### **MODELLING THE WITWATERSRAND BASIN:**

## **A window into Neoarchaean-Palaeoproterozoic crustal-scale tectonics**

**Masters Dissertation**

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## **Declaration**

I, *Marcello Giuseppe Molezzi*, hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work, contains no plagiarism, and that it has not been presented to any other university for the purpose of obtaining a degree.

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M. G. Molezzi

2017/06/02

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#### **Abstract**

The aim of this study was to investigate and evaluate the 3D structural architecture around the Vredefort dome in the Witwatersrand basin, in particular the unexposed southern portion. This was done in order to establish strato-tectonic relationships, first order deformation structures, and basement architecture. The outcomes provide a more detailed architecture around the central uplift that may be used in future work aimed at examining the nature of giant terrestrial impacts. In summary, the integration of borehole, surface mapping, and 2D reflection seismic data provides a well constrained 3D geological model of the dome, central uplift, and adjacent areas (covering approximately 11600 km<sup>2</sup>). Seven structural features are discussed from the 3D modelling results. These include, (1) a normal fault in the lower West Rand Group, (2) an undulate, normal faulted truncation plane, constrained as post-West Rand Group and pre or early-Central Rand Group, (3) a truncation plane and local enhanced uplift constrained as pre to syn-VCF, (4) a listric fault system, constrained as post-Klipriviersberg Group and syn-Platberg Group, (5) a truncation plane, constrained as syn-Black Reef Formation, (6) folds, including a large asymmetric, gentle anticline here named the Vaal Dam Anticline, constrained as post-Magaliesberg Formation and pre-Vredefort impact, and (7) a listric fault across the southeastern margin of the Vredefort dome, constrained as late to post-central uplift formation. The findings support previous work by Tinker et al. (2002), Ivanov (2005), Alexandre et al. (2006), Dankert and Hein (2010), Manzi et al. (2013), Jahn and Riller (2015), and Reimold and Hoffmann (2016). However the findings oppose various parts of previous work by Friese et al. (1995), Henkel and Reimold (1998), and Reimold and Koeberl (2014). A new term is also proposed for the periclinal folds located around the central uplift, i.e., impact-type curvature-accommodation folds. This study demonstrates the importance of integrating multiple sources of data into a single 3D spatial environment in order to better refine and distinguish impact-related deformation from the pre-existing basement architecture.

# **Chapter 1 Introduction**

#### **1.1. Preamble/Rationale**

The Neoarchaean Witwatersrand basin is one of the best documented terranes in the world. Its tectonic history is understood broadly although it lacks geometry and kinematic data (Dankert and Hein, 2010) that would help establish the geodynamic development of the basin over time. The basin represents one of the largest exposures of Neoarchaean rock on Earth, as well as hosts the Vredefort dome at its geographic centre, representing the largest (250 – 300km wide) and possibly oldest (2023  $\pm$ 4 Ma; Kamo et al., 1996) confirmed meteorite impact crater on Earth. The crater is categorised as a complex crater as it contains a central uplift peak. The crater has also undergone intense erosion, with the current surface exposure being estimated at  $5 - 8$ km below the original surface level (Reimold and Koeberl, 2014).

According to the Planetary Science Institute, complex craters that are formed on earth exhibit diameters larger than 2 – 4km due to the relative instability of the transient crater (PSI website). Simple craters exhibit smaller diameters due to the relatively stable transient craters. The central uplift architecture of complex craters may differ slightly. For example, the Chicxulub crater has a modified central uplift that forms a peak ring (Ivanov, 2005; Morgan et al., 2000).

Only the northern half of the 400km long, 200km wide Neoarchaean Witwatersrand basin is exposed at surface (Figure 1.1). From the centre of the Vredefort dome southwards, the basin is covered by thin Palaeozoic to early Mesozoic marginal sequences of the Karoo Supergroup. Geological interpretations of the Witwatersrand basin beneath this cover have been limited to borehole and geophysical data, with rare exposures as inliers where the Karoo cover has been eroded. Additionally, geological mapping of the Vredefort dome has been limited. The northwest half of the dome is exposed at surface, while the unexposed half to the southeast is poorly constrained. However, drilling and geophysical surveys (magnetics, gravity, and 2D seismics) can be used to constrain the geometry of the dome at depth.

Several integrated geological and geophysical 2D models have been constructed to create models of the first-order structural architecture of the Vredefort dome and the Witwatersrand basin. Henkel and Reimold (1998) produced magnetic and gravity models through the dome and across the Witwatersrand basin, with added constraints from associated 2D reflection seismic data. They provided an updated magnetic section model of the central uplift region. From their two sections they interpreted tilting of the post-impact crust to the northwest, and northwest-directed thrust shortening and uplift of the southeast portion of the dome. This concurred with previous interpretations by Friese et al. (1995) who produced 2D reflection seismic and gravity models through the dome and across the Witwatersrand basin.

Beach and Smith (2007) and Manzi et al. (2013) created first-order scale models of the structural architecture using 3D reflection seismic data and emphasised the role of fold-thrust tectonics during development of the Witwatersrand basin, and later extension tectonics and the formation of listric faults during formation of the Ventersdorp basin. However, integration of geological data in 3D using the numerous 2D reflection seismic lines in the vicinity of the dome and southeast Witwatersrand basin has not been attempted before and could provide a more accurate representation and understanding of the architecture of the dome and its formation.

Geological data can exist in various scales and forms, and can show various aspects of the same terrane. As Jones et al. (2009) point out, the preservation of data at all scales within one computer based 3D spatial interface is the primary advantage of the multi-scaled approach of 3D geological modelling. All of these aspects must come together to form the geological picture/story of the terrane. Geophysical data (e.g. magnetics, gravity, and seismics) can be used in conjunction with both geochemical data (e.g. soil sampling, rock chip sampling, and geochronology) and traditional geological data (e.g. mapping, drilling, cross sections, stratigraphy, and petrography). In a 3D geomodelling environment these datasets can be integrated in various ways.

The development of geological modelling software has taken advantage of the surge in computing advancements over the past several decades. The usefulness of integrating data in 3D space to solve geological problems was highlighted by Viljoen (1994). For example, he emphasised the significance of modelling economic reefs in the Witwatersrand basin, but was limited to simplified 3D isometric constructions of the reefs. Geomodelling as a visualisation and analysis tool is a powerful method for many types of geological work. As Zanchi et al. (2009) described, "Its main advantage is to overcome the limitations of conventional 2D representations, which suffer from lack of one dimension, and distort spatial relationships".

The variety of uses for geological modelling are wide; however the sources of these datasets are quite similar, e.g. geological maps, cross sections, borehole data, outcrop data, geochemical data, and geophysical data. There is a general methodology that is adopted when creating geological models. Most importantly, the initial datasets must be cleaned, sorted, validated and optimised to create consistent datasets (e.g. georeferencing/projecting into one common coordinate system) (Kaufmann and Martin, 2009). Database frameworks are important in this manner and need to be optimised for geological datasets (Apel, 2006).

One of the key components of giant impacts is the preserved collapsed central uplift region at the centre of the complex crater. It is suggested that the impact force of large meteorites is sufficient to form a complex crater shape, as opposed to simple bowl-shaped craters formed by small impactors (Reimold and Koeberl, 2014). This theory can be tested by the creation of a geological model of the dome that highlights its 3D architecture and the proposed central uplift. The model can also test whether the data support process-simulation computer modelling results (numerical modelling) of the Vredefort impact such as those of Ivanov (2005).

The supracrustal sequences above the basement (Witwatersrand Supergroup, Ventersdorp Supergroup and Transvaal Supergroup) are exposed on the northern and western flanks of the dome, but their extents to the south and east are concealed and less constrained due to the Karoo Supergroup, which unconformably overlies the supracrustals. Using 2D reflection seismic and drilling datasets, it will be possible to test the extension of these rocks into the unexposed portion of the dome. These results could have important implications for the tectonic history of the Witwatersrand basin.

Thus the basin provides an excellent natural laboratory to study both Neoarchaean tectonics and giant impact events using advanced computer modelling software. The advantage of an integrated 3D model of the dome is that it can be queried and easily updated as new data becomes available. The model can also highlight relationships between structural information collected from outcrops and the underlying structural regimes. Importantly, the development of a well-constrained 3D geological model provides a foundation for further, more advanced work, such as 3D tectonic restorations.

#### **1.2. Location and Physiography**

The study area encompasses the Vredefort dome and is illustrated in Figure 1.1. The dome (centred at 27°00'S, 27°30'E) is located in the northern part of the Free State Province in South Africa. It represents the collapsed central uplift portion (now exhumed to surface level) of the complex crater structure formed by the Vredefort impact. The current surface exposure produces distinctive alternating ridges and valleys that form a semi-circular series of low hills and ridges known as the Vredefort mountain land. These highlight the extents of the erosion-resistant strata within the Ventersdorp Supergroup, Witwatersrand Supergroup, and Dominion Group, which surround a granitic gneiss core at the centre of the uplift. The Vaal River dissects the northern section of the mountain land, flowing from east to west, and intersects the granitic gneiss core near the town of Parys.

#### **1.3. Aims and Objectives**

The aim of this study is to investigate and evaluate the 3D structural architecture around the Vredefort dome in the Witwatersrand basin, in particular the unexposed southern portion, to establish strato-tectonic relationships, first order deformation structures, basement architecture, and to examine the nature of giant terrestrial impacts.

The objectives therefore include:-

 Data integration to establish a database for the dome, including datasets for drilling, geological and structural mapping, geophysics, and topographic elevation models.

- Evaluation of the quality of the legacy 2D reflection seismic data and providing interpretations of the 2D seismic lines, with a focus on the major unconformities.
- Construction of a 3D geological model of the Vredefort dome and immediate surroundings using the integrated database and seismic interpretations.
- Evaluation of the architecture of the central uplift in terms of the complex crater formation model, including investigating the first order deformation structures, and testing the support given by simulation modelling.
- Establishment of a strato-tectonic history through integration of surface mapping, drilling, seismic data interpretations and geological modelling.
- Examination of the basement contact architecture, including the depth variation around the dome and first order cross-cutting structures, and where possible resolving the internal architecture.
- Establishment of the extent of the unexposed Witwatersrand Supergroup, Ventersdorp Supergroup and Transvaal Supergroup to the south, southeast and east of the dome.
- Identification of post-impact deformation features, to test published hypotheses of postimpact deformation events.

#### **1.4. Thesis organisation**

This thesis is made up of eight chapters, followed by the list of references and the appendix. Subsequent to this introduction chapter, the regional geology of the study area will be presented in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 outlines the various methods and processes used to integrate the datasets and establish a database for the study area. Chapter 4 presents descriptions and justifications for major stratigraphic contacts encountered in the 2D reflection seismic data by way of integration with geological mapping and borehole data.

The study area is divided into three domains as there are three broad clusters of 2D reflection seismic lines. Domains 1, 2 and 3 are located west, east, and south of the dome, respectively. The 2D seismic sections are described in terms of seven major contacts that are imaged throughout the study area. These seven interfaces are used to form the eight volumes of the 3D geological model. The interfaces are described in Chapter 5 with reference to the twenty eight reflection seismic sections in the three domains, followed by a geological summary.

The seismic section interpretations provide depth information on the continuity of the major contacts. These are important in constraining the 3D geological model (in addition to the borehole information). Chapter 6 presents the 3D geological model and describes the eight volumes that have been delineated from the integration of the seismic sections, surface mapping, and borehole data. Each volume represents a particular Unit, Formation, Group or Supergroup within the stratigraphy.

Chapter 7 discusses the various aspects of the 3D geological model and seismic data interpretation results, in terms of the Vredefort impact and seven important structural features identified in the study area. These aspects include the architecture of the central uplift and the basement contact, as well as the extent of the unexposed Witwatersrand, Ventersdorp, and Transvaal supergroups to the south, southeast and east of the dome. The strato-tectonic observations are discussed in order to establish a geological history of the study area with implications for the broader Witwatersrand basin. The structural features and various seismic sections are then discussed in comparison to published work. The conclusions are presented in Chapter 8.

#### **1.5 Acronyms and Conventions**

The various acronyms and conventions used in this thesis are listed below:

- $\bullet$  ID-TIMS = Isotope Dilution Thermal Ionisation Mass Spectrometry
- CA-ID-TIMS = Chemical Abrasion Isotope Dilution Thermal Ionisation Mass Spectrometry
- SHRIMP = Sensitive High Resolution Ion Microprobe
- SRTM = Shuttle Radar Topography Mission
- VCF = Venterspost Contact Formation
- SACS = South African Council for Stratigraphy
- $\bullet$  CGS = Council for Geoscience
- $\bullet$  P-wave = Primary Wave
- $V_p = P$ -wave Velocity
- Bulk Density will be referred to as Density
- $\rho =$  Bulk Density
- $R = Reflection Coefficient$
- $\bullet$  VSP = Vertical Seismic Profiling

Note, when the words shale/mudstone are applied to pre-Karoo rocks they are used as generic terms to actually refer to low grade metamorphic rocks ranging from slate and phyllite.



*Figure 1.1 Regional geology map with the study area boundary, including the interpreted extent of the Witwatersrand basin illustrated after Pretorius (1986), and the outline of the Bethlehem sub-basin gravity anomaly.*

# **Chapter 2 Regional Geology**

The Neoa chaean Witwatersrand basin is situated in South Africa and unconformably overlies the Mesoarchean: Kaapvaal craton. Several stratigraphic units are described below that correspond with the regional geology map in Figure 1.1. The units form the modelled volumes following interpretation of the 2D reflection seismic sections. Figure 2.1 illustrates these units in relation to the expected reflective boundaries of the 2D seismic sections. The cratonic basement is made up of discrete terranes dated at ca. 3.6-3.2 Ga (U-Pb ID-TIMS and SHRIMP, and Pb-Pb zircon evaporation, Poujol et al., 2003). The basement is composed of tonalite–trondhjemite–granodiorite (TTG) suites and greenstone belts that outcrop in a number of places across the craton (Poujol et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 2006).

The Witwatersrand basin is situated near the geographic centre of the Kaapvaal craton. Outcrop of the basin is limited to its northern margin (i.e. adjacent to Johannesburg, Klerksdorp, and Evander) and in the collar rocks of the Vredefort dome. The package overlying the basement (and Dominion Group) is made up of a number of stratigraphic units that form part of three major supergroups, spanning ca. 2.98-2.02 Ga, namely, the Witwatersrand Supergroup, Ventersdorp Supergroup, and Transvaal Supergroup (Appendix, Figure A). The ca. 300-180 Ma Karoo Supergroup unconformably overlies the Transvaal Supergroup (Dankert and Hein, 2010).

#### **2.1. Dominion Group**

The TTG and greenstone basement are unconformably overlain by tholeiitic andesites, quartzite and conglomerate units of the Dominion Group (Dankert and Hein, 2010). A geochronological age of  $3074 \pm 6$  Ma (using single zircon U-PB SHRIMP, Armstrong et al., 1991) constrains the Syferfontein Formation within the Dominion Group. Generally, the metamorphic grade of the package is greenschist facies, but in the Vredefort area amphibolite facies has been recognised; Jackson (1994) estimated temperature and pressure conditions for peak metamorphism in the dome of between 550°C and 800°C at  $2 - 4$  kb.

Crow and Condie (1987) interpreted the tectonic setting for the Dominion Group as an incipient foreland basin adjacent to a continental margin arc system. However, Clendenin et al. (1988) interpreted that the basin development took place during continental rifting and lithospheric thinning. The proposition by Frimmel (2014) is a combination of the two, where the volcanic succession was laid down in a continental rift within a possible overall arc setting.

#### **2.2. Witwatersrand Supergroup**

A sequence of offshore marine and fluvio-deltaic shale-arenite units were deposited roughly ninety million years after the deposition of the Dominion Group. This 5150m thick package makes up the West Rand Group, the oldest package in the Witwatersrand Supergroup (Dankert and Hein, 2010). It has been divided into three subgroups, namely the Hospital Hill Subgroup, Government Subgroup, and Jeppestown Subgroup (SACS, 1980).

The Hospital Hill Subgroup has a conglomerate unit at its base (i.e., the basal unit of the Witwatersrand Supergroup). The four formations making up the rest of this subgroup consist of numerous transgression/progradation cycles of fining/coarsening upward sequences that define each formation (Johnson et al., 2006).

The top contact of the Hospital Hill Subgroup with the overlying Government Subgroup is a disconformity and marked by a mineralised, polymictic, pyritic conglomerate (Bonanza Reef or Bird Reef). The Government Subgroup is characterised by extreme instability in terms of rapid changes in the depositional environment with major disconformities that separate the six formations within the Subgroup (Appendix, Figure A). Compared to the underlying Hospital Hill Subgroup, these sequences were deposited over a much longer time period. A calculated age of  $2931 \pm 8$  Ma (youngest age for U-Pb detrital zircon; Kositcin and Krapež, 2004) of the Rietkuil Formation in the lower Jeppestown Subgroup gives a hiatus of sixty million years from the  $2991 \pm 15$  Ma age of the Promise Formation, which forms the base formation in the Government Subgroup.

The Jeppestown Subgroup overlies the Government Subgroup. It reflects a stable period of deposition with several transgressive/progradation sequences that define five of its six formations, with truncated progradational fluvial braid-plain quartzites in the topmost Maraisburg Formation (Johnson et al., 2006). The Crown Formation forms the sixth formation and is a major marking horizon. It consists of a series of basaltic andesites (2914  $\pm$  8 Ma, using single zircon U-Pb SHRIMP; Armstrong et al., 1991) up to 250m thick. The truncation at the top of the Maraisburg Formation may correspond to the proposed Asazi Event at ca. 2.9 Ga of Manzi et al. (2013). This Event terminates deposition in the West Rand basin by uplift, tilting and erosion.

A basal conglomerate reef overlies the West Rand Group and forms the base of the Blyvooruitzicht Formation (2902  $\pm$  13 Ma; youngest U-Pb detrital zircon; Kositcin and Krapež, 2004) at the base of the Central Rand Group. The Central Rand Group spans the period 2902 ± 13 Ma to 2849  $\pm$  18 Ma (Kositcin and Krapež, 2004), or almost fifty million years. It is divided into the Johannesburg and Turffontein subgroups, and is dominated by alluvial braid-plain, lesser alluvial fan conditions, and minor marine influence. Sedimentation took place syn-tectonically with respect to folding, faulting, and uplift on the basin margins (Frimmel, 2014).

The Booysens Formation (2894  $\pm$  7 Ma, youngest U-Pb detrital zircon; Kositcin and Krapež, 2004) is defined by a major basin-wide transgression that resulted in the deposition of a thick sequence of shale. A single basaltic unit (Bird Member of the Krugersdorp Formation) is located in the eastern half of the basin. Alluvial fan progradation into the basin resulted in deposition of thick (up to 400m) conglomerate units (Johnson et al., 2006). This package of coarse conglomerates forms the uppermost Mondeor Formation, which is the youngest formation of the Witwatersrand Supergroup, providing a minimum age to the entire package of  $2849 \pm 18$  Ma (youngest U-Pb detrital zircon, Kositcin and Krapež, 2004).

#### **2.3. Ventersdorp Supergroup**

A hiatus of about 120 million years occurs between the Witwatersrand Supergroup and the overlying Venterspost Formation (2729  $\pm$  19 Ma for U-Pb SHRIMP ages of igneous detrital xenotime/zircon aggregate; Kositcin et al., 2003). An auriferous immature conglomerate known as the Ventersdorp Contact Reef was formed above the unconformity (Johnson et al., 2006). The conglomerate horizon is poorly developed where the West Rand Group is the source of the sediment.

The Venterspost Formation forms the base of the Ventersdorp Supergroup (ca. 2.72-2.63 Ga). The Ventersdorp Supergroup is 9725m thick and represents an extensional rift-type sequence (Dankert and Hein, 2010). The Supergroup is divided into the Klipriviersberg and Platberg groups, and two separate overlying formations (the Allanridge and Bothaville formations) that some authors include in a third group known as the Pniel Sequence; however this group is not recognised by SACS (Johnson et al., 2006).

