Allochthony of the Chartreuse Subalpine massif: explosion-seismology constraints

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Abstract—The deep structure of the Chartreuse Subalpine massif has been investigated with explosion-seismology techniques involving several longitudinal and fan profiles. The main results obtained suggest evidence of a refraction level at shallow depth (2 km) and three deep-seated reflectors (4.5, 8 and 10 km). The shallow level could be the Urgonian limestone slab; the three deep reflectors could be associated with autochthonous and parautochthonous pre-Triassic basements. The discussion of these results mainly concerns the tectonic significance of the shallow, unambiguous refractor: detailed balanced cross-sections of the massif request the presence of a new major overthrust in the sedimentary filling of the Subalpine chains. With an extent of at least 15 km, it opens up wide possibilities for oil traps in the Tertiary molasse underneath.

INTRODUCTION

Most geologists are well aware of the extensive use of vertical-reflection seismsics to detail the structure of sediments and to map the crystalline basement. The success of the method is to shade off the contribution of explosion seismology, where shots are observed by autonomous stations at distances of a few tens of km. Such seismological data on the deep structure of sediments are uncommon, more so in zones of complex tectonics. Those zones expose surface outcrops where the tectonic evolution is often not clear-cut, which may lead to different interpretations. Being key zones for structural geologists, they were obvious sites for making balanced cross-sections, even if the information which could be integrated was mainly superficial.

The Alpine foreland (Fig. 1), richly described by surface observations, can be considered such a key zone, but with very poor structural constraints at depth. This paper shows kinds of data which can be derived by explosion seismology in such a complex zone, where other information is absent. In the vicinity of the external crystalline massifs (ECMs), the position of the pre-Triassic basement is far from clear, data being scarce and their interpretation ambiguous. Available isobath maps, for instance the ones compiled by Ryback et al. (1978) for the Swiss part and by Ménard (1980) for the French part, postulate the overthrust of the Belledonne, Aiguilles Rouges and Aar ECMs towards the NW. The thrust plane, dipping towards the inner Alpine arc, implies the existence of a great peri-Alpine trough, a subsiding zone produced by the bending of the European plate (Karner & Watts 1983, Mugnier & Ménard 1986, Mugnier & Violon 1986).

This hypothetical overthrust was taken into account when interpreting the ALP75 explosion-seismology experiment, where about 200 stations were deployed along an 850 km long profile following the axis of the Alps (Alpine Explosion Seismology Group 1976). The western segment of this lithospheric profile extended from the Bauges Subalpine massif to the Aiguilles Rouges ECM. Its record section displayed very clear high-energy late arrivals; this phase was even the most prominent one in the 30–40 km range (Thouvenot & Perrier 1981). These energetic onsets were interpreted as reflections from the basement, indicating a very thick sedimentary trough bottoming at 10 km under the Lake of Annecy depression. Structural cross-sections of the Helvetic and Dauphinois zones now take this postulated trough into account, even if there is a clear lack of data about its exact shape.

The ECORS-CROP vertical-reflection seismic line across the Jura and the Alps should soon provide new data concerning the deep structure of the northern Subalpine chains in the Bornes area. To complement this action, farther south, we chose the Chartreuse massif as a test site for our explosion-seismology experiment. Specifically aimed at revealing the deep structure, this experiment is part of a broad research programme including the study of the deep structure of the Vercors massif (Arpin et al. 1988) and the Provence chains (Biberson 1988); any additional seismic information for the Subalpine chains is believed to be another geometric constraint when testing new, comprehensive, orogenic models.

THE EXPERIMENT

The use of Chartreuse as a test site was dictated by its situation near the central part of Belledonne. If we assume that the Alpine foreland tectonics developed as a result of the ECM crustal overthrust towards the NW (Ménard 1979), we can expect the basement as well as intrasedimentary discontinuities to dip towards the SE or NW, with a uniform N-S strike. Moreover Chartreuse
is easy to reach, at least along its eastern flank—Balcon de Chartreuse—and along its central syncline. Finally, we derived benefit from the relative narrowness of the Sillon Alpin between northern Chartreuse and Belledonne: the Isère valley, with its thick Quaternary sedimentation, is seismically very noisy and it proved sensible to reduce, as far as possible, the number of seismic stations on the alluvia.

