1- Introduction

Rock Mechanics: the science concerning study of rock behavior, determining its physical and mechanical properties and study the outer effects on its strength and deformation.

Types of rocks: Igneous, Sedimentary and Metamorphic. They differ according to their mineral composition, grain size and formation environment.

Mountains form as **rock masses** that contain:

- 1- Intact rock: solid rock samples containing no cracks (on eye naked).
- 2- Discontinuity surfaces: cracks surfaces and joints.

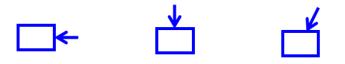
Rock Mass: contains rock sample (Intact rock) and crack surfaces and joints visible by naked eye.

Discontinuity surfaces: crack surfaces and joints visible by naked eye, they vary with various rocks. They are:

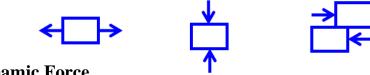
Joints, Fractures, Bedding planes, Slate Cleavage, Schistosity, Shear zones.

Types of Forces:

- 1- Static Force: classified according to:
- a- Direction: Horizontal Force, Vertical Force, Inclined Force.



b- Action: Tension Force, Compression Force, Shear Force



2- Dynamic Force

2- Types of Engineering Properties: divided into:

- **1- Physical properties:** originated with the rock formation and controlled by geological factors like: rock type, color, grain size and weathering degree. Physical properties can be identified by knowing weight and size of the rocks.
- 2- Mechanical properties: influenced by outer circumference factors like forces and stresses. In this respect, it is demanded to break the rock samples to estimate their strength.Mechanical properties of rocks can be determined through computing their strength versus forces and stresses, where:

Strength = Force/ Area

Types of Strength: Tension, Compression, and Shear

Strength: ability of rock sample to resist force, load or stress. **Strength value:** amount of Stress (tension, compression or shear) at failure.

Types of Strength:

1- Tensile Strength

2- Compressive Strength

3- Shear Strength

The rock sample will break if the applied force is vertical and not associated with shear.

The rock sample will break if the applied compressive force surpasses the sample's strength.

Geological Factors Controlling the Engineering Properties of Rocks:

- 1- Rock Type
- 2- Degree of Weathering
- 3- Grain Size
- 4- Mineral Composition
- 5- Porosity and Intensity of fracturing
- 6- Anisotropy

3- Engineering Properties of Intact Rocks

A-Physical Properties for Intact Rocks:

Their values and characteristics were usually controlled by geological factors like: Rock Type, Grain size and Mineral composition.

The most important physical properties of rocks are:

- 1. Density, Specific Gravity, Unit Weight.
- 2. Porosity, **n**
- 3. Void ratio, e
- 4. Permeability, k
- 5. Absorption, Abs.

1- Density (ρ) , Specific Gravity(Gs) & Unit weight(y):

 $=\frac{Wheit}{Volume}=\frac{gm}{cm^3},\frac{N}{mm^3}$

Volume computation:

Regular Shapes:

Irregular Shape:

Regular Shapes: volume calculation via Mathematical formulas:

Volume of Cube = X * Y * Z

Volume of Cylinder = Area * $L = \pi r^2 * L$

Where: πr^2 = area of the circle

Irregular Shapes:

By submerging the irregular rock sample in a known volume water using a graded cylinder, where the excessive water represents the sample volume.

 $\{1 \text{ mL} = 1 \text{ cm}^3\}$

 $1 L = 10^3 \text{ cm}^3$

Specific Gravity: (Gs)

Unit weight: $(\gamma) = N/mm^3$, $\frac{KN}{m^3}$, $\frac{Lb}{inch^3}$

2- Porosity:

$$n = \frac{Volume \ of \ Voids}{Total \ Volume} = \frac{V_v}{V_t} = \frac{V_v}{V_s + V_v}$$

3- Void Ratio:

$$e=\frac{V_v}{V_s}$$

4- Permeability:

Each permeable sample is porous, but not each porous sample is permeable.

Permeability is calculated with: 1- quantity 2- velocity 3- time

5- Saturation index:

Absorption, (Abs) = $\frac{W_{sat.} - W_{dry}}{W_{dry}} * 100$

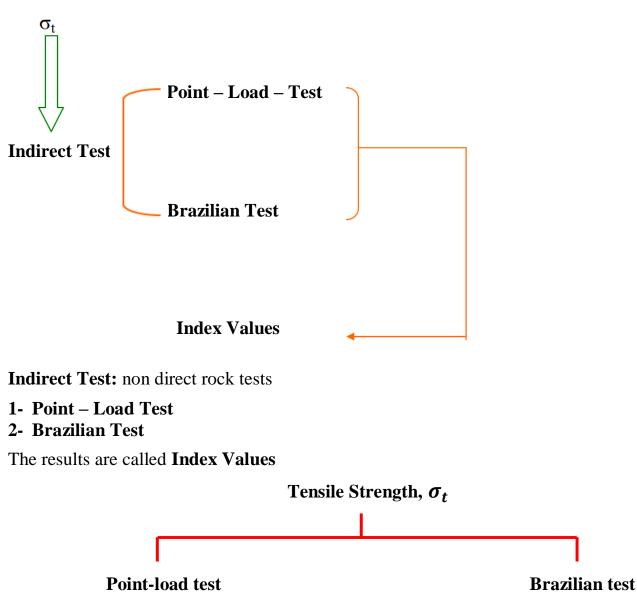
B-Mechanical Properties for Intact Rocks:

1- Strength 2- Deformation

1- Strength:

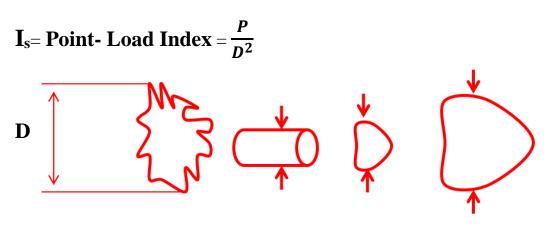
1.1 Tensile Strength of Intact Rock:

Rock samples are weak in tension.



The first test to determine Tensile Strength is the Point-Load- Test

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ISRM: International Society for Rock Mechanics:

This society had unified **D** for sample

 I_s (50) = Point-load index for sample of 50 mm Diameter:

D	Is	I _s (50)
(mm)	(MPa)	(MPa)
30	11	9.6
50	9.5	9.5
70	8	9.3

Tensile Strength, $\sigma_t = (1 \sim 5) I_s(50)$ $\sigma_t = (3) * I_s(50)$ (average)

This relationship between σ_t and Is(50) is called Empirical Relationship (Linear Numerical).

