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Carbonate alteration associated with talc-chlorite mineralization in the eastern Pyrenees, with emphasis on the St. Barthelemy Massif

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Summary

The eastern Pyrenees host a large number of talc-chlorite mineralizations of Albian age (112–97 Ma), the largest of which occur in the St. Barthelemy massif. There talc develops by hydrothermal replacement of dolostones, which were formed by alteration of calcite marbles. This alteration is progressive. Unaltered calcite marbles have oxygen isotope composition of about 25‰ (V-SMOW). The δ^{18} O values decrease down to values of 12% towards the contact with dolostones. This 18 O depletion is accompanied by Mg enrichment, LREE fractionation and systematic shifts in the Sr isotope compositions, which vary from ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr = 0.7087-0.7092$ in unaltered calcite marbles to slightly more radiogenic compositions with ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr = 0.7094$ near dolomitization fronts. Dolostones have $\delta^{18}O$ values (about 9‰) lower than calcitic marbles, higher REE content and more radiogenic Sr isotope composition $({}^{87}\text{Sr}/{}^{86}\text{Sr} = 0.7109$ to 0.7130). Hydrothermal calcites have $\delta^{18}O$ values close to dolostones but substantially lower δ^{13} C values, down to -6.5% , which is indicative of the contribution of organic matter. The REE content of hydrothermal calcite is one order of magnitude higher than that of calcitic marbles. Its highly radiogenic Sr composition with ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr = 0.7091$ to 0.7132 suggests that these elements were derived from silicate rocks, which experienced intense chlorite alteration during mineralization. The chemical and isotopic

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compositions of the calcite marbles, the dolostones and the hydrothermal calcites are interpreted as products of successive stages of fluid-rock interaction with increasing fluid-rock ratios. The hydrothermal quartz, calcite, talc and chlorite are in global mutual isotopic equilibrium. This allows the calculation of the O isotope composition of the infiltrating water at 300 °C, which is in the $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O} = 2-4.5\%$ range. Hydrogen isotope compositions of talc and chlorite indicate a $\delta D_{H_2O} = 0$ to -20% . This water probably derived from seawater, with minor contribution of evolved continental water.

Introduction

Talc may form at greenschist facies metamorphic conditions by alteration of ultramafic rocks (Abzalov, 1998; El-Sharkawy, 2000; Franceschelli et al., 2002; Tesalina et al., 2003) or dolostones (Blount et Vassiliou, 1980; Brady et al., 1998; Schandl et al., 1999; Hecht et al., 1999; Tornos and Spiro, 2000; Shin and Lee, 2002). Most of the important economic talc deposits are associated with hydrothermal alteration of carbonates (Moine et al., 1989), and many of them occur in zones of intense deformation, where enhanced permeability favoured fluid circulation. Formation of metasomatic talc goes in tandem with major chemical changes in the protolith, including addition of silica and H_2O , and removal of calcium and $CO₂$. The behaviour of magnesium during mineralization is more equivocal. It may, at least in part, originate from the protolith itself (ultramafic rocks or dolostones).

The Trimouns and La Porteille deposits in the St Barthelemy massif (northern Pyrenees, Fig. 1) are two typical examples of talc formation at the expense of dolostones (Moine et al., 1989). There are many other deposits of this type in the eastern Pyrenees ($Fortuné$, 1971). In all these deposits, talc mineralization is associated with chloritization of silicate protoliths such as micaschists, gneisses and pegmatites. The relative abundance of talc and chlorite in the talc mineralizations depends on the proportions of dolostone and silicate rocks in the precursor material. For example, in the Las Embollas deposit (Fig. 1a), where dolostones predominate over schists (carbonate-type deposit), talc is abundant and chlorite is nearly absent. On the contrary, in the Ceret and Col de Jau deposits (Fig. 1a) where no host carbonates can be observed (silicate-type deposit), the ore is chlorite-rich. The St. Barthelemy deposits (Trimouns and La Porteille) show approximately equal quantities of talc and chlorite. This is why they may provide information on the mineralization event in both the silicate and carbonate environments. In this paper, we investigate the conditions of fluid-rock interaction including fluid origin, elements source and fluid to rock ratios. We argue for a marine origin of the mineralising fluids on a Pyrenean scale. Carbonates of the St. Barthelemy massif recorded the progressive overprint of interaction with the mineralising fluids by subtle alteration of calcitic marbles, then dolomitization and ultimately precipitation of hydrothermal calcite.

