

1 Reconciling plate motion and faulting at a rift-rift-rift triple junction

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18
19 Rift-Rift-Rift triple junctions are regions where three plates interact generating complex networks of
20 variably oriented faults. While the geometry of the fault networks is easily constrained from their
21 surface expression, what remains unclear is how the kinematics of faults and their interactions vary
22 spatially, and how these relate to the unusual crustal motions that results from three plates diverging
23 from each other. The Afar depression lies at the triple junction between the African, Arabian and
24 Somalian plates where the unique combination of observational data from structural mapping,
25 seismicity, and GNSS allows to understand the link between fault kinematics and plate motions. Here
26 we complement these observations with an analog model to gain insights into how the patterns and
27 directions of faults relate to overall plate motions. A key finding in both model and nature is that
28 some adjacent normal faults form at high angles and generate T-shaped structures. These purely
29 normal faults are synchronously active, which means that the extension direction varies $\sim 90^\circ$ locally.
30 These kinematic contrasts in model and nature occur despite the relatively smooth pattern of overall
31 surface motions. The results indicate that normal faults interacting at high angles to form the T-shaped
32 structures can evolve synchronously within a stress field that varies gently in magnitude but
33 dramatically in orientation over a few kilometers.

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Divergent triple junctions involve the movement of three tectonic plates away from each other
37 (McKenzie & Morgan, 1969), resulting in a fault network that is very complex and may display
38 variation in space and time. However, extensional triple junctions are difficult to observe and analyze
39 in detail, since they most commonly develop in oceanic lithosphere (Ridge-Ridge-Ridge triple
40 junctions) below sea level (McKenzie & Morgan, 1969). The Afar triple junction (Fig. 1A) is the only
41 extensional triple junction directly observable subaerially (Varet, 2018). Extension has not reached
42 the oceanic stage yet in Afar, where the continental lithosphere is still breaking apart giving rise to a
43 Rift-Rift-Rift triple junction. The structural pattern in the region is characterized by atypical fault
44 architecture (curvilinear, overlapping and cross-cutting faults), kinematics (oblique and/or strike-slip
45 faulting) and interactions (T-shaped plan-view fault geometries). Similarly, T-axes of earthquake
46 focal mechanisms and the orientation of dikes in and around the triple junction commonly vary by
47 $\sim 90^\circ$ over distances of tens of km, indicating that they likely respond to local complexities in stress
48 direction (e.g., Keir et al. 2011; Doubre et al., 2017). Overall, the processes that control the geometry,
49 interaction and kinematics of faults, and their relationship to the spatially variable and complex
50 pattern of extension resultant from 3 diverging plates remain poorly understood (Rime et al., 2023).
51 Here we compare an analog model with observations from the Afar depression (structural trends,
52 GNSS data and T-axes from earthquakes) to gain insights into the distribution and kinematics of the
53 complex deformation processes.

54

55 THE AFAR TRIPLE JUNCTION

56 The Afar triple junction results from the movement among the African, Somalian, and Arabian plates
57 (e.g., Burke & Dewey, 1973; Hayward & Ebinger, 1996; Manighetti et al., 1997; Tesfaye et al., 2003;
58 Wolfenden et al., 2004). The African and Somalian plates move apart at ~ 5 mm/yr in an ESE-WNW
59 direction (Saria et al., 2014; Knappe et al., 2020; Stamps et al., 2021), giving rise to a system of NE-
60 SW-trending faults representing the northward termination of the Main Ethiopian Rift (Fig. 1A).
61 Conversely, the ~ 20 mm/yr northeastward motion of the Arabian plate relative to Africa and Somalia
62 (McClusky et al., 2010), results in the development of NW-SE-trending faults in the Afar rift
63 segments that are related to Red Sea and Gulf of Aden opening (Fig. 1A). These two main fault
64 systems interact in central Afar, developing typical T-shaped structures, with sharp 90° fault
65 interactions. Previously, the region where the T-shaped structures are most pronounced has been
66 interpreted as where the mutually perpendicular extension generated by plate motion is believed to
67 be partitioned, and therefore where the triple junction is positioned (Maestrelli et al., 2022; Fig.
68 1A,B). However, the combination of observational and modelling studies suggests the diverging

69 plates may interact across a wider (several hundred km-wide) zone. For example, the major
70 curvilinear or Y-shaped grabens coupled with minor perpendicular faults in eastern Afar (e.g.,
71 Immino graben; IM in Fig. 1A), and rift perpendicular dike intrusion in southern Afar, are best
72 explained by a broad zone of triple junction tectonics (Keir et al., 2011; Collanega et al., 2020; Fig.
73 S1).

