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Key Points:

- The dependence of natural gouge friction on temperature and velocity cannot be captured by empirical laws with constant coefficients
- The competition of healing mechanisms explains a velocity- and temperature-controlled transition between velocity-weakening and hardening
- The constitutive law explains the mechanics of natural gouge from various tectonic settings, allowing scaling up from laboratory to nature

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Velocity and Temperature Dependence of Steady-State Friction of Natural Gouge Controlled by Competing Healing Mechanisms

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Abstract The empirical rate- and state-dependent friction law is widely used to explain the frictional resistance of rocks. However, the constitutive parameters vary with temperature and sliding velocity, preventing extrapolation of laboratory results to natural conditions. Here, we explain the frictional properties of natural gouge from the San Andreas Fault, Alpine Fault, and the Nankai Trough from room temperature to ~300°C for a wide range of slip-rates with constant constitutive parameters by invoking the competition between two healing mechanisms with different thermodynamic properties. A transition from velocity-strengthening to velocity-weakening at steady-state can be attained either by decreasing the slip-rate or by increasing temperature. Our study provides a framework to understand the physics underlying the slip-rate and state dependence of friction and the dependence of frictional properties on ambient physical conditions.

Plain Language Summary The physics of friction is crucial to understanding fault mechanics, impacting virtually every aspect of earthquake initiation, propagation, and associated hazards. The mechanics of active fault zones exhibit a complex dependence on temperature and sliding velocity among other factors. The frictional resistance of natural gouge can be explained by empirical rate- and state-dependent friction laws for a limited range of conditions. However, explaining the non-stationary frictional behavior of gouge friction and extrapolation of laboratory constraints to natural conditions remains challenging. In this study, we describe a constitutive law that predicts the velocity of sliding of natural gouge based on applied shear stress, effective confining pressure, and the ambient temperature of the fault. The transition from stable to unstable sliding is controlled by the competition between micro-mechanisms of deformation within the gouge that dominate in distinct ranges of temperature and slip-rate. Once calibrated to mechanical data for a specific lithology and confining pressure, the model explains the temperature and slip-rate control on fault stability, allowing extrapolation of laboratory data to natural conditions.

1. Introduction

The slip-rate and state dependence of friction is a key feature of fault mechanics that enables runaway instabilities and the recurrence of earthquakes (Dieterich, 1972, 1978). The unstable nature of rock friction is widely recognized as the origin of stick-slip instabilities in natural faults (Brace & Byerlee, 1966; Byerlee & Brace, 1968; Ohnaka & Shen, 1999; Scholz, 1998), allowing laboratory analogs, down-scaled versions of earthquakes (Latour et al., 2013; McLaskey, 2019). The frictional behavior of rocks may be described by constitutive laws calibrated with laboratory observations that predict the slip-rate based on shear stress and one or more state variables representing the evolving texture of fault gouge (Dieterich, 1979a, 1979b, 1981; Gu et al., 1984; Ruina, 1983; Rice & Ruina, 1983).

Empirical friction laws capture the direct velocity dependence of friction and the transient phase that follows perturbations of shear stress, normal stress, or temperature (Chester, 1994; Dieterich, 1979a; Linker & Dieterich, 1992), reproducing experimental data for many lithologies in a wide range of hydrothermal settings (e.g., Blanpied et al., 1995; den Hartog et al., 2021; He et al., 2007; Niemeijer et al., 2016; Okuda et al., 2023; Saffer & Marone, 2003; Zhang et al., 2017). Friction laws enable numerical modeling of natural faults (e.g., Barbot, 2020; Barbot et al., 2012; Julve et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2016; Sathiakumar & Barbot, 2021; Shi et al., 2022; Tse & Rice, 1986; Veedu & Barbot, 2016), successfully explaining a variety of fault behaviors, encompassing creep, slow-slip events, and crack-like or pulse-like seismic ruptures (e.g., Barbot, 2019b; Cattania & Segall, 2019; Lapusta & Rice, 2003; Nie & Barbot, 2021, 2022; Wang & Barbot, 2023).

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The frictional parameters vary widely depending on hydrothermal conditions, slip-rate, pore-fluid and confining pressure, and other factors in laboratory experiments, even for a given lithology. For example, phyllosilicate-rich natural gouge from the Alpine Fault, Nankai Trough, and the Central San Andreas Fault (CSAF) (Boulton et al., 2014, 2018; Carpenter et al., 2015; den Hartog et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2016; Niemeijer et al., 2016; Tesei et al., 2014) consistently show a drastic reduction of the strengthening effect or even a transition from velocity-strengthening to velocity-weakening at steady-state with increasing temperature and/or decreasing slip-rate (Figure 1). The velocity dependence of frictional stability can be captured using a cut-off velocity in the friction law (e.g., Matsuzawa et al., 2010; Okubo, 1989; Shibasaki et al., 2010), but this approach does not incorporate the temperature dependence. Despite the importance of these effects on fault dynamics, the origin of the different regimes of stability is still poorly understood, hindering ongoing efforts to build physical models of the seismic cycle consistent with rock mechanics.

In this study, we use a physics-based constitutive model of rate- and state-dependent friction based on the competition between multiple healing mechanisms (Barbot, 2022) to capture the variations of frictional properties of natural gouge with temperature and slip-rate under constant coefficients. In the next section, we describe the details of the constitutive framework. We then calibrate the model to experimental data from gouge samples cored from the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth (SAFOD) that document the frictional behavior from room temperature to 250°C and within three orders of magnitude of slip-rates from a few nanometers to micrometers per second (Moore et al., 2016). Finally, we show that the constitutive model applies to a variety of natural rock samples under varying parametric configurations, including gouge from the South Alpine Fault in New Zealand (Barth et al., 2013), the Alpine Fault Deep Fault Drilling Project (Boulton et al., 2014), the Zuccale Fault in Italy (Collettini et al., 2011), and the Nankai Trough (den Hartog et al., 2012) from room temperature to about 300°C and slip-rate ranging from nanometers to millimeters per second. The model provides comprehensive predictions for different slip-rate and temperature regimes of fault stability simultaneously by incorporating the competition between healing mechanisms, allowing extrapolation of laboratory data to natural fault conditions and more realistic simulations of the seismic cycle.

