¹ Rift and plume: a discussion on active and passive rifting

² mechanisms in the Afro-Arabian rift based on synthesis of

3 geophysical data

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8 Abstract

9 The causal relationship between the activity of mantle plumes and continental break-up is still elusive. The 10 Afro-Arabian rift system offers an opportunity to examine these relationships, in which an ongoing 11 continental break-up intersects a large Cenozoic plume-related flood basalt series. In the Afar region, the 12 Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Main Ethiopian Rift form an R-R-R triple junction within plume related 13 flood basalts series. - separating the Ethiopian and Yemen Traps by ~600 km. We provide an up-to-date 14 synthesis of the available geophysical and geological data from this region. We map the rift architecture 15 in the intersection region using Difference in Gaussians and interpretation of vertical gravity gradients and 16 Bouguer anomalies. of the rifts and With the aid of these methods we review the spatio-temporal 17 constraints in-developing the evolution of the different features of the plume-rift system. 18 Our results show rough and irregular morphology of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea arms in contrast to 19 the symmetric, continuous, and smooth Main Ethiopian Rift. The triple junction formed by the 20 northeastward propagation of the Main Ethiopian rift develops simultaneously to the abandonment of the 21 tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden through Bab al-Mandab Strait. The onset 22 of the triple junction was the last feature to develop in the plume-rift system and marked a tectonic 23 reorganization. By this time all rift arms were sufficiently evolved and the break-up between Africa and 24 Arabia was already accomplished. We infer two spatial constraints in the development of the rifts: (1) the 25 connection of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea by its northeastward propagation; (2) the abandonment of an early tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of 26 27 Aden. Additionally, chronological evidence suggests that regional uplift and flood basalt eruptions 28 sufficiently preceded rifting. By this, we infer a progressive development in which the onset of the triple 29 junction marks a tectonic reorganization and was the last feature to develop after all rift arms were

- 30 thoroughly developed.
- 31 We argue that the classical active and passive rifting mechanisms cannot simply explain the progressive
- 32 development of the Afro-Arabian rift<u>. Instead, we and</u> propose a scenario of plume-induced plate rotation,
- 33 which that includes an interaction between active and passive mechanisms. In this tectonic scenario, the
- arrival of the Afar plume provided a push force that promoted the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole
- 35 <u>northwest to the plate boundary</u>, enabling the rifting and, ultimately, the break-up of Arabia from Africa.

37 Short summary:

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In this contribution, weWe explore the causal relationship between the arrival of the Afar plume and the initiation of the Afro-Arabian rift. We mapped the rift architecture in the triple junction region from-using geophysical data and reviewed the available geological <u>datatemporal evidence</u>. We <u>interpretinfer_a</u> progressive development of the plume-rift system and suggest an interaction between active and passive mechanisms in which the plume provided a push-force that changed the kinematics of the associated plates.

44 1. Introduction

The causal dependency between the eruption of flood basalts and continental break-up is still unclear, 45 although a close occurrence between these two phenomena has been recognized for a long time. 46 47 Continental flood basalts, often referred to as traps, form large igneous provinces covering huge 48 continental areas (Bryan and Ferrari, 2013; Ernst, 2014). Continental flood basalts are often associated 49 with extensive volcanism during short time intervals, which are brought to the surface by deep-seated 50 mantle plumes (Richards et al., 1989; White and McKenzie, 1995; Koppers et al., 2021), although other 51 mechanisms were also suggested (e.g., Anderson, 1994, 2005). There is evidence for a close temporal and 52 spatial occurrence between the eruption of flood basalts and continental break-up. In particular, when 53 reconstructed back to their original plate tectonic configuration, an R-R-R triple junction is typically found 54 within the flood basalt areas (Morgan, 1971; Burke and Dewey, 1973; Buiter and Torsvik, 2014). Using the 55 geological record to examine the mutual dependency of these processes is challenging. It requires high-56 precision constraints regarding in the temporal and spatial development of the different volcanic and 57 tectonic features, often obscured by the overprint of different tectonic processeslong geological history. 58 The Afar region in the central parts of the Afro-Arabian rift system is recognized as a key locality to examine 59 models of plume-rift association, offering a young and active case study in which a plume, regional uplift, 60 an_R-R-R triple junction, break-up, and oceanic spreading co-exist and are superimposed (Fig. 1). Plume-61 rift association is mainly explained by as either 'active' (e.g., Sengör and Burke, 1978) or 'passive' (e.g., 62 White and McKenzie, 1989)-views, with no interaction between those mechanismsmodes. However, some 63 evidence suggests a more complex effect of plumes on the regional plate kinematics (e.g., Cande and 64 Stegman, 2011). Despite the contrary implications of the 'active' and 'passive' views, the Afar case study 65 was used as a prime example to support both the 'active' (e.g., Burke and Dewey, 1973) and the 'passive' 66 (e.g., White and McKenzie, 1989) mechanisms, and some authors argued that both processes are required 67 to explain the observations (Burke and Dewey, 1973; White and McKenzie, 1989; e.g., Courtillot et al., 68 1999). The discrepancy can be primarily attributed to a-the lack of accurate geological and geophysical 69 evidence regarding the uplift, volcanism and rifting phases., leading to contrary interpretations. Moreover, 70 detailed compression between changes in plate motions and the activity of plumes, suggests new concepts 71 in which plumes cause rapid deviations in the kinematics of nearby plates (e.g., Cande and Stegman, 2011). 72 The purpose of this paper is to discuss the causal relationship between the Afar plume and rifting along 73 the Afro-Arabian rift system in light of the large amounts of data collected in recent years and the new 74 concepts derived from other case studies. For this, we first review the timing of volcanism and uplifts in

75 Ethiopia and Yemen, and, the timing of rifting along the Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea and the Main Ethiopian

76 rift. We further provide an analysis and interpretation of modern geophysical datasets, including 77 topography, bathymetry, gravity, magnetic anomalies, earthquakes, and volcano distribution. Using these 78 datasets, we map the architecture of the rifts and obtain constraint-describe the development of rift 79 segments. Finalely, we compare our results with recent models and other case studies in the world, aiming 80 to shed light on the causal relationship between mantle plumes and tectonic processes.

81 The purpose of this paper is to utilize a synthesis of the available geological and geophysical data from the 82 Afar region and to use it for geodynamic implications in the study area. We first review the evidence 83 regarding the temporal association of the volcanic and rift components of the system. This review is 84 essential because large amounts of new data were collected in recent years, enabling a re-examination of 85 the relationships between the plume and the rifting. We further provide an analysis and interpretation of 86 modern geophysical datasets, including topography, bathymetry, gravity, magnetic anomalies, 87 earthquakes, and volcano distribution. Using these datasets, we map the architecture of the rift margins 88 and axes and infer spatial constraints in developing the rift segments. Finally, we discuss the results in the 89 light of recent models and other case studies in the world, aiming to shed light on the causal relationship 90 between mantle plumes and tectonic processes in the crust.

2. Active and passive mechanisms for plume-rift association 91

92 The existence of deep mantle convection and its interaction with the Earth's lithosphere was already 93 pointed out by Wilson (1963), and a close occurrence to continental break-up was soon noticed by the 94 abundance of hotspots near many rift junctions (Morgan, 1971) and flood basalt volcanism along passive 95 margins (Richards et al., 1989). Although Morgan (1971) speculated that deep mantle convection has a 96 significant role in accelerating the overlying tectonic plates, it was later realized that slab-pull provides the 97 main driving force for plate motion (Forsyth and Uyeda, 1975). In their landmark paper, Burke and Dewey 98 (1973) presented 45 case studies of rift junctions associated with hot spots. They proposed a model in 99 which plume-associated uplift and volcanism precede and generate the rift arms, initiated from a triple 100 junction within the plume region. Afar was used as a first and prime example, highlighting its importance 101 as a young and active case study; however, they already noted a complex distribution of continental 102 fragments and magnetic anomaliesits complexity (Burke and Dewey, 1973).