74

75 **DATA AND METHODS**

76 **Analog model**

77 We performed analog models reproducing the dynamics of a RRR triple junction by simulating the
78 motion of three tectonic plates (Africa, Arabia, Somalia) diverging from each other. To get detailed
79 insights into the deformation of the Afar triple junction, we used the best-fit model from Maestrelli
80 et al., 2022 (Model A-OR-6, see Supplementary material for setup details, Fig. S2) involving
81 simulation of two-phase motion among the three plates. The first phase implies NE motion of Arabia
82 with respect to stable Africa-Somalia; the second phase involves contemporaneous ESE-WNW
83 divergence of Africa and Somalia and accelerated NE motion of Arabia (e.g., Tesfaye et al., 2003;
84 see Supplementary material, Fig. S2; the influence of different extension conditions was tested in
85 Maestrelli et al., 2022). During this last phase, Arabia is moving four times faster than Africa and
86 Somalia (i.e., $R=4$ where R is the velocity ratio $|V_{\text{Arabia}}|/|V_{\text{Africa=Somalia}}|$), as currently occurring in the
87 natural system (McClusky et al., 2010). This model well accounts for the overall structural features
88 and evolution of deformation in Afar, with a progressive northward migration of the structural triple
89 junction and depocenter with time (see Maestrelli et al., 2022). We performed a detailed analysis of
90 fault patterns, kinematics of deformation and dynamics of fault interaction. Model deformation was
91 monitored through top-view photos and digital elevation models through photogrammetry. We
92 analyzed model displacement fields through Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) with the PIVlab
93 software (Thielicke and Stamhuis, 2014; see Supplementary material for details). Additionally, by
94 monitoring the motion of markers in the footwall and the hangingwall on individual faults, we provide
95 an indication of the direction of extensional slip across the specific fault (Philippon et al., 2015). We
96 call these the model T-axes since the measurements are analogous to the T-axes derived from
97 earthquake focal mechanisms.

98

99 **Fault analysis**

100 Both in nature and the model, statistical analysis was performed on fault segments by using the
101 FracPaQ tool for MATLAB™ (Healy et al., 2017). Trends of fault segments in the model were plotted
102 using rose diagrams (10° bin) and compared with the trends of natural faults mapped on a 30m

103 resolution SRTM Digital Elevation Model (Farr et al., 2007; free to download at
104 <https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>) at the triple junction area (Figs. 1B,C and 2B,C). Regional fault
105 mapping was performed at 1:250.000 scale.

106

107 **GNSS based rift motions**

108 We derived the 2D velocity field of the Afar triple junction by interpolating two-dimensional GNSS
109 velocities in an Africa-fixed reference frame (Dobre et al., 2017) onto a uniform grid with 19 km
110 spacing that is equivalent to the scaled grid size of the analog model (Fig. 4). To obtain the long-term
111 velocity field, we removed GNSS based velocities near the Dabbahu segment where a rifting episode
112 occurred in 2005-2010 (Wright et al., 2012). Since GNSS sites on the Somalia plate are scarce, we
113 fixed site velocities for three additional points on the Somalian Plate assuming the values predicted
114 by Stamps et al. (2008).

115

116 **Earthquake T-axes and dike opening directions**

117 We derive T-axes from the global Centroid Moment Tensor (gCMT) catalog for the region (time
118 period 1976-2022, Ekström et al., 2012; last accessed October 2023). In addition, we compiled a
119 database of dike locations and their strike modelled from InSAR observations (Goitom et al., 2015;
120 Moore et al., 2019; Keir et al., 2009; Nobile et al., 2012; Pagli et al., 2012; Tarantola et al., 1980;
121 Wright et al., 2006), and derived the opening direction (orthogonal to the strike) of each dike.

