Models of Rodinia assembly and fragmentation

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Abstract: Amongst existing palaeogeographic models of the Rodinia supercontinent, or portions thereof, arguments have focused upon geological relations or palaeomagnetic results, but rarely both. A new model of Rodinia is proposed, integrating the most recent palaeomagnetic data with current stratigraphic, geochronological and tectonic constraints from around the world. This new model differs from its predecessors in five major aspects: cratonic Australia is positioned in the recently proposed AUSMEX fit against Laurentia; East Gondwanaland is divided among several blocks; the Congo–São Francisco and India–Rayner Cratons are positioned independently from Rodinia; Siberia is reconstructed against northern Laurentia, although in a different position than in all previous models; and Kalahari–Dronning Maud Land is connected with Western Australia. The proposed Rodinia palaeogeography is meant to serve as a working hypothesis for future refinements.

There is general agreement that the Earth's continental crust may have been assembled to form the supercontinent, Rodinia, in the Late Mesoproterozoic and Early Neoproterozoic. Rodinia is thought to have been produced by collisional events of broadly Grenvillian (Late Mesoproterozoic) age, and to have been relatively long-lived (c. 1100–750 Ma) (McMenamin & McMenamin 1990; Hoffman 1991).

Nonetheless, there are several versions of its composition and configuration (e.g. Hoffman 1991; Dalziel 1997; Weil et al. 1998). Laurentia is thought to have formed the core of Rodinia because it is surrounded by passive margins formed during Late Neoproterozoic breakup of the supercontinent (Bond et al. 1984). Most Rodinia models propose that Australia, Antarctica and possibly South China (Li et al. 1999) may have been situated along Laurentia's western margin (unless otherwise stated, all geographic references are in present coordinates); Baltica and Amazonia, and the Rio de la Plata Craton may have lain along its eastern margin. The precise position of Siberia is disputed, but it is generally shown as lying along either the northern or the western margin of Laurentia. The position of the Congo and Kalahari Cratons is uncertain, with at least four reconstructions having been shown for Kalahari in the last few years (Powell et al. 2001). alternative Neoproterozoic supercontinent, An Palaeopangaea, was proposed by Piper (2000), based mainly on palaeomagnetic data. This model is similar to earlier reconstructions by the same author (Piper 1987 and refs cited therein), which were criticized by both Van der Voo & Meert (1991) and Li & Powell (1999). In addition, the recent publication about Palaeopangaea (Piper 2000) contains no references for the poles employed, making the model difficult to assess. For these reasons, it will not be discussed further in this paper.

Several important results have been published recently that provide new geological, geochronopalaeomagnetic constraints logical and on Mesoproterozoic-Early Neoproterozoic palaeogeography. Palaeomagnetic data are necessary for quantitative constraints on Precambrian reconstructions. Unfortunately, these data are distributed very non-uniformly in time and space (Meert & Powell 2001 table 1). The majority of palaeomagnetic results for the interval during which Rodinia may have existed (c. 1100-750 Ma) come from Laurentia and Baltica, and fragments of apparent polar wander paths (APWP) can be constructed for these two blocks. Data from other cratons are sparse, making it impossible to construct an APWP for each block. The palaeopositions of these blocks are based on comparisons of individual palaeopoles, hence relative palaeolongitudes are not constrained.

The objective of this paper is to create a new model of the Rodinia supercontinent. Palaeomagnetism has been used to determine permissible fits for Rodinia; geological constraints, such as continuity of tectonic belts, and the presence of passive or active continental margins have been used to refine permissible fits into plausible reconstructions. There is also the global balance of Late Neoproterozoic rifted margins that needs to be accounted for in any acceptable reconstruction.

Selection of reliable palaeomagnetic data is the key issue for many Mesoproterozoic– Neoproterozoic reconstructions (e.g. Powell *et al.*

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1993; Torsvik *et al.* 1996; Smethurst *et al.* 1998; Weil *et al.* 1998; Piper 2000). In the present synthesis (Table 1), only palaeomagnetic results with $Q \ge 4$ are used (Van der Voo 1990). There are few exceptions where less reliable data is referred to and all such cases are explained individually. However, existing data are insufficient to provide robust reconstructions for all cratons except Laurentia and Baltica. In addition, there are no reliable palaeomagnetic data for Amazonia, West Africa and Rio de la Plata in the interval 1100–700 Ma.

In attempting to reconstruct Rodinia, available information from the majority of Precambrian continental blocks was used. Because very little is known about the Rodinian connections of North China, NE Africa and Arabia, Avalonia, Cadomia, Omolon, and other fragments of continental crust from the Russian Far East, northern Alaska and southeastern

Object	Age (Ma)	Pole					
		(°N)	(°E)	A ₉₅ (°)	Q	Reference	
Laurentia							
Franklin Dykes	723+4/-2	5	163	5	II–IIII 6	Heaman et al. 1992; Park 1994	
Natkusiak Formation	723+4/-2	6	159	6	III-III 6	Palmer <i>et al.</i> 1983; Heaman <i>et al.</i> 1992	
Tsezotene sills and dykes	779±2	2	138	5	III–I–I 5	Park et al. 1989; LeCheminant & Heaman 1994	
Wyoming Dykes	782±8 785±8	13	131	4	III-I-I 5	Harlan <i>et al.</i> 1997	
Haliburton Intrusions A	980±10	-36	143	10	III I4	Buchan & Dunlop 1976	
Chequamegon Sandstone	c. 1020*	-12	178	5	-II-I-I 4	McCabe & Van der Voo 1983	
Jacobsville Sandstone J (A+B)	c. 1020*	-9	183	4	III 4	Roy & Robertson 1978	
Freda Sandstone	1050 ± 30	2	1 79	4	-IIII-I 5	Henry et al. 1977; Wingate et al. 2002	
Nonesuch Shale	1050 ± 30	8	178	4	IIIII 5	Henry et al. 1977; Wingate et al. 2002	
Lake Shore Traps	1087±2	22	181	5	IIIII–I 6	Diehl & Haig 1994; Davis & Paces 1990	
Portage Lake Volcanics	1095±2	27	181	2	∏——I–I 4	Halls & Pesonen 1982; Davis & Paces 1990	
Upper North Shore Volcanics	1097±2	32	184	5	IIIII 5	Halls & Pesonen 1982; Davis & Green 1997	
Logan Sills R	1109+4/-2	49	220	4	II–IIII 6	Halls & Pesonen 1982; Davis & Sutcliffe 1985	
Abitibi Dykes	1141±2	43	209	14	IIII–I– 5	Ernst & Buchan 1993	
Baltica Hunnedalen Dykes	≥848	-41	222	10	III—I—I 5	Walderhaug et al. 1999	
Egersund Anorthosite	929-932	-44	214	4	III–III 6	Stearn & Piper 1984; Torsvik & Eide 1997	
Pyätteryd Amphibolite	933–945	-43	214	11	III–I–I 5	Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998; Wang et al. 1996; Wang & Lindh 1996	
Känna Gneiss	948-974	-50	225	17	III–I–I 5	Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998; Wang et al. 1996; Wang & Lindh 1996	
Gällared Amphibolite	956?	-46	214	19	ПІ-І-І 5	Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998; Möller & Söderlund 1997	
Gällared Granite Gneiss	980990	-44	224	6	IIII−I 5	Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998; Möller & Söderlund 1997	

Table 1. Palaeomagnetic poles at 1100-700Ma

Table 1. (cont.)