2. Constitutive Framework

To explain the velocity and temperature control of the steady-state velocity dependence of friction of natural fault gouge, we consider a thermally activated constitutive law based on the real area of contact and the healing of micro-asperities (Barbot, 2019a, 2022, 2023). The constitutive law for cataclastic flow describes the frictional strength in isobaric conditions as

$$\mu = \mu_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \left(\frac{d}{d_0} \right)^{\frac{m}{n}} \exp \left[\frac{Q}{nR} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right) \right], \quad (1)$$

where μ is the frictional resistance controlled by the instantaneous slip-rate V and the temperature T . The representative size of micro-asperities d corresponds to the local radius of curvature at contact junctions and constitutes a state variable for the evolving texture of the gouge layer. The constants $V_0 = 1 \mu\text{m/s}$, $d_0 = 1 \mu\text{m}$, and $T_0 = 25^\circ\text{C}$ represent reference values of slip-rate, micro-asperity size and ambient temperature, respectively. The reference friction coefficient μ_0 is a material property corresponding to the ratio of plowing to indentation hardness (Bowden & Tabor, 1950, 1964). The coefficients n and m are the stress and microasperity-size power exponents, respectively. The exponential term corresponds to an Arrhenius activation with the energy and temperature of activation Q and T_0 , respectively, involving the universal gas constant R . As the laboratory data considered in this study is limited to up to 300°C at constant pore fluid and confining pressure, Equation 1 incorporates only a single mechanism of deformation and, therefore, does not capture the brittle-to-ductile transition observed at higher temperatures and lower slip-rates (Blanpied et al., 1995; den Hartog et al., 2012; Niemeijer et al., 2016; Okuda et al., 2023). Capturing the brittle-to-flow transition requires a constitutive model dependent on multiple deformation mechanisms (Barbot, 2023; Barbot & Zhang, 2023). Given the isobaric experimental conditions considered in this study, we also ignore the nonlinear direct and evolutionary effects of normal stress (Barbot, 2024).

The evolution of the effective asperity size incorporates time-dependent healing by multiple micro-physical mechanisms and slip-dependent comminution by grain fracturing and contact rejuvenation (Barbot, 2022). The corresponding evolution law in isobaric conditions can be cast in additive form, following

