

1 **Evidence of Matuyama-Brunhes transition in the cave sediment in Central Europe**

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9 **Abstract**

10 In this study, we offer a significant improvement over previous results that identified the
11 Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal in cave sediments in Central Europe, Czech Republic.
12 We collected discrete samples from the sedimentary profile in the Za Hajovnou cave located in
13 the eastern part of the Czech Republic. Novel use of characteristic remanent magnetization
14 (ChRM) directions and VGP (Virtual Geomagnetic Pole) path of the data revealed the
15 Matuyama-Brunhes transition boundary within 5.7 cm located in the upper part of the sampled
16 sedimentary section of the cave. This result showed a new, more detailed behavior of the
17 polarity transition from the central European location. The migration of the paleopole between
18 east of Africa and west of North America is a significant marker for the central European
19 paleomagnetic record in terms of global magnetic data. The precursor of the reversal occurred
20 4 ± 0.2 kyr before the transition. The rock magnetism measurements showed that the magnetic
21 carrier of most of the samples is maghemite. Also, we estimated the sedimentation rate of the
22 studied section (~ 35 cm) in the cave as 0.7 ± 0.2 cm/kyr.

23 **Keywords:** Paleomagnetism; Matuyama-Brunhes; magnetic reversal; cave; sediments

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25

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal occurred approximately 773 kyr ago (Cohen and
28 Gibbard, 2019) as several recent studies have shown (Channell et al., 2010 (773 ± 0.4 ka);
29 Suganuma et al., 2015 (770.2 ± 7.3 ka); Singer et al., 2019 (773 ± 2 ka); Valet et al., 2019
30 (772.4 ± 6.6 ka); Haneda et al., 2020 (772.9 ± 5.4 ka)). Published studies (Channel et al., 2010;
31 Sagnotti et al., 2010, 2014; Suganuma et al., 2010; Jin and Liu, 2011; Giaccio et al., 2013;
32 Kitaba et al., 2013; Pares et al., 2013; Valet et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Okada et al., 2017;
33 Bella et al., 2019) reported that this event is well recorded by sediments that had sufficient
34 sedimentation rate and could be analyzed, in detail, by paleomagnetism.

35 Sediments acquire remanent magnetization during their deposition. The alignment of magnetic
36 moments of the grains occurs in the direction of the Earth's magnetic field, and acquisition of
37 primary magnetization due to this sedimentation process is called depositional or detrital
38 remanent magnetization (DRM) (Gubbins and Herrero, 2017). Remanent magnetization
39 protected by potential energy barriers can last over geologic time scales. Nevertheless, due to
40 thermal and/or chemical processes such as reheating, oxidation, and iron hydroxide formation
41 during time, secondary magnetizations can be acquired by crossing potential energy barriers or
42 the generation of chemical remanences. The new secondary magnetization has an orientation
43 in the direction of the Earth's field at the time of alteration rather than the time of original
44 deposition. Then rocks can acquire a viscous remanent magnetization (VRM) a long time after
45 their formation due to exposure to the geomagnetic field. VRM contributes to noise in
46 paleomagnetic data (Butler, 1992; Lanza and Meloni, 2006).

47 Lock-in-depth affects the nature of the paleomagnetic recording process in sediments. It is
48 defined as the depth at which the remanent magnetization is stabilized. Lithology, grain-size
49 distribution of the sediment matrix, sedimentation rate, and bioturbation influence the position
50 of the lock-in-depth in the sediments (Bleil and von Dobeneck, 1999; Sagnotti et al., 2005).

51 When assuming the steady sedimentation rate, the result of lock-in-depth is a delay of
52 magnetization that corresponds to the time required to accumulate a sediment layer equal to the
53 lock-in-depth. For example, if the sediment has an accumulation speed of 1 mm/kyr and lock-
54 in-depth is 10 mm, the magnetization age is 10 kyr younger than the sediment itself (Sagnotti
55 et al., 2005).

