

# Focused mid-crustal magma intrusion during continental break-up in Ethiopia

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## Key Points:

- We determine magma storage conditions in the Main Ethiopian Rift through geochemical analysis of olivine-hosted melt inclusions.
- Volatile saturation barometry reveals that basaltic melts are focused at 10–15 km depth in the Ethiopian crust.
- Geochemical heterogeneity in melt inclusions suggests that magma storage is likely to occur in semi-discrete sills.

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## Abstract

Significant volumes of magma are intruded into the crust during continental break-up, which can influence rift evolution by altering thermo-mechanical structure of the crust and thereby its response to extensional stresses. Rift magmas additionally feed surface volcanic activity and can be globally significant sources of tectonic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Understanding how magmatism may affect rift development requires knowledge on magma intrusion depths in the crust. Here, using data from olivine-hosted melt inclusions, we investigate magma dynamics for basaltic intrusions in the Main Ethiopian Rift (MER). We find evidence for a spatially focused zone of magma intrusion at the MER upper-lower crustal boundary (10-15 km depth), consistent with geophysical datasets. We propose that ascending melts in the MER are intruded over this depth range as discrete sills, likely creating a mechanically weak mid-crustal layer. Our results have important implications for how magma addition can influence crustal rheology in a maturing continental rift.

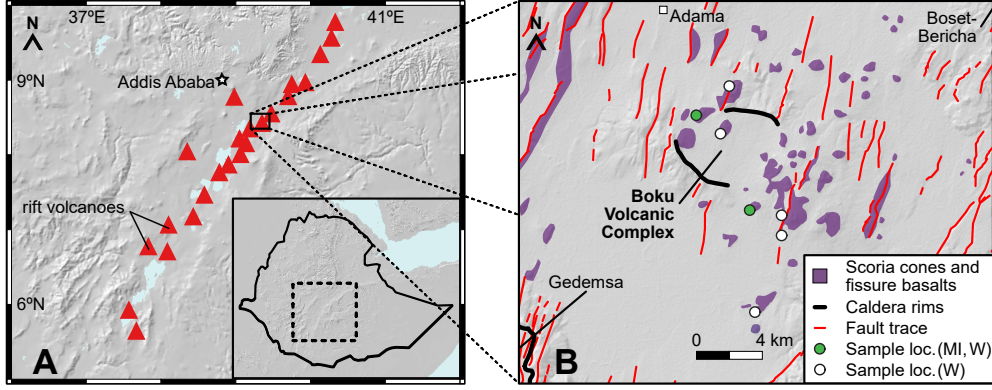
## Plain Language Summary

Continental rifting, the break-up of continents to form new ocean basins, is a key component in the tectonic cycle that affects Earth's surface environment. The rifting process is aided by magmatic activity in its final stages, which weakens the crust by heating it. This is believed to facilitate present-day rifting in Ethiopia, where we can find rift-related volcanoes. Where melts are stored in the rifting crust will determine how heat is distributed, and therefore how the physical properties of the crust will be altered. Here we analyse melt inclusions, small pockets of precursor magmas trapped in crystals. Because melt inclusions are trapped at depth they record key geochemical information about the conditions magmas experience as they enter the crust from the mantle. By considering the concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O in our melt inclusions we demonstrate that magmas are focused in a 10–15 km zone in the rifting Ethiopian crust. The diverse geochemistry of our melt inclusions additionally suggests that magmas do not substantially mix together in the crust, and are likely to be stored within non-interacting magmatic bodies. This study therefore provides new insights into how melts are stored in the Ethiopian crust before volcanic eruptions.

## 1 Introduction

Continental rifting involves the rupture of strong continental lithosphere to form new ocean basins. Evidence from active continental rifts and passive margins suggests that continental break-up often involves intrusion of substantial volumes of magma into the rifting crust (e.g., White et al., 2008; Bastow et al., 2011; Bastow & Keir, 2011). These magmas can accommodate extension via dyke intrusion and, depending on their distribution in space and time, may alter the thermo-mechanical structure of the crust (e.g., Buck, 2006; Daniels et al., 2014; Lavecchia et al., 2016; Muluneh et al., 2020). Determining where and how intruded melts accumulate during rift development is therefore crucial for understanding how the rheology and density structure of the crust evolves with progressive rifting, which in turn has a strong influence on how the crust responds to far-field extensional stresses during non-magmatic and magmatic rifting regimes (e.g., Bialas et al., 2010; Tetreault & Buiter, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2022).

