

The mixology of precursory strain partitioning approaching brittle failure in rocks

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Abbreviated Title

The mixology of strain partitioning

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1 *Summary*

2 We examine strain accumulation and localization processes throughout twelve triaxial
3 compression experiments on six rock types deformed in an X-ray transparent apparatus. In
4 each experiment, we acquire 50-100 tomograms of rock samples at differential stress steps
5 during loading, revealing the evolving 3D distribution of X-ray absorption contrasts indicative
6 of density. Using digital volume correlation (DVC) of pairs of tomograms, we build time
7 series of 3D incremental strain tensor fields as the rocks are deformed toward failure. The
8 Pearson correlation coefficients between components of the local strain tensor at each stress
9 increase step indicate that the correlation strength between local pairs of strain components,
10 including dilation, contraction and shear strain, are moderate-strong in eleven of twelve
11 experiments. In addition, changes in local strain components from one DVC calculation to the
12 next show differences in the correlations between pairs of strain components. In particular,
13 the correlation of local changes in dilation and shear strain is stronger than the correlation of
14 changes in dilation-contraction and contraction-shear strain. In eleven of twelve experiments,
15 the most volumetrically frequent mode of strain accommodation includes synchronized
16 increase in multiple strain components. Early in loading, under lower differential stress, the
17 most frequent strain accumulation mode involves the paired increase in dilation and
18 contraction at neighboring locations. Under higher differential stress, the most frequent mode
19 is the paired increase in dilation and shear strain. This mode is also the most or second most
20 frequent throughout each complete experiment. Tracking the mean values of the strain
21 components in the sample and the volume of rock that each component occupies reveals
22 fundamental differences in the nature of strain accumulation and localization between the
23 volumetric and shear strain modes. As the dilative strain increases in magnitude throughout
24 loading, it tends to occupy larger volumes within the rock sample and thus delocalizes. In
25 contrast, the increasing shear strain components (left- or right-lateral) do not necessarily

26 occupy larger volume and involve localization. Consistent with these evolutions, the
27 correlation length of the dilatational strains tends to increase by the largest amounts of the
28 strain components from lower to higher differential stress. In contrast, the correlation length
29 of the shear strains does not consistently increase or decrease with increasing differential
30 stress.

31

32 *Keywords:* Creep and deformation; Fracture and flow; Fault zone rheology; Dynamics and
33 mechanics of faulting; Fractures, faults and high strain deformation zones

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Recognizing precursory signals approaching the onset of macroscopic failure is a critical
36 goal in rock mechanics. Experimental observations indicate that fracture coalescence leading
37 to macroscopic failure occurs through the opening of individual fractures that interact to allow
38 shear deformation on a macroscopic scale (e.g., *Peng & Johnson, 1975; Petit & Barquins,*
39 *1988; Moore & Lockner, 1995*). Consequently, much previous work has highlighted the
40 importance of dilation as a precursor to brittle failure (e.g., *Brace et al., 1966*). Although
41 coalescing fractures may accommodate both opening and shearing, much research has
42 focused on the dilatational rather than the shear deformation. This focus likely occurred
43 because previous studies could not readily quantify the magnitudes of local dilation and shear
44 strain operating within intact material or along individual fractures. Because the contribution
45 of local dilation can influence the macroscopic expression of radial dilation, density, and
46 seismic velocities in expected ways, the impact of local dilatational events could be estimated
47 (e.g., *Bridgman, 1949; Handin et al., 1963; Frank, 1965; Brace et al., 1966; Myachin et al.,*
48 *1971*). Far more limited analyses have quantified local deformation mechanisms that
49 accommodate shear strain in triaxial experiments within intact rock by resolving the source
50 types of acoustic emission events (e.g., *Stanchits et al., 2006*) and tracking macroscopic
51 stress-strain relations, seismic anisotropy, and nonlinear resonance during deformation (e.g.,
52 *Hamiel et al., 2004a; 2009; Lyakhovskiy et al., 2009*).

53 Here, we characterize the strain accumulation and localization processes as rocks
54 approach macroscopic failure, and compare the importance of contraction, dilation and shear
55 strain in accommodating brittle deformation at varying stages of deformation. We analyze
56 results from twelve triaxial compression deformation experiments on six rock types with an
57 X-ray transparent deformation apparatus. In each experiment, we compress the rock core in
58 stress steps and acquire a 3D tomogram at each step, revealing the 3D distribution of X-ray

59 absorption. Digital volume correlation (DVC) analysis implemented in the code TomoWarp2
60 (*Tudisco et al.*, 2017) provide the 3D displacement vectors between tomogram acquisitions.
61 From the time series of displacement fields, we calculate the contracting, dilating and
62 shearing components of the strain tensor. From the time series of strain fields, we quantify
63 how the incremental volumetric and shear strain components evolve during the approach to
64 macroscopic failure.

65 This dataset enables comparing the strain localization and accumulation process in
66 experiments on sandstone, basalt, monzonite, granite, shale, and limestone. We quantify the
67 spatial correlation between each strain component, such as dilation and shear strain, and
68 systematically compare the evolving correlations among pairs of strain components as well as
69 different experiments and rock types. We track the strength of the strain accumulation process
70 with the mean value of the strain component in each DVC calculation. We track the
71 localization of the strain field using the volume of rock that the strain component occupies in
72 each DVC calculation. We compare the accumulation and localization process for the
73 volumetric strain components (dilation and contraction) and shear strain components (left- or
74 right-lateral). We track the correlation length of each of the strain components in order to
75 assess the growing (or shrinking) interaction distance of each strain component. The results
76 provide novel descriptions of the strain accommodation and localization process in brittle
77 rocks when approaching failure under upper crust conditions.

78

79 **2. Brittle failure processes in rocks**

80 Characterizing the micromechanical processes that produce brittle failure began with
81 theoretical solutions for the stress field surrounding circular and elliptical holes (*Kolosov*,
82 1909; *Inglis*, 1913). *Griffith* (1921) initiated the field of Linear Elastic Fracture Mechanics
83 (LEFM) by developing an energy-based condition for fracture propagation that lead to the

84 concept of the stress intensity factor, K , at a fracture tip (*Irwin*, 1948). Then, the stress field
85 surrounding a crack tip could be approximated from the loading and stress intensity factors
86 associated with tensile and shear fractures (e.g., *Lawn*, 1993). There are several well-
87 recognized limitations of this seminal work. The analytical formulations predict unbounded
88 stresses at the crack tip because LEFM formulations do not incorporate inelastic deformation
89 beyond a stress threshold. Fracture mechanics models that include inelastic deformation in a
90 process zone that eliminate crack tip singularities (e.g., *Rice*, 1980) help to address this
91 limitation. Moreover, these analytical formulations predict the stress field surrounding a
92 fracture tip and the likelihood of fracture propagation in systems with only one preexisting
93 fracture or weakness that is much larger than other flaws in the system.

94 The Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion provides a macroscopic approach to understand
95 brittle failure (*Coulomb*, 1776; *Mohr*, 1900), in contrast to the fracture-local, stress intensity
96 factor approach. This failure criterion uses the stress state and material properties of the rock
97 to predict whether and at what orientation a new fault develops, or whether slip occurs along a
98 preexisting fault plane. Under low compressive stresses, these predictions statistically match
99 observations (e.g., *Mitra*, 1994; *Storti et al.*, 1997; *Crider & Pollard*, 1998; *McBeck et al.*,
100 2017). But under tensile conditions, the theoretical uniaxial tensile strength derived from this
101 criterion tends to exceed experimental measurements (e.g., *Paul*, 1961). The breakdown of
102 the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion in the tensile range leads to using two sets of failure
103 criteria depending on whether the deformation is assumed to be dominated by tensile or shear
104 deformation. These two sets of criteria produce, in turn, two different sets of stress thresholds
105 for failure in tension or shear, and two sets of predicted fracture geometries (e.g., *Cooke &*
106 *Madden*, 2014).

107 Dynamic instabilities that produce macroscopic events may be analyzed by examining the
108 conditions leading to localization (*Rudnicki & Rice*, 1975; *Rice & Rudnicki*, 1980;

109 *Lyakhovsky et al.*, 1997, 2011). Localization may occur at the critical conditions when the
110 continuum equations of the increments of deformation lose ellipticity, or when the strain
111 energy function of the material loses convexity. These and other analytical formulations are
112 based on homogeneous solids, and so do not provide testable predictions about the precursors
113 to macroscopic failure. Consequently, they do not provide insight into how to recognize the
114 approach to brittle instabilities and macroscopic failures. Rock deformation experiments
115 under triaxial compression show that systematic precursors to rock failure are detectable, at
116 least in the laboratory (e.g., *Reches & Lockner*, 1994).

117 One of the most recognized precursors to failure in laboratory experiments is the
118 macroscopic dilation of the rock sample. Monitoring the macroscopic axial and transverse
119 strain of deformed rocks indicates that low porosity crystalline rocks dilate as they are
120 compressed (e.g., *Brace et al.*, 1966). The evolving reduction of seismic wave velocities and
121 increasing V_p/V_s ratios in experiments provides evidence for dilation as increasing volumes of
122 air- or water-filled fractures develop (*Nur*, 1972). Resolving the source types of acoustic
123 emission events (e.g., *Stanchits et al.*, 2006) further supports the concept that local tensile
124 failure produces opening-mode deformation that leads to macroscopic dilation, as inferred
125 from changes in the macroscopic strain and seismic velocities. Categorizing acoustic
126 emissions into tensile events and mixed-mode or shear events during brittle deformation
127 indicates that tensile failure can dominate the early deformation process, and that increasing
128 proportions of mixed-mode and shear events occur toward failure (e.g., *Stanchits et al.*, 2006;
129 *Rodríguez & Celestino*, 2019). These works highlight that rock failure includes a mixture of
130 deformation modes. Moreover, both the criteria used for tensile failure (Griffith) and shear
131 failure (Mohr-Coulomb) do not consider volume changes in their original formulations,
132 although some recent analyses have worked to incorporate dilation into the Mohr-Coulomb
133 framework (e.g., *Hamiel et al.*, 2005; *Zhao & Cai*, 2010).

134 Deriving the source type of acoustic emissions indicates that compactive mechanisms can
135 comprise 5-15% of the deformation mode in both granite and basalt, even under low
136 differential stress (20 MPa) (*Stanchits et al.*, 2006). Cataclastic deformation bands with lower
137 porosity than the surrounding rock (*Aydin & Johnson*, 1983) provide further evidence of local
138 compaction as a dominant deformation mechanism. In porous rocks like basalt, sandstone and
139 limestone that experience pore-collapse, local compaction may accommodate a greater
140 proportion of the deformation than shear or dilation under certain stress conditions (e.g.,
141 *Huang et al.*, 2019). Theoretical work that describes the conditions of pore collapse, such as
142 the Hertzian fracture concept, focus on the local stress concentrations that develop at the
143 edges of pores and between grains (e.g., *Wong et al.*, 1997). Consequently, several diverging
144 failure criteria describe the conditions of compactive, tensile, and shear failure, although field
145 and experimental evidence indicate that deformation occurs through the mixture of these
146 modes.

