

## 2. Measurement of discontinuity characteristics

### General things about joint survey

- It is recommended to measure and record as many items as possible for the joints (discontinuities). Additional afterward survey for the missed items makes the survey inefficient and costly.
- Image processing technique for site investigation has been continuously developed but it has to still go further to catch up with human ability of observation. Ex.) Papers of image processing
- 150 ~ 350 discontinuities are known by experience to be reasonable for one sampling location. This means that 1,000 ~ 2,000 discontinuities are adequate for a site consisting of 5 ~ 15 sampling locations.
- Precise analysis is as important as precise joint survey.

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### New directions in rock mechanics - report on a forum sponsored by the American Rock Mechanics Association

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#### Abstract

The American Rock Mechanics Association (ARMA) and the ARMA Foundation sponsored a forum on **New Directions for US Rock Mechanics** which was held at the Asilomar Conference Center in Pacific Grove, California USA, during 18-20, October 1998. The goal of the Forum was to focus on: (1) a strategic vision for the future of rock mechanics in the United States; (2) the identification and delineation of critical issues facing the rock mechanics community; (3) the role of research in addressing these issues; and (4) critical areas of research in each of the topic areas addressed at the forum including examples of specific research initiatives. To a large degree, rock mechanics has been used successfully to model and predict the behavior of fractured rock masses for building large structures. However, improvements on present success, and future advances in modeling and construction, are predicated on **better characterization of fractured rock masses**. This will require increasing **emphasis on non-linear and discontinuity-based models** to reflect the mechanisms at work in fractured rock masses. For example, relevant characterization schemes, as well as field, laboratory, and logging techniques have yet to be developed for weak rock conditions and for all but the simplest fluid flow conditions.

This report summarizes two days of discussion held during the Forum. It was the sense of the Forum participants that **fundamental improvements in in-situ rock mass characterization is of the utmost importance**. Every session emphasized that obtaining valid information from large volumes of rock is the prerequisite for the effective and improved practice of rock mechanics. **Research and application of remote imaging and non-destructive evaluation of the subsurface** should provide a source of economically realizable data from large volumes of rock. **This area should be a primary goal of future research. Associated with the question of site characterization is the degree of uncertainty associated with the data, and with the chosen interpretive model. Forum participants also recommended conducting research to find implementations of stochastic techniques, which would allow uncertainty to be dealt with in a rational manner.**

Survey methods of rock mass - borehole sampling and exposed rock face sampling.

### (1) Borehole sampling

Advantage/application :

- (Economically) applicable to the deep part of rock mass
- Borehole cores are available for RQD evaluation and various lab tests.
- Joint orientation can be measured in borehole core (using a double tube core barrel) or wall
- In-situ stress/deformability of rock mass (hydrofracturing, Goodman jack)
- Ground water level/pressure and rock mass permeability
- Evaluation of ore grade/geological structure

Disadvantage/notes :

- Borehole TV is more convenient to measure the joint orientation with than borehole core
- Joint (trace) size is normally not able to be measured
- Carefully differentiate the natural discontinuities from artificial ones.
- Infill materials can be easily disturbed/contaminated at core recovery.

Description/logging :

Rock material, core barrel, RQD, comments on discontinuities, test results etc. (Fig. 2.1)

Measuring joint orientation : when the borehole is in vertical direction

- With rock core (p.29)
- On borehole wall

Measuring joint roughness :

- With rock core
- On borehole wall (refer to next page)

