

1 **Seismicity, seismotectonics and crustal velocity structure of the Messina Strait (Italy)**

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4
5 **Abstract**

6 The Messina Strait is the most important structural element interrupting the southernmost part of the Alpine-Apenninic
7 orogenic belt, known as the Calabro-Peloritan Arc. It is being a narrow fan-shaped basin linking the Ionian Sea to the
8 Tyrrhenian Sea. This region is affected by considerable seismic activity which mirrors the geodynamic processes due to
9 the convergence between the African and the Eurasian plates. In the last four centuries, a significant number of
10 disastrous earthquakes originated along the Arc. Among these, the most noteworthy event occurred on December 28,
11 1908 (known as the Reggio Calabria-Messina earthquake), in the Messina Strait area and caused a large tsunami and
12 more than 100,000 casualties. In this research we focus on the relationships between the general tectonic setting, which
13 characterize the Messina Strait and adjacent areas, seismicity patterns and the crustal structure. We analyzed a data set
14 consisting of more than 300 events occurring in the years from 1999 to 2007, having a magnitude range from 1.0 to 3.8.
15 This data set was exploited in a local earthquake tomography, by carrying out a simultaneous inversion of both the
16 three-dimensional velocity structure and the distribution of seismic foci. We applied the “tomoADD” algorithm, which
17 uses a combination of absolute and differential arrival times and a concept of self-adapting grid geometry, accounting
18 for ray density encountered across the volume. With this method the accuracy of event locations is improved and
19 velocity structure near the source region is resolved in more detail than standard tomography.

20 Fault plane solutions were obtained for the major and best-recorded earthquakes. The obtained velocity images
21 highlight vertical and lateral heterogeneities that can be associated with structural features striking from NNE-SSW to
22 NE-SW. These results are consistent with important tectonic elements visible at the surface and the pattern delineated
23 by earthquake locations and focal mechanisms.

24
25 *Keywords:* Crustal structure, Focal mechanism, Seismicity, Seismotectonics, Tomography

27 **1. Introduction**

28

29 A hundred years have now passed since the disastrous earthquake on December 28, 1908, one of the largest events ever
30 recorded in the central Mediterranean (Boschi et al., 2000), destroyed Messina, Reggio Calabria and the adjacent areas.

31 In addition to the damage due to the impact of the seismic waves, much destruction and loss of life was caused by a
32 tsunami which developed as a consequence of the earthquake.

33 The Messina Strait is without doubt the most important structural element interrupting the southernmost part of the
34 Alpine-Appenninic orogenic belt, known as the Calabro-Peloritan Arc. (Fig. 1). It forms a branch of the Ionian Sea
35 separating SW Calabria from NE Sicily. Its western margin belongs to an escarpment that stretches over 70 km from
36 Messina towards the Mt. Etna area. In W - E direction, the elevation falls from about 1000 a.s.l. to a depth of more than
37 1000 b.s.l. in the center of the Strait, which means a total elevation difference of 2000 m along a distance of less than 20
38 km. The considerable orographical differences in NE Sicily, SW Calabria and in the Ionian Sea are the expression of
39 intense tectonic activity. Indeed, from a seismotectonic point of view, the Calabro-Peloritan Arc region is characterized
40 by considerable geodynamic instability (Gasparini et al., 1982; Monaco and Tortorici, 2000; CPTI work group, 2004).

41 In the last four centuries, a considerable number of violent earthquakes, with epicentral intensities of 10 to 11 degrees
42 MCS (CFTI-Med 4.0), have occurred along the sector of the Arc stretching from the Gulf of S. Eufemia to the Nebrodi
43 Mountains. A significant aspect of this activity is the devastating impact produced on the ground: massive landslides
44 that narrow and sometimes obstruct valleys, the formation of small lakes, the deviation of watercourses, slumps, and the
45 fracturing and liquefaction of soil (Bottari et al., 1986; Murphy, 1995; Galli, 2000; Tertulliani and Cucci, 2008). These
46 dramatic phenomena of ground failure are generally considered indicative of the shallow depth of the earthquake
47 source. Indeed, analyses of the macro-seismic fields of the best-documented events favor the hypothesis of a position of
48 the sources – or part of them - close to the surface (see, e.g. Bottari et al, 1986). However, the lack of surface faulting
49 after the largest shocks makes the understanding of the source location as well as the geometry of the fault system a
50 difficult task. We have no ground proof as to whether the important topographical elements around the Messina Strait
51 form true fault systems, perhaps cutting the entire crust and reaching the upper mantle. The identification of such fault
52 systems is further hindered by the great depth of the Ionian Sea (more than 1000 m in the southern part of the Messina
53 Strait) - clearly, there are difficulties in recognising geological formations and tectonic structures underlying the
54 juvenile sediments covering the sea floor at such depths. As a consequence, the dislocation nature of the 1908 Messina
55 Strait earthquake has been a matter of debate (see web site of DISS). Ghisetti (1984) has suggested a graben-like style
56 of faulting for the Messina Strait. For other authors (e.g. Valensise and Pantosti, 1992), the fault causing the 1908

57 Messina Strait earthquake is seen as a low angle, blindly ending element dipping east, rather than a steeply westward
58 dipping structure parallel to the northeastern coast of Sicily (e.g. Bottari et al., 1986).

59 Research efforts by various institutions have enabled collecting a sizeable set of seismic records, disclosing the
60 possibility of an in-depth investigation of seismotectonic patterns in the area. In particular, the Istituto Nazionale di
61 Geofisica e Vulcanologia has been running a permanent local seismic network from 2001 on; before this time the
62 network was operated by the “Sistema POSEIDON” since the middle of the 1990’s. In a recent paper, Barberi et al.
63 (2004) investigated the 3D velocity structure on a fairly wide scale (40 km horizontal grid spacing and 10 km in vertical
64 direction) in an area covering the Southern Tyrrhenian Sea and the Calabrian Arc region. In this investigation, a positive
65 velocity anomaly was found in the Messina Strait at a depth of about 15 km. A further feature of interest here is a
66 negative anomaly stretching from the area north of Mt Etna in ENE direction into the Ionian Sea and the southern tip of
67 the Italian peninsula.

68 In this research, we focus on the relationship between the general tectonic setting, which characterizes the Messina
69 Strait and adjacent areas, seismicity patterns and the crustal structure. We used a data set consisting of a total of 360
70 events with a magnitude range from 1.0 to 3.8 occurring in the period from 1999 to 2007. This data set is exploited in a
71 local earthquake tomography (LET), by carrying out a simultaneous inversion of both the three-dimensional velocity
72 structure and the distribution of seismic foci.

73 In conventional LET (e.g. using the SimulPS12 code; see Evans et al., 1994) the inversion of velocity parameters and
74 earthquake location is carried out on the basis of absolute arrival time readings. These locations are affected by errors
75 collected over the whole ray path, hence the risk that velocity perturbations outside the well illuminated area are
76 mapped into it. Furthermore, the use of absolute arrival times typically requires the definition of station corrections in
77 order to minimize site effects. One way round this dilemma is to use differential travel times, as proposed for instance
78 by Waldhauser and Ellsworth (2000). For earthquake clusters, with foci lying close to each other, travel time errors due
79 to incorrect velocity models in the volume outside the cluster will essentially cancel out. As a consequence of using
80 relative travel times, the use of station corrections becomes obsolete. At the same time, it can be shown (see e.g.
81 Waldhauser and Ellsworth, 2000; Menke and Schaff, 2004) that the use of differential travel times considerably
82 improves the relative locations and provides at least the same quality of absolute hypocenter locations as do standard
83 location techniques. Conventional LET uses a velocity grid defined in Cartesian coordinates and with a regular cell or
84 grid spacing to be defined a priori. The advantage of working with fixed cells lies in its simplicity. For instance, such
85 velocity grids can easily be used in Monte Carlo experiments (see Raffaele et al., 2006) in order to examine the
86 statistical stability of the results. However, the ray distribution is typically highly uneven due to non-uniform station
87 configuration, the distribution of hypocenters and ray bending. The regular grid geometry makes it difficult to adapt to

88 the unevenness of the rays with the outcome that some cells may have few or no rays, while others may have a very
89 high ray density sampling. Ideally, the inversion grid should be distributed adaptively to match the resolving power of
90 the data (see Zhang and Thurber, 2005).

91 Zhang and Thurber (2003, 2005) developed computer codes which allow to bypass the problems encountered with
92 absolute hypocenter locations and inflexible velocity grids. Here, we have been using their code *tomoADD*. Both
93 absolute and relative arrival time readings can be used. The accuracy of the latter can be improved for multiplet events,
94 where relative arrival times can be obtained using correlation and coherency based techniques, such as the cross-
95 spectral method. In the adaptive generation of the velocity grid, new grid points are inserted in a tetrahedron of former
96 grid points if a certain threshold value of weighted ray density (DWS) is reached. At the same time, older grid points
97 may be removed if their DWS falls below a limiting value. For more details, see Zhang and Thurber (2005).