Object	Age (Ma)	Pole				
		(°N)	(°E)	A ₉₅ (°)	Q	Reference
Laanila Dolerite	1045±50	-2	212	15	III–I–I 5	Mertanen et al. 1996
India						
Mahe Dykes, Seychelles†	748–755	80	79	11		Torsvik et al. 2001a
Malani Igneous Suite	751-771	68	88	8	ШШ–І б	Torsvik et al. 2001b
Harohalli Dykes	814±34	27	79	18	III–III 6	Radhakrishna & Mathew 1996
Wajrakarur Kimberlites	1079?	45	59	11	I–I–I–I 4	Miller & Hargraves 1994
Australia						
Mundine Well Dykes	755±3	45	135	4	IIII-I 6	Wingate & Giddings 2000
Bangemall Basin Sills	1070±6	34	95	8	IIIIII 7	Wingate et al. 2002
Congo						· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Mbozi Complex, Tanzania	755±25	46	325	9	III–III 6	Meert et al. 1995; Evans 2000.
Gagwe lavas, Tanzania	795 ±7	25	93	10	III–I–I 5	Meert et al. 1995; Deblond et al. 2001
São Francisco						
Ilheus Dykes	1011 ± 24	30	100	4	Ш–І–І 5	D'Agrella-Filho et al. 1990; Renne et al. 1990
Olivenca Dykes, normal	c. 1035*	16	107	8	III–I−I 5	D'Agrella-Filho et al. 1990; Renne et al. 1990
Itaju de Colonia	c. 1055*	8	111	10	III–III 6	D'Agrella-Filho et al. 1990; Renne et al. 1990
Olivenca Dykes, reverse	1078±18	-10	100	9	Ⅲ—I—I 5	D'Agrella-Filho et al. 1990; Renne et al. 1990
Kalahari [‡] Ritscherflya Supergroup (rotated to Kalahari)	1130±12	61	29	4	II——I–I 4	Powell et al. 2001
Umkondo Igneous Province	1105±5	66	37	3	IIIII 5	Powell <i>et al.</i> 2001; Wingate 2001
Kalkpunt Formation	c. 1065?	57	3	7	IIIII 5	Briden <i>et al.</i> 1979; Powell <i>et al.</i> 2001
Central Namaqua	c. 1030–1000	8	330	10	Ш – Ш б	Onstott et al. 1986; Robb et al. 199
Siberia						
Uchur-Maya sediments	c. 990–1150	-25	231	3	-11IIII 6	Gallet et al., 2000
Turukhansk sediments	c. 975–1100	-15	256	8	–II–III 5	Gallet et al. 2000
South China Liantuo Formation	748±12	4	161	13	IIIIII 7	Evans et al. 2000
Oaxaquia						
Oaxaca Anorthosite	c. 950	47	267	23	-II-III 5	Ballard et al. 1989

* Age based on apparent polar wander path interpolation.
† Rotated to India 28° counterclockwise around the pole of 25.8° N, 330°E (Torsvik *et al.* 2001*a*).
[‡] For ages see Powell *et al.* (2001 and refs cited therein).

SA, South Australia; NT, Northern Territory; WA, Western Australia.

Asia, they are not included in the present reconstructions.

Configuration of Rodinia

Laurentia and Baltica

The majority of reliable Late Mesoproterozoic-Neoproterozoic palaeomagnetic data are from Laurentia (Table 1). The Laurentian APWP can be traced within the c. 1140-1020 Ma time interval, but younger poles are sparse. It is obvious that the poles between 1020 and 720 Ma circumscribe a 'Grenville Loop', although the shape and 'direction' of this loop is debated (e.g. Park & Aitken 1986; Hyodo & Dunlop 1993; Alvarez & Dunlop 1998; Weil et al. 1998; McElhinny & McFadden 2000). Alvarez & Dunlop (1998) analysed palaeopoles from the Grenville Province, generated from rocks remagnetized during post-Grenvillian exhumation between 1000 and 900 Ma. Some of these overprints are calibrated by ⁴⁰Ar-³⁹Ar ages that support a clockwise Grenville Loop of poles in the Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1). Following a similar approach, McElhinny & McFadden (2000, table 7.4) also constructed a clockwise loop. However, the data they used for the mean poles between 940 and 800Ma are poorly dated, so this part of the loop has been simplified with an interpolation between reliable poles, as listed in Table 1.

Similarly, Early Neoproterozoic palaeomagnetic data from Baltica (not shown in Table 1) reflect Sveconorwegian (Grenvillian) posta to Sveconorwegian overprint (e.g. Bylund 1992; Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998; Walderhaug et al. 1999 and refs cited therein). A large group of poles with ages c.980 - 930 Ma is situated in a relatively small area at c. 45°S, 235°E, whereas poles with older and younger ages occupy near-equatorial positions (Fig. 1). These poles constitute the 'Sveconorwegian Loop' on the APWP for Baltica between c. 1000 and 800–850 Ma. As with the Grenville Loop, opinions about its shape and 'direction' are divided (e.g. Bylund 1985; Elming et al. 1993; Mertanen et al. 1996; Pisarevsky & Bylund 1998). Most data in Table 1 belong to the 980-930Ma group, with the progression of ages more in favour of a clockwise loop. A clockwise loop is also supported by remanence directions obtained from a series of crosscutting dykes in a single quarry within the northern part of the Protogine Zone, southern Sweden (Bylund & Pisarevsky 2002).

An exception to this general scenario is the interpretation of Walderhaug *et al.* (1999) concerning the Hunnedalen Dykes (Fig. 1). Based on ages of 848 ± 27 (Ar-Ar on biotite) and 855 ± 59 Ma (Sm-Nd mineral/whole-rock isochron), and on the similarity between the Hunnedalen Dyke Pole and those from 930Ma plutonic rocks in SW Norway, these authors proposed that all of these rocks were remagnetized during a 'late unroofing' event at 850Ma. However, because the Ar closure temperature for biotite is c. 400°C (Berger & York 1981), significantly lower than the dykes' palaeomagnetic unblocking temperatures (>520°C), and because these dykes were emplaced at moderate depth (Walderhaug et al. 1999), it is proposed here that intrusion of Hunnedalen Dykes and fixation of the stable remanence could have occurred long before 850Ma. The uncertainty of the Sm-Nd age is also compatible with dyke emplacement at \geq 900Ma (perhaps consanguineous with the Egersund Anorthosite) followed by unroofing or mild reheating at 850 Ma. In the present model (Fig. 1), a simplified clockwise Sveconorwegian Loop, with the traditionally accepted age of c. 950Ma at its vertex, was used.