103 Following these insights, 'active' rifting models were developed to explain plume-rift associations (e.g., 104 Keen, 1985; Moretti and Froidevaux, 1986; Campbell and Griffiths, 1990; Hill, 1991; White and McKenzie, 105 1995). These models generally propose that rifting can result from a combination of processes derived 106 from the actively rising head of an anomalously hot mantle. These mantle plumes include impingeing and 107 erodeing the base of the lithosphere, which prompts uplift and decompression melting, which in turn 108 introduces internal extensional forces and ultimately leads to break-up. Accordingly, in this view, regional 109 uplift and volcanism are expected to precede rifting, which would initiate from a triple junction above the 110 mantle plume head (Fig. 2a).

111 Later contributions challenged the active view, arguing that a 'passive' asthenospheric upwelling can also

112 resolve the occurrence of flood basalt near rifts (firstly introduced by White and McKenzie, 1989). In this

113 view, rifting is initiated by the remote extensional stresses, usually along former sutures and weak zones,

114 regardless of underlying plumes. The production of massive volcanism is allowed when the thinned and

115 stretched lithosphere is underlaid by a thermal anomaly in the mantle. The volcanism is generated by 116

decompression melting of the hot asthenospheric mantle, which passively risesing. As plumes form large

areas of higher temperatures in the mantle, massive volcanism is found on Earth's crust close to rifts.
 Accordingly, in this view, subsidence is a precondition required for magmatism, and there is no triggering
 mechanismsparticular reason for a triple junction to form within the flood basalts region (Fig. 2b).

120 Although active and passive views-mechanisms have been discussed in the last 50 years, the role of plumes 121 in initiating rifting is still unclear and much debated. Even for well-studied and prime examples of plume-122 rift association as the Siberian, Parana-Etendeka, Deccan, and Greenland traps, there is no agreement on 123 whether active processes initiated rifting (Geoffroy, 2005; Ivanov et al., 2015; Frizon De Lamotte et al., 124 2015; Fromm et al., 2015; Mitra et al., 2017). Some authors emphasize the significance of pre_existing 125 lithosphere weaknesses along structural inheritance and former sutures and structures (Buiter and 126 Torsvik, 2014; Will and Frimmel, 2018), while others show the potential of plumes to thermally and 127 chemically erode the base of the lithosphere in the weakening process allowing rifting (Sobolev et al., 128 2011). Additionally, some models demonstrate that mixed active-passive scenarios can better explain 129 observation (Koptev et al., 2018), and even that both mechanisms are needed to explain temporal 130 variations in rifts (Huismans et al., 2001).

131 In addition to the dichotomic views, a complex relationships in which plumes can influence the horizontal 132 velocities of plates is suggested based on detailed plate reconstructions and numerical modeling (van 133 Hinsbergen et al., 2011, 2021; Cande and Stegman, 2011; Chatterjee et al., 2013; Pusok and Stegman, 134 2020).some evidence. In these studies an abrupt changes in plate velocities is correlated to the arrival of 135 a nearby plume head. In the kinematic record of the Indian plate, the arrival of the Marion and Reunion 136 plumes (associated with the Morondava and Deccan LIPs) is synchronized with abrupt plate speed-up and 137 Euler pole shifting. During the arrival of the Reunion plume (~65 Ma) the acceleration of the Indian plate 138 was coupled with transitory slowing of the African plate (Cande and Stegman, 2011). Plume push forces 139 sourced by the drag of the flowing asthenosphere, add up to the remote stresses, was shown as capable 140 to change the plate kinematics and even trigger the formation of new plate boundaries by a mechanism 141 termed as plume-induced plate rotation (van Hinsbergen et al., 2021) (Fig. 2c).implies more complex 142 relationships between plumes and the kinematics of the associated plates (van Hinsbergen et al., 2011; 143 Cande and Stegman, 2011; Chatterjee et al., 2013; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). These studies discuss the 144 role of plumes in changing the relative motions of the overlying plates and suggest that lateral forces, 145 induced by the arrival of the plume head, can add up to the remote stresses, change the plate kinematics 146 and even trigger the formation of new plate boundaries (van Hinsbergen et al., 2021) (Fig. 2c). Thus, in 147 this view the plume is changing the remote stress field, which in-turn allows rifting.

¹⁴⁸ 3. Geological setting

149 The Afro-Arabian rift system extends from Turkey to Mozambique (McConnell and Baker, 1970) and is the 150 current episode of the Phanerozoic break-up of the East African continental plate (Bosworth, 2015). It 151 contains rifting in the Gulf of Aden, in the Red Sea, and in East Africa. In the center of that system, the 152 Ethiopian northwestern and southeastern plateaus represent an elevated topography with a highest peak 153 of 4,620 m (Ras Dashan) and an average elevation of 2000 m above sea level. This area is part of the so-154 called African Superswell, a wide region of anomalously high topography comprising East Africa (Lithgow-155 Bertelloni and Silver, 1998; Corti, 2009). In western Yemen, the Sarawat Mountains are the highest peaks 156 in the Arabian Peninsula, reaching more than 3,000 m, at only 100 km distance from the shoreline of the 157 Red Sea. The<u>se</u> mountains show a typical stair morphology with steep slopes at the western and southern 158 sides, while the eastern <u>shows gentler downward side</u> slopes downward more gently.

The Gulf of Aden is the most developed rift segment in the Afro-Arabian rift, with a mature and fully developed oceanic spreading center connected to the mid-ocean ridge in the Indian Ocean. Six pairs of magnetic anomalies associated with seafloor spreading are recognized along the Gulf of Aden (Fournier et al., 2010) (Fig. 3). Oblique rifting and high-angle structural inheritance along the Gulf of Aden resulted in multiple ridge segments and fracture zones (i.e., transform faults; Leroy et al., 2013; Autin et al., 2013; Bellahsen et al., 2013; Duclaux et al., 2020).

At the northern parts, <u>the</u> rifting in the Red Sea is connected by the Dead Sea Fault to the Eurasian collision zone along the Taurus-Zagros Mountains. The Red Sea is experiencing the last stages of break-up and early stages of oceanic accretion. An oceanic spreading center with three pairs of ridge parallel magnetic anomalies <u>is developedare recognized</u> in the southern parts of the Red Sea (Schettino et al., 2016) (Fig. 3)-<u>H, h</u>owever, oceanic crust is probably flooring most of the basin (Augustin et al., 2021).

The Main Ethiopian Rift is the northernmost section of the intra-continental rifting in East Africa, splitting the not-yet well-individualized Somali plate from Africa (Chorowicz, 2005). Current rifting in the Main Ethiopian Rift is characterized by a narrow rift valley, in which volcanic and tectonic activities are localized and influenced by oblique rifting conditions (Corti, 2009).

174 The Afar triangle is where the above-mentioned three rift arms meet in the Afar triangle (Fig. 3). It is a low 175 elevated area compared to the high Ethiopian plateausconsidered a geological depression as it is an area 176 of low elevation compared to the high Ethiopian plateaus, and thus commonly referred to as the Afar 177 'depression'. Nevertheless, this term is misleading as the Afar triangle is included within the rifted area 178 and is geologically elevated from the deep bathymetry of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea basins. The 179 Afar triangle is mainly floored by Pliocene and younger volcanic rocks, where Miocene volcanic series are 180 exposed along the western margins and at the elevated Danakil block. It comprises many volcanoes that 181 composeand axial volcanic ranges (Fig. 2), where the Red Seanortheastern side is characterized by 182 transverse volcanic fields and the southwestern side by central volcanoes (Varet, 2018). Two symmetric 183 magnetic anomalies have been recognized in the Tendaho graben, similar to those observed along 184 spreading centers in the Gulf of Aden (Bridges et al., 2012). These could be associated either with young 185 oceanization or with linear anomalies developed in transitional crust (Ebinger et al., 2017). Structurally, 186 several mega-scale accommodation zones connecting the different rift segments and a triple junction 187 location are recognized at 11.0°N, 41.6°E at the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity (e.g, Tesfaye et al., 2003)

188 (Fig. 3).

