

Geotechnical Insights via Electrical Resistivity Imaging of Fault Zones

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ABSTRACT

Hong Kong's unique topography, dense population, and lithology necessitate constructing and stabilizing numerous large-scale geotechnical projects, such as tunnels or rock slopes. The rock mass deformation modulus is essential for evaluating the bearing capacity and deformations. Deformation moduli measured through laboratory experiments, empirical equations, or even in situ tests can not present a representative elementary volume (D_{REV}) due to limited test coverage and technical difficulties in harsh geological or topographic conditions, such as near faults. This study utilized electrical resistivity (ER) tomography and numerical back-analysis to investigate D_{REV} near faults; we also employed geoelectrical contrasts to detect proper locations for installing extensometers along excavated galleries of rock slopes. The deformations recorded by extensometers were used to back-calculate the D_{REV} values by finite difference numerical modeling. We established a correlation between ER and D_{REV} , which was 30 to 80% more accurate than those obtained through conventional approaches. Our methodology provides a systematic approach to assess faulted rock mass behavior for various geotechnical projects, which is also replicable for other geological formations with harsh geology or limited access without exposing an extreme financial burden, technical challenges, or environmental issues.

1 INTRODUCTION

The landscape, high-density population, and geological features of Hong Kong require geotechnical structures like tunnels and slopes. Rock mass behavior for such projects must be investigated at the representative element volume (REV) or the smallest volume representing the whole medium's properties (Hill, 1963).

The rock mass deformation modulus is a scale-dependent parameter controlling the mechanical characteristics; this parameter is different at REV (D_{REV}) from the values obtained by conventional methods, such as empirical equations or laboratory and in situ tests (Aladejare & Idris, 2020; Brady & Brown, 1993), considering the limited coverage and unrepresentative interpretations.

Designing and constructing tunnels or slopes using inaccurate D_{REV} values resulted in extreme financial burdens and devastating impacts on human lives (Peng & Zhang, 2012). D_{REV} controls the bearing capacity and deformations under loading/unloading. The lithological conditions, fracture characteristics, rock strength parameters, water saturation, and the tested volume (i.e., scale impacts) affect D_{REV} (Aksoy et al., 2012;



Barnard & Heymann, 2015; Fattahi et al., 2019). Moreover, the excavation or blasting alters D_{REV} (Palmström & Singh, 2001). Therefore, the effects of these parameters on D_{REV} are pivotal.

Numerical back-analysis of deformations recorded by extensometers inside galleries or tunnels is an indirect, promising technique to evaluate D_{REV} (Ghotbi Ravandi et al., 2017; Khodabakhshi & Mortazavi, 2018; Ren et al., 2021); however, performing such a back-analysis is challenging due to the limited in situ data associated with financial concerns or technical difficulties. Moreover, assessing the locations of extensometers is essential for complete coverage of all rock mass conditions. If we can establish a relationship between numerical back analysis and geophysical tomography, it can mitigate such challenges by applying them to other study sites.

Geoelectrical resistivity tomography (*ER*) can cover a representative rock mass (Archie, 1947) as a necessary part of geoenvironmental projects without exposing the extra financial burden of in situ deformation measurements. The induced electrical current (I) between electrodes (K and L in Figure 1a) causes potential differences (ΔV between voltmeters M and N) for different rock types (Figure 1b-c) (Telford et al., 1990).