The field layout (Fig. 2) consisted of two longitudinal and two fan profiles with a unique shot-point located at La Thuile in the south of the Bauges massif, on the other side of the Chambéry cross-valley. Boreholes for the 300 kg shot were drilled into marly-calcareous formations. The two 30-km-long profiles LE and LW run through a variety of series from the Bathonian to the Senonian. Fan profile F₂ reaches the Rameau Externe of Belledonne on the eastern bank of Isère. The Liassic and Jurassic cover of Belledonne was sampled meanwhile between the river and the crystalline outcrop. Except for one station installed on micaschists, the same kind of marly-calcareous sediment was found at every recording-point.

We used 30 stations of the deep-seismic-sounding type: 2 Hz three-component geophones, window-triggered FM magnetic recording, off-line digitization and processing. The failure rate—disability of the automatic equipments to record the shot correctly—reached as high as 20%. This resulted in gaps in the profiles where, unfortunately, the lack of data is severely felt. The mean altitude of the stations (855 m) is used as the datum plane to which the computed depths are referred.

**SEISMIC RESULTS**

*In-line profiling*

The two longitudinal record-sections are presented in Figs. 3 and 4 with the shot-point being set on the right-hand side of the section. In-line profiles are thus looked at from the SE. A reduction velocity of 6 km s⁻¹ is used for the display.

Because the shot-point and the nearest station were situated on a plateau overlooking the Chambéry cross-valley, topographic effects prevented the direct wave d, which propagates through Neocomian marly-calcareous formations, from being observed farther on. Its mean velocity of 4.5 km s⁻¹ was consequently ill-constrained.
A refracted wave \( r \) can be followed in first arrival on both profiles from 12 km onwards; this head wave has a velocity of \( \approx 5.3 \) km s\(^{-1}\). Such high velocities were previously measured for the Mesozoic sediments in the Bauges and Aravis Subalpine massifs, where Thouvenot & Perrier (1981) found a mean value of 5.4 km s\(^{-1}\). Vercors Urgonian limestone slabs, when sounded with a seismic-hammer method, also yielded very high velocities, up to 5.7 km s\(^{-1}\) (Thouvenot 1981). This refractor is interpreted as a compact and homogeneous limestone horizon at a mean depth of 2 km referred to the datum plane.

In Figs. 3 and 4, the first arrivals corresponding to the \( r \) refractor are often very faint, as frequently happens with a head wave. For instance, station 07 in Fig. 3 shows such a poor onset, even if a careful close-up removes the ambiguity. In such profiles, the correlation of late arrivals is even more confusing. The reason is three-fold: (i) only eight stations could be deployed along each line, which is obviously inadequate; (ii) we were interested here in relatively shallow discontinuities, whereas the mean frequency of the signals (\( \approx 20 \) Hz) provided a resolution of 250 m (this meant that we were unable to separate the seismic effects of two close-set disconti-
nities); (iii) finally, we were aware that the heterogeneity of the Alpine foreland did not bode well for observing clear correlations of late arrivals.

Even if energetic wave trains are obvious on the record-sections, there are of course many different ways to correlate them, especially when a phase can only be followed sporadically, due to the poor coverage of the observation array. However, our correlations are constrained by the fact that reflected wave travel-time curves cannot have any position in the record-section (Sheriff & Geldart 1982). (This is quite different from what happens with vertical-reflection seisms where a stacked section shows many different reflectors with different dips at different places.) Moreover, as the seismic stations were equipped with three-component geophones, vertical-displacement record-sections were complemented here with horizontal-displacement record-sections. Fan profiles (see next section) were helpful too, because one had to correlate on the longitudinal record-sections phases which had to be apparent on the fan record-sections, and vice versa. Altogether, this correlation step can be considered a jigsaw puzzle where different pieces could only be assembled in a given way and where a propagation of the constraints—in the sense of artificial intelligence (Winston 1981)—had to be taken into account.

