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16 February 2016

Version of attached file:

Accepted Version

Peer-review status of attached file:

Peer-reviewed

Citation for published item:

Balsamo, F. and Aldega, L. and De Paola, N. and Faoro, I. and Storti, F. (2014) 'The signature and mechanics of earthquake ruptures along shallow creeping faults in poorly lithified sediments.', *Geology*, 42 (5). pp. 435-438.

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1130/G35272.1>

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1 The signature and mechanics of earthquake ruptures along
2 shallow creeping faults in poorly lithified sediments

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Seismic slip episodically occurring along shallow creeping faults in poorly
14 lithified sediments represents an unsolved paradox, largely due to our poor understanding
15 of the mechanics governing creeping faults and the lack of documented geological
16 evidence showing how coseismic rupturing overprints creep in near-surface conditions.
17 Here we describe the signature of seismic ruptures propagating along shallow creeping
18 faults affecting unconsolidated forearc sediments. Field observations of deformation
19 band-dominated fault zones show widespread foliated cataclasites in fault cores, locally
20 overprinted by sharp slip surfaces decorated by thin (0.5–1.5 cm) black gouge layers
21 (herein, black gouge). **[[SU: Ok as noun, as variant of “fault gouge”?]]** Compared to
22 foliated cataclasites, black gouges have much lower grain size, porosity, and

23 permeability. Moreover, they are characterized by distinct mineralogical assemblages
24 compatible with high temperatures (180–200 °C) due to frictional heating during seismic
25 slip. Foliated cataclasites were also produced by laboratory experiments performed on
26 host sediments at subseismic slip rates (≤ 0.1 m/s), displaying high friction ($\mu_f = 0.65$)
27 **[[SU: friction coefficient is just μ in text; μ_f in Fig. 4 is defined as “residual” friction**
28 **coefficient?]]** and strain-hardening behavior. Black gouges were produced during
29 experiments performed at seismic (1 m/s) slip rates, displaying low friction ($\mu_f = 0.3$) due
30 to dynamic weakening. Our results show that black gouges represent a potential
31 diagnostic marker for seismic faulting in shallow creeping faults. These findings can help
32 understanding the time-space partitioning between aseismic and seismic behavior of
33 faults at shallow crustal levels.

34 INTRODUCTION

35 Most popular synoptic models of tectonic earthquakes assume that crustal faults
36 compose a stable and aseismic region located at shallow depths (Marone and Scholz,
37 1988) up to the surface, and an unstable and seismic region extending at greater depths
38 (Perfettini et al., 2010), down to the brittle-plastic transition. It is widely accepted that
39 earthquakes can only nucleate within unstable, velocity-weakening regions (Kaneko et
40 al., 2008). Seismic ruptures should not nucleate within the shallower portions of the crust
41 (Scholz, 1998), due to the presence of stable, velocity-strengthening incohesive fault
42 gouges for temperatures < 100 °C (Marone et al., 1990; Saffer and Marone, 2003).
43 However, the 2011 M_w 9.0 Tohoku-Oki earthquake (Japan) (Sato et al., 2011)
44 demonstrated that large coseismic ruptures can propagate to the surface through shallow

45 sediments of subduction zones (Ozawa et al., 2011), causing vast damage and destructive
46 tsunamis (Avouac, 2011).

47 The discrepancy between the behavior of real earthquakes and model predictions
48 is due to the lack of direct observations constraining the structure, rock physical
49 properties, deformation patterns, and frictional behavior of fault zones in the shallow part
50 of the crust.

51 Compelling numerical (Boatwright and Cocco, 1996), geophysical (Kodaira et al.,
52 2012), experimental (Faulkner et al., 2011), and mineralogical (Yamaguchi et al., 2011;
53 Sakaguchi et al., 2011) evidence has been presented to support possible scenarios and
54 mechanisms that may lead a fault segment to host a seismic rupture in the shallow part of
55 the crust. However, there is little documented geological evidence showing how seismic
56 rupturing of shallow faults in unconsolidated sediments occurs in nature (Noda and
57 Lapusta, 2013). Here we report field, petrophysical, mineralogical, and experimental
58 evidence of past coseismic ruptures propagating along creeping extensional fault zones in
59 the seismically active Croton forearc basin in Calabria, southern Italy (Fig. 1A).

60 **METHODS**

61 Analytical procedures and graphics for laser diffraction particle size analysis,
62 mercury-injection porosimetry, X-ray diffraction analyses, in situ permeability
63 measurements, microstructural characterization, temperature rise calculations, and
64 friction experiments are provided in the GSA Data Repository¹.

