Paleogeographic evolution of the central segment of the South Atlantic during Early Cretaceous times: Paleotopographic and geodynamic implications

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Abstract :

The geodynamic processes that control the opening of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean (between the Walvis Ridge and the Ascension FZ) are debated. In this paper, we discuss the timing of the sedimentary and tectonic evolution of the Early Cretaceous rift by drawing eight paleogeographic and geodynamic maps from the Berriasian to the Middle–Late Aptian, based on a biostratigraphic (ostracodes and pollen) chart recalibrated on absolute ages (chemostratigraphy, interstratified volcanics, Re–Os dating of the organic matter).

The central segment of the South Atlantic is composed of two domains, with a two phases evolution of the pre-drift (“rifting”) times: a rift phase characterized by tilted blocks and growth strata, followed by a sag basin. The southern domain includes the Namibe, Santos and Campos Basins. The northern domain extends from the Espirito Santo and North Kwanza Basins, in the south, to the Sergipe–Alagoas and North Gabon Basins to the north.

Extension started in the northern domain during the Late Berriasian (Congo–Camamu Basin to the Sergipe–Alagoas–North Gabon Basins) and migrated southward. At that time, the southern domain was not a subsiding domain (emplacement of the Parana–Etendeka Trapp). Extension started in this southern domain during the Early Barremian. The rift phase is shorter in the south (5–6 Ma, Barremian to base Aptian) than in the north (19 to 20 Myr, Upper Berriasian to base Aptian). The sag phase is of Middle to Late Aptian age. In the northern domain, this transition corresponds to a hiatus of Early to Middle Aptian age.

From the Late Berriasian to base Aptian, the northern domain evolves from a deep lake with lateral highs to a shallower organic-rich one with no more highs. The lake migrates southward in two steps, until the Valanginian at the border between the northern and southern domains, until the Early Barremian, north of Walvis Ridge.

Highlights

► Age reevaluation of the basins ► Compilation of eight paleogeographic and deformation maps ► Two main domains with different deformation and sedimentary history ► Diachronous extension from north (Late Berriasian) to south (Early Barremian). ► Transition to brittle rift to sag during Early Aptian, with hiatus in the northern domain.

Keywords : South Atlantic Ocean - central segment, Rift, Early Cretaceous, Paleogeography, Geodynamic

1. Introduction

The South Atlantic Ocean results from the breakup of Gondwana into two continents, South America and Africa, during Early Cretaceous times. It can be divided into four segments (Moulin et al., 2005): the Falkland segment, south of the Agulhas–Falkland Fracture Zone (AFFZ), the southern segment from the AFFZ to the Rio-Grande FZ, the central segment from the Rio-Grande to the Ascension FZ, and the equatorial segment from the Ascension to the Marathon FZ (Fig. 1).

On both South American and African sides, the central segment is characterized by a sag basin phase (Karner and Driscoll, 1999; Karner et al., 2003; Lentini et al., 2010; Marton et al., 2000), prior to salt deposition and oceanic accretion, and after a rift phase characterized by blocks tilting in the upper continental crust. The sag basin (also called pre-salt sag basin or pre-salt wedge) is characterized by a thick wedge of sediments (3 to 5 km), with no evidence of brittle extension (tilted blocks with syn-sedimentary normal faults with a wavelength of several kilometers to several tens of kilometers). It looks like a large wavelength (several hundreds of kilometers) “flexural” basin. In its proximal part, this sag basin onlaps the tilted blocks mentioned above (Moulin et al., 2005).

This two steps evolution, with a rift phase with tilted blocks and growth strata first and a sag phase second, does not fit with classical

Fig. 1. Location map of the studied basins at their original position during Berriasian times (plate kinematic model of [Moulin et al., 2010](#)), and general map of the different segments of the South Atlantic Ocean (modified from [Moulin et al., 2010](#)).

models of uniform lithospheric extension, pure shear ([McKenzie, 1978](#)) and simple shear ([Wernicke, 1985](#)) models. Thus, alternative depth dependent models were proposed. By applying the model of

[Lavie and Manatschal \(2006\)](#), with brittle layers within the lower crust and the upper mantle, [Unternehr et al. \(2010\)](#) suggest a two phases conservational model (the volume of continental crust at the

end of the extension is strictly equal to the initial volume before any horizontal movement) with (1) a thinning mode of the lithosphere with brittle deformation and necking of the lower crust in the most distal part and (2) an exhumation mode with denudation of the upper mantle. Aslanian et al. (2009) proposed a non conservational model in three phases, (1) extensive phase (called rift phase) with few tilted blocks in the upper continental crust, (2) the exhumation phase (with the sag formation and the salt deposition), main thinning phase mostly involving the lower continental crust and (3) the break-up and oceanic spreading stage. The Huismans and Beaumont's model (2008, 2011), based on lithospheric numerical models with depth-dependant extension, implies a weak lower crust, decoupling layer between the crust and the mantle lithosphere, and, as a consequence, a diachronism between the mantle and the upper crust thinning. Those models did not agree on several points: the rheology of the lithosphere (weak or strong), as well as the nature of the exhumed material, the timing and the synchronicity of the extensional period characterized by blocks tilting and the sag basin.

Except for the Aslanian et al. model (2009), little attention is paid in those models to paleogeographic and paleotopographic constraints and consequences. The aim of this study is to establish the timing of the sedimentary and tectonic evolution of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1), on both sides, during the Early Cretaceous, by drawing paleogeographic and geodynamic maps, in order to answer several questions: What is the age of the rift phase with block tilting and the sag periods? Do they overlap through time? If the exhumation models (Aslanian et al., 2009; Lavier and Manatschal, 2006) can be applied to this oceanic segment what is the age of this exhumation, time of denudation of the mantle and/or lower continental crusts?, How do the sedimentary environments of the rift and sag periods change? What are the surrounding reliefs and catchments?

2. Geological setting

The beginning of the rifting along the central segment of the South Atlantic is of Berriasian age (Campos Neto et al., 2007; Costa et al., 2007; França et al., 2007; Gontijo et al., 2007; Karner and Driscoll, 1999; Moreira et al., 2007; Rangel et al., 2007; Rodovalho et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2007; Winter et al., 2007) and ends with the deposition of salt during Aptian times. The initial plate fit between South America and Africa is still a subject of discussion (Aslanian and Moulin, 2010, 2012; Eagles, 2007; Moulin et al., 2010; Torsvik et al., 2009).

The timing of the rift of the central segment is still being discussed. Since the pioneer works of Karner et al. (1997, 2003), authors agree that there is a two phases evolution, first an extensional period with block tilting in the inner upper continental crust, and a second one, corresponding to the so-called sag basin (or pre-salt wedge, pre-salt sag basin, post-rift ante drift). For Karner et al. (2003), this transition is of early Barremian age on the African side. According to the Petrobras geologists (Campos Neto et al., 2007; Costa et al., 2007; França et al., 2007; Gontijo et al., 2007; Milani et al., 2007; Moreira et al., 2007; Rangel et al., 2007; Rodovalho et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2007; Winter et al., 2007), the base of the sag (called post-rift by them) is recorded by an unconformity (interpreted as the break-up unconformity) which is diachronous along the Brazilian margin, dated pre-Alagoas to neo-Alagoas, i.e. from base Aptian to Middle-Late Aptian.

Within the first extensional period with blocks tilting, (rift phase of Aslanian et al., 2009), several periods of extension were identified (Gabon: Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990; Almada-Camamu: Scotchman and Chiossi, 2009; Congo: Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990; Cabinda: Braccini et al., 1997; Santos: Dyer, 2008). For the South Gabon to Congo Basins, authors agree that there was a decrease in the extension rate during the rift phase with blocks tilting, i.e. from base Neocomian to Late Barremian-Early Aptian.

During the evolution of the rifting (rift phase with tilted blocks + sag), several authors (Guiraud and Maurin, 1991, 1992; Magnavita et al., 2005; Matos, 1992, 1999) suggest variations in the extensional direction, but they do not agree for the timing of these changes. North of the Reconcavo-South Gabon Basins until the Potiguar-Benue Basins, Matos (1992, 1999) suggests three changes, EW to ESE-WNW (Early Berriasian), SE-NW (Late Berriasian to Early Barremian) and again EW to ESE-WNW (Late Barremian), while Magnavita et al. (2005) suggest two steps, E-W (Berriasian-Valanginian: Rio da Serra stage) and SE-NW (Barremian-Aptian, Jiquia stage). At the scale of Africa, Guiraud and Maurin (1991, 1992) show a major change during the Aptian, between a NNE-SSW and an ENE-SSW direction.

