

# **Raman Spectroscopy: an effective thermal marker in low temperature carbonaceous fold-thrust belts**

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## **Abstract:**

Raman spectroscopy allows thermal maturation of carbonaceous sediments to be determined. The technique has been employed on metamorphic samples exceeding temperatures of 270 °C, but recently has been shown to be effective at lower temperatures. Thermal maturation techniques commonly depend on sample size, have varying efficacies at different temperatures and in different conditions. The underlying processes are not well understood, thus data interpretation can be ambiguous. Here we show the efficacy of Raman as a low temperature thermal marker in a thrust belt. The Bornes region, French subalpine chain provides an opportunity to test the technique against published vitrinite reflectance data and thermal modelling for the first time. In doing so we show that Raman is an effective thermal marker to temperatures as low as 75 °C, has a small error and is consistent with previous work. The Raman data allows us to postulate the relative thickness of the sedimentary succession across the chain, timing of thermal maturation and timing and thickness variations of the over-thrust Prealpine nappe. The work establishes Raman as a low temperature thermal marker for correlation with other techniques to ensure effective and robust interpretation, that can readily be applied to fold-thrust belts in hydrocarbon provinces.

## **Introduction**

Structural interpretations of foreland fold and thrust belts can be challenging. This is because they are commonly driven by limited information on subsurface structural geometry. Even in well-imaged examples, determinations of structural histories commonly rely on idealised and theoretical models of thrust belt evolution such as an assumed sequence of thrust sheet stacking (Butler et al, 2018; Balestra et al, 2019). However, determinations of the temperature histories of rocks in thrust systems can provide tests of structural evolution, and are of course critical for assessing hydrocarbon prospectivity. Although various low-temperature thermal markers are in use (e.g. illite crystallinity in mud-rocks, vitrinite reflectance on organic materials), these techniques are not in general use in thrust belt studies. Perhaps this reflects complexities in sampling, preparation and analytical methods. In contrast, Raman spectroscopy of organic material is a rapid, non-destructive and cost-efficient technique for establishing the peak temperature experienced by carbonaceous rocks to quantify peak

palaeotemperatures in the range of 200°C-400°C. While these applications are important, the temperature ranges exceed both those for hydrocarbon generation and for general conditions typical of foreland thrust belts. If Raman spectroscopy can be applied to lower temperatures it opens the door to the routine determination of thermal histories in foreland thrust belts. Therefore, our aim here is demonstrate the application of the Raman technique to temperatures that embrace the oil and gas generation windows and in doing so, establish the method as an ideal tool for understanding the thermal evolution of foreland fold and thrust belts.

Knowledge of the peak thermal maturity of sedimentary formations is critical to our understanding of the thermal alteration of organic matter as a result of burial due to folding and thrusting (Bustin, 1991; Echavarria et al. 2008; Aldega et al., 2014); hydrocarbon potential of local source rock intervals (Schito et al., 2017; Muirhead et al, 2017; Lupoi et al., 2018) and potential reservoir quality assessments. Calibrating thermal history in thrust systems is especially important, especially in establishing the temporal relationships between hydrocarbon maturation, charge and trap formation. While this information is important for de-risking hydrocarbon exploration, it also helps to constrain understanding of tectonic histories, by informing quantitative estimates of burial depths, their duration and in quantifying denudation processes.

Thermal maturity is commonly determined using multiple methods, allowing calibration between techniques, to constrain peak temperatures. Single technique use suffers from a range of issues. Vitrinite reflectance often quoted as the most robust thermal maturation marker technique can be affected by the organic facies, as well as temperature and pressure conditions (Schito et al. 2016). These issues lead to uncertainties in interpretation and associated thermal calibration. Many authors report  $R_o$  suppression or retardation, particularly at lower thermal maturities ( $R_o \leq 1.0\%$ ) (e.g. McTavish, 1978; Hutton and Cook, 1980; Li et al., 2004, Barker et al., 2007; Schito et al, 2016). Hackley et al. (2013) interpret this as the result of inclusion of solid bitumen in analysis as well as vitrinite. Hackley and Lewan (2018) go further and assert that known issues with vitrinite reflectance in pre-Palaeozoic sediments maybe the result of such mistaken identity. Irrespective of the cause, care in interpretation is often required and calibration against other techniques is an obvious test to ensure robust interpretation. For example Schito et al. (2016) show that smectite illitization is a more robust thermal marker in the Congo Basin than vitrinite reflectance due to the issues outlined. Establishing Raman spectroscopy as an alternative technique to corroborate, or otherwise, vitrinite reflectance data at low temperatures therefore has significant benefits for interpretation of thermal maturity, particularly for hydrocarbon generation.

