Rift Focussing and Magmatism During Late-Stage Rifting in Afar, Ethiopia

C. Moore[1], T. Wright[1], A. Hooper[1]

[1]COMET, School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK

Key Points:

- From Sentinel-1 InSAR and GNSS observations, we resolve 3D average surface velocities from 2014-19 across the whole Afar rift
- Rift focusing increases with rift maturity, with distributed extension in southern Afar, and localised extension in north and central Afar
- We observe surface deformation related to magmatism at several volcanic centres including Dallol, Erta 'Ale, Nabro, and Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo

Corresponding author: Chris Moore, ee12cm@leeds.ac.uk

Abstract

Processes that facilitate the transition between continental rifting and sea-floor spreading remain unclear. Variations in the spatial distribution of extension through Afar and into the Red Sea are indicative of temporal evolution of the rift. We develop a time series of Sentinel-1 interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR) observations of ground deformation covering the whole Afar Rift from 2014-2019, to study the distribution of extension across all magmatic segments. By incorporating GNSS observations, we resolve 3D average velocities in the vertical, rift-perpendicular, and rift-parallel directions. Results show the spatial distribution of long-term plate motions over the rift, as well as deformation at individual volcanic centres, including Dallol, Nabro, and Erta 'Ale. We find that in northern and central Afar, the majority of extension is accommodated within $\pm$ 15-30 km of magmatic spreading centres. In southern Afar, near the Nubia-Arabia-Somalia triple-junction, extension is distributed over 90-180 km, which may indicate an increase in rift focussing with rift maturity. We also observe rapid surface uplift and rift-perpendicular extension at the Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo segment with velocities of 33 $\pm$ 4 mm/yr and 37 $\pm$ 4 mm/yr respectively. These are higher than the background extension rate of 18-20 mm/yr, but have decreased by 55-70 % since 2006-10. The data suggests that this is due to an on-going long-lived response to the 2005-10 rifting episode, with potential continued processes below the segment including a lower-crustal viscous response and magma movement. Continued long-term observations of surface deformation provide key constraints on tectono-magmatic processes in Afar.

1 Introduction

Magma plays a significant role in accommodating the final stages of continental break-up and the transition into early sea-floor spreading, and the Afar region of Ethiopia is uniquely placed to allow the observation of these processes sub-aerially (e.g. Ebinger, 2005; Kendall et al., 2005; Wright et al., 2012). Extensional strain in Afar is concentrated onto elongate rifting segments (Ebinger & Casey, 2001) which are maintained by rifting episodes that include effusive eruptions and dyking (Wright et al., 2006). Magmatic intrusions at these spreading segments produce time-dependent surface deformation, observable using time series of interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR). These long time series can help separate surface deformation related to magma movement and viscoelastic relaxation, and have been used to constrain, and highlight the importance of viscous rheology in late-stage rifting (Pagli et al., 2014; J. Hamlyn et al., 2018).

1.1 Regional Setting

Upwelling of a mantle plume initiated rifting in Afar around 30 Ma with abundant flood-basalt volcanism, which has evolved into the ridge-ridge-ridge triple junction observed in Afar today (Wolfenden et al., 2004; Furman et al., 2006; Hammond et al., 2013). Relative to the Nubian Plate, the Arabian Plate is moving at a rate of 18-20 mm/yr to the NE (McClusky et al., 2010; ArRajehi et al., 2010), accommodated by the opening of the Red Sea Rift (RSR); while the Somalian Plate is moving to the SE at $\sim$ 6 mm/yr (Saria et al., 2014), accommodated by the Main Ethiopian Rift (MER) which is the northernmost segment of the larger East African Rift.

The crust beneath Afar is significantly thinned in comparison to the surrounding Ethiopian highlands and MER. Crustal thicknesses range from 20-45 km in the Ethiopian plateau, 18-30 km in central Afar, and 15-20 km in northern Afar (Tiberi et al., 2005; Bastow & Keir, 2011; Hammond et al., 2011; Lavayssière et al., 2018). Low seismic velocities indicate partial melt within the crust (Gallacher et al., 2016), particularly below volcanic segments in Afar (Stork et al., 2013; Hammond, 2014; Hammond & Kendall, 2016). Seismicity in the upper and lower crust along the Erta 'Ale volcanic segment (EAVS) also indicates the presence of melt below the Erta 'Ale and Alu-Dalafilla volcanic centres (Illsley-Kemp et al., 2018).

Active volcansim in Afar is largely concentrated within discrete rifting segments. The EAVS is the immediate on-land expression of the RSR. Erta 'Ale volcano on the EAVS is host to an lava lake with recent overflows in 2010 (Field et al., 2012; Barnie, Oppenheimer, & Pagli, 2016) and 2017, where a flank eruption indicated the presence of a shallow magma body at $\sim$ 1 km depth (Moore et al., 2019). At Gada 'Ale, magma withdrawal and normal faulting caused subsidence from 1993-1996 (Amelung et al., 2000), and a dyke intrusion fed from a magma chamber 2-3 km below Dallol was detected in 2004 (Nobile et al., 2012). The 2008 eruption at Alu-Dalafilla was sourced from a $\sim$ 1 km deep axis-aligned reservoir and a magma chamber at $\sim$ 4 km depth (Pagli et al., 2012).

The largest recent volcano-tectonic rifting episode in Afar occurred from 2005-10 on the Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo volcanic segment (DMHVS) (Barnie, Keir, et al., 2016). The initial dyke in September 2005 ruptured the whole 60 km long segment, and intruded 2.4-2.6 km^3 of magma over $\sim$ 2 weeks (Wright et al., 2006). Seismicity indicates that this dyke initiated beneath the Dabbahu and Gabho volcanoes at the northern end of