189 4. Temporal constraints

190 *4.1.* Flood basalts and uplift

191 Vast efforts were made to study the chemistry and chronology of flood basalts in East Africa (see review 192 by Rooney, 2017). Two phases of extensive flood basalt volcanism are associated with plume-lithosphere 193 interaction (Fig. 4). The early phase is mainly confined to southern Ethiopia and northern Kenya. The timing 194 of this event is poorly constrained to 45-35 Ma (George et al., 1998). The second phase of flood basalt 195 eruptions was more voluminous, more widespread, and shorter-lived. Earliest basalts of this phase date 196 back to 34 Ma near the Tana Basin, in Ethiopia (Prave et al., 2016) and 31 Ma in western Yemen (Peate et 197 al., 2005) (Fig. 4). The traps accumulated very rapidly, in less than 6 Ma (Coulié et al., 2003), and include 198 tholeiitic to alkaline compositions of asthenosphere mantle source (Mattash et al., 2013). Thick sequences 199 of up to 2 km are observed within a widespread region in Ethiopia and Kenya (Bellieni et al., 1981; Wescott 200 et al., 1999; McDougall and Brown, 2009). It is commonly accepted that these flood basalts are of a deep-201 seated mantle plume origin (Koppers et al., 2021). However, the formation mechanism is debatable and 202 may involve multiple plume impingements within a broad upwelling zone connected to the African 203 superplume in the lower mantle (Meshesha and Shinjo, 2008) or a single plume-lithosphere interaction 204 (Rooney, 2017).

205 An elevated topography is associated with the eruption of the flood basalts in Ethiopia. The flood basalts 206 are almost exclusively positioned within the elevated regions of the Ethiopian and Somalian plateaus and 207 the Sarawat Mountains in southwest Yemen (Fig. 1). Dynamic topography component supports up to 1 km 208 of present-day elevation of the Ethiopian and Somalian plateaus, supporting confirming the significant 209 contribution of mantle convection to the regional uplift (Gvirtzman et al., 2016). Although the uplift 210 chronology is not easily resolved, recent studies infer it is a long-term feature already present before the 211 emplacement of the flood basalts (Sembroni et al., 2016; Faccenna et al., 2019). Regional uplift is 212 estimated to begin before 40 Ma, with maximal uplifts between 12 and 28 Ma, reaching an average 213 elevation of 2,500 m- (Fig. 4) (Sembroni et al., 2016).

214 *4.2. Gulf of Aden*

215 The beginning of continental rifting in the Gulf of Aden is only approximately known (Bosworth et al., 216 2005). Estimates mainly reliesy on the dating of sedimentary sequences, published in the 90's (see 217 Bosworth et al., 2005 for a review).and no recent data were published. The evidence of rift initiation was 218 summarized by Bosworth et al. (2005). Various sedimentary indications, including oOnshore outcrops in 219 Yemen (Watchorn et al., 1998) and in Oman (Roger et al., 1989) and offshore wells (Hughes et al., 1991), 220 suggest that rifting in the central and eastern Gulf of Aden began at early to mid-Oligocene, within the 221 Rupelian, i.e., [33.9 - 27.8 Ma]. Syn-rift sediments from the central Yemeni margins indicate that rift flank 222 uplift occurred before any significant regional extension. The continental rifting climax is estimated 223 between 20 and 18 Ma (Watchorn et al., 1998). Radiometric dating indicates that the margins became 224 stable already in the Early Miocene (Bosworth et al., 2005), and rift-to-drift transition is interpreted to 225 occur between ~21.1 and ~17.4 Ma (Watchorn et al., 1998). The seafloor spreading center in the Gulf of 226 Aden is developed along most of its length and is connected to the mid-ocean ridge in the Indian Ocean 227 through the Sheba Ridge (Gillard et al., 2021). In the central Gulf of Aden, magnetic isochrons suggest 228 opening rates of ~27 mm/yr-a prior to 11 Ma, and a slowdown after 11 Ma (Fig. 4). Chron 5C (purple stripes 229 in Fig. 3; 16.0 Ma) is present along the Gulf of Aden up to the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity (Fig. 3; Fournier 230 et al., 2010). This implies that the spreading center developed very rapidly, spreading over - perhaps 231 instantaneously, in geological time scales, covering a distance of more than 700 km in less than 1.5 Ma. 232 This fast propagation ceased at the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity (Fig. 3). The youngest magnetic isochrons 233 (2A, 2.6 Ma) are recognized up to longitude 43.9°E in the eastern Gulf of Tadjoura, ~150 km west to the 234 Shukra al Sheik discontinuity, indicating that along this segment, the ridge propagated westward at an 235 average rate of ~11 mm/yra, in the last 16 Ma. Within the Gulf of Tadjoura, no direct evidence of oceanic 236 spreading was reported to our best knowledge.

237 *4.3. Red Sea*

238 It is not certain when continental rifting in the Red Sea began; however, sSedimentary sequences from 239 offshore drillings suggest that rifting in the Red Seait postdateds the rifting in the Gulf of Aden by a few 240 million years (Bosworth et al., 2005). Independent evidence-studies suggests that rifting had begun 241 simultaneously along the entire Red Sea at late Oligocene-Early Miocene, ~23 Ma (Plaziat et al., 1998; 242 Szymanski et al., 2016; Stockli and Bosworth, 2018; Morag et al., 2019). Magnetic isochrons associated 243 with seafloor spreading are recognized at only known from the southern parts of the Red Sea (Fig 3 ; Girdler 244 and Styles, 1974). However, oceanic lithosphere is probably abundant along most of the basin (Augustin 245 et al., 2021). Chron 3 (4.2 Ma) is only present between latitudes 16° and 18°, while chrons 2A (2.6 Ma) and 246 2 (1.8 Ma) are present up to latitude 22° (Schettino et al., 2016). The recognition of Evidence for Chron 5 247 (10 Ma) in the central Red Sea was recently suggested to mark the beginning of seafloor spreading 248 (Okwokwo et al., 2022). Structural reconstructions, geodetic measurements, and magnetic anomalies 249 suggest an opening rates of ~11 mm/yra in the central parts of the basinup to ~4.6 Ma, with an abrupt 250 increase in opening rates to ~25 mm/a between at ~54.6 and 1.8 Ma and a decrease to ~14 mm/a (Fig. 4) 251 (; Schettino et al., 2018). The southern edges of the magnetic chrons suggest that the southern Red Sea 252 ridge rapidly propagated 50 km southwards, with rates of ~30 mm/yr, between chrons 3 (4.2 Ma) and 2A 253 (<u>to</u>2.6 Ma (<u>~30 mm/a</u>). Since 2.6 Ma, the Red Sea ridge has not propagated southward, probably due to 254 the decrease in angular velocity of Danakil relative to Arabia (Fig. 3; Schettino et al., 2018).

