

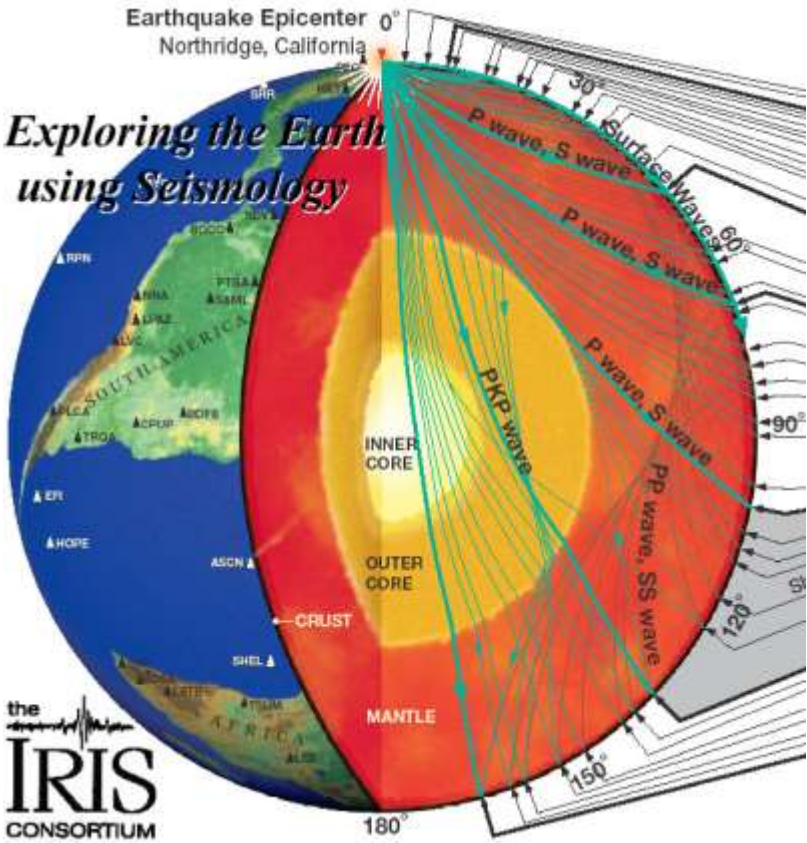
# Дифракция нейтронов и синхротронного излучения: применение для исследования упругой анизотропии горных пород

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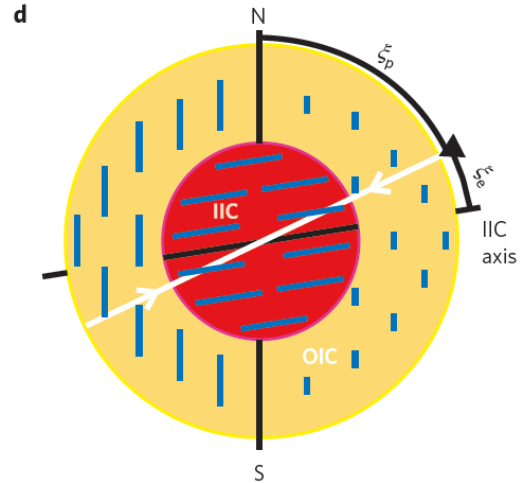
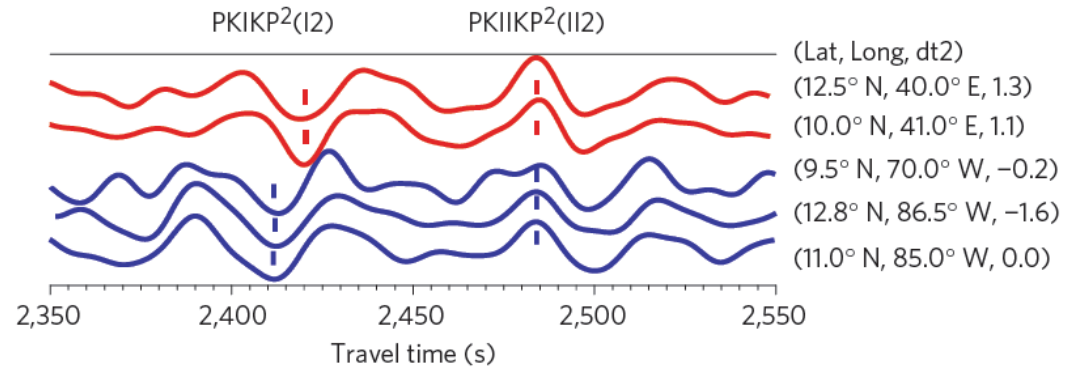
# Seismic waves and bulk elastic properties of rocks

Study of elastic waves propagating through the Earth is necessary to derive models of Earth's internal structure; models/prognosis of earthquakes; geophysical prospecting (e.g., oil and gas deposits).



<http://www.iris.edu/hq/>

c T. Wang et al. (2015). *Nature*, DOI: 10.1038/NGEO2354



The Earth's inner core is solid and exhibits strong elastic anisotropy due to the preferred orientation of iron crystallites.

Recently, observations of seismic waves resulted in a two-component inner core model with different anisotropy types of both components.

# Seismic waves and bulk elastic properties of rocks

Study of elastic waves propagating through the Earth is necessary to derive models of Earth's internal structure; models/prognosis of earthquakes; geophysical prospecting (e.g., oil and gas deposits).

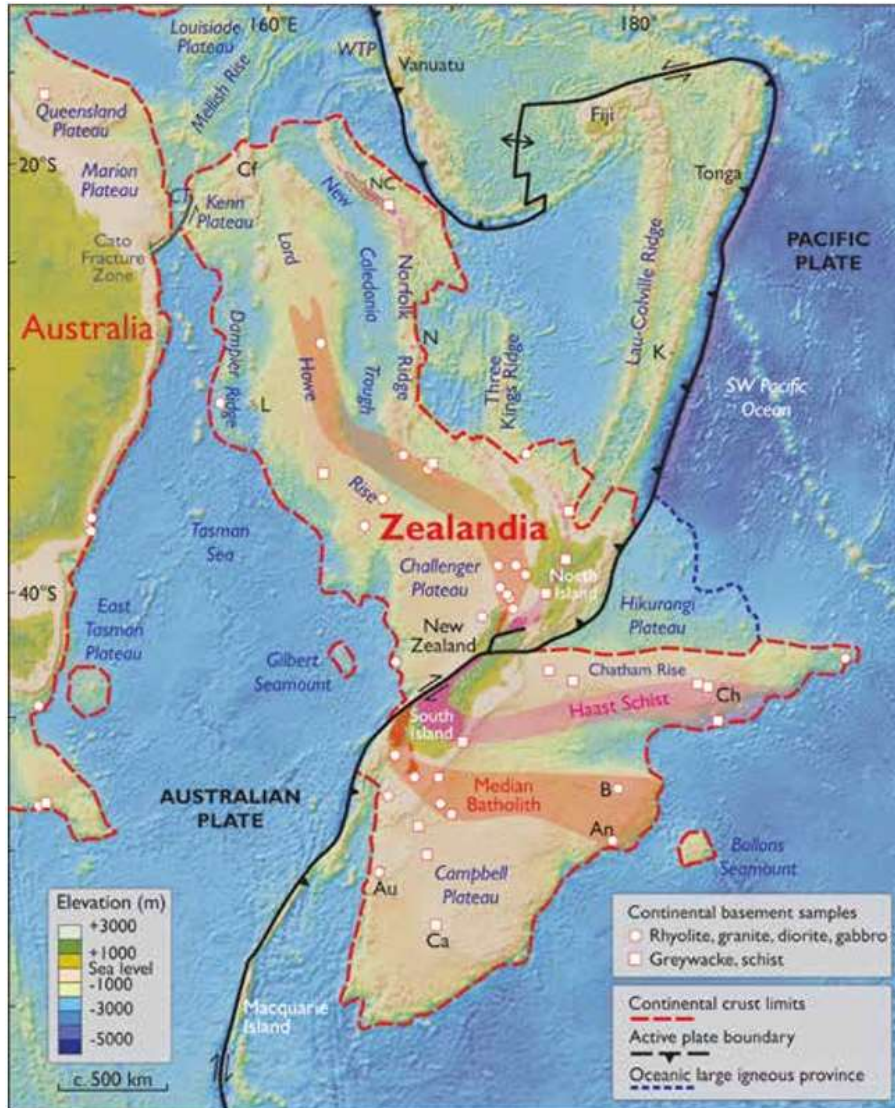


Figure 2. Spatial limits of Zealandia. Base map from Stagpoole (2002) based on data from Smith and Sandwell (1997). Continental basement samples from Suggate et al. (1978), Beggs et al. (1990), Tull-och et al. (1991, 2009), Gamble et al. (1993), McDougall et al. (1994), and Mortimer et al. (1997, 1998, 2006, 2008a, 2008b, 2015). NC—New Caledonia; WTP—West Torres Plateau; CT—Cato Trough; Cf—Chesterfield Islands; L—Lord Howe Island; N—Norfolk Island; K—Kermadec Islands; Ch—Chatham Islands; B—Bounty Islands; An—Antipodes Islands; Au—Auckland Islands; Ca—Campbell Island. Mercator projection.

*N. Mortimer et al. (2017). GSA Today, DOI: 10.1130/GSATG321A.1*

“A 4.9 Mkm<sup>2</sup> region of the southwest Pacific Ocean is made up of continental crust. The region has elevated bathymetry relative to surrounding oceanic crust, diverse and silica-rich rocks, and relatively thick and **low-velocity crustal structure**...

The identification of Zealandia as a geological continent, rather than a collection of continental islands, fragments, and slices, more correctly represents the geology of this part of Earth...”

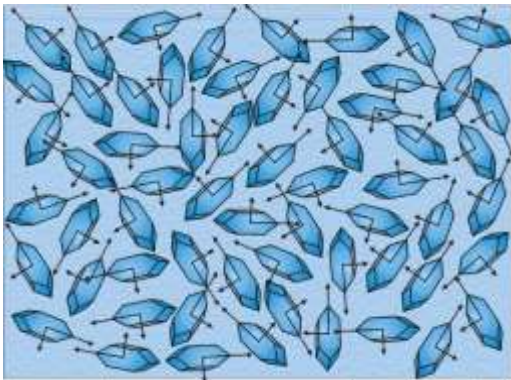


# Crystallographic texture

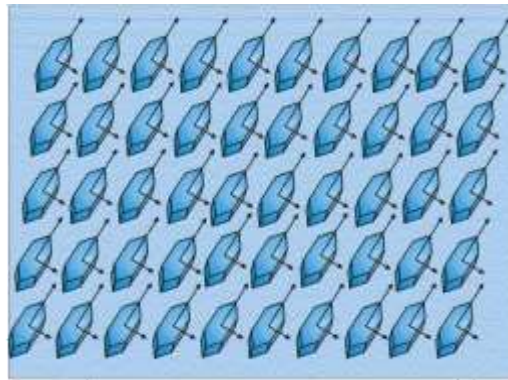
Many materials (metals, ceramics, **rocks**,...) are polycrystals; they consist of grains (crystallites) of different shape, size and orientation.

Crystallographic texture is the **lattice** (or **crystallographic**) **preferred orientation** of crystallites of some phase (e.g., one or other mineral in case of the multimineral rock) in the chosen (macroscopic) coordinate system.

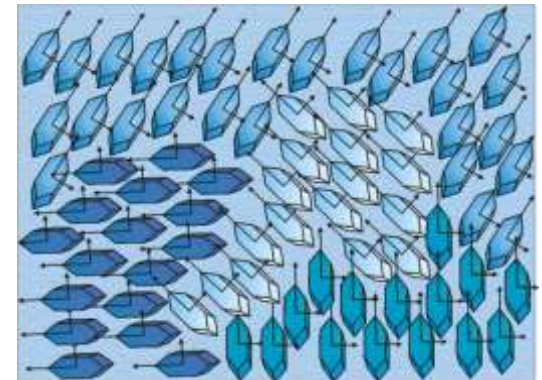
Common abbreviation: **LPO** (or **CPO**).



Random/chaotic orientation:  
NO crystallographic texture



Aligned grains:  
One-component  
crystallographic texture  
( $\approx$  single crystal)



Multi-component  
crystallographic texture  
(different colors =  
**different orientations**, not  
different phases!)

# Crystallographic texture is:

- a factor of «genetic memory» about the deformation and metamorphic processes (crystallization, recrystallization, plastic deformation, sedimentation, ...);  
→ Its possible to deduce what processes formed a certain rock!
- one of the factors controlling physical properties of polycrystalline materials and their anisotropy.  
→ Its possible to calculate **elastic**, plastic, thermal, magnetic, ... properties of the polycrystal!

Peculiarities of the texture formation and texture types are influenced by:

- *type of the stress tensor* (confining pressure, uniaxial compression, three-axial compression, simple shear, flat stress state, etc.).
- *temperature conditions* (temperature, rate of temperature change, temperature gradient, etc.).
- *polymorphism* (structural phase transitions, transformation superplasticity, twinning, etc.).
- ...

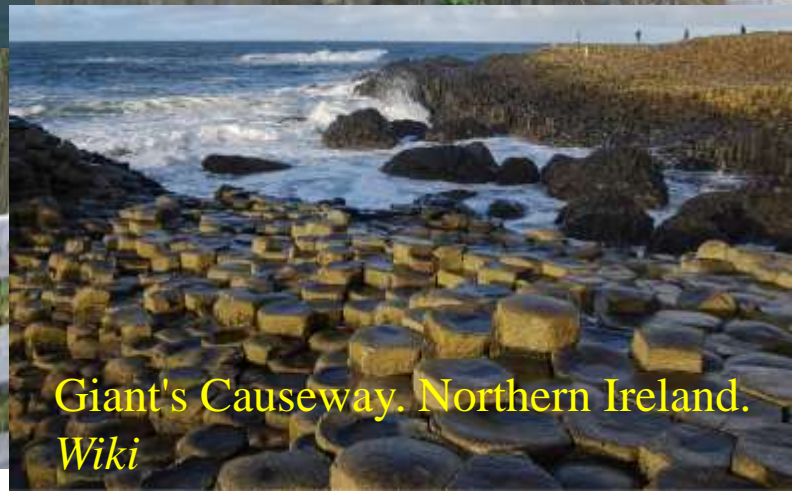
# A possibility to study the 'history' of rock-forming processes



Ingeborgfjellet, Norway. Massively folded strata.

*Photo: Ólafur Ingólfsson 2004.*

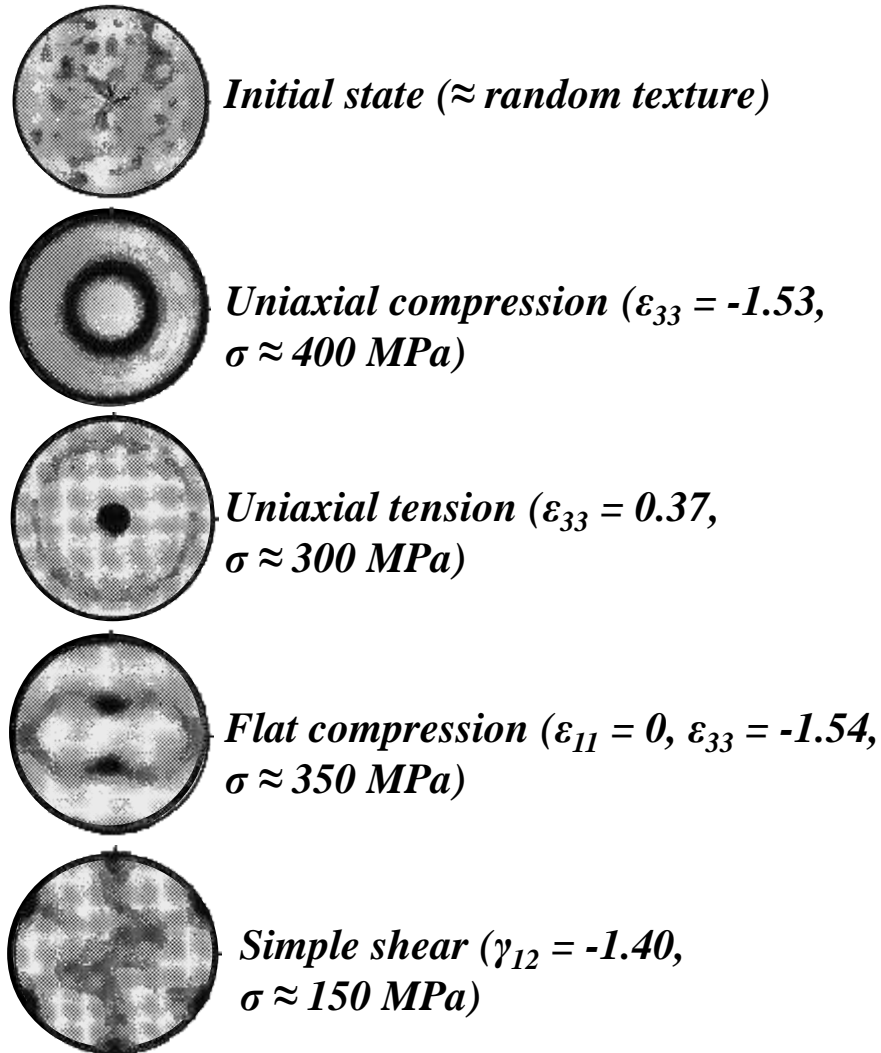
Stolpen, Germany. Columnar basalt.



Giant's Causeway. Northern Ireland.  
*Wiki*

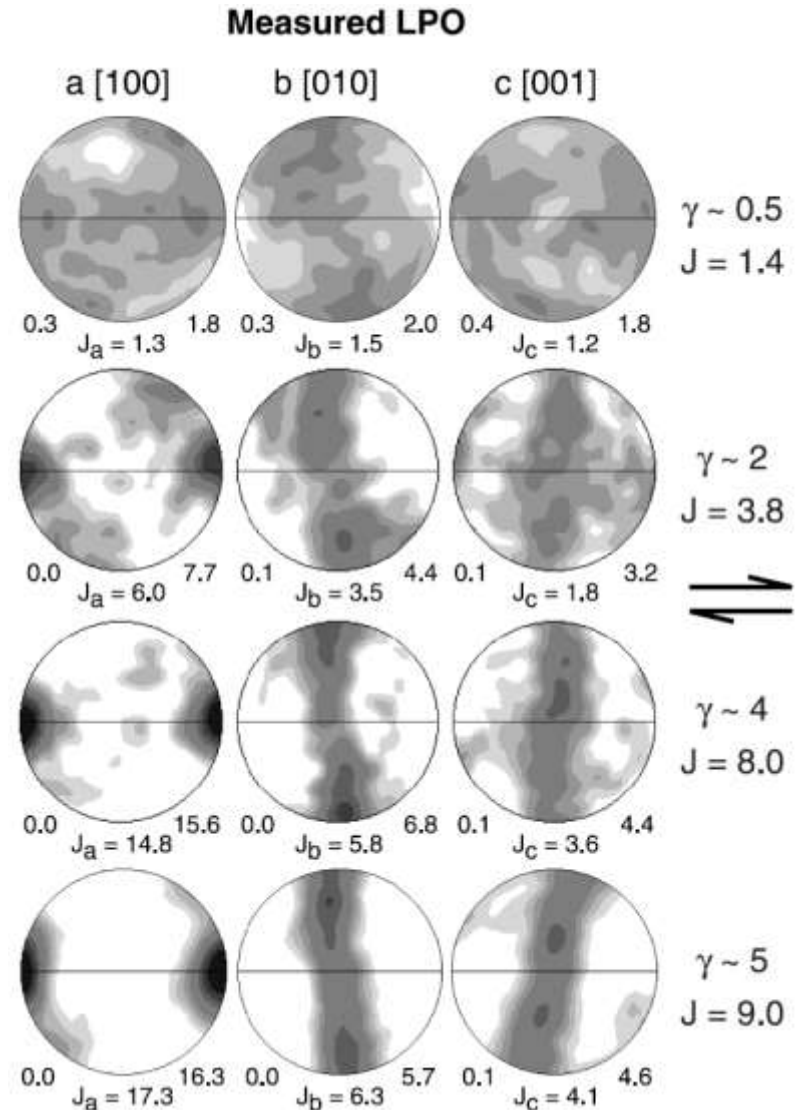


# Crystallographic texture as a way to deduce the deformation history



Experimental pole figures (111) of the copper sample,  $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ , strain rate =  $0.001 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

*C.A. Bronkhorst et al. (1991) Textures and microstructures 14-18, 1031-1036.*

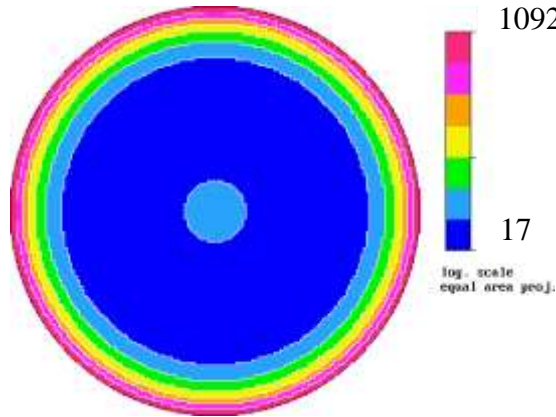


Experimental pole figures of olivine, deformed in dextral shear; different shear strain.

*M. Bystricky et al. (2000). Science 290, 1564-1567.*

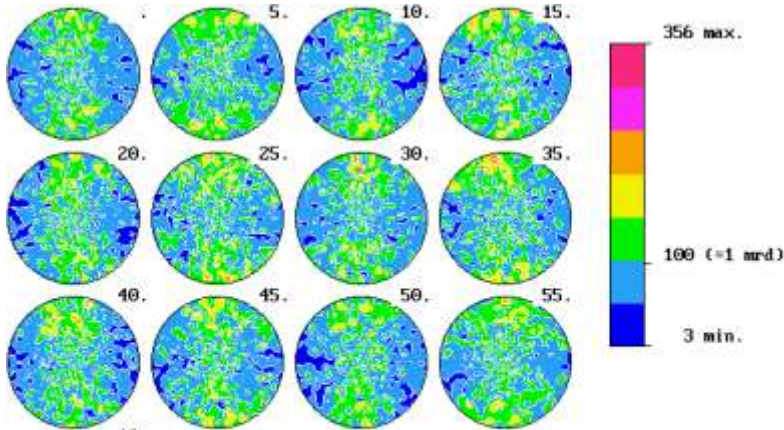
# Bulk physical properties of polycrystals

Crystallographic texture is one of the factors controlling physical properties of polycrystalline materials and their anisotropy. Elastic properties of the single crystal + measured Orientation Distribution Function could be combined to estimate elastic properties of polycrystal.



${}^0C_{ijkl}$  of graphite single-crystal (Young's modulus distribution is plotted in  $K_B$  – crystal coordinate system)

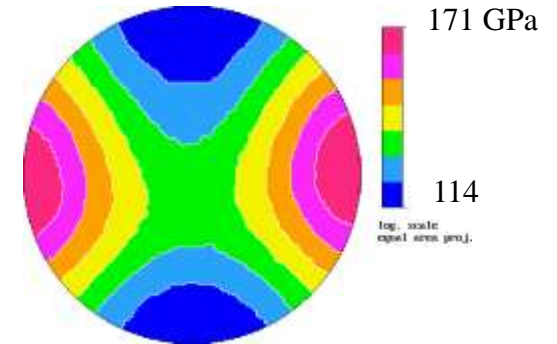
Knowledge of single crystal properties is **essential!!**



ODF of graphite,  $\gamma$ -sections (relates  $K_B$  and  $K_A$ )



Averaging procedures



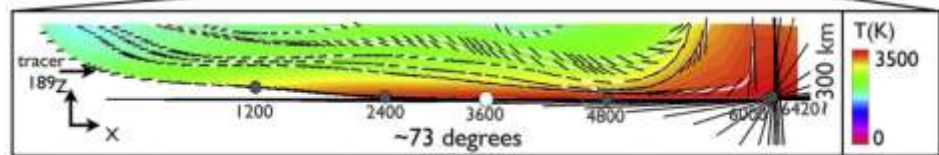
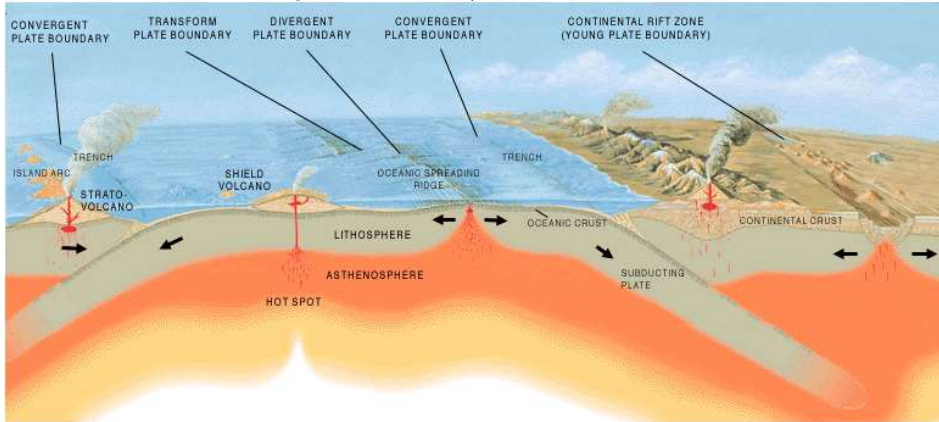
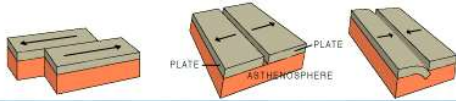
$C_{ijkl}$  of graphite polycrystal with measured ODF, GEO average (Young's modulus distribution is plotted in  $K_A$  – sample coordinate system)

*T. Lokajicek et al. (2012). Carbon 49, 1374-1384.*



# Bulk elastic properties of rocks and seismic waves

Study of elastic waves propagating through the Earth is necessary to derive models of Earth's internal structure; models/prognosis of earthquakes; geophysical prospecting (e.g., oil and gas deposits).