A shift from compressional to extensional tectonics is indicated by the development of northnortheast trending faults reported in all goldfields (Jolley et al., 2007). Extensional tectonics is characterised by the Hlukana-Platberg Event (ca. 2.7-2.64 Ga) of Manzi et al. (2013) and is possibly coeval with mantle plume heating of the lithosphere (Eriksson et al., 2002) and formation of first-order scale structures such as the West Rand and Bank faults. The extensional event progressed over time to form grabens, initiating deposition of the Platberg Group, and formation of listric faults in the underlying Klipriviersberg Group.

The Klipriviersberg Group is characterised by volcano-magmatic activity (Dankert and Hein, 2010) producing numerous tholeiitic flood basalt-dacite sequences and comagmatic dykes and sills. The volcanic activity formed a package up to 1693m thick; however the Group is separated into five formations (Alberton Formation, Orkney Formation, Jeannette Formation, Loraine Formation, and Edenville Formation). Each Formation contains multiple volcanic sequences that are differentiated based on volcanic textures and geochemistry (Johnson et al., 2006).

An unconformity separates the Klipriviersberg Group and the overlying sedimentary members of the Kameeldoorns Formation, which forms the base of the 6862m (maximum) thick Platberg Group (Dankert and Hein, 2010). The Kameeldoorns Formation is not dated so the hiatus between the two groups is not constrained. The overlying Goedgenoeg Formation has a conformable gradational contact, where interfingering volcanic units gradually end the sedimentary deposition of the Kameeldoorns Formation. Volcanism continued with the emplacement of the Makwassie Formation (2709  $\pm$  4 Ma, from single zircon U-Pb SHRIMP; Armstrong et al., 1991) and ended within the Rietgat Formation where volcanism diminished and volcanic rocks were intercalated with sedimentary rocks (Johnson et al., 2006).

The 427m thick package of quartzite and conglomerate units of the Bothaville Formation, and the 743m thick package of volcanic units of the Allanridge Formation (Dankert and Hein, 2010) overly the Platberg Group above a pronounced unconformity. These two formations exhibit unconformable contacts with the Platberg Group and each other, therefore SACS has not incorporated them into a formal Group (Johnson et al., 2006).

#### **2.4. Transvaal Supergroup**

The Ventersdorp Supergroup was unconformably overlain by the early basin depositional sequences of the Transvaal Supergroup that formed the 200m thick auriferous Black Reef Formation (Dankert and Hein, 2010). This formation is dominated by mature quartz arenites, with lesser conglomerates and subordinate mudstones. The high acoustic impedance contrast between the higher P-wave velocity  $(V_p)$ , higher bulk density (ρ) dolomite of the overlying Chuniespoort Group and the lower Vp, lower ρ extrusive rocks of the Ventersdorp Supergroup, results in a strong seismic reflector that corresponds to the Black Reef Formation (Manzi et al., 2013).

The relative age of the Black Reef Formation has been stratigraphically linked to sequences recorded elsewhere in the Transvaal Supergroup, Griqualand West, and Kanye (Botswana) basins (Johnson et al., 2006). According to Sumner and Beukes (2006) the upper facies of the Black Reef Formation correlates to the first (oldest) sequence in the Campbellrand-Malmani carbonate platform. The sequence unconformably overlies the Schmidtsdrif Subgroup (of the Ghaap Group in the Griqualand West basin) that is constrained by the basal Vryburg Formation (dated at  $2642 \pm 3$  Ma by single zircon U-Pb SHRIMP; Martin et al., 1998). The age of the Vryburg Formation limits the maximum deposition age of the Black Reef Formation.

Proto-basins are recorded around the Transvaal Supergroup basin that underlie the Black Reef Formation and are grouped as the Wolkberg-equivalent units. The Buffelsfontein Group volcanics are included in this set by Frimmel (2014) and are dated to  $2664 \pm 6$  Ma, therefore constraining the age for the proto-basin development. However these basins are confined to the northern parts of the Transvaal Supergroup basin; they may not be preserved in the study area. In this thesis the sequence stratigraphy of Sumner and Beukes (2006) is followed, associating the Black Reef Formation with the age of the Vryburg Formation (i.e. younger than ca. 2642 Ma).

The Chuniespoort Group overlies the Black Reef Formation and is made up of carbonate, iron formations, lacustrine and minor volcanic units, with a maximum thickness of approximately 1900m (Dankert and Hein, 2010). The carbonate platform sequences form the base of the Group and are subdivided into five formations, the oldest of which (Oaktree Formation) dates between  $2550 \pm 3$  Ma (single zircon Pb-evaporation; Walveren and Martini, 1995) and  $2558 \pm 7$  Ma (single zircon U-Pb) SHRIMP; Martin et al., 1998). The formations are grouped together as the Malmani Subgroup and are differentiated by chert content, stromatolite morphology, intercalated shale, and erosion surfaces (Johnson et al., 2006). Overlying these carbonate formations are the iron formations of the Penge Formation (dated at  $2480 \pm 6$  Ma; Nelson et al., 1999; unpublished ages with no dating technique stated) and the siliciclastic Duitschland Formation, inferring that the deposition of carbonates lasted roughly 120 million years.

A hiatus of approximately 115 million years separates the Chuniespoort Group and the overlying 6000 – 7000m thick Pretoria Group. According to Manzi et al. (2013), the unconformity between the Chuniespoort and Pretoria groups produces a strong reflection seismic contrast between the overlying, lower  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  volcanic rocks of the Pretoria Group and the underlying, higher  $V_p$  and  $\rho$ dolomites of the Chuniespoort Group. The Pretoria Group is divided into sixteen formations that exhibit a series of sedimentary and volcanic sequences; these vary in thickness across the Transvaal basin. The sedimentary units include conglomerates, sandstones/quartz arenites, ironstones, shales, carbonates, turbidites, and diamictites (periglacial detritus). Volcanic sequences include the basaltic-andesites of the Hekpoort Formation (2222  $\pm$  13 Ma, Pb-Pb whole rock; Cornell et al., 1996, and 2224  $\pm$  21 Ma, Rb-Sr whole rock; Burger and Coertze, 1973-1974) and the tholeiitic basalt of the Machadodorp Member (undated) in the Silverton Formation (Johnson et al., 2006). Unfortunately the ages of the formations overlying the Hekpoort Formation have not been established, but these were deposited prior to the intrusion of the Bushveld Complex (dated at  $2055.91 \pm 0.26$  Ma, using single zircon U-Pb CA-ID-TIMS; Zeh et al., 2015). This gives a relative estimate for deposition of 350 – 400 million years (Johnson et al., 2006).

#### **2.5. Karoo Supergroup**

A major unconformity exists between the Pretoria Group and the overlying subhorizontal Karoo Supergroup (preserved south of the town of Parys in the Vredefort dome) where the contact represents a hiatus of over 1.7 billion years. The base of the Karoo Supergroup is marked by the ca. 300 Ma glacial deposits of the Dwyka Group (Catuneanu at al., 2005). The overlying groups and formations represent a sedimentary basin evolution in a retroarc foreland system (Pangea construction). At ca. 187 Ma, the breakup phase of the Pangea Supercontinent initiated extrusion of continental flood basalts. These volcanic units are preserved in central South Africa as the Drakensberg Group, and are the topmost group in the Karoo Supergroup (Catuneanu at al., 2005).

#### **2.6. Vredefort Dome**

The Vredefort dome is located about 130km southwest of Johannesburg (centred at 27°00'S,  $27^{\circ}30'E$ ). It represents the collapsed central uplift core (45 – 50km wide) of a giant impact structure. The final size of the crater is controversial with the diameter estimated between 172km (Ivanov, 2005) and 280km (Henkel and Reimold, 1998). The impact has been dated to  $2023 \pm 4$  Ma (SHRIMP singlezircon U-Pb age for authigenic, unshocked zircon grains in pseudotachylite breccias and impact melt granophyre; Kamo et al., 1996); however the current surface exposure is estimated at 5 – 8km below the original impact surface level (Reimold and Koeberl, 2014). Thus the surface expression of the crater (including impact melt/breccia infill) has been eroded, and what is currently revealed is the deformed crust that was preserved below the crater.

One of the distinct features of the Vredefort crater is the rim syncline that surrounds the northern and western exposed collar rocks. This structure was first mapped by Simpson (1978), the results of which were incorporated into the 1:250,000 geology maps used in this study. However, in that study both the rim syncline and the smaller scale anticlines and synclines preserved in the Pretoria Group were suggested to have been formed during one event that was unrelated to a meteorite impact.

With the lack of direct evidence defining the crater size and shape, several impact-related features have been recognised that provide evidence for the event. These include pseudotachylite breccias (PTB), impact melt granophyre dykes, stishovite and coesite mineral occurrences, shatter cones and shock deformed zircon, monazite and quartz, the latter extensively decorated by planar deformation features (decorated PDF's) (Reimold and Koeberl, 2014). As Dankert and Hein (2010) and Reimold and Koeberl (2014) point out there are overturned supracrustal rocks in the northeast, north and west, while exposures in the south and southeast are not overturned (as determined by drill cores).

The numerical modelling of the Vredefort impact by Ivanov (2005) has characterised the geometry of the complex crater and the collapsed central uplift. The supracrustal rim around the central uplift core was overturned during crater formation as the crust rebounded from the centre outwards following centripetal rock movement (Jahn and Riller, 2015). The steep overturned rim subsequently collapsed, forming a concentric subhorizontal recumbent fold around the core. The core itself also collapsed after being exhumed from depths of about 25km. As the rebounding crust isostatically settled, the centre of the core subsided forming a root-like geometry into the middle crust.

There are a number of intrusions found in the Vredefort dome area. These consist of numerous meta-dolerite sills (metamorphic overprint), intrusive alkali granite and associated discrete mafic to ultramafic complexes, and monzodiorite. The majority of the sills are interpreted to have been emplaced during the Ventersdorp Supergroup magmatic phase, while the rest (and some of the mafic-ultramafic complexes) are attributed to the emplacement of the Bushveld Complex (indicating possible further extensions of this giant layered intrusion). Widespread in the dome is a post-impact monzodiorite intrusion known as the Anna's Rust Sheet. Rb-Sr dating gives this intrusion an age of ca. 1050 Ma, which corresponds with the Namaqua-Natal orogeny of western South Africa (Reimold and Koeberl, 2014).

#### **2.7. Regional Stratotectonics**

Several tectonic regimes have affected the Kaapvaal craton throughout the Neoarchaean and Palaeoproterozoic. Frimmel (2014) in his study of the geology and tectonics of the Kaapvaal suggested that continental rifting took place in an overall arc setting synchronous to deposition of the Dominion Group volcanics and minor sediments following basement complex stabilisation. Nearly 100 million years after the first rifting phase, passive margin basin formation of the West Rand Group was initiated concomitant to deposition of sandstones and shales, through alternating regression and transgression cycles (Johnson et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010).

This passive margin phase lasted approximately eighty million years when sedimentation was terminated during the Asazi Event, initiating a new tectonic regime. The West Rand Group underwent uplift and tilting syn- to post-peneplation creating a regional-scale angular unconformity with the overlying Central Rand Group; as well as producing local faults and block tilting (Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013).

Extensional tectonics gave way to fold-thrust belt formation, which Frimmel (2014) interpreted as formation of a retroarc. Towards the end of the Central Rand Group, progressive shrinking of the basin is evident from the large conglomerate and boulder beds that formed by the progressive uplift and encroachment of the hinterland (Johnson et al., 2006). Dankert and Hein (2010) called this period the Umzawami Event, and suggested it was synchronous to, and/or after the deposition of the Central Rand Group and possibly also the overlying Venterspost Contact Formation. They identified basin-wide development of folding of the Central Rand Group sediments. Northwest to north-northwest trending folds were identified in the Welkom area, West Wits Line, and in the West-Central-South- and East-Rand goldfields. North to northeast trending folds were also identified in the West Wits Line, and both the West and Central Rand goldfields.

Following cessation of retroarc development, the Kaapvaal craton underwent peneplation and degradation of basin margin topographies to form the auriferous conglomerate horizons of the Venterspost Formation. This transition phase culminated in a major continental rift regime, forming a system of major faults, such as the West Rand and Bank faults. Crustal extension produced the nearly craton-wide volcanism of the Klipriviersberg Group. Extensional collapse continued with major graben formations, listric faulting of existing structures, and associated sedimentation of the Platberg Group. This tectonic event has been named the Hlukana-Platberg Event by Manzi et al. (2013). Second- and third-order scale normal faults crosscut fold-thrust belt structures and formed drag synclines and rollover anticlines in the hanging walls of initial rift structures (Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al.,

2013). A period of erosion and excision followed after the final deposition of the Bothaville Formation and Allanridge Formation (Frimmel, 2014).

Several other structural indicators are grouped by Dankert and Hein (2010) as the Ukubambana fold-thrust belt event. These indicators include, folds, faults and auriferous quartz veins crosscutting the Timeball Hill Formation, and discrete hydrothermal activity at ca. 2210 Ma. The Ukubambana Event is interpreted to extend to ca. 2.0 Ga as both the Bushveld Complex (ca. 2055 Ma) and the Vredefort Impact (ca. 2023 Ma) crosscut all pre-existing structural indicators. The same structural and petrofabric indicators were ascribed to the Transvaalide orogeny, thrust-fold belt by Alexandre et al. (2006). They were able to resolve two distinct events within the Transvaalide belt, having obtained two sets of  $^{40}Ar/^{39}Ar$  ages of ca. 2150 and 2042.1  $\pm$ 2.9 Ma. These ages were for syn-kinematic mica taken from phyllitic rocks of the Timeball Hill Formation west of Pretoria. The phyllites are associated with lowgrade metamorphism and small to medium-scale folds, cleavages, monoclines and thrusts.

The 1.7 billion year hiatus between the Pretoria Group and overlying Karoo Supergroup highlights a major unconformity and absence of geology. Other intrusions include the Pilanesberg Complex dyke swarm at ca. 1.3 – 1.1 Ga (Dankert and Hein, 2010) and the Anna's Rust Sheet monzodiorite at ca. 1.05 Ga (Johnson et al., 2006; Reimold and Koeberl, 2014). The Karoo-aged dykes are widespread across the basin and are feeders of the continental flood basalts that covered much of southern Africa at ca. 180 Ma. This extensional regime corresponds with the major rifting event associated with the breakup of the Pangea Supercontinent, ca. 180 Ma (Catuneanu at al., 2005).



\* Age of Vryburg Formation is used as an oldest depositional estimate because it constrains the Schmidtsdrif Subgroup that is overlain by the Black Reef Formation

*Figure 2.1 Summary of main stratigraphic units interpreted in the 2D reflection seismic sections, including the major reflector boundaries imaged in the sections (with associated average V<sup>p</sup> and ρ values for the dominant rock types of each unit). The Hekpoort and Timeball Hill formations form a minor reflective boundary between them but is not pronounced enough to confidently form separate units. The Platberg and Klipriviersberg groups were combined as a single unit in the interpretations. For more detailed stratigraphy/geochronology and V<sup>p</sup> and ρ values see Table A and Table C respectively in the Appendix.*

## **Chapter 3 Methodology**

The following sections outline the methods used to collect, analyse, and combine the available datasets, and to construct the 3D geological model of the study area. The framework is illustrated in Figure 3.1 and is organised into four phases introduced below. The general framework was an adaptation of the framework presented by Kaufmann and Martin (2009), because it provided a starting point to the project. In summary, the borehole and surface mapping data were imported into Leapfrog Geo® and together with imported 2D seismic sections, were used to produce interpretations of the 2D reflection seismic sections. The seismic attributes were viewed in Kingdom Suite® to assist in better refining the interpretations. These interpretations were digitised and together with support wireframes a 3D geological model was constructed.

#### **3.1. Phase 1**

#### *3.1.1. Surface information: topographic data, geological maps, and geophysical images*

Using Global Mapper™, a 90m SRTM dataset was imported into LeapFrog Geo® to form the 3D topography surface of the study area. A variety of geological (i.e. 1:250,000 regional scale, and 1:50,000 scale for the Vredefort dome area) and geophysical (i.e. gravity and magnetics) maps were available for the geological modelling in LeapFrog Geo®. Maps that were not projected in the coordinate system WGS84 – UTM35S were re-projected prior to importing into LeapFrog Geo® because the software lacks this facility and can only georeference images based on a simple three-point user input tool. Therefore the conditioning and coordinate conversion of the maps were done using ArcGIS<sup>®</sup> and Global Mapper<sup>™</sup> before importing into LeapFrog Geo<sup>®</sup> for further modelling (see Table A3 in the Appendix).

The structural data available for the geological model was extracted from various geology maps. A structural database does not exist at the Council for Geoscience in Pretoria. However, a total of 1002 available foliation measurements were digitised in ArcGIS®. Table A3 in the Appendix outlines the digitisation methodology.

Geophysical datasets available for the Witwatersrand basin include airborne magnetics and gravity, and 2D and 3D reflection seismics. The 3D seismic volumes are located beyond the boundaries of the study area, so have not been incorporated. The airborne gravity and magnetics were acquired by the Council for Geoscience (CGS) and flown on a grid of 250m and 500m. These datasets were not manipulated or quantitatively analysed by the author. The processed images were only used as guides during the 2D reflection seismic interpretations. The gravity data was used as a regional scale guide during the interpretations.

The magnetic data exhibit regional scale signatures of the basin where major near-surface magnetic horizons such as the magnetic shales in the West Rand Group can be identified. The magnetic formations provide a significant marker in the Witwatersrand basin on its margins as well as in the uplifted collar of the Vredefort dome. Strong magnetic signatures are represented and highlight either magnetic dykes/sills, or discrete magnetic formations (e.g. thin magnetic formations in the Chuniespoort Group dolomites). The magnetic data provided by the Council for Geoscience include, 1) total magnetic signature, 2) reduced to pole, and 3) analytical signal. These are useful datasets in terms of enhancing structural interpretations.

#### *3.1.2. Cross-sectional information: 2D reflection seismic data*

In the 1980s, the Gold Division of the Anglo American Corporation (AAC) (now known as AngloGold Ashanti) acquired 2D reflection seismic data (approximately 16000km in total) on the Kaapvaal Craton for gold/platinum exploration and deep crustal mapping (Pretorius et al., 2003). This extensive seismic program was followed by more than ten 3D reflection seismic surveys in 1990s to 2000s. These data were mainly acquired for gold and platinum mine planning and design. The aims of the surveys around the Vredefort dome were to delineate the overall extent of the gold-bearing horizons, to study the seismic response of the deformed rocks, to search for indications of new gold deposits in the area, and to extract structural information at depth. As mentioned earlier, this study only focuses on twenty eight of these 2D reflection seismic lines that fall within the vicinity of the Vredefort dome (Figure 3.2).

The 2D reflection surveys were conducted and processed through the standard acquisition and processing parameters by the AAC processing team (see Pretorius et al., 2003). The parameters for each 2D reflection seismic acquisition are summarised in Table E0 in the Appendix. The processing parameters are summarized in Table 4.1. In summary, the acquisition for all twenty eight surveys, conducted by a CGG crew (Compagnie Générale de Géophysique), took place between 1985 and 1989. Each survey was designed to overlap with the survey line grids for comparison purposes. The surveys were recorded with a vibroseis source using a fleet of two vibrators (Mertz M18). Vibrators were spaced 50m apart and lines used a 10Hz geophone spaced every 7.5m (4.16m in some lines). Total line length for the twenty eight reflection seismic surveys is ~823950m, with an average line length of  $\sim$ 29420m.

A recording time of six seconds was considered adequate to allow the imaging down to depths of ~4.5km, though the actual profile extends down to ~20km. For a few lines (e.g. FV-154 and OB-41) a recording time of sixteen seconds was used to image down to the crust-mantle boundary ( $>30$ km depth). The recordings were made using linear sweeps: 24s or 18s,  $10 - 70$  (mostly 68.5) Hz. Low frequencies are known to be less affected by attenuation and thus are good at mapping deeper horizons and identifying subtle and gradual acoustic impedance variations. High frequencies of up to 70Hz, on the other hand, were chosen to improve the imaging resolution at shallow depths and resolve

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statics-related problems. The chosen offset distributions were deemed appropriate to image the range of target depths in the study area. The main design and acquisition challenges included slimes dam, electrical substation, dolomite outcrop, wetland areas, thunderstorm, lightning activity, and power line (50Hz) noise. These surface conditions provided crooked-line geometries for most survey lines that compromised optimal survey geometry for better interpretation and modelling. Details about the 2D seismic data acquisition and processing, and initial interpretation of a few lines adjacent to this study area can be found in Pretorius et al. (2003).

