

Magmatism and deformation

1: View of the Da'Ure vent that erupted pumice and ash formed during the September 2005 Dabbahu dike event. (Julie Rowland, Afar Rift Consortium)



Derek Keir discusses the breakup of continents using insights gained from the Afar rift. This was the Bullerwell Lecture 2013, given at the European Geosciences Union meeting in Vienna, April 2013.

Since the 1960s, plate tectonic theory has provided a fundamental framework that explains how the configuration of the continents and ocean basins changes through time. Within this scheme, heat is lost from the Earth as continents split apart and new oceans form, a process clearly visible from the conjugate margins of continents ruptured in the past that now flank many of the globe's mid-ocean ridges. Here I discuss observations and models of rifting processes in the Afar depression of Ethiopia, where the tectonic and volcanic processes responsible for splitting continents is still ongoing. Understanding the interaction between magma intrusion and mechanical extension is fundamental in trying to understand how continents break apart.

The break-up of continents and subsequent formation of ocean basins is a fundamental component of plate tectonics that has shaped the geological record and distribution of natural

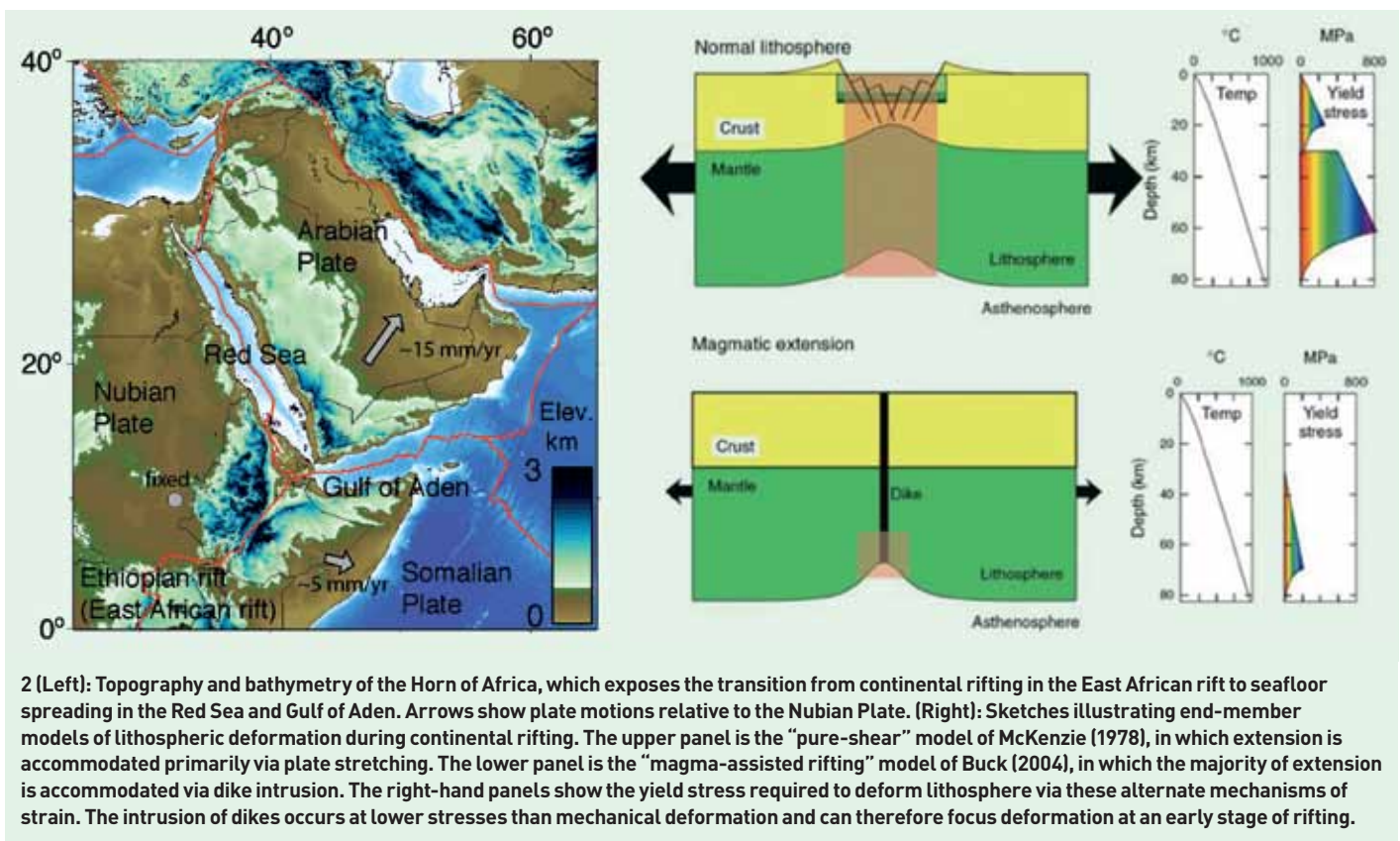
resources (e.g. oil and gas) along continental margins such as the edges of the Atlantic Ocean. Continental rifts are initially characterized by relatively broad zones of mechanical extension in which faulting, ductile stretching and heating of the tectonic plate accommodates strain and defines the primary architecture of the rift zone during and after rifting (McKenzie 1978). Ultimately, however, the locus of strain must shift towards a narrowing zone that becomes the new seafloor spreading centre. It is here that magma formed from decompression melting of the mantle intrudes and creates new ocean floor (Delaney *et al.* 1998). Despite the importance of continental break-up in plate tectonic theory, it remains unclear how and when the transition from mechanical to magmatic extension of the plate occurs (Ebinger 2005). It also remains ambiguous how important the thermal, chemical and physical structure of the mantle are in aiding the melting of the passively upwelling