56 Paleomagnetic analysis of magnetic reversals from cave sediments was carried out in different
57 locations around the world such as in Western Europe (Parés et al., 2018), South Africa (Nami
58 et al., 2016), South America (Jaqueto et al., 2016), North America (Stock et al., 2005), Southern
59 Europe (Pruner et al., 2010), and Eastern Asia (Morinaga et al., 1992). Kadlec et al. (2005,
60 2014) already reported that the Central European cave (local name “Za Hajovnou”) in the
61 Moravia region of the Czech Republic records the Matuyama-Brunhes transition. The aim of
62 the present study is to analyze the reversal using more detailed paleomagnetic methods and to
63 identify the magnetic carrier of the cave sediment. Here, we obtained a new paleomagnetic
64 dataset from three vertical sediment profiles in this cave. Contribution of the central European
65 paleomagnetic record from the cave sediment will be valuable for investigating the
66 characteristic behavior of the Earth’s magnetic field during the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic
67 reversal. Because the sedimentation rate in the cave is not well understood, details of the timing
68 of the transition are not yet known. It makes our estimation even more crucial in this study.

69

70 *1.1 Geology of the Cave*

71 The Za Hájojnou Cave (49° 40' N, 16° 55' E) is a former sinkhole located in Javoricko Karst,
72 Moravia Region of the Czech Republic (Lundberg et al., 2014; Musil, 2014) (Fig. 1). The
73 Javoricko Karst is formed by light-grey-colored massive Devonian limestone that overlies Pre-
74 Cambrian phyllite (Lundberg et al., 2014; Musil, 2014). Spranek and Javoricka are two rivers
75 that flow through the karst. While the Za Hájojnou Cave is situated on the north-western bank

76 of the Javoříčka river, on the southern slope of the Pani Hora hill (Lundberg et al., 2014; Žák
77 et al., 2018), both Spranek and Javoricka watershed may have contributed to the sediment
78 development in this cave (Fig. 1).

79 The Za Hajovnou cave is approximately a 500 m long system (Musil, 2005; Bábek et al., 2015).
80 The cave was explored previously in a total length of ~200 m and currently consists of two
81 main parallel corridors with a slightly different sedimentological record (Musil, 2014; Musil et
82 al., 2014) (Fig. 2). The first corridor (local name is “Excavated Corridor” which used to be a
83 sinkhole entrance) and the other corridor (local name is “Birthday Corridor”) have a separate
84 entrance, and are connected by the Connecting Passage Corridor (Fig. 2). Sediments from the
85 Excavated Corridor continue to the Birthday Corridor and partially fill the Connecting Passage
86 Corridor (Musil et al., 2014) (Fig. 2).

87 Upper sediments of the cave were dated by U/Th dating of flowstones from 118 ± 1 to 267 ± 3
88 ka, and the sediment spans the time of the Cromerian Interglacial Complex in north-western
89 Europe, which begins with the interglacial period of the marine isotope stage (MIS 19; 773 ka;
90 Cohen and Gibbard, 2019), and the Matuyama-Brunhes reversal (Kadlec et al., 2005, 2014;
91 Musil, 2005, 2014; Musil et al., 2014; Lundberg et al., 2014; Bábek et al., 2015; Žák et al.,
92 2018).

93 The Matuyama-Brunhes boundary (773 ka) was identified (by Kadlec et al., 2005, 2014) in the
94 upper part of the backwater fine sediments, deposited from suspension (total thickness up to 4.3
95 m) in the flooded cave. These sediments underlay mostly non-fluvial deposits that entered the
96 cave through a steep passage and fill the Connecting Passage Corridor (Kadlec et al., 2014;
97 Lundberg et al., 2014; Musil et al., 2014).

