

Palaeogeographical evolution of the Thrace Neogene Basin and the Tethys–Paratethys relations at northwestern Turkey (Thrace)

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Abstract

The Thrace Neogene Basin situated in northwestern Turkey was initiated by strike-slip faulting that was active from the Early Miocene until the end of the Pliocene. During the Early Miocene, it began to form under the control of the Thrace–Eskisehir Fault Zone, initiated by continental collision in northwestern Anatolia (Late Oligocene–Early Miocene). During the late Early Miocene, the basin was a site of mainly fluvial and limnic sedimentation to the west and marine sedimentation via the Paratethyan transgression in the north. With the onset of the Middle Miocene, the Thrace Block started to rotate in a counterclockwise sense and escaped westward with respect to the Strandja–Istanbul block owing to rejuvenation of fossil fault systems within it. In this period, warm marine conditions were also established around the Gulf of Saros through a Mediterranean originated transgression. During the Middle–Late Miocene fluvial and limnic conditions were created over the western Thrace by the westerly propagation of the Thrace–Eskisehir Fault Zone. One of the principal results of the Early–Middle Miocene tectonics is the tilting of the Strandja–Istanbul Block to the south, severing the Tethys and the Paratethys. During the latest Miocene–Early Pliocene period, the Thrace–Eskisehir Fault Zone was deactivated because of the evolution of the North Anatolian Fault Zone to the south. The resurrected Ganos Fault Zone situated on the dissected fossil suture zone in the Sea of Marmara also joined the North Anatolian Fault Zone, uplifting the Gelibolu Peninsula and, thus, severing the connection that existed between the Sea of Marmara and the Paratethys. The Sea of Marmara eventually became an endemic basin by the activity of the North Anatolian Fault Zone. © 1999 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Thrace Neogene Basin; Paratethys–Tethys connection; North Aegean Sea; North Anatolian Fault Zone; Thrace–Eskisehir Fault Zone

1. Introduction

The Thrace Neogene Basin is situated north of the Aegean graben system and the present basin of the Sea of Marmara (Figs. 1 and 2). This basin is principally formed by the activities of the Thrace (TFZ)

and the Ganos fault zones (GFZ) (Perinçek, 1991; Yalıtırak, 1996; Tapırdamaz and Yalıtırak, 1997). The relations between these fault zones can be classified for establishing the Neogene palaeogeography of the region in the light of the tectonic evolution of the area. The models put forward to account for the origin of the Sea of Marmara (Barka and Kadinsky-Cade, 1988; Wong et al., 1995; Erğün and Özel,

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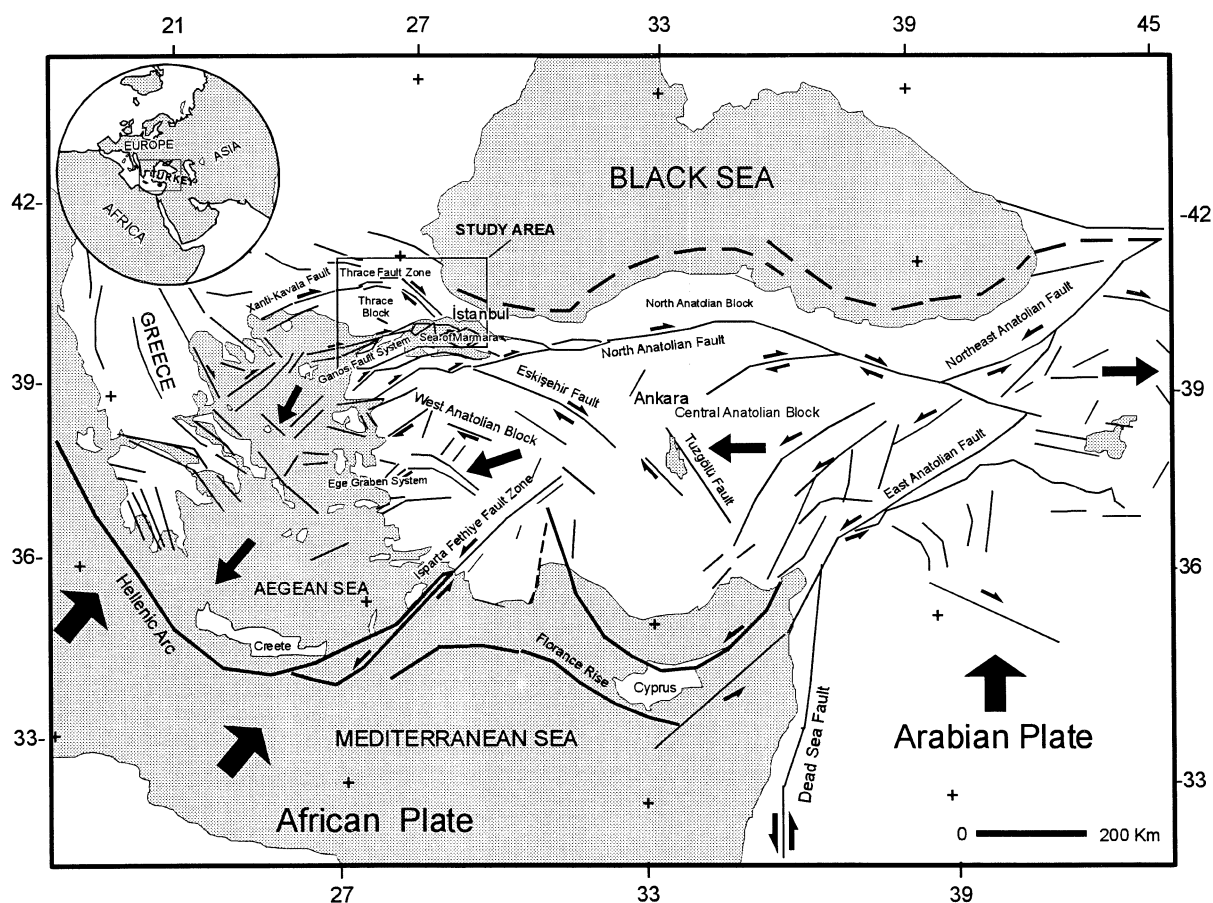


Fig. 1. Tectonic map of the eastern Mediterranean region and its surrounding study area, compiled from Jackson and McKenzie (1984), Okay (1984), Şengör et al. (1985), Perinçek et al. (1987), Şaroğlu et al. (1987), Barka and Kadinsky-Cade (1988), Taymaz (1990), Perinçek (1991), Barka (1992), Wong et al. (1995), Yaltrak (1996), Schindler (1997), Tapırdamaz and Yaltrak (1997) and Yaltrak et al. (1998).

1995) could also be more easily tested by establishing the palaeogeographical evolution of the region. This study is a first attempt to illuminate the tectonic evolution of the Thrace basin by reconstructing its palaeogeography during the Neogene.

Only a limited number of studies exist on the stratigraphy and tectono-sedimentary history of the Neogene sequences of this region, despite the fact that the region has been investigated by many earth scientists since the 19th century (Tchihatcheff, 1863–1867; Calvert and Neumayr, 1880; Andrussov, 1890; English, 1904; Newton, 1904; Hornes, 1909; Penck, 1917; Arabu, 1917; Gutzwiller, 1923; Chaput, 1931, 1936; Parejas, 1939, 1941). Most of these earlier studies have been focused on

the mammal, and the ostracod faunal associations of the Istanbul and Çanakkale Neogene sequences. The Küçükçekmece vertebrate fauna of Istanbul and Bayraktepe fauna of Çanakkale are well known (Sayar and Pamir, 1933; Arıç, 1955; Ozansoy, 1973). This faunal zone has been studied in detail in order to clarify the palaeogeographic relation between the Tethys (Mediterranean) and the Paratethys (Black Sea). A number of authors have mentioned that there was a connection between these two seas over Istanbul (Penck, 1917; Lüttig and Steffens, 1976; Steininger et al., 1985; Sayar, 1987). The Paleogene period of the Thrace basin has been investigated more thoroughly because of hydrocarbon investigations (Doust and Arıkan, 1974; Keskin, 1974; Turgut

