

Strike-slip Enables Subduction Initiation beneath a Failed Rift: New Seismic Constraints from Puysegur Margin, New Zealand

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Abstract

Subduction initiation often takes advantage of previously weakened lithosphere and may preferentially nucleate along pre-existing plate boundaries. To evaluate how past tectonic regimes and inherited lithospheric structure might lead to self-sustaining subduction, we present an analysis of the Puysegur Trench, a young subduction zone with a rapidly evolving tectonic history. The Puysegur margin, south of New Zealand, has experienced a transformation from rifting to seafloor spreading to strike-slip, and most recently to incipient subduction, all in the last ~45 million years. Here we present deep-penetrating multichannel reflection (MCS) and ocean-bottom seismometer (OBS) tomographic images to document crustal structures along the margin. Our images reveal that the overriding Pacific Plate beneath the Solander Basin contains stretched continental crust with magmatic intrusions, which formed from Eocene-Oligocene rifting between the Campbell and Challenger plateaus. Rifting was more advanced to the south, yet never proceeded to breakup and seafloor spreading in the Solander Basin as previously thought. Subsequent strike-slip deformation translated continental crust northward causing an oblique collisional zone, with trailing ~10 Myr old oceanic lithosphere. Incipient subduction transpired as oceanic lithosphere from the south forcibly underthrust the continent-collision zone. We suggest that subduction initiation at the Puysegur Trench was assisted by inherited buoyancy contrasts and structural weaknesses that were imprinted into the lithosphere during earlier phases of continental rifting and strike-slip along the plate boundary. The Puysegur margin demonstrates that forced nucleation along a strike-slip boundary is a viable subduction initiation scenario and should be considered throughout Earth's history.

1 **Strike-slip Enables Subduction Initiation beneath a Failed Rift: New Seismic Constraints**
2 **from Puysegur Margin, New Zealand**

3
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18 **Key Points:**

- 19 • Deep-penetrating seismic velocity and reflection images provide constraints on regional
20 crustal structure of an incipient subduction zone
- 21 • Earlier phases of continental rifting, seafloor spreading, and strike-slip produced
22 weaknesses that facilitated subduction initiation
- 23 • Subduction nucleated at a restraining bend as ~10 Myr thin and dense oceanic lithosphere
24 underthrust buoyant continental lithosphere

25
26 **Abstract**

27 Subduction initiation often takes advantage of previously weakened lithosphere and may
28 preferentially nucleate along pre-existing plate boundaries. To evaluate how past tectonic regimes
29 and inherited lithospheric structure might lead to self-sustaining subduction, we present an analysis
30 of the Puysegur Trench, a young subduction zone with a rapidly evolving tectonic history. The
31 Puysegur margin, south of New Zealand, has experienced a transformation from rifting to seafloor
32 spreading to strike-slip, and most recently to incipient subduction, all in the last ~45 million years.
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34 (OBS) tomographic images to document crustal structures along the margin. Our images reveal
35 that the overriding Pacific Plate beneath the Solander Basin contains stretched continental crust
36 with magmatic intrusions, which formed from Eocene-Oligocene rifting between the Campbell
37 and Challenger plateaus. Rifting was more advanced to the south, yet never proceeded to breakup
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42 initiation at the Puysegur Trench was assisted by inherited buoyancy contrasts and structural
43 weaknesses that were imprinted into the lithosphere during earlier phases of continental rifting and
44 strike-slip along the plate boundary. The Puysegur margin demonstrates that forced nucleation
45 along a strike-slip boundary is a viable subduction initiation scenario and should be considered
46 throughout Earth's history.

47

48 **Plain Language Summary**

49 Subduction zones, where one plate underthrusts another, are the principal driver of tectonic
50 plate motions on Earth; however, the origin of these convergent margins remains unsolved.
51 Geoscientists have proposed that the process of forming a new subduction zone takes advantage
52 of weaknesses such as buoyancy contrasts and re-using older weak plate boundaries. To test these
53 ideas, we use new seismic images to document tectonic structures at the Puysegur margin, an
54 incipient subduction zone south of New Zealand. Our images reveal that the upper plate of the
55 Puysegur margin consists mostly of stretched continental lithosphere that formed during an
56 Eocene-Oligocene extension phase. Following extension, a translational phase juxtaposed thin and
57 high-density oceanic lithosphere against thick and low-density continental lithosphere in a wide
58 damage zone. Convergence across this zone led to underthrusting of the Australian Plate beneath
59 the Pacific Plate and the development of the newly established Puysegur subduction zone. Our
60 results demonstrate that subduction initiation was aided by lithospheric buoyancy contrasts and
61 weak zones inherited from earlier phases of tectonic activity. Our findings argue that pre-existing
62 plate boundaries, weakening mechanisms, and strike-slip are key components of the subduction
63 initiation process and have likely prevailed throughout Earth's history.

64

65 **1. Introduction**

66 Tracing the evolution of plate boundaries and their response to variations in the state of
67 stress through time is fundamental to understanding global tectonics. The degree to which these
68 lithospheric plates are actively driving thermal convection of the deeper mantle, or vice versa, is
69 still debated (Bercovici et al., 2003; Coltice et al., 2019; Ghosh & Holt, 2012). Plate
70 reconstructions suggest that collisional, extensional, and translational styles of movement along
71 long-lived and relatively weak plate boundaries (Carpenter et al., 2011; Karato & Barbot, 2018;
72 Lachenbruch & Sachs, 1980; Sutherland et al., 2017; Vissers et al., 1991; Zhong & Gurnis, 1996)
73 have facilitated the evolution of continental and oceanic plates in Earth's post-Archean history (Li
74 et al., 2008; Müller et al., 2019). For example, Wilson (1966) recognized that oceanic domains
75 appeared to be closing and then later re-opening along ancient mountain belts. Large strike-slip
76 offsets are also a common element of this global tectonic cycle and potentially key to evolution of
77 plate configurations (Dalziel & Dewey, 2019). Although there is a rich record of the geological
78 processes associated with continental rifting and the onset of seafloor spreading (Osmundsen &
79 Ebbing, 2008; Shillington et al., 2008; White et al., 2008; Rooney et al., 2014; Shuck et al., 2019),
80 there are fewer observational constraints on the initiation of subduction zones (Gurnis et al., 2004;
81 Stern & Gerya, 2018) because the convergent margins are not well preserved in the rock record.

82 Subduction zones, where oceanic lithosphere is recycled into the deep mantle, may be the
83 most critical component of the plate tectonic cycle, as geodynamic models suggest that the slab
84 pull edge force is the main driver of plate movements (Forsyth & Uyeda, 1975; Lithgow-Bertelloni
85 & Richards, 1995; Stadler et al., 2010). Although great progress has been made in describing the
86 structure and stresses at mature subduction zones (e.g., Abers et al 2006; Bangs et al., 2004; Stern,
87 2002), the process of subduction zone initiation (SZI) is not well understood and remains one of
88 the last major unsolved problems in plate tectonics (Gurnis et al., 2004; Stern and Gerya, 2018;
89 Chotalia et al., 2020). There is not a unique tectonic setting in which subduction is thought to
90 begin; however, there is general agreement that it requires the exploitation of lithospheric
91 weaknesses and may preferentially nucleate along pre-existing plate boundaries (McKenzie, 1977;
92 Stern & Gerya, 2018; Toth & Gurnis, 1998). Proposed settings for SZI include nucleation along

93 an old fracture zone (e.g., Izu-Bonin-Mariana Trench), an extinct mid-ocean ridge and/or
94 transform fault (e.g., South Scotia), an extinct volcanic arc complex (e.g., Tonga-Kermadec
95 Trench), polarity reversal behind an active subduction zone (e.g., New Hebrides), or on the flanks
96 of a large igneous province (e.g., Caribbean) (Gurnis et al., 2004; Stern & Gerya, 2018).

97 The wide variety of tectonic settings for SZI has caused substantial debate about the forces
98 and critical geodynamic ingredients necessary to drive this process. Two distinct categories of SZI
99 have been proposed (Chotalia et al., 2020): horizontally forced (c.f., Gurnis et al., 2004) versus
100 vertically forced (c.f., Stern, 2004). Horizontally forced SZI is a response to tectonic stresses and
101 continuing plate convergence, which may be externally forced over large distances. Vertically
102 forced SZI is driven by a local, catastrophic gravitational instability in oceanic lithosphere, causing
103 the plate to fail and collapse downwards. Geodynamic models predict horizontally forced SZI
104 would be accompanied by compression and uplift of the overriding plate (Gurnis et al., 2004),
105 whereas vertically forced SZI would produce only extension in the upper plate. Unfortunately, the
106 geological record generally lacks clear evidence as to whether a mature subduction zone may have
107 formed by gravitational collapse or if far-field stresses were involved, because the evidence of
108 early subduction is often overprinted by intense deformation and arc volcanism. Thus, field
109 observations of an incipient subduction zone are necessary to test model predictions of stress states,
110 vertical tectonics, and the role of weakening mechanisms during the subduction initiation process.

111 In this paper, we detail geophysical observations and analyze an incipient subduction zone
112 suggested to be the best modern example of horizontally forced SZI. We focus on the Puysegur
113 Trench, located south of New Zealand (Figure 1), where the margin has evolved from rifting, to
114 strike-slip, to incipient subduction since the Eocene (e.g., Lebrun et al., 2003). The Puysegur
115 margin is a unique location to investigate processes associated with subduction initiation, since
116 there is a significant amount of plate convergence, the past plate motion is well constrained, and
117 the geologic record is not overprinted (e.g., Gurnis et al., 2004). Here, we present a seismic
118 structural analysis from the first regional seismic survey of the Puysegur margin. We use high-
119 quality seismic images to document structures related to older extension and younger convergent
120 deformation to examine whether subduction may initiate by taking advantage of structural
121 weaknesses that were created during earlier tectonic phases.

122 **2. Tectonic Setting and Evolution of Zealandia**

123 **2.1 Continental crust of New Zealand**

124 The continental crust of New Zealand is comprised of distinct tectonostratigraphic terranes
125 and igneous suites that were either part of Paleozoic Gondwana or sediments and crustal fragments
126 that accreted westward onto the margin of eastern Gondwana (e.g., Bishop et al., 1985; Cox &
127 Sutherland, 2007). These basement terranes have been grouped into the Western and Eastern
128 provinces, separated by the massive subduction-related Median Batholith (Mortimer et al., 1999;
129 Figure 1). The Western Province, which is exposed in Westland and Fiordland, consists of the
130 Buller Terrane and the Takaka Terrane. The Buller Terrane is composed of Late Cambrian to Late
131 Ordovician quartzite, whereas the Takaka Terrane contains a range of highly deformed Paleozoic
132 sedimentary and volcanic rocks; both terranes are intruded by various batholiths (Nathan, 1976;
133 Cooper, 1989). The younger Eastern Province (Permian to Cretaceous) is dominated by lithic and
134 feldspathic metamorphosed graywackes but also includes volcanic, intrusive, and ophiolite
135 domains (Bishop, 1985). Offshore, Cretaceous schists, granites and granodiorites recovered south
136 of New Zealand on island outcrops, from seafloor dredges, and petroleum boreholes share
137 characteristics with exposures on South Island (Mortimer et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2015). Onshore
138

139 terrane boundaries may therefore extend offshore (e.g., Beggs et al., 1990), which suggests the
140 Campbell Plateau basement is similar to Paleozoic rocks of the Western Province.

141 The Cretaceous marked the beginning of major plate reorganizations in the southwest
142 Pacific. The convergent margin of eastern Gondwana transitioned to widespread rifting and
143 volcanism between 110-85 Ma (Bradshaw, 1989; Tulloch et al., 2009). New rift zones in eastern
144 Gondwana filled with volcanic and marine deposits (Laird & Bradshaw, 2004; Riefstahl et al.,
145 2020) at this time. Sustained extension eventually culminated in the successful breakup of this part
146 of Gondwana around ~83 Ma and subsequent seafloor spreading in the Tasman and Southwest
147 Pacific basins, effectively separating the continents of Australia, Antarctica, and Zealandia (Bache
148 et al., 2014; Mortimer et al., 2017).

149

150 **2.2 Cenozoic evolution**

151 Seafloor spreading at Tasman Ridge separated Australia and Zealandia until ~53 Ma
152 (Gaina et al., 1998), when the nucleation of new subduction zones in the southwest Pacific caused
153 a far-field shift in plate motions (Sutherland et al., 2020). The death of the Tasman Ridge,
154 combined with faster spreading between Australia and Antarctica, sparked the development of a
155 new Australian-Pacific plate boundary (AUS-PAC) in the middle Eocene, oriented nearly
156 orthogonal to the Cretaceous Tasman Ridge, which now lies northwest of New Zealand (Wood et
157 al., 1996; Cande & Stock, 2004). At approximately ~45 Ma, intraoceanic rifting formed the
158 Macquarie Spreading Center (MSC), which separated the conjugate rifted margins of the
159 Resolution Ridge System on the Australian Plate and the southwestern Campbell Plateau on the
160 Pacific Plate (Sutherland, 1995). It is thought that orthogonal and symmetric seafloor spreading
161 along the MSC extended to at least ~47.5°S into the Solander Trough, and that farther north marked
162 a transition to distributed normal faulting within continental crust producing the Solander Basin
163 (Sutherland & Melhuish, 2000; Lebrun et al., 2003).

164 Starting around ~30 Ma, the AUS-PAC stage pole of plate motion migrated southeast
165 relative to the Pacific plate, resulting in progressively more oblique seafloor spreading along the
166 MSC (Cande & Stock, 2004; Keller, 2004). Consequently, the MSC transitioned into short, oblique
167 spreading segments separated by long offset fracture zones, which curved through time (Lamarche
168 et al., 1997). Sustained changes in plate motions caused fracture zones to eventually link and form
169 the Macquarie Ridge Complex (MRC) with dominantly dextral strike-slip by ~25 Ma (e.g., Keller,
170 2004). Coeval with the establishment of the MRC, the Alpine Fault to the north formed a major
171 strike-slip boundary west of Fiordland, offsetting the Median Batholith and adjacent terranes of
172 New Zealand (Kamp, 1986; Sutherland et al., 2000; Figure 1). The Alpine Fault and MRC were
173 connected by a transpressive relay zone at Puysegur Bank, located proximally offshore southern
174 Fiordland, evidenced by the migration of faults in a left-stepping manner and thrust faulting
175 causing uplift and erosion of Eocene-Miocene stratigraphy (Lamarche & Lebrun, 2000, Sutherland
176 et al., 2006).

177 The timing and geodynamic conditions of subduction initiation at the Puysegur margin are
178 poorly understood due to a lack of high-quality geophysical data and ocean drilling throughout the
179 region. Collot et al. (1995) suggested that subduction initiated along an oceanic fracture zone
180 around ~10 Ma, which gradually weakened and reoriented to facilitate underthrusting.
181 Alternatively, Lebrun et al. (2003) argues that subduction initiated near Puysegur Bank around
182 ~20 Ma and involved the underthrusting of Solander Trough's conjugate oceanic lithosphere
183 beneath the transpressive continental relay zone. It is also possible that the subduction front
184 retreated westward behind a fracture zone, stranding a sliver of oceanic lithosphere between

185 Puysegur Trench and Puysegur Ridge (Collot et al., 1995; Lebrun et al., 2003; Sutherland et al.,
186 2006). Sutherland et al. (2006) used the geometry of the Benioff zone beneath Fiordland to
187 estimate the timing of subduction initiation between ~16-10 Ma for subduction beneath Fiordland
188 and ~6 Ma for the southern Puysegur Trench, reflecting a southward propagation over time.

189 **2.3 Modern plate boundary**

190 Puysegur Trench and Ridge comprise the northern extension of the Macquarie Ridge
191 Complex (MRC), which forms the Australian-Pacific (AUS-PAC) plate boundary, extending over
192 2200 km from the Alpine Fault of New Zealand's South Island to the Australia-Pacific-Antarctic
193 triple junction (Figure 1, 2). The tectonic segmentation and structure of the MRC is likely a
194 consequence of the transition in AUS-PAC plate motion from divergence to strike-slip throughout
195 the Cenozoic (Massell et al., 2000; Lebrun et al., 2003; Cande & Stock, 2004). From south to north
196 these segments are the Hjort, Macquarie, McDougall, and Puysegur sections of the plate boundary
197 (Figure 1). All of the MRC segments exhibit uplifted ridges formed by transpression (Massell et
198 al., 2000). Owing to a greater component of convergence through time, the Hjort Trench shows
199 evidence of underthrusting (Meckel et al., 2003), whereas the Puysegur segment is in the process
200 of developing into a mature subduction zone (Lebrun et al., 2003, Gurnis et al., 2019; Sutherland
201 et al., 2006). Conversely, the central Macquarie and McDougall segments exhibit little to no
202 evidence for underthrusting and earthquake focal mechanisms indicate primarily dextral strike-
203 slip movement (Frohlich et al., 1997; Massell et al., 2000).

204 The Puysegur Margin exhibits several characteristics of a subduction zone: a deep (>6 km)
205 ocean trench, a seismically active Benioff zone to ~150 km depth beneath Fiordland (Eberhart-
206 Philips & Reyners, 2001), and young, adakitic volcanism on the overriding plate close to South
207 Island (Mortimer et al., 2013). Presently, the Australian Plate is converging obliquely with the
208 Pacific Plate at a rate of ~37 mm/yr (MORVEL, DeMets et al., 2010). This plate motion is
209 partitioned between the Puysegur Trench and adjacent strike-slip Puysegur Fault to the east (Hayes
210 et al., 2009; Figure 2). Seismicity data outline the subducting Australian slab as an inverted
211 "ploughshare" shape that sharply twists to nearly vertical beneath Fiordland in the southwestern
212 corner of South Island (Christoffel & van der Linden, 1972; Eberhart-Philips & Reyners, 2001).

213 The upper plate of the Puysegur subduction zone, which is formally part of the Pacific
214 Plate, has been divided into the Eocene-Miocene oceanic Solander Basin, which transitions
215 northward to the continental Solander Basin near ~47.5°S, both of which are bounded to the west
216 by Puysegur Ridge and to the east by the continental Campbell Plateau (Sutherland and Melhuish,
217 2000; Lebrun et al., 2003; Figure 1, 2). Previous studies have classified the northern Puysegur
218 margin as an oceanic-under-continental subduction zone, but south of ~47.5°S as an intra-oceanic
219 subduction zone (Collot et al., 1995; Massell et al., 2000; Sutherland and Melhuish, 2000; Lebrun
220 et al., 2003). In the north, morphology of Puysegur Ridge is flat-topped, wide, and resides at ~1500
221 m water depth, and the adjacent Snares Zone exhibits a strong negative gravity anomaly, which
222 are all used as evidence that the upper plate has subsided, possibly in response to the slab becoming
223 more negatively buoyant (Figure 2; Collot et al., 1995; Gurnis et al., 2004). In contrast, towards
224 the south the Puysegur Ridge is narrow, steep-sided, shallower, and the trench terminates against
225 Puysegur Ridge near the junction with the McDougall segment to the south, leading to the
226 interpretation that subduction along the southern Puysegur Trench is still in an incipient phase
227 (Collot et al., 1995; Delteil et al., 1996). Understanding these along-strike variations requires a
228 detailed tectonic framework for the timing and location of subduction initiation, as well as details
229 of the physical and structural properties of the lithosphere involved.

230 3. Data Acquisition, Processing, and Analysis

231 In February and March 2018, the South Island Subduction Initiation Experiment (SISIE)
232 imaged the structure of the Australian and Pacific plates to better understand the regional tectonic
233 evolution and subduction initiation at the Puysegur margin. Using the R/V *Marcus Langseth*, the
234 shipboard party collected multichannel seismic (MCS), ocean-bottom seismometer (OBS), multi-
235 beam bathymetry, and other geophysical data across the Puysegur margin (see Text S1). In total,
236 1252 km of MCS data were acquired on seven 2D lines, two of which were coincident with OBS
237 deployments (Figure 2). The SISIE dataset comprises the first regional, high-fold, and deep-
238 penetrating MCS and OBS seismic coverage of the Puysegur margin.

239 We interpret five distinct wide-angle seismic phases, including refractions and reflections,
240 from OBS records along transects SISIE-1 and SISIE-2, which traverse the incoming oceanic plate,
241 Puysegur Trench, Puysegur Ridge, Solander Basin, and onto the Campbell Plateau (Figure 2, 3).
242 Travel times for the basement reflection from coincident MCS data along SISIE-1 and SISIE-2
243 were also incorporated into layered models. We performed a tomographic inversion of all travel-
244 time data to simultaneously constrain layer thickness and seismic velocities on each of the
245 transects (Text S3). The product of the iterative inversion process yields a smooth characterization
246 of the subsurface velocity structure, including velocity discontinuities across the top of basement
247 and Moho interfaces. We tested the recovery of a 12 km horizontal by 6 km vertical perturbation
248 ellipse (Text S3) to test the robustness of our tomographic images (Figure 4). Our final preferred
249 compressional-wave (V_p) velocity models along SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 are integrated with MCS
250 images to jointly interpret crustal structure along the margin.

251 Seismic processing of the SISIE MCS data utilized conventional crustal imaging
252 techniques. Specific parameters of our workflow are described in the supporting information (Text
253 S4). Seismic processing involved trace editing, noise suppression, geometry assignment, velocity
254 analysis, multiple suppression, band-pass frequency filtering, and corrective trace dip filtering.
255 Seismic velocity models for Kirchhoff pre-stack depth migration algorithms were derived from
256 the smoothed RMS stacking velocities. For the SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 lines coincident with OBS
257 data, a merged velocity section with MCS-derived velocities for shallow sediments and OBS-
258 derived velocities for crust and mantle structure produced the best images. The result of our
259 processing workflow yields seven pre-stack depth migrated (PSDM) lines across the Puysegur
260 margin.

261 4. Results and Interpretations of SISIE Seismic Profiles

262 Gurnis et al. (2019) showed preliminary time-migrated seismic images along the Puysegur
263 Margin from the SISIE experiment. Here we present more advanced pre-stack depth-migrated
264 seismic images that further elucidate the regional tectonic structure of the margin. We integrate
265 our tectonic interpretation with results from Patel et al. (2020), who used SISIE MCS images to
266 interpret the depositional history of Solander Basin stratigraphy and create a spatially and
267 temporally consistent framework tied to biostratigraphic ages from the Parara-1 petroleum well.
268 The seismic horizons and nomenclature used in this study correspond to the top of the units defined
269 by Patel et al. (2020).