Although the syn-rift interplay between magmatism and tectonics is a key ingredient in facilitating continental break-up (e.g., Thybo & Nielsen, 2009; Bastow & Keir, 2011), observational constraints on the depths of basaltic intrusion in active rifts obtained through petrology and geochemistry remain limited. While geophysical observations can infer depths of intrusion and storage of crustal melts (e.g., seismicity concurrently triggered during emplacement; Keir et al., 2006; Ebinger et al., 2008), only petrological observations, obtained from basaltic materials derived directly from the intruding melts



**Figure 1.** A. The location of the Boku Volcanic Complex in the MER. B. Simplified geological map of Boku, with olivine-hosted melt inclusion (MI) and whole-rock (W) sample localities shown. Digital elevation models are GTOPO30 (A) and SRTM (B). Volcano locations in subfigure A are obtained from the Global Volcanism Program, Smithsonian Institution (<https://volcano.si.edu/>).

themselves, can provide first-hand evidence of the magmatic conditions associated with crustal emplacement.

The Main Ethiopian Rift (MER), comprising the northernmost sector of the East African Rift system (EARS), provides a natural laboratory to examine the interplay between rift geodynamics and magmatic intrusion. This late-stage continental rift, which bridges the large fault-bound grabens of the Kenyan Rift and inferred incipient seafloor spreading in Afar (Figure 1A), has been extensively studied through multiple geophysical approaches (e.g., Bastow et al., 2011). These studies suggest that significant magma intrusion has occurred in the MER lithosphere, focused under  $\sim 20$  km-wide and  $\sim 60$  km-long magmatic-tectonic segments (e.g., Bastow et al., 2011), where as much as half of the crustal volume may comprise new igneous material (Maguire et al., 2006; Daniels et al., 2014). The compositional and thermal effects of magma intrusion may modify the response of the Ethiopian crust to extension, determining where and how strain is localized as rifting proceeds (e.g., Bastow & Keir, 2011; Lavecchia et al., 2016). Furthermore, degassing of intruded melts during and after emplacement contributes to the significant diffuse  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes measured in the MER (Hunt et al., 2017).

In this study we use petrological methods to investigate the storage depths and compositional diversity of intruded basaltic magmas in the northern MER. Our constraints on magma intrusion conditions are derived from analysis of olivine-hosted silicate melt inclusions (MIs), which are small pockets of quenched magma trapped within growing crystals during crustal magma storage (e.g., Wallace et al., 2021). Unlike erupted lavas, MIs can preserve magmatic volatile contents (e.g.,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  etc., Wallace et al., 2021), allowing volatile saturation pressures, and therefore magmatic storage depths, to be determined (e.g., Ghiorsso & Gualda, 2015). Of particular importance is the volatile species  $\text{CO}_2$ , which degasses strongly with decreasing pressure in basaltic magmas (e.g., Dixon et al., 1995). Continental rifts, including the MER, are known to be significant sources of passively degassing magmatic  $\text{CO}_2$  (Lee et al., 2016; Foley & Fischer, 2017; Hunt et al., 2017). By considering the total  $\text{CO}_2$  in MIs, entrapped within both glass and bubble, we provide new well-constrained petrological estimates of basaltic intrusion pressures in the MER.

## 2 Materials and Methods

Our samples are scoriae from the Boku Volcanic Complex, a Quaternary monogenetic basaltic cone field located in the northern MER (Figure 1B Tadesse et al., 2019). Littering the remnants of a collapsed  $\sim 500$  ka caldera, the later-stage  $\sim 200$  ka basaltic cones and fissure flows of Boku are associated with adjacent faults which are sub-parallel to the strike of the MER (Figure 1; Rooney et al., 2011; Tadesse et al., 2019). Quarries provide access into the interiors of cones, where fresh glassy basaltic scoria can be sampled.