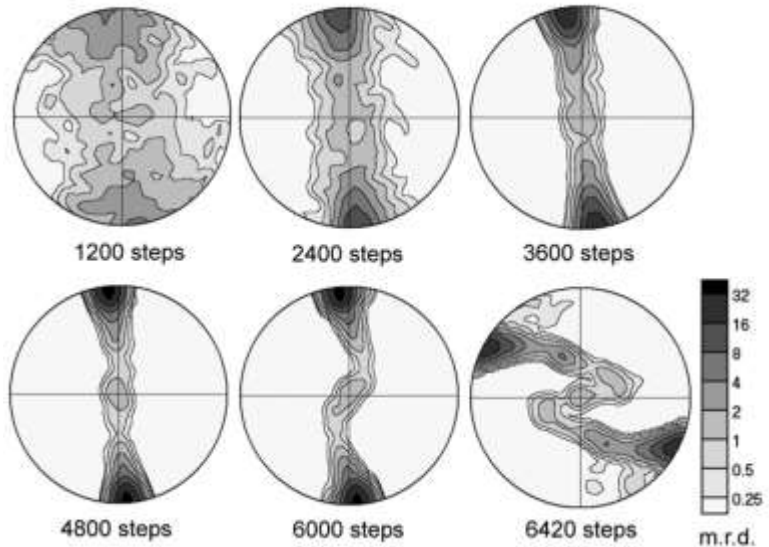


Geodynamic model – convection cell – in the lower mantle (D'').

*H.-R. Wenk et al. (2011). EPSL 306, 33-45.*

Post-perovskite pole figures along tracer #189, based on plasticity model assuming (001) slip

001 pole figures



Dominant (001) slip in post-perovskite combined with {110} and {111} slip in magnesiowuestite best explains the seismic observations: high anisotropy and polarization of fast S-waves parallel to the CMB, as well as anti-correlation between P and S-wave anisotropies.

# Orientation distribution function (ODF)

Each grain of the polycrystal possesses its own orientation  $g$  (defined, e.g., by 3 Euler angles).

Let  $dV$  be the total volume of grains of orientation  $g$  within  $dg$  interval, and let  $V$  be the total volume of the polycrystal (the same reasoning could be applied for the mass element –  $dm$ ).

The 3D ODF  $f(g)$  is defined as 
$$\frac{dV}{V} = f(g)dg$$

It is normalized to unity:

$$\int_G f(g) dg = \frac{1}{8\pi^2} \int_0^{2\pi} d\alpha \int_0^\pi \sin \beta d\beta \int_0^{2\pi} f(\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}) d\gamma = 1$$

ODF is the probability density to find the volume element of the sample with the orientation  $g$  within  $dg$  interval.

This infers that ODF is **nonnegative**!

Extreme cases:

random distribution

$$f(g) = 1$$

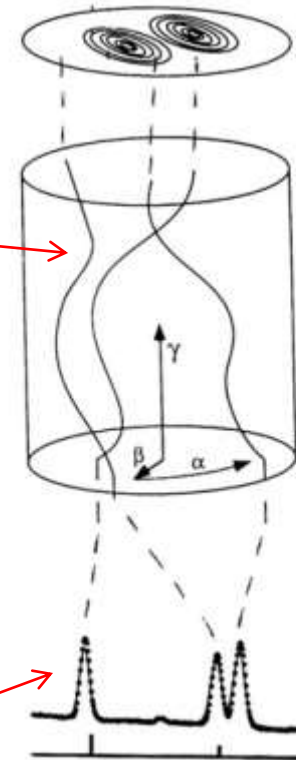
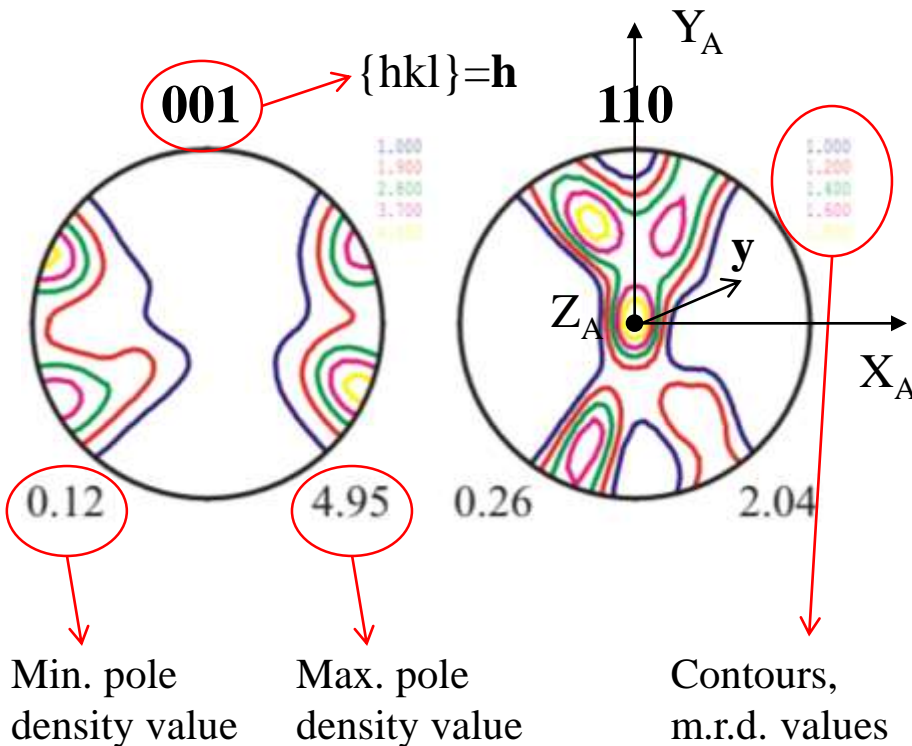
single-crystal

$$f(g) = \delta(g - g_0)$$

# Pole figures

Pole figure (PF) is the angular distribution of some chosen crystallographic direction (e.g., normal to the  $\{hkl\}$  planes) in the sample coordinate system, mapped on the crystallographic (stereographic, equal area, ...) projection.

Meaning in the texture analysis: the distribution of the probability density to find the volume element with  $\{hkl\}$  normal  $\parallel$  to different directions in the material (i.e., it is the ODF integrated over a certain path in the orientation space). Usually presented as contours of the “pole density” on the projection.



$\sim$  integral intensity of the diffraction peak

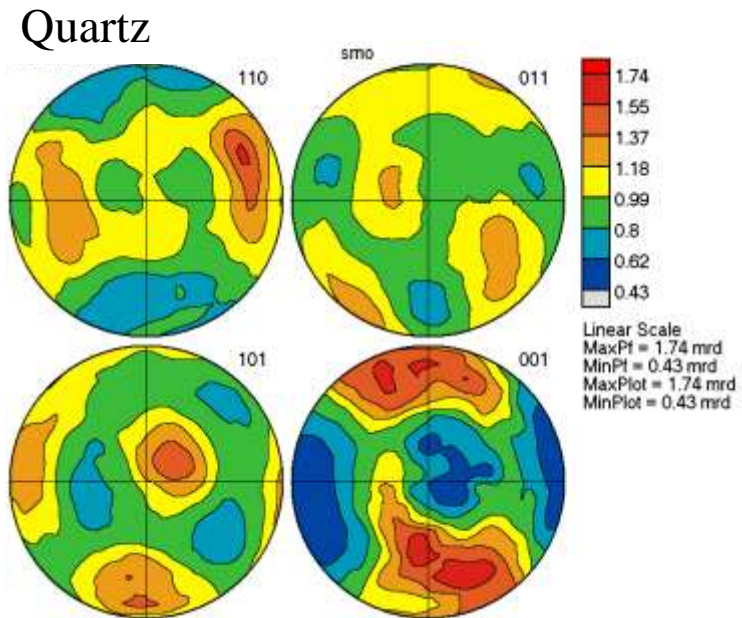
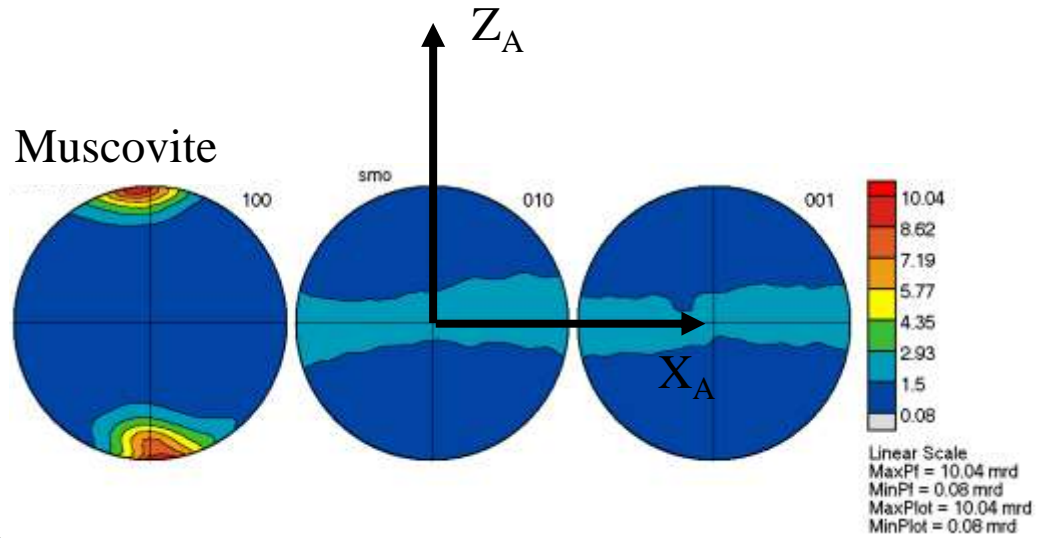
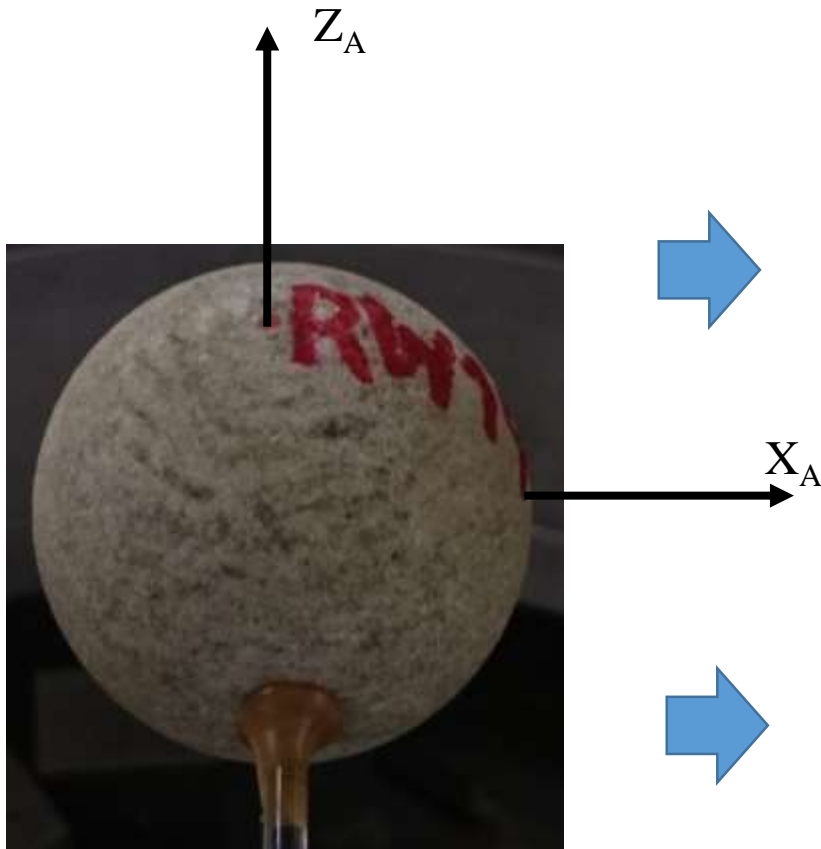
$$P_h(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(\{\mathbf{h}, \tilde{\varphi}\}^{-1}\{\mathbf{y}, 0\}) d\tilde{\varphi}$$

**+ Normalization!**

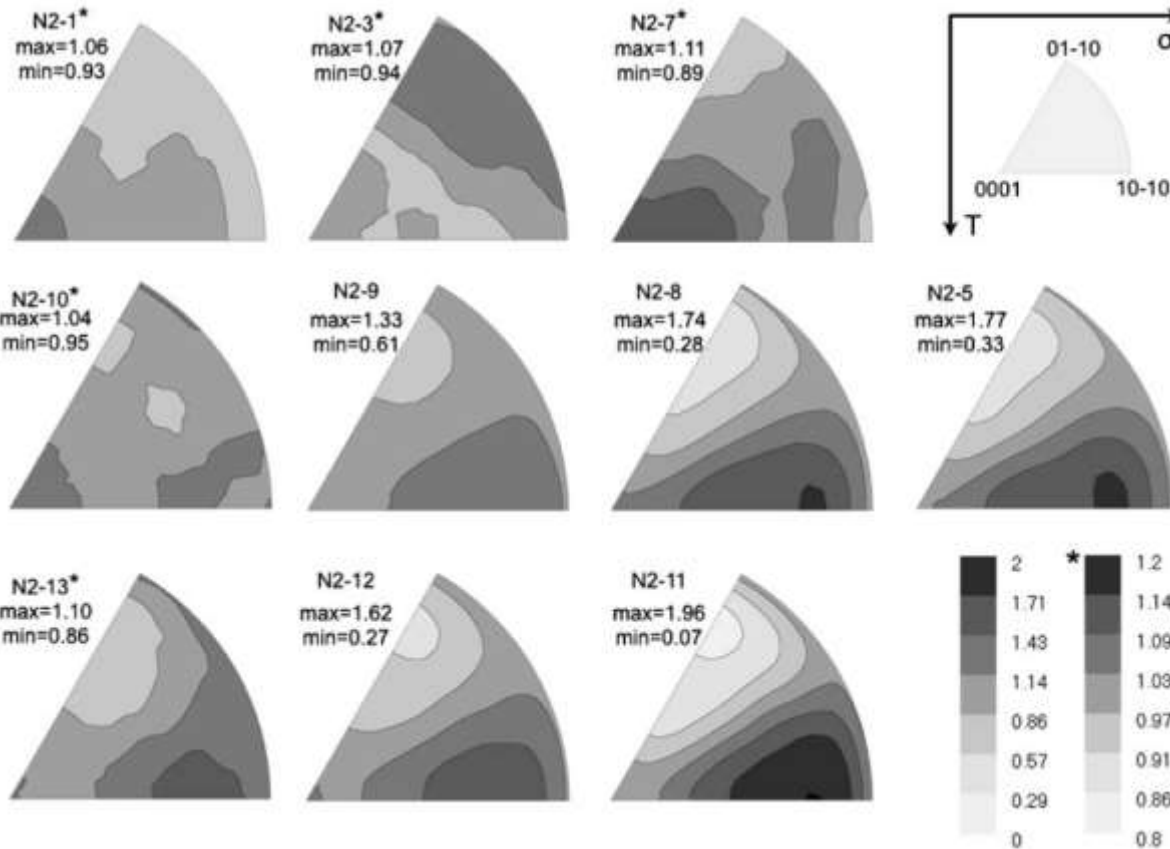
(so absolute peak intensity is not important)



# Pole figures



# Inverse pole figures

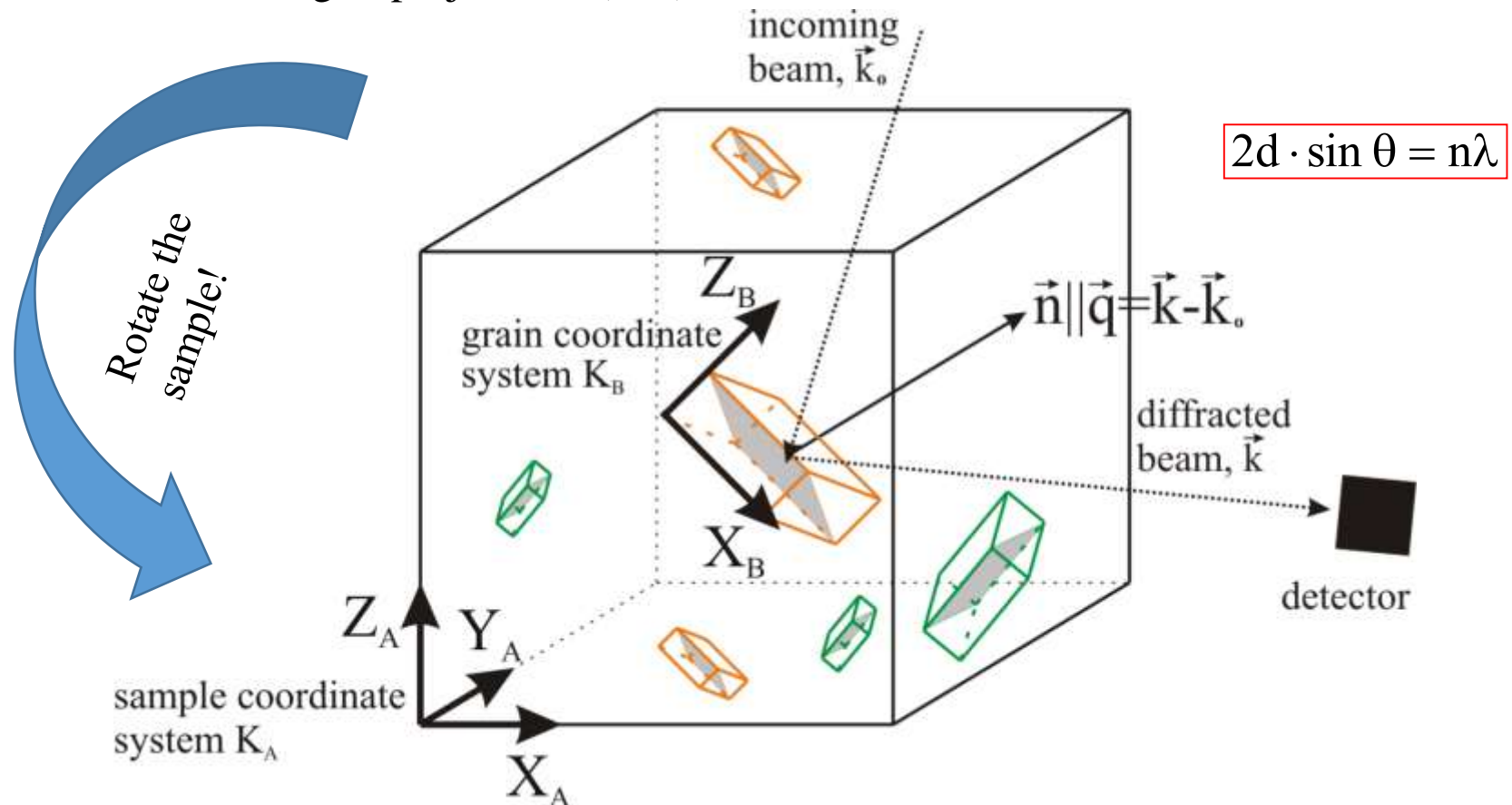


The distribution of the probability density to find the volume element, for which a chosen direction in the material  $\parallel$  to different crystallographic directions. Usually presented as contours of the “pole density” on the projection.

Inverse pole figures of  $\alpha$ -quartz (trigonal!) in uniaxially deformed (different p,T conditions) novaculite. Compression direction. Equal area projection.

# Measuring the texture

1. Measure **the orientation** and **the volume** of each grain by optical or electron microscopy (only surface/or we need to destroy the sample...) → get the ODF as a set of Dirac delta functions with corresponding “weights”.
2. Use diffraction to measure **several pole figures** → somehow derive 3D ODF out of finite number of its flat integral projections (PFs).





# Why the diffraction (and specifically, **neutron** diffraction)?

- bulk texture investigation (linear dimensions of samples are ~ several cm);
- very high grain statistics: hundreds of thousands or millions of grains (necessary to get truly quantitative description of ODFs of all minerals composing the rock with  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  or better resolution);
- complex sample environments (low/high temperatures, high pressures, etc.);
- **no special sample preparation;**
- **TOF** (time-of-flight neutron diffraction on pulsed sources): each TOF spectrum contains information on one inverse pole figure. Using TOF it is possible to make a “bargain”: measure more PF but with a lower angular resolution (less data on each PF → less sample rotations → less experimental time).
- neutron diffraction experiments started with minerals!

**Table 1**  
Pole figure maxima and minima for antigorite in multiples of random distribution (m.r.d.).

	Antigorite (100)		Antigorite (010)		Antigorite (001)	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
<i>Serpentine A</i>						
U-stage	22.8	0.0	35.5	0.0	31.6	0.0
EBSD	7.2	0.0	12.5	0.0	19.1	0.0
EBSD (manual)	13.1	0.0	26.3	0.0	12.3	0.0
<i>Serpentine B</i>						
U-stage	13.4	0.0	34.1	0.0	20.2	0.0
EBSD	5.1	0.0	8.8	0.0	9.6	0.1
X-ray	2.4	0.6	5.9	0.2	6.0	0.2
<i>Serpentine C</i>						
X-ray	1.6	0.7	2.6	0.4	4.2	0.3

Grain size < 5 $\mu$ m

Y. Soda, H.-R. Wenk (2014) *Tectonophysics* 615–616 199–212.

# A bit of History

Ernest Omar Wollan

Clifford Glenwood Shull (The Nobel Prize in Physics 1994)



Lyle Benjamin  
Borst,  
first director of  
ANL (Argonne)

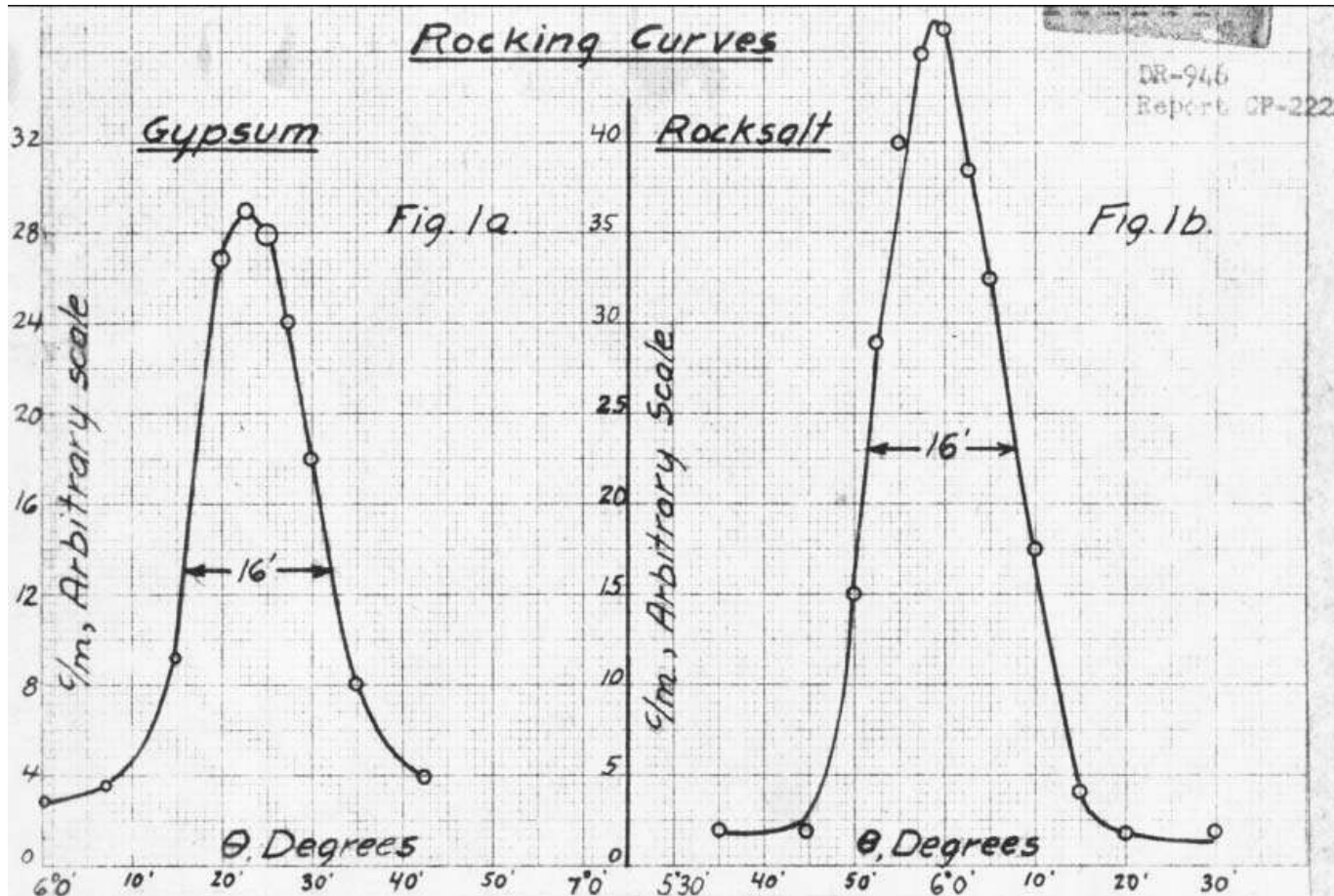
A double-crystal neutron spectrometer,  
installed on the ORNL graphite reactor in 1949.

