

Influence of fault zone maturity on fully dynamic earthquake cycles

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Key Points:

- We simulate earthquake cycles in fault zones with coseismic damage and interseismic healing.
- There are more surface-rupturing events with regular recurrence intervals as fault zones become more mature.
- Healing of immature fault zones promotes slow-slip events within the seismogenic zone causing partial ruptures.

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Abstract

We study the mechanical response of two-dimensional vertical strike-slip fault to coseismic damage evolution and interseismic healing of fault damage zones by simulating fully dynamic earthquake cycles. Our models show that fault damage zone structure evolution during the seismic cycle can have pronounced effects on the mechanical behavior of locked and creeping fault segments. Immature fault damage zones promote small and moderate subsurface earthquakes with irregular recurrence intervals and abundance of slow-slip events during the interseismic period. In contrast, mature fault damage zones host pulse-like earthquake ruptures that can propagate to the surface and extend throughout the seismogenic zone, resulting in large stress drop, characteristic rupture extents, and regular recurrence intervals. Our results suggest that interseismic healing and coseismic damage accumulation in fault zones can explain the observed differences of earthquake behaviors between mature and immature fault zones and indicate a link between regional seismic hazard and fault structural maturity.

Plain Language Summary

Fault zones are geometrically complex network of fractures with slip surfaces that are capable of hosting earthquakes. This network evolves through time as more and more earthquakes generate damage in the vicinity of the slip surfaces. We use numerical models to simulate different stages of fault-slip behavior including earthquakes, slow-slip events, and aseismic creep on a planar fault surrounded by a damage zone. This damage zone is prescribed to accumulate damage after an earthquake and heal during the quiet periods between earthquakes. Depending on the compliance (i.e., the ability to accommodate deformation) of the damage zone with respect to the surrounding host rock, a fault zone can be at different stages of its maturity, with higher compliance corresponding to a more mature fault zone. We find that an immature fault zone tends to produce smaller earthquakes whose slip does not reach the surface of the earth, and the duration between earthquakes is irregular. As fault zones become more mature, earthquakes can rupture to the surface and occur more regularly. Our results highlight a link between regional seismic hazard and fault structural maturity.

1 Introduction

Active faults are usually surrounded by narrow regions of localized deformation extending several hundred meters to a few kilometers in width across the fault. This deformation zone consisting of a dense fracture network is macroscopically viewed as an elastic layer with low seismic wave velocities and referred to as a fault damage zone (Ben-Zion & Sammis, 2003). The strength of the fault damage zone evolves throughout the seismic cycle, but the details of the evolution mechanism and the nature of this evolution remain elusive.

Fault zone maturity can be defined and quantified by the total slip accumulated over time in field geologic and geodetic studies (Dolan & Haravitch, 2014), with larger slip corresponding to higher maturity. Fig. 1 shows a conceptual model of how a strike-slip fault system may evolve through multiple earthquake cycles. Immature fault zones (Fig. 1a) are characterized by a distributed network of damage, and as the fault zone matures (Fig. 1c), the damage becomes localized. The faulting itself becomes more localized, transitioning from multiple and discontinuous slip surfaces to a more throughgoing fault. Other parameters such as the total fault length, the slip rate, and the initiation age have also been used to determine fault zone maturity (Perrin et al., 2016). However, the surface slip expression for immature faults usually underestimate slip at depth by about 10% to 60% (Dolan & Haravitch, 2014). Perrin et al. (2016) have shown that structural maturity of a strike-slip fault zone is well correlated with the seismic wave velocity of near-fault materials, which decreases as the fault zone becomes progressively more mature. Such velocity reductions are

63 well documented along mature fault zones such as the San Andreas fault zone (Y.-G. Li et al.,
64 2006; M. A. Lewis & Ben-Zion, 2010), San Jacinto fault zone (M. Lewis et al., 2005), Nojima
65 fault zone (Mizuno et al., 2008), and Wenchuan fault zone (Pei et al., 2019). Examples of
66 immature fault zones that exhibit less evidence of localized damage include the northern
67 part of the San Andreas fault zone (Waldhauser & Ellsworth, 2002), the Bam fault in Iran
68 (Fielding et al., 2009), the Jiuzhaigou earthquake near Kunlun fault zone in China (Y. Li et
69 al., 2020), and Peloponnese fault zone in Greece (Feng et al., 2010). Previous studies have
70 shown that a more compliant or mature fault damage zone enables ruptures to propagate
71 as slip pulses (Harris & Day, 1997; Huang & Ampuero, 2011; Huang et al., 2014; Thakur
72 et al., 2020; Idini & Ampuero, 2020). Geodetic observations (e.g., Goldberg et al. (2020);
73 Feng et al. (2010)) have shown earthquake slip distributions are complex in an immature
74 fault zone, and they become more uniform as the fault zone matures. Understanding the
75 long-term earthquake behavior during the structural evolution of the fault damage zone is
76 key to unraveling the locations, recurrence intervals, stressing history, and the probability
77 of subsequent earthquakes in an active fault zone.

78 Observations of seismic wave velocity changes within the fault damage zone (< 1 km
79 from the fault; e.g., Vidale and Li (2003); Y.-G. Li et al. (2003, 2006); Wu et al. (2009);
80 Peng and Ben-Zion (2006); Zhao and Peng (2009); Roux and Ben-Zion (2014)) documented
81 a sharp decrease in pressure- and shear-wave velocities following earthquakes as well as a
82 subsequent logarithmic increase in wave velocity with time. Other observations further away
83 from the fault zone (e.g., Taira et al. (2009); Chen et al. (2015); Pei et al. (2019)) revealed
84 coseismic reduction and interseismic increase of seismic wave velocities in the surround-
85 ing region. Laboratory experiments have shown similar change in seismic wave velocities
86 (P. A. Johnson & Jia, 2005; Kaproth & Marone, 2014; Snieder et al., 2016) wherein they
87 observe compaction during holds (i.e., interseismic period) and dilation during fault slip
88 (i.e., seismic events). Mechanisms for damage accumulation in active fault zones are likely
89 a combination of processes including dilation, compaction, cracking, shear driven pulveriza-
90 tion, and fabric generation (Gratier et al., 2003). The observed coseismic seismic velocity
91 drop is potentially related to brecciation, cataclasis, and damage accumulation, implying a
92 magnitude dependence of this velocity drop (Y.-G. Li et al., 2003; Rubinstein & Beroza,
93 2005; Brenguier et al., 2008).