Geological context

The Pyrenean region was affected by the Hercynian and Alpine orogenies. During the Hercynian orogeny (ca. 350–300 Ma), polyphase shortening was followed

Fig. 1. a Simplified geological map of the central and eastern Pyrenees (after Carreras, 2001) showing the location of major talc-chlorite deposits (empty circles; LP: La Porteille; T: Trimouns; J: Col de Jau; LE: Las Embollas; LV: La Vajol; C: Ceret). NPF: North Pyrenean Fault. **b** Geological map of the St Barthelemy massif (after de Saint Blanquat et al., 1990). NPFT: North Pyrenean Front Thrust

by high temperature – low pressure metamorphism, migmatization and granitic magmatism, which was coeval with dextral transpressional deformation (Soula et al., 1986; Gleizes et al., 1997, 1998).

During the Alpine orogeny (ca. 100–50 Ma), sinistral transtensional movements along the North Pyrenean Fault (NPF) accommodated the eastwards rotation of the Iberian plate and the opening of the Bay of Biscay (Albian period; Choukroune et al., 1973; Choukroune, 1992; Olivet, 1996). At the same time, pull-apart basins developed and were filled with several kilometres of calcareous shales and sandstones (*Puigdefabregas* and *Souquet*, 1986). During this period, intense hydrothermal activity lead to the formation of talc-chlorite mineralizations in the eastern Pyrenees, especially at the Trimouns and La Porteille regions in the St. Barthelemy massif (Fig. 1). The St. Barthelemy massif may be described as a crustal horst, which is bounded by conjugated normal faults. The exceptional size of the Trimouns deposit (400 000 tons of talc-chlorite ore produced per year) might be related to its position along the NPF and in the St. Barthelemy massif. At the eastern edge of the massif, the NPF bends around the massif (Fig. 1a). This area resembles a pressure-shadow zone of lithospheric scale, which may have focused the flux of mineralizing fluids through steeply dipping faults, finally giving rise to the large Trimouns deposit. Based on U–Pb dating on xenotime and monazite from geode cavities close to the talc ore body at the Trimouns quarry, the duration of hydrothermal activity is estimated to have been 15 Ma (from about 112 to 97 Ma; Schärer et al., 1999).

Fluid inclusion data have been obtained from various minerals (quartz, calcite, apatite, allanite) associated with the formation of talc-chlorite at Trimouns (de Parseval et al., 1993; Boiron et al., 2005). Mineralising fluids were highly saline brines (up to 30 wt% eq. NaCl) and estimated P-T conditions are $250-300$ °C at about 2 kbar.

Sampling strategy

The Trimouns and La Porteille quarries display the same structural setting and lithological succession (Fig. 2). Dolostones are more massive and talc-chlorite mineralization is developed more intensely at Trimouns than at La Porteille. The extent of both dolomitization and talc mineralization suggests more prominent fluid circulation in the Trimouns deposit than in the La Porteille deposit. This is why the La Porteille deposit may be regarded as a small-scale analog of the Trimouns deposit.

At Trimouns, sampling was done on a larger scale than at La Porteille. Devonian marbles were sampled hundreds of meters away from the ore zone (Table 1). These samples do not represent the exact protolith of the Ordovician mineralized dolostones. They derive, however, from marine carbonate and the alteration they underwent is likely to provide information on the early stages of the dolomitization event. Some dolostones, which are embedded in the talc ore in the Trimouns quarry (e.g., TRI 00-115), were sampled because they represent the final product of the dolomitization event and the initial product of the talc mineralization one.

At La Porteille, various Ordovician calcitic marbles and dolostones were collected on a smaller scale. We used these chemical analyses because the calcitic protoliths of dolostones are better preserved in this locality and comparison with the REE data from Trimouns is possible (de Parseval, 1992).

Fig. 2. Schematic cross-sections through Trimouns (a) and La Porteille (b) talc-chlorite deposits. At Trimouns, Ordovician marbles are completely dolomitized. Residual dolostones and pegmatite nodules are embedded in the talc-chlorite ore. At La Porteille, three dolomitized levels are exposed

In all localities, various samples of talc and chlorite ores were collected, as well as hydrothermal calcite veins (all quarries but Ceret, Fig. 1). Quartz $+$ chlorite veins within chloritized micaschists were also sampled as well as euhedral quartz crystals in empty voids (Col de Jau). These minerals precipitated directly from the mineralising fluids. Their stable isotope compositions (O, C and H) are likely to bring information on fluids source and allow us to compare the different ore bodies on a Pyrenean scale. Sr isotopic compositions of carbonates were determined in order to constrain the origin of elements carried by fluids.

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Table 1 (continued) Table 1 (continued)

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Table 1 (continued)

Talc-chlorite mineralizations of Albian age 507

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Table 2 (continued)

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Analytical methods

Samples were finely ground in an agate mortar before acid dissolution (HNO₃). Chemical compositions (Table 2) have been obtained by ICP-AES (major elements) and ICP-MS (trace elements) at the SARM laboratory (CRPG-CNRS, Nancy, France). Analytical uncertainties were from $\pm 2\%$ (CaO) to $\pm 15\%$ for major and trace elements depending on concentration level. Detection limits were from 0.03% (MnO) to 0.2% (SiO₂) for major elements; and from 0.005 ppm (Lu, Yb) to 8 ppm (Zn) for trace elements.

