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# Structural Inheritance Controls Strain Distribution During Early Continental Rifting, Rukwa Rift

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## ABSTRACT

Little is known about rift kinematics and strain distribution during the earliest phase of extension due to the deep burial of the pre-rift and earliest rift structures beneath younger, rift-related deposits. Yet, this exact phase of basin development ultimately sets the stage for the location of continental plate divergence and breakup. Here, we investigate the structure and strain distribution in the multiphase Late Paleozoic-Cenozoic magma-poor Rukwa Rift, East Africa during the earliest phase of extension. We utilize aeromagnetic data that image the Precambrian Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ) and bounding terranes, and interpretations of 2-D seismic reflection data to show that, during the earliest rift phase (Permo-Triassic ‘Karoo’): (1) the rift was defined by the Lupa Fault, which exploited colinear basement terrane boundaries, and a prominent intra-basinal fault cluster ( $329^\circ \pm 9.6$ ) that trends parallel to and whose location was controlled by the CSZ ( $326^\circ$ ); (2) extensional strain in the NW section of the rift was accommodated by both the intra-basinal fault cluster and the border fault, where the intra-basinal faulting account for up to 64% of extension; in the SE where the CSZ is absent, strain is primarily focused on the Lupa Fault. The early-rift strain in the Rukwa Rift is thus, not accommodated only by border the fault as suggested by

38 existing magma-poor early-rift models; instead, strain focuses relatively quickly on a large border  
39 fault and intra-basinal fault clusters that follow pre-existing intra-basement structures; (3) two  
40 styles of early-phase strain localization are evident, in which strain is localized onto a narrow  
41 discrete zone of basement weakness in the form of a large rift fault (Style-1 localization), and onto  
42 a broader discrete zone of basement weakness in the form of a fault cluster (Style-2 localization).  
43 We argue that the CSZ and adjacent terrane boundaries represent zones of basement mechanical  
44 weakness that controlled the first-order strain distribution and rift development during the earliest  
45 phase of extension. The established early-rift structure, modulated by structural inheritance, then  
46 persisted through the subsequent phases of rifting. The results of our study, in a juvenile, and  
47 relatively well-exposed and data-rich rift, are applicable to understanding the structural evolution  
48 of deeper, buried ancient rifts.

49

50

51 *Keywords: Continental Rifting, Tectonic Strain, Normal Faults, Rukwa Rift, Shear Zones, East*  
52 *African Rift System*

## 53 INTRODUCTION

54 Tectonic extension of the continental lithosphere is typically accommodated by the brittle  
55 deformation of the upper crust, demonstrated by the emergence of normal fault populations (Cowie  
56 et al., 2005; Agostini et al., 2011; Muirhead et al., 2016, 2019). Some classic models for the  
57 evolution of continental rifts, suggest that during the early phase of extension, strain is initially  
58 accommodated by the development of distributed normal faults, with strain subsequently  
59 localizing onto a few large faults and subsequently migrating to the rift axis (e.g., Gawthorpe and  
60 Leeder, 2000; Cowie et al., 2005; Nixon et al., 2016; Naliboff et al., 2017). However, a comparison  
61 of juvenile, magma-rich and magma-poor segments of narrow rifting along the East African Rift  
62 System (EARS) show that in contrast to the magma-rich rift basins where strain is accommodated  
63 by both the large basin-bounding faults (border faults) and intra-basinal structures, the border  
64 faults accommodate most (~90 %) of the strain in the magma-poor rift segment (Muirhead et al.,  
65 2019). Elsewhere along the EARS, the incipient (<3 Ma) magma-poor Zomba Graben, southern  
66 Malawi Rift, has already witnessed the localization of strain in the rift axis, with the related faults  
67 presently accounting for up to 55 % ( $\pm 24$ ) of the extensional strain (Wedmore et al., 2020). The  
68 evidence presented in these studies indicate that early-phase extensional strain along magma-poor  
69 continental rifts may or may not be primarily accommodated by only the border faults. Thus, there  
70 is a need to better understand other mechanisms that can facilitate early focusing of intra-basinal  
71 faulting and extensional strain in magma-poor continental rifts.

72 Since continental rifts typically develop in previously deformed lithosphere (Wilson, 1966; Dewey  
73 and Spall, 1975; Buiter and Torsvik, 2014), the distribution of early-phase strain in magma-poor  
74 rifts can be complex due to the interaction between faults that exploit or reactivate pre-existing  
75 structures, and those that form independently of any pre-existing structure (e.g., Manatschal et al.,

76 2015; Kolawole et al., 2018; Ragon et al., 2019; Schiffer et al., 2019; Phillips et al., 2019a,b;  
77 Heilman et al., 2019; Osagiede et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021). Overall, very little is known about  
78 the earliest phase of continental extension, and even less of how strain is partitioned along inherited  
79 structures; this reflects the fact that the associated structures and related stratigraphic record are  
80 typically deeply buried beneath younger (i.e., post-rift or later rift phase) sequences and are thus  
81 difficult to image with geophysical data, or are overprinted by later tectonic events (e.g., post-rift  
82 plate collision). This knowledge gap limits a fuller understanding of the spectrum of processes that  
83 govern continental rifting and breakup in space and time.

84 The EARS (Fig. 1A) is the largest active continental rift system on Earth. This system, which  
85 formed by the stretching of previously deformed lithosphere, is characterized by segments that  
86 span the major stages of continental rifting from inception to transitional crust (e.g., Daly, 1989;  
87 Hayward & Ebinger, 1996; Delvaux, 2001; Ebinger, 2005; Chorowicz, 2005). We integrate  
88 available geophysical and geological datasets from the multiphase magma-poor Rukwa Rift (Figs.  
89 1A-B, 2A-D) to explore how strain was distributed during the earliest phase of extension, and  
90 investigate the dominant controls. We show that the potentially lithosphere-scale Precambrian  
91 Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ) and its adjacent terrane boundaries (Fig. 1B; Lemna et al., 2019; Heilman  
92 et al., 2019) represent major zones of pre-rift basement mechanical weakness that controlled the  
93 location, structure, and evolution of both the border and intra-basinal faults during the earliest  
94 phase of continental extension. We show how the geometry of the CSZ controlled along-rift  
95 variations in the early-phase tectonic extension and overall basin geometry, the effects of which  
96 persist through and thus influence the later rift geometry. We also expand our analysis to the nearby  
97 Luama Rift (located in DRC), which is coeval, colinear with, and parallel to the Rukwa Rift; both  
98 basins representing structural elements along a NW-trending Karoo-age rift branch herein referred

99 to as “the Rukwa Trend” (Fig. 1A). Our results resolve a long-standing controversy related to the  
100 geometrical structure and kinematics of rifting in this part of the East African Rift System.

101

## 102 **GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

### 103 *The Precambrian (Pre-Rift) Basement of the Rukwa Trend*

104 The crystalline basement of the Rukwa Trend is composed of the metamorphic and igneous rocks  
105 of the Precambrian (1.95 -1.85 Ga) Ubendian Belt, which formed during the collision of the  
106 Archean Tanzania Craton and the Bangweulu Block, and which comprises the Ufipa, Katuma,  
107 Wakole, Lupa, Mbozi, Ubende, and Upangwa terranes (Figs. 1A-B; Daly, 1988; Lenoir et al.,  
108 1994). This orogenic belt, which is defined by several NW-trending terranes (2.1-2.025 Ga) that  
109 are bounded by steeply dipping, ductile, amphibolite facies, strike-slip shear zones (Fig. 1B; Daly,  
110 1988; Lenoir et al., 1994; Theunissen et al., 1996; Kolawole et al., 2018). The terranes are  
111 composed of amphibolite to granulite facies gneisses with foliations that dominantly trend NW-  
112 SE and commonly steepen near the terrane boundaries (Lenoir et al., 1994). Although relative rare  
113 compared to gneisses, other metasediments along the belt consists of mica schists, marbles, meta-  
114 anorthosites, and ferruginous quartzites (Lenoir et al., 1994).

115 The geochronology, geochemistry, and metamorphic structure of the Ubendian Belt suggests that  
116 it formed in response to multiple episodes of wrench tectonic events (Theunissen et al., 1996) with  
117 phases of subduction extending from the Paleoproterozoic to the Neoproterozoic (Ganbat et al.,  
118 2021). The orogenic belt first developed during a phase of collisional orogeny along the SW  
119 margin of the Tanzanian Craton (ca 2.1 - 2.0 Ga), after which the belt experienced two episodes

120 of wrench tectonics consisting of an initial phase of dextral strike-slip shear at ca. 1.8 – 2.0 Ga,  
121 followed by a ductile-brittle sinistral strike-slip reactivation in the Neoproterozoic (Lenoir et al.,  
122 1994). This Neoproterozoic shear reactivation recorded the development of thick mylonite and  
123 blastomylonite zones with low-grade metamorphic assemblages along shear zones that bound the  
124 terranes. The terranes and associated fabrics which are observable in basement exposures along  
125 the flanks of the Phanerozoic Rukwa Rift, are suggested to have exerted some control on the  
126 development of the basin (Wheeler and Karson, 1994; Theunissen et al., 1996; Klerkx et al., 1998;  
127 Boven et al., 1999; Lemna et al., 2018; Heilman et al., 2019).

