- ¹ The Palaeo-bathymetry of Base Aptian Salt Deposition
- 2 on the Northern Angolan Rifted Margin: Constraints
- ³ from Flexural Backstripping and Reverse Post-breakup
- 4 Thermal Subsidence Modelling
- 5
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10 Abstract

11 The bathymetric datum with respect to global sea level for Aptian salt deposition in the South 12 Atlantic is hotly debated. Some models propose that the salt was deposited in an isolated ocean 13 basin in which local sea level was between 2km and 3km below the global level. In this study, we 14 use reverse post-breakup subsidence modelling to determine the palaeo-bathymetry of base Aptian 15 salt deposition on the Angolan rifted continental margin. The reverse post-breakup subsidence 16 modelling consists of the sequential flexural isostatic backstripping of the post-breakup sedimentary 17 sequences, decompaction of remaining sedimentary units and reverse modelling of post-breakup 18 lithosphere thermal subsidence. The reverse modelling of post-breakup lithosphere thermal 19 subsidence is carried out in 2D and requires knowledge of the continental lithosphere stretching 20 factor (β), which is determined from gravity anomaly inversion. The analysis has been applied to the 21 ION-GXT CS1-2400 deep long-offset seismic reflection profile and the P3 and P7+11 seismic cross 22 sections of Moulin (2005) and Contrucci et al. (2004) offshore northern Angola. Reverse post23 breakup subsidence modelling restores the proximal autochthonous base salt to 200-300m below 24 global sea level at the time of breakup. In contrast, the predicted water-loaded bathymetries of the 25 more distal base salt restored to breakup time are much greater, ranging between 1km and 3km. 26 The predicted bathymetries of the first unequivocal oceanic crust at breakup are approximately 27 2.5km, as expected for newly formed oceanic crust of 'normal' thickness. Several interpretations of 28 these results are possible. Our preferred interpretation is that all Aptian salt on the northern Angola 29 rifted continental margin was deposited 200-300m beneath global sea level and that the proximal 30 salt subsided by post-rift (post-tectonic) thermal subsidence alone, while the distal salt formed 31 during late syn-rift when the underlying crust was actively thinning resulting in additional tectonic 32 subsidence (followed by post-rift thermal subsidence). An alternative interpretation is that the distal 33 salt is para-autochthonous and moved down-slope into much deeper water during and just after 34 breakup. We do not believe that a deep isolated ocean basin, with local sea level 2-3km beneath 35 global sea level as has been proposed, is required to explain the Aptian salt deposition on the 36 northern Angolan rifted continental margin.

37 Introduction

38 The northern Angolan rifted continental margin has been the subject of extensive seismic surveys 39 (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005), due to its hydrocarbon resources. The presence of thick 40 sedimentary packages impacted by a massive middle to upper Aptian salt sequence (up to 5km 41 thickness in places), makes seismic imaging and interpretation of the sub-salt difficult and presents 42 major scientific and technical challenges to understanding crustal structure and tectonic history. 43 Whether the northern Angolan Aptian salt sequence is pre-breakup or post-breakup remains a topic 44 of major debate; also the palaeo-water depths through the breakup period and the mechanisms 45 responsible for generating accommodation space through time are uncertain (Jackson et al., 2000; 46 Karner and Driscoll, 1999; Karner et al., 2003; Karner et al., 1997; Moulin, 2003; Moulin et al., 2005).

47 There is also much debate concerning the geometry and nature of the pre-salt basin, and the 48 underlying crustal basement structure (Contrucci et al., 2004; Karner and Gambôa, 2007; Nurullina, 49 2006). Our analysis of the offshore northern Angolan margin is focussed on three profiles in the 50 Kwanza region; locations are indicated in Figure 1(a). The three profiles include the ION-GXT deep 51 long offset seismic reflection profile CS1-2400 (Figure 1(c)) and the P3 (Figure 1(d)) and P7+11 52 profiles (Figure 1(e)) (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005). The purpose of this paper is to 53 provide an understanding of the palaeo-bathymetries of the base Aptian salt deposition (both 54 proximal and distal) along the northern Angolan rifted continental margin and to understand how 55 the salt sits within the broad framework of the ocean continent transition (OCT).