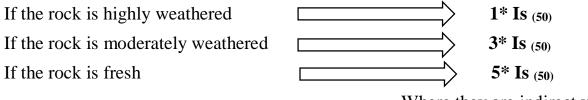
 $\sigma_t = (1 \sim 5) * I_s (50)$ Range

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma_t} = (3) * \mathbf{I_s} (50)$ Average

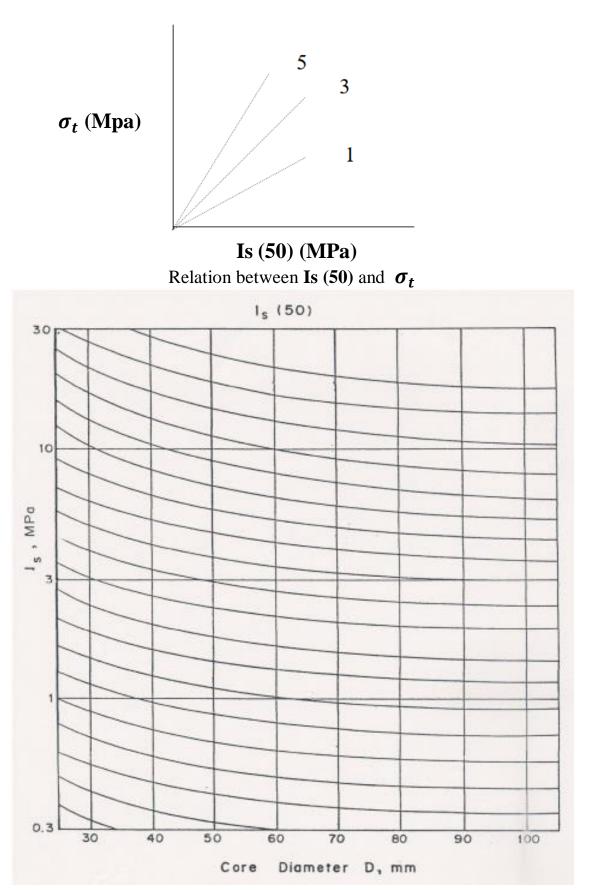
Values from 1 to 5 depend on:

1- Rock strength 2- rock type 3- weathering degree

For example:



Where they are indirect values

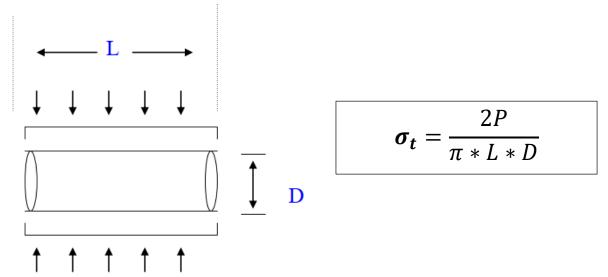


Size correction chart for point load test (After Broch and Franklin, 1972)

The second test to determine **Tensile Strength** is the **Brazilian Test**:

Brazilian Test provides tensile strength values closer to reality than Point Load Test.

In **Brazilian Test,** the stress loading is on sample line which must be regular cylindrical. Whereas the sample must not be regular cylindrical in **Point Load Test**.



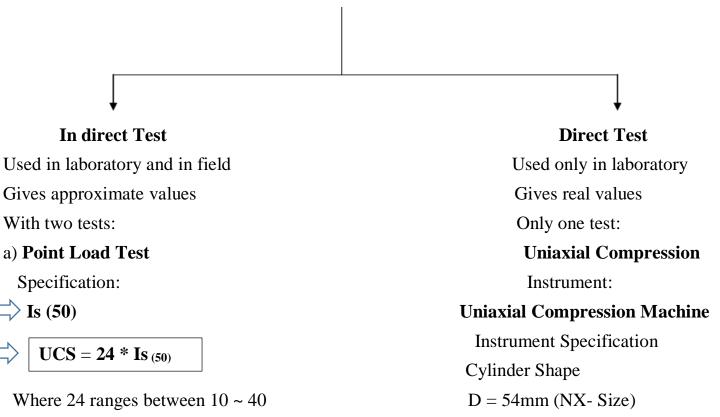
1.2- Compressive Strength of Intact Rock, σ_c

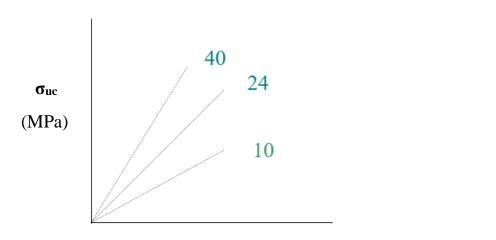
Uniaxial Compressive Strength

σuc = UCS

Considered of the best tests and gives real strength value and be assigned in two ways:

Uniaxial Compressive Strength





L/D (2~2.5) L= 108 mm - 135 mm

Is (50) (MPa)

The relation between Is $_{(50)}$ and σ_{uc}

b) Schmidt Hammer Test: gives indirect values for strength

8

b) Schmidt Hammer Test: gives indirect values for strength

Schmidt Hammer Test: specified for civil engineering to test concrete strength. There are two types: N-type for concrete and L-type for rocks.

Using conditions:

- **1-** The surface must be clean.
- **2-** Faraway from cracks.
- **3-** Knowing the direction during measuring.
- 4- Hammer type and number must be recorded.
- 5- Measuring must be on hard surface.

How to use:

R= Rebound No.

Taking 15 measurements. Neglecting higher and lower abnormal values.

The most use of Hammer:

- 1- Knowing the direction.
- 2- Recording Hammer type and number.
- 3- Measuring must be on hard surface.
- 4- Taking at least five measurements for each surface of the same rock

Example: The following values were measured using Schmidt Hammer:

 $R = 62,59,63,62,\underline{43}, 61,59,58,60,60,60,\underline{76}, 62,63,64$

Neglecting the larger and smaller values

Average R =
$$\frac{Readings Sum}{Number of measurements}$$

Average R = $\frac{793}{13} = 61$

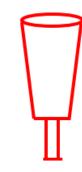
Example:

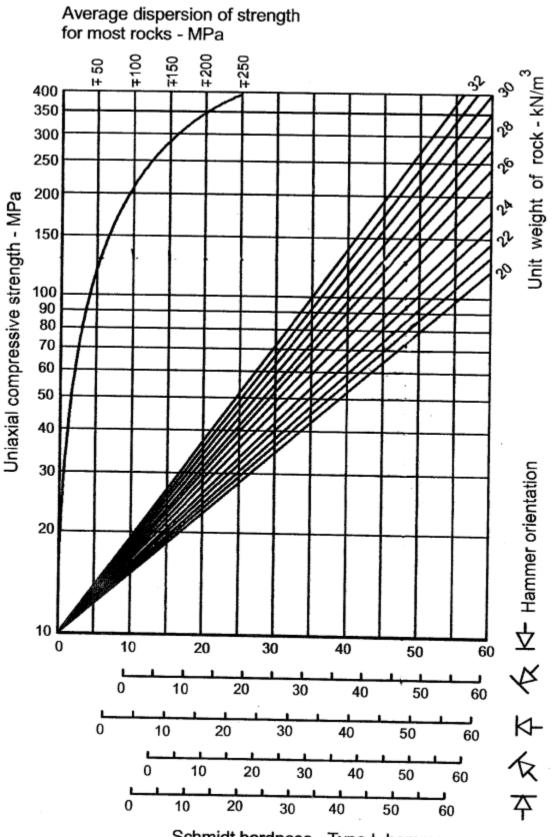
Computing UCS from Schmidt Hammer using the attached figure:

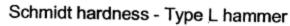
Average = 55 γ = 26 KN/m³

UCS (For Schmidt hammer test) = 185 MPa (+ -) 80 MPa

UCS = 105 – 265 MPa







1.3- Shear Strength of Intact Rock:

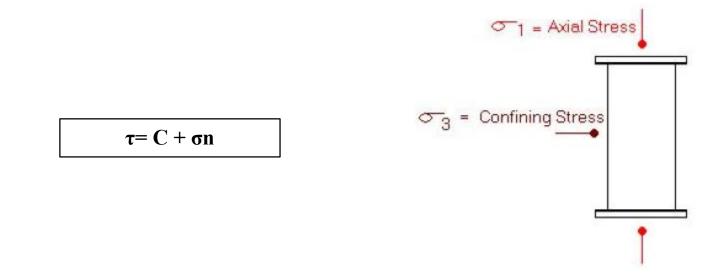
Shear Strength values of Intact Rocks determined with two characteristics:

1- Internal Cohesion, C_i

2- Internal Friction Angle, ϕ_i

In Soil cohesion, C = zero

Shear strength of intact rocks determined by Triaxial Compression Test:



To compute shear strength value of an intact rock we must know the followings:

- 1- C (Cohesion)
- 2- ϕ (Friction Angle)
- 3- σ_n (Normal Stress)

Shear Strength Parameters for Intact Rocks: C_i & ϕ_i

Since failure occurs inside the intact rock, the formula will be:

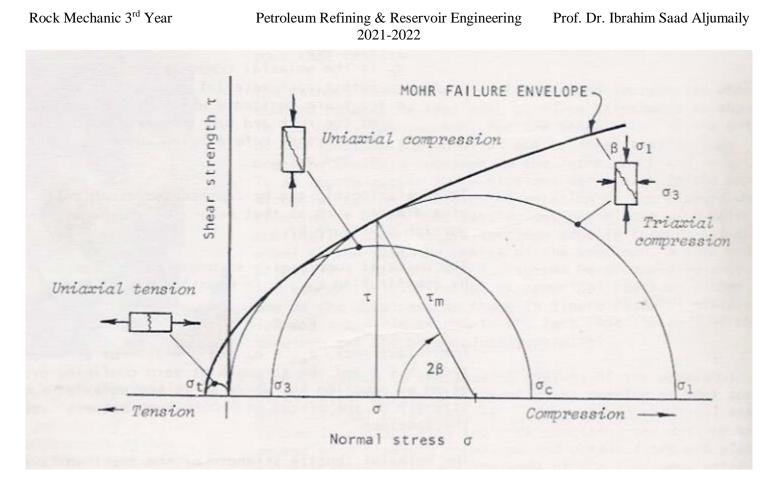
$$\tau = C_i + \sigma_n * Tan(\emptyset_i)$$

Shear Strength Parameters: -

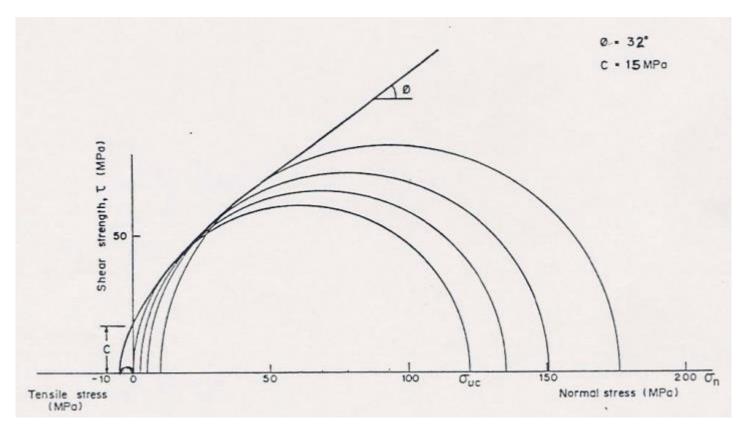
 $C_i \, (\text{Internal Cohesion}) \ \& \ \textit{\emptyset}_i \, (\text{Internal Friction Angle})$

Shear Strength Parameters determined with the Triaxial Compression Tests.

Five tests must be done for five intact rock samples: 3 Triaxial tests, 1 Uniaxial test and 1 Tension test, to draw the relationship between σ_n and τ using Mohr Diagram to find Shear Strength Parameters $C_i \& OI$ and computing shear τ from the previous formula with known pressure σ_n .



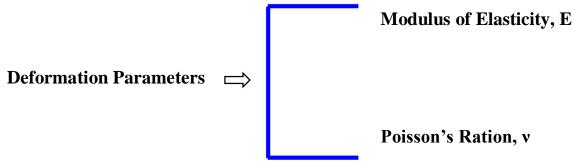
The required tests and Mohr circles plotting



Determination of C_i and ϕ_i from Mohr curve

2. Deformation of Intact Rock

All deformations of intact rocks are due to applied pressure, thus two following factors must be identified:



Deformation Parameters:

- 2.1- Modulus of Elasticity, E
- 2.2- Poisson's Ratio, V

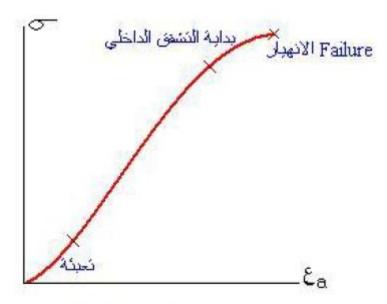
The following factors control the shape of **Elasticity Modulus** curve:

1- Rock type 2- Grain size 3- Voids ratio 4- Weathering

Uniaxial Compression Test with Strain gauge:

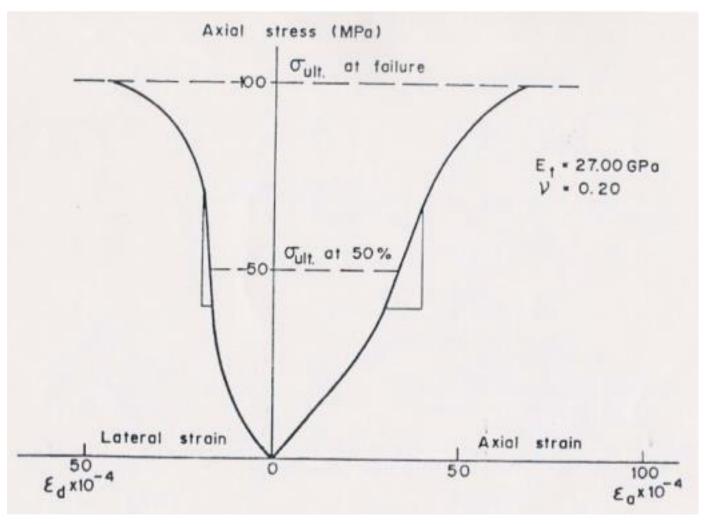
Strain gauge: measures variation ratio between length and width.

 $E = \frac{stress}{strain} = \frac{\Delta\sigma}{\Delta\varepsilon_a}$ $v = \frac{\Delta\varepsilon_l}{\Delta\varepsilon_a} = \frac{Transversal strain}{Longitudinal strain}$

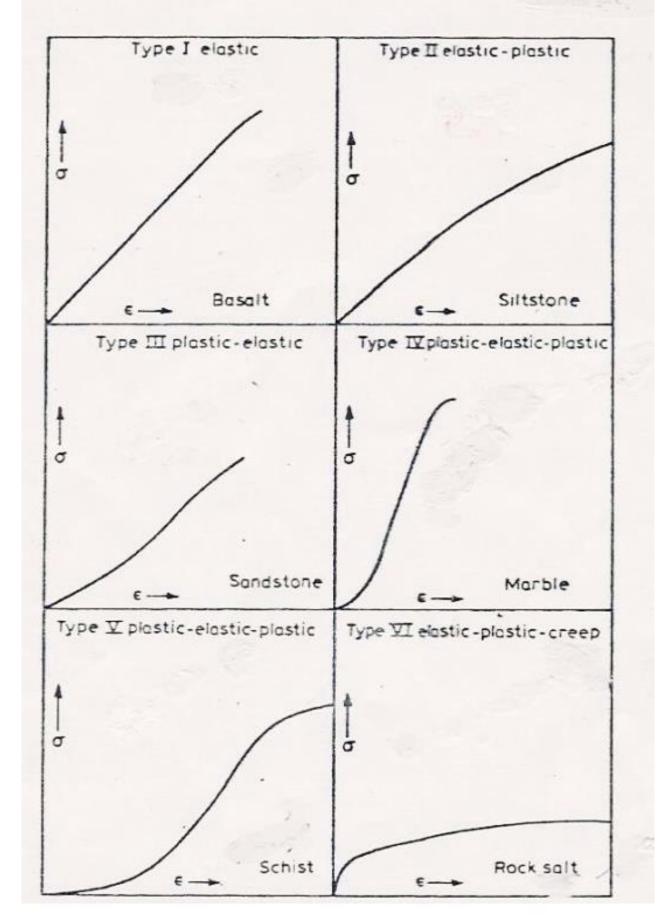


Name : plastic , Elastic , plastic

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Method of computing E and v



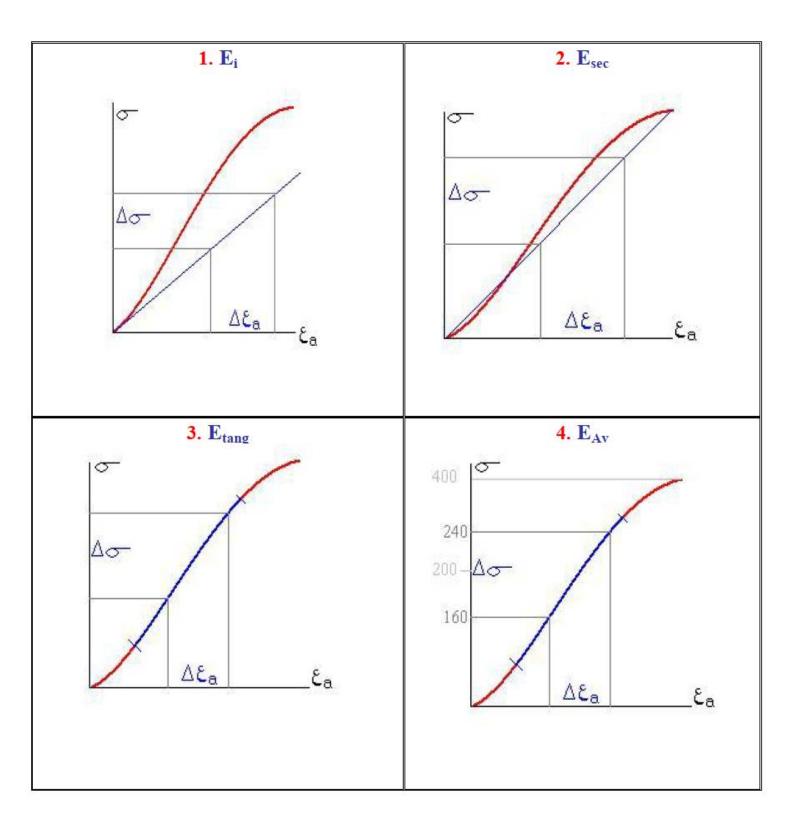
Types of deformation of some rocks

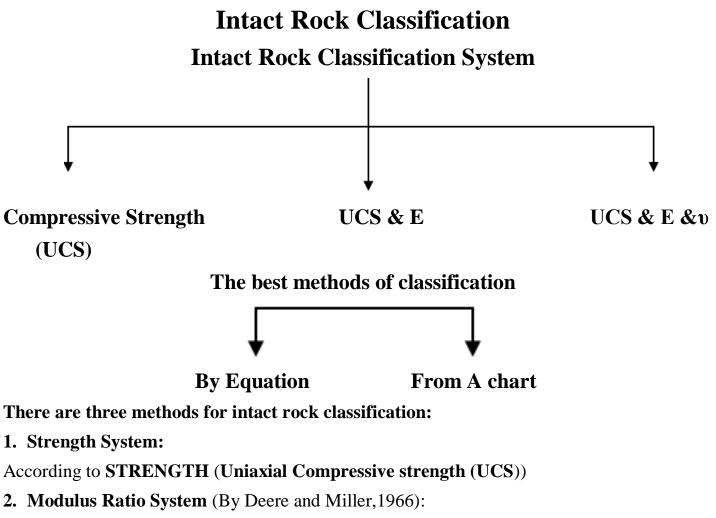
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Types of E:

- 1- E_i = Initial
- 2- E_{sec} = Secant **3-** E_{tang} = Tangent
- 4- $E_{AV} = Average$





According to STRENGTH and MODULUS OF ELASTICITY (Modulus Ratio MR).

