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Shortening of the Axial Zone, Pyrenees: shortening sequence, upper crustal mylonites and crustal strength

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Abstract

 The strength of the lithosphere may be constrained qualitatively by field observations on localized vs distributed modes of deformation and by the mineral assemblages formed during deformation. The internal deformation of the Bielsa basement unit of the Pyrenean Axial zone is investigated through structural, microstructural and thermometric data. In this area, shortening is widely distributed as attested by the folded attitude of the interface between the 24 basement and its sedimentary Triassic cover. Shortening is estimated around 1.7 km (13%) from a regional balanced cross-section and should be considered in pre-Pyrenean reconstructions. Shortening probably occurred before strain localization on crustal ramps as suggested by zircon fission-track analysis. Distributed shortening is characterized at small- scale by low-temperature mylonites and cataclasites. In thin-section, feldspar originally present in magmatic rocks is partially to totally sericitized. This transformation led to significant weakening of the rock and took place in the 250-350°C temperature range. Sericitization is ubiquitous, even in un-deformed granodiorites. This shows that the

weakening effect of sericitization not only occurs in ultra-mylonites, ultra-cataclasites and

phyllonites but also more generally in the upper crust early during the shortening the shortening history, with the shortening history, with the shortening history, with the shortening history, with the shortening hi

 The strength of the continental crust is usually estimated by extrapolating flow laws derived from laboratory experiments on quartz (Brace and Kohlstedt, 1980) extrapolated to large scales of space and time. This approach coupled with Byerlee's law (Byerlee, 1978) provides a "simple" two-layer rheological profile including a brittle upper- and a ductile lower part (Ranalli and Murphy, 1987), although it can be more complex. This model is consistent with field observations, showing that deformation is rather localized in fault zones with cataclastic rocks in the upper crust and more distributed in shear zones with mylonites in the lower crust (e.g., Scholz, 1989), and with a transitional regime at the brittle-ductile boundary (e.g., Handy et al. 2007; and references therein). Quartz being the most abundant mineral in the crust, its mechanical behavior is generally used to model the strength of the ductile crust. However, if interconnected layers (Handy, 1994) of weaker phases are present, the mechanical behavior of the polymineralic crustal rocks is dramatically altered. These weak phases often comprise phyllosilicates (e.g., Janecke and Evans, 1988; Shea and Kronenberg, 1993; Wintsch et al., 1995; Gueydan et al., 2003).

 Sericitization, i.e. the breakdown of feldspar into much smaller-sized mica (e.g., Wintsch et al., 1995), is a common process during crustal deformation under greenschist facies conditions (e.g. Wibberley, 1999). It is generally accompanied by crystallization of kaolinite, chlorite, phrenite, pumpellyite, calcite and albite, by-products of the hydrothermal alteration of granitoids (e.g., Ciesielczuk and Janeczek 2004). Sericitization of feldspars triggers both an increase of the rock ductility and a decrease of its strength. The deformation of mica-rich

rocks (such as phyllonites) often results in penetrative schistosity, and S/C-C' type fabrics

(e.g., Jefferies et al., 2006). The strength of such rocks is significantly lower than that of

quartzo-feldspatic rocks (e.g. Wintsch et al., 1995) and experiments on anisotropic rocks have

shown that even a small amount of phyllosilicates (e.g., talc, Collettini et al., 2009a;

Niemeijer and Spiers, 2005; Niemeijer et al., 2010) has a large effect on bulk rock strength.

Phyllosilicate fabric in fault zones may therefore explain the weakness of some crustal faults,

such as the San Andreas fault (Lachenbruch and Sass, 1980; Zoback et al., 1987; Holdsworth

et al., 2011; Carpenter et al., 2011), the Zuccale Fault (Collettini et al., 2009b), and the

Median Tectonic Line (Jefferies et al., 2006).

 The initiation of syn-kinematic phyllonitization increases the contrast between the strength of the fault zone and the strength of the adjacent rocks, enhancing strain localization. Less studied is the case where pre-kinematic rock alteration may decrease the rock strength. Such case can be found in context where distributed deformation is observed. However, distributed deformation of upper crustal basement rocks is generally poorly studied (except in e.g., Butler et al., 2002; Butler and Mazzoli, 2006; Carminati, 2009, Mazzoli et al., 2009) mainly because markers are usually lacking and polyphased tectonic history complicates strain analysis. In the basement units of the Axial Zone in the Pyrenees (**Fig. 1**), such a study is possible thanks to late Variscan granitoids, that appear to be low-deformed at solid state during late Variscan times that bear Alpine deformation. Moreover, the Triassic cover crops out in many places above the basement in the Axial Zone. This provides a marker to investigate the Alpine shortening in terms of localization and magnitude, and to study the related deformation mechanisms of crustal rocks at temperature around and below 300°C. Indeed, in the Axial Zone, basement units are usually considered to have been buried and deformed during 87 Tertiary below 300°C (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Sinclair et al., 2005; Jolivet et al. 2007; Gibson et al., 2007; Metcalf et al., 2009). Shortening is accompanied by metamorphism in greenschist facies conditions that affected both the Paleozoic sedimentary and metasedimentary rocks and the late-Variscan granites and granodiorites.

 The present contribution first reports on the structural evolution of the Axial Zone basement units. For this purpose, we present a structural study consisting of a regional, balanced cross- section and an outcrop-scale analysis of the shortening kinematics. Second, this contribution documents the microstructural evolution of basement rocks and the weakening processes that they undergo before and during deformation. A thermometric and thermochronological study was carried out to document the thermal and metamorphic history. Eventually, the effects of

 widespread sericitization of the granite/granodiorite and of the inherited hot geothermal gradient and their implications on crustal rheology are discussed.

