

1 Early extensional salt tectonics controls deep-water sediment
2 dispersal

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Predicting the distribution of sedimentary facies during the early stages of
23 deformation of salt-detached continental margins is key to constraining the location and
24 stratigraphic architecture of hydrocarbon and CO₂ reservoirs, as well as understanding the
25 oceanic carbon cycle. Despite its importance, we still have a relatively poor understanding of
26 salt-sediment interactions during the early phases of extensional salt tectonics, mainly
27 because subsequent salt-related deformation and/or deep burial of the related stratigraphic
28 succession means the related deposits are poorly imaged in seismic reflection data and/or not
29 penetrated by borehole data. Using 3D seismic reflection data from the northern Levant Basin
30 offshore Lebanon, here we investigate the interplay between early extension-related salt
31 deformation and deep-water sediment dispersal. Our results indicate that salt tectonics has
32 two contrasting impacts: whereas slope-parallel faults favor early sediment transfer along
33 downslope-oriented corridors to the abyssal plain, slope-normal faults and ramp-syncline
34 basins trap land-derived sediments hampering or delaying their transport to the abyssal plain.
35 These results help refine source-to-sink models of turbidite systems developing in young salt
36 basins, highlighting the crucial role of extensional tectonics in controlling sediment dispersal
37 and the development of intra-slope depocenters, and emphasizing the impact of fault strike,
38 ramp-syncline basin evolution, and salt thinning. Our study has significant implications for
39 predicting the location of deep-water coarse-grained sediment and the preservation of land-
40 derived organic carbon in mature, more structurally complex salt basins.

41

42 **INTRODUCTION**

43 Determining how slope to deep-water sediment dispersal systems interact with
44 seafloor structures is key to understanding how, how much, and where sediment is trapped
45 along continental margins or, conversely, delivered to ocean basins. The distribution of

46 sedimentary facies along continental margins can provide insights into how Earth's climatic
47 and oceanographic system has changed over geological timescales, and the role played by
48 deep-water depositional systems in sequestering carbon (Kennedy and Wagner, 2011;
49 Mignard et al., 2017, 2017; McNeill et al., 2019; Graves et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023).
50 Submarine turbidity currents are crucial for transferring a significant mass of organic carbon
51 to the deep-water system (Rabouille et al., 2019; Baker et al., 2024), and a thorough
52 understanding of the geological processes that govern carbon dispersal, deposition, and
53 sequestration along continental margins is essential for assessing the significance of this
54 carbon reservoir on the global carbon cycle (Graves et al., 2022).

55 Predicting the distribution and stratigraphic architecture of sedimentary deep-water
56 facies along continental margins can also guide resource exploration and utilization. For
57 example, sandstone-dominated deep-water systems typically thin, onlap, and undergo
58 complex lithological changes towards syn-depositional salt structures, thereby controlling the
59 distribution, architecture, and ultimate performance of related hydrocarbon and carbon (i.e.,
60 Carbon Capture and Storage or 'CCS') reservoirs (Niemi et al., 2017; Gray et al., 2022).

61 Salt tectonics has a profound impact on slope structure and the overall evolution of
62 sediment deposition along continental margins, meaning salt basins are a key archive for
63 recording past geological change through their stratigraphic record (Pichel et al., 2018; Oppo
64 et al., 2023). For example, numerous studies have focused on how salt-induced deformation
65 and sediment gravity currents, such as turbidity currents and debris flows, interact with
66 seabed structures to build deep-water channels and lobes (e.g., Loncke et al., 2006; Gee and
67 Gawthorpe, 2006; Oluboyo et al., 2014; Howlett et al., 2021). These studies have typically
68 focused on the distal, contraction-dominated parts of mature salt-tectonic systems (e.g.,
69 circum-Gulf of Mexico, offshore eastern Canada, circum-South Atlantic), where seafloor
70 relief may trap or deflect sediment delivered from the basin margin, commonly resulting in

71 fill-and-spill style depositional patterns (Galloway, 1975). In contrast, the impact of seafloor
72 deformation in the updip, extension- and translation-dominated domains has been, to our
73 knowledge, very rarely documented. The only notable exception is the study by Anderson et
74 al. (2000), who show that long-term (c. 12 Myr) changes in fault-sediment interactions
75 offshore Angola reflect gross variations in (salt-detached) fault-driven accommodation vs.
76 sediment accumulation rate. These variations are expressed as an overall decrease in
77 confinement, principally driven by an increase in sediment supply.

