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Highlights

- Five sets of submerged marine terraces have been recognized at different depth on Santa Maria's insular shelf.
- > The possible correlation between the formation of raised and submerged terraces with relative sea-level changes have been investigated.
- The presently raised marine terraces were probably formed from ~3.5 Ma to ~1 Ma, whilst submerged terraces were formed from ~1 Ma to the Last Glacial Maximum.
- > A better estimation of the uplift trend for Santa Maria island has been proposed.
- > The formation and preservation of marine terraces is discussed according to a number of interacting factors.

Marine terrace development on reefless volcanic islands: new insights
 from high-resolution marine geophysical data offshore Santa Maria Island
 (Azores Archipelago)

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5	Alessandro Ricchi ¹ , Rui Quartau ^{2,3} ; Ricardo S. Ramalho ^{3,4,5} ; Claudia Romagnoli ¹ ; Daniele			
6	Casalbore ^{.6,7} ; João Ventura da Cruz ² ; Catarina Fradique ² ; André Vinhas ²			
7				
8	¹ University of Bologna, Dip. Scienze Biologiche, Geologiche e Ambientali, Bologna, Italy			
9	² Instituto Hidrográfico, Divisão de Geologia Marinha, Lisboa, Portugal			
10	³ Instituto Dom Luiz, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, 1749-016 Lisboa, Portugal			
11	⁴ School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, Wills Memorial Building, Queen's Road, Bristol			
12	BS8 1RJ, UK			
13	⁵ Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory at Columbia University, Comer Geochemistry Building, PO			
14	Box 1000, Palisades, NY10964-8000, USA			
15	⁶ Sapienza Università di Roma, Dipartimento Scienze della Terra, Roma, Italy			
16	⁷ Istituto di Geologia Ambientale e Geoingegneria, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Area della			
17	Ricerca, Roma, Italy			
18				

19 *Corresponding author: alessandro.ricchi7@unibo.it (Alessandro Ricchi)

- 20 Keywords: Insular shelf; Marine terraces; Uplift trend; Reefless volcanic islands; Multibeam
- 21 bathymetry

22 ABSTRACT

Submerged marine terraces are relict coastal erosional landforms now underwater due to rising 23 sea level and/or land subsidence. Using as case study the shelf around Santa Maria Island (North 24 25 Atlantic Ocean), we intend to advance our knowledge of the formation and preservation of these 26 features on reefless volcanic islands. Santa Maria is an ideal place to study their combined 27 generation, since it displays a sequence of subaerial and submerged marine terraces (the latter not studied before), distributed between 7/230 m in elevation, and -40/-140 m, respectively. 28 29 Based on some geological constraints, we investigated a possible correlation between the formation of the different terraces with known sea-level changes. Our results suggest that the 30 spatial distribution of marine terraces at Santa Maria depends on the complex interplay between 31 glacio-eustatic sea-level fluctuations, the island's vertical motion trends, the morphology of the 32 33 shelf, and the intensity of marine erosion. Subaerial terraces probably developed from ~3.5 Ma to 34 ~1 Ma following a fortuitous conjugation of optimal exposure to energetic waves and a suitable 35 arrangement/lithology of the stratigraphic units promoting easier erosion. Their preservation was likely promoted by the uplift trend the island experienced in the last 3.5 Ma, which was rapid 36 enough to prevent their destruction by subsequent highstands. The submerged terraces, 37 38 presumably all younger than ~1 Ma, were largely influenced by shelf gradient, leading to more 39 developed and preserved terraces in wider and low-gradient sectors. Displacement by active faults also conditioned the formation and further development of both subaerial and submerged 40 terraces, with tectonic activity documented for the 0.693 Ma -2.7 Ma period. 41

42

43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 Relative sea-level changes have left unambiguous morphologies in the geological record, as attested by the presence of coastal notches (e.g. Ferranti et al., 2006; Trenhaile, 2015), marine 45 terraces (e.g. Zazo et al., 2002, Pedoja et al., 2014) and beach rocks (e.g. Mauz et al., 2015). In 46 submarine settings the effects of glacio-eustatic sea-level changes can be witnessed by markers 47 such as the shelf breaks on insular shelves (Quartau et al., 2014) or depositional features formed 48 49 below storm-wave base (e.g. submarine prograding wedges; Casalbore et al., 2017a and 50 references therein). Marine terraces are frequently referred to as excellent tracers of palaeo sea-51 level (Pirazzoli et al., 1993) and they can be used to discern the vertical movements affecting the coastline (Campbell et al., 1986; Ferranti et al., 2006; Zazo et al., 2007). This approach has been 52 successfully applied to study the history of uplifting volcanic islands, (see Lucchi et al., 2007; 53 Lucchi, 2009 and Ramalho et al., 2017) where vertical deformations usually operate at varied 54 55 timescales (De Guidi and Monaco 2009; Ramalho et al., 2013). Most studies so far did not integrate the offshore information (Quartau et al., 2013; 2015), and when they did, mostly focused 56 on oceanic islands surrounded by coral reefs (Coulbourn et al., 1974; Blanchon and Jones, 1995; 57 58 Faichney et al., 2010). To date, only few studies have looked closely at submerged terraces on reefless volcanic islands or at seamounts (Passaro et al., 2011; Schwartz et al., 2018) and 59 consequently little is known about the factors that control the generation and timing of 60 61 submerged terraces in these settings.

52 Santa Maria is the southeastern-most and oldest island of the Azores Archipelago in the 53 Atlantic Ocean, with a history of intermittent volcanism spanning between approximately 6 to 2.8 54 Ma (Sibrant et al., 2015a; Ramalho et al., 2017). Its subaerial evolution is now well constrained 55 (Serralheiro et al., 1987; Serralheiro, 2003; Ávila et al., 2008; Sibrant et al., 2015a; Ramalho et al., 56 2017) and so is the history of vertical movements affecting the island edifice. Based on several 57 volcanic, erosional, and sedimentary relative sea-level markers found onshore, Ramalho et al.

68 (2017) inferred that Santa Maria was subjected to over 200 m of subsidence from emergence at 6 Ma until 3.5 Ma BP (at average ~100 m/m.yr.), after which the island experienced an uplift trend 69 at a slower pace (~60 m/m.yr. on average) until recent times. Additionally, Ramalho et al. (2017) 70 reported a sequence of subaerial marine terraces at elevations ranging between 7-11 m and 210-71 72 230 m, formed during the post-erosional stage of the island. In this paper, the analysis of newly 73 acquired high-resolution multibeam bathymetry and seismic profiles reveal a sequence of 74 submerged marine terraces extending to the shelf edge. This makes Santa Maria an ideal case 75 study to employ a combined onshore/offshore approach to investigate the generation of subaerial 76 and submerged marine terraces and their likely timing of formation in relation to the island's 77 vertical motion history. Based on one dated subaerial terrace and a dated passage zone between 78 subaerial and submarine lava flows (which were used as "anchor" points), we also present a 79 possible correlation between each subaerial and submerged terrace identified on the island and their respective possible time of formation, as extracted from published eustatic curves. The case 80 81 study of Santa Maria therefore will improve our understanding of the controlling mechanisms of 82 marine terrace formation and preservation at reefless volcanic islands, and more generally in 83 other settings.