*T.E. Mason et al. (2013). Acta Cryst. A69, 37-44*

<http://www.biographyofpeople.com/borst-lyle-benjamin-biography>

# A bit of History

T.E. Mason et al. (2013). *Acta Cryst. A*69, 37-44



Gypsum  
&  
Halite (Wiki)



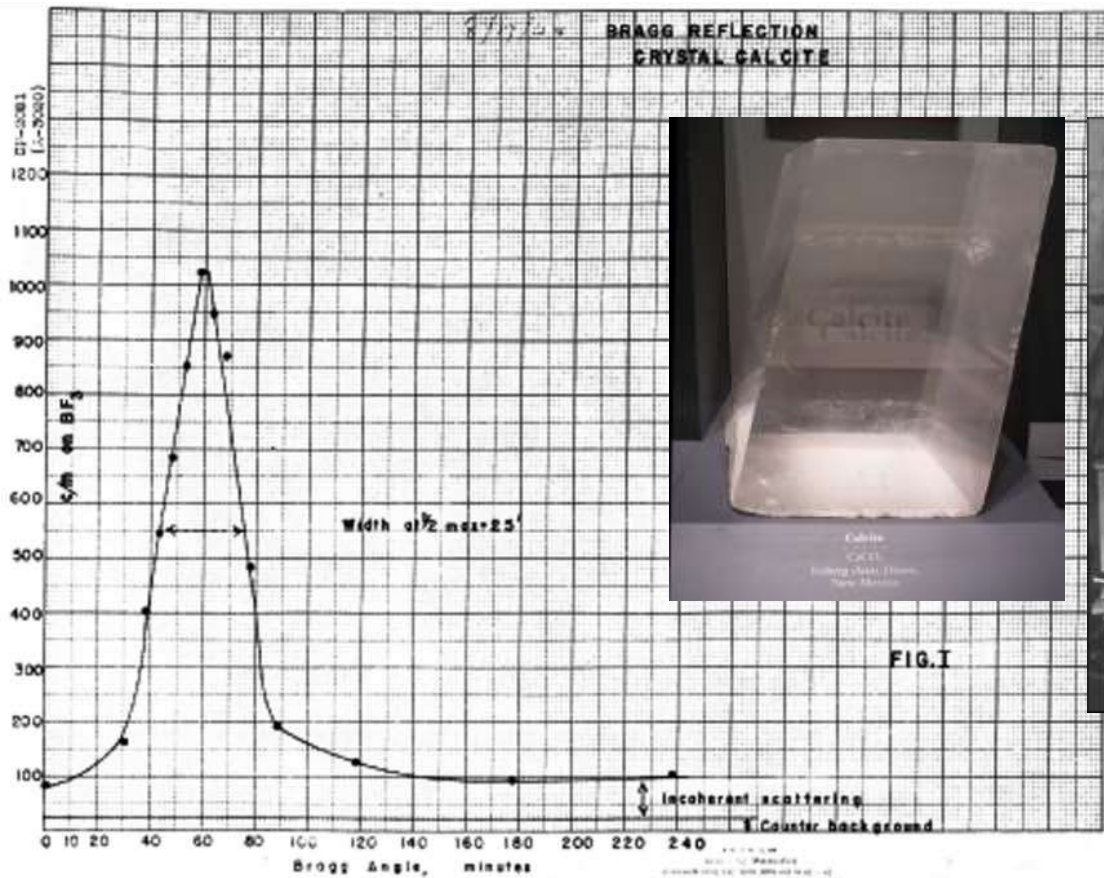
Wollan & Borst's first neutron diffraction results from December 1944; typical rocking curve experiments.

Diffraction patterns are fingerprints of crystal structures. The number of peaks and their positions tell about symmetry and size of the unit cell. Peak intensities depend on atom positions in the unit cell.



# A bit of History

*T.E. Mason et al. (2013). Acta Cryst. A69, 37-44*



Walter Henry Zinn, a photo back from 1946.

Zinn's first results from August 1944, CP-3 heavy water reactor, Argonne Lab.

Don't you see something **weird** on the picture?

# Why neutron scattering?

C.G. Shull et al. (1948). *Phys. Rev.* 73, 842-847.

“...crystallographic analysis of hydrogen atom positions should be readily possible.”

C.G. Shull and E.O. Wollan (1948). *Science.* 108, 69-75.

“The newly developing field of neutron diffraction would appear to have advantages over the older fields of X-ray and electron diffraction in some problems involved in the determination of crystal and molecular structures... It must be borne in mind, however, that really rapid progress along this line cannot be expected, ...; also, the very limited facilities for work in this field which result from the requirement of a chain-reacting pile as a source will make progress less rapid than in the corresponding fields of X-ray and electron diffraction, for which adequate sources can be procured by any laboratory”.

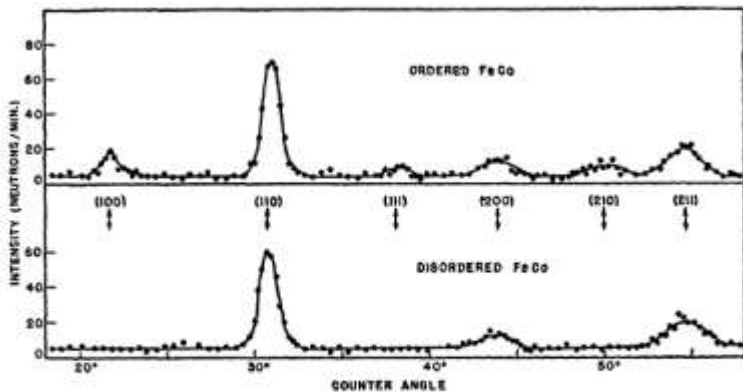
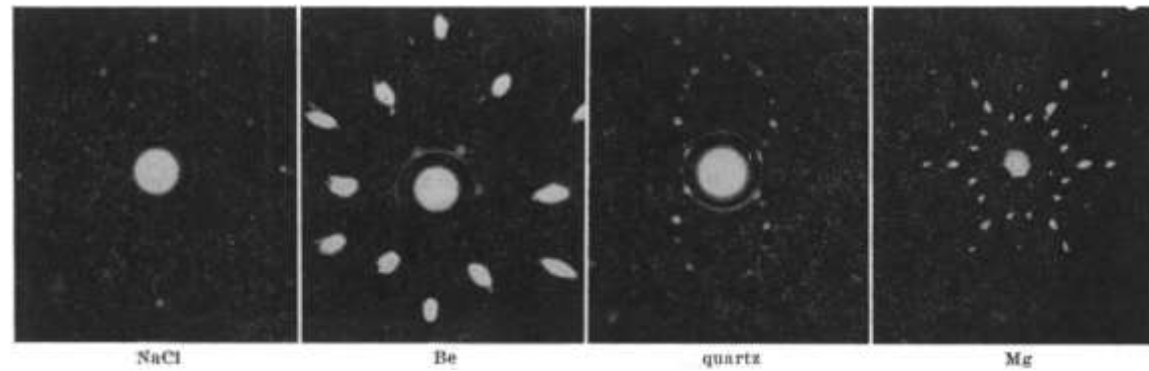
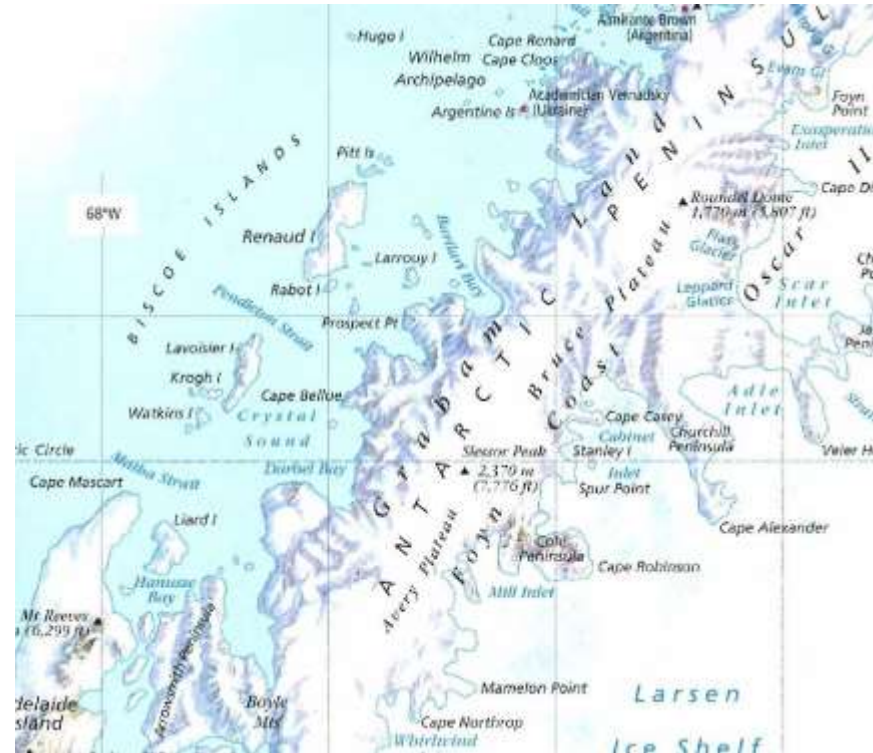


FIG. 8. Neutron powder diffraction patterns taken with samples of ordered and disordered preparations of Fe-Co alloys.



Laue photographs, first three (NaCl, Be, quartz) are made with neutrons, fourth is made with X-rays.

# Neutron scattering in geography



Crystal Sound

Most of features named after scientist who used neutron diffraction to study the structure of ice

- Shull Rocks
- Pauling Islands
- Levy Island
- Wollan Island
- Davidson Island
- Matsuyama Rocks
- Fowler Islands
- ...

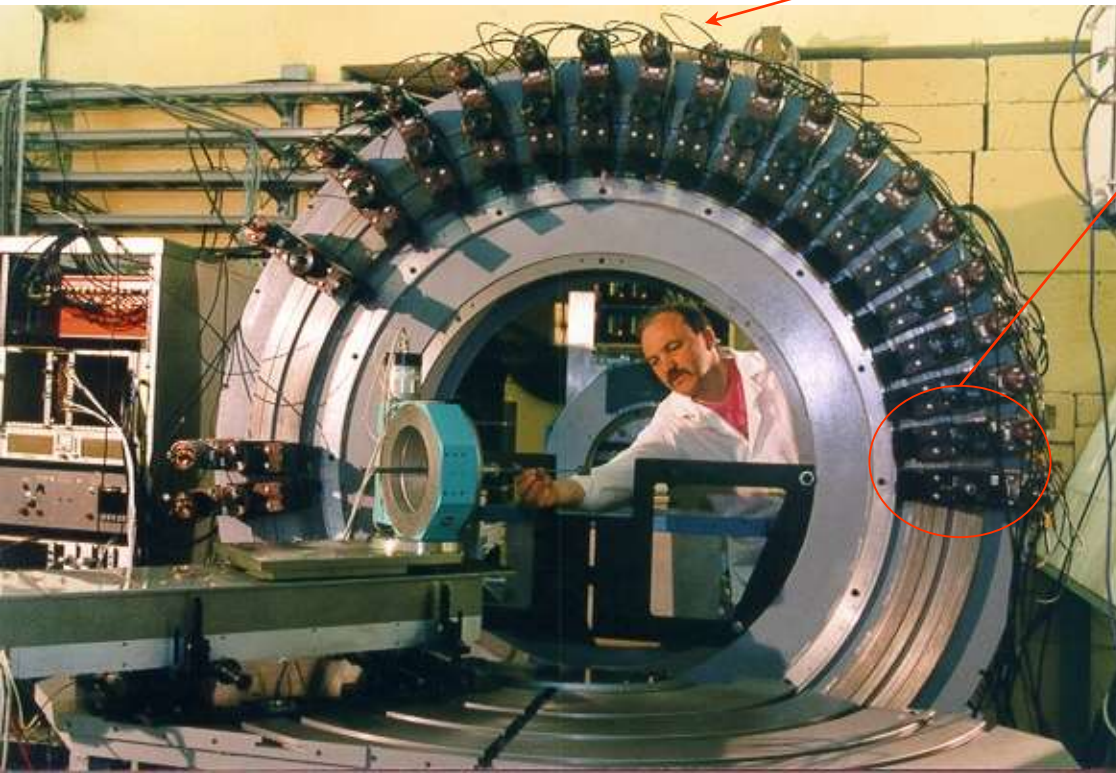
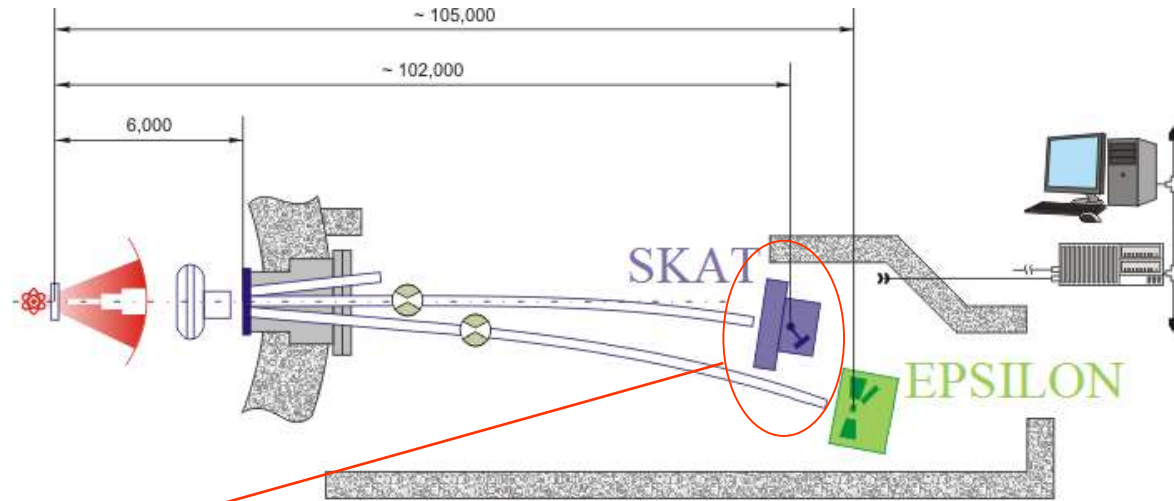


# SKAT texture diffractometer in FLNP JINR

Beamline 7a of IBR-2.

Main objectives: investigation of crystallographic textures of rocks (and engineering materials).

*K. Ullemeyer et al. (1998).  
NuclearInst.Meth.A 412, 80-88.*



Total flight path:  $\approx 104$  m.

19  $^3\text{He}$  detectors on the mounting ring, unique scattering angle of  $2\theta = 90^\circ$ .

Range of  $d$ -spacings:  $0.5\text{-}5.4 \text{ \AA}$  (with  $90^\circ$  ring & w/o  $\lambda$ -chopper).

Resolution  $\Delta d/d$  up to 0.55% ( $d \approx 2.2 \text{ \AA}$ ) with 18 collimators.

**Sample size** up to  $5 \times 5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^3$ .

(Usually) 1368 spectra from sample.



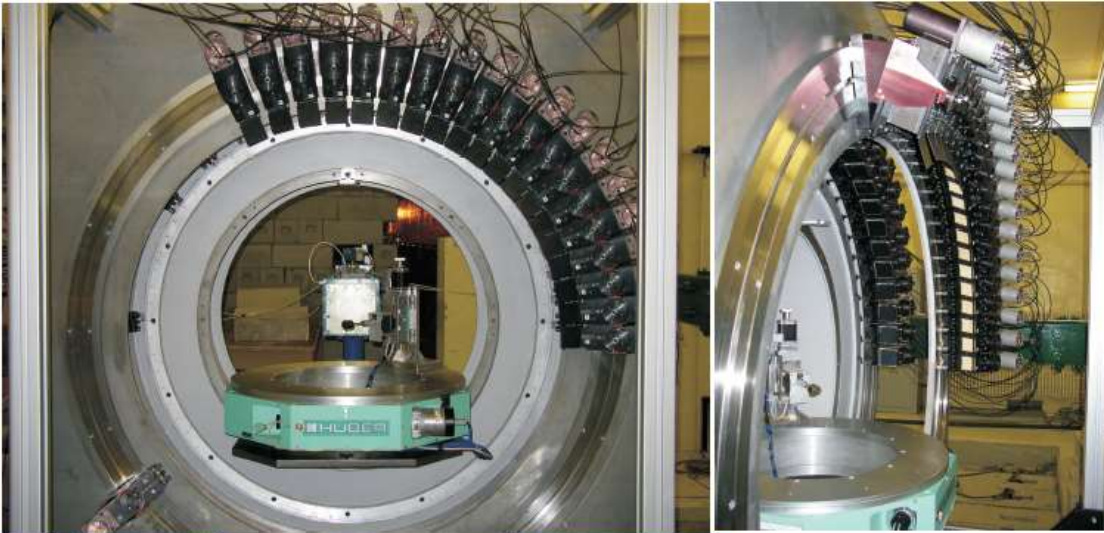
# IBR-2 pulsed reactor at Frank Laboratory of Neutron Physics of JINR



<http://flnp.jinr.ru/>



# SKAT texture diffractometer: after the upgrade



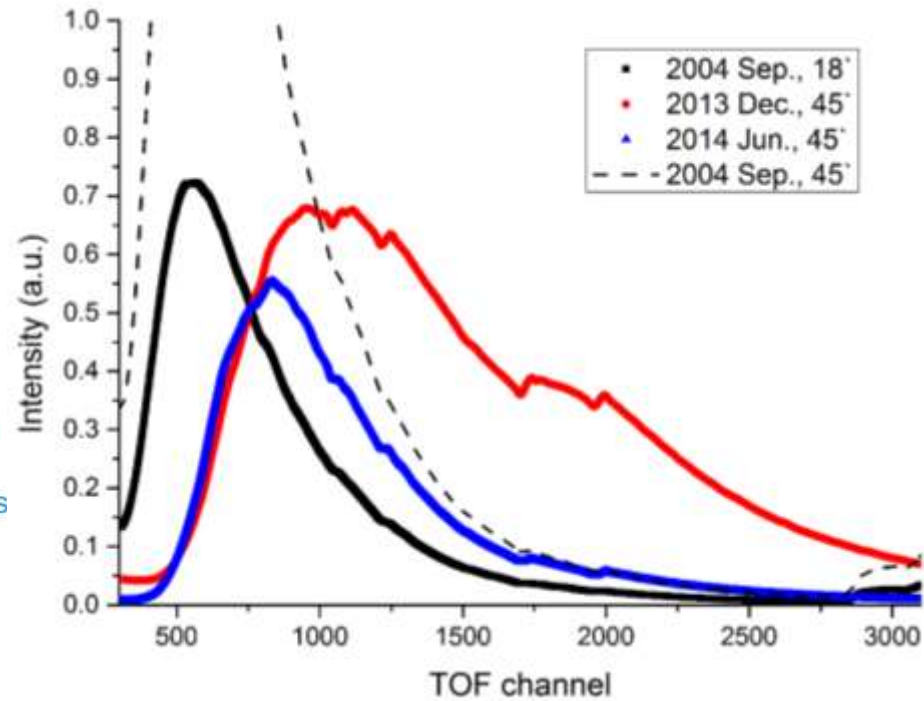
August 2012

*Photos: courtesy of Dr. Klaus Ullemeyer*

Detector system  
 $2\theta = 65^\circ$   
(operational)

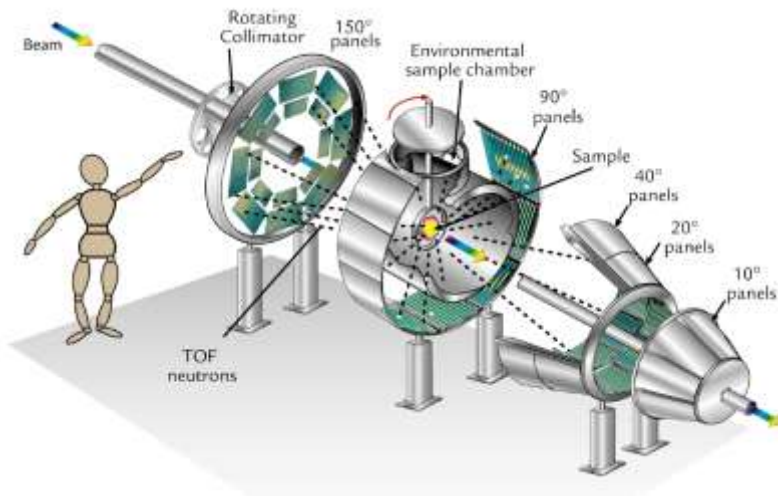


Detector system  
 $2\theta = 135^\circ$   
(detector holders)





# TOF texture diffractometers



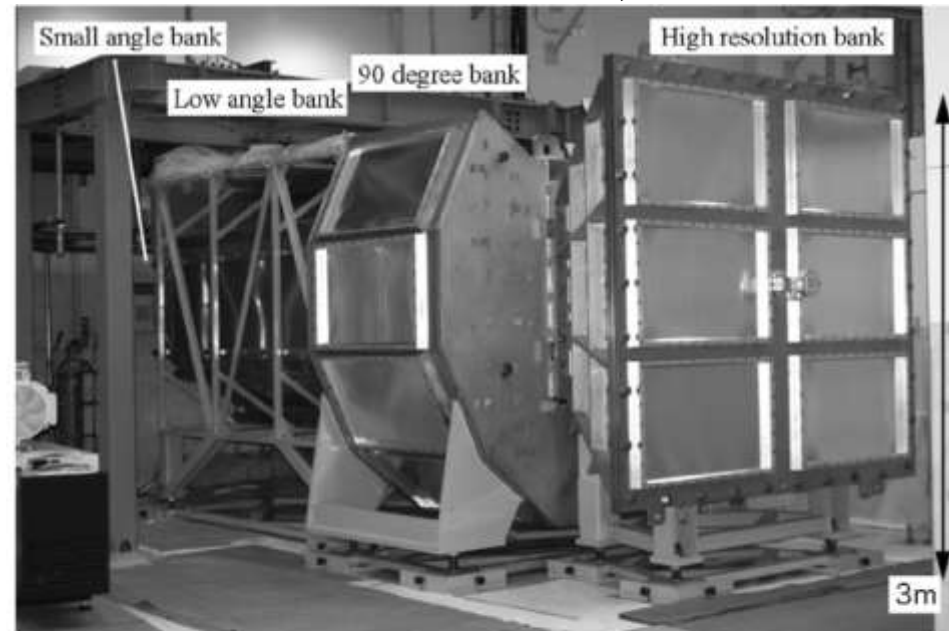
iMATERIA (J-PARC)

$d$ -resolution: 0.16-5.0%

Flight path  $\sim$  30 m

Range of  $d$ -spacings: 0.09-800 Å

*T. Ishigaki et al. (2009) Nuclear Inst. Meth. A 600, 189-191.*



**Fig. 2.** IBARAKI Materials Design Diffractometer, iMATERIA without detector for each bank and instrument shieldings. High-resolution bank, special environment bank (90° bank), low angle bank, can be seen from right to left, and small angle detector bank, which are not shown in the picture, are situated in the low angle vacuum chamber (left hand of the picture).