255 4.4. Main Ethiopian Rift

256 The onset of faulting and volcanism along segments of the Main Ethiopian riftResults from many years of extensive fieldwork (see Corti, 2009 for review) suggest a diachronous development of the different 257 258 segments of the Main Ethiopian Rift (e.g. Bonini et al., 2005). However, there is no agreement regarding 259 the exact timing of events and even the propagation trend of the rift. Reconstructions based on magnetic 260 anomalies from the Southwest Indian ridge suggest an upper limit for the Nubia-Somalia separation at ~19 261 Ma, including large uncertainties regarding the rates and directions of the relative motion pre-16 Ma 262 (DeMets and Merkouriev, 2016) (Fig. 4). Geochronological data suggest that volcanism and There are 263 indications that rifting in East Africa started at the Turkana depression in southern Ethiopia at 50 Ma (Varet, 2018) and episodically propagated north to Afar (Wolfenden et al., 2004);, however, itthis is still a 264 265 matter of debate if there is a general propagation pattern or if different segments propagated in different 266 directions (see figs 42-44 in Corti, 2009). Nevertheless, Rradiometric dating of structural features indicates 267 that extension commenced at ~11 Ma within the northern Main Ethiopian Rift (Wolfenden et al., 2004). 268 In summary, regional uplift and flood basalt volcanism in Ethiopia preceded the rifting of the Afro-Arabian

rift (e.g., Rooney, 2017). The rift arms developed at different times, when rifting in the eastern Gulf of
 Aden started during the late phases of flood basalt volcanism (at ~30 Ma) in Ethiopia. Rwhereas rifting in

the Red Sea (at ~23 Ma) and the Main Ethiopian Rift (at ~19 Ma) started in a lag of ~5-7 Ma after flood basalt volcanism.

273 5. Data and Methods

274 We used bathymetry (Gebco compilation) and topography (SRTM 15+) data to identify morphotectonic

275 features. To highlight and map the architecture of the margins and axes of the rifts, we applied the

Difference of Gaussians (Fig. 5) method to the topography and the bathymetry grids (Akram et al., 2017).

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This method allows a fast and accurate edge detection of elevation using active spatial bandpass filtering.
We applied luminance coloring to the resulting grid using the open-source image processing software
Gimp.org.

To study density-related shallow crustal structures, we used the satellite altimetry-derived vertical gravity gradient (VGG) model of Sandwell et al. (2014), offering 1 arc-min resolution at offshore regions. As higher frequencies are intensified in the spectral power of the VGG, its anomalies are more source-localized and shallow-sensitive than free-air anomalies. To enhance the edges associated with the VGG, we applied a linear 11-colors colormap, further applied transparency to the VGG map, and projected it on a shaded

285 relief (Fig. 5<u>Fig. 6</u>a).

To study deeper crustal structures and eliminate the topography effect, we used Bouguer gravity anomaly

(BGA), derived from the XGM2019 gravity model (Zingerle et al., 2020), calculated with a grid step of 0.1
 degrees. The XGM2019 is the most updated global gravity model of the <u>International Centre for Global</u>

Earth Models (ICGEM) and is provided in terms of spherical harmonics up to 2159 degrees (Ince et al.,
 2019; Zingerle et al., 2020). In addition, we applied a linear 240-colors colormap to enhance BGA

structures, further applied transparency to the BGA map, and projected it on a shaded relief (Fig. 5Fig. 6b).

292 To better correlate and discriminate crustal structures and rift features, we considered 1913 earthquake

locations (Fig. 3) from the International Seismological Centre catalog with minimum magnitudes above 4

294 ML, recorded between 1964 and 2019. To better infer recent tectonic and volcanic activity, we further 295 considered the locations of Quaternary onshore volcanoes (Fig. 3), from the Global Volcanism Program

296 (Smithsonian Institution) and Google Earth mapping.

297 6. Results

298 6.1. Rift margins

299 The most prominent morphological feature of the rift system is the escarpment along its shoulders. The 300 escarpments mark the rift margin as they distinguish between (1) uplifted pre-rift rocks of the Arabo-301 Nubian shield or trap basalts sequences and (2) Quaternary arid fluvial sediments or young volcanic 302 sequences, although several continental crustal fragments are present within the Afar Triangle. Thus, the 303 escarpments are very distinctive in the topographical and gravity data. The edge detection analysis of 304 topography and bathymetry data allows us to outline the rift margins (Fig. 6). This method highlights 305 high frequency details where in Fig 5. steep gradients are shown in bright colors and moderate gradients 306 in grey colors.

307 In the Red Sea, the escarpments are generally continuous with an average rift width of 440 \pm 20 km 308 (calculated perpendicular to the Red Sea axis in the study area), and a general increase in rift width from 309 north to south (Fig. 6Fig. 5b). We identify two segments that mark an abrupt change in rift orientation and 310 rift width: (1) Below latitudes-15.5° non the African margin and 18° non the Arabian margin (segment I in 311 Fig. 6Fig. 5), the escarpment deviates from its general parallel to the Red Sea trend, bending towards the 312 Afar region. The escarpment is characterized by seismic activity from that point on the African side, which 313 is also considered the northern point of the western Afar margins (Zwaan et al., 2020a). (2) Below latitudes 314 12.5°N on the African margin and 15°N on the Arabian margin (segment II in Fig. 6Fig. 5), we identify 315 another abrupt change, both in the prientation and the width of the rift. That point on the African margin

Commented [RI2]: Cadenas: "maybe you can quantify these two parameters to give an idea of the change"

Ran: The width is quantified in figure 5b (medium blue graph)

is the intersection of the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity with the Western Afar Margins (Tesfaye et al.,
 2003). We note that these changes are noticeable and similar on the African and Arabian sides (Fig. 5a).

318 In the Gulf of Aden, the escarpments generally follow the trend of the basin (Fig 5). In the western parts, 319 the escarpments are less straight and less continuous than those of the Red Sea and generally reflect the 320 sinistral basin structures. This morphology is well explained by oblique rifting along the Gulf of Aden (Leroy 321 et al., 2013). The average rift width in the study area is 470 ± 45 km (calculated rift-perpendicular), with a 322 general eastward increase (565 km at 47.5°E and 420 km at 43.2°E; Fig. 6Fig. 5b). We recognize an abrupt 323 change in rift width along three lines (III-V in Fig. 6Fig. 5), which are associated with fracture zones. Along 324 the Somalian margin, prominent sinistral offsets are recognized along lines III and V. This escarpment 325 segment is a morphological continuation of the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity lineament, and is also 326 prominent in the VGG map (Fig. 5 Fig. 6 a).

Although recognizable in the processed topography map, the rift shoulders are less sharp in the Main Ethiopian Rift (Fig. 6Fig. 5a). They are prominent in the gravity data as they are associated with VGG and BGA highs (see profile A in Fig. 9). In the Afar region, the margins show a funnel shape (Fig. 6Fig. 5a). The distance between the Somalian and Ethiopian escarpments is steadily and monotonically increasing from the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity (Fig. 6Fig. 5b), suggesting that this segment is intact and non-disturbed by the other arms of the rift system.

In summary, the rift margins of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden are interrupted by with the proximity to the Afar regiontriangle, whereas the margins of the Main Ethiopian Rift smoothly funnel into the Afar regiontriangle.

336 *6.2. Rift axes*

Along the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden basins, the rift axes are distinctively characterized by deep and
 sharp bathymetric troughs, VGG lows, BGA highs, and intense seismic activity (Fig. 3). However, with the
 proximity to the Afar region, the rift axes change their characteristics.

340 The rift axis along the Red Sea is outlined by a deep and wide axial trough that ends at latitude 14.5°N, 341 approximately 400 km from the triple junction (Fig. 7a). South of latitude-14.5°N, we find geophysical 342 evidence that the rift axis is bent westward, entering meeting the Afar regiononshore at the Bay of Beylul 343 (Iatitude-white dashed line in Fig. 7b13.3°).: (1) The VGG signature and the bathymetry of the Red Sea axis, 344 with display highs along the walls (50 Eotvos) of the axial trough and a lows above along the center (Fig. 345 7b and profile B). (2) A trail of volcanic islands follows its this path (Hanish-Zukur Islands; Fig. 3), and the 346 alignments of volcanic cones and vents on the islands are orthogonal to the trail of the islands (Mitchell 347 and Bosworth, (in press); Gass et al., 1973). (3) A general trend of recent magmatic bodies onshore onshore 348 magmatism meets this line at the Bay of Beylul (Fig. 3). However, major fault sets are not observed in the 349 onshore area of Beylul (Rime et al., 2023). (4) This lineIn addition, a best fits GPS-based rigid block model 350 suggests a block boundary along this path (Viltres et al., 2020), and which is also supported by the fact that 351 the rotation of Danakil relative to Arabia stopped around I ~0.3 Ma (following Schettino et al., 2018 and 352 personal communication). In addition, to this the bent axial segment, a typical gravity signature of the Red 353 Sea rift axis with a 20 mGal central BGA high-peak and 60 - 40 Eotvos VGG side peakspicks to its side, is 354 also recognized along the connection of the Red Sea with the Gulf of Aden at Bab al Mandab Strait 355 (latitudes-13.2°N to 12.3°N; Fig. 7 profile CC'). Nevertheless, this segment is not an active rift axis as no 356 earthquakes, volcanic activity or faulted bathymetryrical expression is associated with it is found along this

segment, thus we propose that this segment is not an active rift axis._r +However, diluted activity is inferred
 from also understood by the low and oblique velocity of Arabia in this area (Fig. 3).

