1	Title: Thermo-mechanical pressurization of experimental faults in cohesive rocks during
2	seismic slip
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16	Highlights:
17	High velocity friction experiments on cohesive rocks under undrained conditions
18	Experimental evidence of thermo-mechanical pressurization (TMP)
19	TMP weakening of cohesive rocks is negligible during earthquakes
20	
21	Keywords:
22	Friction, earthquakes, fluids, thermo-mechanical pressurization, basalt, marble
23	
24	Abstract:

25 Earthquakes occur because fault friction weakens with increasing slip and slip rates. Since the slipping zones of faults are often fluid-saturated, thermo-mechanical pressurization 26 of pore fluids has been invoked as a mechanism responsible for frictional dynamic 27 weakening, but experimental evidence is lacking. We performed friction experiments (normal 28 stress 25 MPa, maximal slip-rate \sim 3 ms⁻¹) on cohesive basalt and marble under (1) room-29 humidity and (2) immersed in liquid water (drained and undrained) conditions. In both rock 30 types and independently of the presence of fluids, up to 80% of frictional weakening was 31 measured in the first 5 cm of slip. Modest pressurization-related weakening appears only at 32 33 later stages of slip. Thermo-mechanical pressurization weakening of cohesive rocks can be negligible during earthquakes due to the triggering of more efficient fault lubrication 34 mechanisms (flash heating, frictional melting, etc.). 35

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37 Introduction

During earthquakes, few millimeters thick slip zones within fluid-saturated, cohesive 38 or non-cohesive rocks are sheared over several meters (80 m for the Tohoku 2011 Mw 9.0 39 earthquake, Fujiwara et al., 2011) at slip rates of meters per second and under normal 40 stresses up to hundreds of MPa (Sibson, 1973; Rice, 2006). The frictional power per unit area 41 (product of the slip rate per frictional shear stress, in the range of 1-100 MW m⁻²) is dissipated 42 as heat and rock fragmentation in the slipping zone (Sibson, 1980). This large power triggers 43 44 several mechano-chemical processes that may induce frictional weakening (Di Toro et al., 2011; Goldsby and Tullis, 2011; Reches and Lockner, 2010). Thermo-mechanical 45 pressurization (TMP) of pore fluids trapped is one of the possible processes responsible for 46 fault dynamic weakening (Sibson, 1973; Rice, 1992; 2006; Lachenbruch, 1980; Brantut et 47 al., 2010; Bizzari and Cocco, 2006; Segall and Rice, 2008; Wibberley and Shimamoto, 48 2005). Given the widespread presence of fluids in natural slipping zones, TMP has been 49

thoroughly investigated from a theoretical point of view. TMP models are based on two competing processes: fluid and rock expansion in response to shear heating and the fluid storage capacity of the rock (**Rice**, 2006; Segall and **Rice**, 2008; Platt et al., 2014).

Several experimental studies were carried on to investigate TMP (Mizoguchi et al., 53 2009; Brantut et al., 2008; Ferri et al., 2010; 2011; De Paola et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 54 2015; Faulkner et al., 2011; Ujiie et al., 2011; 2013). Experiments approached seismic 55 deformation conditions by imposing slip rates (V) of ~1 ms⁻¹, slip (δ) up to tens of meters, and 56 effective normal stresses (σ_n^{eff}) of tens of MPa on clay-, calcite- and dolomite-rich gouges 57 under room-humidity and wet conditions. The measured large weakening (up to 80-90% of 58 friction drop at 1 ms⁻¹) was attributed to: (1) in part (< 20%) thermochemical pressurization 59 associated to the breakdown of clays and release of H₂O (Brantut et al., 2008; 2010; Ferri et 60 61 al., 2010) or to the breakdown of calcite and dolomite and release of CO₂ (De Paola et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 2015) in the case of room-humidity experiments and, (2) thermal 62 pressurization in the case of wet experiments on clay-rich gouges (Faulkner et al., 2011; 63 Ferri et al., 2010; Ujiie et al., 2011; 2013). However, technical issues related to fluid and 64 gouge confinement impeded measuring the pore fluid pressure in the sample chamber. We 65 installed on the rotary shear machine SHIVA (Slow-to-High-Velocity-Apparatus, INGV 66 Rome, Suppl. Material S1) an on-purpose designed pressure-vessel that allows shearing 67 cohesive rocks immersed in fluids and to measure the pore fluid pressure during the 68 experiments (Violay et al., 2013). Previous experiments were performed under drained 69 conditions on Carrara marbles and gabbros (Violay et al., 2013; 2014). We report new results 70 obtained by shearing basalts and Carrara marbles under undrained conditions. Though the 71 actual experimental configuration does not allow shearing saturated gouges, the results for 72 cohesive rocks are intriguing: the contribution of TMP during shearing of cohesive rocks at 73

seismic slip rates is negligible compared to the contribution from other weakeningmechanisms.