78 Whereas interactions between salt-induced seafloor deformation and deep-water
79 depositional systems are relatively well-characterized in modern (i.e., at- or near-seabed)
80 systems developed in the distal parts of salt-influenced continental margins, they are poorly
81 constrained during the early phases of deformation and basin development. This at least
82 partly reflects the fact that subsequent salt-tectonic deformation and, in particular, subsidence
83 leads to the deep burial (and thus poor seismic imaging) of the related stratigraphic record.
84 Such interactions, in addition to ramp-syncline basins (RSB), a relatively common type of
85 salt-related depocentre that forms slightly downdip of the extensional domain (e.g., Pichel et
86 al., 2018), are not captured in generic models illustrating salt-sediment interactions on salt-
87 detached slopes (e.g., Oluboyo et al., 2014; Cumberpatch et al., 2021; Howlett et al., 2021).
88 For example, beyond containing landward-dipping and -thickening wedges of slope strata
89 (e.g., Pichel et al., 2018), there has been no detailed documentation of the types of
90 depositional systems deposited and preserved within RSBs.

91 Salt in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea is relatively young (<6 Myr) and as a result, it
92 and its relatively seismically well-imaged overburden have yet to experience intense
93 deformation. We therefore use 3D seismic reflection data from the northern Levant Basin,
94 eastern Mediterranean (Fig. 1), to investigate the relationship between early extension-
95 related, salt-tectonic deformation and deep-water sediment dispersal, thereby helping refine

96 source-to-sink models of salt-controlled depositional systems. Our results can be applied
97 when trying to predict deep-water stratigraphy in more strongly deformed and/or deeply
98 buried salt basins globally, where borehole data may be sparse and/or seismic reflection
99 imaging poor.

100

101 **GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

102 The Miocene to recent stratigraphy of the Levant Basin comprises evaporites
103 (Messinian Salt) capped by up to 2 km of predominantly deep-water elastic deposits (Haq et
104 al., 2020; Kabir et al., 2022; Oppo et al., 2023). Messinian Salt and its overburden were
105 moderately deformed in response to westward gravity gliding induced by post-Pleistocene
106 tilting and uplift of the northern Levantine margin (Cartwright and Jackson, 2008). Salt-
107 detached gliding produced domains of updip extension and downslope contraction,
108 kinematically linked via a translational domain (Evans et al., 2021; Oppo et al., 2021).

109 In the extensional and translational domains, the salt and its overburden translate
110 across several NE-trending, base-salt anticlines (Figs. 2, 3). These structures formed during
111 the Late Miocene, prior to salt deposition, as a result of NW-SE-oriented regional
112 convergence (Ghalayini et al., 2014; Evans et al., 2021). In the study area, these base-salt
113 anticlines are generally asymmetrical, displaying a steep forelimb and a gently dipping
114 backlimb (Figs. 2A, B), suggesting they represent thrust-related, fault-propagation folds
115 (Ghalayini et al., 2014, 2018)

116 Translation of Messinian salt and its overburden over the base-salt anticlines lead to
117 the formation of several salt-detached RSBs in the outer part of the extensional domain and
118 proximal part of the translational domain (Figs. 2A, B) (Evans et al., 2021). This process
119 created and continues to create, localized, asymmetric, synclinal depocenters immediately
120 basinward of the base-salt anticlines. Syn-kinematic (growth) strata within the RSBs formed

121 landward-thickening wedges that onlap landward toward the updip high (Jackson and Hudec,
122 2005; Pichel et al., 2018; Evans and Jackson, 2019). Critically, with ongoing translation, the
123 at-seabed depocenter remains stationary, whereas previously RSB-hosted deposited
124 sediments are gradually displaced basinward in the direction of salt flow (Jackson & Hudec,
125 2005, Pichel et al., 2018, Evans et al., 2021).