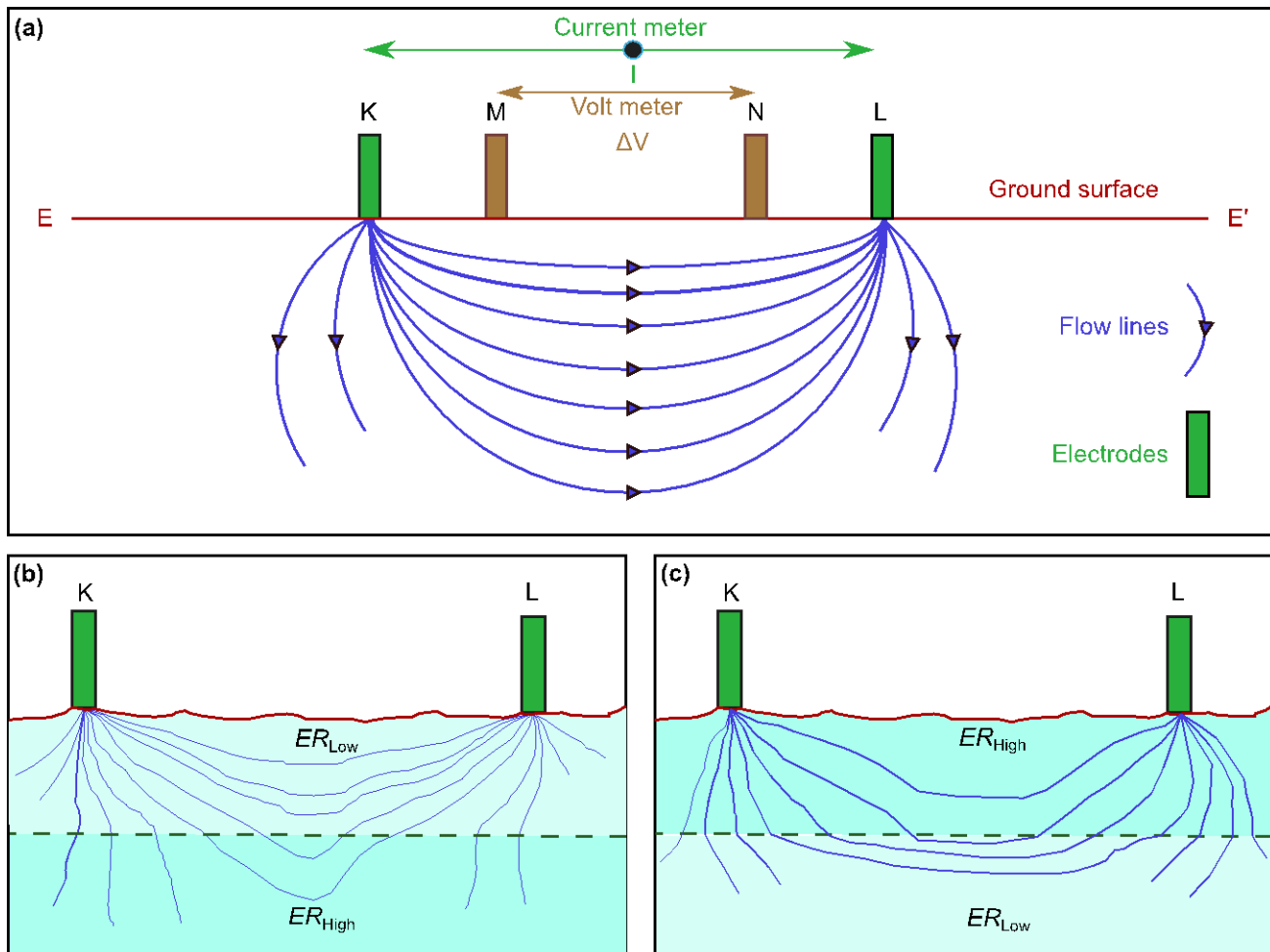


Figure 1: (a) Schematic view for electrical profiles (EE') with voltmeters M & N and current electrodes K & L. The current is distorted for two rocks (ER_{Low} and ER_{High}) from a lower to higher ER (b) and a higher to lower ER (c) (modified from (Nia & Mahdavi, 2020)).

The effects of rock discontinuities (Akbariforouz et al., 2023; Carpenter et al., 2011; Li et al., 2015), lithology (Ammar & Kamal, 2018; Pazha et al., 2019), fluid saturation (Ammar & Kamal, 2018; Bhatt & Jain, 2014; Liu et al., 2023), stress regimes (Stavrakas et al., 2003; Triantis et al., 2006), and strength parameters on ER and rock mass deformations (Akbariforouz et al., 2022; Kahraman & Yeken, 2010; Ranjbar & Nasab, 2019) were consistent based on laboratory (Kahraman, 2022; Su & Momayez, 2017; Wang & Gelius, 2010) and field evaluations (Li et al., 2015; Pazha et al., 2019; Sandler et al., 2009). Therefore, ER variations can be used to assess the faulted rock mass deformations and D_{REV} .

The anomalies, such as cavities, conductive materials, or water-bearing areas, can result in misleading *ER* (Militzer et al., 1979; Rolia & Sutjiningsih, 2018); therefore, additional geophysical techniques must be applied to avoid such misinterpretations. We evaluated D_{REV} for a sedimentary formation by comparing numerical back-analysis of extensometers and *ER* tomography to develop an accurate, environmentally friendly, and financially affordable relationship for D_{REV} .