56 Reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling

57 Reconstructed palaeo-bathymetries of base Loeme salt (top Aptian) along the CS1-2400, P3 and 58 P7+11 profiles has been determined using reverse post-breakup subsidence modelling (Kusznir et al., 59 1995; Roberts et al., 1998). The reverse post-breakup subsidence modelling (Figure 2) consists of 60 the sequential flexural isostatic backstripping of the post-breakup sedimentary sequences, 61 decompaction of the remaining sedimentary units and reverse modelling of post-breakup 62 lithosphere thermal subsidence. The magnitude of reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence is 63 controlled by the continental lithosphere stretching factor (β) (McKenzie, 1978) which we predict 64 from gravity anomaly inversion. The magnitude of β therefore controls the restored model elevation 65 relative to sea level and the predicted palaeo-bathymetry (Roberts et al., 2009; Roberts et al., 1998). 66 We use the CS1-2400 profile to describe in detail the modelling approach.

67 Continental lithosphere stretching factors (β) (McKenzie, 1978) range between one and infinity; for 68 presentation purposes we prefer to use the related parameter, continental lithosphere thinning 69 factor ($\gamma = 1-1/\beta$), which ranges between zero and one. 70 Our gravity anomaly inversion, uses bathymetry (Amante and Eakins, 2009) (Figure 1(a)), satellite 71 derived free air gravity (Sandwell and Smith, 2009) (Figure 1(b)), sediment thickness data from the 72 ION-GXT profile (Figure 1(c) and ocean age isochrons (Müller et al., 1997) to determine continental 73 lithosphere thinning, crustal basement thickness and Moho depth. The gravity anomaly inversion is 74 carried out in the 3D spectral domain using the scheme of Parker (1972) and also incorporates a 75 lithosphere thermal gravity anomaly correction to account for the lithosphere mass deficiency from 76 the elevated geothermal gradient within oceanic and thinned continental margin lithosphere. 77 Failure to include the lithosphere thermal gravity anomaly correction at rifted continental margins 78 leads to predictions of Moho depth and crustal basement thickness which are too great and 79 continental lithosphere thinning factors which are too low. The thermal gravity anomaly correction 80 is dependent on the thermal re-equilibration time since lithosphere stretching and thinning, and 81 therefore on continental breakup age. We have used 110Ma as the age of breakup, after Moulin 82 (2005), for the thermal re-equilibration time to determine the lithosphere thermal gravity anomaly 83 correction, but have also examined sensitivities to ages for thermal re-equilibration which span the 84 period Berriasian (140Ma) to early Albian (110Ma). This range corresponds to the start and end of 85 the main rifting episode in the South Atlantic (Teisserenc and Villemin, 1989). A more detailed 86 description of the gravity anomaly inversion methodology is described in Chappell and Kusznir 87 (2008) and Greenhalgh and Kusznir (2007), whilst the example applications are described in Alvey et 88 al. (2008) and Cowie and Kusznir (2012).

Moho depths determined from the gravity anomaly inversion are in good agreement with those determined from the CS1-2400 seismic reflection profile. Moho depths predicted from gravity anomaly inversion for sensitivities to reference Moho depth are shown in Figure 3(a). The reference Moho depth has been calibrated on the CS1-2400 profile using the clear oceanic Moho reflectors. Calibration (Figure 3(b)) shows that a reference Moho depth of 35.5km is required in order to 94 predict crustal basement thicknesses consistent with those seen in the oceanic domain of the CS1-

95 2400 seismic reflection profile.

96 A crustal cross section along the CS1-2400 profile (Figure 4(a)) has been constructed using Moho 97 depths predicted from gravity anomaly inversion assuming the calibrated reference Moho depth of 98 35.5km; bathymetry and 2D sediment thickness are from the CS1-2400 seismic profile. The 99 corresponding continental lithosphere thinning factors (γ) predicted from gravity anomaly inversion, 100 assuming depth uniform stretching and thinning are shown in Figure 4(b). Continental lithosphere 101 thinning factors of zero indicate that there has been no stretching or thinning of the continental 102 lithosphere, whereas a continental lithosphere thinning factor of one indicates that there has been 103 infinite stretching and thinning of the original continental lithosphere and that no continental crust 104 or lithosphere remains.

105 Stretching of continental lithosphere leads to a decrease in crustal basement thickness; however, 106 decompression melting during rifting and seafloor spreading generates oceanic crust, SDRS (seaward 107 dipping reflectors) and magmatic under plating, which increases crustal basement thickness. A 108 correction for magmatic addition has been included within the gravity anomaly inversion method, 109 and uses a parameterization of the decompression melting model of White and McKenzie (1989) to 110 predict the thickness of the crustal magmatic addition (see Chappell & Kusznir (2008) for a detailed 111 explanation). Sensitivities to magmatic addition including a normal magmatic and a magma poor 112 solution have been examined along the CS1-2400 profile (Figure 4(b)). At the western end of the 113 profile we prefer the normal magmatic solution; however, in the central region of the profile we 114 believe that the magma poor solution is preferential.