While the volcanic nature of the austral segment of the South Atlantic, characterized by the presence of seaward-dipping reflectors (SDRs) – subaerial volcanic flows – is well established, the volcanic nature of the margins of the South Atlantic central segment and then the occurrence of seaward-dipping reflectors, are debated (Blaich et al., 2011; Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005; Reston, 2010). SDRs were expected in the Sergipe and Gabon Basins (Mohriak et al., 1995, 1998), and also southward in the Santos and Campos Basins (Mohriak and Rosendahl, 2003, 2008). According to several authors (Blaich et al., 2010, 2011; Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005), the margins of the central segment are not volcanic margins, because (1) if volcanism occurred locally, it is not a major process for the formation of the margin compare to the austral segment and (2) the subsalt geometries on the seismic lines show structures very different from volcanic margins worldwide.

The time of first occurrence of the oceanic crust is highly debated, and particularly the relationship with the salt. For the “post-breakup salt” scenario, accretion occurred before salt deposition (Abreu, 1998; Fonck et al., 1998; Guiraud and Maurin, 1992; Jackson et al., 2000; Karner et al., 1997; Marton et al., 2000; Nürnberg and Müller, 1991). In this case, the salt basins of the African and Brazilian margins were separated and deposited on a proto-oceanic crust. For the “pre-breakup salt” scenario, seafloor spreading occurred after salt deposition (Davison, 1999; Duval et al., 1992; Evans, 1978; Guardado et al., 1990; Ojeda, 1982), and the substratum of the pre-salt sediment infill would be continental or sub-continental (thinned continental crust, intruded lower continental crust or exhumed mantle material, Moulin et al., 2005).

The geochemical study of the fine-grained sediments of the Congo by Harris (2000) and Harris et al. (2004) provides interesting constraints on the paleoreliefs, paleoweatherings and paleolimnology. Two phases are identified. The active rift (Sialivakou and Djeno, Neocomian-Early Barremian) corresponds to narrow deep lakes with restricted circulation and low O₂ levels and steep topography on the rift sides with a weathering-limited soil profile and a low to moderate flux of CO₂. The late rift (Marnes Noires and Argiles vertes, Late Barremian-Aptian) corresponds to broad shallow lakes with low O₂ levels in the water column and moderate topography on the rift sides with an intermediate soil profile and a moderate to high flux of CO₂. This leads to the precipitation of carbonates and a large increase of dissolved SiO₂.

3. Paleogeographic and geodynamic maps: method

Paleogeographic and geodynamic maps were synthesized from published data. They show, for time slices of a few millions years and with South America and Africa in their position for each period, (1) the distribution of the main facies (paleogeographic maps), from alluvial fans to deep lacustrine environments (with indication of the marine flooding) and (2) the location and the type of basin (geodynamic maps). The three main limits of these maps are (1) the heterogeneity of the data, (2) the age dating and (3) a dataset, limited to the shallowest part of the present-day margin.

207 Most of the pre-Albian sediments from the central segment of the
208 South Atlantic are continental deposits. The fossils available for dating
209 are ostracodes and pollen. Regional biozonations (Fig. 2) have been
210 defined on both sides of the South Atlantic Ocean (Brazil, Reconcavo-
211 Tucano-Jatoba is a reference: Moura, 1972, Africa: Grosdidier et al.,
212 1996) and an equivalence for the ostracodes biozonations has been
213 proposed by Bate (1999). The key question is the calibration of those
214 regional scales on the international stratigraphic chart.

215 On the African side, the regional biostratigraphic scale (Fig. 2) has
216 been established by the Elf biostratigraphers and published by
217 Grosdidier et al. (1996): 11 ostracode biozones labeled from AS2 to
218 AS13, 8 pollen biozones labeled from CII to CIX (Doyle et al., 1977,
219 1982), and 10 composite biozones (NE1 to NE 3, BA1 to BA 4 and
220 AP1 to AP2) (Braccini et al., 1997). For the Brazilian basins, the
221 regional biostratigraphic scale (Fig. 2) has been established by the
222 Petrobras biostratigraphers (Moura, 1972) with 10 ostracode biozones
223 (labeled from RT002 to RT009) and 28 ostracode subzones and 10
224 pollen biozones (from P120 to P270) (Arai et al., 1989; Regali et al.,
225 1974). Schaller (1969) and Viana et al. (1971) proposed local stages
226 for the Lower Cretaceous of the Brazilian margin: Dom Soao, Rio da
227 Serra, Arato, Buracica, Jiquia and Alagoas. Because the synchronicity of
228 the limits of those stages is questionable (Arai et al., 1989, charts pub-
229 lished by Milani et al., 2007), this nomenclature was not applied here.

230 Because of the limited connections with the sea, the calibration
231 of these regional biozonations with the standard international strati-
232 graphic scale, based on marine faunas, is difficult and the arguments
233 for the equivalences are not really discussed. Elf biostratigraphers
(Braccini et al., 1997; Grosdidier et al., 1996) defined three stages

234 Neocomian, Barremian and Aptian, with uncertainties on the exact
235 location of the stage boundaries (Fig. 2). Braccini et al. (1997) proposed
236 absolute ages for the limits of the composite biozones that made
237 it possible to define the Berriasian, Valanginian and Hauterivian
238 stages. On the Brazilian side, the stratigraphic scale (local biozones
239 and international stages) was published by Feijo (1994) and Bueno
240 (2004). They do not agree on the limit of the stages with respect to
241 the same biozonations (Fig. 2).

242 We used the equivalence of the ostracode biozones proposed by
243 Bate (1999) to compare the ages on both sides of the Atlantic
244 (Fig. 2). They do not fit. The Berriasian-Valanginian boundary on
245 the Brazilian side is equivalent to the Lower-Upper Valanginian
246 boundary on the African side. The Hauterivian-Barremian boundary
247 on the Brazilian side is equivalent to the Lower-Upper Barremian
248 boundary on the African side.

249 This implies that new data must be obtained for an absolute
250 age calibration of these regional biozonations (Fig. 3). We compiled
251 (1) absolute ages available on volcanics interstratified with sediments
252 dated by ostracodes (Santos and Campos Basins) and on organic
253 matter-rich sediments (Re-Os dating technique, Creaser et al., 2008)
254 and (2) chemostratigraphical data (Bueno, 2004) and synthesized
255 them on the chart of the International Commission for Stratigraphy
256 published in 2009 (www:http://stratigraphy.org). Those data are only
257 available on the Brazilian side of the rift. For Re-Os datings, no error
258 bars on the ages are available.

259 The first level that can be dated correspond to the organic matter-rich
260 shales of the Rio da Serra Brazilian stage (Candeia Formation?) of the
261 Reconcavo Basin, ranging from ostracode biozones 002.2 to 003.2
262 (intra AS3), at around 140 Ma (Creaser et al., 2008, i.e. around the
263 Berriasian-Valanginian boundary).

2 Fig. 2. Biostratigraphic zonations (ostracodes and pollen) and equivalences on the standard international stratigraphic time-scale (ICS, 2009) for the Cretaceous ante-Albian sediments of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean, for both the African and Brazilian sides of the rift. Africa has been taken as a reference for the absolute age calibration, based on the data of Braccini et al. (1997).

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Fig. 3. Absolute age calibration of both African and Brazilian biozonations (ostracodes and pollen) on the standard international stratigraphic time-scale (ICS, 2009), based on chemostratigraphic data ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$), age of the interstratified volcanism and Re-Os dating of the organic matter.

Based on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations in the Espirito Santo, Cumuruxatiba, Camamu, Reconcavo, Tucano, Sergipe and Alagoas Basins (Bueno, 2004), the Weissert oceanic anoxic event has been identified at the boundary between the Rio da Serra and Aratu Brazilian stages, at the limit of the 004.4 and 004.5 ostracode biozones (intra AS5). This event (Ogg et al., 2008) corresponds to the Lower-Upper Valanginian boundary.