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77 Material and methods

To investigate seismic slip in the presence of pore fluids, 33 friction experiments 78 (Table 1) were conducted at room temperature on hollow cylinders (50/30 mm 79 external/internal diameter) of Etna basalt (Electron Micro-Probe Analysis reported in Table 80 2) and Carrara marble (99.9% calcite, X-Ray Diffraction and X-Ray Fluorescence analysis, 81 Violav et al., 2013). Samples were jacketed with aluminium rings, sealed with epoxy to 82 prevent fluid leaks and inserted in the fluid pressure vessel (Nielsen et al., 2012; Suppl. 83 Material S1). The description of SHIVA (Di Toro et al., 2010; Niemeijer et al., 2011) and 84 85 of the experimental configuration used to perform experiments with pressurized fluids can be found in Suppl. Material S1. The main difference with respect to previous studies conducted 86 with fluids (Violay et al., 2013; 2014) was the disposition of the closed valves, which 87 allowed imposing undrained conditions (see Suppl. Material S1 for full description). 88 Experiments were performed (1) under room-humidity conditions and immersed in water, (2) 89 drained conditions (the specimen is saturated and continuously connected to the water 90 reservoir, (Paterson and Wong, 2005), resulting in constant fluid pressure and preventing 91 fluid pressurization) and (3) undrained conditions (the specimen was first saturated and then 92 93 isolated from the water reservoir: fluid pressurization was induced by reduction in pore volume, (Paterson and Wong, 2005) and by increase in fluid volume due to thermal 94 expansion during shearing). A K-Type thermocouple was inserted at about 3 mm from the 95 slip surface of the sample to measure the temperature evolution of the fluid during the 96 experiments. The thermocouple was installed in the "stationary side" (i.e., normal stress 97 loading column) of SHIVA. 98

Experiments were performed by spinning two rock cylinders at accelerations of 7.8 100 ms⁻², V = 3 ms⁻¹, 4 m < δ < 8 m, normal stress (σ_n) from 15 to 35 MPa and initial fluid 101 pressure $P_f(t_0) = 5$ MPa (Violay et al., 2013; 2014). Mechanical data (axial load, torque, slip, 102 angular rotation) were acquired at a frequency up to 25 kHz. δ , V and shear stress (τ) were 103 determined using methods described in **Di Toro et al.** (2010), Niemeijer et al., (2011) and 104 Tsutsumi and Shimamoto (1997). The two rock-types were selected because are common 105 crustal rocks and for their relatively low porosity (< 5%) and low permeability (< 10^{-17} m²) 106 (e.g., Vinciguerra et al., 2005). The slip zones of experiments conducted on basalts could be 107 recovered because the two rock cylinders were welded by glass due to the solidification of the 108 109 frictional melt produced during shearing. The microstructures were investigated with an optical microscope and electron probe micro-analyzer (JEOL, JXA-8200 at ETH, Zurich). 110 The chemical compositions of grains and glasses were determined on carbon-coated, polished 111 thin sections using an Electron Probe Micro-Analyzer (EPMA) JEOL, JXA-8200 (ETH, 112 Zurich) with a focused beam about 1 µm in diameter under accelerating voltage of 15 kV and 113 current 15 nA. The slipping zones of experiments conducted on Carrara marble could not be 114 recovered in-situ (only few dispersed remnants were found) because they consisted of non-115 cohesive material that was flushed away during the ejection of the fluid from the vessel after 116 the experiment. 117

118

119 **Results**

120 Mechanical data

Experiments performed under identical ambient and deformation conditions resulted in systematically reproducible mechanical data for both Etna basalt and Carrara marble (**Figs. 1-4**). We present the measurements of the friction for comparison with data obtained at

different initial effective normal stresses and the measurements of the shear stress for comparison of data obtained at a given imposed initial effective normal stress (all mechanical data are summarized in **Table 1**). We define the friction coefficient based on effective normal stress ($\mu = \tau / \sigma_n^{eff}(t)$ or Terzaghi's principle for $\sigma_n^{eff}(t) = \sigma_n(t) - \alpha P_f(t)$ with $\alpha = 1$, incorporating instantaneous σ_n and P_f). However, since $P_f(t)$ varies during the experiment due to effect of thermal expansion, to illustrate more clearly the effect of TMP we also present the results in Fig. 4 based on the initial value of $P_f(t_0)$ alone ($\mu = \tau / \sigma_n^{eff - 0}(t) = \sigma_n(t) - P_f(t_0)$).