The Grenville and Sveconorwegian APWP Loops coincide reasonably well after a 59° clockwise rotation of Baltica around an Euler pole at 75.8°N, 95.8°W. These rotation parameters were used for the Rodinia juxtaposition of Laurentia and Baltica, a suggestion implying that Baltica and Laurentia were joined as a single entity at between least 1000 and 850Ma. The configuration proposed by Dalziel (1997), in which west Scandinavia was connected to East Greenland, is not supported by the palaeomagnetic data. One of the arguments used for such a position for Baltica was the juxtaposition of a possible Late Mesoproterozoic orogenic belt in East Greenland with the Sveconorwegian Belt in southern Scandinavia. However, a recent SHRIMP study of detrital zircons in pre-Caledonian rocks of East Greenland by Kalsbeek et al. (2000) showed that 'if present at all, a "Grenvillian" orogen in East Greenland would be of very different character than in North America and southern Scandinavia'.

The best fit between APWP loops implies a small gap between Laurentia and Baltica, sufficient to accommodate the Rockall submarine plateau. This region of submerged continental crust has yielded U-Pb and Sm-Nd crystallization ages of between 1750 (Daly et al. 1994) and 1625 Ma (Morton & Taylor 1991), comparable to those in the Trans-Scandinavian Igneous Belt (Larson & Berglund 1992) or the Ketilidian Orogen of southern Greenland (Rainbird et al. 2001). The southern part of Rockall was possibly reworked during latest Grenvillian times [Ar-Ar on granulite at 997±5Ma (Miller et al. 1973), which was recalculated according to Dalrymple (1979)], which is comparable to ages for the Sveconorwegian Orogeny (e.g. Gorbatschev & Bogdanova 1993). The present proposed fit also includes a palinspastic reconstruction

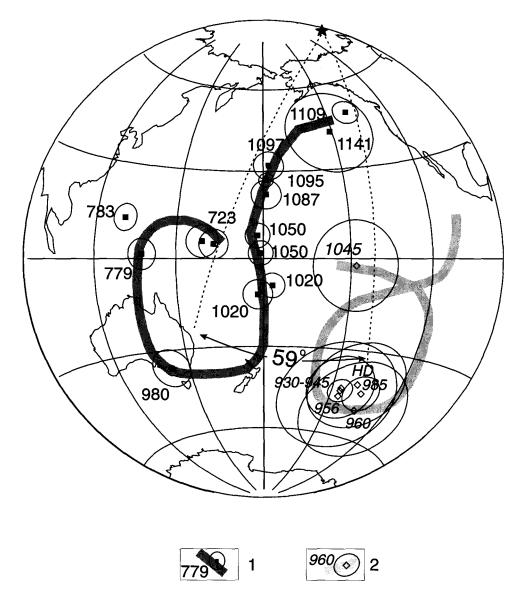


Fig. 1. Apparent polar wander paths for Laurentia and Baltica. 1, Laurentian palaeopoles and path; 2, Baltican palaeopoles and path. Star represents a Euler pole of a 59° rotation which provides a best fit for two paths. HD, Hunnedalen Dykes pole.

of northwestern Scandinavia that removes 400-500 km of Caledonian shortening (e.g. Park *et al.*1994). Because *c.* 1050 Ma palaeopoles from the two cratons are incompatible according to the present reconstruction (Table 1; Fig. 1), it is proposed that their Rodinian fit was achieved via an oblique and substantially rotational collision between 1050 and 1000 Ma. Similar kinematics characterize the tectonic models of Park (1992) and Starmer (1996).

The proposed position of Baltica (Fig. 2) also

permits juxtaposition of East Greenland and fragments of a possible Barentsia plate (East Svalbard), which may explain striking similarities between the Palaeoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic–Early Palaeozoic strata of these two areas (e.g. Gee *et al.* 1994; Fairchild & Hambrey 1995; Higgins *et al.* 2001 and refs cited therein). The results of recent studies by Higgins & Leslie (2000) and Higgins *et al.* (2001), which show that the pre-Caledonian margin of East Greenland restores 500–700 km to the east of the present coastline, have been incorporated into the



Fig. 2. Southern Rodinia at 990Ma. Am, Amazonia; B, Barentsia; Ba, Baltica; Ch, Chortis; Gr, Greenland; La, Laurentia; O, Oaxaquia; P, Pampean terrane; R, Rockall; RP, Rio de la Plata; WA, West Africa. Grey regions, palinspastically restored pre-Caledonian margins of East Greenland and Baltica.

present model. The eastern (Uralian) edge of Baltica was probably a long-lived passive margin from the Late Mesoproterozoic to the Vendian (e.g. Willner *et al.* 2001).

Laurentia-Baltica and Amazonia

majority of Rodinia reconstructions, In the Amazonia is juxtaposed against eastern Laurentia and Baltica. According to this interpretation, the Rondonia-Sunsas Belt in southwestern Amazonia resulted from continental collision with Laurentia between 1080 and 970Ma (e.g. Sadowski & Bettencourt 1996; Tassinari et al. 2000 and refs cited therein). There is little evidence for a Grenville-age collision in the northern part of autochthonous Amazonia, apart from the poorly understood 'Nickerian' Event at c. 1200Ma (Gibbs & Barron 1993). Keppie & Ramos (1999) proposed that two Central American terranes - Oaxaquia (Mexico) and Chortis (Honduras and Guatemala) - were situated along the northern boundary of South America in their reconstruction for the Vendian-Cambrian boundary. Keppie & Ortega-Gutierrez (1999) suggested that these blocks originated as arcs in a Grenvillian ocean between Laurentia, Baltica and Amazonia, and were caught between the colliding cratons. Alternatively, Oaxaquia and Chortis could represent part of a continental arc formed on the present northern margin of Amazonia. In both scenarios, these blocks have experienced high-grade, collisional-style tectonometamorphism during the terminal collisions among Amazonia, Laurentia and Baltica.

In the present model, the Oaxaquia and Chortis blocks are placed along the northern margin of Amazonia, within the zone of its collision with Baltica at c. 1000Ma (Fig. 2); the model is also constrained by palaeomagnetic data from Oaxaquia (Ballard et al. 1989) – see Table 1. Recent preliminary palaeomagnetic results of D'Agrella-Filho et al. (2001) from the Rondonia–Sunsas Province generally support a model of Amazonia–Laurentia collision after c.1100Ma.

Amazonia, West Africa and Rio de la Plata

Trompette (1994, 1997) proposed the existence of a single West Africa-Amazonia-Rio de la Plata megacraton in the Mesoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic. However, he did not exclude the possibility of minor relative movements between its components. For example, Onstott & Hargraves (1981) suggested that $c.1500\,\mathrm{km}$ of dextral shearing occurred between West Africa and Amazonia, based on comparison of Palaeoproterozoic-Mesoproterozoic palaeomagnetic data from these two blocks. The data are rather scattered and the conclusion is not very convincing, so for the purpose of this paper the Gondwanaland Amazonia- West Africa fit (Fig. 2) has been used, although it is acknowledged that such shearing was possible. Neoproterozoic palaeomagnetic data from West Africa are few and contradictory (Perrin & Prevot 1988), and therefore have not been taken into account in the present model.

