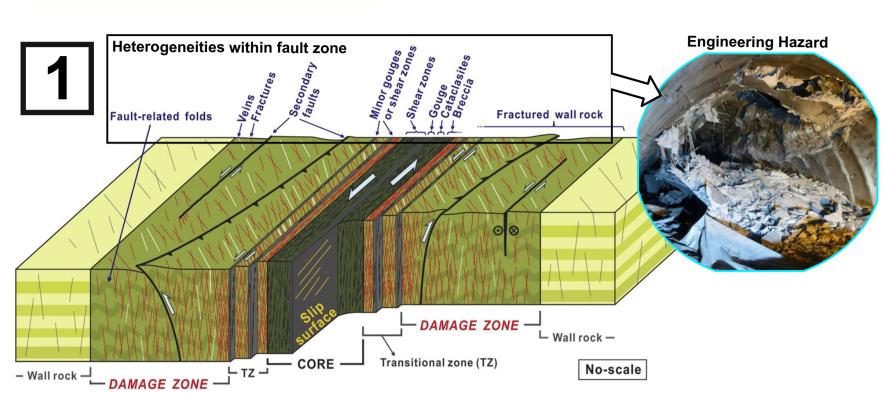


Deciphering Heterogeneous Mechanical Stability in an Exhumed Fault Zone through a Structural-Geotechnical Approach: A Case Study from the Great Glen Fault, Scotland

I. Introduction

2. Study Area



c block diagram for strike-slip fault zone showing ties causing engineering hazards (modified from Choi et al., 2016)

Understanding ground condition is crucial in subsurface engineering projects to plan engineering mitigations.

Faults are 3D zones with heterogeneous internal architectures, exhibi--ting mechanical variabilities and causing engineering hazards (Fig. 1).

nterrelationship between structural and engineering heterogeneities could inform engineering mitigation.

ightarrow Key Question: How much the geological deformation history, with sets of overprinting geological processes, can be used to inform engineering understanding of a rock mass.

This study compares and contrasts geological and engineering approaches on rock mass characterisation to evaluate and forecast mechanical stability

Since the early Paleozoic, Great Glen Fault (GGF) has accommodated several 100s km of displacement with multiple reactivations and exhumation (Fig. 2).

GGF is a up to approximately 6 km wide zone composed of various belts of fault rocks and intensely fractured wall rocks.

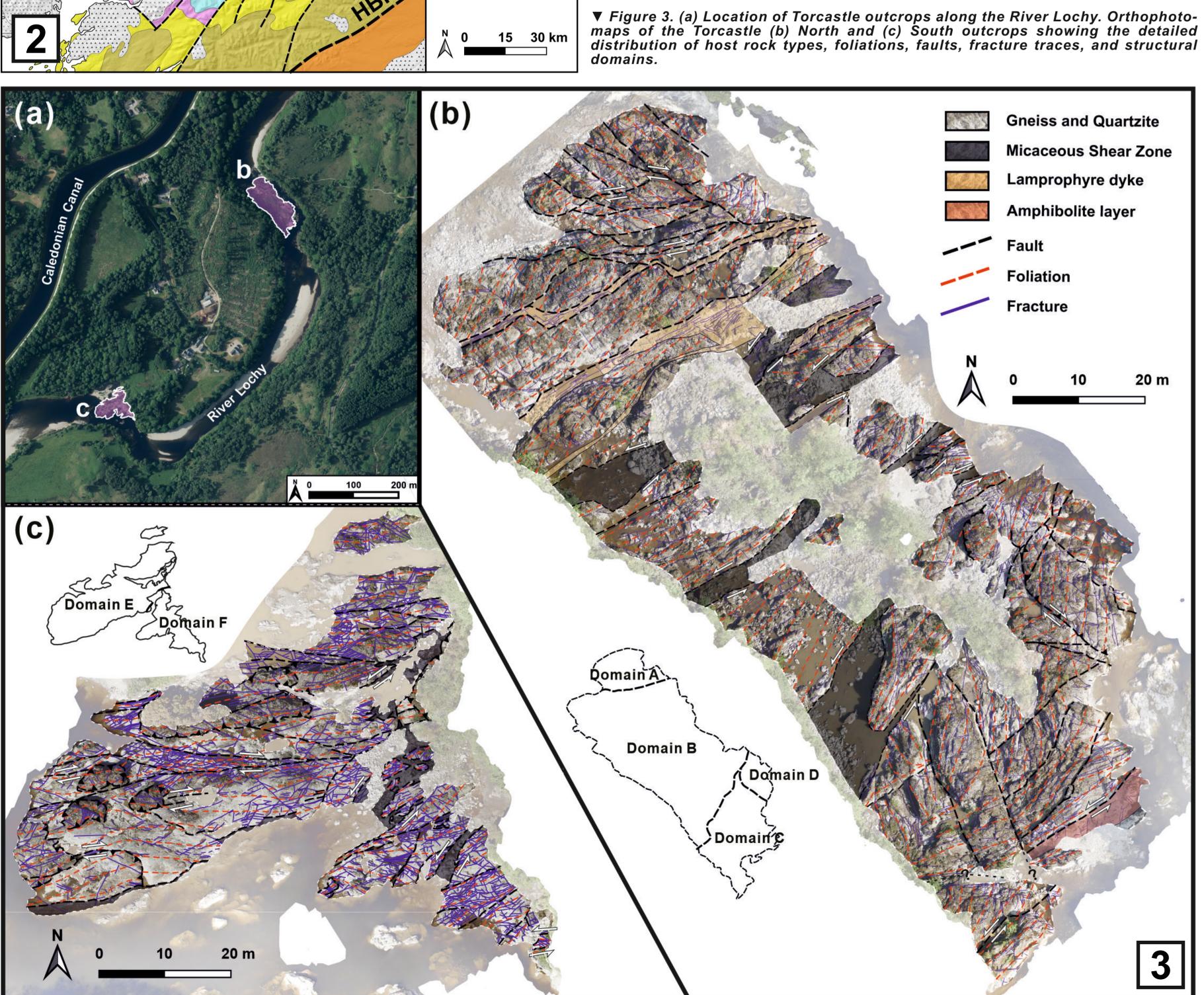
Torcastle North (TCN) and South (TCS) outcrops, fault-bounded sliver in the centre of GGF, preserve structural elements (shear zones, foliations. faults. and fractures) formed in the mid-crustal to uppercrustal level (Fig. 3).