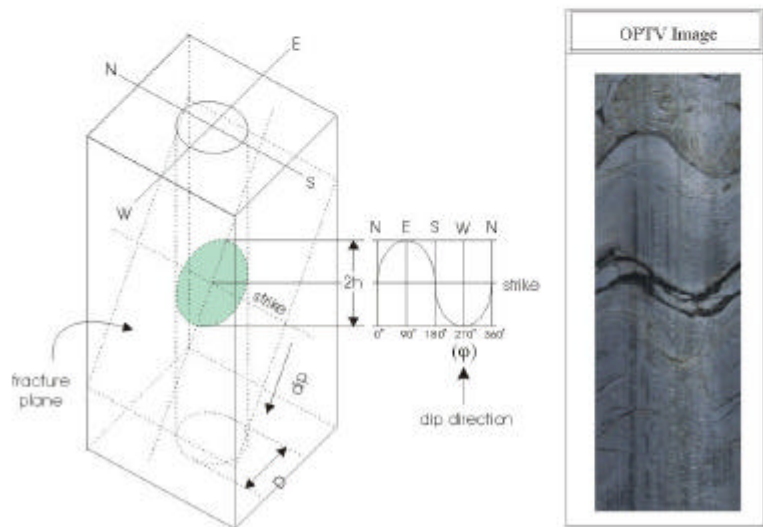


Fig. Application of borehole television

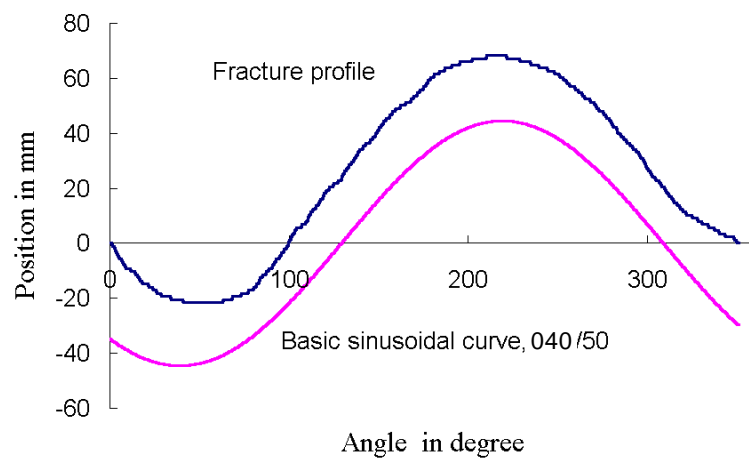


Fig. Joint trace on the borehole wall and its corresponding sine wave

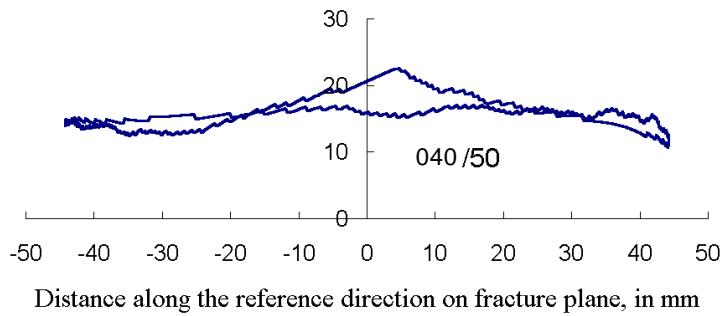


Fig. Joint profile projected on a specifically oriented plane

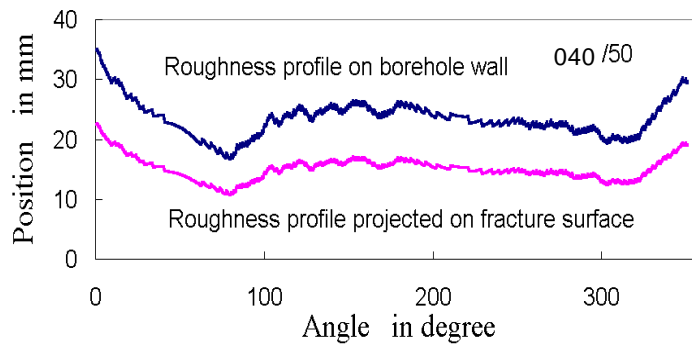


Fig. Joint roughness profile on borehole wall and another roughness profile projected on fracture surface

### Borehole TV logging system

TV in "Borehole TV Logging System" is an abbreviation of two different words: television and televiewer. The former uses optical lenses while the latter uses ultra sonic waves to observe (survey) the borehole wall.

The borehole television logging system is frequently referred to as "Borehole Image Processing System (BIPS)". BIPS provides the direct view of a target with a straightforward mechanism. This enables BIPS to be applied to dry boreholes or cavities and to show ground water flow in borehole, while suspending materials in the water prevent it from observing water flow or borehole wall.

