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Vincenzo La Bruna, Fabrizio Agosta, Juliette Lamarche, Sophie Viseur, Giacomo Prosser. Fault growth mechanisms and scaling properties in foreland basin system: The case study of Monte Alpi, Southern Apennines, Italy. Journal of Structural Geology, 2018, 116, pp.94-113. 10.1016/j.jsg.2018.08.009. hal-02091081

HAL Id: hal-02091081 https://hal.science/hal-02091081v1

Submitted on 29 Nov 2022

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1	Fault growth mechanisms and scaling properties in foreland basin system: The case
2	study of Monte Alpi, Southern Apennines, Italy
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11	Key words: syn-sedimentary faults, orthogonal fault system; fault dimensional properties,
12	Apulian Platform, 3D geological reconstruction.
13	
14	Abstract
15	The present work focuses on the comprehension of the growth mechanisms and dimensional
16	properties of the pre-Pliocene Monte Alpi fault network by mean of integrated field and
17	laboratory analyses. After this multidisciplinary approach, detailed throw profiles are
18	computed for each fault belonging to the Monte Alpi network. Subsequently, the dimensional
19	properties of the individual faults are calculated. Data obtained from this work are discussed
20	in terms of fault growth mechanisms and timing of deformation, and reported in a conceptual
21	tectonic evolution model of the Messinian foreland basin system. Data suggest that originally
22	isolated fault segments developed during the earliest stages of foreland basin formation by re-
23	activation of a pre-existing, Early Cretaceous fault set, and formation of an orthogonal one.
24	These two fault sets formed a scale-independent network. Differently, the same fault sets
25	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 halfgraben depocenters evolution filled by up to ca. 600 meters of terrigenous deposits during the
Late Messinian time.

29

30 1. Introduction

31 Numerous studies have shed light on the evolution of the foreland basin systems flanking 32 orogenic belts, but some gaps remain in particular related to the understanding of the fault 33 growth mechanism and fault dimensional properties related to the structural networks that 34 control the foreland basin system evolution. This knowledge is important to decipher the 35 modalities of the extensional deformation associated to foreland flexure, which is commonly 36 due to migration of Fold-and-Thrust belts (FTB), and unveil the possible role exerted by pre-37 existing, inherited faults on development of foreland basin systems (Gawthorpe and Leedert, 38 2000). As documented in literature, longitudinal extensional faults parallel to the main thrust 39 front of the FTB are frequently observed across the whole foreland basin system (Harding and 40 Tuminas, 1989; Lorenzo et al., 1998; Ranero et al., 2003). Moreover, subordinated transverse 41 extensional faults, which are perpendicular to the main thrust front can develop because of the 42 stress release in the fault hanging wall of longitudinal faults (Destro, 1995; Medwedeff and 43 Krantz 2002; Tavani et al., 2015), or be present as transfer faults within linked extensional 44 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

51 Platform (Sartoni and Crescenti, 1962) and overlapping Lower Messinian carbonates and 52 Upper Messinian siliciclastic rocks (Sgrosso, 1988; Taddei and Siano, 1992) crop out in the 53 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).

58 The results of this work may provide useful insights in order to better assess the timing of 59 formation of the two aforementioned high-angle fault sets, which pre-date Early-Middle 60 Pliocene contractional deformation associated to the FTB migration (Patacca and Scandone, 61 2007). In particular, data obtained after a detailed field structural and stratigraphic analyses 62 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 63 64 profiles are computed for the individual, outcropping, high-angle faults crosscutting the Monte Alpi Unit. By also considering the displacement of specific chronostratigraphic 65 66 surfaces, the dimensional properties of the evolving pre-Pliocene fault network are discussed 67 in terms of either scale-independent (Schultz et al., 2008) or scale-dependent geometries (Kim 68 and Sanderson, 2005). In fact, as described in literature, when initially isolated fault segments 69 interact and, possibly, link together during ongoing deformation, they modify their 70 dimensional properties (Walsh and Watterson, 1988; Peacock and Sanderson, 1991; 71 Cartwright et al., 1995; Dawers and Anders, 1995; Mansfield and Cartwright, 1996; Crider 72 and Pollard, 1998; Cowie and Roberts, 2001; Walsh et al., 2003). Considering the following 73 relationship between the maximum fault cumulative displacement (D) and its maximum linear 74 dimension (L, length)

75 $D=cL^n$

(eq. 1)

