# Propagation of Slow Slip Events on Rough Faults: Clustering, Back Propagation, and Re-rupturing

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## Abstract

Seismic and geodetic observations show that slow slip events (SSEs) in subduction zones can happen at all temporal and spatial scales and propagate at various velocities. Observation of rapid tremor reversals (RTRs) indicates back-propagating fronts traveling much faster than the main rupture front. Heterogeneity of fault properties, such as fault roughness, is a ubiquitous feature often invoked to explain this complex behavior, but how roughness affects SSEs is poorly understood. Here we use quasi-dynamic seismic cycle simulations to model SSEs on a rough fault, using normal stress perturbations as a proxy for roughness and assuming rate-and-state friction, with strengthening behavior at high slip rate. SSEs exhibit temporal clustering, large variations in rupture length and propagate through low-normal stress regions, a rapid increase in slip velocity combined with rate-strengthening friction induces stress oscillations at the rupture tip, and the subsequent "delayed stress drop' induces secondary back-propagating fronts. Moreover, on rough faults with fractal elevation profiles, the transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of SSEs due to local variations in the level of heterogeneity. Our study provides a possible mechanism for the complex evolution of SSEs inferred from geophysical observations and its link to fault roughness.

## Propagation of Slow Slip Events on Rough Faults: Clustering, Back Propagation, and Re-rupturing

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## 6 Key Points:

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- Slow slip events on a simulated rough fault exhibit clustering, a broad range of rupture lengths, and varying propagation velocities
  Fast back-propagating fronts arise from the interplay of strength heterogeneity, variable slip rate, and rate-strengthening friction
  A transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of slow slip event
  - A transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of slow slip events on a fractal fault

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## 13 Abstract

Seismic and geodetic observations show that slow slip events (SSEs) in subduction zones 14 can happen at all temporal and spatial scales and propagate at various velocities. Ob-15 servation of rapid tremor reversals (RTRs) indicates back-propagating fronts traveling 16 much faster than the main rupture front. Heterogeneity of fault properties, such as fault 17 roughness, is a ubiquitous feature often invoked to explain this complex behavior, but 18 how roughness affects SSEs is poorly understood. Here we use quasi-dynamic seismic cy-19 cle simulations to model SSEs on a rough fault, using normal stress perturbations as a 20 proxy for roughness and assuming rate-and-state friction, with strengthening behavior 21 at high slip rate. SSEs exhibit temporal clustering, large variations in rupture length and 22 propagation speed, and back-propagating fronts at different scales. We identify a mech-23 anism for back propagation: as ruptures propagate through low-normal stress regions, 24 a rapid increase in slip velocity combined with rate-strengthening friction induces stress 25 oscillations at the rupture tip, and the subsequent "delayed stress drop" induces secondary 26 back-propagating fronts. Moreover, on rough faults with fractal elevation profiles, the 27 transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of SSEs due to local vari-28 ations in the level of heterogeneity. Our study provides a possible mechanism for the com-29 plex evolution of SSEs inferred from geophysical observations and its link to fault rough-30 ness. 31

## <sup>32</sup> Plain Language Summary

Aseismic slow slip events (SSEs), which like earthquakes can accommodate plate 33 motions, are observed to happen intermittently, propagate backward, and travel at vary-34 ing speeds. The rough geometry of faults causes heterogeneous stress distribution, which 35 may be responsible for the complex slip behaviors. Here we use computer simulations 36 and analytical tools to study the propagation of SSEs on rough faults. We find more small 37 SSEs, occurring in short bursts, on a rougher fault. We also reproduce faster back-propagating 38 streaks in simulations, analogous to seismological observations. On a fractal fault, rup-39 tures can transition between slip modes (from inchworm-like to zipper-like) which fur-40 ther induces re-rupturing when propagating from high to low roughness areas. Our study 41 helps quantify the effect of fault roughness and further understand underlying mechan-42 ics. 43

## 44 **1** Introduction

Slow slip events are aseismic fault slip transients with a slip rate of about 1-10045 mm/day (Wech & Bartlow, 2014; Hawthorne et al., 2016; Bletery et al., 2017; Frank et 46 al., 2018; Bletery & Nocquet, 2020). Slow slip events (SSEs) and non-volcanic tremors 47 have been observed worldwide in subduction zones, such as Cascadia, Nankai, and Hiku-48 rangi (Rogers & Dragert, 2003; Obara et al., 2004; Wallace, 2020). Several candidate mech-49 anisms for slow slip events have been proposed, such as localized regions of lower nor-50 mal stress (Liu & Rice, 2005, 2007; Rubin, 2008), fault gouge dilatancy (Segall & Rice, 51 1995; Segall et al., 2010), a transition to velocity-strengthening at a high slip rate (Hawthorne 52 & Rubin, 2013a; Im et al., 2020), and frictional fault embedded within a viscous shear 53 zone (Lavier et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2018; Behr et al., 2021). 54

Slow slip events exhibit remarkable spatio-temporal complexity. Frank (2016) and 55 Frank et al. (2018) reveal smaller SSEs hidden within the interseismic periods and large 56 events, respectively (also see Rousset et al. (2019)). They also find SSEs are clustered, 57 similar to a cascade of aftershocks following the mainshock (Jolivet & Frank, 2020). Jolivet 58 et al. (2015) and Hawthorne and Bartlow (2018) suggest that the moment of SSEs fol-59 lows a power law distribution, which resembles Gutenberg-Richter law. The rupture style 60 of SSEs, and the magnitude-duration scaling, are still subjects to debate. SSEs from dif-61 ferent regions show a linear moment-duration scaling (Peng & Gomberg, 2010; Gao et 62

al., 2012), associated with pulse-like rupture along an elongated fault (as inferred by Bartlow

et al. (2011) and Radiguet et al. (2011)). On the other hand, events from a single region

<sup>65</sup> follow a duration-cubed scaling like earthquakes (Michel et al., 2019), reminiscent of crack-

66 like propagation.

With advances in seismic and geodetic observations, uncommon slow slip behav-67 iors have been identified, and propagation velocities have been better measured. Wech 68 and Bartlow (2014) use GPS measurement and locations of tremors to find that SSEs 69 can rupture the same region again with a gap of about 3 weeks by bifurcating into bi-70 71 lateral propagation fronts in Cascadia. Yamashita et al. (2015) observe a re-rupturing event represented by migrating tremors several days after the first event in the Nankai 72 subduction zone. Houston et al. (2011) and Obara et al. (2012) observed even faster back-73 propagating streaks represented by rapid tremor reversals (RTRs) in the Cascadia, and 74 Nankai subduction zones, which have also been confirmed with borehole strainmeters (Hawthorne 75 et al., 2016) and analysis of low-frequency earthquakes (Bletery et al., 2017). 76

These complex slip patterns are likely a manifestation of frictional behavior, fault 77 heterogeneity, or the interplay between the two. As such, they offer an opportunity to 78 understand the underlying physical mechanism for slow slip events and constrain fault 79 properties in the environment of SSEs. Previous models incorporating heterogeneity typ-80 ically assume spatial variations in frictional properties: velocity weakening (VW) asper-81 ities embedded in a velocity strengthening (VS) fault, producing localized stick-slip be-82 havior on a creeping fault (e.g., Luo and Liu (2021)). Other studies employ a velocity-83 cutoff model with a transition from velocity weakening to velocity strengthening behav-84 ior with increasing slip rate and introduce heterogeneity by varying the cutoff-velocity 85 (Peng & Rubin, 2018). While the existence of mixed-mode behavior at depths correspond-86 ing to SSEs is supported by observations (Behr & Bürgmann, 2021; Kirkpatrick et al., 87 2021), their spatial distribution is not well constrained, and modeling studies have ap-88 proximated them by placing asperities at random locations, or on a grid (Peng & Ru-89 bin, 2018; Luo & Ampuero, 2018). Additionally, several mechanisms have been proposed 90 to explain back propagation and rapid tremor reversals, such as tidal modulation (Hawthorne 91 & Rubin, 2013b), fluid pressure wave (Cruz-Atienza et al., 2018; Yin, 2018), fault het-92 erogeneity (Luo & Ampuero, 2018; Luo & Liu, 2021), and fault damage zone (Idini & 93 Ampuero, 2020). 94

Fault roughness represents a ubiquitous and well-characterized source of hetero-95 geneity, and like other heterogeneities described above, it can modulate fault stability 96 (Cattania & Segall, 2021). The migrations of tremors in the Nankai subduction zone ex-97 hibit spatial variations of predominant directions (either along strike or dip), as shown 98 in Sagae et al. (2023). This implies that structural heterogeneities, like fault roughness, 99 play a significant role due to their known anisotropic properties (Renard & Candela, 2017), 100 rather than just material differences. Furthermore, it is well established that fault rough-101 ness controls the spatial distribution of fault normal stresses (Fang & Dunham, 2013; 102 Romanet et al., 2020; Cattania & Segall, 2021), and the effect of normal stress pertur-103 bations depends on the ratio of normal stress perturbations to background effective nor-104 mal stress. Due to the low normal stress conditions associated with SSEs, the change 105 of normal stress due to fault roughness may play an important role in controlling their 106 behavior, making them an ideal setting in which to study the effect of heterogeneity on 107 fault slip patterns. In this study, we seek to determine the effect of fault roughness on 108 the complex rupture behaviors during SSEs. We use numerical simulations and fracture 109 mechanics to address the following question: Can fault roughness explain the spatio-temporal 110 variety of SSE behavior, back propagation, and re-rupture? 111

After introducing the modeling framework (Section 2), we consider the simple case of sinusoidal perturbations in normal stress (Section 3.1) and show that heterogeneity with small wavelength and large amplitudes favors complex slip behaviors including a variety of rupture dimension, clustering, and forward and backward, fast and slow prop-



Figure 1. (a) Model geometry. (b) The steady-state friction coefficient of the original rateand-state friction (dashed line) and velocity cutoff model (solid line, Equation 2). (c) An example of normalized elevation of a rough fault y/L (blue) and perturbation of the normal stress per slip  $\Delta\sigma L/G'S$  (red) obtained from Equation 4.

agation. Furthermore, we introduce an analytical tool based on fracture mechanics to 116 explain why SSEs arrest or propagate on a fault with variable normal stress. In Section 3.2, 117 we discuss a possible mechanism to generate fast-moving back-propagating fronts: a de-118 layed stress drop induced by the coupling between normal stress heterogeneity and fric-119 tion. Finally, in Section 3.3 we consider a fractal fault, and demonstrate that its irreg-120 ular distribution of normal stresses produces dynamics that are not captured by the si-121 nusoidal model. In particular, we demonstrate SSE re-rupturing can be induced by a tran-122 sition between the pulse to crack-like rupture, as the rupture propagates through regions 123 of variable local roughness amplitude. 124

### 125 2 Models

We use the 2D quasi-dynamic boundary element model FDRA (Segall & Bradley, 126 2012) to simulate SSE cycles on a rough fault. We include normal stress perturbations 127 as proxies for roughness due to its lower computation cost. The evolution of normal stress 128 and fault geometry is not considered in this study. Thus, our simulations can be thought 129 as freeze-frame in the tectonic time scale. This simplification is justified because normal 130 stress perturbations grow linearly with slip, and a single SSE only increases the total slip 131 by a small fraction, so that normal stress perturbations do not change significantly dur-132 ing several cycles. 133