We have chosen to apply Raman spectroscopy to samples collected from part the NW Subalpine thrust belt of France for the following reasons: the setting has already yielded palaeothermal estimates derived from traditional methods (e.g. vitrinite reflectance – Moss, 1992; Deville & Sassi, 2005); thrust structures and burial conditions are complex, thus providing a range of materials that experienced different thermal histories; there are existing 1D (Butler 1991) and 2D (Deville & Sassi 2005) thermal models for the stratigraphic and tectonic burial histories. Raman spectroscopy has already been used to develop thermal profiles in once-deeply buried parts of the Western Alps across exhumed sedimentary sequences, including through complex inverted basin systems (e.g. Bellahsen et al, 2014; Nibourel et al. 2018). These existing applications have addressed peak temperatures in the range of 280 °C to 400 °C , so, while demonstrating that the technique works – they do not inform those modelling petroleum systems or the evolution of the external Alpine thrust systems.

## Raman Spectroscopy of Carbonaceous Materials

Raman spectroscopy is based on the so called “Raman scattering” that is due to various elementary excitations where the energy is lost or gained during the scattering process. For this reason Raman spectra can be used as “fingerprint” for different materials. Analysis of the Raman spectra in carbonaceous material are used to derive the maximum temperature of a sample, up to 650°C (Beysac *et al.* 2002). Fossil carbonaceous materials within rocks undergo a complex series of reactions when thermally altered, which involve both the formation and reordering of aromatic sub-units towards stacked layers such as graphite. Raman spectroscopy has been widely used (Tuinstra & Koenig 1970; Landis 1971; Nemanich & Solin 1979; Knight & White 1989; Ferrari & Robertson 2001; Beysac *et al.* 2002) as a powerful, non-destructive tool for evaluating the characterisation and thermal alteration of diverse forms of carbonaceous matter (crystalline, nanocrystalline, amorphous). Measurement of spectroscopic parameters, are mainly based on two broad first order Raman bands (spectral peaks) at  $\sim 1585\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (the graphite peak, G) and  $\sim 1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (the disorder peak, D) (Fig. 1). These bands represent the inelastic scattering (Stokes Raman scattering) produced by electronic and photonic induced laser irradiation. Due to the physical properties of carbonaceous materials that are based on the hybridised atomic orbital configuration of carbon atoms (Robertson 1991), the shape and relative intensities of the D and G bands reflect the ratio of  $sp^2$  (graphite-like, trigonal planar symmetry) and  $sp^3$  (diamond-like, tetrahedral symmetry) carbon bonds (Robertson 1991). The G band is assigned to the in-plane vibration of the carbon atoms in the graphene sheets and the D band either by double resonant Raman scattering or has been related to the ring breathing vibration in the graphite sub-unit or polycyclic aromatic compounds (Negri *et al.*, 2002, 2004; Castiglioni *et al.*, 2004; Di Donato *et al.*, 2004; Lünsdorf, 2016)).

The  $\sim 1585\text{ cm}^{-1}$  graphite peak is a composite of several Raman bands at  $\sim 1615\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\sim 1598\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $\sim 1545\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (D2, G, D3 respectively) and is treated as one spectral peak in disordered materials until the band narrows, through increasing thermal alteration, to allow clear definition of the shouldered disorder peaks (Fig. 1). Peak deconvolution is performed on the composite G band, as it is not possible to separate the G and D2 bands in poorly organised carbon or low-grade rocks (Beysac *et al.* 2002; Brolly *et al.* 2016) such as those in this study. A number of Raman parameters have been developed over the past few decades that involve measurements made on Raman spectral peaks. Wopenka & Pasteris (1993) measured the position and width of the G peak at  $\sim 1585\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for a suite of metamorphic zones. Increased thermal maturation lead to the structural reordering of carbonaceous materials, with an increase in the proportion of aromatic carbon, in turn narrowing the G band and shifting it closer towards  $1615\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . If samples are graphitic, narrowing remains similar but with G peak position shifted downwards to  $\sim 1598\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . It is important to note that in amorphous carbon (*a*-C) initial development of a D band indicates ordering, whereas in graphitic carbon (*ta*-C), the presence of a D band indicates disorder, so Raman parameters must be interpreted with respect to any known information about the carbon feedstock (Ferrari & Robertson, 2001).

The D/G-peak ratios ( $I_D/I_G$  (Intensity [peak height]),  $A_D/A_G$  (Area)) (Fig. 1) decrease with significant thermal maturation and increased structural ordering (Yui *et al.* 1996; Bonal *et al.* 2006; Busemann *et al.* 2007; Quirico *et al.* 2009) Plotting of these two ratios can reveal differences in the thermal alteration of the carbonaceous materials (Pasteris & Wopenka, 1991; Jehlicka & Bény, 1992). Early stage thermal alteration can, however, raise the  $I_D/I_G$  parameter, particularly in relatively homogeneous samples (Rouzaud *et al.* 1983; Muirhead *et al.* 2012).