2. Geological setting

 The Pyrenean mountain belt results from the closure of a rifted domain located in the present-day North Pyrenean Zone (NPZ, **Fig.1**). This rift opened during Albo-Cenomanian times at the eastern end of the Bay of Biscay (Puigdefabregas and Souquet, 1986) and was subsequently shortened during upper Cretaceous (around 84 Ma) to Oligocene times (Olivet, 1996). During the collision, north-verging crustal thrusts deformed the NPZ, while south- verging ones affected the Axial Zone and the South Pyrenean Zone (SPZ, **Fig. 1, 2**). While in most of the SPZ, the structural style is thin-skinned, the Axial Zone is composed of few basement units, namely the Lakora, Gavarnie, Bielsa-Millares, and Guarga in the western part (**Fig. 2**) and Gavarnie/Nogueres, Orri, and Rialp in the East (Teixell, 1996; Munoz, 1992; Roure et al., 1989; Mouthereau et al., 2014). The nappe stack is usually described as an antiformal stack, where the lowest unit is the youngest. This antiformal stack geometry is indeed clear in the western axial zone (Jolivet et al. 2007; Teixell, 1998; Teixell et al., 2018) but was questioned in the central axial zone (Cochelin et al., 2018) contrarily to what was classically proposed (Munoz, 1992; Beaumont et al., 2000; Roure et al., 1989). As this study focuses on the western part, this controversy will not be discussed in the contribution.

 In the westernmost part of the axial zone (Teixell, 1996), the Lakora thrust (**Fig. 1, 2**) emplaced the Iguntze massif over the Gavarnie unit during at least Lutetian times (Teixell, 1996) during the deposition of the Hecho group turbidite series (Labaume et al., 1985) in the Jaca foreland basin. In the footwall of the Lakora thrust, the Larra thrust affected the Mesozoic cover of the Gavarnie unit and, later on, the Gavarnie thrust affected the basement, triggering the southward migration of the foreland basin during late Eocene-early Oligocene. During Oligocene times, the Guarga unit was emplaced below the turbiditic basin and controlled its southward migration and evolution into a molasse-type overfilled basin (**Fig. 2**). Further east, the Lakora unit is ill-defined, especially its southern boundary. The Gavarnie/Lakora unit, at the longitude of our study, is affected by a distributed zone of deformation including the Pic du Midi thrust, the Eaux Chaudes shear zones (Lamouroux et

al., 1979; Henderson and McCaig, 1996; Ingles et al., 1999), and the Pic Long thrust, from

 North to South, respectively (see Jolivet et al., 2007). This large zone is probably the eastward continuation of the Lakora thrust (**Fig. 2**).

 In the southern part of this diffuse zone of deformation, the Lakora/Gavarnie unit is composed of the Late Variscan Neouvielle granitic massif and surrounding Paleozoic rocks (Gleizes et al., 2001; Roman-Berdiel et al., 2004) and emplaced above the Gavarnie thrust. In the Neouvielle massif, alpine reverse shear zones linked to the Eaux Chaudes thrust system were dated at about 47 +/- 8 Ma or 48 +/- 2 Ma (Wayne and McCaig, 1988). These ages are similar to the probable age of reactivation of the Merens shear zone activity further East around 50 Ma (McCaig and Miller, 1986). It should be noted that the formation of the numerous shear zone of the Pyrenees lead to several discussions about the age of their formation, variscan or alpine. Although some authors have proposed that some of these shear zone belonging to a variscan anastomosed network that have influenced the evolution of the variscan gneiss dome systems (Denèle et al., 2007; Cochelin et al., 2017) and the dynamic of 141 pluton emplacement (Gleizes et al., 1998; Denèle et al., 2008), they consider also that these shear zone have been clearly reactivated during alpine orogenesis as in the Neouvielle pluton (Gleizes et al., 2001) and the Merens zone (Denèle et al., 2008) that could explain alpine ages of synkinematic phyllosilicates (see above). Apatite Fission-Tracks (AFT) in Neouvielle ages range between 22 and 27 Ma while in northern massif (Bordères Louron) the ages range between 31 and 36 Ma (Morris et al., 1998; Jolivet et al., 2007).

 In the footwall of the Gavarnie thrust, the Bielsa/Millares unit is composed of the Late Variscan Bielsa granitic massif and surrounding Paleozoic rocks (**Fig. 3**). This unit can be subdivided into two sub-units: the Millares and the Bielsa unit. A basement thrust is probably present below the Bielsa unit (Casas et al., 2003; Jolivet et al., 2007) although it does not crop out. Before this thrust initiation (Miocene, Jolivet et al., 2007), the Bielsa/Millares unit was part of a larger basement unit, namely the Guarga unit (**Fig. 2**) (Teixell, 1996), which emplacement tilted the Lutetian Hecho turbidites in the Jaca basin (Labaume et al., 1985; Teixell, 1996) probably during Late Oligocene times (Jolivet et al., 2003). In the Bielsa granite, AFT ages range between 10 and 20 Ma (Morris et al., 1998; Jolivet et al., 2007) and have been interpreted as witnessing the out-of-sequence initiation of the Bielsa thrust (Jolivet et al., 2007), i.e. after the Guarga thrust initiation.

 South of the Bielsa unit, the Monte Perdido unit is a sedimentary nappe that might root in the Eaux Chaudes shear zones (Labaume et al., 1985; Teixell, 1996).

In the central Axial Zone, further East, in the Gavarnie unit, a zircon fission-track (ZFT) age

- of 49 Ma was provided by Sinclair et al. (2005). AFT ages range between 26 to 45 Ma
- (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Sinclair et al., 2005), whereas apatite (U-Th)/He ages are between 17
- and 37 Ma (Gibson et al., 2007).

In the Orri unit, structurally below the Gavarnie unit, AFT ages in the Maladeta massif

range between 17 and 35 Ma (Morris et al., 1998; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Sinclair et al., 2005;

Gibson et al., 2007), apatite (U-Th)/He ages range between 10 and 35 Ma (Gibson et al.,

2007). ZFT data present both Mesozoic (104 and 159 Ma) and Cenozoic ages (49 Ma),

(Sinclair et al., 2005). These ages show a rapid exhumation during early Oligocene times,

following and followed by a slower exhumation during Eocene and late Oligocene times

(Fitzgerald et al., 1999).