84

85 2. GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

The Azores Archipelago consists of a group of nine volcanic islands in the mid-North Atlantic, located around the triple junction between the North American, Eurasian and Nubian lithospheric plates (Fig. 1). The Eastern (São Miguel and Santa Maria) and Central group of islands (Terceira, Graciosa, São Jorge, Pico, and Faial Islands) are located on a roughly triangular-shaped area between the Terceira Rift (TR in Fig. 1) and the inactive East Azores Fracture Zone (EAFZ in Fig. 1) on the eastern side of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (MAR in Fig. 1; Lourenço et al., 1998; Gente et al.,

92 2003; Miranda et al., 2018). This complex volcano-tectonic structure is the result of a right-93 transtensional shear zone that links the MAR with the Gloria Fault (GF) (Hipólito et al., 2013; 94 Lourenço et al., 1998; Marques et al., 2013). Santa Maria Island is considered now outside the 95 influence of such wide structure after a ridge-jump, occurred at ~4 Ma, from the incipient Princess 96 Alice Rift (PAR in Fig. 1) to the present-day Terceira Rift (Miranda et al., 2018).

97 Santa Maria was the first island in the Azores Archipelago to emerge above sea level, at 98 approximately 6 Ma (Ramalho et al., 2017). The present-day edifice rises from the -2500 m isobath 99 to a summit at 587 m (Pico Alto, Fig. 2). The emergent stage of island building corresponds to the Cabrestantes and Porto Formations, which crop out on the western side of the island (age ~6 Ma, 100 Fig. 2a). Then, a subaerial shield volcano was formed about 5.8 – 5.3 Ma, which consolidated the 101 102 island edifice (Anjos Volcanic Complex, Fig. 2a). During the following ~1 Ma, volcanic activity 103 waned, leading to a partial or complete dismantling of the shield volcano and to marine deposition synchronous with occasional, low-volume submarine volcanism (Touril Volcano-sedimentary 104 105 Complex, Fig. 2a). This stage is considered as mainly erosional and occurred alongside a significant 106 subsidence trend, which further contributed to the planation and possibly complete submergence 107 of the island edifice (Ramalho et al., 2017). At ~4.1 Ma, however, renewed volcanic activity, which 108 culminated in the creation of the Pico Alto Volcanic Complex (Fig. 2a), caused the edifice to reemerge, as attested by the vertical succession of submarine and subaerial volcanic products. At 109 110 ~3.5 Ma subsidence reversed into uplift, as attested by the presence of raised submarine volcanic 111 sequences and a succession of subaerial marine terraces on the western (windward) side (Ramalho et al., 2017), arranged in a typical staircase morphology. Conversely, the eastern 112 113 (leeward) side is characterized by a rugged morphology, featuring high plunging cliffs (up to 250-114 300 m in elevation) with occasional wave-cut notches at varying elevations. A last stage of 115 volcanism (3.2-2.8 Ma) created the Feteiras Formation (Fig. 2a), but this activity did not reverse

the dominantly erosional trend the island has experienced in the last 3.5 Ma (Ramalho et al.,2017).

In terms of tectonics, Santa Maria is mainly dominated by NW-SE-, N-S and NE-SW-trending extensional faults (Madeira et al., 2015), as attested by the existence of main morphological lineaments in the subaerial topography that displace some of the subaerial terraces (Fig. 2a; Madeira et al., 2015). Numerous dikes, contemporaneous with the two main shield building stages, striking N 045° and N 150° have also been reported (Zbyszewski and Ferreira, 1960; Serralheiro et al., 1987) (Fig. 2a).

In the Azores Archipelago the wave regime is dominated by waves impacting the coastline from the NW (29%), W (24%) and N (16%), with average significant heights (H_s) ranging between 2.5 m and 3 m (Quartau et al., 2012). Storminess in the Azores is high, and the archipelago is struck by severe storms, at least once every seven years (Andrade et al., 2008) that are able to produce maximum wave heights up to 20 m (Rusu & Guedes Soares, 2012). The Azores is subjected to semidiurnal regular tides and the annual mean tidal range in Santa Maria Island is about 1,44 m (Instituto Hidrográfico, 2000).

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132 3. DATA AND METHODS

133 3.1 MARINE GEOPHYSICAL DATA ACQUISITION

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High-resolution multibeam bathymetric and seismic reflection data were collected around Santa Maria between -20 m and -250 m onboard the R/V *Arquipélago* from 24th August to 15th September 2016.. High-resolution multibeam bathymetry was collected mostly parallel to the isobaths along overlapping track lines, relying on DGPS with OMNISTAR corrections for positioning and using a pole-mounted Kongsberg EM2040CTM system (operating frequency range of 200-400

KHz and angular coverage of 130°). Sound velocity profiles (SVP, yellow dots, fig. 3) were regularly
collected during the survey. Data were processed using Caris Hips & Sips 9.0 software to produce
high-resolution Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) with variable cells size depending on the water
depth (1 m for shallow water to 8 m at ~250 m).

A total of 2008 km of high-resolution seismic profiles (Fig. 3) was also acquired between -25 m and -300 m using an Applied Acoustic Engineering AA 200 Boomer[™] plate and a receiver array consisted of a single-channel streamer with 8 hydrophones. Most of the seismic profiles were acquired using 100/200 J of output energy, depending on the water depth. Seismic survey lines parallel to bathymetry have line spacing varying with depth (between 20 to 200 m), while seismic lines perpendicular to the coastline were regularly spaced at ~250 m.

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151 3.2 TERRACE MAPPING

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Multibeam bathymetry and seismic profiles were combined with an existing onshore 153 topographical model (generated from a 1:5000 scale digital altimetric database) in a GIS 154 environment, allowing for integrated onshore/offshore geomorphological analysis. Using this 155 database, we mapped the erosive shelf edge and the submerged terraces on the shelf. Specifically, 156 157 we mapped (where possible) the inner margin of each terrace (Fig. 4, also named "shoreline angle"), which provides an estimation of the shoreline position at the time it was formed, within 158 159 an error of few meters (Firth et al., 1996; Trenhaile, 2002; Antonioli et al., 2003). Where the shelf 160 and overlying terraces are covered by sediment, we used seismic profiles to measure their extension and edge depth. In such cases a sound velocity of 1800 m/s was adopted for the 161 time/velocity conversion for sediments, which on the Azorean mid/outer shelves often correspond 162 163 to sands (Quartau et al., 2012).