HIPPO diffractometer (LANSCE)

$d$ -resolution: 0.4-9.2%

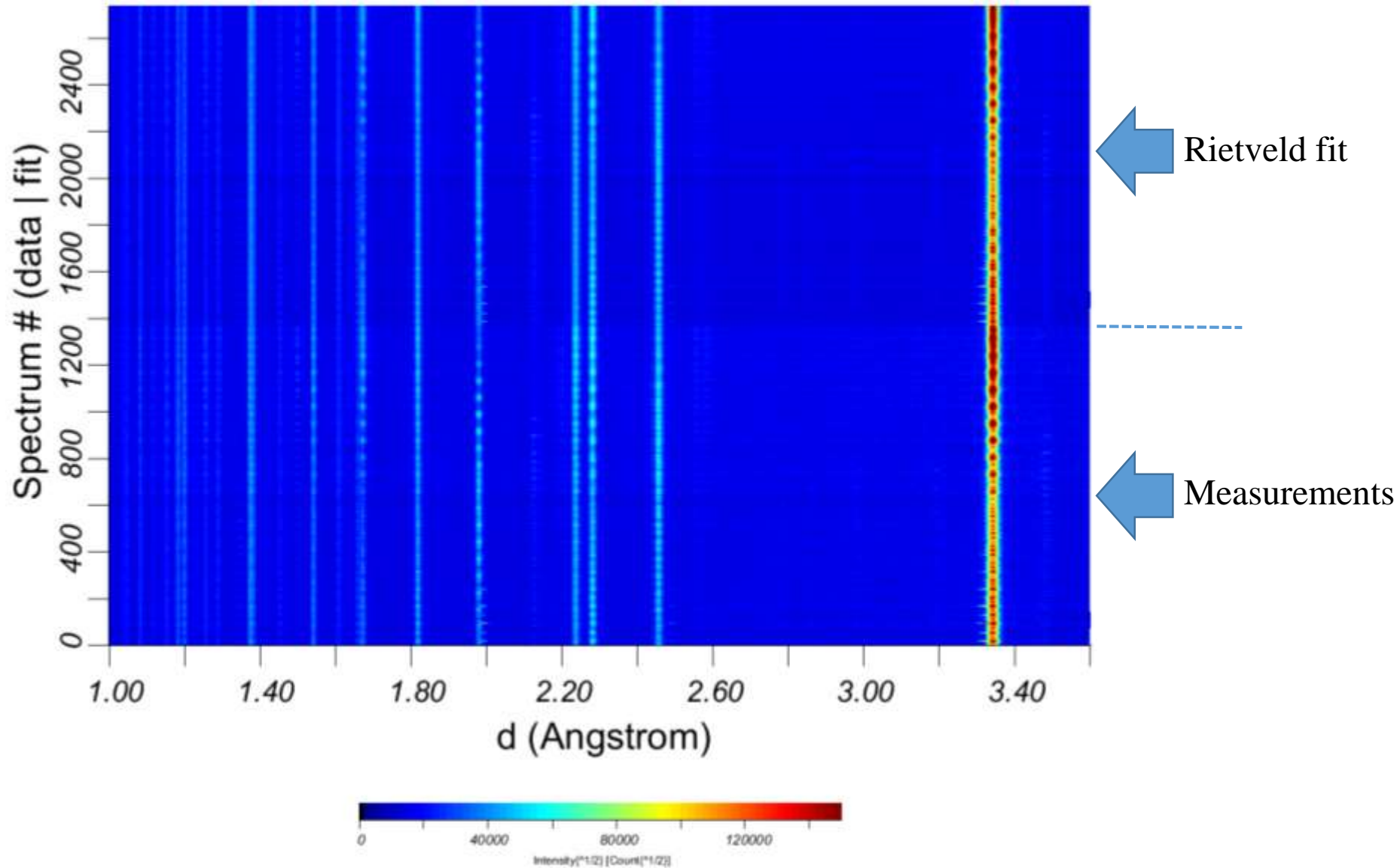
Flight path  $\sim$  10 m

Sample dimensions  $\sim$  2.5 cm

Range of  $d$ -spacings: 0.12-47.5 Å

*H.-R. Wenk et al. (2003) Nuclear Inst. Meth. A 515, 575-588.*

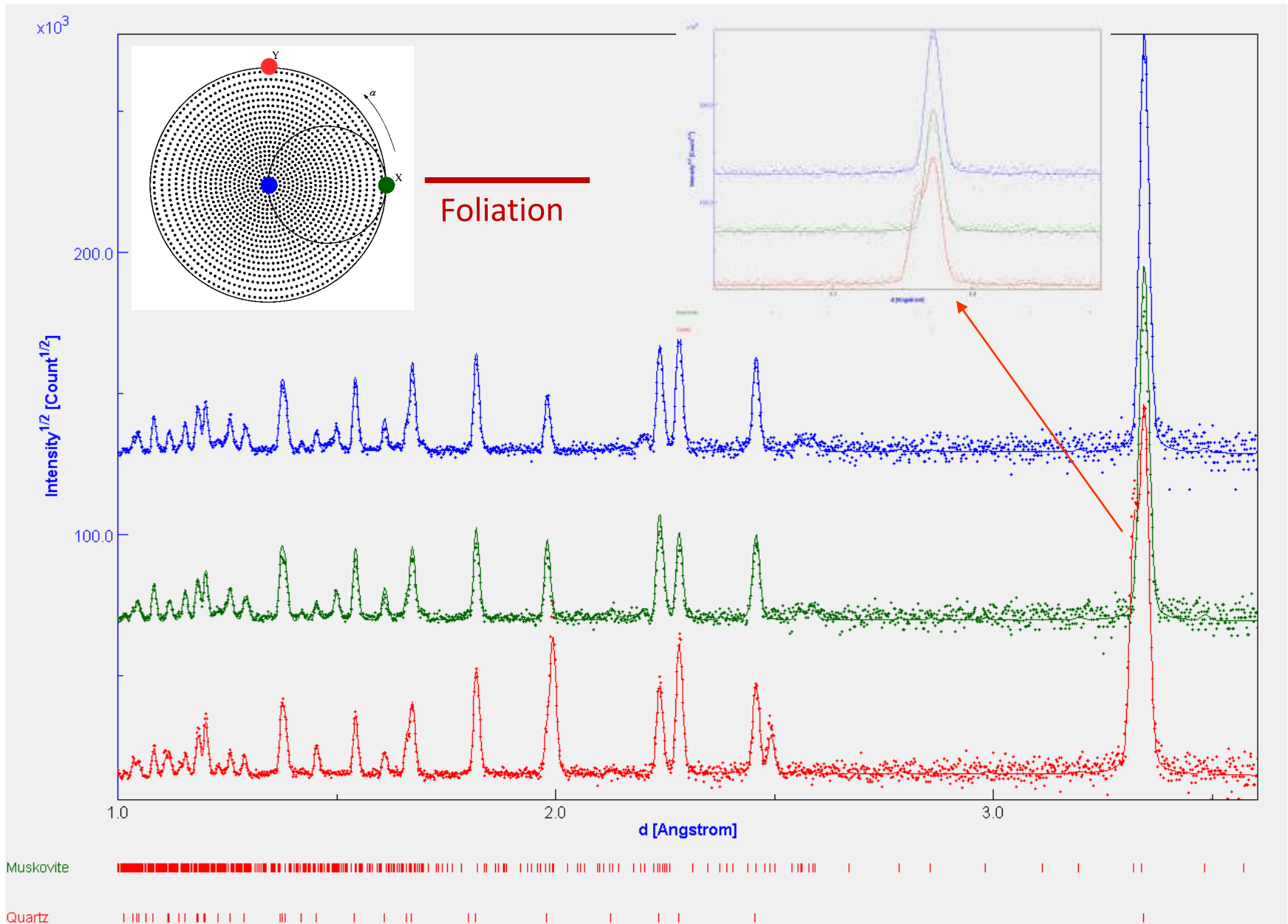
# SKAT data (micaceous quartzite)





# SKAT data (micaceous quartzite)

Dots = measurements, line = Rietveld fit

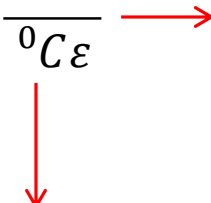


# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

What is required:

1. Properties of single-crystal (e.g., elastic tensor  ${}^0C_{ijkl} \equiv {}^0S_{ijkl}^{-1}$ )
2. ODF
3. Micromechanical model, that defines the averaging procedure

For single crystal:  $\varepsilon = {}^0S\sigma$ ;  $\sigma = {}^0C\varepsilon$  Don't forget about indices!  $\sigma_{ij} = {}^0C_{ijkl} \cdot \varepsilon_{kl}$

For polycrystal:  $\bar{\varepsilon} = \bar{S}\bar{\sigma} = \overline{{}^0S\sigma}$ ;  $\bar{\sigma} = \bar{C}\bar{\varepsilon} = \overline{{}^0C\varepsilon}$   Denotes some averaging procedure over all orientations

The simplest way to proceed is to assume that  $\varepsilon$  does not depend on orientation and apply arithmetic averaging over ODF; then  $\overline{{}^0C} = \bar{C}$

$$\overline{{}^0C_{ijkl}} = {}^0C_{stuv} \int_G W_{is}(g)W_{jt}(g)W_{ku}(g)W_{lv}(g) f(g)dg$$

$W(g)$  is the orthogonal transformation matrix corresponding to rotation  $g$ ,  
 $f(g)$  is ODF

The case of random ODF (=1) has been already reviewed **130 years** ago...

# Woldemar Voigt, 1887



## Theoretische Studien

über die

## Elasticitätsverhältnisse der Krystalle.

Von

W. Voigt.

Am dem vierunddreißigsten Bande der Abhandlungen der Königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen.

Göttingen,

Dieterichsche Verlags-Buchhandlung.

1887.

California  
Regional  
Library

### 52 W. VOIGT, DIE ELASTICITÄTSVERHÄLTNISSSE DER KRISTALLE.

$\Xi$ -Axe indem wir über eine Kugelfläche integrieren; der Nenner ist hier also  $8\pi^2$ . So erhält man:

$$(9^*) \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi d\varphi d\chi \sin^2 \varphi \cos^2 \chi (1 - \sin^2 \varphi \cos^2 \chi) \int_0^{2\pi} d\omega \cos^2 \omega = \frac{1}{15}$$

$$(10^*) \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi d\varphi d\chi \sin^2 \varphi \cos^2 \chi (1 - \sin^2 \varphi \sin^2 \chi) \int_0^{2\pi} d\omega \cos^2 (\varphi - \omega) = \frac{2}{15}$$

$$(11^*) \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi d\varphi d\chi \sin^2 \varphi \cos^2 \chi \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \varphi \cos^2 \chi} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \varphi \sin^2 \chi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\omega \cos \omega \cos (\varphi - \omega) = -\frac{1}{30}$$

Setzt man kurz:

$$D_{11} + D_{22} + D_{33} = 3A, \quad D_{11} + D_{22} + D_{33} = 3B, \quad D_{11} + D_{22} + D_{33} = 3\Gamma,$$

so ergibt sich hiernach aus (63):

$$(65) \quad \begin{aligned} A &= (\Delta_{11}) = \frac{1}{3}(3A + 2B + 4\Gamma), \\ B &= (\Delta_{22}) = \frac{1}{3}(A + 4B - 2\Gamma), \\ C &= (\Delta_{33}) = \frac{1}{3}(A - B + 3\Gamma). \end{aligned}$$

Hieraus folgt:

$$C = \frac{A - B}{2}$$

in Uebereinstimmung mit dem Resultate aller anderen Theorien; aber die anstößige Relation

$$A = 3B$$

ergibt sich nur für den speciellen Werth  $B = \Gamma$ , der zwar, wie wir gesehen haben, nothwendig auftritt, wenn man Moleküle ohne Polarität voraussetzt, der aber durch die allgemeine Theorie nicht geliefert wird.

Durch die Annahme polarisirter Moleküle, welche aus vielen andern Gründen geboten erscheint, wird also der Widerspruch zwischen der molekularen Elasticitätstheorie und der Beobachtung vollständig gehoben.

# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

Micromechanical models:

- Voigt averaging (1887)  
(arithmetic mean of C)

$$\bar{C}^{Voigt} = \overline{{}^0C^A(g)^a}; \quad \varepsilon(g) = \bar{\varepsilon}$$

- Reuss averaging (1929)  
(arithmetic mean of S)

$$\bar{S}^{Reuss} = \overline{{}^0S^A(g)^a}; \quad \sigma(g) = \bar{\sigma}$$

$$\bar{S}^{Reuss} \neq (\bar{C}^{Voigt})^{-1}$$

- Hill (1952) & SuperHill (1995)

- GEO = geometric mean (1925-1965-1995)  $(\bar{C}^{GEO})^{-1} = \bar{S}^{GEO} = \exp [\overline{\ln {}^0S^A(g)^a}]$

- Self-consistent constructions (Eshelby 1957...) – stress field in ellipsoidal inclusion...

- SC+GEO = GeoMixSELF (Matthies 2010)

To be fulfilled:

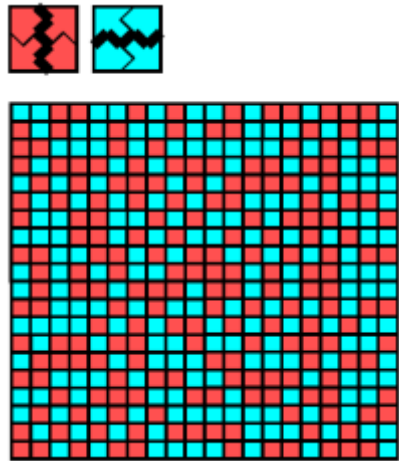
1)  $S = C^{-1}$

2) Group principle: for any division of a sample into a set of small volumes, the averaging over the whole volume of the sample is equivalent to the averaging of the averaged values of those small volumes

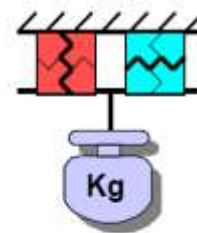


# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

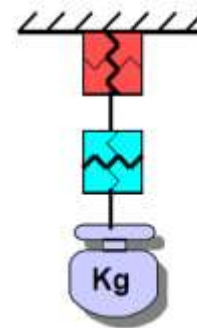
Simple model: isotropic polycrystal, only two different grain orientations are possible (denoted by blue and red colors).



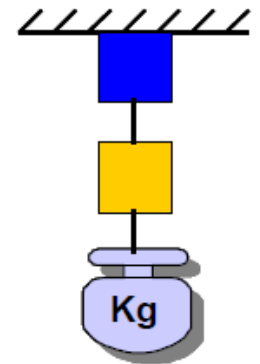
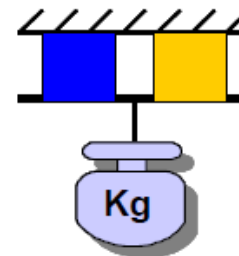
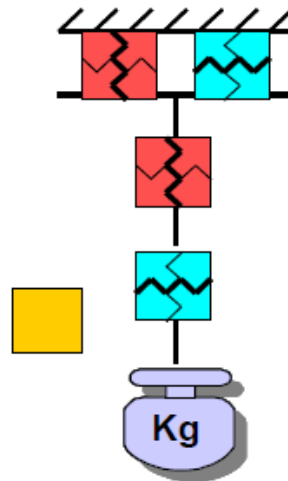
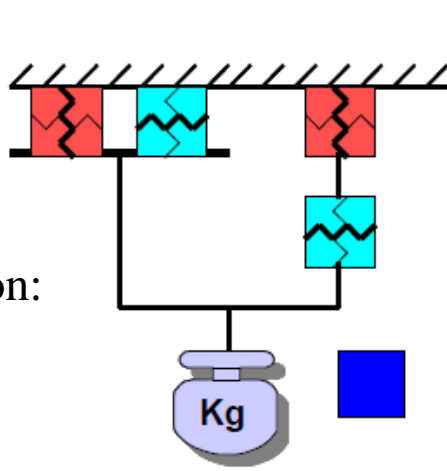
Equal strain  
'VOIGT'  
 $\Delta L / L$



Equal stress  
'REUSS'  
 $s_1 = s_2$



Hill's  
suggestion:



*S. Matthies. On the combination of self-consistent and geometric mean elements for the calculation of the elastic properties of textured multi-phase samples. // Solid State Phenomena. 2010. V. 160. P. 87-93.*

# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

Eshelby's procedure and its extensions.

There is an inclusion in a homogenous stress-free matrix  $C_{lqtv}$ .

1. Remove the inclusion and allow it to undergo the stress-free strain (*transformation*)  $\varepsilon_{tv}^P$  without altering its elastic constants.
2. Apply the surface traction  $-\sigma_{lq}^P dS_l$  to the inclusion. This brings it back to the shape and size it had before transformation. Put it back in the matrix and reweld across S. The surface forces have now become a layer of body force spread over S.
3. Let these body forces relax, or, what comes to the same thing, apply a further distribution of  $+\sigma_{lq}^P dS_l$  over S. The body is now free of external force but in a state of self-stress because of the transformation of the inclusion.

At this point, the total deformation of the inclusion is  $\varepsilon_{nw}^G$ .

The stress-free and total deformations are proportional:

$$\varepsilon_{tv}^P = T_{tvnw} \varepsilon_{nw}^G$$



Eshelby tensor, depends on ratios of elastic constants and axes of the ellipsoidal inclusion.

Eshelby: the strain and stress inside an ellipsoidal inclusion are uniform. Thus,  $T_{tvnw}$  could be solved (initially only the isotropic inclusion in an isotropic matrix has been considered, but soon it was extended for the case of general anisotropy).

# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

Eshelby's procedure and its extensions.

What if “matrix” elastic constants are not known, and all the inclusions are known?  
 (How to assemble a polycrystalline body from single crystals of different phases with different orientations)?

It is possible to build an iteration procedure:

$${}^{i+1}\mathbf{C} = {}^i\mathbf{C} + {}^i\mathbf{p} = {}^i\mathbf{C} + \overline{({}^i\mathbf{C} - {}^i\mathbf{E}^{-1}) \cdot {}^i\mathbf{u}} \quad {}^i\mathbf{u} = ({}^0\mathbf{C} - ({}^i\mathbf{C} - {}^i\mathbf{E}^{-1}))^{-1} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{E}^{-1} - \mathbf{I} \quad {}^i\mathbf{E} = {}^i\mathbf{T} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{S}$$

$${}^{i+1}\mathbf{S} = {}^i\mathbf{S} + {}^i\mathbf{q} = {}^i\mathbf{S} + \overline{{}^i\mathbf{u} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{S}} \quad I_{ijkl} = (\delta_{ik}\delta_{jl} + \delta_{il}\delta_{jk})/2$$

But p- and q-branches will only coincide for spherical grains!

To obtain a single solution (Geo-Mix-Self method):

$${}^{i,GMS}\mathbf{C} \equiv {}^{i,GMS}\mathbf{S}^{-1} = \mathit{SQRT}^{\mathit{SYM}} ({}^i\mathbf{C} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{S}^{-1}) = {}^i\mathbf{C}^{1/2} \cdot ({}^i\mathbf{C}^{-1/2} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{S}^{-1} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{C}^{-1/2})^{1/2} \cdot {}^i\mathbf{C}^{1/2}$$

*E. Kröner (1958) Zeitschrift für Physik 151, 504-518.*

*S. Hirsekorn (1990) Textures and Microstructures 12, 1-14.*

*S. Matthies (2010) Solid State Phenomena 160, 87-93.*

*S. Matthies (2012) J. Appl. Crystallogr. 45, 1-16.*

# Properties of polycrystals: bulk elastic properties

## GEO-MIX-SELF

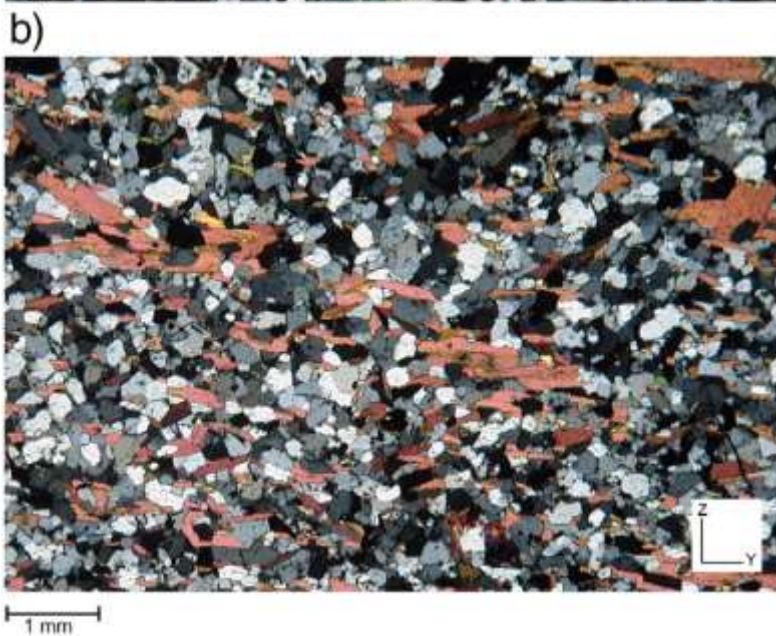
1. considers a macroscopic system with practically infinite (or at least very large) number of grains and thus is ‘dimensionless’, i.e. the ellipsoidal grain shape with axes  $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$  is equivalent to  $\{1, a_2/a_1, a_3/a_1\}$ , etc.
2. takes no correlations between grain positions and orientations into account (as the ODF is not a correlation function).
3. allows no gaps or overlaps in the ‘infinite’ volume of the macroscopic material. This automatically leads to the conclusion that the GMS approximation virtually considers the distribution of the grains on size. For example, to fill the 3D volume with spheres without gaps, one has to assume a power law size distribution  $\sim R^{-\alpha}$ ;  $R$  are the sphere's radii,  $\alpha$  is close to 3 for the disordered packing [*T. Aste (1996) Phys. Rev. E 53, 2571-2579*].
4. allows for cracks/pores to be considered as inclusion with zero stiffness.

What is needed to “make” the elastic tensor of rock:

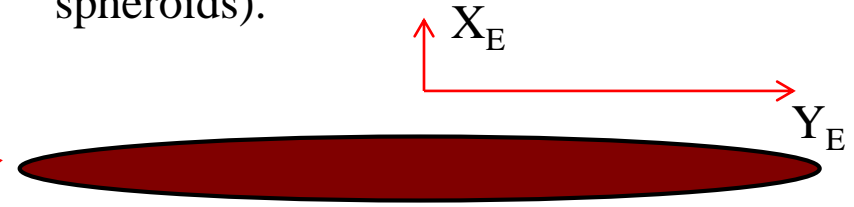
- single crystal stiffness constants  $^0C$ ;
- volume fractions of minerals and pores/cracks;
- the ODFs of the minerals;
- mass densities  $\rho$  that determine the density of the sample;
- grain shapes and pores/cracks geometry approximated by ellipsoids;
- shape orientation distribution functions  $F(\Omega)$  for grains as well as for cracks and pores.



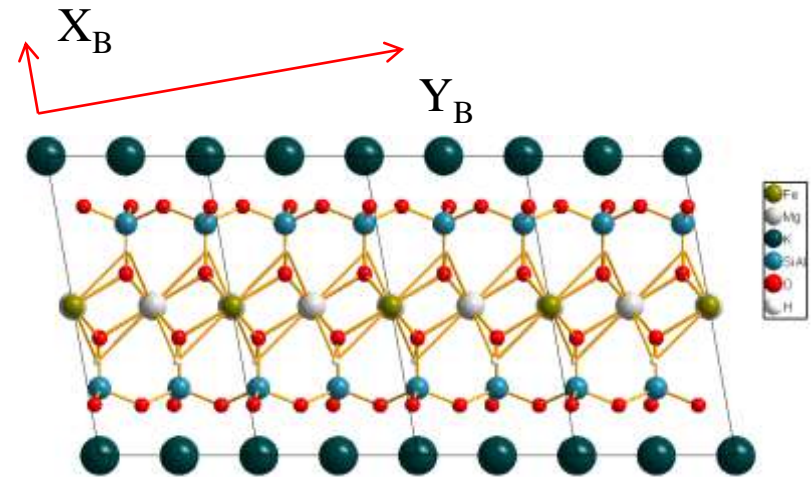
# GMS averaging including grain shape: making shape ODF from ODF



We should consider the shape of biotite grains that are platelets (oblate spheroids).



