## Dear Florian,

Thank you very much for the editorial handling and your additional comments!

We agree that there is good reason to separate instantaneous from finite strain ellipsoids, if the rocks record information about it. The mylonitic pegmatites show a foliation and stretching lineation, characterized by large fragmented magmatic tourmaline and feldspar porphyroclasts and alternating quartz-, albite- and mica-rich layers. The plane normal to the sample-scale foliation and stretching lineation are interpreted to indicate the principal axes of the finite strain ellipsoid *Z* and *X*, respectively (as stated in the revised manuscript beginning of chapter 4 p. 6, line 9, 10). The foliation can be deflected around larger porphyroclasts. In rare cases, strain shadows are asymmetric (Fig. 4) and few shear bands are present (Fig. 12 a, b). The scale that we are addressing when we discuss the development of the microstructure is the sample scale. We do not intend to discuss the relative contributions of pure shear / simple shear / co-axial / non-coaxial deformation or any kinematics on a larger scale, which is beyond the scope of this study. We changed our wording throughout the manuscript and refer to the observed sample-scale foliation and stretching lineation, as this is the objective observation.

In the submitted final manuscript we made the following changes:

At the beginning of chapter 4 we rephrased to: "The plane normal to the observed foliation and the stretching lineation on sample-scale are interpreted to represent the principal axes of the finite strain ellipsoid *Z* and *X*, respectively, which are indicated in micrographs."

In the captions to Fig. 2b, Fig. 5a, b, Fig. 13 we now also refer to the observed stretching lineation / foliation (as opposed to referring to a "shortening direction", which we used in the sense of the plane normal to the observed foliation on sample scale, but we understand that this wording is misleading).

We omitted p9, I2-3. ("The porosities parallel to the short axes of grains, the elongate shape and the zoning indicate that grains grew at boundaries perpendicular to the stretching lineation".)

A few additions to the specific comments of Ruedigers review:

21) Fig. 13: "Preferred growth parallel to stretching lineation" Why would it grow parallel to the finite stretching direction - unless the pure shear p.d. contribution is very large shouldn't it grow parallel to the extending ISA and eventually rotate? All figures, where a shear sense is available but not provided, should have nice arrows indicating the shear sense.

It is true that a grain would not necessarily grow parallel to the finite stretching direction, but likely that it grows parallel to the extending ISA. In our samples the long axis of most matrix grains is within the foliation. Whether any rotation relative to a microstructure on sample scale or larger scale was involved is not recorded.

In Fig. 13 we did not refer to "preferred growth parallel to the stretching lineation" therefore we assumed that Ruediger was referring to Fig. 14, where we rephrased that statement accordingly. As indeed the phrase "preferred" might have been misleading (see also point 46) we rephrased this throughout the revised manuscript.

The microstructures shown in the SE-images of Fig. 13 do not indicate a shear sense.

30) p7, I2: LAB parallel to shortening direction: where is the shortening direction?

We rephrased that sentence in the revised manuscript to:

"Low-angle boundaries are typically observed oriented at high angle to the stretching lineation, indicating that they represent healed cracks associated with a slight misorientation rather than indicating subgrains (Fig. 8a)."

46) p11. l27: growth parallel to the stretching lineation: While this does not make a lot of sense for non-coaxial p.d. (see comment 2), why preferred growth? Preferred by what? Crystallography? Where should the "dilation" come from? Anything tested on that? What is the CPO of the most elongated grains, or which crystal direction is parallel to the maximum grain elongation direction?

The paragraph 5.5 has been rewritten in the revised manuscript, such that the sentence, Ruediger was referring to in the original manuscript, is not present anymore.

The phrase "preferred" might have been misleading (see also point 21) and we rephrased this throughout the revised manuscript. We did not refer to a crystallographic preferred growth but formation of growth rims causing a SPO (not CPO) with the long axes of grains within the foliation plane. The observation is: The long axes of grains is within the foliation plane. There is no preferred crystallographic orientation of grains with high aspect ratio (see also comments to points 21 and 28).

To the comments on "extension / dilation" we answered at point 28 the following: During dissolution-precipitation creep, boundaries at high angle to the extensional direction are "sites", where new material is precipitated for example in veins or strain shadows, causing dilation/extension in this specific direction. Throughout the revised manuscript, we used the term "strain shadow" to refer to these areas.

We hope that our manuscript is now acceptable for publication in Solid Earth.

Thank you and with best regards,

Felix Hentschel

# Deformation of feldspar at greenschist facies conditions – the record of mylonitic pegmatites from the Pfunderer Mountains, Eastern Alps

3

4 Felix Hentschel, Claudia A. Trepmann, Emilie Janots

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#### 6 Abstract

Deformation microstructures of albitic plagioclase and K-feldspar were investigated in 7 8 mylonitic pegmatites from the Austroalpine basement south of the western Tauern Window by 9 polarized light microscopy, electron microscopy and electron backscatter diffraction to evaluate 10 the rheologically dominant feldspar deformation mechanisms at greenschist facies conditions. 11 The main mylonitic characteristics are alternating almost monophase quartz and albite layers, 12 surrounding porphyroclasts of deformed feldspar and tourmaline. The dominant deformation 13 microstructures of K-feldspar porphyroclasts are intragranular fractures parallel to the main shortening direction indicated by the foliation at high angle to the stretching lineation. The 14 15 fractures are healed or sealed by polyphase aggregates of albite, K-feldspar, quartz and mica, 16 which also occur along intragranular fractures of tourmaline and strain shadows around other 17 porphyroclasts. Polyphase <u>polyphase</u> aggregates at sites of dilation indicate dissolution-18 precipitation creep. K-feldspar porphyroclasts are partly replaced by albite characterized by a 19 sawtooth shaped cuspate interface. This replacement is interpreted to betake place by interface-20 coupled dissolution-precipitation driven by a solubility difference between K-feldspar and 21 albite and is not controlled by strain. In contrast, albite. Albite porphyroclasts are replaced at 22 sites of shorteningboundaries parallel to the foliation by fine-grained monophase albite 23 aggregates of small strain-free new grains mixed with deformed fragments. Dislocation glide 24 is indicated by bent, kinked and twinned albite. No porphyroclasts with internal misorientation. 25 An indication of effective dislocation climb with dynamic recovery, for example by the 26 presence of subgrains, a crystallographic preferred orientation or sutured grain boundaries was 27 observed is systematically missing. We interpret the grain size reduction of albite at sites of

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28	shortening to be the result of coupled fracturing, dislocation glide and fracturing (low-
29	temperature plasticity). Subsequent growth is by a combination of strain-induced grain
30	boundary migration-and formation of growth rims resulting in an aspect ratio of albite with the
31	long axis within the foliation. This strain-induced replacement by nucleation and growth
32	leads, (associated dislocation glide and microfracturing) and subsequent growth is suggested to
33	result in the observed monophase albite layers, probably together with granular flow, to the
34	monophase albite layers. The associated quartz layers in contrast, show characteristics of
35	dislocation creep by the presence of subgrains, undulatory extinction and sutured grain
36	boundaries. We identified two endmember matrix microstructures-that correlate with strain.
37	Samples with lower strain are characterized by layers of :(i) alternating layers of a few hundreds
38	of $\mu m$ width, with coarse grained quartz and layers with isometric, fine-grained feldspar-
39	Higher strained samples are characterized by narrow alternating layers of (in average 15 µm in
40	diameter) and coarse-grained quartz (a few hundreds of µm in diameter), representing lower
41	strain compared to (ii) alternating thin layers of some tens of µm width composed of fine-
42	grained quartz (< 20 $\mu$ m in diameter) and coarse elongate albite grains elongated parallel to
43	(long axis a few tens of µm) defining the stretching lineation foliation, respectively. These Our
44	observations indicate that grain size reduction by strain-induced replacement of $albite_{\overline{\tau}}$
45	(associated dislocation glide and microfracturing) followed by growth and granular flow
46	assisted by fracturing and dissolution-precipitation togethersimultaneous with dislocation creep
47	of quartz are rheologically dominantplaying the dominating role in formation of the mylonitic
48	microstructure.
49	
50	1 Introduction