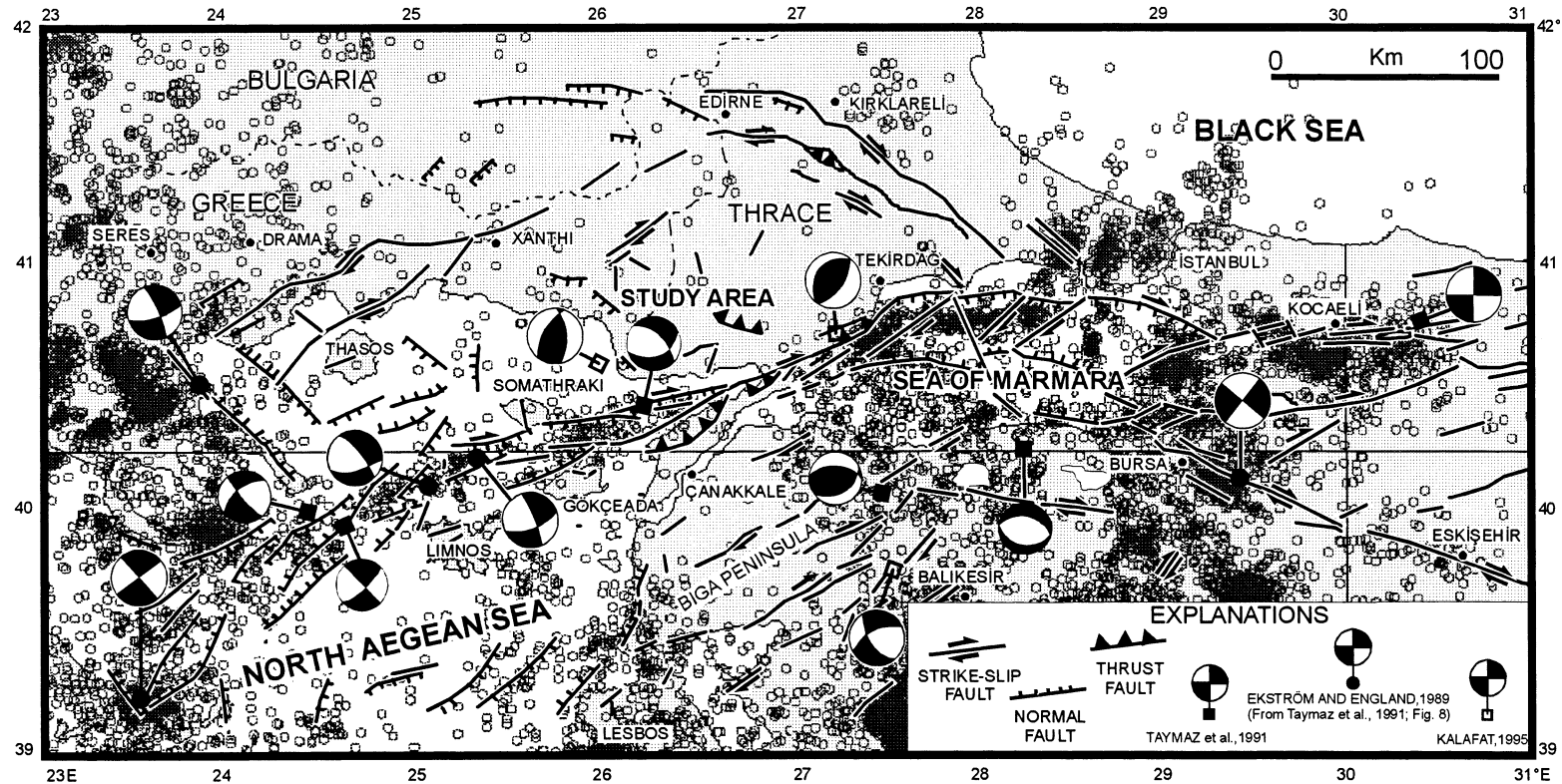
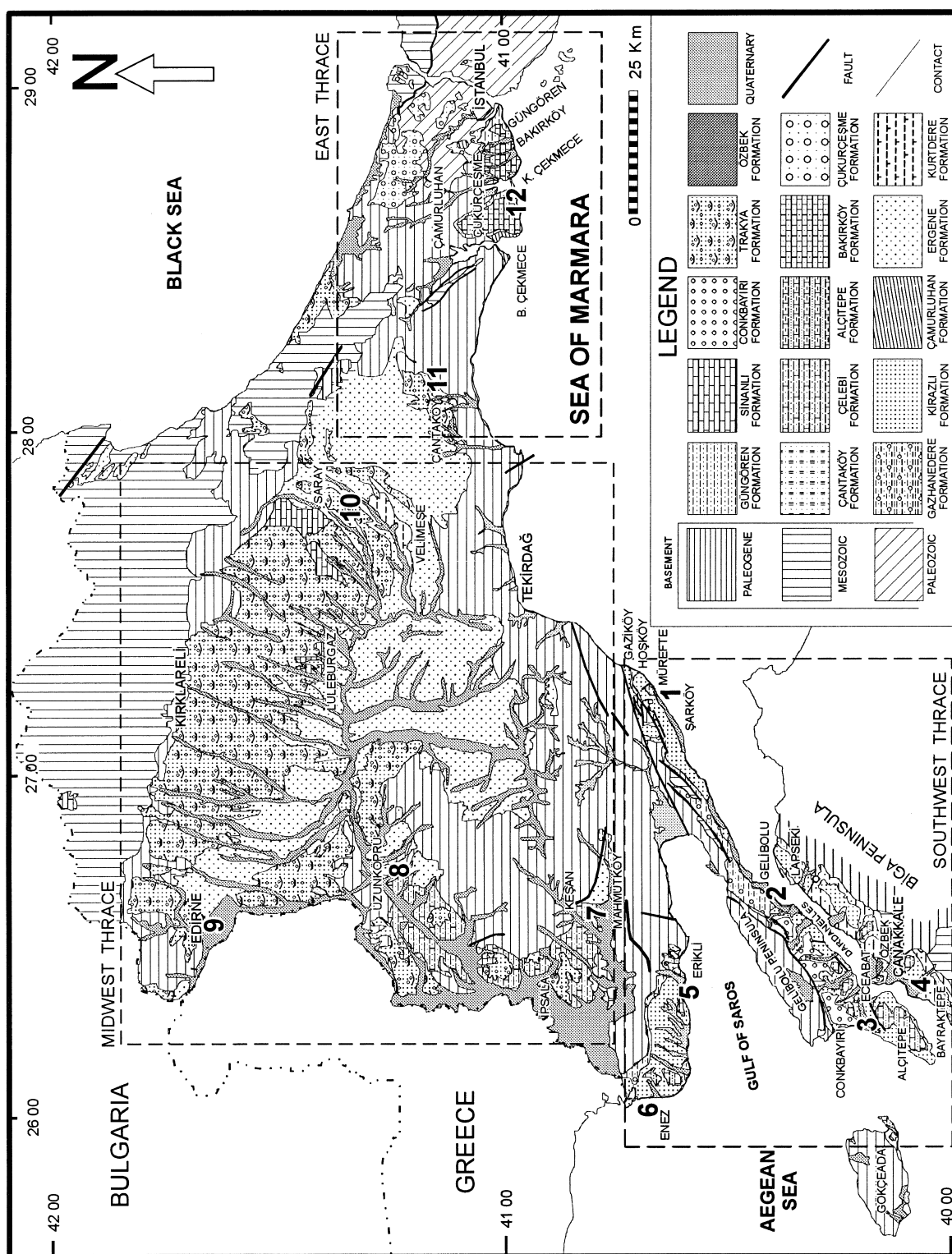


Fig. 2. Seismotectonic map of study area and its surroundings: ISC seismicity map Cornell Univ. GIS Map and information on services <http://atlas.gen.cornell.edu>. Tectonic lines compiled from Bornovas and Rondogianni-Tsiambau (1983), Barka and Kadinsky-Cade (1988), Gheshitev et al. (1989), Simeakis et al. (1989), Siyako et al. (1989), Perinçek (1991), Wong et al. (1995), Eryilmaz (1996), Yalturak (1996), Schindler (1997), Tapırdamaz and Yalturak (1997) and Yalturak et al. (1998). Fault plane solutions from Taymaz et al. (1991) and Kalafat (1995).



et al., 1991). Apart from these, studies concerning the seaway connections in the Miocene (Lüttig and Steffens, 1976; Rögl and Steininger, 1983, 1984; Steininger et al., 1985; Sayar, 1987) and those on the passage of mammals from Anatolia to Europe (Görür et al., 1995) constitute the most significant literature about the basin.

2. Stratigraphy

The basement of the basin is formed from Paleozoic sequences to the east, various metamorphics and magmatics to the north and northwest, the Upper Cretaceous–Paleogene ophiolitic melange and the volcano-sedimentary series, the Eocene neritic to littoral carbonates and the Eocene deep marine sequences to the further west. Some Oligo-Miocene continental and brackish-marine sequences are also present in the centre, the north and the northwest of the basin. The Neogene sediments are ubiquitously covering this basement across an angular unconformity in the marginal areas of the basin. The relationship is unconformable in the central parts of the basin (Keskin, 1974; Alişan and Gerhard, 1987; Kasar, 1987; Ediger and Batı, 1988; Turgut et al., 1991).