359 In the Gulf of Aden, there is also a distinct change in the characteristics of the rift axis-characteristics,

approximately 400 km from east to the triple junction region (Fig. 8). Up-East to the Shukra al Sheik

discontinuity, the Gulf of Aden is a <u>>2,000 m</u> deep basin, <u>steeply deeps</u> reaching depths of more than 1,000

362 monly a few kilometers fromclose to the shore<u>line.</u>, and has Along the basin the a fragmented axial trough 363 is fragmented, offset by oblique left-lateral transform faults (Fig. 3). On the other hand, Wwest to the

 $\frac{1}{100}$ is fragmented, offset by oblique left-lateral transform faults (Fig. 3). On the other hand, Wwest to the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity, the basin is shallow (~700 m), and the axial trough is very distinct,

365 characterized by deep, and sharp morphology. In this section of the Gulf of Aden, Thisthe ~-1,700 m deep

and ~400 km long curved axials trough segment impales the Afar triangle at the Gulf of Tadjoura (Djibouti)

- 367 (Fig. 8). This axial segment has a distinct gravity signature with 75 mGal central BGA peak and 20 35
- 368 <u>Eotvos VGG side peaks</u>, and is characterized by intensive seismic activity, perhaps the most intensive in
- the rift system, with over 1,000 recorded events with magnitudes above > 4 ML (ISC catalog).

In the Main Ethiopian Rift, there are no abrupt changes in the characteristics morphology and trend of the rift valley with in the proximity to the Afar triangle (Fig. 9). Instead, the rift valley goes through an elevated

dome peaking approximately 400 km from the triple junction (Fig. 9a). The along-strike profile (profile B in Fig. 9) shows that the rift valley reaches altitudes elevations of more than 2,000 m and is associated

374 with a BGA low<u>of -220 mGal</u>.

375 In the Afar triangle, the morphology and VGG data indicates two distinguished regions of several-axial 376 segments (Fig. 10)., which are also distinctive in the VGG map (Fig. 10). We recognize axial trends in two 377 distinguished and geographically separated regions: (1) sSouthwest to of the Tendaho-Goba'ad 378 Discontinuity, a NE trending valley continues follows the NE trend of the Main Ethiopian Rift, characterized 379 by distinct central volcanoes along with anthe axial depression (Fig. 3 and Fig. 10a). (2) Northeast to of the 380 Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity, typical rift axial morphologiesaxial segments are- composed of NW 381 trending short segments along volcanic ranges, parallel to the trend of the Red Sea are abundant over a 382 200 km wide zone. Hence, the Afar depression is divided into two morphological regions, in terms of axial 383 trends, parallel to the Main Ethiopian Rift trending region and the Red Sea trending region.

In summary, with the proximity to the Afar depression, the rift axes of the Red Sea and the Gulf Aden are not persistent and drastically change their trend and morphological characteristics ~400 km from the triple junction. In contrast, the axis of the trend and morphological characteristics of the Main Ethiopian Rift are is consistent, keeping its trend and characteristics from the Ethiopian highs up to the triple junction point

388 <u>in Afar</u>.

389 7. Discussion

390 7.1. The architecture of the intersection region

391 The Afar triangle is the intersection region of three rift arms: the Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Main

392 Ethiopian Rift. Far from the intersection region, the architecture of the rifts, with rift margins parallel to

393 <u>rift axesaxes and margins of these rifts follow a general parallel trend</u>, suggesting that rigid plate tectonics

of the Nubian, Arabian, and Somalian plates controlled their structural development (Garfunkel and Beyth,
 2006; Reilinger et al., 2006; Reilinger and McClusky, 2011; Schettino et al., 2018). However, the

Commented [RI3]: Cadenas: maybe you can quantify using the figures

Ran: not much to quantify, the sentence aim to say that the margins are parallel to the rift axes. We rephrased to clarify.

396 architecture of the intersection region is not simply resolved by rigid plate kinematics (Garfunkel and 397 Beyth, 2006). Our analysis pointpoints abrupt changes of the architectures of the Gulf of Aden and of the 398 Red Sea rifts, ~400 km from the triple junction. Here, the margins deviate from their general orientation 399 and show peaks in rift width (segments I to V in Fig. 5) and are not parallel to the rift axes. The axes 400 themselves deflect from their usual rift-parallel orientation and are curved towards the direction of the 401 triple junction as they meet the shoreline, forming bays (Fig 7 and Fig. 8). Within the Afar triangle, 402 northeast of the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, the margins are fragmented, and there are multiple, 403 short, and sub-parallel axial segments (Fig. 10).- Within the Afar triangle, southwest to the Tendaho-404 Goba'ad discontinuity, the rift margins are continuous and smooth, and the axial volcanic range generally 405 continues the trend of the axial valley of the Main Ethiopian Rift, reflecting a sub-perpendicular extension in accordance with the Nubia - Somalia kinematics, and thus, could be regarded as a rigid plate boundary. 406 407 Fig. 11 summarizes the rift margins and the axial segments mapped in this study. The rift axes of the Gulf 408 of Aden and the Red Sea abruptly change their characteristics, particularly their trends, with the proximity 409 to the Afar region. Around ~400 km from the triple junction, the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea axes deviate 410 from their basin parallel trend, bending towards the third and younger arm of the Main Ethiopian Rift. 411 Within the Afar triangle, northeast of the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, the margins are fragmented, 412 and there are multiple, short, and sub-parallel axial segments.

Fig. 11 shows the mapped rift margins and axial segments. In our-this study, the term "mapped axial segments" inferred-is not simply correlated with rift axes, especially in the on-shore regions. as the geology in this regions is quite complex, including several fault and transfer zones, and, exposing pre-rift rock sequences (e.g., Varet, 2018),- However, the mapped axial segments mapped in this study in the continental area northeast to the Tendaho Goba'ad discontinuity is are somewhat correlative with rift axes that had been suggested based on field observations (e.g., Rime et al., 2023).

Within the Afar triangle, southwest to the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, the rift margins are continuous
 and smooth, and the axial volcanic range generally continues the trend of the axial valley of the Main
 Ethiopian Rift, reflecting a sub-perpendicular extension in accordance with the Nubia –Somalia kinematics,
 and thus, could be regarded as a rigid plate boundary.