76 where the c value is related to the rock mechanical properties, it is possible to assess the 77 geometrical properties of the fault network by considering the *n* value (Watterson, 1986; 78 Walsh and Watterson, 1988; Cowie and Scholz, 1992a,b; Scholz et al., 1993; Schlische et al., 79 1996; Kim and Sanderson, 2005; Schultz et al., 2008). Values of *n*=1 indicate a linear scaling 80 law (i.e. self-similarity), which implies that faults grew under conditions of constant driving 81 stress at different scales, whereas values of n>1 suggest a scale-dependent geometry. 82 Regarding the study area of Monte Alpi, the contribution provided by the different angles 83 among intersecting faults forming a scale dependent geometry is investigated by considering 84 both T- and Y-shaped intersections (Maerten et al., 1999). Finally, evolution of the pre-85 Pliocene fault network is summarized in a conceptual model of Messinian foreland basin 86 system evolution by taking the computed time-dependent activity of individual fault sets into account (sensu Gawthorpe and Leedert, 2000). 87

88

89 **2. Geological setting**

90 2.1 Southern Apennines

91 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; 92 93 Locardi, 1988). Such a process caused the formation of east-propagating thrust sheets, which 94 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 95 96 (Patacca et al., 1990; Doglioni, 1991). Commonly, the Apennines are sub-divided along-strike 97 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, 98 99 1988; Ghisetti and Vezzani, 1997; Vai and Martini, 2001; Cavazza et al., 2004; Patacca and 100 Scandone, 2007). Most of the paleogeographic models proposed for the Mesozoic Neo-Tethys

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

105 The current structural setting of the southern Apennines FTB includes the following tectono-106 stratigraphic units, from the top to the bottom, which respectively correspond to specific 107 paleogeographic domains arranged from west to east, respectively (Patacca and Scandone, 108 2007): i) siltstones and claystones originally pertaining to the Liguride/Sicilide oceanic Basin; 109 ii) carbonates derived from the Apennine Platform; iii) mixed terrigenous-carbonate rocks 110 derived from the Lagonegro basin, divided into two different tectonic Units, Lagonegro I and 111 II; and iv) carbonates of the Apulian Platform (Figure 1). Miocene-to-Pliocene terrigenous 112 infill of foredeep, thrust-top, and piggyback basins were involved in contractional 113 deformation, and currently crop out in the axial and outer portions of the belt (Ghisetti and 114 Vezzani, 1981; Dewey et al., 1989; Boccaletti et al., 1990; Carbone et al., 1990; Van Dijk and 115 Okkes, 1990, 1991; Monaco and Tanzi, 1992; Catalano et al., 1993; Monaco and Tortorici, 116 1995; Monaco et al., 1998; Pescatore et al., 1999; Menardi Noguera and Rea, 2000; Patacca 117 and Scandone, 2007). The Inner Apulian Platform was involved in Late Pliocene-Early 118 Pleistocene thick-skinned tectonics (Mostardini and Merlini, 1986; Cello and Mazzoli, 1998; 119 Butler et al., 2004; Shiner et al., 2004), whereas the Outer Apulian Platform is now days 120 either exposed or buried underneath a Plio-Pleistocene sedimentary cover in the orogenic 121 foreland of the Southern Apennines (Pieri et al., 1997; Borgomano, 2000; Spalluto, 2012; 122 Panza et al., 2016; Petrullo et al., 2017). (insert Figure 1).

123

124 2.2 Monte Alpi Unit

125 The study area is located in the axial portion of the southern Apennines FTB (Figure 1). Over 126 the years, according to the presumed age of the sedimentary cover, many authors proposed 127 two conflicting hypotheses on the origin of the Monte Alpi carbonates. Assigning a Lower 128 Miocene age to its sedimentary cover, the Mesozoic carbonates were interpreted as part of the 129 Apennine Platform (Ogniben, 1969; Mostardini and Merlini, 1986; Muller et al., 1988). 130 Differently, by assigning a Messinian age, other authors included them in the Inner Apulian 131 Platform (Carbone et al., 1988; Sgrosso, 1988; Van Dijk et al., 2000; Alberti et al., 2001; 132 Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014). Structurally, the two most recent studies interpreted Monte Alpi 133 as comprised of Apulian carbonates either forming a push-up structure (Van Dijk et al., 2000) 134 or as the product of complex thin- and thick-skinned tectonics (Shiner et al., 2004; Mazzoli et 135 al., 2006, 2014).