#### 50 1. Introduction

Assessment of the rheological behaviour of the continental crust requires an understanding of 51 grain-scale deformation mechanisms of the main rock-forming minerals at not directly 52 accessible depths. In deep parts of seismically active shear zones (10-20 km) the rheological 53

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54 behaviour is controlled by the deformation of granitoid rocks, mainly composed of feldspar and 55 quartz, at greenschist facies conditions. A vast number of experimental studies exist to analyse 56 the deformation mechanisms and to derive flow laws for high-temperature creep of feldspar 57 (e.g. Gleason and Tullis, 1993; Kruse and Stünitz, 1999; McLaren and Pryer, 2001; Stünitz et al., 2003; Rybacki and Dresen, 2004) and quartz (e.g., Jaoul et al., 1984; Patterson and Luan, 58 59 1990; Gleason and Tullis, 1993; Hirth et al., 2001). However, the extrapolation of 60 experimentally deduced flow laws for monomineralic material to the flow behaviour of 61 polymineralic rocks at geologically reasonable conditions is problematic (e.g., Pfiffner and 62 Ramsay, 1982; Tullis and Tullis, 1986; Paterson, 1987; Jordan, 1988). Also, the application of flow laws to model the rheological properties of the continental lithosphere (e.g. Brace and 63 64 Kohlstedt, 1980; Kohlstedt et al., 1995) is a matter of debate (e.g., Rutter and Brodie, 1991; Burov, 2007; Bürgmann and Dresen, 2008; Burov, 2011). Uncertainties in models for the 65 rheological properties of the continental lithosphere is partly due to a poor knowledge of the 66 deformation mechanisms actually proceeding at depth as well as the interplay between multiple 67 68 factors influencing rock strength such as stress variations, fluid content, and metamorphic 69 reactions. The comparison of experimental results with microstructural and mineralogical observations of exhumed metamorphic granitoid rocks, which record the grain-scale 70 71 mechanical and chemical transformations at depths, is therefore indispensable.

72 The extrapolation of experimental flow laws for dislocation creep of quartz to natural conditions 73 is found to agree well to natural observations (e.g., Stöckhert et al., 1999, Hirth et al., 2001, Stipp et al., 2002). However, there are large discrepancies in experimental and natural 74 75 observations on the most abundant mineral of the continental crust, feldspar. Deformation 76 experiments suggest that dislocation creep of feldspar in high strain shear zones is dominant 77 only at high temperatures above about 900°C (e.g., Rybacki and Dresen, 2004). In contrast, 78 ductile deformation with grain-size reduction and formation of new feldspar grains, commonly 79 assumed to imply dislocation creep, is observed already at greenschist facies conditions (Voll,

80 1976; Tullis, 1983; Gapais, 1989; Stünitz, 1993; Prior and Wheeler, 1999; Ishii et al., 2007). 81 This discrepancy is partly due to the unclear and strongly varying contribution of brittle, 82 dissolution-precipitation and crystal-plastic processes (e.g., Tullis and Yund, 1987; Fitz Gerald 83 and Stünitz, 1993; Stünitz and Fitz Gerald, 1993; Tullis et al., 1996; Prior and Wheeler, 1999; Kruse and Stünitz, 2001; Ree et al., 2005; Menegon et al., 2006, 2008; Stünitz et al., 2003; 84 85 Mehl and Hirth, 2008; Sinha, et al., 2010; Kilian et al., 2011; Brander et al., 2012; Mukai et al., 86 2014; Eberlei et al., 2014). Such a creep behaviour governed by the interaction of different 87 deformation mechanisms and chemical reactions in the presence of fluids is especially difficult to assess in experimental approaches. This is partly because experiments have to be performed 88 at high temperatures to realize feasible strain rates, which, however, affects phase assemblages 89 90 and material properties, for example by partial melting. Therefore, activated mechanisms may strongly differ from those at natural strain rates and greenschist facies conditions. Tullis and 91 Yund (1987) found in their deformation experiments at strain rates of  $10^{-4}$  s<sup>-1</sup> to  $10^{-6}$  s<sup>-1</sup> effective 92 93 dislocation climb with subgrain formation and subgrain rotation only effective at temperatures 94 >900°C. They concluded that optically visible subgrains in feldspar from low-grade rocks 95 should not directly be assumed to arise from crystal plasticity but may arise from cataclasis and 96 subsequent healing. Dislocation climb necessary for dynamic recovery and recrystallization 97 requires intracrystalline diffusion. At temperatures  $<550^{\circ}$ C, the NaSi  $\leftrightarrow$  CaAl interdiffusion 98 rates for plagioclase are very low (Yund, 1986; Korolyuk and Lepezin, 2009). In the presence 99 of water, the diffusion coefficient has been interpreted to be higher (Yund, 1986), which was 100 suggested to account for the weakening observed in experiments where fluid is present (e.g. 101 Rybacki and Dresen, 2004). TEM studies also show that sufficient dislocation climb to produce 102 subgrains is effective only at temperatures from the middle amphibolite upward (e.g. White, 103 1975; Stünitz et al., 2003). However, whether an The experiments by Tullis and Yund (1985) 104 show that grain boundaries may migrate into areas of higher dislocation density introduced by 105 microfracturing driven by the reduction in strain energy (Tullis and Yund, 1987) at conditions,

106	at which recovery is not active. However, whether extrapolation to natural conditions is valid		<b>Commented [F5]:</b> Points 34-36, review #2
107	can only be evaluated by a comparison to natural microstructures.		
108	To analyse the deformation behaviour of feldspar at greenschist facies conditions, we use in		
109	this study the record of mylonitic pegmatites of the Austroalpine basement south of the western		
110	Tauern Window and north of the Periadriatic line (Fig. 1). They show a wide range of feldspar		
111	deformation microstructures and are compositionally and mineralogically relatively simple, as		
112	they are characterized by a Ca-poor bulk-rock composition (Stöckhert, 1987). We distinguish		
113	specific feldspar microstructures that represent the replacement of large deformed feldspar		
114	porphyroclasts in mylonitic pegmatites driven by stored strain energy and chemical		
115	disequilibrium and which in combination with fracturing, dislocation glide, grain boundary		
116	migration and dissolution precipitation creep form specific types of feldspar quartz matrix		
117	microstructures. The aim is to detect specific microstructures that can be related to processes		
118	that govern the rheological behaviour of the rocks. The goal of this study is to correlate		Commented [F6]: point 25, review#2
119	characteristic microstructures to specific processes responsible for their formation and to		
120	discuss the rheological behaviour of the rocks based on our findings.		Commented [F7]: Point 1, review#2
121			
122	2. Geological Settingsetting and Samplingsampling		
123	The pegmatites occur within high-grade polymetamorphic upper Austroalpine basement rocks		
124	located between the western Tauern window in the north and the Deferegger-Antholz-Valser		
125	(DAV) shear zone in the south (Fig. 1, e.g., Hoffmann et al., 1983; Stöckhert, 1987; Stöckhert	_	Commented [F8]: Point 4, review#1
126	et al., 1999; Mancktelow et al., 2001; Schmid et al., 2004; Müller et al., 2000). Pegmatite		
127	crystallization age is generally assumed to be Permian ( $262 \pm 7$ Ma, Borsi et al. 1980) consistent		

129 and Miller, 2009). The pegmatites are characterized by a Ca-poor composition originated from

with other pegmatite occurrences in the Austroalpine basement (e.g., Habler et al., 2009; Thöni

130 water-rich anatectic melts (Stöckhert, 1987, Schuster & and Stüwe, 2008).

