

1 On the emergence of fault afterslip during laboratory
2 seismic cycles

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18 Highlights:

- 19 - Triaxial deformation of frictionally heterogeneous faults
20 - Co-seismic events of frictionally heterogeneous faults are followed by
21 afterslip
22 - Afterslip magnitude depends on the frictional properties and on the normal
23 stress acting on the fault

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25

26

27 Abstract

28 Spatial fault heterogeneity is often invoked to explain the occurrence of fault afterslip
29 following seismic ruptures. In this study, we tested this hypothesis in the laboratory by
30 performing triaxial experiments on both homogeneous and heterogeneous faults, under
31 confining pressures of 30, 60, and 90 MPa. The faults were composed of granite, prone to
32 seismic behaviour, and marble, prone to aseismic behaviour. Unlike homogeneous granite
33 faults, which display a nucleation stage followed by regular seismic events, heterogeneous
34 faults can contain the co-seismic dynamic event within the experimental fault length. During
35 this phase, the aseismic areas adjacent to the dynamic event undergo a stress increase, which is
36 then released by fault afterslip over an extended post-seismic phase. The magnitude and
37 duration of this post-seismic phase increase with confining pressure and with the proportion of
38 aseismic areas. We infer that the enhancement of post-seismic afterslip originates from the
39 increase in the frictional stability of the aseismic area, and of the normal stress acting on the
40 fault. In addition, the observed increase in initial strain rate with normal stress is well explain
41 by the rate-and-state framework. At the scale of our experiments, fault frictional heterogeneities
42 play a primary role in the emergence of fault afterslip.

43 **Keywords:** Fault heterogeneity, seismic cycle, post-seismic deformation, afterslip.

44 1. Introduction

45 Recent geodetical and seismological observations have revealed that a significant proportion
46 of earthquakes exhibit prolonged fault afterslip, primarily characterized by aseismic fault
47 movement in the surrounding of the seismically ruptured zone (e.g., Barbot et al., 2009; Cheloni
48 et al., 2010; Smith & Wyss, 1968; Yagi et al., 2001, 2003. See Avouac (2015) for an extensive
49 review). Importantly, the moment released by fault afterslip can be as large as, or even larger
50 than the co-seismic moment (Barbot et al., 2009). Because of that, fault afterslip is expected to
51 contribute significantly to the energy release along the fault during the seismic cycle, as well as
52 to stress transfer in areas devoid of recent seismic rupture.

53 To understand the physical parameters controlling the emergence of fault afterslip,
54 numerical models have been developed, primarily based on rate-and-state friction laws
55 (Dieterich, 1978; Ruina, 1983). Within this framework, fault afterslip is typically explained by
56 spatial frictional heterogeneities, where velocity-weakening and velocity-strengthening regions
57 interact (Marone et al., 1991; Rice & Gu, 1983). In these models, the co-seismic event is
58 confined to the velocity-weakening zone, which induces stress perturbations and a slip deficit
59 in the velocity-strengthening region, that is subsequently retrieved (at least partially) by
60 aseismic fault afterslip, and often associated with aftershocks (Perfettini & Avouac, 2007).
61 Other models suggest that the presence of stress heterogeneities can induce the emergence of
62 fault afterslip (Helmstetter & Shaw, 2009; Hirose & Hirahara, 2004). In this case, afterslip can
63 occur on a velocity-weakening fault zone presenting a stress level that is too low to trigger
64 earthquakes or to permit the adjacent rupture to propagate through this area. Finally, a recent
65 study suggests that fault afterslip can be generated on any portion of the fault presenting a
66 geometric moment deficit (the product of slip and rupture area) following an earthquake
67 (Meade, 2024). While these models can effectively describe fault afterslip following
68 earthquakes (e.g., Barbot et al., 2009; Fukuda et al., 2009; Gualandi et al., 2017; Helmstetter &
69 Shaw, 2009; Lin et al., 2013; Perfettini et al., 2010; Perfettini & Avouac, 2004, 2007;
70 Wimpenny et al., 2017), assumptions are needed in order to estimate the physical parameters
71 that govern fault afterslip, especially due to the unknown stress conditions.

72 To understand further the emergence of fault afterslip, laboratory experiments have been
73 conducted along homogeneous and heterogenous fault interfaces. For example, Caniven et al.

74 (2015) demonstrated that post-seismic deformation (both afterslip and viscoelastic relaxation)
75 can be observed in a strike-slip heterogeneous fault system only, composed of a polyurethane
76 foam placed on a silicone layer, representing the seismic upper crust and the ductile lower crust,
77 respectively. Similarly, in analogue experiment of subduction systems, introducing viscoelastic
78 coupling between the overriding plate and the mantle wedge facilitates the post-seismic
79 viscoelastic relaxation phase (Caniven & Dominguez, 2021). On bare rock interfaces, afterslip
80 has been observed due to pore fluid pressure recharge of the fault following a co-seismic event
81 (Aben & Brantut, 2023). In this scenario, afterslip is co-located with the main rupture zone,
82 contrary to what is typically observed in natural earthquakes. Afterslip has also been observed,
83 though to a limited extent, on large bi-axial faults composed of homogeneous granite interface
84 (Ke et al., 2021). When ruptures are confined, limited afterslip occurs at the rupture arrest tip,
85 releasing about 5% of the stress deficit, which is significantly smaller than what is observed for
86 large earthquakes (Barbot et al., 2009; Cheloni et al., 2010; Smith & Wyss, 1968; Yagi et al.,
87 2001, 2003). To our knowledge, laboratory experiments conducted on bare rock interfaces have
88 not yet reproduced large afterslip similar to what is observed after large natural earthquakes,
89 which is characterized by significant slip amplitude occurring outside of co-seismic slip patch.

90 Here, we tackle this issue by conducting laboratory triaxial experiments of homogeneous
91 and heterogeneous faults composed of Westerly granite (prone to seismic behaviour) and
92 Carrara marble (prone to aseismic behaviour) (Figure S1). The experiments were performed at
93 confining pressure (P_c) ranging from 30 to 90 MPa to investigate the effect of different depth
94 on heterogeneous fault's seismic cycle. These experiments allowed, for the first time, to
95 reproduce afterslip in a triaxial apparatus, and to estimate the parameters controlling the
96 distribution of fault slip during the different stages of the seismic cycle.