Field processing, which provides brute stacks with elevation corrections, was done to (1) evaluate the quality of the data, (2) estimate the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and (3) detect and remove bad and noisy traces. The key processing steps prior to stacking of the data included geometry update, trace editing, gain recovery, minimum phase conversion of the data, linear noise removal, first-break picking, refraction and residual static corrections, velocity analysis, and muting. Subsequent processing steps on the stacked data included deconvolution, amplitude equalization, stacking, and Kirchhoff or Finite difference time migration. Data from previous borehole sonic logs in the Witwatersrand Basin goldfields suggest large velocity variations from the quartzite units (~5200 m/s) of the Witwatersrand Supergroup to the dolomite units (~6800 m/s) of the Transvaal Supergroup (Pretorius et al., 2003; Manzi et al., 2012b). As mentioned, there were no geophysical wireline logs for the surveys in the study area; so the velocity used for migration was obtained from the literature of the historical VSP, 2D and 3D seismic surveys in the area (see Pretorius et al., 1994, 2000; Manzi et al., 2012a, b). Several  $V_p$  values from the literature are listed in Table C in the Appendix. To obtain optimum  $V_p$  values for depthconversion, a series of constant velocities were undertaken through the careful inspection of the depthconverted stacked sections. Finally, time-to-depth conversion was carried out using the constant velocity of 6000 m/s, providing a relatively good correlation between major seismic markers and borehole data. Furthermore, the depth locations obtained from these seismic sections were in agreement with those reported in the literature (Pretorius et al., 1994; Friese et al., 1995; Tinker et al., 2002; Manzi et al., 2012b).

#### *3.1.3. Borehole information*

The database of boreholes for the study area consists of 1947 borehole identifier numbers. Only the parent boreholes (roughly 755 borehole ID's) were of interest as they reported lithology data throughout the borehole length. The others were deflections from the parent boreholes that generally reported only gold assay data. It was decided to data capture (digitise) all boreholes because only 10% of the borehole logs had been digitised by the Council for Geoscience (CGS).

The boreholes are steep to subvertical, apart from those drilled in the dome collar. Downhole survey measurements were not included in the summary logs. The majority of the logs contained plan views of the borehole trace that were hand-measured by CGS personnel to calculate the overall borehole dip and azimuth. This brought an error into the geological modelling and is one of the data limitations because the x-y-z positions of the borehole traces cannot be considered accurate. However, due to the large modelled volume (roughly 226000 km<sup>3</sup>) an error on the order of several meters does not affect the larger scale accuracy.

To optimise the data capture process, boreholes in close proximity to the 2D reflection seismic lines were prioritised to constrain the seismic interpretations at depth. The rest were used as infill data for the geological model. Of the 755 parent boreholes, only 46 were priority. These boreholes could be picked manually, but because the majority had multiple deflection ID's it was necessary to use the tools available in ArcGIS® to select all the ID's at each collar. This procedure was scalable and was used to include the rest of the Witwatersrand basin borehole database as well (which totalled 19848 boreholes ID's, including 8666 parent borehole ID's). This could help future studies using the 2D seismic sections outside of the study area. Table A5 in the Appendix outlines the process of identifying the priority boreholes.

Following data capture of the priority boreholes in the study area, the rest of the infill boreholes were further rationalised to exclude boreholes that were either too far away from the study area boundary, or were too shallow to provide adequate depth constraint (e.g. <150m deep boreholes provided no better information than the surface mapping indicated). This optimisation reduced the infill borehole parent ID count to 162 from 709. In total 208 boreholes were then captured and used in the seismic interpretation and modelling processes.

The borehole logs were individually photographed in the CGS archive room. Some logs were scanned previously. The photographs and scans were relabelled according to their borehole ID. In an Excel spreadsheet of these boreholes, additional columns were added to record deflection number, endof-hole depths, and borehole inclination and azimuth.

The objective of digitising the borehole logs was to create a consistent, clean, well-organised dataset that could be queried easily. An Excel template was created to record various types of information extracted from the logs. This data was then imported into an Access Database that contained a range of other spreadsheets useful to the study area, including the seismic line information (e.g. line names and associated boreholes), CGS collar information (e.g. original borehole names, locations, and drill dates), borehole ID's located in the 1m collar buffer (step 4 in Table A5 in the Appendix), original CGS logs (the 10% mentioned previously), list of photographed boreholes, and priority/infill borehole lists.

The digitised log template structure is listed in Table A6 in the Appendix. Imperial units in the pre-1970 logs were converted to meters. For a number of the logs, the depth measurements of contacts were not stated. A manual calculation was required to best-estimate the depths of the contacts. The procedure is stated in Table A7 in the Appendix.

#### **3.2. Phase 2 – Interpretation of cross-sections**

#### *3.2.1. Illustrating 2D reflection seismic sections and displaying in 3D space*

The 2D seismic sections were used to interpret seven major lithological contacts for the modelling phase. The process of interpretation of each seismic line is described in Table A8 in the Appendix. The interpretations of the 2D reflection seismic lines were made dynamically. Upon completion of the initial interpretation each section was systematically added to the 3D workspace of Leapfrog Geo®. These interpretations were then modified multiple times over as new interpreted sections were added to the 3D workspace. This ensured that continuity of the imaged contacts became increasingly refined. The seismic attributes were viewed concurrently in Kingdom Suite® during this process. Borehole data was more efficiently used in Leapfrog Geo® as compared to Kingdome Suite® because the categorised information captured from the logs could be viewed far easier in the interactive 3D workspace. Surface geology maps and the aeromagnetic and gravity images were draped onto the topography in Leapfrog Geo® to provide additional constraints during the interpretation process. The interpretation of each seismic section from the various data sources was then created in ArcGIS®. Two images were created in ArcGIS®, one showing transparent interpretations overlaying the seismic amplitudes displays, and another showing the un-interpreted seismic amplitudes displays. Both images were imported into LeapFrog Geo®.

#### *3.2.2. Split lines*

A few seismic lines (BH-171, DE-512, and DV-270) were acquired from AngloGold Ashanti as split, separate lines, with each split section labelled A or B (e.g., BH-171A and BH-171B). Fortunately these split sections contained overlapping portions that could be used to tie the sections together in Leapfrog Geo®. This was done using common reference points, e.g., matching reflections common to both overlapping sections. Figure 3.3 illustrates the three split lines tied together in 3D space.

#### **3.3. Phase 3 – Digitising**

#### *3.3.1. Vertical meshes*

The 2D seismic section interpretations were created in ArcGIS® and had to be imported into Leapfrog Geo® as vertical sections. These imported interpretations were draped onto a vertical seismic section mesh. The procedure for the creation of each vertical mesh is described in Table A9 in the Appendix. Unfortunately vertical meshes are not simple to make in Leapfrog Geo® as the software prefers creating horizontal surfaces, therefore the procedure in Table A9 in the Appendix is a workaround that forces the software to create the vertical meshes. The mesh is not perfect though because where the lines are not straight the mesh warps slightly and a lateral offset of up to 150m is produced between each duplicate line trace.

#### *3.3.2. Picking horizons*

Horizons picked (i.e. picking strong reflectors) in the 2D reflection seismic sections corresponded with horizons digitised from surface mapping so that surface to depth wireframe-supports could be created in Phase 4. Horizons were picked and interpreted in ArcGIS®, then imported into LeapFrog Geo® and digitised directly in the software. Picking was not done in Kingdom Suite® as it proved inaccurate due to duplicated and disjointed shotpoints observed in every 2D seismic line (i.e. each shotpoint had two or three duplicates and short strings of shotpoints overlapped each other to form zigzag patterns over the length of the seismic line).

Picking was done for faults (i.e. areas where reflectors were discontinuous) as well. Unfortunately, the seismic lines are too sparsely separated to accurately correlate fault surfaces across seismic sections. Furthermore, Leapfrog Geo® has a limited fault representation function as faults cannot be terminated by younger units. Instead each fault penetrates the entire volume and will only terminate against other fault planes. These two characteristics hindered the representation of fault planes in the final 3D model, as (1) interpolating fault planes across large separation distances introduced additional uncertainty to the interpretations; and (2) fault systems confined between certain stratigraphic units could not be equally confined by the model as each fault penetrates through the entire model volume.

#### **3.4. Phase 4 – Geomodelling**

#### *3.4.1. Subsurface volumes*

LeapFrog Geo® has a 'Topography' function that produces 2.5D surfaces using datasets containing x, y, and z values. In this project the 90m resolution SRTM image of the study area was used. The model requires a 3D block boundary to confine the limits of the interpolations (mathematical links/extrapolations between data points that combine to create the 3D surfaces). The topography bounded the upper z-axis limit, and the 2D seismic line dataset bounded the x, y, and lower z-axis limits. The boundary cube was extended by a few kilometres to provide a small amount of additional interpolation beyond the outermost 2D seismic lines. The z-axis boundary base was set to the six second depth extent of the seismic sections (i.e. ~20km, including ~2km of additional interpolation below the sections).

#### *3.4.2. Eight geological volumes*

Eight geological volumes were created for the 3D model using the seven major interpreted lithological contacts. The volumes were generated in LeapFrog Geo® using modelling algorithms based
on geochronological order. A wedge in the southeast of the study area contained no data and was cutout of the geological model. This was done by ascribing a 'no-data' volume to this portion and assigning it to be the oldest 'package' chronologically. The volumes were created as either infill over underlying volumes, or erosive units representing major truncation horizons such as the Black Reef Formation.

# *3.4.3. Wireframes*

Geological model volumes are defined by wireframes. For the study area the volumes were created using the interpreted wireframes of the digitised contact horizons, as well as additional support wireframes (polylines and orientation disks) that constrained the interpolations between the seismic lines. Floating polylines supported the contact location between seismic lines. Orientation disks pegged the 3D surface interpolations to borehole contacts and also indicated the facing direction that was especially important in the overturned rocks of the Vredefort dome. The wireframes were checked for logical inconsistencies.



*Figure 3.1 Methodology framework for the geological modelling.*



*Figure 3.2 Twenty eight 2D seismic lines (including three split lines) and boreholes overlaying 1:250,000 scale geology map. The three domains are illustrated and each contains a number of cross-cutting seismic lines.*



*Figure 3.3 Split seismic lines tied together in Leapfrog Geo®; parity of each section is maintained. A) DV-270; B) BH-171; C) DE-512. Overlapping sections are highlighted by the red boxes.*

# **Chapter 4 2D Seismic Data Interpretation**

### **4.1. Introduction**

The largest process in the geological modelling phase was the interpretation of each of the twenty eight 2D reflection seismic sections. Apart from line OPR-50 in Domain 1, all the seismic sections crosscut. Interpretation of the data was divided into three domains, each containing a number of cross-cutting seismic lines and links to adjacent domains. The domains are illustrated in Figure 3.2. The V<sup>p</sup> and ρ stated throughout this text, and used during the interpretations, are illustrated in Table C in the Appendix. Supplementary information to Section 4.3 is provided in Table D in the Appendix.

The most important parameter that affects the strength of a reflected signal from a geological boundary is the contrast in acoustic impedance (product of the  $V_p$  and  $\rho$ ). For a lithological boundary to generate a strong reflection, the amplitude of a reflected wave (i.e. reflection coefficient, RC) relative to an incident wave should be at least 6% of the incident energy (Salisbury et al., 2003). The RC is represented by the following equation:

## $R = (\rho 2V2 - \rho 1V1)/(\rho 2V2 + \rho 1V1)$

The quality of data interpretation is also dependent on the accuracy of the seismic processing techniques, as well as the velocity fields used for migration and time-to-depth conversions. Although the seismic lines are relatively old, the quality of the data is good enough to image prominent, continuous geological boundaries. Sophisticated seismic attribute analysis, implemented in current advanced interpretation software packages (such as Kingdom suite® used in this work), was used to enhance the detection of horizons and faults in the data. Seismic interpretation was done by picking and tracking outstandingly clear, strong and laterally consistent seismic horizons, or imaging of prominent first-order scale faults in each line. Special attention was given to the cross-cutting lines for better tracking of the horizons.

Seismic horizons are defined as surfaces, or reflectors that the seismic interpreter selects for picking based on their lateral continuity and strong seismic amplitudes. They are either picked as a trough or peak in the amplitude-based interpretation, depending on the polarity of the data. The amplitude display shows the changes in seismic acoustic impedance and thus helps to identify changes in lithological characteristics in the data. Borehole information is crucial in constraining the initial stages of picking. In the absence of borehole controls, a reasonable estimate based on experience and literature can be made. Using this method, first-order scale faults were relatively easy to identify and picked on seismic sections (faults with a throw of 400m to 2500m).

#### **4.2. Seismic resolution limit**

For better interpretation of the reflection seismic data, it is essential to have an idea of the vertical and lateral resolution of the data based on the acquisition parameters used in these seismic surveys survey. The one-quarter dominant seismic wavelength  $(\lambda/4)$  is often described as the vertical resolution limit, or the tuning thickness. This is the thickness where constructive interference occurs between the wavelets reflected from the top and the base of the layer (Chopra et al., 2006; Hanneing and Paton, 2012). Based on the design, acquisition and processing parameters of the legacy 2D seismic surveys, the spatial and temporal resolutions of the datasets can be derived. For the sweep of  $10 - 91$ Hz, the dominant frequency of the seismic data was about 65Hz. Based on the Rayleigh quarter of dominant-wavelength criterion described by Widess (1973), and by using the average  $V_p$  of 6000 m/s, the vertical resolution is about 23m. This implies that the beds (or layers) with thickness less than 23m cannot be vertically resolved in these seismic sections. Using the Fresnel zone criterion, after migration, the horizontal resolution is equivalent to the dominant wavelength, which is approximately 92m. Therefore, geological features with spacing below these limits may not be discernible in the migrated seismic sections.

#### **4.3. Justifications for interpreting major contacts**

The variation in rock types in the study area ranges between sedimentary clastics, dolomites and volcanic rocks. Quartzite and shale  $\rho$ , including the  $\rho$  of their protoliths (i.e. sandstone and silt/mudstone) differ slightly, but the values are reasonably proportional to one another. The ρ of the weakly (if at all) metamorphosed sandstones and mudstones of the Karoo Supergroup differ by ~0.16 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. According to Phillips and Law (1994) the regional metamorphic grade of the Witwatersrand basin (outside the collar of the dome) is lower greenschist facies (i.e. temperatures up to 400°C, and pressures up to 3kb). The ρ of these lower greenschist facies quartzite and shale units in the study area differ comparably to Karoo Supergroup sediments (see Table C in the Appendix).

Importantly, mudstones and shales are generally denser than sandstones and quartzites. The  $V_p$ and ρ contrasts would result in acoustic impedance contrasts that would produce a seismic reflection at the interface. Dolomite ρ on the other hand changes very little at lower greenschist facies grades (2.84  $g/cm<sup>3</sup>$  in the metamorphosed Malmani Subgroup versus 2.86  $g/cm<sup>3</sup>$  in un-metamorphosed rocks, Jones, 2003). Similarly, all volcanic units exhibit  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  values above 6000 m/s and 2.78 g/cm<sup>3</sup> respectively. Therefore acoustic impedance contrasts are produced at the interfaces between the volcanic rocks and the lower  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  quartzites and shales, and the higher  $V_p$  dolomites.

#### *4.3.1. Base of the Karoo Supergroup*

The variation in shale and sandstone units in the Karoo Supergroup (Johnson et al., 2006) will produce acoustic impedance contrasts at their contacts due to the variation in  $\rho$  and  $V_p$  between the rock types (i.e. 2.38 g/cm<sup>3</sup> in sandstone and 2.54 g/cm<sup>3</sup> in shale). The  $V_p$  range for the Karoo Supergroup is  $3000 - 3200$  m/s (Appendix, Table C), whereas the underlying strata have higher V<sub>p</sub> and ρ (all above 5500 m/s and 2.65 g/cm<sup>3</sup>). The increase in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  across the contact with the underlying stratigraphy results in a significant RC, providing a strong amplitude reflection. An angular unconformity also exists between the Transvaal Supergroup and Karoo Supergroup.

## *4.3.2. Pretoria Group – Chuniespoort Group*

From the surface mapping and borehole logs, the youngest preserved formation of the Transvaal Supergroup in the study area is the Magaliesberg Formation. The Dwaalheuwel Formation is not preserved. The Rooihoogte Formation is thinly preserved in a few boreholes on the northwest margin of the study area. Similarly the Boshoek and Silverton Formations are rarely preserved and, apart from two boreholes, the borehole logs do not report the Boshoek, Strubenkop, Daspoort, and Silverton Formations.

The stratigraphic column interpreted from the surface mapping and boreholes offers a predictable model for the expected seismic reflection stratigraphy from the 2D seismic data. The uppermost Daspoort and Magaliesberg formations observed in the study area are dominated by sandstones (Johnson et al., 2006), therefore the acoustic impedance contrast for the contact between these two formations is not large enough to produce a high amplitude reflection, due to the similar ρ of the two formations (i.e.,  $\sim$ 2.5 g/cm<sup>3</sup>).

The Strubenkop Formation will exhibit a stronger acoustic impedance contrast with the overlying Daspoort Formation because it consists of up to 145m of denser shale  $\left(\sim 2.8 \text{ g/cm}^3\right)$  versus  $\sim 2.6$  $g/cm<sup>3</sup>$ ), with subordinate sandstone (Johnson et al., 2006). The change in  $\rho$  at the contact between the formations will produce a low to moderate-amplitude reflection with a positive RC. The amplitude strength may depend on the heavy element content (iron and other metals) of the mudstone that will determine its ρ increase.

 $V_p$  and ρ measurements have not been published for the Strubenkop Formation; however according to Johnson et al. (2006), the Timeball Hill and Strubenkop Formations are both lacustrine deposits dominated by mudstone sequences with subordinate sandstones (with minor diamictite, conglomerate and lava members included in the Timeball Hill Formation). The two formations can therefore be assumed to be broadly similar in terms of  $\rho$  (and  $V_p$ ). The Timeball Hill Formation has a published  $V_p$  of 5513 m/s and  $\rho$  of 2.67 – 2.80 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (Appendix, Table C). The Strubenkop Formation will have a similar, possibly slightly lower  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  due to the absence of the basal volcanic member of the Timeball Hill Formation (i.e., Bushy Bend Member).

The absence of the Dwaalheuwel Formation in the study area implies that the Strubenkop Formation unconformably overlies the basaltic andesites of the Hekpoort Formation. The  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of the Hekpoort Formation is 6083 m/s and 2.83  $g/cm<sup>3</sup>$  respectively (Appendix, Table C). Therefore a large acoustic impedance contrast with positive RC values exists between the formations. The change in  $V_p$ and ρ across the contact will produce a moderate to high-amplitude reflection interface.

The Hekpoort Formation is made up of basaltic andesites and minor pyroclastics (Johnson et al., 2006) making the formation relatively homogeneous in terms of ρ variation. On a local scale, minor pyroclastic units could lower the ρ in those areas resulting in the production of discrete discontinuous internal reflections. Due to the possible large  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  changes, the contact between the Hekpoort Formation and the underlying formations (either the Boshoek Formation or the Timeball Hill Formation) will produce a moderate to high-amplitude reflection with a negative RC. The Boshoek Formation has no published  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  measurements, but is made up of sandstones, conglomerates and diamictites that will be relatively less dense compared to the overlying volcanics of the Hekpoort Formation.

The Boshoek Formation is rarely exposed in the study area; it is reported to have a maximum thickness of only 80m over the full extent of the Transvaal Supergroup basin (Johnson et al., 2006). It may fall below the resolution limits of the 2D seismic survey (i.e.  $\sim$  23m as described in Section 4.2). The lower contact of the Hekpoort Formation will most likely be with the underlying Timeball Hill formation, with a decrease in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of 570 m/s and 0.03 – 0.16 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, respectively (Appendix, Table  $C$ ).