98 Finally, our preference for *TomoADD* was justified from a comparison of the overall RMS travel time residuals
99 obtained with the classical LET method (Evans et al., 1994). *TomoADD* gave considerably lower residuals (0.13 s) than
100 classical LET using the *SimulPS12* code, where an overall residual of 0.29 s was encountered.

101

102 **2. Tectonic Setting**

103

104 The investigated area belongs to the Calabro-Peloritan Arc, which is part of the Apennine-Maghrebian orogenic belt
105 along the Africa-Europe plate boundary. In this sector, convergence processes, from the Neogene-Quaternary on, led to
106 the formation of three distinct tectonic domains: i) the Tyrrhenian back-arc basin (extensional domain), ii) the Alpine-
107 Apenninic orogenic belt (domain of crust shortening) and iii) the Hyblean Foreland (Fig. 1). The Calabro-Peloritan Arc
108 connects the NW-SE-trending southern Apennines with the WSW-striking Maghrebian thrust zones (Fig. 1). Its recent
109 geodynamic evolution has been closely related to the opening of the Tyrrhenian Sea beginning in the middle Miocene,
110 the ESE-ward drift of the Calabro-Peloritan massif and the subduction of Ionian oceanic lithosphere underneath
111 Calabria (Finetti and Del Ben, 1986). Several, often contrasting hypotheses, have been proposed for the current
112 geodynamic of the area, such as active subduction beneath the southern Tyrrhenian Sea (Barberi et al., 1973), or rifting
113 dominated by slab sinking and passive subduction (Finetti and Del Ben, 1986; Patacca et al., 1990). Debate on the most
114 appropriate model is still open. However, the presence of a subducted slab is marked by the occurrence of intermediate
115 and deep earthquakes (between 50 and 400 km) beneath the southern Tyrrhenian Sea, along a NW-dipping Benioff zone
116 (Gasparini et al., 1982; Anderson and Jackson, 1987; Giardini and Velonà, 1991), and by a seismic high-velocity
117 anomaly in the mantle (e.g. Selvaggi and Chiarabba, 1995).

118 The Messina Strait is the most important structural discontinuity cutting the southern part of the Arc, forming a narrow
119 fan-shaped basin linking the Ionian Sea to the Tyrrhenian Sea. Following Ghisetti (1992), it is bounded by high angle
120 normal faults with prevailing N-S to NE-SW orientation, and identified as active during Pliocene and Pleistocene times.
121 Among the major faults, the Larderia-Curcuraci fault system bounds the eastern margin of Sicily. The Reggio Calabria-
122 Calanna-S. Eufemia and the Armo-Delianuova fault systems are situated on the Calabrian side of the Strait. Other NW-
123 SE and E-W striking fault families contribute to a rather complex structural picture, particularly in Calabria (Fig. 1).
124 Consequently, long-term evolution and the structural setting of the Strait are still a matter of discussion (see among
125 others: Valensise and Pantosti, 1992; Tortorici et al., 1995).
126 Seismological, geodetic and structural data demonstrate that the studied area is characterized by active extensional
127 tectonics, at least in the upper part of the crust between depth from surface to 15 km. Indeed, several authors (Tortorici
128 et al., 1995; D'Agostino e Selvaggi, 2004; Neri et al., 2004) claim two different styles of deformation accommodating
129 the Europa-Africa convergence in Sicily and in the Calabro-Peloritan Arc. In their opinion the area to the west of the
130 Aeolian-Tindari-Giardini lineament (ATG) is dominated by a compressional regime presumably induced by plates
131 convergence. The area to the east of the lineament is characterized by NW-SE extension that may be related to an
132 Ionian subduction slab rollback.

133

134 **3. Data Set and Seismicity**

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136 We analyzed seismicity in the area of the Messina Strait by using the data recorded the local network operated by the
137 "Sistema POSEIDON" and subsequently by Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia in eastern Sicily and
138 southern Calabria since the 1990's (Fig. 1b). The network consists of three-component stations. Since 2004, stations
139 with analogical telemetry have been upgraded with modern digital VSAT based data transmission and equipped with
140 three-component broadband sensors (40 s). In order to reduce the azimuth gap, the stations of the nearby Aeolian
141 Islands, Mt. Etna and of the National permanent seismic networks are occasionally included as they provide additional
142 onset readings for the most energetic events. All the stations use the same base time, set by GPS time.

143 In the area extending from 37.81° N to 38.33° N, and 15.35° E to 16.01° E, about 360 earthquakes (Fig. 2) were
144 recorded between 1999 and 2007. In the hypocenter distribution, with coordinates taken from INGV-CT catalogue (see
145 <http://www.ct.ingv.it/Sismologia/analisti/default.asp>), we recognize a concentration of foci within the uppermost 15-20
146 km. A similar limitation of focal depth in the Peloritani Mountains has been explained by Langer et al. (2007) in terms
147 of a "Brace-Goetze Lithosphere", where rock rheology is assumed to depend on depth and temperature (for more details
148 on this subject see also Stüwe, 2002). Greater depth encountered in the south may be related to the presence of the

149 subducted slab, but this must be read with caution as location uncertainties increase due to the unfavorable network
150 configuration. Most of the earthquakes are located within three zones: i) in southwestern Calabria (inland), ii) in the
151 Strait between Messina and Reggio Calabria and iii) in the Ionian Sea, west of Cape S. Alessio. On the other hand, very
152 few events were located in the inland area, between Cape S. Alessio and the northeastern tip of Sicily.

153 For our investigation, we filtered the original data set according to quality criteria of location. In particular, we selected
154 only well located events, i. e. those with at least 9 observations (P- and S-phases), root-mean-square (RMS) residuals
155 smaller than 0.35 s and horizontal and vertical location errors lower than 2.5 km and 3.5 km, respectively. We also
156 tested the location stability - using the tomoADD code but keeping the velocity parameters fixed - by shifting the trial
157 hypocenters randomly in the space (see Husen et al., 1999). This helped identify events for which different locations
158 with equivalent travel-time residuals can be found. Note that the presence of events with unstable locations bears the
159 risk of introducing biases as the inversion process may decrease the travel-time residuals by shifting around the
160 hypocenter coordinates instead of adjusting the velocity model parameters properly. In practice, we have compared the
161 locations with unperturbed starting solutions and the locations with starting solutions to which a random perturbation of
162 up to ± 8 km was added. We repeated the test five times and considered the realisations where the difference between
163 the solutions were maximum. In doing so, we have a conservative estimate of the stability of the hypocenter locations
164 by removing events with horizontal or vertical location variations greater than 3 km. All tests revealed fairly stable
165 epicenter determinations for almost all the events. In fact, the differences of the results with non-perturbed starting
166 locations and results with randomly perturbed ones was fairly low (1 km or less for 96% of the well locatable events
167 matching the quality criteria mentioned above). Finally, we obtained a data set of 244 well locatable and stable events
168 which were used in the simultaneous inversion of both the velocity structure and the hypocenter location.

169

170 **4. 3D Imaging**

171

172 A total of 1785 P and 1163 S absolute arrival times and about 46250 catalogue-derived differential times were jointly
173 inverted using the tomoADD algorithm (Zhang and Thurber, 2005) for hypocentral parameters and velocity structure.

174 For the given amount of S-wave data available, however, we limit ourselves to discuss the velocity model for P-waves
175 and address to further studies with an enriched data set, when in particular more S-wave arrival times will be available.

176 We decided to reduce the weight of S-wave arrivals to 20% for fitting the velocity model, whereas their full weight is
177 maintained for the hypocenter location. In doing so, we avoid that S-wave velocities, which are less constrained than
178 those for P-waves, are shifted around artificially reducing the overall residuals.

179 We started the inversion from a regular horizontal grid, with 5x5 km node spacing covering an area of 60x60 km, based
180 on the P and S ray paths of the selected data obtained by the pseudo-bending method (Um and Thurber, 1987) (Fig. 3).
181 Vertical grid spacing varies between 2 and 6 km and covers a depth range from the surface to 33 km depth, following
182 the 1D reference velocity model (Langer et al., 2007). Higher weighting was applied first to the catalogue absolute data
183 in order to obtain a large-scale result. Then, higher weights were assigned to the differential data to refine the event
184 locations and the velocity structure near the source region. The damping values were selected on the basis of L-curves
185 of solution and data variances (see Zhang and Thurber, 2005).

