

Highlights

Earthquake nucleation in the laboratory: insights from space-time imaging of quasi-static precursory slip under tri-axial conditions.

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- We study the nucleation of stick-slip instabilities in a triaxial setup
- Precursory quasi-static fault slip is imaged in space and time from local strain data
- We illustrate a concept of frustrated nucleation leading to macroscopic failure
- Memory effects influence nucleation pattern over repeated fault reactivations

Earthquake nucleation in the laboratory: insights from space-time imaging of quasi-static precursory slip under tri-axial conditions.

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Abstract

We study the initiation of frictional instabilities in a saw-cut Westerly granite sample loaded under triaxial conditions reproducing the stress levels at seismogenic depths, up to 90 MPa. By inverting local axial strain measurements, we image the quasi-static ($\mu\text{m.s}^{-1}$) aseismic slip preceding dynamic slip events in space and time. With this approach we were able to track the expansion of a nucleation zone at about $10\text{-}50\text{ m.day}^{-1}$ until the onset of the dynamic rupture that generally occurs when the quasi-static slip fronts reach the boundaries of the experimental fault, suggesting a frustrated nucleation process. We also show that the pre-slip pattern, the expansion rate and the nucleation duration evolve with confining stress and with the successive dynamic reactivation of the fault, that we interpret as a non-recoverable change in the frictional properties in the sample.

Keywords: earthquake nucleation, aseismic slip, critical nucleation length, rupture front, tri-axial loading, saw-cut sample, friction

1. Introduction

Earthquakes could be seen as frictional instabilities developing on critically stressed crustal faults (Ohnaka and Shen, 1999). The initiation, or nucleation of such instabilities, can manifest on real faults as accelerating aseismic slip transients (Roeloffs, 2006; Ruiz et al., 2014; Uchida and Matsuzawa, 2013; Nagao et al., 2014), or foreshock sequences (Dodge et al., 1996; Bouchon et al., 2013; Cabrera et al., 2022). Understanding the physical control on earthquake nucleation is thus key to improve earthquake hazard assessment methods relying on precursors.

The characterization of aseismic nucleation transients on real faults is generally limited by the resolution of geodetic networks, and by the lack of information concerning the state of stress prevailing at seismogenic depths. Earthquake nucleation can instead be studied in the laboratory, by generating stick-slip events on centimetric or metric-scale faults undergoing controlled stressing conditions. A first class of experiments consists of using 2D setups such as direct shear apparatus, allowing to monitor fault reactivation either with local slip sensors distributed along the experimental interface (McLaskey and Kilgore, 2013; Selvadurai and Glaser, 2017), or with photoelasticity techniques when polycarbonate or PMMA material is used as a rock analog (Nielsen et al., 2010; Latour et al., 2013; Guérin-Marthe et al., 2019a; Gvirtzman and Fineberg, 2021). In such metric scale setups, normal stress generally does not exceed 20 MPa. In order to increase the confining stress up to ranges prevailing at seismogenic depths (of the order of 100 MPa for instance), triaxial setups can be used with centimetric scale rock samples (McLaskey and Lockner, 2014; Passelègue et al., 2017; Dresen et al., 2020;

26 Marty et al., 2023). Under triaxial loading, the approach to stick slip failure
27 can be measured with strain gauge arrays, and acoustic emissions monitoring
28 devices.

29 Nucleation of stick-slip events revealed by such experiments consists of
30 precursory accelerating aseismic slip (Ohnaka and Shen, 1999; Latour et al.,
31 2013; Dresen et al., 2020), similar to what could be observed for natural
32 earthquakes. Moreover this precursory phase could be associated with in-
33 tense acoustic emissions interpreted as foreshocks of the main event (Dresen
34 et al., 2020; Marty et al., 2023). Overall, the stick-slip initiation is influenced
35 by the confining stress, the loading rate, the fault roughness (Guérin-Marthe
36 et al., 2019b; Dresen et al., 2020; Guérin-Marthe et al., 2023). Experiments
37 employing a 2D setup with slip sensors or photoelasticity can provide a de-
38 tailed picture of the spatio-temporal evolution of precursory slip. A first
39 quasi-static stage where slip is localized on a patch that slowly expands
40 along the fault is followed by a transition phase where the slip and expan-
41 sion (rupture speed) accelerate towards dynamic rupture (Ohnaka and Shen,
42 1999; Nielsen et al., 2010; Latour et al., 2013; Guérin-Marthe et al., 2019b).
43 Similar techniques however cannot be used in a triaxial setup, so that the
44 spatio-temporal evolution of slip under higher confining stress is less well
45 constrained.

46 In this framework, we developed recently a kinematic inversion approach
47 to image quasi-static slip along a fault loaded in a triaxial setup relying on
48 strain gauge measurements (Dublanchet et al., 2024). A first application
49 on the nucleation of a stick slip event in granite at 90 MPa confining stress
50 revealed a quasi-static slip event with similar features as the first phase of

51 nucleation observed in 2D setups. The slip event lasted about 20 s, accu-
52 mulated up to several microns of slip, and expanded at a speed of 100-200
53 meters per day. Here we extend our preliminary study to a larger data-set:
54 we infer the spatio-temporal evolution of quasi-static slip during the nucle-
55 ation of 21 stick slip events occurring in Westerly granite, under confining
56 stresses ranging from 30 to 90 MPa.

57 **2. Data and precursory slip imaging**

58 *2.1. Data*

59 In the following we analyze the nucleation of 21 among 31 stick-slip events
60 triggered by tri-axial loading of a cylindrical Westerly granite saw cut sample
61 (Figure 1). The experiment is presented in details in Dublanchet et al. (2024).
62 Here we provide a brief summary of the experimental conditions.

