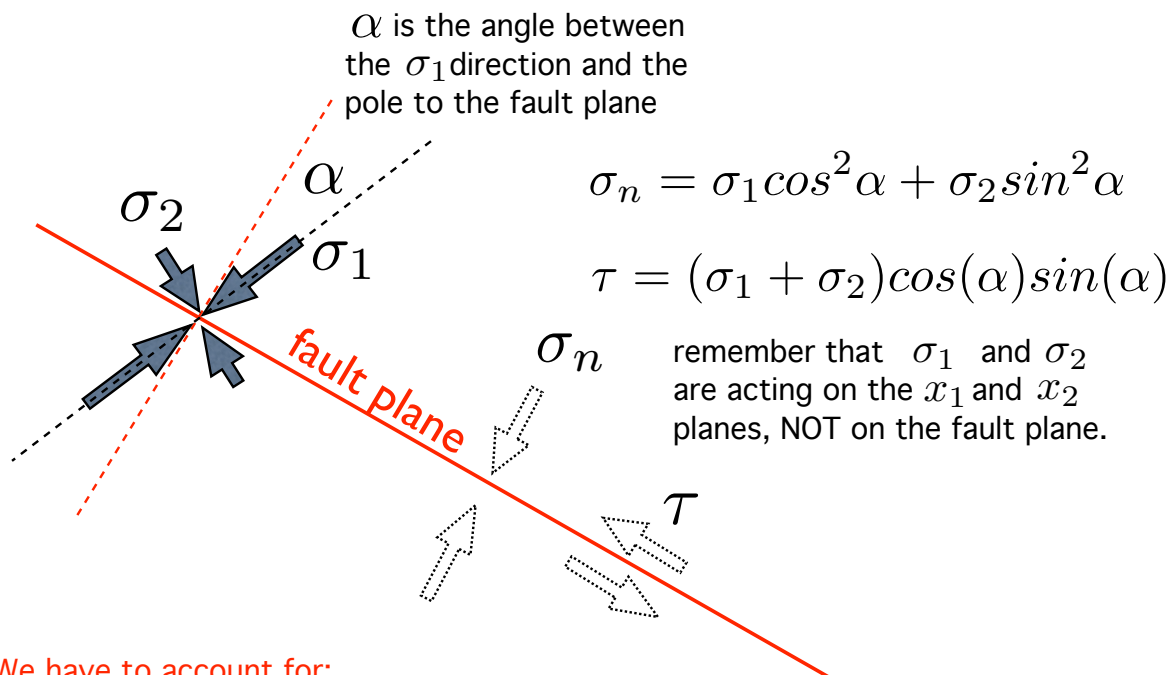


$$\tau = \mu_s \sigma_n$$

Byerlee's
Law
(1978)

rock type mostly
unimportant

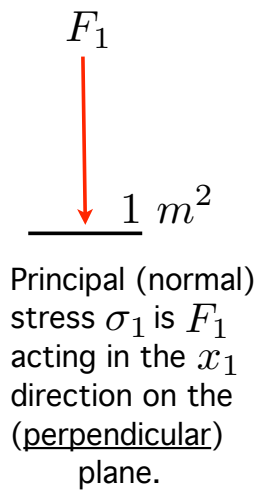
This works at T
less than
350-400° C



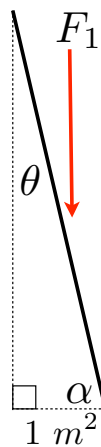
We have to account for:

- component of the force vector acting on the fault plane.
- corrected area of the fault plane.

First: compute traction = force per unit area for a particular plane of your choice (traction is a vector)



$$\sigma_1 = \frac{F_1}{1 \text{ m}^2}$$



Same F_1 as before but now applied to a much bigger area

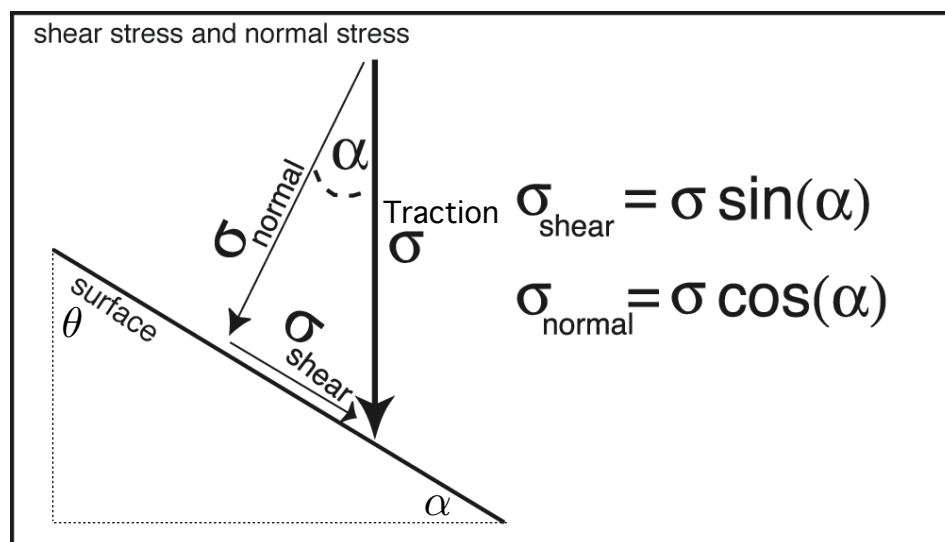
$$\sigma = \frac{F_1}{(1 \text{ m}^2 / \sin \theta)}$$

