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RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1002/2015TC004042

Key Points:

- First joint apatite fission track and (U-Th)/He data for the southwest African continental margin
- Present-day topography due to kilometer-scale erosion that occurred during the Cretaceous
- Faulting onshore as well as regional uplift of the margin inferred during the Middle to Late Cretaceous

Supporting Information:

- Texts S1–S9 and captions for Figures S2, S3, S5–S7, Table S8, and Data Set S9
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The chronology and tectonic style of landscape evolution along the elevated Atlantic continental margin of South Africa resolved by joint apatite fission track and (U-Th-Sm)/He thermochronology

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Abstract Atlantic-type continental margins have long been considered “passive” tectonic settings throughout the entire postrift phase. Recent studies question the long-term stability of these margins and have shown that postrift uplift and reactivation of preexisting structures may be a common feature of a continental margin’s evolution. The Namaqualand sector of the western continental margin of South Africa is characterized by a ubiquitously faulted basement but lacks preservation of younger geological strata to constrain postrift tectonic fault activity. Here we present the first systematic study using joint apatite fission track and apatite (U-Th-Sm)/He thermochronology to achieve a better understanding on the chronology and tectonic style of landscape evolution across this region. Apatite fission track ages range from 58.3 ± 2.6 to 132.2 ± 3.6 Ma, with mean track lengths between 10.9 ± 0.19 and 14.35 ± 0.22 μm , and mean (U-Th-Sm)/He sample ages range from 55.8 ± 31.3 to 120.6 ± 31.4 Ma. Joint inverse modeling of these data reveals two distinct episodes of cooling at approximately 150–130 Ma and 110–90 Ma with limited cooling during the Cenozoic. Estimates of denudation based on these thermal histories predict approximately 1–3 km of denudation coinciding with two major tectonic events. The first event, during the Early Cretaceous, was driven by continental rifting and the development and removal of synrift topography. The second event, during the Late Cretaceous, includes localized reactivation of basement structures as well as regional mantle-driven uplift. Relative tectonic stability prevailed during the Cenozoic, and regional denudation over this time is constrained to be less than 1 km.

1. Introduction

Passive continental margins, as the term explicitly implies, have been characterized by an apparent tectonic stability following their formation by intracontinental rifting and breakup [Braun and Beaumont, 1989; Lister et al., 1991; Ziegler and Cloetingh, 2004]. However, a growing body of work is questioning this view and providing better insight into the thermal and structural processes that operate during rifting and influence the long-term geomorphic development of extensional continental margins and their interior hinterlands [Péron-Pinvidic and Manatschal, 2009; Bronner et al., 2011; Paton, 2012; Dauteuil et al., 2013; Masini et al., 2013; Karl et al., 2013; Péron-Pinvidic et al., 2013; Brune et al., 2014; Huisman and Beaumont, 2014; Koopmann et al., 2014; Salomon et al., 2014].

Plate reconstructions have primarily focused on in-plane restorations of large plate blocks and have used overlaps and gaps in plate reconstructions as evidence for extensional and compressional deformation of the lithosphere, respectively [Eagles and König, 2008; Aslanian et al., 2009; Torsvik et al., 2009; Moulin et al., 2010; Aslanian and Moulin, 2013; Gaina et al., 2013; Heine et al., 2013; Pérez-Díaz and Eagles, 2014]. The nature of this lithospheric deformation has been explored by numerical modeling approaches that have revealed complex styles of rifted margin development, involving rift migration [Brune et al., 2014; Naliboff and Buiter, 2015], hyperextension [Lundin and Doré, 2011; Péron-Pinvidic et al., 2013; Redfield and Osmundsen, 2013], and/or multiphase rifting [Reston, 2005; Blaich et al., 2011; Huisman and Beaumont, 2014]. These models have predicted different styles and mechanisms for intracontinental deformation [Pérez-Gussinyé et al., 2007; Cloetingh and Burov, 2011; Kennett and Iaffaldano, 2013; Calignano et al., 2015].

Alongside geodynamical modeling of rifted margin evolution, but treated independently, a growing body of work has investigated regional and local vertical motions of the Earth's crust as a result of "dynamic" uplift or subsidence stemming from vertical stresses imposed on the base of the lithosphere by convection of the underlying mantle [Moucha *et al.*, 2008; Braun, 2010; Forte *et al.*, 2010; Flament *et al.*, 2014]. Recently, new thermomechanical modeling approaches have coupled the vertical forces acting on the base of the lithosphere, in-plane stresses from plate movements, and the deformational response of a rheologically and structurally heterogeneous lithosphere over different length scales [Guillou-Frottier *et al.*, 2012; Cloetingh *et al.*, 2013; Buiter and Torsvik, 2014; Burov and Gerya, 2014; Colli *et al.*, 2014; Koptev *et al.*, 2015]. A fundamental outcome of these modeling approaches is that plate motions, mantle flow, and vertical motions of the surface are all intrinsically linked [François *et al.*, 2013; Colli *et al.*, 2014].

Tectonic uplift, as a consequence of deformation of the lithosphere, will trigger a response in surface processes [Willett, 1999; Burbank and Anderson, 2012]. Therefore, new models of how the crust responds to intra-continental rifting and deep Earth processes will have implications for the origin and longevity of topography at high-elevation passive continental margins. This issue is particularly pertinent for the South African case, where the antiquity of the present-day first-order topography is still ardently debated. One end-member scenario argues that the South African landscape is "young," having been formed by major river incision and erosion of a flat initial topography in response to regional epeirogenic uplift during the late Cenozoic [e.g., Partridge and Maud, 1987; Burke, 1996; Burke and Gunnell, 2008; Roberts and White, 2010; Paul *et al.*, 2014; Rudge *et al.*, 2015]. Contrary to this, another end-member scenario proposes that the present-day landscape is an "old" remnant of Cretaceous topography that was produced by deep erosion of uplifted rift flanks following continental breakup, with minimal erosion during the Cenozoic [Gallagher and Brown, 1999; Bierman and Caffee, 2001; Brown *et al.*, 2002; van der Beek *et al.*, 2002; Decker *et al.*, 2013]. However, several thermochronometry studies have argued for a more eventful postrift history involving tectonic reactivation in the middle-Late Cretaceous [Raab *et al.*, 2002; Tinker *et al.*, 2008a; Kounov *et al.*, 2009; Brown *et al.*, 2014; Wildman *et al.*, 2015] or multiple phases of regional uplift/exhumation and subsidence/burial [e.g., Green *et al.*, 2013, 2015].

Due to a lack of postrift geological markers and poor age constraints on the timing of deformation on major structures, the tectonic history of the southwest African continental margin is incomplete. Recent investigations have alluded to the potential importance of postrift structural reactivation and neotectonic activity to the development of the South African margin [Viola *et al.*, 2005, 2012; Brandt *et al.*, 2003, 2005; Andreoli *et al.*, 1996, 2009; de Beer, 2012; Kounov *et al.*, 2009; Wildman *et al.*, 2015], and postrift reactivation has been advocated by investigations of other so-called "passive" continental margins [Redfield *et al.*, 2005; Cogné *et al.*, 2011; Holford *et al.*, 2014; Franco-Magalhaes *et al.*, 2014; Ksienzyk *et al.*, 2014; Leprière *et al.*, 2015]. Constraining the surface response to postrift deformation over different length scales will have major implications for conceptual geomorphic models of high-elevation continental margins that envisage regional patterns of denudation triggered by regional base level fall and augmented by long-wavelength epeirogenic/flexural uplift.

In this paper we report new quantitative constraints on the timing and magnitude of major episodes of denudation across the continental margin obtained from a dense array of joint apatite fission track (AFT) and apatite (U-Th-Sm)/He (AHe) low-temperature thermochronometry samples. The sampling strategy was to collect samples from the coastline to the elevated continental interior with high-density sampling through the high-relief escarpment zone referred to as the Namaqualand Highlands (Figure 1). Samples from the Namaqualand Highlands were collected with a specific focus on constraining brittle offsets on basement structures. This approach was employed to detect short and long-wavelength patterns of crustal cooling. By using combined AFT and AHe thermochronometry, we achieve tighter thermal history constraints than has previously been obtained by studies using either system in isolation. In particular, including AHe data helps constrain cooling in the very shallow crust (approximately 1–2 km), which has hitherto been left poorly constrained by AFT analysis. Robust thermal histories were obtained by jointly inverting the analytical data using a Bayesian transdimensional Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach described by Gallagher [2012]. We demonstrate that these cooling episodes relate to crustal denudation and a multistage development of the continental margin is proposed that requires significant (kilometer-scale) differential displacement on onshore brittle structures well inland (hundreds of kilometers) of the present coastline.

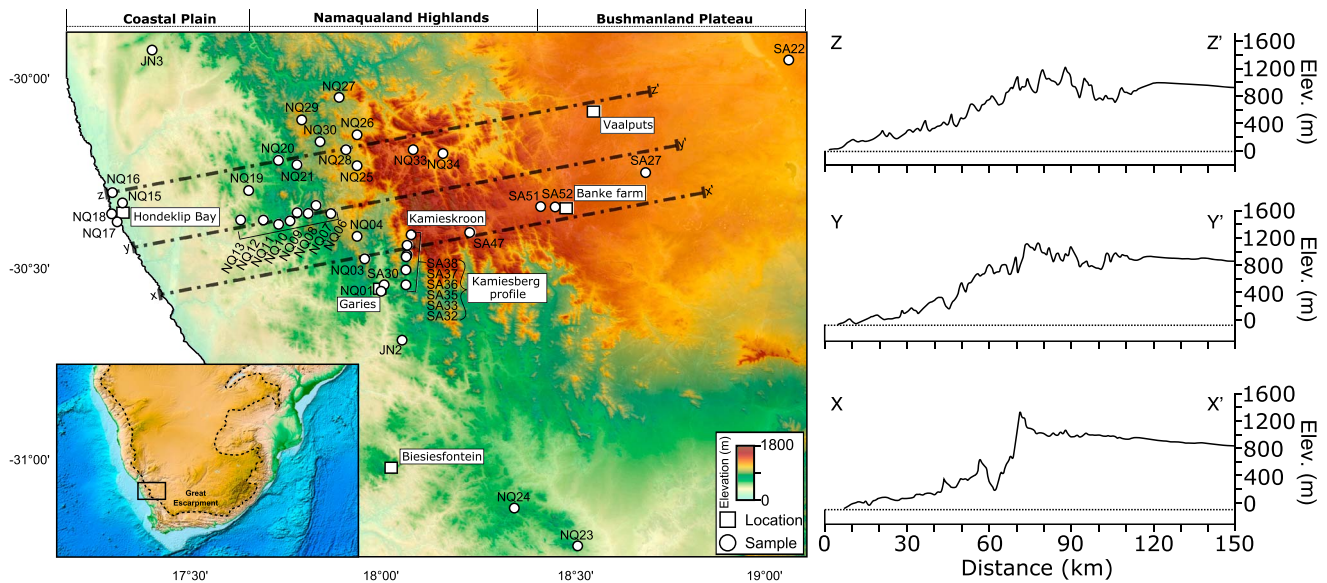


Figure 1. Inset figure shows the first-order topography of Southern Africa and location of the Namaqualand Highlands study area. Main location map digital elevation model created using SRTM90m data. Elevation map is draped over Landsat ETM+RGB:321 satellite images to enhance local relief and geomorphic features. Elevation profiles for three coast-perpendicular transects are shown and are used in Figure 9 with projected data.

2. Geology

2.1. Tectonic Setting of the Namaqualand Basement Rocks

Rocks of the Mesoproterozoic Namaqua Metamorphic Province dominate the geology of the study area (Figure 2). These basement rocks are composed mainly of granitic gneisses and granite bodies emplaced during multiple periods of orogeny and terrane accumulation [Tankard *et al.*, 1982; Groenewald *et al.*, 1991; Jacobs *et al.*, 1993; Cornell *et al.*, 2006]. The Namaqua Metamorphic Province therefore records a complicated history of magma emplacement and metamorphism that has produced a variety of supracrustal and intrusive rock types [Thomas *et al.*, 1994; Eglington, 2006; Voordouw and Rajesh, 2012]. A detailed description of these rock types can be found in Eglington [2006].

What is more pertinent in the context of this study is the tectonic fabric that was established at this time, as this basement structure may have been important in controlling the style of prerift, synrift, and postrift deformation [e.g., Daly *et al.*, 1989; Clemson *et al.*, 1997; Ziegler and Cloetingh, 2004; Corti *et al.*, 2007; Frimmel *et al.*, 2013]. At least four compressional deformation events have been documented in gneissic foliations and folds and are thought to have been driven by processes coeval with the regional Kibaran Orogeny (approximately 1200–1000 Ma) and global Grenville Orogeny (approximately 1300–950 Ma) [Jacobs *et al.*, 1993; Clifford *et al.*, 2004; Eglington, 2006; Viola *et al.*, 2012; Colliston *et al.*, 2014]. These deformation events were followed by a phase of extension in western Namaqualand that has been attributed to the collapse of the Namaqualand orogenic belt [Dewey *et al.*, 2006]. Dykes, folds, and lineations ascribed to these deformation events typically strike NW-SE or NE-SW and occasionally E-W [Cornell *et al.*, 2006]. The main phase of metamorphism of the Namaqua Metamorphic Province was largely granulite facies metamorphism (T : 800–860°C and P : 5–6 kbar/15–18 km) and was completed by 1000–800 Ma [Waters, 1989; Eglington, 2006].

The Vanrhynsdorp Group unconformably overlies the metamorphic basement and was deposited during the latter stages of the Pan-African orogeny (approximately 700–500 Ma) in a foreland basin setting and subsequently experienced very low grade metamorphism [Gresse and Gerns, 1993]. These rocks crop out in the south of the study area, close to the town of Bitterfontein, in half-graben structures trending N-S as gently folded, fault parallel synclines that overlie an easterly dipping unconformity across the basement rocks [Gresse *et al.*, 2006; Macey *et al.*, 2011] (Figure 2). The influence of the Pan-African Orogeny is observed in the Namaqua Metamorphic Province as brittle overprint structures [Viola *et al.*, 2012]. Cambrian to Early Carboniferous rocks of the Cape Supergroup only crop out in the very southeastern part of our study area and overlie the

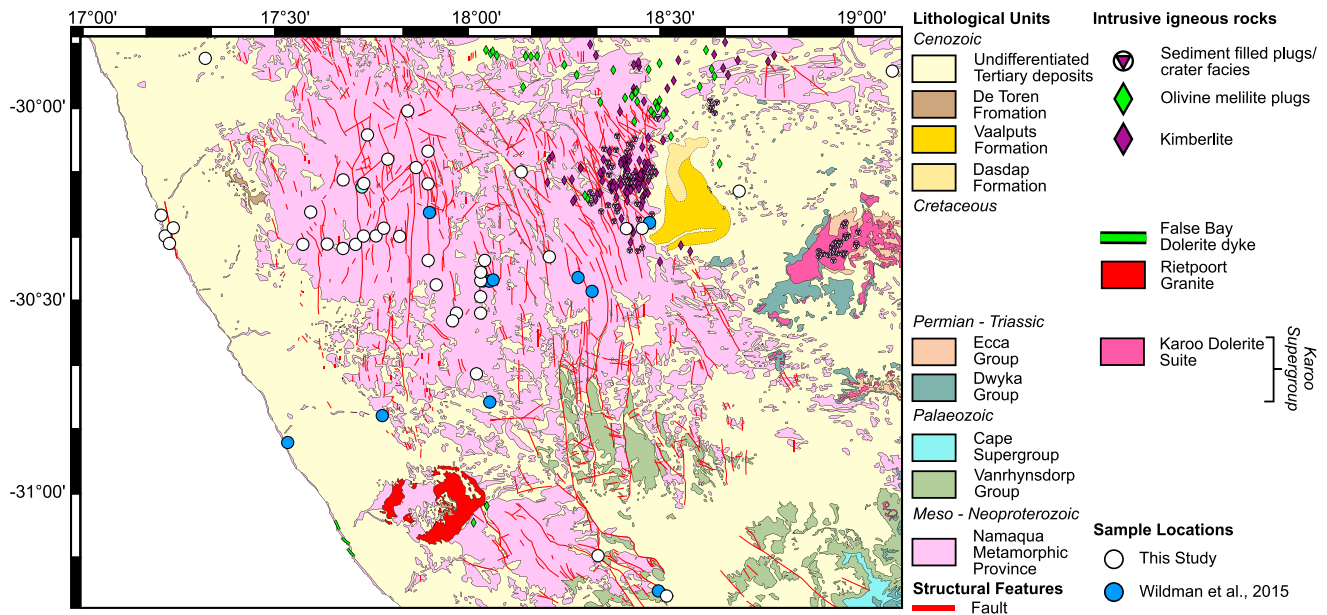


Figure 2. Geological map of the Namaqualand Highlands study area. Geological map was redrawn to highlight the major geological units, structures, and features relevant to this study, using 1:250,000 maps produced by the Council for Geoscience, South Africa. (Garies, sheet 3017 [de Beer, 2010]; Loriesfontein, sheet 3018 [Macey et al., 2011]; and Springbok, sheet 2916 [Marais et al., 2001].) The dashed line around the Dasdap and Vaalputs formations represents the proposed extent of these units [after Brandt et al., 2005; de Beer, 2010].

Vanrhynsdorp Group. The Cape Supergroup, which dominates the geology south of our study area, was deformed during Permian to Triassic compression to form the Cape Fold Belt [Newton et al., 2009].

2.2. The Karoo Supergroup

The sedimentary rocks of the Karoo Supergroup were deposited in a subcontinental foreland basin, north of the developing Cape Fold Belt, during the Carboniferous to Triassic period [Tankard et al., 2009]. The Karoo basin covers an area of approximately $7 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$ across central South Africa (Figure 2). The Karoo Supergroup rocks that crop out within the study area include the lowermost Permian Dwyka Group and Ecca Group rocks [Johnson et al., 2006], which are intruded by Triassic-Jurassic Karoo dolerite sills and dykes. Dwyka glacial diamictites were unconformably deposited on the metamorphic basement and Vanrhynsdorp units during Late Carboniferous to Early Permian glaciations [Visser, 1990]. The thickness and lithofacies of the Dwyka Group are highly variable and are attributed to erosion of an irregular pre-Karoo relief [Visser, 1983, 1987, 1989; Johnson et al., 2006]. Conformably overlying the Dwyka Group glacial deposits is the Permian Ecca Group, consisting of shale units that are thinly laminated and fossiliferous [Johnson et al., 2006]. These rocks were deposited in a shallow-marine environment and are the dominant sedimentary unit in the northwest Karoo basin. The presence of Karoo Supergroup sedimentary rocks is important as they represent the last time the South African interior was unequivocally below sea level [Summerfield, 1985]. The intrusion of Karoo dolerite sills and dykes was coeval with the eruption of thick continental flood basalts ($> \sim 1.5\text{--}2 \text{ km}$) and marks the termination of Karoo deposition and the onset of continental rifting in eastern Gondwana (approximately $180 \pm 5 \text{ Ma}$) [Duncan et al., 1997; Jourdan et al., 2005, 2007; Moulin et al., 2011; Svensen et al., 2012]. Karoo dolerite intrusions are widely preserved in the eastern part of the study area as prominent isolated summits above the flat-lying plateau.