128

### 129 *The Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ)*

130 Along the Ubendian Belt, the Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ) is a prominent shear zone which separates  
131 the Ufipa Terrane to the southwest, from the Wakole and Ubende Terranes to the northeast (Fig.  
132 1B). The structure was initially identified as the “Ikulu series” or “Ikulu Terrane”, a broad (6 - 12  
133 km-wide in Chisi area) shear belt composed of amphibolite, micaschist, and meta-calcareous rocks  
134 with high pressure blueschist or eclogitic associations (Lenoir et al., 1994; Boven et al., 1999).  
135 The mafic high-pressure sequences along the shear zone were interpreted to represent disrupted  
136 remnants of deeply subducted ophiolites (Smirnov et al., 1973; Lenoir et al., 1994; Klerkx et al.,  
137 1997; Sklyarov et al., 1998).

138 Along the ‘Ikulu’ structure, amphibolites and amphibole gneisses exhibit metamorphic foliation  
139 with planes that dominantly strike WNW-ESE and dip steeply to the NNE and S-SSW  
140 (stereographic plot with red filled circles in Fig. 2A; Theunissen et al., 1996; Boven et al., 1999).  
141 The rocks also exhibit mineral elongation lineation and some fold axes of asymmetric intrafolial

142 folds that generally trend NW-SE and plunge shallowly-to-moderately to the ESE-SE  
143 (stereographic plot with open diamonds in Fig. 2A). Mylonitic rocks along the SW margin of the  
144 granulitic Ubende Terrane exhibit P-T characteristics and shear fabrics suggesting an uplift and  
145 exhumation of the terrane relative to the felsic Ufipa Terrane on the SW flank of the ‘Ikulu’  
146 structure (Theunissen et al., 1996; Sklyarov et al., 1998; Boven et al., 1999). More detailed  
147 petrographic and geochemical investigation of the eclogites reveal striking similarities with  
148 oceanic island-arc volcanic rocks (Boniface & Schenk, 2012). Geochronologic analyses indicate a  
149 clustering of Paleoproterozoic eclogites to the northern segment of the structure (near Lake  
150 Tanganyika) and Neoproterozoic eclogites to the south (e.g., Chisi area and northern Malawi) (Fig.  
151 1B), suggesting multiple cycles of subduction-related orogenic events along the structure  
152 (Boniface & Schenk, 2012; Boniface et al., 2012; Ganbat et al., 2021). Thus, the ‘Ikulu’ domain  
153 was proposed to be the primary Late Proterozoic (Pan African Orogeny) suture zone between the  
154 Tanzania and Bangweulu Cratons along the Ubendian Belt (Boniface & Schenk, 2012).

155 Further, the magnetic-high anomaly expression of the ‘Ikulu’ domain, created by the dominance  
156 of mafic rocks along the belt, defines a prominent regional magnetic lineament that extends  
157 southeast beneath the Rukwa Rift sedimentary cover, sub-parallel to the northwest trend of the rift  
158 (Figs. 1B; Lemna et al., 2019; Heilman et al., 2019). Since the Chisi area of Tanzania represents a  
159 type-locality for the detailed studies of the structural fabrics, geochemistry, and petrology of the  
160 structure (Theunissen et al., 1996; Boven et al., 1999; Boniface & Schenk, 2012), the structure was  
161 recently officially re-introduced as “Chisi Shear Zone” (Lemna et al., 2019) or “Chisi Suture Zone”  
162 (Heilman et al., 2019). However, in this current study, we adopt the name “Chisi Shear Zone” to  
163 refer to the structure.

164



165 ***Phanerozoic Rifting along the Rukwa Trend***

166 The present-day configuration of the Rukwa Trend consists of multiple colinear, NNW-trending  
167 rift basins (Rukwa, Karonga, and Luama basins) that initially developed during Permo-Triassic  
168 (Karoo) phase of rifting (e.g., Delvaux, 2001). All three basins were reactivated by extensional  
169 tectonics in the Cretaceous (Roberts et al., 2010, 2012). However, only the Rukwa Rift and  
170 Karonga Basin (Fig. 1A) experienced significant reactivation in the Cenozoic, and they are still  
171 currently active (e.g., Morley et al., 1999; Delvaux, 2001; Chorowicz, 2005). The Rukwa Rift, the  
172 primary focus of this study, currently defines a graben and is bounded to the northeast by the Lupa  
173 Fault and to the southwest by the Ufipa Fault (Fig. 2B; Heilman et al., 2019; Morley et al., 1999).  
174 The basin initially developed as a NE-dipping half graben (with a shallow graben geometry only  
175 in the NW) during the Karoo rifting phase, bounded to the northeast by the principal border fault,  
176 the Lupa Fault (Figs. 2C-D). The Karoo intra-basinal faults (KIF) and basement highs  
177 predominantly trend NNW, oblique to the Lupa Fault strike (Fig. 2B). Estimates of the Karoo-age  
178 extension direction vary from NE-SW to E-W (Fig. 2B).

179

180 **DATASET AND METHODOLOGY**

181 Along the Rukwa Trend, we compile structural mapping and structural measurement data from  
182 published 2-D seismic data (e.g., Fig. 2C; Morley et al., 1999) and integrate these with  
183 aeromagnetic data (Figs. S1A-B) and satellite radar digital elevation model (DEM) (Figs. S2A-B).

184

185 *Aeromagnetic Data, Satellite Topographic Data, and their Analyses:*

186 We use aeromagnetic data to map key pre-rift intra-basement structures along the axis of the  
187 Rukwa Rift and along-trend of the rift. We applied derivative filters to the aeromagnetic grid to  
188 enhance structural features (Fig. 3A), and mathematical transforms to estimate the depths to  
189 magnetic sources in the basement (Figs. 3B-D; see supplementary information).

190 The aeromagnetic data (Fig S1A), collected between 1977-1980 with flight height of 200 m and a  
191 flight line spacing of 1 km, was provided by the South African Council for Geoscience. First, we  
192 reduced the data to the magnetic pole (RTP) to correct for latitude-dependent skewness (Baranov,  
193 1957), after which we applied a vertical derivative filter to better resolve magnetic gradients  
194 associated with structural features (Figs. 3A, S1B) (Salem et al., 2007; Kolawole et al., 2017, 2018;  
195 Heilman et al., 2019). In this study, we delineate the boundaries of the Chisi Shear Zone along the  
196 edges of the high magnetic anomaly lineament in the vertical derivative map of the aeromagnetic  
197 grid. In areas where aeromagnetic data is not available, we augmented the basement mapping with  
198 30 m-resolution Satellite Radar Topographic Mission (SRTM) Digital Elevation Model (DEM)  
199 hill shade maps (Figs. S2A-B).

200

#### 201 *Structural Data from Seismic Interpretation:*

202 We establish the initial (i.e., Karoo rift phase) geometry of the Rukwa Rift and related faults using  
203 published seismic reflection profiles, and associated fault trace maps and sediment thickness maps  
204 ('Karoo Isopach') presented by Morley et al. (1992, 1999). We also calculate along-rift variations  
205 in Karoo-age tectonic extension (backstripped to Karoo time surface; Figs. 4A-D) accommodated  
206 by slip on the Lupa Fault and intra-basinal faults, again using data published by Morley et al.  
207 (1992). We integrate these structural data with aeromagnetic data analysis to investigate the

208 influence of the pre-rift basement structure on the early-rift structure and evolution of the Rukwa  
209 Rift (Figs. 4A-C).

210

## 211 **RESULTS**

### 212 *3-D Geometry and Extent of the CSZ*

213 The petrology and geochemistry, local structure, and topographic expression of the CSZ is well-  
214 constrained in the Chisi area, located on the NW flank of the Rukwa Rift (Figs. 1B and 2A;  
215 Theunissen et al., 1996 and Boven et al., 1999; Boniface & Schenk, 2012). Field observations  
216 show that the CSZ is dominated by steep, NE- and SW-dipping, metamorphic fabrics hosted by  
217 eclogite facies rocks (Fig. 2A). At this location, the CSZ is characterized by a prominent NW-  
218 trending, positive magnetic anomaly lineament (Fig. 1B) and a topographic ridge (Figs. 2A and  
219 S2A). Based on its distinct geophysical and geomorphic expression, as well as known field  
220 locations of eclogite rocks, we map the northwestward and southeastward continuations of the  
221 CSZ system beneath the Rukwa Rift and along the northeastern boundary zone of the Luama Rift  
222 respectively (Fig. 1B).

223 Northwest of the Chisi area, the CSZ associated structures are colinear with the subaerial Mahale  
224 Ridge and the submerged Kavala Island Ridge (submerged beneath Lake Tanganyika), and  
225 continues northwest into the Busindi Ridge which itself represents the footwall of the Busindi  
226 border fault of the Luama Rift (Fig. 1B, S2A). Along the Luama Rift, the inferred CSZ extension  
227 represents the boundary between the Kibaran Belt (to the south) and the Ruzizian Belt to the north  
228 (Fig. 1A). Based on the occurrence of a prominent high magnetic lineament extending NNW  
229 across Lake Tanganyika from the northernmost known CSZ-related eclogite exposure, a possible

230 East CSZ splay is delineated to continue northward and link with the N-trending Ubwari Ridge  
231 (buried horst and subaerial peninsula; Figs. 1B, S1A-B). Although the Ubwari Ridge is a fault-  
232 bounded horst block in the Cenozoic Tanganyika Rift, its possible spatial association with the CSZ  
233 inferred based on both the colinearity with the continuation of the magnetic-high anomaly  
234 lineament of the CSZ, and the southeastward rotation of the N-trending metamorphic fabrics of  
235 the subaerial section of the horst (Figs. S1B and S2B).

