- Rift and plume: a discussion on active and passive rifting 1
- mechanisms in the Afro-Arabian rift based on synthesis of 2

geophysical data 3

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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, separating the
- 13 Ethiopian and Yemen Traps by ~600 km. We provide an up-to-date synthesis of the available geophysical
- 14 and geological data from this region. We map the rift architecture in the intersection region of the rifts
- 15 and review the spatio-temporal constraints in developing the different features of the plume-rift system.
- 16 We infer two spatial constraints in the development of the rifts: (1) the connection of the Main Ethiopian 17 Rift to the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea by its northeastward propagation; (2) the abandonment of an 18 early tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. Additionally, chronological evidence 19 suggests that regional uplift and flood basalt eruptions sufficiently preceded rifting. By this, we infer a 20 progressive development in which the onset of the triple junction marks a tectonic reorganization and was 21 the last feature to develop after all rift arms were thoroughly developed. We argue that the classical active 22 and passive rifting mechanisms cannot simply explain the progressive development of the Afro-Arabian 23 rift and propose a scenario of plume-induced plate rotation that includes an interaction between active 24 and passive mechanisms. In this scenario, the arrival of the Afar plume provided a push force that 25 promoted the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole, enabling the rifting and, ultimately, the break-up of Arabia from Africa.
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28 Short summary:

29 We explore the causal relationship between the arrival of the Afar plume and the initiation of the Afro-

30 Arabian rift. We mapped the rift architecture in the triple junction region from geophysical data and 31

- reviewed the available geological temporal evidence. We infer a progressive development of the plume-32 rift system and suggest an interaction between active and passive mechanisms in which the plume
- 33 provided a push-force that changed the kinematics of the associated plates.

1. Introduction 34

35 The causal dependency between the eruption of flood basalts and continental break-up is still unclear, 36 although a close occurrence between these two phenomena has been recognized for a long time. 37 Continental flood basalts, often referred to as traps, form large igneous provinces covering huge 38 continental areas (Bryan and Ferrari, 2013; Ernst, 2014). Continental flood basalts are often associated 39 with extensive volcanism during short time intervals, which are brought to the surface by deep-seated 40 mantle plumes (Richards et al., 1989; White and McKenzie, 1995; Koppers et al., 2021), although other 41 mechanisms were also suggested (e.g., Anderson, 1994, 2005). There is evidence for a close temporal and 42 spatial occurrence between the eruption of flood basalts and continental break-up. In particular, when 43 reconstructed back to their original plate tectonic configuration, an R-R-R triple junction is typically found 44 within the flood basalt areas (Morgan, 1971; Burke and Dewey, 1973; Buiter and Torsvik, 2014). Using the 45 geological record to examine the mutual dependency of these processes is challenging. It requires high-46 precision constraints regarding the temporal and spatial development of the different volcanic and 47 tectonic features, often obscured by the long geological history.

48 The Afar region in the central parts of the Afro-Arabian rift system is recognized as a key locality to examine 49 models of plume-rift association, offering a young and active case study in which plume, regional uplift, R-50 R-R triple junction, break-up, and oceanic spreading co-exist and are superimposed (Fig. 1). Plume-rift 51 association is mainly explained by either 'active' (e.g., Sengör and Burke, 1978) or 'passive' (e.g., White 52 and McKenzie, 1989) views, with no interaction between those modes. However, some evidence suggests 53 a more complex effect of plumes on the regional plate kinematics (e.g., Cande and Stegman, 2011). Despite 54 the contrary implications of the 'active' and 'passive' views, the Afar case study was used as a prime 55 example to support both, and some authors argued that both processes are required to explain the 56 observations (Burke and Dewey, 1973; White and McKenzie, 1989; Courtillot et al., 1999). The discrepancy 57 can be primarily attributed to a lack of accurate geological and geophysical evidence, leading to contrary 58 interpretations.

59 The purpose of this paper is to utilize a synthesis of the available geological and geophysical data from the 60 Afar region and to use it for geodynamic implications in the study area. We first review the evidence 61 regarding the temporal association of the volcanic and rift components of the system. This review is 62 essential because large amounts of new data were collected in recent years, enabling a re-examination of 63 the relationships between the plume and the rifting. We further provide an analysis and interpretation of 64 modern geophysical datasets, including topography, bathymetry, gravity, magnetic anomalies, 65 earthquakes, and volcano distribution. Using these datasets, we map the architecture of the rift margins 66 and axes and infer spatial constraints in developing the rift segments. Finally, we discuss the results in the 67 light of recent models and other case studies in the world, aiming to shed light on the causal relationship 68 between mantle plumes and tectonic processes in the crust.

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

70 The existence of deep mantle convection and its interaction with the Earth's lithosphere was already 71 pointed out by Wilson (1963), and a close occurrence to continental break-up was soon noticed by the 72 abundance of hotspots near many rift junctions (Morgan, 1971) and flood basalt volcanism along passive 73 margins (Richards et al., 1989). Although Morgan (1971) speculated that deep mantle convection has a 74 significant role in accelerating the overlying tectonic plates, it was later realized that slab-pull provides the 75 main driving force for plate motion (Forsyth and Uyeda, 1975). In their landmark paper, Burke and Dewey 76 (1973) presented 45 case studies of rift junctions associated with hot spots. They proposed a model in which plume-associated uplift and volcanism precede and generate the rift arms, initiated from a triple 77

junction within the plume region. Afar was used as a first and prime example, highlighting its importance
as a young and active case study; however, they already noted its complexity (Burke and Dewey, 1973).

- 80 Following these insights, 'active' rifting models were developed to explain plume-rift associations (e.g., 81 Keen, 1985; Moretti and Froidevaux, 1986; Campbell and Griffiths, 1990; Hill, 1991; White and McKenzie, 82 1995). These models generally propose that rifting can result from a combination of processes derived 83 from the actively rising head of an anomalously hot mantle. These include impinging and eroding the base 84 of the lithosphere, which prompts uplift and decompression melting, which in turn introduces internal 85 extensional forces and ultimately leads to break-up. Accordingly, in this view, regional uplift and volcanism 86 are expected to precede rifting, which would initiate from a triple junction above the mantle plume head 87 (Fig. 2a).
- 88 Later contributions challenged the active view, arguing that a 'passive' asthenospheric upwelling can also 89 resolve the occurrence of flood basalt near rifts (firstly introduced by White and McKenzie, 1989). In this 90 view, rifting is initiated by the remote stresses, usually along former sutures and weak zones, regardless 91 of underlying plumes. The production of massive volcanism is allowed when the thinned and stretched 92 lithosphere is underlaid by a thermal anomaly in the mantle. The volcanism is generated by decompression 93 melting of the hot asthenospheric mantle, passively rising. As plumes form large areas of higher 94 temperatures in the mantle, massive volcanism is found on Earth's crust close to rifts. Accordingly, in this 95 view, subsidence is a precondition required for magmatism, and there is no particular reason for a triple junction to form within the flood basalts region (Fig. 2b). 96
- 97 Although active and passive views have been discussed in the last 50 years, the role of plumes in initiating 98 rifting is still unclear and much debated. Even for well-studied and prime examples of plume-rift 99 association as the Siberian, Parana-Etendeka, Deccan, and Greenland traps, there is no agreement on 100 whether active processes initiated rifting (Geoffroy, 2005; Ivanov et al., 2015; Frizon De Lamotte et al., 101 2015; Fromm et al., 2015; Mitra et al., 2017). Some authors emphasize the significance of preexisting 102 lithosphere weaknesses along structural inheritance and former sutures (Buiter and Torsvik, 2014; Will 103 and Frimmel, 2018), while others show the potential of plumes to thermally and chemically erode the base 104 of the lithosphere in the weakening process allowing rifting (Sobolev et al., 2011). Additionally, some 105 models demonstrate that mixed active-passive scenarios can better explain observation (Koptev et al., 106 2018), and even that both mechanisms are needed to explain temporal variations in rifts (Huismans et al., 107 2001).
- In addition to the dichotomic views, some evidence implies more complex relationships between plumes and the kinematics of the associated plates (van Hinsbergen et al., 2011; Cande and Stegman, 2011; Chatterjee et al., 2013; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). These studies discuss the role of plumes in changing the relative motions of the overlying plates and suggest that lateral forces, induced by the arrival of the plume head, can add up to the remote stresses, change the plate kinematics and even trigger the formation of new plate boundaries (van Hinsbergen et al., 2021) (Fig. 2c). Thus, in this view the plume is changing the remote stress field, which in-turn allows rifting.