186 The number and position of inversion mesh nodes change from one iteration to the next as the method automatically
187 adjusts the inversion mesh nodes according to the data distribution. The procedure implemented in TomoADD is based
188 on the construction of tetrahedral and Voronoi diagrams and the use of the Qhull algorithm (see Zhang and Thurber,
189 2005). In this way, the density of the inversion mesh nodes is higher in volumes where more rays are passing. The
190 strategy applied in tomoADD for the design of the mesh is based on the derivative weight sum (DWS), which quantifies
191 the ray density around each model node. DWS is a key parameter for understanding how well the model is resolved
192 (Haslinger et al., 1999). Moreover, the adaptive mesh method considers the different ray distribution between the P and
193 S waves. At the end of the iterative process, the inversion mesh nodes for P and S waves are irregularly distributed,
194 accounting for the heterogeneous distribution of the rays (Fig. 4). As a result, ray sampling for each inversion mesh
195 node is more uniform and the tomographic system proves more stable than in a conventional grid with regular spacing
196 (e.g. Zhang and Thurber, 2005).

197 In Fig. 5, we compare the distribution of the DWS for a conventional regular mesh created with tomoDD and the one
198 obtained with tomoADD. In the latter, we notice 1379 nodes with non-zero DWS values, all having DWS values greater
199 than 100. The average DWS value is 390 with standard deviation 133. With regular inversion grid (tomoDD), there are
200 1359 nodes with non-zero DWS value, among which only 36% of them have DWS values greater than 100. Many
201 inversion grid nodes have DWS values less than 10 and the average DWS value is 286. In other words, the adaptive
202 strategy of mesh creation in tomoADD exploits the available information efficiently, whereas the regular grid yields a
203 highly uneven DWS distribution, which becomes a critical issue when only a limited amount of data is available.

204 Fig. 6 shows the three dimensional velocity structure for P-wave velocities in the Messina Strait area. We have marked
205 the zones with a reasonable illumination ($DWS > 100$) with a yellow line. The shallowest layers, at a depth of 6 and 8
206 km, are characterized by strong positive anomalies in the northern part of the Messina Strait, as well as in the area of the
207 Mts Peloritani and the Mt. Aspromonte. Positive P-wave anomalies are also found more southward along the eastern
208 coast of Sicily, in particular in the offshore area of the Cape S. Alessio. A negative anomaly occurs on the Calabrian
209 side, in an area lying more or less between the Reggio Calabria-Calanna-S. Eufermia and the Armo-Delianuova fault

210 systems. A similar picture is found at a depth of 10 km, with higher P-wave velocities from north, in the Strait,
211 southward, along the eastern coast of Sicily, interrupted by lower velocity zones with trends cutting the coastline.
212 Again, we notice relatively high P-velocities in the Mts Peloritani and in the Mt. Aspromonte. A negative anomaly is
213 clearly visible in a northeast-southwest striking stripe from the southern part of the Strait to the fault systems of the
214 Calabrian side. At deeper layers (12 and 15 km depth) we notice a slightly modified picture. In fact, in the central and
215 southern parts of the studied area, we notice two zones of low P-wave velocities, trending about ENE-WSW, separated
216 by a ridge with high P-wave velocities. At a depth of 18 km the aforementioned structures are still identifiable, though
217 the picture is blurred by the worsening illumination at this depth. Cross-sections of V_p are displayed in Fig. 7.

218

219 **5. Stability Analysis with Monte Carlo Tests**

220

221 Monte-Carlo tests are popular instruments in parameter studies, used to check the stability of forward and inverse
222 modeling. They have the advantage of making very limited a-priori assumptions about possible errors. However, they
223 entail an additional computational burden as the inversions have to be repeated a number of times. This additional effort
224 becomes affordable with increasing computer capacities. During the Monte Carlo tests, we have added uniformly
225 distributed random disturbances to our input data, i.e. the arrival times and the starting velocity model. In particular,
226 uncertainties of the arrival time readings were accounted for by adding a random perturbation of up to ± 50 ms for first
227 onset readings and up to ± 100 ms for S-phase arrival times. The starting velocity model has been examined in detail by
228 Langer et al. (2007) and was found to be the best available one. Nonetheless, as its parameters make up part of the input
229 information we examined the effect of possible uncertainties. We applied random perturbations in the range of ± 0.1
230 km/s both for the P- and S-wave velocities. We repeated the Monte Carlo test 15 times in order to achieve a reasonable
231 significance. Focusing on grid nodes with DWS of at least 100, we found 50 percent of all nodes (i. e. nodes between
232 the 25 % and 75% quartiles) scatter in the range of ± 110 m/s around the results without random perturbation. The
233 standard deviations for the velocity models give a range of ± 130 m/s.

234 The travel time residuals are the measure of the goodness of fit for the inverted model. A comparison of residuals
235 obtained with and without randomization helps understand whether the assumed uncertainties of input data are realistic
236 or overestimated. In the first case, we expect that travel time residuals obtained with randomization are equivalent to
237 those without, as the accuracy of input data is essentially unaltered. In the second case, we expect that the quality of
238 inverted models worsens significantly. In our case, all inversions carried out with perturbed input data gave slightly
239 higher travel time residuals (about 10% for both absolute and weighted) than the inversion carried out without
240 randomization. We thus conclude that the assumed uncertainties, with respect to arrival time readings and initial guess

241 of the velocity model, are on the safe side as the random perturbation applied to the input data tends to overestimate the
242 true inaccuracy of input parameters. This implies that the expected scatter of the inverted velocity parameters, as far as
243 being caused by the uncertainty of the input parameters, also represents a conservative estimate. On the other hand, we
244 may consider these values a measure of lower threshold for distinguishable anomalies. Velocity differences in the
245 tomographic image which are of the order of 100 to 130 m/s might merely be an effect of an uncertainty of arrival time
246 picking or the parameters of the initial velocity model.

247

248 **6. Synthetic Testing**

249

250 Overall, travel time residuals, DWS and other parameters furnish first-order diagnostics for the assessment of the
251 resolution, whose real significance depends on the individual conditions of the inversion problem and whose
252 understanding needs intuition. We therefore carried out numerical experiments with synthetic models, which give an
253 immediate and straightforward idea of the inversion stability, potentially insignificant or artificial features and the
254 sensitivity with respect to the choice of the starting model. Here, we have used synthetic travel times calculated for
255 typical test models. These data were then inverted using the same starting model, choice of parameters and control
256 values as for the real data.

257 One type of synthetic test to assess the structural resolving power is the restoring resolution test (Zhao et al., 1992). It
258 consists of calculating the synthetic travel times for both the velocity model and hypocenter locations obtained through
259 the inversion. Additionally, noise is added to both travel times and initial guesses. By comparing the results of the
260 inversion of synthetic travel times with those obtained with the real data, we can estimate the restoring capacity of the
261 data set. A major problem of such a restoring resolution test may be local minima in areas of low resolution, leading to
262 the impression of good resolution in actually unresolved areas. The use of a characteristic model avoids this difficulty
263 (Haslinger et al., 1999). A characteristic model contains the size and the amplitude of anomalies seen in the inversion
264 results, but with different sign of the amplitude. It is highly unlikely that such a model will represent the same
265 mathematical minimum as the one obtained with the real data. Therefore, areas of low resolution will be indicated by
266 not restoring the characteristic model.

267 We performed both synthetic tests. Following the strategy of the characteristic model (see Haslinger et al., 1999), we
268 designed a velocity model with anomalies at the same position as the ones encountered from the original model but of
269 opposite sign; i. e. positive anomalies become negative, negative become positive. The absolute deviations are
270 maintained. As in our original inversion we started with the optimum 1D model proposed by Langer et al. (2007) and
271 applied TomoADD to the synthetic travel times. In the characteristic test we noted that the position and sign of the

272 velocity anomalies are recovered fairly well, at least for nodes where DWS was higher than 100. However, the amount
273 of anomalies is considerably smaller, with a model variance underestimating the true one (Fig. 8a). Travel time
274 residuals for the inverted test model were about 30 ms.

275 With the restoration test we followed a similar strategy to that applied by Scarfi et al (2007). We calculated synthetic
276 travel times for the inverted velocity structure and hypocenter locations. Subsequently, we applied a random
277 perturbation to travel time. Carrying out the inversion without applying random perturbation to the input parameters we
278 achieved a similar travel time residual as with the characteristic model, i. e. 30 ms. Again, the inverted anomalies are
279 similar to the a-priori ones, with respect to position and sign (Fig. 8b). On the other hand, their amount was found
280 smaller than the a-priori values, leading to smaller model variance. With noisy input parameters (perturbations taken
281 from the Monte Carlo experiments, with up to ± 50 ms for P-wave onsets, ± 100 ms for S-phase picking) the travel time
282 residuals increase to about 50 ms. The residuals reach 100 ms, when an additional systematic error of up to 0.2,
283 representing for instance station corrections, is assumed. The overall characteristic of results is the same as before, in
284 the sense that inverted and a-priori anomalies match both with respect to their position and sign, whereas the inverted
285 model tends to be considerably smoother than the a-priori one.