164 The mapped shelf was divided into four sectors (north, west, south, east), based on their orientation to the wave climate, their distinctive morphology and the distribution of submerged 165 terraces (Figs. 5, 7-10; 3 and 8 on the Electronic Supplementary Material, hereafter ESM). To 166 167 consider the island vertical movements, we always took into account the maximum values of the 168 shelf edge depths for each sector, since later retrogressive erosion might have affected its depth, 169 making it shallower in places. Mean values of the terrace width were calculated from bathymetric 170 profiles plotted every 250 m perpendicular to the coastline and/or the shelf edge (Fig. 8ESM). The 171 width of the subaerial terraces was also measured using topographic profiles (Fig. 8ESM and Table 172 3ESM) to obtain average values, assuming that it corresponds to the distance from one palaeoshoreline to the one immediately above or below. 173

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175 3.3 ESTIMATE OF THE AGE OF SUBAERIAL AND SUBMERGED MARINE TERRACES

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The uplift rates of Santa Maria were calculated using two dated subaerial markers, together with published sea-level curves. Considering the time period under analysis (almost 4 Ma) we merged the Bintanja and Van de Wal (2008)'s curve, which has a very good resolution and covers 3 Ma, with a curve having a lower resolution (De Boer et al., 2010) for periods after 3 Ma (Fig. 6).

The subaerial marine terrace at 90 m above sea level (a.s.l.; dated at 2.15±0.03 Ma, Ramalho et al., 2017) and the maximum highstand between 2.12 Ma and 2.18 Ma (-0.47 m at 2.134 Ma) were used as reference markers to calculate the possible uplift rate to recent times, assuming that during that period this terrace was uplifted from -0.47 m to 90 m a.s.l.. Using this methodology, we obtained an average uplift rate of 42.4 m/m.yr (0.042 mm/yr). The passage zone between subaerial and submarine lava flows of the effusive lava deltas of Monte Gordo (Fig. 2a) was chosen

188 as another reference sea-level marker to calculate an earlier uplift trend. This feature, that marks very accurately the position of sea level at the moment of the eruption (e.g. Cas and Wright, 1987; 189 Porebski and Gradzinski, 1990; Ramalho et al., 2010a,b,c; Ramalho, 2011; Meireles et al., 2013), is 190 located at 190 m a.s.l. and its timing of formation is constrained by two ⁴⁰Ar/³⁹Ar analyses (SMA 18 191 192 and SMA 45 samples collected in the submarine lava flows below the passage zone) yielding ages 193 of 3.63±0.09 and 3.71±0.08 Ma (see Ramalho et a., 2017). Although the formation of this lava 194 delta did not occur, necessarily, during a highstand, the temporally nearest highstand provides a 195 minimum value for the inferred vertical displacement experienced by this marker, which constitutes the highest datable sea-level indicator in Santa Maria (Ramalho et al., 2017). The 196 197 average age of the marker is 3.67 Ma, which falls between two highstands in our composite curve. 198 Therefore, we used the nearest and highest highstand (dated as 3.704 Ma, at 6.4 m above present 199 sea-level) to calculate the average uplift rate, which is approximately 59 m/m.yr (0.059 mm/yr). 200 The result is an uplift rate that progressively slowed down with time, in agreement with the 201 current elevation of the Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5e raised terrace (7-11 m a.s.l.), which attests 202 to a substantial vertical stability, or to very small uplift, on Santa Maria Island in the last 125 ka. 203 The composite sea-level curve, based on the literature, has been modified according to the 204 obtained uplift rates (Fig. 6), in order to infer the possible age of formation of the mapped marine terraces. Accordingly, we tentatively matched all the stands (including highstands, stillstands and 205 206 lowstands) and all the passing sea-level cycles (rises and falls) with the current terrace 207 elevation/depth (see section 4.3). We assumed that subaerial and submerged marine terraces 208 could be multi-generational, i.e. their geometry could result from the action of several stillstands, 209 as well as sea-level passages. We are, in fact, aware of the inherent errors of using one sea-level 210 curve in detriment of another (Caputo, 2007) and also that uplift rates have possibly changed 211 through time in the period of our reconstruction (Ramalho et al., 2010b). Although a confident

correlation between a particular terrace and a single sea-level stand is impossible, the establishment of a probable time frame for its likely formation can be proposed. Moreover, we also took into account the time that waves eventually would take to carve the terraces at a specific depth, within a ± 5 m uncertainty (i.e, we considered for the calculations the timing that sea was 5 m above and below the level of the terrace) (see Table 1ESM).

217

218 **4. RESULTS**

219 4.1 THE INSULAR SHELF AROUND SANTA MARIA ISLAND

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The northern sector of the shelf (Fig. 7) has a rough trapezoidal shape, being widest in front of 221 Ilhéu das Lagoinhas (~8 km) and narrower westwards (~4.5 km). The northwestern-most tip of the 222 shelf is characterized by an oval-shaped, 200 m-high conical structure (Baixa do Ambrósio) that 223 224 likely represents the remnants of an old pillow-lava cone. Other concentric structures, probably corresponding to truncated cinder/scoria cones of the Cabrestantes and Porto Formations, and of 225 the Anjos Volcanic Complex have been also identified, mostly on the easternmost portion from -226 120 m to -30 m. The westernmost portion of the inner shelf is divided into three rocky blocks by 227 sharp and linear escarpments (2 to 2.5 km long, Fig. 7) that are, apparently, the seaward 228 expression of tectonic lineaments recognized on land (Aeroporto, Anjos and Baía da Cré faults in 229 230 Figs. 2 and 7). The shelf edge depth is constantly below -125 m with maximum depths of ~-170 m 231 to NW off Baía do Mar da Barca (Fig. 7).

The western sector of the shelf is generally characterized by a rocky surface with almost no sediment cover. A WNW-ESE lineament located offshore Campo Grande (possible fault, Fig. 8), separates the shelf into two parts characterized by different widths (~1 km to the north, ~2 km to

the south). In this sector the erosive shelf edge has been significantly affected by mass wasting;
where preserved, its depth varies between -100/-110 m to -135/-145 m (Fig. 8).

The southern shelf sector has an irregular morphology, since more preserved and wider portions of the shelf alternate with narrower areas affected by gully heads (Fig. 9). Accordingly, the shelf width varies from ~0.7 km to up to ~2.5 km and the edge depth from -80/-90 m to a maximum value of -142 m (Fig. 9). Sharp NNE-SSW oriented lineaments cut the shelf, often defining rocky structural highs, which are bordered by more depressed areas covered by sediments (Fig. 9).