236 The CSZ extends southeastwards from the Chisi area to continue beneath the Rukwa Rift, where  
237 it is sub-parallel to the rift border faults (Figs. 1B and 2A). Just southeast of the termination of the  
238 CSZ magnetic lineament, the >15 km-wide Mughese Shear Zone (MSZ) which separates the Ufipa  
239 and Mbozi Terranes of the Ubendian Belt (Fig. 1B), extends beneath the Msongano Trough  
240 (bifurcation of the Rukwa Rift) and continues southeast into the Karonga Basin (Figs. 1B, 2B).  
241 Overall, the CSZ-associated aeromagnetic and geomorphic structures extend for >600 km from  
242 the Luama and Tanganyika rifts, southeastwards through the Rukwa Rift (Fig. 1B). Although our  
243 mapping suggests an along-trend and perhaps genetic relationship between the CSZ and the  
244 Mughese Shear Zone (Fig. 1B), we clarify that at the time of this contribution, there is no available  
245 data demonstrating that the Mughese Shear Zone is also a subduction-related suture. In the absence  
246 of this information, we define the southeast termination of the CSZ as the termination zone of its  
247 magnetic anomaly lineament beneath the Rukwa Rift (Figs. 1B and 3A).

248 Our 3D grid of the depth-distribution of intra-basement magnetic sources along the Rukwa Rift  
249 (Figs. 3A-C, S3A-B, S4A-B) reveal a steeply-dipping, NW-trending zone of magnetic sources that  
250 extend to 12 km depth; this feature is spatially collocated with the surface trend of the CSZ  
251 aeromagnetic lineament (Fig. 3B). Northeast of these CSZ-related magnetic sources, a narrow sub-  
252 vertical block of very shallow (<6 km deep) magnetic sources is spatially collocated with the Lupa

253 Fault. This zone of Lupa Fault-related shallow sources separates the CSZ-related sources from  
254 another sub-vertical cluster of moderately deeper (~9 km-deep) magnetic sources that are spatially  
255 collocated with the Katuma Terrane (Figs. 3B-D).

256

### 257 *The CSZ and the Early-rift (Karoo) Structure*

258 The Karoo-age basin of the Rukwa Rift widens southeastwards from c. 16 km to c. 57 km at the  
259 terminus of the CSZ magnetic lineament, before narrowing to <16 km towards the southeast (Fig.  
260 2B). The Karoo intra-basinal faults (KIF,  $329^{\circ}\pm 9.6$ ; Fig. 2Bi) are dominated by a fault cluster,  
261 spaced 4-6 km apart and striking oblique to the Lupa Fault ( $311^{\circ}$ ). The fault cluster is collocated  
262 with the CSZ magnetic lineament and trends parallel to the lineament (Fig. 4A-B). Although, some  
263 of the KIF faults dip to the SW, most of them dip to the NE (Fig. 2B). A Karoo isopach map shows  
264 that the thickest sections (>1 km-thick) of the Karoo-age units are generally confined to the  
265 northeast of the CSZ anomaly (yellow polygon in Fig. 2B; also see Figs. 2C-D). Adjacent to the  
266 Katuma Terrane and CSZ lineament (i.e., northwestern half of the rift), the Lupa Fault has a  
267 relatively high dip (~ $69^{\circ}$ ); this decreases south-eastwards to < $40^{\circ}$  (Fig. 4C). Also, within the rift,  
268 prominent basement ridges cluster along the CSZ, some of which appear to be fault-bounded (Fig.  
269 2B). We note the strong alignment between the CSZ mean trend ( $326^{\circ}$ ), KIF mean trend  
270 ( $329^{\circ}\pm 9.6$ ), and that of all (Permian to Quaternary) rift faults (ARF,  $330^{\circ}$ ; Fig. 2Bii).

271

### 272 *Strain Distribution within the Rukwa Rift during Karoo Extension*

273 In the northwestern half of the Rukwa Rift, the proportion of Karoo-phase tectonic extension  
274 accommodated by the KIF increased southeastwards from ~12 % to 64 % (Figs. 4C-D). This trend  
275 is coincident with an increase in across-strike separation between the Lupa border fault and the  
276 CSZ, from <10 km in the NW to ~30 km at the SE terminus of CSZ magnetic lineament (Fig. 4C;  
277 see also Fig. 4A). However, southeastward from the CSZ terminus to the southeast tip of the basin,  
278 total extension was largely accommodated by the Lupa Fault (up to 83 %; Fig. 4C). Also, NW of  
279 the CSZ terminus, the curve for intra-basinal fault absolute extension tracks that of the total  
280 absolute extension, whereas SE of the CSZ terminus, total absolute extension curve is not tracked  
281 by that of the intra-basinal fault, rather, it is tracked by the Lupa Fault absolute extension (Fig.  
282 4C). The southeastward increase in the percentage of total extension accommodated by the Lupa  
283 Fault is consistent with the southeastward increase in the magnitude of Lupa Fault's offset of the  
284 Top-Basement which shows a more pronounced increase just southeast of the CSZ terminus (see  
285 'Lupa Fault offset of Top-Basement' curve in Fig. 4C). Northwest of the CSZ terminus, Lupa  
286 Fault's offset of the Top-Basement shows a range of 2 - 6.4 km over a distance of 120 km, whereas  
287 SE of the CSZ terminus, the basement offset increases from ~5.5 km to >9 km within ~20 km  
288 distance.

289

## 290 **CONTROLS OF THE CSZ AND TERRANE BOUNDARY ON EARLY-RIFT** 291 **FAULTING, STRAIN DISTRIBUTION, AND BASIN ARCHITECTURE**

### 292 *Border Fault Development:*

293 The geometrical and spatial relationships between the Karoo rift-related structures, the CSZ, and  
294 the adjacent basement terrane boundaries reveal how strain was localized and spatially partitioned

295 during the early phases of extension in the Rukwa Rift. The Lupa Fault is the largest rift-related  
296 structure in the Rukwa Rift, having formed at the very onset of rifting, thus representing the border  
297 fault (e.g., Morley et al., 1992, 1999; Kilembe and Rosendahl, 1992; Wheeler and Karson 1994).  
298 Studies suggest that the Lupa Fault localized along terrane boundaries (Katuma-Wakole boundary  
299 in the NW and Lupa-Mbozi boundary in the SE) and that its NW-SE trend is influenced by the  
300 structural fabrics in the bounding Katuma Terrane (Figs. 1B, 3B-D; Daly, 1988; Wheeler and  
301 Karson, 1994; Theunissen et al., 1996; Lemna et al., 2019; Heilman et al., 2019). However, the  
302 observations supporting these hypotheses were based on the shallow geometries of structures  
303 observed in the field or the plan-view structural trends of metamorphic fabrics expressed in  
304 aeromagnetic data.

305 The sub-vertical dips described by the cluster of magnetic sources beneath the Katuma Terrane  
306 (Figs. 3B) supports previous studies that argue that the Katuma-Wakole terrane boundary, and  
307 fabrics within the Katuma Terrane, are steeply dipping. However, the Lupa Fault itself shows an  
308 abrupt and significant decrease in dip just southeast of the Katuma Terrane termination (Fig. 4C),  
309 where it is coincident with the E-W-trending Usagaran Belt and Lupa Terrane (Fig. 5A). Therefore,  
310 we suggest that both the Katuma-Wakole Terrane boundary and the tectonic structures in the  
311 Katuma Terrane are responsible for the steep dip of the Lupa border fault in the NW; in contrast,  
312 to the SE, the absence of favorably oriented intra-basement structures result in the fault having a  
313 lower dip.

314 The sub-vertical dip of the CSZ-related magnetic sources and southwest dip direction of the Lupa  
315 Fault (Fig. 3C) also suggests that the deepest sections of the border fault could merge with the  
316 shear zone at the deeper crustal levels, although it would require a southwestward dip for the CSZ  
317 at depth. If this spatial and potentially kinematic relationship is true, we infer a depth-dependent

318 partitioning of the control of structural inheritance on the early development of the Lupa border  
319 fault, such that the upper sections of the fault exploited the Katuma-Wakole Terrane boundary and  
320 structures in the Katuma Terrane, and the deepest section exploited the Chisi Shear Zone.