The model consists of an in-plane fault (mode II) in full space with velocity boundary conditions of tectonic loading rate  $v_{pl}$  and 0 at A and C, respectively (Figure 1a; Table 1), representing the region between the locked seismogenic zone and steady creep, where deep SSEs have been observed (Obara et al., 2004; Rogers & Dragert, 2003; Lay et al., 2012). The fault is composed of a shallow seismogenic (velocity-weakening) region, BC, and a deep creeping (velocity-strengthening) region, AB. Fault slip is governed by:

$$\tau_{el} = \tau_f + \frac{G}{2c_s}v,\tag{1}$$

where  $\tau_{el}$  is the shear stress due to remote loading and interaction between elements,  $\tau_f$ is the frictional resistance, and  $\frac{G}{2c_s}v$  is the radiation damping term with shear wave velocity  $c_s$  and shear modulus G (Rice, 1993). Slow slip events on a velocity weakening fault require a stabilizing mechanism, such a reduction in pore pressure due to slip-induced

parameter	value
fault length L	2.5 or 10 km
tectonic loading rate $v_{pl}$	$1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m/s}$
shear modulus $G$	$3 \times 10^{10}$ Pa
Poisson's ratio $\nu$	0.25
S wave velocity $c_s$	$3.7 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$
friction coefficient $\mu_0$	0.6
reference slip rate $v^*$	$1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$
cut-off slip rate $v_c$	$1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$
slip rate $v_{\tau-min}$ with minimum steady-state friction	$3.33 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m/s}$
friction parameter $a$ for velocity-weakening region	0.015
friction parameter $a$ for velocity-strengthening region	0.025
friction parameter b	0.02
characteristic slip distance $D_c$	$4 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{m}$
average normal stress $\sigma_0$	$2 \mathrm{MPa}$
amplitude-to-wavelength ratio $\alpha_r$	0.001
Hurst exponent $H$	0.7

 Table 1.
 Model parameters

dilatancy (Segall & Rice, 1995) or a transition to velocity strengthening friction with increasing slip velocity, demonstrated in laboratory experiments (Saffer et al., 2001; Ikari
& Saffer, 2011). Here we assume the latter mechanism and employ the velocity-cutoff
model introduced by Hawthorne and Rubin (2013a). Frictional resistance is given by:

$$\tau_f = \left[\mu_1 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln \left(\frac{\theta v_c}{D_c} + 1\right)\right] \sigma,\tag{2}$$

where  $\sigma, \mu_1, v, v^*, \theta, D_c$  and  $v_c$  represent normal stress, reference frictional coefficient, slip rate, reference slip rate, state variable, characteristic slip distance, and cutoff velocity, respectively. *a* and *b* are the coefficients for instant and evolution effects. State evolution is governed by the aging law (Ruina, 1983) as:

$$\dot{\theta} = 1 - \frac{\theta v}{D_c}.\tag{3}$$

In contrast, the original rate-and-state friction is  $\mu = \mu_0 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln \frac{\theta v^*}{D_c}$ . To match two frictional laws at low slip rate, we set  $\mu_1$  as  $\mu_0 + b \ln \frac{v^*}{v_c}$  (Equation 2). As shown in Figure 1b, the steady-state friction  $\mu_{ss} = \mu_1 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln(\frac{v^*}{v} + 1)$  decreases to a minimum when v reaches  $v_{\tau-min} = \frac{b-a}{a}v_c$ , and then increases with increasing slip rate, so that slip instability initiates at  $v < v_{\tau-min}$  and does not accelerate into an earthquake (Figure 1b).

The friction parameters  $a, b, D_c$  and average normal stress  $\sigma_0$  we use are shown in 158 Table 1 and consistent with previous studies (Marone, 1998; Liu & Rice, 2007; Audet 159 & Kim, 2016). The mean normal stress  $\sigma_0$  used in the simulations is 2 MPa, which makes 160 the stress drop  $\Delta \tau_{drop}$  about 0.1 MPa, within the range of 0.01 to 1 MPa, consistent with 161 those inferred by Gao et al. (2012). We impose a perturbation of normal stress, which 162 163 mimics the stress heterogeneity on a rough fault with a constant wavelength or a fractal distribution (e.g. Figure 1c). We refer to patches of elevated normal stress as asper-164 ities throughout the paper. We set the minimum grid spacing to  $\frac{1}{2.5}$  of the smallest co-165 hesive zone size  $L_c$  to adequately resolve the stress field across the crack tip (Erickson et al., 2023). The size of cohesive zone  $L_c$  is estimated as  $1.377 \frac{G'D_c}{b\sigma_{max}}$  (Rubin & Ampuero, 2005), where  $\sigma_{max}$  and G' are the maximum normal stress and  $\frac{G}{1-\nu}$ , respectively. 166 167 168

We use synthetic fractal fault profiles, comparable to natural faults. Faults are cor-169 rugated at all scales, and the distribution is self-affine with a Hurst exponent H between 170 0.4 - 0.8 (W. Power et al., 1987; Candela et al., 2012; Brodsky et al., 2016; Renard & 171 Candela, 2017). The fractal fault topography has a power spectrum  $P^2$  proportional to 172  $(2\pi\lambda)^{-2H-1}$ , where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength, and the root-mean-square elevation is given by 173  $y_{RMS} = \alpha_r \lambda_{max}^H$ , where  $\alpha_r$  is the amplitude-to-wavelength ratio and  $\lambda_{max}$  is the max-174 imum wavelength. For instance, Figure 1c shows a fractal fault with a normalized wave-175 length  $\lambda/L$  from 0.01 to 1 and  $\alpha_r = 0.001$ . We use the following analytical expressions 176 to relate normal stress perturbations to fault topography (Fang & Dunham, 2013; Cat-177 tania & Segall, 2021): 178

$$\Delta\sigma(x) = \frac{G'S}{2} \mathscr{H}(y'') = \frac{G'S}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y''(\xi)}{x - \xi} d\xi, \qquad (4)$$

where S is the total slip, and additional shear stress is given by  $\Delta \tau(x) = \frac{G'S}{2} y' \mathscr{H}(y'')$ , 179 where  $\mathscr{H}(y'')$  is the Hilbert transform of the second derivative of the elevation ampli-180 tude y, and S is the accumulated slip. This formula describes  $\Delta \sigma$  increases linearly with 181 S in the elastic regime and does not apply when S is large enough to cause plastic de-182 formation or fracturing. The corrugation perturbs the normal stress and shear stress lo-183 cally at the scale of the smallest wavelength  $\lambda_{min}$  (Fang & Dunham, 2013; Romanet et 184 al., 2020; Cattania & Segall, 2021). The root-mean-square (RMS) of normal stress per-185 turbation is  $\Delta \sigma_{RMS} = (2\pi)^2 \alpha_r \sqrt{\frac{H}{2-H}} \frac{G'S}{2} \lambda_{min}^{H-2}$ . While the mean of  $\Delta \tau$  is  $\Delta \tau_{mean} = 0.000 \, \mathrm{G}^{1/2}$ 186  $(2\pi)^3 \alpha_r^2 \frac{2H}{3-2H} \frac{G'S}{2} \lambda_{min}^{2H-3}$ , which is proportional to  $\alpha_r^2$  while  $\Delta \sigma_{RMS}$  is proportional to  $\alpha_r$ . 187 The amplitude-to-wavelength ratio  $\alpha_r$  of natural faults is about  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-2}$  (W. L. Power 188 & Tullis, 1991). Therefore, we only consider the roughness-induced normal stress per-189 turbation  $\Delta\sigma$  but not the shear stress  $\Delta\tau$  because it is much smaller than  $\Delta\sigma$ . We use 190 a slip rate threshold to identify SSEs and to estimate propagation velocities for individ-191 ual ruptures and cascading clusters (more detail is provided in section Appendix A). 192

## 193 **3 Results**

To obtain insight into how roughness affects slow slip behavior, we first explore the simple case of sinusoidal perturbations with varying wavelengths and amplitudes; in Section 3.3 we consider the more realistic case of normal stresses induced by slip on a fractal fault.

### 198

## 3.1 Variety of slip behavior on a sinusoidal rough fault

We consider a rough fault with a sinusoidal normal stress distribution with a magnitude given by

$$\sigma(x) = \sigma_0 + \sigma_A \cos \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}.$$
(5)

Simulations exhibit a range of SSE behaviors, varying with both wavelength  $\lambda$  and amplitude of the normal stress perturbation  $\sigma_A$ . Figure 2 shows a slip behavior as a function of  $\lambda$  and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ . To better highlight differences between simulations, we plot accumulated slip normalized by the theoretical slip profile or a crack driven by end-point displacement (in this case provided by deep creep), given by Rubin (2008):

$$S(x,t) = \frac{S(L,t)}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \arcsin\frac{x-L/2}{L/2}\right),\tag{6}$$

where L, x, and t are the fault length, the location on the fault, and time. We choose a 2.5 km-long flat fault that is a few times larger than the nucleation length, so that it only has full ruptures in the homogeneous- $\sigma$  case (see Cattania (2019)), as shown in Figure 2a and 2b. In this case, full ruptures are well approximated as a constant stress drop crack (Figure 2a), with an elliptical slip profile (Eshelby, 1957). Cases with low  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ 



Figure 2. Effect of sinusoidal normal stress perturbations on rupture style. (a) normalized slips with uniform  $\sigma$ . Normalized slip equals slip s divided by  $\frac{\pi}{2} + \arcsin \frac{x - W/2}{W/2}$ . (d-i) Normalized slip profiles as a function of wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) and perturbation amplitude ( $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ ). (b) and (c) show the slip rate for each time step for cases (a) and (f), respectively.



Figure 3. Stress intensity factor K (solid line) and local toughness  $K_c$  (dashed line) for the constant (a) and perturbed (b) normal stress. The slip will arrest at l = 280 m. (c) Number of zero crossings of  $K - K_c$  and percentage of small SSEs in simulations with varying normalized wavelength  $\lambda/L_{\infty}$  and amplitude-to-constant ratio  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ . The red contouring line represents the threshold for arresting (3 zero crossings). Colors of circles and crosses represent the percentage of events smaller than  $2\lambda$  in the simulations with a 2.5 km-long fault (circle: > 0.75; cross: < 0.75).

and long wavelength exhibit crack-like ruptures and partial ruptures (Figure 2d, 2g and 211 2h), whereas with the increase of wavenumber and perturbation amplitude  $\sigma_A$ , there are 212 more pulse-like ruptures composed of localized slip pockets and an overall flat slip pro-213 file (Figure 2f). A similar transition from crack to pulse-like rupture due to fault rough-214 ness was observed by Heimisson (2020), and interpreted as a consequence of additional 215 shear resistance from fault roughness (roughness drag; Fang and Dunham (2013)). Our 216 results indicate that pulse-like rupture can still occur exclusively as a result of a pertur-217 bation in normal stress. Each cluster ruptures the whole velocity-weakening region in-218 termittently, and it ruptures more than once in some regions (Figure 2c and 2f). Note 219 that these partial ruptures are often nucleated at a high- $\sigma$  region and arrested by the 220 high- $\sigma$  regions nearby (Figure 2f and 2i), which have a higher local fracture energy, as 221 discussed below. 222

### 223

## 3.1.1 Rupture arrest with variable normal stress

To get more insight into rupture arrest, we use a fracture mechanics criterion accounting for heterogeneity. Rupture propagation is controlled by the criterion:  $K = K_c$ , where K and  $K_c$  are stress intensity factor and local toughness, respectively (Griffith, 1921; Irwin, 1957). Normal stress heterogeneity affects both these terms: enhanced compression at the crack tip increases the local toughness  $K_c$ , thus favoring rupture arrest; however, it also increases the stress drop and hence K, which promotes rupture propagation. Analytical calculations are described in Appendix B.

