



Zhu, C., Karakus, M., He, M., Meng, Q., Shang, J., Wang, Y. and Yin, Q. (2022) Volumetric deformation and damage evolution of Tibet interbedded skarn under multistage constant-amplitude-cyclic loading. *International Journal of Rock Mechanics and Mining Sciences*, 152, 105066.

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Deposited on: 15 August 2022

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1 Volumetric deformation and damage evolution of Tibet interbedded skarn 2 under multistage constant-amplitude-cyclic loading

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12
13 **Abstract:** Multistage constant-amplitude-cyclic (MCAC) loading experiments were conducted on
14 Tibet interbedded skarn to investigate and characterize fatigue mechanical behavior of the tested rock.
15 Rock volumetric deformation, stiffness change, and fatigue damage evolution were analyzed along
16 with the macroscopic failure morphology. The experimental results demonstrated that the volumetric
17 deformation of the tested skarn was influenced by the interbed structure. Rock damage presented a
18 two-stage pattern. The rock damage increased quickly at the beginning and subsequently became
19 steady for long periods of time within a cyclic loading stage. A new damage evolution model was
20 proposed on the basis of axial strain. Macroscopic failure morphology analysis revealed different
21 fracture mechanisms, combining a tension-splitting mode, shear-sliding, and mixed shear-tension. In
22 this study, the understanding of the anisotropic mechanical properties of interbedded skarn was
23 highlighted, and this could contribute to the ability to predict the stabilities of rock engineering
24 structures.

25 **Keywords:** Interbedded skarn; Anisotropy; MCAC loads; Volumetric deformation; Damage
26 evolution

28 1. Introduction

29 In civil and mining engineering works, rock fatigue is frequently encountered in many
30 geotechnical engineering projects exposed to cyclic loads, such as earthquakes, blast vibrations in
31 deep mines, and loading due to truck movements. Fatigue damage is a failure mode that cannot be
32 ignored for rock engineering, during which many hazards occur due to cyclic or fatigue loads, such
33 as rock bursts, mining landslides, and premature goaf collapses [1-4]. As such, investigation and

34 characterization of fatigue damage behavior of rock masses is important for ensuring the long-term
35 durability and safety of rock engineering structures.

36 Regarding rock fatigue damage, significant attention has been paid to maximum stress [5], stress
37 amplitudes [6-7], dynamic frequency [8], loading waveforms [9-10], and strain rates [11]. Several
38 fatigue models were proposed according to ultrasonic velocity [12], rock deformation [13-14], elastic
39 modulus [15], energy dissipation [16-17], acoustic emission characteristics [18], and the load-unload
40 response ratio (LURR) [19]. For most experiments, constant amplitude during the entire fatigue
41 loading tests was used, whereas the mean load of the applied load was constant. Furthermore, the
42 applied upper stress was used to determine the fatigue lifetime of the rock. This fatigue testing
43 included low-cycle and high-cycle constant amplitude tests. The low-cycle tests were primarily used
44 to reveal the rock fatigue behavior because the rock could fail after limited numbers of cyclic loading
45 [20]. High-cycle constant amplitude tests were extensively employed to obtain the fatigue limitation
46 of rocks [21-22]. It was proved that the amplitude cyclic loading path variation is closer to the actual
47 stress disturbance circumstances. For example, in deep mining, frequent blasting could be viewed as
48 cyclic loading, through which multi-level effects are applied on specific rock structures. In open-pit
49 mining, the applied stress amplitude on open-pit slopes was not constant because the amplitude cyclic
50 stress conditions increase in rock cumulative damage change the rock structure. In a hydropower
51 station, the rise and drop of the water level of periodic loading is a multistage process, during which
52 the rock will eventually be fractured because of the multistage cyclic loading. For roads and railways,
53 the periodic load is multi-level because of the increase and decrease of the load capacity in parallel
54 to the density of the vehicles on the road. For example, Zhang et al. [23] carried out multi-level
55 frequency cyclic loading tests on coal, for which the energy dissipation, hysteresis, and micro-
56 seismicity characteristics were identified. Peng et al. [24] revealed the loading frequency on sandstone
57 strength and deformation under triaxial cyclic loading conditions, for which the influence of loading
58 frequency on irreversible deformation was investigated. Yang et al. [25] conducted triaxial testing on
59 granite and sandstone in a multi-level cyclic way, and the influences of two typical loading paths on
60 the evolution pattern of the damping coefficient, damping ratio, and elastic modulus under different
61 confined conditions were investigated. Zhou et al. [26] conducted numerical tests on rock material
62 that was exposed to multi-level cyclic loads, and the effects of the loading path on both strengthening
63 and fracture were revealed. Wang et al. [27] conducted testing on granite samples in a multi-level
64 cyclic loading way, and the influences of the previous freeze-thaw cycle on the mechanical properties
65 and acoustic emission pattern were revealed. According to the fatigue strain for rock that was exposed
66 to multi-level cyclic loads, Wang et al. [28] proposed a damage evolution model, in which a two-
67 phase damage evolution pattern was studied. Because rock fracture is an energy-driven process, Gao