The eastern sector of the shelf is from ~1 to ~2 km wide, with the erosive shelf edge located at a fairly constant depth, varying mostly between -90 m and -110 m (Fig. 10). Some portions of the outer shelf are affected by landslides which contributed to a decline in the shelf width and the depth of its edge. The morphology of the shelf is generally rough and thus associated with rocky outcrops alternating with patchy sedimentary cover, similar to the southern sector.

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249 4.2 SUBMERGED MARINE TERRACES

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Five sets of marine terraces, with their inner margins located approximately at -40/-50 m, -70/-80 m, -85/-90 m, -100/-110 m and -120/-140 m were identified on the shelf around Santa Maria (Figs. 7 to 14 and Figs. 1ESM to 7ESM).

254

255 4.2.1 Terrace at -40/-50 m

This terrace is marked by an inner margin generally located between -40 m and -50 m (black line in Figs. 7-10, 12-14, and 4ESM-7ESM), while the outer edge depth varies between -50 m and -60 m. Overall, this terrace exhibits a patchy distribution on the northern sector and is narrow

259 (~400 m, Fig. 7 and Table 2ESM) when compared to other terraces and to the shelf extent in the north. This terrace is ~200 m wide along the western shelf sector (Table 3ESM) extending to ~300 260 m and ~400 m, respectively, along the southern and the eastern shelf sectors; it is wider than the 261 remaining terraces on the western, southern and eastern shelf sectors (Figs. 9, 10, 16 and Table 262 263 2ESM). The terrace is laterally discontinuous as it is interrupted by tectonic lineaments in the 264 northern and western shelf sectors (respectively offshore Baía do Mar da Barca-Baía da Cré and 265 Campo Grande, Figs. 7 and 8) and is compartmentalized by rocky blocks in the southern and 266 eastern sectors (Figs. 9 and 10).

267

268 4.2.2 Terrace at -70/-80 m

269 The terrace with an inner edge located at -70/-80 m is evident in almost the entire northern 270 shelf sector and on the summit of the pillow cone of Baixa do Ambrósio (blue line in Figs. 7-10, 12-14 and 2ESM, 4ESM-7ESM). This terrace is up to ~2 km wide (average width of ~880 m, Table 271 272 2ESM) along the easternmost portion of the northern shelf. To the west (corresponding to the rocky blocks offshore Ponta dos Frades, Fig. 7) its expression is markedly reduced, having the same 273 274 discontinuous nature as the terrace at -40/-50 m. Despite being less extensive and being partly 275 eroded by small landslides, the same terrace is evident on the western shelf sector to the north of 276 the WNW-ESE trending tectonic lineament offshore Campo Grande (average width of 100 m, Fig. 8 277 and Table 2ESM). South of this lineament it is almost absent. Along the southern shelf sector, this 278 terrace is interrupted by tectonic lineaments, being mainly developed offshore Ponta do Castelo (~300 m wide, Fig. 9). Here the average width is about 90 m (Table 2ESM). Along the eastern shelf 279 280 sector, the terrace occurs discontinuously (Fig. 10) and is ~100 m wide on average (Table 2ESM).

281

282 4.2.3 Terrace at -85/-90 m

This terrace has an inner edge located at -85/-90 m (yellow line in Fig. 7, 9, 10, 1ESM, 4ESM-7ESM) being wider in the northern shelf sector (Fig. 7), where it can attain widths of ~ 1 km (over 500 m on average, Table 2ESM). Along the rocky outcrops offshore Ponta dos Frades, it is also interrupted (like the two previous terraces) by lineaments. Apart from the northern shelf sector, this terrace is also preserved in places along the southern sector (average width of 50 m, Table 2ESM), where it is also partly interrupted by tectonic lineaments (Fig. 9). Along the eastern sector it occurs sporadically with an average width of 50 m (Fig. 10 and Table 2ESM).

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291 4.2.4 Terrace at -100/-110 m

This terrace has an inner edge located at -100/-110 m (purple line in Figs. 7-9, 11-13, 2ESM, 292 4ESM-6ESM) and the greatest width along the northern sector (average 800 m, Table 2ESM), 293 294 which progressively decreases from west to east. This terrace has also been detected around Baixa do Ambrósio, even if it is narrower (commonly less than 50 m) (Fig. 7). The inner edge also appears 295 296 to be affected by the faults seen offshore Anjos and Baía da Cré (Fig. 7), although less distinctively when compared with other terraces. Along the western and southern shelf sectors the same 297 298 terrace is observed in narrow strips where the shelf edge is deeper (Figs. 8, 9, and 4ESM-6ESM) 299 and has average widths of 70 m and 50 m, respectively (Table 2ESM). In these sectors, several landslide scars make the terrace laterally discontinuous (Figs. 8 and 9). This terrace is not present 300 301 on the eastern shelf sector (Fig. 10).

302

303 4.2.5 Terrace at -120/-140 m

This is the deepest submerged terrace identified on the shelf, with the inner edge located between -120 and -140 m (red line in Figs. 7-9, 11, 13, 1ESM, 2ESM, 4ESM-6ESM). Along the eastern and central portions of the northern shelf sector it is characterized by a patchy

307 distribution, whilst to the west it widens (offshore Anjos to Baía do Mar da Barca in Fig. 7), being characterized by a sub-horizontal surface and an evident inner edge (Fig. 1ESM). This submerged 308 terrace has also been detected at Baixa do Ambrósio (Fig. 7). In the northern sector it has an 309 average width of 300 m (Table 2ESM), whereas it is marked by narrow and discontinuous strips 310 311 (average widths of ~100 m) affected by small-scale landslide scars on the western shelf sector (Fig. 312 8). Along the southern shelf sector, it is almost absent apart from a sub-horizontal surface, with an 313 inner edge at ~-120 m. The terrace has an average width of ~130 m (Table 2ESM) while its maximum width is ~300 m offshore Ponta do Castelo (Figs. 9 and 13). This terrace is also absent 314 along the eastern sector (Figs. 10 and 14). 315

316

317 4.3 CORRELATION OF MARINE TERRACES WITH SEA-LEVEL OSCILLATIONS

318

Following the approach described in section 3.3, and taking into account the associated 319 320 limitations and uncertainties, a possible timeframe for the formation of each marine terrace is here proposed (Fig. 15). It was assumed that the subaerial terraces were preserved when uplift 321 322 quickly carried them above the level of wave action (see Trenhaile, 2002 and 2014). Because of 323 uplift, only the most recent sea-level stands could be responsible for the formation of the submerged terraces. The results of our reconstruction (Fig. 15) imply that the uppermost subaerial 324 325 terrace (210/230 m a.s.l.) recognized by Ramalho et al. (2017) has no match with sea-level stands 326 younger than 3.5 Ma. This is largely a modeling artifact given that we anchored the formation of the Pico Alto lava deltas to a particular highstand at 3.704 Ma. Moreover, the 210/230 m terrace 327 328 was marked by Ramalho et al. (2017) with a high uncertainty because its morphologic imprint on 329 the island is not clearly recognizable. Given these limitations, we will focus our analysis on terraces 330 that are located below the passage zone of Pico Alto's lava deltas (at approximately 200 m). These

