

## Earthquake Physics in Beamline Deformation Experiments

### 1. Introduction

Despite centuries of research, the most fundamental aspects of earthquakes remain unknown including the conditions under which they start, how they propagate, and how they arrest. Because of these holes in the general knowledge of earthquake physics, earthquake prediction remains elusive. The roadblock in making progress revolves around the fact that earthquakes occur at depth, where we cannot observe the micromechanics that are undoubtedly important parts of the failure process. Although rock mechanics experiments have been vital in making progress in understanding earthquake micromechanics, there remain limitations to this approach because deformation at the asperity scale can be difficult to capture. Conducting rock deformation experiments within synchrotrons will help us elucidate this scale.

Beamlines are high energy sources of synchrotron x-ray and neutron radiation. These can be used to illuminate lattice orientation and material contrast, allowing characterization of microstructures, internal stress, and internal strain on the sub-grain scale [Bernier et al., 2011; Robinson and Harder, 2009; Suter et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2005; Weidner et al., 2010]. With specially constructed experimental apparatuses that are radiation-transparent or -translucent [Wang et al., 2003; Voltolini, et al., 2019; Fusses et al., 2013; Renard et al., 2016; Butler et al., 2020], these techniques can be used in near real time during deformation experiments.

Much if not most of the beamline experimental work in the US to date has focused on conditions within the deep crust, mantle and core of the earth, as an extension of the NSF/DOE CHiPR and COMPRESS, high temperature, high pressure mineral physics initiatives, including the study of deep earthquakes (e.g. Schubnel et al., 2013) or the creep of serpentine under upper mantle conditions (Hilaireret et al., 2007). In these deep environments deformation is predominately non-dilatant. Such mechanisms are well suited to be imaged and analyzed during beamline experiments where observable material contrasts are diagnostic of elemental and phase differences. Moreover inelastic strain is largely viscous or plastic and in the ductile field the pattern of crystal preferred orientation developed by deformation is a primary diagnostic tool for determining rheology.

In contrast to deep deformation processes, in the shallow brittle regime where earthquakes nucleate and propagate, the dominant pressure dependence of material strength that controls faulting and earthquakes, originates from or involves dilatancy [Brace et al., 1966]. Propitiously, high X-ray adsorption contrasts among fractures, crystalline and sedimentary rock, interstitial porosity, and dilatant granular shear zones are easily distinguished in beamlines. Work to date primarily images dilatancy during intact failure [e.g., McBeck et al., 2018; Cartwright-Taylor et al., 2020; Renard et al., 2017] and slip on saw-cut rock samples (McBeck, 2019; Renard et al., 2020), although much wider applications are possible. In addition to dilatancy, the onset of earthquake faulting hinges on effective pressure, i.e. the difference between solid (grain framework) stress and pore fluid pressure. Thus imaging of fluid and its pressure distribution are key targets of beamline experiments in earthquake

physics. Additional pressure (and strain rate) dependencies are thought to control the mechanics of earthquake instability (earthquake nucleation) [Ruina, 1980; 1983]. These pressure and strain rate dependences are widely hypothesized to involve true ductile or exotic distributed deformation at isolated highly stressed points of contact [Dieterich and Kilgore, 1994], or surface adhesion or chemical effects on asperity contacts [Li et al., 2011] within the shear zone or on fault surfaces. Beamlines with their attendant sub-micrometer deformation and phase resolution are well-suited for such studies of contact scale friction, granular mechanics and a variety of other topics important to brittle deformation detailed later in this report.

## **2. Existing approaches and applications**

Standard beamline analytical techniques are near-field high-energy diffraction microscopy (HEDM) which is capable of reconstructing 3-dimensional (3D) grain orientation fields; far-field HEDM for determining the average orientation and elastic strain states of thousands of individual grains simultaneously [Bernier et al. 2011]; transmission orientation and strain measurements that probe the orientation dependence of lattice strain in grain ensembles [Bernier et al 2011; Robinson and Harder 2009]; absorption-based X-ray and neutron tomography for imaging mineral distributions, porosity and fractures in rocks [e.g. Cnudde and Boone, 2013; Lindquist et al., 2000; Tengattini et al., 2020; Winkler et al., 2002]; and energy-dispersive X-ray diffraction mapping used to determine 3D elastic fields in large specimens [e.g. Steuwer et al., 2004; Henningson et al., 2020].

