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Novel insights into the sea level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula (Turkey): A study on submerged Bronze Age harbor in Çamçalık

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**New insights on the sea-level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula (Turkey), from the submerged Bronze Age harbor in Çamçalık**

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Keywords:	Bronze Age harbor, relative sea-level change, tectonic subsidence, Bozburun Peninsula, Çamçalık
Abstract:	Recent discovery of a Bronze Age harbor site in Çamçalık provided new data for relative sea-level history along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula for the last 3600 years. The new data and the previously published data from the nearby sites were compared with the aim of understanding long-term relative sea-level changes. The further comparison of the observed sea-level data and newly produced glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA) models clarifies the tectonic contribution to the relative sea-level changes. Our results suggest a non-linear tectonic subsidence trend in the coastal zone since 3600 BP. An acceleration of the relative sea-level rise has occurred since the last 1400 years, mostly due to seismic events controlled by the tectonic regime of the southeastern Aegean Sea. As in the past, this active tectonic process will have a major impact on the future sea-level evolution of the coastal sector of the Bozburun Peninsula.

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3 **New insights on the sea-level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula (Turkey),**  
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5 **from the submerged Bronze Age harbor in Çamçalık**  
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24 **Abstract**  
25

26 Recent discovery of a Bronze Age harbor site in Çamçalık provided new data for relative sea-  
27 level history along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula for the last 3600 years. The new data and  
28 the previously published data from the nearby sites were compared with the aim of  
29 understanding long-term relative sea-level changes. The further comparison of the observed  
30 sea-level data and newly produced glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA) models clarifies the  
31 tectonic contribution to the relative sea-level changes. Our results suggest a non-linear  
32 tectonic subsidence trend in the coastal zone since 3600 BP. An acceleration of the relative  
33 sea-level rise has occurred since the last 1400 years, mostly due to seismic events controlled  
34 by the tectonic regime of the southeastern Aegean Sea. As in the past, this active tectonic  
35 process will have a major impact on the future sea-level evolution of the coastal sector of the  
36 Bozburun Peninsula.  
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51 *Keywords:* Bronze Age harbor, relative sea-level change, archaeological sea-level indicators,  
52 tectonic subsidence, Bozburun Peninsula, Çamçalık  
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## 1 Introduction

The coastal areas of the Bozburun Peninsula, ancient Karian Chersonesos, in the southwestern Turkey have been inhabited for thousands of years. Most of the coastal sites are dated to the Late Roman-Early Byzantine Period, many to the Hellenistic Period, and only a few to earlier periods (Held, 2019). Due to relative sea-level (RSL) changes, the coastal archaeological remains are now partly or totally submerged in this shoreline. On the other hand, no evidence of the existence of a Bronze Age settlement has been found so far on this peninsula.

As a part of the Shipwreck Inventory Project of Turkey (SHIPT), which has been mapping and documenting the shipwrecks and submerged archaeological sites along the Turkish coasts since 2005 (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013a), a recent coastal archaeological investigation has been initiated on the Bozburun Peninsula, focusing on the submerged archaeological remains on the coastal zone (Figure 1). During the 2019 survey, a Bronze Age coastal site was discovered on Çamçalık island, which is partially submerged due to RSL changes.

The RSL changes are the combined effect of eustatic, glacio-hydro-isostatic, and tectonic factors (Nakada & Lambeck, 1987; Peltier, 2004; Pirazzoli, 1997; 2005). The eustatic-isostatic contribution is associated with glacial meltwater inputs to the oceans and can be predicted by means of Glacio-Isostatic Adjustment (GIA) models, which require the spatio-temporal evolution of ice sheets and the Earth rheological profile (Stocchi & Spada, 2009) as inputs. Conversely, the tectonic contribution is less predictable and can be evaluated from the shoreline markers (Rovere et al., 2016). Since the meltwater input in the past 4000 years is small with respect to the deglaciation history in the last glacial cycle (Church et al., 2008; Lambeck et al., 2014; Peltier, 2004), any changes in RSL in this time frame are expected to stem from the sum of the GIA and tectonic movements rather than eustatic contribution.

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3 Based on the data from archaeological sites of Fethiye, Anzidei et al. (2011) suggest that GIA  
4 contribution to the RSL changes plays a minor role and tectonic subsidence has a major  
5 contribution along the southwestern coasts of Turkey over the last 2300 years. GPS  
6 measurements and sea-level data obtained from Bodrum tide gauge (southwestern coasts of  
7 Turkey) confirm no significant vertical land motion between 1993 and 2009 in the region  
8 (Yıldız et al., 2013) and glacio-isostatic adjustment is suggested negligible (-0.01–0.16  
9 mm/yr) (Yıldırım et al., 2022).

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11  
12 RSL changes can be inferred from the observations that have a direct relationship with sea  
13 levels in the past, which are called sea-level indicators, or sea-level index points. Those are  
14 defined as any archaeological, biological or geological feature that was constructed, formed,  
15 or deposited in connection with a former sea level (Morhange et al., 2001; Rovere et al.,  
16 2016). The current position of submerged coastal archaeological structures, which had a direct  
17 relationship with the shoreline during their operation, is used as a reliable indicator of past sea  
18 levels.

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21 Previous studies indicated that the Mediterranean Sea has a great number of archaeological  
22 indicators of the sea-level variations of the last 4000 years (Anzidei et al., 2014; Auriemma &  
23 Solinas, 2009; Evelpidou et al., 2018; Flemming, 1978; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2016; Lambeck  
24 et al., 2018; Morhange et al., 2013; Pavlopoulos et al., 2012; Pirazzoli, 1976). The  
25 geoarchaeological assessment of submerged maritime and coastal constructions provided data  
26 on RSL changes along the coast of southwestern Turkey since Early Byzantine times (Anzidei  
27 et al., 2011; Flemming et al., 1973; Kızıldağ et al., 2012; Kızıldağ, 2019; Kızıldağ & Özdaş,  
28 2021; Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013a; Stock et al., 2020). Nevertheless, no Bronze Age

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3 archaeological sea-level evidence could be obtained until now to provide data on the sea-level  
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5 history of southwestern Turkish coasts.  
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10 In this study, sea-level data from a newly discovered Bronze Age site are presented to  
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12 reconstruct the long-term sea-level evolution along the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula.  
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14 Previously published data from two nearby sites, which were obtained under the SHIPT  
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16 project, have been re-measured and re-evaluated in this study. A comparison of the observed  
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18 data with sea-level predictions from GIA models provided an estimate for the tectonic  
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20 component of the vertical displacement of the coastal sites.  
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## 26 **2 Archaeological Framework**

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28 First settlers on the Chersonesos, modern Bozburun Peninsula, go back to the Chalcolithic  
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30 Period (Gerber, 2019). For the following Bronze Age, no evidence has been found during the  
31  
32 land surveys, except for two stone axes in Loryma (Gerber, 2019). This seemingly contradicts  
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34 the Chersonesian place names which date back to the Bronze Age and indicate a continuity  
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36 not yet visible in the archaeological record.  
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42 Archaeological surveys on Loryma, Bybassos, and Kastabos provided significant data on  
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44 Chersonesos history (Held & Wilkening-Aumann, 2015; Held, 2019). In the first millennium  
45  
46 BC, the Chersonesos has been inhabited by Karians. In the Geometric Period, they seem not  
47  
48 to have been sedentary but rather nomadic shepherds who erected simple refuge forts on the  
49  
50 top of hills and mountains, which were only used in case of emergency (Held, 2019). Around  
51  
52 the late 8th or early 7th century BC, they became sedentary and settled down in about 15  
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54 small but well-fortified settlements. The Chersonesians had a decentral political organization  
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56 and settlement pattern which considerably differs from the model of the Greek polis with one  
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3 central city (*asty*) and a rural area (*chora*) around it, as in neighboring Knidos or Rhodos. This  
4  
5 non-central pattern is typical Karian. In the 4th century BC, the Rhodians took possession of  
6  
7 the mainland opposite their island to secure it and exploit it economically: the ‘Rhodian  
8  
9 Peraia’ which initially comprised the Chersonesos.

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14 There is plenty of evidence for the production of wine and the amphorae for the transport of  
15  
16 the wine during the 3rd and 2nd centuries BC when the peninsula was part of the Rhodian  
17  
18 Peraia (Held & Şenol, 2010). Shipwrecks found around the Bozburun Peninsula also provide  
19  
20 evidence for maritime trade during the 3rd century BC (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013b). A  
21  
22 Hellenistic export harbor at Bybassos confirms this context (Held, 2014). Other harbors for  
23  
24 small ships for local and regional trade, and installations for the production of marine goods  
25  
26 like fish or possibly purple dye are located along the shore (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). They create  
27  
28 a network of regional sea transport and connect the Chersonesian economy through large  
29  
30 harbors like Bybassos with the Mediterranean world. In the first century BC, most of the  
31  
32 peninsula was abandoned and resettled only in the 4th century AD, therefore mainly Archaic  
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34 to Hellenistic and Byzantine Period contexts are found in the region.  
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### 42 **3 Regional Setting**

43  
44 Bozburun Peninsula is located in the southeastern Aegean Sea, southwestern Turkey (Figure  
45  
46 1). The studied sites are situated along the western coast of the peninsula, whose shores are  
47  
48 open to Yeşilova Gulf, opposite Symi Island. The gulf is characterized by a narrow shelf area,  
49  
50 particularly in the southern part, and an indented coastline with numerous small islands and  
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52 bays that provide sheltered anchorages for ships.  
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3 Bozburun Peninsula has a rocky coastal zone, mainly characterized by limestone. Mesozoic  
4 carbonates are generally exhibited, the oldest of which is the Upper Triassic-Lower Jurassic  
5 platform (Ersoy, 1993). These carbonates overlap the clastic units and are overlapped by  
6 offshore limestones.  
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14 Coastal evolution of the region is mainly affected by the active tectonic framework of the  
15 Aegean, which is controlled by the effects of subduction along the Hellenic Arc and of  
16 northward subduction of the African plate beneath western Turkey and the Aegean region  
17 (Nomikou et al., 2021; Taymaz et al., 2007). This motion causes a back-arc extension of the  
18 continental crust and southwestward movement of the Turkish plate in the Aegean extensional  
19 province (Taymaz et al., 2007). This movement has been produced significant volcanic  
20 activity on the Aegean Volcanic Arc since Pleistocene with several volcanic centers (e.g.  
21 Santorini, Kos, and Nisyros) (Nomikou et al., 2021). Bozburun Peninsula is situated in this  
22 tectonically active region of the interaction between the eastern end of the Aegean Volcanic  
23 Arc, Fethiye-Burdur Fault Zone (FBFZ), and the Pliny Trench (PT). This tectonic process  
24 caused numerous earthquakes during both historical and instrumental periods, affecting many  
25 archaeological sites. Significant clustered seismicity was recorded near the Yeşilova Gulf, and  
26 in the adjacent Gökova Gulf (Figure 1c).  
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46 Among the most destructive Rhodes earthquakes, it is worth mentioning: in 227 BC, which  
47 caused the collapse of the Colossus of Rhodes (Polybios 5,88); in AD 148, which caused a  
48 tsunami destroying many ships (Aelius Aristides, Rhodiakos 20–26); in 1481 ( $I_0=IX$ ) with  
49 30.000 fatalities; in 1609, which caused that over 10.000 people were reported to be drowned  
50 by a sea wave; and in 1874 ( $I_0=VIII$ ), occurred very close to the study area (Guidoboni et al.,  
51 1994; Soysal et al., 1981). The earthquakes in the 6th and 7th century AD caused damage to  
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3 several ancient cities in western Turkey (e.g. Sagalassos, Laodikeia and Hierapolis)  
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5 (Similox-Tohon et al., 2005). The most recent earthquake activity occurred off the western  
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7 Bozburun Peninsula between 24 to 28 November 2012, which had a mainshock of  $M_L=4.8$   
8  
9 (Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute, 2012) (Figure 1c). In total 582  
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11 earthquakes were recorded with a direction of about N-W, which are caused by local normal  
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13 faults.  
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19 The most destructive and catastrophic event, the Santorini (or Thera) volcanic eruption, took  
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21 place in the Late Bronze Age with accompanying subsequent major earthquakes and  
22  
23 tsunamis. The chronology of the eruption is still disputable between earth scientists (1650-  
24  
25 1600 BC) and archaeologists (1530-1500 BC) (Driessen, 2019). Based on radiocarbon  
26  
27 analyses of catastrophe markers, the most probable date for the Minoan eruption was  
28  
29 suggested as the late 17th century BC (Manning & Kromer, 2012), in particular, c. 1627–1600  
30  
31 BC (Friedrich & Heinemeier, 2009).  
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#### 35 36 37 38 **4 Methodology**

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40 A newly discovered submerged Bronze Age archaeological site in Çamçalık was investigated  
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42 with the aim of estimating the RSL changes on the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula. Two  
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44 adjacent sites in Hıdırlık and Kiseli (Kızıldağ et al., 2012), previously documented and dated  
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46 to the Hellenistic and Early Byzantine periods, were also re-measured and re-evaluated to  
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48 present a long-term sea-level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula. In addition to  
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50 the archaeological sea-level indicators, geomorphological indicators, i.e. marine tidal notches,  
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52 were also studied. To interpret the relative sea-level data, we made an approach for dating and  
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54 an assumption for the minimum original elevation of the observational data (Auriemma &  
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56 Solinas, 2009; Lambeck et al., 2004), and then a comparison with GIA models.  
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#### 4.1 Survey methodology

The fieldwork was focused on measurements of the current elevations of archaeological (i.e. quay and breakwater) and geomorphological (tidal notch) structures, taking the photos and sampling the archaeological material. The first step of the fieldwork was to determine the distribution of the submerged remains by a photogrammetric survey based on taking aerial photos by using DJI Inspire 1 Pro with Zenmuse X5 16MP 30s camera. Then photomosaics were generated by using Agisoft Metashape software (Agisoft LLC., St. Petersburg, Russia). The subsequent stage of the survey was to measure the current elevations of the archaeological and geomorphological structures with respect to the present mean sea level. All the finds were located using a JRC model differential global positioning system (DGPS) receiver.

The upper surface depth from sea level, the height, and the width of the quays and breakwaters were measured (Table 1). As for tidal notch, the vertex depth from sea level, the inward depth and the height were measured. All measurements were taken during periods of low-energy waves. The observed data were reduced to mean sea level by applying tidal corrections at the time of surveys by calculating the residual sea level using a tide gauge dataset obtained from the nearest Marmaris station (<https://tudes.harita.gov.tr>). The local tide amplitude is ~0.3 m on the southwestern coast of Turkey (Yıldırım et al., 2022).