331 terraces can be found down to 45/50 m in elevation, after which the island is cliff-bounded, with no visible terraces excepting the 7-11 m terrace, which is preserved in places (see Fig. 5). 332 Accordingly, we propose that the subaerial marine terraces (with the exception of the lowest and 333 highest) were formed between 3.436 Ma to 1.065 Ma BP (Fig. 15 and Table 1 ESM). The lowest 334 335 subaerial terrace (7-11 m), despite being exclusively attributed to MIS 5e by Ramalho et al. (2017) 336 on the basis of existing sedimentary deposits, according to our model could have been formed and 337 subsequently modified from 1.749 Ma to 121 ka (a period of 1.628 m.yr., Table 1ESM). Our 338 reconstructions also suggest that, on account of the reduction of uplift trend but also because of the gradual increase in the amplitude of the sea-level oscillations, as well as a decrease in their 339 340 frequency, from 2.8 Ma to the present, the possible age interval during which sea level was able to carve and modify these terraces also increased (Fig. 15). Using the same approach, the formation 341 342 and subsequent development of the submerged terraces probably took place in various stages 343 between 1.122 Ma and 12.1 ka, with the deepest submerged terrace (-120/-140 m) being only affected by the lowstand at 19.8 ka (MIS 2; Table 1ESM). 344

A parameter to consider in these reconstructions is also the effective time that sea level was at a 345 346 particular elevation to form a terrace (within a ±5 m uncertainty; see Table 1ESM). This is different 347 from the possible age interval during which sea level passed through each terrace elevation i.e., considering also the combined effects of uplift and glacio-eustatic oscillations. Whilst the possible 348 349 age interval for the formation of a terrace provides us with a maximum and minimum age for that 350 terrace, the effective time quantifies the actual amount of time sea level spent at that particular elevation. This information provides the total amount of time a terrace was effectively exposed to 351 352 active wave erosion during all the cycles included within the possible age interval. For instance, 353 the effective time during which sea level was at the elevation of the inner margin of the 45/50 m 354 raised terrace (305 k.yr.) is estimated to be similar to that of the 155/165 m terrace (318.7 k.yr.)

although the possible age interval for their formation is very different (respectively 1.460 m.yr.,
i.e. between 2.525 Ma and 1.065 Ma, and 373 k.yr., i.e. between 3.436 Ma and 3.063 Ma, Table
1ESM).

358

359 5. DISCUSSION

360

Several geological and oceanographic factors – such as uplift/subsidence rates, local changes in wave regime, shelf gradients, differential resistance to erosion, amplitude of sea-level oscillations and stillstand duration – influence the formation and preservation of marine terraces (Trenhaile, 2002, 2014; Ramalho et al., 2013). It is thus difficult to isolate, in quantitative terms, the contribution of each of these factors in controlling the spatial distribution of the observed terraces.

367 Our correlation between the present-day position of marine terraces and relative sea level for the last 3.5 Ma allowed us to suggest a likely timing (or age interval) of formation for each 368 subaerial and submerged terrace. Despite the many sources of uncertainty in this approach - such 369 370 as uncertainties in the adopted eustatic curve (particularly before the last 3 Ma) and in uplift rates, along with the fact that we did not incorporate any effects of glacio-isostatic adjustment -it 371 constitutes a first-order approximation from which useful insights can be derived concerning the 372 373 generation, destruction, and preservation of marine terraces along an uplifting landmass, 374 throughout a considerable period of time (3.5 m.yr.) and under the effects of multiple glacioeustatic cycles. This integrated onshore/offshore approach has been rarely adopted but 375 376 constitutes the basis for a more complete, holistic comprehension of how long-term relative sea-377 level change interacts with landmasses to form distinctive coastal and nearshore morphologies 378 such as subaerial and submerged terrace staircases.

380 5.1 SUBAERIAL TERRACES

381

According to Ramalho et al. (2017), the interplay between exposure to the dominant wave 382 direction (from the western quadrant, i.e. the windward side) and a favorable 383 384 lithological/stratigraphical framework (i.e. the softer Touril sequence and the gently dipping 385 contacts between this units and underlying Anjos and overlying Pico Alto volcanic edifices) in the 386 western half of Santa Maria, enhanced coastal retreat and formed a wide and gently-sloping terraced morphology, under the combined action of uplift and glacio-isostatic oscillations. We 387 agree with this model, which offers a simple-enough explanation for the island asymmetry, being 388 389 in tune with the local lithological, structural, and oceanographic conditions. Our analysis, however, 390 suggests that the effective time of formation is also an important factor contributing to the generation of the terraced morphology in this part of the island, and to the greater width of the 391 392 terraces now located between 50 m and 120 m in elevation.

Our reconstructions suggest that subaerial terraces at Santa Maria are most probably polygenic 393 394 because uplift rates were low enough to expose each terrace to the passage of several sea-levels 395 (Fig. 15). As such, these terraces were affected by wave erosion during multiple cycles of rising and falling sea level (Fig. 15, Table 1ESM). According to our calculations, the effective time that each 396 397 terrace was exposed to wave erosion with passing sea level spans from ~140 to ~319 k.yr., much 398 more than the average duration of a single highstand or stillstand. A possible relationship exists 399 between terrace width and effective time, e.g. wider terraces were subjected to marine erosion 400 for longer time periods. The plot between terrace width vs effective time shown in Fig. 16 (see 401 also Tables 1ESM and 3ESM) suggests a positive correlation between these two parameters, with 402 terrace width increasing proportionally to the effective time they have been exposed to sea level.

Notable exceptions to this trend include the 105–110 m and 155–165 m terraces, which are considered outliers for different reasons. The 105–110 m terrace coincides with the bulk of the softer Touril sequence (allowing for enhanced coastal retreat in a shorter period of time) and therefore it is not surprising it deviates from this relationship. Why the 155–165 m terrace is relatively narrow despite the fact it was probably exposed for a longer effective time (Table 3ESM) is more difficult to explain. However, a possible explanation lies in the fact that this terrace, being one of the oldest, has suffered considerable topographic decay since its formation.