2.3. Synrift and Postrift Intrusive Activity

Post-Karoo igneous rocks, coeval with Atlantic rifting (approximately 160–130 Ma), can be found in the most southern region of the study area (Figure 2). The Koegel Fontein complex near the towns of Kotzesrus and Biesiesfontein is composed of a variety of intrusive bodies including tholeiitic basalt plugs, syenite and granite plutons, and dykes of varying composition [de Beer, 2002; Curtis et al., 2011]. A suite of NNW-SSE trending dolerite dykes crosscut the Koegel Fontein complex and is believed to have the same origin as the False Bay dolerite suite in the Southern Cape based on their age and composition [Day, 1987; Reid, 1990; Reid et al., 1991; Trumbull et al., 2007; de Beer, 2010].

Early Cenozoic intrusions are commonly olivine melilitite plugs and alkali and carbonatite dykes. The Biesiesfontein plugs intrude into the Rietpoort Granite and have been dated at approximately 55 Ma [Moore and Verwoerd, 1985]. The Sandkopsdrif Complex north of Rietpoort is made up of numerous alkaline and carbonatite dykes [de Beer, 2010; Curtis et al., 2013] and is thought to postdate olivine melilitites in Biesiesfontein [Moore and Verwoerd, 1985]. An important observation that can be made from these intrusions is their coherent trend along a north to NNW striking fracture zone, suggesting a link between reactivation of major structures during the Early Cretaceous and the early Cenozoic creating pathways for intrusive rock [e.g., Moore et al., 2008; Jelsma et al., 2009].

The Gamoep intrusive suite (Figure 2), consisting of olivine melilitite plugs and possible kimberlite intrusions, is found inland on the interior plateau north of Banke Farm close to the Vaalputs nuclear repository site. The intrusions have been radiometrically dated at 54–77 Ma [Moore and Verwoerd, 1985], while terrestrial fossil and palynological evidence discovered in the sediment infill confirm a Late Cretaceous to Eocene age for these intrusions [Haughton, 1931; Estes, 1977; Scholtz, 1985; de Wit et al., 1992].

2.4. Late Cretaceous and Tertiary Deposits

The preservation of crater lake sedimentary successions over intrusive bodies is highly significant as they provide insights into the margin's postrift geological history, a record of which is otherwise absent. Up to 260 m of carbonaceous shales and tuff bands, commonly topped with conglomerates and arenites, are preserved within the diatremes of Late Cretaceous to early Cenozoic intrusions [Moore and Verwoerd, 1985]. These sediments are interpreted as lacustrine deposits and imply that limited erosion has taken place since the emplacement of the igneous intrusive rocks [Cornelissen and Verwoerd, 1975; Moore and Verwoerd, 1985; Hanson et al., 2009; Stanley et al., 2013]. Additional postrift sedimentary units include silicified kaolinized conglomerates and coarse-grained, cross-bedded sandstones of the Dasdap and Vaalputs formation, which form prominent mesas on the plateau near Banke Farm, south of Vaalputs [Brandt et al., 2003, 2005] (Figure 2). Clast compositions within the conglomerate horizons and the occurrence of widespread cross laminations in the Dasdap sediments suggest that these sediments were deposited in a fluvial environment and derived from the surrounding basement and Dwyka Group rocks [Brandt et al., 2003, 2005]. The volcanic pipes in the region discussed above are overlain by these units in places and therefore provide an upper age limit of approximately 67 Ma for the Dasdap sequence [Brandt et al., 2003, 2005; Viola et al., 2012].

The Vaalputs formation and adjacent Santab-se-Vloer Basin overlie the Dasdap sequence and are intersected and bounded by prominent NNW-SSW trending faults. The orientation of these structures is in keeping with the regional NNW-SSE structural trend [Viola et al., 2012]. Although these sediments are severely lacking in age constraints, their similarity to nearby crater lake deposits and their relationship with Late Cretaceous igneous intrusions suggest that a Late Cretaceous-early Cenozoic age is possible.

Cenozoic deposits along the coastal plain are typically preserved in the form of elevated marine terraces, semi-consolidated and unconsolidated aeolian sand, and as channel fill sediments preserved in valleys within the high-relief escarpment zone. The coastal marine terraces are best represented by the Alexander Bay Formation, which records Miocene and younger cycles of erosion and weathering attributed to sea level fluctuations driven by both tectonic and eustatic processes [Roberts et al., 2006]. Three distinct packages have been defined within the Alexander Bay Formation at 90 m, 50 m, and 30 m above sea level. The de Toren Formation is present on the Koegel Fontein intrusive complex and on the periphery of the Namaqualand Highlands at Quaggafontein farm. The sediments are proposed to have been deposited in a similar environment to the Dasdap Formation and have a similarly uncertain age, which is tentatively placed in the Oligocene by de Beer [2010, 2012].

3. Apatite Fission Track and (U-Th-Sm)/He Analysis

3.1. Apatite Fission Track Results

Apatite fission track analysis was performed on all 42 samples using the external detector method [Hurford and Green, 1982] (Table 1 and Text S1 in the supporting information). Central AFT ages range from 58.3 ± 2.6 to 132.2 ± 3.6 Ma and do not show a correlation with elevation. Indeed, some of the youngest measured AFT ages can be found at the highest elevations (Figure 3a). Mean horizontal confined track lengths (MTLs) range from 10.9 ± 0.19 to 14.35 ± 0.22 μm with the majority being greater than 13 μm ; the standard deviation of length measurements ranges from 0.97 to 2.50. In cases where MTLs are relatively short or length distributions are relatively broad, the shape of the distribution is either normal around the mean value or is

Table 1. Results of Apatite Fission Track Analysis^a

Sample	Longitude (deg)	Latitude (deg)	Elevation (m)	ρ_s^b (10^6 cm^{-2})	N_s^c (10^6 cm^{-2})	ρ_i^b (10^6 cm^{-2})	N_i^c (10^6 cm^{-2})	ρ_d^b (10^6 cm^{-2})	N_d^c (10^6 cm^{-2})	$\rho_{\chi^2}^d$	D_{par}^e (μm)	$[U]_{AFT}^f$ (ppm)	Central AFT Age ^g ($\pm 1\sigma$) (Ma)	Dispersion ^h (%)	#Xtals	Measured			c Axis Correction ^j			#HCT ^k	
																MTL (μm)	$\pm 1\sigma$	SD ⁱ	MTL (μm)	$\pm 1\sigma$	SD ⁱ		
JN2	18.05	-30.68	376	42.7	3,605	100.2	8,451	19.8	14,137	0.01	2.13	67.6	132.2	3.6	13%	20	13.73	0.11	1.08	14.74	0.12	0.79	103
JN3	17.38	-29.90	418	24.2	1,790	64.7	4,796	19.9	14,137	0.81	1.91	44.1	116.8	3.2	10%	20	13.62	0.11	1.10	14.72	0.12	0.78	103
NQ12-01	17.99	-30.55	238	15.0	1,365	40.4	3,675	14.6	16,086	0.04	1.49	37.6	85.4	3.4	19%	20	13.39	0.13	1.32	14.65	0.14	0.80	100
NQ12-03	17.95	-30.46	582	11.1	1,163	29.8	3,127	14.7	16,086	0.57	1.83	27.0	86.0	3.0	17%	20	14.01	0.11	1.10	15.03	0.12	0.76	101
NQ12-04	17.93	-30.40	720	7.2	1,324	21.2	3,898	16.6	16,348	0.00	1.65	27.8	89.6	4.1	20%	19	13.85	0.10	0.98	14.95	0.11	0.63	100
NQ12-06	17.86	-30.34	690	26.7	2,080	76.9	5,989	16.5	16,348	0.32	1.62	65.3	90.2	2.4	12%	19	12.50	0.13	1.39	13.73	0.14	1.04	115
NQ12-07	17.82	-30.32	688	29.6	2,511	72.0	6,095	14.8	16,086	0.12	1.92	65.0	96.0	2.6	14%	20	13.63	0.10	1.23	14.74	0.11	0.82	151
NQ12-08	17.80	-30.34	598	23.1	2,283	60.9	6,012	16.5	16,348	0.06	2.98	49.5	98.7	3.0	14%	19	13.96	0.13	1.23	14.95	0.14	0.90	73
NQ12-09	17.77	-30.34	355	12.6	1,153	31.8	2,906	17.1	16,086	0.49	2.49	25.8	106.6	3.8	15%	20	13.60	0.19	1.92	14.74	0.21	1.20	101
NQ12-10	17.75	-30.36	239	5.9	208	19.2	678	16.5	16,348	0.50	3.42	16.3	79.7	6.3	25%	9	14.35	0.22	1.05	15.18	0.23	0.83	22
NQ12-11	17.72	-30.37	416	4.6	477	11.2	1,167	17.2	16,086	0.82	2.07	10.1	110.4	6.0	23%	20	13.51	0.16	1.43	14.64	0.17	0.90	38
NQ12-12	17.68	-30.36	388	31.2	1,649	96.3	5,096	16.5	16,348	0.10	2.89	83.4	83.7	2.7	16%	18	13.45	0.15	1.50	14.67	0.16	0.97	106
NQ12-13	17.62	-30.36	354	7.8	747	21.8	2,082	14.9	16,086	0.28	1.45	19.3	84.0	4.1	20%	20	13.59	0.13	1.27	14.77	0.14	0.91	100
NQ12-15	17.30	-30.32	38	4.5	373	11.7	966	15.0	16,086	0.17	2.06	10.8	91.5	6.3	35%	20	14.05	0.15	1.45	15.10	0.16	0.91	94
NQ12-16	17.27	-30.29	11	8.5	643	22.0	1,654	15.2	16,086	0.01	1.87	19.5	93.5	6.1	34%	20	13.70	0.15	1.22	14.80	0.16	0.83	65
NQ12-17	17.29	-30.36	5	8.6	914	21.7	2,316	16.8	16,086	0.14	1.82	17.5	104.9	4.6	23%	20	13.02	0.19	1.91	14.07	0.21	1.33	100
NQ12-18	17.28	-30.34	5	8.9	1,161	21.8	2,846	16.9	16,086	0.02	2.11	16.6	108.4	4.9	23%	20	13.88	0.19	1.30	14.92	0.20	0.88	100
NQ12-19	17.64	-30.28	250	5.2	754	11.8	1,723	15.4	16,086	0.64	1.90	10.8	105.8	4.6	22%	20	13.40	0.19	1.48	14.55	0.20	1.06	82
NQ12-20	17.72	-30.20	473	22.3	1,556	53.5	3,723	15.6	16,086	0.18	2.28	45.3	102.5	3.6	15%	19	13.77	0.12	1.28	14.82	0.13	0.87	108
NQ12-21	17.77	-30.21	665	24.6	1,468	80.9	4,831	17.3	16,086	0.00	1.82	54.6	83.2	4.0	23%	17	13.67	0.19	1.41	14.57	0.20	0.98	102
NQ12-23	18.52	-31.23	300	9.0	779	40.3	3,474	16.5	16,348	0.18	1.56	32.0	58.3	2.6	29%	20	13.83	0.13	1.31	14.56	0.14	0.90	103
NQ12-24	18.35	-31.13	400	20.8	1,164	58.3	3,259	16.5	16,348	0.93	2.27	46.8	92.7	3.2	12%	20	14.20	0.09	0.97	15.15	0.10	0.66	108
NQ12-25	17.93	-30.21	740	7.1	772	15.6	1,700	15.8	16,086	0.64	2.46	14.3	112.6	4.9	19%	20	14.01	0.14	1.45	14.98	0.15	0.96	112
NQ12-26	17.93	-30.13	850	37.4	2,822	90.4	6,823	16.5	16,348	0.17	2.43	79.7	107.2	2.7	12%	20	13.94	0.12	1.21	14.93	0.13	0.80	103
NQ12-27	17.88	-30.03	600	18.5	2,167	44.5	5,213	16.2	16,086	0.43	1.91	38.0	105.8	2.7	15%	23	13.37	0.13	1.35	14.61	0.14	0.85	104
NQ12-28	17.90	-30.17	650	35.6	2,282	95.2	6,107	17.4	16,086	0.35	2.15	76.0	102.1	2.5	12%	20	12.89	0.16	1.83	14.28	0.18	1.11	128
NQ12-29	17.78	-30.09	720	28.7	586	74.8	1,527	16.5	16,348	0.17	2.20	61.6	99.1	5.6	17%	10	13.81	0.11	1.15	14.85	0.12	0.80	111
NQ12-30	17.83	-30.15	550	31.6	2,426	74.9	5,758	16.4	16,348	0.40	1.75	58.2	108.5	2.6	12%	20	13.86	0.11	1.13	14.99	0.12	0.75	110
NQ12-33	18.08	-30.17	1050	13.9	1,319	33.4	3,174	16.3	16,086	0.03	1.64	29.1	105.8	4.5	21%	20	13.56	0.14	1.40	14.76	0.15	0.97	100
NQ12-34	18.16	-30.18	1000	15.0	949	34.8	2,203	16.3	16,438	0.05	1.93	30.6	110.0	5.3	22%	20	13.21	0.15	1.49	14.49	0.16	0.98	106
SA12-22	19.08	-29.93	922	35.9	2,565	81.3	5,812	14.0	16,086	0.01	2.20	76.6	97.2	3.1	15%	20	14.04	0.14	1.48	15.07	0.15	0.97	108
SA12-27	18.70	-30.23	987	5.6	334	24.1	1,434	16.6	16,348	0.71	1.84	22.4	60.9	3.7	27%	18	12.66	0.37	1.95	14.16	0.41	1.38	27
SA12-30	18.00	-30.53	258	9.4	1,012	33.4	3,600	16.6	16,348	0.06	2.94	27.0	73.2	3.3	19%	20	14.17	0.22	1.20	15.10	0.23	0.80	100
SA12-32	18.06	-30.53	351	6.0	106	20.4	360	16.2	16,348	0.85	1.70	18.6	75.1	8.3	8%	3	10.90	0.19	1.54	13.28	0.23	0.95	2
SA12-33	18.06	-30.49	400	5.2	353	12.3	836	16.6	16,348	0.75	1.71	9.9	110.0	7.0	27%	23	13.48	0.28	1.33	14.63	0.30	0.95	23
SA12-35	18.06	-30.45	605	3.4	232	6.5	442	14.1	16,086	0.62	1.87	6.1	119.0	10.0	43%	17	13.71	0.22	1.31	14.85	0.24	0.86	35
SA12-36	18.06	-30.45	707	3.6	288	10.4	822	16.6	16,348	0.57	2.03	9.2	91.4	6.3	33%	21	13.90	0.17	1.58	14.98	0.18	0.93	82

Table 1. (continued)

Sample	Longitude (deg)	Latitude (deg)	Elevation (m)	ρ_s^b (10^6 cm^{-2})		ρ_i^b (10^6 cm^{-2})		ρ_d^b (10^6 cm^{-2})		N_i^c (10^6 cm^{-2})	N_d^c (10^6 cm^{-2})	$P(\chi^2)^d$	D_{par}^e (μm)	$[U]_f^g$ (ppm)	Central AFT Age ^g ($\pm 1\sigma$) (Ma)	Dispersion ^h (%)	#XtIs	Measured		c Axis Correction ^j		#HCT ^k	
				N_s^c	N_t^c	N_i^c	N_d^c	MTL (μm)	SD ^j									MTL (μm)	SD ^j				
SA12-37	18.06	-30.43	807	12.4	409	38.0	1,256	16.6	16,348	0.61	1.74	32.5	85.0	4.8	19%	12	13.43	0.34	1.68	14.64	0.37	1.13	24
SA12-38	18.07	-30.40	959	15.3	808	53.9	2,839	16.6	16,348	0.61	1.68	45.3	74.4	3.0	17%	20	13.83	0.13	1.31	14.88	0.14	0.89	100
SA12-47	18.23	-30.39	1064	5.0	484	11.2	1,086	14.3	16,086	0.22	2.06	12.5	100.8	5.9	34%	21	12.40	0.22	1.80	13.89	0.25	1.22	74
SA12-51	18.42	-30.32	1066	34.9	3,341	75.0	7,183	14.4	16,086	0.00	2.30	67.7	107.7	3.8	16%	20	12.81	0.15	1.19	14.24	0.17	1.19	139
SA12-52	18.46	-30.32	1065	3.2	208	7.1	461	14.5	16,086	0.99	2.20	7.3	102.8	8.6	24%	16	13.67	0.19	1.42	14.68	0.20	1.01	55

^aAnalytical details can be found in SI-1 and SI-2. For details on sample lithology see SI-8.

^b ρ_i, ρ_s, ρ_d are track density of induced, spontaneous, dosimeter tracks.

^c N_i, N_s , and N_d are the number of induced, spontaneous, and dosimeter tracks counted.

^d χ^2 value of the chi-square age homogeneity test [Galbraith, 2010].

^e D_{par} measurements are etch pit diameters used as a proxy for the influence of chemical composition on track annealing [Donelick et al., 2005]. Between three to five D_{par} measurements were measured for each dated single grain.

^fUranium content estimated using EDM.

^gCentral AFT ages calculated with TrackKey [Dunkl, 2002] with 1σ standard error. Ages were calculated using a $\zeta = 316.7 \pm 10.5$ (317.3 ± 11.1 for samples JN2 and JN3) for a standard IRMM540 glass.

^hDispersion is the standard deviation of the true single-grain ages as a percentage of their central age [Galbraith, 2010].

ⁱSD is the standard deviation of measured horizontal confined track lengths.

^jMean track length after individual track length measurements are corrected for their orientation to the c axis after Ketcham [2005].

^kHCT = horizontal confined track.

negatively skewed with a large proportion of longer tracks and tail of shorter tracks (see Text S2 for all track length distribution plots).

Radial plots graphically illustrating single-grain dispersion can be found in Text S3. A chi-square (χ^2) age homogeneity test was performed on all samples to assess whether the measured single-grain ages represent a single population [Galbraith, 2010]. Nine samples yielded $P(\chi^2)$ equal to or less than 0.05. Despite failing the chi-square test, a mixture model [Galbraith and Green, 1990] (Text S3) does not define a clear distinction of two or more populations. For the majority of samples, single-grain fission track age dispersion is moderate to low (i.e., $\leq 20\%$). Samples with higher levels of dispersion are typically associated with samples with low track densities. It is likely that every sample is best approximated by a single population, and any apparent dispersion in single-grain ages is predominantly induced by intergrain variations in compositionally controlled track annealing rates.

The classic “boomerang” relationship [e.g., Green, 1986; Gallagher and Brown, 1997] is not seen for this data set, as almost all MTLs are reasonably long and similar in value (i.e., $> 13 \mu\text{m}$) and because there is a fairly narrow age range for most samples (approximately 80–120 Ma) (Figure 3b). As there are no clear peaks in the boomerang plot, it is not possible to define discrete thermal events, and it is likely that most samples resided at elevated temperatures and were entirely, or almost entirely, reset prior to the Cretaceous. However, several samples have short ($< 13 \mu\text{m}$) MTL and young AFT ages (approximately < 80 Ma), implying that these samples may have resided at temperatures within the partial annealing zone (PAZ) following an initial cooling event and then either cooled during a distinct cooling event or by slow, protracted cooling.