423 Northeast of the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, Aaxial segments are generally sub-parallel to the Red Sea axis (Zwaan et al., 2020b), which led authors to suggest that this region reflects an evolving 424 425 discontinuity of the oceanic spreading center in the Red Sea (e.g. Tazieff et al., 1972; Bosworth et al., 2005). 426 Although several focal solutions indicated dextral strike-slip motions in this area, we don't find other 427 evidence for a typical first-order transform connection between the ridge in the Red Sea and the 428 continuation of the northern Afar axial segments, offshore Gulf of Zula. Magnetic isochrons stripes in the 429 Red Sea are observed mapped at more than 200 over 100 km south of the Gulf of Zula region (Fig. 12), and 430 the volcanic ridge in the southern Red Sea is very active (Eyles et al., 2018). Although earthquake clusters 431 at latitude-16.5°N indicate strike-slip solutions, supporting a structural connection to the Red Sea axis, 432 these are abundant throughout the study area (Hofstetter and Beyth, 2003). Alternatively, it is possible to 433 regard the jump between the Red Sea ridge to and the axial segments in northeastern Afar could be 434 interpreted as a non-transform discontinuity. Hhowever, second-order discontinuities are usually 435 characterized by <30 km offsets, and here the jump is ~200 km (Macdonald et al., 1984; Carbotte et al., 436 2016). Thus, there is no structuralwe find no circumstantial evidence to relate regard the axial volcanism 437 in the Afar depression-triangle as part of the development of to the Red Sea spreading center. This 438 conclusion agrees with the study of Rime et al. (2023), which suggests a northward propagation of the rift

Commented [RI4]: Cadenas: maybe you can add some evidences that support this interpretation

Ran: there are none, thus we reject this option

439 in the Danakil Depression supported by younging trend of magmatic products, rifting ages and other
 440 argumentsdiscusses the geological evidence from Afar.

441 The architecture of the intersection region Our analysis highlights that the area northeast to the Tendaho-442 Goba'ad discontinuity is characterized by diffuse deformation, reflectings a rugged connection of the Red 443 Sea and the Gulf of Aden arms to the Main Ethiopian Rift and is characterized by diffuse deformation rather 444 than sharp plate boundaries. Kinematic studies support this view, indicating that microplate rotations and 445 diffuse boundaries significantly influence the structural development of this region. A recent model based 446 on GPS observations (Viltres et al., 2020) reveals a diffuse character of the Danakil - Nubia boundary with 447 inter-rifting deformation over more than > 100 km wide zone. The Danakil microplate extends to the 448 Hanish-Zukur Islands at its southern edge (~13.8°N) with no precise/sharp boundary (Fig. 3). The Danakil 449 microplate is rotating counterclockwise (at a mean rate of 1.5° ± 0.6°/Ma for the last ~7 Ma ; Manighetti 450 et al., 2001), while the Ali-Sabieh block, south of the Gulf of Tadjoura, is rotating clockwise (15° between 451 8 to 4 Ma; Audin et al., 2004), described as a "saloon-doors" mode of opening (Fig. 11; Kidane, 2016). 452 Observations and analog models indicate that strain in Afar is localized in distinct rift segments, which are

spread within a broad zone of interaction of the associated plates-<u>The concept of segments of localized</u>
 strain, which are spread over a broad zone in Afar was noted from many indicators including diking events,
 structural geology, seismology and geodesy (Keir et al., 2011; Pagli et al., 2014, 2018; Doubre et al., 2017).
 Analogue models demonstrated that the plate interactions in Afar results in a broad zone of localized
 extension (Maestrelli et al., 2022).

458 Hence, the architecture of the intersection region of the rift arms discloses a ~150,000 km² complex region, 459 in which diffuse boundaries and microplate rotations link the three rift arms (Fig. 11). Accordingly, a 460 genuinely single triple junction point, in the sense of a three-rift arms intersection point, cannot be 461 specified for this system, and multiple triple junctions could be considered (e.g., see tectonic models in 462 Viltres et al., 2020). The difficulty of defining sharp plate boundaries within Afar was discussed in many 463 works (e.g., Barrberi and Varet, 1977 and references therein). Nevertheless, we agree that the intersection 464 point of the Ethiopian rift valley and the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity could be regarded as the 'main' 465 junction point of the rift system, as the deformation characteristics between the northern Main Ethiopian 466 Rift and the diffuse zone on the Gulf of Aden - Red Sea rifts are most distinctively changed there (Tesfaye 467 et al., 2003).

468 7.2. Spatial constraints in the development of the plume-rift system

The <u>mapping of the rift margins and axial segments architecture of the Afar region</u> allows us to draw two spatial constraints in the development of the plume-rift system:

471 (1) The first is the connection of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Gulf of Aden - Red Sea rifts by a 472 northeastward propagation. Since the divergence between Nubia_and_-Somalia is sub-perpendicular 473 vertical to the strike of the northern Main Ethiopian Rift, resolving its propagation direction is quite 474 intangible and conversednot dictated by the kinematics (Tesfaye et al., 2003; Wolfenden et al., 2004; 475 Bonini et al., 2005; Keranen and Klemperer, 2008; Abebe et al., 2010). The margins of southeast Afar show 476 symmetric, continuous, and smooth curved trends, from the elevated regions of the Main Ethiopian Rift 477 to the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity (Fig. 6Fig. 5). With respect to the northeastward trend of the Main 478 Ethiopian rift, the Somalian margin is curved clockwise, following like-the Ali-Sabieh sense of rotation 479 (Kidane, 2016), whereas, the Ethiopian margin is curved counterclockwise, like the Danakil sense of 480 rotation (Fig. 11; Schult, 1974). This architecture could be understood in terms of fracture mechanics by

481 reorientating the reorientation of a propagating fracture near a pre-existing fracture. Strain analysis 482 indicates that a propagating fracture would curve parallel to the pre-existing fracture under a tensional 483 stress field due to free surface boundary conditions induced by the open pre-existing fracture (Dyer, 1988). 484 Thusin analogy, this macro scale the architecture of the study area may express a smooth linkage of the 485 Main Ethiopian Rift to the pre-existing Gulf of Aden-Red Sea rifts by a northeastward propagation. Hence, 486 this implies that a triple junction formed at a late stage, when all three arms were already significantly 487 developed. This conclusion agrees with structural geochronology within the northern Main Ethiopian Rift, 488 showing that extension in the northern Main Ethiopian rift commenced at 11 Ma (Wolfenden et al., 2004).

489 (2) The second spatial constraint is the abandonment of abandoning an early tectonic connection between 490 the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden through the Bab al-Mandab Strait. As the VGG and neovolcanic activity 491 indicate that the Red Sea axis currently enters Afar at the Bay of Beylul (see section 6.2), we find arguments 492 for an earlier tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden through Bab al-Mandab Strait: 493 (i) Below-South of latitude 13.2° N and up to the connection to the Gulf of Aden (at latitude 12.3° N), the 494 gravity data shows typical rift axis characteristics, with BGA high and VGG picks to its side depict the typical 495 and previously defined gravity signature of the rift axis (Fig. 7 and Fig. 8; see section 6.2). (ii) The submarine 496 channel north to the Hanish Island (latitude-Fig 7, 13.4°N)- shows no association with modern water 497 currents and may possibly formed by faults in the subsurface be explained by subsurface rift structures 498 (Mitchell and Sofianos, 2018). (iii) This is the straight continuation of the trend of the Red Sea axis, along 499 which the basins are curtly connected (Fig. 1). Thus, it is reasonable proposing that it was also the tectonic 500 connection in the early stages of rift development. Likewise, reconstructions suggest that the Danakil 501 microplate started to rotate in the Middle Miocene (~10 Ma), when Arabia was already separated from 502 Africa (Collet et al., 2000; Schettino et al., 2016; Rime et al., 2023). Those reconstructions show that until 503 that time, the pre-Middle Miocene divergence was focused along along the seawayDanakil and Arabia at 504 the southernmost Red Sea. This suggests that the present deflection deviation from the basin parallel 505 trend of the rift axes at the tip of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea marks a tectonic reorganization in this 506 region.

507 Adopting the fracture propagation analog postulated here for the northeastward propagation of the Main 508 Ethiopian Rift, impliesit follows that the new stress conditions in Afar may be responsible for the 509 abandonment of the tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Adenthat the abandonment 510 of the tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden happens as a response to the new 511 stress conditions in Afar. Rime et al. (2023) suggested that the deposition of lacustrine sediments in Afar 512 (Chorora Fm) marks the development of the Main Ethiopian Rift in Afar. They point out that these 513 sediments were deposited coeval withroughly at the same time to the individualization of the Danakil 514 Block, and thus to the <u>decrease of the extensional reduction in the tectonic activity of at</u> the southernmost 515 Red Sea rift.

