

The earthquake sedimentary record in the Western part of the Sea of Marmara, Turkey

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Abstract

The submarine part of the North Anatolian Fault (NAF) is a very significant hazard for the 12 million people living in Istanbul (Turkey). An accurate seismic risk assessment necessitates paleoseismological data, which can be retrieved in the Marmara Sea by using sedimentary cores. Here a record of turbidites was obtained in five cores spanning the Tekirdağ Basin, the Western High and the Central Basin linked by the Tekirdağ Fault Segment. The turbidites are synchronous at different sites across the two basins and through the structural high pointing to shaking by earthquakes as a triggering mechanism. In particular the M=7.4 1912 Mürefte earthquake left a distinctive sedimentary imprint in all the studied cores. Radiocarbon dating implies a turbidite recurrence interval of about 300 years. The low number of seismoturbidites documented in the Central Basin compare to the Tekirdağ Basin suggests quasi-synchronous ruptures of the Tekirdağ Segment and the adjacent Central Segment of the NAF or a partial seismic slip on the Central Segment. Both scenarios have implications regarding seismic hazard. Finally though we obtained a paleoseismological record of the ruptures along the Tekirdağ Segment, further chronological constraints are needed to better date the events and to confirm the completeness of the obtained record.

Introduction

Hazard risk assessment for populations living in tectonically active areas can be improved using paleoseismology, by building an extended database of major earthquakes and earthquake recurrence time (Fraser et al., 2010). Even though most studies in this field of inquiry were historically based on on-land field work, e.g. in California, in Turkey, in Italy, in Himalayas, in Tibet (Dolan et al., 2003; Weldon et al., 2004; Galli et al., 2008; Kondo et al., 2008; Fraser et al., 2010; Klinger et al., 2011), recently interesting offshore studies appeared (Goldfinger et al., 2003a; Goldfinger, 2011). These studies use the identification of mass-wasting deposits triggered by large earthquakes to obtain records of events over 1000s of years (McHugh et al., 2006; Beck et al., 2007). Mass-wasting deposits related

1 Settings

28 to earthquakes have a specific signature and can be distinguished from other deposits emplaced by
29 hyperpycnal flow, wave storm loading among others (Gorsline et al., 2000; Nakajima and Kanai, 2000;
30 Shiki et al., 2000; Beck et al., 2007). Earthquake triggered turbidites may mobilise 5 to 10 times
31 the sediment volume of classical turbidites (Gorsline et al., 2000) and usually show liquefaction or
32 flaser bedding structures (Beck et al., 2007). Their granulometric signature reflects a high energy
33 transportation mechanism forming a mass flow and a very large suspension cloud (Shiki et al., 2000).
34 As a result seismoturbidites have a sharp and wavy erosional base (Shiki et al., 2000), and can be
35 divided into a basal sand sublayer and a thick silt sublayer characterized by a poor size grading and
36 coeval deposition of sand, silt and clay particles (Nakajima and Kanai, 2000; Shiki et al., 2000).

37 In this paper, we study the turbiditic sedimentation in the Marmara Sea, which is crossed by the
38 North Anatolian Fault, a major active strike-slip fault rupturing in $M \geq 7$ earthquakes. The presence
39 of the urban area of Istanbul on its shoulder, where about 12 M people live, makes this region a major
40 spot for seismic hazard studies. We identified turbiditic deposits in five 3 to 4 m long cores which
41 sample its different basins and highs. We then use global sedimentological changes to correlate the
42 different cores and to characterize the general depositional pattern in the Marmara Sea. Radiogenic
43 lead data allow us to discriminate the turbidites triggered by the 1912 earthquake. The granulometric
44 characteristics of the other turbidites, their lateral extent and the synchronicity of proximal and distal
45 deposits are used to infer a seismic trigger. Finally, we discuss the paleoseismological implication of
46 the identified seismoturbidites.

47 1 Settings

48 1.1 Tectonic setting

49 The North Anatolian Fault (NAF) is a 1500 km long dextral strike slip fault accommodating the
50 westward extrusion of the Anatolian Plate (Barka and Kadinsky-Cade, 1988; Sengör et al., 2005). In
51 the Marmara Sea area, the NAF separates into branches spreading out the deformation over a width
52 of 130 km (Barka and Kadinsky-Cade, 1988). The northern branch of the NAF accommodates most
53 of the deformation (McClusky et al., 2003) and runs across the 170 km long Marmara Sea.

54 The Marmara Sea is composed of three aligned marine pull apart basins reaching a maximum water
55 depth of 1250 m (Le Pichon et al., 2001; Armijo et al., 2002; Sarı and Çağatay, 2006). From West to
56 East the basins are called Tekirdağ, Central and Çınarcık. They are respectively associated with the
57 present active Tekirdağ, Central and Çınarcık Fault Segments (Fig. 1). The different faults segments

1.2 The historical earthquake record

58 and the related basins have been imaged by seismic reflection and refraction profiles (Seeber et al.,
59 2006; Carton et al., 2007; Bécel et al., 2009) and modelled (Hubert-Ferrari et al., 2000; Muller and
60 Aydin, 2005). The basins are separated by two topographic ridges: the Western High and Central
61 High with a respective water depth of 700 m and 900 m (Le Pichon et al., 2001; Armijo et al., 2005).
62 The basins are sensitive to mass-wasting events triggered by major earthquakes rupturing the fault
63 strand, which crosses them (McHugh et al., 2006; Sari and Çağatay, 2006; Beck et al., 2007).

64

65 1.2 The historical earthquake record

66 The northern branch of the NAF in the Marmara Sea is a major active fault characterized by a GPS
67 based right-lateral slip rate about 20 mm/yr (McClusky et al., 2003). The resulting accumulated
68 stresses are episodically released by major and destructive earthquakes recorded in history over 2000
69 years (Ambraseys, 2002). During the 20th century, the 1912 M = 7.4 Mürefte earthquake ruptured the
70 Ganos Segment located West of the Marmara Sea and probably also the offshore part of the Tekirdağ
71 Segment (Armijo et al., 2005; Aksoy et al., 2010). In 1999, the M= 7.4 Izmit earthquake took place
72 just east of the Marmara Sea (Hubert-Ferrari et al., 2000). Five other events with M>7 occurred
73 during the period from 1509 to 1900 (1719, 1754, 1766 May, 1766 August, 1894) (Fig. 1, Ambraseys
74 2002; Pondard et al. 2007). The historical record provides earthquake damage data restricted to the
75 onland borders of the Marmara Sea and cannot be used alone to determine the epicenters and surface
76 ruptures. Even recent earthquakes database do not provide routinely accurate earthquake epicenters
77 and foci locations (Örgülü, 2011). Finally, submarine scarps associated with past recent ruptures in
78 1912 and possibly in 1894 complement the seismological data set (Armijo et al., 2005; Pondard, 2006).

79 1.3 Previous sedimentological core studies in the Marmara Sea

80 The Marmara Sea connects the Black Sea to the Aegean Sea through the Bosphorus and Dardanelles
81 straits. Because of its particular geographic situation, it is highly sensitive to climatic and environ-
82 mental changes and was the focus of multiple sedimentological investigations (Çağatay et al., 2000;
83 Abrajano et al., 2002; Hiscott et al., 2002; Major et al., 2002; Mudie et al., 2002; Vidal et al., 2010).
84 A key issue for these studies is the understanding of the nature of the reconnection between the Black
85 Sea and the Mediterranean Sea (catastrophic Major et al. 2002; or progressive Çağatay et al. 2000;
86 Hiscott et al. 2002) ~ 9 kyr BP ago (Çağatay et al., 2000; Vidal et al., 2010).

87 Recent environmental changes related to anthropogenic disturbances were also identified. In partic-

2 Material

88 ular, pollen studies (Mudie et al., 2002) put forward the occurrence of a progressive deforestation
89 starting 4 kyr ago in the watershed surrounding the Marmara Sea. During the Beyşehir Occupation
90 Phase (ca. 1300 years BC to ca. AD 200–800 years; Eastwood et al. 1998) vegetation changes and land
91 degradation have been documented in the Lakes Manyas and Ulabat (Kazanci et al., 2004). In both
92 lakes, which are part of the Kocasu River, a major source of sediments for the Marmara Sea, higher
93 rates of sedimentation started around 2 kyr BP. In parallel a progressive increase in sedimentation
94 rate on the Marmara Southern Shelf occurred (Kazanci et al., 2004) at the same time as the formation
95 of the most recent sapropel, 4750-3500 14C years BP ago (Çağatay et al., 2000). Eris et al. (2007) also
96 suggested that the growth of the prodelta at the entrance of the Bosphorus was related to an increase
97 in sediment supply triggered by the clearing of forests in watersheds.

98 In addition to paleoclimatic investigations, paleoseismologic studies have recently used turbidites for
99 deciphering the earthquake history (McHugh et al., 2006; Sari and Çağatay, 2006; Beck et al., 2007).
100 Multi-proxy analyses were performed on cores coming from Central Basin (McHugh et al., 2006; Beck
101 et al., 2007) and Tekirdağ Basin (McHugh et al., 2006). Both authors conclude that: (1) significant
102 turbiditic deposition directly related to earthquake shaking occurs in the Marmara Basin (McHugh
103 et al., 2006; Beck et al., 2007), (2) basins' filling is mainly controlled by active faults (Uçarkuş, 2010)
104 and may document earthquake rupture along the associated fault segments (McHugh et al., 2006;
105 Beck et al., 2007), (3) seismoturbidites are associated with oscillating bottom currents (seiche) with
106 variable suspended load or bedload (Beck et al., 2007).

107 2 Material

108 The cores studied (Klg02 to Klg08) were collected in the Marmara Sea during the Marmascarps mission
109 in 2002 shortly after the 1999 M=7.4 Izmit earthquake (Armijo et al., 2005). The coring sites are
110 similar to locations of ROV short cores (Uçarkuş, 2010) and long cores studied in Beck et al. (2007),
111 Londeix et al. (2009), Vidal et al. (2010). The seven Kullenberg cores are 3.5 m to 4.5 m long (Table
112 1) and are distributed in specific areas along the fault (Fig. 1). They provide a link between very
113 short interface cores (ROV) and the very long cores of the Marion Dufresne Cruise in which upper
114 meters are often missing or strongly disturbed.

115 The Klg05 and Klg08 cores are situated 6 km apart in the southern part of the Tekirdağ Basin, along
116 the Tekirdağ Segment of the NAF, at the outlet of deep canyons (Fig. 1). Further east the Klg06
117 core samples the intersection between the Western High and the Tekirdağ Basin, and the Klg07 core
118 samples the intersection between the Central Basin and the Western High. These two cores lying 15

3 Methods

119 km apart are close to the Tekirdağ Segment. Klg02 is located in the inner part of the Central Basin
120 pull apart (Armijo et al., 1999) between the Tekirdağ and the Central Segments of the NAF. Klg03
121 and Klg04 sample the Çınarcık Basin. The paper focuses on the Klg02, Klg05, Klg06, Klg07 and
122 Klg08 cores, but the XRF-data obtained for the Klg04 core is presented here because it highlights
123 global sedimentary changes occurring across the whole Marmara Sea.

124 3 Methods

125 **Core processing, imaging and physical properties** The sedimentary facies observed in cores
126 were described first to provide a basic core log. The visual core description was based on colour,
127 bedding, sedimentary structures and disturbances, grain size distribution, texture, bioturbation and
128 fossil content. This description was refined by using X-ray radiograms, granulometric data, magnetic
129 susceptibility measurements and XRF-scanning data.

130 In the X-ray pictures (EPOC scopix system in Bordeaux 1 University), the grey scale is proportional
131 to the X-ray penetration into the core and to the sediment density, with sand being usually black and
132 clay light grey (Migeon et al., 1999). The X-ray imagery was particularly useful to identify all possible
133 sedimentary structures like laminated coarser episodes, low angle symmetric cross lamination, ball-
134 and-pillow structures, water-escape structures, displacements previously interpreted in sedimentary
135 cores sampling the Tekirdağ Basin as specific imprints of major earthquakes by Beck et al. (2007).

136 The magnetic susceptibility measurements were performed on the split cores using a bartington MS2E
137 sensor with 5 mm interval at room-temperature. The data provide a first-order identification of layers
138 enriched in coarse detrital material (Fe, Mg, Ti) which can characterize the base of turbidites (Butler,
139 1992; Tauxe, 2010). Microgranulometric analyses were performed on bulk sediment sub-samples from
140 u-channels at 10 mm intervals using a Malvern mastersizer 2000s. Percentage of clay, silt and sand
141 particles were computed as well as mode, median, mean, skewness and kurtosis indices (Folk, 1968).
142 The data help to characterize turbidites in term of depositional process (Pettijohn et al., 1987; Sperazza
143 et al., 2004).

144 **XRF** XRF data collected by X-ray fluorescence on an Avaatech XRF core scanner were used to
145 correlate cores between the basins and the Western High and to refine sedimentological and geochem-
146 ical processes associated with turbiditic deposition. The split-core sections were measured every 5mm
147 with energies of fluorescence radiation of 10 keV and 30 keV to reach a large spectra of elements
148 comprising Al, Si, S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Fe, Br, Pb, Rb, Sr, Zr. The elemental distributions initially

4 Results

expressed in counts per second, were standardized to get a better comparison of the variations of intensity through the different cores. As intensities are only a semi-quantitative measurement of the real elemental composition, we used ratios that provide the most easily interpretable signal of relative changes in chemical composition, and minimize the risk of drawing erroneous conclusions from XRF data (Palike et al., 2001; Vlag et al., 2004; Bahr et al., 2005). The Ca/Ti ratio was exploited because it represents autochthonous productivity in the Sea (Ca) with respect to terrigenous allochthonous input (Ti), and because it is considered as a reliable proxy in the nearby Black Sea environment (Bahr et al., 2005).

Age dating AMS ^{14}C dating was performed on foraminifers (planktonic and benthic), bulk sediment and on shells in AEON laboratories and ARTEMIS LMC14 laboratory in the LSCE, Orsay. Sediment accumulation rate for the last century was derived from profiles of excess ^{210}Pb activity ($^{210}Pb_{xs}$). ^{210}Pb and ^{226}Ra activities were measured using a semi-planar γ detector at EPOC in the University of Bordeaux 1 (Schmidt et al., 2009). Activities are expressed in $mBq.g^{-1}$ and errors are based on 1 standard deviation counting statistics. Excess ^{210}Pb was calculated by subtracting the activity supported by its parent isotope, ^{226}Ra , from the total ^{210}Pb activity in the sediment. Errors in $^{210}Pb_{xs}$ were calculated by propagation of errors in the corresponding pair (^{210}Pb and ^{226}Ra). The sedimentation rates were calculated from $^{210}Pb_{xs}$ profiles using the constant flux - constant sedimentation model (Robbins, 1978):

$$[^{210}Pb_{xs}]_z = [^{210}Pb_{xs}]_0 \exp\left(-z \frac{\lambda}{S}\right) \quad (1)$$

where $[^{210}Pb_{xs}]_{0,z}$, are the activities of excess ^{210}Pb at surface, or the base of the mixed layer, and depth z , λ the decay constant of ^{210}Pb ($\lambda = 0.0311 \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and S the sediment accumulation rate.