65 **GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND AND FAULT ZONE STRUCTURE**

66 Calabria exposes the southern segment of the Apennines fold-and-thrust belt (Fig.
67 1), characterized by ongoing northwestward subduction of the Ionian crust and backarc

68 Tyrrhenian rifting and regional uplift (e.g., Faccenna et al., 2004). The Croton Basin
69 (Fig. 1A) is a portion of the Ionian forearc region, filled by Miocene–Pleistocene
70 continental to shallow-marine unconsolidated syntectonic sediments (e.g., Zecchin et al.,
71 2004). Extensional fault zones in the study area developed in middle Pliocene–
72 Pleistocene quartz-feldspathic unconsolidated sediments, which were exhumed from
73 maximum burial depths of ≤ 1 km (Balsamo et al., 2012). Historical seismic records (Galli
74 et al., 2008) and recent low-magnitude shallow seismicity (Italian Seismological
75 Instrumental and Parametric Data-Base, <http://iside.rm.ingv.it/iside/standard/index.jsp>;
76 Figs. 1A and 1B) make the studied fault zones an excellent field analogue of active
77 deformation in shallow sediments. Fault zone structure in the Croton Basin typically
78 consists of deformation band-dominated damage zones encompassing narrow fault cores
79 made of foliated cataclasites and gouges (Fig. 2A) (Balsamo and Storti, 2011). In three
80 fault cores made of foliated cataclasites, 8–22 cm thick, we found sharp, localized
81 principal slip surfaces decorated by a 0.5–1.5-cm-thick layer of black gouge (Fig. 2B).
82 These fault zones have extensional displacements of 13.6, 21.3, and 41.7 m. Although it
83 was not possible to discriminate where most slip was accommodated, we envisage that it
84 was accommodated in the volumetrically more significant foliated cataclasites. Foliated
85 cataclasites consist of subangular, coarse- to fine-grained granular material in which
86 foliation is imparted by preferential clast orientation parallel to the principal slip direction
87 (Fig. 2C). Black gouges consist of very fine grained matrix encompassing subrounded
88 survivor quartz grains (Fig. 2D).

89 **PETROPHYSICAL AND MINERALOGICAL DATA**

90 Mean grain size ranges between 200 and 600 μm in the host sediments and
91 between 100 and 450 μm in deformation bands and foliated cataclasites sands, and
92 decreases to 70–80 μm within black gouges, independent of the cumulative displacement
93 accommodated by each fault zone (Fig. 3A; Item DR1 in the Data Repository). The mean
94 permeability of undeformed sediments is $\sim 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2$, which reduces by 1–3 orders of
95 magnitude in damage zones and foliated cataclasites, and to 10^{-15} m^2 in the black gouges
96 (Fig. 3B). The undeformed sediments have a porosity of $\sim 25\%$ that reduces to 0.1%–
97 4.5% in the foliated fault core and to 0.1%–0.9% in the black gouges. Mean pore size
98 decreases from 20–50 μm in the undeformed sediments to 0.3 μm in the foliated
99 cataclasites, and to 0.01–0.02 μm in the black gouges (Fig. 3; Item DR1).

100 X-ray diffraction (XRD) determined the bulk mineralogy of undeformed sands to
101 consist of quartz, plagioclase, K-feldspar, clay minerals, chlorite, mica, and calcite. The
102 relative abundance of mineral phases does not change significantly among fault structural
103 domains, except for a slight increase in clay minerals in the black gouges (Table DR2 and
104 Fig. DR4 in the Data Repository). Clay size fractions of undeformed sands show the
105 presence of illite, kaolinite, chlorite, and random ordered (R0) mixed-layer illite-smectite
106 (I-S; Fig. 3C; Table DR3; Fig. DR4D). Deformation bands in damage zones and foliated
107 cataclasites in fault cores do not show significant variations of clay mineral assemblages
108 with respect to the protolith in terms of relative abundances and mixed-layer I-S
109 composition (Fig. 3C; Table DR3). Only samples located in the fault core next to the
110 black gouge layer display short-range ordered (R1) mixed-layer I-S and the neoformation
111 of palygorskite and mixed-layer chlorite-smectite (Table DR3). However, black gouges

112 are characterized by the occurrence of long-range ordered (R3) mixed-layer I-S,
113 accompanied by the formation of authigenic pyrophyllite (Fig. 3C; Fig. DR4F).