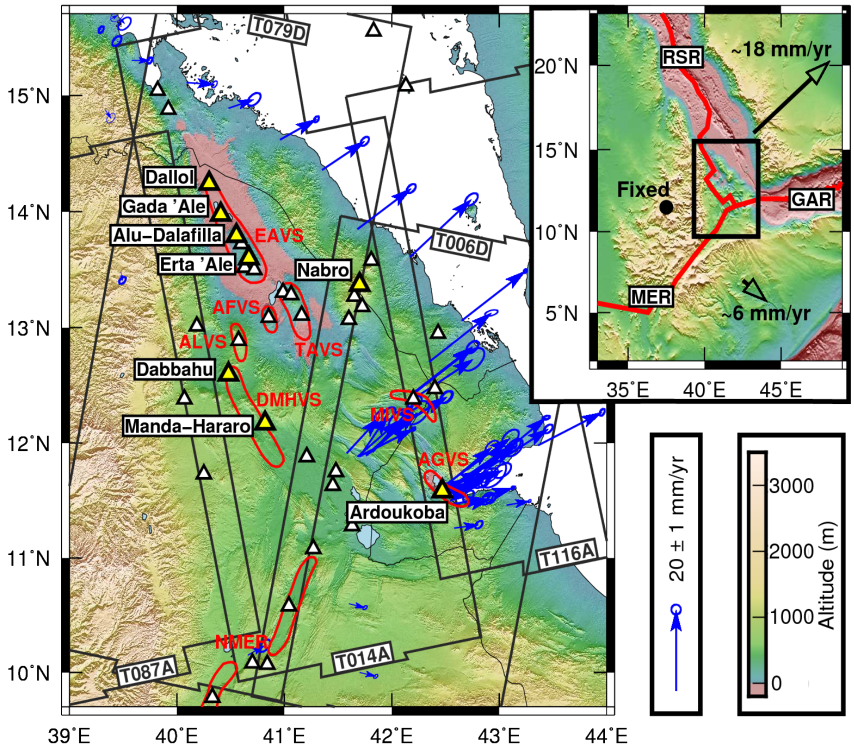

Figure 1. The Afar Rift with white triangles indicating Holocene volcanoes and key volcanoes highlighted in yellow. Simplified volcanic segments (VS) are shown in red: AFVS - Afdera, ALVS - Alayta, AGVS - Asal-Ghoubbet, DMHVS - Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo, EAVS - Erta 'Ale, MI - Manda-Inakir, NMER - Northern Main Ethiopian Rift, TAVS - Tat 'Ale. A subset of GNSS velocity vectors with 95% confidence error ellipses (blue arrows) from (King et al., 2019) show the long-term plate motions. Grey box outlines show the Sentinel-1 coverage from 3 ascending (T014A, T087A, T116A) and 2 descending (T006D, T079D) tracks. Inset map shows the relative movement of the Arabian and Somalian plates to the Nubian plate, with plate boundaries from Bird (2003). RSR - Red Sea Rift, GAR - Gulf of Aden Rift, MER - Main Ethiopian Rift.

the DMHVS, before focussing on the segment centre (Ayele et al., 2009). 13 subsequent dykes were emplaced between 2006-2010, drawing comparisons to the 1975-1984 Krafla rifting episode where extension in both settings is accommodated by magmatic intrusions (Hamling et al., 2010; Ferguson et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2012; Barnie, Keir, et al., 2016). Throughout the rifting episode there was an ongoing post-rifting response to the initial 2005 intrusion, which was modelled using magmatic sources in the upper crust, and the inflation of a deeper source at the segment centre, as viscoelastic relaxation alone was insufficient to reproduce geodetic observations (Grandin et al., 2010; Hamling et al., 2014).

The Manda-Inakir (MIVS) and Asal-Ghoubbet (AGVS) volcanic segments in southern Afar have also shown recent activity with the 1928-1929 eruption of Kammourta volcano in the MIVS (Audin et al., 1990), and the 1978 eruption at Ardoukoba volcano in the AGVS (Allard et al., 1979; Tarantola et al., 1979). Cattin et al. (2005) identified a post-rifting response in the AGVS to the 1978 eruption, with rift-perpendicular velocities decaying back to the long-term spreading rate 6-8 years after the eruption.

The Nabro Volcanic Range (NVR) is an off-axis volcanic-centre that sits within the Danakil Block, a rigid micro-plate which is moving away from Nubia with extension in Afar (Eagles et al., 2002). The NVR has hosted explosive eruptions at Dubbi volcano in 1861 (Wiart & Oppenheimer, 2000), and Nabro volcano in 2011 (J. E. Hamlyn et al., 2014; Goitom et al., 2015). Persistent subsidence was detected at Nabro for > 1 year following the 2011 eruption which was attributed to viscoelastic relaxation around a magma chamber at 6.4 ± 0.3 km depth (J. Hamlyn et al., 2018).

1.2 InSAR Velocity Methods & Applications in Afar

Methods for extracting a one-dimensional line-of-sight (LOS) displacement time series from a sequence or network of interferograms are well established. These small-baseline algorithms utilise multiple interferogram connections between acquisition dates to produce a more robust estimate of the incremental LOS ground displacement than a simple stacking of interferograms (Berardino et al., 2002; Lanari et al., 2007; Biggs et al., 2007). This methodology may be automated by software packages such as Π-RATE (Wang et al., 2012, and references therein), StaMPS (Hooper et al., 2012), GIAnT (Agram et al., 2013), and LiCSBAS (Morishita et al., 2020) in order to obtain linear displacement rates and uncertainties at each pixel, while reducing the effect of common sources of error such as atmospheric and orbital delays. These methods may be supplemented by additional filtering to remove the atmospheric phase screen (APS) from the time series, by firstly high-pass filtering in time, then low-pass filtering in space to calculate the APS, which is then removed from the time series (e.g. Sousa et al., 2011). The conventional method for APS calculation relies on the assumption that the atmospheric delay is not temporally correlated. With recent SAR missions providing shorter satellite revisit times, this assumption may no longer be appropriate. Previous studies have proposed improvements to the APS correction, including applying a global weather model (e.g. Jung et al., 2013), and accounting for the temporal variance of a pixel (e.g. Liu et al., 2011; Refice et al., 2011).