270 4.1 SISIE-1 – Southern Regional Dip Line

271 SISIE-1 is a 206 km-long line oriented west-east at $\sim 49.5^\circ\text{S}$, of which ~ 180 km of MCS
272 and corresponding OBS tomography images and shipboard bathymetry are shown in Figure 5.
273 This profile is oriented subparallel to the abyssal hill fabric of the slow-spread oceanic lithosphere
274 of the incoming Australian plate. Our seismic image shows a rough basement reflection which
275 periodically crops out at the seafloor but is otherwise buried by small isolated pockets of sediments

276 typically less than a few hundred meters thick. We find minimal discernable seismic structure
277 beneath the basement, possibly overshadowed by seismic artefacts arising from out-of-plane
278 seafloor reflections and diffractions from the rough seafloor, or due to the complex internal
279 structure of the slow-spread oceanic crust. In contrast, clear Moho reflections are observed on the
280 OBS data records and our final tomographic image suggests that the oceanic crust (between the
281 basement and Moho) of the incoming Australian plate is 5-6 km thick and the seismic velocity
282 structure is as expected for oceanic crust of this age and spreading rate (Figure 5).

283 Near CMP 26250, SISIE-1 orthogonally crosses the L'Atalante Fracture Zone where we
284 observe a broad basement high with ~ 1 km of vertical relief over a lateral distance of ~ 10 km.
285 Trenchward of the fracture zone, the seafloor and basement slope steepen dip to $\sim 5^\circ$, the overlying
286 sedimentary cover thickens to ~ 500 m, and several normal faults offset the sedimentary column
287 and top of crust. The trench-parallel orientation of these normal faults is clearly visible on
288 shipboard multibeam bathymetry (Figure 5c). At CMP ~ 23500 a significant east-dipping normal
289 fault is imaged offsetting the basement by ~ 1.2 km, and the highly fractured basement geometry
290 continues downdip and eastward where it becomes buried under trench-fill sediments. In the upper
291 crust, several highly reflective sedimentary zones are flanked by basement highs (Figure 5a).
292 Below the crust, the upper mantle V_p decreases laterally from ~ 7.7 to ~ 7.1 km/s (Figure 5e).

293 At the trench (CMP ~ 22850), ~ 700 m thick sedimentary cover overlies the Australian
294 basement as it underthrusts the Pacific Plate. A bright, continuous, and negative polarity reflection
295 dipping at $\sim 9^\circ$ above the subducting plate extends for ~ 20 km landward of the trench until it is
296 overprinted by strong water-bottom multiples. Above this reflection, a zone of gently folded
297 sediments extends ~ 5 km east of the trench and coincides with a low V_p of ~ 2.5 km/s. From CMP
298 ~ 22000 - 19000 , a ~ 400 m thick layer of sediments parallel to the seafloor is imaged along the steep
299 ($\sim 10^\circ$) inner-trench slope. Beneath this thin layer, the internal upper plate basement is seismically
300 opaque. Here, the upper-plate basement velocities with depth increase quickly from ~ 4 km/s to ~ 6
301 km/s, and the crust thickens eastward to ~ 12 km at the western flank of Puysegur Ridge. Atop
302 Puysegur Ridge, an axial valley separates two flanks with more than 1.5 km of vertical relief, all
303 of which appears to be sediment-free; thus basement rock crops out along the seafloor.

304 We interpret the bright and negative polarity reflection as the décollement, marking the
305 interface between the underthrusting and overriding plates (Figure 5a). This interpretation also
306 implies the folded sediments were accreted to the upper plate, either by frontal accretion or
307 underplating.

308 No faults were imaged beneath Puysegur Ridge, although earthquake focal mechanisms
309 suggest that a major component of strike-slip faulting occurs near the axial valley (Figure 2). Our
310 tomographic image reveals a relatively sharp increase in mid-lower crustal V_p laterally across the
311 axial valley (Figure 5e).

312 SISIE-1 presents an unprecedented view of the Solander Basin crustal structure and
313 stratigraphy. Crustal thickness decreases from ~ 12 km at the eastern flank of Puysegur Ridge to
314 just ~ 6 km at the eastern edge of the basin (Figure 5e). The top of crust is offset by numerous
315 normal faults that are imaged deep into the lower crust, forming rotated crustal blocks in horst-
316 graben structures (Figure 5d). The seismic character of the uppermost crust is variable throughout
317 the basin. For instance, atop a horst structure between CMP ~ 4750 - 5750 , we observe a sharp
318 transition from the overlying sediments to underlying crystalline crustal rocks marked by high-
319 amplitude and continuous reflectivity. In contrast, throughout much of the basin we image a thin
320 transition (100s of meters) from overlying strata to the top of basement, containing patches of
321 discontinuous, high-amplitude, and chaotic reflectivity. In some locations (CMP ~ 8500), this

322 transition also contains pointed and serrated structures which are associated with folding, localized
323 normal faulting, and seismic amplitude anomalies in the overlying sediments.

324 We interpret the lowermost coherent reflection of the transitional sequence as representing
325 the top of crystalline basement (black line in Figure 5). We suggest that this layer in the upper
326 crust is volcanic in origin and refer to the upper boundary of this zone as the top of the volcanic
327 layer (red line in Figure 5). The volcanic zone has variable structure and likely constitutes a
328 combination of distributed extrusive flows (CMP ~3000), focused volcanic cones (CMP ~8350,
329 8500, and 8750), and intruded sediments and/or volcanoclastic deposits (CMP ~11500).

330 Seismic velocities sharply increase beneath the volcanic layer and top of basement to V_p
331 $> \sim 5$ km/s. Within the mid-lower crust, we observe an assemblage of very high-amplitude and low
332 frequency seismic reflections which originate ~ 2 -7 km beneath the top of basement and are
333 persistent throughout the basin (Figure 5b, 5d).

334 Intracrustal reflectivity of this nature could arise from either lower crust ductile shear zones
335 (e.g., McIntosh et al., 2014), remnants of older brittle fault zones (e.g., McDermott & Reston,
336 2015), or magmatic intrusions (e.g., White et al., 2008). These bright regions overlie and coincide
337 with zones of anomalously high V_p (> 7.1 km/s), which are commonly attributed to mafic
338 intrusions and/or magmatic underplating (e.g., Holbrook et al., 1994). The coincidence of lower
339 crustal reflectivity with high V_p strongly suggests igneous intrusions. Fault plane reflections show
340 higher amplitudes near high-velocity lower crust (Figure 5b); thus, mantle-derived melts may have
341 migrated along fault zones to feed volcanism in the upper crust.

342 Following the analyses of Patel et al. (2020), which interpreted stratigraphic units in the
343 Solander Basin, we define three distinct tectonostratigraphic intervals based on their large-scale
344 seismic reflection geometry and relationships to tectonic structures. The total sedimentary fill
345 across the basin increases from west to east and reaches a maximum of ~ 3.5 km adjacent to the
346 Campbell Plateau. The deepest stratigraphic package (top of volcanic layer to SLS1-1) exhibits
347 prograde and divergent fill patterns contained in fault-bounded wedges that thicken towards and
348 onlap the footwall of uplifted basement rocks (e.g., CMP ~6000), indicating that deposition was
349 synchronous with tectonic extension. In some areas, these sediments are tightly folded above
350 volcanic cones (CMP ~8500) and/or thin against volcanic highs, therefore deposition was coeval
351 or slightly older than volcanism. From SLS1-1 to SLS2-4, the internal stratigraphy is mostly
352 subparallel and has a nearly constant thickness across the basin, although some disruption from
353 internal faulting and downlap is observed on the eastern edge (CMP ~2000-4750). Faults within
354 this package are located above elevated basement topography (e.g., CMP ~4750, 5750) and
355 volcanic cones (e.g., CMP ~8500). At the basin scale, the entire SLS1-1 to SLS2-4 sequence forms
356 an open fold and broad anticline centered near CMP ~6000, which is also where the axis of the
357 modern Solander Channel is located. Additionally, tectonostratigraphic packages bounded by top
358 of volcanic layer to SLS1-1, and SLS1-1 to SLS2-4, respectively, are uplifted into a fault-
359 propagation fold controlled by a steep ($\sim 60^\circ$) reverse fault on the western edge of the basin (CMP
360 ~14000). This reverse fault extends almost to the seafloor but is locally buried by a very thin ($<$
361 100 m) blanket of sediments. Nevertheless, two hinges of the fault-propagation and adjacent (CMP
362 ~13100) folds crop out along the seafloor (Figure 5c) and abundant local seismicity, although the
363 depth uncertainty of the focal mechanisms is large, suggests that uplift may be still active here
364 (Figure 2). The shallowest tectonostratigraphic package spans from SLS2-4 to the seafloor and
365 exhibits strong lateral thickness variations and is mostly flat lying. This package thins and onlaps
366 uplifted structures on the western edge of the basin near Puysegur Ridge and is locally thin at the
367 crest of the open fold beneath Solander Channel, while gradually increasing in thickness away

368 from the hinge into the adjacent flanks. East of CMP ~8500, the upper boundary is an erosional
369 surface as the seafloor truncates angularly across the flat stratigraphy.

370 **4.2 SISIE-2 – Northern Regional Dip Line**

371 SISIE-2 comprises the second regional margin-perpendicular profile and runs for a total of
372 281 km long at ~47.5°S, of which ~180 km of MCS, OBS, and bathymetry data are shown in
373 Figure 6. SISIE-2 is oriented obliquely (~45°) to the oceanic abyssal hill fabric, characterized by
374 rough volcanic basement highs outcropping at the seafloor and sparse, thin pockets of sediment
375 infilling basement lows. Our seismic velocity model reveals a 5-6 km-thick incoming oceanic crust
376 with velocities similar to those imaged on SISIE-1, with the exception of a slight reduction in
377 upper mantle V_p (~7.4 km/s) on the SISIE-2 profile. The incoming oceanic plate remains flat at
378 ~4.5 km depth until seafloor-breaching normal faults are first encountered approximately 10 km
379 from the trench at CMP ~20250. From CMP ~20250-22000, three major normal faults offset the
380 basement with throws of ~800, 900, and 1300 m, respectively, in a staircase-like fashion. Across
381 this faulted zone, the sediment cover promptly increases in thickness from a few hundred meters
382 to ~1.5 km directly beneath the trench axis. Beneath this faulted zone, we observe a reduction in
383 upper mantle seismic velocities to ~7.0 km/s.

384 East of the trench, we image a high-amplitude reverse-polarity reflection that overlies ~1.5
385 km of sediments, which in turn overlie the Australian oceanic basement (Figure 6a). This reverse-
386 polarity reflection has an average dip of ~10° and is semi-discontinuous, yet the overall sequence
387 of sediments beneath this reflection is well imaged for approximately 20 km laterally beneath the
388 overriding Pacific Plate. Above this reflection, we find highly folded and faulted sediments with
389 offsets indicating thrust relationships, and V_p between 2-4 km/s.

390 We interpret this reflection to be the décollement separating the lower and upper plates and
391 the overlying strata as accreted sediments (Figure 6a). The rapid west to east increase in trench fill
392 accommodated by normal faulting suggests that most of the subducting and accreting sediments
393 are not likely sourced from the Australian Plate but rather from sediment sources to the north.

394 The accreted assemblage continues to the east for approximately 30 km. At CMP ~24000,
395 a major reverse fault overthrusts a package of east-dipping strata with minor internal deformation.
396 As the package thickens and seafloor shallows, a reverse-polarity Bottom Simulating Reflection
397 (BSR) is imaged from CMP ~25000-26500. The base of the sedimentary pile is unclear, but in
398 some areas a bright reflection marks the base of continuous sedimentary reflections (CMP ~25000,
399 ~7.5 km depth; CMP ~26000, ~4.6 km depth) and is accompanied by a slight increase in seismic
400 velocities ~4 to ~5 km/s (Figure 6a, 6e).

401 At CMP 26250, a thrust fault juxtaposes opaque basement laterally with folded strata,
402 which is unconformably overlain by a thin drape of mostly undisturbed sediments. From here to
403 the axial valley of the Snares Zone, the underlying basement appears opaque and has similar
404 seismic velocities (~4-6 km/s) to the western flank of Puysegur Ridge imaged on SISIE-1. Across
405 the Snares Zone, we observe several basement offsets that suggest steeply dipping faults. In a
406 pocket of sediment at the central depression of the Snares Zone, we image a near vertical fault
407 juxtaposing flat-lying strata to the west with folded strata to the east, suggesting a strike-slip
408 relationship. We observe a relatively sharp increase in crustal seismic velocities across the axial
409 valley of the Snares Zone, consistent with observations from SISIE-1. Focal mechanisms indicate
410 primarily strike-slip motion on near vertical faults throughout the Snares Zone (Figure 2). Our
411 tomographic image is not well resolved beneath the axial valley of the Snares Zone (Figure 4), but
412 slightly to the east, wide-angle Moho reflections suggest the crust may be up to 14 km thick.
413 Eastern Puysegur Ridge appears to be mostly comprised of crystalline rocks cropping out along

414 the seafloor, with Vp increasing from ~4.5 km/s to ~7 km/s at 14 km depth near the crust-mantle
415 boundary.

416 Images of the Solander Basin on SISIE-2 uncover a more variable basin architecture than
417 southern Solander Basin on SISIE-1. The basin here is ~55 km wide and exhibits strong asymmetry
418 in sedimentary thickness, depositional patterns, and underlying crustal structure. First-order
419 basement geometry exhibits large topographic relief offset by a series of east-dipping, low-angle
420 (~30°) normal faults. Highly asymmetric, tilted crustal blocks are often separated by more than 2
421 km of vertical relief along the bounding faults, which curve at depth in a listric fashion. Deepening
422 of the basement to the east results in crustal thinning to a minimum of 6 km near CMP 40500.
423 Along the western crustal block (central CMP ~35000), the basement reflection is mostly coherent,
424 high-amplitude, and marks a sharp impedance contrast between overlying sediments and crustal
425 rocks. Between CMP ~35500-40000, we detect a thin zone of chaotic reflectivity above the
426 basement, with several pointed structures near CMP ~38000, similar to the interpreted volcanic
427 layer found on SISIE-1. Intracrustal reflectivity is less abundant than on SISIE-1, and crustal Vp
428 increases from ~5 km/s near the top of basement to ~7 km/s in the lower crust, with no regions of
429 anomalously high Vp observed on this profile.

430 Sedimentary thickness varies across the basin and is highly dependent on crustal geometry,
431 generally increasing from west to east up to a maximum thickness of 6 km above the thinnest crust
432 near the eastern edge of the basin (CMP ~40000). Deep sedimentary reflectors within easternmost
433 Solander Basin are abruptly truncated laterally at CMP ~41000. East of this truncation, a scrambled
434 and structurally complex zone underlies flat-lying sediments between CMP ~41000-42500, which
435 may be obscuring clear imaging below. The top of basement is possibly imaged at 6.5 km depth
436 near CMP ~41500 and the seismic velocities of the overlying material have $V_p < 5$ km/s.

437 We interpret this complicated zone as highly deformed sediments. Although the area is
438 poorly imaged, the structural position of the basement and deformed zone can be explained by a
439 thrust fault near CMP ~41000, which may have uplifted the basement and caused the inferred
440 folding.

441 We establish four distinct tectonostratigraphic intervals within Solander Basin on SISIE-2.
442 The deepest interval (top of volcanic layer to SLS1-1) has strong divergent fill geometries in two
443 main wedges between adjacent crustal blocks, indicating deposition coeval with tectonic
444 extension. In the deepest part of the basin, this wedge has high velocities ($V_p > 5$ km/s) and
445 transitions from zero thickness onlapping the volcanic layer to ~2.3 km thick over a lateral distance
446 of just ~12 km (Figure 6b). Between CMP ~36500-38500, this interval is not clearly identified,
447 possibly due to non-deposition because of local relief, or was eroded and/or entirely overprinted
448 by volcanism.

449 The second tectonostratigraphic sequence spans SLS1-1 to SLS2-1 and consists of mostly
450 subparallel reflections that onlap volcanic features atop a crustal block between CMP ~36500-
451 38500. The upper boundary is marked by a high amplitude reflection across the basin and can be
452 traced eastward at the top of the highly deformed zone.

453 Between SLS2-1 to SLS2-3, we define a third tectonostratigraphic package because the
454 interval strongly thins towards and caps the uplifted zone along eastern Solander Basin, indicating
455 deposition syn-kinematic with compression and shortening. This interval is also locally folded and
456 faulted above volcanic highs (CMP ~36500-38500) and folded onto the westernmost buried crustal
457 block (CMP ~35300), although it is unclear if these features are depositional, due to differential
458 compaction, or truly tectonically driven in nature.

459 The shallowest tectonostratigraphic package extends from SLS2-3 to the seafloor and
460 contains mostly undeformed sediments. This package has mostly uniform thickness in the middle
461 of the basin but thins and onlaps against Puysegur Ridge in the west, and onto the Campbell Plateau
462 in the east.

463 **4.3 SISIE-3 – South-North Variations in Solander Basin**

464 SISIE-3 is oriented subparallel to the margin and transects Solander Basin, providing along
465 strike images of basin architecture and a regional seismic tie between SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 (Figure
466 7). The uppermost crust on this profile is rough and consists of discontinuous, bright, and high-
467 amplitude serrated reflections. This rough upper crust is consistent with the interpreted volcanic
468 domains imaged on SISIE-1 and SISIE-2. The bounding upper reflector is very rugged with high
469 relief in the south, but gradually becomes smoother and sharper as it shallows to the north forming
470 a topographic high. We do not observe a clear basement reflection throughout most of the profile.

471 Intracrustal reflectivity is widespread on SISIE-3, especially along the southern half of the
472 profile. Between CMP 20000 and 28000, we observe a 50-km-wide and ~6 km-thick region of
473 bright reflections beneath the top of the volcanic layer (Figure 7). These reflections are
474 characterized by high amplitudes, low frequency, and moderate continuity and they exhibit
475 transgressive, stepwise transgressive, subhorizontal, and curved geometries.

476 We interpret this zone of high intracrustal reflectivity as an organized complex of magmatic
477 intrusions. Similar structures have been imaged and drilled at volcanic rifted margins, typically
478 within sedimentary host rocks (Eide et al., 2018; Schofield et al., 2017; Thomson & Hutton, 2004),
479 but also deeper within the crust (e.g. White et al., 2008). Although we do not have OBS data
480 coincident with SISIE-3 to help constrain seismic velocities in the crust, a move-out analysis with
481 our long-offset streamer suggests reflections from this zone are flattened best with interval
482 velocities of $V_p > 7$ km/s, indicating a largely mafic composition. Reflection strength (Figure 7b)
483 and instantaneous phase seismic attributes (Figure 7a) at CMP ~20000-24000 show that magmatic
484 intrusions are mostly south-dipping at ~25°. These features appear to be truncated by shallower
485 north-dipping (~15°) intrusions and a large subparallel curved sill at ~7 km depth, spanning a
486 lateral distance of ~25 km. Above this large curved sill, numerous volcanic cones suggest melts
487 from magma reservoirs may have fed vent-style eruptions. In contrast, at CMP 20000-22000,
488 dikes/sills appear to merge with flat-lying, semi-continuous and bright reflections, which are more
489 consistent with extrusive fissure eruptions and large volcanic flows (Figure 7a, 7b).

490 Along the seismic profile SISIE-3, numerous deep faults can be distinguished from other
491 intracrustal reflectivity by their continuity and clear connection to offsets in the volcanic layer and
492 stratigraphy. Crustal faults are more abundant on the northern half of the profile, while only a few
493 faults are identified on the southern half (Figure 7). Structural relationships indicate that faults
494 display mostly normal offsets and become listric at depth with low average apparent dips of ~40°.
495 Several of the synthetic/antithetic fault-pairs appear to cross-cut each other, evidenced by slight
496 offsets in fault plane reflections (Figure 7b), suggesting a complicated poly-phase deformation
497 history. Individual faults also show evidence of a polyphase history; for example, we detect a
498 significant fault starting from the seafloor at CMP ~18000 which offsets the entire basin
499 stratigraphy at ~60° and curves to ~35° at ~20 km depth, potentially rupturing through the entire
500 crust. This fault appears to have reverse offsets across the top of the volcanic layer and horizon
501 SLS1-1, little to no offset across SLS2-1, and normal offset relationships from SLS2-2 to the
502 seafloor, indicating it may have been earlier active as a reverse fault and was later re-activated and
503 currently active as a normal fault (Figure 7). We find a similar but flipped sequence on a fault in
504 the south at CMP ~29500, which offsets the top of the volcanic layer in a normal sense through

505 SLS2-2, but shows little to no offset across SLS2-3 and reverse offsets from SLS2-4 to the seafloor.
506 These observations suggest it was initially a normal fault and was later re-activated and is currently
507 an active reverse fault (Figure 7).

508 **4.4 SISIE-6bc – Northern Solander Basin**

509 SISIE-6bc is oriented southwest-northeast and extends from the western edge of Solander
510 Basin near the Snares Zone onto the continental shelf of the South Island. Our seismic image for
511 profile SISIE-6bc (Figure 8) is a composite of two separate PSDM lines, originally called MCS17B
512 and MCS17C. The SISIE-6bc profile crosses obliquely over Tauru High, an uplifted structure
513 caused by intense reverse faulting and folding (Melhuish et al., 1999; Sutherland & Melhuish,
514 2000; Patel et al., 2020), which we refer to as the Tauru Fault Zone (TFZ). The TFZ consists of
515 four deep-seated crustal faults which can be traced to the Moho (Figure 8b).

516 South of the TFZ, the basement is well imaged and overlain by a thin rough transitional
517 upper crust. The basement here is cut by shallow ($\sim 20^\circ$) normal faults with little throw except for
518 a large normal fault at CMP ~ 7500 which offsets the basement and volcanic layer by greater than
519 1.5 km. The basement is not well imaged beneath the TFZ on the northern part of SISIE-6b,
520 because severe weather forced us to tow a smaller airgun source at 18 m depth and caused streamer
521 feathering. From CMP ~ 3500 to the northern end of SISIE-6c, the basement is well imaged and
522 capped by a thin layer of semi-discontinuous high-amplitude reflections (Figure 8b).

523 Some intra-crustal reflectivity is observed throughout the profile, mostly in the mid-lower
524 crust along SISIE-6c, although we cannot confidently rule out that some of these bright events
525 may be residual multiple energy or out-of-plane reflections. Moho reflections are clear throughout
526 most of the line around 16-18 km depth; thus, crustal thickness is just 7 km adjacent to the TFZ
527 (CMP ~ 10000) and increases to greater than 14 km in the north along the continental shelf.

528 The multifaceted tectonic and sedimentary history of the basin has resulted in a
529 complicated stratigraphic architecture. A seismic well tie is relatively straightforward at the Parara-
530 1 borehole, resulting in a 1D age-depth model derived from biostratigraphic analyses of recovered
531 rocks (Hunt International Petroleum Company, 1976) that can be tied to older industry seismic
532 lines (e.g., Sutherland et al., 2006) and to the SISIE dataset (Patel et al., 2020). Extending this
533 stratigraphic framework throughout the entire Solander Basin is challenged due to sparse seismic
534 coverage, and unfortunately crucial line crossings are above basement highs (SISIE-6b/SISIE-2,
535 SISIE-2/SISIE-3, see Figure 6) where most of the deeper stratigraphic record has either been
536 eroded or not deposited. This difficulty is especially severe for the deepest stratigraphic intervals,
537 for example on SISIE-6c, which are missing just south of the Parara-1 borehole where Middle
538 Miocene sediments unconformably overlie basement (Patel et al., 2020). Therefore, a unique
539 correlation cannot be established throughout the basin.

