

1 In-situ observation of pre-, co- and post-seismic shear slip at 1.5 km 2 depth

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6

7 Key points:

- 8 • Direct observation of displacement from a shear rupture in crystalline rock at 1.5km depth
- 9 • Rupture was observed including transients of aseismic pre-slip, co-seismic, and afterslip phases
- 10 • Co-seismic rupture phase accounts for only 25% of total slip

11

12 Abstract

13 Understanding the initiation and arrest of earthquakes is one of the long-standing challenges of
14 seismology. Here we report on direct observations of borehole displacement by a meter-sized shear
15 rupture induced by pressurization of metamorphic rock at 1.5 km depth. We observed the acceleration of
16 sliding, followed by fast co-seismic slip and a transient afterslip phase. Total displacements were about 7,
17 5.5 and 9.5 micrometers, respectively for the observed pre-slip, co-seismic slip and afterslip. The
18 observed pre-slip lasted about 0.4 seconds. Co-seismic slip was recorded by the 1 kHz displacement
19 recording and a 12-component array of 3-C accelerometers sampled at 100 kHz. The observed afterslip is
20 consistent with analytical models of arrest in a velocity-strengthening region and subsequent stress
21 relaxation.

22 The observed slip vector agrees with the activation of a bedding plane within the phyllite, which is
23 corroborated by relocated seismic events that were observed during the later stages of the injection
24 experiment.

25 Plane language summary

26 Because earthquakes typically occur at great depths, and we cannot predict when and where the next
27 event will occur, it is very difficult to observe their beginning and their end. We instrumented a borehole
28 in a 1.5 km deep mine with precise displacement sensors and created a meter-sized rupture through fluid
29 injection. We were not only able to capture the fast displacement that is responsible for the ground

30 shaking associated with earthquakes, but also its slow onset and finally the decelerating until its arrest.
31 From our measurements we inferred that only about a quarter of the total displacements is associated with
32 seismic waves, while most of the displacement is slow. Further analysis revealed that the event aligned
33 with bedding planes of the host rock and not – as commonly assumed – with natural fractures.

34 Introduction

35 How do earthquakes start? This is a fundamental question that to date has not been answered by direct
36 observational data. Knowing how earthquakes initiate could have important implications on rapid
37 assessment of earthquakes with applications to earthquake early warning. Capturing the onset of an
38 earthquake with sensors close to the hypocenter could provide important insights towards furthering our
39 understanding of rupture initiation. However, not knowing when and where the next earthquake occurs
40 almost precludes efforts to capture the initiation of a tectonic earthquake with direct measurements.
41 Further, the depth of most earthquake hypocenters prohibits instrumenting even known repeating
42 earthquake hypocenters with in-situ sensors (Nadeau & Johnson, 1998; McGuire et al., 2005; Savage et
43 al., 2017).

44
45 Two endmember models exist that describe the onset of earthquakes and are debated in the community.
46 The first, the cascade model (Ellsworth & Beroza, 1995), is based on small ruptures coalescing into a
47 larger rupture promoted by static stress transfer. Prominent examples are observations of foreshock
48 sequences observed for the 1999 Hector Mine (Yoon et al., 2019) and Izmit (Ellsworth & Bulut, 2019)
49 earthquakes. The complementary model, the pre-slip model, argues for stable-sliding pre-slip
50 transitioning into slip-weakening behavior and reaching seismic slip speeds accompanied by seismic
51 wave radiation and ground shaking. While this model has significant theoretical support from dynamic
52 rupture modelling (Cattania & Segall, 2020 and references therein) observational support for this model is
53 sparse. Rare examples include the observation of very low frequency events accelerating into earthquakes
54 in Alaska (Tape et al., 2018) and laboratory experiments on meter-sized samples (McLaskey & Lockner,
55 2014; McLaskey, 2019).

56
57 Here we present direct observations in support of the pre-slip model from a series of meso-scale injection
58 experiments performed at 1480 m depth. Using passive seismic monitoring and in-situ displacement
59 sensors sensitive to μm -scale deformation and rotation we closely tracked the initiation of a hydraulic
60 fracture, i.e., an opening mode fracture that propagates for pore fluid pressures greater than the least
61 principal stress (Guglielmi et al., 2021). During the pressurization stage, and before the initiation of the
62 hydraulic fracture, we observed the slippage caused by a single shear event including its pre-slip, co-

63 seismic and afterslip phases. Subsequently, we will provide a brief overview of the setup of the injection
64 experiment and in-situ observations of hydraulic fracturing. We then focus on the shear event and its pre-
65 seismic, co-seismic and post-seismic phases.