Using the assumption that a reflection will produce either an energetic wave train or at least an alteration of the preceding wave train, three reflected waves have been correlated on both profiles. Reflection $R_1$ comes first. Observed in the 10–30 km range, it provides very consistent values for depth (4.5 km) and surface-to-reflector velocity ($\approx 4.8 \text{ km s}^{-1}$). Reflection $R_2$ is observed at distances greater than 15 km. The surface-to-reflector mean velocity is slightly different—5.2 km s$^{-1}$ for LE, 5.1 km s$^{-1}$ for LW—which provides two different depths: 8.5 and 7.5 km, respectively. Although these results show a dip of the reflector to the SE, as could be expected from the tectonics, the poor constraint we have on velocities does not allow a decisive answer. Finally, reflection $R_3$ slightly increases the mean velocity value: 5.25 km s$^{-1}$ for LE and 5.2 km s$^{-1}$ for LW. Again, this makes the reflector slightly deeper under the eastern profile (11 km) than under the western profile (10 km).

**Fan-shooting**

Two fan profiles recorded the shot at constant distances of 12 km for $F_1$ and 18 km for $F_2$. These values were chosen to benefit from the theoretical maximum of amplitude reached by critical reflections (Sheriff & Geldart 1982), from interfaces in the 4–8 km depth range. In the Alps, this kind of fan-shooting has already proved successful for deep reflectors (ECORS-CROP Deep Seismic Sounding Group 1989a, b). In the present case, both fans are beyond the cross-over distance for the 2 km deep refractions, so that the first arrival corresponds to a wave refracted from this level.

A common feature of the fan-shooting results (Figs. 5–7) is the azimuthal scale: as seen from the shot-point, each station is in a given azimuth and the seismic trace is consequently plotted on the record-section. Actually, this azimuthal scale is reversed, because we found it more convenient to have a view from the SW. This means that the record-sections are along NW–SE transverse lines and, as we also reversed the time scale, they

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**Fig. 5.** Record-section along fan $F_1$ mean offset 12 km, with a reduction velocity of 5.5 km s$^{-1}$. Azimuths are plotted horizontally and the time scale is reversed, which provides a NW–SE cross-section. The refracted wave and reflection $R_1$ both exhibit strong variations corresponding to level differences reaching 2 km. Reflection $R_2$ can be estimated at about 1.5 s in reduced time; the $R_3$ reflector is too deep to allow any observation along this close-offset fan.
can be looked at as cross-sections of northern Chartreuse. Figures 5 and 6 show these cross-sections for fans $F_1$ and $F_2$, respectively. Here a reduction velocity of 5.5 km s$^{-1}$ is used to prevent unavoidable deviations from the theoretically constant shot-point-to-station distance (subsequently called offset) spoiling the reflector alignments. This value of 5.5 km s$^{-1}$ is actually the mean apparent velocity value for the reflections we are interested in. Figure 7 shows the same data for fan $F_2$ plotted in the depth domain instead of the time domain, which provides a more readily usable cross-section. The mean velocity above the reflectors (normal move-out velocity) is 5.0 km s$^{-1}$. However this, of course, would make the depth scale slightly inaccurate at very shallow depth—which explains why Fig. 7 is restricted to the 5–15 km depth range only.