The only previous InSAR derived velocity map covering the whole Afar region was developed by Pagli et al. (2014), who used Π-RATE to produce a displacement time series between 2005-10. After removing large deformation steps associated with the DMH dyke intrusion events, Pagli et al. (2014) smoothed the time series by removing the APS, employing consistent Gaussian temporal and Butterworth spatial filters. Pagli et al. (2014) extracted 3D (east, north, vertical) velocities from ascending and descending LOS and Global Navigation Satellite Systems (GNSS) observations on a 10-20 km resolution mesh following the method of Wang and Wright (2012). Surface velocities between 2005-10 from Pagli et al. (2014) showed a long-term plate spreading rate of 15-20 mm/yr in Eastern Afar (relative to a stable Nubian plate), and large extension rates of $\sim$ 100 mm/yr at Dabbahu associated with the background response during the 2005-10 DMH rifting episode. Other InSAR velocity maps within Afar have focussed on individual rift segments, such as the DMHVS (Hamling et al., 2014) from 2006-10, the AGVS from 1997-2005 (Doubre & Peltzer, 2007), and around the Tendaho Graben from 2004-10 (Temtime et al., 2018).

In this study, we make use of the high temporal and spatial resolution data from the Sentinel-1 satellite to extract surface velocities from 2014-19 across the whole of the Afar region. We develop and apply a small baseline methodology with spatial and temporal variance weighted filtering to improve the removal of the APS, reference the data to a stable Nubia GNSS reference frame, and calculate 3D (vertical, rift-perpendicular horizontal, and rift-parallel horizontal) velocities.

2 Data Processing and Time Series Methods

2.1 Sentinel-1 Data

We use Sentinel-1A/B acquisitions from ascending tracks 14 (014A), 87 (087A), and 116 (116A), and descending tracks 6 (006D) and 79 (079D) between October 2014 and August 2019. For processing efficiency, we divide each track into 12 ($\sim$ 250×250 km) frames (Table S1). We produce a network of geocoded unwrapped interferograms for each frame from single-look complex (SLC) images of each date using the LiCSAR software (González et al., 2016; Lazecky et al., in review.), which automates the mass production of interferograms using GAMMA (Werner et al., 2000). To reduce noise and data size, we multi-look the SLCs at 20:4 range to azimuth looks, equating to $\sim$ 100×100 m pixel size. We apply a topographic correction using an SRTM (Shuttle Radar Topography Mission) 3-arc-second ($\sim$ 90 m resolution) DEM (Digital Elevation Model) (Farr & Kobrick, 2000), filter the interferograms using using a power spectrum filter (Goldstein et al., 1998), and unwrap using SNAPHU (Chen & Zebker, 2002). We manually quality check the interferogram network for each frame to remove interferograms with decorrelation, co-registration, or obvious unwrapping errors. We ensure that each epoch is connected to the network by a minimum of 3 interferograms by creating new interferograms as needed. Each interferogram is referenced to the mean value, excluding areas of deformation around volcanic centres.

To mitigate for atmospheric phase delay for each interferogram we compare the effectiveness of corrections from a linear trend of phase with elevation over the whole frame (e.g. Elliott et al., 2008), and the GACOS atmospheric model (e.g. Yu et al., 2017, 2018). For a linear phase-elevation trend correction, the mean root-mean-square (RMS) misfit for all 12 frames is reduced by 2.9 mm in comparison to the mean RMS misfit for all frames with no atmospheric correction. The GACOS correction gives a reduction in mean RMS misfit of 4.2 mm, but increases the RMS misfit in 29 % of interferograms. To reduce this we follow an approach similar to Shen et al. (2019), scaling the GACOS correction for each interferogram in order to minimise the resulting RMS misfit. This improves the atmospheric correction further, producing a reduction in mean RMS misfit of 5.7 mm (see Figure S1). In order to account for any residual topographic atmospheric signal in each frame, we remove a linear trend of phase with elevation from each epoch, after time series filtering.

2.2 Time Series

We apply an SBAS style methodology to invert for the displacement time series at each pixel in the frame, using all interferograms where a pixel is coherent. We assess the spatial and temporal variance of the time series by firstly, filtering using a Laplacian filter with a temporal width of 3 epochs and scale factor of 3, then calculating the RMS misfit from this trend at each pixel for every epoch. We calculate the spatial distribution of RMS misfit from the time series misfits at each point, and the temporal distribution of RMS misfit from the misfits of all pixels at each epoch (see Figure S2). To resolve the RMS misfit value of each pixel at every epoch, we scale the spatial RMS misfit map to the temporal RMS misfit value at each epoch (see Supplementary Materials). We use these error estimates to provide weights during time series filtering, and in the inversion of filtered displacement time series for average velocities.

In order to reduce the remaining APS in the displacement time series, we filter the time series using a high-pass temporal and a low-pass spatial filter to produce the APS, which we then remove from the time series. To calculate a low-pass temporal filter, we apply a weighted linear trend with a fixed temporal width of 1 year centred on each point. To calculate the weighting for the local trend, we use the RMS misfit as a proxy for standard error, and convert the RMS misfit values into weights using the Bi-Square function where no weight is given to RMS values that exceed 6 standard deviations of the local misfits (e.g. Cleveland & Devlin, 1988). We also scale these weights by their temporal distance from the target epoch of the local time series (see Supplementary Materials). Having calculated the low-pass temporal filter, we remove it from the time series to create a high-pass temporal filter. We then apply a Gaussian spatial filter with a half-width of $\sim$ 2 km in order to resolve the APS for each epoch.

After we remove the APS, we remove a planar ramp in space and a linear trend with height to correct for any remnant long-wavelength and elevation-correlated atmospheric delay. We later correct for long-wavelength deformation using GNSS observations. For each frame, we compute the average velocity at each pixel by inverting for a single linear trend through time, allowing for a constant offset. We produce a variance-covariance matrix (VCM) for each pixel, treating the temporal variation of the scaled RMS misfit as independent errors. By including the VCM in the inversion, we can quantify the uncertainty of the resulting velocities.

De Zan et al. (2015) demonstrate how a potential systematic phase-bias in interferograms with decreasing temporal baseline can influence the resulting time series. We test the magnitude of this bias by selecting consecutive 12, 24, and 36-day interferograms from frame 079D_07694_131313 covering $\sim$ 1 year (see Figure S3). We use a 'daisy-chain' stack approach to resolve the cumulative displacements from the 12, 24, and 36 day unwrapped interferograms between December 2017 and February 2019. Any differences between these stacks indicates the presence of phase-bias and/or unwrapping errors. We find residual differences between the 12 and 24-day, and 12 and 36-day stacks of up to 50 mm, and residuals of up to 10 mm between the 24 and 36-day stacks. While this indicates that the 12-day interferograms are susceptible to a phase-bias, we find that removing the 12-day interferograms from the network effects our displacement time series by $<$ 5 mm per epoch, and our average velocities by $<$ 1 mm/yr. While we are not able to account for any bias in the 36-day interferograms, Ansari et al. (2020) indicate that the velocity bias is small in comparison to 12-day interferograms.