3. Structural and microstructural results

3.1. Regional cross-section and structural study

 As shown by the cross-section (**Fig. 3, 4**), the lower Triassic layers are still attached to the basement top and both are folded. There are up to about 9 antiforms; their wavelength is about 1 km. Six steep faults are associated to some of these antiforms (**Figs. 3, 4**) and the synforms are marked by outcrops of Triassic layers (**Fig. 5, 6**). These layers are offset by steep faults, located on the southern side of the synforms. The faults are either normal or reverse: the southernmost and the northern most ones appear to be normal faults, while the other ones are reverse faults. The synforms are usually asymmetrical generally with steeper limbs on the faulted side (**Figs. 5, 6, 7b,c**).

 The cross-section has been restored considering that the basement top (i.e. the lower Triassic layers) has a constant length during shortening. The Triassic layers were probably deformed during shortening (e.g., lengthening of the layers), by a probably very low amount, which is negligible for restoration purposes. The second main assumption concerns the geometry of the sub-vertical faults. Here, we chose to restore these faults (**Fig. 4**) as we consider them to be pre-orogenic for the following reason: the Fobillons and Punta Suelza klippes are clearly not as folded as the underlying Triassic layers and basement top (**Figs. 4 and 7a**). This means that folding and the vertical faults predated the end of the burial of Bielsa unit below Millares and

Gavarnie. If the vertical faults were coeval with the Bielsa thrust, the Millares thrust would

have been folded too, but this is not the case. Assuming this, the restoration provides an

amount of shortening of 1.7 km (13%). If the sub-vertical faults were syn-shortening, the

amount of shortening would have been slightly higher. The faults may be Cretaceous in age

(either pre- or syn-Cenomanian) as suggested by Johnson et al. (1996).

 The northernmost synform (**Fig. 3, 4, 5**, Urdiceto synform) varies structurally along strike. East of the Lago Urdiceto, the synform is pinched and associated to significant deformation in the basement (**Fig. 6a**), as shown by a penetrative schistosity (**Fig. 6, 8a**), with some shear zones (**Fig. 6, 9**). This schistosity is especially well expressed where the basement shows a thick altered/weathered upper horizon (several tens of meters; **Fig. 8**). The basement weathering seems to predate the shortening as unaltered areas present a less penetrative schistosity (**Fig. 8b**). This weathering is most likely Permian in age as the Triassic cover is not affected. West of the Lago Urdiceto, shortening was less intense and the basement presents less deformation (**Fig. 5, 6**).

 Within this synform, several features attest for shortening in the cover. Top-to-the-South kinematic indicators are observed above the basement-cover interface on the northern side of the synforms (**Fig. 5, site 37/38; Fig. 10a**): there, no large-scale décollement occurred but the schistosity is deflected in a sigmoidal pattern due to shearing along the bedding planes. Further up in the cover, tight folds are accompanied by coeval sub-vertical schistosity (**Figs. 10b, c**) along with a vertical stretching attested by numerous sub-horizontal veins (**Fig. 10b**) with sub-vertical fibrous crystals of calcite, quartz, and chlorite. These cover folds with wavelength much smaller than those of the basement top implies that there is a slight décollement above the basement top unconformity.

 Within the synform further south (**Figs. 3, 4**), the border fault dips south and is reverse (**Figs. 4, 6, 7c**). Folds are associated with a steep cleavage (**Fig. 7c**) and the cover is affected by reverse faults, at shallower dip than the main border fault (**Fig. 11**).

Between the synforms, shear zones are widespread in the basement. They consist of thin (<

218 1 m) zones dipping 45 to 70° N with both south- and north-verging kinematics (mainly south-

- verging, **Fig. 6, 9**). Quartz crystals are affected by cataclastic deformation within shear zones,
- while chlorites are affected by a more ductile-like deformation and present sigmoidal shapes

 (**Fig. 12 and 13**). Alpine schistosity and shear zones are also characterized by interconnected 222 layers of white micas (see below).

 The steep faults (**Fig. 5, 6, 7b, c, 11a**) bordering the synforms have been sampled and show typical cataclastic textures (**Fig. 12a, b**). The quartz are broken up in millimetric clasts. These structures are linear and affect a hydrated protolith: phases such as chlorites and white micas (in feldspars, see below) are widespread in thin sections but do not affect significantly the distribution of cataclasites (**Fig. 12a, b**). The cataclasites do not either seem to control the distribution of the hydrated phases.

3.2. Sericitization

 In samples of un-deformed rocks (**Fig. 13a, 14a**), the mineral assemblage is composed of 232 quartz, K feldspars, plagioclase, chlorites, biotites, white micas as well as accessory minerals such as alanites, zircons, titanites, rutiles, pyrites, apatites. Quartz and feldspars form subhedral to anhedral millimetric grains (**Fig. 12**). Quartz commonly contains fluid inclusion planes. Chlorites are large (few tens of mm) and they overgrow biotites, with titanites and rutiles inclusions. The chlorites are also found smaller interlayered with white micas.

 In undeformed and weakly deformed samples, K feldpsar is replaced by albite that grows in fractures and along mineral cleavage (**Fig. 14a**), where white micas and carbonates are also observed. With increasing destabilization, in more deformed samples, both albite and white micas develop in these K feldpars (**Fig. 14b**) and totally replace them (**Fig. 14d, e**). Locally, prehnites and epidotes can be observed. Moreover, white micas are also associated to chlorites that derive from the biotite destabilization (**Fig. 14c**).

 In samples from deformed rocks, the amount of albite and white mica increases and a schistosity appears, formed by the alignment of micas and chlorites (**Fig. 14d**). The rock mainly consists of quartz, white mica, and albite. Quartz is mainly affected by undulose extinction and some fractures, but only little or no dynamic recrystallization (**Fig. 13b**).