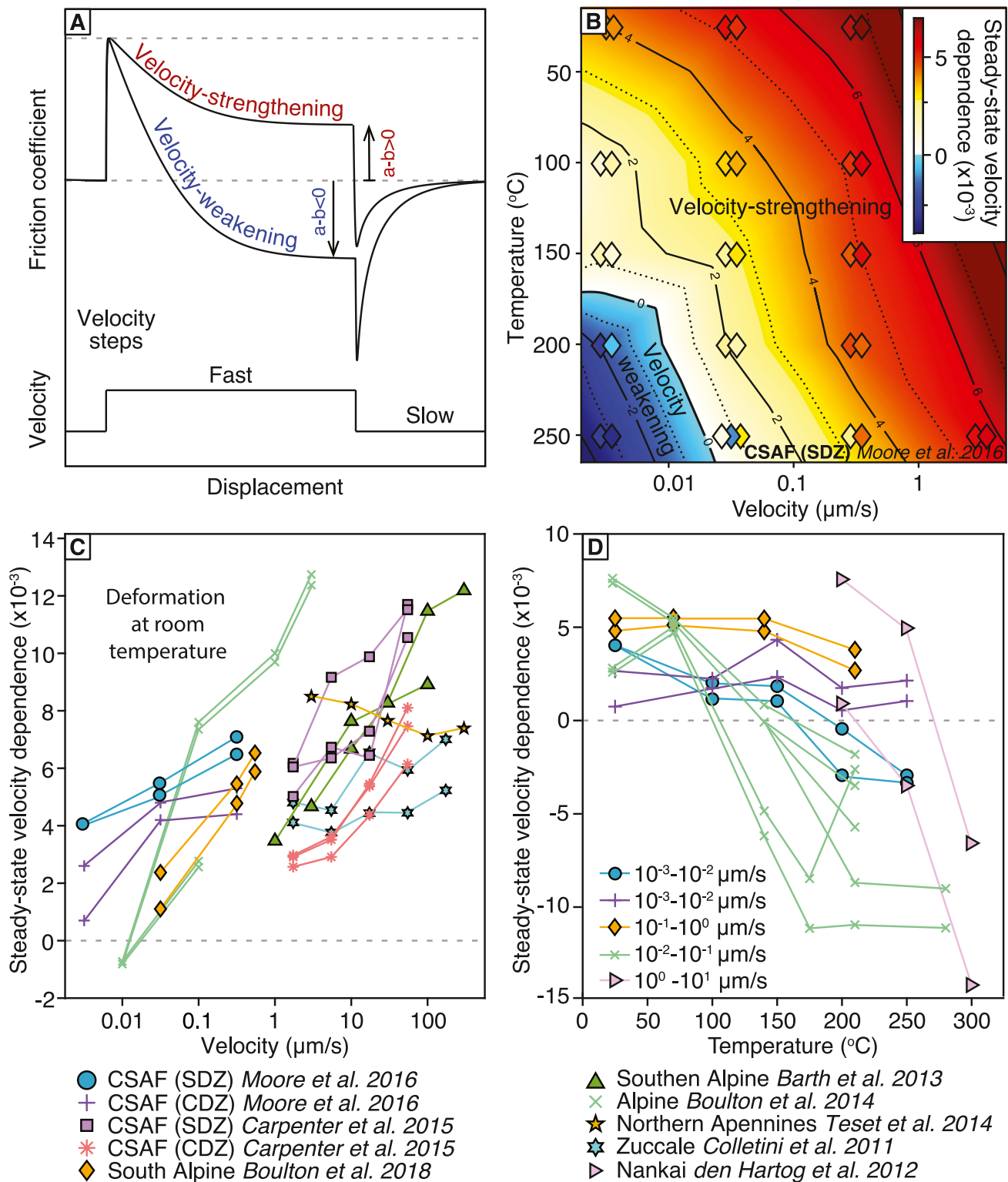


Figure 1.

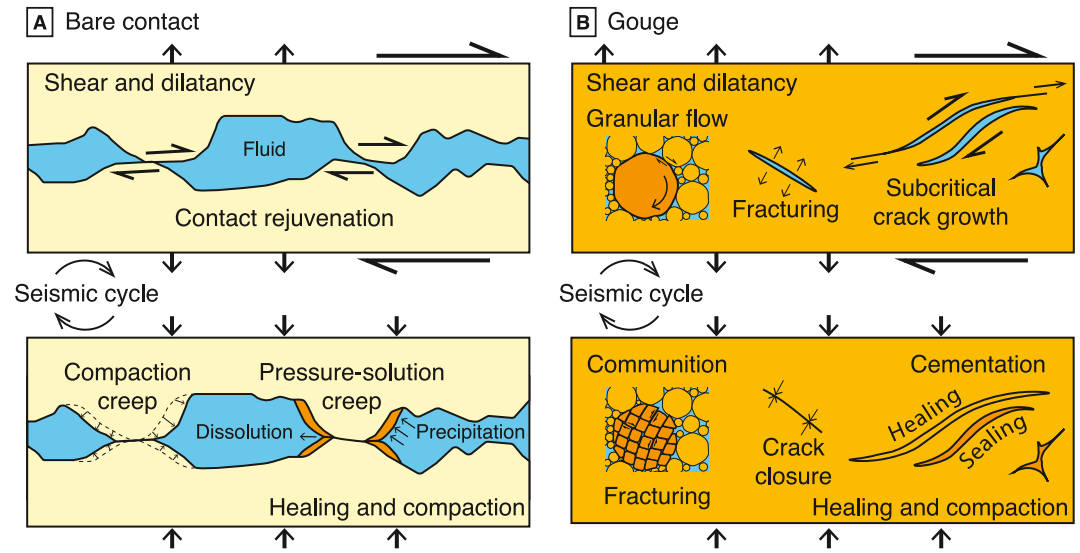


Figure 2. Mechanisms of deformation and healing enabling seismic cycles across a frictional interface. (a) Case of solid-solid or bare contact with contact rejuvenation by dilatant shear during sliding and compaction creep accommodated by viscoelasticity or pressure-solution creep during reloading. (b) Case of solid-gouge-solid contact where granular flow, fracturing, and subcritical crack growth accommodate dilatant shear and comminution. The closure/cementation of cracks enables healing of the interface. Each mechanism acting on different minerals is associated with specific constitutive properties. The deformation associated with healing and contact rejuvenation is anelastic and proceeds as a time-dependent or slip-dependent processes.

$$\frac{\dot{d}}{d} = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{G_k}{p_k d^{p_k}} - \frac{\lambda V}{2h}, \quad (2)$$

where \dot{d} is the rate of change of micro-asperity size. In Equation 2, the first term on the right-hand side corresponds to healing with the micro-asperity size power exponent p_k and the reference growth rate G_k for the healing mechanism $k = 1$ to N . We ignore possible coupling effects between healing mechanisms. The second term on the right-hand side of Equation 2 represents the reduction of asperity size during shear over the gouge thickness h with the characteristic strain $1/\lambda$ due to rejuvenation of the contact population (Figure 2). Alternatively, the evolution law can be expressed in multiplicative form, as

$$\frac{\dot{d}}{d} = \frac{\lambda V}{2h} \ln \left[\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{G_k}{p_k d^{p_k}} \frac{2h}{\lambda V} \right], \quad (3)$$

involving the difference in the logarithm of the healing and weakening terms. The evolution laws of Equations 2 and 3 may produce different evolutionary effects, for example, varying slip weakening distance (Figure 2 and Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1), but produce the same response at steady-state (Ampuero & Rubin, 2008; Beeler et al., 1994; Bhattacharya et al., 2017, 2022; Nakatani, 2001; Rathbun & Marone, 2013). In both formulations, the healing rate G_k is thermally activated following an Arrhenius formulation, as

$$G_k(T) = G_k^0 \exp \left[-\frac{H_k}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_k} \right) \right], \quad (4)$$

Figure 1. Velocity and temperature dependence of friction of natural gouge from laboratory experiments. (a) Schematic of friction evolution during a velocity-jump experiment with possible velocity-strengthening ($a - b > 0$) and velocity-weakening ($a - b < 0$) at steady-state. (b) Measured (diamonds) and interpolated (background color) value of $a - b$ as a function of velocity and temperature for the Southern Deforming Zone sample cored from San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth in the Central San Andreas Fault. (c) Laboratory measurements of $a - b$ from natural gouge for different loading velocities at room temperature. (d) Variation of $a - b$ under various temperature slip-rate conditions.

where $G_k^0 = (1 \mu\text{m})^{p_k}/\text{s}$ is the reference growth rate, H_k is the activation enthalpy, and T_k is the activation temperature. The ratio H_k/T_k represents the change of entropy of healing. The evolution of asperity size leads to a change in the real area of contact that modulates the frictional strength. Equivalent evolution laws based on the age of contact that fall in the aging-law and slip-law end-members are discussed in Appendix A.