115 Palaeo-bathymetry of the base Aptian salt deposition for the CS1-2400

116 **profile**

Flexural backstripping and decompaction has been applied to the CS1-2400 profile (Figure 5(a) to remove the salt and post-salt sedimentary layers in order to determine the bathymetry corrected for sedimentary loading to base salt (Figure 5(b)). Flexural backstripping and decompaction assumes shaly-sand compaction and density parameters (Sclater and Christie, 1980) during the removal of the sedimentary layer, whilst the salt layer is given a simple salt lithology (Hudec and Jackson, 2007) (Table 1).

The complex salt movement in this region may appear to be problematic for flexural backstripping. However, within the palaeo-bathymetric restoration we use the base salt as the target surface for backstripping, which allows us to ignore the salt movement, as we flexurally backstrip through the salt to the time of deposition. We are able to disregard the salt movement because as the salt moved the lithosphere would have responded isostatically to compensate.

128 The bathymetry corrected for sediment loading and decompaction to base salt (Figure 5(b)) is 129 sensitive to the effective elastic thickness (Te) or lithosphere flexural strength (Bertotti et al., 1998; 130 Galán and Casallas, 2010; Roberts et al., 1998). The effective elastic thickness depends on the 131 bending stresses applied to the plate, the rate of stress application, the lithosphere composition and 132 the geothermal gradient (Kusznir and Karner, 1985). Sensitivities to effective elastic thicknesses of 133 1.5km, 5km and 10km used in our flexural backstripping have been examined. A finite effective 134 elastic thickness is required for syn-rift flexural backstripping in order to preserve fault block 135 topography (Kusznir et al., 1995; Roberts et al., 1998); the use of Airy (local) isostasy in flexural 136 backstripping (corresponding to Te=0km) produces unrealistic internal deformation of individual 137 fault-blocks. Roberts et al. (1998) showed that effective elastic thicknesses between 1.5km and 5km 138 are required for syn-rift extensional settings in order to match observed fault block geometries and dips. Roberts et al. (1998) showed that relatively long wavelengths loads of post-rift subsidence and sediment loading are relatively insensitive to effective elastic thickness. During the post-rift the lithosphere cools and gets flexurally stronger, therefore, in the post-rift the effective elastic thicknesses will be larger, which act to freeze in the structures and the short wavelength isostatic response from the syn-rift. In this study we therefore use a low effective elastic thickness (Te=1.5km) appropriate for syn-rift flexurally backstripping.

145 The application of flexural backstripping and decompaction gives an incomplete palaeo-bathymetric 146 restoration of base salt; we also need to include reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence. We 147 determine the magnitude of reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence by the continental 148 lithosphere thinning factor (γ =1-1/ β) which we derive from gravity anomaly inversion. Lithosphere 149 thinning factors from gravity inversion are shown in Figure 5(c); sensitivities for a normal magmatic 150 solution and a magma poor solution have been examined. At the western end of the CS1-2400 151 profile the continental lithosphere thinning factors for a normal magmatic solution are 1.0; whereas 152 for a magma poor solution, the continental lithosphere thinning factors are approximately 0.85. In 153 the central section of the profile, the continental lithosphere thinning factors, for both solutions 154 examined, are between 0.7 and 0.85.

155 The restored palaeo-bathymetry to base salt, including reverse thermal subsidence modelling, is 156 shown in Figure 5(d) assuming a normal magmatic solution and a breakup age of 112Ma. The 157 proximal base salt restores to just below global sea level with an average bathymetry of 158 approximately 0.3km. In contrast, the distal base salt does not restore to near sea level; restored 159 palaeo-bathymetries for the distal base salt (smoothing through fault controlled topography) are 160 between approximately 0.9km and 2.5km below global sea level. In the deep fault controlled 161 troughs, palaeo-bathymetries for the distal base salt of approximately 4.0km below sea level are 162 predicted.

Assuming a magma poor solution (Figure 5(e)), the restored palaeo-bathymetry to base salt also shows that the proximal base salt restores to just below sea level, whilst the distal base salt again does not. The predicted palaeo-bathymetries of the distal base salt range between approximately 0.9km and 3km below sea level (smoothing through fault controlled topography); in the deep structural troughs the palaeo-bathymetries are greater (approximately 4.5km below sea level).

The lower thinning factors from gravity inversion for the magma poor solution result in less reverse post breakup thermal subsidence and a slightly greater predicted bathymetry for base salt compared with the normal magmatic addition solution. The normal magmatic addition solution (Figure 5(d)) is applicable to the oceanic part of the profile while the magma poor solution (Figure 5(e)) is applicable to the continental end of the profile, with a transitional region in between.