540 Patel et al. (2020) divided stratigraphic intervals based on internal seismic-reflection
541 character, stratal stacking patterns, and sequence boundary relationships with initial post-stack
542 time migrated images. The pre-stack depth migrated sections presented in this paper were
543 generated with more advanced processing techniques which have significantly improved imaging
544 of the deeper strata, basement, and crustal structure across the TFZ. We re-visit the correlation of
545 stratigraphic units across the TFZ in light of our new depth-migrated seismic images. Correlations
546 are based on structural characteristics of stratigraphic intervals, including reflection geometries,
547 thickness variations, and deformation associated with folding and faulting.

548 At the fold crest atop Tauru High (CMP ~ 11600), a ~ 1.5 km thick package of conformable
549 sediments is asymmetrically folded and emergent at the seafloor. The base of this package is
550 marked by a high-amplitude reflection at ~ 3 km depth, which can easily be traced from the axial

551 plane throughout the entire forelimb and eastward along the backlimb. This reflection could be
552 interpreted as the basement since it is a high amplitude return and deeper reflectivity has less
553 continuity. On the other hand, beneath this reflection, our new PSDM reveals a deeper ~1.5 km
554 thick package with the lower boundary marked by a bright, semi-discontinuous reflection near
555 ~4.5 km depth. Even though it is less coherent, the internal reflectivity of this deeper package has
556 moderate amplitude and structural continuity with reflectors following an asymmetric fold pattern,
557 similar but more tightly folded than the overlying strata.

558 Based on the internal structure and continuity of the bounding reflectors, we interpret this
559 zone as consisting of highly deformed sediments that overlie the basement. This deepest package
560 is thinnest at the axial plane and thickens both into the fore and backlimbs, indicating it was
561 deposited syn-kinematically with extension at the TFZ. Thus, we re-interpret the upper boundary
562 of unit SLN1-1 to represent the top of the syn-extensional stratigraphic package at the TFZ (CMP
563 ~10000 on SISIE-6b to CMP ~3750 on SISIE-6c), consistent with observations at the Parara-1
564 borehole (Patel et al., 2020).

565 South of the TFZ, the sedimentary fill reaches ~6 km, which is the thickest succession
566 observed throughout the entire basin. The deepest strata onlap basement highs and exhibit
567 divergent and prograde fill reflection configurations, with growth wedges at CMP ~7500 and
568 towards the TFZ near CMP ~10000, consistent with a syn-extensional origin. The upper boundary
569 of this package is marked by a subtle moderate amplitude reflection at ~4.5 km depth, where a
570 transition occurs to subparallel and flat reflections in the overlying stratigraphy. Therefore, we re-
571 interpret the top of unit SLS1-1 south of the TFZ as the top boundary of the syn-extensional
572 stratigraphy (Figure 8a, 8b). No additional updates were made to the interpretation of unit
573 boundaries, as the shallow stratigraphy in our PSDM images was not significantly different than
574 the shipboard time-migrated images. Patel et al. (2020) interpreted the SLS1-1 unit as representing
575 syn-rift sediments followed by a hiatus and correlated this unit with both SLN1-1 and SLN2-1
576 across the TFZ. Alternatively, our images suggest the southern unit is entirely syn-rift and thus we
577 prefer to correlate SLS1-1 with our revised SLN1-1 across the TFZ. This correlation suggests that
578 the TFZ accommodated minor and distributed Eocene-Oligocene extension (Figure 8, Figure S2),
579 in contrast to the major and focused extension inferred in Patel et al. (2020).

580 We define a second tectonostratigraphic interval from SLS/SLN1-1 to SLS2-1/SLN2-1.
581 This interval has mostly constant thickness across the profile and continuous and conformable
582 reflections. Along the backlimb of the TFZ the interval is slightly thicker (~1.5 km) and strata
583 downlap the SLN1-1 reflector (CMP ~1000, SISIE-6c). Strata are horizontal and undeformed
584 adjacent to the structurally lowest thrust of the TFZ, suggesting it predates reverse activity on the
585 TFZ. Therefore, we correlate SLS2-1 with SLN2-1 and interpret this tectonostratigraphic interval
586 as post-rift sediments, with minor thickness variations reflecting the infilling of topography created
587 during extension and/or post-extension subsidence.

588 The third tectonostratigraphic package on SISIE-6bc extends from SLS/SLN2-1 to SLS2-
589 3/SLN3-1. We distinguish this stratigraphic interval based on strong thickness and tilting
590 relationships across the TFZ. Sediments of this interval crop out at the seafloor along the hinge of
591 the Tauru High. Here, this interval is only a few hundred meters thick, but rapidly thickens to the
592 northeast in a divergent pattern along the backlimb of the TFZ. South of the TFZ, strata quickly
593 become tilted and pinch out against uplifted deeper tectonostratigraphic packages of the thrust
594 front (CMP ~10000). Near the fold crest this interval is absent, suggesting that the thrust sheets of
595 the TFZ were emergent and pre-kinematic strata were likely eroded at this time. These structural
596 relationships indicate that deposition of this interval was syn-kinematic with reverse faulting on

597 the TFZ. Based on respective similarities in the thickness variations and onlap patterns across the
598 TFZ, we correlate SLS2-2 with SLN2-2 and SLS2-3 with SLN3-1 (Figure S2). Imaged geometries
599 are in excellent agreement with the expected architecture of a thrust-system with high
600 sedimentation rates during tectonic activity (e.g., Butler, 2019). The continuous presence of syn-
601 thrust strata throughout the basin is consistent with a significant increase in sediment supply during
602 deposition of these units (Patel et al., 2020; Sutherland et al., 2006). Thicker syn-thrust strata along
603 the backlimb of the TFZ suggests that the emergent thrust sheets became a structural barrier and
604 trapped sediments transported from the north. Our interpretation of the structural architecture of
605 the TFZ indicates that the fault zone was inherited from earlier extension, however it was more
606 active and accumulated greater offsets during its inversion history.

607 Lastly, from SLS2-3/SLN3-1 to the seafloor, strata are generally internally conformable
608 and subhorizontal. Strata thin towards the TFZ and are missing from the crest of the Tauru High,
609 indicating that the highest thrust sheet remains emergent at the present-day seafloor. We do not
610 image any clear evidence indicating obvious tectonic activity during deposition of this interval.
611 Therefore, we interpret this shallowest tectonostratigraphic package as post-thrust deposition
612 during tectonic quiescence.

613 **4.5 SISIE-8 – Continental Shelf near South Island**

614 SISIE-8 is oriented west-east and runs along the continental shelf proximal to the South
615 Island and extends westward onto Puysegur Bank (Figure 9). This region of the margin has been
616 surveyed by industry seismic lines and the stratigraphy has been tied to petroleum boreholes, core,
617 and dredge data (e.g., Sutherland et al., 2006). From west to east, SISIE-8 crosses over Puysegur
618 Bank and the Balleny and Waitutu sub-basins, which are separated by the Eastern Balleny Fault
619 and the Hauroko Fault (Turnbull & Uruski, 1993). Stratigraphic horizons from the Parara-1 well
620 (Patel et al., 2020) were successfully correlated from SISIE-6 into the Waitutu sub-basin, but were
621 not correlated into the Balleny sub-basin due to complex structural variations across the Hauroko
622 Fault.

623 At the eastern edge of the profile, we image the reverse Solander Fault (CMP ~2750) and
624 associated folded sediments forming the Solander Anticline (Figure 9a). Throw across the fault
625 gradually decreases at shallower depths leading us to interpret this structure as a fault-propagation
626 fold, and the crest of the fold is truncated and eroded at the seafloor, indicating that this structure
627 is likely still active. Originating from the footwall ramp of the Solander Fault (~2.5 km depth), we
628 find a pattern of short, discontinuous and bright reflectivity that obliquely crosses dipping
629 stratigraphy and can be tracked to the seafloor near CMP ~4500. A similar vertical column of
630 scattered reflectivity rises to the seafloor at the same location, close to the Solander Island volcano.

631 The Waitutu sub-basin begins near CMP ~4000 marked by deepening of the basement to
632 ~5 km depth and a large increase in the sedimentary fill to ~4.5 km. Strata throughout the sub-
633 basin are consistently dipping to the east, with deeper beds tilted slightly steeper ~7° compared to
634 shallower beds at ~4°, which are truncated at the seafloor. The deeper stratigraphy is not as well
635 imaged, but growth wedge geometries indicate there may be greater than 2 km of syn-extensional
636 sedimentary deposits here. Farther to the west, at the crossing of Hauroko Fault (CMP ~7000), we
637 observe a ~1 km-wide seismic blank zone with no coherent reflections. Just west of the blank zone,
638 basement appears at ~1 km depth and the stratigraphy is gently dipping to the west. The Balleny
639 Basin is characterized by an erratic blocky crustal morphology cut by many faults and
640 folded/faulted stratigraphy, implying a complicated tectonic history with intense deformation. At
641 the Eastern Balleny Fault (CMP ~16500), we observe another seismic blank zone which juxtaposes
642 basement at ~4 km depth and east-dipping strata in the Balleny Basin with a shallow basement and

643 a thin (<1 km) drape of sediment atop Puysegur Bank. The basement beneath Puysegur Bank is
644 highly irregular, overlain by segmented pockets of deformed sediments. At the western edge of
645 the line, basement deepens to ~3 km and a BSR reflection is observed from CMP ~19500-20000
646 in the overlying sedimentary column.

647 **5. Regional Interpretation of Key Tectonic Structures**

648 The integration of new high-quality MCS data together with tomographic images from
649 wide-angle seismic data allow us to interpret regional subsurface structures throughout the entire
650 Puysegur Margin. We reconcile our observations with previous findings and broader Cenozoic
651 reconstructions of the Australian-Pacific plate boundary.

652 **5.1 Continental Rifting in the Solander Basin**

653 The data presented in this study provide evidence that the Solander Basin contains extended
654 crust to at least 49.5°S. Furthermore, we infer that the Solander Basin crust is continental in nature
655 based on the following lines of evidence: (1) the basement reflection in most places is coherent,
656 continuous, and smooth; (2) normal faults slice the crust into planar fault-bounded blocks; (3)
657 normal faults are listric in nature, invoking tilting and rotation of the crustal blocks; (4) wedge-
658 shaped geometries of the deepest sediments are consistent with expected syn-extensional
659 relationships. Furthermore, recovered samples from the Parara-1 borehole were largely terrestrial
660 sandstones with coal deposits; (5) crustal thickness ranges between ~6-15 km; (6) seismic velocity
661 structure of the crust is consistent with extended and intruded continental crust found at other rifted
662 margins; and (7) seismic velocities resolved in the upper mantle are typical for peridotite (~8 km/s),
663 in contrast to reduced velocities found in the upper mantle of the slow-spread oceanic lithosphere
664 along the incoming Australian Plate.

665 Without the insight from deep penetrating and regional geophysical data coverage,
666 previous studies proposed that the Solander Basin contains Eocene-Miocene age oceanic
667 lithosphere (Lamarche et al., 1997; Lebrun et al., 2003; Sutherland et al., 2006), assuming a
668 northward continuation of the MSC (e.g., Keller, 2004). The prevailing hypothesis suggested a
669 sharp Continent-Ocean Transition (COT) along the entire western edge of Campbell Plateau which
670 curved west and cut across the Solander Basin just south of the Tauru Fault (~48°S). This COT
671 separated the oceanic domain created by seafloor spreading (commonly referred to as “Solander
672 Trough” in literature, e.g., Sutherland & Melhuish, 2000) from the extended continental domain
673 in northern Solander Basin and other subbasins along the shelf of southern New Zealand. Instead,
674 we find no evidence for normal oceanic lithosphere and propose that the continental basement of
675 the Solander Basin formed by Eocene-Oligocene stretching between the Campbell and Challenger
676 plateaus. In this scenario, complete continental breakup was never achieved this far north and
677 hence did not proceed to seafloor spreading in the Solander Basin.

678 Continental rifting between the Campbell and Challenger plateaus was accompanied by a
679 north-south progression in the amount of extension. For example, the width of the Solander Basin
680 is ~55 km along SISIE-2, however it becomes more than twice as wide (>120 km) in the south
681 along SISIE-1. Crustal structure indicates fewer extensional faults with larger throw create greater
682 basement relief in the north, compared to more closely spaced faults and lower average basement
683 relief imaged in the south. Moreover, the faulting geometry is highly asymmetric in the north with
684 dominantly east-dipping faults, whereas a mix of east- and west-dipping faults form horst-graben
685 structures in the south on SISIE-1. The overall rift architecture argues that continental rifting was
686 more advanced in the south, and perhaps opened in a “V-shape” geometry.

687 To quantify the amount of extension that occurred during Eocene-Oligocene rifting, we
688 first calculate 1-D crustal thickness values across the SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 profiles. Two crustal

689 thickness values are considered, using the base of crust (Moho) depth constrained solely by OBS
690 data and the top of crust (basement) from both OBS and MCS images. We compute 1D isotropic
691 crustal stretching factors (β) with the present-day crustal thickness values, with the simplified
692 assumption that extension is uniform throughout the crust at a given horizontal location along the
693 profiles (e.g., Davis & Kusznir, 2002). Gravity data suggest that the crust is uniformly ~20-24 km
694 thick across the Campbell and Challenger plateaus (Grobys et al., 2008; Hightower et al., 2019);
695 therefore we choose a constant pre-rift crustal thickness of 21 km in our β calculation. Lastly, the
696 total amount of extension is calculated by integrating β along the width of the margin for each
697 profile, respectively. Our results indicate that approximately 45 km of total extension occurred
698 along SISIE-2 and ~64-69 km of extension along SISIE-1, supporting other evidence that
699 continental rifting was more pronounced in the south (Figure S1). These values represent absolute
700 minimum estimates of tectonic extension for several reasons. Firstly, because the MCS data along
701 SISIE-1 do not extend onto the Campbell Plateau due to equipment malfunction during data
702 collection; therefore, we cannot account for some crustal thinning at the easternmost edge of the
703 basin. Additionally, we observe $\beta \sim 1.7$ at eastern Puysegur Ridge on SISIE-1, which suggests that
704 a small portion of thinned crust may have existed to the west of the Puysegur Fault. Secondly,
705 because our seismic images indicate a contribution of magmatic additions, which have increased
706 the thickness of the crust. To account for the second point, we make a very simplified assumption
707 that lower crust with $V_p > 7.1$ km/s represents mafic additions (Figure S1). Removing the
708 magmatic component and recalculating the total extension yields ~74 km for SISIE-1 (15.6%
709 increase) and ~47 km for SISIE-2 (4.4% increase). These findings are lower than the median values
710 predicted by past plate motions (~90±105 km in the north and ~140±80 km in the south, Keller,
711 2004) but are within the large uncertainties, and in good agreement with estimates from seismic
712 studies of northern Solander Basin (~50-100 km, Sutherland and Melhuish, 2000). Overall, our
713 observations of greater extension to the south support a wedge-shaped opening in agreement with
714 plate reconstruction models, since the AUS-PAC rotation pole was located proximal to the South
715 Island (e.g., Cande & Stock, 2004).

716 We investigate whether the magmatic intrusions and extrusive volcanism throughout
717 Solander Basin may be linked with the Eocene-Oligocene episode of continental rifting or other
718 tectonic processes. It is well known that lithospheric extension in continental rifts can involve
719 mantle upwelling and decompression melting, leading to magmatic intrusions and volcanic
720 eruptions (e.g., Bown & White, 1995). Conversely, Late Cretaceous to Miocene intraplate
721 volcanism was widespread across Zealandia (Mortimer et al., 2018; Timm et al., 2010), therefore
722 overlapping with the period of continental rifting and may have contributed to the features imaged
723 in our study. High velocity lower crust ($V_p > 7.1$ km/s), indicative of mafic intrusions, is abundant
724 throughout SISIE-1, but limited/absent on SISIE-2, suggesting that more pervasive mantle melting
725 occurred in the south. This suggestion agrees with spatial variations of bright intracrustal
726 reflectivity in the MCS data, which are more abundant in the south (for example the sill complexes
727 on SISIE-1 and SISIE-3), further suggesting that crustal extension led to magmatism. Imaged
728 crustal faults apparently terminate into sill complexes where fault-plane reflectivity shifts to higher
729 amplitudes and lower frequencies (Figure 5b). This observation suggests that fault zones may have
730 provided pathways for migrating melts, thus tectonic deformation and magmatic activity were
731 likely coeval. In the upper crust, volcanic features, such as cones and lava flows, primarily only
732 alter/overlap with syn-rift strata (Figure 5b, 7b), indicating an Eocene-Oligocene age for these
733 features. If the volcanic structures within Solander Basin were largely related to regional Cenozoic
734 Zealandia volcanism, we would expect to image evidence of volcanic activity altering the

735 shallower basin stratigraphy (i.e. not only directly overlaying the basement). Only one clear
736 example of this potential alteration exists on the western edge of the basin on SISIE-1 (CMP
737 ~14600) where the stratigraphic column is disturbed and several bumps crop out along the seafloor
738 (Figure 5c, 5d). We therefore conclude that the dominant age of magmatic emplacement within
739 Solander Basin is Eocene-Oligocene and is tectonically related to decompression melting beneath
740 the developing continental rift zone between the Campbell and Challenger plateaus.

741 **5.2 Strike-slip Deformation and Transition across Puysegur Ridge**

742 We find evidence in our seismic reflection images and wide-angle tomography models for
743 a major lateral change in subsurface velocities and crustal structure west of Puysegur Ridge. At
744 the axial valley of Puysegur Ridge on SISIE-1, we detect a sharp decrease in crustal Vp from east
745 to west (Figure 5e). Because the resolution of our tomographic image beneath Puysegur Ridge is
746 sufficient (Figure 3), we consider this relatively abrupt velocity contrast a robust feature with
747 geologic significance. We do not image a concurrent fault trace in the reflection image, although
748 imaging is challenged here by scattering of seismic signals and overwhelming multiple energy,
749 caused by rugged seafloor topography and a high acoustic impedance contrast at the seafloor due
750 to basement cropping out along the ridge. Likewise, on SISIE-2, we detect a decrease in crustal
751 Vp from east to west across the axial valley of the Snares Zone. The resolution of our tomography
752 model in the lower crust here is poor, although the velocity contrast is still evident in the upper-
753 middle crust where velocities are better resolved (Figure 3). In the SISIE-2 MCS image, we detect
754 numerous basement offsets and associated folding in the thin sedimentary cover across the Snares
755 Zone, including an obvious strike-slip fault within the axial valley (CMP ~30000). Although we
756 do not have wide-angle seismic constraints farther north, the Eastern Balleny Fault on SISIE-8
757 clearly marks a significant transition in crustal structure, separating the blocky rifted continental
758 crust domain on the east from uplifted and structureless basement on the west. It is therefore
759 reasonable to assume that this tectonic boundary is potentially continuous and extends from the
760 axial valley of Puysegur Ridge in the south, northward through the Snares Zone, and along the
761 eastern flank of Puysegur Bank. We interpret this boundary, the Puysegur Fault zone, as the
762 seaward limit of the rifted continental crust domain, and suggest that the lithosphere to the west is
763 primarily translated to the north in a similar direction as the Australian Plate.

764 The distribution of strike-slip deformation varies strongly along the Puysegur Fault zone.
765 At the southern margin, earthquake focal mechanisms, the lack of imaged faults, and morphology
766 of the ridge suggest that dextral strike-slip and transpressional deformation is localized to the axial
767 valley of Puysegur Ridge (Figure 2). In contrast, we image many near-vertical faults across the
768 Snares Zone on SISIE-2, indicating that deformation is likely accommodated across a broader
769 shear zone. Seismicity is widespread throughout the Snares Zone (Figure 2) and bathymetry data
770 clearly show northeast directed and distributed shear characterized by fault-bounded, en échelon
771 ridges forming Puysegur Ridge (Lamarche and Lebrun, 2000). We find no evidence for significant
772 active strike-slip deformation east of Puysegur Ridge and south of the Tauru Fault. The lack of
773 major strike-slip structures throughout the Solander Basin suggests that strike-slip deformation has
774 primarily occurred near Puysegur Ridge since the late Oligocene. North of the Snares Zone, the
775 number of near-vertical structures increases again over a broader expanse resulting in a spatial
776 defocusing of strain. Visible scarps on the seafloor atop Puysegur Bank indicate recent strike-slip
777 on multiple fault strands (Melhuish et al., 1999; Sutherland & Melhuish, 2000). These faults strike
778 N-S, whereas the Hauroko, Solander, and Parara faults farther to the east trend NE-SW. Our
779 seismic images support at least two major, active zones of dextral strike-slip and oblique reverse
780 motion along the Hauroko and Eastern Balleny faults. The Hauroko Fault forms the southern

781 extension of the Moonlight Fault System, which extends onshore and correlates with a complex
782 zone of dextral strike-slip and high-angle reverse motion (Norris et al., 1978). The similarity in the
783 strike of the Puysegur and Hauroko faults suggests that they may have been previously connected
784 as part of the larger strike-slip plate boundary during the Oligocene (Lamarche & Lebrun, 2000;
785 Lebrun et al., 2003); however, seismic reflection data show undeformed Middle Miocene and
786 younger strata across the southern Hauroko Fault (Sutherland et al., 2006), indicating a lack of
787 structural continuity since this time. The broad zone of strike-slip faults dissecting the continental
788 shelf of the South Island suggests that a primary change from focused to distributed strike-slip
789 deformation starts near the Snares Zone and continues throughout the northern Puysegur margin.

790 **5.3 Reactivation of Rift Structures during Subduction Initiation**

791 We have found subtle evidence for structures related to compression in the overriding plate
792 throughout the entire length of the offshore Puysegur margin. According to geodynamic models,
793 the arrival of compressional stress is associated with the initial stages of subduction as convergence
794 is resisted (Toth & Gurnis, 1998). Therefore, the location and timing of uplift in the Pacific Plate
795 provide constraints on subduction initiation at the Puysegur Trench. Most of the compressional
796 structures imaged in our study show a clear history of previous extension and/or strike-slip,
797 indicating that inherited tectonic structures were important in the reorganization and evolution of
798 the AUS-PAC plate boundary. Using an updated chronostratigraphic framework originally from
799 Patel et al. (2020), we are able to determine the approximate timing of these tectonic features.

800 The earliest (~16 Ma) evidence of reactivation is observed on SISIE-6bc and consists of
801 widespread uplift at the TFZ. Inversion of the TFZ occurred simultaneously with abundant
802 sediment delivery into the basin, trapping sediments adjacent to thrust sheets and along the main
803 backlimb depression. Compression across the margin also induced reverse faulting and associated
804 folding of the basement and overlying syn- and post-rift deposits at the eastern edge of central
805 Solander Basin on SISIE-2. We do not find any evidence for compressional structures in southern
806 Solander Basin at this time. We interpret this episode of broad and rapid uplift as a dynamic
807 response to large compressional stresses in the upper plate resulting from early underthrusting near
808 Puysegur Bank.