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For Etna basalt, the coefficient of friction decayed almost exponentially from a peak 132 value $\mu_p=0.59\pm0.08$ at about slip initiation (i.e., 0.64±0.05 for room humidity conditions, 133 0.58±0.05 for drained and 0.53±0.07 for undrained conditions) to a steady-state value μ_{ss} that 134 decreased with increasing effective normal stress (Figs. 1 and 4). The μ_{ss} was determined 135 from the average value of friction coefficient (μ) between 4.5 and 5.5 meters slip, except for 136 experiment s921 where μ_{ss} was determined between 2.5 and 3.5 meters slip. The initial decay 137 of the friction coefficient (and thus of the shear stress) was similar independently of the 138 ambient conditions (Fig. 3). At $\sigma_n^{eff}(t_0) = 20$ MPa (i.e. σ_n^{eff} at the initiation of the experiment), 139 the residual friction coefficient after 5 cm of slip ranged from $\mu_{r_{5cm}} = 0.20-0.25$ for the room 140 humidity (s485 and s541), to $\mu_{r_5cm} = 0.26-0.28$ for the drained (s921 and s926) and to $\mu_{r_5cm} =$ 141 0.22-0.24 for the undrained (s922, s925, s927 and s933) experiments (Table 1). The $\mu_{r, 5cm}$ 142 corresponded to a percentage of friction drop with respect to μ_p (or $\Delta \mu = 100 \ (\mu_{r_{-}5cm} - \mu_{ss})$ 143)/(μ_p - μ_{ss})) ranging from 80.2% (s485, room humidity conditions), to 56.4% (s921, drained 144 conditions) (Fig. 4, and Table 1). Given the larger μ_p in room humidity experiments, the drop 145 in percentage of the friction coefficient in the first 5 cm of slip was slightly larger in room 146 humidity conditions (73.06±5.24%) than in both drained (67.96±8.36%) and undrained 147 (68.35±3.65%) conditions (Fig. 4). 148

Instead, the steady-state shear stress (τ_{ss} , was determined from the average value of 149 shear stress between 4.5 and 5.5 meters slip, except for experiment s921 where τ_{ss} was 150 determined between 2.5 and 3.5 meters slip) was about 20% lower under undrained than 151 under drained and room-humidity conditions, for similar V, δ , and initial $\sigma_n^{\text{eff}}(t_0)$ (Figs. 2, 3, 152 Suppl. Material S2). For instance, at initial $\sigma_n^{eff}(t_0) = 20$ MPa, the coefficient of friction 153 decayed from a peak value $\mu_p = 0.55 \pm 0.07$ (corresponding to a shear stress of 11±1.4 MPa) 154 towards a steady-state value $\mu_{ss} = 0.11 \pm 0.01$ (shear stress of 2.2±0.2 MPa) under room-155 humidity conditions, $\mu_{ss} = 0.11 \pm 0.01$ (shear stress of 2.2±0.2 MPa) under drained conditions 156 and $\mu_{ss} = 0.09 \pm 0.01$ (shear stress of 1.8±0.2 MPa) and under undrained conditions (**Table 1**; 157 **Fig. 2**). Under undrained conditions, an overpressure dP (such that $P_f = P_f(t_0) + dP$, (with $P_f(t_0)$) 158 the fluid pressure at the initiation of the experiment) was measured with increasing slip (Fig. 159 **2A)** following a power law best fitted by dP = 8.4 ($\neq 0.6$) $\delta^{0.2(\neq 0.07)}$ [MPa] (for $\sigma_n = 25$ MPa, 160 $V=3 \text{ ms}^{-1} P_f(t0)=5 \text{ MPa}$). Overpressure dP decreased immediately by ~60% after the slip was 161 162 stopped (Fig. 2A). Conversely, P_f and σ_n did not vary under drained conditions (Fig. 2A). Sample shortening rate was constant and almost negligible during the first five centimetres of 163 slip for both drained and undrained conditions (Fig.3B). For slip longer than 5 cm, the 164 shortening rate was ~0.170 mm/m and ~0.089 mm/m in drained and undrained conditions, 165 respectively (Fig.1, Table 1). 166

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For Carrara marble, the friction coefficient evolved from $\mu_p = 0.60\pm0.07$ to $\mu_{ss} = 0.04\pm0.02$ (**Table 1**). Contrary to Etna basalt, τ_{ss} and shortening rate were almost negligible and similar (~0.0001 mm/m) under room humidity, drained and undrained conditions, even if a small pore fluid overpressure ($dP \sim 1$ MPa) was measured after several meters of slip under undrained conditions (**Fig. 2B**). The $\mu_{r, 5cm}$ was larger (and similar) for both undrained 173 (68.96±1.79%) and drained (70.44±2.58%) conditions, than under room humidity
174 (49.85±4.39%) conditions (Table 1; Fig. 4D).

