

# Exhumation of high-pressure rocks under continuous compression: a working hypothesis for the southern Hellenides (central Crete, Greece)

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**Abstract** – Combined kinematic, structural and palaeostress (calcite twinning, fault-slip data) analyses are used to study the exhumation mechanism of the high-pressure rocks exposed on the island of Crete (southern Aegean, Greece). Our study shows that the evolution of windows in central Crete was controlled by two main contractional phases of deformation. The first phase ( $D_1$ ) was related to the ductile-stage of exhumation. NNW–SSE compression during  $D_1$  caused layer- and transport-parallel shortening in the upper thrust sheets, resulting in nappe stacking via low-angle thrusting. Synchronously, intracontinental subduction led to high-pressure metamorphism which, however, did not affect the most external parts of the southern Hellenides. Subsequent upward ductile extrusion of high-pressure rocks was characterized by both down-section increase of strain and up-section increase of the pure shear component. The second phase ( $D_2$ ) was associated with the brittle-stage of exhumation.  $D_2$  was governed by NNE–SSW compression and involved conspicuous thrust-related folding, considerable tectonic imbrication and formation of a Middle Miocene basin. The major  $D_2$ -related Psiloritis Thrust cross-cuts the entire nappe pile, and its trajectory partially follows and reworks the  $D_1$ -related contact between upper and lower (high-pressure) tectonic units. Eduction and doming of the Talea Window was accompanied by gravity sliding of the upper thrust sheets and by out-of-the-syncline thrusting. Late-orogenic collapse also contributed to the exhumation process. Therefore, it seems that the high-pressure rocks of central Crete were exhumed under continuous compression and that the role of extension was previously overestimated.

Keywords: compression tectonics, high-pressure metamorphism, exhumation, Hellenides, Crete.

## 1. Introduction

The exhumation mechanism of high-pressure metamorphic rocks is still a crucial and debated problem, despite the numerous studies published over the decades (e.g. Platt, 1993; Fig. 1). The problem of exhumation has been well approached in Alpine-type collisional orogens (Ernst, 2005). During the main stage of the evolution of such orogens, the exhuming high-pressure rock sequences are often modelled to represent a tectonic slice bounded by a lower subduction-related thrust fault and an upper crustal-scale normal-sense fault (e.g. Chemenda, Matte & Sokolov, 1997; Ernst, Maruyama & Wallis, 1997; Vannay & Grasemann, 2001; Fig. 1b, e, f, g). It is well documented that the upper fault can represent either (a) a ‘true’ extensional detachment (Fig. 1b) where the high-pressure rocks are exhumed along it due to syn-orogenic crustal-scale extension (e.g. Ring *et al.* 1999; Jolivet *et al.* 2003) or (b) a ‘normal fault’ operating in a tectonic setting without any net extension (Fig. 1e, f). In the latter case, the high-pressure rocks in the footwall of the fault escape towards the surface under a mechanism of solid-state ductile extrusion (Fig. 1e) or buoyancy-

triggered exhumation (Fig. 1f) or a combination of both (e.g. Chemenda, Matte & Sokolov, 1997; Escher & Beaumont, 1997; Vannay & Grasemann, 2001; Xypolias, Kokkalas & Skourlis, 2003). Post-orogenic extensional movements or continuous compression, which results in forward and/or backward shearing, can characterize the late-stage evolution of collisional orogens (Platt, 1993; Beaumont, Ellis & Pfiffner, 1999).

In the External Hellenides, some of the youngest high-pressure/low-temperature rocks (Early Miocene) in the world are exposed (e.g. Katagas, 1980; Fig. 2a). They are overlain by a stack of thrust sheets which show evidence of very low-grade metamorphism at the base. This metamorphic break led to various tectonic models for the island of Crete (Fig. 2b), suggesting that the contact between the high-pressure rocks and the overlying thrust sheets is a shallow-dipping extensional detachment, which formed subparallel to a subjacent subduction thrust in the Early Miocene (e.g. Kiliass, Fassoulas & Mountrakis, 1994; Jolivet *et al.* 1996; Ring & Reischmann, 2002). In this case, the exhumation-related deformation was strongly localized along the extensional detachment, which is characterized by very large displacement (~100 km: Ring & Reischmann, 2002) contributing to the exhumation of high-pressure rocks. On the contrary, models for the

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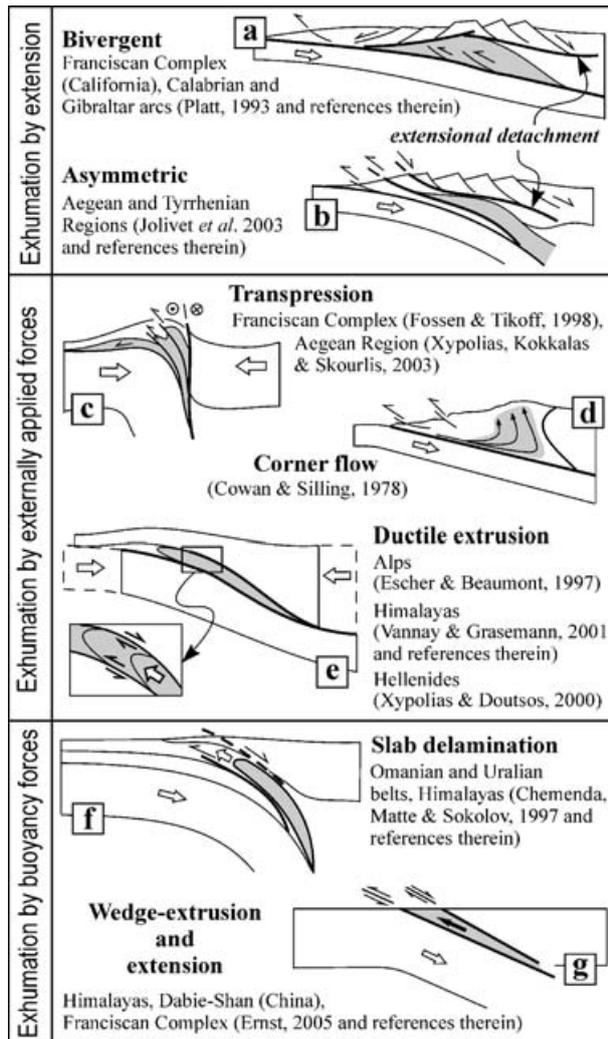


Figure 1. Summary of the most important proposed models for the exhumation mechanism of high-pressure metamorphic rocks. The various models are categorized following Platt (1993). For each model, key natural examples are provided. Grey shaded areas correspond to the exhumed high-pressure rocks.

Peloponnese suggest that exhumation was achieved by a mechanism of compressional solid-state extrusion, where the exhumed high-pressure rocks are subjected to penetrative and strongly heterogeneous ductile deformation (e.g. Xypolias & Doutsos, 2000; Doutsos *et al.* 2000).

Recent studies in Crete demonstrate that normal faulting is strongly overestimated in the orogenic evolution of the southern Hellenides (e.g. Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2001, 2004; Zulauf *et al.* 2002; Campbell, Craddock & Klein, 2003). Moreover, it is noteworthy that the proposed model suggesting major crustal extension on Crete appears to underestimate the importance of a late-orogenic contractional phase leading to the formation of asymmetric megafolds throughout the island (e.g. Wachendorf, Best & Gwosdz, 1975; Greiling, 1982; Meulenkamp *et al.* 1988). As is emphasized by many authors (e.g. Alsop, Bryson & Hutton, 2001; Bucher *et al.* 2003), restoration of the

late-stage structure is a prerequisite for unravelling the main-stage orogenic evolution. In this study, we present new structural and palaeostress data from central Crete focusing especially on the geometry and kinematics of late-stage deformation. This has led us to propose an orogenic model for the Hellenides in Crete, resembling that proposed for the Peloponnese.

## 2. Geological framework

The Hellenides are part of the Alpine orogenic belt and form an orocline connecting the Dinarides to the north with the Taurides to the southeast (Fig. 2a). The External Hellenides are separated from the Internal Hellenides by the Pindos ophiolitic suture zone (Smith, Woodcock & Naylor, 1979), which can be traced over a distance of 1000 km from northwestern Greece through the Peloponnese to the Cretan Sea (Fig. 2a). The External Hellenides expose a pile of thrust sheets or nappes, which are traditionally referred to as units. These units consist of Upper Palaeozoic–Cenozoic sedimentary rocks that were originally deposited on top of the northern rifted margin of the Apulia microcontinent bordering the Pindos Ocean (Robertson *et al.* 1991). Nappe stacking took place from Eocene to Early Miocene times, following the closure of the Pindos Ocean and subsequent northward subduction and collision of the Apulia with several European microplates (e.g. Dewey *et al.* 1973; Doutsos *et al.* 1993).

### 2.a. Tectonostratigraphy

The nappe pile of Crete can be divided into two main unit/nappe groups (e.g. Seidel, Kreuzer & Harre, 1982): (a) the lower group, composed of the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units which reveal Early Miocene high-pressure metamorphism and (b) the upper group, comprising in ascending order the Tripolitsa, the Pindos and the Uppermost units lacking this metamorphism (Figs 2b, 3). In central Crete, the high-pressure rocks crop out in the core of two windows, called hereafter the ‘Talea’ and ‘Psiloritis’ windows (Fig. 2b: A–A’). The entire pile of upper tectonic units is exposed on the flanks of these windows.

