

1 **The mid-8th century CE surface faulting along the Dead Sea Fault at Tiberias (Sea of Galilee, Israel)**

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8
9 **Key Points:**

- 10 • We describe evidence of surface faulting as recorded in archaeological relics at the
11 ancient Tiberias (Israel)
- 12 • We attribute this faulting to one of the earthquakes occurred during the mid-8th century
13 CE
- 14 • Our findings highlight the need for revising the seismic risk in the Sea of Galilee and
15 nearby regions.

16 **Abstract**

17 The Dead Sea Fault (DSF) is a plate-boundary where large earthquakes are expected and largely
18 overdue. Complex sequences of earthquakes along the DSF are documented by historical
19 evidence, one of the most devastating being in the mid-8th century CE. Nevertheless, the related
20 seismogenic sources are still debated. Here we describe site-specific archaeoseismological
21 observations at the ancient Tiberias city, located on the western shore of the Sea of Galilee. We
22 map Roman and Byzantine relics faulted in the mid-8th century CE by a pure dip-slip normal
23 fault. We use geophysical, geomorphological and structural analyses integrated with published
24 data, to assess the seismic hazard of the Jordan Valley Western Boundary Fault (JVWB). We
25 propose that the normal JVWB can rupture the surface along its ~45 km trace running from
26 Tiberias toward the S crossing Beit Shean, Tel Rehov and Tel Teomim. The JVWB, parallel to
27 the main strike-slip Jordan Valley Fault segment, might be regarded as a major earthquake
28 source in this region. We test the hypotheses of both single fault and multi-faults rupture
29 scenarios, which result in an expected range of Mw from 6.9 (single rupture of the JVWB) to 7.6
30 (multiple rupture of the JVWB and Jordan Valley Fault). Our results suggest that seismic source
31 characterization in the Sea of Galilee region must include normal faults capable of surface
32 rupturing, despite the absence of such events in the instrumental catalogue.

33
34 **KEYWORDS**

35 Dead Sea Fault; mid-8th century CE seismicity; Tiberias; archaeoseismology; seismic hazard;
36 strain partitioning

38 **1 Introduction**

39 The spatial and temporal characterization of faults rupture, the expected magnitude range,
40 fault dimension, focal mechanism and affected areas are primary parameters for the evaluation of
41 the seismic risk of a region. The time interval covered by instrumental seismicity can be too
42 short to have witnessed strong earthquakes, if these have recurrence intervals longer than ca. 100
43 years. It is therefore vital to extend the time window covered by instrumental catalogues, using
44 historical records, archaeoseismological and paleoseismological evidences (e.g., Bozorgnia &
45 Bertero, 2004). These techniques provide valuable information to investigate past events with
46 long recurrence intervals, however a gross overestimation of the size of historical earthquakes
47 can occur if the combined effects of multiple individual events are attributed, over the years, to a
48 single earthquake (Ambraseys, 2005).

49 In this study we focus our investigations on the Sea of Galilee region (Israel), located
50 along the Dead Sea Fault (DSF). The study area is particularly suitable for an
51 archaeoseismological approach because it has a long-lasting human occupation and over 150
52 years of extensive archeological excavations provide abundant relics pertaining to different
53 historical periods. Strong earthquakes are known to have hit the Sea of Galilee area in historical
54 times (e.g. Ambraseys, 2005, 2009; Guidoboni et al., 2007), but the instrumental catalogue is
55 limited to $M < 6$ earthquakes (recorded events since the first half of the 20th century). A seismic
56 swarm (max Mw 4.5) occurred in July-August 2018, with epicenters located in the NW part of
57 the Sea of Galilee (Wetzler et al., 2019), renewing the interest for seismic risk evaluation in the
58 area.

59 In this study, we systematically document archaeoseismological evidence indicating
60 normal surface faulting at the city of Tiberias, located on the W shores of the Sea of Galilee
61 (Section 4.1), then we use morphotectonic data and newly acquired shallow geophysical
62 prospection (Section 4.2) to characterize this normal fault. Based on the new observations, we
63 relate the damage to the mid-8th century CE seismicity (Section 5.1) and discuss the structural
64 setting and fault displacement hazard at Tiberias (Section 5.2) taking into account single and
65 multi-faults rupturing scenarios (Section 5.3). Our data allow to: i) assess the kinematics and
66 characteristics of the earthquake which generated the surface faulting at Tiberias during the mid-
67 8th century CE, ii) define the trace, kinematics and latest movement of an active fault crossing
68 through the modern town of Tiberias and iii) highlight the need to consider several rupture
69 scenarios for a comprehensive seismic risk assessment of the Sea of Galilee region.

70 **2 Study area and literature review**

71 2.1 Structural and geologic setting

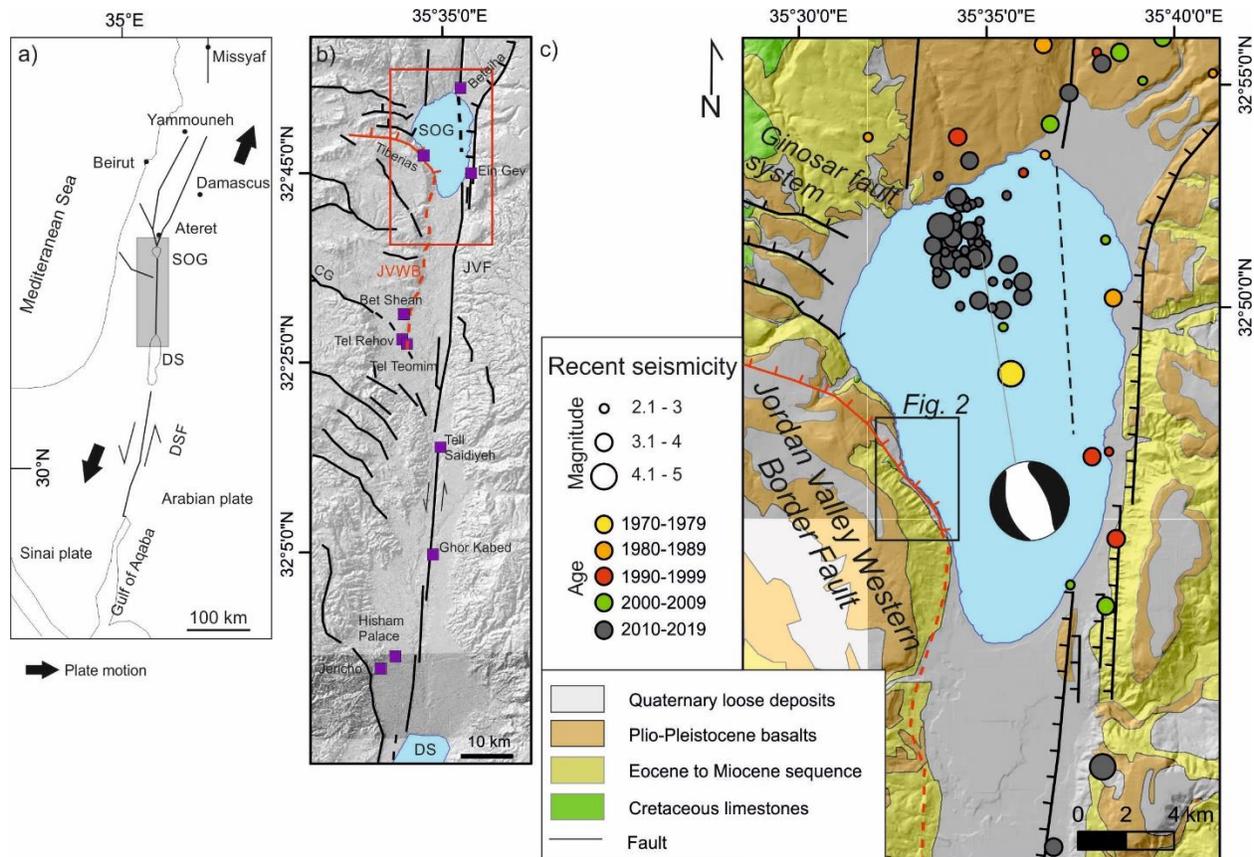
72 The DSF (Fig. 1a) forms the boundary between Arabia and Sinai plates and
73 accommodates a long-term slip rate of about 4 – 5 mm/yr, resulting in 105 km of post-Miocene
74 left-lateral displacement (e.g., Garfunkel, 1981; Garfunkel et al., 2014 and references therein). In
75 the Sea of Galilee area, the main fault segment is the left-lateral Jordan Valley Fault (JVF),
76 which runs along the E side of the Sea of Galilee (Marco et al., 2005; Hamiel et al., 2016;
77 Wechsler et al., 2018 and reference therein; Fig. 1b). The JVF is characterized by Holocene left-
78 lateral and normal components, which are estimated to be 4 - 5 mm/yr and 0.1 - 0.2 mm/yr
79 respectively, based on paleoseismology (Ferry et al., 2007; Katz et al., 2010) and on GPS data.

80 The latter indicates shallow creep behavior of the JVF along the SE coast of the Sea of Galilee
81 (Hamiel et al., 2016).

82 The SW coast of the Sea of Galilee is crosscut by a series of mostly E-dipping normal
83 faults (Fig. 1c; Sneh, 2008; Sneh and Weinberger, 2014; Sagy et al., 2016; Sharon et al., 2020).
84 North of Tiberias, these faults bend westward and assume an E-W trending (Fig. 1b, c).
85 Southward these faults join in a single trace, that is discontinuously traced until Bet Shean
86 toward Tel Rehov and Tel Teomim, at the intersection with the the Carmel – Gilboa Fault. It is
87 still debated whether the JVF and the normal faults at the W side of the Sea of Galilee presently
88 accommodate the relative plate motion according to a strain-partitioned model (e.g., Garfunkel,
89 1981; Ben-Avraham & Zoback, 1992; Sagy et al., 2003), and thus might be regarded as
90 individual seismic sources or, conversely, the Sea of Galilee is a pull-apart basin (e.g., Hurwitz et
91 al., 2002) dissected on the western side by secondary normal faulting.