These two spatial constraints indicate-suggest that the onset of the triple junction occurred happened at a late stage when the three rift arms were already developed and the Red Sea was tectonically connected to the Gulf of Aden, far (~250 km) away from the present-day triple junction (Fig. 13). The onset of the triple junction markeds a tectonic reorganization and microplate formation. As a result, the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea arms are not smoothly connected to the Main Ethiopian Rift, and a vast area of diffuse and complex deformation developed within the intersection region.

522 7.3. Mechanisms for plume-rift association

523 The temporal constraints regarding the development of the plume-rift features, summarized in section 4, 524 together with the two spatial constraints inferred in this study, allow us to examine the causal relationship 525 between the activity of the Afar plume and rifting. Our insights suggest that neither 'active' nor 'passive' 526 rifting mechanisms are solely consistent with the observations. Passive rifting models fail to explain the 527 plume-rift association mainly because the flood basalt volcanism cannot be attributed to a passively rising 528 asthenospheric mantle beneath a stretched and thinned lithosphere, as dynamic uplift in Ethiopia was 529 shown to beis a long-lasting process that preceded, prior to flood basalt volcanism (Sembroni et al., 2016). 530 Hence, rifting and associated subsidence are subsequent to flood basalt volcanism (Fig. 4). The estimations 531 that the Ethiopian plateau was elevated of ~1 km elevation before flood basalts (Fig. 4) coincide with active 532 plume-head predictions (Campbell and Griffiths, 1990). Moreover, the passive model does not explain why 533 a triple junction is located within the flood basalts area, as rifting in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden are at 534 an oblique angle to the former sutures (Buiter and Torsvik, 2014).

535 On the other hand, active models are not in line with the progressive development of the rifts, mainly 536 because the flood basalts region cannot be considered a center or a nucleus, from which rift arms spread, 537 as expected in an actively generated triple junction. Numerous studies noted that -the tectonic 538 development of the Afar region is not compatible with a simplified model of rift arms that simultaneously 539 spread away from a triple junction (see Section 5.2 in Rime et al., 2023 for a review). The inset of a triple junction was the last feature to develop in the system, by the propagation of the Main Ethiopian Rift 540 541 towards Afar, followed by a tectonic reorganization including the abandonment of a former tectonic 542 connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. By this time, the rift arms had already developed, 543 and the break-up between Africa and Arabia had already been accomplished between Africa and Arabia. 544 This tectonic reorganization cannot be attributed to the development of gravitational forces exerted 545 potential by the plume head (Hill, 1991), as it occurred millions of years ~20 Ma after flood basalts 546 magmatism. That rules out the possibility that the arrival of the Afar plume directly led to the formation 547 generated the onset of the triple junction, as more than 20 Ma separate these events and the rift arms did not spread from the plume region. 548

549 We propose a scenario in which rifting was triggered by a plume-induced plate rotation (Fig. 2c). Numerical 550 simulations suggest that horizontal asthenospheric flows due to the arrival of a plume head at the base of 551 the lithosphere induce a plume-push force that can accelerate plates by several cm yr^{-1} (van Hinsbergen 552 et al., 2011, 2021; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). In this scenario, flood basalt volcanism would be 553 synchronous to an abrupt plate speed-up and thus to new remote stress conditions. In the case of the 554 Indian plate, at least two episodes of massive flood basalt volcanism, Morondava LIP (~94 Ma) and Deccan 555 traps (67 Ma), are associated with plume-derived plate acceleration, and a drastic change in the tectonic 556 framework (van Hinsbergen et al., 2011, 2021; Cande and Stegman, 2011; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). 557 Further, torque balance modeling simulating the horizontal forces generated from a point source (plume 558 head) suggests that horizontal plume-push can force a significant plate rotation and, consequently, initiate 559 new plate boundaries (van Hinsbergen et al., 2021).

In the Afro-Arabian rift, indeed new plate boundaries formed after the arrival of the large Afar plume and
 a significant plate rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole characterizes the Arabian continent (Joffe and

Garfunkel, 1987; Viltres et al., 2022). Magnetic anomalies and structural reconstructions suggest that the
 rotation around a nearby pole already characterized Arabia since the Oligocene (Fournier et al., 2010;

564 Schettino et al., 2018). Additionally, the beginning of intensive volcanism in the north-western Arabian

plate (Harrat Ash Shaam) at Late Oligocene (Ilani et al., 2001), <u>reflected reflects</u> a change in mantle-crust interaction and intracontinental extension within the Arabian plate, adjacent to the arrival of Afar plume (Garfunkel, 1989). In the Harrat Ash Shaam volcanic field, diking directions from Miocene to recent ages record the rotation of Arabia (Giannerini et al., 1988), suggesting that already during the first stages of volcanism the Arabian plate was rotating around a nearby pole.

The arrival of the Afar plume was also accompanied by a slowdown of Africa (Le Pichon and Gaulier, 1988). 570 571 By this time, Africa collided with Eurasia in the west, explaining its slowdown (Jolivet and Faccenna, 2000) 572 and increased intraplate volcanism (Burke, 1996). However, this collision of Africa and Eurasia cannot 573 simply resolve the change in the rotation of Arabia as the Arabian continent collided with Eurasia not 574 earlier than ~18 Ma (Su and Zhou, 2020), although some authors suggested that asymmetrical along-575 trench entrance of continental material could lead to an intraplate extension similar to those that 576 generated the Africa-Arabia break-up (Bellahsen et al., 2003). Faccenna et al. (2013) already showed that 577 plume-push from the Afar area resolves the present-day plate kinematics in the Middle East, particularly 578 the anti-clockwise toroidal pattern of the Arabia-Anatolia-Aegean system. The importance of active 579 upwelling in Afar to lateral mantle flow below Arabia is also illustrated by shear-wave splitting, indicating 580 a general N-S anisotropy in the mantle (Qaysi et al., 2018). Stamps et al. (2014) calculated the current 581 driving forces for the Nubia-Somalia divergence and found that gravitational potential energy is the most 582 significant force, stronger by an order of magnitude than forces from basal shear tractions of mantle 583 convection. They point out that the gravitational potential energy is sufficient to sustain present-day rifting 584 in East Africa but not to initiate rupture of continental lithosphere. In the case of the Arabian plate, basal 585 shear tractions are expected to be higher due to the orientation of northward-directed mantle flow 586 (Faccenna et al., 2013).

587 If the Afar plume induced the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole, then it is understood how the Gulf 588 of Aden and the Red Sea rifts developed after a regional uplift and flood basalt volcanism but still 589 geometrically developed by the new regional stress field and structural inheritance Plume-inducesd plate 590 rotation settles the facts that regional uplift and flood basalt volcanism shortly preceded rifting (Sembroni 591 et al., 2016) together with the insight that rifting was developed by far field forces and plate kinematics 592 (Autin et al., 2013; Bosworth and Stockli, 2016). It also explains why the trace of the rifts intersect within 593 the plume region as the lithosphere in this region was weakened by the hot plume material (François et 594 al., 2018). Finally, it explains the delayed development of the Main Ethiopian Rift and the late onset of the 595 Afar triple junction by its northwestward propagation, as these were controlled by the slower kinematics 596 of the Somalian plate rather than dynamic forces. In this manner, 'active' and 'passive' mechanisms are 597 coupled and have positive feedback, allowing a close occurrence of flood basalt volcanism and continental 598 break-up, alongside a-passive style of rifting.

