The influence of Preslip Sealing on the Permeability Evolution of Fractures and Faults

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Abstract The evolution of permeability on fractures and faults during the full earthquake cycle is shown to be sensitive to sealing during the repose phase. We explore the combined effect of static loading followed by fracture reactivation on permeability evolution via slide-hold-slide experiments. During the hold periods, permeability exhibits a slow but continuous reduction. The permeability decay is consistent with power law compaction of the aperture coupled with cubic law flow. With increasing hold periods, permeability evolves following reactivation from net reduction to net increase with the magnitude of the permeability change dependent on the hold period. This implies that the tight interlocking of asperities during interseismic repose primes the fault for permeability enhancement following reactivation. The inferred mechanism is via shear dilation with the probable involvement of unclogging. This result identifies that preslip sealing during repose is an essential component in the cyclic permeability evolution throughout the seismic cycle.

1. Introduction

The evolution of permeability on fractures and faults is known to be sensitive to changes in effective stresses. Permeability evolves as a result of both static and dynamic stress perturbations throughout the earthquake cycle (Brody et al., 2003; Elkhoury et al., 2006; Manga et al., 2003, 2012; Roeloffs, 1998; Rojstaczer & Wolf, 1992; Wang & Manga, 2015; Wang et al., 2016), as a result of reservoir stimulation (Mukuhira et al., 2017; Zoback et al., 2012) and potentially in the sequestration of energy wastes (Fang et al., 2017). Shear dilation contributes to increases in permeability and has been explored with analytic models (Elsworth & Goodman, 1986; Hussain et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2000) and field-scale observations (Guglielmi et al., 2015). Not surprisingly, this response exhibits some of the attributes of rate-dependent properties of fault friction (Fang et al., 2017; Ishibashi et al., 2016) as implied by rate-state characterizations of fault friction and shear dilation (Segall & Rice, 1995; Samuelson et al., 2009).

Observations have demonstrated the importance of comminution/compaction in conditioning permeability evolution (Fang et al., 2017; Faoro et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 1999), especially at the initiation of slip. However, this response may be spuriously influenced by artifacts of the initial experimental conditions (an artificial surface and fresh contacts) and do not necessarily represent a fault that has healed and sealed during its interseismic repose. Pressure solution and stress corrosion during static loading (Chen & Spiers, 2016; Gratier et al., 2014; Lehner, 1995; Polak et al., 2003; Yasuhara & Elsworth, 2008; Yasuhara et al., 2003, 2004, 2006) may tightly interlock asperities and develop local roughness on the contact surface. Shear slip on the tightly mated surface may subsequently induce sustained (long-duration) dilation via asperity dislocation. Thus, the incorporation of healing and concomitant sealing during repose may be an essential requirement to follow the correct evolution of permeability. Such sealing has been inferred both at field and laboratory scales (Elkhoury et al., 2006, 2011; Giger et al., 2007; Xue et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016), over periods of years to hours, together with permeability enhancement at the onset of dynamic loading and slip.

In the following, we investigate the combined effect of static loading and shear deformation on fracture permeability. We measure permeability continuously during shear reactivation of fractures with intervening periods of static loading on samples of westerly granite and Green River shale.

2. Experimental Method

We explore this response through fluid-through-flow experiments in a triaxial pressure cell with independent application of confining pressure, shear stress, and pore pressure (see Figure 1a). A prismatic rock coupon in
double direct shear configuration (35 mm × 24 mm × 3 mm) is sandwiched between half-cylindrical cores within a latex jacket. This experimental configuration enables accurate measurement of friction by minimizing the impact of jacket/membrane restraint. Experimental variables include surface roughness (ground with #150 grit (rougher) and #600 grit (smoother) aluminum powder) and mineralogy (westerly granite (WG, tectosilicate >90%) and Green River shale (GRS, tectosilicate ~46%, carbonate ~52%, and phyllosilicate ~2%, Fang et al., 2017)).