Figure 3a and b illustrate examples of K and  $K_c$  distributions for constant and per-231 turbed normal stress. The zero crossing of  $K - K_c$  of a smooth fault (red) is located 232 at about  $l \approx 250$  m, which is similar to the nucleation half length  $L_{\infty} = \frac{G' b D_c}{\pi (b-a)^2 \sigma}$ . As 233 the crack reaches the nucleation dimension, it will grow unstable and propagate indef-234 initely as long as the stress drop remains uniform. However,  $K - K_c$  has 3 zero cross-235 ings for the case with perturbed normal stress (blue). The SSE is likely to nucleate at 236 the first zero crossing  $(l \approx 200 \text{ m})$  and arrest at the second zero crossing  $(l \approx 280 \text{ m})$ 237 because it cannot penetrate the high- $\sigma$  region  $(l \approx 280 - 330 \text{ m})$  where  $K < K_c$ . 238



Figure 4. Effect of perturbation amplitude on SSE catalogs. Rupture lengths (a, b, c) and interevent times (d, e, f) with increasing sinusoidal  $\sigma$  perturbation on a 10 km-long fault ( $\lambda = 0.33$  km). SSEs are outlined by a threshold of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m/s. Events that are closer than the duration of full ruptures are merged as one.

Figure 3c shows the conditions under which SSEs might arrest according to this 239 analysis. Figure 3c excludes the perturbed wavelength shorter than the cohesive zone  $(1.377L_b \approx 55 \text{ m})$ , with  $L_b = \frac{G'D_c}{b\sigma}$  (Rubin & Ampuero, 2005; Ampuero & Rubin, 2008), 240 241 because local toughness  $K_c$  cannot be calculated as Equation B4 due to the varying nor-242 mal stress in the cohesive zone. If  $K - K_c$  has more than three zero crossings in Fig-243 ure 3b, the SSEs tend to stop at the high-normal-stress region and propagate like a pulse 244 discontinuously. Therefore, the parameter space for arresting is below the white curve, 245 while the black area indicates that ruptures will not arrest. For the same wavelength  $\lambda$ , 246 SSEs are more likely to arrest if the normal stress perturbation is larger. The range of 247 wavelength promoting rupture arrest is narrow for smaller normal stress perturbations. 248 We also compare our analytical model with the percentage of SSEs smaller than  $2\lambda$  in 249 the simulations (several cases are shown in Figure 2) since there are more small SSEs 250 if arresting happens more frequently. The cross indicates that most SSEs (> 75%) are 251 small, while the circle indicates fewer small ruptures (< 75%). To first order, the dis-252 tribution of crosses and circles shows a Z-shaped boundary and our model aligns with 253 simulations. This analysis demonstrates that the strong spatial variations of both local 254 toughness  $K_c$  and stress intensity factor K of potential ruptures along the rough fault 255 can account for the breakdown of a single large SSE into multiple smaller SSEs. 256



Figure 5. Evolution of SSE cycles (a), consisting of pre-slips plus full rupture (b), full rupture with back-propagating fronts (c) and clustered subevents (d) and normal stress distribution with  $\lambda = 0.33$  km and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.5$ . The fitting lines for updip and downdip propagation are in light blue and pink respectively and the corresponding velocity is noted beside (unit: m/s). The threshold slip rate for outlining events is  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m/s.

## 3.1.2 Temporal statistics and size distribution

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The SSE catalogs simulated on a fault with higher roughness show more random-258 ness and clustering (Figure 4). Figure 4a and d exhibit stable SSE cycles consisting of 259 a full rupture and a partial rupture on a 10 km-long flat fault. However, for the rough 260 fault, Figure 4b and c shows a larger number of SSEs with increasing amplitude of  $\sigma$  per-261 turbations, consistent with the analysis in the previous section. The SSE interevent time 262 catalog for the case with  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.5$  shows two groups of intervals of about 100 days 263 and 1 hour (Figure 4b), corresponding to the time between full rupture and subsequent 264 cluster, and the time between subevents within pre-slip and subsequent clusters, respec-265 tively. However, the case with a higher  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.96$  exhibits more continuously dis-266 tributed intervals spanning four orders of magnitude, from 10 minutes to 100 days (Fig-267 ure 4c), with temporal clustering around the largest events. More small SSEs also ap-268 pear on faults with higher roughness (Figure 4e and 4f). A cluster of small events can 269 cause less uniform background stress, so the rupture length and time for the next event 270 are less predictable. This result is similar to the observations showing that a large SSE 271 can be decomposed into a cluster of smaller events (Jolivet et al., 2015; Frank, 2016; Frank 272 et al., 2018; Rousset et al., 2019; Jolivet & Frank, 2020). 273

## 274 3.1.3 Rupture velocities

Fault roughness also promotes a range of propagation directions and velocities. Fig-275 ure 5a shows that one SSE cycle on a rough fault is composed of a cluster of pre-slips 276 (Figure 5b), full rupture (Figure 5c) and clustered subevents (Figure 5d). The dimen-277 sion of subevents is one to several wavelengths, and they are confined by asperities. The 278 clusters usually start from the boundary of the seismogenic and creeping regions and gen-279 erally propagate undip intermittently, but sometimes propagate downdip (Figure 5b and 280 5d). Full ruptures usually nucleate at the end of the cluster of pre-slips (Figure 5b). The 281 updip and downdip propagations of full ruptures exhibit similar velocities: 0.18 and 0.25 m/s (15.5 and 21.6 km/day). However, the propagation velocities of the pre-slip clus-283 ter and the subsequent events are smaller than that of the full rupture by a factor of 5-284 10. This smaller velocity can be explained by the lower state variable  $\theta$ : in the cluster 285 of pre-slips and subsequent events, the event in the front is not triggered immediately 286 because it is still below steady-state after the stress change. 287

288

## 3.2 Back propagating fronts

A common feature in rough fault simulations is the occurrence of fast back-propagating fronts within a full rupture (Figure 5c). Their propagation velocity is 3–7 times higher than the forward propagation. These secondary ruptures may be analogous to rapid tremor reversals (Houston et al., 2011) or fast streaks observed along dip (Shelly et al., 2007; Ghosh et al., 2010).

To understand the origin of back-propagating fronts, in Fig. 6 we compare the evo-294 lution of stress and slip velocities on flat and rough faults. On a smooth fault, the crack 295 tip stress and velocity profiles are simply translated as the rupture propagates, and a con-296 stant stress drop within the rupture drives the crack at constant velocity (Figure 6a). 297 On the other hand, propagation along rough faults induces large fluctuations in slip ve-298 locity and stress drop: the missing piece of the puzzle is a temporary positive stress change 200  $\Delta \tau$  behind the crack tip, that enables ruptured asperities to break again and trigger a 300 secondary slip front. We use the term "delayed stress drop" to describe this mechanism 301 for back-propagating fronts on rough faults, which can be understood in the framework 302 of rate-and-state friction law and velocity-cutoff model. In the case of forward propa-303 gation at the crack-tip, the slip rate in the low- $\sigma$  region is significantly higher than that 304 in the high- $\sigma$  region (Figure 6d). When the rupture front passes the low- $\sigma$  region, the 305 slip rate on the asperity behind is also elevated to a similar level as the low- $\sigma$  region (pro-306 file 3 in Figure 6d), which causes the shear stress to increase due to velocity-strengthening 307 behavior at higher slip rate (Figure 1b, profile 3 in Figure 6c). As the rupture propa-308 gates into high  $\sigma$  regions, the slip velocity and stress decrease, as shown by the differ-309 ence between stress profiles 4 and 3 (solid black line in Figure 6c). This delayed stress 310 drop causes a stress increase on the asperities behind ( $x \approx 800 \text{ m}$  and  $x \approx 1300 \text{ m}$ ), 311 and hence induce secondary back propagation in its wave. 312

313

## 3.3 Pulse-to-crack transition and re-rupture on fractal faults

On a fractal fault, heterogeneity varies more randomly than in the sinusoidal cases 314 presented above: since the local amplitude and (to a lesser extent) frequency content varies 315 spatially, the slip regimes displayed in Figure 2 can all coexist on a single fault surface, 316 and slip front propagation across these different regimes generates additional complex-317 ity. Figure 7 shows a case with a fractal rough fault with wavelength  $\lambda$  between 0.125 318 and 10 km and Hurst exponent H = 0.7. Within a single full rupture (about one day 319 long), there are two kinds of rupture behaviors, first pulse-like and then crack-like. Ad-320 ditionally, some even faster "streaks" propagate backward in the simulations, analogous 321 to be behavior discussed in section 3.2. 322



Figure 6. Stress change and slip rate profile along a flat fault (a and b) or fault with sinusoidal normal stress (c and d;  $\lambda = 0.5$  km and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.71$ ) when the rupture propagates from right to left. Colored lines represent profiles when the crack tips are at the extrema and mean of  $\sigma$  (c and d; coded by 1 to 5). The black line in (c) represents the difference between stress profiles 4 and 3. The dashed line represents the stress change after an event.



Figure 7. Slip behaviors on a fractal fault. (a) Slip rate across two SSE cycles. (b) Top: normalized slip along the fault during several SSE cycles, (cumulative slip divided by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  + arcsin  $\frac{x-W/2}{W/2}$ ). The black lines represent interseismic slip with an interval of around 10 days. Red lines are plotted with an interval of 0.25 hour when the maximum slip rate is larger than  $v_{pl}$ . Bottom: distribution of the normal stress obtained from Equation 4 with S = 55 mm. The grey box denotes where the pulse-to-crack transition happens.



**Figure 8.** Normalized slip and normal stress for "walnut" case (a) and "hourglass" (b). (a) Re-rupture within a full-rupture event which propagates from high to low roughness regions. (b) SSEs propagating as a pulse from low to high roughness regions without re-rupture.

In Figure 7, pulse-like ruptures are usually clusters of small sub-events and propagate slowly, while crack-like ones are single extensive events and propagate much faster. As shown in section 3.1 and Figure 2, the amplitude of normal stress perturbations determines whether a rupture propagates as a crack or a pulse. Therefore, we proposed that the transition from pulse to crack is caused by spatial variations of normal stress: higher amplitudes of normal stress perturbations favor pulse-like ruptures, so pulse-to-crack transitions can take place as rupture propagates into regions with lower local roughness.