The Neogene sequences display many different facies associations because of their environments of deposition. These sequences have been lithostratigraphically divided as follows:

2.1. Gazhanedere Formation

This formation has been designated by Saltık (1974) at Gazhanedere (northeastern Mürefte; Fig. 3, Loc. 1). In the type area, the formation is made up of coarse clastics of meandering river origin containing some coal seams and clayey deposits indicating the establishment of temporary swampy limnic conditions (Fig. 4, Locs. 1–5). Around Sarköy (Fig. 3, Loc. 1), it starts with fluvial cycles of coarse

clastics and reddish mudstones. It later develops as green-red coloured clays containing some silty intercalations. To the west, this sequence laterally passes into lacustrine strata composed of clays containing some marl and micritic lenses. Around Gaziköy–Sarköy, the thickness of the formation varies from 150 to 240 m. The thickness of the formation increases towards Gelibolu (Figs. 3 and 4, Locs. 2 and 3) where it is solely formed by reddish coloured and fresh-water bivalve (*Unio* sp.) bearing mudstones passing into brownish-green coloured sandstones–siltstones with some marl intercalations. It is about 300–330 m thick at this locality. Between Çanakkale and Lapseki (Figs. 4 and 5, Loc. 4), the formation is formed by braided river conglomerates vertically passing into reddish-greenish mudstones containing fresh-water ostracodes and bivalves. North of the Ganos Fault (Figs. 3 and 4, Locs. 5 and 6), it starts with reddish mudstones laterally passing into marls and limestones. They are replaced by buff-coloured sands vertically. Some bentonite lenses are also noted in the upper part of the section.

The age of formation is late Orleanian around Şarköy–Mürefte (Table 1, Loc. 1; micro mammals fauna; Ünay and De Bruijn, 1984), Astaracian around Gelibolu (Table 1, Loc. 2; Table 2, Loc. 4; Şentürk et al., 1987) and is pre-early Pannonian around Çanakkale (Table 1, Loc. 2).

2.2. Kurtdere Formation

This formation has been designated by Umut et al. (1983) north of Velimeşe (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 10). In the type area the formation starts with grey-green coloured massive sands, clays and siltstones. Towards the top, they pass into clayey sands containing fine pebble lenses. The bedding is not well pronounced and the sedimentation units can only be differentiated by colour. The type section is about 50 m thick. Keskin (1971, 1974) states that the formation unconformably overlies the Danismend Formation of the basement. Vertically, it is conformable

Fig. 3. Geological map of northwestern Turkey (Thrace Peninsula and west of Biga Peninsula), compiled from Parejas (1939), Ternek (1949), Akartuna (1953), Arıç (1955) Kopp et al. (1969), Lebküchner (1974), Umut et al. (1983, 1984), Önal (1984), Sümengen et al. (1987), Şentürk et al. (1987), Yaltrak (1996), Sakıncı and Yaltrak (1997), Tapırdamaz and Yaltrak (1997) and Yaltrak et al. (1998).

with the Middle–Upper Miocene Ergene Formation (Umut et al., 1983). For this reason, the age of the formation should be Middle Miocene (Table 3, Loc. 10; Umut et al., 1983).

2.3. Çantaköy Formation

Around Çantaköy (Fig. 3) the sedimentary sequence starting with *Unio*-bearing clayey sands and continuing with white tuffites, has been designated as Çantaköy Formation (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 11; Umut et al., 1983). Some lensoidal conglomerate intercalations of volcanic origin are also noted in the formation. The thickness of this sequence is about 120 m in the north. The uppermost part of the formation is made up of evenly laminated clays of limnic origin. The formation lies unconformable on the basement.

Some bivalve and mammal fossils collected from the lower part of the formation indicate Middle Miocene age (Table 3, Loc. 11; Umut et al., 1983).

2.4. Çamurluhan Formation

Around Çamurluhan (Fig. 3, Loc. 12) a sequence of sands containing yellowish coloured marl intercalations has been designated as ‘Çamurluhan Formation’ (Sayar, 1987). Laminated grey-green coloured clay intercalations are noted towards the top. The type section is about 80 m thick. The formation lies unconformable on the Paleozoic basement. Marine mollusc fossils are sparse within the cross-bedded sand layers. The fauna present in the grey coloured clays is comparable with that of Baden beds of the Vienna Basin (Chaput, 1936).

A similar sequence is observed to lie unconformable on the Oligocene deposits west of Büyükçekmece (Fig. 3). Here, it is composed of a sand-clay alternation with some conglomeratic sandstone intercalations (Fig. 4, Loc. 12). At this locality, the thickness of the formation is about 50 m. To the top, the marls become the dominant lithology. Fish, foraminifera and bivalve fossils indicate a Badenian age for the formation (Table 3, Loc. 12; Rückert-Ülkümen et al., 1993). The two sequence contain the Middle Paratethian faunal assemblages and are unconformably overlain by the Late Miocene aged clastics (Çukurçeşme Formation).

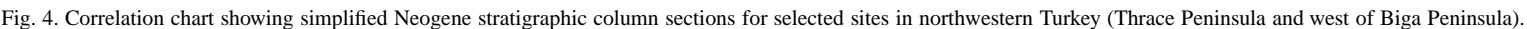
2.5. Kirazlı Formation

The sequence of yellowish-buff coloured sands with trough cross-bedding seen on the limnic deposits of Gazhanedere Formation has been designated as Kirazlı Formation by Saltık (1974) (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 1). Around Mürefte, the two formations are laterally and vertically transitional. Later, planar cross-bedding becomes the dominating sedimentary structure in the sands. To the top, gypsum lenses are noted. This uppermost part of the sequence is laterally replaced by red sandstones to the northeast. The formation is about 230–300 m thick. The marine fauna found in the uppermost part of the unit indicates a Sarmatian age (Table 1, Loc. 1; İzdar, 1959).

Around Gelibolu, the formation starts with massive sandstones with siltstone intercalations (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 2). To the top, high-angle planar cross-bedded sandstones follow the massive sandstones. Some thin conglomeratic intercalations and medium bedded sandstones are also noted. The uppermost part of the unit is formed by siltstone–sandstone alternation. The rodent fauna collected from the basal part of the formation indicates a Vallesian age for the formation (Table 1, Loc. 2; Üney and De Bruijn, 1984).

Between Gelibolu and Eceabat, the formation starts with trough cross-bedded sands on the variegated deposits of Gazhanedere Formation by vertical passage (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 3). It is 400 m thick in this locality. There are also some variegated mudstone intercalations in the basal sands (Fig. 3). Here, fine sandstones follow the basal sands, they are, in turn, followed by medium bedded and carbonate cemented sandstones. Later in the sequence, high angle cross-bedded sandstones are exposed. Clay–silt–sand alternation is seen above these sandstones. Towards the top, *Macra*-bearing conglomerate intercalations are also present in the sequence. The unit ends with *Macra*-bearing sandstones. The mammal fossils collected from the formation indicate a Vallesian age for the formation (Table 1, Loc. 3; Kaya, 1989).

Around Çanakkale and south of Lapseki (Fig. 4, Loc. 4), the formation lies conformable on the Gazhanedere Formation. Here the sequence starts with cross-stratified fine sands containing at the base



some *Unio*-bearing green mudstone and sandstone lenses. To the top, the lithology turns into *Mac-tri*-bearing sandstones alternating with fine sands. In this locality, the sequence is about 180 m thick.

The formation exhibits a similar development north of the Gulf of Saros (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 5). Here, it starts with cross-bedded sandstones. The upper part of the formation is made up of reddish coloured fine sandstones containing abundant bivalve shells (Table 2, Loc. 5; Örcen, 1975). Some gypsum lenses are also observed in these sandstones.

The formation is represented by dune sands around Enez (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 6); it later develops into bivalve-bearing sands. Here, the formation is 80–120 m thick. *Ostrea cuculata*, *O. gingensis* and *Cardium edule* constitute an acme zone in the sands of the middle part of the section (Table 2, Loc. 5).

Mammal fossils indicate an Astaracian–early Vallesian age for the lower part of the formation (Table 1, Locs. 2 and 3; Table 2, Loc. 4; Ünay and De Bruijn, 1984; Şentürk et al., 1987; Kaya, 1989). The marine fauna of the Sarmatian–Serravalian is found in the upper part of the formation (Table 1, Loc. 1; İzdar, 1959; Table 2, Loc. 5; Ternek, 1949).

2.6. Ergene Formation

Various clastics of continental origin unconformably lying on the basement along the Ergene River have been designated by Holmes (1961) as the Ergene Formation. It starts with an alternation of conglomerates, marls and siltstones around Kesan (Figs. 2 and 3, Loc. 7; Umut et al., 1984). Towards the top, they are followed by clayey limestone, fine sandstone, siltstone and marl alternation. The section is about 70 m thick and the rodent fauna derived from the sequence indicates an Astaracian age for the formation (Table 3, Loc. 7; Ünay and De Bruijn, 1984).

