



Particle size distribution and strain rate attenuation in hypervelocity impact and shock recovery experiments



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ABSTRACT

Particle size distribution (PSD) is an often used parameter to describe and quantify fragmentation of deformed rock. Our analyses of shock deformed sandstone show that dynamic fragmentation influences the PSD, expressed as fractal dimension (D -value). Image analysis was used to derive fractal dimensions from a hypervelocity impact cratering experiment (2.5 mm steel sphere, 4.8 km/s) and a planar shock recovery experiment (2.5 GPa). The D -values in the cratering experiment decrease from 1.74 at the crater floor to 0.84 at a distance of 7.2 mm to the crater floor. The D -values found in this experiment are closely related to the microstructural features found at distinct distances from the crater floor. The obtained values are in good agreement with the D -values reported for fault zones, impact sites and deformation experiments. The D -value measured in the shock recovery experiment is 2.42. Such high D -values were usually attributed to abrasive processes related to high strain. Since the strain in our experiment is only ~23% we suggest that at highly dynamic deformation very high D -values can be reached at small strain. To quantify this, numerical impact modelling has been used to estimate strain rates for the impact experiment. This is related to the activation of more inherent flaws and fracture bifurcation at very high strain rates $\sim >10^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

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1. Introduction

Brittle failure of rock commonly involves a reduction of particle size. In general, this principle is scale-invariant and only determined by the development of fractures. It has been shown that particle sizes resulting from comminution are properly described by a fractal size distribution (e.g., Turcotte, 1986; Sammis et al., 1987; Marone and Scholz, 1989; Sammis and Biegel, 1989) and the resulting power-law slope in a double-logarithmic plot. This allows quantifying the degree of fragmentation of fault rock (Storti et al., 2003). Using the relation:

$$N(d) \approx d^{-D} \quad (1)$$

where $N(d)$ is the number of particles larger than the diameter d , and D is the fractal dimension. As the word “fractal dimension” might be misleading when non-fractal processes are involved in the evolution of a self-similar particle size distribution (PSD), we here follow the suggestion of Heilbronner and Keulen (2006) and refer to this number as the D -value. Higher D -values indicate a larger portion of fine material and, thus, more effective grain comminution.

Several methods have been used to estimate the PSD of faulted rocks. This has included sieving (Anderson et al., 1980), optical microscopy (Biegel et al., 1989), the use of a Coulter counter (An and Sammis, 1994), scanning electron microscopy (Shao and Zou, 1996), laser diffraction (Storti and Balsamo, 2010), and transmission electron microscopy for particles down to 15 nm (Olgaard and Brace, 1983; Chester et al., 2005). PSD are commonly presented on a log–log plot of grain diameter versus frequency plots, with the D -value (“fractal dimension”) defining the slope of the PSD.

Depending on the methodology, two-dimensional or three-dimensional D -values are derived. A three-dimensional distribution is a description of all particles in a given volume (e.g. sieving),

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Table 1
Selection of *D*-values measured for different deformation modes and materials.

| Deformation setting | Material | 2D <i>D</i> -value | Reference |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|
| Low strain rate natural deformation | | | |
| Natural fault zone | Granite | 1.6 | Sammis et al., 1987 |
| Natural fault zone | Granite | 1.6 | Sammis and Biegel, 1989 |
| Natural fault zone | Granite, gneiss | 0.8–2.1 | Blenkinsop, 1991 |
| Natural fault zone | Arkose | 1.6–2.0 | |
| Natural fault zone | Granite | 1.4–2.6 | An and Sammis, 1994 |
| Natural fault zone | Gneiss | 1.6–1.9 | |
| Natural fault zone | Tonalite | 1.5–1.9 | |
| Natural fault zone | Schist and gneiss | 1.6 | Shao and Zou, 1996 |
| Natural fault zone | Granite | 1.7–2.3 | Monzawa and Otsuki, 2003 |
| Natural fault zone | Carbonate | 0.88–2.49 | Storti et al., 2003 |
| Natural fault zone | Carbonate | 1.09–1.93 | Billi and Storti, 2004 |
| Natural fault zone | Granite | 2.0 | Chester et al., 2005 |
| Natural fault zone | Shale | 2.3 | Ma et al., 2006 |
| Natural fault zone | Granitoids | 1.6–2.4 | Keulen et al., 2007 |
| Natural fault zone | Tonalite | 1.8 | Pittarello et al., 2008 |
| Natural fault zone | Sand | 1.64–2.02 | Balsamo and Storti, 2011 |
| Natural fault zone | Dolostone | 1.49–1.56 | Fondriest et al., 2012 |
| Low strain rate tests | | | |
| Hydrostatic load 20 MPa | Crushed Ottawa sand | 1.4 | Marone and Scholz, 1989 |
| Hydrostatic load 100 MPa | Crushed Ottawa sand | 1.8 | |
| Shear test | Crushed Ottawa sand | 1.6 | |
| Shear test | Artificial gouge | 1.6 | Biegel et al., 1989 |
| Shear test | Westerly granite | 1.6 | |
| Three axial compression | Quartz sandstone | 1.9–2.5 | Hadizadeh and Johnson, 2003 |
| Three axial compression | Granitoids | 1.4–2.3 | Heilbronner and Keulen, 2006 |
| Three axial compression | Granitoids | 1.4–2.3 | Keulen et al., 2007 |
| Rotary shear experiment | Granitoids | 1.54–2.26 | Stünitz et al., 2010 |
| Three axial compression | Granite | 1.13–2.28 | Dyer et al., 2012 |
| High strain rate tests | | | |
| Impact experiment | Basalt | 1.4–1.62 | Fujiwara et al., 1977 |
| Chemical explosion | | 1.42 | Schoutens, 1979 |
| Nuclear explosion | | 1.50 | |
| Impact experiment | Basalt | 1.44–1.71 | Lange et al., 1984 |
| Natural impact site | Sudbury Breccia | 1.2–1.8 | Rousell et al., 2003 |
| Natural impact site | Sandstone | 1.55 | Key and Schultz, 2011 |
| Cratering experiment | Sandstone | 0.84–1.74 | This study |
| Shock recovery experiment | Sandstone | 2.42 | This study |