The restoration of base salt palaeo-bathymetry (Figures 5(d) and (e)) using reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling only restores thermal subsidence. It does not restore syn-rift (syntectonic) subsidence and the consequences of crustal thinning; subsidence arising from syn-tectonic crust and lithosphere thinning is not included in the restoration.

In the oceanic domain, depths of approximately 2.5km (± 0.2km depending on magmatic solution),
consistent with an oceanic ridge are predicted, for both a normal magmatic and a magma poor
solution.

An additional sensitivity to the continental lithosphere thinning factors, used to drive reverse thermal subsidence, has been examined for CS1-2400 profile. A continental lithosphere thinning factor of 1.0 (corresponding to $\beta = \infty$), which gives an upper bound of the restored post-breakup thermal subsidence, has been applied to the entire profile (Supplementary Figure S1). The predicted bathymetry for the base of the distal salt remains almost unchanged at between 2km and 3km below global sea level. This implies that, if the base distal salt was deposited at or just below global sea level, it has subsided not only due to post-breakup thermal subsidence and sediment loading. 187 Due to the thick sedimentary cover and mobile salt (including salt diapirs and canopies), seismic 188 imaging of the salt and pre-salt sedimentary units is difficult, which could lead to errors in our 189 interpretation of the internal structure and thickness of the salt and the pre-salt sedimentary layers. 190 We are however, more confident in our pick of the base salt. In order to understand the 191 implications of either over or under estimating the thickness of the salt layer we have examined the 192 effect of treating the salt layer as a sedimentary layer with a shaly sand lithology within the gravity 193 inversion and in the reverse post-breakup subsidence modelling (Figure 6). The presence of the salt 194 layer effects the decompaction and thinning factor estimates. If there was no salt along the margin, 195 this would result in a deeper Moho (Figure 6(a)) and smaller continental lithosphere thinning factors 196 (Figure 6(b)) from the gravity inversion, which in turn would lead to less reverse modelled thermal 197 subsidence and a deeper restoration of the base salt (Figure 6(c)). The largest differences between 198 the palaeo-bathymetric restorations of the base salt with the salt layer compared to that produced 199 without the salt layer are seen in the large troughs at the western end of the profile (approximately 200 0.3km difference). The inclusion or omission of the salt layer does not fundamentally change the 201 predicted palaeo-bathymetry of base salt.

202 Figure 5 (d and e) are calculated using a breakup age within the gravity inversion and reverse 203 thermal post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling of 112Ma. Seismic reflection shows a thick pre-204 salt sediments up to 8km thick (Unternehr et al., 2010) beneath the proximal salt which almost 205 certainly consists of a lower syn-rift sequence with a sag post-rift sequence above. The rift age in this 206 region is older than breakup and may be as old as 140 Ma (Teisserenc and Villemin, 1989). The 207 effect of using 140 Ma as the rift age (the age for thermal re-equilibration in the gravity inversion 208 and reverse thermal subsidence modelling) gives a slightly deeper base proximal salt palaeo-209 bathymetry but does not change the overall result that base proximal salt restores to a much 210 shallower palaeo-bathymetry than the distal salt.

In our analysis, we assume depth uniform lithosphere stretching for both the determination of the lithosphere thermal gravity anomaly correction and the reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling and thinning. While the possibility of depth dependent lithosphere stretching and thinning during rifted continental margin formation has been postulated (e.g. Davis and Kusznir (2004)and Kusznir and Karner (2007)), we prefer to assume depth uniform stretching in the absence of reliable fault extension observations.

217 Reverse post-breakup subsidence for the P3 and P7+11 profiles

In addition to the CS1-2400 profile, we have also applied the reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling to the more northerly P3 and P7+11 profiles (Figures 7 and 8). Results are comparable to those predicted for the CS1-2400 profile; with the proximal base salt restoring to approximately sea level whilst the distal base salt restores to between 2km and 3km below global sea level.

223 Predicted thinning factors from gravity inversion, assuming normal magmatic addition, are 1.0 at the 224 western end of both P3 and P7+P11 profiles consistent with the presence of oceanic crust. Predicted 225 palaeo-bathymetries for the western end of both profiles are on average 2.85km, consistent with 226 water depths on newly formed oceanic crust. Continental lithosphere thinning factors predicted 227 from gravity inversion under the salt are dependent on whether normal or magma poor 228 decompression melting is assumed. This difference in thinning factor leads to a difference in the 229 predicted bathymetry of base salt from reverse thermal subsidence modelling. Nonetheless, for both 230 profiles, the predicted palaeo-bathymetries for base proximal salt are at or just below global sea 231 level, while the palaeo-bathymetry of base distal salt is between 2km and 3km. At the extreme 232 eastern end of profile P7+11 the predicted sub aerial exposure of approximately 0.9km is probably 233 an edge effect from the flexural backstripping or a decompaction artifact.