• Psammitic to pelitic gneiss with local amphibolites and lamprophyre intrusions.

Highly heterogeneous structural elements while showing local consistency in geometry and distribution pattern.

Structural domains are classified by a consistent pattern of structural elements and lithological distribution.

◀ Figure 2. (a) Tectonostratigraphic terranes in the Northern Britain (modified from Strachan et al., 2002). (b) A regional geological map of Scotland (modified from Searle, 2022) showing location of the Torcastle block (Fig. 2). MT: Moine Thrust, GGF: Great Glen Fault, HBF: Highland Boundary Fault.



Torridonian

Igneous rocks

Tertiary extrusions

Tertiary intrusions

Devonian extrusions

Caledonian granites

Gabbro Intrusions

Metamorphic rocks

Foliated granitoid

Argyll Group

Appin Group

Grampian Group

Loch Eil Group

Morar Group

Lewisian

---- Fault

Thrust

Glenfinnan Group

Migmatitic and granitic

Southern Highland Gro

¹*<u>Namgwon Kim</u>, ¹Zoe K. Shipton, ¹Yannick Kremer, ²Christopher D. Jack

¹Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Strathclyde, ²COWI, 310 St Vincent St, Glasgow *<u>namgwon.kim@strath.ac.uk</u>

5. Parameter Maps & Correlation Coefficients (R²) 3. Fracture Classification **Gneiss and Quartzite** Lamprophyre dyk Foliation Set 4 Random Se ▲ Figure 4. (a) Schematic illustration of four fracture types on the Torcastle block. Field observations of (b) FP, (c) FB, (d) FX, and (e) LN fractures. Red 0 10 20 m and cyan dashed lines represent the foliation and fracture traces. respectively. Fractures are categorized into 4 types based on spatial distribution and geometric relationship with local foliations (Fig. 4a). > Foliation-parallel (FP) fractures (Fig. 4b) Parallel to local foliations. - Several decimetres to metres long. > Foliation-bounded (FB) fractures (Fig. 4c) - Highly oblique to the local foliations, Several centimetres to decimetres long. - Terminate at the foliation or FP fracture planes. > Foliation-crossing (FX) fractures (Fig. 4d) Cross-cut local foliations. Several metres long. - Bounded by local faults, shear zone, or large FP fractures. > Ladder-like network (LN) fracture (Fig. 4e) - Systematic fractures confined in lamprophyre dykes. - Composed of two fracture sets, oblique & parallel to dyke boundary 4. Moving Window Sampling Center of Circular Sampling Area **Gneiss and Quartzite** Micaceous Shear Zone Lamprophyre dyke Amphibolite layer Foliation Fracture 20 m Set 4 X - node Y - node ▲ Figure 5. Graphical example of moving circular sampling method illustrating how Jn, M, N, and Jr were calculated. Solid lines are undulating, E - node and dash-single dotted lines are planar fault and fracture traces, respectively, with different colours for each set. Fault / Fracture • Using circular sampling window (radius: 1.5 m) on fractures & faults 0 10 20 m trace map for analysing - Topological Nodes, - Fracture Density $(M/2\pi r^2)$, - Sub-parameters of Q-system. (d) (b) Fracture sets are classified based on the orientation and geometrical relationship between each set. • We used a simplified Q-system with fixed Ja (1.0), Jw (1.0), and SRF (5.0) to estimate mechanical stability of TCN and TCS. $0 = \frac{RQD}{K} \times \frac{J_r}{K} \times \frac{J_w}{K}$ is the Rock Quality Designation is the joint set number is the joint roughness number is the joint alteration number is the joint water reduction factor