According to the surface mapping, the Timeball Hill Formation in the study area is the base formation of the Pretoria Group. The Rooihoogte Formation, the stratigraphic base unit (Johnson et al., 2006), varies greatly in thickness throughout the Transvaal Supergroup basin  $(2 - 150m)$  and may only be preserved locally, or may fall below the resolution limits of the 2D seismic survey (~23m as described above). The lithological variation within the Timeball Hill Formation (mudstone, sandstone, volcanic, conglomerate, and diamictite members) may result in low to moderate-amplitude contiguous internal reflections.

The Penge Formation ironstone is not preserved in this study area according to surface mapping and boreholes. The Duitschland Formation is not explicitly reported either, but due to the absence of the Penge Formation, the carbonates that dominate this formation (Johnson et al., 2006) may be merged in the borehole logs with the underlying Malmani Subgroup dolomites. For example the borehole logs in the southern parts of the study area do not differentiate the various carbonate intervals.

The Malmani Subgroup exhibits  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of 6600 – 6834 m/s and 2.65 – 2.84 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (Appendix, Table C). The variation in  $V_p$  may represent the variation in  $\rho$  due to the variable chert and shale contents in the subgroup. This subgroup may exhibit discrete, discontinuous low-amplitude internal reflections in the seismic sections. However, the dolomite ( $\rho$  of 2.84 g/cm<sup>3</sup>) dominates the subgroup to produce the relatively high  $V_p$  of the subgroup (6600 – 6834 m/s). This suggests that the interface with the overlying Pretoria Group will be imaged by seismics as there is an increase in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  from the Timeball Hill Formation to the Chuniespoort Group. The large acoustic impedance contrast between the two units will produce a positive RC and moderate to high-amplitude seismic reflections.

#### *4.3.3. Black Reef Formation*

The base formation of the Transvaal Supergroup is the quartzite-dominated Black Reef Formation (Johnson et al., 2006). The borehole intersections of the Black Reef Formation in the study area exhibit a broad range of thicknesses from 2m to 100m. Therefore in some parts the formation may fall below the seismic resolution limit (23m) and the top or bottom of the formation may not be distinguished. In parts where the Black Reef Formation is thick ( $>23$ m), the V<sub>p</sub> and  $\rho$  of the formation will come into play. The values are comparable to other sedimentary sequences (no published  $V_p$  but the  $\rho$  for the shales is 2.79 g/cm<sup>3</sup> and the quartzites is 2.65 g/cm<sup>3</sup>; Jones, 2003) so will provide strong impedance contrasts with the adjacent dolomites and volcanics of the Malmani Subgroup and Ventersdorp Supergroup, respectively.

Where the formation is thinly preserved  $\langle 23m \rangle$  the acoustic impedance contrast between the Chuniespoort Group and Ventersdorp Supergroup will be imaged due to the decrease in  $V_p$  from the dolomites to the volcano-sedimentary sequences, respectively (i.e. >6600 m/s in the Chuniespoort Group and  $\lt$ 6400 m/s in the Ventersdorp Supergroup, see Table C in the Appendix). The  $\rho$  of the volcanic units in the Ventersdorp Supergroup is similar to the dolomites in the Malmani Subgroup (i.e. ~2.85 g/cm<sup>3</sup>). However, the Platberg Group and Pniel Sequence of the Ventersdorp Supergroup exhibit a large sedimentary component that lowers the  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of the immediate footwall to the Black Reef Formation. Interestingly, the ρ of the Klipriviersberg Group volcanics is higher than the dolomites (2.88  $-$  2.90 g/cm<sup>3</sup> versus 2.84 g/cm<sup>3</sup>), but the V<sub>p</sub> remains lower (6230 – 6400 m/s versus 6600 – 6834 m/s).

Surface mapping (Figure 3.2) in the study area has shown that the Allanridge and Bothaville formations of the Pniel Sequence are not preserved. However a few boreholes (i.e. 4014263, 4037657, 4037666, and 4039854) on the western and southwest margin (Figure 3.2) report volcanic units of the Allanridge Formation. Borehole 4037666 also reports pebbly quartzites and conglomerates of the Bothaville Formation. Due to the poor preservation of the Allanridge and Bothaville formations elsewhere, the footwall lithology of the contact between the Black Reef Formation and the Ventersdorp Supergroup will likely be the Platberg Group volcano-sedimentary package, or Klipriviersberg Group volcanics.

According to the measured  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  (Table C in the Appendix) of the Malmani Subgroup, Pniel Sequence (Allanridge and Bothaville formations), Platberg Group, Klipriviersberg Group, and Central Rand Group, a significant acoustic impedance contrast will be produced at the interface between the relatively higher  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of the Malmani Subgroup and most of the underlying stratigraphy (including the Black Reef Formation). Volcanic  $\rho$  may be higher than dolomite  $\rho$  but the V<sub>p</sub> remains higher in the dolomites. The impedance contrast will determine the strength of the reflection amplitude.

### *4.3.4. Venterspost Contact Formation (VCF)*

The base formation of the Ventersdorp Supergroup is the Venterspost Formation (the Venterspost Contact Formation, or VCF). This formation in the study area is less than 25m thick (as indicated in Table D in the Appendix) and falls at the limit of the vertical seismic resolution (23m) of the 2D seismic surveys. The overlying and underlying lithologies to the VCF have contrasting  $V_p$  and  $p$  (~6300 m/s and ~2.89 g/cm<sup>3</sup> for the volcanics of the Klipriviersberg Group, and ~5700 m/s and ~2.76 g/cm<sup>3</sup> for quartzite of the Central Rand Group, see Table C in the Appendix). Therefore the change in V<sup>p</sup> and ρ across the interface from the volcanics of the Klipriviersberg Group to the quartzites/conglomerates of the Central Rand Group will be imaged. Both groups are relatively homogeneous in terms of their individual ρ and will produce seismically transparent packages (with the exception of the Booysens Formation shale in the Central Rand Group). The drop in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  from the Klipriviersberg Group to the Central Rand Group will form a strong acoustic impedance contrast at the interface, to produce a moderate to high-amplitude reflection with a negative RC.

The Booysens Formation in the study area has reported borehole thicknesses of between 50m and 300m (albeit apparent thicknesses of the sub-vertical boreholes) and therefore may be imaged by the reflection seismic method. It is also possible that the VCF lies in contact with the West Rand Group, as boreholes in northwest and southwest of the study area indicate (see Table D in the Appendix for details). The seismic section for the West Rand Group is unique. The seismically transparent package of the Central Rand Group will be absent where the VCF contacts the West Rand Group, and only the thick package (several kilometres) of closely-spaced reflectors of the West Rand Group will be delineated.

#### *4.3.5. Central Rand Group – West Rand Group*

The Central Rand Group is dominated by quartzite and conglomerates, with minor shale and volcanic units (Johnson et al., 2006). The  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  for the Central Rand Group is 5550 – 5779 m/s and  $2.66 - 2.87$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>, respectively (Appendix, Table C). The West Rand Group is characterised by a thick series of intercalated shales, ironstones, quartzites, conglomerates, volcanic sequences and diamictites (Johnson et al., 2006). The  $V_p$  of 5748 m/s (Appendix, Table C) for the West Rand Group therefore only represents the mean  $V_p$  of a sequence of rocks that have differing  $\rho (2.87 - 3.15 \text{ g/cm}^3)$ .

It is suggested that due to the large variation in rock types observed in the West Rand Group stratigraphy, the package will be imaged as a series of closely-spaced, contiguous internal reflections with varying amplitudes depending on the local scale distribution of rock types. These internal reflections produce a seismic signature that is unique in the stratigraphy of the study area and therefore can be used as a guide during seismic section interpretations. The wide range of  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  contrasts, close spacing of reflections, and variable lateral extents of the sedimentary members over the Witwatersrand basin makes interpreting individual horizons within the West Rand Group difficult.

Though not included as a discrete volume contact in the modelling, the interpreted contact of the Government and Hospital Hill subgroups can be highlighted in a similar way to the horizons in the Transvaal Supergroup that provide local scale detail to each line interpretation. According to Johnson et al. (2006), the largest lithological variability is found in the Government Subgroup. This subgroup is characterised by strong changes in depositional (marine) environment and disconformities. The underlying Hospital Hill Subgroup represents a less variable depositional environment with relatively thicker successions. The thicker members will therefore produce a sequence of widely-spaced internal reflections relative to the overlying Government Subgroup. It is suggested that in some parts of the study area this wider-spaced package can be observed and therefore the contact between the two subgroups can be interpreted. The Parktown Formation, towards the base of the Hospital Hill Subgroup, is dominated by thick shale sequences and can potentially be interpreted as well.

The unconformity separating the West Rand and Central Rand groups is resolvable due to the change in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  from the quartzite dominated Central Rand Group to the highly variable shale and quartzite units (with minor volcanics) that dominate the West Rand Group. However the contact is not seismically imaged in places where the Central Rand Group quartzite overlies the uppermost quartzites of the Maraisburg Formation of the West Rand Group due to the similar compositions. Where preserved, this formation will obscure the vertical location of the reflection by up to 200m (thickness of the Maraisburg Formation according to Johnson et al., 2006), a relatively small margin of error considering the scale of the modelling and ~18km depth extent of the sections.

# *4.3.6. West Rand Group – Dominion Group*

The Dominion Group is not sampled by boreholes in the study area, though the surface mapping (described in Table D in the Appendix) and stratigraphic logs (according to Johnson et al., 2006) depict the Group as a relatively thin package with <800m wide surface exposures and <2000m widths reported in stratigraphic logs. It is recorded in surface mapping over an area that extends approximately 100km from the west of the study area to the collar rocks of the Vredefort dome. The preservation of the Group at depth is suggested with higher confidence in the western parts of the study area.

According to the stratigraphic logs (Johnson et al., 2006) the dominant lithology in the Dominion Group are mafic – intermediate volcanics. The  $\rho$  of the group is 2.78 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (Jones, 2003), though the  $V_p$  has not been published. However due to the similar composition of the basalt with that of the Hekpoort Formation and Klipriviersberg Group, the  $V_p$  can be estimated at ~6000 m/s. The  $V_p$ and  $\rho$  is slightly higher than that of the quartzite and shale expected in the overlying West Rand Group (see Table C in the Appendix). Therefore these volcanic units will provide an acoustic impedance contrast at the interface that will produce a moderate amplitude reflection (with a positive RC).

Another variable for the impedance contrasts is the  $\rho$  of the Dominion Group at the formation top. If the lithology is more felsic or sedimentary, for example if the Syferfontein Formation was dominant, the p would be relatively lower due to the increase in quartz content  $(2.65 \text{ g/cm}^3)$ , Jones, 2003) so the  $V_p$  would drop slightly. An analogy for felsic compositions is the basement TTG suite that has a  $V_p$  and ρ of 5693 m/s and 2.86 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, respectively (Appendix, Table C). A  $V_p$  and ρ in this range would be very similar to that of the overlying West Rand Group (particularly the quartzite units of the basal Orange Grove Formation). A felsic-dominated Dominion Group would not form an acoustic impedance contrast between both the overlying Hospital Hill Subgroup and the underlying basement, thus the interface could not be imaged.

### *4.3.7. Basement Contact*

The  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  values for the basement TTG suite and greenstones are 5693 m/s and 2.86 g/cm<sup>3</sup> respectively (Appendix, Table C). The type of overlying lithology is an important factor in the resolvability of the basement interface. The volcanics of the Dominion Group exhibit a relatively higher V<sup>p</sup> compared to the TTG suite of the basement package. Therefore an acoustic impedance contrast is formed at the interface that will produce a moderate amplitude reflection. The suggested  $V_p$  for the Dominion Group is higher than the  $V_p$  for the basement despite the fact that the  $\rho$  for the Dominion Group is slightly lower than the basement ρ calculated by Niu and James (2002). However, if the mafic – intermediate volcanics in the Dominion Group are absent, only the sedimentary/felsic porphyry members of the Syferfontein and Rhenosterspruit formations would be preserved. In this case the  $V_p$ and ρ across the interface would be very similar and therefore may not be imaged.



Table 4.1 Principal seismic data processing steps applied to all the seismic lines component data (courtesy of John Bell, Exploration Manager and Regional Geophysicist at AngloGold Ashanti).

Note: Due to file size constraints "Chapter 5: Analysis" has been placed in a separate pdf document.

# **Chapter 6 Modelling**

## **6.1. Introduction**

The creation of the 3D geological model represented the final phase of the modelling framework (Figure 3.1). The colours used in the modelled volumes correspond with Figure 1.1. The final volumes provided adequate representation of the regional scale architecture in the study area. The spatial relationships also provided insight into the formation and preservation of major stratigraphic units. These volumes are separated by seven major stratigraphic boundaries, as presented in Figure 2.1.

## **6.2. Digitising**

Phase 3 dealt with the digitisation of datasets that formed the wireframes of the individual 3D geological volumes. Digitising the surface geology constrained the outcrop contacts. The seven contact horizons (including all the outcrop structure data) were digitised using 1:250,000 scale geology maps, including the 1:50,000 map of the Vredefort dome and collar rocks (Figure 6.2.1A). The interpreted 2D seismic sections from the three domains are displayed together in Figure 6.2.1B. The digitised surface and borehole information was combined with the seismic section interpretations to form the wireframes for each geological volume (Figure 6.2.1C).

The interpreted interfaces from the 2D reflection seismic sections were extracted as polylines (Figure 6.2.2). Faults were also digitised but were omitted from the model volume interpolations (see Chapter 3). However, faults at lithological interfaces were digitised as 'structural contact' polylines in order to preserve the wireframes on those contacts.

## **6.3. Geomodelling**

Phase 4 of the modelling framework dealt with the creation of the 3D geological model following integration of all digitised datasets as wireframes. The wireframes were classified to define the contacts between the individually interpolated volumes. The interpolation between the wireframes yielded mathematically constrained volumes. However, due to the large distance between data points in some parts of the study area the interpolations exhibited greater uncertainty and produced unrealistic surface geometries. Therefore a host of additional supportive wireframes were required to adjust the interpolation into reasonable geometries.

The supportive wireframes included polylines and orientation disks, and are displayed in Figure 6.3.1A. The northern collar of the dome was unconstrained at depth; the supportive wireframes were guided by surface information and adjacent boreholes. The overturned units in the collar rocks would have been interpolated as complex shapes without these wireframes. The polylines were used in a variety of ways, for example, to fill-in large gaps, define structurally bound contacts, refine contacts between adjacent outcrops of different units, and pull surfaces upwards so that they terminated appropriately against other volumes, or the topography. Orientation disks acted as pegs in 3D space. These disks were used to snap interpolations onto boreholes and outcrop contacts, and to define the upright sides of the rendered surfaces. Some wireframes of the seismic sections were separated by large gaps that were pegged with orientation disks to provide consistent geometries of the 3D surface interpolants.

The interpolation process of the wireframes produced 3D surfaces for each contact. The process was simple, but required numerous iterations of refinement. Following each interpolation cycle, some localised inconsistencies were produced in areas of lesser data coverage. The interpolated contact surfaces for each modelled volume are displayed in Figure 6.3.1B.

The 3D rendered surfaces in Leapfrog Geo® were modelled chronologically, i.e., oldest rock packages first. The southeast part of the volume contained no data at depth. Therefore this volume was omitted by setting it as the oldest unit in the modelling workflow. The supportive wireframes and interpolated surface for this omitted volume are displayed in Figures 6.3.1A and 6.3.1B, respectively. The final geological model is displayed in Figure 6.3.2.

# **6.4. Model Volumes**

#### *6.4.1. Basement Volume*

The wireframes for the upper contact of the basement volume are displayed in Figure 6.4.1A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.1B. A small area on the southwest margin of the dome contains a complex series of wireframes that account for an interpreted normal fault in seismic section DE-512A. The basement is intersected by two boreholes, namely, 4013818 and 4020073. However, they are located outside the study area adjacent to the northwest margin of the modelled volume. The upper contacts of the basement in these boreholes are pegged with orientation disks.

The dominant feature in the modelled volume of the basement is the Vredefort dome. The volume of the overturned northern side is estimated. However the western, southern, and eastern sides are constrained at depth. The dip is subvertical on the western side and upright and shallower on the southern side. The eastern side of the dome is less constrained compared to the west, but still exhibits upright, moderate dips. The contact geometry of the dome differs from north to south as well. The exposed northern half is subvertical to overturned. The unexposed volume in the southern half has a vertical cone geometry; it results in a slight increase in horizontal diameter from north to south than from east to west (i.e., ~46km versus ~39km).

The basement contact adjacent to the Vredefort dome varies in depth between 4km and 16km. The contact is locally elevated in several parts of the volume, including the northwest, southwest, southeast, and east. The basement elevation in the eastern half of the volume is generally several kilometres shallower than the western half.

The elevated basement contact to the east of the dome is detected across several seismic sections in Domain 2. The elevation represents the hinge zone of a proposed gentle, asymmetric, antiformal fold with an axial plane trending 035°. The geometry of the fold on its southern limb is offset by a listric fault, and is therefore less defined compared to its northern limb.

The southwestern elevated contact is interpreted across several seismic sections. A welldeveloped fault system is delineated in these sections, that may be associated with the elevated contact. The southeast and eastern elevated contacts create a distinct asymmetry in the rim syncline around the dome. The syncline is well developed in the western half of the basement volume. However the geometry is less defined in the southern and eastern parts due to the localised uplifts, as well as the generally shallower elevation of the basement in the eastern half.

The southeastern margin of the dome and the area ~25km southeast of it exhibits elevated basement contacts. In the seismic sections these elevated contacts are associated with anomalous internal reflections in the basement. The Karoo Supergroup unconformably overlies the West Rand Group in the uplifted area so the timing of uplift can be constrained to post-West Rand Group deposition and could be late to post-Witwatersrand Supergroup deposition and syn to pre-Klipriviersberg Group deposition. The elevated basement contact therefore formed part of the pre-existing basement architecture at the time of the Vredefort impact.

#### *6.4.2. Dominion Group Volume*

The base of the Dominion Group volume is defined by the contact with the basement volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the Dominion and West Rand groups. These wireframes are displayed in Figure 6.4.2A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.2B. Supportive wireframes were used in the northern half of the volume to define the general trend of the overturned units. A small area on the southwest margin of the dome contains a complex series of wireframes that accounts for an interpreted normal fault in seismic section DE-512A. Borehole 4020073 intersects the Dominion Group and is located just outside the study area in the northwest corner; the intersection in this borehole of the upper contact of the Dominion Group was pegged with an orientation disk.

The Dominion Group conforms to the basement contact geometry, but is absent in several places. These include the southwest corner of the modelled volume, the southern margin of the dome, a saddle between the two uplifts in the southeast, and east of the dome. The absence of the Group in the southwest is defined by a low-angle crosscutting fault that exhibits offset of the Dominion Group and lower West Rand Group. The fault may be related to the overlying well-developed listric fault system that is imaged in the adjacent seismic sections.

The absence of the Dominion Group on the southern margin of the dome is associated with structures imaged across several seismic sections located in Domains 2 and 3. The structures form a contact between the basement and the overlying West Rand Group. Outcrop of the Hospital Hill Subgroup in contact with the basement is exposed on the southeast margin of the dome. The absence of the Dominion Group east of the dome is associated with the listric fault imaged across several seismic sections in Domain 2. The outcrop in the northern collar of the dome exhibits an abrupt termination of the Group against a fault. East of this fault the Group is absent over the rest of the collar exposure. The interpolations had no constraints that could extend the volume and close the gap from this point in the northern collar towards the southern margin of the dome.

The Dominion Group is also absent in a saddle between two elevated basement highs in the southeast. The offsets imaged in this area of Domain 3 indicate normal and listric displacement on the flanks of the two uplifts. The interpolated surface produced thinned and absent volumes of the Group in account of the abrupt change in elevation over a relatively short distance.

#### *6.4.3. West Rand Group Volume*

The base of the West Rand Group volume is defined by the contact with the Dominion Group volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the West Rand and Central Rand groups. These wireframes are displayed in Figure 6.4.3A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.3B. The vast majority of the orientation disks are pegged at borehole contacts. There are 81 orientation disks in total, 14 of which are pegged on the mapped contact adjacent to the dome, 12 are supportive disks, and 55 are pegged to borehole contacts collared around the dome.