63 The sample is 8.8 cm long and has a diameter of 4 cm. The fault surface,
64 oriented at 30° from the principal stress σ_1 , has been polished before load-
65 ing with a silicon carbide powder (#1200 grit) to approximately achieve a
66 $5 \mu m$ roughness. For a given confining pressure $P_c = \sigma_3$, σ_1 is progressively
67 increased by imposing a constant volume injection rate in the axial cham-
68 ber, until a series of stick slip cycles activates the fault. This procedure is
69 repeated at different levels of increasing (30, 60 and 90 MPa) and decreasing
70 (60 MPa, 30 MPa) confining pressures. The resulting evolution of shear stress
71 along the fault (computed from axial and confining stress measurements) is
72 shown in Figures 1a, b and c. Shear stress drops indicate macroscopic slip
73 events (SE). SEs are initiated at different levels of shear stress, suggesting
74 a change in the effective static friction coefficient f_s across successive fault

75 reactivation (Figure 1d). Overall, f_s tends to remain constant during the in-
76 creasing confining pressure stages, before increasing from 0.35 to 0.55 during
77 the decreasing pressure stage (Figure 1d). Stress drops during macroscopic
78 slip events furthermore range from 2 to 18 MPa, corresponding to 40-150 μm
79 of coseismic slip (Figure 1e).

80 Three gap sensors located outside the loading vessel continuously mea-
81 sured the shortening of the whole column (sample and apparatus) during
82 the experiment. This data combined with differential stress measurements
83 is used to estimate the sample shortening, and the average slip occurring
84 on the fault sample, as detailed in Dublanche et al. (2024). As shown in
85 Figures 1 f, g, and h, slip events are all preceded by micrometric precursory
86 slip accumulation on the fault. This preslip stage is hereafter considered as
87 the nucleation phase.

88 In addition, an array of 8 strain gauges (G1 to G8) allowed to measure
89 the axial strain ε_{11} at different locations of the sample, and as close to the
90 fault as possible (2.4 mm below it). The position of the gauges is the same
91 as in Dublanche et al. (2024), and is reported in Figures 2f, S1 to S42 of
92 the supplementary material. In between two SE, the sample experiences
93 both an elastic and an inelastic strain, assumed to result from bulk response
94 and transient fault slip respectively. To extract the inelastic component of
95 strain, we removed the linear trend associated with the elastic response, as
96 detailed in Dublanche et al. (2024). Examples of resulting inelastic strain
97 arising from nucleation pre-slip is shown in Figure 2a, b and c for increasing
98 confining pressure from 30 to 90 MPa, and in Figure 2d and e for decreasing
99 confining pressure stage.