 In very deformed rocks, the assemblage is mainly composed of deformed quartz and white micas (**Fig. 14e**). Thus, the amount of white micas has increased with deformation. This is most likely due to the total sericitization of feldpars that is probably favored by mineral fracturing, hence fluid infiltration. White micas are often aligned and define micro-shear

zones and schistosity (**Fig. 13c**). Quartz clasts and chlorites are embedded in a white mica

"matrix" (**Fig. 13c, 14e**), with some calcite close to faults affecting the basement (that may

have provided fluids with calcium). In the white mica "matrix", very small scale aggregates of

poorly oriented grains can be observed (**Fig. 14e**).

4. Geo-thermometry

Phyllosilicates provide thermobarometry constraints on samples from the Bielsa massif (**Fig.**

15). Thermodynamic modelling using multi-equilibrium thermobarometry yields

crystallization temperatures in the range 250-300°C for micas (Dubacq et al., 2010) and

260 chlorites (Vidal et al., 2006) (both $+/-50^{\circ}$ C).

The Raman Spectrometry of Carbonaceous Material (RSCM) method (Beyssac et al., 2002;

Lahfid et al., 2010) is based on the quantitative study of the degree of (irreversible)

graphitization of carbonaceous material (CM), which provides the maximal temperature

(Tmax) attained during the rock history. Tmax can be determined in the range 200–650°C

(Beyssac et al., 2002; Lahfid et al., 2010), with absolute precisions of ca. 50°C between 650

and 300°C and ca. 25°C between 330 and 200°C. Relative uncertainties between samples are

267 probably much smaller (around 10-15^oC according to Beyssac et al., 2004, 2007; Gabalda et

al., 2009; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2013). Raman spectra (Supplementary Material) were

measured and analyzed following Beyssac et al. (2002, 2004, 2007) and Lahfid et al. (2010).

Raman spectra were obtained using a Renishaw InVIAReflex microspectrometer (BRGM,

Orléans, France) with a 514-nm argon laser on polished thin sections from CM-rich Mesozoic

limestones (Cenomanian, see **Fig. 3** for location).

273 The RSCM study yields Tmax between 236 and 264 \degree C +/- 30 \degree C for the cover of the Bielsa massif (**Table 1**). The samples are part of the Bielsa unit, from the Cenomanian cover, mostly from the southern part of the area. There, the cover is slightly detached from the basement and the Triassic layers. However, Tmax obtained from these samples may be confidently assigned 277 to the Bielsa unit. In the Gavarnie unit, one RSCM analysis indicates Tmax of $328^{\circ}C$ +/-30°C (**Table 1, Fig. 16** for location).

5. Zircon fission-track data and thermal history

5.1. Zircon fission track data

 In the Neouvielle massif, ZFT ages were obtained from three samples, NAZ-1, NAZ-7 and NAZ-6, collected along an elevation profile at 1881 m, 2400 m, and 2700 m, respectively (**Table 2, Fig. 16**). No major faults were mapped between these samples, although some shear zones are present (Fig. 17). These shear zones do not present very high displacement and were dated to be active around 48 Ma (Ingles et al., 1999; Wayne and Mc Caig, 1998). All 288 three samples pass the χ^2 -test and have central ages at around 45-46 Ma (**Fig. 16, Table 1**). Nonetheless, the dispersion of single grains ages shows an interesting trend, decreasing from 16% at 1881 m elevation to 0% at 2700 m elevation. Furthermore. minimum ages, which indicate the youngest coherent age population in a grain age distribution (Galbraith and Laslett, 1993), are 38 Ma, 41 Ma and 45 Ma for samples NAZ-1, NAZ-7 and NAZ-6 respectively (**Fig. 16, Table 2**). In the Bielsa massif, 2 ZFT ages were obtained, with central ages of 143 and 161 Ma, for elevations of 1680 and 2700 m, respectively (**Fig. 16, Table 1**). Between these two samples no major faults were mapped (**Fig. 3, 16**)

5.2. Interpretation of ZFT data

 The dataset from the Neouvielle massif provides Cretaceous to Cenozoic apparent cooling ages (**Fig. 16**). The difference between the minimum ages and central ages of samples NAZ-1 and NAZ-7 may be related to slightly different closure temperatures in zircons that have accumulated higher amounts of radiation damage because of high U concentrations. At least the age and U concentration information shown in the radial plots display a weak trend of higher U concentration grains having younger apparent cooling ages. The interpretation could be the following: Cenozoic cooling started at around 46 Ma given the very similar central ages of all three samples, but the increasing age dispersion and trend to younger minimum ages for the lower elevation samples indicate that these rocks may have been affected by very minor partial annealing, possibly resetting in the upper part of ZFT the partial annealing zone for a short time before cooling to temperatures below the partial annealing zone.

5.3. Neouvielle thermal history

 The thermal history for the Neouvielle massif (Gavarnie unit) is defined as follows. During Mesozoic times, the temperature probably slightly increased due to rifting (the amplitude of the temperature increase being difficult to constrain, see discussion below on the inherited thermal structure) around 100 Ma and due to upper Cretaceous sedimentation. During Eocene

times, the temperature increased as a consequence of both the turbiditic basin formation

(Hecho group) and the overthrusting of the Lakora unit. The latter effect was probably limited

given the small amount of displacement on this thrust (see cross sections in Teixell, 1996).