so for oblique planes, the tractions can be small (0 if the plane is parallel to the force vector)

$$\sigma = \sigma_1 \sin \theta$$

$$\sigma = \sigma_1 \cos \alpha$$

Next, we have to resolve this traction vector into plane-parallel (shear) and a plane-normal vectors.



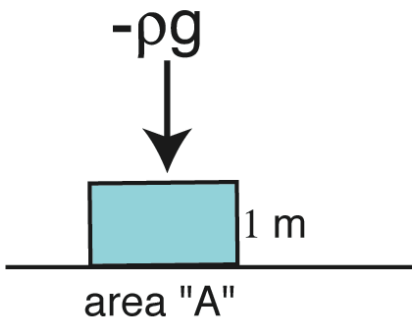
So if you are given principal stresses, these equations result:

$$\sigma_n = \sigma_1 \cos^2 \alpha + \sigma_2 \sin^2 \alpha$$

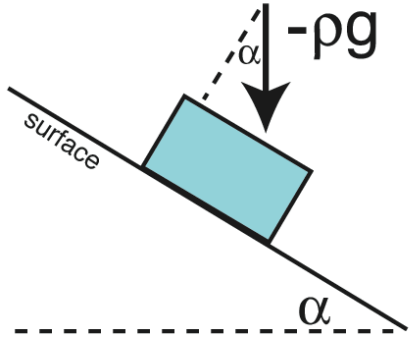
$$\tau = (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \cos(\alpha) \sin(\alpha)$$

Friction example (using tractions)

friction



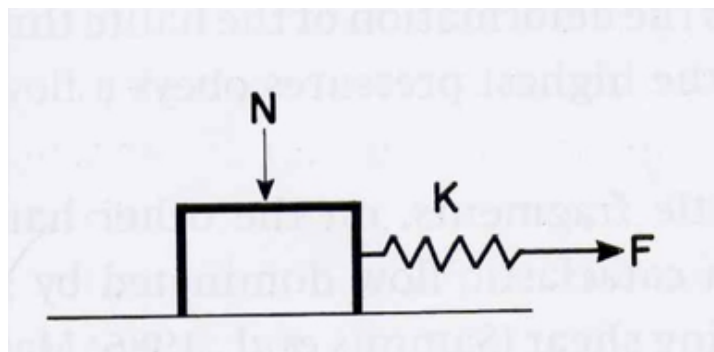
$F = -\rho \cdot V \cdot g$
 $\sigma = F/A = -\rho \cdot g \cdot 1$



shear stress =
normal stress =

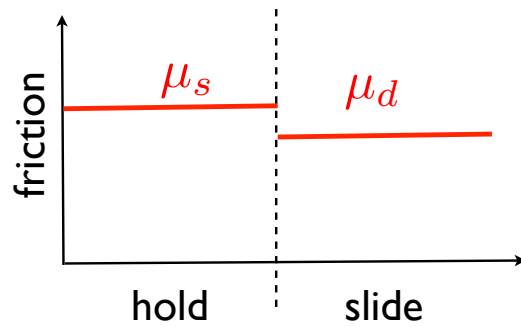
Sliding occurs if $\sigma_{\text{shear}} = \sigma_{\text{normal}} \cdot \mu$
 $\mu = \tan(\alpha)$