A peculiar fact about Santa Maria is that it does not exhibit any well-developed raised marine 410 terraces below 45-50 m in elevation, with the exception of the 7-11 m terrace, attributed to MIS 411 5e (Ramalho et al. 2013; Ávila et al. 2015c; Ramalho et al. 2017). In between these elevations, only 412 413 rare and poorly-developed wavecut notches can be observed (Ramalho et al., 2017). In our view, 414 the combined effect of two factors might have contributed to this absence. One is related to the fact that in the last 1 m.yr. the frequency of the glacio-eustatic oscillations started to be 415 416 dominated by the longer 100 k.yr. (Miller et al. 2005), reducing the effective time for erosion at 417 each elevation over this whole period, as highstands/stillstands were fewer when compared to the 418 Late Pliocene and Early- to Mid-Pleistocene. During the latter period, the amplitude of glacio 419 eustatic oscillations was lower and their frequency was dominated by the 41 k.yr cycles, implying more frequent passages of sea level at each elevation (resulting in longer effective times for 420 erosion). The second effect could be related to a slowdown in uplift rates - perhaps a slowdown 421 422 even more dramatic than we modelled in Fig. 15 - during which terrace preservation would be 423 significantly inhibited, with erosion at each subsequent highstand erasing previous terraces and 424 contributing to the maintenance of steep plunging cliffs. This reduction in uplift rates is, in fact, 425 supported by the position of MIS 5e deposits and notches, which indicate a relative sea-level at 7-426 11 m, a position just slightly above the expected elevation for MIS 5e in the area (Bintanja and Van

427 de Wal., 2008). Our reconstructions suggest that the 7-11 m erosive surface is probably polygenic, 428 notwithstanding the fact that MIS 5e deposits can be found resting on this surface (Callapez and Soares, 2000; Ávila et al., 2008; Ávila et al., 2015c; Ramalho et al., 2017). Fig. 15 shows that in the 429 last 1.7 m.yr multiple stillstands could have effectively contributed to the erosion of such a 430 431 surface, although this terrace had mantained a significant morphological and depositional imprint 432 by the Last Interglacial. This highstand was thus responsible for planating even further an already 433 existing terrace (carved during previous cycles), being also responsible for the deposition of 434 fossiliferous beach deposits that can nowadays be found preserved at several sites along this 435 palaeo-shoreline.

436

437 5.2 SUBMERGED TERRACES

438

The distribution and characteristics of the submerged terraces likely result from the interaction of several factors, which contributed to their formation and preservation or destruction, depending on their position. Particularly, the width of the submerged terraces is thought to be controlled by the carved lithology, shelf gradients, water depth at the time of formation, frequency and amplitude of relative sea-level changes (Trenhaile, 2014).

Our data show that submerged terraces (except for the shallowest terrace at -40/-50) are much wider and better preserved in the northern shelf sector than in the other sectors. Moreover, this shelf sector is the only one exhibiting the complete set of submerged marine terraces. This situation can be explained by the low shelf gradients characterizing the northern shelf, which likely allowed for the development of much wider terraces, despite the greater wave attenuation induced by the lower gradients (Trenhaile, 2014). Lithological and structural factors probably also contributed to a greater width of terraces in this sector. The profusion of softer pyroclastic

451 structures due to numerous cinder/scoria cones, for instance, may have allowed faster marine 452 erosion and enhanced coastal retreat, resulting in wider terraces. Differently, the poor development or even absence of deeper terraces on the other shelf sectors (Table 2ESM) could be 453 related to the steeper pre-existing shelf gradients on harder effusive substrates, which precluded 454 455 the development and preservation of wide terraces. Previous studies (e.g. Anderson et al. 1999; 456 Trenhaile, 2014) suggested, in fact, that terrace destruction due to marine erosion during rapidly 457 rising sea levels (such as during glacial terminations) is more effective when shelf gradients are 458 steeper. In addition, it should be considered that deeper terraces could have been erased by retrogressive (landward) erosion of the shelf edge by small-scale mass wasting, as suggested by 459 460 the morphology of the shelf edge along the western, southern and eastern sectors (Figs. 8, 9 and 10). Effectively, along the western and southern sectors, the deepest terraces are only present 461 462 where the shelf edge is preserved in deeper waters. In the eastern sector only shallow- and mid-463 terraces are present, because the shelf edge is always shallower than -100 m. Due to its geological 464 structure – composed of eastward-dipping steep foresets of pillow lavas and hyaloclastites of the 465 Pico Alto Volcanic Complex - this sector of the shelf is more prone to landsliding and therefore 466 terraces are less likely to be preserved, particularly at greater depths (Ramalho et al. 2013; 467 Ramalho et al. 2017).

We have also verified the possible relationship between submerged terrace width vs effective time of erosion (Fig. 16 and Table 2ESM). The data distribution is more scattered than for subaerial terrace, even if a slightly positive correlation can be visually observed in the plots. This larger scatter can be related to the fact that submerged terraces have been affected by more cycles of erosional modification during subsequent periods of rising and falling sea level, being thus characterized by a less distinctive shape than subaerial terraces (Trenhaile, 2014). Unsurprisingly, due to uplift (even if very slow) and increasing eustatic amplitudes in the Late Quaternary, the -

475 40/-50 m terrace is generally the widest, except for the northern sector (Figs 15 and 16). This 476 surface is polygenic, and results from recurrent erosion over a greater time period than other submerged terraces (Fig. 15 and Table 2ESM). Conversely, we do not have a simple explanation for 477 478 its lower width in the northern shelf sector with respect to the deeper terraces; perhaps the lithology where this terrace was carved was harder in the northern sector. More generally, it is 479 480 also difficult to explain the similar range of width observed for this terrace in the different sectors, 481 unless to imagine that the controlling factors for its genesis (shelf gradients, water depths and so 482 on) or their interplay were quite constant around Santa Maria at the time of its formation.

483

484 5.3 TECTONIC CONTROL ON MARINE TERRACES

485

486 Faulting at Santa Maria clearly affects the subaerial terraces from the shallowest one up to at least the 85/90 m terrace, which means that these faults could have been activated sometime 487 488 after ~2.7 Ma. However, this might have started before, but due to the subaerial erosion and sediment covering of the faults it is impossible to verify. Since the faults also affect the distribution 489 490 and geometry of the submerged terraces (at least down to the -85/-90 m terrace), according to 491 our model these faults might have been active up to at least 693 ka ago, or 15 ka at the latest. In 492 detail, on the northern shelf sector the shallowest terrace (-40/-50 m), together with the -70/-80 493 m and -85/-90 m terraces, are all affected by several NW-SE faults, located between Baía do Mar 494 da Barca and Baía da Cré (see Fig. 7). These faults extend inland, where they displace the subaerial terraces up to 90 m in elevation, as with the "Aeroporto fault", or at Baía da Cré. The tectonic 495 496 structure in this sector suggests a compartmentalization of the volcanic edifice in grabens and 497 semi-grabens, where blocks with a relative downthrown movement experienced greater degrees 498 of coastal retreat, allowing also for the formation of depocenters where marine sedimentation

499 occurred. A similar situation can be observed along the deepest part of the shelf at the southern sector (Fig. 9). Here, terrace geometry and distribution are somewhat controlled by several 500 tectonic lineaments (roughly oriented NNE-SSW) that may either correspond to faults, or to dikes 501 that served as limiting barriers to erosion and sedimentation. The NW-SE lineament offshore 502 Campo Grande, in the western shelf sector (Fig. 8), also limits the -70/-80 m terrace to the south 503 504 of this lineament. These features show that local vertical tectonics played an important role in the 505 development of submerged marine terraces, a role that needs further investigation. However, 506 these local effects do not influence the overall depth ranges of marine terraces.