D_{par} values range from 1.45 to $3.42 \mu\text{m}$ with most values (76% of samples) falling between 1.7 and $2.3 \mu\text{m}$. While many samples have comparable D_{par} measurements with Durango apatite ($2.05 \pm 0.16 \mu\text{m}$) [Sobel and Seward, 2010], many fall out with the Durango range. This variation means that some samples have compositionally

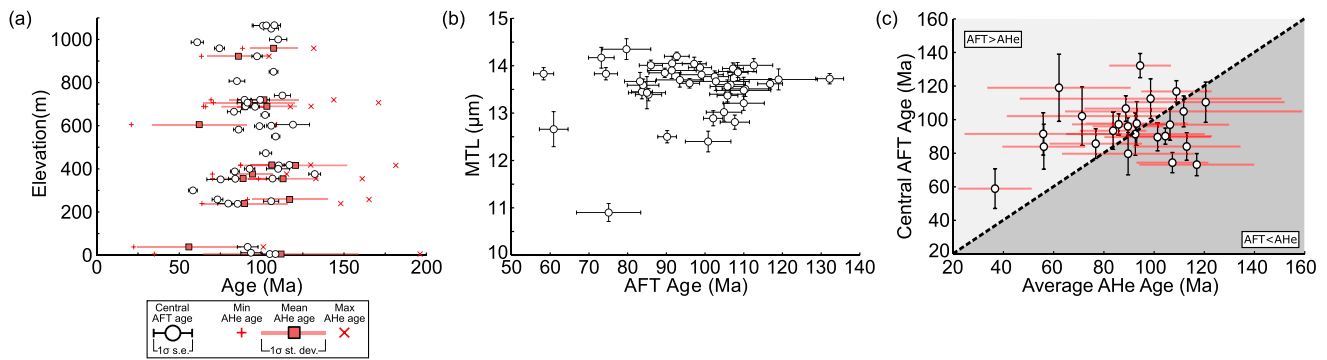


Figure 3. (a) Plot of AFT and AHe age against elevation. White circles are central AFT ages with uncertainty bars representing 1σ standard error on the central age. Red squares are uncorrected mean AHe ages with uncertainty bars representing 1σ standard deviation (standard deviation is used in this instance to highlight the dispersion in single-grain AHe ages), red plus symbol and crosses represent the minimum and maximum AHe single-grain age. (b) AFT age against MTLs uncorrected for their c axis orientation. In AFT ages are central AFT ages with 1σ standard error; MTLs are uncorrected for their c axis orientation with 1σ standard error. (c) Plot of central AFT ages against mean AHe age. Vertical error bars are 1σ standard error on the central age, and horizontal error bars are 1σ standard deviation on the mean AHe age. Dashed line represents the one-to-one relationship.

controlled annealing properties different from Durango standard. Any significant compositional control over annealing is treated appropriately during thermal history inversion.

3.2. Apatite (U-Th-Sm)/He Results

Multiple single-grain (U-Th-Sm)/He analyses were performed on a subset of 16 samples that were chosen based on the high quality of the apatite separates and optimal geographical location for the study (Table 2). Between 5 and 21 single-grain ages were determined for each sample in an attempt to quantify and utilize the intersample grain date dispersion (see below). Details on analytical techniques can be found in Text S4. Mean AHe ages, uncorrected for alpha ejection, range from 55.8 ± 31.34 to 120.6 ± 31.4 Ma, and alpha ejection corrected ages [after Farley *et al.*, 1996] range from 74.0 ± 43.9 to 156.9 ± 40.9 Ma. Although “mean” AHe sample ages provide a useful frame of reference for comparison with AFT ages and the wider geological context, they do not necessarily correspond to a specific geological event at that time. In a similar manner to an AFT age, an AHe age is a product of a thermal history that is initially unknown. Depending on the form of this thermal history and the chemical and physical properties of individual apatite grains, mean AHe ages can be associated with large degrees of single-grain age dispersion. Dispersion (standard deviation of age/mean age) is large for samples in our data set, ranging from 12 to 56%. As thermal diffusion of ^4He dominates at elevated temperatures [Brown *et al.*, 2013], the style of thermal history experienced by a sample will almost always lead to an over-correction of the ^4He age using a single alpha-correction factor [Farley *et al.*, 1996; Meesters and Dunai, 2002a, 2002b; Herman *et al.*, 2007; Gautheron *et al.*, 2012]. This effect may be a contributing cause of some of the corrected AHe ages being older than their corresponding AFT age (Figure 3c) and the magnitude of single-grain age dispersion (Figure 4 and Text S5). However, as the interaction between alpha ejection, radiation damage effects, and He diffusion remains poorly understood, we have chosen to quote raw, uncorrected, AHe ages and we deal with the effect of alpha ejection by accounting for ^4He lost through alpha ejection during each time step of the modeling approach following the approach proposed by Meesters and Dunai [2002a, 2002b].

Variation in effective uranium (eU) content, grain size, and whether or not crystals analyzed are fragments of larger crystals have been shown to be key factors that control the measured AHe date for a particular grain (Table 3) [Flowers *et al.*, 2009; Gautheron *et al.*, 2009; Reiners and Farley, 2001; Brown *et al.*, 2013; Beucher *et al.*, 2013]. If a sample has experienced relatively slow cooling through the partial He retention zone, then positive correlations of spherical equivalent grain radius (R^*) and/or eU with AHe age may be evident [Reiners and Farley, 2001; Flowers *et al.*, 2009]. However, as demonstrated by Brown *et al.* [2013], the combined effects of these influences may decouple the expected correlation. Moreover, a large number of grains analyzed in this study were fragments of larger grains and had only 1 (1T) or no (0T) terminations, and therefore, simple 2-D correlations between eU and R^* and grain date will be disrupted (Figure 4). Despite this, many samples do show an apparent positive age- R^* correlation (see Text S5 for all R^* and eU-AHe date plots). Sample NQ12-15 is the only sample for which we can observe a negative date- R^* correlation, although this sample has the fewest number of grains and therefore the correlation is poorly constrained.

Table 2. Results of Apatite (U-Th-Sm)/He Analysis^a

Sample	Grain #	4He (cc)	238U (ppm)	235U (ppm)	232Th (ppm)	147Sm (ppm)	eU ^b (ppm)	T ^c (μm)	L ^d (μm)	W ^d (μm)	R ^{*e} (μm)	F ^f	Raw Age		Corrected Age ^h		±Estimated UC ^g		Raw Age (Ma)		Corrected Age (Ma)	
													Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD
JN2	1	1.8E-09	0.10	69.3	7.2E-04	0.50	0.42	291.4	116.3	70.5	40.6	0.62	74.6	8.4	121.2	13.7	94.4	12.3	138.5	14.4		
	2	2.0E-09	0.05	36.9	3.6E-04	0.27	0.77	567.3	170.4	112.6	39.8	0.59	70.1	8.1	118.5	13.6						
	3	1.8E-09	0.07	52.3	5.2E-04	0.38	0.51	367.7	139.0	120.1	67.9	0.60	78.3	8.9	130.7	14.9						
	4	8.9E-09	0.27	73.5	1.9E-03	0.53	1.98	545.7	202.3	218.7	87.7	0.70	99.2	11.3	141.4	16.1						
	5	9.3E-09	0.25	69.0	1.8E-03	0.50	2.21	613.6	213.7	197.7	85.2	0.70	98.9	11.3	142.3	16.3						
	6	8.9E-09	0.14	66.1	1.0E-03	0.48	2.57	1170.7	341.7	126.4	83.2	0.65	97.2	11.2	149.0	17.2						
	7	8.7E-09	0.27	102.8	1.9E-03	0.75	1.74	663.5	259.5	158.8	81.1	0.85	105.3	12.0	156.5	17.9						
	8	5.9E-09	0.12	32.4	8.6E-04	0.24	1.87	507.2	151.8	167.6	93.6	0.70	86.0	9.9	122.2	14.1						
	9	9.8E-09	0.25	83.7	1.8E-03	0.61	2.57	866.0	287.8	117.4	100.3	0.69	94.2	10.8	135.6	15.6						
	10	5.7E-09	0.14	53.6	1.0E-03	0.39	1.80	667.3	210.8	116.1	96.1	0.68	82.6	9.5	121.0	13.9						
	12	1.5E-08	0.23	71.2	1.7E-03	0.52	4.47	1372.7	394.3	152.6	92.2	0.73	102.9	11.8	140.6	16.1						
	17	1.9E-08	0.46	99.9	3.3E-03	0.72	4.02	864.1	303.7	192.7	98.1	0.73	112.5	12.9	154.2	17.7						
	18	2.2E-08	0.62	125.1	4.5E-03	0.91	4.82	959.4	351.4	208.5	97.9	0.73	102.9	11.8	140.6	16.1						
	19	7.1E-09	0.20	66.6	1.4E-03	0.48	1.35	446.0	171.9	120.7	99.8	0.70	111.8	12.8	159.6	18.2						
	20	7.8E-09	0.27	83.5	2.0E-03	0.61	1.82	548.3	213.0	139.5	97.3	0.71	90.9	10.4	128.6	14.7						
	21	8.2E-09	0.32	87.8	2.3E-03	0.64	1.68	463.9	197.5	160.5	94.7	0.71	94.1	10.7	132.0	15.0						
	23	3.9E-09	0.11	49.5	7.7E-04	0.36	1.01	464.8	159.1	96.2	94.6	0.66	93.1	10.7	140.4	16.1						
	24	7.2E-09	0.21	62.6	1.5E-03	0.45	1.28	373.8	150.9	152.2	94.6	0.71	115.2	13.1	162.7	18.6						
	25	3.7E-09	0.10	47.6	7.6E-04	0.35	0.86	389.7	139.6	101.6	93.2	0.67	99.5	11.4	149.4	17.1						
	26	4.1E-09	0.15	43.2	1.1E-03	0.31	1.13	321.3	119.0	146.2	97.8	0.71	80.6	9.2	113.5	13.0						
	27	5.1E-09	0.17	81.7	1.2E-03	0.59	1.02	480.0	195.1	101.9	91.0	0.67	101.5	11.6	152.5	17.4						
JN3	1	2.6E-09	0.16	24.2	1.1E-03	0.18	0.20	29.9	31.4	170.4	124.1	0.82	103.6	11.4	132.5	14.6	106.2	12.9	140.6	18.7		
	2	3.0E-09	0.17	12.7	1.3E-03	0.09	0.12	8.6	14.8	187.7	171.4	0.82	122.0	13.4	146.2	16.1						
	3	2.2E-09	0.15	32.3	1.1E-03	0.23	0.17	38.0	41.4	187.6	98.2	0.75	95.1	10.5	127.4	14.1						
	4	3.9E-09	0.22	42.8	1.6E-03	0.31	0.34	66.9	58.8	157.9	113.5	0.62	107.0	11.9	140.7	15.6						
	5	2.7E-09	0.16	16.5	1.2E-03	0.12	0.17	17.1	20.7	184.4	146.2	0.81	107.1	11.8	131.8	14.5						
	6	1.9E-09	0.11	20.3	7.7E-04	0.15	0.19	36.0	28.9	160.9	113.9	0.76	103.6	11.5	136.1	15.1						
	7	2.5E-09	0.08	18.0	6.1E-04	0.13	0.51	109.2	43.8	191.3	99.0	0.90	100.3	11.5	144.3	16.5						
	8	2.4E-09	0.13	30.9	9.4E-04	0.22	0.39	93.0	53.0	120.4	118.3	0.74	87.2	9.8	120.9	13.6						
	9	2.5E-09	0.13	20.9	9.4E-04	0.15	0.11	17.7	25.3	210.8	108.6	0.77	129.8	14.3	185.7	20.4						
NO12-04	1	5.1E-09	0.40	42.77	2.9E-03	0.31	0.13	13.8	46.3	328.6	106.1	0.85	96.4	13.5	122.0	17.0	101.4	21.2	134.8	25.6		
	2	4.5E-09	0.29	63.33	2.1E-03	0.46	0.45	100.2	87.3	202.1	94.5	0.74	93.4	12.7	126.4	17.2						
	4	1.2E-09	0.08	30.30	6.2E-04	0.22	0.03	10.9	33.1	188.7	76.8	0.70	101.0	11.3	144.3	16.2						
	5	4.3E-09	0.22	29.71	1.6E-03	0.22	0.06	7.4	31.7	196.2	123.0	0.80	143.8	16.0	180.6	20.1						
	6	1.4E-09	0.12	23.07	8.6E-04	0.17	0.03	5.9	24.6	142.7	119.9	0.73	92.4	13.0	119.4	16.9						
	7	3.3E-10	0.03	9.70	2.2E-04	0.07	0.03	8.7	11.8	187.8	80.6	0.70	69.3	7.8	98.3	11.1						
	8	2.5E-09	0.20	24.72	1.5E-03	0.18	0.06	7.2	26.6	261.9	111.5	0.68	93.6	13.1	118.2	16.6						
	12	2.0E-09	0.12	38.85	8.9E-04	0.28	0.16	52.1	51.4	164.8	87.2	0.71	98.1	10.8	137.8	15.2						
	22	2.1E-09	0.12	23.27	8.6E-04	0.17	0.05	10.0	25.8	245.4	90.9	0.75	124.4	13.9	166.1	18.6						
NO12-06	3	4.4E-09	0.21	33.3	1.5E-03	0.24	1.46	230.01	87.58	176.6	119.6	0.76	64.7	7.3	86.5	9.7	103.2	18.3	135.7	23.3		
	4	3.6E-09	0.17	37.8	1.3E-03	0.27	0.53	115.71	65.22	165.4	105.3	0.74	96.7	10.9	129.3	14.6						
	5	7.9E-09	0.49	64.2	3.5E-03	0.47	0.45	60.10	78.74	191.3	125.4	0.78	105.9	11.9	141.5	15.9						
	6	1.5E-08	0.88	128.9	6.4E-03	0.93	0.95	138.30	162.34	247.9	104.8	0.77	110.0	12.1	142.5	15.6						
	8	1.0E-08	0.51	60.5	3.7E-03	0.44	1.24	147.70	95.64	176.6	137.4	0.74	105.1	11.6	132.3	14.6						
	9	1.2E-09	0.05	14.1	3.5E-04	0.10	0.17	50.83	26.11	176.0	88.1	0.71	109.2	12.3	145.9	16.4						
	14	4.7E-09	0.13	19.3	9.4E-04	0.14	0.68	100.70	43.08	191.7	118.3	0.77	130.0	14.5	169.2	18.9						
	16	5.7E-09	0.11	17.0	8.1E-04	0.12	1.40	213.17	67.19	241.0	104.3	0.75	103.7	11.7	138.5	15.6						
NO12-07	2	1.9E-09	0.12	51.0	8.9E-04	0.37	0.29	121.0	79.8	168.3	75.3	0.62	80.7	8.9	119.0	13.1	89.6	14.1	122.5	19.1		
	4	2.9E-09	0.21	46.9	1.5E-03	0.34	0.17	37.4	56.1	175.6	100.6	0.75	94.2	12.8	128.5	17.4						
	7	4.0E-10	0.02	14.8	1.5E-04	0.11	0.12	84.0	34.6	123.9	68.1	0.61	66.0	9.0	86.8	11.8						

Table 2. (continued)