92 Previous studies investigated the W side of the Sea of Galilee at several sites through
93 geophysical prospecting (Fig. 1b; Rotstein et al., 1992; ten Brink et al., 1999; Hurwitz et al.,
94 2002; Sneh and Weinberger, 2014). Constraints on the fault location are provided by the Hamat
95 Tiberias hot springs (Fig. 2a), interpreted as linked to a steep E-dipping normal fault (Ilani et al.,
96 2006). Further S, geomorphic and structural evidence is used by Sagy et al. (2016) to map a
97 series of active normal fault segments for a total length of 40 - 45 km up to Tel Rehov and Tel
98 Teomim, where Late Pleistocene normal faulting has been described in detail by trenching (Fig.
99 1b; Zilbermann et al., 2004; Sagy et al., 2016). Field mapping, offset landforms and exploratory
100 excavations allow to estimate the Quaternary normal slip rate of this fault in 0.5 – 2 mm/yr,
101 without significant strike-slip component (Zilbermann et al., 2004; Eppelbaum et al., 2007). In
102 the following, we refer to the whole segment from Tiberias to Tel Rehov and Tel Teomim as the
103 Jordan Valley Western Boundary Fault (JVWB), and for modelling purposes we assume that it is
104 continuous at the sub-surface.

105 We focus our investigations on the W side of the Sea of Galilee, in the southern outskirts
106 of the modern town of Tiberias. The stratigraphic setting of the escarpment bounding the Sea of
107 Galilee to the W (Fig. 1c) is characterized by a Plio-Pleistocene basaltic plateau which overlie
108 Cretaceous limestones, occasionally outcropping, and Neogene-Quaternary basin infillings.
109 Well-developed triangular facets and wineglass-shaped valley outlets, fluvial elbows and piracy
110 events point to a tectonic origin for the range front residing along the JVWB (Fig. 2).



111
 112 **Figure 1.** Structural framework of the Tiberias area; a) plate tectonic setting of the Dead
 113 Sea Fault (DSF), the grey box locates the area shown in (b), between the Sea of Galilee (SOG)
 114 and the Dead Sea (DS); b) Quaternary faults in the central part of the DSF, modified after Sneh
 115 and Weinberger (2014), Sagy et al. (2016), Hamiel et al. (2016) and Sharon et al. (2018, 2020);
 116 the red rectangle is the area enlarged in c); JWVB: Jordan Valley Western Boundary Fault,
 117 JVF: Jordan Valley Fault, CG: Carmel-Gilboa Fault; c) simplified geologic map (after Bogoch
 118 & Sneh, 2008; Sneh, 2008), epicenters of $M_w > 3.0$ events since 1980 (data from
 119 <http://seis.gii.co.il/en/earthquake/searchEQSRslt.php>) and focal mechanism of the 2018 $M_w 4.5$
 120 event (after Wetzler et al., 2019).

121

122 2.2 Historical evolution and investigated sites at Tiberias

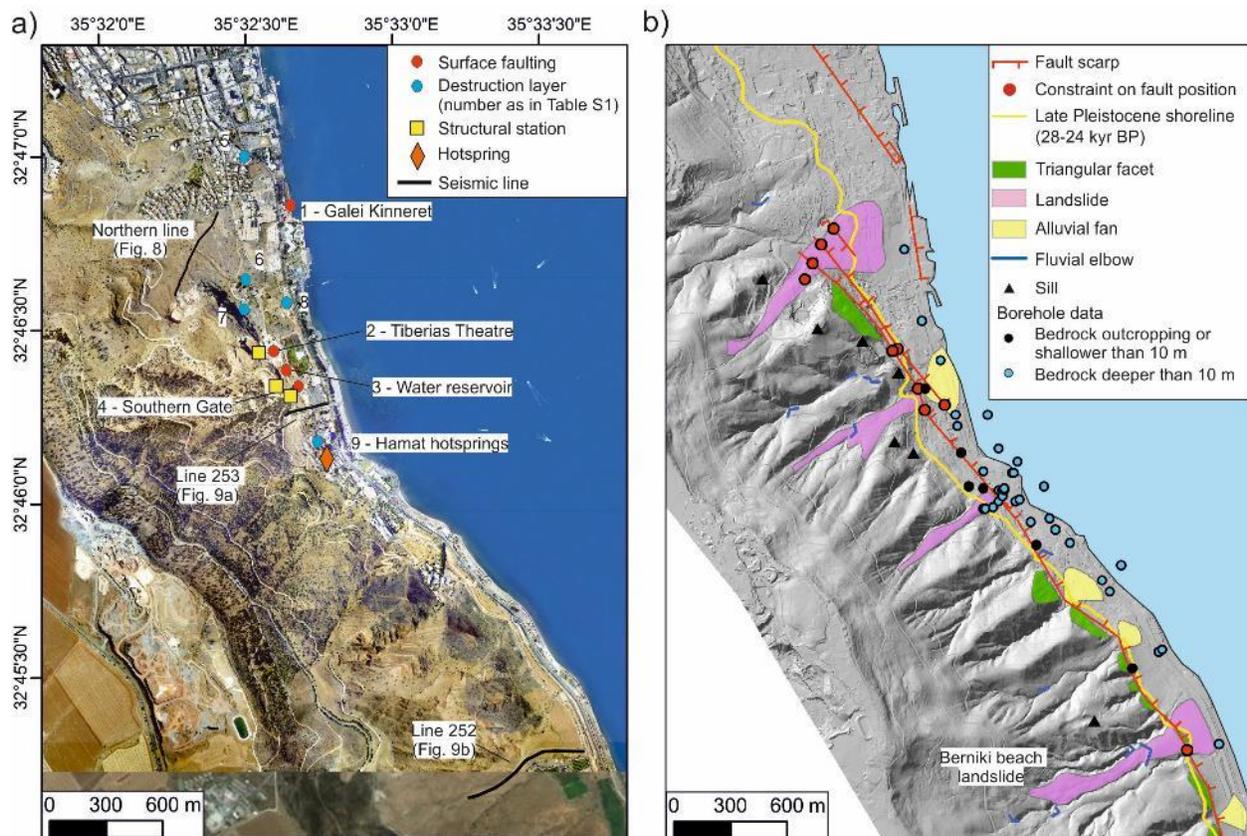
123 The Roman city of Tiberias was founded in the name of Emperor Tiberius by Herod
 124 Antipas in 19 CE. Archaeological excavations carried out at Tiberias reported abundant
 125 earthquake-related damage in archeological strata (Hirschfeld & Meir, 2004; Hirschfeld &
 126 Gutfeld, 2008; Zingboym & Hartal, 2011; Dalali-Amos, 2016; Onn & Weksler-Bdolah, 2016).
 127 We performed our investigations at three sites (namely the Theatre, the Southern Gate and a
 128 water reservoir), now at the southern part of the modern city (Fig. 2a).

129 Atrash (2010), reconstructed three building phases in the Theatre. These phases
 130 contribute to the analysis of the earthquake effects (Fig. 3a): during the earliest building phase
 131 (Stratum V, 1st century CE), the Theatre was smaller and had two blocks of seats; in the second
 132 phase (Stratum IV, 2nd-3rd century CE) a third block of seats and a larger *auditorium* were added.

133 In the third phase (Stratum III, 4th-6th century CE), the third block of seats was dismantled and a
 134 tribune was added. In the 6th-7th century CE, the Theatre has been downscaled and then
 135 abandoned, as testified by debris flow deposits that buried the site. Finally, a Fatimid-Abassid
 136 residential quarter (Strata I-II, 8th-11th century CE) was built on the Theatre remains and was in
 137 use until late 11th century CE (Atrash, 2010). The Fatimid-Abassid structures were completely
 138 removed during the excavation (2009); the present-day status of the site is shown in Fig. 4,
 139 together with the view angle of photos taken during our surveys (2014-2015), whereas those
 140 taken during the 2009 excavations are shown in Fig. 5.

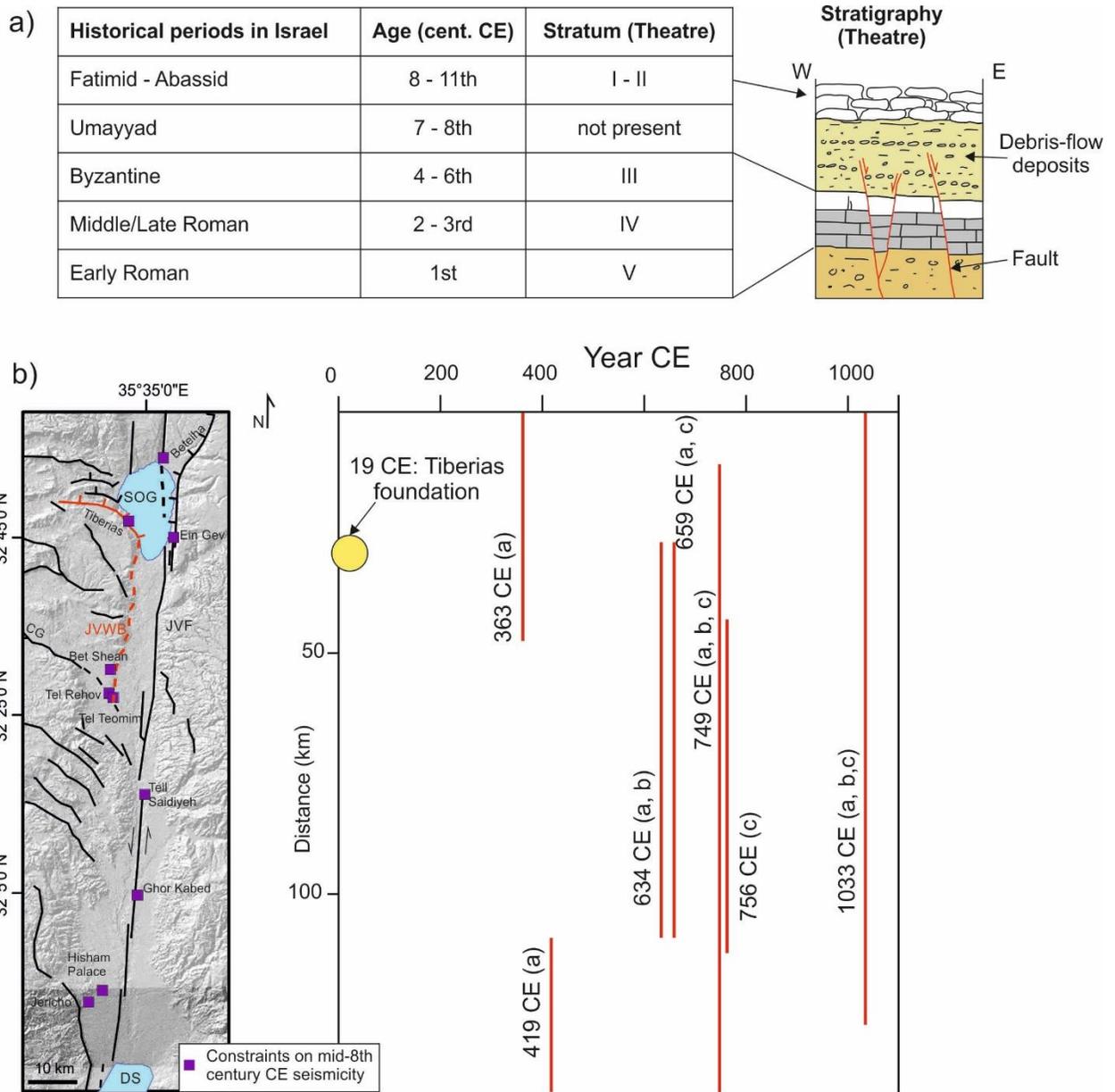
141 The Southern Gate, located ca. 200 m S of the Theatre, was originally built during the
 142 Early Roman period as a free-standing structure. In Byzantine times, the gate was incorporated in
 143 the newly-built city wall and in Umayyad-to-Fatimid periods other buildings and retaining walls
 144 were constructed at the site (Hartal et al., 2010). Between the Theatre and Southern Gate, an
 145 Umayyad water reservoir was uncovered in 2017 (Fig. 6a).

