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Fault growth mechanisms and scaling properties in foreland basin system: The case study of Monte Alpi, Southern Apennines, Italy

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Abstract

The present work focuses on the comprehension of the growth mechanisms and dimensional properties of the pre-Pliocene Monte Alpi fault network by mean of integrated field and laboratory analyses. After this multidisciplinary approach, detailed throw profiles are computed for each fault belonging to the Monte Alpi network. Subsequently, the dimensional properties of the individual faults are calculated. Data obtained from this work are discussed in terms of fault growth mechanisms and timing of deformation, and reported in a conceptual tectonic evolution model of the Messinian foreland basin system. Data suggest that originally isolated fault segments developed during the earliest stages of foreland basin formation by re-activation of a pre-existing, Early Cretaceous fault set, and formation of an orthogonal one. These two fault sets formed a scale-independent network. Differently, the same fault sets were also active during its subsequent development forming a scale-dependent fault network

characterized by T- and Y-shaped fault intersections. This deformation controlled the half-graben depocenters evolution filled by up to ca. 600 meters of terrigenous deposits during the Late Messinian time.

1. Introduction

Numerous studies have shed light on the evolution of the foreland basin systems flanking orogenic belts, but some gaps remain in particular related to the understanding of the fault growth mechanism and fault dimensional properties related to the structural networks that control the foreland basin system evolution. This knowledge is important to decipher the modalities of the extensional deformation associated to foreland flexure, which is commonly due to migration of Fold-and-Thrust belts (FTB), and unveil the possible role exerted by pre-existing, inherited faults on development of foreland basin systems (Gawthorpe and Leedert, 2000). As documented in literature, longitudinal extensional faults parallel to the main thrust front of the FTB are frequently observed across the whole foreland basin system (Harding and Tuminas, 1989; Lorenzo et al., 1998; Ranero et al., 2003). Moreover, subordinated transverse extensional faults, which are perpendicular to the main thrust front can develop because of the stress release in the fault hanging wall of longitudinal faults (Destro, 1995; Medwedeff and Krantz 2002; Tavani et al., 2015), or be present as transfer faults within linked extensional systems (Tavarnelli et al., 1999).

Subsequently, during the migration of the orogenic chain this inner portion of the foreland basin system and its orthogonal fault network could experience orogenic compression and incorporated in FTBs.

In this paper, we present the results of a study performed in the Monte Alpi area which represent a key tectonic window of the southern Apennines FTB of Italy (Alberti et al., 2001; Patacca and Scandone, 2007). There, Mesozoic carbonates pertaining to the Inner Apulian

Platform (Sartoni and Crescenti, 1962) and overlapping Lower Messinian carbonates and Upper Messinian siliciclastic rocks (Sgrosso, 1988; Taddei and Siano, 1992) crop out in the axial portion of the belt (Cello and Mazzoli, 1998).

This peculiar site represents a unique opportunity to study and unveil the structural control exerted by an orthogonal fault network which controlled the evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system (Patacca et al., 1992), subsequently involved in several tectonic phases (Van Dijk et al., 2000; Mazzoli et al., 2006; La Bruna et al., 2017).

The results of this work may provide useful insights in order to better assess the timing of formation of the two aforementioned high-angle fault sets, which pre-date Early-Middle Pliocene contractional deformation associated to the FTB migration (Patacca and Scandone, 2007). In particular, data obtained after a detailed field structural and stratigraphic analyses are employed, together with available subsurface data, to perform 3D geological reconstruction of a ca. 320 km² wide area. As a result, both attitude and cumulative throw profiles are computed for the individual, outcropping, high-angle faults crosscutting the Monte Alpi Unit. By also considering the displacement of specific chronostratigraphic surfaces, the dimensional properties of the evolving pre-Pliocene fault network are discussed in terms of either scale-independent (Schultz et al., 2008) or scale-dependent geometries (Kim and Sanderson, 2005). In fact, as described in literature, when initially isolated fault segments interact and, possibly, link together during ongoing deformation, they modify their dimensional properties (Walsh and Watterson, 1988; Peacock and Sanderson, 1991; Cartwright et al., 1995; Dawers and Anders, 1995; Mansfield and Cartwright, 1996; Crider and Pollard, 1998; Cowie and Roberts, 2001; Walsh et al., 2003). Considering the following relationship between the maximum fault cumulative displacement (D) and its maximum linear dimension (L, length)

$$D=cL^n \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

where the c value is related to the rock mechanical properties, it is possible to assess the geometrical properties of the fault network by considering the n value (Watterson, 1986; Walsh and Watterson, 1988; Cowie and Scholz, 1992a,b; Scholz et al., 1993; Schlische et al., 1996; Kim and Sanderson, 2005; Schultz et al., 2008). Values of $n=1$ indicate a linear scaling law (i.e. self-similarity), which implies that faults grew under conditions of constant driving stress at different scales, whereas values of $n>1$ suggest a scale-dependent geometry. Regarding the study area of Monte Alpi, the contribution provided by the different angles among intersecting faults forming a scale dependent geometry is investigated by considering both T- and Y-shaped intersections (Maerten et al., 1999). Finally, evolution of the pre-Pliocene fault network is summarized in a conceptual model of Messinian foreland basin system evolution by taking the computed time-dependent activity of individual fault sets into account (sensu Gawthorpe and Leedert, 2000).

2. Geological setting

2.1 Southern Apennines

The Apennines are an arc-shaped FTB that formed in response to the Oligocene-to-Pliocene continental collision between Eurasian and African lithospheric plates (Royden et al., 1987; Locardi, 1988). Such a process caused the formation of east-propagating thrust sheets, which involved Meso-Cenozoic terranes originally pertaining to the Neo-Tethys Ocean, and of its south-eastern continental margin, and/or to the subduction-related accretionary wedge (Patacca et al., 1990; Doglioni, 1991). Commonly, the Apennines are sub-divided along-strike into three sectors named as northern, central, and southern, respectively, bounded by lithospheric discontinuities trending at high-angles with respect to the belt axis (Locardi, 1988; Ghisetti and Vezzani, 1997; Vai and Martini, 2001; Cavazza et al., 2004; Patacca and Scandone, 2007). Most of the paleogeographic models proposed for the Mesozoic Neo-Tethys

ocean invoked two main carbonate platforms commonly identified as Apenninic, to the west, and Apulian, to the east, separated from each other by communicating basins (D'Argenio et al., 1972; Ippolito et al., 1975; Mostardini and Merlini, 1986; Tavarnelli and Prosser, 2003; Schettino and Turco, 2011).

The current structural setting of the southern Apennines FTB includes the following tectono-stratigraphic units, from the top to the bottom, which respectively correspond to specific paleogeographic domains arranged from west to east, respectively (Patacca and Scandone, 2007): i) siltstones and claystones originally pertaining to the Liguride/Sicilide oceanic Basin; ii) carbonates derived from the Apennine Platform; iii) mixed terrigenous-carbonate rocks derived from the Lagonegro basin, divided into two different tectonic Units, Lagonegro I and II; and iv) carbonates of the Apulian Platform (Figure 1). Miocene-to-Pliocene terrigenous infill of foredeep, thrust-top, and piggyback basins were involved in contractional deformation, and currently crop out in the axial and outer portions of the belt (Ghisetti and Vezzani, 1981; Dewey et al., 1989; Boccaletti et al., 1990; Carbone et al., 1990; Van Dijk and Okkes, 1990, 1991; Monaco and Tanzi, 1992; Catalano et al., 1993; Monaco and Tortorici, 1995; Monaco et al., 1998; Pescatore et al., 1999; Menardi Noguera and Rea, 2000; Patacca and Scandone, 2007). The Inner Apulian Platform was involved in Late Pliocene-Early Pleistocene thick-skinned tectonics (Mostardini and Merlini, 1986; Cello and Mazzoli, 1998; Butler et al., 2004; Shiner et al., 2004), whereas the Outer Apulian Platform is now days either exposed or buried underneath a Plio-Pleistocene sedimentary cover in the orogenic foreland of the Southern Apennines (Pieri et al., 1997; Borgomano, 2000; Spalluto, 2012; Panza et al., 2016; Petruccio et al., 2017). (insert Figure 1).

2.2 Monte Alpi Unit

The study area is located in the axial portion of the southern Apennines FTB (Figure 1). Over the years, according to the presumed age of the sedimentary cover, many authors proposed two conflicting hypotheses on the origin of the Monte Alpi carbonates. Assigning a Lower Miocene age to its sedimentary cover, the Mesozoic carbonates were interpreted as part of the Apennine Platform (Ogniben, 1969; Mostardini and Merlini, 1986; Muller et al., 1988). Differently, by assigning a Messinian age, other authors included them in the Inner Apulian Platform (Carbone et al., 1988; Sgroso, 1988; Van Dijk et al., 2000; Alberti et al., 2001; Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014). Structurally, the two most recent studies interpreted Monte Alpi as comprised of Apulian carbonates either forming a push-up structure (Van Dijk et al., 2000) or as the product of complex thin- and thick-skinned tectonics (Shiner et al., 2004; Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014).

According to their inferred age of activity, La Bruna et al. (2017) recognized six different structural networks and documented two main sets of high-angle faults pre-dating Early-Middle Pliocene emplacement of the allochthon over the Mesozoic carbonates and their Upper Miocene cover (Cello and Mazzoli 1998; Buttler et al., 2004). The two high-angle fault sets formed an almost orthogonal fault system, which developed during either Cretaceous strike-slip and dip-slip tectonics (Pieri and Laviano, 1989; Festa et al., 2003; Mazzoli et al., 2006; Bertok et al., 2012; Tavani et al., 2013; Korneva et al., 2014; Panza et al., 2015, 2016; Laurita et al., 2016; Vitale et al., 2017), or Upper Miocene foreland bulging (Doglioni et al., 1995) and/or along-foredeep stretching (Tavani et al., 2015a).

The Monte Alpi Unit is made up of ca. 2,000 m-thick, Jurassic-to-Lower Cretaceous limestones and dolostones, and Messinian carbonates-terrigenous rocks (Figure 2). The Jurassic carbonates are Middle-to-Upper Jurassic in age, whereas the Lower Cretaceous ones are ascribed to the Neocomian (De Lorenzo, 1895; Selli, 1957; Sartoni and Crescenti, 1962;

Grandjacquet, 1963; Roda, 1965; Ogniben, 1969). The Messinian sedimentary succession is stacked into two main intervals (Sgrosso et al., 1988; Ortolani and Torre, 1971; Taddei and Siano, 1992; Van Dijk et al., 2000). The Lower Messinian deposits, which form a paraconformity with the Lower Cretaceous carbonates, consist of up to 35 m-thick skeletal grainstones and minor packstones, floatstones, rudstones and bindstones. Differently, the Upper Messinian deposits, which form a 3° to 5° angular unconformity with both Lower Messinian and Lower Cretaceous carbonates, include polygenic conglomerates, litharenitic sandstones, and siltstones characterized by remarkable thickness and compositional variations. (insert Figure 2).

3. Data and Methods

The proposed integrated approach includes a variety of methods such as geological mapping, field structural and stratigraphic analyses, well log correlation, seismic profile interpretation, and 3D surfaces reconstruction.

3.1 Field analysis

The large-scale geological map was compiled at a 1:25,000 scale (Figure 2) by taking into account available published data (Foglio IGM 211, S. Arcangelo; Bonardi et al., 2009; Cavalcante et al., 2009; Lentini, 1991), and the detailed geological map originally compiled at a 1:10,000 scale by La Bruna et al. (2017). Field structural analyses focused on the fault zones exposed in the Monte Alpi area. Eight stratigraphic logs were measured in key sites, which expose significant portions of the Lower and Upper Messinian deposits.

3.2 Seismic profile interpretation

Interpretation of the four stacked seismic reflection profiles (courtesy of Eni) was aimed at deciphering the geometry of the buried Apulian carbonates (Figure 3). Due to the general

poor quality of the seismic profiles, such an interpretation was compared with published well log data, seismic reflection profile and isobaths maps (Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014; Nicolai and Gambini, 2007). The original jpeg images were first converted into seg-y files, by using the image2segy 2.2.6 Matlab script developed by the Instituto de Ciències del Mar (Barcelona, Spain), and then imported into the MoveTM software for subsequent digitalization of the main stratigraphic horizons and fault surfaces. Afterwards, the time-to-depth conversion was computed by assigning a specific velocity value to the individual tectono-stratigraphic units (Dix, 1955; Improta et al., 2000). (insert Figure 3).

3.3 3D geological reconstruction

This work involved several steps of activities aimed at reconstructing both stratigraphic and tectonic surfaces pertaining to the Monte Alpi Unit. First, the Digital Elevation Model (DEM), the large-scale geological map, and all the available subsurface data in jpeg format were imported into Gocad®, and then georeferenced for calibration and consistency checking. The imported DEM was characterized by a 20x20 m resolution. A triangulated mesh was built from the DEM data points using both the Delaunay triangulation and interpolation in order to obtain a continuous and optimized representation of the topography (Mallet et al., 2002). Then, the georeferenced geological map was draped onto the topographic surface to obtain a textured topographic surface.

In order to constrain the buried portions of the Apulian carbonates, we performed time-to-depth conversion of four seismic profiles by using the GeolToolbox plugin (www.ring-team.org/consortium). Furthermore, six geological cross-sections obtained from the published geological map of Monte Alpi (La Bruna et al., 2017) and existing bibliography related to geometry of the buried Top Apula surface underneath the southern Apennines FTB (Nicolai and Gambini, 2007) were taken into account. The eight stratigraphic logs performed in

correspondence of the outcropping mixed carbonate-terrigenous Messinian cover were also imported in GOCAD. The 3D geological model of Monte Alpi was finally obtained by constructing the individual fault and stratigraphic surfaces by using the Discrete Smooth Interpolation tool (Mallet, 1989; Mallet et al., 2002), which allowed to constrain on fault-fault and fault-stratigraphic surfaces in the light of the aforementioned data. Both resolution and convergence criteria were defined according to the protocol recommended by Caumon et al., (2009).