Block pulled along the floor

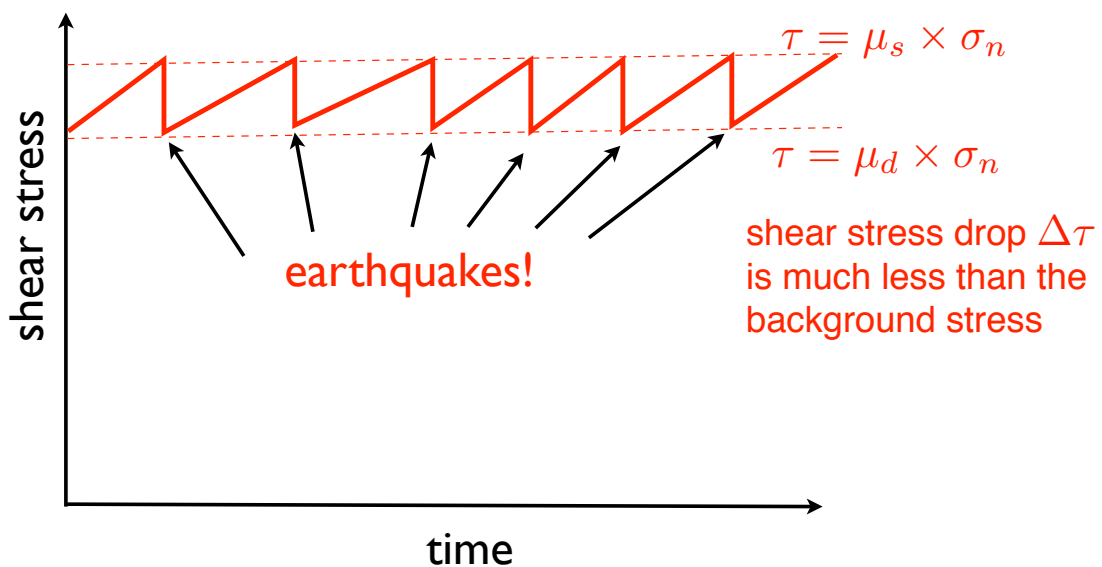


If A is the area of the bottom of this block

$$\sigma_n = N/A \qquad \sigma_{\text{shear}} = \tau = F/A$$



For many faults, earthquake shear stress drop is much smaller than “background” shear stress



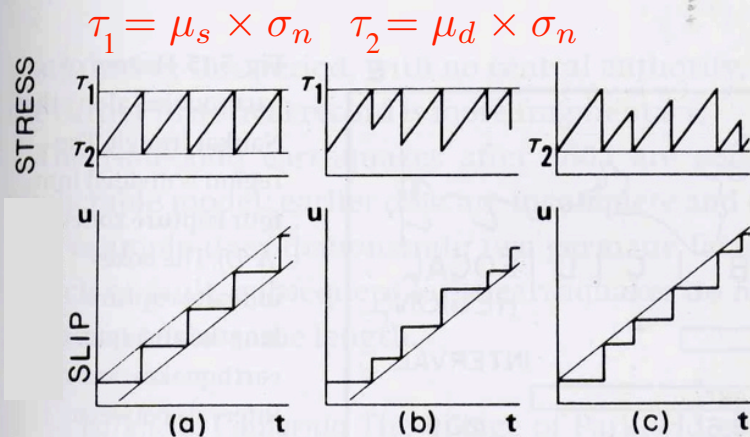


Fig. 5.13. Simple earthquake recurrence models: (a) Reid's perfectly periodic model; (b) time-predictable model; (c) slip-predictable model. The time-predictable model is motivated by the observation of the Nankaido earthquakes. (From Shimazaki and Nakata, 1980.)

Reid

time-
predictable

slip-
predictable

Real earthquakes are none of the above.

Close-up view of a fault

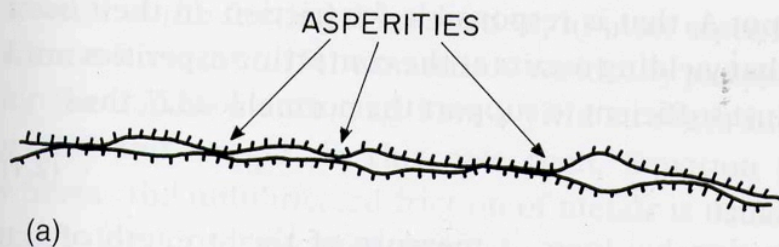
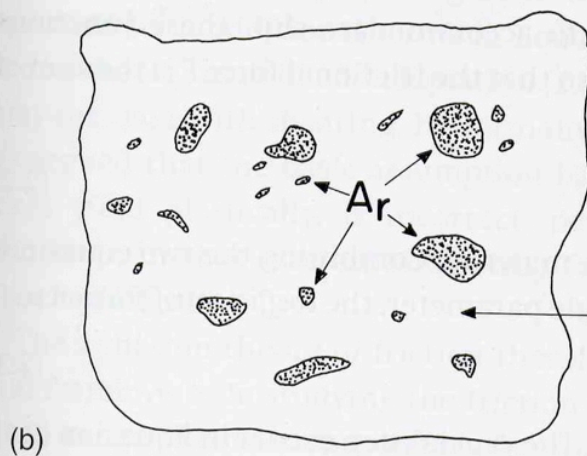