321

### 322 *Intra-Basinal Faulting:*

323 The collocation and parallel trends of the KIF and CSZ suggest that the CSZ largely controlled the  
324 localization of the Karoo intra-basinal faulting (Fig. 4A and 5A). The prominence of NE-dip  
325 direction of the KIF faults (Fig. 4A) suggests that the KIF exploited the NE-dipping metamorphic  
326 fabrics along the CSZ (Fig. 2A). The confinement of the main Karoo-age rift fill between the Lupa  
327 Fault and CSZ (where present) (Fig. 5A) indicates that the KIF cluster directly influenced the first-  
328 order sediment distribution during the early phases of extension. The Karoo-age basin is widest in  
329 the northwest where the CSZ is present (CSZ rotates from NW to NNW trend, away from the Lupa  
330 Fault), further indicating the influence of the CSZ and its geometry on the extent of the early rift-  
331 related depocenter (Fig. 4A). The apparent confinement of earliest rift-related sediments also  
332 provides further age constraints on the timing of formation of the intra-basinal fault cluster.  
333 Overall, these observations indicate that the shear zone and terrane boundary represent discrete  
334 zones of inherited mechanical weakness in the crust where brittle deformation was accommodated  
335 during the early stages of continental extension.

336

### 337 *Early-Rift Paleotopography:*



338 The Karoo-age rift topography is likely dominated by the footwall uplift along the Lupa border  
339 fault in the northeastern basin margin (Van der Beek et al., 1998; Morley et al., 1999). However,  
340 the clustering of basement ridges along the submarine part of the CSZ, likely representative of  
341 early syn-rift erosionally-resistant topography, is consistent with observations of topographic  
342 ridges along the CSZ onshore (Figs. 1B and S2A). Elsewhere, prominent, erosionally-resistant  
343 topographic ridges define the surface expression of the Mughese Shear Zone (Kolawole et al.,  
344 2018), which appears to be a southeast continuation of the CSZ trend in the Karonga Basin (Fig.  
345 1B). Such ridges represent elevated topographic domains that may represent important sediment  
346 sources (e.g., Gawthorpe and Leeder, 2000). Thus, the chain of ridges along the CSZ represents  
347 intra-basinal sediment-source regions near the southwestern basin margin, indicating an additional  
348 importance of the CSZ during initial sedimentation in the Rukwa Rift.

349

#### 350 *Early-Rift Distribution of Extension:*

351 Our analyses show that within the northwestern section of the basin, Karoo-age tectonic extension  
352 was largely accommodated on both the CSZ-related intra-basinal faults (KIF) and the Lupa border  
353 fault (Figs. 4C-D); in fact, during this initial phase of extension, more strain was accommodated  
354 on intra-basinal faults than the (developing) border fault. In contrast, southeast of the CSZ  
355 termination beneath the basin (or at significantly large separation distance), extension was  
356 primarily accommodated along the Lupa border fault. These suggest that during the early phase of  
357 rifting, there was a competition for extensional strain localization between the CSZ and the  
358 Katuma-Wakole terrane boundary in the northwest. Due to the southward increase in separation  
359 between the CSZ and Katuma-Wakole/Lupa-Mbozi terrane boundaries, and the absence of CSZ

360 in the southeastern section of the Karoo-age basin, tectonic extension was then primarily  
361 accommodated along the Lupa Fault, which ultimately exploited the Lupa-Mbozi terrane boundary  
362 (Fig. 4C-D). The significant increase in the Lupa Fault Top-basement offset just south of the CSZ  
363 termination (Fig. 4C) also supports the dominant localization of extensional strain on the border  
364 fault in the southeastern section of the basin where the CSZ-related KIF is absent. Thus, we suggest  
365 that the CSZ strongly controlled the early-phase distribution of tectonic extension along the Rukwa  
366 Rift.

367 This along-rift partitioning of strain resulted in a lateral change of the overall Karoo-age rift  
368 geometry from a shallower graben in the northwest, to a deep half graben in the southeast. This  
369 along-rift change in rift geometry was previously thought to be primarily related to variation in  
370 border fault strain accommodation controlled by oblique extensional kinematics (Morley et al.,  
371 1992). Also, the obliquity of the intra-basinal faults relative to the border fault trend (Figs. 4B and  
372 5B) has been used as a basis for inferring pull-apart and oblique extension kinematics for the rift  
373 development (Kilembe and Rosendahl, 1992; Chattopadhyay & Chakra, 2013). However, detailed  
374 structural interpretation from seismic reflection data revealed a minor component of strike-slip-  
375 related deformation along the rift (Morley et al., 1999). Thus, we here suggest that the observed  
376 obliquity of intra-basinal faults to border fault trend is primarily controlled by the focusing of  
377 extensional strain along prominent pre-existing discrete zones of basement weakness during the  
378 early phase of rifting. The geometrical alignment of the intra-basinal faults to the CSZ trend could  
379 have been influenced by local stress rotation ( $SH_{max}$ ) into CSZ-parallel/sub-parallel trend during  
380 the early rift phase; a mechanism that has been proposed to explain the influence of weak basement  
381 fabrics on the present-day orthogonal extension kinematics along the Rukwa Rift (Morley, 2010).  
382 This resolves a long-standing controversy related to the geometrical structure and kinematics of

383 rift faulting in the Rukwa Rift. Elsewhere along the Rukwa Trend, farther northwest of the Rukwa  
384 Rift, the Busindi border fault of the Luama Rift exploited the NW continuation of the CSZ (Figs.  
385 1B and 3D), demonstrating the broader influence of the CSZ on the development of the other  
386 Karoo rift segments of the Rukwa Trend. In the Tanganyika Rift, the along-rift distribution of  
387 tectonic extension is influenced by the lateral variation of the inherited crustal rheology (Wright  
388 et al., 2020), further demonstrating the strong influence of structural inheritance on the early  
389 localization and distribution of extension along continental rifts.

390

391 *Post-Karoo Rift Architecture:*

392 Geological and geophysical evidence for post-Karoo strike-slip deformation has been recorded  
393 along the Rukwa Rift (Wheeler and Karson, 1994; Delvaux et al., 2012; Heilman et al., 2019),  
394 possibly associated with a plate-scale compressional event (Daly et al., 1991; Delvaux et al., 2021).  
395 However, the analyses of seismic reflection profiles across the Rukwa Rift show that post-Karoo  
396 strike-slip or compressional deformation in the basin was very minor (Morley et al., 1999).  
397 Therefore, it is not likely that the plate-scale compressional event significantly altered the karoo-  
398 age fault patterns in the Rukwa Rift.

399 The CSZ and adjacent terrane boundaries continued and still continue to influence rift geometry  
400 long after the Karoo phase of extension. First, the mean trend of the rift faults, all combined  
401 (Permian to Quaternary), generally remains the same as the Karoo-age mean intra-basinal fault  
402 trend (Figs. 2Bi-ii; Morley et al., 1992; Kilembe and Rosendahl, 1992). Second, the along-strike  
403 projection of the CSZ southeast of its magnetic anomaly termination is coincident with location  
404 and orientation of the Msongano Trough, which represents a southeastward continuation of the

405 Rukwa Rift during the Cenozoic rifting phase (Fig. 5A). We suggest that the extension of the KIF  
406 to the CSZ termination zone already established the incipient graben of the Msongano Trough  
407 during the Karoo rifting phase (Figs. 5A and 6). We suggest that the CSZ and its colinear Mughese  
408 Shear Zone, along which the Msongano Trough developed (Fig. 5A), both constitute coupled  
409 discrete zones of weakness in the basement that accommodated the continuous lateral  
410 southeastward propagation of the KIF as a narrow graben during the post-Karoo phases of  
411 extension. Thus, the present-day bifurcation of the Rukwa Rift into the Songwe and Msongano  
412 troughs (Fig. 1C) was established during the very earliest stage of rifting. In addition, the  
413 southeastern border fault of the Rukwa Rift (Ufipa Fault; Fig. 2B) which developed in the  
414 Cenozoic, largely exploited the tectonic fabrics of the Ufipa Terrane (Heilman et al., 2019).

415 More broadly, in the Cenozoic Tanganyika Rift, located northwest of the Rukwa Rift (Figs. 1A-  
416 B), the rift basin is segmented (Sander and Rosendahl, 1989; Muirhead et al., 2019; Wright et al.,  
417 2020). The segmentation occurs at the proposed splay of the CSZ magnetic lineaments (Fig. 1B).  
418 The Ruzizi and East Kigoma sub-basins are separated by the northern section of the East CSZ  
419 splay, whereas the East and West Kigoma sub-basins are separated by the southern section of the  
420 East Splay, and the West Kigoma and Kalemie Sub-basins are separated by the CSZ segment  
421 extending into the Luama Rift. In essence, not only did the CSZ influence the early-phase  
422 architecture of the Karoo-age Rukwa and Luama rift basins, but also the structure of the relatively  
423 younger Tanganyika Rift. The spatial collocation of Cenozoic hydrothermal vents within different  
424 sections of the CSZ in the Tanganyika Rift (diamond symbols in Fig. 1B) highlights the deep  
425 reaches of the rift faults that exploited the basement weakness of the shear zone.