234 Calibration of the reference Moho depth used within the gravity anomaly inversion, for the P3 and 235 P7+11 profiles, gives a reference Moho depth of 37.5km, which is larger than that predicted for the 236 CS1-2400 profile. We have therefore, considered the sensitivity to reference Moho depth within the 237 reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling (Supplementary Figure S2), using CS1-2400 as 238 the example. Increasing the reference Moho depth from 35.5km to 37.5km results in a deeper 239 Moho and smaller continental lithosphere thinning factors predicted from gravity anomaly inversion, 240 and a deeper restoration of the base salt. The largest differences between the palaeo-bathymetric 241 restorations of the base salt for a reference Moho depth of 35.5km compared to that produced with 242 a reference Moho depth of 37.5km are seen in the large troughs at the western end of the profile 243 (approximately 0.35km difference).

244 Location of the distal salt with respect to COB location along the CS1-

245 **2400 profile**

Knowledge of the horizontal position of the distal salt with respect to the continent-ocean boundary (COB) and ocean-continent transition (OCT) structure is important for understanding the depositional context of the base Aptian salt and how the salt sits within the broad framework of the OCT. The structure of the OCT and COB location have been investigated using gravity anomaly inversion, sediment corrected residual depth anomaly (RDA) analysis and subsidence analysis. A detailed description of the methodologies of these techniques is beyond the scope of this paper, but is described in Cowie (2015).

The results from these techniques applied to the CS1-2400 profile are shown in Figure 9. We interpret the analysis results as showing three distinct crustal zones along the profile: oceanic crust towards the western end of the profile, hyper-extended continental crust in the centre of the profile, and continental crust at the eastern end of the profile. The dashed lines indicate the boundary between each of these interpreted crustal domains; although these interfaces are shown as a sharp line, in reality they are likely to be transitional boundaries. The COB is identified as the ocean ward start of 'normal' oceanic crust and is identified by changes in crustal basement thickness, inflections in the RDA analysis signal and also changes in the continental lithosphere thinning from subsidence analysis and gravity anomaly inversion.

262 In the interpreted oceanic domain at the western end of the profile, crustal basement thicknesses 263 (Figure 9(a)) predicted from gravity anomaly inversion are approximately 7km, as expected for 264 oceanic crust. Oceanic crust of normal thickness should have a sediment corrected RDA of 265 approximately zero, notwithstanding the contribution of mantle dynamic topography. The slightly 266 positive sediment corrected RDA in this domain (Figure 9(b)) is consistent with the presence of 267 oceanic crust together with some mantle dynamic uplift, as reported by Crosby & McKenzie (2009) 268 for the Angolan margin. Continental lithosphere thinning factors from gravity anomaly inversion and 269 subsidence analysis (Figure 9(c)) are 1.0, also consistent with the presence of oceanic crust. Between 270 the oceanic domain and the hyper-extended continental crust domain, we see an increase in crustal 271 basement thickness and the RDA signal, whilst the continental lithosphere thinning factors decrease. 272 In our interpreted hyper-extended continental crust domain, gravity anomaly inversion predicted 273 crustal basement thicknesses range between 7km and 12km. The sediment corrected RDA increases 274 before plateauing at approximately 1000m, whilst the continental lithosphere thinning factors 275 decrease from 1.0 to between 0.7 and 0.85, which is indicative of thinned continental crust. At the 276 western end of the hyper-extended continental crust domain, the thinning of the continental crust 277 may increase together with the start of magmatic addition as ocean crust is approached. Our 278 interpretation of the presence of hyper-extended continental crust in this domain is significantly 279 different to that proposed by Unternehr et al. (2010), who proposes the presence of serpentinized 280 exhumed mantle. Our quantitative analysis results show no evidence of exhumed mantle; exhumed 281 mantle would show a thinner crust from gravity inversion, lower (negative) sediment corrected RDAs 282 and higher continental lithosphere thinning factors. At the eastern end of the profile we interpret continental crust as the crustal basement thickness and sediment corrected RDA increases, whilst
 the continental lithosphere thinning factors decrease to between 0.2 and 0.4.

We have identified the location of the COB on Figure 5, by the dashed line, in order to see where the salt sits within the OCT. We believe that the majority of the salt along the CS1-2400 profile is located to the east of the COB and is underlain by hyper-extended continental crust.