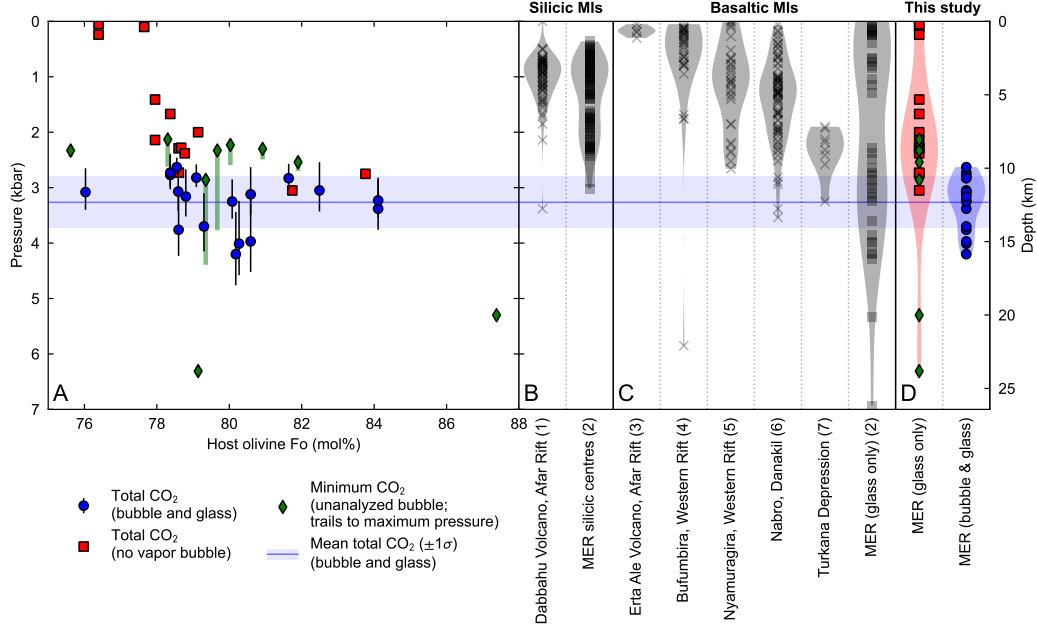
Olivine crystals from two Boku cones (Figure 1), picked from disaggregated scoria, were characterized for MIs, individually polished to  $0.25\ \mu\text{m}$  grade on glass slides to expose MIs, and mounted in epoxy resin. We have measured the compositions of 40 MIs (full methods in Supporting Information). 27 of these MIs contain  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich vapor bubbles, which form from post-entrapment changes in pressure, volume and temperature (e.g., Moore et al., 2015; MacLennan, 2017). Bubbles can host a significant fraction of the MI  $\text{CO}_2$  budget (e.g., Hartley et al., 2014; Wieser et al., 2021). To estimate the total  $\text{CO}_2$  in MIs, essential for accurate barometry, 18 MIs were additionally assessed for shrinkage bubble  $\text{CO}_2$  density using Raman spectroscopy. Our approach differs from previous studies considering MIs from the EARS in this regard, which have opted to either a) experimentally rehomogenize the bubble (Head et al., 2011; Hudgins et al., 2015), b) use  $\text{CO}_2$  equation of state methods (Rooney et al., 2022), or c) select MIs without vapor bubbles wherever possible (Field, Barnie, et al., 2012; Field, Blundy, et al., 2012; A. Donovan et al., 2017; Iddon & Edmonds, 2020). The primary advantage of our approach is the direct measurement of bubble  $\text{CO}_2$  without making assumptions concerning bubble cooling history and post-entrapment processes or experimentally modifying the MI glass composition, which will introduce uncertainties that are difficult to assess and quantify (Rasmussen et al., 2020; Wieser et al., 2021). In addition, by selecting bubble-hosting MIs we avoid biases towards magmatic conditions that favor bubble-free MIs, which may not be representative of crustal melt storage. By doing so, we provide a robust estimate of total  $\text{CO}_2$  in an MI, which can be used to determine crustal melt storage pressures.

After Raman spectroscopy, all MIs were analysed for trace and volatile elements in the glass phase by SIMS. This was followed by EPMA to assess major element compositions of MI glass, carrier melt, and host olivine crystals. MI compositions were corrected for post-entrapment crystallization (PEC) using Petrolog3 software (Danyushevsky & Plechov, 2011, full details in Supporting Information). The total  $\text{CO}_2$  of MIs is calculated by mass balance using the  $\text{CO}_2$  measured in the bubble and MI glass (e.g., Hartley et al., 2014). To complement the MI compositional dataset, we have additionally assessed the major and trace element whole-rock compositions of basalts collected from several Boku scoria cones and fissure flows using XRF and solution ICP-MS respectively. All standards and geochemical data are presented in Supporting Dataset S1.

