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1 **Minibasin depocentre migration during diachronous salt welding, offshore**
2 **Angola**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Salt tectonics is an important part of the geological evolution of many continental margin salt
15 basins, yet the four-dimensional evolution of the minibasins, the fundamental building block of
16 these and many other salt basins, remains poorly understood. Using high-quality 3D seismic data
17 from the Lower Congo Basin, offshore Angola, we document the dynamics of minibasin
18 subsidence at a scale of tens of kilometres. We show that, during the Albian, a broadly tabular
19 layer of carbonate was deposited prior to substantial salt flow, diapirism, and minibasin formation.
20 We identify four subsequent stages of salt-tectonics and related minibasin evolution: (i)
21 Cenomanian to Coniacian gravity-driven extension, driven by basinward tilting of the salt layer,
22 and the formation of low-displacement normal faults and related salt rollers. During this stage,
23 local salt welding led to the along-strike migration of fault-bound depocentres; (ii) Santonian to
24 Paleocene salt welding below the eastern part of the minibasin caused a westward shift in
25 depocentre location; (iii) Eocene to Oligocene welding below the minibasin centre, caused
26 formation of a turtle and an abrupt shift of depocentres towards the immediate margins of the
27 flanking salt walls; and (iv) a Miocene to Holocene eastward shift in depocentre location due to
28 regional tilting, contraction, and diapir squeezing. Our study shows that salt welding and
29 subsequent contraction are key controls on minibasin geometry, subsidence and stratigraphic
30 patterns. In particular, we show how salt welding is a protracted process, spanning over 70 Myr of
31 salt-tectonic history, with these dynamics recorded in the progressive migration of minibasin
32 depocentres. The variations of minibasin growth and salt flow and welding have implications for
33 geometrical and geomorphological evolution, sediment dispersal as well as salt-related structure
34 growth during minibasin evolution.

35

36 **Keywords** minibasin, depocentre migration, salt weld, salt tectonics, passive margin, offshore
37 Angola

39 **1. Introduction**

40 A minibasin is a syn-kinematic succession of sediment that subsides into a body of salt (M. P.
41 Jackson & Talbot, 1991; Peel, 2014). Minibasins are commonly found in passive margin salt
42 basins, such as the Gulf of Mexico (e.g. Hudec, Jackson, Vendeville, Schultz-Ela, & Dooley, 2011;
43 Lamb, Toniolo, & Parker, 2006; Prather, Booth, Steffens, & Craig, 1998), the West African margin
44 (e.g. Hudec & Jackson, 2004; Marton, Tari, & Lehmann, 2000) and the Brazil margin (e.g. Quirk
45 et al., 2012), as well as cratonic salt basins such as the Zechstein (e.g. Hodgson, Farnsworth, &
46 Fraser, 1992) and Precaspian basins (e.g. Barde et al., 2002; Duffy et al., 2017). Most studies have
47 focused on the geometry and evolution of salt-related structures flanking the minibasins (e.g.
48 diapirs) rather than the minibasins themselves. As a consequence of this, certain subsidence
49 dynamics of the minibasins are not fully understood (e.g. Brun & Fort, 2011; Clark, Stewart, &
50 Cartwright, 1998; Hudec & Jackson, 2007; Peel, 2014; Rowan, Peel, & Vendeville, 2004; Rowan
51 & Weimer, 1998; Trudgill, 2011; B. C Vendeville & Jackson, 1992).

52 Current models of the minibasin initiation and subsidence have been studied using subsurface
53 data (e.g. Hudec, Jackson, & Schultz-Ela, 2009; McBride, Rowan, & Weimer, 1998), numerical
54 modelling (e.g. Goteti, Ings, & Beaumont, 2012; Peel, 2014), and scaled physical experiments
55 (e.g. Callot, Salel, Letouzey, Daniel, & Ringenbach, 2016; Fort, Brun, & Chauvel, 2004; M. P. A
56 Jackson & Vendeville, 1994; Warsitzka, Kley, & Kukowski, 2013). Essentially, a minibasin forms
57 as a package of sediments sinks into underlying salt, which is mobilized and evacuated into
58 adjacent salt highs. Subsidence may be driven by either sediment loading, extension or contraction
59 (e.g. Hudec et al., 2009; Peel, 2014). As a minibasin sinks into the underlying salt, the salt is
60 gradually depleted, and ultimately, the minibasin comes into contact with the sub-salt strata,
61 creating a salt weld (Martin P. A Jackson & Cramez, 1989; M. P. A Jackson & Vendeville, 1994).
62 After welding, salt mobilization is no longer a viable mechanism to accommodate further
63 subsidence of the minibasin (Martin P. A Jackson & Hudec, 2017). However, such conceptual
64 model of minibasin growth oversimplifies the heterogeneities existed in passive margin salt basins
65 where direction and amount of sediment supply, location of minibasin initiation and salt thickness
66 are all variable. As a result, how minibasin subside and weld on sub-salt in 3D is still unclear.
67 Moreover, as minibasin subsidence and subsequent salt weld have a direct impact on formation of
68 related salt structures, a better understanding of minibasin evolution and growth also improves our
69 knowledge on the development of salt-related structures in such settings.

70 The main aims of this analysis is to understand the relationship between minibasin
71 development and salt flow and weld and how they interact in 3D. We have chosen a single

72 minibasin where the seismic dataset has best quality and wide coverage along strike among a series
73 of elongate minibasins within the Lower Congo Basin. The high quality, well-calibrated 3D
74 reflection seismic dataset has allowed us to carry out a detailed tectono-stratigraphic analysis of
75 the three-dimensional growth of the selected minibasin (Fig. 1).

76 **2. Geological setting**

77 The Lower Congo Basin formed during the opening of the South Atlantic Ocean, following early
78 Cretaceous rifting and breakup of the Gondwana super-continent (e.g. Nürnberg & Müller, 1991).
79 After rifting, an up to 1 km thick evaporite sequences was deposited in the late Aptian (Loeme
80 Formation) during a marine transgression and a subsequent period of basin isolation and
81 desiccation (Fig. 2) (Anderson, Cartwright, Drysdall, & Vivian, 2000; Lavier, Steckler, & Brigaud,
82 2001). After salt deposition, a shallow marine clastic-carbonate succession (Pinda Group) was
83 deposited in Albian; this unit records the beginning of open marine conditions along the margin
84 (Anderson et al., 2000; Marton et al., 2000; Valle, Gjelberg, & Helland-Hansen, 2001).

85 From Albian times onward, margin tilting triggered salt mobilization and drove basin-wide salt
86 tectonics, which is characterized by thin-skinned deformation of the cover strata overlying the
87 Loeme salt. In detail, three structural domains are identified; updip and downdip domains of
88 extension and contraction, respectively, separated by a domain of translation (Fort et al., 2004;
89 Marton et al., 2000). From the Santonian until the Eocene, the shale-dominated Iabe and Landana
90 formations occurred as salt diapirs grew and minibasins subsided into the mid-slope translational
91 domain (Anderson et al., 2000; Marton et al., 2000; Valle et al., 2001) (Fig. 2). The Oligocene
92 Malembo Formation consists mainly of claystone interbedded with sandstone-rich turbidites
93 (Anderson et al., 2000; Valle et al., 2001), with the increase in siliciclastic sediment being closely
94 linked to the development of the Congo deepwater fan (Anka & Séranne, 2004). Miocene
95 deepwater deposition was increasingly confined by the bathymetric highs created by squeezed salt
96 diapirs due to contraction associated with regional uplift of the margin (Oluboyo, Gawthorpe,
97 Bakke, & Hadler - Jacobsen, 2014). From the Pliocene onwards, silty and muddy sediments were
98 deposited in the Lower Congo Basin as the Congo fan delivered sediment to the northern part of
99 the basin (Fig. 2) (Anka & Séranne, 2004; Valle et al., 2001).

100 **3. Data and methods**

101 *3.1 Seismic and well data*

102 This study utilises a high-quality, pre-stack time-migrated, three-dimensional seismic survey with
103 a record length of six seconds two-way travel time (TWT), and inline and crossline spacing of 50
104 m. The seismic data are displayed with SEG normal polarity, where a downward increase in

105 acoustic impedance is represented by a peak and is coloured in red in the displayed seismic
106 profiles. The data quality is excellent in the interval of interest, although it diminishes on the flanks
107 of salt diapirs due to the presence of steeply dipping, upturned minibasin strata in those areas. The
108 average vertical seismic resolution ranges from 30 to 60 m, with main frequency falling between
109 20–40 Hz and assuming a seismic velocity of 3000 m/s (e.g. Birch, 1960). Two proprietary nearby
110 wells containing conventional well-log data (e.g. gamma ray, sonic) as well as published age
111 schemes provide some age constraints for our mapped seismic horizons (Anderson et al., 2000;
112 Valle et al., 2001).

113 *3.2 Seismic interpretation*

114 Thirteen horizons were mapped across the study area on the basis of stratal terminations and major
115 changes in seismic facies (Fig. 2). The horizons can be readily identified in the seismic dataset
116 throughout the study area. The average interval between two horizons is 150-300 ms TWT up to
117 Eocene, which corresponds to 225–450 m assuming a seismic velocity of 3000 ms⁻¹. From
118 Paleocene and onwards, the average interval velocity is from 400 to 800 ms TWT. The base and
119 top salt horizons delimit the Loeme salt, whereas the top salt and top Albian horizons bound a pre-
120 kinematic succession deposited before the onset of major salt tectonics. The syn-kinematic
121 interval, which records salt diapir growth and minibasin subsidence, extends from the top Albian
122 to the seafloor (Fig. 2). Following existing convention, all strata above top salt are referred as
123 ‘supra-salt cover’, and strata beneath base salt are referred to as ‘sub-salt strata’. The interpreted
124 horizons allow sub-division of the supra-salt succession into eleven stratal units (Fig. 2).