136 According to their inferred age of activity, La Bruna et al. (2017) recognized six different 137 structural networks and documented two main sets of high-angle faults pre-dating Early-138 Middle Pliocene emplacement of the allochthon over the Mesozoic carbonates and their 139 Upper Miocene cover (Cello and Mazzoli 1998; Buttler et al., 2004). The two high-angle fault 140 sets formed an almost orthogonal fault system, which developed during either Cretaceous 141 strike-slip and dip-slip tectonics (Pieri and Laviano, 1989; Festa et al., 2003; Mazzoli et al., 142 2006; Bertok et al., 2012; Tavani et al., 2013; Korneva et al., 2014; Panza et al., 2015, 2016; 143 Laurita et al., 2016; Vitale et al., 2017), or Upper Miocene foreland bulging (Doglioni et al., 144 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;

149 Grandjacquet, 1963; Roda, 1965; Ogniben, 1969). The Messinian sedimentary succession is 150 stacked into two main intervals (Sgrosso et al., 1988; Ortolani and Torre, 1971; Taddei and 151 Siano, 1992; Van Dijk et al., 2000). The Lower Messinian deposits, which form a 152 paraconformity with the Lower Cretaceous carbonates, consist of up to 35 m-thick skeletal 153 grainstones and minor packstones, floatstones, rudstones and bindstones. Differently, the 154 Upper Messinian deposits, which form a 3° to 5° angular unconformity with both Lower 155 Messinian and Lower Cretaceous carbonates, include polygenic conglomerates, litharenitic 156 sandstones, and siltstones characterized by remarkable thickness and compositional 157 variations. (insert Figure 2).

158

159 **3. Data and Methods**

160 The proposed integrated approach includes a variety of methods such as geological mapping,

161 field structural and stratigraphic analyses, well log correlation, seismic profile interpretation,

162 and 3D surfaces reconstruction.

163 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.

170

171 3.2 Seismic profile interpretation

172 Interpretation of the four stacked seismic reflection profiles (courtesy of Eni) was aimed at

173 deciphering the geometry of the buried Apulian carbonates (Figure 3). Due to the general

174 poor quality of the seismic profiles, such an interpretation was compared with published well 175 log data, seismic reflection profile and isobaths maps (Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014; Nicolai and 176 Gambini, 2007). The original jpeg images were first converted into seg-y files, by using the 177 image2segy 2.2.6 Matlab script developed by the Instituto de Cièncias del Mar (Barcelona, Spain), and then imported into the MoveTM software for subsequent digitalization of the main 178 179 stratigraphic horizons and fault surfaces. Afterwards, the time-to-depth conversion was 180 computed by assigning a specific velocity value to the individual tectono-stratigraphic units 181 (Dix, 1955; Improta et al., 2000). (insert Figure 3).

182

183 *3.3 3D geological reconstruction*

184 This work involved several steps of activities aimed at reconstructing both stratigraphic and 185 tectonic surfaces pertaining to the Monte Alpi Unit. First, the Digital Elevation Model 186 (DEM), the large-scale geological map, and all the available subsurface data in jpeg format 187 were imported into Gocad®, and then georeferenced for calibration and consistency checking. 188 The imported DEM was characterized by a 20x20 m resolution. A triangulated mesh was built 189 from the DEM data points using both the Delaunay triangulation and interpolation in order to 190 obtain a continuous and optimized representation of the topography (Mallet et al., 2002). 191 Then, the georeferenced geological map was draped onto the topographic surface to obtain a 192 textured topographic surface.

In order to constrain the buried portions of the Apulian carbonates, we performed time-todepth conversion of four seismic profiles by using the GeolToolbox plugin (www.ringteam.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 (Niccolai and Gambini, 2007) were taken into account. The eight stratigraphic logs performed in

199 correspondence of the outcropping mixed carbonate-terrigenous Messinian cover were also 200 imported in GOCAD. The 3D geological model of Monte Alpi was finally obtained by 201 constructing the individual fault and stratigraphic surfaces by using the Discrete Smooth 202 Interpolation tool (Mallet, 1989; Mallet et al., 2002), which allowed to constrain on fault-fault 203 and fault-stratigraphic surfaces in the light of the aforementioned data. Both resolution and 204 convergence criteria were defined according to the protocol recommended by Caumon et al., 205 (2009).

206

207 3.4 Fault analysis

208 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 209 210 aforementioned procedure, in which the individual stratigraphic surfaces were cut by the 211 high-angle fault surfaces. Subsequently, as a first step, the total amount of throw distribution 212 (cumulative throw) was computed for each fault surface. This value corresponded to the 213 current vertical offset of the bottom Early Cretaceous surface. Then, the pre-Messinian throw 214 distribution was calculated by subtracting the amount of Early Messinian vertical 215 displacement from the cumulative throw. Similarly, the Early Messinian throw data were 216 obtained by subtracting the amount of Late Messinian vertical displacement from the pre-217 Messinian throw data. (insert Figure 4).

