

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL
INSTITUTO DE GEOCIÊNCIAS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM GEOCIÊNCIAS**

**CONTRIBUIÇÃO A EVOLUÇÃO TECTONO-
ESTRATIGRÁFICA E TERMOCRONOLÓGICA DA
REGIÃO NOROESTE DE MOÇAMBIQUE - ÁFRICA**

MARCOS MÜLLER BICCA

ORIENTADORA – Prof^a. Dra. Andrea Ritter Jelinek
COORIENTADOR – Prof. Dr. Ruy Paulo Philipp

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RESUMO

O estudo da região noroeste de Moçambique demonstrou a importância de processos tectônicos distais (compressivos) e proximais (distensivos) na reativação de estruturas antigas do embasamento cristalino, influenciando em aspectos estruturais, sedimentares e erosivos. A caracterização tectono-estratigráfica na bacia rifte Moatize-Minjova demonstrou a forte influência de remobilização de estruturas noroeste regionais na sua configuração, sedimentação e magmatismo. A geração de espaço de acomodação na bacia foi impulsionada por esforços tectônicos na margem sul-sudoeste do Gondwana enquanto as estruturas registradas em escala de afloramento caracterizaram a influência de esforços distensivos/transstrativos pós-deposicionais atribuídos à separação Jurássico-Cretácica entre as placas da África e Antártica. A análise sedimentológica permitiu determinar na Formação Moatize (Permiano Inferior ao Superior) litofácies depositadas em sequências cíclicas marcadas por sucessões de alta e baixa energia, as quais permitiram definir associações de litofácies atribuídas a planície de inundação, depósitos de *crevasse* e canal fluvial caracterizando um sistema fluvial meandrante estando as camadas de carvão associados a lagos e pântanos em meandros abandonados. Esta sequência foi progredida por litofácies arenosas grossas a conglomeráticas com estratificações cruzadas planares e acanaladas pertencentes à Formação Matinde, composta por macroformas de leito de migração frontal e lateral associadas a um sistema fluvial entrelaçado. As medidas de paleocorrente nestas duas formações sugerem um paleofluxo para norte-noroeste. A análise de proveniência na Formação Matinde forneceu idades entre o Mesoproterozóico e Cambriano, que abrange importantes momentos de formação e deformação crustal nos domínios geotectônicos do norte de Moçambique. As populações de idades entre 950-550 Ma permitiram a definição de uma área fonte da região sul-sudoeste, juntamente com os dados de paleocorrente para norte-noroeste, correspondente aos domínios do Complexo Nampula e da Suite Guro.

As análises térmicas das amostras do embasamento forneceram idades entre o Mesozóico e o Cenozóico e uma espessura denudada de ~ 2-3,5 km

desde o Triássico Superior. Os estágios iniciais foram marcados por taxas de denudação muito baixas (1-10 m/Ma) atingindo ~ 500 m até o Cretáceo Inferior sofrendo um leve aumento até o Paleoceno (3-17 m/Ma). Altas taxas de denudação de 31-47 m/Ma trouxeram as amostras para as condições superficiais. A denudação inicial está associada a processos distensivos/transtrativos produzidos pela dissolução do Gondwana. O Jurássico Superior e o Cretáceo Superior foi um período de grande desenvolvimento do Oceano Índico e o início da deriva N-S da Antártica em relação à placa Africana. O período entre o Cretáceo Inferior e o Paleoceno, marca o desenvolvimento da margem africana e a reconfiguração dos padrões de drenagem na placa Africana. O último evento forneceu taxas de resfriamento da ordem de 1,17 a 0,88 °C/Ma, implicando na denudação de ~ 1,5 a 2 km desde o início do Neogeno até os tempos recentes. Este último evento foi relacionado ao desenvolvimento de topografia dinâmica induzida pela movimentação da pluma do manto do Rifte do Leste Africano.

ABSTRACT

The study of the northwestern region of Mozambique demonstrated the importance of distal (compressive) and proximal (extensional) tectonic processes in the reactivation of old structures of the crystalline basement, influencing structural, sedimentary and erosive aspects. The tectono-stratigraphic characterization in the Moatize-Minjova rift basin demonstrated the strong influence of remobilization of northwest regional structures in its configuration, sedimentation and magmatism. Accommodation space generation in Permian times were driven by tectonic efforts on the south-southwestern margin of Gondwana, while the outcrop scale structures characterized the influence of post-depositional extensional/transtractive efforts attributed to the Jurassic-Cretaceous separation between the African and Antarctic plates. The sedimentary analysis allowed to determine in the Moatize Formation (Lower-Upper Permian) lithofacies deposited in cyclic sequences marked by deposits of high and low energy, which allowed to define associations of lithofacies attributed to floodplain, crevasse and fluvial channel deposits characterizing a meandering fluvial system, being the coal layers associated with lakes and swamps in abandoned meanders. This sequence was grade by coarse sandy to conglomerate lithofacies with planar and through-cross bedding belonging to the Matinde Formation, composed of frontal and lateral migration bed macroforms associated to a braided fluvial system. The paleocurrent measurements in these two formations suggest a north-northwest paleoflux. The provenance analysis in the Matinde Formation provided ages between the Mesoproterozoic and Cambrian, which covers important crustal formation and deformation moments in the geotectonic domains of northern Mozambique. Populations between 950-550 Ma allowed the definition of a source area of the south-southwest region, together with the north-northwest paleocurrent data, corresponding to the Nampula Complex and Guro Suite domains.

The thermal analyzes of the basement samples provided ages between the Mesozoic and the Cenozoic and a denuded thickness of ~ 2-3.5 km since Upper Triassic times. The initial stages denoted to very low denudation rates (1-10 m/Ma)

reaching ~ 500 m until the Lower Cretaceous when the region undergoes a brief increase until the Paleocene (3-17 m/Ma). High denudation rates of 31-47 m/Ma brought the samples to the present surface conditions. Initial denudation is associated with extensional/transtractive processes produced by the dissolution of Gondwana. The Upper Jurassic to Upper Cretaceous was a period of great development of the Indian Ocean and the beginning of the N-S drift of Antarctica in relation to the African plate. The period between the Lower Cretaceous and the Paleocene marks the development of the African margin and the reconfiguration of drainage patterns on the African plate. The last event provided cooling rates in the order of 1.17 to 0.88 °C/Ma implying denudation of ~ 1.5 to 2 km from the beginning of Neogene to recent times which was attributed to the development of dynamic topography induced by the movement of the mantle plume of the East African Rift.

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TEXTO EXPLICATIVO DA ESTRUTURA DA TESE

Esta tese está estruturada em formato de artigos científicos, publicados e/ou submetidos em periódicos. Consequentemente, sua organização compreende as seguintes partes principais:

1- Introdução, na qual é feita uma abordagem sobre o estado da arte, procurando-se caracterizar os principais trabalhos desenvolvidos na região e arredores. Além disso, é apresentada a localização da área e o contexto geológico simplificado; problemática e justificativa para aplicação dos métodos empregados para o desenvolvimento da tese; e a síntese integradora a qual é composta por uma análise resumida e integradora dos dados obtidos nesta tese, salientando as suas contribuições para o aprimoramento do conhecimento geológico científico da região de estudo.

Os itens seguintes consistem no corpo principal desta tese, onde são apresentados os artigos submetidos à revistas nacionais e internacionais com corpo editorial indexado, com autoria principal do doutorando e colaboradores (incluindo orientadores). Nestes artigos encontram-se os resultados obtidos no decorrer do desenvolvimento da tese bem como a avaliação e interpretação dos dados com discussão e conclusão.

1. INTRODUÇÃO

Em termos gerais, o estudo abordou aspectos estratigráficos, tectônicos, geocronológicos e termocronológicos do Cinturão Moçambicano e bacias adjacentes, contribuindo para o aprimoramento do modelo evolutivo regional durante o Mesozóico (Permiano-Cretácico). O principal estímulo para o desenvolvimento desta tese foi a carência de trabalhos de detalhe que abrangessem análises isotópicas pertinentes a avaliação dos processos tectônicos que afetaram a região após a sua formação. Os primeiros estudos geológicos em Moçambique foram desenvolvidos ainda no século XIX com foco principal nas ocorrências de carvão que se distribuíam amplamente nas camadas do Supergrupo Karoo. Foi apenas na década de 80 que os primeiros trabalhos de mapeamento geológico de reconhecimento, e trabalhos mais detalhados, para exploração mineral foram desenvolvidos na região, em parceria com o governo de Moçambique (Hunting, 1984; Pinna *et al.*, 1993).

Mais recentemente, os trabalhos realizados pelo GTK Consortium, de 2002 a 2007, que consistiu em uma parceria entre os Serviços Geológicos de Moçambique e da Finlândia (GTK), apresentaram uma caracterização mais detalhada do território de Moçambique, definidos em folhas geológicas em escala 1:250.000. Neste projeto foram integrados todos os dados geológicos disponíveis, combinados com dados geofísicos, de imagens de satélites, análises litogeoquímicas e dados isotópicos (U-Pb com TIMS e SHRIMP e análises Sm-Nd). Os dados geocronológicos obtidos durante este projeto são pouco representativos, dispersos e não atendem as dimensões e a complexidade da geologia na região de estudo, não permitindo o seu pleno entendimento. Diversas unidades tiveram seu posicionamento estratigráfico definido a partir unicamente de observações de campo e dados geofísicos.

Desde então, alguns trabalhos pertencentes a este grupo tem sido publicados em revistas internacionais de prestígio, agregando novos dados geocronológicos aplicados à evolução das entidades geotectônicas regionais e bacias Neoproterozóicas relacionadas a elas, porém abrangendo predominantemente a região nordeste de Moçambique (Viola *et al.*, 2008; Bingen *et al.*, 2009; Thomas

et al., 2010; Ueda *et al.*, 2012a e 2012b; Grantham *et al.*, 2013; Macey *et al.*, 2010; 2013). Entretanto, pouco foi desenvolvido concernente ao desenvolvimento da superfície durante o período Fanerozóico envolvendo a evolução deposicional das bacias Karoo empregando conceitos clássicos de análise estratigráfica e tectônica de bacias sedimentares (Miall, 1992; 1996).

Discussão semelhante pode ser aplicada aos estudos termocronológicos, que possuem relações intrínsecas com a história de denudação de cinturões orogênicos contribuindo diretamente para o entendimento de processos erosivos e deposicionais. A aplicação destes métodos restringe-se aos domínios nordeste de Moçambique, destinados a compreender a evolução tardi-tectônica do cinturão orogênico através de análises por termocronômetros de alta e média temperatura (Daszinnies, 2006; Daszinnies *et al.*, 2009), assim como, definir os seus estágios evolutivos tardios (Fanerozóicos) no que tange processos de denudação/exumação da superfície a partir de termocronômetros de mais baixa temperatura (< 300°C; Emmel *et al.*, 2011; Bauer *et al.*, 2016).

Neste contexto, a proposta desta tese foi contribuir com novos dados estruturais, sedimentológicos e de proveniência para as sequências do Supergrupo Karoo e termocronológicos para região, concentrando a coleta de amostras, e conseqüentemente, a realização de análises em unidades estratégicas para o entendimento da evolução estrutural e termotectônica do Cinturão Moçambicano. E assim, aprimorar o conhecimento ao identificar e datar eventos tectônicos tardios, que condicionaram a evolução deste cinturão durante o Fanerozóico através de análises de traços de fissão em apatitas.

1.2. Localização da Área e Contexto Geológico Simplificado

Este estudo foi desenvolvido na região noroeste de Moçambique, nos arredores da província de Tete, região centro-leste da África. Em termos gerais, a região de estudo compreende rochas atribuídas aos ciclos orogênicos Proterozóicos apresentando uma ampla assembleia de rochas metamórficas de baixo a alto grau (orto e para derivadas) e rochas ígneas intrusivas (Fig. 1A e 1B). O continente Africano é composto por um mosaico de crátons e faixas móveis

Arqueanas, amalgamados por cinturões dobrados Proterozóico-Cambrianos e cobertos por uma associação de sedimentos indeformados e rochas extrusivas de idades Neoproterozóica, Carbonífera Superior-Jurássica Inferior e Cretácica-Quaternária.

O embasamento cristalino é composto por uma assembleia heterogênea de orto e paragneisses, granulitos, migmatitos e rochas ígneas de diferentes níveis crustais (GTK Consortium, 2006). Estas associações correspondem, em sua maior parte, a rochas de idade Mesoproterozóicas (~1300-930 Ma) que foram retrabalhadas pela orogenia Pan-Africana (Neoproterozóica-Cambriana - Pinna, 1993; Hanson, 2003; Grantham *et al.*, 2003). Esta orogenia ocorreu em dois estágios principais. O primeiro estágio de amalgamação é caracterizado pela colisão das associações do terreno Gondwana Leste e Oeste, formando o Orógeno do Leste Africano com *trend* Norte - Sul (~ 550 Ma). O segundo estágio é marcado pela colisão do recém-formado Gondwana Norte com o Gondwana Sul (Orogenia Kuunga, ~ 500 Ma) com um *trend* principal Leste – Oeste (Fig. 1A) (Ueda *et al.*, 2012; Macey *et al.*, 2013).

O norte de Moçambique pode ser dividido em dois grandes domínios Mesoproterozóicos separados pelo proeminente Cinturão Lúrio Neoproterozóico-Paleozoico (Fig. 1B) (Viola *et al.*, 2008), o qual compreende uma série de zonas de cisalhamento anastomosadas com orientação NE-SW e é representado principalmente pelo Complexo Granulítico Ocuá, que ocorre predominantemente no nordeste de Moçambique, enquanto que o segmento sudoeste do Cinturão Lúrio está parcialmente coberto (Fig. 1B). O significado do Cinturão Lúrio ainda é controverso. Alguns autores acreditam que ele representa uma importante zona de sutura que se liga com os cinturões Damara-Lufilian-Zambezi (Sacchi *et al.*, 2000, Grantham *et al.*, 2003). Outros sugerem que ele representa uma zona de acomodação, especialmente devido às semelhanças entre os complexos metamórficos ao norte e ao sul do Cinturão Lúrio, e devido a uma aparente diminuição da tensão ao longo do cinturão de nordeste para sudoeste (Viola *et al.*, 2008; Bingen *et al.* 2009).

Os dois domínios, ao norte e ao sul do Cinturão Lurio, compartilham uma história similar de crescimento crustal durante o Mesoproterozóico. O Complexo Nampula, ao sul do cinturão, desenvolveu-se entre 1125 e 1035 Ma, enquanto o Cinturão Irumide Sul é uma região estrutural e metamorficamente complexa de rochas ígneas mesoproterozóicas relacionadas a rochas magmáticas volumosas de 1300-930 Ma (GTK Consortium) atribuídas a um ambiente de arco continental, acompanhadas de metamorfismo de alta temperatura/baixa pressão (Fritz *et al.*, 2013).

O Complexo Nampula forma um grande bloco crustal contíguo que consiste em ortognaisses e rochas metassedimentares com metamorfismo de alto grau (Bingen *et al.*, 2009; Macey *et al.*, 2010). Os ortogneisses do segmento sudoeste do Complexo Nampula (Fig. 1B) são interpretados como remanescentes do arco magmático continental Mesoproterozóico (cerca de 1100 Ma, Chaúque, 2012). A porção sudoeste do Complexo Nampula (Fig. 1B), compreendida na área de estudo desta tese, é atribuído às nappes frontais dos grupos Chimoio-Macossa e Mungari (Chaúque, 2012), constituídos por paragnaisses de baixo a alto grau, as quais estão em contato tectônico direto com as rochas do craton do Kalahari. O *nappe* de Mungari inclui as associações da Suite Guro que compõem uma associação intrusiva bimodal Neoproterozóica (Fig. 1B) (Chaúque *et al.*, 2017).

Análises U-Pb em zircão de rochas graníticas indicam uma idade de cristalização magmática de 867 ± 15 Ma. A datação do núcleo de zircões metamórficos mostra idades de recristalização em $\sim 850-839$ Ma, relacionada com falhas distensivas, enquanto as bordas metamórficas forneceram uma idade de 512 ± 4 Ma relacionada com a Orogenia Pan-Africana (GTK Consortium 2006). Na margem nordeste da área cratônica ocorrem rochas metavulcânicas metassedimentares e félsicas de baixo a médio grau (cerca de 800 Ma) do Grupo Rushinga que podem representar uma margem passiva de idade Neoproterozóica (Barton *et al.*, 1991; Hargrove *et al.*, 2003, GTK Consortium 2006, Chaúque, 2012).

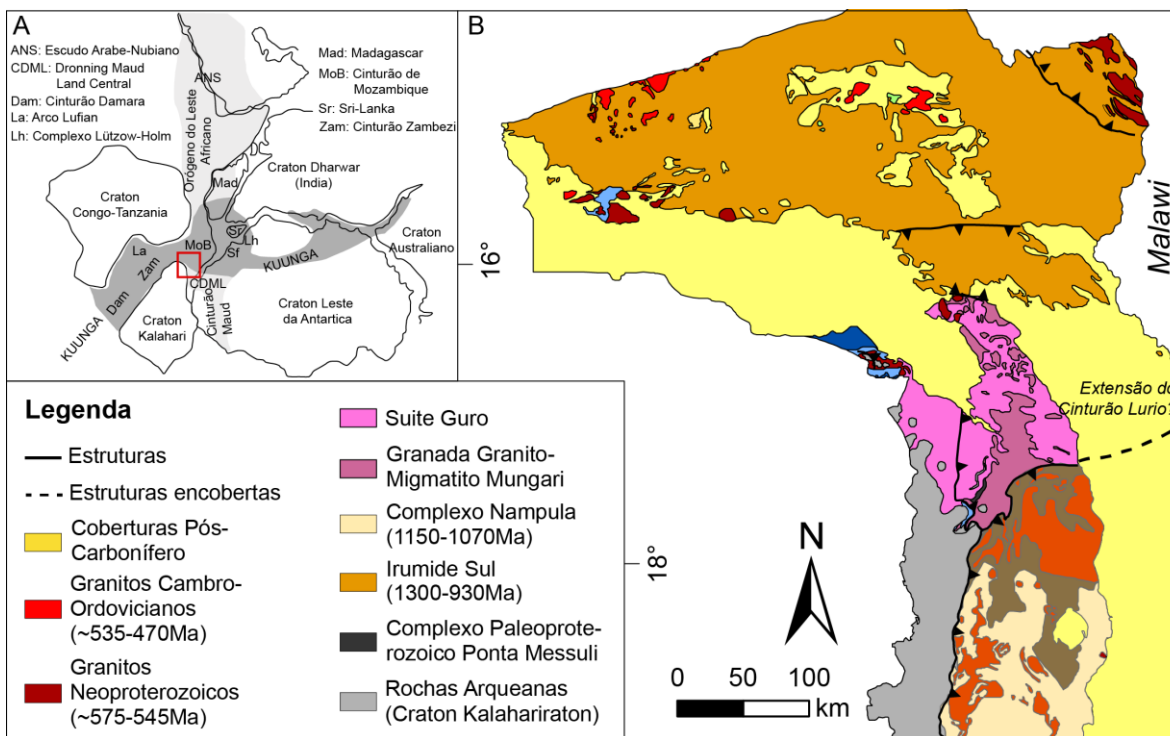


Figura 1: A) Reconstrução da margem leste da África ao final da amalgamação do Gondwana (Meert, 2003); B) Mapa geológico simplificado da região noroeste de Moçambique (Macey *et al.*, 2013).

A orogênese colisional Pan-Africana foi seguida pela intrusão de granitos tardi-pós-tectônicos no Neoproterozóico (cerca de 575-545 Ma) e K-granito no Cambriano-Ordoviciano (cerca de 530-495 Ma) (Jacobs *et al.*, 2008, Ueda *et al.*, 2012, Macey *et al.*, 2013, Grantham *et al.*, 2013). Este último predomina na porção oriental do Complexo Nampula (Fig. 1B), devido ao processo de delaminação crustal que levou a uma história de resfriamento prolongada durante os períodos Cambriano e Ordoviciano (Jacob *et al.*, 2008; Emmel *et al.*, 2014). Estas rochas Pré-Cambrianas a Cambrianas foram parcialmente cobertas pelos depósitos vulcanossedimentares Fanerozóicos do Supergrupo Karoo e sequências mais jovens (GTK Consortium, 2006).

As sequências sedimentares e ígneas da região se depositaram em riftes intracontinentais associados às estruturas do embasamento, as quais possuem direções preferenciais noroeste-sudeste e leste-oeste. Estes depósitos são representados por dois supergrupos distintos: o supergrupo Karoo (Carbonífero

Superior – Jurássico Inferior) e depósitos contemporâneos ao rifte da margem leste Africana (Jurássico Superior ao Recente) (GTK Consortium, 2006).

O Supergrupo Karoo (SK) compreende uma sucessão de rochas sedimentares continentais, seguidas por derrames de lavas básicas e extrusões riolíticas, que atestam um processo de separação do Gondwana. A história deposicional do Supergrupo Karoo é composta por sequências glaciogênicas, fluvio-lacustres, fluviais e magmáticas. Em geral, a sedimentação do Supergrupo Karoo compreende uma mudança progressiva das condições glaciais para as condições úmidas e frias para condições quentes, semiáridas e finalmente quentes e áridas (Johnson *et al.*, 1996). Sequências correlacionáveis a esses grupos, que mais ou menos podem ser observadas em todas as bacias de Karoo na África, seguem uma sequência de ambientes glaciais, deltaicos, fluviais, lacustres e eólicos, principalmente devido à mudanças climáticas (aridificação) durante a deriva norte de Gondwana (Catuneanu *et al.*, 2005).

A Formação Vúzi corresponde a base da sequência, depositada em um ambiente flúvio-glacial (Consórcio GTK, 2006, Fernandes *et al.*, 2015). As litologias mais expressivas compreendem conglomerados fluviais, diamictitos, arenitos e ritmitos intercalados, folhelhos carbonosos e finas camadas de carvão no topo da sequência, repousando discordantemente sobre o embasamento cristalino Pré-Cambriano (GTK Consortium, 2006; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2014; Fernandes *et al.*, 2015; Lakshminarayana, 2015). Os depósitos de Vúzi mostram uma importante assembleia palinológica que indica uma idade Sakmariana (Wopfner e Kreuser, 1986, Weiss e Wopfner, 1997). Não obstante, estudos desenvolvidos por Pereira *et al.* (2014) e Lopes *et al.* (2014) que, datando os diamictitos do topo desta formação, atribuíram uma idade Kunguriana-Roadiana (Permiano Médio-Superior), sendo mais jovem que a última idade regional proposta. Poucas idades radiométricas U-Pb estão disponíveis para as sequências cronocorrelatas à Formação Vúzi, sendo descritas no grupo Dwyka da Namíbia e da África do Sul, obtidas a partir de camadas de tufos indicando idades de $302 \pm 3,0$ Ma e $299 \pm 3,2$ Ma para as rochas da Namíbia e $288 \pm 3,0$ Ma e $289 \pm 3,8$ Ma para a África do Sul (Bangert *et al.*, 1999). A formação Vúzi transiciona

gradualmente para a Formação Moatize que consiste em sua maior parte, de arenitos carbonosos, arenitos arcoseanos e arenitos conglomeráticos ocasionais. Ainda ocorrem arenitos de finos com argila ou micáceo e folhelhos carbonosos com camadas cíclicas de carvão (Cairncross, 2001). A idade absoluta destas formações de carvão não está bem definida e a maior parte provém do registro palinológico, permitindo posicionar o seu ciclo deposicional durante todo o Permiano (Daber, 1984; Pereira *et al.*, 2014).

A Formação de Moatize é sobreposta pelos depósitos da Formação Matinde de idade Permo-Triássica (GTK Consortium, 2006; Pereira *et al.*, 2016), compreendendo uma espessa sucessão intercalada de arenitos muito grosseiros e conglomerados polimíticos, com ocorrências subordinadas de siltitos (GTK Consortium, 2006). A sequência sedimentar atribuída ao topo do Supergrupo Karoo é dominada por depósitos aluviais grosseiros com estratificação cruzada da Formação Cádzi (GTK Consortium, 2006) a qual é classicamente posicionada entre o Permiano Superior e o Triássico Inferior (GTK Consortium, 2006). Entretanto, devido à idade atribuída à formação inferior a esta, fica evidente a necessidade de um aprimoramento dos estudos geocronológicos referentes a estas formações, ou até mesmo, quanto à sua correlação em termos estratigráficos. O ciclo basinal do Supergrupo Karoo é encerrado pelo magmatismo bimodal (195-180 Ma, Sm-Nd; 181 Ma, U-Pb TIMS) atribuído a um estágio inicial da dissolução de supercontinente Gondwana (GTK Consortium, 2006).

As sequências do SK foram parcialmente erodidas e sobrepostas por depósitos sedimentares associados aos estágios sin- e pós- abertura do Oceano Índico acompanhados por rochas vulcânicas e associações carbonatíticas e alcalinas (dados ^{40}K - ^{40}Ar forneceram idades entre ~ 106-166 Ma) marcando um novo pulso de rifteamento na margem leste Africana (GTK Consortium, 2006).

1.3. Problema Científico e Justificativa Metodológica

Cinturões orogênicos consistem em zonas alongadas, comumente arqueadas, de rochas altamente deformadas que se desenvolveram durante

processos da orogênese em ambiente de margens convergentes, envolvendo encurtamento intraplaca, espessamento crustal e soerguimento topográfico. Orógenos antigos, os quais já tiveram a sua topografia reduzida por processos erosivos, marcam a localização de antigos e inativos limites de placas, fornecendo informações importantes referentes aos movimentos das placas tectônicas no passado (Kearey *et al.*, 2009). Os orógenos Pré-Cambrianos compreendem províncias crustais exumadas, sendo que a maioria destas províncias contém rochas com um amplo intervalo de idades e registram mais de um período de deformação, metamorfismo e plutonismo. Algumas seções das províncias crustais correspondem a rochas “novas”, derivadas do manto, denominada de juvenis, enquanto que outras partes são formadas por rochas originadas a partir do retrabalhamento da crosta antiga (Conde, 2005).

A maioria das províncias crustais e orógenos são compostos por terrenos, os quais são considerados os blocos básicos para a construção dos continentes e a colisão entre os terrenos é o processo principal para o crescimento continental. Estes terrenos apresentam um registro semelhante de idades isotópicas e exibem uma história pós-amalgamação semelhante. A maioria dos terrenos colide com a crosta continental ao longo de falhas transcorrentes ou zonas de subducção, sendo suturadas aos continentes. A crosta continental pode ser fragmentada e separada por processos de rifteamento ou por falhas transcorrentes (Conde, 2005). Os terrenos, que compõem as províncias crustais, são limitados por zonas de sutura, que são lineamentos entre as províncias crustais. Estas zonas correspondem a indícios da presença de zonas de subducção ou limites de placa. Megassuturas são aglomerados de cinturões orogênicos unidos por um limite de placas comum (Kearey *et al.*, 2009).

O norte de Moçambique compreende rochas geradas em ciclos orogênicos desde o Arqueano até o Cambriano. Estes processos deixaram diversas estruturas crustais que demonstraram vital importância na reconfiguração crustal concernentes aos processos tectônicos tardios, taxas de sedimentação e estilos deposicionais em bacias sedimentares e taxas de denudação. As bacias sedimentares possuem em seu registro importantes pistas dos eventos que

ocorreram nas rochas do embasamento adjacente, que atuaram como área fonte para o seu preenchimento (Fedo *et al.*, 2003; Hawkesworth *et al.*, 2010).

O Supergrupo Karoo compreende sequências vulcanossedimentares depositadas em um intervalo de tempo entre o Carbonífero Superior e o Jurássico Médio. Estas sequências estão amplamente depositadas em bacias de antepaís, sag e em riftes intracontinentais em toda a região centro-sul da África (Catuneanu *et al.*, 2005). Estas bacias são cronocorrelatas a outras bacias sedimentares na América do Sul, Antártica e Austrália, sendo que algumas compartilham eventos deposicionais relacionados a eventos tectônicos compressivos ocorridos na margem sul-sudoeste do Supercontinente Gondwana (Milani e Ramos, 1998; Zeffass *et al.*, 2003; 2004; 2005; Milani e De Wit, 2008). Em todas as bacias Africanas é possível observar uma correlação em seus registros sedimentares referente a uma mudança progressiva das condições glaciais para as condições úmidas e frias para condições quentes, semiáridas e finalmente quentes e áridas, a qual ocorre aproximadamente no limite entre o Permiano e o Triássico (Johnson *et al.*, 1996; Catuneanu *et al.*, 2005).

Em Moçambique, pouco tem sido feito em termos de aprimoramento tectono-estratigráfico para aperfeiçoamento dos modelos deposicionais e prospectivos. Os modelos vigentes apenas restringem-se a uma determinação superficial, caracterizando-os como ambientes glaciogênicos (Formação Vúzi), fluvial e lacustre (Formação Moatize) e fluvial (Formações Matinde e Cádzi) (Cairncross, 2001; GTK Consortium, 2006). O último estágio deposicional desta bacia é marcado por um evento magmático atribuído às primeiras fases da separação entre as placas da África e Antártica (Castaing, 1991; Salman e Abdul, 1995). Com este viés, o objetivo deste trabalho residiu em aplicar conceitos clássicos de estratigrafia, interpretação de fácies sedimentares e ambientes deposicionais (Miall, 1996; 2016), a partir do qual é possível correlacionar padrões de sedimentação e estruturas sedimentares a processos deposicionais e, por conseguinte a ambientes deposicionais. Aliado ao estudo stratigráfico foi realizada uma análise estrutural da bacia para identificar possíveis correlações

com episódios tectônicos distais da margem do Gondwana, posicionando-os nos ciclos evolutivos da bacia.

Para caracterizar o comportamento do embasamento adjacente a bacia, propusemos a aplicação de um estudo de proveniência através do método U-Pb em zircões detríticos, tendo em vistas a ausência de trabalhos de proveniência nas bacias sedimentares da região. Este método é uma técnica amplamente utilizada para a determinação de idades de formação e/ou metamorfismo em minerais ricos em urânio (principalmente o zircão) permitindo a correlação destas idades com a base de dados regionais de datações disponíveis para as rochas adjacentes à bacia (Cawood, 2012; Guadagnin *et al.*, 2012; Bicca *et al.*, 2013; Oliveira *et al.*, 2014).

Uma das questões importantes referente aos estudos tectônicos associados à evolução tardia de orógenos é a determinação das taxa dos processos térmicos e erosivos que definem a sua evolução. Estes taxas podem ser determinadas através da modelagem de dados termocronológicos, para caracterizar a história térmica destas rochas (Hodges, 2003). No tocante a região de estudo, o único trabalho trazendo informações termocronológicas foi desenvolvido nas sequências sedimentares do Supergrupo Karoo (Fernandes *et al.*, 2015), onde foi possível identificar que as idades térmicas por traços de fissão de apatita encontram-se entre 146 e 84 Ma, e, são portanto mais jovens do que a idade estratigráfica das amostras, além do que, o modelo térmico indica um episódio de resfriamento rápido entre 240 e 230 Ma implicando em 2500-3000 m de denudação. A partir deste modelo foi possível identificar ainda um segundo período, também de resfriamento rápido, a partir de 6 Ma implicando em 1000 - 1500m de denudação. Os autores correlacionaram o primeiro episódio ao principal evento de deformação compressiva no *Cape Fold Belt* na África do Sul, que transferiu o estresse para o norte em sistemas de falhas transtensionais pré-existentes nas bacias do Karoo, causando inversão tectônica e elevação, enquanto que o segundo período de resfriamento rápido e denudação foi relacionado com a propagação do Sistema Rifte do Leste Africano em Moçambique.

No intuito de estudar estes processos tectônicos tardios, que afetaram as rochas da área de estudo adjacentes às bacias Karoo, utilizamos o método de traços de fissão em apatitas (60 – 120°C) para reconstruir a história de exumação e soerguimento destas rochas desde o último evento registrado e correspondente aos 5 km superiores da crosta continental (Stockli, 2005; Reiners e Brandon, 2006; Lisker *et al.*, 2009).

1.4. Síntese Integradora

O desenvolvimento do trabalho envolvendo a análise estratigráfica e tectônica do Supergrupo Karoo na região noroeste de Moçambique integrado com dados da literatura (Castaing, 1991; Cairncross, 2001; Catuneanu *et al.*, 2005) revelou importantes aspectos concernentes aos processos tectônicos tardios do cinturões orogênicos a noroeste de Moçambique. A atividade tectônica reconhecida demonstrou um importante controle na sedimentação e transporte das Formações Moatize e Matinde do Supergrupo Karoo depositadas na bacia rifte Moatize-Minjova. Esta bacia situa-se sobre um importante sitio estrutural da região e demonstrou a forte influência de remobilização de estruturas noroeste regionais na sua configuração, sedimentação e magmatismo. Os estágios de subsidência/acomodação da bacia foram impulsionados por esforços tectônicos na margem sul-sudoeste do Gondwana gerados pela Orogenia Gondwanides. Anteriormente, a subsidência das bacias rifte do leste da África (Carbonífero Superior-Jurássico Superior) era atribuída aos processos de rifteamento do Supercontinente Gondwana envolvendo esforços distensivos. Enquanto que neste trabalho, foi possível determinar que as influências dos esforços compressivos de sul-sudoeste também se fizeram presentes no noroeste de Moçambique movimentando estruturas regionais noroeste em regime transtrativo, deformando as camadas de carvão (Permiano) durante a sua evolução.

As estruturas registradas em escala de afloramento caracterizaram apenas a influência de esforços distensivos/transtrativos pós-deposicionais atribuídos aos processos de separação Jurássico-Cretácica entre as placas da África e Antártica. Em termos de sedimentação foi possível reconstruir os paleoambientes

deposicionais para duas formações depositadas entre o Permiano e o Triássico Inferior. A Formação Moatize (Permiano Inferior ao Superior) abrange jazidas significativas de carvão na região e foi analisada detalhadamente a partir de afloramentos e de um perfil de sondagem (~500 m) permitindo a identificação de litofácies carbonosas, finas (folhelhos), arenosas com laminações tipo *ripples*, *hammoky* e *wavy*, como também estratificações cruzadas planares e acanaladas. A deposição desta sequência demonstra características deposicionais cíclicas marcadas por sucessões de alta e baixa energia. Estas características levaram a definição de cinco associações de litofácies atribuídas à planície de inundação, depósitos de *crevasse splay* e canal de *crevasse*, e canal fluvial caracterizando um sistema fluvial mandrante, estando as camadas de carvão associados a lagos e pântanos em meandros abandonados.