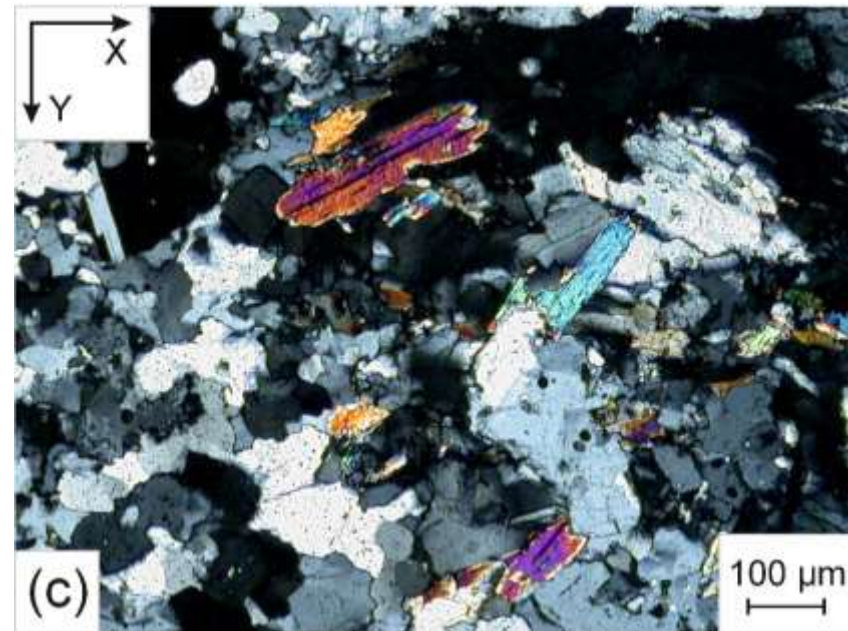
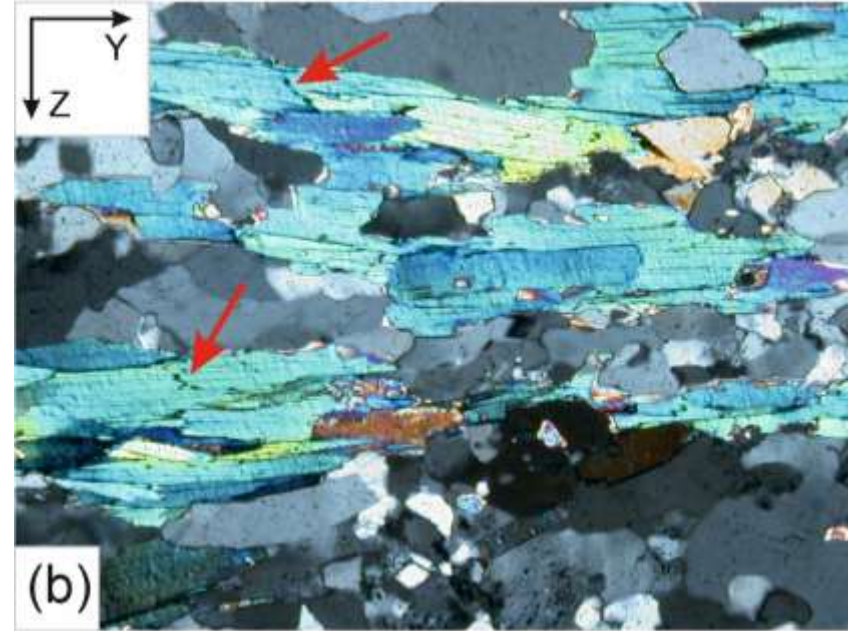
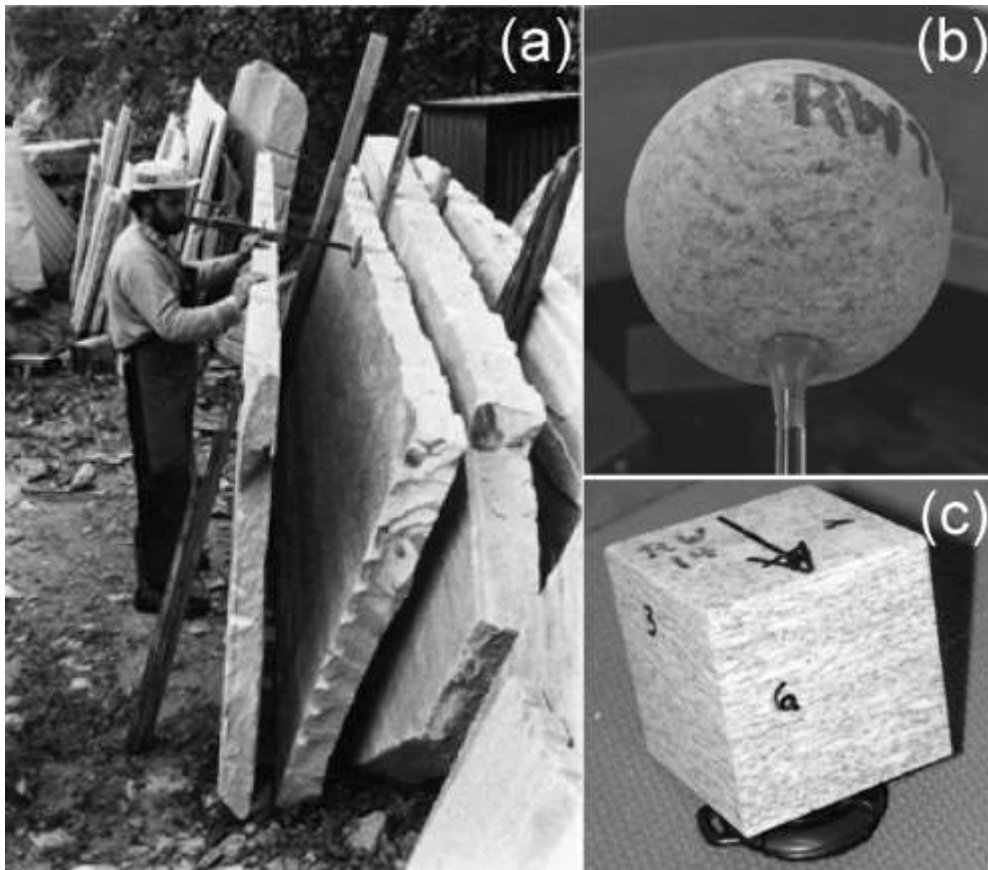
$X_E \approx \text{min. Young's modulus}$   
 $Y_E \approx \text{max. Young's modulus}$



Relationship between crystal coordinate system  $K_B$  and grain coordinate system  $K_E$  should be taken into account when considering the grains shape and shape preferred orientation.



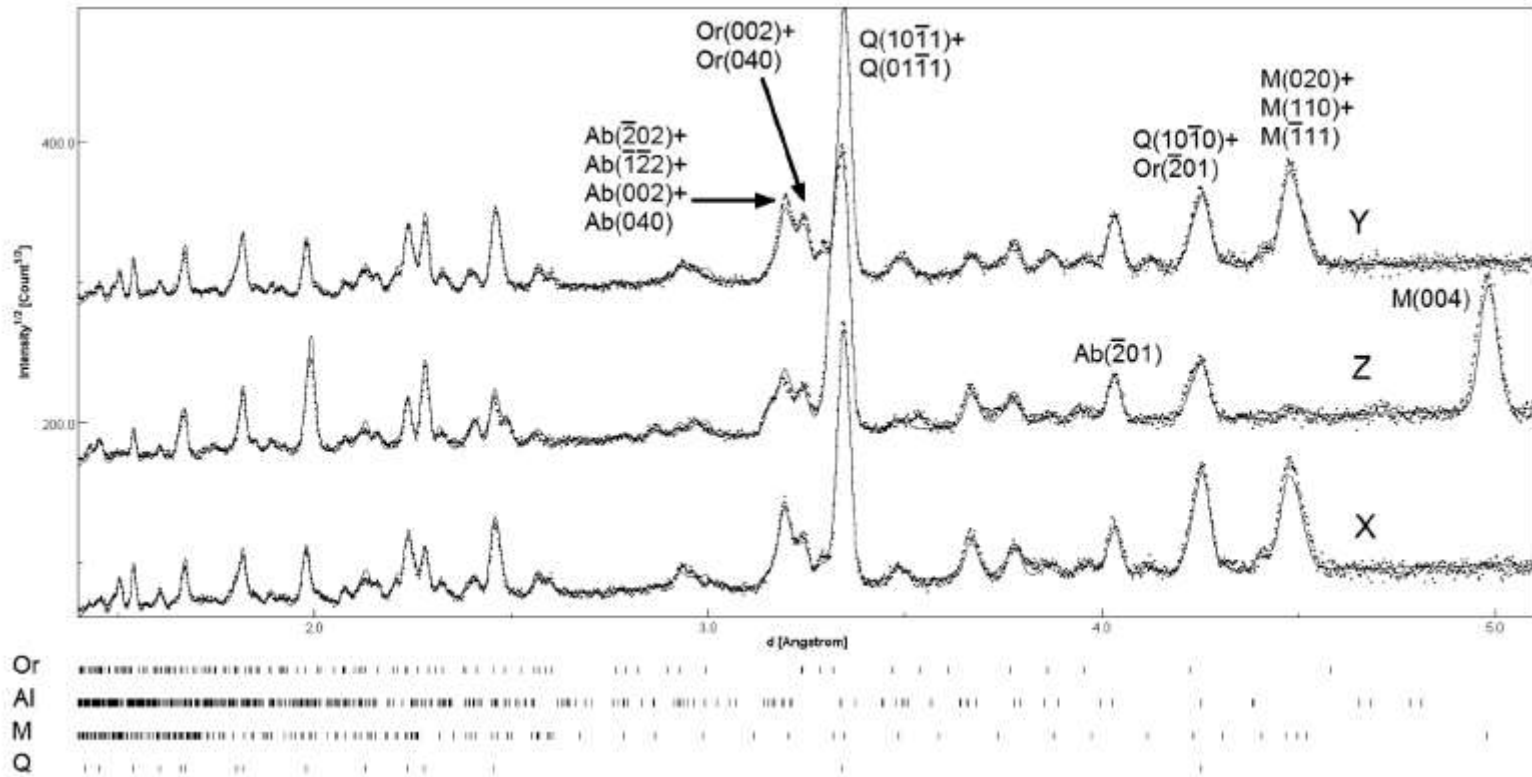
# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland



Tambo gneiss from Central Alps.  
A particular property is that the rock easily cleaves into perfectly planar sheets that extend over meters and are used for large stone tables, roof plates and floors.

*R.N. Vasin et al. (2017) Geophys. J. Int.*  
*doi: 10.1093/gji/ggw487*

# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland



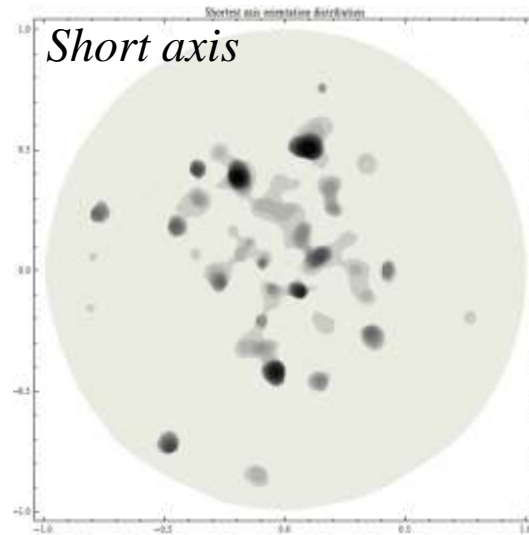
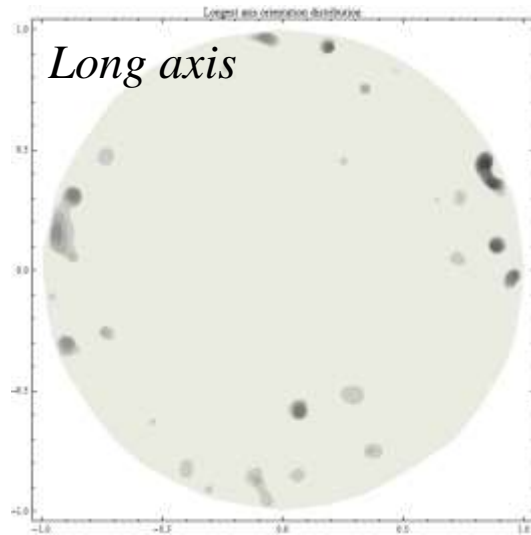
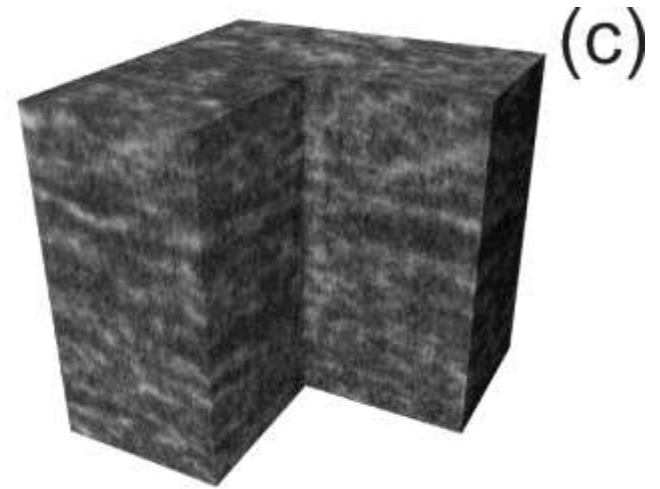
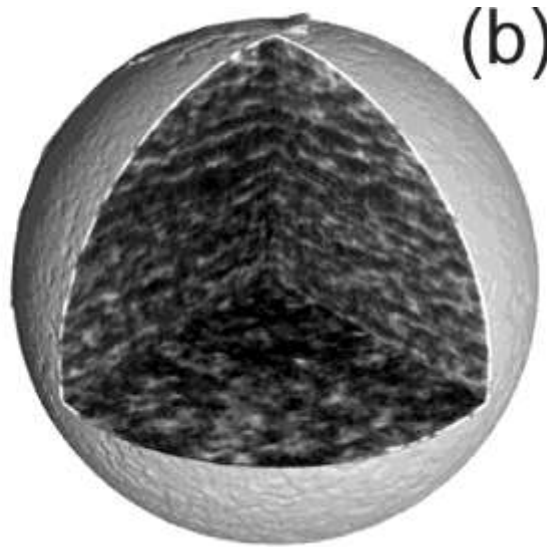
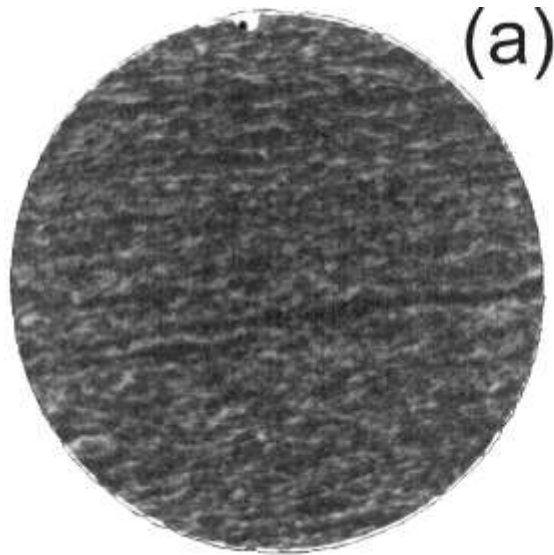
X – lineation (weak)

Z – foliation

Phase	Quartz	Albite	Orthoclase	Muscovite
Vol., %	38.7±2.6	25.8±1.7	18.0±1.2	17.5±1.2
ODF min.	0.24	0.06	0.32	0.04
ODF max.	3.10	13.22	2.61	16.53
F2	1.19	1.27	1.09	3.58



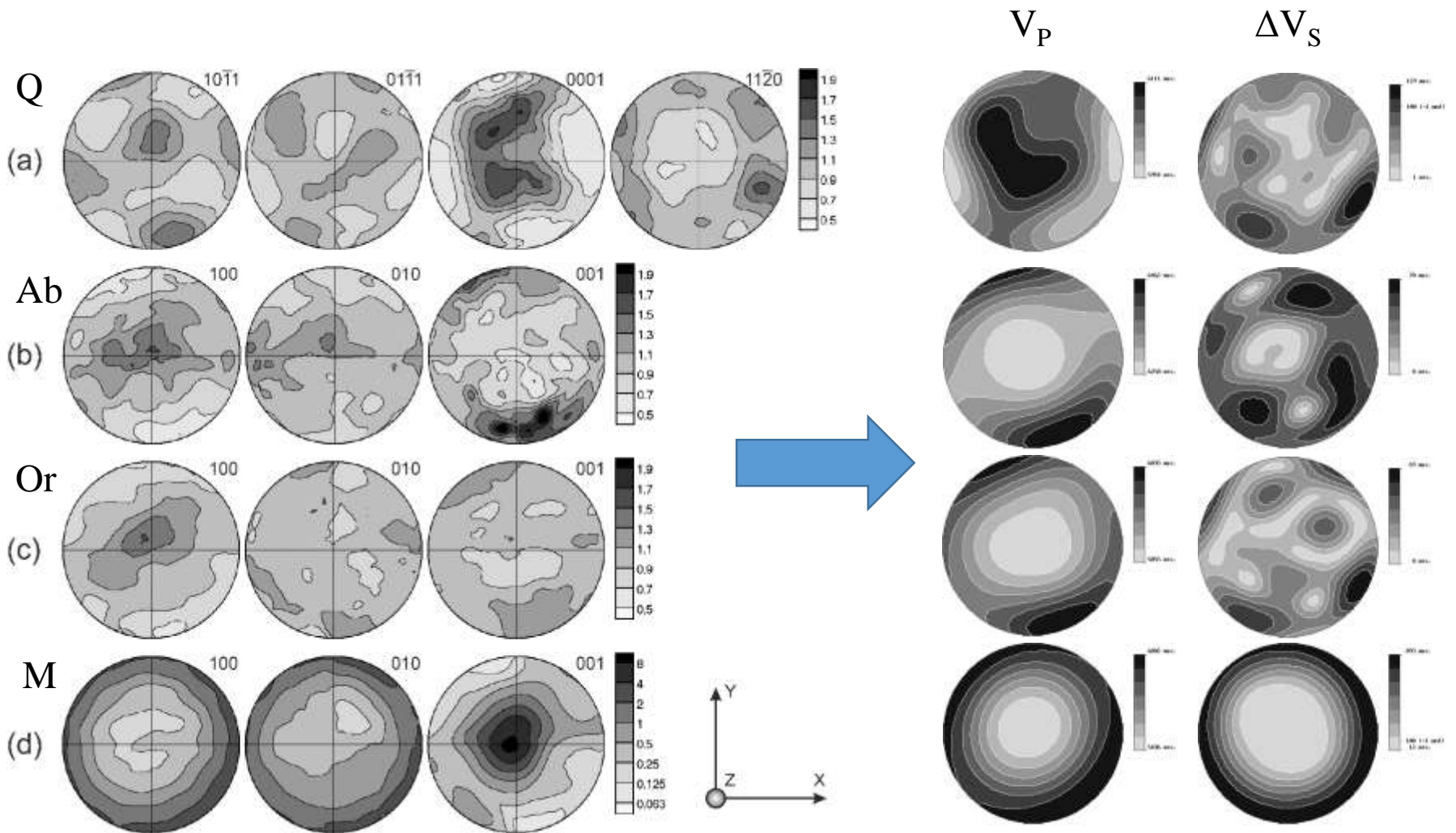
# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland



Framework of mica grains in the gneiss and their shape preferred orientations



# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland



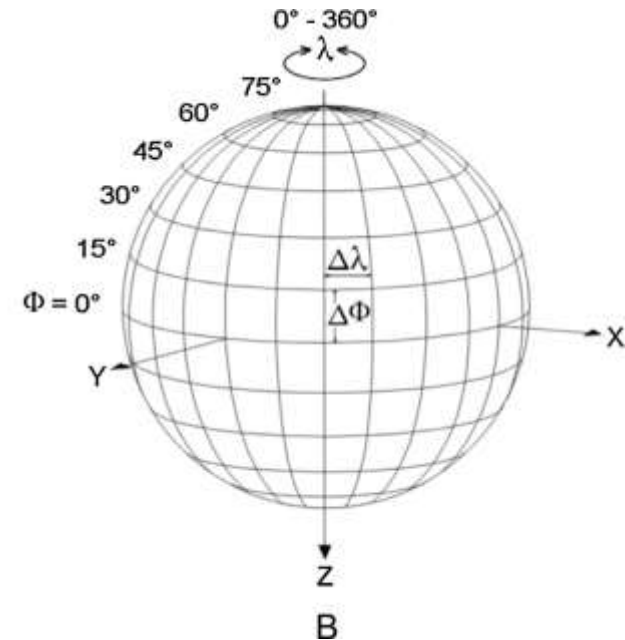
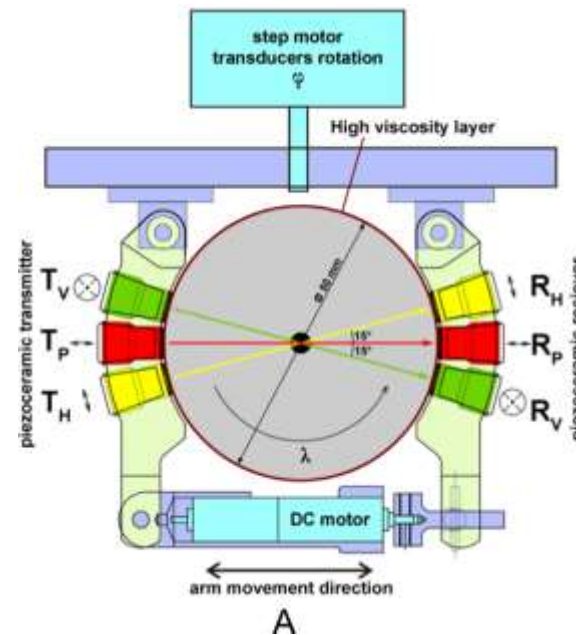
Texture-based recalculation of elastic wave velocities for different minerals

# Ultrasonic experiments on spherical samples

Institute of Geology, Academy of Sciences of Czech Republic, Prague



Measuring head in high pressure chamber. Sample diameter is **5 cm** (same as the sample size for the SKAT diffractometer). Two resonant longitudinal wave transducers, 2 MHz, can be used up to 400 MPa; pairs of shear wave transducers, 0.8 MHz, can be used up to 100 MPa.



*T. Lokajiček and T. Svitek (2015) Ultrasonics, DOI: 10.1016/j.ultras.2014.08.015*

Velocity measurement grid,  $15^\circ$  steps, 132 directions

# How to compare measured velocities and model $C_{ijkl}$ 's?

1. Recalculate wave velocities from  $C_{ijkl}$  set  $\rightarrow$  often large sets of velocities are available ( $>$  than number of independent elastic constants), and numerical comparison is troublesome.
2. Recalculate  $C_{ijkl}$  from measured velocities  $\rightarrow$  complicated, not always possible with only one type of waves (e.g., only P-waves & isotropic or transversely isotropic or hexagonal symmetry).

Either way, we need a relation  $C_{ijkl} \leftrightarrow$  measured velocities.

Common approach:

Flat wave:

$$\mathbf{u} = A\mathbf{p} \exp\left[\frac{2\pi i}{\lambda} (\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r} - Vt)\right];$$

For displacements in the elastic field:

$$C_{ijkl} \frac{\partial^2 u_l}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} = \rho \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial t^2};$$

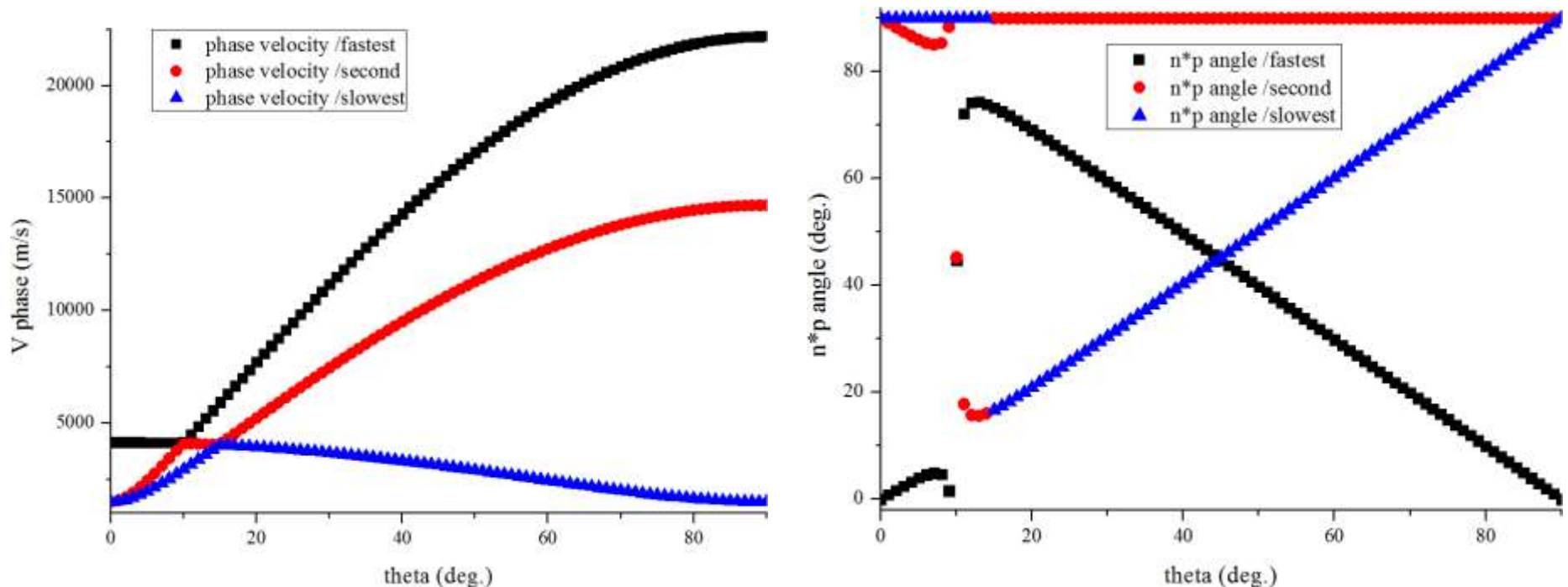
Christoffel equation:  $C_{ijkl} n_j n_k p_l = M_{il} p_l = \rho V^2 p_i$  Eigenvalues problem.

Things to **remember**: Christoffel equation is for a flat wave. Thus wavelength of the elastic wave should be  $\ll$  size of the sample.

Phase velocity with eigenvector of Christoffel tensor  $M$  (that is the polarization vector  $\mathbf{p}$ ) closest to propagation direction  $\mathbf{n}$  is  $V_p$ ; it is not necessary the fastest velocity in anisotropic material!

Fastest of two remaining waves is  $V_{S1}$ , slowest is  $V_{S2}$ .

It is **tricky** to construct the refinement of  $C_{ijkl}$  from measured velocities of strongly anisotropic material because of this ‘ordering’ part!