The wireframes that represent the fault-terminated interfaces on the seismic sections are relatively short in length. These short, abrupt changes in the contact form the few sharp irregularities observed on the interpolated surface. Several supportive wireframes are used as 'pull-ups' in the southeast portion. They are placed where the West Rand Group contacts the Ventersdorp or Karoo supergroups. This ensures that the West Rand Group surface terminates against younger crosscutting units.

The identification of geometric variation in the West Rand Group volume is not as refined as in the other units. This is due to the relatively thicker modelled volume of the Group compared to the volumes of the other units. The eastern half of the volume exhibits shallower preservation depths than the western half. The contact surface displayed in Figure 6.4.3B illustrates this variation. The interpolated contact in the eastern half is on average ~1500m below surface, whereas in the western half it averages ~6000m below surface. The rim syncline on the northern and western sides of the dome can still be identified.

The magnetic properties of the West Rand Group (Johnson et al., 2006) produce anomalies in the regional aeromagnetic surveys. These anomalies match the outcrop in the exposed collar rocks to the west and north of the dome. Due to the relatively thin Karoo Supergroup cover, the anomalies are traced to the south and east of the dome. Boreholes and surface mapping confirm the preservation of the Group below the Karoo Supergroup, providing greater confidence in the extent of the interpolation.

Truncation of the West Rand Group by younger units is interpreted in several areas. These include the northwest, southwest, southeast, and the eastern margin of the dome. The crosscutting relationships are clearly displayed in Figure 6.4.4B. All the major truncated areas of the Group are associated with the VCF interface. However a narrow ~6km long truncation that associates with the interface of the Black Reef Formation is located ~20km south of the dome, and is imaged in seismic section DE-510 (Figure 5.2.26).

#### *6.4.4. Central Rand Group Volume*

The base of the Central Rand Group volume is defined by the contact with the West Rand Group volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the Central Rand Group and the Ventersdorp Supergroup. These wireframes are displayed in Figure 6.4.4A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.4B. The vast majority of the orientation disks are pegged at borehole contacts. There are 137 orientation disks in total, 26 of which are pegged on the mapped contact, 10 are supportive disks, and 101 are pegged to borehole contacts scattered around the Vredefort dome.

The wireframes that represent the fault-terminated lithological interfaces on the seismic sections are relatively short in length. These short, abrupt changes in the contact form the sharp irregularities observed on the interpolated surface. The VCF wireframes that define the upper contact are modelled as an erosional surface. This ensures that the interpolated surface truncates older units, including the Central Rand Group.

The modelled volume of the Central Rand Group is similar to the West Rand Group volume in terms of overall geometry and variation in depth (from west to east). The rim syncline is observed on the western margin of the dome. The Central Rand Group on the southwest margin of the dome and the southern margin of the model boundary is elevated. This suggests that the rim syncline continues eastwards into Domain 3.

The Central Rand Group is absent in five places, similar to the West Rand Group volume described above. Four of the areas are associated with truncation by the VCF and one is associated with the truncation interface of the Black Reef Formation. The Central Rand Group is preserved in the narrow corridor in the southeast.

#### *6.4.5. Ventersdorp Supergroup Volume*

The base of the Ventersdorp Supergroup volume is defined by the contact with the Central Rand Group volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the Ventersdorp Supergroup and the Chuniespoort Group. These wireframes are displayed in Figure 6.4.5A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.5B. Periclinal folds exposed around the dome and imaged in the seismic sections were interpreted using the orientation disks. Roughly half of the orientation disks are pegged on borehole and mapping contacts. The rest are supportive disks for the fold interpolations and various other supportive wireframes. The wireframes of the Black Reef Formation are modelled as an erosional surface to ensure that the interpolated surface truncates older units, including the Ventersdorp Supergroup.

The Ventersdorp Supergroup volume is elevated in several places. These include the northwest corner, southwest corner, eastern margin of the model boundary, and across the southeast. With the exception of the southeast elevation, these areas possibly form part of the rim syncline around the dome. The elevated Supergroup in the southwest corner of the model boundary contacts an elevated West Rand Group volume, suggesting at least two episodes of uplift.

On the northwest margin of the modelled block the Ventersdorp Supergroup is truncated by the Black Reef Formation across a narrow area. An additional truncation is imaged in seismic sections and reported in boreholes in Domain 2 towards the hinge of the interpreted anticline. Across the hinge of the anticline, the Ventersdorp Supergroup is absent because the Karoo Supergroup unconformably overlies the Central Rand Group.

On the eastern margin of the modelled block the Ventersdorp Supergroup volume is absent in two areas. The northern area is constrained by outcrop of the Central Rand Group. The southern area is constrained by boreholes and seismic sections that indicate the Karoo Supergroup unconformably overlies the Central Rand Group.

The Ventersdorp Supergroup volume in the southeast is mostly absent across the study area based on borehole information, surface mapping, and seismic section interpretations. These indicate that the Karoo Supergroup unconformably overlies the Witwatersrand Supergroup. Surface mapping and borehole information reported a few narrow volcanic outcrops and intersections of the Klipriviersberg Group near the southeast margin of the modelled block. These constraints indicate that the uplift in the southeast of the model boundary formed prior to synchronous to emplacement of the Klipriviersberg Group.

A periclinal fold is observed in the Ventersdorp Supergroup volume to the west of the dome. The fold coincides with the surface expression ~2800m above it. A periclinal fold is also located adjacent to the southwest margin of the dome where it is covered by Quaternary sediments and the Karoo Supergroup. The slightly arcuate strike of the subvertical axial plane trends eastwards towards the dome, forming an acute angle with the margin of the dome. The fold and its arcuate axial trace is better illustrated in the overlying Chuniespoort Group volume (Figure 6.4.6B).

## *6.4.6. Chuniespoort Group Volume*

The base of the Chuniespoort Group volume is defined by the contact with the Ventersdorp Supergroup volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the Chuniespoort and Pretoria groups. These wireframes are displayed in Figure 6.4.6A and the output volume is displayed in Figure 6.4.6B. The majority of orientation disks are used as the fold supports to the west and north of the dome. The borehole contacts are pegged as well. With regards to the periclinal fold adjacent to the southwest margin of the dome, the interpolation algorithms produce an artificial cuspate surface on the flank of the fold.

The Chuniespoort Group volume is confined in the south, southeast, and east. The Group on the southern and eastern margins of the modelled block exhibits dome-dipping orientations. In both instances the volume terminates against the Karoo Supergroup. It is suggested that the Group conforms to the geometry of the rim syncline around the dome; however the synclinal geometry is absent in the southeast.

The modelled volume in the southeast portion presents a variation in geometry between the Transvaal Supergroup and the older units. As described previously the Witwatersrand Supergroup is elevated in the southeast, and the Ventersdorp Supergroup is absent/truncated in the same area. A trace bisecting the gap in the Ventersdorp Supergroup exhibits a similar trend to a trace connecting the two West Rand Group volumes in the southeast. The traces exhibit an azimuth of  $\sim$ 147 $\degree$  from the southeast margin of the dome. However a bisecting trace of the absent/truncated portion of the Chuniespoort Group exhibits an azimuth of  $\sim$ 124°. The  $\sim$ 23° difference is observed in the output volume (Figure 6.4.6B).

The periclinal folds exposed in outcrops of the Pretoria Group and located west and north of the dome are expressed at depth in the Chuniespoort Group volume. As stated before, a periclinal fold is interpreted beneath the Quaternary sediments and Karoo Supergroup adjacent to the southwest margin of the dome; its fold axial trace trends acutely towards the southeast margin of the dome. However the Chuniespoort Group volume better defines the convergence of the fold with the collar rocks. The crest of the periclinal fold may be located near the narrow outcrop position of the exposed Klipriviersberg Group; possibly slightly west of it in account of the close proximity to the repeated Group in the adjacent collar rocks.

#### *6.4.7. Pretoria Group and* Phanerozoic*/Karoo Supergroup Volume*

The base of the Pretoria Group volume is defined by the contact with the Chuniespoort Group volume. The upper contact surface is defined by the interpolated wireframes of the contact between the Pretoria Group and the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup. The contact unconformity bounding the surface extent of the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup is included in defining the upper contact surface of the Pretoria Group volume.

The Pretoria Group volume has no upper contact in the exposed outcrop to the north and west of the dome, therefore deformation that affects the Pretoria Group is not expressed by the geometry of the volume because the upper surface is defined by the topography. The truncation surface of the subhorizontal Karoo Supergroup did not preserve the original upper contact of the Group either. However, the contact between the Pretoria and Chuniespoort groups visually enhance the geometry of the rim syncline and the periclinal fold.

The Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup volume is the youngest and is also interpolated as an erosional surface. The upper contact of the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup volume does not require wireframes. The volume is created by filling in the 'empty' space that exists between the Pretoria Group volume and the topography. The wireframes that define the base contact of the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup are displayed in Figure 6.4.7A and the output volume of the Pretoria Group is displayed in Figure 6.4.7B. The output volume of the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup is displayed in Figure 6.4.7C.

In the areas where the inliers expose older units, the interpolated Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup contact is 'pulled' above the topography, i.e., is absent across the narrow outcrop volumes. A combination of polyline and orientation disks are used to adequately control the interpolation in these areas. The majority of the orientation disks are placed at surface, along the bounding extents of the contact unconformity between the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup and the older units. Orientation disks are also pegged on borehole base contacts of the Karoo Supergroup.







*Figure 6.2.1 Three 3D views displaying various aspects of the final datasets. Note, the project boundary is included as a red square/box, and the yellow markers at the top of each borehole are collar markers. A) Looking north plunging at 35°, borehole data (lithology logs plotted) and digitised surface mapping (major contacts in the key below, and dip orientations as red disks). B) Looking north plunging at 35°, seismic line interpretations from all three domains. C) Looking north plunging at 35°, combined seismic interpretations and digitised datasets. Key: Purple = Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup base contact; light blue = contact Pretoria – Chuniespoort groups; dark blue = Black Reef Formation; Green = VCF; Yellow = contact Central Rand – West Rand groups; brown = contact West Rand – Dominion groups; dark red = contact Dominion Group – Basement; pink = contact Basement – Other.*



*Figure 6.2.2 Digitised seismic section interpretations, including polylines of the imaged contact interfaces and fault planes.*



*Figure 6.3.1 Wireframes. A) Wireframe polylines (various colours used for various types of wireframe lines) and orientation disks (red = upright side, blue = overturned side) used to create the eight model volumes. Wireframes in areas of poor seismic data coverage (i.e., north of the dome) are estimated using surface mapping and borehole information. B) Interpolated wireframe surfaces with parameters attributed to either 'deposit' or 'erosional' with regards to their contact relationships to older packages. The southeast corner of the study area contains no data therefore has been excluded from the modelled volume using the illustrated wireframes. The modelled volumes of each unit have to terminate against younger units or topography in various places (most commonly with the Karoo Supergroup) therefore the contact planes illustrated here have to cross younger contact planes. The planes project to infinity so are clipped by the model volume boundary and the topography. Each plane is projected to infinity beyond the termination contact between two planes this results in projected artefacts, such as in the southeast.*



*Figure 6.3.2 Eight modelled volumes. A) Model including the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup cover. B) Model excluding the Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup cover. Colour Key: Yellow = Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup cover; light green = Pretoria Group; light blue = Chuniespoort Group; dark green = Ventersdorp Supergroup; orange = Central Rand Group; brown = West Rand Group; red = Dominion Group; pink = Basement.*



*Figure 6.4.1 Model volume of the basement. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Green polylines represent the structure-defined contacts; blue polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; pink polylines represent the surface contacts; light brown polylines represent support wireframes.*





*Figure 6.4.2 Modelled volume of the Dominion Group. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Purple polylines represent the structure-defined contacts; green polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; brown polylines represent the surface contacts; blue polylines represent support wireframes.*

 $\bullet$  $20 \mathrm{km}$  $\mathbf{A}$ <br>
Plunge +20<br>
Looking North



*Figure 6.4.3 Modelled volume of the West Rand Group. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Pale green polylines represent the structure-defined contacts; purple polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; yellow polylines represent the surface contacts; dark green polylines represent pull-up support wireframes.*





Plunge +20<br>Looking North ©

*Figure 6.4.4 Modelled volume of the Central Rand Group. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Dark blue polylines represent the structure-defined contacts; red polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; green polylines represent the surface contacts; purple, pink and light blue polylines represent support wireframes.*



*Figure 6.4.5 Modelled volume of the Ventersdorp Supergroup. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Purple polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; blue polylines represent the surface contacts; grey-green and red polylines represent support wireframes.*





*Figure 6.4.6 Modelled volume of the Chuniespoort Group. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Interpolated volume. Red polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; light blue polylines represent the surface contacts; purple polylines represent support wireframes.*



*Figure 6.4.7 Modelled volumes of the Pretoria Group and Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup. A) Upper contact wireframes (lines and orientation disks). B) Pretoria Group interpolated volume. C) Phanerozoic/Karoo Supergroup interpolated volume. Green polylines represent the unconformable lithological contacts; purple polylines represent the surface contacts; red polylines represent support wireframes.*

 $\overline{\mathbf{C}}$ <br>
Plunge +20<br>
Looking North

 $\overline{2}$ 

# **Chapter 7 Discussion**

The stratigraphic column and geochronology for the study area is displayed in Figure A in the Appendix. The stratigraphy is divided into eight units, separated by seven major contact unconformities. The units were modelled in 3D space following the modelling framework described in Section 3. The final geological model is displayed in Figure 6.3.2.

This section presents a summary of the geological modelling, followed by comparisons between the results and published work. Three aspects of the modelling are discussed, i.e., (1) stratigraphic interpretation, (2) structural features, and (3) the Vredefort impact.

## **7.1. Summary**

## *7.1.1. Stratigraphic interpretation*

Several stratigraphic units are not preserved or are unlikely to be preserved in the study area (Section 4.3, and Table D in the Appendix). However the major stratigraphic units that define the eight modelled volumes are preserved. These include the Karoo, Transvaal, Ventersdorp, and Witwatersrand supergroups, as well as the Dominion Group and basement TTG suite.

The contact between the basement TTG suite and the Dominion Group is interpreted across the study area using the interface with the overlying units (Section 4.3;  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  values in Table C in the Appendix). The Dominion Group exhibits scattered, moderate amplitude reflections that form a semicontinuous 200 – 800m thick package across the seismic sections. The Group provides a reasonable estimate for the basement contact depth and its geometry. The relatively homogeneous TTG composition of the basement (Poujol et al., 2003) produces a seismically transparent package, enhancing the interface with the overlying supracrustal sequences.

The interface between the Dominion and West Rand groups was well imaged where the mafic – intermediate volcanic units of the Dominion Group are dominant. These volcanic units provided adequate  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  contrasts with the overlying sediments of the West Rand Group to produce a reflection at the interface. Domain 2 exhibited the strongest interface between the two groups, possibly due to the relatively shallower reflections as compared to Domains 1 and 3. The shallower reflections across all the seismic sections were better detected than the associated reflections at depth.

The West Rand Group above the Dominion Group was imaged as a thick package of closelyspaced, moderate to high-amplitude reflections. These reflections are produced due to the high variation in  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of the rock types observed in the stratigraphy (Johnson et al., 2006). In seismic sections that exhibited strong internal reflections, the interface between the Government and Hospital Hill subgroups of the West Rand Group was inferred.

The interface between the West Rand and Central Rand groups is undulate and exhibits truncation of the West Rand Group. The undulate geometry suggests a period of erosion, producing an unconformable contact.

The Central Rand Group is characterised as a seismically transparent package throughout the study area. This is due to the comparable  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  of the quartzite and conglomerate units that make up the Group (Table C in the Appendix). The West Rand and Central Rand groups therefore exhibit contrasting seismic characters. This allows the interface between them to be delineated across the study area, despite the relative lack of borehole information in many parts. Unfortunately, the Booysens Formation of the Central Rand Group is poorly detected across the three domains; the shales of Kimberley Formation and the Bird Lava Member of the Krugersdorp Formation are not reported in boreholes or surface maps inside the study area.

A number of boreholes in the southeast of the study area did not provide stratigraphic details for the intersected lithologies. However, the contact between the Central Rand and West Rand groups was estimated using the thick successions of quartzite reported from borehole logs above alternating quartzite and shale units.

The VCF between the Central Rand Group and Ventersdorp Supergroup is prominent in the seismic sections. The Ventersdorp Supergroup is characterised as a seismically transparent package across most of the study area. Although both the Central Rand Group and Ventersdorp Supergroup are transparent the interface is detected due to the acoustic impedance contrast produced by the change in V<sup>p</sup> and ρ across the contact between the two units (Table C in the Appendix). The VCF overlies the West Rand Group in four areas indicating exposure of the West Rand group by erosion prior or synchronous to deposition of the VCR. This conclusion is supported by adjacent borehole data.

The Black Reef Formation forms the base of the Transvaal Supergroup and is the most prominent interface of the seven that were delineated across the study area. The unconformity is detected due to the contrasting  $V_p$  and  $\rho$  across the interface, and is enhanced by the acute orientations of the reflections in the truncated units. In a few locations across the study area, the Ventersdorp Supergroup is truncated against the overlying Black Reef Formation indicating exposure of the Ventersdorp Supergroup by erosion prior or synchronous to deposition of the Black Reef Formation. However, the Supergroup is absent in a large area in the southeast because it is unconformably (angular unconformity) overlain by the Karoo Supergroup indicating significant erosion or removal of the supracrustal sequences prior to deposition of the Karoo Supergroup.

The Transvaal Supergroup is detected across most of the study area, exhibiting the thickest intervals in the western half. The Supergroup extends to the southern and eastern margins of the model, but is absent in the east-southeast. The thickness of the Chuniespoort Group (of the Transvaal Supergroup) is relatively consistent across all three domains, ranging between 800m and 1500m. The upper limit of the range in the boreholes is ~1900m, but the boreholes that record thicker intersections are all located outside the study area. Additionally, several boreholes report the Platberg Group
unconformably overlying the Witwatersrand Supergroup, indicating that exposure and erosion took place prior to deposition of the Platberg group.

The Pretoria Group of the Transvaal Supergroup was best detected in the western half of the study area; it was either thin or absent in the eastern half. Additional outcrop inliers of the Pretoria Group in the Karoo Supergroup are exposed in the study area. These outcrops provide important constraints to the adjacent seismic sections.

The Karoo Supergroup is consistently imaged across its outcrop extents in the study area. The Supergroup is relatively thin with the deepest borehole intersection at 613.64m in the east of the study area and ~770m in the southeast from seismic sections. The Supergroup is reported as sub-horizontal in the 1:250,000 scale surface maps and this is supported by regional borehole data. The internal reflections of the Supergroup are also sub-horizontal, and the base interface is further enhanced in some parts due to the acute orientations of the truncated units below.

## *7.1.2. Structural features*

The integration and interpretation of datasets in 3D space provided insight into the stratotectonic architecture of the area surrounding the Vredefort dome. There are numerous model-scale strato-structural features that are interpreted in the seismic sections. These are illustrated in Figure 7.1.1 and are discussed below in chronological order. A summary of examples to these features is presented in Table 7.1.

Feature 1: A normal fault is observed in the modelled dataset and imaged in seismic section BH-268 in Domain 2 (Figure 5.2.18). It exhibits normal offset of reflections in the Dominion Group and the lower West Rand Group. It has an apparent throw of ~700m in the plane of the sections. The reflections in the lower West Rand Group are conformable across all three domains, i.e., there is no evidence of inclined reflections that terminate against distinct interfaces.

Feature 2: This feature relates to the interface between the West Rand and Central Rand groups. In some seismic sections the undulated erosional contact between the groups exhibits apparent normal offsets of 400 – 500m in the plane of the seismic sections. These are imaged in seismic sections OF-97 and OPR-50 (Figures 5.2.2 and 5.2.3, respectively). 3D projection of these faults reveal a strike of 032°and dips between 45° and 55°.

Feature 3: This feature relates to the VCF interface. The two areas in the east exhibit truncation of older units by the VCF. In the northwest and southwest of the modelled volume the boreholes report Platberg Group metasedimentary rocks unconformably overlying the Witwatersrand Supergroup; therefore the truncation is suggested to be younger and unrelated to the two in the east.