66

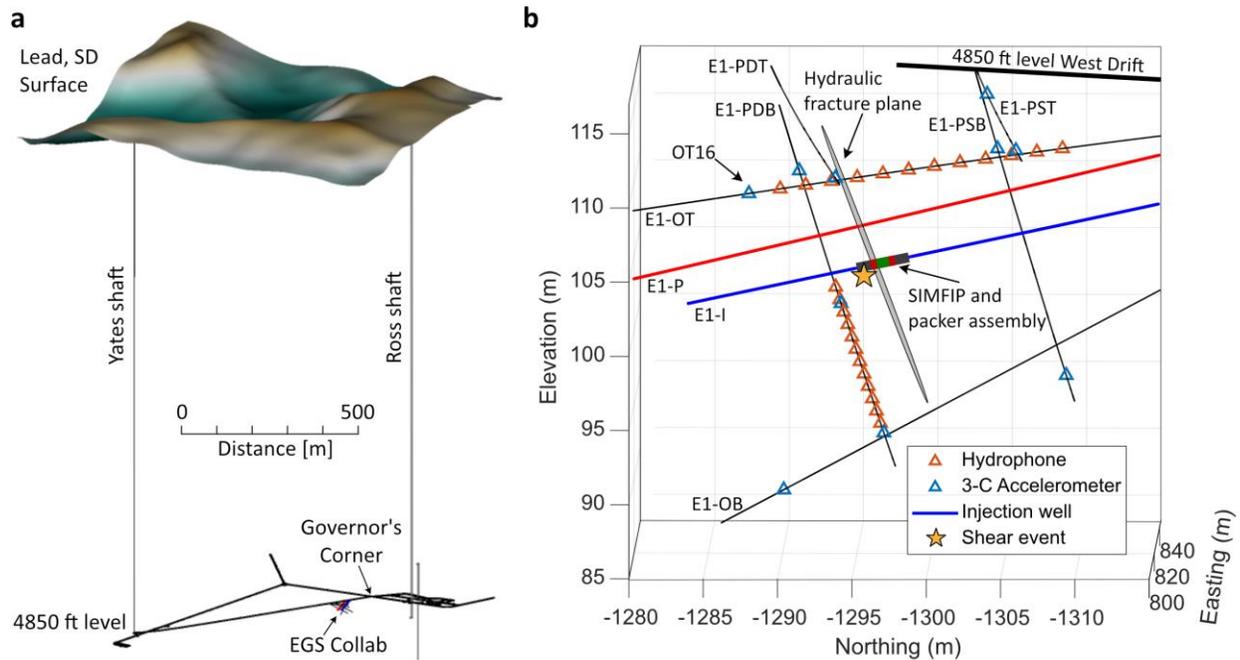
67 [Experimental setup and data](#)

68 The EGS Collab project (Kneafsey et al., 2019; 2020; 2021) experimental testbeds are located in the
69 Sanford Underground Research Facility in Lead, South Dakota, which provides easy access to rock with
70 1.5 km of overburden (Heise, 2015). We established a testbed in a metamorphic rock mass comprising six
71 dedicated monitoring boreholes and two boreholes for stimulation. The monitoring boreholes are
72 equipped with a multi-modal instrument string including passive seismic sensors, active seismic sources,
73 fiber-optics for distributed sensing, and electrodes for electrical resistivity tomography. Three-
74 dimensional borehole displacements were recorded by two SIMFIP sensors (Guglielmi et al., 2014)
75 deployed in the stimulation and in the production boreholes, respectively.