 The RSCM data are too scarce to be conclusive, but they provide a Tmax estimate of about 330°C (**Table 1**), also consistent with Jolivet et al. (2007), who estimated T of about 300°C for the Neouvielle massif, mainly obtained from geochronological data. Thus, we set the thermal peak of this unit to about 300°C reached before 50 Ma, given the ZFT central ages around 46 Ma. From the rather limited ZFT data set that we have for the Neouville massif, it seems that cooling started during mid-Eocene cooling. AFT ages for the Neouville massif (Jolivet et al., 2005) indicate that cooling continued during Oligocene times (Fig. 18). Recent U-Th/He data on zircons (Pik et al., in prep) will further constrain the Oligo-Miocene thermal history. The cooling so far is constrained by AFT data from Jolivet et al. (2007) and their thermal path and the age of activity of the Gavarnie thrust (**Fig. 17**)

5.4. Bielsa thermal history

 The Jurassic ZFT ages obtained for the Bielsa massif (**Fig. 16**) indicated a different history. Either the ages indicate a thermal event during Jurassic times or there has been a partial reset during the mid-Cretaceous times (rifting). However, the grain age distribution does not 333 support the latter interpretation (they pass the $χ²$ -test and have 0% age dispersion). Due to the limited number of samples and number of grains per samples, we cannot conclude about the Mesozoic thermal history. However, it indicates that the Pyrenean shortening was not responsible for any reset of this samples. It suggests a lower burial and/or a lower geothermal gradient than, for the Neouvielle massif.

 On **Fig. 17**, the Bielsa thermal path is colder than in the Neouvielle Massif as, in the Bielsa massif, the analyzed samples are from a structural level slightly higher than the Neouvielle massif. In the former samples are from the basement top, while in the latter there were probably few km of basement above the samples. During Eocene times, heating of the Bielsa massif is probably due to foreland sedimentation (Hecho group, **Fig. 17**) and possibly by the emplacement of the Gavarnie unit.

 The Tmax of about 250°C according to the RSCM data (possibly Cenozoic in age) is in line with the Mesozoic ages ZFT we obtained: such temperature did not imply a Cenozoic reset of ZFT ages. We cannot derive from our data a complete thermal history but the exhumation during the last 35 Ma may be similar to the exhumation of the Neouvielle unit. The final thermal path is constrained from Jolivet et al. (2007) and the age of activity of the Guarga (**Fig. 2**) thrust that might have exhumed the Bielsa unit (**Fig. 17**).

6. Discussion

 Our study shows that the small amount of shortening in the Bielsa unit is distributed at kilometer scale, as attested by the "basement antiforms" mapped in the field and shown in **Figures 6 and 7**. This distributed mode of shortening is also observed in the distributed ductile strain within both cover and basement units, where it may be explained by a pre-kinematic sericitization of the granitic basement.

6.1. Shortening kinematics and restoration

 In our structural study, we restored the cross-section to its pre-orogenic stage, including the present-day steep faults, inferred to predate the shortening. Casas et al. (2003) proposed that these steep faults where rather late during the shortening history. Their main argument is that these faults do not seem to be overprinted by the contractional deformation. Indeed, the small- scale, low-angle reverse shear zone or faults do not crosscut the steep faults (**Fig. 11**), however, the latter may be pre-orogenic for several reasons.

 (1) The steep faults appear to have various dip and sense of dip: some of them are normal faults others are reverse ones (**Fig. 4**). This geometry is not predicted in the model by Casas et al. (2003), where steep faults are due to distributed deformation during fault bend folding. On the contrary, if these faults are inherited, they may have been deformed and curved during shortening, especially if they were not reactivated (e.g., Marquer et al., 2006; Lafosse et al., 2016).

 (2) In the Casas et al. (2003) kinematical model, the steep faults form lately in the basement, after the initiation of the underlying Bielsa basement thrust. The steep faults form because the basement unit deforms as a fault-bend fold over a flat-ramp system. In this model, to initiate the steep faults, the displacement along the thrust must be at least about the distance between the northernmost and the southernmost steep fault. This would imply a displacement of at least 5 km that is unlikely for a thrust that is poorly constrained by structural mapping. Recent structural interpretations do not include any flat structures (e.g., Jolivet et al., 2007).

 (3) The Bielsa unit is affected by horizontal deformation characterized by basement-cover interface antiforms associated with distributed basement deformation. These deformations cannot result from fault-bend fold-associated deformation as in Casas et al. (2003), as such kinematics do not require the formation of a pervasive axial plane foliation. It appears that such contractional deformation is quite systematically present in the hangingwall of steep faults (or northern block when the faults are reverse and north-verging). This suggests that there might be a genetic link between the steep faults and the basement-cover interface antiforms: the latter may localize close to the former. In this case, it would be clear that the steep faults have to be inherited to influence the location of the Cenozoic contractional structures.

 (4) In the model of Casas et al. (2003), the steep faults being late, they must deform the overlying nappe (Millares). However, in the field the latter does not appear as folded/deformed by steep faults (**Fig. 7a**): The basal thrust of the Millares nappe is only affected by open, large-wavelength folding although below, the Triassic layers are strongly folded.

 (5) Extension is known to have occurred in the Pyrenees Axial Zone at various times: during the Stephano-Permian (Saura et al., 2006) and during the mid-Cretaceous (Johnson et al., 1996). These extensions may have triggered the formation of steep normal faults. Johnson et al. (1996) showed that mineralizations in veins, in the same basement unit further East in the Pyrenees, formed during Mesozoic extension with fluid flowing downward along normal faults.

 To sum up, we have shown that the steep faults may have been inherited from pre-orogenic stages, thus supporting our cross-sectional restoration (**Fig. 4**). However, we cannot exclude the fact that these steep faults have been reactivated during the late basement deformation as suggested in Casas et al. (2003).

6.2. Inherited thermal structure

 RSCM data, chlorite thermometry as well as thermochronologic data show that the thermal 406 peak is about 300 +/- 30 °C for the Gavarnie unit and around 250 +/- 30 °C for the Bielsa, consistent with Jolivet et al. (2007) and with Ar/Ar step heating data on late Variscan biotites and their likely partial resetting during the Pyrenean orogeny (Jolivet et al., 2007), in addition to temperatures deduced from fluid inclusions and petrography in the Eaux Chaudes shear zones (Henderson and McCaig, 1996; Ingles et al., 1999).