The healing mechanisms are defined by their distinct thermo-mechanical parameters affected by grain shape, composition, and deformation process (Barbot, 2022; Sleep, 1994, 2006). Healing associated with compaction creep may occur by subcritical crack growth (H. Atkinson, 1988), pressure-solution creep (Gratier et al., 2009), intra-granular deformation (Hirth & Tullis, 1992), and closure of cracks at different rates depending on mineralogy, texture, and temperature (Figure 2). Additional healing may occur without significant fault-perpendicular shortening by crack healing, crack sealing, and cementation of the pore space (Andreani et al., 2004; Gratier et al., 2003; Putnis & Mauthe, 2001).

Considering two healing mechanisms, that is, using $N = 2$ in Equation 2 or Equation 3, we obtain velocity-weakening and velocity-strengthening friction at steady-state in different velocity and temperature regimes controlled by the growth rates and thermodynamic properties of each mechanism. The dominant healing mechanism is associated with the largest grain size at steady-state, which depends on temperature and slip-rate (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1). When one mechanism dominates, the associated strain-rate can be orders of magnitude higher than the other. However, the transition between healing mechanisms leads to a gradual change of steady-state velocity dependence within specific ranges of temperatures and slip-rates.

3. Constitutive Properties of San Andreas Fault Gouge

We first focus the analysis on laboratory experiments on gouge samples from the San Andreas Fault at SAFOD, which offered direct access to the local creeping segment, allowing the study of the mechanical, compositional, and frictional properties of fault gouge (Carpenter et al., 2015; Lockner et al., 2011; Thurber et al., 2004). The borehole crossed two creeping strands of the CSAF at about 3 km depth (Zoback et al., 2010, 2011). Samples from the Southern Deforming Zone (SDZ) and Central Deforming Zone are rich in phyllosilicates, including saponite, corrensite, and serpentinite, and exhibit steady-state velocity-strengthening at room temperature. The slightly stronger SDZ strand, with a lower phyllosilicate and higher quartz and feldspar content, becomes velocity-weakening under elevated temperature or sufficiently low velocity (Moore et al., 2016).

We utilize the mechanical data from velocity-step experiments on the SDZ samples for three orders of magnitude of slip-rates, from nanometers to micrometers per second, from room temperature at 25 to 250°C in isobaric conditions, with a constant effective normal stress of $\bar{\sigma} = 100 \text{ MPa}$ (Moore et al., 2016). The loading rate of the slowest experiments is close to the long-term slip-rate of the San Andreas Fault (Barbot et al., 2009, 2013), approaching the conditions of rupture nucleation. We first use the RSFit3000 methodology (Skarbek & Savage, 2019) to derive the empirical rate- and state-dependent parameters (Ruina, 1983), including the reference friction coefficient μ_0 , a , b , the characteristic weakening distance L , and the system stiffness k (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). A key aspect of rate- and state-dependent friction laws is the steady-state velocity dependence parameter, characterized by

$$a - b = \frac{\partial \mu_{ss}}{\partial \ln V}, \quad (5)$$

where μ_{ss} is the steady-state friction coefficient, defined as the ratio of the shear and effective normal stresses, and V is the slip-rate across the fault. The sign of $a - b$ controls frictional stability, that is, the potential of a fault to generate dynamic ruptures (Figure 1a). Steady-state velocity-weakening friction, which occurs for $a - b < 0$, allows the nucleation and propagation of earthquakes and slow-slip events. In contrast, velocity-strengthening condition, with $a - b > 0$, promotes stable sliding, manifested as fault creep (Harris, 2017) or afterslip following mainshock ruptures (Marone et al., 1991). The constitutive parameters are scattered with a small dynamic range, consistent with a single deformation mechanism. However, there is a clear dependence of the state-dependence parameter b on temperature and velocity, indicating changes in the underpinning evolutionary process (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). The corresponding trend of $a - b$ shows a clear sensitivity to slip-rate and temperature, delineating two distinct stability regimes (Figure 3). The velocity-weakening regime operates at high temperatures and low slip rates.