809 Tectonic activity in the upper plate across the northern and central margin slowly waned
810 starting at ~14 Ma. Uplift of the Campbell Plateau diminished and was largely inactive around
811 ~11.5 Ma, however inversion at the TFZ continued until ~8 Ma, and minor inversion on the Parara
812 Fault slightly to the north commenced at this time. We believe this signal reflects the gradual
813 spreading and progression of the nascent subduction, which caused expanding compressional
814 stresses in the upper plate.

815 An evolving wave of shortening spread out along the margin between ~8-5 Ma. In the early
816 Pliocene, oblique reverse slip became active on the Parara, Solander, and Hauroko faults along the
817 continental shelf and minor transpressional activity ramped up in southern Solander Basin. In
818 contrast, passive onlapping of sediments in the central/northern Solander Basin argue for the
819 cessation of compressional stresses in this section of the margin. We suggest that these spatial
820 stress-strain relationships record the along-strike propagation of the subduction interface to both
821 the north and south, and continued maturation and relaxation surrounding the site of initial
822 underthrusting.

823 Two westward verging reverse faults along the western edge and a broad open fold in the
824 center of Solander Basin at the southern Puysegur margin became active around ~5 Ma, deforming
825 syn- and post-rift strata. We interpret this tectonic signal as marking the early stages of subduction
826 at the southern margin. Visible disturbance at the seafloor indicates that large compressional

827 stresses are still present here. Furthermore, the presence of a significant accretionary prism at the
828 northern Puysegur Trench (Figure 6) and very minor accreted sediments at southern Puysegur
829 Trench (Figure 5) likely reflect increased accommodation space, sediment supply and a longer
830 history of subduction to the north, indicating a southward propagation of the trench over time.

831 **6. Discussion**

832 **6.1 Revised Pacific Plate Continent-Ocean Transition (COT)**

833 Previous tectonic interpretations claimed that the southern Solander Basin is floored by
834 Eocene-early Miocene aged oceanic crust that was created by the Macquarie Spreading Center
835 (MSC), which propagated northward and created new oceanic crust following rifting (summarized
836 by Lebrun et al., 2003). This model implies rapid breakup of the Challenger and Campbell plateaus
837 and the existence of conjugate COT pairs. Sutherland and Melhuish (2000) suggested that the MSC
838 propagated north to at least $\sim 48^\circ\text{S}$, just south of the Tauru Fault Zone. However, the new evidence
839 strongly argues that the Solander Basin is a failed continental rift at least north of $\sim 49.5^\circ\text{S}$.
840 Furthermore, we find no evidence that true seafloor spreading was active in the Solander Basin at
841 any time. We conclude that the Campbell Plateau rifted margin is much wider and longer than
842 previously thought and that the northern propagation limit of the MSC must be south of $\sim 49.5^\circ\text{S}$.

843 The latitude marking the transition from seafloor spreading along the MSC to continental
844 rifting between the Campbell and Challenger plateaus is a key constraint for regional plate tectonic
845 reconstructions. While the SISIE dataset only extends to $\sim 49.5^\circ\text{S}$, we revisit previous observations
846 and global datasets to define a new boundary between the oceanic and continental domains (COT)
847 of the Pacific Plate, and revising our preliminary SISIE interpretations which placed the transition
848 south of 49° (Gurnis et al., 2019). Tectonic reconstructions along the MRC are largely based on
849 magnetic anomaly and fracture zone correlations (Cande & Stock, 2004; Keller, 2004; Lebrun et
850 al., 2003; Massell et al., 2000). No clear fracture zones have been identified in the Solander Basin.
851 The northernmost potential fracture zone on the Pacific plate (Te Awa, Massell et al., 2000), albeit
852 controversial, extends from the McDougall-Puysegur trench transition at $\sim 50^\circ\text{S}$ and curves to the
853 edge of the Campbell Plateau at 51.5°S . The northernmost undisputed fracture zone for which a
854 conjugate visible on the Australian plate exists is FZ9 (Hayes et al., 2009; Keller, 2004), which
855 extends from the MRC at $\sim 51.5^\circ\text{S}$ and curves counterclockwise to $\sim 55.5^\circ\text{S}$, where it terminates
856 against north-south Emerald Basin fracture zones. Concurrently, the northern extent of clear
857 magnetic anomalies is just north of FZ9 up to $\sim 54^\circ\text{S}$, where the ocean crust ranges from ~ 40 - 30
858 Ma (Keller, 2004). Bathymetry and free-air gravity grids show several significant bathymetric
859 highs that have a blocky appearance, extending horizontally between the MRC and Campbell
860 Plateau at $\sim 51^\circ\text{S}$. Despite forming a massive and conspicuous seafloor expression, these features
861 have received little attention in previous literature with regards to the tectonic evolution of the
862 MRC. Likewise, the boundary between the Emerald and Solander basins is inferred to occur here
863 at $\sim 51^\circ\text{S}$, yet details of this transition are rarely discussed.

864 We propose that the boundary between the Solander and Emerald basins represents a major
865 change in the tectonic evolution of the AUS-PAC plate boundary. Key evidence derives from
866 regional potential field data, which shows a sharp increase in the Bouguer gravity anomaly
867 (McCubbine et al., 2017) from north to south (Figure 10). Bouguer gravity anomaly values south
868 of $\sim 51.5^\circ\text{S}$ are similar to those observed on the incoming oceanic Australian Plate and typical of
869 regional oceanic lithosphere. To the north, Bouguer gravity anomaly values are slightly reduced
870 and consistent with thinned continental domains found elsewhere in Zealandia, such as Bounty
871 Trough. A transfer zone between the oceanic crust in the Emerald Basin and the stretched
872 continental crust of the Solander Basin could explain the step in Bouguer gravity anomaly between

873 the two basins. Furthermore, plate reconstructions place the Resolution Ridge System against
874 Campbell Plateau just south of these blocky structures at ~45 Ma (Cande & Stock, 2004). All of
875 these lines of evidence argue that the NE-SW oriented COT along Campbell Plateau turns 90° at
876 ~51.5°S and intersects the MRC. This southern COT (and boundary between Solander and
877 Emerald basins and Eocene junction between the Challenger and Campbell plateaus) implies that
878 the upper Pacific Plate contains continental lithosphere along the entire Puysegur segment and that
879 the MSC did not propagate northward to the Puysegur margin. Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP)
880 site 279 recovered oceanic basalt near the McDougall Ridge in the Emerald Basin (Figure 10),
881 confirming the presence of oceanic lithosphere southwest of our proposed COT. The large blocky
882 highs along the southern COT likely formed as a result of the complicated transition from focused
883 seafloor spreading in the Emerald Basin to distributed continental rifting and inherited basement
884 structure from the junction of the Campbell and Challenger plateaus. Strong changes in the nature
885 of tectonic deformation across the COT could have caused a non-linear decrease in the amount of
886 extension from rifting in Solander Basin compared to efficient seafloor spreading at the MSC in
887 the Emerald Basin. Consequently, variations in properties of the lithosphere across the southern
888 COT signify an important inherited structure, which likely influenced subduction initiation and
889 segmentation of the AUS-PAC plate boundary over time.

890 **6.2 Origin of Puysegur Ridge**

891 We propose that the Puysegur Ridge (east of the strike-slip Puysegur Fault) is composed
892 entirely of continental lithosphere; therefore, it may not be a natural extension of the Hjort,
893 Macquarie, and McDougall oceanic ridges along the MRC. These other ridges are thought to be
894 the result of broader transpression across the AUS-PAC plate boundary since the Pliocene (e.g.,
895 Massell et al., 2000). There is good evidence that the regional Pliocene-recent transpressional
896 stresses have caused slight uplift of Puysegur Ridge; however, its earlier buoyancy and
897 paleotopography during strike-slip and subduction initiation were inherited from the continental
898 rifting phase.

899 Rift symmetry (or lack thereof) is commonly used to infer the primary stress conditions
900 and resulting strain patterns during extension of continental lithosphere (Lister et al., 1986).
901 Asymmetric rifts are not uncommon and typically involve one or more basin-wide detachment
902 faults (e.g., Axen & Bartley, 1997). It is thought that simple-shear is the primary strain regime to
903 invoke rift asymmetry because it involves rotation, which can lead to fault-bounded rider crustal
904 blocks exhuming along a weak rolling-hinge detachment. Though we have not imaged a deep
905 detachment fault beneath the Solander Basin, we believe that a rolling-hinge model can explain
906 the rift architecture along the SISIE-2 (northern) MCS/OBS profile, which is highly asymmetric.
907 Most crustal thinning occurred just west of Campbell Plateau, where landward-dipping normal
908 faults offset tilted high-relief crustal blocks. In contrast, along SISIE-1 the pure-shear stretching
909 model involves symmetric brittle faulting in the upper crust accompanied by uniform ductile flow
910 in the weak lower crust. The presence of both west and east-dipping normal faults and less
911 asymmetry on SISIE-1 suggest that the southern rift may have involved a combination of simple
912 and pure-shear deformation. Additionally, the relatively lower basement relief displayed on crustal
913 faults along SISIE-1 may reflect a polyphase history of multiple fault generations, wherein
914 younger faults offset older faults and act to flatten the crust over time (McDermott & Reston,
915 2015).

916 Our proposed evolution of continental rifting in the Solander Basin can explain the overall
917 basin architecture and the origin of Puysegur Ridge. Regardless of simple or pure shear stretching,
918 our β -value distributions confirm that crustal thinning was highly asymmetric on both profiles,

919 with the thinnest ($\beta \sim 4$) crust located adjacent to the Campbell Plateau (Figure S1). Overall, the
920 asymmetry of rifting processes focused thinning in eastern Solander Basin and gradually less
921 stretching towards the west. Strikingly, the crust at Puysegur Ridge shows little to no thinning (β
922 < 2) and has no sedimentary cover. Pliocene-recent shortening did not significantly thicken the
923 crust here, because the imaged throw across basement faults is minor (few 100s of meters) (Figure
924 6). This result implies that Puysegur Ridge was a prominent local topographic high at the end of
925 the rifting phase, and it has persisted as an important inherited structural feature along the AUS-
926 PAC boundary subsequently.

927 Our interpretation of the origin of Puysegur Ridge has two major implications. First, the
928 minimally thinned crust at Puysegur Ridge was likely proximal and/or continuous with unstretched
929 Challenger Plateau crust during the late stages of rifting. Hence there is not a missing conjugate to
930 the Solander Basin. This finding refutes the idea that a large section of oceanic lithosphere was
931 produced by symmetric seafloor spreading west of Solander Basin, and that this missing conjugate
932 seafloor was later subducted beneath South Island (e.g., Sutherland et al., 2000). The locus of
933 rifting and strike-slip along the Puysegur margin must be accounted for in future plate
934 reconstructions of Zealandia. Second, Puysegur Ridge was already a significant topographic high
935 during and after continental rifting. This result is important because it implies that the leading edge
936 of the Pacific Plate during convergence was thick and low-density continental crust, which
937 suggests buoyancy was a key controlling factor for the initiation of subduction at Puysegur (Gurnis
938 et al., 2019). Furthermore, the uplifted Puysegur Ridge likely acted as a barrier trapping most
939 sedimentary routing systems and shielding the Solander Basin from the Antarctic Circumpolar
940 Current (ACC), resulting in the thick basin fill observed today (e.g., Patel et al., 2020).

941 **6.3 Cessation of the Solander Basin Rift and Developing Strike-Slip Movement**

942 The timing involved in the transition from rifting to strike-slip motion along the Puysegur
943 margin is mostly constrained by magnetic anomalies in the Southeast Tasman Basin and farther
944 south in the Emerald Basin (Keller, 2004; Cande & Stock, 2004). Plate reconstructions show that
945 seafloor spreading along the MSC was relatively orthogonal between ~ 40 -30 Ma (Keller, 2004).
946 Southeastward migration of the stage rotation pole between 30-25 Ma, relative to the Pacific plate,
947 eventually established a new phase of dominantly right-lateral strike-slip motion along the entire
948 AUS-PAC plate boundary. Spreading segments became shorter and fracture zones curved,
949 eventually linking and forming the MRC. Based on proximity to the rotation pole, plate motions
950 suggest that the transition to strike-slip may have started in the north and slowly propagated
951 southward.

952 Our results indicate that strike-slip motion along the Puysegur margin localized westward
953 of the extensional structures developed during continental rifting. This result may be surprising
954 given that the thinnest crust and focus of rifting was adjacent to Campbell Plateau, approximately
955 60-90 km east of the eventual location of strike slip strain localization. Moreover, our β
956 distributions (Figure S1) reveal that strike-slip localized within relatively thicker and apparently
957 stronger crust of the adjacent Challenger Plateau, which was located to the west of Puysegur Ridge.
958 We speculate that strike-slip localization outside the rift zone at the Puysegur Margin may have
959 been preferred due to alignment with the developing strike-slip along the MRC plate boundary in
960 the south, which was located farther west than the locus of rifting (Keller, 2004). In addition,
961 igneous intrusions in the thinned continental crust and cooling of the uppermost mantle of the rift
962 zone may have homogenized and strengthened the lithosphere, thus resisting strain localization
963 within the Solander Basin after ~ 25 Ma. Regardless of the mechanisms, strike-slip strain
964 localization west of the rift zone effectively severed the extended crust domain and abandoned it

965 as a failed rift basin on the Pacific Plate. Consequently, the Solander Basin rift never achieved full
966 continental breakup and seafloor spreading due to changing plate motions which shifted the locus
967 of deformation.

968 By the end of the Oligocene, strike-slip was the dominant style of plate motion along the
969 entire AUS-PAC plate boundary. Although estimates vary, it is well accepted that at least 400 km
970 of dextral motion (e.g., Sutherland, 1999) has occurred on the Alpine Fault (and presumably the
971 MRC) since ~25 Ma. Thus, the question remains, what happened to the lithosphere west of the
972 dextral strike-slip Puysegur Fault Zone? An older accepted view of the tectonic history assumes
973 that symmetric seafloor spreading between the Campbell Plateau to the east and Challenger Plateau
974 to the west produced a wide swath of oceanic lithosphere. In this scenario, the eastern flank of the
975 oceanic rift now lies beneath the Solander Basin, while the conjugate western flank subducted
976 beneath South Island (Sutherland, 1995; Sutherland et al., 2000; Lebrun et al., 2003; Hayes et al.,
977 2009).

978 Closer to South Island, the location of Oligocene strike-slip development and eventual
979 connection between the Puysegur and Alpine faults remain unclear. As noted earlier, strike-slip
980 faulting clearly becomes more distributed north of ~48°S and from east to west the structures curve
981 counterclockwise to the northwest in a left-stepping fashion (Lamarche & Lebrun, 2000). Many
982 plate reconstructions ignore this complex zone of deformation along the South Island continental
983 shelf and perform rigid plate reconstructions along the present-day Alpine Fault. As a result, these
984 rigid reconstructions often have significant overlap between the Challenger and Campbell plateaus
985 and fail to align the geological terranes exposed on the South Island (e.g., Lamb et al., 2016). In
986 particular, reconstructing the location of the Fiordland block and estimating the distribution of
987 strain within Fiordland has been problematic.

988 As an alternative, Lebrun et al. (2003) proposed that the proto-strike-slip plate boundary
989 developed on the Moonlight Fault System (MFS) located to the east of Fiordland. The kinematic
990 reconstructions of Lebrun et al. (2003) translate Fiordland ~30 km to the northeast between the
991 Oligocene and Middle Miocene, supported by geometric observations of onshore terranes, and
992 geological evidence of ~25-30 km of dextral strike-slip across the MFS (Norris and Turnbull,
993 1993; Uruski, 1992 – see Lebrun 2003). We prefer the model of Lebrun et al. (2003), where the
994 Fiordland block was mechanically attached to the Australian Plate initially. This scenario would
995 imply that the dextral shear zone offset Puysegur Ridge from relatively unstretched continental
996 lithosphere of the eastern Challenger Plateau. The eventual westward migration of strain from the
997 MFS to the Balleny, Alpine, and other faults in a left-stepping fashion may have been associated
998 with the “docking” of the Fiordland block. Increased northward convergence of relatively thick
999 continental lithosphere over time would likely have induced a modest collision zone within and
1000 behind the Fiordland block. Evidence for uplift along northern Puysegur Bank has been well
1001 documented (Lamarche & Lebrun, 2000; Sutherland et al., 2006) and includes tilted and truncated
1002 beds with recovered dredge samples containing pollen and spores from a coastal environment.
1003 Detailed thermochronology data constrain the onset of rapid exhumation at ~25 Ma starting in
1004 southwestern Fiordland (House et al., 2002; Sutherland et al., 2009). Recent structural analyses of
1005 Fiordland rocks reveal a distinct phase of transpression with mixed dextral strike-slip and oblique
1006 shearing from ~25-10 Ma (Klepeis et al., 2019). Additionally, chronostratigraphic analyses of
1007 Solander Basin show that the sediment accumulation rates spiked in the Middle Miocene,
1008 suggesting that Fiordland orogenesis became a significant sediment source at this time. Based on
1009 these accounts, it is likely that early phases of uplift in Fiordland and offshore Puysegur Bank are

1010 related to continent collision and the formation of a transpressional relay zone between the MFS
1011 and the Alpine Fault as convergence along the plate boundary increased over time.

1012 **6.4 Geodynamic Setting of Subduction Initiation**

1013 Earlier phases of continental rifting and strike-slip activity along the Puysegur margin
1014 created the necessary conditions for subduction initiation. New seismic images from the SISIE
1015 survey have revealed that the Solander Basin basement consists entirely of extended continental
1016 crust formed during Eocene-Oligocene extension (Gurnis et al., 2019; this study), not oceanic crust
1017 as previously thought. Subsequent strike-slip deformation developed west of the rift zone, either
1018 because of preferable geometric linkage to the MRC farther south, or because the lithosphere in
1019 the rift zone, albeit extended and magmatically intruded, was relatively strong. Therefore,
1020 continental rifting alone did not create strongly favorable conditions to facilitate underthrusting,
1021 and convergence across the margin at ~30 Ma would probably not have advanced to subduction
1022 initiation. Instead, the ensuing episode of dextral strike-slip caused several events which promoted
1023 favorable conditions for subduction initiation: (1) Continental collision between Puysegur Bank
1024 and South Island formed a restraining bend with left-stepping, right-lateral faults between the MFS
1025 and Alpine fault; (2) trailing oceanic lithosphere created on the Australian side of the MSC was
1026 translated northward by the MRC and juxtaposed with Fiordland to the north and thick continental
1027 crust of Puysegur Ridge to the east; (3) gradual counterclockwise rotation of the Balleny relay
1028 zone faults to a NW-SE orientation became favorably oriented to accommodate more compression
1029 and shortening; (4) erosion of the Fiordland mountains and the establishment of sediment routing
1030 systems transported sediments across the margin along the proto-trench and therefore could have
1031 hosted fluids to weaken the nascent subduction interface.

1032 These favorable geodynamic conditions culminated in subduction initiation in the Middle
1033 Miocene near present-day Puysegur Bank. The existence of weakening mechanisms and
1034 progressively increased plate convergence ultimately allowed subduction to initiate as oceanic
1035 lithosphere was forcibly underthrust beneath the continental collision zone. The nascent
1036 subduction thrust successively developed and spread to the south along the Puysegur margin over
1037 time. Our preferred model of subduction initiation at a restraining bend is in good agreement with
1038 models put forth by Lamarche & Lebrun (2000) and Lebrun et al. (2003), which is remarkable
1039 given the lack of deep-penetrating seismic data along the margin before the SISIE survey. Other
1040 prevailing models of subduction initiation at Puysegur including at an oceanic fracture zone (Collot
1041 et al., 1995) are not consistent with our findings.

1042 Ongoing debate regarding the different subduction initiation models mostly arises from
1043 outstanding questions regarding the nature of the lithosphere between the Puysegur Trench and
1044 Puysegur Fault, and whether underthrusting took place on an existing fault that rotated over time
1045 or on a new fault that broke at a shallower angle. Up to this point, it was thought that most of the
1046 Puysegur subduction zone is intraoceanic, i.e. oceanic lithosphere exists to the west and east of the
1047 Puysegur Fault. Here we have established that the eastern flank of Puysegur Ridge is composed of
1048 extended continental crust, and we observe a major seismic velocity contrast across the Puysegur
1049 Fault. Therefore, it is likely that the lithosphere between the Puysegur trench and ridge is oceanic
1050 in nature and has been juxtaposed with the Solander Basin rift domain by the Puysegur Fault.
1051 Collot et al. (1995) suggested that a lithospheric density contrast occurs across Puysegur Ridge,
1052 since bathymetry data show that the western flank is more than 1 km deeper than the eastern flank
1053 in some places. Hatherton (1967) early on recognized a strong positive magnetic anomaly
1054 associated with the Puysegur Ridge and attributed it to uplifted oceanic lithosphere. Shipboard
1055 magnetic anomaly data from MGL1803 reveal that magnetic anomaly is typically higher on the

1056 western side of Puysegur Ridge and support a continental-oceanic juxtaposition (Figure 10).
1057 Additionally, although few and sparse, dredge samples from the western flank of Puysegur Ridge
1058 and southern Puysegur Bank found altered cobbles of basalt, diabase, and gabbro with mid-ocean
1059 ridge basalt and ocean-island basalt affinities (Figure 10; Mortimer, 1994), consistent with the
1060 geochemistry of other igneous rocks sampled along the MRC. Recent work by Hightower et al.
1061 (2019) performed 3D Bayesian inversion of gravity data and confirmed the presence of high-
1062 density bodies along the western flank of Puysegur Ridge. Lamarche and Lebrun (2000) proposed
1063 that the lithosphere between the Puysegur Fault and Puysegur Trench forms an oceanic tectonic
1064 sliver, which moves independently of the Australian and Pacific plates.

1065 Our findings support the existence of an oceanic sliver, which was likely captured during
1066 the subduction initiation process. This sliver appears to now behave as a strain-partitioned, forearc
1067 sliver observed in many subduction zones (e.g., Fitch, 1972; Martin et al., 2010; 2014). We
1068 speculate that subduction started primarily at the COT but a piece of the initially downgoing
1069 oceanic lithosphere became scraped off and detached in the process. This scenario would imply
1070 that a new plate boundary fault formed west of the COT. It is possible that the wedge shape of the
1071 sliver could reflect growth through time, and that fracture zones may have progressively linked
1072 with the developing subduction interface resulting in the capture of oceanic lithosphere fragments
1073 to the sliver. Puysegur Bank and Puysegur Ridge are exciting targets for future ocean drilling
1074 expeditions and passive ocean-bottom seismometer deployments that are needed to verify the
1075 tectonic origin of the sliver and uncover details of the subduction initiation process along the
1076 margin.