97 2. Experimental methods

98 Two lithologies were used for the study: Westerly granite (Rhode Island, USA) and Carrara
99 marble (Tuscany, Italy). These lithologies were selected because they are well studied in the
100 literature (Fredrich et al., 1989; Lockner, 1998; Schmid et al., 1980; Tullis & Yund, 1977;
101 Wong, 1982) and have opposite frictional properties. Under the tested conditions, laboratory
102 experiments show that bare surface fault of Westerly granite are prone to seismic behaviour
103 (Lockner et al., 2017; Passelègue et al., 2016; Thompson et al., 2009), related to a velocity
104 weakening behaviour (Dieterich, 1979; Ruina, 1983). On the contrary, in the tested conditions,
105 Carrara marble is prone to aseismic behaviour (Aubry et al., 2020; Carpenter et al., 2016;
106 Verberne et al., 2014), related to velocity-strengthening behaviour, and can experience a brittle-
107 ductile transition at high confining pressure ($P_c > 50$ MPa (Fredrich et al., 1989; Meyer et al.,
108 2019)).

109 Five faults, composed of homogeneous and heterogeneous half-sample, were tested: (i)
110 granite-on-granite fault (G_f), (ii) granite-on-granite with a marble asperity (M_{asp}), (iii) granite-
111 on-marble with a granitic asperity (G_{asp}), (iv) granite-on-marble fault (GM_f), and (v) marble-
112 on-marble fault (M_f) (Figure S1). All experiments were conducted in a triaxial loading
113 apparatus developed by CoreLabs (Brantut et al., 2011; Passelègue et al., 2016). Both axial and
114 radial pressure were monitored using pressure transducers (± 50 -kPa resolution). The axial
115 displacement (d_{ax}) was measured using three external gap sensors having a 0.1- μ m resolution.
116 In addition, 8 strain gauges were deployed around the fault (Figure S2), allowing to record local
117 strain measurement during the sample deformation. These strain gauges were glued parallel to
118 the axial stress (σ_{ax}) as close as possible to the fault. Note that the strain gauges were always
119 glued on the granite half sample (except for the M_f), to insure measurement on a homogeneous
120 medium. During the sample deformation, all the mechanical data were recorded at 2400 Hz
121 sampling rate. An experiment consists in two main steps. After placing the fault assemblage

122 into the deformation apparatus, we first conducted successive deformation at 30, 60 and 90 MPa
123 confining pressure. During these three consecutive stages, the roughness of the fault is expected
124 to evolve with the cumulative displacement and with the increase of stress at fault asperities.
125 Because of that, in a second step, we conducted two additional experiments, decreasing first the
126 confining pressure back to 60 MPa, and finally to 30 MPa. In the following, we mainly focus
127 on the experiments conducted during the first step (i.e., successive increase in confining
128 pressure). The results of the experiments conducted during the unloading steps will be discussed
129 in the section 4 only. For additional information on the experimental methods, please refer to
130 the [Supplementary Material section 1](#).

131 3. Experimental results

132 3.1. Macroscopic measurements

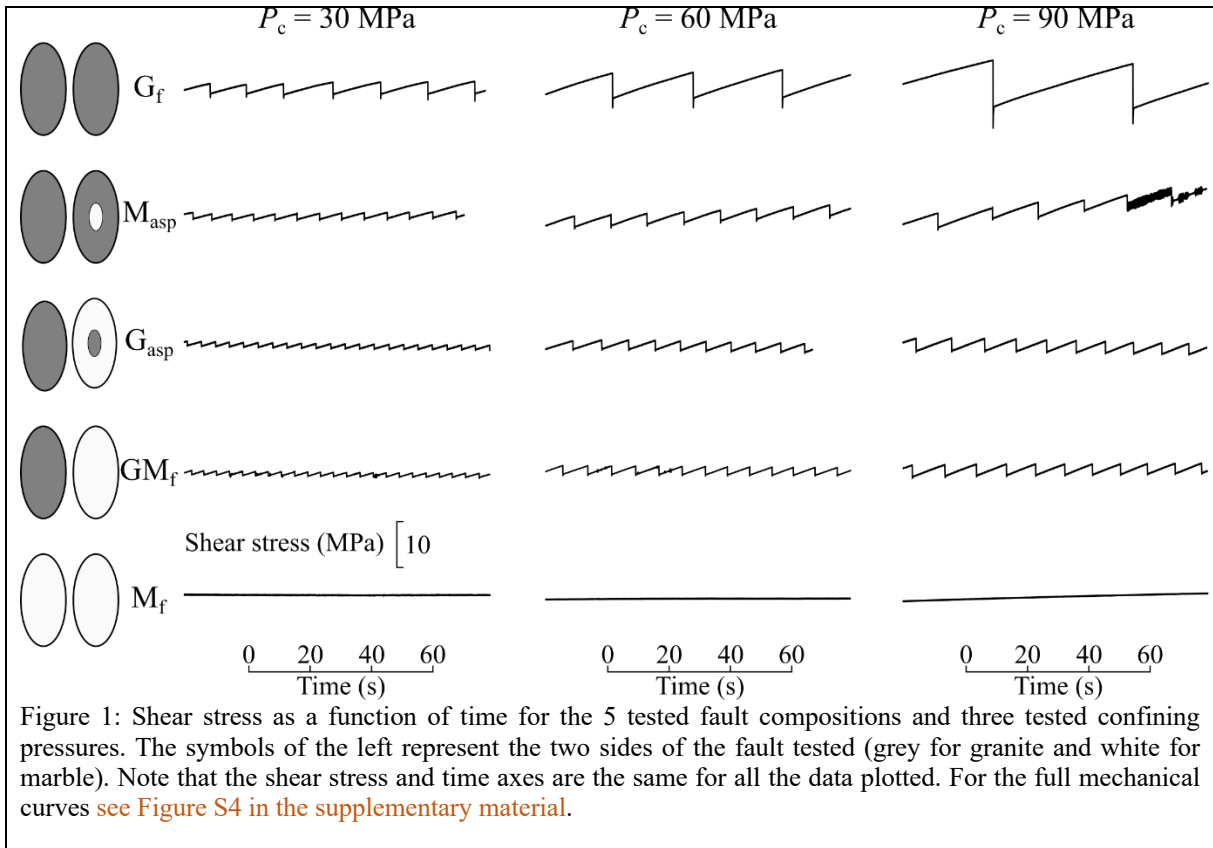
133 The experimental results show that the fault slip behaviour depends primarily on the sample
134 composition (Figure 1), and secondarily on the confining pressure. As expected, our two end-
135 members tested fault show opposite seismic behaviour. G_f shows typical repeated stick-slip
136 (i.e., seismic) behaviour with co-seismic shear stress drop ($\Delta\tau$) increasing from ~ 3.3 to 14.8
137 MPa with increasing P_c from 30 to 90 MPa. In these experiments, most of the slip occurs
138 seismically (Figure 2a), as observed in previous studies (Lockner et al., 2017; Passelègue et al.,
139 2016; Thompson et al., 2009). Conversely, M_f shows stable sliding behaviour for all the tested
140 P_c . The heterogeneous samples (G_{asp} , M_{asp} , and GM_f) all show repeated stick-slip behaviour.
141 Interestingly, the macroscopic stress drop is decreasing with increasing marble content. For
142 example, at $P_c = 30$ MPa, $\Delta\tau$ is reduced from ~ 1.5 MPa for M_{asp} to 1 MPa for G_{asp} . For all the
143 heterogeneous samples, increasing the confining pressure favour larger macroscopic stress drop
144 (Figure 1).