The borehole televiewer has a unit to detect the magnetic north (Zemmanek etc, 1969) as BIPS dose. The televiewer sends a stream of ultra sonic waves (thousands per second) towards the borehole wall as it is lifted up with rotation. The reflected sonic waves are continuously recorded. Through their amplitude and traveling time, we can measure borehole radius, joint orientation and mechanical properties of rock. The observed or analysed images are normally recorded with depth in digital formats. Both techniques/systems complement well each other.

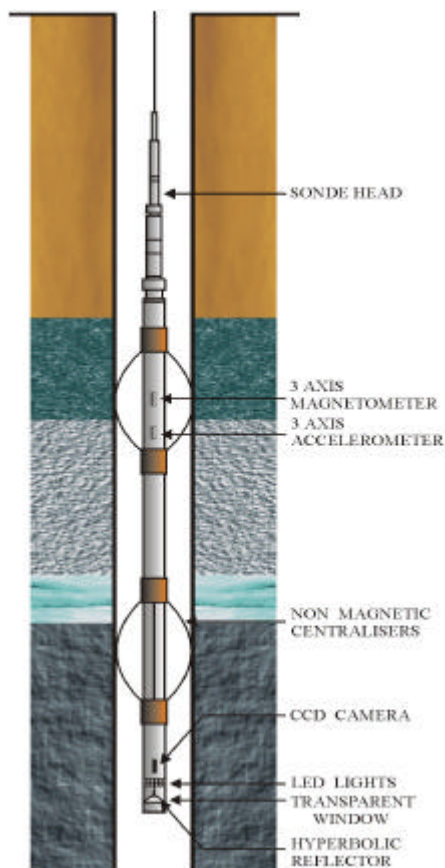


Fig. Application of BIPS

#### Logging with optical television

The optical television records the borehole view reflected by hyperbolic mirror attached to the probe. CCD camera continuously takes photos whose width is 5 mm and each photo consists 720 pixels. The camera is lifted up with a constant speed of about 0.5~1.5 m/min. The magnetic north is measured by a 3-axis magnetometer and recorded with photo images. Joint traces on the borehole wall show sinusoidal waves when their image is unrolled into a plane. By reference to the north, dip direction can be determined and the dip angle can be calculated by using the amplitude of joint trace and borehole radius.

#### Advantages of optical television

- Applicable to dry boreholes
- Ground water flow can be observed.
- Rock type variation, infilling materials, geological structure can be observed.
- Aperture of joints can be measured.
- No special software is needed for analysis.

#### Logging with televiewer

The televiewer is said to be an acoustic borehole scanner which periodically shoots

ultra sonic beam (1.5 MHz) to borehole wall and records its reflected waves for the energy (amplitude) and travel time.

The magnitude of energy of the reflected wave depends on reflection coefficient which is a function of material density and traveling velocity as shown in the figure below. When the acoustic beam reflects from a joint plane its energy is dispersed on the surface and impeded by joint infilling materials resulting in a weak signal to the sensor. Open joints make the acoustic wave travel farther than in-filled joints do. This helps to confirm the existence of a joint.

A joint trace is shown as a sine curve on the borehole wall. By the magnetic north stored in televiewer record, the scanning data is arranged according to orientation: N-E-S-W-N. Dip direction and dip angle of the joint can be obtained from the joint trace, borehole size and the information of north.

The televiewer record includes the amplitude of reflected waves, travel time and location of sensor. The wave amplitude is affected by discontinuities and rock strength. The travel time is used to measure the borehole radius or to correct the measurement. The sensor location can be determined by depth which is measured by a depth counter attached to winch and orientation which is measured by 3 axis magnetometer and 3 axis clinometer.