426

427 **IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY-STAGE ARCHITECTURE OF CONTINENTAL RIFT**  
428 **BASINS**

429 Our study of the Rukwa Rift suggests that early-phase rift strain is significantly accommodated by  
430 intra-basinal faults, contrary to observations in some other juvenile magma-poor continental rifts  
431 (e.g., Nixon et al., 2016; Muirhead et al., 2019), but it is localized onto pre-existing structures. The  
432 early-phase strain localization in the Rukwa Rift occurred via two different styles with associated  
433 deformational mechanisms. One style (Style-1 strain localization) is the localization of a large rift  
434 fault onto a narrow discrete zone of basement weakness, such as prominent basement terrane  
435 boundaries (this study), pre-existing fault zones, and narrow ductile shear zones, in which case the  
436 structures of the weak zone and the fabrics of the adjacent basement may influence the fault  
437 geometry (Fig. 6). An example of this is the development of the Livingstone Fault in the Karonga  
438 Basin, northern Malawi Rift (Wheeler and Karson, 1989), the Thyolo border fault in the Shire Rift  
439 Zone (Wedmore et al., 2020b), and splay faulting at a terrane boundary during the Late Cretaceous  
440 extension between Zealandia and Australia (Phillips and McCaffrey, 2019b). A second style  
441 (Style-2 strain localization) is the localization of a fault cluster (or fault belt) onto a broader discrete  
442 zone of basement weakness, such as wide pre-rift shear zones or subduction suture zones (this  
443 study), in which case the individual fault strands may exploit the smaller-scale mechanical  
444 heterogeneities within the broad zone of basement weakness (Fig. 6). An example of Style-2  
445 localization is the development of a fault cluster along the western margin of the Karonga Basin,  
446 northern Malawi Rift, where the fault cluster exploited the >15 km-wide Precambrian Mughese  
447 Shear Zone (Kolawole et al., 2018). Therefore, we hypothesize that during the earliest stages of  
448 continental rifting, strain initially localizes on pre-existing zones of crustal weakness, and the style  
449 of localization may be associated with the type of the inheritance and character of the inherited

450 structure. In addition, we note that whilst pre-existing structure may exert a strong control on strain  
451 distribution and localization during the earliest phase of continental extension, the established early  
452 rift template, may persist through the subsequent phases of the stretching stage of rifting (i.e., prior  
453 to the necking and hyper-extension stages).

454

## 455 **CONCLUSIONS**

456 We investigated the distribution of strain during the earliest phase of extension in the Rukwa Rift,  
457 a Phanerozoic multiphase magma-poor rift basin that developed along the trend of the Precambrian  
458 Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ) and terrane boundary shear zones in East Africa.

459 Here are our main findings:

460 1) During the earliest phase of extension, although the border fault, Lupa Fault exploited the  
461 colinear Katuma-Wakole and Lupa-Mbozi terrane boundaries, the CSZ facilitated the early  
462 localization and development of a prominent intra-basinal fault cluster.

463 2) In the northwestern section of the rift, the presence and proximity of the CSZ and the Katuma-  
464 Wakole terrane boundary facilitated a competition for strain localization between the CSZ and the  
465 adjacent terrane boundary, whereas in the southeastern section where the CSZ is either absent or  
466 at a significantly large distance, strain is primarily localized along the Lupa-Mbozi terrane  
467 boundary.

468 3) The along-rift variation in early phase rift geometry, rift margin paleotopography, and  
469 depocenter extents were largely controlled by the CSZ.

470 4) The along-rift distribution of early-phase extension was largely influenced by structural  
471 inheritance, such that in the northwestern section of the rift, significant extension is accommodated

472 by the intra-basinal fault cluster that exploited the CSZ, whereas in the southeast, extension is  
473 largely accommodated by the Lupa border fault.

474 5) Two styles of early-phase strain localization in which a.) strain is localized onto a narrow  
475 discrete zone of basement weakness in the form of a large rift fault (Style-1 strain localization),  
476 and b.) strain is localized onto a broad discrete zone of basement weakness in the form of a fault  
477 cluster (Style-2 strain localization).

478 6) Whilst pre-existing basement structure may exert the strong control on strain distribution and  
479 localization during the earliest phase of extension, the established early rift template, may persist  
480 through the subsequent phases of the stretching stage of rifting.

481 Our findings offer a window into the early stages of continental extension along a young evolving  
482 magma-poor rift, where early strain is not accommodated only by border the fault as suggested by  
483 existing magma-poor early-rift models; instead, strain focuses relatively quickly on a large border  
484 fault and intra-basinal fault clusters that follow pre-existing intra-basement structures. This study  
485 reveals the influence of structural inheritance on early-phase rift geometry and along-rift  
486 partitioning of strain along magma-poor rift basins.

487

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494 <http://sadc-gla.org/SADC/home.html>. We have provided uninterpreted versions of the

495 aeromagnetic data in our supplementary document. The seismic reflection cross-section of the  
496 Rukwa Rift shown in this study (Fig. 2C) and other 2-D seismic datasets from the basin are  
497 archived in the appendix of Morley et al. (1999).

498

499 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

500 Author Folarin Kolawole is currently employed by BP America. However, this study and the  
501 initial manuscript drafts were developed and completed during his stay at the University of  
502 Oklahoma, prior to joining BP. The remaining authors declare that the research was conducted in  
503 the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential  
504 conflict of interest.