98 Sedimentary sections studied by Kadlec et al. (2005, 2014) in the Excavated Corridor of the Za
99 Hajovnou cave were composed of two parts. The first part, 0.8 m thick (Section No. 1, in Fig.
100 2), about 28 m from the cave entrance, was interpreted to contain the Matuyama-Brunhes

101 transition from reversed to normal polarity by Kadlec et al. (2014). Section No. 2 (Fig. 2), ~3.3
102 m thick, underlays Section No. 1. Kadlec et al. (2014) indicated that this section had sediment
103 with just reversed polarity except for the upper part of the sediment where the magnetization
104 was difficult to interpret, because the sediments had weak magnetization for which the
105 sensitivity of the Agico JR-5A spinner magnetometer was insufficient. This difficulty was the
106 motivation for the present research. Here we collected new 44 oriented discrete sedimentary
107 samples from the Excavated Corridor near the upper backwater sedimentary Section No. 1 (Fig.
108 2, 3).

109

110 **2. Materials and Methods**

111 *2.1. Preparation of the Samples*

112 We had prior indication where the reversed polarity is from Kadlec et al. (2014). Our sample
113 collection took the larger part before the transition and the smaller part above the transition. We
114 chose three sets of overlapping boxes (Fig. 3) to characterize the transition completely. The
115 35.1 cm of exposed sediment at the base of Section No. 1 was planed to a clean vertical face,
116 and the samples for the paleomagnetism measurements were taken by pushing the plastic boxes
117 (2x2x2 cm; 8cc) into the sediment (Fig. 3). We used a Brunton geological compass to measure
118 the azimuth and tilt of the boxes. In addition, another 4 samples were collected for rock
119 magnetism measurements (Fig. 3c), which corresponded with the paleomagnetic samples
120 (13_0P, 7_7P, 17_2M, 22_0M). The upper part of the section, from 0 cm to ~12 cm (Fig. 3),
121 called Bed No. 1 (Kadlec et al. 2014), is made up of fine backwater sediment of brown clayey
122 silt with white angular clasts of weathered limestone and bone fragments (Bed No. 1) (Kadlec
123 et al., 2014). The lower part of the section, from ~12 to ~35 cm, consisted of the brown silty
124 clay without white clasts (Bed No. 2) (Kadlec et al., 2014). Although our “Section 2” is the
125 same as “Profile 2” of Kadlec et al. (2005) and “Section 2” of Kadlec et al. (2014), our “Section

126 1” is not the same as “Profile 1” of Kadlec et al. (2005) but is the same as “Section 1” of Kadlec
127 et al. (2014). The depths in the present study are not the same as those in Kadlec et al. (2014).
128 We examined the sediment structure near the walls of the plastic sediment holder and observed
129 that the process of pushing the box into the sediment caused deformation structures along the
130 walls of the boxes. The structure was on the order of 0.05 mm thick. Providing the volume of
131 the box is 8000 mm³ (20x20x20 mm), and the volume of the structurally modified layers is 80
132 mm³ (4x 0.05x20x20 mm), we have a volume that may be modified by the pushing as 1/100
133 fraction of the unmodified volume. Even if this moment would be organized in (e.g.,
134 perpendicular direction), it would only deflect the magnetic remanence by <5%.

135

136 2.2. Demagnetization Measurements

137 To clean the secondary magnetizations from the sedimentary samples, we applied a stepwise
138 alternative field (AF) demagnetization method in the Pruhonice Paleomagnetism Laboratory of
139 the Czech Academy of Sciences. This method was carried out using a 2G Enterprises Cryogenic
140 Magnetometer on 44 samples divided into 3 different sequences. The first sequence of 17
141 samples (shown in the leftmost column of Fig. 3c) were demagnetized at 1 mT intervals from
142 0 to 49 mT and 10 mT intervals from 50 to 100 mT. The second sequence of 14 samples (shown
143 in the middle column of Fig. 3c) were demagnetized at 2 mT intervals from 0 to 48 mT and 10
144 mT intervals from 50 to 100 mT. The third sequence of 13 samples (shown in the rightmost
145 column of Fig. 3c) were demagnetized at 0.5 mT intervals from 0 to 39.5 mT and 10 mT
146 intervals from 40 to 100 mT. Demagnetization data were interpreted with Remasoft software
147 (Agico Company; Martin Chadima and Frantisek Hroudka).