A vertical error was added to the measurements, which could be derived from the accuracy of measurements of the structures (Vacchi et al., 2016) and the condition of the measured surface. Although harbor constructions are good sea-level indicators, they have some limitations when determining whether the measured surface of the structures represents the

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2  
3 original surface at the time of construction (Benjamin et al., 2017). The depths of particular  
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5 functional features of the harbor installations were measured on the best-preserved original  
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7 surface of the structures with consideration of the uncollapsed regular surfaces, both those  
8  
9 extending for meters at almost the same level. Particularly in the Hıdırlık site, the uppermost  
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11 surface of the breakwater clearly reflects the original surface used in the past since the wall  
12  
13 remains can be followed throughout the entire structure. Since the sites are located on a low-  
14  
15 energy coast that is sheltered from winds and waves, no measurement difficulties were  
16  
17 encountered due to the wave effects. Therefore, a vertical error of  $\pm 0.1$  m was added to the  
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19 measurements taken from the preserved surfaces.  
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#### 26 **4.2 Relative sea-level reconstruction**

27  
28 The accuracy of the RSL reconstruction using archaeological sea-level markers depends on  
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30 determining their association with the sea level in the past (Morhange & Marriner, 2015).  
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32 Interface structures of harbors (e.g. quays and breakwaters) provide reliable data on the  
33  
34 amount of sea-level change (Evelpidou & Karkani, 2018; Morhange & Marriner, 2015;  
35  
36 Vacchi et al., 2016). The presence of fixed biological zonation on the archaeological  
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38 structures significantly improves the reliability of sea-level index points (SLIP; indicators of  
39  
40 former RSL) (Morhange & Marriner, 2015). In some cases, the construction technique can  
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42 help to determine the amount of the functional height (the original elevation above the ancient  
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44 MSL) (i.e. by detecting the concrete change between the areas in hydraulic concrete and the  
45  
46 areas in concrete in a subaerial environment) (Aucelli et al., 2020). In case of the absence of  
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48 bio-zonation or any other evidence, the assigning of functional height can have some  
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50 difficulties since it differs by region, age and function of the structure. However, Antonioli et  
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52 al. (2007) and Auriemma & Solinas (2009) suggested a functional height for harbor  
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54 installations (e.g. piers, docks, and breakwaters) of 0.6 m above mean sea level taking into  
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3 account the observations collected at many submerged archaeological sites along the coast of  
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5 Mediterranean. This assumption was widely used in many sea-level studies in recent years  
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7 (e.g. Aucelli et al., 2016; Kızıldağ & Özdaş, 2021; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2020).  
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11  
12 We assigned 0.6 m of minimum original elevation for the quays and breakwaters with respect  
13  
14 to the mean sea level during their operation, taking into consideration (i) the site conditions  
15  
16 (e.g. the protection against wave action and shallow harbor basin), (ii) local tide amplitude  
17  
18 (i.e. micro-tidal range); (iii) the draught of the ancient small boats for the landing to the quay  
19  
20 (e.g. the Ravenna ship from 5th century AD had a draught about 0.5 m; Medas, 2003), (iv) the  
21  
22 modern quays and breakwaters in the Bozburun town (e.g. their elevations of 0.6/0.8±0.1 m  
23  
24 during the mean sea level); and (v) the relevant literature mentioned above. Taking into  
25  
26 account the lack of precise sea-level index points (e.g. biological zonation) we added an error  
27  
28 of ±0.2 m for the uncertainty of the original elevation approximation, which was assumed  
29  
30 based on different interpretations presented by the abovementioned sea-level studies.  
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38 The breakwaters in the studied sites have a maximum height of 1.2 m. They have been built in  
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40 small, shallow, and protected bays and must have been used by the small boats. If we add the  
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42 error of -0.2 m and the high tide of 0.15 m to the presumed “minimum” original elevation of  
43  
44 0.6 m, the emerging segment of a breakwater has a height of 0.25 m and no less than 0.25 m  
45  
46 was presumed for protection. The depth of harbor basin in front of the quay or breakwater was  
47  
48 also considered for presumed original elevation and its error.  
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54 By determining a minimum original elevation, we estimated the paleo RSL position from the  
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56 following equation (Shennan et al., 2015):  
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$$RSL_i = ME_i - OE_i$$

where ME is the measured elevation of the archaeological sea-level marker “i” and OE is the minimum original elevation value for the marker “i”.

### 4.3 Chronological setting

To improve the chronology of RSL changes, we considered the time of the last use of archaeological constructions when they were still functional. Based on the fact that the sites were never used after they were abandoned, this study adopted the approach of the time of the last usage instead of construction time (Kızıldağ, 2019). This provides data on the earliest time of submergence and a more precise estimation. In other words, this approach constrained estimates of the magnitude of the vertical land movements. Archaeological material, i.e. ceramic findings among the submerged harbor structures and architectural remains on land, provided important chronological data. Furthermore, literature and historical records supplied information regarding the abandonment date.

### 4.4 GIA predictions and contributions to the RSL

The separation of glacio-hydro-isostatic signals from the observed sea-level data allows us to identify the amount of tectonic contribution to the RSL change and obtain the vertical tectonic rate (Anzidei et al., 2011; Karkani et al., 2019; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2020; Lambeck et al., 2004; Mattei et al. 2022; Vacchi et al., 2020). In order to identify the expected vertical land movements due to glacio-hydro-isostasy, we computed a set of GIA models for the study area. Then the predictions from GIA models were compared with the observational sea-level data to assess the vertical tectonic movements.

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2  
3 To evaluate the variations of RSL induced by GIA since 5000 BP, we obtained a suite of  
4 high-resolution solutions of the sea-level equation (SLE) using the SELEN4 solver (Spada &  
5 Melini, 2019). The SLE accounts for the gravitationally and topographically self-consistent  
6 response of the Earth to the melting of Late Pleistocene ice sheets, and its basic inputs are the  
7 spatio-temporal evolution of the ice load and the rheological profile of the Earth. We  
8 computed three solutions of the SLE by integrating into SELEN4 the ice chronologies and  
9 viscosity profiles assumed by ICE-6G (Peltier et al., 2015), ICE-7G (Roy & Peltier, 2015;  
10 2017), and one of the iterations of the GIA models progressively developed by K. Lambeck  
11 and collaborators at the Australian National University (ANU; see e.g. Lambeck et al., 2003,  
12 2014; Nakada & Lambeck, 1987). All our simulations are based on a global icosahedral grid  
13 with a spacing of ~40 km and include spectral terms up to harmonic degree  $L=512$  that  
14 correspond to a wavelength of ~80 km on the Earth's surface. The boundary conditions for  
15 paleo-topography have been prescribed by assuming as a present-day topography the bedrock  
16 version of the ETOPO1 global topographic model by Amante & Eakins (2009), integrated  
17 with the Bedmap2 relief (Fretwell et al., 2013) in the Antarctic region (south of 60°S latitude).

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40 As discussed by Melini & Spada (2019), GIA models are affected by different sources of  
41 uncertainties, stemming from imperfect knowledge of the model parameters and by different  
42 approaches to the numerical solution of the SLE. This is of particular relevance in regional-  
43 scale GIA models, since local rheological structure may be significantly different from  
44 average profiles suitable for global GIA models. Following Spada & Melini (2022), through  
45 an ensemble approach, we have evaluated a range of uncertainties associated with RSL  
46 predictions of models ICE-6G and ANU, arising from imperfect knowledge of the regional-  
47 scale rheological structure of the Mediterranean basin. In particular, since hydro-isostatic  
48 effects are mostly controlled by lithospheric flexure, we considered variations of the modeled  
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3 RSL curves corresponding to a range of plausible values of the thickness of the lithosphere  
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5 and evaluated the corresponding 1-sigma uncertainties on the model predictions.  
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## 10 **5 Results**

11  
12 In this study, sea-level data from a new submerged Bronze age site (Çamçalık) and previously  
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14 discovered and re-surveyed and re-measured two submerged archaeological sites (Hıdırlık  
15  
16 and Kiseli) were analyzed to reconstruct the long-term RSL changes occurred along the  
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18 Bozburun Peninsula in the last 3600 years.  
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### 24 **5.1 Çamçalık Bronze Age site**

25  
26 A submerged platform structure containing a large number of archaeological materials was  
27  
28 found at the Çamçalık Bronze Age site (Figure 2). The platform extends about 150 m parallel  
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30 to the shoreline, with a maximum width of 10 m at the northern side of the Çamçalık island,  
31  
32 which is connected to a submerged isthmus to the mainland. The upper surface of the  
33  
34 structure is located at  $-2.5\pm 0.1$  m, while the bottom goes down in an abrupt vertical sheer to  
35  
36 the natural seafloor at  $-4.9\pm 0.1$  m depth. The archaeological materials in this artificial  
37  
38 platform are naturally concreted and cemented with rocky materials (Figure 2d, e).  
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45 Among the archaeological finds, hundreds of loom weights, conical cups, carinated cups,  
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47 stone axes and tools, and a large number of ceramic fragments of pithoi, beak-spouted jugs,  
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49 oval-mouthed amphorae, tripod legs of cooking pots, etc. were recorded, most of them  
50  
51 homogeneous in type and date (Figure 3). While most loom weights and conical cups are  
52  
53 intact, all other ceramic vessels are in poor condition. Removing the cemented archaeological  
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55 material during the archaeological excavation, some well-preserved loom weights, conical  
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57 cups, and pottery fragments were uncovered as uncemented and surrounded by rock pieces.  
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Some wall remains are visible on the top of the eastern section of the platform, extending to the land, which are submerged today (Figure 2b, c). With only one layer of stones, they are barely distinguishable among the debris from a modern fish farm and coastal erosion, partly remaining under modern masonry. The wall remains, which have been constructed by using rubble and roughly-cut stones without mortar, form rectangular structures with a maximum width of 8 m.

During the complimentary survey carried out on land, we obtained only a few finds, scattered over the whole island, and showing the same spectrum. The whole island, despite its uncomfortably steep and rocky slopes, has been inhabited as attested by many small terraces built from rough boulders and up to the peak of the island. The plainer eastern part of the island near the submerged isthmus connecting it to the mainland, which was most suitable for construction, has been destroyed by service buildings and installations of a recent fish farm.

In addition to archaeological materials, we observed geomorphological indicators along the limestone rocky coastline of the site. A distinctive submerged tidal notch structure is identified along the southwestern limestone cliff of the island (Figure 4a). The vertex depth of the notch, which corresponds to the former mean sea level, is approximately  $0.6\pm 0.1$  m lower than the modern shoreline. The inward depth was measured as  $0.8\pm 0.1$  m.

## 5.2 Hıdırlık Hellenistic site

Previous studies carried out in the submerged sites on the coast of Bozburun Peninsula provide a data set for long-term sea-level evaluation (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). A submerged

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2  
3 breakwater located in the Hıdırlık Harbor on the southern coast of Yeşilova Gulf was re-  
4 investigated during the fieldwork. Rubble-mound breakwater has a length of 36 m and  
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6 maximum width of 10 m (Figure 5). The well-preserved top layer, which has been made up of  
7  
8 large rough stones, lies at  $-1.5\pm 0.1$  m (Figure 5b, c). The bottom depth reaches  $2.7\pm 0.1$  m at  
9  
10 the inner basin and  $3.5\pm 0.1$  m at the outer basin. The foundations of a rectangular building  
11  
12 were observed in the inner harbor; whose floors are measured at  $-0.7\pm 0.1$  m.  
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19 This small harbor is linked to a Hellenistic farm by a path, and the breakwater must have  
20 served the farm. An architectural remain dated to the Late Classical/Early Hellenistic Period  
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22 (4th-3rd century BC) is located on the coastline, which is most probably associated with  
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24 harbor activities (Figure 5a, inset). Additionally, the shipwrecks in the surrounding area  
25  
26 confirm a date of 3rd century BC for the time of the usage of the harbor.  
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33 A well-developed submerged tidal notch structure was observed along the coast at a depth of  
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35 0.5 to 0.55 m with a maximum inward depth of 0.4 m (Figure 4b).  
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### 40 **5.3 Kiseli early Byzantine site**

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44 A submerged breakwater is located off Kiseli Island, close to Tymnos ancient city and  
45 modern Bozburun town, which was previously documented by Kızıldağ et al. (2012) (Figure  
46  
47 6a, b). The surface of a rubble mound breakwater is now located at  $-1.0\pm 0.1$  m below present  
48  
49 mean sea level. The depth at the base of 16 m long and 6 m wide breakwater was measured at  
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51  $-1.8\pm 0.1$  m at its seaward end. The breakwater is associated with the adjacent partly  
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53 submerged church remains dated to the early Byzantine period (Figure 6a).  
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3 A submerged quay consisting of rough-cut ashlar blocks is located on the western coast of  
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5 Kiseli Island (Figure 6c). The upper surface of the quay lies at  $-1.0\pm 0.1$  m below present sea  
6  
7 level, while the bottom level lies at  $-2.40\pm 0.1$  m. The foundations belonging to rectangular  
8  
9 buildings on the quay platform are partly submerged. Based on the fact that the building  
10  
11 foundations are located directly upon the quay platform and the quay blocks are preserved and  
12  
13 not collapsed, the current surface of the quay is considered to represent the original surface.  
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19 The adjacent buildings and churches on land are dated to the early Byzantine times, which  
20  
21 were in use until the 7th century AD. The abundance of LR1 amphora sherds, dated to the 5–  
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23 7th century AD (Opait, 2004), near the breakwater and along the coasts provide evidence for  
24  
25 the time of the last usage of the site.  
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31 Similar to other sites, a clear tidal notch structure is located at  $-0.6$  m with a maximum inward  
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33 depth of  $0.3$  m that continuous along the entire rocky coast (Figure 4c). No present-day notch  
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35 is observed.  
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## 40 **6 Discussion**