76

77 Here we focus on recordings of the SIMFIP sensor installed in the borehole injection interval and of the
78 passive seismic network only. Results of other monitoring techniques and coupled modelling are
79 described in Kneafsey et al. (2019; 2020; 2021) and references therein. The SIMFIP sensor measures the
80 3-D displacements of the borehole wall across a pressurized borehole interval using seven Fiber-Bragg
81 gratings (FBG) that sense strain in six different directions of a special-designed cage and pressure. This
82 allows us to infer six degrees of displacement (three translational and three rotational) between two points
83 clamped 0.80 m apart on the borehole wall. The clamped cage sits centered but mechanically decoupled
84 in a 1.64 m long pressurized interval between two inflatable packers. The FBGs were continuously
85 sampled at 1 kHz. The six deformation sensing arms and the pressure sensor of the SIMFIP probe are
86 interrogated with a single ultra-wide wavelength-swept laser which detects the characteristic wavelength
87 of each FBG and its variation with the FBG deformation. Since these 6 strain + 1 pressure data are set on
88 two optical fibers but scanned with the same interrogator, the noise floor is correlated between FBGs. To
89 decrease the relative noise amplitude, we take the pressure channel as reference and apply a zero phase,
90 high-pass Butterworth filter with 25 Hz corner frequency to extract the noise signal. This noise channel,
91 multiplied by a scaling factor to reflect the different noise amplitudes resulting from the sensor geometry,
92 is then subtracted from each of the deformation channels. The results are the deformations without the
93 correlated noise of the interrogator laser. The deformations of the six arms can then be used to calculate
94 the six degrees of freedom of translation and rotation. Seismic activity was recorded by a network of
95 twelve 3-component accelerometers (PCB 356B18) and 24 hydrophones (High Tech HTI-96-Min),
96 continuously sampled at 100 kHz by a 24-bit digitizer (Data Translation, VibBox-64). The sensors were

97 grouted in place in six monitoring boreholes, surrounding the experimental volume in 3-D (Schoenball et
 98 al., 2020).



99
 100 *Figure 1: (a) Location of the EGS Collab testbed on the 4850 ft level at the Sanford Underground*
 101 *Research Facility. (b) Testbed layout with monitoring and experimentation boreholes, and monitoring*
 102 *system. The SIMFIP assembly is drawn to scale and colors correspond to the packers (gray), the*
 103 *pressurized interval (red) and the clamped interval (green). The hydraulic fracture plane determined*
 104 *from event hypocenters is indicated by the gray disk seen almost edge-on. The single shear event (yellow*
 105 *star) was located just below the SIMFIP assembly.*

106 Overview of hydraulic testing

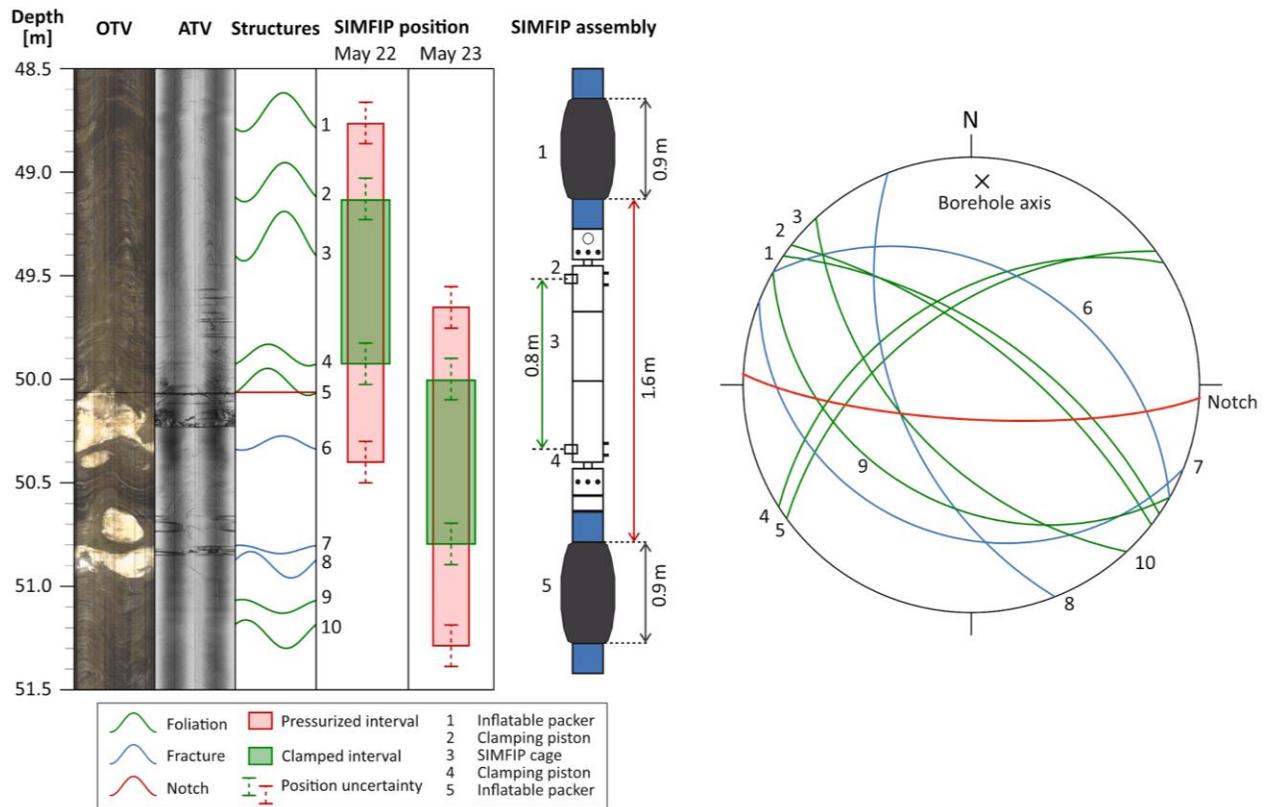
107 The injection borehole was drilled along an azimuth of approximately N358°E, close to the direction of
 108 the least principal stress N002°E. The hole was drilled with 96 mm diameter and left uncased beyond the
 109 first 6 m. The initial injection was performed at approximately 50 m depth. A centimeter-sized notch was
 110 cut into the borehole wall to guide the initiation of the hydraulic fracture. Before the experiment, optical
 111 (OTV) and acoustic televiewer (ATV) logs were acquired, and a repeat ATV log was acquired after the
 112 experiment, which did not reveal significant damage (Figure 2).