4 Results

4.1 Main features of sedimentation in the Marmara Sea

Visual inspection shows that all cores have a very uniform silty-clay lithology with few sandy laminations and rare gravelly layers containing numerous shells (indicated in red in the Figs. 4, 5, 6). The colour of the cores is predominantly olive green changing into dark grey with sandy laminations. X-ray imagery shows a succession of dark sub-layers that are progressively grading to greyer colour (Fig. 3 event e6 in Klg05) and in places to light grey colours (Fig. 3 event 4 in Klg02) defining what

4.1 Main features of sedimentation in the Marmara Sea

176 we call here a sedimentary event. The thickest dark layers correspond to sandy laminations and to
177 gravelly layers identified during visual inspection. The dark grey, grey to light grey sequences show
178 an important thickness range from 10 cm to more than 1 m thick. These sequences form about 80%
179 of the sedimentary record of cores located in deep basins (Klg02, Klg05 and Klg08). X-ray pictures
180 show detailed textural and structural changes in the three sublayers. Dark grey sublayers have a sharp
181 basal surface (Fig. 2: 263 cm), which can be wavy indicating erosion (Figs. 2, 3) and associated with
182 strong structural and cross disturbances (Figs. 2, 4). The overlying intermediate grey sublayer shows
183 numerous thin parallel laminations in greater concentration near its base (Fig. 3 events e3 and e4
184 in Klg02 and e6 in Klg05) that can be link to oscillating currents (Beck et al., 2007). The sequence
185 is capped by a light-grey sublayer with possible traces of bioturbation (Figs. 2, 3-Klg05). Similar
186 events were already described in the Marmara Sea by using X-ray images, and were interpreted as the
187 sedimentary rework of major earthquakes (McHugh et al., 2006; Beck et al., 2007).

188 Grain size measurements are similar for all cores with a dominance of silt-sized particles. Sieving shows
189 that silt-sized particles are a mixture of mineral grains, different kind of shells including foraminifers,
190 marine and terrestrial organic material among others. A systematic trend is observed in the upper
191 part of cores characterized by a progressive increase in the percentage of silt-sized particles and a
192 coeval decrease in the percentage of clay-sized particles (Fig. 2). All cores show multiple fine-grained
193 sand deposits which systematically match with the dark sublayers identified in X-ray imagery and
194 with high values in magnetic susceptibility, χ (Fig. 4, 5). In the overlying grey sublayer, silt usually
195 reaches a maximum just above the sand layer and, slowly decreases upward to a minimum or stays
196 nearly constant. The top light grey sublayer shows a relative increase in clay compared to silt. We
197 thus interpret sedimentary events composed of (1) a basal sandy sublayer possibly erosive, (2) an
198 intermediate laminated silt sublayer overlain by (3) an upper clayey silt sublayer with some bioturba-
199 tion as major turbidites. We also identify in the cores very thin sand lamina that could correspond
200 to minor turbidites. They typically have less than half of the volume of the smallest major turbidite
201 identified in the same core.

202 To constrain the depositional pattern of the major turbidites, their textural characteristics are ac-
203 cessed by computing distribution parameters like mean, sorting, skewness, kurtosis (Folk 1968; Fig.
204 3 e6-Klg05 and e4-Klg02). Major sandy turbidites have the following characteristics. (1) the basal
205 layer of the turbidites often shows multiple pulses, (2) grain size change between the sand and the silt
206 sublayers is abrupt, (3) change in grain size, sorting and skewness can also be abrupt in the silt and
207 clayey silt sublayers, whereas the decrease in kurtosis is generally gradual. The top clay-rich part of

4.2 Specific features of each site

208 the turbidite is marked by a minima in sorting and a skewness around zero.
209 The major turbidites have also a distinct XRF signature. They typically show a local increase in
210 zirconium (Zr) content (Figs. 2-b, 4). The sand sublayers are characterized by a decrease in bromine
211 (Br) content whereas a relative increase in titanium (Ti) is observed in both the underlying sandy and
212 silt-rich sublayers. Manganese (Mn) shows a sharp increase just below the basal sandy sublayer. The
213 transition to the hemipelagic sedimentation is marked by a rising until a maximum in K, Ca or in
214 Ca/Ti ratio. These elements do occur in proportion in the hemipelagic sedimentation (Fig. 8). Minor
215 turbidites do not have a noteworthy XRF signature.
216 The stratigraphic logs of cores presented in Figs. 4, 5, 6 show the X-ray intensities, the magnetic
217 susceptibility, the granulometric measurements and XRF data. The dark Zr enriched sand base, the
218 laminated grey silt sublayer and the clayey silt top sublayers are shown with different grey scale
219 colours, and labelled downward from the top of the core. Minor turbidites are not labelled.

220 4.2 Specific features of each site

221 In the Tekirdağ Basin, the 350 cm long sedimentary record of the core Klğ05 (Fig. 4) shows ten
222 major turbidites. Sedimentary events are characterized by (1) a sharp sand sublayer with χ and/or Zr
223 peaks overlain by lamina, (2) an increase in Ti content in the basal and silt sublayers, (3) a Mn peak
224 beneath the basal sand. Standing alone thin sandy layers are interpreted as minor turbidites. The
225 largest turbidites labelled e5 and e6 at 160 cm and 233 cm depth have a gravelly base and a respective
226 thickness of 55 cm and 70 cm (zoom pictures on Fig. 4). To assess the depositional pattern of these
227 turbidites, distribution parameters (mean, sorting, skewness, kurtosis) are calculated and divided in
228 layers labelled I, II, III and IV (Fig. 3). Above the gravelly base event e5 shows successively two
229 sandy peaks, an inverse grading in the silty sublayer (mean size in phi decreases in Fig. 3) followed by
230 an abrupt change in mean-sorting indexes then by normal grading. In event e6 the two basal sandy
231 peaks (I in Fig. 3) are overlain by a first fining upward sublayer with gradually increasing sorting and
232 decreasing skewness (layer II). Layer II is capped by additional sublayers with nearly constant mean,
233 skewness and sorting separated by an abrupt change (III and IV in Fig. 3). In the sorting-skewness
234 diagram, grain size evolves gradually towards smaller skewness and better sorting values, but with dis-
235 tinctive groups representing the different sublayers. The geochemical evolution of the two turbidites
236 also show coeval changes with the granulometry (Fig. 3). K intensity shows a gradual evolution
237 through the turbidite similar to the kurtosis index and might reflect a relative increase in illite in the
238 grain assemblage. The characteristics of events 5 and 6, in particular non-gradual changes in grain

4.2 Specific features of each site

size and the two coarser basal pulses, are representative of other major turbidites recorded Klg05.

In the inner part of the Central Basin, the core Klg02 shows eleven major turbidites (Fig. 5), which display a greater diversity regarding their geochemistry and textural patterns than in Klg05. The observed diversity may reflect a larger variability in the emplacement and in the sources of turbidites in the inner Central Basin compared to the Tekirdağ Basin. Our identification of major turbidites was based on disturbances identified in the X-Ray images combined with granulometric and geochemical data suggesting sudden detrital input. Like in Klg05 there are two large turbidites labelled e3 and e4 occurring at 150 cm and 205 cm depth with a respective thickness of 70 cm and 50 cm. The shallowest e3 turbidite presents a gravelly base associated with a strong χ peak (layer I in Fig. 3 and Fig. 5). The overlying deposit shows a gradual decrease in χ with two distinct phases. The silty sublayer (labelled II in Fig. 3) shows small variations in mean and in sorting without trend except at the boundary of the overlying clayey-silt sublayer characterized by step changes in all parameters. This top layer (III in Fig. 3) is characterized by increasing sorting and a constant mean grain-size. The other large event e4 has a sandy base with multiple laminations (I in Fig. 3) and a strong χ peak. The overlying layers II and III present an atypical very low χ with very little geochemical changes (see Fe/Ca in Fig. 3) and are similar to homogenites documented by Bertrand et al. (2008). Above the basal laminated layer kurtosis and mean do not change significantly whereas skewness and sorting have similar but very gradual evolutions. In the sorting–skewness diagram, the data is similar to the e6 turbidite in Klg05 with a gradual evolution toward better sorting values and smaller skewness except at the top.

In the Western High, the granulometric trends in Klg06 and Klg07 cores differ from the cores in the basins (Fig. 6). Sand size particles are less than 1% with few peaks. The major part of the signal comes from the silt-sized particles profile, which is between 94% and 90%. We focus on the top 80 cm of the cores in figure 6 but complete data are included in the Supplemental Data.

In Klg06 we identified eight silt turbidites in the X-ray imagery that correspond to a punctual upward increase in grain size capped by a relative increase in clay (Fig. 6). The layers are associated with manganese peaks, and an increase in Ti/Al ratio. The two thickest and most distinctive silt turbidites labelled e5 and e7 are recorded at depth of 58 cm and 85 cm. The e5 turbidite has the largest sand peak and e7 is associated with the only distinct magnetic susceptibility peak in the core. Both turbidites have a strong XRF signature characterized by an increase in the Ti/Al ratio in the main body and a marked increase in manganese content beneath.

In the core Klg07, ten fine grained turbidites were recognised. These turbidites are thin and are identified based on faint disturbances in the X-ray imagery, grain-size changes, χ peaks and geochemical

4.3 Age constraints

spikes in Zr, Sr/Ca and Mn (Fig. 6). Four turbidites labelled e1, e5, e8 and e9 at 10 cm, 32 cm, 58 cm and 69 cm in depth have a sandy base. Events e5 and e8 correspond to the largest events and show zirconium, manganese and magnetic susceptibility peaks.

4.3 Age constraints

4.3.1 Excess $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ activities

The age of sediments in the first 20 to 50 cm of all cores was constrained by using unsupported lead data. Excess ^{210}Pb activities for each core are consistent with the activities of the nearby ROV cores recovered during the same cruise (Fig. 7). In the first 10 cm of cores Klg05, Klg08 and Klg06, $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ activities present an exponential decay with increasing depth with no evidence of reworking, as confirmed by X-ray imagery. The limited shift between ROV and Klg profiles indicates a moderate loss of surface sediment up to 6 cm for Klg08 during coring. The ^{210}Pb derived sedimentation rates are 0.23 cm.yr⁻¹ for Tekirdağ Basin (Klg08 and Klg05), 0.12 cm.yr⁻¹ for Western High (Klg06). These rates are interpreted to represent steady hemipelagic sedimentation rates.

The uppermost section of the cores Klg02 and Klg07 shows constant $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ activities in an inferred mixed layer. In core Klg02, the 35 cm thick mixed layer is identical to the ^{210}Pb trend in the nearby core C4 studied in [McHugh et al. \(2006\)](#) (Fig. 1) and is associated with two thin sandy turbidites visible in the X-ray imagery and in the granulometric data. We have no explanation for the origin of this mixed layer.

In core Klg07, the mixed layer is only 5 cm thick. In the nearby 20 cm long core collected using a ROV, there is no mixed layer that suggests that it is a coring artefact. Below the mixed layer, ^{210}Pb activity shows a rapid exponential decay with depth. The inferred background hemipelagic sedimentation rate is 0.15 cm.yr⁻¹ in Klg02 (Central Basin) and is 0.10 cm.yr⁻¹ in Klg07 (Western High) similar to the Klg06 rate.

4.3.2 Radiocarbon age dating

Radiocarbon age dating shows globally a large disparity depending on the material used (shells, bulk sediment and foraminifers) (Table 2). Ages calculated from shells in cores Klg05, Klg08 and Klg06 generally overestimate the expected age of the host sediment, and indicate significant reworking and external sedimentary supply from the shelf associated with turbiditic deposition. Ages of bulk sediments (TOC and TIC) are also too old and are not further discussed. Ages obtained from both planktonic and benthic foraminifers extracted on the top of turbiditic events are the most reliable and

5 Interpretation

301 thus form the basis for our chronology.

302 Planktonic foraminifers were obtained in sufficient abundance to be dated only at a few locations, so
303 benthic foraminifers were also dated. To further constrain our age model, we correlate our records
304 with nearby published sedimentary cores. In the Western High, by comparing the Klg06 core to the
305 core MD2430 studied by [Vidal et al. \(2010\)](#), the Younger Dryas transition would be below the core
306 bottom which is in agreement with the obtained uncalibrated age of 6880 yr BP at the core bottom.
307 The Klg07 core also in the Western High has magnetic susceptibility measurements similar to the core
308 MD2430, and uncalibrated radiocarbon ages of 2500 yr BP at 61 cm depth, 4815 yr BP at 212 cm
309 depth and 7875 yr BP at 297 cm depth compatible with the age model of the MD2430 core (Fig. 14
310 in the appendices; [Vidal et al. 2010](#)). The Klg05 and Klg02 cores in the basins can be correlated to
311 the C4 and C8 cores of [McHugh et al. \(2006\)](#). In Klg05, the uncalibrated ages of 1090 yr BP at 48
312 cm depth, 1735 yr BP at 167 cm depth and 2185 yr BP at 250 cm depth agree with the 14C-age of
313 1320 yr BP at 55 cm depth and 1460 yr BP at 65 cm depth in core C4 (Fig. 15 in the appendices;
314 [McHugh et al. 2006](#)). The Klg08 core has 14-C ages of 2880 yr BP at 73 cm depth, 4670 yr BP at
315 145 cm depth and 12770 yr BP at 335 cm depth (Fig. 11).

316 The longest records spanning 6000 to 12000 years are reached in the Western High, and on the uplifted
317 side of the NAF in the Tekirdağ Basin. In the Tekirdağ and Central Basins, we have a sedimentary
318 record lasting 3000 to 4000 years.

319 5 Interpretation

320 5.1 Variations in sedimentation pattern in the Marmara Sea

321 The correlation of the Klg02 to Klg08 cores across the whole Marmara Sea was done combining gran-
322 ulometry, Ca/Ti ratio, Ti, Pb, Br and Sr intensities with the obtained chronological data. Marked
323 geochemical and granulometric variations are used as chronological markers and are tentatively inter-
324 preted as global changes in the sedimentation pattern of the Marmara Sea related to anthropogenic
325 disturbances.

