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(Article begins on next page)



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1 Hydrocarbon seepage during the Messinian salinity crisis in the Tertiary Piedmont Basin (NW,
2 Italy)

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27 ABSTRACT

28 Seep carbonate deposits of Messinian age have been recently found in the Tertiary Piedmont
29 Basin (NW Italy). These carbonates are preserved as blocks within a chaotic unit emplaced during
30 the Messinian salinity crisis (MSC). They show negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (from -27 to -15% VPDB)
31 that indicate the involvement of hydrocarbon-rich fluids in their genesis. Three types of carbonates
32 are recognised: (i) vuggy carbonates; (ii) *Lucina* carbonates; (iii) tubeworm carbonates. Vuggy
33 carbonates are characterised by carbonate pseudomorphs after gypsum and probably formed during
34 the first stage of the MSC. They are the product of a complex diagenesis, influenced by both
35 hypersalinity and seepage of hydrocarbon rich fluids. These rocks lack chemosymbiotic
36 assemblages, reflecting their formation under extreme environmental conditions, inhospitable for
37 most metazoans. In contrast, *Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates are characterised by containing
38 chemosymbiotic macrofauna, represented respectively by *Lucina* bivalves and vestimentiferan
39 tubeworms. The latter have not commonly been documented in ancient seep carbonates and have
40 never been reported from the Messinian sediments of the Piedmont Basin. Both *Lucina* and
41 tubeworm carbonates are interpreted as the product of hydrocarbon seepage during the second MSC
42 stage. These two types of carbonates formed under less severe conditions than the vuggy
43 carbonates, allowing the survival of seep-dwelling metazoans. During the second MSC stage, the
44 seafloor was probably characterised by an irregular topography and a thin bottom layer of dense
45 anoxic brines, produced by the dissolution of gypsum. It is suggested that vestimentiferan worms
46 were able to thrive on morphologic highs with the posterior part of tubes just below the oxic-anoxic
47 interface, but the anterior part projecting into oxic water. The infaunal *Lucina* bivalves were only
48 able to live where seeps occurred in parts of the seafloor placed above the oxic-anoxic boundary. The
49 studied carbonate deposits show features reflecting the uncommon interaction of hydrocarbon-rich
50 seep fluids and sulphate-enriched waters – the latter resulting from both evaporation and dissolution
51 of gypsum – and allow to reconstruct the evolution of a seepage system during the MSC.

52

53

54 *Keywords:*

55 Seep carbonates

56 Hypersaline conditions

57 Vestimentiferan tubeworms

58 Messinian salinity crisis

59

60 **1. Introduction**

61

62 Cold seeps are sites of localized expulsion of hydrocarbons at the seafloor, predominantly
63 composed of methane or higher hydrocarbons, and containing locally generated hydrogen sulphide.
64 Seep deposits are widely documented in both modern (e.g. Paull et al., 1992; Aloisi et al., 2000;
65 Levin, 2005; Mazzini et al., 2008) and ancient marine depositional settings (e.g. Peckmann et al.,
66 1999; Clari et al., 2004, 2009; Peckmann and Thiel, 2004; Campbell 2006). Marine seeps and their
67 deposits are characterised by several diagnostic features including: (i) authigenic minerals, mainly
68 consisting of carbonates like calcite, aragonite, and dolomite (e.g. Ritger et al., 1987; Paull et al.,
69 1992; Aloisi et al., 2002), (ii) negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (as low as -75‰ VPDB; Campbell, 2006) of
70 early diagenetic authigenic carbonate phases; (iii) chemosymbiotic macro-fauna (dominated by
71 bivalves and vestimentiferan tubeworms), and (iv) a characteristic prokaryotic community
72 represented by methanotrophic archaea, sulphate-reducing bacteria, as well as mat-forming
73 sulphide-oxidising bacteria, and thiotrophic or methanotrophic endosymbionts in chemosymbiotic
74 seep metazoans (e.g., Boetius et al., 2000; Orphan et al., 2002; Duperron et al., 2005). The
75 distribution and the biological activity of the various chemosymbiotic organisms is controlled by
76 parameters such as (i) water depth, (ii) fluid composition, (iii) fluid emission rate, (iv) occurrence of
77 gas hydrates, and (v) sulphide contents (Levin, 2005; Olu-Le Roy et al., 2007; Cordes et al., 2010).

78 In Cenozoic successions of the Mediterranean, cold seep carbonates are widely distributed and
79 have been described in detail (e.g. Conti and Fontana, 2005; Clari et al., 2009). These carbonates
80 have been reported in strata as old as Eocene (Venturini et al., 1998) in various basin types
81 including foredeep, episutural, and foreland basins (e.g. Ricci Lucchi and Vai, 1994). In most cases,
82 such carbonates consist of extensively cemented blocks and lenses, which are mostly hosted in
83 deep-water claystones and siltstones. The largest seep deposits and the highest diversity of
84 chemosymbiotic macrofauna are observed in Upper Serravallian-Tortonian sediments, reflecting
85 intense hydrocarbon seeping at that time (e.g. Taviani, 2001, 2011). Such Miocene carbonates are
86 commonly characterised by chemosymbiotic macrofauna dominated by *Lucina* clams. In contrast,
87 only very few seep carbonates have been reported from the Messinian salinity crisis (MSC)
88 stratigraphic record (e.g. Clari et al., 2004, 2009).

89 The present paper describes cold seep deposits discovered within the Messinian sediments of
90 the eastern margin of the Tertiary Piedmont Basin (Fig. 1A). This discovery provides the
91 opportunity to trace the evolution of methane seepage into the MSC. The studied deposits contain
92 macro-fossil assemblages and show sedimentological, petrographic, and geochemical features, that
93 reveal an uncommon interaction of hydrocarbon-rich seep fluids and sulphate-enriched waters
94 resulting from both seawater evaporation and dissolution of gypsum deposits.

95

96 **2. The Messinian salinity crisis**

97

98 The MSC is a major palaeo-oceanographic event that occurred about 6 my ago. In its course
99 the Mediterranean was transformed into one of the largest salt basins in Earth history (e.g. CIESM,
100 2008). After the discovery of the deep-seated Mediterranean evaporites (Hsü et al., 1973), mostly
101 buried below the abyssal plains of the present day Mediterranean sea, a multitude of studies has
102 been carried out on the Messinian Mediterranean succession, resulting in different and sometimes
103 contrasting interpretations of the MSC (e.g. Rouchy and Caruso, 2006; CIESM, 2008). Recently, a

104 new scenario for the MSC was proposed (CIESM, 2008; Roveri et al., 2008). This scenario
105 envisages that the MSC developed through three main evolutionary stages (Fig. 2). During the first
106 stage (from 5.96 to 5.60 Ma), sulphate evaporites (Primary Lower Gypsum unit, PLG; Roveri et al.,
107 2008) formed in shallow-silled peripheral basins (e.g. Sorbas Basin, parts of the Tertiary Piedmont
108 Basin, Vena del Gesso Basin of Northern Apennines), whereas in deep basinal areas organic-rich
109 shales, interbedded with carbonate-rich layers, were deposited (e.g. parts of the Tertiary Piedmont
110 Basin, Northern Apennine foredeep, Caltanissetta Basin of Sicily; Manzi et al., 2007, 2011; Dela
111 Pierre et al., 2011, 2012). In the second stage (from 5.60 to 5.53 Ma), the PLG unit underwent
112 subaerial exposure and erosion caused by a prominent sea level drop (MSC acme); the products of
113 erosion were transferred downslope and deposited in deep basins by various types of gravity flows.
114 These sediments, referred to as Resedimented Lower Gypsum (RLG unit, Manzi et al., 2005, 2007;
115 Roveri et al., 2008), locally host thick halite bodies (e.g. Caltanissetta Basin). During the third stage
116 (from 5.53 to 5.33 Ma), a cyclic alternation of gypsum and shales with brackish-water fossil
117 assemblages (Upper Evaporites) was deposited in the SE part of the Mediterranean basin (Sicily,
118 Ionian Islands, Crete, Cyprus, and Nile Delta area), whereas shallow to deep water clastic sediments
119 are found in the Apennines and in the Sorbas Basin. In the upper part of these units, fresh and
120 brackish water sediments with Paratethyan fossil assemblages are present, recording the so called
121 Lago-Mare event (e.g. Orszag Sperber, 2006). The overlying Zanclean (Pliocene) clays record the
122 re-establishment of fully marine conditions at the end of the MSC.

123

124 **3. Geological setting and stratigraphy**

125

126 The study area is located at the eastern margin of the Tertiary Piedmont Basin (TPB), a large
127 wedge top basin filled with up to 5000 m of Eocene to Messinian sediments (e.g. Mosca et al.,
128 2009; Fig. 1A). This area is bordered to the north by the Villalvernia-Varzi line, a regional
129 structural feature that was active during Oligocene and Miocene times (Fig. 1B). The upper

130 Miocene succession is composed of outer shelf (Tortonian) to slope deposits (lower Messinian)
131 referred to as the Sant'Agata Fossili Marls (Ghibaudo et al., 1985). The lower Messinian part of this
132 succession encloses a wide array of diagenetic carbonates, including methane-derived carbonates.
133 These carbonates result from complex processes, including bacterial sulphate-reduction, archaeal
134 methanogenesis, as well as microbial anaerobic oxidation of methane fuelled by vigorous methane
135 flux most likely triggered by gas hydrate destabilisation (Dela Pierre et al., 2010; Natalicchio et al.,
136 2012). The carbonates formed both at the seafloor, giving rise to *Lucina*-bearing mud breccias, as
137 well as in the shallow subsurface, resulting in various types of concretions that lack remains of
138 chemosymbiotic metazoan. The topmost part of the Sant'Agata Fossili Marls consists of euxinic
139 shales barren of fossils interpreted as the deeper water equivalent of the PLG unit deposited in
140 shallower and marginal sectors of the basin during the first MSC stage. The PLG unit is not
141 preserved in the study area, but was reported from the southern and northern margin of the basin,
142 where it consists of different types of gypsum lithofacies (Dela Pierre et al., 2011). Above an
143 erosional surface, the Sant'Agata Fossili Marls are overlain by the Valle Versa Chaotic Complex
144 (VVCC). The latter unit, which is up to 300 metre thick, is equivalent to the RLG unit recognised in
145 many Mediterranean sub-basins, deposited during the second stage of the MSC (e.g. Gorini et al.,
146 2005; Lofi et al., 2005; Bertoni and Cartwright, 2007). Its origin has been attributed to large scale
147 slope failures, probably triggered by thrusting during the intra-Messinian tectonic phase (Dela
148 Pierre et al., 2007; Fig. 2). In the study area the VVCC is made up of three superposed intervals
149 suggesting that the emplacement of the VVCC was polyphasic and resulted from different
150 gravitative events. From bottom to top the VVCC sequence consists of: (i) gypsrudites and massive
151 pebbly gypsarenite about 3 metre thick; (ii) large blocks up to tens of m in diameter of both massive
152 and banded selenite separated by a scarce fine-grained matrix; (iii) blocks of selenite gypsum and
153 methane-derived carbonate rocks floating in a volumetrically dominant matrix, making up an
154 interval of as much as 80 m in thickness (Figs. 2, 3). The methane-derived carbonate blocks are the
155 object of this study. The VVCC is overlain by the Cassano Spinola Conglomerates (upper

156 Messinian), consisting of deltaic to lagoonal brackish water sediments that are equivalent to the
157 “Lago Mare” interval deposited during the third stage of the MSC.