3.4 Fault analysis

Fault throw computation for individual faults was carried out by considering the cutoff lines along the fault hanging walls (Figure 4). This data was obtained by following the aforementioned procedure, in which the individual stratigraphic surfaces were cut by the high-angle fault surfaces. Subsequently, as a first step, the total amount of throw distribution (cumulative throw) was computed for each fault surface. This value corresponded to the current vertical offset of the bottom Early Cretaceous surface. Then, the pre-Messinian throw distribution was calculated by subtracting the amount of Early Messinian vertical displacement from the cumulative throw. Similarly, the Early Messinian throw data were obtained by subtracting the amount of Late Messinian vertical displacement from the pre-Messinian throw data. (insert Figure 4).

4. Results

4.1 Syn-sedimentary extensional faulting

1 - Mesozoic carbonates

Mid-Upper Jurassic carbonates crop out only along the NW edge of Monte Alpi (Figure 5a), whereas the Lower Cretaceous ones are widespread in the study area (De Lorenzo, 1895;

Selli, 1957; Sartoni and Crescenti, 1962; Grandjacquet, 1963; Roda, 1965; Ogniben, 1969). The former carbonates consist of greyish-to- black limestones and minor dolomites, which are conformably overlain by Lower Cretaceous, peritidal, whitish-to-dark grey limestones showing multiple dissolution evidences such as karst solution grooves and fissures. Both Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous limestone beds are quite tabular, 10's of cm- to m-thick, and commonly consist of grainstones and packstones, and less frequent mudstones, wackestones, bindstones, floatstones and rudstones (Dunham, 1962; Embry and Klovan, 1971). Results of thin section analysis are consistent with abundance of benthic foraminifera, peloids, and fenestral structures within both Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous carbonate rocks (Figures 5b-f). In particular, the Jurassic limestones include cm-sized stromatoporoids (*Cladocoropsis mirabilis*, Figure 5b), whereas the Cretaceous ones contain oolites (Figure 5c) and red algae (*Salpingoporella annulata*, Figures 5d and f). Dolomites are petrographically heterogeneous in texture, crystal size, and crystal shape (Rustichelli, personal communication); late diagenetic fabric-destructive zebra (saddle) dolomites are also documented (Figure 5g). Blocky calcite cement fills the pore space. Calcite veins, rare quartz veins, and dark microstylolites crosscut the Mesozoic carbonates (La Bruna et al., 2017). Along the western cliff of the carbonate massif, within the Lower Cretaceous limestones, a ENE-striking, NNW-dipping, syn-sedimentary normal fault is documented (Figures 5a and h). There, the carbonate succession shows an increase of thickness toward the major slip surface (Figures 5h and i). (insert Figure 5).

II - Lower Messinian carbonates

Up to 35 m-thick, Lower Messinian limestones crop out along both the western cliff of Monte Alpi and the eastern slope of the Santa Croce Peak (cf. Figures 2 and 6a). These limestones consist mainly of grey-to-dark gray skeletal grainstones with minor packstones, floatstones, rudstones and bindstones (Figures 6b-g). Biota is dominated by red algal (*Lithothamnium*)

debris with minor benthic foraminifera, echinoid plates and spines, and fragments of serpulids (*Ditrupa*) and bivalves, collectively pointing to an inner-middle ramp depositional setting. The individual limestone beds are tabular, laterally continuous, characterized by a thickness variation comprised between 10's of cm and ca. 4 m, and show thinning upward trends. The topmost portion of the Lower Messinian limestones is made up of thinly-bedded, bituminous, planktonic foraminiferal wackestones including fish remains and intervening marl beds (Figures 6b-f). The Lower Messinian limestones, which include blocky calcite cements, dark stylolites, and multiple sets of calcite veins, were originally deposited in an outer ramp depositional setting, which became progressively deeper with time (Taddei and Siano, 1992; La Bruna et al., 2017). ENE-striking, and both NNW- and SSE-dipping, syn-sedimentary normal faults are exposed along the north-eastern sector of Monte Alpi (Figures 6a and h). These faults produced an accommodation space in their hanging wall in which limestone beds were deposited (Figures 6h and i). The two sets of ENE-striking faults form a conjugate fault system that also crosscut the Lower Cretaceous limestone rocks, causing roll over (higher dip angles towards the faults) of the limestone beds located at the hanging wall of the major, Early Messinian normal fault. (insert Figure 6).

III - Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits

The Upper Messinian siliciclastic beds, which respectively form both onlap and downlap geometries with the high-angle faults and low-angle erosional surfaces crosscutting both Lower Cretaceous and Lower Messinian limestones (Figures 7a and b), are made up of conglomerates, sandstones and siltstones. The heterometric conglomerates include sub-rounded to flattened, polygenic pebbles (Figure 7c), whereas the litharenitic sandstones contain coarse-to-thin rock fragments arranged in either parallel or cross laminated beds (Figure 7d). The former rocks are located at the western and north-eastern edges of Monte Alpi, whereas the sandstones throughout its north-eastern and eastern sectors (La Bruna et al.,

2017). The exposed Upper Messinian succession is up to ca. 300 m-thick. (insert Figure 7). To better decipher its depositional architecture, multiple stratigraphic logs have been measured throughout the study area. Logs #1 to #4 highlight the northward thinning of conglomerates along the southern sector of Monte Alpi, whereas logs #5 to #7 show their westward thinning along its eastern sector (Figure 8). (insert Figure 8). By considering thickness variations of the Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits, an isopach map of the Upper Messinian deposit is computed, which shows that the two maxima located at the SW and NW edges of Monte Alpi are bound by the F2 and F3 Faults (Figure 9a). A third, less pronounced maximum is also computed at the intersection of the two aforementioned faults. In order to decipher the bedding attitude of both Lower Cretaceous and Lower Messinian limestones at the onset of deposition during Upper Messinian, data are restored accordingly (Figure 9b). Results are consistent with the west- and southwest-dipping limestone beds of the Canale del Grillone area, western sector of Monte Alpi, separated by a structural horst bounded by both F4 and F5 Faults from northeast-dipping beds of the Santa Croce area, eastern sector of Monte Alpi. (insert Figure 9).

4.2 Fault dimensional analysis

The 3D geological model constructed for the whole study area consists of a $2 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ volume that includes three stratigraphic surfaces pertaining to the Monte Alpi Unit, and forty-three fault surfaces. Both dip azimuth and dip angle data were then computed for the largest, twenty-seven fault surfaces (Figure 10a, Table1). Results are shown with histograms (Figures 10b and 10c). (insert Figure 10 and Table 1). According to their strike direction, the twenty-seven fault surfaces are sorted into the following five sets:

Set 1 - NW-SE faults with throws between 100 and 1,300 m;

Set 2 - NNW-SSE faults with throws between 100 and 1,300 m;

299 Set 3 - ENE-WSW faults with throws between 50 and 800 m;

300 Set 4 - WNW-ESE faults with throws between 170 and 1,100 m;

301 Set 5 - NNE-SSW faults with throws between 50 and 150 m.

302 Results of mesoscale structural analysis performed at specific outcrops have been used to
 303 better constrain both attitude and kinematics of individual fault sets, as well as to document
 304 their relative abutting and crosscutting relationships (Figure 11). Sets 1 and 2 mainly consist
 305 of left-lateral, strike-slip faults, which were then re-activated as normal faults during the latest
 306 exhumation stages (La Bruna et al., 2017). Sets 3 and 4 comprise normal faults likely re-
 307 activated as reverse faults during Early Pleistocene times (Van Dijk et al., 2000), whereas Set
 308 5 only includes normal faults. (insert Figure 11).

309

310 *4.3 Fault throw analysis*

311 Fault throw analysis is carried out by taking the computed cumulative throw (D) and length
 312 (L) values into account. Error bars were estimated for the individual fault surfaces (cf. Figure
 313 4) on the basis of the resolution obtained. Errors are reported hereafter. D : ± 50 m (F1, F2, F3
 314 and F5 Faults), ± 10 m (F4 Fault), ± 5 m (F6, F7, F9 and F12 Faults), ± 2 m (F8 Fault), ± 1 m
 315 (F11 Fault), and $\pm 0,5$ m (F10 Fault). L : ± 50 m (F1, F2, F3, F5, F11 and F12 Faults), ± 25 m
 316 (F4, F6, F7, F8, F9 and F10 Faults).

317 Results of throw-length computations are consistent with different shapes of the fault throw
 318 profiles (Fig. 12). In fact, both F10 and F3 faults show symmetric, bell-shaped profiles,
 319 whereas F6, F8, and F12 faults are characterized by flat-topped profiles. Moreover, F1, F4,
 320 and F11 faults show asymmetric profiles with steep gradients towards one of the fault tips,
 321 whereas F2, F5, F7, and F9 faults display asymmetric profiles with steep gradients toward
 322 both fault tips. (insert Figure 12).

The computed pre-Messinian, Early Messinian, and post-Early Messinian throw profiles are reported in Figure 13, and summarized in the following text (negative values correspond to either reverse displacements or rotated normal faults). (insert Figure 13).

F1 Fault (Set 2): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with values increasing towards the NNW edge; along the central portion of the fault, the profile is flat-topped. The Early Messinian throw profile does not record any displacement, whereas the pre-Messinian throw profile shows two maxima separated by a flat-topped throw profile.

F2 Fault (Set 1): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows a bell-shaped geometry, with a very pronounced peak in the central portion of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile does not show any displacement, whereas pre-Messinian throw profile displays both a flat-topped geometry at ca. -200 m-throw along the NW edge, and a bell-shaped geometry, with a peak at ca. 450 m-throw, along the SE edge.

F3 Fault (Set 3): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows a bell-shaped geometry, with two nearby maxima in the central portion of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile shows a slightly asymmetric geometry, with higher values towards the WSW edge of the fault. The pre-Messinian throw profile displays a flat-topped geometry at around 100 m-throw.

F4 Fault (Set 1): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with the greater values towards the NW edge of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile does not show any displacement, whereas the bottom pre-Messinian throw profile displays a slightly pronounced, bell-shaped geometry towards the NW edge of the fault.

F5 Fault (Set 1): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows a sort of asymmetric geometry, with the greatest values localized at the NW edge of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile shows a flat-topped geometry, with values at ca. 100 m-throw. The pre-

Messinian throw profile displays two flat-topped geometries, localized at values of ca. 100 m. and -100 m-throw, respectively.

F6 Fault (Set 3): the post-Early Messinian throw profile forms a smooth, flat-topped geometry. Both Early Messinian and pre-Messinian throw profiles do not show any significant displacement.

F7 Fault (Set 3): the post-Early Messinian throw profile displays an asymmetric shape, with a maximum towards the WSW edge of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile does not show any displacement, whereas the bottom pre-Messinian throw profile displays an asymmetric geometry characterized by two maxima localized at the fault tips.

F8 Fault (Set 3): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with the greatest displacement localized at the WSW edge of the fault. The Early Messinian throw profile displays a very small amount of displacement, with a flat-topped geometry at ca. 70 m-throw. The pre-Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with the greatest negative values towards the WSW edge of the fault.

F9 Fault (Set 1): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows a bell-shaped geometry, with a maxima at around 100 m-throw. The Early Messinian throw profile shows a flat-topped geometry at around 60 m-throw. The pre-Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with a maximum towards the SE edge of the fault.

F10 Fault (Set 4): all stratigraphic horizons display a flat-topped geometry, with a maximum of ca. 50 m-throw.

F11 Fault (Set 2): all stratigraphic horizons display a flat-topped geometry, with a maximum of ca. 90 m-throw (post-Early Messinian) and 50 m-throw (pre-Messinian and Early Messinian), respectively.

F12 Fault (Set 3): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows a bell-shaped geometry, with a maximum at ca. 200 m-throw. The Early Messinian profile shows a flat-topped geometry

localized in the WSW portion of the fault at ca. 80 m-throw. The pre-Messinian profile displays a bell-shaped geometry, with negative values down to around -120 m-throw.

4.4 Fault scaling properties

Based upon the fault throw profiles shown above, the maximum computed vertical Displacement (D) - Length (L) data for the twelve faults (Table 2) that dissect the exposed Monte Alpi Unit are plotted in a log-log diagram (Figure 14a). As reported in the first section of the manuscript, the slope of the computed power law, best-fit line corresponds to the growth line of individual, isolated faults (Cartwright et al., 1995). As a result, a n value of ca. 1 is computed for the pre-Messinian faults. We note that a n value of ca. 0.8 is computed for the three faults active during Lower Messinian (Figure 14b), which is obviously not statistically significant due to the small number of data points (Massot et al., 2002). Differently, a n value of ca. 1.5 was computed for the post-Early Messinian fault growth line (Figure 14c). (insert Table 2 and Figure 14).

5. Data interpretation and discussion

5.1 Fault growth mechanisms

The most pronounced strike variations are computed for Set 1 Faults (Table 1). Assuming that these faults developed by mean of subsidiary, extensional faults localized at their releasing jogs and/or at the extensional quadrants of mode-II edges (Segall and Pollard, 1980, 1983; Mollema and Antonellini, 1999; Myers and Aydin, 2004; Flodin and Aydin, 2004; Agosta and Aydin, 2006; Antonellini et al., 2008; Agosta et al., 2010; Aydin et al., 2010), these variations could be due to either Early Pleistocene or Middle Pleistocene strike-slip tectonics. In fact, many authors assessed the occurrence of strike-slip along NW-SE striking faults exposed in the study area, and its surrounding regions, during Quaternary times (Knott 1987;

Carbone et al., 1991; Monaco and Tansi, 1992; Oldow et al., 1993; Monaco and Tortorici, 1998; Cello and Mazzoli, 1998; Tavarnelli and Pasqui, 2000; Van Dijk et al., 2000; Lentini et al., 2002; Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014; La Bruna et al., 2017). Bearing the aforementioned interpretation in mind, the modalities of growth of the Monte Alpi extensional fault network are discussed hereafter by considering the computed fault throw profiles. Bell-shaped, flat-topped, and asymmetric cumulative fault throw profiles (Figure 12) indicate presence of isolated fault segments that likely interacted with each other during deformation (Muraoka and Kamata, 1983; Barnet et al., 1987; Walsh and Watterson, 1987, 1988, 1990; Peacock and Sanderson, 1991; Cowie and Scholz, 1992a; Cartwright et al., 1995; Huggings et al., 1995; Nicol et al., 1996; McLeod et al., 2000; Manighetti et al., 2001; Schlagenhauf et al., 2008).