Oxygen and carbon isotope compositions (Table 1) were measured on a VG SIRA 10 triple collector mass spectrometer at the geochemical laboratory of Géosciences, University of Rennes 1. $CO₂$ was liberated from calcite and dolomite by reaction with anhydrous H_3PO_4 at 25 and 50 °C for 12 hours (*McCrea*, 1950). We employed a selective extraction technique to separate the $CO₂$ which is derived from calcite and dolomite (e.g., $Al-Aasm$ et al., 1990). $CO₂$ liberated after 2 hours of reaction at 25° C is considered to come from calcite. Vessels were then evacuated before a second step of overnight acid digestion at 50° C. The amount of $CO₂$ released during each step was measured on a Hg manometer in order to estimate the relative proportions of calcite and dolomite. Replicate analyses of reference material NBS 29 yielded $\delta^{18}O = 28.68 \pm 0.10\%$ and $\delta^{13}C = 1.91 \pm 0.04\%$, which is in good agreement with recommended values of 28.65% and 1.95% , respectively. Internal standards were used to calibrate the procedure. The O isotope composition of silicates was measured after overnight reaction with BrF₅ at 670 °C (Clayton and Mayeda, 1963) and conversion into $CO₂$ by reaction with hot graphite. Results were corrected by adding 0.3ø to measured values considering long term analysis of internal standards and NBS 28 ($\delta^{18}O = 9.3 \pm 0.1\%$). Analytical precision including standard correction and internal reproducibility is estimated at $\pm 0.2\%$ for O in silicates and about 0.15% for O and better than 0.1% for C in carbonates.

The H isotope composition was measured on molecular H_2 after reduction of H₂O with hot U (*Bigeleisen* et al., 1952) on a δ E Finnigan Mat instrument at the geochemical laboratory of IPGP, University of Paris VII. The reproducibility of analyses is $\pm 2\%$.

Sr isotope analyses were performed on carbonate samples at the geochemical laboratory of Geosciences, University of Rennes 1, using a Finnigan Mat 252 mass spectrometer. About 40 mg of each sample were dissolved in 2N cold HCl for one hour. Solutions were then dried and redissolved in $HNO₃$ for Sr-Spec single-step column chemical separation. Total Sr blank was better than 50 pg and is considered as being negligible. All ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ratios were corrected for mass fractionation relative to $\frac{86}{5}$ Sr⁸⁸Sr = 0.1194. During the course of analyses, NBS 987 gave a mean Sr isotope ratio of ⁸⁷Sr $/$ ⁸⁶Sr of 0.710261 \pm 5 (1, σ n = 10). The isotopic ratios were not adjusted to any standard values.

Petrography

In the St. Barthelemy massif, calcitic marbles have a penetrative foliation parallel to the stratification. Kinematic indicators such as asymmetric fibres in pressure

Fig. 3. a Talc-bearing dolostone of Trimouns. Talc develops at grain contacts and within dolomite twins (crossed polarizers). b Partially chloritized micaschist with residual quartz from La Porteille. Quartz grains are dissolved and replaced by chlorite (crossed polarizers). c Hand-specimen of a dolostone nodule surrounded by white hydrothermal foliated talc and pressure shadows. Nodule and pressure shadows are delineated by dotted lines. $S1 =$ foliation

fringes around quartz nodules indicate top-to-the-South-West thrusting. Because of the later tilting to the North, this apparent thrusting movement may correspond to normal shearing at the time of deformation.

Dolostones are mostly undeformed (Fig. 3a). At Trimouns, a progressive increase in dolomite fraction of calcitic marbles towards the ore is documented over a few hundred meters (Table 1). At La Porteille, three levels of dolostones are visible (Fig. 2b). They are separated from calcitic marbles by sharp dolomitization fronts. Some calcite veins are located within the dolostone levels. Incipient talc crystallisation at dolostone grain contacts is believed to have occurred as strain free conditions, because talc crystals are not oriented (Fig. 3a). The same is true for chlorite growth in silicate rocks (Fig. 3b). In marked contrast with dolostones, the talc-chlorite ore bodies are highly foliated in all Pyrenean quarries. Some nodules are wrapped by the talc foliation and talc grew on the expense of dolomite in pressure shadows (Fig. 3c). In talc ore, the conservation of structures such as sedimentary bedding, which was initially present in the carbonate precursors, led *Moine* et al. (1989) to propose the following near constant volume transformation:

$$
2CaMg(CO_3)_2 + Mg^{2+} + 4SiO_{2(aq)} + 2H^+ = Mg_3Si_4O_{10}(OH)_2 + 2Ca^{2+} + 4CO_2
$$

Hydrothermal calcite veins are abundant in carbonate-type deposits and crosscut talc deposits without any clear orientation. Calcite veins are made of large (up to 5 cm at Trimouns) and euhedral calcite crystals.