126 Our study area is located in the extensional and proximal translational domains (Fig.
127 1). In this part of the Levant Basin, the extensional domain is dominated by reactive
128 diapirism associated with predominantly N-S-striking, basinward-dipping, and salt-detached
129 normal faults, some of which are expressed on the present seafloor. Margin-normal (i.e., E-
130 trending) reactive diapirs and associated salt-detached faults are also observed, in addition to
131 the RSBs, which extend downdip into the proximal part of the translational domain (Fig. 1B)
132 (Evans et al., 2021).

133 The post-Messinian deep-water stratigraphy in the North Levant Basin has, to the best
134 of our knowledge, only been described by Maselli et al. (2021), who investigated the spatial
135 and temporal evolution of bedforms in a single, near-seabed (i.e., Recent), deep-water lobe,
136 which is offset by a salt-detached normal fault. They highlighted that extensional salt
137 tectonics has had and likely continues to play a key role in controlling deep-water
138 sedimentation and stratigraphic development.

139

140 **DATA AND METHODS**

141 We use a 3D time-migrated seismic reflection dataset that is near-zero phase at the
142 seafloor reflection and is displayed here with SEG negative polarity, i.e., downward increase
143 and decrease in acoustic impedance are represented by a trough (blue in our seismic displays)
144 and peak (red in our seismic displays) reflection, respectively (Brown, 2001). The dominant
145 frequency in the post-salt overburden, extracted directly from the seismic dataset, is 50 Hz,

146 with an average P-wave velocity of 2,000 m/s indicated by proprietary processing reports.
147 Based on these data, the estimated vertical resolution for the post-salt overburden is ~10 m.
148 The horizontal resolution is ~25 m, approximated as a quarter of the dominant wavelength
149 (Lebedeva-Ivanova et al., 2018). As described below, these data are of sufficient quality to
150 image the main salt-tectonic structures and the key depositional elements in the overburden.

151 The lack of well data offshore Lebanon prevents a precise calibration of the lithology
152 and age of the overburden. We therefore use seismic facies analysis and the root mean square
153 (RMS) attribute extractions to infer depositional system types and sediment grain size. More
154 specifically, following Maselli et al. (2021) and other studies of deep-water seismic
155 geomorphology (e.g., Prather et al., 1998), we interpret high RMS values as representing
156 coarser, likely sand-rich sediment. The only absolute age is provided by the 1.8 Ma
157 reflection, correlated from Oppo et al. (2021). However, the excellent seismic data quality
158 means we can confidently establish a robust seismic-stratigraphic framework to define the
159 relative if not absolute age of various depositional elements.

160

161 **RESULTS**

162 In the south of the study area, a U-shaped incision at the seafloor extends from the
163 shelf to the slope and is filled with generally high-amplitude, relatively continuous reflections
164 (Fig. 1C). This incision is interpreted as a channel that delivers sediment to the abyssal plain
165 (Channel A). Channel A extends from the base-of-slope to the abyssal plain, crossing the
166 extensional domain, where it is confined laterally by margin-normal and -oblique faults that
167 displace seismic reflections up to the seafloor (Fig.1). In the easternmost, most proximal part
168 of the survey, Channel A is underlain by stacked paleochannels that progressively migrate
169 laterally (Figs. 4A, B). The oldest paleochannels developed at ca. 1.8 Ma, indicating this is a
170 relatively long-lived system. Less than 5 km basinward, the stacked paleochannels disappear

171 from the stratigraphy, and only the seabed expression of Channel A is present (Figs. 4C, D).
172 Stacked paleochannels are also absent throughout the extensional domain, where the channel
173 stratigraphy is mainly formed by high-amplitude, variable continuity seismic reflections,
174 which are locally preserved within margin-normal grabens (Figs. 5A-D).