68 et al. [29] conducted multi-level triaxial cyclic testing on jointed and intact rock masses, for which
69 the stress state on the process of rock progressive failure was examined. Wang et al. [30] investigated
70 the energy dissipation characteristics of rock under cyclic loading and found that the energy
71 conversion pattern is strongly impacted by rock structure. Vaneghi et al. [31] carried out multistage
72 uniaxial cyclic compression loading experiments; the deformation and damage response of sandstone
73 (soft rock) and granodiorite (hard rock) and the stress-strain hysteresis loops of soft rock showed
74 three stages, whereas there were two stages for hard rock.

75 In nature, most rocks exhibit anisotropy and heterogeneity, and there are many geological
76 discontinuities and layers that have considerable tensile or shear strength [32]. However, the
77 aforementioned cyclic and fatigue loading experiments were mostly conducted on intact rocks. In this
78 work, the cyclic mechanical behavior of anisotropic rocks under multi-stage cyclic loading was
79 revealed. In addition, in all studies to date, the increasing-amplitude cyclic loading test, rock damage,
80 and fracture characteristics exposed to multistage constant-amplitude-cyclic (MCAC) loads have
81 been studied but not in depth. Therefore, the aim of this research is to study the effects of rock
82 structure (e.g., interbed structure orientation) on rock deformation and damage evolution under
83 MCAC loads. Rock samples with interbedding orientation angles of 0° , 30° , 60° , and 90° with respect
84 to the coring direction were used to perform the MCAC experiments. This study focuses on the effects
85 of interbed structure on the deformation and damage evolution characteristics of skarn. The study
86 results will help to improve the understanding of the damage and fracture behaviors within
87 interbedded and anisotropic rocks under complex loads.

88 An introduction section that includes a literature review has been included in the first section. In
89 section 2, experimental methodology is explained, particularly with respect to the multi-level cyclic
90 loading path and testing procedure. In section 3, the rock volumetric deformation, fatigue damage
91 evolution, and macroscopic failure pattern are analyzed.

92

93 **2. Experimental methods and procedures**

94 *2.1. Rock sample preparation*

95 The tested rock was collected from the Jiama mine in Tibet, China. The lithology of the rock is
96 gray skarn. The Jiama mining area belongs to the jurisdiction of Jiama township and Sibuh township
97 of Mozhuogongka county of Lhasa city. The geographic coordinates are east longitude $91^\circ 43' 06$
98 $"$ – $91^\circ 50' 00"$ and northern latitude $37^\circ 29' 49"$ – $29^\circ 43' 53"$. The climate in the mining region is a
99 typical continental climate. The rainy season is wet and cold, and the winter is cold and dry; there is
100 a large temperature difference between day and night. The annual rainfall is about 500 mm, and most

101 of the rainfall is from June to September. The frost-snow season is July to August. The minimum
102 temperature in winter can reach 40 degrees below zero, and the maximum temperature in summer
103 can reach 38°C. The sampling site is an open pit slope, and the elevation is 4970 m (Fig.1). After
104 observation of the fresh rock section, which is produced through blasting excavation, the skarn
105 presented as an interbedded structure, and black limestone interlayers could be observed; in addition,
106 the skarn was characterized by pyrite bands and natural fractures.