A more detailed interpretation of the growth mechanisms can be deciphered by considering the pre-Messinian, Early Messinian, and post-Early Messinian fault throw profiles (Figure 13), and the results of stratigraphic field logging (Figure 8), Upper Messinian isopach map computation (Figure 9), and detailed field structural analyses (Figures 5 to 7). The pre-Messinian fault network was comprised of Sets 1, 2, and 3 faults, respectively striking NW-SE, NNW-SSE, and ENE-WSW. Among all the inferred syn-sedimentary Early Cretaceous faults, the greatest throw values were computed for Set 1 faults. The computed throw data for Sets 1 and 2 faults show that they were likely comprised of original, isolated fault segments, up to a few km-long, and characterized by bell-shaped throw profiles. The computed n value, ca. 1, indicates that these faults grew under constant driving stress conditions (Schultz et al., 2008), forming self-similar geometries (Mandelbrodt and Pignoni, 1983; Torabi and Berg, 2011). However, interaction and possible linkage processes (Walsh and Watterson, 1988) occurred among the isolated fault segments, as suggested by the wide data point dispersion (Figure 14a). Such a dispersion shifted the power law best fit line with respect to the theoretical fault growth line, traced according to the highest displacements values (Schultz et

al., 2010). Linkage processes took place in correspondence of stepover/relay zones (Trudgill and Cartwright, 1994; Fossen and Rotevatn, 2016), and determined lower D/L values for given fault lengths (Figure 14d). Then, displacement localization within the linkage zones due to enhanced shear stress (Aydin and Schultz, 1990) caused higher D/L values up to the theoretical fault growth line (Cowie and Scholz, 1992a,b; Cartwright et al., 1995; Mansfield and Cartwright, 1996).

Regarding the age of faulting, Sets 1 and 2 faults are ca. sub-parallel to those crosscutting the Outer Apulian Platform, and exposed at the Gargano Promontory and Murge Plateau of southern Italy (cf. inset of Figure 1). Since the latter faults were interpreted as Cretaceous structures (Bertotti, 2001; Korneva et al., 2014; Laurita et al., 2016; Petrullo et al., 2017; Vitale et al., 2017), a similar age is hence proposed for the study faults. In fact, these Sets 1 and 2 faults were likely coeval to the Set 3 faults, which strike ENE-WSW, documented along the western cliff of the Monte Alpi (Figures 5a and 5h).

The pre-Messinian, likely Early Cretaceous in age, fault system was re-activated during onset of the Monte Alpi foreland basin system, as suggested by both computed (Figure 13) and measured structural data (Figures 6a, h, i). This fault system included either isolated (*ie.* F5 and F12 faults), or interacting faults (*ie.* F3 Fault), which were characterized by flat-topped and asymmetric profiles, respectively. Focusing on post-Early Messinian times, all faults pertaining to the Monte Alpi network show evidences of slip. The computed n value is about 1.5 (Figure 14c). This value, which is significantly greater than those computed for both pre-Messinian and Early Messinian faults, is therefore consistent with a scale-dependent geometry of the post-early Messinian fault network (Watterson, 1986; Walsh and Watterson, 1988; Cowie and Scholz, 1992a,b; Scholz et al., 1993; Schlische et al., 1996; Kim and Sanderson, 2005; Schultz et al., 2008).

By considering both T- and Y-shaped intersections, we observe that the former geometry is

quite common in the modelled fault system (Figures 10, 14e). In fact, these types of intersection characterize F6, F7 and F8 faults, which are bounded on both sides by the F4 and F5 and the F5 and F8 faults, respectively. On the other hand, the bounding F4 and F5 faults intersect southward the F3 fault also forming T-shaped intersections. Among these, we focus on the detailed throw profile analysis of both F7 and F5 faults (Figure 14e), which downdrop the same block but unfortunately do not show very significant evidences of mechanical interaction (Walsh et al., 2003). Differently, the T-shaped intersection formed by both F5 and F3 faults is characterized by a marked increases of vertical displacement in the zone where the two fault footwalls coincide (Fig. 14e). Y-shaped intersections are investigated by considering small (ca. 30°) and large (ca. 130°) alpha angles (Maerten et al., 1999). The former case is displayed by the F11 Fault intersecting against the F4 Fault (Fig 14e). There, a pronounced increase of vertical displacement occurs in the zone where the two fault footwalls coincide (Fig. 13). The latter case is formed by the F12 Fault intersecting the F5 Fault (Fig. 14e), but the two fault throw profiles do not show any variation in coincidence of the intersection line (Fig. 13).

5.2 Implication for the evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system

Results of the integrated field and laboratory analyses are consistent with a pre-Messinian orthogonal fault system made up of isolated, interacting faults (Figure 15). During Early Messinian times, with ongoing roll-back of the Apulian Platform (Royden et al., 1993; Doglioni, 1999), shallow-water marine basins characterized by anoxic conditions (Taddei and Siano, 1992) formed within the back-bulge deposition zone of the Inner Apulian Platform (Patacca et al., 1992; Critelli et al., 2011; Vitale et al., 2012) or, alternatively, within outer secondary basins (sensu Flemings and Jordan, 1989). According to both basin geometry and infill, similar conclusions were proposed for the Sunda shelf region, Indonesia (Ben Avraham

and Emery, 1973), the Cordilleran foreland basin, USA (DeCelles and Burden, 1992; Plint et al., 1993) and the Taranaki foreland basin, New Zealand (Holt and Stern, 1994). The Early Messinian basin of Monte Alpi was mainly bounded by re-activated Set 1 (NW-SE) and Set 3 (ENE-WSW) faults. Activity of an orthogonal fault system during the earliest stages foreland basin systems evolution was already documented by Tavani et al. (2015b) in the Prenestini Mt. of central Apennines, Italy, and interpreted as due to along-foredeep stretching (Tavani et al., 2015a). This process commonly takes place in correspondence of curved orogens (Doglioni, 1995; Zhao and Jacobi, 1997; Whitaker and Engelder, 2006), such as the southern Apennines FTB (Locardi, 1988).

Differently, the erosional surface topping the Early Messinian limestones possibly formed in the forebulge (Figure 15), which is an area commonly characterized by a significant uplift (DeCelles and Giles, 1996), and considered as a non-depositional and/or erosional zone (Flemings and Jordan, 1989; Crampton and Allen, 1995). On the basis of the restored bottom Late Messinian surface (Figure 6l), a structural horst bounded by Set 1 faults formed at that time. This deformation caused emersion, and partial erosion, of both Mesozoic and Lower Messinian carbonates. Subsequently, the stratigraphy of the Late Messinian deposit also suggests that nucleation of the Monte Alpi foredeep basin was controlled by re-activation of Set 3 faults (ENE-WSW), whereas as shown by the computed fault throw profiles its later development was mainly due to activity of Set1 fault (NW-SE).

According to Walsh et al. (2002), we interpret that the steeper slope of the post-Early Messinian fault growth line with respect to both pre-Messinian and Early Messinian lines (Figures 14a to c) reflects the higher degree of maturity of the post-Early Messinian fault network (Cartwright et al., 1995; Nicol et al., 1996; Gupta and Scholz, 2000), and/or the pronounced lithostatic loading that occurred during post-Messinian times (Mazzoli et al., 2006). Focusing on Late Messinian times, the foredeep basin was characterized by isolated

depocenters, in which up to 600 m-thick terrigenous sediments were deposited (Monaco et al., 1998; cf. well 2 of Figure 2). Compared to the 1,000's m-thick Lower Pliocene (Casero, 2004; Shiner et al., 2004) and Upper Pliocene-Lower Pleistocene foredeep infills (Balduzzi et al., 1982, Casnedi, 1988a, b), the Late Messinian succession is interpreted as due to a first-order stage of forebulge progradation (Catuneanu, 2004), which occurred during thrusting of the outermost portions of the southern Apennines FTB (Marabini and Vai, 1985; Cavazza and DeCelles, 1998; Vitale and Ciarcia, 2013). It can be therefore argued that the Messinian foreland basin system of Monte Alpi developed during a rapid migration of the southern Apennines FTB, which triggered a predominant elastic response to flexure of the Apulian plate due to the low amount of its tectonic load (Crampton and Allen, 1995; DeCelles and Giles, 1996; Catuneanu, 2004). (insert Figure 15).

6. Conclusions

The present work combined geological field mapping and stratigraphic logging with subsurface seismic and well log data interpretation to perform the 3D geological reconstruction of the Monte Alpi area, southern Italy. The goals were the assessment of both growth mechanisms and scaling properties of the pre-Pliocene fault network, and the understanding of the structural control played by high-angle extensional faults on the time-space evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system. Field analyses were aimed at assessing the stratigraphy of the Messinian mixed carbonate-terrigenous deposits, and at documenting Early Cretaceous, Early Messinian, and Late Messinian syn-sedimentary faults. Seismic reflection profiles and well logs were interpreted in order to decipher the geometry of the topmost surface of the Monte Alpi Unit. Results of both surface and subsurface analyses were then input in Gocad® to perform the 3D geological reconstruction of the Monte Alpi massif and its surrounding areas. This procedure was then followed by the computation of

Late Messinian isopach map, and of throw profiles for the individual structures forming the Monte Alpi fault network. Results after 3D geological modelling and throw profile analysis were discussed to assess its following time-dependent evolution:

- During pre-Messinian times, main NW-SE to NNW-SSE fault segments were active as isolated structures, which likely interacted and linked together during ongoing deformation. According to literature data, these faults likely formed during Early Cretaceous times within the Inner Apulian Platform. Field evidences also show minor ENE-WSW, Early Cretaceous, syn-sedimentary extensional faults. Dimensional properties computed for the NW-SE to NNW-SSE faults showed that these features formed as isolated faults within a network characterized by self-similar geometries.
- During Early Messinian time, most of the pre-existing NW-SE and ENE-WSW faults were re-activated in the back-bulge zone during the earliest stages of foreland basin system evolution. These faults bounded shallow-water marine basins, in which carbonate sediments were deposited under anoxic conditions. The computed dimensional properties are also consistent with a self-similar fault network.
- Subsequently, isolated structural horsts formed in the forebulge zone of the foreland basin system. The horsts were bounded by NW-SE faults, which caused uplift, tilting, and partial erosion of both Mesozoic and Lower Messinian carbonates.
- During Late Messinian times, a 100's m-deep foredeep basin characterized by half-graben depocenters bounded by NW-SE faults developed in the study area. Minor ENE-WSW faults were likely active during that time, forming a scale-dependent network in which the individual faults intersected the previously formed structures producing higher displacement/length values.

The complex tectonic evolution that affected the study area since Early Pliocene times profoundly modified the aforementioned structural configuration, and partially obliterated

the original fault network. However, the results presented in this work shed a new light into the structural control exerted by inherited faults on the development of the Messinian foreland basin system of Monte Alpi. Further analysis focused on the sedimentological and petrographic characterization of the Messinian mixed carbonate-terrigenous deposits are required to better assess the geometry of the depositional environments, and their relationships with the bounding high-angle faults.

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Figure caption

Figure 1. Simplified geological map of the Southern Apennines, Italy, and NE-SW geological cross section (from *Vitale and Ciarcia*, 2013, and references therein). Location of the study area of Monte Alpi is shown both in the geological map and in the inset figure.

Figure 2. (a) Geological map of the Monte Alpi area, and surrounding regions, at a 1:25.000 scale. Data after original field survey and available bibliography (*Foglio IGM 211, S. Arcangelo; Bonardi et al.*, 2009; *Cavalcante et al.*, 2009; *Lentini*, 1991). (b) Location of the sites of stratigraphic logging analysis; (c) Traces of the main faults pertaining to the Monte Alpi structural network.

Figure 3. Original and interpreted seismic reflection profiles available for the study area. Traces of individual seismic profiles are reported in Figure 2. Interpreted sections show the main structural features crosscutting the Apulian Platform and allochthonous units. Interpretation of stratigraphic horizons and both low-angle and high-angle faults are based on available well log data.

Figure 4. (a) Modelled fault surface view due to west. Grey lines represent points with similar amounts of throw present along the fault surface, whereas dashed lines show the cut-off of the bottom Lower-Cretaceous, Early Messinian and Late Messinian surfaces. (b) Throw profile computational process on the F1 Fault.

Figure 5. (a) Panoramic view of the western edge of Monte Alpi. There, Mesozoic platform carbonates are overlain by two Messinian sedimentary intervals. The lower interval is made up of ramp limestones, whereas the upper one includes shallow-marine siliclastics. (b to g) Photomicrographs of representative samples of the Mesozoic platform carbonates. (h, i) Outcrop view of a portion of the Monte Alpi western cliff, along which a ENE-WSW striking, Early Cretaceous, syn-sedimentary normal fault is exposed.

Figure 6. (a) Panoramic view of the western edge of the Monte Santa Croce peak (cf. Figure 2). (b to g) Photomicrographs of representative samples of the Lower Messinian carbonates. (h and i) Outcrop view and line-drawing of a ENE-WSW striking, Early Messinian, syn-sedimentary normal fault.

Figure 7. (a) Outcrop view of the Solarino site (western edge of Monte Alpi). There, the Upper Messinian conglomerates form an onlap geometry with respect to the NNW-SSE striking F11 Fault, which is therefore interpreted as Late Messinian in age. (b) North-eastern edge of the Monte Santa Croce Peak (cf. Figure 2). There, the Upper Messinian sandstones and conglomerates form a down-lap geometry with respect to the erosional surface topping the Lower Messinian carbonates. (c) Close up view of the Solarino site, where flattened-polygenic conglomerates pertaining to the Upper Messinian deposit are exposed. (d) outcrop view of the Canale del Grillone site (western sector), where Upper Messinian laminated sandstones crop out.