mantle, and in so doing supplying magma that is intruded into the tectonic plate and/or erupted to the surface (Shillington *et al.* 2009).

Rifted margins

Until relatively recently, understanding of continental breakup came largely from analysis of the geological record and structure of the crust preserved along ancient rifted continental margins. At volcanic margins such as the North Atlantic, wide-angle controlled-source seismic profiles show that the transition from continental to oceanic crust (the continent–ocean transition, COT) is characterized by crust that thins from ~30–40 km thick beneath the continent to the ~10 km thickness of new igneous oceanic crust (White *et al.* 2008). The region of plate thinning has anomalously high P-wave seismic velocities, indicating a high degree of intrusion of mafic rocks such as gabbro and dolerite. The seismic profiles, corroborated by core data, show that the

during continental breakup



COT is also coated by several kilometres thick accumulations of seaward dipping, interbedded basalt flows and evaporite deposits (White *et al.* 2008). These reflect back a large proportion of seismic energy and are therefore called seaward dipping reflectors (SDRs); they are thought to result from subaerial or shallow water basaltic eruptions from rift valley volcanoes during the breakup process (Mutter *et al.* 1982).

A major drawback of using rifted margins to understand how continents break apart is that many ruptured during the breakup of Gondwana more than 100 million years ago. These margins are no longer tectonically active so the dynamics, timescales and interaction of extensional processes such as faulting, ductile stretching and magma intrusion have to be inferred from the subsurface structure imaged using geophysical methods, rather than directly observed. Similarly, mantle processes during the continent–ocean transition have long since ceased, so whether the voluminous magmatism commonly observed during breakup was the result of broad thermal upwelling, small-scale convection or a fertile mantle remains ambiguous.

Fundamental questions about how continents break apart can be addressed more directly by studying tectonically active rift zones where magma intrusion and earthquakes still rip the