107 The interbed structure can also be observed from the BSE-SEM (Electron backscattered
108 diffraction- Scanning electron microscope) image shown in Fig. 2. This demonstrates that the
109 structure within the tested rock samples is homogenous; specifically, the rock matrix was grey,
110 interbed bands were cyan black, and pyrite grains were white. The rock matrix is fine crystal with a
111 low degree of cementation. The particle size is 0.5-2 mm, and the matrix content is about 70%. The
112 interlayer part has a fine vein-like structure with high mineral grain cementation and relatively dense
113 and high stiffness. The particle size is 0.2-0.5 mm, and the content is about 30%. The matrix is
114 relatively unconsolidated and has a small density; the matrix tends to generate strain localization, and
115 thus, it is easy to produce axial deformation in the process of uniaxial compression. The XRD (X-
116 Ray Powder Diffraction) results presented in Fig.3 reveal that the mineral composition of the skarn
117 samples was composed of quartz (63.4%), biotite (8.9%), anorthite (9.9%), and calcium (18.8%); the
118 black interlayer was mainly composed of quartz (15%), muscovite (80%), pyrite (1%), and
119 polyolithionite (1%). Using the method suggested by the International Society for Rock Mechanics
120 and Rock Engineering (ISRM), the diameter of the rock samples was determined to be 50 mm, and
121 the length was determined to be 100 mm.

123 2.2. *Experimental apparatus and scheme*

124 For the interbedded skarn samples, MCAC loading testing was conducted with a rock mechanics
125 testing apparatus (GCTS RTR 2000). During the entire deformation process, a pair of LVDT (Linear
126 Variable Differential Transformer) devices were installed at the longitudinal parts of rock sample to
127 measure axial deformation, and an LVDT was installed at the middle part of rock to obtain lateral
128 deformation. A dynamic loading frequency of 0~10 Hz could be achieved with the testing machine.
129 A series of mechanical parameters (such as axial strain, lateral strain, loading, stress, damping ratio,
130 elastic modulus, and Poisson's ratio) could be recorded throughout the entire deformation. Before
131 fatigue loading, a static loading condition with a constant displacement rate of 0.06 mm/min (such as
132 $1.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$) was employed, and the axial stress reached 10 MPa. Subsequently, a dynamic loading
133 frequency of 0.5 Hz (signifying that the achieved loading and unloading cycle was within 2 s) was

134 applied to the test skarn, and the loading path was controlled by sinusoidal stress. The stress control
135 method was adopted through cyclic loading with a specified stress amplitude of 10 MPa applied to
136 the samples with 0°, 30°, 60°, and 90° interbedding orientation.

137

138 2.3. Damage evolution based on axial deformation

139 During fatigue deformation, the skarn axial strain was measured with a pair of LVDT devices.
140 According to studies related to rock fatigue mechanical properties, the axial strain is a good parameter
141 for describing damage evolution compared to the lateral strain. Because the lateral strain of the middle
142 part of the sample was measured, local deformation characteristics of the rock were produced. As a
143 result, the cyclic axial strain was employed in this work to characterize the accumulation of rock
144 damage at each loading cycle. According to previous studies [33-34], the stress, strain, and elastic
145 modulus during fatigue deformation can be expressed as follows:

$$146 \quad \frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{\varepsilon_d \varepsilon_0}{\varepsilon_d - \varepsilon_0} \quad (1)$$

147 where σ , ε , and E are respectively the stress, strain, and elastic modulus of the tested rock before
148 cyclic loading; ε_0 is the initial axial strain before mechanical testing, and ε_d is the final axial strain at
149 the moment of sample failure.

150 The damage index, D , could be obtained as follows:

$$151 \quad D = \frac{\varepsilon_d}{\varepsilon} \frac{\varepsilon - \varepsilon_0}{\varepsilon_d - \varepsilon_0} \quad (2)$$

152 According to Eq. (2), the characteristics of damage evolution during fatigue loading were obtained.
153 The final strain, ε_d , was determined as the strain value when the specimen failed at the peak stress
154 value.