145 To analyse further the influence of heterogeneities on the different stages of the seismic
146 cycle, we now describe the evolution of the shear stress and of the fault slip before, during and
147 after the main instabilities. For all the experiments, the inter-seismic phase is characterized by
148 an elastic stage, highlighted by a linear increase in shear stress during which no slip is observed
149 (Figure 2). This phase ends when the shear stress reaches a critical value allowing the initiation
150 of fault slip. At this point, the faults enter in a pre-seismic phase (or nucleation phase), which
151 is characterized by a deviation from linearity in the macroscopic shear stress, and by the onset
152 of fault slip (yellow areas, Figure 2a-d). The amount of slip during this stage remains small, but
153 is systematically observed. Following the nucleation phase, a rapid macroscopic stress drop
154 associated with fault slip is observed (Figure 2a-d). As expected from the values of the stress
155 drop, increasing the content of marble leads to a decrease of the co-seismic slip (Figure 2). For
156 G_f , the amount of co-seismic slip increases from 34 to 116 μm with increasing the confining
157 pressure from 30 to 90 MPa (Figure 2e-g). For the heterogeneous fault (M_{asp} , G_{asp} and GM_f),
158 the amount of co-seismic slip is about 7-15 μm in average at $P_c = 30$ MPa, and of 13-25 μm at
159 higher confining pressure (Figure 2e-g).

160 The main result of our study is that following the co-seismic phase, heterogeneous faults
161 exhibit an extended period of slip (Figure 2). This behaviour is particularly well observed for
162 G_{asp} and GM_f , where fault slip continues after the co-seismic phase over a non-negligible
163 amount of time (from 1 to 1.5 second at $P_c = 90$ MPa, blue areas in Figure 2c and d).
164 Remarkably, in the case of G_f , no fault afterslip is observed. Our results demonstrate that the
165 presence of a single marble asperity (M_{asp}) allows fault afterslip to take up to 10% of the total
166 slip (i.e., pre-, co- and post-seismic slip, Figure 2e-g). Increasing the content of marble tends to
167 enhance fault afterslip. G_{asp} and GM_f show the largest and the longest afterslip stages. For these
168 faults, afterslip represent up to 28% of the total slip. Additionally, the fault afterslip increases

169 with P_c , increasing for example from 17% to 27% with increasing P_c from 30 to 90 MPa for
 170 G_{asp} (Figure 2e-g).

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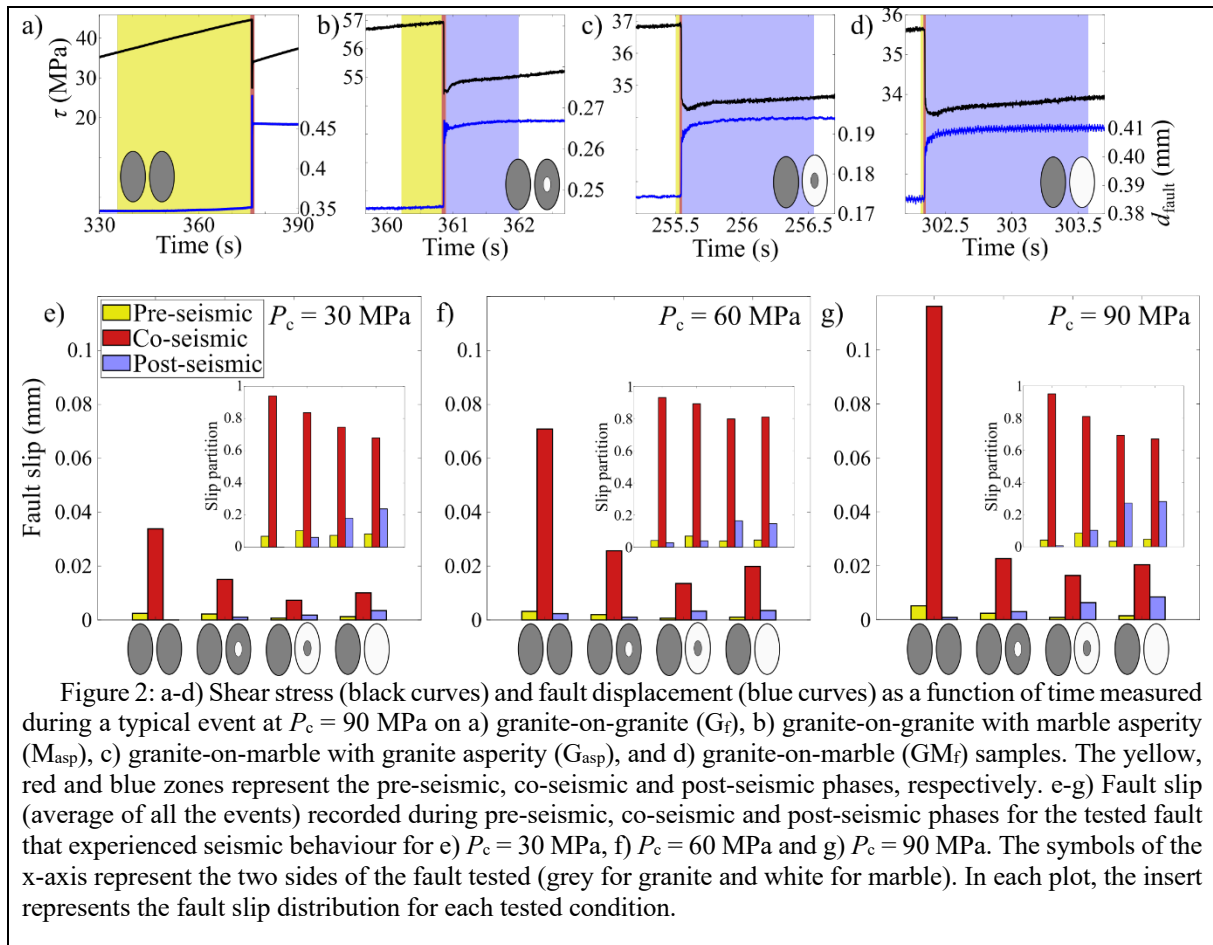


Figure 2: a-d) Shear stress (black curves) and fault displacement (blue curves) as a function of time measured during a typical event at $P_c = 90$ MPa on a) granite-on-granite (G_f), b) granite-on-granite with marble asperity (M_{asp}), c) granite-on-marble with granite asperity (G_{asp}), and d) granite-on-marble (GM_f) samples. The yellow, red and blue zones represent the pre-seismic, co-seismic and post-seismic phases, respectively. e-g) Fault slip (average of all the events) recorded during pre-seismic, co-seismic and post-seismic phases for the tested fault that experienced seismic behaviour for e) $P_c = 30$ MPa, f) $P_c = 60$ MPa and g) $P_c = 90$ MPa. The symbols of the x-axis represent the two sides of the fault tested (grey for granite and white for marble). In each plot, the insert represents the fault slip distribution for each tested condition.