2 Methods

2.1 Studied Area and *ER* Tomography

The study site is a slope with 184 m height in the Asmari-Jahrum Formation (AJF) in the Central Plateau of Iran, consisting of thick-bedded carbonate rocks (Amirshahkarami et al., 2007). *ER* measurements were conducted by a Schlumberger array with a maximum length of 3 km and an electrode distance of 30-100. Around 100 electrodes were used along a 3000 m profile for 30 m distances. No igneous masses, conductive minerals, water-bearing structures, or cavities were detected in the study site based on the nuclear magnetic resonance and automated gravity meter up to 250 m depth (Howland-Rose, 1981).

2.2 *In situ* Tests

Plate-loading (1 m diameter with five extensometers at 0.095, 0.085, 1.79, 2.59, and 3.7 m depths) and dilatometer tests (3 up to 45 m depth and along boreholes with diameter = 10.1 cm) were performed at 2 m × 2 m galleries based on ISRM standards (ISRM, 1998; Ladanyi, 1987). The deformation modulus under loading (D_L) and unloading (D_U) was measured based on these tests. The loading cycles (minimum pressure from 0.5 to maximum 3 and 10 bar) were five for plate-loading and three for dilatometers.

2.3 Back-Analysis of Extensometers

Performing *in situ* tests at harsh topography or near faults, such as faults F1, F4, and F5 in the study site, is challenging. In galleries, anchor extensometers with an accuracy of $\pm 3\mu\text{m}$ were installed inside horizontal and vertical boreholes at 0.4-1 m distances from the gallery surface near faults and sharp *ER* variations.

For the numerical models (20 m × 20 m or ten times the gallery size), roller and XY-fixed (pins) boundaries were considered for sides and on the bottom (Figure 2) with 100 meshes in each direction, ranging from coarse to fine meshes in the middle. Cohesion (C_m) and friction angle (ϕ_m) were assessed by the generalized Hoek-Brown failure criterion (Rocscience, 2007) using rock mass classification index (GIS), overburden (h), density (ρ), and rock index (m_i). The Poisson ratio of rock mass was considered 0.35 based on *in situ* tests and laboratory experiments.