122

123 **RESULTS**

124 **Fault pattern**

125 A detailed analysis of the analog model indicates a very good correspondence with Afar in terms of
126 fault pattern (cf. Figs. 1, 2; see also Fig. S3). The model reproduces the two dominant fault sets
127 characterizing Afar: the NW-SE-trending faults, related to NE motion of Arabia, and the roughly NE-
128 SW-trending extensional structures related to the relative divergence of the African and Somalian
129 plates. The statistical analysis of fault orientations in the model highlights the two dominant fault sets,
130 as illustrated in Figure 2C. The NE-SW-directed faults in the model define a series of sub-parallel
131 grabens closely resembling the major sub-parallel basins of Afar (Figs. 1, 2). A closer view of the
132 fault pattern at the triple junction reveals the two sets of faults interacting at a high angle (Fig. 2B),
133 giving rise to a T-shaped pattern of extensional structures which also characterize central Afar (Fig.
134 1). Detailed analysis of the evolution of faulting at the analog model triple junction (Fig. 3) reveals
135 that faults interact at high angles and form the T-shaped structures contemporaneously. Analysis of

136 the analog model T-axes clearly indicates that two roughly orthogonal directions of extension (NE-
137 SW-trending and roughly E-W-directed) are responsible for the development of these faults (Fig. 3).

138

139 **Plate motions and kinematics of faulting**

140 Figure 4 compares the modelled surface velocities to those measured by GNSS, showing the overall
141 kinematics of the plates. In general, there is a good match between modelled and GNSS-derived
142 surface velocities (Fig. 4A), with the discrepancies generally lower than 15° and with better
143 correlation where the GNSS data is denser. Similarly, the indicators of fault extension from the T-
144 axes of earthquakes and those calculated from the analog model match very well (Fig. 4B). These
145 primarily trend NE in northern and central Afar, but show both NE and ESE directions in southern
146 Afar (Fig. 4B). In contrast to the plate motions however, these indicators of extension vary over very
147 short length scales – a few tens of kilometers. The earthquake T-axes are also similar to the dike
148 opening directions, suggesting that extension across the faults is similar to the direction of minimum
149 horizontal stress (σ_3). The similarity between earthquake T-axes and dike opening direction also
150 shows faults and dikes are responding in a similar way to both regional and local stresses.

151

152 **DYNAMICS OF FAULT INTERACTION AT RIFT-RIFT-RIFT TRIPLE JUNCTIONS** 153 **(AND IMPLICATIONS FOR AFAR)**

154 The very good match between the analog model and the Afar depression suggests that the overall
155 deformation pattern and its evolution result from different stress fields related to the differential
156 divergent motion acting contemporaneously at the triple junction (e.g., Rime et al., 2023). A key
157 observation from model and nature is that the T-axes can vary by ~90° close to orthogonal fault sets.
158 Such complexity in fault geometry and local orientation of extension is observed within fairly smooth
159 overall surface motions, as indicated from the observed and modelled surface velocity vectors, (Figs.
160 3, S4) resulting from a dominant NE (Arabia) movement and subordinate NW-SE (Africa-Somalia)
161 divergence. These constraints on both faulting and overall rift motions indicate that faults interacting
162 at high angles to form the T-shaped structures do not result from an alternating stress direction shift
163 over time, but they form and act contemporaneously. These sub-orthogonal fault systems result from
164 the partition of the triple junction's stress field into two roughly orthogonal directions of extension (a
165 NE-SW-trending extension direction related to motion of the Arabian plate and a roughly E-W-
166 directed extension related to Africa-Somalia motion) acting contemporaneously and independently at
167 the triple junction, as suggested for others extensional settings (e.g., the Barents Sea, Collanega et al.,
168 2020). This process explains the anomalous WNW-ESE dike intrusion occurred during May 2000 in
169 the Main Ethiopian Rift of southern Afar (Ayelu-Amoissa Dike, AAD in Fig. 4B). The dike event

170 documents NE-SW directed extension, roughly perpendicular to the dominant near ESE-WNW
171 extension related to Africa-Somalia motion (Keir et al., 2011). Coexistence of the Africa-Arabia-
172 related stress field in the area, as suggested by model analysis and the resulting partition of
173 deformation, may explain this anomalously oriented dike event and the associated seismicity (Fig.
174 S1). In addition to the dominance of T-shaped structures, other complex graben geometries (e.g.,
175 curvilinear and Y-shaped grabens) are also observed in Afar (Collanega et al., 2020) and can be
176 explained by our model.