The para-autochthonous Plattenkalk unit represents the deepest and most external part of the Hellenides in Crete. It comprises an Upper Carboniferous to Eocene sequence of carbonate rocks (Bonneau, 1973; Krahl *et al.* 1988; Fig. 3) overlain by a Middle Oligocene flysch sequence (Bizon *et al.* 1976). Metamorphic index minerals in the Plattenkalk unit have only been found at the Talea Window and indicate  $P$ – $T$  conditions of 7–10 kbar and  $\sim 350$  °C (Theye, Seidel & Vidal, 1992). On the whole island, the temperature of metamorphism in the Plattenkalk unit remains nearly constant in an east–west direction, but systematically decreases from north to south (Soujon & Jacobshagen, 2001). The

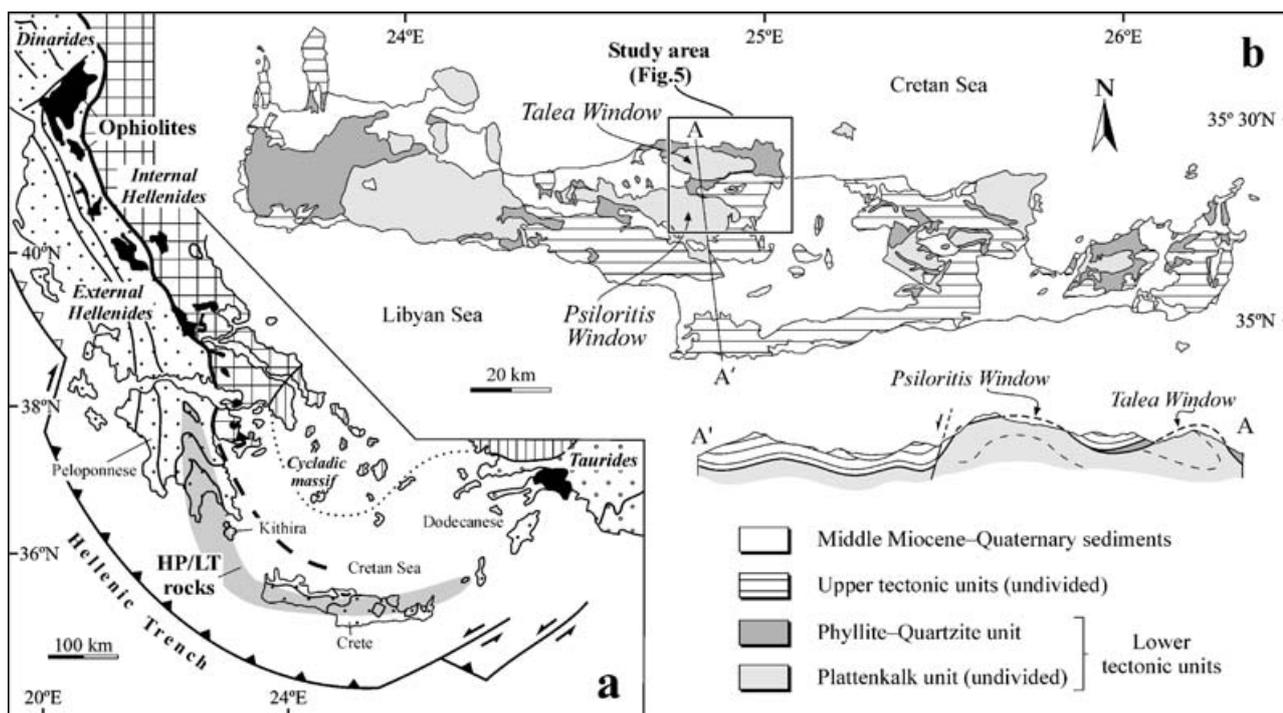


Figure 2. (a) Simplified geological map showing the position of the External Hellenides in relation to the Dinaric–Tauric arc. Grey shaded area corresponds to the exposures of high-pressure/low-temperature rocks within the External Hellenides. (b) Geological map of Crete (after Creutzburg *et al.* 1977). The structural profile A–A' shows the Talea and Psiloritis windows and stacking of tectonic units in central Crete (after Bonneau, 1973).

Main tectonic units		Lithology / protolith age		Peak metamorphic conditions and age
Upper tectonic units	Uppermost unit		(Ophiolitic subunit) Serpentinites / U. Jurassic (Ophiolitic mélangé) Amphibolites, gneisses, pillow-lavas, pelagic limestones and clastic sediments / U. Jurassic	low-pressure/high-temperature (4–6 kbar/650–700°C) Late Cretaceous
	Pindos unit		Flysch deposits / Eocene Deep-water carbonate rocks / Triassic–Paleocene	
	Tripolitsa unit		Flysch deposits / U. Eocene–Oligocene Shallow-water carbonate rocks / Triassic–Eocene	low-pressure/low-temperature (~ 3 kbar/~ 250°C)
Lower tectonic units	Phyllite–Quartzite unit		(Vasiliko unit) Foliated massive marbles and metavolcanic rocks / unknown Phyllites, quartzites and metaconglomerates with marble intercalations / U. Carboniferous–Triassic	unknown high-pressure/low-temperature (10±3 kbar/400±50°C) Late Oligocene–Early Miocene
			Flysch deposits / M. Oligocene	
	Plattenkalk unit		Marbles with nodular cherts / L. Jurassic–Eocene Dolomitic marbles / U. Triassic–L. Jurassic Marbles and schists / U. Carboniferous–U. Triassic	high-pressure/low-temperature (7–10 kbar/~ 350°C) Late Oligocene–Early Miocene

Figure 3. Tectonostratigraphic sequence (not to scale), lithologies, protolith ages, peak metamorphic conditions and metamorphic ages of the rock units in central Crete. The stratigraphic data are from Bonneau (1973, 1984), Bizon *et al.* (1976), Kopp & Ott (1977) and Krahl *et al.* (1983, 1988). Metamorphic conditions and ages are derived from Seidel, Kreuzer & Harre (1982), Feldhoff, Lücke & Richter (1991), Theye, Seidel & Vidal (1992) and Koepke, Seidel & Kreuzer (2002).

Plattenkalk unit is overridden by the allochthonous Phyllite–Quartzite unit, which represents an Upper Carboniferous to Triassic metasedimentary rift sequence (Krahl *et al.* 1983; Fig. 3). The latter shows evidence of widespread high-pressure metamorphism (Theye &

Seidel, 1991; Fig. 4a). Several relic slices of pre-Alpine crystalline rocks have been identified within it, especially in Crete (e.g. Romano, Dörr & Zulauf, 2004) and recently in Kithira (Xypolias, Dörr & Zulauf, 2006). In the study area, the Vasiliko unit (Fig. 3), which

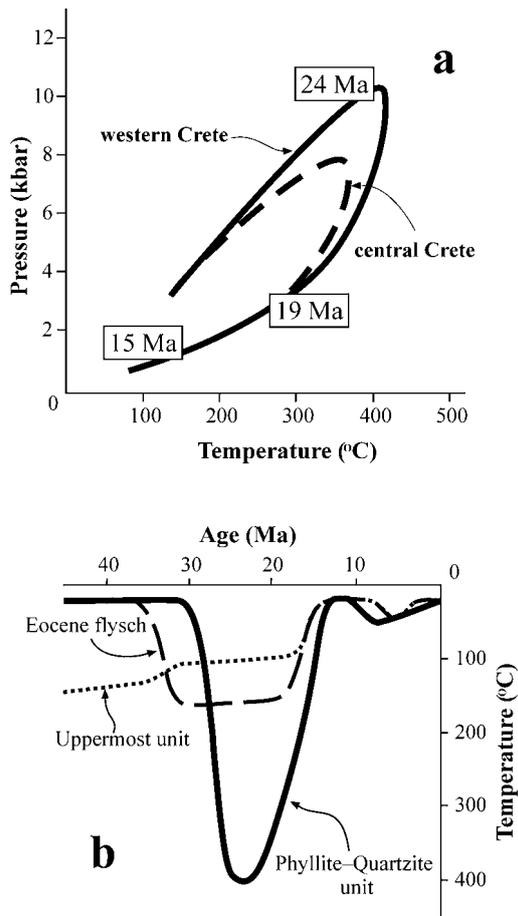


Figure 4. (a) Pressure–temperature–time ( $P$ – $T$ – $t$ ) paths of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit of central and western Crete. Timing of high-pressure/low-temperature metamorphism after Seidel, Kreuzer & Harre (1982); all other age data after Thomson *et al.* (1998a). (b) Combined temperature–time ( $T$ – $t$ ) diagrams of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit, the Uppermost unit and the Eocene flysch of Crete (after Thomson *et al.* 1998a,b).

lies tectonically above the Phyllite–Quartzite unit, has not been dated up to now, but a possible pre-Alpine age for it could not be excluded (G. Zulauf, pers. comm. 2004).

The Tripolitsa and the Pindos units mainly comprise Mesozoic carbonate rocks, covered by Eocene–Oligocene flysch deposits (Kopp & Ott, 1977; Bonneau, 1984; Fig. 3). The Tripolitsa unit lies above the high-pressure units and shows evidence for very low-grade metamorphism (e.g. Feldhoff, Lücke & Richter, 1991; Fig. 3). It is noteworthy that south of the Talea Window, the Phyllite–Quartzite unit is totally absent and consequently the Tripolitsa unit lies directly above the Plattenkalk unit (Fig. 2b: A–A'). The Uppermost unit is composed of an ophiolitic subunit on top and a mélangé at the base (Bonneau, 1984; Fig. 3). An Upper Jurassic age (*c.* 150 Ma) has been estimated for Cretan ophiolites, which are considered to be the southernmost outliers of the ophiolitic suture zone exposed in continental Greece (Koepke, Seidel & Kreuzer, 2002).

Unconformably above the Cretan nappe pile lies a Neogene sedimentary succession. Sedimentation in Crete starts with terrigenous sediments of Middle Miocene age, followed by Upper Miocene–Pleistocene fluviolacustrine and open-marine sediments. The stratigraphy of the Neogene is well depicted in earlier works of Fortuin (1978) and Postma, Fortuin & Van Wamel (1993).

## 2.b. Tectonic and thermal evolution

The tectonic evolution of the southern Hellenides began in the Eocene with a general S-directed thrusting that led to the formation of the upper tectonic units stack (e.g. Bonneau, 1984). Throughout the Oligocene, thrusting progressed towards the south as indicated by the younging trend of flysch deposits. The Middle Oligocene flysch of the Plattenkalk unit possibly marks the N-directed subduction of the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units below the basement of the Tripolitsa unit. The Phyllite–Quartzite unit, which was lying northward from the Plattenkalk unit before the collision (Bonneau, 1984), possibly entered the subduction channel earlier. Within this context, the lower tectonic units suffered high-pressure metamorphism. The age of the metamorphic peak is constrained at *c.* 24 Ma using K–Ar and Ar–Ar ages of white mica from the Phyllite–Quartzite unit (Seidel, Kreuzer & Harre, 1982; Jolivet *et al.* 1996). Fluid inclusions (Küster & Stöckert, 1997) and fission-track data of zircon and apatite (Thomson *et al.* 1998a) from the Phyllite–Quartzite unit rocks also reveal that subsequent exhumation to a depth of  $\sim 10$  km and cooling to  $\sim 300$  °C should have been completed before 19 Ma (Fig. 4a). Final cooling of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit to about 100 °C took place at *c.* 15 Ma. Simultaneously, the upper units seem to have undergone a phase of accelerated denudation at 17–11 Ma (Fig. 4b), as suggested by apatite fission-track analysis in rocks of the Uppermost unit and the slightly heated Pindos flysch (Thomson *et al.* 1998b). This implies a progressive increase in topography and relief of the belt during Middle Miocene times. Finally, the presence of pebbles derived from the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units, within the lower parts of the Neogene sedimentary succession in Crete which are dated by microfossils to the Middle–Late Miocene boundary (*c.* 11 Ma; Fortuin, 1978), indicate that rocks of the high-pressure units had reached the Earth's surface by that time.