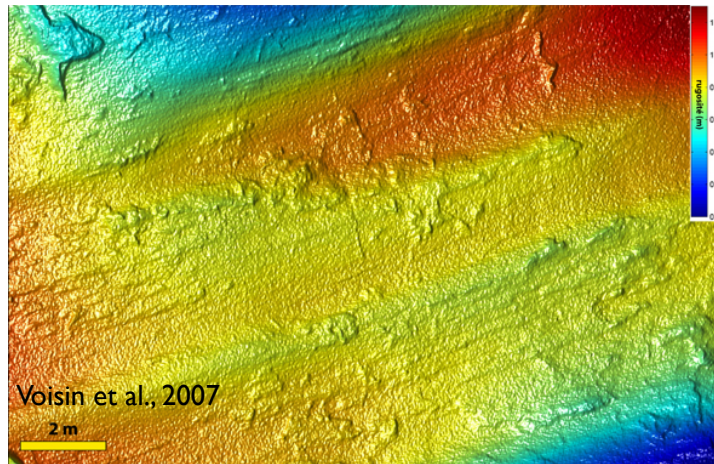
Fig. 2.1. Schematic diagram, in section and plan view, of contacting surface. The stippled regions in plan view represent the areas of asperity contact, which together comprise the real contact area A_r .



A = macroscopic contact area

A_r = asperity contact area

High-precision Lidar scan (topography) of an exposed fault surface



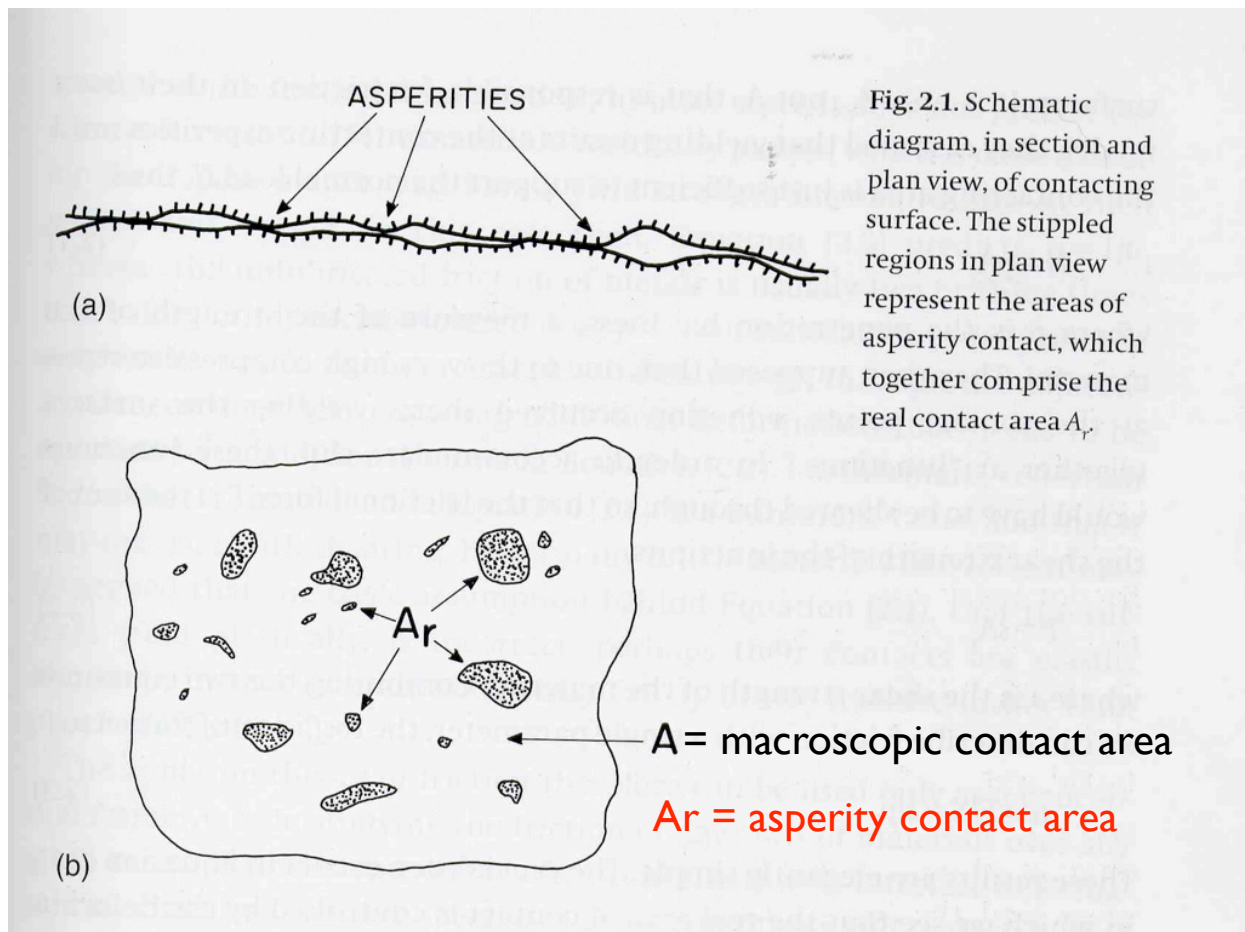
Asperities at a wide array of spatial scales
“smoother” profile in the slip direction