173

174 3.2. Local strain measurements

175 To analyse the slip distribution during the different stages of the seismic cycle, the array of
 176 strain gauges measuring axial strain variation close to the fault was used. In the following the
 177 influence of heterogeneity on the nucleation, co-seismic and post-seismic phases are described
 178 using this array.

179 3.2.1 Nucleation of instability

180 As observed in the macroscopic measurements (Figure 2), the initiation of the nucleation
 181 stage is highlighted by the strain gauges array when the inelastic strain (see [Supplementary](#)
 182 [Material section 1.4](#)) departs from 0 (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Note that a decrease in inelastic
 183 strain is a proxy for fault slip, while an increase in inelastic strain is a proxy for fault stick (or
 184 slipping less than the rest of the fault). The nucleation stage is clearly marked for G_f , where the
 185 onset of nucleation, associated with the propagation of a quasi-static slip front, can be tracked
 186 spatially. The quasi-static slip front initiates in the upper part of the fault (blue and green curves
 187 on Figure 3a-c, Figure 4a, and [Figure S7a-c](#)) and propagates toward the bottom of the fault
 188 (Figure 3a-c and Figure 4a).

189 In the case of heterogeneous fault, the nucleation stage is more complicated. For M_{asp} , at
 190 confining pressures of 30 and 60 MPa, the initiation of the pre-seismic phase is more localized
 191 at the granite-granite contacts ([Figure S7d-f](#)). Meanwhile, inelastic strain near the asperity
 192 (yellow and green curves in [Figure S7d-f](#)) is increasing, indicating that this part of the fault
 193 remains locked. However, at $P_c = 90$ MPa, the nucleation is predominantly confined to the
 194 bottom left of the sample (orange curve in Figure 4b), while other parts of the fault remain

195 locked. For G_{asp} , the pre-seismic phase is primarily confined to the bottom of the asperity
196 (orange curve in Figure 3g-i, Figure 4c and Figure S7g-i), while the rest of the fault experiences
197 an increase in strain. Note that for this sample, an aborted pre-seismic phase could also be
198 observed on the top of the asperity (green curve on Figure 4c). Finally, for GM_f , the pre-seismic
199 phase is mainly confined to the bottom of the fault, with the top part remaining locked (Figure
200 3j-l, Figure 4d and Figure S7j-l). Notably, for all tested fault and confining pressure conditions,
201 the onset of the nucleation phase coincides with the location of maximum recorded stress
202 (Figures S9 and S10), i.e., where the static friction is the highest.

203 3.2.2 Co-seismic phase

204 The strain gauges array can be used to track the propagation of the seismic rupture
205 (Passelègue et al., 2020). For G_f , the dynamic strain drop occurs at the same time on all the
206 strain gauges (Figure 3a-c, Figure 4a and Figure S7a-c). Our temporal resolution does not allow
207 us to see any propagation of this strain drop front, which means that the front must propagate
208 at least at 190 m/s, and that the co-seismic rupture propagates through the entire fault.

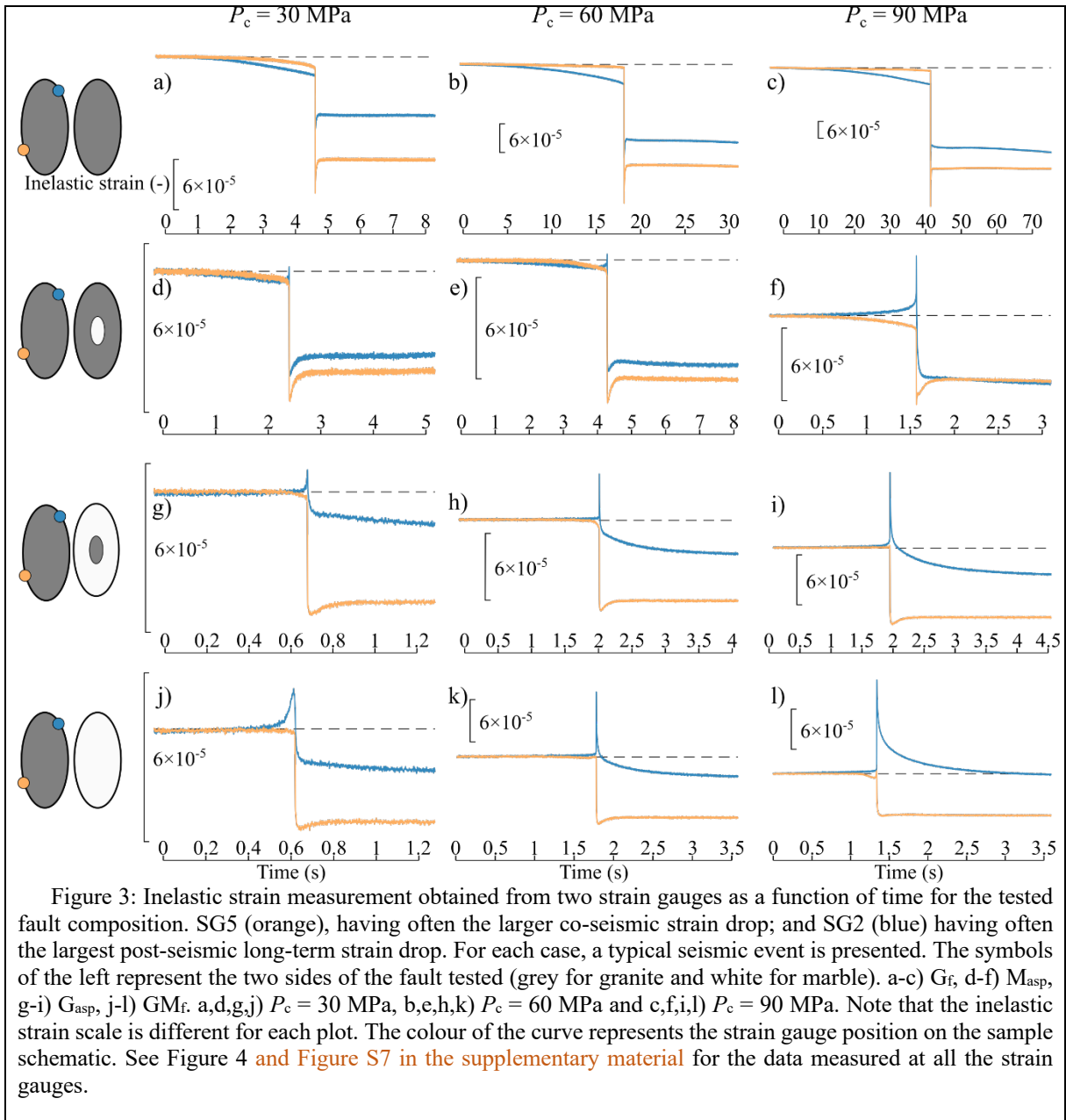
209 For M_{asp} , the dynamic strain drop also occurs on all the strain gauges at the same time,
210 indicating fast rupture velocity. Additionally, at $P_c = 90$ MPa, the two strain gauges located at
211 the top of the sample measure an increase in strain rather than a drop (Figure 4b) suggesting
212 that this part of the fault did not break co-seismically. In the case of G_{asp} , a rapid strain drop is
213 observed only on the strain gauges located close to the asperity (i.e., at the centre of the fault,
214 Figure 4c). Strain gauges located further from the asperity experience a large increase in strain.
215 Finally, for GM_f , the co-seismic strain drop is also confined close to the nucleation zone (orange
216 curves on Figure 3j-l and Figure 4d). For G_{asp} and GM_f , increasing the confining pressure favour
217 a smaller spatial extent of the co-seismic rupture (Figure S7j-l).