326 The cores Klg07 and Klg08 covering the longest time frame show similar Ca/Ti variations (Fig. 8-part
327 a). Based on radiocarbon dating and χ measurements the Klg07 core can also be related to the core
328 MD2430 studied in [Vidal et al. \(2010\)](#) (Fig. 14 in the appendices). The base of Klg07 is characterized
329 by high χ and was deposited at the end of the glacial period (Fig. 14 in the appendices). Between 2
330 and 3 m depth, deposits in Klg07 characterized by relatively high calcium over titanium ratio corre-

5.1 Variations in sedimentation pattern in the Marmara Sea

331 spond to organic-rich deposits occurring from 11.5 kyr BP to 7 kyr BP (Çağatay et al., 2000; Vidal
332 et al., 2010). We found a similar high Ca/Ti ratio in Klg08 at 1.6 m. At shallower depths, there
333 is a distinctive thin layer marked by a minimum in Ca/Ti ratio in cores Klg08, Klg07, Klg06 and
334 Klg04 (red layer in Fig. 8-part a). This layer has a particular geochemical signature characterized by
335 an anomalous Rb peak in Klg08, Klg06 and Klg04, associated with high Zr and low Ca intensities.
336 This anomalous marker present from the Tekirdağ Basin to the Çınarcık Basin is interpreted as a key
337 correlation marker of unknown origin. At shallower depth there is another correlative layer with a
338 high Ca/Ti ratio (yellow upper layer in Fig. 8-part a). In the uppermost part of the core section, the
339 Ca/Ti curves still present high variations that are used to correlate laterally the different cores.
340 Pb, Sr, Br and Ti intensities as well as grain size also show correlative downcore variations. These
341 variations are illustrated in Fig. 8-part b using the core Klg04 in Çınarcık Basin and the cores Klg06
342 and Klg07 in the Western High. The upper part of all granulometric profiles show an upward decrease
343 in clay-sized particles coeval to an increase in silt-sized particles. The grain size increase is coeval with
344 a step increase in lead and titanium. These recent sedimentological changes point to an increase in the
345 allochthonous terrigenous input in the Marmara Sea. Radiocarbon dating indicates that this increase
346 started around 1200 cal yr BC. These changes thus occurred during the so-called Beyşehir occupation
347 phase (BOP, Eastwood et al. 1998), which was documented in Lake Manyas along the southern shore
348 of the Marmara Sea (Kazancı et al., 2004). The phase is characterized by forest clearance, crop culti-
349 vation and arboriculture (Van Zeist et al., 1975; Bottema and Woldring, 1994). These modifications
350 in the vegetation cover have triggered high sedimentation rates in lakes and in the southern shelf of
351 the Marmara Sea (Kazancı et al., 2004). Since that time the anthropogenic activity in the watershed
352 of the Marmara Sea has continuously increased. Istanbul (Byzantium) and other major Roman Cities
353 on the Marmara shores started developing around 600 BC and expanded when Byzantium became the
354 Capital of the Roman Empire in 300 AD. The correlative geochemical and granulometric variations
355 in Fig. 8-part b are interpreted as related to the anthropogenic modifications of Marmara watershed.
356 An additional argument supporting this inference is that the observed changes are traceable in the
357 three basins of the Marmara Sea as well as in the Western High.
358 The correlation of cores Klg02 and Klg05 in deep depocenters with other cores is more difficult due to
359 the occurrence of two thick turbidites layers which distort the signal. The step increase in lead related
360 to the BOP can still be identified in both cores as well as correlable variations in Ca/Ti ratio, Br, Ti,
361 Sr intensities (Fig. 8-part c).
362 The correlable variations of Ca/Ti ratio, Pb, Br, Ti, Sr intensities and granulometry in different cores

5.2 Depositional pattern and sedimentation rates in the different basins and high

363 are used as chronological markers and allow looking at the synchronicity of identified events. The
364 correlation of the different cores based on XRF matching for all the studied cores is presented in Fig.
365 10. This correlation is used to derive the results presented in the following sections.

366 5.2 Depositional pattern and sedimentation rates in the different basins and high

367 The correlation of the Klg cores spanning the two main sedimentary basins of the Marmara Sea and
368 its Western High allows drawing conclusions regarding the depositional pattern.

369 Radiogenic lead data provide a consistent picture of the rate of hemipelagic sedimentation in the east-
370 ern and central part of the Marmara Sea. The rates are higher in the basins than on adjacent ridges.
371 The highest value obtained in the Tekirdağ Basin is consistent with the rapid subsidence of the basin
372 near the fault strand described in [Seeber et al. \(2004\)](#), and with specific locations of the cores Klg05
373 and Klg08 near the basin margins providing continuous terrigenous input.

374 The mean sedimentation rate can also be inferred since the beginning of the Beyşehir occupation
375 phase marked by a step increase in lead at 1200 cal. yr BC, 2.85 m and 3 m of cumulated sediments
376 have been deposited in the Tekirdağ Basin at the location of Klg05 and in the Central Basin at the
377 location of Klg02. The average sedimentation is around 0.09 cm/yr and is dominated by turbiditic
378 deposits representing about 80% of the sediments. The hemipelagic sedimentation rate cannot be
379 extrapolated to obtain meaningful results by removing turbidite thickness. Most turbidites have an
380 erosive base visible in the X-Ray images. Their emplacement in the basins is thus associated with
381 efficient sedimentary remobilization characterized by sea floor erosion and incorporation of a signif-
382 icant part of the contemporary sea floor. An extreme case is Klg08 core located at the foot of the
383 Tekirdağ slope like Klg05 but on the hanging wall of the Tekirdağ Fault. The hemipelagic rates at the
384 Klg08 and Klg05 sites are similar, but the mean sedimentation rate in Klg08 is more than three time
385 lower than in Klg05. Turbidites are highly erosive at the Klg08 site and are deposited preferentially
386 further north on the down-thrown side of the fault, a local topographic low repeatedly created by
387 earthquake rupture along the Tekirdağ Fault. A similar conclusion was reached by [Beck et al. \(2007\)](#)
388 in the Central Basin.

389 In the Western High, the mean sedimentation rates of cores Klg06 and Klg07 are three times lower
390 than in the Tekirdağ Basin during the period characterized by high lead intensities starting respec-
391 tively at the depth of 1.2 m and 0.8 m (Fig. 8-part b). This is in agreement with the lower hemipelagic
392 rate and the thin fine-grained turbidites deposits.

393 Finally, the two consecutive thick turbidites recorded both in the Tekirdağ and the Central Basin

5.3 Turbidites triggered by the 1912 historical earthquake

394 are anomalously large compare to the other turbidites identified and are reminiscent of the homogen-
395 ites deposited in the lower (pre-Holocene) lacustrine sequence during a period of high terrigenous
396 accumulation rates on the edges of the Marmara Sea (Beck et al., 2007). The occurrence of these
397 thick turbidites suggests a temporary increase in terrigenous sediment supply that would occur after
398 the Beyşehir occupation phase. Once a significant part of the forest cover has been removed and
399 that large scale urbanisation started, erosion and increased sedimentary transport occurred in the
400 Marmara watersheds. Sediment supply to the Marmara shelves thus increased and larger turbidites
401 were deposited. As the watershed adjusted to the changed environment, sediment supply gradually
402 decreased, and thinner turbidites were deposited. These inferences suggest that the thickness of tur-
403 bidites in the Marmara Sea is controlled by the amount of cumulated unstable sediments on slopes
404 between earthquakes as well as by the strength of earthquake shaking.

405 5.3 Turbidites triggered by the 1912 historical earthquake

406 The $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ data provide a chronology of the most recent sedimentary events and thus, allow charac-
407 terizing turbidites triggered by the 1912 M=7.4 Mürefte earthquake.

408 The rupture associated with the 1912 earthquake was documented onland west of the Marmara Sea
409 (Rockwell et al., 2009; Aksoy et al., 2010) and offshore on the Tekirdağ Fault (Armijo et al., 2005;
410 Aksoy et al., 2010). Figure 7 indicates that the most recent mass wasting event called e1 recorded
411 in cores Klg02, Klg05, Klg08, Klg06, Klg07 occurs at a depth where $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ levels reach minimal
412 meaningful values (10 to 20 mBq.g^{-1}). Considering the interface $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ activities of nearby ROV
413 (140 to 170 mBq.g^{-1}), and its half-life of 22.3 years, the low values of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{xs}$ just above the level of
414 the most recent mass-wasting event would occur 4-5 half-lives or 80 to 100 years. The most recent
415 turbidites in the Tekirdağ Basin and in the Western High are thus interpreted to be related to the
416 1912 earthquake.

417 The 1912 turbidite in Klg05 and Klg08 cores has two basal sandy layers, which is a characteristic
418 of turbidites deposited at the Klg05 site in the Tekirdağ Basin. The earthquake has also left a sedi-
419 mentary imprint in the Central Basin, which suggests that the rupture of the Tekirdağ Segment can
420 generate turbidites in the Central Basin. This implies that the two different depocenters of the Mar-
421 mara Sea, which are the Tekirdağ and the Central Basins, may have the potential to record the same
422 large magnitude earthquake.

5.4 Origin of turbidites

The most recent turbidite in the studied cores have been generated by the 1912 earthquake, and one can wonder if other identified turbidites have a seismic origin. Sediment gravity flows can be produced by a wealth of other processes like storm, wave loading, tsunamis, and sediment loading (Adams, 1990; Goldfinger et al., 2003b). Seismoturbidites have often particular sedimentological imprints like multiple coarse bases indicating multiple sources (Nakajima and Kanai, 2000; Goldfinger et al., 2008), complex laminations (Shiki et al., 2000; McHugh et al., 2011), flaser beds which are tractive current-induced structures that can be related to seiche motion (Beck et al., 2007), erosional contacts, grain-size breaks and abrupt changes in sedimentary structure (Nakajima and Kanai, 2000; Shiki et al., 2000). They can also have a particular geochemical imprint (Nakajima and Kanai, 2000) with an increase in terrigenous sediment content (McHugh et al., 2011). These criteria are met for all turbidites in Klg05 and most in Klg02 (see section 4.2). The two coarser basal pulses observed in majority of turbidites in Klg05 are probably related to flow through separate channels that amalgamate at the site located near the base of the basin slope. However, as stated by Masson et al. (2011) it is difficult based on sedimentological criteria alone to recognise without ambiguity seismically-generated turbidites. Another key test, commonly used in paleoseismology, is to check the synchronicity of the documented events at different sites within a given structural setting (Goldfinger, 2011). In the following, the synchronicity test is applied to the Kullenberg and the published cores. The test relies on the core correlation obtained by using lithological descriptions, χ , XRF, granulometric data, radiocarbon and ^{210}Pb dating.

In the Tekirdağ Basin, Klg05 was compared to 1) the C8 core (McHugh et al., 2006) located 3 km north, 2) the Klg08 core located 6 km west, 3) the MAR97-02 (Hiscott et al., 2002) located 6.6 km north, and 4) the MD2432 located 6.7 km west (Fig. 1). The 110 cm long C8 core is too short to sample the deep thick turbidites, nevertheless there is still a tie between the cores (Fig. 15 in the appendices). The comparison between Klg05 and Klg08 is not straightforward because of the highly compressed sedimentary record of Klg08 (Fig. 11 and 15 in appendices), but there is still a clear correspondence between event 4 (56 cm) in Klg08 and event 4 (100 cm) in Klg05 and between event 2 (41 cm) in Klg08 and event 2 (48 cm) in Klg05 (Fig. 15). At greater depth, the two main amalgamated turbidites around 70 cm depth in the core Klg08 correspond to the two largest turbidites (events 5 and 6) in Klg05. They show multiple pulses and erosional cut-outs that suggest seismic triggering (Nakajima and Kanai, 2000; Shiki et al., 2000). Due to the lack of high resolution data the comparison with MAR97-02 core (Hiscott and Aksu, 2002) is difficult. Nonetheless this core, located 6.5 km to

5.4 Origin of turbidites

455 the north (Fig. 1), presents two coarser intervals at 70-110 cm and 140-185 cm depths that could
456 correspond to the two large events e5 and e6 documented in Klg05 (Fig.15 in the appendices). In
457 addition, radiocarbon ages dating are identical for the e5 turbidite and for the coarser layer at 70-110
458 cm in the MAR97-02. Finally, the MD2432 core can be correlated to the Klg05 core based on the χ
459 measurement. Density data also indicate turbiditic events that would correspond to events 3 to 6 in
460 Klg05.

461 In the Western High, fine-grained turbidites recorded in cores Klg06 and Klg07, 15 km apart, can be
462 easily related because they have similar geochemical profiles (Fig. 8). In both cores, almost a one-to-
463 one correspondence between turbidites is recorded. The two largest turbidites e5 and e8-e7 in Klg06
464 and Klg07 are correlative and are marked by a distinctive strong terrigenous signature in sand, Zr, χ
465 (Figs. 6 and 15). Silty turbidites in the Western High are dissimilar to the slump-induced turbidites
466 present in the Tekirdağ and Central Basins, but they can have a common seismic origin. Indeed, $M > 7$
467 earthquakes on the Tekirdağ Segment can trigger sandy turbidity currents in the basin and a muddy
468 suspension cloud, which would deposit a very fine-grained distal turbidite layer in the High (Inouchi
469 et al., 1996; Shiki et al., 2000). So our final test is to look if sandy turbidites in the Tekirdağ Basin
470 are synchronous with silty turbidites in the Western High (Fig. 10). The XRF correlation implies
471 that the two largest turbidites e5 and e6 in Klg05 correspond to the distinctive distal turbidites e5
472 and e8-e7 in Klg06 and in Klg07 on the Western High marked by sand, Zr, χ peaks. Furthermore, a
473 similar number of turbidites are identified in cores above the time horizon underlined in red in Fig.10.
474 Both observations suggest synchronicity of the turbidites in Tekirdağ and in the Western High. The
475 suspension cloud responsible for the fine-grained turbidites must be at least 400 m thick as the Klg06
476 site is about 400 m higher than the Klg05 site. Shiki et al. (2000) state that the plumes associated to
477 earthquake triggered turbidites are higher and thicker than the usual suspension clouds derived from
478 canyon flow turbidity currents. Furthermore McHugh et al. (2011) detected an unusual 600 m thick
479 sediments plume still present almost 2 months after the $M=7.0$ Haïti earthquake. The occurrence
480 of distal turbidites and their correlation with basinal proximal turbidites suggests that both types of
481 turbidites have been uniquely generated by earthquake shaking in the Tekirdağ Basin and not by some
482 other natural phenomenon.

483 In the Central Basin, the Klg02 core is compared to core C4 (McHugh et al., 2006) and to core
484 MD2429 (Beck et al., 2007). The two largest turbidites e3 and e4 recorded in Klg02 were documented
485 at the same depth in the core C4 of McHugh et al. (2006) (Fig. 1). Additionally, two deeper organic
486 rich layers in C4 can be correlated with the e6 and e7 events of Klg02 (Fig. 15). In the nearby core

6 Paleoseismological implications

487 MD2429 the magnetic susceptibility record of the first 6 metres ([Beck et al., 2007](#)) is identical to the
488 magnetic susceptibility data of the Klg02 core with two peaks framing low values (Fig. 15). These
489 two peaks correspond to the two main sandy layers forming the base of events e3 and e4. The relative
490 low values match with the main body of the second homogenite (Fig. 5). The density data of MD2429
491 core allows identifying other major turbidites in the cores which corresponds to events 5, 6 and 7 in
492 Klg05. Turbidites in the Central Basin have thus significant lateral extension. We infer that they also
493 have a seismic trigger.

494 6 Paleoseismological implications

495 The sedimentary cores studied provide a paleoseismological record of the Tekirdağ Fault ruptures.
496 The 1912 Mürefte earthquake (event 1) is recorded in the Tekirdağ Basin and in the Western High as
497 well as in Central Basin where it has a faint expression. Considering the ^{14}C age of 2185 yr BP below
498 event 6 in Klg05 with the reservoir correction of 340-460 years proposed by [McHugh et al. \(2006\)](#), the
499 mean recurrence time of events along the Tekirdağ Fault would be about 300 years. Combining all
500 radiocarbon ages dating obtained in cores from the Tekirdağ Basin and an average reservoir correction
501 of 450 years, we can propose the following possible match between sedimentary events and historical
502 earthquakes ([Ambraseys, 2002](#)): events 2 to 5 could correspond, respectively, to events occurring in
503 1766, 1354 or 1343, 1063, 557 and 437. The obtained paleoseismological record might not be complete.
504 The triggering of seismoturbidites also depends on the availability and volume of unstable sediments
505 that accumulate on the basin slopes.