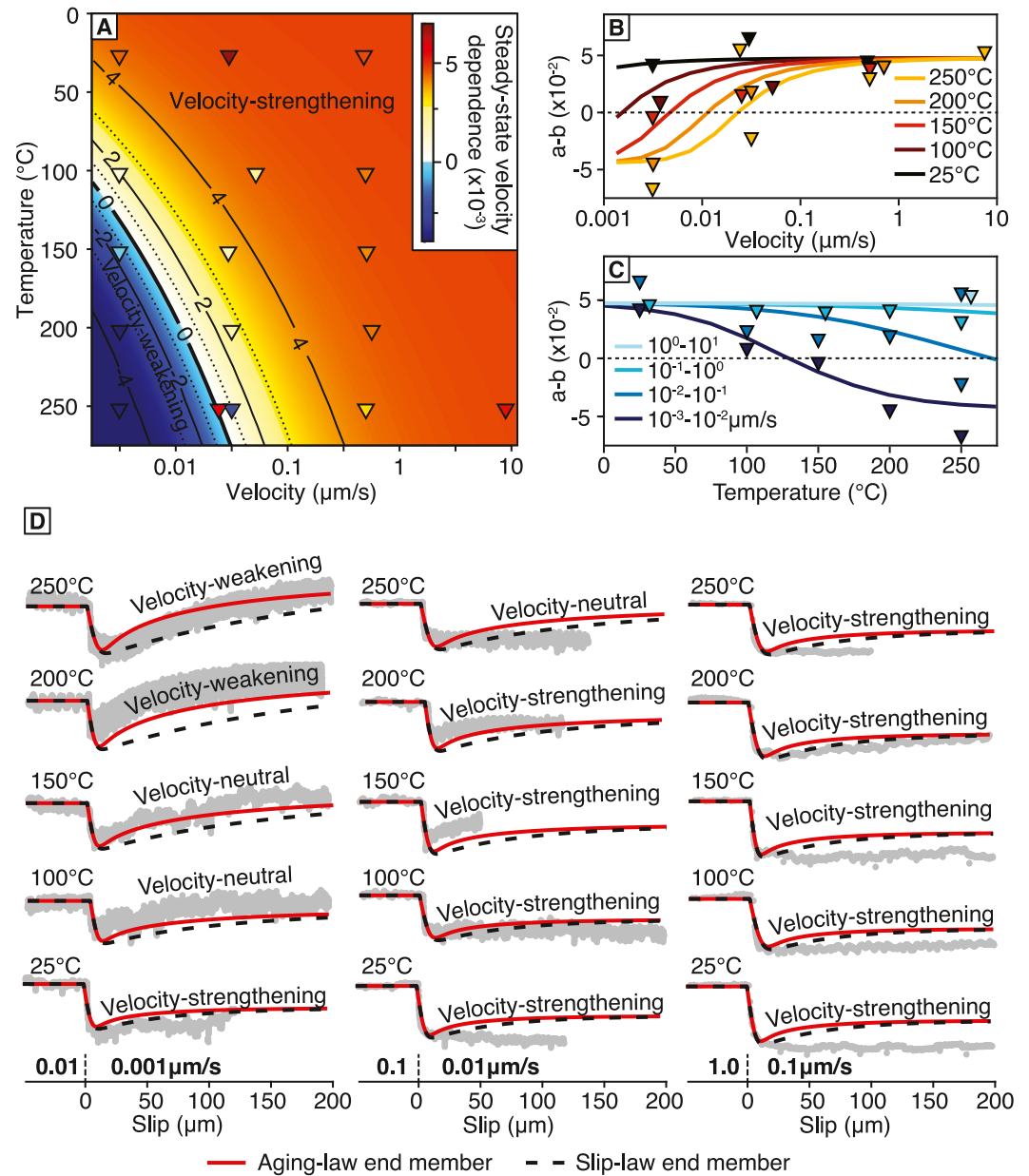


Figure 3. Comparison between simulated and measured frictional data for samples from the Southern Deforming Zone of the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth. (a) Comparison between simulated (background color) and measured (colored triangles) steady-state velocity-dependence parameter $a-b$. (b) Simulated (lines) and regressed (triangles) $a-b$ parameters as a function of velocity colored by temperature. (c) Simulated (lines) and regressed (triangles) $a-b$ parameters as a function of temperature colored by velocity. (d) Comparison of the synthetic (lines) and raw friction coefficient measurements (gray dots). The red solid lines and black dashed lines denote simulations conducted using Equations 2 and 3, respectively.

To explain the experimental data, recognizing the various merits and shortcomings of the slip law and aging law end-members (Beeler et al., 1994; Bhattacharya et al., 2022, and references therein), we conduct numerical simulations of the velocity jump experiments with a spring-slider assembly with the constitutive laws of Equations 1 and 2 and separately with Equations 1 and 3. The conservation of linear momentum in isobaric condition implies

$$\dot{\mu}\sigma = -k(V - V_L) \quad (6)$$

Table 1

Constitutive and Physical Parameters of the Simulated Velocity-Step Experiments on the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth SDZ Sample Shown in Figure 3

| Parameter | Symbol | Value |
|--------------------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Direct effect | | |
| Reference friction coefficient | μ_0 | 0.21 |
| Reference asperity size | d_0 | 1 μm |
| Reference velocity | V_0 | 1 $\mu\text{m/s}$ |
| Effective normal stress | $\bar{\sigma}$ | 100 MPa |
| Stress power exponent | n | 24 ± 5 |
| Asperity-size power exponent | m | 1.64 ± 0.2 |
| Activation energy | Q | 85 ± 15 kJ/mol |
| Reference temperature | T_0 | 25°C |
| Evolutionary effects | | |
| Size-sensitivity exponent | p_1 | 1.1 |
| | p_2 | 3.6 |
| Activation enthalpy | H_1 | 80 ± 15 kJ/mol |
| | H_2 | 195 ± 45 kJ/mol |
| Activation temperature | T_1 | 286°C |
| | T_2 | 106°C |
| Reference strain | $1/\lambda$ | 0.1 |
| Gouge thickness | h | 1 mm |

Note. The uncertainties correspond to plus or minus a standard deviation. The parameters $d_0 = 1 \mu\text{m}$, $V_0 = 1 \mu\text{m/s}$, and $T_0 = 25^\circ\text{C}$ represent scaling factors, not constitutive parameters per se. The reference friction coefficient μ_0 is a material property corresponding to the ratio of plowing to indentation hardness. The gouge thickness $h = 1$ mm is a laboratory setting.

where k is the stiffness of the system and V_L represents the imposed loading rate, which varies from V_1 to V_2 across a velocity step (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). As the loading rate barely exceeds micrometers per second and the gouge is conditionally stable at the experimental conditions, we ignore the radiation of seismic waves. We estimate the empirical parameter $a - b$ using a numerical approximation of Equation 5. Conducting such experiments for various temperatures and slip rates allows us to calculate the residuals with the laboratory observations. We optimize 10 constitutive parameters (μ_0 , n , m , and Q for the direct effect and p_1 , p_2 , H_1 , H_2 , T_1 , and T_2 for the evolutionary effects) by grid search to minimize the root mean square of the residuals with about 56 measurements of frictional resistance at steady-state and 33 measurements of $a - b$ (Figures S5 and S6 in Supporting Information S1).