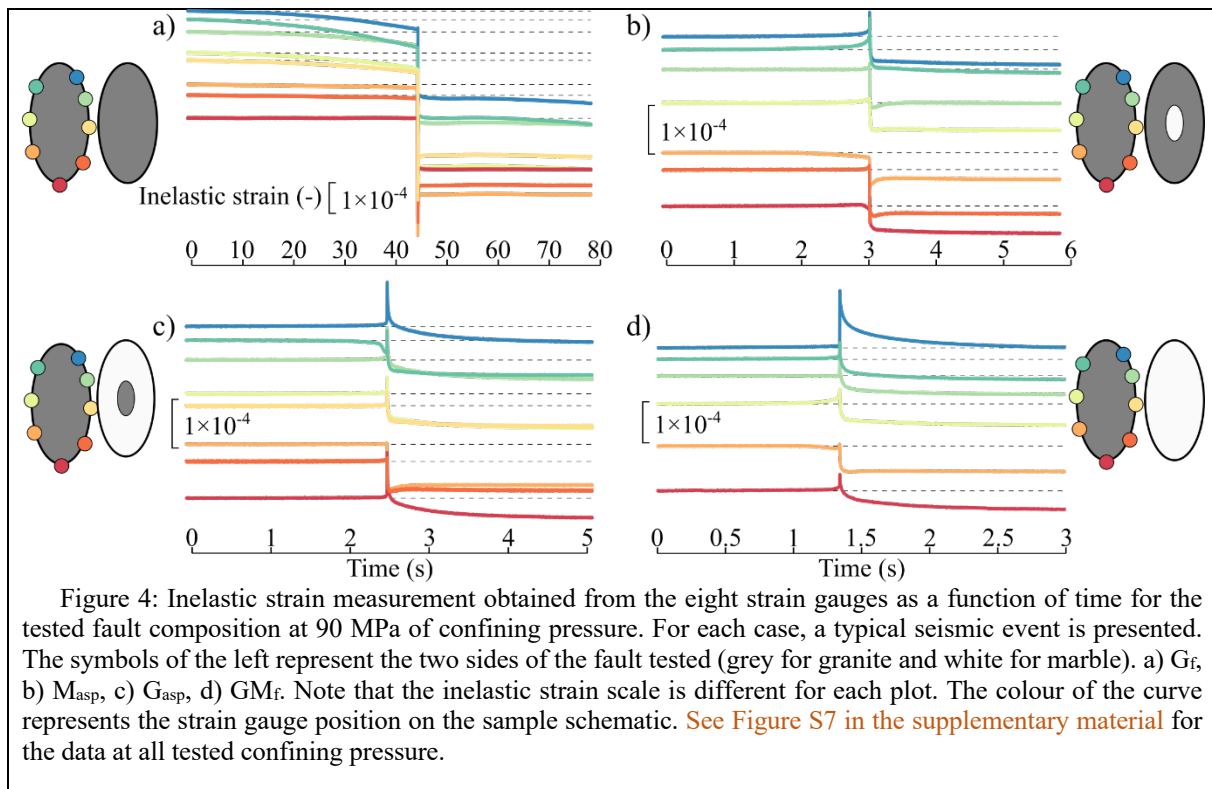
218 3.2.3 Afterslip phase

219 The strain gauges array also recorded the signal of fault afterslip during the post-seismic
220 stage. For the heterogeneous samples (particularly for the ones with high marble content), after
221 the co-seismic phase, some strain gauges show a long strain release (Figure 3, Figure 4 and
222 Figure S7). This long strain release is located in areas devoid of co-seismic strain drop, i.e.,
223 where a strain deficit has accumulated during the co-seismic phase.

224 For G_{asp} , the strain gauges located far from the seismic asperity exhibit a large increase of
225 strain during the co-seismic phase (Figure 3g-l and Figure 4c). During the post-seismic phase,
226 these strain gages (blue curves in Figure 3g-i, blue and red curves in Figure 4c), are subjected
227 to a long-lasting strain decay. As observed on the macroscopic data, this phase is particularly
228 well developed at high P_c . The duration of this phase increase from ~ 0.2 to ~ 3 s increasing P_c
229 from 30 to 90 MPa. The same behaviour for GM_f for the strain gages located far from the co-
230 seismic strain drop (Figure 3j-l and Figure 4d). Similarly, post-seismic phase seems to emerge
231 for M_{asp} at large confining pressure (blue curve in Figure 3f). This result demonstrates that the
232 post-seismic phase, associated with afterslip is mostly observed far from the co-seismic strain
233 drop areas (Figure S8), and well captured by local strain gauges measurements (Figure 3g-l,
234 Figure 4c and d).