94 During the interseismic period, time-dependent fault zone healing may occur due to a
95 combination of rheological restrengthening, inelastic strain, mineral precipitation, and fluid
96 pressure recovery (Vidale & Li, 2003). There is some debate on whether this healing time is
97 significant in contributing to fault zone stress redistribution and therefore influencing long-
98 term seismicity (Vidale & Li, 2003; Mizuno et al., 2008). It is hard to accurately quantify
99 fault zone healing time because it requires long-term continuous monitoring of seismic wave
100 velocities. Active seismic studies along the Landers fault zone (Vidale & Li, 2003) and
101 Longmenshan fault zone (Pei et al., 2019) suggest that it may take years or decades to
102 heal completely, whereas other studies (Peng & Ben-Zion, 2006; Mizuno et al., 2008; Wu
103 et al., 2009) suggest that the healing time may not be longer than the typical timescales of
104 postseismic afterslip, i.e., a couple of months. Another study by Roux and Ben-Zion (2014)
105 along the North Anatolian Fault suggests a recovery rate over a timescale of few days. It
106 is worthwhile noting that some of these studies may have a lower spatial resolution than
107 others which might affect the inference of fault zone recovery rate.

108 We use numerical simulations to understand the effects of fault zone damage accumu-
109 lation after multiple cycles of earthquakes and healing during the interseismic period on a
110 two-dimensional vertical strike-slip fault. We model the fault zone structure evolution as
111 changes in the shear wave velocity of an elastic layer surrounding a strike-slip fault. This
112 elastic fault damage zone has a lower shear wave velocity, and therefore, a lower rigidity
113 compared to the surrounding host rock. We assume a constant density in our numerical
114 simulations as the changes in shear-wave velocity has a more significant effect on the rigidity
115 of the material. Throughout the remainder of this article, we will use the term "rigidity

ratio”, which is the percentage ratio of the fault zone shear modulus to the host rock shear modulus, to parameterize the fault zone evolution through time. Fig. 1b shows a representative rigidity ratio evolution through time. We constrain the coseismic damage accumulation and the rate of interseismic healing using shear-wave velocity observations from Wenchuan (Pei et al., 2019), Landers (Vidale & Li, 2003), Nojima (Mizuno et al., 2008), and North Anatolian Fault zones (Peng & Ben-Zion, 2006). We describe the numerical procedure and the fault zone healing mechanism in section 2 and appendix A. The results of our models are described in section 3. We show that an immature fault zone tends to produce more slow-slip events and irregular earthquake sequences with predominantly subsurface events. In contrast, a more mature fault damage zone tends to produce a more regular sequence of earthquakes with a combination of surface-reaching and subsurface events. In section 4, we discuss the implications of our results for earthquake cycle behaviors of strike-slip fault zones.

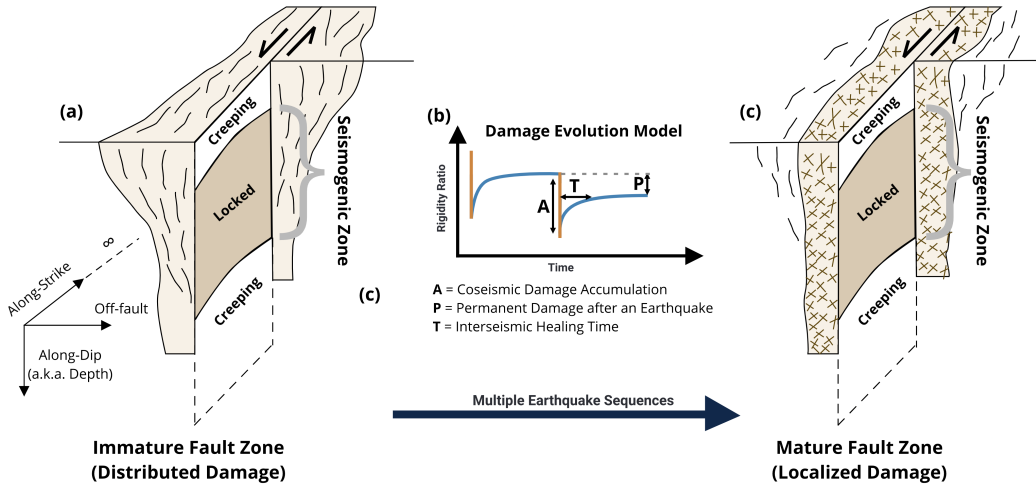


Figure 1. A conceptualized evolution of a fault damage zone through multiple earthquake sequences for strike-slip fault systems. (a) Schematic of an immature fault zone with distributed damage increases towards the surface. (b) Parameters considered for an elastic damage evolution model, showing the prescribed change in the rigidity ratio (ratio of shear modulus in damage zone to that in the host rock) through time. (c) Schematic of a mature fault zone with localized damage and a dense fracture network.

2 Model Description

We use two-dimensional earthquake cycle models of strike-slip faults with mode III rupture where the displacement is out of the plane of interest and stresses and friction vary with depth. For simplicity, we use a narrow fault-parallel layer as a proxy for the damage zone and its geometry remains constant throughout the simulated sequence. This is equivalent taking a vertical cross-section across Fig. 1c, and the fault zone maturity in the damage evolution model corresponds to the change in rigidity ratio without changing the geometry of the fault zone (Fig. 1b). The frictional properties and initial conditions are described in detail in Appendix A, whereas here we will focus the discussion on fault zone properties.