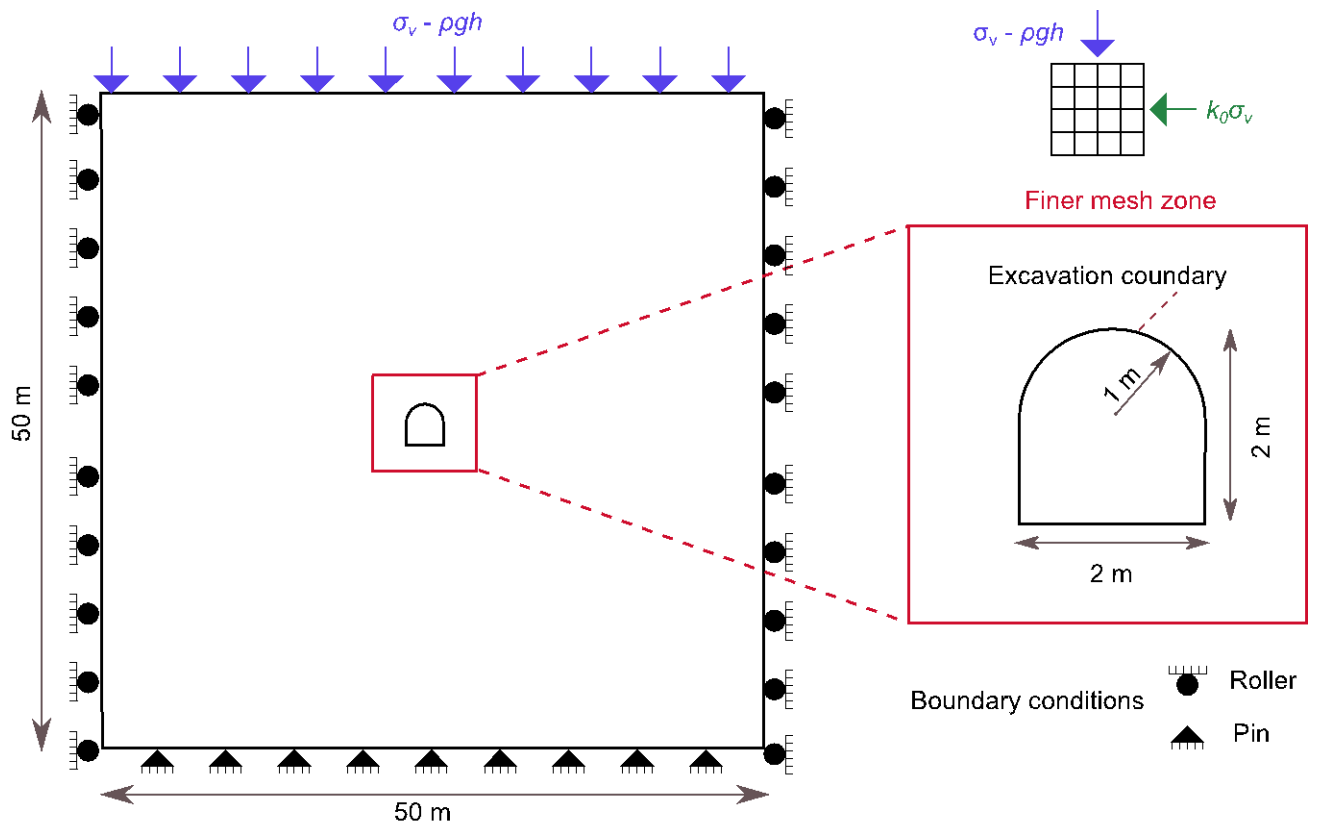


Figure 2. The boundaries, geometry, and parameters of numerical models, where σ_v and $k_0 \sigma_v$ are the vertical and horizontal stress components, respectively. ρ , h , and g represent the density, overburden height, and gravity, respectively.

The deformation modulus under unloading at the REV ($D_{UREV} < D_U$ of in situ tests) was evaluated by a numerical back-analysis (FLAC^{2D}) (ITASCA, 2002), starting from D_U up to reaching a modulus that resulted in deformations recorded by the installed extensometer (Δ_{REV}). For D_{REV} under loading (D_{LREV}), the ratio of D_{UREV} by D_U (in situ tests) was used (i.e., $D_{LREV} = (D_{UREV}/D_U) \times D_L$), considering no alternative was available to evaluate D_{LREV} . The flowchart evaluating D_{REV} based on ER is shown in Figure 3.