Correlations between Raman parameters and thermal maturity have been proposed from early maturation up to over-mature stages of hydrocarbon generation based on analyses performed on

coals (Quirico et al., 2005; Li, 2007; Marques et al., 2009; Guedes et al., 2010; 2012; Potgieter-Vermaak et al., 2001; Hinrichs et al., 2016; Lupoi et al., 2017), dispersed organic matter, Paleozoic organic matter and solid bitumen (Liu et al., 2012; Romero-Sarmiento et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2014; Lunsdorf, 2016; Mumm and Inan, 2016). These methods are applicable to samples that have attained temperatures greater than approximately 270°C (Wopenka & Pasteris, 1993; Beysaac *et al.*, 2002; Rahl *et al.*, 2005; Molli et al 2018). Robust correlations for low maturity, lower than 300°C, organic carbon have only recently been established (Wilkins et al. in 2014, Hinrichs et al., 2016; Schmidt et al., 2017; Lupoi et al., 2017; Schito et al., 2017; Muirhead et al, 2017; Schito and Corrado 2018; Muirhead et al., 2018; Henry et al 2018). Many authors have demonstrated that the position (Kelemen and Fang, 2001; Liu et al., 2012; Wilkins et al., 2014; 2017; Mum and Inan, 2016; Lupoi *et al.*, 2017) or the area/width ratios of the Raman D and G bands (Guedes *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Quirico et al., 2010; Hinrichs *et al.*, 2014; Lunsdorf, 2016; Muirhead *et al.*, 2017; Schito *et al.*, 2017; Schmidt *et al.*, 2017; Schito and Corrado, 2018; Muirhead et al, 2018) vary as a function of thermal maturity in the immature stages of hydrocarbon generation. There is agreement that the main changes in organic matter Raman spectra at low maturity exhibit a narrowing of the G band and an increase of the D band area with thermal maturity increase.

Several factors make Raman spectroscopy ideal for thermal maturation studies: the degree of order of carbonaceous materials is not affected by retrogression, can be applied to any carbonaceous materials and is not restricted to specific geological time periods (unlike vitrinite reflectance), has little limitation with respect to carbon sample size, even sedimentary rocks with very low 0.09 % total organic carbon concentrations are amenable to Raman spectroscopy (Muirhead et al. 2017), and finally it is also a non-destructive technique that benefits from relatively quick sample preparation and analysis times. Previous Raman spectroscopy studies on low temperature (< 300 °C) carbonaceous samples have focused on characterisation of organic matter in clastic sediments. Here we use these newly established correlations for Raman spectroscopy at low temperatures and apply them to carbonaceous sedimentary horizons in the Subalpine chain thrust stack, to test the efficacy of Raman spectroscopy at low temperatures (75-300°C) and to delineate burial induced thermal maturation. We validate our results against the existing vitrinite reflectance and thermal modelling work.

## **Geological context**

The French Subalpine chains are part of the External Western Alps and form a chain of fold-thrust structures that can be traced for over 200 km from the Swiss border in the NNE, to south of Grenoble in the SSW. The Subalpine chains are subdivided into constituent “massifs” that represent along-strike equivalence. From south to north these are: the Vercors, Chartreuse, Bauges and the Bornes-Aravis and Haute Giffre regions (Fig. 2). The regional structure varies along the system (Doudoux et al. 1982; Graitier 1989; Butler 1992; Deville & Sassi 2005). The thrusting direction was generally towards the WNW in this sector of the Alpine chain, with thrusts active in late Miocene times. Post to late-orogenic rebound has uplifted the thrust system through Plio-Quaternary time .

The Subalpine chains are chiefly composed of Mesozoic limestones and shales that accumulated on the edge of the Tethyan ocean and associated basins (as reviewed by de Graciansky et al. 2011). Their thickness varies regionally, generally increasing from West to East, reaching values of c. 5-6 km in the main depo-centres. Collectively these strata are organised into a mechanical multilayer within which a series of intervals of platform carbonates form competent layers. The youngest of these is the Urgonian limestone (Hauterivian-Barremian) but other important limestone packages underlie this unit. The Tithonian limestone – a regional marker bed indicative of especially high carbonate

production, is found throughout the region. It is generally interpreted to form the base of the “post-rift” mega-sequence (e.g. Lemoine et al. 1986). Post-rift subsidence in the Subalpine region is chiefly under-supplied by sediment so that most of the Cretaceous deposits are open-marine marls. However, carbonate platforms built into this accommodation space, advancing from the weakly subsiding European continent (now represented by the Jura hills). The Urgonian represents one of these platform developments.

The underlying Jurassic strata represent the syn-rift. In the eastern subalps these achieve thicknesses of >2 km and are chiefly open-marine marls and calc-turbidites. A few metres of Triassic strata represent the pre-rift sediments which lie unconformably on Palaeozoic basement (chiefly crystalline, but with local relicts of Carboniferous strata). The Triassic units include evaporites which form a regional detachment horizon that transferred Alpine displacements ahead of the chain and beneath the outlying Jura fold belt. The Subalpine chains represent an intermediate setting, between the Jura and the main Alpine mountains.