218

219 **4. Results**

220 4.1 Syn-sedimentary extensional faulting

221 I - Mesozoic carbonates

222 Mid-Upper Jurassic carbonates crop out only along the NW edge of Monte Alpi (Figure 5a),

223 whereas the Lower Cretaceous ones are widespread in the study area (De Lorenzo, 1895;

224 Selli, 1957; Sartoni and Crescenti, 1962; Grandjacquet, 1963; Roda, 1965; Ogniben, 1969). 225 The former carbonates consist of greyish-to- black limestones and minor dolomites, which are 226 conformably overlain by Lower Cretaceous, peritidal, whitish-to-dark grey limestones 227 showing multiple dissolution evidences such as karst solution grooves and fissures. Both 228 Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous limestone beds are quite tabular, 10's of cm- to m-thick, and 229 commonly consist of grainstones and packstones, and less frequent mudstones, wackestones, 230 bindstones, floatstones and rudstones (Dunham, 1962; Embry and Klovan, 1971). Results of 231 thin section analysis are consistent with abundance of benthic foraminifera, peloids, and 232 fenestral structures within both Jurassic and Lower Cretaceous carbonate rocks (Figures 5b-f). 233 In particular, the Jurassic limestones include cm-sized stromatoporoids (Cladocoropsis 234 mirabilis, Figure 5b), whereas the Cretaceous ones contain oolites (Figure 5c) and red algae 235 (Salpingoporella annulata, Figures 5d and f). Dolomites are petrographically heterogeneous 236 in texture, crystal size, and crystal shape (Rustichelli, personal communication); late 237 diagenetic fabric-destructive zebra (saddle) dolomites are also documented (Figure 5g). 238 Blocky calcite cement fills the pore space. Calcite veins, rare quartz veins, and dark 239 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-240 241 dipping, syn-sedimentary normal fault is documented (Figures 5a and h). There, the carbonate 242 succession shows an increase of thickness toward the major slip surface (Figures 5h and i). 243 (insert Figure 5).

244 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 (*Lithothamniun*)

249 debris with minor benthic foraminifera, echinoid plates and spines, and fragments of serpulids 250 (Ditrupa) and bivalves, collectively pointing to an inner-middle ramp depositional setting. 251 The individual limestone beds are tabular, laterally continuous, characterized by a thickness 252 variation comprised between 10's of cm and ca. 4 m, and show thinning upward trends. The 253 topmost portion of the Lower Messinian limestones is made up of thinly-bedded, bituminous, 254 planktonic foraminiferal wackestones including fish remains and intervening marl beds 255 (Figures 6b-f). The Lower Messinian limestones, which include blocky calcite cements, dark 256 stylolites, and multiple sets of calcite veins, were originally deposited in an outer ramp 257 depositional setting, which became progressively deeper with time (Taddei and Siano, 1992; 258 La Bruna et al., 2017). ENE-striking, and both NNW- and SSE-dipping, syn-sedimentary 259 normal faults are exposed along the north-eastern sector of Monte Alpi (Figures 6a and h). 260 These faults produced an accommodation space in their hanging wall in which limestone beds 261 were deposited (Figures 6h and i). The two sets of ENE-striking faults form a conjugate fault 262 system that also crosscut the Lower Cretaceous limestone rocks, causing roll over (higher dip 263 angles towards the faults) of the limestone beds located at the hanging wall of the major, 264 Early Messinian normal fault. (insert Figure 6).

265 III - Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits

266 The Upper Messinian siliciclastic beds, which respectively form both onlap and downlap 267 geometries with the high-angle faults and low-angle erosional surfaces crosscutting both 268 Lower Cretaceous and Lower Messinian limestones (Figures 7a and b), are made up of 269 conglomerates, sandstones and siltstones. The heterometric conglomerates include sub-270 rounded to flattened, polygenic pebbles (Figure 7c), whereas the litharenitic sandstones 271 contain coarse-to-thin rock fragments arranged in either parallel or cross laminated beds 272 (Figure 7d). The former rocks are located at the western and north-eastern edges of Monte 273 Alpi, whereas the sandstones throughout its north-eastern and eastern sectors (La Bruna et al.,

274 2017). The exposed Upper Messinian succession is up to ca. 300 m-thick. (insert Figure 7).
275 To better decipher its depositional architecture, multiple stratigraphic logs have been
276 measured throughout the study area. Logs #1 to #4 highlight the northward thinning of
277 conglomerates along the southern sector of Monte Alpi, whereas logs #5 to #7 show their
278 westward thinning along its eastern sector (Figure 8). (insert Figure 8).

279 By considering thickness variations of the Upper Messinian terrigenous deposits, an isopach 280 map of the Upper Messinian deposit is computed, which shows that the two maxima located 281 at the SW and NW edges of Monte Alpi are bound by the F2 and F3 Faults (Figure 9a). A 282 third, less pronounced maximum is also computed at the intersection of the two 283 aforementioned faults. In order to decipher the bedding attitude of both Lower Cretaceous and 284 Lower Messinian limestones at the onset of deposition during Upper Messinian, data are 285 restored accordingly (Figure 9b). Results are consistent with the west- and southwest-dipping 286 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 287 288 Croce area, eastern sector of Monte Alpi. (insert Figure 9).