235 In summary, the macroscopic and strain gauge data show that the spatial and temporal
236 evolution of slip and strain is more complex for heterogeneous faults than for homogeneous
237 ones. In particular, the nucleation phase of heterogeneous faults is reduced in time and space
238 compared to G_f . However, heterogeneities favour local stress/strain changes subsequently to
239 the co-seismic phase (i.e., confined stress/strain drop), that give rise to a stress/strain deficit at
240 the edge of the rupture. This stress/strain deficit favour the emergence of fault afterslip.





243

244 4. Discussion

245 Our experiments highlight that frictional heterogeneities are able to modify the seismic cycle
 246 of a simple geometry fault. Particularly, granite-granite contacts favour the release of the
 247 accumulated stress through dynamic events. Instead, for the granite-marble contact, stress is
 248 released not only through dynamic events, but also through fault afterslip during a post-seismic
 249 phase. This behaviour is observed at all the tested confining pressures. However, higher
 250 confining pressures tend to favour fault afterslip of larger magnitude that last longer (Figure 2
 251 and Figure 3). Our experiments are in this sense in agreement with rate-and-state models
 252 proposed for afterslip (Marone et al., 1991), as frictional heterogeneity are needed (or at least
 253 help) for the emergence of afterslip.

254 As stated previously, we find that fault afterslip is preferentially observed on strain gauges
 255 that exhibits little to no dynamic co-seismic strain drop (Figure S8). These results agree with
 256 observations from natural earthquake, where afterslip tends to occur in region devoid of co-
 257 seismic slip (Barbot et al., 2009; Gualandi et al., 2017; Hsu et al., 2002; Lu & Zhou, 2022;
 258 Miyazaki et al., 2004; Perfettini & Avouac, 2007) or with a little overlap (Barnhart et al., 2016;
 259 Hsu et al., 2006, 2009; Lin et al., 2013; Ozawa et al., 2012; Wimpenny et al., 2017).

260 Our experiments suggest that for afterslip to take place during our experiments, two mutually
 261 dependent conditions are required: (i) a seismic event confined within the experimental fault
 262 length, and (ii) a zone around the co-seismic rupture that is critically loaded and not prone to
 263 seismic behaviour, i.e., exhibiting preferentially aseismic slip or velocity strengthening
 264 behaviour. In our case, these conditions are favoured along the granite-marble contacts.
 265 Particularly, the case of G_{asp} sample demonstrates that frictional heterogeneities can be a key
 266 parameter for large afterslip (Figure 2, Figure 3g-I and Figure 4c).

267 However, the bi-material fault experiment (GM_f) is more puzzling. Even if the fault is
 268 composed of two materials, the frictional property of this bi-material interface should be

269 constant across the fault, and should therefore produce seismic or aseismic slip. However, the
 270 behaviour is similar to G_{asp} , i.e., dynamic events are confined within the fault length, and fault
 271 afterslip occurs in areas devoid of co-seismic rupture (Figure 3j-l). A possible explanation could
 272 be that stress heterogeneity (Figure S9 and S10 in the supplementary material) induce highly
 273 localized spatial frictional changes of the interface, and a transition from velocity strengthening
 274 to velocity weakening behaviour along the fault due to plastic processes at the scale of
 275 asperities, as observed previously in calcite-rich bare surface (Aubry et al., 2020). The second
 276 hypothesis is the development of a patch of granite rich fault gouge along the interface, allowing
 277 to nucleate and propagate locally a dynamic instability (Figure S11 in the supplementary
 278 material).

279 To understand further the dynamics of fault afterslip, we analyse our post-seismic data
 280 within the rate-and-state framework. For that, we used the strain gauge measurements, in which
 281 the transition between co-seismic and post-seismic phase is clearly identified as it is separated
 282 in space and time (Figure 3 and Figure 4). To prevent possible contamination of afterslip motion
 283 by the co-seismic rupture, we assume that the fault afterslip begins at the end of the rapid strain
 284 drop recorded by the strain gauge located the closest to the dynamic rupture (Figure S13). We
 285 consider the end of the post-seismic phase when the inelastic strain rate at the strain gauges
 286 goes back visually to 0. In this rate-and-state framework, we assume that all the strain released
 287 during the post-seismic phase occurs on the frictional interface, and that nothing is released
 288 within the bulk of the sample, which is commonly assumed for natural events. Note that for the
 289 performed experiments, this assumption seems reasonable as no bulk deformations has been
 290 observed on the post-mortem analysis of M_f and G_{asp} samples. We model the slipping region as
 291 a spring-slider system obeying rate-and-state friction (Dieterich, 1979; Ruina, 1983). Assuming
 292 steady-state approximation and that the loading rate during this phase is negligible, the strain
 293 relaxation during post-seismic deformation on a frictional interface can be described as
 294 (Helmstetter & Shaw, 2009; Marone et al., 1991; Scholz, 2019):

$$295 \quad \varepsilon = \dot{\varepsilon}_0 t_0 \ln\left(\frac{t}{t_0} + 1\right), \quad (1)$$

$$296 \quad \text{with } t_0 = \frac{\sigma_n (a-b)^*}{(k/K)\dot{\varepsilon}_0} \quad (2)$$

297 where σ_n is the normal stress acting on the fault, $(a-b)^*$ is the apparent steady-state rate-and-
 298 state parameter, k is the spring stiffness, K is a coefficient relating the change in axial strain
 299 with fault slip ($\varepsilon = K\delta$, δ being the slip), $\dot{\varepsilon}_0$ is the strain rate observed at the strain gauge
 300 location at the onset of afterslip, and t_0 is a characteristic time. The spring stiffness, k , relates
 301 the change in shear stress on the fault during the initial linear elastic loading of the sample, and
 302 is directly measured experimentally. The parameter K is estimated through finite elements
 303 analysis following the method developed by Dublanchet, (2024). This approach accounts for
 304 the geometry of the fault and of the sample (See supplementary material section 7 for details).
 305 K depends on the strain gauge location, e.g., $K=14.5 \text{ m}^{-1}$ for SG2.