115 **3. Geological setting**

116 The Afro-Arabian rift system extends from Turkey to Mozambique (McConnell and Baker, 1970) and is the 117 current episode of the Phanerozoic break-up of the East African continental plate (Bosworth, 2015). It

- 118 contains rifting in the Gulf of Aden, in the Red Sea, and in East Africa. In the center of that system, the
- 119 Ethiopian northwestern and southeastern plateaus represent an elevated topography with a highest peak
- 120 of 4,620 m (Ras Dashan) and an average elevation of 2000 m above sea level. This area is part of the so-
- called African Superswell, a wide region of anomalously high topography comprising East Africa (Lithgow-
- 122 Bertelloni and Silver, 1998; Corti, 2009). In western Yemen, the Sarawat Mountains are the highest peaks
- in the Arabian Peninsula, reaching more than 3,000 m, at only 100 km from the shoreline of the Red Sea.
- 124 The mountains show a typical stair morphology with steep slopes at the western and southern sides, while
- 125 the eastern side 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).
- 132 At the northern parts, rifting in the Red Sea is connected by the Dead Sea Fault to the Eurasian collision
- 133 zone along the Taurus-Zagros Mountains. The Red Sea is experiencing the last stages of break-up and early
- 134 stages of oceanic accretion. An oceanic spreading center with three pairs of ridge parallel magnetic
- anomalies is developed in the southern parts of the Red Sea (Schettino et al., 2016) (Fig. 3). However,
- 136 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).
- 141 The Afar triangle is where the above-mentioned three rift arms meet (Fig. 3). It is considered a geological 142 depression as it is an area of low elevation compared to the high Ethiopian plateaus, and thus commonly 143 referred to as the Afar 'depression'. Nevertheless, this term is misleading as the Afar triangle is included 144 within the rifted area and is geologically elevated from the deep bathymetry of the Gulf of Aden and the 145 Red Sea basins. The Afar triangle is mainly floored by Pliocene and younger volcanic rocks, where Miocene 146 volcanic series are exposed along the western margins and at the elevated Danakil block. It comprises 147 many volcanoes that compose axial volcanic ranges (Fig. 2), where the Red Sea side is characterized by transverse volcanic fields and the southern side by central volcanoes (Varet, 2018). Two symmetric 148 149 magnetic anomalies have been recognized in the Tendaho graben, similar to those observed along 150 spreading centers in the Gulf of Aden (Bridges et al., 2012). These could be associated either with young 151 oceanization or with linear anomalies developed in transitional crust (Ebinger et al., 2017). Structurally, several mega-scale accommodation zones connecting the different rift segments and a triple junction 152 location are recognized at 11.0°N, 41.6°E at the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity (e.g, Tesfaye et al., 2003) 153 154 (Fig. 3).

155 4. Temporal constraints

156 *4.1. Flood basalts and uplift*

157 Vast efforts were made to study the chemistry and chronology of flood basalts in East Africa (see review 158 by Rooney, 2017). Two phases of extensive flood basalt volcanism are associated with plume-lithosphere 159 interaction (Fig. 4). The early phase is mainly confined to southern Ethiopia and northern Kenya. The timing 160 of this event is poorly constrained to 45-35 Ma (George et al., 1998). The second phase of flood basalt 161 eruptions was more voluminous, more widespread, and shorter-lived. Earliest basalts of this phase date 162 back to 34 Ma near Tana Basin, Ethiopia (Prave et al., 2016) and 31 Ma in western Yemen (Peate et al., 2005) (Fig. 4). The traps accumulated very rapidly, in less than 6 Ma (Coulié et al., 2003), and include 163 tholeiitic to alkaline compositions of asthenosphere mantle source (Mattash et al., 2013). Thick sequences 164 165 of up to 2 km are observed within a widespread region in Ethiopia and Kenya (Bellieni et al., 1981; Wescott et al., 1999; McDougall and Brown, 2009). It is commonly accepted that these flood basalts are of a deep-166 167 seated mantle plume origin (Koppers et al., 2021). However, the mechanism is debatable and may involve 168 multiple plume impingements within a broad upwelling zone connected to the African superplume in the 169 lower mantle (Meshesha and Shinjo, 2008) or a single plume-lithosphere interaction (Rooney, 2017).

170 An elevated topography is associated with the eruption of the flood basalts in Ethiopia. The flood basalts 171 are almost exclusively positioned within the elevated regions of the Ethiopian and Somalian plateaus and the Sarawat Mountains in southwest Yemen (Fig. 1). Dynamic topography component supports up to 1 km 172 173 of present-day elevation of the Ethiopian and Somalian plateaus, confirming the significant contribution 174 of mantle convection to the regional uplift (Gvirtzman et al., 2016). Although the uplift chronology is not 175 easily resolved, recent studies infer it is a long-term feature already present before the emplacement of 176 the flood basalts (Sembroni et al., 2016; Faccenna et al., 2019). Regional uplift is estimated to begin before 177 40 Ma, with maximal uplifts between 12 and 28 Ma, reaching an average elevation of 2500 m (Fig. 4) 178 (Sembroni et al., 2016).

179 *4.2. Gulf of Aden*

180 The beginning of continental rifting in the Gulf of Aden is only approximately known (Bosworth et al., 181 2005). Estimates mainly rely on the dating of sedimentary sequences, and no recent data were published. 182 The evidence of rift initiation was summarized by Bosworth et al. (2005). Various sedimentary indications, 183 including onshore outcrops in Yemen (Watchorn et al., 1998) and in Oman (Roger et al., 1989) and offshore 184 wells (Hughes et al., 1991), suggest that rifting in the central and eastern Gulf of Aden began at early to 185 mid-Oligocene, within the Rupelian, i.e., 33.9 - 27.8 Ma. Syn-rift sediments from the central Yemeni 186 margins indicate that rift flank uplift occurred before any significant regional extension. The continental 187 rifting climax is estimated between 20 and 18 Ma (Watchorn et al., 1998). Radiometric dating indicates 188 that the margins became stable already in the Early Miocene (Bosworth et al., 2005), and rift-to-drift 189 transition is interpreted to occur between ~21.1 and ~17.4 Ma (Watchorn et al., 1998). The seafloor 190 spreading center in the Gulf of Aden is developed along most of its length and is connected to the mid-191 ocean ridge in the Indian Ocean through the Sheba Ridge (Gillard et al., 2021). In the central Gulf of Aden, 192 magnetic isochrons suggest opening rates of ~27 mm/yr prior to 11 Ma, and a slowdown after 11 Ma (Fig. 193 4). Chron 5C (purple stripes in Fig. 3; 16.0 Ma) is present along the Gulf of Aden up to the Shukra al Sheik 194 discontinuity (Fournier et al., 2010). This implies that the spreading center developed rapidly, perhaps 195 instantaneously, in geological time scales, covering a distance of more than 700 km in less than 1.5 Ma.