Overlying the Mesozoic rocks of the former Tethyan margin are a series of siliciclastics that represent the deposits of the ancestral Alpine foredeep (e.g. Sissingh 2001). A vestigial part of the foredeep constitutes the Annecy basin, preserved between the Subalps and Jura. The Miocene foredeep deposits are chiefly very shallow-marine sandstones which achieve thicknesses of about 2 km. Further east the ancestral foredeep fill is represented by Eo-Oligocene turbidites. These are best-preserved in the northern part of the NW subalps. Estimating a true stratigraphic thickness for these older foredeep strata is difficult because the succession is capped by far-travelled thrust sheets, now preserved in the so-called Prealpine klippen. The original extent of the Prealpine thrust sheet over the subalpine chains was inferred using branch line mapping by Butler (1989). In our study area, the frontal parts of the Bornes and Bauges massifs remain un-buried by the thrust sheet.

The complex structural arrangement of the northern part of the NW Subalps provides an ideal context for examining the thermal consequences of thrusting as a range of burial conditions can be explored from the system. Consequently our case study comes from the Subalpine chains around the city of Annecy, in the Bornes and Bauges regions. This site was examined by Butler (1991) in his study of tectonically-driven hydrocarbon maturation. Further context and geological notes are provided there. Subsequently, Moss (1992) measured vitrinite reflectance through the region. Further palaeo-thermal data, and thrust-thermal modelling is provided by Deville & Sassi (2005).

### Structural geometry

Two cross sections (Fig. 3) have been constructed through the Bornes and northern Bauges regions to illustrate the main structures in the area and the present day configuration of units. Both cross sections are oriented ESE-WNW (110-290°); this orientation is the average bedding dip direction within the study area, and depicts structural geometries in a plane parallel to the direction of compression. Section A-A' (Fig. 3) runs through the central Bornes and section B-B' (Fig. 3) runs through the southern Bornes and northern Bauges. Thrust sheets at the western ends of the cross sections contain relatively thin stratigraphy compared to the eastern ends, and are inferred to rest directly on top of the crystalline basement. In the central portion of the cross sections the thrust sheet is inferred to be elevated above regional by stacking on top of a lower thrust sheet (the Semnoz thrust sheet (S), Fig. 3). Folds in the central portion of the cross sections have tight geometries and thrusting within the thrust sheet is rare, rather deformation is accommodated by internal folding. Further east is the Thones depression; a region of low topography with limited folding in the Mesozoic succession (Fig. 3). At the eastern ends of the cross sections is the Araviz Ridge (AR, Fig. 3), comprising of west-dipping Mesozoic-Cenozoic units that are inferred to have been uplifted above their regionals by inversion of

a basement-involved fault beneath. On top of the Thones depression (TD, Figure 2) and Araviz Ridge is the Prealpine Nappe (Fig. 3), which is thought to have been emplaced from the east. The thickness and internal geometry of this nappe are poorly constrained so representation in the cross sections (figure 3) should be considered indicative, although the Raman spectroscopy data presented indicate both the presence of the nappe and thickening of it to the east.

## Methodology

### *Sample selection*

Representative samples from the Mesozoic- Cenozoic succession targeting limestones and shales from the Cenozoic (Oligocene, Eocene) and Mesozoic (Mid Jurassic – Bathonian-Callovian; Late Jurassic - Oxfordian, Kimmeridgian-Tithonian; Early Cretaceous - Berrasian-Valangiaian, Hauterivian, Barremian) were collected from 18 localities across the study area (Table 1; Fig. 2; Fig. 3). These sites were selected to give the best possible geographic coverage of the study area whilst sampling the main Veyrier Thrust panel. Samples were collected away from faults, thrusts or other phenomena that could have altered the organic materials. Organic materials within the samples were targeted for analysis. Data for cross-section construction was collected alongside the sampling with structural data collection focused on accessible transect lines. Field data were combined with data from the regional BRGM map sheets..

### *Total Organic Carbon (TOC) analysis*

Rock samples (~30g) were powdered and treated with hydrochloric acid (10 and 25% v/v) in order to remove any carbonate. The dried weight of the recovered material was recorded. The total organic carbon content was calculated using the method outlined by Gross (1971), where wt% C was measured with a Carbon-Sulfur analyzer (LECO CS225) at the University of Aberdeen.

### *Kerogen isolation and Raman spectrometry*

Further treatment of the carbonate-free residue with hydrofluoric acid (40% v/v) yielded a kerogen concentrate suitable for analysis by Raman spectrometry. Raman measurements were performed on a Renishaw inVia reflex Raman spectrometer at the University of Aberdeen. A Leica DMLM reflected light microscope was used to focus the Ar<sup>+</sup> green laser (wavelength 514.5 nm). The laser spot size was approximately 1-2 μm and laser power between 10-50% (<13 mW power at the sample). The scattered light was dispersed and recorded by means of a CCD (Charge Coupled Device) detector. Data were collected between 1100cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1700cm<sup>-1</sup> with a spectral resolution less than 3cm<sup>-1</sup>. The duration of accumulations was typically up to 10 seconds for between 3 and 5 accumulations.