147 Experimental data from *in situ* X-ray microtomography experiments on rocks under
148 triaxial deformation can provide key observations on the importance of dilatational,
149 contractive and shear deformation mechanisms in different rocks under various stress and
150 temperature conditions. Microtomography scans image the 3D distribution of density
151 contrasts produced by opening or closing fractures and pores, and minerals and rock
152 fragments of different densities. Patterns of grey-level values that arise from density contrasts
153 enable DVC on pairs of microtomography scans. DVC on pairs of scans acquired throughout
154 triaxial rock deformation provide a time series of the 3D incremental strain tensor at varying
155 differential stresses. The evolving statistics of the populations of dilatational, contractive and
156 shear strains throughout the triaxial deformation enable comparing the relative importance of
157 these deformation modes among different rock types.

158 DVC analysis on Fontainebleau sandstone (*Renard et al.*, 2019a) and Mount Etna basalt
159 (*McBeck et al.*, 2019) indicate that shear and dilation dominated the deformation process in
160 these porous rocks under low confining stress (10-20 MPa). The mean of the dilatational
161 strain population increased by larger magnitudes than the shear strain throughout these
162 experiments, suggesting the greater importance of the micromechanisms that produce local
163 dilation rather than shear. Tracking the 2D strain field on the surface of Carrara marble loaded
164 in uniaxial compression also reveals the dominance of shear and dilatational strain events
165 throughout loading, with a greater frequency of dilatational events near macroscopic failure
166 (*Tal et al.*, 2016). DVC analyses on laminated Green River shale (*McBeck et al.*, 2018)
167 provide a different partitioning of the strain modes than observed in the experiments on
168 marble, sandstone and basalt. In two experiments on shale, the magnitude of radial dilation
169 was of the same order as the magnitude of axial contraction throughout loading (*McBeck et*
170 *al.*, 2018). Numerical modeling and the spatial distribution of localizing strain fields suggest
171 that localized contraction within a subhorizontal volume promotes shear strain localization
172 that leads to macroscopic failure of the rock (*McBeck et al.*, 2018). The varying partitioning
173 of the strain modes in these different rock types prompts the current investigation of strain
174 partitioning in six different rock types throughout twelve experiments.

175 The present work quantitatively compares the relative contribution of contraction, dilation
176 and shear strain in triaxial deformation experiments on sandstone, basalt, monzonite, granite,
177 shale and limestone. This work examines the synchronicity of the strain accumulation and
178 localization process by finding the volume of rock occupied by increasing values of one, two
179 or three of the strain modes at each stage of each experiment. The study links the strain
180 accumulation (changing magnitude) and strain localization (changing volume) processes in
181 the (contractive and dilative) volumetric and (left- and right-lateral) shear strain modes. The
182 results may help to determine the appropriate failure criterion to use when predicting rock

183 failure in varying differential stress conditions. The results may also help to indicate whether
184 different rock types require different failure criteria to robustly predict the onset of
185 macroscopic failure.

186

187 **3. Methods**

188 **3.1. In situ X-ray tomography experiment conditions**

189 We deform rocks in the X-ray transparent deformation apparatus, HADES (*Renard et al.*,
190 2016) installed on beamline ID19 at the European Synchrotron and Radiation Facility. The
191 rock samples are cylinders 1 cm tall and 4-5 mm wide (**Table 1**). In each experiment, we
192 increase the axial stress in steps of 0.5-5 MPa under constant confining stress between 5-35
193 MPa (**Table 1**) until the sample fails macroscopically. At each stress step, we acquire a 3D X-
194 ray tomogram at 6.5 μm per voxel-side resolution while the sample is under constant load
195 inside the deformation apparatus. Each scan requires about 2 minutes, and the final scan
196 immediately precedes the macroscopic rock failure. Due to the stress-controlled loading, the
197 rock cores fail with a rapid stress drop that prohibits imaging the rock as it supports
198 decreasing axial stress.

199 These experiments have been described in previous studies from our group, including the
200 experiments on Green River shale (*McBeck et al.*, 2018), Fontainebleau sandstone (*Renard et*
201 *al.*, 2019a), monzonite (*Renard et al.*, 2017, 2019b), Etna basalt (*McBeck et al.*, 2019) and
202 Anstrude limestone (*Renard et al.*, 2017). The X-ray microtomography data for many of these
203 experiments are available to the community (*Renard*, 2017, 2018a,b,c; *Renard & McBeck*,
204 2018).

205 **3.2. Digital volume correlation**

206 The DVC calculations are performed using the code TomoWarp2 (*Tudisco et al.*, 2017).
207 The DVC method searches for similar patterns of voxels in pairs of 3D volumes. The

208 parameters of the DVC calculation are constant in each experiment, with 20 voxel node
209 spacing (0.13 mm) and 10 voxel correlation window size. The node spacing determines the
210 spatial resolution of the calculation. The correlation window size determines the volume of
211 the cube used to identify similar patterns of voxels. Both of these parameters can influence the
212 magnitude of the strain calculated with DVC (*McBeck et al.*, 2018), so we keep the
213 parameters constant in each experiment.

214 For each experiment, ten DVC calculations are performed using scans separated by
215 approximately equal increments of axial strain, producing ten incremental displacement fields
216 between pairs of tomograms (**Figure 1**). The DVC calculations track the 3D displacement
217 field between each scan acquisition, so the displacement vectors reflect the incremental
218 deformation between the stress steps and not the cumulative deformation. Consequently, the
219 incremental strain tensors calculated from these displacement fields quantify the incremental
220 strain between each scan acquisition and not the cumulative strain.

221 From these displacement fields, we calculate the divergence and curl at each point of the
222 DVC calculation (**Figure S1**). Negative and positive values of divergence indicate contractive
223 and dilative strains, respectively. Negative and positive values of curl indicate the left-lateral
224 and right-lateral shear strains, respectively. In order to compare the magnitude of the strain
225 components throughout each experiment, we normalize the components by the macroscopic
226 axial strain between each scan used in the DVC calculation, following the procedure of
227 *McBeck et al.* (2018). This normalization aids comparison of the magnitude of the strain
228 components at different stress steps in an experiment. Larger increments of imposed
229 macroscopic axial strain will likely produce larger magnitudes of local strain than smaller
230 increments, so normalizing the local strains by the magnitude of these increments helps
231 reduce the impact of these varying magnitudes.

232 **3.3. Experimental rock types**

233 We focus on the deformation processes throughout twelve experiments on six rock types
234 in this contribution, with two experiments on each rock type. Fontainebleau sandstone is a
235 quartz arenite with a homogeneous mineralogical composition, well-sorted grain size
236 distribution, average grain diameter of 0.25 mm, and 3-30% porosity (*Bourbie & Zinszer,*
237 1985). Mount Etna basalt is a porphyritic intermediate alkali basalt that experienced quick
238 cooling, producing pores and thermal-induced fractures (*Vinciguerra et al., 2005; Benson et*
239 *al., 2007; Heap et al., 2009*). Westerly granite is a crystalline intrusive igneous rock
240 composed of about 40% plagioclase, 25% alkali feldspar, 29% quartz, and minor amounts of
241 biotite, muscovite and chlorite (*Rutter & Neumann, 1995*). Monzonite is a crystalline
242 intrusive igneous rock, and the monzonite deformed here has a mean grain size of 450 μm ,
243 and contains 18% quartz, 13% biotite, 58% plagioclase, 12% clinopyroxene and minor
244 minerals (*Aben et al., 2016*). We deformed cores from the organic rich (R-8 unit) Green River
245 shale that includes lacustrine marl/silt sediments that form laminations with 9.9 wt % organic
246 matter (*Kobchenko et al., 2011*). The layering (laminations) of the Green River shale cores
247 were set parallel to the maximum compression direction in these experiments. Anstrude
248 limestone is an oolitic limestone that is nearly monomineralic with 98% calcite (*Han et al.,*
249 2016). The sandstone, basalt and limestone cores had initial porosities of 5-7% (measured
250 with imbibition and tomography data), 3% (measured with tomography data) and 4-8%
251 (measured with tomography data), respectively. The initial porosities of the other rocks were
252 below 0.5% as calculated with the tomography data.

253

254 **4. Results**

255 **4.1. Correlating strain modes throughout loading**

256 The spatial distribution of strain components with high magnitudes provides insights into
257 the strain accumulation and localization processes within the rocks. **Figure 2** shows the

258 location of high magnitudes (>90th percentile) of dilation, contraction and shear strain in the
259 first DVC calculation, at the onset of loading under low differential stress, σ_D , and in the final
260 DVC calculation, immediately preceding macroscopic failure and under higher σ_D . In the
261 majority of the experiments, the strain fields are localized close to failure, but the granite and
262 shale experiments do not reveal localization immediately prior to macroscopic failure (**Figure**
263 2d, e). The strain fields may not show localization because the macroscopic failure of the
264 sample does not include localization and/or the localization occurs at a spatial or temporal
265 resolution below those of the DVC calculations.

266 Among the experiments that show localization prior to failure, some components of the
267 strain field appear spatially correlated with each other. In the sandstone and basalt
268 experiments, high magnitudes of shear strain develop near high magnitudes of dilation. In
269 contrast, in the monzonite and limestone experiments, high magnitudes of shear strain and
270 dilation develop far from each other in some portions of the core. In the monzonite
271 experiment, localized shear strain develops without accompanying dilation in the final DVC
272 calculation (**Figure 2c**). In the limestone experiment, localized dilation develops in the upper
273 portion of the core without localized shear strain (**Figure 2f**).

274 Following these observations, we calculate the Pearson correlation coefficient, ρ , between
275 the strain components within subvolumes throughout pairs of scans, and throughout the time
276 of the experiment. This calculation quantifies the spatial relationship between the strain
277 components observed qualitatively in **Figure 2**. In particular, we compare the mean of each
278 strain component magnitude within each sub-cube in a 3D grid separated by 0.2 mm, and thus
279 with 0.2^3 mm^3 volume each, about twice the spatial resolution of the DVC calculation (0.13
280 mm) (**Figure S1**). The correlation coefficients thus track the similarity and differences in
281 strain components within each sampling sub-cube of 0.2^3 mm^3 volume. We only report the
282 correlation coefficients that are statistically significant, with p -values <0.05 . Positive

283 correlations between strain components indicate that high magnitudes of one component are
284 associated with high magnitudes of the other component. Negative correlations indicate that
285 high magnitudes of one component are associated with low magnitudes of the other
286 component. Values of the correlation coefficient, $|\rho|$, <0.3 indicate weak correlations,
287 between 0.3 to 0.5 indicate moderate correlations, and $|\rho|>0.5$ indicate strong correlations
288 (e.g., *Cohen*, 1988).