The formation is 140 m thick around Mahmutköy (Figs. 2 and 3, Loc. 7). There, it starts with carbonate-cemented sandstones and continues with

weakly cemented and cross-bedded sandstones containing lensoidal channel-fill conglomerates. Containing, though rarely, some clay and silt intercalations. Micro mammal fauna found in the sequence indicates Vallesian age for the formation around Mahmutköy (Table 3, Loc. 7; Ünay and De Bruijn, 1984).

The Ergene Formation lies unconformable over the Oligocene sediments (Figs. 2 and 3, Loc. 8) around Uzunköprü. Here, it starts with buff-coloured coarse sandstones. They gradually pass into grey-green coloured clays. In this locality, the thickness of the unit varies from 40 to 120 m. The mammal fauna indicates a Late Miocene age for the formation around Uzunköprü (Table 3, Loc. 8; Umut et al., 1984).

The formation is similarly observed on the Eocene and Oligocene sediments north of Edirne. Here, it is more than 180 m thick being composed of cross-bedded conglomerates containing some brownish-red-dish coloured silty and clayey layers to the top. The mammal fauna collected from the unit indicates a Late Miocene age (Table 3, Loc. 9; Umut et al., 1984).

The formation passes laterally and vertically into Çantaköy Formation around Çantaköy (Figs. 2 and 3, Loc. 11). In this locality, the thickness of the sequence is more than 70 m. It primarily consists of gravely sandstones. Some thin coal seams are also observed. The mammal fauna present within the sequence indicates a Late Miocene age (Table 3, Loc. 11; Umut et al., 1984).

2.7. Çukurçeşme Formation

A sequence of weakly cemented conglomerates, pebbly sandstones and sandstones has been designated as Çukurçeşme Formation by Sayar (1976). In the type area (Çukurçeşme; Fig. 2, Loc. 12), it starts with braided-river conglomerates made up of meta-sandstone, gneiss, ophiolite, different volcanic and quartz pebbles. The large-scale planar

Fig. 5. Structural map of northwestern Turkey (Thrace, west of Biga, Sea of Marmara and Gulf of Saros). NAFZ = North Anatolian Fault Zone; KFZ = Kırklareli Fault Zone; LFZ = Lüleburgaz Fault Zone; BFZ = Babaeski Fault Zone; GFZ = Ganos Fault Zone. Compiled from Şaroğlu et al. (1987), Barka and Kadinsky-Cade (1988), Perinçek (1991), Barka (1992), Wong et al. (1995), Yaltrak (1996), Schindler (1997) and Tapırdamaz and Yaltrak (1997).

Table 1
List of fossils and localities

[illegible]

Table 2
List of fossils and localities

[illegible]

Table 3
List of fossils and localities

TABLE-3	NEOGENE															AGE		
	MIOCENE										PLIOCENE							
	EARLY		MIDDLE				LATE				EARLY		LATE					
	BURDIGALIAN		LANGHIAN		SERRAVALIAN		TORTONIAN		MESSINIAN		ZANCLEAN		PIACENZIAN					
	OTTNANGIAN KARPATIAN		BADENIAN		SARMATIAN		PANNONIAN		PONTIAN		DACIAN		ROMANIAN					
	MN3	MN4	MN5	MN6	MN7	MN8	MN9	MN10	MN11-MN12	MN13	MN14-MN15		MN16-MN17					
FOSSILS	ORLEANIAN				ASTARACIAN				VALLESIAN			TUROLIAN		RUSCIAN		VILLAFRANCHIAN		
Schizogalerix anatolica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 7		
Byzantinia bayraktepensis						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Dakkayms sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Trogontherium minutum						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Brachyotherium barchypus						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Schizogalerix sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Byzantinia nikosi						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Unay and de Bruijn,1984		
Hemimactra sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Melanopsis impressa						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Melanopsis corrodes						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Monodacna pseudocatillus						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Ternek,1949		
Unio lavateri						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Planorbis sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 8		
Bithynia sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Parejas,1939		
Byzantinia sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Schizogalerix sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Palaeocricetus sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al., 1984		
Democritodon sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Palaeoryx aff. majori						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Hipparion sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 9		
Miohyaena montadai						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al., 1984		
Chilotherium zernowi						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Choerolophodon pentelici						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Hispanotierium grimmii						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 10		
Turkomyss sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al.,1983		
Schizogaleriks sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Hipparion sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Hispanotierium grimmii						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 11		
Hipparion sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al., 1983		
Quersus neritoila						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Persea aff. indicia						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al.,1983		
Unio sp.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Planorbis cf. thiollierei						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Umut et al.,1983		
Hipparion gracile						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										LOC. 12		
Gazella gaudry						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Calicotherium cf. goldfussi						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Rhinoceras pachygnatus						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Helicotragus rotundicomis						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Testudo marmoreum						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Mastadon pentelici						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Chaput,1939		
Giraffa attica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Aric, 1955		
Cerithium nodosoplicatum		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Bittium reticulatum		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Spaniadon nitidus		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Nassa obliqua		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Cerithium vulgatum		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Potamida berbestiensis		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Mactra podolica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Mactra bulgarica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Cypris faba						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Mactra supcaspia						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Mactra caspia						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Mactra bulgarica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Sayar and Pamir,1933		
Mactra subturnuncata						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Chaput,1939		
Mactra podolica						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Aric,1955		
Melanopsis trojana						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Rückert-Ulkümen et al., 1993		
Thedoxus stefanescu						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Unio carenatus						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Clupea pukhra		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Clupeonella bothrophora		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Thymallus laticus		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Thymallus laticaruss n.sp.		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																
Palaeogadis aequipartitus						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										Rückert-Ulkümen et al., 1993		
Prolebias trianguoratlundata						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Atherina charagma.						XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX												
Bolvina viennensis		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX														Rückert-Ulkümen et al., 1993		
lobigerina congate		XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX																

and trough type cross-bedding is the principle sedimentary structure observed in the conglomerates. Towards the top, the conglomerates are followed by similar cross-bedded sandstones. Some minor intercalations of *Unio*- and *Macra*-bearing marls and clays with thin coal seams are also present. The thickness of formation varies from 70 to 120 m increasing to the north. The mammal fauna derived from the formation indicates Pannonian age (Table 3, Loc. 12; Chaput, 1936; Arıç, 1955; Sayar, 1976).

2.8. Güngören Formation

The sequence of clays containing number of marl intercalations and some fine sand lenses has been designated as ‘Güngören Formation’ by Sayar (1976). In the type area (Güngören; Figs. 2 and 3, Loc. 12), the thickness of the unit is about 30 m. However, it varies from 20 to 80 m in other localities. This formation conformably follows the Çukurçeşme Formation and it is in turn, conformably overlain by Bakirköy Formation. Mammal and bivalve fauna indicates a Late Miocene age for the formation (Table 3, Loc. 12). Some fish remains found in the lateral extension of the formation indicate a Sarmatian–Pannonian age (Table 3, Loc. 12; Rückert-Ülkümen et al., 1993).

2.9. Alçıtepe Formation

A sequence of *Macra*-bearing conglomerates, marl–sandstone intercalation and at the top, cross-bedded oolitic sandstone, sandy limestone and bivalve-bearing sandstone intercalation lies conformably on the Kirazlı Formation around Alçıtepe (Eceabat; Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 3) and has been designated as ‘Alçıtepe Formation’ by Önem (1974). Around Alçıtepe, it is 200 m thick and is extensively exposed along the southern part of the Gelibolu Peninsula. The uppermost part of the formation is formed by red-coloured sandstones of continental origin. Around Erikli (north of the Gulf of Saros; Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 6), some gypsum lenses are noted in the lower most part of the sequence. Here, *Ostrea* banks and some coral reefs are also observed above the conglomerates. Farther north (Enez; Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 5), the formation starts with loosely cemented red sandstones intercalated with *Macra*-bearing limestone’s and finely lam-

inated claystones. Here, the formation is about 60 m thick. It is unconformably overlain by the younger units.

Around Hosköy, the formation is Late Miocene in age (Table 1, Loc. 1; Gutzwiller, 1923). Around Gelibolu, however, its age is Dacian–Romanian (Table 1, Loc. 3; Taner, 1979). Around Alçıtepe, an ostracod fauna has yielded a Pannonian age for the lower part of the formation and the mammal fossils derived from the uppermost continental clastics indicate a Turolian age (Table 1, Loc. 3; Şentürk et al., 1987; Kaya, 1989). Around Bayraktepe and Bozcaada, the age is Tortonian (Erguvanlı, 1955; Erdoğan, 1978). Around Erikli, the age span is between Tortonian and Pontian (Ternek, 1949; Sümengen et al., 1987; Table 2, Locs. 5 and 6).