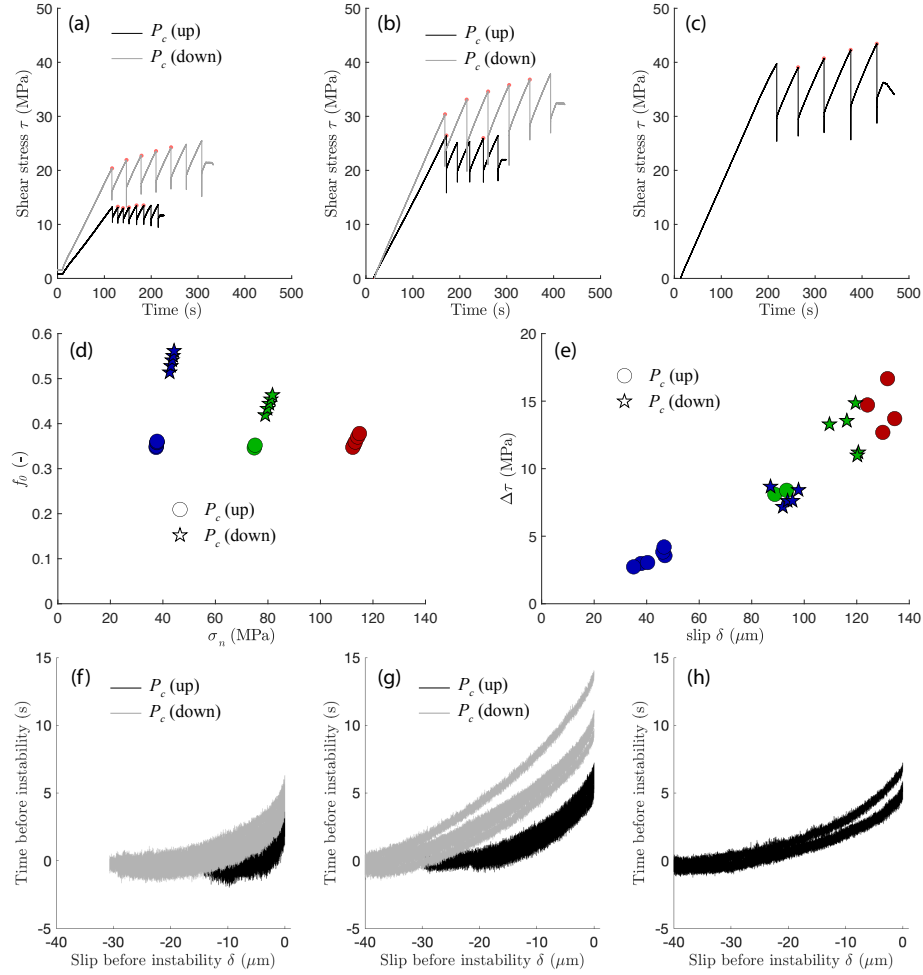


Figure 1: Evolution of the shear stress during stick-slip experiments conducted at 30 (a), 60 (b) and 90 (c) MPa confining pressure. The black curves corresponds to the experiments conducted by increasing the confining pressure from 30 to 90 MPa confining pressure. Grey lines corresponds to the experiments conducted after the one at 90 MPa confining pressure. Red dots indicate the timing of macroscopic slip events (SEs) used in this study. (d) Measurement of the static friction as a function axial normal stress acting on the fault. (e) Evolution of the macroscopic slip as a function of the shear stress drop for each events studied. In (d) and (e), the circles correspond to the events recorded during the increase of the confining pressure. The stars corresponds to the events recorded during the experiments conducted after the experiments at 90 MPa confining pressure, by decreasing the confining pressure to 60 and 30 MPa. (f), (g) and (h). Evolution of the fault slip prior the instabilities during stick-slip experiments conducted at 30, 60 and 90 MPa confining pressure. The black curves corresponds to the experiments conducted by increasing the confining pressure from 30 to 90 MPa confining pressure. Grey lines corresponds to the experiments conducted after the one at 90 MPa confining pressure.

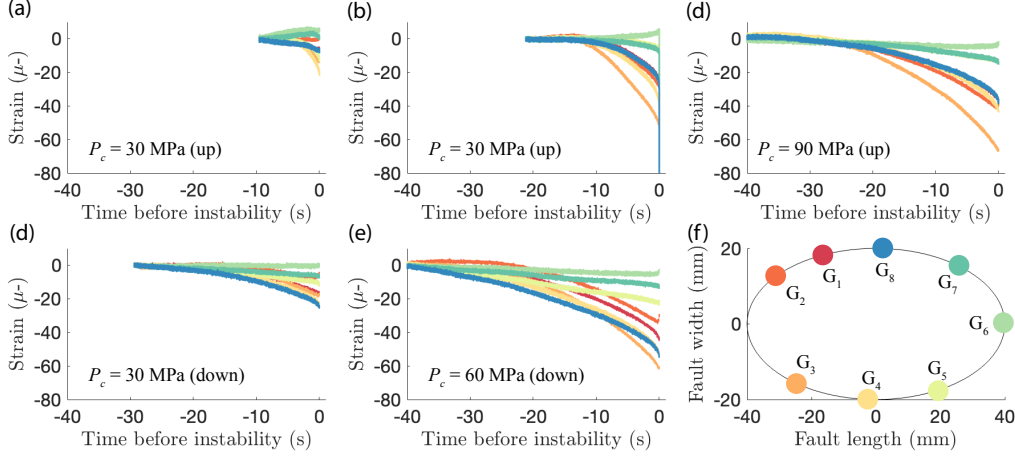


Figure 2: Evolution of axial strain before the instabilities during stick-slip experiments conducted at 30 (a), 60 (b) and 90 (c) MPa confining pressure, and decreasing back the confining pressure to 60 (d) and 30 (e) MPa. One SE per level of confining is shown here. The color lines correspond to the strain gauges location in panel (f).

2.2. Kinematic inversion of precursory slip

We use the kinematic inversion scheme developed by Dublanchet et al. (2024) to infer from inelastic strain measurements (Figures 2a-e) the spatio-temporal evolution of preslip on the fault during SE nucleation. Here we recall the main features of the method.

The fault surface is discretized using triangular elements, and the fault slip at each node is parametrized as a cosine ramp function of finite duration and amplitude. The inversion scheme allows to retrieve the three parameters (onset time of slip, ramp duration, and slip amplitude) at each node that minimize the squared difference between observed and computed strains at the strain gauge locations, as well as between the observed and computed averaged slip on the fault. In order to compute the strains resulting from a

112 given fault slip distribution, we use a set of elasto-static Green's functions
 113 precomputed using a finite elements approach. In doing so, we assume the
 114 granite is a homogeneous isotropic elastic medium with Young's modulus
 115 $E=75$ GPa and Poisson ratio $\nu=0.25$ as obtained from the measure of the
 116 elastic response of the sample. We also consider the real cylindrical geometry
 117 of the sample and the experimental loading as boundary conditions.

118 For each slip event, we first perform a deterministic optimization step rely-
 119 ing on L-BFGS-B algorithm (Broyden, 1970; Fletcher, 1970; Goldfarb, 1970;
 120 Shanno, 1970), that converges to a minimum of the cost function (squared
 121 difference between modeled and observed strains and slip). Following the
 122 synthetic tests presented in Dublanchet et al. (2024), we use at this step a
 123 regularization of the cost function aiming at minimizing the gradient norm
 124 of the parameters. Based on the synthetic tests of Dublanchet et al. (2024),
 125 the regularization parameter we consider here is $\lambda = 0.1$. The resulting best
 126 model is used in a second step as an initial model for a global Bayesian explo-
 127 ration carried out with a MCMC algorithm (Metropolis et al., 1953; Hastings,
 128 1970). For each accepted model in the MCMC chain, we reconstruct the slip
 129 history of each node, so as to assess the uncertainty on the spatio-temporal
 130 evolution of fault slip during nucleation.

131 The cost function to be minimized during the deterministic optimization
 132 and MCMC explorations assumes diagonal covariance matrices, where di-
 133 agonal elements are computed from the standard deviation of the observed
 134 strain and mean slip, i.e. 10^{-6} and $0.1\mu m$ respectively. These values are
 135 readjusted before starting optimization iterations to account for the epis-
 136 temic uncertainty and for the quality of the strain gauges, estimated by their

137 ability to capture the elastic strain of the sample. All details are provided in
138 Dublanchet et al. (2024).

139 To ensure convergence of the MCMC, here again we followed the conclu-
140 sions of Dublanchet et al. (2024), and performed for each SE 10^8 exploration
141 iterations. In general, we achieved an acceptance rate between 0.2 and 0.3.
142 We could however achieve convergence only for 21 of the 31 SE, shown with
143 red dots in Figure 1a, b and c. The 21 SE nevertheless cover the whole range
144 of increasing and decreasing confining pressures.