128

131	The intrusion of the Rensen and Rieserferner tonalites and related magmatic dikes into the
132	Austroalpine basement rocks took place at ca. 30 Ma (Borsi et al., 1978; 1979; Steenken et al.,
133	2000). The DAV shear zone was active at about the same time The amount of uplift and erosion
134	since the intrusion of these magmatic bodies is increasing from about 10 km in an eastern area
135	of the Rieserferner to about 15 to 25 km in the Rensen area in the west (Trepmann et al., 2004).
136	The main activity of the DAV shear zone was at about the same time as the magmatic intrusions
137	and is characterized by an oblique strike slip movement with some tens of kilometres of
138	horizontal component (sinistral sense of shear) and a few kilometres of vertical component,
139	where the northern part of the Austroalpine basement is uplifted relative to the southern part
140	(Borsi et al., 1978; Kleinschrodt, 1987; Schulz, 1989; Ratschbacher et al., 1991; Stöckhert et
141	al., 1999; Mancktelow et al., 2001). It is accompanied by smaller sinistral shear zones to the
142	north, some of which were already active in the Eocene (Mancktelow et al., 2001). The DAV
143	shear zone is viewed as part of the Southern limit of Alpine Metamorphism (SAM) as defined
144	by Hoinkes et al. (1999). To the north of the DAV shear zone, tertiary ages for several mineral
145	systems are widespread (Mancktelow et al., 2001; Schulz et al., 2008) and the metamorphic
146	conditions are constrained to 450 $\pm$ 50 °C and pressures of about 0.7 GPa by phase relations in
147	the metapelitic Austroalpine basement rocks (Stöckhert 1982; 1987; Schulz et al., 2008; unpubl.
148	data). Additionally, the northern part shows an increase in exhumation depth towards the west
149	(Trepmann et al., 2004)South to the DAV shear zone, the Austroalpine basement rocks have
150	been solely affected by minor metamorphism associated with brittle deformation, in accord
151	with no resetting of the Rb/Sr biotite Permian ages of 288-299 Ma (Borsi et al., 1978; Stöckhert,
152	1982; Kleinschrodt, 1987; Schulz, 1994).
153	The association of the deformation microstructures recorded by the pegmatites with the with the
1	

Alpine history is discussed controversially (e.g., Mancktelow et al., 2001; Schulz et al., 2008).
Stöckhert (1982, 1984, 1987) proposed that the annealed quartz and feldspar microstructures in
the mylonitic pegmatites correlate to an early Alpine deformation stage at metamorphic

157 temperatures of 450±50 °C, pressures of about 0.7 GPa and at about 100 Ma (white mica K-Ar 158 data, Stöckhert, 1984). This age corresponds to the Eoalpine (Cretaceous) tectonometamorphic 159 event recorded from other units of the Eastern Austroalpine basement (e.g. Thöni and Miller, 160 1996; Habler et al., 2009). A later (Oligocene) deformation stage at 300 to 350°C was proposed by heterogeneous high-stress quartz microstructures in quartz-rich lithologies of Austroalpine 161 162 basement rocks related to the movement along the DAV shear zone (Stöckhert, 1982, 1984; 163 Kleinschrodt, 1987; Stöckhert et al., 1999). Mancktelow et al-(.(2001), however, argued, based 164 on microstructural and kinematic studies, that the deformation microstructure of feldspar could 165 also be Paleogene in age and they find no clear distinction between separate low- and high-T 166 events. 167 We sampled about 100 pegmatites in three field campaigns in 2015 and 2016. Their appearance 168 varies mostly between m- to cm-sized veins or lenses, and occasionally km-sized bodies occur 169 (Stöckhert, 1987, Hofmann et al., 1983). In a few cases a mineral goning is 170 present. PegmatitesDeformed pegmatites, in veins or layers, have a foliation, which is parallel 171 to that of the host gneisses. The largest pegmatite bodies appear macroscopically undeformed. 172 We selected pegmatites with a pronounced foliation and stretching lineation (Fig. 2a; Appendix 173 1, Table 1). There is no apparent systematic variation in strain with distance to the DAV shear

174 zone-, yet the distribution of different matrix microstructures, as described and discussed in

sections 4.4. and 5.5., is different from west to east (Fig. 1).

175 176

## 177 **3. Methods**

Samples were cut perpendicular to the foliation and parallel to the stretching lineation. Thin sections of  $\sim$ 30 µm thickness were first polished mechanically and then chemo-mechanically in a colloidal silica-solution. For scanning electron microscopy (SEM) thin sections were coated with a thin layer (~5 nm) of carbon. Electron microscopic investigations were performed on a Hitachi SU5000 with a field emission gun. Semi-quantitative chemical measurements by Commented [F9]: Point 6, review#1

Commented [F10]: Point 7, review#1

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183 energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS, AzTec, Oxford instruments) were acquired using an 184 accelerating voltage of 20 kV and a working distance of 10 mm. Cathodoluminescence (CL) 185 imaging using a Gatan MiniCL detector was performed at 5 kV and 10 mm working distance. 186 Crystallographic orientations were analysed using a HKL NordlysNano high-sensitivity 187 Electron Backscatter Diffraction (EBSD) detector-(Oxford Instruments). The EBSD signals 188 were acquired using the AzTec analysis software (Oxford instruments). We used a sample 189 holder pre-tilted at 70° with respect to the electron beam, an accelerating voltage of 20 kV and 190 a working distance of 20--25 mm. The step size for automatic mapping was in the range of 1-191 2 µm, dependent of the required resolution, grain size and size of the area measured.

192 Pole figures were calculated using HKL Channel 5 software (Oxford instruments) and the MTEX software (Bachmann et al., 2010) from the raw EBSD output. The latter software was 193 194 used to colour EBSD maps and for misorientation analysis. For grain reconstruction a 195 thresholding value of 10° was used. EBSD data were analysed with the MTEX toolbox for 196 Matlab, developed by Ralf Hielscher (https://mtex-toolbox.github.io/; e.g. Bachmann et al., 197 2010). Small non-indexed pixels were filled during data smoothing by a half-quadratic filter 198 (Bergmann et al., 2015). For grain reconstruction a thresholding value of 10° was used. For 199 grain reconstruction, Dauphiné twin boundaries in quartz are neglected by merging grains along 200 boundaries characterized by a misorientation angle of 60° and a [0001] rotation axis. Evaluating 201 albite grain boundaries in full misorientation space (Krakow et al., 2017) revealed that almost 202 all twins correspond to the albite law and some to the pericline law. For grain reconstruction of 203 albite, grains were merged along the corresponding twin boundaries. Evaluating mean grain 204 orientations neglecting the twin orientations requires the use of a higher symmetry, which 205 contains the symmetry element responsible for twinning, which is the point group 121 for albite 206 and 622 for quartz. The mean orientation of the "higher symmetry" grain is the modal orientation of the "lower symmetry" grain. Using the higher symmetry yields the same grain 207 208 reconstruction result as merging along twin boundaries. Grain size analysis was by area

209	normalization excluding border grains. The mean and median of the area distribution are given
210	in histograms. The aspect ratio and the trend of the grain long axis were calculated from an
211	area-equivalent best-fit ellipse. Pole figures were calculated either from the de-noised EBSD-
212	data (scatter plots) or from orientation distribution functions (ODFs). ODFs were calculated
213	from the grain mean orientation or from every pixel. For the calculation a "de la Vallée-
214	Poussin" kernel was used (https://mtex-toolbox.github.io/; e.g. Bachmann et al., 2010). Kernel
215	width was estimated with the Kullback-Leibler crossvalidation function of MTEX
216	(https://mtex-toolbox.github.io/; e.g. Bachmann et al., 2010). Pole figure densities (pfJ; L2-
217	norm of the pole figures) and texture index (TI, L2-norm of the ODF) are used to characterize
218	texture strength (Mainprice et al., 2015).
219	For qualitative comparison, we choose to display poles to the (100), (010) and (001) planes in
220	upper hemisphere pole figures for albite. The internal misorientation within grains is dependent
221	on the density of geometrically necessary dislocations and thus is commonly used as a measure
222	of <del>the</del> crystal-plastic strain (e.g. Nicolas and Poirier, 1976; Poirier, 1985 <u>: Wheeler et al., 2009</u> ).
223	To compare the intragranular misorientation between grains, we used the grain kernel average
224	misorientation (gKAM) (Kilian, 2017), which can be computed in MTEX. The kernel average
225	misorientation is the misorientation angle averaged over a certain kernel width for every
226	measured point. We used a kernel size of 24 pixels ( $3^{rd}$ order neighbours) and ignored
227	misorientation angles above 8°, because these are not resulting from low-angle grain boundaries
228	or healed cracks and are thus not related to internal misorientation. <sup>o</sup> . The sum of these
229	misorientation angles divided by the number of measurements in a grain is gKAM.
230	Compositions of feldspars and other major minerals were measured by a Cameca SX100
231	electron microprobe, using 15 kV voltage, 10 nA beam current and 1 $\mu m$ spot size. The ZAF
232	correction scheme provided by Cameca was used.