175 Upon reaching the abyssal plain, Channel A encounters an RSB that contains sheet-
176 like, high-amplitude reflections at its base (Figs. 5E, 6). This high-amplitude unit shows an
177 overall fan-shaped geometry, extending up to c. 7 km laterally from the modern Channel A.
178 To the SW, the high-amplitude reflections downlap onto the basal units of the RSB, whereas
179 to the NE they interfinger with the surrounding, lower-amplitude stratigraphy. At the top, the
180 unit of high-amplitude reflections is variably incised by stacked, U-shaped channels that are
181 filled with high-amplitude reflections (Fig. 5E). We interpret the high-amplitude unit at the
182 base of the RSB as a package of stacked, deep-sea lobes, based on their acoustic and
183 geometric resemblance to similar features documented elsewhere (Prather et al., 1998, p.
184 e.g.,; Prather, 2003; Maselli et al., 2021). Differently from the stacked channels, within the
185 lobes, the main channel, Channel A, is defined by relatively low-amplitude reflections,
186 suggesting it is finer-grained than its encasing unit (Figs. 5E, 7). Further basinward, the
187 channel encounters a second RSB (Figs. 5G, 6), where at least two stacked lobes, larger than
188 the ones in the updip RSB, occur. Like those in the updip RSB, these lobes are defined by
189 high-amplitude reflections and are incised by Channel A, which again is filled by low-
190 amplitude reflections (Figs. 5G, 7). Above the lobes, stacked channels transition to laterally
191 continuous, high-amplitude reflections, which are visible only in the near-seafloor interval,
192 and which are not incised by channels (Fig. 5G). We interpret these continuous reflections as
193 a shallower, more recent lobe.

194 Once it exits the second RSB, the channel becomes less confined (Fig. 7), with the
195 underlying stratigraphy being defined by well-developed, reflective, presumably sandy

196 paleochannels (Figs. 2, 7). The stratigraphic relationship between the 1.8 Ma reflection and
197 lobes in the downdip RSB/abyssal plain suggests that the onset of sandy deposition was
198 broadly coincident with the initiation of the oldest paleo-channel observed in the most
199 proximal part of the survey (Fig. 4).

200 A second channel (Channel B) is present c. 8.6 km north of Channel A. Channel B
201 shares many similarities with Channel A, i.e., it extends from the base-of-slope to the abyssal
202 plain, crossing the salt-detached extensional domain (Fig. 1), and proximal to the base-of-
203 slope is underlain by stacked paleochannels that developed after ca. 1.8 Ma (Fig. 4A), but
204 which are absent from the stratigraphy immediately basinward of the first margin-parallel,
205 salt-related graben, G1 (Figs. 1B, 4C). Unlike Channel A, however, Channel B is not laterally
206 confined by faults at the base-of-slope, where it instead trends slope-parallel. Further
207 downslope, in the central, more heavily faulted area, the channel abruptly turns 90°
208 northward upon entering a margin-parallel graben (G2 in Fig. 1B), and then 90° westward,
209 where it exits G2 before passing onto the abyssal plain and becoming relatively sinuous (Fig.
210 1). Seismic sections across this tract of the channel show that it has an erosional base and is
211 underfilled (Fig. 8C). On the abyssal plain, downslope of the extensional domain, Channel B
212 has a moderately erosional base and is bounded by small levees (Fig. 8E), before passing
213 downslope into at-seabed (i.e., Recent) lobes (Figs. 1C, 8G).

214

215 **INTERPRETATION**

216 Our data suggest that early salt deformation in the extensional and proximal
217 translational domains of a salt-detached slope controlled the sequestration and routing of
218 deep-water sediment and the ultimate stratigraphic evolution of related channels and lobes.
219 We interpret two main styles of salt-sediment interaction: (1) early and sustained delivery of
220 coarse-grained sediment to the abyssal plain (as exemplified by Channel A), and (2) initial

221 sequestration of sediment at the base-of-slope, with subsequent bypass of the extensional
222 domain (as exemplified by Channel B).

223

224 **Channel A – Early delivery to the abyssal plain**

225 The stratigraphic relationship between the paleochannels, the downslope paleo-lobes,
226 and the 1.8 Ma reflection, indicates that coarse-grained sediment supply to the abyssal plain
227 was established in the Early Pleistocene. Time-equivalent paleochannels at the base-of-slope
228 and on the abyssal plain indicate that Channel A connected these two areas despite the lack of
229 obvious paleochannel-related incisions across the extensional domain. We interpret that the
230 apparent absence of incision reflects the combined effects of structural confinement by
231 margin-normal and -oblique faults and related grabens, and the elevated sediment supply,
232 which together caused channel filling, inhibited erosion, and aided basinward propagation of
233 the channel (Fig. 5). As a result, coarse sediment was delivered through the extensional
234 domain directly to lobes on the abyssal plain, in the proximal part of the translational domain
235 (Figs. 2, 6).