This fast propagation ceased at the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity (Fig. 3). The youngest magnetic isochrons (2A, 2.6 Ma) are recognized up to longitude 43.9°E in the eastern Gulf of Tadjoura, ~150 km west to the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity, indicating that along this segment, the ridge propagated westward at an average rate of ~11 mm/yr, in the last 16 Ma. Within the Gulf of Tadjoura, no direct evidence of oceanic spreading was reported to our best knowledge.

201 *4.3. Red Sea*

202 It is not certain when continental rifting in the Red Sea began; however, sedimentary sequences suggest 203 it postdates rifting in the Gulf of Aden by a few million years (Bosworth et al., 2005). Independent evidence 204 suggests that rifting had begun simultaneously along the entire Red Sea at late Oligocene-Early Miocene, 205 ~23 Ma (Plaziat et al., 1998; Szymanski et al., 2016; Stockli and Bosworth, 2018; Morag et al., 2019). 206 Magnetic isochrons associated with seafloor spreading are only known from the southern parts of the Red 207 Sea. However, oceanic lithosphere is probably abundant along most of the basin (Augustin et al., 2021). 208 Chron 3 (4.2 Ma) is only present between latitudes 16° and 18°, while chrons 2A (2.6 Ma) and 2 (1.8 Ma) 209 are present up to latitude 22° (Schettino et al., 2016). Evidence for Chron 5 (10 Ma) in the central Red Sea 210 was recently suggested to mark the beginning of seafloor spreading (Okwokwo et al., 2022). Structural 211 reconstructions, geodetic measurements, and magnetic anomalies suggest opening rates of ~11 mm/yr in 212 the central parts of the basin, with an abrupt increase at ~5 Ma (Fig. 4) (Schettino et al., 2018). The 213 southern edges of the magnetic chrons suggest that the ridge rapidly propagated southwards, with rates 214 of ~30 mm/yr, between chrons 3 (4.2 Ma) and 2A (2.6 Ma). Since 2.6 Ma, the Red Sea ridge has not 215 propagated southward, probably due to the decrease in angular velocity of Danakil relative to Arabia (Fig. 216 3; Schettino et al., 2018).

217 *4.4. Main Ethiopian Rift*

218 Results from many years of extensive fieldwork (see Corti, 2009 for review) suggest a diachronous 219 development of the different segments of the Main Ethiopian Rift. However, there is no agreement 220 regarding the exact timing of events and even the propagation trend of the rift. Reconstructions based on 221 magnetic anomalies from the Southwest Indian ridge suggest an upper limit for the Nubia-Somalia 222 separation at ~19 Ma, including large uncertainties (DeMets and Merkouriev, 2016) (Fig. 4). There are 223 indications that rifting in East Africa started at the Turkana depression in southern Ethiopia (Varet, 2018) 224 and propagated north to Afar (Wolfenden et al., 2004); however, this is still a matter of debate (see figs 225 42-44 in Corti, 2009). Radiometric dating of structural features indicates that extension commenced at ~11 226 Ma within the northern Main Ethiopian Rift (Wolfenden et al., 2004).

In summary, regional uplift and flood basalt volcanism in Ethiopia preceded the rifting of the Afro-Arabian
 rift. The rift arms developed at different times, when rifting in the eastern Gulf of Aden started during the
 late phases of flood basalt volcanism in Ethiopia. Rifting in the Red Sea and the Main Ethiopian Rift started
 in a lag of ~5-7 Ma after flood basalt volcanism.

231 5. Data and Methods

We used bathymetry and topography data to identify morphotectonic features. To highlight and map the architecture of the margins and axes of the rifts, we applied the Difference of Gaussians method to the topography and the bathymetry grids (Akram et al., 2017). This method allows a fast and accurate edge detection of elevation using active spatial bandpass filtering. We applied luminance coloring to theresulting grid using the open-source image processing software Gimp.org.

- 237 To study density-related shallow crustal structures, we used the satellite altimetry-derived vertical gravity
- 238 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
- 241 linear 11-colors colormap, further applied transparency to the VGG map, and projected it on a shaded
- 242 relief (Fig. 5a).
- 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 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
- 248 projected it on a shaded relief (Fig. 5b).

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

250 locations from the International Seismological Centre catalog with minimum magnitudes above 4 ML,

251 recorded between 1964 and 2019. To better infer recent tectonic and volcanic activity, we further

252 considered the locations of Quaternary onshore volcanoes, from the Global Volcanism Program

253 (Smithsonian Institution) and Google Earth mapping.

254 6. Results

255 6.1. Rift margins

The most prominent morphological feature of the rift system is the escarpment along its shoulders. The escarpments mark the rift margin as they distinguish between (1) uplifted pre-rift rocks of the Arabo-Nubian shield or trap basalts sequences and (2) Quaternary arid fluvial sediments or young volcanic sequences, although several continental crustal fragments are present within the Afar Triangle. Thus, the escarpments are very distinctive in the topographical and gravity data. The edge detection analysis of topography and bathymetry data allows us to outline the rift margins (Fig. 6).

262 In the Red Sea, the escarpments are generally continuous with an average rift width of 440 ± 20 km 263 (calculated perpendicular to the Red Sea axis in the study area), and a general increase in rift width from 264 north to south (Fig. 6b). We identify two segments that mark an abrupt change in rift orientation and rift 265 width: (1) Below latitudes 15.5° on the African margin and 18° on the Arabian margin (segment I in Fig. 6), the escarpment deviate from its general parallel to the Red Sea trend, bending towards the Afar region. 266 267 The escarpment is characterized by seismic activity from that point on the African side, which is also 268 considered the northern point of the western Afar margins (Zwaan et al., 2020a). (2) Below latitudes 12.5° 269 on the African margin and 15° on the Arabian margin (segment II in Fig. 6), we identify another abrupt 270 change, both in the orientation and the width of the rift. That point on the African margin is the 271 intersection of the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity with the Western Afar Margins (Tesfaye et al., 2003). 272 We note that these changes are noticeable and similar on the African and Arabian sides.

273 In the Gulf of Aden, the escarpments generally follow the trend of the basin. In the western parts, the

- escarpments are less straight and less continuous than those of the Red Sea and generally reflect the
 sinistral basin structures. This morphology is well explained by oblique rifting along the Gulf of Aden (Leroy
- 276 et al., 2013). The average rift width in the study area is 470 ± 45 km (calculated rift-perpendicular), with a
- 277 general eastward increase (Fig. 6b). We recognize an abrupt change in rift width along three lines (III-V in
- Fig. 6), which are associated with fracture zones. Along the Somalian margin, prominent sinistral offsets
- are recognized along lines III and V. This escarpment segment is a morphological continuation of the
- 280 Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity lineament, and is also prominent in the VGG map (Fig. 5a).
- Although recognizable in the processed topography map, the rift shoulders are less sharp in the Main Ethiopian Rift (Fig. 6a). 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. 6a). 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. 6b), 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 the proximity to the
 Afar region, whereas the margins of the Main Ethiopian Rift smoothly funnel into the Afar region.
- 289 *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. However, with the proximity
 to the Afar region, the rift axes change their characteristics.