Since there are very few long-term observations (10,000-100,000 years) documenting the changes in permanent damage through multiple earthquake cycles, we focus on simulating

140 earthquake cycles at different stages of the fault zone maturity for several hundred years,
 141 including an immature stage and a mature stage, both of which accumulate no permanent
 142 damage. We also consider a transition stage which incorporates permanent damage, i.e., a
 143 reduction in rigidity after each earthquake. The distinction between immature and mature
 144 fault zones in our models depends on the rigidity ratio of the damage zone to the host rock.
 145 Typically, larger velocity reductions (35 % to 50 %) and lower rigidities (25 % to 45 % of host
 146 rock) are measured around mature fault zones, whereas smaller velocity reductions (8 % to
 147 10 %) and higher rigidities (80 % to 90 % of host rock) are measured around immature fault
 148 zones (Perrin et al., 2016). Based on these seismic wave velocity measurements, we choose
 149 a rigidity ratio changing between 80 % and 85 % of host rock for the immature fault zone
 150 and a rigidity ratio changing between 40 % and 45 % of the host rock. While mature fault
 151 zones can have lower rigidities as well, the chosen values lie well within what is observed for
 152 mature and immature fault zones.

153 Another important parameter is the coseismic velocity drop. While its value is not
 154 well constrained by observations and can vary significantly (0.1 % to 5 %) between different
 155 fault zones such as Parkfield (Y.-G. Li et al., 2006), Wenchuan (Pei et al., 2019), and
 156 Landers (Y.-G. Li et al., 2003), it is dependent on the size of the earthquake with smaller
 157 earthquakes showing smaller coseismic drop. Since our simulations are two-dimensional
 158 and do not have any along-strike constraints on the earthquake size, we use a magnitude-
 159 independent coseismic damage accumulation of 5 % rigidity change in order to facilitate a
 160 better comparison between different simulation cycles.

161 **3 Results**

162 We have tested a range of parameters in our simulations that account for fault zone maturity,
 163 coseismic damage accumulation, and healing time. Here the fault zone maturity can be
 164 described by the initial rigidity ratio (Fig. 1b). These parameters are discussed in the
 165 Appendix A. We choose to show the representative cases for a healing time of 8 years and
 166 a coseismic velocity drop of 5 % in the following subsections for brevity. Changing these
 167 parameters (e.g., a healing time between 1 and 20 years) have some effects on the location
 168 and timing of individual earthquakes but does not affect the overall interpretation of our
 169 results.

170 **3.1 Effects of fault damage zone maturity**

171 The initial rigidity ratio of fault damage zones with respect to the surrounding host
 172 rock can have significant effects on seismicity evolution. A higher initial rigidity ratio im-
 173 plies a less mature fault zone and vice versa. While keeping the permanent damage at zero,
 174 we compare an immature fault zone evolution characterized by rigidity ratio changing be-
 175 tween 80 % and 85 %, against a mature fault zone evolution characterized by rigidity ratio
 176 changing between 40 % and 45 % (Figs. 2 a and b). For the sake of simplicity, the fault zone
 177 accumulates damage by the same amount irrespective of the earthquake size.

178 For a constant healing time, a mature fault zone tends to show more regular earthquake
 179 sequences with full (surface-reaching) ruptures, whereas a less mature fault zone shows ir-
 180 regular earthquake sequences with partial (subsurface) ruptures and more slow-slip events
 181 (Figs. 2c and d). The cumulative slip demonstrates events with variable sizes and depths
 182 throughout the seismogenic zone, but we do not see ruptures spanning the entire seismo-
 183 genic region in the immature fault zone. Instead, we only see ruptures extending across
 184 a fraction of the seismogenic zone, and these partial ruptures persist throughout multiple
 185 seismic cycles. This phenomenon of partial ruptures occurs only in immature fault zones
 186 with healing, which tend to have crack-like ruptures and overall lower slip velocities. In con-
 187 trast, mature fault zones exhibit higher slip-velocities and pulse-like ruptures, which tend
 188 to produce surface-reaching ruptures. Such pulse-like ruptures can be identified by looking

189 at the cumulative slip of earthquake cycles in mature fault zones (Fig. 2d), where the final
 190 slip distribution is nearly flat, a characteristic of pulse-like ruptures (Heaton, 1990).

191 We measure shear stress before and after a representative earthquake from each of
 192 these simulations to understand the depth distribution of stress drop and the mechanisms
 193 accounting for different earthquake behaviors in mature and immature fault zones. Figs. 2e
 194 and f show the depth distribution of shear stress for an earthquake in an immature fault zone
 195 and a mature fault zone, respectively. We see that the mature fault zone exhibits a large,
 196 uniform stress drop along the fault dip (Fig. 2f) such that stress peaks after the earthquake
 197 are concentrated only towards the edges of the velocity-weakening segment due to ruptures
 198 propagating throughout the seismogenic zone. On the other hand, the immature fault zone
 199 (Fig. 2e) results in a partial stress drop as the rupture is arrested before reaching the edges
 200 of the asperity. In this context, a partial stress drop refers to the stresses being released
 201 only in a small portion of the velocity-weakening segment along the fault. The partial stress
 202 drop in immature fault zones leads to residual stress peaks concentrated within the velocity-
 203 weakening region, which may cause subsequent ruptures or slow-slip events near those stress
 204 peaks. As discussed in more detail in section 3.2, the slow-slip events can delay the next
 205 earthquake rupture and result in irregular recurrence intervals between earthquakes.