The Cabuinas Formation volcanics of the Campos Basin (interstratified with sediments of ostracode biozone 005, intra AS6) have been dated from 122 ± 5 – 134 ± 4 Ma (Mizusaki et al., 1989 in Rangel et al., 1994). The Camboriu Formation volcanics of the Santos Basin (assumed to be of the same age as the Cabuinas Formation) is dated from 130 to 121 Ma (Moreira et al., 2007). These ages are either K/Ar datings on whole rocks (Campos) or are not specified (Santos). Better ages based on the Ar/Ar technique on plagioclase, are available onshore on the dykes, which are possible time-equivalent of the basalts from the Camboriu and Cabuinas Formations. These ages range from 131.4 ± 0.5 to 129.2 ± 0.4 Ma (Ponta Grossa dyke swarm, Renne et al., 1996), from 133.3 ± 1.7 to 129.4 ± 0.6 Ma (Rio de Janeiro dyke swarm, Turner et al., 1994) and from 131.4 ± 0.5 to 129.2 ± 0.4 Ma (Rio de Janeiro dyke swarm, Deckart et al., 1998). This suggests that the volcanics, and then ostracode biozone 005, could extend from 131.5 to 129.5 Ma (i.e. around the Hauterivian-Barremian boundary). This is supported by the age of organic-rich sediments of the Aratu Brazilian stage (?Pojuca Fm), ranging from ostracode biozones 005.1 to 005.3, at around 131 Ma (Creaser et al., 2008).

The organic matter-rich shales of the Lagoa Feia Group (Coqueiros Formation) in the Reconcavo Basin (ostracode biozone 009) are dated at around 125 Ma (Creaser et al., 2008, i.e. around the Barremian-Aptian boundary).

The first marine faunas that could be related to the reference standard biozonations are located above the salt and belong to the *Ticinella bajaouaensis* foraminifer biozone (Sergipe basin, Koutsoukos and Bengston, 1993) of Late Aptian age.

A stratigraphic chart (Fig. 4) has then been compiled using the biostratigraphic data available on ostracodes and pollen on both sides of the South Atlantic Ocean.

3.2. Plate kinematics reconstructions

The plate kinematics reconstructions used are those published by Moulin et al. (2010). Intraplate deformations on both Africa and South America plates are now well accepted since the works of Burde and Dewey (1978) and Curie (1984). The model of Moulin et al. (2010), compared to the other models available, takes into account all the offshore and onshore geological and geophysical constraints (e.g. new magnetic anomalies identification) and discuss the occurrence, location and evolution of the intraplate deformations during the opening of the South Atlantic.

The African and South American tectonic plates are subdivided into sub-blocks (4 in Africa, 9 in South America). The limits of the sub-blocks, called intraplate boundaries, correspond to more or less continuous area of deformation, simplified as lines on the map for graphical reasons. In this study, all the paleogeographic maps show the motion of plates and sub-blocks relative to a fixed specific domain, here the Austral African Block. All finite rotations applied in this work are interpolated from the model of Moulin et al. (2010).

Six main environments have been mapped based on the sedimentological or paleoecological data available: open marine, hypersaline (salt), lacustrine (with turbidites, i.e. deep lake, shallow limestones, and organic matter-rich), deltaic, alluvial plain (distal, proximal) and alluvial fans. Alluvial plain deposits correspond to all the alluvial deposits that did not correspond to alluvial fans. Based on the grain size, two types of alluvial plains were defined: coarse-grained sediments should be deposits of bedload fluvial channels and fine-grained sediments are those of mixed to suspended-load channels. Possible highs with no preserved sediments were also reported, as well as hiatuses.

The detailed maps are based on the present-day contours of the preserved sediments. Numerous data have been published for the African basins (e.g. Anderson et al., 2000; Bate et al., 2001; Braccini et al., 1997; Mbina Mounguengui and Guiraud, 2009; Mbina Mounguengui et al., 2008; Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990; Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990). For the Brazilian basins, we used both published sedimentological studies (e.g. Dias et al., 1988; Figueiredo et al., 1994; Rangel and Carminatti, 2000) and, when data are missing, facies data available on the detailed stratigraphic charts of Petrobras (Milani et al., 2007) are reported on the basin contours. For each map, the names of the mapped lithostratigraphic units are indicated.

Stratigraphic charts, with detailed facies evolution, were compiled for each basin (Fig. 5).

3.4. *Geodynamic maps: active tectonic structures, types of sedimentary basins and volcanism*

A deformation chart (Fig. 6) has been established. Four types of tectonic settings were defined: pre-rift stage, rift phase with tilted blocks and growth strata, sag and post-rift passive margin, with a focus on the rift and sag phases. Sag basins are recorded by flexural geometries with a wavelength of hundreds of kilometers, unconformably overlapping the tilted blocks of the underlying rift phase. It corresponds to the pre-salt wedge or pre-salt sag basin of Karner et al. (2003) and Karner and Driscoll (1999) and to the post-rift ante drift of Petrobras geologists (Milani et al., 2007). These data were put back onto the previously established stratigraphic chart (Fig. 4).

This chart is based on published papers (Brazilian side: Petrobras charts, African side: Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990; Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990) or on the interpretation of published sections (e.g. Dyer, 2008 for the Santos Basin; Braccini et al., 1997 for the Cabinda Basin).

4. Stratigraphic and deformation charts: main limits

4.1. *Stratigraphic charts (Fig. 4)*

Biostratigraphic data are not available for three basins: the Lower Congo, Namibe and Santos Basins. The lithostratigraphy of the Lower Congo Basin (Anderson et al., 2000) is the same as the one applied in Cabinda. We extended the Cabinda lithologies and environments to the Lower Congo. The knowledge of the Namibe Basin is more critical, because only one publication (Coterill et al., 2002) is available for this key area. We therefore used Coterill's data on the chart; these data indicate a different evolution of the Namibe Basin compared to the conjugate Santos Basin. This means either (1) a specific tectonic setting of this basin compared to the Santos Basin (Moulin et al., 2012) or (2) an error in the age attribution of the volcanics (Neocomian-Barremian boundary) by Coterill et al. (2002) that could be younger than expected. In fact, these volcanics could be of the same age as the ones of Late Cretaceous (bounded by sediments of Turonian and Campanian ages) cropping out onshore on the Mossamedes Basin (Carvalho, 1961). Because the age attribution and the stratigraphic sequence pattern of the Santos Basin (Moreira

et al., 2007) are similar to those of the Campos Basin (Winter et al., 2007), the age of the different formations of the Santos Basin is deduced from the Campos Basin, where biostratigraphic data are available.

Some basins have incomplete or contradictory biostratigraphic datasets. For the Kwanza Basin, some ostracode biozones were not formally identified (AS3-4 for the Falção Limestones and AS3-5 for the Lukunga shales), and a continuity of sedimentation is assumed with the underlying Lukunga Sandstones (AS2) by Bate et al. (2001), from AS2 to AS5. An alternative interpretation could be a hiatus of AS3-4 and AS3-5. In the same area, Bate et al. (2001) suggest, in a figure, a hiatus that is not discussed in the text. This is why we have considered two different scenarios for the Kwanza Basin. For the Cabinda and Campos Basins, several contradictory studies on the lithostratigraphic interpretation have been carried out (Cabinda Basin: Braccini et al., 1997; Karner et al., 2003; McHargue, 1990; Campos Basin: Rangel and Carminatti, 2000; Winter et al., 2007). In both cases, we kept those for which biostratigraphic and geological data (wells correlation and geometries) were published (Cabinda Basin: Braccini et al., 1997; Campos Basin: Rangel and Carminatti, 2000).

The early stages of deposition of some late subsiding basins are subjects to discussion. No data are available for the age of the base of the Jequitinhonha Basin, dated by comparison with the Espírito Santo and Almada-Camamu Basins. Another key question is the age of the North Gabon Basin (Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990) and then the possible occurrence of sediments older than the N'Toum-Bikele Fm (biozone AS9-11, Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990) that could be equivalent to the lower part of its twin basin, the Jacuipe Basin.

We characterized a hiatus of variable duration through space during the Early-Middle Aptian, except in the Santos Basin. This hiatus is well known on the African side (work by Elf biostratigraphers) and has been defined here on the Brazilian side based on biostratigraphic data published by Petrobras in 1994 (Netto et al., 1994; Santos et al., 1994; Vieira et al., 1994). Our interpretation is slightly different than that published by Petrobras in 2007 (Milani et al., 2007), for which biostratigraphic data are not available. Nevertheless, our interpretation is highly dependant of (1) better intercorrelation between the African and Brazilian pollen biozone for Aptian times (dash line Fig. 2 and 4) and (2) a better calibration on the International Stratigraphic Chart.

4.2. *Deformation charts (Fig. 6)*

Few data are available for the Kwanza and Namibe Basins. The chart is based on the sections and chart published in (1) Marton et al. (2000) that identified three steps in the Kwanza Basin (a pre-rift – the Lucula Fm of the same age as the Lukunga Fm, see Fig. 4 – a rift and a sag phase – Cuvo Fm) and (2) Coterill et al. (2002) for the Namibe Basin.