A análise estratigráfica de afloramentos e de uma seção de ~300m de profundidade permitiu definir que as sequências da Formação Moatize foram progradadas por litofácies arenosas grossas a conglomeráticas com estratificações cruzadas planares e acanaladas pertencentes à Formação Matinde. As relações internas e estruturais desta litofácies permitiram a definição de macroformas de leito de migração frontal e lateral associadas a um sistema fluvial entrelaçado. As medidas de paleocorrente sugerem um paleofluxo para norte-noroeste.

Neste modelo as camadas de carvão estão associadas com os depósitos de lagos e pântanos de planície de inundação e meandros abandonados da Formação Moatize. Nestes termos, as camadas de carvão devem apresentar distribuições laterais e verticais variadas e descontínuas, sendo necessário um mapeamento mais detalhado de toda a região da determinar a sua ocorrência.

A identificação de paleocorrente para o norte-noroeste a partir das análises estratigráficas realizadas neste trabalho e por Key *et al.* (2015) foram interpretadas como representativas de uma provável inversão do Rio Zambezi (que drena atualmente a região) durante a deposição das sequências Permo-Triássico do norte de Moçambique. Este comportamento foi também estudado através de dados de proveniência com U-Pb em zircões detríticos da Formação Matinde. Em

litofácies de arenitos grossos a conglomeráticos, provavelmente relacionados a um rejuvenescimento topográfico na área fonte durante o Permiano por processos tectônicos.

Os espectros de idades U-Pb observados mostraram apenas idades mais antigas em relação à idade de deposição da sequência, que reflete a história do cinturão orogênico subjacente como esperado em ambientes intracratônicos (Cawood *et al.*, 2012). A morfologia do zircão, as texturas internas e as idades fornecem informações sobre a história geotectônica do cinturão subjacente em termos de idades ígneas e metamórficas, permitindo a definição de quatro grupos de idades principais: i) 1.130-1.005 Ma; li) 992-859 Ma; lii) 637-563 Ma; E iv) 549-493 Ma. As primeiras e as últimas são as mais proeminentes proveniências dos sedimentos de Karoo, destacando-se dois importantes eventos de geração, consumo e deformação crustais dos Supercontinentes Rodinia e Gondwana. As medições de paleocorrentes e a imaturidade do arenito amostrado sugerem áreas fontes localizadas em algum lugar no sul da Bacia de Moatize-Minjova, devido à preservação das bordas metamórficas.

A população de idades mais antigas reflete a maior componente crustal no norte de Moçambique, refletindo principalmente idades de cristalização magmática, como evidenciado pelo crescimento oscilatório nos grãos de zircão, característica comum nesta população. O final do Mesoproterozóico foi um momento importante de geração crustal para todos os domínios geotectônicos do norte de Moçambique. Esta população encontra-se na faixa de idades do segmento sudoeste do Complexo Nampula (Cháuque, 2012), ao sul da área de amostragem. Após os eventos de espessamento crustal e cavalgamentos resultantes da Orogenia Pan-Africana (~550-480 Ma), a região sul da Bacia Moatize-Minjova provavelmente formou um alto topográfico juntamente com toda a porção nordeste de Moçambique. Nestes locais se originaram as cabeceiras dos rios e afluentes que banharam a bacia do Proto-Zambeze, como sugerido por Key *et al.* (2015) e por esta tese.

As idades contidas entre ~550 Ma e 480 Ma são atribuídas a eventos magmáticos e metamórficos comuns na região devido ao metamorfismo de alto

grau produzido pela Orogenia Pan-Africana e, portanto, não são bons marcadores para determinar a proveniência sedimentar. Por outro lado, as idades entre ~ 950Ma e 550Ma não ocorrem com ampla distribuição e correspondem a importantes períodos de evolução geotectônica da crosta na região. Estas idades foram relacionadas aos dados de U-Pb de Manjate (2015) para a Suite Guro e rochas associadas posicionadas a leste-sudeste da área amostrada, como também as idades em torno de ~ 850 Ma. As idades em torno de ~ 630 Ma e 560Ma referem-se a eventos distintos de deformação e magmatismo ao longo do norte do cinturão de Moçambique, que são registrados no nordeste de Moçambique em rochas metamórficas e magmáticas (~635 Ma, Macey *et al.*, 2013; 635 Ma e 570-590 Ma, Grantham *et al.*, 2013). Esta população não está fortemente impressa na porção sudoeste do Complexo de Nampula e na Suite Guro /Granada granito-migmatito Mungari/Granito Chacocoma, embora estejam presentes nas idades de zircão individuais apresentadas por Chaúque (2012) e Manjate (2015). Dados de concentrações e taxas de Th/U também são compatíveis com as áreas fonte sugeridas, predominando razões Th/U >0,1. Outras fontes a nordeste da área apresentaram razões Th/U <0,1, atribuídas a uma origem metamórfica (Hartmann e Santos, 2004), além de concentrações muito altas de U (> 1000 ppm), as quais não foram observadas nos zircões da Formação Matinde.

As histórias térmicas determinadas para as rochas do embasamento cristalino do noroeste de Moçambique a partir das análises de termocronologia por traços de fissão em apatitas (TFA) indicam que processos intensos de exumação afetaram amplamente a região durante a Era Mesozóica. As idades centrais TFA e as máximas paleotemperaturas modeladas puderam ser atribuídas à períodos de importantes atividade tectônica regional e local e à dinâmica mantélica associados com a abertura do Oceano Índico e do Sistema Rife do Leste Africano. As idades mais antigas são compatíveis com os últimos estádios da atividade tectônica da *Cape Fold Belt*, podendo representar episódios de resfriamento causados por erosão e denudação associados à reativações estruturais distais. Esta proposta é pertinente e bem qualificada já através da

análise estratigráfica da Bacia Karoo , onde foram observadas evidências de uma sedimentação possante nas bacias Karoo do Vale do Zambezi ainda no Permiano. Estas idades estão de acordo com o trabalho de Fernandes *et al.* (2015) em amostras sedimentares do Supergrupo Karoo na Bacia Moatize-Minjova e com os dados de Van Der Beek *et al.* (1998) para o norte do Malawi, demonstrando que se trata de eventos de denudação regionais. As demais idades são todas mais jovens que o magmatismo do Supergrupo Karoo, responsável por alterar o comportamento térmico crustal durante a sua atividade. No Jurássico Médio (170-166 Ma) ocorre o início da abertura da bacia da Somália através da Zona de Falha Davie (Mahanjane, 2014), compreendendo estágios iniciais de separação do Gondwana. Durante estes processos as maiores espessuras denudadas são da ordem de 300 m, em um período entre o Triássico superior ao Jurássico médio, implicando em taxas de resfriamento inferiores a 0.3 °C/Ma.

Um padrão semelhante é observado entre o Jurássico Médio e Cretáceo Inferior, com espessuras denudadas da ordem de 300 m, que podem estar associados à reativações dos padrões estruturais NW-SE e N-S que predominam na região. As paleotemperaturas máximas em torno de 150 Ma são frequentes nos modelos térmicos, também documentadas na Malawi e associados a uma nova fase de rifte na margem leste da África (Van der Beek *et al.*, 1998). Este momento está documentado na região sul do Malawi com o desenvolvimento de magmatismo alcalino (~130-100 Ma) associado com tectônica distensiva (Eby *et al.*, 1995). Dados K-Ar de rochas vulcânicas, associações carbonatíticas e alcalinas no norte de Moçambique (GTK Consortium, 2006) forneceram idades entre ~106-166 Ma, configurando um importante estágio de fluxo térmico na placa continental Africana. Este período compreende os primeiros estágios de *drift* da Antártida para o sul em relação à África (Mahanjane, 2012; Castelino *et al.*, 2015) e a deriva de Madagáscar para o sul da margem da Tanzânia pela zona de cisalhamento Davie (140 Ma a 90 Ma, Emmel *et al.*, 2011; Mahanjane, 2014). Esses argumentos estão de acordo com a intensificação da denudação observada em toda a área de estudo, desde o Cretáceo Superior até o Paleoceno Médio, com espessuras erodidas variando entre 254 e 1659 m, devido ao

desenvolvimento da margem de Moçambique. Processos semelhantes durante o Cretáceo Inferior e Superior são também descritos por Belton e Raab (2010) para a área cratônica do Kalahari e por Emmel *et al.* (2011) para a porção nordeste de Moçambique, corroborando o modelo elevação regional da margem leste da placa africana.

Taxas de denudação de 31-47 m/Ma e espessuras de 1,5-2 km de superfície denudada trouxeram as amostras até as condições térmicas atuais a partir de ~40 Ma, atingindo desde o Triássico espessuras da ordem de 2,5-3,5 km. Condições semelhantes foram detectadas nas sequências de Karoo na bacia Moatize-Minjova implicando em 1-1,5 km de denudação a partir de 6 Ma (Fernandes *et al.*, 2015). Estas taxas elevadas foram atribuídas a mudanças na topografia do norte de Moçambique devido à movimentação para norte da placa Africana, resultando na movimentação mantélica produzida pela pluma do Sistema Rifte do Leste Africano atuante na região nordeste da África (Moucha e Forte, 2011). As elevadas taxas de sedimentação na bacia *offshore* de Moçambique (Castelino *et al.*, 2015) corroboram as taxas de denudação continentais, entretanto, demandam uma carga maior provavelmente suprida por área ainda mais interiores da placa Africana, implicando em alterações topográficas e nos padrões fluviais da bacia do Rio Zambezi.

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2. ARTIGO NO PRELO NA REVISTA *JOURNAL OF AFRICAN EARTH SCIENCES*

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1 **PERMIAN-EARLY TRIASSIC TECTONICS AND STRATIGRAPHY OF THE**
2 **KAROO SUPERGROUP IN NORTHWESTERN MOZAMBIQUE**

3

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26

27 **Highlights**

28

- 29 • Permian Gondwanic tectonics led to intra-plate subsidence and sedimentation;
- 30 • Early Permian post-glaciation isostatic rebound led to high subsidence rates;
- 31 • NW-SE faults controlled Moatize-Minjova graben subsidence in Permian times;
- 32 • Fluvial plane environment dominated during Permian in the Moatize-Minjova
33 graben;
- 34 • Paleozambezi river provided sediment for central and western southern Africa
35 basins

36

37 **Abstract**

38 The Gondwana continent was the base of great basin inception, sedimentation and
39 magmatism throughout the Cambrian to Middle Jurassic periods. The Northwestern
40 Mozambique igneous and metamorphic basement assemblages host the NW-trending
41 Moatize Minjova Basin, which has great economic potential for coal and gas mining. This
42 rift basin was activated by an S-SW stress field during the Early Permian period, as
43 constrained by regional and field scale structural data. Tectonically induced subsidence in
44 the basin, from the reactivation of NW-SE and NNE-SSW regional structures is well
45 recorded by faults, folds and synsedimentary fractures within the Early Late Permian
46 Moatize Formation. NW-SE, N-S and NE-SW field structures consist of post-Karoo

47 reactivation patterns related to a NNE-SSW extension produced by the Pangea breakup and
48 early inception stages of the Great East African Rift System. The Early Late Permian
49 sequences of the Moatize-Minjova Basin are composed of fluvial meandering, coal-bearing
50 beds of the Moatize Formation, which comprises mostly floodplain, crevasse splay and
51 fluvial channel lithofacies associations, deposited in a cyclic pattern. This sequence was
52 overlapped by a multiple-story, braided fluvial plain sequence of the Matinde Formation
53 (Late Permian – Early Triassic). Lithofacies associations in the Matinde Formation and its
54 internal relationships suggest deposition of poorly channelized braided alluvial plain in
55 which downstream and probably lateral accretion macroforms alternate with gravity flow
56 deposits. NW paleoflow measurements suggest that Permian fluvial headwaters were
57 located somewhere southeast of the study area, possibly between the African and Antarctic
58 Precambrian highlands.

59

60 **Keywords:** Mozambique, Karoo Supergroup, Moatize-Minjova Basin, Tectonic and
61 Sedimentation, Early Late Permian

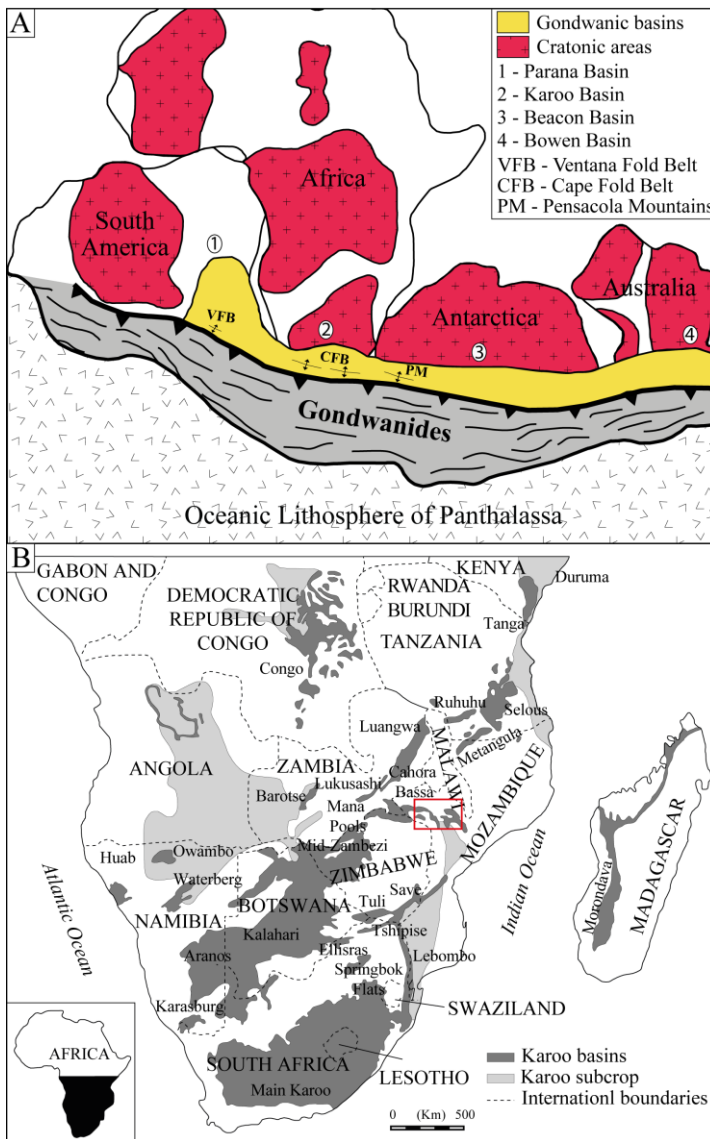
62

63 **1. Introduction**

64 The Gondwana volcano-sedimentary successions of the Karoo Supergroup are
65 widely distributed throughout South and Central Africa, hosted in retroarc-foreland
66 (continental margin), sag and rift (intracontinental) type basins and its record preserves one
67 of the largest testimonies of Gondwana evolution (Fig. 1A and Fig. 1B). This Supergroup
68 was named after the Main Karoo Basin, located in South Africa, which is one of the most
69 economically important basins, showing the most complete stratigraphic record (Smith et
70 al., 1993), ranging in age from Late Carboniferous to Middle Jurassic.

71 The Karoo basins' evolution is related to the tectonic events of the southern
72 Gondwana margin (Gondwanides Orogeny), analogous to the Paraná and other smaller
73 basins in the South America, Beacon (Antarctica) and Bowen (Australia) basins (Fig. 1A)
74 (Smith et al., 1993; Trouw & de Wit, 1999; Catuneanu et al., 2005; Holz et al., 2006;
75 Milani & de Wit, 2008; Alessandretti et al., 2013; Linol et al., 2015; Alessandretti et al.,
76 2015). The Karoo and Paraná basin studies were the most detailed, showing great economic
77 potential for natural gas, oil and coal. Coal bearing layers are the most common economic
78 resource exploited in African and Brazilian basins, all Permian in age. These two basins
79 share similarities within its stratigraphy framework and hierarchy among depositional
80 cycles (Smith, 1993; Milani & de Wit, 2008; Linol et al., 2015).

81 The study of the stratigraphic record in these basins is particularly important to
82 understand the Phanerozoic evolution of Gondwana. In this context, our study brings
83 previous and new stratigraphic data from the successions of Karoo Supergroup from the
84 Tete region in northwestern Mozambique, combined with a regional overview with
85 stratigraphically and chronologically correlated basins in Africa, providing an insight into
86 the Gondwanic/Pangea tectonics and deposition during Early Permian - Early Triassic
87 boundaries.



88

89 Figure 1: A) Regional tectonic setting of the southern margin of Gondwana during the
 90 Phanerozoic, illustrating the convergence and collisional tectonics developed
 91 (Gondwanides Orogeny) due to the interaction between the paleocontinent plate and the
 92 oceanic lithosphere of Panthalassa (after Milani & de Wit, 2008; and Holz et al. 2006). B)
 93 Distribution of Karoo basins in south-central Africa (modified from Catuneanu et al.,
 94 2005). The red polygon indicates the study area.

95

96 We aimed to point out the Gondwanides Orogeny influence during the Karoo basin
 97 sedimentary infilling in northwestern Mozambique, despite its great distance from the

98 orogeny center and corroborating with the model of crustal tectonic transference leading to
99 intraplate subsidence and basin formation (Milani, 1997; Zerfass et al., 2003; Zerfass et al.,
100 2004; Zerfass et al., 2005; Linol et al., 2015).

101 For this purpose, we provide a structural characterization of the basement and
102 adjacent Karoo sedimentary rocks, which we have integrated with those previously
103 described in the literature, to improve the understanding of the graben architectural control
104 during basin evolution. We also describe the Moatize and Matinde fluvial formations based
105 on a borelog, and from outcrops identifying distinct lithofacies and lithofacies associations.

106

107 **2. Geologic and Tectonic Settings**

108 Northwestern Mozambique comprises a complex assemblage of igneous and
109 metamorphic rocks, predominantly Mesoproterozoic (north-northeastward) and
110 Neoproterozoic (southwestward) in age (Fig. 2B and 2C), and partially covered and
111 intruded by Phanerozoic plutonic-volcanic-sedimentary sequences comprising the Karoo
112 Supergroup and Post-Karoo units (GTK Consortium, 2006). These Precambrian
113 assemblages partially preserve the records of two distinct orogenic events: 1) Late
114 Mesoproterozoic (1.35 – 1.0 Ga); and 2) Neoproterozoic-Early Paleozoic Pan-African
115 Orogeny (Hanson, 2003). The first one corresponds to the Rodinia Supercontinent
116 geotectonic heritage, defined by intrusive granitic suites, associated with the Tete Gabro-
117 Anorthosite stratiform Suite, whose emplacement was controlled by deep NW-SE trending
118 ductile shear zones. The second one occurred in two stages. The first one comprises the N–
119 S oriented East Africa Orogeny (EAO; Stern, 1994), referring to events of about 650 – 620
120 Ma in age (Fritz et al., 2013), and the younger one represents an E–W oriented orogeny that
121 produces the Damara-Zambezi-Lurio Belts (Kuunga Orogeny; Meert, 2003), comprising

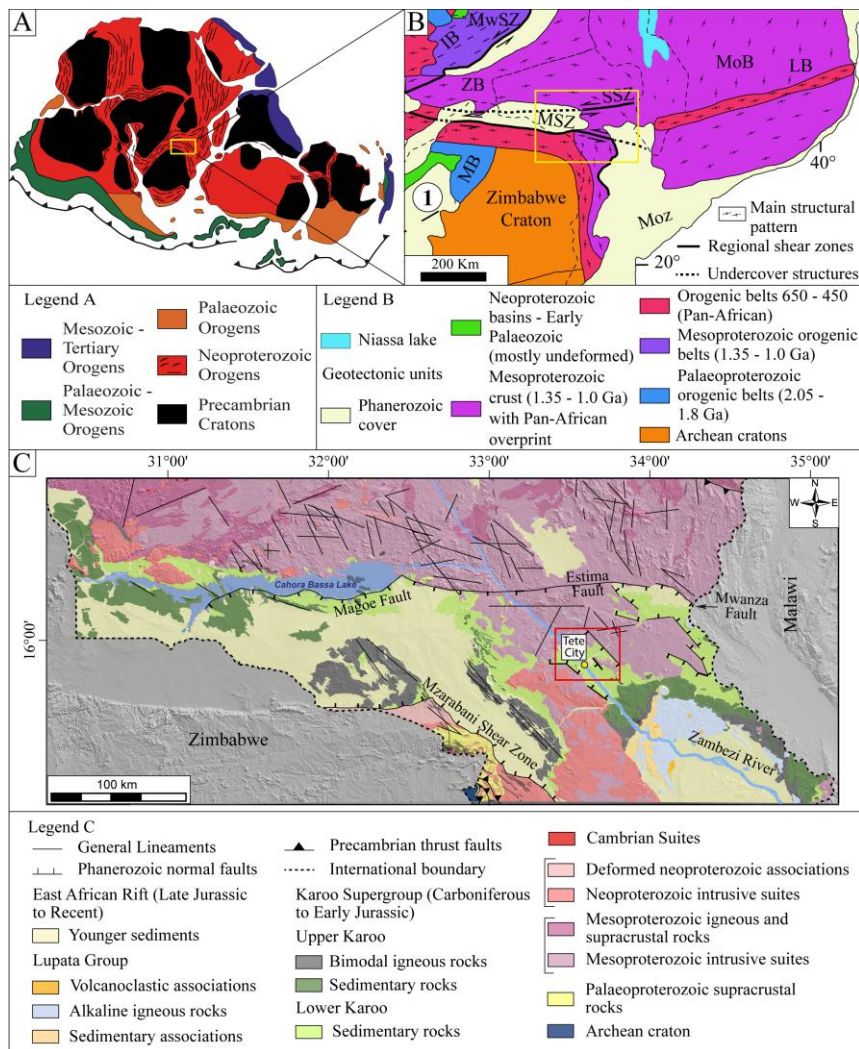
122 600–500 Ma events (Fritz et al., 2013; Fig. 2A and 2B). The Pan-African orogenesis
123 partially imprints its tectonic patterns on the fabric of the older basement rocks.

124 North-northeast basement rocks comprise a large Mesoproterozoic landmass of
125 supracrustal and intrusive assemblages, showing inherited magmatic rheology, or partially
126 deformed by Pan-African Orogeny events. Otherwise, southwest units are grouped, such as
127 the Zambezi Belt (ZB) which represents the easternmost section of a transcontinental Pan-
128 African mobile belt system between the Congo and Kalahari cratons in southern Africa
129 (Shackleton, 1996). This system also comprises the Lufilian Arc and Damara Belt (Fig. 2).
130 In northeast Zimbabwe the ZB has an E-W trend, converging to a NW-SE trend in
131 northwest Mozambique. These assemblages were deformed by Pan-African south-vergent
132 thrusting, associated in places with transcurrent or transpressional shearing, followed by
133 north-vergent back-thrusting (e.g. Barton et al., 1991 and 1993; Hanson et al. 1994;
134 Hargrove et al., 2003; Hanson, 2003).

135 The Pan-African Orogeny left important structural zones (NW-SE and E-W
136 trending) in northwest Mozambique, which were fundamental for Phanerozoic sedimentary
137 basins development. One of the greatest structures is the Sanangoe Shear Zone (SSZ),
138 which is an E-W trending transpressional ductile structure, crossing the central part of study
139 area, over a distance of about 350 km in Mozambique (Fig. 2B). Westwards, this shear
140 zone is largely concealed below Karoo and the younger rocks of the mid-Zambezi rift.

141 According to GTK Consortium (2006), the SSZ represents a Pan-African
142 connection between the West and South Gondwana (Macey et al., 2013), generally similar
143 in structural aspects and timing to the Mwembeshi Shear Zone (MSZ) (GTK Consortium,
144 2006; Fig. 2B). Deformed granitoids surrounding this large structure confirm its ductile
145 behavior during the Pan-African tectonics. Its likely relationship with the Cahora Bassa

146 Basin (E-W graben in the Cahora Bassa Lake area; Fig. 2) depocenter also highlights its
 147 importance during Phanerozoic tectonic evolution.



148

149 Figure 2: A) Reconstruction map of Gondwana during Phanerozoic times (after Gray et al.,
 150 2007; Cordani et al., 2013; and Rapela et al., 2015). B) Simplified Precambrian tectonic
 151 framework of the study area (after Hanson, 2003). 1 - Archean western limit (Zimbabwe);
 152 IB - Irumide Belt; LB - Lurio Belt; MB - Magondi Belt; MoB - Mozambique Belt; Moz –
 153 Mozambique Country; MSZ - Mzarabani Shear Zone; MwSZ - Mwembeshi Shear Zone;
 154 SSZ - Sanangoe Shear Zone; ZB - Zambezi Belt. C) Simplified geological map of
 155 northwestern Mozambique (after GTK Consortium map sheets: Songo (1532),
 156 Cazula/Zóbuè (1533-1534), Mecumbura/Chioco (1631-1632), Tete (1633) and Tambara
 157 (1634)).

158 **2.1. Basin settings and stratigraphy**

159 As a general approach, the Karoo Supergroup (KS) comprises all contemporaneous
160 Late Carboniferous to Middle Jurassic volcano-sedimentary deposits in Central-Southern
161 Africa (Fig. 1B). Two main tectonic fronts may have influenced subsidence processes of
162 the Karoo basins: the southern convergent orogenic margin of Gondwana and the northern
163 Tethyan divergent margin. In the former, extensional/transensional tectonic movements
164 predominated and propagated southwards into the Gondwana continent (Bumby &
165 Guiraud, 2005). In the southern margin of Gondwana, subduction, accretion and mountain
166 building, regionally called Gondwanides Orogeny (Du Toit, 1927), or locally the Cape
167 Orogeny (margin of Southern Africa plate), also produced important structural
168 rearrangements across Precambrian African and South American plates (Milani & Ramos,
169 1998; Zerfass et al., 2003; Zerfass et al., 2004; Zerfass et al., 2005; Linol et al., 2015).

170 In this study, we focused on the KS sequences from the northwestern Mozambique
171 area, which were preferentially deposited in intracratonic half grabens, grouped as the
172 Zambezi Valley basins. The Zambezi River is one of the great modern African rivers with
173 an ancient history, and may have contributed for Early Permian-Early Triassic Karoo basin
174 sedimentation, with a northwestern to western paleoflow (Key et al., 2015). The Zambezi
175 Valley is an E-W trending graben (Cahora Bassa Basin, Fig. 1B and 2C), which inflects SE,
176 following the Zimbabwe Cratonic northeastern margin, assuming a NW-SE trend (Moatize-
177 Minjova Basin) in the Tete city region (Fig. 2B and 2C). The valley is bounded by
178 Precambrian structures and the basin evolution follows distinct reactivation periods that
179 occurred in Phanerozoic times (Castaing, 1991; GTK Consortium, 2006; Fernandes et al.,
180 2015), under a transtensional stress regime associated with the NW-SE sinistral Zambezi
181 pre-transform fault system (Castaing, 1991). In northwestern Mozambique, the Magoé–

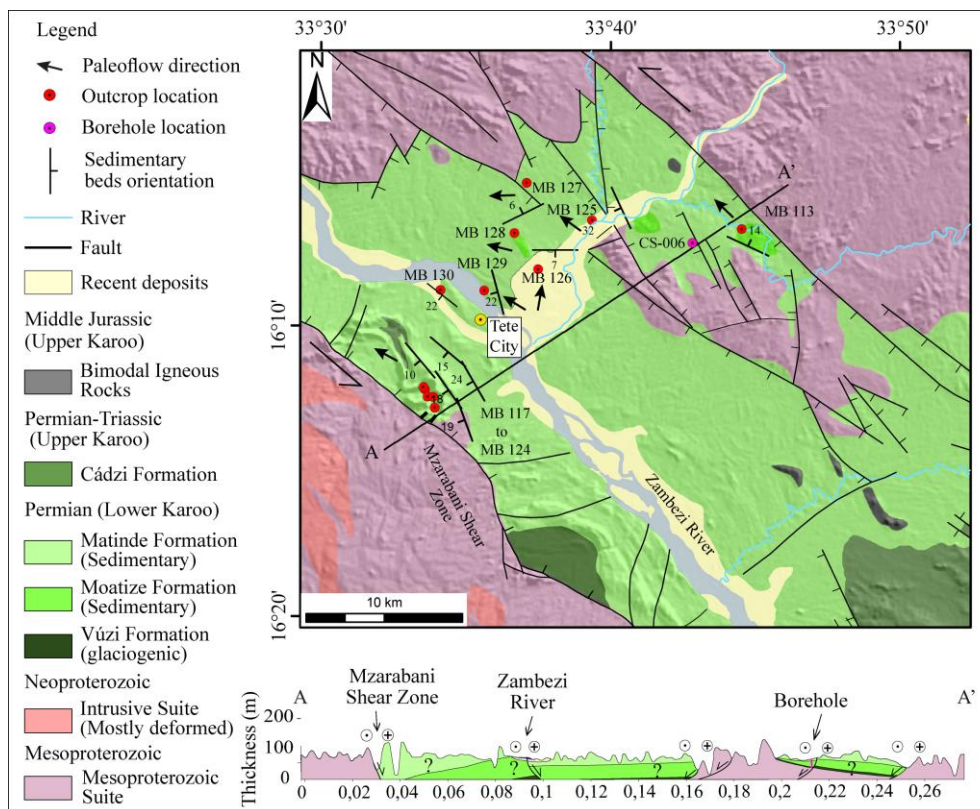
182 Estima–Mwanza fault zone (Fig. 2C) defines a major Pre-Karoo crustal weakness zone that
183 controlled basin inception since the Permian (Lakshminarayana, 2015). This large scale
184 crustal discontinuity resembles the Sanangoe ductile shear zone trend.

185 Our study was conducted in the Moatize-Minjova Basin, which is a NW-oriented
186 graben (Fig. 3). Northeastern and southwestern basin boundaries are against deformed
187 Mesoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic crystalline basement rocks. The former shows
188 marginal high strain shear zones, NW-oriented, while the latter consists of highly folded
189 metamorphic rocks, where the axial plane trends range between NW to N-S and E-W
190 (Hargrove et al., 2003).

191 In general, the Karoo Supergroup sedimentation comprises a progressive shift from
192 glacial to cool, moist conditions to warm, semi-arid and finally hot and arid conditions
193 (Johnson et al., 1996). Classically, the KS is divided into five major groups, according to
194 the stratigraphic record registered in the Main Karoo Basin of South Africa, from the base
195 to the top as: Dwyka, Ecca, Beaufort, Stormberg (sedimentary and magmatic), and
196 Drakensberg (magmatic). Correlatable sequences of these groups, which more or less can
197 be observed in all Karoo Basins in Africa, follow a sequence of glacial, deltaic, fluvial,
198 lacustrine and aeolian environments, mostly due to climatic changes (aridification) during
199 the Gondwana northward drift (Catuneanu et al., 2005).

200 The base of KS sequence in the Moatize-Minjova Basin is attributed to the Vúzi
201 Formation glaciogenic deposits (GTK Consortium, 2006; Fernandes et al., 2015), which
202 classically correlate with the Dwyka Group, which has accumulated through Late
203 Carboniferous–Early Permian (Wopfner, 2002; Catuneanu, 2004; Catuneanu et al., 2005).
204 These correspond mostly to interbedded tillites, diamictites, rhythmites and sandstones,
205 resting unconformably over the Precambrian crystalline basement (GTK Consortium, 2006;

206 Vasconcelos et al., 2014; Fernandes et al., 2015; Lakshminarayana, 2015). Vúzi deposits
 207 show an important palynological assemblage, indicating early to middle Sakmarian age
 208 (Wopfner & Kreuser, 1986; Weiss & Wopfner, 1997). Notwithstanding, recent
 209 palynological studies developed by Pereira et al. (2014) and Lopes et al. (2014) dating
 210 diamictite beds from the top of the Vúzi Formation, assigned it a Kungurian-Roadian age
 211 (Lower-Middle Permian), younger than the previous regional proposed age. A few
 212 available U-Pb radiometric ages published for the Dwyka Group of Namibia and South
 213 Africa, obtained from tuff beds, indicate ages of 302 ± 3.0 Ma and 299 ± 3.2 Ma for the
 214 Namibian rocks, and 288 ± 3.0 Ma and 289 ± 3.8 Ma for the latter (Bangert et al., 1999).



215
 216 Figure 3: Detailed geological and structural map of the Moatize-Minjova Basin (compiled
 217 and modified from GTK Consortium, 2006), showing the location of the borehole and all
 218 the outcrops described in this work.
 219

220 The top sequence of the Vúzi Formation comprises interbedded diamictites and thin
221 coal beds, marking a gradational transition to the conformably overlain Moatize Formation.
222 The latter is made of interbedded carbonaceous mudstones, rhythmites, sandstones and
223 cyclic coal deposits (Cairncross, 2001; Lakshminarayana, 2015). The Moatize Formation in
224 the Moatize-Minjova Basin has six main coal seams, known locally from bottom to top as
225 Sousa Pinto, Chipanga, Bananeiras, Intermédia, Grande Falésia and André (Vasconcelos et
226 al., 2014). Lithofacies assemblages of the Moatize Formation were interpreted by
227 Lakshminarayana (2015) as a delta plain-mire depositional environment, representing a
228 periglacial condition. The absolute age of these coal-bearing formations is not well
229 constrained and most are derived from palynological records, which allow to place the
230 Moatize Formation between the end of Early to Middle Ecca Group (Early-Late Permian;
231 Catuneanu et al., 2005). Plant macrofossils and palynomorphs suggest a Lower to Middle
232 Permian age for the top part of the Moatize Formation (Daber, 1984), which may be
233 correlated with the Middle-Upper Ecca Group. However, Pereira et al. (2014) found a
234 Kungurian/Roadian age (Lower – Middle Permian) for the basal sequences of the Moatize
235 Formation, positioning its depositional cycle throughout the Early-Late Permian.