507

508 5.4 TERRACE FORMATION AND PRESERVATION

509

As far as we know, Santa Maria is the only reefless volcanic island that has submerged terraces mapped with high detail. Most of the studies about terraces on volcanic islands are from reefal settings and are almost exclusively off Hawaii (e.g., Campbell, 1986; Faichney et al., 2010). Terraces in reef settings are mostly constructional in origin and hence they are of little utility for a comparison with our study. Nevertheless, some inferences can be made based on modelling of erosional terraces (Trenhaile, 2002; 2014) and the geological record of raised and submerged terraces in other settings.

Raised terraces in Santa Maria are moderately well preserved despite their relatively old age (3.436-1.065 Ma). However, terraces developed on islands and on relatively narrow landmasses tend to be better preserved because the length of the streams is limited and so is the erosion of the landscape (Anderson et al., 1999). Two contrasting hypotheses regarding the formation/preservation of the terraces have been found in the literature. According to Pedoja et al. (2014) coastal staircase sequences are present mainly in areas where apparent uplift rates are

523 very low to moderate, because sea level must remain stationary long enough to allow for the formation of these features. Their compilation of subaerial terraces in hotspot settings shows that 524 these occur on islands with average uplift rates of 0.01 mm/yr. However, modelling by Trenhaile 525 (2002; 2014) suggest that only rapid uplift rates are able to preserve terraces, otherwise these are 526 527 removed by erosion and cliff retreat during periods following high, interglacial sea level. Trenhaile 528 (2014) considers 0.02 mm/yr as slow uplift rates and 0.1 mm/yr as fast. Our data agree with the 529 model presented by Trenhaile (2014). In fact, estimated uplift rates for Santa Maria (0.042/0.059 530 mm/yr) fall between those two values of Trenhaile (2014), which might explain why the terraces are relatively well preserved. 531

As for submerged terraces, modelling by Trenhaile (2014) suggests that very narrow terraces 532 form on uplifting coasts (figure 6 of Trenhaile, 2014). According to this author, this is because 533 534 submerged terraces are preferentially formed during lowstands and are subsequently modified (or even eliminated) during periods of rising and falling sea as they are uplifted. Our observations 535 536 support, however, the preservation of different orders of submerged terraces on the shelf of 537 Santa Maria. Not surprisingly, the average width (Table 3ESM) of the submerged terraces of Santa 538 Maria is smaller (normally < 200 m if we exclude the northern sector) than the width of the 539 subaerial terraces (300-500 m). A likely explanation lies in the fact, already discussed above, that submerged terraces here bear the strong imprint of sea-level changes with much higher amplitude 540 541 and lower frequency in the late Quaternary than the raised terraces formed in early-middle 542 Quaternary (Fig. 15). According to Trenhaile (2014) the scale of sea-level oscillations has an important effect on shelf width, which increases with increasing eustatic amplitude on uplifting 543 544 landmasses. The fact that submarine terraces are systematically eroded by passing sea level as the 545 shelf widens, also contributes to a final morphology in which clearly preserved terraces are 546 apparently not as wide as subaerial terraces.

548 6. CONCLUSIONS

In this study we analyzed for the first time the possible correlation between the formation of the subaerial and submerged terraces with known sea-level changes, on a reefless volcanic island setting. Our approach, including the integration of newly available high-resolution marine geophysical data with detailed onshore field studies, allowed us to:

553 - recognize five sets of submerged marine terraces located at different depths.

better estimate the uplift rates for Santa Maria island, using two dated raised, subaerial
paleoshorelines and a composite sea level curve. Those rates were used to determine the possible
age interval of formation of subaerial and submerged marine terraces, ranging from 3.436 Ma to
12.1 ka BP, being formed and later modified by more than one passage of sea level.

- analyze the controlling factor of the submerged marine terraces distribution. On low gradient,
and consequently wider shelves, terraces are more easily carved/preserved. Conversely, steeper
shelf gradients facilitate the erosion of upper and older terraces by younger and deeper terraces in
uplifting areas.

- better constraint the faulting activity at least to the 0.693-2.7 Ma period, based on the offset
experienced by subaerial and submerged terraces. Activity could have been more prolonged in
time, but degradation of the subaerial terraces and lack of clear evidence on the submerged ones
does not allow us to extend further that period.

propose an original and consistent reconstruction for the marine terraces formation at Santa
 Maria, notwithstanding the complex interplay between glacio-eustatic oscillations, marine
 erosion, and island uplift.

569

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797	FIGURE CAPTIONS
798	
799	Fig. 1. Map illustrating the geodynamic setting of the islands (western, central and eastern groups)
800	in the Azores Archipelago (islands in grey, Santa Maria Island in white) and how they straddle the
801	triple junction between the North American (NA), Eurasian (EU) and Nubian (NU) lithospheric
802	plates. MAR: Mid-Atlantic Ridge; PAR: Princess Alice Rift; EAFZ: Eastern Azores Fracture Zone; TR:
803	Terceira Rift; GF: Gloria Fault. The top-right inset shows the geographical setting of the Azores
804	Archipelago within the Northern Atlantic Ocean. Grey shading represents the deformation zone of
805	Terceira rift and of the inactive Princess Alice Rift. The bathymetry is derived from the EMODNET
806	web portal (<u>http://portal.emodnet-bathymetry.eu</u>), tectonic structures adapted from Miranda et

- al. (2018).

Fig. 2. (a) Geological map of Santa Maria Island, and (b) WNW-ESE oriented cross-section. Underlying digital elevation model (DEM) is generated from a 1/5000 scale digital altimetric database. Note that the Porto Fm and Lower Pico Alto volcanic complex are not visible on the map/section at this scale. SMA 18 and SMA 45: samples collected in the submarine lava flows below the passage zone of Monte Gordo (see the text for further details). Modified after Ramalho et al. (2017).

815

Fig. 3. Dataset used for this study, showing the seismic reflection profiles acquired during the PLATMAR cruise. The multibeam survey covered the area shown by the seismic grid. Yellow dots represent location of sound speed profiles collected during the multibeam survey. Bathymetry shown in this figure (~200 m resolution) was derived from the EMODNET web portal (<u>http://portal.emodnet-bathymetry.eu</u>); topography was constructed from a 1/5000 scale digital altimetric database.

822

Fig. 4. Schematic representation showing the morphologic elements considered in this work.