Figure 8. Stratigraphic logs measured across the exposed sections of the Messinian mixed carbonates/terrigenous deposits. The location of each log is reported in Figure 2.

Figure 9. (a) Isopach map computed for the Upper Messinian terrigenous deposit. Data are reported in meters. White lines represent the traces of the modelled Monte Alpi simplified fault network. (b) Lower hemisphere, equal area projections of both poles and planes related to unrestored and restored bottom Late Messinian surfaces. Bedding plane data were gathered in the field from both western (Canale del Grillone) and eastern (Santa Croce) sectors of Monte Alpi. The cartoons show the unrestored and restored geological cross-sections elaborated for the study area. Data were restored according to the attitude of Upper Messinian beds.

Figure 10. (a) Simplified traces of the Monte Alpi fault network. Dashed lines represent the traces of blind faults. Blue labels are assigned to the faults that are used for throw analysis. (b) Histograms showing both azimuth and dip variations computed for the F1 Fault surface. Both histograms describe the mean of the azimuth/dip value. (c) Snapshot of the 3D geological reconstruction, where the bottom Early Cretaceous surface, F1 Fault, and original geological map are shown.

Figure 11. (a) Outcrop view of the N-S striking F1 Fault, which bounds the north-western edge of Monte Alpi. The fault crosscut Jurassic carbonates, and it is characterized by both dip-slip and oblique-slip, extensional kinematics. (b, c) Close up of the F1 Fault. Kinematic indicators, such as calcite fibers and abrasion striae, are visible along the main slip surface. (d) E-W striking, F3 Fault juxtaposing the Monte La Spina dolostones against Lower Cretaceous carbonate. The inset shows the polished slickenside, in which with dip-slip striae are visible. (e) Outcrop view of the F10 fault, which crosscut Lower Messinian carbonates. The inset shows the small veneer of cataclasites present along the polished slickenside;

Figure 12. Cumulative throw profiles computed for the 12 major faults pertaining to the Monte Alpi network, in which are present faults with different shape regarding the computed throw profiles (symmetric, bell-shaped, flat-topped and asymmetric profiles). See text for explanation.

Figure 13. Pre-Messinian (blue), Early Messinian (green), and post-Early Messinian (yellow) throw profiles computed for the 12 major faults pertaining to the Monte Alpi network. See text for explanation.

Figure 14. Log-Log plots of displacement vs. length data computed for (a) pre-Messinian faults ($y=0.07x^{0.9}$; $R^2=0.42$), (b) Early Messinian faults ($y=0.06x^{0.8}$; $R^2=0.86$), and (c) post-Early Messinian faults ($y=0.08x^{1.5}$; $R^2=0.71$). (d) Cartoons showing the main stages of fault growth, and their related log displacement/ log length data, according to *Cartwright et al.* (1995). (e) Cartoons showing both T and Y-shaped intersections for some of the studied faults.

Figure 15. Time/space evolutionary model proposed for the Monte Alpi foreland basin system. The faults active during the main tectonic stages are illustrated in the 3D block diagrams, in which the geometry of the sedimentary depocenters is also reported.

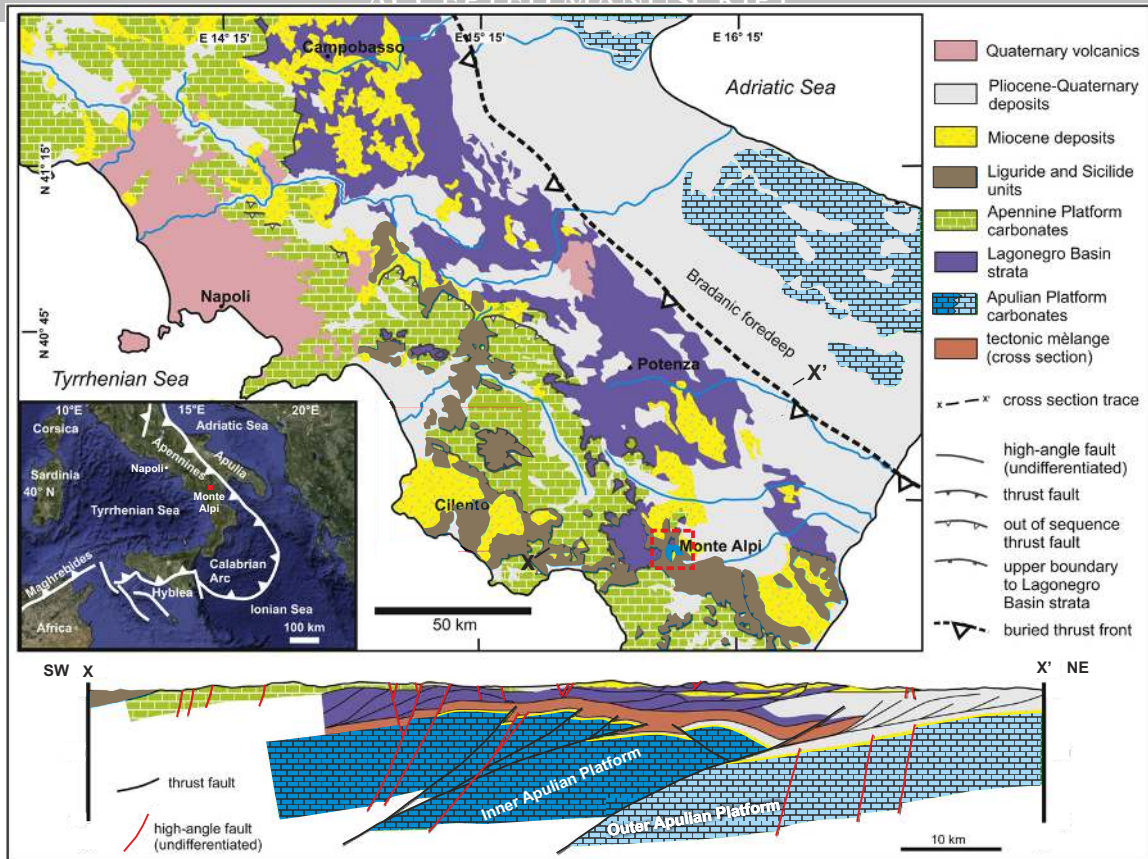
Table 1. Results of fault analysis performed on the 27 faults used for the 3D geological reconstruction. The 75, 50, and 25 percentile distributions of both dip azimuth and dip angle computed for the individual faults are shown, respectively. The two main clusters of dip azimuth values are computed on the basis of the obtained histograms (ie. Figure 10b), in order to decipher the possible horizontal veering of the modelled 3D fault surfaces. In fact, the amount of strike variation reported in the last column is related to the difference between the two clusters computed, along a horizontal plane, for each modelled fault.

Table 2. Name, length and vertical throw of the computed fault segments related to the Pre-Messinian (blue), Early Messinian (green), and post-Early Messinian (yellow) structural network.

Figure 6. (a) Panoramic view of the western edge of the Monte Santa Croce peak (cf. Figure 2). (b to g) Photomicrographs of representative samples of the Lower Messinian carbonates. (h and i) Outcrop view and line-drawing of a ENE-WSW striking, Early Messinian, syn-sedimentary normal fault.

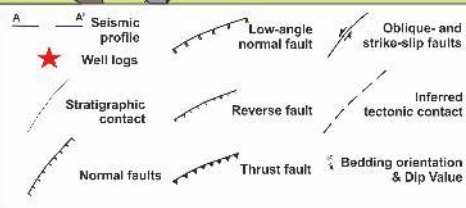
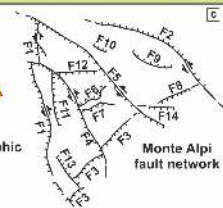
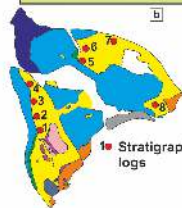
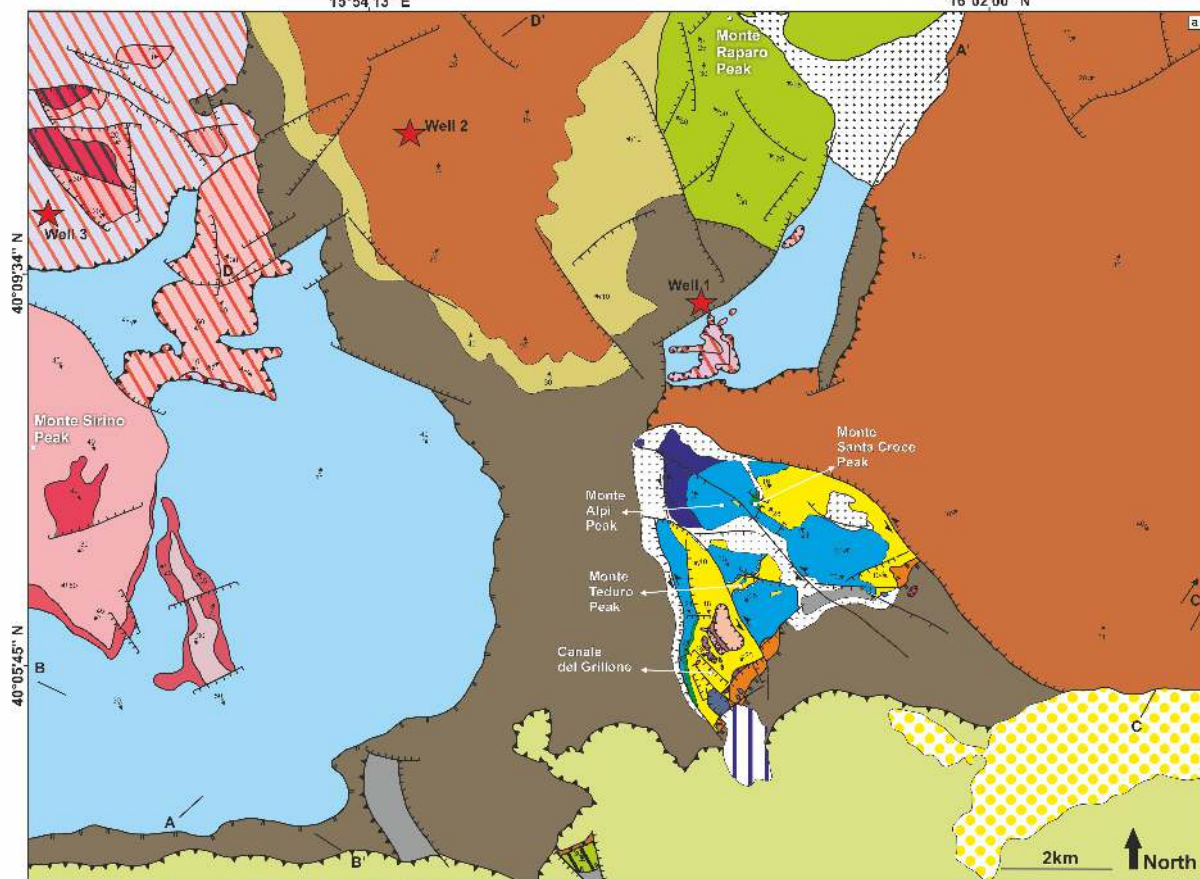
NAME	SET	DIP AZIMUTH 75%	DIP AZIMUTH 50%	DIP AZIMUTH 25%	DIP ANGLE 75%	DIP ANGLE 50%	DIP ANGLE 25%	DIP AZIMUTH CLUSTER 1	DIP AZIMUTH CLUSTER 2	STRIKE VARIATION
F1	II	254.1	248.6	237.9	88.5	85.1	80.7	254	75	1°
F2	I	234.7	194.4	35.7	88.9	87.4	85	235	35	20°
F3	III	319.3	315.9	191.7	86.1	83.5	78.8	320	135	5°
F4	I	228.4	58.5	52.4	88	84.4	75.4	225	60	15°
F5	I	223.5	202.2	42.8	89	87.6	85.4	235	40	15°
F6	III	342	336.5	323	77.6	74.1	69.2	345	/	/
F7	III	159.1	157.2	155.5	79.8	73.5	67.9	/	/	/
F8	III	155.3	155.1	154.9	89.1	88.3	87.9	/	/	/
F9	I	38.6	29.3	25.5	68.1	65.4	64.1	/	/	/
F10	IV	203.1	23.3	22.5	89.6	89.3	87.6	204	23	1°
F11	II	76.9	74.1	70	87.4	85.6	81.5	70	260	10°
F12	III	344.8	188.9	180.4	87.3	83.6	81.5	170	345	5°
F13	I	228.6	227.5	223.5	87.5	86.1	84.4	/	/	/
F14	V	187	12.7	8.6	89	88.3	87.5	180	8	8°
F15	IV	97.1	89.4	76.5	61.4	59	55.7	/	/	/
F16	IV	107.2	92.8	77.3	65.8	64	62.7	/	/	/
F17	II	76.2	72.5	68.9	74.2	67.7	62.3	/	/	/
F18	II	75.9	70.5	66.9	71.7	64.4	58.8	/	/	/
F19	I	226.1	225.1	224	78.2	77.4	75.6	/	/	/
F20	V	112.2	109.3	108.1	79.6	78.6	76.8	/	/	/
F21	V	19.7	17.9	13.8	73.9	72.2	71.1	/	/	/
F22	III	325.7	319.8	307.3	85.3	81.5	77.5	/	/	/
F23	II	251.4	249.7	245.8	87.5	86.8	85.9	/	/	/
F24	IV	193	249.7	12.7	88.2	86.7	84.2	193	20	7°
F25	IV	104.9	103.3	102.7	87.7	86.7	86	/	/	/
F26	III	344.5	14.4	10.6	87	83.7	78.3	/	/	/
F27	L.A.N.F.	135.2	86.3	53.6	25.5	22.4	18	/	/	/