**Commented [F13]:** Points 9, review #1; Points 6, 8, review#2

233

## 234 **4. Results**

The primary magmatic assemblage of the pegmatite comprises quartz, albite-rich plagioclase, 235 K-feldspar and muscovite with accessory tourmaline, garnet, zircon, apatite and monazite. The 236 foliation and stretching lineation are characterized by large fragmented magmatic tourmaline 237 238 and feldspar, here referred to as porphyroclasts, with their fragments separated parallel to the 239 stretching lineation (Fig. 2a) and alternating quartz-, albite- and mica-rich layers deflected 240 around the porphyroclasts (Fig. 2b2a-d). Feldspar in The plane normal to the mylonitic foliation 241 is 90-95 % albite, independentand the stretching lineation are taken as the principal axes of the 242 albite/K-feldspar porphyroclast ratio finite strain ellipsoid z and x, respectively, which are 243 indicated in micrographs. The K-feldspar is Na-poor (<10%) and shows only rarely shows 244 perthitic exsolution. Plagioclase porphyroclasts have a narrow compositional range of Ab<sub>96-100</sub>. 245 In few samples magmatic plagioclase with Ab<sub>95-86</sub> occurs, then is present and in these grains 246 zoisite inclusions are common. Magmatic garnet is Mn-rich and low in Ca (on average 247 Alm<sub>70</sub>Gro<sub>4</sub>Sp<sub>26</sub>). During metamorphism, garnet with a higher Ca- and lower Fe-component 248(Alm<sub>35</sub>Gro<sub>45</sub>Sp<sub>20</sub>) partly replaced magmatic grains (Fig. 3a). Epidote and Fe-bearing phengitic 249 white-mica (2 wt% FeO) grew in the foliation plane of mylonitic pegmatites (Fig. 3b).-The Fe-250 bearing phengite sometimes directly replaces magmatic white mica. The modal percentage of 251 albite and K-feldspar varies in the different samples: albite comprises about 60-40 % and K-252 feldspar about 5-30-%. The matrix layers comprise about 95-% albite, independent on the ratio 253 of K-feldspar to albite porphyroclasts, which varies from 8:1 to 1:9. This observation is consistent with whole-rock compositions with a marked variation of Na2O and K2O reported 254 255 by Stöckhert (1987). In contrast all samples Samples show homogenously low CaO (<1 wt.%) 256 and FeO, MgO, MnO (< 1 wt.%) contents (Stöckhert, 1987). The variations in the whole-rock 257 composition were interpreted to be due to different compositions of the anatectic melt or 258 mineral zoning in the pegmatite body and influenced affected by external fluids (Stöckhert,

Commented [F14]: Points 2, 10, 28, 30, 40, 46, review #2 Commented [F15]: Point 11, review#1

Commented [F16]: Point 12, review#1

Commented [F17]: Point 13, review#1

Commented [F18]: Point 14, review#1

1987). In the following, we describe the specific feldspar porphyroclast and matrixmicrostructures.

#### 261

#### 262 4.1. Strain shadows

263 In all samples, polyphase aggregates of K-feldspar, albite, quartz and mica occur in areas of 264 dilationprismatic strain shadows between tourmaline and feldspar fragments and surrounding 265 feldspar porphyroclasts (Fig. 2b, Fig. 4a, b). Asymmetric strain shadows are characterized by 266 different microstructures displayed in Figure 4a-c: polyphase aggregates of albite, K-feldspar 267 and quartz characterize the upper-left and lower-right quadrants, whereas the lower-left and upper right quadrants contain almost monophase albite aggregates that alternate with quartz 268 269 layers. This asymmetric strain shadow is indicating a sinistral sense of shear, with the polyphase 270 aggregate representing sites of dilationextensional quadrants and the monophase aggregate sites 271 of compression compressional quadrants. The shape of the albite grains in the monophase layers 272 is rather elliptical with a long axis parallel to the layer, whereas the shape of the albite and K-273 feldspar grains in the polyphase aggregates are irregular butand rather isometric. Grain sizes 274 vary with long axes between 2 and 150 µm, the average of grain diameters is at 25 µm25µm 275  $(1\sigma = 19 \,\mu\text{m})$  (Fig. 4h, i). The plagioclase composition uniformly ranges between Ab<sub>97-100</sub>. The 276 EBSD measurements of albite in strain shadows were analysed comparing single grain 277 orientations with that of the host, comparing pole figures of scattered measurements as well as 278 density plots recalculated from ODF (Fig. 4d-g). The EBSD data reveal that there are neitherno 279 obvious orientation relationships relationship between the new grains within aggregates noror a 280 specific relationship between new grains and porphyroclasts (Fig. 4c-g)., although some new 281 grain orientations might correlate with that of the clast (compare to Fig. 4 f). Generally, the 282 internal misorientation angles of the grains in aggregates with a typical diameter of 25-30 283  $\mu$ m<u>30µm</u> is low with a maximum internal misorientation generally lower than 5°. The relative 284 misorientation within the albite porphyroclast is lower than 10° (Fig. 4 c).

Commented [F19]: Points 2, 10, 28, 30, 40, 46 review# 2

Commented [F20]: Point 15, review#1

285

## 286 4.2. K-feldspar porphyroclasts

287 Single fractures in K-feldspar porphyroclasts are sealed by aggregates of K-feldspar, albite and 288 quartz, representing prismatic strain shadows (Figs. 2b, 5c, d). Dispersed fluid inclusion trails 289 at lowhigh angle to the shortening directionstretching lineation are interpreted as healed 290 microcracks (Figs. 5a-c). Areas comprising a high amount of healed microcracks are associated 291 to undulous extinction, consistent with a bending of the crystal (Fig. 5a). This bending can be 292 quantified by a change in misorientation angle of about 20° over a distance of 700 µm. Yet, in 293 K-feldspar porphyroclasts that do not show dispersed healed microcracks, the internal 294 misorientation angle within one grain is generally below 5° (Fig. 5d) over a grain size of several 295 mm. The K-feldspar porphyroclast interface with new albite grains is "saw tooth"shaped,cuspate due to protrusions of small albite grains through into K-Feldspar over a length 296 of a few tens of µm. Albite protrusions often have eurved lobate grain boundaries 297 298 atboundariesat contact with K-feldspar porphyroclast (Fig. 6). The occurrence of this sawtooth-299 shapedcuspate boundary is independent on position with respect to the stretching lineation or 300 shortening directions foliation (Fig. 5, 6). EBSD analysis reveals that there is no crystallographic 301 relationship between K-feldspar porphyroclast and new albite grains and the misorientation 302 angle to the porphyroclast is generally high (Fig. 5d, e). -The new albite grains often contain 303 numerous pores and inclusions of tiny (< 5 µm) apatite needles, at the vicinity of the K-feldspar 304 porphyroclast interface (Fig. 6b, d). Albite grains along The apatite inclusions are in some places also present in the sawtooth shaped boundaries cut off the healed K-feldspar (Fig. 6b, arrows). 305 306 Healed microcracks terminate at new albite grains, which therefore are interpreted to have 307 formed after fracturing (arrows in Fig. 5c, d).