158

159 **4. Methods**

160

161 The lithology and geometry of the studied methane-derived carbonates was described in the
162 field by selecting 10 representative samples for further petrographic and geochemical studies. After
163 cutting and polishing carbonate samples, 15 standard petrographic thin sections were prepared.
164 Petrographic and cathodoluminescence observations were carried out by plane-polarized and cross-
165 polarized light microscopy using a CITL 8200 mk3 equipment, operating at about 17 kV and 400
166 μA . Thin sections were further analysed for their UV-fluorescence, using ultraviolet light
167 (illumination source 450-490 nm) performed on a Nikon microscope with a UV-2A filter block.
168 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was carried out on slightly etched polished rock surfaces,
169 obtained from the same samples used for thin section preparation, using a SEM Cambridge
170 Instruments Stereoscan 360 equipped with an energy-dispersive (EDS) microprobe Link System
171 Oxford Instruments. Microdrilled samples were measured for their carbon and oxygen stable
172 isotope composition (Tab. 1), following the method of McCrea (1950), using Finnigan MAT 251
173 and 252 mass spectrometers. The isotopic ratios are expressed as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values relative to
174 the VPDB standard (precision $< \pm 0.05\%$). The isotope analyses were performed in the *ISO4*
175 Laboratory (Turin, Italy) and in the *MARUM* Stable Isotope Laboratory (Bremen, Germany).

176

177 **5. Results**

178

179 Three types of carbonates were found in the third unit of the VVCC. They have been
180 distinguished on the basis of the occurrence of inferred chemosymbiotic macroinvertebrate fossils:
181 (i) vuggy carbonates lacking macroinvertebrate remains, (ii) *Lucina* carbonates, and (iii) tubeworm

182 carbonates. In the following sections the petrographic and the stable isotope patterns of these three
183 categories of carbonates are described.

184

185 5.1. *Petrography*

186

187 5.1.1. *Vuggy carbonates*

188 Vuggy carbonates consist of irregularly shaped blocks, ranging from few decimetres to
189 several metres in size (Fig. 4A); their relationship with the encasing sediments is unclear due to
190 poor outcrop conditions. Locally, the vuggy carbonates are interbedded with laminated siltstone
191 (Fig. 4A) containing remains of euryhaline fishes (*Aphanius crassicaudus*, G. Carnevale, pers
192 comm.; Fig. 4B). The vuggy carbonates are composed of silty-mudstones (Fig. 4C) cemented by
193 intergranular dolomite crystals with a rounded, anhedral habit, whose sizes range from 5 to 20 μm
194 (Fig. 5D). Microprobe analyses revealed that these crystals are non-stoichiometric calcium-rich
195 dolomite. Some crystals exhibit a central hollow (Fig. 5D). Filaments, up to 1 millimetre long and
196 100 μm in diameter, are common (Figs. 5A,B). They are composed of micrite and contain abundant
197 terrigenous grains including clay particles and mica flakes.

198 A prominent feature of vuggy carbonates is the presence of several cavities ranging from 0.2
199 to 3 cm in size. They show elongated and prismatic shapes (Figs. 5A,C), indicating their origin
200 from the dissolution of gypsum crystals. The cavities are either empty or filled with sediments,
201 polyphasic calcite cements, or some residual gypsum (Fig. 5A). The carbonate cements filling the
202 cavities consist of polyphasic calcite cements with a colour range from white to brown under
203 transmitted light, and bright orange to dull brown under cathodoluminescence. The entire rock is
204 crosscut by a fracture system filled with polyphasic carbonate cements (Fig. 5C).

205

206 5.1.2. *Lucina carbonates*

207 In the study area, the *Lucina* carbonates consist of blocks up to 10 m in diameter, composed
208 of cemented mud breccias. These carbonates can be referred to as “*Calcari a Lucina*” (*sensu* Clari et
209 al., 1988), which have been recognised in other sectors of the TPB and in the northern Apennines
210 (e.g. Taviani, 1994; Conti and Fontana, 2005; Clari et al., 2009). They contain fossils of putative
211 chemosymbiotic bivalves, represented by internal moulds of articulated lucinids, whose size ranges
212 from 3 to 15 cm (Fig. 6). The rocks are made up of centimetre-sized rounded and angular clasts,
213 consisting of wackestones with a characteristic light brown colour. The matrix around the clasts is
214 composed of fine-grained sediments. The intergranular cement of both clasts and matrix is
215 represented by microcrystalline calcite. Pyrite is frequently found as framboids within the matrix,
216 but some other pyrite was obviously oxidised. Firm ground burrows are commonly observed in this
217 lithology. In addition to the chemosymbiotic fauna, the fossil content consists of planktic and minor
218 benthic foraminifers. These rocks are cross-cut by a network of well-defined millimetre to
219 centimetre thick fractures, filled with micritic sediments and carbonate cement. Cement is mainly
220 represented by botryoidal aragonite growing directly on the fracture walls and by sparry calcite.

221

222 5.1.3. *Tubeworm carbonates*

223 A single block of tubeworm carbonate (5 metre wide and 3 metre high) was found within the
224 VVCC deposits close to large gypsum blocks (Fig. 7A). It consists of calcite-cemented mud
225 breccias composed of mm- to dm-sized angular clasts floating in a micrite matrix (Fig. 7B). Some
226 clasts contain abundant foraminifers and pyritized peloids, indicating their derivation from the
227 underlying pre-Messinian succession. An intricate network of fractures cross-cut the rock matrix.
228 The fractures are filled with pink to white-coloured carbonate cements that are mainly composed of
229 fibrous aragonite and blocky calcite.

230 The most remarkable feature of this type of carbonate is a large cluster of tubular structures
231 (Figs. 7C-D). The tubes are curved along their length, are 4 to 7 mm in cross section (Figs. 8A), and
232 reveal a maximum exposed length of 4 cm. Tube wall thickness varies from 30 to 80 μm (Figs. 8A-

233 B). Walls consist of concentric dark brown to red micritic laminae 5 to 10 μm in thickness,
234 separated from each other by cryptocrystalline calcite and small fibrous aragonite crystals (Figs.
235 8C-D), resulting in a delamination pattern of individual layers of the tube wall. The concentric
236 lamination of the tube walls is also recognised by electron microscopy, revealing thin parallel but
237 separated laminae, in places bridged by carbonate pillars (Figs. 8E-F). Tubes are partially filled
238 with clotted micrite, characterised by closely-packed, curved elongated rods up to 1.2 millimetre
239 long and 120 μm in diameter (Figs. 9A-C). These rods are composed of dark micrite that shows a
240 bright fluorescence (Fig. 9D). The outer and inner surfaces of the tube walls, as well as the outer
241 margins of aggregates of tube-filling clotted micrite are commonly coated by concentric micro-
242 spherulites (Figs. 9B-C) that occur as isolated spherulites or form densely-packed chains and
243 aggregates. The spherulites exhibit a hollow nucleus of spherical or dumbbell shape (Fig. 9B). The
244 concentric zonation of spherulites is made up of turbid inner rims of dolomite and outer rims of
245 calcite. The average diameter of the spheroids is 80 μm , the diameter of the empty nuclei ranges
246 from 10 to 30 μm . The central portion of the tubes is partially filled with fans of acicular crystals of
247 aragonite and late equant calcite spar (Figs. 8A-B).

248

249 5.2. *Carbon and oxygen stable isotopes*

250

251 Thirty samples of the VVCC carbonates have been analysed for their carbon and oxygen
252 stable isotope compositions. Both the intergranular and the cavity and fracture-filling cements have
253 been analysed (Tab. 1; Fig. 10). The carbonate phases are marked by negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging
254 from -26.7 to -14.3‰ and by $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ranging from -7.2 to $+8.1\text{‰}$. The strongest ^{13}C -
255 depletion was found for the vuggy carbonates, both for the spheroidal dolomite representing
256 intergranular cement of the matrix (-26.7‰) and the fracture-filling carbonate cements (-25.0‰).
257 Vuggy carbonates are also characterised by wide fluctuations of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values spanning from -6 to
258 $+1.5\text{‰}$ in the microcrystalline matrix and from -7.2 to $+4.4\text{‰}$ in the cavity-filling cements. The

259 intergranular cements of both *Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates yielded negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values too (as
260 low as -26‰ ; Fig. 10). Positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values characterise these cements with a highest value of
261 $+8.1\text{‰}$ found for the tubeworm carbonates. Low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values were only recognised in the late
262 diagenetic calcite cements filling cavities of the tubeworm carbonates (-5.6‰) or fractures of the
263 *Lucina* carbonates (-4.0‰).