289 To examine the correlation between how each strain component evolves from one DVC
290 calculation to the next, we also calculate the change in the mean of each strain component
291 magnitude at each cube in the sampling grid, and calculate the correlation coefficient between
292 the changes in the means. We do not consider the difference between left- and right-lateral
293 shear strains in this analysis, and perform the correlation calculations using the absolute value
294 of the shear strain. In summary, we report the correlation between the magnitude of 1) the
295 mean dilation and mean contraction magnitude, 2) the mean dilation and mean shear strain
296 magnitude, 3) the mean contraction and mean shear strain magnitude, 4) the change in the
297 mean dilation and change in the mean contraction magnitude, 5) the change in the mean
298 dilation and change in the mean shear strain magnitude, and 6) the change in the mean
299 contraction and change in the mean shear strain magnitude (**Figure 3**).

300 Most of the correlations between the mean of the strain components (**Figure 3a-b**) are
301 positive in each experiment, except the shale experiment GRS03. This experiment hosts a
302 moderate-strong negative correlation between contraction and dilation, and contraction and
303 shear strain (**Figure 3**, **Figure S2**). In the other experiments, contraction and dilation have
304 moderate-strong positive correlations, and contraction and shear strain have weak-moderate
305 positive correlations. In experiment GRS03, in contrast, increasing contraction does not yield
306 higher magnitudes of dilation or shear strain (**Figure S2**).

307 Whereas the directions (positive or negative) and strengths of the correlations between the
308 pairs of strain component means (**Figure 3a-b**) are similar in all but one experiment, the
309 correlations between evolving changes of the mean of the strain component (**Figure 3c-d**)
310 show greater differences. The correlations between the change in the dilation and contraction,
311 and contraction and shear strain are near zero or negative with weak strength. In contrast, the
312 correlation between the change in contraction and dilation are higher with moderate-strong
313 positive correlations.

314 These varying signs of the correlation coefficients indicate that the strain accommodation
315 process is dominated by the paired response of changes in dilation and shear strain throughout
316 each experiment. Increasing changes in dilation are paired with increasing changes in shear
317 strain. However, increasing changes in contraction are not strongly associated with increasing
318 changes in shear strain or increasing changes in dilation. Whereas the magnitudes of these
319 strain components (**Figure 3a-b**) are generally positively correlated with each other, the
320 changes of evolving strain components are only positively correlated for the paired dilation-
321 shear strain, and not for dilation-contraction and contraction-shear strain.

322 **4.2. Volumetric frequency of strain accommodation modes**

323 The observed differences in the correlation coefficients between changes in the mean
324 strain component magnitude prompt a more detailed investigation into the spatial distribution
325 of the modes of strain accommodation. Here, we examine the relative volumes of rock that
326 experience various strain accommodation modes, including the paired increase in dilation and
327 shear strain, the paired increase in contraction and shear strain, and the paired increase in
328 contraction and dilation in individual subvolumes throughout the rock cores (**Figure 4**). We
329 also report how this partitioning evolves from lower to higher differential stress conditions.
330 We document the relative fraction rock volume that experienced these varying strain
331 combinations, as measured with the number of cubic subvolumes that experienced different

332 strain combinations. These sampling subvolumes are the same as used in the analysis of
333 **Section 4.1.**

334 Throughout the full experiment, the most volumetrically frequent mode of strain
335 accommodation is the paired increase in the mean of dilation and shear strain (within the
336 same subvolume) in all but the granite experiment (WG04) (**Figures 4a, S3**). Even in
337 experiment WG04, this mode of strain accommodation is the second most frequent, after the
338 increase in shear strain (**Figures S3, 4**). The increase in the mean of only the shear strain is
339 typically the second or third most frequent strain accommodation mode in all experiments
340 (**Figures S3, 4**).

341 The nature of strain accommodation at the first (**Figure 4b**) and final (**Figure 4c**)
342 experimental stages captured in the DVC calculation shows that the most frequent mode of
343 strain accommodation evolves from lower to higher differential stress conditions. Early in
344 loading, the paired increase in contraction and dilation is generally one of the most frequent
345 modes. This mode of strain accommodation is the most frequent in the experiments on basalt,
346 monzonite and granite, and the second most frequent in the experiments on sandstone and
347 shale in the first DVC calculation. In the limestone experiments, the most frequent mode in
348 this early stage is the increase in only the shear strain.

349 Immediately preceding macroscopic failure, the paired increase in dilation and shear strain
350 is one of the most frequent modes, as well as the increase in only shear strain (**Figure 4c**).
351 The paired increase in dilation and shear strain is the most frequent mode in the basalt,
352 monzonite, granite and shale experiments at this stage. This mode is the second most frequent
353 in the sandstone and limestone experiments preceding failure. The most frequent mode in the
354 sandstone and limestone experiments is the lone increase in shear strain, and the decrease in
355 all of the strain components, respectively.

356 **4.3. Comparing strain accumulation and localization**

357 The previous analyses link the spatial coincidence of different strain components, and
358 compare the evolution of this coincidence from lower and higher differential stress
359 conditions. The differences in this evolution with differential stress prompt an examination of
360 the strain accommodation mode throughout each experiment with a higher temporal
361 resolution. In particular, we track the mean amplitude and rock volume occupied by four
362 strain components: dilation, contraction, left-lateral shear strain and right-lateral shear strain
363 at each DVC calculation (**Figures 5, S4, 6**). Previous work indicates that the evolution of the
364 rock volume occupied by dilation relative to contraction, and the volume occupied by left-
365 lateral relative to right-lateral shear strain, signal approaching macroscopic failure (*Renard et*
366 *al.*, 2019b; *McBeck et al.*, 2019).

367 We adopt the convention of showing when the dilation exceeds the contraction, and when
368 the left-lateral shear strain exceeds right-lateral shear strain (**Figures 5, S4, 6**). Because the
369 mean and volume of the dilation tend to increase, while those properties of the contraction
370 tend to decrease with loading, we mark the axial strain range when the dilation exceeds the
371 contraction. The axial strain range when the left-lateral shear strain exceeds the right-lateral
372 shear strain is no more significant than when the right-lateral shear strain exceeds the left-
373 lateral shear strain in our experiments. Marking the intervals when right-lateral shear strain
374 exceeds the left-lateral shear strain would produce the same patterns as found with the
375 adopted convention.

376 In all but one of the limestone experiments (ANS02), the mean of the dilation exceeds the
377 mean of the contraction at some stage (**Figures 5, S4**). Similarly, in all but this experiment,
378 the volume of rock occupied by dilation exceeds that occupied by contraction at some stage
379 (**Figures 5, S4**). Some of the experiments also show that the mean or volume of one of the
380 shear strain components exceeds the other for intervals of axial strain. In some experiments
381 (i.e., FBL01, GRS02, WG02) the axial strain interval over which the mean of the dilation

382 exceeds the mean of the contraction aligned with the axial strain interval over which the
383 volume occupied by the dilation exceeds the volume occupied by the contraction (**Figure 5a**,
384 d, e). In fewer experiments, the intervals over which both the mean and volume of left-lateral
385 shear strain exceeds the right-lateral shear strain coincide (i.e., FBL01, **Figure 5a**).

386 **Figure 6** shows the experiment stages (macroscopic axial strain) over which the dilation
387 exceeds the contraction, and the left-lateral shear strain exceeds the right-lateral shear strain,
388 in terms of either the mean magnitude or volume. In all but one of the experiments (ANS02),
389 the normalized axial strain when the dilation first exceeds the contraction occurred at 0.3-0.7
390 axial strain from failure (**Figure 6**). In the limestone experiment ANS02, the volume and
391 mean of the contraction exceed those properties of the dilation throughout the full experiment,
392 consistent with the expected pore-collapse mechanism operating in limestone during brittle
393 failure (e.g., *Zhu et al.*, 2010). In all of the experiments, the time when the mean dilation
394 exceeds the mean contraction overlaps the time when the volume occupied by dilation
395 exceeds the volume occupied by contraction. When higher magnitudes of dilation permeate
396 the rock, the dilative strains also occupy more volume than the contractive strains.

397 For most experiments (e.g., FBL02, MONZ05, GRS03), the timing of the shear strain
398 accommodation modes is not coincident. In these experiments, the mean of the left-lateral
399 shear strain exceeds the mean of the right-lateral shear strain throughout a time interval when
400 the volume occupied by the left-lateral shear strain does not exceed the volume occupied by
401 the right-lateral shear strain. Higher magnitudes of shear strain are not always (or often)
402 coincident with permeating larger volumes. The few experiments in which larger volumes of
403 left-lateral shear strain occur at the same axial strain ranges of larger means of left-lateral
404 shear strain include the sandstone experiment FBL01 and both basalt experiments.

405 To more directly compare the synchronicity of the strain accumulation and localization
406 processes, we report the percentage of the macroscopic axial strain (i.e., experimental time)

407 that both the mean and volume of one of the strain components (dilation or left-lateral shear
408 strain) exceed the other component (contraction or right-lateral shear strain) (**Figure 7**). We
409 report this percentage out of the total axial strain corresponding to the mean magnitude or
410 fractional volume, whichever is longer (e.g., **Figure 7a**). In only one experiment (sandstone,
411 FBL01), the percentage of overlap time when both the mean and volume of the left-lateral
412 shear strain exceed the right-lateral shear strain is higher than the percentage of overlap time
413 for the volumetric strains (**Figure 7c**). In seven experiments, the percentage of overlap time of
414 the volumetric strains is higher than the overlap time of the shear strains. In three
415 experiments, the overlap times of the volumetric and shear strains are similar. Grouping the
416 overlap times by rock types (**Figure 7b**), and calculating the average of the overlap time of
417 each pair of experiments on the same rock type, reveals that only the pair of experiments on
418 sandstone have average overlap times of the shear strain that exceed the average overlap times
419 of the volumetric strains. For all the other rock types, the average overlap times of the
420 volumetric strains are higher than the average overlap times of the shear strains.

421 Increases in the magnitude of dilation generally are coincident in time with increases in
422 the volume experiencing this dilation. In contrast, increases in the magnitude of shear strain
423 are coincident with increases in the volume rock experiencing the strain with lower frequency
424 than the volumetric strains. Whereas dilation tends to occupy larger volumes (delocalizing) as
425 it gains strength throughout each experiment, shear strain tends to occupy the same or smaller
426 volumes (localizing) as it gains strength.