148 ChRM directions and maximum angular deviation (MAD) values were determined from
149 principal component analysis (PCA) (Kirschvink, 1980) on the Zijdeveld diagram (Zijdeveld,
150 1967). Virtual geomagnetic pole's (VGP's) latitudes and longitudes were calculated using

151 PMGSC software (Randy Enkin). Table 1 shows the data of alternative field demagnetization
152 for each sample. Examples of AF demagnetization results for the Matuyama and Brunhes
153 intervals (two examples each) are shown in Fig. 4. The rest of the samples are in the Supporting
154 Information Tables S1 and Supporting Information Figs S2.

155

156 *2.3. Rock Magnetism Measurements*

157 To determine the magnetic minerals in the samples, High Temperature Magnetic Susceptibility
158 measurements (χ mass normalized) were done up to 635 °C using an Agico Kappabridge
159 MFK1-FA susceptibility meter. Isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquisition was
160 done at 25 mT intervals from 0 to 100 mT, 50 mT intervals from 100 to 400 mT, and 100 mT
161 intervals from 400 to 1000 mT using a Magnetic Measurements MMPM10 pulse magnetizer.
162 Stepwise AF demagnetization of IRM was done at 5 mT intervals from 0 to 40 mT and 10 mT
163 intervals from 40 to 50 mT using an Agico LDA 5 AF demagnetizer. All the remanent
164 magnetizations were measured using an Agico JR-6 spinner magnetometer after each step. The
165 samples for the rock magnetism measurements were chosen according to the paleomagnetic
166 data.

167

168 **3. Results**

169 *3.1. Paleomagnetic Results*

170 The samples were generally demagnetized up to 20 mT (for details, see Supporting Information
171 Figs S2), which removed the VRM component causing a change in the direction of remanent
172 magnetization. This soft VRM component has a mean D: 13.8° and I: 56.8° value, which is
173 close to the present day's Earth's magnetic field direction for the Czech Republic (D: 4.4° and
174 I: 66.8°) (see Supporting Information Figs S3). Some samples (01_8M, 04_2M, 17_2M,
175 17_9M, 22_0M) could not be demagnetized even to 100mT.

176 The intensity of the natural remanent magnetization (NRM) of the samples varies between 8.5×10^{-3}
177 and 34.1×10^{-3} A/m. Median destructive field (MDF) values where samples lost half of their
178 magnetization range between 5 and 8 mT. NRM intensity and MDF values of the samples are
179 shown in Supporting Information Figs S3. MAD values for the Matuyama and Brunhes sections
180 are between 0.3° and 5.4° (Fig. 5a). These values for the transition section are between 0.7° and
181 5.3° , which is relatively reliable for detecting the migration of the paleomagnetic vector from
182 reversed to normal polarity (Fig. 5a). The trend of the MAD values in our data increases before
183 and during the transition (shown with dashed lines in Fig. 5a-c) between 23.1 and 7.1 cm depth.
184 This increase can also be seen in other studies (Muttoni et al., 2017 (Bulgaria, cave sediments,
185 1 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Ge et al., 2021 (China, cave sediments, 0.2 cm/kyr sedimentation
186 rate); Sagnotti et al., 2014 (Italy, lacustrine sediments, 20 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Okada et
187 al., 2017 (Japan, marine sediments, 61 cm/kyr sedimentation rate)) while these values are higher
188 than those in our study. (Fig. 5b,c).

189 Fig. 6 shows the data in comparison with published studies that consisted of cave sediments
190 (brownish silty clay) (Bella et al., 2019 (Slovakia, 0.6 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Ge et al.,
191 2021 (China, 0.2 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Shaar et al., 2021 (South Africa, 0.13 cm/kyr
192 sedimentation rate)), marine sediments (Liu et al., 2016 (China, 9 cm/kyr sedimentation rate);
193 Okada et al., 2017 (Japan, 61 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Valet et al., 2014 (Indian Ocean,
194 5cm/kyr sedimentation rate)), and other types of sediments (Giaccio et al., 2013 (Italy,
195 lacustrine sediments, 26 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Sagnotti et al., 2014 (Italy, lacustrine
196 sediments, 20 cm/kyr sedimentation rate); Jin and Liu, 2011 (China, loess sediments, 100
197 cm/kyr sedimentation rate)). Depth of the datasets was normalized considering the transition
198 zone and differences of sedimentation rate for each study and is not given in Fig. 5, 6. Our
199 paleomagnetic data showed inclination values changing by approximately 90° (shown with
200 empty and full arrows in Fig. 6a-d) from 12.8 to 7.1 cm depth (Fig. 6a). This revealed the