3. Strength – Deformation System (By Turk and Dearmann, 1983):

According to STRENGHT and DEFORMABILITY

Uniaxial Compressive Strength (UCS), Modulus of Elasticity (E), Possion's Ratio (v)

1. Strength System:

According to Compressive Strength (UCS):

Example: Limestone, UCS = 120 MPa (Coates, 1964)

The intact rock of limestone is classified as a strong rock according to coates Classification (1964).

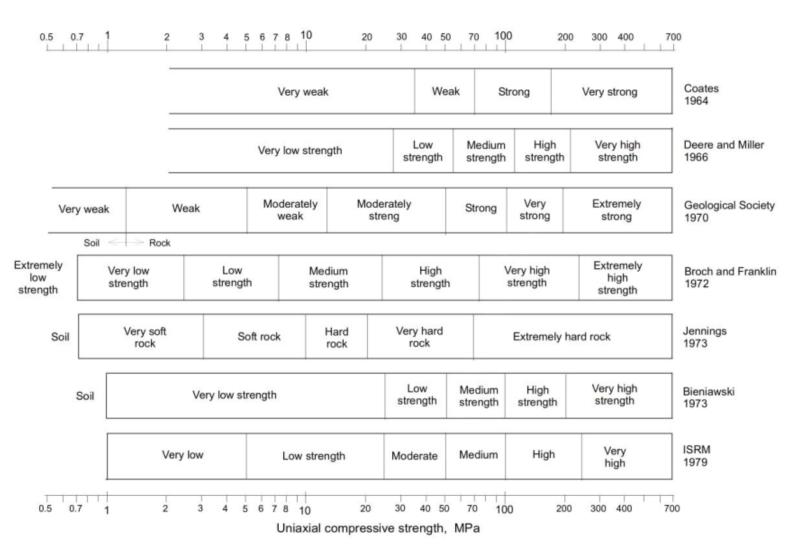
Example: Basalt, UCS = 210 MPa (Deere & Miller, 1966)

The intact rock of Basalt is classified as high strength to very high strength rock according to Deere & Miller (1966).

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Prof. Dr. Ibrahim Saad Aljumaily



Various strength classifications for intact rock (from Bieniawski, 1984)

2. Modulus Ratio System:

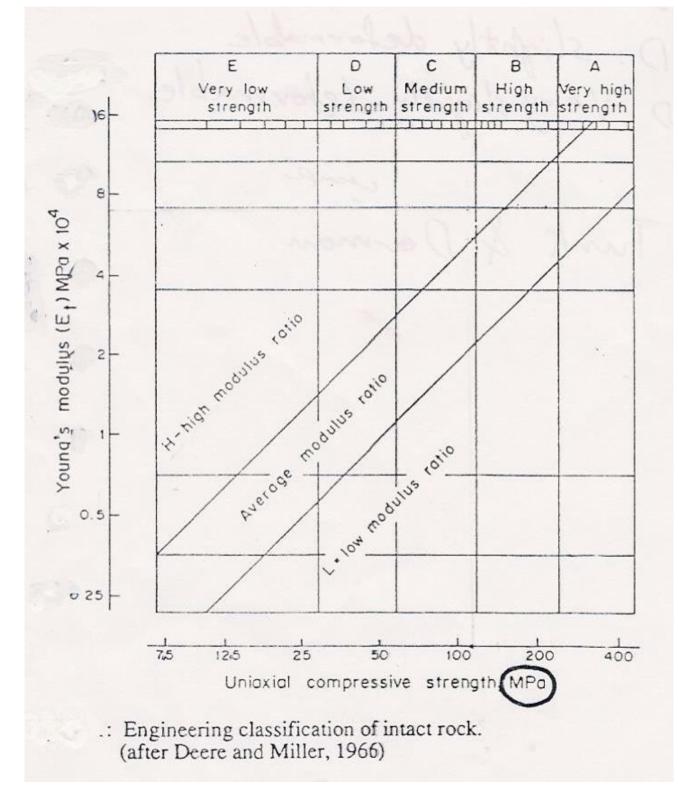
According to strength and Modulus of Elasticity (UCS & E Values), By Deere & Miller (1966). The classification can be made using either of the two methods:

(1) By Equation: $M_R = \frac{E}{ucs}$

Engineering classification of intact rock on base of modulus ratio

Class	Description	Modulus ratio
Н	High modulus ratio	Over 500
М	Average (medium) ratio	200-500
L	Low modulus ratio	Less than 200

(2) From Chart:



Example: (Granite) UCS = 150 MPa, E = 60 GPa

$$M_R = \frac{E(Mpa)}{ucs(Mpa)} = \frac{60000}{150} = 400$$

 \therefore MR = 400 (Medium Ratio)

The intact rock of granite has a medium ratio according to Deere and Miller classification (1966).

3- Strength – Deformation System:

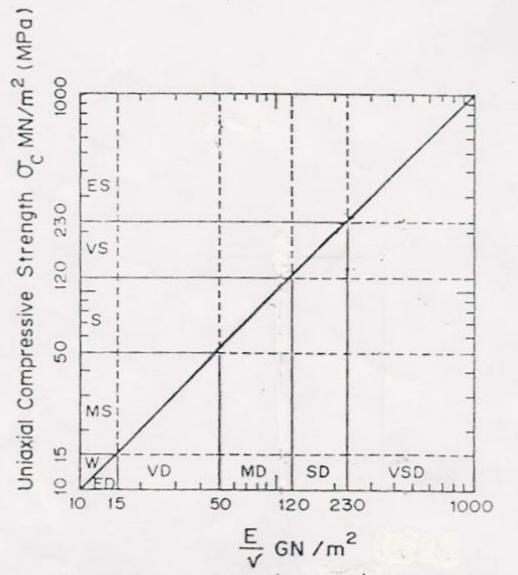
According to Strength, Modulus of Elasticity & Poisson's Ratio (UCS, E &v values). By Turk and Dearman (1983). It is of the best and appropriate classification methods, since it is including the three engineering parameters.

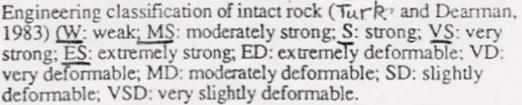
Example: Diorite, UCS = 180 MPa, E = 60000 MPa, v = 0.2

$$\frac{E}{v} = \frac{60000 \, MPa}{0.2} = 300000 \, MPa = 300 \, GPa$$

From the attached chart:

The intact rock of Diorite is classified as a very strong (VS) and very slightly deformable (VSD) rock according to Turk and Dearmann classification (1983).