427 **4.4. Tracking the interaction distance of strain modes**

428 Building on the previous observations, we now examine how the evolving local
429 volumetric and shear strains influence the strain network within the entire rock sample
430 throughout loading. We calculate the Pearson correlation coefficient between the same strain
431 components at pairs of sub-volumes in the core with increasing distances at each differential

432 stress step. The distribution of correlation coefficients at each stress step evolves from one at
433 zero distance (when the same sub-volumes are correlated to each other) to near zero at
434 distances close to the diameter of the rock core (4 mm) (**Figure S5**). The correlation length is
435 taken from the distribution of correlation coefficients as the distance at which the correlation
436 coefficient decreases below 0.5. We track the correlation length in each experiment for the
437 strain components of contraction, dilation, shear strain (including both the left- and right-
438 lateral shear), and the separate left- and right-lateral shear strains. **Figure S5** shows the
439 distribution of correlation coefficients with distance for half of the experiments, with one
440 example for each rock type, and the correlation lengths derived from these distributions of the
441 five strain components. **Figure 8** shows how the correlation lengths evolve with time (axial
442 strain) for the set of experiments shown in **Figure S5**.

443 In some experiments, such as for sandstone and granite, the correlation lengths of the
444 dilation, shear strain, and left-and right-lateral shear strains increase toward failure (**Figure**
445 8a, d). In other experiments, such as for basalt, these correlation lengths decrease toward
446 failure (**Figure 8b**). In the monzonite experiment, the correlation lengths of each strain
447 component increase somewhat throughout the loading (**Figure 8c**). The evolving correlation
448 lengths of the shale and limestone samples do not show a systematic trend with loading. In
449 these experiments, the correlation lengths of different strain components at a given stress step
450 differ from each other by 0.5-2 mm. In contrast, in the other experiments, the correlation
451 lengths of the dilation and shear strain components are more similar at a given stress step.

452 To compare the evolution of the correlation lengths across all 12 experiments, we show
453 the correlation length at the first and final DVC calculation of each experiment, and the
454 difference in the lengths between these times (**Figure 9**). In the first DVC calculation, under
455 lower differential stress, the dilation tends to produce the lowest correlation length of the
456 strain components for each rock type (**Figure 9a,b**). At this stage, the correlation lengths of

457 the contraction and shear strains tend to be similar to each other, and higher than the dilation.
458 In the final DVC calculation, under higher differential stress, the correlation length of the
459 contraction tends to be lower than the other strain components (**Figure 9c,d**). The correlation
460 length of the dilation tends to be larger than the contraction, and equal or greater than the
461 length of the shear strains. The difference in the correlation length between the first and final
462 DVC calculations shows that the dilation generally increases by the largest lengths throughout
463 loading (**Figure 9e,f**). In contrast, the contraction generally decreases in length with loading,
464 or remains at a similar value. The correlation length of the contraction tends to decrease with
465 loading for the sandstone, basalt, monzonite, and granite experiments, but stays at a similar
466 length for the shale and limestone experiments (**Figure 9f**). The change in the correlation
467 length with loading for the shear strain, and the individual left- and right-lateral shear strains
468 is on average near zero for the groups of rock types, but with ranges above and below zero by
469 up to 1 mm for each individual experiment. An analysis that accounts for correlations in
470 different directions, such as parallel and normal to the ultimate final failure zone, may provide
471 additional useful information, but is left for future work.

472 Tracking the change in the correlation length through time suggests that the dilatational
473 strain evolves from influencing the smallest volume of rock of the strain components under
474 lower differential stress to the largest volume of rock under higher differential stress. This
475 increasing interaction distance of the dilatational strain, and generally more limited interaction
476 distance of the shear strains, agrees with our observation that dilation tends to occupy larger
477 rock volumes when increasing in magnitude, whereas the shear strain occupies smaller
478 volumes (i.e., localizes) when increasing in magnitude (**Figures 6, 7**).

479

480 **5. Discussion**

481 **5.1. Coincidence of strain modes**

482 Digital volume correlation of tomography data acquired in twelve triaxial deformation
483 experiments on six rock types reveal the interplay of local contraction, dilation and shear
484 strain when approaching macroscopic failure. Our work indicates that the strain partitioning
485 process in crustal rocks under the triaxial conditions of the upper crust is dominated by the
486 synchronous expression of multiple strain modes (**Figures 3-4, 10a**). The strengths of local
487 correlations between each pair of strain components in the examined sub-volumes are similar
488 to each other (**Figure 3**). The link between shear strain and dilation has been well-recognized
489 in the brittle failure of rocks under triaxial compression (e.g., *Hamiel et al.*, 2004b, *Stanchits*
490 *et al.*, 2006; *Tal et al.*, 2016; *McBeck et al.*, 2019; *Renard et al.*, 2019a,b), and shear strain
491 associated with contraction has been recognized in fewer geologic systems such as cataclastic
492 compaction band development (e.g., *Aydin & Johnson*, 1983). However, the co-existence of
493 contraction and dilation in small sub-volumes has received less attention (e.g., *Renard et al.*,
494 2019b). The similarity of the strengths of the correlations may occur because we track this
495 correlation throughout triaxial loading, with increasing differential stress. The similar positive
496 correlation strengths suggest that the different modes of strain play complementary roles
497 during deformation. Loading accelerates the strain accumulation process, producing a
498 synchronous increase in the magnitude of local contraction, dilation and shear strain.

499 The correlations in the changes of the strain components align with previous inferences
500 about the link between dilation and shear strain, relative to contraction and shear strain
501 (**Figure 3**). In particular, the strength of the correlation between the change in dilation and
502 shear strain is higher than the correlation between the change in contraction and shear strain
503 in all of the experiments. Discrete compaction bands do not develop in any of the
504 experiments, so the link between contraction and shear strain is expected to be weak. When
505 rough surfaces slip, they must either abrade existing asperities or dilate, producing the strong
506 link between the change in dilation and shear strain (**Figure 10a**).

507 The most volumetrically frequent mode of strain accommodation throughout each
508 complete experiment is the paired increase in dilation and shear strain, and not the individual
509 increase in one of the strain modes, in eleven of twelve experiments (**Figure 4**). Under
510 relatively low differential stress, the most common strain accommodation mode is the paired
511 increase in dilation and contraction (**Figures 4, 10b**). The DVC analysis suggests that as
512 preexisting pores close due to increased axial and confining stress, they also dilate in volumes
513 near the contracting volumes (**Figure 10b**). The results agree with previous qualitative
514 observations of the spatial relationship between high magnitudes of dilation and contraction
515 recognized from DVC of X-ray tomography scans of monzonite (*Renard et al., 2019b*).
516 Earlier work has noted the tendency of porous rocks to macroscopically contract at the onset
517 of loading (e.g., *Brace et al., 1966*). First motion polarity analysis of acoustic emissions in
518 experiments on basalt and granite indicate that collapse-type events dominate deformation
519 under hydrostatic loading (*Stanchits et al., 2006*). Alternating increases and decreases in
520 gravity between flank eruptions on Mount Etna may have arisen from the opening of fractures
521 and local contraction, and not only from magma movement prior to failure (e.g., *Carbone et*
522 *al., 2014*).

523 Under higher differential stress, the most volumetrically common strain accommodation
524 mode is the paired increase in dilation and shear strain (**Figures 4, 10b**). The results indicate
525 that the dilation and shear strain magnitudes increase from one DVC calculation to the next
526 by similar magnitudes within each subvolume (**Figure 3**), and that this paired strain
527 combination occupies the largest volume within the rock out of all the possible strain
528 combinations (**Figure 4**). As mentioned, previous work has identified the importance of both
529 dilation and shear deformation in rock failure (e.g., *Stanchits et al., 2006*). This may arise
530 from micromechanical processes that include (1) the opening of smaller mode-I fractures that
531 link into through-going faults that accommodate shear strain detectable at the macroscopic

532 scale (e.g., *Petit & Barquins*, 1988; *Moore & Lockner*, 1995), (2) the propagation of tensile
533 fractures aligned parallel to σ_1 that form columns of rock that rotate to allow macroscopic
534 shear (e.g., *Peng & Johnson*, 1975), and/or (3) the opening of tensile fractures aligned parallel
535 to σ_1 at the tips of wing-cracks inclined relative to σ_1 that accommodate slip (e.g., *Wong &*
536 *Chau*, 1998). The spatial resolution of the DVC analyses presented here does not enable
537 distinguishing between these different micromechanisms, but does indicate that these
538 processes are consistent with the high volumetric frequency and strong positive correlation of
539 the coeval development of dilation and shear strain.

540 The difference in the most volumetrically frequent strain accommodation mode from
541 lower (contraction and dilation) to higher (dilation and shear strain) differential stresses
542 suggest that different failure criteria may apply for local and macroscopic failures under these
543 different stress conditions. Under lower differential stresses, criteria that describe the
544 conditions of pore-collapse and tensile failure (e.g., *Wong et al.*, 1997) may be the most
545 successful at predicting local failure. Under higher differential stresses, criteria that
546 incorporate micromechanisms that accommodate both dilation and shear (e.g., *Peng &*
547 *Johnson*, 1975; *Petit & Barquins*, 1988; *Moore & Lockner*, 1995; *Wong & Chau*, 1998) may
548 be the most successful for predicting progressive development of local processes that produce
549 macroscopic failure. When considering the complete loading history of an experiment under
550 triaxial compression, or progressively increasing differential stress in a volume of crust,
551 criteria that involve the paired development of dilation and shear deformation may be most
552 successful.

553 **5.2. The relationship between strain accumulation and localization**

554 Tracking the mean and the volume of rock occupied by each strain component in each
555 DVC calculation reveals differences between the strain accumulation and localization
556 processes of the volumetric and shear strains. These processes occur over longer periods of

557 time (i.e., macroscopic axial strain) for the local volumetric strains than the local shear strains.
558 In all but one experiment, both the mean and volume of the dilatational strains exceed those
559 of the contractive strains at some stage of the experiment. In particular, the mean and volume
560 of the local dilation exceed those of the contraction between 0.3-0.7 normalized axial strain,
561 with 1 being the axial strain at failure (**Figure 6**). For these experiments, the axial strain at
562 which the mean dilation exceeds the mean contraction occurs close to when the volume
563 occupied by the dilatational strains exceeds the volume occupied by the contractive strains
564 (**Figure 7**). In contrast, the timing of when the mean of the left-lateral shear strain exceeds the
565 mean of the right-lateral shear strain coincides with the trends in the volume occupied by the
566 different shear strains over a shorter time period (**Figures 6, 7**). Whereas dilation tends to
567 occupy larger volumes (delocalizing) as it increases in amplitude, the shear strain tends to
568 occupy the same or smaller volumes (localizing) as it gains strength (**Figures 7c, 10c**).
569 Tracking the correlation length of each of the strain components throughout loading supports
570 these observations (**Figures 8, 9**). The correlation length of the dilation tends to increase by
571 the largest magnitudes from lower to higher differential stresses, whereas the correlation
572 lengths of the other components tend to change by lower magnitudes (**Figures 8, 9**).
573 Throughout loading, the interaction range of dilation tends to increase, while this range tends
574 to decrease or stay similar for the other strain components.