145 3. Results

146 A summary of the space-time evolution of fault slip inferred during the
147 nucleation of 21 SEs is shown in Figure 3. The detailed history of fault
148 slip, and slip-rate are shown in Figures S1 to S43 of the supplementary ma-
149 terial. We represent the mean reconstructed slip history, that is the mean
150 prediction of all the models accepted during the MCMC exploration phase.
151 The contours shown in Figure 3 highlight the rupture time t_2 : each contour
152 encloses regions of the fault that have experienced more than $2 \mu\text{m}$ at the
153 time indicated by the colorscale. Note that t_2 is computed from the onset of
154 nucleation: $t_2 = 0$ when the first point of the fault accumulates more than
155 $2 \mu\text{m}$ of slip. In all of the different cases, nucleation is initiated on a small
156 patch of the fault (hereafter called the nucleation site). The slipping patch
157 then expands in all directions until macroscopic failure (or SE) occurs. For
158 some slip events, we observe a secondary nucleation patch (SE₂ for $P_c=30$
159 MPa up, SE₁ for $P_c=60$ MPa up, SE₁ and SE₃ for $P_c=90$ MPa up, SE₃ and
160 SE₅ for $P_c=60$ MPa down, all SE for $P_c=30$ MPa down). In each case, the

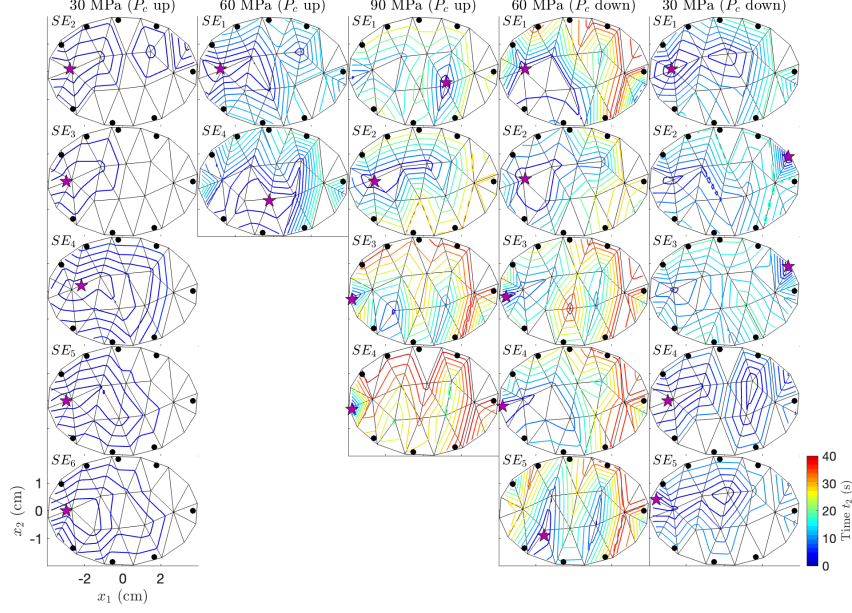


Figure 3: Rupture time t_2 , indicating the extent of nucleation patch. Each contour encloses regions of the fault that have experienced more than $2 \mu\text{m}$ at the time indicated by the colorscale. t_2 is computed from the mean reconstructed slip history. The grid used for the inversion of slip history is shown with solid black lines. Black dots indicate strain gauges position. The magenta star indicates the first node to slip.

total accumulated slip is of the order of 5 to $30 \mu\text{m}$, and slip rates range from 0.1 to $5 \mu\text{m.s}^{-1}$ (Figures Figures S1 to S43). Note that not all nucleation patches reach the fault boundary at the time of macroscopic failure (SE onset), in particular for the first slip events of the ascending confining stage, at $P_c=30 \text{ MPa}$. This feature will be further discussed later.

Figure 3 also indicates the nucleation site (star) for the mean reconstructed slip. In order to account for the uncertainty on slip history, we examined how the nucleation sites vary within the whole range of models

169 selected by the MCMC exploration. The results are shown in Figure 4a.
 170 Most of the SEs tend to nucleate in the central left part of the fault (close to
 171 $x_1 = -2$ cm, $x_2 = 0$ cm), in particular during the increasing confining pres-
 172 sure stages of the experiment (P_c up). The exceptions are SEs triggered at
 173 $P_c = 30$ MPa during decreasing confinement that nucleate preferentially on
 174 the right part of the fault ($x_1 > 0$). This result could be related to an evolu-
 175 tion of the interface properties across repeated failures (SEs) of the fault, as
 176 already suggested by the change in effective static friction coefficient shown
 177 in Figure 1d. In any case, results in Figure 4a indicate that the nucleation
 178 site can hardly be located with a precision smaller than a few centimeters.

179 In order to better characterize the nucleation of SEs, we next computed
 180 the evolution of nucleation patch area S_{nuc} with time to macroscopic failure
 181 (SE onset). We defined S_{nuc} at time t as the total area that has accumulated
 182 more than $u_{th} = 2$ μ m of slip. We computed $S_{nuc}(t)$ for all the reconstructed
 183 slip histories within one standard deviation (1σ) of the average reconstructed
 184 slip shown in Figure 3 (and S1 to S43). Recall that the MCMC exploration
 185 results in a range of models and thus in a range of slip evolution for each node
 186 of the fault. $S_{nuc}(t)$ is represented in Figure 4b and c, for all SEs occurring
 187 during the ascending (P_c up) and descending (P_c down) confining pressure
 188 stages of the experiment. The rate of surface expansion is also shown in
 189 Figure 4d and e.