505



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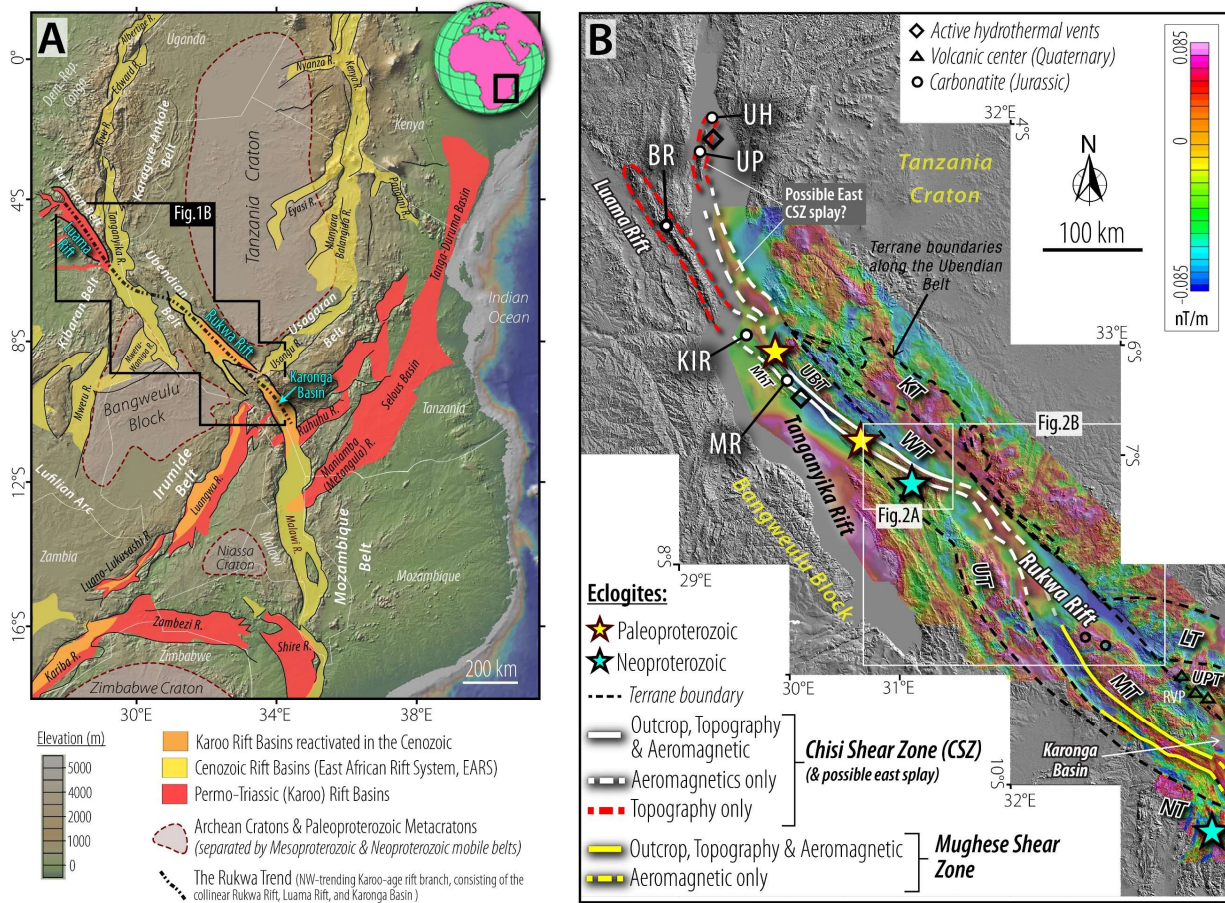
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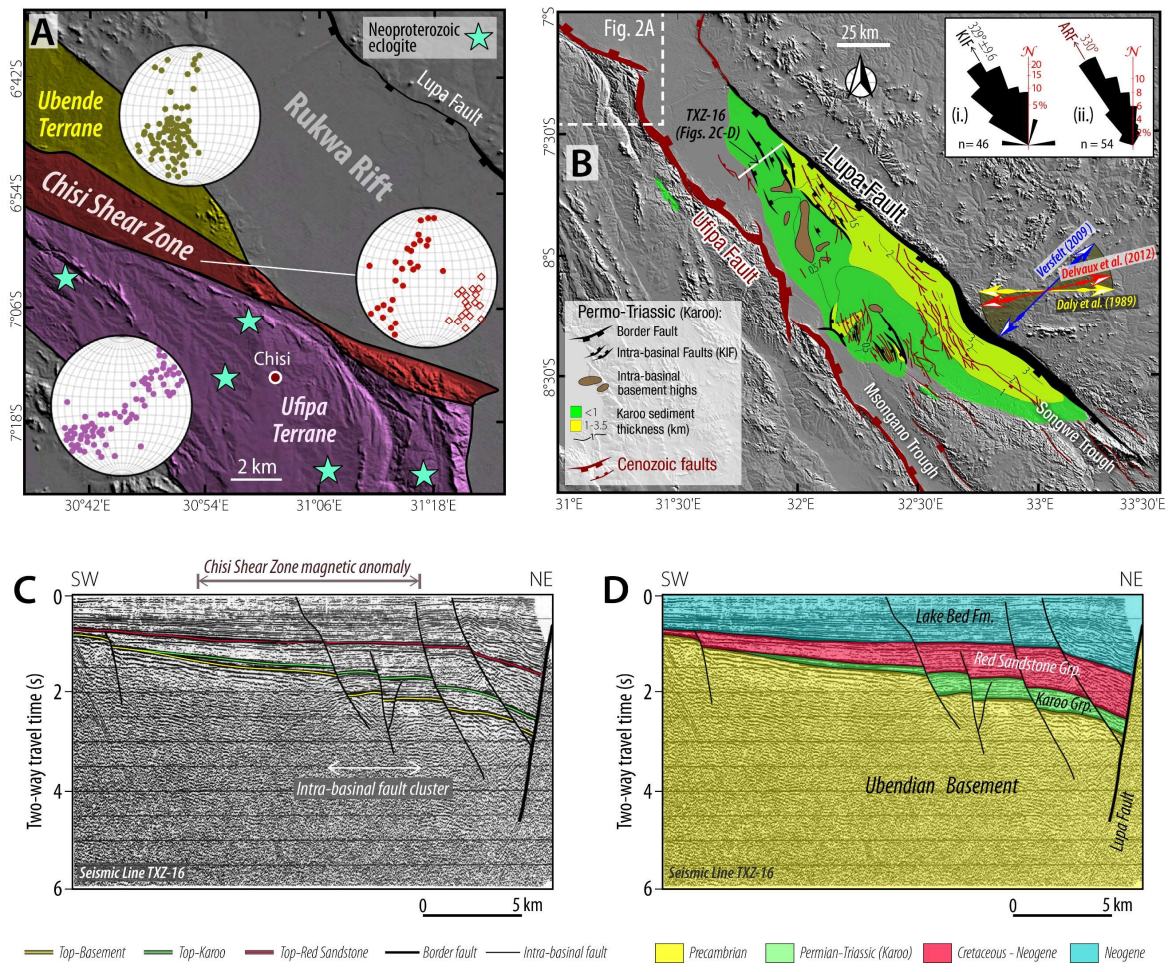
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673 **Figure 1. A:** Map of east Africa showing the Permo-Triassic (i.e., Karoo rift system) rift segments,  
 674 and the currently active rift segments (i.e., East African Rift System). **B:** Shuttle Radar  
 675 Topography Mission (SRTM) Digital Elevation Model (DEM) hillshade covering the Rukwa Rift  
 676 Trend, overlaid with the vertical derivative aeromagnetic of SW Tanzania. Black dashed lines  
 677 represent boundaries of the Precambrian terranes of the Rukwa Rift Trend (after Daly, 1988;  
 678 Lenoir et al., 1994; Delvaux et al., 2012; Lemna et al., 2018; Heilman et al., 2019). Locations of  
 679 Proterozoic eclogites in the Ubendian Belt are from Boniface et al. (2012) and Boniface and  
 680 Schenk (2012). Locations of hydrothermal vents and Mesozoic-Cenozoic igneous centers  
 681 (volcanics and carbonatites) are obtained from Hodgson et al. (2017). See uninterpreted  
 682 aeromagnetic and hillshade maps in supplementary figures 1 and 2. Geomorphic features: BR  
 683 (Busindi Ridge), KIR (Kavala Island Ridge), MR (Mahale Ridge), UP (Ubwari Peninsula), UH  
 684 (Ubwari Horst). Terranes of the Ubendian Belt: KT (Katuma Terrane), LT (Lupa Terrane), MT  
 685 (Mbozi Terrane), MhT (Mahale Terrane), RVP (Rungwe Volcanic Province), UBT (Ubende  
 686 Terrane), UPT (Upangwa Terrane), UT (Ufipa Terrane), WT (Wakole Terrane).

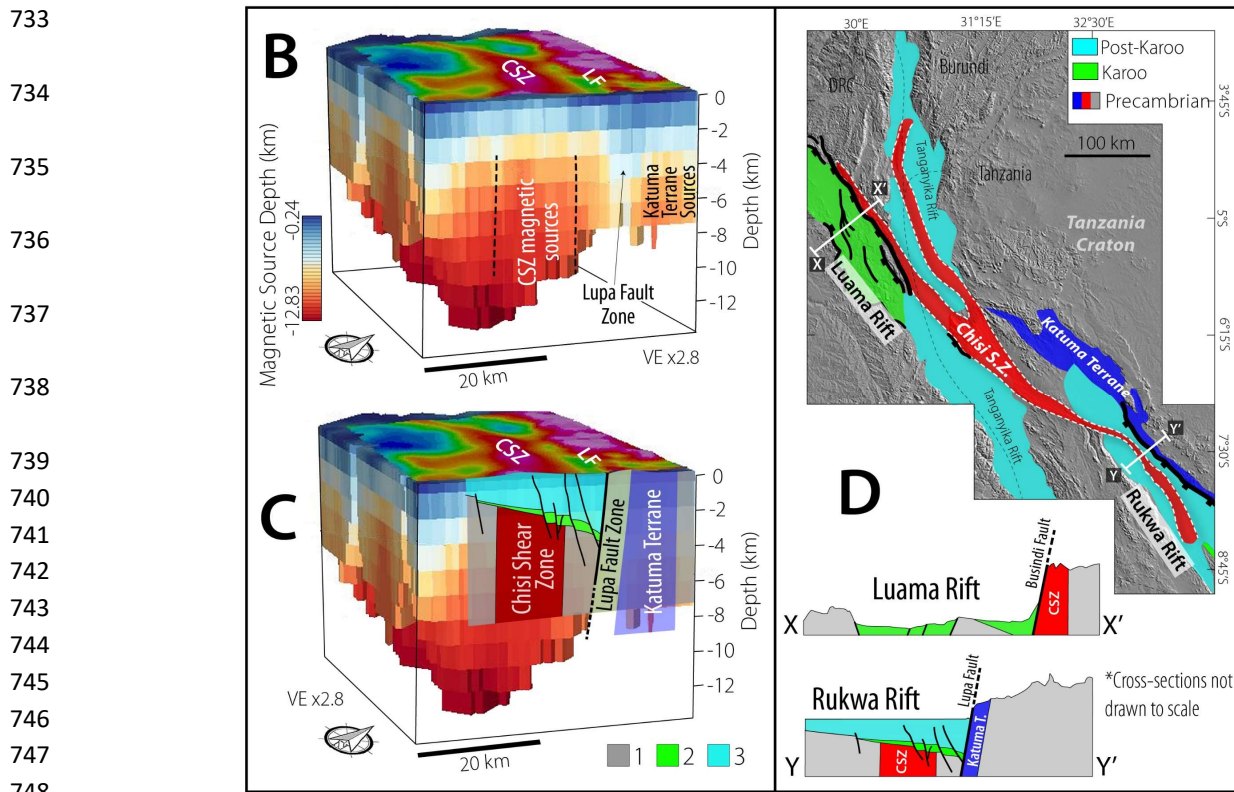
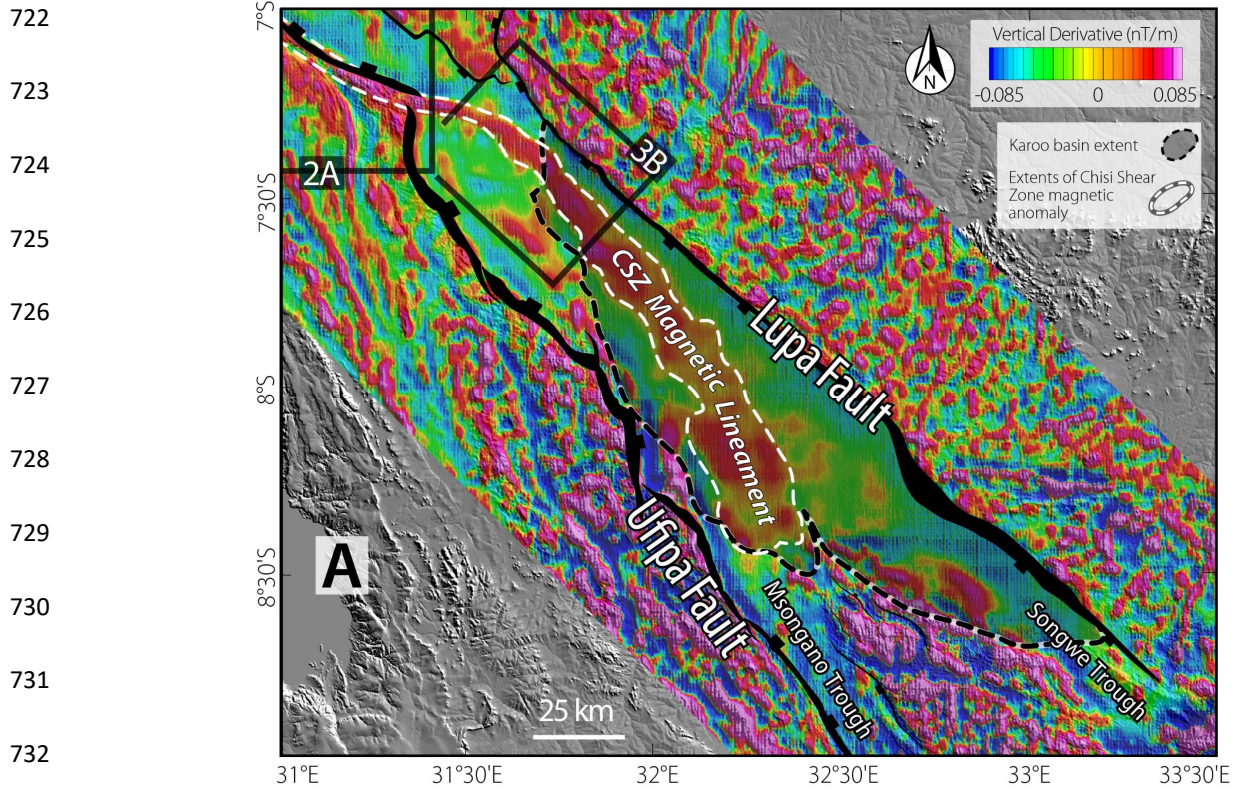
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**Figure 2.** **A:** Satellite digital elevation model (DEM) hillshade of the NW Rukwa Rift shoulder (see Figs. 1B and 2B for location) showing the Precambrian Chisi Shear Zone exposure and its bounding basement terranes. The plots of equal area stereographic projection (lower hemisphere) show the poles to planes of gneissic foliation (filled circles), and poles of mineral elongation lineation and some fold axes of asymmetric intrafolial folds (diamonds in the Chisi Shear Zone stereonet) measured in field outcrops (from Boven et al., 1999). These structures represent the metamorphic basement fabrics of the basement. Locations of Neoproterozoic eclogites in the Chisi area are from Boniface and Schenk (2012). **B:** Map of the Rukwa Rift showing the interpreted Karoo and post-Karoo structural elements (structural elements are from Morley et al., 1992, 1999). Arrows represent the previously published inferred Karoo extension directions. *Inset:* Frequency-azimuth distribution plot for (i.) Karoo-age (Permo-Triassic) intra-basinal faults (KIF) with black arrow indicating their mean trend and standard error (measured in this study), and (ii.) All (Permian to Quaternary) Rukwa Rift faults (ARF) with their mean trend shown as brown arrow (digitized from Morley et al., 1992). **C - D:** 2-D seismic reflection profile line TXZ-16 and interpretation (modified from Morley et al., 1999; see location in Fig. 2B) showing the major stratigraphic boundary horizons, the Lupa border fault, and intra-basinal faults.