## 3 Results

### 3.1 Magma Intrusion Depths in the Main Ethiopian Rift

Our key barometric and geochemical results are presented in Figures 2 and 3, with additional figures presented in the Supporting Information. MIs are entrapped within olivine crystals of composition  $\text{Fo}_{76-88}$ , and there are no systematic differences in major, trace, or volatile element concentrations between MIs collected from the two cones in this study (Dataset S1).  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations range from 35–5770 ppm in MI glass only; MIs with  $\text{CO}_2$  measurements in both the glass and vapor bubble have total combined  $\text{CO}_2$  contents of 1895–3248 ppm, with 15–46% of the  $\text{CO}_2$  residing within the bubble (Dataset S1). Where an unanalyzed shrinkage bubble is present,  $\text{CO}_2$  contents are assumed to be minima and we estimate the plausible range of total  $\text{CO}_2$  using our bub-



**Figure 2.** A. Volatile  $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}$  saturation pressures of olivine-hosted MIs from the MER, plotted against MI olivine host Fo (olivine  $\text{Fo} = 100 \cdot \text{Mg}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg})$ ). MIs are categorized on which components are analyzed. Physical dimensions of MI vapor bubbles that are analyzed only for glass composition can be used to estimate maximum  $\text{CO}_2$  if bubble  $\text{CO}_2$  density is well characterized (green diamonds); this is performed assuming a density of  $0.21 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (see Supporting Information). Error bars on pressures calculated from MIs for which bubble and glass are analysed are  $1\sigma$ . B–D. Violin plots of volatile  $\text{CO}_2\text{-H}_2\text{O}$  saturation pressures recorded by mineral-hosted MIs from the EARS and Afar calculated using MagmaSat. Saturation pressures are individually determined for each MI using their recorded major and trace element composition and magmatic temperatures. Where  $\text{FeO}_t$  is provided without  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  all Fe is assumed to be  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ . Subfigure B shows distributions of silicic MIs ( $\text{SiO}_2 > 60 \text{ wt\%}$ ), subfigure C shows basaltic MIs ( $\text{SiO}_2 < 55 \text{ wt\%}$ ), and subfigure D shows the basaltic MIs of this study. The blue line and shaded area across all subfigures marks the mean and  $1\sigma$  of the MI subset of this study with combined vapor bubble and glass  $\text{CO}_2$ . References: 1. Field, Blundy, et al. (2012); 2. Iddon and Edmonds (2020), shown as squares for emphasis; 3. Field, Barnie, et al. (2012); 4. Hudgins et al. (2015); 5. Head et al. (2011); 6. A. Donovan et al. (2017); 7. Rooney et al. (2022), without bubble corrections.

ble CO<sub>2</sub> density measurements (see Supporting Information). H<sub>2</sub>O concentrations display less variability: discounting the three MIs that have clearly degassed (containing  $\leq 0.4$  wt% H<sub>2</sub>O), MIs have a mean H<sub>2</sub>O concentration of  $1.1 \pm 0.2$  wt% (Supporting Figure S6), which is comparable to H<sub>2</sub>O concentrations obtained from other MER and EARS MIs (Iddon & Edmonds, 2020; Rooney et al., 2022).

Volatile saturation pressures of MIs are calculated using the fully thermodynamic MagmaSat volatile solubility model (Ghiorso & Gualda, 2015) via the Python 3 library VESical (Iacovino et al., 2021; Wieser et al., 2022); other volatile solubility models are considered and compared in the Supporting Information. Storage pressures for MIs for which total CO<sub>2</sub> contents are known (vapor bubble and glass), determined at a magmatic temperature of 1200 °C (Iddon et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2022), vary over a relatively narrow range from 2.5–4.5 kbar (Figure 2A). In the MER these pressures correspond to depths of  $\sim 10$ –15 km (assuming a crustal density of  $2.7 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ), among the deepest recorded volatile saturation depths for continental rift magmas (Figure 2B–D). Pressures recorded by MIs without bubbles overlap partially with those that do have analyzed bubbles; however, the average CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and therefore pressure of MIs without a bubble is typically lower than those with a bubble. Two MIs for which only inclusion glass CO<sub>2</sub> is known record higher pressures in excess of 5 kbar ( $\sim 20$  km), corresponding to the MER lower crust. Overall, our barometric results show a relatively limited distribution of magma storage depths with a narrowly focused zone of intrusion centered at  $\sim 12$  km depth, coincident with the seismically imaged boundary between the upper and lower crust in the MER (Maguire et al., 2006), and in close agreement with MI volatile saturation pressures from the Turkana Depression to the south of the MER (Figure 2C; Rooney et al., 2022).