190 For all the SEs, the rate of expansion \dot{S}_{nuc} first increases, then decreases
 191 when the slip fronts approach the fault boundaries (Figure 4d, e). During
 192 the whole nucleation, expansion rates remain below 10^{-3} m².s⁻¹. We observe
 193 in these Figures that the behavior of the nucleation zone strongly depends

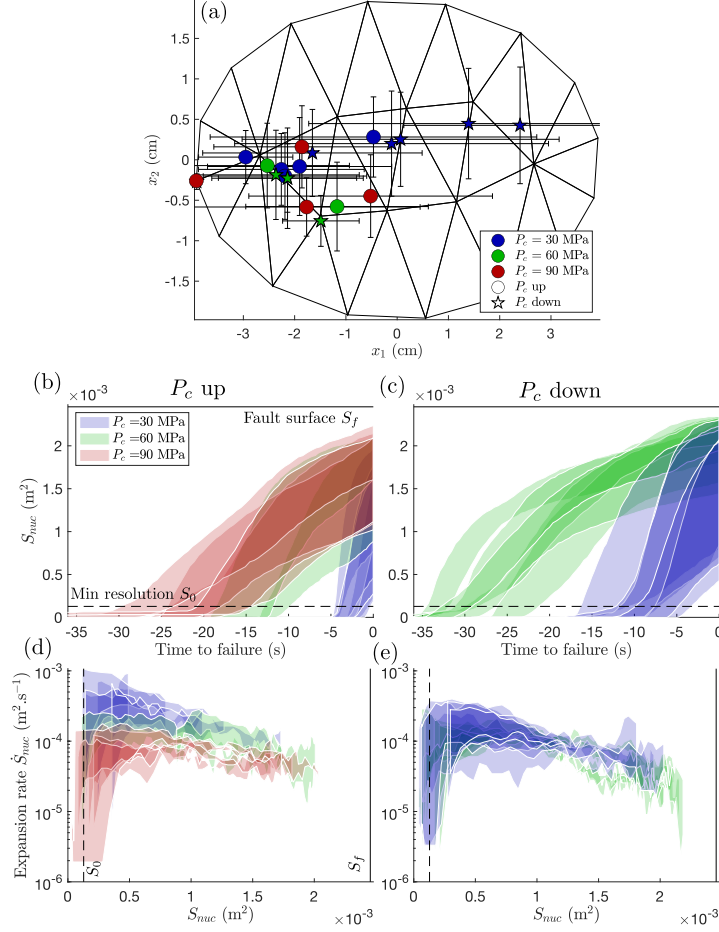


Figure 4: (a): Nucleation site of SE (fault location where slip first exceeds $2 \mu\text{m}$). Triangular mesh used for the inversion is shown with thin solid black lines. Symbols indicate the mean nucleation site determined from the reconstructed slip histories of all the models accepted in the MCMC exploration. Error bars indicate the one standard deviation on nucleation site position. (b) and (c): Nucleation zone surface S_{nuc} expansion before macroscopic failure for all the SE occurring during the ascending (a) and descending (b) confining pressure P_c stages of the experiment. The shaded area between two white lines indicates the 1σ range of predictions of the accepted models during the MCMC exploration. The black dashed line indicates the resolution of the inversion method (surface S_0), and the solid black line indicates the total experimental fault surface (surface S_f). (d) and (e): Rate of nucleation zone surface expansion \dot{S}_{nuc} for all the SE occurring during the ascending (c) and descending (d) confining pressure P_c stages of the experiment. Rates are represented as a function of the nucleation zone surface S_{nuc} . Dashed lines indicate the resolution S_0 and total fault surface S_f .

194 on the confining pressure, and changes with the accumulation of stick slip
 195 events on the fault, suggesting again a memory effect.

196 We report in Figure 5a and b the change in expansion rate \dot{S}_{nuc} and
 197 nucleation duration t_n as a function of confining pressure stages. The value
 198 of \dot{S}_{nuc} shown here is the average expansion rate before deceleration, that
 199 generally occurs when S_{nuc} is larger than $0.3S_f$, S_f being the total available
 200 fault surface (Figure 4b and c). t_n is computed as the delay between $S_{nuc} >$
 201 S_0 (S_{nuc} larger than the minimum resolution S_0 derived in Dublanchet et al.
 202 (2024)) and the onset of the SE.

203 As the confining pressure increases (P_c up), we observe that the expansion
 204 rate decreases (Figure 5a) and the nucleation gets longer (Figure 5c). First
 205 events under $P_c = 30$ MPa nucleate in about 5s, while the same process
 206 takes between 12 and 25s increasing P_c from 60 to 90 MPa respectively.
 207 Consistently, the expansion rate decreases from $20 - 40 \text{ m}^2.\text{day}^{-1}$ to $3 - 5$
 208 $\text{m}^2.\text{day}^{-1}$. During the decreasing P_c stages however, the nucleation duration
 209 still increases to 30s before decreasing back to about 10s at 30 MPa. The
 210 initial duration of 5s is thus not recovered at the end of the experiment.
 211 Similarly, the expansion rate slightly increases to $10 - 20 \text{ m}^2.\text{day}^{-1}$, and we
 212 do not observe the rapid expansion of the first events under similar confining
 213 pressure.