288 Discussion

289 Predicted palaeo-bathymetries have been determined for the base Loeme salt using 2D-flexural 290 backstripping and decompaction, together with reverse modelling of post-breakup thermal 291 subsidence. Continental lithosphere thinning factors derived from gravity anomaly inversion have 292 been used to determine the reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence. Sensitivities to normal 293 magmatic and magma poor solutions for determining thinning factors from gravity inversion have 294 been examined. For profile CS1-2400, thinning factors, from both the normal magmatic and magma 295 poor solutions, used to drive the reverse post-rift thermal subsidence modelling restore the proximal 296 autochthonous base salt to between 200m and 300m below global sea level at the time of breakup. 297 A similar palaeo-bathymetry for base proximal salt at breakup is predicted for profile P7-11. For 298 profile P3, predicted base proximal salt palaeo-bathymetry is slightly shallower with values at or just 299 below global sea level. In contrast, for all three profiles, reverse post-breakup subsidence modelling 300 restores the distal base salt to between 2km and 3 km below global sea level Even if we apply a 301 continental lithosphere thinning factor of 1.0 to drive the reverse post-rift thermal subsidence along 302 the full length of the three profiles (which is unreasonable), the palaeo-bathymetries of base distal 303 salt do not restore to sea level, demonstrating that it is not possible to generate the subsidence of 304 the base salt by post-rift subsidence alone. The predicted bathymetries at breakup of the first 305 unequivocal oceanic crust are approximately 2.5km as expected for newly formed oceanic crust of 306 normal thickness. As previously mentioned, sensitivities to effective elastic thickness and breakup age have been examined. The value of effective elastic thickness does not significantly change the
 palaeo-bathymetry predictions. Changing the breakup age has a small effect on the palaeo bathymetry predictions but does not change the overall conclusions.

310 We consider several possible explanations of the palaeo-bathymetric restoration of the distal base 311 salt to water depths substantially below sea level:

312 (i) All the Aptian salt along the northern Angolan profiles was deposited between 200m and 300m 313 below global sea level, but the distal salt was emplaced during late syn-rift while the continental 314 crust under it was being actively thinned resulting in additional tectonic subsidence. This is 315 consistent with seismic evidence, which shows that the distal base salt is extensionally faulted. Also 316 crustal basement thicknesses from gravity inversion, RDA and subsidence analysis, summarised in 317 Figure 9, suggest that the distal salt is underlain by hyper-extended continental crust rather than 318 oceanic crust or exhumed mantle. In contrast to the distal salt, the proximal salt formed in a region 319 where crustal thinning had already taken place, but had ceased. This interpretation requires that the 320 distal salt subsides by syn-rift crustal thinning and post-rift thermal subsidence, whilst the proximal 321 salt subsides by post-rift thermal subsidence alone. Diachronous thinning of the continental crust 322 from inboard to outboard is to be expected from both observation and modelling, and is consistent 323 with breakup tectonic models proposed by Péron-Pinvidic and Manatschal (2009), Pindell and 324 Kennan (2007), Ranero & Perez-Gussinye (2010) and Brune et al. (2014).

(ii) An alternative explanation is that during breakup the distal salt moved down-slope to its present position into much deeper water (and is para-autochthonous). If in the distal regions, the salt is para-autochthonous (or allochthonous) this suggests that it was not deposited in deep water and that the salt should not restore to sea level. This interpretation is similar to that advocated in the Gulf of Mexico by Hudec et al. (2013) and Rowan and Vendeville (2006). 330 (iii) An interpretation which is often invoked (e.g. Burke and Sengör (1988), Burke et al. (2003) and 331 Karner and Gambôa (2007)) to explain the palaeo-bathymetry of the base Aptian salt along the 332 northern Angolan margin is that the Aptian salt deposition occurred in confined environmental 333 conditions (e.g. in a Messinian-type basin, isolated from global sea level). Although a structural 334 barrier in the south is not dismissed, we believe that there is no definite requirement to invoke an 335 isolated ocean basin with local sea level 2km and 3km below global sea level for the deposition of 336 the Aptian salt on the Angolan rifted margin. A strong argument against the isolated basin 337 interpretation is presented by Pindell et al. (2014), with reference to the Gulf of Mexico. Pindell et 338 al. (2014) argue that an isolated basin hypothesis is unlikely as it requires a complicated scenario of 339 inter-related events to occur. They propose that first rifting must produce a large basin area in 340 which the depositional surface remains approximately 2km below sea level, there must also be land 341 barriers, which are able to block out the global sea during the formation of the large basin. Then, at 342 the time of salt deposition there needs to have been repeated spill/desiccation cycles and a semi-343 permeable barrier which continuously allowed just the right amount of sea water into basin so that 344 shallow-water evaporative conditions were maintained until the end of the salt deposition.