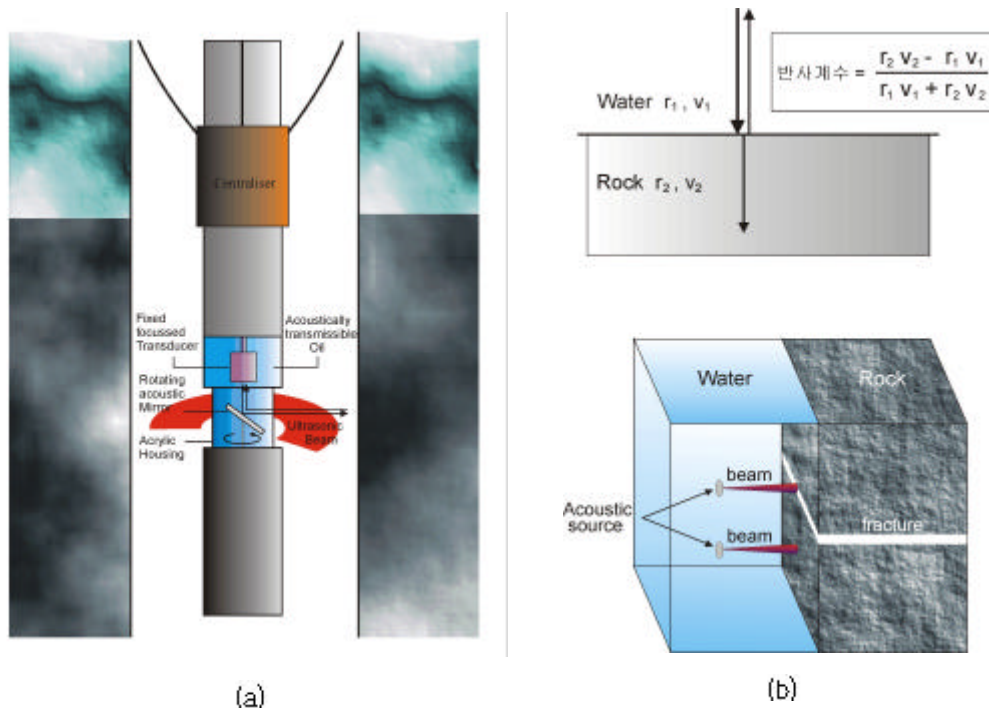


Fig. Principle of televiewer logging

### Advantages of televiewer

Young's modulus of rock can be estimated.

Applicable even in unclean water

Less chance to incorrectly identify the rock type due to not relying on surface observation

The amount of record is smaller than that of BIPS.

Variation of borehole radius can be detected.

### (2) Exposed rock face sampling

#### Pros and Cons

Relatively larger sampling area is available.

Lower cost

Not applied to the area that is unexcavated, damaged by blasting/weathering or covered with bush/plants

#### Scanline sampling

Standard regulation/rule for sampling is not set up yet.

##### (1) Selection of sampling area

- Place(s) representing the site
- Large enough to include 150 ~ 350 joints (50% of joints should have one or two endpoints within the sampling area)
- Safety: safe from rock failure, ground water flow and traffic)

##### (2) Installation of scanlines

- Length: 2 m ~ 30 m
- Orientation: Parallel to the strike or dip of the sampling plane
- Reducing sampling bias: select a sampling plane perpendicular to the previous ones
- Close to the face: make the scanline close to the rock face (required to measure short joint traces).
- Splitting a scanline: when a scanline deviates from a straight line more than 20 °
- Photographing: photos from several view points with scales ex.) markers attached to the scanline at 1m interval (Fig. 2.4, p.34).

Different distance between camera and surface points of sampling area makes its image distorted (Fig. 2.5).

1) Long focal length lens/tilt shift lens (hardware solution)

2) Photogrammetry: image matching and orientation with scale information gives 3D coordinates of every point on

the image

(3) Recording joint intersection points

- Origin point: measurement starts from zero at either end of the scanline and the intersecting points are recorded in order of location.
- Target: natural joints
- Fracture zone: record the extent, location and nature of the zone.
- Closely spaced/sub-parallel joints: record representative measurements, extent and count

(4) Joint orientation

- Measuring point: intersection points of joints and a scanline
- Tool: clinocompass (clinometer + magnetic compass + spirit level (Fig. 2.7, Fig. 2.8)
- Representation: dip direction/dip, strike/dip
- Error:  $\pm 10^\circ$  for dip direction and  $\pm 5^\circ$  for dip angle.

