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A Cenozoic shift from extensional to strike-slip tectonics in the central Mediterranean Sea

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Abstract

High-resolution 3D seismic reflection data, structural interpretations and expansion index analyses are combined in this work to explain the mechanisms that drove a newly discovered shift from extensional to strike-slip tectonics in the central Mediterranean region. In the Croton Basin, Early Pliocene extension predominated at first as proven by the nucleation of N- to NE-striking normal faults bounding half-graben basins and tilt blocks. Fault length reached ~13 km, with associated half-grabens being 5 to 8 km wide and up to 2.5 s TWT deep. Extensional tectonics at this stage followed tectonic collision between the Calabrian margin and the Apulian foreland; the removal of dense lithospheric mantle induced sharp elevation gradients and a rapid uplift of continental crust in the study area, promoting isostatic imbalances that ultimately led to extensional orogenic collapse. This same phase of extension was accompanied by the reactivation of inherited fault systems, which occurred together with the forward migration of the Calabrian Arc and oceanization of the Tyrrhenian Sea. Conversely, normal-oblique to strike-slip faulting has predominated offshore Croton since the Late Pliocene as recorded by the development of elongated (up to ~ 22 km long) and narrow (~ 3 km wide) NW-trending pull-apart basins. Structural styles have since then been influenced by rheological contrasts between the continental Apulian foreland and Ionian oceanic lithosphere, which activated a broad WNW-striking shear corridor. As a corollary of this work, modern structural and kinematic evidence indicates that fault segments within this shear corridor are arranged in an *en echelon* geometry and act as conjugate structures accommodating the progressive fragmentation of the overriding Apulian plate. On a broader scale of analysis, the transition from pure extension to strike-slip tectonics documented offshore Croton is associated with the differential subduction of heterogeneous foreland domains, a phenomenon that reflects the dynamic evolution of the central Mediterranean backarc system as a whole.

Keywords: Central Mediterranean Sea, Calabria, Strike-slip, Extension, Tectonics, Croton Basin.

1. Introduction

Normal faults are the hallmark structures of continental rifting, evolving as the lithosphere is progressively thinned due to the interplay between tectonic forces and inherited lithospheric heterogeneity (Jackson and McKenzie, 1983; Ebinger et al., 1993; Gawthorpe and Leeder, 2000; Brune et al., 2023; Civile et al., 2024). As rifting localizes, brittle deformation is preferentially accommodated via the nucleation and growth of normal faults, a process that marks a fundamental change from a stable plate interior to nascent plate boundaries (Jackson and McKenzie, 1983; Peacock and Sanderson, 1991; Elliott et al., 2017; Strugale and Cartwright, 2022; Brune et al., 2023). Importantly, normal faults can also develop during orogenic fragmentation, i.e. in the context of compressional tectonics and orogenesis (Dewey, 1988; Rossetti et al., 2005; Cavalcante et al., 2024; Pollock, 2025), whereby a combination of gravitational body forces acting on overthickened crust, thermal weakening and crustal delamination, are able to drive extensional deformation over previously accreted lithosphere (Bird, 1978; Sawyer, 1985; Dewey, 1988; England and Houseman, 1988; Rossetti et al., 2005; Heron et al., 2016; Cavalcante et al., 2024; Pollock, 2025).

Extensional detachments in post-orogenic settings are often localized along inherited weakness zones, which are reactivated when lithospheric thickening changes to gravitational spreading and tectonic extension (Dalmayrac and Molnar, 1981; Selverstone, 1988; Dewey, 1988; Labrousse et al., 2011; Teyssier et al., 2005; Rossetti et al., 2005; Cavalcante et al., 2024; Pollock, 2025). In some cases, normal oblique and strike-slip movements reflect the presence of lithospheric discontinuities and contrasting rheological properties between foreland domains, with both being able to cause important strain partitioning along horizontal and vertical shear components (Finetti and Del Ben 1986; Lanzafame and Bousquet 1997; Gvirtzman and Nur 1999; Argnani 2000; Doglioni et al. 2001; Rosenbaum and Lister 2004; Finetti 2005). This means that important lithospheric deformation associated with subsidence, horizontal stretching, and localized crustal thinning may arise from the lateral displacement between tectonic plates, where strike-slip fault systems are formed (Molnar and Tapponnier, 1975; Peacock and Sanderson, 1995; Tapponnier et al., 2001; Dooley and Schreurs, 2012).

The Croton Basin is a forearc basin of the central Mediterranean (southern Italy) that is also a constituting part of the Calabrian Accretionary Wedge; yet, it has been dominated by extensional and transtensional tectonics since the Pliocene (Van Dijk et al., 2000; Massari and Prosser, 2013; Zecchin et al., 2020; Civile et al., 2022; Mangano et al., 2022; 2023a; 2024) (**Figure 1a,b**). The presence, in the Croton Basin, of normal faults with orientations that differ markedly from Quaternary NW and NNW faults, is still poorly understood. Some of these Quaternary faults can be attributed to upper-crustal gravitational collapse (Zecchin et al., 2018; Mangano et al., 2020; 2021; 2023b; Ceramicola et al. 2024), but the majority are located far from well-known gravitational complexes, revealing kinematics indicators that are not associated to slope instability.

The aim of this study is to discriminate between Early Pliocene and younger faults in the Croton Basin, addressing the tectonic drivers and boundary conditions that controlled their evolution. The focus is placed on the offshore sector of the Rossano–San Nicola fault zone, a NW-trending regional-scale strike-slip structure that defines the northern boundary

of the Croton Basin and evolved in connection with the southeastward migration of the Calabrian Accretionary Wedge (**Figure 1b**). Three-dimensional (3D) seismic data and a suite of exploration wells are therefore used in this work to address three fundamental research questions:

- a) What are the kinematic differences between Early Pliocene and Late Pliocene-Quaternary fault systems?
- b) How do fault geometries, orientations, and associated syn-tectonic strata relate to differing tectonic regimes?
- c) What role did orogenic processes and lithospheric heterogeneity play in localizing deformation during the tectonic evolution of the Calabrian Arc?

Answers to these questions are contextualized within the broader geodynamic framework of the central Mediterranean, and add crucial information regarding the complex evolution of this region (**Figure 1**).

2. Geological setting

2.1 Tectonic Framework of the Calabrian Accretionary Wedge

The central Mediterranean region is one of the most complex and dynamic subduction systems of the Alpine-Mediterranean belt, having been shaped throughout the Cenozoic by slab retreat, back-arc extension, and plate convergence (Dewey et al. 1989; Guerrera et al. 1993, 2012; Schettino and Turco 2011; Guerrera and Martín-Martín 2014; Hosseinpour et al. 2016; Royden and Faccenna, 2018; van Hinsbergen et al. 2020; Critelli and Criniti 2021; Critelli et al., 2021; Critelli and Martín-Martín 2022, 2024; Belayouni et al. 2023). Against this backdrop, the subduction zone that marks the modern boundary between the Eurasia and Africa plates runs parallel to the North African coast from Cyprus to Southern Greece, turning northward at the eastern part of the central Mediterranean, in the Ionian Sea (Faccenna et al., 2001; 2004; Minelli and Faccenna, 2010; Polonia et al., 2011). The geodynamic history of the central Mediterranean is *per se* closely related, for the past 50 Ma, to episodes of retreat and rollback of its NW-dipping oceanic lithosphere, and has led to orogenic accretion along the Kabylia (Algeria), Calabrian and Apennine (Italy) mountain ranges. Importantly, the opening of the back-arc Liguro-Provençal and Tyrrhenian basins occurred further west at the same time tectonic convergence ensued (Malinverno and Ryan, 1986; Royden, 1993; Chaumillon and Mascle, 1997; Wortel and Spakman, 2000; Faccenna et al., 2001; 2004; Minelli and Faccenna, 2010; Polonia et al., 2011).

The Calabrian Accretionary Wedge (CAW), located in the northern part of the Ionian Sea near Italy, is a SE-verging tectonic domain of a subduction system that resulted from the scraping of the descending Ionian oceanic lithosphere under continental crust of the Calabrian Arc – the latter comprising an arcuate nappe-stack of ophiolites, pre-Alpine basement units, remnants of Mesozoic-Cenozoic sediments, and metamorphosed rocks (Bonardi et al., 2001; Critelli et al., 2018) (**Figure 1a**). The CAW accreted an area roughly 300 km wide to 400 km long that is located between the Maghrebides thrust belt and the Malta Escarpment to the SW, and the Apulian foreland and Apulia Escarpment to the N and the

131 NE (Rossi and Sartori, 1981; Barone et al., 1982; Finetti, 1982; Sioni, 1996; Faccenna et al.,
132 2001; 2004; Minelli and Faccenna, 2010) (**Figure 1a**). The CAW is itself limited to the SE by
133 the Mediterranean Ridge, an evolving accretionary complex resulting from ongoing
134 convergence between Africa and Eurasia, and from the concomitant southward motion of
135 the Aegean microplate (Bonardi et al., 2001; Polonia et al., 2002; Camerlenghi et al. 2020;
136 Mouslopoulou et al. 2025; Chizzini et al., 2025) (**Figure 1a**).

137 Authors such as Minelli and Faccenna (2010), Polonia et al. (2011), Gallais et al. (2012) and
138 Maesano et al. (2017) have sub-divided the CAW into four tectonic domains which, from the
139 SE to the NW, comprise: i) the Ionian foreland basin, an area made up of Mesozoic to Plio-
140 Quaternary sediments located between the Mediterranean Ridge and the Malta Escarpment,
141 inferred to be a relic of the Ionian Abyssal Plain, ii) the outer accretionary wedge, composed
142 of Messinian to Plio-Quaternary sediments representing the frontal part of the wedge, iii)
143 the inner accretionary wedge formed by pre-Messinian to Plio-Quaternary successions and
144 constituting the inner portion of the wedge, and iv) the Croton-Spartivento Basin, filled by
145 Serravallian to Quaternary deposits accumulated in a forearc position relative to the CAW
146 (**Figure 1a,c**). In addition to this four-fold subdivision, the CAW is partitioned into eastern
147 and western lobes, which present differences in tectonic architecture and structural
148 complexity. These two lobes are separated by the Ionian Fault System, a major structural
149 lineament that acts as a first-order boundary within the CAW (**Figure 1a**).

150

151 2.2 *Miocene evolution of the Croton Basin*

152 The Croton Basin is separated from the Spartivento Basin by the Punta Stilo Swell
153 (Mangano et al., 2022) and overlies both inner accretionary-wedge sediments and crystalline
154 basement rocks (Rossi and Sartori, 1981; Minelli and Faccenna, 2010) (**Figure 1a,b**). Its origin
155 dates to the Middle Miocene (Serravallian), when continental rifting migrated from the
156 western margin of the Sardinia-Corsica block to the southeast after the end of the Liguro-
157 Provençal oceanic spreading phase (Kastens et al., 1988; Sartori, 1990). Its development was
158 controlled by the NW-striking Rossano–San Nicola and Petilia–Sosti fault zones, which
159 imposed distinct phases of deformation and subsidence inside the basin (Meulenkamp et
160 al., 1986; Van Dijk, 1991, 1994; Van Dijk and Okkes, 1991; Muto et al., 2014; Van Dijk et al.,
161 2000; Civile et al., 2022) (**Figure 1b**). Such structures are, in turn, confined within a broader
162 shear system, the Sibari and Catanzaro strike-slip zones, structures that were initiated in the
163 Early Pliocene and accommodated the clockwise rotation of the Calabrian Arc during its
164 southeastward migration (Del Ben et al., 2008) (**Figure 1a**).