## 3. Deformation history

Our structural survey in the area establishes the bulk geometry of the windows and unravels the successive deformation phases of the Cretan tectonic units. To better understand the deformation history, we mapped the southern part of the area at a 1:10 000 scale (Fig. 5),

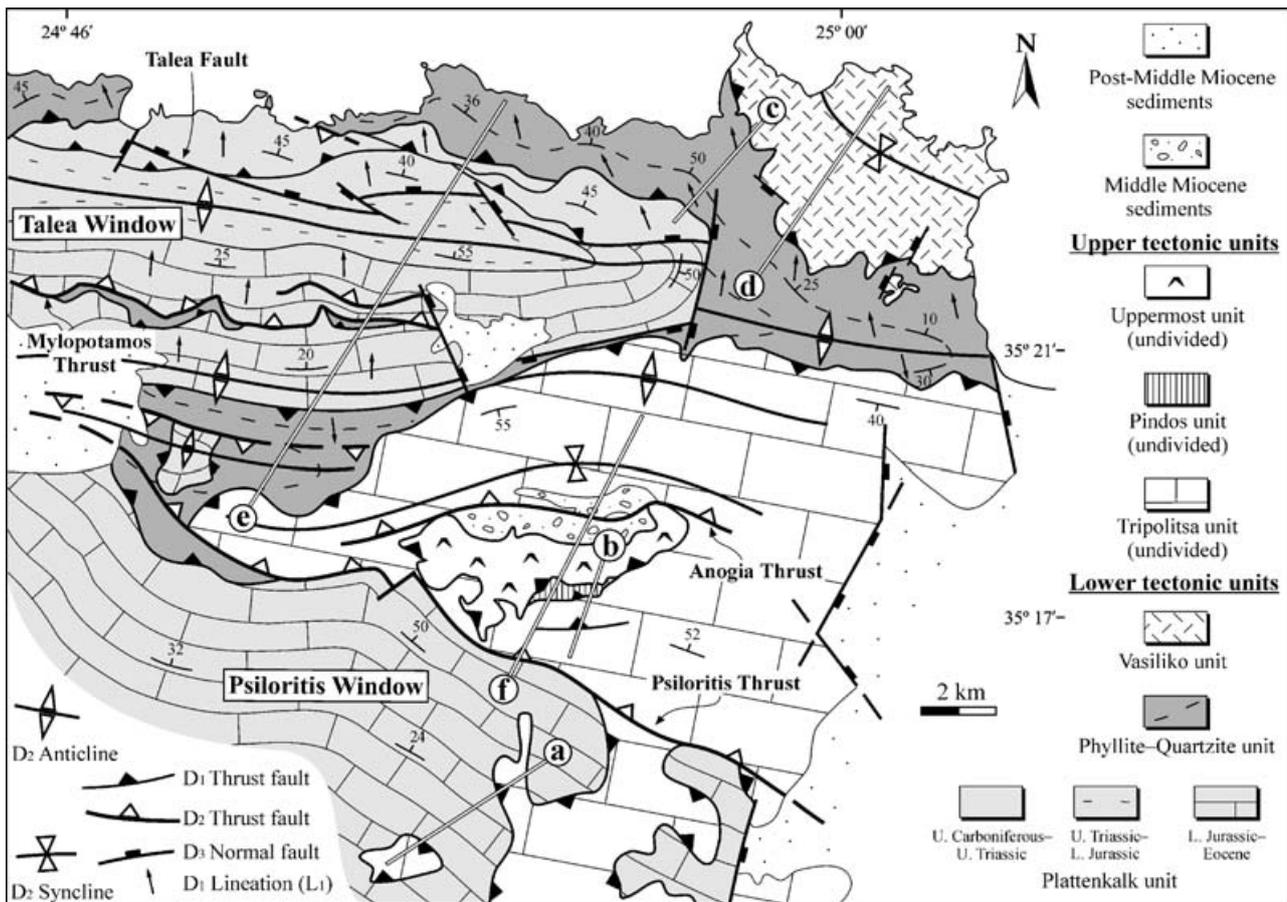


Figure 5. Structural map of the Talea Window and the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window. The location of the map is given in Figure 2b. Lettered sections a, b, c and d, e, f refer to the cross-sections in Figures 6 and 8, respectively.

augmented previous maps for the Talea Window (Epting, Kudrass & Schäfer, 1972; Hall & Audley-Charles, 1983) and carried out detailed structural analysis throughout the area. Previously, Creutzburg *et al.* (1977) mapped the entire area at a 1:200 000 scale. Based primarily on overprinting criteria observed in map to outcrop scales as well as on microstructural data, we have distinguished three principal deformation phases ( $D_1$ – $D_3$ ) to constrain the evolution of the thrust belt. The first phase ( $D_1$ ) involves brittle and ductile deformation in the upper and lower tectonic units, respectively. Low-angle  $D_1$  thrusting and related structures resulted in the formation of the Cretan nappe pile, including the juxtaposition of the upper with the lower tectonic units. The second semi-brittle to brittle phase ( $D_2$ ) is characterized by folds and thrusts, which have affected the whole nappe pile. The last phase ( $D_3$ ) is represented by moderate to steep normal faults.

### 3.a. Early contractional phase ( $D_1$ )

#### 3.a.1. Upper tectonic units

Although the main S-directed thrusting that caused the stacking of upper thrust sheets has not been

extensively described, there is no major controversy regarding this (e.g. Bonneau, 1984; Kiliyas, Fassoulas & Mountrakis, 1994; Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2004). Therefore, in the following we briefly summarize our findings related to the  $D_1$  structures. The whole sequence of the upper thrust sheets is exposed at the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window (Fig. 5). There, the thickness of the Pindos unit is small, and in places the Uppermost unit is directly emplaced over the rocks of the Tripolitsa unit (Fig. 5). All structural units are bounded by N-dipping bedding-parallel  $D_1$  thrusts (Fig. 6a, b). In the ophiolitic subunit, thrusting is accommodated by the formation of duplex structures on a decametre-scale (Fig. 7b). All the duplexes found are of hinterland-dipping type (e.g. McClay, 1992). Statistical analysis shows that the minor roof and floor thrusts intersect with the link thrusts in an ENE-trending line implying top-to-the-SSE thrusting (Fig. 6: IV). Deformation patterns within the mélange subunit and the Pindos unit are mainly characterized by asymmetric folds with roughly ENE-trending axes and N-dipping axial surfaces (Fig. 6: III and I, respectively). The intersection lineations of bedding planes and  $D_1$ -related cleavage in the Pindos unit trend parallel to the  $F_1$  fold axes (Fig. 6: II). The Tripolitsa unit is

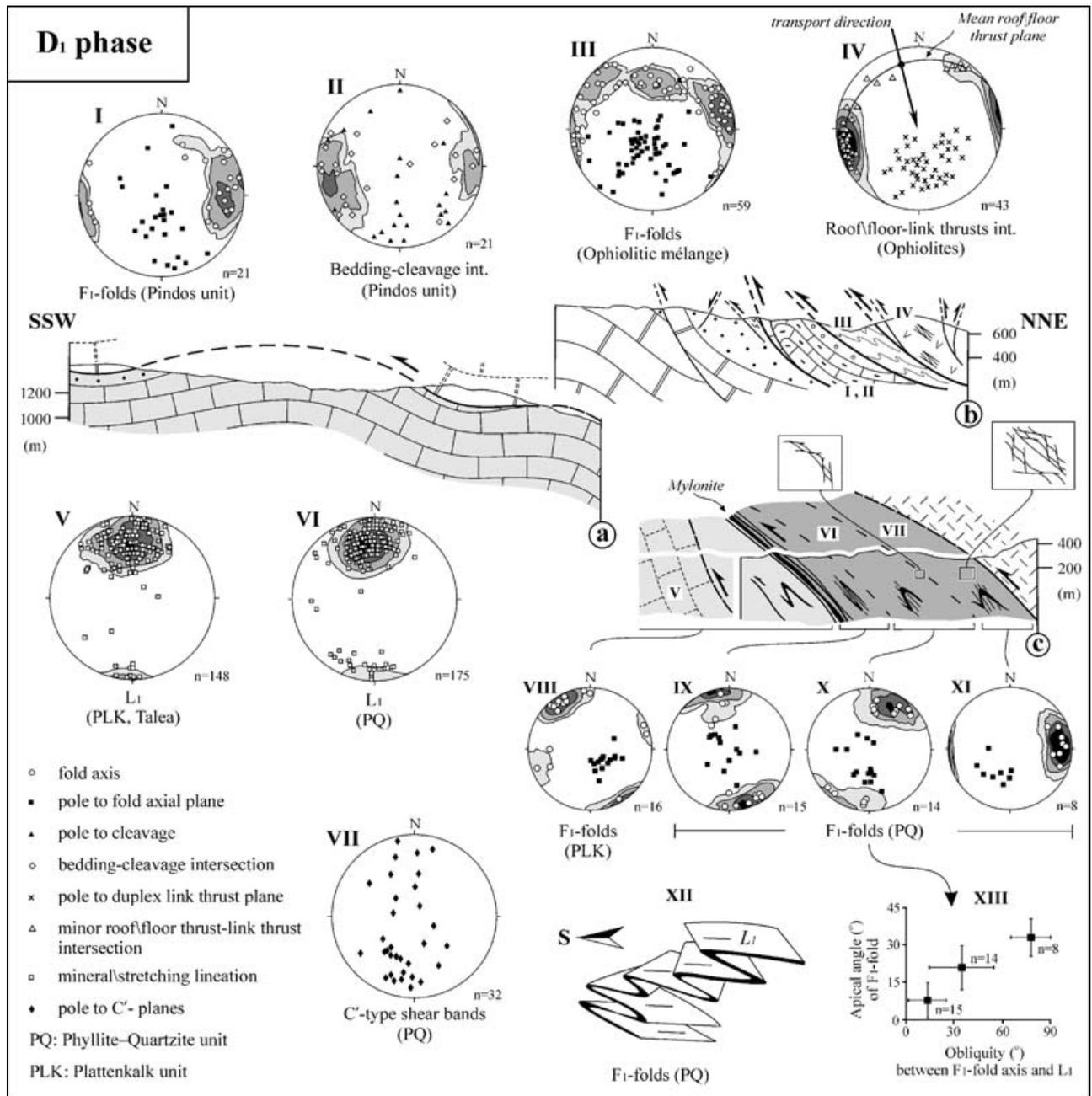


Figure 6. Cross-sections (a–c) and equal-area lower hemisphere projections (I–XI) for the D<sub>1</sub> phase of deformation. Ornaments as in Figure 3; locations of plots I–VII are shown on the cross-sections; locations of sections are shown in Figure 5. XII is a block sketch showing the rotation and tightening of F<sub>1</sub> folds towards the lower structural levels of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. Data from folds projected at IX, X and XI are used to construct the graph XIII, illustrating the variation in apical angles of F<sub>1</sub> folds v. obliquity between F<sub>1</sub> fold axes and stretching lineation. Black squares in the graph correspond to average values of each group of folds.

internally deformed by bedding-parallel thrust faults and small-scale duplex structures, all compatible with top-to-the-SSE sense of thrusting. As a whole, our structural analysis confirms the previously suggested roughly S-directed D<sub>1</sub> thrusting and specifies a NNW–SSE transport direction for the upper thrust sheets. A sporadically observed E-trending mineral lineation in amphibolites of the ophiolitic mélangé is defined by minerals related to Late Cretaceous high-grade metamorphism (Fig. 3; Kiliyas, Fassoulas &

Mountrakis, 1994) and is associated with a pre-Eocene deformation event. The tectonic significance of this event remains enigmatic.