125 *3.3 Time-thickness, cross-sections and salt weld*

126 We calculated TWT thickness (isochron) maps of all 11 supra-salt stratigraphic units; thickness
127 changes in these units, in conjunction with stratal geometries and seismic facies, are inferred to
128 record spatial variations in salt-driven minibasin subsidence. One potential pitfall of this method
129 relates to errors in the thickness calculations that could result from steeply dipping strata and lateral
130 velocity variations (Marsh, Imber, Holdsworth, Brockbank, & Ringrose, 2010; Oluboyo et al.,
131 2014). We have mitigated this by carefully cross-checking isochrons with the seismic sections to
132 ensure thickness changes observed in one are observed in the other. A second potential problem
133 relates to uncertainties in defining the geometry of a depocentre, since the depocentre is
134 represented simply by a relatively thick part of a specific stratigraphic interval. To better constrain
135 depocentre geometry, we define depocentres as the area corresponding to the upper 30% thick of
136 the studied stratigraphic interval; contour lines with 50 or 100 ms TWT increment are used to
137 illustrate depocentre location.

138 Previous studies have indicated that it is difficult to completely remove salt from a salt weld
139 (Bryce Hedrick Wagner, 2010; Bryce H Wagner & Jackson, 2011) and, in practice, salt welds can
140 contain tens of metres of remnant salt (C. A.-L. Jackson, Rodriguez, Rotevatn, & Bell, 2014;
141 Rowan, Lawton, & Giles, 2012; Bryce Hedrick Wagner, 2010). Therefore, a seismically apparent
142 weld may have up to 50 m of remnant salt (Bryce H Wagner & Jackson, 2011). To quantitatively
143 constrain the location of salt weld, we infer a weld where top and base salt horizons are less than
144 25 ms TWT apart, i.e. approximately 50 m assuming a seismic velocity of 4000 m/s (e.g. Birch,
145 1960). A key assumption in our analysis is that the timing of salt welding can be estimated by
146 variations in stratal thickness. More specifically, as a minibasin starts to weld, strata thin vertically
147 upward, and the geometry of stratigraphic interval changes from bowl or wedge shape to layers
148 with limited thickness variation (Fig. 1d) (Martin P. A Jackson & Hudec, 2017; Rowan & Weimer,
149 1998).

150 **4. Present day structural style and salt distribution**

151 The studied minibasin trends NNE, and is up to 16 km wide and 56 km long (Figs 1B, 3–5). The
152 minibasin is thickest in the southwest, with strata thinning and being upturned against flanking
153 diapirs that are up to 2000 ms TWT tall (Figs 3, 4 and 5).

154 Salt is generally very thin (<25 ms TWT) below the minibasin, suggesting a large part of the
155 minibasin is welded to subsalt strata. Locally, however, three broadly NE-trending salt-related
156 structures occur below the minibasin; these salt-related structures are up to 600 ms TWT thick, 6
157 km wide, and 17 km long (X–Z; Fig. 3c and d). Among them, salt pillows X and Y locate in the
158 northeast and centre of the minibasin respectively (Fig. 3d), and Salt Roller Z is bounded on its
159 western side by a moderate throw (400 ms TWT), NW-dipping normal fault (Fig. 5b).

160 **5. Supra-salt structural style and stratigraphic architecture**

161 Strata preserved within the minibasin shows significant temporal and spatial variations in
162 geometry and thickness. The Albian succession, which sits directly on top of the salt with limited
163 thickness variations, is regarded as pre-kinematic (Fig. 7a). Subsequent minibasin development
164 can be divided into four stages, based on stratal geometry and the relative locations of the
165 depocentres.

- 166 i) Cenomanian to Coniacian: Depocentre initiation and lateral migration (Fig. 7b-d)
- 167 ii) Santonian to Paleocene: Transverse shift to the west (Fig. 7e and f)
- 168 iii) Eocene to Oligocene: Turtle structure formation (Fig. 7g and h)
- 169 iv) Miocene to present day: Transverse migration crossing underlying salt pillows (Fig. 7i-k)

170 *5.1. Albian*

171 *Description.* The Albian succession is generally thin and tabular, with an average thickness of *c.*
172 100 ms TWT (Figs 4 and 5). Thickness changes are gradually across the study area (Fig. 7a). The
173 only relatively thick part is in the northwest, where it is over 300 ms TWT (Fig. 7a).

174

175 *Interpretation.* The absence of major thickness variations suggests that the Albian was a
176 tectonically quiescent stage. Little deformation occurred during this period, suggesting the gravity-
177 driven thin-skinned salt tectonics has not widely commenced in the study area (Fig 7a). However,
178 local thickness variation indicates some passive diapirism may already exist (Figs 4a and 9a).

179 *5.2 Cenomanian to Coniacian*

180 *Description.* Small-scale normal faults, which are spaced 1–4 km and 3–5 km long, and that have
181 up to 100 ms TWT fault throw, offset the Cenomanian to Coniacian succession (Figs 4 and 5).
182 During the Cenomanian, the first major minibasin depocentre (D1) developed in the north of the
183 study area (Fig 7b). The depocentre was *c.* 27 km long and *c.* 1.6 km wide (Fig. 4). In its northern
184 part, its eastern boundary is defined by an abrupt thickness change over 100 ms TWT, indicating
185 a syn-depositional growth fault (F1; Figs 4a and 7b).

186 Two depocentres, which are markedly offset from the Cenomanian depocentre (D1),
187 characterise the Turonian interval (D2a and D2b; Fig. 7c). The northern depocentre (D2a) is
188 relatively small (*c.* 6 km long and *c.* 6 km wide; Fig. 7c) and offset 2 km east of the one defined
189 in the underlying, Cenomanian succession (D1), lying immediately west of Salt Pillow X (Figs 4a
190 and 8a). Depocentre D2b is *c.* 27 km long and *c.* 7 km wide, and is located against the eastern salt
191 wall in the central part of the minibasin (Fig. 7c). A seismic profiles shows the depocentre defines
192 a south-eastwards-thickening wedge expanding from less than 100 ms TWT in the northwest to
193 approximately 300 ms TWT in southeast, documenting asymmetric subsidence linked to extension
194 and ongoing salt flow and diapirism (Fig. 5a). Specifically, the thickening towards southeast
195 indicates the withdrawal of more salt from southeast relative to the northwest (Fig. 5a). Moreover,
196 onlap onto the top Cenomanian within Depocentre D2b suggests in the along strike migration of
197 the Depocentre D2b over Depocentre D1 (Fig. 6).

198 We distinguish three depocentres in the Coniacian interval; these are all offset to the
199 southeastern side of the Turonian depocentres (Fig. 7d). Depocentre D3a migrated to the east
200 relative to depocentres D1 and D2a, lying on the eastern side of Salt Pillow X (Figs 4a and 8a).
201 Depocentre D3b is located against the eastern salt wall and partly coincides with the underlying
202 depocentre (D2b) but extends further to the south bounding Salt Pillow Y in the east and south

203 (Figs 5, 6 and 7d). Depocentre D3c is approximately 1 km wide and 8–10 km long and occurred
204 along the western boundary of Salt Roller Z (Fig. 5b). In cross section, depocentres D3b and D3c
205 are both composed of growth wedges thickening from less than 100 ms TWT in the southwest to
206 over 200 ms TWT in the east, suggesting asymmetrical subsidence and salt flow (Fig. 5b). In other
207 parts of the minibasin, normal faulting had largely ceased and the extension was mainly
208 accommodated by salt diapism as indicated by the triangle shape of salt diapirs (Figs 4b, 5a and
209 9d) (sensu Martin P. A Jackson, Vendeville, & Schultz-Ela, 1994).

210

211 *Interpretation.* Overall, the Cenomanian to Coniacian succession is characterized by the initiation
212 and lateral migration of depocentres (Fig. 8a). Depocentres developed during this stage are
213 generally related with extension and normal faulting. For example, depocentres D1-D3c thicken
214 towards normal faults and extensional diapirs, which are thus inferred to be active at this time
215 (Figs 4 and 5). Our local evidence for Cenomanian to Coniacian extension is consistent with
216 regional evidence provided by (Valle et al., 2001), who relate extension to thin-skinned gravity
217 gliding of supra-salt cover in response to regional tilting.

218 Minibasin subsidence also initiated salt depletion and subsequent welding. For example,
219 Depocentres D1 and D2b were superposed (Fig. 4a) because there was sufficient salt beneath the
220 northern corner of Depocentre D1 to allow continued subsidence. In contrast, by D2 times (i.e.
221 Turonian), the southern part of Depocentre D1 had welded, with salt having flowed laterally into
222 embryonic diapirs flanking the minibasin (Fig. 9c and d). As a result, subsidence shifted along
223 strike towards the south into a location where salt was still relatively thick and accommodation
224 generation, driven by salt expulsion, was still ongoing (Fig. 8e). This is evident by the Turonian
225 strata laterally onlapping over the Cenomanian strata in the Depocentre D1 area (Fig. 6). A similar
226 process occurred in the Coniacian, when subsidence again shifted progressively along strike to the
227 south (i.e. D3a and D3b are offset from depocentres D2a and D2b); we again infer this shift
228 occurred in response to the onset of (local) welding (Figs 6, 7c and 8a). The inferred place of salt
229 weld generally had 500-700 ms TWT thick supra-salt cover when welding occurred (e.g. Fig. 5),
230 which is in a good agreement with the initial salt thickness of c. 1 km assuming a seismic velocity
231 of 3000 ms⁻¹.

232 Progressive depocentre migration and related salt welding were also responsible for the
233 formation of the salt pillows, with these remnant, albeit relatively thick salt bodies being trapped
234 below the subsidising minibasin (e.g. D2a and D3a bounding Salt Pillow X; Fig. 4).

235 *5.3. Santonian to Paleocene*

236 *Description.* The Santonian times saw an abrupt westward shift in subsidence (D4a and D4c; Fig.
237 7e). In the northern part of the study area, two depocentres developed on the western and eastern
238 side of Salt Pillow X (D4a and D4b; Fig. 4a). The cross-section shows that the Depocentre D4a
239 strata thin outwards from the middle over 260 ms TWT towards its flanks of less than 100 ms
240 TWT, with the salt-cored anticline underlain by pillow X (Fig. 4a). In contrast, Depocentre D4b
241 developed above, but is noticeably smaller than, Depocentre D3a (Fig. 4a). Further south, 260 ms
242 TWT thick, Depocentre D4c developed in the western part of the minibasin, bounded by Salt
243 Pillow Y and the western salt wall (Fig. 5a). A minor exception to the broadly westward shift in
244 subsidence is represented by Depocentre D4d, which is developed in the southeast above
245 Depocentre D3b (Fig. 5b).