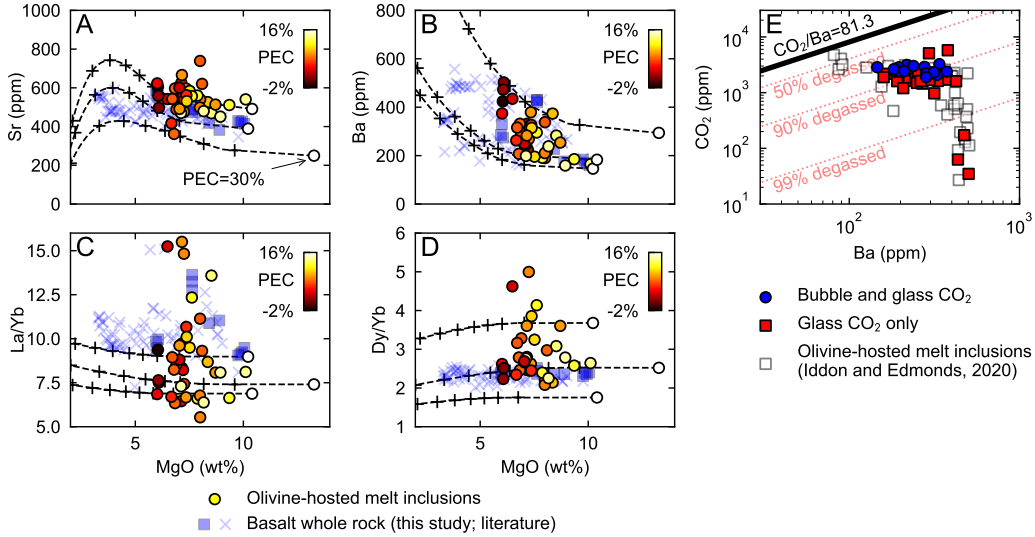
### 3.2 Melt Inclusion Trace Element Compositions

The major element compositions of MIs overlap with carrier basalt (Supporting Figure S8) and whole-rock compositions of erupted lavas (Dataset S1; Tadesse et al., 2019; Nicotra et al., 2021). Incompatible trace element concentrations vary considerably in both MIs and lavas, but nonetheless still overlap (Figures 3A and B). Greater primary compositional variability is preserved in the MIs over the whole rocks, further evidenced by variations in trace element ratios that are not significantly affected by crystal fractionation, e.g., La/Yb and Dy/Yb (Figures 3C and D). While absolute trace element compositions can be achieved by melt fractionation from our most primitive MIs (Figures 3A and B), the scatter in trace element ratios cannot be replicated solely by fractionation of a common parental melt (Figures 3C and D).

By comparing CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with trace elements with similar behavior during mantle melting (e.g., Ba, Rb), CO<sub>2</sub> degassing from mantle melts can be assessed (e.g., Le Voyer et al., 2018). While primary magmatic CO<sub>2</sub> contents are not known for MER magmas, the highest observed CO<sub>2</sub>/Ba and CO<sub>2</sub>/Rb ratios approach those measured in undegassed MORB (Le Voyer et al., 2018). Assuming that initial CO<sub>2</sub>-trace element ratios are similar to those of MORB, CO<sub>2</sub>/Ba and CO<sub>2</sub>/Rb systematics for MER MIs clearly show evidence for degassing of CO<sub>2</sub> even in MIs with total CO<sub>2</sub> determinations (Figure 3E). Most melts therefore appear to have lost substantial volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> prior to MI entrapment (Figure 3E). If MORB ratios are reflective of primary CO<sub>2</sub>/Ba and CO<sub>2</sub>/Rb values in MER melts then initial CO<sub>2</sub> contents will be in the range of 1–4 wt% (mean of  $2.0 \pm 0.6$  wt% with the same CO<sub>2</sub>/Ba as MORB), with  $\sim 60$ –95% of the CO<sub>2</sub> having been exsolved at mid-crustal pressures.