146



147

148 **Figure 2.** a) Relevant sites mentioned in the text and location of the seismic lines;
 149 numbers correspond to Table S1 where relevant references are provided; b) Morphotectonic
 150 map of the study area, based on 0.5-m resolution DTM extracted from airborne Lidar survey.
 151 The map shows also the late-Pleistocene shoreline, the position of boreholes analyzed in this
 152 study and the points where we constrained the spatial position of the fault trace.



153

154 **Figure 3.** a) Historical periods in Israel and schematic stratigraphic column at the
 155 Theatre; b) Spatial and temporal distribution of the major documented earthquakes (estimated
 156 magnitude above ca. 6) that affected the Jordan Valley between Tiberias foundation at 1st
 157 century CE and the 11th century CE. Data are from published literature, indicated by the letters
 158 in brackets; a: Agnon (2014), b: Marco & Klinger (2014) and c: Zohar (2019). Vertical bars
 159 represent the presumed spatial extent of ruptures relative to the faults map.

160

161 **2.3 Historical seismicity**

162 Information on past earthquakes along the DSF is particularly rich and includes evidence
 163 for strong but infrequent earthquakes derived from historical, archaeological and geological data
 164 (Guidoboni et al., 2007; Ambraseys, 2009; Agnon, 2014; Zohar et al., 2016). Here we limit our

165 description to the region between the Sea of Galilee and the Dead Sea. For a thorough review of
166 the historical seismicity along the entire DSF and related paleo- and archaeoseismological
167 evidence, the reader is referred to the several review papers published on this topic (e.g.,
168 Guidoboni et al., 2007; Ambraseys, 2009; Agnon, 2014; Garfunkel et al., 2014; Marco &
169 Klinger, 2014; Zohar et al., 2016; Zohar, 2019). An integration of data from recent seismology,
170 historical, archeological and paleoseismological investigations revealed that the recurrence
171 interval in Sea of Galilee region is about 500 and 1500 years for earthquakes of $M_w > 6$ and M_w
172 > 6.5 , respectively (Ambraseys, 2009; Hamiel et al., 2009; Katz et al., 2010). Such large
173 earthquakes may generate ground acceleration up to 0.5g and earthquake-induced landslides
174 around the Sea of Galilee (Katz et al., 2010).

175 Fig. 3b summarizes the earthquakes occurred in the studied region since Tiberias
176 foundation (1st century CE) and the 11th century CE. In the following, we provide more details
177 on the mid-8th century CE seismicity, the most relevant for our study. During this period, a
178 sequence of strong earthquakes spatially and temporarily clustered occurred along the DSF. They
179 were felt over a large area extending between N Syria and Egypt, but the amalgamation of
180 literary information (e.g., Karcz, 2004; Ambraseys, 2005, 2009) resulted in an unlikely image of
181 damaging produced by a single event (i.e., estimated M_w 7.0-7.5; Marco et al., 2003).
182 Teophanes, one of the reliable and most-contemporary sources, mentions instead three distinct
183 earthquakes between 747 and 757 CE (Ambraseys, 2005). The precise dating of the events is
184 debated, although numismatic indications constrain destruction at Bet Shean (Scythopolis),
185 located along the southern part of the JVWB (Fig. 3b), after than August 748 CE (Tsafrir &
186 Foerster, 1992; Karcz, 2004).

187 Several authors dealt with the mid-8th century CE seismicity, based on archaeological,
188 paleoseismic and macroseismic studies. Starting from the N, paleoseismic evidence matching
189 this time frame was found along the Missyaf (Meghraoui et al., 2003) and Yammouneh (Daeron
190 et al., 2007) Faults (Fig. 1a). At Galei Kinneret, about 1.5 km N of the Theatre (Fig. 2a), Marco
191 et al. (2003) documented secondary E-dipping normal faults dated as late as the early 8th century
192 CE, whereas buildings from the late 8th century CE were intact. Along the JVF (Fig. 1b),
193 paleoseismic surface ruptures related to the same event were found at Beteiha (Wechsler et al.,
194 2018), Ein Gev (Katz et al., 2010), Tell Saidiyeh and Ghor Kabed (Ferry et al., 2007). At Hisham
195 Palace (Jericho), Reches & Hoexter (1981) documented surface faulting as well. Damage at this
196 site has been re-assessed as due to the 1033 CE earthquake (Alfonsi et al., 2013), but the latter
197 study did not address the main fault strand, thus a mid-8th century event cannot be definitely
198 excluded. South of the Dead Sea, a rupture matching the mid-8th century CE interval and
199 extending to the Gulf of Aqaba (Fig. 1a) is inferred by Agnon (2014) using macroseismic and
200 archaeological evidence and by Lefevre et al. (2018) using paleoseismological investigations.

201 2.4 Recent seismicity

202 The instrumental catalogue (<http://seis.gii.co.il/en/earthquake/searchEQS.php>) includes
203 77 earthquakes with $M_w > 2.5$ in the area depicted in Fig. 1c since 1970, 4 of which had $M_w >$
204 4.0. These include a M_w 4.0 occurred in 2011 along the JVF and 3 events with epicenter
205 offshore in the Sea of Galilee (Fig. 1c). The oldest one in the catalogue (M_w 4.2) occurred in
206 1972, whereas the 2 most recent (M_w 4.5 and 4.2) occurred in July 2018 as part of a swarm of
207 shallow earthquakes with normal focal mechanism solutions (focal depth < 10 km). Seismicity is

208 located offshore, in the NW part of the Sea of Galilee, aligned along NNW-SSE direction
209 (Wetzler et al., 2019).

210 **3 Materials and methods**

211 3.1 Morphotectonics

212 We use high resolution airborne-Lidar based topographical model, acquired for the entire
213 Sea of Galilee coastal area by Ofek Aerial Photo, using Optech ORION H300 (covered area:
214 over 150 km²). Products include ground-validated DSM and DTM with pixel size of 0.5 m x 0.5
215 m and average vertical error of less than 10 cm. We process the data obtaining maps of slope,
216 aspect and contour lines. We interpret multiscale aerial photos (two coverages imaging the area
217 at 1945 and 1982) using an analogic stereoscope.

218 We map linear and areal features with a clear geomorphic expression at the surface (i.e.,
219 abrupt change in topography and slope) and discriminate tectonic from lacustrine features (e.g.,
220 late Pleistocene shorelines, Hazan et al., 2005) and man-made structures using Lidar data and
221 high spatial resolution satellite images (Esri imagery). We check available borehole logs at the
222 Geological Survey of Israel archives, providing additional data on the shallow subsurface. We
223 implement information in a GIS database and finally we directly study the mapped elements
224 through field reconnaissance. We draw geologic cross-sections at three key sites, using surface
225 (fieldwork, Lidar and aerial imagery interpretation) and shallow subsurface (seismic lines and
226 borehole logs) constraints.

227 We consider the mapped faults as highly reliable due to at least one of the following
228 reasons: (i) were directly observed at the archaeological sites, (ii) investigated through seismic
229 lines, (iii) deduced from borehole logs, (iv) mapped in the official Israeli active fault map (Sagy
230 et al., 2016), (v) described in detail in scientific literature (e.g., Marco et al., 2003).

231 3.2 Archaeoseismology and structural analysis

232 We surveyed Tiberias Theatre and the Southern Gate in 2014-2015. Archaeological
233 stratigraphy enabled to date the relics and related damage. We acquire about 30 high-resolution
234 low-aerial photographs from different perspectives and heights using a DJI Phantom drone.

235 We classify Earthquake Archaeological Effects (EAE) according to type (fractures on
236 ground or on walls, folded walls, chip corners), following the guidelines provided by Rodriguez-
237 Pascua et al. (2011). Damage was mapped on a high-resolution image acquired by a UAV-
238 airborne camera. We measure structural data (dip and dip direction) on 182 fractures within the
239 archaeological sites (see Table S2) using a compass or an Android mobile equipped with
240 FieldMove CLINO app by Midland Valley®, and we plot data using Stereonet v.7 software by
241 Rick Allmendinger. We measure a set of 15 well-constrained faults with kinematic indicators on
242 the outcropping bedrock at 3 different stations between the Theatre and the Gate (raw data are
243 listed in Table S3). We invert for slip with the software FaultKin v.6 (Allmendinger et al., 2001),
244 following a kinematic approach (i.e., Unweighted Moment Tensor Solution) in order to derive
245 strain axes from fault geometry and slip direction. This method assumes that slip direction on
246 fault is parallel to the maximum resolved shear rate of a large-scale homogeneous strain rate
247 tensor (e.g., Marrett & Allmendinger, 1990).

248 We carry high resolution topographic surveys using a total station (Sokkia; SET3R),
249 focused on seat courses and wall stones, considered as an originally horizontal datum, in order to
250 measure faults vertical displacement with cm-scale accuracy. We carefully selected the location
251 of the profiles, in order to keep original elements, not replaced during the restoration process.

252 3.3 Seismic survey

253 For the purpose of this study three high resolution seismic reflection profiles were
254 acquired by the Geophysical Institute of Israel to image the shallow subsurface of the faults
255 recognized at Tiberias Theatre and the Southern Gate (see Section 4.2). Lines were placed in
256 order to intercept morphologic lineaments interpreted as possibly connected to active tectonics,
257 avoiding restricted or inaccessible areas.