293 The rift axis along the Red Sea is outlined by a deep and wide axial trough that ends at latitude 14.5°_{μ} 294 approximately 400 km from the triple junction (Fig. 7a). South of latitude 14.5[°] we find geophysical 295 evidence, that the rift axis is bent, entering the Afar region at the Bay of Beylul (latitude 13.3°): (1), The VGG 296 signature of the Red Sea axis, with highs along the walls of the axial trough and a low above the center 297 (Fig. 7b and profile B). (2) A trail of volcanic islands follows its path (Hanish-Zukur Islands; Fig. 3), and the 298 alignments of volcanic cones and vents on the islands are orthogonal to the trail of the islands (Mitchell 299 and Bosworth, (in press); Gass et al., 1973). (3) A general trend of recent onshore magmatism meets this 300 line at the Bay of Beylul (Fig. 3). However, major fault sets are not observed in the onshore area of Beylul 301 (Rime et al., 2023). (4) This line best fits GPS-based rigid block model (Viltres et al., 2020), and is supported 302 by the fact that the rotation of Danakil relative to Arabia stopped around I ~0.3 Ma (following Schettino et 303 al., 2018 and personal communication). In addition to this bent segment, a typical gravity signature of the 304 rift axis with a central BGA high and VGG picks to its side, is also recognized along the connection of the 305 Red Sea with the Gulf of Aden at Bab al Mandab Strait (latitudes_13.2° to 12.3°; Fig. 7 profile CC'). 306 Nevertheless, this segment is not an active rift axis as no earthquake, volcanic or bathymetrical expression 307 is associated with it, however, diluted activity is also understood by the low and oblique velocity of Arabia 308 in this area (Fig. 3).

In the Gulf of Aden, there is also a distinct change in the rift axis characteristics, approximately 400 km from the triple junction (Fig. 8). Up to the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity, the Gulf of Aden is a deep basin, reaching depths of more than 1,000 m only a few kilometers from the shore, and has a fragmented axial trough, offset by oblique left-lateral transform faults. West to the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity, the basin is shallow, and the axial trough is very distinct, characterized by deep and sharp morphology. This ~400 km long curved axis segment impales the Afar triangle at the Gulf of Tadjoura (Djibouti). This axial segment has a distinct gravity signature and is characterized by intensive seismic activity, perhaps the most
 intensive in the rift system, with over 1,000 recorded events with magnitudes above 4ML (ISC catalog).

In the Main Ethiopian Rift, there are no abrupt changes in the characteristics of the rift valley with 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 of more than 2,000 m and is associated with a BGA low.

321 In the Afar triangle, the morphology indicates several axial segments, which are also distinctive in the VGG 322 map (Fig. 10). We recognize axial trends in two distinguished and geographically separated regions: (1) 323 southwest to the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity, a NE trending valley continues the trend of the Main 324 Ethiopian Rift, characterized by distinct central volcanoes along with an axial depression. (2) Northeast to 325 the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity, typical rift axial morphologies, composed of NW trending short 326 segments along volcanic ranges, are abundant over a 200 km wide zone. Hence, the Afar depression is 327 divided into two morphological regions, in terms of axial trends, parallel to the Main Ethiopian Rift trending 328 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 characteristics ~400 km from the triple junction. In contrast, the axis of the Main Ethiopian Rift is consistent, keeping its trend and characteristics up to the triple

332 junction point.

333 7. Discussion

334 7.1. The architecture of the intersection region

The Afar triangle is the intersection region of three rift arms: the Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Main 335 336 Ethiopian Rift. Far from the intersection region, the axes and margins of these rifts follow a general parallel 337 trend, suggesting that rigid plate tectonics of the Nubian, Arabian, and Somalian plates controlled their 338 structural development (Garfunkel and Beyth, 2006; Reilinger et al., 2006; Reilinger and McClusky, 2011; 339 Schettino et al., 2018). Within the Afar triangle, southwest to the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, the rift 340 margins are continuous and smooth, and the axial volcanic range generally continues the trend of the axial 341 valley of the Main Ethiopian Rift, reflecting a sub-perpendicular extension in accordance with the Nubia – 342 Somalia kinematics, and thus, could be regarded as a rigid plate boundary. However, the architecture of 343 the intersection region northeast of the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity is more complex and is not simply 344 resolved by rigid plate kinematics (Garfunkel and Beyth, 2006).

Fig. 11 summarizes the rift margins and the axial segments mapped in this study. The rift axes of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea abruptly change their characteristics, particularly their trends, with the proximity to the Afar region. Around ~400 km from the triple junction, the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea axes deviate from their basin parallel trend, bending towards the third and younger arm of the Main Ethiopian Rift. Within the Afar triangle, northeast of the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity, the margins are fragmented, and there are multiple, short, and sub-parallel axial segments.

In our study, the term "axial segments" inferred is not simply correlated with rift axes, as the geology in
 this region is quite complex, including several fault and transfer zones, and, exposing pre-rift rock
 sequences. However, the axial segments mapped in this study in the continental area northeast to the

354 Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity is somewhat correlative with rift axes that had been suggested based on 355 field observations (e.g., Rime et al., 2023). Axial segments are generally sub-parallel to the Red Sea axis 356 (Zwaan et al., 2020b), which led authors to suggest that this region reflects an evolving discontinuity of the oceanic spreading center in the Red Sea (e.g. Tazieff et al., 1972; Bosworth et al., 2005). Although 357 358 several focal solutions indicated dextral strike-slip motions in this area, we don't find other evidence for a 359 typical first-order transform connection between the ridge in the Red Sea and the continuation of the 360 northern Afar axial segments, offshore Gulf of Zula. Magnetic stripes in the Red Sea are observed at more 361 than 200 km south of the Gulf of Zula region (Fig. 12), and the volcanic ridge in the southern Red Sea is 362 very active (Eyles et al., 2018). Although earthquake clusters at latitude 16.5° indicate strike-slip solutions, 363 supporting a structural connection to the Red Sea axis, these are abundant throughout the study area 364 (Hofstetter and Beyth, 2003). Alternatively, it is possible to regard, the jump between the Red Sea ridge to 365 the axial segments in northeastern Afar as a non-transform discontinuity. However, second-order 366 discontinuities are usually characterized by <30 km offsets, and here the jump is ~200 km (Macdonald et 367 al., 1984; Carbotte et al., 2016). Thus, we find no circumstantial evidence to regard the axial volcanism in 368 the Afar depression as part of the development of the Red Sea spreading center. This conclusion agrees 369 with the study of Rime et al. (2023), which discusses the geological evidence from Afar.

370 Our analysis highlights that the area northeast to the Tendaho-Goba'ad discontinuity is characterized by 371 diffuse deformation, reflecting a rugged connection of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden arms to the Main 372 Ethiopian Rift. Kinematic studies support this view, indicating that microplate rotations and diffuse 373 boundaries significantly influence the structural development of this region. A recent model based on GPS 374 observations (Viltres et al., 2020) reveals a diffuse character of the Danakil - Nubia boundary with inter-375 rifting deformation over more than 100 km wide zone. The Danakil microplate extends to the Hanish-Zukur 376 Islands at its southern edge (\sim 13.8°N) with no precise/sharp boundary. The Danakil microplate is rotating 377 counterclockwise (Manighetti et al., 2001), while the Ali-Sabieh block, south of the Gulf of Tadjoura, is 378 rotating clockwise (Audin et al., 2004), described as a "saloon-doors" mode of opening (Kidane, 2016).

379 Observations and analog models indicate that strain in Afar is localized in distinct rift segments, which are 380 spread within a broad zone of interaction of the associated plates (Keir et al., 2011; Pagli et al., 2014, 2018; 381 Doubre et al., 2017; Maestrelli et al., 2022). Hence, the architecture of the intersection region of the rift 382 arms discloses a ~150,000 km² complex region, in which diffuse boundaries and microplate rotations link 383 the three rift arms (Fig. 11). Accordingly, a genuinely single triple junction point, in the sense of a three-384 rift arms intersection point, cannot be specified for this system, and multiple triple junctions could be 385 considered (e.g., see tectonic models in Viltres et al., 2020). The difficulty of defining sharp plate 386 boundaries within Afar was discussed in many works (e.g., Barrberi and Varet, 1977 and references 387 therein). Nevertheless, we agree that the intersection point of the Ethiopian rift valley and the Tendaho-388 Goba'ad Discontinuity could be regarded as the 'main' junction point of the rift system, as the deformation 389 characteristics are most distinctively changed there (Tesfaye et al., 2003).