Graphite single crystal (hexagonal symmetry)



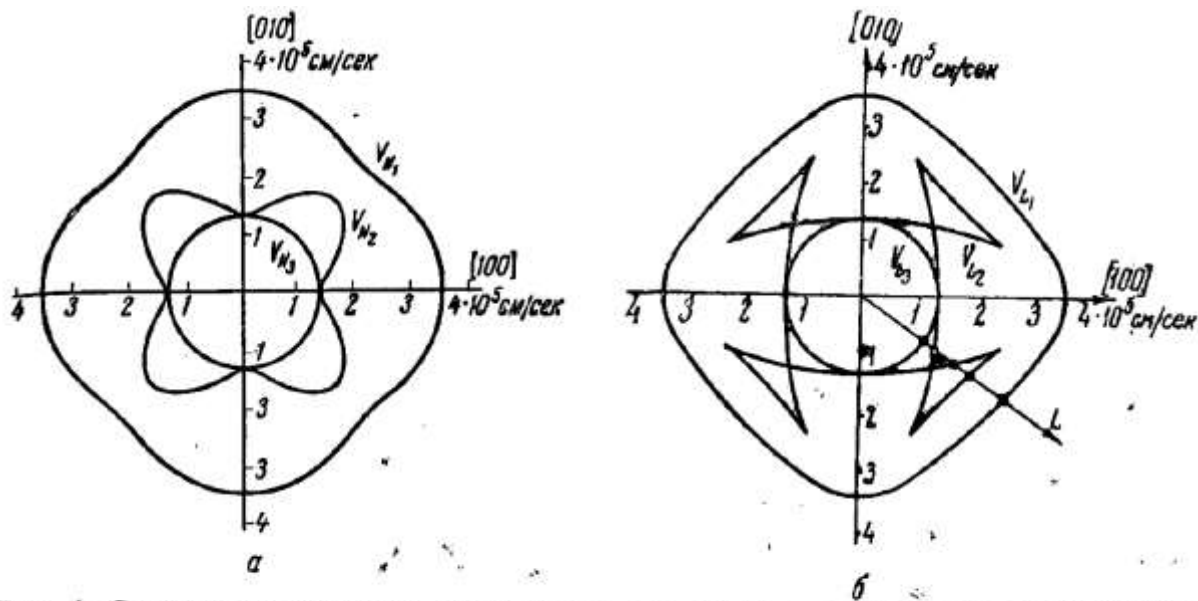


Рис. 1. Сечения поверхности нормальных скоростей *a* и волновой поверхности *b* кубического кристалла КВг плоскостью симметрии (001).

*K.S. Aleksandrov (1958) The wave surfaces for elastic waves in crystals. Kristallografiya (Crystallography Reports) 3, 620-623.*

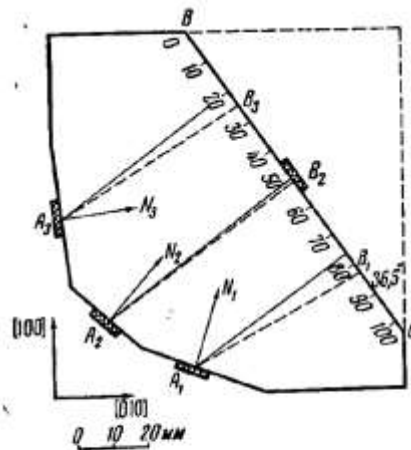


Рис. 3

Рис. 3. Ориентировка образца по данным рис. 2.

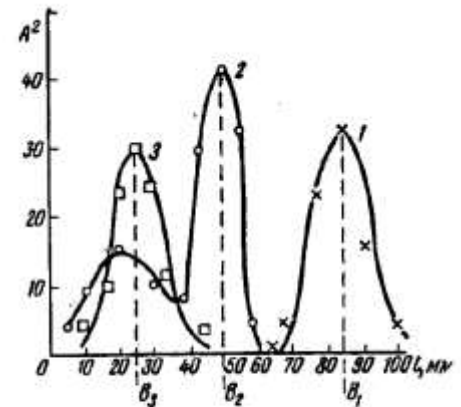


Рис. 4

Рис. 4. Экспериментальная зависимость энергии принятого сигнала от положения приемника на грани *BC* образца.

$B_1, B_2, B_3$  — положения максимумов энергии принятого сигнала при помещении излучающей пластины соответственно на гранях  $A_1, A_2, A_3$ .

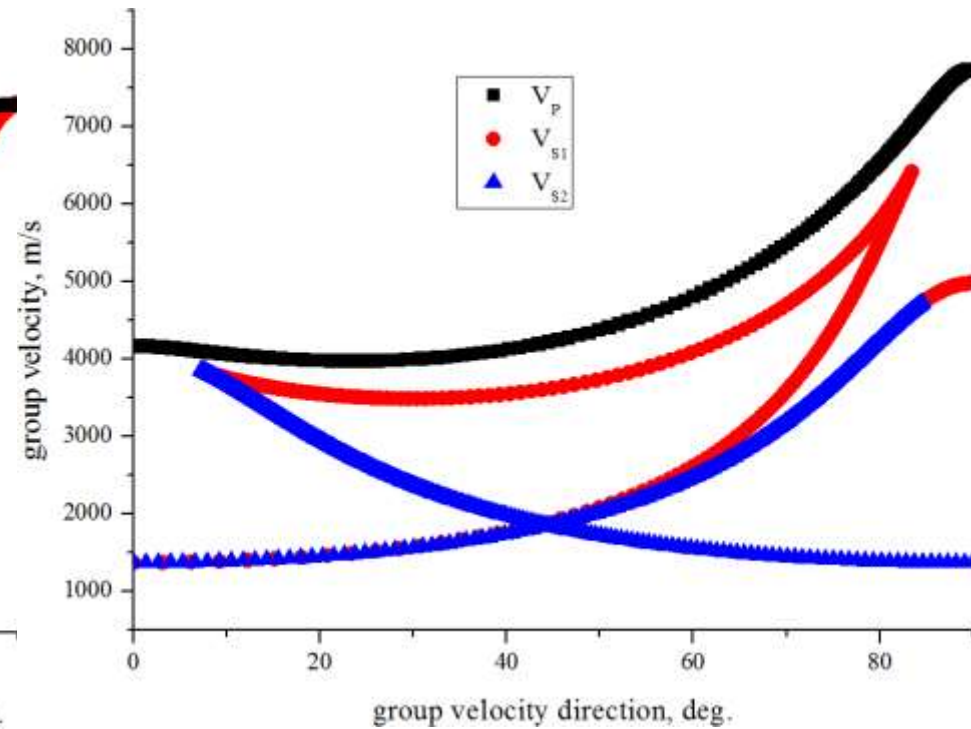
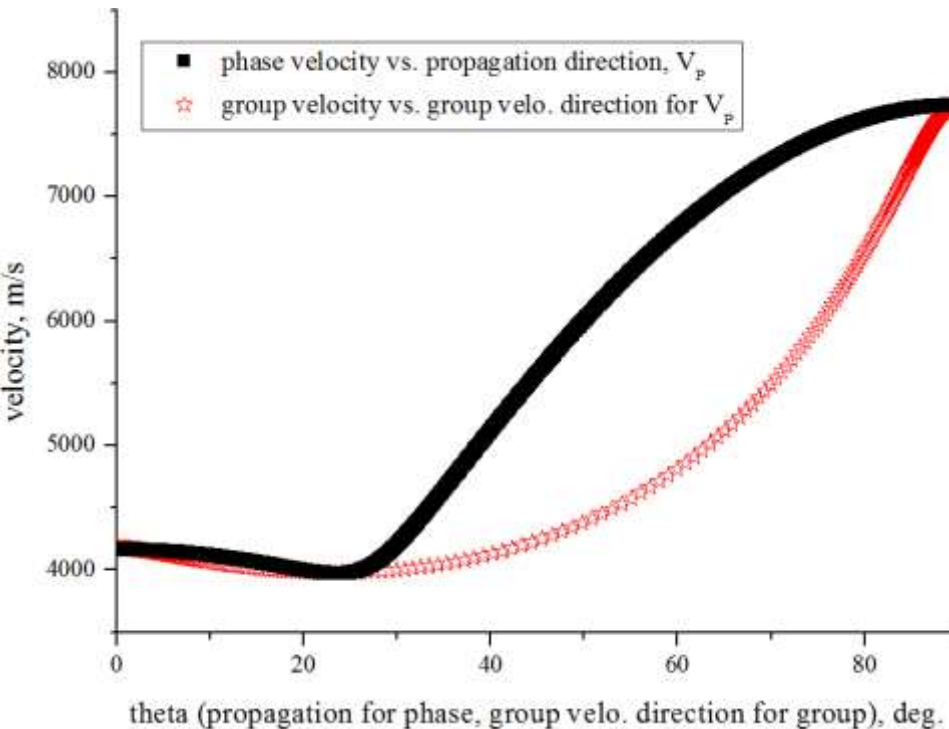
Group velocity?

$$W = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial \mathbf{k}}$$

Using Christoffel equation solutions, e.g.,  $W_j|_P = \frac{1}{\rho V_P} C_{ijkl} \cdot p_i|_P \cdot p_k|_P \cdot n_l$  (and + similar 2 for S-waves)

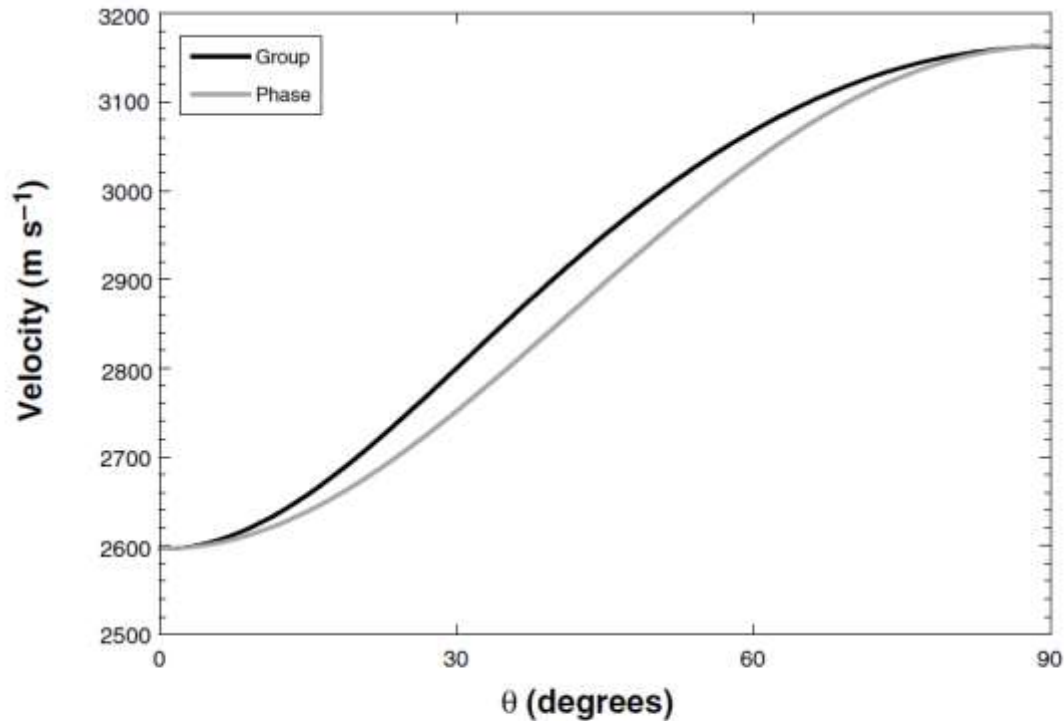
Situation is more complicated in this case!

Different waves propagating in different directions could be detected by the same single sensor (in some cases, for 1 ray direction there are up to 5 different waves).



Biotite single crystal (quasi-hexagonal symmetry!)

But if phase and group velocities are plotted against the wave front normal direction, group velocities always should be greater (or equal) because phase velocity is group velocities' projection onto the wave front normal.



**Figure 5.** Group and phase velocity surfaces for the Muderong Shale at one effective stress condition.

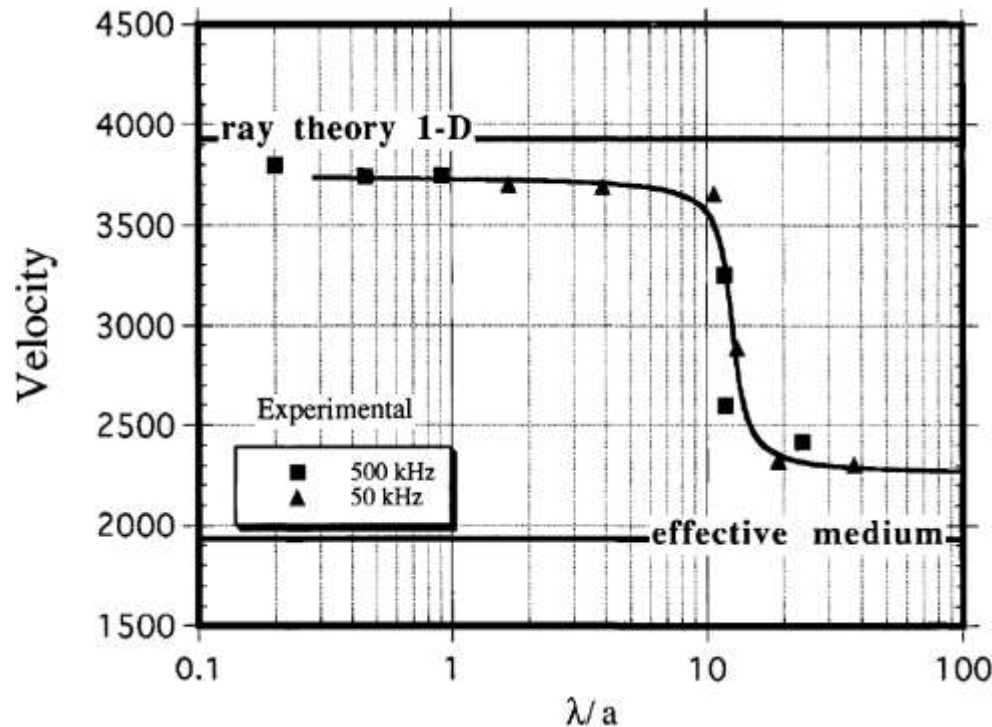
*D.N. Dewhurst, A.F. Siggins. (2006)  
Geophys. J. Int. 165, 135-148.*

Things to **remember**: model ‘averaged’  $C_{ijkl}$  represent ‘effective medium’ properties, thus they will work if wavelength of elastic wave is  $\gg$  size of heterogeneities in material.

This condition depends on the “contrast” of elastic properties and proportions of materials.

If elastic constants are about the same, “ $\gg$ ” is practically sufficient.

*K. Helbig (1984) Geophysics 49, 364-373.*



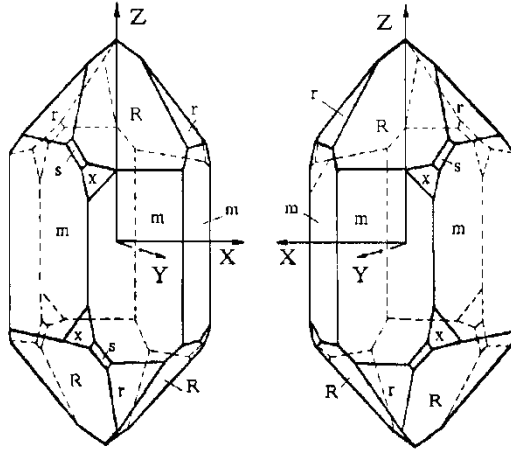
Elastic wave velocity in stratified steel-plastic composite.

*T. Mukerji et al. (1995) Geophysics 60, 1222-1233.*



## Extra complication

If we are particularly unlucky to have quartz, we have to account for the spacial dispersion



Left-handed quartz  
structure:

$P3_221$  (№154)

Si:  $3a(x, 0, 2/3)$ ;

O:  $6c(x, y, z)$

Right-handed quartz  
structure:

$P3_121$  (№152)

Si:  $3a(x, 0, 1/3)$ ;

O:  $6c(x, y, z)$

$$C_{ijkl} \frac{\partial^2 u_l}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} + b_{ijkln} \frac{\partial^3 u_l}{\partial x_j \partial x_n \partial x_k} = \rho \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial t^2} :$$

$\mathbf{b}$  – acoustic gyration tensor

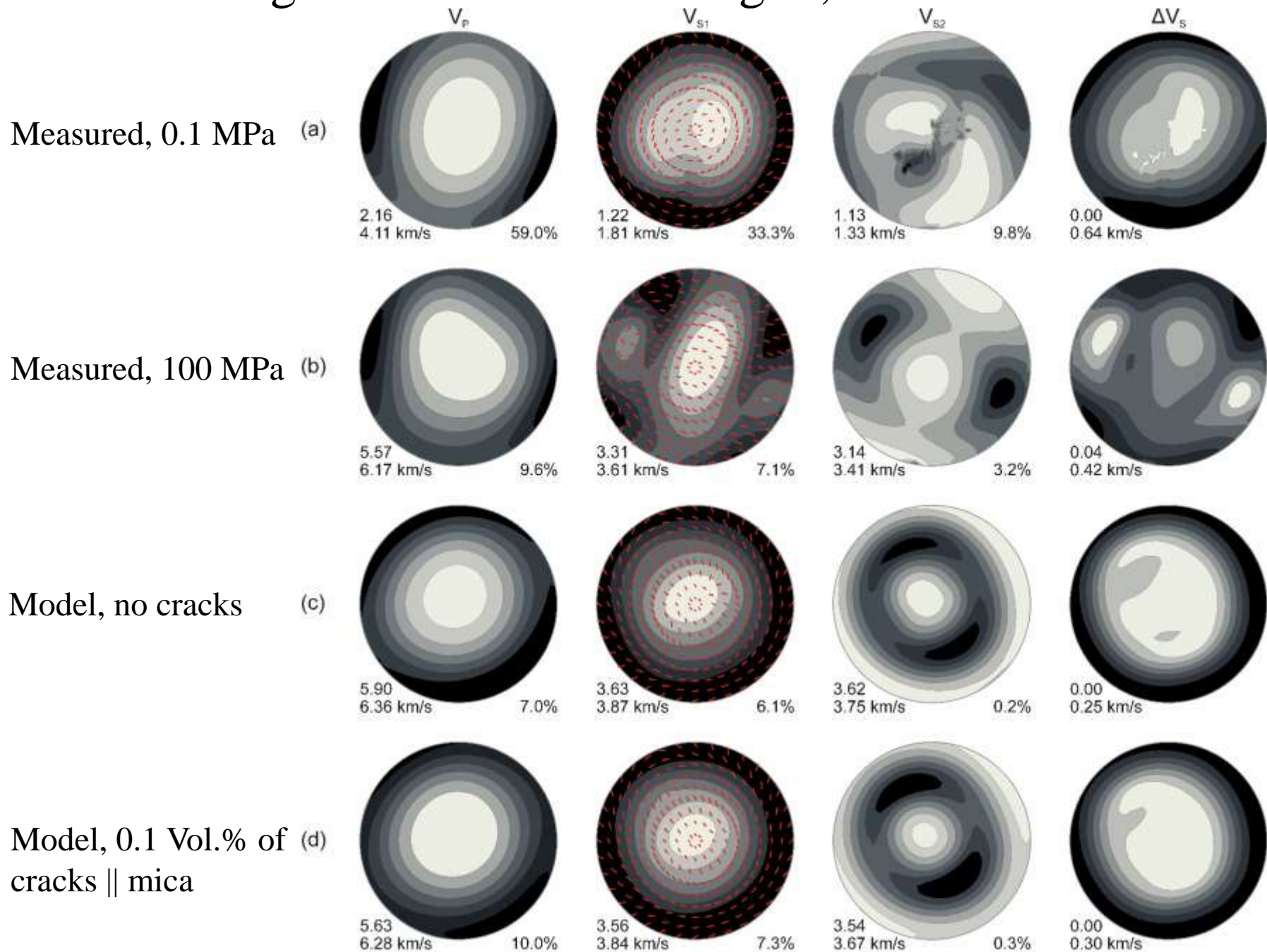
$$(M_{jk} + i\delta_{jkl} Q_l) p_k = \rho V^2 p_j$$

$$Q_s = \frac{\pi}{\lambda} \delta_{sjk} b_{ijkln} n_i n_l n_n$$

In quartz for  $\mathbf{n} \parallel 3$ -fold axis and  $\omega \approx 3$  MHz rotation of the polarization plane is  $\approx 10^\circ/\text{cm}$ , while relative correction for the velocity values is less than  $10^2$ .

And we need to know whether there is left or right quartz in the material, or their ratio and orientation distributions for each of them

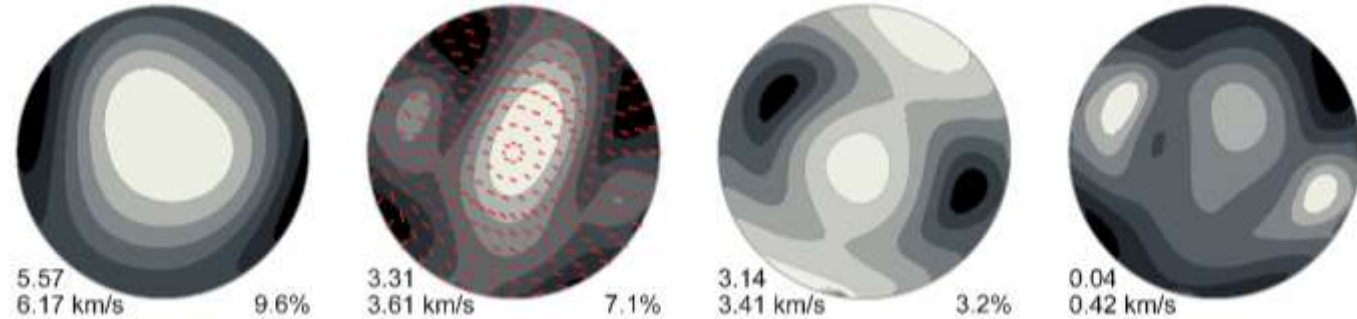
# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland



# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland

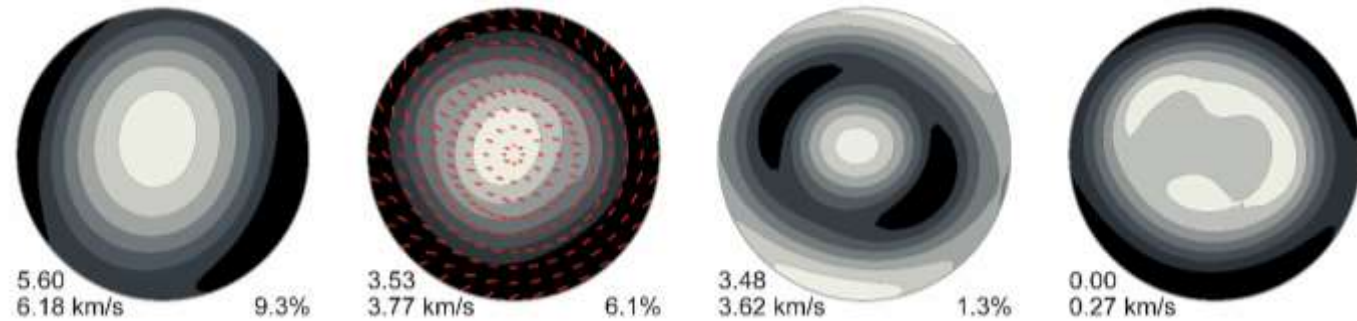
Measured, 100 MPa

(b)



Model, with 0.1 Vol.% cracks || mica and 0.6 Vol.% of secondary cracks (normal to mica grains and || lineation)

(e)



Not a very good agreement of a room pressure measurements with a model (probably, due to lots of cracks produced by blasting, which makes measurements and modelling significantly more complicated)

Anisotropy coefficient:

$$A-V_p[\%] = 100\% \cdot (V_{Pmax} - V_{Pmin}) / V_{Pmean}$$

*R.N. Vasin et al. (2017) Geophys. J. Int.  
doi: 10.1093/gji/ggw487*

# Tambo gneiss from Promontogno, Switzerland

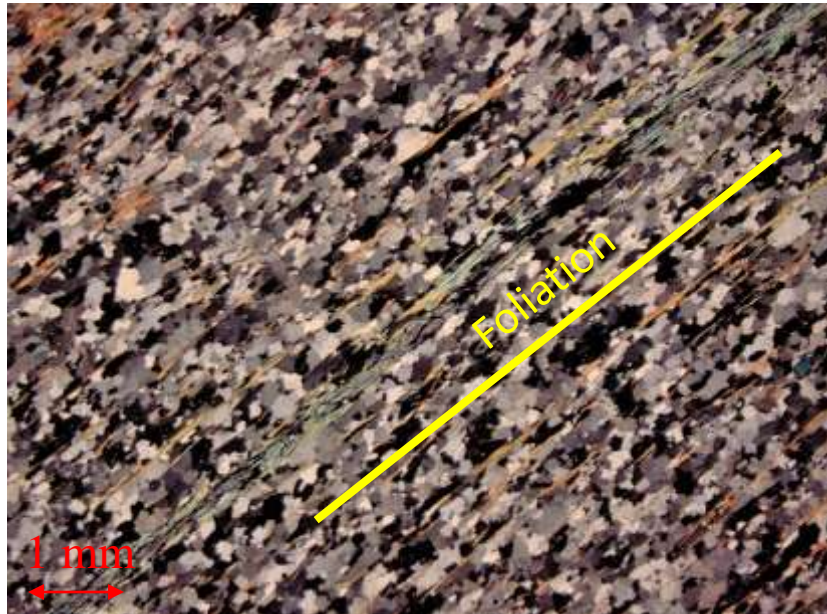
**Table 5.** Bulk elastic properties of Tambo gneiss calculated from ultrasonic measurements (second run, with both  $P$  and  $S$  velocities) on the spherical sample, as well as elastic constants of two Tambo gneiss models including crack systems (all values are in GPa).