(5) Semi-trace length

- Definition: distance between a joint-scanline intersection and either end of the joint trace. The counting points of joint traces should be within the same part of the sampling plane : ex.) left (right) or upper (lower) part of the scanline.
- Uncertainty : The average length of semi-trace is half of the mean joint trace length, which means there is uncertainty in estimation of the complete trace length especially when the sample size is small.
- Advantage over complete trace length measurement: Simple and rapid
- Terms for filtering:
  - trimming - excluding traces shorter than a lower limit
  - curtailment - excluding traces longer than a upper limit
  - truncation - not recording the number of excluded traces
  - censoring - recording the number of excluded traces

Window sampling

(1) Pros and cons

- Pros: Bias according to the orientation and size of joints is smaller than that of scanline sampling.
  - Orientation - Joints parallel to scanline or sampling window are not observed. In case of window sampling only the joints with a specific orientation are missed in the window.
  - Joint size - The number of observed joint traces decreases as the joint size decreases. The decreasing rate is lower in case of window sampling.
- Cons: There are more joint traces in the sampling window than in the



scanline, which means the window sampling requires more time to count and record joints.

automated process is useful - photogrammetry,  
laser profiling (hard to find joint trace),  
radar, seismo-acoustic (resolution problem).

(2) Classification of joint traces according to the no. of end points in a window

Contained trace ( ) - both ends are in the window

dissecting trace ( ) - either end is in the window

transecting trace ( ) - both ends are out of the window

#### Application of geostatistics to discontinuity analysis

- A kind of applied statistics dealing with varied spatial data sets.
- Variogram: a measure of the continuity of spatial phenomena expressed as an average squared difference at different locations (Fig.2.10).

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- Kriging: a stochastic interpolation technique based upon a generalized least square algorithm using variograms as weighting functions. With the least square algorithm, the estimate becomes unbiased and its variance becomes minimized.
- Difficulty in application: As for the joints it is usual to analyze their features for each joint set such as size and spacing. As the investigation area is extended, however, the joint orientation and accordingly the definition of set change. This makes it difficult to analyse the joint set features with variogram or Kriging.

#### Rock mass classification

##### (1) RMR/Q system

- RMR (Bieniawski, 1973), Q-system (Barton et al, 1974): Providing guidelines of support, excavation method and strength and deformability of rock mass. Quantitative and simple description of rock mass is provided.
- Somewhat subjective and qualitative factors involved: Description of discontinuity condition (RMR and Q) - very (slightly) rough, slightly (highly) weathered, rough or irregular, smooth, undulating...
- Lack of statistical information of joints and relevant analysis technique: Rock mass classification schemes were developed in 1970's and have proceeded independently of research on discontinuity sampling and analysis.

##### (2) RQD

- Fundamental factor of rock mass classification: 20/100 in RMR. 100 in Q

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- Relation with spacing: closely and most directly related with spacing or linear frequency. It shows, however, similar values for the joints having more than 30cm of spacing.
  - Dependence on the orientation of a scan line or borehole: RQD may change significantly by the scanning orientation in the site where only 1~2 joint sets are dominant. RMR/Q are not careful about this problem.

(3) RMI (Rock Mass index)

- Suggested by Palmstrom (1995).
- Factors: Joint roughness, alteration, size/termination, density, uniaxial compressive strength
- Feature: No consideration of stress and joint orientation assuming rock mass as an isotropic material. RMI indicates a rock mass strength. Subjective judgement may intervene in the evaluation process.

## The Rock Mass index (RMI)

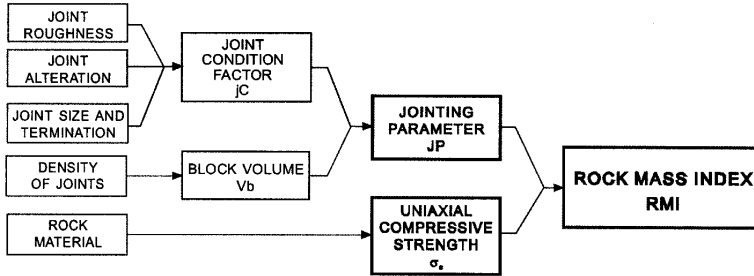


Figure 1 The main inherent parameters in the rock mass are applied in the RMI (from Palmström, 1995).