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176 *Temperature measurement*

The maximum temperature measured by the thermocouple immersed in the fluid was 35 °C for experiment s929 performed at normal stress of 25 MPa, initial fluid pressure of 5 MPa, target slip rate of 3 ms⁻¹ and total slip of 6 m (**Fig. 5**). The thermocouple measured the temperature evolution with time of the water in the pressure vessel due to the frictional heat generated and diffused from the slip surface. Because of heat diffusion in water, the thermal perturbation was detected with some delay with respect to the initiation of the experiment. This renders the determination of the temperature of the sliding surface a complicated task.

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185 *Microstructures*

After the experiments and irrespective of the ambient conditions, in Etna basalt, a 186 continuous 100-200 µm thick layer of glassy-like material separated the rock cylinders (Fig. 187 6). Under the optical microscope, the layer was homogeneous and brown coloured in parallel-188 polarized light, and extinct in cross-polarized light, suggesting that the layer was made of 189 solidified friction melt (i.e., glass). This interpretation is consistent with the observed 190 extrusion of drops of melt during experiments performed at room-humidity conditions, and 191 with the presence, in all experiments, of a lump of glassy-like material preserved in the inner 192 hole of the hollow cylinders. The electron microprobe analysis showed that, independently of 193 the environmental conditions and in all of the experiments where steady-state friction was 194 achieved, the glass had a chemical composition almost identical to the bulk composition of 195 the initial basalt (Table 2). From image analysis of FE-SEM microphotographs, the glassy-196 like layer of experiments performed under room-humidity contained < 1% in volume of 197

vesicles and ~16 ± 5% in volume of lithic clasts (< 10 μ m in size); instead, in experiments performed in the presence of fluids, the glassy-like layer contained 3±2% in volume of vesicles and ~9±3 % in volume of lithic clasts (< 10 μ m in size) in both drained and undrained conditions (Fig. 6).

For Carrara marble, in room-humidity experiments performed at $\sigma_n^{eff}(t_0) = 20$ MPa, $\delta = 4 \div 7$ m and V = 3 ms⁻¹ s, the wall rocks were separated by ~100 µm thick continuous slip zone composed of fine-grained (< 50 nm in size) non-cohesive material (see Fig. 5 in **Violay et al.**, **205 2013**). In drained and undrained experiments, the compacted gouge layers were not investigated because they could not be found on the slip zone.

207

208 Discussion

In the two rock types under both room-humidity and drained conditions, μ_p and μ_{ss} 209 were consistent with those previously measured in basaltic (Violay et al., 2014) and 210 carbonate-bearing rocks (Han et al., 2007; 2010; Violay et al., 2013). Comparing room-211 humidity and drained experiments shows that water had almost no effect on μ_p and μ_{ss} (Figs. 212 2-4) (Violay et al., 2014). However, for Etna basalt, experiments performed under undrained 213 conditions (Fig. 2) had about 20% reduction of τ_{ss} compared to room-humidity and drained 214 experiments. Moreover, the fluid pressure increased with slip under undrained conditions, but 215 was constant under drained conditions (Fig. 2). This is further supported by a temperature 216 217 increase of 35°C measured by the thermocouple immersed in the fluid of undrained experiments (Fig. 5), and $< 5^{\circ}$ C in drained experiments (for $\sigma_n^{\text{eff}}(t_0) = 20$ MPa, $\delta = 6$ m and V 218 $= 3 \text{ ms}^{-1}$). The undrained thermal pressurization coefficient defined as the pore pressure 219 increase for a unit temperature increase ranges from 0.01 MPa/°C to 0.1 MPa/°C (Ghabezloo 220 and Sulem, 2009). An increase in bulk temperature of 35°C of the fluid results in an increase 221 in pore pressure of 0.35–3.5 MPa. We interpret the reduction of τ_{ss} to result from TMP within 222