	Inverted from measurements at 100 MPa	Model: 0.1 vol.% of primary cracks and 0.6 vol.% of secondary cracks	Inverted from measurements at 0.1 MPa	Model: 2.6 vol.% of primary cracks and 1.0 vol.% of secondary cracks
$C_{11}$	99.2	99.8	42.9	43.8
$C_{12}$	30.3	23.1	17.0	5.9
$C_{13}$	27.8	21.9	15.0	2.9
$C_{14}$	-1.4	-0.1	-0.5	-0.4
$C_{15}$	-1.5	0.9	-1.4	1.6
$C_{16}$	-1.7	-0.8	-2.8	-2.1
$C_{22}$	93.8	95.6	26.8	40.3
$C_{23}$	32.3	21.0	9.7	2.9
$C_{24}$	-0.9	-1.2	-0.8	-1.9
$C_{25}$	1.0	0.1	-0.6	0.3
$C_{26}$	0.4	-0.6	-2.5	-2.0
$C_{33}$	82.2	82.7	12.3	13.1
$C_{34}$	-0.7	-0.5	-0.1	-1.0
$C_{35}$	-0.1	0.3	-0.5	0.8
$C_{36}$	3.6	0.0	-1.9	-0.2
$C_{44}$	26.4	32.1	3.6	9.7
$C_{45}$	-1.0	-0.2	0.2	-0.5
$C_{46}$	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.7
$C_{55}$	28.6	32.9	4.3	10.1
$C_{56}$	0.6	-0.4	-0.4	-0.9
$C_{66}$	32.6	37.2	8.5	18.1



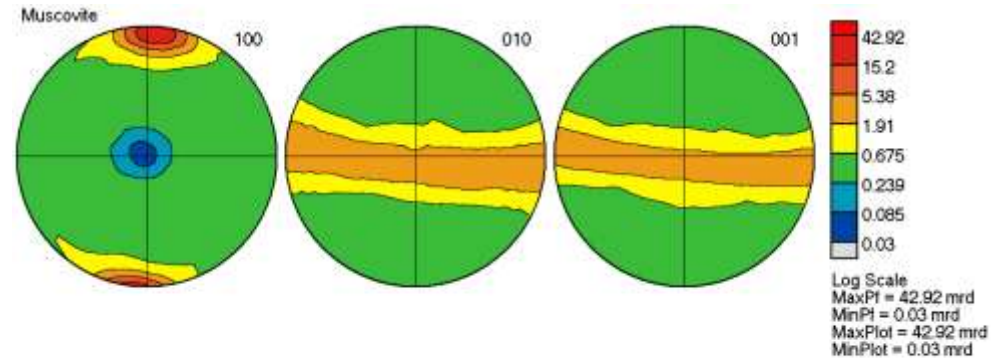
# Micaceous quartzite

A muscovite-bearing quartzite sample from the TRANSALP seismic traverse (Eastern Alps, Austria)

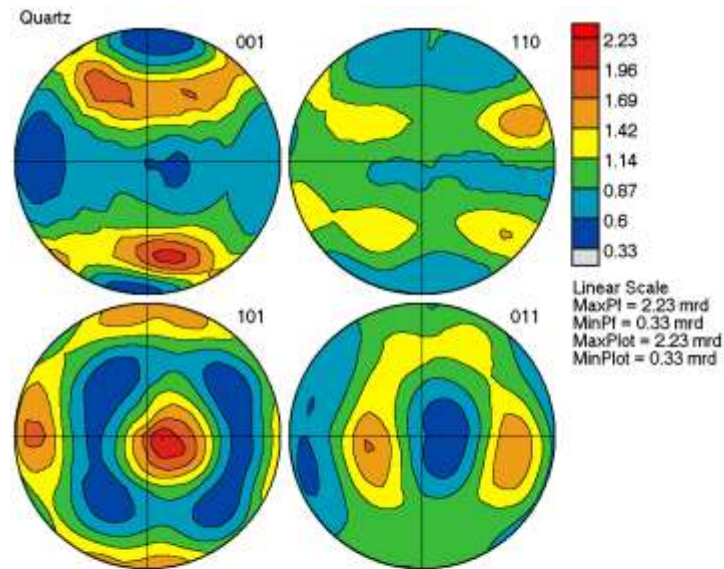


A small amount of pores and cracks is present in the rock; now we can include them into models of bulk physical properties

*R.N. Vasin et al. (2014) ICOTOM-17, Book of Abstracts, Dresden, Germany, 2014. P. 182.*

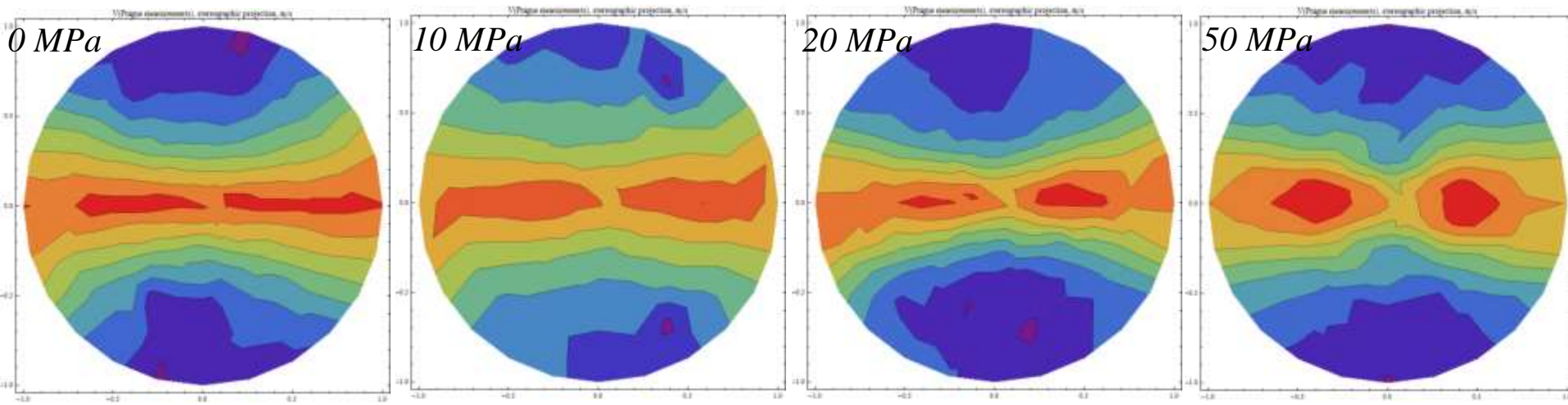


11.9 Vol.%, F2=12.0



88.1 Vol.%, F2=1.4

# Results of ultrasonic measurements – anisotropy changes due to pores



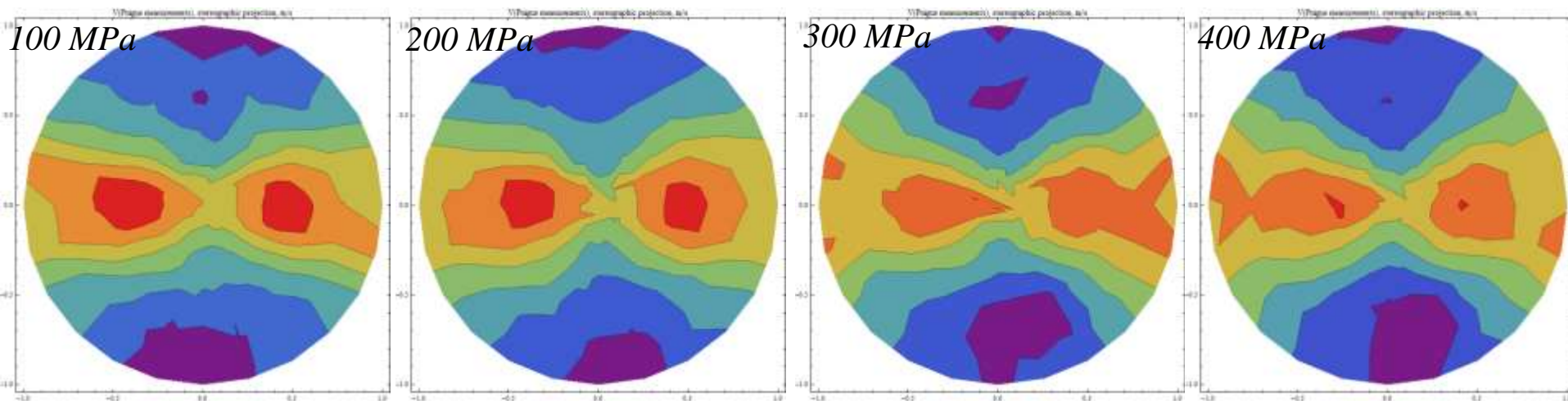
0 MPa  
 1936 m/s  
 5817 m/s (100.1%)

10 MPa  
 2894 m/s  
 6005 m/s (69.9%)

20 MPa  
 4372 m/s  
 5892 m/s (29.6%)

50 MPa  
 5384 m/s  
 6168 m/s (13.6%)

————— Foliation



100 MPa  
 5614 m/s  
 6261 m/s (10.9%)

200 MPa  
 5740 m/s  
 6340 m/s (9.9%)

300 MPa  
 5652 m/s  
 6207 m/s (9.4%)

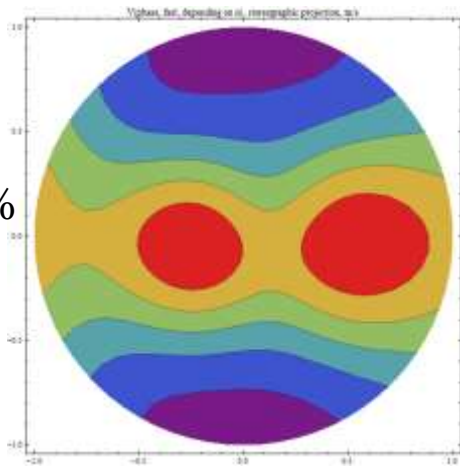
400 MPa  
 5756 m/s  
 6316 m/s (9.3%)

Stereographic projections, linear scale contours,  $k_P = 200\% * (V_{Pmax} - V_{Pmin}) / (V_{Pmax} + V_{Pmin})$

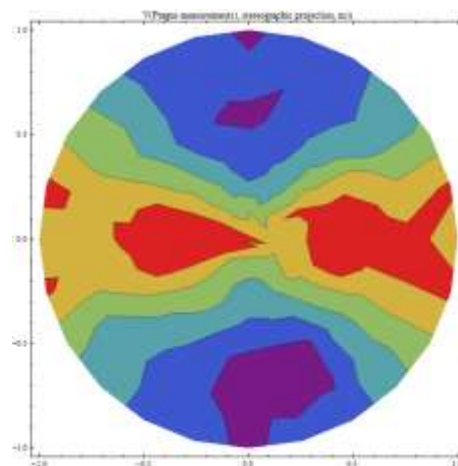


# Adding pores at higher pressures...

Model with 0.08 Vol%  
of pores || to  
muscovite grains

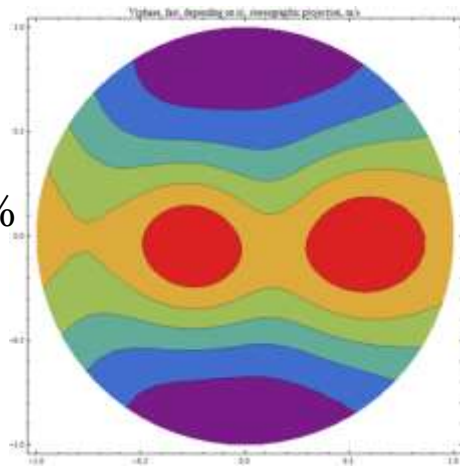


5656 m/s  
6199 m/s (9.2%)

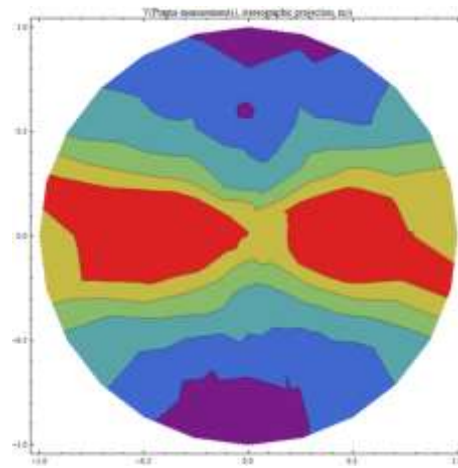


5652 m/s  
6207 m/s (9.4%)

Model with 0.09 Vol%  
of pores || to  
muscovite grains



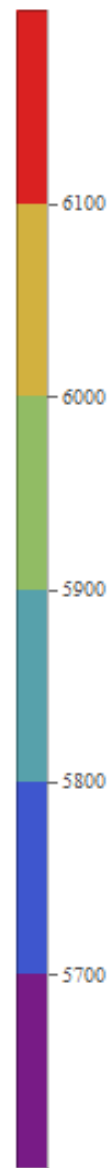
5623 m/s  
6191 m/s (9.6%)



5614 m/s  
6261 m/s (10.9%)

Measured  
at 300 MPa

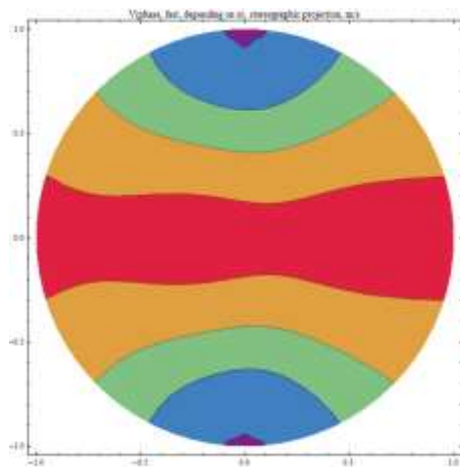
Measured  
at 100 MPa



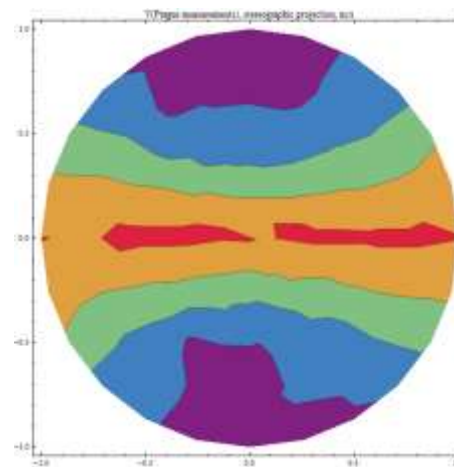
P-wave velocities,  
stereographic projections,  
linear scale, [m/s]

# Adding pores at 0.1 MPa pressure

Model with 0.3 Vol% of pores || to muscovite grains & 2 Vol% of pores || to foliation



1932 m/s  
5860 m/s (100.8%)

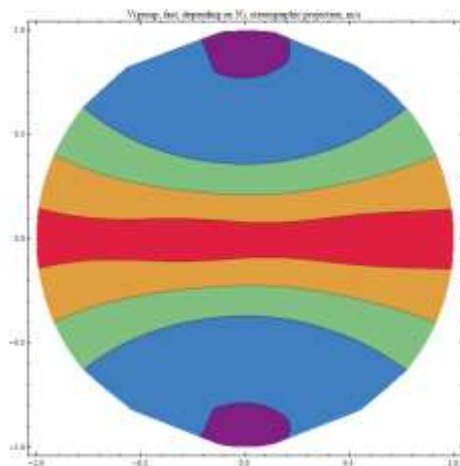


1936 m/s  
5817 m/s (100.1%)

Measured at 0.1 MPa

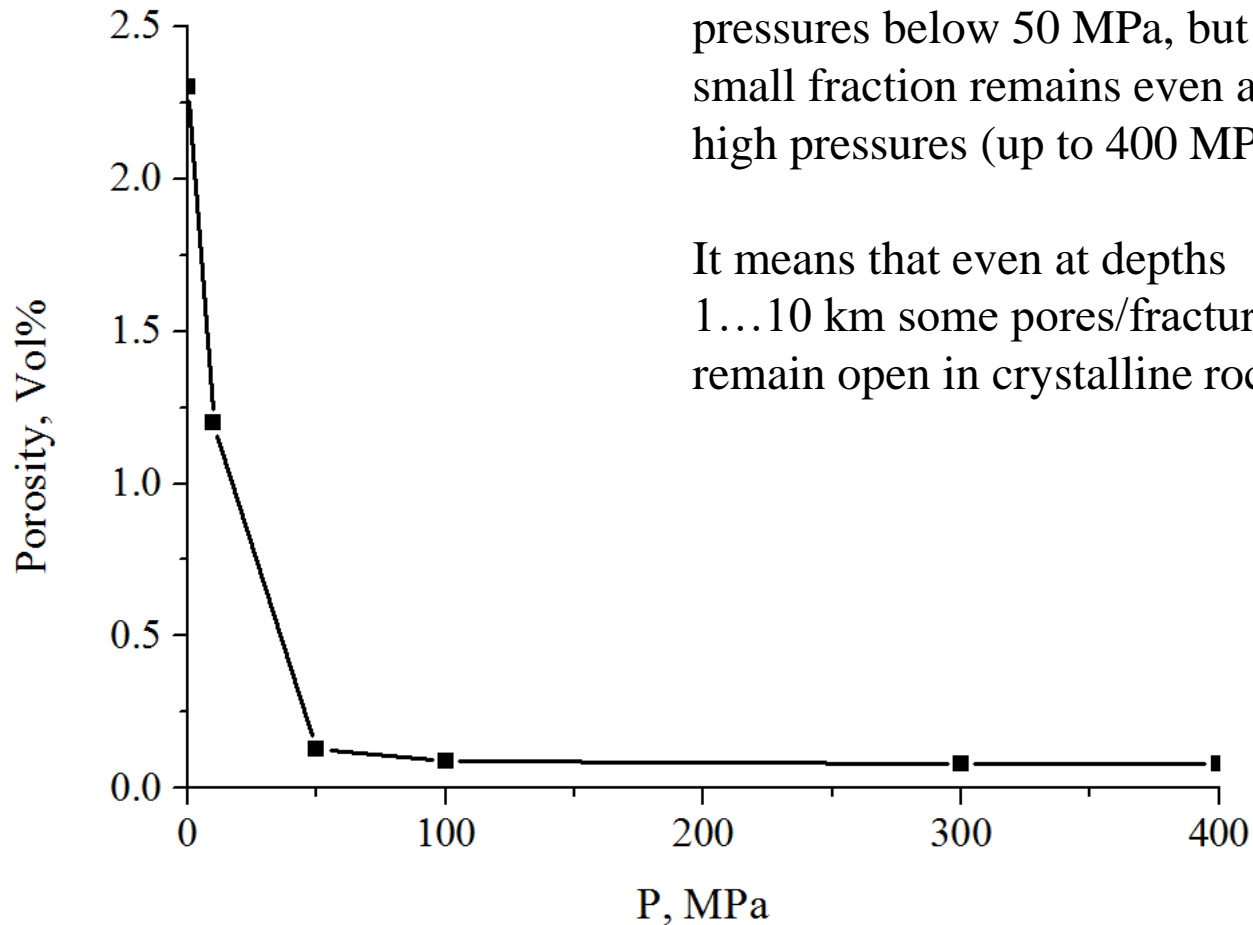


Group velocities!





# Porosity vs. pressure



Most of pores ('meso') close at pressures below 50 MPa, but a small fraction remains even at high pressures (up to 400 MPa).

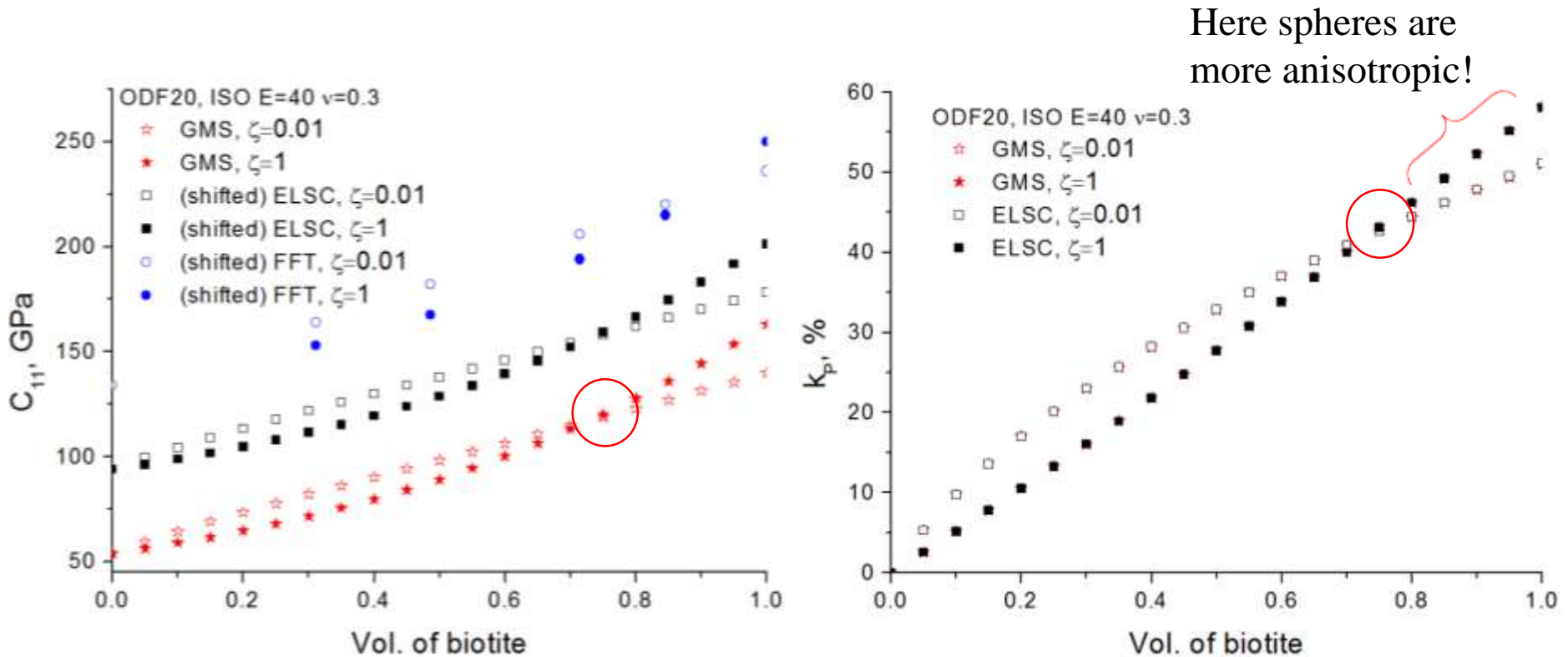
It means that even at depths 1...10 km some pores/fractures remain open in crystalline rocks.

# Elastic anisotropy of rocks containing sheet silicates

- Sheet silicates are constituents of many minerals: gneisses, shales, ... → interest to the seismic anisotropy.
- Distinct morphology of grains → platelets ( $\approx$  oblate spheroids). Simple common averages – Voigt, Reuss, Hill – do not really work.
- Usually it is believed that taking into account sheet silicate grain shapes will result in more elastic (seismic, if we talk about elastic waves propagation) anisotropy → not always true!

	<b>Model biotite gneiss (no pores), based on [Wenk et al. // <i>Tectonophysics</i> 570-571 (2012) 123-134, Table 3] and density of 2.75 g/cm<sup>3</sup></b>		<b>Model shale (no pores), based on [Vasin et al. // <i>JGR-Solid Earth</i> 118 (2013) 3931-3956, Table 5] and density of 2.648 g/cm<sup>3</sup></b>		
<b>Grain shape of sheet silicates</b>	Sphere {1:1:1}	Platelet {1:0.2:0.05}	Sphere {1:1:1}	Platelet {1:1:0.1}	Platelet {1:1:0.05}
<b><math>V_{Pmin}</math>, m/s</b>	5551	5464	5535	5311	5285
<b><math>V_{Pmax}</math>, m/s</b>	6235	6235	6366	6067	6017
<b><math>k_p</math>, %</b>	11.6	13.2	14.0	13.3	12.9
<b><math>\Delta V_{Smax}</math>, m/s</b>	472	530	379	338	327

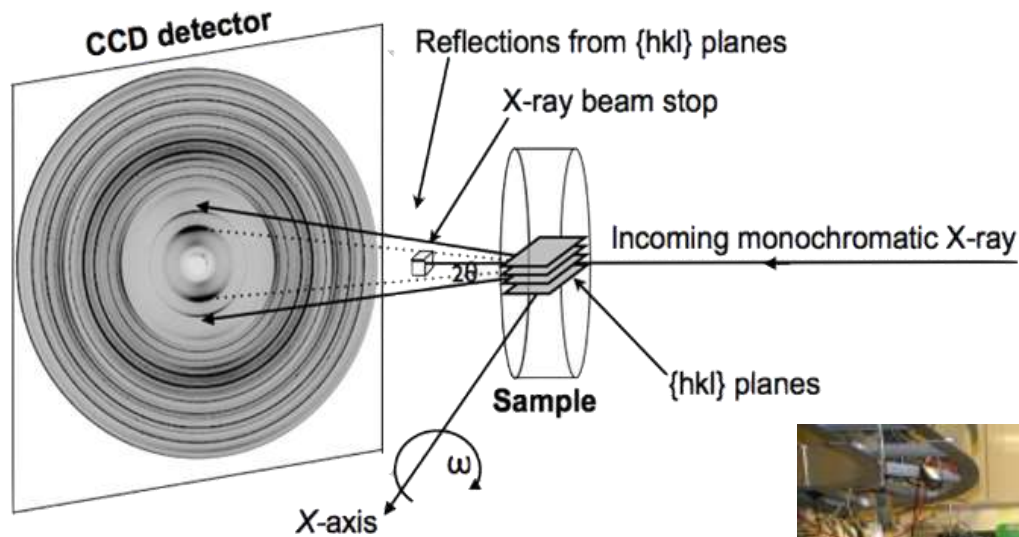
# Elastic anisotropy of rocks containing sheet silicates



Textured biotite platelets in an isotropic matrix with Young's modulus of 40 GPa and Poisson's ratio of 0.3.