Results

Carbonates in the St. Barthelemy massif

Chemical analyses on La Porteille samples are reported in Table 2. Calcitic marbles contain small amounts of silicate materials, which results in maximum $SiO₂$ contents of 1.3 wt% for sample POR 02-4. Dolostones and hydrothermal calcites are essentially free of silicates impurities (e.g., POR 03-1, POR 02-11; Table 2).

The $REE + Y$ compositions of calcitic marbles, dolostones and hydrothermal calcites (Fig. 4) are normalised to Post Archean Australian Shale. Calcitic marbles have low REE contents and depleted and fractionated LREE patterns with a negative Ce anomaly (Fig. 4a), akin to those of marine Paleozoic carbonates from Australia (Nothdurft et al., 2004). In contrast, the dolostones and hydrothermal calcites have higher REE concentrations and do not display any significant negative Ce anomaly (Fig. 4b). Dolostone POR 02-11 shows a positive Eu anomaly, whereas hydrothermal calcite POR 02-12 has a negative Eu anomaly.

All carbonates from the St. Barthelemy Massif talc-chlorite deposits exhibit a continuous covariation of their carbon and oxygen isotope ratios (Fig. 5a). The stable isotope compositions of calcite marbles from La Porteille are shifted from unaltered isotopic compositions with close to primary marine values of $\delta^{18}O = 25\%$ and $\delta^{13}C = 1\%$ down to strongly altered compositions with values of $\delta^{18}O = 12\%$ and $\delta^{13}C = -0.5\%$. With values of $\delta^{18}O = 7$ to 10‰ and $\delta^{13}C = +1$ to -0.5% , the stable isotope compositions of the dolostones are a continuation of this depletion trend (Fig. 5a). Hydrothermal calcites have O isotope compositions close to those of dolostones but have lower $\delta^{13}C$ (down to -4.5% in the St. Barthelemy deposits). Hydrothermal calcites from other deposits have similar $\delta^{18}O$ values to St. Barthelemy hydrothermal calcites, but differ from them by more variable $\delta^{13}C$

Fig. 4. a REE + Y patterns of the La Porteille calcitic marbles (normalisation to Post-Archean Australian Shale; McLennan, 1989). Low δ^{18} O marbles (black circles) are POR 02-10, POR 02-4, POR 02-2. Dotted patterns correspond to Australian Devonian marine carbonates (Nothdurft et al., 2004). **b** REE + Y patterns of the La Porteille dolostone POR 02-11 (black square) and hydrothermal calcites (black diamonds). Dotted lines correspond to Trimouns dolostones (data from *de Parseval*, 1992). The field of the La Porteille calcitic marbles is the same in both panels

Fig. 5. a C and O isotope compositions of carbonates from Trimouns and La Porteille, together with hydrothermal calcite from other talc-chlorite deposits. Reported is also the field of Ordovician marine limestones (Veizer et al., 1999) and a model of infiltration at 300 °C using the zero-dimension formula of *Taylor* (1977) for open systems (italic numbers on the curve refer to fluid-rock ratios in atom percent). $CO₂$ is assumed to be in O isotopic equilibrium with H₂O (δ^{18} O_{CO₂} calculated with fractionation factors calcite-H₂O and calcite-CO₂ of Zheng, 1999). C fractionation factor between calcite and CO_2 is taken from Bottinga (1968). b Detail of small box in a) showing O and C isotope compositions of dolomite from nodule TRI 00-115 (squares) and from pressure shadow zones (triangles). The theoretical curve of decarbonation is labelled with wt% residual carbonate (see text for explanations). The O isotope fractionation factor between CO_2 and dolomite (α_{CO_2-DoI}) 1.0076 at 300 °C) is from O'Neil and Epstein (1966). C fractionation ($\alpha_{\text{CO}_2, \text{Dol}} = 1.00129$ at 300 °C) is from *Ohmoto* and Rye (1979). c Sr isotope composition vs. δ^{13} C diagram of carbonates from all deposits. The field of Las Embollas (LE) hydrothermal calcites is marked by the dotted line within the Ordovician limestone box

values, which scatter between 0‰ in the carbonate-dominated deposit of Las Embollas and about -6.5% in the silicate-dominated deposit of Col de Jau.

In sample TRI 00-115 (Fig. 3c), a rigid dolomitic nodule has $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}O$ values of $8.6 \pm 0.2\%$ and $1.1 \pm 0.1\%$, respectively, that are higher than those of the dolomite within the pressure shadow zone, which has compositions of $\delta^{18}O = 7.9 \pm 0.4\%$ and $\delta^{13}C = 0.5 \pm 0.4\%$; see also Fig. 5b.