Frictional force is independent of the size of macroscopic
areas in contact
Amonton's First Law

Frictional force is proportional to normal force (“load”)
Amonton's Second Law

Amonton (2) also works for stress (force/area)

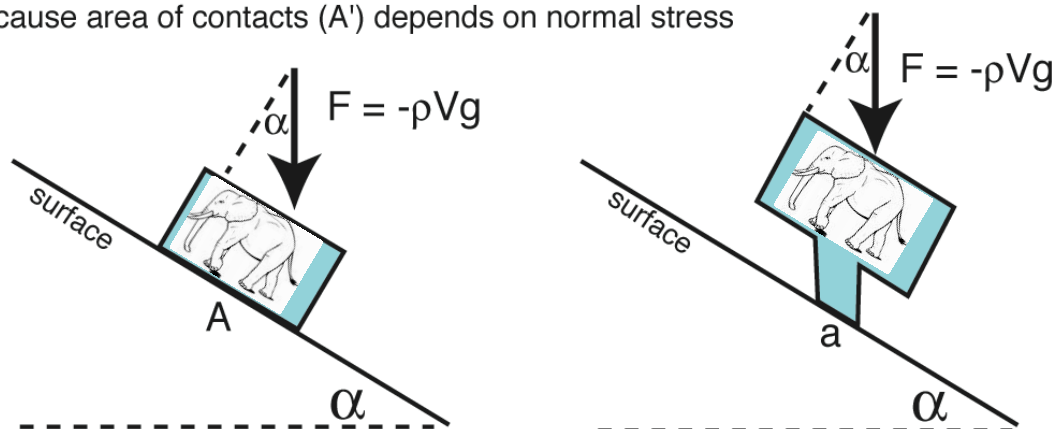
Again, Amonton (1) is referring to the macroscopic
area (not the area of the actual asperities)



Amonton's First Law

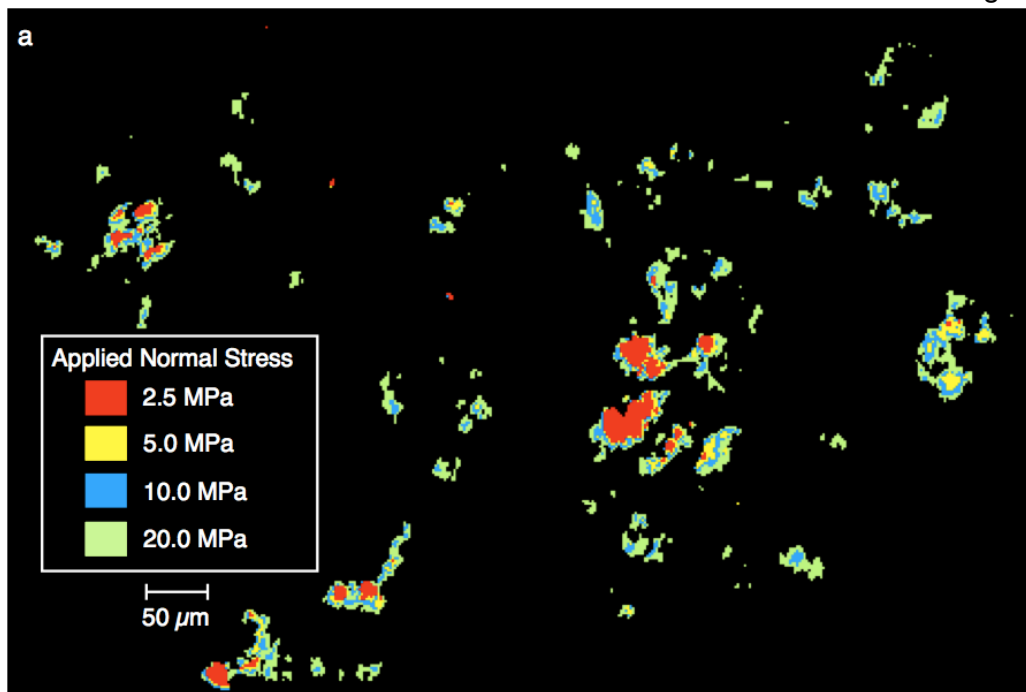
friction force is insensitive to **macroscopic** area