### 41 42 43 44 **6.1 A Bronze Age quay**

45 The investigation of Bronze Age harbors in the Aegean Sea is a major challenge for  
46  
47 researchers since most of them are submerged or buried due to geomorphological changes like  
48  
49 sea-level changes, siltation, marine erosion, and tectonic movements, which have occurred  
50  
51 since that time (Tartaron, 2013). Before coastal geomorphological studies accelerated, the  
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53 problem of long-term coastal change was widely ignored as it was assumed that Bronze Age  
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55 coastal morphology remained unchanged until today.  
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5 The known Bronze age harbors (e.g. the Minoan harbors of Gournia, Pseira, Kommos,  
6 Amnissos, Malia, and Mochlos) exhibit some common characteristics, including natural  
7 protection from the prevailing wind; a promontory or bay where ships can moor; an  
8 installation for winter storage of ships; storage facilities for goods; and a location near trade  
9 activity (Blackman, 1982; Watrous, 2012). According to Shaw (1990), the preferred  
10 topography was peninsulas with sandy beaches on both sides as landing places. Tartaron et al.  
11 (2003) successfully used this “double harbor arrangement” pattern to detect Bronze Age  
12 harbors by reconstructing the shoreline.  
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26 According to most scholars, the Aegean harbors of the Bronze Age were not supplied with  
27 maritime installations (e.g. quays and piers); instead, sandy beaches were used for landing,  
28 where the ships could be dragged on land (e.g. Loizou, 2016; Shaw, 1990; Tartaron et al.,  
29 2003). After geomorphological reconstruction of the harbor of Zakros in Crete, Guttandin et  
30 al. (2011) suggested that the harbor was originally located in a bay that since then has been  
31 silted up and had a jetty at its entrance and probably quays erected from large boulders along  
32 the shore. Similar quays may be recognized on the ship fresco from Akrotiri, where—next to  
33 the mentioned bay with small ships on the beach—in a neighboring bay two ships are depicted,  
34 berthing with their sterns perpendicular to the shore or a quay (Blackman, 2011; Guttandin et  
35 al., 2011).  
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51 The most recent discussion was presented by Hadjidaki (2021) about the Minoan natural or  
52 artificial harbors. To construct a harbor at Kapetaniana (Crete), the top of the small reef was  
53 flattened, and lines of stones were placed on top of it, thus producing a mole of 40 m in  
54 length. Furthermore, in the region where the coast was flat enough, an artificial installation  
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3 was provided, which was created from pottery concreted within the boulders and sherds, for  
4 additional protection and landings of the ships. A man-made mole or breakwater is located in  
5 the harbor of Cape Plaka (Crete), built on top of a natural reef with some lines of large  
6 boulders (Hadjidaki, 2004).  
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14 The artificial platform of Çamçalık must have provided a quay function in the Bronze Age  
15 topography of the site (Figure 7). Associated with some Minoan harbor works in Crete, it  
16 seems to have been a construction of rough boulders producing a slightly sloping quay, rather  
17 than a vertical masonry stone wall. This yet is not an obstacle for the use as a quay, provided  
18 that the ships docked with the bow towards the quay, and an anchor at the stern-or the other  
19 way round. This is the usual system of berthing in the Mediterranean, even today ships are  
20 using a quay of rough boulders. The presence of the wall stones on the platform provides  
21 evidence for its function as a quay. The platform must have provided a dry area for the  
22 landing of ships and cargo transfer. With an average width of 10 m, the platform has offered  
23 sufficient space for the erection of small buildings.  
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## 40 **6.2 Cultural context of Çamçalık**

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42 The spectrum of the Çamçalık pottery, which contains conical cups, three-legged cooking  
43 pots, spherical loom weights, etc., is culturally associated with the household pottery of  
44 Minoan, Bronze Age Aegean culture (Momigliano, 2012). In particular, the use of Linear A  
45 script on three loom weights provides clear evidence of Minoan culture (Silvia Ferrara,  
46 Bologna, pers. comm.). The closest finds of pottery are dated between Middle Minoan III  
47 (MM III) to Late Minoan I (LM I) phases, i.e. to the Neopalatial Period in Crete (Watrous,  
48 2021). In addition, the pottery shows the typical range of Minoanising settlements in Anatolia  
49 such as Iasos or Miletos. There was a network between the Aegean islands and the Anatolian  
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3 mainland (Momigliano, 2009). The MM III to LM I periods are well attested in Anatolia and  
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5 correspond to phase IV at Miletos (Niemeier, 2005; 2007). Çamçalık pottery is very similar to  
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7 that of Miletos IV, with 95% of the pottery determined as Minoan types, most of it locally  
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9 produced, and only 5% local western Anatolian types (Niemeier, 2005; 2007).

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14 Since no other period is attested in the finds, the submerged platform of Çamçalık can be  
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16 dated to the MM III/LM IA period (1600 BC). Since material from later periods is absent, the  
17  
18 occupation at Çamçalık had only one phase before its destruction and abandonment. The end  
19  
20 of the settlement may have been caused by the Santorini eruption, accompanied by co-seismic  
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22 tectonic movements. The eruption also caused a period of decline at Iasos (Momigliano, 2012;  
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24 Niemeier, 2007).

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29 Çamçalık is unique in terms of providing the largest collection of Bronze Age finds ever  
30  
31 found underwater in Anatolia. One of the puzzling results of the previous land or underwater  
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33 surveys on the Bozburun Peninsula was the almost complete lack of evidence for Bronze Age  
34  
35 coastal settlements. Nevertheless, Bronze Age finds from the underwater survey in the  
36  
37 Hisarönü Bay and at Loryma (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2016; Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2017) proved that  
38  
39 the area has been used in the Bronze Age by ships. The discovery of the Çamçalık Bronze  
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41 Age site complemented and explained the underwater finds filling a gap in the literature in  
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43 this region.  
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### 51 **6.3 Relative sea-level evaluation**

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53 The submersion of the harbor structure of the Çamçalık site led to the identification of a sea-  
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55 level stand during the Bronze Age. Taking into consideration the assumed original elevation  
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3 for the quay and the last time of use for the site, the RSL change was determined by using the  
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5 equation  $RSL_i$  to be at least  $3.1 \pm 0.3$  m during the last 3600 years.  
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10 Data from nearby submerged sites on the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula provide a data set  
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12 for long-term sea-level evaluation (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). The breakwaters in Hıdırlık and  
13  
14 Kiseli sites are well-dated based on the architectural remains on land and ceramic findings  
15  
16 among the submerged architectural remains. In particular, the abandonment history of the  
17  
18 Early Byzantine site provides a more precise date for submergence. Taking into account the  
19  
20 assumed minimum original elevation of  $0.6 \pm 0.2$  m for the breakwaters at the time of their use,  
21  
22 two different sea-level stands can be inferred from Hıdırlık and Kiseli sites by using the  
23  
24 equation  $RSL_i$ : at  $-2.1 \pm 0.3$  m during the Hellenistic Period (~2300 BP) and  $-1.6 \pm 0.3$  m during  
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26 the Early Byzantine Period (~1400 BP) respectively.  
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33 Sea-level studies carried out in the Mediterranean present comprehensive RSL data for  
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35 Bronze Age. Henderson et al. (2011) suggest that the foundations of the buildings at Bronze  
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37 Age Pavlopetri have been submerged by c. 4–5 m during the last 5000 years, due largely to  
38  
39 tectonic factors. The submerged Early Bronze Age (EBA) settlement building walls at  
40  
41 Platiyali extend to a depth of at least 5 m below present sea level. Another submerged EBA  
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43 settlement, Salanti, is found at a depth of 4 m below present sea level. Over a hundred bronze  
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45 axes from EBA were found at a depth of 3.5 m below present sea level in the Glyfada-Mesi  
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47 site. Moreover, Evelpidou et al. (2018) identified a submerged shoreline at -2.8 m based on a  
48  
49 tidal notch in Naxos Island (the Cyclades in the Aegean Sea), which must have been  
50  
51 developed at least before 3350 to 4200 BP. Kolaiti & Mourtzas (2016) determined a sea-level  
52  
53 stand of  $3.3 \pm 0.15$  m during the Middle Bronze Age in the west Saronic Gulf. The beachrock  
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55 formations located in the Mykonos–Delos–Rhenia region in Cyclades, Greece, indicate a sea-  
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3 level stability at  $-3.6$  m around 2000 BC (Desruelles et al., 2009). Based on beachrock data,  
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5 Karkani et al. (2017) suggested that the relative sea level rose by at least 3.8 m in the last  
6  
7 4000 years in the central Cyclades. Although Çamçalık has different tectonic characteristics  
8  
9 comparable with other Mediterranean tectonically active areas, sea-level data seem to be  
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11 compatible with the other sites.  
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17 Antonioli et al. (2011) suggested a RSL rise of 2.3 m and tectonic subsidence of about  
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19  $1.48 \pm 0.3$  mm/yr since the last 2300 years for the southwestern Turkish coasts. RSL rise of at  
20  
21 least 2.8 m over the past 1400 years is suggested for Kekova (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013).  
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24 Recent detailed studies demonstrated that Fethiye coasts have a greater amount of RSL rise of  
25  
26  $3.1-4.6 \pm 0.3$  m in the Gulf of Fethiye (Kızıldağ, 2019) and  $2.2-3.1 \pm 0.3$  m on the eastern coast  
27  
28 of Fethiye (Kızıldağ & Özdaş, 2021) over the last 1400 years. This remarkable difference in  
29  
30 RSL changes between the regions confirms that the local scale tectonic processes have an  
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32 important effect on the submergence of coastal sites.  
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37 Relative sea-level variations in the Mediterranean basin, which is in the far-field of the former  
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39 Late Pleistocene ice sheets, are mostly controlled by hydro-isostatic effects due to meltwater  
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41 load and associated with vertical land movements stemming from the combined effect of  
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43 tectonics and GIA (Spada & Melini, 2022). Figure 8 shows modeled relative-sea level in the  
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45 study area according to the GIA models ICE-6G, ICE-7G and ANU; the range of 1-sigma  
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47 epistemic uncertainties associated with ICE-6G and ANU, obtained through the ensemble  
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49 approach outlined above, corresponds to shaded areas. Taking into account the amplitude of  
50  
51 uncertainties, ICE-6G indicates a substantially stable sea level since 3600 BP, and a slow RSL  
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53 rise for earlier epochs, while ICE-7G predicts a highstand of about 0.2m between 2000 and  
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55 3600 BP, with the modeled RSL curve according to ICE-7G being at the upper boundary of  
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3 the 1-sigma confidence interval of the ICE-6G RSL prediction. Conversely, the ANU model  
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5 predicts a much faster RSL rise between 3600–1400 BP, followed by a slower rise up to the  
6  
7 present sea level. The qualitative difference between predictions from ICE-X and ANU  
8  
9 reflects different eustatic curves as well as different rheological profiles assumed by the  
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11 models considered.  
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17 The maximum GIA contribution to the vertical land movement is  $0.9\pm 0.2$  m for the last 3600  
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19 years;  $0.3\pm 0.1$  m for the last 2300 years; and  $0.1\pm 0.05$  m for the last 1400 years. In  
20  
21 comparison with the GIA curves, our archaeological index points remained at a lower  
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23 position. The difference between predictions from GIA models and archaeological sea-level  
24  
25 index points allows us estimating the magnitude of local vertical tectonic displacement in the  
26  
27 study area. Removing the maximum GIA component, we estimate a tectonic subsidence rate  
28  
29 of at least  $0.6\pm 0.5$  mm/yr over the last 3600 years. Nevertheless, GIA calculations indicate  
30  
31 that there is a remarkable increase in vertical tectonic movement after Early Byzantine times.  
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37 The comparison of the current positions of the Early Byzantine remains at  $-1.0\pm 0.1$  m with the  
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39 tidal notch at  $-0.6\pm 0.1$  m verifies that the sea level has remained stable at  $-0.6\pm 0.1$  m and a  
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41 tidal notch has developed after the submersion of Early Byzantine remains. In other words, a  
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43 most recent vertical displacement has occurred in the last 1400 years. The inward depth of a  
44  
45 notch is related to the duration of sea-level stability. Evelpidou et al. (2014) suggested that  
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47 notches can develop at rates of bioerosion between 0.2 and 1.0 mm/yr in the Mediterranean  
48  
49 coastline. Nevertheless, the rock lithology and the contribution of several processes (e.g.  
50  
51 fresh-water springs, wave energy and bioerosion rate) have important roles in notch formation  
52  
53 (Antonioli et al., 2015). Anyhow, the inward depth of about  $0.8\pm 0.1$  m indicates long-term  
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55 sea-level stability in a timespan between the Early Byzantine times and modern times.  
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5 The fact that the presence of one prominent tidal notch structure, which is almost fixedly  
6 observed throughout the western part of the Bozburun Peninsula, and the absence of the  
7 deeper ones may confirm sudden submergence in a timescale after the Early Byzantine Period  
8 and gradual submergence between the Late Bronze Age and Early Byzantine Period. When  
9 the rate of RSL change is greater than the rate of bioerosion, a tidal notch does not form  
10 (Evelpidou et al., 2014). The fact that the absence of any biologic or geomorphologic sea-  
11 level indicator on the vertical surface of the 150 m long and 2.4 m thick monolithic platform,  
12 which exhibits a homogeneous formation from top to bottom, may support the assumption of  
13 gradual submergence after the Bronze age occupation, mostly associated with ANU model.  
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28 The presence of present-day development of tidal notches is still debatable. Based on studies  
29 carried out along tectonically active Greek coastlines, Evelpidou et al. (2012) suggested that  
30 the modern tidal notch is disappearing because the bioerosion rate remained lower than the  
31 rate of sea-level rise during the last century (~1.4 mm/yr). Conversely, Antonioli et al. (2015)  
32 proposed that the current notch is present in the vast majority of tectonically stable carbonate  
33 coasts in the central Mediterranean. However, the global rise in sea level at a rate of ~1.4  
34 mm/yr since the late 19th century should not be ignored at this point (Church et al., 2008).  
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47 The proposed date of the archaeological finds in Çamçalık corresponds to the period shortly  
48 before the Santorini eruption, which may have caused the end of the settlement. The Çamçalık  
49 quay must have lost its function after the Late Bronze Age, with catastrophic events  
50 accompanying the Bronze Age eruption of Santorini. This assumption fits with the proposed  
51 date for archaeological finds. The absence of later layers can confirm that life must have been  
52 interrupted by an earthquake and the eruption of Santorini.  
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5 The Late Bronze Age Minoan eruption of Santorini is one of the most powerful volcanic  
6 eruptions known to have occurred during the Holocene (Eastwood et al., 2002). The eruption  
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8 must have been triggered by one or more earthquakes ( $I_0=X$ ) (Soysal et al., 1981), which  
9  
10 caused damage in Rhodes, Kos, and Crete (Driessen, 2019). The fact that there are no  
11  
12 archaeological remains from the Bronze Age to the Hellenistic Period in the site indicates that  
13  
14 Çamçalık was abandoned as a result of one or more catastrophic events. Similarly, there is a  
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16 gap between Early Byzantine and modern times in the surrounding region, which can be  
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18 explained by ongoing seismic events, causing the coastal changes.  
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## 26 **7 Conclusions**