Sample	Grain #	⁴ He (cc)	²³⁸ U (ppm)	²³⁵ U (ng)	²³⁵ U (ppm)	²³² Th (ppm)	¹⁴⁷ Sm (ppm)	eU ^b (ppm)	T ^c (μm)	L ^d (μm)	W ^d (μm)	R ^e (μm)	F ^f	Raw Age		±Estimated UC ^g		Corrected Age ^h		Raw Age (Ma)		Corrected Age (Ma)			
														Age	SD	UC ^g	SD	Age ^h	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD		
NQ12-09	8	4.3E-09	0.23	35.7	1.6E-03	0.26	0.42	65.3	47.0	1	202.2	111.9	65.7	0.77	115.9	15.7	152.3	20.7	152.3	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	9	5.8E-10	0.04	47.5	3.2E-04	0.34	0.08	89.7	69.0	2	153.3	49.4	31.9	0.53	73.8	10.0	97.0	13.2	97.0	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	13	3.2E-09	0.15	27.7	1.1E-03	0.20	0.40	72.6	44.9	2	228.4	97.6	60.3	0.75	104.0	11.5	138.3	15.3	138.3	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	15	1.7E-09	0.10	38.5	7.1E-04	0.28	0.18	69.5	55.1	1	112.9	95.0	50.2	0.70	95.9	13.1	139.6	19.1	139.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	16	5.5E-10	0.04	17.7	3.0E-04	0.13	0.06	24.5	23.6	2	140.8	81.4	47.4	0.69	80.9	8.9	117.8	13.0	117.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	17	1.8E-09	0.13	49.3	9.7E-04	0.36	0.10	37.6	58.4	2	166.5	80.5	48.6	0.70	91.0	12.3	119.6	16.2	119.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	25	2.0E-09	0.12	22.5	8.7E-04	0.16	0.20	37.7	31.6	1	154.0	117.0	63.6	0.76	97.6	13.3	129.5	17.7	129.5	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	26	1.6E-09	0.12	49.3	8.5E-04	0.36	0.14	57.0	63.1	2	134.0	84.2	48.1	0.69	88.8	9.7	128.5	14.1	128.5	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	28	1.2E-09	0.12	89.2	8.6E-04	0.65	0.06	44.3	100.3	2	131.5	63.4	38.3	0.62	73.9	10.0	97.2	13.2	97.2	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	33	1.2E-09	0.07	16.5	5.3E-04	0.12	0.07	15.9	20.4	2	200.4	93.9	57.1	0.82	101.8	11.2	137.9	15.2	137.9	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	NQ12-10	1	1.2E-09	0.04	32.2	3.1E-04	0.23	0.39	293.8	101.4	2	146.3	60.3	37.5	0.57	70.3	7.9	122.7	13.8	122.7	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		2	1.9E-09	0.06	21.0	4.4E-04	0.15	0.63	215.1	36.3	1	177.4	80.9	49.4	0.67	73.9	8.3	109.7	12.3	109.7	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		3	2.4E-09	0.08	21.8	5.5E-04	0.16	0.59	169.2	61.7	0	128.4	103.7	55.4	0.71	90.1	13.0	126.5	18.3	126.5	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		5	7.5E-09	0.18	18.2	1.3E-03	0.13	1.94	197.3	64.6	0	191.2	143.2	78.1	0.79	96.2	14.0	121.2	17.7	121.2	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		6	5.1E-09	0.10	17.0	7.6E-04	0.12	0.89	144.3	51.0	2	158.9	124.3	67.0	0.76	132.9	14.9	174.6	19.6	174.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		7	2.6E-09	0.10	18.5	7.0E-04	0.13	0.64	121.7	47.3	0	192.8	103.8	61.3	0.74	84.7	12.2	114.2	16.4	114.2	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		8	2.0E-09	0.06	10.3	4.0E-04	0.07	0.54	99.7	33.8	1	157.2	117.1	64.0	0.75	86.7	9.7	115.8	13.0	115.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		9	1.2E-09	0.04	11.6	2.6E-04	0.08	0.34	108.4	37.2	1	142.3	93.5	52.8	0.70	85.7	9.4	123.2	13.5	123.2	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		11	1.0E-09	0.04	22.0	2.7E-04	0.16	0.31	181.9	64.9	1	111.5	77.8	43.3	0.63	77.4	11.2	122.8	17.8	122.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		12	3.2E-09	0.10	23.1	7.0E-04	0.17	0.88	211.4	73.0	1	150.3	105.0	58.4	0.73	86.8	12.6	119.7	17.4	119.7	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		15	9.7E-10	0.03	7.8	1.9E-04	0.06	0.30	88.2	28.5	1	133.6	100.8	54.9	0.71	82.0	11.9	116.1	16.9	116.1	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		16	4.2E-09	0.10	20.2	7.5E-04	0.15	0.88	171.6	60.7	2	206.9	99.5	60.1	0.73	108.4	12.2	147.6	16.6	147.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		17	2.8E-09	0.10	31.0	6.9E-04	0.22	0.86	279.3	96.8	1	143.2	92.3	52.4	0.71	78.3	11.4	112.8	16.4	112.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
		2	6.7E-10	0.06	19.4	4.4E-04	0.14	0.02	6.6	23.9	21.1	1	103.1	109.8	53.7	0.73	81.7	9.5	111.6	12.9	111.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
		3	9.5E-10	0.08	17.7	5.6E-04	0.13	0.02	5.0	28.8	19.0	1	178.6	98.5	57.9	0.75	91.8	10.6	122.0	14.0	122.0	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
		4	7.2E-10	0.04	18.6	2.8E-04	0.13	0.02	7.8	10.0	20.5	1	152.8	73.5	44.4	0.68	136.4	17.9	202.0	26.6	202.0	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
		5	3.1E-10	0.04	9.3	2.7E-04	0.07	0.01	2.6	10.0	10.0	1	108.1	121.1	58.2	0.75	63.8	9.0	84.6	11.9	84.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
	6	1.1E-09	0.08	25.6	5.9E-04	0.19	0.02	5.5	0.26	27.1	1	163.2	87.7	51.9	0.72	101.4	12.9	140.0	17.8	140.0	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
	8	5.5E-10	0.06	20.4	4.5E-04	0.15	0.03	8.6	22.6	22.6	1	172.7	83.3	50.3	0.71	66.3	9.2	92.9	12.8	92.9	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
	9	1.5E-09	0.12	27.3	8.8E-04	0.20	0.03	7.2	0.34	75.8	29.2	1	146.6	109.7	59.9	0.76	90.3	10.0	118.7	13.1	118.7	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
	10	1.4E-09	0.12	24.4	8.9E-04	0.18	0.02	3.4	25.4	25.4	1	176.4	106.7	61.4	0.77	90.2	13.0	117.4	16.9	117.4	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
	12	7.1E-10	0.08	16.8	5.6E-04	0.12	0.03	7.2	0.28	60.9	18.6	2	179.4	101.2	59.2	0.76	65.8	7.4	87.1	9.8	87.1	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
	13	3.9E-10	0.04	23.4	3.2E-04	0.17	0.02	8.8	25.6	25.6	1	105.0	84.5	45.2	0.68	66.3	9.2	97.3	13.5	97.3	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
14	4.7E-09	0.30	19.6	2.2E-03	0.14	0.19	12.1	1.59	104.0	22.6	1	194.9	176.8	91.2	0.84	107.2	11.9	127.6	14.2	127.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
15	5.8E-10	0.06	13.3	4.3E-04	0.10	0.02	5.0	14.6	14.6	1	155.1	107.3	59.8	0.76	72.8	10.1	95.8	13.3	95.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
17	5.8E-10	0.06	18.2	4.0E-04	0.13	0.04	13.1	21.4	21.4	1	143.2	92.3	52.4	0.72	72.9	7.9	104.6	11.4	104.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
18	5.2E-10	0.02	11.8	1.8E-04	0.09	0.01	6.1	0.13	60.6	13.3	2	138.4	77.1	45.2	0.68	148.0	19.9	217.7	29.3	217.7	88.7	165	125.2	17.5	
NQ12-11	5	5.9E-10	0.04	6.4	3.0E-04	0.05	0.03	4.9	0.16	25.8	7.6	1	185.1	116.8	66.6	0.78	99.2	10.9	127.1	13.9	127.1	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
	6	4.7E-10	0.03	3.7	1.9E-04	0.03	0.02	3.3	0.14	19.7	4.5	1	227.6	111.4	67.1	0.78	115.4	12.8	147.8	16.4	147.8	88.7	165	125.2	17.5
	7	3.4E-10	0.02	3.6	1.3E-04	0.03	0.03	6.1	5.1	1	234.6	93.1	58.3	0.74	109.4	11.9	147.4	16.0	147.4	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	8	8.7E-10	0.04	9.8	2.9E-04	0.07	0.03	6.8	11.5	0	155.8	101.5	57.4	0.75	153.6	20.9	205.9	28.0	205.9	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	10	1.7E-10	0.01	2.8	8.8E-05	0.02	0.01	1.7	3.2	1	122.4	119.2	60.1	0.76	101.1	24.8	133.4	32.7	133.4	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	11	3.5E-10	0.01	2.0	1.0E-04	0.01	0.01	1.2	2.2	0	202.8	117.7	68.4	0.79	181.4	24.7	230.3	31.4	230.3	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	12	4.4E-10	0.03	5.3	1.9E-04	0.04	0.02	3.8	6.3	1	180.2	104.6	60.8	0.76	117.1	14.5	154.1	19.1	154.1	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
13	3.8E-10	0.03	4.1	2.4E-04	0.03	0.01	1.4	4.4	1	194.5	128.0	72.2	0.80	87.3	12.2	109.0	15.2	109.0	88.7	165	125.2	17.5			
NQ12-13	1	8.7E-10	0.06	7.2	4.6E-04	0.05	0.04	4.3	8.3	1	186.5	136.7	75.0	0.81	98.9	13.5	122.6	16.7	122.6	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	3	2.1E-09	0.14	19.3	1.0E-03	0.14	0.10	14.0	22.8	1	177.6	127.1	70.2	0.79	107.3	14.6	135.5	18.4	135.5	88.7	165	125.2	17.5		
	4	7.7E-10	0.05	15.6	3.7E-04	0.11	0.05	14.7	19.2	2	202.1	80.0	50.1	0.71	98.1	10.9	138.9	15.5	138.9	88					

Table 2. (continued)

Sample	Grain #	⁴ He (cc)	²³⁸ U (ppm)	²³⁵ U (ppm)	²³² Th (ppm)	¹⁴⁷ Sm (ppm)	eU ^b (ppm)	T ^c (μm)	L ^d (μm)	W ^d (μm)	R ^e (μm)	F ^t	Raw Age (Ma)		Corrected Age ^h (Ma)		±Estimated UC ^g (Ma)		Raw Age (Ma)		Corrected Age (Ma)				
													Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD			
NQ12-15	8	2.0E-09	0.14	42.4	1.0E-03	0.31	0.05	16.3	0.14	40.8	46.6	2	180.1	85.5	51.8	0.72	104.9	11.8	145.3	16.4	55.8	31.3	74.3	43.8	
	10	8.1E-10	0.04	11.5	2.9E-04	0.08	0.03	8.6	0.15	44.4	13.6	2	149.7	96.1	54.5	0.73	136.4	16.2	186.3	22.1	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	12	1.7E-09	0.11	15.0	7.8E-04	0.11	0.09	12.1	0.09	54.7	17.9	1	202.5	118.9	68.9	0.79	106.1	14.4	134.7	18.3	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	15	8.2E-10	0.05	10.2	3.9E-04	0.07	0.05	8.6	0.29	54.7	12.3	2	213.4	99.7	60.6	0.76	99.3	11.2	131.0	14.8	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	2	4.1E-11	0.01	1.1	6.0E-05	0.01	0.03	3.6	0.03	4.6	2.0	1	219.2	116.1	68.9	0.78	22.4	3.4	28.9	4.4	55.8	31.3	74.3	43.8	
	3	2.0E-10	0.02	2.1	1.5E-04	0.02	0.12	12.3	0.12	12.5	5.0	2	260.4	121.9	74.1	0.79	32.1	3.5	40.8	4.5	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	6	2.7E-10	0.01	2.3	9.5E-05	0.02	0.07	13.2	0.06	10.0	5.4	2	255.2	94.1	59.6	0.74	70.1	8.8	95.4	11.9	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	7	1.1E-10	0.01	1.1	5.8E-05	0.01	0.03	4.6	0.07	4.6	2.1	0	192.8	103.8	61.3	0.75	53.5	5.8	68.8	7.5	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	8	2.9E-10	0.01	2.4	8.6E-05	0.02	0.05	9.5	0.04	8.5	4.7	2	212.3	95.6	58.5	0.73	101.0	16.4	137.5	22.3	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	2	1.3E-09	0.092	9.0	6.7E-04	0.07	0.03	2.8	0.13	12.8	9.7	1	170.6	154.6	79.8	0.82	104.5	13.8	127.4	16.8	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	4	3.4E-10	0.028	6.8	2.0E-04	0.05	0.01	3.5	0.22	10.3	7.7	2	180.9	94.9	56.4	0.74	88.7	12.2	119.4	16.4	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	6	2.9E-09	0.151	6.9	1.1E-03	0.05	0.11	5.1	0.22	10.3	8.1	1	229.8	194.9	102.6	0.86	132.9	14.2	155.0	16.5	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	7	1.2E-09	0.075	5.7	5.4E-04	0.04	0.07	5.1	0.0	0.0	6.9	2	227.9	151.9	85.4	0.83	111.1	15.1	133.7	18.1	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	8	3.1E-10	0.064	5.3	4.6E-04	0.04	0.03	2.3	0.25	20.7	5.9	2	211.5	149.5	82.8	0.83	34.9	4.0	42.2	4.8	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	9	3.9E-09	0.194	8.0	1.4E-03	0.06	0.38	15.7	0.19	17.8	11.7	2	243.6	199.2	106.0	0.86	112.6	15.4	130.2	17.9	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6	
10	5.8E-10	0.055	5.3	4.0E-04	0.04	0.10	9.3	0.19	17.8	7.5	2	206.7	141.4	79.0	0.81	59.9	6.6	74.0	8.1	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
11	6.8E-10	0.048	4.8	3.5E-04	0.03	0.02	2.4	0.08	12.3	5.4	2	169.6	153.1	79.1	0.82	102.7	14.1	126.0	17.3	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
12	2.2E-09	0.090	13.1	6.5E-04	0.10	0.03	4.1	0.08	12.3	14.2	1	178.9	123.6	68.9	0.79	181.3	22.0	229.1	27.7	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
13	5.4E-10	0.065	8.3	4.7E-04	0.06	0.03	3.6	0.12	15.7	9.2	2	182.7	130.5	72.1	0.80	60.4	7.0	75.6	8.8	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
16	4.4E-09	0.187	10.9	1.4E-03	0.08	0.13	7.6	0.31	17.8	12.8	1	217.0	177.5	94.5	0.85	161.3	17.2	190.7	20.3	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
18	2.5E-09	0.090	8.8	6.5E-04	0.06	0.05	5.1	0.21	20.2	10.0	2	190.4	146.1	79.2	0.82	196.2	21.5	240.2	26.4	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
19	8.3E-10	0.058	5.5	4.2E-04	0.04	0.02	2.2	0.0	0.0	6.1	2	181.5	151.5	80.2	0.82	106.4	14.7	129.9	18.0	111.8	18.6	108.4	26.6		
SA12-22	1	4.5E-09	0.52	37.3	3.8E-03	0.27	0.26	19.0	0.37	98.9	42.0	2	295.9	136.6	83.2	0.83	63.5	7.1	76.9	8.6	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	2	3.4E-09	0.28	37.0	2.0E-03	0.27	0.15	19.1	0.37	98.9	41.7	1	201.0	122.8	70.6	0.79	89.0	10.0	112.0	12.6	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	3	3.1E-09	0.29	25.5	2.1E-03	0.18	0.30	26.1	0.40	56.4	31.8	2	237.4	139.2	80.7	0.82	70.0	7.8	85.7	9.5	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	4	5.6E-09	0.36	84.5	2.6E-03	0.61	0.35	82.3	0.40	56.4	12.3	1	250.5	106.0	65.6	0.78	98.8	11.1	126.4	14.2	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	7	1.1E-08	0.74	86.0	5.3E-03	0.62	0.64	74.2	0.8	0.8	15.5	1	260.8	175.5	98.5	0.86	110.1	16.2	128.6	19.0	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	6	1.7E-09	0.09	8.6	6.7E-04	0.06	0.01	1.0	0.8	0.8	8.9	1	307.0	117.9	74.2	0.81	146.8	21.3	181.6	26.4	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	8	1.9E-09	0.15	13.1	1.1E-03	0.09	0.02	1.5	2.67	79.3	13.5	1	239.7	138.1	80.4	0.82	100.5	14.6	122.0	17.7	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
SA12-30	9	9.7E-09	0.44	13.0	3.2E-03	0.09	0.06	1.8	0.86	84.6	13.6	1	317.4	205.6	116.5	0.88	165.2	18.1	188.2	20.6	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	10	2.3E-09	0.12	11.9	8.8E-04	0.09	0.07	7.1	0.86	84.6	13.6	1	197.0	143.3	78.8	0.82	129.1	14.1	158.3	17.3	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	11	1.5E-09	0.13	23.8	9.5E-04	0.17	0.01	2.5	0.85	55.6	24.5	1	249.6	93.8	59.2	0.76	91.5	13.3	120.4	17.3	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	12	2.7E-09	0.18	11.7	1.3E-03	0.09	0.02	1.1	0.85	55.6	12.1	2	302.9	141.8	86.2	0.84	113.5	13.7	135.9	16.4	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	14	4.9E-09	0.26	21.0	1.9E-03	0.15	0.04	3.0	0.43	61.5	21.9	1	225.6	147.9	83.5	0.83	147.7	21.3	178.1	25.7	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	16	9.3E-10	0.07	9.9	5.0E-04	0.07	0.01	2.1	0.43	61.5	10.4	2	212.9	114.2	67.6	0.79	99.4	12.0	126.1	15.2	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	17	1.2E-09	0.08	17.3	5.9E-04	0.13	0.02	4.3	0.36	77.4	18.4	2	203.5	95.6	58.1	0.75	107.0	12.5	142.1	16.5	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	19	1.5E-09	0.10	13.6	7.6E-04	0.10	0.01	0.7	0.52	67.8	13.9	1	162.4	137.4	72.4	0.80	109.9	29.5	136.6	36.6	85.9	18.6	108.4	26.6	
	SA12-35	4	4.2E-10	0.02	2.7	1.4E-04	0.02	0.04	5.8	0.37	51.9	4.1	1	174.3	127.5	70.0	0.78	107.8	14.9	137.6	19.0	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
		5	1.7E-10	0.02	3.5	1.2E-04	0.03	0.03	5.4	0.37	51.9	4.8	1	216.5	94.1	58.0	0.74	60.0	8.2	80.9	11.0	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
		6	4.9E-11	0.01	1.2	6.0E-05	0.01	0.03	4.6	0.37	51.9	2.2	2	234.5	110.5	67.1	0.77	20.9	2.4	27.3	3.1	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
		7	8.9E-10	0.01	1.1	1.1E-04	0.01	0.21	15.1	0.76	55.3	4.6	1	157.6	186.5	87.9	0.82	104.4	15.3	128.1	18.8	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
		10	2.3E-10	0.01	2.5	1.0E-04	0.02	0.07	11.9	0.28	49.9	5.3	1	207.4	103.1	61.9	0.75	60.8	8.7	81.4	11.6	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
		11	8.3E-11	0.01	2.2	8.2E-05	0.02	0.06	12.2	0.28	49.9	5.1	2	237.5	93.1	58.4	0.73	26.0	3.7	35.7	5.1	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7
13		5.0E-10	0.08	7.2	5.8E-04	0.05	0.19	17.5	0.43	61.5	11.4	2	248.0	132.9	78.6	0.81	32.6	4.5	40.4	5.6	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7	
14		2.2E-10	0.02	3.5	1.2E-04	0.03	0.06	13.8	0.37	51.9	6.7	1	143.9	112.3	60.6	0.74	59.4	8.4	79.9	11.3	62.1	28.6	81.1	35.7	

Table 2. (continued)

Sample	Grain #	⁴ He (cc)	²³⁸ U (ng)	²³⁵ U (ng)	²³² Th (ppm)	¹⁴⁷ Sm (ppm)	eU ^b (ppm)	T ^c (μm)	L ^d (μm)	W ^d (μm)	R ^e (μm)	F ^f	Raw Age (Ma)	±Estimated UC ^g (Ma)	Corrected Age ^h (Ma)	±Estimated UC ^g (Ma)	Raw Age (Ma)	SD	Corrected Age (Ma)	SD	
SA12-36	15	2.9E-10	0.02	2.6	1.5E-04	0.02	0.05	5.8	1	199.3	127.7	72.5	0.79	73.7	10.2	93.2	12.9				
	16	2.6E-10	0.02	3.8	1.4E-04	0.03	0.03	5.8	1	219.0	96.4	59.3	0.75	78.8	10.7	105.4	14.3				
	17	2.0E-10	0.01	2.4	8.3E-05	0.02	0.07	15.3	2	245.0	87.6	55.7	0.72	58.8	8.4	82.1	11.8				
	1	1.3E-09	0.03	4.2	1.9E-04	0.03	0.43	68.5	20.2	245.2	101.0	62.8	0.74	81.0	11.9	109.3	16.1	92.5	27.7	120.7	29.9
	3	8.5E-10	0.03	5.0	2.2E-04	0.03	0.20	32.7	11.5	217.5	106.1	64.0	0.73	88.8	9.7	118.0	12.9				
	4	9.8E-10	0.02	4.2	1.7E-04	0.02	0.37	67.1	18.9	167.5	114.2	63.9	0.77	73.0	8.0	97.9	10.7				
	5	1.5E-09	0.06	7.8	4.4E-04	0.06	0.36	46.8	18.8	203.2	123.4	71.0	0.78	86.2	12.4	110.9	15.9				
	6	4.4E-09	0.07	5.9	4.8E-04	0.04	1.35	121.4	34.5	189.8	152.5	81.6	0.80	93.8	13.8	117.2	17.3				
	7	1.1E-09	0.02	3.2	1.1E-04	0.02	0.29	59.7	17.3	173.6	105.2	60.6	0.73	98.5	10.6	134.9	14.6				
	9	1.4E-09	0.06	4.3	4.7E-04	0.03	0.25	16.5	7.6	169.5	187.8	90.6	0.83	95.1	13.4	114.8	16.2				
	10	7.1E-10	0.02	5.5	1.2E-04	0.03	0.27	92.2	25.5	171.4	82.6	49.9	0.67	72.7	10.7	107.9	15.9				
SA12-38	11	4.2E-09	0.08	4.2	5.6E-04	0.02	0.45	24.3	8.9	275.9	163.1	94.4	0.83	170.9	18.6	205.2	22.3				
	13	4.2E-09	0.05	7.4	3.8E-04	0.05	1.26	179.0	98.8	138.9	138.9	68.9	0.76	87.1	9.3	114.3	12.3				
	16	1.8E-09	0.03	5.1	2.0E-04	0.04	0.75	134.9	36.8	212.9	114.2	67.6	0.76	70.7	7.8	96.6	10.6				
	1	2.4E-09	0.16	19.0	1.1E-03	0.14	0.10	11.9	22.0	169.2	139.0	73.9	0.80	106.8	11.5	133.0	14.4	107.3	14.3	135.0	18.3
	2	3.3E-09	0.20	25.6	1.4E-03	0.19	0.28	36.5	34.4	154.1	140.7	72.4	0.79	100.3	10.8	126.3	13.6				
	3	1.4E-09	0.09	21.9	6.3E-04	0.16	0.15	36.7	30.7	142.1	105.6	57.7	0.74	89.5	9.8	120.9	13.3				
	4	6.3E-09	0.07	6.0	5.4E-04	0.04	1.84	149.3	69.7	277.1	133.0	80.5	0.80	100.2	11.3	125.9	14.2				
	5	8.1E-09	0.51	26.1	3.7E-03	0.19	0.39	19.8	22.0	237.1	181.0	98.2	0.85	106.6	14.5	125.2	17.0				
	6	5.4E-09	0.21	26.0	1.5E-03	0.19	0.61	75.0	43.8	156.3	143.9	73.9	0.79	120.4	16.8	152.0	21.2				
	7	2.6E-09	0.16	18.7	1.2E-03	0.14	0.20	23.8	24.4	230.2	121.6	72.1	0.79	95.6	10.5	120.4	13.2				
	8	3.8E-09	0.21	31.3	1.5E-03	0.23	0.10	14.4	34.9	160.5	129.7	69.3	0.79	130.3	17.9	164.6	22.7				
10	2.5E-09	0.19	31.1	1.3E-03	0.23	0.17	28.3	37.9	210.2	106.2	63.6	0.77	88.4	9.7	115.0	12.6					
11	6.3E-09	0.38	34.3	2.7E-03	0.25	0.24	22.1	39.8	233.7	137.0	79.4	0.82	114.0	12.5	139.6	15.3					
12	6.3E-09	0.27	48.8	1.9E-03	0.35	0.49	89.2	70.1	145.7	122.5	64.7	0.77	131.6	18.0	171.6	23.5					

^aAnalytical details can be found in Text S4. For details on sample lithology see Table S8.