201 transition nature of the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal in the Za Hajovnou cave. The
202 change can be seen in other datasets from negative to positive inclination (Fig. 6b-d). Between
203 12.8 and 11.8 cm depth, inclination gets a positive value (shown with circle arrows in Fig. 6a-
204 d) just before the transition in our data. It is also observed in other studies, even though the
205 change is larger in other types of sediments (Fig. 6d) than cave and marine sediments (Fig.
206 6b,c). Below this depth, the Matuyama section has inclination fluctuations (shown with dashed
207 lines in Fig. 6a-d) between -6.3° and -89.3° . These fluctuations in other datasets (Fig. 6b-d) have
208 less frequency in other types of sediments (Fig. 6d). Above the transition, inclination angle
209 changes between 25.2° and 65.9° for the Brunhes section in our data (Fig. 6a).

210 Our declination data show more frequent fluctuations for the whole sediment section (Fig. 6e).
211 The change between 3.0 and 9.2 cm depth (shown with empty and full arrows in Fig. 6e-h) can
212 be seen in other studies with a larger difference. Below the transition, the frequent fluctuations
213 (shown with dashed lines in Fig. 6e-h) with a large declination change (shown with square
214 arrows in Fig. 6e-h) between 25.3 and 23.1 cm depth are observed in other studies. These
215 fluctuations in cave sediments (Fig. 6b) are more frequent than marine and other types of
216 sediments (Fig. 6c,d).

217 Despite the fluctuations, the intensity values of ChRM, which can depend on the concentration
218 variation of magnetic carriers of every individual sample, were decreasing for the Matuyama
219 section from the bottom to the transition between 35.1 and ~15 cm depth in our data (Fig. 6i).
220 After the transition from reversed to normal polarity, these values increased in the Brunhes
221 section between 7.1 and 0 cm depth (Fig. 6i). Even though there are some differences in absolute
222 values due to the changes of the paleomagnetic data depending on the location and sediment
223 type, comparisons of this dataset with other studies showed that fluctuations and frequency of
224 fluctuations in our data are consistent with other datasets and serves as a supporting argument
225 for the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal in the Za Hajovnou cave.

226 3.2. VGP's and Pole Migration

227 VGP shows the position of the geomagnetic paleopole (Lanza and Meloni, 2006). VGP's
228 latitudes from this dataset show fluctuations ranging from -64° to -1° before the transition in
229 the Matuyama section, which are similar to the data from Haneda et al. (2020) (Japan, marine
230 sediments, 89 cm/kyr sedimentation rate) having fluctuations from -85° to -32° (Fig. 7a, b).
231 These values indicate a 90° change between 7.1 and 12.8 cm depth (5.7 cm thickness) during
232 the transition due to pole migration (Fig. 7a). 75° change in VGP values at 11.8 cm depth (Fig.
233 7a) shows the precursor of the reversal according to Valet et al. (2012) (Fig. 7c). In addition,
234 we plotted the VGP path using VGP latitudes and longitudes based on ChRM directions of our
235 data (Fig. 8). VGP locations for the Matuyama section are in the southern hemisphere (Fig. 8).
236 During the transition from reversed to normal polarity, the magnetic pole fluctuates east of
237 Africa in the southern hemisphere and then migrates to the west of North America in the
238 northern hemisphere (Fig 8a). The same occurrence of this migration of the paleopole compares
239 well with the M/B transition section from Okada et al. (2017) recorded in marine sediments
240 near Japan (Fig. 8b). After the geomagnetic transition, paleopoles fluctuate around the
241 geographic north pole (Fig. 8a).