258 The first two lines are located close to the Southern Gate (Line 253) and at Berniki Beach
259 landslide (Line 252), i.e., 2.5 km S of Tiberias Theatre (Fig. 2a). The following parameters are
260 used: 500 mSec record length, 0.5 mSec sample rate, 2.5 or 5 m shot intervals using 48 channels
261 (Medvedev, 2008). The energy source is a Digipulse and the recorder is a Strata View RX-60.
262 For the third line, located N of Tiberias Theatre (Northern Line; Fig. 2), high density data are
263 collected using a 2 Sec record length and 1 mSec sample rate. The line included 201 channels in
264 2.5 m intervals. A reflection survey with a tomography approach has also been conducted. The
265 data is recorded using a Geometrics Geode system and Oyo Geospace GS-32CT 10 Hz
266 Geophones. The seismic source wavelet is generated by a M27 HR truck mounted vibroseis.
267 Data are processed using the Landmark® (ProMax) software; optimal signal/noise ratio is
268 obtained through noise attenuation and band-pass filtering. Data visualization and interpretation
269 is realized using SeiSee software, and is based on reflectors dip and continuity, whereas lines
270 were drawn through commercial graphic software. Further details on the processing steps are
271 provided in Text S1.

272 4 Results

273 4.1 Archaeoseismological observations

274 4.1.1 Evidence for surface faulting: the Tiberias Theatre and the Southern Gate

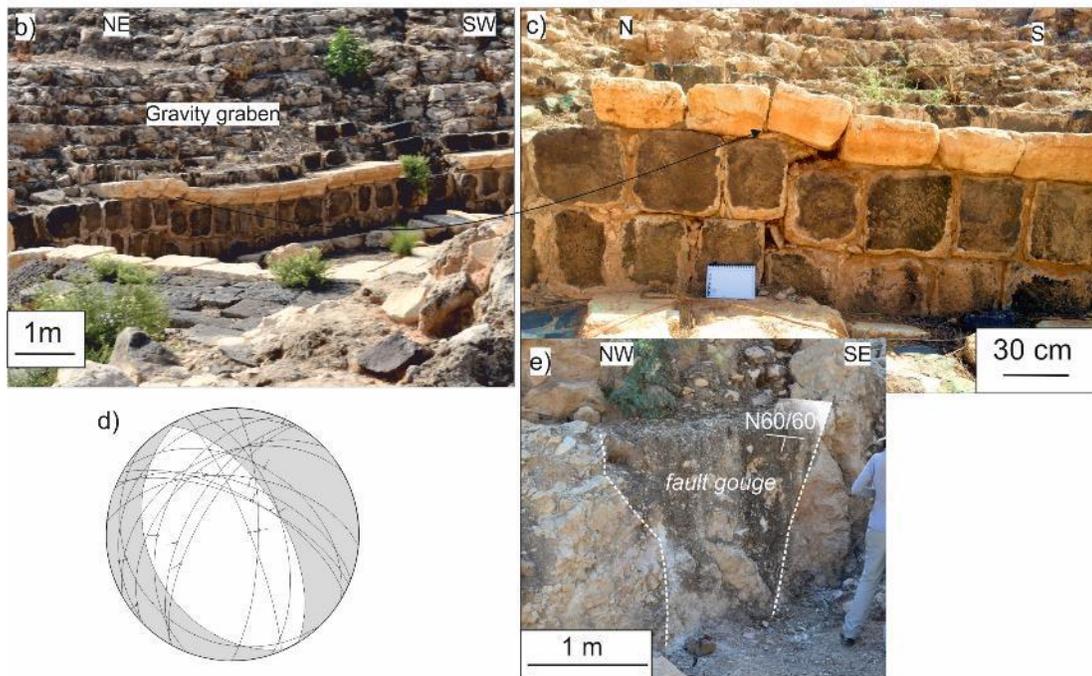
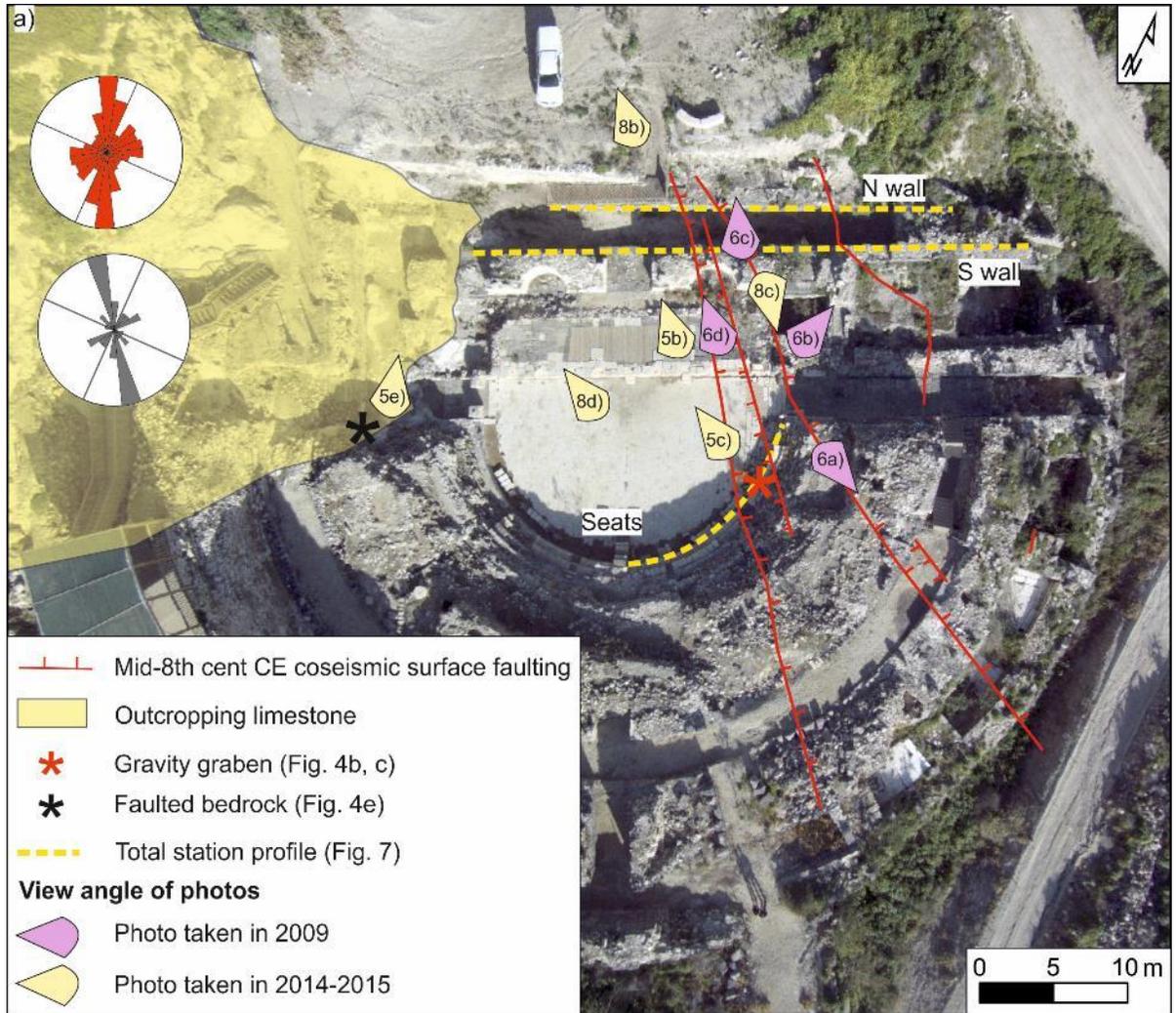
275 Cretaceous limestones outcrop in the NW side of the Theatre (Fig. 4a), while the E side
276 lies on loose alluvial deposits. At the contact, a bedrock fault zone (N60/60) is exposed inside the
277 Theatre as a 1.5 m thick fault gouge (Fig. 4e). Stress inversion of fault slip data (Fig. 4d and
278 Table S3) indicates an almost pure extensional regime, with a T axis trending N62/13. The
279 limestone – alluvial deposit contact has a clear morphological expression out of the Theatre area
280 (i.e., lies at the base of the mountain escarpment) and is interpreted as tectonic in origin on the
281 Israeli map of active faults (Sagy et al., 2016).

282 The Theatre preserves evidence of damage (Fig. 4a), mainly aligned along a ca. 10 m
283 wide, N140-trending, belt which is located ca. 30 m to the E of the bedrock fault gouge described
284 above. These archaeoseismic effects include on-fault effects with vertical displacement
285 (downthrown seat-rows and walls) and strain structures generated by permanent ground
286 deformation (tilted and folded walls). All these features belong to the primary earthquake
287 archaeological effects described by Rodriguez-Pascua et al. (2011). The most relevant evidence
288 is a 5-m wide, at least 15 m long, coseismic gravity-graben affecting the orchestra limestone

289 pavement and lower block of seats (Fig. 4b-c). High resolution topographic surveys carried out
290 along several transects on features considered as a horizontal datum (i.e., flagstones and seat
291 rows), show 50-to-60 cm of vertical net throw with downthrown side to the E (Fig. 7), including
292 both discrete and distributed deformation.