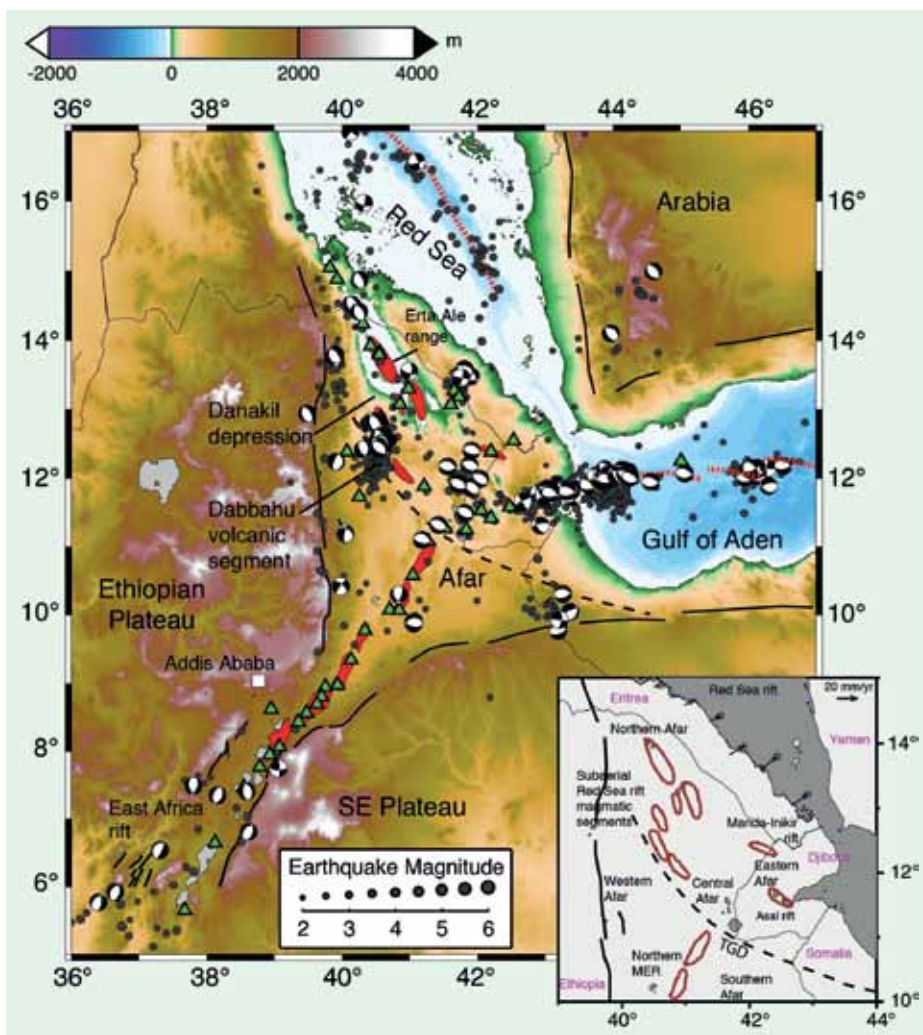
Earth’s lithosphere apart. Tectonically active continental rifts and recently developed mid-ocean ridges provide snapshots of rift development. Study of the rift system in Ethiopia (figure 1) is particularly useful because it exposes sub-aerially several stages of magmatically active rift sector development from immature continental rifting in the East African rift to incipient oceanic spreading in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden (figure 2) (Ebinger 2005, Hayward and Ebinger 1996). It therefore provides a fabulous opportunity to understand the evolution from mechanical continental rifting to magmatic extension in mid-ocean ridges. Here I synthesize recent research into the East African and Red Sea rifts in Afar on along-rift variations in crustal structure, style of surface volcanism, shallow magmatic plumbing, surface morphology, and active deformation. These studies provide fundamental information on the spatial and temporal evolution of deformation and magma supply during the late stages of continental breakup that ultimately create the igneous geology imaged across ancient rifted continental margins.

Continental breakup in Afar

Afar marks a triple junction between the Nubian, Somali and Arabian plates, which are separating as a result of extension in the

Red Sea, Gulf of Aden and East African rifts (McKenzie *et al.* 1970, Keir *et al.* 2013) (figure 2). The excellent fit of the southern coast of Arabia into the Horn of Africa was among the earliest case studies used to substantiate plate tectonic theory. Border faults on the southeast and southwest flanks of Afar mark the abrupt transition from rift valley floor to the 2–3 km high Ethiopian and southeastern plateaus, while the conjugate rift flanks are located ~350 km to the northeast, defining the southern tip of Arabia in Yemen (figure 2). Geochronological constraints in Ethiopia suggest rifting began 29–31 Ma on the western Afar margin (Wolfenden *et al.* 2005), approximately coeval with ~35 Ma faulting along large portions of the Gulf of Aden (Leroy *et al.* 2010).

The geology in Afar shows that extensional deformation during the last ~2 Myr has localized to ~15 km wide, ~60 km long faulted volcanic ranges with aligned chains of basaltic cones and fissural flows (Hayward and Ebinger 1996) (figure 3). These volcanic segments such as the Dabbahu segment are similar in size, morphology and spacing to those observed along much of the globe’s slow-spreading mid-ocean ridge system (Keir *et al.* 2009). Some regions of the northern Afar Depression have already subsided below sea level, suggesting strongly



3 (Top): Tectonic setting of the Afar depression. Solid black lines show Oligocene–Miocene border faults of the Red Sea, Gulf of Aden and East African rifts. Red segments show the Quaternary–Recent subaerial rift axes, and green triangles show Holocene volcanoes. Gray circles show large earthquakes during 1973–2012 sourced from the National Earthquake Information Centre (NEIC) catalogue. Earthquake focal mechanisms are from the Global Centroid Moment Tensor (CMT) catalogue. (Inset): Zoom of Oligocene–Miocene border faults (black) and Quaternary–Recent subaerial rift axes (red lines) with arrows showing motion of the Danakil microplate (McClusky *et al.* 2010). (Bottom): View towards the south of the Erta Ale volcanic range.

that seafloor spreading is imminent (figure 3). The final stage of the breakup process, the formation of a young seafloor-spreading centre, is now occurring in the submarine Red Sea and western Gulf of Aden where spreading rates are relatively slow at ~2 cm/yr (figure 2) (Ligi *et al.* 2011, Leroy *et al.* 2010).