306 For the inversions, we fixed $\dot{\varepsilon}_0$ using the value retrieved experimentally on the strain gauge
 307 used, at the onset of fault afterslip, and we only invert for t_0 . Eq. (1) provides a good fit of our
 308 experimental data (Figure 5a and Figure S12), highlighting that the released strain related to
 309 fault afterslip evolves as a logarithmic function of time, as observed after natural earthquakes
 310 (e.g., Barbot et al., 2009; Cheloni et al., 2010; Smith & Wyss, 1968; Yagi et al., 2001). Note
 311 that using equation (1) and (2), only positive values of $(a-b)^*$ are considered, i.e., velocity
 312 strengthening behaviour. Other approximations exist involving negative values of $(a-b)^*$, i.e.,
 313 velocity weakening behaviour, (Helmstetter & Shaw, 2009), however they imply stiffness or
 314 stress conditions ($k > k_c$, where k_c is a critical stiffness; or $\tau \ll \tau_{ss}$, where τ_{ss} is the shear stress at

315 steady state; see Helmstetter & Shaw, 2009 Table 2) that are not realistic for our performed
316 experiments.

317 Assuming this hypothesis, the inversions conducted imposing our measurement of $\dot{\epsilon}_0$
318 demonstrate at first order that, an increase in $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ leads to a decrease in t_0 (Figure 5b and 5c).
319 Considering only the experiments conducted during the loading step, t_0 is slightly increasing
320 with increasing confining pressure, for both G_{asp} and GM_f (Figure 5b). In addition, the inverted
321 values are generally larger for GM_f than for G_{asp} , in agreement with the increase in final strain
322 released by fault afterslip. For both samples, the inverted t_0 are of the order of few milliseconds,
323 that is, ~ 3 orders of magnitude shorter than the total duration of post-seismic phase. Assuming
324 simply Eq. (2), this increase in t_0 is expected to result from an increase in $(a-b)^*$ with increasing
325 confining pressure, since the increase in normal stress acting on the fault at each confining
326 pressure tested is not enough to explain the observed trend (Figure 5b). Interestingly, the trend
327 is different for the experiments conducted during the unloading step of the experiments, i.e.,
328 decreasing the confining pressure from 90 MPa to 30 MPa (Figure 5c). Once the fault surface
329 has experienced stick-slip events and fault afterslip at $P_c = 90$ MPa, the frictional properties of
330 the fault seem to remain similar to the one observed at 90 MPa. For these experiments, the
331 general trend in t_0 can be explained by Eq. (2), assuming simply the change in normal stress at
332 the different confining pressure tested, and a similar value of $(a-b)^* = 0.006$ (Figure 5c).

333 Thanks to our direct experimental and numerical measurement of σ_n , k , K and $\dot{\epsilon}_0$, $(a-b)^*$ can
334 be estimated from Eq. (2) for each event. Note that these estimates are expected to represent
335 the frictional parameters during the afterslip phase, and representative of the granite-marble
336 interface only, since we conducted the inversions only for G_{asp} and GM_f . Assuming the values
337 of t_0 inverted from our inversion and our direct measurements of $\dot{\epsilon}_0$, an increase of $(a-b)^*$ is
338 observed with increasing the final values of post-seismic strain (Figure 5d). In addition, our
339 results demonstrate that increasing the confining pressure (i.e., the normal stress) leads to an
340 increase in $(a-b)^*$ for both G_{asp} and GM_f (transparency datapoint in Figure 5d). This increase in
341 $(a-b)^*$ could be directly related to an increase in $(a-b)$ (here rate-and-state parameters) of the
342 marble-granite contact with increasing confining pressure. Indeed, the increase of $(a-b)^*$ with
343 confining pressure is similar in magnitude than the increase in $(a-b)$ obtained for calcite gouge
344 under the same normal stress conditions previously documented (Carpenter et al., 2016;
345 Verberne et al., 2015). In agreement with the inverted values of t_0 , GM_f presents generally larger
346 values of $(a-b)^*$ and final post-seismic strain release (Figure 5d). However, the events recorded
347 at 60 MPa and 30 MPa confining pressure during the unloading step of the experiments (i.e.,
348 after the experiments conducted at 90 MPa confining pressure), exhibit larger post-seismic
349 strain, and larger values in $(a-b)^*$ than the events conducted at the same confining pressure
350 during the loading step (Figure 5d). Therefore, after a fault interface has undergone stick-slip
351 events and afterslip at $P_c = 90$ MPa, its frictional properties retain a memory of the past
352 deformation. Similar observations have been previously made on gouge samples (Hong &
353 Marone, 2005; Pozzi et al., 2022; Scuderi et al., 2017), suggesting that our inversions of the
354 apparent rate-and-state parameters, through our measurements of post-seismic strain release,
355 are a real proxy for the frictional parameters of the fault at the strain gauge location.

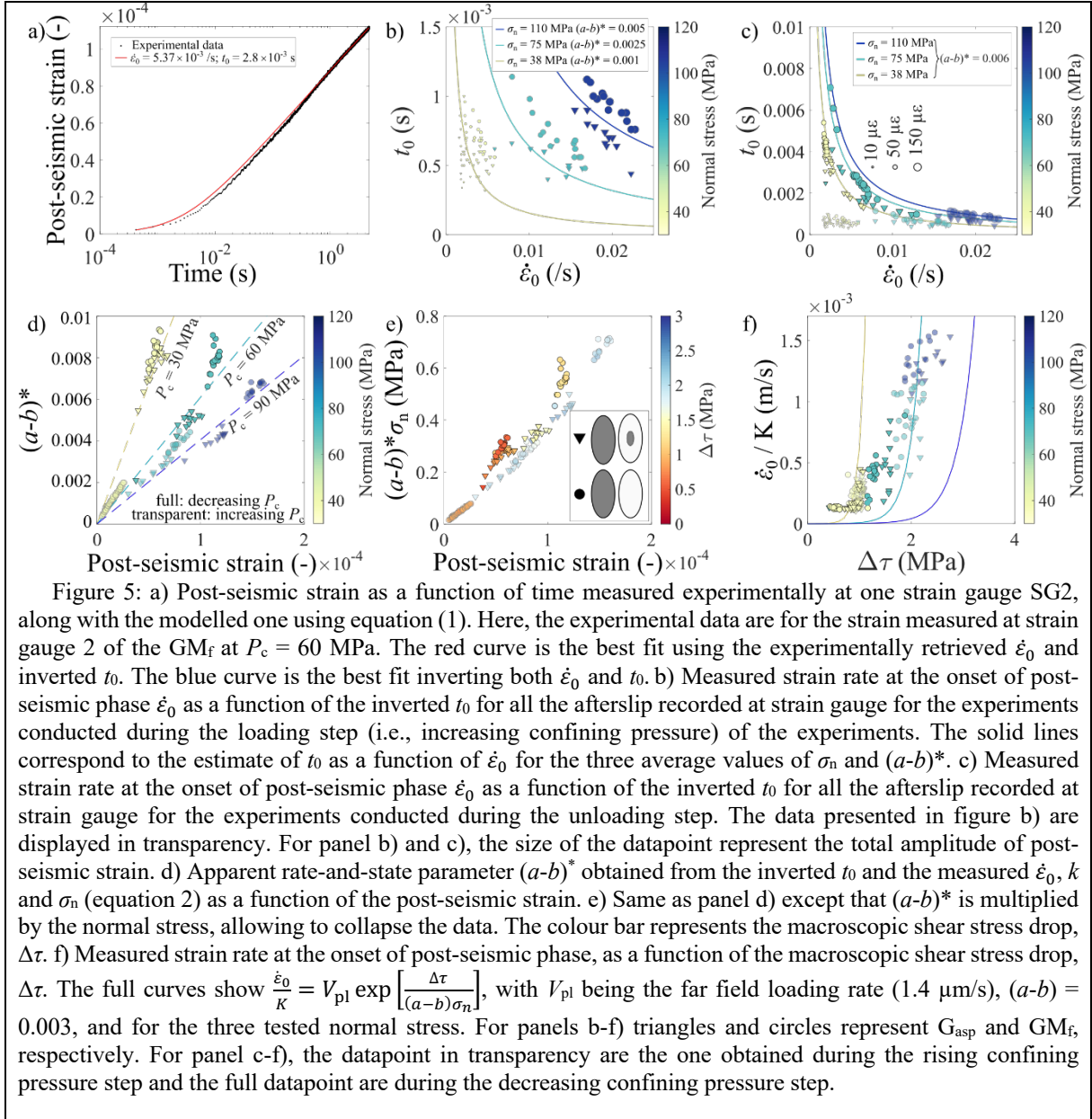
356 Remarkably, analysing all experiments together, the inverted $(a-b)^*$ align for each tested
357 confining pressure (Figure 5d). At large confining pressure, similar values of post-seismic strain
358 release requires smaller $(a-b)^*$ values than at low confining pressure. These results trend to
359 demonstrate that the amplitude of the strain release due to fault afterslip is mostly controlled by
360 $\sigma_n(a-b)^*$. Indeed, multiplying each values of $(a-b)^*$ by the normal stress σ_n applied on the fault
361 at the onset of post-seismic phase, collapses all the data set (Figure 5e). Our results confirm that
362 fitting the fault afterslip of real earthquakes can provide a good estimate of the local frictional