RMI is based principally on the reduction in strength of a rock caused by jointing<sup>1</sup> and is expressed as:

$$RMI = \sigma_c \times JP \quad \text{eq. (1)}$$

where  $\sigma_c$  = the uniaxial compressive strength of intact rock measured on 50 mm samples;

JP = the jointing parameter which is a reduction factor representing the block size and the condition of its faces as represented by their friction properties and the size of the joints.

$$JP = 0.2 \sqrt{jC} \times Vb^D \quad \text{eq. (2)}$$

where  $Vb$  is given in  $m^3$ , and  $D = 0.37 jC^{-0.2}$  has the following values:

for $jC =$	0.1	0.25	0.5	0.75	1	1.5	2	2.5	3	4	6	9	12	16	20
$D =$	0.586	0.488	0.425	0.392	0.37	0.341	0.322	0.308	0.297	0.28	0.259	0.238	0.225	0.213	0.203

The joint condition factor is expressed as  $jC = jL (jR/jA)$  where  $jL$ ,  $jR$  and  $jA$  are factors for respectively, joint length and continuity, joint wall roughness, and joint surface alteration.

Table 4. Classification of RMI (from Palmström, 1995)

TERM		RMI VALUE
for RMI	related to rock mass strength	
Extremely low	Extremely weak	< 0.001
Very low	Very weak	0.001 - 0.01
Low	Weak	0.01 - 0.1
Moderate	Medium	0.1 - 1
High	Strong	1 - 10
Very high	Very strong	10 - 100
Extremely high	Extremely strong	> 100

Table 1. The ratings of the joint roughness factor, (jR, found from smoothness and waviness (from Palmström, 1995) (The ratings of jR are similar to Jr in the Q-system)

small scale smoothness of joint surface	large scale waviness of joint plane				
	planar	slightly undulating	strongly undulating	stepped	interlocking (large scale)
very rough	3	4	6	7.5	9
rough	2	3	4	5	6
slightly rough	1.5	2	3	4	4.5
smooth	1	1.5	2	2.5	3
polished	0.75	1	1.5	2	2.5
slickensided <sup>*)</sup>	0.6 - 1.5	1 - 2	1.5 - 3	2 - 4	2.5 - 5
For filled joints: jR = 1 For irregular joints a rating of jR = 5 is suggested					

<sup>\*)</sup> For slickensided joints the value of jR depends on the presence and appearance of the striations; the highest value is used for marked striations.

Table 2. Characterization and rating of the joint alteration factor, jA, (from Palmström, 1995) (jA is similar to Ja in the Q-system, except for the grade of alteration)

A. CONTACT BETWEEN THE TWO ROCK WALL SURFACES			
TERM	DESCRIPTION	jA	
<b>Clean joints</b>			
-Healed or "welded" joints	Softening, impermeable filling (quartz, epidote etc.)	0.75	
-Fresh rock walls	No coating or filling on joint surface, except for staining	1	
-Alteration of joint wall:			
· 1 grade more altered	The joint surface exhibits one class higher alteration than the rock	2	
· 2 grades more altered	The joint surface shows two classes higher alteration than the rock	4	
<b>Coating or thin filling</b>			
-Sand, silt, calcite etc.	Coating of friction materials without clay	3	
-Clay, chlorite, talc etc.	Coating of softening and cohesive minerals	4	
B. FILLED JOINTS WITH PARTIAL OR NO CONTACT BETWEEN THE ROCK WALL SURFACES			
TYPE OF FILLING MATERIAL	DESCRIPTION	Partial wall contact thin fillings (< 5 mm <sup>*)</sup> jA	No wall contact thick filling or gouge jA
-Sand, silt, calcite etc.	Filling of friction materials without clay	4	8
-Compacted clay materials	"Hard" filling of softening and cohesive materials	6	10
-Soft clay materials	Medium to low over-consolidation of filling	8	12
-Swelling clay materials	Filling material exhibits clear swelling properties	8 - 12	12 - 20

<sup>\*)</sup> Based on joint thickness division in the RMR system (Bieniawski, 1973)

Table 3. The joint size and continuity factor, jL, (from Palmström, 1995).