390 7.2. Spatial constraints in the development of the plume-rift system

The architecture of the Afar region allows us to draw two spatial constraints in the development of the plume-rift system:

(1) The first is the connection of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Gulf of Aden - Red Sea rifts by a
 northeastward propagation. Since the divergence between Nubia-Somalia is sub-vertical to the strike of
 the northern Main Ethiopian Rift, resolving its propagation direction is quite intangible and conversed

396 (Tesfaye et al., 2003; Wolfenden et al., 2004; Bonini et al., 2005; Keranen and Klemperer, 2008; Abebe et 397 al., 2010). The margins of southeast Afar show symmetric, continuous, and smooth curved trends, from 398 the elevated regions of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity (Fig. 6). With respect 399 to the northeastward trend of the Main Ethiopian rift, the Somalian margin is curved clockwise, like the 400 Ali-Sabieh sense of rotation (Kidane, 2016), whereas, the Ethiopian margin is curved counterclockwise, like 401 the Danakil sense of rotation (Schult, 1974). This architecture could be understood in terms of fracture 402 mechanics by reorientating a propagating fracture near a pre-existing fracture. Strain analysis indicates 403 that a propagating fracture would curve parallel to the pre-existing fracture under a tensional stress field 404 due to free surface boundary conditions induced by the open pre-existing fracture (Dyer, 1988). Thus, this 405 macro scale architecture may express a smooth linkage of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the pre-existing Gulf 406 of Aden-Red Sea rifts by a northeastward propagation. Hence, this implies that a triple junction formed at 407 a late stage, when all three arms were already significantly developed. This conclusion agrees with 408 structural geochronology within the northern Main Ethiopian Rift, showing that extension in the northern 409 Main Ethiopian rift commenced at 11 Ma (Wolfenden et al., 2004).

410 (2) The second spatial constraint is abandoning an early tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the 411 Gulf of Aden through the Bab al-Mandab Strait. As the VGG and neovolcanic activity indicate that the Red 412 Sea axis currently enters Afar at the Bay of Beylul (see section 6.2), we find arguments for an earlier 413 tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden through Bab al-Mandab Strait: (i) Below <u>41</u>4 latitude 13.2° and up to the connection to the Gulf of Aden (at latitude 12.3°), the gravity data shows 415 typical rift axis characteristics, with BGA high and VGG picks to its side (Fig. 7 and Fig. 8; see section 6.2). 416 (ii) The submarine channel north to the Hanish Island (latitude 13.4°) shows no association with modern 417 water currents and may be explained by subsurface rift structures (Mitchell and Sofianos, 2018). (iii) This 418 is the straight continuation of the trend of the Red Sea axis, along which the basins are curtly connected 419 (Fig. 1). Thus, it is reasonable that it was also the tectonic connection in the early stages of rift 420 development. Likewise, reconstructions suggest that the Danakil microplate started to rotate in the Middle 421 Miocene (~10 Ma), when Arabia was already separated from Africa (Collet et al., 2000; Schettino et al., 422 2016; Rime et al., 2023). Those reconstructions show that until that time, the divergence was focused 423 along the seaway at the southernmost Red Sea. This suggests that the present deviation from the basin 424 parallel trend of the rift axes at the tip of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea marks a tectonic reorganization 425 in this region.

Adopting the fracture propagation analog postulated here for the northeastward propagation of the Main Ethiopian Rift, it follows that the abandonment of the tectonic connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden happens as a response to the new stress conditions in Afar. Rime et al. (2023) suggest that the deposition of lacustrine sediments in Afar (Chorora Fm) marks the development of the Main Ethiopian Rift in Afar. They point out that these sediments were deposited roughly at the same time to the individualization of the Danakil Block, and thus to the reduction in the tectonic activity of the southernmost Red Sea rift.

These two spatial constraints indicate that the onset of the triple junction 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) from the present-day triple junction (Fig. 13). The onset of the triple junction marks 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.

439 7.3. Mechanisms for plume-rift association

440 The temporal constraints regarding the development of the plume-rift features, summarized in section 4, 441 together with the two spatial constraints inferred in this study, allow us to examine the causal relationship 442 between the activity of the Afar plume and rifting. Our insights suggest that neither 'active' nor 'passive' 443 rifting mechanisms are solely consistent with the observation. Passive rifting models fail to explain the 444 plume-rift association mainly because the flood basalt volcanism cannot be attributed to passively rising 445 asthenospheric mantle beneath a stretched and thinned lithosphere, as dynamic uplift in Ethiopia was 446 shown to be a long-lasting process, prior to flood basalt volcanism (Sembroni et al., 2016). Hence, rifting 447 and associated subsidence are subsequent to flood basalt volcanism (Fig. 4). The estimations of ~1 km 448 elevation before flood basalts (Fig. 4) coincide with active plume-head predictions (Campbell and Griffiths, 449 1990). Moreover, the passive model does not explain why a triple junction is located within the flood 450 basalts area, as rifting in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden are at an obligue angle to the former sutures (Buiter 451 and Torsvik, 2014).

452 On the other hand, active models are not in line with the progressive development of the rifts, mainly 453 because the flood basalts region cannot be considered a center or a nucleus, from which rift arms spread, 454 as expected in an actively generated triple junction. Numerous studies noted that the tectonic 455 development of the Afar region is not compatible with a simplified model of rift arms that simultaneously 456 spread away from a triple junction (see Section 5.2 in Rime et al., 2023 for a review). The inset of a triple 457 junction was the last feature to develop in the system, by the propagation of the Main Ethiopian Rift 458 towards Afar, followed by a tectonic reorganization including the abandonment of a former tectonic 459 connection between the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. By this time, the rift arms had already developed, 460 and the break-up had already been accomplished between Africa and Arabia. This tectonic reorganization 461 cannot be attributed to the development of gravitational potential by the plume head (Hill, 1991), as it 462 occurred millions of years after flood basalts magmatism. That rules out the possibility that the arrival of 463 the Afar plume generated the onset of the triple junction, as more than 20 Ma separate these events and 464 the rift arms did not spread from the plume region.

465 We propose a scenario in which rifting was triggered by a plume-induced plate rotation (Fig. 2c). Numerical 466 simulations suggest that horizontal asthenospheric flows due to the arrival of a plume head at the base of 467 the lithosphere induce a plume-push force that can accelerate plates by several cm yr⁻¹ (van Hinsbergen 468 et al., 2011, 2021; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). In this scenario, flood basalt volcanism would be 469 synchronous to an abrupt plate speed-up and thus to new remote stress conditions. In the case of the 470 Indian plate, at least two episodes of massive flood basalt volcanism, Morondava LIP (~94 Ma) and Deccan 471 traps (67 Ma), are associated with plume-derived plate acceleration, and a drastic change in the tectonic 472 framework (van Hinsbergen et al., 2011, 2021; Cande and Stegman, 2011; Pusok and Stegman, 2020). 473 Further, torque balance modeling suggests that horizontal plume-push can force a significant plate 474 rotation and, consequently, initiate 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; 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), reflects 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.