	NAME	LENGTH (km)	VERTICAL FAULT THROW (km)
P.M.	F1a	4	0,5
	F1b	3,5	0,6
	F2a	4,2	0,2
	F2b	3,5	0,45
	F3	4	0,15
	F4	1,5	0,05
	F5a	2	0,1
	F5b	1,5	0,08
	F7a	0,6	0,1
	F7b	0,6	0,15
	F8	1,5	0,07
	F9	2,5	0,25
	F10	1	0,02
	F11	1	0,02
	F12	1	0,1
E.M.	F3	1,5	0,1
	F5	4	0,15
	F12	1	0,05
P.E.M.	F1	6,2	0,9
	F2a	3	0,6
	F2b	4	1,4
	F2c	2	0,25
	F3	4,5	0,8
	F4	4,8	0,5
	F5	4	0,5
	F6	1,2	0,2
	F7	1	0,25
	F8	1,8	0,16
	F9	3	0,15
	F10	1	0,02
	F11a	0,6	0,02
	F11b	0,8	0,07
	F12	1,6	0,2



15°54'13" E

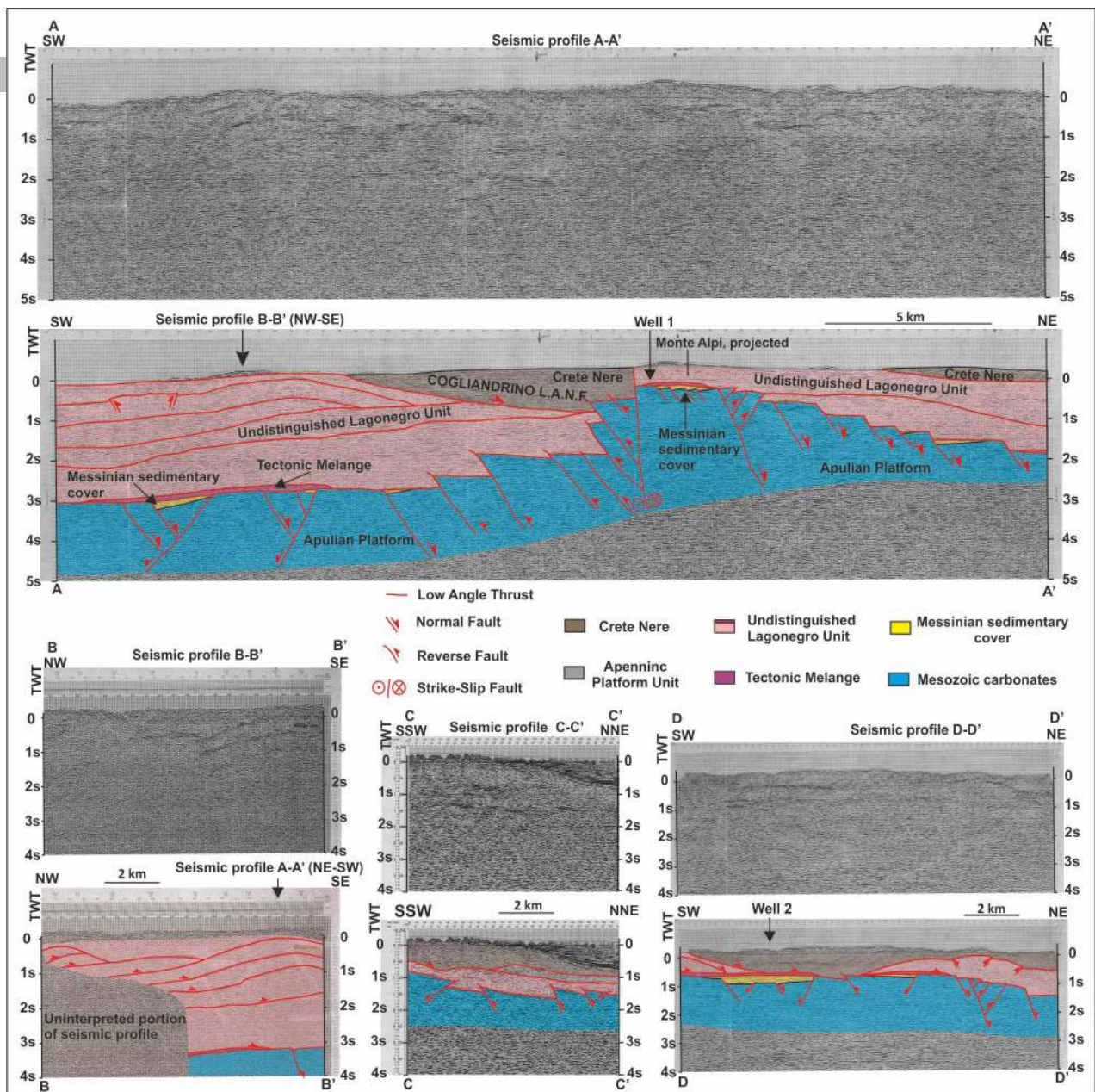
16°02'00" N

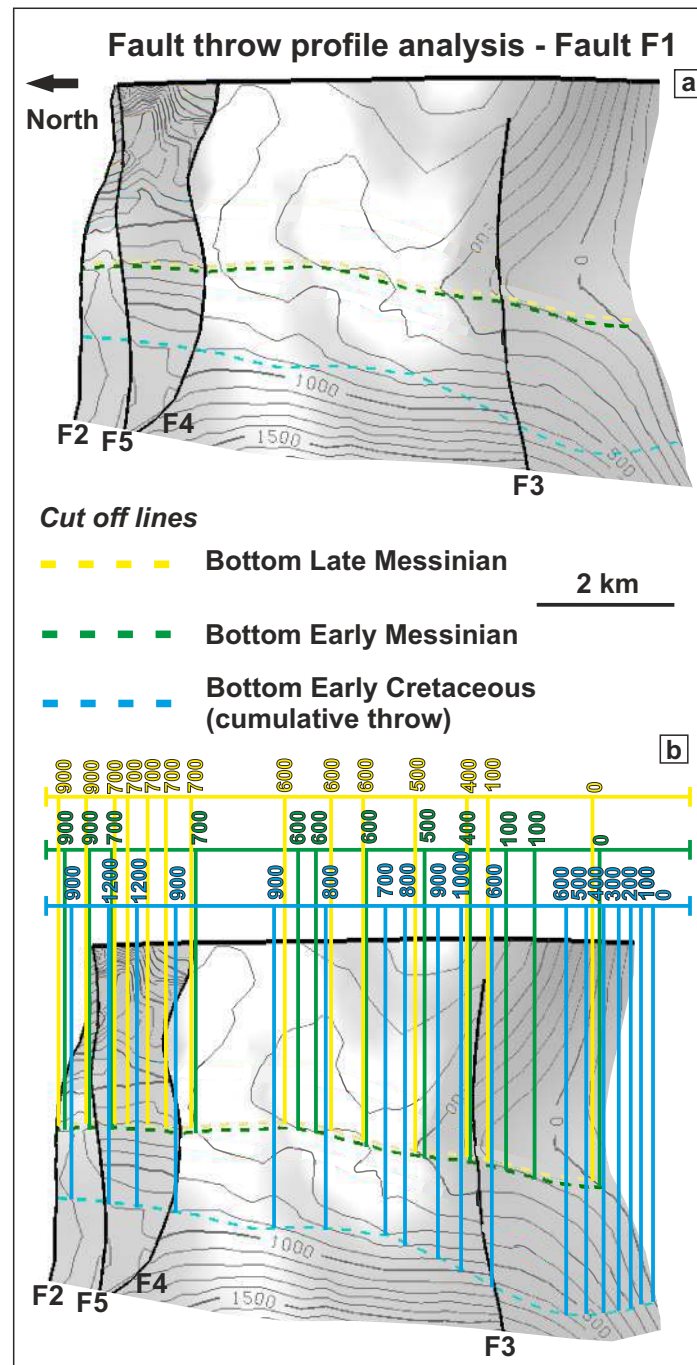


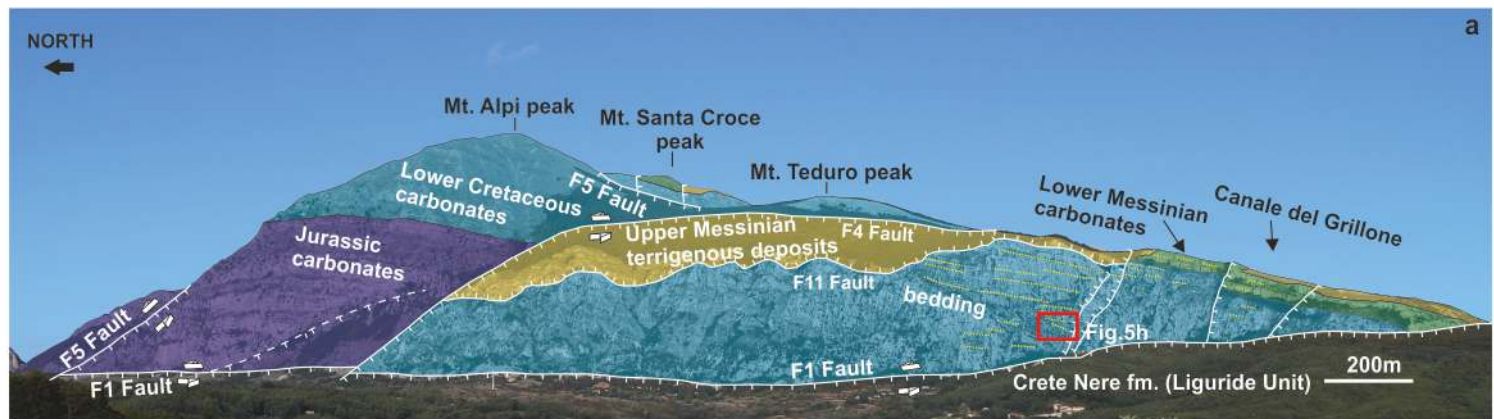
MONTE ALPI UNIT

- Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits
- Lower Messinian carbonates
- Lower Cretaceous carbonates
- Jurassic carbonates

- Debris
 - Travertine deposits
 - Latronico conglomerates
 - Albidona Flysch
- LIGURIDE UNIT**
- Saraceno Formation (Upper Oligocene- Lower Miocene)
 - Frido Unit (Upper Jurassic- Upper Oligocene)
 - Crete Nere (Lower Cretaceous-Middle Eocene)
- APENNINIC PLATFORM UNIT**
- Bifurto Formation (Langhian)
 - Trenitara Formation (Paleocene-Eocene)
 - Monte Raparo Limestones (Upper Cretaceous)
 - Monte La Spina Dolostones (Upper Triassic)
- LAGONEGRO 2 UNIT**
- Galestrino Flysch 2 (Lower Cretaceous)
 - Scisti silicea Formation 2 (Jurassic)
 - Cherty limestones 2 (Upper Triassic)
 - Monte Facito formation (Lower-Middle Triassic)
- LAGONEGRO 1 UNIT**
- Galestrino Flysch 1 (Lower Cretaceous)
 - Scisti silicea Formation 1 (Jurassic)
 - Cherty limestones 1 (Upper Triassic)
 - Bagni Limestones (Upper Triassic)
 - Zia Santa (Upper Triassic)
 - Tectonic Melange