To test this, we compare two end-member cases of a "walnut" and an "hourglass" 330 normal stress perturbation (Figure 8) to study how the local amplitude of the pertur-331 bation affects rupture propagation. We construct the normal stress perturbation with 332 two sinusoidal functions of similar wavelengths, 0.179  $\left(\frac{2.5}{14}\right)$  and 0.167  $\left(\frac{2.5}{15}\right)$  km, with a group wavelength of 2.5 km. We find that day-long single events exhibit the pulse-to-333 334 crack transition and re-rupture in the "walnut" case (Figure 8a), in which the SSE prop-335 agates from high roughness to low roughness areas. Ruptures initiate as pulses in the 336 region with a larger perturbation amplitude ( $x \approx 1.25$  km) and evolve into cracks in 337 the region with nearly constant normal stress ( $x \approx 0$  km). We interpret this as caused 338 by the deficit between crack and pulse-like slip profiles, a mechanism that was previously 339 identified by Idini and Ampuero (2020) for faults surrounded by a damage zone. In prin-340 ciple, the slip deficit could also be filled with subsequent small SSEs as shown in Fig-341 ure 8b. We suggest that it is also easier for the re-rupture to penetrate the lower-roughness 342 region  $(x \approx 0 \text{ km})$  due to absence of strong asperities, so that a single full rupture is 343 favored. In contrast, ruptures remain pulse-like when propagating from the low into the 344 high roughness region in the "hourglass" case (Figure 8b), which usually last on the or-345 der of 10 days. The presence of high normal stress (asperities) in the high roughness re-346 gion  $(x \approx 0 \text{ km})$  also prevents this area from re-rupturing in a single events, as Figure 347 8a. 348

## 349 4 Discussion

In this study, we analyze how heterogeneous normal stress induced by fault roughness produces rich slip behavior during slow slip events. We reproduce SSEs with a range of rupture lengths on rough faults in the simulations, which is consistent with geodetic observations that show a power-law distribution of the sizes of slip bursts on a rough fault (Jolivet et al., 2015; Hawthorne & Bartlow, 2018), and is similar to an emerging cascade of slow slips and foreshocks on rough faults from numerical simulations (Cattania & Segall,
2021). Our simulations also exhibit clustering behaviors that a long-period SSE can be
decomposed into several short subevents, which is analogous to the observations such
as Frank et al. (2018) and Rousset et al. (2019). We suggest that fault roughness, a universal characteristic in nature, can explain many complex dynamics of SSEs. This complexity can be simply understood within the context of linear elastic fracture mechanics.

Simulations show complex rupture behaviors on rough faults, including forward and 362 back propagation at varying speeds, which differ from that on flat and frictionally uni-363 form faults. We observe strongly-varying slip rates when the rupture front first passes 364 low and high normal stress regions, in contrast to roughly constant slip rate behind back-365 propagating fronts. The difference can be explained by initial conditions (state variable 366 and slip rate), which are strongly heterogeneous ahead of the rupture front, and more 367 uniform within the rupture itself. Together with a velocity-cutoff model, this varying crack-368 tip slip rate can also induce a delayed stress drop on the asperity behind, which causes 369 back propagation. 370

Observations indicate that only certain areas experience repeated RTRs with sim-371 ilar directions, and the propagation velocity differs across locations (Sagae et al., 2023). 372 This points to spatial variations in roughness as a potential reason. Future studies can 373 use the distributions of RTRs, propagation velocity, and high-energy radiators (asper-374 ities) to test this hypothesis. Simulations that include a heterogeneous asperities-in-matrix 375 fault also produce back propagation (Luo & Liu, 2021; Peng & Rubin, 2018; Nie & Bar-376 bot, 2021). The presence of unstable patches embedded in a stable matrix will produce 377 variations in stress drops when ruptures cross patches with different frictional proper-378 ties, perhaps analogous to the "delayed stress drop" we observed here. Although our sim-379 ulations are limited to rate-state friction, the mechanism we identified may also apply 380 to other cases, as long as two conditions are met. The first is the presence of heteroge-381 neous fault properties (such as geometry or friction), capable of efficiently modulating 382 slip rate along the rupture front. The second is a rate-strengthening mechanism, oper-383 ating on a sufficiently short time scale to allow for fast restrengthening and subsequent 384 stress release upon deceleration, so that a back-propagating front can be triggered. Fur-385 ther studies are need to verify whether other stabilizing mechanisms, such as fault di-386 latancy (Segall & Rice, 1995), indeed produce similar behavior. 387

Our simulations show a wide range of propagation velocities. Specifically, the prop-388 agation velocity of clustering subevents, forward and back-propagating fronts are on the 389 order of 0.01, 0.1 and 1 m/s, respectively. SSEs generally travel at about 0.1 m/s; how-390 ever, certain SSEs in Japan and Mexico demonstrate a slower pace of about 0.01 m/s 391 (Gao et al., 2012). Back propagation velocities observed in nature are about 1-5 and 392 7 - 40 m/s for rapid tremor reversals and along-dip streaks, respectively (Houston et 393 al., 2011; Shelly et al., 2007; Ghosh et al., 2010). While our simulations accurately cap-394 ture the speeds of forward propagation, they seem to underestimate the back-propagating 395 ones. This implies that the friction parameters in nature are different from those used 396 in our model or that another unknown mechanism controls this process. We will address 397 this problem by exploring a broader region of parameter space and developing theoret-398 ical formulas in future studies. 399

In addition to back-propagating fronts, fractal faults exhibit sustained, large-scale 400 re-ruptures. We have identified a mechanism for this behavior, caused by the more ir-401 regular roughness distribution on a fractal fault compared to the sinusoidal case, which 402 403 can induce pulse-to-crack transitions. Furthermore, natural faults are more complex as the roughness varies spatially on the same surface indicated by the 3D seismic reflection 404 (Kirkpatrick et al., 2020) and Lidar observation (Candela et al., 2009). It is easier to in-405 duce re-rupture due to the transition from pulse to crack when SSEs propagate from high 406 roughness to low roughness region. Sagae et al. (2023) shows that the occurrence of sec-407

ondary tremor migrations depends on the directions of the primary rupture front. Our
mechanism is among the few that offer an explanation for this observation. The pulseto-crack transition mediated by roughness is not specific to slow slip, and it may be applied to a recently observed "boomerang earthquake", which propagates back through
the initial rupture area (Hicks et al., 2020; S. Yamashita et al., 2022).

## 413 **5** Conclusion

We find clustering of slow slip events, different rupture lengths, and varying prop-414 agation velocities on a rough fault in the simulations. SSEs tend to arrest and propa-415 gate intermittently, which generates a pulse-like slip profile when roughness is high, and 416 the amplitude of the normal stress perturbation is large. The secondary back propaga-417 tion can be induced by fault restrengthening followed by a delayed stress drop when the 418 rupture passes a low normal stress region. Finally, we find that the transition from pulse 419 to crack can lead to a large scale re-rupture and back propagation when SSEs propagate 420 421 from high to low roughness regions on a fractal fault.

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## <sup>426</sup> Appendix A Estimating propagation velocities

To calculate propagation velocity, we used two methods: one for a single event, and one for clusters of several events. The first method is to use a slip rate threshold to outline events and fit the rupture fronts linearly to calculate updip and downdip propagation velocity (e.g. full rupture in Figure 5b). We can also increase the threshold to delineate the back-propagating fronts and calculate their velocities. We may not capture all the back-propagating fronts using one threshold, so we use several thresholds and choose the most representative velocity by visual inspection.

Figure 2f also shows clusters of intermittent events that produce a "fish-scale" pat-434 tern with each event arresting on a high normal-stress patch. To estimate the propaga-435 tion velocity of these clusters, we first outline the subevents by a threshold near the cut-436 off velocity  $(1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s})$ . Then we identify clusters as groups of subevents with the 437 interevent time less than 3 days, which separates the two peaks of the bimodal inter-event 438 time distribution in Figure 4b. Finally, we use the uppermost/lowermost end of every 439 event to calculate the updip/downdip propagation velocity of the cluster (e.g. pre-slips 440 in Figure 5b and subsequent events in Figure 5d). 441

## 442 Appendix B Criterion for rupture propagation and arrest

In Figure 2, ruptures show pulse-like behavior and stop in high- $\sigma$  region because 443 the local toughness there is higher. Here we present a fracture mechanics analysis to ex-444 plain rupture propagation and arrest under heterogeneous normal stress. For simplic-445 ity, we neglect rupture arrest caused by gradients in the background stress field due to 446 loading from deep creep (Cattania, 2019). SSEs are mostly nucleated at peaks of nor-447 mal stress, so we consider a crack extending from the normal stress maximum at x =448 0 (eq. 5) to the crack tip at x = l to obtain stress intensity factor K (Tada et al., 1973) 449 as a function of the stress drop  $\Delta \tau$ : 450

$$K = \int_0^l \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\pi(l-x)}} \Delta \tau(x) dx = 2\sqrt{\frac{2l}{\pi}} \Delta \tau_0 + \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda}{\pi}} \Delta \tau_A \left[ C(2\sqrt{\frac{l}{\lambda}}) \cos\frac{2\pi l}{\lambda} + S(2\sqrt{\frac{l}{\lambda}}) \sin\frac{2\pi l}{\lambda} \right],$$
$$S(x) = \int_0^x \sin\frac{\pi t^2}{2} dt,$$

$$C(x) = \int_0^x \cos\frac{\pi t^2}{2} dt,$$
(B1)

where S(x) and C(x) are Fresnel integrals. In Equation B1,  $\Delta \tau$  is assumed proportional to normal stress (Equation 5), with  $\Delta \tau_0$  and  $\Delta \tau_A$  due to the constant and sinusoidal terms respectively. The stress drop equals the difference between the initial and minimum frictional stress as:

$$\Delta \tau_{0,A} = \sigma_{0,A} \left( -a \ln \frac{v_{\tau-min}}{v_i} + b \ln \frac{v_c \theta_i / D_c + 1}{v_c / v_{\tau-min} + 1} \right),$$
(B2)

where  $v_i$  and  $\theta_i$  are the initial slip rate and initial state variable, respectively. In simulations, the slip rate is  $v_i \approx v_{pl}$  in the nucleation zone and it is near steady state as  $v_i \theta_i / D_c = 1$ .

The local toughness  $K_c$  is calculated from the fracture energy  $G_c$  as  $G_c = \frac{K_c^2}{2G'} = \frac{D_c}{2b\sigma} (\Delta \tau_{p-r})^2$ , where  $\Delta \tau_{p-r}$  is the peak to residual stress drop. Hawthorne and Rubin (2013a) derived the stress drop for the velocity-cutoff model as

$$\Delta \tau_{p-r} = b\sigma \left[ \ln \left( \frac{v_c \theta_i/2}{D_c} + 1 \right) - \ln \left( \frac{v_c}{v_{max}/2} + 1 \right) \right].$$
(B3)

461 Thus,  $K_c$  is given by

$$K_c = \sqrt{G'b\sigma D_c} \left[ \ln\left(\frac{v_c \theta_i/2}{D_c} + 1\right) - \ln\left(\frac{v_c}{v_{max}/2} + 1\right) \right].$$
(B4)

<sup>462</sup> To simplify, we use  $\theta_i = D_c/v_{pl}$ , which represents the creeping region, for  $K_c$  all along <sup>463</sup> the fault. This choice is made because K and  $K_c$  have a phase difference of about  $\pi/2$ , <sup>464</sup> with the second zero crossing frequently occurring within the creeping region (Figure 3). <sup>465</sup> Additionally, both the high and low- $\sigma$  regions undergo creeping following the first rup-<sup>466</sup> ture.