289

290 4.2 Fault dimensional analysis

The 3D geological model constructed for the whole study area consists of a 2*10³ km³ volume that includes three stratigraphic surfaces pertaining to the Monte Alpi Unit, and fortythree 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 twentyseven fault surfaces are sorted into the following five sets: Set 1 - NW-SE faults with throws between 100 and 1,300 m;

298 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.

Results of mesoscale structural analysis performed at specific outcrops have been used to better constrain both attitude and kinematics of individual fault sets, as well as to document their relative abutting and crosscutting relationships (Figure 11). Sets 1 and 2 mainly consist of left-lateral, strike-slip faults, which were then re-activated as normal faults during the latest exhumation stages (La Bruna et al., 2017). Sets 3 and 4 comprise normal faults likely reactivated as reverse faults during Early Pleistocene times (Van Dijk et al., 2000), whereas Set 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. $D: \pm 50m$ (F1, F2, F3

and F5 Faults), $\pm 10m$ (F4 Fault), $\pm 5m$ (F6, F7, F9 and F12 Faults), $\pm 2m$ (F8 Fault), $\pm 1m$

315 (F11 Fault), and ± 0,5m (F10 Fault). L: ± 50m (F1, F2, F3, F5, F11 and F12 Faults), ± 25m

316 (F4, F6, F7, F8, F9 and F10 Faults).

Results of throw-length computations are consistent with different shapes of the fault throw profiles (Fig. 12). In fact, both F10 and F3 faults show symmetric, bell-shaped profiles, 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).

326 F1 Fault (Set 2): the post-Early Messinian throw profile shows an asymmetric shape, with

327 values increasing towards the NNW edge; along the central portion of the fault, the profile is

328 flat-topped. The Early Messinian throw profile does not record any displacement, whereas the

329 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 flattopped 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 mthrow.

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 maximumof ca. 50 m-throw.

367 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.

370 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

372 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.

374

375 4.4 Fault scaling properties

376 Based upon the fault throw profiles shown above, the maximum computed vertical 377 Displacement (D) - Length (L) data for the twelve faults (Table 2) that dissect the exposed 378 Monte Alpi Unit are plotted in a log-log diagram (Figure 14a). As reported in the first section 379 of the manuscript, the slope of the computed power law, best-fit line corresponds to the 380 growth line of individual, isolated faults (Cartwright et al., 1995). As a result, a *n* value of ca. 381 1 is computed for the pre-Messinian faults. We note that a *n* value of ca. 0.8 is computed for 382 the three faults active during Lower Messinian (Figure 14b), which is obviously not 383 statistically significant due to the small number of data points (Massot et al., 2002). 384 Differently, a *n* value of ca. 1.5 was computed for the post-Early Messinian fault growth line 385 (Figure 14c). (insert Table 2 and Figure 14).

386

5. Data interpretation and discussion

388 5.1 Fault growth mechanisms

389 The most pronounced strike variations are computed for Set 1 Faults (Table 1). Assuming that 390 these faults developed by mean of subsidiary, extensional faults localized at their releasing 391 jogs and/or at the extensional quadrants of mode-II edges (Segall and Pollard, 1980, 1983; 392 Mollema and Antonellini, 1999; Myers and Aydin, 2004; Flodin and Aydin, 2004; Agosta 393 and Aydin, 2006; Antonellini et al., 2008; Agosta et al., 2010; Aydin et al., 2010), these 394 variations could be due to either Early Pleistocene or Middle Pleistocene strike-slip tectonics. 395 In fact, many authors assessed the occurrence of strike-slip along NW-SE striking faults 396 exposed in the study area, and its surrounding regions, during Quaternary times (Knott 1987;

397 Carbone et al., 1991; Monaco and Tansi, 1992; Oldow et al., 1993; Monaco and Tortorici, 398 1998; Cello and Mazzoli, 1998; Tavarnelli and Pasqui, 2000; Van Dijk et al., 2000; Lentini et 399 al., 2002; Mazzoli et al., 2006, 2014; La Bruna et al., 2017). Bearing the aforementioned 400 interpretation in mind, the modalities of growth of the Monte Alpi extensional fault network 401 are discussed hereafter by considering the computed fault throw profiles. Bell-shaped, flat-402 topped, and asymmetric cumulative fault throw profiles (Figure 12) indicate presence of 403 isolated fault segments that likely interacted with each other during deformation (Muraoka 404 and Kamata, 1983; Barnet et al., 1987; Walsh and Watterson, 1987, 1988, 1990; Peacock and 405 Sanderson, 1991; Cowie and Scholz, 1992a; Cartwright et al., 1995; Huggings et al., 1995; 406 Nicol et al., 1996; McLeod et al., 2000; Manighetti et al., 2001; Schlagenhauf et al., 2008). 407 A more detailed interpretation of the growth mechanisms can be deciphered by considering 408 the pre-Messinian, Early Messinian, and post-Early Messinian fault throw profiles (Figure 409 13), and the results of stratigraphic field logging (Figure 8), Upper Messinian isopach map 410 computation (Figure 9), and detailed field structural analyses (Figures 5 to 7). The pre-411 Messinian fault network was comprised of Sets 1, 2, and 3 faults, respectively striking NW-412 SE, NNW-SSE, and ENE-WSW. Among all the inferred syn-sedimentary Early Cretaceous 413 faults, the greatest throw values were computed for Set 1 faults. The computed throw data for 414 Sets 1 and 2 faults show that they were likely comprised of original, isolated fault segments,