The permeating fluid is de-ionized and de-aired water supplied from an upstream pump and flowing along the two parallel fractures (Figure 1). The confining/normal stress, inlet/outlet pressure difference, and shear loading rate are independently controlled by three servo-controlled pumps. Pump A controls confining pressure that is retained constant at 3 MPa. Loading rate and induced shear stress are controlled/measured by pump B with prescribed flow rate. Displacement rates are confirmed through the volume rates of pump B together with measurements of a linear variable differential transducer (LVDT) connected to the loading piston. Resulting flow rates are recorded continuously during multiple slide and hold experiments by pump C, with longitudinal fluid pressure differences limited to 30 kPa to 200 kPa (~7% of total stress) for all experiments. Permeability (k) is calculated from Darcy’s law as

\[ k = \frac{\mu Q}{A \Delta P} \]

(1)

where \( \mu \) is fluid viscosity (8.9 × 10^{-4} Pa s), \( L \) is flow path length (23 mm), \( A \) is cross-sectional area of the sample perpendicular to the flow path (4.71 × 10^{-4} m²), \( Q \) is flow rate, and \( \Delta P \) is the pressure difference across the sample. In this configuration, flow rate \( Q \) is directly proportional to the permeability evolution as \( L, A, \) and \( \Delta P \) are constant.

This novel experimental configuration enables concurrent and continuous measurement of both permeability and friction throughout static and dynamic motion—but entrains a minor artifact that appears in the experimental results. When the upstream reservoir volume (orange dashed line in Figure 1a) is reduced by shear slip, an identical volume is also reduced in the flow rate of pump C to maintain constant pressure. Due to this effect, a false step reduction of “apparent” permeability appears at the activation of shear slip (and step increase at hold). This effect is generally trivial but can be observable when the flow rate is also small. Apparently, these effects are inconsequential for the experiments reported here.
We conduct slide-hold-slide (SHS) experiments in modes involving (i) five single long holds and also as (ii) three repeating slide-hold-slide (see Table S1 in the supporting information for experiment list). All experiments initiate with the application of confining pressure (3 MPa) followed by the pressure saturation of the sample until flow stabilizes. The samples are sheared-in at a constant velocity 10 μm/s. The single long hold mode is designed to investigate sealing behavior during the hold period; therefore, only one long hold is applied after initial shear reaches a preset distance (3–7 mm). For the repeating slide-hold-slide mode, initial shear displacements are set to 2 mm followed by hold periods punctuated by reactivations (slide-hold-slide). The hold periods, representing interseismic repose, are systematically increased for the SHS experiment between intervening shear phases. Successive incremental hold periods are of 10 s, 30 s, 100 s, 300 s, 1,000 s, 3,000 s, and 10,000 s with intervening reactivations of 1 mm at a velocity of 10 μm/s. Exceptions to these conditions are where the pump was already empty before the final 10,000 s hold (rougher granite) and where an extra hold (5,000 s) was applied after the final slip period (smoother granite).

3. Results
3.1. Sealing
Figure 2 presents five long hold mode experiment results. All specimens exhibit continuous decay without evidences of stabilization within the experimental duration. The curves initially appear to follow a linear trend in log-log plot. However, after a few hours, the curves deviate from the linear trend toward faster decay.

Interestingly, these results are plausibly described as power law compaction (in time) (e.g., Gratier et al., 2014), coupled with permeability evaluated from the cubic law. Assuming that compaction follows a power law, time-dependent aperture reduction (∆b) can be described by a power exponent n as

\[ ∆b = αt^n, \]  

where \( t \) is time and \( α \) is the compaction displacement at \( t = 1 \). Permeability \( k \) may be defined relative to compaction in aperture (∆b) (Ouyang & Elsworth, 1993; Witherspoon et al., 1980) as

\[ k = k_0 \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta b}{b_0} \right)^3, \]  

where \( k_0 \) and \( b_0 \) denote an initial permeability and aperture, respectively. Substituting equation (2) into (3) yields

\[ k = k_0 \left( 1 - \frac{α}{b_0} t^n \right)^3. \]  

The resulting model fits to experimental results are presented in Figure 2 (black dotted lines) using equation (4) with parameters \((k_0, α/b_0, \text{ and } n)\) presented in Figure 2a. The plots show that the model adequately represents permeability reduction behaviors with the power exponents \( n = 0.3–0.4 \).

We estimate the magnitude of compaction during the hold by converting the permeability to equivalent hydraulic aperture \( (h) \) of each fracture with the cubic law relation (Witherspoon et al., 1980):

\[ h = \left( \frac{Q L 12μ}{2 ΔP w} \right)^{1/3}, \]  

where the notations are identical to equation (1) with \( w \) denoting fracture width (21 mm). Note that \( Q \) is halved since our experimental configuration embeds two fractures. Figure 2 shows that the longest hold experiment (TKH9) resulted in an ~85% permeability decline during ~22 h of hold (from \( k = 1.4 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}^2 \) to \( 2.1 \times 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2 \)). From equations (5) and (1), this yields 2.6 μm of equivalent hydraulic aperture change (from 5.7 μm to 3.1 μm), illustrating the extreme sensitivity of permeability to aperture change.