485 The arrival of the Afar plume was also accompanied by a slowdown of Africa (Le Pichon and Gaulier, 1988). 486 By this time, Africa collided with Eurasia in the west, explaining its slowdown (Jolivet and Faccenna, 2000) 487 and increased intraplate volcanism (Burke, 1996). However, this collision of Africa and Eurasia cannot 488 simply resolve the change in the rotation of Arabia as the Arabian continent collided with Eurasia not 489 earlier than ~18 Ma (Su and Zhou, 2020), although some authors suggested that asymmetrical along-490 trench entrance of continental material could lead to an intraplate extension similar to those that 491 generated the Africa-Arabia break-up (Bellahsen et al., 2003). Faccenna et al. (2013) already showed that 492 plume-push from the Afar area resolves the present-day plate kinematics in the Middle East, particularly 493 the anti-clockwise toroidal pattern of the Arabia-Anatolia-Aegean system. The importance of active 494 upwelling in Afar to lateral mantle flow below Arabia is also illustrated by shear-wave splitting, indicating 495 a general N-S anisotropy in the mantle (Qaysi et al., 2018). Stamps et al. (2014) calculated the current 496 driving forces for the Nubia-Somalia divergence and found that gravitational potential energy is the most 497 significant force, stronger by an order of magnitude than forces from basal shear tractions of mantle 498 convection. They point out that the gravitational potential energy is sufficient to sustain present-day rifting 499 in East Africa but not to initiate rupture of continental lithosphere. In the case of the Arabian plate, basal 500 shear tractions are expected to be higher due to the orientation of northward-directed mantle flow 501 (Faccenna et al., 2013).

502 If the Afar_t plume induced the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole, then it is understood how the Gulf 503 of Aden and the Red Sea rifts developed after a regional uplift and flood basalt volcanism but still 504 geometrically developed by the new regional stress field and structural inheritance (Autin et al., 2013; 505 Bosworth and Stockli, 2016). It also explains why the trace of the rifts intersect within the plume region as 506 the lithosphere in this region was weakened by the hot plume material (Francois et al., 2018). Finally, it 507 explains the delayed development of the Main Ethiopian Rift and the late onset of the Afar triple junction 508 by its northwestward propagation, as these were controlled by the slower kinematics of the Somalian plate 509 rather than dynamic forces. In this manner, 'active' and 'passive' mechanisms are coupled and have 510 positive feedback, allowing a close occurrence of flood basalt volcanism and continental break-up, 511 alongside a passive style of rifting.

512 8. Summary and Conclusions

513 We reviewed the geologic setting of the Afro-Arabian rift, in which vast regions of flood basalts and 514 ongoing continental break-up are superimposed, aiming to infer a causal relationship between the activity 515 of the deep-seated Afar plume and crustal break-up. We explored the intersection region where the Gulf 516 of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Main Ethiopian Rift form an R-R-R triple junction, separating the large Cenozoic plume-related flood basalt series in Ethiopia and Yemen. We provide a new synthesis and 517 518 interpretation of modern geophysical datasets, including topography, bathymetry, gravity, magnetic 519 anomalies, earthquakes, and volcano distribution, to map the margins and axes of the rift arms. We highlight key differences in the terminations of the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea arms, which are rough 520

and irregular, versus the symmetric, continuous, and smooth architecture of the Main Ethiopian Rift. The architecture of the intersection regions allows us to infer two tempo-spatial constraints in the 523 development of the rifts: (1) the connection of the Main Ethiopian Rift to the Gulf of Aden and to the Red

524 Sea by its northeastward propagation, and, (2) the abandonment of an early tectonic connection between

- 525 the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. These suggest a progressive development of the intersection area,
- 526 including a broad region of diffuse deformation and recent tectonic reorganization. The onset of the triple 527 junction was the last feature to develop in the plume-rift system after all rift arms were sufficiently
- 528 developed and the break-up was accomplished.

529 This progressive development does not align with the classic active rifting model, which predicts a plume-530 generated triple junction at the locus of the rift, from which the rifts develop. Nevertheless, the classic 531 passive rifting model fails to explain the chronological evidence, as flood basalts probably erupted on 532 elevated topography before rifting started. We discuss a scenario of plume-induced plate rotation in which 533 the arrival of the Afar plume triggered the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole, and demonstrate that 534 the rotation of Arabia around a nearby pole characterizes the system since the Oligocene. We suggest that

this scenario better explains the progressive development of the plume-rift system in the Afro-Arabian rift.

536 9. Data availability

- 537 The bathymetry and topography data used in this study was retrieved from GEBCO Compilation Group
- 538 (2021), available at https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/#area.
- 539 The VGG data used in this study is available at <u>https://topex.ucsd.edu/grav_outreach/</u>.
- 540 The BGA data used in this study is available at <u>http://icgem.gfz-potsdam.de/calcgrid</u>; model XGM2019e-541 2159, 'gravity_anomaly_bg'.
- 542 Earthquake data was retrieved from the International Seismological Centre (2020), On-line Bulletin, 543 <u>https://doi.org/10.31905/D808B830</u>.
- 544 Quaternary onshore volcano locations were retrieved from the Global Volcanism Program, Smithsonian 545 Institution, available at <u>https://volcano.si.edu/volcanolist_holocene.cfm</u>.
- 546 Magnetic anomalies data is available at
- 547 <u>https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Transcurrent_Regimes_During_Rotational_Rifting_New_Insights_f</u>
- 548 rom_Magnetic_Anomalies_in_the_Red_Sea/14743272.

549 10. Author contribution

550 RI carried out the study and wrote and revised the original draft of this paper. PH and NA provided 551 conceptual assistance, helped in writing and reviewed the manuscript. JE mentored the study, took care 552 of administration, and reviewed the manuscript.

553 11. Competing interests

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

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559 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).

564 Fig. 2. Schematic mechanisms for plume-rift association in the Afro-Arabian rift. (a) Active mechanism, in 565 which rifting results from the actively rising head of the Afar plume. In this mechanism impinging and 566 eroding the base of the lithosphere prompt uplift and decompression melting and flood basalts volcanism. 567 These introduce internal extensional forces and ultimately lead to break-up. (b) Passive mechanism, in 568 which rifting is initiated solely by the remote stresses, regardless of underlying Afar plume. In this 569 mechanism the production of massive volcanism is allowed when the thinned and stretched lithosphere 570 is underlaid by the thermal anomaly in the mantle. Flood basalts volcanism is generated by passively rising 571 decompression melting of hot asthenospheric mantle. (c) Plume-induced plate rotation, in which lateral 572 forces, induced by the arrival of the Afar plume head, add up to the remote stresses to change the plate 573 kinematics. In this mechanism flood basalts volcanism is actively controlled, however, rifting is triggered 574 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).

Fig. 4. Elevation of the Ethiopian–Yemen plateau (after Sembroni et al., 2016; Faccenna et al., 2019),
 volcanic episodes and openinng rates of the rift arms (modified from Fournier et al., 2010; DeMets and
 Merkouriev, 2016; Schettino et al., 2018). Dashed lines indicate estimations from geological observations
 and soild lines from magnetic isochrons.

- Fig. 5. 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).
- **Fig. 13.** Synthesis of the progressive development of the rift intersections.