155

156 3. Experimental results

157 3.1. Cyclic stress-strain characteristics

158 For typical skarn samples with various interbedding orientations, the complete stress-strain
159 curves are presented in Fig.4, and the fatigue mechanical parameters are summarized and presented
160 in Table 1. There is a clear pattern showing that the stress-strain curves and the associated fatigue
161 mechanical behaviors were impacted by the rock structure. At first, fatigue peak stress presented a
162 decrease and subsequently increased with an increase in interbedding orientation; the stress was a
163 minimum for a sample having an interbedding orientation of 30°. The fatigue loading stage and

164 fatigue lifetime were also affected by the interbedding orientation. The fatigue loading stages were
165 13, 3, 8, and 13 for samples with interbedding orientations of 0° , 30° , 60° , and 90° , respectively. The
166 corresponding fatigue lifetime values were a maximum and minimum for a sample with interbedding
167 orientations of 0° and 30° , respectively. Affected by the interbed structure, the deformation between
168 the rock matrix and interlayer differed, and the capacity to resist deformation was structural-
169 controlled. For the samples that contained one single fracture with a 30° dip angle, the failure stress
170 is the smallest. The samples tended to break under this dip angle, which is supported by the theory of
171 structural plane mechanics proposed by Jaeger et al. [35]. As presented in Fig. 4, a hysteresis loop
172 formed because of irreversible plastic deformation. During the first several cyclic stages, the rock
173 samples were under a compaction state, and the area of the hysteresis loop was relatively low; in
174 addition, the sample shapes changed slightly. As the cyclic loading stages increased, the area of the
175 stress hysteresis loop increased, and the corresponding shape changed significantly during the last
176 several cyclic stages, indicating that there was relative large plastic deformation within the skarn
177 samples. It is noteworthy that the hysteresis loop displayed a pattern that changes from sparse to dense
178 at each loading stage except for the final failure stage. The sparse pattern was attributed to the large
179 plastic deformation that was caused by the increase in axial stress; in contrast, after a few cycles, the
180 rock structure was compacted again, and the hysteresis loop changed to a dense state. This result
181 demonstrates that the rock fracture increased during the axial stress-increasing period, whereas the
182 cumulative damage of rock was mainly influenced by the stress increase. For the samples with 0° and
183 30° interbedding orientations, rock failure occurred during the cyclic loading stage; however, rock
184 failure occurred during the stress-increase stage. At the fatigue loading stage, the damage degree of
185 the rock was less than that of the stress-increase stage.

186

187 *3.2. Cyclic deformation characteristics*

188 The hysteresis loop is due to irrevocable plastic deformation in rock samples. In this case, the
189 deformation characteristics were studied to reveal the influence of interbedding orientation on rock
190 damage evolution. The relationship between the maximum axial strain and cycle number during
191 various cyclic stages is presented in Fig.5. The changes of axial strain were not apparent within a
192 cyclic stage except for the ninth loading stage for the skarn with 0° interbedding orientation. However,
193 axial strain increased, and the corresponding incremental rate became higher in different cyclic stages.
194 The pattern of axial strain was impacted by the rock structure, whereas the incremental rate was the
195 highest for the sample with 30° interbedding orientation.

196 The relationship between the maximum lateral strain and the cycle number is presented in Fig.6.
197 The lateral strain was measured with a chain-typed LVDT, which was installed in the middle of the
198 rock samples. Lateral deformation was not apparent during the first few cyclic loading stages and
199 changed abruptly after several cyclic loading stages. Lateral strain increased quickly at the 9th, 2nd,
200 3rd, and 6th cycles, whereas the incremental rate was affected by the interbedding orientation. For the
201 sample with 0° interbedding orientation, before the 9th cyclic stage, the change in the lateral strain
202 was relatively low; however, once high lateral deformation occurred, the corresponding rate increase
203 became higher. For the sample with 30° interbedding orientation, sliding deformation was prone to
204 occur at the interface of the rock matrix and corresponding interlayers, for which the lateral
205 deformation was controlled by shear-sliding. For skarn samples with 60° and 90° interbedding
206 orientations, lateral deformation increased slowly during each cyclic loading stage.