Fan $F_1$ (Fig. 5) shows time variations in the first onset (refracted wave). Station 20 is, for instance, 0.3 s earlier than station 22. Shifting to the depth domain, this implies the refractor to be very shallow in the western part and deeper in the eastern part (depth computations are given later). Because the structures were sampled too loosely, it is difficult to decide whether this refraction level is continuous with a top around station 20 or if there is a fault between station 20 and station 12. The geometric and tectonic implications of such a feature are particularly important. A similar time-offset is also observed for reflection $R_1$. The reflection level rises gently towards the west in the central part of the section, at depths ranging from 5.4 to 5.0 km; then, it is shifted upwards on the westernmost traces to reach a top depth of 3 km. It can be seen from the in-line displays (Figs. 3 and 4) that reflection $R_2$, because of its depth of 7 km, cannot be traced reliably for small offsets (the smaller the incidence angle on the reflector, the more difficult the reflection will be to detect). Fan $F_1$, with its offset of 12 km, is hence a priori not adapted to observe this reflection, let alone reflection $R_3$ which is even deeper. However, the westernmost traces of fan $F_1$ (Fig. 5) show that, even if we are unable to clearly discern reflector $R_2$, an obvious energy arrival can be observed in the corresponding depth range (~7 km).

Fan $F_2$ (Fig. 6) shows another clear variation in arrival times for the refraction onset and for reflection $R_1$. The top position is shifted to the east, between stations 25
Fig. 8. Four NW-SE cross-sections of northern Chartreuse (see map, Fig. 10), with the surface geology and the position of the refraction and reflection levels: r, r' = refractions; R1, R2 and R3 = deep reflections; LE and LW = intersection of the cross-section with in-line profiles LE and LW. (For each shot-point-station couple, the reflection point was plotted at mid-distance on a map, then projected onto the closest cross-section; the same projection technique was applied to refracted waves.) 1 = Tertiary molasse; 2 = Urgonian limestone; 3 = Tithonian limestone; 4 = Terres Noires; 5 = pre-Triassic basement. (The surface geology for the Chartreuse part of the three lower sections is largely inspired by Gidon 1985.)

Fig. 9. Deep structure of northern Chartreuse along the four cross-sections of Fig. 8, integrating the deep seismic sounding results. \(\Phi_E\), \(\Phi_M\), and \(f_i\) = overthrusts and strike-slip fault (see map, Fig. 10; and see Fig. 8 caption for a full description of the geological units). Note: (i) the large extent of the median overthrust \(\Phi_M\), connected to the overthrust of the Belledonne crystalline unit (upper right part of the sections); (ii) the complex geometry of the sedimentary series under \(\Phi_M\); (iii) the maximum depth of 8 km reached by the pre-Triassic basement in the central part of the sections, with a 2 km thick Palaeozoic cover (reflections R2 and R3); (iv) the seismic results do not support a strong dip of the Subalpine basement units; towards the NW, the sediment thickness would then decrease stepwise rather than continuously, involving one—or several?—basement fault(s).
and 13. The refraction level is deeper than before, while the $R_1$ refraction level—different from the latter—is between 5.0 and 5.6 km. Reflection $R_2$ can be seen in Fig. 7 gently dipping to the SE at a depth of about 8 km. This is, beyond a doubt, one of the major phases on the record-section and will thus contribute to the identification of reflector $R_2$ with the pre-Triassic basement. Still deeper, reflector $R_3$ is sited at a depth of 10 km.

A final remark concerns the easternmost traces of fan $F_2$ (Fig. 6), where no reliable correlation can be traced for reflected waves. The corresponding stations, on the eastern bank of the Isère river, are located on the Liassic and Jurassic cover of Belledonne and on the Belledonne crystalline outcrop itself. The shallow position of the crystalline basement ahead of Belledonne induces a cross-dip effect which is difficult to quantify but which is clearly seen on the section, with a refracted wave making arrival times up to 0.5 s earlier. Thus, a basement at very shallow depth ($\approx 1.5$ km) can be expected south of the junction between the Isère valley and the Chambéry cross-valley.