242

243 3.3. Rock Magnetism Results

244 According to the High Temperature Magnetic Susceptibility measurements, the transition of
245 maghemite to magnetite can be seen with an increase in susceptibility values at approximately
246 $250-350^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Fig. 9). The samples have Curie temperatures between 530 and 550°C , which may
247 be a sign of titanium in the minerals and a new sulphite phase created from decomposing the
248 maghemite and incorporation of the sulfur from the surrounding clay. The increase of
249 susceptibility values in the cooling curves corresponds to the percentage of maghemite decrease
250 after the heating (Fig. 9a, c, d). Two different drops in susceptibility values at 410°C and 530°C

251 in Fig. 9c show the existence of maghemite and magnetite together in the sample. IRM results
252 show that samples in Fig. 10a-d were saturated at 400-500 mT and demagnetized at 50-60 mT,
253 indicating low coercivity. Samples in Fig. 10e-h are those that could not be AF demagnetized
254 up to 100 mT in section 2.2. These samples did not reach saturation up to 1000 mT and were
255 not demagnetized up to 100 mT, indicating high coercivity (e.g., hematite). Two of them
256 (17_2M and 22_0M) have a Curie temperature of about 540° (Fig. 9c,d) that shows the presence
257 of low and high coercivity minerals together in these samples.

258

259 *3.4. Sedimentation Rate Estimation*

260 To estimate the sedimentation rate of the studied part (~35 cm) of Section No. 1, we compared
261 the thickness of the transition section of our study (cm) (5.7 cm section from 7.1 cm to 12.8 cm
262 depth) with the duration of the transition of published studies (kyr) from European cave
263 sediments (Pares et al., 2013, Spain, brownish silty clay; Muttoni et al., 2017, Bulgaria,
264 brownish clayey sand; Bella et al., 2019, Slovakia, brownish silty clay; Zupan Hajna et al.,
265 2021, Slovenia, brownish silty clay and speleothem; Gibert et al., 2016, Spain, reddish clay,
266 and speleothem). In equation 1.1, t_{so} is the transition section thickness from our study (in cm),
267 t_{sd} is the transition duration of the published study (in kyr), and s_{ro} is the sedimentation rate of
268 our study (in cm/kyr).

269 Equation;

$$270 \quad t_{so} \text{ (cm)} / t_{sd} \text{ (kyr)} = s_{ro} \text{ (cm)} \quad (1.1)$$

271

272 Then, the sedimentation rate ranges between 0.5 and 1.1 cm/kyr. Thus, the average
273 sedimentation rate is 0.7 ± 0.2 cm/kyr. Sedimentation rate estimates compared with other studies
274 are shown in Table 2.

275

276 **4. Discussion**

277 Our data indicate that the Matuyama-Brunhes transition boundary constitutes 5.7 cm between
278 7.1 and 12.8 cm depth of the sampled sedimentary section of the Za Hajovnou cave. The
279 magnetic reversal is characterized and represented by frequent fluctuations of inclination angle
280 (Fig. 6a) and VGP latitude (Fig. 7a). We think that fluctuations in declination data indicate the
281 instability in the Earth's magnetic field and remanent magnetization. On the other hand,
282 similarities seen in the previous studies (Fig. 6) show the reliability of the data.

283 Even though some samples could not be demagnetized up to 100 mT, the data show that
284 minerals with low coercivity are responsible for the magnetization of the cave sediment in our
285 study. This is supported with rock magnetism results that indicate the behavior of maghemite
286 for most of the samples.

287 The migration of the magnetic North pole from the east of Africa to the west of North America
288 is a key point for the behavior of the magnetic field during the transition. Although the data in
289 this study and Okada et al. (2017) belong to geographically different locations and sediment
290 types, the similarity during polar migration (Fig. 8) shows that the reversal was a dipole
291 transition, and the non-dipole field component was less significant (Oda et al., 2000; Mochizuki
292 et al., 2011; Simon et al., 2019).