114 **FRICITION EXPERIMENTS**

115 **Details of** friction experiments performed on the undeformed medium-sized sands
116 are provided in Item DR4. Experimental conditions range from seismic (to 1 m/s) to
117 subseismic slip rates (to 0.1 m/s), normal stresses at 7 MPa and 14 MPa, displacements of
118 ~1.3 m, and room temperature and humidity (Table DR5). The displacement of 1.3 m
119 was **chosen because** it is the slip accommodated by a black gouge developed in the
120 Croton Basin (Balsamo and Storti, 2011). During experiments performed at subseismic
121 slip rates, the friction coefficient (μ) **[[SU: correct?]]** increased with slip from initial
122 values, $\mu_i = 0.59\text{--}0.65$, to peak values, $\mu_p = 0.69\text{--}0.73$, overall showing slip-hardening
123 behavior (Fig. 4A). Samples sheared at seismic slip rates showed initial slip hardening
124 (Fig. 4B), with μ increasing from $\mu_i = 0.63\text{--}0.69$ to $\mu_p = 0.72\text{--}0.74$, before weakening
125 began and friction reduced to steady-state values $\mu_f = 0.32\text{--}0.47$, for displacements $d_w =$
126 $0.2\text{--}0.88$ m **[[SU: friction coefficient is just μ in text; μ_f in Fig. 4 defined as**
127 **“residual” friction coefficient? In Abstract, μ_f introduced as friction; use of**
128 **variables should be consistent. What is subscript w in d_w ?]]** (Table DR5). Cataclasites
129 produced at subseismic slip rates (≤ 0.1 m/s) **show** overall slip-hardening behavior over
130 the range of velocities tested (Fig. 4C), as opposed to black gouges, only produced at
131 seismic slip rates (≥ 0.5 m/s), **that showed** dynamic weakening behavior.

132 Samples recovered after the experiments at subseismic slip rates show the
133 development of **a thin gray** slip zone overlaying moderately comminuted cataclasite (Fig.
134 4A), as opposed to **samples** recovered after the tests at seismic slip rates **that showed** the

135 development of black polished slip surfaces overlaying very fine grained gray gouge
136 (Fig. 4B). At subseismic slip rates, the sheared sand consists of coarse-grained, very
137 angular quartz and feldspar grains with jigsaw-fit geometry surrounded by a fine-grained
138 matrix (Fig. 4D). The mean grain angularity value is 21.6 ± 3.7 (inset in Fig. 4D). Such
139 an immature texture is similar to that observed within natural foliated cataclasites (Fig.
140 2C). At seismic slip rates, sheared sand is very fine grained, indicating higher grain
141 comminution. Black gouge consists of subrounded quartz and feldspar grains floating
142 within a fine-grained matrix. The mean grain angularity value is 18.7 ± 2.1 (Fig. 4E); i.e.,
143 grains sheared at seismic slip rates are more rounded than subseismic counterparts. The
144 experimental black gouge layer [[SU: correct “latter fabric”?]] is similar to the fabric
145 described for the natural black gouges (Fig. 2D).

146 XRD analyses performed on the experimental black gouges show the presence of
147 amorphous phases as a result of extreme comminution (Fig. DR5A) and quartz, albite, K-
148 feldspar, calcite, and ankerite minerals (Table DR4). In addition, in the $<2 \mu\text{m}$ grain-size
149 fraction, R3 mixed-layer I-S (Fig. DR5B) was recognized, as opposed to R0 I-S identified
150 in the host sediments (Fig. 3C), similar to what was observed in the natural black gouges.

151 DISCUSSION

152 Our data show that creeping extensional fault zones can be overprinted by
153 episodic seismic ruptures at very shallow depths, producing decoration of slip surfaces by
154 black gouges. Creep faulting is inferred by the widespread occurrence of strain-hardening
155 cataclastic deformation bands in damage zones (e.g., Fossen et al., 2007) and by the
156 moderate reduction in grain size and pore size in foliated cataclasites (Fig. 3A; Item
157 DR1). However, it is not possible to discriminate whether the studied faults have been

158 partially or totally unlocked. We interpret the localized dramatic reduction of mean grain
159 size, permeability, porosity, and pore size in black gouges as the evidence for transient
160 fast slip during coseismic rupture propagation through creeping fault segments. This
161 interpretation is further supported by recent field studies of high-strain-rate faulting in
162 porous sandstones, where pervasive comminution of quartz grains, to ~10–100 μm ,
163 occurs without development of deformation bands (Key and Schultz, 2011; Balsamo and
164 Storti, 2011). Coseismic slip-rate-dependent cataclasis inferred in the studied black
165 gouges is also in agreement with numerical analyses on rock dynamic fragmentation
166 processes showing that the average fragment size decreases with increasing strain rate
167 (Zhou et al., 2005).