2.10. Çelebi Formation

The sequence largely formed by sandy marls and resting conformably on the Ergene Formation has been designated as Çelebi Formation by (Beer and Wright, 1960). This unit has extensive outcrops around the Ipsala–Kesan–Uzunköprü region (Figs. 3 and 4, Locs. 7 and 8). The type section starts with sandy marls which pass into sandy limestones. It is about 100 m thick on the conglomerates of the Ergene Formation. There are also some laminated and clayey limestone intercalations within the sandy limestone facies. The upper part of the formation consists mainly of brackish bivalve fauna-bearing marls.

The age of the formations is Pontian around Mahmutköy (Table 3, Loc. 7; Ternek, 1949). In the type area, however, the mammal fauna derived from the lower part has indicated a Late Miocene age (Table 2, Loc. 8) and the upper layers have yielded a Turolian age (Umut et al., 1984).

2.11. Sinanlı Formation

A sequence starting conformably on the Ergene Formation with limestone–marl and clay intercalation has been designated as Sinanlı Formation (Umut et al., 1983). In the areas near Edirne (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 9), the formation begins with marl–limestone–laminated clay intercalation. Some sand layers are also present in the sequence. Towards the top, limestones dominate the formation. The overall thickness of the

formation is about 40 m in the type area. Around Lüleburgaz, it is made up of nodular limestone–clay alternation (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 10). Sand intercalations are frequent within the clay horizons. In this locality, the formation is about 30 m thick.

The Sinanlı Formation is unconformably overlain by the Thrace formation (Figs. 3 and 4, Locs. 9 and 10). This unit should be Late Miocene in age same as the Ergene Formation with which is vertically and laterally passing.

2.12. Bakırköy Formation

This formation has been designated by Sayar (1976) around Bakırköy and K. Çekmece (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 12). In this area, The sequence is formed by *Mastra*-bearing limestones with clay and marl intercalations (Fig. 4, Loc. 12). The formation is about 80 m thick in the type area. It gets thinner to the north. The brackish water bivalve fauna found in the unit indicates Pannonian–Pontian age (Table 3, Loc. 12).

2.13. Fener Conglomerate

This unit is exposed around Hosköy (Fig. 3, Loc. 1) and is composed of thick bedded polygenetic conglomerates bearing fresh-water bivalves (Table 1, Loc. 1) of Pliocene age (Gutzwiller, 1923; Yaltırak, 1995a).

2.14. Conkbayırı Formation

This formation has been designated by Kellog (1973) near Eceabat (Fig. 3, Loc. 3). In the Conkbayırı area, the formation starts with poorly indurated mudstones. Later, it develops into weakly cemented sandstone and conglomerate intercalation (Fig. 4, Locs. 2 and 3). The textural and sedimentary structures observed within the formation indicate an alluvial-fan depositional environment for these sediments. The formation lies unconformably over the Alçıtepe Formation of Turolian age (Sümengen et al., 1987).

The basal horizons have yielded a fresh-water fauna (Taner, 1979; Akchagylian) and the spore–pollen flora (Table 1, Loc. 2) indicating the Late Pliocene age for the formation (Önal, 1984).

2.15. Özbek Formation

It has been designated by Erol and Nuttal (1973) around Özbek (Figs. 3 and 4, Loc. 4). This formation is formed by carbonate cemented conglomerates containing shallow-marine fauna. These conglomerates are gradually replaced by carbonate cemented sandstones towards the top. Some limestone intercalations present in the upper part contain *Ostrea* sp. and *Miliolidae* indicating shallow-marine conditions. Some *Dreissena* fossils indicating limnic conditions are also found within the marly horizons of the formation. The early Quaternary age is given for the unit by the previous workers (Erol and Nuttal, 1973; Şentürk et al., 1987).

2.16. Thrace Formation

It has been named by Umut et al. (1983). It is made up of various fluvial clastics north of the Saray–Kırklareli–Edirne axis (Figs. 3 and 4, Locs. 8–11). The thickness of these clastics varies from 10 to 40 m from one locality to another.

The formation unconformably overlies the Upper Miocene Ergene Formation. Therefore, it must be younger than Late Miocene. No fossil remains have been, so far, found in these deposits. From the stratigraphical point of view, the age span of the formation should be Plio-Quaternary.

3. Structural setting

In the Thrace (Turkey) area, two principal fault zones namely, the Thrace Fault Zone (TFZ; Perinçek, 1987, 1991) and Ganos Fault Zone (GFZ; Yaltırak, 1996; Figs. 5 and 6C) were active during the Neogene Period. The TFZ is situated to the north. This fault zone first started to develop around Kırklareli (Figs. 5 and 6C) and, thus, it was named as the Kırklareli Fault Zone by Perinçek (1987). According to this author, this fault zone migrated to the south in time creating the Lüleburgaz and the Babaeski fault zones accordingly (Figs. 5 and 6C, D).

Perinçek (1991) interprets that the Kırklareli Fault Zone which developed during the middle Late Miocene is the branch of the North Anatolian Fault Zone (NAFZ). Owing to the presence of clear posi-

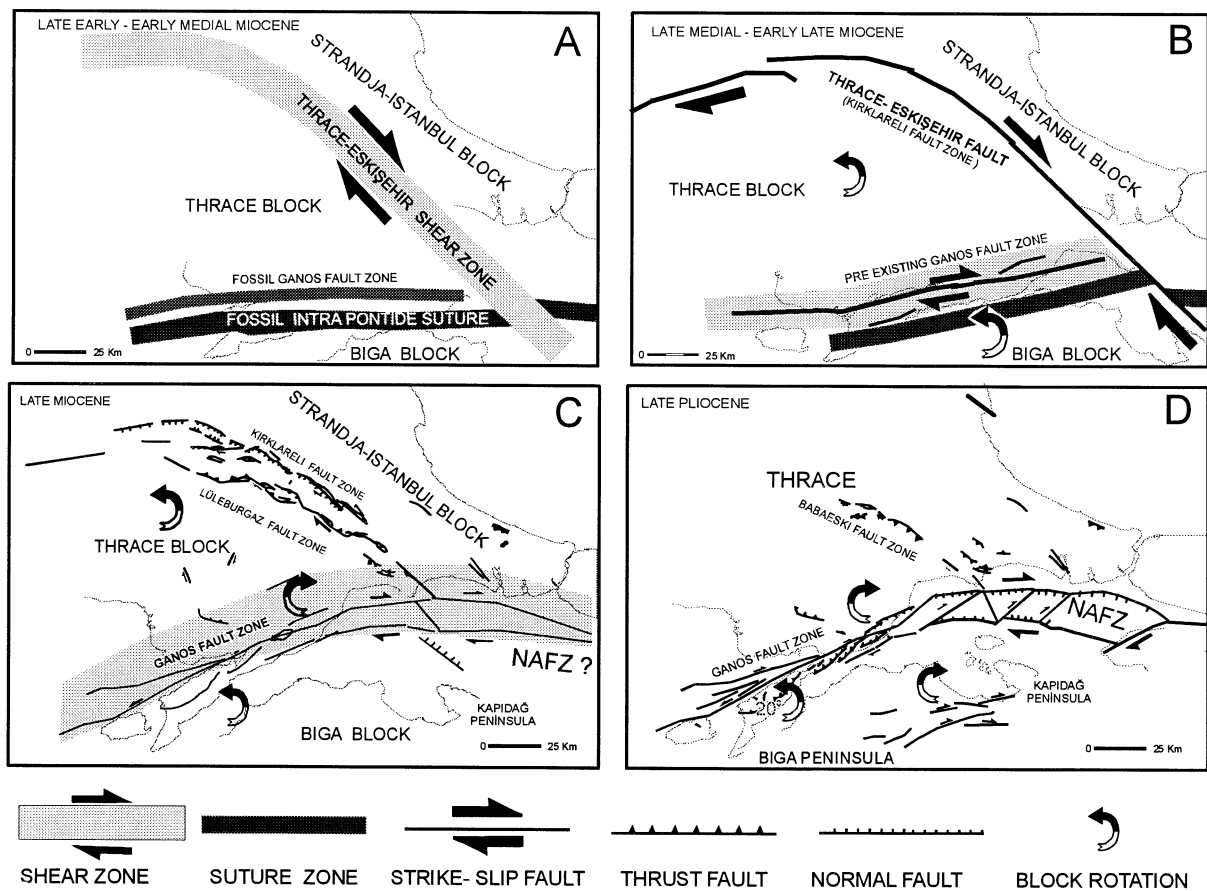


Fig. 6. Palinspastic tectonic model map of northwestern Turkey, compiled from Perinçek (1991), Barka (1992), Wong et al. (1995), Yaltrak (1996), Tapırdamaz and Yaltrak (1997) and Yaltrak et al. (1998).

tive and negative flower structures, he assumed that these faults are right-lateral strike-slip fault zones.