because area of contacts (A') depends on normal stress



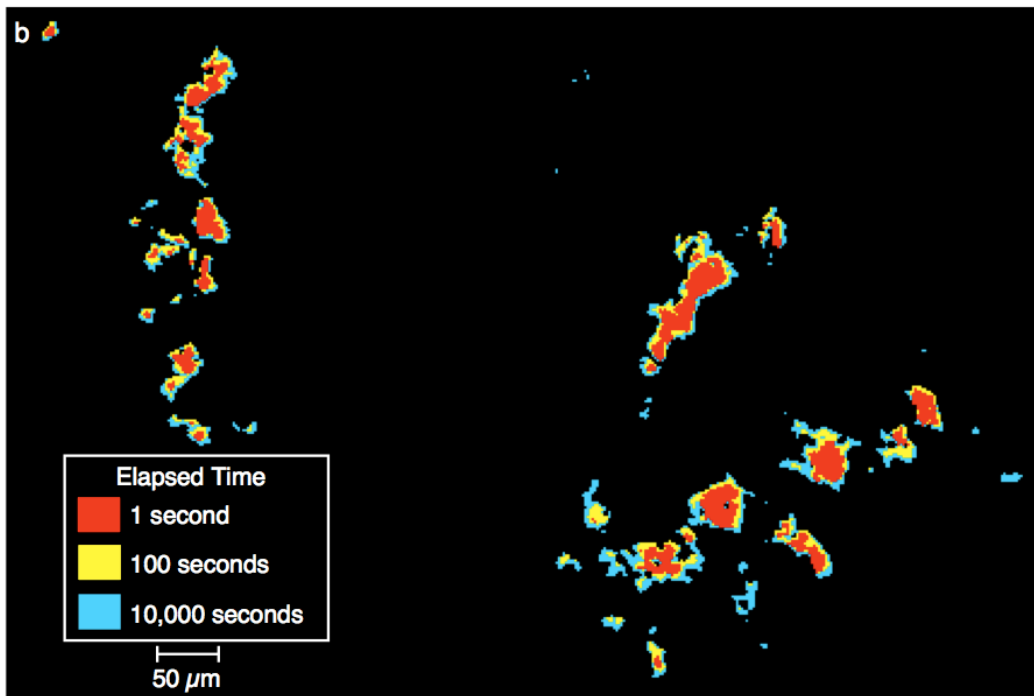
Same asperity contact area A_r for both cases.

If macroscopic contact area is small, normal stress = N/area is larger, asperities squash, and A_r is a larger % of macroscopic contact area



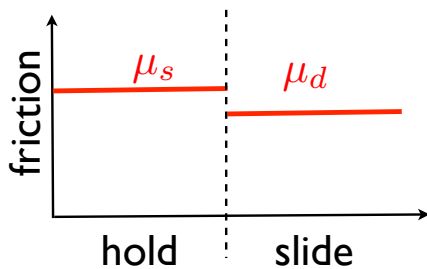
Asperity contact area increases with (macroscopic) normal stress
 At the contacts, this affects shear and normal stress the same way
 So ratio (μ) does not change with normal stress

- Friction can increase with “hold” time. This happens through **growth and increasing shear strength** of contacts.
- If sliding speeds up, the average lifespan of asperities decreases
- This means that friction drops with sliding speed
- θ is the “state variable” in some friction laws: it can be interpreted as the average age of the asperities



Asperity contact area also increases with hold time thanks to state variable (healing). This is increasing the frictional strength (μ times normal stress). Normal stress is constant in this experiment, so μ (that is, friction coefficient) is **increasing** with hold time.

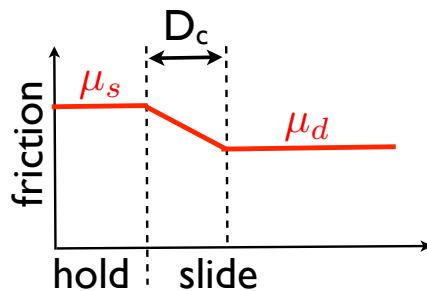
Some ideas about static vs. dynamic friction