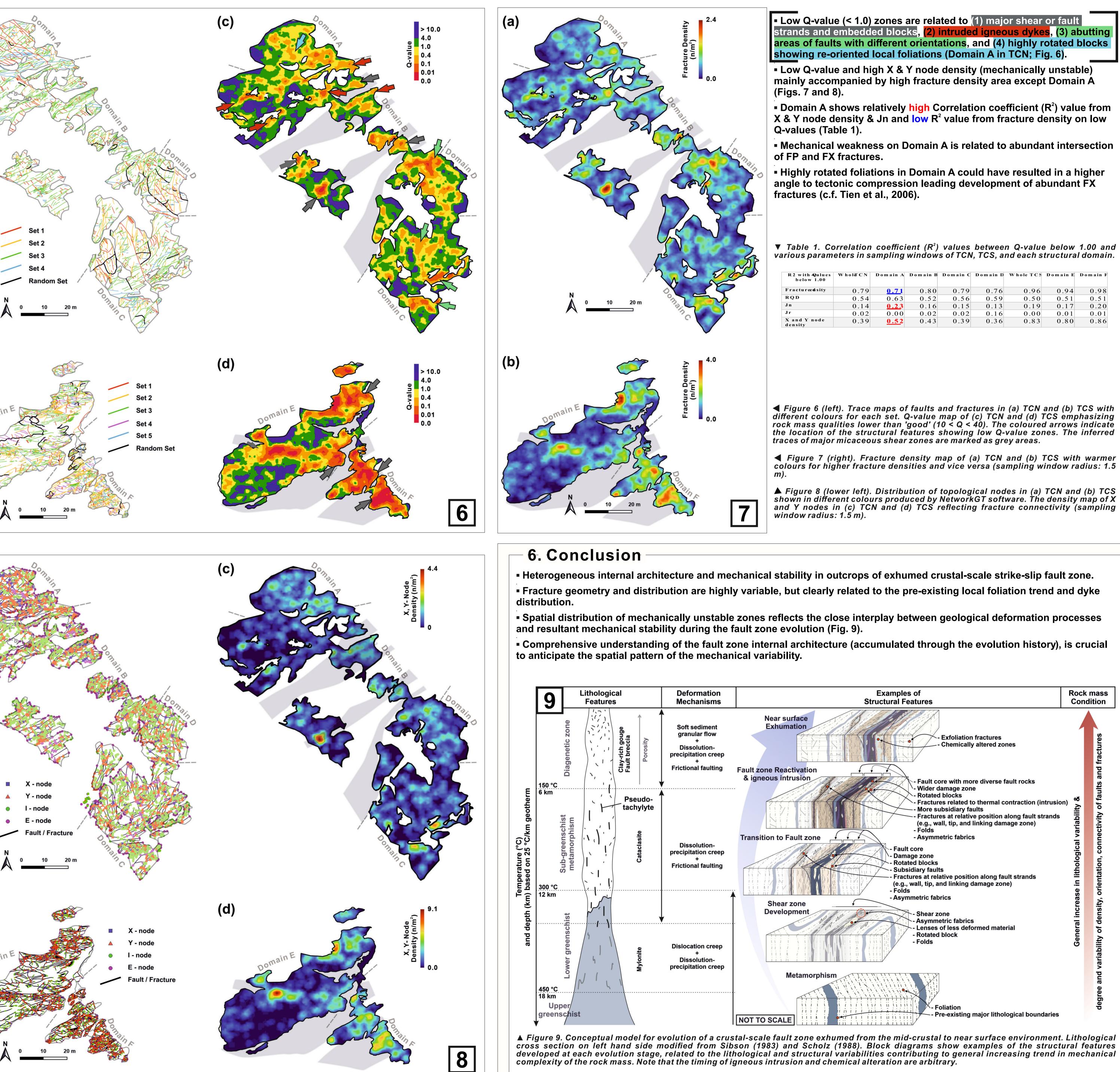
SRF is the stress reduction factor

Definition of Q-value

Topological nodes (Sanderson and

Nixon, 2015).

3





Abstract

R2 with -Qalues below 1.00	Wholet CN	Domain A	Domain B	Domain C	Domain D	Whole TCS	Domain E	Domain F
Fracturee d sity	0.79	<u>0.7</u> 1	0.80	0.79	0.76	0.96	0.94	0.98
RQD	0.54	0.63	0.52	0.56	0.59	0.50	0.51	0.51
Jn	0.14	<u>0.2</u> 3	0.16	0.15	0.13	0.19	0.17	0.20
Jr	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.16	0.00	0.01	0.01
X and Y node density	0.39	<u>0.5</u> 2	0.43	0.39	0.36	0.83	0.80	0.86