236 Overlaying the Moatize Formation there are mostly cross-bedded coarse grained
237 alluvial deposits from the Matinde and Cádzi Formations (GTK Consortium, 2006). The
238 Matinde Formation was assumed to be of an Early to Middle Permian age, comparable to
239 the Middle/Upper Ecca Group (GTK Consortium, 2006). However, a recent palynological
240 revision of the Matinde Formation has indicated that was deposited in the latest Permian,
241 close to the Permian-Triassic boundary (Pereira et al., 2016). The latter, on the other hand,
242 is classically correlated to the Beaufort Group, positioned between the Late Permian to
243 Early Triassic age. Bimodal magmatism erupted between 195-180 Ma ended the basinal

244 cycle and is attributed to an early aborted stage of the Gondwana breakup (GTK
245 Consortium, 2006), and correlated to the Stormberg Group from the Main Karoo Basin.

246

247 **3. Structural and stratigraphic analysis methods**

248 In this study, we adopt a methodology in which we integrate stratigraphic and
249 tectonic data acquired in the field and from remote sensing images, with those available in
250 the literature. During fieldwork we obtained stratigraphic and structural data from outcrops
251 and one coal exploration borehole (CS_006A), in which we gathered the main sedimentary
252 attributes (e.g., texture, lithology), and structures related to basin inception and infilling
253 control. The sedimentary facies framework and facies architecture of the studied interval
254 are based on this data.

255 The regional distributions of the sedimentary lithofacies and architecture of the
256 Moatize and Matinde Formations were examined in one deep borehole of about 500 m in
257 depth and in natural exposures and road cuts (only Matinde and the top of Moatize
258 Formations) throughout the area of Moatize-Minjova Basin (Fig. 3).

259 The facies analysis was based in the scheme of Miall (1992), to interpret facies
260 associations and deduct its depositional systems. The lithofacies definition and
261 classification used is based in Miall's (1978; 1996) facies code, in which the first letter
262 represents the grain size and the second letter represents the sedimentary structure (Tab. 1).
263 In order to clarify the three-dimensional relationships of the sedimentary units, these
264 elements were mapped and logged, and documented as field sketches, photos and maps.
265 Paleocurrent measurements were collected from stratified beds (planar and through cross-
266 beds), and also from imbricated clasts, observed in conglomeratic facies in order to
267 determine sediment dispersal patterns within the Moatize and Matinde formations.

268 Structural and tectonic data were acquired from a compilation of geological maps of
 269 the Mozambican Geological Survey (1:250,000 scale). We also used a SRTM (Shuttle
 270 Radar Topography Mission) image to generated a shaded relief model for tracing regional
 271 lineaments (N = 1,568; Fig. 4), from which we generated rose diagrams that allow us to
 272 identify major structural lineament patterns within the basin and in the Precambrian
 273 basement in the study area. We use length and frequency rose diagrams to identify major
 274 lineaments populations. Our aim was to discriminate evidences of a possible chronology of
 275 structural reactivations within the complex geological framework in the area, using
 276 evidence of episodes of deformation, sedimentation and related magmatic activity.
 277 Subsequently, we undertook geological mapping in selected areas throughout the basin area
 278 and overlaying basement rocks, in order to complete our tectonic data acquisition by
 279 measuring fault plans orientation and kinematic indicators, which we integrated to produce
 280 a preliminary strain model for the study area. Fractures, in this work, are those structures
 281 without any evidence of movement (slickenlines, fault mirror, etc.), and for fault
 282 classification, we took into account the relationships between fault plane dipping and
 283 slickenlines dipping within this plane (Angelier, 1994).

284

285 Table 1: Lithofacies description for Moatize and Matinde Formations (based on Miall, 1992
 286 and 1996).

Facies Code	Facies Description and Structures	Depositional process
Moatize Formation		
Gm	Conglomerate and conglomeratic coarse-sandstone, matrix (silt and mud) supported. Presents muddy intraclasts and extrabacinal clasts 0.3 a 4 cm (0.5 cm average).	Cohesive (plastic) debris flow.

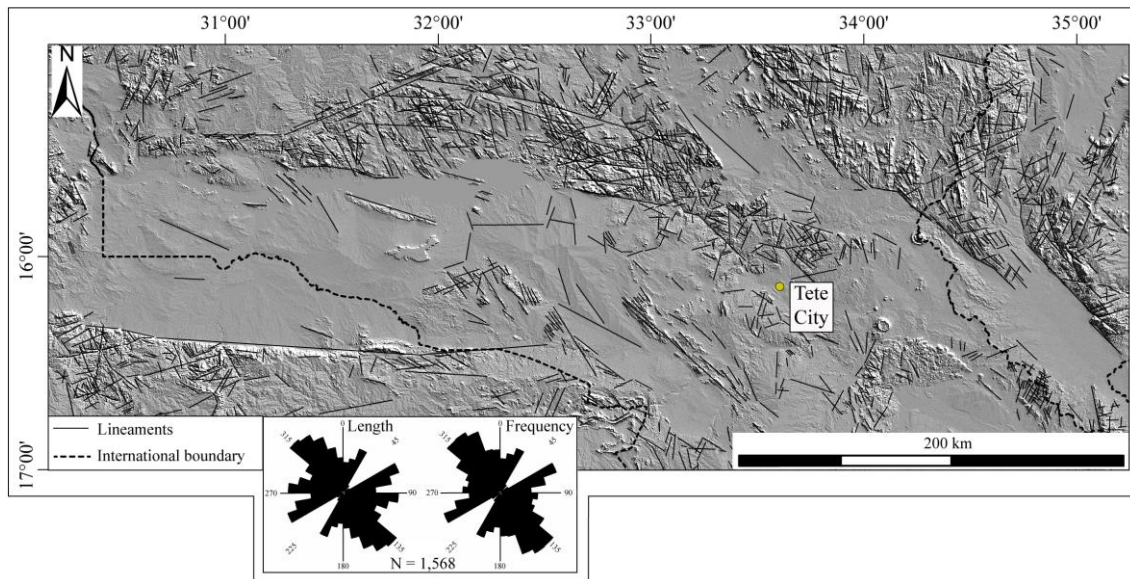
St	Micaceous (muscovite) medium to coarse-sandstone, sometimes conglomeratic, poorly to moderately selected, with sets of 5 to 50 cm thick of trough cross-stratification. Foresets are commonly marked by intraclasts.	Migration of 3D dunes, under lower flow regime.
Sl	Micaceous (muscovite) medium to coarse-sandstone, sometimes conglomeratic, poorly to moderately selected, with low angle cross-stratification.	Bedforms migration under transitional conditions between lower and upper regime.
Sr	Micaceous (muscovite) very fine to fine-sandstone, moderately to well selected, with critical to subcritical ripple cross-lamination of 0.5 to 2 cm thick.	Migration of ripple cross-lamination under lower regime conditions, with variation on traction/suspension rate.
Sm	Sand, medium grained. Homogeneous. Mostly massive. Sometimes shows a very tenuous horizontal lamination. Lenticular (sigmoid) shape and irregular contact with adjacent facies are common (convex up and concave up).	Sediment-gravity flow deposits
Sh	Sand, very fine to fine. Commonly interbedded with Sr. Horizontal lamination and parting lineation.	Planar bed flow (upper flow regime).
Fl	Pelite with very fine to fine-sandstone wavy/linsen bedding of 0.3 to 5 cm thick, with ripple cross-lamination. Sometimes foresets are marked by mud layers. At the top of the sequence it presents 1 to 2 m thick and fine horizontal lamination.	Interchange of ripple cross-lamination and mud decantation. Represent overbank or abandoned channels deposits.
Fm	Massive carbonaceous pelite, with <0.5 cm thick of very fine to fine-sandstone linsen bedding and ripple cross-lamination.	Decantation of suspended mud sediments.
C	Coal	Aggradational accumulation of organic matter on peat.
Matinde Formation		
Gm	Massive or crudely bedded gravel. The matrix is composed by fine to coarse sand. Clasts are irregular and angular of most red colored granitic composition with casts of probably intrabasinal pelitic clasts. Transition to St/Sp is probably gradual. Weak or non-grading.	Plastic debris flow (high strength, viscous).
St	Arcosic sand, medium to very coarse and sometimes pebbly. Trough cross-beds are found interbedded with Sp. Its overlap on Fl show load cast marks.	Sinuuous-crested and linguoid dunes. Migration of subaqueous ripples and dunes under low to high flow energy.
Sp	Arcosic sand, medium to coarse and sometimes pebble. Planar cross-beds of mostly 10 cm to <1 m.	Linguoid and transverse bars, sand waves (lower flow regime).
Sl	Arcosic sand, fine to medium grained with low angle planar cross-stratification.	Humpback or washed-out dunes.

287

288 **4. Results**289 **4.1. Regional tectonic and structural analysis (Lineaments)**

290 Structural analysis created from the 1,568 lineaments identified in the shaded relief
 291 map (Fig. 4) allow visualizing a complex web of cross-cutting structures, mostly attributed
 292 to Precambrian basement rocks, with some extending to Karoo rocks and a few to Post-
 293 Karoo volcano-sedimentary rocks. Dissected valleys, crests and fluvial incision patterns are
 294 the major relief features observed.

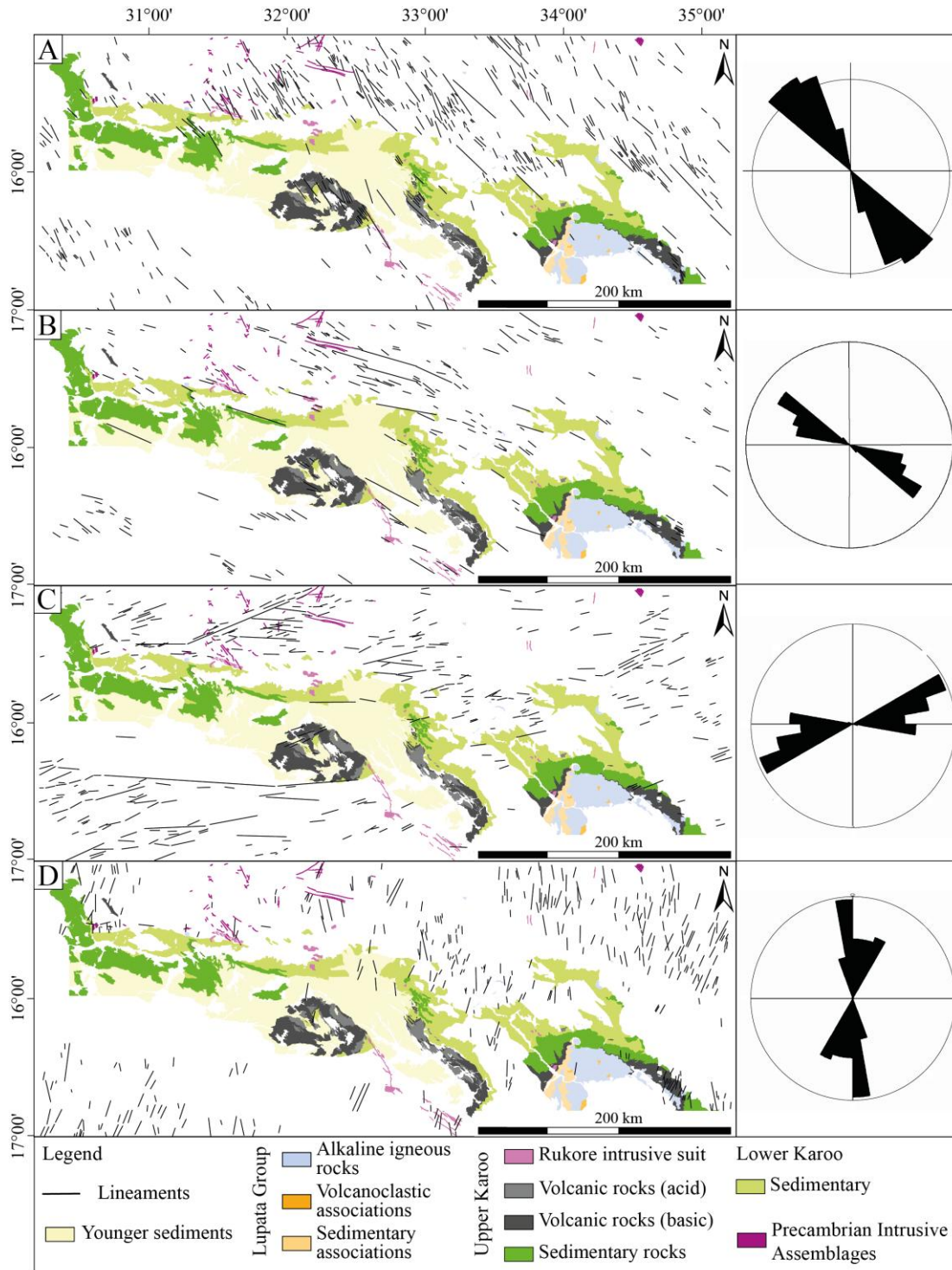
295 The structural rose diagrams produced from the traced lineaments allowed the
 296 definition of six structural populations that may have a close relation with pre-, syn- and
 297 post-depositional basinal cycles, which are: a) NW-SE subgroup (N = 499; Fig. 5A); b)
 298 WNW-ESE subgroup (N = 272; Fig. 5B); c) NNE-SSW subgroup (N = 269; Fig. 5D); d)
 299 ENE-WSW subgroup (N = 233; Fig. 5C); e) E-W subgroup (N = 157; Fig. 5C); and f) N-S
 300 subgroup (N = 147; Fig. 5D).



301
 302 Figure 4: Terrane digital shaded relief model image and regional lineaments traced in
 303 northwestern Mozambique, with its respective length and frequency rose diagram.

304
 305 The NW-SE (Fig. 5A) and WNW-ESE (Fig. 5B) subgroups are widely distributed
 306 in the North, represented by deeply dissected valleys and concordant with several fluvial

307 courses, including the SE portion of the Zambezi River (Fig. 2C). They are also parallel to
308 sub-parallel to Precambrian igneous intrusions in the northwestern sector of the area and to
309 Middle Jurassic Karoo magmatic associations in the South. On the other hand, the E-W
310 system (Fig. 5C) has the longest continuous lineament observed in the area and is
311 pronounced in the southern and northern limits of the Cahora Bassa Basin (E-W segment of
312 the Zambezi Valley, Fig. 1B and 2C), along with the ENE-WSW subgroup (Fig. 5C). Both
313 patterns show greater distribution in Precambrian basement rocks in the eastern section of
314 the area. The NNE-SSW and N-S subgroups (Fig. 5D) show great distribution throughout
315 the area seem to be restricted to Precambrian rocks and are homogeneously shorter than the
316 other patterns. They are lesser and more distinctive NE of the area, close to the N-S
317 oriented Niassa Lake in Malawi. However, these structures cross the Karoo younger
318 magmatic intrusions (Middle Jurassic) and probably comprise post-Karoo tectonic
319 reactivations.



320

321

322

323

324

Figure 5: Structural maps of the study area with respective frequency lineaments rose diagram. Karoo Supergroup and younger lithologies occurrences were compiled from GTK Consortium (2006). A) 130-165° (NW-SE) subgroup; B) 100-130° (WNW-ESE) subgroup; C) 60-100° (E-W and ENE-WSW) subgroup; D) 165-210° (N-S and NNE-SSW) subgroup.

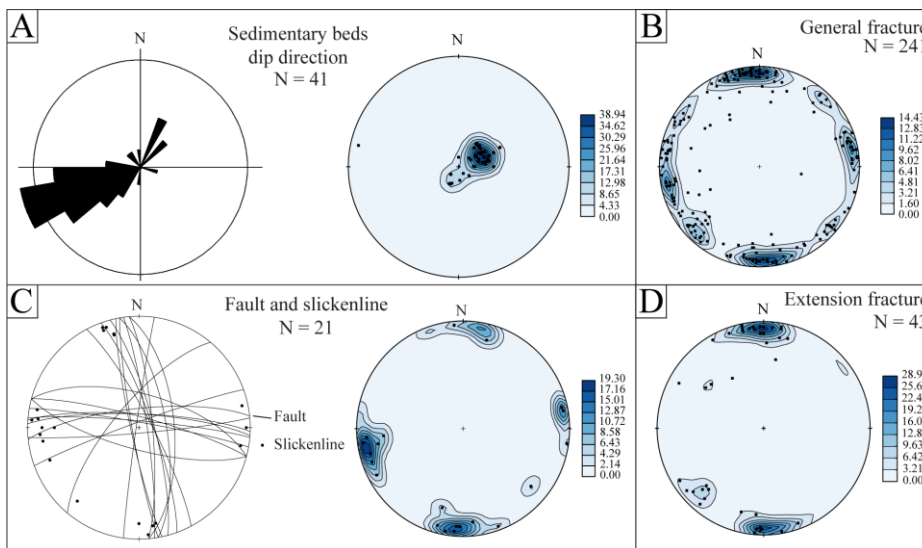
325 4.2. Field scale structural analysis

326 Field data provide valuable information about the structural behavior of
327 northwestern Mozambique (see Fig. 3 for outcrop locations). Structural data were
328 statistically analyzed from 64 measured structures with kinematic indicators and 198
329 fractures from the Moatize-Minjova Basin covering both, the Moatize and Matinde
330 formations. The structural behavior of the beds was analyzed from 41 measurements. The
331 structures were collected from sedimentary assemblages of the Moatize and Matinde
332 formations and the Karoo volcanic rocks of the latter (Middle Jurassic). These analyses
333 provide important and relevant structural information for post-depositional basin tectonic
334 approaches. Stereographic projections also show different layering dip patterns in the
335 northeastern and southwestern sections of the area (Fig. 3 and Fig. 6). Layers from the
336 Moatize and Matinde formations mostly have a gentle dip of 14° degrees, $N25^\circ W$, close to
337 the northeastern fault edge of the basin (Fig. 3 and Fig. 6A). On the other hand,
338 southwestern beds indicate an opposite behavior dipping preferably to SW and W, oriented
339 southwest to the fault edge of the basin (southeastern section of the Mzarabani Shear Zone).
340 Dips are not so gentle as the former, between 6° and 22° in central section of the graben
341 and from 15° to 24° degrees SW of the area (Fig. 3). These patterns seem to be compatible
342 with a fault-controlled basin, limited by listric faults (NW-SE oriented) and beds dip follow
343 post-depositional reactivations, leading to vertical block rotation.

344 The analysis of fractures and faults led to definition of two important structural
345 patterns: a) E-W and b) NNW-SSE to N-S (Figs. 6B and 6C). Those were identified as
346 fractures and faults. Both groups are compatible with NNE-SSW, N-S (Fig. 5D) and E-W
347 (Fig. 5C) lineament subgroups from the regional analysis. This is an interesting aspect,
348 since these subgroups are not the most representative patterns, although the E-W subgroup

349 has great influence over the Cahora Bassa Basin development and infilling. The kinematic
 350 indicators (silicate-filled faults and fractures) observed in the Moatize and Matinde
 351 formations rocks mainly characterize these faults as transcurrent, dextral and normal.

352 In general, the field structures are shallow and constantly filled by late silicate
 353 solutions. The lack of growing faults and sedimentary disturbance associated with this
 354 pattern indicates its post-depositional age. Slickenlines are present in transcurrent faults, as
 355 well as polished planes. However, steps or other kinematic indicators were absent in most
 356 cases, making it difficult to determine the sense of fault slip in several occasions. Most
 357 faults and fractures are vertical to subvertical (dipping mostly greater than 80°) indicating
 358 that kinematics must be preferably extensional or directional. Right-handed faults
 359 predominate, along with filled fractures with the same orientation, postulating a
 360 transtensional stress regime (Fig 6).



361

362 Figure 6: Structural diagrams from field work data. A) Observed sedimentary beds dip
 363 directions, showed in rose diagram and stereographic projection; B) All fractures measured
 364 in field (with tension fractures); C) Faults and slickenlines; D) Extension fracture.

365

366 Extensional fractures (2-20 mm wide) are filled by silicate solutions and show a
367 preferable E-W and NNW-SSE trend (Fig. 6D). Both patterns are accompanied by
368 transcurrent shear faults (principal structures), commonly showing anastomosing shape.
369 The relative timing of these structural patterns could not be clearly deduced from our data
370 set since very few cross-cutting relationships were found. We identify three transcurrent
371 dextral faults, following N20°-28°W and N80W directions with high angles, whereas other
372 transcurrent faults (N=12) present E-W, N80°-75°W and N10°-5°W major directions.
373 Slickenlines from these faults indicate N18°-20°W directions with dips of 5° to 10° and E-
374 W oriented with dip of 25°. Only one structure shows a NNW-SSE direction and dip of 84°
375 with slickenlines oriented N15°W and dip of 14°. Slickenlines from transcurrent faults
376 show dip angles between 4° e 16° degrees and directions parallel and sub parallel to the
377 fault plane.

378

379 **4.3 Facies and Facies associations**

380 The Permian deposits of KS in northwestern Mozambique are composed of mostly
381 interbedded coal and coarse- to fine-grained clastic deposits (Tab. 1). In this study, we have
382 distinguished facies that comprises the Moatize and Matinde formations, composed of
383 alluvial sequences deposited in relatively cool and humid climate (Smith et al., 1993), after
384 Late Carboniferous glaciations, but close to transition to hotter climatic conditions
385 (Matinde Formation), as indicated by the lack of coal and presence of commonly coarser
386 red sequences towards.

387 The Moatize and Matinde contact is very limited in outcrop in the Moatize-Minjova
388 Basin, mostly because of the gentle dip of the beds (5° to 25°, Fig. 6D). This local
389 structural characteristic does not allow great natural exposures, as they are commonly

390 associated with faulting and folding areas or in road cuts, making it difficult to obtain a
391 proper lateral correlation for this stratigraphic contact.

392

393 **4.3.2 Moatize Formation**

394 *Flood plain deposits with peat*

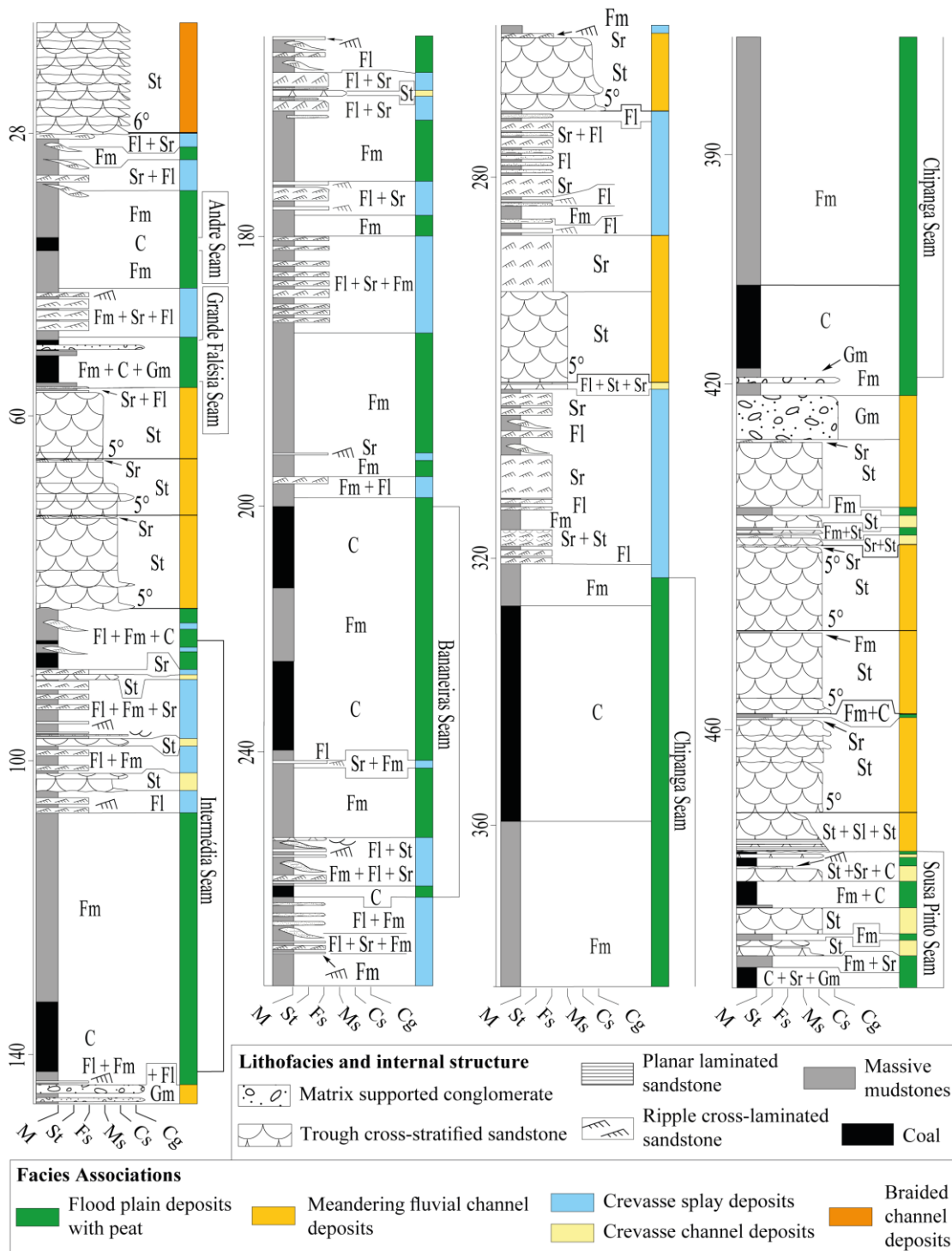
395 This association is composed of massive carbonaceous mudstones, <0.5 cm thick,
396 interbedded with very fine to fine sandstones with ripple cross-lamination (Fm), defining
397 linsen and wavy bedding. The heterolithic bedding is interbedded with coal (C) (Fig. 7 and
398 Fig. 8). Sometimes, the black horizontal laminated coal beds (C) are interbedded with gray
399 laminated (bituminous) siltstones/mudstones sequences (Fl) (Fig. 9A, 9B and 9C).
400 Cairncross (2001) and Lakshminarayana (2015) indicate that the Moatize Formation
401 consists of a coarsening upward sequence, mostly composed by interbedded coal,
402 carbonaceous mudstones, mudstones, siltstones and feldspathic sandstones (Fig. 3 and Fig.
403 9D, 9E and 9F; MB-130 outcrop). These are interbedded with crevasse splay deposits.

404

405 *Fluvial channel deposits*

406 This association comprises lithofacies with fining upwards cycles (between 2 to 15
407 m thick). From bottom to top, the cycles comprise coarse to very coarse-sandstones with
408 tangential cross-stratification (St) and rarely low angle cross-stratification in micaceous
409 (muscovite) medium to coarse-sandstone, sometimes conglomeratic, poorly to moderately
410 sorted (Sl). Sometimes they occur interbedded with massive matrix supported
411 conglomerates (Gm). They are superimposed by fine sandstones, 0.2 to 4 m thick,
412 composed of sets of ripple cross-lamination (Sr). The latter consist of micaceous

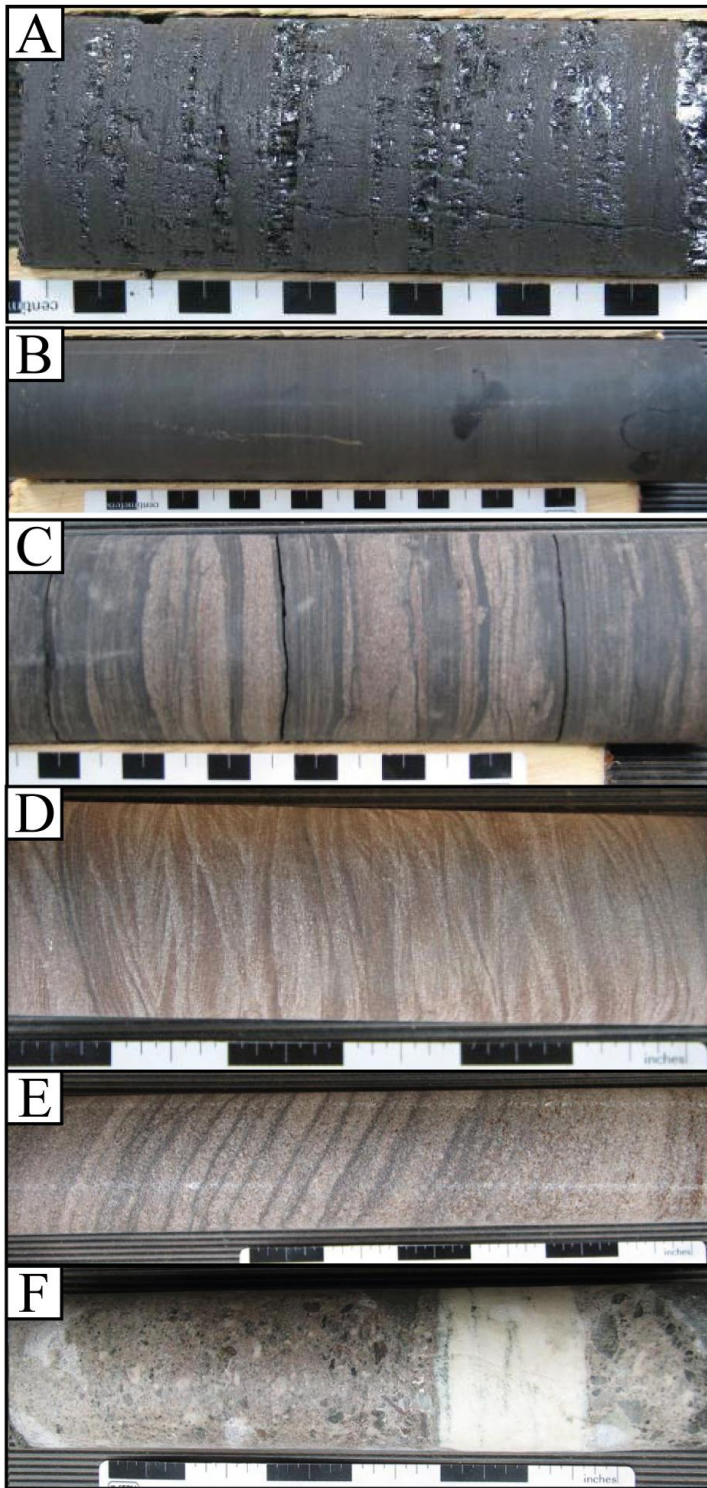
413 (muscovite) very fine to fine-sandstone, moderately to well sorted, with critical to
 414 subcritical ripple cross-lamination, 0.5 to 2 cm thick (Tab. 1; Fig. 7 and Fig. 8).



415

416 Figure 7: CS-006 borehole (ca. 500 m) schematic profile, showing lithofacies variations and

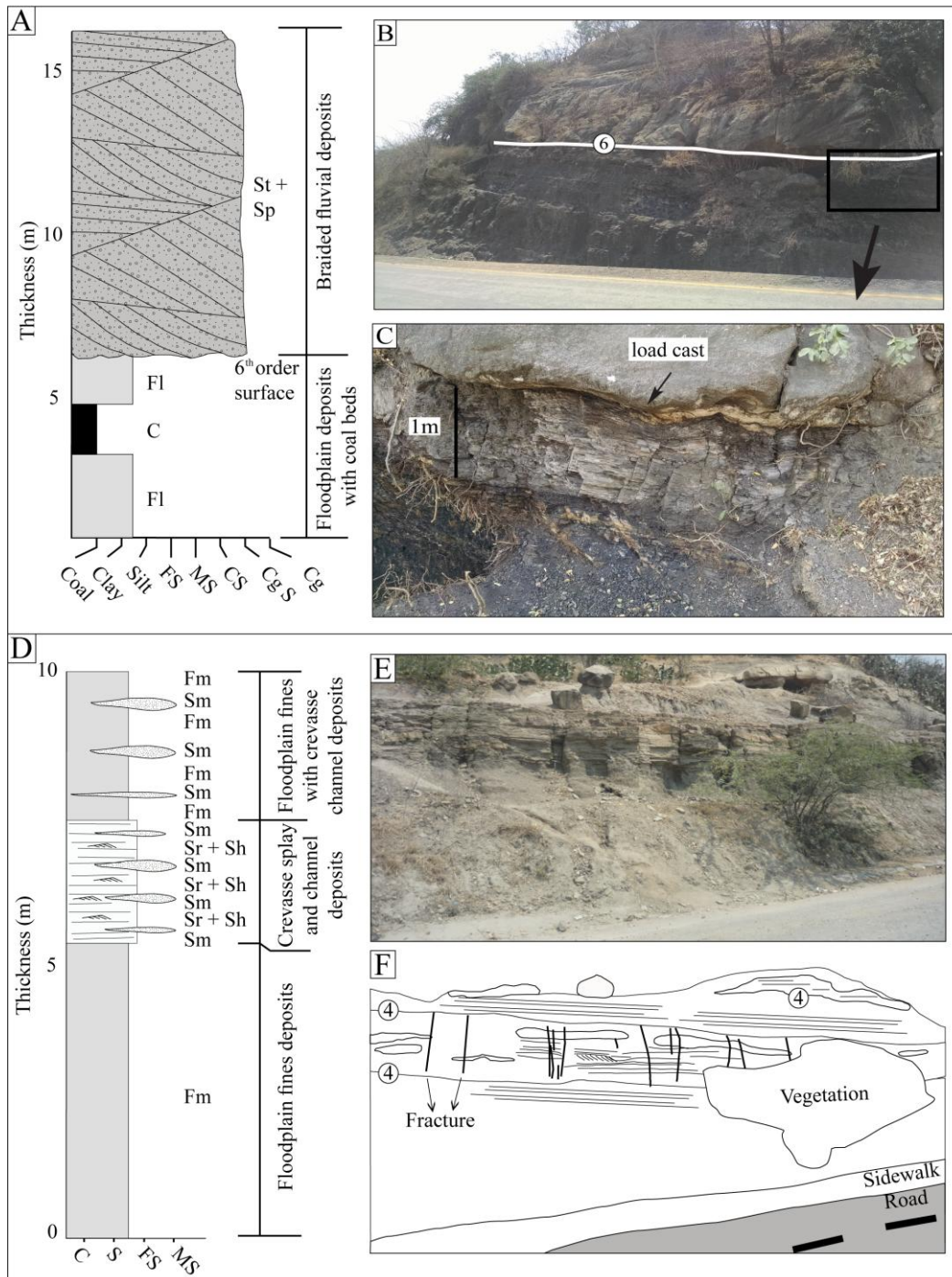
417 lithofacies assemblages.