599 8. Summary and Conclusions

We reviewed the geologic setting of the Afro-Arabian rift, in which vast regions of flood basalts and ongoing continental break-up are superimposed, aiming to infer a causal relationship between the activity of the deep-seated Afar plume and crustal break-up. We explored the <u>R-R-R triple junction</u> <u>betweenintersection region where_</u>the Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Main Ethiopian Rift form an R-<u>R-R triple junction, separatingthat divide</u> the large Cenozoic plume-related flood basalt series in Ethiopia and Yemen. <u>Based on a We provide a new</u> synthesis and interpretation of modern geophysical datasets, including topography, bathymetry, gravity, magnetic anomalies, earthquakes, and volcano distribution, to
 mapwe mapped the margins and axes of the rift arms.

608 Our results show that We highlight key differences in the terminations of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea 609 arms, which are rough and irregular in contrast to, versus the symmetric, continuous, and smooth 610 architecture of the Main Ethiopian Rift. The architecture of the intersection regions allows us to infer two 611 tempo spatial constraints in the development of the rifts: (1) The triple junction formed by the 612 northeastward propagation the connection of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Gulf of Aden and to the Red 613 Sea by its northeastward propagation, and, (2) and the abandonment of an early the tectonic connection 614 between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden through Bab al-Mandab Strait. Thisese suggest a progressive 615 development of a broad region of diffuse deformation at the intersection area, including a broad region 616 of diffuse deformation and recent tectonic reorganization. The onset of the triple junction was the last 617 feature to develop in the plume-rift system after all rift arms were sufficiently evolved developed-and the 618 break-up between Africa and Arabia was already accomplished.

619 This progressive development does not align with the classic active rifting model, which predicts a plume-620 generated triple junction at the locus of the rift, from which the rifts develop. Nevertheless, the classic 621 passive rifting model fails to explain the chronological evidence, as flood basalts probably erupted on 622 elevated topography before rifting started. We discuss a scenario of plume-induced plate rotation in which 623 the arrival of the Afar plume triggered the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole, and demonstrate that 624 the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole that characterizes the system since the Oligocene. We suggest 625 argue that plume-induced plate rotation this scenario better explains the progressive development of the 626 plume-rift system in the Afro-Arabian rift.

627 9. Data availability

The bathymetry and topography data used in this study was retrieved from GEBCO Compilation Group (2021), available at <u>https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/#area</u>.

630 The VGG data used in this study is available at https://topex.ucsd.edu/grav_outreach/.

The BGA data used in this study is available at <u>http://icgem.gfz-potsdam.de/calcgrid</u>; model XGM2019e 2159, 'gravity_anomaly_bg'.

Earthquake data was retrieved from the International Seismological Centre (2020), On-line Bulletin, https://doi.org/10.31905/D808B830.

Quaternary onshore volcano locations were retrieved from the Global Volcanism Program, Smithsonian
 Institution, available at https://volcano.si.edu/volcanolist-holocene.cfm.

637 Magnetic anomalies data is available at

638 https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Transcurrent Regimes During Rotational Rifting New Insights f

639 rom Magnetic Anomalies in the Red Sea/14743272.

640 10. Author contribution

641 RI carried out the study and wrote and revised the original draft of this paper. PH and NA provided

642 conceptual assistance, helped in writing and reviewed the manuscript. JE mentored the study, took care

643 of administration, and reviewed the manuscript.

644 11. Competing interests

645 The contact author has declared that neither of the authors has any competing interests.

646 12. Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the grants from Minerva Fellowship to R. I. We thank Neil Mitchell and Valentin Rime for their helpful discussion throughout the open discussion process. We wish to thank Antonio Schettino and Derek Keir for their review which helped improving the manuscript. We thank the

650 editors of Solid Earth for helpful comments and review process.

651 13. Figure captions

Fig. 1. Elevation map of the study area, showing the general plate tectonic configuration (from USGS and
 from Viltres et al. (2020) in the Afar region) and Cenozoic volcanics (modified from Varet, 1978; Davison

et al., 1994; Beyene and Abdelsalam, 2005; Bosworth and Stockli, 2016) Black arrows indicate GPS

velocities in respect to Nubia (modified from Reilinger et al., 2006).

656 Fig. 2. Schematic mechanisms for plume-rift association in the Afro-Arabian rift. (a) Active mechanism 657 (e.g., Campbell and Griffiths, 1990)., The plume head impinge and erode the base of the lithosphere, which 658 prompt uplift and decompression melting. These introduce internal extensional forces at the crust, leading 659 to break-up.-_in which rifting results from the actively rising head of the Afar plume. In this mechanism 660 impinging and eroding the base of the lithosphere prompt uplift and decompression melting and flood 661 basalts volcanism. These introduce internal extensional forces and ultimately lead to break-up. (b) Passive 662 mechanism (e.g., White and McKenzie, 1989)., in which rRifting is initiated solely by the remote stresses, 663 regardless of the underlying Afar-plume. In this mechanism, the production of massive volcanism is 664 allowed when the thinned and stretched lithosphere is underlaid by the thermal anomaly in the mantle. 665 Flood basalts volcanism is generated by passively rising decompression melting of the passively rising hot asthenospheric mantle. (c) Plume-induced plate rotation (van Hinsbergen et al., 2021).-, Plume push forces 666 sourced by the drag of the flowing asthenospherein which lateral forces, induced by the arrival of the Afar 667 668 plume head, add up to the remote stresses to change the plate kinematics. In this mechanism flood basalts 669 volcanism is actively controlled, however, rifting is triggered by the new plate kinematics.

Fig. 3. Map of the Afar region showing magnetic isochrons (modified from Fournier et al., 2010; Bridges et al., 2012; Schettino et al., 2016), earthquake locations (from ISC catalog), Holocene onshore volcano locations (from GVP catalog and Viltres et al. (2020)) and recent volcanism (modified from Keir et al., 2013).

Commented [RI5]: 1. It is a shaded relief based on the DEM, but with the current colormap a color bar is not helping. 2.We prefer to have all volcanos with same color Fig. 4. Elevation of the Ethiopian–Yemen plateau (grey boxes, after Sembroni et al., 2016; Faccenna et al.,
 2019), volcanic episodes (orange and red bars) and openinngopening rates of the rift arms (blue lines,
 modified from Fournier et al., 2010; DeMets and Merkouriev, 2016; Schettino et al., 2018). Dashed lines
 indicate estimations from geological observations and soildsolid lines from magnetic isochronsanomalies.

Fig. 5. (a) Difference of Gaussians applied to topography and bathymetry showing rift margins (black lines).
 White dashed lines indicate peaks in rift width. TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity. SSD is the
 Shukra al Sheik discontinuity. Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (b) Rift widths,

- 680 <u>calculated in rift-perpendicular directions.</u>
- Fig. 5Fig. 6. Gravity data of the Afar region. (a) Vertical gravity gradient from Sandwell et al. (2014).
 Bouguer anomaly model from ICGEM, XGM2019e (Zingerle et al., 2020).

Fig. 6. (a) Difference of Gaussians applied to topography and bathymetry showing rift margins (black lines).
 White dashed lines indicate peaks in rift width. TGD is the Tendaho Goba'ad Discontinuity. SSD is the
 Shukra al Sheik discontinuity. Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (b) Rift widths,
 calculated in rift perpendicular directions.

Fig. 7. Bathymetry (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the southern Red Sea. Black
 dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across rift axis.

Fig. 8. Bathymetry (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the Western Gulf of Aden.
 Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across rift axis.

Fig. 9. Topography (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the northern Main Ethiopian
 Rift. Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across (AA') and along (BB') the rift
 valley.

Fig. 10. Topography (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the Afar triangle. Black
 dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity. (d) Profiles
 SW (AA') and NE (BB') to the TGD.

Fig. 11. Rift margins (solid white lines) and axial segments (long dashed black lines) in the Afar region. Black
 dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity.

Fig. 12. Tilt-angle derivative map of magnetic anomalies, projected on a shaded relief after Issachar et al.
 (2022). Purple colures represent positive angles and green colors represent negative angles. White dashed
 lines indicate magnetic stripes (Schettino et al., 2016).

702 Fig. 13. Synthesis of the progressive development of the rift intersections.

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