168 The R0 illite-smectite mixed layers in high-porosity, permeable, and
169 unconsolidated undeformed sediments indicate shallow burial depths (<2 km) and
170 temperatures <70 °C (Środoń, 1999). The absence of significant variations of clay
171 mineral assemblages with respect to the protolith in deformation bands and foliated
172 cataclasites (Fig. 3C; Table DR3) indicates that such deformational structures formed
173 without significant frictional heating, likely at subseismic slip rates. However, an
174 energetic rupture could propagate through the poorly lithified sediments, using the
175 distributed fault pattern. In this case, the rupture would quickly dissipate its energy and
176 some sliding at low slip rates would occur before the rupture stopped. [\[\[SU: ok?\]\]](#) We
177 believe that this scenario, although possible, should only have a local impact rather than
178 affecting the entire fault population in the unconsolidated sediments. We think that it
179 would be much more likely and plausible that the distributed fault pattern would have
180 developed as a consequence of strain-hardening behavior of the sediments, and that most

181 of the sliding along the studied faults would have been aseismic. **However**, the
182 occurrence of **R1** mixed-layer I-S and the neoformation of palygorskite in the foliated
183 cataclasites next to the black gouges, and of **R3** mixed-layer I-S in the black gouges,
184 accompanied by the formation of authigenic pyrophyllite, indicate the attainment of
185 higher temperatures during faulting (>180 °C for the black gouges; Fig. 3C) (Wang et al.,
186 1996; Środoń, 1999). In this view, heat diffusion from the black gouge-decorated slip
187 zones caused the temperature rise in the adjacent foliated cataclasites. These temperatures
188 are comparable with the calculated temperature rise (to 211 °C) produced by moderate
189 earthquakes ($M_w > 5$; Fig. DR6) that propagate under dry and fluid-saturated (hydrostatic
190 fluid pore pressure) conditions **[[SU: not “respectively”]]** along localized slip zones with
191 same physical properties and thickness as the black gouge layers observed in the field
192 (gray shaded area in Fig. 3C). The lack of widespread mineralogical evidence supporting
193 hydrothermal fluid circulation in the fault zones indicates that the inferred increase in
194 temperature within the black gouges was attained by localized frictional heating during
195 coseismic sliding (Fig. 3C).

196 When extrapolated to natural earthquake conditions, our experimental results
197 suggest that $M > 5$ earthquakes (e.g., $d \geq 0.1$ m) **[[SU: not d_w , as in discussion of**
198 **Friction Experiments?]]** nucleated at depth within velocity-weakening rocks (Niemeijer
199 et al., 2012) would attain slip that is large enough to trigger dynamic weakening
200 processes and facilitate rupture propagation along fault zones within unconsolidated, slip-
201 hardening sands. This is consistent with temperatures inferred from the mineralogical
202 assemblages observed in the natural black gouges and with temperature calculations for
203 $M > 5$ earthquakes (Fig. DR6). The observed R0 to R3 I-S conversion in experimental

204 black gouges is similar to the mineralogical assemblage of natural gouges and can be
205 explained by localized temperature rise due to frictional heating (Fig. DR7).

206 We argue that, in nature, the progressive grain size and pore size reduction,
207 porosity collapse, and permeability drop in foliated cataclasites reaches a threshold fabric
208 that favors coseismic slip, black gouge development, and fault weakening. The different
209 grain angularity values obtained from experimentally sheared gouges at different slip
210 rates, and the resulting different friction coefficient, suggest that the wear and rounding
211 of particles during coseismic slip may play an important role in dynamic weakening.

212 CONCLUSIONS

213 Discriminating between creeping and seismic faulting in poorly consolidated
214 sediments strongly affects seismic hazard evaluation, especially for active fault segments
215 in the shallow crust, where aseismic creeping behavior can episodically be overprinted by
216 seismic slip during upward rupture propagation. Based on our data, we conclude that
217 episodic seismic shear failure of creeping shallow fault segments is supported by field
218 and laboratory evidence. The peculiar petrophysical and mineralogical signature of
219 narrow black gouges described in this work makes them a potential new diagnostic
220 marker for discriminating between aseismic and seismic faulting in shallow
221 unconsolidated sediments. Our results can be applied, and improve our ability to estimate
222 risks and hazards in many seismically active areas and tectonic settings, where fault
223 segments cut across unconsolidated sediments in outcrop exposures, in cores retrieved
224 from boreholes, and in paleoseismological trenches.