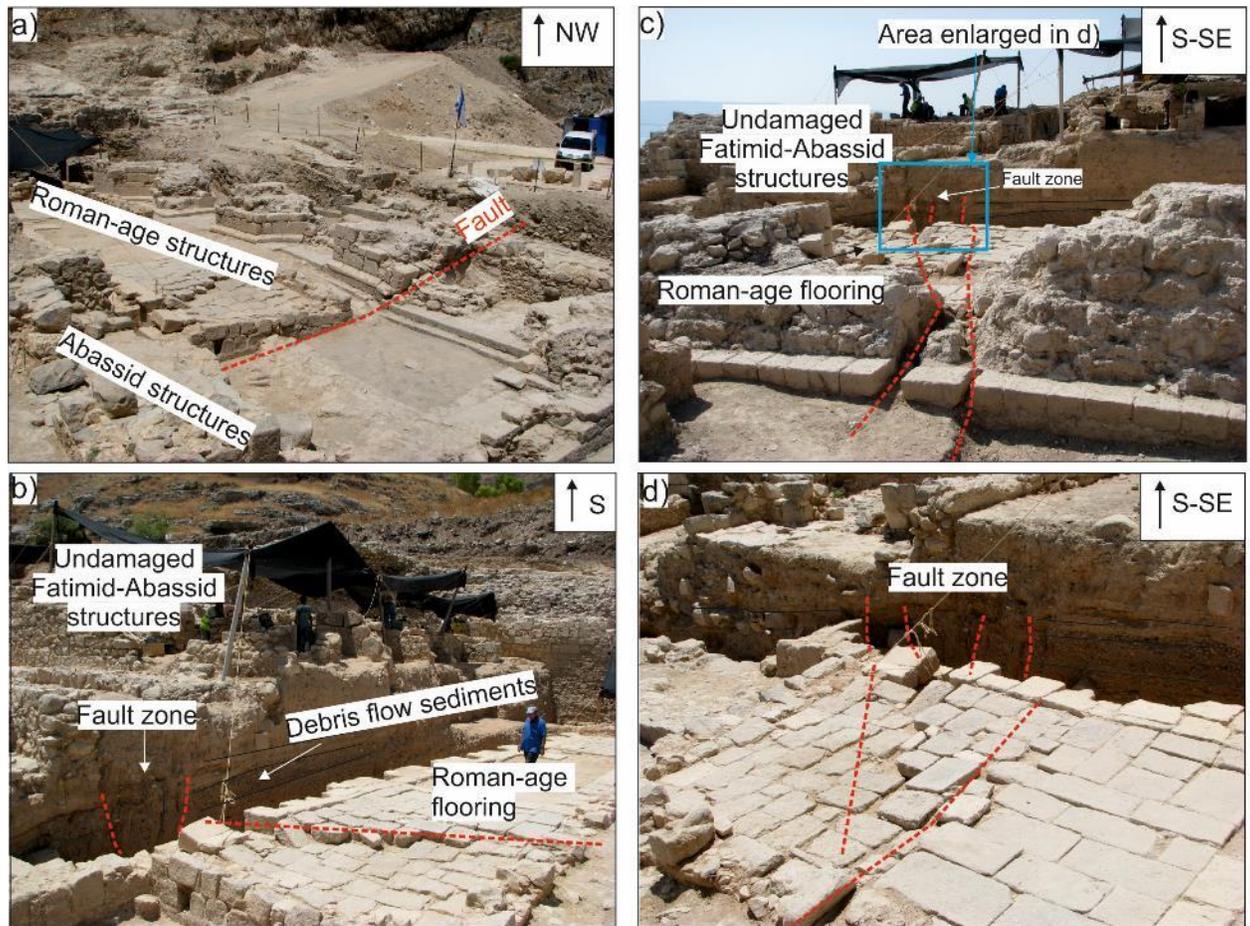
293 Photos taken in 2009 during the archaeological excavation show that normal
294 displacement affects Roman-age floorings as well as debris flow sediments covering the Theatre
295 pavement (Fig. 5). The sediments are well-bedded for their entire exposure, except for a few
296 meters wide zone, corresponding with the fault zone.

297



299 **Figure 4.** Surface faulting at the Tiberias Theatre: a) map of ruptures across the Theatre,
 300 rose diagrams (bin size 15°) show fractures on archaeological relics from the whole site (red, n°
 301 100) and on the orchestra floor (grey, n° 23); picture view angles (the figure number showing
 302 each picture is indicated) and trace of total station profiles are shown as well; b-c) details of the
 303 gravity graben displacing seat rows and walls; d) right dihedral best fit solution of fault slip
 304 inversion (15 fault planes in the limestone bedrock; Table S3); e) detail of the limestone normal
 305 fault gouge (site is shown in a).

306



307

308 **Figure 5.** Interpreted photographs taken during excavations at Tiberias Theatre in 2009
 309 (photo courtesy of S. Marco). a) panoramic view on damaged Roman-age structures (fault trace
 310 is marked by red dashed line) overlaid by Fatimid-Abassid undamaged structures; b) damaged
 311 Roman Theatre flooring overlaid by faulted alluvial sediments (fault trace is marked by red
 312 dashed line) and undamaged Fatimid-Abassid structures; c) damaged Roman Theatre wall,
 313 overlaid by faulted alluvial sediments; d) detail of the damaged Roman flooring and the faulted
 314 alluvial sediments.

315

316 The Southern Gate is built on a bedrock (Cretaceous limestone), which outcrops at the
 317 base of the wadi channel which runs in a general E-W direction within the site. Displacement at
 318 the Southern Gate is represented by warping of a Byzantine E-W wall, archaeologically dated at

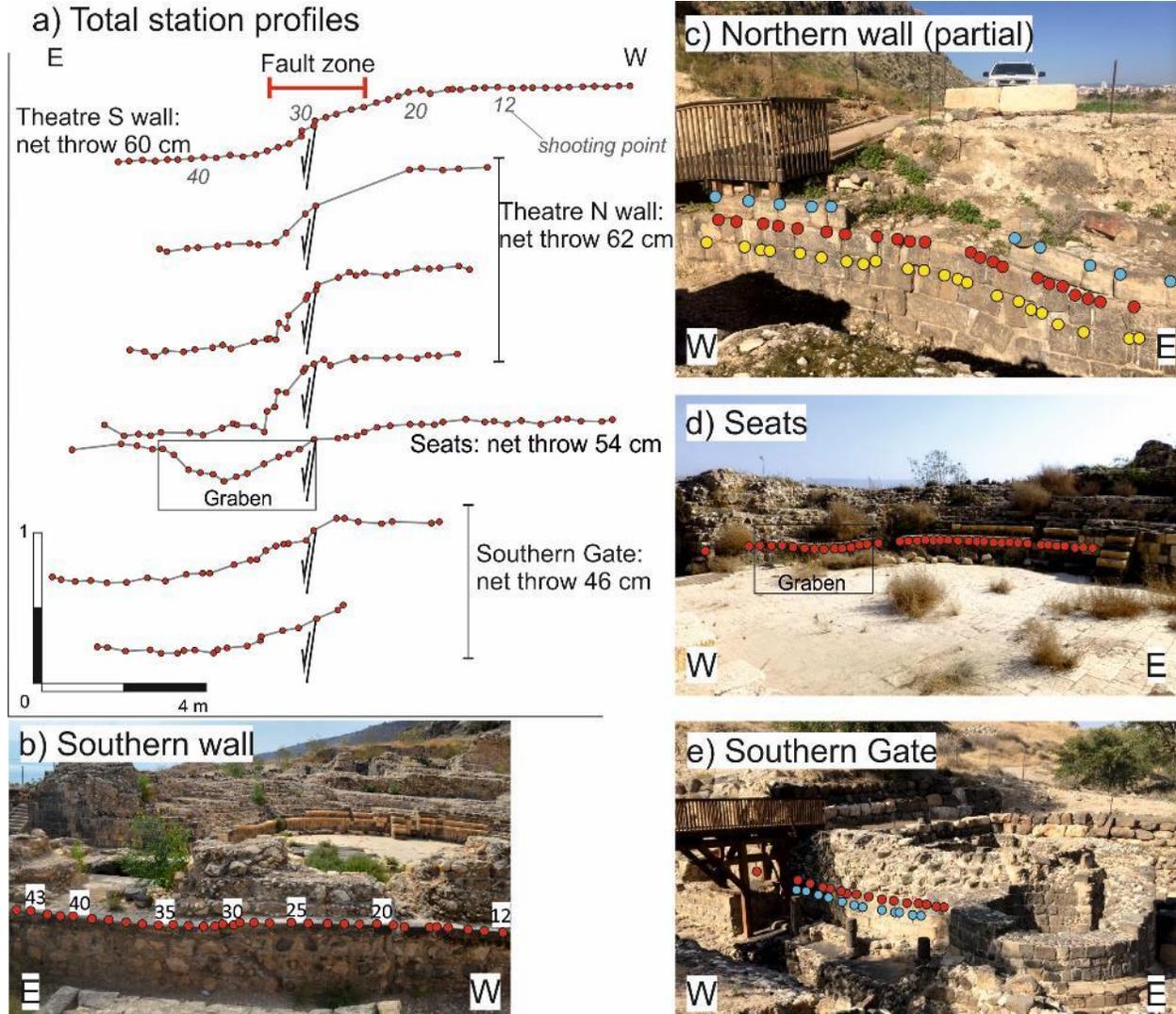
319 ca. 530 CE (Fig. 6b-c). A total station profile shows ca. 45 cm of total throw with downthrown
 320 side to the E (Fig. 7e). The measured displacement has a pure normal component with an amount
 321 of vertical displacement similar to that recorded at the Theatre.



322

323 **Figure 6.** a) Map of the Southern Gate and water reservoir sites, ca. 200 m S of the
 324 Theatre, along the JVWB Fault strike, with indication of picture view angles and trace of total
 325 station profile. Fault trace is marked by red dashed line; b) view of the Byzantine wall at the
 326 Southern Gate site; c) detail of the warped Byzantine wall. The wooded frame, holding the
 327 pedestrian bridge, is situated above the fault line. The dashed black line marks a down throw of
 328 an originally horizontal datum; d) set of fractures affecting an Umayyad water reservoir, located
 329 in between the Theatre and the Southern Gate.

330



331
 332 **Figure 7.** a) Topographic profiles obtained with a total station showing the vertical
 333 displacement across the studied fault at Tiberias Theatre and the Southern Gate. Each profile is
 334 plotted on a relative vertical scale with a vertical exaggeration of ca. 4x; b-e) photos of the
 335 measured points at Theatre (b-d) and Southern Gate (e), colored dots represent shooting points.

336 4.1.2 Archaeological evidence for damage due to shaking

337 Beside the major damage described in section 4.1.1, the investigated sites show extensive
 338 strain features generated by transient shaking (Rodríguez-Pascua et al., 2011), such as fractures
 339 and cracks in masonry blocks and broken corners.

340 We measured dip and dip direction of 123 fractures (in masonry blocks) in the Theatre
 341 and 59 in the Southern Gate (Table S2). They are Mode I fractures (opening fractures), affecting
 342 walls and building stones. Generally, they break the entire stone height, albeit in some cases they
 343 affect a single corner of the building stone (see Fig. S2 for examples). The strike of the fractures
 344 has a modal value of 160° and 140° in the whole Theatre and the orchestra floor, respectively
 345 (see rose diagrams in Fig. 4a). These values are broadly consistent with the direction of the
 346 gravity graben found within the Theatre.

347 South of the Theatre, the last excavation phase during 2017 uncovered an Umayyad water
348 reservoir. Damage is here represented by a series of steeply inclined fractures between masonry
349 blocks, located in a ca. 1 m wide zone (Fig. 6d). The damage zone is situated along the line
350 connecting the graben in the Theatre and the warped Byzantine wall at the Southern Gate, i.e. on
351 the fault line.