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31 By producing new data from the recently discovered Bronze Age site, the relative sea-level  
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33 history along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula in the last 3600 years was reconstructed for the  
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35 first time with this study. The comparison of the observed RSL data with predictions from  
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37 recently published GIA models allowed us to evaluate the impact of the vertical tectonic  
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39 movement. Precise chronological data provided evidence to determine an accurate timespan  
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41 (e.g. archaeological material mixed with harbor constructions and abandonment history) and  
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43 then to constrain the magnitude of the vertical land movement.  
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50 Our results suggest that observed sea-level change is due to equal contributions of GIA and  
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52 tectonic factors (ANU model) or only to tectonics (ICE-X models) between 3600-1400 BP,  
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54 while the tectonic contribution is considerably dominant after 1400 BP. A rapid acceleration  
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56 in the submergence of the coastline was defined between Early Byzantine and modern times.  
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58 This indicates that the seismic activity in the study area produced vertical land movement  
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3 during this period. Geomorphological sea-level markers confirmed that a long-term sea-level  
4 stand occurred after Early Byzantine archaeological remains had submerged. On the contrary,  
5 the absence of deeper tidal notches or biological layers on the Bronze Age quay platform can  
6 be attributed to a gradual RSL rise.  
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14 The results obtained in this study highlight the complex history of sea-level changes in the  
15 coastal sector of the Bozburun Peninsula, which is located in the active tectonic segment of  
16 the southeastern Aegean Sea. The tectonic regime due to interaction between the Hellenic Arc  
17 subduction zone and Aegean Volcanic Arc is responsible for the submersion of coastal  
18 archaeological sites, predominantly in the last 1400 years. A recent earthquake activity that  
19 occurred in 2012 verifies that the western coast of the Bozburun Peninsula is still under the  
20 influence of ongoing seismicity.  
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33 This study demonstrates that RSL changes had a significant impact on the past cultures that  
34 were living in the coastal zone of the Bozburun Peninsula. Further studies would improve our  
35 understanding to produce future scenarios regarding the impact of relative sea-level rise on  
36 coastal occupation by considering both local tectonic estimates and the projections of 21st  
37 century sea-level rise.  
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## 26 27 28 **Figure Captions**

29  
30 Figure 1. (a) the location map of studied submerged sites (red icon); (b) tectonic setting of the  
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32 Aegean Sea (modified from Taymaz et al., 2007) and the submerged Bronze Age sites  
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34 (black icon) along the Aegean coastline (compiled from Galanidou et al., 2020); (c)  
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36 Seismotectonic map of the study area and its surrounding region. Epicenters of earthquakes  
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38 in historical and instrumental periods (between 1950-2022) were obtained from the  
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40 seismicity catalogue of Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute (KOERI).  
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42 The focal mechanism solutions of earthquakes in 2012 and 2017 were reported by KOERI  
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46 Figure 2. (a) Aerial photo of Çamçalık island and its vicinity, (b) and (c) submerged wall  
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48 stones upon the quay surface, (d) front view of the quay platform, (e) vertical surface of the  
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50 quay exhibiting calcareous structure mixed with limestone and pottery sherds  
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54 Figure 3. The artifacts from Çamçalık: beak-spouted jug, loom weight with Linear A, conical  
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56 cup, oval-mouthed amphora  
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3 Figure 4. Submerged tidal notch structures in (a) Çamçalık; (b) Hıdırlık; and (c) Kiseli.

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5 Measurements were taken on 08/26/2019 at 13.00 (from Çamçalık and Kiseli) and  
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7 08/27/2019 at 14.30 (from Hıdırlık). (d) Trend-removal tidal amplitude in the study area.

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9 Data obtained from nearest tide gauge station located at Marmaris. The red icons indicate  
10  
11 the tide levels during the measurements of sea-level indicators

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14 Figure 5. (a, b) Aerial photos from Hıdırlık harbor with Hellenistic building on the coast (inset  
15  
16 photo) and (c) underwater photo of Hıdırlık breakwater.

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19 Figure 6. (a) Aerial photo from Kiseli breakwater and church remains; (b) underwater photo  
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21 of breakwater; and (c) aerial photo of quay with the position of sea level during survey  
22  
23 (inset photo)

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26 Figure 7. Representative section of the Çamçalık quay platform

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29 Figure 8. Comparison of observed sea-level data with newly modeled GIA curves. Sea-level  
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31 index points were displayed with vertical error bar for depth and horizontal error bar for  
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33 age. The RSL curves for ICE-6G (red), ICE-7G (green) and ANU (blue) have been  
34  
35 obtained through a high resolution numerical solution of the SLE. Shaded areas correspond  
36  
37 to uncertainties on GIA predictions of ICE-6G and ANU associated to possible variations  
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39 of the rheological parameters and have been estimated through a mini-ensemble approach

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41  
42 Table 1. Archaeological data used to reconstruct the relative sea-level evolution of the  
43  
44 Bozburun Peninsula. AI: archaeological indicator, C: chronology based on time of the last  
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46 use, MD: measured depth of archaeological remains, ME: the error estimate derives from  
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48 measurement uncertainties, TL: tide level according to mean sea level during the survey,  
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50 CD: corrected depth for tide with measurement error  
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3 **New insights on the sea-level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula (Turkey),**  
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5 **from the submerged Bronze Age harbor in Çamçalık**  
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24 **Abstract**  
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26 Recent discovery of a Bronze Age harbor site in Çamçalık provided new data for **relative** sea-  
27 level history along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula for the last 3600 years. The new data and  
28 the previously published data from the nearby sites were compared with the aim of  
29 understanding long-term relative sea-level changes. The further comparison of the observed  
30 sea-level data and newly produced glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA) models clarifies the  
31 tectonic contribution to the relative sea-level changes. Our results suggest a non-linear  
32 tectonic subsidence trend in the coastal zone since 3600 BP. An acceleration of the relative  
33 sea-level rise has occurred since the last 1400 years, mostly due to seismic events controlled  
34 by the tectonic regime of the southeastern Aegean Sea. As in the past, this active tectonic  
35 process will have a major impact on the future sea-level evolution of the coastal sector of the  
36 Bozburun Peninsula.  
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51 *Keywords:* Bronze Age harbor, relative sea-level change, archaeological sea-level indicators,  
52 tectonic subsidence, Bozburun Peninsula, Çamçalık  
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## 1 Introduction

The coastal areas of the Bozburun Peninsula, ancient Karian Chersonesos, in the southwestern Turkey have been inhabited for thousands of years. Most of the coastal sites are dated to the Late Roman-Early Byzantine Period, many to the Hellenistic Period, and only a few to earlier periods (Held, 2019). Due to relative sea-level (RSL) changes, the coastal archaeological remains are now partly or totally submerged in this shoreline. On the other hand, no evidence of the existence of a Bronze Age settlement has been found so far on this peninsula.

As a part of the Shipwreck Inventory Project of Turkey (SHIPT), which has been mapping and documenting the shipwrecks and submerged archaeological sites along the Turkish coasts since 2005 (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013a), a recent coastal archaeological investigation has been initiated on the Bozburun Peninsula, focusing on the submerged archaeological remains on the coastal zone (Figure 1). During the 2019 survey, a Bronze Age coastal site was discovered on Çamçalık island, which is partially submerged due to RSL changes.

The RSL changes are the combined effect of eustatic, glacio-hydro-isostatic, and tectonic factors (Khan et al., 2015; Nakada & Lambeck, 1987; Peltier, 2004; Pirazzoli, 1997; 2005). The eustatic-isostatic contribution is associated with glacial meltwater inputs to the oceans and can be predicted by means of Glacio-Isostatic Adjustment (GIA) models, which require the spatio-temporal evolution of ice sheets and the Earth rheological profile (Stocchi & Spada, 2009) as inputs. Conversely, the tectonic contribution is less predictable and can be evaluated from the shoreline markers (Rovere et al., 2016). Since the meltwater input in the past 4000 years is small with respect to the deglaciation history in the last glacial cycle (Khan et al., 2015; Church et al., 2008; Lambeck et al., 2014; Peltier, 2004), any changes in RSL in this time frame are expected to stem from the sum of the GIA and tectonic movements rather than

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3 eustatic contribution. ~~A procedure was recently proposed by Mattei et al. (2022) in order to~~  
4 ~~evaluate vertical displacements and tectonic behaviors of Italian coasts by comparing~~  
5 ~~bibliographic and new sea-level data and GIA.~~ Based on the data from archaeological sites of  
6 Fethiye, Anzidei et al. (2011) suggest that GIA contribution to the RSL changes plays a minor  
7 role and tectonic subsidence has a major contribution along the southwestern coasts of Turkey  
8 over the last 2300 years. GPS measurements and sea-level data obtained from Bodrum tide  
9 gauge (southwestern coasts of Turkey) confirm no significant vertical land motion between  
10 1993 and 2009 in the region (Yıldız et al., 2013) and glacio-isostatic adjustment is suggested  
11 negligible (-0.01–0.16 mm/yr) (Yıldırım et al., 2022).

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26 ~~Since tectonically active coasts are exposed to ongoing relative sea-level changes, those areas~~  
27 ~~need to be examined very sensitively to generate future scenarios for inundation.~~ RSL  
28 changes can be inferred from the observations that have a direct relationship with sea levels in  
29 the past, which are called sea-level indicators, or sea-level index points. Those are defined as  
30 any archaeological, **biological** or geological feature that was constructed, formed, or deposited  
31 in connection with a former sea level (Morhange et al., 2001; Rovere et al., 2016). The current  
32 position of submerged coastal archaeological structures, which had a direct relationship with  
33 the shoreline during their operation, is used as a reliable indicator of past sea levels.

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47 Previous studies indicated that the Mediterranean Sea has a great number of archaeological  
48 indicators of the sea-level variations of the last 4000 years (Anzidei et al., 2014; Auriemma &  
49 Solinas, 2009; Evelpidou et al., 2018; Flemming, 1978; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2016; Lambeck  
50 et al., 2018; Morhange et al., 2013; Pavlopoulos et al., 2012; Pirazzoli, 1976). The  
51 geoarchaeological assessment of submerged maritime and coastal constructions provided data  
52 on RSL changes along the coast of southwestern Turkey since Early Byzantine times (Anzidei  
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3 et al., 2011; Flemming et al., 1973; Kızıldağ et al., 2012; Kızıldağ, 2019; Kızıldağ & Özdaş,  
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5 2021; Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013a; Stock et al., 2020). Nevertheless, no Bronze Age  
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7 archaeological sea-level evidence could be obtained until now to provide data on the sea-level  
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9 history of southwestern Turkish coasts.  
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14 In this study, sea-level data from a newly discovered Bronze Age site are presented to  
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16 reconstruct the long-term sea-level evolution along the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula.  
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19 Previously published data from two nearby sites, which were obtained under the SHIPT  
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21 project, have been re-measured and re-evaluated in this study. A comparison of the observed  
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23 data with sea-level predictions from GIA models provided an estimate for the tectonic  
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25 component of the vertical displacement of the coastal sites.  
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## 28 29 30 31 **2 Archaeological Framework**

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33 First settlers on the Chersonesos, modern Bozburun Peninsula, go back to the Chalcolithic  
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35 Period (Gerber, 2019). For the following Bronze Age, no evidence has been found during the  
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37 land surveys, except for two stone axes in Loryma (Gerber, 2019). This seemingly contradicts  
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39 the Chersonesian place names which date back to the Bronze Age and indicate a continuity  
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41 not yet visible in the archaeological record.  
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47 Archaeological surveys on Loryma, Bybassos, and Kastabos provided significant data on  
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49 Chersonesos history (Held & Wilkening-Aumann, 2015; Held, 2019). In the first millennium  
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51 BC, the Chersonesos has been **certainly** inhabited by Karians. In the Geometric Period, they  
52  
53 seem not to have been sedentary but rather nomadic shepherds who erected simple refuge  
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55 forts on the top of hills and mountains, which were only used in case of emergency (Held,  
56  
57 2019). Around the late 8th or early 7th century BC, they became sedentary and settled down  
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3 in about 15 small but well-fortified settlements. The Chersonesians had a decentral political  
4 organization and settlement pattern which considerably differs from the model of the Greek  
5 polis with one central city (*asty*) and a rural area (*chora*) around it, as in neighboring Knidos  
6 or Rhodos. This non-central pattern is typical Karian. In the 4th century BC, the Rhodians  
7 took possession of the mainland opposite their island to secure it and exploit it economically:  
8 the ‘Rhodian Peraia’ which initially comprised the Chersonesos.  
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19 ~~In 305 BC, Demetrios Poliorketes, one of the Diadochi fighting for the heritage of~~  
20 ~~Alexander’s Macedonian Empire, attacked Rhodos, starting from Loryma on the Chersonesos.~~  
21 ~~After the siege of Rhodos which lasted for a whole year, Demetrios left Rhodos without~~  
22 ~~success but leaving behind a devastated island. The Rhodians subsequently took possession of~~  
23 ~~the mainland opposite of their island to secure it and to exploit it economically: the ‘Rhodian~~  
24 ~~Peraia’ which initially comprised the Chersonesos, its neighboring region to the north~~  
25 ~~‘Apeiros’, and Physkos (modern Marmaris). In the first century BC, most of the peninsula~~  
26 ~~was abandoned and resettled only in the 4th century AD, so that mainly Archaic to Hellenistic~~  
27 ~~and Byzantine Period contexts are found in the region.~~  
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42 There is plenty of evidence for the production of wine and the amphorae for the transport of  
43 the wine during the 3rd and 2nd centuries BC when the peninsula was part of the Rhodian  
44 Peraia (Held & Şenol, 2010). Shipwrecks found around the Bozburun Peninsula also provide  
45 evidence for maritime trade during the 3rd century BC (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013b). A  
46 Hellenistic export harbor at Bybassos confirms this context (Held, 2014). Other harbors for  
47 small ships for local and regional trade, and installations for the production of marine goods  
48 like fish or possibly purple dye are located along the shore (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). They create  
49 a network of regional sea transport and connect the Chersonesian economy through large  
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3 harbors like Bybassos with the Mediterranean world. In the first century BC, most of the  
4 peninsula was abandoned and resettled only in the 4th century AD, therefore mainly Archaic  
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6 to Hellenistic and Byzantine Period contexts are found in the region.  
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### 10 11 12 **3 Regional Setting** 13