246 From the Campanian until the Paleocene, the subsidence regime was broadly similar to that
247 characterising the Santonian (Fig. 7f). Depocentres D5a, D5b and D5c formed above D4a, D4c
248 and D4d, respectively (Fig. 7d), with the main difference being that Depocentre D5a (3–4 km long
249 and 1–2 km wide) was smaller than depocentre (D4a) (Fig. 8b), whereas depocentres D5b and D5c
250 are considerably larger than their underlying depocentres (Figs 5b and 7f).

251
252 *Interpretation.* In Santonian times, as large parts of minibasin below depocentres D3a and D3b
253 welded (Fig. 9d), subsidence shifted westwards (Fig. 7e). Thinning of strata towards the minibasin
254 flanks, such as Depocentre D4a, indicates that the subsidence and minibasin formation is under
255 control of sediment loading and salt expulsion underneath, as suggested in previous studies (Hudec
256 et al., 2009). At the same time, the presence of the two small depocentres D4b and D4d directly
257 overlying D3a and D3b suggests that salt withdrawal continued locally (Figs 7e and 8b). As
258 observed in earlier time periods, salt pillows and walls formed as salt became trapped between
259 sub-basins within the subsiding minibasin (e.g. D4c and D5b, which separate Salt Pillow Y from
260 the north-western salt wall; Figs 5a and 8b).

261 5.4. Eocene to Oligocene

262 *Description.* During the interval of the Eocene to Oligocene, minibasin subsidence shifted to the
263 immediate flanks of the adjacent diapirs (Figs 5b and 7g). For example, during the Eocene,
264 Depocentre D6a occurred abruptly in the west of the minibasin and Depocentre D6b progressively
265 grew and extended over early Depocentre D5c towards the east (Figs 7g and 8c). In cross section,
266 depocentres D6a and D6b thicken from the middle of the minibasin of c. 80 ms TWT to minibasin
267 flanks with over 350 ms TWT thick (Fig. 5b). Together, depocentres D6a and D6b define a turtle
268 structure in the south of the minibasin (Fig. 5b). The turtle grew and expanded towards the NE

269 during the Oligocene, as the two Eocene depocentres extended northeastwards to form depocentres
270 D7a and D7b (Figs 7h and 8c).

271

272 *Interpretation.* The Eocene to Oligocene represents a stage of turtle structure development (Fig.
273 8c). In Eocene, the turtle structure appeared along Salt Roller Z and later extended along strike
274 forming basinwide turtle structure in Oligocene (Fig. 7a and h). Although turtle structures may be
275 driven by both extension and/or sediment loading (Martin P. A Jackson et al., 1994), we interpret
276 the main control is sediment loading due to the absence of extensional structures (e.g. normal
277 faults) within age-equivalent strata. Moreover, our interpretation is consistent with results arising
278 from the regional study of Valle et al. (2001), who argue thin-skinned extension and related normal
279 faulting had largely ceased by the Eocene times (Valle et al., 2001).

280 5.5. Miocene to Holocene

281 *Description.* During the early Miocene, two depocentres developed above Depocentre D7a on the
282 western side of the minibasin (D8a and D8b; Figs 5b and 7i). By the late Miocene, the minibasin
283 is defined by a single, 4–9 km wide, NE-trending depocentre, the axis of which lies midway
284 between the flanking salt walls (D9; Fig. 7j). Overall, this succession thins towards flanking salt
285 walls, suggesting that the latter were rising at this time (Fig. 5). Subsequent subsidence focused
286 on a single 4–9 km wide, over 600 ms TWT deep depocentre located on the eastern side of the
287 minibasin (D10; Fig. 7k). Depocentre D10 is strongly asymmetrical, thinning towards northwest,
288 as the northwest limb of neighbouring minibasin thrust over the southwest limb of the studied
289 minibasin with occurrence of vertical salt weld (Fig. 5a).

290

291 *Interpretation.* In Miocene times, subsidence migrated from the west of the minibasin towards the
292 east (Fig. 8d), a shift we infer occurred due to margin tilting and regional contraction. In the early
293 Miocene, margin tilting caused minibasin subsidence in the west so that sediment accumulated
294 preferentially on the western side of the minibasin (D8a and D8b; Fig. 7i). In the late Miocene,
295 contraction affected the intraslope basin area which is evident by the squeezed and uplifted salt
296 walls. Further contraction in Pleistocene was accommodated by thrust and vertical salt weld (Fig.
297 5a).

298 6. Discussion

299 6.1. Depocentre migration during minibasin development

300 Minibasin initiation and evolution have been studied in considerable detail; early studies generally

301 assumed that minibasin subsidence is driven by its excess density relatively to underlying salt (e.g.
302 Worrall & Snelson, 1989). Such mechanism is likely to be true during the late stage of minibasin
303 development, when the contained sedimentary sequence is both thick, dense and thus negatively
304 buoyant. It is very unlikely this applies during the initial stage of subsidence when the minibasin
305 is thin and positively buoyant. Based on mechanical considerations, Hudec et al. (2009) suggest a
306 minibasin must be at least 2300 m thick for it to sink under its own weight, although Fernandez et
307 al. (2017) recently suggest that, depending on the composition of the minibasin fill, this value
308 could be less than 1000 m. Instead of density-driven subsidence, a number of other processes that
309 can initiate minibasin formation when the cover strata are still relatively thin; these include thin-
310 skinned extension and contraction (e.g. Brun & Fort, 2011; Ings & Beaumont, 2010), differential
311 loading (e.g. Ge, Jackson, & Vendeville, 1997; Peel, 2014; Bruno C Vendeville, 2005), and thick-
312 skinned and sub-salt deformation (e.g. Hudec et al., 2009; M. P. A Jackson & Vendeville, 1994).
313 However, it is problematic to directly apply these two-dimensional concepts and models to the
314 three-dimensional evolution of natural minibasin.

315 In this paper, we document the complexity of minibasin growth revealed by the spatial and
316 temporal variability of depocentre development, using variations in stratal unit thickness as a
317 proxy to investigate the minibasin growth, subsidence, and salt migration. The minibasin
318 comprises a succession of depocentres that formed, evolved, and deformed in the space of only a
319 few to tens of kilometres, and over a time interval of several tens of million years. Depocentre
320 initiation occurred due to the onset of normal faulting in the studied area from Cenomanian, under
321 the influence of regional extension (D1; Fig. 4). Then, because the first generation of depocentres
322 (D1) welded to sub-salt strata, the next generation, Turonian depocentre (D2) migrated to areas
323 where salt was still thick and able to flow to create accommodation (Figs 6 and 9). Since the
324 flanking salt walls were relatively high due to the salt inflow, as indicated by the presence of stratal
325 upturn and thinning at the minibasin margins, the new depocentres were forced to migrate along
326 strike (Figs 6 and 10). When the depocentres had welded along the eastern flank of the minibasin,
327 the locus of deposition was forced to shift towards the northwest-(Figs 5a, 8b and 9). However, as
328 salt welding was a gradual process, some Santonian depocentres in the east (e.g. D4b and D4d)
329 directly overlay earlier-formed Coniacian depocentres (e.g. D3a and D3b) (Figs 4b, 5 and 6). This
330 process continued as the latest generation of depocentres became welded (Fig. 8c). Only when the
331 contraction took over, did salt welding no longer control depocentre migration. Instead, the
332 transverse migration of depocentres from the Miocene and onwards was controlled by regional
333 tilting and associated thin-skinned contraction (Figs 8d and 9). The complex subsidence history
334 recorded here contrasts with a minibasin growth model envisaging a single, bowl-shaped
335 depocentre that sinks into the salt and finally welds to sub-salt strata (e.g. Hudec et al., 2009; M.

336 P. A Jackson & Vendeville, 1994; Peel, 2014; B. C Vendeville & Jackson, 1992). Instead, for very
337 large minibasin forming in a kinematically complex setting, where numerous salt bodies and
338 minibasin controls interact, depocentres can progressively migrate or abruptly shift along and
339 across strike; this results in complex minibasin geometries and stratigraphic architectures (Fig.
340 10).

341 Previous studies have demonstrated that shifts in depocentre position and minibasin tilting can
342 be controlled by regional contraction (Hudec et al., 2009) or extension (Rowan & Weimer, 1998).
343 However, in the study area, until the Miocene, shifts in depocentre position occurred due to local
344 salt welding, under the influence of extension (Fig. 8a) and/or sedimentary loading (Fig. 8b and
345 c). Similar minibasin subsidence dynamics are observed in Permian minibasins of the Central
346 North Sea (Stewart, 2007, their fig. 4; Stewart & Clark, 1999, their fig. 4b), although in this case,
347 the subsidence is driven by differential loading of dense anhydrite onto less dense halite.

348 *6.2 Salt flow, trapping and welding*

349 A number of studies have focused on salt flow in gravity-driven salt-tectonic systems, showing
350 how salt flows in the dip direction (i.e. slope-parallel direction) (e.g. Brun & Fort, 2011; Cramez
351 & Jackson, 2000; Duval, Cramez, & Jackson, 1992; Hudec & Jackson, 2004; Rowan et al., 2004).
352 Even it has long been known that salt flow and minibasin subsidence are three-dimensional
353 (Rowan, 1993), it is difficult to constrain them in the strike direction. In this study, we were not
354 able to perform three-dimensional halokinetic-sequence analysis (Giles & Rowan, 2012) due to
355 reduced seismic quality immediately adjacent to salt walls and diapirs in areas of steeply dipping
356 strata. As such, we could not precisely constrain how diapir rise rate and sediment accumulation
357 rate varied both through time and, critically in the context of the along-strike dynamics
358 documented here, through space. However, the patterns of depocentre migration we have
359 identified in the study area suggest the flow of salt between different salt bodies was spatially and
360 temporarily variable. For example, from the Cenomanian to Turonian, as the locus of deposition
361 migrated southwards from D1 to D2b, the salt wall rise started first in the northeast of the minibasin
362 and then towards the south (Figs 4b and 8a). The salt wall in the west formed even later, after
363 major depocentres shifted to the west in the Santonian (Fig. 9e).