CO<sub>2</sub> degassing in the MER, likely derived from degassing of intruded mid-crustal magmas, is focused along discrete fault zones (Hunt et al., 2017). By making assumptions on the volumes of melt intruded into the crust (e.g., Iddon & Edmonds, 2020), we determine that the difference between expected CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in primary mantle





**Figure 3.** A–D. MI and whole-rock trace element and trace element ratios plotted against MgO (this study; Tadesse et al., 2019; Nicotra et al., 2021). Liquid lines of descent with crosses denoting 10% fractionation intervals are determined from our three highest MgO melts using Rhyolite-MELTS v1.2.0 (Gualda et al., 2012, see Supporting Information), assuming Rayleigh fractionation with the partition coefficients collated by Iddon and Edmonds (2020). PEC corrections are detailed in the Supporting Information. E. Olivine-hosted MI CO<sub>2</sub> plotted against Ba; primary CO<sub>2</sub>/Ba of MORB (Le Voyer et al., 2018).

melts and those observed in our MIs is sufficient to generate the CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes measured from surface degassing (Figure 3E Hunt et al., 2017, see Supporting Information). The restriction of significant degassing to localized regions in the MER (Hunt et al., 2017) may suggest that some regions are subject to active intrusion at the present day whereas other portions are not; future studies should aim to constrain this periodicity of melt emplacement.

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Depths of Intrusion in the East African Rift

Our total CO<sub>2</sub> saturation pressures determined from vapor bubble and glass are in broad agreement with maximum pressures of melt storage estimated from MI volatiles at other EARS sectors (Figure 2B–D). Applying the same volatile solubility modelling performed on our MIs to literature datasets, we determine that our proposed 10–15 km depth range for basalt storage coincides with the deepest MIs at other parts of the EARS and Afar Rift (Figure 2C; e.g., A. Donovan et al., 2017; Rooney et al., 2022). Geophysical observations of crustal melt movement in other sectors of the EARS (Weinstein et al., 2017; Reiss et al., 2021, 2022) suggests that melt focusing at these pressures may be ubiquitous within the EARS.

The lack of evidence for significant melt storage within the upper crust in our dataset contrasts with the depth distributions for magma storage obtained from suites of MIs collected at large caldera-forming volcanic centers found along the MER (Figure 2; Iddon & Edmonds, 2020). Under these silicic centers, melt storage appears to extend upwards into the upper crust, where evolved magmas are generated via low pressure frac-

tionation (Iddon & Edmonds, 2020). Notably, the maximum storage depths under caldera complexes in the EARS identified both from MI volatile saturation barometry (Figure 2; Iddon & Edmonds, 2020; Rooney et al., 2022) and from mineral barometry (Rooney et al., 2005; Iddon et al., 2019) coincides with the 10–15 km depth range observed in our dataset. This depth range may therefore be the locus of initial basaltic melt emplacement along the MER, with important implications for heat distribution within the rifting crust and therefore crustal strength profiles (Buck, 2006; Daniels et al., 2014; Lavecchia et al., 2016), such as the creation of a mid-crustal weak layer (Muluneh et al., 2020). With the exception of those below caldera complexes/silicic volcanoes (e.g., Biggs et al., 2011), upper crustal melt bodies (<10 km depth) in the MER are likely to be ephemeral, perhaps forming during periodic intrusive-eruptive episodes (e.g., Ebinger et al., 2013).

In contrast to the extensive MI data corresponding to mid-crustal pressures, very few MIs from our dataset and the MER dataset of Iddon and Edmonds (2020) record pressures corresponding to the lower crust or Moho (Figure 2; e.g., Maguire et al., 2006; Lavayssière et al., 2018). Considering the evolved compositions of our olivines (mean  $\text{Fo}_{80}$ ) relative to  $\text{Fo}_{90}$  olivines in other MER volcanic materials (e.g., Rooney et al., 2005), we posit that an initial stage of fractionation near the Moho prior to ascent to mid-crustal pressures is necessary. This hypothesis is supported by low wavespeeds observed at Moho depths from the presence of melt in the heavily intruded lower crust (Keranen et al., 2009; Chambers et al., 2019, 2021), and numerical models suggesting that the lowermost crust is weak, hot and underlies a lower-crustal brittle-ductile transition at 20–25 km (Lavecchia et al., 2016; Muluneh et al., 2020). The absence of strong radial seismic anisotropy in the lower crust may also imply that melt storage at these depths may comprise both sills and isotropic bodies (Chambers et al., 2021). Melts pooling and fractionating at the base of the crust may bypass the ductile lowermost crust entirely if both density differences between melt and crust and lower crustal strain rates are sufficiently high (Muluneh et al., 2021).