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308

## 309 4.3. Albite porphyroclasts

310	Albite porphyroclasts are commonly twinned, kinkedbent and fragmented (Fig. 7). Albite twins	Commented [F26]: Point 15, review #2
311	are often bent (Figs. 7, 8). The deformed fragments are surrounded by <u>a</u> fine-grained albite	
312	aggregates aggregate (grain diameters of 27 µm in average) with a very similar composition	Commented [F27]: Point 21, review#1
313	$(Ab_{96\text{-}100})$ compared to the host albite, yet with a tendency to a somewhat higher albite	
314	component (< 1% higher Ab component). An irregular, patchy An-rich seam (up to $An_{20}$ ) is	
315	commonly observed around new albite grains (Fig. 7f). The new <u>New</u> albite grains occur along	
316	fractures and kinks of deformed porphyroclasts that are oriented subparallel to the foliation, i.e.,	
317	atalong sites of shortening and high strain and along boundaries parallel to the foliation (Fig.	
318	7a-c, e). The new albite grains are typically not twinned, in contrast to fragments of the host	
319	(Fig. 7b, d). Larger host fragments have a relative high internal misorientation with angles	
320	typically of about $10^{\circ}$ along a profile length of $100 \ \mu m$ , ignoring twinningtwin domains (Fig.	
321	8g, h). Grain kernel average misorientation (gKAM) values (0.4-0.7 $^{\circ}$ ) for new grains are lower	
322	than for the porphyroclast or its fragments (0.7-1) (Fig. 8b). Low-angle boundaries are typically	
323	observed oriented parallelat high angle to the shortening directionstretching lineation,	
324	indicating that they rather represent healed cracks associated with a slight misorientation and	
325	do not indicate rather than indicating subgrains (Fig. 8a). Curved low-angle boundaries	Commented [F28]: Point 22, review#1
326	bounding subgrains were not observed. The orientation of the new grains scatters around the	
327	orientation of the host crystal (Fig. 8c, d). The misorientation angle distribution shows an excess	
328	of low and deficit of high misorientation angles for new grains compared to a random	
329	distribution (Fig. 8e).8e particularly for correlated (neighbouring) measurements).	Commented [F29]: Point 23, review#1

330

## **4.4. Monophase albite matrix alternating with quartz layers**

332 In the fine-grained matrix, layers of almost purely albitic plagioclase Ab<sub>97-100</sub> (i.e., similar or

333 slightly more Ab-rich compared to plagioclase porphyroclasts) alternate with quartz-rich layers

334	(Fig. 9: <u>Appendix 1, Table 1</u> ). This mylonitic matrix is often deflected by albite porphyroclast
335	and can also be deflected by albite aggregates replacing former porphyroclasts (Sectsect. 4.3).
336	The microstructure of the layers differs characteristically in their grain size and shape. Based
337	on these two properties, we distinguish two endmembers of quartz-albite matrix microstructure:
338	Type A) The albite grains in the <u>a few hundred <math>\mu</math>m wide</u> layers are isometric (aspect ratio: 1 –
339	1.3) with grain diameters varying between $10 - 70 \mu$ m, in average of about 15 $\mu$ m (Fig. 9, 10).
340	The grains usually show no twinning and have a low internal misorientation of generally lower
341	than $5^{\circ}$ . The grain boundaries are irregular to smoothly curved (Fig. 11). Inclusions of apatite
342	and domains with high porosity are common (Fig. 11). Grains show compositional zoning
343	(arrows in Fig. 11), which is often only apparent in CL images and is therefore probably linked
344	to changes in trace element contents. This zoning might be truncated by the growth of other
345	grains, which is generally in the direction of their long axes (green arrow in Fig. 11b). A weak
346	shape preferred orientation (SPO) parallel to the foliation can be deflected around the largest
347	porphyroclasts (Fig. 10 a, b). The misorientation angle distribution (Fig. 10c) and pole
348	figurespolefigures (Fig. 10d) reveal a random texture. Associated quartz-layers are typically a
349	few hundred $\mu$ m wide and composed of coarse-grained aggregates (diameter of 100 – 1000 $\mu$ m,
350	Figs. 2c, d, 9a,-b) Quartz in layers shows undulatory extinction, subgrains and sutured grain
351	boundaries (Fig. 9a, b).

352 Type B) The albite grains in the layers typically a few tens of µm wide are lens shaped elongate (aspect ratio: in average 2.3 and up to 9) and show a marked SPO. The average grain diameter 353 354 is with 30 µm larger than in the type A microstructure (Fig. 9 c, d, Fig. 12). Similar to the type 355 A microstructure, there is no apparent crystallographic preferred orientation (CPO) of albite and grains have a low internal misorientation (Fig. 12b, c). Some K-feldspar can be present as 356 357 larger clasts (Fig. 12b) or as irregular flakes (Fig. 13a). The grain boundaries are mostly serrated 358 but can vary to smoothly curved and even straight, then they are at low angle to the foliation 359 (Fig. 13a, b). Straight segments can be parallel to the traces of (001) and (010) cleavage

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360 planesplane, representing energetically favoured boundaries- (e.g., Tröger, 1982). The sutures are affected by intragranular cracks, indicated by trailtrails of pores at lowhigh angle to the 361 362 shortening directionstretching lineation (arrows in Fig. 13a, b). Numerous tiny apatite needles 363 occur in zones generally restricted to the centre of the grains but can be cut off by grain boundaries (Fig. 13c) or microcracks. Rarely, grains with twins occur (Fig. 13e). Some grains 364 365 show Ca-enriched zones and areas with a higher porosity (Fig. 13e, f). The porosities parallel 366 to the short axes of grains, the elongate shape and the zoning indicate that grains grew parallel 367 to the stretching lineation. In general, samples that show the type B matrix record an overall 368 higher strain compared to samples with type A matrix, as indicated by the fine-grained quartz 369 layers with CPO, which are up to several mm long and a few tens of µm wide (Fig. at boundaries 370 perpendicular to the stretching lineation. 2a, b, 9c, d, 12a, b, d). Generally, new albite grains do 371 not show an orientation contrast observable by BSE imaging, in contrast to twinned remnants 372 of porphyroclasts (Fig. 7). 373 Samples that show the type B matrix microstructure are interpreted to correlate to a higher strain 374 because of the high aspect ratio (up to 9) and narrow spacing of the alternating quartz-albite 375 layers (tens of µm) compared to the type A microstructure with a larger spacing of the layers 376 of a few hundreds of µm and a lower aspect ratio (Fig. 2a, b, 9c, d, 12a, b, d). These microfabrics 377 correlate with the observation from the field, where samples showing a type B microstructure

- are characterized by a more narrow spacing of the foliation planes, lower abundance and
- 379 diameter of porphyroclast as well as a more pronounced stretching lineation.

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#### 381 5. Discussion

380

- 382 In the following, we discuss the deformation and replacement mechanisms of feldspar leading
- 383 to the mylonitic fabric and implications on the Alpine deformation.