### 3.a.2. Lower high-pressure tectonic units

The main ductile deformation (here D<sub>1</sub>) in the Phyllite–Quartzite unit is accompanied by a penetrative foliation (S<sub>1</sub>) which post-dates the main growth of high-pressure related minerals (Theye & Seidel, 1991). Relics of

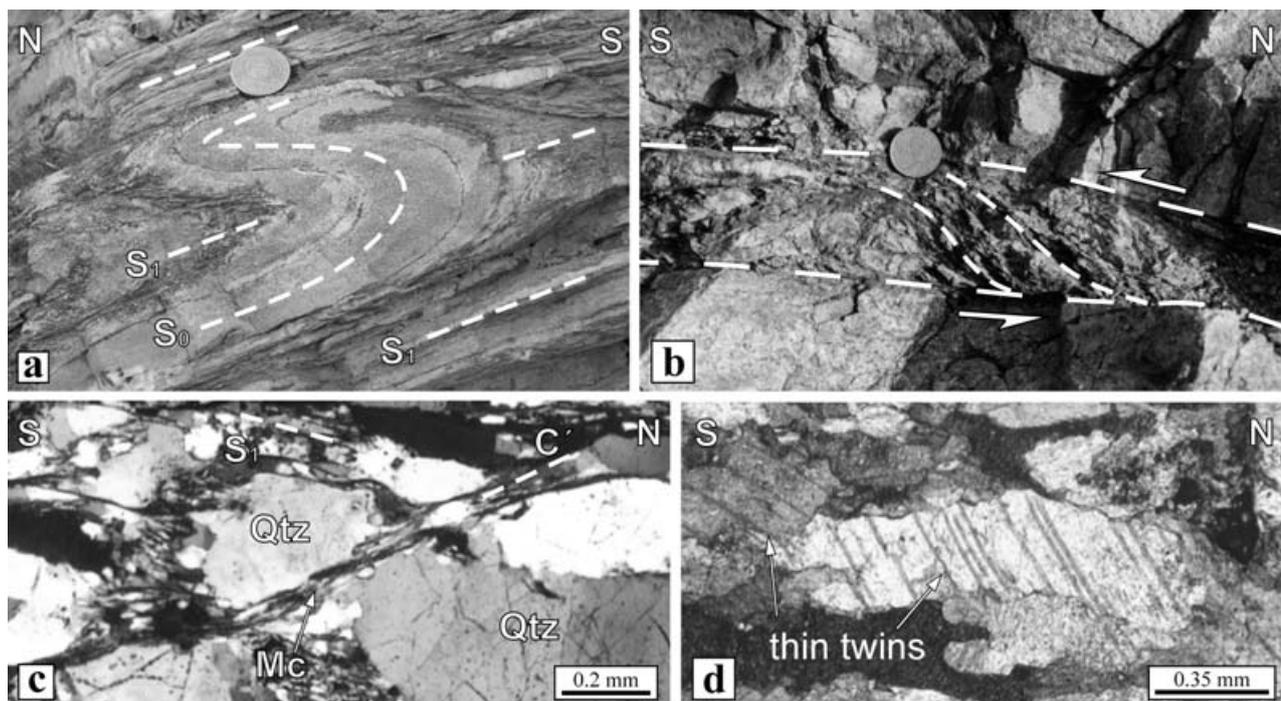


Figure 7. Mesoscopic and microscopic features of the  $D_1$  phase in the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units. (a) The main  $S_1$  foliation is axial planar to an  $F_1$  fold. The latter deforms  $S_0$  bedding of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit (coin diameter is 32 mm). (b) Duplex structures and duplex link thrusts in serpentinites of the Uppermost unit indicating top-to-the-S sense of shearing (coin diameter is 34 mm). (c) Micrograph (XPL) of  $C'$ -type shear band from a sample at the upper structural levels of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. White mica (Mc) is recrystallized along the  $C'$  surface; Qtz – quartz. (d) Micrograph (XPL) of twinned calcite grains of the Plattenkalk unit rocks in the Psiloritis Window. Thin and straight calcite twins imply low-temperature deformation.

a pre- $D_1$  deformation are found in the form of an internal planar foliation in porphyroclastic high-pressure related minerals (e.g. chloritoid). The  $S_1$  is by far the dominant structural feature observed in outcrop scale. It is typically defined by the shape-preferred orientation of mica and elongated quartz grains. Well-developed within the plane of  $S_1$  is a NNW-trending mineral/stretching and clast-elongation lineation ( $L_1$ ; Figs 5, 6: VI). The  $S_1$  is axial planar to isoclinal minor  $F_1$  folds. The  $F_1$  folds are commonly tight to isoclinal (Fig. 7a), almost recumbent in style, with curvilinear hinges and fold axes oblique to sub-parallel to the  $L_1$ . Structural mapping at the northern flank of the Talea Window showed that there is a progressive decrease in both the apical angle of  $F_1$  folds and the range of obliquity between fold axes and stretching lineation orientation towards the lower structural levels of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit (Fig. 6: IX to XIII). This finding is indicative of a progressive rotation of fold axes into the X-axis of finite strain (e.g. Alsop, 1992), resulting from an overall increase in strain magnitude as the contact between the Phyllite–Quartzite and the Plattenkalk units is approached. Asymmetrical  $F_1$  folds with axes at a high angle to  $L_1$  exhibit southward vergence, indicating thrusting of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit over the Plattenkalk unit. A similar top-to-the-SSE sense of movement is also confirmed by kinematic indicators

such as C/S fabrics and  $\sigma$ -shaped objects, found within a  $\sim 30$  m thick mylonitic zone developed at the contact between the Phyllite–Quartzite and the Plattenkalk units in the Talea Window. A system of top down-to-the-N and top down-to-the-S  $C'$ -type shear bands (Fig. 6: VII) also occurs sporadically throughout the Phyllite–Quartzite unit, but both appear to be more frequent at the upper structural levels of the unit (Fig. 6c: insets). The two sets exhibit similar structural styles and are interpreted to be contemporaneous, indicating a component of bulk pure shear deformation (e.g. Simpson & De Paor, 1993; Law, Searle & Simpson, 2004). The finding that fine-grained white mica recrystallizes along shear band surfaces (Fig. 7c) suggests that these structures are late  $D_1$  features.

The first deformational phase in the Plattenkalk unit produced a bedding-parallel metamorphic foliation ( $S_1$ ), which contains a roughly N-trending stretching lineation ( $L_1$ ; Figs 5, 6: V). The  $S_1$  fabric is defined by the dimensional alignment of calcite grains in marbles, the preferred orientation of platy minerals in pelitic intercalations and recrystallized quartz grains in nodules of metacherts. At the mesoscopic scale, carbonate rocks of the Plattenkalk unit are deformed by isoclinal intrafolial  $F_1$  folds with axes sub-parallel to  $L_1$  (Fig. 6: VIII). Ductile folding of the Plattenkalk unit is especially prominent in the 20–30 m thick marble mylonite, which occurs along the contact with

the overlying Phyllite–Quartzite unit. Moreover, it is important to note that  $D_1$  fabric elements and structures are conspicuous in the Talea Window but seem to decline or disappear in the southern part of the study area. Analyses of carbonate samples collected from the Plattenkalk unit in the Psiloritis Window show that calcite grains are largely deformed by straight type-I and/or type-II twins (Fig. 7d; see also Section 4.a), indicating a temperature below 300 °C (e.g. Burkhard, 1993). These observations imply that the metamorphism and intensity of  $D_1$  deformation in the Plattenkalk unit decrease southwards.

In agreement with previous interpretations for eastern Crete (e.g. Zulauf *et al.* 2002; Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2004) and the Peloponnese (Doutsos *et al.* 2000), we suggest that the above-described  $D_1$  ductile structures have been formed during the exhumation and emplacement of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit over the Plattenkalk unit. At the northern flank of the Talea Window the Phyllite–Quartzite unit is thrust over a tectonic slice, which is internally imbricated by ductile thrust faults (Figs 5, 6c). This slice consists of metamorphosed Carboniferous–Triassic carbonate and pelitic rocks (Figs 5, 6c), which are interpreted by many authors as the older part of the Plattenkalk unit (e.g. Epting, Kudrass & Schäfer, 1972; Krahl *et al.* 1988). They probably represent the lateral proximal equivalent of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit protolith. Alternatively, Hall & Audley-Charles (1983) interpreted this rock slice as part of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. In our view, these Plattenkalk unit rocks were stripped from their basement and thrust southward during the  $D_1$  phase (Fig. 6c). Further to the south the Phyllite–Quartzite unit overrides the upper parts of the Plattenkalk unit (Fig. 5).

### 3.a.3. Contact between upper and lower units

In the study area, the contact between upper and lower tectonic units is always marked by a 1–50 m thick cataclastic zone. This, in combination with the fact that thick cataclastic zones are associated with  $D_2$  thrusts (see below), possibly indicates that early juxtaposition of upper and lower units was followed by  $D_2$  movements in the brittle field, which reworked the contact.

### 3.b. Late contractional phase ( $D_2$ )

The second phase of deformation has produced well-developed structures that formed under semibrittle to brittle conditions. Meso- to map-scale folds and thrust faults, which trend roughly E–W to WNW–ESE and accommodate a top-to-the-SSW sense of shear, are the prominent  $D_2$  structural features (Fig. 5).