264

265 **6. Discussion**

266

267 The authigenic carbonates discovered in the Messinian chaotic deposits of the studied sector
268 of the TPB show textural, petrographical, and geochemical features that, when considered together,
269 indicate that they are cold seep deposits: (i) authigenic carbonate phases are common, both in the
270 sediment pore space (mainly calcite and dolomite) and in open fractures (mainly aragonite and
271 calcite), (ii) specific micro-fabrics such as clotted micrite (cf. Riding, 2000; Peckmann et al., 2002)
272 as well as spheroidal and dumbbell-shaped crystal aggregates (cf. Cavagna et al., 1999; Peckmann
273 et al., 1999; Peckmann and Thiel, 2004) with intense autofluorescence were recognised, suggesting
274 a microbial origin of the carbonates, (iii) authigenic carbonates show negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (ranging
275 from -27 to -14‰). Compared to other methane-derived carbonates, which can reveal $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
276 as low as -75‰ (Campbell, 2006), the moderate ^{13}C depletion observed in the VVCC rocks can be
277 explained with a mixture of methane-derived carbon with other sources, such as, marine dissolved
278 inorganic carbon, or carbon deriving from the remineralisation of organic matter or heavier
279 hydrocarbons (Roberts and Aharon, 1994). An additional cause for the moderate ^{13}C depletion
280 could be a thermogenic methane source (see below). Lipid biomarkers of prokaryotes involved in
281 the anaerobic oxidation of methane extracted from the VVCC carbonates confirm that methane
282 oxidation contributed to carbonate formation (unpubl. data). Moreover, fracturing and brecciation
283 testify overcritical pore water pressure during carbonate formation, possibly generated from the
284 rising of gas-charged fluids or the destabilisation of gas hydrates (cf. Mazzini et al., 2003;

285 Peckmann et al., 2011; Natalicchio et al., 2012). Compared to other modern and ancient seep
286 carbonates, but especially to those hosted in the lower Messinian slope sediments of the study area
287 (Dela Pierre et al., 2010; Natalicchio et al., 2012), the carbonates discussed below show some very
288 distinctive features.

289

290 6.1. *The vuggy carbonates: evidence of hydrocarbon seepage under hypersaline conditions*

291

292 The vuggy carbonates reflect a complex evolution related to hypersalinity and seepage of
293 hydrocarbon-rich fluids. Hypersaline depositional conditions are indicated by abundant carbonate
294 pseudomorphs after gypsum preserved in the carbonate rocks. Most likely, gypsum grew within
295 porous muds impregnated by oversaturated brines (Fig. 11A). The preservation of pseudomorphs
296 suggests that the host sediments underwent an early phase of dolomite cementation close to the
297 seafloor prior to dissolution of gypsum crystals. Primary dolomite precipitation, which is known to
298 occur at seeps (e.g. Cavagna et al., 1999; Peckmann et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2010) is indicated
299 by the petrographic relationships with the surrounding sediments. The filamentous structures
300 randomly dispersed in the sediments (Fig. 5D) may represent faecal pellets of brine shrimp of the
301 genus *Artemia*. These faecal pellets have been reported from modern hypersaline environments
302 (Djamali et al., 2010), but as well in Messinian sediments (e.g. Schreiber et al., 1976; Guido et al.,
303 2007). A faecal origin of these filaments is further supported by the incorporated terrigenous grains
304 like clay particles and mica flakes. Finally, high salinities during deposition agree with the presence
305 of fossils of *Aphanius crassicaudus*, an euryhaline fish commonly found in the PLG unit of the first
306 MSC stage elsewhere in the Piedmont Basin (Dela Pierre et al., 2011). Based on these observations,
307 it seems likely that the vuggy carbonates formed during the first stage of the MSC and were
308 redeposited during its second stage (see Fig. 2).

309 The intergranular dolomite cement reveals a high autofluorescence as well as spherical and
310 dumbbell-shaped crystal habits (Figs. 5E-F). All these features suggest a microbial origin of the

311 dolomite. Similar features have been described from present day hypersaline coastal lagoons, where
312 dolomites were interpreted to be the product of the activity of sulphate-reducing bacteria (e.g.
313 Vasconcelos et al., 1995; Warthmann et al., 2000). Microbial dolomites with similar crystal habits
314 have also been reported from ancient seep deposits (e.g. Cavagna et al., 1999; Peckmann et al.,
315 1999), where dolomite precipitation was driven by the anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM). The
316 negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (as low as -27‰) of the studied dolomites suggest a contribution of AOM to
317 dolomite precipitation (Fig. 11B). AOM consortia were probably sustained by diffusive flux of
318 methane-rich fluids and favoured by the presence of sulphate-saturated Messinian brines. The
319 absence of chemosymbiotic macro-faunal remains agrees with extreme environmental conditions,
320 inhospitable for most metazoans, but favourable for halotolerant methanotrophs (cf. Ziegenbalg et
321 al., 2012).

322 The petrographical complexity of the vuggy carbonates is caused by the successive
323 occurrence of several diagenetic events (Figs. 11C-D), including (i) the opening of a fracture system
324 crosscutting the cemented gypsum-bearing sediments, (ii) the dissolution of gypsum crystals
325 generating new porosity, and (iii) the infill of parts of the newly generated porosity with calcite
326 cements. The low carbon isotope values of the later-stage cavity-filling calcite cements confirm a
327 carbon source from hydrocarbon-rich fluids. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values are difficult to interpret and could
328 reflect an intermittent influence of meteoric waters under fluctuating salinity conditions or an effect
329 of microbial sulphate consumption (AOM or organoclastic sulphate reduction) as a possible cause
330 of ^{16}O -enrichment in the microenvironments of carbonate precipitation (cf. Sass et al., 1991;
331 Turchyn et al., 2010).

332

333 6.2. *The Lucina carbonates: evidence of hydrocarbon seepage in the shallow subsurface*

334

335 The studied *Lucina* carbonates, like many other examples in the Neogene of the
336 Mediterranean (e.g. Taviani, 1994; Clari et al., 2004, 2009; Conti et al., 2008), formed at

337 hydrocarbon seeps based on the co-occurrence of densely packed chemosymbiotic bivalves and
338 negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the authigenic carbonate minerals (av. -20%). This type of carbonate
339 formed in the shallow subsurface, near to the sediment-water interface, below an oxygenated
340 seafloor. Not only are *Lucina* bivalves oxygen-dependant (Taylor and Glover, 2009), but many
341 specimens reveal boreholes in the shells, reflecting drilling predation of oxygen-dependent
342 predators (cf. Kelly and Hansen, 2003; Amano and Jenkins, 2007; Clari et al., 2009).

343

344 6.3. *Tubeworm carbonates: the preservation of a colony of vestimentiferan worms*

345

346 Textural and compositional characteristics of the tubeworm carbonates (e.g. brecciation and
347 clasts sourced from the underlying pre-Messinian successions) suggest that these features resulted
348 from hydrocarbon-seepage associated with the extrusion of unconsolidated fine-grained sediments
349 onto the seafloor, as previously suggested for similar deposits from the pre-Messinian succession of
350 this sector (Dela Pierre et al., 2010) and elsewhere in the Piedmont Basin (Clari et al., 2004; 2009).
351 In contrast to the previously studied carbonates, this type of rock contains tubular structures. The
352 tubes are interpreted as remains of vestimentiferan tubeworms on the basis of their similarity with
353 living vestimentiferan worm tubes (see below). At modern seeps, the chemosymbiotic
354 vestimentiferan worms commonly form dense bush-like colonies clustering around sites of vigorous
355 methane flux. A great abundance of vestimentiferans usually points to very high sulphide
356 concentrations (Cordes et al., 2003; Arvidson et al., 2004; Sahling et al., 2008). Living
357 vestimentiferans are characterised by anterior tubes (often up to 1 m in length) with a great variety
358 of shapes, including straight, curved to very coiled habits, projecting from the seafloor into the
359 water column. The more permeable and thinner posterior part of the tubes grows into the underlying
360 sediments, allowing the uptake of hydrogen sulphide from interstitial sources and pumping of
361 sulphate back into the surrounding sediments. The enrichment of sulphate in the sediments is
362 thought to accelerate AOM, promoting the precipitation of significant amount of carbonates (Julian

363 et al., 1999; Freytag et al., 2001; Cordes et al., 2003; Dattagupta et al., 2006, 2008; Haas et al.,
364 2009).

365 Fossilized worm tubes interpreted to represent vestimentiferan tubeworms have been
366 documented in some ancient seep carbonates (e.g. Goedert et al., 2000; Peckmann et al., 2005;
367 Himmler et al., 2008; Hammer et al., 2011). In the Piedmont Basin, tubes of putative
368 vestimentiferans were reported from the Monferrato area close to the study area (Peckmann et al.,
369 1999). The tubes studied here reveal structural features that support their interpretation as remains
370 of vestimentiferan tubeworms. The size and the curvature of the tubes are very similar to the
371 anterior part of the tubes of modern vestimentiferans (e.g. the genus *Lamellibrachia*; Haas et al.,
372 2009). Furthermore, the concentric lamination of tubes and the delamination of individual layers
373 corresponds to the taphonomy of the tubes of modern (Haas et al., 2009) and ancient
374 vestimentiferans (Peckmann et al., 2005; Himmler et al., 2008). Vestimentiferan worms are not the
375 only seep-dwelling tubeworms with a layered tube wall (Kiel and Dando, 2009), but the only seep-
376 dwelling worms for which taphonomical delamination has been reported to date at seeps.

377 Striking additional features of the tubeworm carbonates are elongated rods as well as
378 spheroidal and dumbbell-shaped dolomitic crystal aggregates within the tubes. The origin of the
379 elongated rods is unknown, but on the basis of their dimensions and their curved shape, they
380 resemble the remains of sulphide-oxidizing bacteria reported from a Miocene seep deposit
381 (Peckmann et al., 2004) and Messinian evaporitic carbonates (Olivieri et al., 2010). The studied
382 textures are not preserved well enough to allow such an assignment, but the absence of incorporated
383 terrigenous grains allows to exclude a faecal origin. For the dolomite spheroids a microbial origin is
384 proposed on the basis of crystal habit and their intense fluorescence. Considering all these
385 observations, it is suggested that the studied tubeworm carbonate formed at a site of vigorous gas
386 emission at the seafloor, where high concentrations of hydrogen sulphide allowed the growth of
387 dense colonies of vestimentiferan tubeworms and probably favoured large sulphur bacteria as well.