206 We also include permanent damage after each earthquake in our model to demonstrate
 207 the transition from an immature fault zone to a mature fault zone (i.e., P is nonzero in
 208 Fig. 1b). While faults in nature need several tens of thousands of years to transition from
 209 immature to mature stages, it is not computationally feasible to perform such simulations
 210 with full inertial effects. The choice of the amount of coseismic velocity reduction and
 211 interseismic healing in our simulations allows the transition from immature to mature fault
 212 zones within 300-400 years. Fig. A1 shows the accumulated slip contours for the earthquake
 213 cycle in this scenario. We begin with an initial rigidity ratio of 90 % and drop it down by 5 %
 214 after each earthquake (Fig. A1). We allow the fault to recover 4 % of the rigidity during the
 215 interseismic period therefore accommodating a permanent damage of 1 % rigidity reduction
 216 after each earthquake, though smaller recovery percentages may be achieved if the next
 217 earthquake occurs before the fault has healed completely (Fig. A1b). We see a progressive
 218 increase in the rupture length from partial to full ruptures as the fault zone becomes more
 219 mature (Fig. A1a). We distinguish between an immature and a mature fault damage zone
 220 based on when we start observing surface-reaching events that rupture the entire seismogenic
 221 zone. Surface-reaching ruptures become prevalent when the rigidity ratio falls below 60 %
 222 of the host rock. Furthermore, earthquakes become more regular and frequent as the fault
 223 zone matures. This simulation informs us that the transition from immature to mature fault
 224 zone is gradual, and we can see a mixture of surface-reaching and subsurface events during
 225 this transition stage.

226 **3.2 Effects of healing: slow-slip events and irregularity in recurrence inter-** 227 **vals**

228 Interseismic healing has significant effects on the dynamics of earthquakes and aseis-
 229 mic fault-slip, including creep accumulation within the nominally velocity-weakening region,
 230 inhibition of surface-reaching events, restriction of earthquake sizes, and generation of slow-
 231 slip events also within the velocity-weakening region. Here we discuss the effects of healing
 232 in an immature fault zone in more detail and demonstrate how slow-slip events affect seis-
 233 micity by comparing a simulation with fault zone rigidity ratio ranging between 60 % and
 234 65 % against a fault zone with the same initial rigidity ratio but without healing (i.e., a
 235 constant rigidity ratio of 60 %). This range of rigidity ratio still lies in the immature fault
 236 zone parameter space discussed in the previous section but leads to fewer slow-slip events
 237 compared to the 80 % to 85 % range. It allows us to analyze the healing effect and slow-slip
 238 events more clearly.

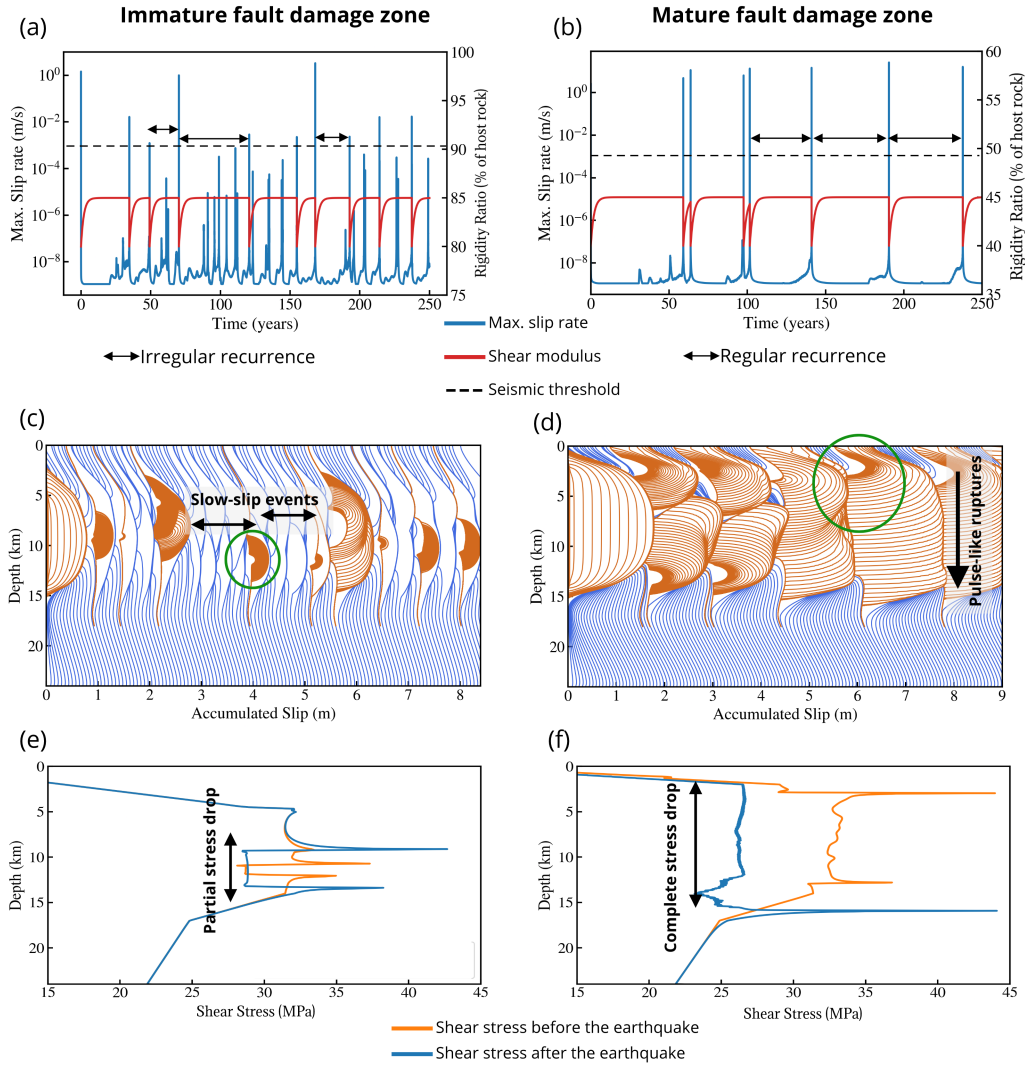


Figure 2. Immature vs mature fault damage zone. (a-b) The evolution of slip-rate function (blue) and the rigidity ratio (red) through time. (c-d) Cumulative slip through earthquake sequences shown along depth in mature and immature fault zones. The orange lines are plotted every 0.1 seconds during earthquakes, and the blue lines are plotted every year during interseismic periods. (e-f) The on-fault shear stress before and after a representative earthquake for each case (circled in green in (c) and (d)) demonstrates a partial stress-drop for immature fault zones and a complete stress drop for mature fault zones.