Legend

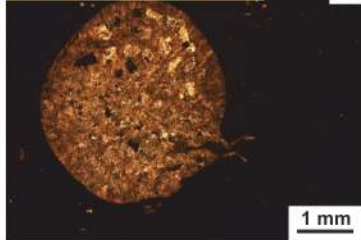
Jurassic carbonates

Lower Cretaceous carbonates

Lower Messinian carbonates

Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits

Stromatoporoid floatstone



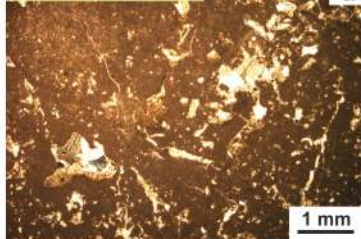
b

Oolitic grainstone



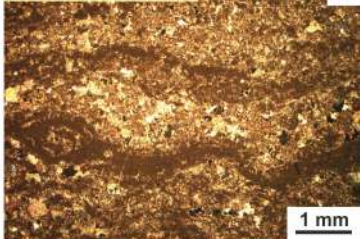
c

Fenestral mudstone



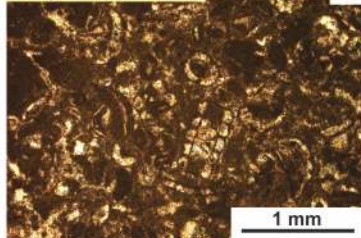
d

Microbial bindstone



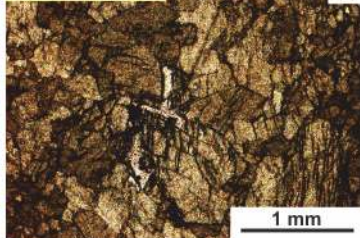
e

Dasyclad packstone



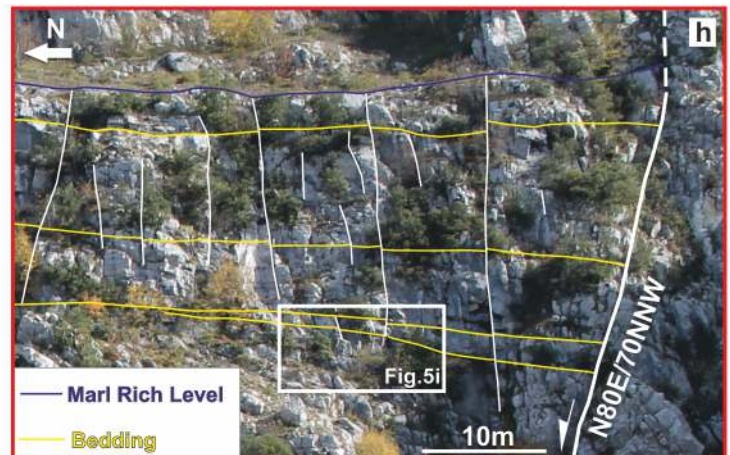
f

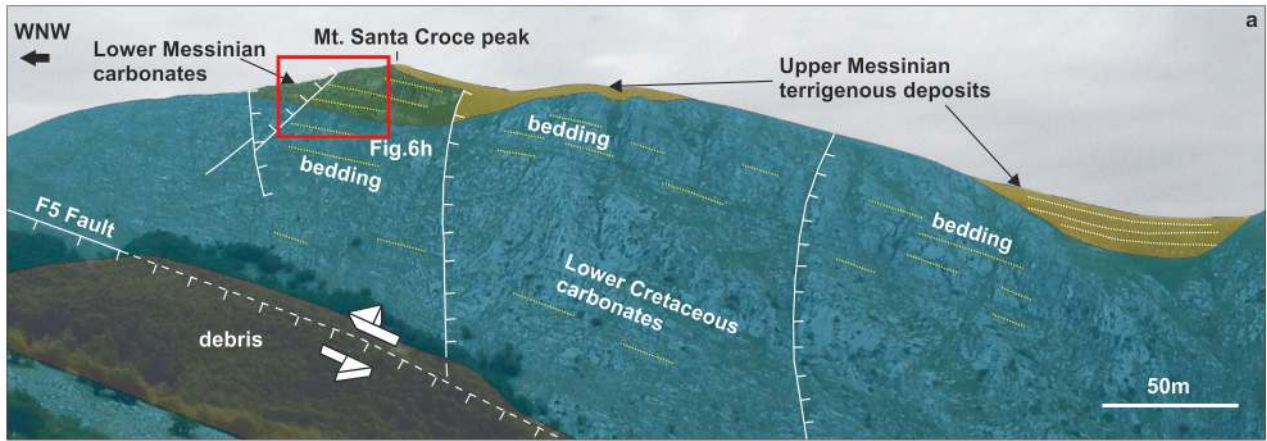
Saddle dolomite



g

(b-f) = cross-polarized light; (g) = plane-polarized light

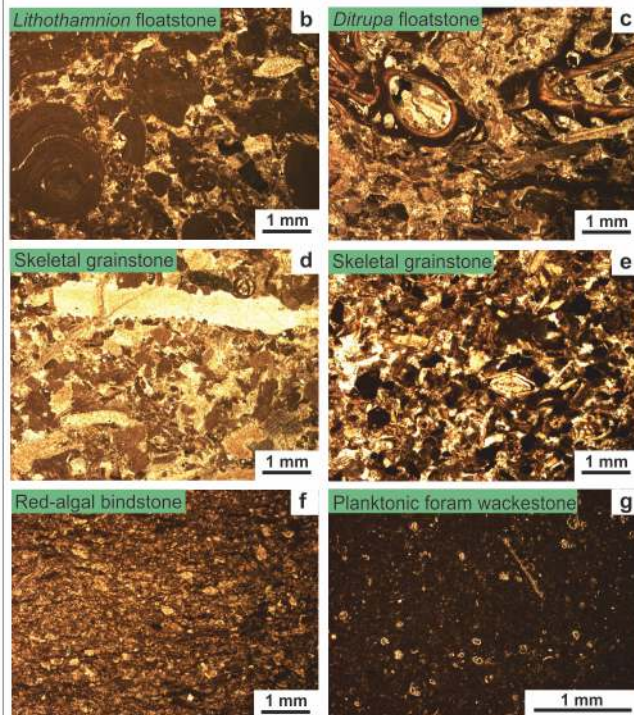




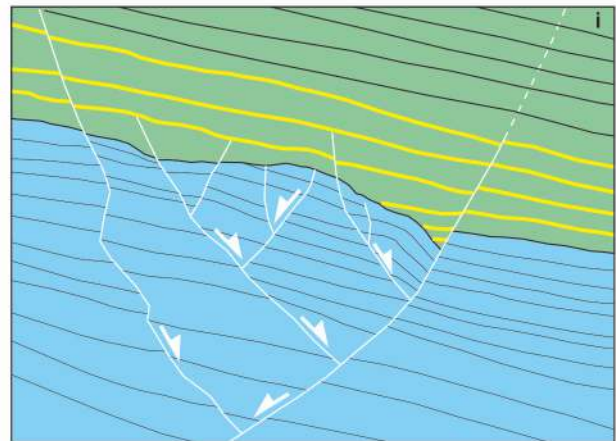
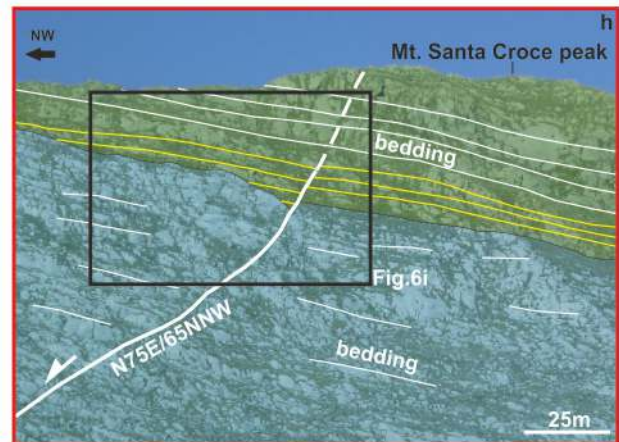
Legend

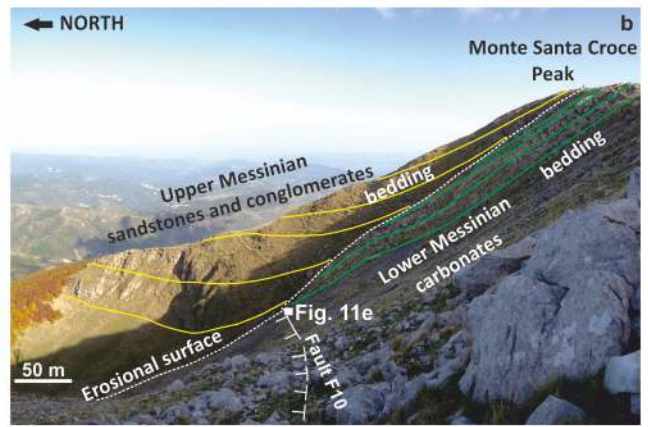
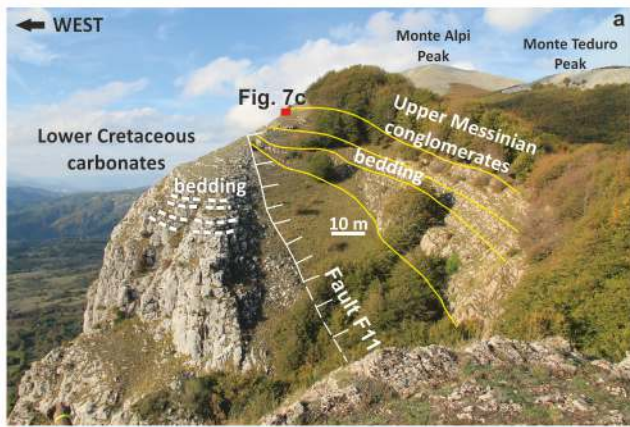


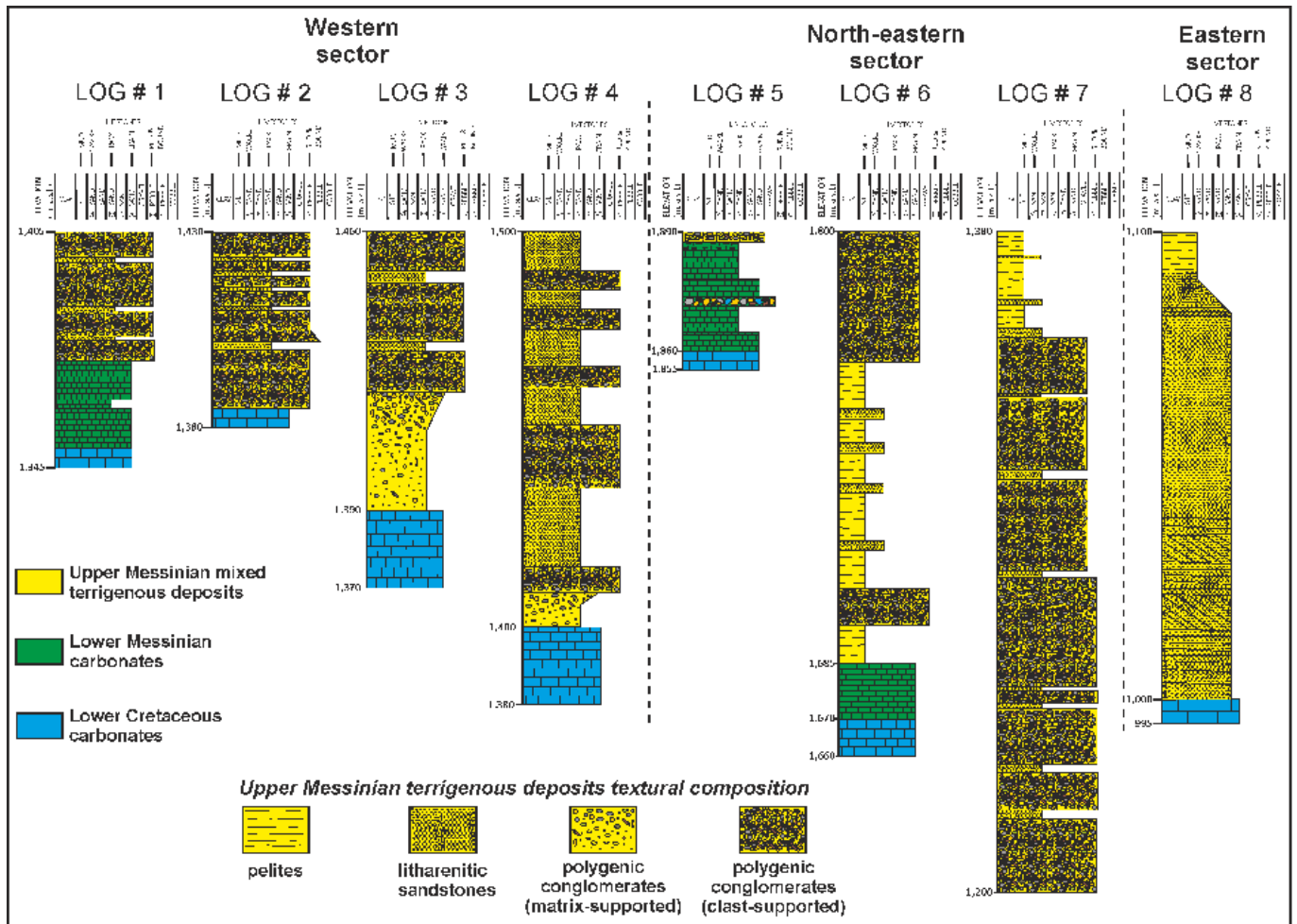
Lower Messinian carbonates optical microscopical analysis