2.3 3D Velocities

We tie frames together within their respective tracks by sub-sampling the InSAR data points to a 5$\times$5 km spacing in the overlap between frames, and 10$\times$10 km spacing elsewhere, then solving for and removing a planar ramp for each frame that minimises residuals in the along-track frame overlap regions. Removing these ramps does not bias the results as long-wavelength signals are later corrected using GNSS. In the frame overlap region, we use the mean value of LOS velocity for each point. We find that using linear ramps to combine frames within tracks produces the fewest boundary artefacts when compared to using a single offset value calculated from the median value in the frame overlap region, or solving for a 2D quadratic function for each frame. Boundary artefacts within tracks can occur due to differences between frames in time series length, the variation in acquisition dates used, relative weighting during time-series filtering, and orbital ramp removal. Although in principle it would be possible to only process and use interferograms that cover the whole along-track extent of the study region, this would require excluding several epochs where data were not acquired over the whole area, resulting in truncated time series.

To reference the LOS velocity in each track to a stable Nubian plate, we use a network of 105 GNSS stations in the Afar region to characterise long-wavelength plate motions. The data are a subset of the GeoPRISMS community velocity field for East Africa in a Nubia-fixed International Terrestrial Reference Frame (ITRF2014) (King et al., 2019). We remove 32 stations in central Afar where the velocities are dominated by the ground motions associated with the 2005-10 DMH rifting episode. As the resulting network is sparse, with the majority of stations concentrated in Eastern Afar and few points on the Nubian and Somalian plates; we add 17 additional fabricated GNSS stations on the stable Nubian plate, with an assumed zero velocity (with uncertainties of $\pm$ 1 mm/yr and $\pm$ 2 mm/yr in the horizontal and vertical components), to help constrain the velocity field where data are sparse. We project East and North GNSS horizontal velocities into the rift-perpendicular (e.g. Hamling et al., 2014), and rift-parallel directions, oriented at 61°N and -29°N respectively.

From this network, we interpolate a smooth GNSS velocity field in the rift-perpendicular and rift-parallel directions over the whole Afar region at 100$\times$100 m grid spacing (Figure S4) using the natural neighbour algorithm (e.g. Boissonnat & Cazals, 2002). As the additional pseudo-observations define where this interpolated field reaches zero velocity, we selected these points such that they are on the Nubian plate, away from the rift border faults. We are not concerned with the precise locations, as where the interpolated velocity field reaches zero does not significantly influence the data within the Afar from the Rift. We estimate the error in the interpolated velocities by systematically removing each GNSS station from the network, interpolating new velocity fields in the rift-perpendicular and rift-parallel directions from the reduced network, then calculating the residual between the interpolated fields and the GNSS observation. We take the standard deviation of these residuals as the error in the rift-perpendicular and rift-parallel GNSS velocity field.

We sub-sample the InSAR LOS track velocities as previously, then extract points where there are ascending, descending, and interpolated GNSS data. We also mask points around the active rift segments so that volcanic ground deformation does not interfere with the referencing to the long-term plate motions. Using these points, we solve for the 3D velocity (rift-perpendicular, rift-parallel, vertical) at each point and a residual 2D (East, North) quadratic function for each track. We remove the respective quadratic from each InSAR track to resolve LOS velocity in a stable Nubia reference frame. The resulting LOS velocities and standard deviations are shown in Figures 2 and S5 respectively.

In order to resolve a full 3D velocity field (vertical, rift-perpendicular horizontal, rift-parallel horizontal) at 100$\times$100 m resolution, we use the smooth rift-parallel GNSS field to provide a constraint on the rift-parallel velocity at each point, as the rift-parallel velocities are small in comparison to the rift-perpendicular and vertical velocities. We include this constraint with the ascending and descending LOS InSAR observations to calculate 3D velocities at each point using a least-squares inversion (Wright et al., 2004; Hussain et al., 2016; Weiss et al., 2020). The decomposition of InSAR LOS velocities (L) into rift-perpendicular ($H1$), rift-parallel ($H2$), and vertical (Z) velocities is shown in Equation 1 for the incidence angle (θ), satellite heading (α), rift angle from North (ϕ). We weight the inversion and resolve uncertainties by including a diagonal VCM using the previously calculated variance at each point.