506 The inner Central Basin (Klg02) located between the Tekirdağ and the Central Faults (Fig. 1) can
507 also record mass-wasting events synchronous with the Tekirdağ Basin. The first example is the 1912
508 disturbances triggered by the rupture of the Tekirdağ Fault. An other example is the top turbidite
509 in the Central Basin (event 3-Klg02) which seems synchronous with the shallowest turbidite in the
510 Tekirdağ Basin (event 5-Klg05; Figs. 8 and 10). The latter implies massive slope failures both in
511 Tekirdağ and Central Basins. It might have been triggered by the Tekirdağ fault rupture alone, but
512 was most probably triggered by the quasi-synchronous rupture of the Tekirdağ and Central Faults.
513 Such rupture scenario may have happened during the $M=7.1$ May 1766 and $M=7.4$ August 1766
514 earthquake sequence as modelled in [Pondard et al. \(2007\)](#).

515 Another noticeable paleoseismological result is the relatively low number of turbiditic events recorded
516 in the Central Basin, which could record earthquakes rupturing the Tekirdağ and Central Segments.
517 It might be a site effect as the Klg02 core is situated 14 km away from the basins slopes and only

6 Paleoseismological implications

518 large mass wasting events can be recorded. In addition, even if sediment supply on the shelf and slope
519 of the Central Basin is similar to the Tekirdağ Basin, there might not be enough sediments available
520 to trigger turbiditic mass flow in the inner basin each time there is a $M > 7$ earthquake on the Central
521 or Tekirdağ Faults. An other possible explanation would be frequent ruptures of the Central and
522 Tekirdağ Segments in sequence or as a single through-going rupture. In these cases, we would have
523 indistinguishable coeval turbiditic deposits in both basins. The last possibility would be a less frequent
524 earthquake rupture of the Central Segment that would be related to partial creep along that specific
525 segment. Partial creep would mean lower recurrence rate and maximum magnitude on the Central
526 Segment than on the other NAF Segments. More sedimentary records from the Central Basin are
527 needed to resolve that key question, which have fundamental consequences on earthquake recurrence
528 rate and earthquake magnitude.

529

530 Conclusions

531 The combination of X-ray imagery, XRF scanning and high-resolution granulometric measurements
532 performed on five cores has documented the cyclic occurrence of instantaneous sedimentary events
533 deposited in the Marmara Sea as well as global sedimentation changes that can be used to relate the
534 different records. Radiocarbon age dating suggests that about eight major turbiditic events occurred
535 in the Tekirdağ Basin and seven in the Central Basin in the last 2500 years.

536 Turbiditic events appear to be reliable paleoseismological indicators of ruptures of the Tekirdağ Fault.
537 This interpretation is first based on (1) specific XRF and grain size characteristics, (2) synchronicity
538 of turbiditic events identified in different cores and (3) correlative proximal sandy turbidites in the
539 basins with distal fine-grained turbidites in the high. The most straightforward triggering mechanism
540 for coeval distal and proximal events is shaking induced by earthquakes breaking the Tekirdağ Segment
541 of the North Anatolian Fault. The relatively low number of turbidites documented in the Central Basin
542 compared to the Tekirdağ Basin might be linked to ruptures in close sequence on the Tekirdağ and
543 Central Segments like in 1766 (Pondard et al., 2007) or to creeping along the Central Segment. A link
544 is also proposed between the first observed sedimentary event and the $M = 7.4$ 1912 Mürefte earthquake.
545 This earthquake that last activated the Tekirdağ Fault left a distinct imprint in all cores. Finally,
546 more effort must be achieved to obtain reliable age model of the sedimentary cores, which would allow
547 a better understanding of the seismic cycle of the different NAF Segments crossing the Marmara Sea.

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560 Figures

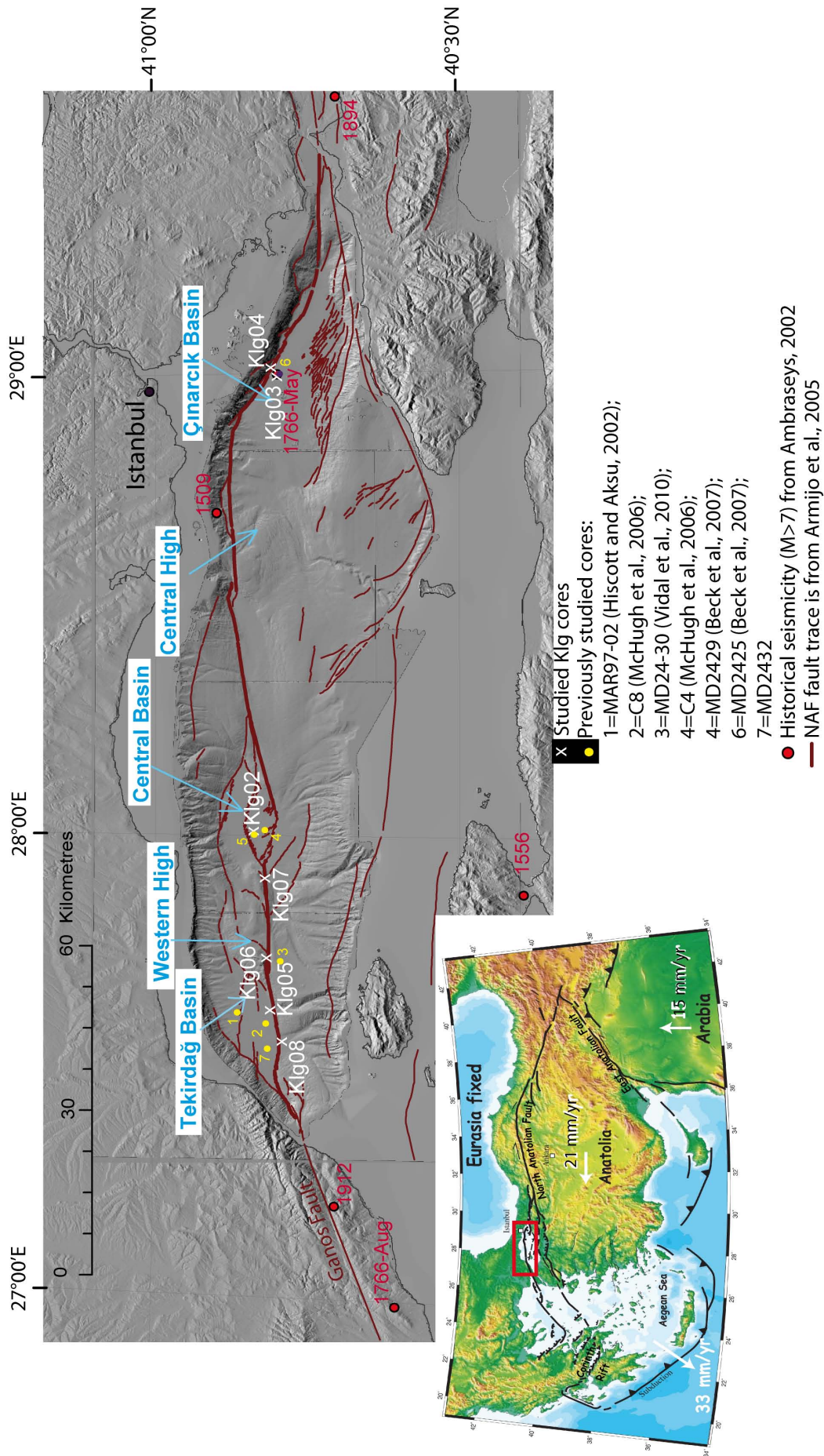


Figure 1: General context of the Marmara Sea crosses by the North Anatolian Fault (NAF). Main structures are labelled in blue. Global tectonic context of the Anatolian Plate is included as inset with GPS velocities from [Reilinger et al. \(2006\)](#), with a red box indicating the location of Fig.1.

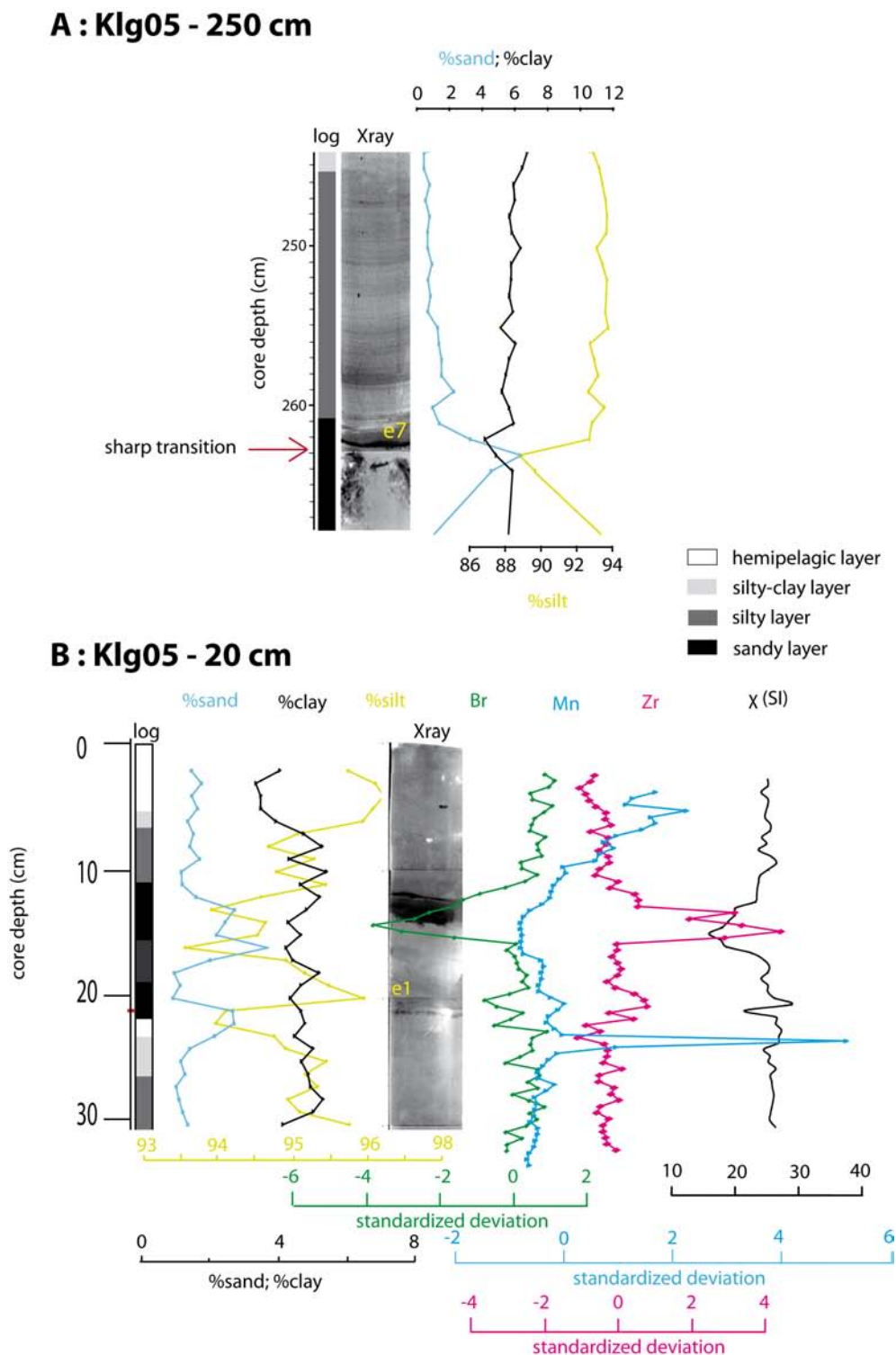
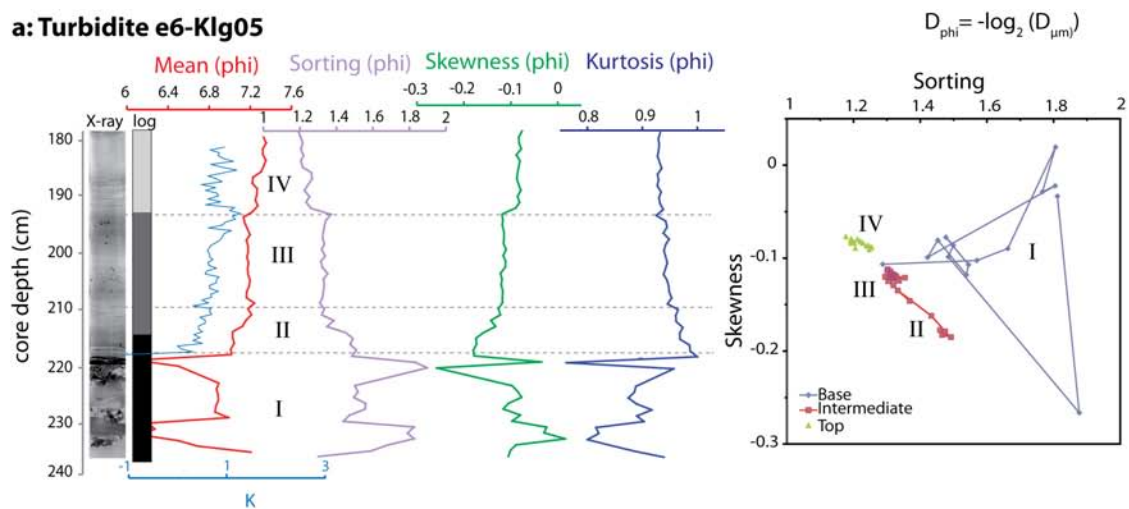


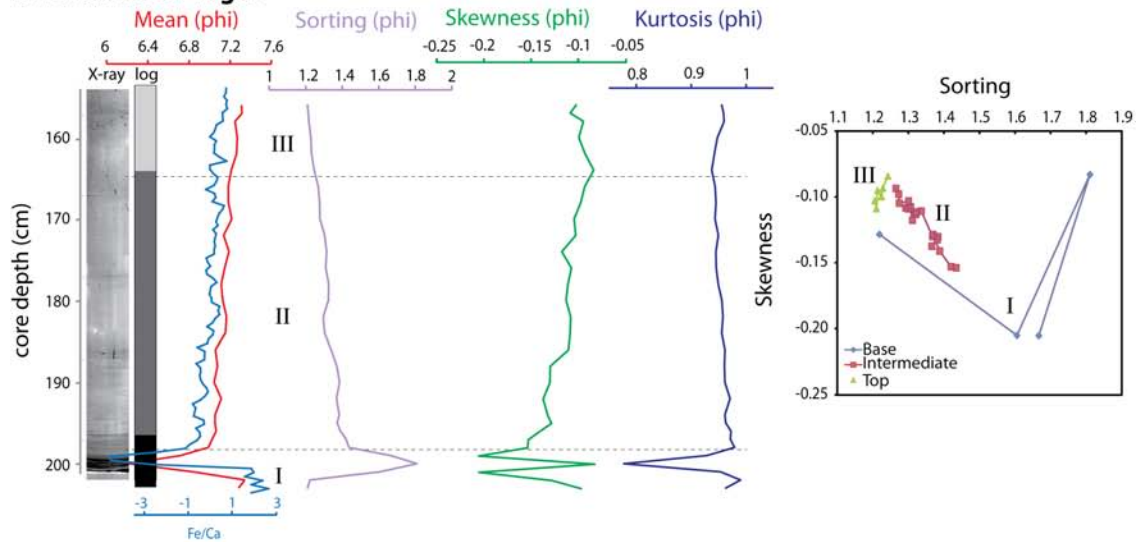
Figure 2: Typical examples of turbidites: granulometric and geochemical signatures as described in Sec.4. Turbidites are composed of a basal sandy layer, an upper silty unit with frequent laminations and a top light grey clayey unit. A : X-ray imagery and granulometry zooms of event 7 in Klg05. Yellow label on the X-ray indicates the position of the event as in Fig. 4. B : X-ray imagery, granulometry and geochemical profiles of event 1 in Klg05. Turbidites can have a positive signature in Zirconium (pink curve), negative in bromine (green curve) and just below turbidites Manganese (blue curve) typically shows a peak. Yellow names indicate events as referenced in Fig.4.