The shear permeability responses of TKH9 are zoomed-in in the upper right portion of Figure 2b, showing a clear conversion from shear-induced permeability destruction to enhancement. The left inset shows permeability response with the initial 3 mm slip, and the right inset shows permeability response with 1 mm slip after ~22 h of hold. A trend of permeability decrease for the initial 3 mm of slip (red background) continues until the hold phase begins (shear/hold boundary shows the artifacts discussed in section 2). This declining
trend reverses into significant enhancement after 22 h of hold, resulting in a roughly 100% increase in permeability during the subsequent 1 mm of slip.

### 3.2. Permeability Response to Repeating Slide-Hold-Slide Motion

Figure 3 shows shear stress and flow rate responses during slide-hold-slide experiments extending for ~6 h. Periods of slip and intervening hold are denoted by the top bar of Figure 3a with experiments exhibiting typical rate-state frictional response. Applied shear stresses decline during the hold then increase sharply to a peak during reactivation before stabilizing, following rate and state friction (Marone, 1998). The magnitude of the peak stress increases with the increased duration of the prior hold period, representing time-dependent frictional healing.

Figure 3b presents permeability evolution for all cases. It shows that the permeability is larger for rougher sample (#150 grit) than smoother sample (#600 grit) and harder sample (WG) than weaker sample (GRS). This observation naturally resulted from larger aperture (or pore throat) with rougher surface and may reflect significant pore throat destruction during application of normal stress on weak rock surface (GRS). Early time response in Figure 3b shows the decline rate in permeability is anomalously large during the initial shearing-in period for all samples. A zoomed-in view of the initial decline (Figure 3c) shows that this initial permeability reduction immediately follows the initiation of shear slip (i.e., driven by slip) and the decline rate is significantly reduced after a few millimeters of slip. Normalized permeability reduction during this initial period is greater for weaker rock (GRS) than for stronger/harder rock (WG) and with smoother rather than rougher surfaces (see Figure 2b, early time). These observations, together with the observed production of comminution products (GRS) during the experiment (Figure 1c), suggest that the initial strong permeability reduction is mainly as a result of comminution/compaction and wear products from the fracture surfaces. This is especially dominant on fresh artificial samples that may not necessarily represent natural faults and fractures.

Further reactivations following incremented durations of static loading (hold periods) show significant permeability enhancements. Figure 3d highlights the permeability responses of the later stage reactivations and interslip holds of smoother WG (period identified by rectangles in Figure 2b). This plot clearly identifies a
cyclic repetition of permeability destruction (interslip sealing) and then creation (shear permeability enhancement). For instance, permeability continuously decreases during the 10,000 s hold between slips yielding a permeability reduction of $\sim 37.5\%$ (from $\sim 8 \times 10^{-15}$ m$^2$ to $\sim 5 \times 10^{-15}$ m$^2$). In the following slip, permeability increases by $\sim 25\%$ within 1 mm of shear deformation ($< 5\%$ of contact length) before permeability again decreases at the conclusion of the slip phase. It takes $\sim 70$ min to recover to the original permeability prior to the slip.

Zoomed-in views in Figure 3d show that the permeability enhancement behaviors are gradual as observed in the inset of Figure 2b. Permeability continues to increase over 1 mm slips. This length scale ($> 1$ mm) is far larger than critical displacements for the evolution of friction observed in these experiments ($10^{-2}$–$20 \mu$m, see Figure S1). The permeability evolution does not show an abrupt destruction at the beginning of the hold phase—conversely, it exhibits a sustained and slow decline. These behaviors are similarly observed in the two other cases (see Figure S2).

3.3. Permeability Enhancement and Hold Duration

SHS experiments (Figure 3) show initial reactivation results in a strong reduction in permeability, but this switches to significant enhancement after an extended period of healing. These are exhibited in Figures 4a (rougher WG), 4b (smoother WG), and 4c (GRS) with response typified in Figure 4a (rougther WG). This represents sequential changes in permeability response that show significant net initial declines ($\odot$), transitioning to a net increases ($\ominus$) that becomes more significant ($\oslash$).