## 4.2 Compositional Heterogeneity in Melt Inclusions

Variability in absolute trace element concentrations (Figures 3A and B) could result from fractional crystallization of distinct parental melts and/or mixing between variably fractionated melts with distinct origins. In contrast, the broader distribution of trace element ratios observed in MIs relative to whole rocks (Figures 3C and D) can only be inherited from the compositional heterogeneity of parental mantle-derived melts. Such variability may be derived from the melting of multiple source lithologies (e.g., Shorttle & MacLennan, 2011) and/or unmixed fractional mantle melts (e.g., Gurenko & Chausidon, 1995).

Physical interactions between intrusive bodies therefore appear to be limited, and we infer that intruded magmas reside in a series of discrete sills emplaced at a common depth. The slightly lower degree of compositional diversity observed in erupted lavas (Figures 3C and D), even at higher  $\text{MgO}$ , suggests that some mixing does occur prior to eruption and that dyke intrusion into the upper crust may involve partially homogenized melts sourced from multiple mid-crustal sills. Erupted melts extend to lower  $\text{MgO}$  than the MIs (after PEC corrections), and pre-eruptive mixing and homogenization may therefore occur during a final stage of differentiation within upper crustal magma bodies.

## 4.3 Basaltic Melt Focusing in the Main Ethiopian Rift

The presence of melts intruded as mid-crustal sill complexes is strongly supported by geophysical observations of the present-day MER crust. Strong horizontally oriented seismic anisotropy observed in the MER at depths of 10–15 km is consistent with the presence of sills (Chambers et al., 2021). Low seismic moment earthquakes in northern MER magmatic segments are distributed within a narrow depth band between 8–16 km



and have been interpreted as being triggered by movement or emplacement of mid-crustal melts (Keir et al., 2006; Daly et al., 2008). High  $V_p$ , high- $V_p/V_s$  and high-density bodies are inferred to be present at these depths under Boku and other MER segments (Keranen et al., 2004; Cornwell et al., 2006; Daly et al., 2008), as are high-conductivity crustal anomalies (Whaler & Hautot, 2006), all indicative of partially molten intrusions in the mid-crust. Our results are also in good agreement with empirical observations relating MER cone clustering to melt intrusion depths (Mazzarini et al., 2013). In other words, the melt storage depths resolved directly using petrological methods are in very close agreement with the deepest intrusion pressures determined using geophysical techniques.

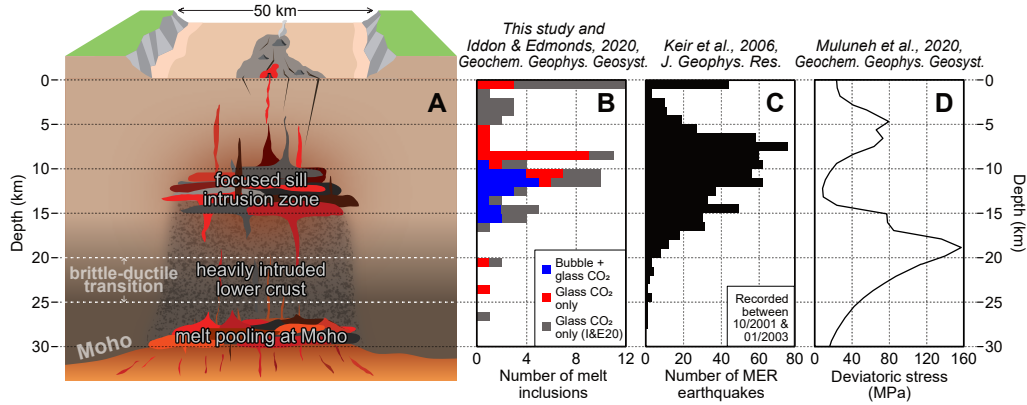
Focusing of ascending basaltic melts at this depth range can, to a first order, be attributed to MER crustal density structure as the mean density of the lower crust exceeds that of our MIs (mean of  $2.71 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , calculated after PEC corrections using DensityX, Iacovino and Till (2019); cf. e.g., Cornwell et al. (2006)). Driven by density differences, basaltic melts will rise to mid-crustal depths before they achieve neutral buoyancy, stall and crystallize. The upper crust, comparatively less dense than the lower crust, will limit the ascent of basalt melts beyond the focusing zone (Cornwell et al., 2006; Mickus et al., 2007).