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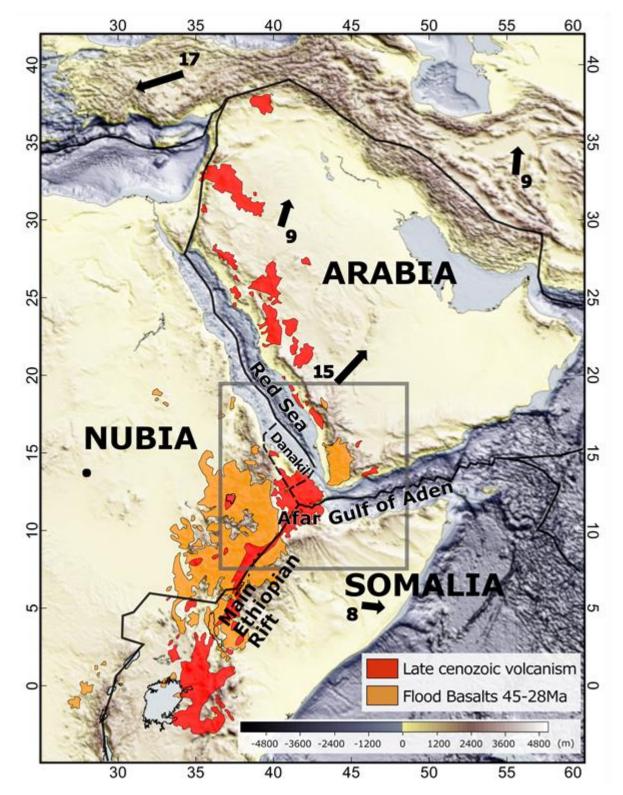


Figure 1. Elevation map of the study area, showing the general plate tectonic configuration (from USGS and from Viltres et al. (2020) in the Afar region) and Cenozoic volcanics (modified from Varet, 1978;
Davison et al., 1994; Beyene and Abdelsalam, 2005; Bosworth and Stockli, 2016) Black arrows indicate GPS velocities in respect to Nubia (modified from Reilinger et al., 2006).

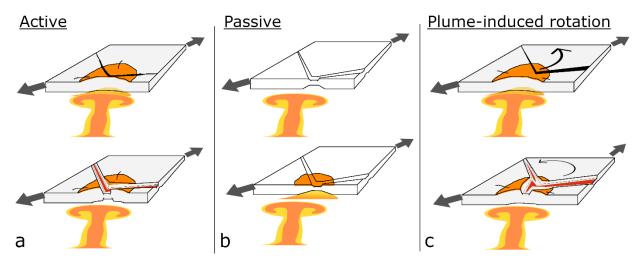
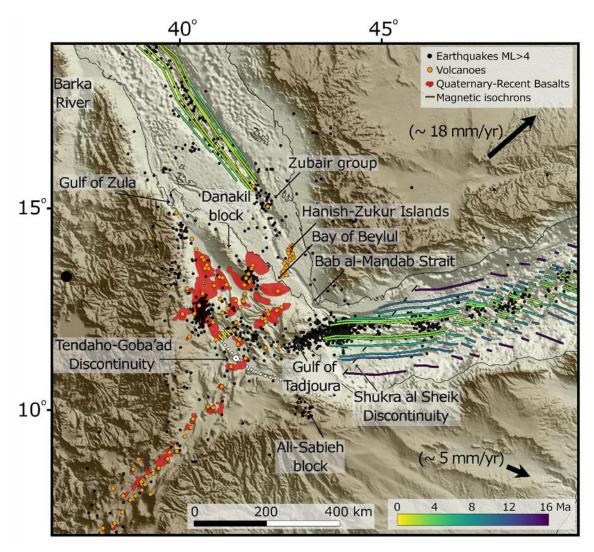


Figure 2. Schematic mechanisms for plume-rift association in the Afro-Arabian rift. (a) Active mechanism, 962 963 in which rifting results from the actively rising head of the Afar plume. In this mechanism impinging and 964 eroding the base of the lithosphere prompt uplift and decompression melting and flood basalts volcanism. 965 These introduce internal extensional forces and ultimately lead to break-up. (b) Passive mechanism, in 966 which rifting is initiated solely by the remote stresses, regardless of underlying Afar plume. In this 967 mechanism the production of massive volcanism is allowed when the thinned and stretched lithosphere 968 is underlain by the thermal anomaly in the mantle. Flood basalts volcanism is generated by passively rising 969 decompression melting of hot asthenospheric mantle. (c) Plume-induced plate rotation, in which lateral 970 forces, induced by the arrival of the Afar plume head, add up to the remote stresses to change the plate 971 kinematics. In this mechanism flood basalts volcanism is actively controlled, however, rifting is triggered 972 by the new plate kinematics.



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

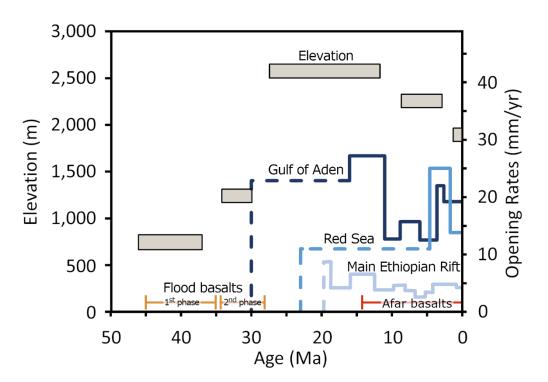




Figure 4. Elevation of the Ethiopian–Yemen plateau (after Sembroni et al., 2016; Faccenna et al., 2019),
 volcanic episodes and opening rates of the rift arms (modified from Fournier et al., 2010; DeMets and
 Merkouriev, 2016; Schettino et al., 2018). Dashed lines indicate estimations from geological observations
 and solid lines from magnetic isochrons.

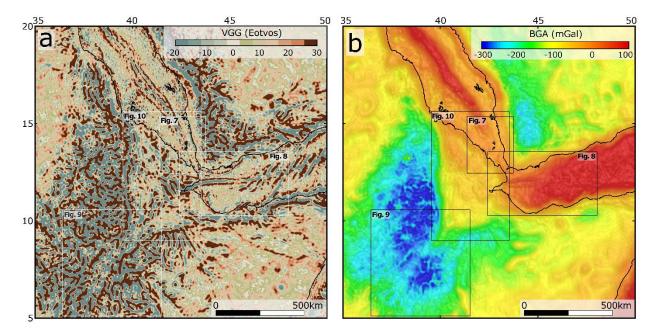




Figure 5. Gravity data of the Afar region. (a) Vertical gravity gradient from Sandwell et al. (2014). (b)
Bouguer anomaly model from ICGEM, XGM2019e (Zingerle et al., 2020).

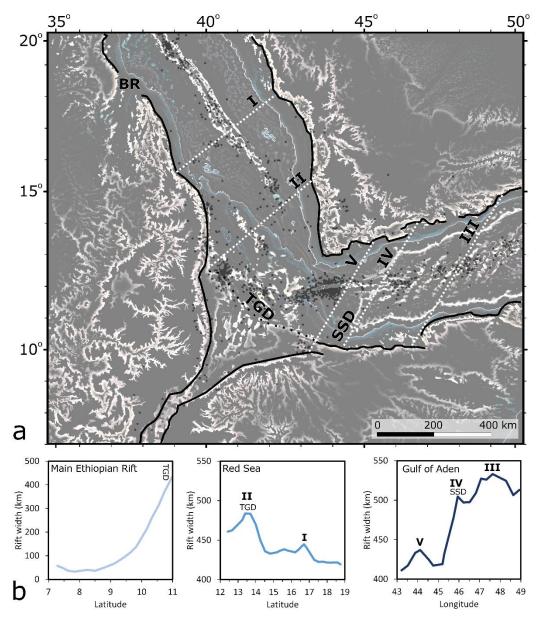


Figure 6. (a) Difference of Gaussians applied to topography and bathymetry showing rift margins (black
 lines). White dashed lines indicate peaks in rift width. TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity. SSD is
 the Shukra al Sheik discontinuity. Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog).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

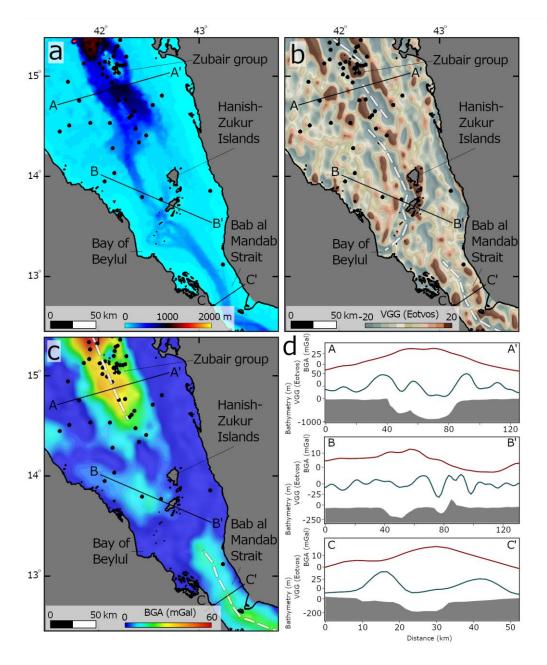


Figure 7. Bathymetry (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the southern Red Sea.