352 4.1.3 *Terminus ante quem* for the damaging event: the Fatimid-Abassid quarter

353 The most recent building phase excavated at the Theatre site includes several buildings
354 belonging to the Fatimid-Abassid period (Fig. 3a). Fig. 5 shows photos taken during excavations
355 in 2009, when the Fatimid-Abassid quarter was not yet removed. In particular, Fig. 5b-d show
356 that the damage is limited to the Roman-age flooring and to the debris flow sediments above it.
357 The Fatimid-Abassid buildings, which lie immediately above the debris flow deposits, are never
358 faulted nor deformed. This observation provides a tight *terminus ante quem* for the event that
359 damaged the Theatre, i.e., not later than the 8th – 11th century CE.

360 Summary of the archaeoseismic observations reveals a ~300 m long segment of the
361 JVWB (Theatre to Gate) that ruptured the surface during an earthquake that apparently took
362 place at the 8th century CE. Slip along the fault is normal, vertical throw is ~0.5 m.

363 4.2 The Jordan Valley Western Boundary fault: geomorphology and shallow subsurface

364 To trace the JVWB further N and S of the studied archeological sites, we acquired a
365 series of seismic lines, dug an exploratory trench on the fault trace, interpreted available borehole
366 logs and looked for geomorphological evidence of active tectonics along-strike of the JVWB
367 through field surveys and LiDAR interpretation.

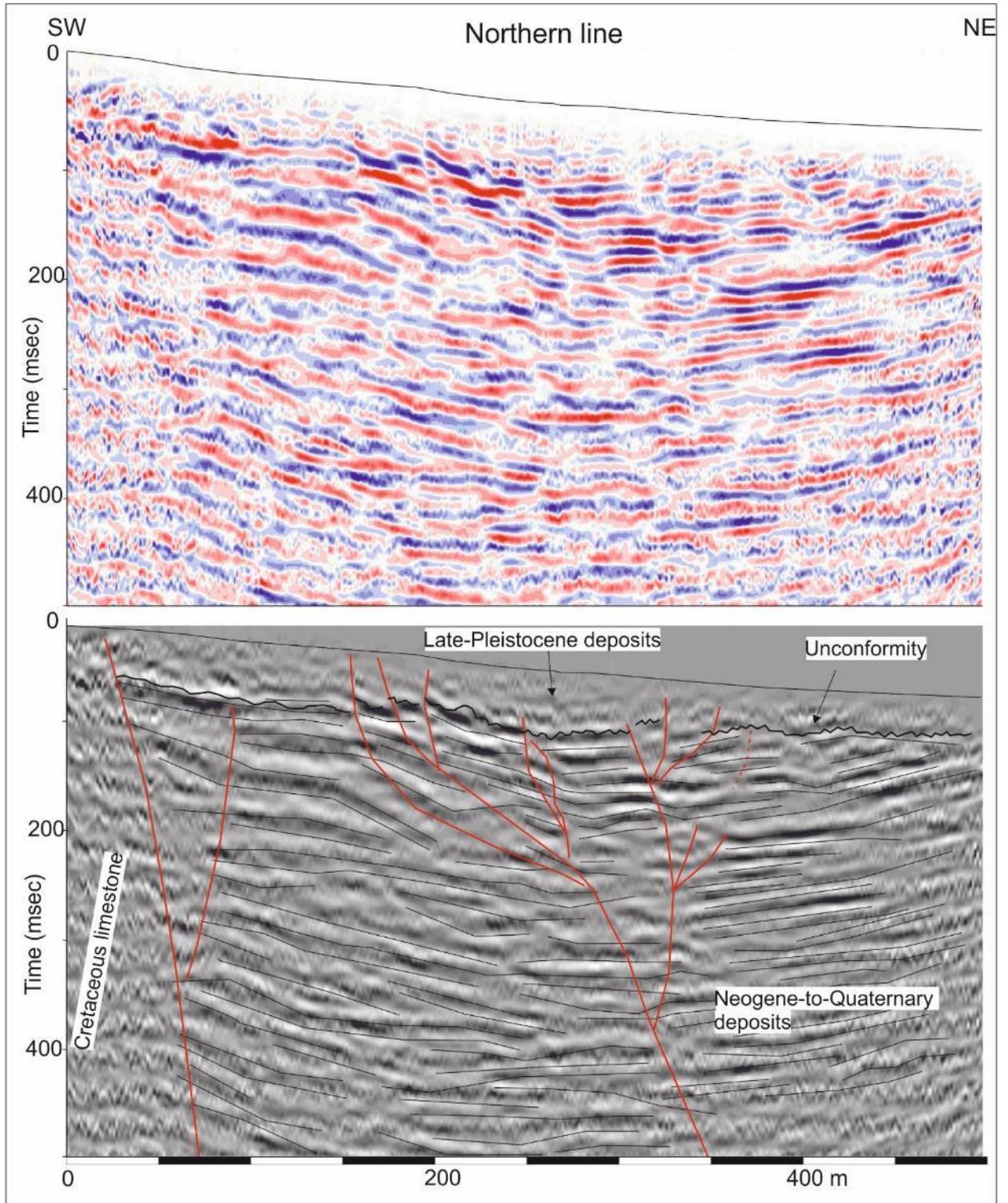
368 The Northern seismic line (Fig. 8), 500 m long, runs ~700 m N of the Tiberias Theatre.
369 This high-resolution reflection line images to the SW a sequence characterized by a poorly
370 resolved chaotic facies, possibly affected by edge effects, and ca. 3000 m/s V_p velocity;
371 geological maps as well as surface outcrops allow to attribute this seismic facies to the
372 Cretaceous limestones. A main high-angle normal fault segment, located in the westernmost part
373 of the line, juxtaposes the limestones to Neogene-Quaternary deposits (V_p ca. 2200 m/s). More
374 to the E (at ca. 300 m along-strike in Fig. 8), a second normal fault dissects the Neogene-
375 Quaternary deposits and splays in several branches toward the surface, above ca. 200 mSec
376 depth. A major sequence boundary at ca. 50 mSec marks the bottom of chaotic sediments
377 downlapping in the uphill sector, that were interpreted as Late Pleistocene loose deposits (V_p <
378 1000 m/s). These latter can be attributed to different processes, including lacustrine, slope
379 movement and man-made reworking. The E fault cut through this young sedimentary unit.

380 Line 253, a 250 m long reflection line, is located close to the Southern Gate (Fig. 9a). As
381 was observed in the Northern line, Neogene-Quaternary deposits, locally showing onlap
382 terminations, are cut by high-angle normal faults and overlaid by chaotic loose sediments. The
383 westernmost fault revealed in this section corresponds with a subtle topographic scarp (Fig. 2b)
384 identified on aerial photos and that can be faintly seen in the field. An exploratory trench 15 m
385 long and 2.5 m deep was excavated across this scarp (Fig 2b). The trench revealed reworked
386 archeological strata throughout its entire depth. We do not discuss in detail the trench because it
387 gave inconclusive results: a cavity with human bones was found at the trench bottom, thus
388 preventing further excavations. The oldest uncovered artifacts can be approximately dated at the

389 11th century CE. No evidence for faulting was observed in the trench section, in agreement with
390 the archaeoseismic observations of the last earthquake along the JVWB in the 8th century CE.