293

294 Note that most of the sediment section contains samples from the polarity transition. The data
295 shows that the magnetic field was already unstable for our oldest sample in reversed polarity.
296 This observation goes well with Haneda et al. (2020), where they show the magnetic pole was
297 unstable a long time before the reversal boundary (Fig. 7b), and the magnetic field started to
298 fluctuate almost 20 kyr before the actual transition (Fig. 11). We think that our data illustrate
299 the same instability, and this is why no paleomagnetic samples have VGP latitudes that deviate
300 less than 25° from the reversed position. We provide a more detailed explanation of the reversed

301 VGP behavior in our data showing reversed polarity unrest well before the actual magnetic
302 reversal.

303

304 *4.1. Precursor Event*

305 Valet et al. (2012) showed a 90° change in VGP during reversed polarity before the transition
306 (Fig. 7c). According to this model, the precursor prior to the magnetic reversal has a 2.5 kyr
307 duration, and it occurs ~3.5 kyr before the actual transition (mid-point) which has a 1 kyr
308 duration (Fig. 7c). The model showed another 90° change as the rebound with 2.5 kyr duration
309 after the transition (Fig. 7c). Sagnotti et al. (2014) reported Valet et al. (2012)'s precursor with
310 140° change in VGP, 0.7 kyr duration, and 5 kyr prior to the actual transition. In our VGP data
311 (Fig. 7a), ~75° change between 13.6 and 11.8 cm depth shows 2.6 ± 0.2 kyr duration (according
312 to 0.7 ± 0.2 cm/kyr average sedimentation rate estimation) that can be interpreted as the
313 precursor of the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal. The pick point of the precursor (11.8
314 cm depth) is 4 ± 0.2 kyr before the actual transition (9.0 cm depth). The actual transition duration
315 is 0.6 ± 0.2 kyr between 9.2 and 8.8 cm. These values are consistent with Valet et al. (2012)'s
316 model and show the unique behavior of the Earth's magnetic field during the reversal time. The
317 rebound after the transition in the model is not seen in our study since VGP change between
318 7.1 and 3.2 cm is not enough to interpret it as the rebound.

319

320 *4.2. Sediment Deposition and Sedimentation Rate*

321 The M/B event has occurred during the interglacial period (MIS 19) following the glacial period
322 (MIS 20) (Cohen and Gibbard, 2019). In the case of the cave sediment, we see coarser grains
323 deeper (below 12 cm depth; Bed No. 2 in Fig. 3; Matuyama section) and finer grains at a
324 shallower depth. Since the cave sedimentation was taking place at the time of glaciation, the
325 cave itself was not frozen solid. This means that seasonal variation was inducing thaw-freeze

326 cycle that generally generates physical weathering and source of coarser sediment. This
327 phenomenon is observed in our cave. The change from glacial to interglacial is supported by
328 finer grain size sediment due to the smaller influence of the thaw-freeze cycle. Therefore, our
329 observations support frozen surface and later warming with smaller sediment availability for
330 sedimentation, supporting the transition from glacial to interglacial period.

331 According to Lundberg et al. (2014), the cave was filled with water during the sedimentation,
332 which was continuously active without any significant color change or hiatus with the exception
333 of a slight change towards finer grains. This provides the continuous magnetic record of the
334 reversal in the cave sediment and allows the sediment to acquire and keep the primary
335 magnetization without the possibility of secondary mineralization. Furthermore, there are no
336 obvious signs of breaks in deposition (e.g., lithological boundaries, desiccation cracks) in the
337 studied sediment section, other than a slight change in grain size.