The Renishaw WiRE 3.0 curve-fit software was used for spectral deconvolution. Smoothing and baseline extractions were performed on each sample, including a cubic spline interpolation. Each sample was deconvolved and data extracted at least three times to ensure reproducibility and the removal of any background signal. Peak position and peak full width at half maximum (FWHM) (Fig. 3) are measured in wavenumbers (cm<sup>-1</sup>), which records the change in vibrational frequency (stretching and breathing) of the Raman-active carbon molecules. Minimal spectral processing and deconvolution was applied to the measurement of peak areas, with composite G and D bands used to calculate  $I_D/I_G$  ratios as outlined in Muirhead et al., (2012; 2016). Prior to analysis of deconvolved spectra, an initial visual approach to spectral interpretation was adopted (Coates 2000; Henry et al 2018).

Peak temperatures were calculated from the parameters carried out from the peak fitting were used to calculate vitrinite reflectance equivalent and thus temperature (according to Barker and Pawlewicz's equation, 1986) using the multi-parametric equations proposed by Schito and Corrado (2018); equations and example calculation are shown in figure 1c. Calculated temperatures are rounded to the nearest 5°C and displayed in Table 1 and Figure 6. The automated deconvolution was performed using the *peakfit* programme modified after O'Haver (2015).

## Results

### *Data and key observations*

The results of the TOC and Raman spectroscopic analyses are given in Table 1. Representative stacked first order Raman spectra from across the region are displayed in Figure 4. There is a distinct narrowing of the G band and increase of the D band widths and intensity (height) (and thus increase of D band area) in the samples proceeding to the Southeast (e.g. from samples 1, 2, 7 to 8, 17, 9; see Figure 4). Raman data from across the region, plot adjacent to or within the kerogen field of Wopenka & Pasteris (1993), and well away from the graphite field (Figure 5, and inset). Deconvolved data for the samples studied exhibit a shift towards higher G band wavelengths (peak position: ( $W_G$  ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ))) and a reduction in G band full width at half maximum (FWHM) (Fig 5). This is consistent with an increase in thermal maturity in early stage alteration, i.e. prior to any graphitisation (Sandford *et al*, 2006; Muirhead *et al*, 2012; 2017). The lowest  $I_D/I_G$  ratio observed, 0.21, was within the most North-westerly samples (Table 1) compared to the highest  $I_D/I_G$  ratio of 0.66 from the most South-easterly samples. These parameters and ratios rise moving toward their maximum in the South-East (Table 1). Typically high maturity leads to a decrease in the  $I_D/I_G$  ratio, D band area and width and is indicative of an increase in thermal maturation and structural ordering (Yui *et al*, 1986; Busemann *et al*, 2007). However, early stage thermal alteration can raise these ratios (Rouzaud *et al*, 1983; Muirhead *et al*, 2012, 2017), as evidenced in the data presented here, with the South-easterly samples exhibiting, for example, a higher  $I_D/I_G$  ratio than in the Northwest. (Table 1). As expected, there is no consistent relationship between the Raman parameters and the abundance of carbon (%TOC) (Table 1).

### *Temperatures and structural position*

Temperatures calculated from the Raman data (Table 1) using vitrinite reflectance equivalence (see methodology; Fig. 1) are plotted on the two cross-sections that cut the study area (Figure 3). The results show, as expected, increasing thermal maturity and temperature from the foreland to the hinterland of the fold-thrust belt, west north west to east south east, with as predicted minimal fold-thrust related burial in the foreland and greater burial in the hinterland. At the front of the range to the north of Annecy the lowest temperatures (75 °C) are recorded, cross section A-A' figure 3, in Cenozoic sediments on the first fold-thrust pair to makes a surface expression. A lower thrust sheet, the Revard thrust, is predicted from emergent frontal structures to the south, that plunge northwards, but here this structure is draped by the overlying Cenozoic stratigraphy. Sediments lower in the stratigraphic succession (Berrasian-Valanginian, Hauterivian), that crop out along the section line to the east south east record calculated temperatures of 90-100 °C respectively. In the Thones Depression, the Cenozoic strata temperatures here are 115 °C, increasing to 125 °C. In sediments from the deepest part of the stratigraphy sampled, the Mid-Late Jurassic strata at the west north west end of the section (A'), below the pre-alpine nappe and above a possible basement inversion, temperatures are predicted to be 300 °C.

In section B-B' (figure 3), approximately 15 km to the south similar trends are seen. In this section temperatures from the very frontal structures have not been sampled, but samples from the equivalent position and in the Veyrier thrust sheet as in section A-A' give similar temperatures of 100-120 °C. At the west north west end of the section the Mid-Late Jurassic beneath the pre-alpine nappe is again sampled. Calculated temperatures are 260 °C, 40 °C lower than those in the same position to the north. It is postulated that this temperature difference is due to the pre-alpine nappe tapering out to the South resulting in a thinner sequence of Triassic-Oligocene units, over thrusting the Mesozoic strata.