113 The hydraulic test was designed to create a hydraulic fracture of a nominal radius of 1.5 m. The interval
 114 was pressurized by a constant injection of 200 mL/min of water. The pore fluid pressure p in the interval
 115 rose linearly with time, elastically stressing the interval (Figure S1). Well before the onset of hydraulic
 116 fracturing, at 21:55:11 ($p = 13.4$ MPa) the first seismic event was recorded. This event was accompanied

117 by significant shear displacements recorded by the SIMFIP probe (Figure 3). We will discuss this event in
 118 detail below.

119 At 21:55:44 UTC ($p = 20.9$ MPa), the fluid pressure left the linear regime, and displacements indicated
 120 the opening of a hydraulic fracture. A first pressure maximum of 24.6 MPa was reached at 21:56:08 UTC
 121 (Figure S1). Pressure slowly declined until 21:56:40 UTC ($p = 23.5$ MPa), when it slowly increased until
 122 the end of injection at 22:05:16 UTC ($p = 26.3$ MPa). The development of the hydraulic fracture during
 123 this test and several re-opening and propagation cycles is described in Guglielmi et al. (2021).

124
 125



126
 127 *Figure 2: Optical and acoustic televiewer logs and structural interpretations of the borehole section of*
 128 *E1-I containing the pressurized intervals. The pressurized and clamped intervals on May 22 and May 23*
 129 *are drawn as red and green rectangles, respectively. The assembly containing the SIMFIP probe and*
 130 *inflatable packers is shown in the middle. On the right, the foliation and fracture planes intersecting the*
 131 *interval are plotted in a lower hemisphere stereo plot. The numbers correspond to the features identified*
 132 *in the Structures panel.*

133 Early shear event

134 Figure 3 shows a close-up of the displacement transient related to the early shear event recorded at
135 21:55:11 during the injection. Due to technical problems, after each recording interval of about 3 seconds
136 there is a gap of about 2 seconds in the data stream. The fluid pressure measured in the clamped interval
137 was 13.4 MPa and did not show any significant deviation from its linear trend during ongoing
138 pressurization of the packed-off interval. This indicates that no fluid leaked off from the interval as a
139 result of the shear displacement.