The beginning of the rift is discussed in both the Cabinda and Sergipe-Alagoas Basins. In the Cabinda Basin, based on the section published by Braccini et al. (1997) and the sections published by Marton et al. (2000), the rift clearly started after the deposition of the Lucula Fm. For the Sergipe-Alagoas Basin, published sections, limited to the upstream part of the basin (Borba et al., 2011; Chiossi, 2005), suggest an age younger than that published by Petrobras (Campos Neto et al., 2007).

The tectonic setting of the volcanics of the Santos and Campos Basins (Cabuinhas and Camboriu Fm) is unclear, with lava flooding prior to or at the same time as the extension (occurrence of syn-sedimentary normal faults during the volcanics)?

Some authors have identified several periods with different extension rate and direction. Those can change within the same basin (e.g. Cabinda Basin, Braccini et al., 1997) or are subject to high age uncertainties (e.g. Almada-Camamu Basin, Scotchman and Chiossi, 2009).

aphic (post-carboides and pollen) and lithostratigraphic chart of the Gracetiense unit-Albian deposits of the central segment of the South Atlantic. Names with capital letters correspond to lithostratigraphic formations and names with all small letters to lithostratigraphic members. This chart is based on the equivalence of the lithostratigraphic time-scale (JCS 2009), suggested by BRACCIOLI *et al.* (1997). Indeed, the absolute age calibration proposed in Fig. 3, is too limited through time to bound the ages of all the biozones.

In some rifts, it is difficult to decipher between real syn-sedimentary faults, post-depositional faults with no growth strata and clear gravity tectonics due to a regional tilting and/or an increase of the sediment supply. Gravity tectonics seems very important in two aborted rifts: the Reconcavo–Tucano–Jatoba rift (decollement level: Candeias Fm, [Cupertino and Bueno, 2005](#); [Magnavita et al., 2005](#)) and in the Gabon Interior rift (decollement level: Bokoue and Bikoume Fm, [Mbina Mounguengui et al., 2008](#)). It is, in both cases, very difficult to characterize the periods of crustal brittle extension.

5. Paleogeographic and geodynamic maps

5.1. Berriasian–Valanginian boundary (intra ostracode biozone AS3): 141–139 Ma

5.1.1. Paleogeography

Two domains can be defined bounded by the North Abrolhos “Fracture Zone” (present-day boundary between the Espírito Santo and Cumuruxatiba Basins), diffuse zone of deformation along numerous minor faults over a large area, rather than on major localized faults ([Fig. 7](#)).

Southward, no deposit occurred except, with doubt, the Namibe Basin and the North Kwanza Basin: these two key areas were not biostratigraphically dated of biozone AS3 (see discussion above).

Northward, the sedimentary setting was a deep lake bordered with alluvial fans, except for the Cumuruxatiba Basin (southwestern limit of the depositional domain), where alluvial plain sediments were deposited. Some areas are devoid of sediments: Jequitinhonha (between the Cumuruxatiba and Camamu Basins), Jacuipe and its conjugated domain, the North Gabon Basin.

The published stratigraphic and facies charts of the Camamu–Almada Basins ([Caixeta et al., 2007](#); [Gontijo et al., 2007](#)) indicate a double supply, from the west and from the east, of these basins. The eastward feeding suggests the occurrence of a continental high that could be the southern extension of the Jacuipe–North Gabon non depositional domain. This questions the existence of a single lake or of two lacustrine systems, a first one from the Jatoba Basin to the Almada–Camamu Basin and a second one from the Sergipe–Alagoas Basins to the Kwanza Basin. We have no argument for choosing between those two scenarios.

Alluvial fans seems limited to the African side ([Braccini et al., 1997](#); [Grosdidier et al., 1996](#); [Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990](#)), except along the Camamu–Almada upstream border ([Caixeta et al., 2007](#); [Gontijo et al., 2007](#)). This absence on most of the Brazilian side could suggest basins larger than the present-day preserved rifts.

Turbiditic systems were identified as channels in the Camamu–Almada (charts of [Caixeta et al., 2007](#); [Gontijo et al., 2007](#)), Reconcavo ([Silva et al., 2007](#)), Tucano–Jatoba (chart of [Costa et al., 2007](#)) and Sergipe–Alagoas Basins (chart of [Campos Neto et al., 2007](#)). On the African side (South Gabon and Congo), the deep lake is mainly shaley with few sands (Kissenda and Sialivakou Fm, [Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990](#); [Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990](#)).

5.1.2. Deformation

Two parallel rifts are active in the northern domain, one westward from the Camamu–Almada Basin to the Jatoba Basin and a second one eastward from the Congo–Cabinda Basin to the Sergipe–Alagoas Basins, crossing through the Gabon interior Basin. The eastern branch could extend southward to North Kwanza. These two rifts are separated by a high that corresponds to the place of sedimentary hiatus discussed above, here called the Central Elevated Block (CEB). The Cumuruxatiba Basin is not yet a rift, but instead is a pre-rift “sag” basin.

5.2. Intra Valanginian (intra ostracode biozone AS5): 137–136 Ma

5.2.1. Paleogeography

Two domains can be defined bounded by the Luanda FZ ([Fig. 8](#)). Southward, no deposit occurred except along the Namibe Basin where dating is uncertain.

Northward, the sedimentary setting was a large deep lake with widespread turbiditic systems. The Espírito Santo and North Kwanza Basins are subsiding domains. The Jacuipe and North Gabon areas are still not depositional. Petrobras data ([Caixeta et al., 2007](#); [Gontijo et al., 2007](#)) again indicate a double supply of the Camamu–Almada Basins from a possible southward continental extension of the Jacuipe–North Gabon domain (CEB). Again the question of the connectivity of the Camamu–Almada, Reconcavo, Tucano, and Jatoba Basins with the rest of the lake is addressed. The age of the beginning of sedimentation in the Jequitinhonha Basin is uncertain and can be of this time period. If it is right, because of the lacustrine nature of the first sediments in the Jequitinhonha Basin (Cricaré Fm), such a connection makes sense. The North Kwanza Basin is the first setting of lacustrine limestones.

Alluvial fans are recorded all along the rift from the Espírito Santo Basin to the Jatoba Basin, on the Brazilian side, and from the Lower Congo to South Gabon Basins on the African side. There are no alluvial fans in the Cumuruxatiba and Jequitinhonha Basins, the Alagoas Basin (post-deposition erosion?) and the Interior Gabon Basin. No information is available for alluvial fans in the North Kwanza Basin. Alluvial plain deposits are mainly located on the Brazilian side, in the Espírito Santo and Cumuruxatiba Basins, but also in the Jatoba and Tucano Basins (beginning of the infilling by subaerial deposits).

On the African side, this is the time of coarse-grained turbiditic deposition (Congo: Djeno Fm, Lower Mbr, debris flows and grain flows, [Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990](#); South Gabon: Lucina Fm, channel and lobe deposits, [Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990](#); Interior Gabon: Fourou Plage Fm, [Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990](#)) and finer-grained equivalents (Cabinda: Bucomazi Fm, Lower Mbr, [Braccini et al., 1997](#)).

5.2.2. Deformation and volcanism

The rift is located northward of the Luanda FZ. This single rifting splits into two branches from the Camamu and South Gabon Basins separated by the CEB.

The southern domain records the early stages of the Parana–Etendeka volcanic event, mainly located onshore in Brazil. The Santos and Campos Basins are free of volcanics, except for some dyke swarm around Rio de Janeiro and Vitoria–Trinitade ([Guedes et al., 2005](#); [Novais et al., 2004](#)). The Espírito Santo ([França et al., 2007](#)) and Central Kwanza Basins ([Bate et al., 2001](#)) are time equivalents of basalt lava flows and volcanoclastics.

5.3. Around the Hauterivian–Barremian boundary (intra ostracode biozone AS6): 131–129 Ma

5.3.1. Paleogeography

Two domains can be defined bounded by the Benguela FZ ([Fig. 9](#)). Deposition occurred north of this FZ, except for the Campos Basin where volcanism is observed. This northern domain is again a large deep lake. The northwestern branch (from Camamu to Tucano Basins) is connected to the great lake. The CEB is still a high (double supply of the Camamu–Almada Basins, no sedimentation in the North Gabon Basin) and seems to be an island. But its size is smaller with the beginning of sedimentation in the Jacuipe Basin ([Graddi et al., 2007](#)).