## 467 Open Research Section

We use MATLAB to plot figures. The results of our simulations (Figure 2, 5 and 7) and simulated SSE catalogs (Figure 4) are archived in Zenodo (Sun & Cattania, 2024).

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## Propagation of Slow Slip Events on Rough Faults: Clustering, Back Propagation, and Re-rupturing

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## 6 Key Points:

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- Slow slip events on a simulated rough fault exhibit clustering, a broad range of rupture lengths, and varying propagation velocities
  Fast back-propagating fronts arise from the interplay of strength heterogeneity, variable slip rate, and rate-strengthening friction
  A transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of slow slip event
  - A transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of slow slip events on a fractal fault

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## 13 Abstract

Seismic and geodetic observations show that slow slip events (SSEs) in subduction zones 14 can happen at all temporal and spatial scales and propagate at various velocities. Ob-15 servation of rapid tremor reversals (RTRs) indicates back-propagating fronts traveling 16 much faster than the main rupture front. Heterogeneity of fault properties, such as fault 17 roughness, is a ubiquitous feature often invoked to explain this complex behavior, but 18 how roughness affects SSEs is poorly understood. Here we use quasi-dynamic seismic cy-19 cle simulations to model SSEs on a rough fault, using normal stress perturbations as a 20 proxy for roughness and assuming rate-and-state friction, with strengthening behavior 21 at high slip rate. SSEs exhibit temporal clustering, large variations in rupture length and 22 propagation speed, and back-propagating fronts at different scales. We identify a mech-23 anism for back propagation: as ruptures propagate through low-normal stress regions, 24 a rapid increase in slip velocity combined with rate-strengthening friction induces stress 25 oscillations at the rupture tip, and the subsequent "delayed stress drop" induces secondary 26 back-propagating fronts. Moreover, on rough faults with fractal elevation profiles, the 27 transition from pulse to crack can also lead to the re-rupture of SSEs due to local vari-28 ations in the level of heterogeneity. Our study provides a possible mechanism for the com-29 plex evolution of SSEs inferred from geophysical observations and its link to fault rough-30 ness. 31

## <sup>32</sup> Plain Language Summary

Aseismic slow slip events (SSEs), which like earthquakes can accommodate plate 33 motions, are observed to happen intermittently, propagate backward, and travel at vary-34 ing speeds. The rough geometry of faults causes heterogeneous stress distribution, which 35 may be responsible for the complex slip behaviors. Here we use computer simulations 36 and analytical tools to study the propagation of SSEs on rough faults. We find more small 37 SSEs, occurring in short bursts, on a rougher fault. We also reproduce faster back-propagating 38 streaks in simulations, analogous to seismological observations. On a fractal fault, rup-39 tures can transition between slip modes (from inchworm-like to zipper-like) which fur-40 ther induces re-rupturing when propagating from high to low roughness areas. Our study 41 helps quantify the effect of fault roughness and further understand underlying mechan-42 ics. 43

## 44 **1** Introduction

Slow slip events are aseismic fault slip transients with a slip rate of about 1-10045 mm/day (Wech & Bartlow, 2014; Hawthorne et al., 2016; Bletery et al., 2017; Frank et 46 al., 2018; Bletery & Nocquet, 2020). Slow slip events (SSEs) and non-volcanic tremors 47 have been observed worldwide in subduction zones, such as Cascadia, Nankai, and Hiku-48 rangi (Rogers & Dragert, 2003; Obara et al., 2004; Wallace, 2020). Several candidate mech-49 anisms for slow slip events have been proposed, such as localized regions of lower nor-50 mal stress (Liu & Rice, 2005, 2007; Rubin, 2008), fault gouge dilatancy (Segall & Rice, 51 1995; Segall et al., 2010), a transition to velocity-strengthening at a high slip rate (Hawthorne 52 & Rubin, 2013a; Im et al., 2020), and frictional fault embedded within a viscous shear 53 zone (Lavier et al., 2013; Yin et al., 2018; Behr et al., 2021). 54

Slow slip events exhibit remarkable spatio-temporal complexity. Frank (2016) and 55 Frank et al. (2018) reveal smaller SSEs hidden within the interseismic periods and large 56 events, respectively (also see Rousset et al. (2019)). They also find SSEs are clustered, 57 similar to a cascade of aftershocks following the mainshock (Jolivet & Frank, 2020). Jolivet 58 et al. (2015) and Hawthorne and Bartlow (2018) suggest that the moment of SSEs fol-59 lows a power law distribution, which resembles Gutenberg-Richter law. The rupture style 60 of SSEs, and the magnitude-duration scaling, are still subjects to debate. SSEs from dif-61 ferent regions show a linear moment-duration scaling (Peng & Gomberg, 2010; Gao et 62

al., 2012), associated with pulse-like rupture along an elongated fault (as inferred by Bartlow

et al. (2011) and Radiguet et al. (2011)). On the other hand, events from a single region

<sup>65</sup> follow a duration-cubed scaling like earthquakes (Michel et al., 2019), reminiscent of crack-

66 like propagation.

With advances in seismic and geodetic observations, uncommon slow slip behav-67 iors have been identified, and propagation velocities have been better measured. Wech 68 and Bartlow (2014) use GPS measurement and locations of tremors to find that SSEs 69 can rupture the same region again with a gap of about 3 weeks by bifurcating into bi-70 71 lateral propagation fronts in Cascadia. Yamashita et al. (2015) observe a re-rupturing event represented by migrating tremors several days after the first event in the Nankai 72 subduction zone. Houston et al. (2011) and Obara et al. (2012) observed even faster back-73 propagating streaks represented by rapid tremor reversals (RTRs) in the Cascadia, and 74 Nankai subduction zones, which have also been confirmed with borehole strainmeters (Hawthorne 75 et al., 2016) and analysis of low-frequency earthquakes (Bletery et al., 2017). 76

These complex slip patterns are likely a manifestation of frictional behavior, fault 77 heterogeneity, or the interplay between the two. As such, they offer an opportunity to 78 understand the underlying physical mechanism for slow slip events and constrain fault 79 properties in the environment of SSEs. Previous models incorporating heterogeneity typ-80 ically assume spatial variations in frictional properties: velocity weakening (VW) asper-81 ities embedded in a velocity strengthening (VS) fault, producing localized stick-slip be-82 havior on a creeping fault (e.g., Luo and Liu (2021)). Other studies employ a velocity-83 cutoff model with a transition from velocity weakening to velocity strengthening behav-84 ior with increasing slip rate and introduce heterogeneity by varying the cutoff-velocity 85 (Peng & Rubin, 2018). While the existence of mixed-mode behavior at depths correspond-86 ing to SSEs is supported by observations (Behr & Bürgmann, 2021; Kirkpatrick et al., 87 2021), their spatial distribution is not well constrained, and modeling studies have ap-88 proximated them by placing asperities at random locations, or on a grid (Peng & Ru-89 bin, 2018; Luo & Ampuero, 2018). Additionally, several mechanisms have been proposed 90 to explain back propagation and rapid tremor reversals, such as tidal modulation (Hawthorne 91 & Rubin, 2013b), fluid pressure wave (Cruz-Atienza et al., 2018; Yin, 2018), fault het-92 erogeneity (Luo & Ampuero, 2018; Luo & Liu, 2021), and fault damage zone (Idini & 93 Ampuero, 2020). 94

Fault roughness represents a ubiquitous and well-characterized source of hetero-95 geneity, and like other heterogeneities described above, it can modulate fault stability 96 (Cattania & Segall, 2021). The migrations of tremors in the Nankai subduction zone ex-97 hibit spatial variations of predominant directions (either along strike or dip), as shown 98 in Sagae et al. (2023). This implies that structural heterogeneities, like fault roughness, 99 play a significant role due to their known anisotropic properties (Renard & Candela, 2017), 100 rather than just material differences. Furthermore, it is well established that fault rough-101 ness controls the spatial distribution of fault normal stresses (Fang & Dunham, 2013; 102 Romanet et al., 2020; Cattania & Segall, 2021), and the effect of normal stress pertur-103 bations depends on the ratio of normal stress perturbations to background effective nor-104 mal stress. Due to the low normal stress conditions associated with SSEs, the change 105 of normal stress due to fault roughness may play an important role in controlling their 106 behavior, making them an ideal setting in which to study the effect of heterogeneity on 107 fault slip patterns. In this study, we seek to determine the effect of fault roughness on 108 the complex rupture behaviors during SSEs. We use numerical simulations and fracture 109 mechanics to address the following question: Can fault roughness explain the spatio-temporal 110 variety of SSE behavior, back propagation, and re-rupture? 111

After introducing the modeling framework (Section 2), we consider the simple case of sinusoidal perturbations in normal stress (Section 3.1) and show that heterogeneity with small wavelength and large amplitudes favors complex slip behaviors including a variety of rupture dimension, clustering, and forward and backward, fast and slow prop-



Figure 1. (a) Model geometry. (b) The steady-state friction coefficient of the original rateand-state friction (dashed line) and velocity cutoff model (solid line, Equation 2). (c) An example of normalized elevation of a rough fault y/L (blue) and perturbation of the normal stress per slip  $\Delta\sigma L/G'S$  (red) obtained from Equation 4.

agation. Furthermore, we introduce an analytical tool based on fracture mechanics to 116 explain why SSEs arrest or propagate on a fault with variable normal stress. In Section 3.2, 117 we discuss a possible mechanism to generate fast-moving back-propagating fronts: a de-118 layed stress drop induced by the coupling between normal stress heterogeneity and fric-119 tion. Finally, in Section 3.3 we consider a fractal fault, and demonstrate that its irreg-120 ular distribution of normal stresses produces dynamics that are not captured by the si-121 nusoidal model. In particular, we demonstrate SSE re-rupturing can be induced by a tran-122 sition between the pulse to crack-like rupture, as the rupture propagates through regions 123 of variable local roughness amplitude. 124

### 125 2 Models

We use the 2D quasi-dynamic boundary element model FDRA (Segall & Bradley, 126 2012) to simulate SSE cycles on a rough fault. We include normal stress perturbations 127 as proxies for roughness due to its lower computation cost. The evolution of normal stress 128 and fault geometry is not considered in this study. Thus, our simulations can be thought 129 as freeze-frame in the tectonic time scale. This simplification is justified because normal 130 stress perturbations grow linearly with slip, and a single SSE only increases the total slip 131 by a small fraction, so that normal stress perturbations do not change significantly dur-132 ing several cycles. 133