1077 **6.5 Reconciliation with Plate Reconstructions**

1078 Until we gathered new regional seismic images, there was a debate about the nature of the
1079 Australian Plate crust that first entered the Puysegur subduction zone and speculations about the
1080 present-day location of this missing lithosphere (Sutherland, 1995; Sutherland et al., 2000; Lebrun
1081 et al., 2003; Sutherland et al., 2006). The amount of subducted material has been estimated using
1082 plate reconstructions constrained by magnetic isochrons and the present-day location of the slab
1083 from earthquake seismicity data (Sutherland et al., 2000). Using best-fitting plate reconstruction
1084 models, it was estimated that in total $\sim 9 \times 10^4$ km² of oceanic lithosphere has disappeared beneath
1085 South Island since subduction initiated (Sutherland et al., 2000). However, Sutherland et al. (2000)
1086 discovered that a slab reconstruction based on the geometry of deep seismicity can account for
1087 only $\sim 6 \times 10^4$ km² of underthrust seafloor, leaving at least $\sim 3 \times 10^4$ km² Australian Plate crust
1088 missing in the reconstructions and undetected seismically. Sutherland et al. (2000) proposed that
1089 the missing lithosphere may be aseismic but still attached to the Challenger Plateau, and currently
1090 beneath the western edge of the Southern Alps. Alternatively, Lebrun et al. (2003) suggested that
1091 the aseismic lithosphere became detached and underplated beneath the South Island to explain the
1092 anomalous high-velocity zone beneath Fiordland in seismic tomography images (Eberhart-Phillips
1093 & Reyners, 2001; Reyners et al., 2002). As a new alternative, we propose instead that the mismatch
1094 in missing and underthrust seafloor likely arises from incorrect assumptions about the nature of
1095 the crust and plate boundary during the Eocene-Miocene between ~ 51 - 47° S.

1096 To calculate the area of subducted oceanic lithosphere, Sutherland et al. (2000) and
1097 successive studies made the following assumptions: (1) a passive margin exists along the west
1098 edge of the Campbell Plateau from $\sim 47^\circ$ S to 55° S; (2) the Solander Basin contains Eocene-
1099 Miocene aged oceanic crust created by seafloor spreading along the MSC; (3) every passive margin
1100 formed by extension and every piece of oceanic lithosphere has a conjugate feature formed
1101 contemporaneously; and (4) Australian-Pacific plate motion since 45 Ma is known precisely. Our

1102 results, however, support the following: (1) the western edge of Campbell Plateau instead
1103 represents a failed rift north of $\sim 51.5^{\circ}\text{S}$; (2) seafloor spreading was never active in the Solander
1104 Basin; (3) continental crust in the Solander Basin has been asymmetrically extended and does not
1105 have a missing conjugate; and (4) slightly less extension occurred in the Solander Basin ($\sim 47\text{-}75$
1106 km) than what is predicted by fitting rotation poles using magnetic anomalies from the Emerald
1107 Basin. Thus, we alternatively suggest that the missing aseismic lithosphere does not exist and is
1108 merely an artifact of plate reconstruction assumptions. With these assumptions, previous plate
1109 reconstructions suggested that the first crust to subduct was young and hot oceanic lithosphere
1110 created at the MSC at a similar latitude as the proto Puysegur Trench. Conversely, in our proposed
1111 model, the first material involved in subduction would have actually been oceanic lithosphere
1112 created at the MSC south of $\sim 51^{\circ}\text{S}$. In this scenario, the underthrusting oceanic lithosphere would
1113 be at least ~ 10 million years old and therefore inherently negatively buoyant relative to continental
1114 lithosphere and thus less resistant to subduction initiation (Cloos, 1993; Leng and Gurnis, 2015).

1115 **7. Summary of Revised Tectonic Evolution**

1116 We propose an updated Cenozoic tectonic evolution of the Australian-Pacific plate
1117 boundary from new active-source seismic constraints along the Puysegur margin (Figure 11).
1118 Throughout the late Cretaceous-Paleocene, Zealandia continued to drift away from Antarctica and
1119 Australia by the creation of new oceanic lithosphere along the Tasman Sea and Antarctic-Pacific
1120 spreading centers. In the Early Eocene, a dramatic change in plate motions caused the cessation of
1121 seafloor spreading in the Tasman Sea around ~ 53 Ma. Around ~ 45 Ma, a new phase of seafloor
1122 spreading was established along the Macquarie Spreading Center, which defined the proto
1123 Australian-Pacific plate boundary and propagated from south to north. The MSC initiated as an
1124 intraoceanic rift and quickly proceeded to seafloor spreading in the Macquarie Basin,
1125 accommodating east-west AUS-PAC extension. As the northern tip of the MSC approached the
1126 Campbell Plateau, the rift reactivated structures of the Cretaceous COT west of Campbell Plateau.
1127 This process included rafting several narrow blocks of continental crust off the plateau, which now
1128 form the continental domain of the Resolution Ridge System on the present-day Australian Plate.
1129 However, near 51.5°S the MSC met the junction of the Challenger and Campbell plateaus and was
1130 not able to propagate farther north into the thick continental lithosphere. From the middle Eocene
1131 to early Oligocene and north of $\sim 51.5^{\circ}\text{S}$, nearly orthogonal plate movement was accommodated
1132 by distributed tectonic extension that thinned the crust and created the Solander Basin. This
1133 episode of rifting involved large-offset normal faults concurrent with syn-rift sediment flux and
1134 rift-related volcanism and magmatic underplating. Crustal stretching was highly asymmetric and
1135 produced the thinnest crust adjacent to the western edge of Campbell Plateau, which aligned with
1136 the Eocene rifted margin farther south. Farther south at this time, seafloor spreading was active
1137 along the MSC accreting new oceanic lithosphere in a symmetric fashion.

1138 Relative AUS-PAC plate motion became increasingly oblique when the rotation pole
1139 migrated southward during the late Oligocene to early Miocene, resulting in short and oblique
1140 spreading centers separated by long-offset fracture zones along the MSC. Curved fracture zones
1141 in the Tasman Sea are evidence that ~ 25 Ma motion along the AUS-PAC plate boundary was
1142 dominantly dextral strike-slip as fracture zones linked and formed the MRC. However, along the
1143 Puysegur margin, strike-slip localized $\sim 70\text{-}100$ km west of the rift axis in relatively unstretched
1144 crust, possibly to better align with strike-slip motion along the MRC to the south. This
1145 reorganization effectively severed the zone of thinned continental crust and preserved the Solander
1146 Basin as a failed rift on the Pacific Plate. The new dextral strike-slip boundary propagated
1147 northward, initially along the Hauroko and Moonlight Fault System east of Fiordland. Strike-slip

1148 motion translated relatively thick continental lithosphere of the eastern Challenger Plateau and
1149 trailing Australian oceanic lithosphere northward. Docking of the Fiordland block in southwestern
1150 South Island led to a new phase of dextral transpression and uplift in Fiordland and Puysegur Bank.
1151 This stage of transpression (~25-16 Ma) created new faults that formed in a left-stepping, right-
1152 lateral geometry, forming a transpressional relay zone between the MFS and the developing Alpine
1153 Fault to the west. Strike-slip motion along the MFS diminished as new faults rotated
1154 counterclockwise and accommodated increasing plate convergence. Strong compressional stresses
1155 produced distributed dextral shear across the relay and sparked the initial orogenesis in Fiordland.

1156 During the Middle Miocene, several inherited structures and weakening mechanisms
1157 facilitated subduction initiation at the Puysegur Trench. Thin and dense oceanic lithosphere
1158 forcibly underthrust beneath the thickened and uplifted continental relay zone near Puysegur Bank.
1159 Between ~16-7 Ma, the nascent trench lengthened along the strike of the plate boundary and
1160 captured detached fragments of Australian oceanic lithosphere, forming a tectonic sliver between
1161 the Puysegur Trench and Puysegur Fault. Dynamic stresses accompanying the subduction
1162 initiation process generated uplift and inversion of older rift faults in the upper plate and triggered
1163 distributed and rapid exhumation in Fiordland as the crust was propped up by the underthrusting
1164 slab. The creation of significant topography in the South Island led to erosion and enhanced
1165 sediment flux filling most of the Solander Basin low. Tectonic uplift throughout northern Puysegur
1166 margin ceased by ~8 Ma, possibly in response to deepening of the slab and hence an increase in
1167 its negative buoyancy. Since the Middle Miocene, the trench has lengthened and propagated
1168 southward through time, accommodating more AUS-PAC plate convergence and generating a
1169 wave of uplift along the southern Puysegur Ridge. The leading edge of the Resolution Ridge
1170 System collided with the overriding Pacific Plate at ~5 Ma, triggering renewed uplift in Fiordland
1171 and widespread thrusting along the southern continental shelf of the South Island. Quaternary
1172 adakitic volcanism at Solander Island represents the first signature of subduction-related
1173 volcanism, indicating that the Australian slab has reached appropriate depths and temperatures to
1174 undergo partial melting. Pliocene-Recent subsidence in southern Puysegur Bank, Snares Zone, and
1175 northern Puysegur Ridge, as well as normal faulting in northern Solander Basin, suggest that
1176 subduction may now be approaching a self-sustaining state along the northern Puysegur margin.
1177 In contrast, significant compressional stresses support the uplifted Puysegur Ridge and active
1178 reverse faulting in western Solander Basin, demonstrating that the southern margin is currently in
1179 a younger incipient stage of subduction.

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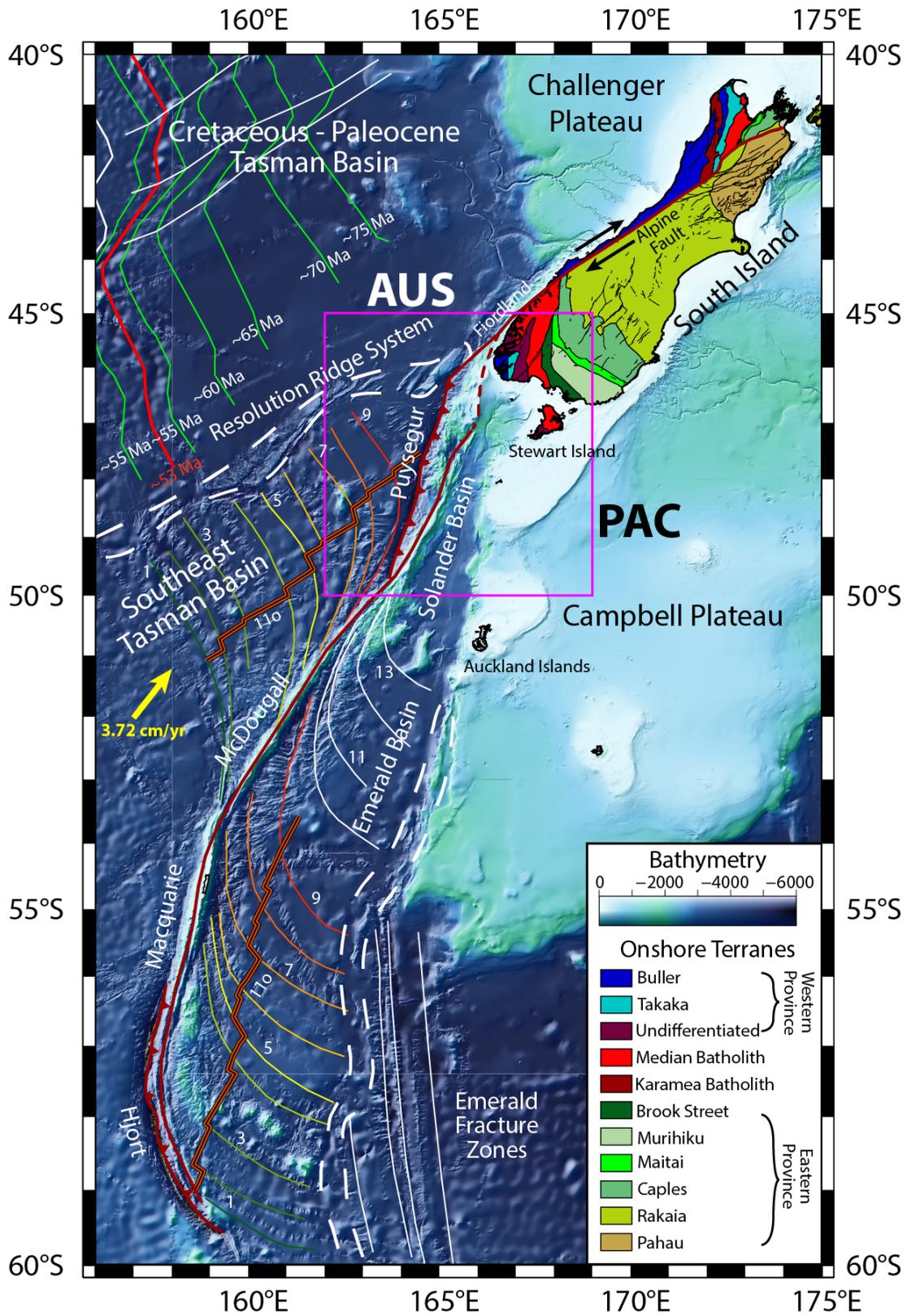
1181 **Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data**

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1197 Uninterpreted and interpreted seismic images shown in this study can be found in the supporting
1198 information. Underway geophysical data from MGL1803 are available from the Rolling Deck
1199 Repository (<http://doi.org/10.7284/907966>). Raw and processed seismic data used in this study
1200 are available through the Marine Geoscience Data System
1201 (<http://doi.org/10.1594/IEDA/324659/>). This is UTIG Contribution #XXXX.

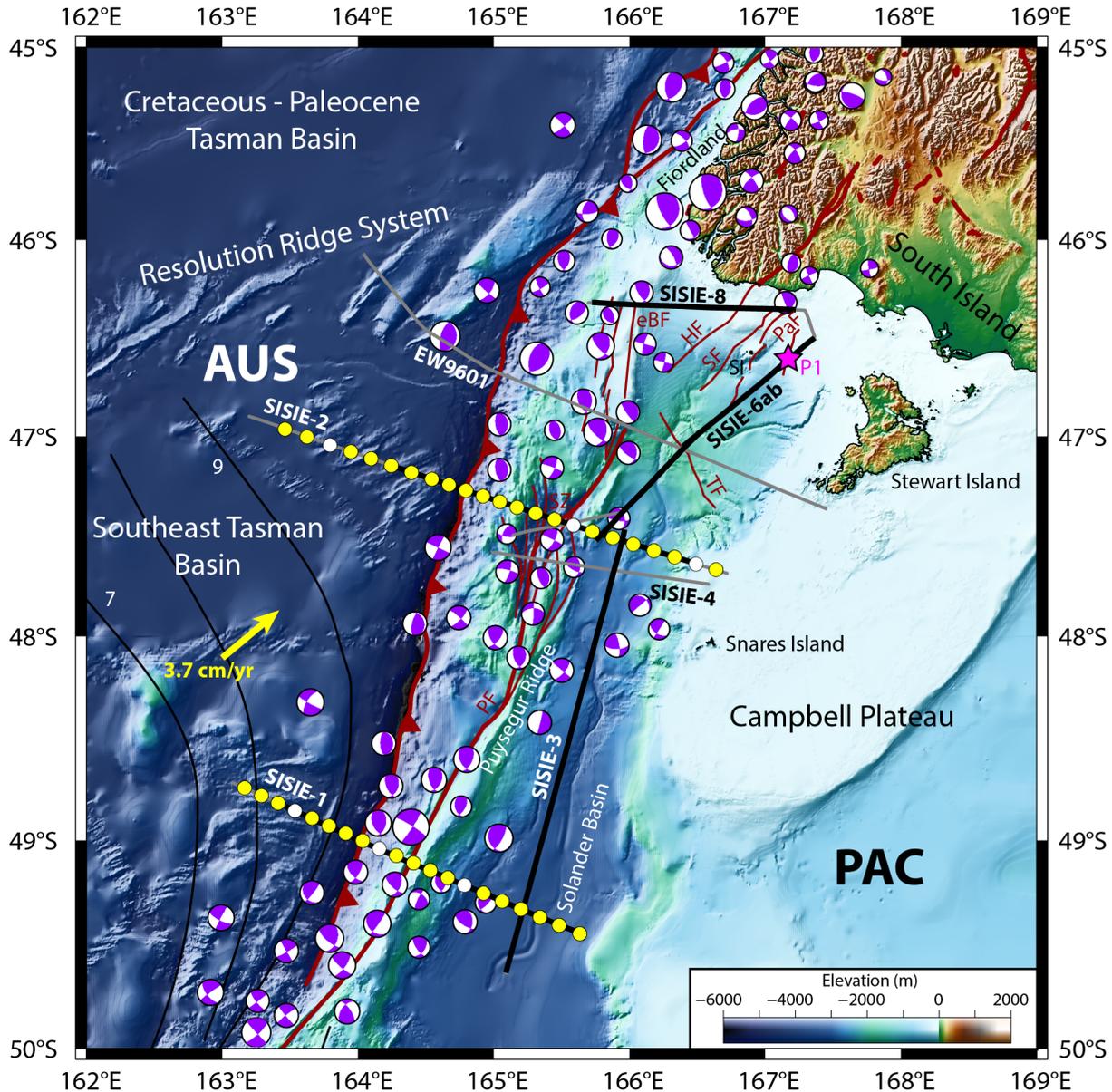
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1234 **Figures and Figure Captions**



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1236 Figure 1. Tectonic setting of the Australia (AUS) – Pacific (PAC) plate boundary south of New
1237 Zealand. Major strike-slip faults and trenches along the plate boundary are shown in red.
1238 Onshore faults shown in black. Pink box shows extent of Figure 2. Offshore bathymetry is
1239 plotted with artificial illumination from the northwest. Onshore geological terrane boundaries
1240 and mapped faults modified from GNS QMAP (Heron, 2018;
1241 [https://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Our-Science/Land-and-Marine-Geoscience/Regional-
1242 Geology/Geological-Maps/1-250-000-Geological-Map-of-New-Zealand-QMAP](https://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Our-Science/Land-and-Marine-Geoscience/Regional-Geology/Geological-Maps/1-250-000-Geological-Map-of-New-Zealand-QMAP)) and Cox and
1243 Sutherland (2007). Bathymetry data is publicly available from GEBCO
1244 ([https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded bathymetry data/](https://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/)) and NIWA
1245 (<https://niwa.co.nz/our-science/oceans/bathymetry>). Isochrons of the Cretaceous-Paleocene
1246 Tasman Basin extracted from seafloor age database of Müller et al., (2008). Isochron 11o
1247 (~30.10 Ma) in the Southeast Tasman Basin from Keller (2004). Fracture zones in the Southeast
1248 Tasman Basin from Hayes et al. (2009) modified from Keller (2004) and Massell et al., (2000).
1249 Relative Australian Plate velocity from MORVEL (DeMets et al., 2010).
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 1253 Figure 2. Elevation map showing major tectonic features of the Puysegur margin and the SISIE
 1254 survey. Gray lines are the total extent of SISIE MCS lines, while thick black lines show the
 1255 extent of the seismic lines shown in the figures of this paper. The location of the EW9601
 1256 seismic profile (Melhuish et al., 1999; Sutherland and Melhuish, 2000) is also shown in gray.
 1257 Yellow circles represent successful OBS data used in analysis of this study; white circles
 1258 represent OBS deployments with failed recovery or data recording. Pink star is the location of
 1259 the Parara-1 borehole. Selected focal mechanisms from the global CMT (Dziewonski et al.,
 1260 1981; Ekström et al., 2012) and GeoNet ([https://github.com/GeoNet/data/tree/master/moment-](https://github.com/GeoNet/data/tree/master/moment-tensor)
 1261 [tensor](https://github.com/GeoNet/data/tree/master/moment-tensor)) earthquake catalogs. Offshore faults modified after Sutherland and Melhuish (2000) and
 1262 Sutherland et al. (2006). SZ = Snares Zone; PB = Puysegur Bank; PF = Puysegur Fault; TF =
 1263 Tauru Fault; PaF = Parara Fault; SF = Solander Fault; HF = Hauroko Fault; eBF = eastern
 1264 Balleny Fault; SI = Solander Island.