The frictional parameters for the SDZ gouge are best explained by the power exponents $n = 24 \pm 5$, $m = 1.64 \pm 0.2$ in the flow law of Equation 1. The reference friction coefficient $\mu_0 = 0.21$ and the activation energy $Q = 85 \pm 15$ kJ/mol are constrained by the average frictional resistance at steady-state (Figure S5 in Supporting Information S1). The distinct regimes of stability are controlled by the competition of healing mechanisms with activation enthalpies $H_1 = 80 \pm 15$ kJ/mol and $H_2 = 195 \pm 45$ kJ/mol. The absolute value of the activation temperatures cannot be determined with the data available, but the ratio $T_1/T_2 = 1.51$ is well constrained. The size power exponents for healing $p_1 = 1.1$ and $p_2 = 3.6$ trade off with each other, but fall within the expectation of $p_1 < m$ for steady-state velocity-weakening and $p_2 > m$ for velocity strengthening. The best-fitting parameters are summarized in Table 1.

The constitutive framework explains the transition between velocity-weakening and velocity-strengthening at steady-state controlled by slip-rate and temperature (Figure 3). The model does not resolve a few velocity-step experiments well because a single set of constitutive parameters is used for all experimental data. In the higher velocity and/or lower temperature range, the velocity-strengthening healing mechanism with $p_1 > m$ controls the

frictional behavior. In the complementary range with a velocity-weakening behavior, the second healing mechanism with $p_2 < m$ dominates (Figure 3a). These results are corroborated by the evolution of the friction coefficient, whereby only the velocity step from 10^{-2} to 10^{-3} $\mu\text{m/s}$ at 200 and 250°C exhibits velocity-weakening (Figure 3d).

The thermodynamic properties of the SDZ samples provide new insights into the dominant healing mechanisms. The activation energy $H_1 = 80$ kJ/mol is compatible with a variety of healing mechanisms operating in wet conditions, including subcritical crack growth, pressure solution, and crack healing or crack sealing (B. K. Atkinson, 1984; Barbot, 2022; Brantley et al., 2008; Marty et al., 2015; Niemeijer et al., 2002; Rimstidt & Barnes, 1980). With the activation energy $H_2 = 195$ kJ/mol, the second healing mechanism may involve the viscoelastic collapse of a weak mineral phase within the gouge (Barbot, 2022; Hirth et al., 2001; Kronenberg et al., 1990; Rybacki & Dresen, 2000).

4. Application to Other Fault Gouges

We now consider the velocity-step experiments conducted on natural samples from the South Alpine Fault (Barth et al., 2013; Boulton et al., 2014, 2018), CSAF (Carpenter et al., 2015), Zuccale Fault (Collettini et al., 2011; Kaproth & Marone, 2013), and Nankai Trough (den Hartog et al., 2012) at varying slip rates, temperatures, or both. Most samples exhibit a predominantly velocity-strengthening behavior in the experimental conditions, consistent with the presence of hydrous minerals and clays in all samples (e.g., smectite, chlorite, illite, saponite). However, a few cases exhibit velocity-weakening at steady-state for sufficiently low velocity (e.g., Figures 4e, 4h, and 4i). Regardless, all samples exhibit increasing stability with increasing slip-rate or decreasing temperature.