214 In Figure 5b, we show that the expansion rate \dot{S}_{nuc} approximately scales
 215 with the maximum slip rate V_s , except for one event occurring during the
 216 decreasing confining pressures stage at $P_c=60$ MPa. The surface expansion
 217 rate \dot{S}_{nuc} of the pre-slip patch can be approximately related to a rupture speed
 218 (propagation speed of slip fronts) and the maximum slip rate assuming the

219 pre-slip patch behaves as a circular crack of radius R_{nuc} , so that:

$$\dot{S}_{nuc} = 2\pi R_{nuc} \dot{R}_{nuc} \sim \pi L_f \frac{G}{\Delta\tau_{nuc}} V_s, \quad (1)$$

220 where G is the shear modulus of the granite, $L_f = \sqrt{S_f}$ and $\Delta\tau_{nuc}$ the static
 221 stress drop driving nucleation. In writing the second equality in equation
 222 (1), we used a simple fracture mechanics scaling (Lawn, 1993) to relate the
 223 rupture speed \dot{R}_{nuc} and the slip rate V_s . Note that equation (1) is only a
 224 rough approximation considering the complex slip pattern shown in Figure 3.
 225 As shown in Figure 5b, it nevertheless captures the trend obtained from our
 226 inversions, with a stress drop $\Delta\tau_{nuc}$ between 50 and 200 MPa. The outlier
 227 corresponds to SE 5 under decreasing confining pressure $P_c = 60$ MPa. As
 228 shown in the slip and slip-rate maps of the supplementary material, the
 229 inversion has selected models where a single node accumulates all the slip, in
 230 a region that is likely poorly resolved. This could explain the small value of
 231 expansion rate, and suggests that the MCMC exploration probably did not
 232 explore enough the parameter space in this case.

233 We also compute an effective nucleation length from the surface expansion
 234 as:

$$L_c^* = \sqrt{S_{nuc,f}}, \quad (2)$$

235 where $S_{nuc,f}$ is the final value of the nucleation patch surface, i.e. at the
 236 onset of the SE. The effective nucleation length L_c^* is shown in Figure 5d.
 237 The first series of SEs occurring at 30 MPa are characterized by a L_c^* val-
 238 ues significantly smaller than the fault length. The nucleation of other SEs
 239 consist of a slip event reaching the boundaries of the fault, which manifests

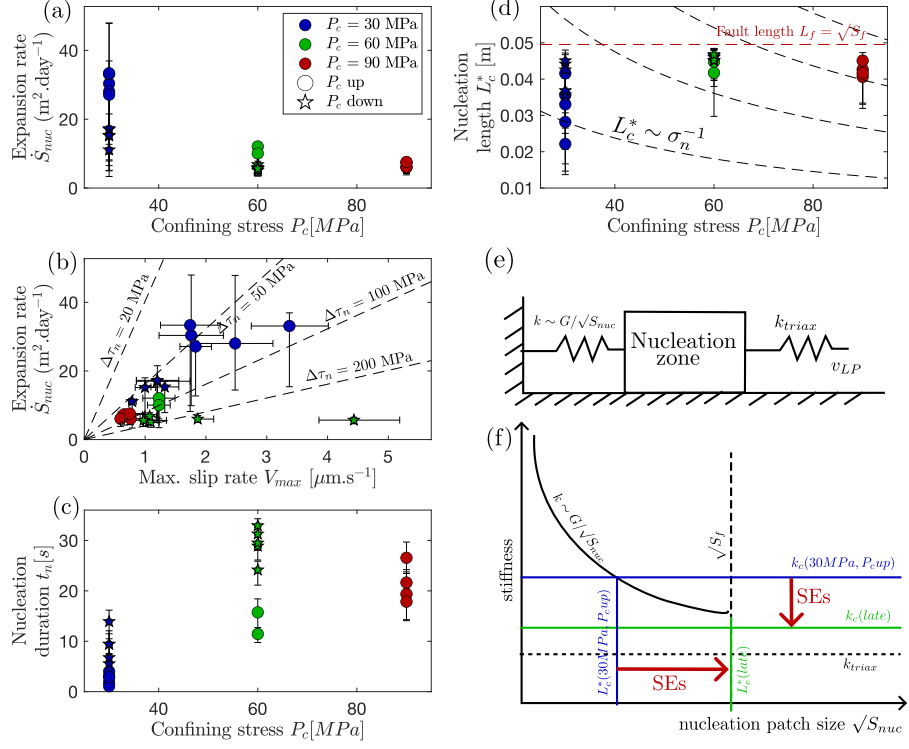


Figure 5: (a) Average rate of expansion of the nucleation zone, computed from results of Figure 4 for $S_0 < S_{nuc} < 0.3S_f$. Error bars indicate the 1 σ range of model predictions (shaded areas in Figure 4). (b) Scaling between expansion rate and maximum slip rate on the fault. Dots are inversion results. Black dashed lines indicate the scaling of equation (1) with different values of stress drop $\Delta\tau_{nuc}$. (c) Nucleation duration ($S_{nuc} > S_0$) of SEs. (d) Effective nucleation length L_c^* of SEs. Dots are inversion results. The red dashed line indicates the effective fault length L_f computed as $\sqrt{S_f}$. The black dashed lines indicate theoretical scalings with the inverse normal stress σ_n equation (2). (e): spring-block model of the nucleation zone. v_{LP} corresponds to the shortening imposed by injection in the axial chamber. k_{triax} is the machine stiffness, and k the effective stiffness of the nucleation zone. G is the shear modulus of the rock sample, S_{nuc} the area of the nucleation zone increasing in time as in Figure 4. (f): schematic evolution of stiffness k with nucleation zone expansion, critical stiffness k_c and corresponding nucleation length L_c^* across successive slip events (SEs). k_c and L_c^* evolve towards $k_c(late)$ and $L_c^*(late)$ after the series of SEs.