363 parameters of the fault. However, since the normal stress (or effective normal stress) remains
364 poorly constrain along natural faults, only the inversion of $\sigma_n(a-b)^*$ (as performed in some
365 natural afterslip inversion studies, e.g., Lin et al., 2013; Perfettini et al., 2010; Perfettini &
366 Avouac, 2004, 2007; Wimpenny et al., 2017) can provide an element of comparison between
367 the different stations, or between different earthquakes.

368 Finally, our results also demonstrate that $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ trend to increase with confining pressure (Figure
369 5b and c), and with the average stress drop during instabilities (Figure 5f). This increase in $\dot{\epsilon}_0$
370 leads to the decrease in t_0 observed at each confining pressure, as expected by the theoretical
371 predictions obtained from Eq. (2) (Figure 5b and c). This increase in $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ with P_c can be attributed
372 to an increase in sliding velocity during the confined co-seismic ruptures. Indeed, the strain rate
373 depends on the slip velocity time the parameter K ($\dot{\epsilon} = KV_s$). As K is constant in the tested range
374 of normal stress, $\dot{\epsilon}$ is a direct function of the slip velocity reached at the onset of the fault
375 afterslip. Following previous studies, the slip velocity at the onset of fault afterslip is expected
376 to be a function of the stress drop and of the normal stress following $V_0 = V_{pl} \exp\left[\frac{\Delta\tau}{(a-b)\sigma_n}\right]$
377 (Perfettini & Ampuero, 2008; Perfettini & Avouac, 2007). Even if our measurement $\Delta\tau$ are
378 obtained far from the fault (estimated from our pressure transducers), and therefore, potentially
379 underestimated, our experimental results seem to confirm this exponential relationship between
380 V_0 and $\Delta\tau$ (Figure 5f). However, the role of $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ on the final value of strain release during the
381 post-seismic slip remains secondary compared to $\sigma_n(a-b)^*$ that has a predominant effect (Figure
382 5e).

383 In summary, the evolution of the fault afterslip is well explained by the rate-and-state
384 framework, and appears to be a combination of 1) the strain rate at the onset of afterslip $\dot{\epsilon}_0$,
385 which trend to decrease t_0 and 2) the frictional properties (i.e., $(a-b)^*$) around the area
386 experiencing a dynamic stress/strain drop, which tends to increase with confining pressure.

387 For natural earthquakes, afterslip has been often proposed as the main driving force of the
388 aftershock sequences (Avouac, 2015; Helmstetter & Shaw, 2009; and references therein). If the
389 performed experiments do not allow to correlate afterslip and aftershock sequence (as no
390 acoustic emission were emitted during afterslip sequences), they are able to identify the main
391 parameters influencing the amplitude of afterslip. Our data alongside with recent experimental
392 data performed on heterogeneous fault material (e.g., Arts et al., 2024; Bedford et al., 2022;
393 Song & McLaskey, 2024) highlight the major role of frictional heterogeneity on the fault
394 strength and stability. In particular, they allow for the emergence of afterslip similar to the one
395 occurring after large earthquakes.



397 5. Conclusion

398

399 The experimental results presented in this manuscript challenge previous hypotheses derived
400 from natural observations regarding the emergence of fault afterslip following large
401 earthquakes. At the scale of our experiments, the presence of stress heterogeneities along the
402 fault, which can potentially arrest seismic ruptures, does not appear sufficient to trigger a
403 significant post-seismic phase. Instead, the emergence of afterslip in our experiments results
404 from the interaction between a propagating seismic front, which stops in an aseismic region,
405 causing a substantial increase in stress that is then released by fault afterslip. Our results are
406 consistent with natural observations, including (i) afterslip occurring preferentially outside of
407 the co-seismic rupture area, and (ii) a slip evolving with the logarithm of time. The measured
408 afterslip in our experiments are explained by simple model involving velocity-weakening
409 patches, governed by a rate-and-state friction law, surrounded by a velocity-strengthening
410 interface. This is supported by (i) the imposed rheology of our experimental faults, and (ii) the
411 observed exponential increase in initial afterslip velocity with increasing stress drop. Finally,
412 our results indicate that the afterslip magnitude is likely controlled by both the frictional
413 properties of velocity-strengthening patches and the normal stress acting along the fault plane.
414 Due to this complexity, independently analysing these parameters from natural afterslip
415 measurements is expected to remain challenging, especially given the uncertain on the stress
416 conditions along natural faults.

417

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