286

287 **7. 3D Location**

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289 Besides the velocity model, seismic tomography also introduces modifications of the hypocenter location. Compared to
290 the original locations our **revised** ones show a major degree of clustering (e.g. see the clusters marked with S1 and S2 in
291 Fig. 9). This is no surprise since tomoADD – similar to HypoDD - is based on travel time differences between the
292 events and a major clustering of hypocenters has already been noted in the literature when travel time differences
293 between event clusters are used instead of single absolute arrival time readings (see, e.g. Waldhauser and Ellsworth,
294 2000; Scarfi et al., 2005). In our final locations obtained with tomoADD (Fig. 9), we recognize epicenters nicely
295 aligned along the Reggio Calabria-Calanna-S. Eufemia and the Armo-Delianuova fault systems. A further linear
296 alignment of epicenters, striking in a NW direction is found offshore Cape Taormina.

297 The clusters of events marked as S1 and S2 form two families of multiplet events with very similar waveforms, which
298 can be exploited for high precision relative location analysis. We examined the geometry of the two families in more
299 detail using high precision relative location with the master-event technique (e.g. Scarfi et al., 2005) and performed a
300 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on the covariance matrix of the relative hypocenter locations (see Figs. 10a and
301 10b). For S2, taking the eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors, we infer a cluster forming a N 30° E striking
302 planar element with a dip of 70° W. From the square root of the largest eigenvalue and its eigenvector we obtain a

303 hypocenter cloud elongated about 1100 m (68% value, in terms of confidence given by \pm one standard deviation) in a
304 more or less horizontal direction. Using the same technique, for the S1 cluster, we found a major elongation in a N 20°
305 W striking direction and a dip of about 80° E. We estimate an extension of the data cloud corresponding to about 360
306 m. In both S1 and S2 clusters, the smallest extension, measured perpendicular the plane spanned by the two major
307 eigenvectors, is of the order of 140 m. This is close to the possible uncertainty of relative location due to intrinsic
308 inaccuracy of travel time determination (see Scarfi et al., 2005).

309

310 **8. Fault Plane Solutions and Tectonic Structures.**

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312 Fault plane solutions were obtained for the major and best recorded earthquakes occurring in the years 1999-2007. The
313 solutions are based on first arrival P-wave polarities. The nodal lines were identified using the code published by
314 Reasenberg and Oppenheimer (1985). On the basis of the fault plane solutions and considering patterns inferred from
315 event locations, we may distinguish four seismotectonic regimes: (i) the Messina Strait, (ii) the Mt. Aspromonte, (iii)
316 the Ionian Sea adjacent to the southernmost coast of Calabria, (iv) the offshore region of Cape Taormina and Cape S.
317 Alessio (see Fig. 11).

318 The Messina Strait area is characterized by normal faulting events along NE to NNE striking planes, with almost
319 vertical P-axes, and T-axes striking WNW-ESE. Similar patterns were reported by Scarfi et al. (2005) and Giammanco
320 et al. (2008) for the nearby Peloritani Mountains area in northeastern Sicily (see also Fig. 11). The orientation of the
321 nodal planes is also consistent with the orientation of the S2 cluster as well as the earlier mentioned epicenter
322 alignments in Calabria. In the Mt. Aspromonte normal faulting as well as strike slip solutions were found, with vertical
323 P-axes or horizontal P-axes striking NNE. In the figure, it can be seen that nodal planes follow trends of tectonic
324 structures visible at the surface. In the Ionian Sea close to the southernmost coast of Calabria the earthquakes show a
325 prevailing normal faulting mechanism with a minor strike slip component, and an extension in NE direction. In the
326 offshore area of Cape Taormina and Cape S. Alessio, there are two events with clear strike slip movement and two
327 normal faults with T-axes oriented WNW-ESE.

328

329 **9. Discussion and conclusions**

330

331 In this paper we have investigated the three dimensional velocity structure in the Messina Strait area. In this context, we
332 re-evaluated the seismicity patterns by relating them to fault plane solutions and tectonic evidences visible at the
333 surface. Seismic tomography was carried out using the recently developed code tomoADD (Zhang and Thurber, 2005),

334 which gave the best arrival time residuals compared to the more classical codes SimulPS12. TomoADD uses absolute
335 arrival times as well arrival time differences among earthquake clusters, and applies a flexible concept of mesh
336 generation. Compared to conventional local earthquake tomography, tomoADD gives at least the same accuracy of
337 earthquake location and guarantees a more homogeneous illumination of the grid cells. The inversion thus makes a
338 more efficient use of the available data set and improves the reliability of results.

339 We have assessed the stability of our inverted model with respect to uncertainties of the input parameters by applying a
340 Monte Carlo test. We also analyzed the resolution capabilities of the data set, in particular using the DWS distribution
341 and performing synthetic tests. We found that the velocity structure is well resolved at least for nodes where DWS was
342 equal/higher than 100. This condition is met in layers with depth ranging from 6 km to 18 km. From synthetic tests we
343 infer, that the position and sign of velocity anomalies can be recovered fairly well, however, underestimating the
344 variance of the velocity model. In this light our results are understood as a smooth, i. e., conservative estimate of the
345 true heterogeneity of the structure of the crust.

346 A major point for discussion concerns the structural setting of the Messina Straits and thus the geometry of the
347 seismogenic faults. From the pattern of high- and low-velocity anomalies visible in the layers at different depths as well
348 as in the cross-sections (Figs 6 and 7), we identify a NE-SW striking stripe with negative velocity anomalies. On the
349 Calabrian mainland, this stripe essentially coincides with the zone delimited by the Reggio Calabria – Calanna - S
350 Eufemia (northern border) and Armo - Delianuova faults (southern border, see Fig. 7, cross-sections A-A'', B-B'', C-C''
351 and also F-F''). The continuation of this trend in the Ionian Sea can be readily identified in the southernmost profiles,
352 closer to the NE-Sicily coast. Clear positive P-wave velocity anomalies are found in the northern part of the Messina
353 Strait and along the eastern coast of Sicily. The positive anomaly in the Peloritani Mountains is separated from the one
354 of the Strait by a narrow but evident stripe of relatively low velocities. In the deeper layers (12, 15 and 18 km) we
355 notice a ridge of positive anomalies starting in the area of Cape Taormina, then bending in an ENE direction. The ridge
356 crosses the Ionian Sea and is also found in Calabria. For the sake of clarity, figure 12 shows the topography of the 6.5
357 km/s V_p isosurface which summarizes the main features of the obtained velocity structure. In the figure, we also plot the
358 epicenter of the earthquakes located above the isosurface.

359 Our locations were carried out for a revised data set, focusing on earthquakes satisfying specific quality criteria with
360 respect to the number of available arrival time readings, stability of the starting solution for the hypocenter location, and
361 the goodness of fit (residual). The critical selection of events is necessary in order not to bias the inversion, but also to
362 avoid artifacts, which could be erroneously interpreted as seismotectonic patterns (see Scarfi et al., 2003, 2005).

363 Seismic foci are mainly located on the boundaries of high/low velocity regions (Figs 6, 7 and 12), with a characteristic
364 depth between 5 and 15 km. The distribution of well located hypocenters reveals a number of patterns related to

365 structures inferred from other evidences. Among others we note foci accompanying the Armo – Delianuova as well as
366 the Reggio Calabria fault lineaments. Other event locations are found along alignments parallel to the eastern coast of
367 Sicily. High precision relocation of the multiplet family S2 revealed a similar trend, furnishing further evidence for the
368 presence of a NNE striking element. In the southern part of the investigated area, there is an increase of focal depth up
369 to 40 km for the events south of the Calabrian coast (Fig. 9). Here, a rather irregular distribution of hypocenters makes
370 it difficult to identify underlying tectonic structures. On the other hand, the mapping of geological structures is hindered
371 by the sea cover, reaching depths of over 1000 m in the studied area.

372 Concerning fault plane solutions, earthquakes located in the Messina Strait, the Peloritani Mountains (Scarfì et al.,
373 2005) and adjacent areas on the Calabrian land side reveal a normal faulting mechanism along NNE or NE striking
374 planes, which is consistent with the overall regional trends of tectonic motion, i. e. extension in WNW-ESE direction.
375 Strike slip mechanism was found for two events located offshore Cape Taormina, but again with P-axis striking NNE.
376 The focal mechanisms of earthquakes falling in the Ionian Sea, south of the Calabrian coast, reveal a change of the
377 stress field as P-axes striking in NW direction prevail.