165

166 2.3 *Messinian Salinity Crisis and related tectonic inputs*

167 The Croton Basin was significantly affected by the Messinian Salinity Crisis (MSC), which
168 followed an initial phase of tectonic extension and frontal accretion of the CAW. In the
169 geodynamic framework considered in this work, the MSC was triggered by the progressive
170 tectonic confinement and closure of the Atlantic–Mediterranean gateways (Betic and Rif
171 corridors), which severely reduced water exchange with the Atlantic Ocean and led to
172 extreme basinwide evaporative drawdown (Roveri et al., 2014; Flecker et al., 2015; Krijgsman
173 et al., 2018; Krijgsman et al., 2024). The sea-level drop associated with this crisis was enough

174 to promote the flexural rebound of the lithosphere near the CAW, thus generating strike-
175 slip faults that accommodated up to 1600 m of evaporites and produced a prominent,
176 basinwide Intra-Messinian Unconformity (IMU) dated at 5.6–5.55 Ma (DeCelles and Cavazza,
177 1995; Cavazza and DeCelles, 1998; Krijgsman et al., 1999; Hilgen et al., 2007; Govers et al.,
178 2009; Zecchin et al., 2020; Borrelli et al., 2021, 2022; Mangano et al., 2024). Evaporite
179 deposition facilitated, at the same time, the southeastward advance of the CAW by over 100
180 km along a salt-rich basal décollement (Minelli and Faccenna, 2010). The evaporitic
181 substratum also promoted the deformation of the basinal successions located at the front
182 of the Messinian evaporites, which subsequently became incorporated into the post-
183 Messinian outer accretionary wedge (Polonia et al., 2011, 2016; Gallais et al., 2012;
184 Camerlenghi et al., 2020; Chizzini et al., 2025). This phase of accretionary wedge advance was
185 then followed by a contractional/transpressional episode that was probably triggered by a
186 reduction in the wedge's taper below its critical value, as marked by a landward migration
187 of deformation and resulting out-of-sequence internal shortening in the CAW (Minelli and
188 Faccenna, 2010; Polonia et al., 2011). In the Croton Basin, this tectonic phase is expressed
189 by the development of the Upper Messinian Unconformity (UMU) at 5.42 Ma. Importantly,
190 it also marks the transient coupling between the northeastern Calabrian Arc and the Apulian
191 margin at the very end of the Miocene (Massari and Prosser, 2013; Zecchin et al., 2013, 2020)
192 (**Figure 2**).

193 194 2.4 Pliocene-Quaternary evolution

195 Backarc extension related to Ionian plate subduction started in the study area after the
196 late Messinian contractional/transpressional events as the Vavilov sub-basin opened in the
197 Tyrrhenian back-arc (**Figure 1a**). Seafloor spreading occurred at first in the Vavilov sub-basin
198 at around 4.3 Ma, recording a fast extensional rate of 8 cm/yr (Guillaume et al., 2010). At the
199 same time, the CAW witnessed fast frontal growth above the weaker Messinian salt, thus
200 reducing the accretionary wedge's taper angle, lowering the topographic slope, and
201 increasing its total length by more than 200 km (Minelli and Facenna, 2010). This event
202 triggered important subsidence in the Croton Basin, as testified by the accumulation of up
203 to 1000 m of Zanclean mudstones (Zecchin et al., 2012; 2015; 2020) (**Figure 3**).

204 After another (Pliocene) phase of contractional/transpressional tectonics, which resulted
205 in the development of the basinwide Mid-Pliocene Unconformity (MPCU; Basso et al., 2021;
206 Zecchin et al., 2015, 2020) (**Figure 2**) and the concomitant onset of large mass-transport
207 complexes (Zecchin et al., 2018; Mangano et al., 2020; 2021; 2022; 2023a; b; 2024), the
208 Croton Basin experienced a phase of tectonic stretching in the Piacenzian (latest Pliocene).
209 This phase was contemporaneous with the final episode of ocean spreading in the Vavilov
210 sub-basin, which probably ended at ~2.6 Ma (Feraud, 1990). It led to the accumulation of
211 the lower part of the Cutro Clay in the distal parts of the Croton Basin (Zecchin et al., 2006;
212 2012) (**Figure 2**). This latest Pliocene pulse of subsidence was again interrupted by a local
213 contractional episode at the start of the Quaternary, in the early Gelasian (ca. 2.4 Ma), as
214 marked by an Early Pleistocene unconformity (EPSU). Contractional tectonics was likely
215 associated with the end of the movement of northern Calabria towards the Apulian plate. It

also marked the end of the Vavilov sub-basin's development (Zecchin et al., 2012; Basso et al., 2021).

Rapid tectonic subsidence continued during the middle Gelasian in parallel with the ultra-fast opening of the Marsili sub-basin, with spreading rates reaching up to 19 cm yr^{-1} at this time (Nicolosi et al., 2006; Guillaume et al., 2010). As a result, a $\sim 20^\circ$ clockwise rotation and southeastward migration of the Calabrian Arc occurred at this time due to trench rollback and back-arc extension (Sagnotti, 1992; Scheepers et al., 1994; Speranza et al., 2000, 2011; Mattei et al., 2004, 2007; Nicolosi et al., 2006; Mattei et al., 2004, 2007; Chiarabba et al., 2008; Zecchin et al., 2012). Subsequently, transpressional NW-striking shear zones were formed to accommodate the differential motion between the northern and southern sectors of the Calabrian Arc. Marked stratigraphically by a Mid-Pleistocene Unconformity (MPSU) dated at $\sim 1.1 \text{ Ma}$, such an accommodation was made easier by the presence of lithospheric-scale tear faults at the boundary between the Apulian and Ionian forelands (Del Ben et al., 2008; Zecchin et al., 2012, 2015).

A final episode of transtensional tectonics linked to a renewed, low rate spreading of the Marsili sub-basin occurred after 1.1 Ma. Rapid tectonic uplift affected the Croton Basin soon after at $\sim 0.45 \text{ Ma}$, with diverse mechanisms being proposed for its onset. These include slab break-off and isostatic rebound (Spakman, 1986; Wortel and Spakman, 2000), whereas convective removal of the lithospheric root has been proposed by Doglioni (1991) and Gvirtzman and Nur (2001) amongst other authors.

3. Data and methods

3.1 Seismic and borehole data

The main dataset in this work is part of a post-stack time-migrated (PSTM) 3D seismic volume provided by ENI Natural Resources. It covers part of the offshore sector of the Croton Basin, spanning an area of c. 535 km^2 of the continental shelf and slope off Calabria (**Figures 1 and 3**). The seismic cube consists of 4,652 inline and 2,908 crossline traces with a regular inline and crossline spacing of 15 m.

The imaging window of the seismic data is 5.0 s two-way time (TWT), while each seismic trace has 1251 samples and was sampled at an interval of 4 ms. Based on the borehole data used in this study, average interval velocities were estimated at approximately 1,800 m/s for Unit A, 2,300 m/s for Unit B, and 3,300 m/s for Unit U (see section 4.1). By also estimating a dominant frequency of $\sim 48 \text{ Hz}$, within a bandwidth range of approximately 2.75 Hz to 80 Hz, vertical resolution was calculated to vary from $\sim 9.4 \text{ m}$ in Unit A to $\sim 17.2 \text{ m}$ in the deeper Unit U.

Two key seismic horizons, H1 and H2, together with the seafloor, were mapped and correlated to the regional stratigraphic framework based on data from nine (9) exploration wells and the tectono-stratigraphic scheme of Critelli (1999), Zecchin et al. (2020) and Mangano et al., (2023a) (**Figures 2, 3 and 4**). These horizons were selected because they show characteristic high-amplitude signatures that can be traced consistently across the entire study area, enabling a clear separation between the Early Pliocene and Late Pliocene–Recent intervals. They effectively bracket the temporal window of importance to this study. Essential lithological descriptions and depth measurements from the rotary table (RT) were extracted from these wells, allowing for an accurate time-depth conversion and calibration

of the seismic horizons. These borehole data enabled a robust correlation of H1 and H2 with the regional stratigraphic framework.

3.2 Seismic Interpretation

Seismic interpretation was completed in the time domain using Schlumbergers' Petrel®. The analysis was guided by the seismic-stratigraphic principles in Mitchum et al. (1977), which emphasize the recognition of reflection patterns corresponding to lithological variations and unconformities. Key unconformities bound seismic units that are distinguished by variations in seismic facies, configuration patterns, reflector terminations, depth, and thickness.

The interpreted borehole data were imported into Schlumberger's Petrel® with their check-shots, allowing the visualization of their measured depth - defined as the depth from the rotary table (RT) - within the time domain. This integration enabled an accurate time-to-depth calibration of the seismic data, and precise correlations between seismic reflectors and well data. For units not fully penetrated by exploration wells, their ages and lithologies were derived from published work on the Croton Basin's stratigraphy (Critelli, 1999; Zecchin et al., 2020; Mangano et al., 2023a) (**Figure 2**).

Faults were interpreted according to breaks in continuity (and associated offsets) of seismic reflectors. Although seismic amplitude displays are routinely used to trace out faults in profiles, other seismic attributes such as variance were applied, especially in plan view. Variance measures the degree of contrast between seismic traces and transforms a volume characterized by seismic continuity into one that emphasizes discontinuities, effectively delineating structural and stratigraphic boundaries (Brown, 2004). Knowing that faults reveal themselves in seismic data as trace-to-trace variations, they are identified in areas characterized by high variance coefficients. A total of 12 major faults were interpreted across the study area, with their orientation graphically displayed in a rose diagram.

The interpretations of horizons and faults were further used to generate structural surfaces and thickness maps, providing insights into basin architecture and deformation history.

3.3 Fault growth analyses using the Expansion Index (EI) method

Fault activity was assessed via measuring their Expansion Indices, a quantitative approach that assesses the growth history and nucleation of normal faults (Thorsen, 1963, McCulloh, 1988; Edwards, 1995). Expansion Index (EI) is defined as the ratio of the stratigraphic thickness of a seismically resolved unit on a fault's hanging-wall depocenter relative to its thickness on immediate footwall blocks (Thorsen, 1963; Pochat et al., 2009). The method provides a robust way to assess fault activity through the systematic measurement of syn-tectonic strata thickness accumulated near mapped faults. Hence, an EI value of 1 indicates no variations in stratigraphic thickness across a fault, suggesting that it was inactive during the deposition of a given unit. Conversely, EI values greater than 1 document stratigraphic thickening on the immediate hanging-wall of a fault, i.e. they relate to fault movement during deposition (Thorsen, 1963; Cartwright et al., 1998; Rouby et al., 2003; Hongxing and Anderson, 2007). The measurement of EI across all 12 mapped faults allowed for a detailed reconstruction of fault growth patterns and their role in controlling sediment accumulation.