575 The differences between the evolution of the dilatational and shear strains are somewhat
576 intuitive because dilatational strain involves volume change implicitly, but shear strain does
577 not necessarily. However, the methods of calculating the volume occupied by each strain
578 component and tracking the correlation length do not consider the change in volume produced
579 by each deformation mode. These methods only consider the number of subvolumes that
580 contain the expression of the strain mode, and the magnitude of the strain components in these
581 subvolumes. These analyses demonstrate that the dilatational strain accumulation process

582 involves increases in volume within the subvolume of calculation, increases in the number of
583 subvolumes exhibiting dilation, and increases in the distance of the influence of dilation.

584 The development of networks of compaction bands may also produce a paired increase in
585 the magnitude of strain accommodated by the bands and the volume occupied by the bands
586 with increasing differential stress. *Mair et al.* (2000) documented that the total amount of
587 macroscopic axial strain accommodated by high porosity (20%) sandstone in triaxial
588 deformation experiments was linearly related to the number of compaction bands that
589 developed. If the amount of local strain accommodated by each band also increased with the
590 number of bands, then both the magnitude of local strain and volume experiencing this strain
591 would have increased, consistent with the trend observed in the DVC results. Interestingly,
592 this trend does not occur for only the experiments with sandstone, but in the experiments with
593 the other sedimentary rocks and low porosity crystalline rocks as well (**Figures 6, 7**).

594 Moreover, this trend may exist for the local contractive strains during compaction band
595 development (e.g., *Mair et al.*, 2000), but the DVC calculations identify this trend in the
596 dilatational strain rather than the contractive strain in eleven of twelve experiments.

597 The eventual coalescence of many individual fractures into through-going faults produces
598 the observed paired increase in left- or right-lateral shear strain and decrease in the volume
599 occupied by that strain. Fault networks may evolve from distinct fracture segments that
600 propagate until they begin to interact and link with neighboring segments, ultimately forming
601 one or a few larger faults (e.g., *Mansfield & Cartwright*, 2001; *Ben-Zion & Sammis*, 2003;
602 *Crider & Peacock*, 2004; *Crider*, 2015; *Peacock et al.*, 2018). The mean shear strain (in either
603 the left- or right-lateral direction) accommodated by each smaller fault segment at the
604 incipient stages of fault network development may be lower than the mean shear strain
605 accommodated by the more continuous fault strands that develop later. Similarly, the total
606 volume of the incipient fault segments could be higher than the total volume of the through-

607 going fault strands if some of the fault strands are abandoned as other segments link. Under
608 ductile deformation conditions, the magnitude and volume of shear strain accommodated in a
609 shear zone may show a similar behavior: increasing in magnitude while decreasing in volume.
610 Over time, the effective width of a shear zone may decrease, increasing the shear strain
611 accommodated along the zone, provided the amount the fault-plane parallel displacement
612 remains similar or constant. In both the brittle and ductile realms, the shear strain
613 accumulation and localization processes may evolve in opposite senses: increasing in
614 magnitude while decreasing in volume (e.g., **Figure 10c**), as documented in our experiments.

615

616 **6. Conclusions**

617 Using twelve triaxial deformation X-ray tomography experiments on six rock types, we
618 examine the strain accumulation and localization process as rocks are compressed toward
619 failure. At these experimental conditions representing the upper crust (5-35 MPa confining
620 stress), the strain accumulation process involves the paired increase in several components.
621 The strengths of this paired increase of strain components, as measured with the Pearson
622 correlation coefficient, are moderate-high in all but one experiment (**Figure 3**). The
623 correlation between the *changes* in the dilation and shear strain from one tomogram to the
624 next (or stress step) are stronger than the correlations between the changes in the (1)
625 contraction and shear strain and (2) dilation and contraction. Tracking the volumetric
626 frequency of strain components reveals that the most frequent mode of strain accommodation
627 throughout each complete experiment is the paired increase in the dilation and shear strain in
628 eleven of twelve experiments (**Figure 4**). Under low differential stress, the most
629 volumetrically frequent mode of strain accommodation is the paired increase in dilation and
630 contraction (**Figures 4, S3, 10b**). Under higher differential stress, the most volumetrically
631 frequent mode of strain accommodation is the paired increase in dilation and shear strain

632 **(Figures 4, 10b)**. Tracking the mean of each strain component and volume of rock occupied
633 by the strain component reveals different behaviors of the volumetric and shear strains
634 **(Figures 5, 6, 7, S4)**. Whereas dilation tends to occupy larger volumes (delocalizing) as it
635 gains strength, shear strain tends to occupy the same or smaller volumes (localizing) as it
636 gains strength **(Figures 7, 10c)**. Tracking the correlation distance for each of the strain
637 components throughout loading shows that the interaction distance of the dilation grows
638 larger from lower to higher differential stress than any of the other strain components,
639 including the contraction and shear strains **(Figures 8, 9, 10c)**. These observations provide
640 constraints on the relevant failure criteria that describe the onset of localized failure, and the
641 corresponding precursory signals. Successful macroscopic failure criteria should incorporate
642 the paired response of dilation and shear strain to describe and predict the evolution toward
643 failure. Future work may use the presented observations of the differing evolutions of
644 magnitude, correlation length and volume occupied by the dilation and shear strain from
645 lower to higher differential stress to assess the success of existing and new failure criteria.
646 The observed trends in strain accumulation and localization tend to be consistent among the
647 six rock types, suggesting that different rock types may not require different failure criteria.
648 This idea suggests that a unified theory may be able to describe precursory strain localization
649 leading to macroscopic failure in rocks of varying microstructure, porosity and composition.

650

651 **Acknowledgements**

652 The deformation apparatus was built by Sanchez Technology. Elodie Boller, Paul Tafforeau,
653 and Alexander Rack provided advice on the design of the tomography setup. Stephen Hall
654 and Erika Tudisco provided advice on the application of TomoWarp2. This study received
655 funding from the Norwegian Research Council (project PROMETHEUS, grant 267775).
656 Beamtime was allocated at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (Long Term

657 Proposal ES-295). Data storage was provided by UNINETT Sigma2 - the National
658 Infrastructure for High Performance Computing and Data Storage in Norway (project
659 NS9073K). The DVC data will be available on UNINET Sigma2 – the National Infrastructure
660 for High Performance Computing and Data Storage in Norway upon publication of the
661 present work.

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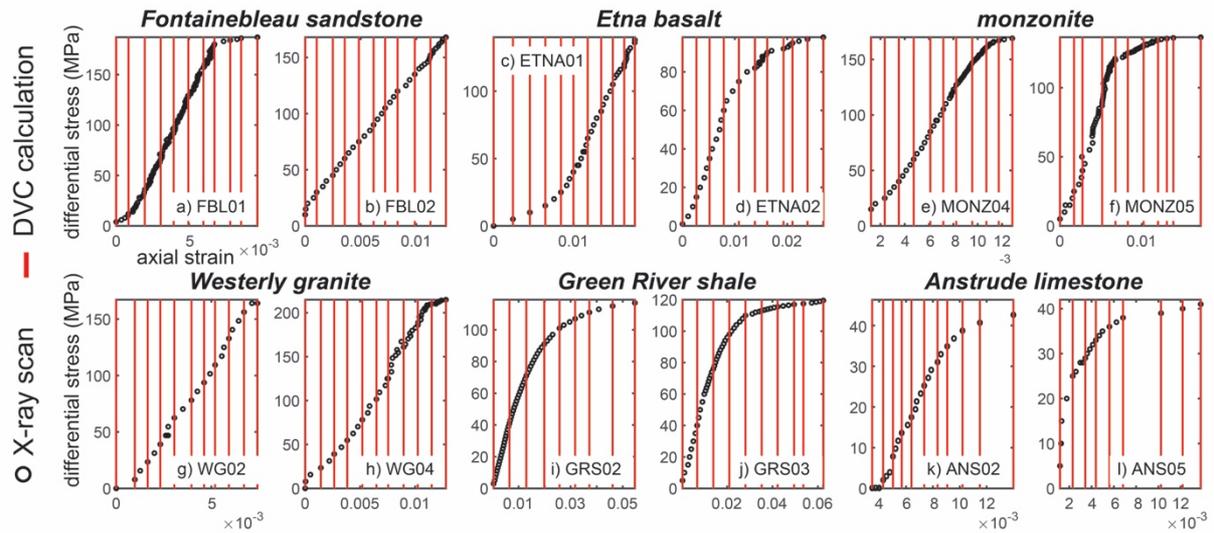
839 **Table 1**

840 Experimental conditions, materials, dimension of rock cores and numbers of X-ray

841 tomograms acquired in twelve rock deformation experiments.