#### 3.b.1. Typical structural elements in meso-scale

All of the above-mentioned  $D_1$  fabric elements and structures in the Phyllite–Quartzite unit are overprinted

by NNE–SSW contraction-related structures ( $D_2$ ). Parallel or chevron to kink folds are the dominant  $D_2$  structures at outcrop scale occurring throughout the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. They are predominantly open to tight SSW-vergent folds, with moderately dipping axial planes, and ESE-trending sub-horizontal axes (Fig. 8: I, II). Parallel to the axial planes of  $F_2$  folds a widely spaced cleavage ( $S_2$ ) is locally developed (Fig. 9a). Corrosion of quartz and mica grains along axial planar cleavage surfaces indicates that dissolution–mass transfer processes played an important role in the formation of some  $F_2$  folds.

$D_2$  deformation in the Plattenkalk unit is mainly expressed by widespread folding ( $F_2$ ) of bedding-parallel foliation ( $S_1$ ), and a spaced cleavage ( $S_2$ ). Typically, the  $F_2$  folds are close to tight, strongly asymmetric parallel or chevron folds (Fig. 9e) with WNW-trending axes (Fig. 8: III, V) and generally exhibit vergence towards the SSW. They are associated with only limited development of an axial planar cleavage. The limbs of  $F_2$  folds generally maintain constant thickness and are commonly characterized by structural features (e.g. duplexes) indicating bedding-parallel movements compatible with a flexural-slip mechanism. The hinges of folds at Psiloritis are more angular than those observed northward at the Talea Window. Moreover, hinges and limbs of  $F_2$  folds are often cut by low-angle faults with top-to-the-S transport (Fig. 9d) that are compatible with  $R_1$ -Riedel and P shear surfaces commonly described in thrust zones (Woodward *et al.* 1988). This probably indicates that folds ‘locked up’ and then underwent additional S-directed shearing. The  $S_2$  cleavage is very widely spaced and developed by pressure solution with no evident associated growth of metamorphic minerals. It dips moderately–steeply to the NNE and occurs in two settings: (a) sporadically in the hinge regions and the limbs of tight  $F_2$  folds representing an axial planar cleavage and (b) in areas without any evident outcrop-scale  $F_2$  folds as a densely spaced NNE-dipping solution cleavage ( $S_{2A}$ ; Fig. 9b). In this case, the intersection lineations of  $S_1$  and  $S_{2A}$  (Fig. 8: IV, VI) trend parallel to the  $F_2$  fold axes. Also, a less densely spaced SSW-dipping solution cleavage is locally developed near backthrust faults ( $S_{2B}$ ; Fig. 9b).

Mesoscopic faulting and fracturing account for much of the  $D_2$ -related deformation within the upper tectonic units. However, the  $D_2$  structures can be distinguished with certainty from  $D_1$ -related structures only close to major map-scale thrust faults described below.

#### 3.b.2. Map-scale structures

Three major N- to NNE-dipping thrust faults (Psiloritis, Anogia and Mylopotamos thrusts; Figs 5, 8: d, e, f), which are associated with the formation of megafolds in their hanging-walls, represent the prominent second-phase structures at the map scale. These structures

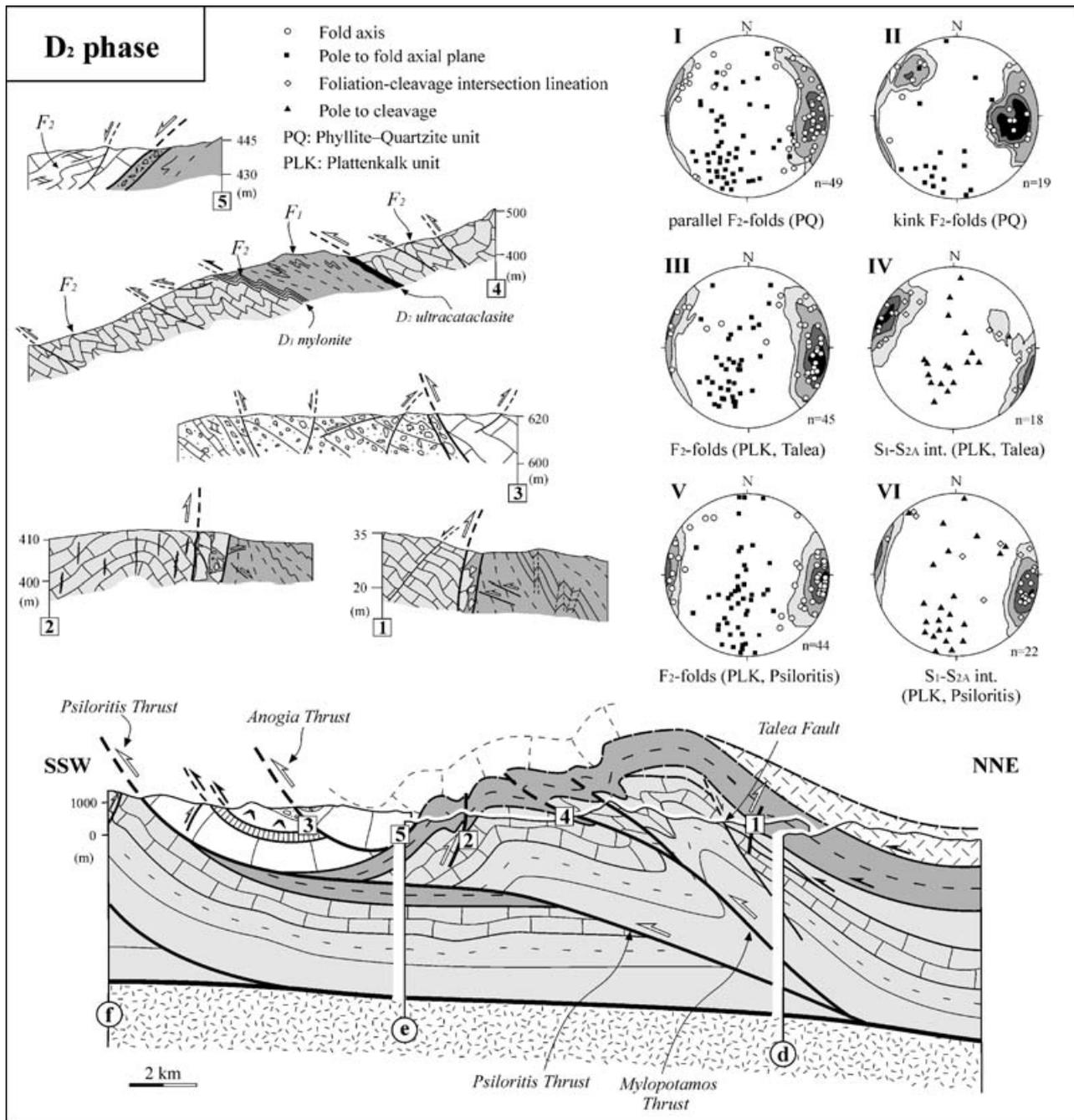


Figure 8. Cross-sections and equal-area lower hemisphere projections for the D<sub>2</sub> phase of deformation. For location of the composite section d–e–f, see Figure 5. Black arrows refer to D<sub>1</sub>-related thrusts, white to D<sub>2</sub>-related thrusts. Legend as in Figure 5.

affect the whole nappe pile in the area and deform the early map-scale thrusts (D<sub>1</sub>). Two SSW-dipping backthrusts are also recognized at the northern and southern flanks of the Talea Window, respectively (Figs 5, 8: 1, 2). The backthrusts are accompanied by brecciation and carry the carbonate rocks of the Plattenkalk unit above the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. Backthrusts causing smaller stratigraphic separation also occur throughout the area.

The Psiloritis Thrust is exposed at the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window and extends for at least 25 km along-strike (Fig. 5). As indicated in the map, it cross-

cuts the entire nappe pile, and its trace partially coincides with that inferred as an extensional detachment between lower and upper tectonic units (Fig. 5). In the central part of the thrust a 20–40 m thick cataclastic zone separates the Plattenkalk and the Tripolitsa units. In the footwall, the Plattenkalk unit is dramatically deformed by WNW-trending strongly asymmetric F<sub>2</sub> folds indicative of SSW-directed thrusting (Fig. 9d). In the hanging-wall, the Tripolitsa unit rocks are mainly deformed by a densely spaced, steeply dipping solution cleavage. In order to describe the subsurface structure of the Psiloritis Thrust, we extrapolated the first-order