The Ganos Fault Zone (GFZ, Figs. 5 and 6C, D) is, however, an older structure than the TFZ as put forward by Tapırdamaz and Yaltrak (1997). According to these authors, this fault zone has been present since the Eocene, partly in the form of a replacement (Şengör et al., 1985) structure and partly in the form of a resurrected (Şengör et al., 1985) structure.

The third major structure seen in the region is the North Anatolian Fault Zone. As stated by many authors, it developed after the Late Miocene (Ketin, 1948, 1969; Şengör, 1979; Barka and Hancock, 1985; Şengör et al., 1985; Barka and Gülen, 1988; Görür et al., 1997).

In his recent study, Schindler (1997) has shown

that the Eskişehir Fault continues up to the Bay of Gemlik. He also stated that it continues into the Sea of Marmara. His maps indicate that the NAFZ cuts the Eskişehir Fault. This situation implies that the Thrace Fault Zone and the Eskişehir Fault may have been segments of a major structure which was later cut and displaced by the NAFZ after the Late Miocene (Yaltrak et al., 1998).

4. Palaeogeographic and tectonic evolution

4.1. Early-Middle Miocene (Aragonian, 'Orleanian-Astaracian', Badenian)

In this period, the southern sector of the basin (Around Erikli, Eceabat, Mürefte, Şarköy areas) be-

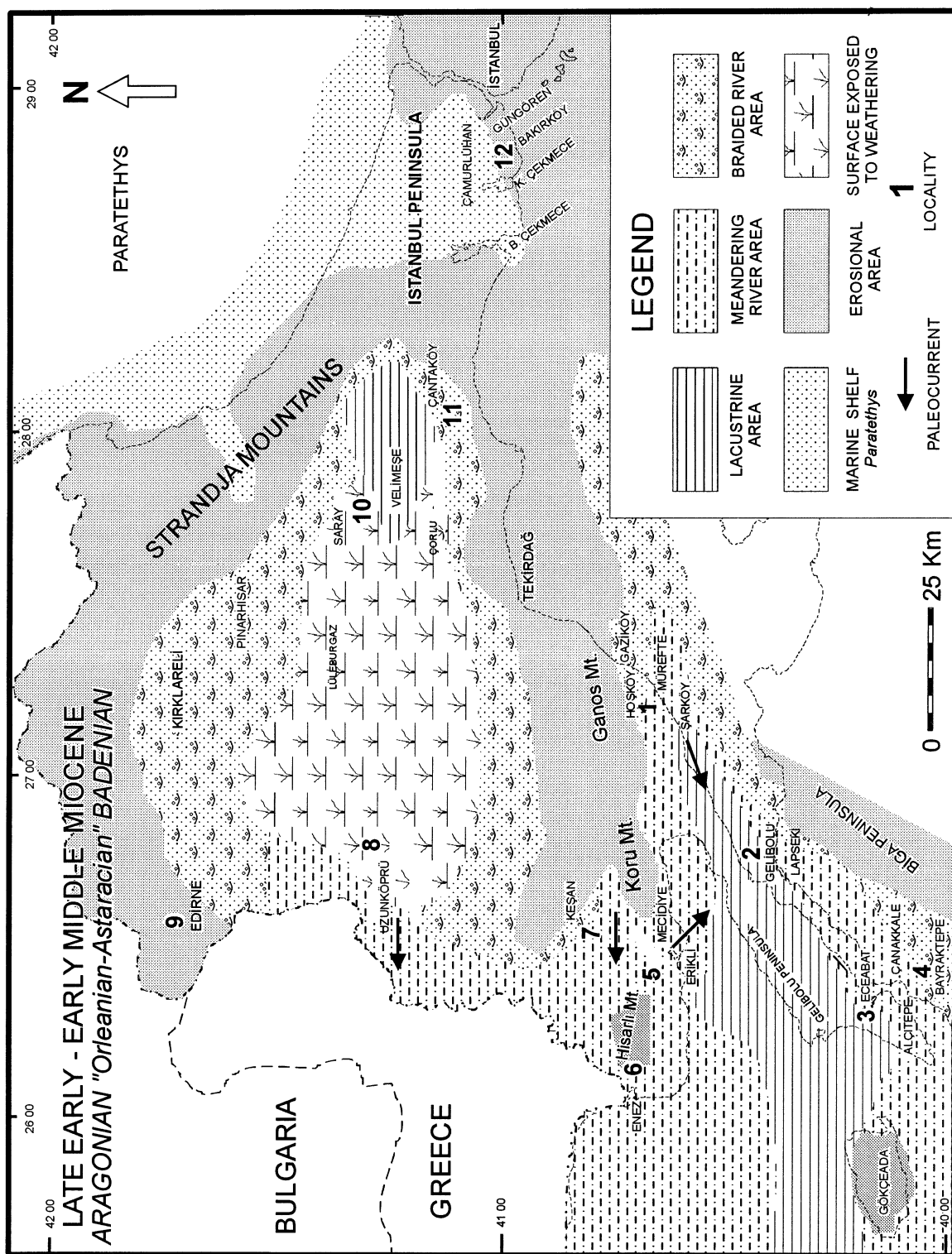


Fig. 7. Palaeogeographic map of the late Early–early Middle Miocene.

came a depositional site in which mainly meandering fluviatile and limnic conditions reigned. Principally, fine-grained clastic sedimentation took place. The largest of the lakes is situated in the area between Erikli, Sarköy and Çanakkale strait. Savannah conditions developed on the coastal plains south of Çanakkale and Eceabat. In the areas north of the Uzunköprü–Saray line, the Miocene erosional surface started to be uplifted and thus, to be dissected along the Thrace–Eskisehir shear Zone (Fig. 6A and Fig. 7). The Oligo-Miocene sequence of the basement was also influenced by this intensified erosion and supplied clastic material to the braided-river environment situated south of the same line (Fig. 7). This implies deep dissection of the eroded surface of this area.

East of Dardanelles, alluvial fans and braided rivers developed in front of the uplifted basement rocks of the Biga peninsula (Fig. 7).

In this period, the areas of Strandja Massif, Istanbul Peninsula, Ganos Mountain, Korudağ and Hisarlıdağ were transformed into areas of denudation. However, a tongue of the Paratethys invaded the lowland region of Istanbul Peninsula from the north creating a shallow-marine bay (Çamurluhan Area; Fig. 7). Around Enez–Hisarlıdağ and Uzunköprü, in general, the braided river and limnic conditions existed (Saner, 1985). These are the northern extensions of similar environments seen around Erikli (Fig. 7).

4.2. Late Middle–Early Late Miocene (*Serravalian, Vallesian*)

In this period, the Thrace–Eskisehir shear zone developed into a strike-slip fault zone (Kırklareli Fault Zone; Fig. 6B) and, because of this, the Strandja Mountains were uplifted. A river system of a braided type started to transport clastic material into the basin situated to the south (Fig. 8). The positive area was still present between Tekirdağ and Kesan. The braided river system continued to transport the erosional products into the enlarged basin in the north. A different situation is seen around Istanbul Peninsula. The evolution of TEF system (Fig. 6B) created a considerable uplifting possibly on the Biga Block, thus tilting the Strandja–Istanbul Block to the north. As a result, the waste amount of detrital

material created by a rapid and an intensive erosion were carried to the north by the braided and later, by the meandering rivers (Çukurçeşme Formation).

The Paratethys regressed to the north creating large plains that eventually became an area of dune formation.

West of the Uzunköprü–Keşan line, in general, meandering rivers carried the clastic material to the limnic basins present in the further west.

From the tectonics points of view, in this period, The Thrace Block rotated in the counterclockwise direction by the effect of the TEF. The Ganos Fault Zone (Fig. 6B) was activated due to the compression created by the connection of the TEF and the Xanti–Kavala Fault (Figs. 1 and 2; Tapırdamaz and Yaltırak, 1997, figs. 1 and 8).

Around Mürefte (Fig. 8), shores of the lakes were covered by dunes (Kirazlı Formation). The Gazhanedere Formation started to develop unconformably on the Kirazlı Formation around Lapseki because of the compression of the counterclockwise rotated Biga Block (Fig. 6B). Similarly, cross-bedded conglomerates were deposited on the beach dunes along the Gelibolu Peninsula. The trough-like area between the Ganos Mountain and the Biga Peninsula hosted the meandering rivers (Fig. 8).