6 Paleoseismological implications

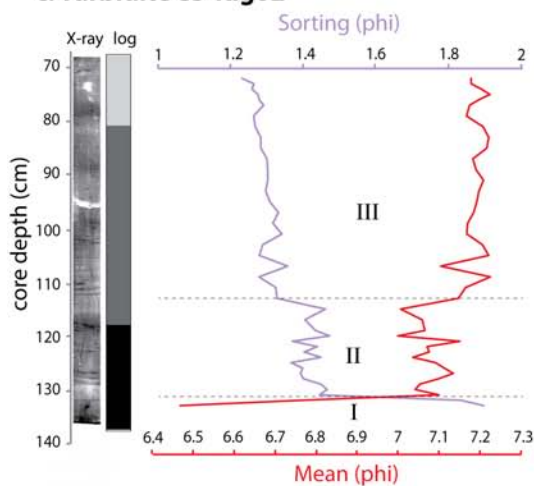
a: Turbidite e6-Klg05



b: Turbidite e4-Klg02



c: Turbidite e3-Klg02



d: Turbidite e5-Klg05

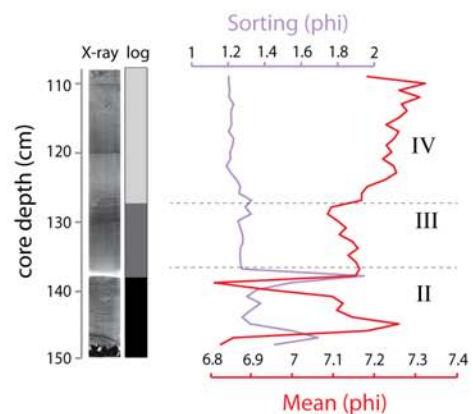


Figure 3: Characteristics of the thickest turbidites in Klg02 and Klg05 cores by using X-ray, log, grain size and geochemical parameters.

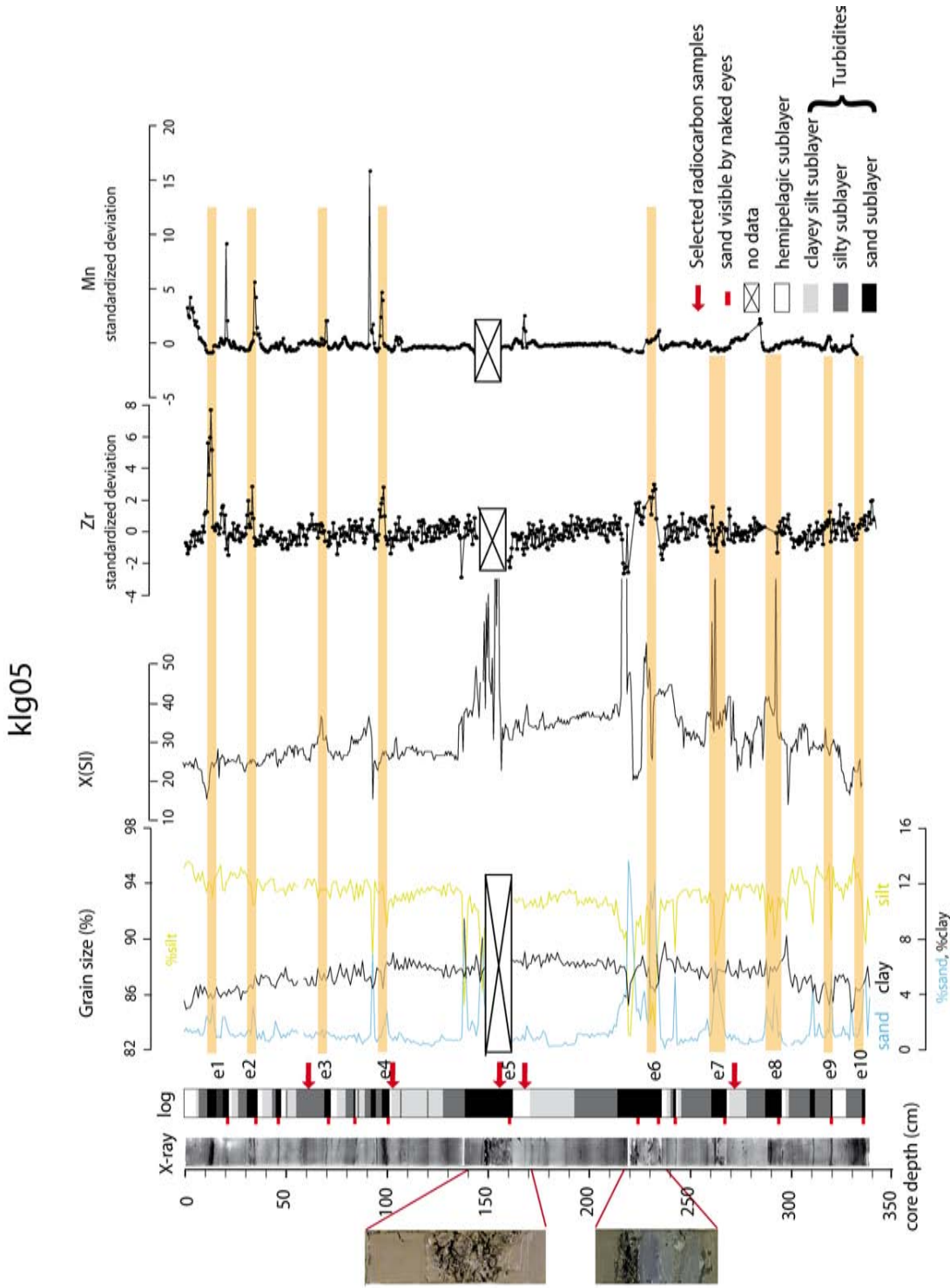


Figure 4: Stratigraphic log of the Klg05 core in the Tekirdağ Basin obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Zr standardized intensities. On the left, zoom pictures of the two basal layers of the thickest turbidites with gravel are presented. Main turbidites deposited are identified and labelled; event label is changing according to their stratigraphic position, beginning with 1 at the top of the core. In black is represented the sandy dark layer, in grey the intermediate silty layer, in light grey the upper clay-rich layer and in white the background sedimentation.

6 Paleoseismological implications

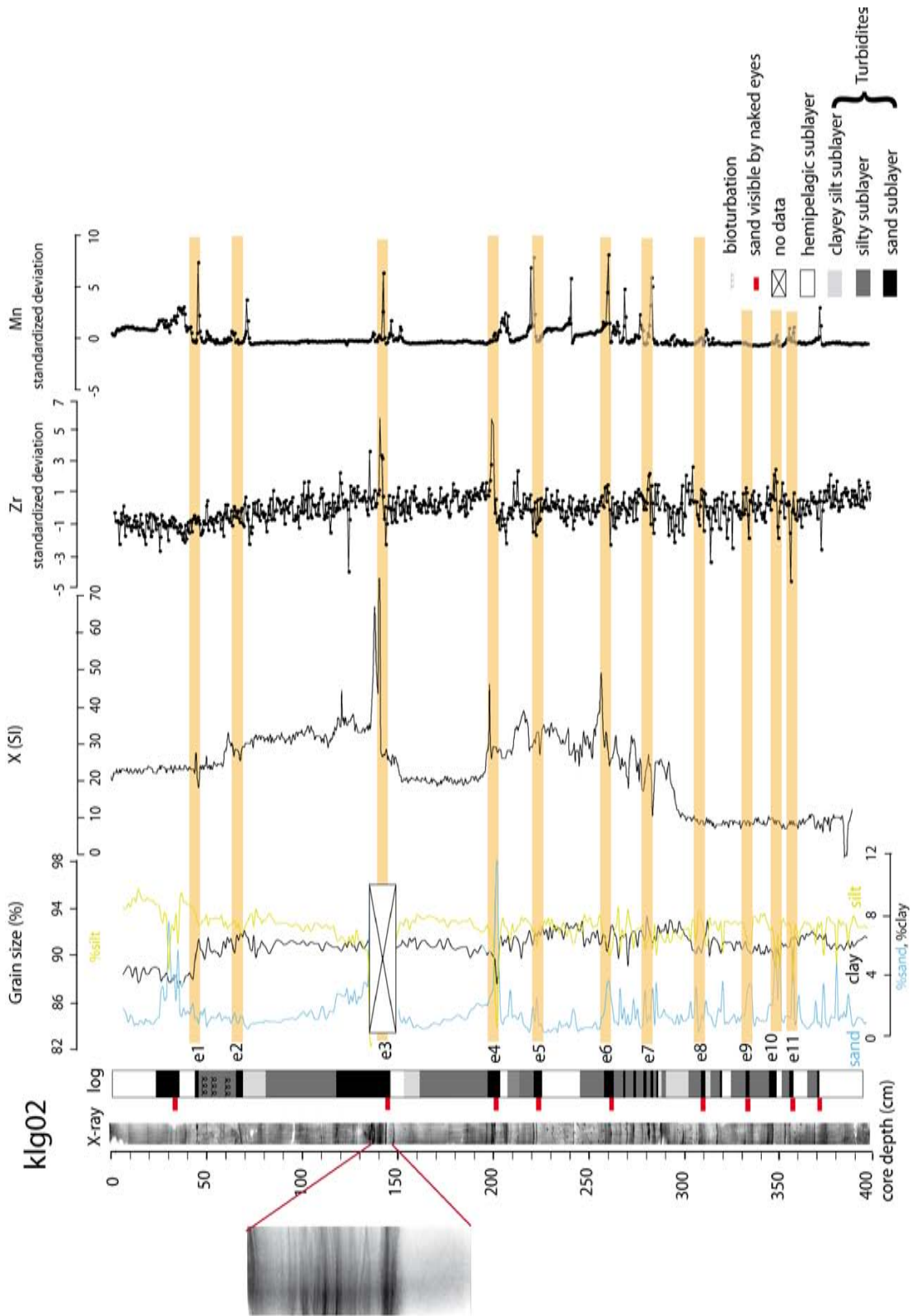


Figure 5: Stratigraphic log of the Klg02 core in the Central Basin obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Zr standardized intensities. On the left, zoom in the X-ray of the basal layers of the thickest turbidite e3 with complex laminations. Main turbidites deposited are identified and labelled; event label is changing according to their stratigraphic position, beginning with 1 at the top of the core. In black is represented the sandy dark layer, in grey the intermediate silty layer, in light grey the upper clay-rich layer and in white the background sedimentation.

6 Paleoseismological implications

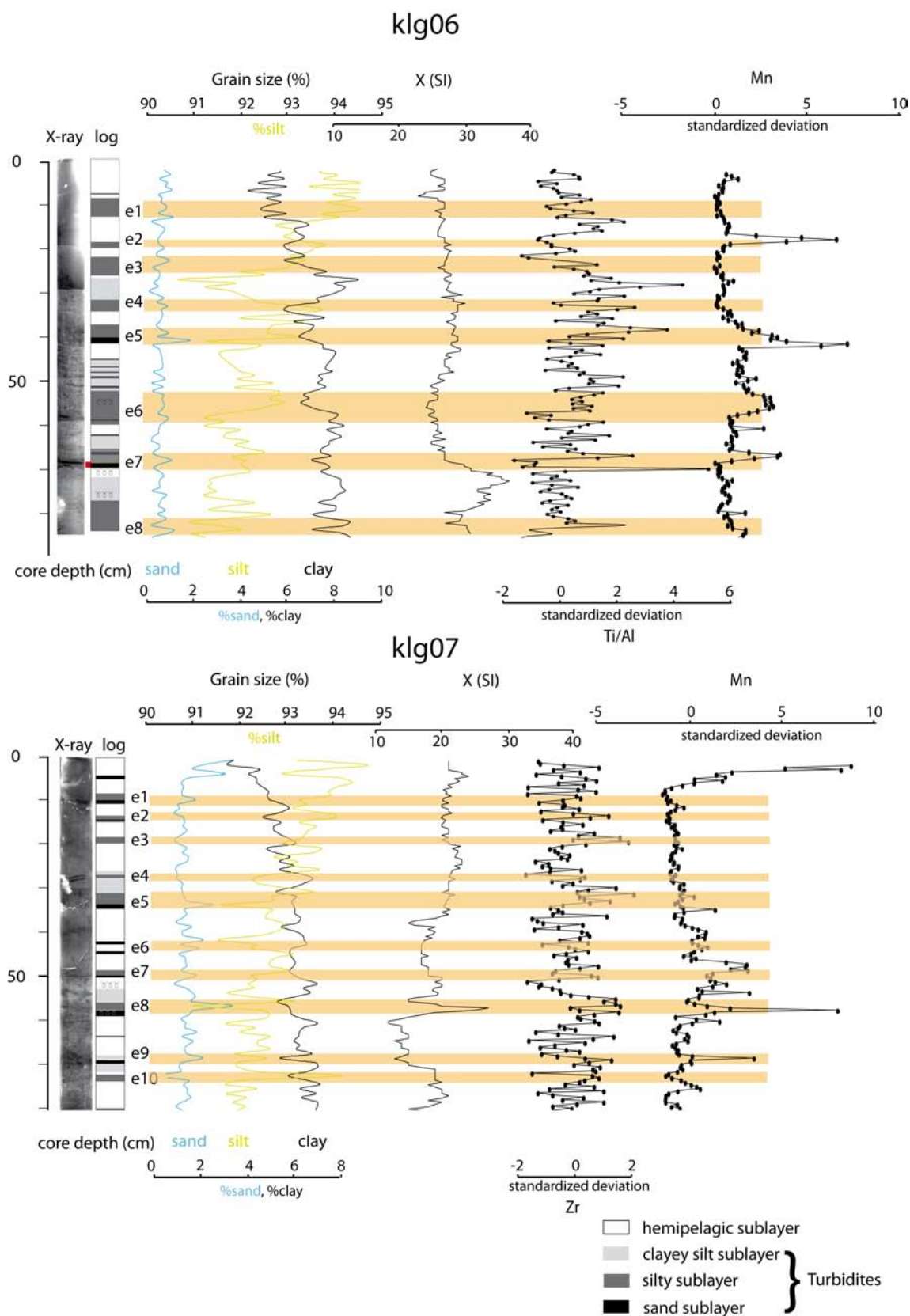


Figure 6: Stratigraphic log for the first 80 cm of the klg06 and Klg07 cores situated in the Western High Ridge obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Ti/Al or Zr standardized intensities. Main events deposited are identified and labelled; event label is changing according to their stratigraphic position, beginning with 1 at the top of the core. The complete stratigraphic logs are presented in the appendices (Figs. 12 and 13)