The model consists of an in-plane fault (mode II) in full space with velocity boundary conditions of tectonic loading rate  $v_{pl}$  and 0 at A and C, respectively (Figure 1a; Table 1), representing the region between the locked seismogenic zone and steady creep, where deep SSEs have been observed (Obara et al., 2004; Rogers & Dragert, 2003; Lay et al., 2012). The fault is composed of a shallow seismogenic (velocity-weakening) region, BC, and a deep creeping (velocity-strengthening) region, AB. Fault slip is governed by:

$$\tau_{el} = \tau_f + \frac{G}{2c_s}v,\tag{1}$$

where  $\tau_{el}$  is the shear stress due to remote loading and interaction between elements,  $\tau_f$ is the frictional resistance, and  $\frac{G}{2c_s}v$  is the radiation damping term with shear wave velocity  $c_s$  and shear modulus G (Rice, 1993). Slow slip events on a velocity weakening fault require a stabilizing mechanism, such a reduction in pore pressure due to slip-induced

parameter	value
fault length L	2.5 or 10 km
tectonic loading rate $v_{pl}$	$1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m/s}$
shear modulus $G$	$3 \times 10^{10}$ Pa
Poisson's ratio $\nu$	0.25
S wave velocity $c_s$	$3.7 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}$
friction coefficient $\mu_0$	0.6
reference slip rate $v^*$	$1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$
cut-off slip rate $v_c$	$1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$
slip rate $v_{\tau-min}$ with minimum steady-state friction	$3.33 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m/s}$
friction parameter $a$ for velocity-weakening region	0.015
friction parameter $a$ for velocity-strengthening region	0.025
friction parameter b	0.02
characteristic slip distance $D_c$	$4 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{m}$
average normal stress $\sigma_0$	$2 \mathrm{MPa}$
amplitude-to-wavelength ratio $\alpha_r$	0.001
Hurst exponent $H$	0.7

 Table 1.
 Model parameters

dilatancy (Segall & Rice, 1995) or a transition to velocity strengthening friction with increasing slip velocity, demonstrated in laboratory experiments (Saffer et al., 2001; Ikari
& Saffer, 2011). Here we assume the latter mechanism and employ the velocity-cutoff
model introduced by Hawthorne and Rubin (2013a). Frictional resistance is given by:

$$\tau_f = \left[\mu_1 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln \left(\frac{\theta v_c}{D_c} + 1\right)\right] \sigma,\tag{2}$$

where  $\sigma, \mu_1, v, v^*, \theta, D_c$  and  $v_c$  represent normal stress, reference frictional coefficient, slip rate, reference slip rate, state variable, characteristic slip distance, and cutoff velocity, respectively. *a* and *b* are the coefficients for instant and evolution effects. State evolution is governed by the aging law (Ruina, 1983) as:

$$\dot{\theta} = 1 - \frac{\theta v}{D_c}.\tag{3}$$

In contrast, the original rate-and-state friction is  $\mu = \mu_0 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln \frac{\theta v^*}{D_c}$ . To match two frictional laws at low slip rate, we set  $\mu_1$  as  $\mu_0 + b \ln \frac{v^*}{v_c}$  (Equation 2). As shown in Figure 1b, the steady-state friction  $\mu_{ss} = \mu_1 + a \ln \frac{v}{v^*} + b \ln(\frac{v^*}{v} + 1)$  decreases to a minimum when v reaches  $v_{\tau-min} = \frac{b-a}{a}v_c$ , and then increases with increasing slip rate, so that slip instability initiates at  $v < v_{\tau-min}$  and does not accelerate into an earthquake (Figure 1b).

The friction parameters  $a, b, D_c$  and average normal stress  $\sigma_0$  we use are shown in 158 Table 1 and consistent with previous studies (Marone, 1998; Liu & Rice, 2007; Audet 159 & Kim, 2016). The mean normal stress  $\sigma_0$  used in the simulations is 2 MPa, which makes 160 the stress drop  $\Delta \tau_{drop}$  about 0.1 MPa, within the range of 0.01 to 1 MPa, consistent with 161 those inferred by Gao et al. (2012). We impose a perturbation of normal stress, which 162 163 mimics the stress heterogeneity on a rough fault with a constant wavelength or a fractal distribution (e.g. Figure 1c). We refer to patches of elevated normal stress as asper-164 ities throughout the paper. We set the minimum grid spacing to  $\frac{1}{2.5}$  of the smallest co-165 hesive zone size  $L_c$  to adequately resolve the stress field across the crack tip (Erickson et al., 2023). The size of cohesive zone  $L_c$  is estimated as  $1.377 \frac{G'D_c}{b\sigma_{max}}$  (Rubin & Ampuero, 2005), where  $\sigma_{max}$  and G' are the maximum normal stress and  $\frac{G}{1-\nu}$ , respectively. 166 167 168

We use synthetic fractal fault profiles, comparable to natural faults. Faults are cor-169 rugated at all scales, and the distribution is self-affine with a Hurst exponent H between 170 0.4 - 0.8 (W. Power et al., 1987; Candela et al., 2012; Brodsky et al., 2016; Renard & 171 Candela, 2017). The fractal fault topography has a power spectrum  $P^2$  proportional to 172  $(2\pi\lambda)^{-2H-1}$ , where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength, and the root-mean-square elevation is given by 173  $y_{RMS} = \alpha_r \lambda_{max}^H$ , where  $\alpha_r$  is the amplitude-to-wavelength ratio and  $\lambda_{max}$  is the max-174 imum wavelength. For instance, Figure 1c shows a fractal fault with a normalized wave-175 length  $\lambda/L$  from 0.01 to 1 and  $\alpha_r = 0.001$ . We use the following analytical expressions 176 to relate normal stress perturbations to fault topography (Fang & Dunham, 2013; Cat-177 tania & Segall, 2021): 178

$$\Delta\sigma(x) = \frac{G'S}{2} \mathscr{H}(y'') = \frac{G'S}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{y''(\xi)}{x - \xi} d\xi, \qquad (4)$$

where S is the total slip, and additional shear stress is given by  $\Delta \tau(x) = \frac{G'S}{2} y' \mathscr{H}(y'')$ , 179 where  $\mathscr{H}(y'')$  is the Hilbert transform of the second derivative of the elevation ampli-180 tude y, and S is the accumulated slip. This formula describes  $\Delta\sigma$  increases linearly with 181 S in the elastic regime and does not apply when S is large enough to cause plastic de-182 formation or fracturing. The corrugation perturbs the normal stress and shear stress lo-183 cally at the scale of the smallest wavelength  $\lambda_{min}$  (Fang & Dunham, 2013; Romanet et 184 al., 2020; Cattania & Segall, 2021). The root-mean-square (RMS) of normal stress per-185 turbation is  $\Delta \sigma_{RMS} = (2\pi)^2 \alpha_r \sqrt{\frac{H}{2-H}} \frac{G'S}{2} \lambda_{min}^{H-2}$ . While the mean of  $\Delta \tau$  is  $\Delta \tau_{mean} = 0.000 \, \mathrm{G}^{1/2}$ 186  $(2\pi)^3 \alpha_r^2 \frac{2H}{3-2H} \frac{G'S}{2} \lambda_{min}^{2H-3}$ , which is proportional to  $\alpha_r^2$  while  $\Delta \sigma_{RMS}$  is proportional to  $\alpha_r$ . 187 The amplitude-to-wavelength ratio  $\alpha_r$  of natural faults is about  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-2}$  (W. L. Power 188 & Tullis, 1991). Therefore, we only consider the roughness-induced normal stress per-189 turbation  $\Delta\sigma$  but not the shear stress  $\Delta\tau$  because it is much smaller than  $\Delta\sigma$ . We use 190 a slip rate threshold to identify SSEs and to estimate propagation velocities for individ-191 ual ruptures and cascading clusters (more detail is provided in section Appendix A). 192

## 193 **3 Results**

To obtain insight into how roughness affects slow slip behavior, we first explore the simple case of sinusoidal perturbations with varying wavelengths and amplitudes; in Section 3.3 we consider the more realistic case of normal stresses induced by slip on a fractal fault.

### 198

## 3.1 Variety of slip behavior on a sinusoidal rough fault

We consider a rough fault with a sinusoidal normal stress distribution with a magnitude given by

$$\sigma(x) = \sigma_0 + \sigma_A \cos \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda}.$$
(5)

Simulations exhibit a range of SSE behaviors, varying with both wavelength  $\lambda$  and amplitude of the normal stress perturbation  $\sigma_A$ . Figure 2 shows a slip behavior as a function of  $\lambda$  and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ . To better highlight differences between simulations, we plot accumulated slip normalized by the theoretical slip profile or a crack driven by end-point displacement (in this case provided by deep creep), given by Rubin (2008):

$$S(x,t) = \frac{S(L,t)}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \arcsin\frac{x-L/2}{L/2}\right),\tag{6}$$

where L, x, and t are the fault length, the location on the fault, and time. We choose a 2.5 km-long flat fault that is a few times larger than the nucleation length, so that it only has full ruptures in the homogeneous- $\sigma$  case (see Cattania (2019)), as shown in Figure 2a and 2b. In this case, full ruptures are well approximated as a constant stress drop crack (Figure 2a), with an elliptical slip profile (Eshelby, 1957). Cases with low  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ 



Figure 2. Effect of sinusoidal normal stress perturbations on rupture style. (a) normalized slips with uniform  $\sigma$ . Normalized slip equals slip s divided by  $\frac{\pi}{2} + \arcsin \frac{x - W/2}{W/2}$ . (d-i) Normalized slip profiles as a function of wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) and perturbation amplitude ( $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ ). (b) and (c) show the slip rate for each time step for cases (a) and (f), respectively.



Figure 3. Stress intensity factor K (solid line) and local toughness  $K_c$  (dashed line) for the constant (a) and perturbed (b) normal stress. The slip will arrest at l = 280 m. (c) Number of zero crossings of  $K - K_c$  and percentage of small SSEs in simulations with varying normalized wavelength  $\lambda/L_{\infty}$  and amplitude-to-constant ratio  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0$ . The red contouring line represents the threshold for arresting (3 zero crossings). Colors of circles and crosses represent the percentage of events smaller than  $2\lambda$  in the simulations with a 2.5 km-long fault (circle: > 0.75; cross: < 0.75).

and long wavelength exhibit crack-like ruptures and partial ruptures (Figure 2d, 2g and 211 2h), whereas with the increase of wavenumber and perturbation amplitude  $\sigma_A$ , there are 212 more pulse-like ruptures composed of localized slip pockets and an overall flat slip pro-213 file (Figure 2f). A similar transition from crack to pulse-like rupture due to fault rough-214 ness was observed by Heimisson (2020), and interpreted as a consequence of additional 215 shear resistance from fault roughness (roughness drag; Fang and Dunham (2013)). Our 216 results indicate that pulse-like rupture can still occur exclusively as a result of a pertur-217 bation in normal stress. Each cluster ruptures the whole velocity-weakening region in-218 termittently, and it ruptures more than once in some regions (Figure 2c and 2f). Note 219 that these partial ruptures are often nucleated at a high- $\sigma$  region and arrested by the 220 high- $\sigma$  regions nearby (Figure 2f and 2i), which have a higher local fracture energy, as 221 discussed below. 222

### 223

## 3.1.1 Rupture arrest with variable normal stress

To get more insight into rupture arrest, we use a fracture mechanics criterion accounting for heterogeneity. Rupture propagation is controlled by the criterion:  $K = K_c$ , where K and  $K_c$  are stress intensity factor and local toughness, respectively (Griffith, 1921; Irwin, 1957). Normal stress heterogeneity affects both these terms: enhanced compression at the crack tip increases the local toughness  $K_c$ , thus favoring rupture arrest; however, it also increases the stress drop and hence K, which promotes rupture propagation. Analytical calculations are described in Appendix B.