Rio de la Plata is a poorly known craton, with no reliable palaeomagnetic data available for 1000-700 Ma; its Precambrian boundaries are similarly uncertain. The Rio de la Plata Block, depicted by Dalziel (1997) and Weil et al. (1998), for example, included parts of the Pampean Terrane as well as the southern extremity of the Guapore Block. In contrast, Ramos (1988) envisaged a Pampean-Rio de la Plata collision at 600-570 Ma and Trompette (1994) considered the possibility of an Amazonian affinity for the southern Guapore cratonic extension. Pimentel et al. (1999) suggested a collision between the São Francisco Craton and the Paraná Block between 790 and 750 Ma. Alkmim et al. (2001) considered the Paraná Block as part of Rio de la Plata, although supporting evidence is lacking (e.g. Trompette 1994; Cordani et al. 2000). Ramos (1988) depicted a shear zone between Rio de la Plata and the western Alto Paraguay Terrane, now covered Palaeozoic–Mesozoic Paraná by the Basin. Depending on its total displacement, this shear zone may allow the Rio de la Plata and Paraná Blocks to be considered as separate palaeogeographic entities in Early Neoproterozoic time (Ramos 1988).

In the present reconstructions, three separate blocks are proposed: (1) Rio de la Plata *sensu stricto*, which includes basement NE and SW of Buenos Aires (Cingolani & Dalla Salda 2000), and does not include the Luis Alves Block and the southern extremity of the Guapore Block; (2) the Pampean Terrane; and (3) the Paraná Block. Generally, the tectonic model of Ramos (1998) has been followed for the Rio de la Plata and Pampean Blocks, keeping them in the vicinity of Laurentia, and that of Pimentel *et al.* (1999) for the Paraná–Saõ Francisco collision.

Laurentia and Australia

The western margin of Laurentia, from northern Canada to southern USA, contains a rift-passive margin succession initiated at c. 750Ma (e.g. Moores 1991; Ross et al. 1995 and refs cited therein). Moores (1991) proposed that Australia-East Antarctica rifted from Laurentia at that time [SW US-East Antarctic (SWEAT) hypothesis]. This configuration was used by Hoffman (1991), Dalziel (1997) and Weil et al. (1998) in their reconstructions of Rodinia. The SWEAT hypothesis suggested that the Grenville Belt of Laurentia continued around Antarctica, and into India and Australia. Li et al. (1995), using tectonostratigraphic analysis, modified the SWEAT configuration slightly by placing the South China Craton between Australia and northwestern Laurentia. Brookfield (1993), Karlstrom et al. (1999) and Burrett & Berry (2000) proposed an alternative Australia-Laurentia fit (AUSWUS) based on comparison of Precambrian terranes on both cratons. Until recently, Australian Late Mesoproterozoic-Neoproterozoic palaeomagnetic data were inadequate to discriminate between these hypotheses. However, a new palaeomagnetic result from the 1070Ma Bangemall Sills, Western Australia (Wingate et al. 2002), supports neither of these models. According to this result, Australia at 1070Ma was situated at lower palaeolatitudes than would be permitted by the SWEAT or AUSWUS models, placing the Cape River Province of NE Australia at a similar latitude to the southwestern end of the 1250-980Ma Grenville Province of Laurentia (Rivers 1997; Mosher 1998). High-grade metamorphic and magmatic rocks in the Cape River Province contain 1240, 1145 and 1105 Ma zirconage components, and may correlate to the west with Grenvillian-age rocks in the Musgrave and Albany-Fraser Orogens (Blewett et al. 1998). If the proposed AUSMEX reconstuction (Fig. 3) is correct, the Grenville Province may have continued through Australia. A recent palaeomagnetic study of the deep drillhole Empress 1A in the Officer Basin (Pisarevsky et al. 2001) indicated low palaeolatitudes for Australia between c. 810 and 750 Ma, also supporting this fit. While maintaining most of the geological comparisons argued in favour of AUSWUS and some of those in favour of SWEAT. the AUSMEX fit also helps to resolve some additional problems. For example, the Wyoming Craton is a more suitable source for 2.78 Ga detrital zircons in Papua New Guinea (Baldwin & Ireland, 1995) than the smaller and possibly displaced Nova Terrane proposed by Burrett & Berry (2000) in their AUSWUS fit. The AUSMEX reconstruction, however, requires conjugate passive margins for western Laurentia and eastern Australia to be identified. In the present reconstruction (Fig. 3) the latter is supposed to be in the poorly known Rio de la Plata Craton and the former in South China (see below).

Australia, Antarctica and India

A feature common to most Rodinia reconstructions (e.g. Powell et al. 1993, Dalziel 1997; Weil et al. 1998) is the assumption that East Gondwanaland (Australia, India, Madagascar and East Antarctica in their Gondwanaland configuration) has been a single tectonic entity since the end of the Mesoproterozoic. The assumption has been based mainly on the apparent continuity of a Grenville-age metamorphic belt along the India-East Antarctica Margin, and its extension into the Late Mesoproterozoic Albany-Fraser Mobile Belt of Australia, and a supposed absence of Neoproterozoic or younger sutures between the continental blocks. Late Neoproterozoic high-grade gneisses occur in the Darling Mobile Belt of Western Australia (Wilde & Murphy 1990; Harris 1994) and in the correlative Prydz-Denman Zone in East Antarctica (Fitzsimons 2000), but direct evidence for oceanic subduction is lacking and subsequent metamorphism has generally been regarded as intracontinental reactivation of

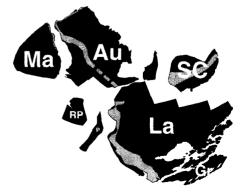


Fig. 3. Northern Rodinia at 990 Ma. Au, Australia; Ma, Mawson Craton; SC, South China. Other abbreviations as in Figure 2.

old crustal weaknesses during the Late Neoproterozoic collision of East and West Gondwanaland farther to the west.

Fitzsimons (2000) disproved the hypothesis of a single continuous Late Mesoproterozoic orogenic belt along the margin of East Antarctica. Three separate Late Mesoproterozoic–earliest Neoproterozoic orogenic belts, with different ages of metamorphism and plutonism, exist along the margins of East Antarctica. Importantly, Fitzsimons (2000) highlighted two Late Neoproterozoic orogenic zones in Antarctica, across which there are unknown amounts of displacement in Pan-African time. In a Gondwanaland reconstruction, one zone is the southern extension of the East African Orogen to the west of India, and the other is the Prydz–Denman– Darling Orogen between India and Australia–Wilkes Land (Antarctica) in East Gondwanaland.