### 384 5.1. Interface-coupled K-feldspar replacement by albite

The replacement of K-feldspar by albite is a widely observed reaction in deforming granitoids at low temperatures. Different types of replacements of K-feldspar by albite have been discussed, which can be divided into two groups:

- Neocrystallisation or heterogeneous nucleation during metamorphic reactions and/or
   precipitation from the pore fluid, produces distinct albite grains without any
   crystallographic relationship to the replaced K-feldspar. The replacements often appear
   in strings and patches inside the host grain and may be related to fractures (e.g. Fitz
   Gerald & and Stünitz, 1993; Stünitz, 1998; Menegon et al., 2013).
- 393 2) Interface-coupled dissolution of K-feldspar (or plagioclase) and spatially coupled 394 precipitation of albite leads to a strong structural coherence across the reaction interface, 395 i.e. of the primary mineral on the orientation of orientation of secondary mineral as found in rocks (Plümper & and Putnis, 2009; Putnis, 2009) and experiments (Norberg et al., 396 2011; Hövelmann et al., 2010). These studies reported that the new albite 397 398 mightalbitemight be porous and might contain secondary inclusions. Norberg et al. 399 (2011) observed associated microcracking in the K-feldspar adjacent to the reaction 400 front. The dissolution of K-feldspar has been found to be orientation-dependent 401 (Norberg et al., 2011). Sawtooth shapedCuspate protrusions of albite growing into the 402 host K-feldspar have been found to be characteristic of such interface-coupled 403 replacements (Norberg et al., 2011).
- The <u>sawtooth shapedcuspate</u> boundaries between new grains of albite and K-feldspar porphyroclasts are interpreted to indicate interface-coupled replacement (Fig. 6). <u>The</u>), <u>supported by the</u> porosity and apatite inclusions in albite replacing K-feldspar <del>support also this</del> assumption (Fig. 6b, d). The K-feldspar replacement is independent on the<u>from the</u> orientation toof the shortening or boundary to the foliation and stretching lineationslineation and is therefore <u>interpreted to be</u> not directly related to the strain. <u>field during deformation</u>, not

410	excluding some influence of higher strain along the boundary compared to within the crystal.	<b>Commented [F34]:</b> Point 29, review#1 review#2
411	The driving force is interpreted to be the difference in solubility between albite and K-feldspar	
412	at the given greenschist-facies metamorphic conditions (Putnis, 2009). Whereas locally albite	
413	grew to replace K-feldspar, K must have been transported through the pore fluid, either to form	
414	metamorphic phengitic mica in the foliation plane or to precipitate K-feldspar in polyphase	
415	strain shadows (see chapter 5.4.).	
416	The albite in grains along intragranular fractures within K-feldspar (Fig. 2b, 5d) might represent	
417	neocrystallization of albite replacing K-feldspar. As the intragranular fractures perpendicular	
418	to the stretching direction (X) lination (x), these sealed fractures might represent sites of dilation,	Commented [F35]: Point 30, review#1
419	it is more likely that the prismatic strain shadows, i.e. albite may have precipitated from the	
420	pore fluid withoutand not necessarily replacing K-feldspar, i.e. these sealed fractures rather	
421	represent strain shadows.	
422		
423	5.2. Strain- <del>driven<u>induced</u> replacement of albite</del>	
424	Albite porphyroclasts are mostly deformed at sites of shortening, commonly associated with	
425	dislocation glide indicated by bent mechanical twins (Fig. 7a-e). The areas of high strain <u>Albite</u>	
426	porphyroclasts are mostly deformed at boundaries parallel to the foliation, commonly	
427	associated with bent mechanical twins (Fig. 7a-e). Bent twins are corresponding to an undulous	
428	extinction indicating a continuous internal misorientation, which is usually taken to result from	
429	the presence of geometrically necessary dislocations (e.g., Nicolas and Poirier, 1976; Poirier,	
430	1985; Wheeler et al., 2009), though some microcracking might also be involved, as pointed out	
431	by Tullis and Yund (1987). For albite this continuous internal misorientation is not associated	
432	to distributed healed microfractures, as observed for K-feldspar (compare Figs. 5 and 7), which	
433	is taken to indicate a relative higher importance of dislocation glide for the deformation of albite	
434	compared to K-feldspar. Strained areas (fractures, porphyroclast boundaries) parallel to the	
435	foliation are replaced by new, strain free grains that are generally not twinned (Fig. 7b, d, e-f).	Commented [F36]: Points 31, 34 revi

review#1, point 5, 50

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436 The composition of the new albite grains can be the same as that of the replaced porphyroclast, 437 though it can also show slightly higher Na-content, as already reported by Stöckhert (1987). 438 Plagioclase with Ca-richer compositions occurs locally as thin rims at grain boundaries of new 439 grains with no systematic occurrence (Figs. 7f). Because new strain-free albite grains replace 440 twinned porphyroclasts with internal misorientation at sites of shorteningboundaries parallel to 441 the foliation (Figs. -7e, f, 8a, b), and along intragranular microcracks and kink bands parallel 442 to the foliation (Fig. 7a, b), the replacement is interpreted to be driven by the reduction in stored 443 strain energy. Strain-induced grain boundary migration eoupled withand formation of growth 444 rims following dislocation glide and microfracturing is consistent with an orientation scatter around the orientation of the host porphyroclast (Fig. 8d, f). The similar composition of the new 445 446 albite compared to the replaced porphyroclasts, with a tendency of a slightly increased Na-447 content, suggests a contribution of chemical driving forces although strain-induced grain 448 boundary migration is dominating (Stöckhert, 1982; Stünitz, 1998). Whereas dislocation glide 449 is indicated by bent, kinked and twinned porphyroclasts and fragments with internal 450 misorientationsmisorientation, we did not observe subgrains in deformed fragments (Fig. 8a-451 c), even not in strongly bent and kinked porphyroclasts (Fig. 7 a, b, e) and no sutured grain 452 boundaries indicating dynamic "bulging recrystallization" (e.g., Drury et al., 1985; Stünitz, 453 1998). This is consistent with the general finding that albite shows only little evidence of 454 dislocation climb with dynamic recovery and recrystallization at  $T \le 550^{\circ}C$  (e.g., Tullis, 1983; 455 Fitz Gerald & Stünitz, 1993; Kruse & Stünitz, 2001). and Stünitz, 1993; Kruse and Stünitz, 456 2001). Dislocation climb necessary for dynamie and recrystallization requires PRODUCT 457 intracrystalline diffusion. At the investigated temperatures ( $<550^{\circ}$ C), the NaSi  $\leftrightarrow$  CaAl 458 interdiffusion rates for plagioclase are very low (Yund, 1986; Korolyuk & Lepezin, 2009). In 459 the presence of water, the diffusion coefficient is several magnitudes higher, which might 460 account for the weakening observed in experiments where fluid is present (e.g. Rybacki & Dresen, 2004). Only few studies report subgrains in albite deformed at greenschist facies 461

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462 conditions, sometimes together with shear bands (Fitz Gerald & Stünitz, 1993; Eberlei et al.,
463 2014). TEM studies also show that sufficient dislocation climb to produce subgrains is effective
464 only at temperatures from the middle amphibolite upward (e.g. White, 1975; Stünitz et al.,
465 2003). The experiments by Tullis & Yund (1985) show that grain boundaries may migrate into
466 areas of higher dislocation density introduced by microfracturing driven by the reduction in
467 strain energy (Tullis & Yund, 1987) at conditions, at which recovery is not active.

468 We suggest that albite porphyroclasts deform in the regime of low-temperature plasticity, where 469 dislocation climb is ineffective and where dislocation glide leads to strain hardening and 470 microfracturing. Additionally, dislocations can be induced by microfracturing (Tullis and 471 Yund, 1987). Subsequently, grains grow by strain-induced grain boundary migration, where 472 crystalline volume with higher strain energy is dissolved and strain-free crystalline volumes 473 precipitated, as opposed to solid-state grain-boundary migration with effective dislocation 474 climb.suggested by Tullis and Yund (1987). Growth can additionally be by precipitation along 475 areas of lower solubility leading to growth rims with a shape-preferred orientation with long 476 axes in the foliation plane. Strain-induced grain boundary migration might be enhanced by 477 chemical disequilibrium (Stöckhert, 1982; Stünitz, 1998). ThisOur interpretation of strain-478 induced replacement is similar to the "micro-crush zones" described by Tullis & and Yund 479 (1992) associated with undulous extinction, shear bands and grain size reduction that are usually 480 associated to crystal plastic mechanisms (Mclaren & and Pryer, 2001; Stünitz et al., 2003). This 481 process is also similar to the "neocrystallization" in the sense of Fitz Gerald & and Stünitz 482 (1993) and Menegon et al. (2013), which may or may not cause some compositional variations, 483 dependent on the local fluid present. We, however, prefersuggest the term "strain-484 driveninduced replacement" for the nucleation by low-temperature plasticity (associated dislocation glide and microfracturing) and growth by strain-induced grain boundary 485 486 migrationto stress firstly the importance of dislocation glide (as opposed to the term "micro-487 crush zones" that stresses brittle mechanisms) and secondly to stress the difference to

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precipitation <u>with nucleation of new phases</u> from the pore fluid <del>at sites of dilation</del> in strain
shadows- (as opposed to the term "neocrystallization").