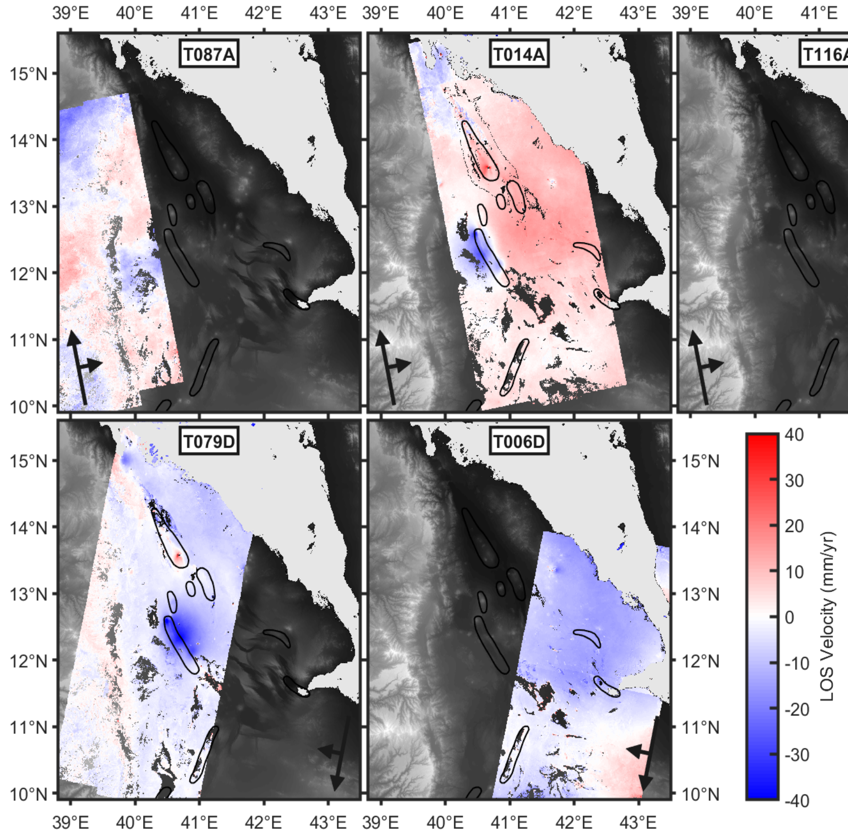

Figure 2. LOS average velocities over the Afar region between November 2014 and August 2019 from Sentinel-1 tracks T087A, T014A, T116A, T079D, and T006D. LOS velocities are referenced to a stable Nubia reference frame using long-term plate motions from the regional GNSS network (King et al., 2019). Arrows indicate the track look directions, and the volcanic segments are shown as black outlines.

Results (Figure 3), discussed in Section 3, show both the long-term plate motion and surface deformation associated with magmatism. As we use the interpolated GNSS velocity field as an additional constraint in the rift-parallel direction, the resulting rift-parallel error estimates are lower than the rift-perpendicular errors, which we calculate using only the InSAR observations to retain high spatial resolution (see Figure 3).

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} -sin(\theta)cos(\alpha+\phi) + sin(\theta)sin(\alpha+\phi) - cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H1 \\ H2 \\ Z \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

3 Key Findings & Discussion

3.1 Plate Motions & Rift Focussing

Our 2014-2019 horizontal velocity maps (Figure 3) show the rift-perpendicular extension over the Afar rift at rates of up to 25 ± 5 mm/yr, with negligible motions in the rift-parallel direction. We also observe the 'trapdoor' motion of the Danakil micro-plate relative to the stable Nubian plate (Kidane, 2016), where rift-perpendicular extension in the RSR is gradually transferred into Afar between 13-16°N. Areas of noise up to ± 10 mm/yr over the Ethiopian highlands region on the Nubain plate, are highlighted in the standard deviation maps shown in Figure 3. The regions of high error in T087A, and the northern-most portion of T014A (see Figure S5), are a result of the shorter time series length in these regions producing more uncertainty in the long-term velocity estimates. Elsewhere, errors of up to ± 5 mm/yr are likely due to uncorrected atmospheric delays, and artefacts over track boundaries, where we are unable to account for small LOS velocity variations between overlapping tracks.

Profiles taken across the rift highlight the focussing of extension in Afar. Profiles covering the Alid graben, at northern-most tip of the Afar rift (Figures 4B and 5B), show that a broad uplift and extensional signal of up to ∼ 20 mm/yr is centred within ± 10-15 km of the rift axis. This may be indicative of deep magmatic intrusion in an area with the smallest background extension rates throughout Afar, but comparable to extension rates at the active volcanic islands at the southern end of the oceanic RSR (Eyles et al., 2018). Profiles traversing the EAVS in the Danakil Depression (Figures 4C and 5C) highlight that the majority of extension here is focussed into a region within ± 15-20 km of the rift axis. We also observe subsidence on the EAVS between the Erta 'Ale and Alu

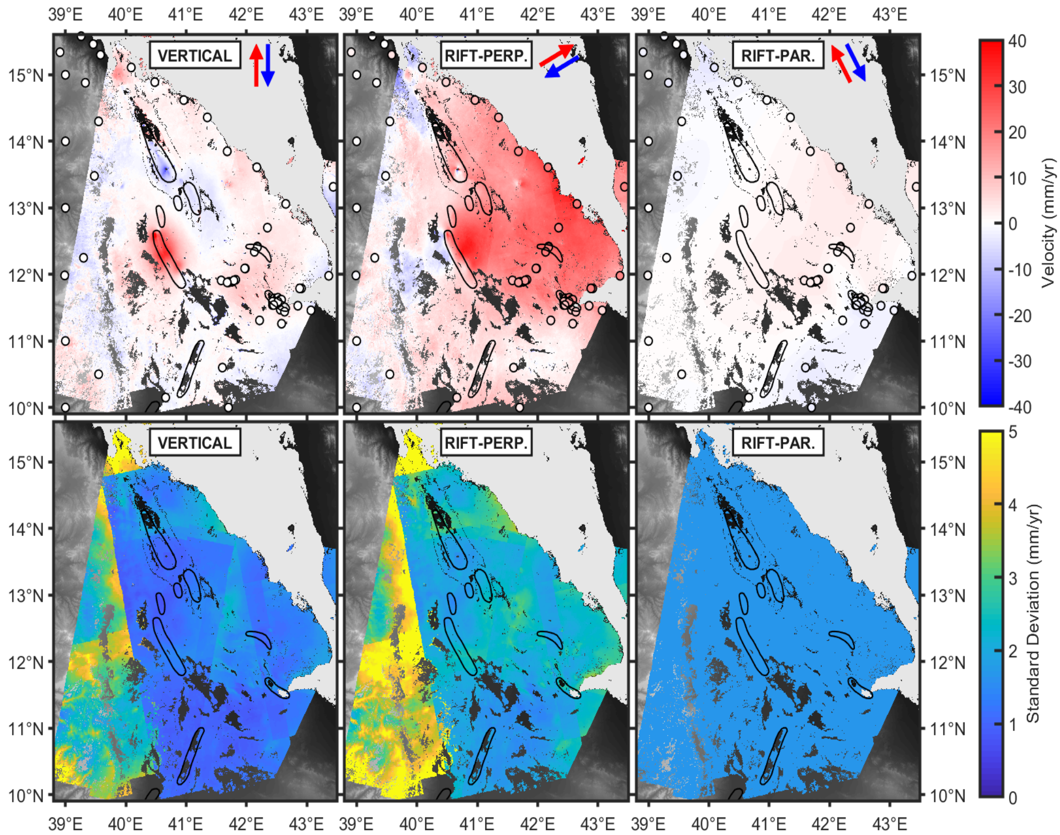

Figure 3. Vertical, rift-perpendicular, and rift-parallel average velocities and standard deviation over the Afar region between November 2014 and August 2019. All velocities are referenced to a stable Nubian plate. Vertical velocities are positive upwards, rift-perpendicular velocities are positive to the NE (61°N), and rift-parallel velocities are positive to the NW (-29°N). Standard deviation colour-scale is limited to 5 mm/yr to highlight variation in regions of low variance. Maximum standard deviations are (2 s.f.): 7.2 mm/yr (vertical), 9.5 mm/yr (rift-perpendicular), and 1.7 mm/yr (rift-parallel). GNSS stations are shown as circles with GNSS velocities on the same colour-scale as the InSAR velocities, and volcanic segments as black outlines.