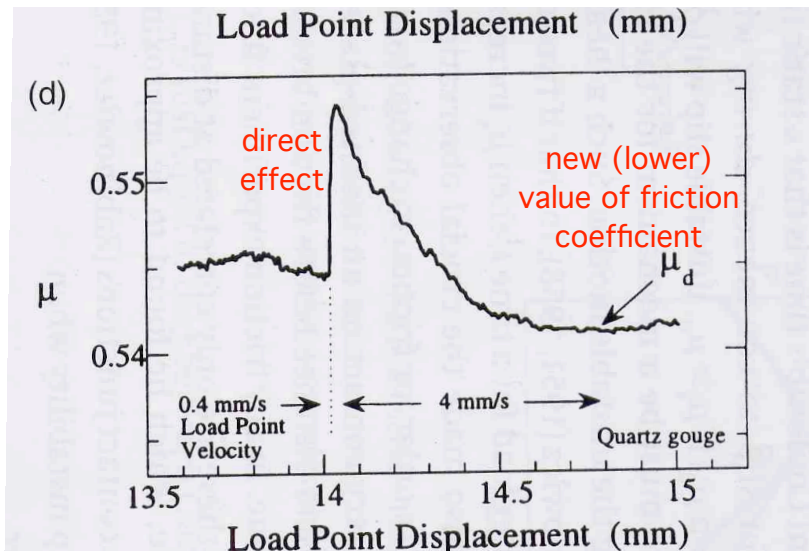
$$\tau = \mu_s \sigma_n$$

slip occurs if $\tau \geq \mu_s \sigma_n$

$$\Delta\tau = (\mu_s - \mu_d)\sigma_n$$



Rate- and state- dependent friction: what the friction data look like

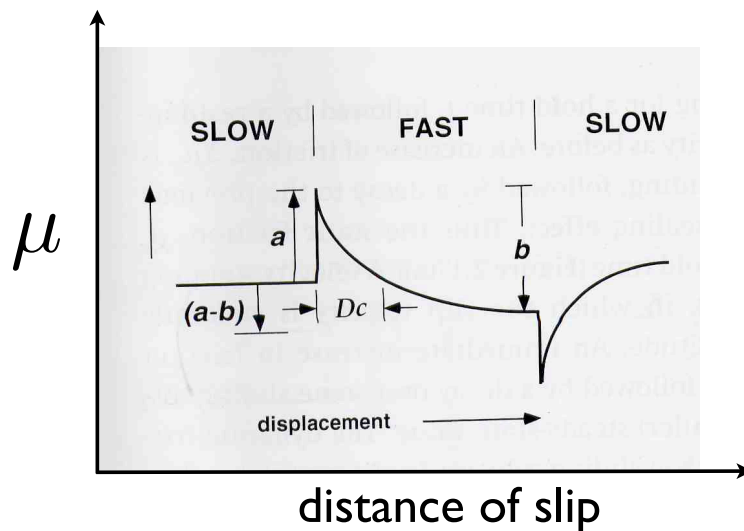


In this experiment they speed up sliding

initially, friction is higher ("direct effect")

then it evolves and settles at a lower value

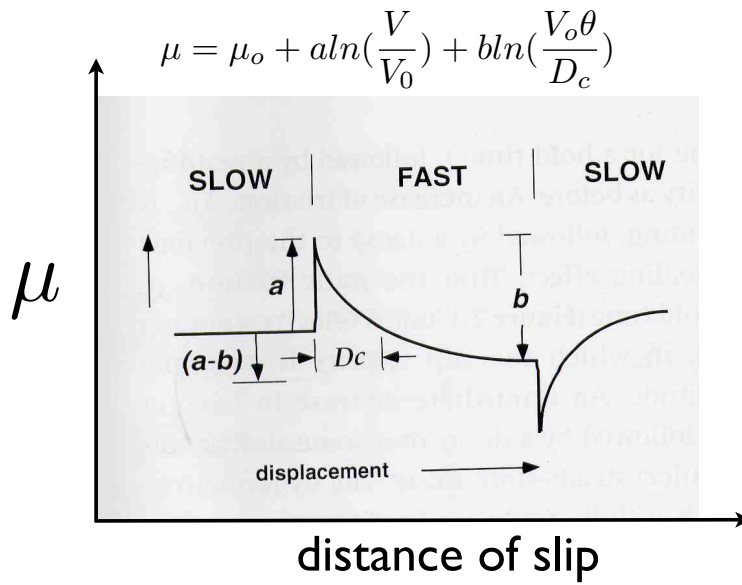
Rate- and state- dependent friction



$$\mu = \mu_o + a \ln\left(\frac{V}{V_o}\right) + b \ln\left(\frac{V_o \theta}{D_c}\right)$$