824

Fig. 5. Shaded relief imagery of the subaerial part of Santa Maria Island (1:5000 scale, digital altimetric database from Secretaria Regional do Turismo e Transportes of the Azores Government) and surrounding shelf (derived from the multibeam bathymetry). Black lines represent the limits of the Northern, Western, Southern and Eastern sectors described in the text. Colored solid and dashed lines represent the location of the evident and inferred inner margins of subaerial marine terraces (modified after Ramalho at al., 2017).

831

Fig. 6. Uplift trend of Santa Maria Island reconstructed on the base of a dated subaerial marine terrace (the short blue line represent its current elevation) and a passage zone between subaerial and submarine lava flows (the short black line represent its current elevation). In grey, the composite sea-level curve of Bintanja and Van de Wal (2008) and De Boer et al., (2010). In black, the same sea-level curve modified according to the adopted uplift rates (see text for details). The black dots on the grey curve represent the highstands considered in our calculations.

838

839 Fig. 7. Map of the mapped terraces on the northern shelf sector. Colored lines offshore

840 correspond to the inner edge of each terrace, whilst the respective colored adjacent areas to their

841 extension. Colored lines onshore correspond to the inner edge of the raised terraces. The seismic

profile aa' is shown in fig. 11 and seismic profiles ee' and ff' are respectively shown in Figs. 1ESMand 2ESM.

844

Fig. 8. Map of the mapped terraces on the western shelf sector. Legend is the same as in Fig. 7.
The seismic profile bb' is shown in Fig. 12.

847

Fig. 9. Map of the mapped terraces on the southern shelf sector. Legend is the same as in Fig. 7.
The seismic profile cc' is shown in Fig. 13.

850

Fig. 10. Map of the mapped terraces on the eastern shelf sector. Legend is the same as in Fig. 7.
The seismic profile dd' is shown in Fig. 14.

853

Fig. 11. Boomer seismic profile aa' showing the shelf morphology off the northern sector of Santa
Maria. Location of the seismic profile in Fig. 7.

Fig. 12. Boomer seismic profile bb' showing the shelf morphology off the western sector of Santa
Maria. Location of the seismic profile in Fig. 8.

859

Fig. 13. Boomer seismic profile cc' showing the shelf morphology off the southern shelf sector of
Santa Maria. Location of the seismic profile in Fig. 9.

862

Fig. 14. Boomer seismic profile dd' showing the shelf morphology off the eastern shelf sector of
Santa Maria. Location of the seismic profile in Fig. 10.

865

Fig. 15. Tentative correlation between the terraces and their possible timing of formation and subsequent modification within eustatic sea-level oscillations. Colored horizontal bars represent the admissible time interval during which each terrace might have been carved by marine erosion according to sea-level fluctuations and island uplift. The vertical width of each bar represent the elevation range of the terrace +/- 5 m (see the text for details). The dots/squares with different colors represent sea-level highstands, lowstands or other stillstands within the respective time frame for each terrace.

873

Fig. 16. Plot of the total area of the subaerial and submerged marine terraces for each shelf sector against the effective time that sea level was at their vertical position. These graphs were based on the measurement of the width of the terraces along several profiles drawn in Fig. 8ESM. Note that the horizontal scale is different among shelf sectors.

878

879 ELECTRONIC SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL - CAPTION

880	Fig. 1ESM. Boomer seismic profile ee'. See location in Fig. 7 of the main text.
881	
882	Fig. 2 ESM. Boomer seismic profile ff'. See location in Fig. 7 of the main text.
883	
884	Fig. 3 ESM. Location of the interpreted seismic profiles of Figs. 4ESM, 5ESM, 6ESM and 7ESM.
885	
886	Fig. 4 ESM. Interpretation of the seismic profiles of the northern shelf sector showing the mapped
887	terraces. Location of profiles shown in Fig. 3ESM.
888	
889	Fig. 5 ESM. Interpretation of the seismic profiles of the western shelf sector showing the mapped
890	terraces. Location of profiles shown in Fig. 3ESM.
891	
892	Fig. 6 ESM. Interpretation of the seismic profiles of the southern shelf sector showing the mapped
893	terraces. Location of profiles shown in Fig. 3ESM.
894	
895	Fig. 7 ESM. Interpretation of the seismic profiles of the eastern shelf sector showing the mapped
896	terraces. Location of profiles shown in Fig. 3ESM.
897	
898	Fig. 8 ESM. Location of the bathymetric profiles used to measure the width of the terraces in each
899	shelf sector to provide the results of Fig. 16.

































Submerged terraces



















Submerged terraces	erged terraces First passage (ka) Last passage (ka)		Time span (ka)	Effective time (ka)	
-40/-50m	1122	12.1	1109.9	197	
-70/-80m	866	14	852	178	
-85/-90m	642	14.7	627.3	65.6	
-100/-110m	623	16.5	606.5	51.2	
-120/-140m	19.8	19.8	0	8.7	
Raised terraces					
7/11m	1749	121	1628	213.3	
45/50	2525	1065	1460	305	
55/60	2528	1425	1103	283.9	
65/70	2598	1917	681	144.8	
85/90	2717	2021	696	165.5	
105/110	2809	2234	575	146.3	
120/125	2818	2540	278	140.2	
140/145	3145	2891	254	180.6	
155/165	3436	3063	373	318.7	

Table 1. Time of the first and last passage of sea level through the current depth/elevation of the inner margin of each marine terrace, according to sea-level fluctuations and the island uplift trend (see Fig. 15). Apart from the -120/-140 m terrace (possibly formed during a single lowstand), each marine terrace was likely carved and reworked several times within the overall time span reported in the third column (Time Span), resulting from the interval between the first and the last passage of the relative sea-level. The fourth column (Effective time) represents the time each terrace was effectively in the depth range (+/-5m) of sea level erosion within that time span, according to the adopted sea-level curves.

	Effective	North	West	South	East
	time (ka)	(width)	(width)	(width)	(width)
-40/-50	197	0.437 km	0.216 km	0.293 km	0.444 km
-70/-80	178	0.878 km	0.102 km	0.092 km	0.114 km
-85/-90	65.6	0.576 km	Absent	0.059 km	0.054 km
-100/-110	51.2	0.818 km	0.073 km	0.056 km	Absent
-120/-140	8.7	0.34 km	0.095 km	0.126 km	Absent

Table 2. Effective time the sea level was in the depth range of sea level erosion and width of respective

submarine terraces for the northern, western, southern and eastern shelf sectors.

	Effective time (ka)	Width (m)
7/11 m	213.3	
45-50 m	305	450.25
55-60 m	283.9	400.75
65-70 m	144.8	344
85-90 m	165.5	299.75
105-110 m	146.3	405.25
120-125 m	140.2	290.25
140-145 m	180.6	120.5
155-165 m	318.7	276.5

Table 3. Effective time the sea level was in the depth range of sea level erosion and width of respective

raised terraces.