## INTERPRETATION

Against a local geologic background, the detected seismic discontinuities can be identified as follows (Figs. 8 and 9): the refraction level is the parautochthonous Urgonian limestone; reflectors $R_1-R_3$ are all related to the pre-Triassic basement, i.e. Palaeozoic cover and/or upper crust. Reflector $R_1$ is the parautochthonous basement which overthrusts reflector $R_2$—the autothchonous basement—while reflector $R_3$ is the autochthonous upper crust itself, underlying a 2 km thick Palaeozoic cover.

Of course it could be thought that the refraction level is the pre-Triassic basement itself, the velocity value of 5.3 km s$^{-1}$ found for the refracted wave being lowered as a result of weathering and a possible cross-dip. Two results can, however, be used to argue against this hypothesis: first, mean velocities computed for the deep reflections keep to the classical values of the sedimentary filling in the region; second, the shallow depth of the refractor under the westernmost stations of fan $F_1$ would then imply that the basement itself underlies the Oxfordian *Terres Noires*. This does not seem very likely for tectonic reasons, so we do not support it, although we do not have any definite disproof.

Our interpretation infers that northern Charteuse and southern Bauges terrains are part of a very extensive overthrust at depth with a décollement level in the *Terres Noires*. The top of the parautochthonous series underneath is the Urgonian slab, possibly overlain with Tertiary molasse, while the footwall is the pre-Triassic basement.

**Where does this overthrust outcrop?**

A two-fold possibility (Figs. 9 and 10) is offered through the well-documented eastern Charteuse thrust ($\Phi_E$) and median Charteuse thrust ($\Phi_M$). Available surface geology data farther south in the Guiers Mort valley show how the Urgonian syncline terminates under $\Phi_E$. Referring to this Urgonian level, the eastern thrust overlap would only be 2 km. Connecting the proposed thrust to $\Phi_M$ would therefore be the only possible way to account for the large displacement expected for the overthrust.

The main structural consequence is a considerable modification of the shortening value in the cover of the Subalpine chains. Siddans (1983) and Gidon (1985) estimated a 10 km shortening from surface geology data. In our interpretation the minimum shortening value would be 23–26 km (Fig. 8) with about 17.5 km being absorbed by the main thrust. This value is consistent with the amount of shortening necessary to explain the crustal thickening beneath the ECMs (Ménard & Thouvenot 1984, 1987, Mugnier et al. 1987). Finally, it should be stressed that Doudoux et al. (1982) had already introduced such a nappe into their sections of the Bauges and Bornes massifs farther north.

### Geometry of the parautochthonous series

To compute approximate depths of the refractor—parautochthonous Urgonian—under the stations, two parameters have to be adjusted: the refractor depth under the shot-point and the true seismic velocity of the refractor. When scanning a substantial set of depth—
velocity couples and stating the further tectonic condition that the refractor depth cannot be less than 1 km, one is led to choose a model with a refractor 1.8 km deep under the shot-point and a true velocity of 5.4 km s\(^{-1}\). The apparent value of \(\approx 5.3\) km s\(^{-1}\) measured on the in-line profiles would, therefore, be the result of a slight dip of the refractor towards the SW. The minimum depth of 1 km is a limit beyond which there would be no place left for the Terres Noires series—see balanced cross-section 2 in Figs. 8 and 9.

With these values, and keeping in mind this deliberate choice based on local tectonics, the following depths can be computed for the refraction level: on fan F\(_1\), it tops under station 20 at 1 km, while it bottoms at 3.4 km under station 03; on fan F\(_2\), it is slightly deeper, between 2.4 (station 25) and 4.1 km (station 27).

On fan F\(_1\) between station 20 and station 12, the wave refracted from the Urgonian level, as well as the base ment reflections, are affected by an important offset (Fig. 5). This shows that the series are faulted with a complicated geometry. A straightforward explanation would be a normal-fault scar from Liassic and/or Oligocene extension, with a downwards motion of the southeastern block. The fault, identified on the surface as \(f_1\) (Fig. 10), has a strike of about N 40°; it could have been re-activated as a strike-slip fault to accommodate the overthrusts. Similar faulting can be recognized all over Chartreuse, e.g., \(f_{2N}, f_{2S}\) and \(f_3\) in Fig. 10, the traces of which can be seen on the in-line profile LE—this line intersects the surface faults while LW does not. A revision of our previous line-drawing for reflection R\(_1\) shows that data are indeed consistent with a large basement fault connected to \(f_2\) (Fig. 11).