223 the slipping zone. The measured shear stress reduction is consistent with the melt lubrication model of Nielsen et al. (2008) according to which the rate of extrusion of friction melt from 224 the slipping zone is regulated by the difference between the viscous pressure of the melt and 225 226 the normal stress acting on the fault. Although the Terzaghi's principle cannot be applied under melt-lubricated conditions, we may draw a parallel about the role of the effective 227 normal stress: the increase in fluid pore pressure in the slipping zone limits the melt extrusion 228 rate from the slipping zone in the same way as the decrease of the normal stress acting on the 229 fault. In both cases, the bulk result is the reduction of the viscous shear stress. This is 230 231 confirmed by the sample shortening rate lower under undrained (e.g., 0.089 mm/m) than drained (0.17 mm/m) conditions (Fig. 2A and Table 1). Under undrained conditions, after the 232 slip stopped, part of the pressurization dP in excess of $P_f(t_0)$ gradually decreased (Fig. 2A). 233 234 This indicates that *thermal* pressurization due to water thermal expansion during frictional heating was dropping upon cooling of the water (by conduction through the vessel metal. A 235 residual *mechanical* pressurization endured after cooling, due to the permanent volume 236 reduction in connection to sample shortening. The fluid in the inner chamber of the hollow 237 cylindrical rock specimen is hydraulically isolated from the external chamber which was 238 directly connected to the pressurizing system (Suppl. Material S1). During sample 239 shortening, the fluid trapped in the central hallow of the specimen may exert spurious fluid 240 pressures. However, the contribution of fluid pressure from the inner hollow was negligible 241 242 during the experiments. In fact:

1) in Carrara marble, the Terzaghi's principle was satisfied assuming the imposed fluid

pressure is the fluid pressure measured on the annular sample (Violay et al., 2013);

245 2) in basalt, the sample shortens faster in drained (e.g., s926) than in undrained (e.g., s925)

conditions (Fig. 2A). As a consequence, experiments performed under drained conditions

247 would result in larger reduction of the volume of the inner chamber and, being the inner

chamber hydraulically isolated, in higher (spurious) pore pressures. The bulk effect would be a lower measured shear stress in drained conditions than in undrained conditions, which is the opposite of what we measured (τ_{ss} is lower under undrained conditions, **Fig. 2A**);

3) similar experiments performed on solid cylinders (i.e., without the central hollow chamber) of gabbro under drained and undrained conditions resulted in τ_{ss} lower under undrained than

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drained conditions, confirming results obtained with hollow specimens (Suppl. Material S2).

254 As a consequence the effect of the fluid pressure from the inner chamber (central hallow) on the axial load is negligible, and the axial cavity does not count as part of the 255 simulated fault area. Indeed, all experimental results (e.g. peak friction value) are consistent 256 with an effective normal stress (σ_n - αP_f) where the normal stress σ_n is axial force normalized 257 by the annular slip area only (e.g., Violay et al., 2013; 2014). The small to negligible 258 contribution in fluid pressure during axial shortening from the fluid trapped in the inner 259 hollow is due its epoxy filling. Epoxy is compliant and deforms during sampling shortening, 260 buffering the increase in fluid pressure in the cavity. 261

In spite of the evidence of a measurable TMP, we question whether it is an efficient 262 fault weakening mechanism during seismic slip, in particular in the presence of more rapid 263 and effective alternative mechanisms. Under undrained conditions, fluid overpressures of ~1 264 MPa and 0.05 MPa were measured after 5 cm of slip for Etna basalt and Carrara marble, 265 respectively (Figs. 2A-B; 3A). The initial overpressure (dP) was associated to a relative (dP)266 *100/ τ_p) apparent shear stress drop of maximum 10% for $\sigma_n^{eff}(t_0)=20$ MPa in Etna basalt 267 (squared dots in Fig. 4), and no shear stress drop in Carrara Marble. Since the shear stress 268 drop was 65-80% after 5 cm of slip for both lithologies, more efficient lubricating 269 mechanisms may have been activated at the initiation of slip and at steady-state. Elasto-270 hydrodynamic lubrication or weakening induced by the overpressure generated by the shear 271 of a thin viscous fluid comprised between two sub-parallel and rough surfaces (Brodsky and 272