Isotopic compositions of partially dolomitized Trimouns marbles do not show any correlation with distance to the ore (Table 1), despite the fact that the degree of dolomitization increases more or less regularly towards the ore. In these samples, dolomite is enriched in 13 C relative to calcite by about 0.5 to 1‰. This is compatible with equilibrium fractionation (e.g., *Ohmoto* and *Rye*, 1979). The dolomite is, however, depleted in 18 O relative to calcite (Table 1). This peculiar signature indicates oxygen isotope disequilibrium between calcite and dolomite *(Sheppard* and *Schwarcz*, 1970). It may be hypothesised that calcite was in oxygen isotope equilibrium with the mineralizing fluids during the initial, high temperature stage of dolomitization. This equilibrium state was then perturbed by retrograde isotopic exchange with similar fluids during subsequent lower temperature stages of fluid-rock interaction, which gave rise to an increase of δ^{18} O values of calcite, but did not affect the coexisting dolomite to the same extent. It is noteworthy that the dolomitic fraction of these samples has a mean δ^{18} O of 9.4 \pm 0.4‰. This value is slightly higher than that of dolostones close to the ore $(8.6 \pm 0.8\%)$. The difference may be attributed to lower temperature of fluid-rock interaction for incompletely dolomitized rocks, or, alternatively, it may be attributed to the fact that fluid-rock ratios are lower in partially dolomitized rocks and complete equilibration of rocks with the infiltrating fluids was not attained.

In calcitic marbles of La Porteille, the ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ratio varies between 0.70874 and 0.70937 (Table 1, Fig. 5c). These values are close to those reported for Ordovician carbonates (Veizer et al., 1999). Hydrothermal calcites and dolostones have much higher ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ratios between 0.71081 and 0.71320. Hydrothermal calcites from Pyrenean deposits have variable ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$, with the lowest value recorded at the Las Embollas (carbonate-type) deposit.

Hydrothermal minerals

The oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions of minerals from different talcchlorite ore deposits are reported in Table 1. The observed δ^{18} O values with $\delta^{18}O(Qz) > \delta^{18}O(Cal) > \delta^{18}O(Tlc) > \delta^{18}O(Chl)$ are compatible with equilibrium oxygen isotope fractionation among the coexisting hydrothermal minerals (Zheng, 1993a and b). In detail, however, the Qz–Cal (Fig. 6a) and Tlc–Chl (Fig. 6d) fractionations give a large range of apparent equilibrium temperatures (200 °C–600 °C) for most deposits. This may be due to incomplete equilibration during hydrothermal mineralization, equilibration at different stages under decreasing temperature conditions or even uncertainties of the geothermometers. The Ceret deposit has lower Qz and Chl oxygen isotope values than other deposits (Fig. 6b). This is probably the result of a lower δ^{18} O value of the infiltrating fluid rather than that of a higher temperature of interaction, as the Qz–Chl pair gives similar apparent temperature to other deposits (Fig. 6b). In most deposits the oxygen isotope compositions of the minerals are comparable. This allows calculation of a mean $\delta^{18}O$

Fig. 6. $\delta^{18}O - \delta^{18}O$ diagram for hydrothermal minerals from Pyrenean talc-chlorite deposits. Symbols refer to mean δ^{18} O values which are calculated from Table 1. The whole range of δ^{18} O values variation is reported as a box around mean values. Equilibrium temperature lines are calculated using the fractionation factors of Zheng (1993a and b)

value for each mineral: $\delta^{18}O(C_{\text{al}})_{\text{mean}} = 8.7 \pm 1.0\%$, $\delta^{18}O(Qz)_{\text{mean}} = 10.5 \pm 0.6\%$, $\delta^{18}O(Tlc)_{\text{mean}} = 5.9 \pm 0.4\%$, $\delta^{18}O(CHl)_{\text{mean}} = 4.7 \pm 0.4\%$. The Ceret samples have been excluded from this calculation. Provided minerals did not experience significant retrograde isotopic exchange, the intensity of which being governed by different parameters, including oxygen diffusivity in crystals, cooling rate, crystal size and deformation, one can calculate the oxygen isotope composition of water in equilibrium with talc-chlorite deposits at about $\delta^{18}OH_2O = 2-4.5\%$ at 300 °C using the fractionation factors of Zheng (1993 a and b). In the same conditions, water in equilibrium with the Ceret deposit would have a lower δ^{18} O value in the range 1–2.8‰.