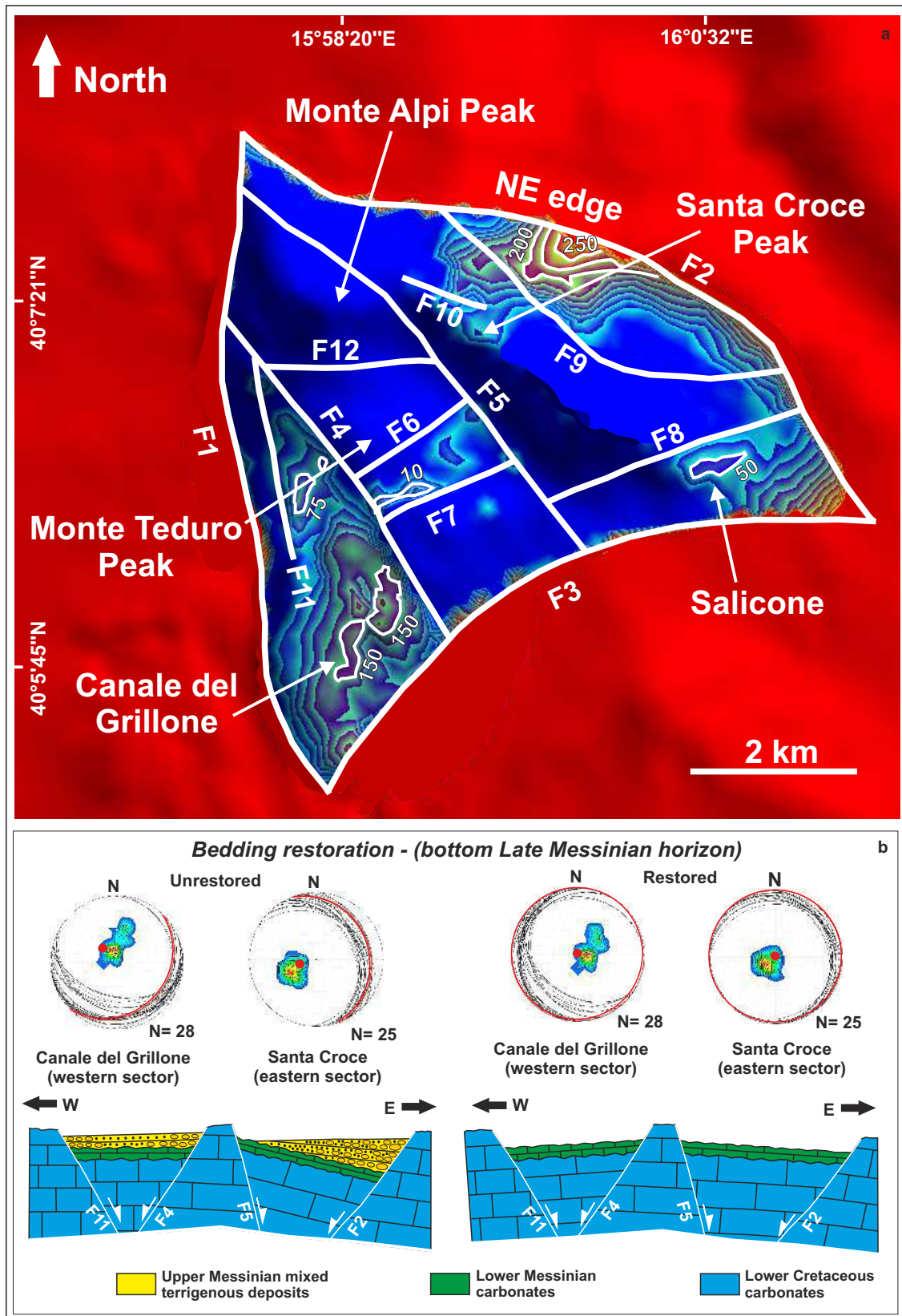


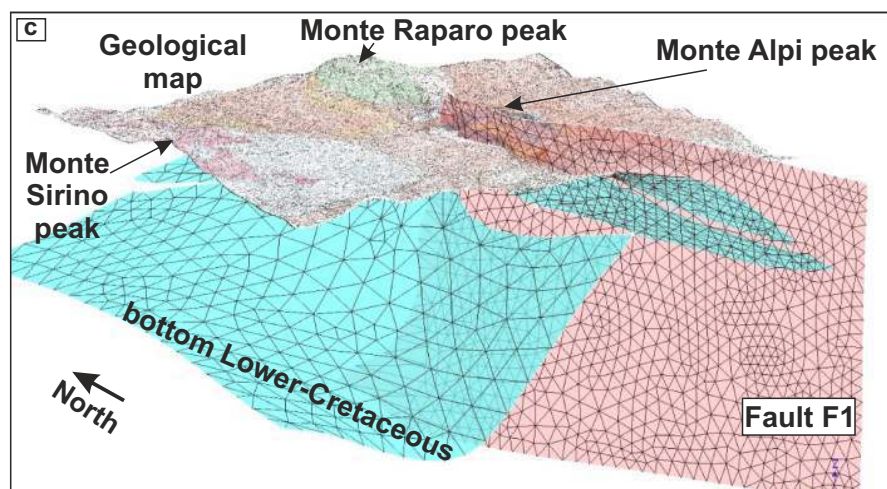
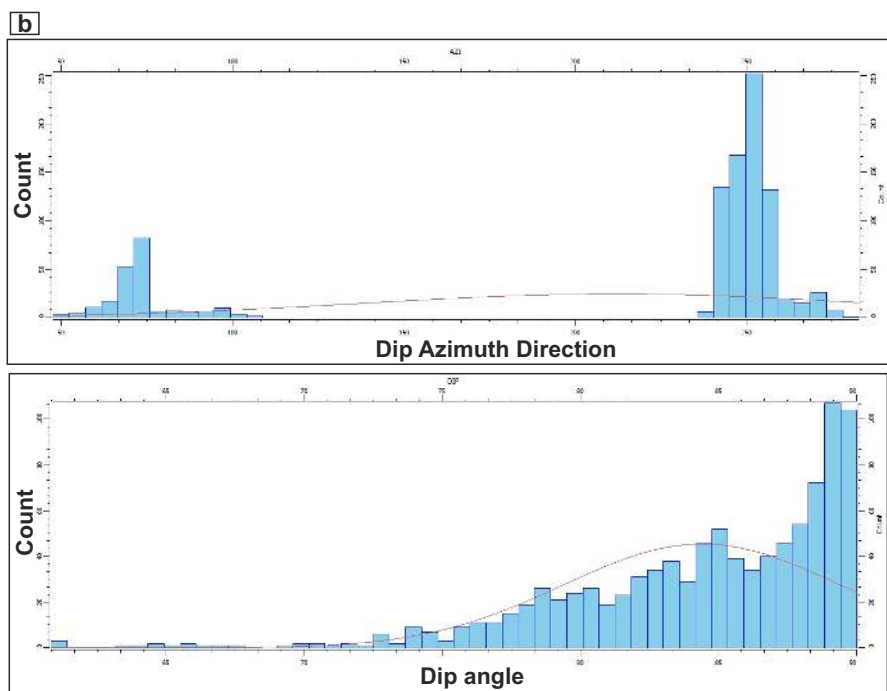
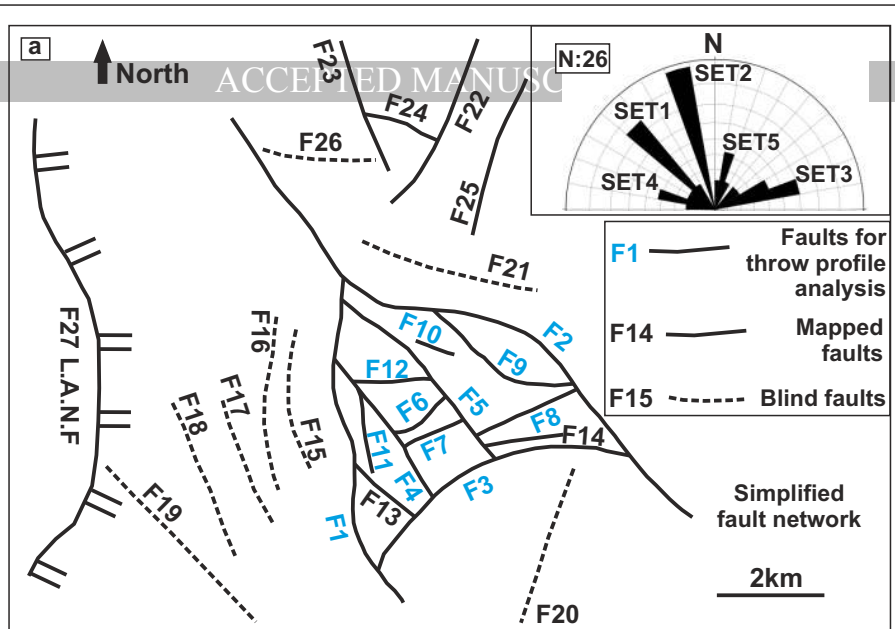
(b-f) = cross-polarized light; (g) = plane-polarized light