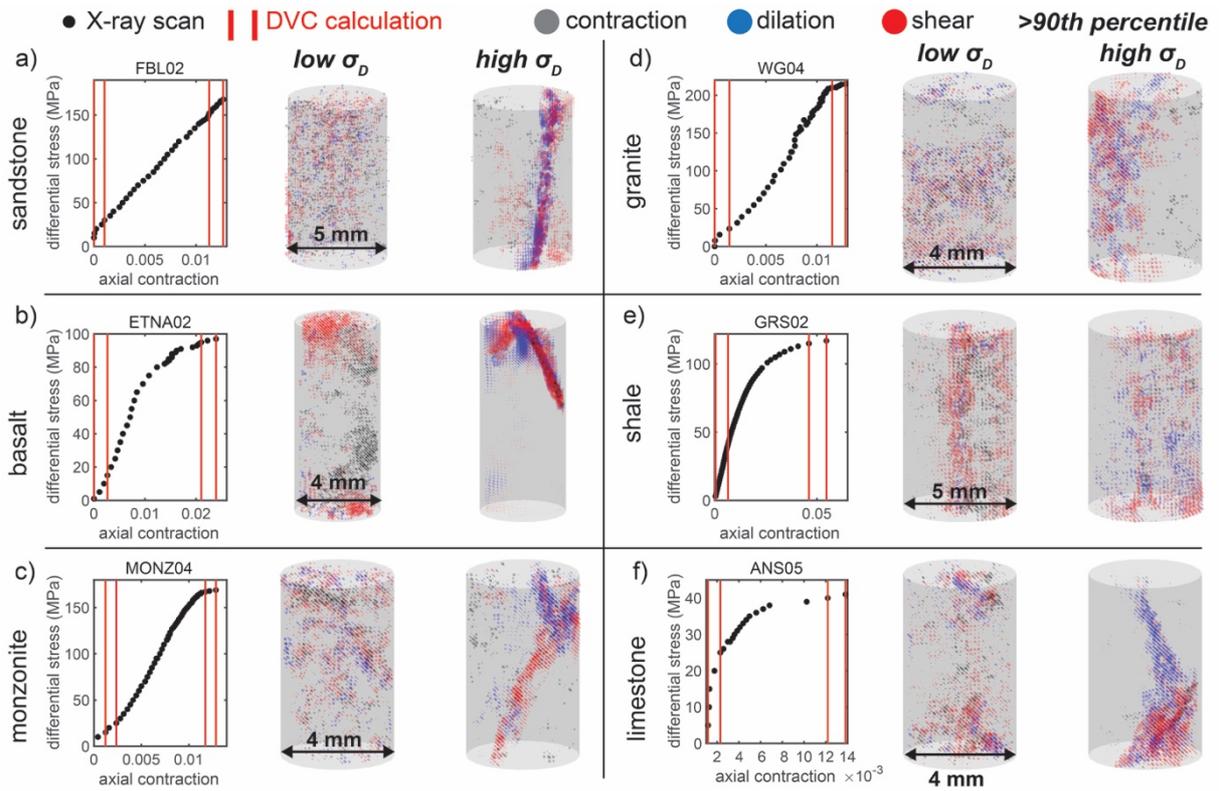
rock type	experiment code	confining stress (MPa)	sample diameter (mm)	# of X-ray tomograms
Fontainebleau sandstone	FBL01	20	5	184
	FBL02	10	5	47
Mount Etna basalt	ETNA01	10	4	32
	ETNA02	10	4	36
monzonite	MONZ04	35	4	65
	MONZ05	25	4	80
Westerly granite	WG02	5	4	30
	WG04	10	4	66
Green River shale	GRS02	20	5	60
	GRS03	20	5	61
Anstrude limestone	ANS02	20	5	41
	ANS05	5	5	26

842



843 **Figure 1**

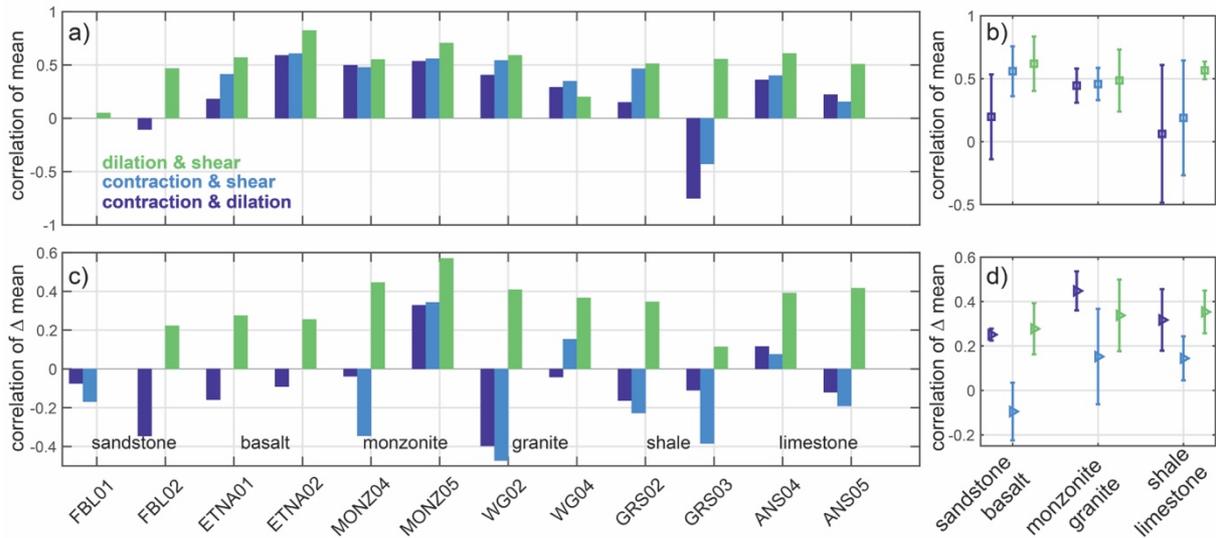
844 Loading history of experiments on Fontainebleau sandstone (a-b), Mount Etna basalt (c-d),
 845 monzonite (e-f), Westerly granite (g-h), Green River shale (i-j), and Anstrude limestone (k-l).
 846 Black dots indicate the axial strain and differential stress conditions when an *in situ* X-ray
 847 tomogram is acquired. Red lines indicate the loading conditions of the tomograms used in the
 848 DVC calculations. The pairs of tomograms used in the DVC calculation are separated by
 849 approximately constant amounts of macroscopic axial strain in each experiment.



850

851 **Figure 2**

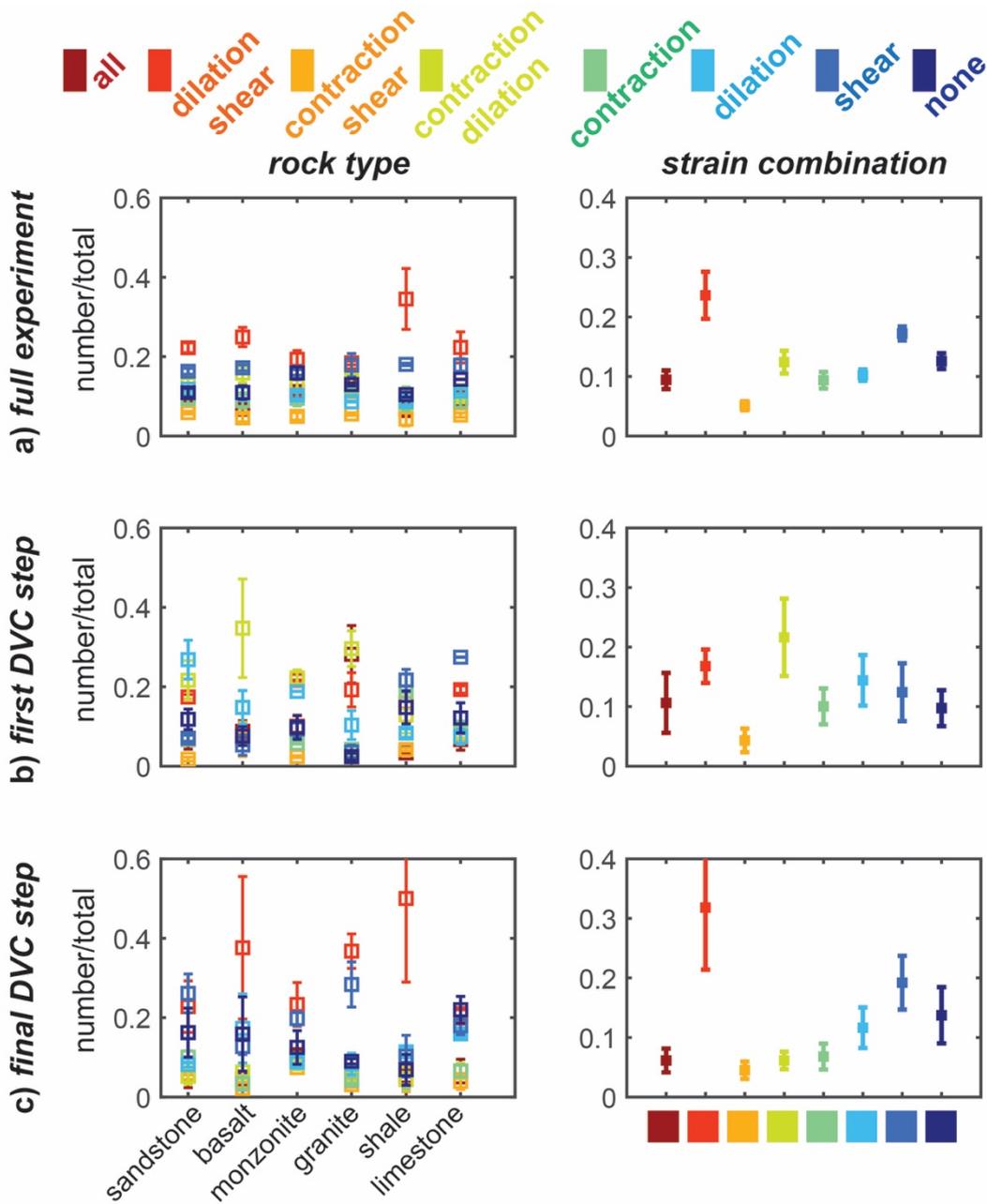
852 Snapshots of the 3D strain fields at low and high differential stress, σ_D , for experiments on
 853 sandstone (a), basalt (b), monzonite (c), granite (d), shale (e), and limestone (f). The plots show
 854 the stress-strain conditions of each acquired tomogram (black dots), and the conditions of the
 855 DVC calculations (red lines). Black, blue and red dots in the gray cylindrical cores show where
 856 the contraction, dilation and shear strain exceed the 90th percentile of the corresponding strain
 857 population, respectively.