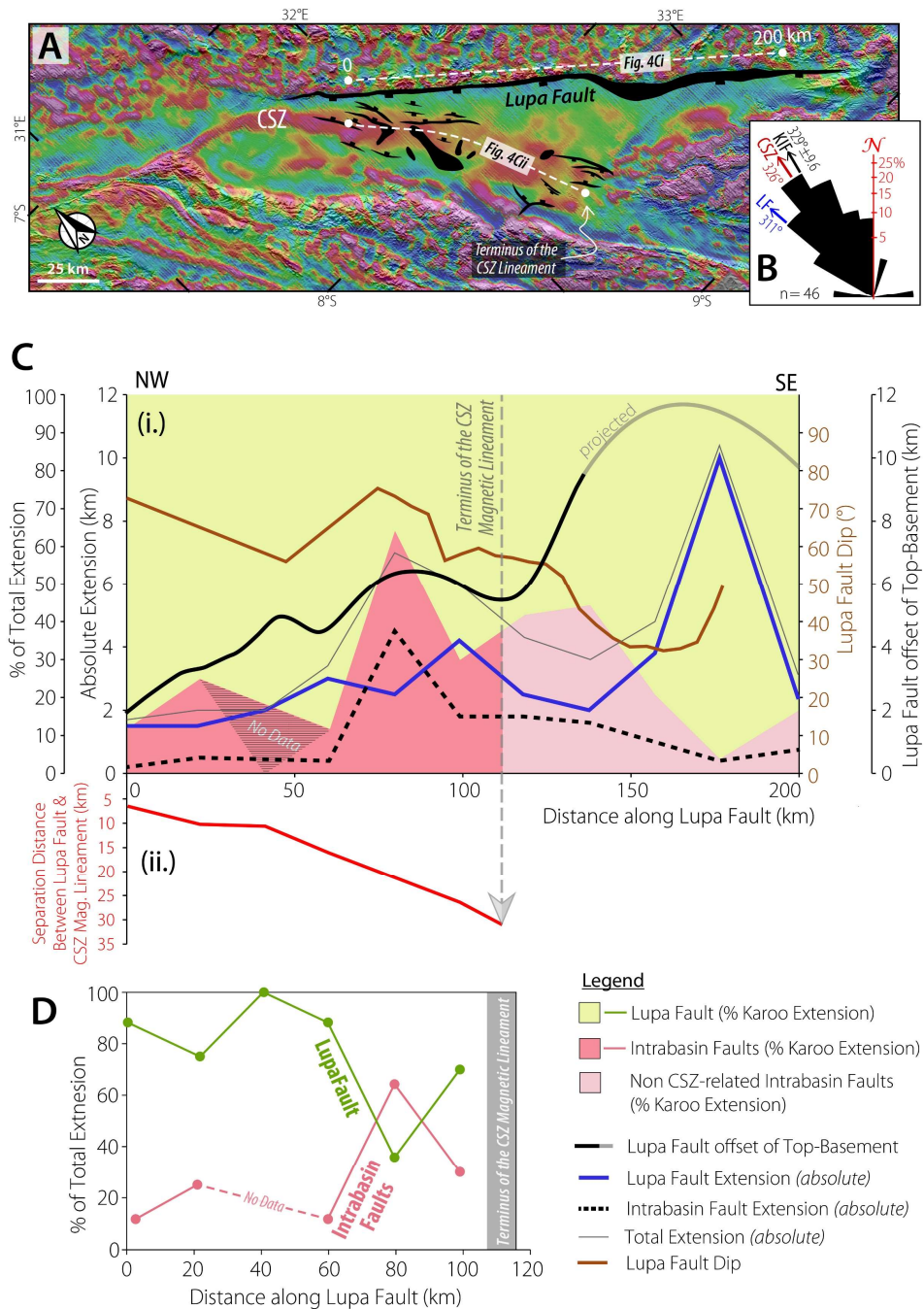




751 **Figure 3. A:** Vertical derivative of the aeromagnetic grid overlaid on satellite Digital Elevation  
752 Model (DEM) hillshade, showing the rift border faults, rift shoulder basement fabrics and the  
753 aeromagnetic signature of the Chisi Shear Zone (CSZ) along the rift axis. See uninterpreted  
754 aeromagnetic maps in supplementary figure 1. **B:** 3-D gridded block of the Source Parameter  
755 Imaging (SPI) solutions from the transform of the aeromagnetic grid, showing the subsurface  
756 extents and geometry of CSZ and the shallower Katuma Terrane magnetic sources. **C:** 3-D gridded  
757 block overlaid with interpretations of the rift faults and simplified stratigraphy (interpretations  
758 from 2-D seismic line TXZ-16 of Morley et al., 1999 shown in Fig. 2C). Stratigraphic units shown:  
759 1 = Precambrian basement), 2 = Permo-Triassic (Karoo Grp.) sequences, 3 = Post-Karoo  
760 sequences i.e., Red Bed Grp. and Lake Bed Fm.). **D:** Regional satellite DEM hillshade showing  
761 the >600 km extent of the CSZ and its relationships with the Rukwa and Luama segments of the  
762 Rukwa Trend. Cross-sections are based on satellite DEM (Luama Rift), and satellite DEM,  
763 aeromagnetics, and 2-D seismic data interpretation (Rukwa Rift).