345 Our preferred interpretation of our palaeo-bathymetric restoration of the base Aptian salt along the 346 northern Angolan profiles is the first interpretation with a possible contribution from the second 347 interpretation. In summary we believe that both proximal and distal Aptian salt on the Kwanza 348 margin was deposited at a datum 200-300 m below global sea level, but that the distal salt was 349 deposited during late syn-rift while the crust under it was being actively thinned which resulted in 350 additional tectonic subsidence. It is possible that some of the distal salt is para-autochthonous and 351 moved down-slope to its present day position. It is also possible that syn-tectonic (pre-breakup) 352 extension continued post-salt deposition in the distal region.

353 **Figure Captions**:

Table 1 – Compaction and density parameters used within the reverse post-breakup thermal
 subsidence modelling.

Figure 1: Data used in the reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling and gravity anomaly inversion for the northern Angolan rifted continental margin. (a) Bathymetry (km) (Amante and Eakins 2009), with the location of profiles CS1-2400, P3 and P7+11 indicated. (b) Satellite derived free air gravity (mgal) (Sandwell and Smith 2009). (c) Deep long-offset seismic reflection depth section (PSDM) for the ION-GXT CS1-2400 profile. (d) Seismic velocity model along the P3 profile (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005) from seismic refraction data. (e) Seismic velocity model along the P7+11 profile (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005) from seismic refraction data.

363 Figure 2: Schematic series of sequential cross sections showing reverse post-rift thermal subsidence
 364 modelling from present day to base post-rift for a hypothetical rift basin (Kusznir et al., 1995).

Figure 3: Calibration of the reference Moho depth used in the gravity anomaly inversion against
seismic Moho depths for the CS1-2400 profile on the northern Angolan margin. (a) Sensitivity of
Moho depth predicted from gravity anomaly inversion to reference Moho depths of 32.5km, 35km
and 37.5km. (b) Cross-plot of ΔZMoho (the difference between the gravity inversion predicted
Moho depth and seismic Moho depth) against the value of reference Moho depth used in the gravity
inversion. Calibration gives a reference Moho depth of 35.5km.

Figure 4: (a) Crustal cross section along the CS1-2400 profile, showing Moho depth from gravity anomaly inversion, using the calibrated reference Moho depth of 35.5km. (b) Continental lithosphere thinning profile, predicted from gravity anomaly inversion, along the CS1-2400 profile. Sensitivities to a normal magmatic solution and a magma poor solution have been examined. A normal magmatic solution predicts thinning factors of 1.0 at the western end of the profile and a magma poor solution predicts continental lithosphere thinning factors of approximately 0.85 in thisregion.

378 Figure 5: Flexural backstripping and reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the 379 ION-GXT CS1-2400 profile. (a) Digitized present day cross section along the CS1-2400 profile; the 380 post-salt sedimentary layer is highlighted in blue; pre-salt sedimentary layer in pink; the salt layer is 381 highlighted in yellow; crust is grey and mantle is red. (b) Sediment corrected bathymetry to base salt 382 calculated from flexural backstripping and decompaction, using a Te of 1.5km. (c) Continental 383 lithosphere thinning factor profile, from gravity anomaly inversion, for normal magmatic and magma 384 poor solutions. (d) Reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the CS1-2400 profile, 385 assuming a normal magmatic solution. (e) Reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling 386 along the CS1-2400 profile, assuming a magma poor solution.

387 Figure 6: Summary of the integrated quantitative analysis results for the CS1-2400 profile used to 388 determine OCT structure and COB location. (a) Crustal cross section along CS1-2400 profile with 389 Moho depth from gravity anomaly inversion. (b) The sediment corrected RDA and the RDA 390 component from variations in crustal basement thickness both have the same general trend along 391 the profile although the magnitudes differ. This difference gives an indication of the magnitude of 392 residual topography in this region, which we calculate to be approximately +700m of uplift. (c) 393 Comparison of continental lithosphere thinning factors determined using subsidence analysis and 394 gravity anomaly inversion assuming a normal magmatic solution show the same general trend along 395 profile. The dashed lines on the crustal cross section, RDA and continental lithosphere thinning plots 396 indicate the distal extent of unequivocal continental crust and its boundary with oceanic crust, which 397 is a possible interpretation of the COB.