whereas a two-dimensional distribution is a description of all particles encountered by a two-dimensional section through the three-dimensional volume (e.g., from image analysis). Based on the concepts of stereology (Underwood, 1970) it was shown by Turcotte (1986) and An and Sammis (1994) that a given three-dimensional “fractal dimension” can be transformed into a two-dimensional value by subtracting 1. In this study *D*-values taken from the literature have been converted into two-dimensional values. Numerous particle size analyses have been published for natural fault zones in sandstone (Balsamo and Storti, 2011), quartzite (Olgaard and Brace, 1983), quartz-rich crystalline rock (Sammis and Biegel, 1989; Blenkinsop, 1991; An and Sammis, 1994; Chester et al., 2005; Keulen et al., 2007; Pittarello et al., 2008), metamorphic rocks (Blenkinsop, 1991; An and Sammis, 1994; Shao and Zou, 1996), limestones (Storti et al., 2003; Billi and Storti, 2004; Fondriest et al., 2012), and shales (Ma et al., 2006). Also a wide range of data has

been obtained for different deformation tests, including sledgehammer blows (Hartman, 1969), explosive testing (Schoutens, 1979; Grady and Kipp, 1987), triaxial loading (Sammis et al., 1986; Marone and Scholz, 1989; Hadizadeh and Johnson, 2003; Heilbronner and Keulen, 2006), shear tests (Biegel et al., 1989; Marone and Scholz, 1989; Stünitz et al., 2010), and impact experiments (Fujiwara et al., 1977).

D-values have been frequently used to compare particle sizes of naturally and experimentally deformed rocks (Sammis et al., 1987; Marone and Scholz, 1989; Blenkinsop, 1991; An and Sammis, 1994; Shao and Zou, 1996; Reches and Dewers, 2005; Wilson et al., 2005; Heilbronner and Keulen, 2006; Keulen et al., 2007; Glazner and Mills, 2012). A compilation of *D*-values for fractured materials is given in Table 1. The *D*-values cover a range between 0.8 and 2.5 for different rock types and loading conditions. Fault gouge material typically has higher *D*-values ($D \approx 2$) than cracked grains deformed without significant displacement ($D \approx 1.6$) (Sammis and King, 2007). It has been suggested that PSD may be related to strain and/or strain rate (Grady and Kipp, 1987; Hadizadeh and Johnson, 2003; Zhou et al., 2005; Stünitz et al., 2010) but no quantitative relation for strain has been found (Keulen et al., 2007). Grady and Kipp (1987) first established a relationship between strain rate and resulting fragment size distribution using controlled blasting experiments with oil shale. The general idea behind this relationship is that at increased strain rates more inherent flaws of the deformed material are activated at the same time. This is due to the limited propagation velocity of a single crack and leads to an increased fracture density and, thus, may influence the *D*-value.

The relationship between strain, strain rate and PSD is of fundamental interest for the investigation of meteorite impact-related damage on Earth and planetary surfaces. It could possibly be used to provide additional constraints to characterize an impact event by quantification of impact damage. A first attempt to relate PSD and damage to impact-induced deformation was made by Fujiwara et al. (1977), who analyzed the destruction of basaltic bodies, and Lange et al. (1984), who analyzed ejected fragments of gabbroic targets. First PSD investigations at natural impact sites were reported by Rousell et al. (2003) for Sudbury, Canada and by Key and Schultz (2011) for Upheaval Dome, Utah. The latter structure was recently confirmed as an impact crater (Buchner and Kenkmann, 2008).

Here, we provide the first-ever spatially resolved PSD measurements for experimental impact events. We compare the PSD of a mesoscopic sandstone target deformed by a hypervelocity impact cratering experiment with the PSD induced in a small sandstone specimen experimentally shocked at 2.5 GPa in a planar shock recovery experiment. Porous sandstone was chosen as target material to account for the ubiquitous porosity of earth and planetary targets. Of the 184 known impact structures on earth ca. 70% occur full or partly on sedimentary rocks which possess varying degrees of porosity (*earth impact database*). Similarly planetary surfaces are covered widely by porous regolith breccias, or even exhibit porous eolian and fluvial sediments. All experiments were performed in the framework of the MEMIN (Multidisciplinary Experimental and Modeling Impact research Network) German Science Foundation research unit at the facilities of the Fraunhofer Institut für Kurzzeitdynamik, Ernst-Mach-Institut (EMI), in Freiburg, Germany. All experimentally deformed materials were analyzed by image analysis of scanning electron microscope (SEM) photomicrographs obtained in back-scattered electron (BSE) mode. To gain more insight in the development of the measured *D*-values, numerical modeling has been used to estimate the decreasing strain rates in the target of the impact experiment. The results are discussed in the context of PSD reported from natural fault zones, rock deformation experiments and impacts.

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