Data were sampled every line at the maximum resolution of 15 m as suggested by Tao and Alves (2019).

4. Results

This section gives an account of the seismic stratigraphic units offshore the Croton Basin based on the comprehensive seismic and borehole data interpreted in this work (**Figure 3**).

4.1 Seismic-stratigraphy

Horizon H1 is a high-amplitude, wavy reflector with poor lateral continuity (**Figures 5 and 6**). It is dissected by an extensional system formed by NW-oriented normal faults, which dip approximately 55–70° and define two narrow and elongated depocenters. This same extensional system defines two structural highs in the central and southwestern parts of the study area, both with a minimum TWT depth of 417 ms (**Figure 4a**). A broader depocenter occurs to the north, where it reaches a maximum TWT depth of 2651 ms (**Figure 4a**). On most of the interpreted seismic profiles, horizon H1 is sub-parallel to the strata immediately above and below (**Figures 5 and 6**).

Horizon H2 is a high-amplitude, discontinuous and deformed seismic reflector that defines structural lows and highs across the downthrown and upthrown sides of normal faults, i.e. F1 to F4 and F11 and F12 (**Figures 4b, 5 and 6**). Its TWT depth varies from 962 ms to 2983 ms (**Figure 4b**). Through most of the study area, H2 truncates its underlying strata and is overlapped by seismic reflections at its top (**Figures 5 and 6**).

Horizons H1 and H2 are both basinwide seismic-stratigraphic markers that correlate with the MPCU and UMU, respectively (**Figure 2**). They divide the imaged successions into Units A, B and U (**Figures 5 and 6**).

Unit A

Unit A consists of parallel to sub-parallel internal reflections with a variable amplitude and continuity, changing laterally into inclined and wavy reflections (**Figures 5 and 6**). Unit A tops half-grabens filled by Unit B (**Figures 5b and 6c**) and is thicker on the immediate hanging-walls of faults F7 to F10 (**Figure 6a, b**). In contrast, it has a fan-like geometry near faults F5 and F6 (**Figures 5a**). The unit is bounded at its top by the seafloor and at its base by Horizon H1 (**Figures 5 and 6**).

The thickness of Unit A varies across the study area, with values ranging from a maximum of approximately 1530 ms in fault-controlled depocenters to a minimum of 144 ms over structural highs (**Figure 7a**). The thickest accumulations are found in the northern and northwestern sectors of the study area, stressing how important was tectonic subsidence near fault F3 (**Figure 7a**). In turn, important thinning occurs in Unit A between the two later depocenters, a character highlighting the presence of NW-striking footwall blocks between depocentres. Unit A also becomes thinner towards the south (**Figure 7a**).

Based on the available borehole stratigraphic data, Unit A correlates with shelf to slope claystones and siltstones in the Cutro Clay, which have accumulated in the study area since the latest Pliocene (Piacenzian; Zecchin et al., 2020) (**Figures 2 and 3**).

Unit B

Unit B is composed of parallel to sub-parallel internal reflections with moderate continuity and low to high amplitude. They change locally into chaotic facies (**Figures 5b and 6a**). In some areas, seismic reflections present onlap and downlap terminations against Horizon H1, hinting at local sediment progradation (**Figures 5a, b, c and 6b**). Unit B is bounded at its top by Horizon H1 and at its base by Horizon H2 (**Figures 5 and 6**). It reveals growth strata on the immediate hanging-wall of normal faults (**Figure 5a, b, d**), although still presenting other important changes in thickness. In fact, Unit B records maxima in thickness near the central, southern, and northwestern sectors of the study area where it reaches values of 1425 m in well-defined depocenters (**Figure 7b**). These depocenters coincide with hanging-wall blocks formed near major N-, NNE-, and NE-striking normal faults, i.e. F1, F2, F3, F4, F11, and F12 (**Figure 7b**). Unit B is much thinner over structural highs, particularly across the uplifted footwall blocks of the latter faults, where it is absent (**Figure 7b**). The number of normal faults cross-cutting Unit B is also greater than in Unit A, with minor normal faults being observed throughout the study area within the former unit (**Figures 5 and 6**). Fault displacement within this interval is minor, however, not disrupting the continuity of seismic reflections within Unit B.

Based on the available borehole data, Unit B correlates with the Lower Pliocene shelf to slope mudstones of the Cavalieri Marl (Zecchin et al., 2020) (**Figures 2 and 3**).

Unit U

The lowermost Unit U is characterized by a diverse range of seismic reflection patterns, including transparent to high-amplitude internal reflections with variable continuity (**Figures 5 and 6**). The unit is predominantly chaotic, with internal reflections locally dipping towards the SW, SE, and NE (**Figures 5 and 6**). Its TWT thickness reaches a maximum value of c. 4.0 s, but varying significantly across the study area (**Figure 5c**). In addition, Unit U is crosscut by both low- and high-angle faults, with those extending into the deeper section being associated with the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone, as reported by Mangano et al. (2023b) and Mangano et al. (2024) (**Figures 5a and 6c**). Its upper boundary is horizon H2 (**Figures 5 and 6**).

Unit U correlates with deposits ranging in age from the Mesozoic to the Messinian based on the regional stratigraphic framework presented by Critelli (1999), Zecchin et al. (2020) and Mangano et al. (2023a), and include a thick carbonate succession with intercalated organic-rich shales. The upper part of the unit corresponds to mass-wasting deposits and shelf-to-slope mudstones, with the latter reflecting sedimentary processes associated with progressive basin subsidence and deepwater deposition (Zecchin et al., 2020) (**Figure 2**).

4.2 Fault geometry and distribution

Seismic interpretation reveals a network composed of 12 main faults (F1–F12), each with particular kinematic expressions and structural styles. Their orientations are summarized in the accompanying rose diagrams in **Figure 8a**. They all fall within the offshore prolongation of the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone (**Figures 8**). Two-way time structural maps show that faults F1 to F4, and also F11 and F12, strike predominantly to the NE, N, and NNW, bounding a series of depocenters filled by the Lower Pliocene Unit B (**Figure 4a**). In

contrast, faults F5 to F10 strike NW–SE and show variable lengths, bounding narrow, elongated depocenters that are only filled by Unit A (Late Pliocene-Quaternary) (**Figure 4b**). Faults F1, F5 and F6 are sigmoidal on variance time slices, a geometry typically found where the shear strain is partitioned in a direction parallel to the strike of the fault planes (**Figure 9**). These faults are also filled by strata with a divergent, concave-upward geometry (**Figure 5a**). When imaged together, faults F1, F5, and F6 reveal an *en echelon* geometry in map view, with well-developed splay systems or horsetail geometries at their tips (**Figure 9**). These splays are parallel to slightly oblique to the strike of master faults, suggesting localized strain partitioning near fault tips and their damage zones (**Figure 9**). The presence of releasing fault stepovers is also recognized near F7 and F8 (**Figure 6a**). Similarly, faults F7 to F10 accommodate localized transtension and led to the formation of local pull-apart sub-basins within a larger NW-striking fault zone (**Figure 6**).

Faults F2, F4, F11, and F12 are relatively straight and form nearly parallel arrays (**Figures 5b, 5c and 6c**). These faults bound tilt blocks and their adjacent half-graben basins, and are associated with drag folding in their hanging-wall domains as observed in **Figures 5b and 6c**. Selected variance time slices further confirm that faults F2 and F4 are linear and form parallel fault arrays (**Figure 10a,c**).

Seismic profiles also reveal that the upper tips of faults F2 and F12 terminate within Unit B (**Figures 5a and 6c**), while F1 and F11 extend slightly above the horizon MPCU (**Figures 5a and 6c**). In contrast, faults F3 and F4, as well as the F5–F10 fault system, propagate through Unit A in its entirety (**Figures 5a, c, d and 6a, b**).

4.3 Expansion indexes

Expansion indices (EI) for the mapped faults F1 to F12 are characterized by their marked variability (**Figure 11**). The highest EI value (5.65) was measured for fault F2, while the lowest values (0.67) were calculated for faults F9 and F10. Variations in EI across different units were also recorded for the analyzed faults. For instance, faults F1, F2, F11, and F12 reveal an increase in EI with depth, significantly exceeding 1.0 in Unit B (**Figure 11**). In contrast, faults F3 and F5 to F10 show an increase in EI towards the seafloor. Among the latter, only fault F3 shows a consistent increment in the thickness of hanging-wall strata compared to its footwall. It is worth mentioning that the highest variation in thickness from hanging-wall to footwall is recorded in Unit A (Late Pliocene-Quaternary) for fault F3. Conversely, faults F5 to F10 record EI values below 1.0 in Unit B (**Figure 11**).

5. Discussion

The interpretations in this work stress that Croton's offshore basins were affected by major tectonic pulses, resulting in contrasting fault deformation styles since the Messinian Salinity Crisis. Each tectonic pulse is best understood within the broader framework of convergence between Africa and Europe, which dominated the Late Cenozoic evolution of the central Mediterranean Sea (Chamot-Rooke et al., 2005; Faccenna et al., 2001; 2004; Minelli and Faccenna, 2010; Polonia et al., 2011; Chizzini et al., 2025). Hence, this work recognizes for the first time the effect of two main tectonic stages in the CAW - separated by an episode of contractional/transpressional tectonics – that responded to collision between the NE Calabrian Arc and Apulian foreland. The seismic-stratigraphic marker

separating these two main tectonic regimes is the MPCU - Mid-Pliocene Unconformity (Zecchin et al., 2012; 2015; 2020).

5.1 Structural and depositional expressions of distinct tectonic regimes

5.1.1 Early Pliocene

Structures and deformation styles affecting Lower Pliocene strata point out to a tectonic regime governed by interacting extensional and strike-slip faults. Evidence from seismic profiles and EI data suggest important extensional faulting just after the Miocene, whereby multiple half-grabens were filled by the Lower Pliocene Unit B (**Figures 5b, 6c and 11**). In fact, structural and stratigraphic features indicate, at this time, a tectonic regime that was primarily controlled by extension rather than pure strike-slip (**Figures 5b, 6c, and 7b**). This interpretation is also supported by the common strikes and relative parallelism of interpreted Lower Pliocene faults (**Figure 5d**), characters that contrast markedly with the conjugate or cross-cutting geometries typically observed in strike-slip fault systems (Peacock et al., 2017, Wu et al., 2018, Wu et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2025). Such parallelism in faults is evident near fault F4, where the absence of linked fault segments commonly associated with strike-slip deformation further indicates extensional tectonics as being predominant in the Croton Basin during the Lower Pliocene (**Figure 5d**). Consequently, the small-scale folds observed in the immediate hanging-wall of faults F2, F11 and F12, expressed as a gentle warping of seismic reflections, are associated with local drag folding developed during normal-fault motion (**Figures 5b and 6c**). The presence of drag folds in these areas also suggests mechanical heterogeneity and strain partitioning across faults F2, F11 and F12 (Mohammedyasin et al. 2016). All in all, such geological features - linear and parallel fault arrays, the formation of tilt blocks and local drag folds - are consistent with predominant extensional tectonics. Furthermore, the N-S and NNW-SSE- and NE-SW strikes of main fault segments are not aligned with the expected NW-SE orientation of younger, regional-scale strike-slip structures (**Figure 4a**), indicating that Early Pliocene faults are unlikely to have developed as part of the major shear zones associated with the long-term tectonic evolution of the Calabrian Arc.