364 Our study also shows that a salt pillow or salt-cored anticline can simply be remnant salt
365 trapped in the anticline due to depocentre migration and accompanied three-dimensional salt flow,
366 and not the result of turtle formation. A recent study has suggested that salt-cored anticline related
367 to the formation of turtle structures, as the minibasin flanks subside quicker than the centre and
368 trap the underlying salt (Peel, 2014). In the study area, Salt Pillow Y was not formed by a single
369 stage of depocentre welding, nor by the formation of a turtle structure, but through progressive

370 welding of multiple depocentres (Fig. 3b). In essence, the northeastern, southern and western
371 boundaries of Salt Pillow Y formed through salt welding in Turonian, Cenomanian and Santonian
372 to Paelocene times respectively (Fig. 8).

373 A phenomenon that accompanies the migration of depocentres and progressive formation of
374 salt pillows is the diachronous welding of salt, an observation that has been made at the regional
375 scale (Roberts, Metzgar, Liu, & Lim, 2004). Our study however demonstrates that even within a
376 single minibasin, the timing of salt welding is likely to be diachronous and spatially complex due
377 to the ever-shifting locations of subsidence. Such process of protracted welding of tens of million
378 years contrasts remarkably to the one-off salt welding of a minibasin suggested by current, largely
379 two-dimensional models (e.g. Peel, 2014; B. C Vendeville & Jackson, 1992).

380 **7. Conclusions**

381 Our interpretation of high quality seismic reflection data from an intraslope minibasin in the Lower
382 Congo Basin permits a detailed analysis of structural and stratigraphic evolution of the minibasin
383 development and related salt flow. Interpreting closely-spaced horizons allows us to develop a
384 high resolution tectono-stratigraphic framework that reveals, in some detail, a history of
385 depocentre and subsidence migration, salt trapping and salt welding.

386 The time-thickness maps show the minibasin in this study is the result of amalgamation of
387 multiple depocentres. We identify four stages of depocentre migration plus a pre-kinematic stage
388 of Albian: 1. Depocentre initiation and lateral migration under extension from Cenomanian to
389 Coniacian; 2. Transverse shift of depocentres to the west under the control of sedimentary loading
390 from Santonian to Paleocene; 3. Turtle structure formation under sedimentary loading from
391 Eocene to Oligocene; 4. Transverse migration of depocentres under regional tilting and
392 contraction.

393 Our analysis of the minibasin has allowed us to identify the driven force for minibasin growth.
394 The early initiation and lateral migration of depocentres within the minibasin are largely controlled
395 by the extension. However, the exact timing and location of depocentre shift are closely linked to
396 the salt flow and weld. As early depocentres weld on sub-salt strata, late depocentres are forced to
397 migrate to places where salt withdraw is ongoing and creating accommodation space. In contrast,
398 after the minibasin has largely welded, later contraction squeezes the salt walls and creates salt
399 highs, forcing the depocentres to migrate to topographic lows within the minibasin. Moreover, the
400 shift of depocentre location and subsequently salt welding also result in complex salt flow which
401 in turn play a significant role in formation of salt-related structures. The trapping of the remnant
402 salt by diachronous salt welding forms salt pillows underneath the minibasin in a span of more
403 than 70 Myr.

404 This study demonstrates that a single minibasin is the result of three-dimensional depocentre
405 migration and salt flow. Consequently, current models of minibasin growth need to revise to take
406 into account the spatial and temporal variations of minibasin geometries and stratigraphy.
407 Moreover, the shifting of depocentre locations also provides a framework for understanding the
408 associated sedimentary systems and facies distributions within the minibasins.

409

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411

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414 providing the Petrel software in the 3D Seismic Lab at the University of Bergen.

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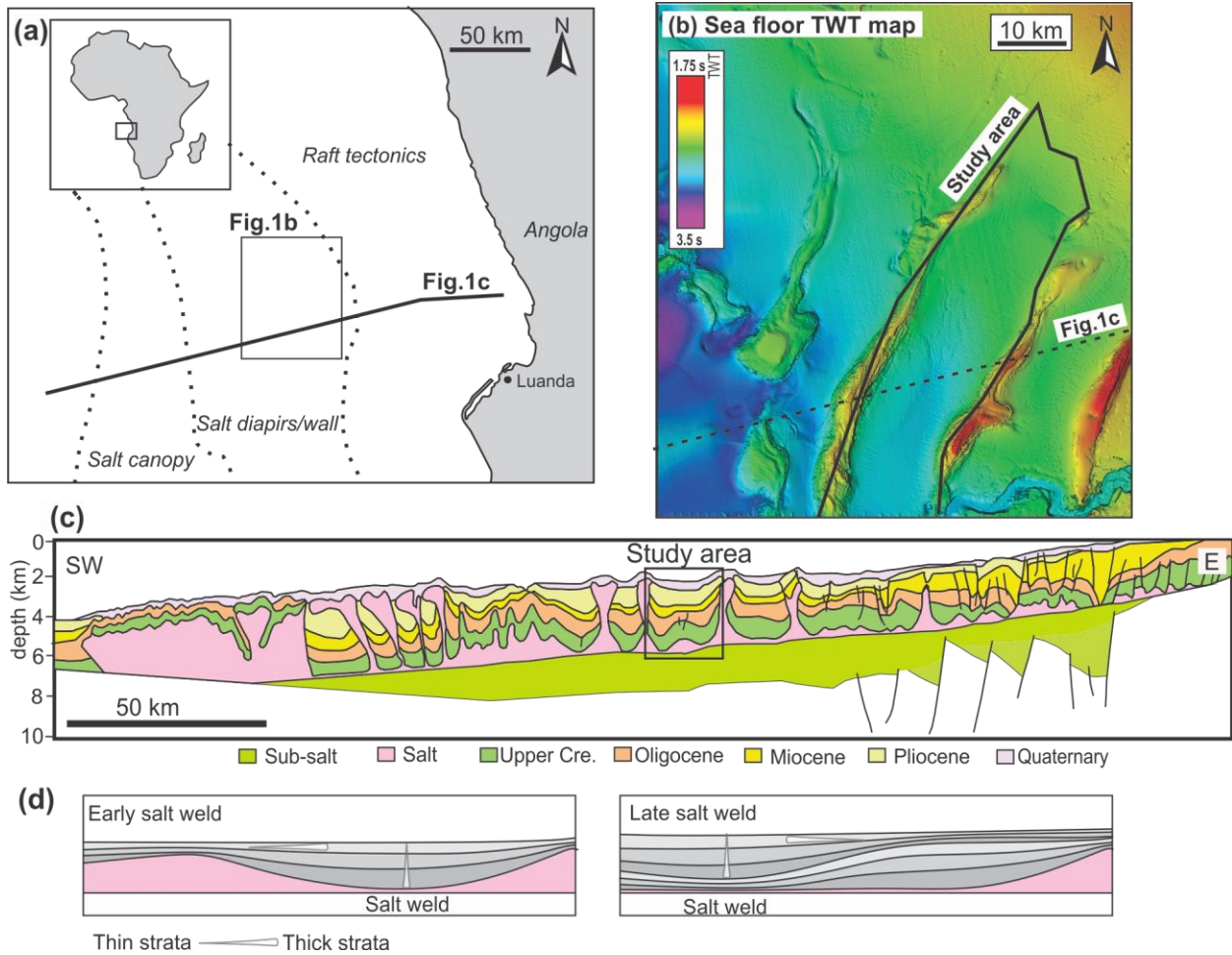
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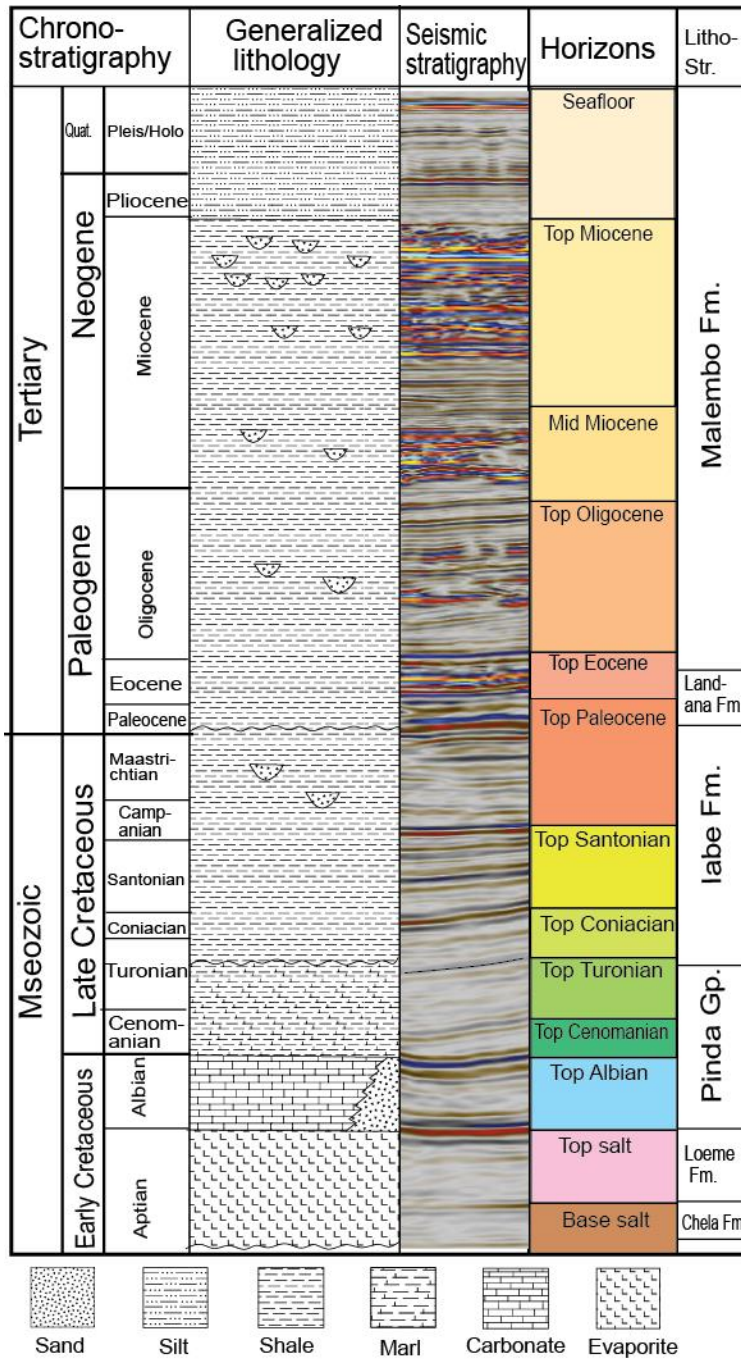
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552 **Figure 1.** (a) Simplified map showing the location and structural domains of the Lower Congo
 553 Basin (modified after Marton et al., 2000). The dotted lines are domain boundaries. Inset shows
 554 the geographical location of the Lower Congo Basin. (b) Seafloor TWT map of the intraslope area
 555 of the Lower Congo Basin. The salt walls and diapirs are visible as local bathymetric highs. The
 556 location is shown in (a). (c) Regional profile of the Lower Congo Basin (modified after Marton et
 557 al., 2000). Note the thin-skinned, upslope extension and downslope contraction system developed
 558 above the salt. Approximate location of the study area is indicated. The location of the profile is
 559 shown in (a) and (b). (d) Schematic diagram showing the stratal architecture during progressive
 560 salt welding (modified from Jackson & Hudec, 2017). Note the vertical and lateral thickness
 561 variations of strata during the depocentre shift.