Palaeomagnetic data for India (Table 1) also contradict the integrity of East Gondwanaland. In an East Gondwanaland fit the c. 1080Ma pole for the Wajrakarur Kimberlites in central India (Miller & Hargraves 1994) does not coincide with the 1070Ma Bangemall Pole for Australia (Wingate *et al.* 2002). Additionally, India was at high palaeolatitudes at c. 810Ma, whereas Australia was at low palaeolatitudes at that time (Pisarevsky *et al.* 2001).

Combining palaeomagnetic geochronological and geological data, Powell & Pisarevsky (2002) proposed a new model for the Neoproterozoic tectonic history of East Gondwanaland, in which India (together with the Rayner Block of Antarctica) was not a part of Rodinia, but collided obliquely with the rest of East Gondwanaland (West Australia and the Mawson Craton of Australia–Antarctica) between 680 and 610Ma [or later, as discussed by Fitzsimons (2002)]. Boger *et al.* (2001) presented a slightly different model, but with a similar conclusion that large sections of East Antarctica and India were not parts of East Gondwanaland or Rodinia.

Kalahari and Australia

A comparison of Late Mesoproterozoic palaeopoles from the Kalahari Craton and the correlative Grunehogna fragment in East Antarctica indicates that, in Rodinia, the Kalahari–Grunehogna Craton (e.g. Jacobs *et al.* 1993) could have lain to the SW of Laurentia with the Namaqua–Natal orogenic belt facing outboard and away from the Laurentian Craton (Powell *et al.* 2001). Powell *et al.* (2001) also showed, by comparing palaeopoles from coeval Umkondo and Keweenawan igneous Provinces, that Kalahari could not be the 'southern continent' that indented the Grenvillian Llano Orogen between 1150 and 1100Ma (Mosher 1998; Dalziel *et al.* 2000). Available geochronological data from the Namagua Belt are similarly incompatible with those from the southwestern Grenville Belt (Powell et al. 2001). However, Kalahari could have lain off the western margin of Australia until 800-750 Ma, when breakup associated with the 755 Ma Mundine Well Mafic Dyke Swarm (Wingate & Giddings 2000) caused Kalahari to rotate anticlockwise away from the western margin of Australia. Bruguier et al. (1999) suggested that India collided with the western margin of Australia along the Darling Mobile Belt c. 1080Ma but as discussed above, India did not achieve this position until the Late Neoproterozoic. Jacobs et al. (1998) identified c. 1080 Ma syntectonic granite sheets and plutons in Dronning Maud Land, at the same time as the Namagua-Natal Belt was undergoing transpressional shearing. Following Fitzsimons (2002), it is proposed that here the Kalahari-Dronning Maud Land Craton joined the Australia-Mawson Craton during oblique collision between 1100 and 1000Ma (Fig. 4a). Metamorphism in both Dronning Maud Land and the Darling Mobile Belt occurred at 1080-1050Ma (Jacobs et al. 1998; Bruguier et al. 1999), and metasediments in both belts have indistinguishable detrital zircon populations (Fitzsimons 2002). Consistent with this model, palaeopoles from Kalahari converge with the Laurentian APWP between 1065 and 1000Ma (Table 1; Fig. 4a).

Western Laurentia and South China

Dismissal of the SWEAT and AUSWUS hypotheses reopens the question of the conjugate to the west Laurentian Neoproterozoic passive margin. Li et al. (1995, 1999) proposed that the Cathaysia Block of South China was part of a 1.9-1.4Ga continental strip adjoining western Laurentia prior to collision with the Yangtze Block along the Sibao Orogen by c. 1000 Ma (Li et al. 2002). The suggestion is based mainly on similarities between Neoproterozoic sedimentary successions in South China and western Canada. The Cathaysia Block could have been the source of the Mesoproterozoic detrital zircons in the Belt Supergroup in northwestern USA (Ross et al. 1992; Li et al. 1995). In the present model, South China is kept juxtaposed with western Laurentia (Fig. 3), but Australia is placed further to the south than suggested by Li et al. (1995, 1999, 2002). The Sibao Orogen may also be considered as a source of Grenville-age detrital zircons in the Mackenzie Mountains and the Amundsen Basin (Rainbird et al. 1997), and could have produced the few enigmatic 1070-1244 Ma zircons in the Buffalo Hump Formation in Washington State (Ross et al. 1992).

South China is not of sufficient size to cover the entire West Laurentian passive margin (Fig. 3),

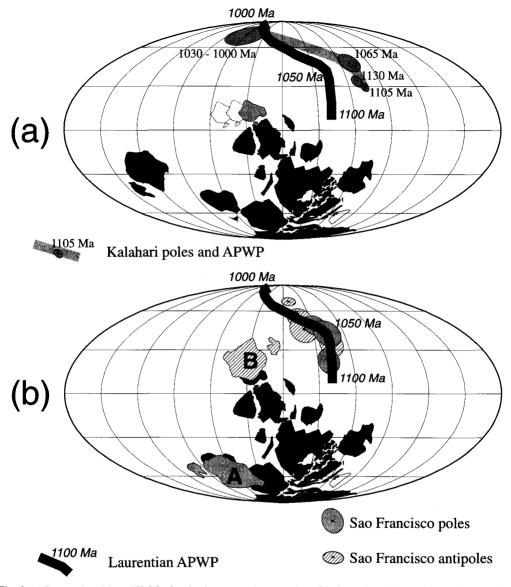


Fig. 4. (a) Proposed position of Kalahari and palaeomagnetic constraints; (b) alternative palaeopositions of Congo-São Francisco according to the two polarity options of its apparent polar wander paths (APWP) (see text).

hence other continental blocks are likely to have been attached to northwestern Laurentia in the Mesoproterozoic and Neoproterozoic – Northern Alaska, northern blocks of eastern Siberia and the Kara Plate are all possible candidates. There have been suggestions that these blocks constituted a large Precambrian craton, Arctida (Zonenshain *et al.* 1990). However, the tectonic history of these blocks is relatively well understood only back to Early Palaeozoic time (e.g. Natal'in *et al.* 1999), hence the shape, constitution and reconstruction of Arctida within Rodinia remain highly uncertain (question mark in Fig. 6). The position of the Tarim Block (Fig. 6) is in accordance with the reconstruction of Li *et al.* (1996), which is based predominantly on tectonostratigraphic comparisons.

Laurentia and Siberia

Sears & Price (1978, 2000) proposed the Siberian Craton as an alternative counterpart to western

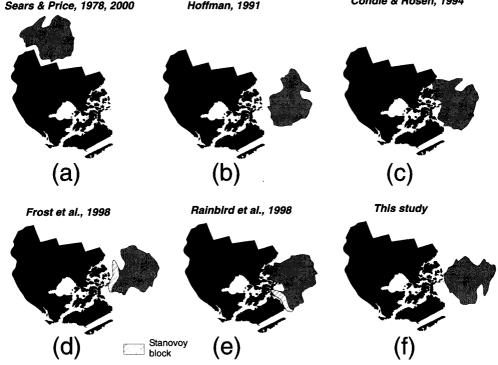


Fig. 5. Proposed palaeopositions of Siberia with respect to Laurentia.