### *Technique Validation*

In order to compare our data to the work of others we plot it spatially located on the geological map alongside the previous work of Moss (1992) and Deville & Sassi (2006) for the same area (Figure 6). In doing so we aim to verify the application of Raman spectroscopy to low temperature (75 -300 °C) thermal maturity studies in carbonaceous materials; and to prove its efficacy as a thermal marker that in turn can be used to validate other thermal maturity techniques currently used in both basin and fold-thrust belt burial studies. Figure 6 shows data from this study and the actual data from Moss (1992) and Deville & Sassi (2006), alongside their putative oil window and over mature zones. There is agreement across the region with respect to increasing temperature from the foreland to the hinterland between the Raman data, this study, and the vitrinite reflectance (%Ro) data from previous work. Although, not shown in figure 6 these data also correspond to the %Ro contours derived by the early work of Kübler (1979). Overall, the data matches exceptionally well with temperature differences of <5 °C in many places, on adjacent samples analysed by different authors. Two samples by Moss (1992) show variation in the Oligocene, Cenozoic sediments. A sample with a 0.54 %Ro and a calculated temperature of 86 °C, appears low compared to surrounding temperatures in the same Cenozoic strata of 116 °C and 115 °C. The second sample, also from Oligocene strata with a 0.75 %Ro sits underneath the mapped Prealpine klippe, with a calculated temperature of 112°C. These variations suggest differences in the role and thickness of the overthrust strata of the Prealpine klippe across the Cenozoic succession. This is discussed in more detail below.

### **Discussion**

The data presented in this study shows a systematic trend of increasing thermal maturity (maximum temperature) from lower temperatures in the north west, at the front of the fold-thrust belt to higher temperatures in the south east. The temperatures derived from the Raman spectroscopic analysis are consistent along the section lines (c. 40 km), with adjacent samples showing the same, or similar temperature calculations; and conform to the general trend of temperature increase to the east south east. This is mirrored in the adjacent sections A-A' and B-B', separated by c. 15km of fold-thrust belt, with consistent trends and temperatures in the sampled lithologies and thrust sheets across this distance, which can be correlated to structural position. We interpret consistent, but small increases in temperature within the Veriyer thrust sheet, in both cross-sections A-A' and B-B' over a distance of approximately 2 km, as resulting from thickening of the stratigraphic sequence during deposition in fault bounded basins (Leimone et al. 1986) with a depo-centre towards the east south east. The subtle but consistent changes in calculated temperature suggest that there is enough precision in the Raman spectroscopy technique and associated temperature conversion to identify temperature differences in the order of 5-10°C. Analytical errors associated with the temperatures calculated from the Raman data (range from  $\pm 5^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $\pm 20^{\circ}\text{C}$  for individual samples, see Table 1) are consistent, or an

improvement upon, other palaeotemperature techniques. The Raman spectroscopy data shows both consistency and precision in predicting thermal maturity and temperature.

#### *Implications for structural geometry and evolution*

Our data suggest that the thickness of Mesozoic, Cenozoic and Miocene strata deposited in basins deepening to the east was enough to expose the Mesozoic and Cenozoic strata to temperatures above 90°C and into thermal maturity, exceeding the oil-in window during basin formation (Figure 6). Temperatures calculated from the Raman analysis fall within the range proposed by (Kübler, 1991) and predicted from burial modelling (Butler, 1991), and from previous calculations based on vitrinite reflectance data and modelling (Moss, 1992; Deville and Sassi 2006). The observed temperature changes are predicted by the 1D modelling of Butler (1991) and are consistent with the vitrinite reflectance data of Moss (1992) and Deville and Sassi (2005). Although outwith the scope of this study, these data could be incorporated into new and more robust basin models for fold-thrust belts.

#### *Extent of the Prealpine nappe*

Given the mapped extent of the Prealpine nappe klippe (Figure 2) we know that samples 7 and 8 (Figure 3) of the Cenozoic strata, most likely lie beneath the nappe. These samples give maximum temperatures of 115 and 125°C respectively. One sample from Moss (1992) also samples the Cenozoic-Oligocene strata from beneath the Prealpine nappe at its eastern side, and gives a temperature of 112 °C (Figure 6). The same temperature, of 112 °C from Oligocene strata at the western side of the nappe is obtained by both Moss (1992) and Deville and Sassi (2006), and similarly slightly further north in the same strata and at the western side of the mapped outcrop of the Prealpine nappe they both report %Ro values equating to a temperature of 116 °C (Figure 6). Together, these data suggest a thin slice of nappe covers the sedimentary succession in this area, thickening slightly to the north, but consistent in thickness from NW-SE where it is mapped as a klippe. Our data suggests a maximum Cenozoic temperature of 100 °C in front of the prealpine nappe so the thickness of the Prealpine nappe here must be in the order of 0.5 km thickening northwards to upto 1 km to obtain temperatures of 125 °C in the Cenozoic sediments to the north (Figure 7). If the temperature of 86 °C in Cenozoic strata from Moss (1992) just to the north and west of the klippe (see Figure 6) is correct then the nappe must be interpreted as not extending over the Cenozoic strata here. So the klippe, more or less, represents the westward extent of the nappe, as predicted by Butler (1989).