858

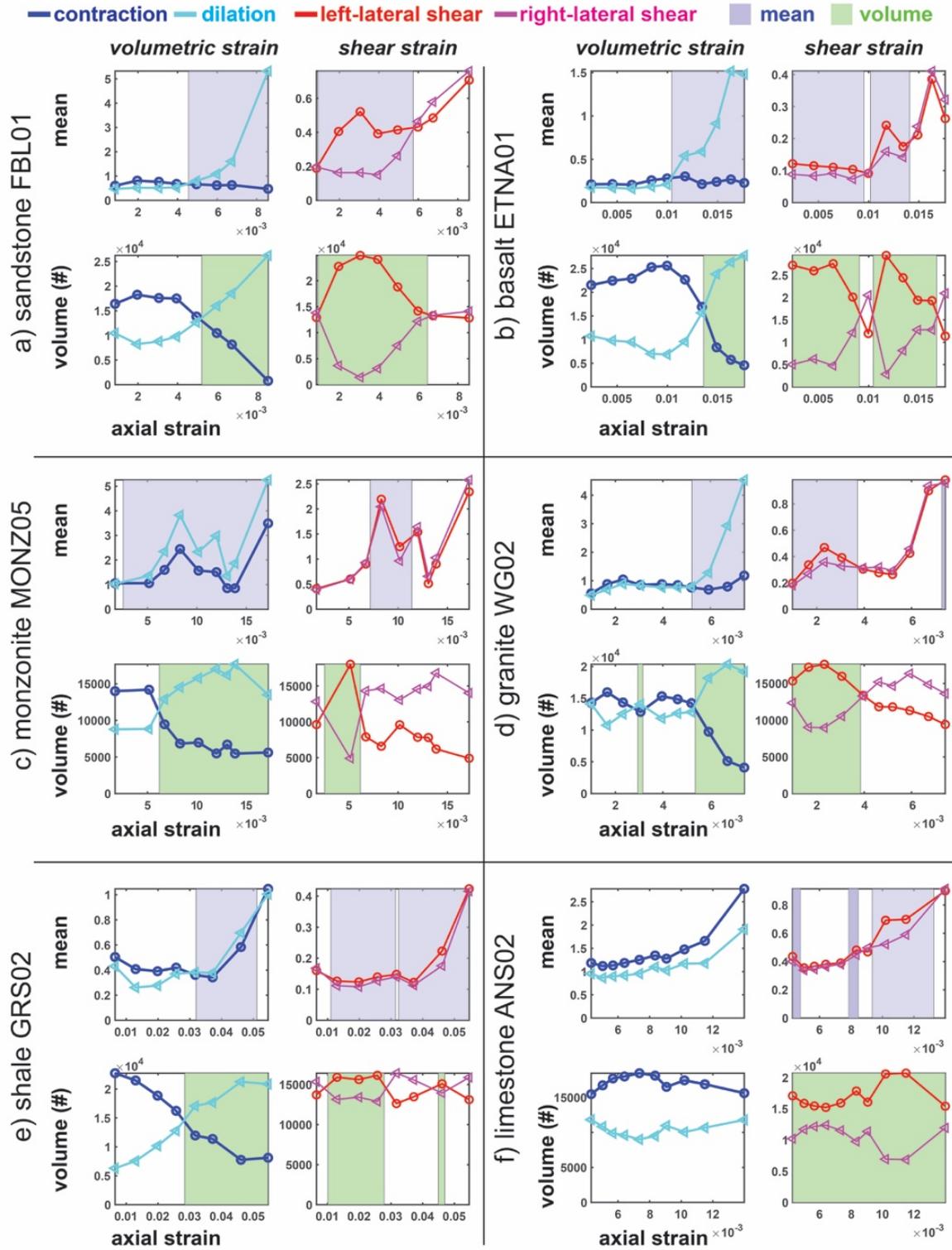
859 **Figure 3**

860 Correlation coefficients between the strain component means (a-b) and change in the strain
 861 component means (c-d) at subvolumes throughout each experiment. Correlation between 1) the
 862 dilation and shear strain, 2) contraction and shear strain, and 3) contraction and dilation shown
 863 with 1) green, 2) light blue, and 3) dark blue, respectively. b, d) Mean \pm one standard deviation
 864 of the correlation coefficient between the magnitude of the strain means (b) and change in strain
 865 means (d) for each of the four experiments on sandstone and basalt, monzonite and granite, and
 866 shale and limestone.



867 **Figure 4**

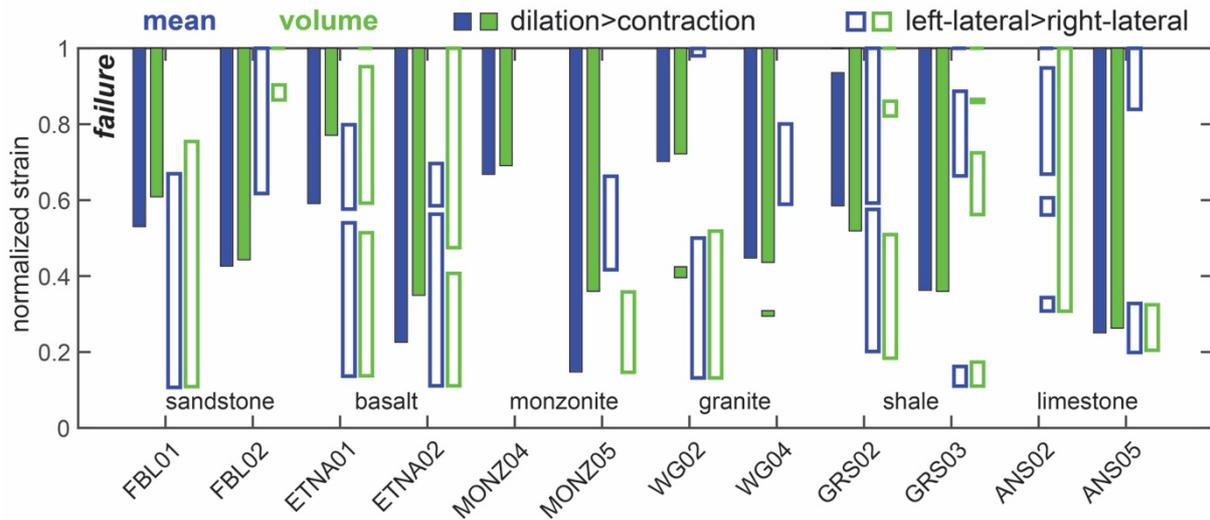
868 Summary of the differences in strain accommodation modes at different stages of loading: a)
 869 throughout the full experiment, b) first DVC calculation, and c) final DVC calculation. Left:
 870 mean \pm one standard deviation of the normalized strain accommodation frequency, n/t , of the
 871 two experiments of each rock type. n/t is measured as the number of voxels occupied by the
 872 increase in none, all, one, or two of the strain components, n , out of the total number of voxels,
 873 t . Right: mean \pm one standard deviation of n/t for all the experiments.



874 **Figure 5**

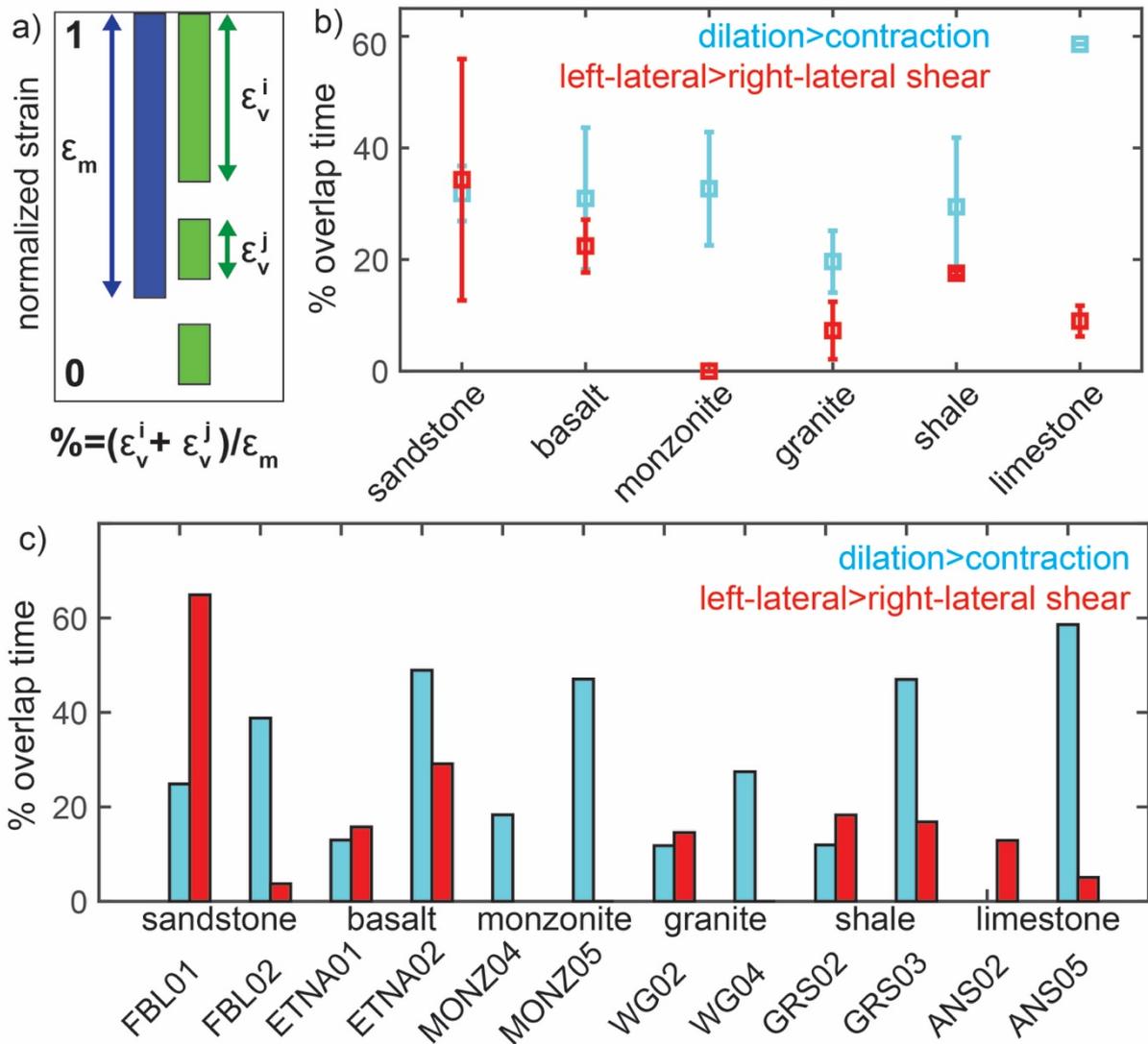
875 Evolution of strain accommodation throughout time (macroscopic axial strain) in six
 876 experiments on a) sandstone, b) basalt, c) monzonite, d) granite, e) shale and f) limestone. First
 877 row of each subsection shows the mean of the strain components, including the dilation,
 878 contraction, left-lateral and right-lateral shear strain. Second row shows the volume of the rock

879 that each strain component occupied as the number of voxels. Left and right columns of each
880 subsection show the dilation (light blue) and contraction (dark blue), and left-lateral (red) and
881 right-lateral (pink) shear strain, respectively. Blue and green rectangles highlight the time when
882 the dilation mean (blue) or volume (green) exceeds the contraction mean or volume, and when
883 the left-lateral shear strain mean or volume exceeds the right-lateral shear strain mean or
884 volume, respectively. **Figure S4** shows these data for the other six experiments.