Turbiditic systems are still active on the African side (Congo: Djeno Fm, Upper Mbr, [Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990](#); South Gabon: Melania Fm, [Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990](#)); however, they are more fine-grained around the Cabinda Basin (Bucomazi Fm, Lower Mbr; [Braccini et al., 1997](#)) and they do not exist in the Gabon Interior

Fig. 6. Deformation chart, superimposed on the biostratigraphic and lithostratigraphic charts in Fig. 4. Two types of basins are here identified: rifts with tilted blocks and growth strata ("rift phase") and sags. Different stages of the rift phase were sometimes defined and are here reported

Fig. 7. Paleogeographic map at the Berriasian-Valanginian boundary (intra ostracode biozone AS3) – 141–139 Ma.

Fig. 8. Paleogeographic map intra Valanginian (intra ostracode biozone AS5) – 137–136 Ma.

Basin. The Brazilian side turbiditic systems occurred from the Camamu-Almada Basins (charts of Caixeta et al., 2007; Gontijo et al., 2007) to the Reconcavo Basin (Bruhn, 1999; Magnavita et al., 2005).

Alluvial fans occurred on both sides of the rift, except in the Kwanza (but little sedimentological data have been published), Cumuruxatiba

(Rodvalho et al., 2007), Jacuipé (Rangel et al., 2007) and Gabon interior (Mbina Mounguengui et al., 2008) Basins.

5.3.2. Deformation and volcanism

The rift is located north of the Benguela FZ, splitting into three branches toward the North: the South-Interior Gabon and Camamu-

Fig. 9. Paleogeographic map around the Hauterivian-Barremian boundary (intra ostracode biozone AS6) - 131-129 Ma.

Almada Basins that split themselves into two subbranches, the Tucano-Jatoba and Jacuipe-Sergipe Basins.

This is the time of widespread volcanism from the Parana Basin to northern Namibia, including the Santos (Camboriu volcanics), Campos (Cabuinas volcanics) and Namibe Basins. This time interval corresponds to the paroxysm of the Parana-Etendeka Trapp (see age synthesis in Moulin et al., 2010).

5.4. Upper Barremian (ostracode biozone AS8): 128-126 Ma

5.4.1. Paleogeography

For the first time, deposition occurred all along the South Atlantic central segment, from Walvis-Rio Grande to the Ascension FZs. The Central Elevated Block (CEB) is still an island (double supply of the Camamu-Almada Basins, no sedimentation in the North Gabon Basin) (Fig. 10).

Fig. 10. Paleogeographic map at the Upper Barremian (ostracode biozone AS8) — 128–126 Ma.

This period records a major paleogeographic change that starts during ostracode biozone AS7 with two clear domains, north and south of the axis Campos to South Kwanza Basins. North, the lake is becoming shallower (Grosdidier et al., 1996) with organic-rich facies (Burwood et al., 1992; Gonçalves, 2001; Mello et al., 1988) and no turbidites. Alluvial fans are limited to the Brazilian side, from the Espírito Santo Basin to the Jatoba Basins (except the Cumuruxatiba

and the Jequitinhonha Basins). This suggests an asymmetry of the rift, with low relief on the African side. South, a deep lake occurred with turbidites in the Campos Basin (Rangel and Carminatti, 2000; Rangel et al., 1994). Alluvial fans are located along the Santos (Moreira et al., 2007) and Campos (Rangel et al., 1994; Winter et al., 2007) Basins. Organic-rich sediments were possibly deposited in the Namibe Basin (Coterill et al., 2002).

603	5.4.2. Deformation	664
604	Rifting is active all along the South Atlantic central segment, from	665
605	Walvis Rio Grande to the Ascension FZs, with two different settings:	666
606	very active in the south and more quieter in the North. In the south,	667
607	alluvial fans are active and tilting of the blocks is well recorded in	668
608	the Campos Basin. In the north, the three northern branches are still	669
609	active, but the relief (rift shoulders and the water depth contrast) is	
610	not as well marked.	
611	5.5. Lower Aptian (ostracode biozone AS10): 124–123 Ma	
612	5.5.1. Paleogeography	
613	The South Atlantic central segment looks like a single lake, with some	
614	short marine influences, subdivided into three domains: south (northern	
615	limit: the axis North Campos to South Kwanza Basins), central (from the	
616	Espirito Santo–North Kwanza Basins to the Jequitinhonha–Congo Basins)	
617	and north domains (Fig. 11).	
618	The southern domain (mainly the Santos and Campos Basins) is	
Q16 619	made of a shallow–water alternation of clays and bioclastic lime-	
620	stones (bivalves coquinas, Carvalho et al., 2000a, 2000b ; Moreira	
621	et al., 2007 ; Rangel and Carminatti, 2000), with upstream alluvial	
622	fans (Santos, Campos Basins). Evaporites (mainly salt, few anhydrites)	
623	occurred just before this time interval (ostracode biozone AS9) in the	
624	South Kwanza Basin (Bate et al., 2001).	
625	The central domain shows the same shallow mixed lacustrine	
626	siliciclastic–limestone deposits (bivalves coquinas: Sernambi Fm in	
627	the Espirito and Jacuipe Basins, Toca and Banio Fm located on the	
628	highs of tilted blocks or as condensed levels in progradational geom-	
629	etries in the Gabon, Congo and Cabinda Basins, Braccini et al., 1997 ;	
630	Harris, 2000 ; Harris et al., 1994 ; Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990).	
631	The northern domain is characterized by a major reorganization of	
632	the depositional areas: the Reconcavo, Tucano–Jatoba and the Gabon	
633	Interior Basins are no longer accumulative, but deposition clearly	
634	occurred in the North Gabon Basin (Bikele and N'Toum Fm, Mbina	
635	Mounguengui et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the CEB still exists as	
636	suggested by the double eastward and westward supply of the	
637	Camamu–Almada Basins and the paleocurrents pattern toward the	
638	NE in Gabon (Dentale Fm, Smith, 1995). This northern domain is	
639	either locally deep, as suggested by turbiditic deposition (Mbina	
640	Mounguengui and Guiraud, 2009 ; Mbina Mounguengui et al., 2008 ;	
641	Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990) or shallow (shallow bioclastic lime-	
642	stones in the Sergipe–Alagoas Basin, Campos Neto et al., 2007).	
643	Alluvial fans are limited to the southern domain. Marine flooding	
644	is recorded (see discussion below) in the Sergipe Basin (fish, Gallo,	
645	2009), South Gabon Basin (marine ostracodes, Grosdidier, 1967),	
Q17 646	Kwanza Basin (marine ostracodes, Bate, 1999 in Davison and Bate,	
647	2004) and in the Campos Basin (benthic and planktonic foraminifera,	
648	Silva-Telles Jr., 1996 in Dias, 2005).	
649	5.5.2. Deformation	
650	Rifting is active all along the South Atlantic central segment, the	
651	southern domain is still more active than the central and northern	
652	domains, as suggested by the alluvial fans. The Reconcavo, Tucano–	
653	Jatoba, and Gabon Interior Basins are no longer subsiding domain;	
654	however a new place of deposition, the North Gabon Basin has been	
655	created. This could mean deformation reorganization in the northern	
656	part of the rift.	
657	This period looks like a transition toward a new tectonic setting	
658	(Fig. 12).	
659	5.6. Lower Aptian? (intra ostracode biozone AS11): 123–121 Ma	
660	5.6.1. Paleogeography	
661	A major hiatus characterized this time period, excepted for the	
662	Santos and North Gabon Basins. The duration of this hiatus is variable	
663	through space, as is the age of its beginning and its end (see Fig. 4).	
	The shallow lake of the Santos Basin is characterized by mixed	664
	siliciclastic–carbonate sediments, from alluvial fans to microbial lime-	665
	stones (with stromatolites) with some clay layers (Moreira et al.,	666
	2007). The North Gabon Basin is continental, fluvial to deep lacustrine	667
	sedimentation, as suggested by turbidite deposition (Coniquet Fm,	668
	Teisserenc and Villemain, 1990).	669
	5.6.2. Deformation	670
	Two different domains can be defined: Santos Basin in the south	671
	and all other basins toward the north. The southern domain is no	672
	longer a rift. It is a large flexural domain, typical of a sag basin, with	673
	local volcanism (Moreira et al., 2007). The possible tectonic meaning	674
	of the hiatus will be discussed later, but normal faults are active	675
	along the only domain in sedimentation (North Gabon Basin, Mbina	676
	Mounguengui and Guiraud, 2009).	677
	5.7. Middle Aptian? (intra biozone AP3): 119–116 Ma	678
	The width of the South Atlantic segment is becoming the largest.	679
	Because most of the well data available are limited to the present	680
	day upstream part of the margin, our knowledge of the axial	681
	(deepest) part of the basins is poor (Fig. 13).	682
	5.7.1. Paleogeography	683
	Again the central segment of the South Atlantic is subdivided into	684
	two domains: the Santos and Campos Basins are mainly shallow	685
	carbonate lakes, whereas the north is only siliciclastic deposits.	686
	The limestones of the Campos and Santos Basins are similar to the	687
	limestones of the previous period. They pass laterally to proximal	688
	alluvial plain deposits (Moreira et al., 2007 ; Winter et al., 2007).	689
	Toward the north, the rift is more asymmetric, with mainly alluvial	690
	deposits in Africa and lacustrine to deltaic with few alluvial plain	691
	deposits in Brazil (Fig. 5). The CEB is still a high, but is smaller, with	692
	a double supply of the Camamu–Almada Basins, where alluvial fans	693
	are still active on the Brazilian side (Gontijo et al., 2007).	694
	Evaporites (halite) probably occurred at that time (pollens	695
	biozones P230 à P260, Souza-Lima, 2008) in the Alagoas Basin. Ma-	696
	rine flooding is expected in the Cabinda Basin on the basis of ostra-	697
	codes (Braccini et al., 1997).	698
	5.7.2. Deformation	699
	All the basins of the South Atlantic central segment are flexural	700
	sags (see Fig. 6 for references). Local normal faults can be locally	701
	active or shortly reactivated during this period (Bib–FG). North of	702
	the Sergipe–Alagoas Basins, subsidence starts in the Pernambuco	703
	Basin (Feijo, 1994).	704
	5.8. Middle–Upper Aptian boundary (intra biozone AP4): 116–114 Ma	705
	For the same reasons as the Middle Aptian time slice, the nature of	706
	the sediments of the axial part of the basins is poorly known and	707
	questions the occurrence of evaporites and their relationships with	708
	a possible oceanic ridge (Fig. 14).	709
	5.8.1. Paleogeography	710
	The entire South Atlantic central segment is covered by evaporites,	711
	except in the Jacuipe, Alagoas and Pernambuco Basins, where	712
	siliciclastic deposition occurred (Fig. 15).	713 Q18
	Evaporites located in the southern part of the South Atlantic	714
	central segment (Santos and Campos Basins) are mainly composed	715
	of anhydrite and halite (Davison, 2007 ; Rangel and Carminatti,	716 Q19
	2000). Sylvite and carnallite are reported as a rare occurrence in	717
	the Campos Basin (Rangel and Carminatti, 2000).	718 Q20
	The northern part is mainly characterized by chloride evaporitic	719
	minerals (sylvite, carnallite and bischofite). The Gabon, Congo and	720
	Sergipe Basins show potassium and magnesium chlorides, such as	721