Figure 3a and b illustrate examples of K and  $K_c$  distributions for constant and per-231 turbed normal stress. The zero crossing of  $K - K_c$  of a smooth fault (red) is located 232 at about  $l \approx 250$  m, which is similar to the nucleation half length  $L_{\infty} = \frac{G' b D_c}{\pi (b-a)^2 \sigma}$ . As 233 the crack reaches the nucleation dimension, it will grow unstable and propagate indef-234 initely as long as the stress drop remains uniform. However,  $K - K_c$  has 3 zero cross-235 ings for the case with perturbed normal stress (blue). The SSE is likely to nucleate at 236 the first zero crossing  $(l \approx 200 \text{ m})$  and arrest at the second zero crossing  $(l \approx 280 \text{ m})$ 237 because it cannot penetrate the high- $\sigma$  region  $(l \approx 280 - 330 \text{ m})$  where  $K < K_c$ . 238



Figure 4. Effect of perturbation amplitude on SSE catalogs. Rupture lengths (a, b, c) and interevent times (d, e, f) with increasing sinusoidal  $\sigma$  perturbation on a 10 km-long fault ( $\lambda = 0.33$  km). SSEs are outlined by a threshold of  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m/s. Events that are closer than the duration of full ruptures are merged as one.

Figure 3c shows the conditions under which SSEs might arrest according to this 239 analysis. Figure 3c excludes the perturbed wavelength shorter than the cohesive zone  $(1.377L_b \approx 55 \text{ m})$ , with  $L_b = \frac{G'D_c}{b\sigma}$  (Rubin & Ampuero, 2005; Ampuero & Rubin, 2008), 240 241 because local toughness  $K_c$  cannot be calculated as Equation B4 due to the varying nor-242 mal stress in the cohesive zone. If  $K - K_c$  has more than three zero crossings in Fig-243 ure 3b, the SSEs tend to stop at the high-normal-stress region and propagate like a pulse 244 discontinuously. Therefore, the parameter space for arresting is below the white curve, 245 while the black area indicates that ruptures will not arrest. For the same wavelength  $\lambda$ , 246 SSEs are more likely to arrest if the normal stress perturbation is larger. The range of 247 wavelength promoting rupture arrest is narrow for smaller normal stress perturbations. 248 We also compare our analytical model with the percentage of SSEs smaller than  $2\lambda$  in 249 the simulations (several cases are shown in Figure 2) since there are more small SSEs 250 if arresting happens more frequently. The cross indicates that most SSEs (> 75%) are 251 small, while the circle indicates fewer small ruptures (< 75%). To first order, the dis-252 tribution of crosses and circles shows a Z-shaped boundary and our model aligns with 253 simulations. This analysis demonstrates that the strong spatial variations of both local 254 toughness  $K_c$  and stress intensity factor K of potential ruptures along the rough fault 255 can account for the breakdown of a single large SSE into multiple smaller SSEs. 256



Figure 5. Evolution of SSE cycles (a), consisting of pre-slips plus full rupture (b), full rupture with back-propagating fronts (c) and clustered subevents (d) and normal stress distribution with  $\lambda = 0.33$  km and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.5$ . The fitting lines for updip and downdip propagation are in light blue and pink respectively and the corresponding velocity is noted beside (unit: m/s). The threshold slip rate for outlining events is  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  m/s.

## 3.1.2 Temporal statistics and size distribution

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The SSE catalogs simulated on a fault with higher roughness show more random-258 ness and clustering (Figure 4). Figure 4a and d exhibit stable SSE cycles consisting of 259 a full rupture and a partial rupture on a 10 km-long flat fault. However, for the rough 260 fault, Figure 4b and c shows a larger number of SSEs with increasing amplitude of  $\sigma$  per-261 turbations, consistent with the analysis in the previous section. The SSE interevent time 262 catalog for the case with  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.5$  shows two groups of intervals of about 100 days 263 and 1 hour (Figure 4b), corresponding to the time between full rupture and subsequent 264 cluster, and the time between subevents within pre-slip and subsequent clusters, respec-265 tively. However, the case with a higher  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.96$  exhibits more continuously dis-266 tributed intervals spanning four orders of magnitude, from 10 minutes to 100 days (Fig-267 ure 4c), with temporal clustering around the largest events. More small SSEs also ap-268 pear on faults with higher roughness (Figure 4e and 4f). A cluster of small events can 269 cause less uniform background stress, so the rupture length and time for the next event 270 are less predictable. This result is similar to the observations showing that a large SSE 271 can be decomposed into a cluster of smaller events (Jolivet et al., 2015; Frank, 2016; Frank 272 et al., 2018; Rousset et al., 2019; Jolivet & Frank, 2020). 273

## 274 3.1.3 Rupture velocities

Fault roughness also promotes a range of propagation directions and velocities. Fig-275 ure 5a shows that one SSE cycle on a rough fault is composed of a cluster of pre-slips 276 (Figure 5b), full rupture (Figure 5c) and clustered subevents (Figure 5d). The dimen-277 sion of subevents is one to several wavelengths, and they are confined by asperities. The 278 clusters usually start from the boundary of the seismogenic and creeping regions and gen-279 erally propagate undip intermittently, but sometimes propagate downdip (Figure 5b and 280 5d). Full ruptures usually nucleate at the end of the cluster of pre-slips (Figure 5b). The 281 updip and downdip propagations of full ruptures exhibit similar velocities: 0.18 and 0.25 m/s (15.5 and 21.6 km/day). However, the propagation velocities of the pre-slip clus-283 ter and the subsequent events are smaller than that of the full rupture by a factor of 5-284 10. This smaller velocity can be explained by the lower state variable  $\theta$ : in the cluster 285 of pre-slips and subsequent events, the event in the front is not triggered immediately 286 because it is still below steady-state after the stress change. 287

288

## 3.2 Back propagating fronts

A common feature in rough fault simulations is the occurrence of fast back-propagating fronts within a full rupture (Figure 5c). Their propagation velocity is 3–7 times higher than the forward propagation. These secondary ruptures may be analogous to rapid tremor reversals (Houston et al., 2011) or fast streaks observed along dip (Shelly et al., 2007; Ghosh et al., 2010).

To understand the origin of back-propagating fronts, in Fig. 6 we compare the evo-294 lution of stress and slip velocities on flat and rough faults. On a smooth fault, the crack 295 tip stress and velocity profiles are simply translated as the rupture propagates, and a con-296 stant stress drop within the rupture drives the crack at constant velocity (Figure 6a). 297 On the other hand, propagation along rough faults induces large fluctuations in slip ve-298 locity and stress drop: the missing piece of the puzzle is a temporary positive stress change 200  $\Delta \tau$  behind the crack tip, that enables ruptured asperities to break again and trigger a 300 secondary slip front. We use the term "delayed stress drop" to describe this mechanism 301 for back-propagating fronts on rough faults, which can be understood in the framework 302 of rate-and-state friction law and velocity-cutoff model. In the case of forward propa-303 gation at the crack-tip, the slip rate in the low- $\sigma$  region is significantly higher than that 304 in the high- $\sigma$  region (Figure 6d). When the rupture front passes the low- $\sigma$  region, the 305 slip rate on the asperity behind is also elevated to a similar level as the low- $\sigma$  region (pro-306 file 3 in Figure 6d), which causes the shear stress to increase due to velocity-strengthening 307 behavior at higher slip rate (Figure 1b, profile 3 in Figure 6c). As the rupture propa-308 gates into high  $\sigma$  regions, the slip velocity and stress decrease, as shown by the differ-309 ence between stress profiles 4 and 3 (solid black line in Figure 6c). This delayed stress 310 drop causes a stress increase on the asperities behind ( $x \approx 800 \text{ m}$  and  $x \approx 1300 \text{ m}$ ), 311 and hence induce secondary back propagation in its wave. 312

313

## 3.3 Pulse-to-crack transition and re-rupture on fractal faults

On a fractal fault, heterogeneity varies more randomly than in the sinusoidal cases 314 presented above: since the local amplitude and (to a lesser extent) frequency content varies 315 spatially, the slip regimes displayed in Figure 2 can all coexist on a single fault surface, 316 and slip front propagation across these different regimes generates additional complex-317 ity. Figure 7 shows a case with a fractal rough fault with wavelength  $\lambda$  between 0.125 318 and 10 km and Hurst exponent H = 0.7. Within a single full rupture (about one day 319 long), there are two kinds of rupture behaviors, first pulse-like and then crack-like. Ad-320 ditionally, some even faster "streaks" propagate backward in the simulations, analogous 321 to be behavior discussed in section 3.2. 322



Figure 6. Stress change and slip rate profile along a flat fault (a and b) or fault with sinusoidal normal stress (c and d;  $\lambda = 0.5$  km and  $\sigma_A/\sigma_0 = 0.71$ ) when the rupture propagates from right to left. Colored lines represent profiles when the crack tips are at the extrema and mean of  $\sigma$  (c and d; coded by 1 to 5). The black line in (c) represents the difference between stress profiles 4 and 3. The dashed line represents the stress change after an event.



Figure 7. Slip behaviors on a fractal fault. (a) Slip rate across two SSE cycles. (b) Top: normalized slip along the fault during several SSE cycles, (cumulative slip divided by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  + arcsin  $\frac{x-W/2}{W/2}$ ). The black lines represent interseismic slip with an interval of around 10 days. Red lines are plotted with an interval of 0.25 hour when the maximum slip rate is larger than  $v_{pl}$ . Bottom: distribution of the normal stress obtained from Equation 4 with S = 55 mm. The grey box denotes where the pulse-to-crack transition happens.



**Figure 8.** Normalized slip and normal stress for "walnut" case (a) and "hourglass" (b). (a) Re-rupture within a full-rupture event which propagates from high to low roughness regions. (b) SSEs propagating as a pulse from low to high roughness regions without re-rupture.

In Figure 7, pulse-like ruptures are usually clusters of small sub-events and propagate slowly, while crack-like ones are single extensive events and propagate much faster. As shown in section 3.1 and Figure 2, the amplitude of normal stress perturbations determines whether a rupture propagates as a crack or a pulse. Therefore, we proposed that the transition from pulse to crack is caused by spatial variations of normal stress: higher amplitudes of normal stress perturbations favor pulse-like ruptures, so pulse-to-crack transitions can take place as rupture propagates into regions with lower local roughness.