239 In our numerical simulations, slow-slip events are manifested as accelerated slip that
 240 fail to reach the seismic threshold velocity but release finite stress on the slip patch along
 241 a portion of the fault. The slip rate of slow slip events in our simulations can vary from
 242 $1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ to $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). Besides slow-slip events, the events below the
 243 seismic threshold in our simulations also encompass aseismic creep and afterslip (Fig. 3b).
 244 Aseismic creep is characterized by slip rate that is close to the tectonic plate rate (\leq
 245 $1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m s}^{-1}$). Afterslip is another category of transient slow-slip that releases stresses

246 from recent earthquakes during the postseismic stage (Avouac, 2015; Bürgmann, 2018). The
 247 slip rate of afterslip is typically below the seismic slip rate of 1 mm s^{-1} and can go down to
 248 $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$. Afterslip can be distinguished from the slow-slip events by when and where
 249 they occur, i.e., away from peak-slip regions of earthquakes.

250 Figs. 3a and b show the slip-rate evolution for a fault zone without and with healing
 251 during the seismic cycle. The simulation without healing (Fig. 3a) shows large surface-
 252 reaching ruptures that are periodic in time. This sequence of earthquakes encompasses
 253 dynamic events and aseismic creep but does not exhibit any slow-slip events between them.
 254 Fig. 3b shows a wider range of events including multiple slow-slip events in addition to
 255 earthquakes and creep. Such slow-slip events can be identified from the peak slip-rate
 256 function in these simulations (Figs. 2a and b, and Fig. 3d) and generally occur during
 257 the interseismic stage within the seismogenic zone in our simulations (Figs. 3b and d).
 258 These slow-slip events are distributed throughout the interseismic period, with no temporal
 259 preference before or after an earthquake, though they have a spatial preference in relation
 260 to the residual stresses from previous events. Earthquake ruptures and slow-slip events
 261 in our simulations with fault zone healing occur at the edges of previous ruptured region
 262 within the velocity-weakening zone (Fig. 3b), due to residual stress peaks from those events.
 263 The slow-slip events also contribute to the release of stresses during the interseismic period,
 264 and in addition, generate stress-peaks within the seismogenic zone, away from its base.
 265 This is in contrast to the simulation without healing (Fig. 3a), where the stress peaks are
 266 predominantly near the base of the seismogenic zone. Other numerical studies (Barbot,
 267 2019b; Idini & Ampuero, 2020) also showed that slow-slip events can be generated in the
 268 velocity-weakening part of the fault using quasi-dynamic continuum models. However, the
 269 relative size of seismogenic asperity to nucleation, R_u (Barbot, 2019a), for such simulations
 270 is much lower than what we use here. Such numerical simulations can exhibit periodic slow-
 271 slip events at lower R_u values (< 1) and chaotic slow-slip events at higher R_u values (> 13).
 272 Our simulations use an $R_u \sim 5$, which should result in periodic bilateral ruptures, as seen in
 273 Fig. 3a. Note that the incorporation of healing does not change the R_u values significantly
 274 as they lie in the same parameter regime through time. However, interseismic healing helps
 275 release the stresses inelastically though time during the quasi-static deformation, which
 276 rearranges the stress-peaks and stress shadows along the fault dip, resulting in restriction
 277 of earthquake sizes and generation of slow-slip events.

278 Since the interseismic healing promotes slow-slip events, stresses are released nonuni-
 279 formly along the fault during this period. This causes partial ruptures to terminate without
 280 reaching the free surface. Moreover, these slow-slip events delay the onset of subsequent
 281 earthquakes. We see in Figs. 3d and f that earthquakes become farther apart in time when
 282 there are slow-slip events between them, as compared to consecutive earthquakes occurring
 283 without such slow-slip events. This delay, combined with the occurrence of slow-slip events
 284 within the velocity-weakening region, gives rise to the irregular recurrence of earthquakes
 285 in immature fault zones with healing. We can also infer that the slow-slip events with
 286 higher amount of slip release more stresses during the interseismic period, which delays the
 287 subsequent earthquake by a larger amount (Fig. 3f).

288 Another notable feature of the simulation with healing is the penetration of aseismic
 289 creep into the velocity-weakening part of the fault (Fig. 3b). The simulation without healing
 290 (Figs. 3a and c) shows complete ruptures with regular recurrence intervals, and aseismic
 291 creep is constrained to the velocity-strengthening parts of the fault. However, the incorpo-
 292 ration of healing during the interseismic period allows the creep to accumulate and build
 293 up progressively within the velocity-weakening region (Figs. 3b and d). We demonstrate
 294 the cumulative rupture and creep extent from all the events in our simulation with healing
 295 in relation to the velocity weakening and velocity strengthening regions along the fault on
 296 the right side of Fig. 3b. We see that the cumulative creep extends through almost the
 297 entire fault, whereas the earthquake rupture extent is predominantly confined to the veloc-
 298 ity weakening region. Creeping within the seismogenic zone also causes nonuniform stress

299 release during the interseismic period, similar to the effects of slow-slip events discussed
 300 above, albeit to a lesser extent.