415 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).

435 The pre-Messinian, likely Early Cretaceous in age, fault system was re-activated during onset 436 of the Monte Alpi foreland basin system, as suggested by both computed (Figure 13) and 437 measured structural data (Figures 6a, h, i). This fault system included either isolated (ie. F5 438 and F12 faults), or interacting faults (ie. F3 Fault), which were characterized by flat-topped 439 and asymmetric profiles, respectively. Focusing on post-Early Messinian times, all faults 440 pertaining to the Monte Alpi network show evidences of slip. The computed *n* value is about 441 1.5 (Figure 14c). This value, which is significantly greater than those computed for both pre-442 Messinian and Early Messinian faults, is therefore consistent with a scale-dependent geometry 443 of the post-early Messinian fault network (Watterson, 1986; Walsh and Watterson, 1988; 444 Cowie and Scholz, 1992a,b; Scholz et al., 1993; Schlische et al., 1996; Kim and Sanderson, 445 2005; Schultz et al., 2008).

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

447 quite common in the modelled fault system (Figures 10, 14e). In fact, these types of 448 intersection characterize F6, F7 and F8 faults, which are bounded on both sides by the F4 and 449 F5 and the F5 and F8 faults, respectively. On the other hand, the bounding F4 and F5 faults 450 intersect southward the F3 fault also forming T-shaped intersections. Among these, we focus 451 on the detailed throw profile analysis of both F7 and F5 faults (Figure 14e), which downdrop 452 the same block but unfortunately do not show very significant evidences of mechanical 453 interaction (Walsh et al., 2003). Differently, the T-shaped intersection formed by both F5 and 454 F3 faults is characterized by a marked increases of vertical displacement in the zone where 455 the two fault footwalls coincide (Fig. 14e). Y-shaped intersections are investigated by 456 considering small (ca. 30°) and large (ca. 130°) alpha angles (Maerten et al., 1999). The 457 former case is displayed by the F11 Fault intersecting against the F4 Fault (Fig 14e). There, a 458 pronounced increase of vertical displacement occurs in the zone where the two fault footwalls 459 coincide (Fig. 13). The latter case if formed by the F12 Fault intersecting the F5 Fault (Fig. 460 14e), but the two fault throw profiles do not show any variation in coincidence of the 461 intersection line (Fig. 13).

462

463 5.2 Implication for the evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system

464 Results of the integrated field and laboratory analyses are consistent with a pre-Messinian 465 orthogonal fault system made up of isolated, interacting faults (Figure 15). During Early 466 Messinian times, with ongoing roll-back of the Apulian Platform (Royden et al., 1993; 467 Doglioni, 1999), shallow-water marine basins characterized by anoxic conditions (Taddei and 468 Siano, 1992) formed within the back-bulge deposition zone of the Inner Apulian Platform 469 (Patacca et al., 1992; Critelli et al., 2011; Vitale et al., 2012) or, alternatively, within outer 470 secondary basins (sensu Flemings and Jordan, 1989). According to both basin geometry and 471 infill, similar conclusions were proposed for the Sunda shelf region, Indonesia (Ben Avraham

472 and Emery, 1973), the Cordilleran foreland basin, USA (DeCelles and Burden, 1992; Plint et 473 al., 1993) and the Taranaki foreland basin, New Zealand (Holt and Stern, 1994). The Early 474 Messinian basin of Monte Alpi was mainly bounded by re-activated Set 1 (NW-SE) and Set 3 475 (ENE-WSW) faults. Activity of an orthogonal fault system during the earliest stages foreland 476 basin systems evolution was already documented by Tavani et al. (2015b) in the Prenestini 477 Mt. of central Apennines, Italy, and interpreted as due to along-foredeep stretching (Tavani et 478 al., 2015a). This process commonly takes place in correspondence of curved orogens 479 (Doglioni, 1995; Zhao and Jacobi, 1997; Whitaker and Engelder, 2006), such as the southern 480 Apennines FTB (Locardi, 1988).