14 Bozburun Peninsula is located in the southeastern Aegean Sea, southwestern Turkey (Figure  
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16 1). The studied sites are situated along the western coast of the peninsula, whose shores are  
17 open to Yeşilova Gulf, opposite Symi Island. The gulf is characterized by a narrow shelf area,  
18 particularly in the southern part, and an indented coastline with numerous small islands and  
19 bays that provide sheltered anchorages for ships.  
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28 Bozburun Peninsula has a rocky coastal zone, mainly characterized by limestone. Mesozoic  
29 carbonates are generally exhibited, the oldest of which is the Upper Triassic-Lower Jurassic  
30 platform (Ersoy, 1993). These carbonates overlap the clastic units and are overlapped by  
31 offshore limestones.  
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38 Coastal evolution of the region is mainly affected by the active tectonic framework of the  
39 Aegean, which is controlled by the effects of subduction along the Hellenic Arc and of  
40 northward subduction of the African plate beneath western Turkey and the Aegean region  
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46 (Nomikou et al., 2021; Taymaz et al., 2007). This motion causes a back-arc extension of the  
47 continental crust and southwestward movement of the Turkish plate in the Aegean extensional  
48 province (Taymaz et al., 2007). This movement has been produced significant volcanic  
49 activity on the Aegean Volcanic Arc since Pleistocene with several volcanic centers (e.g.  
50 Santorini, Kos, and Nisyros) (Nomikou et al., 2021). Bozburun Peninsula is situated in this  
51 tectonically active region of the interaction between the eastern end of the Aegean Volcanic  
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3 Arc, Fethiye-Burdur Fault Zone (FBFZ), and the Pliny Trench (PT). This tectonic process  
4 caused numerous earthquakes during both historical and instrumental periods, affecting many  
5 archaeological sites. Significant clustered seismicity was recorded near the Yeşilova Gulf, and  
6  
7 in the adjacent Gökova Gulf (Figure 1c).  
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14 Among the most destructive Rhodes earthquakes, it is worth mentioning: in 227 BC, which  
15 caused the collapse of the Colossus of Rhodes (Polybios 5,88); in AD 148, which caused a  
16 tsunami destroying many ships (Aelius Aristides, Rhodiakos 20–26); in 1481 ( $I_0=IX$ ) with  
17 30.000 fatalities; in 1609, which caused that over 10.000 people were reported to be drowned  
18 by a sea wave; and in 1874 ( $I_0=VIII$ ), occurred very close to the study area (Guidoboni et al.,  
19 1994; Soysal et al., 1981). The earthquakes in the 6th and 7th century AD caused damage to  
20 several ancient cities in western Turkey (e.g. Sagalassos, Laodikeia and Hierapolis)  
21 (Similox-Tohon et al., 2005). The most recent earthquake activity occurred off the western  
22 Bozburun Peninsula between 24 to 28 November 2012, which had a mainshock of  $M_L=4.8$   
23 (Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute, 2012) (Figure 1c). In total 582  
24 earthquakes were recorded with a direction of about N-W, which are caused by local normal  
25 faults.  
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45 The most destructive and catastrophic event, the Santorini (or Thera) volcanic eruption, took  
46 place in the Late Bronze Age with accompanying subsequent major earthquakes and  
47 tsunamis. ~~Those events ruined the coastline of the Cycladic islands, Crete, southwestern~~  
48 ~~Turkey, and the eastern Mediterranean.~~ The chronology of the eruption is still disputable  
49 between earth scientists (1650-1600 BC) and archaeologists (1530-1500 BC) (Driessen,  
50 2019). Based on radiocarbon analyses of catastrophe markers, the most probable date for the  
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3 Minoan eruption was suggested as the late 17th century BC (Manning & Kromer, 2012), in  
4 particular, c. 1627–1600 BC (Friedrich & Heinemeier, 2009).  
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10 ~~The presence of a sedimentary deposit off Israel revealed that tsunami waves from the~~  
11 ~~Santorini eruption radiated throughout the eastern Mediterranean Sea, affecting the coastal~~  
12 ~~sites (Goodman et al., 2009). A thick layer of debris left from a series of strong tsunamis~~  
13 ~~related to the Santorini eruption was identified in Çeşme-Bağlararası, western Turkey~~  
14 ~~(Şahoğlu et al., 2022).~~  
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#### 24 **4 Bronze Age shorelines in the Aegean Sea**

### 25 26 27 28 **4 Methodology**

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30 A newly discovered submerged Bronze Age archaeological site in Çamçalık was investigated  
31 with the aim of estimating the RSL changes on the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula. Two  
32 adjacent sites in Hıdırlık and Kiseli (Kızıldağ et al., 2012), previously documented and dated  
33 to the Hellenistic and Early Byzantine periods, were also re-measured and re-evaluated to  
34 present a long-term sea-level evolution along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula. In addition to  
35 the archaeological sea-level indicators, geomorphological indicators, i.e. marine tidal notches,  
36 were also studied. To interpret the relative sea-level data, we made an approach for dating and  
37 an assumption for the minimum original elevation of the observational data (Auriemma &  
38 Solinas, 2009; Lambeck et al., 2004), and then a comparison with GIA models.  
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#### 54 **4.1 Survey methodology**

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56 The fieldwork was focused on measurements of the current elevations of archaeological (i.e.  
57 quay and breakwater) and geomorphological (tidal notch) structures, taking the photos and  
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3 sampling the archaeological material. The first step of the fieldwork was to determine the  
4 distribution of the submerged remains by a photogrammetric survey based on taking aerial  
5 photos by using DJI Inspire 1 Pro with Zenmuse X5 16MP 30s camera. Then photomosaics  
6 were generated by using Agisoft Metashape software (Agisoft LLC., St. Petersburg, Russia).  
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8 The subsequent stage of the survey was to measure the current elevations of the  
9 archaeological and geomorphological structures with respect to the present mean sea level.  
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11 All the finds were located using a JRC model differential global positioning system (DGPS)  
12 receiver.

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15 The upper surface depth from sea level, the height, and the width of the quays and  
16 breakwaters were measured (Table 1). As for tidal notch, the vertex depth from sea level, the  
17 inward depth and the height were measured. All measurements were taken during periods of  
18 low-energy waves. The observed data were reduced to mean sea level by applying tidal  
19 corrections at the time of surveys by calculating the residual sea level using a tide gauge  
20 dataset obtained from the nearest Marmaris station (<https://tudes.harita.gov.tr>). The local tide  
21 amplitude is ~0.3 m on the southwestern coast of Turkey (Yıldırım et al., 2022).

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24 A vertical error was added to the measurements, which could be derived from the accuracy of  
25 measurements of the structures (Vacchi et al., 2016) and the condition of the measured  
26 surface. Although harbor constructions are good sea-level indicators, they have some  
27 limitations when determining whether the measured surface of the structures represents the  
28 original surface at the time of construction (Benjamin et al., 2017). The depths of particular  
29 functional features of the harbor installations were measured on the best-preserved original  
30 surface of the structures with consideration of the uncollapsed regular surfaces, both those  
31 extending for meters at almost the same level. Particularly in the Hıdırlık site, the uppermost  
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3 surface of the breakwater clearly reflects the original surface used in the past since the wall  
4 remains can be followed throughout the entire structure. Since the sites are located on a low-  
5 energy coast that is sheltered from winds and waves, no measurement difficulties were  
6 encountered due to the wave effects. Therefore, a vertical error of  $\pm 0.1$  m was added to the  
7 measurements taken from the preserved surfaces.  
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#### 17 **4.2 Relative sea-level reconstruction**

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19 The accuracy of the RSL reconstruction using archaeological sea-level markers depends on  
20 determining their association with the sea level in the past (Morhange & Marriner, 2015).  
21 Interface structures of harbors (e.g. quays and breakwaters) provide reliable data on the  
22 amount of sea-level change (Evelpidou & Karkani, 2018; Morhange & Marriner, 2015;  
23 Vacchi et al., 2016). The presence of fixed biological zonation on the archaeological  
24 structures significantly improves the reliability of sea-level index points (SLIP; indicators of  
25 former RSL) (Morhange & Marriner, 2015). **In some cases, the construction technique can  
26 help to determine the amount of the functional height (the original elevation above the ancient  
27 MSL) (i.e. by detecting the concrete change between the areas in hydraulic concrete and the  
28 areas in concrete in a subaerial environment) (Aucelli et al., 2020). In case of the absence of  
29 bio-zonation or any other evidence, the assigning of functional height can have some  
30 difficulties since it differs by region, age and function of the structure. However, Antonioli et  
31 al. (2007) and Auriemma & Solinas (2009) suggested a functional height for harbor  
32 installations (e.g. piers, docks, and breakwaters) of 0.6 m above mean sea level taking into  
33 account the observations collected at many submerged archaeological sites along the coast of  
34 Mediterranean. This assumption was widely used in many sea-level studies in recent years  
35 (e.g. Aucelli et al., 2016; Kızıldağ & Özdaş, 2021; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2020).**  
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3 We assigned 0.6 m of minimum original elevation for the quays and breakwaters with respect  
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5 to the mean sea level during their operation, taking into consideration (i) the site conditions  
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7 (e.g. the protection against wave action and shallow harbor basin), (ii) local tide amplitude  
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9 (i.e. micro-tidal range); (iii) the draught of the ancient small boats for the landing to the quay  
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11 (e.g. the Ravenna ship from 5th century AD had a draught about 0.5 m; Medas, 2003), (iv) the  
12  
13 modern quays and breakwaters in the Bozburun town (e.g. their elevations of 0.6/0.8±0.1 m  
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15 during the mean sea level); and (v) the relevant literature mentioned above. Taking into  
16  
17 account the lack of precise sea-level index points (e.g. biological zonation) we added an error  
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19 of ±0.2 m for the uncertainty of the original elevation approximation, which was assumed  
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21 based on different interpretations presented by the abovementioned sea-level studies.  
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28 The breakwaters in the studied sites have a maximum height of 1.2 m. They have been built in  
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30 small, shallow, and protected bays and must have been used by the small boats. If we add the  
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32 error of -0.2 m and the high tide of 0.15 m to the presumed “minimum” original elevation of  
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34 0.6 m, the emerging segment of a breakwater has a height of 0.25 m and no less than 0.25 m  
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36 was presumed for protection. The depth of harbor basin in front of the quay or breakwater was  
37  
38 also considered for presumed original elevation and its error.  
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44 By determining a minimum original elevation, we estimated the paleo RSL position from the  
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46 following equation (Shennan et al., 2015):  
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$$51 \text{RSL}_i = \text{ME}_i - \text{OE}_i$$

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55 where ME is the measured elevation of the archaeological sea-level marker “i” and OE is the  
56  
57 minimum original elevation value for the marker “i”.  
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### 4.3 Chronological setting

To improve the chronology of RSL changes, we considered the time of the last use of archaeological constructions when they were still functional. Based on the fact that the sites were never used after they were abandoned, this study adopted the approach of the time of the last usage instead of construction time (Kızıldağ, 2019). This provides data on the earliest time of submergence and a more precise estimation. In other words, this approach constrained estimates of the magnitude of the vertical land movements. Archaeological material, i.e. ceramic findings among the submerged harbor structures and architectural remains on land, provided important chronological data. Furthermore, literature and historical records supplied information regarding the abandonment date.

### 4.4 GIA predictions and contributions to the RSL

The separation of glacio-hydro-isostatic signals from the observed sea-level data allows us to identify the amount of tectonic contribution to the RSL change and obtain the vertical tectonic rate (Anzidei et al., 2011; Karkani et al., 2019; Kolaiti & Mourtzas, 2020; Lambeck et al., 2004; Mattei et al. 2022; Vacchi et al., 2020). In order to identify the expected vertical land movements due to glacio-hydro-isostasy, we computed a set of GIA models for the study area. Then the predictions from GIA models were compared with the observational sea-level data to assess the vertical tectonic movements.

To evaluate the variations of RSL induced by GIA since 5000 BP, we obtained a suite of high-resolution solutions of the sea-level equation (SLE) using the SELEN4 solver (Spada & Melini, 2019). The SLE accounts for the gravitationally and topographically self-consistent response of the Earth to the melting of Late Pleistocene ice sheets, and its basic inputs are the

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3 spatio-temporal evolution of the ice load and the rheological profile of the Earth. We  
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5 computed three solutions of the SLE by integrating into SELEN4 the ice chronologies and  
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7 viscosity profiles assumed by ICE-6G (Peltier et al., 2015), ICE-7G (Roy & Peltier, 2015;  
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9 2017), and one of the iterations of the GIA models progressively developed by K. Lambeck  
10  
11 and collaborators at the Australian National University (ANU; see e.g. Lambeck et al., 2003,  
12  
13 2014; Nakada & Lambeck, 1987). All our simulations are based on a global icosahedral grid  
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15 with a spacing of ~40 km and include spectral terms up to harmonic degree  $L=512$  that  
16  
17 correspond to a wavelength of ~80 km on the Earth's surface. The boundary conditions for  
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19 paleo-topography have been prescribed by assuming as a present-day topography the bedrock  
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21 version of the ETOPO1 global topographic model by Amante & Eakins (2009), integrated  
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23 with the Bedmap2 relief (Fretwell et al., 2013) in the Antarctic region (south of 60°S latitude).  
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31 As discussed by Melini & Spada (2019), GIA models are affected by different sources of  
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33 uncertainties, stemming from imperfect knowledge of the model parameters and by different  
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35 approaches to the numerical solution of the SLE. This is of particular relevance in regional-  
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37 scale GIA models, since local rheological structure may be significantly different from  
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39 average profiles suitable for global GIA models. Following Spada & Melini (2022), through  
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41 an ensemble approach, we have evaluated a range of uncertainties associated with RSL  
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43 predictions of models ICE-6G and ANU, arising from imperfect knowledge of the regional-  
44  
45 scale rheological structure of the Mediterranean basin. In particular, since hydro-isostatic  
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47 effects are mostly controlled by lithospheric flexure, we considered variations of the modeled  
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49 RSL curves corresponding to a range of plausible values of the thickness of the lithosphere  
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51 and evaluated the corresponding 1-sigma uncertainties on the model predictions.  
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## 5 Results

In this study, sea-level data from a new submerged Bronze age site (Çamçalık) and previously discovered and re-surveyed and re-measured two submerged archaeological sites (Hıdırlık and Kiseli) were analyzed to reconstruct the long-term RSL changes occurred along the Bozburun Peninsula in the last 3600 years.