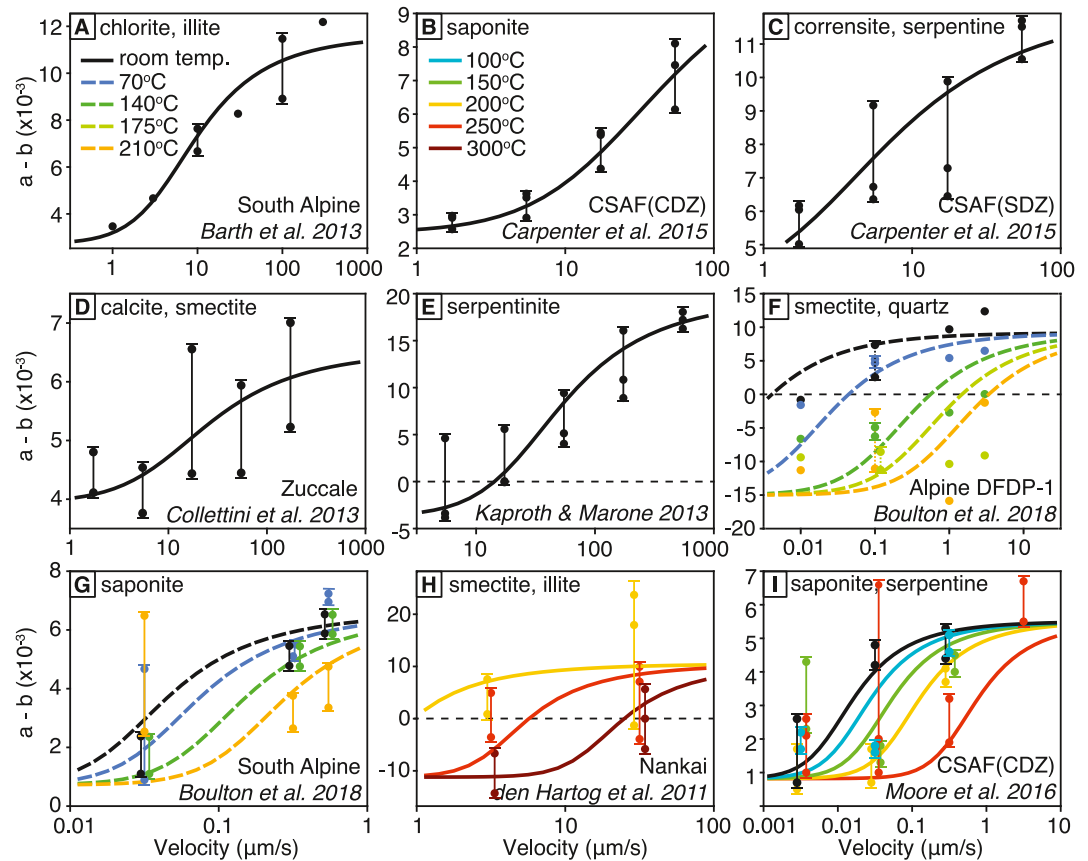


Figure 4. Comparison between simulated (lines) and laboratory-derived (dots) velocity dependence parameter ($a - b$) of natural samples from (a) South Alpine fault (Barth et al., 2013), (b) and (c) Central Deforming Zone (CDZ) and Southern Deforming Zone of Central San Andreas Fault (CSAF), respectively (Carpenter et al., 2015), (d) Zuccale Fault (Collettini et al., 2011), (e) lizardite-rich serpentinite sample (Kaproth & Marone, 2013), (f) Alpine DFDP-1 sample (Boulton et al., 2014), (g) South Alpine outcrop (Boulton et al., 2018), (h) Nankai (simulated) (den Hartog et al., 2012), and (i) CSAF CDZ (Moore et al., 2016). Colors represent experiments under different temperatures. The dashed line is for $a - b = 0$. Additional results for serpentinite gouge Pozzi et al. (2023) are included in Figure S7 of Supporting Information S1.

Using the procedure described in the previous section, we obtain constitutive parameters that explain the evolution of the steady-state velocity dependence parameters $a - b$ with temperature and slip-rate (Figure 4), as summarized in Table 2. As these experiments document a limited range of slip rates and temperatures, a wide range of thermodynamic properties can explain the mechanical data equally well. The activation enthalpy varies in the range 50–80 kJ/mol and 80–150 kJ/mol for the low- and high-temperature healing mechanisms, respectively, which is typical in the brittle regime. For example, hornblende (Liu & He, 2020), pyroxene (Tian & He, 2019), and natural gouges (An et al., 2020; Valdez et al., 2019; den Hartog et al., 2021) in wet conditions feature an activation enthalpy within 20–65 kJ/mol (Barbot, 2022). Similarly, wet Westerly granite (Blanpied et al., 1995), basalt (Okuda et al., 2023), and cataclasite gouge from the Alpine Fault (Niemeijer et al., 2016) exhibit an activation enthalpy for healing in the range 30–55 kJ/mol (Barbot, 2023). The presence of mechanisms characterized by activation energy greater than 100 kJ/mol suggests the activation of compaction creep of anhydrous minerals. For instance, the sample from the Zuccale Fault contains calcite (Collettini et al., 2011), which shows activation energies of 145–250 kJ/mol for viscoelastic flow (Holyoke et al., 2013). Samples from SAFOD include quartz and feldspar (Carpenter et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2016) that showcase activation energies for viscoelastic flow of 150–600 kJ/mol (Rybacki & Dresen, 2000) and 135–240 kJ/mol (Rutter & Brodie, 2004a, 2004b), respectively. Conversely, the low activation energy of healing under specific conditions suggests the deformation of phyllosilicates or other weak minerals (Barbot, 2022; Mares & Kronenberg, 1993; Mariani et al., 2006; Shea & Kronenberg, 1992).

Table 2
Constitutive Parameters of Natural Gouge Constrained by Velocity-Step Experiments (Figures 3 and 4)

| Fault gouge | Mineral assembly | n | m | p_1 | p_2 | H_1 | H_2 | T_1 | T_2 | Reference |
|-------------------|------------------------------|-----|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------------------------|
| Alpine Fault | Chlorite, illite | 29 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 2.5 | 80 | 150 | 217 | 338 | Barth et al. (2013) |
| | Smectite, quartz, K-feldspar | 17 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 2.7 | 60 | 80 | 200 | 150 | Boulton et al. (2014) |
| | Saponite, serpentine | 53 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 3.1 | 50 | 180 | 206 | 106 | Boulton et al. (2018) |
| San Andreas (CDZ) | Saponite | 28 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 2.7 | 80 | 150 | 217 | 325 | Carpenter et al. (2015) |
| | Saponite, serpentine | 62 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 2.8 | 50 | 180 | 206 | 110 | Moore et al. (2016) |
| San Andreas (SDZ) | Corrensite, serpentine | 26 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 2.7 | 80 | 150 | 217 | 275 | Carpenter et al. (2015) |
| Zuccale Fault | Calcite, smectite | 59 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 80 | 150 | 217 | 308 | Colletini et al. (2011) |
| | Lizardite-rich serpentinite | 15 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 2.7 | 80 | 150 | 165 | 308 | Kaproth and Marone (2013) |
| Nankai Trough | Smectite, illite, chlorite | 29 | 1.6 | 1.0 | 4.1 | 80 | 100 | 277 | 278 | den Hartog et al. (2012) |

Note. The activation energies H_1 and H_2 are in kJ/mol. The activation temperatures T_1 and T_2 are in degrees Celsius.

5. Discussion

As evidenced by an abundance of laboratory experiments, the frictional behavior of natural gouge is complex, involving different stability regimes based on ambient temperature and instantaneous slip rate. The mechanics of gouge friction cannot be explained using empirical friction laws at constant parameters, at least not as previously defined (see Appendix A). In contrast, the constitutive framework described in Section 2 captures the frictional behavior of natural gouge for a wide range of rocks upon parametric adjustments based on lithology and confining or pore-fluid pressures. The constitutive model employed here applies within a nominal range of temperatures and slip rates that exclude the brittle-ductile transition. These results facilitate the scaling of laboratory observations up to natural fault conditions within the relatively low temperatures of the middle and upper crust or the thick sedimentary layers of accretionary prisms at subduction zones.