Dalafilla volcanoes (Figure 4C), which could be linked to magma withdrawal associated with the 2017-19 eruption at Erta 'Ale (Moore et al., 2019). Profiles between the EAVS and the DMHVS (Figure 5C) show that extension in this region is shared between the ALVS and the TAVS, and focussed to within ± 10-20 km of the rift segments.

Profiles covering the DMHVS (Figures 4D and 5D) also show that the long-term extension is concentrated near the rift-axis, with only small variations in rift-perpendicular velocity away from ± 20-30 km of the segment centre. Elevated velocities close to the segment centre are associated with the 2005-10 DMHVS rifting episode, and are discussed

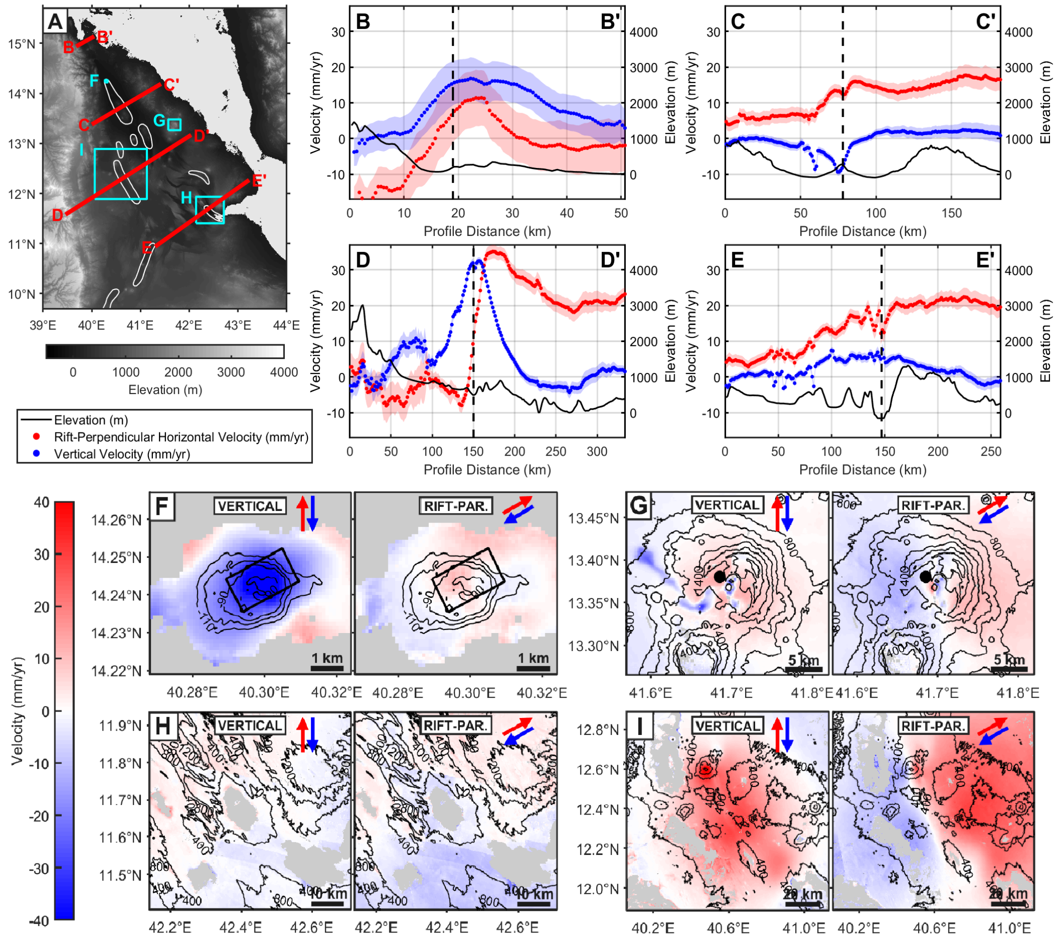

Figure 4. (B-E) Vertical (blue, positive up) and rift-perpendicular (red, positive towards 61°N) velocities over 4 10 km wide cross-rift profiles marked on insert map, covering (B) the northern tip of the Afar triangle, (C) the Erta 'Ale volcanic segment, (D) the Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo volcanic segment (DMHVS), and (E) the Asal-Ghoubbet volcanic segment (AGVS). Black lines show surface elevation along the profiles, with vertical dashed lines indicating the location of the major rift axis on the profile. (F-I) Vertical and rift-perpendicular velocity maps at (F) Dallol volcano, (G) Nabro volcano, (H) the AGVS, and (I) the DMHVS. Velocities in each subset are referenced to the local background mean value, with contours indicating elevation. The location of modelled deformation sources for a 0.9-1.3 km deep sill (Okada, 1985) at Dallol (F, Figure S6) and a 5.5-6.8 km deep point source (Mogi, 1958) at Nabro (G, Figure S7) are shown as black outlines.