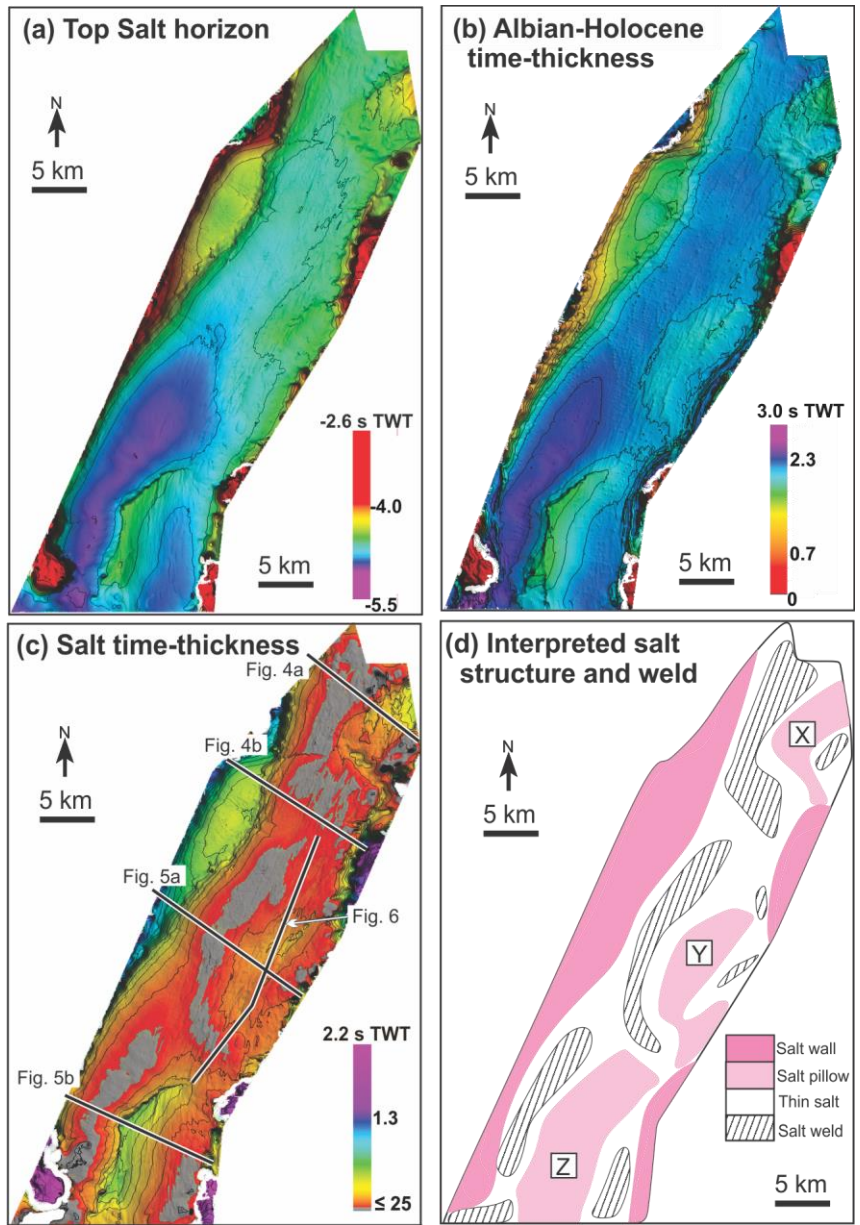
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564 **Figure 2.** Stratigraphy of the Lower Congo Basin and interpreted horizons (modified after
 565 Anderson et al., 2000; Valle et al., 2001).

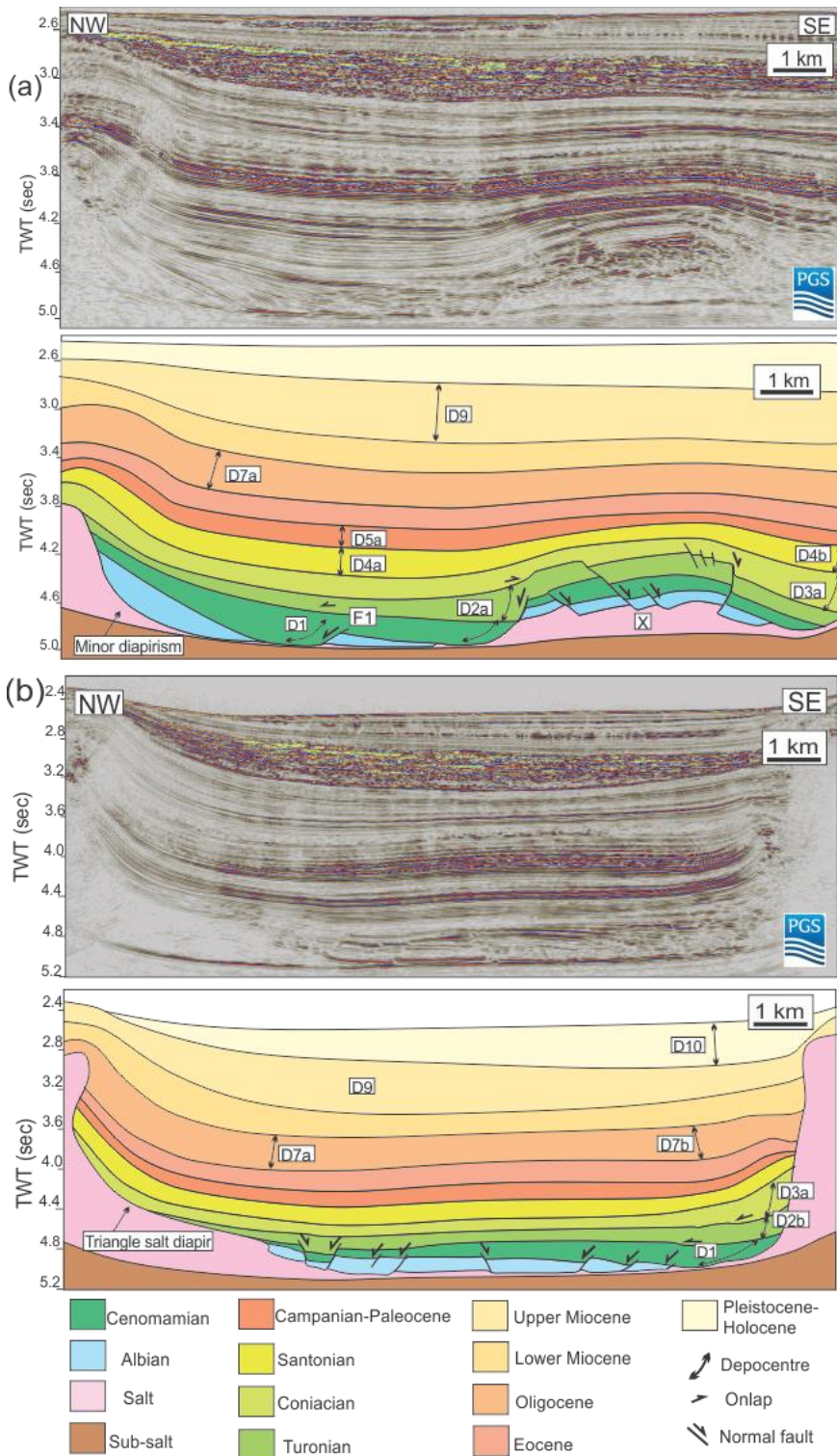
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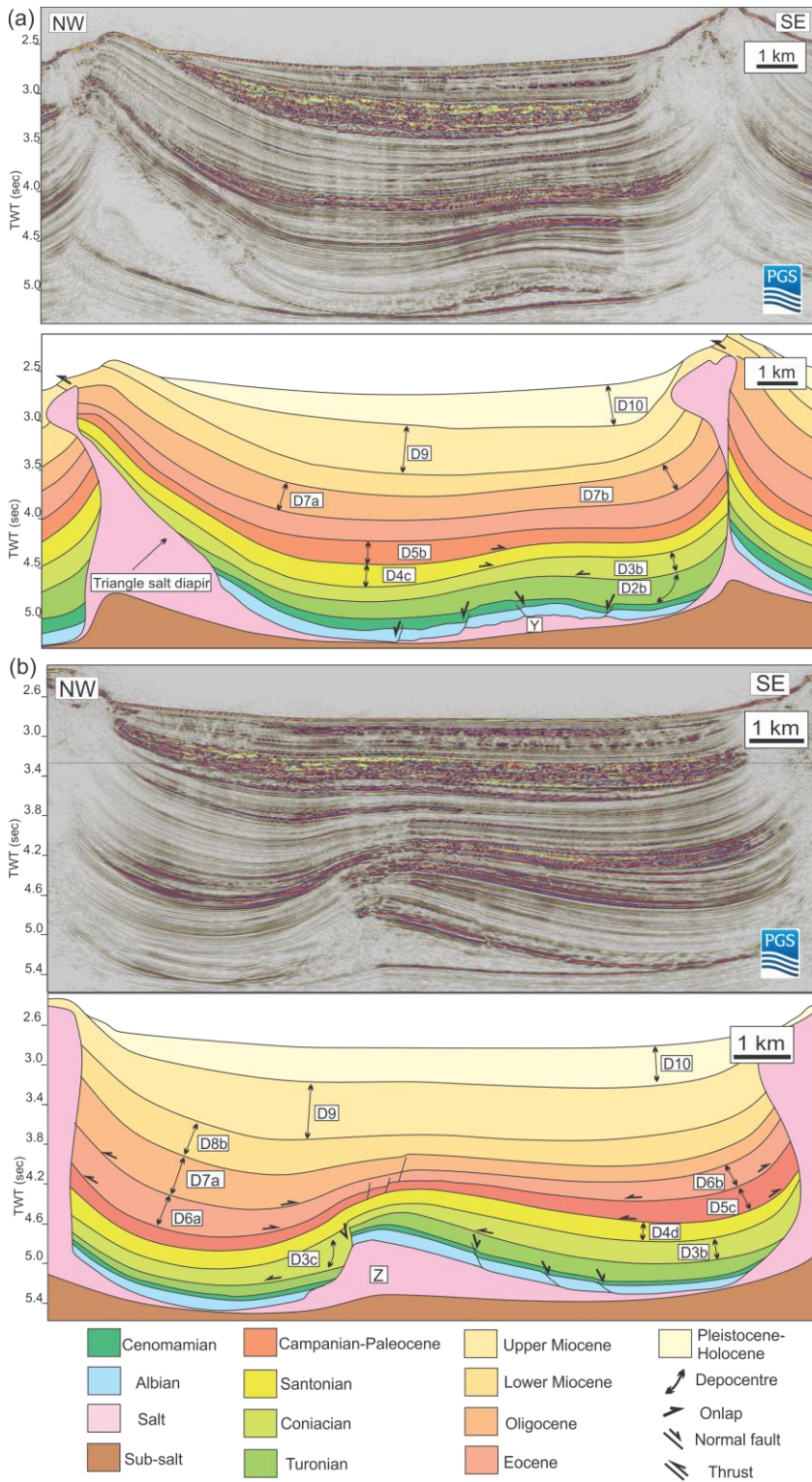
568 **Figure 3.** TWT structure and time-thickness maps of the salt and supra-salt cover strata of the
 569 intraslope minibasin. (a) TWT structure map of the top salt horizon illustrating highs and lows of
 570 salt-related structures within the present-day minibasin. (b) Supra-salt cover time-thickness
 571 showing the thickness variations within the cover strata. Note that the thin supra-salt areas are
 572 thick salt areas in (c). (c) Salt time-thickness map, and its simplified sketch (d) showing the
 573 location of salt welds (<25 ms TWT) and salt walls/diapir. Note the three salt pillows X, Y and
 574 Salt Roller Z, located within the present-day minibasin.