### 5.1 Çamçalık Bronze Age site

A submerged platform structure containing a large number of archaeological materials was found at the Çamçalık Bronze Age site (Figure 2). The platform extends about 150 m parallel to the shoreline, with a maximum width of 10 m at the northern side of the Çamçalık island, which is connected to a submerged isthmus to the mainland. The upper surface of the structure is located at  $-2.5\pm 0.1$  m, while the bottom goes down in an abrupt vertical sheer to the natural seafloor at  $-4.9\pm 0.1$  m depth. The archaeological materials in this artificial platform are naturally concreted and cemented with rocky materials, ~~similar to a large beachrock formation~~ (Figure 2d, e).

Among the archaeological finds, hundreds of loom weights, conical cups, carinated cups, stone axes and tools, and a large number of ceramic fragments of pithoi, beak-spouted jugs, oval-mouthed amphorae, tripod legs of cooking pots, etc. were recorded, most of them homogeneous in type and date (Figure 3). While most loom weights and conical cups are intact, all other ceramic vessels are in poor condition. Removing the cemented archaeological material during the archaeological excavation, some well-preserved loom weights, conical cups, and pottery fragments were uncovered as uncemented and surrounded by rock pieces.

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3 Some wall remains are visible on the top of the eastern section of the platform, extending to  
4 the land, which are submerged today (Figure 2b, c). With only one layer of stones, they are  
5 barely distinguishable among the debris from a modern fish farm and coastal erosion, partly  
6 remaining under modern masonry. The wall remains, which have been constructed by using  
7 rubble and roughly-cut stones without mortar, form rectangular structures with a maximum  
8 width of 8 m.  
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19 ~~Since this area has been used by a modern fish farm until ten years ago, a great number of~~  
20 ~~dump materials are observed on the seafloor. In addition, due to pollution from the fish farm's~~  
21 ~~waste, the seafloor and the remains are covered with a layer of slime. Most archaeological~~  
22 ~~finds have been heavily damaged by the farm's activity.~~  
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30 During the complimentary survey carried out on land, we obtained only a few finds, scattered  
31 over the whole island, and showing the same spectrum. The whole island, despite its  
32 uncomfortably steep and rocky slopes, has been inhabited as attested by many small terraces  
33 built from rough boulders and up to the peak of the island. The plainer eastern part of the  
34 island near the submerged isthmus connecting it to the mainland, which was most suitable for  
35 construction, has been destroyed by service buildings and installations of a recent fish farm.  
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46 In addition to archaeological materials, we observed geomorphological indicators along the  
47 limestone rocky coastline of the site. A distinctive submerged tidal notch structure is  
48 identified along the southwestern limestone cliff of the island (Figure 4a). The vertex depth of  
49 the notch, which corresponds to the former mean sea level, is approximately  $0.6\pm 0.1$  m lower  
50 than the modern shoreline. The inward depth was measured as  $0.8\pm 0.1$  m.  
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## 5.2 Hıdırlık Hellenistic site

Previous studies carried out in the submerged sites on the coast of Bozburun Peninsula provide a data set for long-term sea-level evaluation (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). A submerged breakwater located in the Hıdırlık Harbor on the southern coast of Yeşilova Gulf was re-investigated during the fieldwork. Rubble-mound breakwater has a length of 36 m and maximum width of 10 m (Figure 5). The well-preserved top layer, which has been made up of large rough stones, lies at  $-1.5\pm 0.1$  m (Figure 5b, c). The bottom depth reaches  $2.7\pm 0.1$  m at the inner basin and  $3.5\pm 0.1$  m at the outer basin. The foundations of a rectangular building were observed in the inner harbor; whose floors are measured at  $-0.7\pm 0.1$  m.

This small harbor is linked to a Hellenistic farm by a path, and the breakwater must have served the farm. An architectural remain dated to the Late Classical/Early Hellenistic Period (4th-3rd century BC) is located on the coastline, which is most probably associated with harbor activities (Figure 5a, inset). Additionally, the shipwrecks in the surrounding area confirm a date of 3rd century BC for the time of the usage of the harbor.

A well-developed submerged tidal notch structure was observed along the coast at a depth of 0.5 to 0.55 m with a maximum inward depth of 0.4 m (Figure 4b).

## 5.3 Kiseli early Byzantine site

A submerged breakwater is located off Kiseli Island, close to Tymnos ancient city and modern Bozburun town, which was previously documented by Kızıldağ et al. (2012) (Figure 6a, b). The surface of a rubble mound breakwater is now located at  $-1.0\pm 0.1$  m below present

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3 mean sea level. The depth at the base of 16 m long and 6 m wide breakwater was measured at  
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5 -1.8±0.1 m at its seaward end. The breakwater is associated with the adjacent partly  
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7 submerged church remains dated to the early Byzantine period (Figure 6a).  
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12 A submerged quay consisting of rough-cut ashlar blocks is located on the western coast of  
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14 Kiseli Island (Figure 6c). The upper surface of the quay lies at -1.0±0.1 m below present sea  
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16 level, while the bottom level lies at -2.40±0.1 m. The foundations belonging to rectangular  
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18 buildings on the quay platform are partly submerged. Based on the fact that the building  
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20 foundations are located directly upon the quay platform and the quay blocks are preserved and  
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22 not collapsed, the current surface of the quay is considered to represent the original surface.  
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28 The adjacent buildings and churches on land are dated to the early Byzantine times, which  
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30 were in use until the 7th century AD. The abundance of LR1 amphora sherds, dated to the 5–  
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32 7th century AD (Opait, 2004), near the breakwater and along the coasts provide evidence for  
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34 the time of the last usage of the site.  
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40 Similar to other sites, a clear tidal notch structure is located at -0.6 m with a maximum inward  
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42 depth of 0.3 m that continuous along the entire rocky coast (Figure 4c). No present-day notch  
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44 is observed.  
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## 48 49 **6 Discussion**

### 50 51 52 **6.1 A Bronze Age quay**

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55 The investigation of Bronze Age harbors in the Aegean Sea is a major challenge for  
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57 researchers since most of them are submerged or buried due to geomorphological changes like  
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3 sea-level changes, siltation, marine erosion, and tectonic movements, which have occurred  
4 since that time (Tartaron, 2013). Before coastal geomorphological studies accelerated, the  
5 problem of long-term coastal change was widely ignored as it was assumed that Bronze Age  
6 coastal morphology remained unchanged until today.  
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14 The known Bronze age harbors (e.g. the Minoan harbors of Gournia, Pseira, Kommos,  
15 Amnissos, Malia, and Mochlos) exhibit some common characteristics, including natural  
16 protection from the prevailing wind; a promontory or bay where ships can moor; an  
17 installation for winter storage of ships; storage facilities for goods; and a location near trade  
18 activity (Blackman, 1982; Watrous, 2012). According to Shaw (1990), the preferred  
19 topography was peninsulas with sandy beaches on both sides as landing places. Tartaron et al.  
20 (2003) successfully used this “double harbor arrangement” pattern to detect Bronze Age  
21 harbors by reconstructing the shoreline.  
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35 According to most scholars, the Aegean harbors of the Bronze Age were not supplied with  
36 maritime installations (e.g. quays and piers); instead, sandy beaches were used for landing,  
37 where the ships could be dragged on land (e.g. Loizou, 2016; Shaw, 1990; Tartaron et al.,  
38 2003). After geomorphological reconstruction of the harbor of Zakros in Crete, Guttandin et  
39 al. (2011) suggested that the harbor was originally located in a bay that since then has been  
40 silted up and had a jetty at its entrance and probably quays erected from large boulders along  
41 the shore. Similar quays may be recognized on the ship fresco from Akrotiri, where—next to  
42 the mentioned bay with small ships on the beach—in a neighboring bay two ships are depicted,  
43 berthing with their sterns perpendicular to the shore or a quay (Blackman, 2011; Guttandin et  
44 al., 2011).  
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3 The most recent discussion was presented by Hadjidaki (2021) about the Minoan natural or  
4 artificial harbors. To construct a harbor at Kapetaniana (Crete), the top of the small reef was  
5 flattened, and lines of stones were placed on top of it, thus producing a mole of 40 m in  
6 length. Furthermore, in the region where the coast was flat enough, an artificial installation  
7 was provided, which was created from pottery concreted within the boulders and sherds, for  
8 additional protection and landings of the ships. A man-made mole or breakwater is located in  
9 the harbor of Cape Plaka (Crete), built on top of a natural reef with some lines of large  
10 boulders (Hadjidaki, 2004).  
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24 The artificial platform of Çamçalık must have provided a quay function in the Bronze Age  
25 topography of the site (Figure 7). Associated with some Minoan harbor works in Crete, it  
26 seems to have been a construction of rough boulders producing a slightly sloping quay, rather  
27 than a vertical masonry stone wall. This yet is not an obstacle for the use as a quay, provided  
28 that the ships docked with the bow towards the quay, and an anchor at the stern-or the other  
29 way round. This is the usual system of berthing in the Mediterranean, even today ships are  
30 using a quay of rough boulders. The presence of the wall stones on the platform provides  
31 evidence for its function as a quay. The platform must have provided a dry area for the  
32 landing of ships and cargo transfer. With an average width of 10 m, the platform has offered  
33 sufficient space for the erection of small buildings.  
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## 49 **6.2 Cultural context of Çamçalık**

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51 The spectrum of the Çamçalık pottery, which contains conical cups, three-legged cooking  
52 pots, spherical loom weights, etc., is culturally associated with the household pottery of  
53 Minoan, Bronze Age Aegean culture (Momigliano, 2012). In particular, the use of Linear A  
54 script on three loom weights provides clear evidence of Minoan culture (Silvia Ferrara,  
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3 Bologna, pers. comm.). The closest finds of pottery are dated between Middle Minoan III  
4 (MM III) to Late Minoan I (LM I) phases, i.e. to the Neopalatial Period in Crete (Watrous,  
5 2021). In addition, the pottery shows the typical range of Minoanising settlements in Anatolia  
6 such as Iasos or Miletos. There was a network between the Aegean islands and the Anatolian  
7 mainland (Momigliano, 2009). The MM III to LM I periods are well attested in Anatolia and  
8 correspond to phase IV at Miletos (Niemeier, 2005; 2007). Çamçalık pottery is very similar to  
9 that of Miletos IV, with 95% of the pottery determined as Minoan types, most of it locally  
10 produced, and only 5% local western Anatolian types (Niemeier, 2005; 2007).  
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24 Since no other period is attested in the finds, the submerged platform of Çamçalık can be  
25 dated to the MM III/LM IA period (1600 BC). Since material from later periods is absent, the  
26 occupation at Çamçalık had only one phase before its destruction and abandonment. The end  
27 of the settlement may have been caused by the Santorini eruption, accompanied by co-seismic  
28 tectonic movements. The eruption also caused a period of decline at Iasos (Momigliano, 2012;  
29 Niemeier, 2007).  
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40 ~~Minoans were famous for their seafaring skills, which opened trade routes with Egypt,~~  
41 ~~Anatolia, and the Levant. In the context of Minoan trade routes, Çamçalık marks the place~~  
42 ~~where Minoan seafarers, sailing along the 'Eastern String' from Crete and passing the islands~~  
43 ~~Karpathos and Rhodes, first reach the Anatolian mainland. The end of the settlement may~~  
44 ~~have been caused by the Santorini eruption, accompanied by a sudden co-seismic tectonic~~  
45 ~~subsidence. That might also be an explanation for a large amount of pottery scattered on the~~  
46 ~~seafloor down to a depth of 30 m, which possibly indicates that a tsunami washed all this~~  
47 ~~material away from the settlement. Those scattered potteries may be associated with the~~  
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~~following destructions by mostly human activity (modern fish tanks operations) and also natural events (erosion, further earthquake activity, etc.).~~

Çamçalık is unique in terms of providing the largest collection of Bronze Age finds ever found underwater in Anatolia. One of the puzzling results of the previous land or underwater surveys on the Bozburun Peninsula was the almost complete lack of evidence for Bronze Age coastal settlements. Nevertheless, Bronze Age finds from the underwater survey in the Hisarönü Bay and at Loryma (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2016; Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2017) proved that the area has been used in the Bronze Age by ships. The discovery of the Çamçalık Bronze Age site complemented and explained the underwater finds filling a gap in the literature in this region.

### 6.3 Relative sea-level evaluation

The submersion of the harbor structure of the Çamçalık site led to the identification of a sea-level stand during the Bronze Age. Taking into consideration the assumed original elevation for the quay and the last time of use for the site, the RSL change was determined by using the equation  $RSL_i$  to be at least  $3.1 \pm 0.3$  m during the last 3600 years.