418

419 Figure 8: CS-006 borehole main lithofacies. A) C (133,2 m); B) Fm (393 m); C) Fl (147.3

420 m); D) Sr (282 m); E) St (294.6 m); F) Gm (424, 61 m).



421

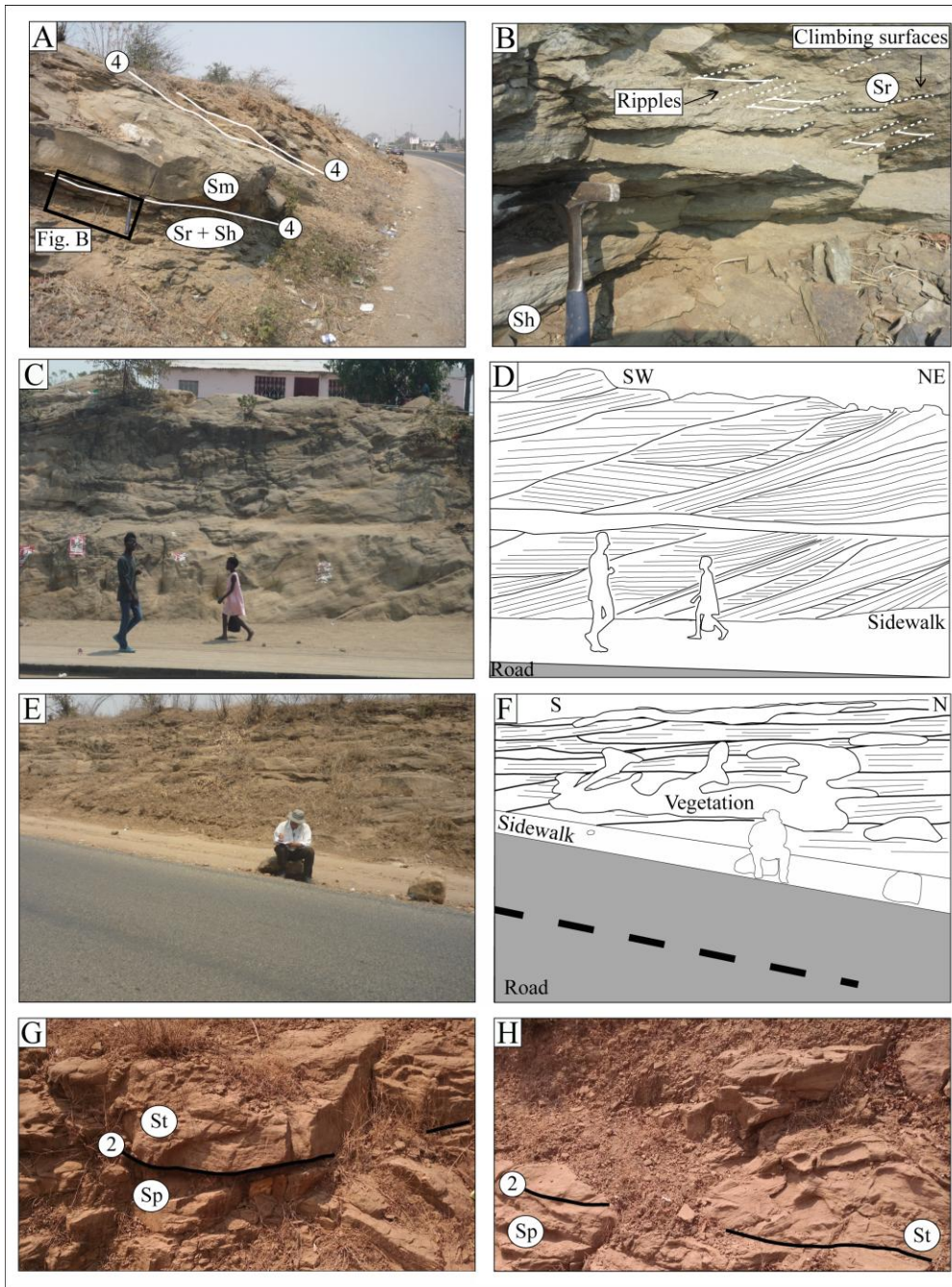
422 Figure 9: A) Schematic profile of the Moatize/Matinde Formations progradational
 423 transition; B) Outcrop type-section of the 6th order transition; C) Detail of load casts marks
 424 found within the unconformity. D) Schematic profile illustrating overbank lithofacies
 425 associations; E) Relationship between the floodplain fines, crevasse splay and crevasse
 426 channel associations; F) Schematic cross-section of Fig. E pointing out the distribution of
 427 lithofacies association and their relationship with each other.

428 *Crevasse splay and crevasse channel deposits*

429 Deposition of facies with coarsening and thickening upwards sequence (between 0.5
430 to 8 m thick) dominates these sedimentary deposits. From bottom to top, the succession
431 comprise massive carbonaceous mudstones (Fm), <0.5 cm thick, of very fine to fine
432 sandstone linsen bedding with ripple cross-lamination (Fm), superimposed on mudstones
433 with very fine to fine-sandstone wavy/linsen bedding 0.3 to 5 cm thick, with ripple cross-
434 lamination (Fl). These heterolithic successions are overlaid by micaceous (muscovite), very
435 fine-grained sandstone, with 1-2 cm ripple (sometimes climbing) cross-lamination (Sr) that
436 turning upwards to a medium to coarse-sandstone, occasionally conglomeratic, poorly to
437 moderately sorted, with 5 to 50 cm thick sets of trough cross-stratification (St). Foresets are
438 commonly marked by intraclasts (Fig. 3; MB-125 outcrop; Fig. 10A and 10B; MB-130
439 outcrop; Fig. 9D, 9E and 9F).

440 In this facies association we also identified medium to coarse sandstone beds,
441 mostly 0.5 to 2 m thick, with erosive base, showing tangential cross-stratified sets that were
442 interpreted as crevasse channel deposits. They mostly occur (Fig. 10A and 10B) associated
443 with massive to poorly horizontally laminated tabular fine to medium sandstone (Sh).
444 Channels are commonly <1 meter thick. This scenario implies a sporadic change between
445 lower and upper flow regime conditions (Allen, 2014; Fielding, 2006). Massive to poorly
446 horizontally laminated medium-grained sandstone beds (Sm) also interpreted as crevasse
447 channel occur as lenticular bodies inside floodplain facies association deposits (Fig. 9D,
448 Fig. 9E and Fig. 9F).

449



450

451 Figure 10: A) Crevasse splay and crevasse channel deposits; B) Detail of very fine
 452 sandstone with climbing ripples cross-lamination (Sr) interbedded with horizontal
 453 laminated sandstones (Sh); C) Coarse cross-bedded sandstones (Sp and St) from the
 454 Matinde Formation braided fluvial system (longitudinal bars); and D) Sketch of Fig. B
 455 illustrating the internal structural pattern of beds (W to NW paleoflow); E to H)
 456 Lithofacies (Sp and St) from a poorly confined channel, with low angle lateral accretion
 457 pattern and main westward paleoflow.

458 **4.3.3 Matinde Formation**

459 *Fluvial channel deposits*

460 These facies associations are 3 to 5-meter thick, bounded by high-relief basal
461 erosion surface. Internally, the sand bodies are composed mostly by metric sets of
462 brownish, coarse to conglomeratic sandstone with planar (Sp) and tangential cross-
463 stratification (St) (Fig. 9A, 9B and 9C; Fig. 3; MB-126 and MB-129 outcrops) (Fig. 10C
464 and 10D). Paleoflow measurements indicate NW to NE preferential migration trends (Fig.
465 3).

466

467 *Poorly confined fluvial channel*

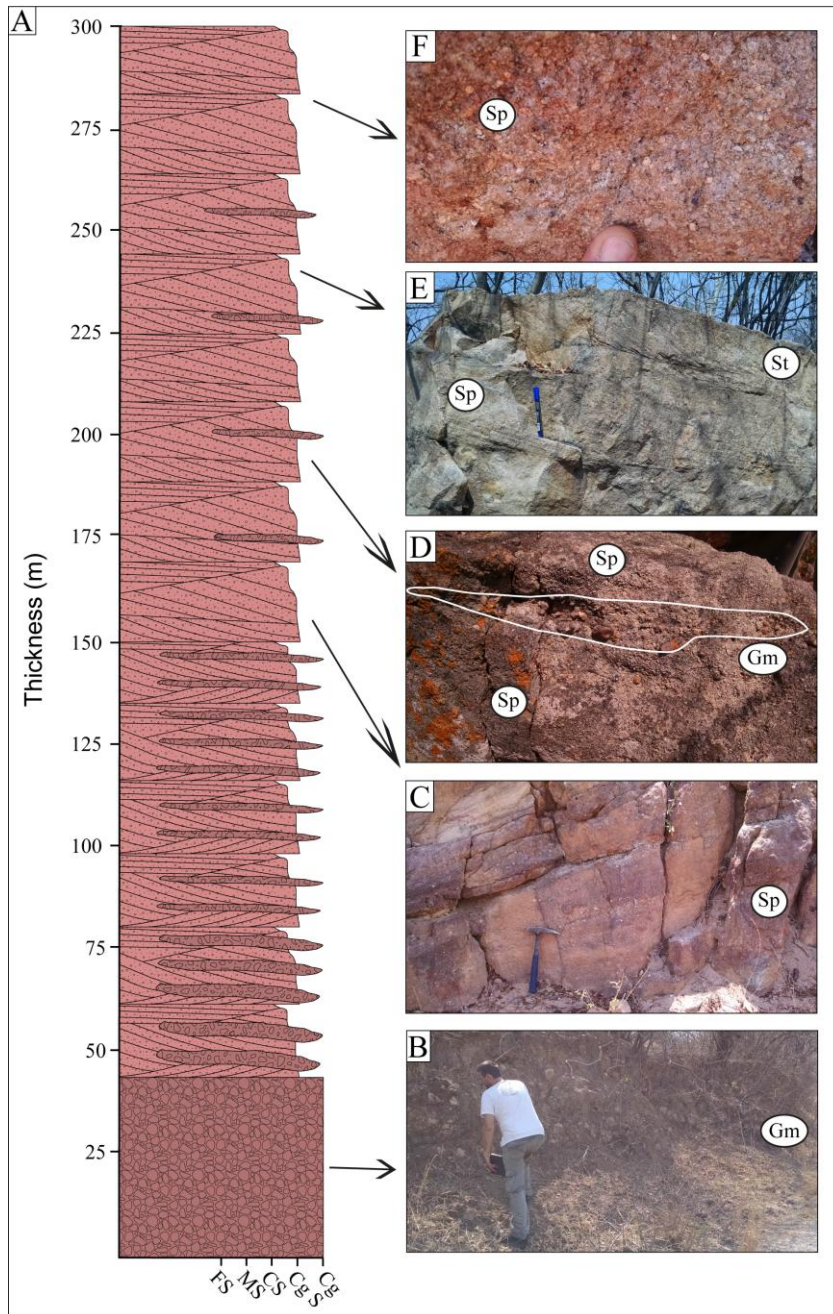
468 This lithofacies assemblage is 3 m thick, of amalgamated sandbodies, bounded by
469 planar to a low-relief erosive surface. The sandbodies are mainly composed of brownish,
470 medium to coarse-grained sandstones with horizontal (Sh), low-angle cross-stratification
471 (Sl), and rarely planar (Sp) and trough cross-stratification (St). The individual sets are 20-
472 30 cm thick. This facies association mainly outcrops north of the study area (Fig. 3; MB-
473 128 and MB-127 outcrops), close to the faulted basin boundary with Precambrian rocks
474 (Fig. 10E, 10F, 10G and 10H). Western and southwestern paleoflow directions are
475 suggested from field measurements on cross-bedded strata.

476

477 *Fluvial channel and reworked alluvial fan deposits*

478 Upwards in the profile, lithofacies assemblages attributed by us to later depositional
479 sequences of the Matinde Formation, were observed in the southwest section of the graben
480 (Fig. 3; MB-117 to 124 outcrops) and consists of a ~300 m thick succession of fining-
481 upward sequences of coarse-grained to conglomeratic sandstones (Figs. 11A to 11E). These

482 facies associations show a gradual reduction of conglomeratic lithofacies. Matrix-supported
483 conglomerates (Gm) (Fig. 11A and Fig. 11B), with clasts of about 20 cm in size of mainly
484 moderate rounded to subangular granitic rocks, approximately 40 meters thick, occur at the
485 base of the sequence. Upwards there is a prominent occurrence of coarse to pebbly
486 sandstone with planar (Sp) and trough cross-stratification (St) (Fig. 11C, 11D, 11E and F)
487 with lenses of conglomeratic sandstones, organized in 0.5 to 1 m thick sets (Fig. 11D).
488 Clasts are dominantly composed of rounded to subangular granitic and quartz fragments of
489 <5 centimeters in size and commonly parallel to the cross-bed stratification. Intraclasts
490 where not observed, but several elongated clasts shape casts, commonly oriented with the
491 whole sequence were observed, suggesting that intrabasinal clasts may have been dissolved
492 or loosened within post-depositional processes. In a few locations there are several
493 occurrences of iron concretions, mostly associated with faults and fractures providing a
494 grayish color to the sediments. Immaturity, large size and composition of the clasts and
495 sediments reflect the proximity of this package of the border fault (Fig. 3). Paleocurrent
496 measurements from this package indicate a NW to NE paleoflow.
497



498

499 Figure 11: A) Schematic profile of coarse lithofacies (Gm, Sp and St) from a fluvial
 500 channel (coarse to conglomeratic grained bars) near southwestern basin faulted margin; B)

501 Detail of basal Gm lithofacies; C) Coarse to conglomeratic sandstone with planar cross

502 stratification (Sp); D) Detail of Sp irregularly interbedded with Gm; E) Interbedded Sp and

503 St (tangential) lithofacies; F) Interbedded very coarse and coarse Sp lithofacies in the top of

504 the sequence as a result of variability in the transport energy.

505

506 **5. Discussion**

507 Structures and sedimentation in northwestern Mozambique followed important
508 stages of intraplate brittle reactivation of large crustal structures within Gondwana
509 Supercontinent, as marked by the overlap of very coarse lithofacies association of Matinde
510 Formation over the floodplains of Moatize Formation, which is cross-cut by several
511 transtensive syn-depositional structures. NW-oriented structures such as growth faults, drag
512 folds and folds axial planes, produced by regional tectonic activity, have exposed buried
513 coal beds in the northeast area of Cahora Bassa Basin, which is positioned north-northwest
514 of the Moatize-Minjova Basin (Fig. 2C), with the same sedimentation pattern of the latter.
515 The entire sequence shows a distinct regional coarsening upwards signature, which
516 compounds a large fluvial plane during Permian in the northwestern Mozambique basins.

517 Brittle faults and fractures measurements collected from the Moatize and Matinde
518 formations point to preponderant post-Karoo depositional tectonic reactivations, probably
519 related to the Pangea breakup event and beginning of the East African Rift System
520 inception. Below we provide a discussion about integration of structural reactivation
521 mechanisms and depositional environments.

522

523 **5.1. Permian Tectonics and Basin Subsidence**

524 A complex structural web was identified in northwestern Mozambique, produced by
525 Phanerozoic brittle reactivation of inherited basement Precambrian ductile deformation
526 zones, mostly from Pan-African orogenic cycle. NW-SE oriented structures tightly
527 dominate the Moatize-Minjova Basin during deposition and subsidence phases of Karoo
528 Supergroup sequences in northwestern Mozambique. The large distribution of the

529 lineament patterns all over the region reflects the Mozambican position within the Pan-
530 African assembly, between the interface of the Zambezi and Mozambique Orogenies.

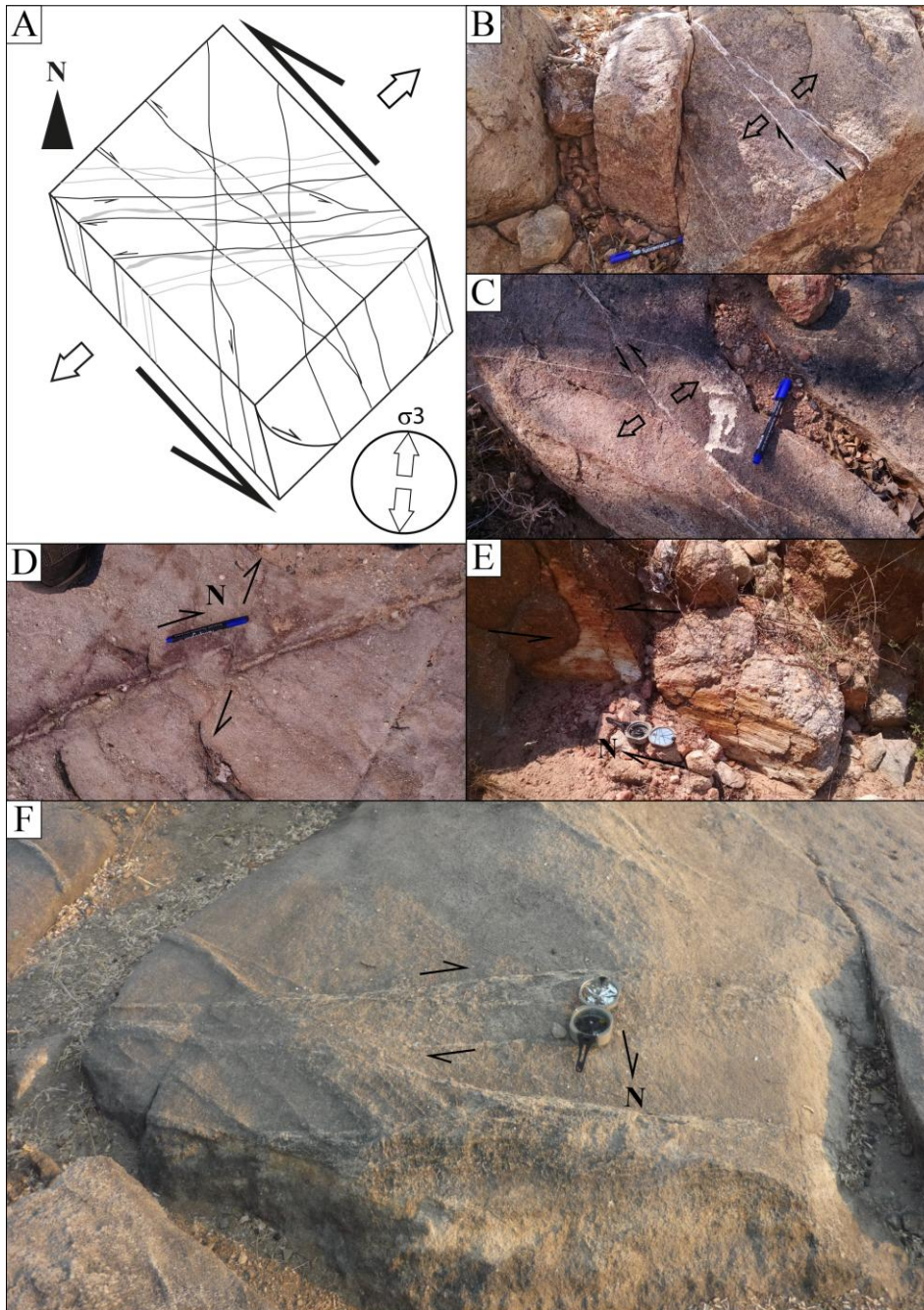
531 The NW-SE pattern is concordant with the southeastern segment of the Mzarabani
532 Shear Zone and Mwanza and Estima Faults (Fig. 2) which are the main fault systems
533 responsible for basin subsidence. The WNW-ESE subgroup is probably a subordinate
534 (Riedell shear) pattern generated from the NW-SE system. On the other hand, the E-W
535 transtension system represents the southern and northern boundary of the greater Cahora
536 Bassa Basin, while the ENE-WSW and NNE-SSW fault systems represent the Riedell
537 shear. Shoko and Gwavava (1999) identify similar structures in the basement below Cahora
538 Bassa Basin from geophysical data and assigned those as the main structural pattern
539 responsible to control subsidence control within the basin, since its earliest stages.
540 However, NE-trending fault zones show greater importance in the Moatize-Minjova Basin,
541 near the northeastern edge of Mozambique with Malawi, where several Jurassic dikes are
542 aligned with this trend (Casting, 1991). Our studies from granitic and metamorphic rocks
543 in Cahora Bassa and Tete regions showed that basement ductile structures are marked by
544 NW-SE oriented magmatic fabric and high temperature shear zones (Philipp et al., 2014).
545 Additionally, NW-SE and NE-SW are the main Pan-African ductile shear-zones patterns,
546 well established in northern Malawi (Ring et al., 2002), active until Ordovician times.
547 These considerations imply that the basement fabric heritage within northern Mozambique
548 has played an important role during basin inception and infilling.

549 Apparently, NW-SE, WNW-ESE, and ENE-WSW fault system subgroups appear to
550 affect more intensively the KS sequences and the Post-Karoo sequences less (Fig. 5),
551 comprising some of the longest continuous lineaments observed as indicative of its basin-
552 forming character. Igneous rocks from Karoo are strongly aligned and sectioned by the

553 NW-SE subgroup. We interpreted these data as probable pathways for magmatic rise
554 through the crust at the end of the Karoo basinal cycle (beginning of Gondwana Breakup),
555 controlling regional subsidence during Karoo and Post-Karoo sedimentation. Similar
556 descriptions could be adopted for the WNW-ESE, and ENE-WSW subgroups, which are
557 also well recorded in the Karoo sequences; but these two subgroups host only small
558 intrusions and are probably shallower in the crust.

559 The less pronounced N-S and NNE-SSW fault system scarcely affect the basins,
560 comprising smaller lengths, and hence are probably shallower fault zones resembling
561 subsidiary structures associated with the greater patterns. Otherwise, they intercept the
562 Later Karoo volcanic intrusions in the southern region, constraining its post-Karoo tectonic
563 age.

564 A dynamic analysis based on field scale data suggests a local NNE-SSW
565 extensional regime to generate such structural pattern (Fig. 12). Since they post-date Karoo
566 sedimentation, due to its large occurrence all over the basin and great fit with the N-S
567 trending East African Rift structure (Lake Niassa), this extensional component is probably
568 related to an N-S transtensional regime produced during the Gondwana dispersal in the
569 eastern African margin.

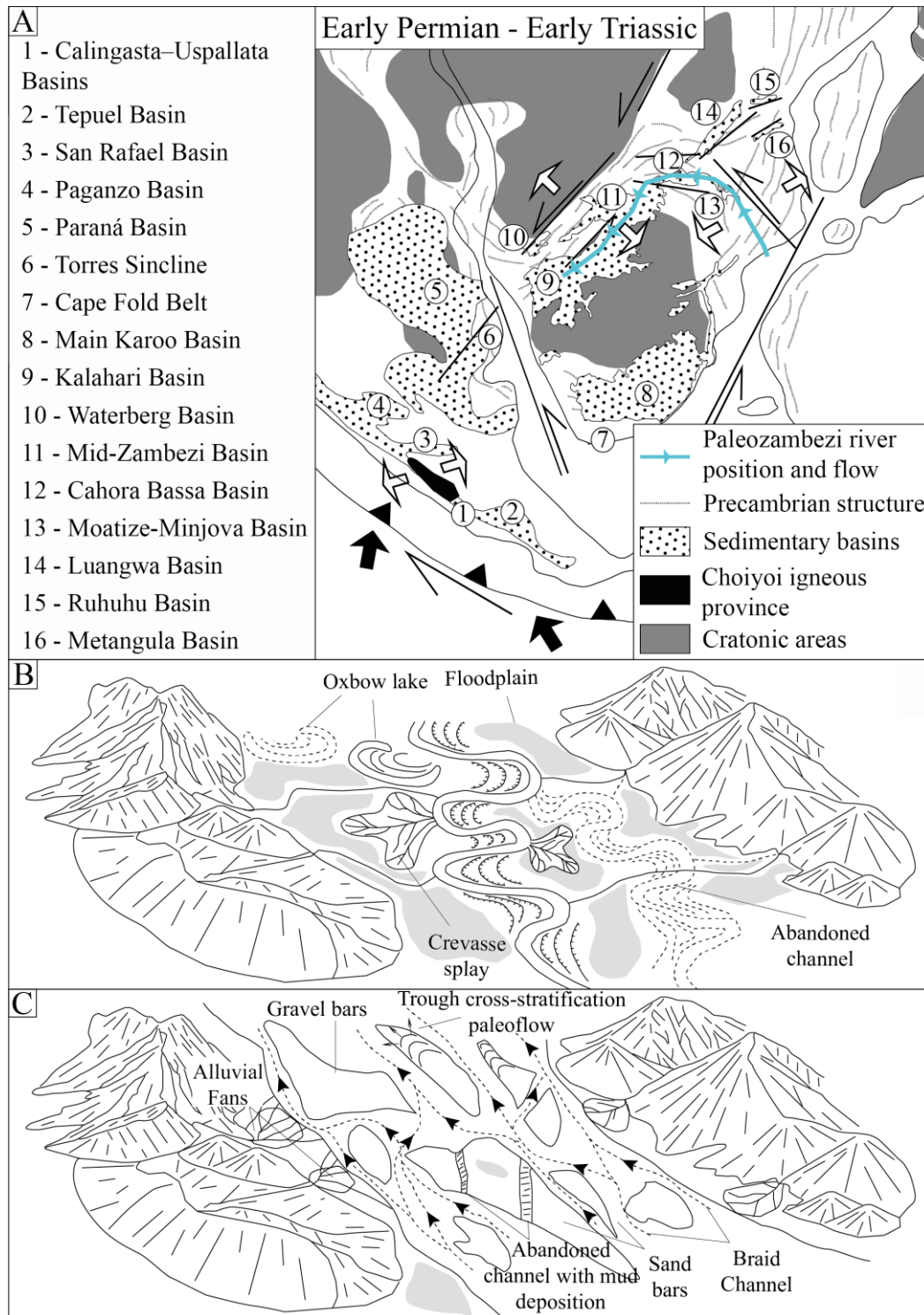


570
 571 Figure 12: A) Sketch of main structural patten determined from field measurements data; B)
 572 Top-most coarse to conglomeratic lithofacies preserving structures filled by silicate
 573 solutions; C) Sinistral transtractive fault system with silicate solution, which marks the
 574 shear direction; D) NW-SE dextral strike-slip fault dislocating N-S shear fault with
 575 sediment fill (post-depositional); E) N-S trend sinistral strike-slip fault with slickenlines
 576 and shear direction indicators (steps); and F) E-W dextral fault with silicate solutions in
 577 sandstones from Moatize Formation.

578 In a regional context, Permian times were a period of large tectonic activity along
579 Gondwana, such as the Pangea assembly (Variscan Orogeny) in northern Africa (Torsvik &
580 Cocks, 2013; Linol et al., 2015) and ongoing subduction of Panthalassan oceanic crust
581 (Gondwanides Orogeny, ca. 305–230 Ma) in the southwestern Gondwana/Pangea margin
582 (Cawood & Buchan, 2007). Both tectonic processes may have acted as a trigger for
583 regional inland subsidence that took place in several basins within Gondwana. This period
584 accomplished the Cape Fold Belt Orogeny, which comprises a large deformation structural
585 pattern with major N-S (Craddock et al., 2007) to NE-SW stress fields acting on the
586 Gondwana margin (Tankard et al., 2009; Hansma et al., 2015), which deformed earlier
587 glaciogenic deposits of KS in South Africa (Craddock et al., 2007; Hansma et al., 2015).
588 Additionally, Smith et al. (1993), Cadle et al. (1993), Johnson et al. (1996). Catuneanu et
589 al. (2005) and references therein indicate that glaciogenic deposits commonly rest non-
590 conformably or with a slightly angular unconformity over low relief pre-Karoo landscape.
591 These evidences suggests that it starts after the main glacial period, probably during Early
592 Permian as constrained by Ar-Ar deformational ages of ca. 280-245 Ma within the Cape
593 Fold Belt (Hansma et al., 2015), prior to the onset of coal-bearing layers deposition of
594 Moatize Formation, which recorded large syn-depositional faulting and folding in its
595 stratigraphic record (Vasconcelos et al., 2014; Lakshminarayana, 2015). Basin inversion
596 and basement uplift during this period have also been documented by Holz et al. (2006) in
597 the southern section of the Paraná Basin in South America, improving the influence of
598 southern Gondwana margin tectonics inland.

599 In this context, we understand that the Moatize-Minjova Basin was developed by a
600 NW-trending structural system, with sinistral transtensive regime, related to N-S/NE-SW
601 oriented stress field from the Gondwana southern margin during the early times of the Cape

602 Orogeny evolution. Stress propagated along the first order, NE to NNE oriented,
603 Precambrian Mozambique Ocean Suture and converged inland through the NW Zambezi
604 Pre-Transform System as a synthetic Riedell shear of the main structure (Fig. 13A).
605 Subsidence was achieved from a NE-SW extension, produced by crustal readjustment. On
606 the other hand, episodic subsidence in Mid-Zambezi, Mana Pools, Luangwa, Metangula,
607 Ruhuhu and Waterberg basins, that are NE-SW-trending, are related to readjustments
608 produced by the Damara-Katanga Belt, between Kalahari and Congo/Tanzania cratonic
609 areas (Fig. 13A).



610

611 Figure 13: A) Schematic geodynamic conditions throughout Gondwana south-southwestern
 612 margin during Permian sedimentation period; B and C) Schematic depositional
 613 environment of Early-Late Permian meandering (B) and Late Permian - Early Triassic
 614 braided (C) lithofacies associations.

615 **5.2 Stratigraphic and Depositional Implications**

616 Fluvial channels or poorly confined channels, bars and overbanks are the main
617 depositional elements identified in the area, composed by facies and facies associations
618 characterizing individual bodies where the internal geometry and external form can be
619 differentiated. These elements led us to identify meandering (Moatize Formation) and
620 braided (Matinde Formation) fluvial systems.

621 The facies description and facies associations of well CS_006A have shown that the
622 Moatize Formation was deposited in a continental environment dominated by meandering
623 river systems. Coals may have being deposited in peat associated with floodplains and
624 probably in oxbow lakes (abandoned meandering channel; Fig. 13B). Thus, lateral
625 migration of fluvial channels may have played an important role in the matter of coal
626 seams preservation. The study of the vertical lithofacies succession showed that coal is
627 interbedded with thin layers of siltstone and fine sandstones, marking its cyclic deposition
628 pattern. This sedimentary change within coal-bearing layers controls the quality of coal and
629 is directly related to the deposition of crevasse splay successions.

630 The stratigraphic sections demonstrated that the Chipanga seam, composed by
631 interbedded flood fines and coal beds, occur near the base of the sequence (Fig. 7) and
632 brings important subsidence implications with it. The great thickness of these floodplain
633 fines deposits implies a high subsidence regime in the basin, with low fluvial channel
634 amalgamation. This suggests an Early Permian depositional age, right after glacial retreat
635 and consequent isostatic rebound which lead to high subsidence rates. This was followed by
636 tectonically active periods throughout the Permian (as demonstrated earlier), due to the
637 ongoing Panthalassa subduction along southern the Gondwana margin and the beginning of
638 Cape Fold Belt deformation. Early Permian tectonic activity is recorded in basins on the

639 eastern margin, such as Ruhuhu Basin, near the Tanzanian margin (Fig. 1B), an important
640 tectonic event around Artinskian times (Middle - Early Permian), which led to braided
641 stream deposition in the base of the Moatize correlatable sequence (Wopfner, 2002).
642 Therefore, the entire sequence is interpreted as a great fluvial plain, with large floodplain
643 succession with thick peat seams accumulation in cold and wet swamps in the overbank
644 areas.