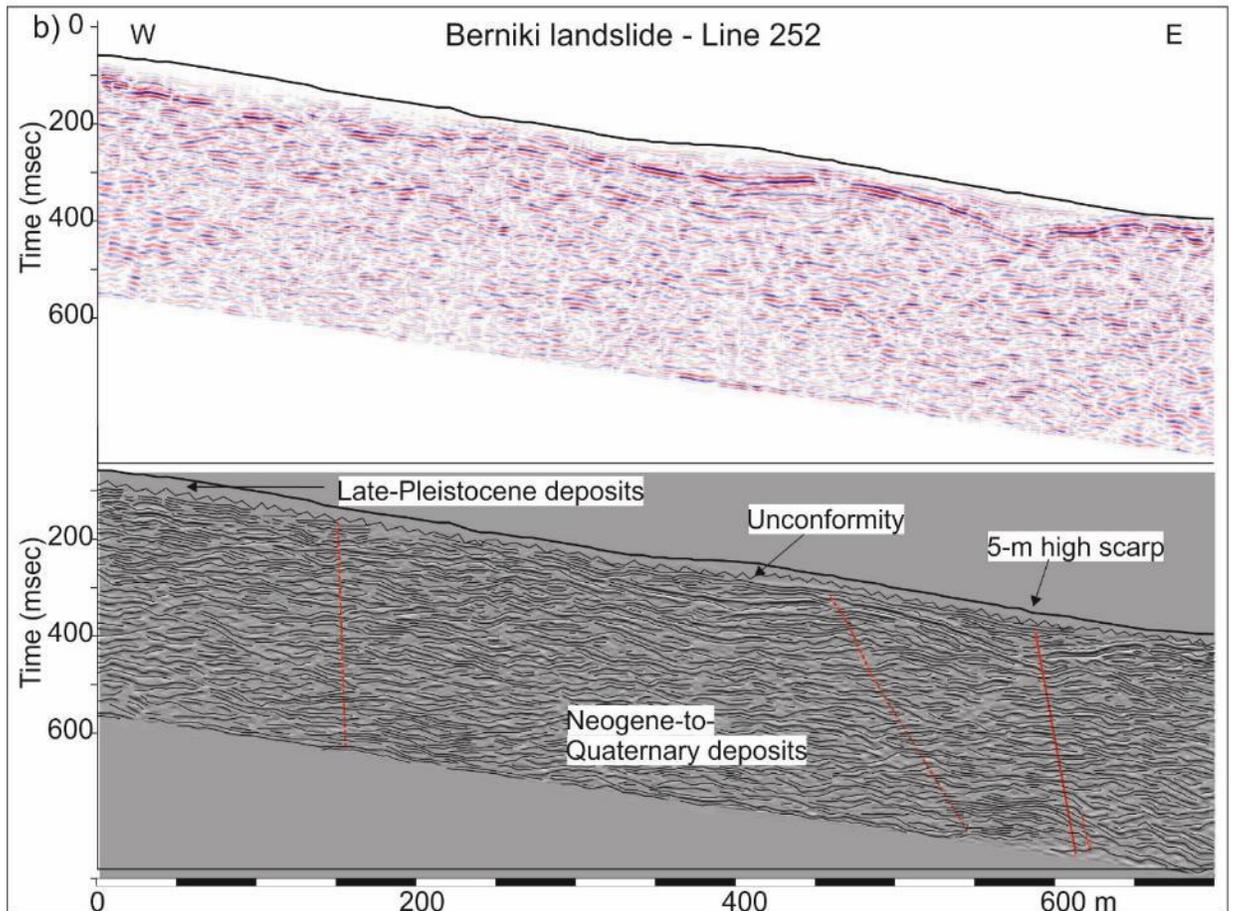
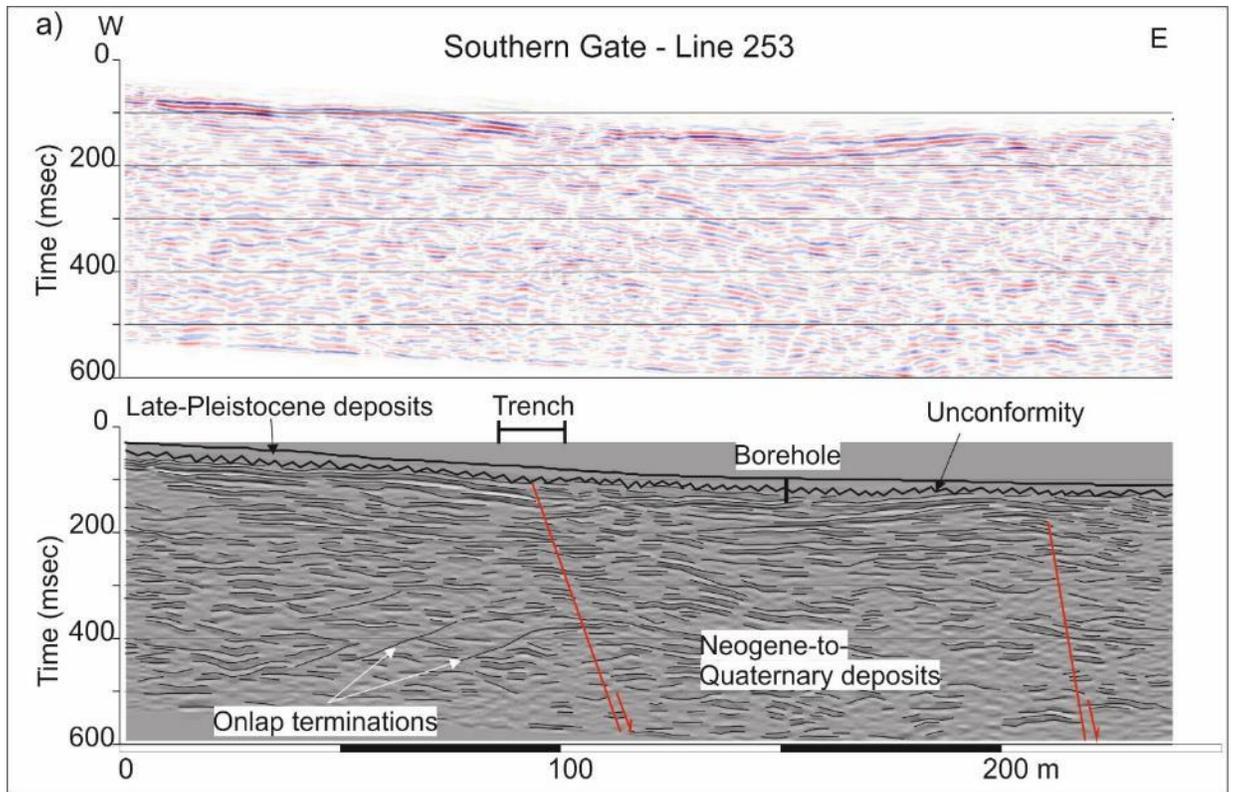
391 Additional reflection line, 700 m long, is located 2.5 km S of the Theatre (Line 252; Fig.
392 2b, 9b), where a late Pleistocene landslide was previously interpreted as seismically triggered
393 (Yagoda-Biran et al., 2010; Katz et al., 2010). Here, normal faults can be inferred, but the
394 interpretation is not straightforward. At this site, we extract a 500-m long topographic profile
395 from the LiDAR-derived DSM: the landslide toe is crossed by a 5.4-m high scarp, possibly fault-
396 driven (Fig. S3).

397 Further constraints on the shallow subsurface are provided by stratigraphic logs of more
398 than 30 boreholes (see Fig. 2b) located in the immediate closeness of the study area. We pinpoint
399 the depth of stratigraphic or lithological boundaries and used this information to constrain the 3D
400 geometry of the layers. The typical stratigraphic column comprises, from top to bottom, i) man-
401 made infill, ii) loose deposits including clasts, clays and basalt fragments, iii) Pleistocene
402 lacustrine marls and iv) bedrock. Boreholes in Fig. 2b are divided in two groups according to the
403 depth of bedrock (i.e., thickness of loose deposits). It ranges from zero where bedrock is
404 outcropping, to over 40 m depth. The whole coastal area and boreholes located at the outlet of
405 wadi channels or on landslide deposits show more than 10 m of loose sediments, consistently
406 with recent sedimentation processes. We use the few boreholes showing bedrock at depths
407 shallower than 10 m as spatial constraints for the fault position.



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Figure 8. Seismic line run N of Tiberias Theatre and relative interpretation; traces in Fig. 2a.



413 **Figure 9. Seismic lines and relative interpretation; traces in Fig. 2a. a) Southern Gate.**
 414 **b) Berniki Beach landslide.**

415

416 **5 Discussion and interpretations**

417 5.1 What generated the damage observed at Tiberias?

418 Damage of archaeological sites can be due to a number of natural or man-made events.
 419 Ascribing that damage to a specific factor means to exclude other possible causes. In the case of
 420 Tiberias described in the present research, the following findings support surface rupture as the
 421 causative mechanism:

- 422 i) The investigated sites are built on a contact between limestones and thin (few
 423 meters) alluvial deposits; the presence of shallow limestone bedrock beneath the
 424 hangingwall alluvial deposits is also confirmed by boreholes. Bedrock outcrops
 425 inside the Theatre and at the bottom of the wadi channel at the Southern Gate.
- 426 ii) All damaged sites are aligned along a lineament in a N140 direction, which is
 427 consistent with the structural framework of the study area.
- 428 iii) All our observations document a pure dip-slip normal faulting.
- 429 iv) The gravity-graben inside the Theatre is a feature consistent with coseismic, near-
 430 fault deformation (e.g., Slemmons, 1957; Rodriguez-Pascua et al., 2011) and
 431 possibly due to the steepening of the fault plane approaching the surface.
- 432 v) Damage is consistently found in Roman levels and in the debris flow sediments
 433 uncovered in the Theatre, but the Abassid levels were not faulted nor deformed.
 434 Archaeological stratigraphy provides tight chronological constraints, based on
 435 architectural style, building techniques and materials of the findings and
 436 structures.

437 The lines of reasoning listed above point toward an earthquake-related damage, and more
 438 specifically to surface faulting. The damaging event is constrained to later than 530 CE and
 439 younger than the Abassid caliphate (750-1258 CE). Among the historical records of strong
 440 earthquakes that hit the area and might have been accompanied by surface faulting, the only one
 441 fitting with this chronological interval is the mid-8th century CE seismicity (Fig. 3).

442 The presence of a thick cover of man-made deposits, intensely reworking and eroding the
 443 natural landscape, partly justifies the difficulty in here recognizing tectonic landforms. The lack
 444 of deformation since medieval times at the investigated sites suggests the absence of soil
 445 movements due to local differential settlement, compaction, landsliding, slope processes or
 446 aseismic creep in the closeness of the faulted archaeological sites. In fact, several strong seismic
 447 events occurred at Tiberias after the 8th century CE sequence, such as the 1759 and 1837 events
 448 (Ambraseys & Barazangi, 1989; Ambraseys, 1997). Severe shaking during these seismic events
 449 did not reactivate the mapped fault ruptures at the Theatre and Southern Gate. This rules out a
 450 purely geotechnical and/or gravitational control on the observed fault ruptures. This is further
 451 confirmed by the exploratory trench that we excavated along-strike of the fault observed at the
 452 Theatre and Southern Gate. The unearthened sediments do not show any sign of deformation due to
 453 tectonic processes and/or slope movements down to the 11th century CE.

454 Fig. 3b shows the sites where surface faulting has been related to the mid-8th century CE
455 seismicity (see also Section 2.3). Ruptures may have been caused by a single earthquake or by a
456 sequence of events, a topic that we address in Section 5.3.

457

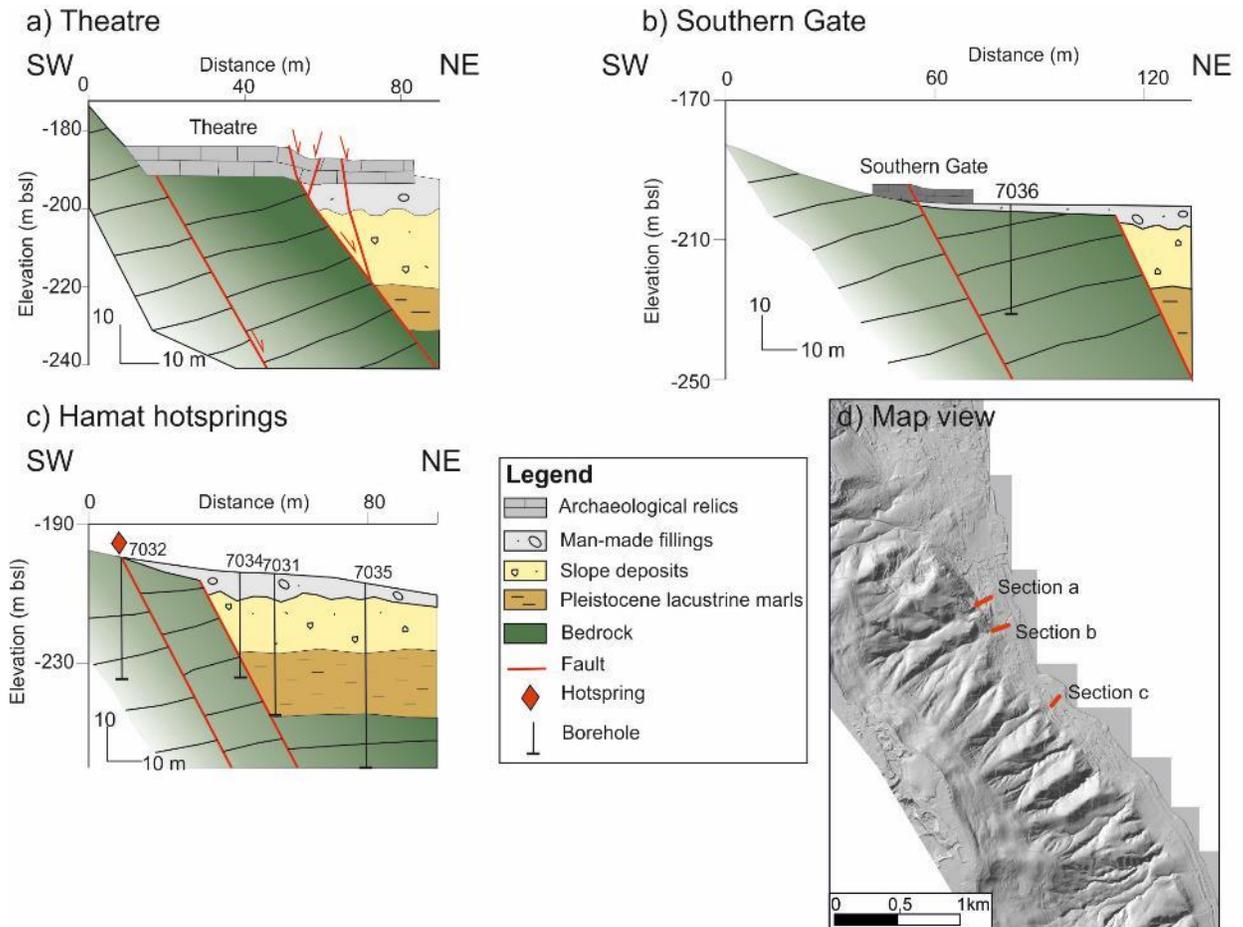
458 5.2 Structural setting and fault displacement hazard at Tiberias