388

389 6.4. *Evolution of a seepage system during the Messinian salinity crisis*

390

391 The eastern part of the Piedmont Basin reveals abundant methane-derived carbonates,
392 documenting prolonged seepage of hydrocarbon-bearing fluids prior to and during the Messinian
393 salinity crisis. The carbonates are hosted both in the pre-MSC slope deposits (Dela Pierre et al.,
394 2010; Natalicchio et al., 2012 and reference therein) and in chaotic resedimented sediments
395 deposited during the second MSC stage. Both the pre-MSC and MSC carbonate deposits show
396 variable characteristics reflecting different depositional conditions of the host sediments and
397 different diagenetic pathways. Previous studies (Dela Pierre et al., 2010; Natalicchio et al., 2012)
398 documented that pre-MSC carbonates formed just below the seafloor, giving rise to cemented mud
399 breccias with oligotypic assemblages of chemosymbiotic bivalves (*Lucina* sp.), as well as somewhat
400 deeper in the shallow subsurface, resulting in a wide array of authigenic carbonates that record the
401 upward migration of fluids. Some of the methane was apparently sourced by gas hydrate
402 destabilisation in the sedimentary column (Dela Pierre et al., 2010). Stable carbon isotope data
403 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging from -60 to -25‰) indicated that methane was mainly of a biogenic origin,
404 even if a minor source of thermogenic methane was not excluded (Dela Pierre et al., 2010;
405 Natalicchio et al., 2012). Moreover, the lipid biomarker inventory of the deeper-seated pre-MSC
406 carbonates suggested that carbonate precipitation took place in multiple stages and was induced by
407 various microbially-driven processes, including bacterial sulphate reduction, methanogenesis, and
408 AOM (cf. Natalicchio et al., 2012). In contrast, all types of authigenic carbonates found in the
409 VVCC show lesser ^{13}C depletion, suggesting the involvement of thermogenic methane sourced
410 from deeper Mesozoic strata or more admixture of carbon from other sources than methane
411 oxidation. Thermogenic methane possibly migrated upward along tectonic discontinuities like the
412 close Villalvernia-Varzi line.

413 The spectrum of authigenic carbonates of the VVCC allows to shed light on the evolution of
414 the seepage system during the MSC. Vuggy carbonates are the result of complex and polyphasic

415 early diagenetic events driven by AOM that occurred within sediments deposited under hypersaline
416 conditions. Their ^{13}C depletion agrees with AOM functioning under hypersaline conditions too (cf.
417 Ziegenbalg et al., 2012). The vuggy carbonates formed in the subseafloor, but, unlike the other
418 studied seep carbonates, they are barren of fossils of chemosymbiotic macroinvertebrates. This
419 absence was probably caused by hypersaline conditions, which hampered the life of most
420 eukaryotes, allowing only halotolerant prokaryotes and few specialized metazoans (putative
421 *Artemia* sp.) to survive. In contrast, *Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates (Fig. 2) do not show features
422 that allow their unequivocal attribution to the MSC stratigraphic record. However, the otherwise
423 absence of pre-MSC blocks within the VVCC succession makes it unlikely that these types of
424 carbonates were reworked from older deposits. Moreover, their C and O isotope signatures differ
425 significantly from those of the underlying pre-MSC seep carbonates (Fig. 10). The putative MSC
426 carbonates show a distinct ^{18}O -enrichment (values as high as +8‰), already recognised for other
427 MSC carbonates of the VVCC from other parts of the Piedmont Basin (Clari et al., 2009). Similar
428 values have also been reported for sulphur-bearing, hydrocarbon-derived carbonates from Sicily
429 that formed during the MSC (Ziegenbalg et al., 2010).

430 An envisaged scenario of the evolution of the seepage system in the study area during the
431 MSC is shown in Fig. 12. Vuggy carbonates are considered as the lateral equivalent of the primary
432 evaporites (PLG unit) deposited during the first MSC stage in the shallower, marginal parts of the
433 Piedmont Basin (Fig. 12A; cf. Dela Pierre et al., 2011). The primary evaporites along with the
434 vuggy carbonates were subsequently eroded and partly incorporated as scattered blocks in the
435 VVCC during the second MSC stage (Fig. 12B). The *Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates, on the other
436 hand, are considered to be syndepositional products of seepage, formed during the second MSC
437 stage within the VVCC. The occurrence of seep-dwelling, putative chemosymbiotic metazoans in
438 some of the carbonate deposits indicates that long-lasting fluid expulsion affected a rugged seafloor,
439 which resulted from mass wasting processes involving blocks of gypsum and vuggy carbonate (Fig.
440 12B). As a consequence of partial dissolution of gypsum in seawater, dense brine is suggested to

441 have formed in depressions. Such conditions are known from deep sea hypersaline basins of the
442 Eastern Mediterranean ridge (e.g. Camerlenghi, 1990), although at a larger scale than inferred for
443 this study site. In such depressions filled with stagnant brines, anoxic conditions developed,
444 hampering the life of infaunal metazoans. Vestimentiferan worms settled on morphological highs,
445 allowing their tubes to project into an oxic water column. This way, vestimentiferans supposedly
446 were able to take up oxygen and still benefit from methane seepage (Fig. 12B). The *Lucina*
447 carbonates could only have formed where methane emission reached those parts of the seafloor
448 placed well above the oxic-anoxic boundary in the water column, allowing them to mine sulphide
449 from the anoxic sediment below (Fig. 12B). After their formation, *Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates
450 were involved in mass wasting processes, responsible for the final emplacement within the VVCC
451 succession at the end of the second MSC stage (Fig. 12C).

452

453 **7. Conclusions**

454

455 The authigenic carbonate rocks of the study area allow to reconstruct the evolution of a
456 seepage system during the Messinian salinity crisis. The carbonates display features that result from
457 hydrocarbon seepage into a sulphate-enriched body of water. Such sulphate enrichment resulted
458 from both seawater evaporation (as reflected in the vuggy carbonates) and dissolution of gypsum
459 deposits (*Lucina* and tubeworm carbonates). Although all studied rock types occur as blocks within
460 a chaotic gravity flow deposit, their lithological features allow to establish a putative relative
461 chronology of their formation and to relate them to different stages of the MSC. Vuggy carbonates
462 are suggested to have formed during the first MSC stage under hypersaline conditions, agreeing
463 with the apparent lack of chemosymbiotic communities caused by extreme environmental
464 conditions. Tubeworm and *Lucina* carbonates likely formed during the second MSC stage under
465 less severe conditions, allowing the survival of seep-dwelling metazoans. The fate of

466 vestimentiferan and bivalve communities is envisaged to have been controlled by the interaction of
467 a rugged seafloor topography and dense anoxic brines, produced by the dissolution of gypsum.

468

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786 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

787 **Fig. 1** (A) Structural sketch map of northwestern Italy (modified from Bigi et al., 1990). (B)

788 Schematic geological map of the study area showing the distribution of the main blocks of

789 authigenic carbonate within the Valle Versa Chaotic Complex.

790

791 **Fig. 2** Correlation of the studied section (right) with the Messinian salinity crisis

792 chronostratigraphic framework (modified from CIESM, 2008). The three intervals distinguished in

793 the Valle Versa Chaotic Complex are indicated (*a*, *b*, and *c*). PLG: Primary Lower Gypsum; UG:

794 Upper Gypsum; RLG: Resedimented Lower Gypsum; MES: Messinian Erosional Surface; SAF:

795 Sant'Agata Fossili Marls; CSC: Cassano Spinola Conglomerates; VC: vuggy carbonates; LC:

796 *Lucina* carbonates; TC: tubeworm carbonates. Note that in the Sant'Agata Fossili Marls in situ

797 *Lucina* carbonates (LC) are also present. The 'v' symbols in the lithostratigraphic column indicate

798 gypsum.

799

800 **Fig. 3** Outcrop view showing the erosional boundary (MES = Messinian erosional surface)

801 separating the Sant'Agata Fossili Marls and the Valle Versa Chaotic Complex (VVCC). Note the

802 two lowermost intervals of the VVCC (*a* and *b*) composed of selenite gypsum blocks.

803

804 **Fig. 4** (A) Outcrop view of the vuggy carbonates (VC); the dashed line indicates the sharp contact

805 with laminated siltstone (Ss) containing remains of euryhaline fishes, including *Aphanius*

806 *crassicaudus* (B). (C) Polished slab of the vuggy carbonates (sample CVP8); note the centimetre-

807 sized cavities filled with micritic sediments (Sd) and polyphasic carbonate cements (Cm), floating

808 within grey siltstone (Ss); carbon and oxygen isotope values of carbonate phases are shown.

809

810 **Fig. 5** (A) Vuggy carbonates composed of cemented silty-mudstones (Ss) and cavities filled with

811 polyphasic carbonate cements (Cm) and sediments (Sed); plane-polarized light. Note the

812 pseudomorphs after gypsum partially filled with sediments (white arrow). (B) Detail of (A) showing
813 cluster of filaments; plane-polarized light. (C) Carbonate pseudomorphs after gypsum, crosscut by a
814 fracture filled with polyphasic carbonate cements; the isotope values of the fracture-filling cements
815 are indicated; plane-polarized light. (D) SEM image showing spheroidal dolomite crystals making
816 up the intergranular cement; note the central hollow of some dolomite crystals.

817

818 **Fig. 6** Outcrop view of *Lucina* carbonates.

819

820 **Fig. 7** (A) Outcrop view of tubeworm carbonates. (B) Detail of (A) showing centimetre-sized
821 angular clasts. (C) Close up of (A) showing a cluster of curved tubular structures. (D) Polished slab
822 of the tubular structures; note acicular aragonite (Ar) and minor sediments (Sed) filling the tubes.

823

824 **Fig. 8** Photomicrographs of tubeworm carbonates. (A) and (B) Tubes in cross section; note in (B)
825 aragonite needles on both the internal and external surface of the tube wall; plane-polarized light.
826 (C) and (D) Close up of tube walls; note the delamination of individual layers of the tube wall;
827 plane-polarized and fluorescent light, respectively. (D) Delaminated carbonate layers exhibit an
828 intense autofluorescence. (E) and (F) SEM views of tube wall; slightly etched, polished rock
829 surfaces; note carbonate pillars connecting two otherwise separated layers of the tube wall (arrows).