885 **Figure 6**

886 Time periods during each experiment when the mean or volume of the dilation exceeds the
 887 contraction, or when the mean or volume of the left-lateral shear strain exceeds the right-lateral
 888 shear strain. Time is reported as the normalized strain: the axial strain divided by the axial strain
 889 immediately preceding macroscopic failure, with zero at the onset of loading and one at failure.
 890 Time periods that correspond to the mean and volume of the strain components shown with
 891 blue and green, respectively. Time periods that correspond to the volumetric strains and shear
 892 strains shown with filled rectangles and outlines of rectangles, respectively. The mean and
 893 volume of the dilation exceeds the contraction by the end of the experiment in eleven of twelve
 894 experiments. Near the axial strain when the dilation mean exceeds the contraction mean, the
 895 dilation volume also exceeds the contraction volume. This synchronicity of the mean and
 896 volume identified for the volumetric strains does not occur for the shear strain components.
 897 Dilation tends to delocalize while gaining strength (increasing in mean and volume at the same
 898 time), whereas shear strain tends to localize or remain at similar volumes while gaining strength
 899 (increasing in mean, but not in volume, or vice versa).

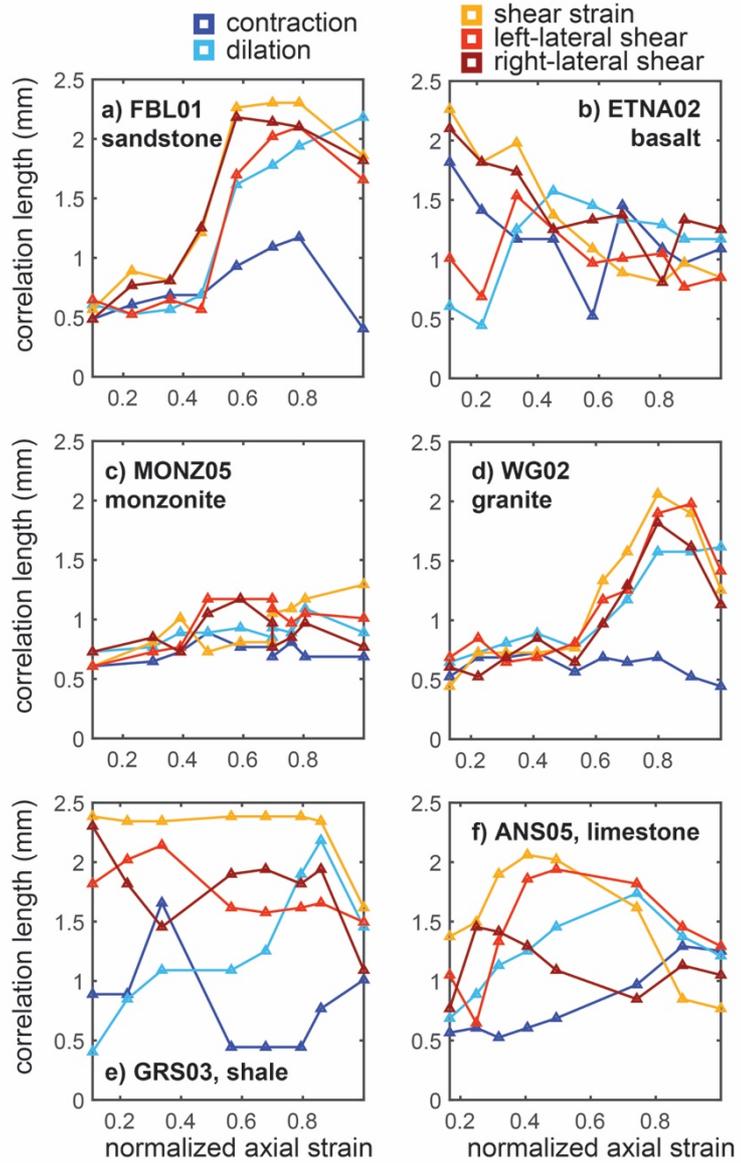


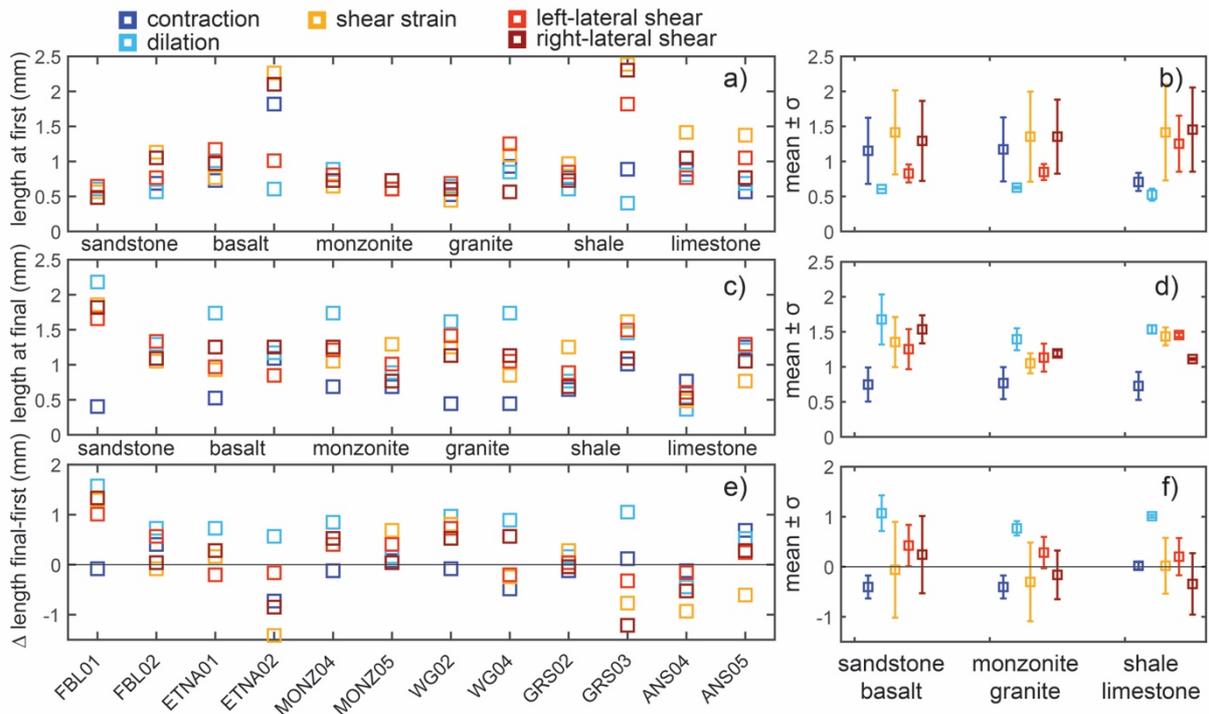
900 **Figure 7**

901 Percent of overlap time when both the mean and volume of a strain component (dilation or left-
 902 lateral shear strain) exceeds the other strain component (contraction or right-lateral shear
 903 strain). a) Sketch of quantities used to calculate percent overlap time, using the range of
 904 normalized axial strain when the mean, ϵ_m , and volume, ϵ_v , of a strain component exceeds the
 905 other strain component. Percent overlap time for rock types as the mean \pm one standard
 906 deviation of each pair of experiments (b), and for individual experiments (c) when the dilation
 907 exceeds the contraction (blue) and left-lateral shear strain exceeds the right-lateral shear strain
 908 (red). The percent overlap time of the volumetric strains tends to be larger than the percent
 909 overlap time of the shear strains.

910 **Figure 8**

911 Correlation length of each
 912 strain component throughout
 913 loading in six example
 914 experiments. **Figure S5** shows
 915 the distribution of the
 916 correlation coefficient with
 917 distance for each of these
 918 experiments, and the
 919 correlation length. In some
 920 experiments, the correlation
 921 length increases with loading,
 922 while in other experiments the
 923 correlation length decreases or
 924 remains similar.

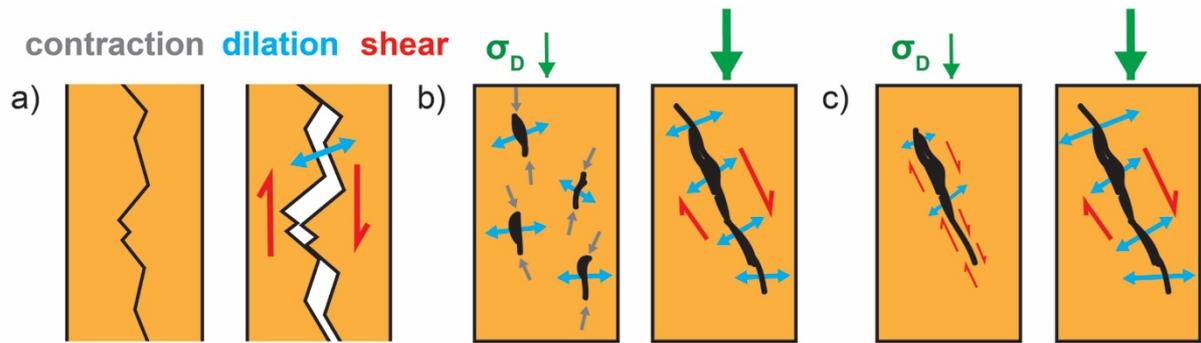




925

926 **Figure 9**

927 Evolution of the correlation length of strain components in each experiment (a, c, e) and as
 928 averages of groups of experiments on similar rock types (b, d, f). Correlation length at the first
 929 (a, b) and final (c, d) DVC calculations. e, f) Difference in the lengths between the first and
 930 final DVC calculations. In the first calculation, under lower differential stress (a, b), the dilation
 931 tends to have the lowest correlation length of the strain components. Under higher differential
 932 stress (c, d), the dilation tends to have the highest correlation length of the strain components.
 933 Consequently, the dilation correlation length tends to increase by the largest magnitudes (e, f).
 934 These trends are consistent among the six rock types, and groups of rock types.



935

936 **Figure 10**

937 Schematic representation of the strain accumulation and localization process. a) To
 938 accommodate shear strain (red arrows) along rough fractures, portions of the fracture surfaces
 939 must dilate (blue arrows). b) Under lower differential stress (left), the paired increase in
 940 contraction and dilation dominates deformation. b) Under higher differential stress (right), the
 941 paired increase in dilation and shear strain dominates deformation. c) The diverging behavior
 942 of the strain localization and accumulation process of volumetric and shear strains. Increases in
 943 the magnitude of dilation (shown with the thickness of blue arrows) are paired with increases
 944 in the volume of rock experiencing dilation (shown with the number of blue arrows). In contrast,
 945 increases in the magnitude of shear strain (shown with the thickness of red arrows) are not often
 946 paired with increases in the volume of rock experiencing shear strain (shown with the number
 947 of red arrows). The correlation length of dilation tends to increase from lower to higher
 948 differential stress. In contrast, the correlation length of shear strain does not systematically
 949 increase or decrease across all twelve experiments.