 These temperatures are very high considering the inferred sedimentary and tectonic burial of both massifs. For the Bielsa unit basement, reasonable estimates of sedimentary burial are about 1 km of Mesozoic and Paleocene formations plus 3 km of Eocene turbidites (Labaume et al., 1985). Such a thin overburden would require a very high geothermal gradient, of about 70°C/km, in order to attain 300° C at the cover-basement interface. Thus, it is very unlikely that the recorded Tmax characterizes the temperature at the cover base during the turbidite basin formation. If we consider the Eocene tectonic burial following the turbiditic basin, a thickness of about 5 km (basement and cover of the Gavarnie unit, see cross-sections in Jolivet et al., 2007; with an uncertainty of about 1 km) plus Bielsa cover (only 1 km as the Eocene turbidites were detached before the Gavarnie unit emplaced above the Bielsa unit), we 421 obtain a burial of about 6 km $+/- 1$ km; this implies a geothermal gradient of at least 45 $+/- 10$ °C/km.

Similarly, the sedimentary cover of the Gavarnie basement is too thin to explain the

424 estimated Tmax. The tectonic burial may have been about $2 \text{ km} +1$ $- 0.5 \text{ km}$ (see cross-sections

in Teixell, 1996). If we add the thickness of the Gavarnie unit above the analyzed samples and

- 426 below the Lakora unit (4 km $+/- 1$ km), we obtain a maximum thickness of about 6 km $+/- 1.5$
- 427 km, hence a geothermal gradient of $50 +/- 15$ °C/km.

Thus, it appears that the geothermal gradients are quite high, the Neouvielle gradient being

probably higher than the Bielsa one. However, it is possible that both gradients are similar

given the uncertainties. Our results still strongly suggest that both gradients are higher-than-

431 normal (i.e., higher than 25-30 °C/km) and that the Neouvielle gradient is slightly higher than

the Bielsa one.

 Such geothermal gradients are Eocene to post-Eocene in age as they were determined from thermochronologic data yielding Eocene to Oligocene ages and from thermo(baro)metry on phyllosilicates that are at least partly Alpine in age, given that their deformations are kinematically consistent with the deformation in the Triassic meta-sediments. In the North Pyrenean Zone (NPZ), an early Eocene gradient of about 70-80 °C/km was determined (Vacherat et al., 2014) and interpreted as the consequence of Albo-Cenomanian thinning that occurs in the NPZ. The thermal anomaly reached a climax as oceanic spreading started in the Bay of Biscay at 100 Ma. This led to a profound and durable change in the thermal structure of northern Iberia margin lithosphere (Rat et al., 2019) until the plate convergence started. Our results suggest that the thermal anomaly due to mid-Cretaceous rifting processes lasted long enough to be still active during Eocene shortening and that it was large (in space) enough to affect the Iberian crust that was only moderately thinned (i.e., in the future Axial

Zone, **Fig. 18**).

 The rifting event probably stopped around 95 Ma and convergence started just after this event (Mouthereau et al., 2014 and references therein). Considering that shortening recorded in the western Axial Zone probably started around 55 Ma, the thermal anomaly inherited from the rifting stage lasted about 40 Ma. This time interval being quite long, it may suggest that a small-scale sub-lithospheric convection was active in this area, at least until the convergence started at about 80 Ma. This may indeed occur at the rift margins as proposed by Boutillier and Keen (1999) and may have triggered partial melting (van Wijk et al., 2001).

 The fact that the crust may have suffered a high thermal gradient while it was not significantly thinned may be explained as follows: the lithosphere base is most likely thinned with a wavelength much higher than that affecting the crust, as it is thicker. Such characteristic length is probably about 200-300 km. As a consequence, the lithospheric thermal gradient, controlled by the lithosphere base isotherms, may be affected by thermal anomalies in an area much larger than the area of crustal thinning (**Fig. 18**). This suggests that the thermal anomaly in a lithosphere due to thinning may not be restricted to the area of crustal thinning, i.e., the margin. Such interpretations are in line with models of depth dependent extension (Royden and Keen, 1980) where the crust is less stretched and thinned than the mantle in some margins as suggested by subsidence data (Royden and Keen, 1980; Davis and Kusznir, 2003) and reproduced in thermo-mechanical models (e.g., Huismans and Beaumont, 2011). In the distal part of the rift, the crust is more thinned than the mantle (as in other distal margins, e.g., Peron Pinvidic et al., 2013 and references therein) as attested by

 mantle exhumation in the rift center (Lagabrielle and Bodinier, 2008; Lagabrielle et al., 2010; Clerc et al., 2012; 2014; Jammes et al., 2009; Masini et al., 2014). In the more proximal part of the rift, the crust is less thinned than the mantle as in many margins worldwide (e.g., Davis and Kusznir, 2004 and references therein).

6.3. Thermal and structural evolution

 The Eaux Chaudes shear zone was active at about 48 +/- 2 Ma (Wayne and McCaig, 1998). Similarly, further East the Merens shear zone was reactivated around 48 Ma (Mc Caig and Miller, 1989). The Larra thrust, linked to the Lakora thrust was active until about 40-45 Ma (Teixell, 1996). Thus, between 50 and 40 Ma, several shear zones/thrusts were active in the Gavarnie/Lakora unit. It is noteworthy that it corresponds to the probable exhumation during Eocene times suggested by ZFT data (see above). The emplacement of these thrust/shear zones (Lakora and Eaux Chaudes) did not thicken the crust significantly (see cross-sections in Teixell, 1996). Moreover, it implies that these thrusts were probably not the main control on the Hecho turbidite basin development. It is possible that this basin was a lateral basin (West of the proto-Pyrenees) due to crustal thickening further east in central Pyrenees where the orogen started to grow earlier (see references above). Since 50-55 Ma, the Gavarnie unit was buried below the Hecho turbiditic basin. However, at about 50 Ma, we record the first shortening, implying that the Gavarnie unit was probably the northern part of the turbiditic basin already slowly exhuming and deforming (Eaux Chaudes shear zones, Wayne and McCaig, 1998) during the deposition of the turbidites. Recently, the Pic de Port Vieux, associated to the Gavarnie thrust has been dated to 37 Ma by Ar/Ar step heating on muscovites (Elmola et al., 2018). This shows that distributed shortening along with exhumation predated the localization of the shortening on the Gavarnie thrust at 37 Ma (**Fig. 17, 19**).