In this period, the Gulf of Saros also started to open along the reactivated pre-existing Oligo-Miocene alignments. A transgression occurred towards Erikli and Mürefte creating a marine shelf, thus, marine conditions developed in the area of Gulf of Saros. Deltaic sedimentation occurred along with the beach dunes and lakes (Fig. 8).

4.3. Late Miocene (*Tortonian–Messinian, Turolian ‘Pannonian–Pontian’*)

The Mediterranean transgression was fully established by the start of the Late Miocene creating a warm and shallow-marine conditions in the area to the south of Enez–Erikli line and north of Gelibolu Peninsula (Fig. 9). The GFZ was again reactivated by the commencement of the Late Miocene period, uplifting the Gelibolu Peninsula and, thus, creating a threshold. By this new tectonics, the area between the GFZ and NAFZ was transformed into a shear zone forming the nucleus of the Marmara Basin (Fig. 6C). In time, this basin was developed as a

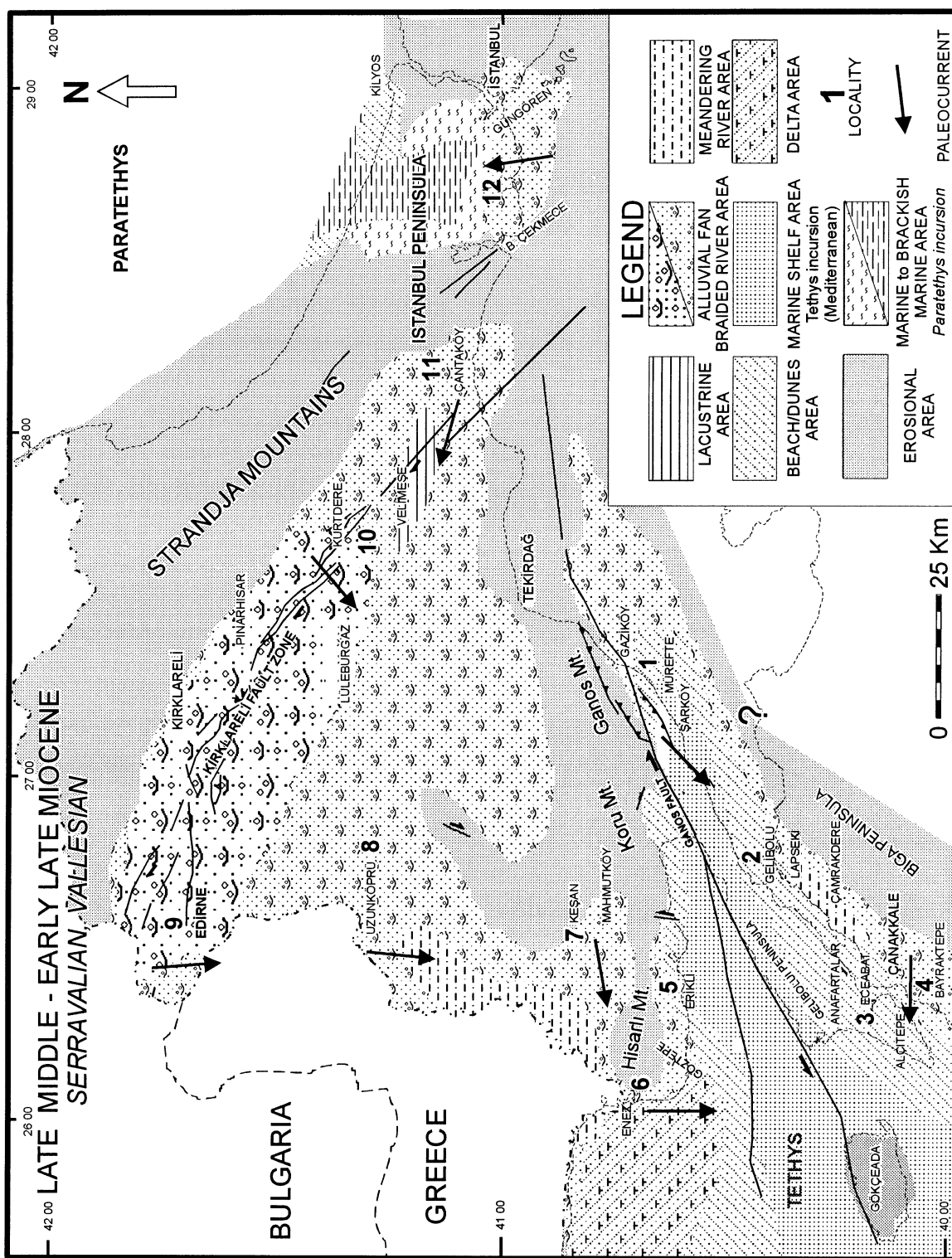


Fig. 8. Palaeogeographic map of the late Middle–early Late Miocene.

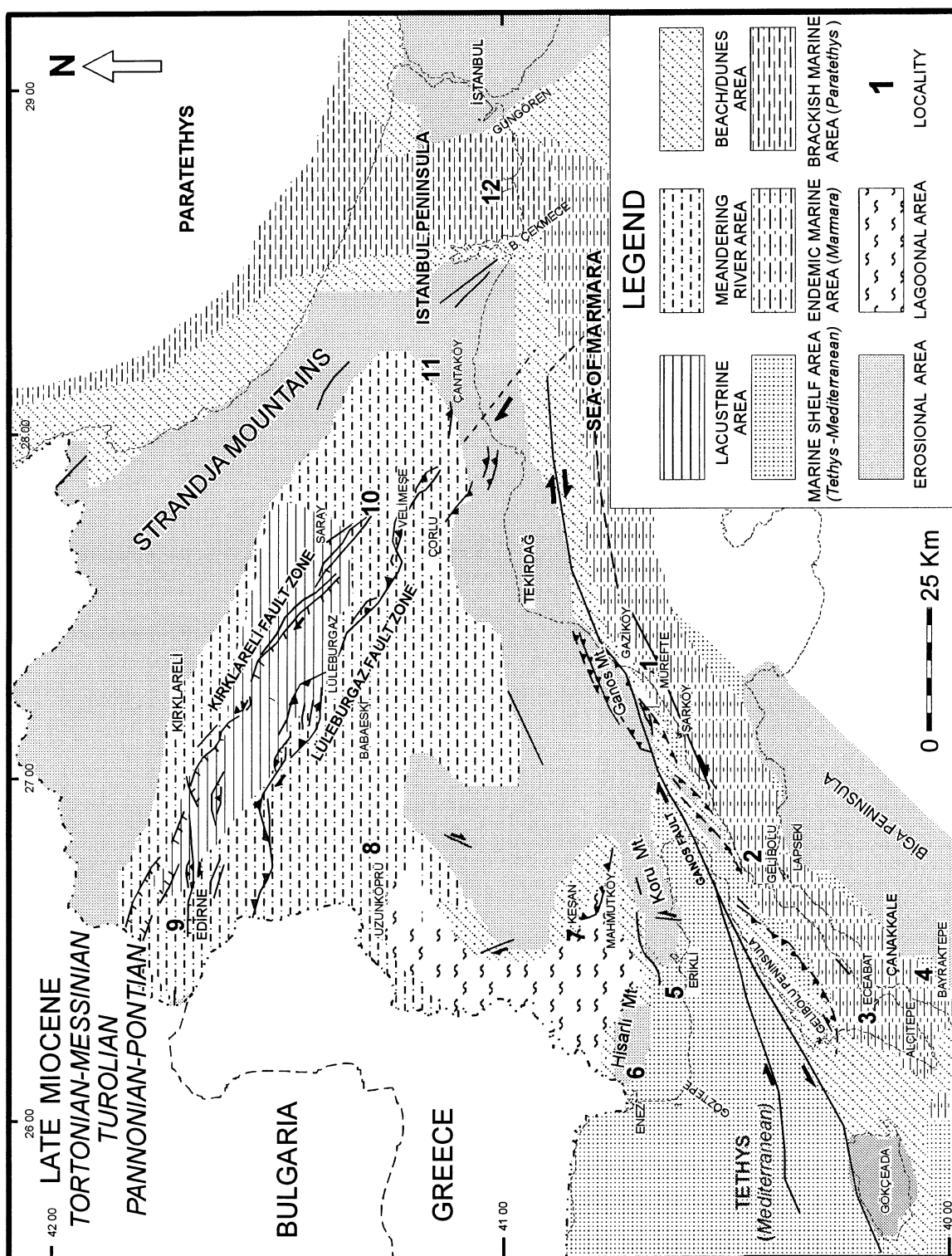


Fig. 9. Palaeogeographic map of the Late Miocene.