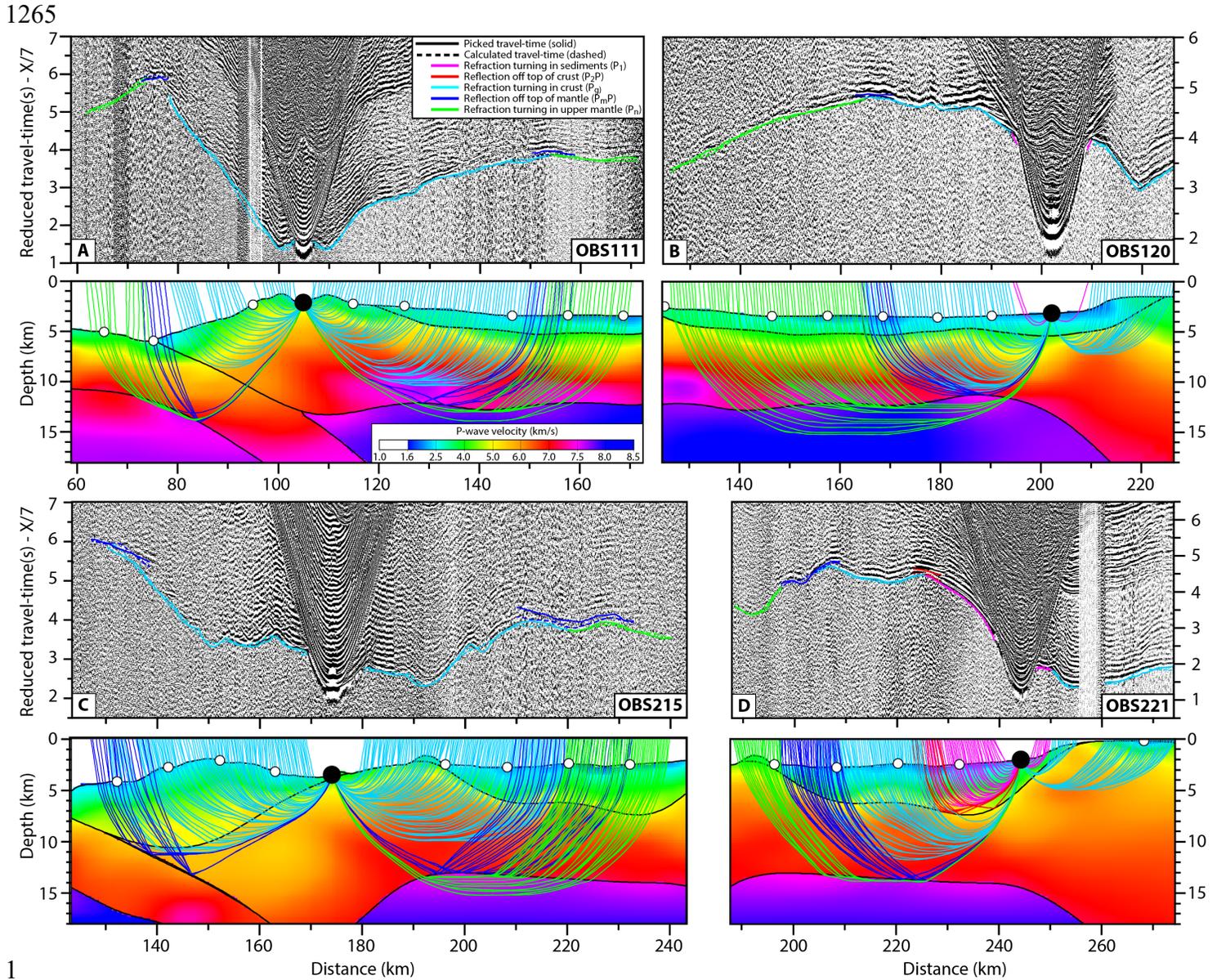
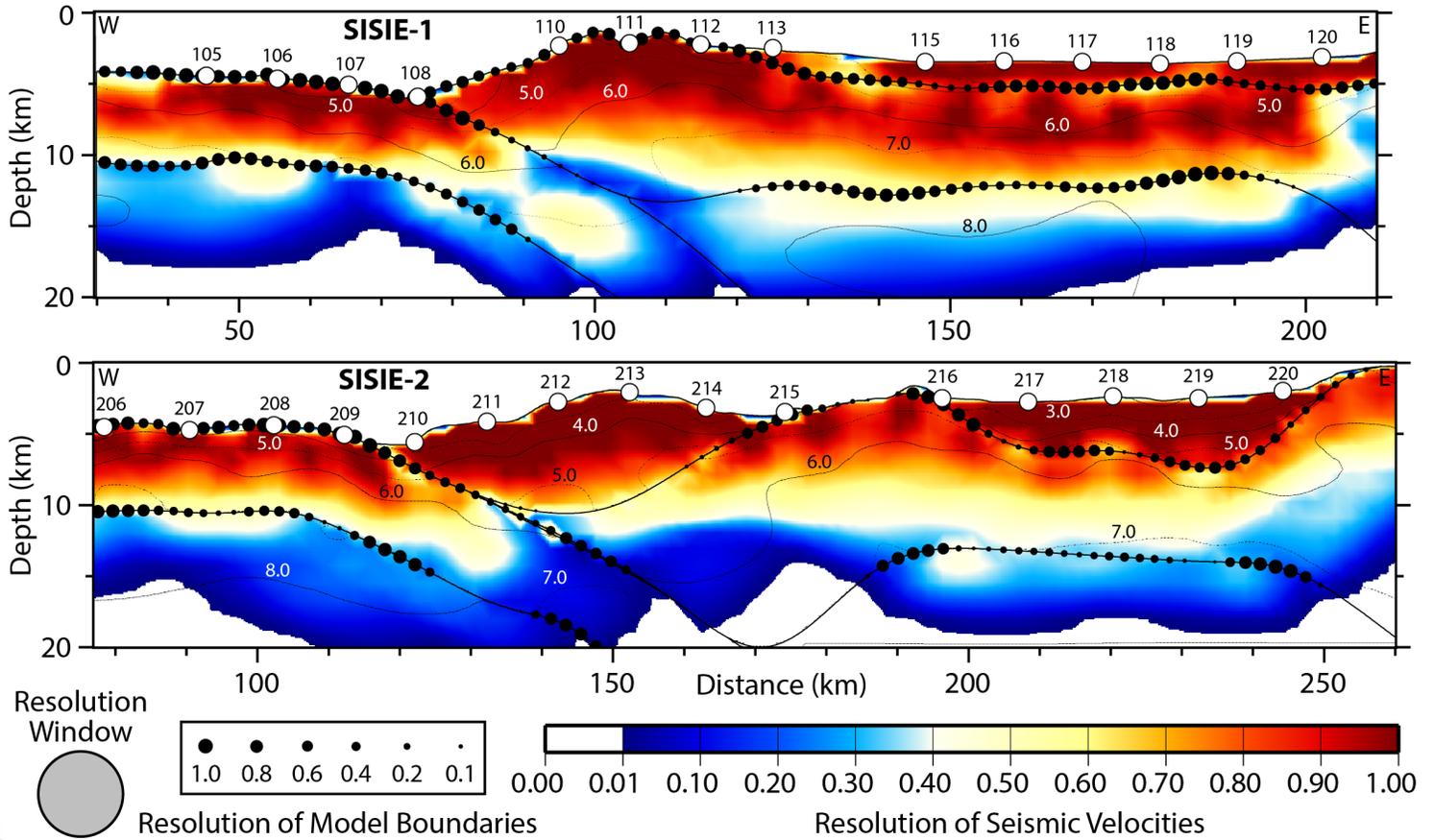
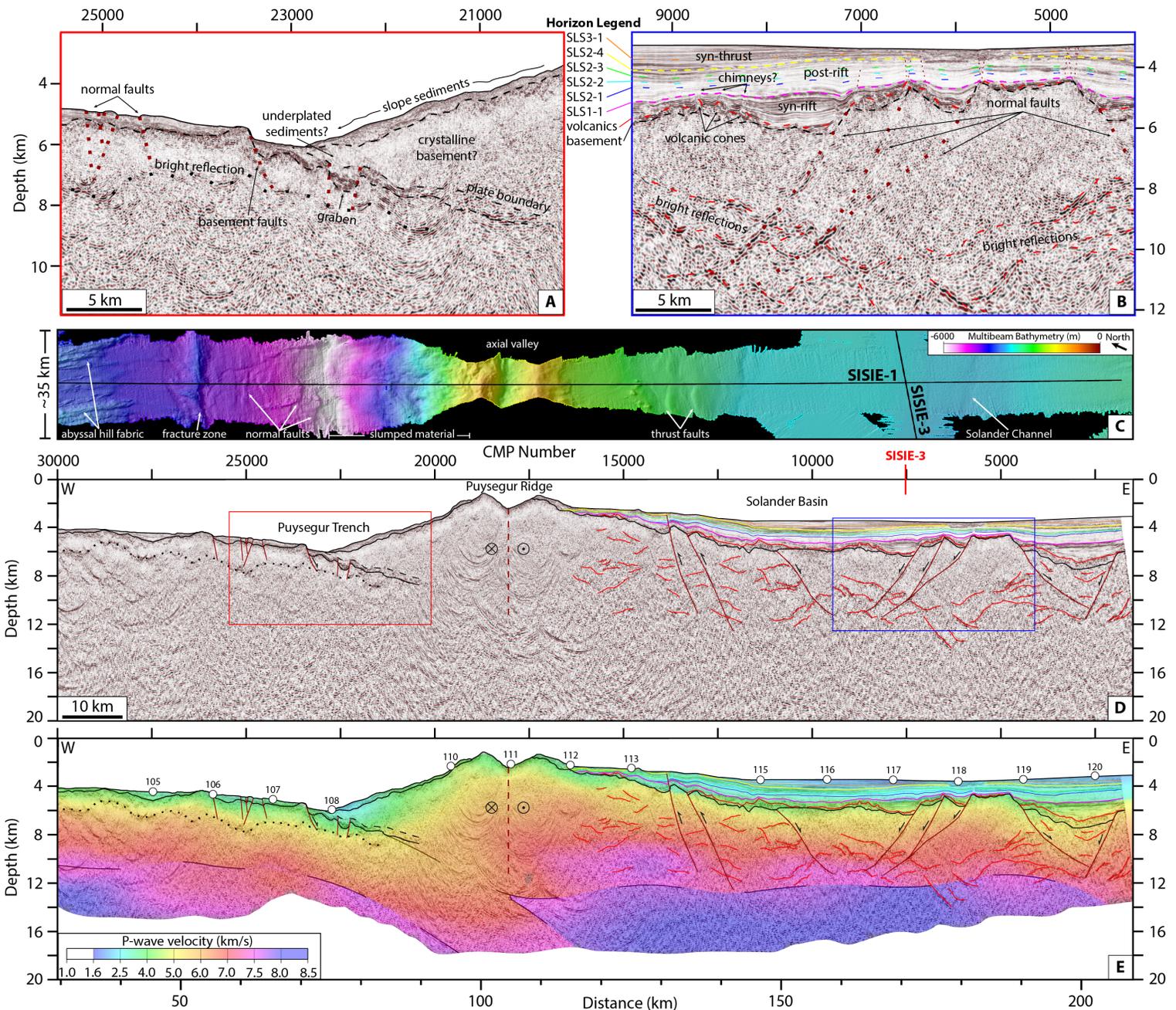


Figure 3. Interpreted OBS records and corresponding raytrace diagrams for instruments along SISIE-1 and SISIE-2. (a): Compressional waves for OBS111 at axis of Puysegur Ridge on SISIE-1. (b): Compressional waves for OBS120 at eastern Solander Basin on SISIE-1. (c): Compressional waves for OBS215 at the axial valley of the Snares Zone on SISIE-2. (d): Compressional waves for OBS221 at eastern Solander Basin on SISIE-2.

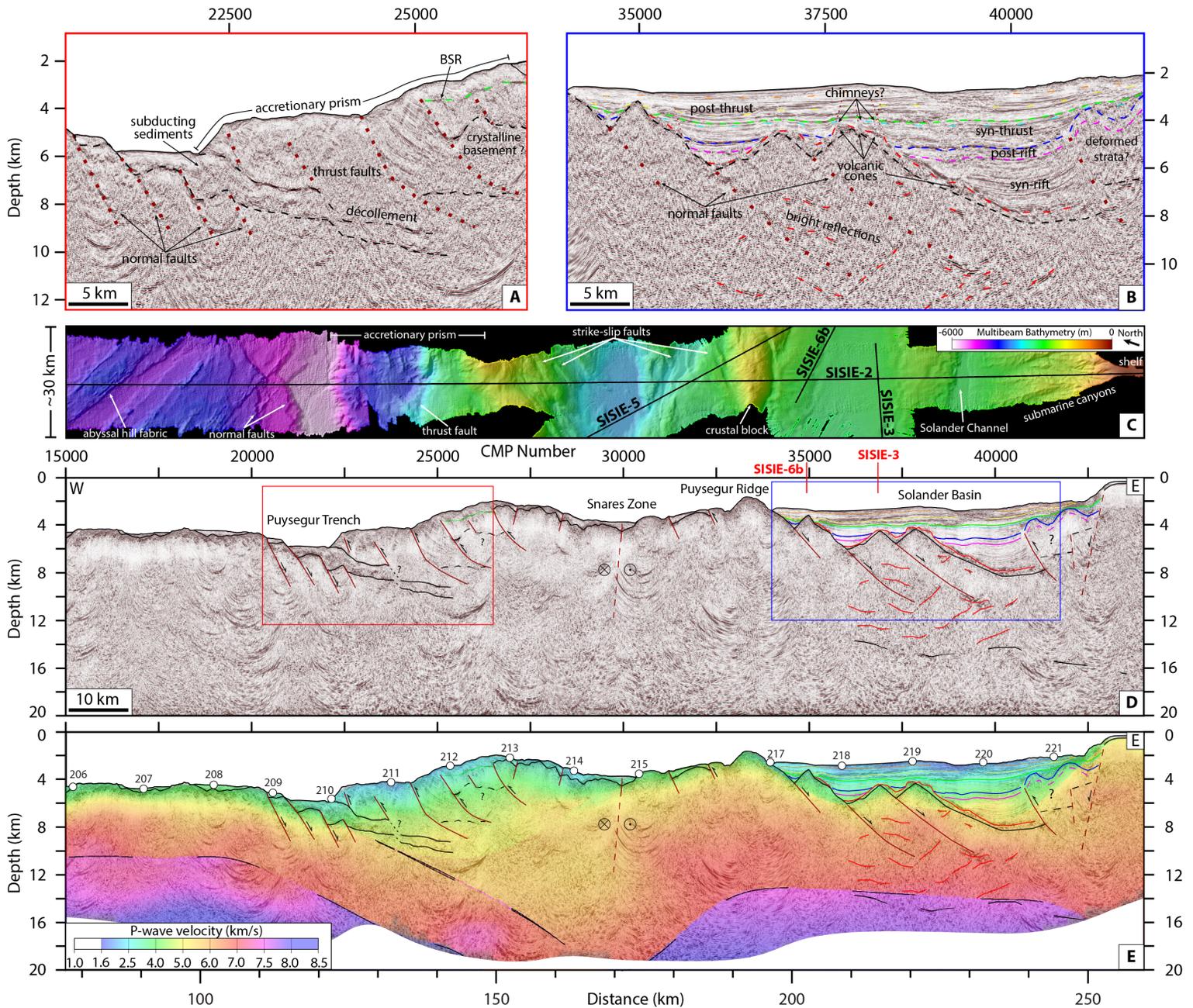


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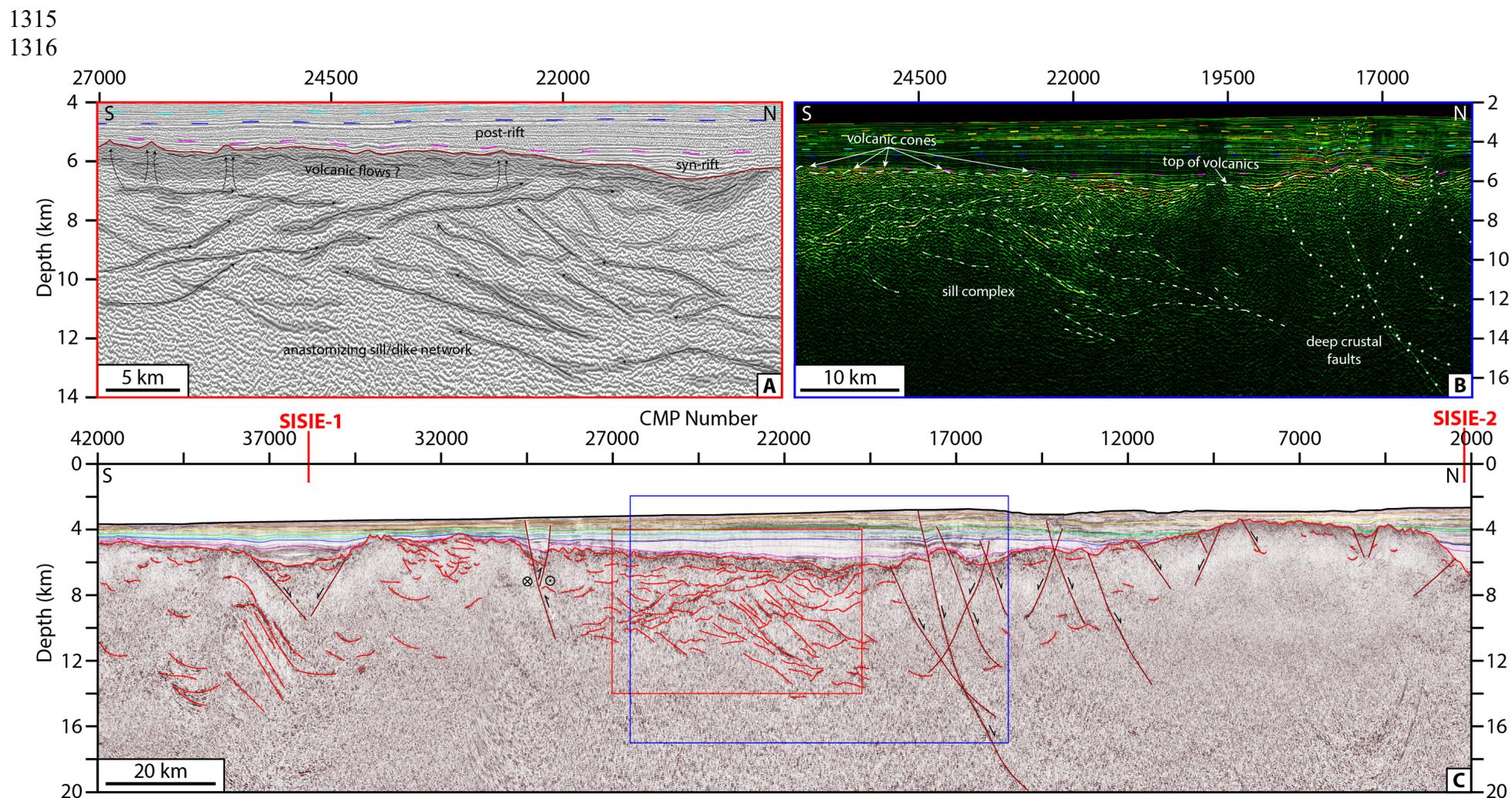
Figure 4. Resolution plots of final preferred tomography models for SISIE-1 and SISIE-2. Resolution obtained by applying the resolution matrix to a 12 km horizontal by 6 km vertical elliptical test structure. Resolution values of 1.0 are considered fully recovered, and we consider values >0.4 to be well recovered. Contours of P-wave velocity are at 1.0 km/s intervals.



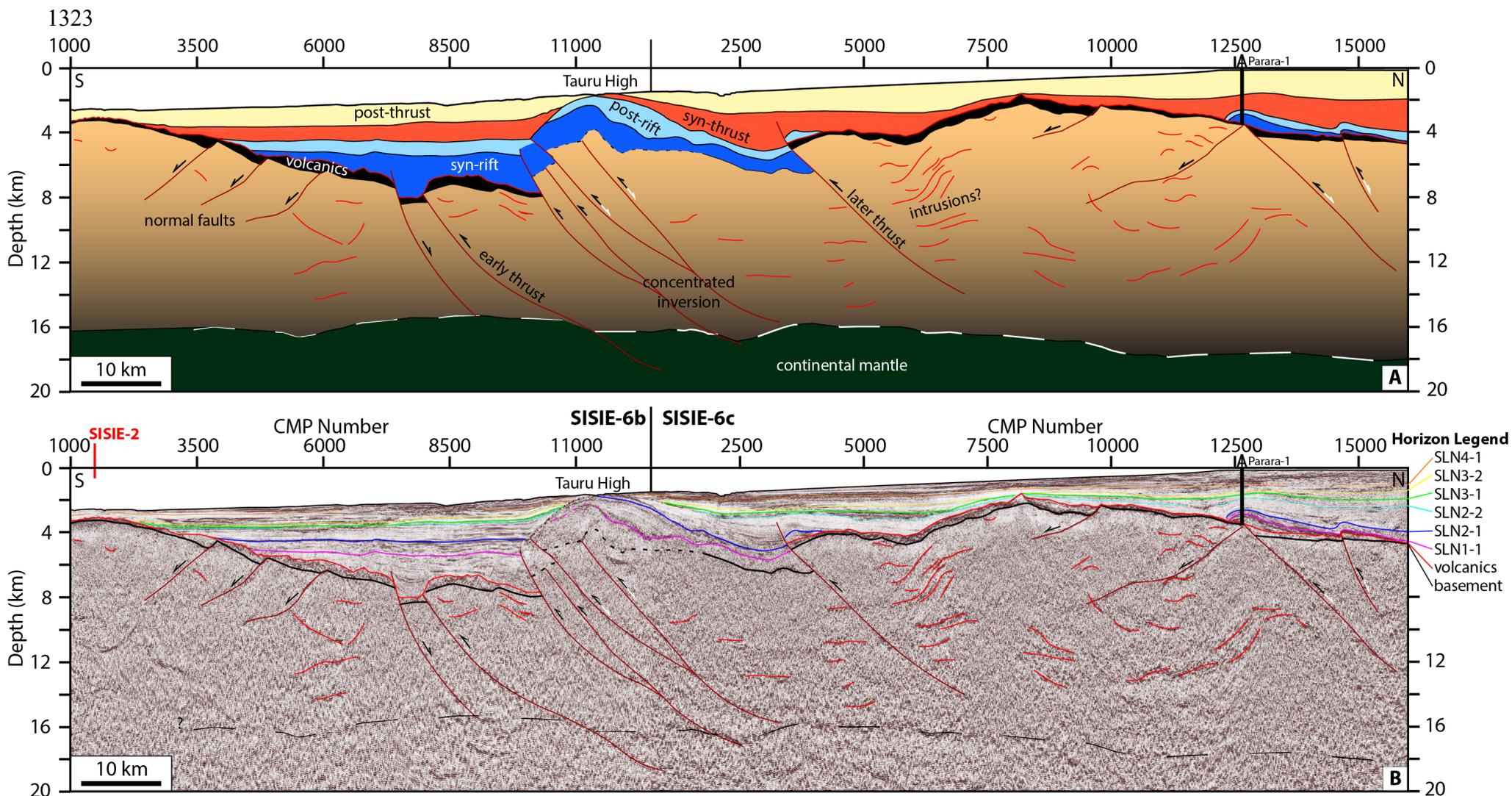
1297 Figure 5. MCS, OBS, and bathymetry data along SISIE-1. (a): Zoom-in showing structure of the
 1298 Puysegur Trench region (V.E. = 2x). (b): Zoom-in showing tectonostratigraphic interpretation,
 1299 faulted crustal blocks, and intracrustal reflectivity within Solander Basin (V.E. = 2x). (c):
 1300 Interpretation of shipboard multibeam bathymetry data. Bathymetry swath aligned with seismic
 1301 profiles in d and e. (d): Pre-stack depth migrated MCS reflection image of the SISIE-1 profile
 1302 (V.E. = 2x). Red lines outline bright intracrustal reflections. Black line is the top of basement
 1303 reflection. (e): Compressional-wave (V_p) seismic velocity model overlain on MCS image in d.
 1304 Velocity model is masked in regions with poor resolution and ray coverage.