338 Our sedimentation rate estimation (0.7 ± 0.2 cm/kyr) seems to be similar to the sediments from
339 other European cave studies (Table 2). While the duration of the M/B transition was reported
340 to last between 4 and 13 kyr (Suganuma et al., 2010; Valet et al., 2014; Okada et al., 2017), the
341 average sedimentation rate of 0.7 ± 0.2 cm/kyr in this study suggests a transition duration of
342 8.1 ± 0.2 kyr (7.1-12.8 cm transition section) and thus supports the reliability of our
343 sedimentation rate and paleomagnetic record estimates. King and Channell (1991) suggested
344 that large "lock-in" depths are associated with interparticle rigidity and strength, characteristic
345 of clayey low accumulation rate sediments (<1 cm/kyr), which results in delays of magnetic
346 acquisition. This shows that magnetic polarity reversal could have a large (25 kyr) apparent age
347 offset between sediments with high and very low accumulation rates (King and Channell,
348 1991).

349

350

351 **5. Conclusions**

352 We compared our paleomagnetic data with the published magnetic reversal record, used the
353 detailed magnetic characteristic of the cave sediment, and inferred the specific magnetic
354 reversal (Matuyama-Brunhes). This is possible due to the nature of the magnetic reversal. Note
355 that the paleopole was residing east of Africa and then quickly reappeared west of North
356 America. We consider this an important marker signature for dating the central European
357 paleomagnetic record from this time period.

358 The precursor event in our data is a significant anomaly to identify the behavior of the
359 Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal. Additionally, we were able to estimate the accumulation
360 rate of the studied section (~35 cm) in the Za Hajovnou cave.

361

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368

369 **Author contributions**

370 HU and GK designed research and wrote the paper, JK contributed to the fieldwork, gave
371 detailed information about the cave sediment, and commented significantly.

372

373 **Data Availability Statement**

374 All data are incorporated into the article and its online supplementary material.

375

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534

535 **List of Figure/Table Captions**

536 **Fig. 1.** Location of the study area in (a) Central Europe, (b) in the Czech Republic. Map in (c)
537 shows regional detail of the Za Hajovnou cave placement (modified after Lundberg et al., 2014;
538 Musil, 2014).

539 **Fig. 2.** Map of the Za Hajovnou cave (modified after Kadlec et al., 2014; Lundberg et al., 2014;
540 Musil, 2014) (m a.s.l.: meter above sea level).

541 **Fig. 3.** The Za Hajovnou cave sediments. (a) Age diagram of the Za Hajovnou cave, (b) sampled
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545 **Fig. 4.** Changes of magnetization directions on the Zijdeveld diagram and Wulf stereonet
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547 Supporting Information Figs S2 for all other samples); (a) normal polarity from the Brunhes
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549 **Fig. 5.** MAD changes during the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal (a) from this data, (b,c)
550 from published studies in cave and other types of sediments, respectively. Note: MAD values

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553 **Fig. 6.** Comparisons of inclination and declination data with previous studies. Data shows
554 inclination (a) from this study, (b-d) from published studies in cave, marine, and other types of
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556 cave, marine, and other types of sediments. (i) shows intensity of ChRM of the samples from
557 this study. Note: declination data from Giaccio et al. (2013) and Liu et al. (2016) are not
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565 **Fig. 9.** High Temperature Magnetic Susceptibility measurement results (χ : mass normalized
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567 **Fig. 10.** Acquisition (purple dots) and AF demagnetization (black dots) of IRM results of the
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569 **Fig. 11.** NRM/ARM data (relative paleointensity (RPI)) from Haneda et al. (2020). Dashed
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571 **Table 1.** AF demagnetization, VGP data, and the Matuyama-Brunhes magnetic reversal scale
572 for this study. Minus (-) values for VGP latitudes and longitudes indicate the southern and
573 western hemispheres. MAD: maximum angular deviation, ϕ_p : VGP latitude, λ_p : VGP longitude.

574 **Table 2.** Sedimentation rate estimations for Za Hajovnou from the previous studies.

575

576 **Supporting Information**

577 Supplementary data are available online.

578 Supporting Information Tables S1: Demagnetization data for the samples.

579 Supporting Information Figures S2: Zijderveld diagrams, Wulf stereonets, and demagnetization
580 curves of the rest of the samples for the AF demagnetization method.

581 Supporting Information Figures S3: NRM intensity, MDF values, and VRM data