Fig. 11. Paleogeographic map at the Lower Aptian (ostracode biozone AS10) — 124–123 Ma.

the carnallite and the tachyhydrite, with thicknesses of tachyhydrite of a few tens of meters to 100 m (Belmonte et al., 1965; de Ruiter, 1979; Meister and Aurich, 1971; Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990; Wardlaw, 1972; Wardlaw and Nicholls, 1972).

Silicilastic sediments of the Jacuipe to Pernambuco Basins recorded shallow lake conditions with upstream alluvial fans

(Alagoas to Pernambuco Basins, Campos Neto et al., 2007; Cordoba et al., 2007).

5.8.2. Deformation

The entire South Atlantic central segment is a flexural basin, except toward the north where normal faults are still active in the

Fig. 12. Paleogeographic map at the Lower Aptian? (intra ostracode biozone AS11) — 123–121 Ma.

Sergipe–Alagoas Basins (Campos Neto et al., 2007). A proto-oceanic crust is expected at this time based on the geometrical relationship of the salt with the oceanic crust (see Petrobras charts, Milani et al., 2007 and Fig. 5).

6. Discussion: tectonic evolution

Two main domains with two different tectonic and paleogeographic evolutions were defined along the South Atlantic central

Fig. 13. Paleogeographic map at the Middle Aptian? (intra biozone AP3) — 119–116 Ma.

segment, with a changing boundary through time which propagated southward from the Abrolhos FZ (Berriasian–Valanginian boundary) to the Benguela FZ (Hauterivian–Barremian boundary). The boundary between these two domains and the status of the Campos, Espirito Santo and South Kwanza Basins are quite unclear. For Moulin et al. (2012), the Santos Basin–São Paulo Plateau system is defined as

kinematic “buffer” due to the differential extension between the southern segment of the South Atlantic (south of Walvis Ridge) and the northern domain of the central segment of the South Atlantic. We suggest that this transitional area (Campos, Espirito Santo and South Kwanza Basins) could be a sub-block boundary with highly diffuse deformation.

Fig. 14. Paleogeographic map at the Middle-Upper Aptian boundary (intra biozone AP4) – 116–114 Ma.

In the upstream part of the present-day margin where data are available, our results confirm an evolution of the so-called “rift” (continental extension prior to oceanic accretion) in two phases: (1) a period characterized by tilted blocks and growth strata (called rift phase) and (2) a sag phase.

The timing of this evolution is different in the two domains (Fig. 16). In the northern domain, north of the Benguela FZ, the lithosphere extension started around the AS2–AS3 biozone boundary that could be Late Berriasian (142–141 Ma) in age (Congo–Almada Basins to Sergipe–Alagoas–North Gabon Basins). It propagated southward

A

Fig. 15. Summary paleogeographic and geodynamic maps in eight stages from the Berriasian–Valanginian boundary (intra ostracode biozone AS3) to the Middle–Upper Aptian boundary (intra biozone AP4).

B

Fig. 15 (continued).

C

Fig. 15 (continued).

during biozones AS3 and part of AS4, i.e. during the end of the Berriasian and lowermost Valanginian (141–139 Ma). In the *southern domain*, south of the Benguela FZ, the lithosphere extension started at least after ostracode biozone 005 (= AS7), i.e. during the Early Barremian (130–128 Ma), but an extension contemporaneous of the basaltic floods of the Cabuinas and Camboriu Formations cannot be excluded (see discussion above). This means that the lithosphere extension of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean migrated southward from the Gabon and NE Brazil to southern Angola and southern Brazil (Santos Basin).

The second characteristic feature is the hiatus of sedimentation during the Lower Aptian in the northern domain. As discussed above several models have been proposed for the evolution of the South Atlantic rift: the most recent ones (Aslanian et al., 2009; Huisman and Beaumont, 2008, 2011; Unternehr et al., 2010) suggest an exhumation of the lower crust/upper mantle prior to the sag phase. This could correspond to this major hiatus of possible Lower Aptian age. The relative diachronism of this hiatus along the northern domain (see above) reflects a process of variable duration through

space, which is a function of the nature of the lithosphere (thickness, rheology, etc.).

The sag phase corresponds to a thick wedge (Marton et al., 2000; Lentini et al., 2010) of sediments, unconformably overlapping the underlying sediments. Lentini's isopachs map shows a strong asymmetry between our northern and southern domain, with a mainly African sag in the north and a South American sag in the south and a transition between these two domains where sags occurred on both sides (Espírito Santo and Kwanza Basins). In spite of the poor biostratigraphic resolution of the ostracode biozones and the uncertainties in the equivalence of pollen and ostracode biozones, the sag basin in the north could be older on the African side than on the Brazilian side.

A characteristic feature of the northern domain is the occurrence of the Central Elevated Block (CEB), north and south of the N'Komi FZ. The size of this block decreases through time: at its maximum size (base Valanginian), it extends from the Jequitinhonha Basin southward to the Jacuípe–North Gabon Basin. The meaning of this block is not quite clear: it records a splitting into two or three

Fig. 16. Summary geodynamic chart of the evolution of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean based on the age model proposed in Fig. 3.

branches of the rift, i.e. a change from a narrow (localized deformation) to a wide rift (distributed deformation). This could be due to a change of the structure of the lithosphere (Brun, 1999; Brun and Beslier, 1996).