 δ D values for talc and chlorite minerals range between -40 and -50% with no systematic difference between the two mineral phases. Again, the Ceret deposit is different from other deposits, having a lower δ D value (-60‰). The equilibrium hydrogen isotope fractionation factor between talc and water is not known at any

Fig. 7. δ D vs. δ^{18} O diagram for talc and chlorite of the Pyrenean deposits. Metamorphic and magmatic water fields are from Sheppard (1986). MWL: Meteoric Water Line. Also reported are the field of waters in equilibrium with talc and chlorite from most Pyrenean and Ceret deposit. Arrows describe isotopic effects of different processes

precision. Assuming an hydrogen fractionation factor between chlorite and water of about -30 to -40% at $300\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ (*Taylor*, 1974; *Marumo* et al., 1980; *Graham* et al., 1987), one can estimate the hydrogen isotope composition of water in equilibrium with talc-chlorite deposits (except Ceret) to be in the range 0 to -20% . The δ D value of Ceret waters is about -20 to -30% . The oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions of these waters are reported in Fig. 7. All water compositions plot close to the limits of the metamorphic fluids field, in the low $\delta^{18}O$ – high δD corner, whereas Ceret water is clearly outside this field.

Discussion

Fluid flow and talc-chlorite mineralization

From the location of the compositions in the δD vs. $\delta^{18}O$ diagram (Fig. 7), it is unlikely that the mineralising fluids were derived from magmatic rocks. This is consistent with the isotopic signatures of the St. Barthelemy and Pyrenean deposits, which are clearly distinct from those found in deposits formed by contact metamorphism (for example $\delta^{18}O_{Tlc} = 14.8\%$ in the Hwanggangri contact aureole in South Korea; Shin and Lee, 2002).

The source of the mineralising fluids was probably not related to metamorphic dehydration, as fluid compositions plot at the limit of this potential reservoir (Fig. 7). Furthermore the perturbation of the temperature field associated with the Cretaceous transtension episode was probably not sufficient to dehydrate rocks that had already undergone a metamorphic cycle during Hercynian times. Moreover,

dehydration of the Albian calcareous shales cannot be considered as a potential fluid source because metamorphism of these rocks occurred during the Cenomanian-Turonian period (Albarède and Michard-Vitrac, 1978; Golberg and Maluski, 1988), a few million years after talc-chlorite mineralization.

The hydrogen and oxygen isotope compositions of the fluids in equilibrium with the talc-chlorite ore deposits rather suggest an influx of fluids from the surface, mainly from a marine reservoir (Fig. 7). The slightly higher $\delta^{18}O$ value of the mineralising fluids relative to mean sea water isotopic composition might be related to the interaction of water with crustal rocks as indicated by the horizontal arrow in Fig. 7. A similar trend was documented for mid-ocean ridge vents systems (Bowers and Taylor, 1985). A contribution of modified continental fresh water is also likely, especially for the Ceret deposit. However, the precise composition for these waters is difficult to estimate, as it varies with both altitude and latitude. It is also well documented (Criss, 1999) that, while circulating in the crust, water is likely to heat up and reach the boiling point which, in turn, leads to an enrichment in both 2 H and 18 O (inclined arrows in Fig. 7).

In the Salton Sea Geothermal System, which may be regarded as a modern analog to the Pyrenean system in the Albian (Choukroune and Mattauer, 1978), some geothermal fluids (Williams and McKibben, 1989) exhibit many similarities with the talc-forming fluids of the Pyrenees. In particular, some fluids of the Salton Sea System are hypersaline (up to 26 wt% TDS), have reached temperatures of about 300 °C and have δ^{18} O values in the range 0.5–3‰. However, the D values of the Pyrenean deposits are clearly different from those of the Salton Sea Geothermal System, the latter have δ D values of about -70% (Williams and McKibben, 1989). The hydrogen and oxygen isotope compositions of hydrothermal waters from the Salton Sea System were interpreted as the combined result of evaporation of local continental waters and high-temperature water– rock interactions (Williams and McKibben, 1989; and references therein). In the Pyrenees, the contribution of Albian seawater is likely to explain the higher δD values of the mineralising fluids. For example, Red Sea hot brines are even characterised by positive δ D values (*Pierret* et al., 2001). Figure 8 is a cartoon model of fluid flow in the St. Barthelemy area at the time of mineralization. We propose that the steeply dipping faults limiting the marine pull-apart basins (*Choukroune* and Mattauer, 1978) acted as pathways for the downward circulation of marine waters. Crustal-scale fluid circulation was driven by the heat associated with the upward advection of mantle material during extension (Buck et al., 1988). This is also corroborated by the good agreement between our Pyrenean data and that of talc that directly precipitated from an active hydrothermal vent in the Gulf of California (Lonsdale et al., 1980), which has stable isotope compositions of $\delta^{18}O = 5.3\%$ and $\delta D = -38\%$ at formation temperatures of 280 °C.