#### 491 5.3. Intragranular fracturing of K-feldspar

490

In contrast, K-feldspar porphyroclasts deformed dominantly by intragranular fracturing with no 492 493 comparable strain-driveninduced replacement associated with a grain size reduction as 494 observed for albite. Intragranular fractures at low angle to the shortening direction are the 495 dominating deformation microstructures, which did not result in major grain size reduction. A 496 preferred crystallographic relation of the intragranular fractures was not detected, given their 497 orientation at high angle to the stretching lineation independent on crystallographic orientation 498 (Fig. 5), ruling out a major influence of cleavage fractures, although feldspars do show perfect cleavage after (001) and one good cleavage after (010) (e.g., Tröger, 1982). Single fractures 499 500 are sealed with albite, K-feldspar and quartz representing prismatic strain shadows, or they are 501 healed (Fig. 5). Bending of K-feldspar porphyroclast associated to undulous extinction is 502 restricted to sites of distributed microcracking, where some influence of dislocation glide is 503 probable (Fig. 5a). (Fig. 5a). The high amount of healed microcracks at high angle to the 504 stretching lineation indicates that here, microfracturing was dominating over dislocation glide 505 in the bending of the crystal, as opposed to albite porphyroclasts (compare Fig. 5a and Fig. 7 a, 506 e). In contrast to plagioclase, where mechanical twinning is commonly observed, mechanical 507 twinning of K-feldspar is hindered by the Si/Al-ordering and has not been observed (Tullis, 508 1983).

Reaction weakening of K-feldspar, commonly in association with myrmekites, is known to play a major role during grain size reduction and ductile deformation at many metamorphic conditions (e.g., Simpson and Wintsch, 1989; Tsurumi et al., 2003; Ree et al., 2005; Menegon et al., 2006, 2008, 2013; Abart et al., 2014). In the mylonitic pegmatites described here, myrmekitic replacements are very rare and apart from the sawtooth shapedcuspate Commented [F40]: Point 37, review#1

Commented [F41]: Point 37, review #2

514 replacements, K-feldspar porphyroclasts are well preserved. Thus, reaction weakening of K-

515 feldspar is rheologically not relevant for the mylonitic deformation described here.

516

539

## 517 **5.4. Precipitation** at sites of dilation in strain shadows

518 The occurrence of polyphase aggregates of K-feldspar, albite, mica and quartz located at 519 dilatational sitesin strain shadows between fragments of tourmaline and feldspar 520 porphyroclasts, as well as surrounding porphyroclast (Figs. 2a, b, 4a-c, 5c, d), with random 521 texture and absent systematic crystallographic relationships indicate that these aggregates 522 represent precipitates of a saturated pore fluid during deformation by dissolution-precipitation 523 creep (Passchier & Trouw, 2005). e.g., Groshong, 1988; Passchier and Trouw, 2005; Wassmann 524 and Stöckhert, 2013). That few grain orientations in the strain shadow correlate with that of the 525 host crystal is interpreted to be due to the presence of fragments of the host crystal (Fig. 4d). 526 The precipitation of K-feldspar, quartz and albite in strain shadows and albite growth rims is 527 restricted to sites of dilation, i.e. boundaries at high angle to the stretching lineation (x), i.e. 528 controlled by strain, yet an additional chemical driving force is clearly not ruled out but rather 529 probable. Additionaly, some replacement might also occur in strain shadows. The sites of 530 dissolution are much more difficult to identify, as the material has been removed. A polyphase matrix of K-feldspar, albite quartz and mica in mylonitic granitoids is often 531 532 attributed to fine-grained reaction products (e.g., Stünitz & and Fitz Gerald, 1993; Rosenberg 533 &and Stünitz, 2003; Kilian et al., 2011). Other authors, suggest polyphase matrix to develop by 534 mechanical phase mixing in mylonites at highest strain (Fliervoet, 1995). In the mylonitic 535 pegmatites reported here, however, no indication of active "phase mixing" is observed and we

attribute the occurrence of a polyphase matrix to precipitation. Also, the highest strain in
 the<u>characteristic</u> mylonitic <u>microstructure of the</u> pegmatites is associated not with a polyphase
 matrix but with the monophase quartz and feldsparalbite layers.

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## 540 **5.5. Formation of monophase albite layers**

541 Based on our observations that the albite in layers shows the same characteristics as albite grains 542 replacing albite porphyroclasts (missing subgrains and internal misorientations, apatite 543 inclusions, weak chemical zoning and porosity, and remnants of twinned porphyroclast 544 fragments), we suggest, that the strain-driveninduced replacement of albite is the most 545 important process of grain size reduction to form the monophase albite layers (Fig. 14). 546 Additionally, somepart of the albite in the mylonitic matrix stems from the replacement of K-547 feldspar (Sectssects. 4.2 and 5.1), as suggested by K-feldspar-relicts (Figs. 12b; 13a). Because 548 the matrix layers comprise about 95% albite, independent on the ratio of K-feldspar to albite 549 porphyroclasts, we suggest that albite is taking up a higher amount of strain as compared to K-550 feldspar. Dislocation creep of albite is ruled out as main process to form the fine-grained almost 551 monophase albite layers, given a missing systematic CPO as well as missing evidence of 552 effective dislocation climb. Also, precipitation from the pore fluid as dominating process can 553 be ruled out, given the monophase composition of the layers, in contrast to polyphase 554 aggregates in dilation sites strain shadows. Cataclasis would suggest a higher amount of 555 twinned and deformed fragments. Instead, only very rarely twinned grains are observed (Fig. 556 13e).

557 AfterWe suggest that after grain size reduction by, the strain driven replacement of fine-grained 558 albite, matrix was undergoing a mixture of dissolution-precipitation processes, microcracking 559 and sliding of grains, commonly referred to as granular flow (e.g., Behrmann and Mainprice, 560 1987; Stünitz and Fitz Gerald, 1993; Jiang et al., 2000), i.e. sliding of grains relative to each 561 other probably has played a major role in the fine grained albite matrix. Straight). Sliding might 562 have occurred along straight boundaries weakly inclined to the foliation (Fig. 13b) might represent boundaries along which sliding occurred. This and the weak zoning in association 563 with microcracks13b). Microcracking is indicated by the fractures at lowhigh angles to the 564 565 shortening direction<u>foliation</u> (Fig. 13a, b, e) indicate that granular flow was assisted by

566	microcracking and). The weak zoning of grains (Figs. 11 and 13) suggests the involvement of
567	dissolution-precipitation-processes. Granular flow would also cause weakening of a domainal
568	CPO resulting from the replacement of albite porphyroclasts (e.g. Jiang and Wheeler, et al.,
569	2000; Hildyard et al., 2011).
570	Quartz layers of coarse recrystallized grains systematically correlate with albite layers of small
571	isometric grains in the type A matrix microstructure (sect. 4.4; Figs. 9a, b; 10; 11). In contrast,

572 narrow quartz layers with fine-grained quartz aggregates and marked CPO are correlated with

573 elongate coarser albite in the type B matrix microstructure (<u>Sect. 4.4;</u> Figs. 9c, d; 12; 13).