 The emplacement of the Gavarnie unit also influenced the burial of Bielsa unit when the Gavarnie thrust became active, around 37 Ma. At this time, the intra-Bielsa deformations (the distributed shortening described in this study) were probably already active (30-40 Ma, **Fig. 19**). The Guarga thrust activation and the exhumation of the Guarga-Bielsa probably started around 30 Ma. The age of 30 Ma also corresponds to the basinward localization of the Jaca basin, in the Rio Guarga syncline interpreted as the consequence of the Guarga unit emplacement (see Teixell, 1996). This suggests that in the western axial zone a distributed

 phase of shortening generally predated the activation of each main thrust (Gavarnie and Guarga).

 Such distributed then localized mode of shortening is similar to the modes of shortening characterized in the Alpine External Crystalline Massifs (ECM) where distributed shear zones were active during Oligo-Miocene times (e.g., Marquer et al., 2006; Rolland et al., 2008; Simon-Labric et al., 2009; Sanchez et al., 2011; Bellahsen et al., 2012; 2014; Bellanger et al., 2015, Lacombe and Bellahsen, 2016; Egli et al., 2016; Egli et al., 2017; Mair et al., 2018) before the activation of frontal crustal thrusts (Bellahsen et al., 2014). In the ECM, the deformation occurred under green schist facies metamorphism, at around 300-350°C (Crouzet et al., 2001; Bellanger et al., 2015; Boutoux et al., 2016), thus at temperatures slightly higher than in the Axial Zone. In the External Alps, such mid-crustal temperatures and the associated distributed shortening are due to significant burial below the internal units that thermally weakened the crust (e.g., Butler et al., 2006; Bellahsen et al., 2012). Indeed, in the External Alps, the Alpine mylonites consist of brittle-ductile shear zones that affect various Variscan rocks (migmatic gneisses, micaschists, granites …) where quartz are both fractured and ductily deformed (e.g., Leloup et al., 2005; Rolland et al., 2008; Bellahsen et al., 2012; Bellanger et al., 2014). In the Pyrenean Axial Zone, the mylonites are also brittle-ductile but the rock ductility is mainly due to the diffuse deformation of small-grain micas aggregates. This suggests that periods of distributed shortening may be inherent to early times of

mountain building, predating the activity of the main thrusts.

6.4. Sericitization and rheological implications

 White micas here have crystallized following destabilization of K-feldpar and plagioclase. Such destabilization is commonly described in shear zones, even in the upper crust (e.g., Wibberley, 1999), where it reduces the strength and increases the ductility of deforming rocks. Such syn-kinematic micas are observed in thin sections presented above (**Fig. 13**c). Undeformed, sericitized samples show that a significant amount of micas likely formed before a deformation, as suggested by sericitized, undeformed samples (**Fig. 13a**). The white micas in these undeformed samples are in textural equilibrium with chlorites (**Fig. 14c**), showing temperatures of about 250°C (**Fig. 16, Table 1**). Therefore, these micas formed most likely after tectonic burial, at the thermal peak, before significant deformation.

 The fluids responsible for the feldspar destabilization are probably of meteoric origin as is usually the case in the upper crust (e.g., Sibson et al., 1975) and suggested for the area (Henderson and McCaig, 1996). These surficial fluids may have circulated in the rocks through Mesozoic (extensive) fractures (Johnson et al., 1996). The fluids may also be the product of prograde dehydration processes but the protolith contained quite little hydrated phases.

 Having stressed that sericitization was pre-kinematic implies that the crust was weak since the onset of shortening. Indeed, localization of deformation along interconnected layers of micas reduces the bulk strength of the granodiorites to values close to those of pure mica aggregates (Handy, 1994), that are much lower than those of quartz and feldspar (**Fig. 20**). Given the geothermal gradient determined above, the "brittle" crust was probably about 7-8 km thick and its strength may have been controlled by the one of interconnected layers of weak materials (e.g., Bos and Spiers, 2002). Considering a high geothermal gradient and the associated flow law, the crustal strength in the Pyrenean Axial Zone during Cenozoic might have been much lower than a "normal" crustal strength (**Fig. 20**). This weak crustal strength is a likely cause for the distributed deformation that may have been active before the localization of the shortening on crustal ramps (**Fig. 19**), although we still lack geochronologic data to confirm it.

Conclusions

 This contribution presents field data on the structural evolution of the Bielsa basement unit together with new thermometric and thermochronologic data to constrain the thermal peak. In the basement of the Bielsa unit, shortening is distributed. It consists of several short- wavelength (<1 km) antiforms and synforms affecting the basement top. At outcrop scale, shortening is accommodated by brittle and brittle-ductile shear zones active under greenschist metamorphic conditions. These conditions are attested by temperatures around 250-300°C given by thermometric data and RSCM data, consistent with ZFT ages. At microscale, the protolith is characterized by hydrated phases (mostly phyllosilicates) that strongly influence the mode of shortening at this scale: feldspars are sericitized even in undeformed samples. Sericitization also increases with increasing strain attesting for syn-kinematic feldspar destabilization. We conclude that the high thermal gradient, together with phyllosilicate

- crystallization, probably induced crustal weakening that controlled the style and timing of
- shortening.
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Figure caption

Figure 1: Simplified structural map of the Pyrenees. The Axial Zone is located between the

North Pyrenean Zone (NPZ) and the South Pyrenean Zone (SPZ). The two main units in the

- western Axial Zone are the Gavarnie and Bielsa units. The Guarga unit does not crop out and
- is located below the Bielsa unit and the Jaca basin. The line represents the trace of the cross-
- section presented in Fig. 2, the box the map in Fig. 3.