273 Kanamori, 2001) may be excluded, as discussed in Violay et al. (2013). Cavitation or the formation of vapour-filled cavities in a flowing liquid due to rapid changes in pressure may 274 also be excluded. When cavities implode, they produce intense fluid pressure variations that 275 276 induce accelerated erosion of the solid surface and high levels of noise. However, there is (1) no evidence of abrupt variations in fluid pressure or normal stress in both drained and 277 undrained conditions (see Figs. 2 and 3A) and (2) no intensification of surface erosion (wear) 278 in experiments performed with fluids with respect to room-humidity (Fig. 3B). Moreover, 279 acoustic emissions were recorded in experiments conducted with SHIVA but on Westerly 280 281 granite in room-humidity and drained conditions (Passelegue et al., 2013). Noteworthy, the intensity and number of acoustic emissions increased in room-humidity conditions (i.e., in the 282 absence of liquid water) suggesting that cavitation did not occur in the presence of pore fluids. 283

At the initiation of slip in both marble and basalt, the negligible contribution of TMP to the large frictional weakening of the experimental fault is further supported by the absence of variations in either normal stress or shortening (i.e. no evidence of dilatation) (**Fig. 3B**).

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At steady-state, the ineffectiveness of TMP is demonstrated by 1) the occurrence of solidified 288 friction melts, which cover the surface of Etna Basalt cylinders independently of the fluid 289 content. The experimental and microstructural observations suggest that the dominant 290 weakening mechanism was flash heating causing melting at asperity contacts at the initiation 291 292 of slip and frictional melt lubrication at steady-state (Goldsby and Tullis, 2011, Brown and Fialko, 2012, Violay et al., 2014) and 2) the occurrence of ultrafine-grained material in water 293 for Carrara marble experiments, independently of the hydraulic conditions. The experimental 294 and microanalytical observations suggest that the dominant weakening mechanism in Carrara 295 marble was probably flash heating of asperities at the initiation of sliding (Violay et al., 2013, 296 Spagnuolo et al., subm.) or a grain-size (possibly water-enhanced) dependent process (super-297

plasticity) at steady-state (Verberne et al., 2014; Green et al., 2015; De Paola et al., in
press.).

300

At the initiation of sliding, the apparently small contribution of measured TMP to fault 301 weakening under drained and undrained conditions might be partly due to the experimental 302 configuration. Indeed, at short time intervals, heating affects only the water volume trapped in 303 the slipping zone (Vol_s ~2 10^{-7} m³, given the average thickness of ~0.16 mm induced by 304 sample roughness over the 1.25 10^{-3} m² of slipping area), which is small compared to the fluid 305 volume in the vessel (Vol_v~ $5 \ 10^{-6} \ m^3$). For reasonable fault-parallel permeability the water on 306 the slipping zone and in the vessel are connected and pressure is at equilibrium. Then the 307 volume expansion of heated slip-zone water: 308

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$$dVol_{exp} = \lambda \Delta T Vol_s$$
 Eq. 1

is accommodated by the total water volume (λ being the water coefficient of thermal expansion). Assuming roughly constant λ , K (water incompressibility) and total available volume Vol_s+Vol_v (i.e., neglecting volume changes due to compliance of the vessel or of rocks on natural faults), we obtain an upper bound pressurization reached during fault slip:

Eq. 2

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$$dP = K dVol_{exp}/(Vol_s+Vol_v) = K \lambda \Delta T Vol_s/(Vol_s+Vol_v)$$

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On actual faults the volume of connected water (equivalent to Vol_v) per unit fault surface may be smaller than in the experiment, a condition which is readily extrapolated by reducing Vol_v in equation (1). In order to estimate the maximum contribution of TMP to frictional weakening, we assume Vol_v close to zero. The upper bound for pressurization is thus obtained assuming that (1) the heat produced by frictional sliding is entirely dissipated in a small water volume trapped in the slipping zone (Vol_s), (2) volume changes due to compliance of the vessel or of rocks on natural faults are negligible and (3) the buffering effect of thermal expansion of water by the connected volume is reduced to zero. Using λ =207 10⁻⁶ °C⁻¹, K= 2.1 GPa (**Waples and Waples, 2004**), Vol_v=0 and an estimated temperature increase of 20°C after a slip of 0.1 m we obtain a maximum pressurization of ~1.1 MPa. The bulk temperature increase in the slipping zone (for $\tau(t) = \mu(t)$ ($\sigma_n(t) - P_f(t)$) was estimated using the heat rate production and solving the 1D diffusion problem (Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959) such that:

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$$T(t) = \frac{1}{\rho \cdot Cp \cdot \sqrt{\kappa\pi}} \cdot \int_{0}^{t} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\tau(t') \cdot V(t')}{\sqrt{t-t'}} dt \qquad \text{Eq. 3}$$