A single exception to extensional faulting is recorded along fault F1, where its reactivation promoted strike-slip movement along inherited structures that pre-date Early Pliocene extensional tectonics (**Figure 5a**). Such an observation pertaining to fault F1 concurs with the model proposed in Mangano et al. (2023a); faults along F1 reveal plan-view geometries that are sigmoidal and record systematic *en echelon* segmentation (**Figure 9**). In other words, the development of localized releasing stepovers and horsetail splays observed on attribute maps are diagnostic of a normal-oblique to strike-slip reactivation of F1 within an overall extensional regime (**Figure 9a**).

5.1.2 Late Pliocene – Quaternary

Upper Pliocene to Quaternary strata comprise multiple structures documenting strike-slip deformation. These structures mark a major shift between two fault deformation styles, i.e. from extensional to strike-slip tectonics. Based on the structural styles observed in seismic data, and the estimated EI plots, strike-slip motion was initiated in the Late Pliocene when

480 faults became curved and some fault blocks (bounded by **F5 and F6**) formed pull-apart sub-
481 basins, which are recognized as negative flower structures on selected seismic profiles
482 (**Figures 5a and 9b**). Under such a transtensional regime, pull-apart sub-basins were
483 developed in the study area along faults F7, F8, F9 and F10 (**Figure 6a,b**). Adjacent to these,
484 releasing stepovers can be observed and are characterized by a notable degree of fault
485 parallelism and bending, reflecting localized zones of transtensional strain (**Figures 6a and**
486 **9a**). All these features are predominantly NW-striking (**Figure 9a**). The new pull-apart sub-
487 basins are typically narrow and elongated basins with a width/length ratio of 1:7, consistent
488 with the morphology expected for transtensional basins (Mann et al., 2007) (**Figure 4b**). In
489 such a context, the associated flower structures affecting Unit A (Late Pliocene-Quaternary)
490 are linked to releasing beds and fault stepovers with *en echelon* fault segments in plan view
491 (**Figures 5a and 9b**). Horsetail splays are additional structures suggesting strike-slip (see
492 Mann et al., 2007), and occur as: a) fault segments curving away from master faults, and b)
493 nearly linear splays that are subparallel to the principal zone of fault displacement (**Figure**
494 **9b**). The resulting divergent and variably curvilinear to subparallel fault splays reflect
495 progressive block rotation and variations in displacement direction along master faults,
496 indicating strike-slip deformation in a transtensional tectonic regime (Choi et al., 2016; Kim
497 et al., 2003, 2004; McGrath & Davison, 1995; Mouslopoulou et al., 2007; Zampieri &
498 Massironi, 2007).

499 Stratigraphically, Upper Pliocene-Quaternary strata in Unit A show variable thickness on
500 both sides of faults F5 to F10 coming from NE to SW, indicating transtensional activity along
501 this interval (**Figures 5a and 6a, b**). The extracted EI values further indicate important fault
502 activity since the Late Pliocene; faults F5 to F10 record EI values that are consistently greater
503 than 1, suggesting syn-tectonic growth (**Figure 11**). Evidence for syn-tectonic growth is also
504 documented along fault F3, which appears to have acted as a conjugate segment between
505 adjacent strike-slip structures. As shown in the variance time slice at T=1108 ms (**Figure 10b**),
506 fault F3 exhibits a nearly linear geometry, lacks oblique splays, and is limited by sigmoidal
507 fault traces that are typical of active strike-slip zones.

508

509 **5.2 Geodynamic controls on the deformation styles**

510

511 **5.2.1 Early Pliocene**

512 The formation of an extensional fault system in the Early Pliocene can be linked to
513 gravitational collapse of an overthickened block of the overriding plate, itself inherited from
514 Late Messinian contractional/transpressional tectonics. In line with the framework proposed
515 by Dewey (1988), lithospheric extension is preferentially recorded along orogenic belts due
516 to their anomalously thick continental crust, elevated topography, and internal structural
517 heterogeneities. Extensional collapse is driven by body forces acting to restore isostatic
518 equilibrium, particularly where sharp elevation gradients and rapid advective thinning of the
519 lithospheric mantle combine to enhance uplift and crustal instability. The Croton Basin,
520 located along the internal margin of the CAW, offers an ideal setting for such a gravitational
521 readjustment.

522 Crustal collapse in the Early Pliocene is therefore interpreted in this work as a direct
523 consequence of the compressional phase that affected the CAW during the Late Messinian
524 (Polonia et al., 2011; Chizzini et al. 2022; Butler, 2009; Basso et al., 2021; Volpi et al., 2017).

525 This time period was marked by basin inversion, with uplift and interruption of arc migration
526 likely driven by collision between the Calabrian Arc and the Apulian foreland, a
527 compressional regime that not only promoted thickening within the CAW but also
528 propagated stress into the foreland, leading to salt mobilization, inversion of inherited
529 extensional structures, and localized development of new deformation (Somma, 2006; Del
530 Ben et al., 2010; Massari and Prosser, 2013; Volpi et al., 2017; Zecchin et al., 2020; Cicala et
531 al., 2021; Chizzini et al., 2023). Such a compression led to rapid crustal thickening along the
532 internal margin of the Calabrian Arc, setting the conditions for later extensional faulting.

533 Seismic profiles reveal the presence of broad, structurally controlled negative features just
534 beneath faults F2, F11 and F12 where crustal thickening inferred from the Late Messinian
535 compressional phase seems to have enhanced gravitational instability (**Figures 5b and 6c**).
536 These subsiding domains, interpreted as inherited zones of lower crustal or lithospheric
537 weakness, are interpreted as the preferential loci for vertical loading, ultimately promoting
538 localized extension in response to crustal thickening. In such a setting, the formation of
539 extensional structures in the Early Pliocene reflects the mechanical response of the orogenic
540 crust to Late Messinian shortening, and gravitational spreading acted as the main driver of
541 fault nucleation and upper crustal deformation. Renewed tectonic movements along
542 inherited strike-slip structures thus relate to discrete pulses of stretching in the Croton Basin
543 that responded to the forward migration of the Calabrian Arc. They were also coeval with
544 the initial oceanization of the Vavilov sub-basin in the Tyrrhenian back-arc region (Nicolosi
545 et al., 2006; Guillaume et al., 2010; Zecchin et al., 2013; Zecchin et al., 2020).

546 547 5.2.2 Late Pliocene – Quaternary

548 The gradual imposition of a strike-slip tectonic regime after the Early Pliocene is
549 documented in the study area by the formation of horsetail splays and negative flower
550 structures that are subparallel to the strike of main faults (**Figure 9**). They are also
551 accompanied by the opening of local pull-apart sub-basins in the areas where transtensional
552 strain was accommodated (Mann et al., 2007). The linear to gently curving fault splays
553 aligned with the shear direction of master faults (e.g. faults F1, F5 and F6) are characteristic
554 of Riedel Shears (see Mann et al. 2007; Cubas and Klinger, 2020 and reference therein),
555 splaying out of strike-slip faults whenever shear is parallel to the fault plane but orthogonal
556 to the curving splays (**Figure 9b**). These structures are typically associated with asymmetric
557 stress fields. Conversely, fault splays oriented at high angles to a master fault are formed
558 wherever shear is parallel both to the fault plane and to the splay itself, and reflect a more
559 symmetric stress distribution around master faults (Atkinson, 1989; Choi et al., 2016; Dooley
560 & Schreurs, 2012; Kim et al., 2003, 2004; McGrath & Davison, 1995) (**Figure 9**).

561 The spatial distribution of horsetail splays provides valuable insights into the direction of
562 fault propagation. In particular, the occurrence of these splays on the footwall blocks
563 suggests that master faults (e.g. faults F1, F5) propagated downward (**Figure 5a**). This
564 interpretation aligns with previous studies demonstrating that horsetail splays forming in
565 hanging-wall blocks typically reflect the upward propagation of fault tips, whereas their
566 development on footwall blocks indicates a downward propagation (Friedman & Logan,
567 1970; McGrath & Davison, 1995; Del Ben et al., 2010). Hence, the geometric and spatial
568 characters of horsetail splays not only reflect localized stress distribution at the fault tip, but

also serve as kinematic markers of both the propagation direction and the oblique-slip nature of strike-slip systems.

Transtensional tectonics has dominated the study area since the Late Pliocene in the context of lateral fragmentation of the CAW's overriding slab. This resulted in varied fault displacements and the rotation of crustal blocks that are internal to the Calabrian Arc (Scheepers et al. 1993; Duermeijer et al. 1998; Van Dijk and Scheepers 1995). Normal-oblique strike-slip movements were accommodated by the Sibari and Catanzaro strike-slip faults, leading northern Calabria to change its movement from E to ESE (Del Ben et al., 2008) (**Figure 1a**). This process was controlled by the presence of two distinct foreland domains in terms of subduction resistance (i.e. continental Apulian and the oceanic Ionian), with the caveat that some authors interpret the Ionian plate as a hyper-extended continental crust (Platt and Vissers, 1989; Calvert et al., 2000).

Despite these alternative views, we favor an oceanic model in this work because recent wide-angle seismic, refraction, and potential-field data provide robust, internally consistent evidence for a thin (6–7 km), high-velocity crust and a shallow Moho beneath the Ionian Abyssal Plain - characteristics that are diagnostic of Mesozoic oceanic lithosphere. In particular, the velocity structure and Moho geometry documented by Dannowski et al. (2019) and the margin architecture and crustal affinities synthesized by Tugend et al. (2019) demonstrate that the Ionian Basin represents a preserved remnant of the Neo-Tethyan ocean domain. These findings align with earlier geophysical and geological studies supporting an oceanic crustal nature for the Ionian Basin (Finetti and Del Ben, 1986; Lanzafame and Bousquet, 1997; Gvirtzman and Nur, 1999; Argnani, 2000; Doglioni et al., 2001; Rosenbaum and Lister, 2004; Finetti, 2005). Despite the above crustal deformation processes, a relationship between transtensional tectonics along the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone and the left-lateral activation of the Sibari and Catanzaro strike-slip faults cannot be ruled out. Strike-slip movement along the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone can be referred as the development of conjugate structures in an *en echelon* arrangement with respect to the regional shear zone, which is WNW–ESE striking (**Figure 1a**). Strike-slip movements after the Lower Pliocene were also concomitant with the fast spreading of the Marsili sub-basin in the CAW's backarc region, at a rate of c. 19 mm/year (Nicolosi et al., 2006). This phase of fast ocean spreading occurred together with inception of the southern sector of the Messina Strait (Del Ben et al., 2008). Therefore, the strike-slip tectonics documented in this work reflects the rheological asymmetry of the central Mediterranean foreland. Ultimately, the contrasting mechanical behaviors of the more rigid Apulian continental lithosphere relative to the denser (but more deformable) Ionian ocean domain, provide the fundamental control on the segmentation of the overriding plate and its Calabrian Arc.