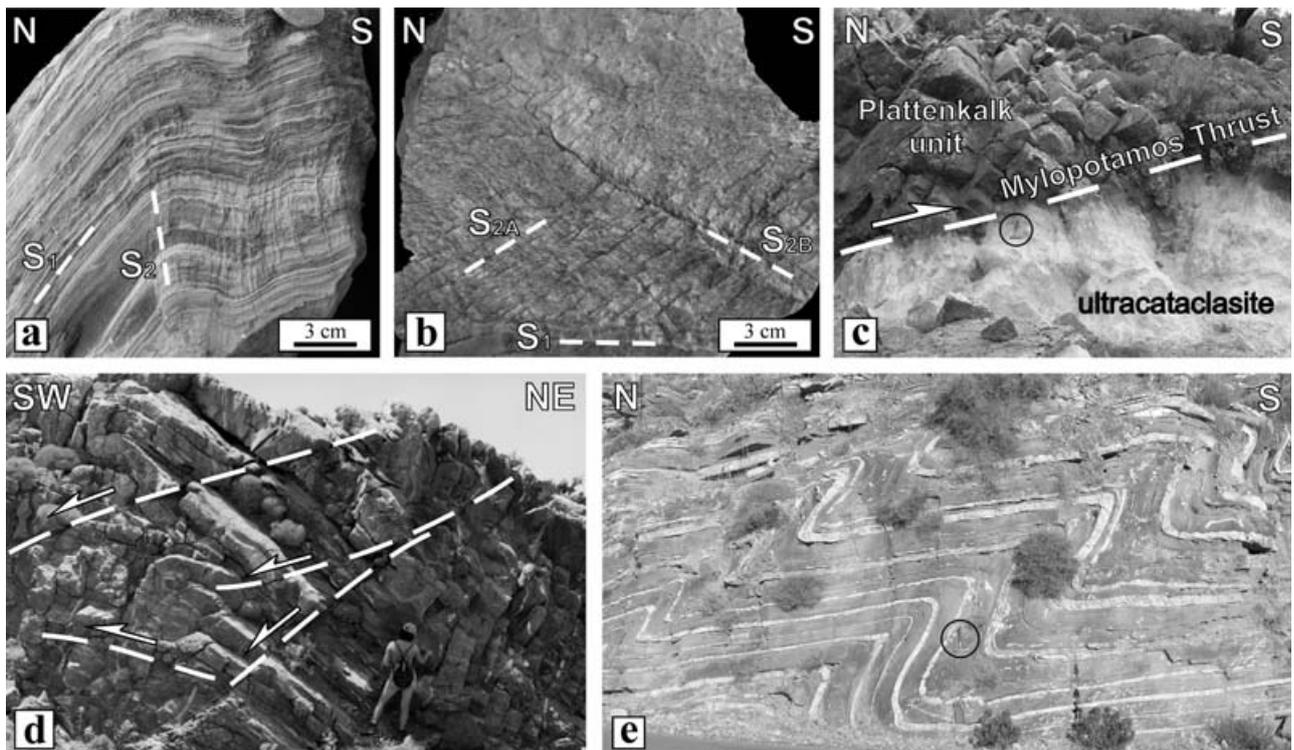


Figure 9. Mesoscopic and hand specimen features of the  $D_2$  phase in the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units. (a)  $F_2$  fold in the Phyllite–Quartzite unit with axial planar cleavage ( $S_2$ ), along which corrosion of quartz and mica grains occurred. (b) Marble specimen from the Plattenkalk unit, showing the existence of three planar fabrics.  $S_1$  is the bedding-parallel metamorphic foliation;  $S_{2A}$  is a spaced cleavage formed during the main top-to-the-S phase of  $D_2$  deformation and cross-cuts  $S_1$ ;  $S_{2B}$  formed during top-to-the-N backthrusting (late  $D_2$ ) and cross-cuts both  $S_1$  and  $S_{2A}$ . (c) Mesoscopic view of the Mylopotamos Thrust. Along the thrust surface, a 10 m thick ultracataclasite has formed (hammer length is 32 cm). (d, e) Mesoscopic photographs of  $F_2$  folds from the Plattenkalk unit in the Psiloritis and Talea windows, respectively (hammer length is 32 cm).

structures at depth following guidelines set out in Woodward, Boyer & Suppe (1989) for balanced cross-sections. As illustrated in Figure 8 (sections d, e, f) an upright, slightly asymmetric, S-verging anticline with high interlimb angle ( $\sim 120^\circ$ ) occupies the hanging-wall of the Psiloritis Thrust. The anticline is cored by the Plattenkalk unit rocks and is interpreted as a fault-bend fold overlying the crest of a footwall ramp through lower tectonic units. High-angle backthrusting at the forelimb of this hanging-wall anticline is also compatible with translation of strata and folding over a blind thrust with ramp-flat geometry (e.g. Dunne & Ferrill, 1988). The flat part is developed along the pre-existing contact between upper and lower tectonic units, reworking it. The thrust probably soles out into a bedding-parallel décollement horizon located at the base of the nappe pile at a depth of around 5–6 km. This interpretation is in accordance with geophysical data from central Crete (Bohnhoff *et al.* 2001) showing that the interface between Alpine and pre-Alpine basement rocks occurs at this depth.

The Anogia Thrust (Figs 5, 8) extends for at least 11 km along strike and transports the carbonate rocks of the Tripolitsa unit southward over 100 m thick terrigenous sediments of Middle Miocene age

(Serravallian: van Hinsbergen & Meulenkamp, 2006). The thrust fault zone is marked by 5–10 m thick cataclasites and limestone breccias. The Middle Miocene sediments fill a narrow basin (Fig. 5) and largely consist of matrix-supported conglomerates, sandstones and a thin marl horizon on top. Boulders of fault-derived breccias covered by marl layers were found close to the thrust, suggesting that the hanging-wall uplift took place during sedimentation. Intra-basinal deformation is mainly expressed with S- and N-directed reverse faults (Fig. 8: 3). Few asymmetric S-verging folds are identified within the upper marl horizon. We interpret the Anogia Thrust as an out-of-the-syncline thrust (in the sense of McClay, 1992) which was developed at the leading hanging-wall syncline of the Psiloritis Thrust (Fig. 8: d, e, f). It probably soles out at the base of upper tectonic units along the  $\sim 5$  m thick cataclastic zone defining the contact between the Tripolitsa and the Phyllite–Quartzite units. Above the cataclastic zone, the Tripolitsa unit rocks are deformed by recumbent folds ( $F_2$ ), which are genetically related to normal faults indicating S-directed sliding (Fig. 8: 5).

The Mylopotamos Thrust (also mapped by Hall & Audley-Charles, 1983) can be traced for about 10 km in the core of the Talea Window (Figs 5, 8). In the

hanging-wall of the Mylopotamos Thrust a minor thrust segment, which represents a splay of a larger structure and an ESE-trending map-scale anticline, were also mapped. The hanging-wall anticline is characterized by an overturned N-dipping forelimb and a moderately dipping backlimb showing clear S-vergence. The fault zone of the Mylopotamos Thrust consists of a 10 m thick ultracataclasite (Fig. 9c) along which the carbonate rocks of the Plattenkalk unit thrust over quartzites and phyllites of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. The zone of ultracataclasite is bounded by a broad zone where the rocks of both Plattenkalk and Phyllite–Quartzite units are dramatically deformed into tight to isoclinal S-verging  $F_2$  folds (Fig. 8: 4). Within this zone the forelimbs of folds are cut by several minor N-dipping thrusts, which are associated with brecciation and frequently disrupt the structure. Intense  $F_2$  folding has also affected the mylonitic zone defining the thrust contact ( $D_1$ ) between the Plattenkalk and the Phyllite–Quartzite units. The observed localization of  $F_2$  folds near the Mylopotamos Thrust and various minor thrust faults suggest a genetic link between faulting and fold development. However, faulting and cataclastic deformation probably began during the later stages of  $D_2$  folding. On the basis of this finding we interpret the whole structure in the core of the Talea Window as a complex thrust-propagation fold developed during the  $D_2$  phase. By analogy with other natural examples, we suggest that the sequential evolution of this structure probably involves blockage of fold growth and subsequent up-dip propagation of a thrust fault, which finally breaks through the fold and obscures the original shape (e.g. Suppe & Medwedeff, 1990; Erslev & Mayborn, 1997).

### 3.c. Extensional phase ( $D_3$ )

$D_3$  is an entirely brittle phase, associated with the formation of post-Middle Miocene basins. It includes two sets of high-angle normal faults, which strike WNW–ESE and NNE to NNW, respectively. The map pattern (Fig. 5) indicates that the second set is the latest. Both sets cross-cut the entire nappe pile and overprint all previous structures. As indicated in Figure 8, sections d and e, a major WNW-striking  $D_3$  fault (Talea Fault) cuts the northern limb of the anticline occupying the core of the Talea Window. Normal faults of the second set possibly have an oblique component of displacement that is indicated by the offset and curvature of older structures along these on the map view. A thorough description of this phase is given in Kokkalas & Doutsos (2001).

## 4. Stress analysis

Stress analysis was carried out to decipher further the complicated and controversial tectonic evolution of the contact between upper and lower nappes. We focus our

analysis mainly at the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window, where the contact partially coincides with the Psiloritis Thrust (Fig. 10). Calcite twinning analysis was performed in order to record the strain and derive the stress field. The latter was also derived from fault-slip data analyses.

### 4.a. Sampling and methods

Eight oriented samples of wackestone and packstone were collected from the Plattenkalk ( $n = 3$ ) and the Tripolitsa ( $n = 5$ ) units (Table 1) for calcite twinning analysis. Sampling was carried out along a  $\sim 10$  km long traverse running perpendicular to the mean structural trend. Six samples were situated near the Psiloritis Thrust and two were positioned in the hanging-wall block of the Anogia Thrust (Fig. 10). All samples were collected away from zones of intense local deformation (e.g. fold hinges), in order to reflect regional strain patterns. Calcite grains contain type-I and type-II twins (Burkhard, 1993) with widths ranging between 0.2 and 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , implying deformation temperature below 300 °C for both the Plattenkalk and the Tripolitsa units. Calcite twinning analysis involved (a) Turner's (1953) dynamic analysis which was used to obtain the orientations of principal stress axes and (b) Groshong's (1972) strain gauge technique for calculation of strain responsible for twinning. At least 25 grains from each of two mutually perpendicular thin-sections were measured. The resultant data were analysed using the calcite strain-gauge program of Evans & Groshong (1994), which calculates the complete stress/strain tensor. The program computes the positive (PEVs) and negative (NEVs) expected values for the analysed twins of a given sample. PEVs and NEVs represent grains that were favourably and unfavourably oriented for twinning in the determined stress field, respectively. Adopting Teufel (1980), PEVs and NEVs were analysed separately in order to test for discrete deformation events. Both analyses should yield percentages of newly calculated NEVs smaller than the threshold value of 15 % (according to Teufel, 1980) so as to accept their results as robust. In our samples, these percentages are satisfactorily low for the PEVs but they exceed the threshold value for the initial NEVs. Therefore, we accept as robust the results of the PEVs analyses only (Table 1).

Fault-slip data were selected from all structural units exposed near the Psiloritis Thrust as well as from Middle Miocene sediments (Fig. 10). Data correspond to measurements of striations and other sense-of-slip indicators on map to outcrop scale faults, determined using criteria summarized by Hancock (1985). In total, data for 85 faults were selected from six locations and were analysed using the Tensor program (Delvaux, 1993). Application of the optimization method provided by the program discarded around 30 % of the original dataset. The remaining data were