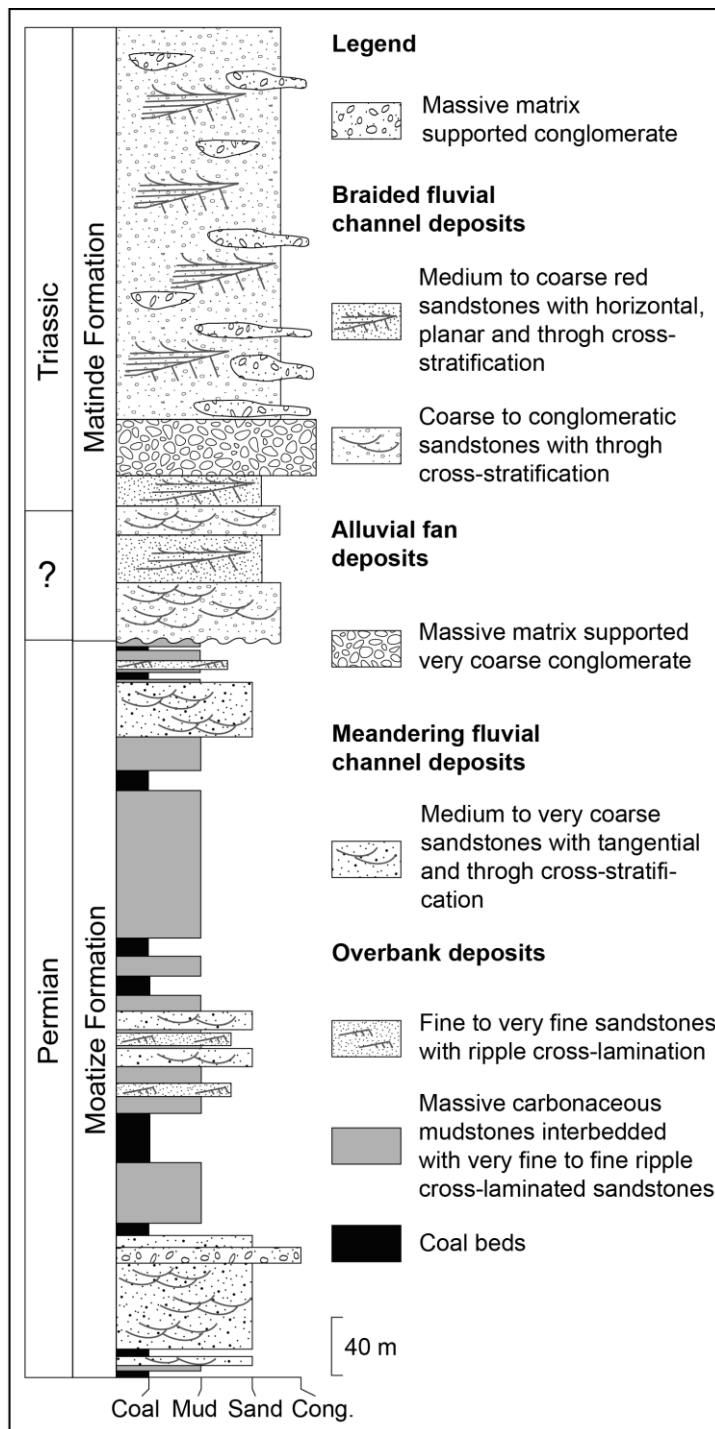
645 The stratigraphic analysis allowed the identification of a likely six-order sequence
646 boundary on the uppermost portion of stratigraphic well CS_006A (depth of 28 m). It
647 comprises an irregular surface marking the contact between the Moatize (Fig. 13B) and
648 Matinde (Fig. 13C) formations, where load casts indicate an overlap of a coarse braided
649 fluvial system over a meandering floodplain. However, these marks suggest that the hiatus
650 between these two formations must not be great. This results in a very low probability of
651 large peatland development with deposition of organic matter and coal formation in this
652 range. Field analysis indicates a multiple-story channel fill and sandstone sheet complexes.
653 Vasconcelos (2000) also pointed out that in some areas of northern Mozambique these two
654 formations show some contemporarily as indicated by load casts in the contact between
655 them. The overlap of coarse sandy to conglomeratic braided fluvial deposits implies in a
656 change of the local geomorphology, associated with rift shoulders uplift during the Moatize
657 Formation deposition, attributed to the earlier Gondwanides tectonic activity. The
658 Gondwanides Orogeny was also responsible for coal seams deformation in its later stages.
659 This tectonic activity led to distinct sedimentation patterns on different Karoo basins within
660 Southern Africa and in South America basins. Changes in depositional style, as supported
661 by lithofacies association through these basins, indicates plate readjustments and
662 rejuvenation of local structural patterns.

663 The basin depocenter was probably located towards the southwestern limit of the
664 basin, based on structural and coarsening upward sedimentary patterns and controlled by
665 the Mzarabani Fault Zone, preserving a thick and more complete section of Matinde
666 Formation. A southwestern depocenter position is also corroborated by geophysical data for
667 the Cahora Bassa region presented by Orpen et al. (1989) and Shoko & Gwavava (1999),
668 showing that the Mzarabani Shear Zone probably controlled basin subsidence
669 southeastwards. These arguments are in agreement with GTK Consortium (2006) mapping,
670 which show that these lithofacies transitioned to the Cádzi Formation (Fig. 3).

671 The upper conglomeratic sequences can be interpreted in two ways. Basal matrix
672 supported (Gm) conglomerates can represent alluvial fans deposits from the faulted margin.
673 Finning upwards pattern, clasts organization and internal structures indicate main fluvial
674 depositional control with northwards paleoflow. These elements may represent a coarser
675 lithofacies association from the braided fluvial system (migration of longitudinal and/or
676 accretion macroforms) or they can mark the transition to the upper Cadzi Formation, which
677 may have occurred near Middle Triassic times, since the Matinde Formation is probably
678 younger than Late Permian as determined by Pereira et al. (2016) (Fig. 14).

679 This latter model counterpoints the GTK Consortium (2006) which interpreted these
680 lithofacies as part of the Matinde Formation, which is the one we follow in this paper, due
681 to the large distribution of geological mapping of these authors and to lateral stratigraphic
682 relationships and depositional environments determined by us. Another strong aspect is the
683 important tectonic period that commonly marks the Permian-Triassic transition in the
684 Paraná Basin and other basins in South America and Africa (Zerfass et al., 2003; Zerfass et
685 al., 2004; Zerfass et al., 2005; Catuneanu et al., 2005) and left an hiatus that can be

686 observed throughout the Tanzanian Karoo basins and in Mozambique (Catuneanu et al.,
 687 2005).



688

689

690

Figure 14: Schematic stratigraphic profile of the Moatize and Matinde formations.

691 The transition between the Moatize and Matinde formations probably approximates
692 the Late Permian - Early Triassic period, based on palynological date presented earlier
693 (Daber, 1984; Pereira et al., 2016) and other coal bearing seams deposits elsewhere in the
694 Karoo basins (Catuneanu et al., 2005), although not all show clear tectonic implications.
695 The Mid-Zambezi basin coal-bearing beds, correlatable to facies of the Moatize Formation,
696 change to mostly mudstones with subordinate siltstones and sandstones of a lacustrine
697 deposit (Nyambe & Utting, 1997). This suggests that high subsidence rates took place
698 westwards from northern Mozambique, controlled by NE-SW crustal faults (Fig 13A), but
699 produced for the same regional tectonic regime. This also improves the model proposed by
700 Key et al. (2015) were a proto-Zambezi river with a western paleoflow since Early Permian
701 times has influenced deposition in Central-Eastern Africa with thick proximal coarser
702 lithofacies near the Precambrian orogenic belt and finer distal lithofacies inland towards the
703 Mid-Zambezi and Kalahari Basins.

704

705 **6. Conclusions**

706 In summary, northwestern Mozambique basins were affected by NE-SW and NW-
707 SE transtensive trends, along the African eastern cratonic margin, which led to crustal
708 readjustments of Precambrian structures and inland subsidence. Tectonic reactivation was
709 produced by far-field stress transferred from the Gondwanides Orogeny and recorded in the
710 sedimentary records of the Karoo basins in Mozambique and Southern Africa and also in
711 South America basins. Identification of the same structural pattern of the basement units in
712 the Karoo Supergroup and the latest coverage underscores the importance of tectonic
713 reactivation of the same weakness zones in the depositional control of Paleozoic and
714 Cenozoic units.

715 Permian sequences in the Moatize-Minjova Basin comprise mainly meandering and
716 braided fluvial plane deposits. The former comprise floodplain, crevasse splay and fluvial
717 channel main lithofacies associations. This sequence was prograded by a multiple-story
718 braided fluvial plane in the Matinde Formation. Lithofacies associations and their
719 relationship with each other suggest deposition within a fluvial confined to poorly confined
720 channel system with longitudinal and low-angle lateral accretion macroforms. The top of
721 the stratigraphic sequence comprises sediment gravity flow, channel and downstream
722 macroform accretion facies associations. Conglomerates with boulders dominate near the
723 southwestern fault bounded graben boundary, indicating an increase in the fluvial transport
724 energy towards the top of the sequence, due to high relief geomorphologic depositional
725 environment, which may have started during the end of the Moatize Formation depositional
726 cycle. Northwestward paleoflow from Matinde lithofacies suggest that the Zambezi River
727 flow was inverted during Permian sedimentation in northern Mozambique, with its
728 headwaters located in the southeastern highland areas, inherited from the Pan-African
729 orogeny.

730 For further studies, we recommend conducting a stratigraphic detail study in the
731 area to better understand the factors that controlled the deposition of the studied sediments.
732 A more detailed stratigraphic model to describe the Triassic deposits in the region and
733 Vúzi, Moatize and Matinde Formations elsewhere in northwestern Mozambique would
734 improve tectonic and stratigraphic understanding in the area.

735

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747

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2 **Constrained from Detrital Zircon U-Pb Age Data, Northwestern Mozambique -**
3 **Africa**

4

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16

17 **Highlights**

18

19 Detrital zircon dating provided Mesoproterozoic to Cambrian provenance;

20

21 Neoproterozoic ages indicate an south-southwestern provenance;

22

23 Guro Suite and SW Nampula Complex are the main source regions;

24

25 Headwaters of Permian-Triassic fluvial systems were positioned southwards;

26 Abstract

27 Permian-Triassic times were a period of high sedimentation rates into the
28 intracontinental Karoo rift basin of northwestern Mozambique reflecting high
29 exhumation rates in the underlying high grounded Precambrian-Cambrian basement
30 assemblages. The U-Pb dating of detrital zircons from Permian-Triassic Matinde
31 Formation of Karoo Supergroup proved to be a reliable proxy to map denudation
32 patterns of source regions.

33

34 The analytical data allow discriminate two main age populations of Late
35 Mesoproterozoic - Early Neoproterozoic (*ca.* 1100-950 Ma) and a Late Neoproterozoic
36 - Early Cambrian (*ca.* 550-490 Ma). The former resembles to the late stages of Rodinia
37 Supercontinent geotectonic activity mostly represented by magmatic and less
38 metamorphic rocks, which are present everywhere in the northern Mozambique
39 basement. The latter register large metamorphic overprint from Pan-African Orogeny on
40 the older Mesoproterozoic basement, although with magmatic activity related to crustal
41 reworking.

42 The less pronounced populations between *ca.* 850-560 Ma together with
43 paleoflow measurements allowed restricting the source areas when compared to a
44 gathering of individual zircon age populations of the underlying basement. The older
45 component refer to the bimodal magmatism related to the breakup phase of Rodinia
46 Supercontinent registered in the Guro Suite which marks the western limit of the
47 Moatize-Minjova rift basin. The ages between 630-560 compound the individual zircon
48 ages of Guro Suite and SW Nampula although they are not attributed to a specific
49 magmatic or metamorphic event.

50 The SW and NE Nampula Complexes must have being a unique geotectonic
51 entity since Late Mesoproterozoic, reworked during Pan-African Orogeny. This allied to
52 the N-NW paleoflow of Proto-Zambezi river and provenance data suggests that
53 Nampula Complex was a probable high ground source area for fluvial sediments.
54 Permian-Triassic rifting induced by far stress fields transferred from Gondwana margin
55 have disrupted the Nampula Complex reactivating Precambrian structures and fabrics
56 and the Jurassic-Cretaceous Gondwana breakup led to its actual morphology and
57 configuration.

58

59 **Keywords:** Precambrian-Cambrian basement, Pan-African Orogeny, Karoo
60 Supergroup, Provenance

61

62 **1. Introduction**

63 U-Pb geochronology applied in detrital zircon grains is a powerful tool to
64 understand provenance patterns in sedimentary basins (Fedo et al., 2003; Hartmann et
65 al., 2008; Hawkesworth et al., 2010; Cawood, 2012; Bicca et al., 2013; Oliveira et al.,
66 2014; Bahlburg and Berndt, 2016). The age spectra constrained by this analysis reflect
67 the tectonic setting of the basin in which the zircons are deposited (Cawood, 2012),
68 assuming that the measured age distribution observed comprise an unbiased
69 representation of the true age distribution in the sample and sedimentary unit it
70 represents (Gehrels, 2014).

71 Because zircon is resistant to abrasion and chemical alteration during
72 sedimentary processes, the determination of the ages of detrital zircons indicates the
73 timing of events in the source regions (Hartmann et al., 2008). An additional bias in

74 provenance studies is the variable abundance of zircons in source terrains (Moecher and
75 Samson, 2006).

76 The use of U-Pb dating by LA-ICP-MS technique to determine the ages of
77 geological processes that formed the host rocks is a modern and common procedure in
78 provenance investigation of sedimentary rocks (Hartmann et al., 2008; Guadagnin et al.,
79 2010; Thomas et al., 2010; Cawood, 2012; Bicca et al., 2013; Oliveira et al., 2014).

80 In this paper we present a provenance analysis based on LA-ICPMS U-Pb ages
81 of detrital zircon grains from a key immature coarse-sandstone of Matinde Formation
82 from Karoo Supergroup, with specific focus on determine the denudation patterns of the
83 Precambrian-Cambrian basement of northern Mozambique. The Late Carboniferous to
84 Middle Jurassic volcano-sedimentary successions of the Karoo Supergroup (Smith,
85 1993; Catuneanu et al., 2005) are widely distributed throughout south and central Africa
86 hosted in marginal and intracontinental basins preserving one of the largest registers of
87 Gondwana evolution. In northwestern Mozambique they are represented by rift basin
88 relying over the Precambrian basement rocks that were formed over a very long time
89 span covering the Archean, Paleoproterozoic, Mesoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic, as
90 the result of juvenile generation of crust, terrain accretion and crustal reworking during
91 several orogenic cycles (Stern, 1994; Hanson, 2003; Meert, 2003; GTK Consortium,
92 2006; Fritz et al., 2013; Macey et al., 2013; Grantham et al., 2013). A complex range of
93 igneous and metamorphic ages, Th/U rates and zircon morphology suggest that main
94 suturing, klippening and magmatism, related to the different stages of the protracted
95 Pan-African orogenic cycle, controlled river catchment and provenance during Permian-
96 Triassic sedimentation.

97

98

99 2. Geological Settings

100 The sedimentary basins of northwestern Mozambique comprise intracontinental
101 rift basins filled by continental sediments and volcanic rocks from Karoo Supergroup
102 and younger sequences. This basin relies over an important crustal structure, which
103 correspond to an eastern extension of the Damara-Lufilian-Zambezi structure (Fig. 1).

104 Crystalline basement of northwestern Mozambique is made of a very complex
105 assemblage of igneous and low to high-grade metamorphic rocks, from distinct crustal
106 levels, spanning from Mesoproterozoic to Neoproterozoic-Early Paleozoic in age
107 (Hanson, 2003; Macey et al., 2013). Most Late Mesoproterozoic rocks have being
108 reworked by the protracted Pan-African Orogeny in the later Neoproterozoic during
109 Gondwana-assembly (Pinna et al., 1993; Sacchi et al., 2000), which occur in two main
110 episodes at ca. 550 Ma and ca. 500 Ma (Ueda et al., 2012). Several studies developed in
111 the north of Mozambique allow the definition of distinct crustal entities (Fig. 1),
112 although, the geotectonic model still a matter of discussion (Pinna et al., 1993; Jacobs et
113 al., 2008; Viola et al., 2008; Bingen et al., 2009; Ueda et al., 2012; Fritz et al., 2013;
114 Macey et al., 2013).

115 The north of Mozambique can be divided into two major Mesoproterozoic
116 domains separated by the prominent Neoproterozoic–early Paleozoic Lurio Belt (Fig. 1)
117 (Viola et al., 2008). This belt comprises a series of NE-anastomosing shear zones and is
118 mostly represented by the granulite Ocuca Complex, which occur mostly in the NE of
119 Mozambique, while the SW segment of the Lurio Belt is partially uncovered (Fig. 1).
120 U–Pb SIMS ages from selected latest-tectonic units in the Nampula Complex and the
121 Lurio Belt give ages between 518 ± 2 and 514 ± 5 Ma, coeval with migmatization and
122 granitoid plutonism in the Nampula Complex (Ueda et al., 2012). The significance of
123 the Lurio Belt is controversial. Some authors believe it represents a major suture zone

124 connecting with the Damara-Lufilian-Zambezi Belt (Sacchi et al., 2000; Grantham et
125 al., 2003). Others suggest it is an accommodation zone, especially because of the
126 similarities between metamorphic complexes north of the Lurio Belt with those of the
127 Nampula Complex to the south (Viola et al., 2008; Bingen et al., 2009), an because of
128 an apparent decrease in strain along the belt from NE to SW.

129 The two domains north and south of the Lurio Belt share a similar
130 Mesoproterozoic crustal growth history, although their evolution was diachronous. The
131 Nampula Complex south of the belt developed between 1125 and 1035 Ma while the
132 Unango and Marrupa Complexes to the north were between 1062 and 946 Ma. The
133 maximum crustal thickening produced by Pan-African Orogeny in northeastern
134 Mozambique occurred between *ca.* 570 and 530 Ma and later in the Nampula Complex
135 (550–500 Ma) (Bingen et al., 2009; Macey et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2010).

136 The Unango and Marrupa Complexes are crustal domains made of large
137 volumes of orthogneisses related to a continental arc setting (Bingen et al., 2009) and a
138 minor magmatic phase at *ca.* 799 Ma registered in the Unango Complex. These
139 complexes were overthrust at *ca.* 550 Ma by an assemblage of Neoproterozoic
140 granulites of the Cabo Delgado nappes (including the Xixano, M'Sawize, Muaquia and
141 Lalamo complexes), forming a stack of west vergent nappes (Viola et al., 2008; Bingen
142 et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2010; Macey et al., 2013).

143 In northwestern Mozambique the Unango Complex overlies the small fault-
144 bounded Ponta Messuli Complex (Viola et al., 2008; Bingen et al., 2009), which
145 contains Paleoproterozoic metasediments affected by migmatitization at around 1950
146 Ma and intruded by granitic rocks at 1056 Ma. This complex is also overlain by the
147 Neoproterozoic Txitonga Group which comprises a volcano-sedimentary complex with
148 bimodal magmatism (Jacob et al., 2008). Westwards the Southern Irumide Belt is a

149 structurally and metamorphically complex region of mainly Mesoproterozoic igneous
150 rocks related to a voluminous 1090–1040 Ma continental arc-related magmatic rocks,
151 accompanied by high-temperature/low-pressure metamorphism (Fritz et al., 2013).

152 Southern of the Lurio belt the Nampula Complex forms a large contiguous
153 crustal block which consists of 1150–1030 Ma orthogneisses and metasedimentary
154 rocks with high grade metamorphism around 1090–1030 Ma (Bingen et al., 2009;
155 Macey et al., 2010). The orthogneisses from SW segment of the Nampula Complex (Fig.
156 1) are interpreted as remnants of Mesoproterozoic continental magmatic arch (*ca.* 1100
157 Ma; Chaúque, 2012). Over the Nampula Complex there are the tectonic emplaced
158 Monapo and Mugeba granulite facies klippen that are assumed as equivalents of the
159 Cabo Delgado nappes (Macey et al., 2007), considered to be erosional remnants of a
160 larger and widespread nappe structure (Viola et al., 2008; Macey et al., 2013), which is
161 improved by the absence of granulite-facies rocks in the underlying Nampula Complex.
162 The Monapo Klippe consists dominantly of a *mélange* of granulite gneiss, deformed at
163 634 ± 8 Ma and intruded by ultramafic and mafic gneisses and alkaline granitic rocks
164 (637 ± 5 Ma; Macey et al., 2013).

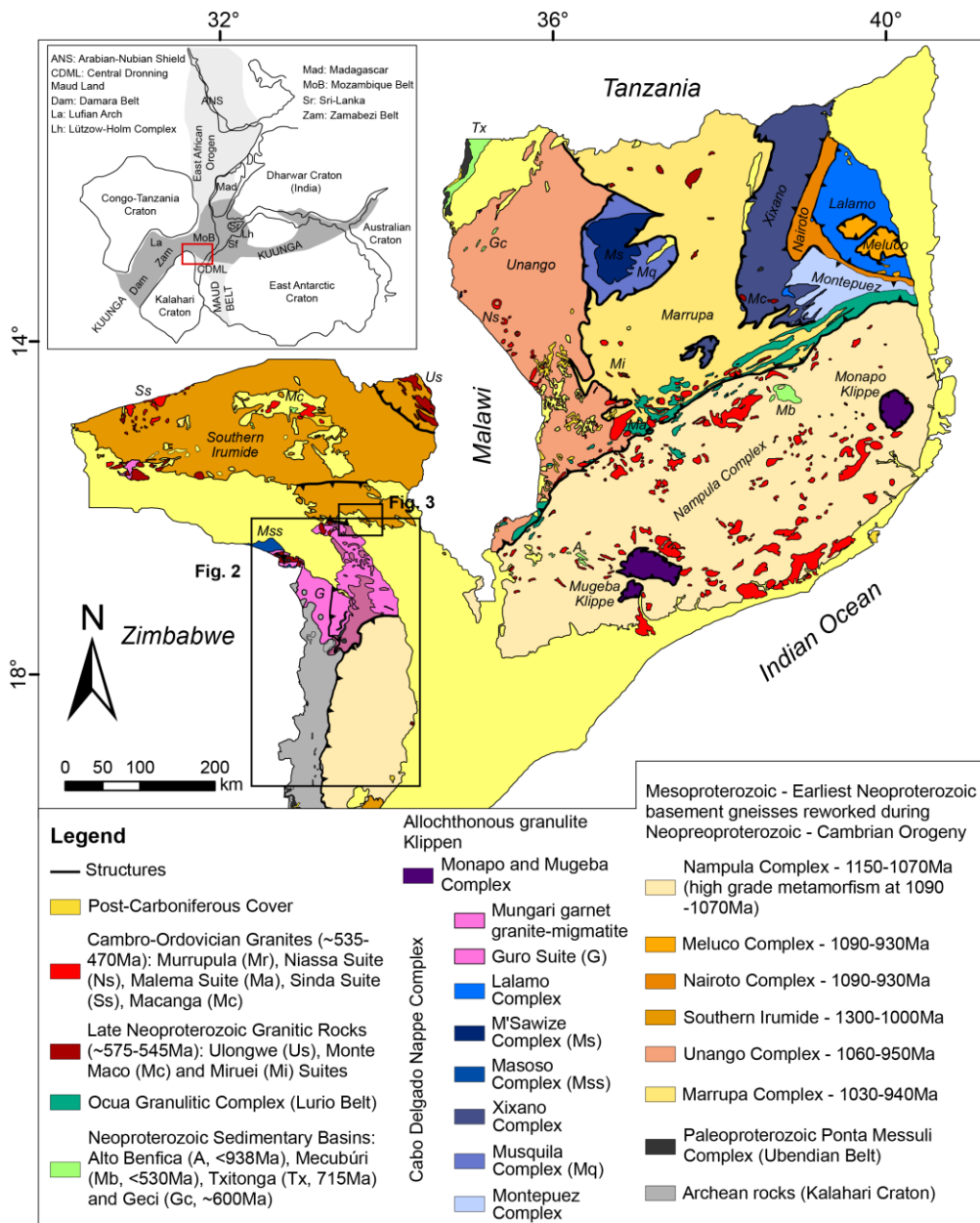
165 These rocks are overlain by isolated Neoproterozoic metamorphosed molasse
166 sediments (Fig. 1; Thomas et al., 2010; Chaúque, 2012). In the northeast section of NC
167 the Mecubúri and Alto Benfica Groups are considered to be an autochthonous Cambrian
168 meta-sedimentary cover of the Nampula Complex (Thomas et al., 2010). U–Pb analyses
169 of detrital zircons from samples of the Mecubúri Group constrain a maximum
170 deposition age of 530 ± 18 Ma, with zircon rims and metamorphic monazite grains
171 dated at *ca.* 500 ± 10 and 499 ± 15 Ma respectively. Dating of detrital zircons from
172 the Mecuburi Group indicate source rocks with ages peaking between *ca.* 1100–950 Ma,

173 750–800 Ma and 700–530 Ma, similar to the crystallisation ages in the Unango and
174 Marrupa Complexes (Thomas et al., 2010).

175 The southwest Nampula Complex (Fig. 2) is attributed to the frontal nappes of
176 Chimoio-Macossa and Mungari Groups (Chaúque, 2012), consisting of low- to high-
177 grade paragneisses. The first is associated with the Barue magmatic arc represented by
178 orthomagmatic rocks (*ca.* 1100 Ma; Fig. 2). These are in direct tectonic contact with the
179 Kalahari cratonic rocks. The Mungari nappe includes the Guro Suite associations, which
180 comprise abundant Neoproterozoic bimodal intrusive association (Fig. 2), characterize
181 the east-dipping outer rim of the craton margin in the north (Chaúque et al., 2017). The
182 felsic component dominantly consists of foliated aplitic granites, while the mafic one
183 corresponds to metagabbro, locally deformed into mafic gneiss or schist with intruding
184 pegmatite. Zircon grains from Granitic rocks indicate a magmatic crystallization age of
185 867 ± 15 Ma. Dating of the nucleus of metamorphic zircons show recrystallization ages
186 at *ca.* 850 – 839 Ma, related to extensional faulting, while the metamorphic rims
187 provided an age of 512 ± 4 Ma related to the Pan-African Orogeny (GTK Consortium
188 2006). At the northeastern margin of the cratonic area occur the low to medium grade
189 metasedimentary and felsic metavolcanic (*ca.* 800 Ma) rocks of the Rushinga Group
190 which may represent a passive margin of Neoproterozoic age (Barton et al., 1991;
191 Hargrove et al., 2003; GTK Consortium 2006; Chaúque, 2012).

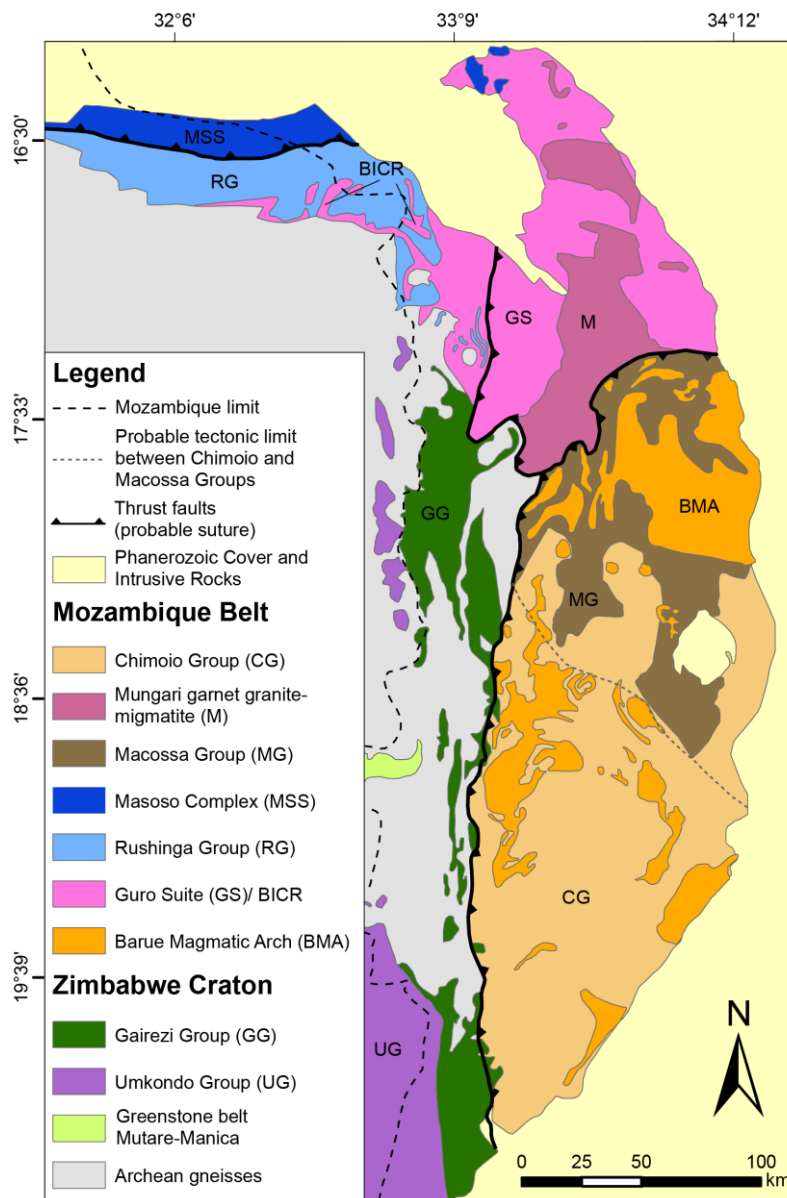
192 Protracted collisional orogenesis was followed by the intrusion of late- to post
193 tectonic Late Neoproterozoic granites (*ca.* 575-545Ma) and Cambrian-Ordovician K-
194 granites (*ca.* 530–495 Ma) (Macey et al., 2007; Jacobs et al., 2008; Ueda et al., 2012;
195 Macey et al., 2013; Grantham et al., 2013). The latter is pronounced in the eastern
196 Nampula Complex (Fig. 1) due to crustal delamination process that led to protract
197 cooling history during Cambrian-Ordovician Times (Jacob et al., 2008; Emmel et al.,

198 2014). These Precambrian-Cambrian basement rocks were partially covered by the
 199 Phanerozoic volcano-sedimentary deposits of the Karoo Supergroup and younger
 200 sequences (GTK Consortium, 2006).



201

202 Figure 1: Simplified geological map of north Mozambique modified from Macey et al.
 203 (2013) showing the main lithostratigraphic units. In top is shown the reconstruction of
 204 Gondwana during the Cambrian after Meert (2003), with the locations of the East
 205 African Orogen and Kuunga Orogen and in the bottom the location of the geological
 206 map presented in the southern of Africa.



207

208 Figure 2: Geological and tectonic map of the SW section of the Nampula Complex in
 209 the contact with the cratonic margin (after GTK Consortium 2006 and Chaúque et al.,
 210 2017). BICR = Basal Intrusive Complex of de Rushinga.

211

212 2.1 Geology of the Matinde Formation

213 The Matinde Formation generally comprises continental sedimentation during
 214 Permian-Triassic (mostly Triassic; Pereira et al., 2016) and represents one of the Karoo
 215 Supergroup deposits of northern Mozambique. This sequence is host in an NW-striking
 216 intracontinental rift basin, locally called as Moatize-Minjova Basin (Fig. 3). The rift

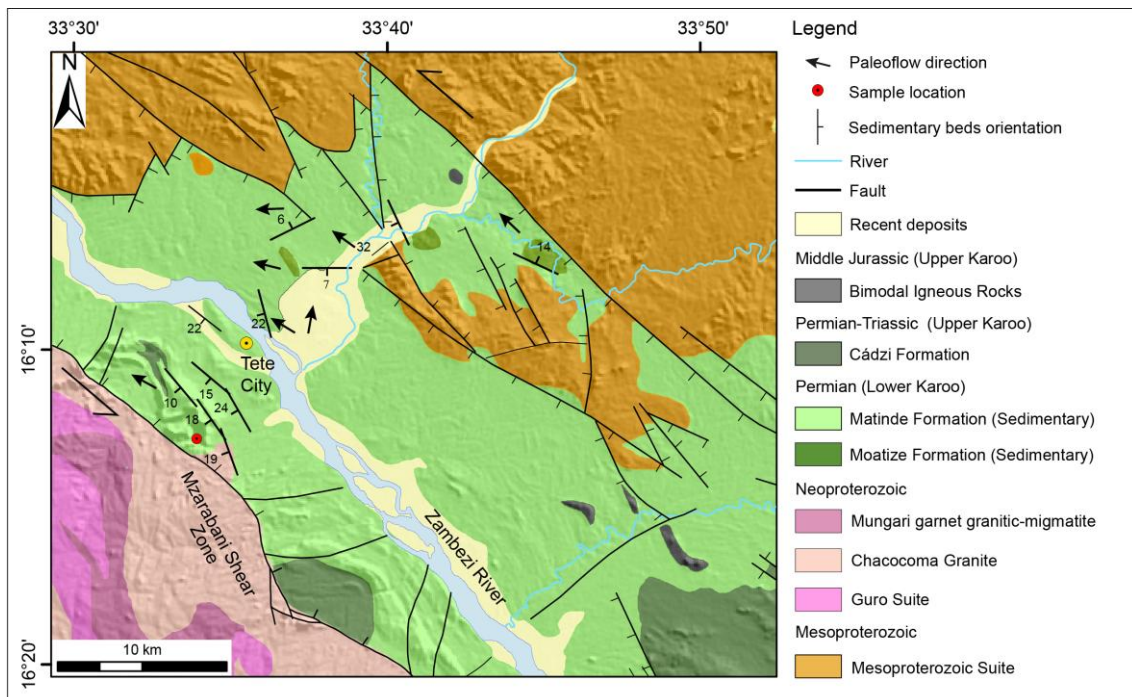
217 is limited by Precambrian structures and basin evolution follows distinct reactivation
218 periods occurred in Phanerozoic times (Castaing, 1991; GTK Consortium, 2006;
219 Fernandes et al., 2015; Bicca et al., 2017), under a transtensional stress regime
220 associated with the NW-SE sinistral Zambezi pre-transform fault system (Castaing,
221 1991; Bicca et al., 2017). The structural control over sedimentation is evidenced by
222 depositional cycles of the Moatize and Matinde Formations.

223 The Moatize Formation is made of interbedded carbonaceous mudstones,
224 mudstones, rhythmites, sandstones and cyclic coal deposits (Cairncross, 2001;
225 Lakshminarayana, 2015; Bicca et al., 2017) and its lithofacies assemblages are
226 interpreted as a meandering fluvial system (Bicca et al., 2017). The coal beds represents
227 thick peat deposits (ca. < 40m) interbedded with very thick flood plain fines sequences
228 (ca. < 100m) (Fig. 4; Bicca et al., 2017). The absolute age of these coal-bearing
229 formation is not well constrained and most comes from palynological record which
230 suggests a Lower to Middle Permian age for the top part of the Moatize Formation
231 (Daber, 1984). Although, Pereira et al. (2014) founded a Kungurian/Roadian age
232 (Lower – Middle Permian) for the basal sequences of the Moatize Formation,
233 positioning its depositional cycle throughout the Early-Late Permian.

234 Overlaying the Moatize Formation there are mostly cross-bedded coarse-grained
235 alluvial deposits from the Matinde, its being assumed a depositional age close to the
236 Permian-Triassic boundary but most of the depositional cycle relies in the Triassic
237 period (Pereira et al., 2016). This formation is attributed to a braided fluvial plain
238 system mostly represented by coarse to conglomeratic red sandstones (Fig. 4). Planar
239 and through-cross bedding are the most common structures, separated in sets of ca. 0.5
240 to 2 meters by planar surfaces (GTK Consortium, 2006; Bicca et al., 2017). Lithofacies
241 associations and its internal relationship suggest deposition of poorly channelized

242 braided alluvial plain in which downstream and probably lateral accretion macroforms
 243 alternates with gravity flow deposits (Bicca et al., 2017). Northwestwards paleoflow
 244 from Moatize and Matinde lithofacies suggest that the Zambezi River flow was inverted
 245 during Permian sedimentation in northern Mozambique, with its headwaters located in
 246 the southeastern highland areas, inherited from the Pan-African Orogeny (Key et al.,
 247 2015; Bicca et al., 2017).