JOINT LENGTH	TERM	TYPE	jL	
			continuous joints	discontinuous joints <sup>**)</sup>
< 0.5 m	very short	bedding/foliation partings	3	6
0.1 - 1.0 m	short/small	joint	2	4
1 - 10 m	medium	joint	1	2
10 - 30 m	long/large	joint	0.75	1.5
> 30 m	very long/large	(filled) joint, seam <sup>*)</sup> or shear <sup>*)</sup>	0.5	1

<sup>\*)</sup> Often occurs as a single discontinuity, and should in these cases be treated separately. <sup>\*\*) Discontinuous joints end in massive rock</sup>

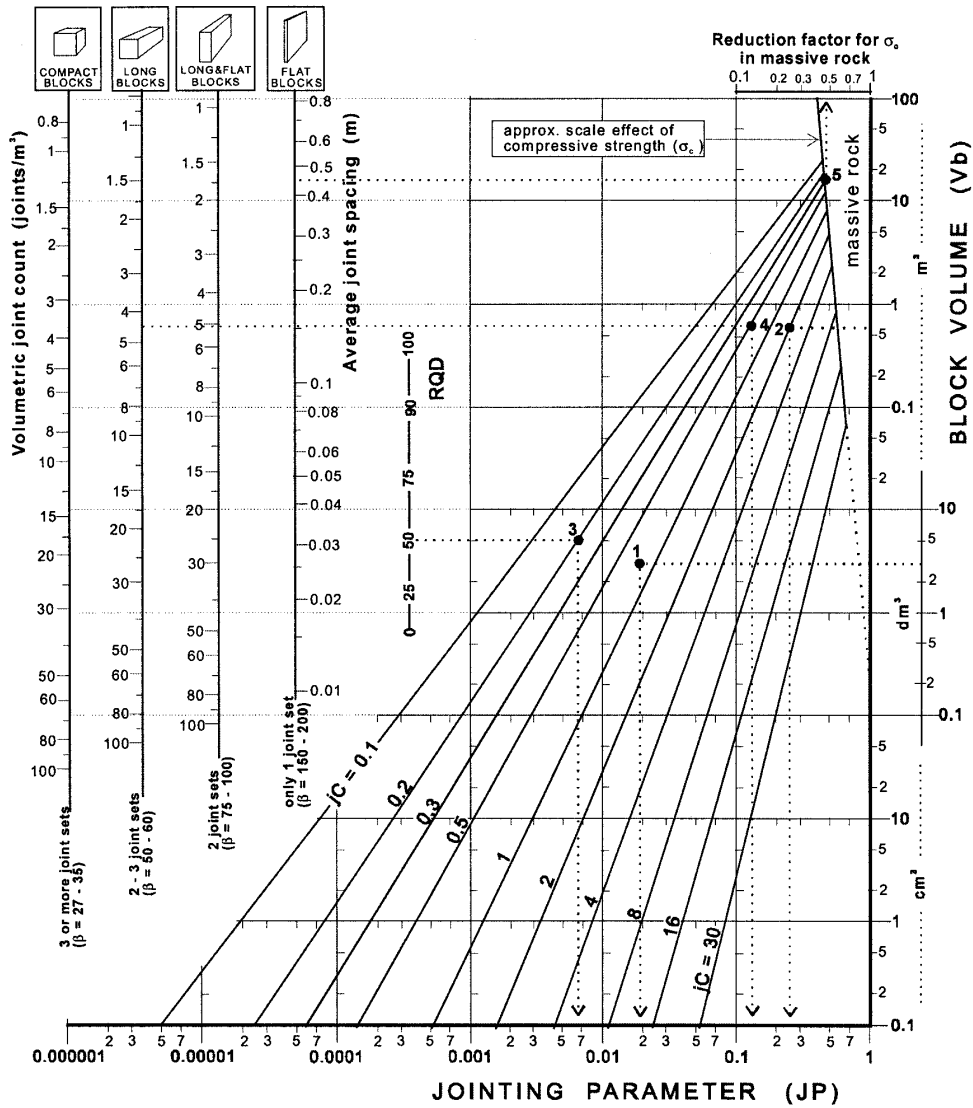


Figure 3. The jointing parameter (JP) found from the joint condition factor (jC) and various measurements of jointing intensity ( $V_b$ ,  $J_v$ , RQD). The determination of JP from  $V_b$  (or RQD or  $J_v$ ) in the examples are indicated (from Palmström, 1995).