177

178 Traditionally, complex patterns of fault trends and slip directions (e.g., angular or T-shaped patterns)
179 have been interpreted as resulting from a multiphase evolution with changes in time of the regional
180 extension direction (see discussion in Zwaan et al. 2021). This allows multiple fault sets to be
181 activated at different times and for temporal variability in fault slip to occur. Our observations do not
182 support this scenario for the current tectonics of Afar, but instead show that highly variable fault
183 orientations but with normal slip kinematics can be synchronously active. The magnitude of
184 horizontal principal stresses (σ_2 and σ_3) are prone to being similar at a multi-directionally divergent
185 zone like Afar. This facilitates that σ_2 and σ_3 switch locally, generating a 90° shift in the fault
186 orientation and slip directions. This finding indicates caution should be used when interpreting the
187 behavior of interacting fault systems from time-averaged structural data in these complex structural
188 settings.

189

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337 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

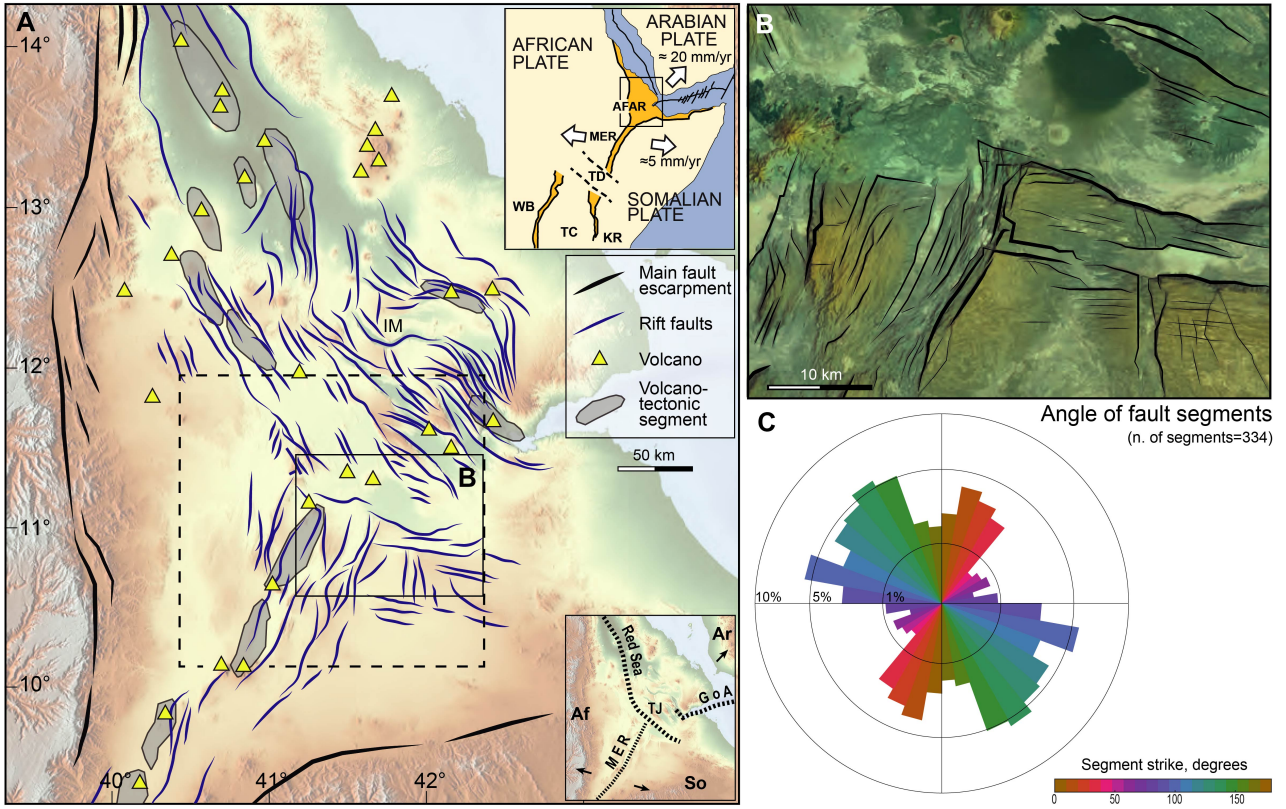
338 **Figure 1.** Tectonic setting of the Afar depression (modified from Keir et al., 2013, after Manighetti
339 et al., 2001). A) Simplified fault pattern and main volcanic centers. Inset in the top right shows a
340 sketch of the East African Rift and its plate tectonic setting. KR: Kenya Rift; MER: Main Ethiopian
341 Rift; TC: Tanzanian Craton; TD: Turkana Depression; WB: Western Branch. Bottom right inset
342 shows the plate tectonic setting of the Afar depression. Af: African plate; Ar: Arabian plate; GoA:
343 Gulf of Aden; So: Somalian plate; TJ: Triple Junction; IM: Immino Graben. B) Detail of the T-shaped
344 fault interaction in central Afar. C) Rose diagram (10° bin) of fault segments. Considered structures
345 are those included in the dashed rectangle in A.