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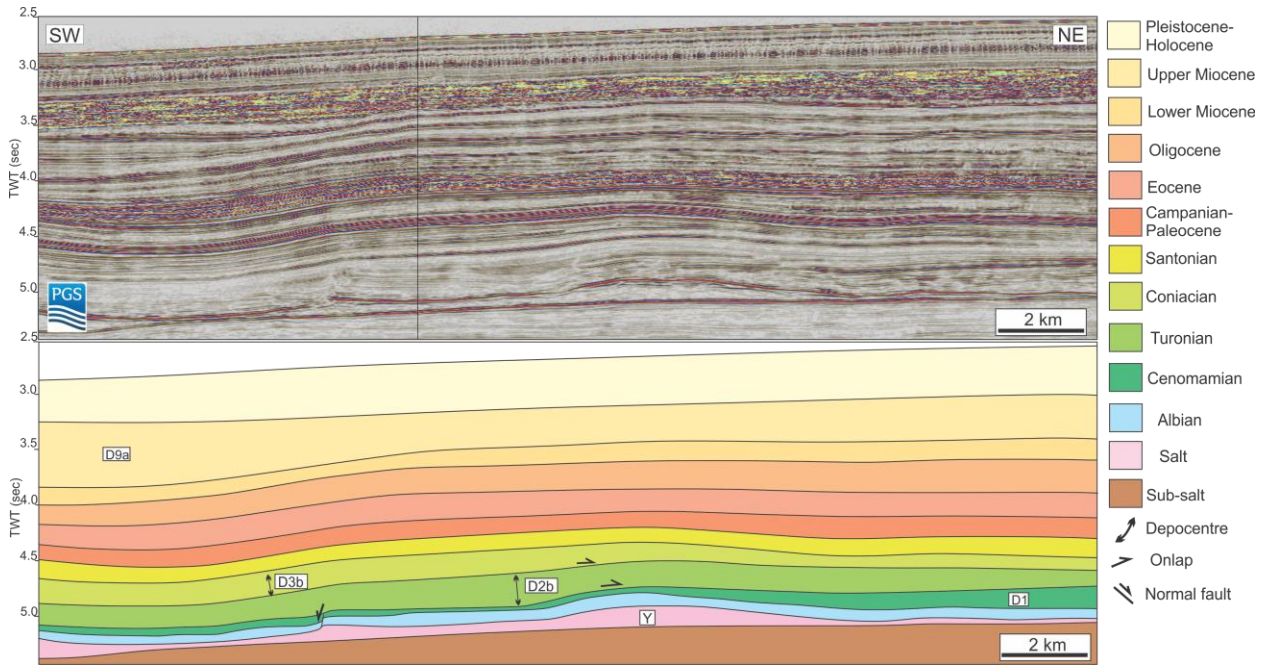
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577 **Figure 4.** Seismic section and interpretation of the northernmost part of the minibasin. (a) Seismic
 578 section (above) and interpretation (below) illustrate the structural style and stratigraphic
 579 architecture in the north of the minibasin. X is a salt pillow referred to in the text. D1 to D9 are
 580 depocentres referred to in the text. Note the growth strata of D1 and D2a along normal faults. For
 581 section location, see Figs 3c and 7a. (b) Seismic section (above) and interpretation (below)
 582 illustrating the structural style and stratigraphic architecture of the northern part of the minibasin,
 583 southwest of the line of Fig. 4a. Note the growth strata of depocentres D1, D2b and D3a. D1, D2b,
 584 D3a, D7a, D7b, D9 and D10 are depocentres referred in the main text. For section location, see
 585 Figs 3c and 7a.



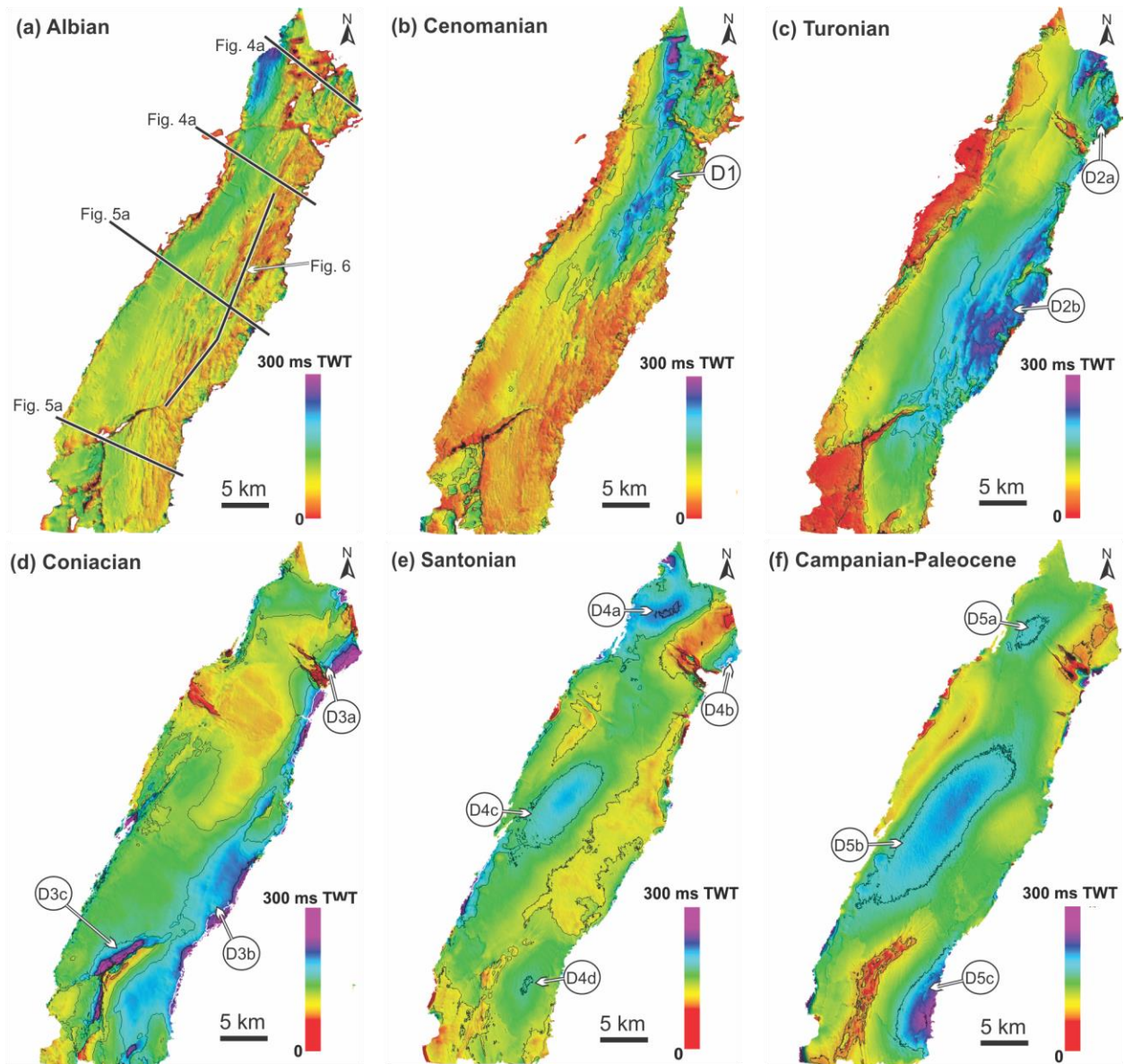
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587 **Figure 5.** Seismic section and interpretation of the central and southern part of the present-day
 588 minibasin. (a) Seismic section (above) and interpretation (below) illustrate the structural style and
 589 stratigraphic architecture in the central part of the minibasin. Y is a salt pillow referred in the text.
 590 D2a to D10 are depocentres referred to in the text. For section location, see Figs 3c and 7a. (b)
 591 Seismic section (above) and interpretation (below) illustrating the structural style and stratigraphic
 592 architecture of the southern part of the minibasin. Note the normal fault-bounded depocentre D3c.
 593 D3b, D3c, D5c, D6a, D6b, D7a, D8b, D9 and D10 are depocentres referred in the main text. Z is
 594 a salt roller referred in the text. For section location, see Figs 3c or 7a.