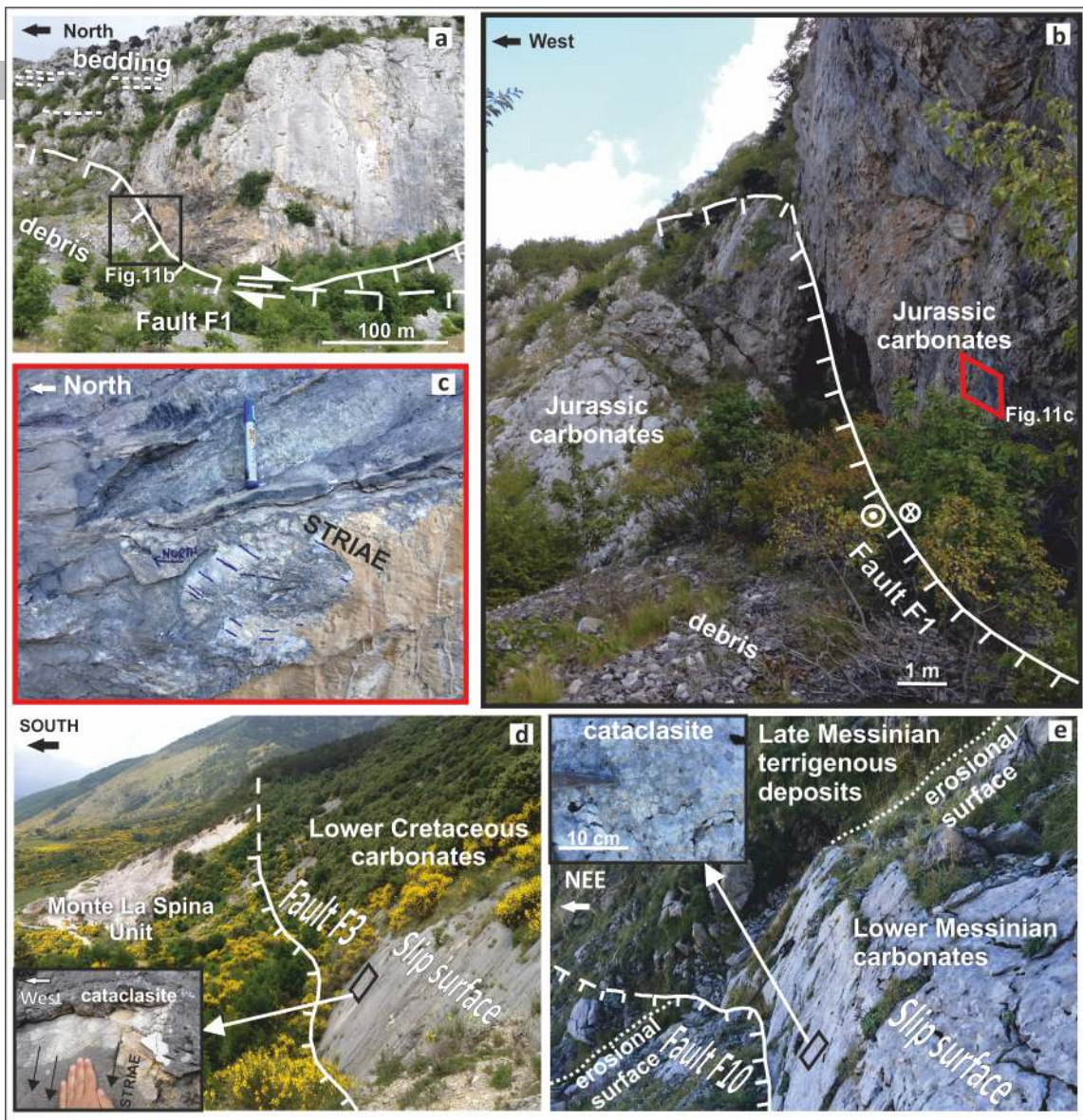




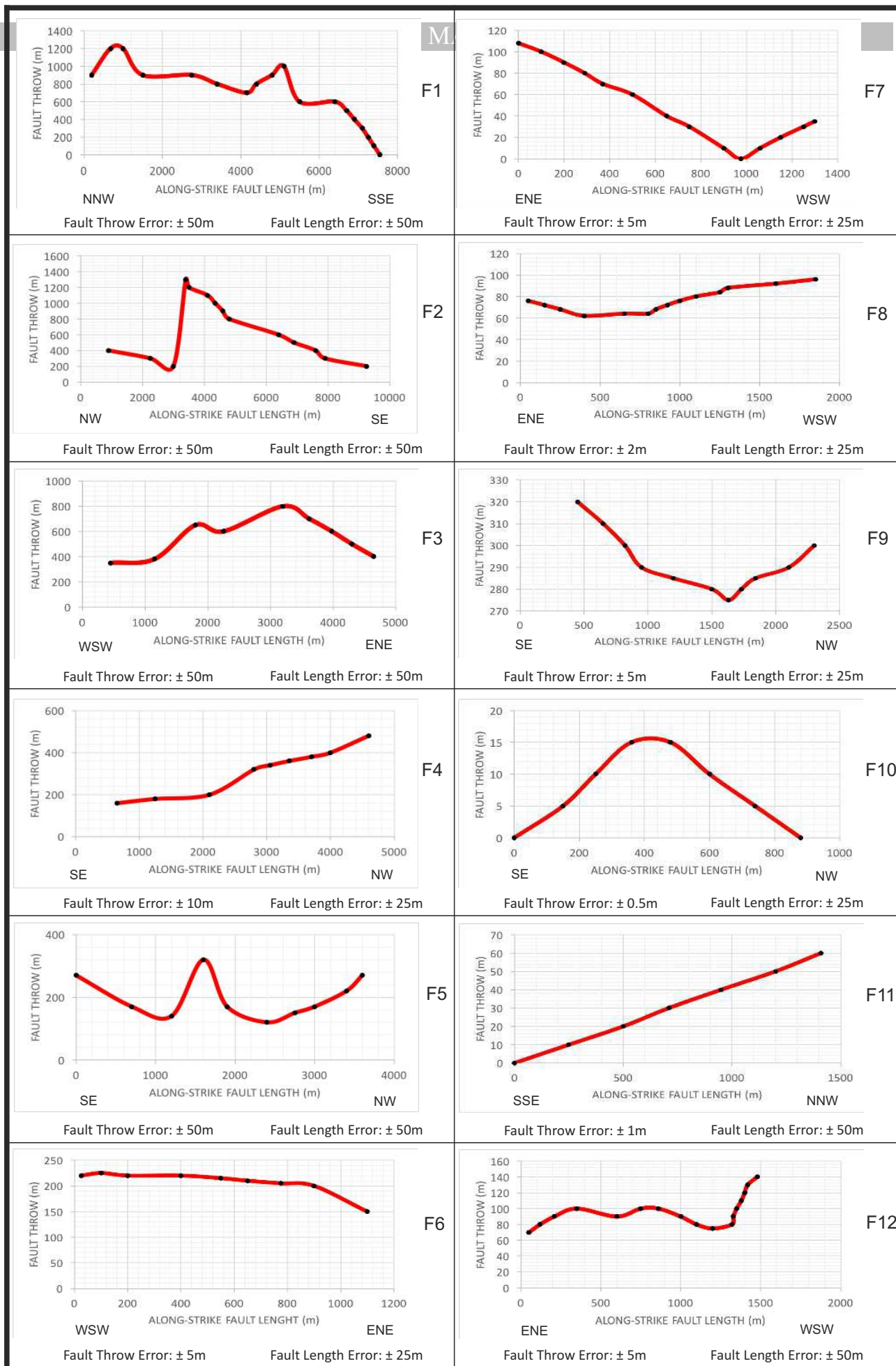




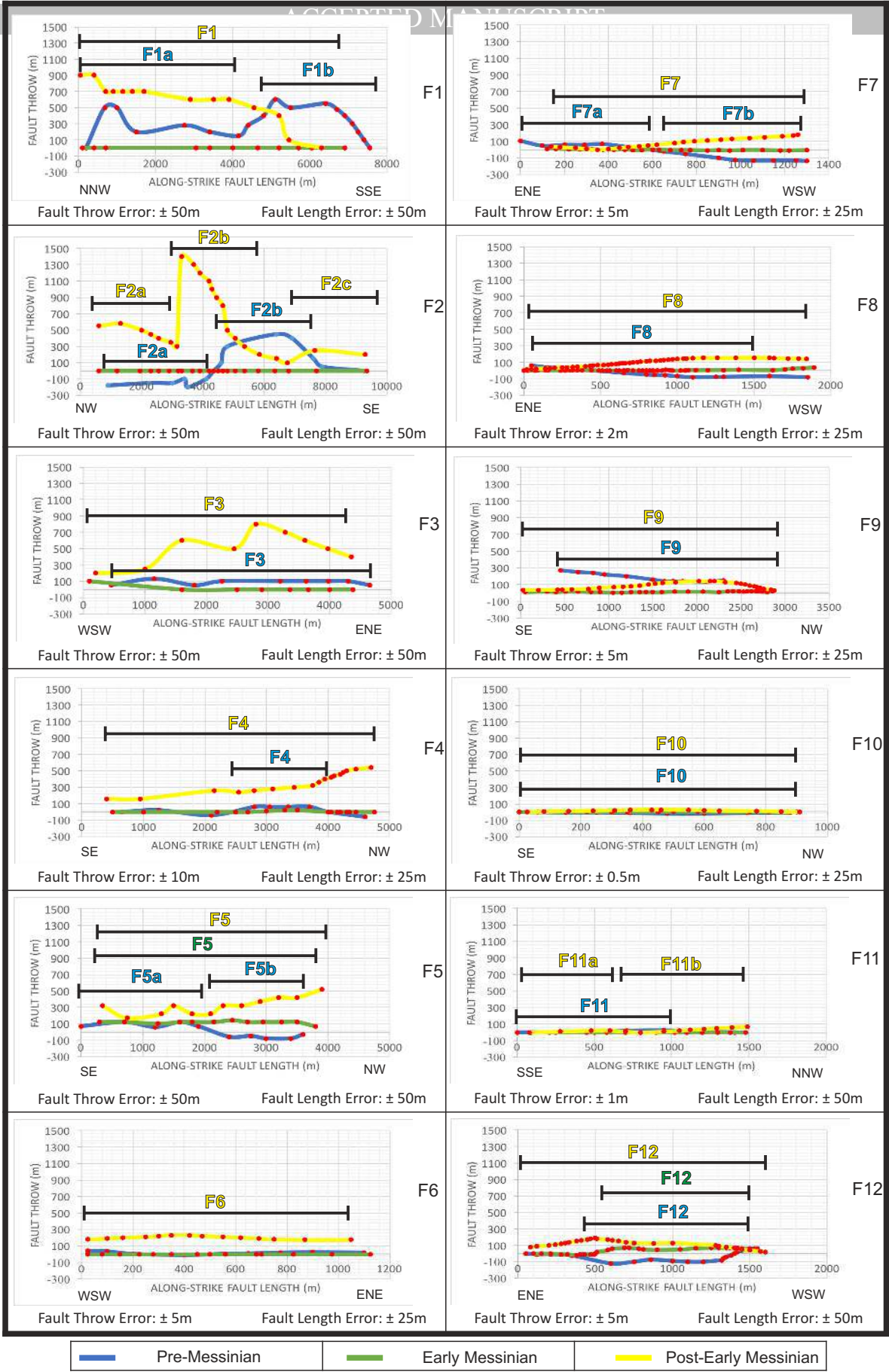


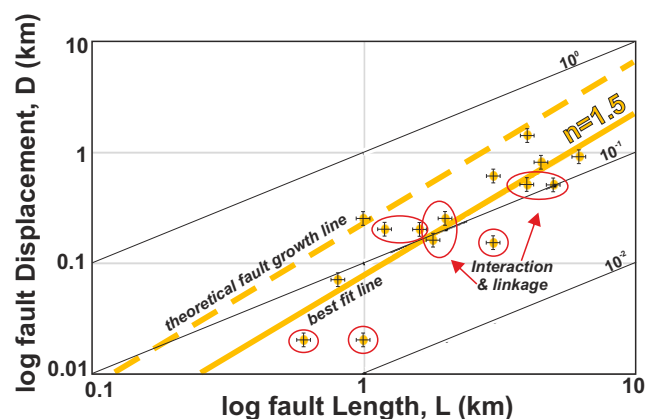
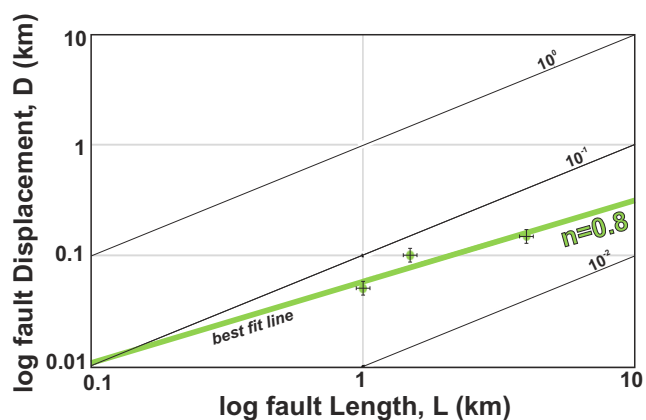
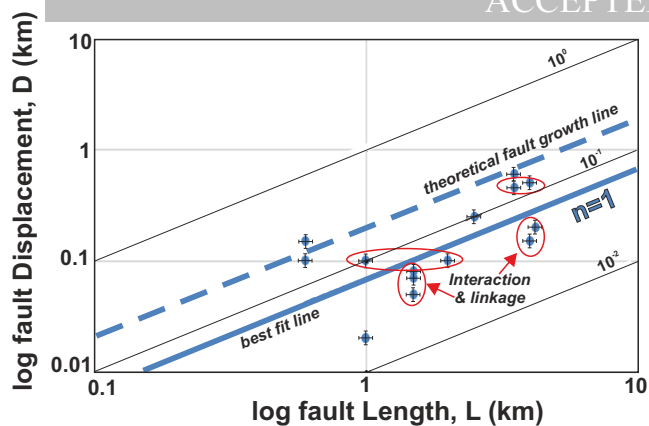


CUMULATIVE THROW PROFILES

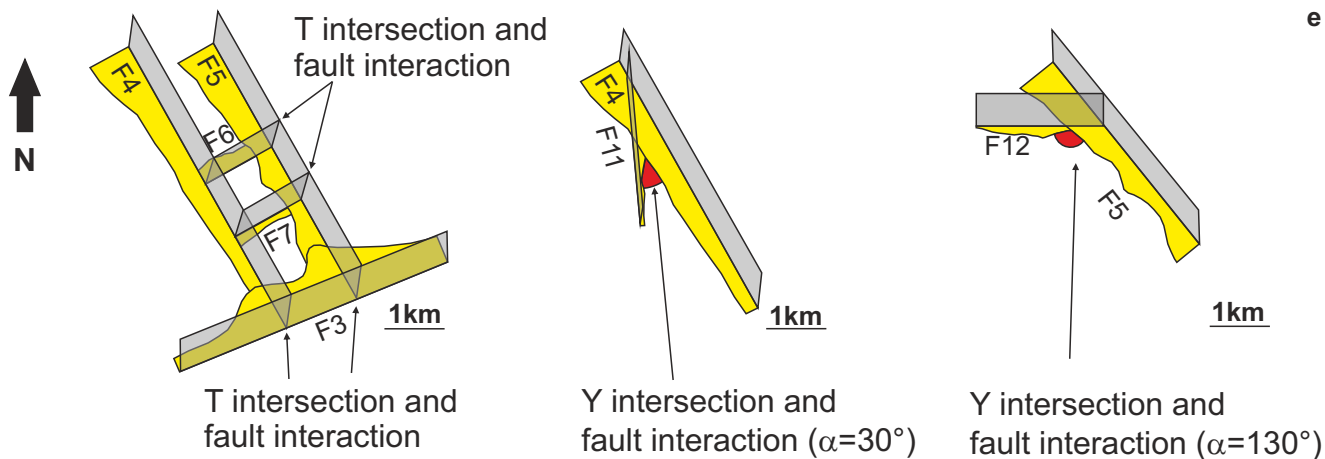
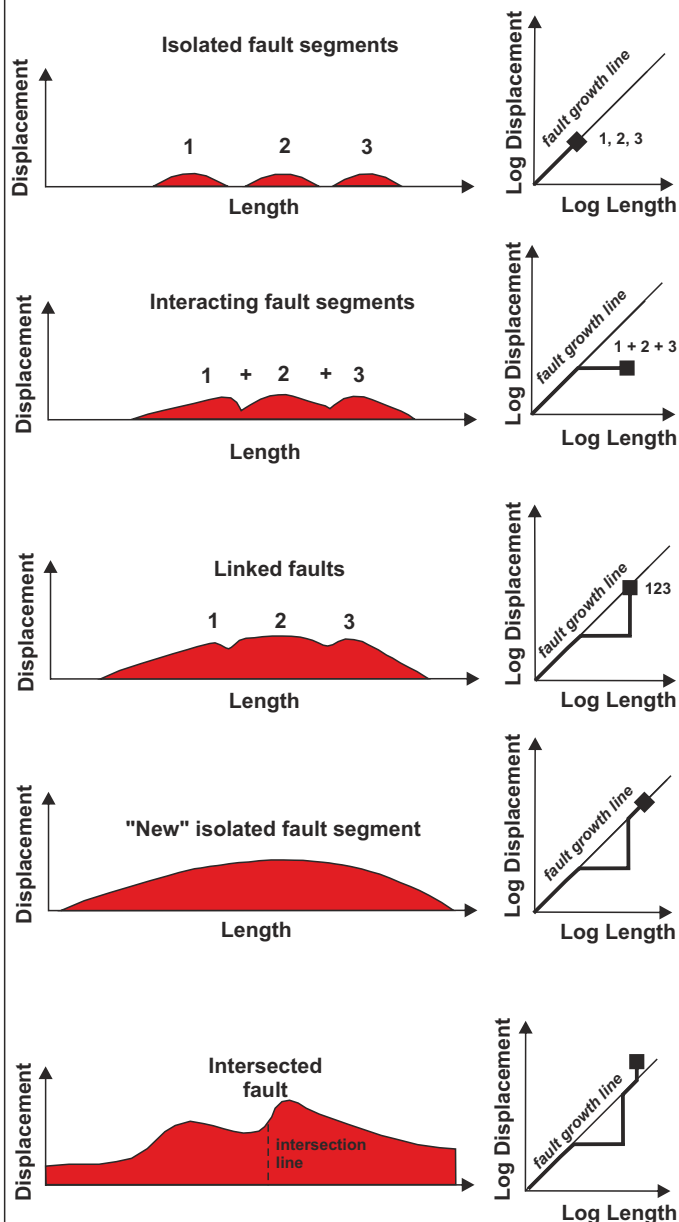


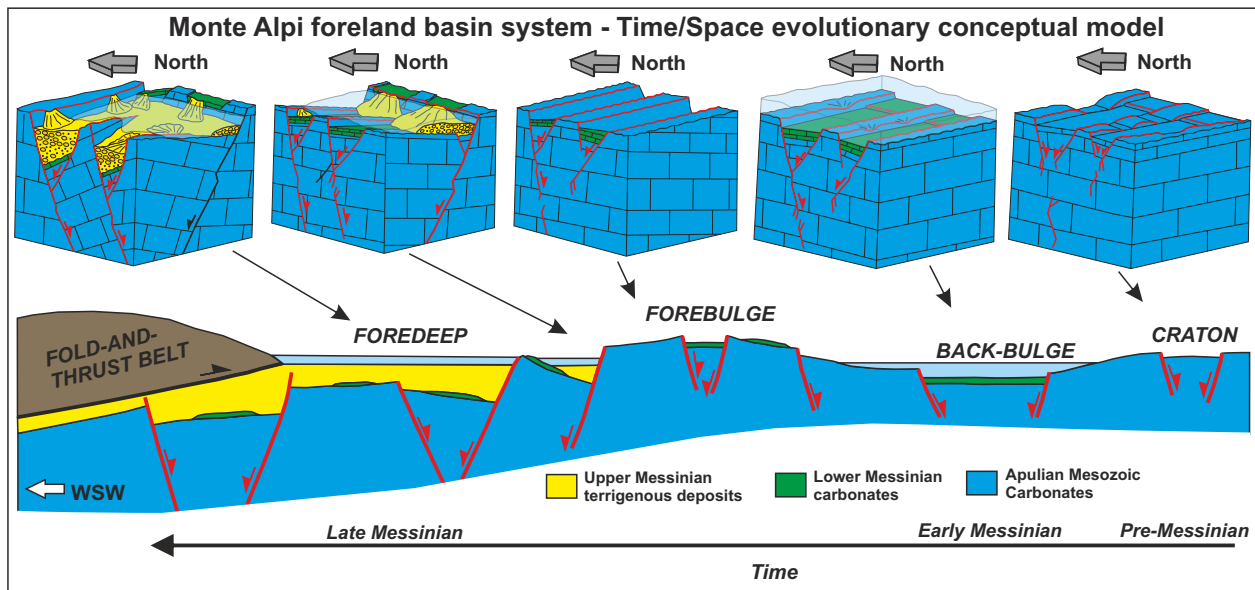
PRE-MESSINIAN, EARLY-MESSINIAN AND POST-EARLY MESSINIAN THROW PROFILES





Fault growth processes





Highlights:

- Both timing and growth processes are deciphered for the pre-Pliocene fault network;
- Main dimensional attributes computed for all analyzed faults;
- Inferences on the fault-control evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system;