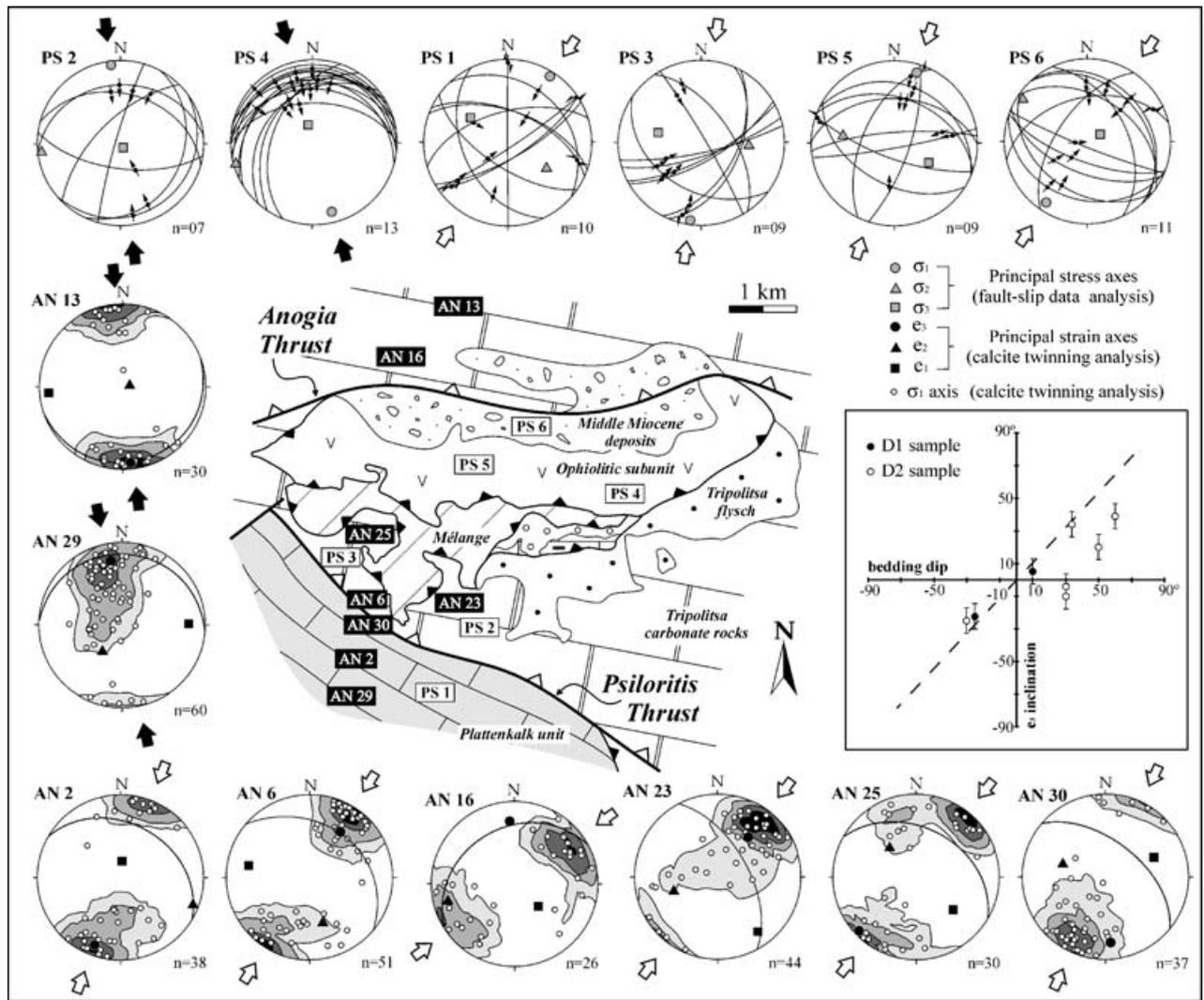


Figure 10. Lower hemisphere equal-area projections of calcite twinning and fault-slip data analysis results. In the stereoplots of fault-slip data results, only the data producing the best-fitting tensors are presented. Stereoplots of calcite twinning analysis contain the principal strain axes as well as contoured compressive stress axes calculated with Groshong's (1972) strain gauge technique. Sampling sites for calcite twinning analysis and sites of fault-slip data collection are plotted on the geological map from the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window. Black triangles on map refer to D<sub>1</sub>-related thrusts and white to D<sub>2</sub>-related thrusts. Ornaments as in Figure 3. Inset: maximum shortening (e<sub>3</sub>) axes dip v. bedding dip plot. Dashed line refers to values of equal e<sub>3</sub>-axes plunge and bedding dip while error bars are ± 8° (Groshong, Teufel & Gasteiger, 1984).

Table 1. Calcite twinning analysis results

Sample	Tectonic unit	PEVs		Strain orientations (percent elongation)			Stress		
		M/N	S.E.	e <sub>3</sub>	e <sub>2</sub>	e <sub>1</sub>	σ <sub>1</sub> (C)	σ <sub>3</sub> (T)	Bedding
AN 2	Plattenkalk	38/0	0.143	200/15 (-0.315)	109/04 (-0.044)	005/74 (0.359)	201/06	135/70	030/30
AN 6	Tripolitza	56/5	0.509	031/34 (-1.511)	161/43 (-0.039)	281/27 (1.550)	032/15	281/10	032/34
AN 13	Tripolitza	33/3	0.943	175/02 (-2.221)	069/83 (0.316)	265/07 (1.905)	176/06	330/80	160/10
AN 16	Tripolitza	30/4	0.998	355/25 (-2.928)	256/19 (0.398)	134/58 (2.530)	054/30	204/65	330/30
AN 23	Tripolitza	45/1	0.769	038/40 (-4.631)	253/44 (0.082)	144/19 (4.550)	027/12	154/55	062/60
AN 25	Tripolitza	31/1	0.811	225/04 (-2.188)	320/50 (0.095)	131/40 (2.093)	034/06	153/45	030/30
AN 29	Plattenkalk	68/8	0.746	358/22 (-1.772)	226/58 (-0.322)	097/21 (2.094)	348/30	133/45	011/25
AN 30	Plattenkalk	44/7	0.124	175/21 (-0.283)	288/45 (0.092)	069/37 (0.191)	205/18	040/75	045/50

PEVs—population of positive expected values obtained from the analysis of raw data; M—number of twin sets analysed; N—number of associated NEVs; S.E.—standard error; e<sub>3</sub>, e<sub>2</sub>, e<sub>1</sub>—orientations (azimuth and plunge) and percent elongations (negative values indicate shortening) of principal strain axes; σ<sub>1</sub>, σ<sub>3</sub>—orientations of Turner's (1953) dynamic analysis compression (C) and tension (T) stress axes, respectively.

Table 2. Palaeostress tensors from fault-slip data analysis

Site	Tectonic unit	n	$\sigma_1$	$\sigma_2$	$\sigma_3$	R	A	Stress regime
PS 1	Plattenkalk	10	033/01	123/44	303/46	0.1	7.5	Compressive
PS 2	Tripolitsa	07	354/04	264/03	141/85	0.35	7.3	Compressive
PS 3	Tripolitsa	09	188/05	092/43	283/46	0.58	6.7	Compressive
PS 4	Uppermost	13	165/15	255/01	348/73	0.9	5.3	Compressive
PS 5	Uppermost	09	018/12	279/38	122/49	0.02	5.7	Compressive
PS 6	Middle Miocene sediments	11	213/12	304/06	061/76	0.27	11.4	Compressive

n—number of fault data producing the best-fitting tensor;  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$ ,  $\sigma_3$ —orientations (azimuth/plunge) of principal stress axes; R—stress ratio  $(\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)/(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$ ; A—mean slip deviation ( $^\circ$ ).

used to estimate the best-fitting stress tensor for each location. Mean slip deviation (A) between observed and predicted slips on fault planes is satisfactorily low ( $\sim 5$ – $11^\circ$ ; Table 2) for all calculated stress tensors. The graphic  $P$ – $T$  axes (Turner, 1953) and the numerical dynamic analysis (Spang, 1972) methods, which were primarily proposed for calcite twinning analysis, were also applied to test the accuracy of our stress results. Basic assumptions and limitations of stress analysis, summarized by Angelier (1994), were also taken into account. The results obtained from fault-slip data analysis are listed in Table 2.

#### 4.b. Results

All analysed carbonate samples imply a consistent subhorizontal distribution of  $\sigma_1$  axes with no evidence of any tensional stress field (Fig. 10: AN 2 to AN 30). In addition, the  $\sigma_1$  axes distributions reveal the existence of two main compressional trends: NNW–SSE (AN 13, 29) and NNE–SSW (AN 2, 6, 16, 23, 25, 30) (Fig. 10). It is worth noting that both trends of compression are recorded in both the Plattenkalk and the Tripolitsa units. In the two samples that yield NNW–SSE compression, the axes of maximum shortening ( $e_3$ ) and compression ( $\sigma_1$ ) are parallel to each other and subparallel ( $< 20^\circ$  deviation) to bedding dip direction (Fig. 10: inset). This calcite twinning strain fabric has been interpreted (e.g. Craddock & van der Pluijm, 1999) as indicative of strain accommodation during early layer- and transport-parallel shortening. The six samples that record NNE–SSW compression are characterized by  $e_3$  axes that are either subhorizontal irrespective of bedding dip or consistently dip less than bedding (Fig. 10: inset). Adopting the interpretation of Harris & van der Pluijm (1998), we suggest that twinning deformation in these samples is syn- to post-folding.

Deformation at the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window is mainly accompanied by WNW-trending reverse faults as well as NNE-trending transfer faults (Fig. 10: PS 1 to PS 6). Fault-slip data analysis results reveal the existence of two compressive stress regimes: a NNW–SSE and a NNE–SSW compression. The former is recorded in two sites (PS 2, 4; Fig. 10) located in the upper tectonic units. The latter was specified

using data selected from both lower (PS 1) and upper (PS 3, 5) unit rocks as well as from sediments (PS 6) of the Middle Miocene basin bordered by the Anogia Thrust (Fig. 10).

#### 4.c. Synthesis

Results of both micro- and mesoscopic stress analyses at the northern flank of the Psiloritis Window are in very good agreement, recording two distinct compressional stress fields. The first field, which caused layer-parallel shortening in Cretan thrust sheets, trends parallel to both the  $L_1$  orientation within the high-pressure units and the  $D_1$  transport direction of upper units, and therefore it seems that is associated with the early deformation phase ( $D_1$ ). The  $D_2$  deformation as well as the Middle Miocene basin formation were possibly governed by the second stress field consistent with a regional compression in a NNE–SSW direction, trending normal to  $D_2$  structures. A similar compressional trend has been also identified for the formation of late-orogenic basins throughout Crete (e.g. Meulenkamp *et al.* 1988; Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2001). Moreover, the fact that calcite twinning analysis does not record any tensional stress field confirms our interpretation that the contact between the upper and lower units was formed by compressional movements rather than by syn- or post-orogenic extension.