207 Once the axial and lateral strains were obtained, rock volumetric strain could be calculated using
208 $\varepsilon_v = \varepsilon_a + 2\varepsilon_l$. The volumetric strain was the overall reflection of rock deformation. Fig.7 shows that the
209 rock volume changed from compression to expansion at the 8th, 2nd, and 3rd stages for skarn for
210 corresponding orientation angles of 0°, 30°, and 60°, respectively. However, for skarn with 90°
211 interbedding orientation, the rock volume was in a compression state during the entire loading process.
212 The reason for this is that the uneven deformation of the rock interbedded structure results in large
213 axial deformation, which results in the constant compression of rock volume deformation. The change
214 in the volumetric strain reflected well the structural-control characteristics of rock fatigue
215 deformation.

216

217 3.3. Changes of rock elastic parameters

218 Irreversible rock deformation is also an expression of rock stiffness reduction. Fig.8 presents the
219 relationships among secant modulus (E_s), Poisson's ratio (ν), and cycle number. It was demonstrated
220 that E_s presents a decreasing trend, with a decreased rate of acceleration, especially near the rock
221 failure stage. In addition, E_s decreased within a cyclic level. The decrease in E_s indicates the
222 degradation of rock stiffness, and the cyclic loads resulted in accumulated damage within rock
223 samples. The results presented in Fig.8 also indicate that E_s was impacted by the orientation of
224 interbedding structures; its value was the highest for the sample with 0° interbedding orientation and
225 the minimum for the sample with 30° interbedding orientation. From the evolution of Poisson's ratio
226 with cycle number (Fig.8e-h), ν increased with cycle number, and it increased faster as the cycle
227 number increased. A fast increase in Poisson's ratio indicates an abrupt increase in lateral deformation
228 of the rock, possibly resulting in an increase of volumetric deformation. For rock with 30°

229 interbedding orientation, the change in ν was higher than in the other cases. This result indicates
230 that the shear-sliding among the rock matrix and interbeds was the most severe during the fatigue
231 loading process.

232

233 3.4. Damage evolution analysis

234 According to Eq. (1), the damage evolution of rock during the fatigue loading process was plotted
235 and is presented in Fig.9. The changes in the damage factor with cycle number demonstrate the
236 accumulated damage of the tested skarn samples. Among the multiple cyclic stages, the accumulated
237 damage was large during the first few stages, and the corresponding incremental rate of decrease was
238 analogous to the increase in cyclic stages. Because of the increase in axial stress at the adjacent two
239 cyclic loading levels, large irreversible deformation appeared at the beginning of each cyclic loading
240 stage and then tended to be stable. That is, in each cyclic loading stage, the damage evolution
241 increased rapidly at first and then remained stable for a long time. Within a fatigue loading stage,
242 high damage occurred because of the increase in the axial stress level, and a certain amount of
243 microcracks formed during this time frame. However, the previous microcracks were subsequently
244 compacted in a cyclic loading stage. At the last cyclic loading stage, it was observed that damage
245 accelerated until sample failure occurred.

246 To predict the damage evolution of interbedded skarn during the entire loading process, the
247 accumulated damage at the end of each cyclic loading stage can be expressed as a function of the
248 relative cycle (n/N_f), as presented in Fig.10. A model of fatigue strain, which is used to describe
249 damage evolution, is presented in Eq. (3) and has been proven to be the same as that in the studies of
250 Wang et al. (2021). The form of the proposed function is expressed as:

$$251 \quad D = 1 - \left(1 - \left(n / N_f\right)^a\right)^b \quad (3)$$

252 where D is the damage variable defined by the dissipated energy; n and N_f are the cycle number and
253 fatigue lifetime, respectively; a and b are the material-dependent parameters. The fitting results
254 obtained using Eq. (3) are listed in Table 2 and demonstrate that there is a high correlation between
255 D and the relative cycle (n/N_f); in addition, the fitting results presented in Table 2 indicate that the
256 anisotropic damage pattern was affected by the interbed structure. The fitting curve morphologies
257 differed for rocks of different interbedding orientations. For skarn samples with 0° , 60° , and 90°
258 orientations, rock damage first increased quickly and then became slow at high relative cycles;
259 however, for the sample with 30° interbedding orientation, damage first increased slowly and then
260 increased with an accelerating rate until rock failure occurred. It was demonstrated that the proposed

261 damage evolution model could be used to express these two types of trends with high correlation,
262 further proving the reliability of the proposed damage evolution model.