During large scale flow, marine waters may have interacted with evaporites, increasing their salinity, as recorded by fluid inclusions (de Parseval et al., 1993; Boiron et al., 2005). Triassic evaporites are common in the area (Jarousse et al., 1981) and a direct contribution of expelled brines from these evaporites buried during extension (Fig. 8) cannot be excluded. Moreover, it is also possible that the mineralizing fluids have interacted with silicate rocks during their migration. This could have led to albitization, which is a widespread process known in the Pyrenees

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Fig. 8. Schematic cross-section of the north Pyrenean region at 100 Ma (after Puigdefabregas and Souquet, 1986; Roure et al., 1989) showing a model of fluid circulation during the Albian transtensional context

 $(Pascal, 1979; Clavières, 1990)$, part of albitized rocks formed during the Albian (Ruffet, unpublished data). This might have given rise to a decrease of the Na/Ca ratio in the fluids, to reach the low values measured in fluid inclusions (Boiron et al., 2005). The low Na/Ca ratio of Salton Sea hypersaline fluids has also been attributed to similar fluid-rock interaction process (Williams and McKibben, 1989).

From calcitic marbles to dolostones and hydrothermal calcite

The oxygen isotope composition of most calcitic marbles at La Porteille is much lower than that of typical marine carbonate sediments (Fig. 5a). Thus, the calcitic marbles have necessarily undergone some isotopic exchange with externally derived low- δ^{18} O fluids. Since the isotopic trend defined by calcitic marbles can be extended to the compositions of dolostones and hydrothermal calcites, the entire set of isotopic compositions may be explained as the result of a single fluid-rock interaction event under variable fluid-rock ratios. Figure 5a depicts the isotopic effects of such an infiltration at 300 °C, with a fluid that is characterized by an X_{CO_2} of 0.05. To obtain these estimates, isotopic signatures of the infiltrating fluid were set at $\delta^{18}O_{H_2O} = +3\%$ (see above) and $\delta^{13}C_{CO_2} = -5\%$. Although different $\delta^{13}C$ signatures would be consistent with the measured compositions, the best fit is obtained for this value, intermediate between that, dominant, of marine carbonate and that of organic matter. The carbon isotope composition of organic matter is about $\delta^{13}C = -25\%$ (*de Parseval*, 1992) and organic material is present in the micaschists found in the vicinity of the ore bodies. The isotopic compositions of

all carbonates are thus consistent with a model involving interactions with a single fluid at $ca. 300\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, an increasing fluid-rock ratio from the calcitic marbles to the dolostones and ultimately the hydrothermal calcites, and $X_{CO_2} = 0.05$. In a comprehensive mineralogical and geochemical study of talc mineralization in the Bohemian Massif (Fichtelgebirge, Germany), Hecht et al. (1999) argued too that the oxygen and carbon isotope evolution recorded by marbles, dolostone and hydrothermal calcite is related to similar increasing fluid-rock ratios.

Most of the geochemical variations recorded in the La Porteille calcitic marbles can also be attributed to metasomatic alteration rather than to sedimentary heritage or diagenetic processes. Firstly, given the small amount of silicate material in the calcitic marbles of La Porteille ($SiO₂< 1.3%$, Table 2), high temperature isotope equilibration between a high- δ^{18} O carbonate phase and a detrital silicate phase with normal δ^{18} O values (15 ± 5‰; e.g., Savin and Epstein, 1970a and 1970b) cannot explain the low δ^{18} O values of the calcitic marbles down to 12.3‰ (Fig. 5a, Table 1). Moreover, the lowest δ^{18} O value from sample POR 02-10 is found in the vicinity of a dolomitization front and is therefore consistent with isotopic exchange between calcitic marbles and the externally derived fluids. The slightly more radiogenic Sr isotope composition of this sample $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr = 0.70934)$ is also consistent with the addition of radiogenic Sr from the infiltrating fluids. Secondly, two of the most isotopically altered samples (POR 02-2 and POR 02-4) show Mg enrichment (MgO is about $0.6-0.8$ wt%; Table 2) that is unlikely to be sedimentary in origin because growth of fine-grained chlorite porphyroblasts is observed in these two samples in particular. Furthermore, despite of the fact that many calcitic marbles preserved $REE + Y$ patterns typical of sedimentary marine carbonates, the most 18O- and 13C-depleted samples (black circles in Fig. 4a) show LREE depleted patterns. We interpret these patterns as the result of LREE leaching during the metasomatic evolution of the marbles.

Dolostones formed at the expense of calcitic marbles by input of Mg in solution. The Sr concentration in the dolostones ranges between 10 and 57 ppm (de Parseval, 1992). This is lower than the Sr concentration of unaltered calcite marbles (200 to 300 ppm), in agreement with the lower mineral-fluid Sr partition coefficient of dolomite compared to calcite. The dolostones are also REE-enriched by one order of magnitude compared to the calcite marbles. They have a $(LREE)_{N}$ depleted pattern, and do not have a Ce negative anomaly. One sample even displays a positive Eu anomaly.