481 Differently, the erosional surface topping the Early Messinian limestones possibly formed in 482 the forebulge (Figure 15), which is an area commonly characterized by a significant uplift 483 (DeCelles and Giles, 1996), and considered as a non-depositional and/or erosional zone 484 (Flemings and Jordan, 1989; Crampton and Allen, 1995). On the basis of the restored bottom 485 Late Messinian surface (Figure 61), a structural horst bounded by Set 1 faults formed at that 486 time. This deformation caused emersion, and partial erosion, of both Mesozoic and Lower 487 Messinian carbonates. Subsequently, the stratigraphy of the Late Messinian deposit also 488 suggests that nucleation of the Monte Alpi foredeep basin was controlled by re-activation of 489 Set 3 faults (ENE-WSW), whereas as shown by the computed fault throw profiles its later 490 development was mainly due to activity of Set1 fault (NW-SE).

491 According to Walsh et al. (2002), we interpret that the steeper slope of the post-Early 492 Messinian fault growth line with respect to both pre-Messinian and Early Messinian lines 493 (Figures 14a to c) reflects the higher degree of maturity of the post-Early Messinian fault 494 network (Cartwright et al., 1995; Nicol et al., 1996; Gupta and Scholz, 2000), and/or the 495 pronounced lithostatic loading that occurred during post-Messinian times (Mazzoli et al., 496 2006). Focusing on Late Messinian times, the foredeep basin was characterized by isolated

497 depocenters, in which up to 600 m-thick terrigenous sediments were deposited (Monaco et al., 498 1998; cf. well 2 of Figure 2). Compared to the 1,000's m-thick Lower Pliocene (Casero, 2004; 499 Shiner et al., 2004) and Upper Pliocene-Lower Pleistocene foredeep infills (Balduzzi et al., 500 1982, Casnedi, 1988a, b), the Late Messinian succession is interpreted as due to a first-order 501 stage of forebulge progradation (Catuneanu, 2004), which occurred during thrusting of the 502 outermost portions of the southern Apennines FTB (Marabini and Vai, 1985; Cavazza and 503 DeCelles, 1998; Vitale and Ciarcia, 2013). It can be therefore argued that the Messinian 504 foreland basin system of Monte Alpi developed during a rapid migration of the southern 505 Apennines FTB, which triggered a predominant elastic response to flexure of the Apulian 506 plate due to the low amount of its tectonic load (Crampton and Allen, 1995; DeCelles and 507 Giles, 1996; Catuneanu, 2004). (insert Figure 15).

508

509 6. Conclusions

510 The present work combined geological field mapping and stratigraphic logging with 511 subsurface seismic and well log data interpretation to perform the 3D geological 512 reconstruction of the Monte Alpi area, southern Italy. The goals were the assessment of both 513 growth mechanisms and scaling properties of the pre-Pliocene fault network, and the 514 understanding of the structural control played by high-angle extensional faults on the time-515 space evolution of the Messinian foreland basin system. Field analyses were aimed at 516 assessing the stratigraphy of the Messinian mixed carbonate-terrigeneous deposits, and at 517 documenting Early Cretaceous, Early Messinian, and Late Messinian syn-sedimentary faults. 518 Seismic reflection profiles and well logs were interpreted in order to decipher the geometry of 519 the topmost surface of the Monte Alpi Unit. Results of both surface and subsurface analyses 520 were then input in Gocad® to perform the 3D geological reconstruction of the Monte Alpi 521 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.
- 545 The complex tectonic evolution that affected the study area since Early Pliocene times 546 profoundly modified the aforementioned structural configuration, and partially obliterated

547 the original fault network. However, the results presented in this work shed a new light 548 into the structural control exerted by inherited faults on the development of the Messinian 549 foreland basin system of Monte Alpi. Further analysis focused on the sedimentological 550 and petrographic characterization of the Messinian mixed carbonate-terrigeneous deposits 551 are required to better assess the geometry of the depositional environments, and their 552 relationships with the bounding high-angle faults.

553

554 Acknowledgments

555 The present work is part of the first author's Ph.D. Thesis Dissertation. Authors want to thank 556 Enrico Tavernelli and an anonymous reviewer for their advices and their helpful correction on 557 the paper manuscript. VLB acknowledges Stefano Mazzoli, Italo Sgrosso, Marcello 558 Schiattarella, Jean Borgomano, Sergio Longhitano and Carlos Pirmez for their thoughtful and 559 constructive discussions. The first author also acknowledges the great support provided by 560 Paola Castelluccio, Alessandro Giuffrida, Arturo La Bruna, Andrea Rustichelli, Anthony Tendill, Christophe Matonti, and Sebastien Chatelée during field and laboratory analyses. 561 562 This work was supported by the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR), and 563 by the Reservoir Characterization Project, a consortium of universities and energy companies 564 (www.rechproject.com). ENI is acknowledged for providing seismic reflection data pertaining 565 to the Monte Alpi and surrounding areas.