6. Conclusions

This paper investigated the various deformation styles associated with episodic tectonic pulses affecting the offshore sector of the Croton Basin after the Miocene. This was achieved via the interpretation and mapping of tectonic faults by using high-quality 3-D

610 seismic reflection data. These data were tied to stratigraphic information gathered from nine
611 (9) exploration boreholes, and were complemented by the measurement of Expansion
612 Indices (EI) to quantify fault activity. The main conclusions from this work are summarized as
613 follows:

614 a) Distributed extensional faulting started in the Early Pliocene in response to the
615 gravitational collapse of an overthickened orogenic crust. This is better documented by the
616 presence of N-striking normal faults and associated half-grabens, tilt blocks and local drag
617 folds. Such normal faults are linear in plan view.

618 b) The presence of structurally controlled negative flower structures beneath some of the
619 interpreted faults suggests a mechanical response to crustal instability inherited from Late
620 Messinian shortening. Such an extensional tectonic style marks a post-collisional response
621 to crustal overthickening produced by the convergence between the Calabrian Arc and the
622 Apulian foreland.

623 c) Following the Late Messinian contractional/transpressional phase, crustal thickening
624 and elevated topography drove vertical loading and orogenic extension along pre-existing
625 structural weaknesses. This event was also concomitant with Ionian slab rollback, fast forward
626 arc migration, and the onset of ocean spreading within the Vavilov sub-basin in the backarc
627 area of the Calabrian Arc.

628 d) A transtensional regime took over the study area in the Late Pliocene due to the
629 fragmentation of the overriding plate in response to the contrasting rheological behavior of
630 adjacent foreland domains — the Apulian continental block and the Ionian oceanic
631 lithosphere. This is demonstrated by the development of pull-apart zones and negative
632 flower structures along NW- and NNW-striking fault zones.

633 e) Structural-kinematic indicators, including sigmoidal fault traces, releasing bends,
634 horsetail splays, and *en echelon* fault arrangements, suggest a dominant normal oblique-slip
635 mechanism consistent with the transition from extensional collapse to transtensional
636 tectonics.

637 f) Notably, the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone may have acted as a conjugate structure
638 of a regional WNW-ESE fault zones, forming part of a broader pattern of oblique
639 deformation internal to the Calabrian Arc. This deformation style reflects the
640 accommodation of differential displacement rates imposed by the contrasting rheological
641 properties of the adjacent Apulian and Ionian forelands; a pattern consistent with a tectonic
642 framework governed by lithospheric heterogeneity and diachronous foreland-arc
643 interactions.

644
645 In summary, the evolution of the Croton Basin reflects the interplay between regional
646 convergence, slab rollback, and inherited structural fabrics. The transition from pure
647 extension to oblique strike-slip faulting is closely linked to the differential subduction of
648 heterogeneous foreland domains, and the dynamic evolution of the central Mediterranean
649 backarc system as a whole.

650
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656

657 Open Research

658 Data availability. All data underlying the findings of this study are fully included in the main text and supplementary materials of this
659 manuscript. Due to a confidentiality agreement with our industrial partner ENI NR, the raw data cannot be stored in a public repository.

660 Software availability. Structural modeling and visualization were performed using Petrel® software by Schlumberger. The software is
661 proprietary and was used under an academic license granted to the University of Calabria. Petrel® is not publicly available for download.
662 No custom scripts were developed for this study.

663 Conflict of interest statement

664 The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

665

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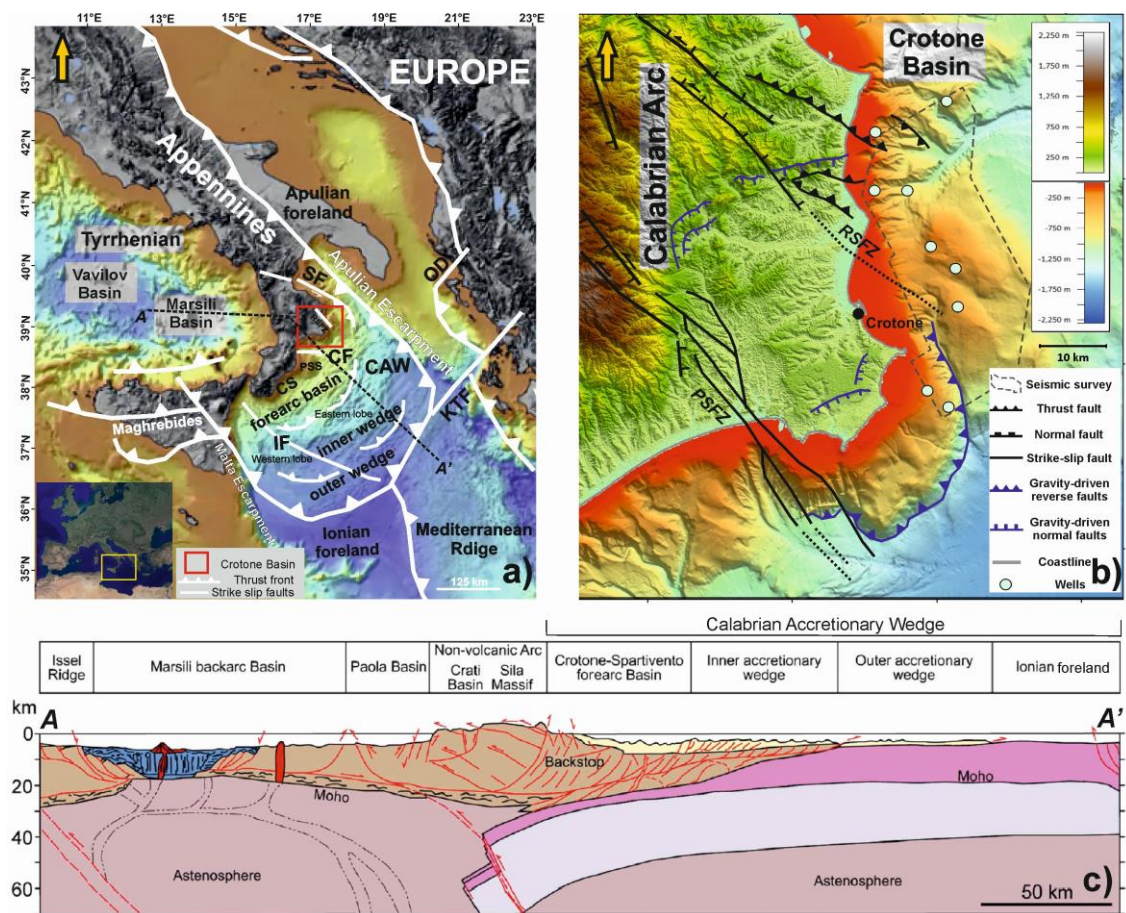
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989 **Figure 1.** a) Present-day structural map of the Central Mediterranean region showing the
990 Calabrian Accretionary Wedge and its backarc area. The inset highlights its location in the
991 middle part of the Mediterranean Sea. CAW: Calabrian Accretionary Wedge; CS: Crotona-
992 Spartivento; CF: Catanzaro Fault; IF: Ionian Fault System; KFT: Kefalonia Transfer Zone; OD:
993 Othoni-Dhermi; RSFZ: Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone; SF: Sibari Fault Source: CGMW and
994 UNESCO (2012). b) Present-day structural map of the Croton Basin, which is crosscut by the
995 two fault zones: the Rossano-San Nicola Fault Zone (RSFZ) and the Petilia Sotisi Fault Zone
996 (PSFZ). The location of the seismic volume used in this study is show in the figure. Onshore
997 data are derived from: SRTM (Shuttle Radar Topography Mission) worldwide digital elevation
998 data with 30 m (1 arc-second) resolution, released by NASA (SRTM PLUS Version 3.0) and
999 made available by the U.S. Geological Survey (<https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/search/>), and Tin Italy
1000 DEM, a digital elevation model of the whole Italian territory available as a 10 m cell size grid
1001 (Tarquini et al., 2012, 2012; http://tinity.pi.ingv.it/Download_Area2.html). Bathymetric data
1002 are derived from the EMODnet Digital Terrain Model with a 1/16 * 1/16 arc minutes grid
1003 resolution (about 115-115 m) and extracted from
1004 <https://emodnet.ec.europa.eu/en/bathymetry>. The vector data (coastline) are derived from
1005 Copernicus, which is the European Union's earth observation program based on satellite and
1006 in situ observations (<https://land.copernicus.eu/imagery-in-situ/eu-hydro/eu-hydro-river-network-database>). c) NW-SE section across the CAW, showing main structural elements and
1007 its back-arc area (modified from Van Dijk et al., 2000).
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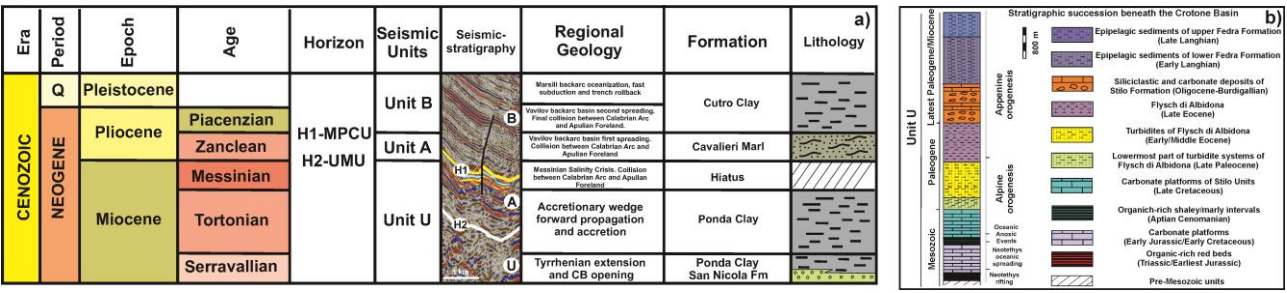


Figure 2. a) Lithological and seismic stratigraphic column with the ages, lithology, and regional tectonic events that marked the evolution of the Croton Basin from the Middle Miocene (Serravallian) to the present day. Main seismic-stratigraphic horizons interpreted in this study are named horizons H1 to H2, which correspond to the MPCU and UMU. They bound Units A, B and U. Hence, the interval of interest to this study spans from the San Nicola Formation (Serravallian) to the Cutro Clay (Piacenzian-Quaternary). b) Triassic–upper Langhian strata, occurring beneath the Mid-Miocene–Quaternary Croton Basin, composing most of the seismic-stratigraphic Unit U (modified from Mangano et al., 2023a).