240 as L_c^* values close to the fault length, here estimated as $\sqrt{S_f}$. This feature
 241 was already shown in Figure 3. Note that even after decreasing the confining
 242 pressure back to 30 MPa, the L_c^* remains close to the fault length. We also
 243 indicate in Figure 5c the theoretical scaling of the critical nucleation length
 244 with inverse normal stress σ_n of the form:

$$L_c^* = \frac{\xi}{\sigma_n} = \frac{Gd_c}{\sigma_n}F. \quad (3)$$

245 Scaling (3) has been demonstrated for slip-weakening friction (Campillo and
 246 Ionescu, 1997; Uenishi and Rice, 2003) and rate-and-state friction (Rubin
 247 and Ampuero, 2005) and suggested by previous laboratory experiments (La-
 248 tour et al., 2013). The factor ξ embeds the shear modulus G , the critical
 249 slip d_c for frictional weakening and a functional of other friction parameters
 250 F . Under slip-weakening friction, $F = 1/(f_s - f_d)$, where f_s and f_d are the
 251 static and dynamic friction coefficients. For rate-and-state friction, F is a
 252 function of a (direct effect) and b (state) parameters (Rubin and Ampuero,
 253 2005). Our results indicate that the critical nucleation length does not follow
 254 such a simple scaling with constant frictional properties (d_c , f_s , f_d or a and
 255 b): as SEs accumulate, L_c^* increases and possibly becomes larger than the ex-
 256 perimental fault length. This increase can not be captured by our approach,
 257 where L_c^* by definition saturates at $\sqrt{S_f}$.

258 The occurrence of a SE in cases L_c^* is larger than the fault length instead
 259 of stable aseismic slip has to be related to the stiffness of the loading setup
 260 k_{triax} (145 GPa.m⁻¹ in our case), that remains small enough to allow unstable
 261 response. The behavior of the experimental fault could be understood from
 262 the simple model illustrated in Figures 5e and f. As long as the nucleation

263 zone (slipping patch) has not reached the fault boundaries, it can be mod-
 264 eled by a spring-block system where a first spring (stiffness k_{triax}) represents
 265 the loading due to increasing axial stress, and a second spring (stiffness k)
 266 accounts for the stresses related to non-slipping portions of the interface. k
 267 is the effective stiffness of the expanding slipping patch, which dimension-
 268 ally is expected to decrease as $G/\sqrt{S_{nuc}}$ as nucleation proceeds, G being the
 269 shear modulus of the rock sample. Note that as long as $S_{nuc} < S_f$, $k > 598$
 270 GPa.m⁻¹ which is larger than k_{triax} , and the slip evolution is controlled by k
 271 in the sense that unstable slip will occur if k becomes smaller than a critical
 272 stiffness k_c imposed by normal stress and frictional properties (according to
 273 scaling 3, $k_c \sim \sigma_n/Fd_c$). This is what likely happens for the first series of
 274 SEs at $P_c=30$ MPa. If k_c decreases because of interface evolution, k can
 275 remain larger than k_c as the nucleation zone grows to the fault boundaries
 276 (S_{nuc} reaches S_f). At that point, the model shown in Figure 5(d) does not
 277 hold any more, and the rock samples approximately behave as rigid blocks
 278 connected to a single spring with stiffness k_{triax} . In other words, k suddenly
 279 drops to 0, and the behavior of the fault is only controlled by k_{triax} . SE (or
 280 dynamic motion) is then possible if $k_{triax} < k_c$, as illustrated in Figure 5f.
 281 The occurrence of SEs is thus possible for a moderate decrease in k_c .

282 4. Discussion

283 Using a kinematic inversion method, we were able to image the spatio-
 284 temporal evolution of preslip during the nucleation of 21 stick-slip events on
 285 the same experimental fault, under 3 different levels of confining pressures
 286 P_c . The Bayesian framework used allowed to estimate the corresponding

287 uncertainties, that are essentially related to the gauge network that can only
 288 monitor axial strain on the external ream of the fault, as discussed in details
 289 by Dublanchet et al. (2024). The mesh used for the inversion is also optimized
 290 to get the best resolution while keeping a tractable number of parameters
 291 to infer (Dublanchet et al., 2024). Nevertheless our method could reveal
 292 a clear evolution of the preslip pattern (preslip duration, expansion rate,
 293 final slip, nucleation length) accross successive SEs under increasing then
 294 decreasing confining pressure. This evolution is not reversible with respect to
 295 changes in confining pressure, suggesting that a non-recoverable mechanical
 296 evolution of the interface over successive SEs occurs on top of elastic stress
 297 effects. Damage accumulation in the fault zone and wear could translate into
 298 roughness evolution and changes in frictional properties.

299 The increase in L_c^* for instance could be related to a change in the fric-
 300 tional properties of the interface as SEs accumulate on the fault, as sug-
 301 gested by the change in effective static friction f_s shown in Figure 1d. Under
 302 rate-and-state friction, the increase in nucleation length could be related
 303 to a change in a and b coefficients. Evolution of $a - b$ and d_c with slip
 304 has been reported also for quartz rich fault (producing and non-producing
 305 gouge) (Scuderi et al., 2017; Noël et al., 2023, 2024). It particularly evolves
 306 within the 5 mm of slip, typically what we have here. A similar observation
 307 has been done in stick slip experiments involving a bi-material specimen, in
 308 particular during the postseismic phase of the main SE (Noël et al., 2025).
 309 In any case, the observed change in L_c^* could also indicate an increase of
 310 the critical slip d_c throughout the experiment. d_c can increase with normal
 311 stress, and thus with confining pressure as observed during dynamic rupture

312 experiments (Paglialunga et al., 2022). However, the increase in d_c reported
 313 by Paglialunga et al. (2022) does not exceed a linear scaling, leading to a
 314 constant nucleation length with increasing confining pressure according to
 315 the scaling of equation (3), and does not explain the non-recovery of L_c^* un-
 316 der decreasing P_c . Because of the uncertainty in our estimated nucleation
 317 lengths and on other frictional properties, we cannot rule out alternative
 318 modifications of the interface properties.