830

831 **Fig. 9** (A) Tube infilled by clotted micrite and carbonate cement; plane-polarized light. (B)
832 Dolomite microspherulite coating the tube wall; note the dumbbell morphology of the central
833 hollow. (C) and (D) Detail of (A) showing irregular elongated rods (white arrows) and dolomite
834 microspherulites (black arrows); plane-polarized and fluorescent light, respectively. (D) Rods
835 (white arrows) reveal an intense autofluorescence.

836

837 **Fig. 10** Cross-plot of the stable isotope data.

838

839 **Fig. 11** Evolutionary stages envisaged for the genesis of vuggy carbonates; AOM = anaerobic
840 oxidation of methane; for further details see text.

841

842 **Fig. 12** Evolution of hydrocarbon seepage during the Messinian salinity crisis. (A) Formation of the
843 vuggy carbonates during the first MSC stage. Note that the stratigraphic relationship between vuggy
844 carbonates and gypsum are not longer preserved (see text). (B) Formation of tubeworm and *Lucina*
845 carbonates in the second MSC stage; OAb = oxic-anoxic boundary. (C) Final configuration after
846 carbonates have been involved in gravitative processes at the end of the second MSC stage.
847 Symbols and abbreviations are the same as in Fig. 2.

848

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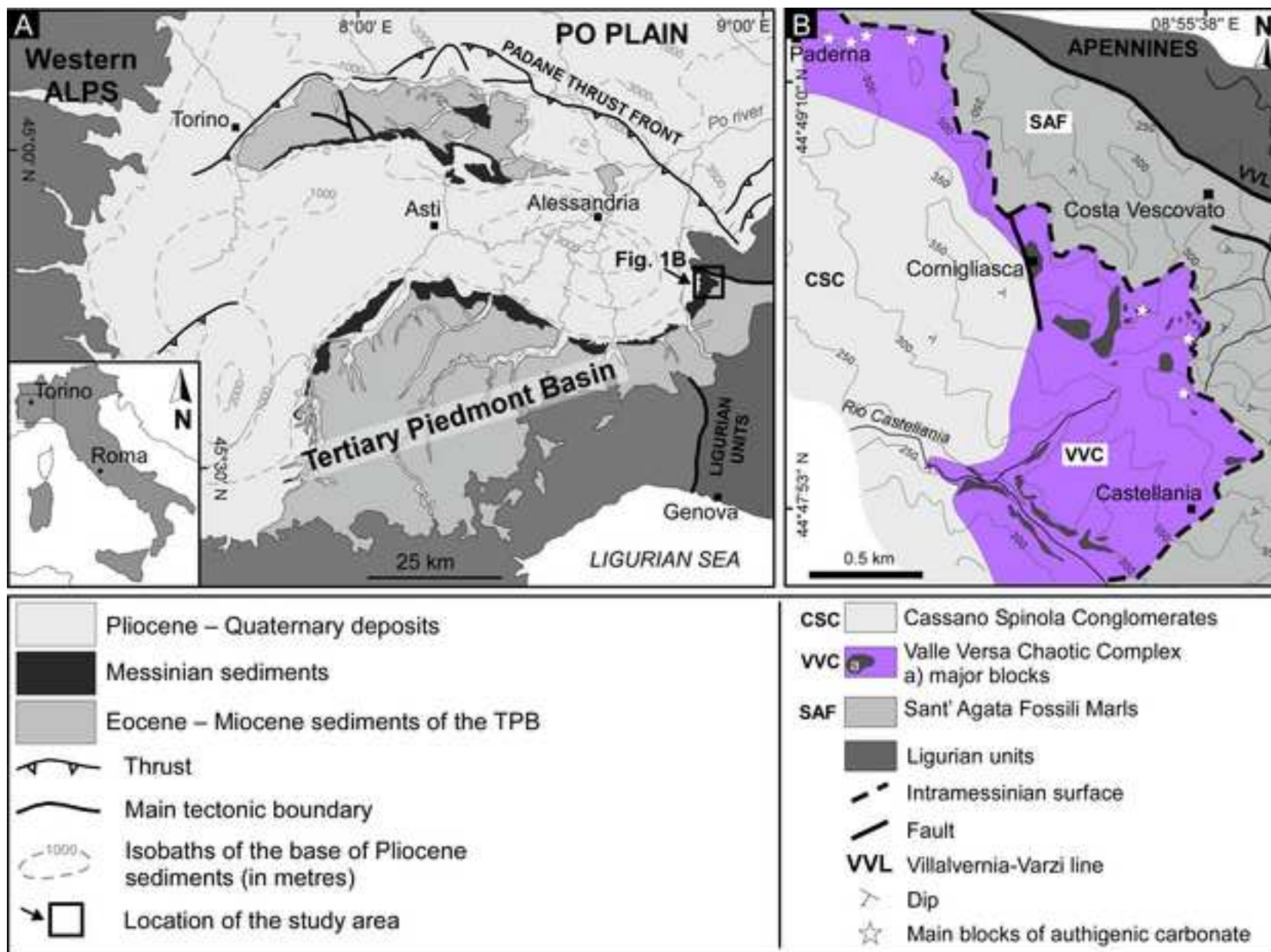
850 **TABLES**

851

852 **Table 1** Mineralogy, carbon and oxygen isotope composition of carbonate phases.

Figure 1

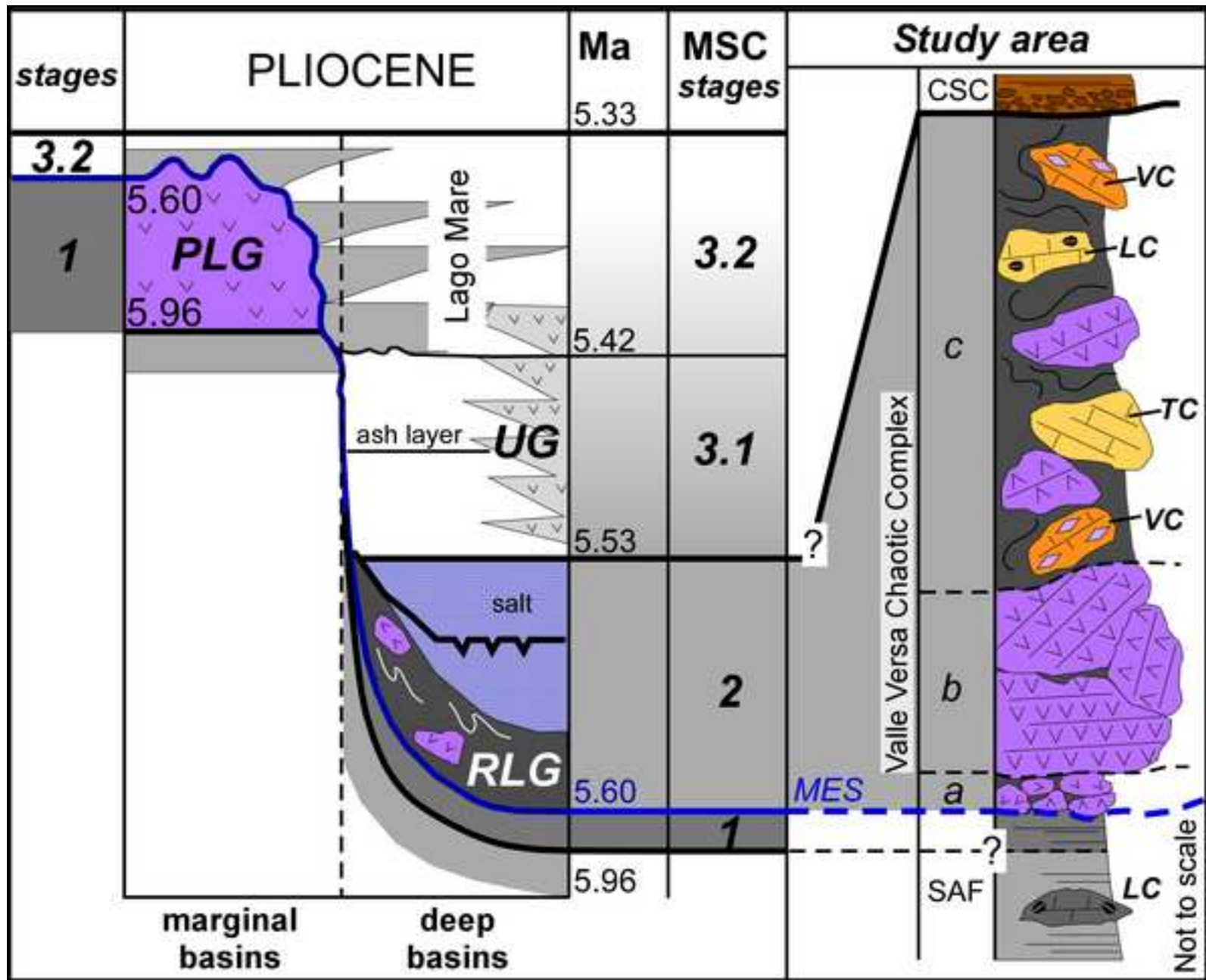
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Natalicchio et al. Figure 1