378 In conclusion, the various seismological features – 3D velocity structure, seismicity patterns, fault plane solutions -
379 confirm that important tectonic elements visible at the surface reach a considerable depth, at least down to the levels
380 illuminated by earthquake activity. The graben-like structure is well identifiable in the calabrian inland and continues
381 underneath the Messina Strait. The northeastern coastline of Sicily from Taormina to Messina is accompanied by
382 considerable velocity contrasts well identifiable down to a depth of 12 to 15 km. The Messina Strait as well as the
383 adjacent Peloritani Mountains are characterized by extension perpendicular to the NNE striking elements. Both
384 hypocenter locations and focal mechanisms suggest that seismotectonic characteristics in the southern part differ from
385 the picture found in the Messina Strait and adjacent zones. In particular, focal depths of the events increase and the
386 principal direction of major horizontal stress turns from NNE to NW.

387

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483

484 **Figure Captions**

485

486 Fig. 1. Simplified tectonic map (a) and structural sketch map (b) of Sicily and southern Calabria (from Ghisetti, 1992;
487 Lentini et al., 2000). ATG is the abbreviation for Aeolian-Tindari-Giardini faults lineament. Permanent seismic network
488 is also reported: black triangles for Mt. Etna and Aeolian Islands networks and black/white boxes for northeastern Sicily
489 and southern Calabria. Dashed boxes represent the area studied in this paper.

490

491 Fig. 2. Map view, N-S and E-W cross sections of the studied area with earthquakes located from 1999 to 2007.

492

493 Fig. 3. 3D sketch of P-wave ray paths traced in the minimum 1D model (Langer et al., 2007). Earthquakes and seismic
494 stations are indicated by red circles and blue triangles, respectively.

495

496 Fig. 4. Irregular mesh nodes (triangles) for P- (a) and S-waves (b) at the final iteration. At the bottom of the sketches,
497 the projection of the mesh (crosses) and the map of the area (black contour line) are shown.

498

499 Fig. 5. DWS value distribution for P waves for the regular inversion grid (a) and irregular inversion mesh (b) at the final
500 iteration (zero values are not shown).

501

502 Fig. 6. a) Map of the studied area with the main structural features (from Ghisetti, 1992; Lentini et al., 2000); b) P-wave
503 velocity model for six representative layers resulting from the 3D inversion. Contour lines are at 0.2 km/s intervals. Red
504 circles represent the relocated earthquakes within half the grid size of the slice. The zones with $DWS > 100$ are
505 circumscribed by yellow contour lines.

506

507 Fig. 7. Vertical sections through the P-wave velocity model. The traces of sections are reported in the sketch map (A-
508 A", ... F-F"). Contour lines are at 0.4 km/s intervals. White curves contour the zones with $DWS > 100$. Relocated
509 earthquakes, within ± 4 km from the sections, are plotted as red circles.

510

511 Fig. 8. P-wave velocity distribution obtained from the characteristic (a) and restoring (b) resolution tests (see text for
512 further details).

513

514 Fig. 9. Final event locations in map and vertical sections. The main fault systems are also shown in the map.

515

516 Fig. 10. Relative locations of S1 and S2 clusters by using the master-event-technique. Map view (a), vertical cross-
517 sections (b, c) and 3 D sketch (d).

518

519 Fig. 11. Focal mechanisms of the major events of the northeastern Sicily and southern Calabria. Their depth are
520 represented together with the fault plane solutions, e. g. $Z = 11$ (km).

521

522 Fig. 12. Topography of the 6.5 km/s P-wave velocity isosurface. Darker colours indicate a greater depth. Contours are at
523 2.5 km intervals and the numbers indicate the corresponding depths. Relocated earthquakes, above the isosurface, are
524 plotted as red circles.