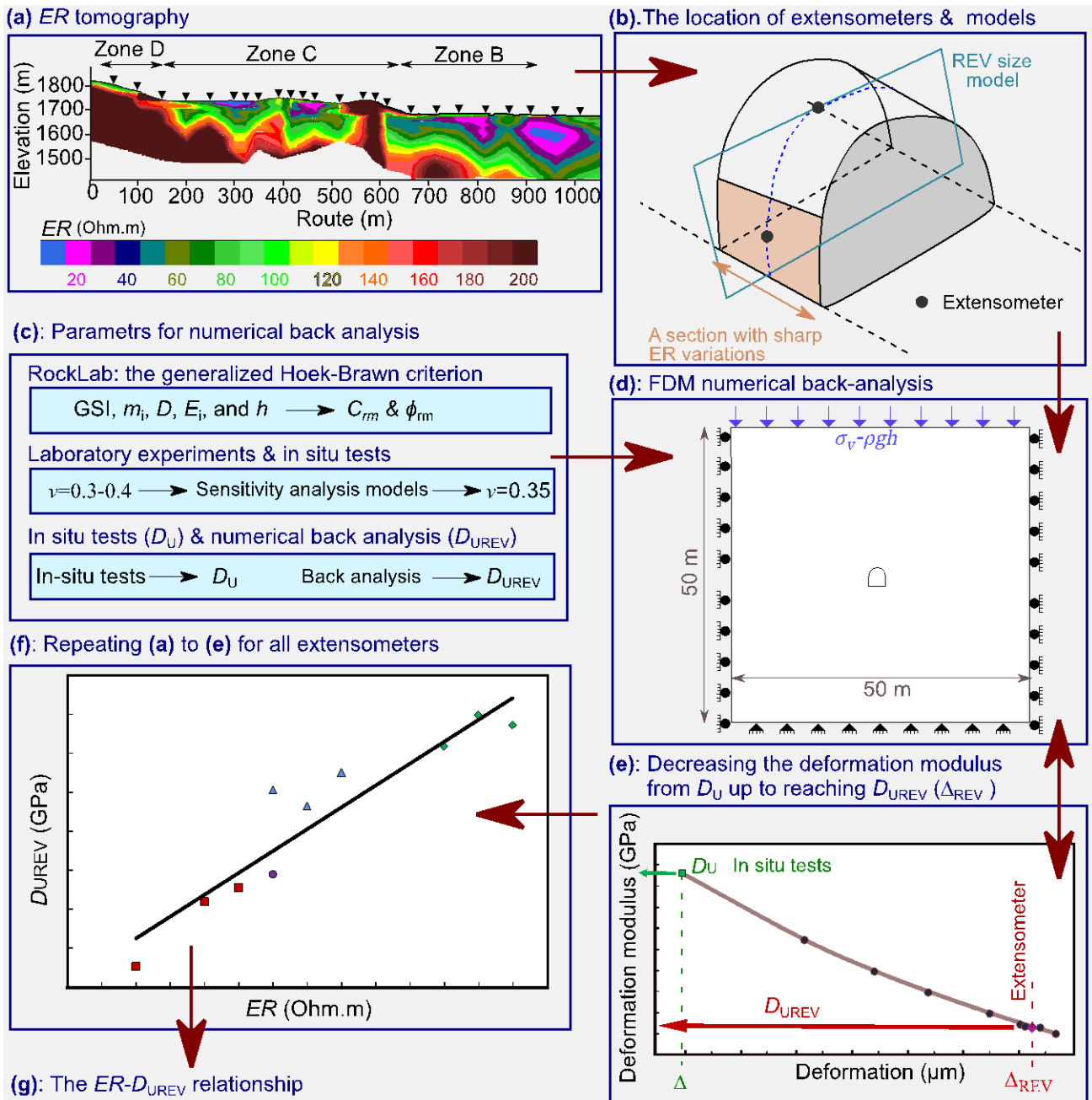


Figure 3. D_{REV} based on ER : (a) detecting extensometer locations extensometers based on sharp ER changes, (b) the deformations (Δ_{REV}) recorded along borehole extensometers, (c) rock mass parameters for the numerical models, (d) the FDM model, (e) back-analysis from D_L to D_{UREV} (reaching Δ_{REV}), (f) the back-analysis results for all extensometers, and (g) the $ER-D_{UREV}$ criterion.

3 Results

The study site was divided into four lithological zones, and ER alterations were recorded for the whole study site. ER values in Zone A (dolomitic limestone) spanned from 100 to 160 $\Omega \cdot m$, except near F4 and F5 faults (60-100 $\Omega \cdot m$). We divided the excavated gallery (LG3) into five subsections with a 10-20 $\Omega \cdot m$ variation and installed borehole extensometers for these subsections. At 15 and 40 distances, ER was 160-180 and 120-140 $\Omega \cdot m$, respectively. The ER range near Fault F4 (50 m from the gallery) was 100-120, while the range near the intersection of F4 and F5 faults (at 80 and 90 distances) was 80-100 and 60-80 $\Omega \cdot m$, respectively (Figure 4). The ER range for Gallery LG1 was 20-100 for Zone B (marly limestone) and 100-200 $\Omega \cdot m$ for Zone C (dolomitic limestone). The lowest ER values for Zone C were recorded near F1 at around 100 $\Omega \cdot m$. Two different layers with ER values of 20-60 and 60-100 $\Omega \cdot m$ were detected within Zone B. ER varies between

120 and 200 $\Omega \cdot m$ for Zone D (limestone).