236 Notably, however, upon reaching the abyssal plain, salt-detached translation still
237 influenced sedimentation patterns, with RSBs at least temporarily providing accommodation
238 for the local preservation of lobes. More specifically, we infer that the deposition of a sandy
239 lobe in the updip RSB was followed by channel incision and coarse sediment bypass to the
240 downdip RSB, where a stacked set of sandy lobes were deposited before the channel was
241 filled by finer-grained material. These lobes were then incised by their feeder channel, which
242 propagated basinward, delivering sediments to the most distal part of the abyssal plain. We
243 suggest that the shallowest lobe within the downdip RSB (Fig. 6G) formed during a period of
244 reduced incision, possibly due to a reduced gradient and/or supply during higher sea level.
245 The deposition of coarse-grained sediment within the RSB, and its subsequent incision by a

246 younger channel that was ultimately filled by finer-grained material, records the progressive
247 basinward migration of the slope depocenter and bypassing coarse sediment to the distal
248 abyssal plain. These depositional patterns are comparable to those captured in traditional
249 deep-water fill-and-spill models, where the relationship between accommodation and
250 sediment accumulation rates controls depocenter filling vs. bypass (e.g., Prather, 2003). In
251 this example, salt-detached translation, rather than minibasin subsidence (e.g., Prather et al.,
252 1998) or contractional growth folding (e.g., Smith, 2004), caused the local development of
253 intra-slope accommodation. The rate at which salt-detached translation and, by extension,
254 accommodation development occurs within an RSB are mainly controlled by salt translation,
255 driven by tectonic tilting of the basin margin, salt differential loading by the overburden, and
256 flow disequilibrium across the underlying anticlines (Allen et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2021;
257 Granado et al., 2023). Flow disequilibrium results in salt flow pulses (Evans et al., 2021),
258 leading to cyclical variations in local translation rates, impacting how, where, and how much
259 sediment is deposited or bypassed in these highly dynamic systems. In particular, salt
260 thickness above base-salt anticlines controls the rate of basinward salt flow, with faster or
261 slower translation rates resulting in increases or decreases of accommodation, respectively
262 (Wagner and Jackson, 2011). In the latter case, when sediment supply is relatively high, the
263 overall aggradation will also be high, giving rise to a fill-and-spill system. Given that thick,
264 stacked lobe-dominated successions are not preserved in the documented RSBs, and that an
265 overall fill-and-spill pattern is recorded, we suggest that RSB (horizontal) translation and
266 (vertical) subsidence rate were low relative to sediment supply, thus favoring the delivery of
267 coarse sediment to the distal basin in a relatively short period (<1.8 Myr) after channel
268 establishment on the upper slope.

269

270 **Channel B – Early sequestration at the base-of-slope**

271 Based on their stratigraphic relationship to the 1.8 Ma reflection, we infer the
272 paleochannels associated with Channel B also initiated in the Early Pleistocene, at broadly
273 the same time as Channel A. However, the lack of paleochannels, paleo-lobes, and other
274 stratigraphic evidence of coarse-grained sediment delivery to, or at least preservation within,
275 the extension and proximal translational domain, indicates that Channel B did not reach the
276 deeper basin until relatively recently. This suggests that the most proximal margin-parallel,
277 intra-slope graben (G1) efficiently trapped coarse-grained sediment, stopping it from
278 reaching the base-of-slope and abyssal plain (Fig. 8A). Like Channel A, the depositional
279 patterns described here are comparable to those captured in deep-water fill-and-spill models.
280 Critically, however, at least during the earliest phase of development of Channel B, we only
281 observe the ‘fill’ phase.