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250 Figure 3: Simplified geological and structural map of the Moatize-Minjova Basin and
 251 sample location (modified from Bicca et al., 2017).

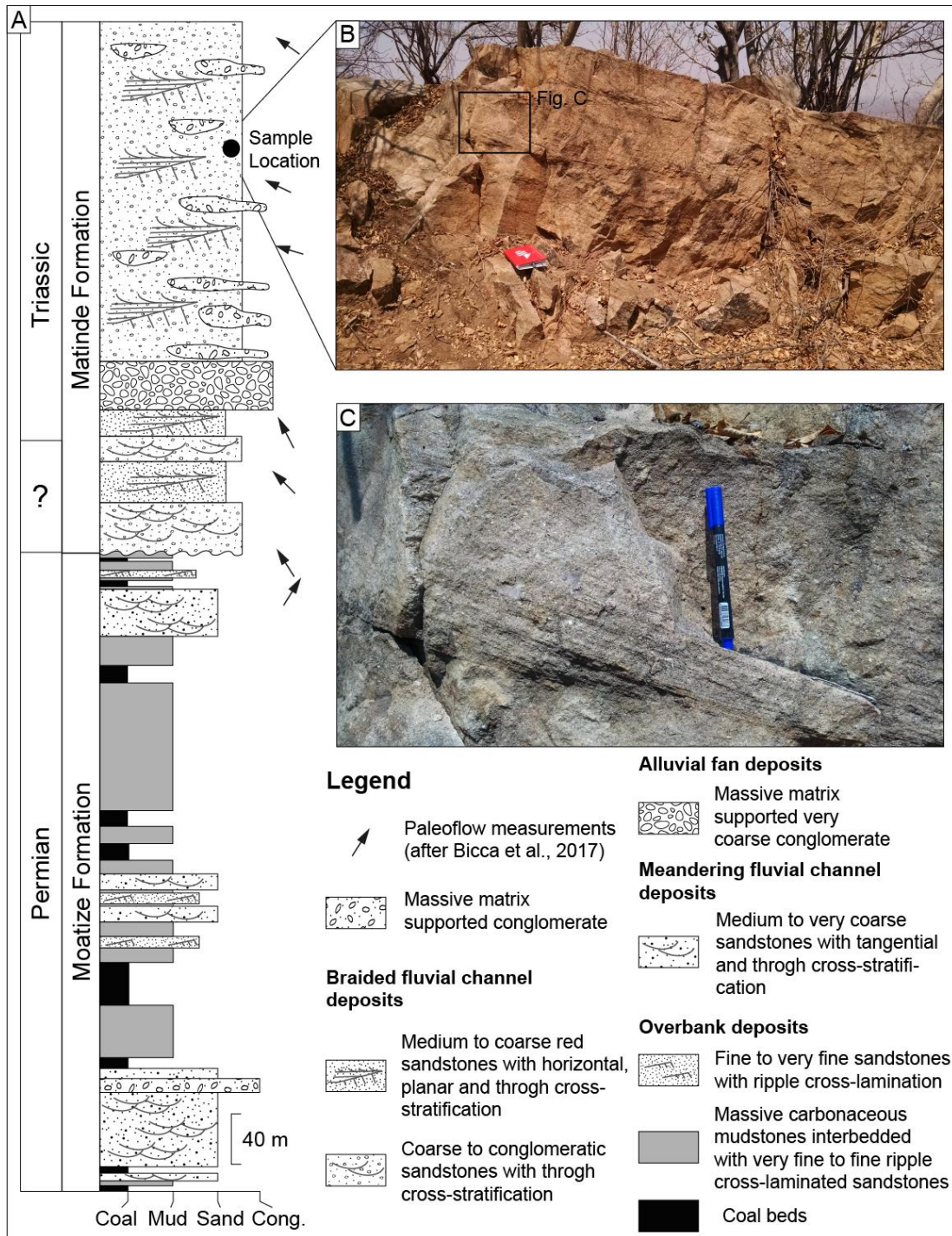
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258 Figure 4: A) Schematic profile of the Moatize and Matinde Formations; B) Through and
 259 planar cross-bedded coarse sandstones from where we took the sample; C) detail of the
 260 coarse sandstone with quartz clasts (modified from Bicca et al., 2017).
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264 3. Methods

265 We collected one sample from a coarse-sandstone of Matinde Formation
266 exposed in the study area at coordinates 16°12'22.57"S and 33°34'5.09"E (Fig. 3 and
267 Fig. 4). The outcrop is the top of a 300 m high profile that has thick (1–2 m) sets of
268 coarse-sandstones and conglomerates with a fining upward pattern. This sequence
269 marks an important process of rejuvenation in the source area, as indicated by the
270 Permian-Triassic depositional pattern (Fig. 4) and show excellent levels of outcrop
271 preservation in terms of weathering, tectonic and any hydrothermal processes, difficult
272 to find in the region. In addition, more mature sandstones tend to does not preserve
273 metamorphic overgrowths due to abrasion during transport (Hartmann and Santos,
274 2004).

275 Mineral separation was carried out at Rio Grande do Sul Federal University,
276 using standard procedures of crushing the rock, milling and sieving. Zircons were
277 separated using conventional heavy liquids and magnetic procedures, hand-picked and
278 mounted on an epoxy disc, together with CZ3 (564 Ma) zircon standards and polished
279 to expose their internal surfaces.

280 U-Pb analysis was performed with laser-ablation multi-collector inductively
281 coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-MC-ICP-MS) at São Paulo University. All
282 grains used for zircon dating were imaged with cathodoluminescence to determine their
283 internal structures and crystallization phases (to support spot location and age
284 interpretation). Only zircon grains free of imperfections such as fractures and mineral
285 inclusions were selected for analysis (Fig. 5). The analytical conditions and data
286 reduction for the LA-MC-ICPMS method were identical to those described by Chemale
287 Jr. et al. (2011). Isoplot 3 software (Ludwig, 2003) was used to generate the concordia
288 diagrams and histograms. For the concordia age calculations and frequency histograms,

289 only the analysis with $100 \pm 10\%$ of concordance was included. The U-Pb detrital
290 zircon analytical data are show in Table 1. Corrections for common Pb were made using
291 measured ^{204}Pb and the Pb isotopic composition. Results with more than 1% common
292 Pb correction were not use to calculate the ages. Confidence limits (90%) were
293 compiled for pooled ages and one sigma limits for individual zircons. Ages older than
294 1.5 Ga are express as weighed mean $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ age values, and younger ages are
295 weighed mean $^{204}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ values. The analytical results were compared with the
296 geological, isotopic, and geochronological data available in the literature (Macey et al.,
297 2010; Thomas et al., 2010; Manjate, 2011; Chaúque, 2012; Manjate, 2015; Chaúque et
298 al., 2017).

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314 Table 1: U/Pb data of Matinde Formation

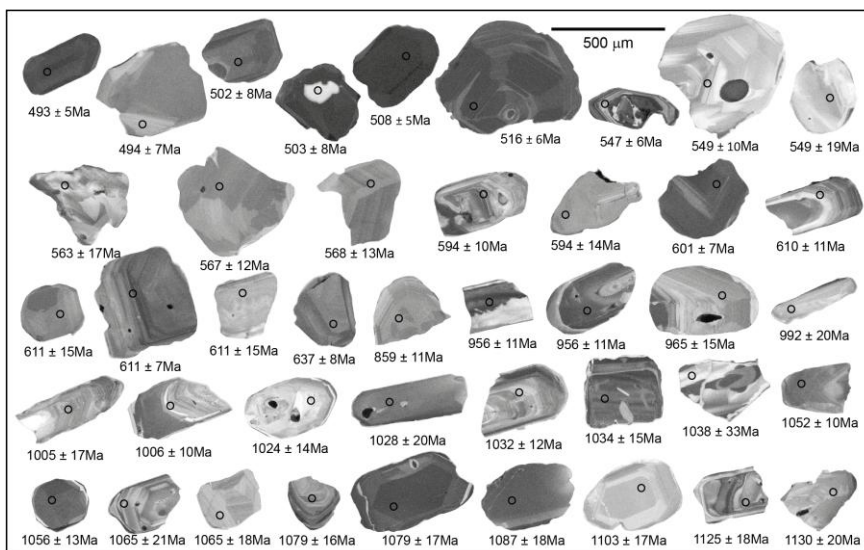
Spot	RATIOS										AGES						Conc. 206/238 207/235	Conc. 206/238 207/206				
	207/235	1 sigma	206/238	1 sigma	coef. corr	238/206	1 sigma	207/206	1 sigma	208/206	1 sigma	Pb total comum %	U ppm	Th/U	T _{206/238}	1 sigma			T _{207/235}	1 sigma	T _{207/206}	1 sigma
10.1	0.6295	0.0185	0.0794	0.0008	0.60	12.5913	0.1275	0.0575	0.0017	0.2035	0.0038	0.16	582	0.57	0.493	0.005	0.496	0.011	0.510	0.065	99	96
26.1	0.6363	0.0201	0.0795	0.0014	0.26	12.5722	0.2254	0.0580	0.0020	0.1055	0.0038	0.86	431	0.27	0.493	0.009	0.500	0.013	0.530	0.078	98	93
2.1	0.6239	0.0360	0.0797	0.0012	0.68	12.5430	0.1863	0.0568	0.0035	0.1386	0.0127	0.29	160	0.43	0.494	0.007	0.492	0.023	0.482	0.139	100	102
38.1	0.6404	0.0223	0.0810	0.0014	0.35	12.3513	0.2140	0.0574	0.0022	0.1803	0.0067	0.58	279	0.54	0.502	0.008	0.503	0.014	0.506	0.081	99	99
18.1	0.6429	0.0177	0.0811	0.0014	0.85	12.3291	0.2130	0.0575	0.0017	0.0692	0.0026	0.78	541	0.37	0.503	0.008	0.504	0.011	0.510	0.065	99	98
43.1	0.6592	0.0229	0.0820	0.0009	0.64	12.2003	0.1330	0.0583	0.0021	0.0467	0.0041	0.79	468	0.11	0.508	0.005	0.514	0.014	0.542	0.080	98	93
3.1	0.6695	0.0246	0.0833	0.0010	0.01	12.0082	0.1373	0.0583	0.0022	0.1090	0.0060	0.24	363	0.37	0.516	0.006	0.520	0.015	0.541	0.084	99	95
48.1	0.7159	0.0813	0.0869	0.0021	0.56	11.5019	0.2841	0.0597	0.0074	0.3552	0.0258	1.10	90	0.98	0.537	0.013	0.548	0.048	0.593	0.273	98	90
4.1	0.7180	0.0575	0.0889	0.0017	0.10	11.2453	0.2132	0.0586	0.0051	0.1304	0.0157	0.89	88	0.37	0.549	0.010	0.549	0.034	0.551	0.190	99	99
24.1	0.7374	0.0552	0.0913	0.0025	0.45	10.9587	0.3032	0.0586	0.0051	0.1226	0.0174	2.33	110	0.29	0.563	0.015	0.561	0.031	0.553	0.175	100	101
61.1	0.7512	0.0919	0.0912	0.0028	0.50	10.9672	0.3412	0.0598	0.0086	0.2056	0.0206	0.82	59	0.49	0.563	0.017	0.569	0.056	0.595	0.343	98	94
39.1	0.7609	0.0403	0.0919	0.0020	0.03	10.8827	0.2349	0.0601	0.0035	0.4045	0.0181	0.41	103	1.12	0.567	0.012	0.575	0.023	0.606	0.126	98	93
20.1	0.7574	0.0420	0.0922	0.0022	0.23	10.8506	0.2607	0.0596	0.0038	0.0217	0.0132	0.74	123	0.07	0.568	0.013	0.573	0.024	0.589	0.145	99	96
4.1	0.7812	0.0479	0.0965	0.0017	0.51	10.3590	0.1871	0.0587	0.0041	0.1464	0.0185	0.76	102	0.32	0.594	0.010	0.586	0.027	0.556	0.144	101	106
22.1	0.7790	0.0583	0.0966	0.0024	0.47	10.3558	0.2587	0.0585	0.0053	0.0863	0.0201	0.78	65	0.21	0.594	0.014	0.585	0.032	0.549	0.182	101	108
3.1	0.8077	0.0300	0.0977	0.0012	0.01	10.2398	0.1293	0.0600	0.0024	0.0365	0.0082	0.81	176	0.09	0.601	0.007	0.601	0.017	0.603	0.087	99	99
14.1	0.8353	0.0430	0.0992	0.0019	0.28	10.0815	0.1920	0.0611	0.0036	0.1100	0.0094	0.69	112	0.27	0.610	0.011	0.617	0.023	0.642	0.127	98	94
2.1	0.8201	0.0400	0.0994	0.0015	0.15	10.0562	0.1553	0.0598	0.0033	0.0981	0.0116	0.48	108	0.25	0.611	0.009	0.608	0.023	0.597	0.125	100	102
19.1	0.8399	0.0627	0.0994	0.0026	0.24	10.0605	0.2620	0.0613	0.0053	0.1099	0.0210	0.98	61	0.28	0.611	0.015	0.619	0.034	0.649	0.185	98	94
11.1	0.8281	0.0725	0.0999	0.0029	0.01	10.0060	0.2914	0.0601	0.0067	0.1275	0.0161	1.15	49	0.34	0.614	0.017	0.613	0.039	0.607	0.223	100	101
5.1	0.8876	0.0368	0.1039	0.0014	0.38	9.6246	0.1331	0.0620	0.0029	0.0919	0.0079	0.42	124	0.23	0.637	0.008	0.645	0.020	0.673	0.099	98	94
32.1	1.7145	0.0550	0.1687	0.0030	0.17	5.9278	0.1054	0.0737	0.0025	0.0977	0.0058	0.34	121	0.28	1.005	0.017	1.014	0.021	1.034	0.069	99	97
15.1	1.7167	0.0653	0.1694	0.0035	0.27	5.9019	0.1233	0.0735	0.0032	0.1125	0.0076	0.90	104	0.30	1.009	0.020	1.015	0.025	1.027	0.088	99	98
8.1	1.8024	0.0873	0.1721	0.0026	0.61	5.8089	0.0875	0.0759	0.0040	0.1626	0.0100	0.56	74	0.44	1.024	0.014	1.046	0.031	1.093	0.102	97	93
58.1	1.8008	0.1107	0.1729	0.0037	0.58	5.7848	0.1248	0.0756	0.0053	0.1673	0.0188	0.24	78	0.39	1.028	0.020	1.046	0.041	1.083	0.146	98	94
9.1	1.7779	0.0629	0.1736	0.0021	0.35	5.7613	0.0698	0.0743	0.0028	0.0937	0.0061	0.38	123	0.27	1.032	0.012	1.037	0.023	1.049	0.075	99	98
57.1	1.7523	0.0649	0.1739	0.0027	0.86	5.7502	0.0886	0.0731	0.0031	0.0796	0.0097	1.02	110	0.21	1.034	0.015	1.028	0.024	1.016	0.085	100	101

6.1	1.8105	0.0680	0.1763	0.0022	0.39	5.6726	0.0704	0.0745	0.0030	0.1645	0.0079	1.05	120	0.48	1.047	0.012	1.049	0.024	1.055	0.077	99	99
7.1	1.8444	0.0507	0.1773	0.0018	0.87	5.6397	0.0582	0.0754	0.0021	0.0687	0.0030	0.34	245	0.20	1.052	0.010	1.061	0.018	1.080	0.055	99	97
62.1	1.8698	0.2047	0.1776	0.0059	0.17	5.6315	0.1872	0.0764	0.0103	0.1020	0.0439	1.24	21	0.19	1.054	0.032	1.070	0.073	1.105	0.267	98	95
50.1	1.8397	0.0510	0.1780	0.0024	0.65	5.6189	0.0752	0.0750	0.0022	0.0334	0.0051	0.23	181	0.09	1.056	0.013	1.060	0.018	1.068	0.059	99	98
19.1	1.8481	0.0736	0.1796	0.0039	0.19	5.5687	0.1203	0.0746	0.0034	0.1615	0.0129	0.21	116	0.46	1.065	0.021	1.063	0.026	1.059	0.090	100	100
29.1	1.8922	0.0622	0.1796	0.0033	0.83	5.5674	0.1014	0.0764	0.0027	0.1804	0.0089	0.75	93	0.48	1.065	0.018	1.078	0.022	1.106	0.069	98	96
14.1	1.9051	0.0462	0.1822	0.0031	0.67	5.4895	0.0922	0.0759	0.0020	0.2022	0.0222	0.22	356	0.46	1.079	0.017	1.083	0.016	1.091	0.053	99	98
49.1	1.9065	0.1046	0.1821	0.0030	0.53	5.4906	0.0915	0.0759	0.0044	0.1387	0.0163	0.51	71	0.32	1.079	0.016	1.083	0.036	1.093	0.117	99	98
16.1	1.9308	0.0516	0.1836	0.0032	0.78	5.4460	0.0956	0.0763	0.0023	0.5575	0.0116	0.22	222	1.57	1.087	0.018	1.092	0.018	1.102	0.059	99	98
56.1	2.0298	0.1413	0.1860	0.0045	0.26	5.3754	0.1303	0.0791	0.0063	0.1846	0.0214	1.81	34	0.48	1.100	0.024	1.126	0.048	1.175	0.166	97	93
13.1	2.0193	0.1078	0.1867	0.0031	0.33	5.3561	0.0894	0.0784	0.0045	0.2491	0.0248	0.87	66	0.79	1.103	0.017	1.122	0.036	1.158	0.114	98	95
37.1	1.9935	0.0725	0.1916	0.0037	0.07	5.2193	0.1001	0.0755	0.0030	0.2283	0.0138	0.56	79	0.66	1.130	0.020	1.113	0.025	1.081	0.082	101	104
17.1	1.6549	0.0399	0.1642	0.0027	0.81	6.0887	0.1005	0.0731	0.0019	0.1231	0.0026	0.14	338	0.33	0.980	0.015	0.991	0.016	1.016	0.054	98	96
27.1	2.0292	0.0633	0.1906	0.0034	0.58	5.2472	0.0930	0.0772	0.0025	0.1854	0.0091	0.42	120	0.48	1.125	0.018	1.125	0.021	1.127	0.065	99	99
1.1	1.7282	0.0472	0.1688	0.0017	0.72	5.9229	0.0606	0.0742	0.0021	0.0788	0.0070	0.15	266	0.23	1.006	0.010	1.019	0.018	1.048	0.056	98	95
12.1	1.5501	0.2015	0.1584	0.0051	0.62	6.3144	0.2042	0.0710	0.0107	0.1344	0.0343	2.98	38	0.33	0.948	0.029	0.951	0.079	0.957	0.289	99	99
52.1	1.6287	0.0665	0.1614	0.0027	0.55	6.1942	0.1024	0.0732	0.0033	0.0648	0.0092	0.99	88	0.20	0.965	0.015	0.981	0.026	1.019	0.093	98	94
25.1	0.8448	0.0515	0.0994	0.0026	0.21	10.0585	0.2581	0.0616	0.0043	0.1136	0.0127	0.54	105	0.32	0.611	0.015	0.622	0.028	0.661	0.149	98	92
40.1	1.1581	0.0709	0.1279	0.0021	0.95	7.8210	0.1285	0.0657	0.0042	0.1028	0.0323	2.33	115	0.15	0.776	0.012	0.781	0.032	0.796	0.128	99	97
23.1	1.2064	0.1164	0.1321	0.0047	0.15	7.5683	0.2718	0.0662	0.0077	0.1982	0.0381	1.72	35	0.49	0.800	0.027	0.804	0.054	0.813	0.241	99	98
5.1	1.3690	0.0657	0.1425	0.0020	0.66	7.0161	0.0998	0.0697	0.0038	0.3083	0.0160	0.59	117	0.99	0.859	0.011	0.876	0.028	0.918	0.105	98	93
28.1	1.5429	0.0430	0.1556	0.0026	0.89	6.4265	0.1055	0.0719	0.0021	0.1365	0.0060	1.22	237	0.38	0.932	0.014	0.948	0.017	0.983	0.058	98	94
1.1	0.6319	0.0381	0.0787	0.0014	0.13	12.7088	0.2261	0.0582	0.0040	0.1765	0.0166	2.14	104	0.43	0.488	0.008	0.497	0.024	0.539	0.152	98	90
23.1	0.7111	0.0210	0.0886	0.0011	0.87	11.2915	0.1374	0.0582	0.0020	0.0882	0.0201	0.00	321	0.27	0.547	0.006	0.545	0.012	0.539	0.074	100	101
13.1	1.3414	0.1158	0.1403	0.0047	0.50	7.1285	0.2386	0.0693	0.0066	0.0565	0.0529	1.08	41	0.09	0.846	0.026	0.864	0.049	0.909	0.220	97	93
17.1	1.6238	0.0421	0.1599	0.0019	0.25	6.2524	0.0757	0.0736	0.0022	0.0955	0.0089	0.41	202	0.20	0.956	0.011	0.979	0.017	1.031	0.063	97	92
6.1	1.7018	0.0513	0.1688	0.0020	0.10	5.9225	0.0705	0.0731	0.0024	0.0992	0.0043	0.67	124	0.25	1.006	0.011	1.009	0.019	1.017	0.066	99	98
18.1	1.7540	0.1503	0.1748	0.0059	0.61	5.7213	0.1947	0.0728	0.0080	0.4657	0.0297	0.71	22	1.15	1.038	0.033	1.029	0.058	1.008	0.248	100	103
35.1	0.6166	0.0196	0.0784	0.0013	0.78	12.7473	0.2134	0.0570	0.0019	0.0988	0.0115	19.39	295	0.24	0.487	0.008	0.488	0.012	0.492	0.073	99	99
45.1	0.7426	0.1325	0.0889	0.0032	0.40	11.2456	0.4036	0.0606	0.0125	0.3608	0.0446	1.02	47	0.80	0.549	0.019	0.564	0.080	0.624	0.421	97	88
41.1	0.8053	0.1805	0.0951	0.0042	0.35	10.5179	0.4657	0.0614	0.0159	0.0603	0.0479	7.86	30	0.16	0.585	0.025	0.600	0.104	0.654	0.479	97	89
54.1	1.1280	0.1580	0.1222	0.0046	0.41	8.1854	0.3049	0.0670	0.0107	0.1429	0.0384	1.06	29	0.35	0.743	0.026	0.767	0.074	0.837	0.343	96	88
30.1	1.4999	0.2657	0.1515	0.0087	0.13	6.5997	0.3811	0.0718	0.0156	0.1374	0.0695	7.37	11	0.24	0.909	0.049	0.930	0.110	0.980	0.449	97	92
36.1	1.4758	0.2043	0.1588	0.0071	0.73	6.2978	0.2805	0.0674	0.0130	0.1269	0.0700	3.35	18	0.10	0.950	0.040	0.921	0.083	0.850	0.393	103	111

31.1	1.7561	0.0742	0.1664	0.0035	0.33	6.0102	0.1281	0.0765	0.0036	0.1645	0.0139	0.94	65	0.48	0.992	0.020	1.029	0.028	1.109	0.099	96	89
60.1	1.7743	0.2101	0.1798	0.0060	0.10	5.5615	0.1866	0.0716	0.0103	0.1238	0.0348	6.30	19	0.38	1.066	0.033	1.036	0.077	0.974	0.281	102	109
21.1	1.1320	0.2825	0.1239	0.0095	0.63	8.0688	0.6181	0.0662	0.0210	0.1929	0.0937	3.09	18	0.53	0.753	0.055	0.769	0.128	0.814	0.501	97	92

315 4. Results

316 Cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging of 64 zircon crystals (Fig. 6) indicate size
 317 variation from 100 to 300 μm , but most crystals are 100–200 μm . Some crystals show
 318 rounded hedges, but many have irregular shapes; this is consistent with the immature nature
 319 of the coarse-sandstone. Rounding of the crystals was attributed to two processes: i)
 320 sedimentary abrasion during transport, and ii) preserved metamorphic rims and
 321 overgrowths (Fig. 5). The internal textures of the crystals is very complex, with cores often
 322 showing oscillatory zoning, surrounded by one or more metamorphic rims or recrystallized
 323 zoned patterns. Sector-zoned, relatively homogeneous grains as well as grains with more
 324 complex textures also occur. Chaotic textures are common trends in zircons from granulite
 325 facies rocks. Concentric zoning, when present, is rather irregular and resembles only
 326 weakly the parallel or regular geometry of zoned magmatic zircon. Distinct age populations
 327 could be identifying in the core and in metamorphic rims ranging from Late
 328 Mesoproterozoic to Cambrian times (Tab. 1 and Fig. 5).



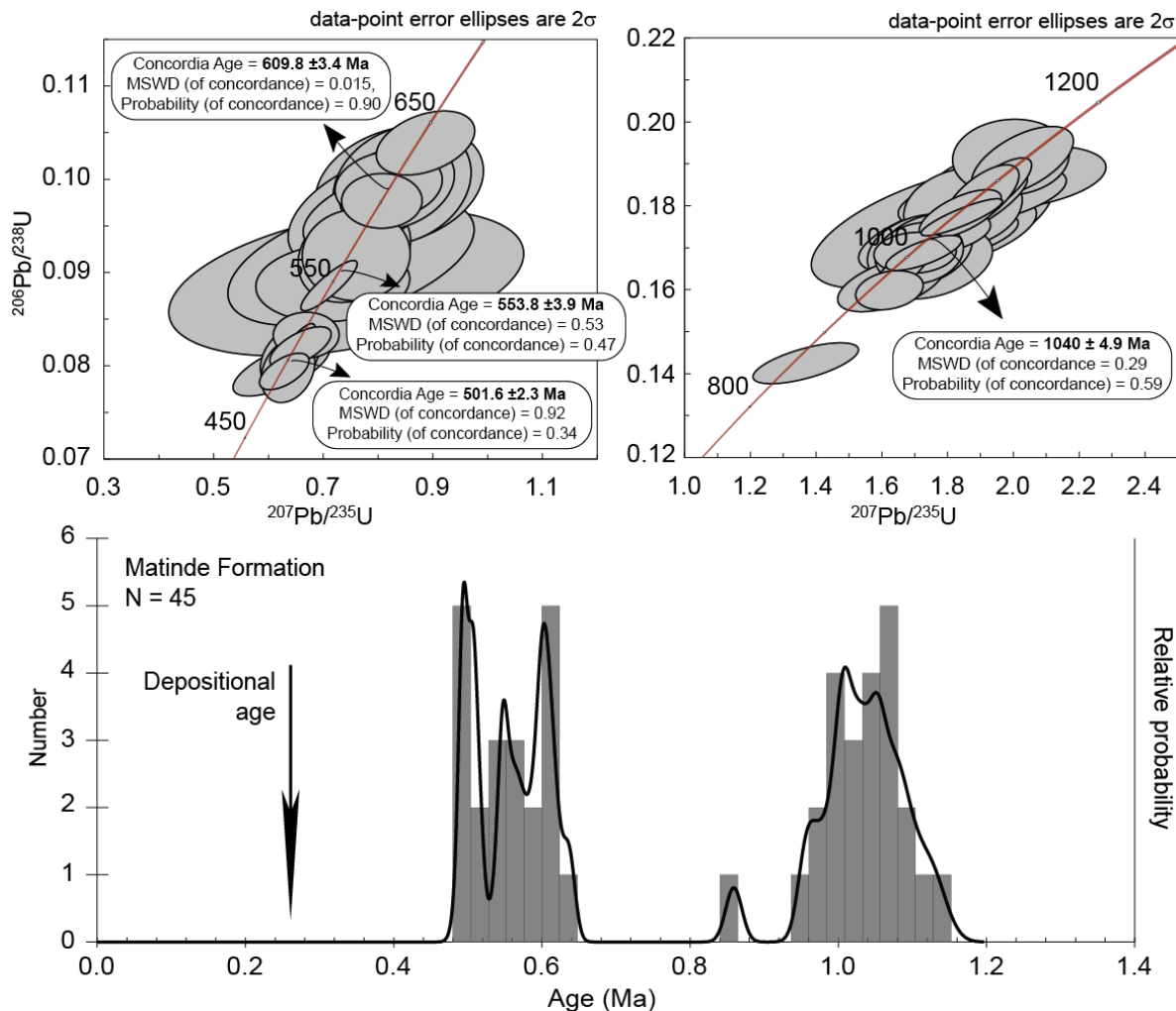
329
 330 Figure 5: Cathodoluminescence image of some zircon grains that are representative of the
 331 analytical results using LA-ICP-MS. The spots and measured U-Pb ages (Ma) are indicated.

332 The older age component is represented by 19 zircon grains providing Late
333 Mesoproterozoic ages ($1,005 \pm 17\text{Ma}$ to $1,130 \pm 20\text{Ma}$) with a concordant age of $1040 \pm$
334 4.9 Ma ($N = 7$) (Fig. 6). Th/U ratios of these grains are very distinct ranging from 0.09 to
335 1.57, which is related to the U content of each zircon grain varying from 22 to 356 ppm
336 (Tab. 1), being the highest Th/U ratios related to an increasing in the U and Th
337 concentrations. The zircons of this population are commonly rounded fragments of crystal,
338 but some preserve part of its prismatic form (Fig. 5). Well-developed thin oscillatory
339 zoning occur in several grains, sometimes surrounding earlier crystallization phases with no
340 internal texture. Homogeneous metamorphic rims are also preserved in a few grains.

341 A second population of zircon ages constraining the Early-Middle Neoproterozoic
342 times ($859 \pm 11\text{Ma}$ to $992 \pm 20\text{Ma}$) were identified from 5 zircon grains (Fig. 7), but did
343 not allow to define a concordia age. These grains show distinct internal textures indicating
344 well developed magmatic oscillatory growth in two crystals (Fig. 5). One crystal is
345 prismatic, but with no evident internal texture and one fragment of zircon showing sector-
346 zoning with two clear compositionally distinct areas, probably derived from a high-grade
347 metamorphic rocks (Fig. 5). A last zircon show two homogeneous recrystallization zones
348 around a elongated lighted nucleus evidencing a probable heritage zircon core. Th-U ratios
349 are between 0.20 to 0.99, while the U content range from 65 to 338 ppm (Tab. 1), which we
350 interpreted as magmatic ages, assuming the premises described above.

351 The younger age component from our data comprises the Late Neoproterozoic –
352 Cambrian ages, from $637 \pm 8\text{ Ma}$ to $493 \pm 5\text{Ma}$. This age population is registered in 21
353 zircon grains that show oscillatory growing and less metamorphic rims.
354 Cathodoluminescence imaging reveals both sector-zoned cores with thin overgrowths and
355 oscillatory zoned cores (Fig. 5). Local zircon resorption and reprecipitation, patchy zoning

356 and fractures disrupting original zoning and filled by zircon with low-trace elements
357 composition (Corfu et al., 2003; Fig. 5) are also observed. Three main peak ages could be
358 distinguished from this age component: (1) from 8 zircon grains we determine a magmatic
359 concordia age of 609.8 ± 3.4 Ma; (2) Six grains define a concordia age of 553.8 ± 3.9 Ma
360 referring to zircons with oscillatory growth; (3) An younger concordant age of 501.6 ± 2.3
361 Ma constrained from seven zircon grains mark the late high grade metamorphism of the
362 Pan-African Orogeny (Fig. 6). Th-U ratios are between 0.07 to 1.12 while the U content
363 ranges from 47 to 582 ppm (Tab. 1). These concentrations suggest that the ages obtained
364 are mostly magmatic, but a few grains that present Th/U ratios around 0.1, could be related
365 to metamorphic processes involved into their generation (Hartmann and Santos, 2004).



366

367 Figure 6: A) Concordia plots ($^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ - $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$) of all Late Neoproterozoic ages, with
 368 the position of three determined concordant ages: 501 ± 2.3 Ma (N = 7); 553.8 ± 3.9 Ma (N
 369 = 6); 609.8 ± 3.4 Ma (N = 8). B) Concordia plots ($^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ - $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$) of all Late
 370 Mesoproterozoic - Early Neoproterozoic ages with the position of one determined
 371 concordant ages of 1040 ± 4.9 Ma (N = 7). C) Histogram and relative density plot of all
 372 detrital ages obtained in this work.

373

374 5. Interpretation

375 The detrital zircon age spectra observed in the sample showed only older age's with
 376 respect to the depositional age that reflect the history of the underlying basement as
 377 expected in intracratonic settings (Cawood et al., 2012). Zircon morphology, internal

378 textures and ages provide insights into the geotectonic history of the underlying basement,
379 allowing the definition of four main age groups: i) 1,130-1,005 Ma; ii) 992-859 Ma; iii)
380 637-563 Ma; and iv) 549-493 Ma. The former and the latter are the most prominent
381 provenances of the Karoo sediments, highlighting two important events of crustal
382 generation, consumption and deformation of Rodinia and Gondwana (Pan-African
383 Orogeny) Supercontinents.

384 Paleocurrent measurements indicate an N-NW paleoflow for the fluvial sequences
385 of the Matinde Formation (Bicca et al., 2017). Since we collected immature sandstone, the
386 probable source areas are located somewhere in the south of the Moatize-Minjova Basin,
387 less than *ca.*200km (Hartmann et al., 2004) due to the preservation of the metamorphic
388 rims.

389 The first and older age group reflects the greater crustal component in the north of
390 Mozambique. They mostly reflect magmatic crystallization ages as evidenced by
391 oscillatory growth in the zircon grains, which are a common feature in this population. Late
392 Mesoproterozoic was an important moment of crustal generation everywhere in the distinct
393 terranes of northern Mozambique. These age spectrum falls in the age range of the Barue
394 Magmatic Arch (SW Nampula; Fig. 7), as also, in the provenance record of the Chimoio-
395 Macossa (SW Nampula) and Mungari nappes, which in turn received sediments from the
396 Bárue Magmatic Arch (Cháuque, 2012).