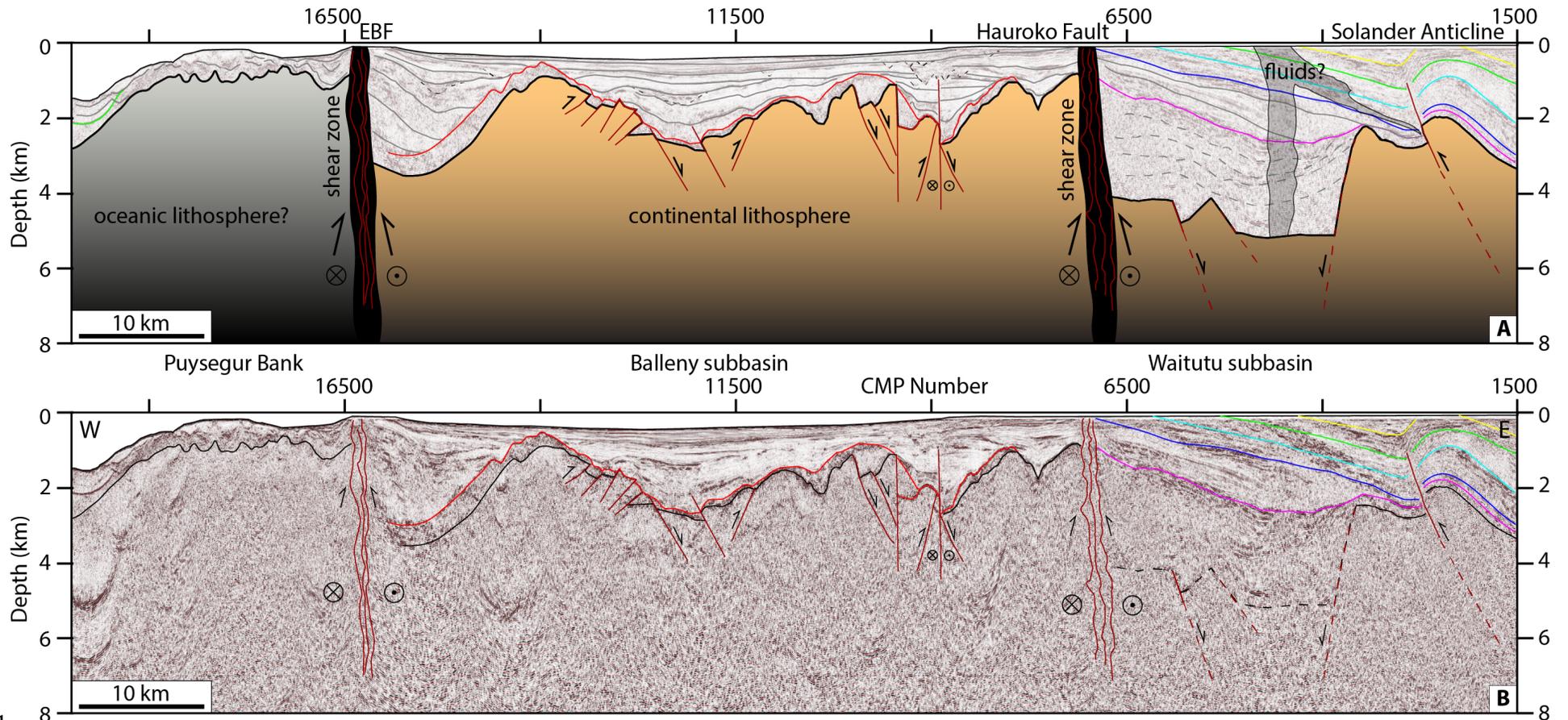
1306 Figure 6. MCS, OBS, and bathymetry data along SISIE-2. (a): Zoom-in showing interpretation
 1307 of the Puysegur Trench region (V.E. = 2x). (b): Zoom-in showing tectonostratigraphic
 1308 interpretation, faulted crustal blocks, and intracrustal reflectivity within Solander Basin (V.E. =
 1309 2x). (c): Interpretation of shipboard multibeam bathymetry data. Bathymetry swath aligned with
 1310 seismic profiles in d and e. (d): Pre-stack depth migrated MCS reflection image of the SISIE-2
 1311 profile (V.E. = 2x). Horizons and faults are dashed where uncertain. Red lines outline bright
 1312 intracrustal reflections. Black line is the top of basement reflection. (e): Compressional-wave
 1313 (V_p) seismic velocity model overlain on MCS image in d. Velocity model is masked in regions
 1314 with poor resolution and ray coverage.



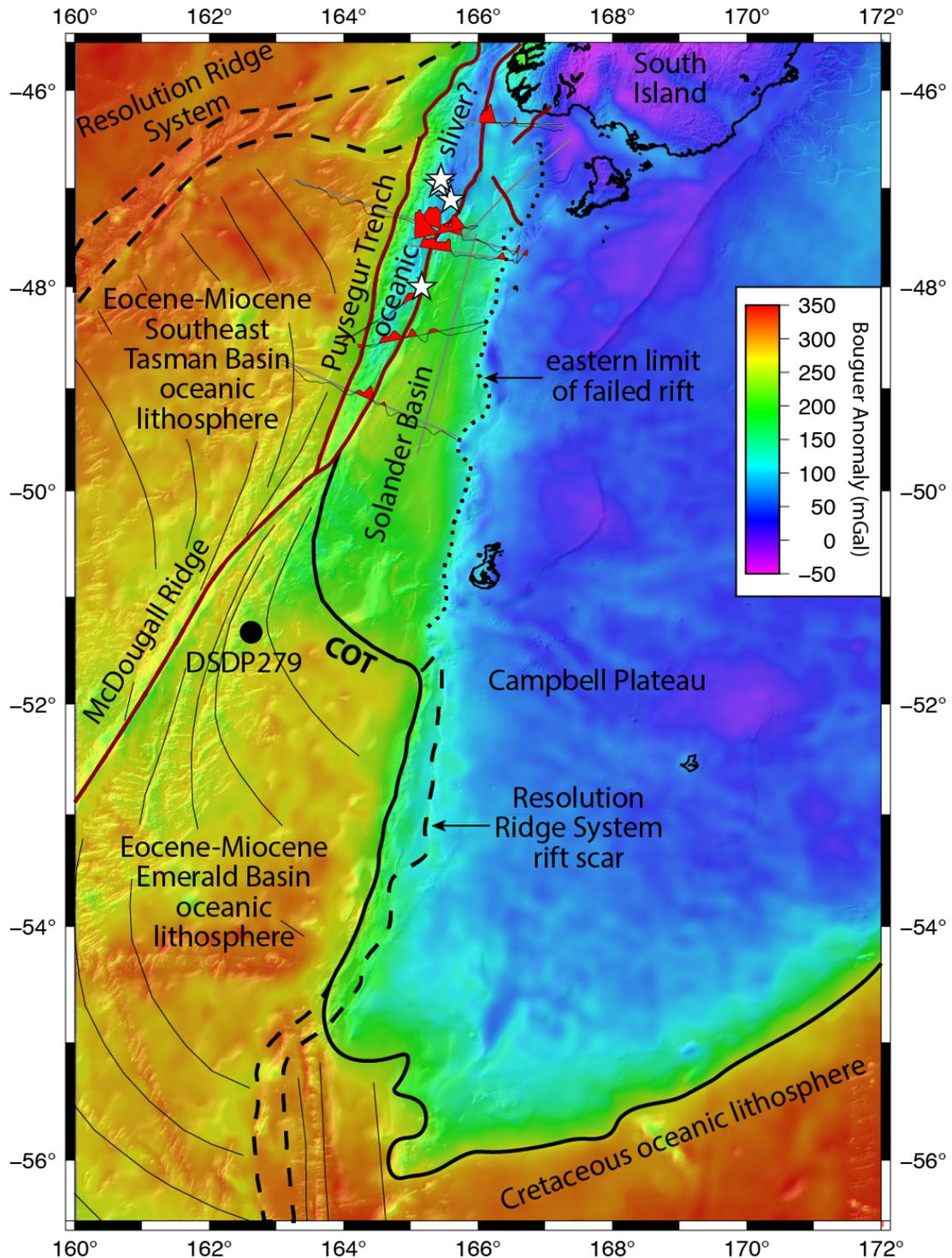
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 1318 Figure 7. (a): Instantaneous phase seismic attribute image showing interpreted structure of igneous crustal features (V.E. = 2x). (b):
 1319 Reflection strength seismic attribute image showing interpretations of igneous features and crustal faults (V.E. = 2x). (c): Pre-stack
 1320 depth migrated MCS reflection image of the SISIE-3 profile (V.E. = 3x).
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1325 Figure 8. (a): Interpreted cartoon of crustal structure and tectonostratigraphic packages of the SISIE-6bc profile. (b): Pre-stack depth
 1326 migrated MCS reflection image of the SISIE-6bc profile (V.E. = 2x). Horizons dashed where uncertain.

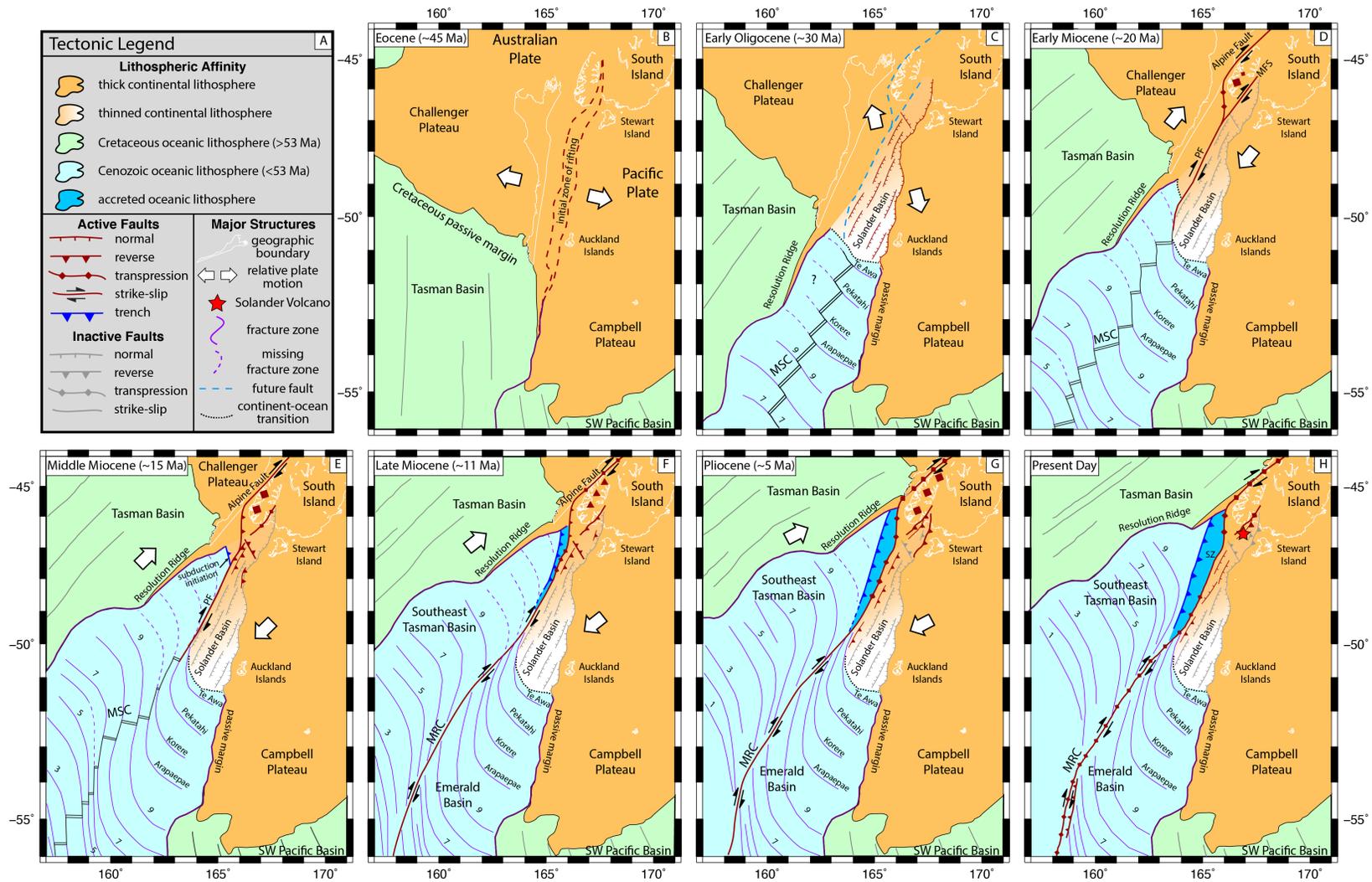


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 1328 Figure 9. (a): Interpreted cartoon of crustal structure along the SISIE-8 profile. Continental and oceanic lithosphere are juxtaposed
 1329 across the eastern Balleny Fault. (eBF). (b): Pre-stack depth migrated MCS reflection image of the SISIE-8 profile (V.E. = 3x).
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1334
 1335 Figure 10. Interpreted map showing revised location of the Continent-Ocean Transition (COT)
 1336 and oceanic sliver. Regional Bouguer gravity anomaly from GNS
 1337 ([https://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Products/Databases/New-Zealand-Region-Gravity-Grids;](https://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Products/Databases/New-Zealand-Region-Gravity-Grids; McCubbine et al., 2017)
 1338 [McCubbine et al., 2017](https://www.gns.cri.nz/Home/Products/Databases/New-Zealand-Region-Gravity-Grids; McCubbine et al., 2017)). Mafic gabbro, diabase, and basalt dredge samples shown in white
 1339 stars from Mortimer (2014).

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Figure 11. Modified reconstruction showing updated Cenozoic tectonic evolution of the AUS-PAC plate boundary. Panels are modified from the kinematic plate reconstruction of Lebrun et al. (2003). Major tectonic features along the Puysegur margin were updated based on results in this study. Figure is schematic and does not represent a constrained kinematic plate reconstruction, thus the location of some features may not be exact.

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Strike-slip Enables Subduction Initiation beneath a Failed Rift: New Seismic Constraints from Puysegur Margin, New Zealand**Brandon Shuck^{1,2}, Harm Van Avendonk¹, Sean P. S. Gulick^{1,2}, Michael Gurnis³, Rupert Sutherland⁴, Joann Stock³, Jiten Patel⁴, Erin Hightower³, Steffen Saustrop¹, Thomas Hess^{1,2}**

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Figure S1 to S7

Introduction

This supporting document includes text and figures for the article: Strike-slip Enables Subduction Initiation beneath a Failed Rift: New Seismic Constraints from Puysegur Margin, New Zealand. Text S1 contains detailed information about the SISIE marine geophysical survey and data acquisition. Text S2 contains information about post-cruise OBS data processing. Text S3 describes the interpretation of OBS records and the tomographic inversion process. Text S4 contains a description of the MCS data processing workflow. Figure S1 presents crustal stretching factors and extension calculations for the Solander Basin rift domain on the SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 profiles. Figure S2 illustrates updated correlations of chronostratigraphic horizons from Patel et al. (2020) and tectonostratigraphic packages

interpreted in this study, which are aligned with the New Zealand (Raine et al., 2015) and international Geologic Time Scale (Gradstein et al., 2012). Figure S3 through Figure S7 are show comparisons between the uninterpreted and interpreted seismic sections shown in the main article.

Text S1

South Island Subduction Initiation Experiment (SISIE) Data Acquisition

The South Island Subduction Initiation Experiment (SISIE) took place in February and March, 2018. Using the R/V *Marcus Langseth*, the shipboard party collected multichannel seismic (MCS), ocean-bottom seismometer (OBS), 2-6 kHz chirp, 12 kHz multi-beam bathymetry, gravity, and magnetometer data across the Puysegur margin. For seismic imaging, the acoustic source consisted of an array of 36 Bolt airguns, with a total source volume of ~6600 in³, shot at intervals of 50 m for MCS and 150 m for OBS acquisition. A 12.6 km hydrophone streamer containing 1008 channels was used to collect an initial 717 km of MCS data (SISIE-1, SISIE-2, SISIE-3, SISIE-4, SISIE-5); however, severe weather of up to 7 meter swells forced the collection of the remaining 535 km to be with a 4.05 km streamer containing 324 channels (SISIE-6 and SISIE-8). In total, 1252 km of MCS data were acquired along seven 2D lines. Short-period four-component OBSs from the University of Texas Institute for Geophysics were used for a total of 43 deployments spaced approximately 15 km apart on two east-west oriented transects, SISIE-1 and SISIE-2. Seismic data were successfully recovered from 39 of these instruments. More details of the marine expedition can be found in the MGL1803 cruise report:

http://www.marine-geo.org/link/data/field/Langseth/MGL1803/docs/MGL1803_DataReport_Ver1.1.pdf. Raw and processed geophysical data from cruise MGL1803 are available from the Marine Geoscience Data System <http://www.marine-geo.org/tools/search/entry.php?id=MGL1803>.

Text S2

Ocean Bottom Seismometer Data Processing

Following recovery of the OBSs, a GPS clock synchronization corrected for clock drift, and seismic data were cut into 60-second-long records and then converted to SEG-Y format. The OBS data are generally high quality and show distinct seismic reflections and refractions

from the crust and mantle on most instruments. To enhance the clarity of these arrivals, a bandpass filter of 6-14 Hz with 48 dB/octave drop-off was applied. A predictive deconvolution filter with a 160 ms gap was applied to help enhance the refracted arrivals. The hydrophone channel has higher signal/noise ratio than the vertical and horizontal geophone channels, and thus was used for a majority of the OBS data interpretation. To ensure accurate source-receiver offsets, the precise location of all instruments on the seafloor were determined using direct water-wave arrivals.

Text S3

OBS Tomographic Inversion and Model Resolution Test

Distinct wide-angle seismic phases including crustal refractions (P_g), Moho reflections (P_mP) and mantle refractions (P_n) were identified on OBS records on the SISIE-1 and SISIE-2 profiles. The OBS data are high quality allowing for clear interpretation of these phases throughout most instruments along the two profiles. Assigned picking errors were typically between 50-200 ms. Tomographic inversion of all travel-time data was performed using the approach described by Van Avendonk et al. (2004). An initial first arrival tomography model was used as a starting point for a more advanced layered model. Layers were then inserted for the sediments, crust, and mantle. The seafloor boundary was extracted from the NIWA bathymetry grid. The boundary between the sediments and crust were guided by coincident MCS images. A top-down approach was taken by first raytracing and inverting shallow phases and progressively adding in deeper phases. This process was repeated iteratively and simultaneously constrained layer boundaries and seismic velocities. The models were updated until the travel-time misfit was similar to the average uncertainty of picked phases. The final result yields a smooth characterization of the seismic velocity structure along the two profiles. The robustness of the tomography models was evaluated using a standard resolution test. We tested the recovery of a 12 km horizontal by 6 km vertical perturbation ellipse. Resolution of seismic velocities and model layer boundaries are shown in Figure 4.

Text S4

Multichannel Seismic Reflection Data Processing

Seismic processing of the SISIE MCS data utilized the Echos and Geodepth software packages from Emerson/Paradigm Geophysical. First, the SEG-D traces were input into Echos and resampled to 4 ms. Noise reduction consisted of trace editing to remove noisy channels and bandpass filtering (7-85 Hz). Interpolation was applied first to shot gathers to fill in missing channels, and then in the receiver domain to recover signal from low-energy shots recorded during marine mammal shutdowns. We used a marine 2-D geometry of 50 m shot spacing and 12.5 m receiver group spacing. Semblance-based velocity analysis was performed approximately every 500 CMPs (~3 km). Multiple suppression comprised a combination of surface-related multiple elimination (SRME) in the shot domain followed by parabolic radon transforms in the CMP domain, and finally a dip filter to remove undercorrected multiple arrivals and out-of-plane energy. Velocity models for Kirchhoff pre-stack depth migration algorithms were derived from the RMS stacking velocities. For MCS lines coincident with OBS data, a merged velocity section with MCS-derived velocities for shallow sediments and OBS-derived velocities for crust and mantle structure produced the best images. Kirchhoff pre-stack depth migrations were performed using an Eikonal travel-time fitting algorithm with a migration aperture of 2000 or 4000 CMPs. Velocity models were iteratively updated until the final depth-migrated image gathers were flattened. Outside muting removed stretched reflections at far offsets and inside muting removed residual multiple energy. The depth-migrated gathers were bandpass filtered, mixed with 3 adjacent traces, and then stacked. The result of our processing workflow yields seven pre-stack depth migrated (PSDM) lines across the Puysegur margin.

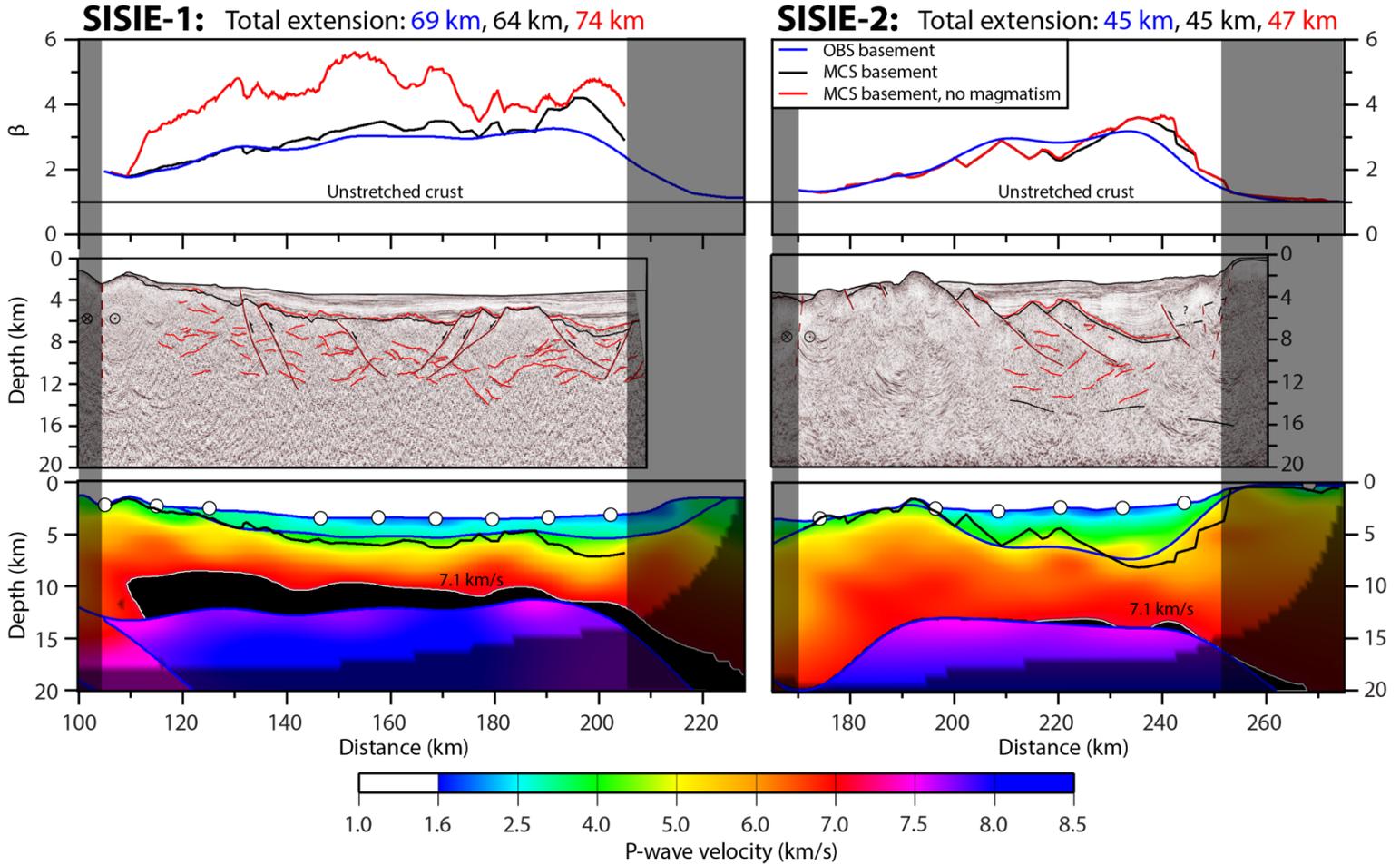


Figure S1. Analysis of the Solander Basin rifted margin domains along the SISIE-1 (left) and SISIE-2 (right) profiles. Shaded areas represent either the western boundary of the rifted margin domain or the loss of Moho resolution beneath the Campbell Plateau. Crustal thickness was calculated in two ways: (1) using the top of basement and Moho constrained by the tomographic models, and (2) using the basement from the MCS image and Moho from the tomographic models. Crustal stretching factors were then calculated by dividing the initial crustal thickness of 21 km (Grobys et al., 2008) by the present-day crustal thickness. Stretching was assumed to be isotropic with depth, resulting in a 1D β -factor distribution across the rifted margin domain. The amount of total extension was calculated by integrating the β -factor over the same domain.