140 We recorded displacements in borehole radial direction during the entire 3-second data segment that
141 includes the event. No displacement was observed during the data segment before. The displacement
142 transient therefore started during the end of a data gap and we just missed the true onset of deformation.
143 From the beginning of the data segment, we observe linearly increasing shear displacements (pre-slip)
144 during about 0.3 s (0.4 s if we extrapolate the linear trend to the beginning) to a total of 7 μm . Shear
145 displacement then continues to increase by 5.5 μm during an accelerated slip event (coseismic) lasting
146 about 0.022 s. Then, displacement decelerates in an exponential-type decay during the remainder of the
147 data segment (afterslip). At the end of the data segment a total of 22 μm of slip had accumulated.
148 Immediately after the coseismic slip, there may be some low frequency reverberations measured by the
149 SIMFIP probe but the signal-to-noise ratio is too small to make a definitive observation.

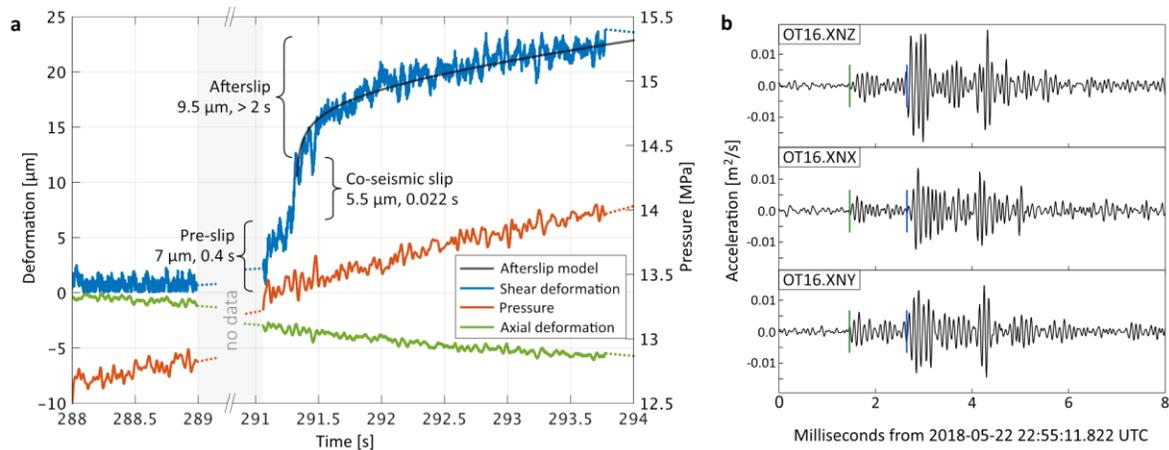
150 Based on the 5.5 μm coseismic slip and general scaling relations of earthquakes (Kwiatek et al., 2011),
151 we obtain a slip patch on the order of 1 m and a moment magnitude on the order of $M_w -3$ to -2 .

152 During the same time period, axial displacements continue to decrease as before during the linear pressure
153 increase. During the slip event, we observe minimal additional axial closure, which confirms that the
154 slippage occurred just outside the clamping interval. Axial deformation during the slip event can be
155 estimated to be less than 1 μm .

156

157 At the time of the observed shear displacement, the accelerometer array recorded a seismic event with the
158 strongest waveforms at least until the first pressure maximum was reached at 21:56:08 UTC. It was
159 clearly visible on all channels of the monitoring array. The waveforms (Figure 3b and Figure S2) indicate
160 a complex rupture with at least two sub-events evidenced by two S-wave trains. Manually picked first
161 arrivals of P and S waves were used to locate the event. We determined the hypocenter to be about 0.8 m
162 below the injection interval (Figure 1). Given the formal location uncertainty (2-sigma) of about 1.3 m
163 and that of the borehole trajectory of about 1 m, the event hypocenter could be within the pressurized
164 interval as indicated by the direct measurements of displacement.