An additional advantage to X-ray techniques is that the implied stress from lattice spacing strain can be inferred on a grain scale [Weidner et al., 2010]. When combined with micro-tomographic imaging [Boulard et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2011] (3 dimensional measurements of x-ray attenuation, depending on the composition and microstructure) 3D maps of density, composition, orientation, elastic strain, inelastic strain and stress may be constructed. These techniques allow the evolution of microstructures to be tracked during deformation [Suter et al., 2008].

In the brittle field microtomography has been used primarily to map the onset of fracture induced failure in crystalline rock [McBeck et al., 2021; Renard et al., 2018], marble [Kandula et al 2019; Renard et al. 2020], limestone [Huang et al., 2019], and sandstone [Tudisco et al., 2015; Renard et al., 2019]. Many of these studies focus on the coalescence of fracture populations into system (sample) scale failure or other localization kinematics that are important for earthquake occurrence. Additionally there are isolated preliminary studies of induced fracturing [Zheng et al., 2018], deformation of granular material [Hall et al., 2010], fluid flow in fractures [Polsky et al., 2013] and friction [Zhao et al., 2017; Renard et al., 2020] that have profound promise and important implications for studying earthquake physics in beamlines. Additional potential but nascent techniques are to combine micro-tomography with digital image correlation, allowing the construction of full strain tensors for subvolumes during deformation [Hall et al., 2010; Tudisco et al., 2017]. The presence or absence of pore fluids within the pore space can be investigated by tagging water with high atomic number elements, e.g., iodine, cesium, so that fluid distribution is tomographically visible [Polsky et al., 2013]. Imaging

dynamic pore pressure heterogeneity can potentially be accomplished by leveraging the pressure dependent X-ray attenuation of heavy gasses such as Xenon and Krypton [Aljamaan et al., 2017]. Finally, time independent studies of microstructure of natural shear zones are an important application of micro-tomography to improve interpretation of deformation and rheology [Kirilova et al., 2020]

### **3. Earthquake physics science priorities**

At the February 2021 ISRD Beamline meeting hosted by Advanced Photon Source at Argonne National Lab, we discussed as a group what the top science priorities are for advancing our understanding of earthquake physics. We enumerate them here, but emphasize that this list is not exhaustive. In the following section, we suggest possible beamline experiments that would address some of these questions.

1. What physical processes control fault slip speeds throughout the earthquake cycle?
2. Are there measurable reliable precursors to earthquakes and what process do they represent? Alternatively, is earthquake nucleation a cascade of failures?
3. What are the physics of friction (at room temperature and at elevated temperature in the Earth) and how can it be adequately represented with constitutive relations? how does friction generate on- and off-fault rock damage?
4. How do pore fluids influence the stress and strength in fault zones?
5. What are the source physics of high frequency ground motion (e.g. fault roughness, strength heterogeneity, radiation sources with a wide range of scales, complex motion of fault slip due to fault rheology)?
6. For megathrust earthquakes in subduction zones, how does the updip fault rheology affect coseismic fault slip/slip rate, shear localization, ground motion and tsunami-genesis?
7. How deep do earthquake ruptures propagate below the interseismic brittle-ductile transition?
8. What are the physics of deep slow slip and of non-volcanic tremor?
9. What is a low frequency earthquake? Is it a regular earthquake with a very small stress drop? What controls their spatial location/extent in the deep crust?
10. Can deep slow slip events trigger great subduction earthquakes (is there a gap between the locked and tremor zones and what is its rheology)?
11. Does the final earthquake size scale with earthquake initiation size?
12. Why are earthquake stress drops (on average) small, largely independent of scale, depth, temperature, faulting environment, amount of shear generated heat etc? Why do ruptures propagate at near critical energy release levels?