459 The reconstruction of the stratigraphic and structural setting of the shallow subsurface
460 (Fig. 10) shows faults reaching the surface; they were constrained by direct observation at the
461 archaeological sites (Fig. 10a-b) or presence of the hot springs (Fig. 10c). Other faults were
462 imaged through the seismic lines and borehole correlation.

463 Our data suggest the presence of a fault zone some tens of meters wide, rather than a
464 single fault. At the Theatre (Fig. 10a) and at the Northern seismic line (Fig. 9), we observe to the
465 W a fault strand at the contact between Cretaceous limestone and the Neogene-Quaternary
466 deposits; to the E, a second fault strand lies within the Neogene-Quaternary deposits. At the
467 Theatre, the fault gouge in Cretaceous limestones (Fig. 4e) show no signs of historical
468 displacements, whereas the archaeological structures are faulted more to the E (Fig. 4a). This
469 may suggest a basinward migration of the active fault strand, consistently with previous
470 observations at other sites along the DSF (Marco & Klinger, 2014). At the Southern Gate the
471 fault lies within Cretaceous limestones, as deduced from archaeoseismological observations and
472 core drillings (Fig. 10b).

473 The heterogeneous lithological and stratigraphic setting has implications for fault
474 displacement hazard assessment: the different properties of bedrock and loose sediments affect
475 the fault pattern and expression at the surface, including amount of displacement (Bray et al.,
476 1994). The complex interplay between coseismic surface faulting and the lithological setting has
477 been pointed out by several recent investigations (e.g., Teran et al., 2015; Gold et al., 2015;
478 Hornsby et al., 2019; Livio et al., 2020). Such heterogeneous expressions of coseismic surface
479 faulting should be incorporated into the development of building codes and regulations
480 specifically targeted at fault displacement hazard assessment (Youngs et al., 2003; Petersen et
481 al., 2011; ANSI/ANS-2.30, 2015).

482



483

484 **Figure 10.** Schematic sketches of the shallow subsurface at three key positions: a)
 485 Theatre; b) Southern Gate; c) Hamat hotspots. Information on geology is derived from the
 486 Israeli geological map (Sneh, 2008), published scientific literature (e.g., Hurwitz et al., 2002)
 487 and local reports (e.g., Zaslavsky, 2009). Boreholes logs are from GSI archive; d) section traces.

488

489 5.3 Rupture scenarios

490 For better constraining the seismic hazard for the area, we consider three different rupture
 491 scenarios and calculate expected magnitude from known fault length and area adopting published
 492 scaling relations (Wells & Coppersmith, 1994; Hanks & Bakun, 2008; Wesnousky, 2008;
 493 Stirling et al., 2013). Two scenarios include the rupture of a single normal fault source, i.e. the
 494 Jordan Valley Western Boundary Fault (JVWB, scenario n° 1), assuming it is continuous at the
 495 subsurface as a worst-case scenario, or the Jordan Valley Fault (JVF, scenario n° 2). The third
 496 scenario accounts for the simultaneous rupture of the JVWB and JVF. Inversion of geodetic
 497 measurements as well as moderate seismicity cutoff depth indicate a locking depth of 10-15 km
 498 (Sadeh et al., 2012; Hamiel et al., 2016), close to the upper-lower crust transition (ten Brink et
 499 al., 2006), even if some works claim a deeper transition (ca. 28 km according to Garfunkel et al.,
 500 2014). The JVF and JVWB are linked above or close to the locking depth, and thus can rupture
 501 separately or together (single- or multi-fault rupture scenario *sensu* Lettis & Hanson, 1991).

502 For calculating the expected magnitudes, we assumed the following parameters for the
503 faults:

- 504 - Scenario n° 1 – JVWB: normal faulting, length 45 km (Tiberias to Tel Rehov and Tel
505 Teomim);
- 506 - Scenario n° 2 – JVF: strike-slip faulting, length 125 km (from Beteiha to Jericho), width
507 12.5 km;
- 508 - Scenario n° 3 – JVWB and JVF: normal and strike-slip faulting, length 170 km (sum of
509 scenario 1 and 2), width 12.5 km.

510 In the selection of the most appropriate scaling relation, we rely on the work by Stirling
511 et al. (2013), who compiled published scaling relationships and categorized them according to
512 tectonic regime and style of faulting. They also assign a quality score based on the quality and
513 quantity of the regression dataset. Following these guidelines, we select the subclass A2 which
514 represents slow plate boundary faults (< 10 mm/yr) as the one most suitable to rates measured
515 along the DSF. The slip rates along the DSF are indeed constrained to 4-5 mm/yr from
516 geological and GPS data (Garfunkel et al., 2014).

517 For the scenario n° 1 (normal faulting), we select the scaling relation published by
518 Wesnousky (2008), which has a quality score 1 (i.e., best available) according to Stirling et al.
519 (2013). Moment magnitude M_w is computed from surface rupture length L as:

$$520 \quad M_w = 6.12 + 0.47 \log L$$

521 Resulting in an estimated $M_w = 6.9$ for the JVWB rupture.

522 For the scenarios n° 2 and 3, we select the relation by Hanks and Bakun (2008), which
523 has a quality score 1 (i.e., best available) according to Stirling et al. (2013). For areas larger than
524 537 square kilometers, moment magnitude M_w is computed from fault area A as:

$$525 \quad M_w = 4/3 \log A + (3.07 \pm 0.04)$$

526 Scenario n° 2 results in an estimated magnitude of 7.3, whereas scenario n° 3 results in
527 $M_w = 7.6$.

528 When exploring different parametrizations (i.e., fault rupture length, fault width, adopted
529 scaling relations), we find estimated magnitudes consistent with the preferred ones (i.e.,
530 differences of up to 0.1).

531 Scenario n° 3 implies the coexistence of dip-slip and lateral motions. Such setting can be
532 explained by strain partitioning, a phenomenon already documented elsewhere along the DSF
533 (Ben-Avraham and Zoback, 1992; Sagy et al., 2003; Makovsky et al., 2008; Weinberger et al.,
534 2009) and worldwide (e.g., Lettis & Hanson, 1991; Walker et al., 2005).

535 Summarizing, we obtain a maximal M_w 6.9 for the JVWB rupture and a M_w 7.3 for the
536 JVF. The multi-fault scenario results in a M_w 7.6 earthquake. Our magnitude estimates are
537 consistent with those suggested in the literature (i.e., M_s 7.0 – 7.5; Marco et al., 2003; Hamiel et
538 al., 2009; Zohar et al., 2016), but we underline that our calculations represent worst-case
539 scenarios, which imply the rupture of the entire fault. Complete fault ruptures may be obstructed
540 by structural thresholds; we maintain that partial fault ruptures may occur as well, resulting in
541 smaller magnitudes. The simultaneous rupture of JVWB and JVF for their entire lengths

542 (Scenario n° 3) is considered unlikely, but such occurrence should not be discarded in seismic
543 hazard evaluations.

544 Other events may have occurred in the mid-8th century CE more to the N (Yammouneh
545 and/or Missyaf Faults) or S of the Dead Sea, but their evaluation is beyond the scope of the
546 present paper.

547 The occurrence of multiple shocks in a close time interval is a common pattern in the
548 DSF region, as clearly documented in the historical record (e.g., Karcz, 2004; Ambraseys, 2005,
549 2009) and by geological studies (Agnon, 2014; Marco and Klinger, 2014; Lefevre et al., 2018).
550 The present study documents an additional fault with evidence of surface ruptures within a
551 region with already known major active faults. This finding, coupled with earthquake clustering,
552 will help to better depict the seismic landscape (Michetti et al., 2005) in the Sea of Galilee
553 region.

554

555 **6 Conclusions**

556 The geometry, kinematics and activity of the faults crossing the town of Tiberias, studied
557 through an integrated structural, archaeoseismological and geophysical approach revealed that
558 this segment was activated in the mid-8th century CE.

559 We propose that normal dip-slip motion on the W side of the Sea of Galilee can coexist
560 with strike-slip motion in the E side, in a strain-partitioned model. Based on the results of this
561 study, we suggest that multi-fault rupture may be more frequent than the occurrence of single-
562 fault ruptures in the Sea of Galilee region. This must be considered in any seismic hazard
563 evaluation for this area. The absence of instrumental measurements of strong (Mw greater than
564 6.0) earthquakes with normal fault focal mechanism should not be construed as evidence that
565 similar events will never occur along this section of the Dead Sea Fault.

566 The recent earthquake swarms that affected the Sea of Galilee region remind that a re-
567 evaluation of the seismic risk is overdue. Our research provides useful inputs for developing
568 updated building codes in the Tiberias area: measures to reduce exposure and the overall seismic
569 risk (e.g., avoidance zones, setback distances) must rely on the unequivocal definition of active
570 fault traces and their characterization. The 2018 swarm shows normal focal mechanisms and thus
571 supports our claim that seismic source characterization in the Sea of Galilee, and along the DSF,
572 must consider strain partitioning and fault interaction. We argue that the renewed attention of the
573 public opinion, driven by the recent seismicity, can be an incentive to act on mitigation and
574 preparedness measures.

575

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 584 <http://seis.gii.co.il/en/earthquake/searchEQSRslt.php>, the reports on archaeological excavations
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587

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