#### *Thickness of the Prealpine nappe*

To the east of the Aravis Ridge a temperature increase is seen in the interpreted Raman data (Figure 6). The temperature change over a horizontal distance of <10 km from 125 °C in Cenozoic sediments to 300 °C in Mid-Late Jurassic, Mesozoic sediments. If a thermal gradient of 28 °C km<sup>-1</sup> is assumed and considered typical of this setting (after Butler, 1991) this would equate to 10-11 km of sediment thickness on top of the Mid-Late Jurassic strata. The sediments that record a maximum temperature of 300 °C, and those recording a temperature of 260 °C to the south, sit above the triangle zone (Figure 3, at the eastern end of the cross-sections), in which a basement wedge and potential back-thrusts are interpreted as lifting the stratigraphy above regional. But why such a dramatic increase in temperature? Two models are potentially viable. The first one in which the basement wedge is an inverted normal fault, i.e. a significant basin bounding fault off-setting basement in the Mid-Late Jurassic that allowed for thickening of the stratigraphy, not shown in the cross-sections in figure 2 and hard to accommodate with the known surface geology, which supports only gradual thickening of the known stratigraphic succession to the South east. The alternative is thickening of the Prealpine nappe.

Our only other data point from the Mid-Late Jurassic sequence below the Tithonian in front of the predicted Prealpine nappe gives a maximum temperature of 120 °C, this suggests a thickening of the Prealpine nappe to 5 km in the southern Bornes and upto 6.4 km c. 10 km north (Figure 7). Our data suggests that the Prealpine nappe thickens eastwards by 4.5 -5.4 km over a horizontal distance of 10 km, from the klippe (where we predict a thickness of 0.5 km). We assume this thickening is accommodated by internal folding and thrusting in the nappe. Other authors come to similar conclusions with Butler (1991) modelling 4-4.5 km of load and Moss (1992) suggesting a Prealpine nappe upto 5 km thick in the Bornes area.

#### *Raman spectroscopy of carbon at low temperatures*

The Raman data follows a similar pattern to that presented by other authors for low temperature carbonaceous material. An increase in G band wavelength, D band intensity and D band area with increase in G band position in this study are consistent with other works on low maturity carbonaceous materials (Rouzaud *et al.*, 1983; Sandford *et al.*, 2006; Guedes *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Quirico *et al.*, 2010; Muirhead *et al.*, 2012; Hinrichs *et al.*, 2014; Lünsdorf, 2016; Muirhead *et al.*, 2017; Schito *et al.*, 2017; Schmidt *et al.*, 2017; Schito and Corrado, 2018; Muirhead *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, transition towards higher maturity materials exhibits a narrowing of the G band width, decrease in G band position and decrease in D band area, consistent with work from Yui *et al.* (1986); Wopenka & Pasteris (1993); Beyssac *et al.* (2002); Busemann *et al.* (2007); Lahfid *et al.* (2010); Rahl *et al.* (2015). This consistency adds weight to the argument for use of Raman spectroscopy as a thermal marker at low temperatures, as well as in the transition to low temperature metamorphism. Further we have tested the Raman spectroscopy against existing vitrinite reflectance data to corroborate interpretation of the Raman spectra, and to demonstrate the efficacy of Raman spectroscopy as a thermal marker.

The Raman data presented here is the first account of low temperature Raman spectra of carbonaceous materials being applied to fold and thrust belts. The data corroborate previous work and indeed allow us to view for the first time, Raman as an integrated and valuable tool for evaluating the thermal evolution of organic matter in many geological settings, least of which is the application from low maturity through to higher grade metamorphic assemblages. We have shown how Raman spectroscopy of carbon to low temperature materials can be used to support and interpret fold and thrust processes and their resultant thermal loads.

## **Conclusions**

Raman spectroscopy was successfully applied to a suite of samples across the northern part of the French Sub-Alpine chain. Our results show, that:

- (I) Thermal predictions from Raman can be cross-tied, and are in agreement with, vitrinite reflectance data from previous authors.
- (II) NW Subalpine chains record significant variations in peak temperatures, ranging from 75 - 300 °C.
- (III) The outlying (western parts of the thrust belt likely achieved peak temperatures during burial beneath the accumulated foredeep sediments. In contrast, the more internal (eastern) parts of the subalpine chain achieved high peak temperatures because of the emplacement of the Prealpine thrust sheets. In both settings, peak temperatures were achieved before the development of the local fold-thrust structures that host our sample-sites.

- (IV) Raman is a relatively quick and effective tool for analysing lithologies with geological temperatures less than 300°C and can be particularly suitable to easily define the maturity stages of hydrocarbon generation.