525

Fig. 01

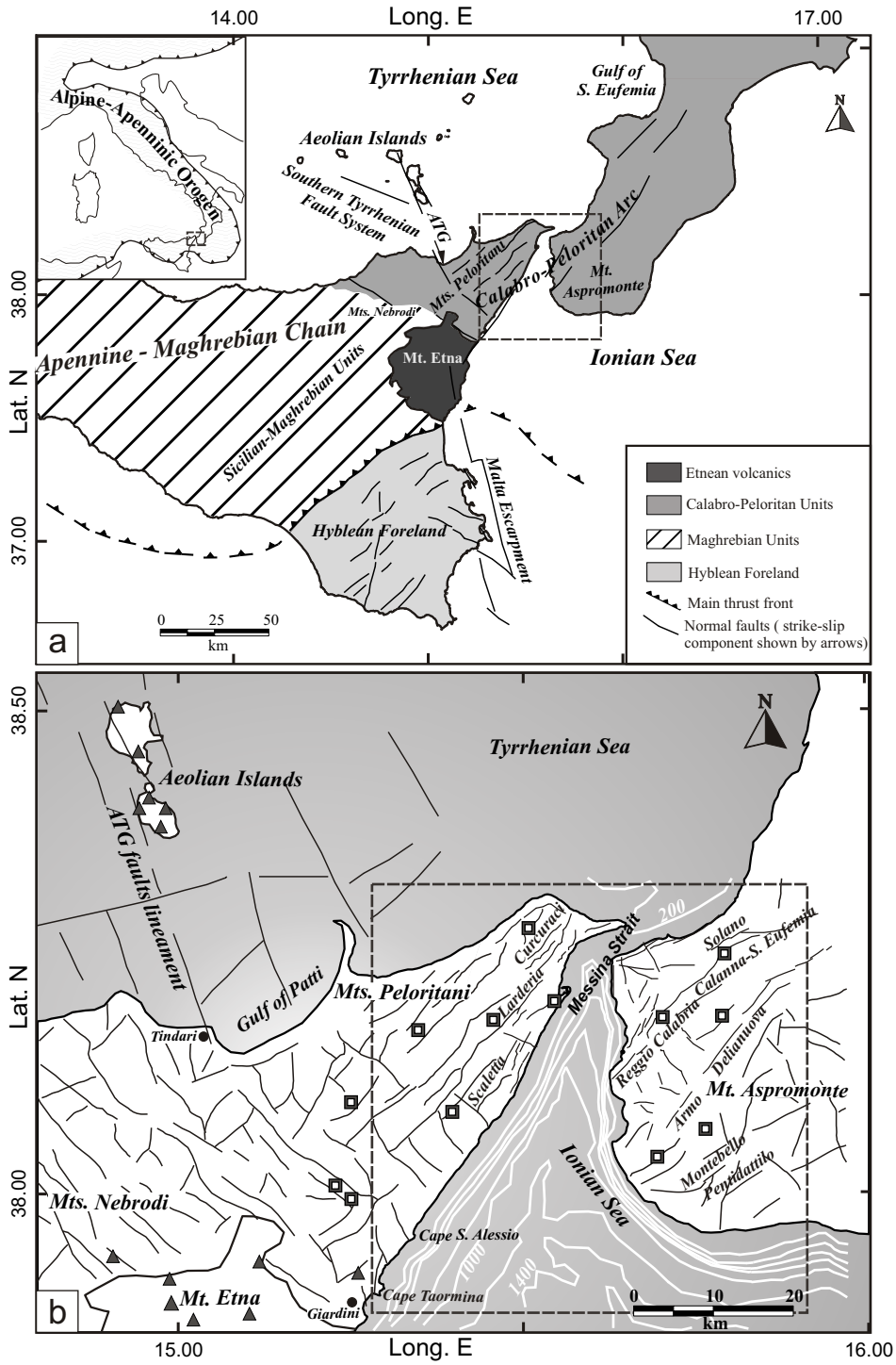


Fig. 2

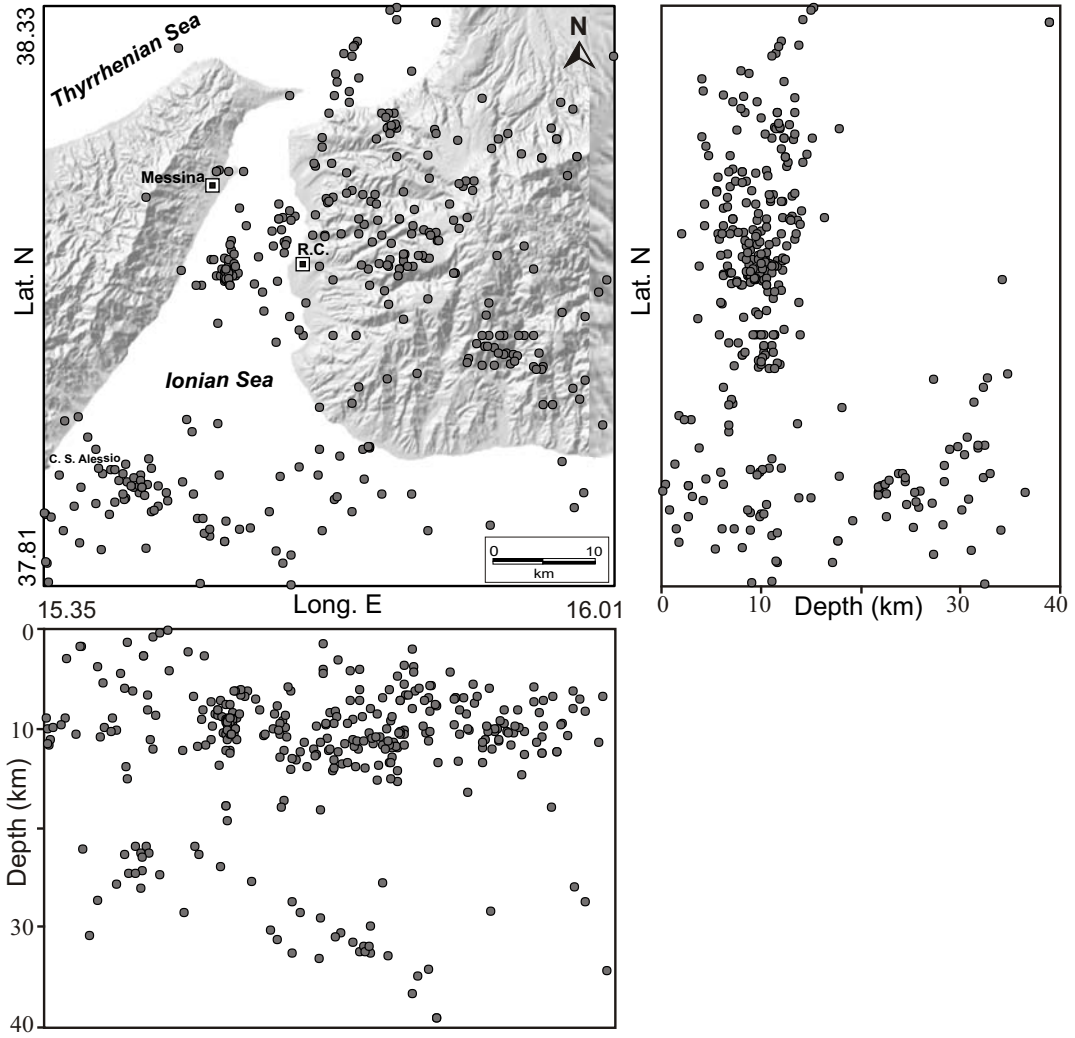


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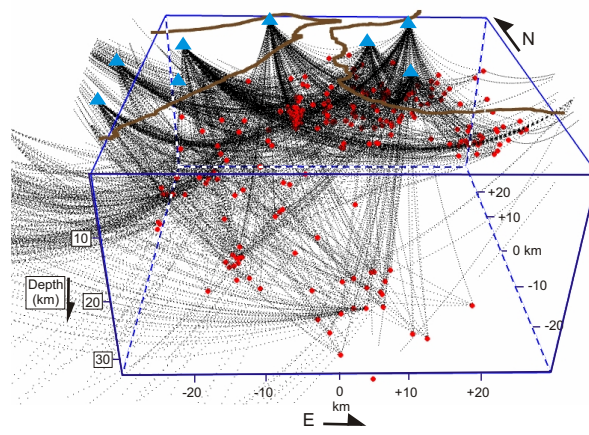


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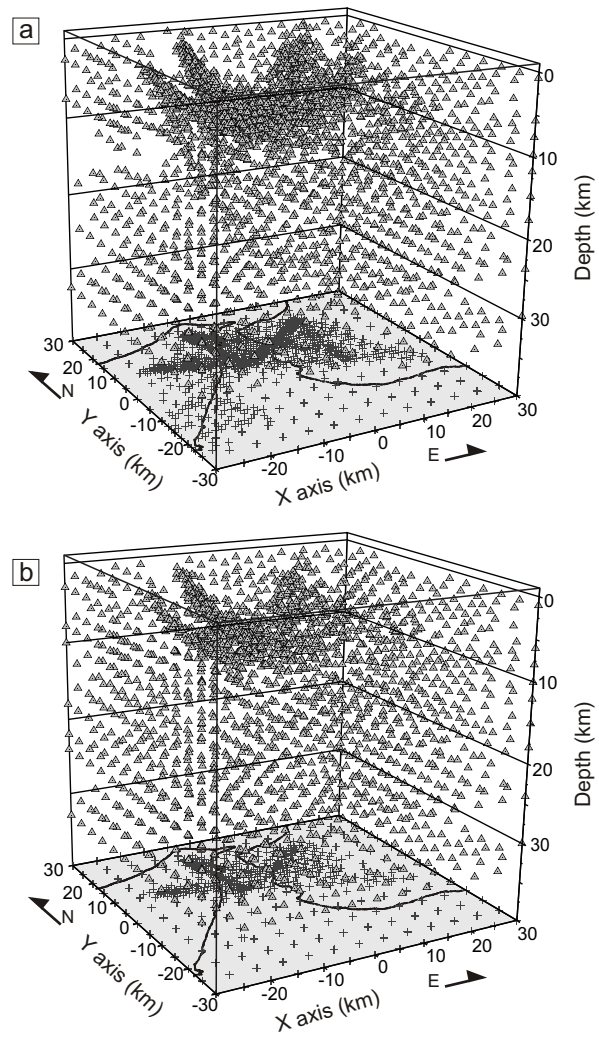


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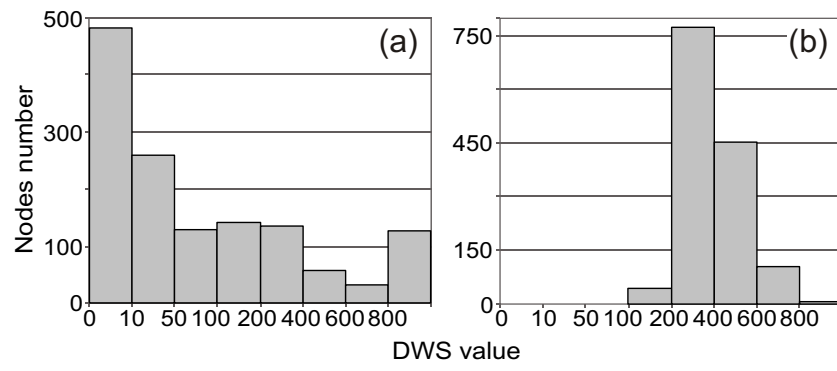


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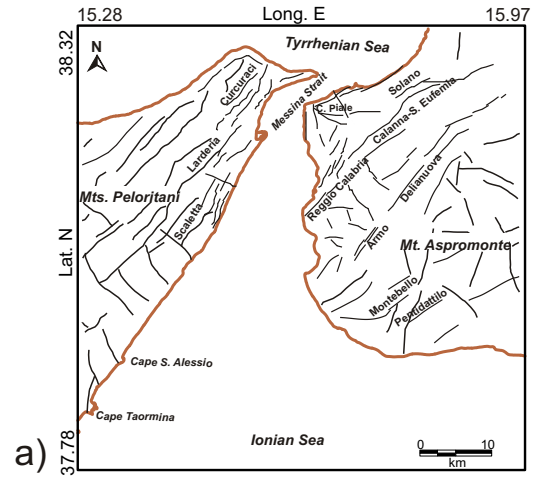
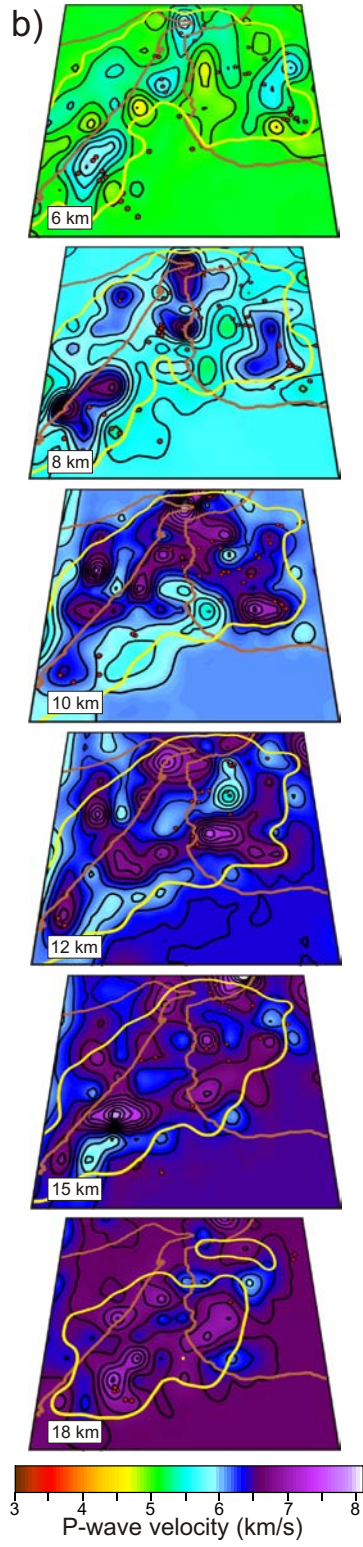