The Ca and $CO₂$ liberated during talc formation at the expense of dolostones are likely to combine to form the hydrothermal calcite veins. REE patterns of hydrothermal calcites differ from those of dolostones by larger REE enrichment and a negative Eu anomaly in one case (Fig. 4b), but resemble them in their light REE depletion and an upward slightly convex shape of the REE pattern. This pattern is common in hydrothermal calcites from other places (*Hecht* et al., 1999, and references therein). In natural systems, the shale-normalized REE pattern of hydrothermal fluids that equilibrated with the crustal basement is rather flat (*Michard* and *Albarède*, 1986). This suggests that the fluids from which the calcites of the St. Barthelemy precipitated have been in equilibrium with local crustal metapelites (with a PAAS-like pattern; *de Parseval*, 1992). *Bau* (1991) report the patterns of calcites from Alpine veins that are LREE-depleted relative to the

Pennine gneisses (Zillertal, Austria), which are the local source rocks for REE. However, during calcite precipitation, LREE are preferentially incorporated in the crystal lattice relative to HREE (Rimstidt et al., 1998), because of the smaller difference in ionic radius between LREE³⁺ and Ca^{2+} than between HREE³⁺ and Ca^{2+} . The LREE-depleted pattern of the hydrothermal calcites from the St. Barthelemy Massif is thus likely a signature of the fluid itself. The high HREE content of the calcite may be due to the fact that, with increasing alkalinity, hydrothermal fluids dissolve more HREE than LREE (Michard and Albarède, 1981). As $(LREE)Cl²⁺ complexes are more stable in the fluid phase than $(HREE)Cl²⁺$ com$ plexes (*Steinmann* and *Stille*, 1998) and as Cl^- is the dominant anion in the mineralizing fluid in the area, hydrothermal calcite in equilibrium with such a fluid is likely to display an inverse mirror image of the fluid, namely a LREE-depleted pattern as observed.

Both hydrothermal calcites and dolostones have much more radiogenic Sr compositions than calcite marbles (Table 1), with the high $\frac{87}{5}$ sr $\frac{86}{5}$ sr calcites showing the lowest $\delta^{13}C$ (Fig. 5c). This low $\delta^{13}C$ carbon was probably derived from organic matter-rich micaschist levels of the host rocks, suggesting that the most likely Sr source was radiogenic Sr leached from silicate rocks during their transformation into chlorite. It is highly probable that REE, which are enriched in dolostones and hydrothermal calcite, came from this same source. On the other hand, samples from the carbonate-dominated Las Embollas deposit have Sr isotope composition close to those of the protolith (Fig. 5c), which argues for a Sr budget dominated by the host carbonates.

Isotopic record of deformation

Talc-chlorite ores are highly foliated because of shearing. Qualitatively, pressuresolution can be invoked in the studied sample (TRI 00-115, Fig. 3c), where dolomite dissolves at nodule edges exposed to σ 1 stress. In the mean time, talc crystallised at the expense of dolomite in the pressure shadows because of silica input. External fluids might have been focused in the pressure shadows zones, parallel to σ 3 stress. Also, the process has followed a reaction like

$$
3CaMg(CO3)2 + 4SiO2(aq) + H2O = Mg3Si4O10(OH)2 + 3CaCO3(aq) + 3CO2
$$

which accounts for the pressure shadow samples having lower $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values than those of the nodule (Fig. 5b). The Rayleigh curve of Fig. 5b is a simple approximation of the isotopic effects of such a decarbonation (Valley, 1986). It shows that the isotopic evolution of dolomite in the pressure shadows can be explained by decarbonation without involvement of externally derived fluids. A silica-bearing fluid is implied by the growth of talc, but this fluid must have been in isotopic equilibrium with the dolostone at the time of this deformation. As the temperature estimated for decarbonation $(300\degree C)$ is close to that prevailing at the time of talc-chlorite mineralization, the shearing event probably occurred during the hydrothermal alteration or in its waning stages under cooling conditions. The shear zones probably acted as conduits for the mineralising fluids, as did the lithological discontinuity defined by the limit between carbonates and silicate rocks.

Conclusion

The main conclusions of this study can be summarized as follows.

The talc-chlorite mineralizations in the Pyrenees record the signature of a midcrustal fluid circulation, during an Albian transtension event.

The oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions of talc and chlorite are consistent with a marine origin of the fluids, somewhat modified by isotopic and chemical exchange with crustal rocks. A minor contribution of continental water is suggested for the Ceret deposit, in the eastern part of the area.

The oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions of dolostones in the St. Barthelemy Massif show that they formed by interaction between the mineralising fluids and the calcitic marbles, the composition of which was also modified by interaction with these fluids at low fluid-rock ratios. Hydrothermal calcites recorded the highest fluid-rock ratios.

Carbonates-fluid interaction led to REE enrichment and fractionation, and an influx of radiogenic Sr. These elements probably come from silicate rocks transformed into chlorite.

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