As described in Sections 6.4.4 and 6.4.5 the VCF truncates the Witwatersrand Supergroup (Figure 6.4.4B; seismic sections BH-171A and BH-171B; Figure 7.1.2). From these data, a listric fault with hangingwall rollover anticline can be delineated. However, the fault terminates against the base of the Karoo Supergroup, strongly supporting arguments that fault-fold formation took place prior to deposition of the Karoo Supergroup. The preservation of the Klipriviersberg Group either side of the fault cannot be used to constrain the timing unfortunately. The fault appears to be pre-VCF; however a rotational component to a post-VCF fault could also explain the similar elevations on either side.

Feature 4: This feature relates to the timing of the listric fault systems imaged in the study area. The most well developed system is delineated across several seismic sections in the southwest, as illustrated in Figure 7.1.3. The timing of these structures is constrained by offsets of reflections in the otherwise seismically transparent Ventersdorp Supergroup (seismic sections KV-117 and OB-74).

The faults offset the lower reflection in both seismic sections (labelled as displaced interface in Figure 7.1.3). The overlying reflection in seismic section OB-74 is continuous across the offset (labelled as continuous interface in Figure 7.1.3). The comparable, overlying reflection in seismic section KV-117 is also continuous, but is conformable with the fault orientation across the offset. It is suggested that the lower reflection represents the interface between the volcanics of the Klipriviersberg Group and the sediments of the unconformably overlying Kameeldoorns Formation.

The Goedgenoeg Formation is characterised by the introduction of volcanics that gradually cessed the sedimentary deposition of the Kameeldoorns Formation (Section 2.3). The change in  $V_p$  and ρ would produce a seismic reflection at the interface. Therefore the second reflection is suggested to represent the interface between the Kameeldoorns and Goedgenoeg formations. These observations suggest that the listric fault system is constrained as post-Klipriviersberg Group and pre to syn-Platberg Group, or extensional tectonics at that time, i.e., between ca. 2.7 Ga and ca. 2.64 Ga (Section 2).

Several other structures are interpreted to have formed during this period of extension tectonics, including:-

- 1. A low angle fault imaged near the basement interface (Figure 5.2.9) that may be associated with the truncation of the overlying units prior or synchronous to the deposition of the Platberg Group.
- 2. A smaller fault system imaged in the adjacent seismic section DE-512B. These structures are constrained to pre-Black Reef Formation due to the transparent internal reflections of the Ventersdorp Supergroup. However the close proximity of the section to the larger fault system suggests that it may be associated with it, as a marginal extent of the system. Figure 7.1.4 illustrates this proposed association, with the view aligned to the estimated strike of the imaged floor faults in each seismic section (i.e., 098°).
- 3. Additional listric faults imaged in the north of Domain 1 and Domain 2 (i.e., in sections OF-97 and OPR-50, and DV-274, respectively). Due to the transparent Ventersdorp Supergroup the timing of the faults in these sections can only be confined as post-VCF and pre-Black Reef

Formation. However, due to their similar structural forms they may associate with the same listric faults in the southwest, i.e., constrained as synchronous to deposition of the Platberg Group.

Feature 5: This feature relates to the interface of the Black Reef Formation. The interface is the most prominent in the seismic sections. It is enhanced by the changes in reflection orientations across the interface, between the overlying conformable units and the older acutely oriented units. As described in Section 6.4.5 the peneplation forms a truncation plane through the Ventersdorp Supergroup in a few places in the study area. Boreholes and the seismic sections imaged in the south and southeast indicate that the Black Reef Formation terminates against the Karoo Supergroup.

Feature 6: This feature relates to fold geometries in the Transvaal Supergroup. The folds are described in Section 5.2 as exhibiting gentle, long wavelength, low amplitude characteristics, and are imaged across all three domains. The youngest unit of the Transvaal Supergroup in the study area is the Magaliesberg Formation. The unit forms part of the folded sequence, therefore constraining the earliest timing of fold formation to post-Magaliesberg Formation, at  $2193 \pm 20$  Ma (Bumby et al., 2012).

The folds are pronounced in the west, whereas a single large, asymmetric, gentle, first-order scale anticline is detected in the east in Domain 2. This fold is hereby named the Vaal Dam Anticline (VDA). The northern section of the Vaal Dam lies adjacent to the hinge zone of the anticline and is elongated along the strike of the fold axial plane  $(\sim 230^{\circ})$ . Seismic section DV-272 stops at the edge of this northern part of the Vaal Dam, with the hinge of the anticline located beneath it in the seismic section (Figure 5.2.12). The Ventersdorp Supergroup and Central Rand Group are exposed on the northern margin of the Vaal Dam, coinciding with the uplift by the anticline.

Although the folds exhibit different wavelengths and amplitudes, they have corresponding subvertical axial planes, with smaller folds representing parasitic folds to the main anticline (Figure 7.1.5). The hinge zone of the VDA in Domain 2 is truncated against the Black Reef Formation, suggesting exposure and erosion prior to deposition of that Formation. However, the Formation and the overlying Chuniespoort and Pretoria groups are uplifted towards the hinge as well, constraining the earliest timing of the fold formation to late or post-Pretoria Group.

Feature 7: The VDA in Domain 2 is crosscut by a listric fault that exhibits a rollover anticline in the downthrown hangingwall (seismic section DV-270A, Figure 5.2.15). It is suggested that listric fault development took place after the folding event described above.

Listric faults of comparable scale were imaged elsewhere in Domains 2 and 3 (Figure 7.1.6 displays the faults imaged in the seismic sections). The 3D projection of these faults forms a fault plane that extends at least 65km from the southern margin of the dome to the eastern boundary of the modelled volume.

The faults in the seismic sections preserve their listric shapes and crosscut units that lie both on the margins of the dome as well as away from the dome, on the VDA. The preservation of geometry suggests that the listric fault is reasonably undeformed by the central uplift formation. However, the reflections on the margins of the dome are not as clearly defined as the reflections across the VDA. Therefore exact crosscutting relationships and interface geometries are relatively unconstrained on the margin of the dome.

The listric fault plane trends approximately 090° over the intersection with the VDA (oblique to the 050° trend of the axial plane of the VDA). Therefore the fault is unlikely to be directly associated with the fold formation. The fault orientation changes towards the dome and trends along the margin of the dome. These orientations indicate that both the dome and the VDA define the fault orientation. It is suggested that the listric fault may be associated with the impact. The listric fault may have formed part of the central uplift formation, possibly as a late-stage collapse. The local crosscutting relationships and timing of the collapse, as either late or post-central uplift formation, requires more detailed work, possibly via borehole analysis and more refined impact simulation modelling.

According to Reimold and Koeberl (2014), 5 – 8km of the original crater has been eroded, highlighting the degree of exhumation over time since the impact. The Karoo Supergroup was deposited over the exhumed and eroded crater remnant. The Supergroup in this area was covered in parts by Quaternary sedimentation.

## *7.1.3. The Vredefort impact event*

The deformation related to the Vredefort impact event is the dominant feature in the study area. However, it is important to define the pre-existing structural architecture in order to properly analyse impact-related deformation around the dome, particularly in the unexposed southeast. Several structural features have been presented in Section 7.1.2, and Figure 7.1.7 displays the 3D geological model highlighting the various axial traces of the folds modelled around the dome. The most prominent is the rim syncline surrounding the central uplift and core of the dome.

The concentric, asymmetric rim syncline was described by Reimold and Koeberl (2014) and reproduced in simulation modelling by Ivanov (2005). It is generally known as the Potchefstroom syncline. According to the modelled volumes in this study, the syncline is preserved entirely around the dome except in the southeast.

As described above, the hinge of a VDA in Domain 2 trends 050°. Prior to the impact, the fold hinge would have extended towards ~230° from its location in Domain 2, therefore preserving a northeast-southwest trending fold axis across the study area. The absence of the rim syncline in the southeast of the dome may be the result of the fold interference between the syncline and VDA (Figure 7.1.8). Numerical modelling of these interference patterns will be needed in order to properly test this mechanism.

In respect of the periclinal folds, a more descriptive term is proposed here. Stauffer (1988) defined the term 'coaptation fold' as, "The bend in a rock layer formed at the junction of two oblique, intersecting folds purely as a geometric consequence of the fitting together of the fold forms". Lisle et al. (1990) further refined coaptation folds stating that they "…are to be expected in situations where the folding process approaches that of isometric bending, i.e. during the buckling of thin layers of relatively high competency and during flexural slip folding". Lisle et al. (1990) further added that coaptation folds are, "topologically-necessary crumples on the flanks of domes and basins, rather than 'bends at the intersection of two oblique intersecting folds' and should be known as curvature-accommodation folds".

In relation to the Vredefort dome, the rim syncline exhibits isometric bending, as illustrated in the simulation modelling of Ivanov (2005). However the rim syncline is related to an impact, not diapirism and doming, so cannot be classified together with 'normal' curvature-accommodation folds. On the crustal scale, the "thin layers of relatively high competency" defined by Lisle et al. (1990) could be represented by the relatively thin quartzite units preserved throughout the supracrustal package. According to Simpson (1978) "flexural slip folding" of the shale units exists in the rim syncline, further supporting the definition of curvature-accommodation folds. It is proposed that the geometry formed by the central uplift is a modified version, or sub-order, of curvature-accommodation folds, and is here termed simply as 'impact-type curvature-accommodation' folds.

Seismic section FV-155 bisects the central uplift on the western margin of the dome (Figure 5.2.7). Due to the proximity to the dome, the orientation of the interfaces and imaged structures are suggested to be largely associated with the central uplift formation. Part of the process of the central uplift formation includes crustal rebound of the initial transient crater followed by gravitational collapse (Ivanov, 2005; Reimold and Koeberl, 2014; Jahn and Riller, 2015). Several aspects of the interpreted section correspond with published observations, as follows:-

1. Following the transient crater formation the crustal rebound resulted in the uplift of the basement and supracrustal sequences from beneath the vaporised zone of the impact site (see Fig. 14 of Ivanov, 2005). The upward movement during the rebound would have caused intense flexure of the supracrustal sequences as they were elevated towards the surface from depth. The sequences in the deep crustal levels located in the outer arc of the synformal hinge zone of the uplift would have experienced extension and detachment as the asymmetric synformal architecture was being formed. Reimold and Hoffmann (2016) argued that voluminous pseudotachylite breccias were formed by decompression melting during the rebound phase, followed by transport into dilational sites during the gravitational collapse phase. The West Rand Group in seismic section FV-155 exhibits detached internal reflections, separated by expansive and interconnected seismically transparent zones. It is suggested that this part of the outer synformal arc may have preserved large areas of this decompression process as the stresses from the gravitational collapse phase were concentrated in the higher levels of the central uplift.

- 2. Anastomosing structures were delineated adjacent to the inner arc of the synformal hinge. The anastomosing interfaces differ from the intrusive interfaces as they were detected using narrow, low amplitude, distorted/stippled internal reflections in the Central Rand Group. These anastomosing structures are suggested to be associated with the down and outward collapsing phase of the central uplift following the initial rebound phase, described by Jahn and Riller (2015).
- 3. The gravitational collapse of the collar rocks outwards from the dome is proposed by Jahn and Riller (2015) to have led to duplication and thickening of the collar. It is suggested that the discrepancies observed between the depth extents and the surface widths in seismic section FV-155 are associated with this duplication and thickening of the collar. This section is located in an area where the collar rocks are subvertical. The section is perpendicular to strike, and the margin of the section is perpendicular to the subhorizontal orientations of the imaged units. Therefore unit widths in the section are representative of the true thickness.
- 4. The Central Rand Group and Ventersdorp Supergroup exhibit vertical losses of ~3000m and  $\sim$ 1700m, respectively. In contrast, the West Rand Group exhibits a vertical thickening of  $\sim$ 1600m (illustrated in Figure 7.1.9). Considering the published  $V_p$  values of the imaged units the discrepancies in the measured widths are interpreted as being unrelated to the velocity fields used for migration and Time-Depth conversion. This is because they are too large to be accounted for by the variability in the velocity fields. For instance, for an artificial discrepancy no duplication or thickening can be involved and the width of the outcrop must match the width of the imaged units at depth. However, an additional 12 seconds of two-way-travel-time is then required to make up the  $\sim$ 3000m vertical loss imaged in the Central Rand Group (using the  $V_p$  values in Table C in the Appendix). The recorded length of the survey is not 12 seconds longer than adjacent seismic sections (all are six second record lengths). Therefore only the  $V_p$  can be altered; however to produce the 2.875x reduction in thickness at depth compared to the outcrop, the  $V_p$ for the Central Rand Group would need to be substantially increased. The collapse-induced radial fault formation described by Jahn and Riller (2015) as the mechanism for the thickening would account for the vertical losses in the two imaged units. The  $V_p$  for the West Rand Group would need to be increased to  $\sim$  6500 m/s in order for the vertical thickness to be reduced by the  $\sim$  1600m discrepancy calculated between the outcrop width and the depth extent. This value is far higher than the published velocities for any of the quartzite or shale units imaged in the study area (Table C in the Appendix). Jahn and Riller (2015) described a change in radial faults to concentric, listric orientations towards the dome core that limited the magnitude of thickening during the collapse phases. This may account for the vertical thickening of the West Rand Group.

### **7.2. Comparison with Published Work**

#### *7.2.1. Stratigraphic interpretation*

The units delineated in the study area correspond well with surface mapping and borehole information. The overall stratigraphy accords with published work (including Johnson et al, 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013; Frimmel, 2014). The Dominion Group is imaged as a narrow unit and exhibits scattered, moderate amplitude internal reflections in accordance with the arc basin and associated rifting environments described by Crow and Condie (1987), Clendenin (1988) and Frimmel (2014).

The West Rand Group is defined by a thick package of closely-spaced, moderate to highamplitude reflections. These sequences in the seismic sections correspond with the various depositional environments and disconformities described by Johnson et al. (2006). The Asazi Event at ca. 2.9 Ga of Manzi et al. (2013) described the termination of deposition of the West Rand Group by uplift, tilting and erosion. This contact morphology is delineated across the study area with several offsets on the erosional, undulating interface. The syn-tectonic alluvial braid-plain dominated sedimentation of the Central Rand Group under a collisional regime is hypothesised by Johnson et al. (2006), Dankert and Hein (2010), and Frimmel (2014), amongst others. The majority of the Group could not be detected in the seismic sections due to the dominance of quartzite and conglomerate units (similar  $V_p$  and  $\rho$ ). The low contrasting compositions throughout the Group produced a seismically transparent package.

The degradation of, and incision into the Witwatersrand Supergroup during the VCF deposition, was described by Johnson et al. (2006) and others. The incision forms an unconformity that was imaged in the seismic sections. Age constraints published by Kositcin et al. (2003) and Kositcin and Krapež (2004) support the concept of a stratigraphic hiatus and confined the formation of the unconformity to 120 million years after the deposition of the Central Rand Group.

The majority of the Ventersdorp Supergroup imaged in the seismic sections was characterised as a seismically transparent package. A few sections presented one or more good reflections that were assigned as the contact between the volcanics of the Klipriviersberg Group and the overlying volcanosedimentary sequences of the Platberg Group. These interfaces are supported by the literature (Pretorius et al., 1987; Armstrong et al., 1991; Weder, 1994; De Wet and Hall, 1994; Johnson et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013).

The Black Reef Formation in the seismic sections unconformably overlies the Witwatersrand and Ventersdorp supergroups, supporting the contact relationships defined in published work (e.g. Martin et al., 1998; Johnson et al., 2006; Sumner and Beukes, 2006; Manzi et al., 2013). The overlying Chuniespoort and Pretoria groups were detected in the seismic sections. The internal reflections of each Group coincide with stratigraphic relationships described by Pretorius et al. (1987), Weder (1994), Johnson et al. (2006), Dankert and Hein (2010), and Manzi et al. (2013).

The ~1.7 billion year hiatus between the Transvaal Supergroup and the Karoo Supergroup defines a major unconformity. This interface is imaged in seismic sections near the surface, and extends across half of the study area. The strong, contiguous internal reflections corresponds with the published V<sup>p</sup> and ρ values (Pretorius et al., 1987; Weder, 1994; De Wet and Hall, 1994). The distribution of the Karoo Supergroup in the seismic sections also corresponds with surface mapping and borehole information, where stratigraphic relationships concur with Catuneanu et al. (2005) and Johnson et al. (2006), amongst others.

## *7.2.2. Structural features*

Several publications present structural features and deformation events that are relevant to the study area. These include interpretations of seismic sections (Friese et al., 1995; Tinker et al., 2002), and tectonic evolution in the study area (Friese et al., 1995; Henkel and Reimold, 1998; Johnson et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013; Frimmel, 2014), including the late to post-Transvaal Supergroup folding event (Alexandre et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010). In consideration of the published tectonic evolution of the study area, and following the comparisons with this study, a combined tectonic history is presented in Figure 7.2.1.

In terms of published seismic section interpretations, Tinker et al. (2002) presented an interpretation for the crosscutting seismic sections KV-117, OB-41, and OB-74 (termed by them as a single section, "OB"). Figure 7.2.2 displays the interpretations from this study and the published version. The interpretation of Tinker et al. (2002) relied upon a single borehole, labelled "A" in the publication, and an intersecting seismic section, termed "AG", as depth constraints. Borehole "A" and section "AG" are not part of the dataset in this study. For reference seismic section KV-120 intersects section OB-41 adjacent to the collar position of borehole "A".

The published borehole coincides very well with the imaged units in seismic sections KV-120, OB-41, and OB-74. The interfaces concur and the structural features are similar in both interpretations, i.e., preservation of a large horst preserved between sets of normal faults. In the area adjacent to borehole "A" Tinker et al. (2002) proposed long wavelength folds that post-date the deposition of the Hekpoort Formation. These folds coincide with the interpretations of folding presented in this study.

In comparison, the interpretation by Tinker et al. (2002) exhibits vertical exaggeration, and slight differences in the imaged depths of some interfaces. The relatively large offsets imaged adjacent to the horst block correspond with the interpretation in this study, albeit to a slightly greater vertical exaggeration in the publication. The offsets imaged in the north-northeast part of the published interpretation are very small; therefore exhibit greater subjectivity than what was accepted for this study. However the general uplift towards the horst structure is preserved in both interpretations. Overall, these two sections exhibit similar structural regimes, i.e., listric faults developed post-emplacement of the Klipriviersberg Group, peneplation during the Black Reef Formation, and post-Hekpoort Formation folding.

Several 2D reflection seismic and gravity sections were reinterpreted by Friese et al. (1995) who produced a map of the Witwatersrand basin superimposed with various structures. The interpretation includes a series of thrust faults that dominate the unexposed southeast. However, these thrusts were not imaged in the seismic sections (Figure 7.2.3). Moreover, the seismic sections do not exhibit reverse fault offsets. Instead the structural features described above provide adequate explanation to the observed preservation in the southeast. It is suggested that if the thrust faults do exist, they contain offsets that were too small to be imaged with confidence in this study.

In comparison to the structural features discussed in Section 7.1.2, the interpretations concur with the literature presented in Section 2, as well as several published tectonic events (including Johnson et al., 2006; Alexandre et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013; Frimmel, 2014). The interpretation of a tectonic event after the deposition of the West Rand group and prior to deposition of the central group (the Asazi Event of Manzi et al., 2013) is supported in the study area. This was because many seismic sections exhibited an undulate, erosional interface between the West Rand and Central Rand groups. The interface also includes several localised fault offsets, with the possibility that smaller scale offsets are more frequent, but were too small to be delineated confidently.

Collisional tectonics reported by Johnson et al. (2006), Dankert and Hein (2010), and Frimmel (2014) and others, describe the closure of the Central Rand Group basin associated with folding, faulting, and uplift on the margins, particularly in the west, northwest, and north. This tectonic event is termed the Umzawami Event by Dankert and Hein (2010). Unfortunately, such structures were not imaged through the seismically transparent package of the Central Rand Group. The preservation of thrust offsets synchronous to the deposition of the Central Rand Group may have existed in the study area and exhibited offsets that were too small in scale to be imaged confidently.