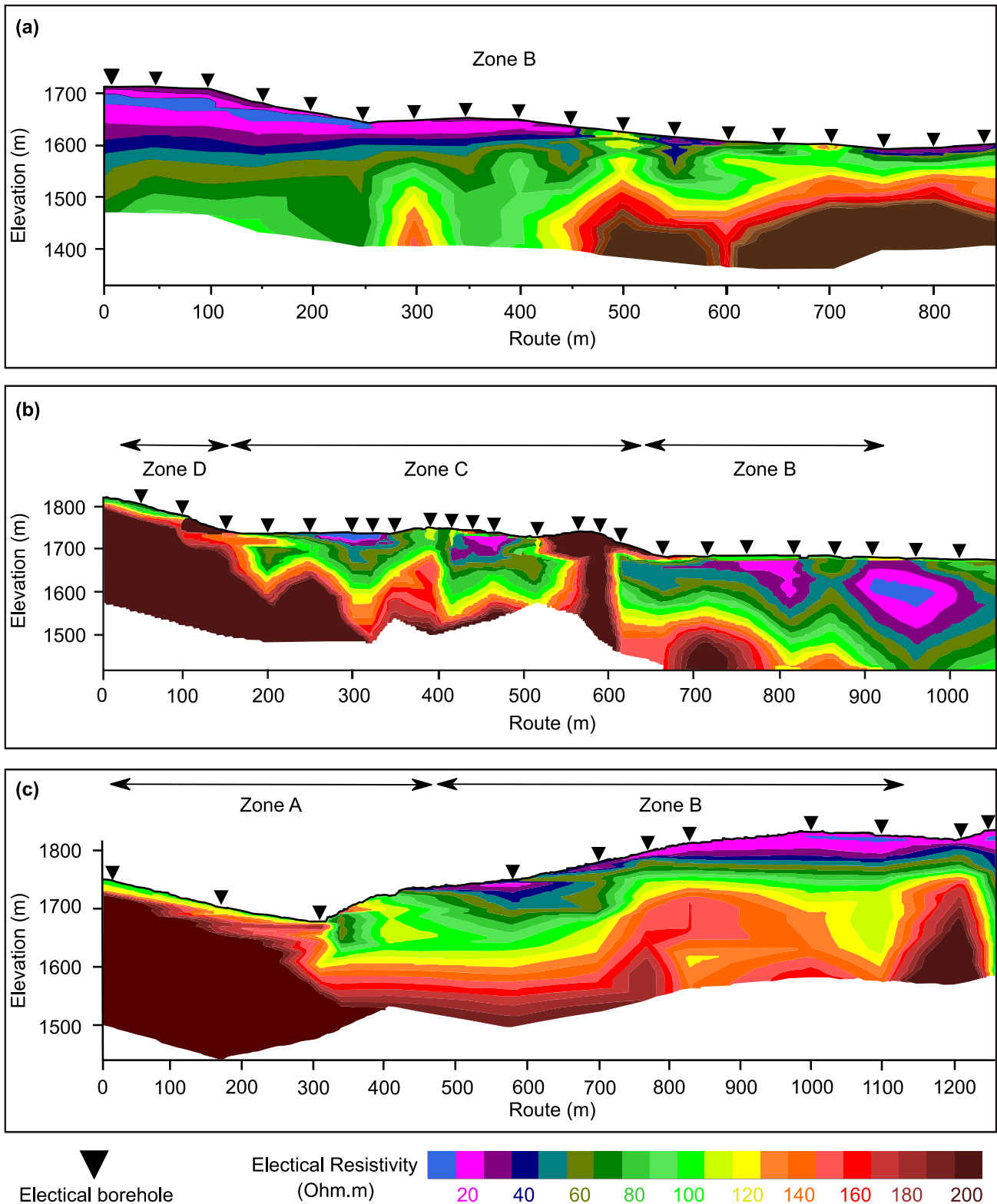


Figure 4. Electrical resistivity tomography for three profiles of the study site

A plastic area (0.25 to 0.5 m) was observed in the numerical models around the galleries for the extensometers; the extensometer deformations also displayed a higher difference between values recorded by equipment inside the plastic area (0.5 m). For example, Δ_{REV} for Zone A was 76 % (1354/1769 μm) and 72 %

(859/1190 μm) of Δ_{REV} outside this zone in horizontal and vertical boreholes, respectively. Therefore, extensometers outside the plastic area (60-100 cm from the gallery inlets) were utilized for measurements.

Figure 5 shows deformations for Extensometer 5 at LG1. First, the deformations based on the minimum D_U values of in situ tests (Δ) were calculated. For example, the minimum modulus was 4.73 GPa based on the plate-loading tests. Subsequently, deformations based on borehole extensometer (Δ_{REV}) were monitored for 120 days until reaching a variation below 10 μm for extensometers at 60 cm to 100 cm (outside the plastic deformation zone) distances during the last month. D_{UREV} values were back-calculated based on the recorded Δ_{REV} by decreasing the deformation modulus (D_U) in numerical models until reaching deformations at a $\pm 3\mu\text{m}$ span from Δ_{REV} .

We also assessed the sensitivity of deformations to Poisson ratio (ν); maximum deformations enhanced by 3.6 % (from 1989 to 2063 μm) for a rise of ν from 0.3 to 0.4 (33 %), while a relatively similar deformation modulus change (4.73 to 3.27 GPa) resulted in a deformation increase from 1397 to 2026 μm (31 %). Therefore, the influence of the deformation modulus on deformations was much higher than ν , and a Poisson ratio equal to 0.35 was employed for all models (same as in situ tests).