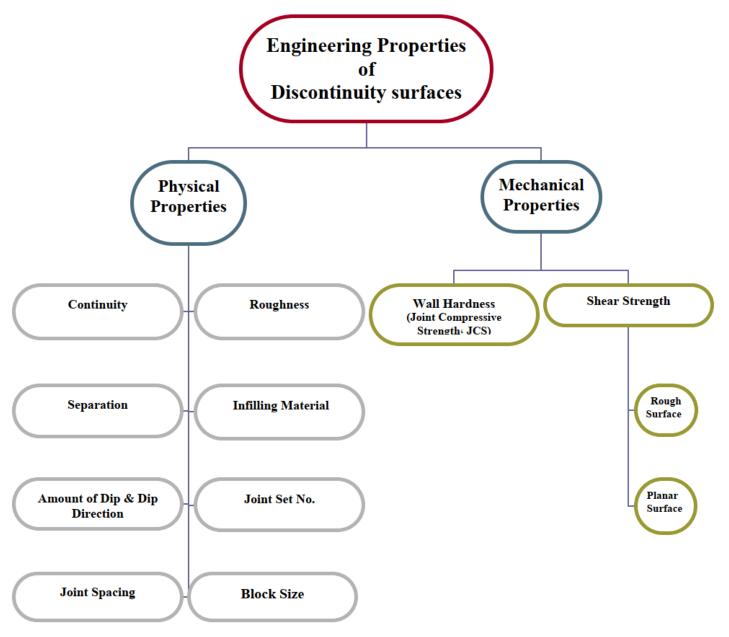




Engineering Properties for discontinuity surfaces

Engineering Properties for discontinuity surfaces divided into:

- 1- Physical properties
- 2- Mechanical properties



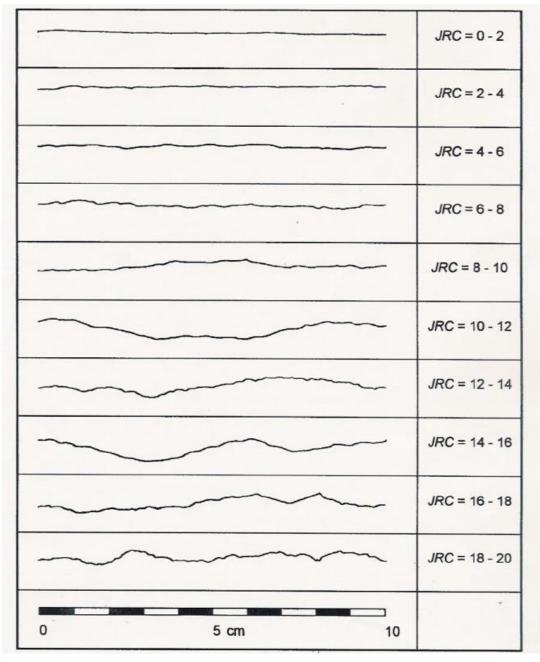
A-Physical Properties for discontinuity surfaces

- 1- Roughness
- 2- Continuity
- 3- Separation (Aperture)
- 4- Infilling materials
- 5- Amount of Dip & Dip Direction
- 6- Joint Set No.
- 7- Joint Spacing or Fracture Intercept
- 8- Block Size

- 1- Roughness: the shape of discontinuity surface measured with **Profile Roughness gauge**. Its description depends on the origin of discontinuity surface, is it formed by **tension** or **shear** or **compression** action. There are originally three types:
- 1- Smooth
- 2- Very Rough
- 3- Rough

As more the surface is rough its strength for slipping increases.

Roughness Types



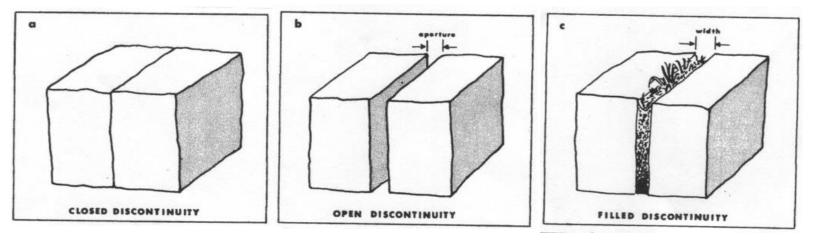
Roughness profiles and corresponding JRC values (After Barton and Choubey, 1977)

- 2- Continuity: deepening of crack surface in the rock mass. Deepening increase weakens the rock mass and increases its permeability and consequently increases the effect of weathering and roughness.
- 3- Separation (Aperture): the magnitude of separation of a rock piece from a neighbored one and measured in millimeter unit (mm). The limits are described in the table below:

Aperture of discontinuity surfaces (After Geological Society of London 1977)

Aperture	Term	
>200 mm	Wide	
60 – 200 mm	Moderately wide	
30 – 60 mm	Moderately narrow	
6 – 20 mm	Narrow	
2 – 6 mm	Very narrow	
0 – 2 mm	Extremely narrow	
< 2 mm	< 2 mm Tight	

As the separation increase as the rock mass will crash.



- 4- Infilling materials: materials filling the separation between the two rock pieces. They composed mostly of the following clastic materials: sand, silt or clay according to the mineral composition of the rock mass, its weathered amount and decomposition of the overlying layer. As the infilling materials are coarse the resistance parameter of the rock for sliding increases.
- 5- Amount of Dip & Dip Direction: measured with Clar Compass as illustrated below, where the Compass measures the dip amount and dip direction of the surface immediately. It is required to measure more than 100 readings for crack surfaces in the rock mass.
- 6- Joint Set No.: can be identified throughout projecting the measured readings (in previous paragraph) onto Schmidt Net, the set groups appear in green and yellow as illustrated in the figure below. The figure shows four sets of cracks in the rock mass, their dip amounts and directions are concentrated in yellow color. The average value of each set is calculated arithmetically as well.