346
347 **Figure 2.** Final results of the best fit analog model (model A-OR-6 modified from Maestrelli et al.,
348 2022; see supplementary Fig. S2 for details). A) Fault pattern superimposed on the topography
349 (DEM) of the model surface at the end of deformation. The model is rotated 32° clockwise to be
350 directly comparable to Afar. B) Close up of the triple junction area showing the typical T-shaped fault
351 interactions. C) Rose diagram of fault distribution in B calculated as in Fig. 1C.

352
353 **Figure 3.** Evolution of T-shaped fault interaction at the model triple junction (area covers the inset in
354 Fig. 2). White bars indicate the displacement on the faults, calculated as in Philippon et al. (2015).
355 Vectors in the box show the total extension between the three plates. White arrow shows northern
356 plate movement during 1st deformation stage. Dashed gray lines mark plate boundaries position.

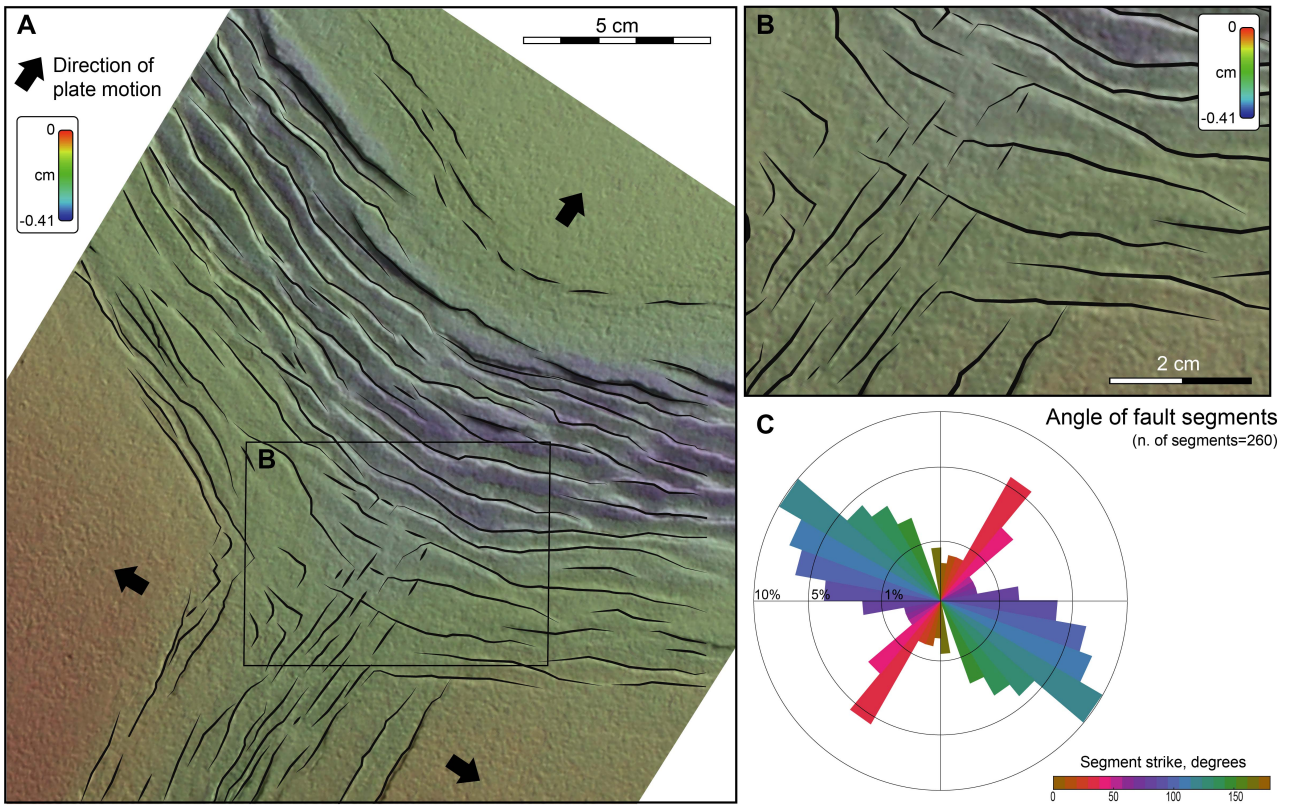
357
358 **Figure 4.** Model to nature comparison of deformation kinematics. A) Comparison between velocity
359 vectors in the model (black arrows) and GNSS data in Afar (yellow arrows denote the measured data;
360 grey arrows show motion data interpolated from measured ones on a 5x5 km grid). Velocity vectors
361 (black arrows) in the models are obtained from PIV analysis (see supplementary Fig. S4), following
362 the methods described in Maestrelli et al., (2021a,b). GNSS vectors and model velocity vectors were
363 calculated considering, respectively, a fixed Africa plate and a fixed SW model plate. B) Comparison
364 between T-axes from earthquakes in Afar (red lines; derived from gCMT catalogue, Ekström et al.,
365 2012) and T-axes from the model calculated as in Philippon et al. (2015). The dashed box encloses
366 T-axes resulting from earthquakes related to the Dabbahu dike sequence. C) Scheme showing the
367 correspondence between scaled analog model boundaries and nature. MP1, MP2 and MP3: moving
368 plates, cf. Fig. S2.