330

(where thermal capacity $Cp = 880 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and 116 J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹ respectively for calcite and 331 basalt samples, density $\rho = 2700$ kg m⁻³ and 2900 kg m⁻³ respectively for calcite and basalt 332 sample and thermal diffusivity $\kappa = 1.48 \ 10^{-6} \ m^2 \ s^{-1}$ and 0.21 m² s⁻¹ respectively for calcite and 333 basalt sample and t is the time need to slip from 0 and 100 mm (Eppelbaum et al., 2014; 334 Hanley et al., 1978; Waples and Waples, 2004; for further details see Violay et al., 2013). 335 336 From equations 2 and 3, the thermal pressurization of 1.1 MPa would induce a friction drop of 337 about 15% from peak stress; such a drop was already achieved before 0.01 m of slip, even in drained or room-humidity experiments (Fig. 3). As a consequence, upon extrapolation to 338 conditions where the water volume surrounding the fault is negligible, thermal pressurization 339 is less efficient than other weakening mechanisms (e.g., flash weakening and heating of 340 asperities) and would add a further relative weakening to an already lubricated fault. The 341 contribution from thermal pressurization will decrease with increasing fluid connectivity and 342 can be quantified as follows. From Eq. 2, the fluid volume expansion dVolexp due to the 343 temperature increase results in an increase in pore fluid pressure: 344

345
$$P_{f(t)} = P_{f(t0)} + K \frac{\lambda \Delta T Vol_s}{Vol_v + Vol_s} \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

346 Weakening due to water pressurization w_p increases with P_{f} .

347
$$w_p = \frac{\sigma_n - P_f(t)}{\sigma_n - P_{if(t_0)}}$$
 Eq. 5

and is related to the connected fluid volume (in m³) per unit fault surface in m². A value of $w_p = 1$ corresponds to no contribution to weakening from pressurized fluids (i.e., $P_f = P_f(t_0)$). From **Fig. 7**, the maximum effect of pressurization is a drop by 40% for connected volumes of less than a cubic centimetre per unit fault area (corresponding to 10⁻⁶ m). For values above 1 litre of connected water per unit fault area (corresponding to a water layer of average thickness 1 mm) the pressurization effect is buffered and negligible.

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355 Conclusions

We conclude that even extremely thin (< 100 μ m) and low permeability (< 10⁻¹⁷ m² 356 slipping zones, may lead to a relatively unimportant TMP of pore fluids during seismic slip. 357 These new experimental results apply to slip surfaces within cohesive rocks where strain 358 localization is instantaneous, resulting in rapid temperature increase of the slipping zone and 359 leading to the activation of other weakening mechanisms (Rice, 2006, Goldsby and Tullis, 360 2011, Di Toro et al., 2010). In the case of non-cohesive rocks (gouges), strain is distributed 361 362 within the gouge layer before being localized (Beeler et al., 1996, Marone et al., 1990, Smith et al., 2015). These results in a gradual temperature increase during slip and TMP of 363 pore fluids might still be an efficient fault weakening mechanism. 364

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Figure. 1: Friction coefficient versus slip in Etna basalt. Experiments were performed at slip 485 rate, $V = 3 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ (target slip rate), acceleration = 7.8 ms⁻², and initial normal stress ($\sigma_n^{\text{eff}}(t_0)$) 486 comprised between 10 MPa and 30 MPa under either drained conditions (experiments s928, 487 s926 and s930), and undrained conditions (s932, s922, and s924). Independently of the initial 488 $\sigma_n^{\text{eff}}(t_0)$, a reduction of ~20% of μ_{ss} was measured in the experiments performed under 489 undrained conditions. The regular oscillations (~0.125 m in wavelength) in shear stress in the 490 initial 3-4 meters of slip observed in experiment s932 are interpreted as due to the not perfect 491 alignment of the sheared samples. In fact, the wavelength of the oscillations corresponds to 492 the equivalent sample circumference $[\pi (r_{\text{external}} + r_{\text{internal}}) = 0.1256 \text{ m}]$. The amplitude of the 493 oscillations decreases progressively with cumulated slip due to wear and melting of the 494 sliding surfaces and disappears after 4 m of slip. 495

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Figure 2: Shear stress versus slip in Etna basalt and Carrara marble. Experiments were 497 performed at $V = 3 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ (target slip rate), acceleration = 7.8 ms⁻², and initial effective normal 498 stress $(\sigma_n^{eff}(t_0)) = 20 MPa$ at the initiation of the experiments under following environmental 499 and hydraulic conditions: A) Etna basalt: room-humidity (s485 σ_n = 20 MPa: black curve), 500 pore water under drained conditions (s921 and s926: red and green curve), pore water under 501 undrained conditions (s922, s925, s927 and s933: yellow, orange, purple, and blue curves). B) 502 Carrara marble: room-humidity (s307 σ_n = 20 MPa: black curve), pore water under drained 503 conditions (s1023 and s1035: red and green curve), pore water under undrained conditions 504 (s1024 and s1028: yellow and blue curves). Pore water pressure (full line) and shortening 505 (dashed line) for drained and undrained experiments are depicted with the same colors as the 506 507 reported shear stress.