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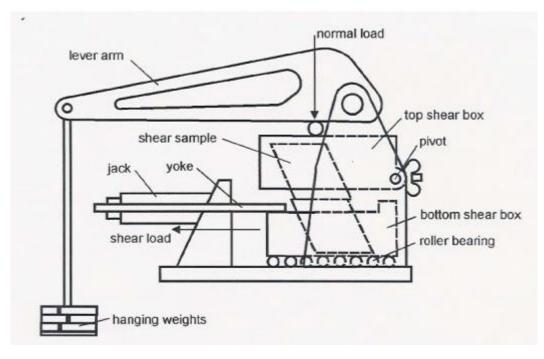


- 7- Joint Spacing or Fracture Intercept: the distance in centimeters between two successive cracks of the same set. Joint spacing is the distance between joints without regard to irregular fractures. Whereas the measured distances between irregular fractures are called Fracture Intercept.
- **8- Block size:** measuring the dimensions of the rock mass (block) in three directions which related with the distances between cracks

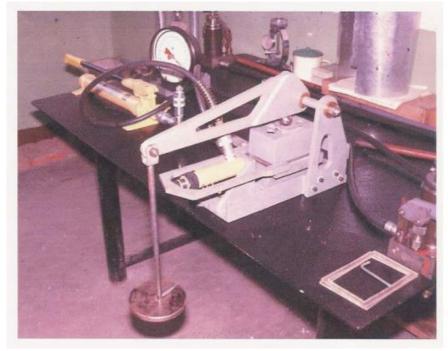
B.Mechanical Properties for discontinuity surfaces

Mechanical Properties of discontinuity surfaces can be expressed by two characteristics:

- 1- Joint Wall Hardness: Schmidt Hammer Test gives indirect value for joint surface strength.
- 2- Shear Strength of Discontinuity surfaces: friction value for crack surfaces can be determined by two characteristics: Cohesion (C) of the surface and Friction Angle (ϕ) between the two surfaces. These two characteristics can be specified with Direct Shear Test.



Diagrammatic section through shear machine by Hencher and Richards (1982)



Shear machine of the type used by Hencher and Richards (1982) for measurement of the shear strength of sheet joints in Hong Kong granite.

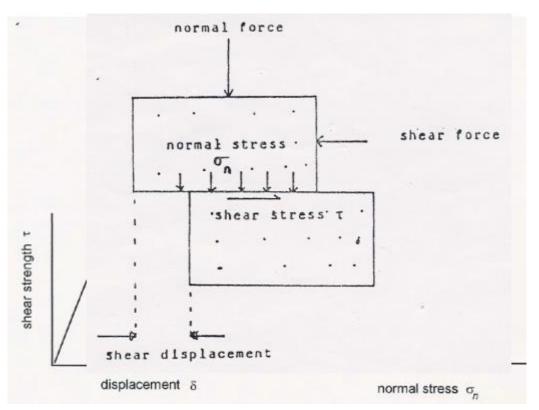
The friction strength value of the discontinuity surface is computed by the following general formula:

$\tau = C + \sigma_n * \tan(\varphi)$

To compute friction value, the following parameters must be known:

- 1. C (Cohesion)
- **2.** φ (Friction Angle)
- **3.** σ_n (Normal Stress)

Five tests must be executed on the same surface with different normal stress (σ_n) values and measuring the displacement with the pressure. The linear relation between σ_n and τ is plotted to find shear strength parameters (C & ϕ) and to calculate friction strength τ from aforementioned formula with known normal stress (σ_n).



Shear testing of discontinuities

To find Shear Strength Parameters (C & ϕ) for crack surfaces, there are two types of surfaces:

1- Smooth Surface: there is no cohesion, C=Zero. Whereas the friction angle between surfaces is called (ϕ_b basic).

The value of shear strength for smooth surface is computed using the following formula:

$$\tau_b = \sigma_n * \tan(\varphi_b)$$

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2- Rough Surface: at beginning there is no Cohesion, C=Zero because the pressure on the surface is low. Whereas the friction angle between the surfaces is high and denoted $\varphi_{\rm p}$ Peak due to ascending of the ripples over each other.

The strength value of rippled surface for friction with low overhead pressure, can be computed using the following formula:

$$\tau_p = \sigma_n * \tan(\varphi_p)$$

$$\tau_p = \sigma_n * \tan(\varphi_b + i)$$

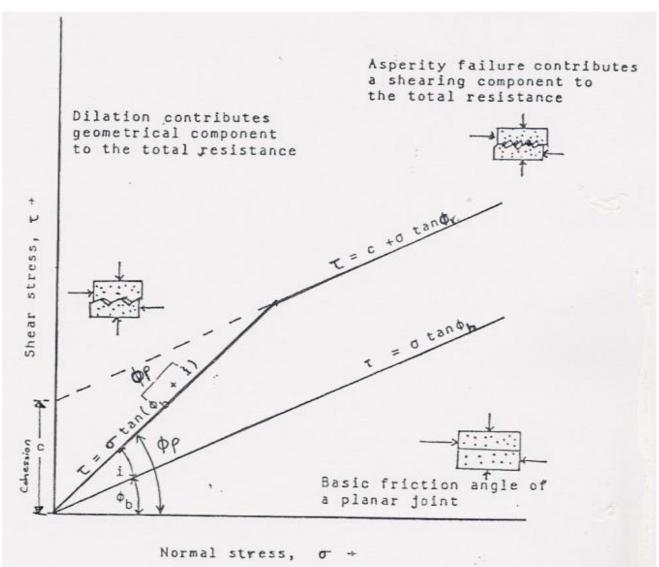
Where $\phi_{\rm p}$ Peak equals the original planar surface friction angle $\phi_{\rm b}$ basic plus the rippled surface angle (i)

If the overhead pressure on the surface is large, the friction of the original rippled surface will increase and with time the rippled surface of the specimen becomes planar, and results Cohesion, C between the two surfaces.

The friction angle between the two surfaces is called φ_r residual, because during the test the teeth of the rippled surface have broken and the originally rough surface of the specimen has been smoothed. Thus the φ_r residual values equals the φ_b basic values.

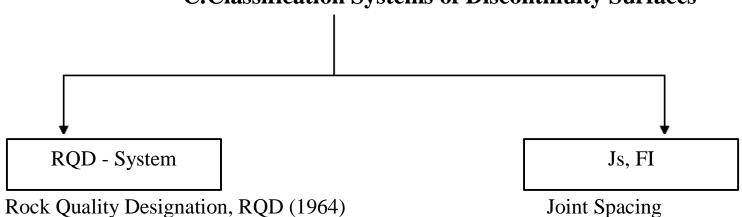
The strength value of the rippled and then smoothed surface for friction with large overhead pressure can be computed using the formula below:

$\tau_r = c + \sigma_n * \tan(\varphi_r)$



(Fracture Intercept)

C.Classification Systems of Discontinuity Surfaces



1- Joint Spacing, (Js) OR Fracture Intercept, (FI):

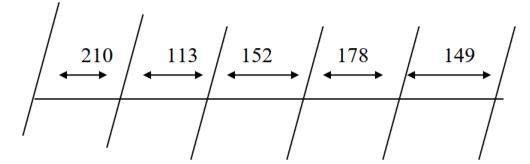
Joint System: nearly parallel system with approximately same distances between individual joints and nearly with the same dip amount and direction.