7. Discussion: sedimentary and topographic evolution

7.1. Lake evolution

Two main types of lakes were identified: deep and shallow. Deep lakes could be clayey or sandy, fed by different types of gravity deposits (Reconcavo Basin: Bruhn, 1999; Figueiredo et al., 1994; Gabon to Congo Basins: Bracken, 1994; Smith, 1995; Teisserenc and Villemin, 1990): paleocanyons (Tatupe, Reconcavo Basin, Magnavita et al., 2005), slumps, channels and lobes. Facies of the shallow water lakes are poorly described, except for the carbonated lakes (see descriptions above, bioclastic and/or microbial limestones, Carvalho et al., 2000a, 2000b; Harris, 2000; Harris et al., 1994). The organic matter content of these lakes changes through time (Kuo, 1994 – Gabon; Gonçalves, 2001 – Camamu and Almada Basins): the deeper oldest lake (Kissenda or Morro do Barro Fm) is oligotrophic (bacteria, cyanobacteria) and the shallower youngest lake (Melania or Rio de Contas Fm) has a higher trophic level and a more complex food chain with abundant eukaryotic organisms. Between the two types of lakes, the thermocline (deeper in the shallowest), fetch (higher in the shallowest), water flux (higher in the shallowest), efficiency of nutrient recycling (higher in the shallowest) change.

The two domains have a different lake evolution. The northern one starts with deep lake deposits (Late Berriasian, AS3) becoming more and more sandy (increase of the turbiditic supply, Valanginian, AS5). This lake became progressively shallower and was filled by deltas with high clinofolds (Upper Barremian–base Aptian, several hundreds of meters, Crabe–Dentale Fm, Gabon and Congo Basins,

Robert and Yapaudjian, 1990). The geomorphic setting of the Early–Middle Aptian hiatus, subaquatic or subaerial, is still unknown. Nevertheless, the progradational nature and then the shallowing upward trend of the Early Aptian sediments (e.g. Dentale Fm, Gabon) can suggest an emersion of the upstream part of the rifts. Few descriptions are available for the facies of the sag basins (Cuvo, Chela and Gamba Fm on the African side, Mariricu Fm from the Espirito Santo Basin to the Jequitinhonha Basin, Upper Taipus Mirim Fm from the Camamu Basin to the Jacuibe Basin, Muribeca Fm in the Sergipe–Alagoas Basins). The southern domain is younger (Upper Barremian, AS8). It is a shallow lake, first siliciclastic and more rich in limestones from the Lower Aptian (AS10) on his Brazilian side. The nature of the sedimentary environments of the Namibe Basin is still poorly constrain during this time interval (hiatus during the upper part of the Early Aptian, marine from the Middle Aptian), in consequence, the paleogeography of this domain is quite unclear during Aptian times.

7.2. Relief evolution

Two relief wavelengths can be classically associated with the rifts (Cox, 1989; Gilchrist and Summerville, 1994; Ollier, 1985): (1) a dome with a wavelength of hundreds to 1000 km and (2) rift shoulders with a wavelength of several tens of kilometers.

No centrifugal fluvial deposits are preserved on either side of the rift. In the Congo Basin (“Congo cuvette”), no sediments of Berriasian to Aptian age are preserved, except eolian Dekese Fm deposits, which are time-equivalent to the Sagri Fm in the Camamu–Almada and Reconcavo Basins (Linol et al., submitted).

We cannot argue either for or against the presence of a dome at the time of the beginning of the northern domain rift (Late Berriasian) or at the time of the Parana Etendeka Trapp paroxysm in the southern domain (Late Hauterivian–base Barremian). The only constraint is that the rift is at sea level at the Barremian–Aptian

boundary (evaporites in the Kwanza Basin) and during the Early Aptian (see below).

Two markers record the occurrence of *rift shoulders*: (1) alluvial fans associated with active normal faults and (2) the nature of the sediments and solutes coming from inland and preserved in the rift.

In the northern domain, alluvial fans are active on both sides from the Upper Berriasian (AS3, Fig. 7) to the base Barremian (AS7). The maximum growth of the alluvial fans and the maximum rate of sediment supply occur during the Valanginian (AS5) with the feeding of all the sandy turbiditic systems. After the Early Barremian, alluvial fans are mainly limited on the Brazilian side (Espírito Santo, Camamu–Almada, Reconcavo–Tucano–Jatoba, Jacuipe, and Sergipe–Alagoas Basins). This suggests a maximum relief on the rift flank during the Valanginian, and then a decrease with a high asymmetry during Upper Barremian times. This evolution is in agreement with (1) the few data available on the displacement along the normal fault that seems to be at its maximum in the middle part of the rift phase (Fig. 6) and decreases until the end of its activity and (2) the geochemical data (Harris, 2000; Harris et al., 2004) which suggest, on the African side, a decrease of the upstream relief at the time of deposition of the organic-rich shales (“Marnes noires” – here dated as Upper Barremian).

In the southern domain, alluvial fans are active, on the Brazilian side, from the middle part of the Barremian (AS7) to the base of the salt, i.e. during the rift and the sag phase. This suggests perennial relief in the hinterland of the Santos and Campos Basins, even during the sag phase. No reliable data are available on the African side.

7.3. Marine floodings

Marine floodings were identified, based on marine faunas (ostracodes, fish, foraminifers and ammonites) and geochemical characteristics of the sediments or evaporites.

The oldest evidence is not older than base Aptian. Davison and Bate (2004) cites a Late Barremian ostracode (*Orthonotacythere mveli*) in the Congo rift from Grosdidier (1967). But in the original publication, this ostracode is located in the “Wealdian of the Congo coastal basin, upper part” with no further details of its stratigraphic location and age. The first clear evidences of marine faunas are during the Early Aptian, with the occurrence of (1) marine ostracodes (*Orthonotacythere*) in the Kwanza Basin (Bate, 1999 in Davison and Bate, 2004), (2) benthic and planktonic foraminifers in the Campos Basin (Lagoa Feia Fm, Coqueiros Mbr, biozone AS10, Silva-Telles Jr., 1996 in Dias, 2005), (3) marine dinoflagellates (*Subtilisphaera*) in the Almada Basin (Lower Alagoas = base Taipus Mirim Fm/Itacaré Mbr, Lana and Pedrao, 2000) (4) fish (*Enchodus* sp.) in the Sergipe Basin (Morro do Chaves Fm, biozone AS10, Gallo, 2009) and (5) ammonites (Bengston et al., 2007). These marine influences are supported by the occurrence of salts that are older (Barremian–Aptian boundary) in the Kwanza Basin (Maculungo Fm, Middle Salt Mbr, biozone AS9, Bate, 1999) and younger in the Alagoas Basins (Coqueiro Seco Fm, biozone P230 and Maceio Fm, biozone P260, Campos Neto et al., 2007; Feijo, 1994). Hydrogen and carbon isotope geochemistry of the organic matter of the Maculungo Fm (Upper Mbr, biozone AS10, Pedentchouk et al., 2008 and stratigraphy in Pedentchouk et al., 2004) also suggest marine influences at the time of deposition. Surprisingly, true marine influences are not as obvious for the sag phase of the basin. Except for the evaporites of the Maceio Fm in the Alagoas Basin, the other place where marine influences were expected is the Cabinda Basin (Chela Fm, Biozone AP3). Braccini et al. (1997) did not mention any specific fossils, but only “probable marine deposits”. In the stratigraphic synthesis of the Brazilian basins (Milani et al., 2007), a marine (e.g. Sergipe–Alagoas Basin, Campos Neto et al., 2007) or stressed-transitional marine (e.g. Santos basin, Moreira et al., 2007 or Almada Basin, Gontijo et al., 2007) is evoked for this time interval, but the arguments are not published. Such a marine flooding should be coeval

with abundant, diversified marine faunas, never published on the African side or on the onshore outcrops of this period in Brazil.

Four main periods of flooding can be expected: at the Barremian–Aptian boundary (AS9, toward the South), during the Early Aptian (AS10, more widespread), during the Middle(?) Aptian (limited to the north) and around the Middle–Late Aptian boundary (top AS12) with the widespread deposition of the evaporites.

The second point is the nature of this marine flooding which is sharp and brief in a lacustrine environment or long-lasting marine environment. (1) Marine evidence is scarce and the very great majority of the described faunas (ostracodes, fish) are clearly continental ones. (2) The precise sedimentologic and stratigraphic setting of the marine faunas is not really described. Nevertheless, fish from the Sergipe–Alagoas Basin (Morro do Chaves Fm, biozone AS10, Gallo, 2009) indicate “lacustrine environments with some marine influences”.