397 The ages between *ca.* 950 and 550 Ma do not present very wide distribution and
398 correspond to important periods of crustal geotectonic evolution in the north of
399 Mozambique. Manjate (2011) reports an U-Pb metamorphic age at 956 ± 38 Ma (MSWD =
400 0.39) for the orthogneisses of SW Nampula and Grantham et al. (2011) found an age of
401 $996.8 \text{ Ma} \pm 3.4 \text{ Ma}$ (MSWD = 2.3) for a migmatitic vein of the Chimoio Group

402 (paragneisses of SW Nampula). Similar ages are observed as metamorphic ages around *ca.*
403 940 Ma in the Unango and Marrupa Complexes (Bingen et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the
404 zircon ages clusters the data of Manjate (2015) for the Guro Suite/Mungari Garnet Granite
405 Migmatite/Chacocoma Granite zircon dating (Fig. 7). These suggests that Early
406 Neoproterozoic population ages probably represents a late magmatic and metamorphic
407 event associated to Rodinia amalgamation processes present in the Mesoproterozoic
408 basement rocks (Jacobs et al., 2008; Macey et al., 2013). On the other hand, the
409 crystallization ages around *ca.* 860 and 820 Ma (GTK Consortium, 2006; Chaúque, 2012;
410 Manjate, 2015) are positioned near a extension tectonic period and emplacement of the
411 protoliths of the Guro Suite, which possess a positive ϵ_{Nd} suggesting a strong mantle
412 contribution (Chaúque, 2012) and are related to the breakup of Rodinia Supercontinent. The
413 Mozambique Ocean closed during a protracted period of island-arc and microcontinent
414 accretion between *ca.* 850 and 620 Ma (Fritz et al., 2013).

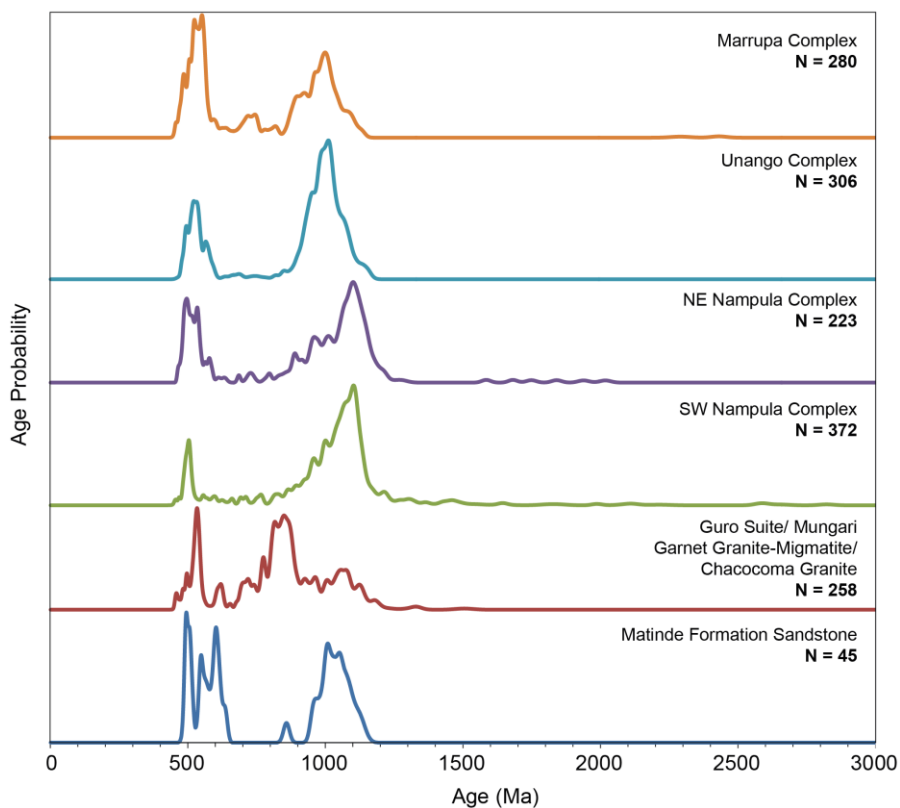
415 The ages around *ca.* 630 and 560 Ma refers to distinct events of deformation and
416 magmatism along the north of Mozambique basement. They are registered in the Monapo
417 Klippe (*ca.* 635 Ma), and interpreted as a major episode of granulite-facies metamorphism
418 and crust generation (Macey et al., 2013). SHRIMP zircon data from samples from alkaline
419 intrusions and mafic granulites in the same complex yield crystallization and metamorphic
420 ages of *ca.* 635 Ma and 570-590 Ma, respectively (Grantham et al., 2013).

421 The Cabo Delgado Nappe Complex (north of the Lurio Belt) was an extended crust
422 that formed adjacent to the Mozambique Ocean and experienced a *ca.* 650–620Ma
423 granulite-facies metamorphism (Fritz et al., 2013). They are also found in the Ocuá
424 Complex, which contains high-P granulite boudins dated at 557 ± 16 Ma, evidence for
425 deformation at least until 532 ± 13 Ma and abundant on 612 ± 6 to 504 ± 11 Ma felsic

426 plutons (Norconsult Consortium, 2007). Evidence of the closure of the Mozambique Ocean
427 is present on data from other sections of the East Africa Orogen indicated by accretion of
428 various volcanic arc and microcontinent fragments onto the margin of the Congo-Tanzania
429 Craton between 655 and 610 Ma (Meert, 2003; Collins and Pisarevsky, 2005; Jöns and
430 Schenk, 2008; Bingen et al., 2007). This age population is not strongly impressed in the
431 SW Nampula Complex and Guro Suite/Mungari Garnet Granite Migmatite/Chacocoma
432 Granite although they are present in the individual zircon ages presented by Chaúque
433 (2012) and Manjate (2015), but enough to correlate with our data. Additionally, the
434 provenance analyzes in the Alto-Benfica and Mecuburi Neoproterozoic-Cambrian basins in
435 detrital zircons using the U-Pb method (NE Mozambique, Thomas et al., 2010) indicated a
436 strong contribution of the northern Marrupa and Unango Complexes. The Mecuburi Group
437 present a high contribution of zircon dated at *ca.* 600 Ma however, they are practically
438 absent from Alto-Benfica age populations. The latter, show some ages > 1200 Ma (Thomas
439 et al., 2010), suggesting that the Moatize-Minjova Basin has a distinct provenance, since
440 these ages were not verified in their zircons.

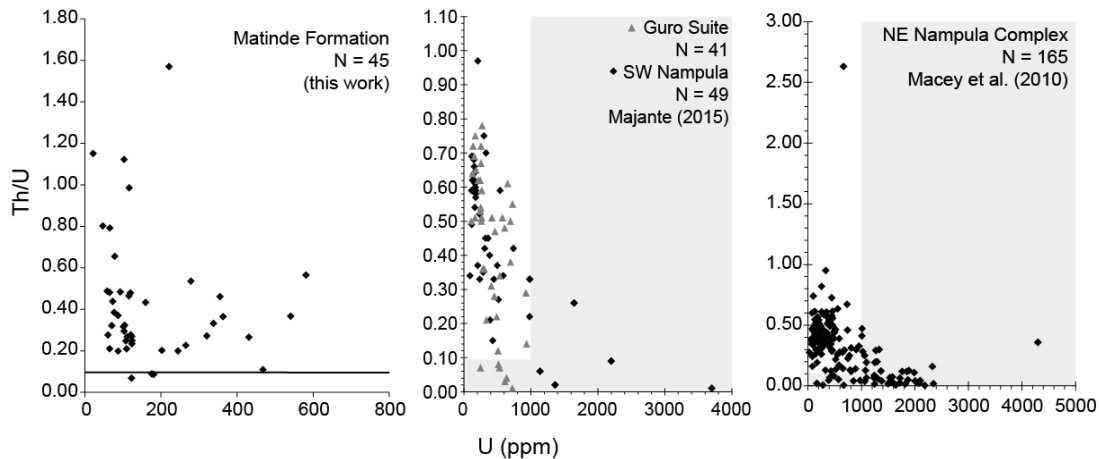
441 After the events of crustal thickening and klippening resulting from the Pan-African
442 Orogeny (*ca.* 550-480 Ma), the southern region of the Moatize-Minjova Basin probably
443 formed a topographic high along with the entire NE portion of Mozambique. These sites
444 have probably originated the headwaters of the rivers and tributaries that bathed the Proto-
445 Zambezi basin, as suggested by Key et al. (2015) and Bicca et al. (2017). The ages
446 contained between *ca.* 550 and 480 Ma are attributed to magmatic and metamorphic events
447 common in the region due to high-grade metamorphism produced by Pan-African Orogeny
448 and therefore are not good markers for determining sedimentary provenance (Fig. 7).

449 The concentrations and rates of Th/U of our data compared with a few available
 450 data from underlying assemblages interpreted as the main source region for the sediments
 451 allow defining some correlations. The NE Nampula Th/U rates are comparable to ours, but
 452 Th/U rates of < 0.1 were attribute to a metamorphic origin (Hartmann and Santos, 2004) as
 453 also the very high U concentrations (> 1000 ppm) which are reasonable common in that
 454 area and were not observed in the zircons from Matinde Formation (Fig. 8). This
 455 comparison strengthens the correlation of Matinde Formation sediments with SW Nampula
 456 Complex rocks, which has compositional characteristics close to those obtained in the
 457 Moatize-Minjova Basin zircons (Fig. 8).



458

459 Figure 7: Comparative age graphics of our sandstone sample from the Moatize-Minjova
 460 Basin with its probable source area. The data presented in the two below graphic comprise
 461 U-Pb dating of zircon grains (LA-ICP-MS and SHRIMP) from the surrounding basement of
 462 the basin and were compiled from Chaúque (2012) and Manjate (2015).



463

464 Figure 8: Relationship between U content and Th/U rates for the NE and NW Nampula
 465 complexes and of the Guro Suite. The dark line highlights the 0.1 limit of Th/U rates and
 466 light gray areas represent the less pronounced concentrations U concentrations in our data.

467

468 6. Conclusion

469 Provenance data from U-Pb LA-ICPMS dating of detrital zircon crystals showed to
 470 be as a reliable analytical technique to map sediment source regions from ancient fold and
 471 thrust belts underlying sedimentary basin. This information unveils to be relevant to
 472 reestablish the paleogeography allowing identifying the probable configuration of basement
 473 relief near this intracontinental rift. The choice of the sample in relation to the sand
 474 granulometry and tectono-stratigraphic relevance, allow obtaining a more comprehensive
 475 information of the magmatic and metamorphic processes in the northern Mozambique. A
 476 detailed and systematic analysis of zircon morphology and internal textures, U-Pb ages and
 477 Th/U rates allows defining the SW Nampula and the Guro Suite/Mungari Garnet Granite
 478 Migmatite/Chacocoma Granite (W-SW of the basin) as the main source areas during
 479 Permian Triassic sedimentation in our sample from the Moatize-Minjova Basin. The data
 480 revealed a strong contribution of Late Mesoproterozoic ages, which constrain the greater
 481 magmatic and metamorphic ages of the basement from northern Mozambique. A Late

482 Neoproterozoic-Cambrian age population, reflecting magmatic and high metamorphic ages,
483 was provided by the large overprint of the Pan-African Orogeny. Nevertheless, it was the
484 less pronounced zircon grain ages that allowed restricting a narrower source region.

485 The ages between ca. 950 Ma to 550 Ma are not prominent in northwestern
486 Mozambique basement rocks, especially ages around ca 630-600 Ma. This moment refer to
487 a distinct period of high-grade metamorphism and little magmatism associated with the
488 closure of the Mozambique Ocean and mostly preserved in Cabo Delgado, Mugeba and
489 Monapo Klippens of NE Mozambique. However, they are present as individual zircon ages
490 in the SW Nampula Complex and Guro Suite/Mungari Garnet Granite
491 Migmatite/Chacocoma Granite associations, which must have being the major source area
492 for the Moatize-Minjova Basin during Permian-Triassic sedimentation. The ages between
493 *ca.* 950 and 820 Ma are also well documented in the established provenance region.

494 Further investigations are needed to improve our data and map local and regional
495 variations in provenance pattern in different stratigraphic levels and sites in all the Karoo
496 basins from northern Mozambique. These would allow a more precise definition of
497 paleogeomorphology evolution of the Precambrian-Cambrian basement rocks through
498 Phanerozoic.

499

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1 **Mesozoic-Cenozoic Denudation History of NW Mozambique Orogenic Belts by**
2 **Apatite Fission Track Thermochronology: Implications on Rift Evolution Across**
3 **Southeast African Margin**

4

5 Marcos Müller Bicca^{a*}6 Andrea Ritter Jelinek^a7 Ruy Paulo Philipp^a

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15 Brazil.

16

17 **Highlights**

18 1 - Phanerozoic compressive/extensional tectonics affect the NW Mozambique Orogenic
19 Belts;

20 2 – Differential denudation controlled landscape evolution in NW Mozambique
21 basement;

22 3 – Jurassic-Cenozoic denudation patterns induced by the Africa-Antarctica rifting;

23 4 - Dynamic topography influenced Cenozoic denudation rates in NW Mozambique;

24

25

26 Abstract

27 The southern African plate has underwent several processes of horizontal and
28 vertical stress since Permian times attributed to Gondwanides orogenesis and to mantle
29 plumes upwelling from the Gondwana separation stages, respectively. Since about 30
30 Ma the plume related to the East Africa Rift system affects the NE Africa leading to the
31 development of topographically high lands affecting denudation history in all region.

32 The NW Mozambique central apatite fission track ages range from Mesozoic to
33 Cenozoic times and an accumulated denudation thickness of about 2 - 3.5 km since
34 Upper Triassic times. The very early denudation stages of NW Mozambique were
35 marked by very low and local denudation rates (1-10 m/Ma) reaching about to 500 m
36 thick of eroded material until Lower Cretaceous. The larges amonts have being eroded
37 from since Lower Cretaceous with rates of 3-17 m/Ma until Middle Paleocene when
38 high denudation rates of 31-47 m/Ma bring the samples to the present conditions.

39 The early cooling events are associated with erosion produced by extensional /
40 transtractive processes associated with the early break-up stages of Gondwana recorded
41 in several rift basins with thick volcano-sedimentary sequences from Karoo Supergroup.
42 This period also marks the drift of Madagascar through the Davie Fracture Zone from
43 the coast of Tanzania to the coast of Mozambique and the opening of the Mozambique
44 and Somalia basins. The Upper Jurassic and Upper Cretaceous were a period of great
45 development of the Indian ocean and the start of the N-S drift of Antarctica in relation
46 to the African plate marked in most of the maximum paleotemperatures observed in the
47 region.

48 From Lower Cretaceous to Paleocene high amounts of denudation was attributed
49 to the development of the African margin and the reconfiguration of inland drainage
50 patterns. A significant increase of the cooling rates (1.17 to 0.88 °C/Ma) implying in the

51 denudation of about 1.5 to 2 km thick from the beginning of the Neogene to the Recent
52 times. These cooling event was related to dynamic topography induced by the East
53 African Rift mantle plume upwelling, which has been active since the Paleogene period.

54

55 **Keywords:** Apatite Fission Track, NW Mozambique, Denudation rates, East Africa Rift
56 System, Gondwana break-up

57

58 **1. Introduction**

59 The architecture of the continental margin of northern Mozambique shows a
60 close relationship to pre-existing Pan-African structures of the East African–Antarctic
61 Orogen (Jacobs and Thomas, 2004; Fig. 1A) which plays an important role in margin
62 configuration and landscape evolution (Emmel et al., 2011). Several crustal
63 readjustments were observed during Phanerozoic period registered as brittle/ductile
64 structures and sedimentation patterns all over south-central Africa (Catuneanu et al.,
65 2005). Gondwana break-up was preceded by intracontinental Permian-Triassic rifting,
66 marked by the deposition of thick sequences of Karoo Supergroup along south-central
67 Africa (Catuneanu et al., 2005; Bicca et al., 2017), ending with a magmatic event (basalt
68 flows) that took place during the final phase of Gondwana stability between 205 and
69 175 Ma (Salman and Abdula, 1995). After that, the opening of the Indian Ocean sea
70 floor was marked by the southward drifting of the East Antarctica/Madagascar/India
71 Seychelles block guided by the Davie transform fault (Fig. 1B) away from East Africa
72 between *ca.* 158 and 119 Ma (Salman and Abdula, 1995; Emmel et al., 2014).

73 The ongoing of Gondwana break-up led to the high denudation rates on the East
74 Africa - Antarctica Orogen (Daszinnies et al., 2009; Emmel et al., 2011; Emmel et al.,
75 2014; Bauer et al., 2016) and provide the development of distinct onshore and offshore

76 basins along east Africa passive margin. These basins are mostly filled with sediments
77 discharged since Jurassic times (post-Gondwana disruption) over Karoo igneous rocks
78 (Salman and Abdula, 1995; Reeves, 2000; Mahanjane, 2012; Castelino et al., 2015).

79 The study of exhumation and landscape evolution of Precambrian belts using
80 low temperature thermochronological methods has become a robust tool for the
81 improvement of regional tectonic models. With this in mind we used the apatite fission-
82 track dating method to reconstruct the low-temperature cooling history (120–60 °C) of
83 the Precambrian basement rocks of northwestern and central Mozambique (Fig. 1C).
84 The aim of this study was to identify distinct denudation patterns on the hinterland
85 determining the thermal ages and denudation rates of the Precambrian basement
86 associations which contributed to sedimentation of intracratonic rift basins and with the
87 depositional history in the north of Mozambique Basin. Therefore, we collected 27 rock
88 samples from Mozambican shield, distributed comprehensively in the whole area in
89 order to understand all regional structures and geotectonic domains identifying all
90 differential denudation patterns.

91

92 **2. Geological Settings**

93 The northern and central region of Mozambique comprises a wide range of
94 Precambrian and Cambrian igneous and metamorphic rocks formed in two distinct
95 orogenic periods concerning the formation of the Rodinia and Gondwana
96 Supercontinents (Norconsult Consortium, 2007). These associations can be subdivided
97 into a northern, central and a southern provinces, by a series of E-W, N-S and NW-SE
98 ductile crustal scale structures reactivated in a brittle regime during the Phanerozoic,
99 caused by far compressive stress fields in the south-southwestern margin of Gondwana

100 (Fig. 1C; Castaing, 1991; Salman and Abdula, 1995; Norconsult Consortium, 2007;
101 Bicca et al., 2017).

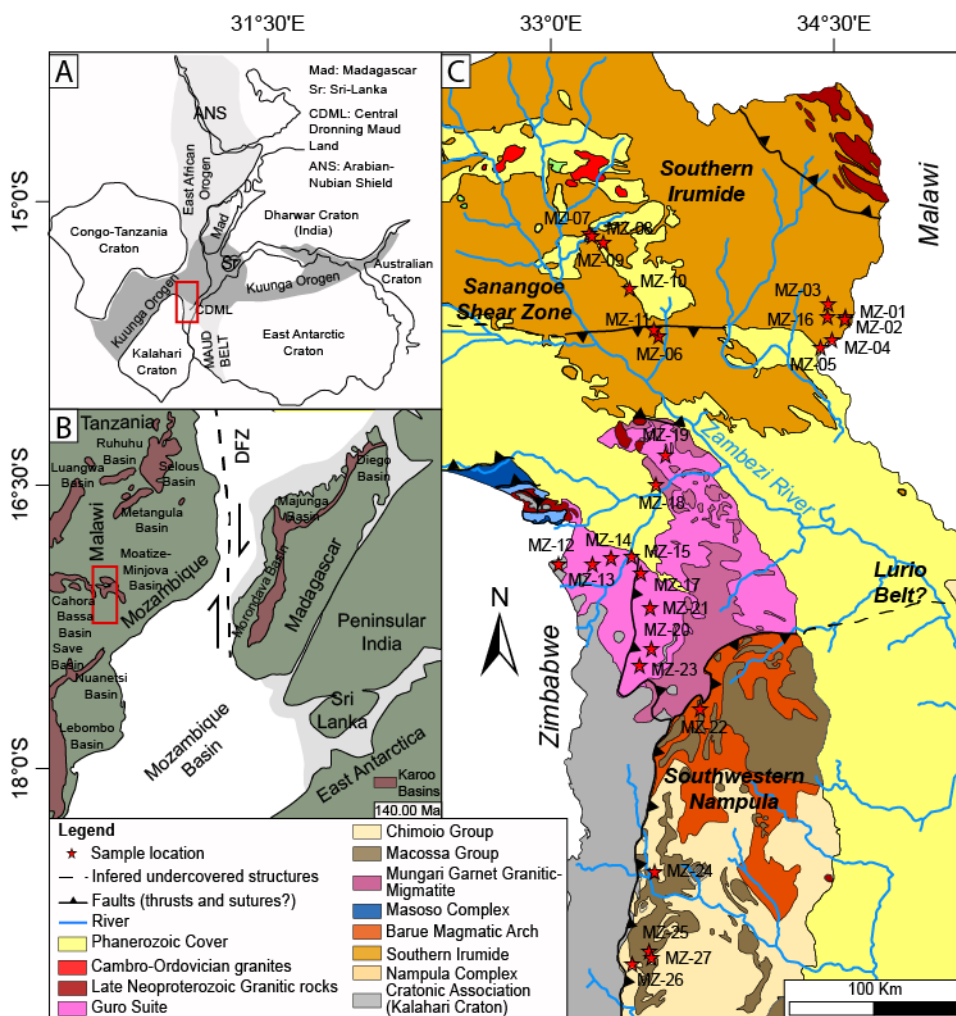
102 The south and central provinces are delimited by an ENE-trending structure
103 attributed as a probable southern continuation of the Lurio Belt and the Sanangoe Shear
104 Zone (Fig. 1C) (Norconsult Consortium, 2007; Jacobs et al., 2008; Viola et al., 2008;
105 Bingen et al., 2009; Ueda et al., 2012). The ENE-trending structure converge
106 southwards and mark the tectonic contact between the Southern Nampula Complex and
107 the Kalahari Craton associations (Chaúque et al., 2017).

108 In the central area there are mostly Neoproterozoic ortho- and paragneisses
109 which protoliths are related to juvenile magmatism of Rodinia break-up and marginal
110 sedimentary basins deformed and thrust during Pan-African Orogeny (Chaúque, 2012;
111 Manjate, 2015). These associations are surrounded by the sequences of the Karoo
112 Supergroup (Late Carboniferous - Middle Jurassic) that comprises continental
113 sediments and a bimodal magmatism erupted between 195-180 Ma attributed to an early
114 aborted stage of Gondwana breakup (Salman and Abdula, 1995; Reeves, 2000) and
115 younger igneous and sedimentary sequences related to the post-break-up period (Late
116 Jurassic - Recent). They are hosted into E-W and NW-SE rift basins that compound the
117 Zambezi Valley basins drained by the Zambezi River and its tributaries comprise one of
118 the greater actual fluvial systems of Africa (Castaing, 1991; Norconsult Consortium,
119 2007; Fernandes et al., 2015; Bicca et al., 2017). The Zambezi delta is responsible for
120 carry sediments into the offshore Mozambique Basin (Fig. 1B).

121 The Sanangoe Shear Zone (SSZ) cut off the study area over a distance of about
122 350 km (Fig. 1C) and represents a probable Pan-African connection between West and
123 South Gondwana (Fig. 1A; Macey et al., 2013). In the north of this structure occur the
124 Southern Irumide Belt (Fritz et al., 2013) comprising a large land mass of

125 Mesoproterozoic association intruded by Late Neoproterozoic granitoids and
126 structurally overprinted by Pan-African Orogeny. Just south of the Sanangoe Shear
127 Zone there is a large and merely NW-SE elongated segment of the Southern Irumide
128 Belt that corresponds to a stratiform gabbro-anorthositic association tectonically
129 transported with a SE-vergent during Pan-African Orogeny.

130 The great structures were affected by brittle reactivations under a sinistral
131 transtensional regime induced by compressive stress fields in south-southwest
132 Gondwana margin propagating throw NW-SE Zambezi pre-transform fault system from
133 Late-Carboniferous to Middle Triassic. These reactivations are registered by periods of
134 intense subsidence in the related rift basins generating great accommodation space for
135 sedimentation and controlling depositional patterns and Mesozoic magmatic events
136 (Castaing, 1991; Bicca et al., 2017). After that, the Gondwana break up led to large
137 sedimentation patterns and tectonics within the extensional sedimentary basins along
138 the east African margin basins which mostly show a continuous post-Jurassic record of
139 sediment deposition (Salman and Abdula, 1995), reflecting high denudation histories in
140 the onshore Mozambique basement (Salman and Abdula, 1995; Reeves, 2000;
141 Mahanjane, 2012; Castelino et al., 2015).



142
 143 Figure 1: A) Reconstruction of Gondwana during the Cambrian after Meert (2003), with
 144 the locations of the East African Orogen and Kuunga Orogen shown. B) Gondwana at
 145 *ca.* 140 Ma after the initial break-up between Madagascar and East Africa with Karoo
 146 basins of East Africa and Madagascar (after Emmel et al., 2014). C) Simplified
 147 geotectonic map of northwestern and central Mozambique with sample location (After
 148 Norconsult Consortium, 2007 and Macey et al., 2013).

149

150 The Mozambique Basin (MB) covers the onshore and offshore parts of central
 151 and southern areas of the Mozambique margin (Fig. 1B). The MB comprises one of the
 152 oldest extensional sedimentary basins developed along the eastern African margin and
 153 the stratigraphic record of the basin is dominated by marine deposits changing gradually
 154 from deepest to shallower through time (Castelino et al., 2015). This basin registers a
 155 Mesozoic sedimentation of 5-10 cm/kyr and 1-3 cm/kyr rates during Paleogene being

156 the former associated with high subsidence rates in the basin until Early Cretaceous
157 times. The decrease in sedimentation rates from *ca.* 140 Ma until *ca.* 90 Ma is attributed
158 to tectonic uplift in the onshore African basement which in consequence led to its rapid
159 denudation increasing in the sediment influx into the basin until *ca.* 60 Ma. This uplift
160 would be related to an epeirogenic event with Kimberlite emplacement in the African
161 continent (Patridge and Maud, 1987). Another period of low sedimentation rates occur
162 in the Low Paleogene attributed to a sediment-starved basin during a relative quiet
163 tectonic phase onshore, but a tectonic uplift in the onshore basement around 30 Ma
164 leading to another fast exhumation period onshore high sedimentation rates until
165 Quaternary (Castelino et al., 2015).

166

167 **2.1 Thermochronological Constraints**

168 In the NW region of Mozambique apatite fission track (AFT) data are restricted
169 to the Moatize-Minjova Basin which hosts the volcano-sedimentary sequences of Karoo
170 Supergroup and also younger volcano-sedimentary sequences (Fig. 2). Four samples
171 from two wells (*ca.* 500 m each) of the sedimentary rocks of Karoo Supergroup were
172 analyzed providing a geothermal paleogradient of 40 ° C/ km and apatite fission track
173 ages between 146 to 84 Ma (Fernandes et al., 2015). According to the models, peak
174 burial temperatures were attained shortly after deposition (3-10 Ma) and indicates two
175 episodes of cooling and exhumation. The first between 240 and 230 Ma implying 2500
176 and 3000 m of denudation, while the second from 6 Ma onwards implying 1000 and
177 1500 m of denudation. The first denudation period was attributed to tectonic
178 reactivation related to the Cape Fold Belt in South Africa and the latter to the southward
179 propagation of the East African Rift System into Mozambique (Fernandes et al., 2015).

180 On the other hand, in the NE Mozambique there are a large spectrum of
181 thermochronometric data for the basement provinces north and south of the Lurio Belt
182 (Fig. 2; Daszinnies, 2006; Daszinnies et al., 2009; Emmel et al., 2011; Bauer et al.,
183 2016). According to these data the region underwent differential post-orogenic thermal
184 history (Emmel et al., 2011) as defined from titanite, zircon and apatite fission track
185 data. The first two fission track methods provided ages north of the Lurio Belt ranging
186 between *ca.* 578 Ma and 310 Ma, while in the south they are constrained between *ca.*
187 460 Ma and 219 Ma. Apatite fission track analysis from samples in the north provide
188 ages between *ca.* 326 Ma and 91 Ma contrasting with younger ages to south (147 to 59
189 Ma; Fig. 2), suggesting that the southern province experience highest exhumation rates
190 during Gondwana break-up. Thermal ages determine that the northern basement
191 characterize rapid post orogenic cooling and exhumed to present levels during the
192 Paleozoic, although the southern basement only underwent slow post-orogenic cooling.
193 (Emmel et al., 2011).

194 Additionally, thermal activities during Cretaceous times was also described by Eby
195 et al. (1995) studying the Cretaceous Chilwa Alkaline Province of southern Malawi (Fig.
196 2). These authors presented K-Ar in amphibole and titanite fission-track ages indicating
197 that igneous activity occurred in distinct periods starting at *ca.* 133 Ma with thermal
198 igneous activity ending at *ca.* 113 Ma with the emplacement of large syenite-peralkaline
199 granite plutons. The apatite fission-track ages and track-length measurements indicated
200 that the emplacement of the large syenite-granite pluton caused local doming, leading to
201 a rapid exhumation rate. However, more distal plutons show a slower cooling rate,
202 suggesting that they were on the flanks of the local uplift and more deeply buried. These
203 authors interpreted the Chilwa magmatism produced by crustal extension which
204 reactivate pre-existing orogenic anisotropies leading to decompressional melting.

205 Similar K-Ar ages are described by alkaline rocks in NW Mozambique lying between
206 *ca.* 106-166 Ma (GTK Consortium, 2006).

207 Further north of the study area, Van der Beek et al. (1998) identified from AFT
208 data, fast cooling and denudation processes on the flanks of Malawi and Rukwa rifts
209 (Fig. 2) during the periods of 250-200 Ma, *ca.* 150 Ma and \leq 40-50 Ma. These present
210 correlation with different sedimentation and rifting processes in the basin associated to
211 the rift, where erosion, tectonic and isostatic rebound would be responsible for the
212 reconfiguration of the surface during these events. The first interval corresponds to the
213 final processes of erosion and deposition of the Karoo Supergroup, while in *ca.* 150 Ma
214 occurs a reactivation of the rift separating Gondwana. Finally, the event between \leq 40-
215 50 Ma was interpreted as the result of the flexural isostatic response of the lithosphere
216 to extensional unloading during rifting.

217 Through the Limpopo Belt (at the south of the study area, Fig. 2; Belton and
218 Haab, 2010) extensive regions experienced kilometer-scale exhumation at around 130
219 Ma and 90 Ma (Fig. 2). These period marks the strike-slip motion of the local fault
220 patterns in this region due to the breakup of Gondwana as also igneous intrusions at *ca.*
221 120 Ma and *ca.* 90 Ma and demonstrated that the sedimentation and subsidence rates on
222 the Mozambique margin are in agreement with this data.

234 The analytical procedures were performed at Rio Grande do Sul Federal
235 University. The apatite grains were concentrated by conventional magnetic, heavy
236 liquid and hand-picking techniques and mounted in epoxy resin. Afterwards, the mounts
237 were polished and etched, using 5.5 M HNO₃ at 21 °C for 20s to reveal the spontaneous
238 fission tracks (Ketcham et al., 2007). The apatite mounts were covered with mica sheets
239 to obtain the fission track ages using the external detector method (Gleadow, 1981).
240 Neutron irradiation was performed at the FRM-II reactor in Garching (TU München,
241 Germany). After irradiation, the mica detectors were etched with 48% HF for 18 min to
242 reveal the induced fission tracks.

243 Fission-track counting was performed with a Leica DM6000 Microscope at
244 1000x magnification. The fission track ages were calculated using the zeta calibration
245 approach (Hurford, 1990) with CN5 dosimeter glass and the Durango apatite age
246 standard. At least 20 grains were counted per sample; while 100 horizontal confined
247 tracks were measured for the track length distribution (Gleadow et al., 1986; Gallagher
248 et al., 1998), as its orientation relative to the c-axis. Commonly a hundred or more
249 confined tracks were observed and measured in the samples, but some did not have the
250 same abundance. Yet we decided to retain them nonetheless due to their agreement with
251 the nearby samples that do have good-quality measurements. The ages are expressed as
252 central ages with percent variation (Galbraith and Laslett, 1993). Throughout this study,
253 fission track age errors are quoted at the 1 σ confidence level and were derived by the
254 conventional method (Green, 1981). For each apatite grain analyzed, a mean value for
255 the kinetic parameter Dpar (Donelick et al., 2005) was determined from five
256 measurements. The χ^2 -squared test was used to quantify age homogeneity (Galbraith
257 and Laslett, 1993) using the software “RadialPlotter” (Vermeesch, 2009).

258 Thermal history modeling was carried out using the QTQt software (Gallagher,
259 2012) with the multi-kinetic annealing model of Ketcham et al. (2007). The priors on
260 the general time-temperature were set by the software based on the ages observed in
261 each sample. Each inversion model was run at 100,000 Burnin and 100,000 Post-burn-
262 in iterations to provide more stable solutions (see discussion in Gallagher, 2012).
263 Denudation histories were based on geothermal gradients estimated for the African
264 plate. We assume a constant and linear geothermal gradient over geological times and
265 suppose that the geothermal gradient is linear (25 °C/km; Martinelli et al., 1995).

266

267 **4. Results**

268 AFT ages and confined mean track length (MTL) measurements from the
269 basement samples are presented in Table 1. The central AFT ages do not present a clear
270 correlation with the altitude sampled and no vertical profile match was obtained,
271 suggesting that these samples have experienced a complicated thermal history (Fig. 3A).
272 The mean confined fission track lengths against the AFT ages hourly present a
273 boomerang shape (Fig. 3B) indicating differential denudation patterns (Gallagher and
274 Brown, 1997) as also medium to high standard deviation distributions (Fig. 3C)
275 suggesting that all samples register a long residence time within the partial annealing
276 zone.

277 Broadly speaking, AFT central ages (Table 1; Fig. 4A) measured from the
278 basement rocks ranges from Middle Triassic (225 ± 15 Ma) to Upper Cretaceous ($83 \pm$
279 9 Ma) and the mean confined track lengths obtained from 27 samples range from $9.67 \pm$
280 0.52 μm to 13.13 ± 0.16 μm , with track length distributions predominantly unimodal.
281 All central AFT ages passed in the χ^2 indicating one age population. The Dpar values
282 (Table 1 and Fig. 3D) indicate a reasonably similar chemical compositions (> 1.75 μm)

283 and relatively chlorine-rich apatite grains with a higher resistance to annealing
284 (Donelick et al., 2005).