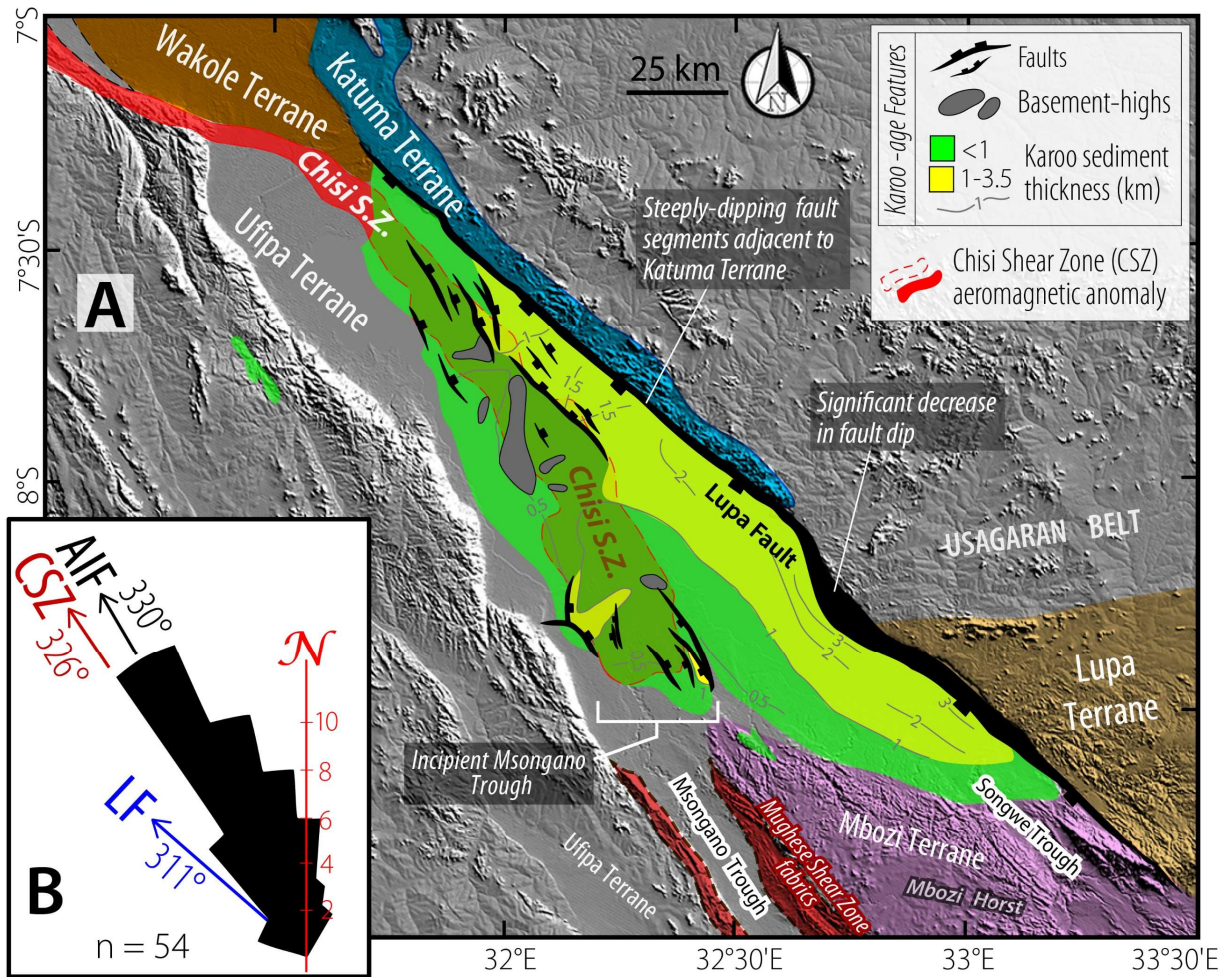
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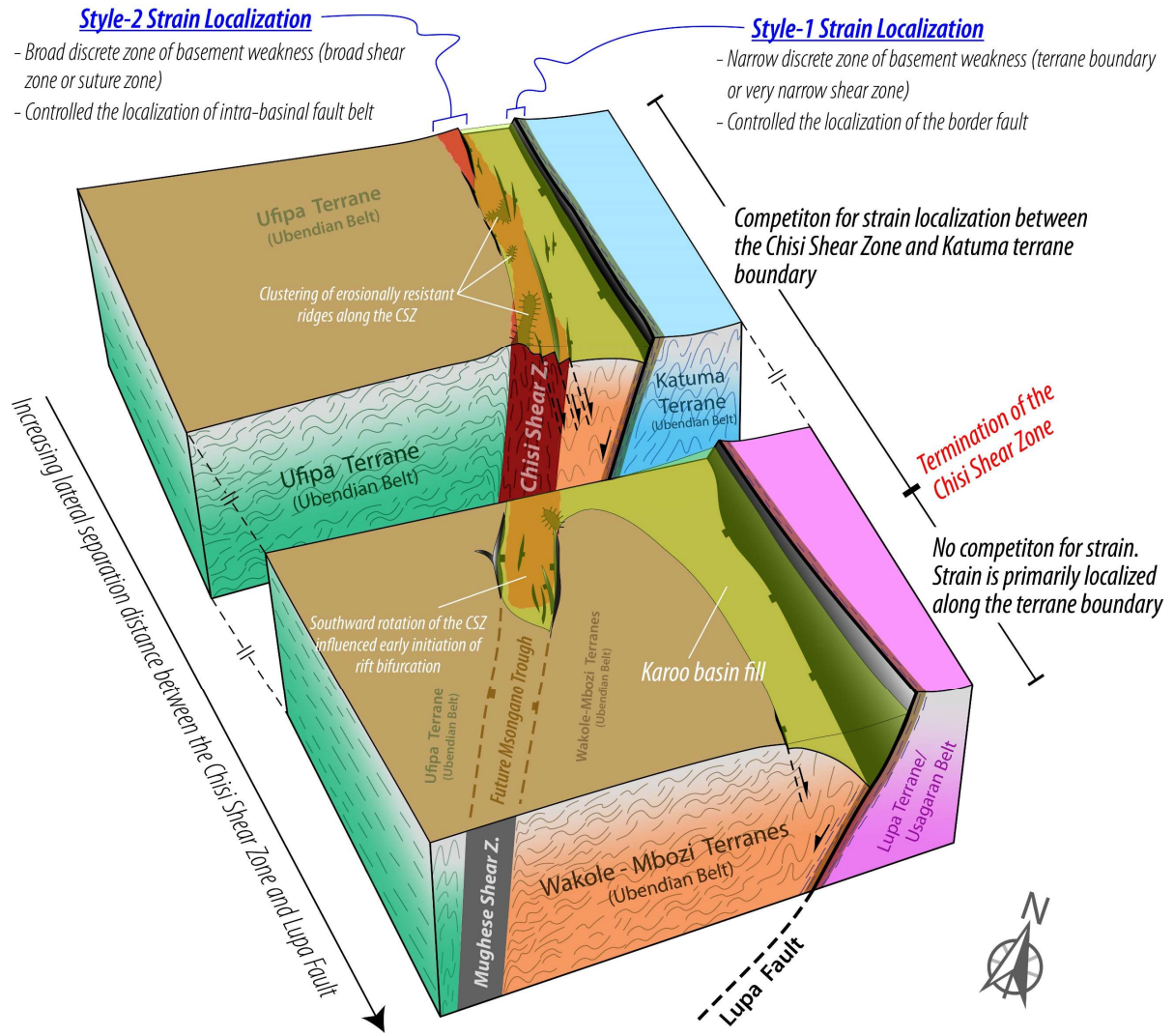
816 **Figure 4. A:** Map of vertical derivative of the aeromagnetic grid overlaid on satellite DEM  
 817 hillshade, showing the section of the Rukwa Rift (white dashed lines) along which, the  
 818 measurements plotted in Figures 4C-D were taken. **B:** Frequency-azimuth distribution of the  
 819 Karoo-age intra-basinal faults (KIF; measured in this study). CSZ = Chisi Shear Zone, LF = Lupa  
 820 Fault. Arrows represent the mean trend of the associated structure. **C:** Plot showing along-rift  
 821 distribution of (i.) line-length measurement of the Top-Karoo surface as estimates of Karoo-age  
 822 tectonic extension (for the Lupa and intra-basinal faults), Lupa Fault dip angle, and Top-Basement  
 823 offset along the Lupa Fault, and (ii.) lateral separation distance between the CSZ and the Lupa  
 824 Fault. **D:** Plot showing the along-rift variation of % total Karoo-age extension accommodated by

825 the Lupa Fault and the intra-basinal faults up till the CSZ termination (displayed as stacked area  
 826 plot in Fig. 4C).  
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 832 **Figure 5. A:** Satellite DEM hillshade of the Rukwa Rift, overlaid with the Karoo structural features  
 833 (faults and basement ridges), Karoo isopach map (from Morley et al., 1992, 1999), Chisi Shear  
 834 Zone magnetic anomaly, and the relevant surrounding basement terranes. **B:** Frequency-azimuth  
 835 distribution of all the faults (Permian-Quaternary) in the Rukwa Rift (digitized from Morley et al.,  
 836 1992). ARF = “All Rukwa Rift faults” and black arrow showing their mean trend; LF = “Lupa  
 837 Fault” and blue arrow showing its approximate trend; CSZ = “Chisi Shear Zone” and brown arrow  
 838 showing its approximate trend within the rift axis.  
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844 **Figure 6.** Cartoon illustrating some of the key observations in this study, showing how the  
 845 structure of discrete zones of basement weakness influenced strain localization styles and along-  
 846 rift distribution of extension during the early phase of tectonic extension in the Rukwa Rift.