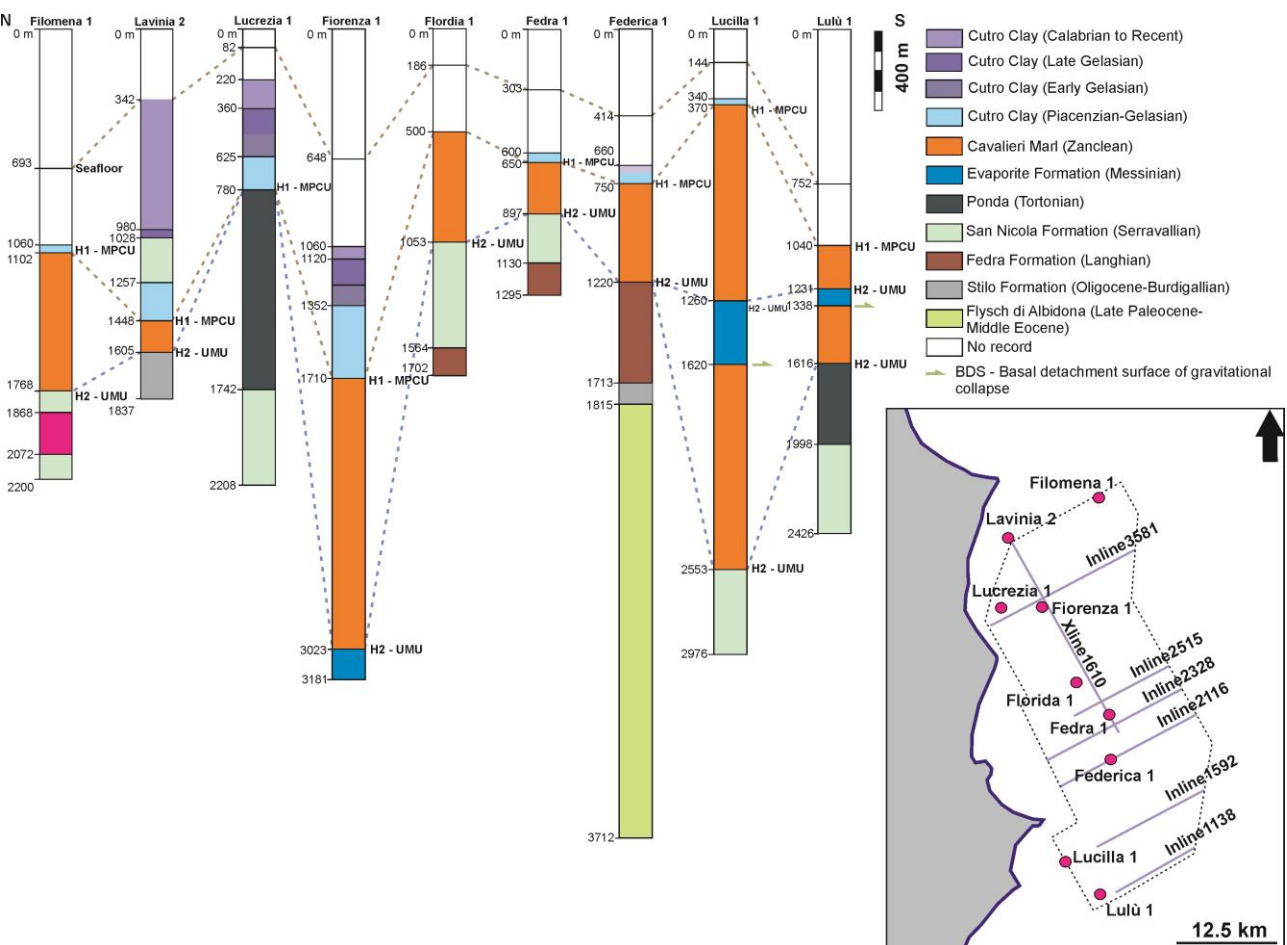


Figure 3. Panel correlating lithologies and ages of stratigraphic units in the study area. Inset highlights the wells and seismic sections interpreted in this paper.

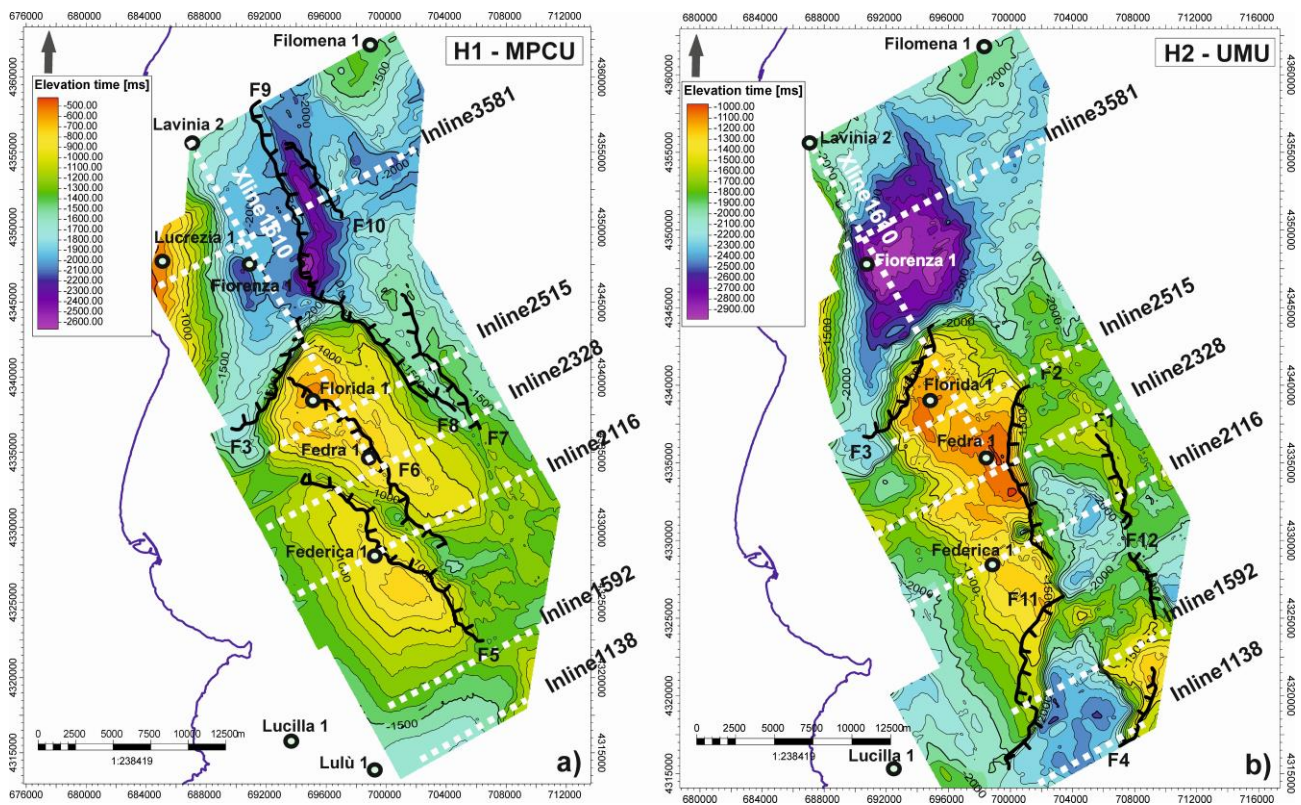
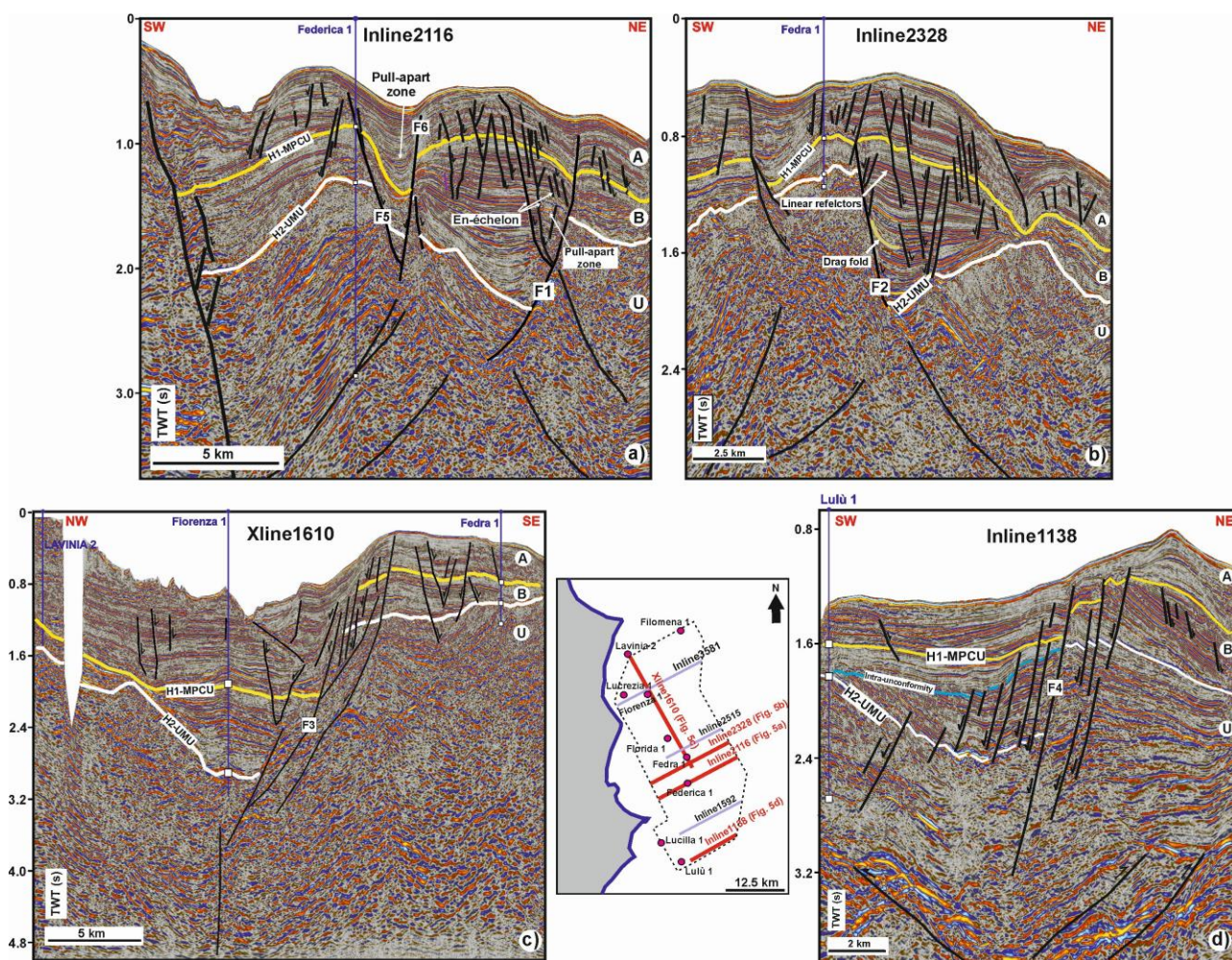


Figure 4. Two-way-time (TWT) structural maps of horizon H1 associated with MPCU, and horizon H2 corresponding to UMU. a) Horizon H1 reveals a narrow and elongated NW-SE oriented depocenter, bounded by transtensional faults, that reaches a depth of c. 2600 ms TWT. B) Horizon H2 significantly deepens to more than 2900 ms (TWT) and is offset by extensional/transtensional faults.