997 Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across rift axis.

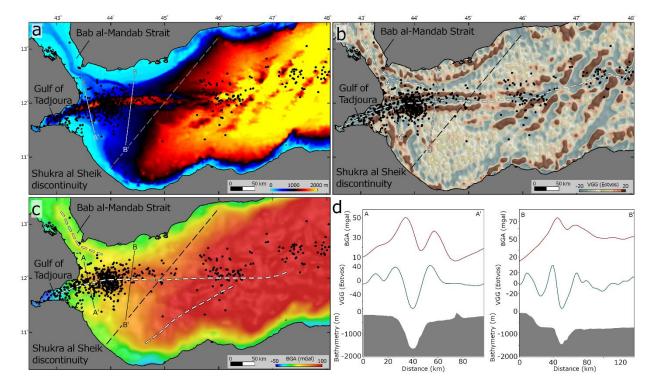


Figure 8. Bathymetry (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the Western Gulf of Aden.

1000 Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across rift axis.

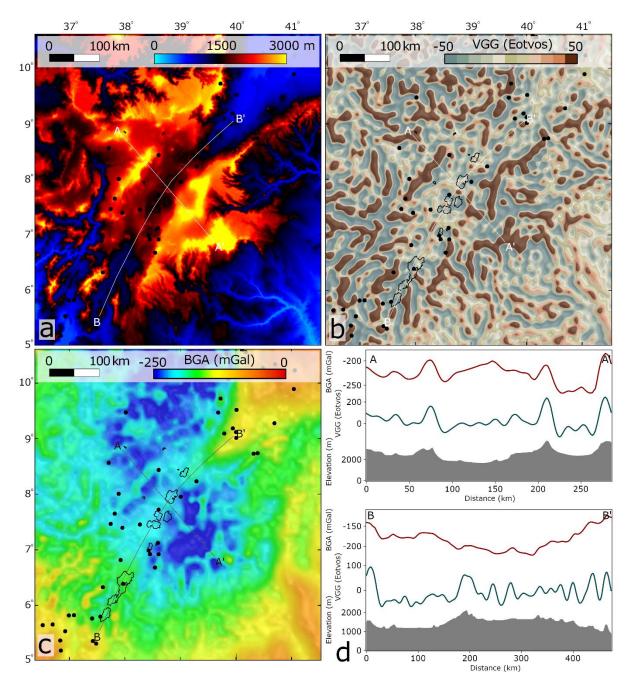


Figure 9. Topography (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the northern Main Ethiopian Rift. Black dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). (d) Profiles across (AA') and along (BB') the rift valley.

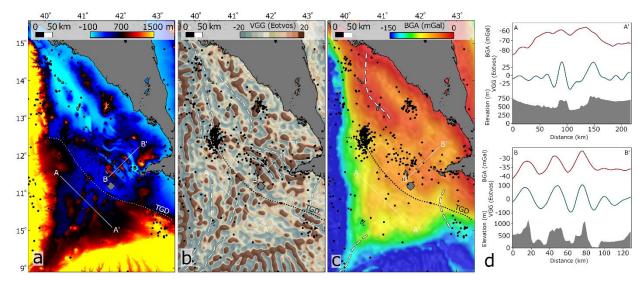




Figure 10. Topography (a), vertical gravity gradient (b) and Bouguer anomaly (c) in the Afar triangle. Black
 dots indicate earthquake locations (ISC catalog). TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity. (d) Profiles
 SW (AA') and NE (BB') to the TGD.

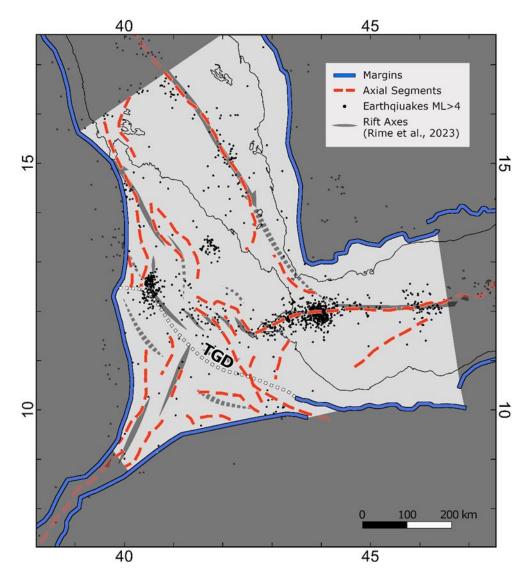


Figure 11. Rift margins and axial segments in the Afar region. Black dots indicate earthquake locations
(ISC catalog). TGD is the Tendaho-Goba'ad Discontinuity. Rift axes based on field observations after Rime
et al. (2023).

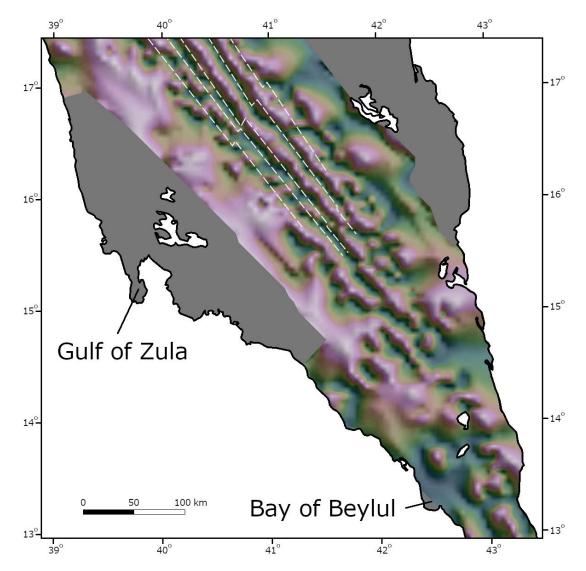


Figure 12. Tilt-angle derivative map of magnetic anomalies, projected on a shaded relief after Issachar et
 al. (2022). Purple colors represent positive angles and green colors represent negative angles. White
 dashed lines indicate magnetic stripes (Schettino et al., 2016).

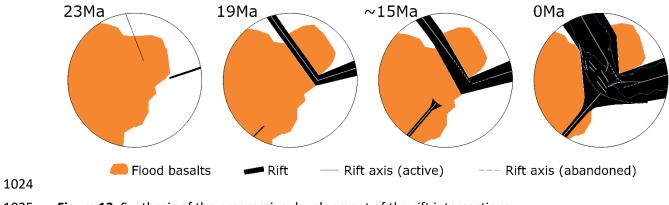


Figure 13. Synthesis of the progressive development of the rift intersections.