^beU (effective uranium) is calculated as eUppm = [Uppm] + (0.235*(Thppm)).

^cT = Number of terminations identified on crystal.

^dL and W = length and width of crystal or crystal fragment.

^eR* = spherical equivalent radius calculated as R* = (3*(RL))/(2*(R + L)) where R = W/2.

^fCorrection factor after Farley et al. [1996], assuming homogeneous distribution U and Th.

^gEstimate uncertainty is equal to 1σ analytical uncertainty, which includes error propagated from U, Th, Sm, and He measurement uncertainties, plus an additional 10% which is the standard deviation (reproducibility) of repeat analysis of Durango apatite standards.

^hCorrected AHe age = raw AHe age/Ft.

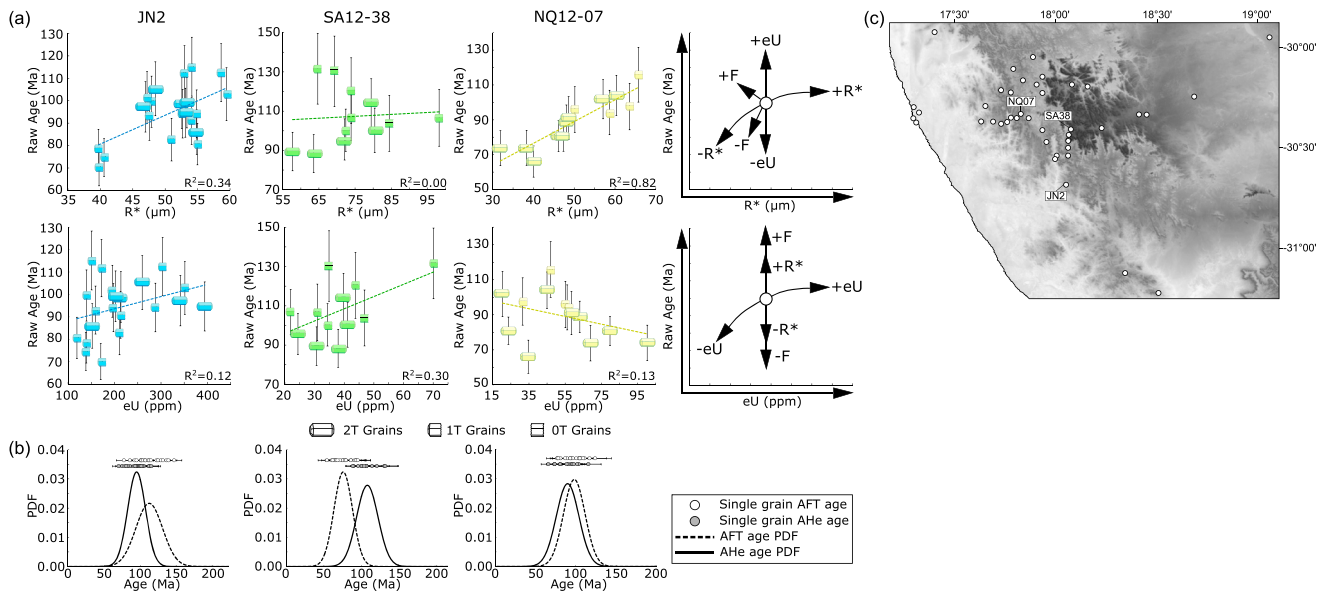


Figure 4. (a) Relationships of AHe age (uncorrected) against spherical equivalent radius (R^*) (top row) and against effective uranium ($eU = [U] + [0.235 \cdot Th]$). All uncertainties include 1σ analytical uncertainty plus an additional 10% uncertainty observed in the dispersion of Durango standards analyzed. The two plots in the final column are cartoons illustrating the relative influence on AHe ages by the different factors causing natural AHe single-grain age dispersion (R^* = spherical equivalent radius; eU = effective uranium; and F = crystal fragment length) [after *Brown et al.*, 2013]. The competing influence of all dispersion contributors perturbs simple 2-D relationships. Age increases with increasing eU and R^* . Larger fragment lengths of broken crystals are typically older than small fragment lengths. (b) Probability density functions of a normal distribution centered on the mean AFT and mean AHe age with 1σ the standard deviation on the mean. (c) Location map of samples used for dispersion plots.

Plots of eU versus single-grain age are more complex, and different samples show correlations that are positive, negative, or entirely absent. However, a simple linear correlation between eU and grain age should be not expected even for “well-” behaved samples, because the effect of radiation damage accumulation and annealing is not linear, and it is dependent on the thermal history. For example, *Flowers et al.* [2009] report that for relatively slow cooling rates (approximately $0.1\text{--}1^\circ\text{C}/\text{Myr}$), the age- eU relationship will first be positively correlated but will then plateau above eU concentrations of approximately 50 ppm. Our understanding of how the accumulation and annealing of radiation defects occur, and the impact this has on alpha trapping and helium diffusion, is still developing [*Gautheron et al.*, 2013; *Mbongo-Djimbi et al.*, 2015]. Expecting to observe simple correlations in single-grain ages and eU may also be ambitious considering that grain radius and the presence of fragmented grains influence the effective closure temperature and preservation of the He diffusion profile within grains, respectively. However, we emphasize that the observed intersample grain age dispersion is likely a real and natural effect that contains useful information about the sample’s thermal history irrespective of whether the simple 2-D plots of grain age versus eU and R^* show clear correlations or not [*Flowers and Kelley*, 2011; *Brown et al.*, 2013].

Other factors that can cause single-grain age dispersion (Table 3) must also be considered though, such as the possible presence of U and Th zonation [*Flowers and Kelley*, 2011; *Ault and Flowers*, 2012; *Farley et al.*, 2011], unidentified U- and Th-bearing inclusions [*House et al.*, 1997; *Stockli et al.*, 2000; *Fitzgerald et al.*, 2006; *Vermeesch et al.*, 2007], implantation [*Farley et al.*, 1996; *Spiegel et al.*, 2009; *Gautheron et al.*, 2012], the contribution of Sm [*Hansen and Reiners*, 2006; *Vermeesch*, 2008], and the dominant influence of the thermal history of the sample in controlling He diffusion.

3.3. Summary of Joint AFT and AHe Data

The AFT data presented here include AFT ages that range from the Early Cretaceous to early Cenozoic with moderate to long MTLs (approximately $13\ \mu\text{m}$) and track length distributions that are generally narrow to moderately broad (standard deviation 0.97 to $1.95\ \mu\text{m}$). The qualitative relationship of the track length and AFT age data indicates that the dominant phase of crustal cooling occurred throughout the Cretaceous. However, only by using inverse modeling can we resolve the temporal and spatial variability of crustal cooling across the study area.

Table 3. Summary of the Different Factors That Contribute to Single-Grain AHe Age Dispersion and the Estimated Magnitude of Dispersion Introduced by Each of These Factors

Dispersion Factor	Contribution to Dispersion	Comments	References
Grain size (R^*)	± 50 – 100%	R^* of approximately 50–100 μm , depending on the thermal history	<i>Reiners and Farley</i> [2001] and <i>Brown et al.</i> [2013]
Radiation Damage (eU)	± 50 – 100%	Depending on thermal history and difference in the eU, content of individual grains can exceed 200%.	<i>Gautheron et al.</i> [2009], <i>Flowers et al.</i> [2009], and <i>Brown et al.</i> [2013]
Fragment length	± 7 – 60%	Depending on length of fragment and original position of fragment relative to the whole grain.	<i>Brown et al.</i> [2013]
Zonation	± 10 – 15%	30–40% dispersion for some thermal histories and extreme heterogeneity, true age may be older or younger depending on whether the crystal has an enriched core or rim, respectively.	<i>Meesters and Dunai</i> [2002a], <i>Fitzgerald et al.</i> [2006], <i>Farley et al.</i> [2011], and <i>Ault and Flowers</i> [2012]
Implantation	older by 60%	Effect will vary depending on the size of “bad neighbor,” [U] and [Th] content of bad neighbor, and whether or not the apatite is in contact with one or many bad neighbors.	<i>Spiegel et al.</i> [2009] and <i>Gautheron et al.</i> [2012]
Alpha ejection factor (Ft)	older age by 3–8%	Depending on thermal history and zonation patterns	<i>Meesters and Dunai</i> [2002a, 2002b], <i>Gautheron et al.</i> [2012], and <i>Brown et al.</i> [2013]
Sm	0.1–10%	In certain situations (low [U] and [Th], anomalously high [Sm]) can exceed 25%.	<i>Fitzgerald et al.</i> [2006] and <i>Vermeesch et al.</i> [2008]
Mineral inclusions	older by <10%	More than a few percent only when inclusions are quite large (<0.1 of the grain size) and/or have an unusually high U and Th content (i.e., >1000 times that of the apatite).	<i>Vermeesch et al.</i> [2007]

In general, the AHe ages are in agreement with AFT ages in that they are predominantly Early Cretaceous to early Cenozoic. It is not uncommon to observe AHe ages equal to or exceeding their corresponding AFT ages [*Hendriks and Redfield*, 2005; *Fitzgerald et al.*, 2006; *Green and Duddy*, 2006; *Flowers and Kelley*, 2011; *Danišik et al.*, 2012; *Ksienzyk et al.*, 2014] for reasons discussed above. Only three samples have mean AHe ages that are older and do not overlap within the uncertainty of the mean AFT age (Figure 3c).

When comparing mean sample AHe ages with mean (or central or pooled) sample AFT ages, it is not clear what meaning to ascribe to any differences in these values because of the wide range of factors that affect single-grain ages in both systems. For many cases, where a sample has experienced a protracted low-temperature thermal history, it would be expected that some single grains yield AFT ages older than AHe and also the reverse, depending on the relative eU, grain size, and CI composition of the different grains. Large, U-, Th-, and F-rich grains may yield old AHe ages and young AFT ages, whereas small, U-poor, Th-poor, but CI-rich grains may yield young AHe ages and old AFT ages. For this reason, we present and examine the single-grain date distributions of both methods to try and avoid problems that may arise from interpreting sample mean ages directly (Figure 4b and Text S6).

If a sample yields concordant mean AHe and mean AFT ages, this is often interpreted as indicative of a sample cooling rapidly through both the partial annealing zone (PAZ) and partial retention zone at a time indicated by the measured ages. However, because AFT and AHe analyses are not performed on the same grains, and the thermal sensitivity of each grain is different due to different grain sizes and compositions, it does not necessarily follow that concordant mean sample ages indicate rapid cooling at that time. For the same reasons, samples having AFT and AHe data that appear at first complex, or even incompatible, may well contain coherent, useful thermal history information once the real uncertainties on each measurement are formally acknowledged and accounted for when modeling the data.

4. Thermal History Inversion

4.1. Approach

In this study, QTQt, a Bayesian transdimensional approach to data inversion, as described in detail by *Gallagher* [2012], is used for the inference of thermal history models. Fission track ages and track length data are modeled using the multikinetic fission track annealing model of *Ketchum et al.* [2007]. For samples that also have AHe data, all single-grain ages are jointly inverted alongside the corresponding fission track data

using the model and parameters of *Gautheron et al.* [2009], which accounts for the effect of radiation damage accumulation and its annealing on He diffusion.

The Bayesian method requires us to define the model space as a prior probability distribution (i.e., range of temperature and time over which to search). The model space is then sampled using a MCMC approach [e.g., *Gilks, 2005; Sambridge et al., 2006; Gallagher et al., 2009*], whereby the current model is perturbed to produce a proposed model. This model is then accepted or rejected based on a combination of the data fit (likelihood) of the proposed model and the prior probability, relative to the same measures for the current model. The transdimensional Bayesian aspect of the modeling technique penalizes complex models proposed during sampling in favor of models with fewer $T-t$ points that adequately fit the observed data. An additional novel aspect of QTQt is the ability to model samples from vertical profiles together. This function is also employed below for a subset of samples that form an “elevation profile” over a relatively short distance of approximately 10 km. Such a multisample profile inversion also incorporates an additional model parameter representing the temperature difference or offset between the top and bottom samples, with a prior determined by an assumed range for the geothermal gradient.

The MCMC algorithm was run for a minimum of approximately 200,000 iterations after discarding an initial approximately 50,000 “burn in” runs [see *Gallagher et al., 2009*]. In most cases, however, the number of runs far exceeds this as short approximately 10,000 iteration runs are performed in order to choose appropriate values for the MCMC search parameters before performing longer runs. This choice is based on the acceptance rates of proposed model parameters (being between 20 and 60%) and the parameter sampling being stationary (i.e., no obvious trends as a function of iteration). The output of the Bayesian approach is an ensemble of accepted thermal history models, each with an associated posterior probability. From this collection of thermal histories, a mean thermal history model (weighted by the posterior probability of each individual thermal history), termed the expected model, is produced with 95% credible intervals that provide the uncertainty on the model. The nature of the expected model is that it will retain well-constrained features (i.e., features common to many individual models) while more complex deviations observed in only a small number of viable models are averaged out. The expected model, and its associated uncertainty measures, provides the most robust albeit conservative insight to the overall thermal history of the sample.

4.2. Additional Model Constraints

For each sample, the oldest sample age (i.e., the AFT age or oldest AHe single-grain age for the sample) is used to define the center of a uniform prior on time, with a range of plus/minus oldest sample age. The prior information on temperature range was centered on 70°C with a range of $\pm 70^\circ\text{C}$. The number of time-temperature points sampled from this prior is allowed to vary from 2 (including the present data temperature) to 50. The thermal history is constructed by interpolating linearly between these sampled time-temperature points. This sampling strategy imposes no constraints about the form of the thermal history (e.g., monotonic cooling), but the form is determined by the data themselves. Additional prior information, if available from geological constraints, can be entered in a similar manner as a range of time and temperature. All samples from this region are outcrop samples taken from basement lithologies apart from SA12-27, which was collected from a boulder clast of basement origin from within the glacial tillite of the Permian Dwyka Group. During modeling, SA12-27 was assigned a specific initial constraint of 300 ± 10 Ma, $5 \pm 5^\circ\text{C}$ to represent that the sample was at the surface at this time. For basement samples, an initial constraint of 550 ± 50 Ma and $100 \pm 100^\circ\text{C}$ was used to reflect the uncertainty surrounding the paleotemperature of the sample during the Pan-African Orogeny. For each model, only the post-300 Ma thermal history is presented. Before 300 Ma, thermal history models are unconstrained because the data require that all sample temperatures are close to or above the base of the apatite PAZ (i.e., approximately $110 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$) prior to cooling in the Mesozoic. The present-day temperature value is assumed to be $20 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ for all samples.

A lack of geological information limits the amount of postrift constraints that can be added to the models. However, the implications of sporadic fossil evidence, sedimentary deposits, and igneous intrusions across the region on nearby samples are also investigated. The thermal history for the cluster of samples collected at Hondeklip Bay can be constrained using fossil evidence in thin sedimentary formations that overlie the Namaqua Metamorphic Province rocks across the coastal plain. Fossil hominoid teeth from the marine sand Alexander Bay Formation assign an early Miocene age to the deposit [*Senut et al., 1997*]. The Alexander Bay Formation overlies the calcified and silicified gravels and sandstones of the Koignass Formation, which

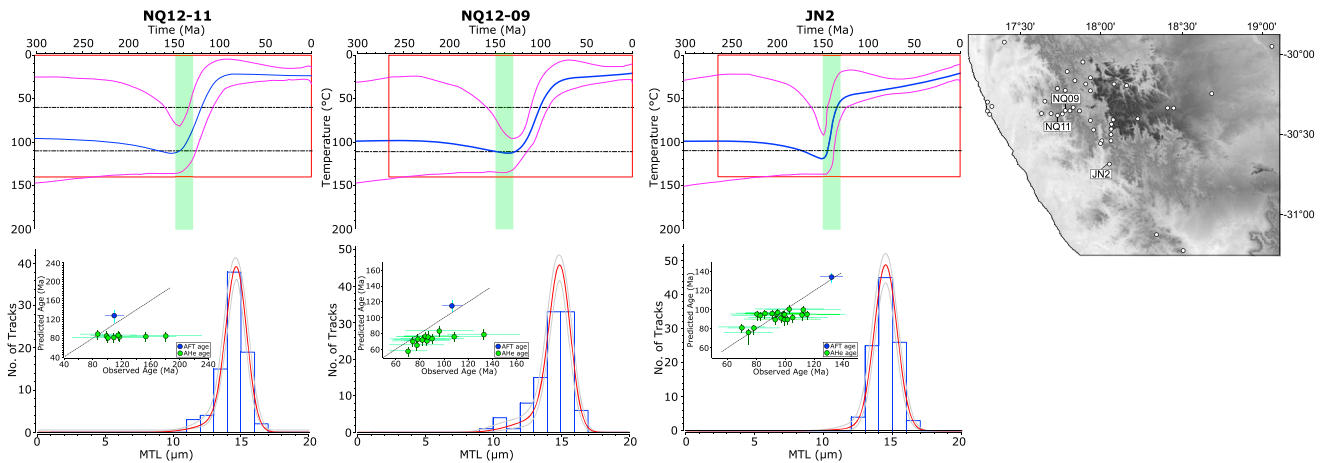


Figure 5. Thermal history modeling results for three samples from the Namaqualand Highlands highlighting Early Cretaceous cooling (top row), their data predictions (bottom row), and their locations on the topographic map of the study area. In Figure 5 (top row), blue line shows the expected model (i.e., average of all models weighted for their posterior probability); magenta lines indicate 95% credible intervals for the expected model. Red box indicates the prior information on temperature and time. Green box is used to indicate the timing of the synrift cooling episode predicted across the entire margin (i.e., approximately 150–130 Ma). Figure 5 (bottom row) shows the observed track length distributions; red curve indicates the predicted track length distributions, and grey curves indicate 95% credible intervals (i.e., uncertainty) for track length distribution prediction. Inset plot shows the relationship of observed data against model-predicted data; green circles represent single-grain AHe ages, and blue circles represent AFT ages.

is presumed to have been deposited in a fluvial environment during a late Oligocene to early Miocene marine regression [de Beer, 2010]. Coastal samples are therefore assigned an additional constraint of 20 ± 10 Ma, $20 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ to reflect near-surface temperatures of the basement rock prior to deposition of these Cenozoic deposits.