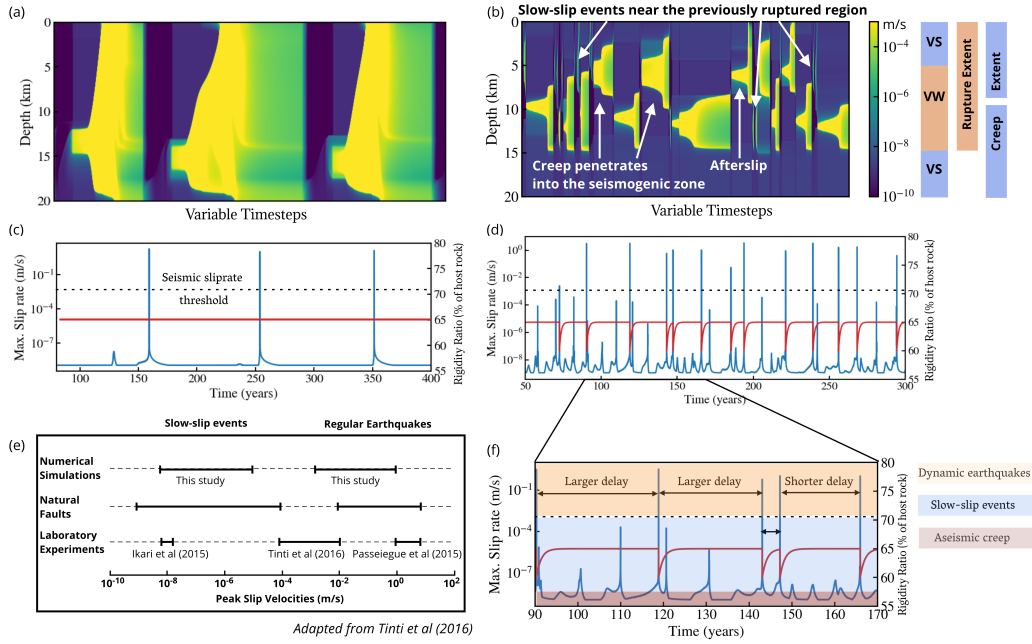


Figure 3. (a) The spatiotemporal slip-rate evolution in immature fault zone without healing (see color scale in (b)). (b) The spatiotemporal slip-rate evolution in immature fault zone with healing. The right side shows the depth extent of the frictional parameters delineating the velocity-weakening and the velocity-strengthening region. (c-d) The rigidity ratio and the peak slip-rate function for a segment of the simulation. (e) A compilation of the peak slip-velocity range for slow-slip events from laboratory experiments, natural faults, and our numerical simulations. (f) Zoom in of part (d), showing larger delay in earthquake onset for higher slow slip-rates.

301 This effect of creep buildup within the velocity-weakening region and the abundance
 302 of slow-slip events is also observed in our simulation with permanent damage (Fig. A1).
 303 We observe more slow-slip events during the immature stage of the fault zone which is
 304 responsible for irregular recurrence intervals for earthquakes. These slow-slip events become
 305 less frequent during the mature stages of the earthquake cycle, and thus there is a more
 306 regular sequence of earthquakes. This transition is in accordance with the results from the
 307 previous section highlighting the differences between a mature and immature fault damage
 308 zone without permanent damage. We show the slip rate range of slow-slip events and fast
 309 earthquakes in our simulations, in comparison to those observed on natural faults and in
 310 laboratory experiments in Fig. 3e. We see that our numerical simulation of a fault zone
 311 with healing can produce a wide range of events, both in the fast slipping and slow slipping
 312 regime, comparable to those observed along natural faults.

313 4 Discussions and Conclusions

314 Seismologic and geodetic observations in immature fault zones exhibit complex ruptures
 315 and distributed coseismic damage. The damage zones in these faults are wider with poorly
 316 defined boundaries, resulting in earthquake sequences exhibiting irregular recurrence and
 317 size distributions akin to a Gutenberg-Richter magnitude scaling. Examples of such fault

318 zones include the Ridgecrest sequence where geodetic studies have shown complex, multi-
319 fault, and slow rupture with a heterogeneous static stress change (Goldberg et al., 2020).
320 The study by DuRoss et al. (2016) along the immature Wasatch fault zone in Utah suggests
321 partial-segment and multi-segment ruptures with irregular recurrence intervals. Seismic
322 studies after the 2008 earthquake in Peloponnese, Greece have shown negligible surface
323 deformation, i.e., a coseismic slip deficit towards the surface (Feng et al., 2010; Fielding
324 et al., 2009). Dolan and Haravitch (2014) compiled multiple fault zone studies to show
325 that the ratio of the surface slip-measurements to the slip at depth is correlated with fault
326 zone maturity, and immature fault zones tend to have lower ratios. These studies imply
327 that immature fault zones lack surface slip during the coseismic phase and exhibit irregular
328 recurrence intervals, which is also corroborated by our models. In contrast, very mature
329 sections of fault zones have been shown to exhibit higher regularity in earthquake recurrence
330 (e.g., Apline fault in Berryman et al. (2012); Howarth et al. (2021)).

331 Our results unveil how the seismic and aseismic segments in a fault zone interact dur-
332 ing the earthquake cycle. We have shown that the seismogenic zone (velocity-weakening) in
333 our models can have both seismic and aseismic slip episodes, with the latter encompassing
334 slow-slip and creep events. The slow-slip events in our models are distributed within the
335 velocity-weakening segment of the fault and occur throughout the interseismic period. Ad-
336 ditionally, we see the aseismic creep penetrating into the velocity-weakening region in our
337 immature fault zone models with healing. Both phenomena contribute to the nonuniform
338 release of stresses during the seismic cycle, with slow-slip events having a dominant effect
339 on the earthquake recurrence. Slow-slip events are very challenging to observe in geolog-
340 ically immature strike-slip faults using seismic or geodetic methods. Certain observations
341 along strike-slip fault zones (e.g., the Northern SAF in Murray et al. (2014)) and subduction
342 zones (e.g., Japan subduction zone in K. M. Johnson et al. (2016)) have shown seismic and
343 aseismic slip episodes occurring in the nominally velocity-weakening region. As subduction
344 zones tend to be old and mature, some local geologic structures like heterogeneous seafloor
345 structure or complex material properties associated with partially coupled subduction zone
346 might be needed to rejuvenate them (Wang & Bilek, 2014). Surface creep has been ob-
347 served on several fault systems including the Maacama and Bartlett Springs (McFarland
348 et al., 2009; Tong et al., 2013), and creep rates in the shallow parts can be locally very
349 high in the order of $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ to $1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Murray et al., 2014). This creep is
350 suggested to extend to depths overlapping with some or all of the seismogenic zone in the
351 Northern San Andreas fault system (Murray et al., 2014). Bruhat and Segall (2017) have
352 explored models where they discuss that the updip propagation of deep interseismic creep
353 can explain the slip rate profile along the Northern Cascadia subduction zone. These creep
354 episodes may allude to slow-slip events happening in these regions of immature fault zones
355 as well as subduction zones. Such conditions would be expected to extend the time between
356 major earthquakes, and potentially also limit the earthquake size.