285 The oldest ages are dominantly located at the extreme northwest of the area (Fig.
286 4A) referring to the South Irumide Belt region (mostly NW), also presenting the smaller
287 lengths measured (*ca.* 10 μm ; Fig. 3C and 4A). Nevertheless, the largest lengths (> 10
288 μm) occur around the regional structures, predominantly in the southern region
289 (Southwest Nampula Complex). This brief variation in the confined track lengths
290 indicates that samples near the structural trends are fastly denuded.

291 Thermal history models for samples of the northernmost area were modeled in
292 three major groups being one to the northeast and the other two to the northwest. The
293 choice of the samples to be grouped was based mainly on the obtained results in their
294 individual thermal histories and their geographical position (Fig. 4). The other samples
295 were also pooled based on the same principles as described below.

296 Samples from Southern Irumide NE-SW transect (Fig. 1C; Fig. 4 and 4A) near
297 the East African Rift System, indicate a maximum paleotemperature of 99 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 136
298 Ma and show a slow cooling pattern until 10 Ma at a temperature of 64 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Fig. 4 and
299 4A). Thereafter, the samples suffers a rapidly cooled to present surface conditions. On
300 the other hand, the samples of the Southern Irumide north and NW-SE transect (Fig.
301 1C) record two distinct cooling behavior. Samples MZ-7 and MZ-8 (Fig. 4, 4B and 4C)
302 show the oldest AFT ages of the whole area (225 ± 15 Ma and 216 ± 15 Ma,
303 respectively) and indicate a very long time of residence into the partial annealing zone
304 with moderate reduced mean fission track length of 9.96 ± 0.24 μm and 10.86 ± 0.16
305 μm , respectively. Accelerated cooling until present day surface conditions was only
306 achieved in the latter *ca.* 50 Ma.

307

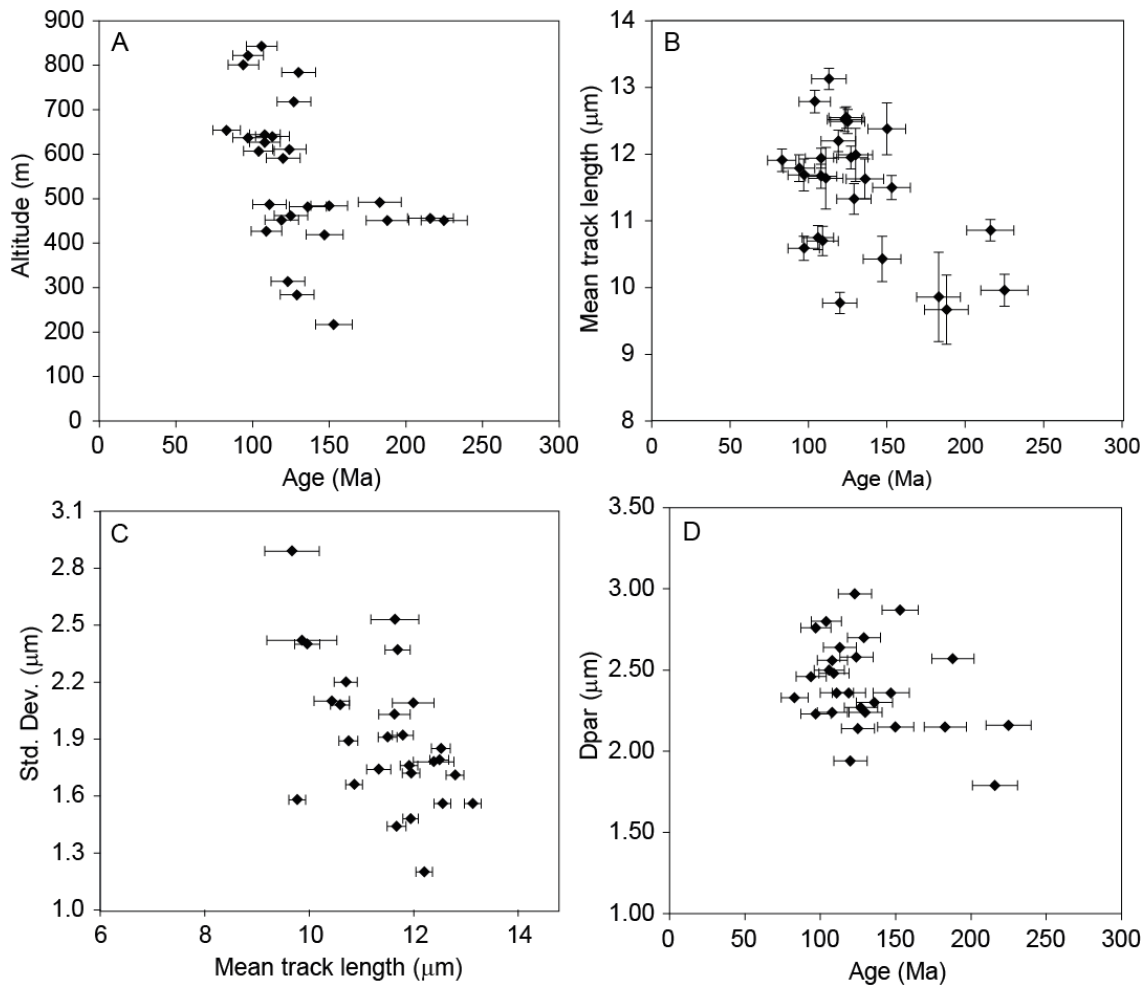
308 Table 1: Apatite fission track data from the northwestern Mozambique.

Sample	Elevation (m)	Rock type	N	ρ_s (Ns) ($\times 10^5$)	ρ_i (Ni) ($\times 10^5$)	ρ_d (Nd) ($\times 10^5$)	P (χ^2) (%)	U Content (ppm)	Age* \pm 1σ (Ma)	Dpar (μm)	n	Mean track length (μm) $\pm 1\sigma$	Std. Dev. (μm)
MZ-01	843	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	27.2 (471)	39.0 (674)	9.30 (9302)	98.0	53.2	106 \pm 10	2.50	113	10.75 \pm 0.18	1.89
MZ-02	801	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	6.36 (238)	10.4 (390)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	14.2	94 \pm 10	2.46	92	11.79 \pm 0.20	1.92
MZ-03	822	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	7.25 (356)	11.6 (572)	9.30 (9302)	81.0	15.9	97 \pm 10	2.76	100	11.69 \pm 0.24	2.37
MZ-04	637	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	13.2 (583)	21.7 (955)	9.30 (9302)	72.0	29.6	97 \pm 10	2.23	127	10.59 \pm 0.18	2.08
MZ-05	451	Metagabbro	17	11.2 (126)	9.38 (106)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	12.8	188 \pm 14	2.57	31	9.67 \pm 0.52	2.89
MZ-06	427	Milonite	20	8.61 (124)	13.5 (195)	9.30 (9302)	87.0	18.5	109 \pm 10	2.48	100	10.70 \pm 0.22	2.20
MZ-07	451	Gabbro	20	21.3 (494)	13.1 (305)	8.14 (16276)	48.0	20.5	225 \pm 15	2.16	102	9.96 \pm 0.24	2.40
MZ-08	456	Monzogranite	20	26.6 (705)	15.9 (421)	8.14 (16276)	88.0	24.8	216 \pm 15	1.79	108	10.86 \pm 0.16	1.66
MZ-09	487	Monzogranite	20	21.0 (1791)	26.1 (2223)	8.14 (16276)	0.0	40.7	111 \pm 11	2.36	30	11.64 \pm 0.46	2.53
MZ-10	492	Garnet mafic granilite	20	10.2 (423)	8.07 (335)	8.14 (16276)	40.0	12.6	183 \pm 14	2.15	13	9.86 \pm 0.67	2.42
MZ-11	419	Monzogranite	20	31.3 (1100)	30.9 (1089)	8.14 (16276)	0.0	48.3	147 \pm 12	2.36	39	10.43 \pm 0.34	2.10
MZ-12	611	Tonalitic-thronjemitic gneiss	20	19.9 (299)	24.0 (360)	9.30 (9302)	96.0	32.8	124 \pm 11	2.58	100	12.55 \pm 0.16	1.56
MZ-13	482	Tonalitic-thronjemitic gneiss	20	15.5 (163)	17.0 (179)	9.30 (9302)	97.0	23.3	136 \pm 12	2.30	46	11.63 \pm 0.30	2.03
MZ-14	452	Tonalitic-thronjemitic gneiss	20	14.8 (124)	18.5 (155)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	25.2	119 \pm 11	2.36	56	12.20 \pm 0.16	1.20
MZ-15	284	Sienogranitic-Gneiss	20	7.60 (136)	9.72 (174)	9.30 (9302)	99.0	13.3	129 \pm 11	2.70	57	11.33 \pm 0.23	1.74
MZ-16	718	Quartz Diorite	20	11.9 (179)	14.0 (212)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	19.2	127 \pm 11	2.27	103	11.95 \pm 0.17	1.72
MZ-17	462	Granite-Gneiss with garnet	20	26.5 (459)	32.2 (557)	9.30 (9302)	99.0	44.0	125 \pm 11	2.14	100	12.49 \pm 0.18	1.79
MZ-18	217	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	10.1 (325)	10.3 (331)	9.30 (9302)	80.0	14.0	153 \pm 12	2.87	109	11.50 \pm 0.18	1.91
MZ-19	314	Tonalitic Gneiss	20	11.3 (263)	14.8 (346)	9.30 (9302)	69.0	20.3	123 \pm 11	2.97	102	12.52 \pm 0.18	1.85
MZ-20	627	Gn. Sienogr.	20	37.9 (629)	52.3 (868)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	71.4	108 \pm 10	2.56	100	11.94 \pm 0.15	1.48
MZ-21	591	Leucogranite	20	28.2 (463)	37.4 (613)	9.30 (9302)	90.0	50.4	120 \pm 11	1.94	101	9.77 \pm 0.16	1.58
MZ-22	640	Granite	20	18.2 (329)	24.5 (444)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	33.5	113 \pm 11	2.64	100	13.13 \pm 0.16	1.56
MZ-23	784	Granite-gnaiss	20	16.3 (294)	19.2 (346)	9.30 (9302)	79.0	26.2	130 \pm 11	2.24	27	11.99 \pm 0.40	2.09
MZ-24	484	Granite	20	5.36 (105)	5.61 (110)	9.30 (9302)	98.0	7.7	150 \pm 12	2.15	21	12.38 \pm 0.39	1.78

MZ-25	607	Ortogneiss	20	17.5 (307)	25.5 (447)	9.30 (9302)	100.0	34.9	104 ± 10	2.80	100	12.79 ± 0.17	1.71
MZ-26	644	Ortogneiss	20	8.09 (161)	12.1 (240)	9.30 (9302)	94.0	16.5	108 ± 10	2.24	62	11.67 ± 0.18	1.44
MZ-27	654	Ortogneiss	20	18,9 (347)	35.0 (644)	9.30 (9302)	96.0	47.8	83 ± 9	2.33	102	11.91 ± 0.17	1.76

N: number of grains analysed to determine track densities; ρ_s : measured spontaneous track density; NS: number of spontaneous tracks counted ; ρ_i : measured induced track density; Ni: number of induced tracks counted; ρ_d : track density measured in external detector adjacent to glass dosimeter during irradiation; Nd: number of tracks counted in determining ρ_d ; P (χ^2): probability of obtaining observed χ^2 value for n degrees of freedom (n = number of crystals -1); n: number of confined tracks lengths measured. * Apatite ages calculated using a zeta of 320.2 for CN5 glass on German reactor. Analyst: M.M.Bicca.

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316 Figure 3: Relationship between AFT ages, samples elevation, MTL and Dpar values. A)

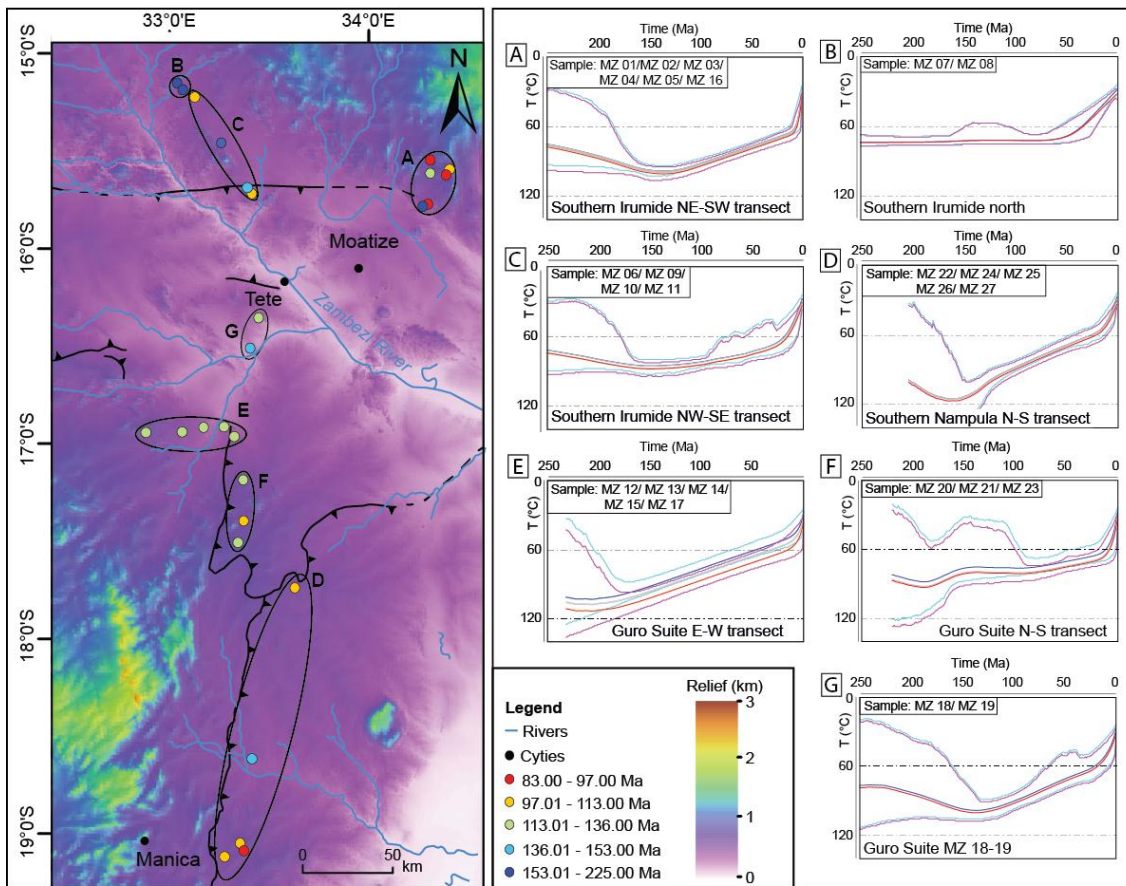
317 AFT ages plotted against sample elevation showing no clear relationship. B)

318 AFT ages against MTL showing a roughly boomerang shape. C) MTL plotted against Std. Dev.

319 showing a broad standard deviation pattern of the MTL, compatible with a very slow

320 cooling history. D) Dpar plotted against AFT ages show that the samples are of chlorine-

321 rich apatite grains.



322

323 Figure 4: Geomorphologic map (Jarvis et al., 2008) of the study area with the sample
 324 locations and the thermal history models of all samples. They were grouped based on their
 325 thermal history behavior and their geographic location.

326

327 The Nampula Complex N-S transect (Fig. 1C) registers a similar cooling pattern,
 328 with a relatively slow cooling from maximum paleotemperature of 116 °C at 165 Ma to 56
 329 °C at 17 Ma continuing with a faster cooling pattern until present-day surface conditions
 330 (Fig. 4 and 4D).

331 Samples from the central region were separated into three groups (Fig. 1 and Fig. 4).
 332 The first comprises the Guro Suite E-W transect (Fig. 4 and 4E) with five samples. Thermal
 333 history of this groups is represented by a steady-state cooling history from 208 Ma to 15 Ma

334 with a maximum paleotemperature of 103 ° C decreasing until 50 ° C in a time span of *ca.*
335 190 Ma, followed by a fast cooling period to the present-day thermal conditions (Fig. 4E).
336 The thermal behavior observed by the second group (formed by three samples and grouped
337 as the Guro Suite N-S transect, Fig. 4 and 4F) differs from the former, presenting a rapid
338 cooling between 190 Ma and 150 Ma, from temperatures of 88 ° C to 76 ° C, followed by a
339 period of a stationary cooling history until 94 Ma. From this moment samples started to
340 cooling in the same steady-state pattern until 18 Ma when achieved present-day conditions
341 after a fast cooling event from paleotemperature of 64 ° C. The third one comprises the
342 samples MZ-18 and MZ-19 located in the Guro Suite of the central portion of the graben of
343 the structural controlled Zambezi Valley (Fig. 1C) at altitudes of 217 and 314 m,
344 respectively (Table 1), being lower than the others of this region. As the other samples, the
345 thermal model indicates a slow cooling of paleotemperatures of the order of 99 ° C to 136
346 Ma to 60° C at 21 Ma. From 21 Ma these samples suffers a fast cooling until present-day
347 conditions (Fig. 4G).

348

349 **5. Discussions**

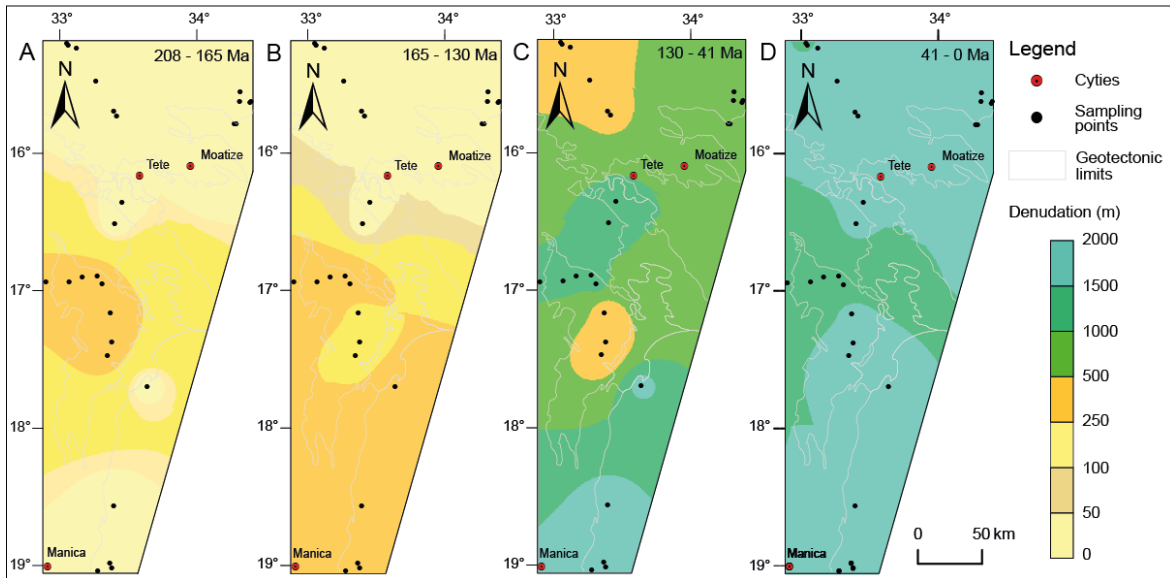
350 The data demonstrate that the thermal histories of the analyzed samples correspond
351 to possess much younger than the stratigraphic age of the rocks sampled indicating that
352 intense exhumation processes affected the region during the Mesozoic Era. The AFT
353 central ages and the maximum modeled paleotemperatures can be attributed to important
354 regional and local tectonic activity and mantle dynamics controlled by the tectonic
355 evolution related to the opening of the Indian Ocean.

356 The time interval choosed to construct the denudation maps were based on the
357 maximum paleotemperatures observed in the thermal modeling (Fig. 4B to 4G). From this,

358 four main intervals were analysed separately as presented in Figure 5. The older ages are
359 situated close to the latter stages of the Cape Fold Belt tectonic activity attributed to the
360 subduction of the Panthalassa seafloor and may represent cooling episodes caused by
361 erosion and denudation associated with tectonic reactivations induced by a far stress field
362 propagating along the African crust. The process is well documented by Karoo
363 sedimentation in the Zambezi Valley basins. Permian-Triassic times was a period of high
364 subsidence rates in these basins filled by *ca.* 10 km of vulcano-sedimentary pile (Catuneanu
365 et al., 2005) implying in high denudation rates in the source areas southwards (Key et al.,
366 2015; Bicca et al., 2017).

367 Cooling episodes around 200-250 Ma was also described by Van Der Beek et al.
368 (1998) in the north of the Malawi rift, which they attributed to late Karoo erosion have
369 affected the entire area. High denudation rates from *ca.* 190-180 Ma (Norconsult
370 Consortium, 2007) would be expected due to thermal uplift of the rift shoulders produced
371 by the Karoo magmatism in the north of Mozambique (Fig. 6), which extends to *ca.* 170
372 Ma in other parts of Africa and Antarctica (Catuneanu et al., 2005; Klausen, 2009;
373 Mahanjane, 2012; Castelino et al., 2015). Middle Jurassic Drift onset (170-166 Ma) depict
374 the initiation of movement on the Davie Ridge transform, which is marked by spreading in
375 the Somali basin (Mahanjane, 2014). This period comprises the early stages of Gondwana
376 break-up and were poorly preserved in the thermal history of our samples and the highest
377 denudation thicknesses (about to 300 m) were observed in the central area (Fig. 5A; Guro
378 Suite E-W and N-S transects) in a period from Upper Triassic to Middle Jurassic implying
379 in <0.3 °C/Ma, while in the north and south these period were not registered suggesting no
380 thermal or tectonic influence.

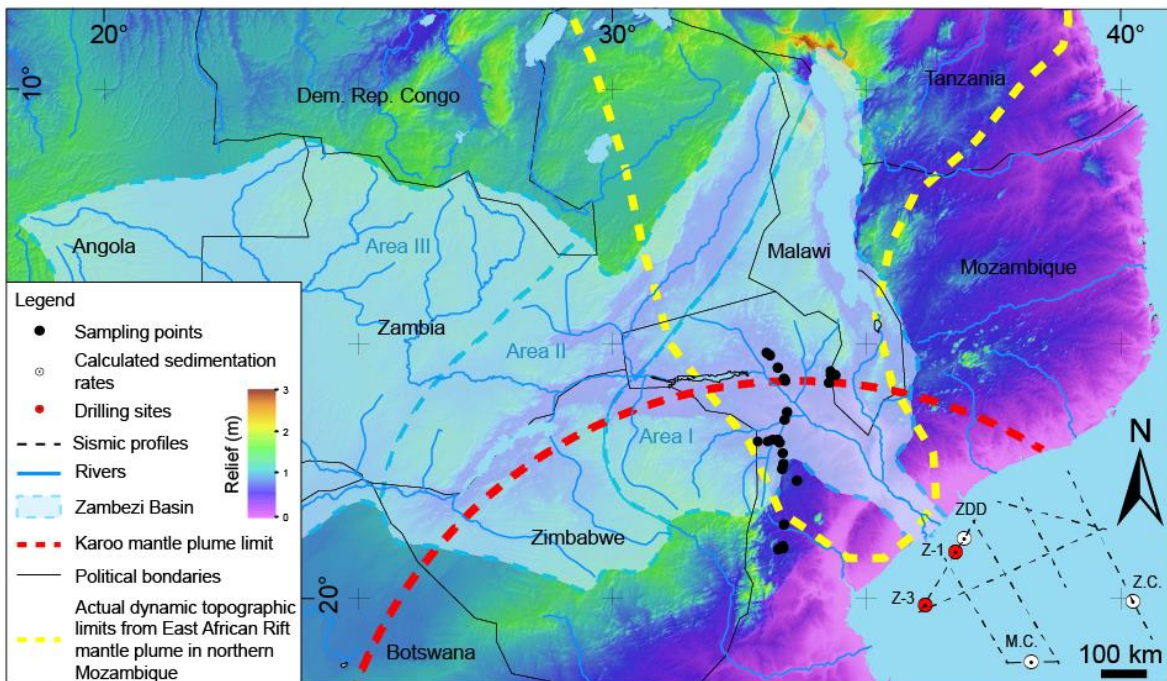
381 From Middle Jurassic to Lower Cretaceous the central and southern regions presents
382 the highest denuded amounts (around 300 m; Fig. 5B), demonstrating that this area
383 underwent important erosive processes that may be associated with the NW-SE and N-S
384 structural trends that comprise important inherited structural patterns the Precambrian
385 basement of the region (Fig. 1). Fast cooling history around 150 Ma were also documented
386 in the Malawi Rift (Van der Beek et al., 1998) which these authors associated with a
387 renewed rifting phase. This moment is documented in the southern region of Malawi with
388 the development of alkaline magmatism (abouto to 130-100Ma) associated with extensional
389 tectonics (Eby et al., 1995), near to the NE region of the study area (see Fig. 2 for location).
390 This period (around 150 Ma) comprises the early stages of the Antarctica southwards
391 drifting with respect to Africa (Mahanjane, 2012; Castelino et al., 2015) and the
392 Madagascar southwards drift from Tanzania margin by the Davie shear zone with seafloor
393 spreading in the Somali Basin during the Lower and Upper Cretaceous times (140 Ma to 90
394 Ma; Emmel et al., 2011; Mahanjane, 2014). After that, Madagascar occupied its present
395 position as part of the African plate (Salman and Abdula, 1995; Castelino et al., 2015).
396



397

398 Figure 5: Reconstructed denudation history of the NW Mozambique basement. The maps
 399 show the inferred amount and the spatial variation of denudation at: A) 208 – 165 Ma, B)
 400 165–130 Ma, C) 130 – 41 Ma, and D) 41 – 0 Ma.

401



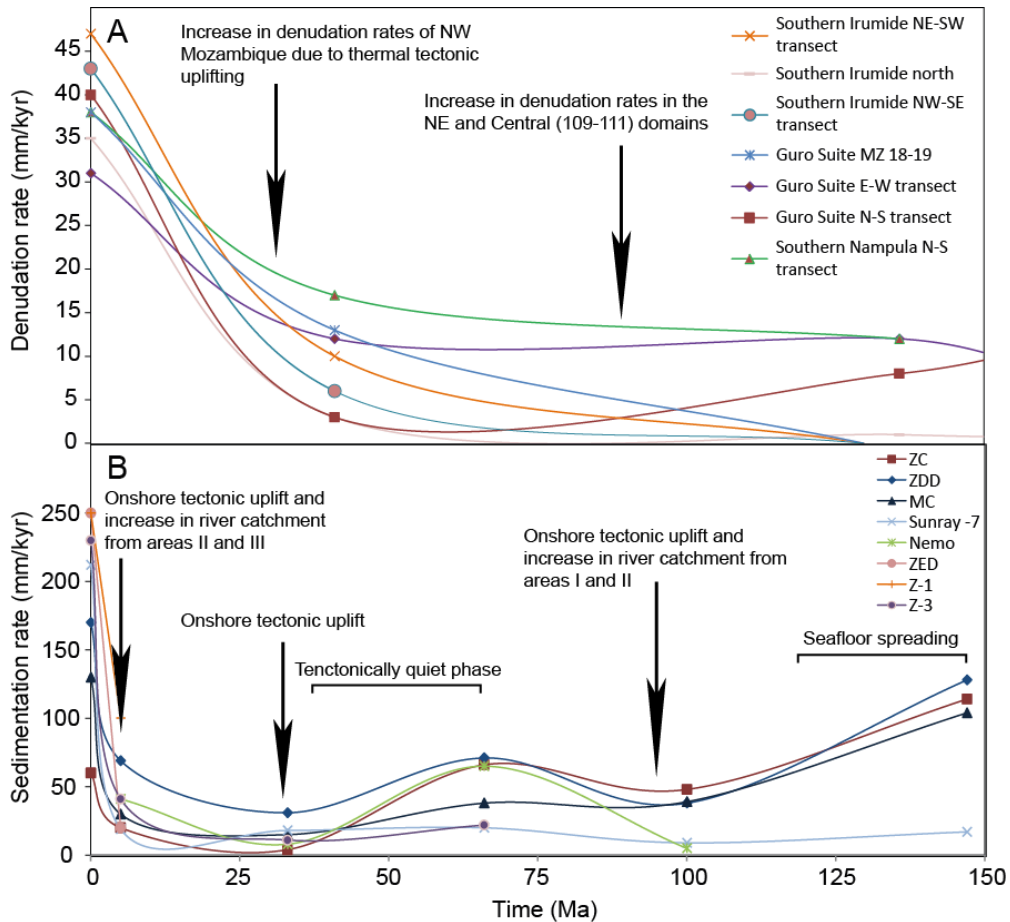
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403 Figure 6: Geomorphological map (Jarvis et al., 2008) of central-eastern Africa highlighting
 404 important thermal limits and the extension of the Zambezi Basin. Seismic and drilling data
 405 are after Castelino et al. (2015); Karoo mantle plume limits are after Cox (1989a and
 406 1989b); and dynamic topography limits is after Moucha and Forte (2011).

407 These arguments are also in agreement with the intensification of denudation
408 observed in all the study area (Fig. 5C) from Upper Cretaceous to Middle Paleocene
409 eroding thicknesses from 254 m to 1659 m due to the development of the Mozambique
410 margin, being the largest thicknesses were removed from the northeast, central and south
411 regions. Accelerated denudation processes during Lower and Upper cretaceous are also
412 described by Belton and Raab (2010) for the Kalahari cratonic area and by Emmel et al.
413 (2011) for NE Mozambique corroborating the regional uplift model of the hinterland in the
414 east margin of the African plate and accelerated denudation patterns.

415 A well-defined pattern of rapid cooling around 40 Ma taking the samples out of the
416 partial cooling zone with denudation rates of 31-47 m/Ma and amounts of 1.5-2 km thick of
417 surface denuded section until the current thermal conditions. The south and north of the
418 area have suffered the greatest influence during this period. Until this moment the total
419 amount of denuded sheet of NW Mozambique have reached 2.5-3.5 km. Similar conditions
420 were detected in the Karoo sequences in the area implying 1000 and 1500 m of denudation
421 onwards from 6 Ma (Fernandes et al., 2015). This moment is approaching crustal uplifting
422 in the northeastern region of Africa attributed to a superswell related to the African mantle
423 plume movements responsible for the evolution of the East African Rift System. According
424 to the models developed by simulations of the mantle convection for the last 30 Ma
425 (Moucha and Forte, 2011) it was possible to observe a drastic increase of topography in the
426 NE region of Africa (since *ca.* 15 Ma) propagating south towards the north of Mozambique
427 (Fig. 6). This southwards uplift is due to the northwards movement of the African plate due
428 to the movement of the mantle, leading to distensive processes reactivating ancient crustal
429 structures raising the rates of cooling and denudation throughout the northwest region of
430 Africa (Moucha and Forte, 2011).

431 This dynamic topography came to contribute to the sedimentation rates in the
432 onshore and offshore Mozambique basin sites, since the erosion amount determined from
433 NW Mozambique does not match the higher sedimentation rates described in the basin
434 despite of provide a good fit with the timing of major crustal uplift (Fig. 7). These
435 additional amounts of sediment were added to the river systems from other interior regions
436 covered by the Zambezi river basin. The African plate due to thermal uplifting firstly
437 related to the Karoo Igneous Province and more recently by the mantle dynamics of the
438 East African Rift System induced the capture of the Zambezi tributaries due to the
439 structural reactivation. The Zambezi river basin possess three main regions known as basins
440 I, II and III (Fig. 6, Castelino et al., 2015). The most distal ones have only became part of
441 the basin from the Miocene-Paleocene times as determined by Castelino et al. (2015) from
442 sedimentation rates in the north of the Mozambique Basin, which is in agreement with the
443 uplift periods of the northeast region of the African plate (Moucha and Forte, 2011).



444

445 Figure 7: Plots of denudation rates from NW Mozambique (A) and thermal burial histories
 446 of the north of the Mozambique Basin nearer the Zambezi Delta determined from well and
 447 seismic data (see figure 6 for location; after Castelino et al., 2015).

448

449 With these in mind, it is possible to determine our high Pleistocene denudation rates
 450 which fit with the predicted uplift periods and river catchment as determined by Castelino
 451 et al. (2015). Although, most of the samples indicate a protracted cooling history since
 452 Late-Jurassic- Early Cretaceous with an acceleration of the cooling history only in the last
 453 *ca.* 41 Ma, probably associated with mantle upwelling of the East African Rift System and
 454 extensional tectonics related to it. The main period of uplift around 90 Ma were not clearly
 455 distinguished in our data.

456 **6. Conclusions**

457 The northern region of Mozambique comprises important pieces to assemble the
458 puzzle related to the plates dynamics during the formation and separation of the Gondwana.
459 The southern African plate has underwent several processes of horizontal and vertical stress
460 since Permian times attributed to Gondwanides orogenesis and to mantle plumes upwelling
461 from the Gondwana separation stages, respectively. The AFT age data provided range from
462 Upper Triassic to Upper Cretaceous indicating that the region underwent intense
463 denudation during earlier times, erasing these stages from thermal history. This
464 interpretation is corroborated by intense tectonic reactivation in the Zambezi Valley region,
465 leading to the formation of great accommodation spaces in the rift basins, filled by thick
466 sedimentary sequences of the Karoo Supergroup. Maximum paleotemperatures in the
467 basement samples were reached at around 200-150 Ma which led to denudation amounts of
468 0.3-2 km at rates varying from 3-17 m/Ma until Middle Pleistocene. The early stages of
469 cooling is compatible with the increasing opening stage of the Indian Ocean seafloor. Since
470 Middle Pleistocene a fast-cooling event affected the entire region taking samples to the
471 current thermal conditions at denudation rates between 31-47 m/Ma and a final denuded
472 section since Late Triassic of 2-3.5 km. This change were caused by important shift in the
473 northeast portions of the African plate, mainly in terms of topography and drainage patterns
474 induced by mantle plume activity that have uplifted the whole NE region of Africa
475 extending to the north of Mozambique, due to a thermal induced drift of Africa northwards.

476

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