Fig. 7

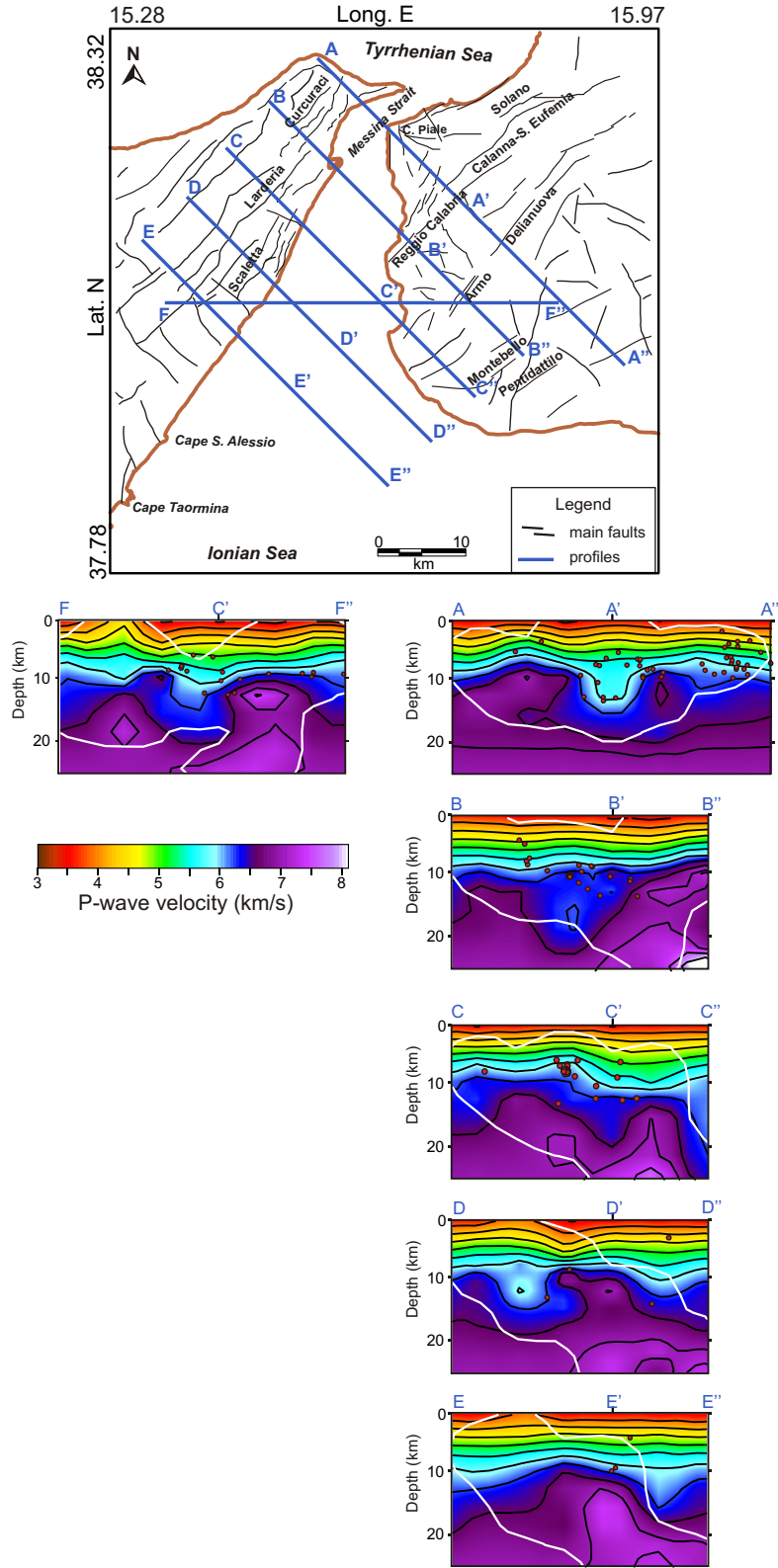


Fig. 8

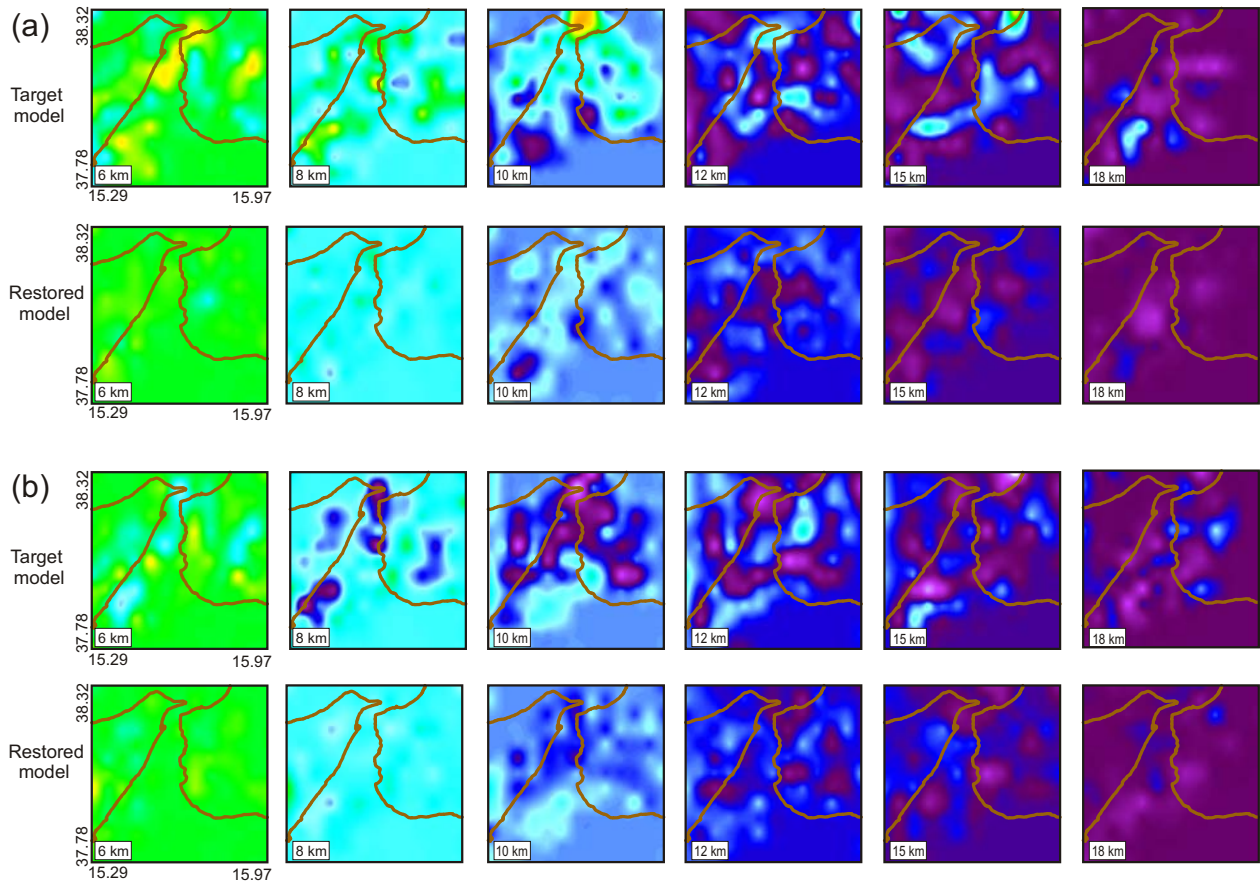


Fig. 9

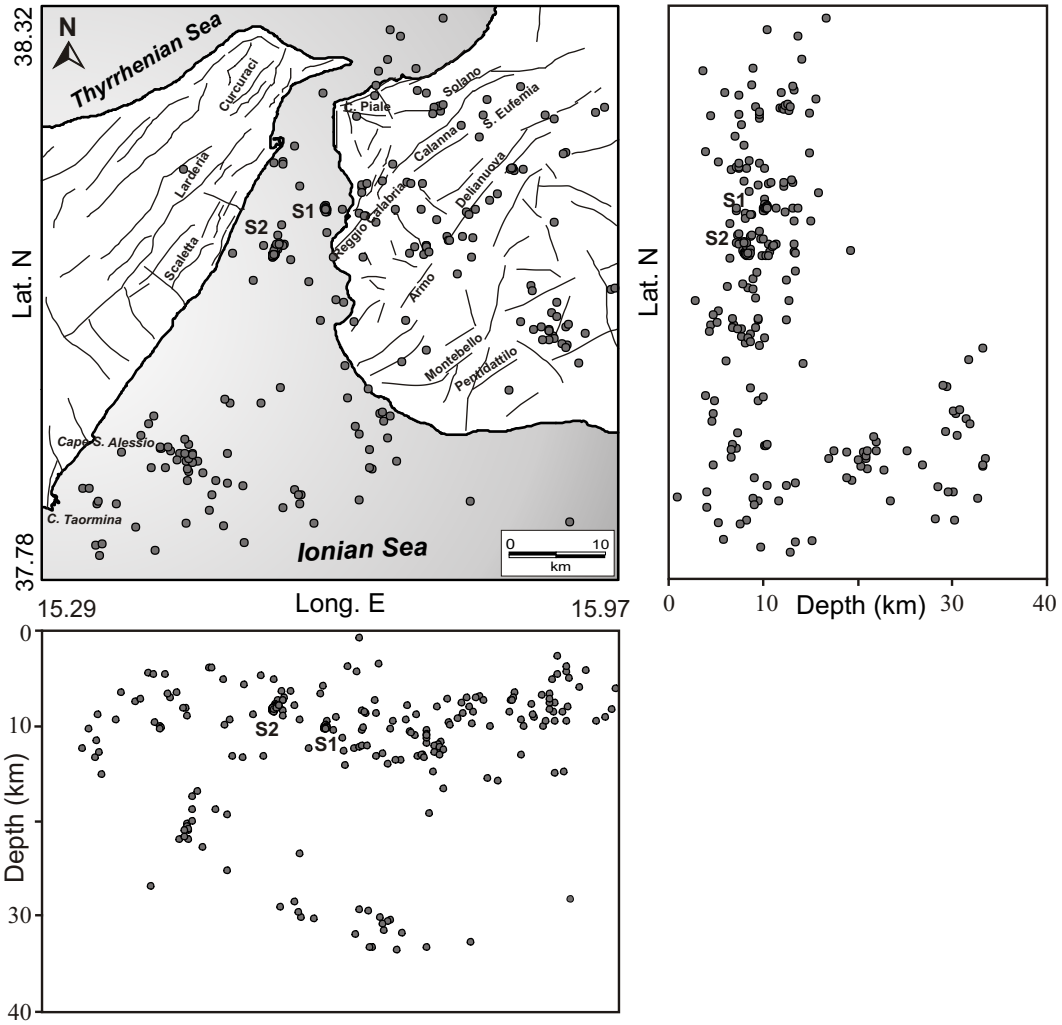


