 3 and MIS 2  
372 collections, the proportion of small mammals associated with open grassland is markedly higher; those  
373 being most probably captured in open grasslands by predators in a setting where forests are located in the  
374 vicinity of steppes.

375 The recovered animal diversity indicates general continuity in the composition of fauna in this region  
376 since the LP with only a few extinct taxa. This result, along with the finding of late-surviving taxa,  
377 demonstrates that during the MIS 3–MIS 2 transition, the region sheltered a wide range of animals of the  
378 temperate biota and could be considered a refugia for several animal species.

379 The pockets of relatively stable warm climate are also distinguished by the presence of Colchic and  
380 Hyrcanian forests, which represent refugia for the Tertiary relict plants and animals (Browicz, 1989; Denk  
381 et al., 2001; Ramezani et al., 2008; Tarkhnishvili et al., 2012; Fig. 1). Additionally, patches of mesophilic  
382 Tertiary plants are currently sporadically dispersed between the Black and Caspian seas (Mulkidjanyan,  
383 1967), indicating the presence of multiple spatially confined refugia, where species survived the cold and  
384 aridity of the glacial period. Furthermore, the faunal and floral elements of Azokh cave (ca. 36,000 m  
385 distance from the Karin Tak) provide detailed information on the MP environment. The large mammals  
386 (Van der Made et al., 2016) and charcoal (Allué, 2016) indicate deciduous woodland conditions, while  
387 small mammals (Parfitt, 2016), amphibians and reptiles (Blain, 2016) point to an open steppe environment  
388 for the region, thus demonstrating woodland in the vicinity of the cave, and open steppe areas not far  
389 away. In whole, the results of excavations at both Azokh cave and Karin Tak cave provide strong  
390 evidence that the south-eastern Lesser Caucasus served as a refugium during the MP and early LP when  
391 the region was surrounded by arid, hyper-arid and periglacial landscapes, with extensive alpine glaciation  
392 in surrounding mountains (Fernandez-Jalvo, 2016). These pieces of evidence provide solid support for the  
393 increasing recognition of the south-eastern Lesser Caucasus as a climatically and ecologically stable  
394 region at least since the MP despite significant global climatic changes.

## 395 **6. Conclusion**

396 The fossil fauna of Karin Tak cave was explored to improve the reconstruction of environmental  
397 conditions in the south-eastern Lesser Caucasus during the LP. The present study contributes to our  
398 understanding of past biodiversity and extinction processes during the MIS 3–MIS 2 transition of the

399 region based on morphological and genetic identification of fossil bones. The taxonomic assemblage  
400 indicates general continuity in faunal composition in this region during LP, with only a few extinct taxa.  
401 This allows us to suggest that cold and arid MIS 2 did not cause a dramatic change in faunal makeup, and  
402 between ca. 42 and 24 ka the cave was close to the boundary between arid subtropical and humid climate  
403 regions (with the latter supporting forests), a pattern similar to the present environment of the site.  
404 Based on these results we consider Karin Tak cave to be a paleontological site of great regional  
405 importance, where the remarkable preservation conditions allow for molecular reconstruction of the  
406 prehistoric ecosystem. The outcomes highlight the potential of ongoing excavations that will delve deeper  
407 into the past to make a significant contribution to our understanding of paleoenvironment of the Lesser  
408 Caucasus during the Pleistocene and Holocene.

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416 molecular work.

#### 417 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

418 The following is the Supplementary data to this article:

419 Table A1: Faunal composition of regional Late Pleistocene sites.

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