Oil implications

The Jurassic series of the Dauphinois zone have long been recognized as potential parent rocks for hydrocarbons, especially the Liassic schists and the Oxfordian Terres Noires. However, although well-known natural gas emergences can be found in eastern Vercors and Chartreuse, the previous structural models took no account of deep-seated traps. The existence of a surface overthrust in Chartreuse, which might extend to the Bauges massif, opens up a wide field of possibilities for discovering oil traps in the lower unit, with the footwall of these series being the Terres Noires impermeable barrier. The only process likely to have affected the Urgonian level by vertical faulting is Oligocene extension, well-documented in the Bas-Dauphiné—the area between Grenoble and Lyons—where Oligocene semi-grabens overlain with Miocene molasse are common. The same structures are likely to be found here in the lower tectonic unit, under the surface overthrust.

Strong support for this theoretical speculation is brought about by geochemical analyses of thermomineral spring waters in the southern Bauges massif: Challes-les-Eaux, La Boisserette and La Thuile (Fig. 10). Dazy & Grillot (1981) demonstrated the peculiarity of these waters which are enriched with sodium, halides (\(\mathrm{F}^-, \mathrm{Br}^-, \mathrm{I}^-, \mathrm{Cl}^-\)) and especially sulphur. An isotopic study also shows that sulphates and sulphides are enriched with heavy sulphur isotopes. The high rate found for sulphates is similar to that commonly observed in oil waters or in salt dome cap rocks. Dazy and Grillot (1981) explained this water mineralization in terms of solution processes in the Triassic terrains. It might equally well proceed from the Oligocene series under the surface overthrust.

CONCLUSIONS

The new seismic data presented here do not have the prestige of the stacked sections produced by vertical-reflection seisms—hence the geometrical constraints we derive should not be overemphasized. The way we proceeded here, trying to reconcile the observation of each seismogram with a general idea of the local tectonics, can be considered as a kind of inversion of seismic data in which the \textit{a priori} starting model dominates the structure finally proposed. To dominate does not mean to try to fit the data to the model; and our results—most of them unexpected—answer for the probity of the approach. In complex tectonic settings, this kind of
seismic data is just another jig-saw piece which has to fit with mapping, tectonics, geochronology and geochemistry to reveal a total picture.

In the central part of the experiment field, we found, as expected, a deep horizon at 8 km which is identified as the pre-Triassic autochthonous basement. Another reflector at 10 km could be due to a 2 km thick Palaeozoic cover. An unexpected result is the evidence of an intermediate parautochthonous basement unit (≈4.5 km deep) which underlies the Belledonne crystalline unit. This last unit extends itself at a relatively shallow depth (1.5 km) under the Isère valley. The experiment failed to demonstrate any dip of the deep and intermediate basement units towards the SE, as was previously postulated. One solution is that the autochthonous basement was probably affected by faulting, thus accounting for the well-documented decrease of the sedimentary thickness towards the NW.

While the existence of basement reflections can still be debated because of the data quality, the shallow refraction level discovered under northern Chartreuse is perfectly clear. Most of the preceding discussion and the cross-sections in Fig. 9 are based on it being associated with the Urgonian limestone slab. The identification of this slab is decisive in the importance we give to the overthrust $\Phi_M$. This would be a major thrust and imply a total cover shortening of 25 km which is much larger than the 10 km previously thought. With the possibility of finding Tertiary molasse pinched under this overthrust, oil traps could occur there, as perhaps signalled by local thermomineral spring water and gas emergences.

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