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Figure 5. Interpreted seismic sections a) Inline 2116, b) Inline 2328, c) Xline 1610 and d) Inline 1138 highlighting the tectonic styles in the Croton Basin. a) Faults F1, F5 and F6 crosscut Units A, B and U to reveal a divergent geometry towards their upper tips and a curved *en echelon* geometry in plan view. b) Inline 2328 shows linear reflectors with drag folds related to normal offsets along fault F2, whose upper tips lie beneath the MPCU. c) Fault F3 is a normal fault with marked splaying on its footwall block. It was likely reactivated as a conjugate fault during strike-slip motion. d) Fault F4 is part of a normal fault array with a clear structural parallelism. Faults are marked using solid black-colored lines. UMU: Upper Messinian Unconformity. MPCU: Mid-Pliocene unconformity. Unit A: Late Pliocene-Quaternary; Unit B: Early Pliocene; Unit U: pre-Pliocene. The uninterpreted seismic sections are provided as supplementary files.

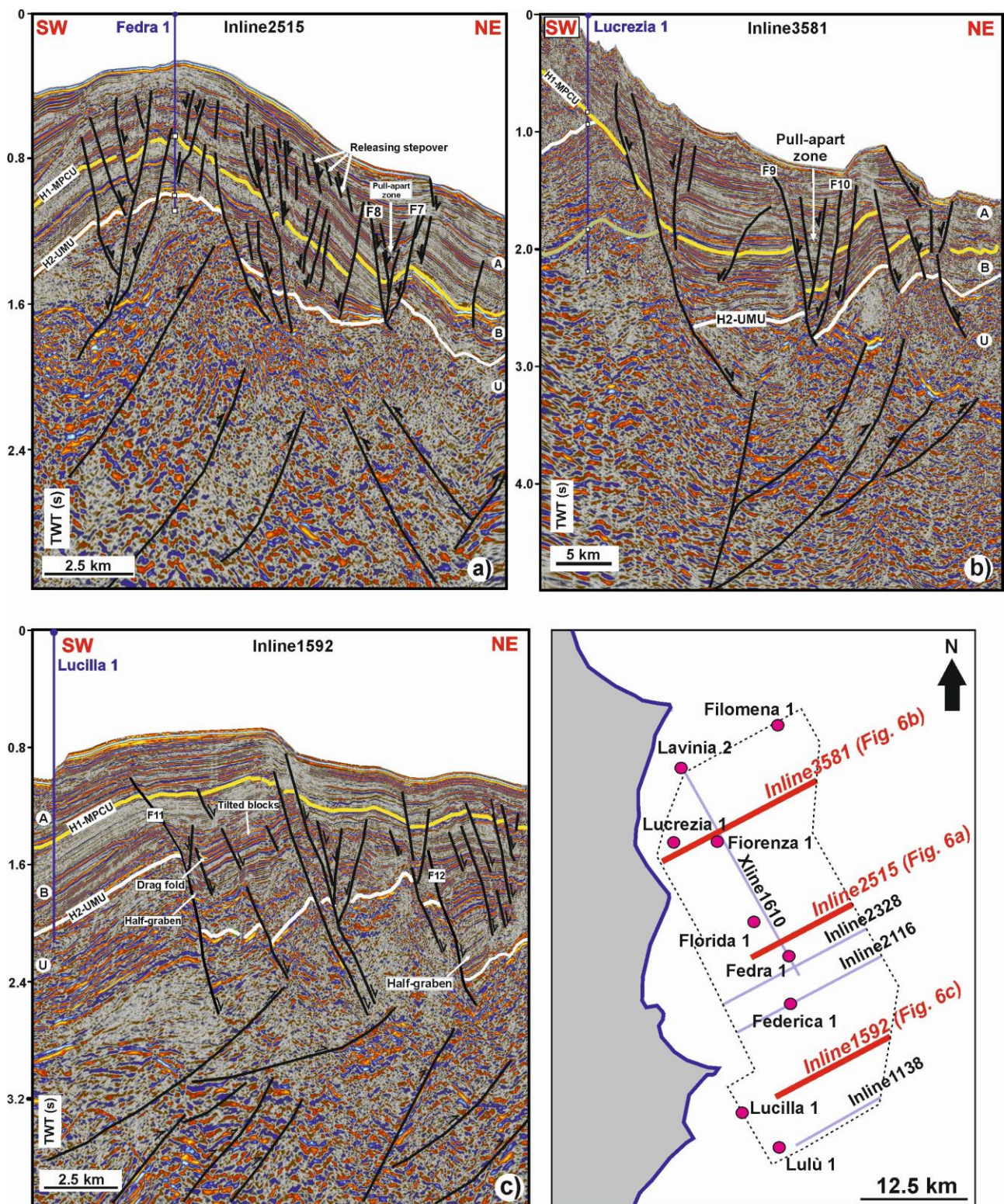


Figure 6. Geoseismic sections of a) Inline 2515, b) Inline 3581 and c) Inline 1592. a) Inline 2515 and b) Inline 3581 showing main structures along F7 to F10 and associated with pull-apart zones in this work. c) Inline 1592 highlighted the presence of faults F11 and F12 to be restricted to Unit B. Fault geometry includes half-graben and tilt blocks, and both structures are sub-parallel. Faults are marked using solid black-colored lines. UMU: Upper Messinian Unconformity. MPCU: Mid-Pliocene unconformity. Unit A: Late Pliocene-Quaternary; Unit B: Early Pliocene; Unit U: pre-Pliocene. The uninterpreted seismic sections are provided as supplementary files.

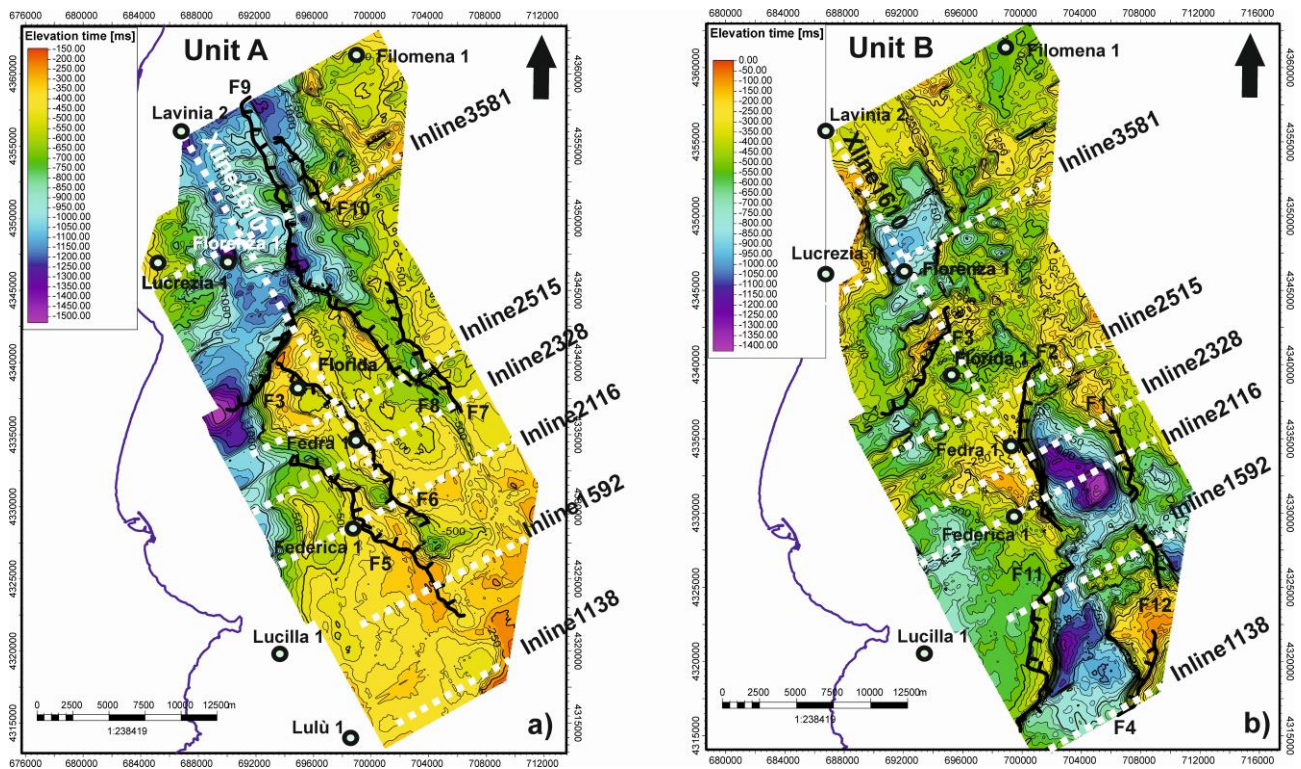


Figure 7. Isochron thickness of: a) Unit A (Late Pliocene-Quaternary), and b) Unit B (Early Pliocene). a) Unit A reveals the thickest strata in the northern sector of the study area, where it is affected by transtensional faults. b) In the central and southern sectors there are two regions bounded by extensional faults in which Unit B is thicker.