Laurentia instead of Australia and Antarctica (Fig. 5a). Such a configuration raises several problems.

There is a mismatch of crustal age domains. Southwestern North America is dominated by juvenile, Early Proterozoic belts, whereas the Aldan Shield of Siberia is Archaean (e.g. Condie & Rosen 1994). Sears & Price (2000), citing Nd isotopic data from Ramo & Calzia (1998), argued for the presence of a substantial Archaean source component in the Death Valley area of Mojavia. However, Ramo & Calzia (1998) concluded that this Archaean component was introduced as sedimentary detritus, and was probably subducted and mixed with juvenile material at a convergent zone, either at the present western margin of the Wyoming Craton or elsewhere. Sears & Price (2000) also correlated a 1740Ma U-Pb zircon crystallization age from the Okhotsk Massif in Siberia with similar-aged magmatic events from the Mojave, Yavapai and Mazatzal Provinces (Van Schmus & Bickford 1993). The original source of this 1740Ma age date from the Okhotsk Massif (Kuzmin et al. 1995, table 1; see also Khudoley et al. 2001), and is the youngest in a series of 21 age determinations ranging from 3350 to 1830Ma, all of which are systematically older than those in the Mojave, Yavapai and Mazatzal Provinces (Van Schmus & Bickford 1993).

Sears & Price (2000) juxtaposed the Palaeoproterozoic (maximum 2.4-2.5Ga; Rosen et al. 2000), Birekte Block of Siberia [or Olenek blocks, following the determination of Condie & Rosen (1994)] against the Archaean Hearne Province/ Medicine Hat Block (Hoffman 1989). Sears & Price (2000) attempted to correlate the North Alberta Palaeoproterozoic continental and oceanic-arc terranes with the predominantly metasedimentary Hapshan Orogenic Belt which underwent granulite-facies metamorphism at 2080-1970Ma (Rosen et al. 2000). The North Alberta arcs experienced granulite-facies metamorphsim during accretion to the Hearne Province, c. 200Ma later, at c. 1850-1800 Ma (Ross et al. 2000).

For these reasons, the model of Sears & Price (1978, 2000) is not followed and Siberia is positioned against northern Laurentia. Within this general configuration, almost every conceivable permutation has been explored (Fig. 5b-f). These Siberia-northern Laurentia fits are based primarily on the comparison of Archaean and Palaeoproterozoic terranes that are assumed to have maintained their integrity since Late Palaeoproterozoic assembly (Hoffman 1991; Condie & Rosen 1994; Frost et al. 1998; Rainbird et al. 1998). The fit (Fig. 5b) proposed by Hoffman (1991) has additional constraints based on stratigraphic and palaeontological similarities between northern Siberian and northern Laurentian successions in the Early Cambrian (Pelechaty 1996 and refs cited therein).

Frost et al. (1998) juxtaposed southern Siberia with northern Laurentia (Fig. 5d). Their fit is based on comparison of the Thelon Magmatic Belt with the Aldan Terrane of the Aldan Shield. The main problem with this fit is the presence of the Stanovoy Province, which contains structures that are generally perpendicular to those of the Aldan Block (highlighted in Fig. 5d and e). A chain of Early Proterozoic gabbro-anorthosite plutons along the northern margin of Stanovoy Block (Gusev & Khain 1996), and other collision-related magmatic and metamorphic events, provide evidence for collision of the Stanovoy and Aldan Blocks at 1.8-2.0Ga (Rosen et al. 1994 and refs cited therein). The model of Rainbird et al. (1998), in which southern Siberia is juxtaposed with northern Greenland (Fig. 5e), faces the same problem. Evidence for 1000-800 Ma island arcs along the southern boundary of Siberia (Rytsk et al. 1999; Kuzmichev et al. 2001) is also not supportive of these two models. Two new palaeopoles of Gallet et al. (2000) are not precisely dated and cannot give unequivocal support to any of the proposed fits. They also do not exclude the possibility that Siberia was not a part of Rodinia. New Late Mesoproterozoic-Early Neoproterozoic geochronological data (Rainbird et al. 1998) necessitated a revision of younger Neoproterozoic Siberian palaeomagnetic data, summarized by Smethurst et al. (1998). If Siberia was not connected to Laurentia, the identity of the conjugate to the passive margin of northern Laurentia (Frisch & Trettin 1991) is unknown.

In the present reconstruction, a N-N fit of Siberia and Laurentia is proposed (Fig. 5f), which is not contradicted by the palaeomagnetic data of Gallet *et al.* (2000) if an age of *c.* 1000 Ma is assumed for those sediments. Subsequent minor extensions and rotations could have led to the configurations of Hoffman (1991) and Pelechaty (1996), prior to final separation in the Early Cambrian (Pelechaty 1996).

Congo-São Francisco

This craton is traditionally treated as a single entity, owing to the similarity of Archaean and Palaeoproterozoic-Mesoproterozoic rocks and bounding Late Neoproterozoic mobile belts (e.g. Teixeira *et al.* 2000; Trompette 1994). The Irumide and Mozambique Belts of east-central Africa (south and SE margins of Congo) comprise a collage of sedimentary and island-arc-related intrusive rocks with U-Pb zircon crystallization ages of between c. 1400 and 1000 Ma (Pinna *et al.* 1993; Kröner *et al.* 1997, 2001; Oliver *et al.* 1998; Johnson & Oliver, 2000). This region is best interpreted as facing an open ocean undergoing passive arc accretion during the Mesoproterozoic until *c*. 1000 Ma (Kröner *et al.* 1997, 2001; Johnson & Oliver 2000). The Neoproterozoic East African Orogen (east margin of Congo Craton) consists mainly of reworked Neoarchaean and Palaeoproterozoic crust, and, as yet, no Mesoproterozoic ages have been identified, so it is difficult to determine whether this margin faced an ocean or other continental blocks in Rodinia time.

The northern margin of the Congo Craton is very poorly known. A northward-deepening sedimentary succession in northern Congo and the Central African Republic (Lindian and Bangui Basins) contains putative glacial deposits, indicating a likely Neoproterozoic age (Evans 2000 and refs cited therein). This succession is deformed within the Oubanguide Belt at c. 620Ma (Penaye *et al.* 1993), which may represent either a continent–continent collision (Trompette 1994) or an intracratonic Pan-African remobilization.

The c. 1000–910Ma West Congolian Belt, of lower Congo and Angola, is a series of rift-related sediments and volcanics, overlain by a passivemargin succession (Tack et al. 2001). Owing to the palaeogeographic position of the São Francisco Craton with respect to Congo, it is possible that the West Congolian orogenic cycle, as well as its Brazilian counterpart in the Aracuaí Belt (Pedrosol-Soares et al. 2001), represents mainly intracratonic tectonic events. In contrast, there is evidence for the existence of ocean basins west and south of the São Francisco Craton in the early Neoproterozoic until its collision with the Paraná Block at 750–790Ma (e.g. Pimentel et al. 1999).

Collectively, these data provide evidence against a long-term connection between the Congo–São Francisco Craton and any other large continental block along any of its margins, with the possible exception of the present northern and eastern margins.