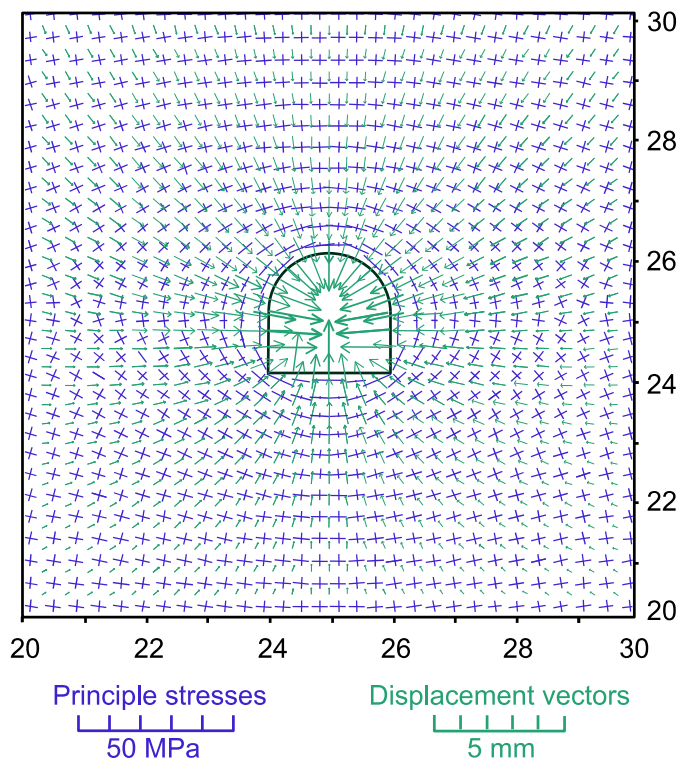


Figure 5. Numerical model (plot: 10 m \times 10 m) with $\Delta_{\text{REV}} = 2026\mu\text{m}$ for the extensometer installed at 80 cm from the gallery span; D_{UREV} back-calculated as 3.27 GPa compared to the in situ tests (4.73 GPa).

We developed a relationship between ER and D_{UREV} based on all numerical models and back-calculated values with $R^2 = 89.3\%$ (Equation (1)). We utilized this relationship to divide the rock masses at the dam axis into subsections based on sharp ER variations for Zones A to D, in addition to faulted rock masses (Figure 6).