Permeability enhancements resulting from various hold durations are shown in Figures 4d (absolute increase $\Delta k$) and 4e (normalized increase, $\Delta k/k_0$). The larger ultimate enhancements scale increasing roughness and hardness, implicating the essential role of shear dilation. The magnitude of absolute permeability enhancement (Figure 4d) is largest with stiffer/stronger/rougther granite and smallest with weaker/smoothier shale. Conversely, the magnitude of normalized permeability enhancement (Figure 4e) is largest with shale and smallest with rougher granite. This behavior is substantially implied by the cubic law (equation (3)).
Although shear aperture increase ($\Delta b/C_0\Delta b$) is largest with a rougher/hard surface, normalized permeability enhancement can be smallest due to the large initial aperture ($b_0$).

The permeability enhancement of westerly granite significantly increases with an extended duration of healing in both absolute (Figure 4d) and relative magnitudes (Figure 4e), implying, especially for hard rock, that the magnitude of shear permeability enhancement is dependent on the preslip healing/sealing. For the case of the smoother granite (Figure 4d), no shear permeability enhancement appears after only short healings, ~1% of enhancement induced after 1,000 s of healing, and ~27% after 10,000 s. Permeability enhancement appears approximately log linear with preslip hold duration. The inset in Figure 4e shows
that the largest normalized permeability enhancement is achieved with the longest hold time (TKH9, Figure 3b insets).

4. Discussion

4.1. Mechanism for Permeability Evolution

Shear slip may destroy the permeability by comminution/compaction or conversely create it by breaching the mated contact surface. These two contrasting behaviors may be controlled by the fidelity of the interlocking surfaces, that is, sealing. For instance, if the two surface asperities are strongly mated via long-duration healing and sealing, shear slip may result in permeability enhancement. Conversely, if the surfaces are artificially prepared, fresh, and unsealed, shear slip may collapse bridging contacts and result in strong permeability reduction.

Strong permeability reduction is observed upon initial shear reactivation. Normalized permeability reduction is larger for weaker rocks (GRS) and smoother surface textures (#600 grit). The presence of observable wear product with GRS (Figure 1c) suggests that initial strong permeability reduction is driven by shear comminution effects. These observations, and those of prior studies (e.g., Faoro et al., 2009; Ishibashi et al., 2016; Tanikawa et al., 2010; Fang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 1999), demonstrate that this strong permeability reduction is especially significant during the initial shear-in process on fresh, laboratory-prepared surfaces.

Conversely, sealing is always active even when the influence of comminution becomes trivial. In our experiments, permeability decay can be plausibly described by power law compaction coupled with the cubic law. The slow but continuous permeability decay may imply that mechanochemical effects govern the sealing behavior observed in these experiments. Interestingly, despite the difference in contact geometry, power law compaction is analogously observed with solution-driven transport around a rigid indenter and exhibits a similar range of power exponents (0.3–0.4) (Gratier et al., 2014). Since the dissolution rate of quartz is known to be insignificant at room temperature (Dove & Crerar, 1990), stress corrosion (Polak et al., 2003; Yasuhara & Elsworth, 2008) may primarily drive this slow compaction process. This may be aided by pressure solution of fine wear products that may be bridged in between the contacts, by mineral precipitation on the pore space, and by flux driven wear product clogging.

Dilation is inferred by the absolute magnitude of permeability creation being largest for harder (granite) and rougher surfaces. The process of shear dilation and frictional properties (rate and state) imply a rate dependency of permeability consistent with strength evolution on faults (Fang et al., 2017; Ishibashi et al., 2016). The rate dependency of fracture aperture (porosity) model is suggested by anticipated dilation rates (Samuelson et al., 2009; Segall & Rice, 1995):

$$\phi_{ss} = \phi_0 + \varepsilon \ln \left( \frac{v}{v_0} \right),$$

where $\phi_{ss}$ is steady state porosity, $\phi_0$ is reference porosity, $\varepsilon$ is dilatancy coefficient, $v$ is velocity, and $v_0$ is reference velocity. If coefficients $\phi_0$ and $\varepsilon$ are constants, then, absent the production of wear products, permeability enhancement via constant shear velocity is only dependent on the magnitude of preslip sealing. Where permeability scales as $k/k_0 = (1 + \Delta \phi/\phi_0)^3$ (equation (3)), a significant shear permeability enhancement will result on a strongly sealed fracture. Dilation is inferred by the observation that the absolute magnitude of permeability creation is largest for the harder (granite) and rougher surfaces.