The practical method to compute Js, FI is Scan-Line.

Descriptive terms for joints spacing (After Geological Society of London, 1977)

Intervals (cm)	Symbols	Description
>200	F ₁	Extremely wide spaced
60-200	F ₂	Widely spaced
20-60	F ₃	Moderately wide spaced
6-20	F4	Closely spaced
2-6	F5	Very closely spaced
< 2	F ₆	Extremely closed spaced

Example:



There are two methods to compute Joint Spacing:

1- $Av.J.s = \frac{distance\ between\ joints}{number\ of\ specimens\ between\ joints}$

2- $Av.J.s = \frac{length of scan line}{number of joints}$

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Solution:

First method:

$$Av.J.s = \frac{149 + 178 + 152 + 113 + 210}{5} = \frac{802}{5}$$

: Av. J.s = 160.4 cm

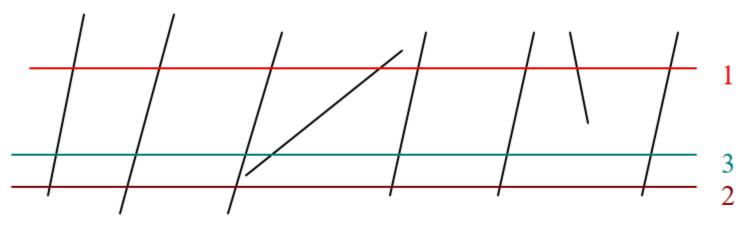
Second method:

$$Av.J.s = \frac{800}{5} = 160 \ cm$$

Classification: according the previous table, these joints classified as Widely spaced (F₂).

Computing Fracture Intercept:

Compute Fracture Intercept for 8 meter if:



1. Av. FI =
$$\frac{800}{8}$$
 = 100 cm
2. Av. FI = $\frac{800}{6}$ = 133.3 cm
3. Av. FI = $\frac{800}{7}$ = 114.3 cm
∴ Av. FI = $\frac{100+133.3+114.3}{3}$ = 115.87 cm

Classification: according the previous table, these joints classified as Widely spaced (F_2).

2-RQD-System

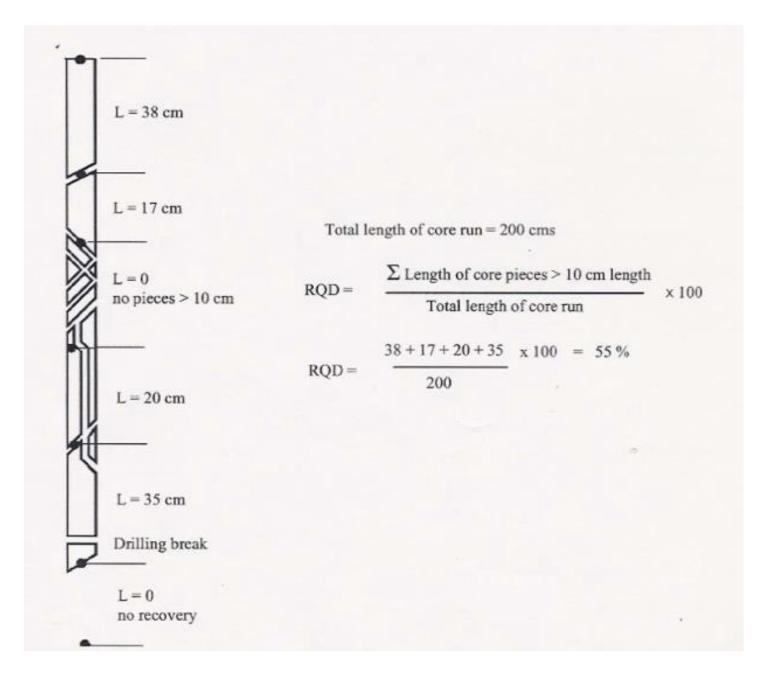
By Deere and Miller (1964)

2-1 Computing RQD value using the Formula below:

$$RQD (\%) = \frac{\sum Samples \ge 10 cm, \ge 4 inch}{TotalRun}$$

Descriptive terms for Rock Quality Designation (After Deere and Miller, 1966)

Descriptive Term	RQD %	Symbols
Very Good	90 - 100	R_1
Good	75 – 90	R_2
Fair	50 - 75	R ₃
Poor	25 - 50	\mathbf{R}_4
Very Poor	<25	R ₅



Example:

Total Run 300 cm

Total Sum of solid samples:

18, 32, 8, 22, 54, 10, 9, 4, 40, 14, 50, 26, 12 cm = 299 cm

$$\therefore Tcr = \frac{299}{300} * 100 = 99.7\%$$
$$RQD = \frac{278}{300} * 100 = 93\%$$

2-2 At mountainous areas, Palmstrom (1982) introduced the equation below to compute RQD:

$$RQD = 115 - 3.3 * (J_v)$$

J_v (Volumetric Joints) = No. of Joints in $1m^3$

Table Block size expressed in terms of J_v (Joints/m³) (After Barton, 1978)

J _v (Joints/m ³)	Descriptive Terms
< 1	Very Large Blocks
1-3	Large Blocks
3-10	Medium-sized Blocks
10-30	Small Blocks
> 30	Very Small Blocks

Example:

Calculate **RQD** value for 12 joints in a sector of 4 m length.

$RQD = 115 - 3.3 (J_v)$

- Face 1 = 12 Joints/4m = 3 Joints/1m
- Face 2 = 3 Joints/1m
- Face 3 = 3 Joints/ 1m
- : $J_v = 3 + 3 + 3 = 9$ Joints/ 1m³
- RQD = 115 3.3 (9)
- RQD = 115 29.7

RQD = 85 %

Class: (R2) Good Quality

ROD calculation from Joint Spacing, (J_s) & Fracture Intercept, (FI)

Example:

Calculate RQD value with classification for all the following data:

The first face of Granitic rock masses:

First face: 25 joints in 5m

Second face: **J.** S = 25cm

Third face: $\mathbf{FI} = 20$ cm

Solution:

$RQD = 115 - 3.3 (J_v)$

 \therefore Face 1 = 25 Joints/ 5m = 5 Joints/1m

Face 2 = 25 cm \implies 4 Joints/ 1m

Face $3 = 20 \text{ cm} \implies 5 \text{ Joints} / 1 \text{m}$

: $J_v = 5 + 4 + 5 = 14 \text{ Joints}/1 \text{ m}^3$

ROD = 115 - 3.3 (14) = 69 %

The rock mass of Granite has a **fair quality (R3)** according to **ROD** system by Palmstrom (1982) and the fracture is **moderately wide to closely spaced** (F3 - F4) according to Geological Society (1977) and has a small blocks based on Jv system according to Barton (1978).