### **4. Target experiments**

The earthquake cycle involves an extremely wide range of slip velocities, at least 11 orders of magnitude from sub nanometer/s up to around 10 meter/s. Because of limits on experiment duration, beamlines are not optimal for studying the low slip speed end of the range. Although imaging is relatively fast, beamline acquisition rates are not fast enough to capture the high end of the range (durations ~ 0.001 to 0.0001 s or shorter). Thus, at present, beamline experiments in earthquake physics might initially focus on important intermediate speeds

associated with earthquake nucleation, shear localization/delocalization, afterslip, fault creep and comparative studies of fault zones before and after rapid slip

*Studies of contact scale friction* – frictional strength is widely thought to result from the product of fractional contacting area and shear strength, with the dominant role being played by contacting area (aka dilatancy; Bowden and Tabor, 1950). Interestingly, recent detailed studies suggest that contact strength is a key (quality over quantity). If we are able to understand frictional processes on the scale of contacts and contact bonding, then we will have made significant advances in understanding the physics of rate and state friction as well as of frictional processes that occur at earthquake slip velocities. Laboratory bare rock surface contact dimensions are micron to sub-micron and contact area is subsequently very poorly resolved using optical techniques (i.e., 450 nm wavelength). Beamline micro-tomography (10s to 100s nm) is ideally suited for contact scale studies of interface friction [e.g., Zhao et al., 2017] and it is now possible, through the use of multi-optics set.u to image both the entire sample and zoom along the sliding interface to image contact at spatial resolution down to 500 nm.

*Granular flow* – the low strength of plate boundary faults, particularly subduction megathrusts, suggests low effective stresses. Under these conditions grain fracture is less important and faulting is more likely to be dominated by granular shear rather than by slip on fractures or highly localized slip. 3D X-ray and neutron tomography techniques should allow great advances in granular mechanics at intermediate slip rates.

*Wear and localization within finite brittle shear zone* – There are virtually no useful constraints on wear and shear localization from laboratory faulting experiments due to the difficulties in making in situ observations. The opportunity to use micro-tomography to study the development of shear zones from wear and fracturing, and the subsequent development of localized faults between rough surfaces, are among the most interesting applications of beamline technology in brittle faulting. Processes that result in frictional weakening with increasing slip or slip velocity tend to promote localization, so being able to observe how localization, or delocalization, occurs in samples is helpful for understanding the operational frictional processes behind rate and state friction as well as high-velocity frictional weakening.

*Phase changes* – Fault healing and aseismic creep may be facilitated by phase transitions within fault gouge materials. At high stress and temperature asperity contacts, minerals might undergo in situ phase changes that could have strong effects of fault strength and stability. Even at low stress and low temperature reaction rates may be high due to large chemical potentials [Moore and Lockner, 2013] and/or small grain sizes [Yund et al., 1990]. Beamline experiments may be a window into the relationship between deformation and reaction within reactive fault zones. In-situ XRD and other measurements could map what might in fact be transient phases for the first time. The other thing with phases is shear zone mixing experiments. doing those blind and interpreting the final microstructures is so time consuming – incredible progress could be made in a few relatively long slip experiments. rotary is the way the way to do those [e.g. a setup like zhao et al 2017 in a ct scanner probably rather than a true beamline?] even if they were done a really low normal stress we'd learn all kinds of stuff

*Earthquake nucleation and precursors* – Beamline studies would provide the opportunity to study earthquake nucleation and precursors in 3D. Possible novel targets might be imaging fluid injection induced nucleation, and imaging during feedback controlled loading using AE rates (Lockner et al., 1991)

*Post seismic fault properties and afterslip* - Much of our knowledge of deep fault rheology comes from studies of post–seismic deformation. However, these studies often have difficulty distinguishing deep distributed deformation from true deep fault afterslip (due again to proximity issues between the surface and the deformation). Other issues involve lumping 2 and 3 D depth variation into lower spatial dimension models. Studies of post seismic relaxation at modest temperature are a natural application of beamline technology - to directly determine degree of localization, directly measure the strain rate and time dependent strength and the position of the brittle to ductile transition with strain rate.

*Fluid flow* – Fluid flow and pore pressure are first order influences on induced seismicity and on failure onset in saturated shear zones in lab studies [French and Zhu, 2017; Proctor et al., 2020]. The ability to track pore fluid movement [e.g., Polsky et al., 2013] in and out of fault zones and simultaneous tomographic inferences of elastic properties/density/wavespeed will likely lead to many breakthroughs in fault mechanics

*Fluid pressure* – Among the holy grails of experimental brittle rock mechanics is measuring in situ pore pressure. There is mounting evidence that the distribution of pore pressure controls undrained failure and energy release during the onset of failure (French and Zhu, 2017). Possible techniques that would allow measuring the spatial distribution of pore pressure or relative pore pressure are a high long-term priority in brittle rock physics and earthquake fault mechanics.

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