Figure 2

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Figure3

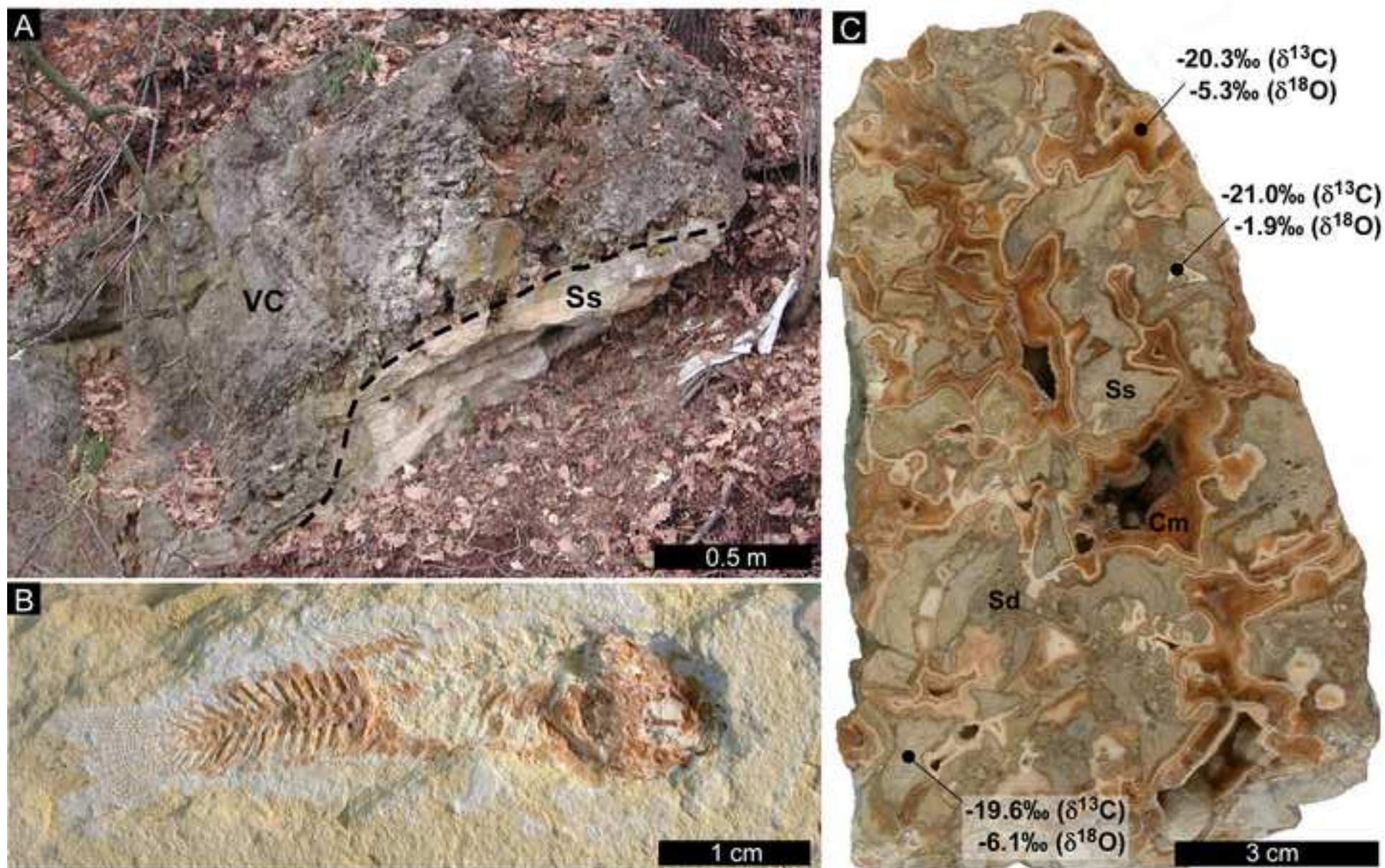
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Natalicchio et al., Figure 3

Figure 4

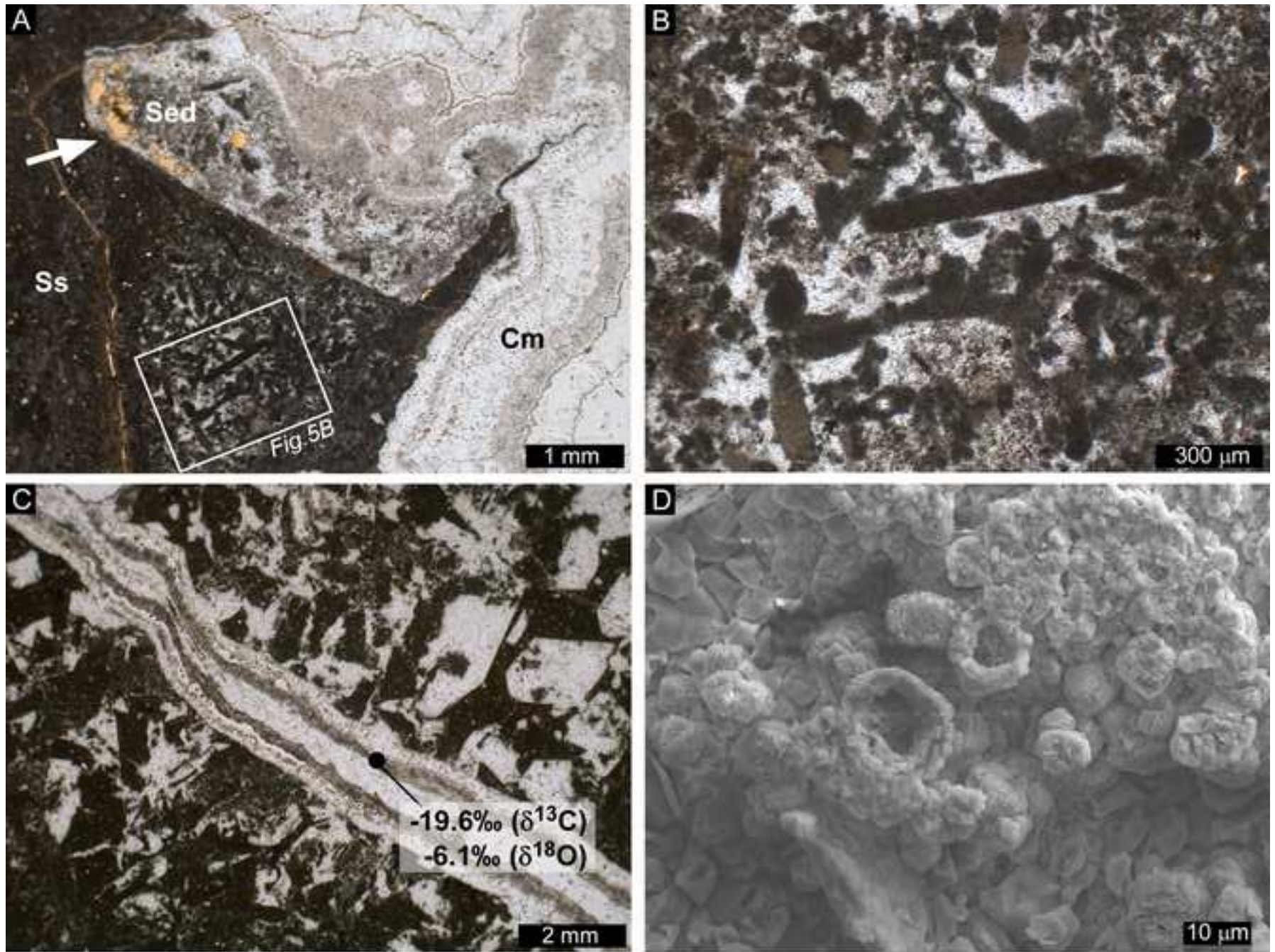
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Figure6

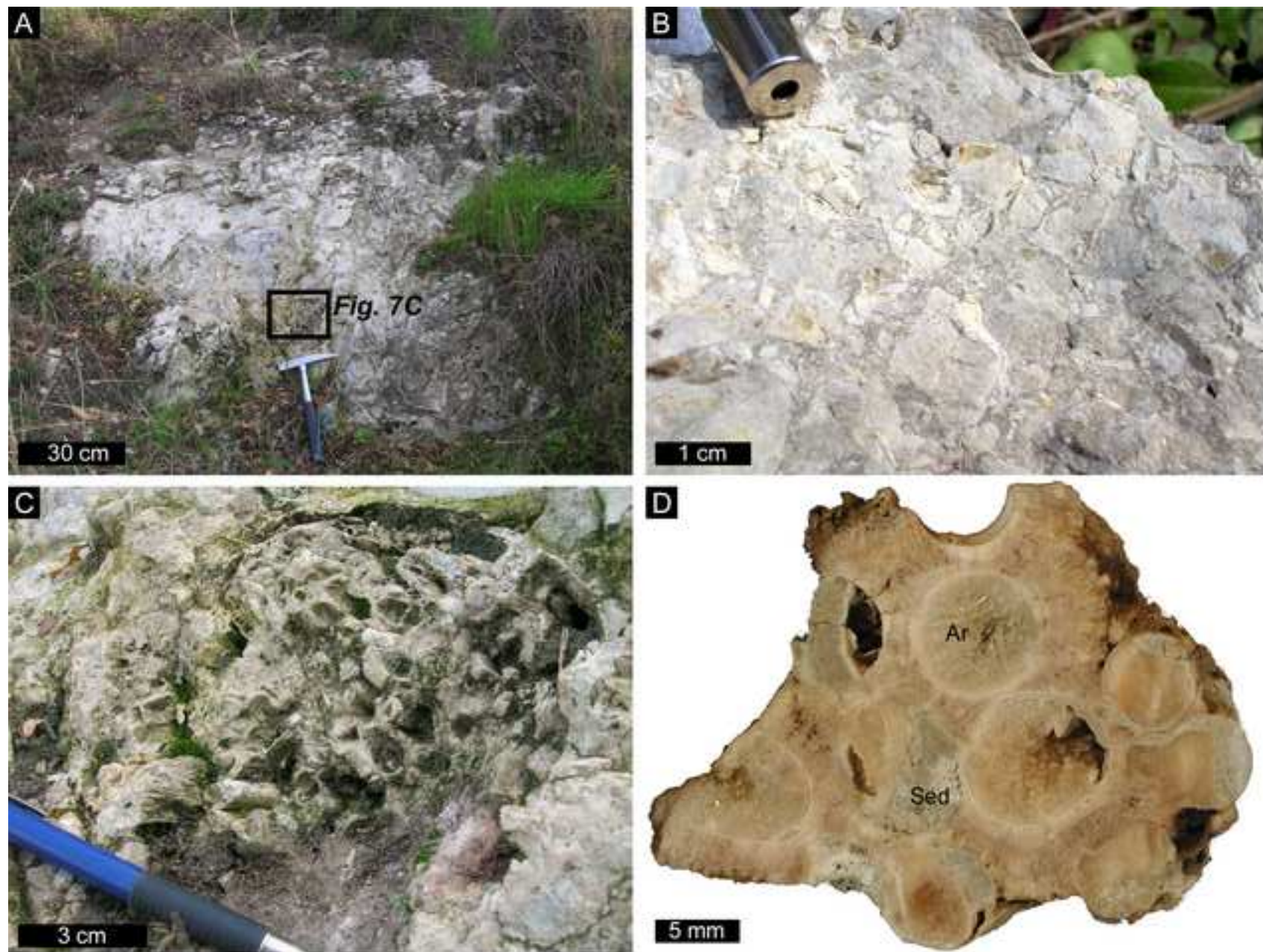
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Natalicchio et al., Fig. 6