A well-developed listric fault system was imaged across the study area. The system is constrained as synchronous to the deposition of the Platberg Group and extension during the Hlukana-Platberg event of Manzi et al. (2013).

The Transvaal Supergroup contains two fold systems in the seismic sections, as discussed previously. One system is associated with the Vredefort impact, the other is associated with a late to post-Transvaal Supergroup fold event. Dankert and Hein (2010) proposed the formation of a late to post-Transvaal Supergroup fold-thrust belt they named the Ukubambana Event, which they tentatively dated at ca.  $2.2 - 2.0$  Ga. Alexandre et al. (2006) provide further refinements to the timing of the foldthrust belt. Their geochronological  ${}^{40}\text{Ar}^{39}\text{Ar}$  dates for syn-kinematic white micas in phyllites placed a deformation event at  $2042.1 \pm 2.9$  Ma. They named the deformation the Transvaalide fold-thrust belt. A second, less well-defined date was also found, referring to an older event at ca. 2150 Ma. The better constrained fold event at  $2042.1 \pm 2.9$  Ma is proposed as being associated with the late to post-Transvaal Supergroup fold event in this study. It is further proposed that the Ukubambana and Transvaalide foldthrust belts are the same deformation.

#### *7.2.3. The Vredefort impact event*

The Vredefort impact has been discussed in Section 7.1.3 and the central uplift formation was described in terms of numerical modelling by Ivanov (2005). The regional emplacement and architecture is described by Reimold and Koeberl (2014), and the central uplift formation kinematics is described by Jahn and Riller (2015). For comparison with the simulation modelling of Ivanov (2005) the geological model produced in this study is overlain with Figure 13 and Figure 15B of the publication. The two published figures illustrate cross-sectional views of the central uplift formation. The two overlays are displayed in Figure 7.2.4 and Figure 7.2.5.

Figure 13 of Ivanov (2005) is overlain in Figure 7.2.4 and illustrates the formation of the central uplift 400 seconds after the impact. The deformation displays reasonable correspondence with the preserved units in the geological model. Note though that the northern extent of the geological model is only inferred and not constrained by seismic data (i.e., left side of Figure 7.2.4C and Figure 7.2.5C).

The largest difference between the simulation and the geological model was the asymmetry of the central uplift geometry. The eastern and southern extents of the geological model exhibited upright and shallow dipping units. The simulation modelling of Ivanov (2005) assumed consistent basement and supracrustal elevations. Therefore the pre-existing basement topography was not accounted for in the simulation. The subsequent partial collapse of the central uplift on the southeast margin proposed in this study was also not produced by the simulation.

An additional discrepancy illustrated in the overlays is the variation in horizontal diameters between the simulated and observed dome core. Measured from east to west, the core is ~7km wider in the simulation (Figure 7.2.5B). Measured from north to south, the core is  $\sim$ 3km wider in the simulation (Figure 7.2.5C). The wider simulations have therefore slightly overestimated the diameter of the core and collar rocks by  $\sim$ 15% on the west-east section and  $\sim$ 6% on the north-south section. The numerical simulation assumed that the present erosion surface was 7 – 9km below the original surface. However, a vertical shift of the estimated erosion level would not compensate for the measured discrepancies because the intersection of the geological model is already located at the level of the narrowest part of the dome in the simulation.

The rim syncline and interference with the pre-existing folds is discussed in Section 7.1.3. The proposed interference mechanism might explain the absence of the rim syncline in the southeast. However, the interference proposes a new mechanism that does not concur with earlier work by Friese et al. (1995) and Henkel and Reimold (1998).

The review of African impact structures by Reimold and Koeberl (2014) included the seismic interpretation of Friese et al. (1995) and the gravity interpretation of Henkel and Reimold (1998). To account for the central uplift asymmetry Reimold and Koeberl (2014) also proposed tilting between 3° and 30° towards the northwest prior to the impact event. The seismic interpretations by Friese et al. (1995) are discussed in Section 7.2.2, and the relative prominence of the thrust faults is put into question by the uplifts, including the anticlinal fold and the listric faults. These overshadowed the small-scale offsets of the proposed thrusts, at least in the southeast.

The absence of listric faults in the interpretations led Henkel and Reimold (1998) to suggest that the thrust faults were solely responsible for the apparent shortening and uplift of the southeast margin. They estimated the shortening to be in the order of 65km, associating the large displacement with Namaqua-Natal orogenic activity (ca.  $1 - 1.2$  Ga). The findings in this study do not support these published interpretations that characterise thrusting as the dominant deformation.

The gravity section presented in Reimold and Koeberl (2014) was modified after Henkel and Reimold (1998), but is referred to here because the online version of the later publication was of very poor quality copy. The gravity section exhibits an elevated basement in the southeast. This concurs with the interpretation in this study, albeit with a different explanation given by the authors. It was also not necessary to invoke tilting prior to the impact, as the interference between the VDA during the central uplift formation, discussed previously, may account for the sub-planar orientations. However, this hypothesis requires further numerical simulation or mechanical testing.

A brief note must be made here regarding the profile interpretation of seismic section FV-154 (Figure 7.2.17.2B). The mantle "spur" interpreted below the centre of the Vredefort dome is only speculative. It is unconstrained by the poorly resolved reflections in this part of the profile. It was an attempt to explain the "bulls-eye" high gravity anomaly observed over the centre of the dome, i.e., introduction of higher density upper mantle material. This speculative interpretation differs from Ivanov (2005) whose model produces a flat Moho instead.

## **7.3. Synthesis of work**

The integration of large borehole, mapping, and geophysical datasets into a single 3D workspace has shown that both regional and local scale stratigraphic and structural relationships can be seamlessly observed and analysed. In the study area, several extracted features of the interpreted dataset provides support to published work, such as the Asazi Event, Hlukana-Platberg Event, and Ukubambana/Transvaalide Event (Alexandre et al., 2006; Dankert and Hein, 2010; Manzi et al., 2013). The results were integrated with published information about the strato-tectonic history of the Witwatersrand basin, and are illustrated together in Figure 7.2.1. Some limitations of the dataset such as seismic section quality and the seismically transparent units restricted the interpretation of structural features related to some tectonic events, such as the Umzawami fold-thrust belt of Dankert and Hein (2010).

As with all geological models, the degree of subjectivity is associated with the availability of constraining data. A limiting factor in this study was a combination of the large area  $(\sim 11600 \text{ km}^2)$ , relatively widely-spaced 2D reflection seismic lines, and comparatively few boreholes (208 boreholes). As presented in Section 6, the modelled contacts had to be supported by additional wireframes to fill in the gaps between the constraining data. These limitations restricted the 3D geometric relationships required to constraint specific deformation events.

There were a few variations between the findings in this study and published works. The variations, in particular, were with regard to the southeast margin of the Vredefort dome. Previous researchers interpreted the southeast margin as a series of northeast – southwest trending normal faults (Pretorius et al., 1986), or northwest-directed Mesoproterozoic compression and thrust fault development followed by later tilting (Friese et al., 1995, and adopted by later researchers such as Henkel and Reimold, 1998, Reimold and Koeberl, 2014, amongst others). However, the findings in this study show that the southeast margin presents complicated basement topographies. The architecture around the dome was influenced by a pre-existing elevated basement, fold interference during the central uplift formation, and partial collapse of the central uplift in the southeast. However, further numerical or mechanical modelling of the impact with these constraints is recommended, to test the plausibility of these propositions.



\* Age of Vryburg Formation is used as an oldest depositional estimate because it constrains the Schmidtsdrif Subgroup that is overlain by the Black Reef Formation

*Figure 7.1.1 Schematic chart highlighting the seven main structural features imaged in the study area. The stratigraphy has been included as a cross-reference to the estimated timing of the structures.*



Table 7.1 Summary of structural features and associated seismic section examples.

erosional contact between West 1





*Figure 7.1.2 Seismic section BH-171 (combined BH-171A and B) visualised in 3D. Viewing orientation is looking horizontally towards 315°. An anomalous, narrow, subvertical column of strong reflections is located beneath the elevated basement.*



*Figure 7.1.3 Well-developed listric fault system imaged in the southern half of Domain 1. Timing is constrained to post-Klipriviersberg Group and syn-Platberg Group. The structures were also imaged in seismic section KV-120, but it was made transparent for unobstructed clarity of the system. Viewing direction is towards 070° and plunging 10°.*



*Figure 7.1.4 Floor faults of the listric fault system imaged in the southwest, projected and aligned in 3D space along a strike of 098°. The floor faults on each seismic section are highlighted in purple. The viewing direction is tilted by 41° for better perspective; note that the elevations of the fault systems are equivalent across the sections.*



Plunge  $+10$ <br>Azimuth 230

*Figure 7.1.5 Estimated geometry of a proposed fold system that combines the imaged folds in the Transvaal Supergroup. The system is illustrated as a main antiform/synform pair, with parasitic folds imaged in the limb of the synform. The proposed antiformal hinge in the north corresponds with mapped outcrop and a change in dip orientation of the Black Reef Formation towards the north. The viewing direction is sub-parallel to the fold axis, i.e. ~230°, providing a cross-sectional view of the synform geometry. The plunge of 10° is not related to the folds but only provides some perspective for the reader.*





*Figure 7.1.6 3D projection of the trend of low-angle and listric faults (orange) imaged in the seismic sections on the southern and eastern margin of the dome. A) Transparent seismic sections that comprised the faults. B) Equivalent view as (A) but with the basement volume included for reference. Viewing orientation is towards the west, plunging 22° for perspective.*



*Figure 7.1.7 Geological model highlighting axial traces imaged on the contact between the Chuniespoort and Pretoria groups (i.e. the Pretoria Group volume was omitted from the view to show the contact surface). The proposed periclinal folds are preserved in the rim syncline around the dome. The Vaal Dam is included as reference to the VDA axial trace being subparallel to the elongate northern section of the dam. View orientation is towards 028°, plunging 36°. Key: blue = Chuniespoort Group; green = Ventersdorp Supergroup; orange = Central Rand Group; brown = West Rand Group; red = Dominion Group; pink = Basement.*



*Figure 7.1.8 Proposed solution to the absence of the rim syncline in the southeast margin of the dome (i.e., fold interference mechanism). View is parallel to the axial trace of the Vaal Dam Anticline (VDA) in Domain 2. The fold axial trace projection of the VDA in the southeast margin of the dome coincides with the rim syncline projection. The proposition is made that the rim syncline, during the formation of the central uplift, interfered with the pre-existing VDA. The interference of the opposing geometries resulted in a sub-planer orientation.*



## **Central uplift collar**

Figure 7.1.9 Interpretation of seismic section FV-155 showing the discrepancy in the vertical and horizontal thicknesses of the Ventersdorp Supergroup and the Central Rand and West Rand groups (-1.7km, -3km, and +1.6km respectively). The proposed mechanisms for the discrepancies include those described by Jahn and Riller (2015), i.e. collapse-phase radial and concentric faults. Note the scale is in parity as the vertical exaggeration is negligible at 1.03x.



\* Age of Vryburg Formation is used as an oldest depositional estimate because it constrains the Schmidtsdrif Subgroup that is overlain by the Black Reef Formation

*Figure 7.2.1 Schematic chart of deposition and tectonic events for the study area, incorporating findings in this study and published work.*





*Figure 7.2.2 Interpretation comparison of Line OB from Tinker et al. (2002) with depths referenced to current study. A) Published interpretation (slightly modified) after Tinker et al. (2002) (Figure 11B in publication). B) Interpretation in this study of the same line (comprising lines KV-117, OB-41, and OB-74) with borehole "A" indicated to guide reference in both images. Note, vertical scale in (B) is in parity with horizontal scale, whereas (A) is vertically exaggerated.*



*Figure 7.2.3 Complementary views A and B displaying Domains 2 and 3 with the numerous northwest-directed thrust fault traces (red) proposed in Figure 27 of Friese et al. (1995). The "X" symbols highlight the intersections between the red fault traces with the 2D seismic section interpretations. The inset image in A is a reference to the original map. The shaded portion of the inset shows areas that are not viewed in either figure. The blue polylines in the inset indicate the seismic line locations. Boreholes are also included to illustrate the data coverage and are colour-coded by lithology type (note, the yellow markers at the top of each borehole are collar markers). Leapfrog Geo® has no structural symbology for polylines so the northwest thrust direction of these faults is indicated in each view by the grey arrow. For better illustration of these intersections some obstructing seismic sections have been made transparent. Comparisons should only be made where thrust fault traces intersect seismic sections.*



*Figure 7.2.4 Geological model with duplicated overlays of Figure 13 of Ivanov (2005), highlighting the consistencies and inconsistencies between the two models. A) Overview of georeferenced figures. B) (Below) Looking north with cross section through geological model. C) (Below) Looking east with cross section though geological model.*







*Figure 7.2.5 Geological model with overlays of duplicated Figure 15B of Ivanov (2005), highlighting the consistencies and inconsistencies between the two models. The original figure depicted only one half of the symmetrical deformation, so effectively the figure has been replicated four times for this comparison. Areas shaded in grey represent the basement and variously hatched areas are the supracrustal sequences. The dashed horizontal lines denote the range in the level of erosion to present surface (depths of 7.5km and 9.5km). The isoline labels in the figure by Ivanov (2005) represent the initial rock depth in km. The main difference is the asymmetry of the geological model. A) Overview of georeferenced figures. B) (Below) Looking north with cross section through geological model. C) (Below) Looking east with cross section though geological model.*









# **Chapter 8 Conclusions**

In summary, the borehole and surface mapping data were imported into Leapfrog Geo® and together with imported 2D reflection seismic sections, were used to produce wireframes for 3D geological modelling. Twenty eight post-stack migrated 2D reflection seismic sections were available in the study area. Several velocity values, obtained from previous VSP and borehole geophysical surveys conducted in the Witwatersrand basin, were used to constrain the seismic interpretations. The seismic sections were depth-converted using a constant velocity of 6000 m/s as there was no VSP data or borehole geophysical logs available to constrain more accurate velocity values for depth conversion.

Artificial data issues hindered picking of horizons in Kingdom Suite®. Therefore the migrated seismic sections were exported as non-georeferenced sections and picking of horizons was done in ArcGIS®. Large separation distances between the 2D seismic lines as well as limited fault functionality in Leapfrog Geo® hindered the representation of fault planes in the final 3D model.

Eight geological volumes were created for the 3D model using seven major lithological contacts. These contacts were picked from the 2D reflection seismic sections. A host of digitised seismic interface wireframes, supportive wireframes, and orientation disks were used to create the 3D surface interpolations of the contacts between the eight modelled volumes. The seven major contacts were seismically imaged in the study area. The main restrictions on the imaging included the wide coverage of the Karoo Supergroup outcrop, and the relatively sparse, in places shallow, borehole coverage.

The elevated basement in the eastern half of the study area is found to form part of a pre-existing basement architecture at the time of the Vredefort impact. A new term is proposed that refines the description of the periclines mapped at surface and imaged in the seismic data in the western half of the study area, i.e., impact-type curvature-accommodation folds. The term is a proposed sub-order of curvature-accommodation folds, itself a refined form of coaptation folds.

Seven structural features are discussed from the modelling results. These include, (1) a normal fault in the lower West Rand Group, (2) an undulate, normal faulted truncation plane, constrained as post-West Rand Group and pre or early-Central Rand Group, (3) a truncation plane and local enhanced uplift constrained as pre to syn-VCF, (4) a listric fault system, constrained as post-Klipriviersberg Group and syn-Platberg Group, (5) a truncation plane, constrained as syn-Black Reef Formation, (6) folds, constrained as post-Magaliesberg Formation and pre-Vredefort impact, and (7) a listric fault across the southeastern margin of the Vredefort dome, constrained as late to post-central uplift formation.

The Asazi Event proposed by Manzi et al. (2013) is supported in the study area. The localised extension observed in some areas provides possible evidence for local scale variation during the deformation process. Due to the seismically transparent Central Rand Group the crosscutting structures in the package were difficult to image, i.e., the Umzawami Event by Dankert and Hein (2010). The VCF and the Ventersdorp Supergroup exhibit an evolution from enhanced uplift and peneplation to rifttype extension. Rift-type extension seismically defined in the Ventersdorp Supergroup in several places in the study area supports the Hlukana-Platberg Event of Manzi et al. (2013).

The late to post-Transvaal Supergroup and pre-Vredefort impact fold events proposed by Dankert and Hein (2010) and Alexandre et al. (2006) are supported in this study. However it is proposed that the respective Ukubambana and Transvaalide fold-thrust belts described by these authors represent the same deformation event. The large asymmetric, gentle, first-order scale anticline imaged in Domain 2 is associated with this fold event, and is named here as the Vaal Dam Anticline (VDA). The interference of the rim syncline during the central uplift formation with the pre-existing VDA is proposed. This interference is suggested to explain the planar orientations of the units and absence of the rim syncline and VDA in the southeast. However this interference mechanism requires further testing.

The seismically defined structures in seismic section FV-154 are discussed in terms of the formation phases of the central uplift. A couple suggested correlations are made between the section and the central uplift formation; (1) an array of interconnected faults located in the outer arc of the synform were possibly formed during the crustal rebound phase; (2) a series of anastomosing structures in the hinge of the synform suggested to have formed in response to the gravitational collapse of the rebounded crust, as part of the accommodation structures.

In seismic section FV-154 the Central Rand Group and Ventersdorp Supergroup measured at depth, beyond the synform, exhibit vertical losses in thickness relative to the surface outcrop extent in the collar rocks. In contrast, the West Rand Group exhibits vertical gain in thickness. These depth discrepancies are interpreted as being unrelated to the velocity fields used for migration and Time-Depth conversion. This is because they are too large to be accounted for by the variability in the velocity fields. However the discrepancies can be explained by the thickening and duplication of the collar rocks, as described by Jahn and Riller (2015).

The seismic section comparisons with Tinker et al. (2002) show comparable structural regimes that depict similar tectonic events. These events include, (1) extensional deformation post-deposition of the Klipriviersberg Group, (2) peneplation during the Black Reef Formation, and (3) fold development post-deposition of the Hekpoort Formation. One major difference to Tinker et al. (2002) is that the published interpretation does not illustrate the depth association of the faults with an extensional system, as proposed in this study. However due to their significantly limited borehole and high-resolution reflection seismic data, it is suggested that their interpretation was inherently restricted.

The interpretations of thrust faults by Friese et al. (1995) are not supported in this study. Instead the findings in this study suggest that any potential thrust offsets are greatly overshadowed by the larger scale extension-dominated deformation that is absent in their interpretations. The possible thrustassociated uplift in the southeast collar rocks proposed by Friese et al. (1995) is therefore suggested to be a relatively small factor.

Later publications that adopted the interpretation by Friese et al. (1995) resulted in discrepancies between those publications and this study. These discrepancies include, (1) tilting of between 3° and 30° towards the northwest prior to the impact event by Reimold and Koeberl (2014), and (2) shortening in the southeast on the order of 65km and direct association of the large displacement with Namaqua-Natal orogenic activity by Henkel and Reimold (1998).

The simulation modelling of Ivanov (2005) is supported in this study, albeit with a few differences. These differences are largely related to the pre-existing architecture of the basement and supracrustal sequences. The modelling in this study shows a complicated architecture that was not accounted for in the relatively simplified architecture modelled by Ivanov (2005).

This study demonstrates the advantages of integrating high-resolution reflection seismic data, borehole data, and surface mapping into a single 3D spatial environment. The integration highlighted new structural relationships that benefited from the creation a robust 3D spatial platform. This enabled a deeper understanding of both the tectonic history and 3D strato-structural architecture of the Neoarchaean-Palaeoproterozoic Witwatersrand basin. The 3D spatial integration also highlights the importance of defining pre-existing basement and supracrustal architecture in order to better understand the formation and preservation of giant terrestrial impacts.