Four palaeopoles from the São Francisco Craton (Table 1) generate a slightly curved APWP that is anchored at its ends by hornblende Ar–Ar dates of 1078 ± 18 and 1011 ± 24 Ma for the Olivenca and Ilheus Dykes, respectively (Renne *et al.* 1990). The similarity of this track to the Laurentian 'Keweenawan' APWP track suggests common motion of Congo–São Francisco and Laurentia during this time interval, and the possibility of restoring their relative positions by superimposing their APWP.

The low curvatures of the two APWPs' segments permit using both polarity options (Fig. 4b). If one polarity option is accepted (position A in Fig. 4b), Congo–São Francisco lies directly on top of West

Africa and Amazonia. In this case, arguments for the position of those cratons in Rodinia would need to be revised (see above). The other polarity option (position B in Fig. 4b) shows a connection (or proximity) between the Congo northern margin and Western Australia. As noted above, very little is known about this margin of Congo, so such a possibility cannot be excluded. However, this fit causes an overlap of Congo with Kalahari, and, in this case, the proposed attachment of Kalahari to Australia (Fig. 4a) would be incorrect. A third possibility is that the apparent similarity between Laurentian and São Franciscan poles is coincidental, and that these cratons moved independently. A less reliable palaeomagnetic pole from the c.950Ma Nyabikere Massif (Meert et al. 1994) contradicts position A in Fig 4b, but may agree with position B after minor modification. However, the palaeopole from the Gagwe Lavas (Table 1) does not permit such a juxtaposition for c. 800Ma. Therefore, if position B of Congo at 1000Ma is accepted, its breakup from Australia probably occurred prior to the onset of breakup in other sectors of Rodinia (see below).

There is insufficient information to prove or disprove option B, in which Congo–São Francisco is positioned close to Western Australia and correspondingly forms a part of Rodinia, so this option is left open for further investigation. However, it is recognized that the configuration preferred for the present model (Fig. 4a), with Kalahari attached to Western Australia and Congo–São Francisco as an independent plate, is also poorly constrained.

Configuration of Rodinia

The proposed reconstruction of Rodinia at c. 990Ma is shown in Fig. 6; the corresponding rotation parameters for each block are listed in Table 2. The main differences with previous reconstructions are: (1) the position of Australia, which is juxtaposed against Laurentia in the AUSMEX fit; (2) East Antarctica was not a single block; (3) Congo–São Francisco and India–Rayner Cratons were not parts of Rodinia; (4) Siberia was situated close to northern Laurentia, but in a position different from all proposed previously; (5) Kalahari–Dronning Maud Land was attached to Western Australia.

Breakup of Rodinia

Many scientists have suggested that the breakup of Rodinia started along the western boundary of Laurentia between 820 and 720Ma (e.g. Hoffman 1991; Powell *et al.* 1994; Li *et al.* 1999; Wingate & Giddings 2000). Rifting along the eastern margin of

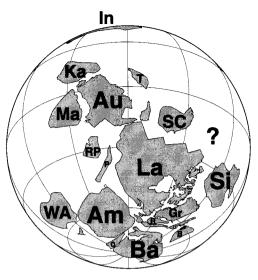


Fig. 6. The shape of Rodinia at 990 Ma. In, India; Ka, Kalahari; Si, Siberia; T, Tarim. See also notes to Figures 2 & 3. The position of Congo–São Francisco is outside the shown projection – for its proposed location see Figure 4a.

Laurentia started significantly later, c. 620–550Ma (e.g. Bingen et al. 1998; Cawood et al. 2001). Wingate & Giddings (2000) concluded that if the SWEAT fit (Moores 1991) is correct, then breakup between Australia and western Laurentia occurred prior to 755Ma, although a similar conclusion can be drawn for either the AUSWUS (Brookfield 1993; Karlstrom et al. 1999; Burrett & Berry 2000) or AUSMEX (Wingate et al. 2002) configurations.

Extensive matic magmatism related to rifting is recognized in western Laurentia (Ross et al. 1995), SE Australia (Wingate et al. 1998) and South China (Li et al. 1999), although it occurred at 730-780Ma in western Laurentia, and at 820-830Ma in SE Australia and South China. This mismatch is difficult to explain in the context of the SWEAT or AUSWUS hypotheses. The AUSMEX configuration, however, can provide a plausible explanation. It is suggested that, initially, breakup started c. 830Ma between South China-Laurentia-Rio de la Plata in the east, and Australia-Mawson Craton in the west (Fig. 7a). Initiation of rifting was probably related to the 827 Ma Gairdner Dyke Swarm (Wingate et al. 1998) and coeval South China dykes (Li et al. 1999). At c. 780Ma, this spreading stopped and a new rifting event began (Fig. 7b), the evidence for which includes three 780Ma mafic intrusive suites in western Laurentia (Park et al. 1995). A possible analogy for such a set of events is the opening of the North Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 7b, inset). Impingement of a mantle plume may have accompanied Rodinia breakup (Wingate et al. 1998; Li et al. 1999), in the

Table 2. Euler rotation parameters

		I		
Craton/block/terrane	Age (Ma)	(°N)	(°E)	Angle (°)
Laurentia to absolute framework	990	13.9	-144.1	-134.7
	800-790	31.8	-149.0	-87.0
	780–770 760–750	20.6 18.0	-148.5 -140.2	-93.7 -95.2
Baltica to Laurentia	990-750	75.8	-95.8	-59.2
Greenland to Laurentia	990-750	67.5	-118.5	-13.8
Amazonia to Laurentia	990-750	12.0	-47.0	-110.7
West Africa to Amazonia	990-750	53.0	-35.0	-51.0
Rio de la Plata to Laurentia	990-750	9.9	-47.4	-93.7
Pampean to Rio de la Plata	990-750	70.9	-10.8	-3.8
Rockall to Laurentia	990–750	75.3	159.6	-23.5
Oaxaquia to Amazonia	990750	12.1	81.7	53.4
Chortis to Amazonia	990–750	5.7	-78.5	139.8
Siberia to Laurentia	990	65.0	159.3	-69.6
	800-750	3.5	13.1	23.2
South China to absolute	990	66.4	-107.9	127.9
framework	800-790	65.1	176.0	143.0
	780–770 760–750	61.0 50.4	172.6 166.9	150.9 172.7
Australia to absolute framework	990	42.6	-5.2	115.8
	800-790	56.6	51.1	72.7
	780–770 760–750	55.4 50.8	53.0 71.3	71.9 70.8
Mawson to Australia	990750	1.3	37.7	30.3
Kalahari to Australia	990-750	79.8	97.1	73.4
Dronning Maud Land to Kalahari	990–750	9.7	148.7	-56.3
Tarim to Australia	990-750	13.5	98.3	-153.4
India to absolute framework	990	58.6	-3.9	86.3
India to absolute framework	800-790	32.9	6.5	59.2
	780–770	40.7	6.2	53.7
	760–750	68.7	4.3	44.9
Sri Lanka to India	990–750	9.8	82.9	-24.3
Rayner to India	990–750	4.9	-163.4	-93.2
Congo to absolute framework	990	45.6	83.8	68.3
	800-790	55.8	57.1	130.1
	780–770 760–750	46.5 20.0	65.9 79.1	129.6 135.4
São Francisco to Congo	990-750	53.0	-35.0	51.0

same manner as Iceland in the North Atlantic (Lawer and Müller 1994).