Figure 3: Mechanical data. A) Close up of the first 0.05 m of slip of Fig. 1A for experiments s485 (room-humidity, black curve), s922, s933 (drained, purple and blue curves), s921, s926, (undrained, red and green curves). Pore water pressure for drained and undrained experiments are depicted with the same colors as the reported shear stress. B) Normal effective stress and shortening versus slip plot for experiments s485 (room-humidity, black curve), s922, s933 (drained, purple and blue curves), s921 and s926 (undrained, red and green curves).

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Figure 4: Summary figure of the mechanical data for Etna basalt (22 experiments, Figs. A and B) and 516 Carrara marble (11 experiments, Figs. C and D) reported in this study. Experiments were performed at 517 $V = 3 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ (target slip rate), acceleration = 7.8 ms⁻², and $P_t(t_0) \sim 5$ MPa at the initiation of the drained 518 and undrained experiments. A) Etna basalt: - friction coefficient vs. effective normal stress with 519 respect to the pore fluid pressure at steady-state $(\sigma_n^{\text{eff}}(t) = \sigma_n(t) - (P_f(t_0) + dP))$ i.e. total fluid pressure, 520 including variations due to fluid heating and mechanical effects of sample shortening and volume 521 522 change in the vessel) under room-humidity conditions (green circles), drained conditions (red circles) and undrained conditions. - Blue squares: Friction coefficient vs. effective normal stress with respect 523 to the pore fluid pressure at the initiation of the experiment ($\sigma_n^{\text{eff-0}}(t) = \sigma_n(t) - P_f(t_0)$). The steady-state 524 shear stress data normalized by the normal effective stress at to show a systematic decrease of c. 20% 525 with respect to the steady-state shear stress normalized by the effective stress at steady-state. Therfore, 526 527 the double faced black arrows highlights the role of thermo-mechanical pressurization.

B) Etna basalts: percentage of residual friction with respect to the steady-state friction after 5 cm of slip vs. effective normal stress under room-humidity conditions (green circles) drained conditions (red circles) and undrained conditions (blue circles). Y axis: μ_p = peak friction, μ_{ss} = steady-state friction, μ_r = residual friction. (C) and (D), case for Carrara Marble. Standard deviation is within the dimension of the symbols.

Figure 5: Evolution of the shear stress (blue curve) and temperature (red curve) measured by
the thermocouple during experiment s929 (undrained conditions).

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Figure 6: Slipping zones of Etna basalt after steady-state friction was achieved (>1 m of slip). Experimental conditions: acceleration 7.8 ms⁻², initial $\sigma_n^{eff}(to) = 20$ MPa and slip rate, V = 3 ms⁻¹. A-B: Room-humidity conditions C-D: Drained conditions. E-F: Undrained conditions. Independently of the environmental conditions, at the end of experiments, the wall rocks were separated by continuous layer of glass. B, D and F are enlargements of the slipping zones. Field emission scanning electron microscope- Backscattered electron images.

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Figure 7: Weakening due to water pressurization w_p versus the connected volume per unit fault surface (values of $w_p = 1$ correspond to no weakening). Maximum effect of pressurization is a drop to 40% for connected volumes of less than a cubic centimeter per unit fault area. For values above 1 liter of connected buffering water, the pressurization effect is negligible.

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Table 1: Summary of experimental conditions and results. See main text for explanations.
C.M. = Carrara marble; E.B.=Etna basalt.

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Table 2: Chemical composition of the basalt and of the glass. Chemical bulk composition of the Etna basalt (Giordano and Dingwell, 2003*); Electron MicroProbe Analysis (EMPA) chemical compositions of the initial glass and of the solidified frictional melt. The EPMA analysis do not close to about 100% because only Fe2+ was determined. The S.D. refers to the standard deviation of the EMPA composition of the solidified friction melts.

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Etna basalt



Initial effective normal stress (MPa)

Carrara marble