165



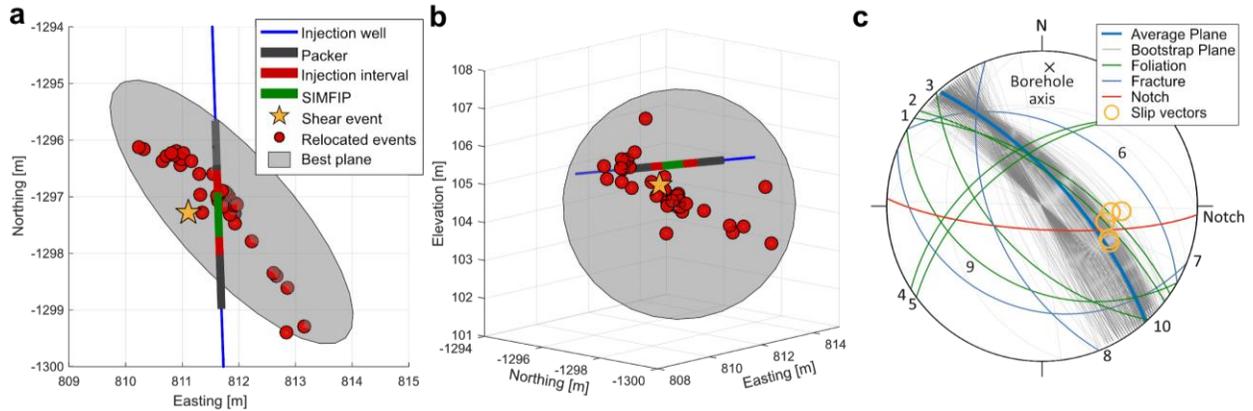
166

167 *Figure 3: (a) Shear and axial displacement and injection interval pressure before, during and after the*
 168 *shear event. (b) Seismic waveforms of the shear event at the closest accelerometer OT16, band pass*
 169 *filtered between 3 and 15 kHz. P and S-wave arrivals are marked by green and blue dashes, respectively.*

170 The goal of this experiment was to create a hydraulic fracture in an intact rock mass. Neither the optical
 171 nor the acoustic image logs indicated the presence of fractures within the selected interval for
 172 pressurization. However, the phyllite rock mass shows a pervasive fabric with bedding planes of varying
 173 orientation. In addition, it contains several quartz inclusions (lighter colored features in the OTV shown in
 174 Figure 2).

175 We did not observe any other discrete shear events in the pressurized interval using the SIMFIP probe
 176 during any later test at this location. In other words, although pressure was increasing to much higher
 177 levels during the later stages of hydraulic fracturing, there was no repeated activation of the same slip
 178 patch. However, additional seismic events could be located close to the injection interval. These were
 179 relocated by Chai et al. (2020) using tomoDD for joint inversion for relative locations and a 3-D velocity
 180 model. Figure 4 shows the seismicity located during the entire test together with our absolute location of
 181 the discrete shear event. We see a clear trend delineated by the hypocenters about 4 m long. We fitted
 182 planes to the hypocenters and used bootstrap resampling to evaluate the parameter space of possible
 183 planes and computed an average orientation. These, along with the slip vectors measured by the SIMFIP
 184 and the structures identified in the image logs, are plotted in Figure 4c. There is good agreement of the
 185 possible slip planes and the average plane with foliation planes 1 and 2. Further, the slip vectors also
 186 match these planes, indicating that slip initiated on a foliation plane and propagated bi-laterally, as
 187 delineated by the later seismic events. The slip vectors also coincide with the plane defined by the
 188 machined notch, indicating that it could have helped to initiate the slip event.

189



190
 191 *Figure 4: (a-b) Three-dimensional view of SIMFIP assembly, the absolute location of the shear event and*
 192 *relocated seismicity during the injection step. (c) Stereoplot of structures identified on image logs,*
 193 *possible planes derived from hypocenters of relocated seismicity (Chai et al., 2020) with an average*
 194 *plane and slip vectors for the shear event measured by the SIMFIP.*

195 Displacement transients

196 At the beginning of the data segment we record already about 2 μm displacement that continued to grow
 197 linearly. The pre-slip we recorded lasted about 0.3 seconds with a slip speed of about 17.5 $\mu\text{m/s}$. If we
 198 linearly extrapolate the onset of pre-slip into the preceding data gap we estimate the total duration of the
 199 pre-slip phase to be about 0.4 s.

200 Pre-slip transients similar to ours with linearly increasing slip velocity before the transition to dynamic
 201 rupture have also been observed by McLaskey & Lockner (2014) in their laboratory experiments on
 202 meter-sized samples. Their recorded pre-slips lasted on the order of 10 seconds at slip speeds up to about
 203 0.4 $\mu\text{m/s}$ before they transitioned into unstable dynamic ruptures.