Sediments in and around the Vaalputs area and fossiliferous crater lake sediments preserved in the Gamoep intrusive suite, and in particular the Arnot pipe at Banke Farm (Figures 1 and 2), provide Late Mesozoic and Cenozoic constraints for samples on the plateau. The Dasdap and Vaalputs sediments are proposed to be Late Cretaceous to early Paleocene in age. This age is supported by palynological evidence dated at 71 to 64 Ma [Scholtz, 1985] and preservation of fossilized frogs and wood in clay deposits [Adamson, 1931; Haughton, 1931]. Estes [1977] reported younger pollen and fossil leaf evidence from the same lacustrine sediments aged from the late Eocene to early Oligocene. A constraint box of 50 ± 20 Ma, $20 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ was included for samples SA12-51, SA12-52, and SA12-27.

4.3. Results

4.3.1. Early Cretaceous Cooling Histories

A signal of Early Cretaceous cooling is evident in many samples across the study area. Figure 5 shows representative thermal histories of this form (see Figure S7 for all thermal history models). The path of the expected thermal history indicates cooling through the PAZ beginning at approximately 150–130 Ma and reaches near-surface temperatures by approximately 50–30 Ma (Figure 5, top and bottom rows). Due to the unconstrained initial conditions of the model, it is unclear whether the sample was already undergoing cooling or still being heated prior to the cooling episode predicted by the model. Cooling rates for the main phase of cooling predicted by these thermal histories are approximately 0.5–2.5°C/Myr, over a period of approximately 50 Myr (150–100 Myr).

More rapid cooling during the Early Cretaceous (approximately 150–130 Ma) time interval is rarely observed. However, in occasional samples (e.g., JN2, Figure 5, right figure), cooling rates of approximately 4.5–5.5°C/Myr over a 10 Myr period are predicted. Following this period of rapid cooling, the cooling rate rapidly decreases to approximately 0.2–0.3°C/Myr during the Late Cretaceous and is maintained through the Cenozoic. These models imply that crustal cooling persisted throughout the Early Cretaceous across the entire margin, predominantly at a moderate and steady rate, although local variations exist. A consistent observation is that near-surface temperatures ($\leq 40^\circ\text{C}$) were reached and maintained by the early Cenozoic.

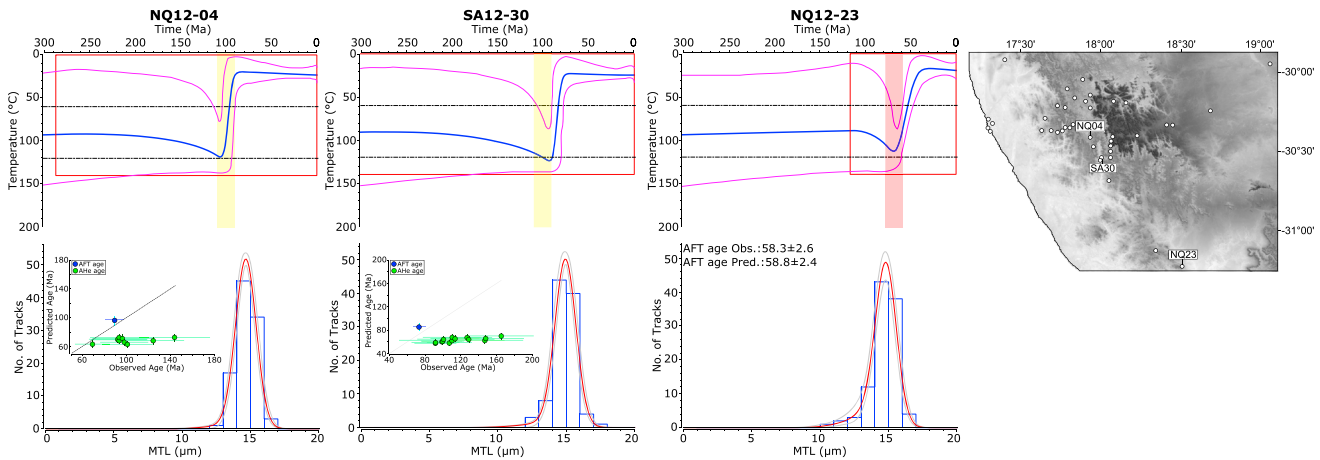


Figure 6. Thermal history modeling results for three samples from the Namaqualand Highlands highlighting middle–Late Cretaceous cooling (top row), their data predictions (bottom row), and their location on the topographic map of the study area. In Figure 6 (top row), blue line shows the expected model (i.e., average of all models weighted for their posterior probability); magenta lines indicate 95% credible intervals for the expected model. Red box indicates the prior information on temperature and time. Yellow and red boxes are used to indicate the timing of the postrift cooling episodes: approximately 110–90 Ma (structurally controlled denudation across the entire margin and regional denudation of the interior plateau) and approximately 80–60 Ma (structurally controlled denudation, potentially caused by compression-driven inversion in parts of South Africa and in Namibia), respectively. Figure 6 (bottom row) shows the observed track length distributions; red curve indicates the predicted track length distributions, and grey curves indicate 95% credible intervals (i.e., uncertainty) for track length distributions prediction. Inset plot shows the relationship of observed data against model-predicted data; green circles represent single-grain AHe ages, and blue circles represent AFT age.

4.3.2. Late Cretaceous Cooling Histories

Cooling initiating during the middle–Late Cretaceous (approximately 110–90 Ma) time interval, characterized by rapid cooling rates, is the dominant style of thermal history across the margin (e.g., Figure 6 (top and bottom rows); see Text S7). Cooling rates generally range from approximately 1.5–5°C/Myr but in certain samples can be higher at 7.4–8.1°C/Myr (e.g., NQ12-04). Following rapid cooling during the Late Cretaceous, samples are predicted to reside at temperatures $\leq 40^\circ\text{C}$ and cool steadily through the Cenozoic toward present-day surface temperatures. As these samples cooled from temperatures of approximately $110 \pm 10^\circ\text{C}$ during the Late Cretaceous, any record of earlier cooling (i.e., the Early Cretaceous cooling history described above) is not preserved. The absence of a Late Cretaceous pulse of cooling in “Early Cretaceous cooling histories” could be due to a lack of information in the data, meaning that the approach adopted by QTQt does not need or cannot resolve a two-stage cooling history from the available data. However, we interpret the monotonic Early Cretaceous thermal histories as a real feature with geological significance, as it is the most probable cooling path given the data available, and any alternative would involve forcing the model to satisfy a preferred thermal history.

A second Late Cretaceous cooling episode is poorly preserved but is present in the study area. The thermal history for one sample clearly shows cooling initiating at between 70 and 65 Ma (Figure 6, right figure). The style of cooling for NQ12-23 is very rapid, occurring at a rate of 10°C/Myr. This sample resides in a complex structural setting and is approximately 50 km SW of the Koegel Fontein igneous complex, which has intrusive bodies dated to approximately 70–50 Ma [de Beer, 2002]. Fission track data for this sample are robust with a large number of track lengths and single-grain ages. The regional significance of this cooling history cannot be inferred from this sample alone and is therefore discussed in more detail below alongside other regional AFT data.

4.3.3. Multisample Inversion

A subset of samples, composed of eight outcrop samples from the western flank of the “Kamiesberg Mountain,” including two samples from the data set of Wildman *et al.* [2015], covers an elevation range of 1220 m and is separated by a distance of less than 10 km (north to south) and 5 km (east to west) (Figure 7). Data from these samples are treated as an elevation profile and are modeled together as described in section 4.1. Contrary to the expected relationship of AFT age and elevation, the oldest AFT ages in this profile are at the base. As expected, these samples have the poorest data fit when all samples in the profile are modeled together (Figure 7, left column). To resolve this issue, the profile is better split into (i) a lower profile consisting of three samples with AFT ages of approximately 115 Ma (Figure 7, middle column) and (ii) an upper profile consisting of

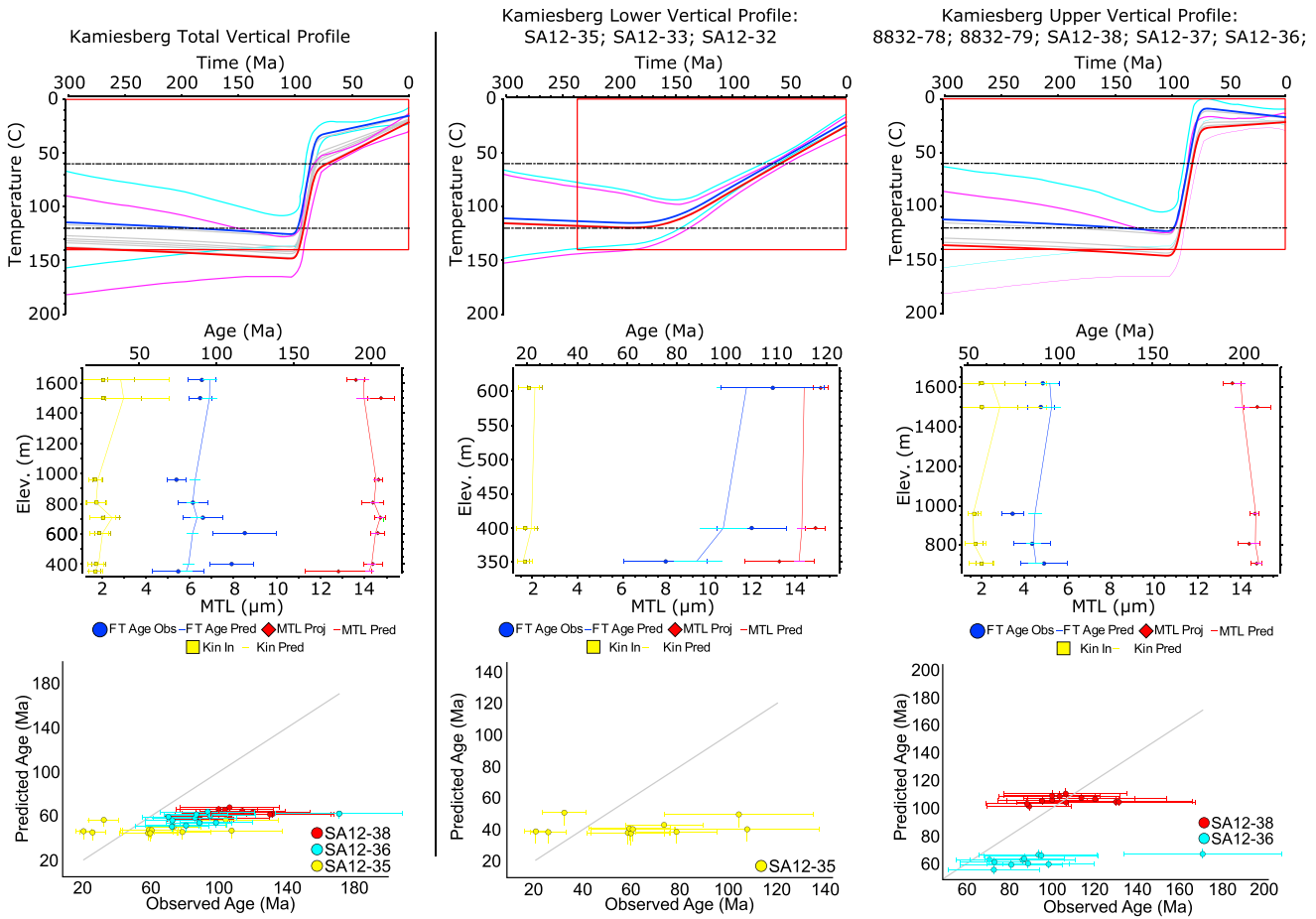


Figure 7. Thermal history modeling results for an elevation profile of (top row) samples in the Namaqualand Highlands and (bottom row) their data predictions. In Figure 7 (top row), blue line shows the expected model (i.e., average of all models weighted for their posterior probability) for the upper sample; red lines show the expected model for the bottom sample in the profile; and grey lines show expected model for intervening samples. Cyan and magenta lines indicate 95% credible intervals for the top and bottom sample expected model, respectively. Red box indicates the prior information on temperature and time. (middle and bottom rows) model predictions. Legend for data prediction plots can be found in the figure.

five AFT ages that are approximately 90 Ma (Figure 7, right column). A rapidly cooled, tightly constrained cooling event at approximately 110–90 Ma is defined for the upper profile, while a slower cooling history initiating at approximately 150–130 Ma is defined for the lower profile. As the age-elevation relationship of the entire profile is inconsistent with that of a profile sampled from a single coherent block and the data are better reproduced by two distinct thermal histories, it is possible that displacement on an unmapped fault has resulted in the lower profile (i.e., down-thrown block) retaining thermal history information from the synrift period while the upper profile (i.e., up-thrown block) has cooled during later erosion.

It is difficult to reproduce all of the single-grain AHe ages for samples in the elevation profile regardless of whether the data are modeled as a single profile or two profiles. In fact, for most models with AHe data, it is predominantly the younger AHe single-grain ages that are predicted best. The poor fit of the AHe data relative to that of AFT data is likely to be due to a combination of our limited understanding of the He system and the treatment of the data in the modeling approach to compensate for this. Although we have attempted to account for both grain size and radiation damage effects, the latter is still not ideally parameterized, particularly for high eU samples and potentially for additional compositional heterogeneity [Gautheron *et al.*, 2013; Mbongo-Djimbi *et al.*, 2015]. Moreover, the effect of other factors that could produce observed AHe ages that were “too old” (e.g., grain fragmentation, zonation, and implantation) is unaccounted for and may, in the future, improve data fits. For this reason, less weight was placed on AHe ages, by assigning an uncertainty to AHe single-grain ages greater than the analytical uncertainty and allowing the AHe single-grain age to be resampled from this uncertainty range.

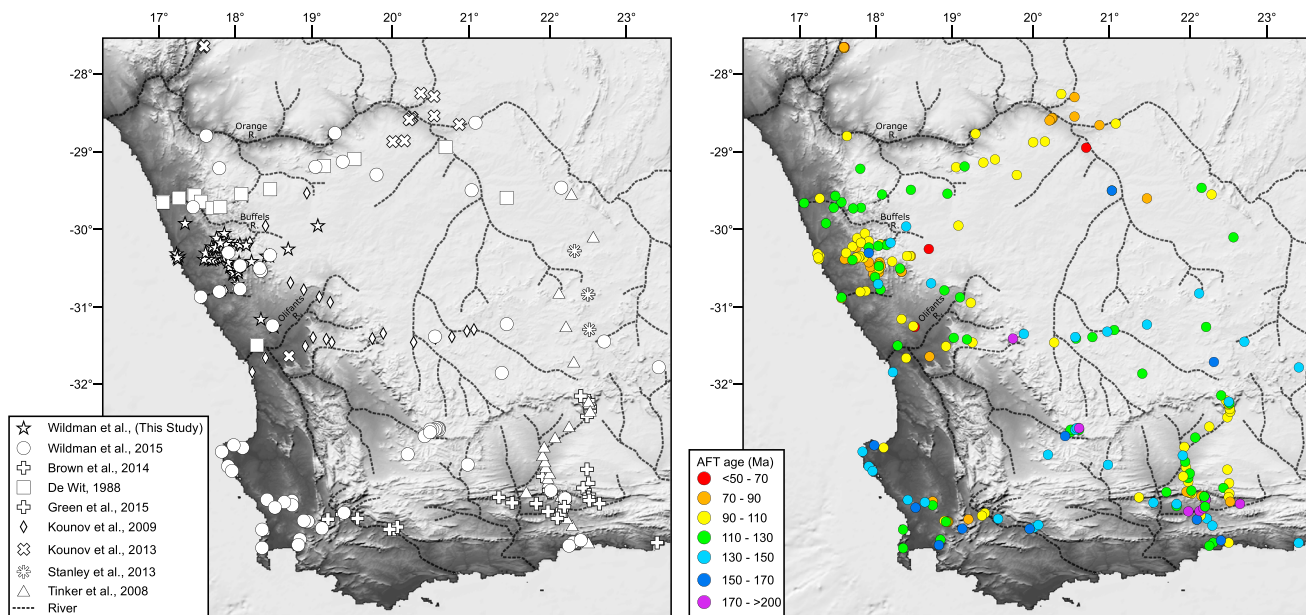


Figure 8. Location map of published low-temperature thermochronology data for southwest Africa: AFT data only [Wildman *et al.*, 2015; Green *et al.*, 2015; Brown *et al.*, 2014; Kounov *et al.*, 2009; Tinker *et al.*, 2008a; de Wit, 1998], AHe data only [Stanley *et al.*, 2013], and AFT and AHe data (Wildman *et al.* (this study)) [Kounov *et al.*, 2013]. Drainage network taken from Dollar [1998].

5. Timing and Mechanisms of Crustal Cooling

5.1. AFT and AHe Data From the SW African Continental Margin and Interior Plateau

Aside from new AFT data presented in this study and previously published by the same authors [e.g., Brown *et al.*, 1990; Wildman *et al.*, 2015], AFT analysis in the Namaqualand region has been limited (Figure 8). Data from Kounov *et al.* [2009] consists of two transects across the Namaqualand continental margin and extend onto the inland plateau (Figure 8). Combining all available data sets provides an extremely detailed low-temperature thermochronology database across this sector of the margin by improving the regional and local sample coverage as well as improving the temporal resolution by including AHe analysis.

Data from earlier studies are largely consistent with the new data presented here. AFT ages are generally Early to Late Cretaceous with moderate to long MTLs. The exceptions to this are one sample of Late Jurassic age reported by Wildman *et al.* [2015] (8732-46) in the heart of the Namaqualand Highlands and an Early Jurassic age recorded by Kounov *et al.* [2009] from their southern transect near the town Calvinia. Kounov *et al.* [2009] propose that inverse modeling of their data supports a two-stage thermal history across the margin. The major phase of cooling is ascribed to the mid-Cretaceous (115–90 Ma) and is attributed to a tectonically induced period of enhanced denudation. Moreover, they suggest that discrete fault block reactivation during this time results in differential denudation over major structures. The earlier event was driven by either rift-related tectonic denudation or thermal relaxation of the surface following widespread Karoo magmatism at approximately 180 Ma [Jourdan *et al.*, 2005]. Kounov *et al.* [2009] give preference to the latter mechanism, as this cooling episode is only recorded in samples from the plateau region of the southern transect that were collected in the Karoo basin. However, data from Brown *et al.* [1990] and Wildman *et al.* [2015] and data presented here clearly preserved a record of Early Cretaceous cooling across the coastal plain, escarpment zone, and plateau. Moreover, offshore sediment volume analysis has predicted synrift sediment accumulation in offshore basins at this time [Guillocheau *et al.*, 2012] (see section 6.1). Although a thermal effect of the Karoo may have contributed to the recorded thermal history, an erosional response to rifting is likely to have been a major factor.

The latest Jurassic to Early Cretaceous cooling at approximately 160–130 Ma is recorded regionally but preserved only locally. The discrete, structurally controlled nature of the second cooling event from 115 to 90 Ma across the margin is somewhat poorly constrained by Kounov *et al.* [2009], due to the uncertainty in their fission track data and uncertainties in models. The distinction of these two cooling episode is much more prominent in our study through the combination of AFT and AHe analysis and high-resolution sampling.