 Figure 2: Regional cross-section from Jolivet et al. (2007). Four main units are represented in the Axial Zone: the Lakora, the Gavarnie, the Bielsa, and the Guarga units, from north to south, respectively. Shortening in the cover of the South Pyrenean Zone is linked to basement thrusts in the Axial Zone or underneath the Jaca basin.

 Figure 3: Geological map of the Bielsa unit after Casas et al. (2003). The Bielsa unit is structurally below the Millares unit. On Fig. 2, Bielsa and Millares units are grouped under Bielsa unit name. The Bielsa unit is composed of a Variscan Carboniferous granite/granodiorite intruding the Paleozoic cover. The Triassic layers unconformably overly 881 the basement. Several WNW-ESE to ENE-WSW antiforms and synforms affect the cover and the basement top. Two klippen of Millares unit (Fobillons and Punta Suelza) are cropping out above the folded cover of Bielsa unit. The line represents the trace of the cross-section presented in Fig. 4, the box the map in Fig. 5.

 Figure 4: Cross-section of the Bielsa unit and its restoration. The shortening is estimated considering constant length for Triassic and non-reactivated inherited faults. Nine antiforms are mapped along with 6 steep faults. The restoration is done assuming inherited steep faults (see text for explanation and discussion). However, the age of these faults is poorly constrained as attested by the question marks: the Cretaceous layers are drawn syn-tectonic although it is not necessarily the case. Same legend than Fig. 3.

 Figure 5: Structural map of the Lago Urdiceto area. Three steep structures are mapped along the southern limb of the Urdiceto, the Western, and the Punta Suelza synforms. Small scale shear zones are also recognized, as well as an Alpine schistosity/cleavage (in both the basement and cover) mainly steeply north-dipping. These structures and striated faults are consistent with a NNE-SSW contraction. Sites of measurements and sampling are indicated.

 composed of fractured quartz, deformed chloritized biotites, calcite, and micrometric white micas.

 Figure 13: Photographs of thin sections. a) Undeformed (except a few fractures) granite with quartz, chlorite (dark crystals), and micas partly replacing feldspars (pseudomorphs) (sample B11-33, Fig. 5). b) protomylonite where quartz are embedded in aggregates of micas and chlorites (dark phases) with the development of a weak schistosity (sample B11-18, Fig. 5). c) Mylonite with fractured quartz, a schistosity (S1) mainly composed of micas, pressure shadows of chlorite/mica around quartz, and formation of a few micro shear zones (sample B11-31, Fig. 5). Between a) and c) the amount of phyllosilicates, in particular micas, strongly increases.

 Figure 14: SEM images of the progressive sericitization. a) Albitisation of K feldspars in a weakly deformed sample (sample B10-31). b) Albitisation and phengitisation of K feldspars, along with titanite and epidotes inclusions in weakly deformed samples (sample B11-33). c) Biotites replaced by micas and chlorites (bright spots: apatites) in an undeformed sample (Quartz and Feldspars) (sample B11-37). d) Quartz embedded in an Albite/micas "matrix" (sample B10-31). e) Images of a phyllonite composed almost exclusively of micas (with quartz out of the image) (sample B11-14).

 Figure 15: Results of thermometric study. For 4 samples, the temperature is provided with 2 methods. The multi-equilibrium thermo-barometer on Quartz Micas is from Dubacq et al. (2010). The multi-equilibrium thermo-barometer on chlotite is from Vidal et al. (2006).

 Figure 16: Zircon fission-track data and location of samples. Plots are realized with Radial Plotter (Vermeesch, 2009).

 Figure 17: Speculative thermal structure of the Iberian lithosphere. In the southern part, the thermal structure is considered as normal given its age and the Moho temperature set at

957 northern part, the thermal structure is built using the gradient of 80 °C/km from Vacherat et al. (2016) in the North Pyrenean Zone. Between these 2 zones, i.e., in the future Axial Zone, the geothermal gradient is intermediate between the northern and the southern one, and fits 960 the gradients of about 50°C/km estimated in this study for the northern axial zone. Figure 18: Thermal histories for a) Bielsa and b) Neouvielle. See text for explanations. Figure 19: Present day cross-section of the Pyrenees and possible ages of deformation. The deep structure is from Chevrot et al. (2018). The cover structure in the foreland basin is from Jolivet et al. (2005). For a detailed balanced cross-section and its restored stage see Teixell et al. (2016) and Espurt et al. (this issue). Bielsa thrust and internal Bielsa deformation ages are deduced from discussion on the timing of the other structures (see text). Figure 20: Rheological laws for both typical continental basement (quartz) and weakened (hot) continental crust. The weakened strength of the upper crust is from Bos and Spiers 972 (2002) for strain rates of both 10^{-10} and 10^{-12} s⁻¹, as the result of sericitized feldspars. The associated lower crust strength is considered for a rather high inherited geothermal gradient of 45 °C/km. Table 1: Maximal temperatures obtained from RSCM method.

slightly more than 500°C (lithosphere with a thermotectonique age of about 200 Myrs). In the

Table 2: Zircon Fission Track dataset from Bielsa and Neouvielle plutonic massifs.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 6

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10

a)

Figure 11

Figure 13

 \mathbf{b}

Figure 14

Figure 15

77Ma

60

50

 40

 30^{1}

и
24 Ма

225

-
1098.97

 \overline{O}

225

-
741.71

480Ma

 400

 350

300

250

200

150

100

 $\sqrt{91}$ Ma

324

 \bullet

Figure 16

Figure 18

Figure 20

Table 1: TMax obtained from RSCM method.

Zeta value 141.69 +/- 4.66

Table 2. Zircon Fission Track dataset from Bielsa and Neouvielle plutonic massifs