We observe a gradual enhancement in shear permeability. Permeability enhancement occurs over a longer distance (>1 mm) than the critical frictional slip distance ($D_c \sim 10–20 \mu m$, Figure S1). And the permeability reduction is also slow and gradual as observed by natural permeability response to earthquakes (Elkhoury et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2013). Such a gradual evolution has been observed in some existing studies on shear dilation (Neimeijer et al., 2008, 2010; Chen et al., 2015) and permeability evolution (Fang et al., 2017; Ishibashi et al., 2016) including models of granular friction and permeability (Wang et al., 2017).

The presence of wear products in GRS sample (Figure 1c) suggests that the permeability enhancement may be associated with flux-driven unclogging of the fracture (Candela et al., 2014, 2015; Elkhoury et al., 2011). Although our experiments are conducted with constant pressure, pore throat expansion due to shear dilation may trigger the release of trapped wear products and unclog any colloidal seal. We mimic prior oscillatory
pressure pulse experiments with WG (see Figure S3) and confirm that significant permeability enhancement may result. Moreover, these experiments confirm that permeability can be further enhanced when shear slip (induced seismicity) is triggered by the pressure pulse. The difference in the amount of visible wear product between WG and GRS (Figures 1b and 1c) suggests that the observed difference in permeability response to shear (Figures 4d and 4e) can also be influenced by the unblocking process.

4.2. Implication to Natural Systems

These experiments suggest that commonly observed coseismic and postseismic permeability enhancements may also be contributed to by shear slip. Our experiments suggest that preslip sealing is an essential process to allow shear permeability enhancement. Indeed, the sealing process is inferred by field observations that show permeability reduction (Elkhoury et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2013) and hydraulic decoupling of aquifers (Wang et al., 2016) following coseismic reactivation. A long duration of interseismic sealing can reset the fault permeability, priming it for another cycle of coseismic permeability enhancement followed by its slow destruction.

These experimental results recall the potential of permeability characterizations as potentially sensitive earthquake precursors (e.g., Roeloffs, 1998, 2006). Seismic events may transition through an aseismic nucleation phase until the slip patch reaches a critical size (Dieterich, 1992; Rice, 1993), which may generate detectable signals. Recently, active measurements of reduction in seismic velocity have been linked to preslip frictional weakening (Scuderi et al., 2016). Similarly, permeability enhancement during nucleation, which is potentially driven by the same fundamental mechanism to frictional weakening (Samuelson et al., 2009; Segall & Rice, 1995), could be viewed as a sensitive precursor. This would require a sufficiently long duration of interseismic healing together with a preslip distance large enough and an observation wellbore sufficiently hydraulically well connected to the preslip fault plane. In the experimental results, we show that even 1 mm of slow-fault reactivation can result in a significant permeability enhancement.

Fracture permeability has been observed to be enhanced by transient stresses induced by distant earthquakes (Brodsky et al., 2003; Manga et al., 2012). The behavior has been attributed to transient-flux-driven (sloshing) unblocking of colloidal seals (Brodsky et al., 2003; Candela et al., 2014, 2015; Elkhoury et al., 2011). Our experiments suggest that remotely triggered seismicity (and therefore fault shear) (e.g., Hill et al., 1993; Van der Elst et al., 2013) should also be considered in explaining permeability enhancement. Transiting seismic waves from distant earthquakes will selectively reactivate the local fault patches that are near-critically stressed. The model can explain why the permeability response can be observed only in particular wellbores (e.g., Brodsky et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2016) since the response will be only significant for wellbores that are hydraulically connected to any reactivated fault patches. Further, earthquake-induced hydraulic connection between vertically stacked aquifers, observed by Wang et al. (2016), can be described by simply assuming that the reactivated fault transsects the boundary between the two aquifers.

5. Conclusion

Our experiments demonstrate a cycle of the creation then destruction of permeability during laboratory slide-hold-slide experiments, which substantially reproduce natural observations (Elkhoury et al., 2006). We observe that both comminution and dilation can be driven by shear slip. The comminution effect is mostly dominant during initial shear-in on artificial fresh surfaces and for short healing/sealing periods—which may not be broadly representative of natural systems. Conversely, the effects of dilation become increasingly significant with the increased duration of healing—conditions much more representative of natural conditions on faults subject to interseismic repose. During experimentally imposed periods of hold the permeability continuously declines, described by power law compaction and cubic law flow. Upon reactivation, the magnitude of permeability increase scales with an increase in repose period. Indeed, applying a substantial prereactivation repose period is essential to follow the correct path of permeability evolution present through the seismic cycle.

References