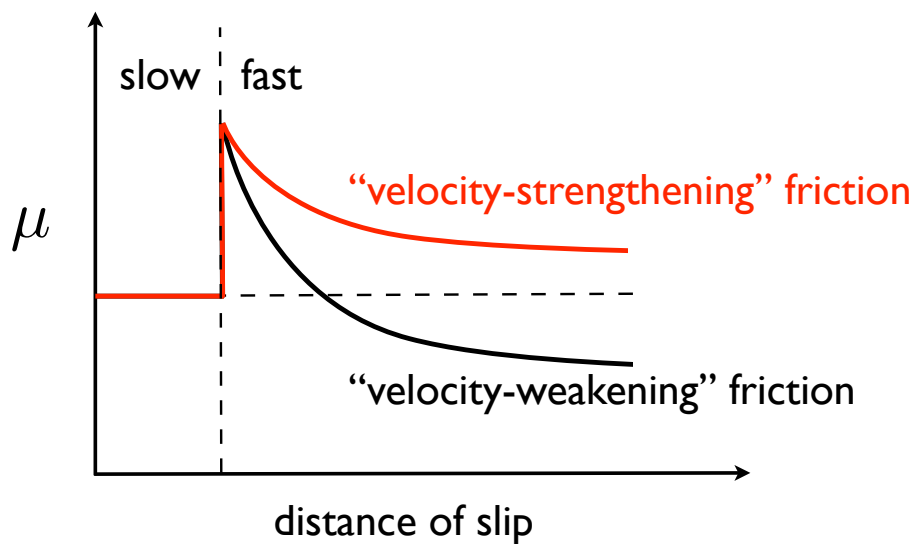
empirical equation

(Dieterich 1981; Ruina 1983)



If we assume that the value of the state variable (asperity contact age) is $\theta = \frac{D_c}{V}$ (after a steady state, new sliding velocity is reached)

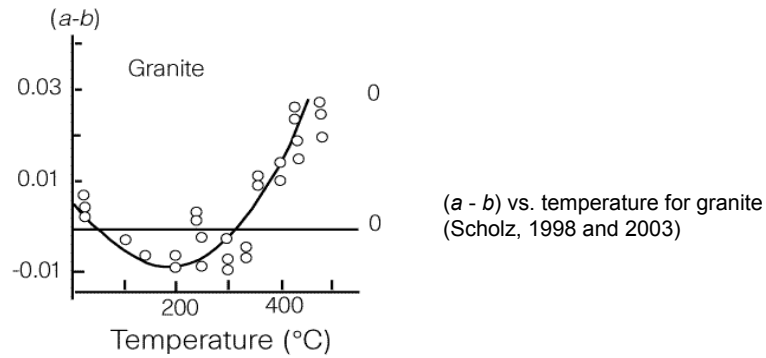
the “rate and state” friction equation is: $\mu = \mu_o + (a - b) \ln\left(\frac{V}{V_o}\right)$



$$\mu = \mu_o + (a - b) \ln\left(\frac{V}{V_o}\right)$$

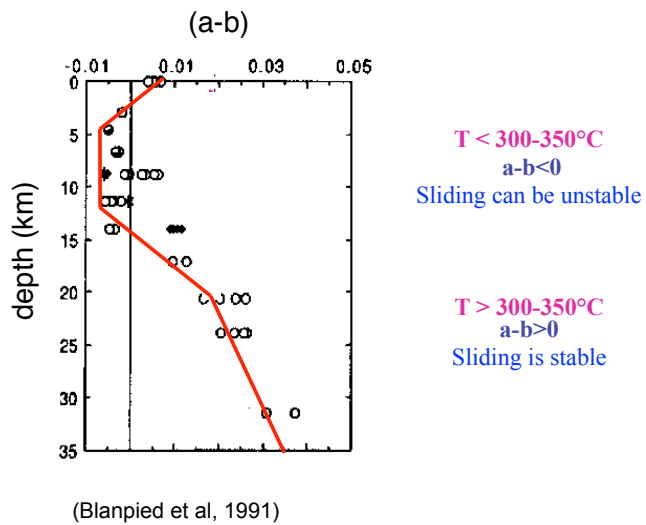
↓
if positive then _____
if negative then _____

Effect of temperature on friction



Laboratory experiments show that stable frictional sliding is promoted at temperatures higher than about 300°C for most crustal rocks.

How (a-b) varies with depth



μ has NOTHING to do with stability!
Only the **change** in μ with sliding velocity matters.



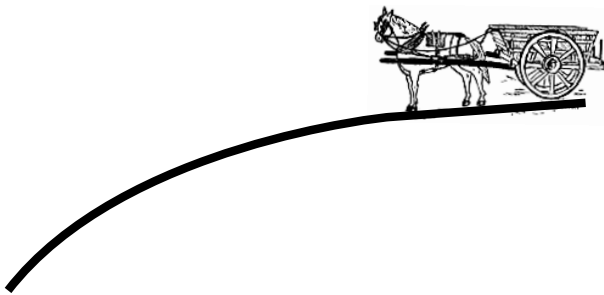
velocity-strengthening

friction:

faster sliding -->

stronger fault -->

slows sliding



velocity weakening

friction:

faster sliding -->

weaker fault -->

even faster sliding