The third point is the question of the origin of the marine transgression, from the south – South Atlantic flooding above Walvis Ridge, or from the north – the Tethys (Central Atlantic). Using the marine dinoflagellates, and mainly the *Subtilisphaera* ecozone, Arai (2009) shows a Tethyan origin of these microfossils common in Venezuela, Senegal and in northern Brazil and suggests the occurrence of a seaway crossing through the Sao Luis, Parnaíba, Araripe and Almada Basins and then the central segment of the South Atlantic.

8. Conclusion

Our objective was to establish the timing of the sedimentary and tectonic evolution of the Early Cretaceous rift of the central segment of the South Atlantic Ocean by drawing paleogeographic and geodynamic maps.

- Eight paleogeographic and deformation maps were drawn from the Berriasian to the Middle–Late Aptian, based on a biostratigraphic (ostracodes and pollen) chart recalibrated on absolute ages (chemostratigraphy, interstratified volcanics, Re–Os dating of the organic matter). Two charts were drawn: a lithostratigraphic and a deformation chart.
- The central segment of the South Atlantic is composed of two domains that have a different history in term of deformation and paleogeography. The southern domain includes the Namibe, Santos and Campos Basins. The northern domain extends from the Espírito Santo and North Kwanza Basins, in the south, to the Sergipe–Alagoas and North Gabon Basins to the north.
- We confirmed a two phase evolution of the pre-drift (“rifting”) times, with a rift phase characterized by tilted blocks and growth strata in the inner continental crust followed by a flexural sag basin.
- Extension started in the northern domain during the Late Berriasian (Congo–Camamu Basin to the Sergipe–Alagoas–North Gabon Basins) and migrated southward. At that time, the southern domain was not a subsiding domain. This is the time of the emplacement of the Parana–Etendeka Trapp (Late Hauterivian–Early Barremian). Extension started in this southern domain during the Early Barremian. The rift phase is shorter in the south (5–6 Ma, Barremian to base Aptian) than in the north (19 to 20 Myr, Upper Berriasian to base Aptian).
- From the Late Berriasian to base Aptian, the northern domain evolves from a deep lake with lateral highs to a shallower organic-rich one with no more highs. The lake migrates southward in two steps, until the Valanginian at the border between the northern and southern domains, until the Early Barremian, north of Walvis Ridge.
- The sag phase is of Middle to Late Aptian age. In the southern domain, the transition between the rift and the sag phases is continuous. In the northern domain, this transition corresponds to a hiatus of Early to Middle Aptian age.

7. Marine influences have clearly been occurring since the Early Aptian in the northern domain and the Campos Basin. They seem sharp, with brief flooding coming from the north, i.e. the Tethys-Central Atlantic, through a seaway crossing South America from the Sao Luis, Parnaiba, Araripe and Almada Basins (Arai, 1989). In the absence of data, the importance of these marine floodings episodes in the Santos Basin is still being debated.

9. Uncited references

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Sciences at the Nelson Mandela 1252
Metropolitan University, Port Elisabeth, 1253
South Africa. 361 pp. 1254
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1255
implicações para a evolução da margem 1256
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1257
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1258
implicações para a evolução da margem 1259
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1260
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1261
implicações para a evolução da margem 1262
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1263
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1264
implicações para a evolução da margem 1265
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1266
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1267
implicações para a evolução da margem 1268
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1269
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1270
implicações para a evolução da margem 1271
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1272
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1273
implicações para a evolução da margem 1274
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1275
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1276
implicações para a evolução da margem 1277
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1278
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1279
implicações para a evolução da margem 1280
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1281
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1282
implicações para a evolução da margem 1283
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1284
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1285
implicações para a evolução da margem 1286
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1287
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1288
implicações para a evolução da margem 1289
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1290
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1291
implicações para a evolução da margem 1292
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1293
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1294
implicações para a evolução da margem 1295
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1296
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1297
implicações para a evolução da margem 1298
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1299
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1300
implicações para a evolução da margem 1301
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1302
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1303
implicações para a evolução da margem 1304
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1305
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1307
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1308
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1309
implicações para a evolução da margem 1310
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1311
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1312
implicações para a evolução da margem 1313
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1314
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1315
implicações para a evolução da margem 1316
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1317
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1318
implicações para a evolução da margem 1319
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1320
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1321
implicações para a evolução da margem 1322
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1323
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1324
implicações para a evolução da margem 1325
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1326
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1327
implicações para a evolução da margem 1328
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1329
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1331
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1332
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passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1335
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1336
implicações para a evolução da margem 1337
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1338
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1340
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1341
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1343
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1344
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1348
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1355
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1356
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1357
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1361
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1366
implicações para a evolução da margem 1367
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1368
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1369
implicações para a evolução da margem 1370
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1371
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1372
implicações para a evolução da margem 1373
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1374
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1375
implicações para a evolução da margem 1376
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1377
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1378
implicações para a evolução da margem 1379
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1380
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1381
implicações para a evolução da margem 1382
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1383
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1384
implicações para a evolução da margem 1385
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1386
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1387
implicações para a evolução da margem 1388
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1389
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1390
implicações para a evolução da margem 1391
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1392
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1393
implicações para a evolução da margem 1394
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1395
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1396
implicações para a evolução da margem 1397
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1398
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1399
implicações para a evolução da margem 1400
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1401
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1402
implicações para a evolução da margem 1403
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1404
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1405
implicações para a evolução da margem 1406
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1407
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1408
implicações para a evolução da margem 1409
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1410
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1411
implicações para a evolução da margem 1412
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1413
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1414
implicações para a evolução da margem 1415
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1416
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1417
implicações para a evolução da margem 1418
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1419
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1420
implicações para a evolução da margem 1421
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1422
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1423
implicações para a evolução da margem 1424
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1425
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1426
implicações para a evolução da margem 1427
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1428
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1429
implicações para a evolução da margem 1430
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1431
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1432
implicações para a evolução da margem 1433
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1434
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1435
implicações para a evolução da margem 1436
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1437
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1438
implicações para a evolução da margem 1439
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1440
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1441
implicações para a evolução da margem 1442
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1443
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1444
implicações para a evolução da margem 1445
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1446
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1447
implicações para a evolução da margem 1448
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1449
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1450
implicações para a evolução da margem 1451
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1452
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1453
implicações para a evolução da margem 1454
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1455
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1456
implicações para a evolução da margem 1457
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1458
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1459
implicações para a evolução da margem 1460
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1461
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1462
implicações para a evolução da margem 1463
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1464
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1465
implicações para a evolução da margem 1466
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1467
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1468
implicações para a evolução da margem 1469
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1470
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1471
implicações para a evolução da margem 1472
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1473
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1474
implicações para a evolução da margem 1475
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1476
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1477
implicações para a evolução da margem 1478
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1479
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1480
implicações para a evolução da margem 1481
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1482
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1483
implicações para a evolução da margem 1484
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1485
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1486
implicações para a evolução da margem 1487
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1488
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1489
implicações para a evolução da margem 1490
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1491
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1492
implicações para a evolução da margem 1493
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1494
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1495
implicações para a evolução da margem 1496
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1497
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1498
implicações para a evolução da margem 1499
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1500
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1501
implicações para a evolução da margem 1502
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1503
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1504
implicações para a evolução da margem 1505
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1506
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1507
implicações para a evolução da margem 1508
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1509
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1510
implicações para a evolução da margem 1511
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1512
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1513
implicações para a evolução da margem 1514
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1515
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1516
implicações para a evolução da margem 1517
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1518
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1519
implicações para a evolução da margem 1520
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1521
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1522
implicações para a evolução da margem 1523
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1524
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1525
implicações para a evolução da margem 1526
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1527
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1528
implicações para a evolução da margem 1529
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1530
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1531
implicações para a evolução da margem 1532
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1533
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1534
implicações para a evolução da margem 1535
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1536
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1537
implicações para a evolução da margem 1538
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1539
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1540
implicações para a evolução da margem 1541
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1542
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1543
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passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1545
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1546
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implicações para a evolução da margem 1550
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1552
implicações para a evolução da margem 1553
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1555
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passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1566
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1606
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Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1609
implicações para a evolução da margem 1610
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1611
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1612
implicações para a evolução da margem 1613
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1614
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1615
implicações para a evolução da margem 1616
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1617
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1618
implicações para a evolução da margem 1619
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1620
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1621
implicações para a evolução da margem 1622
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1623
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1624
implicações para a evolução da margem 1625
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1626
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1627
implicações para a evolução da margem 1628
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1629
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1630
implicações para a evolução da margem 1631
passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1632
Matos, R.M., 1994. A evolução tectônica e sedimentar das bacias marginais brasileiras: 1633
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passiva do Atlântico Sul. 1635
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