Melt focusing in the mid-crust could also be attributed to the rheological structure of the crust. Numerical models based on seismic observations suggest that the 10–15 km depth range resolved using our MIs coincides with the weakest part of the Ethiopian crust, which is sandwiched between two strong brittle layers in the upper and mid-lower crust (Muluneh et al., 2020). The strong, lower-density brittle crust above this ductile zone, combined with the density limitations discussed above, likely inhibits further ascent of the buoyant melt (Cornwell et al., 2006; Muluneh et al., 2020). Melt may only progress directly to the surface through the breaking of dyke-induced faults (e.g., Casey et al., 2006), by exploiting pre-existing crustal weaknesses (e.g., Le Corvec et al., 2013), or after extensive fractionation to form lower-density silicic melts (e.g., Gleeson et al., 2017).

We therefore hypothesise that the intrusion and emplacement of melts into this weak, ductile mid-crust will have a strong effect on the overall rheology of the rifting crust, which in turn may govern how the crust locally accommodates strain in response to far-field extensional stresses. Ductile stretching may accommodate crustal deformation at a different rate or manner relative to the brittle layers above and below this weak zone, in turn possibly dictating that future batches of melt are focused in the same region. Indeed, the development of crustal sill systems in the MER may arise from pulsed emplacement of magmas from the lower crust or mantle (e.g., Annen et al., 2015). Stacked sills formed in this manner may maintain high localized temperatures in the crust, which can facilitate further intrusion of melt at shallower pressures, or may themselves contract during cooling to generate accommodation space for further intrusions (Magee et al., 2016). Future numerical or analog models of rift deformation in Ethiopia must account for the development of a hot, ductile, weak layer in the crust, and the influences such a layer may have on overall crustal rheology.

## 5 Summary

The results of our study are summarized in Figure 4. Through the careful analysis of major, trace, and volatile elements in olivine-hosted MIs, we propose that stacked mid-crustal sills in the depth range of 10–15 km are the dominant form of magmatic storage in the MER (Figures 4A and B). These sills are known to be horizontally oriented from seismic anisotropy (Chambers et al., 2019), and develop as a consequence of repeated magmatic intrusion into the mid-crust during the progression of late-stage continental rifting. Initially crystallizing at or near the Moho, mantle-derived magmas bypass the ductile lowermost crust to arrive at the Ethiopian mid-crust, heralded by seismic activity during emplacement (Figure 4C). These melts are stored as discrete sills in the weak,



**Figure 4.** A. Summary cartoon illustrating our proposed structure of the MER crust. Horizontal and vertical dimensions not to same scale. B. Histogram of MER olivine-hosted MI saturation pressures (this study; Iddon & Edmonds, 2020). C. Histogram of MER earthquakes recorded between October 2001 and January 2003 (Keir et al., 2006; Daly et al., 2008, selection criteria in Supporting Figure S9). D. Numerical model of MER crustal deviatoric stress (Muluneh et al., 2020).

ductile mid-crust and blocked from further ascent by a strong, lower density upper crust (Figure 4D). The diverse range of trace element ratios observed in MIs gives evidence to limited melt mixing in the crust; partial mixing of magmas between sills may occur in the shallow crust prior to eruption (Figure 3). Petrological evidence for mid-crustal sills in the MER presented in this study is in agreement with geophysical observations (e.g., Keranen et al., 2004), and the volatile composition of basalts comprising these bodies are consistent with CO<sub>2</sub> degassing rates measured at the rift floor (Hunt et al., 2017). The presence of hot sills in the MER mid-crust has important implications for how intruding melts in late-stage rifts affect and are affected by the rheological structure of the crust, and should be considered a key element in future development of models of continental rifting.

## 6 Open Research

The complete dataset of geochemical analyses and melt inclusion microscope photographs is available within a Zenodo repository ([doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7236254](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7236254)).

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- Investigation: KW, DF, PW, JH, SH
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