282 Over time, Channel B migrated southwards, beyond the southern limit of G1 (Fig. 1,
283 4C). This, possibly coupled with slower subsidence and rate of accommodation development
284 due to progressive salt thinning, allowed the channel to ultimately escape from G1 and extend
285 basinward. However, the channel was eventually (and continues to be) partly confined by the
286 next downslope graben (G2). Within this new depocentre, the strongly erosional character of
287 the channel (Fig. 8C) suggests that confinement favored (and perhaps still favors) sediment
288 bypass through the entire upper course of the channel.

289

290 **CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

291 The large-scale tectono-stratigraphic architecture and development of salt-detached
292 RSBs is described from offshore Nova Scotia (e.g., Saint-Ange et al., 2017), Morocco (e.g.,
293 Uranga et al., 2022), and Brazil (e.g., Pichel et al., 2018). However, the detailed stratigraphic
294 evolution of the deep-water systems they contain has yet to be thoroughly investigated. Our
295 study shows that extensional tectonics during the early stages of salt-detached extension and

296 translation profoundly controls sediment routing to the abyssal plain. More specifically,
297 slope-parallel faults focus turbidity currents, favoring early sediment transfer through the
298 extensional domain, whereas slope-normal faults and RSBs generate considerable
299 accommodation, thus favoring trapping and deflection of deep-water channels and the
300 accumulation of coarse sediment in the extensional and (proximal) translational domains . In
301 the latter case, those structures reduce the seafloor gradient and cause turbidity currents to
302 decelerate, depositing the coarse-grained fractions and allowing the development of a lobe
303 (Maselli et al., 2021). It is possible that the finer-grained fraction of these flows continue
304 distally and in our case, are reworked into the low-amplitude sediment waves observed on the
305 abyssal plain (Fig. 1A). Eventually, lateral channel migration and/or the cessation of
306 accommodation generation due to progressive salt thinning allow the channel to transfer
307 coarser-grained sediment toward and onto the abyssal plain. Therefore, the interplay between
308 1) the rate of the seaward flow of salt, 2) RSB translation rate and accommodation
309 development, and 3) sediment supply and accumulation in RSBs dictates the evolution of
310 coarse-grained sediment depocenters and, ultimately, delivery of material to ocean basins.

311 The role of slope-parallel grabens and RSBs in trapping sediment within proximal,
312 base-of-slope areas could also have significant implications for the complex dynamics of
313 organic carbon transport to the abyssal plain. Large volumes of carbon originating from land
314 or shelf regions are transferred to the deep sea via turbidity currents (Galy et al., 2007; Pope
315 et al., 2022; Talling et al., 2024; Baker et al., 2024), and may be temporarily or permanently
316 stored in these grabens and within intra-RSB lobes, facilitated by high subsidence and
317 sedimentation rates that rapidly isolate the carbon from the oxidizing conditions near the
318 seafloor. Over time, incision of the intra-RSB lobes by turbidity currents (Baker et al., 2024)
319 may result in the re-suspension and oxidation of previously buried carbon.

320 Our results also provide insights into early-stage, deep-water distribution of
321 sedimentary facies in salt basins that are now strongly deformed in response to ongoing
322 tectonics, with important implications for the exploration for and development of
323 hydrocarbon or CO₂ reservoirs. For example, we demonstrate that turbidite sandstone-
324 dominated, deep-water lobes and channels, initially deposited at modest burial depths near
325 the base-of-slope, can be translated over considerable distances, potentially exceeding 10 km,
326 whilst becoming progressively more deeply buried in the sedimentary column. This results in
327 reservoirs extending further basinward than traditionally predicted by deep-water
328 depositional models, challenging existing exploration models and indicating that potential
329 reservoir targets might be located in areas previously considered unprospective. Fluctuations
330 in sediment accumulation rates and salt-induced accommodation, and the related processes of
331 fill, spill, bypass, and channel incision, for example where a sandstone-rich lobe is incised by
332 the mudstone-filled Channel A, may also result in significant heterogeneity and
333 compartmentalization within the reservoirs (e.g., Mayall et al., 2006). For example, this
334 stratigraphic complexity could influence fluid injectivity, storage capacity, flow, and the
335 overall long-term containment capacity of CO₂ storage reservoirs.