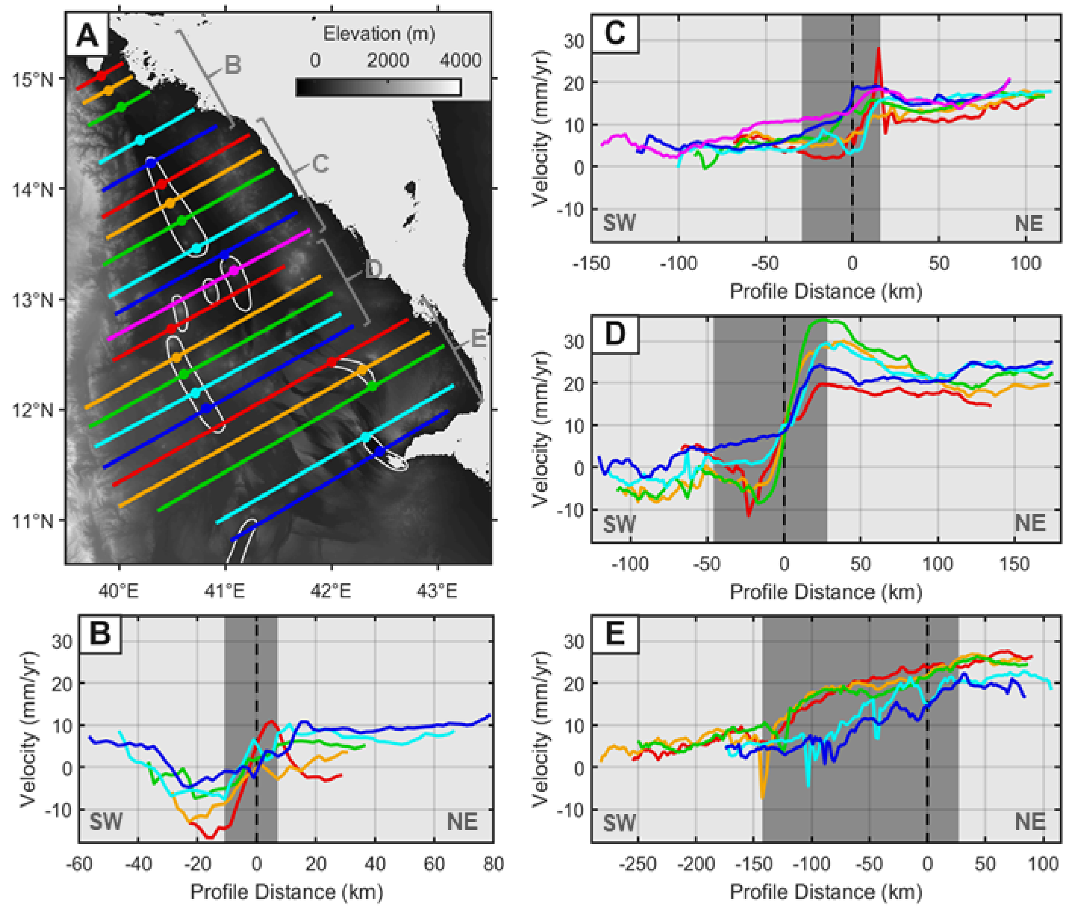

Figure 5. Map of 21 10 km wide rift-perpendicular velocity (relative to stable Nubia, positive towards 61°N) profiles over the Afar rift (A), with rift segments outlined in white. To help distinguish between profiles, profiles alternate between solid and dashed lines. The velocity profiles cover northern Afar (B), the Erta 'Ale and Tat 'Ale segments (C), the Dabbahu-Manda-Hararo segment (D), and southern Afar (E). The standard deviation of rift-perpendicular velocities varies from ± 2-7 mm/yr (see Figure 3). Profile distances are relative to the rift axis, with positive towards the NE. The location of the rift axis is marked by circles on the map (A), and dashed black lines on profiles (B-E). Grey shading on the profiles indicates the region where the majority of rift extension is accommodated.

in Section 3.2. Profiles over southern Afar and the AGVS (Figures 4E and 5E) show a more distributed pattern of extension with an increase in rift-perpendicular velocities 80-160 km to the SW of the rift axis, before velocities stabilise at $\sim$ 20 mm/yr on the Danakil micro-plate within 10-20 km to the NE of the rift axis. In southern Afar, extension between 2014-19 may be largely accommodated by tectonic rather than magmatic mechanisms, with strain being distributed across a sequence of horst and graben structures.

Our results indicate that at the more mature segments with active magmatism in central and northern Afar, extension is largely focussed to within ± 15-30 km of the rift axis; while at less mature segments without active magmatism in southern Afar, extension may be distributed of a over 90-180 km. The broad distribution of strain in southern Afar is in general agreement with 1992-2010 GNSS observations from Kogan et al.

(2012), who suggest that extension along a profile in southern Afar occurs over ∼ 175 km. Kogan et al. (2012) also suggest that extension becomes more distributed with rift development. In contrast, our results suggest an increase in focussing with rift maturity during late-stage continental break-up, in keeping with strain localisation assisting the transition into oceanic spreading centres.

3.2 Magmatic Deformation

Figure 4 highlights the localised surface deformation at Dallol (4F) and Nabro (4G) volcanoes, and at the DMHVS (4I), where localised deformation, likely associated with magma migration, is visible. Figure 4H over the AGVS indicates the lack of magma related deformation at this segment between 2014-19. As magmatic deformation may not be steady in time, we look at time series for points located in the middle of these centres. Time series of vertical displacements at the Dallol, Nabro, Dabbahu, and Manda-Hararo volcanic centres show that the deformation is linear through time, indicating that the velocities are representative (Figure 6). For Erta 'Ale volcano, we select a point ∼ 2 km to the north of the summit caldera in order to avoid the step surface deformation associated with a dyke intrusion in January 2017 (Moore et al., 2019). Following this intrusion the Erta 'Ale edifice shows linear subsidence at a rate of 15 ± 4 mm/yr (Figure 6).