Evidence for a 110–90 Ma cooling event spanning the entire subcontinent of South Africa can be found in (i) AFT data from the southwestern cape [Wildman *et al.*, 2015], southern margin [Tinker *et al.*, 2008a; Green *et al.*, 2015], southeastern margin [Brown *et al.*, 2002], and along the southern Orange River valley [de Wit, 1988]; (ii) AHe data from the southeastern Kaapvaal Craton [Flowers and Schoene, 2010] and from samples collected from kimberlites on the South African Plateau [Stanley *et al.*, 2013]; and (iii) a joint AFT and AHe study from the Augrabies Falls and Fish River Canyon along the Orange River [Kounov *et al.*, 2013] (Figure 8).

AFT or AHe data advocating a Late Cretaceous to early Cenozoic (or even younger) cooling event is still limited despite the growing number of studies occurring in single-outcrop samples, if at all [e.g., de Wit, 1988; Kounov *et al.*, 2013]. However, in northern Namibia, many AFT ages of approximately 60–80 Ma are widely observed on the coastal plain as well as penetrating well inland [Raab *et al.*, 2002; Brown *et al.*, 2014]. These AFT ages agree with the single early Cenozoic AFT age presented here, implying that structurally controlled denudation in Namibia may have also been manifested in parts of Southern Africa. AFT data are used by Green *et al.* [2015] to infer that parts of the southern margin, particularly the southwestern cape, have cooled from approximately 60–70°C since 30 Myr. This cooling equates to approximately 1.5 to 2.5 km of denudation for a geothermal gradient of 20 to 25°C/km, which is greater than the estimates derived from other data sets from the region (approximately 1–1.5 km) [Tinker *et al.*, 2008a; Stanley *et al.*, 2013; Wildman *et al.*, 2015]. Although local variations in the amount of Cenozoic denudation may exist, Green *et al.* [2015] utilize a different modeling approach and geological framework for interpreting their data [e.g., Green *et al.*, 2013]. While our Bayesian approach yields simple cooling histories that adequately fit the data without invoking unconstrained geological events, Green *et al.* [2015] use likelihood theory [Gallagher, 1995] and a modeling procedure that explicitly seeks discrete temperature maxima and thus invariably produces thermal histories with multiple discrete episodes of inferred burial and erosion.

5.2. Timing and Spatial Patterns of Denudation

The last major thermal event expressed regionally across Southern Africa is the emplacement of the Karoo igneous intrusions and continental flood basalts at approximately 182–183 Ma [Svensen *et al.*, 2012]. Evidence of younger igneous bodies in Southern Africa is found in the form of localized alkaline intrusive pipes emplaced during the Late Cretaceous and early Cenozoic [Moore and Verwoerd, 1985; de Beer, 2010; Curtis *et al.*, 2013]. In Namibia, Early Cretaceous flood basalts are preserved as part of the Parana-Etendeka igneous province dated at approximately 130 Ma [Reid *et al.*, 1990; Reid and Rex, 1994]. However, due to the lack of any preservation in South Africa, their southern extent is unknown. The lack of significant thermal activity following the Jurassic combined with the coherence of the timing of cooling with peaks in offshore sediment accumulation in the offshore basin [Rouby *et al.*, 2009; Guillocheau *et al.*, 2012; Wildman *et al.*, 2015] suggests that cooling was primarily driven by onshore denudation.

We performed simple calculations of the amount of denudation required to drive cooling over distinct time intervals: $D_{t_0-t_1} = (\Delta T_{t_0-t_1})/G$, where D is the estimate of denudation over the desired time interval ($t_0 - t_1$) and G is the estimated geothermal gradient. The amount of denudation required to cool the sample from elevated temperatures to surface temperatures depends on the geothermal gradient of the region. Present-day geothermal gradients across much of Southern Africa are approximately 20–25°C/km [Ballard and Pollack, 1987; Jones, 1987]. Maintaining the conservative approach adopted during modeling, the upper limit of this temperature range (i.e., 25°C/km) was assumed to best represent the paleogeothermal gradient. The influence of geothermal gradient on denudation estimates is nonlinear and most significant for low geothermal gradients. A low geothermal gradient is unlikely to be the case in the study area as the basement rocks are particularly enriched in heat-producing radiogenic elements (U, Th, and K) [Andreoli *et al.*, 2006], which will have helped to maintain moderate-high heat flow values across the Namaqualand Highlands [Jones, 1987; Andreoli *et al.*, 2006].

Estimates of denudation are made using the expected thermal history model and assuming a geothermal gradient of 25°C/km. Figure 9 shows three coast-perpendicular transects highlighting the spatial patterns of denudation over major time intervals. The timing for the onset of cooling that is predicted by sample thermal histories is only recorded when the sample cools below approximately 110°C. Therefore, in cases where much of the early portion of the thermal history is unconstrained, cooling and the mechanism driving cooling may have been ongoing prior to the predicted onset of cooling. Estimates of denudation for a particular time interval should be consulted alongside the thermal history and assessed in terms of how well the thermal history is constrained at this time.

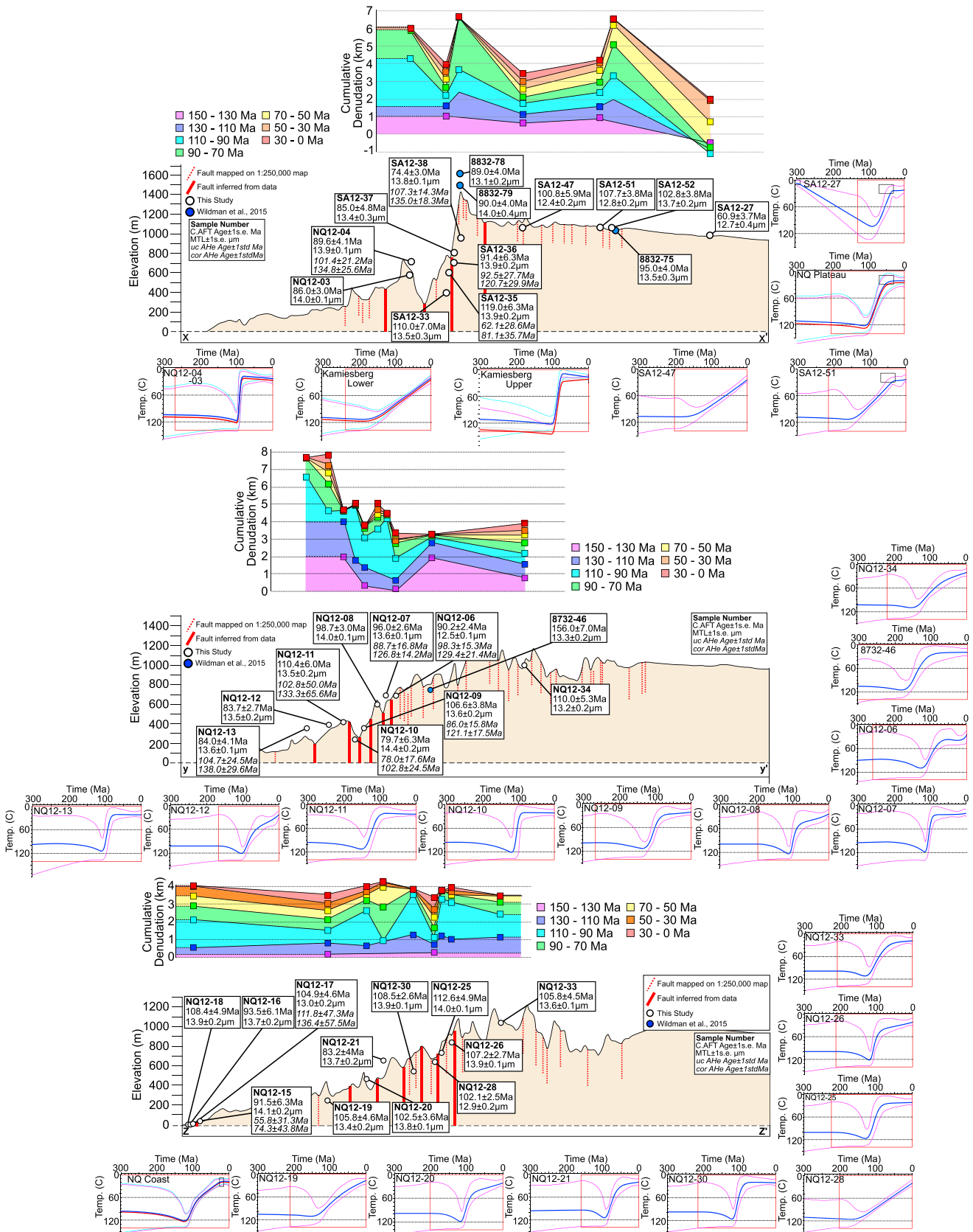


Figure 9

During the Early Cretaceous (approximately 150–110 Ma) total denudation is generally between 1 and 2 km and appears to be fairly consistent across the length of the transect. However, as many samples do not record cooling until the Late Cretaceous, fewer samples can be used to estimate earlier denudation. Two samples along transect YY' predict estimates of approximately 4 km of denudation in the Early Cretaceous with approximately 2 km occurring during the 150–130 Ma interval. Localized zones of higher denudation at this time may have been a result of a variable prerift topography or localized structural offsets. The farthest sample inland, SA12-27, was collected from a basement clast within the Dwyka Group stratigraphic unit and is therefore constrained at the surface at approximately 300 Ma. The thermal history predicts consistent heating to temperatures of approximately 120°C at approximately 100 Ma, which would imply progressive burial until the Late Cretaceous. This burial event could reflect internal drainage of an eroding rift flank resulting in inland deposition. However, what the maximum post-Dwyka paleotemperature was for this sample and when that paleotemperature was attained is uncertain, and therefore, there is the possibility that burial was completed at almost any time between the stratigraphic age and approximately 100 Ma (Text S7).

The most significant period of denudation occurred during the Late Cretaceous (approximately 110–70 Ma) with a denudation thickness of approximately 2–4 km, and in some cases close to 5 km, being predicted across all three transects. This thickness of denudation is not seen uniformly across the transects, with some sample thermal histories observing no inflection in their cooling history in the Late Cretaceous but preserving the Early Cretaceous record of cooling. Although “Early Cretaceous” thermal histories do not record the onset of rapid Late Cretaceous cooling, these thermal history paths still imply that slow cooling, and denudation on the order of 1 km, continued throughout the Late Cretaceous across the entire margin. This pattern of denudation may have been driven by a combination of localized fault block uplift across major and minor faults combined with a regional uplift of the entire margin.

Denudation during the Cenozoic is predicted to be low in comparison to the Cretaceous, less than approximately 1 km in most samples over this time. Exceptions to this appear to be predominantly found far onto the plateau (see thermal histories for NQ Plateau and SA12-27), where denudation in the early Cenozoic exceeds 1–2 km from approximately 70 to 30 Ma. Over the last 30 Ma, denudation is predicted to be less than 0.5 km. Low amounts of Cenozoic denudation are supported by cosmogenic nuclide studies in southwestern Africa [Kounov *et al.*, 2007], Namibia [Cockburn *et al.*, 2000; van der Wateren and Dunai, 2001; Bierman and Caffee, 2001; Codilean *et al.*, 2008, 2014], and the Southern Cape [Decker *et al.*, 2011; Erlanger *et al.*, 2012; Scharf *et al.*, 2013; Bierman *et al.*, 2014; Kounov *et al.*, 2015], which all report a decrease in denudation rate by an order of magnitude during the Cenozoic relative to the Cretaceous.

6. Discussion

6.1. Sediment Accumulation in the Orange Basin

The catchment of the present-day Orange River covers an area of approximately $1 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ and transports material eroded from the continent to the offshore Orange Basin. It is suggested that since breakup, the main drainage outlet to the Orange Basin was located in a position similar to that of the present-day Orange River, Buffels River, or Olifants River [e.g., Partridge and Maud, 1987; Dollar, 1998; de Wit, 1999; de Wit *et al.*, 2000; Goudie, 2005; Stevenson and McMillan, 2004] (Figure 8). Therefore, most of the sediment derived from erosion of the southwestern continental margin and interior hinterland following breakup has been transported to the Orange Basin via the proto-Orange River and smaller rivers along the coast [e.g., Gilchrist *et al.*, 1994; Kooi and Beaumont, 1994; van der Beek *et al.*, 2002; de Wit *et al.*, 2000; Goudie, 2005]. Due to the long-term stability of the Orange River catchment, the record of sediment accumulation preserved in the Orange Basin provides independent constraints on the timing of onshore erosion [e.g., Rouby *et al.*, 2009; Guillocheau *et al.*, 2012].

Previous studies have provided detailed descriptions of the Orange Basin stratigraphy [Muntingh and Brown, 1993; Brown *et al.*, 1995; McMillan, 2003; Paton *et al.*, 2008; Kuhlmann *et al.*, 2010; Wildman *et al.*, 2015] and

Figure 9. Coast-perpendicular sections (see Figure 1) with predictions on magnitudes of denudation over time intervals since 150 Ma and sample/profile models used to derive these estimates. Data within 7.5 km on either side of the section trace were projected at 90° onto the line of section. Denudation estimates are made directly from thermal history models generated by inverting data from this study and from Wildman *et al.* [2015]. Denudation is estimated using an assumed geothermal gradient of 25°C/km. Samples comprising multisample inversions are as follows: Kamiesberg Upper: 8832-78, 8832-79, SA12-38, SA12-37, and SA12-36; Kamiesberg Lower: SA12-35 and SA12-33; NQ Plateau: 8832-75 and SA12-52; and NQ Coast: NQ12-15, NQ12-16, NQ12-17, and NQ12-18.

chronology of sediment accumulation over the last approximately 150 Myr [Rust and Summerfield, 1990; Rouby *et al.*, 2009; Guillocheau *et al.*, 2012]. Here we simply highlight the correlation between offshore accumulation in the Orange Basin as constrained primarily by the comprehensive investigation by Guillocheau *et al.* [2012] and the timing of denudation as inferred from our thermal history models. Two major peaks in accumulated sediment volume characterize the record of postrift sediment influx to the Orange Basin. The first peak records accumulated sediment volumes of approximately $10 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^3$ from 150 to 130 Ma (i.e., syn-rift) and the second peak, the maximum recorded sediment volume, of approximately $11 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^3$ is observed at approximately 80–70 Ma. In addition to a clear peak in accumulated volume being defined during the Campanian, there is a well-defined period of increasing sediment volume preceding this peak that begins at approximately 110–100 Ma. Another noticeable feature of the offshore sediment accumulation history is the minimal accumulation predicted throughout the Cenozoic ($5 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^3$).

We reiterate and lend further support to the conclusions drawn from our previous AFT study on the southern Atlantic margin [Wildman *et al.*, 2015] that denudation episodes inferred from the thermal histories derived from joint inversion of AFT and AHe data are consistent with the offshore accumulation history in the Orange Basin. Coherent features include an initial episode of denudation/sedimentation during the synrift (approximately 165–130 Ma) [Jackson *et al.*, 2000; Eagles, 2007; Heine *et al.*, 2013] period, an episode of postrift denudation at approximately 110–90 Ma, which coincides with increasing sediment volumes during the Middle to Late Cretaceous, and minimal denudation throughout the Cenozoic, which is reflected in low levels of accumulation from the end Cretaceous to the present day. The lag time between the onset of denudation in the mid-Cretaceous and the peak volume of sediment in the basin may be related to a disruption of internal drainage networks during the creation of fault-related relief, transient storage within the large proto-Orange catchment, or due to regional tilting of the African continent [e.g., Braun *et al.*, 2014].

6.2. Evidence for Postrift Faulting Along the Southwest African Margin

The structural evolution of the Namaqualand sector of the South Atlantic continental margin is complex and poorly understood [Andreoli *et al.*, 2009]. Deformation associated with major prerift tectonic events defined the preexisting structural grain in both Namaqualand and in the Cape Fold Belt. These ancient fractures likely provided sites of preexisting weakness in the lithosphere that controlled the style of fault propagation during rifting [e.g., Ziegler and Cloetingh, 2004; Autin *et al.*, 2013; Corti *et al.*, 2013; Will and Frimmel, 2013] and may have provided the location for postrift deformation during later tectonic events [e.g., Sykes, 1978; Daly *et al.*, 1989; Saintot *et al.*, 2011; Viola *et al.*, 2012].

By combining remote sensing techniques to identify major structural lineaments with a detailed field-based analysis of brittle fault structures, Viola *et al.* [2012] suggest that a record of postrift reactivation is preserved in the Namaqualand basement rocks. The earliest synrift or postrift paleostress tensor identified by Viola *et al.* [2012] is suggested to have been produced by subhorizontal extension orientated NE-SW, causing reactivation of older faults during the Early Cretaceous. This phase of extension is assigned to the initiation of rifting and opening of the Atlantic due to the coherence of the orientation of extension and the perpendicular orientation of major Early Cretaceous dyke swarms [Reid and Rex, 1994; Will and Frimmel, 2013].

Postrift paleotensors identified by Viola *et al.* [2012] are suggested to represent alternating episodes of regional extension and compression throughout the Middle to Late Cretaceous. However, the timing of these events is poorly constrained. Moreover, paleostress analysis in NW Namibia suggests that ENE-WSW and NE-SW extension prevailed during rifting and Late Cretaceous, respectively, and provides no clear evidence of compression [Salomon *et al.*, 2014, 2015]. In the Vaalputs region, inland of the Namaqualand Highlands, normal fault-slip structures extend into the silicified and kaolinitized weathering profiles of the Dasdap alluvial fan sediments [Brandt *et al.*, 2003, 2005] and into the volcanic breccias preserved at the Gamoep millite pipe (77–54 Ma) [Phillips *et al.*, 2000]. Despite the limited robust information on the timing of faulting from these studies, they provide important field evidence that postrift faulting has occurred. Thermochronology data reported here and in Kounov *et al.* [2009] suggest that this faulting may have begun during the mid-Cretaceous. The thermal history predictions made from the Kamiesberg profile (see section 4.3.3 above) suggest that differential denudation may have occurred across prominent NNW-SSE lineaments dissecting the profile, as a result of mid-Cretaceous fault movement.