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371
372 **Figure 1.**

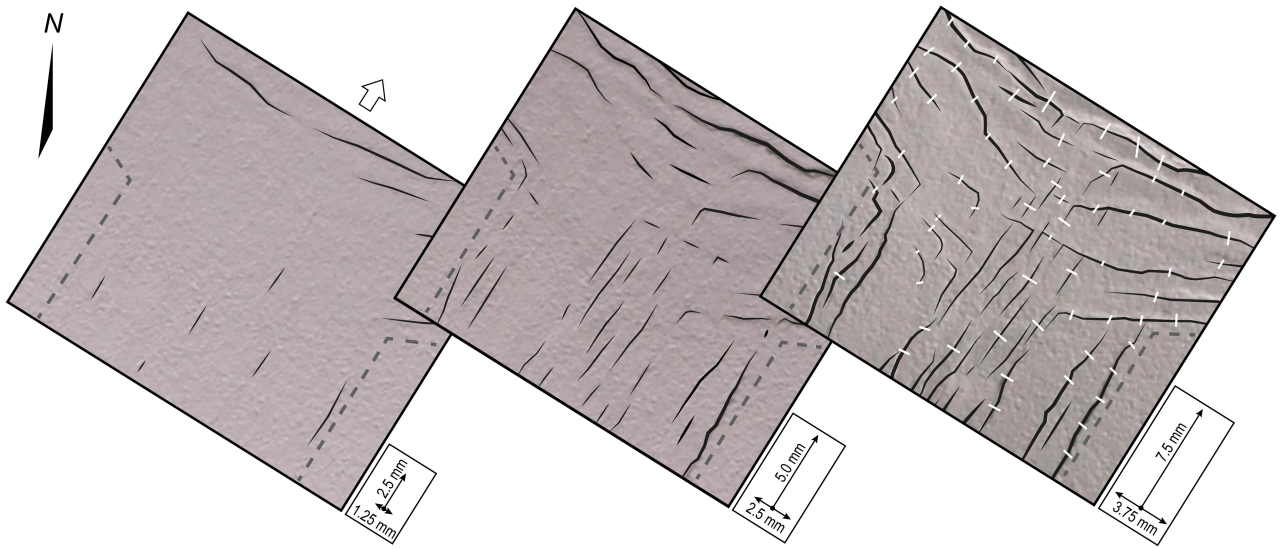
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376 **Figure 2.**