336 In summary, our study highlights that fault strike relative to sediment input direction,
337 RSB development and evolution, and the temporal relationship between sediment input and
338 salt thinning all need to be captured in tectonostratigraphic models for salt basins, given these
339 dictate if and where land-derived material is delivered to the deep ocean, as well as the
340 distribution and architecture of subsurface reservoirs.

341

342

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348

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488

489 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

490 Figure 1. (A) and (C) show the bathymetry of the study area using depth in seconds and
491 amplitude RMS seismic attribute, respectively. (B) Structural map showing the two channels
492 (red), normal faults (black), and salt diapirs (pink). (C) The red/yellow color represents
493 higher concentrations of coarse-grained sediment. RMS: Root Mean Square.

494

495 Figure 2. Dip seismic sections showing the overall margin setting (location in Fig. 1C). (A)
496 and (B) are c. along Channel A, and (C) and (D) are along Channel B. Note the deep-sea
497 lobes and the unconfined channels/fan deposits. Red faults are late to post-Messinian and are
498 related to salt gliding toward the basin. Pink shading: Messinian Salt. RSB: Ramp syncline
499 basin. Blue horizon: 1.8 Ma age marker marker from Oppo et al., 2021.

500

501 Figure 3. Maps of the Messinian Salt across the investigated area. The position of the modern
502 channels are projected in white. (A) Base Salt map with indicated the main base-salt
503 anticlines described in text. (B) Top Salt map with indicated the projection of the main salt-
504 related normal faults rooted in the top salt units. The two RSB paleo-depocenters where the
505 deep-sea lobes described in the text occur are indicated. (C) Salt thickness map. Note the
506 reduced salt thickness above the base-salt anticlines causing the two RSBs in Figure 2.

507

508 Figure 4. Seismic cross-sections parallel to the margin (location in Fig. 1C) showing the
509 channels evolution close to the base-of-slope. (A, B): Proximal seismic cross-section showing
510 stacked channels underneath both Channel A and Channel B. Note the progressive lateral
511 migration of the channels to the southwest. (C, D) Parallel seismic cross-section basinward to
512 the first margin-parallel graben, G1, showing the absence of stacked paleochannels and only
513 a relatively recent, modern channel incising the seafloor. Faults are red, Messinian Salt is
514 pink, and sand-rich channels and lobes deposit in yellow.

515

516 Figure 5. Seismic cross-sections showing the lack of a well-developed Channel A incision
517 within margin-perpendicular grabens (A) and half-grabens (B) across the extensional domain.
518 (E-G) Well-developed paleochannels and deep-sea lobes are associated with Channel A

519 within the first (E) and the second (G) RSB (Fig. 1 for location). Faults are red, Messinian
520 Salt is pink, and sand-rich channels and lobes deposit in yellow.

521

522 Figure 6. Seismic cross-section showing the details of the two RSBs hosting the deep-sea
523 lobes in Channel A. Note that the channel deposits are cut circa parallel to the basinward
524 channel development (location of the seismic section in Fig. 1), Faults are red, Messinian Salt
525 is pink, and sand-rich channels and lobes deposit in yellow.

526

527 Figure 7. RMS amplitude calculated on the 1.8 Ma horizon showing the two deep-sea lobes
528 formed by the deposition of coarse-grained sediment within two consecutive RSBs. A
529 complex of unconfined channel/fan deposits is visible in the basinward portion of the data
530 (see also Fig. 2A). Note the low amplitude of Channel A when incising the distal lobe. The
531 dashed lines delimit the RSB paleo-depocenters.

532

533 Figure 8. Seismic cross-sections showing the basinward development of Channel B. (A, B)
534 Section along the graben G1 showing discontinuous, moderate amplitude reflections formed
535 by the sediments of Channel B captured by the graben. (C, D) Section parallel to the margin
536 showing the erosional character of Channel B within graben G2. Black arrows mark strata
537 truncation. Flow within the channel is northeastwards. (E, F) Detail of the seafloor incision
538 and associated levees in the proximal translational domain. (G, H) Distal deep-sea lobe
539 associated with Channel B. . Messinian Salt is pink, and sand-rich channels and lobe deposits
540 are yellow.

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