Figure 7c shows several reliable palaeopoles with ages c. 760–750Ma. The low-latitude position of Australia between 800 and 750Ma is also con-

strained by the palaeomagnetic study of a deep drillhole in Western Australia (Pisarevsky *et al.* 2001). The 755 Ma Mundine Well mafic dykes in Western Australia may indicate a rifting event, possibly involving a detachment of the Kalahari Craton (Fig.

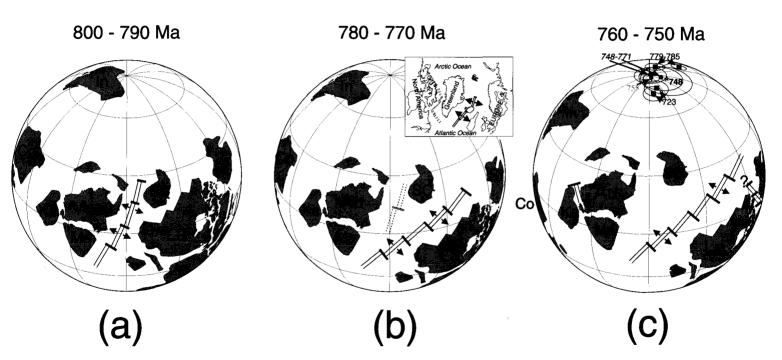


Fig. 7. Sequential breakup of Rodinia. Palaeomagnetic poles: \blacksquare , Laurentian; \blacklozenge , Indian; \diamondsuit , Australian; \diamondsuit , South China. Abbreviations as in previous figures; for details, see text and Table 1.

7c). Figure 7c also shows the possible initiation of rifting between northern Laurentia and Siberia that may be represented by the 723 Ma Franklin Dykes (e.g. Heaman *et al.* 1992). However, this may have been an aborted rift, with final separation between Laurentia and Siberia delayed until the Early Cambrian (e.g. Pelechaty 1996).

Although India is not regarded as part of Rodinia, two sets of palaeomagnetic data can be used to position this block during the period associated with Rodinia breakup. The Harohalli Dykes of southern India, dated at 823-810Ma (Radhakrishna & Matthew 1996), place India at high palaeolatitudes (Fig. 7a). Two high-quality poles, from the Sevchelles at 755-748 Ma (Torsvik et al. 2001a), and the Malani Igneous Suite (MIS) of northwestern India at 771-751 Ma (Torsvik et al. 2001b), can be matched in a tight reconstruction at intermediate, northerly latitudes, tracing India's motion from polar to moderate latitudes (Fig. 7b and c). Traditionally, Madagascar is positioned with the Seychelles and the MIS, based on the correlation of contemporaneous, bimodal igneous intrusive rocks, interpreted as a 450km long continental arc (Handke et al. 1999; Torsvik et al. 2001a,b; Tucker et al. 2001; Collins et al. 2002). However, identification of a significant Pan-African suture zone in eastern Madagascar (the Betsimisraka Fault; Kröner et al. 2000; Collins et al. 2002), which divides a thin eastern region of Indian or Karnataka Craton affinity from the main, central block of Neoarchaean and Palaeoproterozoic age, indicates that most of Madagascar was never connected to India prior to Neoproterozoic time. This raises two alternative palaeogeographic scenarios. The first is that the correlation between central Madagascar, the Seychelles and the MIS is incorrect (Collins et al. 2002), and that central Madagascar was not part of the Seychelles-MIS-Greater India block. The second preserves the Madagascar-Seychelles-MIS connection but extends the Betsimisraka Suture Zone through the Aravalli Belt of northwestern India, thereby separating the Seychelles and the MIS from Greater India until Neoproterozoic time (Torsvik et al. 2001b, fig. 7a). If the second scenario is correct, then there is only one reliable palaeopole for India (Harohalli Dykes; Table 1) and two poles for this separate block (Malani and Mahe; Table 1) during the 1000-550 Ma period. In this case, India would still be excluded from Rodinia and its position in Figure 7a is probably correct. Less certain would be the location of India in Figure 7b and c, but India's depicted southerly motion is consistent with eventual collision with Australia at c. 640 Ma (Powell & Pisarevsky 2002). In the present reconstructions, only the easternmost rocks of Madagascar, in their original position adjacent to India, are shown; central Madagascar is of uncertain position and is thus not shown.

The positions of Congo-São Francisco in Figure

7a and c are constrained by the Gagwe and Mbozi Poles, respectively (Table 1). The longitudes of the India and Congo–São Francisco Cratons in Figure 7 are unconstrained, as only individual poles, not APWP, are being compared. Tectonics of the Congo–São Francisco Craton during this interval of Rodinia fragmentation is intriguing: collision of the São Francisco Craton and Paraná Block had probably occurred by 790–750 Ma (Pimentel *et al.* 1999), and thus the onset of Gondwanaland's assembly may have overlapped in time with the final stages of Rodinia's demise.

Conclusions

A new configuration of Rodinia is proposed in this study, based on available geological data and reliable palaeopoles. Rodinia was finally assembled c. 1000Ma, as manifest in the series of orogenic belts of 'Grenvillian' age. However, Grenvillian orogenesis was probably multistaged, as was shown for East Antarctica by Fitzsimons (2000). New palaeomagnetic data from Australia (Wingate *et al.* 2002) contradict the popular SWEAT and AUSWUS hypotheses, and a new AUSMEX fit is suggested. The proposed composition of Rodinia does not include India or the Congo–São Francisco Cratons; a new position of Kalahari against Western Australia is suggested.

The breakup of Rodinia probably started at c. 820-800 Ma by rifting between Australia-Mawson-Kalahari and South China-Laurentia-Rio de la Plata. At 780-770 Ma, the spreading centre jumped to a position between Laurentia and South China, and the initial branch was aborted. Kalahari detached from Australia at 760-750 Ma and the Rodinia fragments began the slow journey toward their reassembly in Gondwanaland, and, ultimately, Pangaea.

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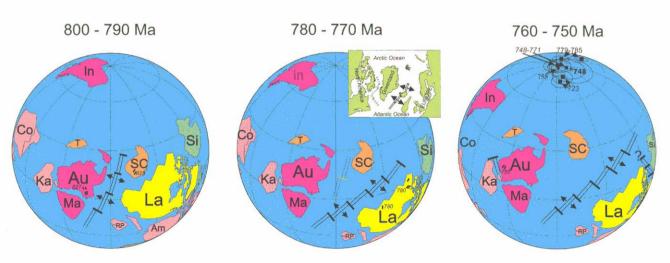
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