595
 596 **Figure 6.** Seismic section (above) and interpretation (below) illustrating the structural style and
 597 stratigraphic architecture along the strike of the minibasin. Note the onlap from D3a to D2b and
 598 from D2b to D1 respectively. D1, D2b, D3a and D9 are depocentres referred to in the text. Y is a
 599 salt pillow referred in the text. For section location, see Figs 3c or 7c.

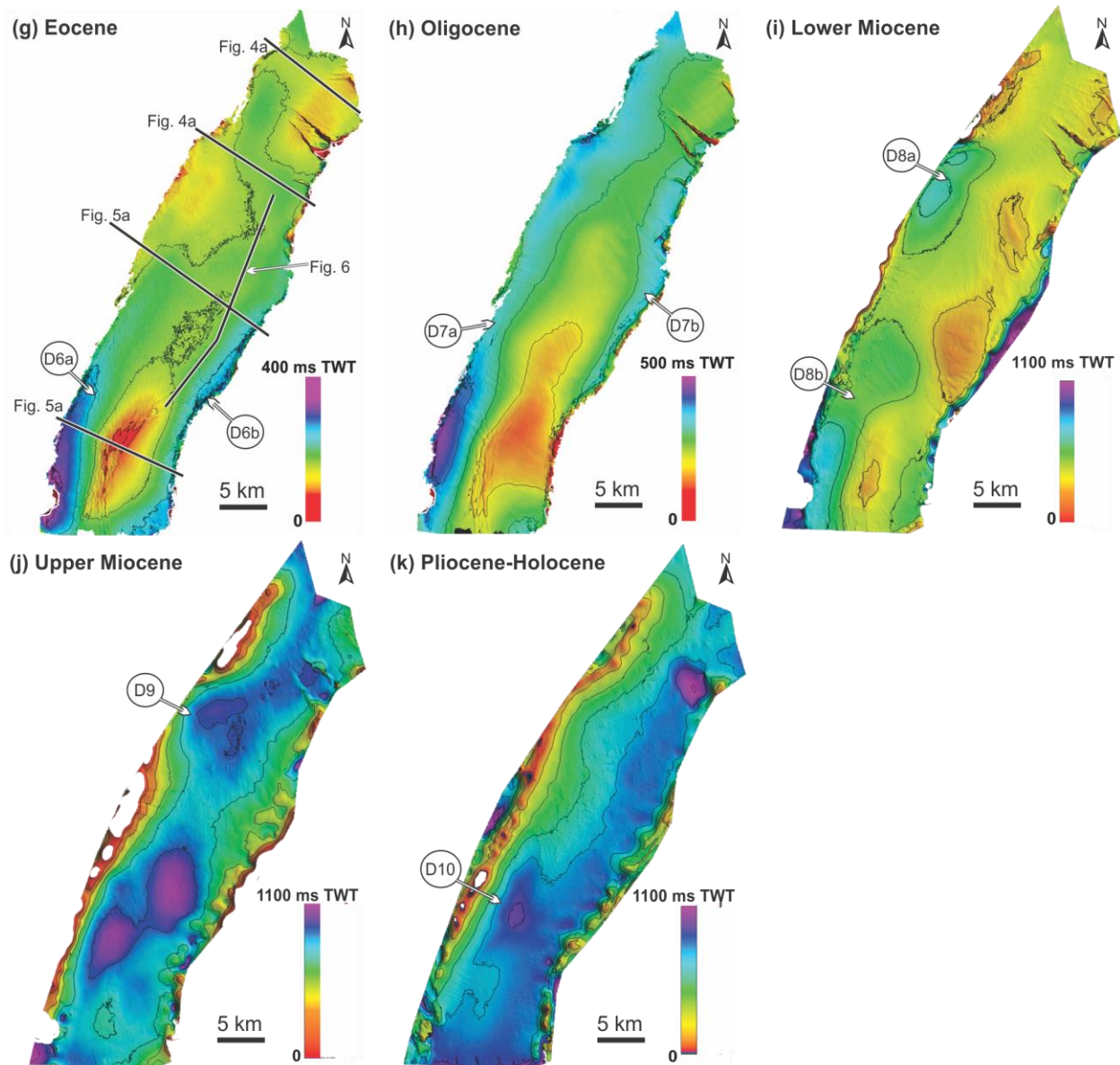
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602 **Figure 7.** Time-thickness maps for each of the nine supra-salt units considered in this study. (a)
 603 Albian: limited thickness variations, indicating a quiescent stage. (b) Cenomanian: widespread
 604 small normal faults and the development of depocentre D1 controlled by normal faults. (c)
 605 Turonian: lateral migration of depocentres D2a and D2b. Depocentre D2b develops southwards of
 606 but overlaps depocentre D1. (d) Coniacian: migration of depocentres D3a, D3b and D3c. (e)
 607 Santonian: development of new depocentres (D4a and D4c) to the west of the old depocentres
 608 (D4b and D4d), which remain active. (f) Campanian–Paleocene: growth of depocentres D5a, D5b
 609 and D5c.

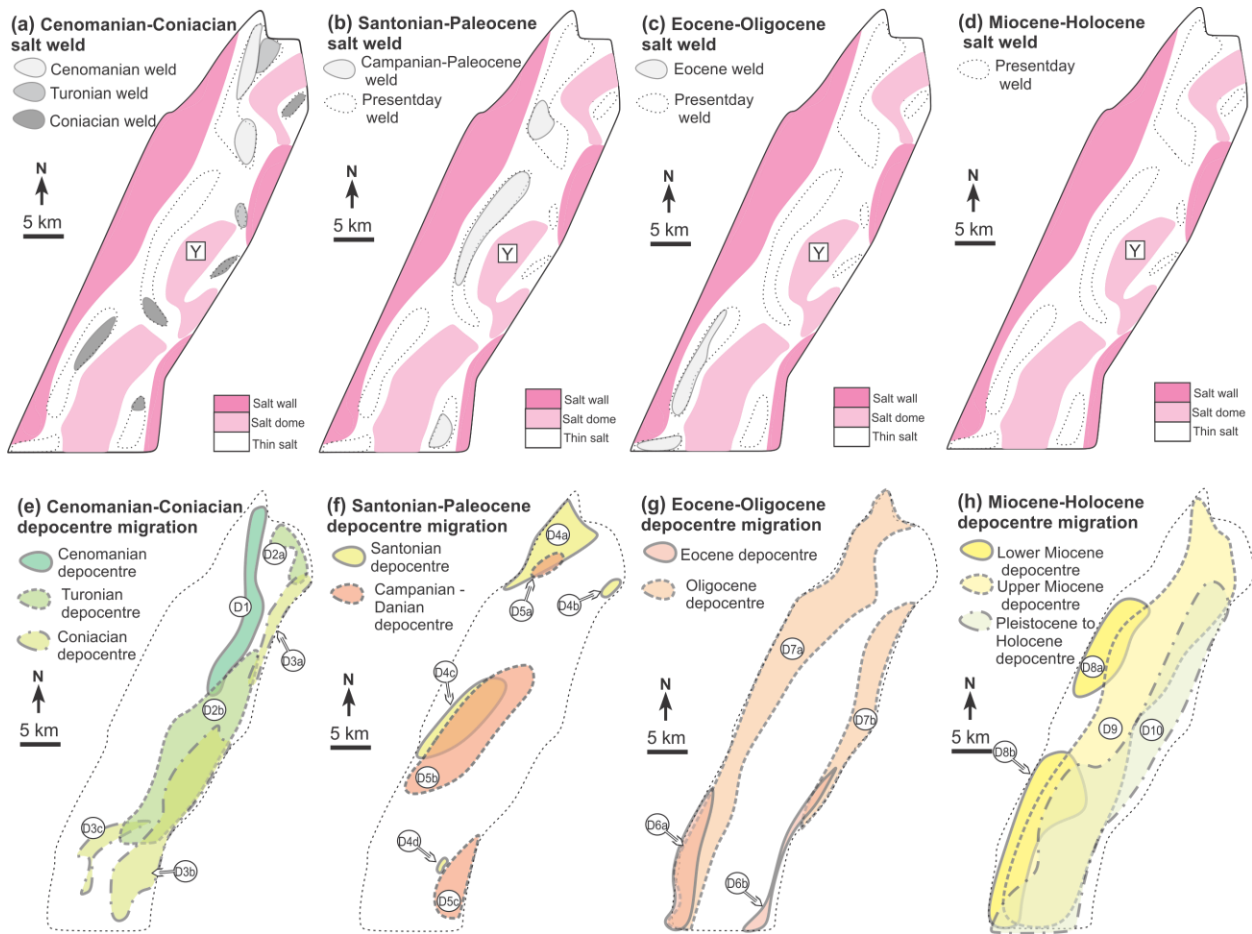
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612 **Figure 7. Continued** (g) Eocene: development of depocentres D6a and D6b along the flanks of
 613 the minibasin. (h) Oligocene: growth and migration of depocentres of D7a and D7b in a northward
 614 direction. (i) Early Miocene: newly developed depocentres D8a and D8a migrate to the west of
 615 the minibasin. (j) Later Miocene: elongate depocentre D9 in centre of the minibasin. (k)
 616 Pleistocene to Holocene: depocentre D10 in east of the minibasin.