$$D_{\text{UREV}} = 0.028 ER + 0.68 \quad (1)$$

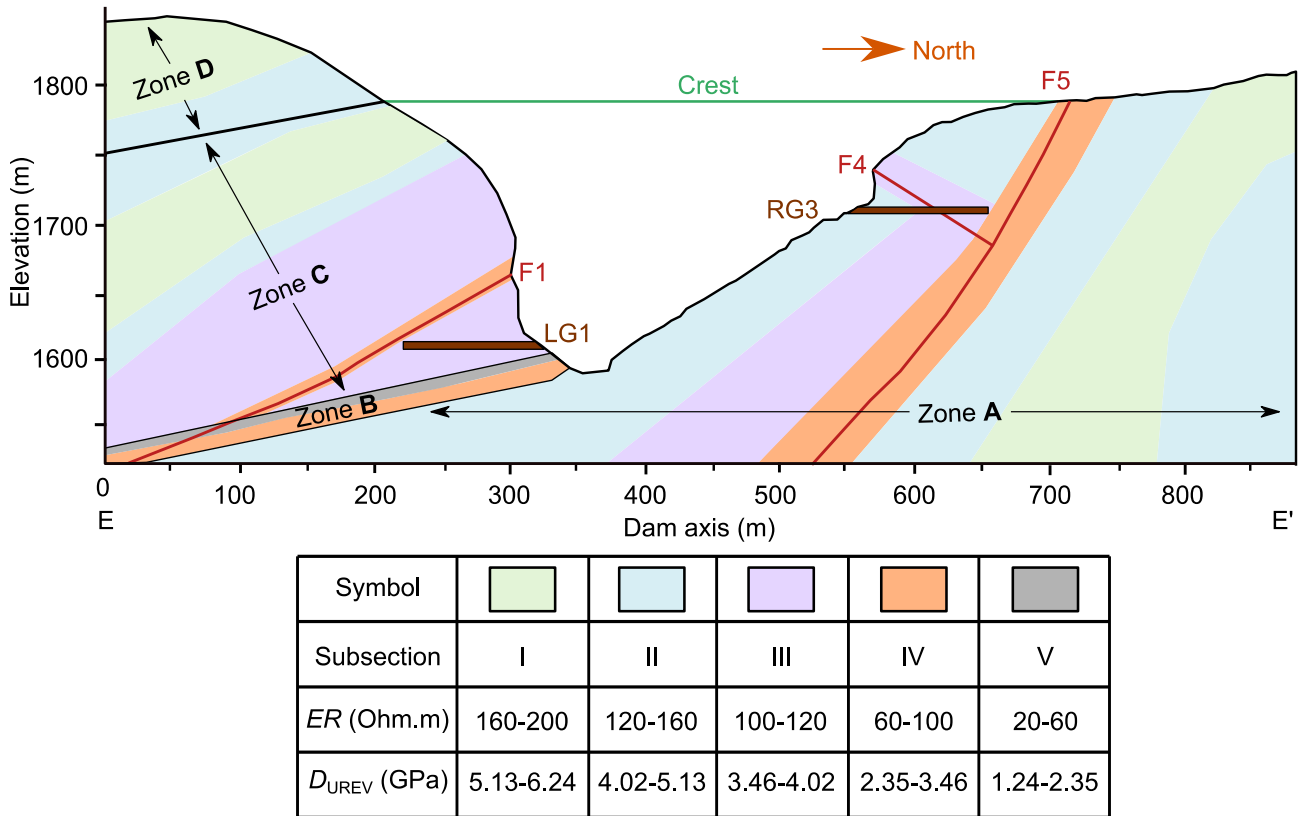


Figure 6. Ranges of ER and D_{UREV} values calculated using the methodology developed in this study for the whole dam axis: Zone A, C, and D are shown by the arrow. D_{UREV} variations within the slope and near faults are shown in the subsections.

4 Discussion

Our approach includes the influence of jointed area, faulted rocks, and weak bedding on the deformation modulus at REV, which is impossible for the in situ tests due to their limited coverage and technical challenges. The ER - D_{REV} correlation is proved based on previous laboratory and field-scale studies. Our results also confirm a direct relationship between ER and D_{REV} .

Moreover, geophysical prospecting is a common and affordable technique. Therefore, geoelectrical tomography can be a practical solution for evaluating characteristics of faulted rocks without adding extra financial burdens comparing numerous in situ tests. Geophysical methods are also fast, non-destructive, and environmentally friendly.

After elucidating the advantages of the developed technique in this study, explaining the limitations of this study is critical. We evaluate D_{REV} accurately and develop an ER - D_{REV} relationship using numerical back-analyses; nonetheless, extensometer data are often unavailable, particularly for small projects. However, Equation (1) can predict D_{REV} when no borehole extensometer data is available, particularly for similar sedimentary formations.

The ER range, lithology, and fault properties can affect the faulted rock mass conditions. The resolution of electrical data by a 30-50 m electrode distance is enough to detect the 20 m subsections with different D_{REV} values for a maximum depth of 250 m. Nonetheless, the provided ER - D_{REV} relationship cannot be used for igneous rocks or other sedimentary formations with ER higher than 200 Ω ·m. However, this approach can be repeated for different projects by installing borehole extensometers based on ER contrasts.

Despite employing low electrode distance and complementary geophysical data, ER values can still suffer from variability. We consider a range of ER values (10 Ω ·m) to control the model results, showing 5-25 % variability for different ER s; the effect of ER variability of 10 Ω ·m is higher for lower ER ranges (10-30 Ω ·m). A safety factor (e.g., 1.25) or a range of D_{REV} can be considered for lower ER . The impossibility of installing

borehole extensometers at Subsection B1 (because of the locations of galleries) is another limitation of this study; however, Equation (1) is utilized by multiplying the mentioned safety factor.

D_{UREV} is calculated directly from extensometer deformations at REV, but we use the ratio of D_{UREV}/D_U for calculating D_{LREV} . However, this estimated D_{LREV} can be used at the design stage by multiplying a reasonable safety factor, considering the impossibility of evaluating rock mass behavior under loading at REV using alternative methods.

5 Conclusions

The main concerns in the studied slope are Zone B and three faults; we divide Zone B into two sections (B1 and B2). Zone B1 (about 10 m) and faulted rocks are geomechanically weak layers (D_{UREV} of 1.24-2.35 GPa), and reinforcement must be considered. Such D_{UREV} values are up to 80 % lower than the values measured through in situ tests.

Similar ER - D_{REV} relationships can be developed for various rock types, and soft computing methods (such as neural networks) can be employed to analyze the data and present universal equations for a category of rocks (like sedimentary formations). Therefore, removing extreme financial burdens, technical challenges, and environmental issues of in situ tests, in addition to coverage of the rock mass at the representative element volume, are advantages of utilizing ER tomography for evaluating the deformation moduli of faulted rock masses.

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