Our application of Raman to the French subalpine chain allows us to open up further studies on not only fold and thrust belts, but anywhere we can see the value of extending our thermal alteration models to the early stages of thermal alteration, particularly where other techniques may not be suitable, or need to be corroborated.

This study demonstrates that Raman spectroscopy of organic material is a powerful tool for establishing peak palaeo-temperatures under the conditions appropriate for foreland fold and thrust belts and for hydrocarbon generation. As the technique is non-destructive, requires very small samples and is relatively simple to apply, it deserves to become a routine method to test models of structural evolution in thrust belts and for calibrating models of hydrocarbon generation in sedimentary basins.

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**Figure Captions:**

**Figure 1.** Summary of Raman spectral features and indicative workflow. **A:** Indicative Raman spectra from disordered carbon (top) to graphite (bottom), peak names and ratios. **B:** Evolution of Raman spectra from low maturity to high metamorphic grade with indicative temperature ranges (after Beyssac et al, 2002; Lahfid et al, 2010 and Schito et al, 2017). **C:** Example calculation from a sample in this study to generate final temperature (after Schito et al, 2017; 2018).

**Figure 2:** (a) Location of the study area; (b) Simplified structural map of the north-western Alpine foreland fold and thrust belt (modified after Butler (1991)); (c) Simplified geological map of the study area with location of cross sections (Fig. 2). A: Annecy; F: Faverges; LC: La Clusaz; T: Thones; R: Revard Thrust; V: Veyrier Thrust; S: Semnoz Thrust sheet; TD: Thones Depression; PA: Prealpine Nappe

**Figure 3.** Cross sections through the central Bornes (A-A') and southern Bornes-northern Bauges (B-B') showing the structural geometries of the Mesozoic-Cenozoic succession. Key structures are labelled as follows: V: Veyrier Thrust; R: Revard Thrust; S: Semnoz thrust sheet; TD: Thones depression; AR: Araviz Ridge, an indicative prealpine nappe is also shown. Projected sample locations used for Raman Spectroscopy analysis are in blue, with calculated temperatures in red.

**Figure 4.** Representative stacked first order Raman spectra from across the study area.

**Figure 5.** Raman cross-plot of FWHM-G ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and G band position ( $W_G$ ,  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) for all samples in this study. All data plot adjacent to the kerogen field after Wopenka & Pasteris, (1993) (inset).

**Figure 6.** Geological map of study area with calculated Raman temperatures in red. Further temperatures are calculated from the %Ro data from Moss (1992) (black boxes and black temperatures) and Deville & Sassi (2006) (blue boxes and blue temperatures). Dashed black lines delineate the locations of the putative oil window and overmature zones after Moss (1992) and Deville and Sassi (2006). A: Annecy; F: Faverges; LC: La Clusaz; T: Thones; R: Revard Thrust; V: Veyrier Thrust; S: Semnoz Thrust sheet; TD: Thones Depression; PA: Prealpine Nappe.

**Figure 7.** Summary diagram showing the relationship between basin sedimentation and stratigraphic thickness, the timing and thickness of the prealpine nappe, and temperature and thermal maturation. Stratigraphic colours follow previous figures. The figure includes data from Moss (1992) on predicted sedimentary thicknesses for the Bornes area. Vertical scale (right handside – km) refers to the predicted thickness of the prealpine nappe along section lines A-A' and B-B' (see Figure 1 for locations).

**Table 1.** Samples by locality with indicative stratigraphy and deconvolved Raman data.

Sample No.	Stratigraphy	G FWHM	G Peak Position ( $W_G(\text{cm}^{-1})$ )	$I_D/I_G$	TOC (%)	Temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	$\pm$
1	Oligocene	79.91	1590.64	0.21	3.36	75	10
2	Eocene	60.70	1600.03	0.38	0.19	75	10
3	Barremian	60.44	1594.95	0.56	0.06	90	10
4	Hauterivian	54.84	1597.01	0.41	0.30	90	10
5	Val-Be	51.89	1600.35	0.35	0.14	120	8
6	Barremian	65.65	1595.44	0.30	0.03	90	10
7	Oligocene	52.88	1600.96	0.31	0.45	115	9
8	Eocene	50.74	1601.43	0.28	0.15	125	12
9	Oxfordian	44.45	1602.39	0.66	0.34	300	18
10	Cal-Bat	44.46	1603.03	0.62	0.54	300	20
11	Eocene	75.86	1594.07	0.36	0.05	100	12
12	Tit-Kimm	55.04	1599.96	0.36	0.08	115	5
13	Tit-Kimm	56.77	1601.07	0.31	0.08	115	5
14	Hauterivian	47.50	1602.48	0.34	0.23	115	8
15	Val-Be	47.01	1600.09	0.27	0.90	120	5
16	Tit-Kimm	54.92	1599.59	0.32	0.09	120	5
17	Oxfordian	41.14	1603.55	0.44	0.09	260	20
18	Cal-Bat	44.01	1602.75	0.55	0.19	260	15