319 The nucleation features reported in Figures 3, 4 and 5 were determined
 320 using a threshold of $2\ \mu\text{m}$ of cumulative slip, which corresponds to 20 to 50
 321 % of the mean slip accumulated on the fault at the onset of SEs (Figure 1f,
 322 g and h). To estimate to what extent the results reported depend on this
 323 threshold, we performed the same analysis using a slip threshold of $1\ \mu\text{m}$. We
 324 also considered two cases where the pre-slip zone is defined with a slip-rate
 325 threshold of 0.1 and $0.4\ \mu\text{m.s}^{-1}$. The results are shown in Figures S64 to
 326 S72 of the supplementary material. Overall, our conclusions concerning the
 327 expansion rates, the nucleation duration, the maximum slip rate, and the
 328 memory effect over successive reactivation are not affected by the threshold
 329 chosen. Concerning the critical nucleation length however, we still get a non
 330 reversible evolution over successive SEs, but the trend strongly depends on
 331 the threshold. Using a slip-rate threshold, L_c^* are smaller than when a slip
 332 threshold is used. In any case however, many L_c^* values are close to the fault
 333 length. Considering the large uncertainty on L_c^* caused by the resolution
 334 of the method, but also by the complex shape of the nucleation patch, we
 335 could only conclude that L_c^* is of the same order of magnitude than the fault
 336 length, so that nucleation process are likely frustrated.

337 The results presented here (in particular for the critical nucleation length
 338 L_c^*) for a series of SEs confirm our previous interpretation (Dublanche et al.,
 339 2024) that with our triaxial setup, we are only able to observe a frustrated
 340 nucleation process. We propose here a conceptual model to explain how the
 341 experimental fault response is initially controlled by stress interaction along
 342 the fault (growth of the nucleation patch), and is suddenly driven by a rigid
 343 block response involving the stiffness of the loading device (k_{triax}) when the
 344 slip fronts reach the fault boundaries. Note that the rigid block response had
 345 already been discussed by McLaskey and Yamashita (2017). We thus provide
 346 here additional evidence to the frustrated nucleation model.

347 According to the conceptual model of nucleation derived from previous ex-
 348 periments (Ohnaka and Shen, 1999; Nielsen et al., 2010; Latour et al., 2013),
 349 we only resolve here the quasi-static stage of nucleation, where expansion
 350 rate remains approximately constant, or eventually decreases as the nucle-
 351 ation patch approaches the fault boundaries (Figures 4d and e). Expansion
 352 rates \dot{S}_{nuc} ranging from 10 to 50 m².day⁻¹ as observed would correspond to V_r
 353 between 40 and 200 m.day⁻¹ according to the simple scaling of equation (1),
 354 in the lower range of quasi-static propagation speeds observed during previ-
 355 ous nucleation experiments (Latour et al., 2013; McLaskey and Yamashita,
 356 2017; Selvadurai et al., 2017; Guérin-Marthe et al., 2019b; McLaskey, 2019;
 357 Cebry et al., 2022). Similarly, the slip rates involved during pre-slip (between
 358 0.1 and 20 $\mu\text{m.s}^{-1}$) typically correspond to the quasi-static range.

359 Interestingly, we do not capture an acceleration of the expansion towards
 360 dynamic rupture, but a slight deceleration of the expansion, which deviates
 361 from the classical conceptual model of Ohnaka and Shen (1999); Nielsen

et al. (2010); Latour et al. (2013). We suspect this could be a consequence of particular stress conditions related to the small finite size of the fault, or to differences in material (Westerly Granite vs. PMMA) and loading rate, both being features affecting the nucleation process (Guérin-Marthe et al., 2019a). This issue requires further investigation, either with new experiments at a different scale, or using numerical modeling of the fault response.

An important implication of our conclusions regarding the frustrated nucleation concerns the amount of quasi-static aseismic pre-slip moment released by the fault during the nucleation phase. In a perspective of earthquake hazard assessment, it is important to analyze how this quantity scales with the coseismic moment released by the main slip event (SE) (Acosta et al., 2019), the rate of acoustic emissions (Marty et al., 2023) or with material properties and loading. We show here that it can only be accurately estimated in case the nucleation is not frustrated, which requires first characterizing the whole spatio-temporal evolution of slip and the nucleation length.

5. Conclusion

Kinematic inversion of stick-slip events nucleation in a granite saw-cut sample under triaxial conditions reveals how the space-time evolution of quasi-static aseismic slip can change with confining pressure and with the repeated reactivation of the experimental fault. We relate this evolution to a change in frictional properties caused by dynamic slip events of the interface that may dominate over the confining stress effect. Our results illustrate well a frustrated nucleation process on a subcritical fault: an aseismic slip

386 event first grows quasi-statically and instantaneously becomes unstable once
387 it reaches the fault boundaries. The instability is then driven by the loading
388 device stiffness, that remains low enough so that rigid block stick-slip events
389 occur. We thus provide new physical insights into the very early initiation
390 of slip under seismogenic stress conditions, but also propose a new way of
391 interpreting triaxial experiments dedicated to earthquake nucleation.

392 **Open Research**

393 To ensure full reproducibility and ease-of-use of our framework, we pro-
394 vide the data used to perform the inversions at Dublanchet et al. (2025). The
395 MATLAB modules (KISLAB) used for the inversion are accessible at <https://github.com/Pierre-Dublanchet/kislab/releases>
396 Dublanchet (2024).

397 **Acknowledgments**

398 The authors thank C. Twardzik for insightfull discussions about the study.
399 F.X.P acknowledges funding from the European Union (ERC Starting Grant
400 HOPE num. 101041966).

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