Data from nearby submerged sites on the coast of the Bozburun Peninsula provide a data set for long-term sea-level evaluation (Kızıldağ et al., 2012). The breakwaters in Hıdırlık and Kiseli sites are well-dated based on the architectural remains on land and ceramic findings among the submerged architectural remains. In particular, the abandonment history of the Early Byzantine site provides a more precise date for submergence. Taking into account the assumed minimum original elevation of  $0.6 \pm 0.2$  m for the breakwaters at the time of their use, two different sea-level stands can be inferred from Hıdırlık and Kiseli sites by using the

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3 equation RSLi: at  $-2.1 \pm 0.3$  m during the Hellenistic Period ( $\sim 2300$  BP) and  $-1.6 \pm 0.3$  m during  
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5 the Early Byzantine Period ( $\sim 1400$  BP) respectively.  
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10 **Sea-level studies carried out in the Mediterranean present comprehensive RSL data for**  
11 **Bronze Age.** Henderson et al. (2011) suggest that the foundations of the buildings at Bronze  
12 Age Pavlopetri have been submerged by c. 4–5 m during the last 5000 years, due largely to  
13 tectonic factors. The submerged Early Bronze Age (EBA) settlement building walls at  
14 Platiyali extend to a depth of at least 5 m below present sea level. Another submerged EBA  
15 settlement, Salanti, is found at a depth of 4 m below present sea level. Over a hundred bronze  
16 axes from EBA were found at a depth of 3.5 m below present sea level in the Glyfada-Mesi  
17 site. Moreover, Evelpidou et al. (2018) identified a submerged shoreline at  $-2.8$  m based on a  
18 tidal notch in Naxos Island (the Cyclades in the Aegean Sea), which must have been  
19 developed at least before 3350 to 4200 BP. Kolaiti & Mourtzas (2016) determined a sea-level  
20 stand of  $3.3 \pm 0.15$  m during the Middle Bronze Age in the west Saronic Gulf. The beachrock  
21 formations located in the Mykonos–Delos–Rhenia region in Cyclades, Greece, indicate a sea-  
22 level stability at  $-3.6$  m around 2000 BC (Desruelles et al., 2009). Based on beachrock data,  
23 Karkani et al. (2017) suggested that the relative sea level rose by at least 3.8 m in the last  
24 4000 years in the central Cyclades. **Although Çamçalık has different tectonic characteristics**  
25 **comparable with other Mediterranean tectonically active areas, sea-level data seem to be**  
26 **compatible with the other sites.**  
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51 **Antonioli et al. (2011) suggested a RSL rise of 2.3 m and tectonic** subsidence of about  
52 **1.48  $\pm$  0.3 mm/yr since the last 2300 years for the southwestern Turkish coasts. RSL rise of at**  
53 **least 2.8 m over the past 1400 years is suggested for Kekova (Özdaş & Kızıldağ, 2013).**  
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56 **Recent detailed studies demonstrated that Fethiye coasts have a greater amount of RSL rise of**  
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3 3.1-4.6±0.3 m in the Gulf of Fethiye (Kızıldağ, 2019) and 2.2-3.1±0.3 m on the eastern coast  
4 of Fethiye (Kızıldağ & Özdaş, 2021) over the last 1400 years. This remarkable difference in  
5 RSL changes between the regions confirms that the local scale tectonic processes have an  
6 important effect on the submergence of coastal sites.  
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14 Relative sea-level variations in the Mediterranean basin, which is in the far-field of the former  
15 Late Pleistocene ice sheets, are mostly controlled by hydro-isostatic effects due to meltwater  
16 load and associated with vertical land movements stemming from the combined effect of  
17 tectonics and GIA (Spada & Melini, 2022). Figure 8 shows modeled relative-sea level in the  
18 study area according to the GIA models ICE-6G, ICE-7G and ANU; the range of 1-sigma  
19 epistemic uncertainties associated with ICE-6G and ANU, obtained through the ensemble  
20 approach outlined above, corresponds to shaded areas. Taking into account the amplitude of  
21 uncertainties, ICE-6G indicates a substantially stable sea level since 3600 BP, and a slow RSL  
22 rise for earlier epochs, while ICE-7G predicts a highstand of about 0.2m between 2000 and  
23 3600 BP, with the modeled RSL curve according to ICE-7G being at the upper boundary of  
24 the 1-sigma confidence interval of the ICE-6G RSL prediction. Conversely, the ANU model  
25 predicts a much faster RSL rise between 3600–1400 BP, followed by a slower rise up to the  
26 present sea level. The qualitative difference between predictions from ICE-X and ANU  
27 reflects different eustatic curves as well as different rheological profiles assumed by the  
28 models considered.  
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51 The maximum GIA contribution to the vertical land movement is 0.9±0.2 m for the last 3600  
52 years; 0.3±0.1 m for the last 2300 years; and 0.1±0.05 m for the last 1400 years. In  
53 comparison with the GIA curves, our archaeological index points remained at a lower  
54 position. The difference between predictions from GIA models and archaeological sea-level  
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3 index points allows us estimating the magnitude of local vertical tectonic displacement in the  
4 study area. Removing the maximum GIA component, we estimate a tectonic subsidence rate  
5 of at least  $0.6 \pm 0.5$  mm/yr over the last 3600 years. Removing ANU-based GIA components,  
6 average rates of tectonic subsidence were estimated for three different timespans:  $0.3 \pm 0.5$   
7 mm/yr during the period between 3600–2300 BP;  $0.3 \pm 0.4$  mm/yr between 2300–1400 BP, and  
8  $1.1 \pm 0.3$  mm/yr from 1400 BP to the present. Based on ICE-6G and ICE-7G curves, tectonic  
9 subsidence rates were calculated as  $0.8 \pm 0.6$  mm/yr;  $0.6 \pm 0.5$  mm/yr; and  $1.1 \pm 0.4$  mm/yr for  
10 the same timespans. Nevertheless, GIA calculations indicate that there is a remarkable  
11 increase in vertical tectonic movement after Early Byzantine times.  
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26 The comparison of the current positions of the Early Byzantine remains at  $-1.0 \pm 0.1$  m with the  
27 tidal notch at  $-0.6 \pm 0.1$  m verifies that the sea level has remained stable at  $-0.6 \pm 0.1$  m and a  
28 tidal notch has developed after the submersion of Early Byzantine remains. In other words, a  
29 most recent vertical displacement has occurred in the last 1400 years. The inward depth of a  
30 notch is related to the duration of sea-level stability. Evelpidou et al. (2014) suggested that  
31 notches can develop at rates of bioerosion between 0.2 and 1.0 mm/yr in the Mediterranean  
32 coastline. Nevertheless, the rock lithology and the contribution of several processes (e.g.  
33 fresh-water springs, wave energy and bioerosion rate) have important roles in notch formation  
34 (Antonioli et al., 2015). Anyhow, the inward depth of about  $0.8 \pm 0.1$  m indicates long-term  
35 sea-level stability in a timespan between the Early Byzantine times and modern times.  
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51 The fact that the presence of one prominent tidal notch structure, which is almost fixedly  
52 observed throughout the western part of the Bozburun Peninsula, and the absence of the  
53 deeper ones may confirm sudden submergence in a timescale after the Early Byzantine Period  
54 and gradual submergence between the Late Bronze Age and Early Byzantine Period. When  
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3 the rate of RSL change is greater than the rate of bioerosion, a tidal notch does not form  
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5 (Evelpidou et al., 2014). The fact that the absence of any biologic or geomorphologic sea-  
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7 level indicator on the vertical surface of the 150 m long and 2.4 m thick monolithic platform,  
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9 which exhibits a homogeneous formation from top to bottom, may support the assumption of  
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11 gradual submergence after the Bronze age occupation, mostly associated with ANU model.  
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17 The presence of present-day development of tidal notches is still debatable. Based on studies  
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19 carried out along tectonically active Greek coastlines, Evelpidou et al. (2012) suggested that  
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21 the modern tidal notch is disappearing because the bioerosion rate remained lower than the  
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23 rate of sea-level rise during the last century (~1.4 mm/yr). Conversely, Antonioli et al. (2015)  
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25 proposed that the current notch is present in the vast majority of tectonically stable carbonate  
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27 coasts in the central Mediterranean. However, the global rise in sea level at a rate of ~1.4  
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29 mm/yr since the late 19th century should not be ignored at this point (Church et al., 2008).  
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35 The proposed date of the archaeological finds in Çamçalık corresponds to the period shortly  
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37 before the Santorini eruption, which may have caused the end of the settlement. The Çamçalık  
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39 quay must have lost its function after the Late Bronze Age, with catastrophic events  
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41 accompanying the Bronze Age eruption of Santorini. This assumption fits with the proposed  
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43 date for archaeological finds. The absence of later layers can confirm that life must have been  
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45 interrupted by an earthquake and the eruption of Santorini.  
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51 The Late Bronze Age Minoan eruption of Santorini is one of the most powerful volcanic  
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53 eruptions known to have occurred during the Holocene (Eastwood et al., 2002). ~~It is proposed  
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55 that one or more tsunamis accompanied Santorini eruption and the associated earthquakes,  
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57 which was confirmed by the presence of sedimentary deposits attributed to tsunami waves off~~  
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3 ~~Caesarea Maritima, Israel (Goodman et al., 2009) and in Çeşme-Bağlararası, western Turkey~~  
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5 ~~(Şahoğlu et al., 2022):~~ The eruption must have been triggered by one or more earthquakes  
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7 ~~( $I_0=X$ ) (Soysal et al., 1981),~~ which caused damage in Rhodes, Kos, and Crete (Driessen,  
8  
9 2019). The fact that there are no archaeological remains from the Bronze Age to the  
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11 Hellenistic Period in the site indicates that Çamçalık was abandoned as a result of one or more  
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13 catastrophic events. Similarly, there is a gap between Early Byzantine and modern times in  
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15 the surrounding region, which can be explained by ongoing seismic events, causing the  
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17 coastal changes.  
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24 ~~Prevailing winds during the eruption carried volcanic ash from Santorini to Rhodes and~~  
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26 ~~southwestern Turkey rather than Crete and thus more volcanic dust must have fallen on the~~  
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28 ~~Turkish coasts. The analysis of volcanic ashes obtained from western and southwestern~~  
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30 ~~Turkey indicates that the tephra belongs to the Santorini Minoan eruption (Vardar & Öner,~~  
31  
32 ~~2016). Marketou (1987) noted tephra layers that were discovered in many sites in Rhodes,~~  
33  
34 ~~probably from the Santorini eruption, in addition to that found at the Late Minoan site at~~  
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36 ~~Trianda in the northeastern island. Marketou (1990) also stated that a destructive earthquake~~  
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38 ~~occurred before the Santorini volcano awoke and then tephra fell.~~  
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## 45 **7 Conclusions**

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49 By producing new data from the recently discovered Bronze Age site, the relative sea-level  
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51 history along the coast of Bozburun Peninsula in the last 3600 years was reconstructed for the  
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53 first time with this study. The comparison of the observed RSL data with predictions from  
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55 recently published GIA models allowed us to evaluate the impact of the vertical tectonic  
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57 movement. ~~Precise chronological data provided evidence to determine an accurate timespan~~  
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3 (e.g. archaeological material mixed with harbor constructions and abandonment history) and  
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5 then to constrain the magnitude of the vertical land movement.  
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10 Our results suggest that observed sea-level change is due to equal contributions of GIA and  
11 tectonic factors (ANU model) or **only to tectonics** (ICE-X models) between 3600-1400 BP,  
12 while the tectonic contribution is considerably dominant after 1400 BP. A rapid acceleration  
13 in the submergence of the coastline was defined between Early Byzantine and modern times.  
14 This indicates that the seismic activity in the study area produced vertical land movement  
15 during this period. Geomorphological sea-level markers confirmed that a long-term sea-level  
16 stand occurred after Early Byzantine archaeological remains had submerged. On the contrary,  
17 the absence of deeper tidal notches or biological layers on the Bronze Age quay platform can  
18 be attributed to a gradual RSL rise.  
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33 The results obtained in this study highlight the complex history of sea-level changes in the  
34 coastal sector of the Bozburun Peninsula, which is located in the active tectonic segment of  
35 the southeastern Aegean Sea. The tectonic regime due to interaction between the Hellenic Arc  
36 subduction zone and Aegean Volcanic Arc is responsible for the submersion of coastal  
37 archaeological sites, predominantly in the last 1400 years. A recent earthquake activity that  
38 occurred in 2012 verifies that the western coast of the Bozburun Peninsula is still under the  
39 influence of ongoing seismicity.  
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51 This study demonstrates that RSL changes had a significant impact on the past cultures that  
52 were living in the coastal zone of the Bozburun Peninsula. Further studies would improve our  
53 understanding to produce future scenarios regarding the impact of relative sea-level rise on  
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3 coastal occupation by considering both local tectonic estimates and the projections of 21st  
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5 century sea-level rise.  
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## 21 22 23 24 **Figure Captions**

25  
26 Figure 1. (a) the location map of studied submerged sites (red icon); (b) tectonic setting of the  
27  
28 Aegean Sea (modified from Taymaz et al., 2007) and the submerged Bronze Age sites  
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30 (black icon) along the Aegean coastline (compiled from Galanidou et al., 2020); (c)  
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32 Seismotectonic map of the study area and its surrounding region. Epicenters of earthquakes  
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34 in historical and instrumental periods (between 1950-2022) were obtained from the  
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36 seismicity catalogue of Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute (KOERI).  
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38 The focal mechanism solutions of earthquakes in 2012 and 2017 were reported by KOERI  
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42 Figure 2. (a) Aerial photo of Çamçalık island and its vicinity, (b) and (c) submerged wall  
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44 stones upon the quay surface, (d) front view of the quay platform, (e) vertical surface of the  
45  
46 quay exhibiting calcareous structure mixed with limestone and pottery sherds  
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50 Figure 3. The artifacts from Çamçalık: beak-spouted jug, loom weight with Linear A, conical  
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52 cup, oval-mouthed amphora

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54 Figure 4. Submerged tidal notch structures in (a) Çamçalık; (b) Hıdırlık; and (c) Kiseli.  
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56 Measurements were taken on 08/26/2019 at 13.00 (from Çamçalık and Kiseli) and  
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58 08/27/2019 at 14.30 (from Hıdırlık). (d) Trend-removal tidal amplitude in the study area.  
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3 Data obtained from nearest tide gauge station located at Marmaris. The red icons indicate  
4 the tide levels during the measurements of sea-level indicators  
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8 Figure 5. (a, b) Aerial photos from Hıdırlık harbor with Hellenistic building on the coast (inset  
9 photo) and (c) underwater photo of Hıdırlık breakwater.  
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12 Figure 6. (a) Aerial photo from Kiseli breakwater and church remains; (b) underwater photo  
13 of breakwater; and (c) aerial photo of quay with the position of sea level during survey  
14 (inset photo)  
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19 Figure 7. Representative section of the Çamçalık quay platform  
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22 Figure 8. Comparison of observed sea-level data with newly modeled GIA curves. Sea-level  
23 index points were displayed with vertical error bar for depth and horizontal error bar for  
24 age. The RSL curves for ICE-6G (red), ICE-7G (green) and ANU (blue) have been  
25 obtained through a high resolution numerical solution of the SLE. Shaded areas correspond  
26 to uncertainties on GIA predictions of ICE-6G and ANU associated to possible variations  
27 of the rheological parameters and have been estimated through a mini-ensemble approach  
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36 Table 1. Archaeological data used to reconstruct the relative sea-level evolution of the  
37 Bozburun Peninsula. AI: archaeological indicator, C: chronology based on time of the last  
38 use, MD: measured depth of archaeological remains, ME: the error estimate derives from  
39 measurement uncertainties, TL: tide level according to mean sea level during the survey,  
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CD: corrected depth for tide with measurement error