To test this, we compare two end-member cases of a "walnut" and an "hourglass" 330 normal stress perturbation (Figure 8) to study how the local amplitude of the pertur-331 bation affects rupture propagation. We construct the normal stress perturbation with 332 two sinusoidal functions of similar wavelengths, 0.179  $\left(\frac{2.5}{14}\right)$  and 0.167  $\left(\frac{2.5}{15}\right)$  km, with a group wavelength of 2.5 km. We find that day-long single events exhibit the pulse-to-333 334 crack transition and re-rupture in the "walnut" case (Figure 8a), in which the SSE prop-335 agates from high roughness to low roughness areas. Ruptures initiate as pulses in the 336 region with a larger perturbation amplitude ( $x \approx 1.25$  km) and evolve into cracks in 337 the region with nearly constant normal stress ( $x \approx 0$  km). We interpret this as caused 338 by the deficit between crack and pulse-like slip profiles, a mechanism that was previously 339 identified by Idini and Ampuero (2020) for faults surrounded by a damage zone. In prin-340 ciple, the slip deficit could also be filled with subsequent small SSEs as shown in Fig-341 ure 8b. We suggest that it is also easier for the re-rupture to penetrate the lower-roughness 342 region  $(x \approx 0 \text{ km})$  due to absence of strong asperities, so that a single full rupture is 343 favored. In contrast, ruptures remain pulse-like when propagating from the low into the 344 high roughness region in the "hourglass" case (Figure 8b), which usually last on the or-345 der of 10 days. The presence of high normal stress (asperities) in the high roughness re-346 gion  $(x \approx 0 \text{ km})$  also prevents this area from re-rupturing in a single events, as Figure 347 8a. 348

## 349 4 Discussion

In this study, we analyze how heterogeneous normal stress induced by fault roughness produces rich slip behavior during slow slip events. We reproduce SSEs with a range of rupture lengths on rough faults in the simulations, which is consistent with geodetic observations that show a power-law distribution of the sizes of slip bursts on a rough fault (Jolivet et al., 2015; Hawthorne & Bartlow, 2018), and is similar to an emerging cascade of slow slips and foreshocks on rough faults from numerical simulations (Cattania & Segall,
2021). Our simulations also exhibit clustering behaviors that a long-period SSE can be
decomposed into several short subevents, which is analogous to the observations such
as Frank et al. (2018) and Rousset et al. (2019). We suggest that fault roughness, a universal characteristic in nature, can explain many complex dynamics of SSEs. This complexity can be simply understood within the context of linear elastic fracture mechanics.

Simulations show complex rupture behaviors on rough faults, including forward and 362 back propagation at varying speeds, which differ from that on flat and frictionally uni-363 form faults. We observe strongly-varying slip rates when the rupture front first passes 364 low and high normal stress regions, in contrast to roughly constant slip rate behind back-365 propagating fronts. The difference can be explained by initial conditions (state variable 366 and slip rate), which are strongly heterogeneous ahead of the rupture front, and more 367 uniform within the rupture itself. Together with a velocity-cutoff model, this varying crack-368 tip slip rate can also induce a delayed stress drop on the asperity behind, which causes 369 back propagation. 370

Observations indicate that only certain areas experience repeated RTRs with sim-371 ilar directions, and the propagation velocity differs across locations (Sagae et al., 2023). 372 This points to spatial variations in roughness as a potential reason. Future studies can 373 use the distributions of RTRs, propagation velocity, and high-energy radiators (asper-374 ities) to test this hypothesis. Simulations that include a heterogeneous asperities-in-matrix 375 fault also produce back propagation (Luo & Liu, 2021; Peng & Rubin, 2018; Nie & Bar-376 bot, 2021). The presence of unstable patches embedded in a stable matrix will produce 377 variations in stress drops when ruptures cross patches with different frictional proper-378 ties, perhaps analogous to the "delayed stress drop" we observed here. Although our sim-379 ulations are limited to rate-state friction, the mechanism we identified may also apply 380 to other cases, as long as two conditions are met. The first is the presence of heteroge-381 neous fault properties (such as geometry or friction), capable of efficiently modulating 382 slip rate along the rupture front. The second is a rate-strengthening mechanism, oper-383 ating on a sufficiently short time scale to allow for fast restrengthening and subsequent 384 stress release upon deceleration, so that a back-propagating front can be triggered. Fur-385 ther studies are need to verify whether other stabilizing mechanisms, such as fault di-386 latancy (Segall & Rice, 1995), indeed produce similar behavior. 387

Our simulations show a wide range of propagation velocities. Specifically, the prop-388 agation velocity of clustering subevents, forward and back-propagating fronts are on the 389 order of 0.01, 0.1 and 1 m/s, respectively. SSEs generally travel at about 0.1 m/s; how-390 ever, certain SSEs in Japan and Mexico demonstrate a slower pace of about 0.01 m/s 391 (Gao et al., 2012). Back propagation velocities observed in nature are about 1-5 and 392 7 - 40 m/s for rapid tremor reversals and along-dip streaks, respectively (Houston et 393 al., 2011; Shelly et al., 2007; Ghosh et al., 2010). While our simulations accurately cap-394 ture the speeds of forward propagation, they seem to underestimate the back-propagating 395 ones. This implies that the friction parameters in nature are different from those used 396 in our model or that another unknown mechanism controls this process. We will address 397 this problem by exploring a broader region of parameter space and developing theoret-398 ical formulas in future studies. 399

In addition to back-propagating fronts, fractal faults exhibit sustained, large-scale 400 re-ruptures. We have identified a mechanism for this behavior, caused by the more ir-401 regular roughness distribution on a fractal fault compared to the sinusoidal case, which 402 403 can induce pulse-to-crack transitions. Furthermore, natural faults are more complex as the roughness varies spatially on the same surface indicated by the 3D seismic reflection 404 (Kirkpatrick et al., 2020) and Lidar observation (Candela et al., 2009). It is easier to in-405 duce re-rupture due to the transition from pulse to crack when SSEs propagate from high 406 roughness to low roughness region. Sagae et al. (2023) shows that the occurrence of sec-407

ondary tremor migrations depends on the directions of the primary rupture front. Our
mechanism is among the few that offer an explanation for this observation. The pulseto-crack transition mediated by roughness is not specific to slow slip, and it may be applied to a recently observed "boomerang earthquake", which propagates back through
the initial rupture area (Hicks et al., 2020; S. Yamashita et al., 2022).

## 413 **5** Conclusion

We find clustering of slow slip events, different rupture lengths, and varying prop-414 agation velocities on a rough fault in the simulations. SSEs tend to arrest and propa-415 gate intermittently, which generates a pulse-like slip profile when roughness is high, and 416 the amplitude of the normal stress perturbation is large. The secondary back propaga-417 tion can be induced by fault restrengthening followed by a delayed stress drop when the 418 rupture passes a low normal stress region. Finally, we find that the transition from pulse 419 to crack can lead to a large scale re-rupture and back propagation when SSEs propagate 420 421 from high to low roughness regions on a fractal fault.

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## <sup>426</sup> Appendix A Estimating propagation velocities

To calculate propagation velocity, we used two methods: one for a single event, and one for clusters of several events. The first method is to use a slip rate threshold to outline events and fit the rupture fronts linearly to calculate updip and downdip propagation velocity (e.g. full rupture in Figure 5b). We can also increase the threshold to delineate the back-propagating fronts and calculate their velocities. We may not capture all the back-propagating fronts using one threshold, so we use several thresholds and choose the most representative velocity by visual inspection.

Figure 2f also shows clusters of intermittent events that produce a "fish-scale" pat-434 tern with each event arresting on a high normal-stress patch. To estimate the propaga-435 tion velocity of these clusters, we first outline the subevents by a threshold near the cut-436 off velocity  $(1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s})$ . Then we identify clusters as groups of subevents with the 437 interevent time less than 3 days, which separates the two peaks of the bimodal inter-event 438 time distribution in Figure 4b. Finally, we use the uppermost/lowermost end of every 439 event to calculate the updip/downdip propagation velocity of the cluster (e.g. pre-slips 440 in Figure 5b and subsequent events in Figure 5d). 441

## 442 Appendix B Criterion for rupture propagation and arrest

In Figure 2, ruptures show pulse-like behavior and stop in high- $\sigma$  region because 443 the local toughness there is higher. Here we present a fracture mechanics analysis to ex-444 plain rupture propagation and arrest under heterogeneous normal stress. For simplic-445 ity, we neglect rupture arrest caused by gradients in the background stress field due to 446 loading from deep creep (Cattania, 2019). SSEs are mostly nucleated at peaks of nor-447 mal stress, so we consider a crack extending from the normal stress maximum at x =448 0 (eq. 5) to the crack tip at x = l to obtain stress intensity factor K (Tada et al., 1973) 449 as a function of the stress drop  $\Delta \tau$ : 450

$$K = \int_0^l \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\pi(l-x)}} \Delta \tau(x) dx = 2\sqrt{\frac{2l}{\pi}} \Delta \tau_0 + \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda}{\pi}} \Delta \tau_A \left[ C(2\sqrt{\frac{l}{\lambda}}) \cos\frac{2\pi l}{\lambda} + S(2\sqrt{\frac{l}{\lambda}}) \sin\frac{2\pi l}{\lambda} \right],$$
$$S(x) = \int_0^x \sin\frac{\pi t^2}{2} dt,$$

$$C(x) = \int_0^x \cos\frac{\pi t^2}{2} dt,$$
(B1)

where S(x) and C(x) are Fresnel integrals. In Equation B1,  $\Delta \tau$  is assumed proportional to normal stress (Equation 5), with  $\Delta \tau_0$  and  $\Delta \tau_A$  due to the constant and sinusoidal terms respectively. The stress drop equals the difference between the initial and minimum frictional stress as:

$$\Delta \tau_{0,A} = \sigma_{0,A} \left( -a \ln \frac{v_{\tau-min}}{v_i} + b \ln \frac{v_c \theta_i / D_c + 1}{v_c / v_{\tau-min} + 1} \right),$$
(B2)

where  $v_i$  and  $\theta_i$  are the initial slip rate and initial state variable, respectively. In simulations, the slip rate is  $v_i \approx v_{pl}$  in the nucleation zone and it is near steady state as  $v_i \theta_i / D_c = 1$ .

The local toughness  $K_c$  is calculated from the fracture energy  $G_c$  as  $G_c = \frac{K_c^2}{2G'} = \frac{D_c}{2b\sigma} (\Delta \tau_{p-r})^2$ , where  $\Delta \tau_{p-r}$  is the peak to residual stress drop. Hawthorne and Rubin (2013a) derived the stress drop for the velocity-cutoff model as

$$\Delta \tau_{p-r} = b\sigma \left[ \ln \left( \frac{v_c \theta_i / 2}{D_c} + 1 \right) - \ln \left( \frac{v_c}{v_{max} / 2} + 1 \right) \right].$$
(B3)

461 Thus,  $K_c$  is given by

$$K_c = \sqrt{G'b\sigma D_c} \left[ \ln\left(\frac{v_c \theta_i/2}{D_c} + 1\right) - \ln\left(\frac{v_c}{v_{max}/2} + 1\right) \right].$$
(B4)

<sup>462</sup> To simplify, we use  $\theta_i = D_c/v_{pl}$ , which represents the creeping region, for  $K_c$  all along <sup>463</sup> the fault. This choice is made because K and  $K_c$  have a phase difference of about  $\pi/2$ , <sup>464</sup> with the second zero crossing frequently occurring within the creeping region (Figure 3). <sup>465</sup> Additionally, both the high and low- $\sigma$  regions undergo creeping following the first rup-<sup>466</sup> ture.

## 467 Open Research Section

We use MATLAB to plot figures. The results of our simulations (Figure 2, 5 and 7) and simulated SSE catalogs (Figure 4) are archived in Zenodo (Sun & Cattania, 2024).

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