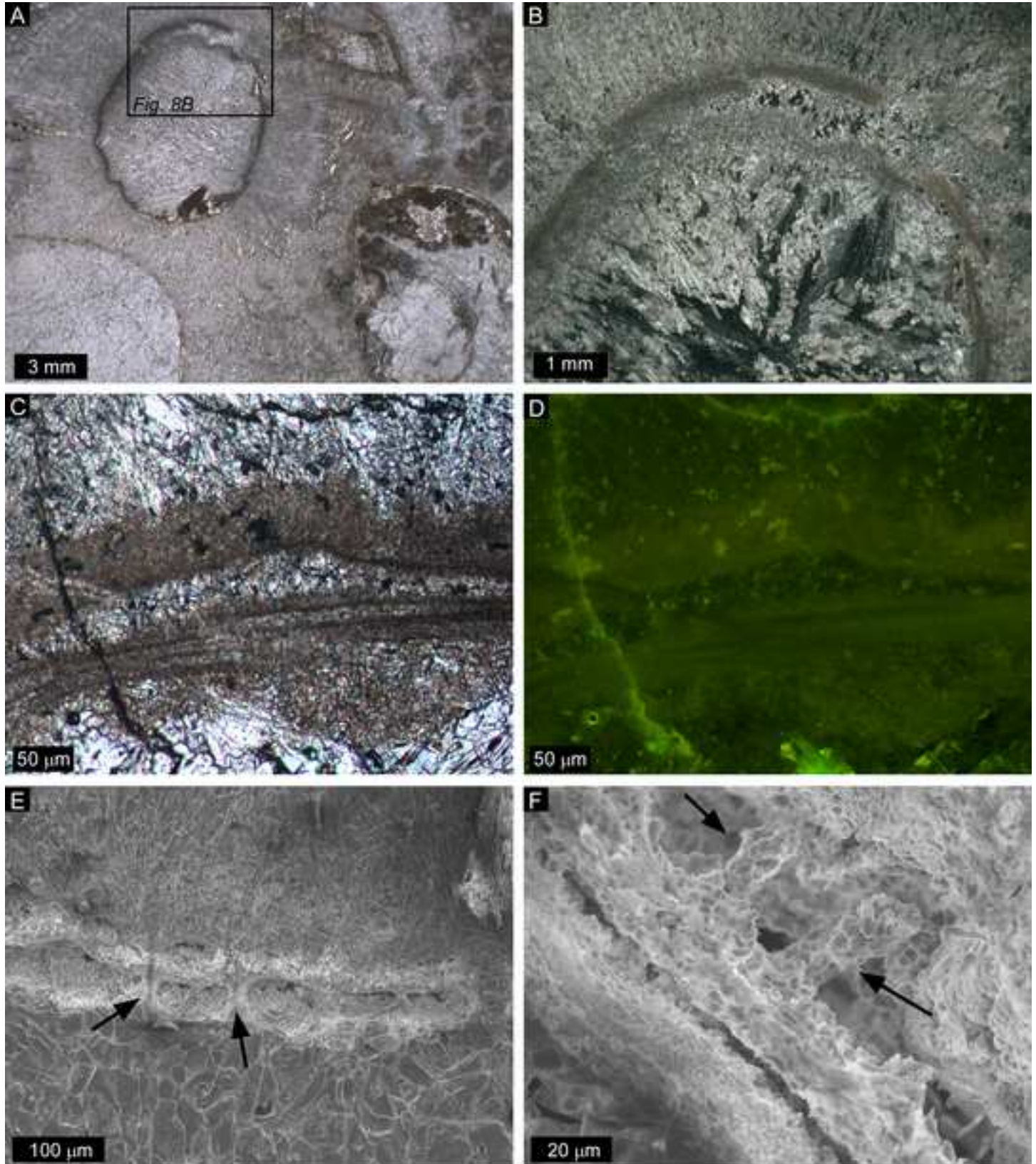
Figure 7

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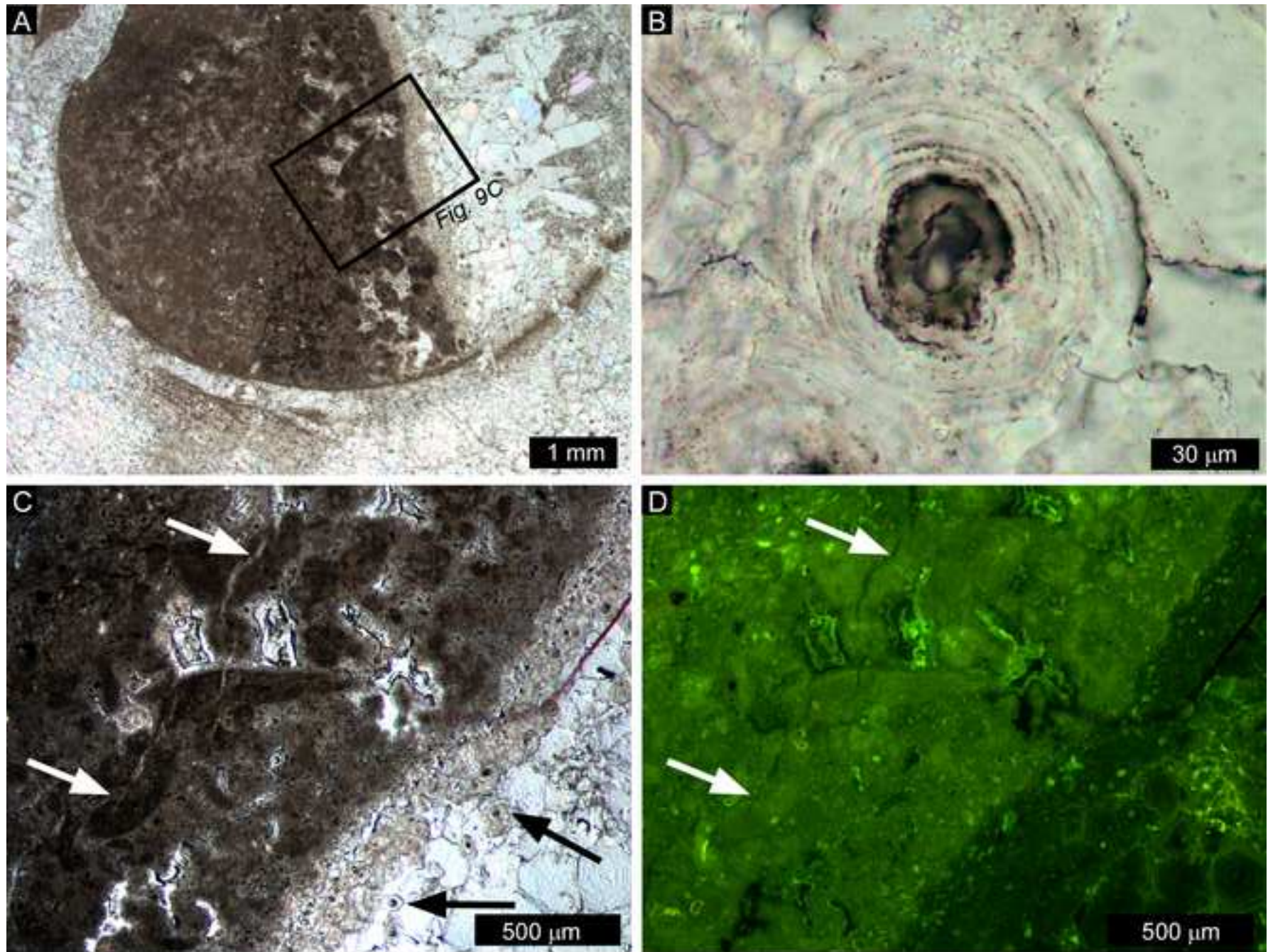
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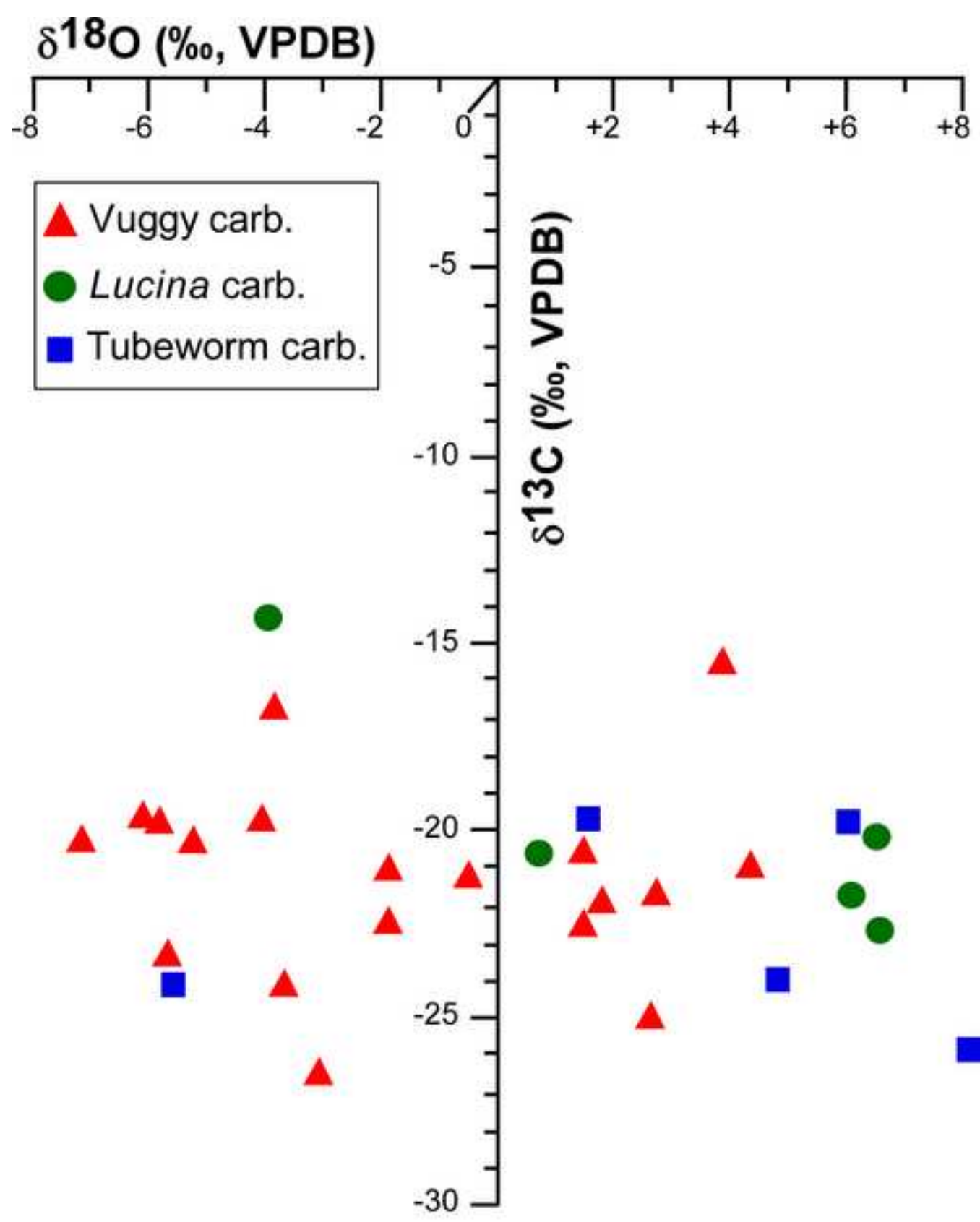
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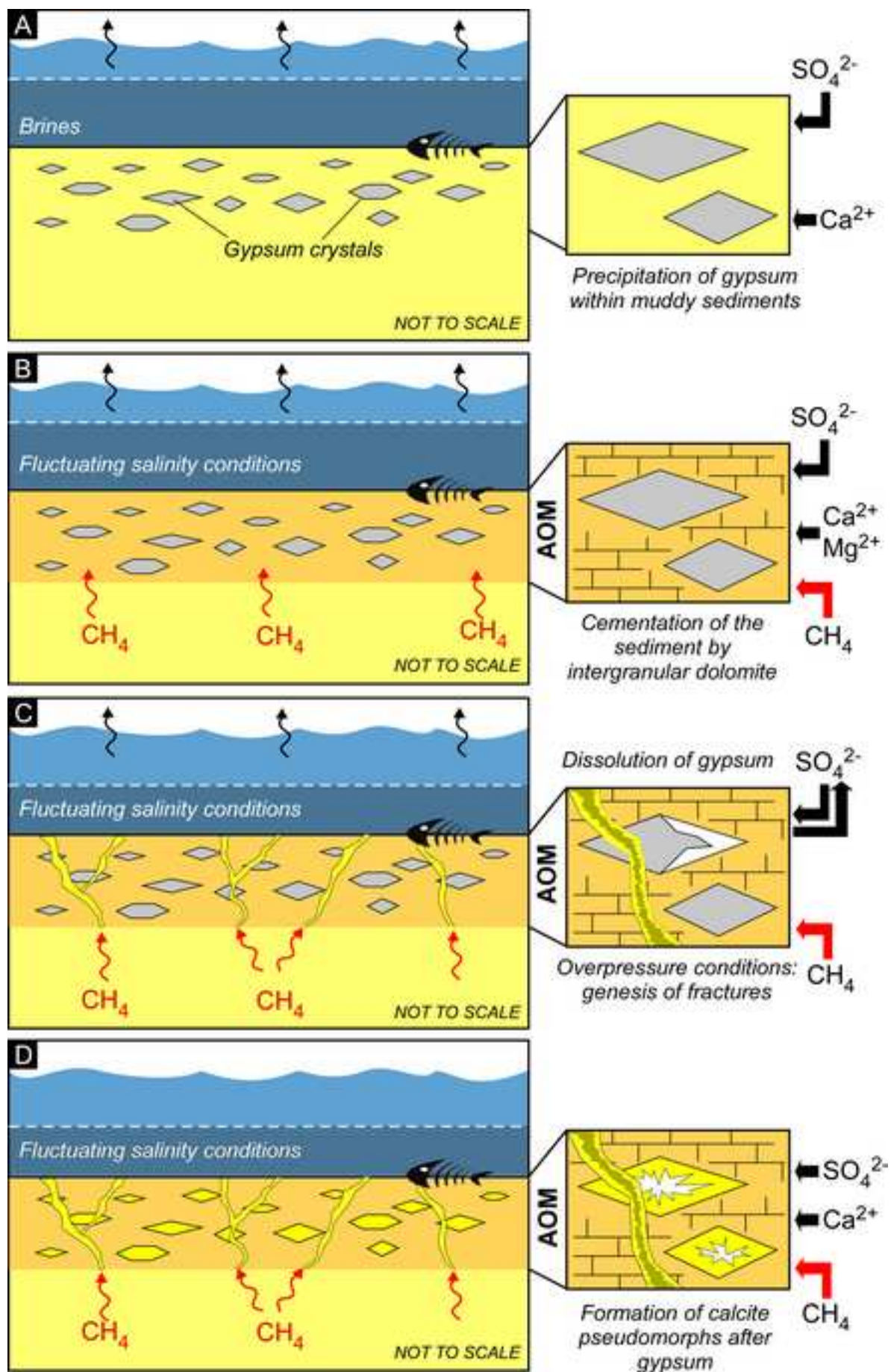
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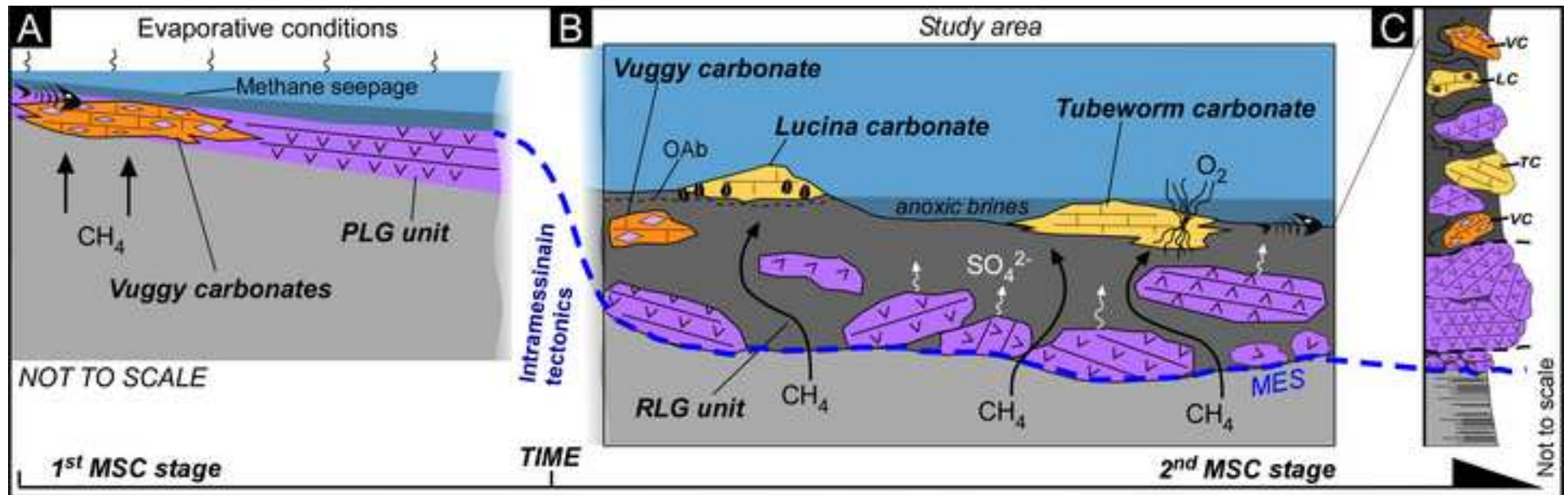
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Figure12

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Natalicchio et al., Figure 12

Table1

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Sample	Mineralogy	Cement type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ [‰]	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ [‰]
<i>Vuggy carbonates</i>				
CVP8-1 4.2	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-21.7	+2.7
CVP8-1 4.3	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-20.3	-7.2
CVP8-1 4.4	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-16.7	-3.9
CVP8-1 4.5	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-21.0	-1.9
CVP8-1 4.6	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-21.0	+4.4
CVP8-1 4.7	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-21.2	-0.5