Fig. 10

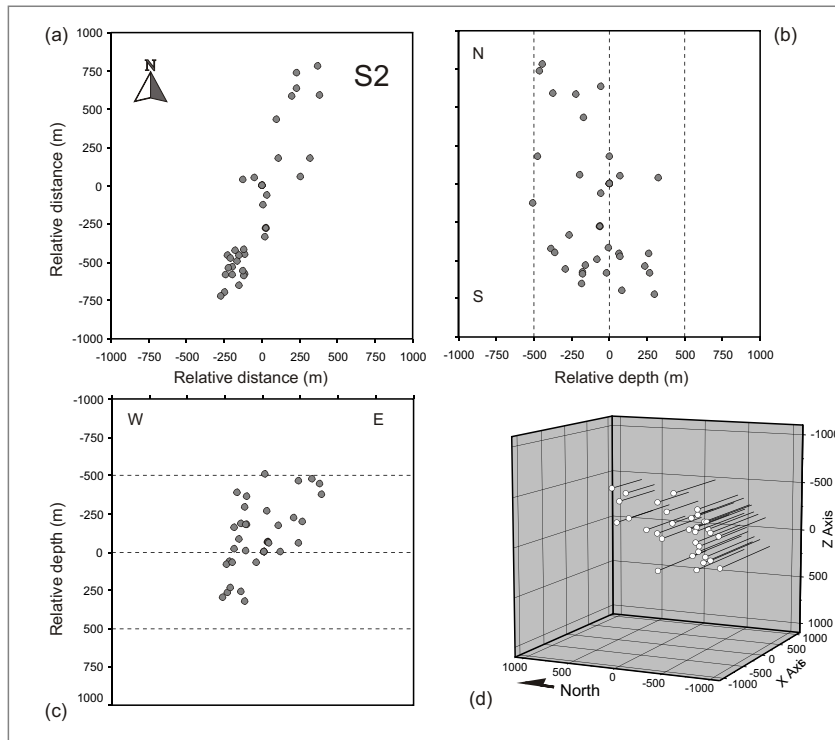
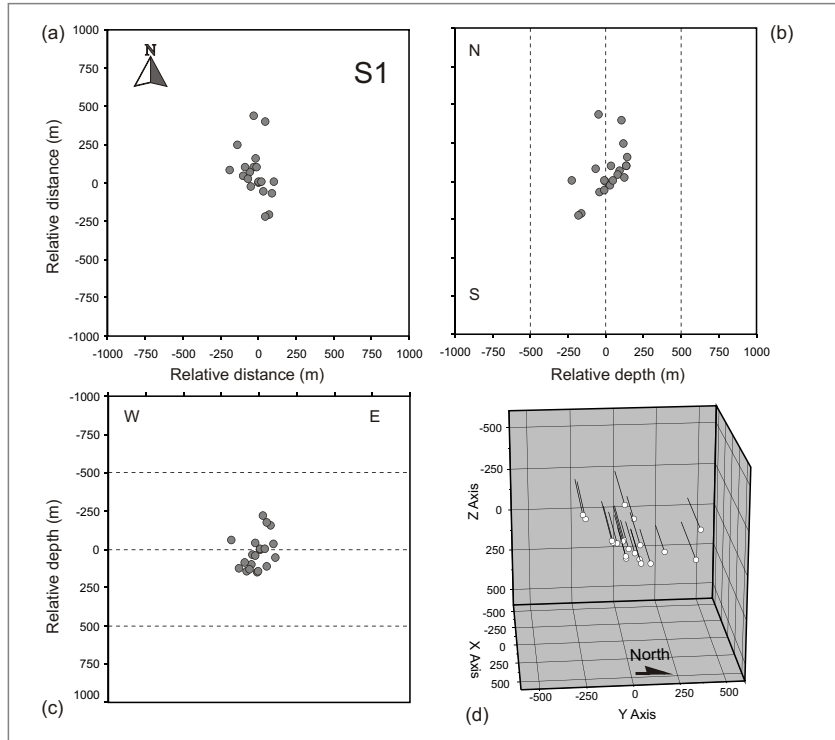


Fig. 11

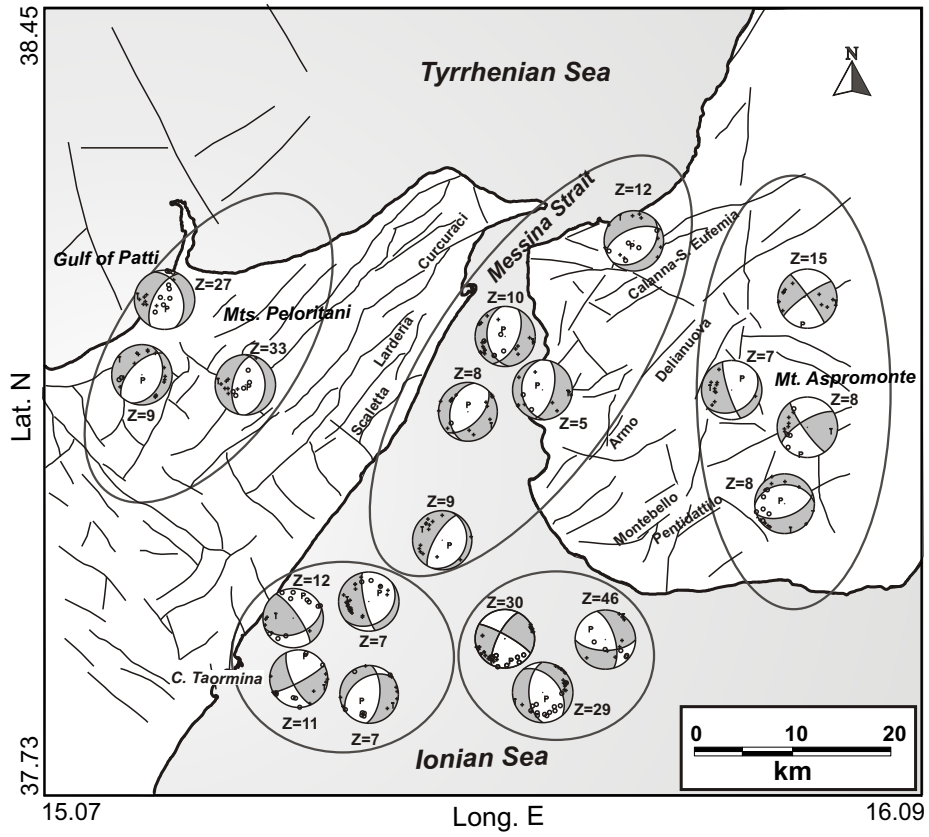


Fig. 12