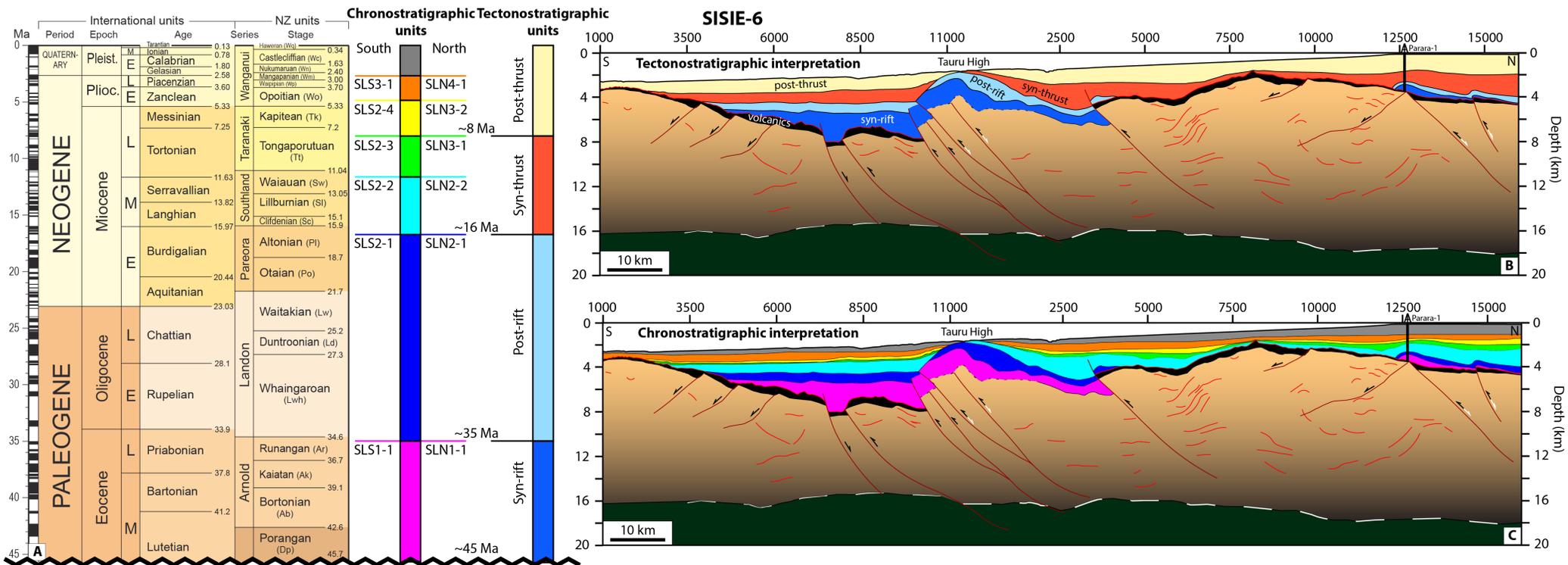


Figure S2. Chrono- and tectonostratigraphic interpretations of the SISIE-6 profile. The upper boundaries of SLS1-1 and SLN1-1 on the seismic image have been revised after Patel et al. (2020). Correlations across the Tauru Fault Zone are based on similar thickness, seismic character, and onlap relationships of respective units. New Zealand Geologic Time scale modified from Raine et al. (2015).

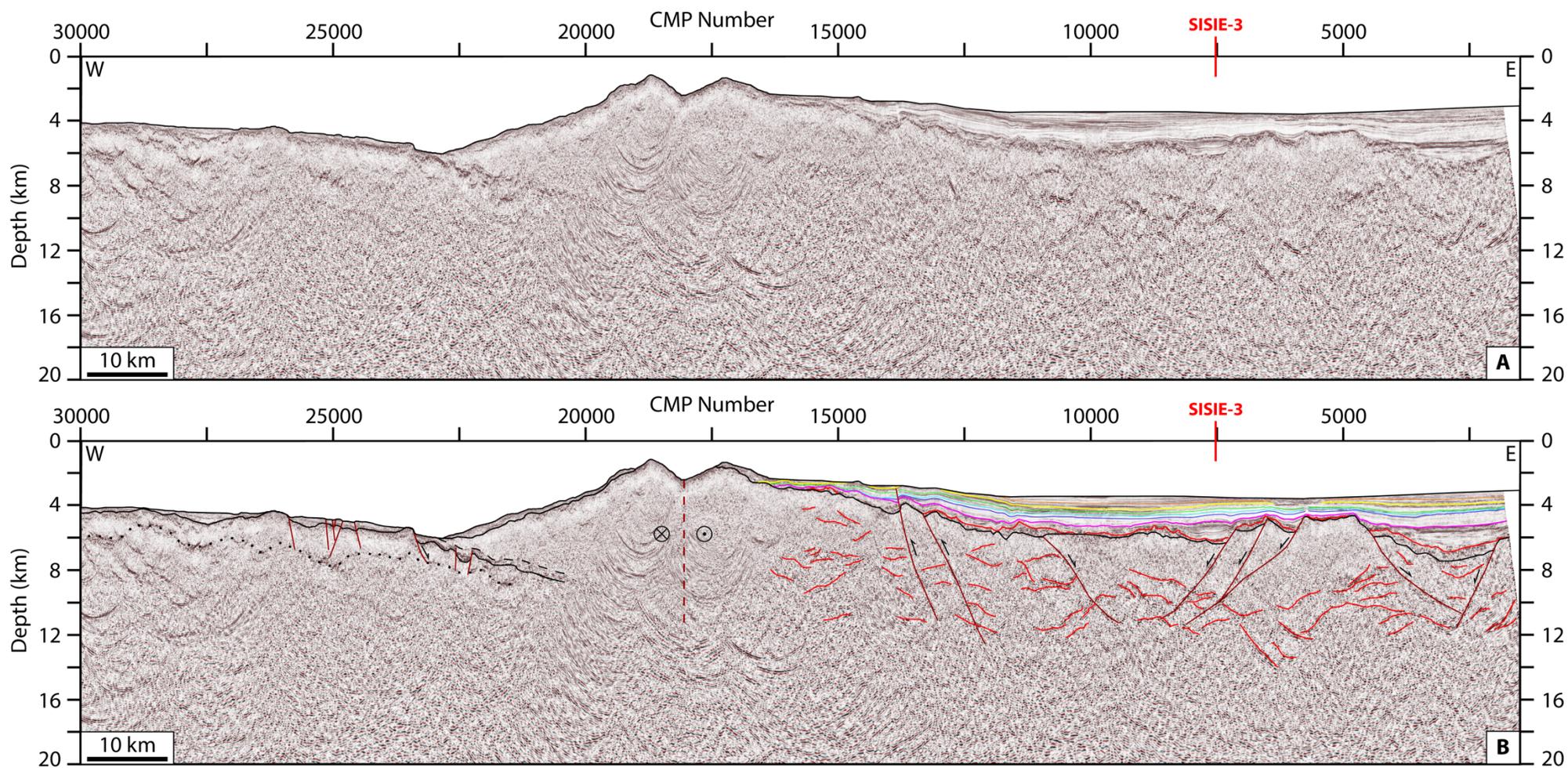


Figure S3. Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) pre-stack depth migrated seismic image of the SISIE-1 profile.

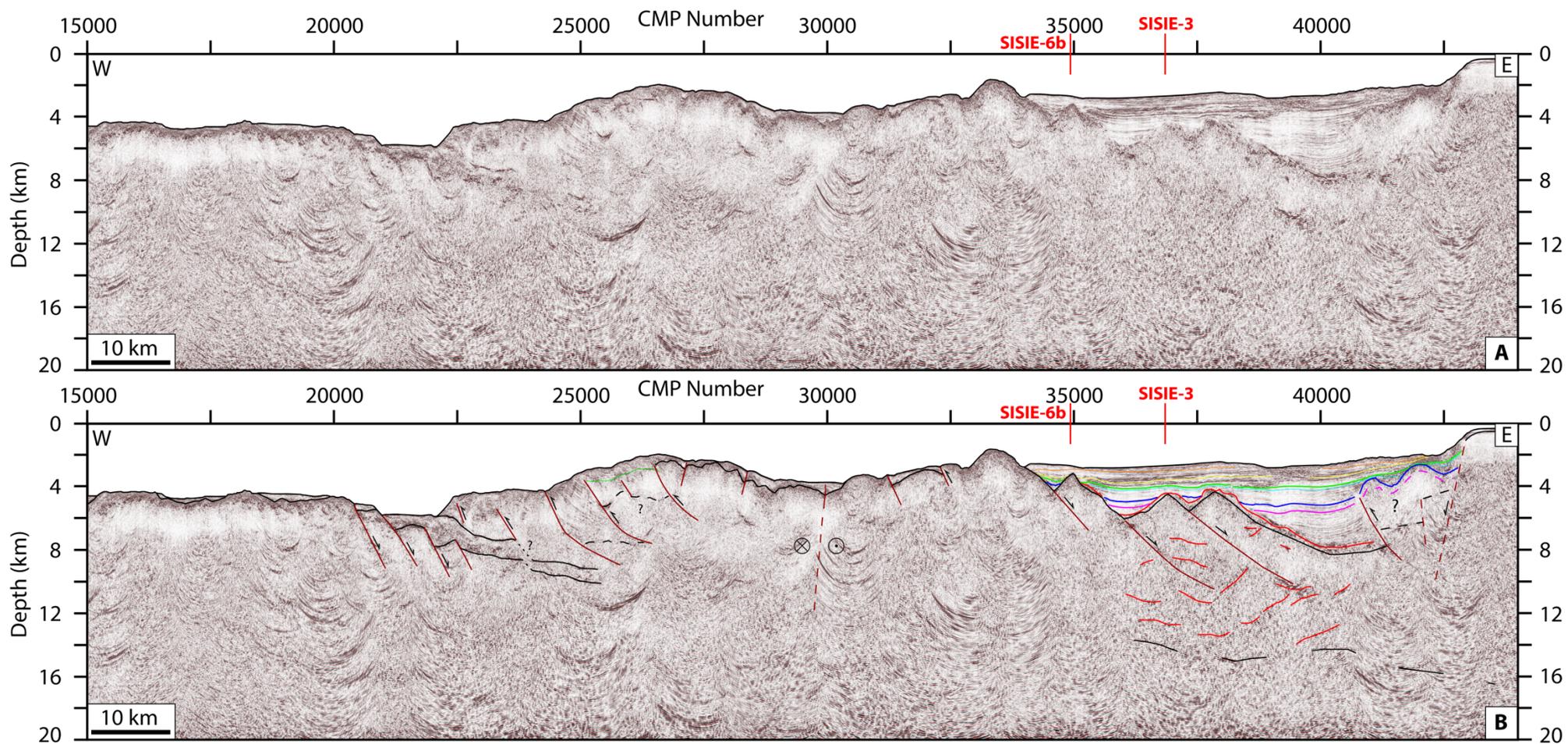


Figure S4. Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) pre-stack depth migrated seismic image of the SISIE-2 profile.

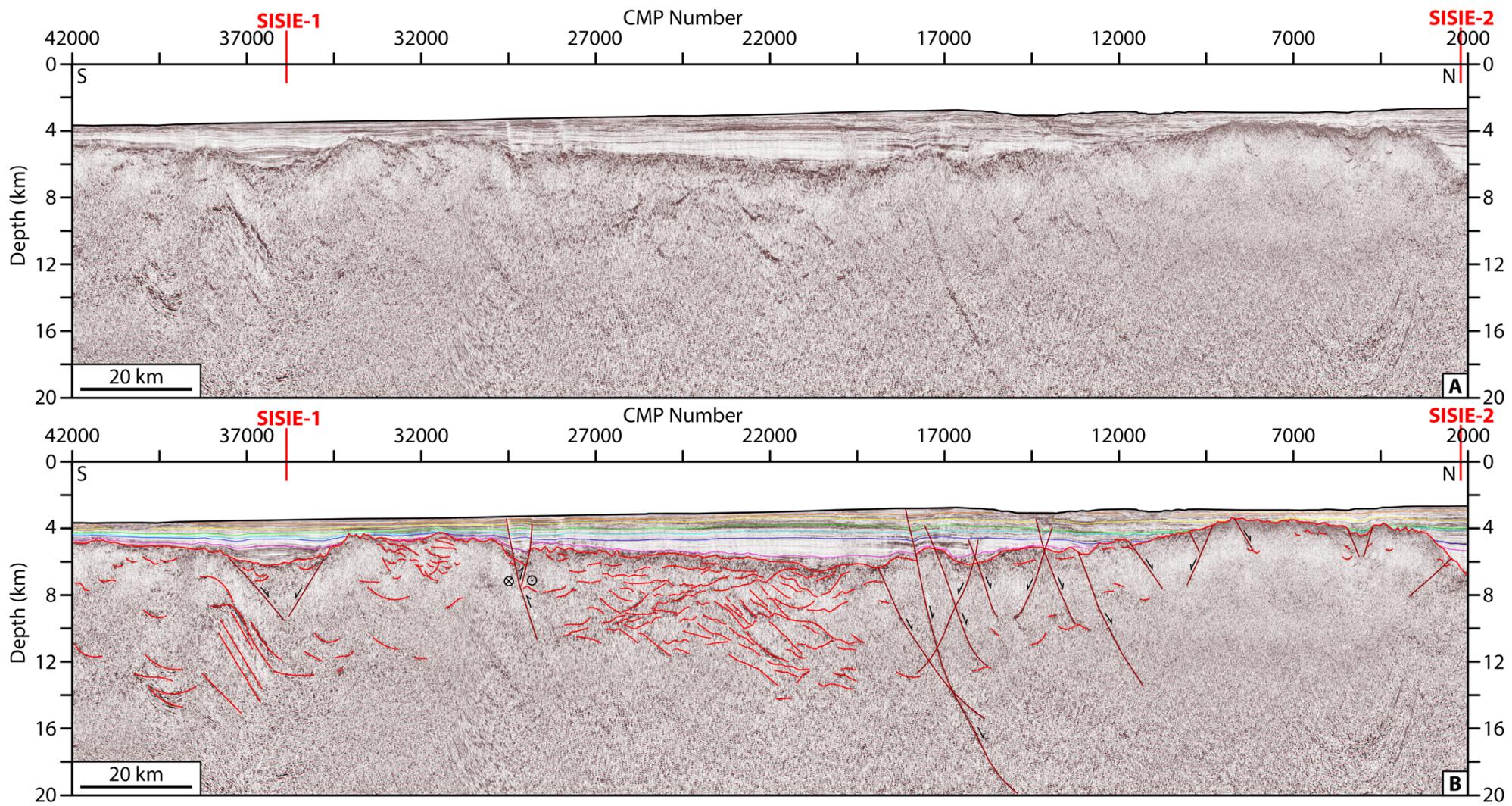


Figure S5. Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) pre-stack depth migrated seismic image of the SISIE-3 profile.

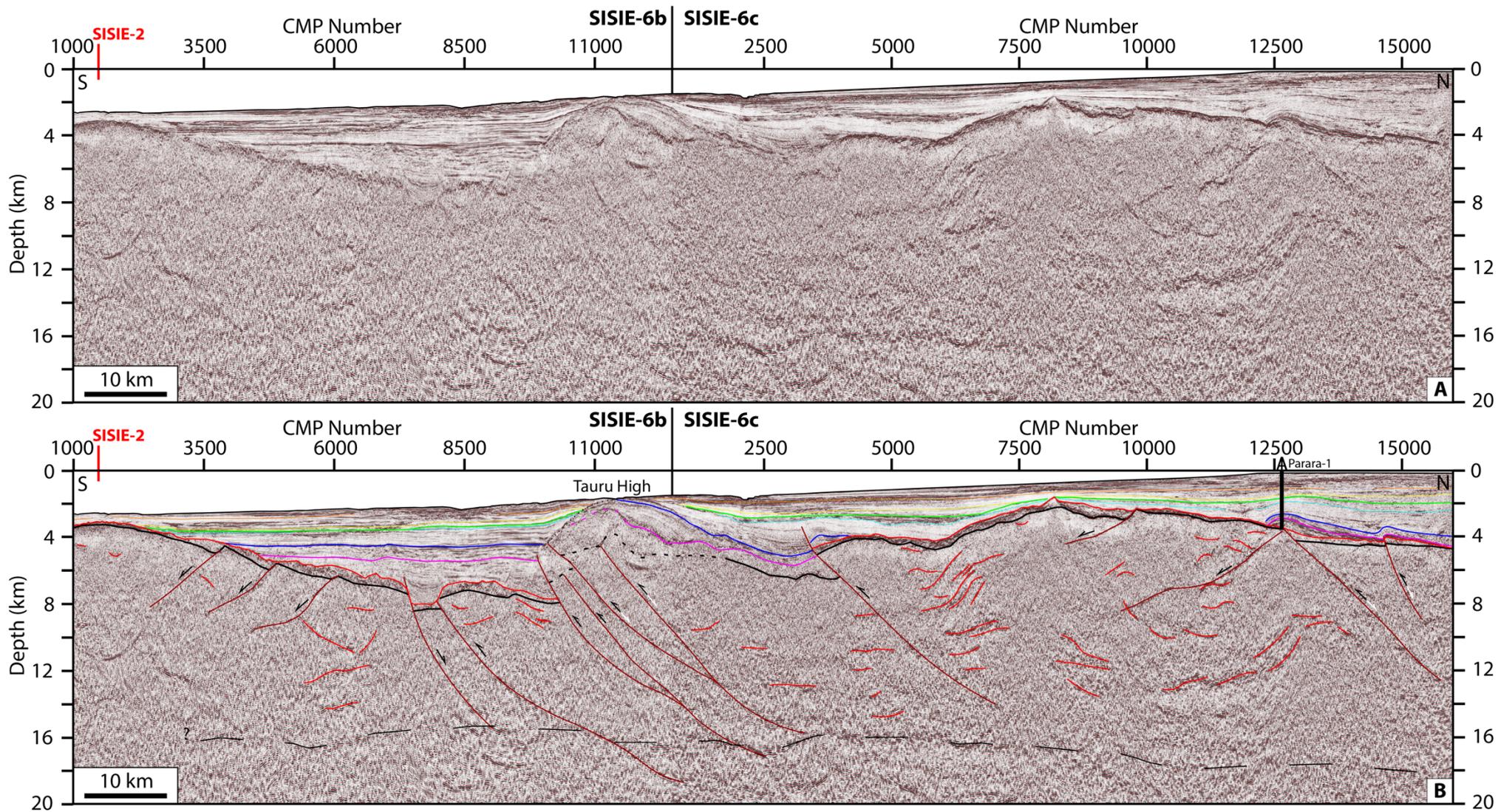


Figure S6. Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) pre-stack depth migrated seismic image of the SISIE-6 profile.

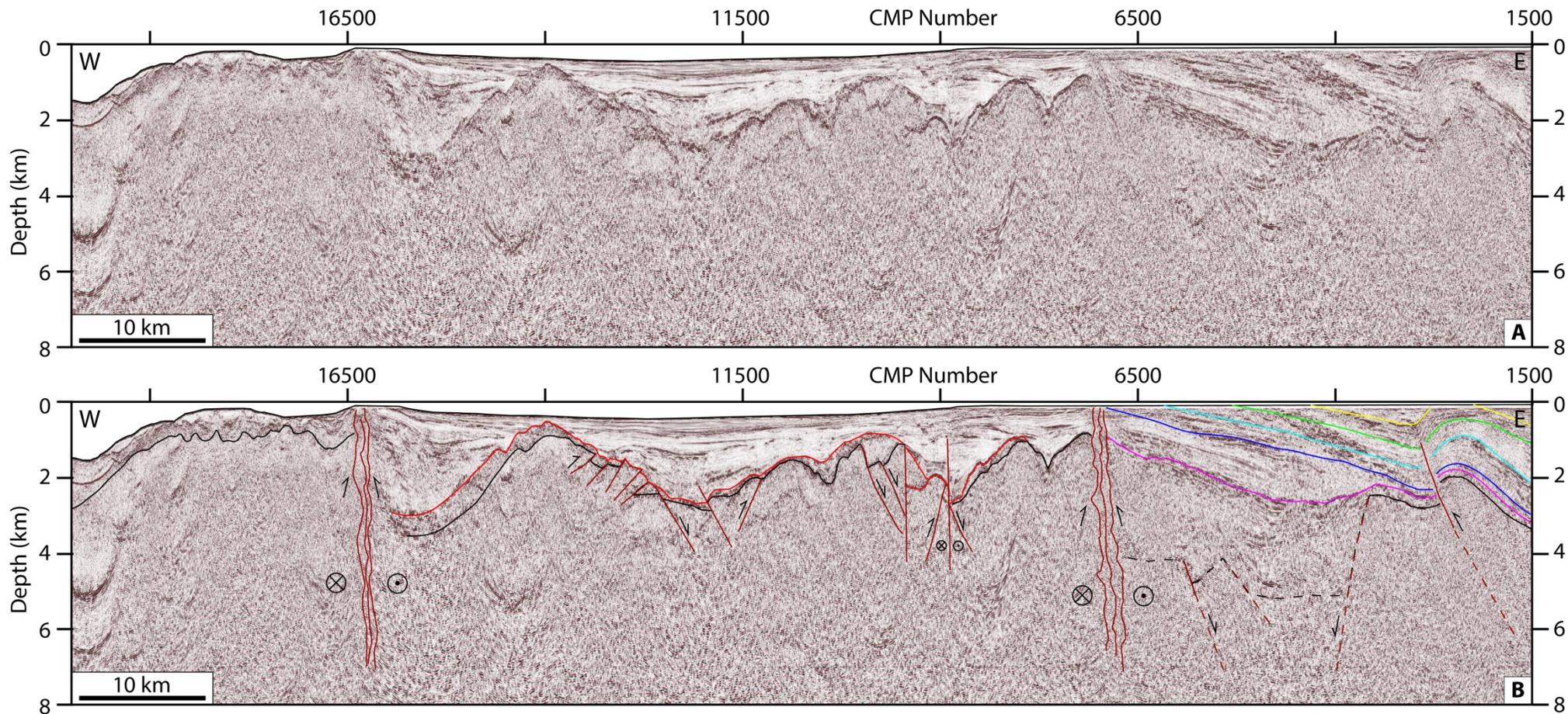


Figure S7. Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) pre-stack depth migrated seismic image of the SISIE-8 profile.