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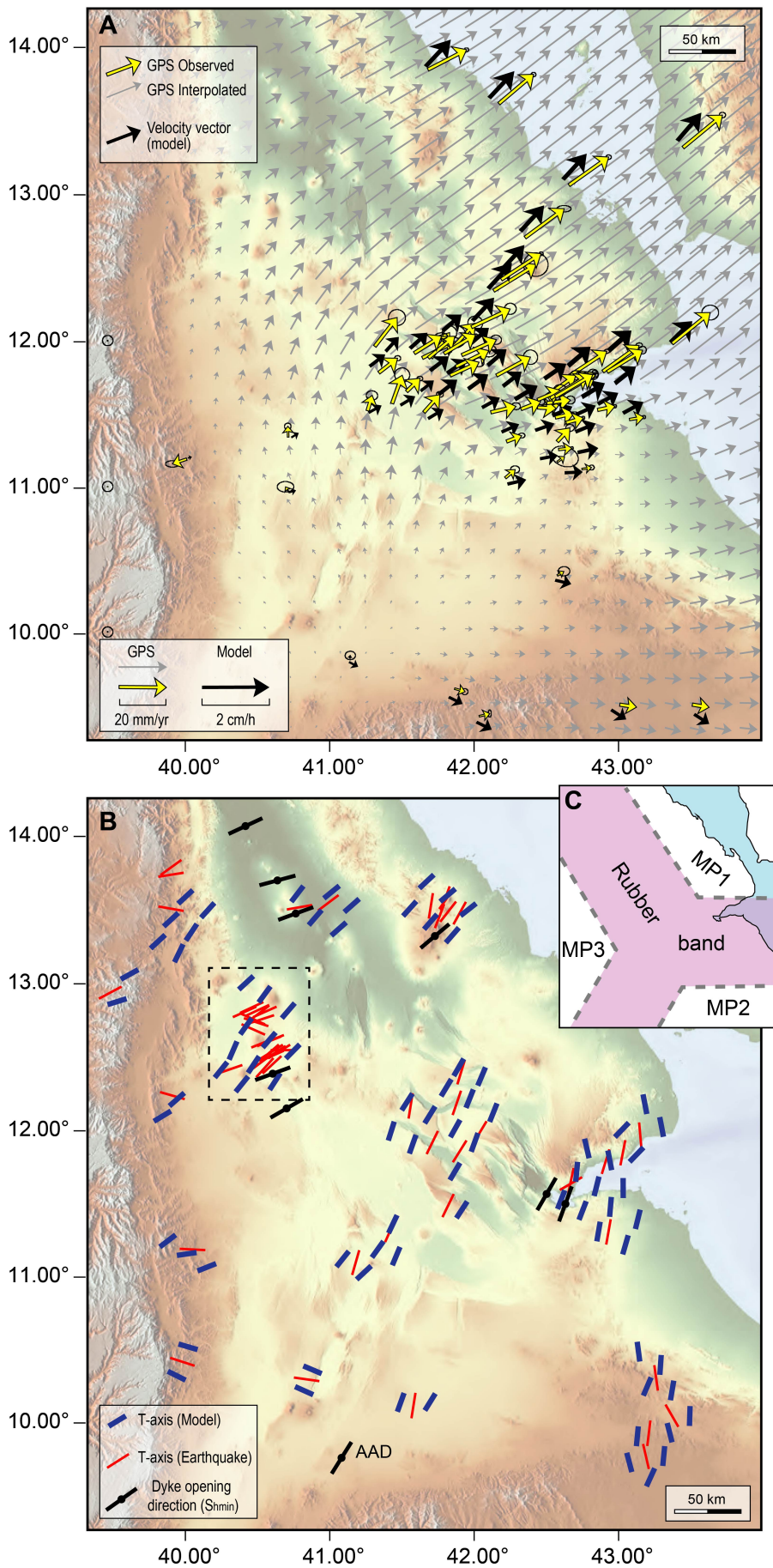
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Figure 3.



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382 **Figure 4.**