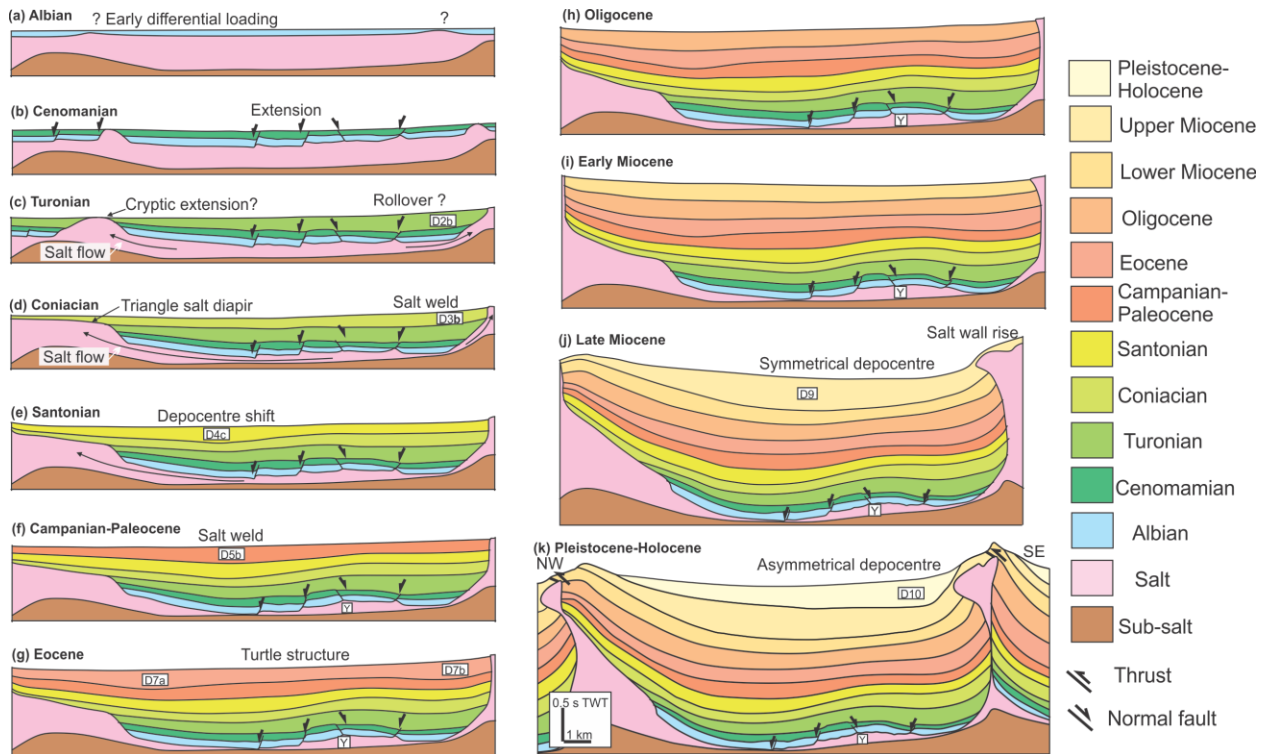
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619 **Figure 8.** Schematic diagram illustrating the four stages of depocentre migration and interpreted
 620 concurrent evolution of the salt weld in the minibasin. Locations and sequences of salt weld: (a)
 621 During depocentre lateral migration, from Cenomanian to Coniacian; (b) From Santonian to
 622 Paleocene; (c) From Eocene to Oligocene, during turtle structure formation. (d) No further salt
 623 weld on sub-salt strata from Miocene to Holocene. (e) Initiation of first depocentre and subsequent
 624 lateral depocentre migration from Cenomanian to Coniacian. (f) Depocentres shift and growth to
 625 the west of early formed depocentres from Santonian to Paleocene. (g) Migration of depocentres
 626 to the flanks of the minibasin and formation of turtle structure from Eocene to Miocene. (h)
 627 Migration of depocentres from the west of the minibasin to the east due to margin tilting and
 628 contraction.

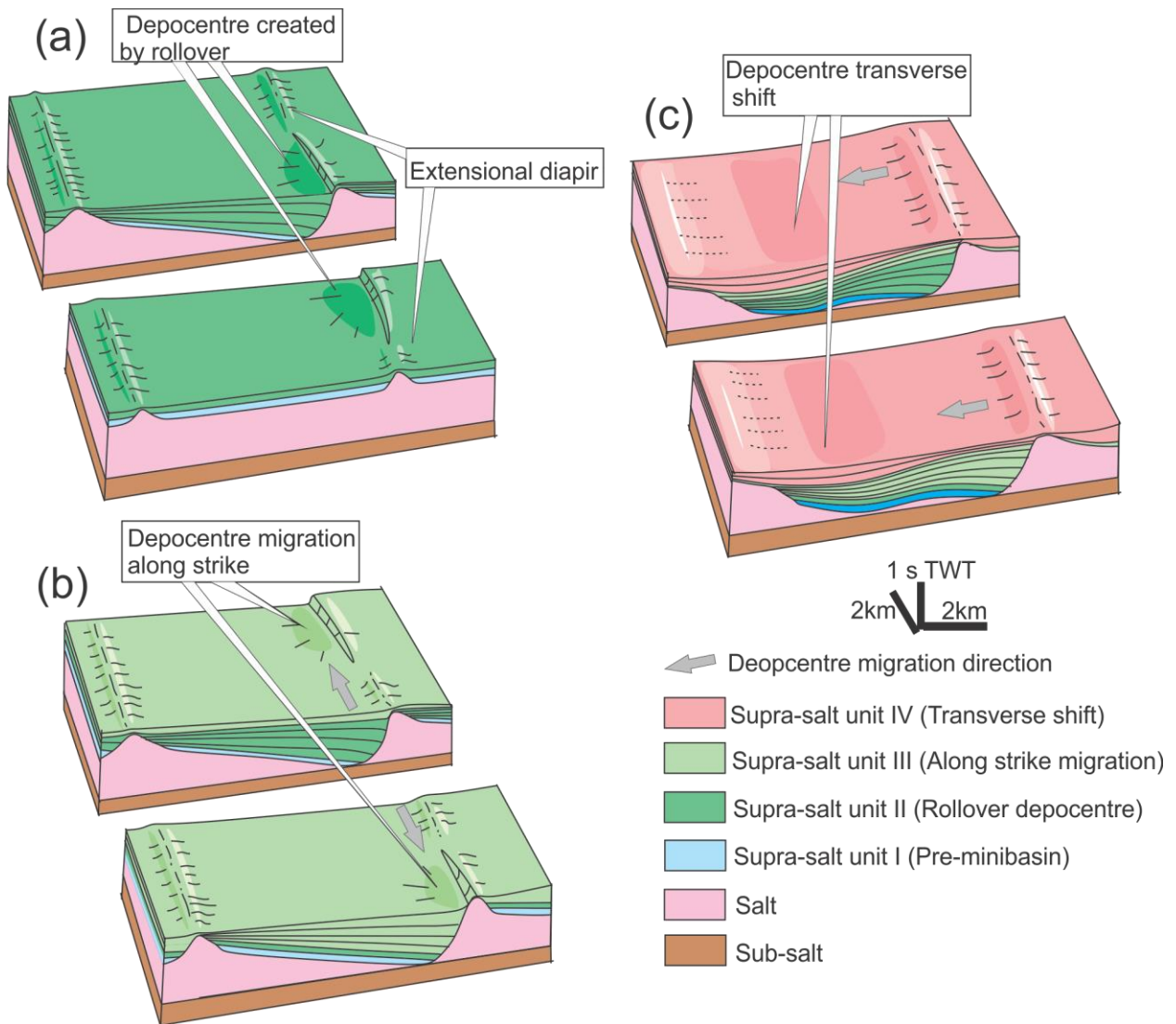
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631 **Figure 9.** Schematic diagram based on Fig. 5a illustrating depocentre migration in the central part
 632 of the minibasin. (a) Albian is a relatively quiescent stage. (b)-(d) Cenomanian to Coniacian:
 633 depocentre migrated under extension, note the growth strata of depocentre D2a and salt weld
 634 occurred before depocentre D3a. (e)-(f) Santonian to Paleocene: deposition shifted to the west of
 635 the minibasin. (g)-(h) Eocene: turtle structure developed as centres of deposition formed on both
 636 sides of the minibasin. (i)-(k) Miocene to Holocene: depocentres migrated towards southeast due
 637 to elevated salt diapir/wall. See text for discussion.

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640 **Figure 10.** Block diagram illustrating the along-strike migration and transverse shift of
 641 depocentres and related salt weld within a single minibasin. (a) Minibasin initiation by extensional
 642 depocentre. (b) Depocentre along-strike migration due to salt weld and continued extension. (c)
 643 Depocentre shift to across the minibasin axis due to salt weld. Note the formation of underlying
 644 salt pillow is irrelevant to turtle structure.