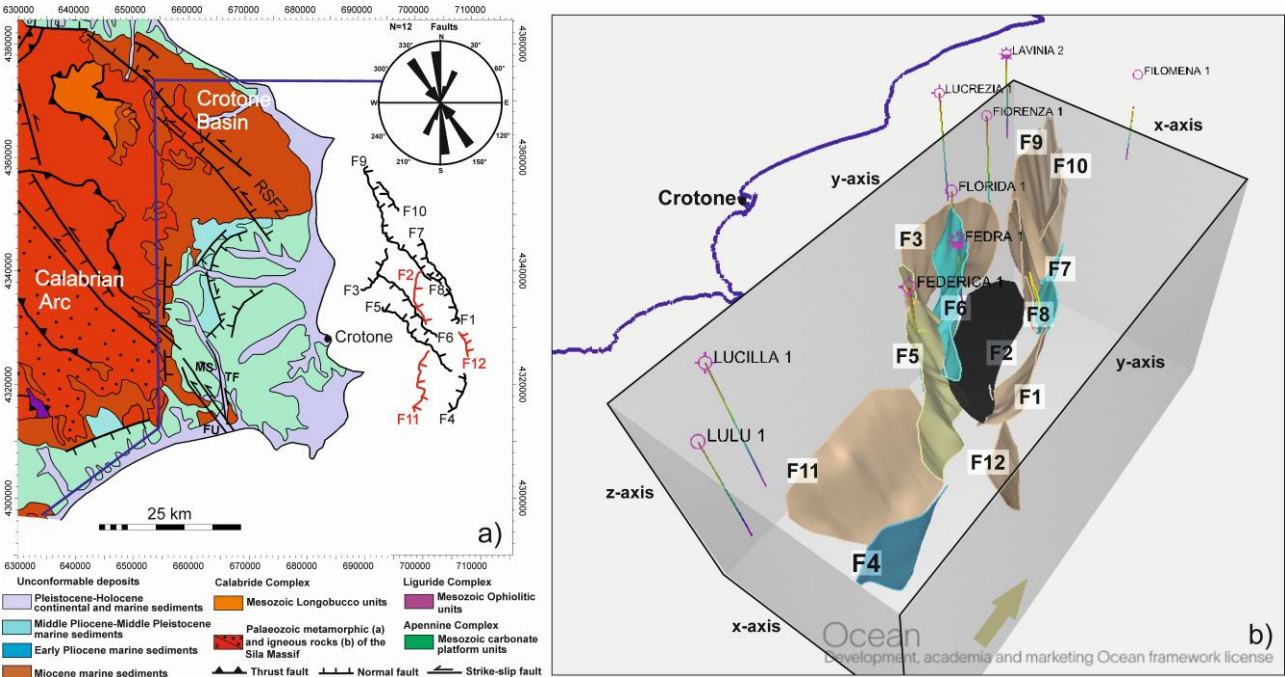


Figure 8. a) Structural map of the Calabrian Arc combined with the onshore geology of the Crotona Basin (modified after Van Dijk and Okkes, 1991). The figure highlights the location of the Rossano–San Nicola Fault Zone (RSFZ), plus the Marcedusa–Steccato (MS), the Tacina (TF) and Fosso Umbro (FU) faults that form the larger Petilia Sosti Fault Zone (PSFZ). The 12 faults (F1 to F12) mapped in this work are also shown in the figure. Faults marked as red-colored segments (F2, F11, F12) are quiescent at present, while those represented by black-colored segments (F1, F3 to F10) show signs of activity in seismic data. A rose diagram shows that the strike of the interpreted faults ranges from approximately N20 to N176. b) Three-dimensional view of the 12 faults interpreted in this work. Vertical exaggeration is 5x in the figure.

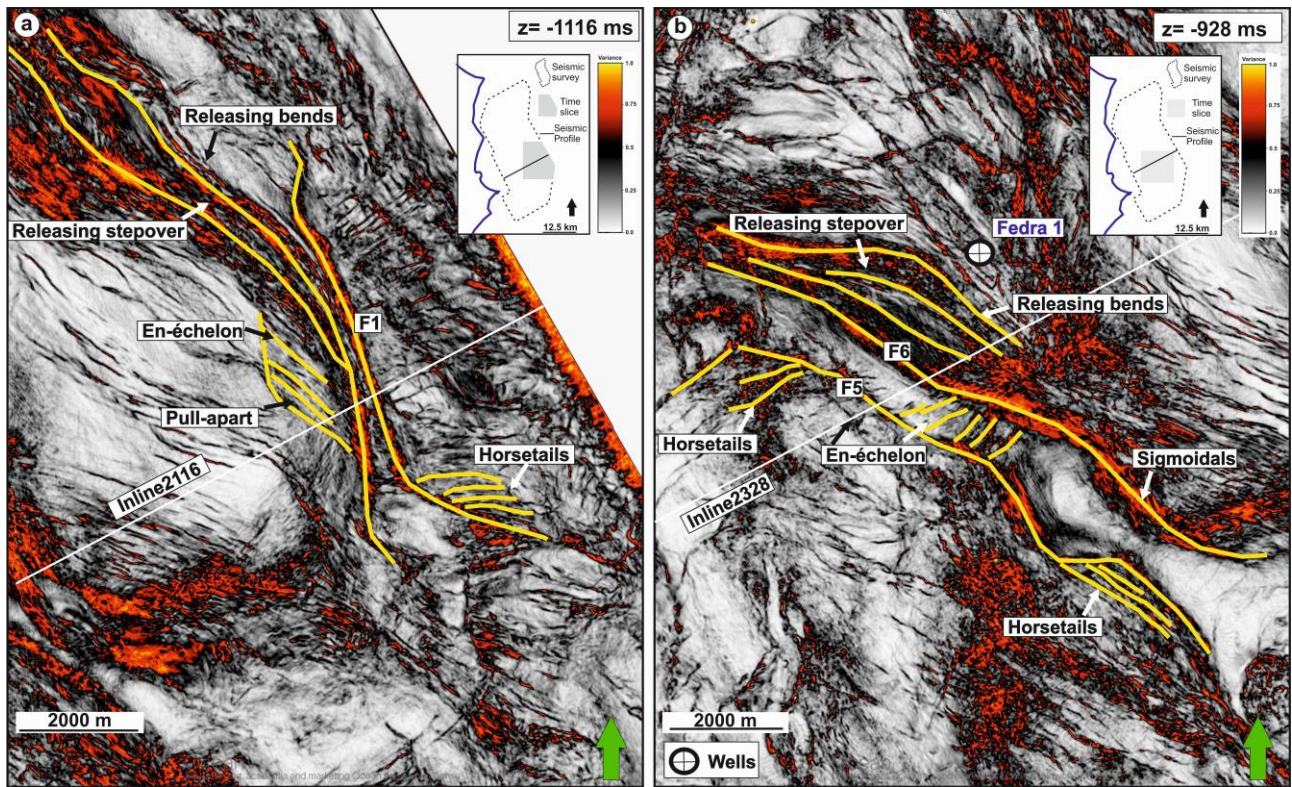


Figure 9. Variance time-slices extracted at a TWT depth of a) -1116 ms and b) -928 ms. Faults F1, F5 and F6 show several structural indicators such as sigmoidal geometries in faults as well as splay faults that are oblique and parallel to main fault segments.

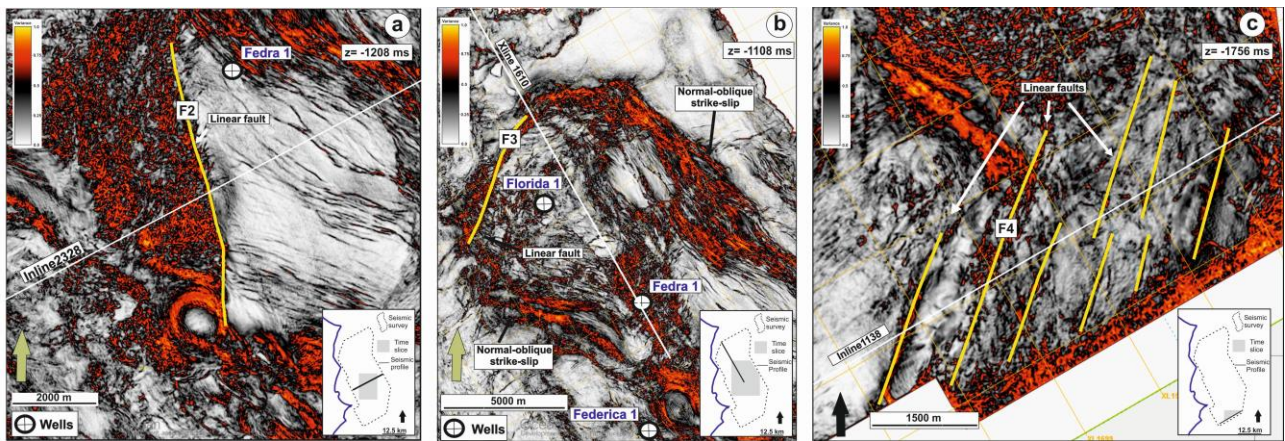
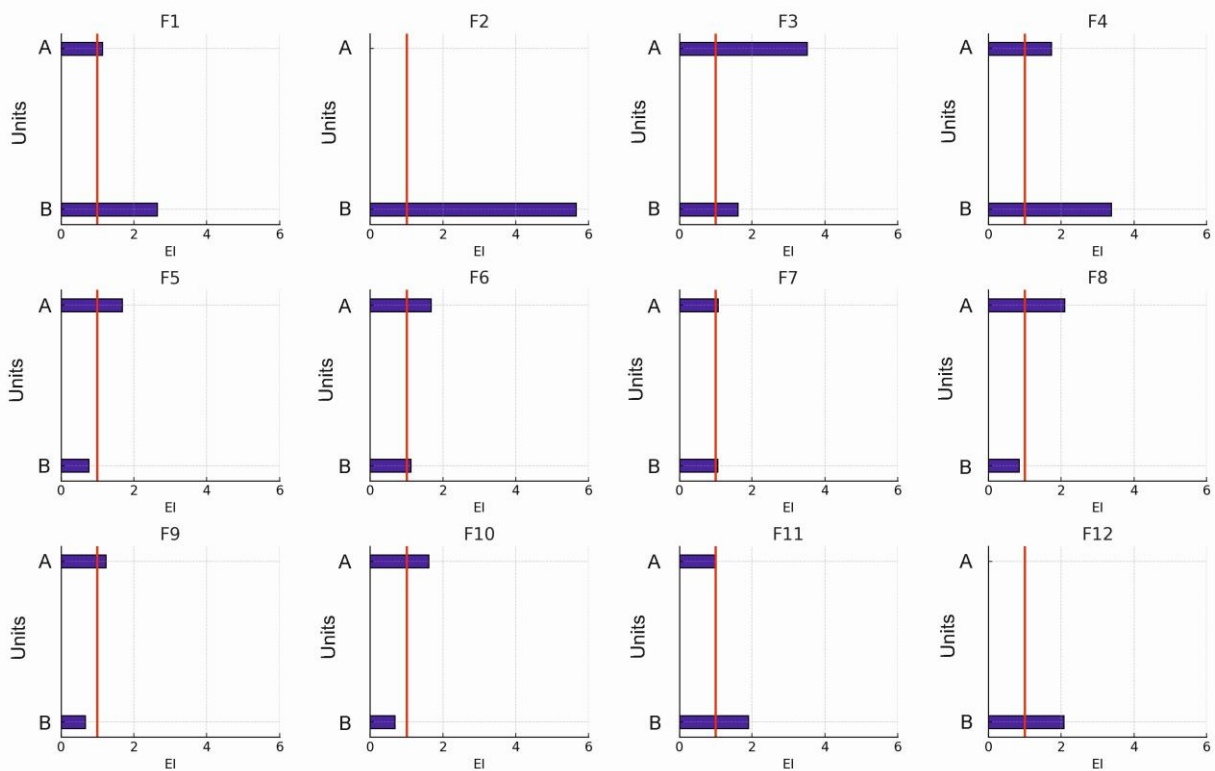


Figure 10. Variance time-slices extracted at a TWT depth of a) -1208 ms, b) -1108 ms and c) -1756 ms highlighting the geometry of faults F2, F3 and F4. They form discrete segments that strike N-S and NE-SW in Fig. 4a. The faults are linear in plan view, whereas F3 appears as a conjugate fault for the normal strike-slip faults in Fig. 10b. c) Fault F4 shown as part of a subparallel network of faults.



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Figure 11. Expansion index (EI) for the faults interpreted in this work. Faults F1, F2, F4, F11, and F12 show EI values that exceed 1 along Unit B, whereas they show values close to or below 1 in Unit A. In contrast, faults F5 to F10 record EI values well above 1 in Unit A, changing to an EI close to 1 in Unit B. N.B: The red line marks the position of expansion index values (EI) equivalent to 1.