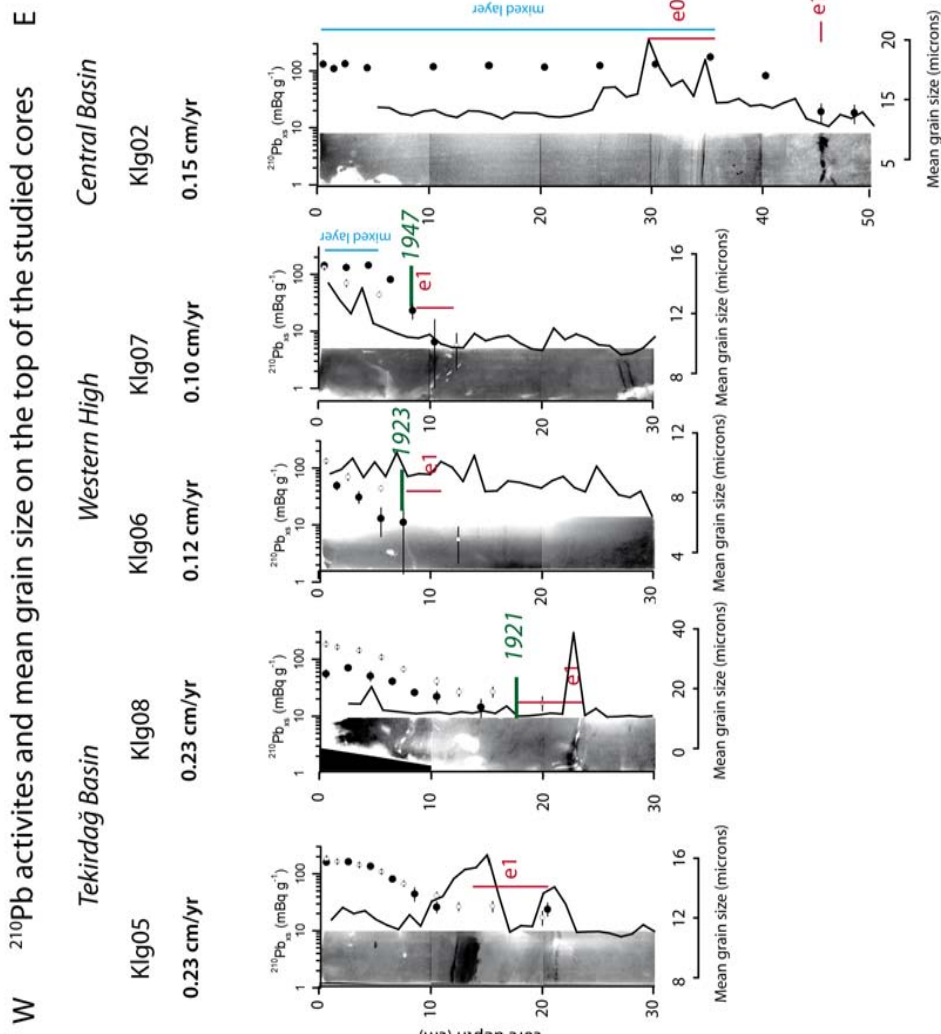
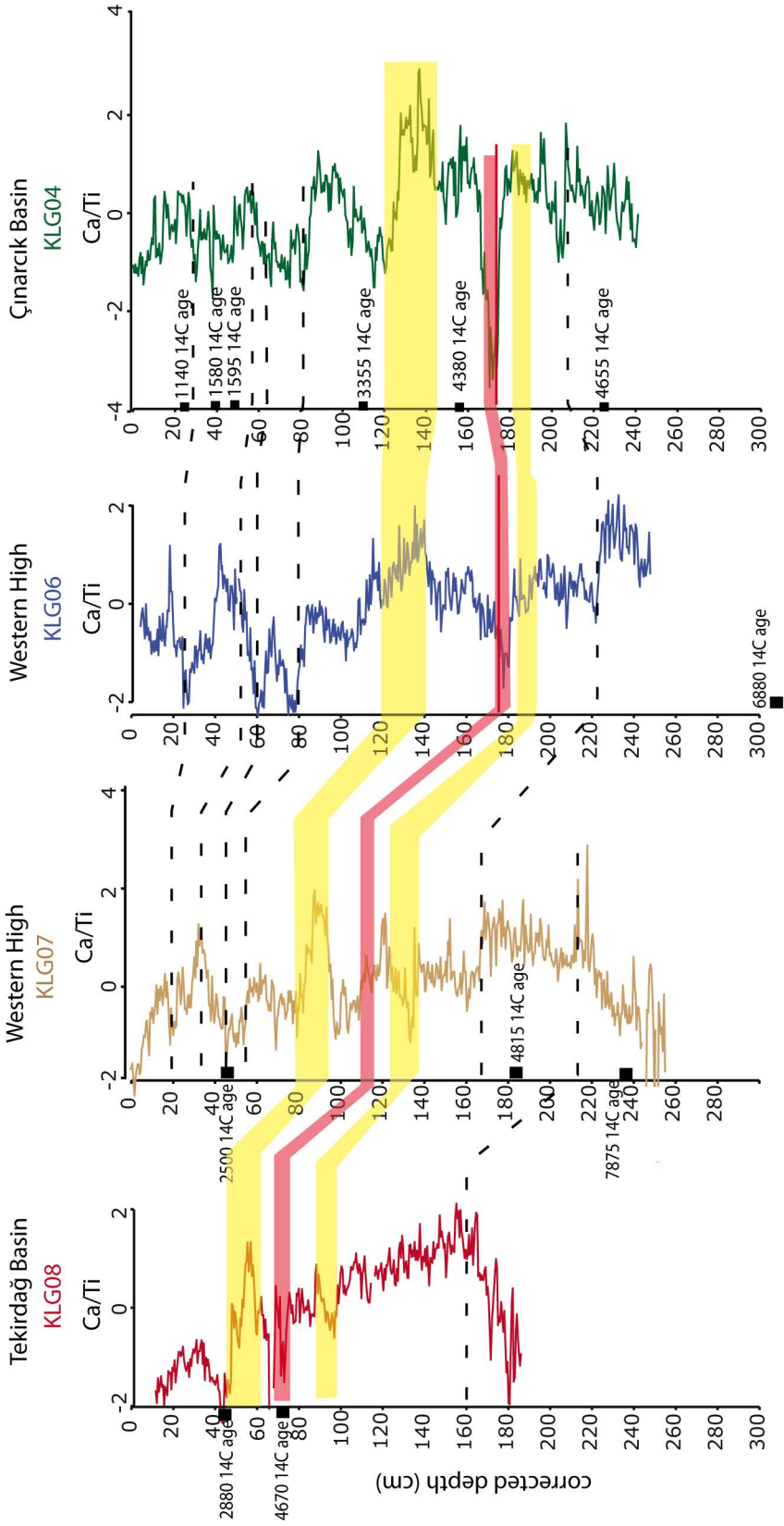
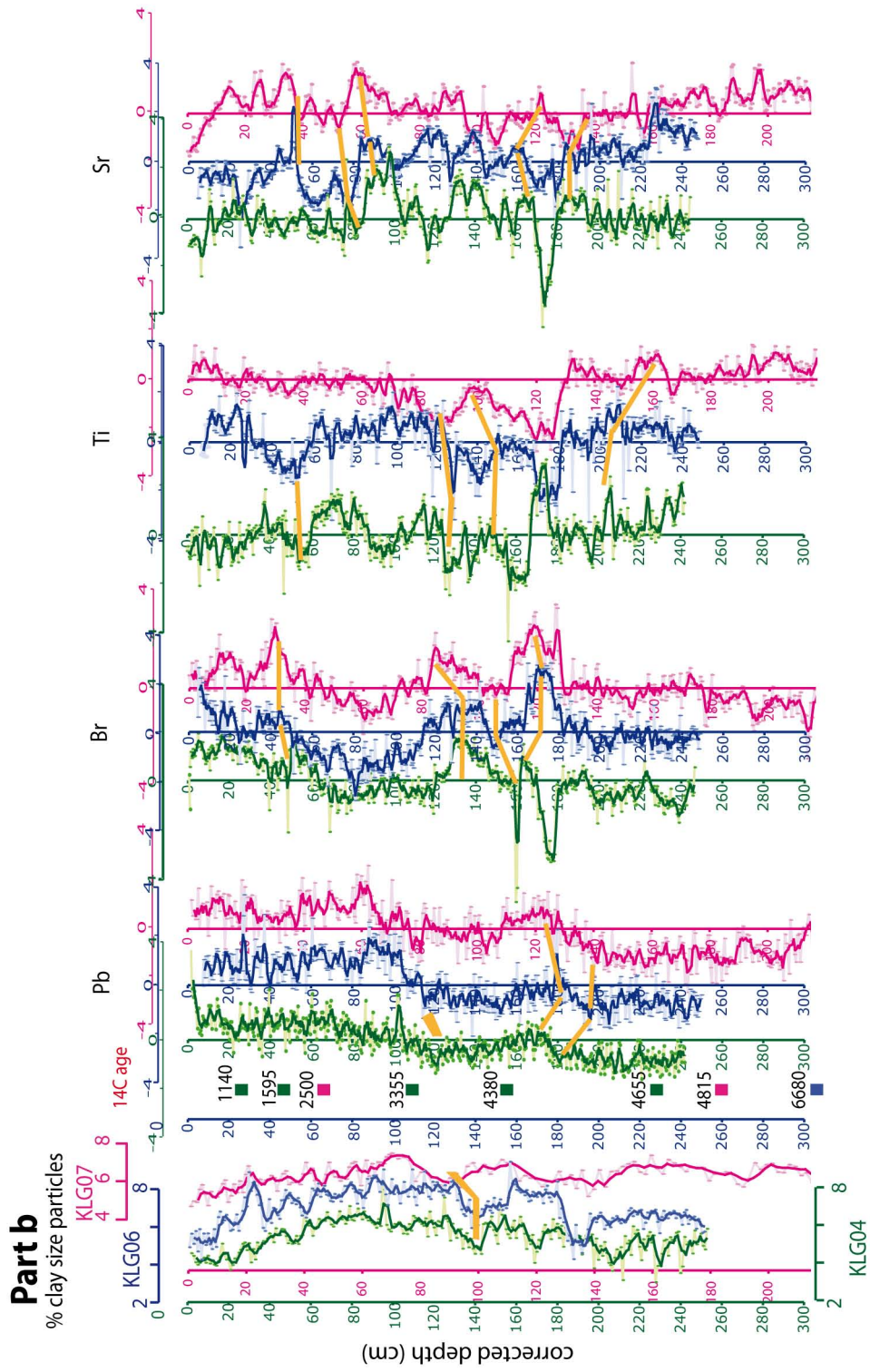


Figure 7: Excess ²¹⁰Pb activities (black dots) and computed sedimentation rates of the cores Klg02, Klg05, Klg06, Klg07 and Klg08. White dots are from the nearby ROV cores and show that no significant loss of sediments occurred in Klg cores. The extend of the mixed layer is indicated in blue. X-ray imagery associated to the mean grain size (black lines) show the location of the e1 sedimentary event induced by the M=7.4 1912 earthquake. The age model derived from ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} at the top of the 1912 turbidites is indicated in green. The event e1 have the following characteristics. In Klg05, e1 is marked by two basal sandy layers at 13 and 21 cm depth suggesting two distinct mass flows. The thickest upper one is visible by eyes and associated with a significant increase in zirconium and titanium content (Fig. 4). In Klg08 core similar sandy layers and geochemical signatures are observed at 18 cm and 23 cm depth. In Klg07, the event is marked at 10-11 cm by a small sandy peak, a step increase in silt and an increase in Ti-Mn XRF. In Klg06, there is a similar step increase in silt associated to a dipping white line in the X-ray.

Part a



6 Paleoseismological implications



Part c

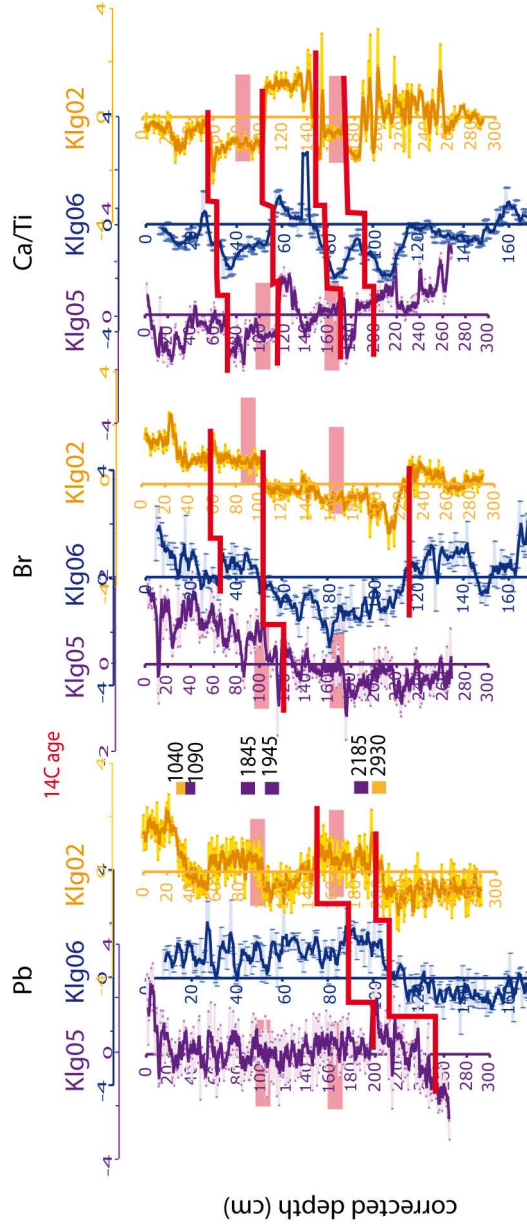


Figure 8: Correlation of different cores based on XRF and granulometric data. All basal sandy layers have been removed. **a:** Ca/Ti ratio profiles for cores Klg08 (red curve), Klg07 (brown curve) and Klg04 (green curve) and Klg06 (blue curve). Uncalibrated ^{14}C yr BP are indicated on the left of the profiles (Table 2). Dashed black lines represent correlative highs or lows. **b** Profiles from left to right of clay-sized particles and of the standardized XRF data for Pb, Br, Ti and Sr for cores Klg04 (green curve), Klg06 (blue curve) and Klg07 (pink curve). Bold orange lines represent correlative highs or lows. **c** Profiles of the standardized XRF data with from the left to the right Pb, Br and Ca/Ti ratio for the cores Klg02 (yellow curves), Klg05 (purple curves) and Klg06 (blue curves). Bold red lines represent key points of correlation. Pink rectangles indicate the location of the top fine grained of the largest turbidites in Klg05 and Klg02.