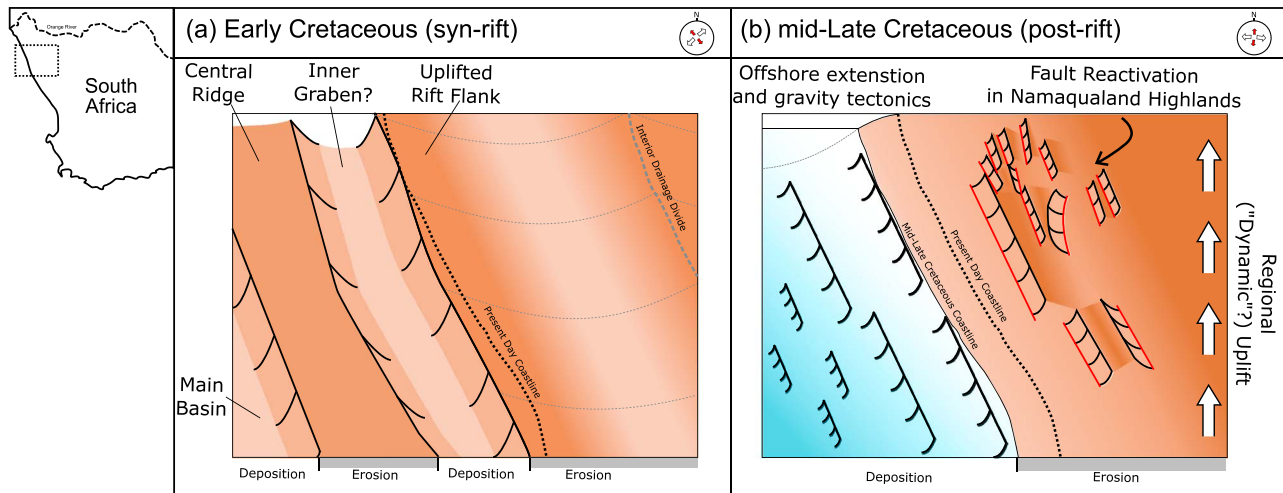


Figure 10. Cartoon representation of the post-Jurassic tectonic evolution of the southwest African continental margin. (a) Rifting during the Early Cretaceous creates deep fault-bounded grabens in the proximal part of the margin and a fault-bounded uplifted rift flank. Synrift erosion of uplifted fault blocks and elevated rift flanks occurs during extension due to the drop of regional base levels to the nascent Atlantic Ocean with deposition resulting in developing basins. The uplifted rift flank is eroded by escarpment downwearing most likely with an interior drainage divide causing denudation to extend far inland. (b) Prolonged extension across the South Atlantic and regional intraplate stresses are augmented with extensional stresses induced from vertical motions related to the loading and unloading of the margin and the possible presence of a buoyant mantle upwelling beneath the continental interior also causing regional uplift of South Africa. The preexisting structure and preferential orientation of these structures with the regional stress field at this time primes the faults for reactivation. Brittle tectonics may have extended into the offshore domain with gravitational slumping occurring farther oceanward due to a regional uplift of the continent. Paleostress tensors taken after *Viola et al.* [2012].

Within the offshore postrift sedimentary successions, gravitational tectonics is described involving extension-driven slumping in the proximal margin and toe thrusting in the outer shelf [*Brown, 1995; Paton et al., 2008; de Vera et al., 2010; Hirsch et al., 2010*]. The major zone of extension and compression has a basal detachment in the marine shales of the Turonian-Cenomanian boundary [*Muntingh and Brown, 1993; Séranne and Anka, 2005; de Vera et al., 2010*]. The development of growth strata and stratigraphic relationships led *de Vera et al.* [2010] to conclude that gravitational tectonics were periodically active in short-lived episodes. The regional mechanisms that trigger movement on these faults are still uncertain but have been related to the influx of high volumes of sediment to the basin [*Jungslager, 1999; Paton et al., 2007; Kuhlmann et al., 2010*], basin inversion and the development of enhanced structural relief, or margin uplift [*Séranne and Anka, 2005; Paton et al., 2008; de Vera et al., 2010*]. The timing of offshore gravitationally driven tectonic episodes (approximately 100–80 Ma) overlaps with the timing of major denudation of the continental margin inferred from low-temperature thermochronology. It is now possible to explicitly link this period of structurally controlled denudation onshore, involving the removal of several kilometers of material from the continental margin and interior to the onset of offshore slumping. *Viola et al.* [2005] have documented younger neotectonic inversion structures in the Orange Basin that are linked to the onshore structural network in southern Namibia and Namaqualand. In the southern offshore basins, detailed seismic reflection has provided additional evidence of discrete episodes of basin inversion and/or reactivation [*Bate and Malan, 1992; Boyd et al., 2011; Hartwig et al., 2012; Paton et al., 2008; Tinker et al., 2008b; van der Merwe and Fouche, 1992*].

6.3. Drivers of Postrift Tectonic Activity: Regional and Local Mechanisms

Apatite fission track and AHe data from continental margins have commonly been interpreted in terms of simple conceptual models of escarpment evolution following breakup [e.g., *Ollier and Pain, 1997; Gallagher and Brown, 1999; Gunnell et al., 2003; Campanile et al., 2008; Persano et al., 2002, 2005; Braun and van der Beek, 2004*]. However, the temporal and spatial pattern of the data presented here is incompatible with that predicted by any of these conceptual models [*Gallagher and Brown, 1999*]. The discrepancy primarily lies in the common occurrence of young postrift AFT and AHe ages far inland of the escarpment. Abrupt age variations across basement structures also suggest a more complex evolution of the margin. We advocate that while a phase of synrift erosion of elevated rift flanks occurred (Figure 10a), an episode of postrift denudation during the Middle to Late Cretaceous is more significant in terms of the geomorphic evolution of the margin

(Figure 10b). Based on our study, we suggest that postrift denudation is triggered by deformation of the upper crust driven by a combination of regional horizontal and vertical stresses that are focused by local thermal and mechanical properties of the crust.

The present-day stress field across the southwestern African continental margin is characterized by a NW-SE/NNW-SSE orientation of horizontal principal compressive stress, which has been attributed to lithospheric resistance to plate and microplate movements [Bird *et al.*, 2006]. The stress field is proposed to be induced by overall net NE-SW extension and has been linked to neotectonics and present-day seismic activity in the area [Andreoli *et al.*, 1996; Ben-Avraham *et al.*, 2002; Brandt *et al.*, 2005; Viola *et al.*, 2005; White *et al.*, 2009; de Beer, 2012]. This stress field will have evolved over time with changes in plate direction and spreading velocity and, as is the case today, would have promoted faulting across the margin. Loading of the offshore Orange Basin during the synrift and postrift phases, causing flexure of the lithosphere, would have enhanced coast-perpendicular extensional stresses at this time [Kusznir *et al.*, 1991; Wernicke and Axen, 1988; Redfield *et al.*, 2005; Salomon *et al.*, 2014; Redfield and Osmundsen, 2013]. However, the style and location of fault reactivation will be dependent on the orientation of faults to the regional stress field and may have involved local compression within an overall extension regime [e.g., Holford *et al.*, 2014].

The timing of postrift denudation proposed here is coeval with a maximum Atlantic seafloor spreading rate (Figure 11) of 7–8 cm/yr during the Middle Cretaceous (approximately 120–80 Ma) [Coffin *et al.*, 1998; Müller *et al.*, 2008; Labails *et al.*, 2009; Torsvik *et al.*, 2009; Moulin *et al.*, 2010]. The start of this maximum spreading rate coincides with the onset of seafloor spreading in the southern Atlantic at approximately 120 Ma (chron-CM0). At approximately 100 Ma, a change in plate motion linked to the final breakup of South America and Africa after seafloor spreading propagated northward to the equatorial Atlantic [Eagles, 2007; Heine *et al.*, 2013; Jones *et al.*, 1995; Moulin *et al.*, 2010; Nürnberg and Müller, 1991; Torsvik *et al.*, 2009; Granot and Dymant, 2015], although a change in spreading rate velocity is only recorded in one model (Africa-NGU) [Colli *et al.*, 2014] of Atlantic spreading rates (Figure 11). A sharp decrease in plate velocity occurs from 80 to 70 Ma, dropping to rates of approximately 3–4 cm/yr [Cande *et al.*, 1988; Müller *et al.*, 2008; Torsvik *et al.*, 2009; Moulin *et al.*, 2010], which is coincident with another shift in plate spreading direction (C31; Figure 11) and the cessation of major denudation predicted by our thermal history models.

Changes to the orientation of plate movement can be observed in the geometry of Late Cretaceous to early Cenozoic magnetic anomalies in the Mid-Atlantic and SW Indian Ocean (Figure 11). The slowdown in plate velocity at this time has been linked to the development of new transform faults along the ridge crest and the arrival of the Reunion Plume beneath the India-African plate boundary [Cande and Stegman, 2011; Pérez-Díaz and Eagles, 2014]. The magnitude of stress required to reactivate faults is dependent on fault geometry, fault orientation relative to the regional stress field, and the frictional resistance along the fault plane [Sibson, 1985; Turner and Williams, 2004]. However, it is possible that even relatively small in-plane stresses may promote deformation [Cloetingh and Burov, 2011]. Recent plate reconstruction models have predicted deformation along intracontinental rift systems in South America, West Africa, and central Africa during the Cretaceous normal polarity superchron (chron CM0-C34) [Torsvik *et al.*, 2009; Heine *et al.*, 2013; Pérez-Díaz and Eagles, 2014], which was largely completed by approximately 90 Ma [Granot and Dymant, 2015]. However, kinematic modeling has predicted that between 33 and 58% of intracontinental deformation is accommodated away from major intracontinental rift basins [e.g., Guiraud and Maurin, 1992; Loule and Pospisil, 2013; Pérez-Díaz and Eagles, 2014]. It is suggested in our study that Middle to Late Cretaceous postrift fault reactivation at the southwest African continental margin contributes to this additional deformation.

Regional vertical movements of the African Plate are driven by isostatic adjustments to unloading and loading of the crust [Gilchrist and Summerfield, 1990; Hartley *et al.*, 1996; Molnar *et al.*, 2015] and the presence of vertical stresses at the base of the lithosphere exerted by a buoyant mantle anomaly beneath the continent [Lithgow-Bertelloni and Silver, 1998; Gurnis *et al.*, 2000; Nyblade and Sleep, 2003; Braun *et al.*, 2014]. The latter of these has received particular attention in an attempt to constrain the spatial extent and magnitude of dynamic uplift and the creation of dynamic topography over time [Forte *et al.*, 2010; Moucha and Forte, 2011; Braun, 2010; Flament *et al.*, 2014]. Recent numerical surface process modeling has shown that modest amounts of dynamic uplift can trigger kilometers of erosion [Braun *et al.*, 2013]. The relative contribution of truly dynamic topography (i.e., topography supported only by active flow within the mantle) in creating Southern Africa's high elevation is arguably small, while the isostatic compensation of the South African crust

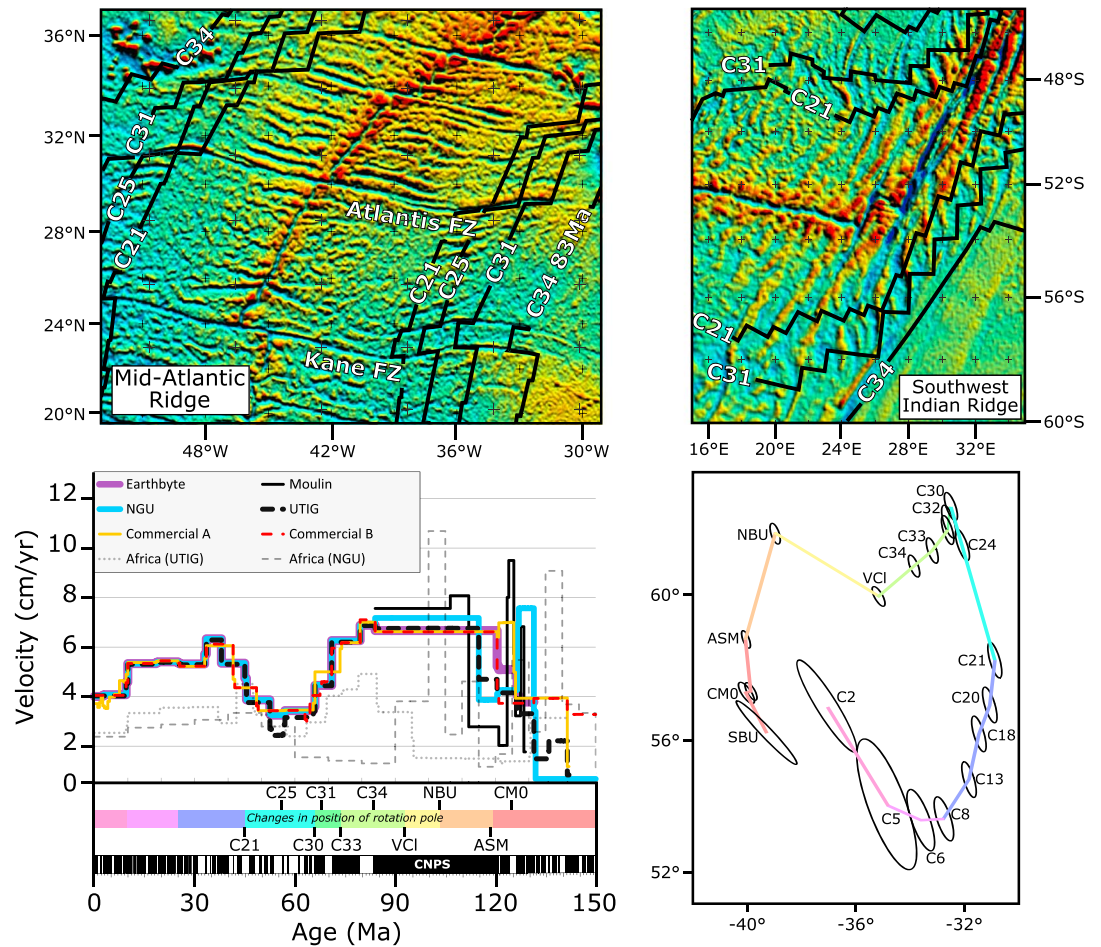


Figure 11. (top row) Key Late Cretaceous to early Cenozoic magnetic anomalies on WGM2012 global model gravity maps of ocean flow lines for the Mid-Atlantic Ridge and Southwest Indian Ridge. (bottom left) Spreading rates of South Atlantic opening for different plate reconstruction models from 150 Myr to the present for a point currently located at 57.2°W, 36°S in a reference frame that keeps Africa fixed [after Colli *et al.*, 2014]. Africa (NGU) and Africa (UTIG) show the absolute velocities of Africa in a mantle reference frame for an approximately conjugate point in the Orange Basin, at 15°E, 27.5°S. See Colli *et al.* [2014, and references therein] for a full discussion of each individual plate reconstruction model. (bottom right) Location of the African Plate finite rotation pole over time [after Pérez-Díaz and Eagles, 2014]. Ellipses indicate 95% confidence intervals on location. Colored lines correspond to time intervals beneath histogram of spreading rate velocity.

and mantle lithosphere arising from the relative buoyancy of material comprising the flow plays a far more important role [Molnar *et al.*, 2015]. Changes in the thermal structure and chemical and mineralogical composition of the lithosphere during the Middle Cretaceous (approximately 100–90 Ma) have been documented [Bell *et al.*, 2003; Griffin *et al.*, 2003; Janney *et al.*, 2010; Stanley *et al.*, 2013, 2015] and could have triggered isostatically driven uplift of the South African landscape at this time [Molnar *et al.*, 2015].

The coupled dynamics of horizontal and vertical motions has been explored by mantle flow modeling by Colli *et al.* [2014]. The intrinsic linkage between horizontal and vertical motions illustrated by these models suggests that the coeval changes at approximately 90 Ma and 30 Ma in the South Atlantic spreading rates (Figure 11) and uplift of the southwest African continental margin are geodynamically linked to one another. The interaction between in-plane stresses in the lithosphere and thermal convection in the mantle has been investigated by recent three-dimensional thermomechanical models using realistic lithospheric rheologies and predict complex patterns of short-wavelength deformation of a brittle crust overlying a ductile mantle lithosphere [Burov, 2011; Guillou-Frottier *et al.*, 2012; Burov and Gerya, 2014; Koptev *et al.*, 2015]. This work offers the interesting possibility of a regional, long-wavelength mechanism of uplift, like mantle flow, causing quite local deformation at the surface, and would explain why we observe both regional and local signals of

tectonic activity within Southern Africa during the mid-Cretaceous. The emplacement of mid-Cretaceous alkaline intrusions along major tectonic boundaries may also indicate a link between mantle convection and tectonic readjustments [Jelsma *et al.*, 2009].

Regional denudation during the Middle to Late Cretaceous, predicted by thermochrometry data [Brown *et al.*, 2002, 2014; Tinker *et al.*, 2008a; Kounov *et al.*, 2009, 2013; Flowers and Schoene, 2010; Stanley *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Wildman *et al.*, 2015], has underpinned the timing of uplift events proposed by numerical models [e.g., van der Beek *et al.*, 2002; Braun *et al.*, 2014; Molnar *et al.*, 2015]. By jointly inverting AFT and AHe data, our modeling results limit the thickness of overburden removed during the Cenozoic to less than 1 km or, in rare cases, less than 1.5 km. This observation is therefore consistent with models invoking a Cretaceous age for the present-day landscape and is difficult to reconcile with models that predict the development of the present-day topography from an initially flat surface over the last 30 Myr [e.g., Partridge and Maud, 1987; Burke, 1996; Burke and Gunnell, 2008; Roberts and White, 2010; Paul *et al.*, 2014; Rudge *et al.*, 2015]. Our interpretation does not preclude modest amounts of surface uplift and channel incision occurring during the Cenozoic but requires that subsequent erosion was minimal, likely due to the prevailing arid to semiarid climate at the time [de Wit, 1999; Pickford and Senut, 1999; Bamford, 2000; Gutzmer and Beukes, 2000]. In addition to limiting the contribution of Cenozoic erosion, our new data reveal short-wavelength variations in the spatial pattern of mid-Cretaceous denudation, which are attributed to postrift brittle deformation of the margin and continental interior. Our data are incapable of resolving the specific kinematics of postrift deformation that is caused by a complex interaction of horizontal and vertical induced stresses and crustal heterogeneity. However, these data provide important new quantitative constraints that can help to constrain future numerical models that link surface process, mantle geodynamics, and global plate tectonics.

7. Conclusion

This study provides the first suite of joint AFT and AHe data across the Namaqualand sector of the southwest African continental margin. The data provide evidence for major crustal cooling of the margin during the Cretaceous with only minor cooling (less than 30–40°C) occurring through the Cenozoic. Joint thermal history inversion of the data provides evidence for two distinct major cooling episodes, which caused kilometer-scale denudation (approximately 2–5 km). The early denudation event is associated with synrift erosion of preexisting topography, possibly augmented by tectonic uplift during rifting, while the later episode was triggered by postrift tectonic reactivation of the margin and regional uplift of the continent in the middle-Late Cretaceous. Any contribution of Cenozoic tectonic or surface processes did not cause enough erosion to be reflected in the thermochronology data, and the total Cenozoic erosion is restricted to less than approximately 1–1.5 km.

The overall spatial and temporal pattern of erosion as documented here requires an explanation that can accommodate both a regional, long-wavelength geomorphic response extending well inland of the major escarpment zone and more localized, short-wavelength fault-related erosion. We believe that the observed pattern of topographic evolution, as inferred through the erosional response documented here, implies that several mechanisms operating at or certainly dominating over different wavelengths are involved.

In addition to erosion of the regional, long-wavelength topography linked to chemical and thermal mantle lithosphere changes, we propose that intracontinental deformation and related relief was an important feature of the postrift development of the margin. The transfer of plate boundary stresses arising from significant changes in the plate kinematics within the South Atlantic and West Indian Oceans, combined with an enhanced tensional stress field across the margin induced by flexure of the lithosphere, triggered fault reactivation and led to localized erosion patterns during the Middle to Late Cretaceous. It is possible that some of the short-wavelength deformation is itself linked to the deeper mantle mechanism through a more complex response of the lithosphere to vertical stresses, although this possibility remains speculative at this stage.

While the exact geometry of structures and the precise location of faults that accommodated major offsets are still unknown, the data presented here indicate a major surface response to significant middle-Late Cretaceous tectonic activity, which occurred along the so-called passive continental margin of the southwest Africa.

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