Figure 7: Flexural backstripping and reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the
P3 profile (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005). (a) Digitized present day cross section along

400 the P3 profile; the post-salt sedimentary layers are highlighted in turquoise, orange, green and blue; 401 pre-salt sedimentary layer in pink; the salt layer is highlighted in yellow; crust is grey and mantle is 402 red. (b) Sediment corrected bathymetry to base salt calculated from flexural backstripping and 403 decompaction, using a Te of 1.5km. (c) Continental lithosphere thinning factors from gravity 404 anomaly inversion for a normal magmatic and a magma poor solution. (d) Reverse post-breakup 405 thermal subsidence modelling along the P3 profile, assuming a normal magmatic solution. (e) 406 Reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the P3 profile, assuming a magma poor 407 solution.

408 Figure 8: Flexural backstripping and reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the 409 P7+11 profile (Contrucci et al., 2004; Moulin et al., 2005). (a) Digitized present day cross section 410 along the P3 profile; the post-salt sedimentary layers are highlighted in turquoise, orange, green and 411 blue; pre-salt sedimentary layer in pink; the salt layer is highlighted in yellow; crust is grey and 412 mantle is red. (b) Sediment corrected bathymetry to base salt calculated from flexural backstripping 413 and decompaction using a Te of 1.5km. (c) Continental lithosphere thinning factors from gravity 414 anomaly inversion for a normal magmatic and a magma poor solution. (d) Reverse post-breakup 415 thermal subsidence modelling along the P7+11 profile, assuming a normal magmatic solution. (e) 416 Reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling along the P7+11 profile, assuming a magma 417 poor solution.

Supplementary Figure S1: Sensitivity to the effect of over-estimating or under-estimating the thickness of the salt layer along CS1-2400. Two end member sensitivities have been considered: (i) having a salt layer (as used in the paper) (labelled "With Salt") or (ii) treating the salt as just another sedimentary layer (labelled "No Salt"). (a) Crustal cross section from gravity anomaly inversion, showing two Moho depths (both using the calibrated reference Moho depth of 35.5km). The Moho in black is the result of having a salt layer in the gravity anomaly inversion, whereas the Moho in blue is the result of treating the salt layer as just another sedimentary layer. Removing the salt layer from the gravity anomaly inversion results in a deeper Moho depth prediction. (b) Comparison of the continental lithosphere thinning factors, predicted form gravity anomaly inversion for the two sensitivities: with salt (in blue) and no salt (in green). Removing the salt layer from the gravity anomaly inversion results in smaller continental lithosphere thinning factors. (c) The resulting palaeo-bathymetries from reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling for the two sensitivities: with salt (in blue) and no salt (in orange). The "No Salt" sensitivity results in deeper palaeo-bathymetries, the biggest differences are observed in the central section of the profile.

432 Supplementary Figure S2: Sensitivity to changing the reference Moho depth between 35.5km (as 433 calibrated for the CS1-2400 profile) to 37.5km (as calibrated for the P3 and P7+11 profiles). (a) 434 Crustal cross section from gravity anomaly inversion, showing two Moho depths. The Moho in black 435 is the result of using a reference Moho depth of 35.5km and the Moho in purple is the result of using 436 a higher reference Moho depth of 37.5km. If we increase the reference Moho depth along the CS1-437 2400 profile, this results in a deeper Moho depth prediction. (b) Comparison of the continental 438 lithosphere thinning factors, predicted form gravity anomaly inversion for the sensitivities to 439 reference Moho depth. Using a reference Moho depth of 37.5km (in red) results in smaller 440 continental lithosphere thinning factors along the CS1-2400 profile. (c) The resulting palaeo-441 bathymetries from reverse post-breakup thermal subsidence modelling for the two sensitivities to 442 reference Moho depth: using a reference Moho depth of 35.5km (in blue) and using a reference 443 Moho depth of 37.5km (in green). The larger reference Moho depth of 37.5km results in deeper 444 palaeo-bathymetries; the biggest differences are observed in the central section of the profile.

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Layer	Lithology	Porosity	Compaction Coefficient (km ⁻¹)	Density (kgm ⁻³)
Post Salt	Shaly-Sand	63	0.51	2720
Salt	Salt	0	0	2200
Pre-salt	Shaly-Sand	63	0.51	2720

Figure 1 Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014







Figure 4 Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014





ION-GXT CS1-2400 profile:

Figure 6 Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014





P3 profile: (Moulin (2003) & Contrucci et al., (2004))

Figure 8 Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014



P7+11 profile (Moulin (2003) & Contrucci et al., (2004))



Supplementary Figure 1

Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014



Supplementary Figure 2

Cowie, Angelo, Kusznir & Manatschal 2014