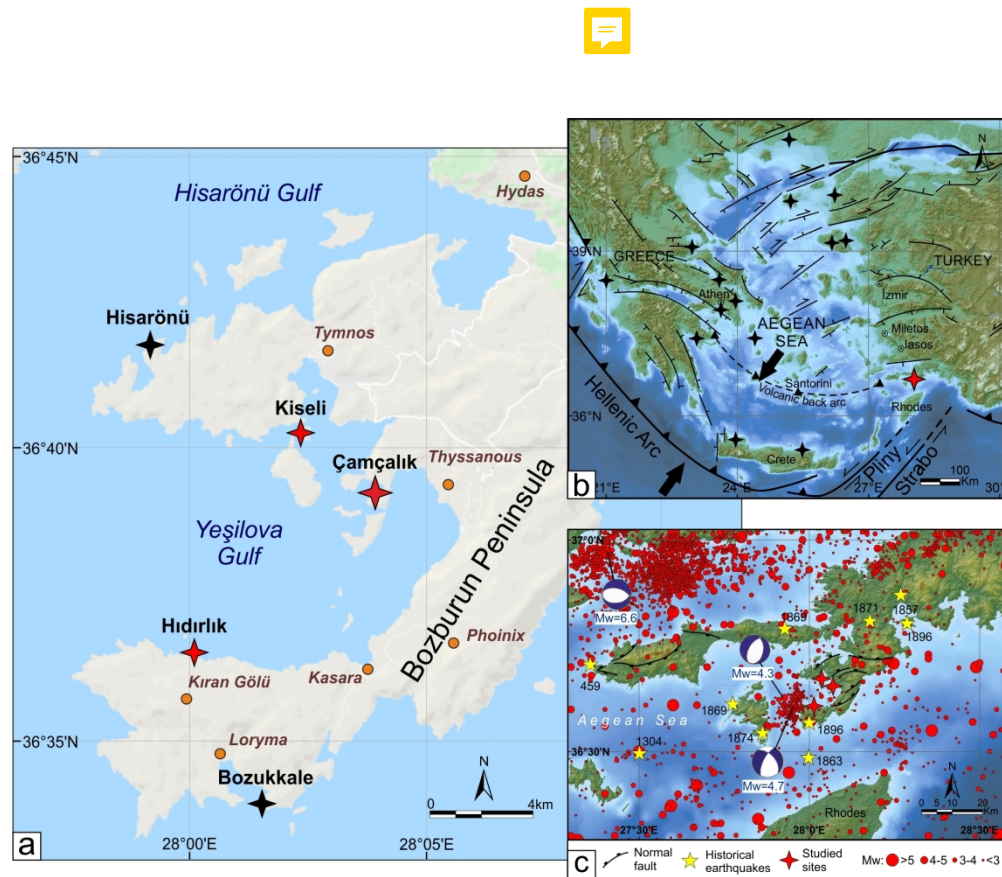


Figure 1. (a) the location map of studied submerged sites (red icon); (b) tectonic setting of the Aegean Sea (modified from Taymaz et al., 2007) and the submerged Bronze Age sites (black icon) along the Aegean coastline (compiled from Galanidou et al., 2020); (c) Seismotectonic map of the study area and its surrounding region. Epicenters of earthquakes in historical and instrumental periods (between 1950-2022) were obtained from the seismicity catalogue of Kandilli Observatory and Earthquake Research Institute (KOERI). The focal mechanism solutions of earthquakes in 2012 and 2017 were reported by KOERI

180x137mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 2. (a) Aerial photo of Çamçalık island and its vicinity, (b) and (c) submerged wall stones upon the quay surface, (d) front view of the quay platform, (e) vertical surface of the quay exhibiting calcareous structure mixed with limestone and pottery sherds

180x164mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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Figure 3. The artifacts from Çamçalık: beak-spouted jug, loom weight with Linear A, conical cup, oval-mouthed amphora

80x46mm (300 x 300 DPI)

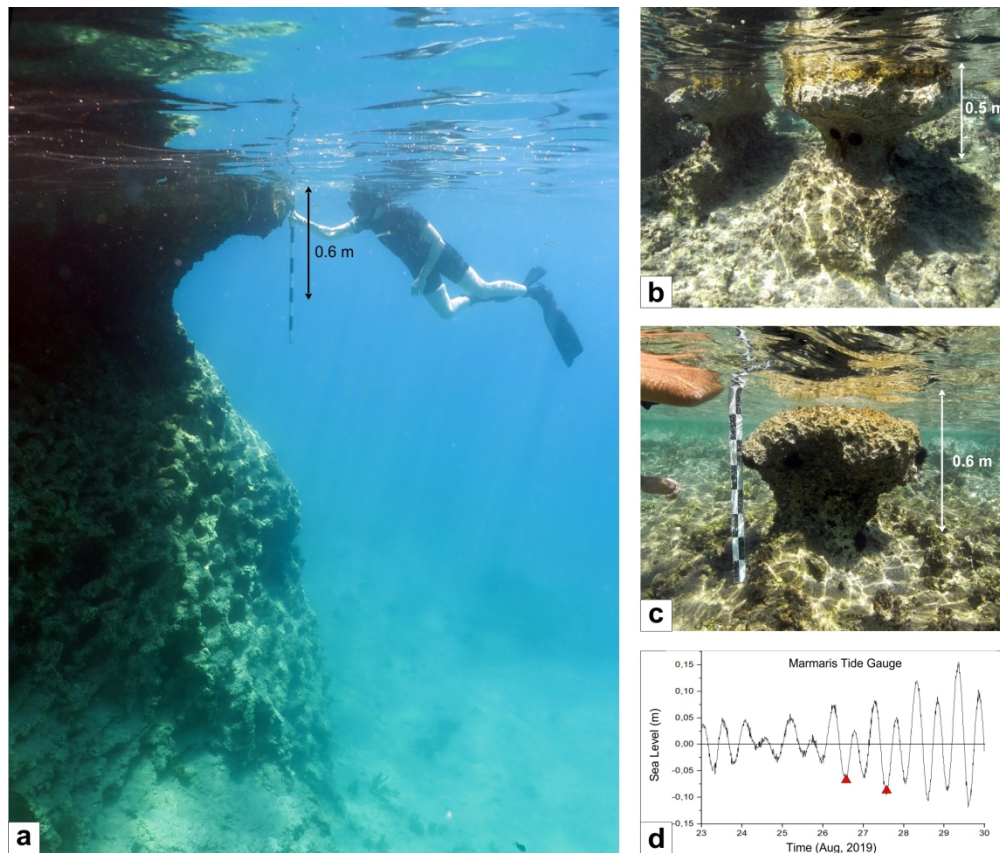


Figure 4. Submerged tidal notch structures in (a) Çamçalık; (b) Hıdırlık; and (c) Kiseli. Measurements were taken on 08/26/2019 at 13.00 (from Çamçalık and Kiseli) and 08/27/2019 at 14.30 (from Hıdırlık). (d) Trend-removal tidal amplitude in the study area. Data obtained from nearest tide gauge station located at Marmaris. The red icons indicate the tide levels during the measurements of sea-level indicators

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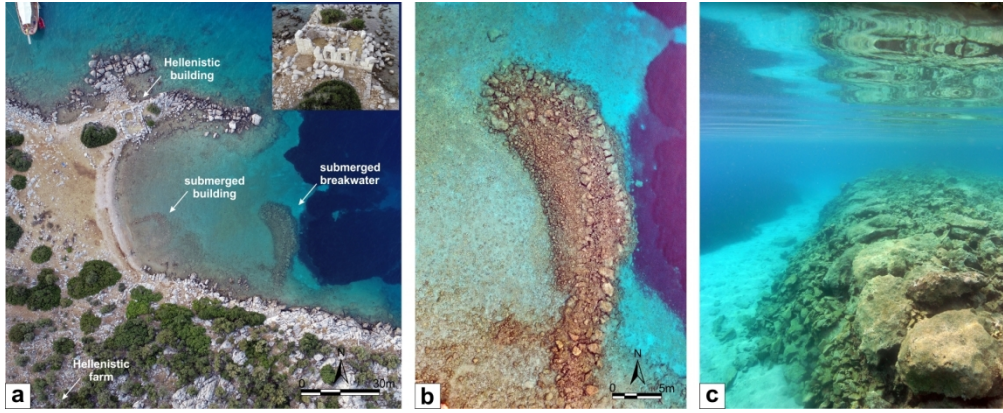


Figure 5. (a, b) Aerial photos from Hidirlik harbor with Hellenistic building on the coast (inset photo) and (c) underwater photo of Hidirlik breakwater.

157x64mm (300 x 300 DPI)



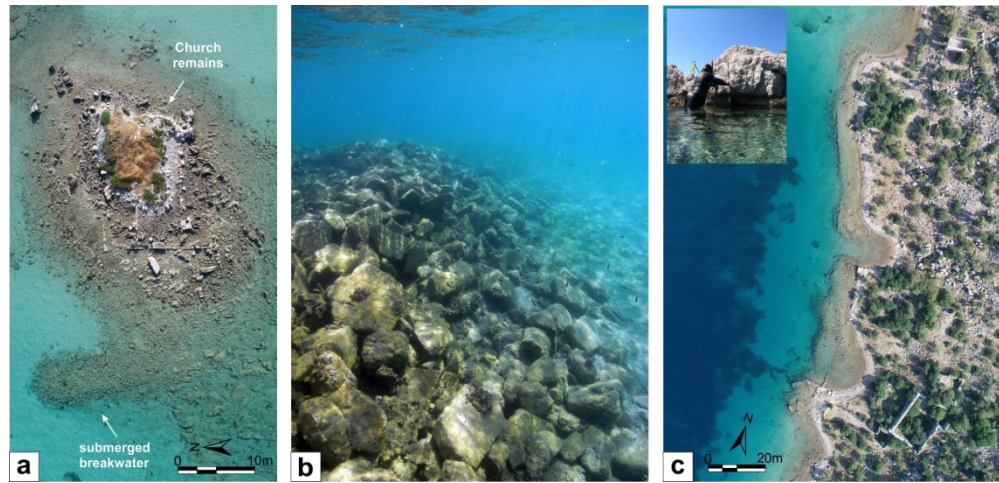


Figure 6. (a) Aerial photo from Kiseli breakwater and church remains; (b) underwater photo of breakwater; and (c) aerial photo of quay with the position of sea level during survey (inset photo)

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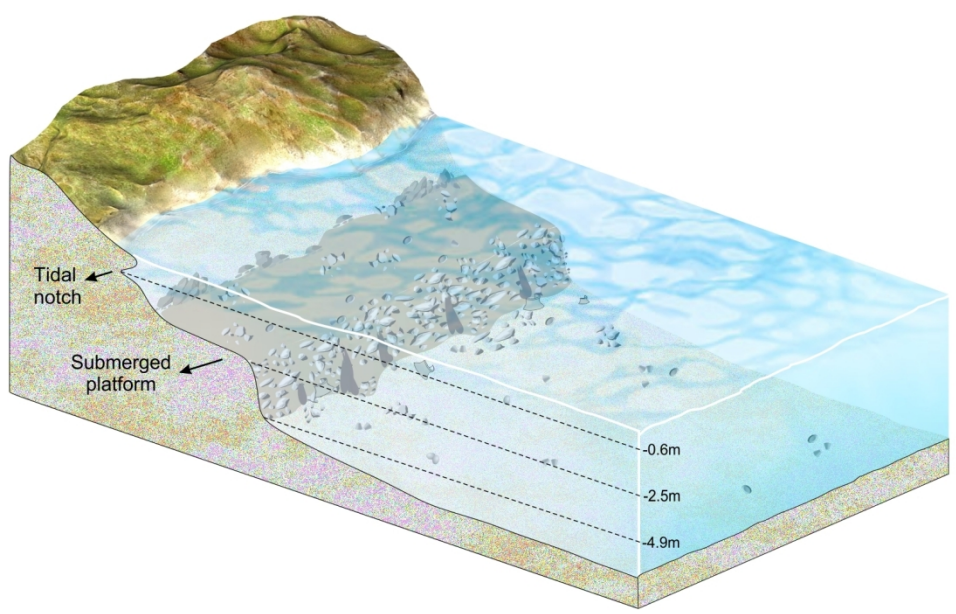


Figure 7. Representative section of the Çamçalık quay platform

144x92mm (300 x 300 DPI)

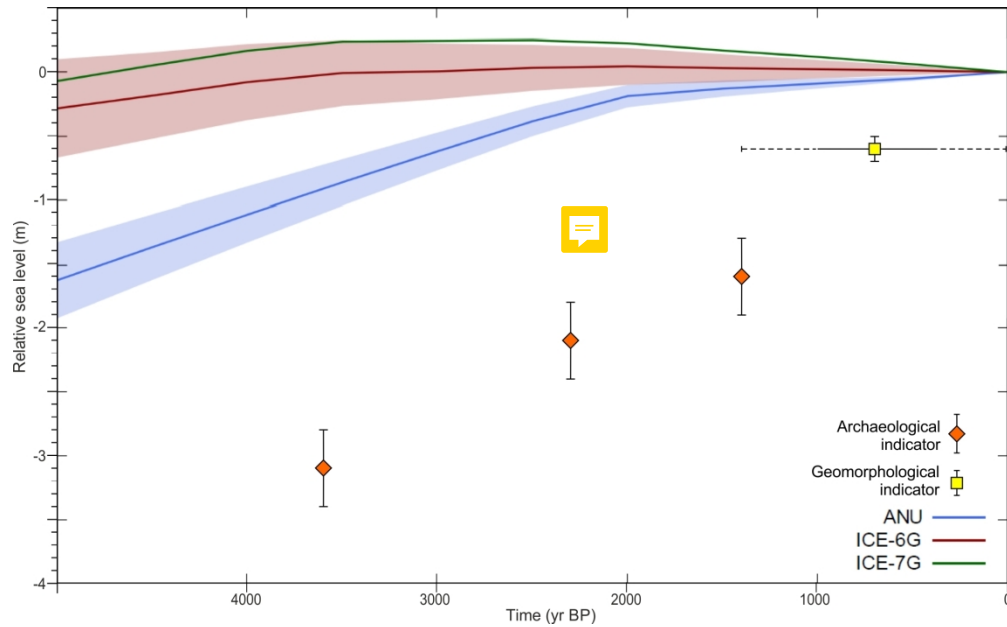


Figure 8. Comparison of observed sea-level data with newly modeled GIA curves. Sea-level index points were displayed with vertical error bar for depth and horizontal error bar for age. The RSL curves for ICE-6G (red), ICE-7G (green) and ANU (blue) have been obtained through a high resolution numerical solution of the SLE. Shaded areas correspond to uncertainties on GIA predictions of ICE-6G and ANU associated to possible variations of the rheological parameters and have been estimated through a mini-ensemble approach

180x110mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Site	AI	C	MD (m)	ME (m)	TL (m)	CD (m)
Çamçalık	Quay	MM III/LM IA	-2.6	±0.1	-0.07	-2.5±0.1
Hıdırlık	Breakwater	4th-3rd c. BC	-1.6	±0.1	-0.09	-1.5±0.1
Kiseli	Breakwater	Early 7th c. AD	-1.1	±0.1	-0.07	-1.0±0.1
	Quay	Early 7th c. AD	-1.1	±0.1	-0.07	-1.0±0.1

For Peer Review