CVP8-1 4.8	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-19.8	-5.9
CVP8-1 4.9	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-20.3	-5.3
CVP8-1 4.10	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-15.5	+3.9
CVP8-2 10.2	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-21.9	+1.8
CVP8c	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-19.8	-4.1
CVP6	Calcite	Cavity-filling	-18.0	-5.7
CVP12a	Calcite/Dolomite	Cavity-filling	-22.4	-1.9
CVP13	Calcite/Dolomite	Carbonate vein	-25.0	+2.7
CVP8-1 4.1	Dolomite	Intergranular	-19.6	-6.1
CVP8a	Dolomite	Intergranular	-20.7	+1.5
CVP8b	Dolomite	Intergranular	-22.5	+1.5
CVP11a	Dolomite	Intergranular	-24.1	-3.7
CVP11b	Dolomite	Intergranular	-26.7	-3.0
CVP12b	Dolomite	Intergranular	-23.2	-5.8
<i>Lucina carbonates</i>				
PA2	Calcite	Intergranular	-21.9	+6.1
PA1a	Calcite	Intergranular	-20.1	+6.5
CVP7a	Calcite	Intergranular	-22.7	+6.7
PA1b	Calcite	Carbonate vein	-14.3	-4.0
CVP7b	Calcite/Aragonite	Carbonate vein	-20.7	+0.8
<i>Tubeworm carbonates</i>				
TU1	Calcite	Tube cluster	-24.3	-5.6
TU2	Calcite	Tube cluster	-24.1	+4.8
RDZ1	Calcite	Intergranular	-25.9	+8.1
RDZ3	Calcite/Aragonite	Carbonate vein	-19.8	+1.6
ZF113A	Aragonite	Carbonate vein	-19.8	+6.0

Natalicchio et al., Tab.1