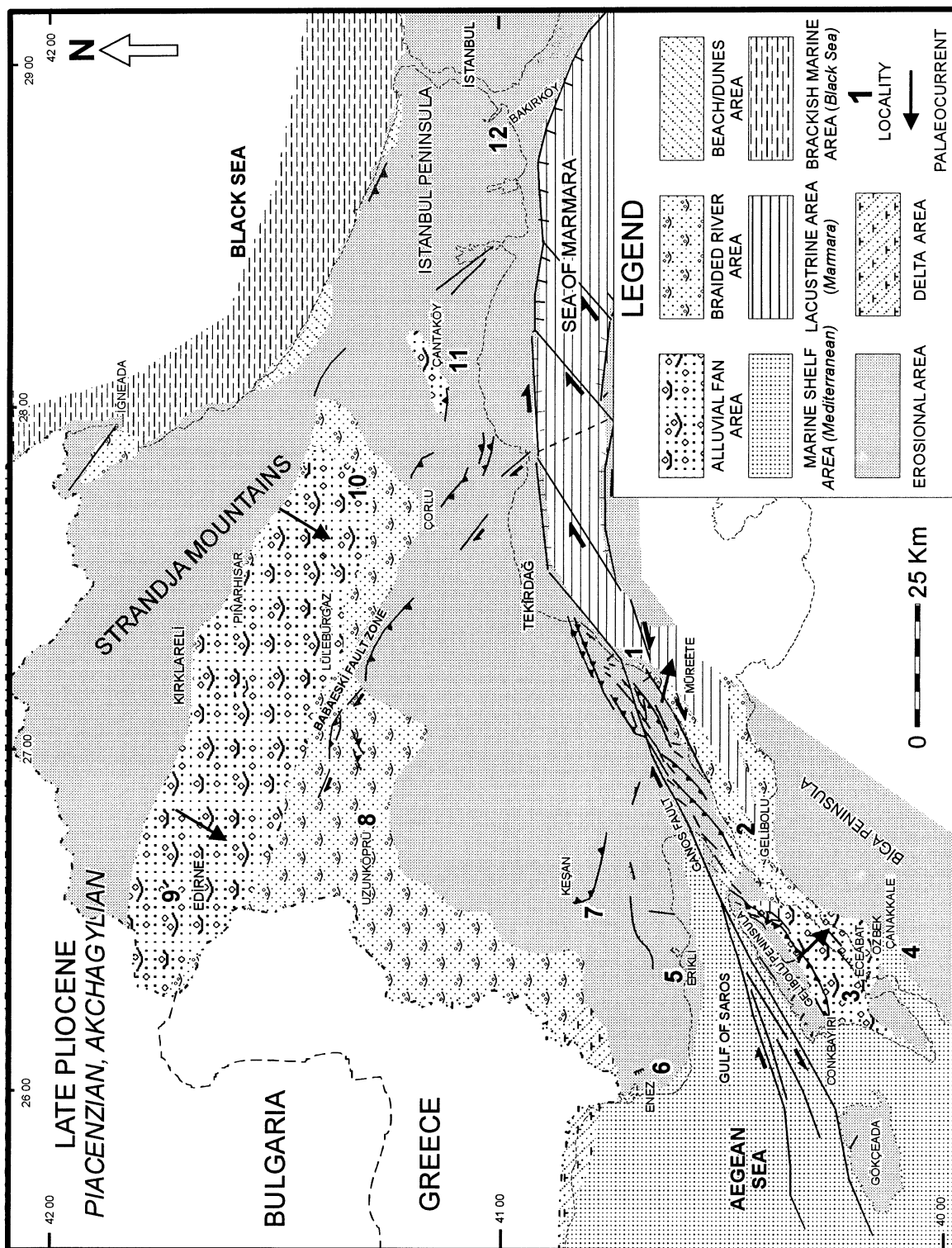


Fig. 10. Palaeogeographic map of the Late Pliocene.

lagoon experiencing marine invasions from time to time. The connection between the primitive Marmara basin and the Paratethys in the north was realized during the Pannonian–Pontian period along the Küçükçekmece–Terkos line by the activation of the NAFZ and tilting of the Strandja–Istanbul Block to the south.

By these tectonic movements, the area between Istanbul and Çanakkale became a shallow and a narrow endemic bay controlled by the Gelibolu threshold (Fig. 6C and Fig. 9). This bay was remained as an endemic bay of the Paratethys after the uplifting of Gelibolu Peninsula during Turolian (Fig. 9). From time to time, Mediterranean transgressions effected this endemic basin creating open-marine conditions (Fig. 9). During the lagoonal phases, near-shore areas became the coastal plains. In this period, the activity of the NAFZ dissected the KFZ causing its migration to the south. This new fault zone is called the Lüleburgaz Fault Zone (LFZ; Fig. 9). The TFZ was inactivated by the counterclockwise rotation of the Thrace Block. This tectonics resulted the joining of the NAFZ and GFZ (Fig. 6C). Therefore, the right-lateral movements developed over the area of the Sea of Marmara joined up with the palaeotectonic alignments and a negative flower structure started to develop.

The Paratethian waters secured the brackish water environments over the area of the Sea of Marmara and North Aegean regions during the Messinian crisis. The transgression of the Paratethys over the fluvial-limnic basin around Kesan created lagoonal conditions. In time, due to the termination of the connection with the open sea, the area around Uzunköprü became again a fluvial and, in parts a limnic depositional area (Fig. 8).

The continental faunal association indicates that, during this period, the continental areas (plains) were transformed into the savannah under the subtropical climatical conditions (Tables 1–3).

The mammal fauna of carnivorous and rodents found in Istanbul and Çanakkale implies that the whole continental area of Thrace possibly covered by savannah.

The tilting of the Strandja–Istanbul block to the south continued in this period disconnecting the Marmara Basin and the Paratethys.

4.4. Late Pliocene (Piacenzian–Akchagylian)

The Pliocene period of Thrace was represented by an erosional regime. The activity of GFZ was intensified by the joining to the NAFZ uplifting the area and creating alluvial fans on the Gelibolu Peninsula (Yaltırak, 1995b). The sea regressed nearly to the present position around Gulf of Saros (Fig. 6D and Fig. 10). A gulf was formed by the Late Pliocene (Piacenzian) transgression of the Aegean waters into the mouth of Çanakkale Strait (Fig. 10; Karistinos and Georgiades-Dikeoulia, 1985–1986). The reverse faults seen in the alluvial fans around Saray and Edirne at the southern foothills of Strandja Mountains are the clear evidences of the compression in the region (Fig. 5D and Fig. 9; Tapırdamaz and Yaltırak, 1997).

The bay of the Paratethys (Sea of Marmara) was transformed into a fresh-water lake by the uplifting of the region due to the compressional tectonics. By the bending of NAFZ to the south, the area between the northern and southern border faults has been dissected by the step faulting forming the base of the pull-apart system seen in the Sea of Marmara today.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The Thrace Neogene Basin is an intermontane basin principally developed by the activities of the two strike-slip fault systems namely, the Thrace–Eskişehir and Ganos fault zones following the continental collision and thus, cratonization during the Late Oligocene–Early Miocene period.

It was evolved under the direct control of the TEF during the late Early Miocene as a result of the connection established between the TEF and the Xanti–Kavala Fault (Figs. 1 and 2). The movement was transferred along an arc, which was situated to the eastern margin of the Aegean Sea and was controlled by the escape tectonics.

It is also clarified by this study that the influence of the Paratethys is only observed north of the Istanbul Peninsula during the Early–Middle Miocene period. The comparisons have indicated that no connection was established between the Paratethys and Tethys around Istanbul prior to Pannonian–Pontian. If any connection was realized in this period between

the eastern Mediterranean and the eastern Paratethys it must have been east of Anatolia. The only marine influence, experienced during the Badenian, must have been east of the Thrace Neogene Basin. During this period, arrival of the bivalves and fishes into Marmara basin via the middle–central Paratethys indicates that the current systems must have been operating in the counterclockwise direction as it is in the present Black Sea. The eastern Paratethian influence is seen after the Pliocene implying that the central Paratethys ceased in the post-Pliocene period west of the Thrace Neogene Basin (Lüttig and Steffens, 1976). However, west of the Thrace Neogene Basin, the first marine influence is the Mediterranean transgression occurring from the late Serravalian to Messinian.

The comparison of the fossil determinations put forward by the previous workers has indicated that connections existed between the Mediterranean and the Paratethys via Çanakkale during the late Tortonian and ceased during the Messinian crisis. In the east, however, the Istanbul Peninsula had been subjected to the intense compression and tilting due to the evolution of the Marmara Basin, thus, the only connection realized over the Marmara had been severed and, in due course, endemic conditions developed. Because of this, the age of the Paratethian molluscs could be different than the others found in the other basins of the Paratethys.

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