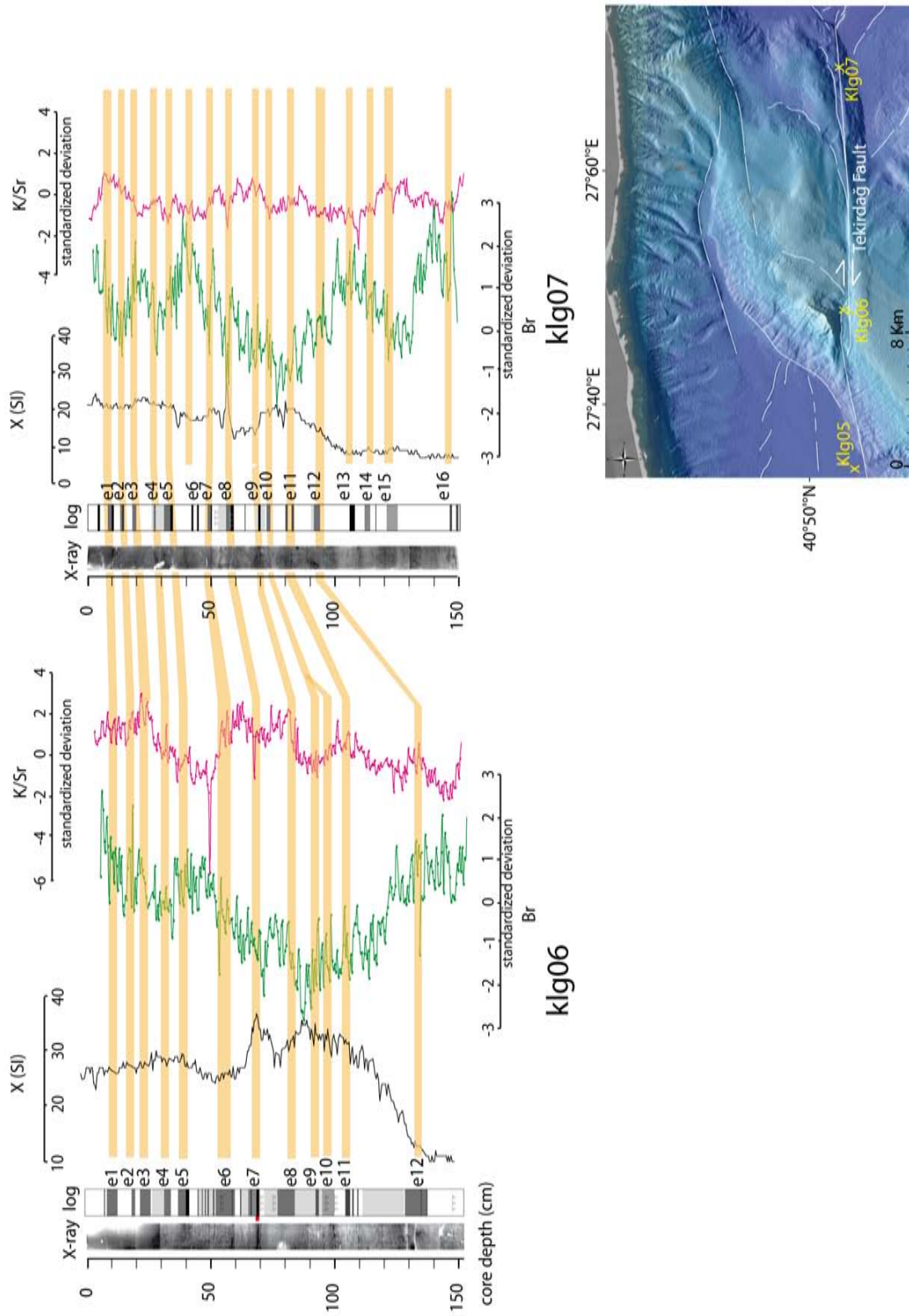


Figure 9: Core correlation between Klg06 and Klg07 using X-ray, magnetic susceptibility, bromine and K/Sr ratio. Increase Sr at the base of turbidites suggests allocthonous input. In opposition, increase in K might reflect higher illite content in the upper clayey silt sublayer. Localisation of the cores is indicated on the inset map.

6 Paleoseismological implications

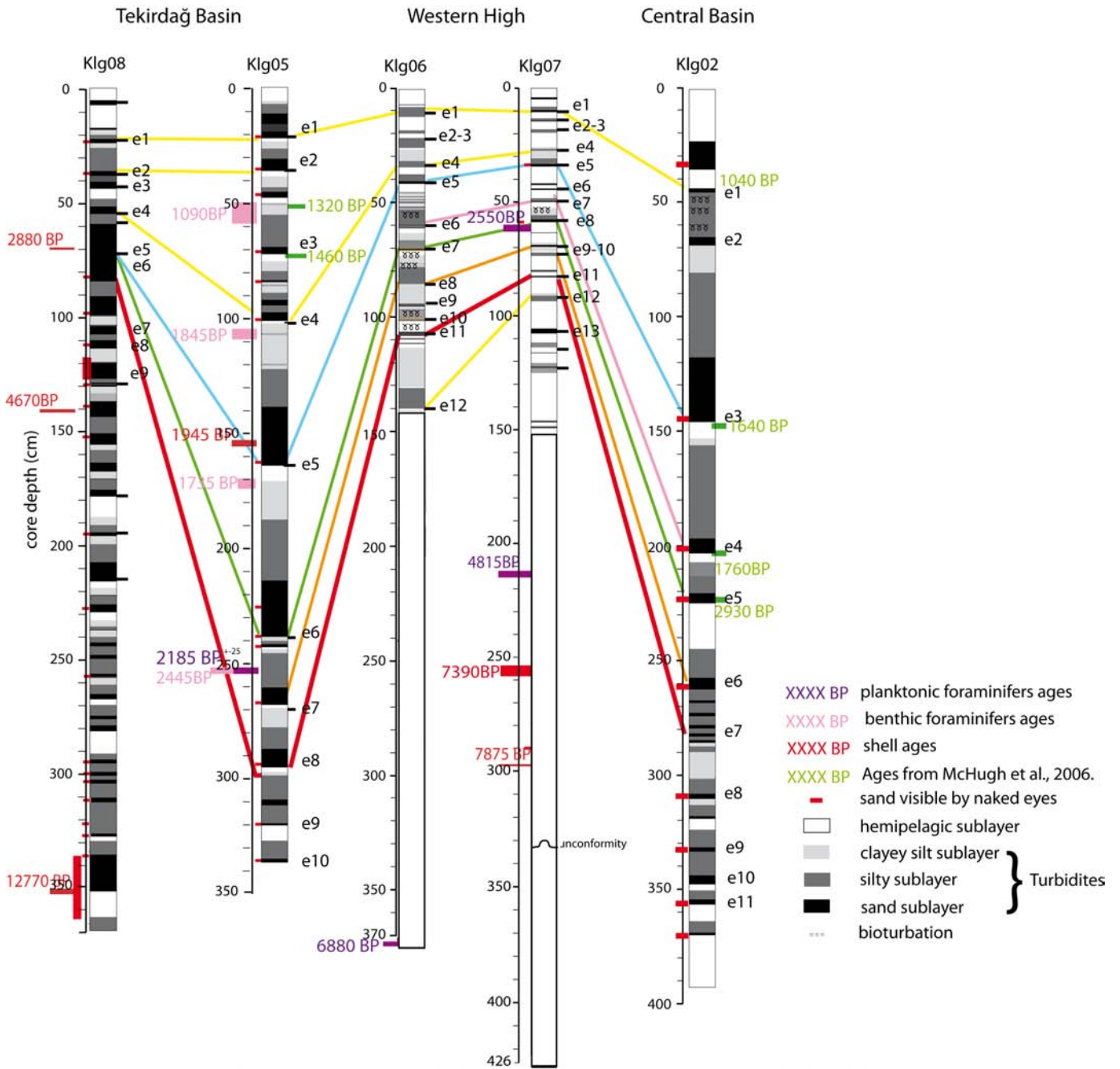


Figure 10: Correlation obtained from XRF data (Fig. 8) for the cores Klg08, Klg05, Klg06, Klg07 and Klg02. Lines between cores represent the correlative sedimentary events identified in Figs. 4, 5, 9. Uncalibrated radiocarbon ages (not calibrated) for shells (in red), planktonic foraminifers (in purple), benthic foraminifers (in light rose) are presented in Table 2. The radiocarbon ages in green are from McHugh et al. (2006).

Table 1: Location of Kullenberg cores collected during the Marmascarps mission in 2002

Basin	Core	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Water depth (m)	Core length (cm)
Tekirdağ	klg05	40°48,50	27°37,3	1123	341
Tekirdağ	klg08	40°47,31	27°33,22	1111	385
Western High Ridge	klg06	40°48,90	27°44,28	726	371
Western High Ridge	klg07	40°49,115	27°54,44	1065	432
Central	klg02	40°50,28	28°00,54	1266	403

6 Paleoseismological implications

Table 2: AMS Radiocarbon dating results performed on bivalve shell fragments (sh), bulk sediment (TOC+TIC) (bk), benthic (bf) and planktonic (plc) foraminifers. Sample name written in italic are samples considered to be reworked and were not used for the interpretations. Analyses were performed at Artemis LMC14 laboratory and AEON laboratories; ^{14}C dating have not been calibrated and corrected for reservoir effect.

Sample	Type	Age (yr BP)	error (\pm yr)
<i>Klg02, 180 cm</i>	bk	4830	20
<i>Klg02, 185 cm</i>	bk	3430	20
Klg02, 352 cm	bk	5060	20
Klg03, 114 cm	plc	2380	15
Klg03, 114 cm	bf	1630	30
Klg03, 158 cm	sh	2370	30
Klg03, 161 cm	plc	2370	60
Klg05, 48 cm	bf	1090	15
<i>Klg05, 94 cm</i>	bk	3070	20
<i>Klg05, 102 cm</i>	bk	3110	20
Klg05, 103 cm	bf	1845	15
<i>Klg05, 146 cm</i>	bk	3870	20
Klg05, 152 cm	sh	1945	30
Klg05, 167 cm	bf	1735	30
<i>Klg05, 178 cm</i>	sh	35790	330
<i>Klg05, 217 cm</i>	bk	5180	20
<i>Klg05, 220 cm</i>	sh	13700	45
<i>Klg05, 229 cm</i>	sh	39480	490
<i>Klg05, 234 cm</i>	sh	14390	50
Klg05, 250 cm	plc	2185	20
Klg05, 250 cm	bf	2445	25
<i>Klg05, 261 cm</i>	bk	4180	20
<i>Klg06, 278 cm</i>	sh	33870	270
Klg06, 366 cm	plc	6880	120
Klg07, 61 cm	plc	2500	30
Klg07, 212 cm	plc	4815	45
Klg07, 255 cm	sh	7390	30
Klg07, 297 cm	sh	7875	35
<i>Klg08, 73 cm</i>	sh	2880	30
<i>Klg08, 90 cm</i>	sh	30200	180
<i>Klg08, 117 cm</i>	sh	28880	150
<i>Klg08, 124 cm</i>	sh	12850	40
<i>Klg08, 145 cm</i>	sh	4670	30
<i>Klg08, 150 cm</i>	sh	21380	80
<i>Klg08, 220 cm</i>	sh	30160	180
<i>Klg08, 326 cm</i>	sh	39820	510
<i>Klg08, 355 cm</i>	sh	12770	45

561 **appendix**

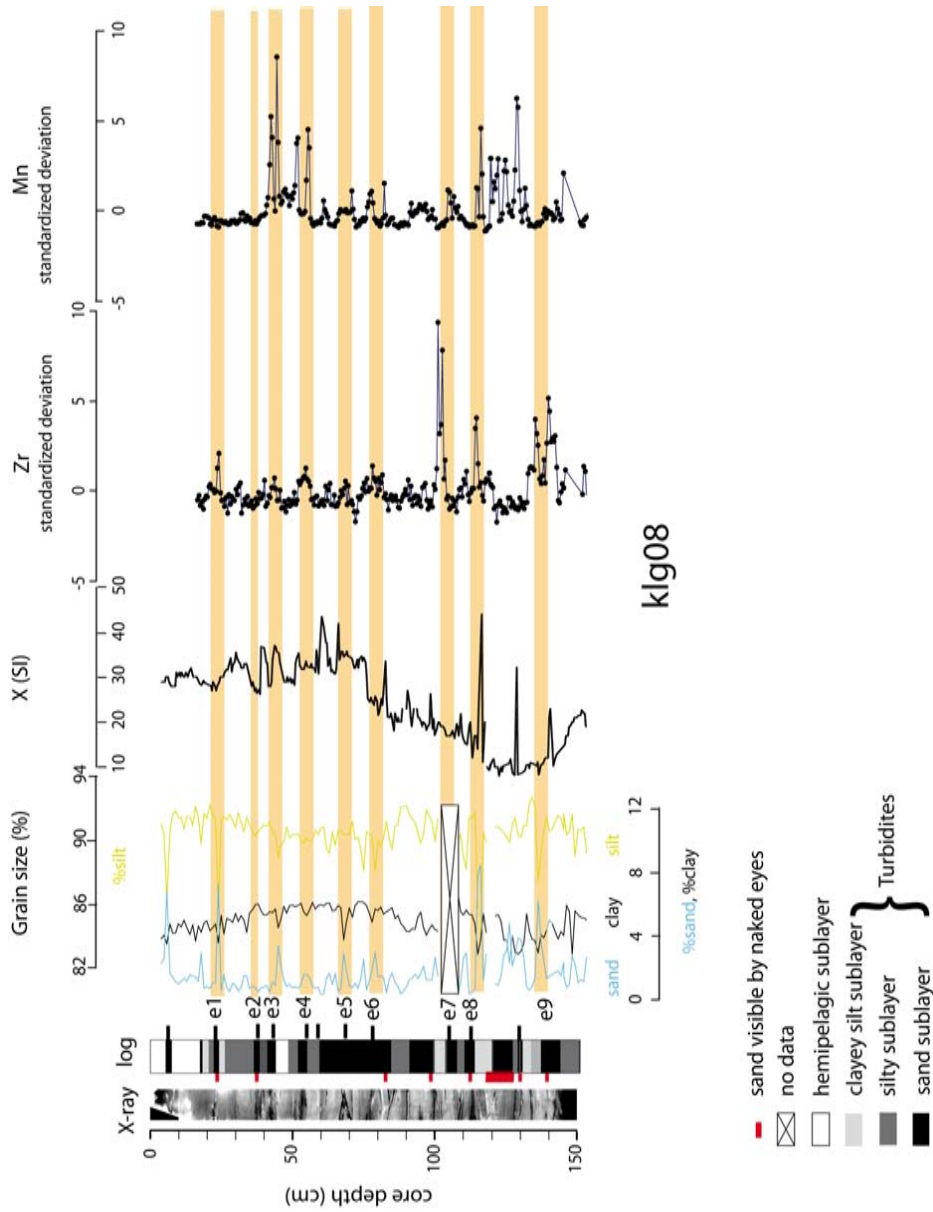


Figure 11: Stratigraphic log for the first 1.5 m of the klg08 core situated in the Tekirdağ Basin obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Zr standardized intensities. Main events deposited are identified and labelled.