357 To summarize, we performed fully dynamic earthquake cycle simulations in a two-
358 dimensional strike-slip fault surrounded by an elastic damage zone with time-dependent
359 shear modulus evolution that emulates coseismic damage and interseismic healing during
360 seismic and aseismic periods respectively. The interseismic healing in immature fault zones
361 can promote aseismic slip episodes including slow-slip events and creep to propagate into the
362 seismogenic zone. Our numerical simulations show that such events in immature fault zones
363 can limit the size of earthquakes and prolong the time between large earthquakes. In these
364 simulations, slow-slip events are abundant and the stress peaks from previous earthquakes
365 and slow-slip events are critical in determining the location of and timing of subsequent
366 events, thereby creating irregularity in recurrence intervals and partial ruptures. These par-
367 tial ruptures lead to predominantly sub-surface events in immature fault zones. In contrast,
368 the higher compliance of mature fault zones leads to earthquakes with complete stress drops
369 and rupture extending throughout the seismogenic zone. We demonstrate that such funda-
370 mental variations in fault-slip behavior can arise due to how the fault zone structure evolves
371 in time, despite using simple elastic damage zone rheology and frictional fault properties.

372 Our results emphasize the importance of monitoring seismic wave velocities and interseismic
 373 healing along active faults to help better characterize their first-order mechanical behavior.

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612 Appendix A Model Details and Parameter Space

613 Our damage evolution model is described by a change in the rigidity ratio with respect
614 to the host rock. We parameterize this ratio of shear modulus of the damage zone to the
615 shear modulus of the surrounding host rock using three variables: A: the coseismic damage
616 accumulation, which shows the amount of damage increase after an earthquake, T: the
617 healing time, which shows the interseismic duration it takes the fault zone to heal to its
618 maximum level, and P: the permanent damage, which shows the amount of damage that
619 the fault zone never recovers. The rigidity ratio evolves through time based on the following
620 relation:

$$621 \quad \frac{\mu_D}{\mu} = \begin{cases} A_0, & \text{after each earthquake} \\ A(1 - \exp(-T(t - t_{\text{start}}))) + A_0, & \text{during interseismic period} \end{cases} \quad (\text{A1})$$

622 where t and t_{start} are the current timestep and the start time of the previous earthquake
623 in years, $\frac{1}{T}$ is the inverse of healing time (in years), A_0 is the prescribed damage after the
624 earthquake. For the simulations with zero permanent damage (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3), A_0 is
625 zero. For the simulation with permanent damage (Fig. A1), the permanent damage P is set
626 up by decreasing A_0 after each earthquake to $A_0 - nP$, where n is the earthquake number.

627 We use a spectral element method to simulate fully dynamic ruptures and aseismic
628 deformation on a two-dimensional fault with mode-III rupture (Kaneko et al., 2011; Thakur
629 et al., 2020). Adaptive time-stepping is used to switch from aseismic to seismic events
630 based on a threshold slip velocity of 0.5 mm s^{-1} (Erickson et al., 2020). The fault is 24
631 km deep, with the seismogenic zone extending from 3 km to 16 km. The rest of the fault
632 creeps aseismically. Our two-dimensional rectangular domain is twice the fault-length in
633 the dip direction and 30 km in the off-fault direction. The bottom of the fault is loaded
634 with a plate loading rate of 35 mm yr^{-1} . Free surface is imposed on the top boundary
635 of the domain, whereas the other three boundaries have absorbing boundary conditions.
636 The frictional resistance of the fault to sliding is described by laboratory derived rate- and

637 state-dependent friction laws, which were developed empirically (Dieterich, 1979; Ruina,
 638 1983; Blanpied et al., 1991) and is widely used in numerical models to simulate earthquake
 639 sequences (Rice, 1993; Lapusta et al., 2000). We use rate- and state- dependent friction with
 640 aging law for the state-evolution to simulate earthquake sequences on the fault (Dieterich,
 641 1979; Ruina, 1983; Scholz, 1998). We use the regularized form of the rate-and-state model
 642 (Lapusta et al., 2000; Rice & Ben-Zion, 1996), which relates the shear strength (T) to the
 643 slip rate ($\dot{\delta}$) as follows:

$$644 \quad T = a\bar{\sigma} \operatorname{arcsinh} \left[\frac{\dot{\delta}}{2\dot{\delta}_o} e^{\frac{f_o + b \ln(\dot{\delta}\theta/L)}{a}} \right] \quad (\text{A2})$$

645 where $\bar{\sigma}$ is the effective normal stress (i.e., the difference between lithostatic stress and
 646 the pore fluid pressure), f_o is a reference friction coefficient corresponding to a reference slip
 647 rate $\dot{\delta}_o$, L is the characteristic distance over which the contact asperity slips, and a and b
 648 are empirical constants dependent on the mechanical and thermal properties of the contact
 649 surface. The state variable θ , interpreted as the average lifetime of the contact asperity,
 650 evolves as follows:

$$651 \quad \frac{d\theta}{dt} = 1 - \frac{\dot{\delta}\theta}{L} \quad (\text{A3})$$