204 Our spatial and temporal resolution is not sufficient to clearly resolve the co-seismic displacement. At the
 205 end of the pre-slip phase, the total displacement jumps by 5.5 μm in 0.022 s. It is likely that the total co-
 206 seismic displacement was reached after a much shorter time and the slip velocity was $>250 \mu\text{m/s}$. The fast
 207 coseismic slip transitioned into afterslip with a much lower slip velocity. We model the afterslip using
 208 the model proposed in Marone et al. (1991). They provide a closed form solution for the expected
 209 afterslip of an earthquake based on rate-and-state friction theory assuming an earthquake that propagates
 210 into a velocity-strengthening region and resulting from relaxation of the stress perturbation. It is given by

211
$$U_p = \frac{a-b}{k} \ln \left[\left(\frac{kV_{CS}}{a-b} \right) t + 1 \right] + V_0 t$$
, where $a-b$ is the friction rate parameter, k is the thickness-averaged
 212 stiffness, V_0 is the pre-seismic slip speed, V_{CS} is the thickness-averaged coseismic slip velocity within the
 213 velocity strengthening region and t is time. This can be rewritten as

214 $U_p = \alpha \ln \left[\frac{V_{CS}}{\alpha} t + 1 \right] + V_0 t$, with $\alpha = \frac{a-b}{k}$. A good fit is achieved for $\alpha = 1.5 \cdot 10^{-6}$ m, $V_{CS} = 2.5 \cdot$
215 10^{-4} m/s and $V_0 = 1.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$ m/s (Figure 3a). The pre-seismic slip speed V_0 does correspond to the inter-
216 seismic creep measured for fault systems. This value should be negligible in our case since a 13.4 MPa
217 stress change was required to initiate rupture. However, to achieve a good fit during the later period of the
218 afterslip phase, a similar parameter is required. We hypothesize that the continuously increasing pressure
219 (from 13.3 to 14 MPa) during the 3 second slip event may have modulated afterslip and caused this linear
220 component of the deformation transient. Further, we highlight that the recorded displacement transient
221 shares functional behavior with constitutive equations for creep and stress relaxation for bulk rock
222 materials of a wide range of lithologies (Main, 2000; Perfettini & Avouac, 2004; Sone & Zoback, 2013).
223 We do not see a deviation of the pressure transient from a linear increase during the slip event. Given an
224 upper bound for the crack opening of $5 \mu\text{m}$ and a fracture area of 1 m^2 , an additional volume of up to $5 \mu\text{L}$
225 could have been created. In the 3 second time frame of the slip event, the fluid increment from the
226 ongoing injection was 10 mL, which is much larger than what could possibly leak-off into the reactivated
227 fracture. Hence the measured injection pressure could not have been perturbed by the slip event.
228

229 Conclusions

230 Before opening a hydraulic fracture, we observed shear reactivation of a preexisting weakness associated
231 with a seismic event. The obtained location and activation pressure are consistent with slip on a foliation
232 plane. Additional pressurization in the first and subsequent injections could not reactivate this slip patch
233 further. No other episodic displacements were measured that could be tied to discrete events.
234 For the first time, we directly observed co-seismic deformation including the three phases of shear slip
235 that were previously only observed separately or were only predicted by numerical models. Of the total
236 accumulated slip about 30% occurred as pre-slip, 25% occurred co-seismically, leading to recorded
237 seismic waves, and 45% occurred as transient afterslip. The observed pre-slip demonstrates stable sliding
238 conditions leading into fast co-seismic slip. Slip was arrested over a three second period of afterslip. No
239 further reactivation of this fracture was observed later when hydraulic fracturing conditions were
240 achieved, indicating a total stress drop of the slip patch.
241 The activated orientation is also very active in later stimulations as shown in Schoenball et al. (2020).
242 This indicates that rock fabric such as bedding and foliation planes may play a bigger role in hydraulic
243 stimulations than previously thought.
244

245 **Appendix 1: EGS Collab Team**

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283

284 [Data Availability Statement](#)

285 The data presented in this manuscript can be accessed from the Geothermal Data Repository at
286 <https://gdr.openei.org/submissions/1289>.

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