574 The elongate shape of albite and zones of high porosity at boundaries at high angle to the 575 stretching lineation in the type B matrix microstructure indicates oriented growth parallel to the 576 stretching lineation, i.e. overgrowth at sites of dilation, as indicated by the growth zones 577 associated with porosity parallel to the shortening direction precipitation, resulting in a shape-578 preferred orientation (Fig. 13e, f). The microstructure correlates with the overall strain of the 579 mylonitic matrix (Fig. 14). The In samples with higher the overall strain, the coarser and more 580 elongate the albite grains in the layers are coarser and more elongate and the finer-grained 581 quartz aggregates with are finer-grained and have a marked CPO. Therefore, we suggest that 582 the albite grains grew parallel to the stretching lineation, forming a higher aspect ratio by 583 preferred growth.

584

585 **5.6. Rheologically dominant processes** 

586

587 **5.6. Implications for rock rheology and deformation history** 

The prismatic strain shadows of polyphase material between fragmented tourmaline and feldspar as well as strain shadows surrounding <u>porphyroclastporphyroclasts</u> indicate that dissolution-precipitation creep did play a role in the rheology of the rocks. Yet, other indicators of dissolution-precipitation creep, as for example evidence of dissolved feldspar porphyroclasts **Commented [F44]:** Point 40, review #1, Points 42, 48, review#2

592	at sites of shortening, i.e. strain caps, are remarkably low. In contrast, the monophase quartz
593	and albite layers are the main characteristic of the mylonitic microstructure and clearly
594	correlated with strain. Therefore, strain induced replacement of albite with granular flow and
595	dislocation creep of quartz are interpreted to rheologically dominate over dissolution-
596	precipitation creep.along boundaries parallel to the foliation, i.e. strain caps, are remarkably
597	low. The monophase alternating quartz and albite layers are the main characteristic of the
598	mylonites. The dominating process of grain size reduction of feldspar is interpreted to be the
599	strain-induced replacement of albite with associated dislocation glide and fracturing (Fig. 14).
600	Subsequent growth by strain-induced grain boundary migration and formation of growth rims
601	by precipitation resulted in a SPO (Fig. 14), which took place probably simultaneously together
602	with granular flow and dislocation creep of quartz. As such, for considering the rock's rheology,
603	these different deformation mechanisms and associated processes have to be taken into account.
604	where the relative contributions additionally vary with time. In contrast, dissolution-
605	precipitation creep with dissolution along boundaries parallel to the foliation and precipitation
606	with nucleation of new phases in strain shadows is interpreted to play an only subordinate role
607	for the formation of the mylonitic alternating quartz-albite layers, although precipitation of
608	albite forming elongate grains with SPO in monophase aggregates is important. Furthermore, a
609	major role of dislocation creep of feldspar (i.e., deformation by dislocation glide with
610	simultaneous dynamic recovery) on the formation of the mylonitic microstructure as may be
611	suggested by monophase layers of fine-grained feldspar aggregates, is not supported by any
612	further microstructural observation (e.g., systematic missing of LAGBs) and therefore
613	interpreted to be rheologically not relevant during deformation.
614	The observation of newly precipitated grains from the pore fluid between tourmaline and K-
615	feldspar fractures at sites of dilationstrain shadows as well as the microcracks in K-feldspar that
616	are cut off by the wedge shaped albites replacing K-feldspar (Figs. 2a, b; 3c, d) indicate growth

617 of grains after fracturing and during ongoing deformation. The observation of the deflected

618	mylonitic foliation around former porphyroclasts, which are now replaced by new grains (Fig.
619	2c, d; 7c), indicates that the new grains grew after, or more probably, during the formation of
620	the mylonitic layers, but not before. Thus, strain-induced replacement of albite must have
621	played an important role during an early stage of deformation and was ongoing during granular
622	flow. Thus, a specific sequence of different deformation episodes at markedly different
623	metamorphic stages, as had been discussed, is not apparent (Stöckhert, 1987; Mancktelow et
624	al., 2001). The indication of the type A matrix microstructure being dominating in the eastern
625	area and the type B matrix microstructure representing in comparison higher strain in the
626	western area (Fig. 1) might be correlated with higher metamorphic temperature conditions in
627	the western area, as the amount of uplift and erosion since the intrusion of magmatic bodies at
628	30 Ma is increasing from about 10 km in an eastern area of the Rieserferner to about 15 to 25
629	km in the Rensen area in the west (Trepmann et al., 2004).

630

## 631 6. Conclusions

The mylonitic pegmatites record the deformation behaviour of feldspar at greenschist faciesconditions. Based on our observations and discussions we draw the following conclusions:

- K-feldspar porphyroclasts deformed dominantly by fracturing and only subordinate
   dislocation glide, without major grain size reduction. Healed or sealed intragranular
   fractures in large porphyroclasts at lowhigh angle to the shortening directionstretching
   <u>lineation</u> are the dominating deformation microstructures of K-feldspar (Fig. 5).
- 638 2. Interface-coupled replacement of K-feldspar by albite is mainly driven by chemical
  639 disequilibrium and not by strain, as indicated by the sawtooth shaped<u>cuspate</u> albite-K640 feldspar phase boundaries <u>independent on the orientation of the boundary to the foliation</u>
  641 <u>or the stretching lineation (Fig. 6).</u>
- Grain size reduction of albite porphyroclasts is by combined fracturing, and dislocation
   glide, i.e. low-temperature plasticity. Dislocation glide is indicated by bent and twinned

**Commented [F45]:** General comment and points 42, 43 review #1, points 1, 2 review#2

644	remnant host albites with internal misorientation. Evidence of significant amount of
645	dislocation climb allowing effective dislocation creep with dynamic recovery of
646	feldspar is systematically missing (no subgrains, negligible internal misorientation of
647	<u>new grains; Figs. 10c, d, 12c, e).</u>
648	3.4.Subsequent strain-induced grain boundary migration and formation of growth rims
649	produced aggregates of strain-free albite grains with SPO at sites of
650	shorteningporphyroclast boundaries parallel to the foliation (Figs. 7c-f, 8). The observed
651	tendency of slightly enriched Na-content (decrease of Ca-content) of the new albite
652	grains compared to albite porphyroclasts is in agreement with an additional, though
653	subordinate driving force for grain boundary migration by chemical disequilibrium
654	(Stöckhert, 1982).
655	4.1.Dislocation glide is indicated by bent, kinked and twinned albite with internal
656	misorientation. Evidence of significant amount of dislocation climb allowing effective
657	dislocation creep with recovery of feldspar is systematically missing (no subgrains,
658	negligible internal misorientation of new grains, random texture Figs. 10e, d, 12e, e).
659	5. Granular flow of the new albite grains assisted by fracturing and dissolution-
660	precipitation with overgrowth of albite parallel to the stretching direction in samples of
661	high strain led to the monophase albite ribbons (Figs. 9-13).
662	6.5. Monophase quartz ribbonslayers formed dominantly by dislocation creep (dislocation
663	glide, <u>dynamic</u> recovery and grain boundary migrationrecrystallization) of quartz, as
664	indicated by sutured grain boundaries, CPO, subgrains and undulatory extinction (Figs.
665	2c, 9, 12a, d). Some influence of dissolution-precipitation creep cannot be excluded;
666	though microstructural evidence has not been observed.
667	Although evidence of dissolution-precipitation creep is evident by polyphase strain shadows
668	and sealed fractures of porphyroclasts, the main strain of the mylonitic pegmatites is correlating
669	with the alternating albite and quartz layers. Strain-induced replacement of albite and granular
1	

670	flow assisted by fracturing and dissolution precipitation as well as dislocation creep of quartz
671	are the rheologically dominant processes recorded by the pegmatitic mylonites.
672	6. Granular flow of the new albite grains with overgrowth of albite forming a SPO together
673	with quartz dislocation creep is interpreted to result in the alternating monophase albite-
674	quartz layers (Figs. 9-13).
675	For considering the rock's rheology, these different deformation mechanisms and associated
676	processes have to be taken into account, where the relative contributions additionally vary with
677	time.
678	
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