652 (Barbot, 2019a) has shown that the state variable θ is the age of contact strengthening.
 653 Depending on the values of L , $(a - b)$, and the ratio $\frac{a}{b}$, we can determine the frictional sta-
 654 bility of the fault wherein we can have an unstable slip for a steady state velocity weakening
 655 frictional regime ($a - b < 0$), or a stable sliding for a steady state velocity strengthening
 656 frictional regime ($a - b > 0$). Fault dynamics is controlled by R_u , the ratio of the velocity-
 657 weakening patch size to the nucleation size, and the ratio $\frac{b-a}{a}$ that controls the relative
 658 importance of strengthening and weakening effects and the ratio of static to dynamic stress
 659 drops. For higher values of R_u , we can obtain more chaotic rupture styles such as partial
 660 and full ruptures, aftershock sequence, and a wide range of events (Barbot, 2019a; Cattania,
 661 2019). In our simulations, we use relatively simple values for the theoretical nucleation size
 662 of ~ 2 km, and the width of velocity weakening region of ~ 10 km, implying that the value
 663 of R_u is ~ 5 , which predicts single-period full ruptures in a homogeneous medium (Barbot,
 664 2019a).

665 The fault damage zone extends throughout the domain and is symmetric across the
 666 fault. We use temporal changes in the rigidity ratio of the fault damage zone for modeling
 667 the damage accumulation and healing through time. We use a constant half-width of 1
 668 km for the fault zone geometry. This facilitates easier comparison between mature and
 669 immature fault zones and is coherent with the observations (Ben-Zion & Sammis, 2003;
 670 Perrin et al., 2016). The host rock has a shear wave velocity of 3464 km/s and a density
 671 of 2670 kgm^{-3} implying that the shear modulus is 32 GPa. We start with the same initial
 672 shear wave velocity in the fault damage zone but with a density of 2500 kgm^{-3} which remains
 673 constant throughout the simulation (Kaneko et al., 2008; Kaneko et al., 2011). Since density
 674 does not contribute as much to the rigidity as the shear wave velocity, any changes in the
 675 rigidity of the fault damage zone are directly related to the changes in shear wave velocity,
 676 which is an observable from seismic monitoring experiments. The initial rigidity ratio ($\frac{\mu_D}{\mu}$)
 677 is approximately 0.94, which primarily stems from the density difference between the host
 678 rock and the fault damage zone. The parameters tested for this study are discussed in table
 679 A1 and A2. The parameters shown in the results are shown in bold in table A2.

680 The time-evolution of the shear modulus, described in equation A1, is operative only
 681 during the quasi-static part of the deformation, i.e., when the inertia is negligible and the
 682 fault is creeping aseismically. Since the time-steps are large in this part of the simulation,
 683 the deformation is essentially slow-enough such that the stress-strain relationship is linear
 684 throughout the numerical simulation. During the dynamic earthquakes, the shear modulus
 685 remains constant till the inertial effects are dissipated, after which it drops by a prescribed
 686 amount. This ensures that we can study the effects of coseismic damage accumulation and

687 interseismic healing using parameters inspired by seismic observations, but still pertain to
 688 an elastic deformation regime.

Table A1. Parameters used in numerical simulations of earthquake cycles. The normal and shear stresses represent the values for the velocity-weakening region.

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Static friction coefficient	μ_0	0.6
Reference velocity	V_0	$1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$
Plate loading rate	V_{pl}	35 mm yr^{-1}
Evolution effect	b	0.019
Effective normal stress	$\bar{\sigma}$	50 MPa
Initial shear stress	τ_0	30 MPa
Steady-state velocity dependence in the seismogenic region	$(b - a)$	-0.004
Width of seismogenic zone	W	10 km
Half-width of damage zone	W	0.5 km
Average node spacing	dx	20 m
Seismic slip-rate threshold	V_{th}	1 mm s^{-1}
Characteristic weakening distance	L_c	8 mm
Shear modulus of host rock	μ	32 GPa
Shear modulus of damaged rock	μ_D	Variable (see Eq. A1)

Table A2. Damage evolution and healing parameters. The parameters in bold represent the simulations presented in the paper. The left column shows the range of rigidity ratio over which the shear modulus drops during earthquake and heals during interseismic period.

Rigidity ratio ($\frac{\mu_D}{\mu}$)	Healing time (yr)
40 – 45%	8 , 10, 12, 15
80 – 85%	8 , 10, 12, 15
60 – 65%	4, 8 , 10, 20
60 – 70%	8
60 – 80%	8

689 Figure A1 shows the fault-slip evolution in a simulation that includes permanent damage
 690 after each earthquake.

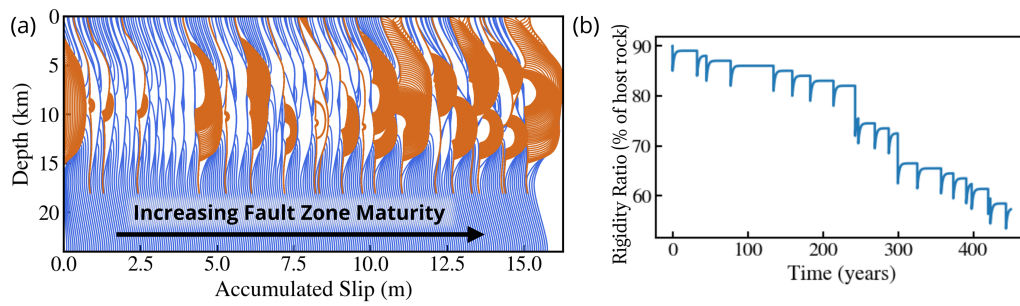


Figure A1. Incorporation of permanent damage after each earthquake demonstrates the transition from immature to mature fault zone. (a) The accumulated slip history. (b) Rigidity ratio through time. Here, the transition from immature to mature fault zone occurs within a few hundred years, whereas in nature, the evolution can take millions of years.