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- 941

942 Figure caption

943

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 bibliograpy (*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.

953

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.

959

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 cutoff of the bottom Lower-Cretaceous, Early Messinian and Late Messinian surfaces. (b)Throw
profile computational process on the F1 Fault.

964

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.

971

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, synsedimentary normal fault.

976

977 Figure 7. (a) Outcrop view of the Solarino site (western edge of Monte Alpi). There, the 978 Upper Messinian conglomerates form an onlap geometry with respect to the NNW-SSE 979 striking F11 Fault, which is therefore interpreted as Late Messinian in age. (b) North-eastern 980 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 981 982 the Lower Messinian carbonates. (c) Close up view of the Solarino site, where flattened-983 polygenic conglomerates pertaining to the Upper Messinian deposit are exposed. (d) outcrop 984 view of the Canale del Grillone site (western sector), where Upper Messinian laminated 985 sandstones crop out.

986

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.

989

990 Figure 9. (a) Isopach map computed for the Upper Messinian terrigenous deposit. Data are 991 reported in meters. White lines represent the traces of the modelled Monte Alpi simplified 992 fault network. (b) Lower hemisphere, equal area projections of both poles and planes related 993 to unrestored and restored bottom Late Messinian surfaces. Bedding plane data were gathered 994 in the field from both western (Canale del Grillone) and eastern (Santa Croce) sectors of 995 Monte Alpi. The cartoons show the unrestored and restored geological cross-sections 996 elaborated for the study area. Data were restored according to the attitude of Upper Messinian 997 beds.

998

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.

1005

1006 Figure 11. (a) Outcrop view of the N-S striking F1 Fault, which bounds the north-western 1007 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 1008 1009 indicators, such as calcite fibers and abrasion striae, are visible along the main slip surface. 1010 (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 1011 1012 are visible. (e) Outcrop view of the F10 fault, which crosscut Lower Messinian carbonates. 1013 The inset shows the small veneer of cataclasites present along the polished slickenside;

1014

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.

1019

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=0.07 $x^{0.9}$; R²=0.42), (**b**) Early Messinian faults (y=0.06 $x^{0.8}$; R²=0.86), and (**c**) post-Early Messinian faults (y=0.08 $x^{1.5}$; R²=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.

1030

1031 Figure 15. Time/space evolutionary model proposed for the Monte Alpi foreland basin 1032 system. The faults active during the main tectonic stages are illustrated in the 3D block 1033 diagrams, in which the geometry of the sedimentary depocenters is also reported.

1034

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.

1042

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	Ш	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	Ш	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	Ш	342	336.5	323	77.6	74.1	69.2	345	/	/
F7	Ш	159.1	157.2	155.5	79.8	73.5	67.9	1	/	/
F8	Ш	155.3	155.1	154.9	89.1	88.3	87.9	1	/	/
F9	I	38.6	29.3	25.5	68.1	65.4	64.1	1	/	/
F10	IV	203.1	23.3	22.5	89.6	89.3	87.6	204	23	1°
F11	11	76.9	74.1	70	87.4	85.6	81.5	70	260	10°
F12	111	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	1	/	/
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	1	/	/
F16	IV	107.2	92.8	77.3	65.8	64	62.7	1	/	/
F17	II	76.2	72.5	68.9	74.2	67.7	62.3	1	/	/
F18	II	75.9	70.5	66.9	71.7	64.4	58.8	1	/	/
F19	I	226.1	225.1	224	78.2	77.4	75.6	1	/	/
F20	v	112.2	109.3	108.1	79.6	78.6	76.8	1	/	/
F21	v	19.7	17.9	13.8	73.9	72.2	71.1	1	/	/
F22	Ш	325.7	319.8	307.3	85.3	81.5	77.5	1	/	/
F23	II	251.4	249.7	245.8	87.5	86.8	85.9	1	/	/
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	1	/	/
F26	Ш	344.5	14.4	10.6	87	83.7	78.3	1	/	/
F27	L.A.N.F.	135.2	86.3	53.6	25.5	22.4	18	1	/	/

	$\overline{\Omega}$		NILICODIDI	ר
A		NAME	LENGTH (km)	VERTICAL FAULT THROW (km)
		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
	ż	F5b	1,5	0,08
	Ч.	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
		F3	1,5	0,1
	Σ	F5	4	0,15
		F12	1	0,05
		F1	6,2	0,9
		F2a	3	0,6
		F2b	4	1,4
		F2c	2	0,25
		F3	4,5	0,8
	Ξ	F4	4,8	0,5
	P.E	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























CUMULATIVE THROW PROFILES



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







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;