The non-stationary properties of gouge friction documented in the laboratory and captured in the constitutive model imply complex dynamics of natural faults. The unstable friction of phyllosilicate-rich gouge at a sufficiently low slip rate and increased stability at intermediate velocity is particularly relevant to creeping faults. Although the CSAF exhibits primarily aseismic slip (Barbot et al., 2013; Scott et al., 2020), creep is spatio-temporally variable and episodic (Khoshmanesh & Shirzaei, 2018; Khoshmanesh et al., 2015; Titus et al., 2006). This phenomenon is compatible with phyllosilicate gouge friction, which is often found to be velocity-weakening at low slip speed (e.g., Pozzi et al., 2023), allowing nucleation of instabilities, but velocity-strengthening at higher velocity, inhibiting the transition to seismic rupture propagation. The slip-rate dependence of gouge stability may also explain shallow slow-slip events above the seismogenic zone of the San Andreas Fault (Wei et al., 2013) and the North Anatolian Fault (Kaneko et al., 2013). Furthermore, phyllosilicates typically exhibit a strong increase of the effective friction coefficient with normal stress (Moore & Lockner, 2008). Generalizing the constitutive equations to incorporate the effect of normal stress (Barbot, 2024) explains this behavior (Figure S8 in Supporting Information S1).

The complex frictional behavior of natural gouge may explain the non-stationary creeping behavior observed in other faults, such as the Laohushan segment of the Haiyuan fault (Jolivet et al., 2012, 2013; Li et al., 2021), and the Pütürge and Palu segments of the East Anatolian Fault (Bletery et al., 2020; Cakir et al., 2023; Ragon et al., 2021). The temperature dependence of gouge friction also implies variations in fault behavior with depth, including the prevalence of a shallow slip deficit during large earthquakes (Barbot et al., 2023; Fialko et al., 2005; Qiu et al., 2020) and variations of interseismic coupling as a function of depth (e.g., Jolivet et al., 2015).

6. Conclusion

We describe a constitutive framework for gouge friction that explains the widely observed velocity and temperature dependence of effective mechanical properties. The competition between thermally activated healing mechanisms and weakening by contact rejuvenation leads to distinct stability regimes with a tendency for increased stability with increasing slip rate or decreasing temperature. The model applies to a range of

temperatures and slip-rates within the brittle field for phyllosilicate-rich gouge. Considering additional deformation mechanisms is required to capture the brittle-ductile transition (Barbot, 2023; Barbot & Zhang, 2023). The constitutive model explains the frictional behavior of natural gouge from the San Andreas Fault, Zuccale Fault, Alpine Fault, and the Nankai Trough under varying parametric configurations, allowing the extrapolation of laboratory data to natural fault conditions within the middle and top crust. If the effects of temperature and slip rate on the frictional resistance are now better understood, the remaining controls of varying pore-fluid pressure remain elusive. Further experimental work is needed to describe the properties of a wide range of rocks and calibrate the model for different tectonic contexts and hydrothermal conditions.

Appendix A: Formulations Based on the Age of Contact

In this Appendix, we describe how the empirical evolution laws based on the age of contact can be modified to enable a stability transition with increasing slip-rate. For simplicity, we discuss the constitutive behavior at isobaric condition. The temperature effects are captured in the temperature dependence of G_i . The evolutionary effects of rate- and state-dependent friction can be described using the age of contact (Dieterich, 1979a, 1979b; Ruina, 1983). The relationship between size and age of contact is well-defined when a single healing mechanism operates (Barbot, 2019a). However, with the competition of multiple healing mechanisms, the apparent age depends on the healing rate of reference (Barbot, 2022).

Taking arbitrarily the first healing mechanism as a reference and assuming two distinct healing mechanisms, we define the apparent age of contact as (Barbot, 2019a)

$$\theta = \frac{d^{p_1}}{G_1}. \quad (\text{A1})$$

Defining the characteristic weakening distance as a fraction of the gouge thickness (Barbot, 2019a)

$$L = \frac{2h}{\lambda p_1}, \quad (\text{A2})$$

the evolution law of Equations 2 and 3 can be written as a function of the age of contact. Specifically, Equation 2 becomes

$$\dot{\theta} = 1 + \alpha \theta^\beta - \frac{V\theta}{L}, \quad (\text{A3})$$

and Equation 3 becomes

$$\dot{\theta} = -\frac{V\theta}{L} \ln \left[\frac{V\theta}{L} / (1 + \alpha \theta^\beta) \right]. \quad (\text{A4})$$

The competition of two healing mechanisms introduces a new term associated with the parameters

$$\alpha = \frac{G_2}{r G_1^r} \quad (\text{A5})$$

and

$$\beta = 1 - r \quad (\text{A6})$$

that depend on the ratio of the micro-asperity size power exponents $r = p_2/p_1$. If the second healing mechanism can be neglected, with $G_2 = 0$, then $\alpha = 0$ and Equations A3 and A4 reduce to the aging law and the slip law defined by Ruina (1983), respectively. The correspondence between the apparent age and size of contact indicates how the empirical evolution laws can be modified to capture the temperature and velocity dependence of the stability regime of gouge friction. Although the formulations based on the age of contact are mathematically

adequate, they are physically inconsistent due to the ambiguity of the reference healing rate. When multiple healing mechanisms operate, using the size of contact is more appropriate.

Data Availability Statement

The data and computer programs used to create Figures 3 and 4 are available at Nie and Barbot (2024).

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