263

264 3.5. Failure morphology analysis

265 The aforementioned analysis demonstrated that rock damage and deformation characteristics
266 were strongly impacted by the corresponding internal structure. Macroscopic failure morphology of
267 rock was the external expression of the corresponding internal damage evolution. The failure
268 morphology and crack sketch pictures are presented in Fig.11. Different failure modes can be
269 observed from the macroscopic failure pattern, and the failure pattern was influenced by the interbed
270 structure. Although the tested rock samples have strong anisotropy and heterogeneous characteristics,
271 a certain amount of natural fractures can be found from the rock surface, for which the interbed
272 structure was controlled through a failure mode. For the sample with 0° interbedding orientation, the
273 scale of the crack network was the highest, and a high amount of cracks that were parallel to the
274 loading directions were stimulated, corresponding to a typical tension-splitting failure mode; for the
275 sample with a 30° interbedding orientation, the crack scale was a minimum and shear-sliding occurred
276 during rock deformation; for the sample with a 60° interbedding orientation, it was demonstrated that
277 a mix of shearing and the tension failure mode occurred for this sample, and a portion of the cracks
278 propagated along the interbeds; for the sample with a 30° interbedding orientation, the two apparent
279 cracks formed from the rock top to bottom, and the width of these two cracks was larger than for the
280 other two cases. In addition, these two cracks should be the stimulants of the pre-existing natural
281 fractures, and the tension failure mode was observed for this sample. The macroscopic failure
282 morphology description further proved the fact that rock failure was the corresponding structural
283 dependence.

284

285 4. Discussion

286 Considering the complicated stress disturbance effect on engineering rock mass, the applied
287 cyclic load differed from the conventional constant amplitude loads; specifically, it was a type of
288 multi-level constant-amplitude load. This signifies that although the stress amplitude was constant,
289 the cyclic loading was applied at various stages with a stress-increase pattern. This loading mode was
290 much more suitable for rock in open pit mining. With rock mass excavation from the top down for
291 an open-pit mine, the geostatic stress that acted on rock mass increased as the excavation depth
292 increased. At each excavation level, because of the disturbance of blast variations and tramcar loads,

293 the actual stress disturbance that acted on rock was multi-level instead of single-level during the entire
294 loading process. Therefore, fatigue mechanical properties of interbedded skarn were investigated
295 under MCAC loads. The influences of interbed structure on rock strength, volumetric deformation,
296 elastic characteristics, and damage evolution were analyzed. The testing results demonstrated that
297 rock axial strain, lateral strain, volumetric strain, strength, lifetime, secant modulus, Poisson's ratio,
298 and damage accumulation were impacted by interbed structure.

299 What is different from the previous constant amplitude loading with one loading level is that the
300 damage at each cyclic stage presented a two-stage trend. Rock damage first presents a quick increase
301 and then achieves a stable level. This damage evolution pattern is similar to that of rock that is
302 exposed to amplitude-increasing cyclic loads. At the start of each cyclic loading stage, the sudden
303 increase in axial stress led to relatively large damage to the rock. After cyclic loads, damage to the
304 rock was not severe compared to the stress-increasing moment. The damage evolution of rock
305 exposed to MCAC loading was revealed by a nonlinear power function, and it was found that the
306 model could well characterize damage accumulation. It is noteworthy that the shape of the damage
307 model curve was impacted by the interbed structure. For rock with 30° interbedding orientation, the
308 damage propagation mode differed from that of the other cases. This first demonstrates a slow pattern
309 and then a fast pattern, indicating that once shear-sliding occurred, damage displayed an accelerating
310 growth pattern.