6 Paleoseismological implications

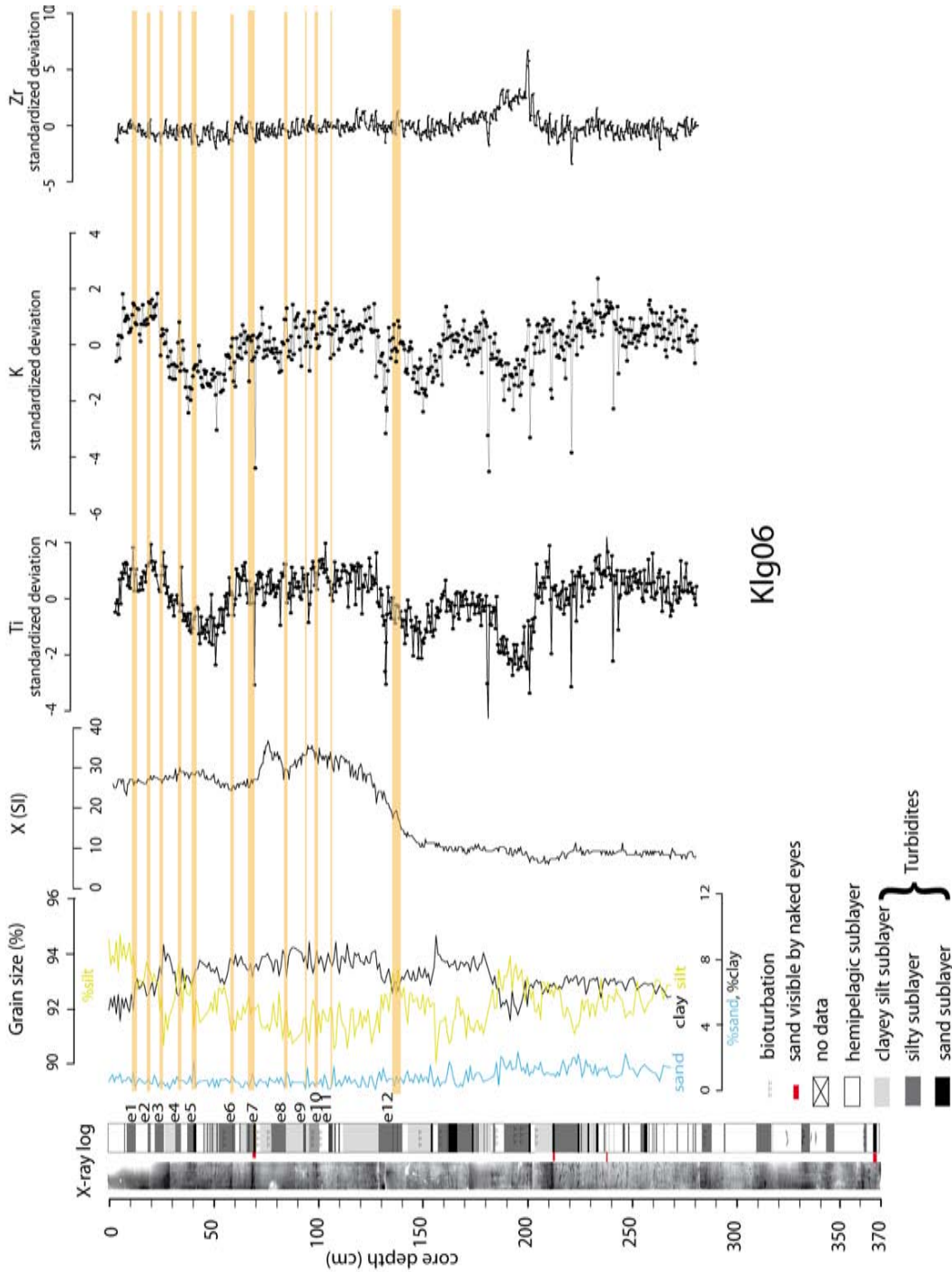


Figure 12: Stratigraphic log of the klg06 core situated in the Western High obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Zr standardized intensities. Main events deposited are identified and labelled.

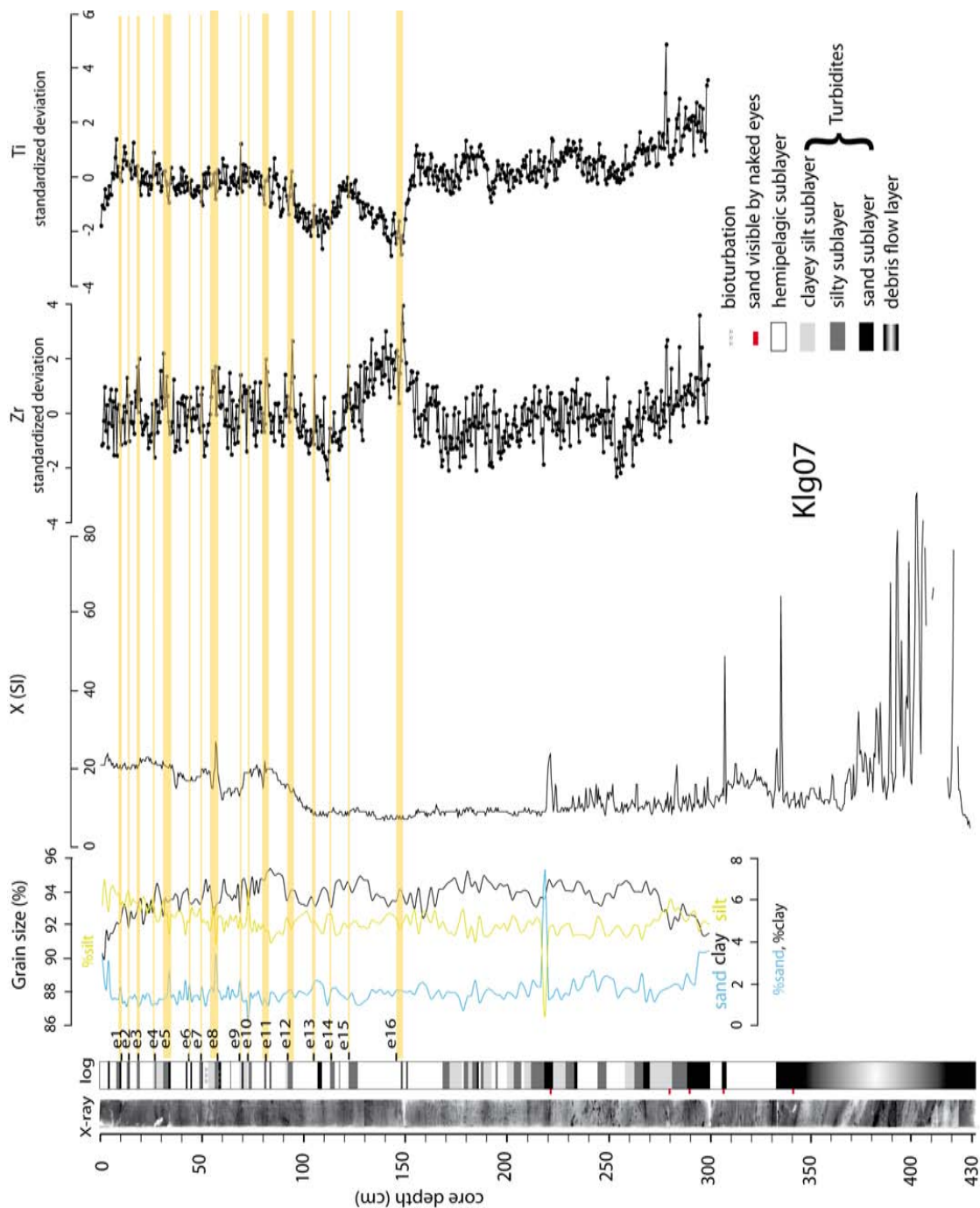


Figure 13: Stratigraphic log of the klg07 core situated in the Western High obtained combining X-ray imagery, grain size, magnetic susceptibility data, Mn and Zr standardized intensities. Main events deposited are identified and labelled; event label is changing according to their stratigraphic position, beginning with 1 at the top of the core.

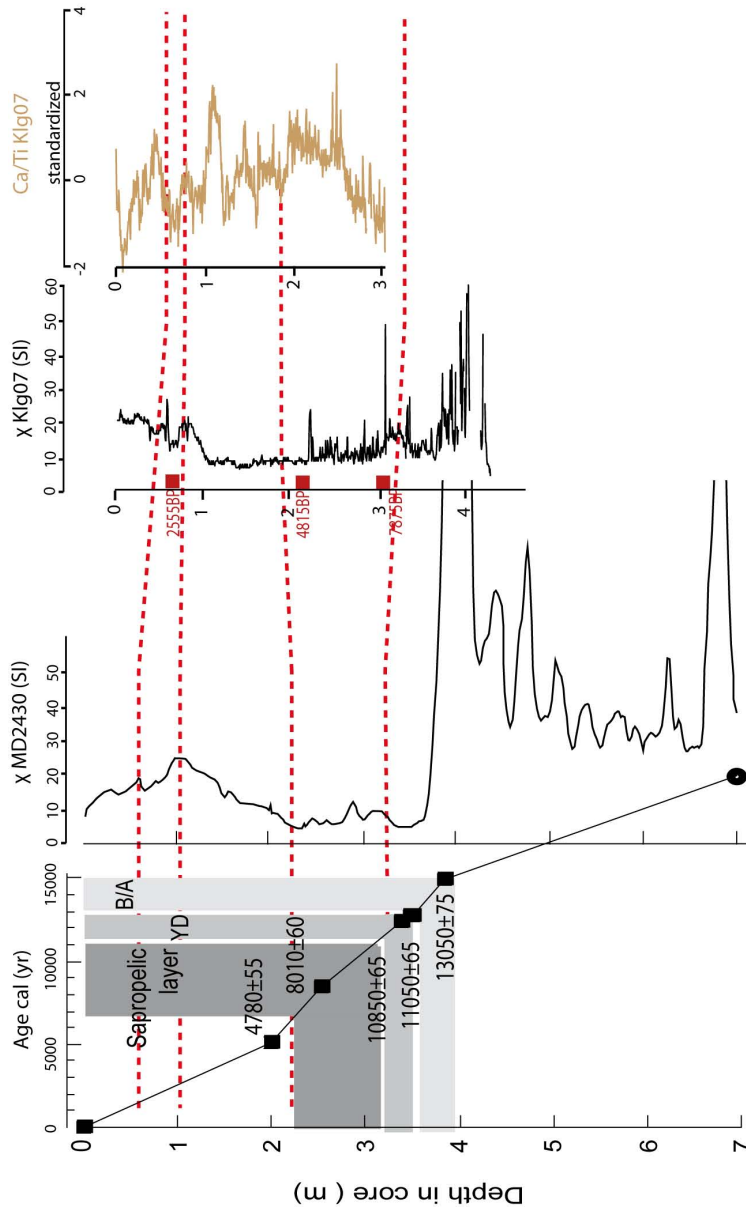


Figure 14: Core correlation between Klg07 and MD2430 (Vidal et al., 2010) in the Western High by using magnetic susceptibility data and Ca/Ti ratio. Red dashed line indicate key point of correlation. Uncalibrated ages are indicated in red and calibrated ones in black.

6 Paleoseismological implications

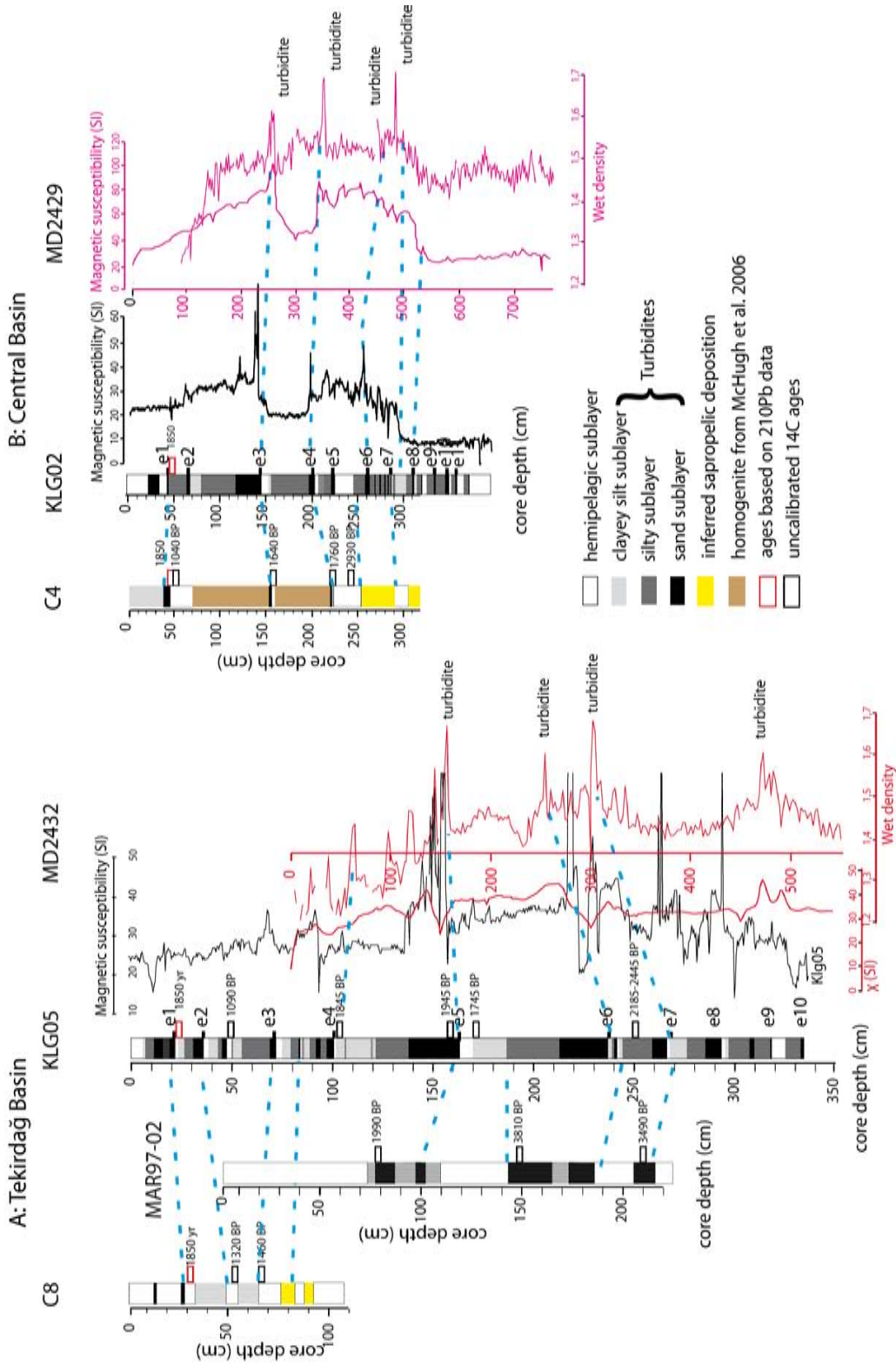


Figure 15: Core correlation between Klg02 and already published cores in the Central and Tekirdağ Basins. **A:** Correlation in the Tekirdağ Basin between the cores Klg05, MD2432, C8 (McHugh et al., 2006) and MAR97-02 (Hiscott et al., 2002) by using log and physical parameters. Uncalibrated ages are indicated for all the cores and key points of correlation are represented with blue dashed lines. **A:** Correlation in the Central Basin between the cores Klg02, MD2429 (Beck et al., 2007) and C4 (McHugh et al., 2006) by using log and physical parameters. Uncalibrated ages are indicated for all the cores and key points of correlation are represented with blue dashed lines.

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