225 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

226 This study was supported by the Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei (Royal
227 Society of Edinburgh grant to Balsamo) [\[\[SU: correct?\]\]](#) and the Natural
228 Environment Research Council (NERC standard grant NE/H021744/1 to De Paola).
229 L. Bowen (G.J. Russell Microscopy Facility, Durham University, UK) provided
230 assistance during scanning electron microscope analyses. Roma Tre University is
231 kindly acknowledged for providing facilities for X-ray diffraction.

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316 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

317 Figure 1. A: Calabria region with late Pleistocene faults (red lines) and historical
318 earthquakes (A.D. 1630–1908) (white circles) (modified from Galli et al., 2008). **[[SU:**
319 **what is KR in figure? Should spell out in caption.]]** B: Magnitude-depth distribution of
320 small to moderate shallow (0–5 km) earthquakes (1983–2013) in Crotona area (from
321 **Italian Seismological Instrumental and Parametric Data-base,**
322 <http://iside.rm.ingv.it/iside/standard/index.jsp>). C: Schematic geological cross section of
323 Calabrian subduction zone.

324 **[[SU: need uppercase A–C labels in figure; no lat, long given. In Fig. A, Crotona**
325 **Basin, not basin; “Plio-” should be Pliocene–; in Fig. C, “Undertrused” should be**
326 **underthrust.]]**

327

328 Figure 2. A: Structural domains in fault zone with 13.6 m displacement (FC—fault core;
329 FWDZ—footwall damage zone; HWDZ—hanging-wall damage zone); red star shows
330 location of fault rocks in B. B: Black gouge layer developed in foliated cataclastic sand.
331 **Diameter of coin used for scale is 24.25 mm. [[SU: 50 cent Euro, correct?]]** C:

332 Scanning electronic microscope (**SEM**) photomicrograph showing immature cataclastic
333 texture in foliated sand. D: **SEM** photomicrograph of very fine grained fabric in black
334 gouges. **[[SU: need uppercase A–D labels in figure; in Fig. A, reference to “Fig. 2b”**
335 **should be “B”]]**

336

337 Figure 3. A: Progressive grain-size reduction from host sediments to foliated cataclastic
338 sand to black gouges. B: Air-permeability data, plotted along idealized fault zone
339 transect, show permeability decrease of as much as four orders of magnitude within black
340 gouges. C: Clay-mineral association from undeformed and faulted samples, plotted
341 versus estimated stability temperatures (Środoń, 1999), showing attainment of highest
342 temperature within black gouges. Shaded gray area shows calculated range of
343 temperatures produced by earthquakes up to $M_w > 5$, propagating under dry and fluid
344 saturated (hydrostatic fluid pore pressure) conditions (Item DR4 and Fig. DR6 [see
345 footnote 1]). R0 I-S—random ordered mixed-layer illite-smectite; C-S—mixed-layer
346 chlorite-smectite; R1 I-S—short-range ordered mixed-layer illite-smectite; R3 I-S—long-
347 range ordered mixed-layer illite-smectite. **[[SU: need uppercase A–D labels in figure;
348 need space around = signs]]**

349

350 Figure 4. A: Slip-hardening behavior at subseismic slip rate (v) of 100 $\mu\text{m/s}$. B: Slip-
351 hardening followed by slip-weakening behavior at coseismic slip rate of 1 m/s. C: Peak
352 (μ_p) and residual (μ_r) friction coefficients plotted versus slip rate. D: Scanning electronic
353 microscope photomicrograph showing microstructural features of sand sheared at 1
354 mm/s. Inset shows calculated mean angularity value of grains. Double arrows indicate
355 sense of shear. E: Sand sheared at 1 m/s. **[[SU: Are Du206, Du207, Du210, Du211
356 sample numbers, experiment runs, or other? Should define in caption. Need
357 uppercase A–E labels in figure.]]**

358

359 ¹GSA Data Repository items 2014, Item DR1 (petrophysical properties of natural
360 undeformed and faulted sediments), Item DR2 (mineralogical composition of natural and
361 experimentally sheared gouges), Item DR3 (temperature calculations within black
362 gouges), and Item DR4 (experimental apparatus, sample assembly, and mechanical data),
363 is available online at www.geosociety.org/pubs/ft2014.htm, or on request from
364 editing@geosociety.org or Documents Secretary, GSA, P.O. Box 9140, Boulder, CO
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