311 In this study, a dynamic loading frequency of 0.5 Hz was utilized, and the stress-increasing range
312 was 10 MPa. This is a kind of low-frequency disturbed stress, and the loading condition corresponds
313 to the far-field blast vibration. In a further study, complicated stress disturbance with a variable
314 loading frequency and a stress increment will be performed. Moreover, the Jiama mining region is a
315 typical high-altitude and cold region, and repeated freeze-thaw cycles occur during mining. The
316 influences of the freeze-thaw treatment on the mechanical behavior of rock fatigue should be
317 investigated. Previous studies have indicated that deterioration of rock structures is strongly impacted
318 by freeze-thaw cycles [36-39]; for the interbedded skarn that was studied in this work, the previous
319 freeze-thaw damage accumulation on the internal structure of rock may degrade its fatigue life when
320 it is subjected to MCAC loading conditions. Thus, the combination of freeze-thaw cycles and
321 disturbed loads should be considered simultaneously for Tibet skarn.

322

323 **5. Conclusions**

324 MCAC loading experiments were carried out on Tibet interbedded skarn to investigate the
325 anisotropic fatigue mechanical responses. The strength and deformation characteristics and the

326 damage evolution were investigated. According to the above analysis, the following conclusions are
327 obtained:

328 The volumetric deformation of the tested anisotropic skarn was influenced by the interbed
329 structures. The transition stage from rock volume compression to expansion was different; in addition,
330 the rock volume was always under a compressive state for the sample with 90° interbedding
331 orientation. The rock secant modulus, which indicates the stiffness and weakness characteristics,
332 decreased as the cyclic stage increased, whereas the increase in Poisson's ratio was rapid until rock
333 failure.

334 Rock damage displayed a two-stage pattern: damage first increased quickly and then was steady
335 for a long time within a cyclic stage. A new damage evolution model was proposed on the basis of
336 rock axial strain, and the damage accumulation curves displayed various patterns, which were
337 influenced by the interbed structure.

338 Macroscopic failure morphology analysis revealed different fracture mechanisms and was
339 influenced by rock structure. Failure of rock began as the tension-splitting mode and transformed to
340 shear-sliding and to mixed shear-tension for the tested skarn samples. The differences in the rock
341 failure morphology were the external expression of the rock damage evolution.

342

343 **Acknowledgments**

344 This work was supported by the National Key Technologies Research & Development program
345 (2018YFC0808402), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC) (No. 41941018,
346 52104125 and No. 42007256), the funding of State Key Laboratory for GeoMechanics and Deep
347 Underground Engineering, China University of Mining & Technology, Beijing (SKLGDUEK2133),
348 and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities.

349

350 **Data Availability Statement**

351 All of the data, models, and code that support the findings of this study are available from the
352 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

353

354 **Conflict of interest statement**

355 No conflict of interest exists in the submission of this manuscript. The manuscript was approved for
356 publication by all of the authors. We would like to declare that the described work was original
357 research that has not been previously published.

358

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452 **Figure captions:**

453 **Fig.1** Rock sampling site.

454 **Fig.2** Interbedded structure detection in a skarn sample from a BSE-SEM image.

455 **Fig.3** XRD results for mineral composition identification.

456 **Fig.4** Axial and lateral stress-strain curves for samples with interbedding orientation angles of 0°, 30°,
457 60°, and 90°.

458 **Fig.5** Maximum axial strain evolution with cycle numbers during cyclic loading stages for skarn
459 samples with different interbedding orientations.

460 **Fig.6** Maximum lateral strain evolution with cycle numbers during cyclic loading stages for skarn
461 samples with different interbedding orientations.

462 **Fig.7** Maximum volumetric strain versus cycle numbers in various cyclic loading stages.

463 **Fig.8** Rock stiffness changes during the fatigue loading process for skarn samples with interbedding
464 orientation angles of 0°, 30°, 60°, and 90°.

465 **Fig.9** Damage evolution of skarn samples with cyclic loading number.

466 **Fig.10** Predictive model between the accumulated damage variable and relative cycle for skarn
467 samples.

468 **Fig.11** Failure morphology of interbedded skarn samples with different orientation angles.
469

470 **Table captions:**

471 **Table 1** Summary of skarn fatigue mechanical parameters of different rock structures.

472 **Table 2** Fitting parameters of damage evolution model for tested skarn samples.