#### 5. Discussion and conclusions

On the basis of kinematic and palaeostress analyses, this study distinguished two main compressional phases for the post-Eocene evolution of Cretan nappes, which resulted in the formation of NNW–SSE and NNE–SSW contraction-related structures. A third phase produced map-scale normal faults controlling the evolution of post-Middle Miocene basins of Crete. This extensional phase, which marks the onset of modern subduction of the Africa plate beneath the Aegean microplate, is extensively described in numerous studies (Doutsos & Kokkalas, 2001; Kokkalas *et al.* 2006 and references therein). In the following, we discuss the new data for the two compressional phases

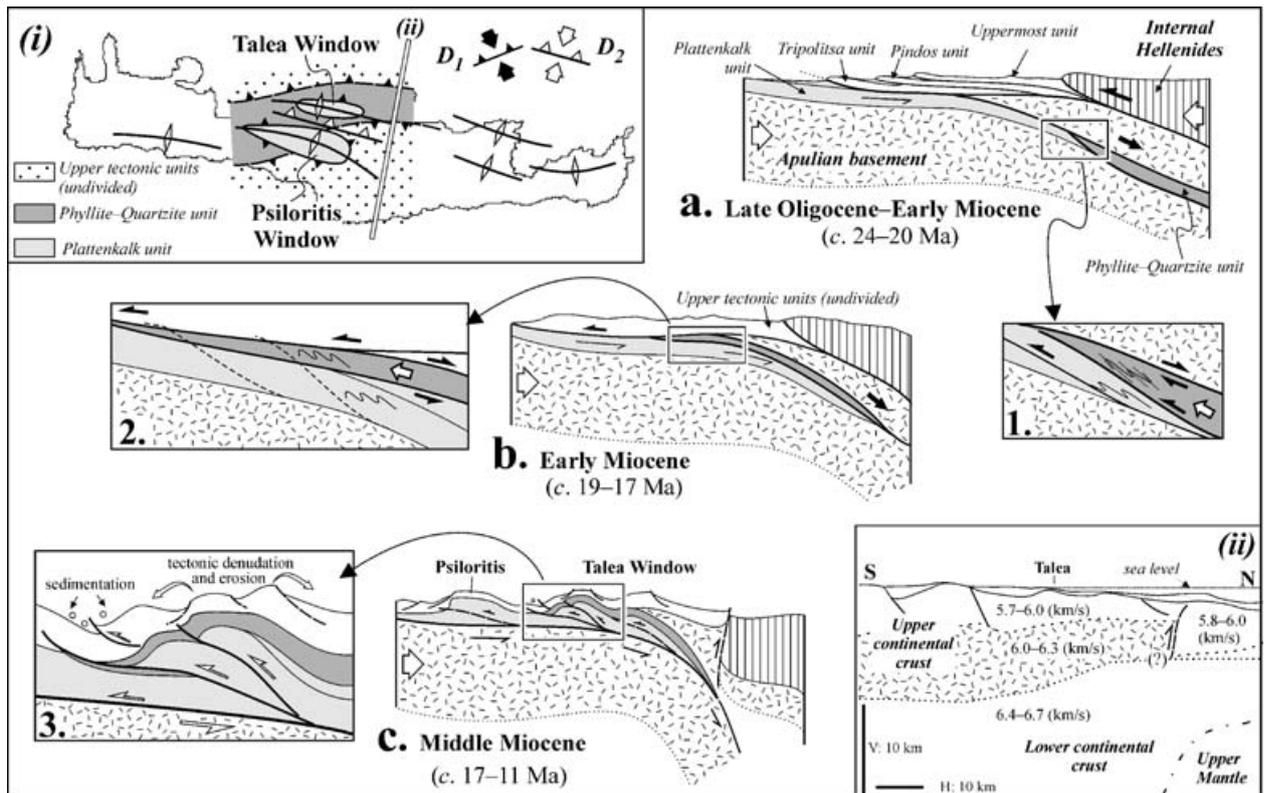


Figure 11. (a–c) Suggested geodynamic model for the orogenic evolution of central Crete along a cross-section through the Talea and Psiloritis windows. Inset (i) shows the two compressional phases controlling the post-Eocene evolution of Cretan thrust sheets as well as their associate map-scale structures. Inset (ii) shows a N-trending interpreted seismic profile across central Crete and the Cretan sea (after Bohnhoff *et al.* 2001). The steep S-dipping surface 20 km north of the Talea Window probably depicts the suture zone between the External and Internal Hellenides.

in the context of the orogenic evolution of the southern Hellenides.

### 5.a. Progressive underthrusting and nappe stacking

Collision of Apulia with the crust of the Internal Hellenides began in Eocene times, resulting in foreland-directed ‘in-sequence’ thrusting of upper tectonic units (e.g. Bonneau, 1984; Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2004). In the Early Oligocene, it seems that convergence continued further to the south along the boundary between the Tripolitsa unit and the Phyllite–Quartzite unit protolith. Therefore, the Phyllite–Quartzite unit protolith was underthrust below the Tripolitsa unit basement and was buried during Late Oligocene–Early Miocene times (c. 24 Ma) to a depth of 25–30 km, sufficient for high-pressure metamorphism at 8–10 kbar (Fig. 11a).

The exhumation of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit to a depth of ~10 km occurred between about 24 and 19 Ma (Thomson *et al.* 1998a). In the study area, this ductile stage of exhumation is recorded by a phase of penetrative deformation ( $D_1$ ). Structural observations for the spatial variation in the orientation of  $F_1$  fold axes indicate that the ductile deformation within the Phyllite–Quartzite unit was heterogeneous and

was characterized by down-section increase in strain. Moreover, the increasing frequency of conjugate  $C'$ -type shear bands (late  $D_1$  structures) towards the upper surface of the unit implies an up-section increase of the pure shear component during progressive deformation rather than a general upward decrease of the non-coaxial component. In the Peloponnese, a similar deformation pattern has been described for the Phyllite–Quartzite unit on the basis of finite strain and vorticity analyses (e.g. Xypolias & Koukouvelas, 2001; Xypolias & Kokkalas, 2006). This has been interpreted as indicative of a solid-state ductile extrusion process involving simple-shear-dominated deformation and superimposed pure shearing (see Escher & Beaumont, 1997; Xypolias, Kokkalas & Skourlis, 2003 for a similar case). By analogy, we interpret the Phyllite–Quartzite unit in central Crete as the rock body of a SSE-directed extruding shear zone. Therefore, it seems that at the Oligocene–Miocene boundary the Phyllite–Quartzite unit detached from its basement and started to extrude upward between a thrust fault at the base and the basement of the Tripolitsa unit at the top (Fig. 11: inset 1). Potentially, this tectonic extrusion process was connected with a slowdown of subduction that was probably caused by the progressive underthrusting (e.g. Ernst & Liou, 1995; Kurz, 2005)

of the less dense Plattenkalk unit and its buoyant substratum beneath the Phyllite–Quartzite unit. This underthrusting was responsible for the metamorphism and the ductile deformation of the Plattenkalk unit rocks occupying the core of the Talea Window. The relatively low deformation temperatures ( $T \leq 300^\circ\text{C}$ ) and the absence of strong evidence for ductile deformation at the Psiloritis Window imply that the external parts of the Plattenkalk unit did not enter the subduction channel (Fig. 11b).

The end effect of the proposed extrusion process, which should have been completed before 19 Ma, was the juxtaposition of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit with the overlying upper tectonic units along a normal fault (Fig. 11: inset 2). Results of our palaeostress analysis in the area show no evidence of any crustal-scale extensional detachment between upper and lower tectonic units of central Crete, as was previously suggested (e.g. Fassoulas, 1999). A similar conclusion has been recently drawn by Campbell, Craddock & Klein (2003), also on the basis of calcite twinning analysis. Thus, it seems that the upward escape of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit is responsible for the normal fault geometry rather than north–south extension. Consequently, we suggest that extrusion of the Phyllite–Quartzite unit occurred between a lower subduction-related thrust fault and an upper ‘normal fault’ that operated contemporaneously in a tectonic setting without any net extension of the overall system. A similar case has been described for the Himalayas (e.g. Grujic *et al.* 1996; Vannay & Grasemann, 2001) and the Alps (e.g. Escher & Beaumont, 1997; Bucher *et al.* 2003).

### 5.b. Eduction of nappe stack under continuous compression

After 19 Ma the whole nappe stack was affected by a phase of NNE-directed compression, which led to the formation of large-scale thrust fault-related folds and the updoming of the Talea Window (Fig. 11c). The antiformal structure of the Psiloritis Window (Fig. 11c), as well as the roughly E-trending map-scale folds recorded throughout the island of Crete (Fig. 11: i) probably formed during this phase. Restoration of a regional cross-section (Fig. 11: inset 2) shows that SSW-directed  $D_2$  thrusting caused an additional minimum 30% shortening of the pre-existing nappe pile. Deformation was also penetrative at the mesoscale and is clearly recorded in the calcite fabrics. Axial-planar solution cleavage of  $F_2$  folds indicates that early  $D_2$  deformation took place at temperatures and depths sufficient to allow dissolution–mass transfer (at least  $200^\circ\text{C}$  and 5–7 km; Holl & Anastasio, 1995). Progressive deformation produced major thrust faults accompanied by cataclastic zones, implying that unroofing of the lower high-pressure units may have resulted in decreasing temperature and confining pressure. This finding in combination with

the proposed  $P$ – $T$ – $t$  path (Fig. 4a) for the Phyllite–Quartzite unit implies that brittle-stage exhumation of lower units occurred under continuous compression, which began in the time interval between 19 and 15 Ma. Orogenic compression probably lasted until the Middle–Late Miocene boundary (*c.* 11 Ma), as indicated by thrusting of the Tripolitsa unit over Serravallian sediments, as well as by contractional structures within the Middle Miocene post-orogenic basins of eastern Crete and Kos (Postma & Drinia, 1993; Kokkalas & Doutsos, 2001, 2004).

This syn-compressional exhumation of the lower high-pressure units was also synchronous with the phase of accelerated denudation of the upper units at 17–11 Ma (Thomson *et al.* 1998b). Therefore, the updoming of windows was accompanied by a general uplift of the area, which, however, must be isostatically compensated. Potentially, additional low-density continental material might have entered into the subduction channel during the SSW-directed thrusting and decoupling of the Cretan nappes from the pre-Alpine basement (Fig. 11: inset 3). The resistance to further underthrusting probably acted to flex the subducted slab upward and to close the subduction channel (e.g. Beaumont *et al.* 1996). The limited volume of Middle Miocene sediments suggests that the denudation of the resulting supercritical wedge on top of the slab was primarily conducted by a tectonic rather than an erosional mechanism. Progressive uplift of the area also created a gravitational potential energy, which was possibly extracted by the formation of normal faults and genetically related recumbent folds (Fig. 8: 5) at the high-altitude areas (in the sense of Gamond, 1994). These findings enable us to assume that the brittle-stage of exhumation at 17–11 Ma was accompanied by gravity sliding of the upper units (Fig. 11: inset 3). Evidence of olistoliths on top of the Middle Miocene sedimentary sequence (e.g. Postma, Fortuin & Van Wamel, 1993) also corroborate a gravity sliding process in the upper units. The closure of the subduction channel probably resulted in retro-movements at the inner portions of the belt as also occurred in Peloponnese (Xypolias & Doutsos, 2000; Doutsos *et al.* 2000). We speculate that the S-dipping surface, depicted on a seismic profile 20 km north of the Talea Window, which apparently juxtaposes crustal basement rocks on top against lower-density rocks in the footwall (Fig. 11: ii) points to major backthrusting along the suture zone between the External and Internal Hellenides.

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