Localization of magmatism in axial segments

During the Ethiopia Afar Geoscientific Lithospheric Experiment (EAGLE) in the early 2000s, multidisciplinary seismic imaging, gravity and magnetotelluric studies of the rift valley at the southwestern corner of Afar provided excellent constraints on localization of magmatic processes early during continental breakup. Gravity and seismic imaging show that volcanic segments are underlain in the mid-upper crust, above ~15–20 km depth, by dense and high seismic velocity material that are interpreted as cooled gabbroic intrusions (Keranen *et al.* 2004). Since the voluminous intrusions into the mid-upper crust appear largely restricted to beneath the volcanic segments, magma intrusion has probably dominated extension only during the past ~2 Myr (Keranen *et al.* 2004).

A drawback of EAGLE was that we did not witness a period of active intrusion, which would be required to understand timescales and mechanisms of magmatism. However, these questions could be addressed after September 2005, when the emplacement of a ~60 km long basaltic magma intrusion beneath the Dabbahu volcanic segment in central Afar marked the beginning of a rarely observed dike-injection episode (Wright *et al.* 2006). Intense seismicity up to magnitude ~5.5 suggests that the intrusion occurred during the period from 20 September to 4 October (Ayele *et al.* 2009). On 26 September, a low-volume eruption of pumice and ash occurred from Da’Ure vent near Dabbahu (figure 3). Resorption of sanidine feldspar crystals in the pumice indicates that their growth was interrupted by heating before eruption; this is consistent with a minor silicic reservoir beneath Da’Ure being reheated by the new basaltic intrusion, triggering the eruption (Ayele *et al.* 2009, Wright *et al.* 2006). Ground motion measured using satellite radar interferometry (InSAR) shows the rift opening symmetrically by up to 8 m, with the flanks of the rift lifted by up to 2 m, and a 2–3 km wide graben subsiding by 2–3 m at the rift centre (Wright *et al.* 2006). Simple elastic models showed that the deformation was consistent with emplacement of 2.5 km³ subvertical dike, up to 10 m thick and intruded into the upper 10 km of the crust (figure 4). The dike caused faults to slip by up to 3 m on networks of normal faults in the shallow crust (Rowland *et al.* 2007), but this dike-induced fault slip accounted for less than 10% of the total deformation (Wright *et al.* 2006).



6: Multicoloured hydrothermal deposits of Dallol volcano in the Danakil depression. Dallol volcano is underlain by a magma reservoir just 1 km deep.

2012). The slow rate of extension observed in northern Afar would, alone, not be capable of producing such observations.

Late-stage plate thinning observed in Afar, above anomalously hot asthenosphere (Ferguson *et al.* 2013) is a likely explanation for the observed increase in magma supply to shallow reservoirs. The Quaternary–Recent geology of the Danakil region, dominated by interbedded basalt flows and evaporites, is similar to the SDR sequences which are often inferred for the COT at magmatic rifted margins (Mutter *et al.* 1982, White *et al.* 2008). Jointly these observations suggest the majority of basalt is erupted just prior to seafloor spreading and caused by a thinning plate already heavily intruded by magma.

Summary

Recent observations of rifting in Afar show that magma intrusion can localize extension away from border faults to narrow axial volcanic segments fairly early during continental rifting. The 2005–2010 Dabbahu rifting episode demonstrates that the zones of crustal intrusion beneath the axial volcanic segments are emplaced by episodic lateral dike intrusion sourced from a segment-centred magma reservoir in the mid-upper crust. The magma intrusion induces faulting in the upper crust, but importantly maintains crust that is thicker than if extension took place by mechanical processes

alone. Along-rift variations in rift architecture, volcanic geology and style of magmatic plumbing in Afar imply that the intruded plate undergoes plate stretching in order to rupture. The observations from Afar supplemented by numerical modelling suggest that protracted heating and weakening of the plate from previous localized magma intrusion are a primary reason for the change in extension mechanism through time. Plate thinning during late-stage breakup results in increased melt production and basaltic volcanism which fills rift valley basins at sea-level. The similarity in geology of northernmost Afar to the thick sequences of basalt flows and evaporites common at volcanic margins worldwide means that the processes active today in the Danakil depression are a modern analogue for those responsible for formation of seaward-dipping reflector sequences commonly observed at ancient rifted volcanic continental margins. ●

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● *The Bullerwell Lecture is awarded annually by the British Geophysical Association, <http://www.geophysics.org.uk>.*

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