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## **Appendix**



# Figure A. Stratigraphy with geochronology (1/3)



## Figure A cont. Stratigraphy with geochronology (2/3)

Figure A cont. Stratigraphy with geochronology (3/3)

## Key:

- (1) Alexandre et al. (2006; Micas in Phyllite, single-grain  $^{40}Ar^{39}Ar$  step-heating laser probe)
- (2) Armstrong et al. (1991; Single zircon U-Pb SHRIMP)
- (3) Bumby et al. (2012; Compilation of previous publications, no method stated)
- (4) Burger and Coertze (1973-1974; Rb-Sr whole rocks age)
- (5) Catuneanu et al. (2005; Volcanic units, fossil assemblages, no methods stated)
- (6) Cornell et al. (1996; Ongeluk Formation; Pb-Pb whole rock isochron)
- (7) Dankert and Hein (2010; Unpublished)
- (8) Kamo et al. (1996; authigenic, unshocked zircon in pseodotchylite; U-Pb SHRIMP)
- (9) Kositcin and Krapež (2004; Youngest concordant detrital zircon grain)
- (10) Kositcin et al. (2003; Igneous-detrital xenotime/zircon aggregate)
- (11) Martin et al. (1998; Single zircon U-Pb SHRIMP)
- (12) Nelson et al. (1999; Kuruman Formation. From R.A. Armstrong, no method stated)
- (13) Nelson et al. (1999; Unpublished data from A.F. Trendall, no method stated)
- $(14)$  Poujol et al.  $(2003)$

 $(15)$  Rasmussen et al.  $(2013; Zircons$  in felsic tuff bed & matrix-filling titanite cement; U-Pb SHRIMP)

- (16) Rasmussen et al. (2013; Zircons in felsic tuff bed; U-Pb SHRIMP)
- (17) Van Niekirk and Burger (1978; ID-TIMS)
- (18) Walveren and Martini (1995; Single zircon Pb-evaporation)
- (19) Walveren et al. (1990; Pb-Pb age)
- (20) Zeh et al. (2015; Marginal Zone of BC; Single zircon U-Pb CA-ID-TIMS)
- (vv) Volcanic or pyroclastic unit









#### **Table A3: Surface information: topographic data, geological maps, and geophysical images**

Conditioning and coordinate conversion of maps. Two methods could be applied:

- 1. Using ArcGIS®, a map layout is created of the image that includes the base coordinate system grid (WGS84 – UTM35S) in the output map. The map is exported as a tiff image and georeferenced in Leapfrog Geo® using the grid lines. A simple three-point georeferencing tool in LeapFrog Geo® is automatically initiated when importing images. The image is then loaded into the 3D modelling space and can be draped onto the topographic surface.
- 2. Using Global Mapper<sup>TM</sup>, the georeferenced image is opened and the coordinate system is changed in the Tools menu to WGS84 – UTM35S. The image is exported as a new geotiff to be imported into Leapfrog Geo® (no georeferencing inside Leapfrog Geo® required). Global Mapper™ was also used to combine several georeferenced images and export them as a single georeferenced image. This was useful when combining geological maps so they can be viewed together, e.g. the 1:250,000 scale geology maps, several of which covered the study area.

Digitised surface mapping structure points

- 1. In ArcGIS® create a new structure shapefile ('Points' type) and add new table columns for:
	- a. Structure Type (string) b. Source Map (string) c. Strike (short integer) d. Dip (short integer) e. Dip Direction (short integer)
	- f. Azimuth (short integer)
	- g. Plunge (short integer)
	- h. Supergroup (string)
	- i. Group (string)
	- j. Subgroup (string)
	- k. Formation (string)
	- l. Comments (string)
	- m. X WGS84 UTM35S (double integer)
	- n. Y\_WGS84\_UTM35S (double integer)
- 2. Load available geology maps (1:1,000,000 and 1:250,000 scale maps, and a 1:50,000 scale map of Vredefort), digitise each structure point and input the information into the various columns of the structure shapefile. The x and y coordinate columns can be created using the "Add XY Coordinates" tool in the ArcToolbox application, and renaming the columns as those stated in steps 1.m and 1.n.

#### **Table A4: Cross-Sectional Information**

Summary steps for converting seismic lines to WGS84 – UTM35S:

- 1. In Kingdom Suite® export the shot point coordinates for the line into an excel spreadsheet (i.e. in the local grid format).
- 2. Convert to the LO27 coordinate system that the ArcGIS® trace shapefile is in. Pick out a reference point in the line trace to match points in both coordinate system datasets, in order to georeference the points of the local grid space as the LO27 coordinate space.
- 3. Find the differences between the respective X and Y coordinates of the reference points in the local grid and the LO27 grid. Generally the X difference is close to 100,000 and the Y difference is around 100. Using these two values add/subtract them to/from the rest of the local grid shot point coordinates to bring the entire line into the LO27 grid system. Plot these points in ArcGIS® to see whether adding or subtracting the values will provide the correctly orientated geometry because the projected values should match the geometry of the trace shapefile. This step requires flexibility as some lines have odd local grids. The idea is to try "fit" the line geometry of the local grid into the LO27 grid. The lines generally follow the roads so have unique non-linear geometries that makes numerically "fitting" the lines easier.
- 4. Prepare for UTM conversion by saving a new Excel file with only the LO27 coordinates for the shotpoints.
- 5. Convert to UTM. In ArcGIS® import the LO27 coordinates Excel file and save the data as a new shapefile. In the ArcToolbox find the "Projection & Transformations" menu and use the "Project" function to analyse the LO27 shapefile and output a new shapefile with a coordinate projection of WGS84 – UTM Zone 35S. In this new UTM shapefile add X and Y coordinate columns to the attribute table using the "Add XY Coordinates" function in the "Data Management Tools"  $\Rightarrow$ "Features" menu of the ArcToolbox. This function will add the UTM coordinates to each shotpoint in the table because this table must then be exported to a .txt file.
- 6. Update the Kingdom Suite® line coordinates. In a new Excel file open the .txt file of the UTM projected shotpoints. The coordinate values contain commas which Excel doesn't recognise as numbers. Use the "Find/Replace" function to replace the commas with null (i.e. replace "," with a space, "") in order to change the value type from text to numbers. Open the Kingdom Suite® coordinate table for the specific line (World Coordinate dialog) and overwrite (Copy/Paste) the local grid shotpoint values with the UTM values in the Excel file. The line will now be projected in the WGS84 – UTM35S coordinate system.
- 7. Repeat steps  $1 6$  for all 28 seismic lines.

### **Table A5: Identification Process of Priority Boreholes for Digitising**

- 1. Create Excel table with headings that include;
	- a. Seismic Line #
	- b. Borehole ID
	- c. Borehole Depth
	- d. Digital Log? (Y/N)
	- e. Off Section (m)
	- f. Comments

2. Import 2D seismic lines and boreholes (including CG-digitised lithology) into LeapFrog Geo® and analyse data as per the Excel table above.

- a. Start from one end of basin (e.g. north east corner); for each seismic line look for boreholes that lie close to it (parallel to the line section), preferably within a few hundred meters.
- b. In the Excel table record the borehole ID, borehole depth, whether the hole has an available lithology log or not, how far off section the borehole is, and comment on any specific characteristics about the borehole (e.g. on regional strike, wedge holes use same collar location etc.)
- c. In the seismic lines layer use the symbols window to hide lines which have been analysed, to limit duplication and confusion.
- d. Not all the lines have boreholes in vicinity.
- e. Note in a separate Excel tab which lines do not display/plot in Leapfrog (i.e. no data).
- 3. Access Database creation and data input.
	- a. Open Access (file saved as "CG Wits Basin DD") and import raw data into new tables for:
		- i. All borehole collars.
		- ii. All lithologies.
		- iii. All seismic lines.
	- b. Create a new table of seismic lines which have corresponding boreholes and import the data collected in the Excel file from step (1).
	- c. Create a new table for lines that did not plot in Leapfrog and import the data from the Excel tab in step (2.e).
	- d. Query the seismic lines which do not have borehole association.
	- e. Query further the boreholes corresponding to seismic lines:
		- i. Drillholes which have available lithology logs.
		- ii. Boreholes which do not have available lithology logs.
- 4. In ArcGIS® plot the corresponding boreholes from the database table in step (3.b) and identify all the borehole ID's for each collar position (i.e. selecting both parent and deflection ID's). This step extracts boreholes with duplicated collar locations (i.e. deflection holes) that were not picked up in the LeapFrog Geo® stage.
	- a. Create a buffer zone (1m) around each borehole collar and save the buffer as a new shapefile. This zone now overlaps all borehole ID's in that collar position.



- 5. Import the table from step (4.b) into the Access Database in a new table, e.g. 'Collar IDs in 1m Buffer'.
- 6. Go to the CG and photograph all borehole log sheets in this table for digitising.



## **Table A7: Procedure to Estimate Depths not Stated in the Borehole Logs**

- 1. With the photograph opened in Windows Photo Viewer zoom in to where there are at least two depth values in the log. Do not change the zoom level, only pan to other parts of the log.
- 2. Using a ruler, measure the length (in millimetres) on the computer screen (Screen Length) of the log, between two logged depths (Depth A and Depth B) and note this distance (in an open space in the lithology log data capturing Excel spreadsheet being used).
- 3. Calculate the logged thickness (in metres) between the two depths (i.e. Depth B minus Depth A = Thickness C). Note the thickness.
- 4. Calculate the Ratio of logged metres per millimetre of computer screen (m/mm), i.e. Thickness C divided by Screen Length  $=$  Ratio.
- 5. Using a ruler, measure the length (in millimetres) of the log, on the computer screen, from the last stated depth down to the absent measurement depth, note this distance.
- 6. Multiply this distance by the Ratio (i.e. mm x m/mm = m) to estimate the logged distance (in metres) from the existing depth to the absent depth. Add this distance to the existing depth to get the value of the absent depth.

## **Table A8: Interpretation Process of Each Seismic Line**

- 1. Commence at the surface and interpret downwards in order to use surface/near-surface constraining information (i.e. surface mapping and boreholes).
- 2. Incorporate adjacent surface mapping and borehole information as well as previously interpreted cross-cutting seismic lines.
- 3. Identify and justify major reflectors using given information (i.e. surface mapping, boreholes, stratigraphy, and cross-cutting seismic lines).
- 4. Identify and justify minor reflectors (illustrate with discrete horizons). These horizons are not defined or continuous enough to be used in regional correlation for the geological model.
- 5. Identify and justify major structural breaks in the reflectors and indicate using discrete fault horizons.
- 6. Dynamic interpretation of all cross-cutting seismic line sections. Review and adjust interpreted sections as new sections are incorporated. Major reflectors must be consistent throughout the crosscutting seismic line sections while still honouring the data.

In addition to these steps a couple important aspects were considered during the interpretations.

- 1. Honour the data with logical and simple interpretations, particularly in poorly resolved areas of the section. Therefore limit the illustrated horizons to the larger-scale, lower-order features.
- 2. To avoid over-interpretation do not use excessive/overly-complicated structural interpretations to account for reflection disturbances. Some small-scale breaks (less than a couple hundred meters offset) can be incorporated within larger-scale fault systems but these must be limited.

## **Table A9: Procedure for Creating Each Vertical Mesh in Leapfrog Geo®**

- 1. Create a new project called "Seismic Line Mesh Creation". Repeat steps 2 to 13 for each of the 28 seismic lines.
- 2. Import the line trace from Kingdom Suite®.
- 3. Create a new polyline for the line trace and digitise the zigzagging line trace to create a linear polyline with no breaks or zigzags.
- 4. Use the "Estimate Structure Data" tool to extract the points from the polyline.
- 5. Export the structure data points to a csv file.
- 6. Edit the csv file in Excel to omit structural information as it is artificial, leaving only the X, Y and Z columns.
- 7. Import the XYZ points back into LeapFrog Geo® and check for consistency with the original line trace. They should have the same geometries.
- 8. Open the XYZ csv file in Excel and create additional Z columns of 2000m intervals, i.e. from 0m to -18000m. The original line trace is at surface elevation, around +1500m. This provides eleven set elevations for the line trace to be projected at.
- 9. In LeapFrog Geo® import each depth trace interval as points (eleven traces in total including the surface points trace).
- 10. Use the "Create Mesh" function and apply the surface trace as the input dataset (using 100m resolution, and ticking the 'Adaptive' parameter).
	- a. Add the ten additional depth trace intervals to the newly created mesh to produce the final vertical mesh.
	- b. In the properties of the mesh apply 'Snap to Data', with minimum distance of 25m.
- 11. Export the final mesh and import into the main LeapFrog Geo® project.
- 12. In the main LeapFrog Geo® project use the "Cross Section from Image" function and import the raw seismic line section and the interpretation.
	- a. Georeference the two images (select Vertical Section option and correlate section surface with topography) and crop them to remove unnecessary excess that will clutter the images where there is overlapping of line traces.
	- b. Ensure the two images are consistent with each other, i.e. no deviation of reflections between the two images.
- 13. In the mesh options menu drape the georeferenced raw and interpreted sections onto the mesh. The ~19500m vertical width of the mesh should be wide enough to incorporate the georeferenced images without cutting out any parts of the section.
- 14. For the 16 second data include 2000m intervals down to 48km (totalling 26 trace depths, including the surface trace).
- 15. Create new polylines for horizons and faults and digitise the draped mesh images.









parts of the mapped Pretoria Group also contain bedding-parallel diorite intrusions (sills). finer stratigraphy of the Transvaal Supergroup is mostly unknown in the

The Chuniespoort Group stratigraphy is limited in the study area to the Malmani Subgroup. The Penge and Duitschland formations are not preserved. The contact between the Pretoria Group and the underlying Chuniespoort Group is repeated twice away from the Vredefort dome. One contact lies on the margin of the dome (forming a semi-circular ring ~35km from the centre of the dome) and the second contact lies further away and more obliquely to the dome (50 – 90km away from the centre of the dome).

The Chuniespoort Group exposed in the surface mapping is narrow  $\left(\langle 3 \text{km}\right)$ on the ring exposure around the Vredefort dome margin, with bedding orientations ranging between 40° and 70° (dipping away from the dome). The second, further exposure of the Chuniespoort Group is much wider  $(3 - 20km)$ and shallower-dipping (ranging between 10° and 20° and dipping towards the dome) compared to the dome margin exposure.

Using the stratigraphic distribution of formations and structural orientations the regional geometry of the Transvaal Supergroup in the study area exhibits a dominant asymmetric synclinal fold tangential to the Vredefort dome.

Throughout the Pretoria Group surface exposure the mapping indicates the existence of multiple elongated periclinal folds. These are interpreted through interference of varying fold orientations around the Vredefort dome. Anticlinal and synclinal fold geometries are identified using the mapped stratigraphy patterns and structural orientations plotted around the folds. The long axes

borehole logs and is limited to clearly defined units such as the Hekpoort Formation volcanics and the Malmani Subgroup dolomites. Sedimentary units are not defined stratigraphically so the finer-detailed stratigraphy of the Pretoria Group is less constrained.

The boreholes in the southeast section of the study area do not report Pretoria Group units. Several boreholes are located on the eastern margin and but report Chuniespoort Group or lower stratigraphy. Surface mapping to the north of these boreholes indicate that the Pretoria Group, if projected on strike, under the Karoo Supergroup cover, would be preserved to the west of these boreholes so the Pretoria Group may still be preserved here.

Borehole logs of the Chuniespoort Group report 1000 – 1900m thick Malmani Subgroup dolomites, preserved in most boreholes in the study area, outside the dome, except for the SW corner and the SE section of the study area where pre-Transvaal Supergroup formations are preserved below the Karoo Supergroup cover.

The stratigraphy reported in the borehole logs for the Chuniespoort Group are similar to the surface mapping reports. The Penge Formation ironstones are not reported in any borehole. However the Duitschland Formation carbonates are not explicitly omitted from the logs as the lack of Penge Formation ironstones may result in the merging of logged carbonate sequences for the Malmani Subgroup and Duitschland Formation. The Malmani Subgroup is also not commonly differentiated into its individual formations in the study area and any carbonate sequences are grouped together as the Malmani Subgroup dolomites. Chert content reported in the





dipping between 30° and 80° towards the centre of the dome (dips getting steeper towards the SW). Outside of the study area the contact appears again in the surface mapping, though orientated obliquely to the dome, i.e. 65 – 120km from the centre of the dome. Adjacent orientations to the repeated contact are upright and much shallower dipping (between 10° and 25°) than the units observed around the dome margins, with the general dip direction trending towards the dome.

These mapped surface exposures of the stratigraphy and bedding orientations adjacent to the contact suggest a similar regional-scale geometry as suggested for the overlying Ventersdorp and Transvaal Supergroups, i.e. a dominant asymmetric synclinal fold tangential to the Vredefort dome. Unlike the upright limbs of the asymmetric synclinal fold in overlying stratigraphy, the asymmetric syncline limb in the dome contact exposure is overturned.

so few VCF intervals reported in the majority of boreholes that contain the contact between the Ventersdorp and Witwatersrand Supergroups.

A second possible artefact of the summary logs is that only the basal conglomerate of the Venterspost Formation has been illustrated in the logs and reported as Venterspost Formation. The rest of the VCF sedimentary sequence does not appear in the summary logs so it either does not exist in the study area or it has not been shown fully in the logs.

The contact between the Ventersdorp Supergroup and underlying stratigraphy is preserved in the boreholes throughout most of the study area. As mentioned above, there are boreholes that show the Transvaal Supergroup truncating the Ventersdorp Supergroup and that come into contact with the Witwatersrand Supergroup. However there are also areas where the boreholes do not report Ventersdorp Supergroup, as they intersect the underlying stratigraphy directly below the thin Karoo Supergroup cover. These boreholes are located on the SE margin of the study area and include a number of boreholes (4077870, 4066123, 4066121, 4213253, 4039849, 4126376, 4202051, 4066130, 4066131, 4039848, 4225646, 4039844, 4204331, 4039970, 4039990, 4039991, 4039992, 4039993, 4066437, and 4066471).

These boreholes form a pattern defining the boundary limits of the Ventersdorp Supergroup at depth. The boundary is confined to the SE margin of the study area where it forms a narrow strip on the margin. However around half of the boreholes form a WNW trending corridor that bisects the Ventersdorp Supergroup from the SE margin towards the





north-west of the study area ( $> 110$ km from the centre of the dome). The mapped exposures of the Dominion Group have been combined into one unit (100 – 400m wide) in the Vredefort dome whereas several of the NW exposures have been differentiated into the Syferfontein (clastic sediments and felsic porphyry's) and Rhenosterspruit (felsic porphyry's and minor maficwide and is sedimentary, implying it could be from the Syferfontein Formation. Unfortunately this borehole lies ~16.5km north of the NW corner of the study area. A second borehole (4013818) only 1.8km outside the NW corner of the study area intersects basement granite gneiss. The borehole log of the

According to the known stratigraphy of the group (Johnson et al., 2006) the Rhenosterhoek Formation (mafic-intermediate volcanics) is the most dominant of the three formations that make up the Dominion Group. However the mapping in the NW exhibits only the other two formations with several discrete exposures mapped as a single unit under "Dominion Group". The Rhenosterhoek Formation is only observed in the surface mapping in the far WNW exposures.

intermediate volcanics) formations (combined width of 200 – 800m).

west of the study area  $(\sim 78 - 94 \text{km})$  from the centre of the dome) and west-

From the authors own field experience in the Vredefort dome collar the mafic-intermediate volcanics are the dominant Dominion Group lithology. It is therefore tentatively suggested that the single unit mapped as Dominion Group in the Vredefort dome surface maps are associated with the maficintermediate component of the Dominion Group stratigraphy, i.e. the Rhenosterhoek Formation.

The structural information provided in the surface mapping exhibits comparable bedding orientations of this stratigraphic level to the overlying West Rand Group and Central Rand Group, i.e. overturned beds in the northern and western sections of the dome, dipping at  $50^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}$  towards the dome, and upright units in the SW section of the dome, dipping at  $60^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}$  away from

stratigraphy is very simplified and does not differentiate the sequences beyond their supergroup. Overlying the basement gneiss is a thick pyroclastic unit (748.72m interval) that has been labelled as part of the Ventersdorp Supergroup. The unit is overlain by alternating volcanic and sedimentary rocks of the Ventersdorp Supergroup, most likely from the Platberg Group. It is unclear whether the pyroclastic unit belongs to the Ventersdorp Supergroup stratigraphy or the Dominion Group stratigraphy.

Group and basement. The intersection of the Dominion Group is 40.95m

































































































