At Dallol volcano, at the northern end on the EAVS, we observe a high rate of subsidence of up to 45 ± 4 mm/yr, with negligible horizontal movement. The subsidence signal is focussed on the central cone at Dallol. We model this signal using the Markov-Chain Monte-Carlo Geodetic Bayesian Inversion Software (GBIS) (Bagnardi & Hooper, 2018). For the T014A and T079D LOS deformation between 2014-19, we test source ge-

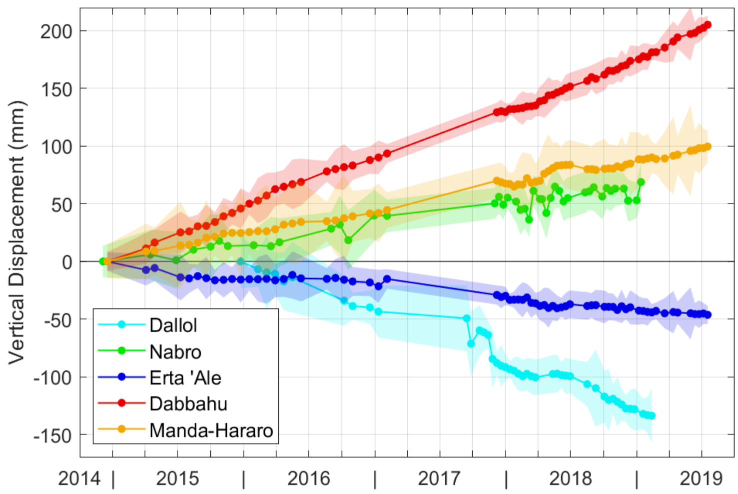

Figure 6. 2014-19 time series of vertical displacements (uplift positive) with 1 standard deviation estimates, at 5 deforming volcanic centres in Afar. The points used for the time series are representative of the whole edifice deformation and are positioned at the centre of the volcanic edifice; with the exception of Erta 'Ale where the point selected is ∼ 2 km North of the summit lava lake in order to avoid surface deformation associated with the Jan 2017 dyke intrusion event (Moore et al., 2019). Coordinates of points used for each volcanic centre: Dallol - 40.3°E/14.243°N, Nabro - 41.685°E/13.38°N, Erta 'Ale - 40.65°E/13.62°N, Dabbahu - 40.48°E/12.58°N, Manda-Hararo - 40.88°E/12.13°N.

ometries including a point pressure source (Mogi, 1958), a planar dislocation (Okada, 1985), and a penny-shaped crack (Fialko et al., 2001). We find that a $\sim 1\times2$ km horizontal sill at 0.9-1.3 km depth with ~ 0.27 m of contraction gives the lowest residual RMS misfit (Figure S6). This is in agreement with Nobile et al. (2012) who inferred the presence of a deflating magma body at 1.5-3.3 km depth beneath Dallol between 2004-06.

At Nabro volcano, we observe edifice uplift and extension at rates of up to 12 ± 3 mm/yr, combined with the subsidence of lava flows from the 2011 eruption (J. E. Hamlyn et al., 2014), and a highly localised subsidence and contraction signal of up to 14 ± 3 mm/yr at the centre of the Nabro caldera. This uplift of the Nabro edifice shows a change from InSAR observed subsidence of 150-200 mm/yr from 2011-12, after the 2011 eruption (J. Hamlyn et al., 2018). As our vertical displacement time series (Figure 6) indicates that the uplift at Nabro is linear between 2014-19, we suggest that this post-eruption edifice subsidence must have stopped between 2012-14. We model T006D, T014A, and T079D LOS observations at Nabro volcano between 2014-19 using a point pressure source (Mogi, 1958), and penny-shaped crack (Fialko et al., 2001) using GBIS (Bagnardi & Hooper, 2018). Figure S7 shows the optimal Mogi source at 5.5-6.8 km depth with a volume increase of $7\text{-}11\times10^6$ m^3. The location of this source is in agreement with the magma chamber at 6.4 ± 0.3 km depth inferred by (J. Hamlyn et al., 2018) between 2011-12, indicating re-charge of the melt storage below Nabro volcano.

After the initial 2005 intrusion at the DMHVS, background uplift and rift-perpendicular extension continued throughout the 2005-10 rifting episode at rates of up to 80-240 mm/yr and 110-180 mm/yr respectively, from 2006-10 at the segment centre (Pagli et al., 2014; Hamling et al., 2014). We show that this uplift and extension is ongoing between 2014-19 at average rates of 33 ± 4 mm/yr and 37 ± 4 mm/yr respectively (Figure 4c,h). Our vertical velocities also show that an area of ~ 20 mm/yr subsidence from 2006-10 at the southern end of the DMHVS (40.9°E/12.1°N) uplifts at an average rate of 18 ± 4 mm/yr from 2014-19. This decaying post-rifting response to the initial 2005 intrusion may be indicative of continued magma movement beneath the DMHVS and/or a time-dependant viscous response due to a more ductile rheology generated from repeated intrusions at the rift segment.

4 Conclusions

We develop Sentinel-1 displacement time series at 100×100 m resolution between 2014-19 over 3 ascending and 2 descending tracks, covering the whole Afar rift. We implement a RMS misfit weighted APS correction to clean the time series, and produce average velocity maps for each frame. Using GNSS observations of long-term plate motions, we reference the InSAR velocities to the stable Nubian plate, and convert LOS to 3D velocities (vertical, rift-perpendicular, rift-parallel).

We are able to resolve deformation at individual volcanic centres, with subsidence of 45 ± 4 mm/yr at Dallol volcano, consistent with the deflation of a shallow sill at 0.9-1.3 km depth. We also show that edifice uplift at Nabro volcano of 12 ± 3 mm/yr is sourced from a magma chamber at 5.5-6.8 km depth, consistent with the source of post-eruption subsidence observed between 2011-12 (J. Hamlyn et al., 2018).

Pagli et al. (2014) and Hamling et al. (2014) identify vertical and rift-perpendicular horizontal surface velocities between 2006-10 of 80-240 mm/yr and 110-180 mm/yr, respectively associated with a background post-rift response to the initial 2005 dyking episode at the DMHVS. We show that this response is ongoing between 2014-19, but at lower rates of 33 ± 4 mm/yr and 37 ± 4 mm/yr respectively. We suggest that this ~ 15 year response to the 2005 dyke intrusion is indicative of continued magma movement and/or time-dependant viscous processes within the crust below the rift segment.

We resolve the long-term motion of the Danakil micro-plate with rift-perpendicular velocities of up to 25 ± 5 mm/yr, with negligible motions in the rift-parallel direction. From cross-rift profiles, we find that extension is largely focussed to within ± 15-30 km of the rift-axis on the active magmatic segments in northern Afar, while strain in southern Afar is distributed across 90-180 km of the rift. This trend of increased focussing of extension with rift maturity is in contrast to the trend suggested by Kogan et al. (2012), but consistent with strain localisation assisting the transition into oceanic spreading centres.

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