Depending on the strength of the texture and elastic properties of matrix, there is a biotite content where certain elastic constant, or wave velocities, or anisotropy coefficient do not depend on the shape of biotite inclusions.

# Texture analysis from synchrotron diffraction experiments

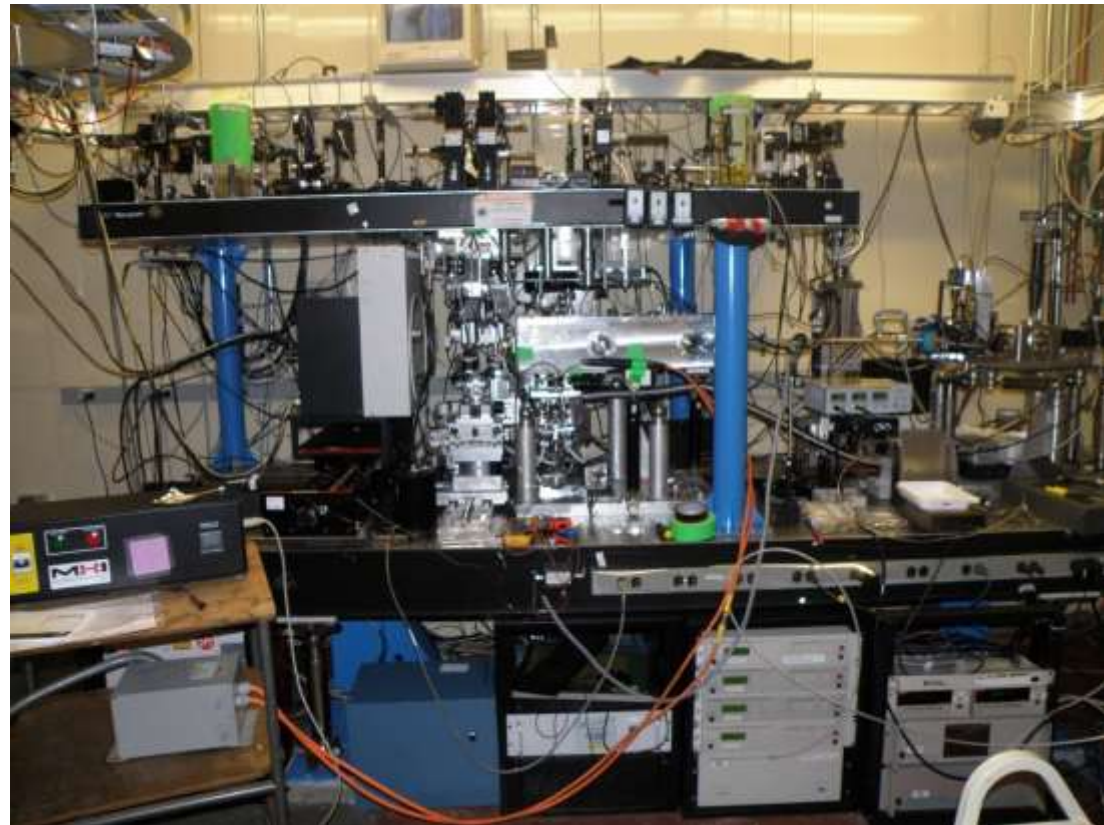


If the sample is fine grained, or contains lots of hydrogen (e.g., clays), then synchrotron diffraction is the instrument of choice!

Data acquisition is really fast, even when several  $\omega$  rotations are necessary.

Sadly, special sample preparation is often required (cutting/polishing).

And that sample is too small for lab ultrasonic experiments.



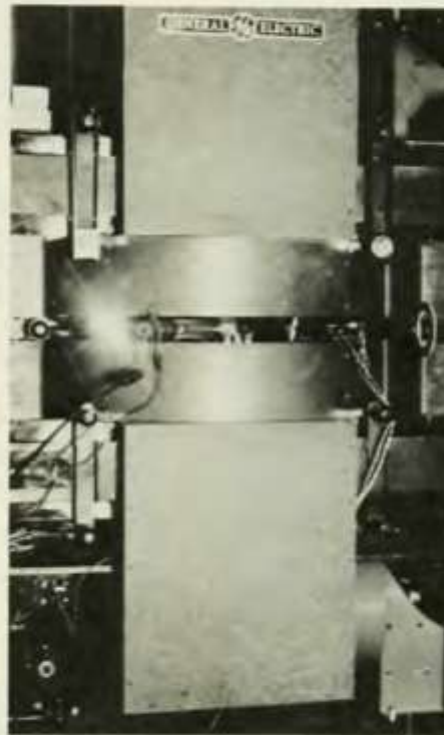


# A bit of History

## Origin of synchrotron radiation

It is indeed unfortunate that the informative article on synchrotron radiation in the July issue (pages 30–37) contains no reference to the original discovery of the effect, although, less relevantly and somewhat accurately, it does mention the “invention” of the betatron. Those who predicted the existence of this remarkable radiation and those who discovered it deserve recognition along with those who have since found interesting uses for it, so well described in your article.

*The discovery of synchrotron radiation*



Synchrotron radiation from 70-MeV machine at General Electric Research Laboratory where it was first discovered in 1947.

with negative results. That convinced us, but not Blewett, who suggested that we look for other evidence, in particular, energy losses. We knew, in fact, that the orbit radius began to shrink when the electron energy neared 90 MeV, so that the beam would contract to target at about 106 MeV. We estimated the orbit radius at each intermediate energy by measuring the deflection current required to bring the beam to target, and found that it did indeed behave in accordance with Blewett's calculations<sup>4</sup> based upon the Ivanenko–Pomeranchuk hypothesis.<sup>3</sup> Because an alternative hypothesis (phase difference between center flux and guide field) also accounted satisfactorily for the data, no radiation had been detected, and our consultant, Marcel Schein, agreed with our objections to the Ivanenko–Pomeranchuk paper, we remained unconvinced.

Blewett correctly surmised that the radiation would be found to be distributed over a great many harmonics<sup>4</sup> and found support for this belief from J. Schwinger. But, with an opaque doughnut coating, complete concrete radiation shield, and closed minds, the rest of us did not see the light, literally or figuratively. We also were very busy

## Radiation from Electrons in a Synchrotron

F. R. ELDER, A. M. GUREWITSCH, R. V. LANGMUIR,  
AND H. C. POLLOCK

*Research Laboratory, General Electric Company,  
Schenectady, New York*

May 7, 1947

**H**IGH energy electrons which are subjected to large accelerations normal to their velocity should radiate electromagnetic energy.<sup>1–4</sup> The radiation from electrons in a betatron or synchrotron should be emitted in a narrow cone tangent to the electron orbit, and its spectrum should extend into the visible region. This radiation has now been observed visually in the General Electric 70-MeV synchro-

*F.R. Elder et al. (1947) Phys. Rev. 71, 827-828.*

*G.C. Baldwin & D.W. Kerst (1975) Physics Today, doi: 10.1063/1.3068762*

# A bit of History

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NATURE VOL. 230 APRIL 16 1971

## Synchrotron Radiation as a Source for X-ray Diffraction

G. ROSENBAUM & K. C. HOLMES

Max-Planck-Institut für Medizinische Forschung, Heidelberg

J. WITZ

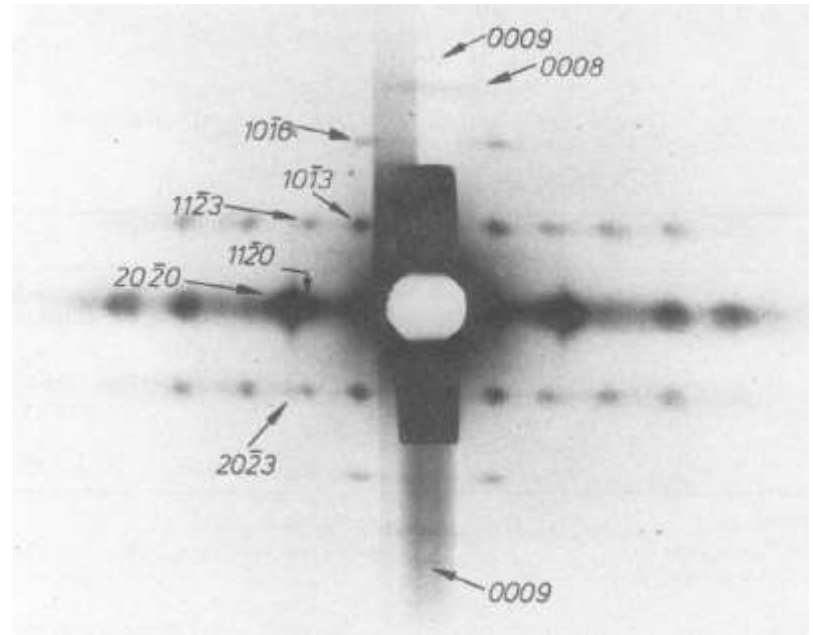
Laboratoire des Virus des Plantes, Institut de Botanique de la Faculté des Sciences de Strasbourg, Strasbourg



G. Rosenbaum et al. (1971) *Nature* **230**, 434-437.

DESY, Hamburg

Diffraction from flight muscle fibers of water bug *Lethocerus maximus*



R.S. Goody et al. (1975) *Biophysical J.* **15**, 687-705.

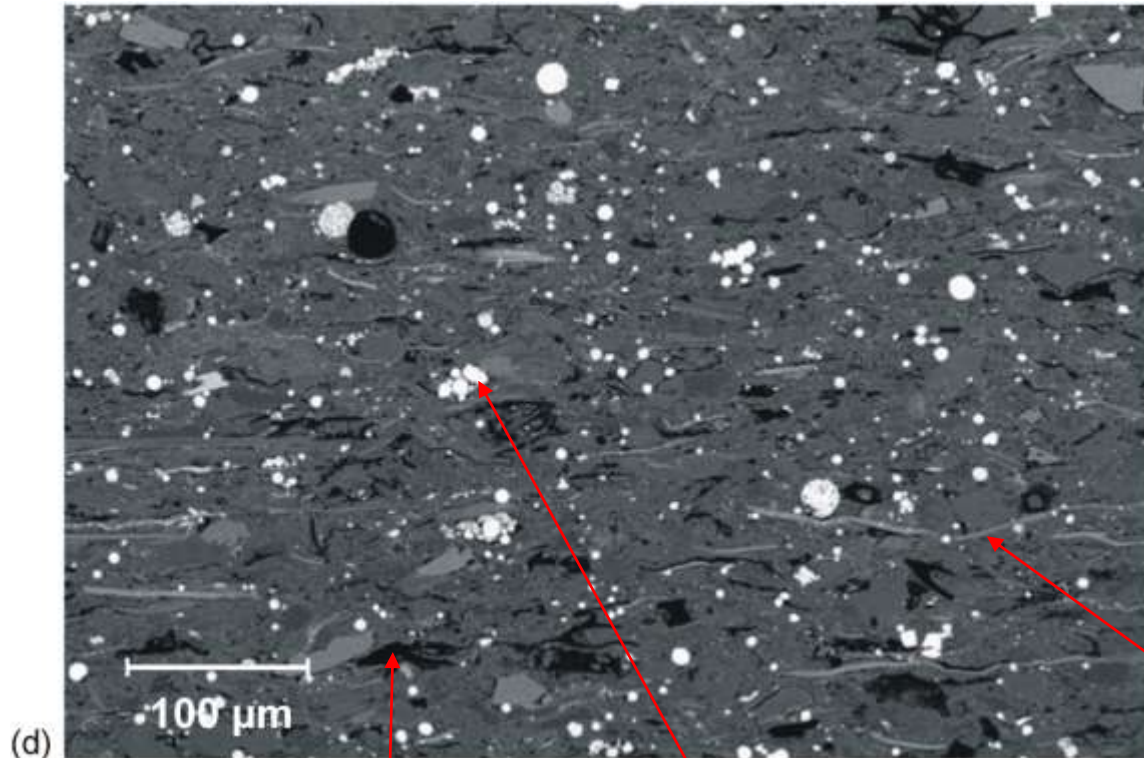
# Киммериджский сланец

Сланцы – осадочные горные породы, часто являются кровлей или вмещающими породами для нефтяных/газовых месторождений. Свойства интересны: георазведка, добыча/оценка запасов, захоронение отходов.

Киммериджский сланец, сформировавшийся в Юрском периоде ( $\approx 155$  млн. лет); получен из скважины в Северном море с глубины 3750 м под уровнем моря.

Один из немногих, для которых упругие свойства изучены и доступны (сланец поперечно изотропен  $\rightarrow$  **пять упругих констант**).

*V.E. Hornby (1998) J. Geophys. Res. 103, 29945-29964.*



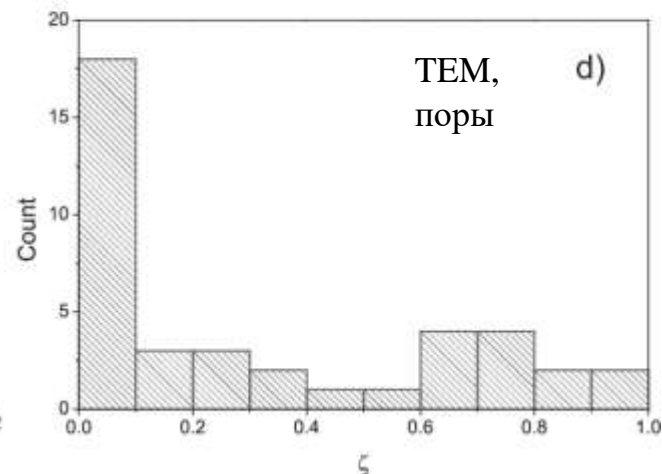
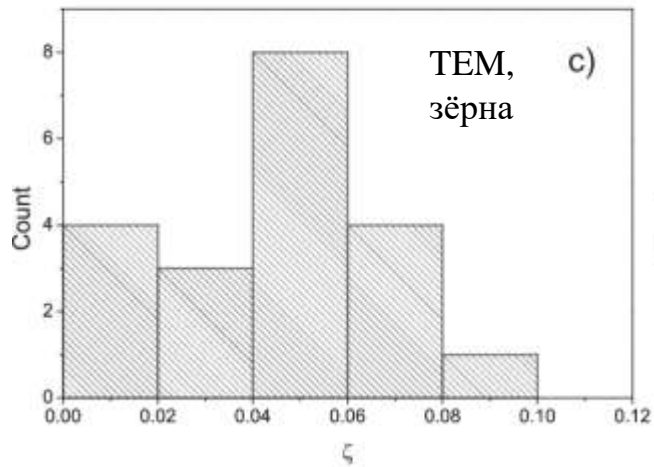
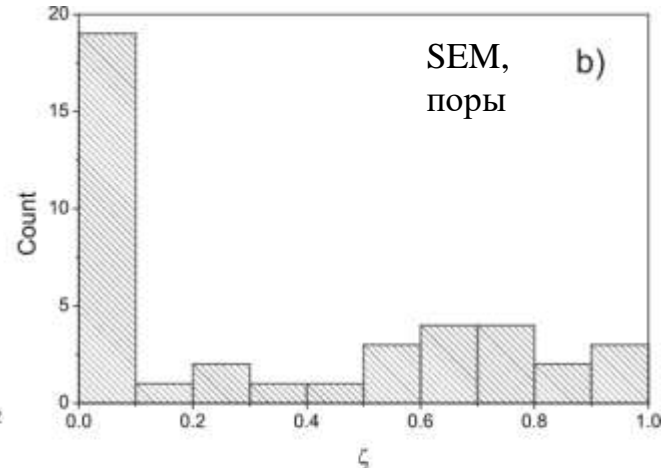
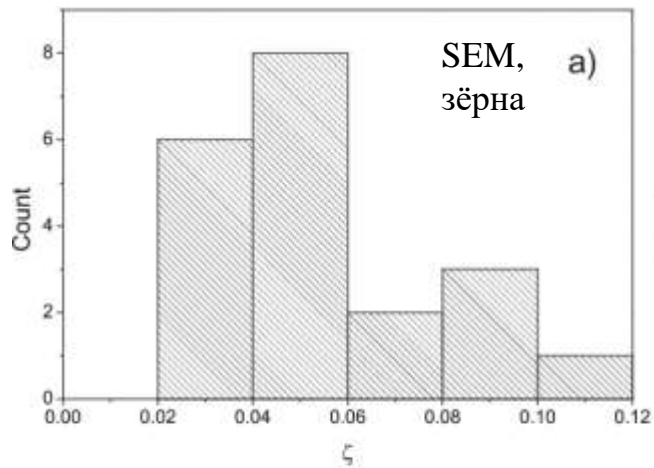
*R.N. Vasin et al. (2013)  
J. Geophys. Res.  
doi:10.1002/jgrb.50259*

Поры

Пирит

Слюда  
(illite-mica)

# Форма зёрен и пор



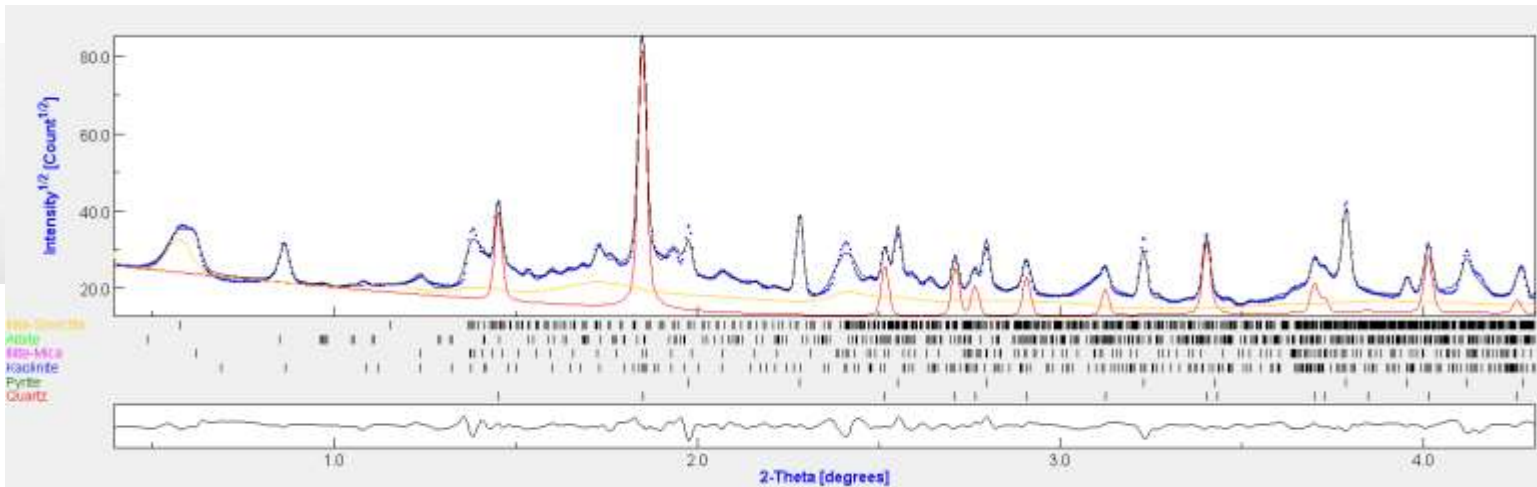
Распределения зёрен слоистых силикатов и пор по форме.

К сожалению, учитывать эти распределения слишком сложно; можно пользоваться некоторыми средними параметрами:  $\{1:1:0.05\}$  для зёрен,  $\{1:1:0.01\} + \{1:1:1\}$  для пор.

Плоские поры  $\approx$  параллельны плоским зёрнам слоистых силикатов.



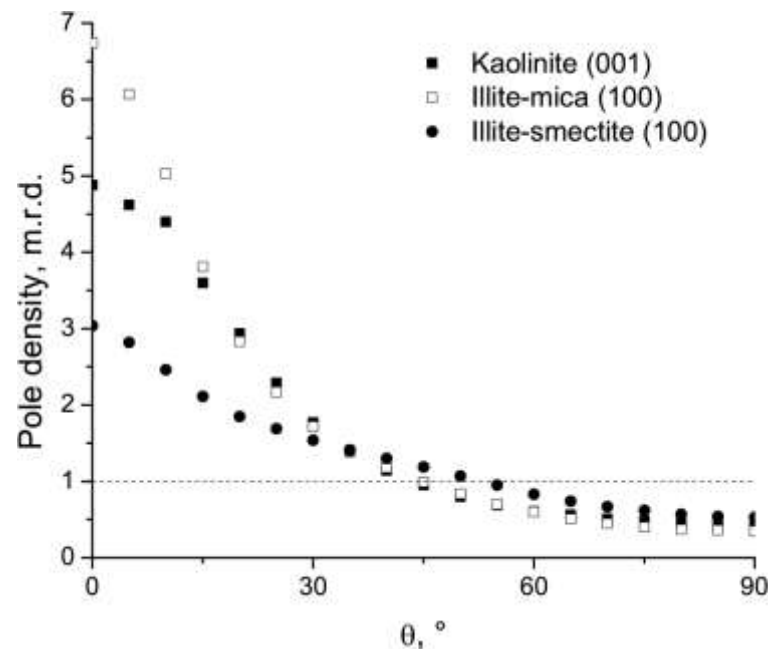
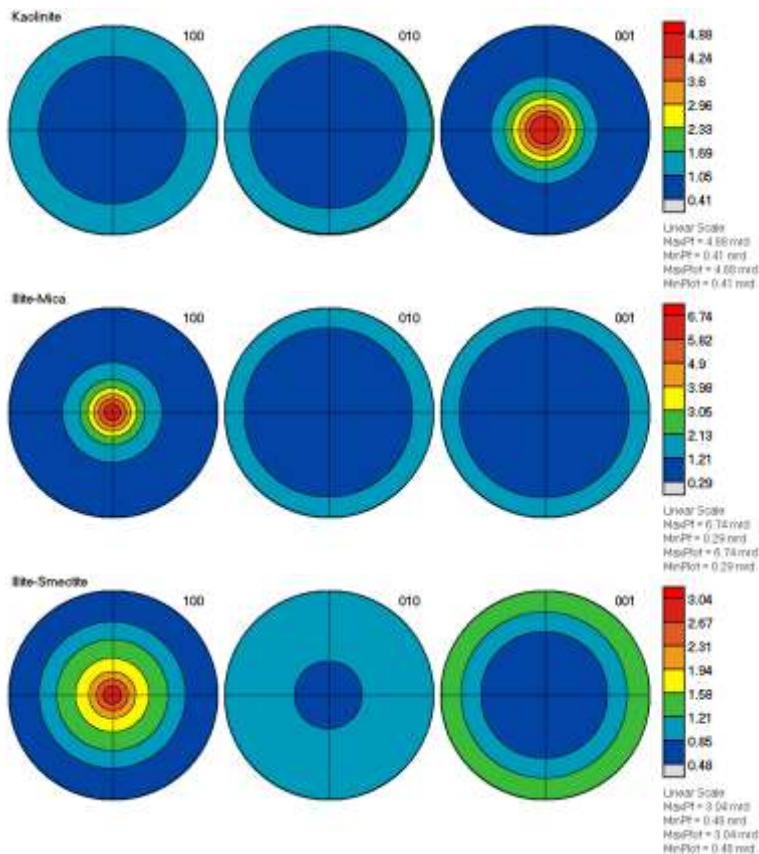
# Дифракционный эксперимент



Иллит-сметтит: турбостратный беспорядок

Mineral	Vol%	Wt%
Quartz	25.1	23.6
Albite	3.7	3.4
K-feldspar	-	-
Pyrite	4.4	7.8
Kaolinite	8.9	8.0
Illite-smectite	29.9	29.3
Illite-mica	28.0	27.9
Chlorite	-	-

# Дифракционный эксперимент: распределение зёрен минералов по ориентациям



Mineral	$f_{\min}$	$f_{\max}$	$F_2$	FWHM, °
Kaolinite	0.19	5.67	1.86	45
Illite-mica	0.25	6.74	2.09	36
Illite-smectite	0.42	3.04	1.26	57

Равноплощадные проекции на плоскость фоллиации.

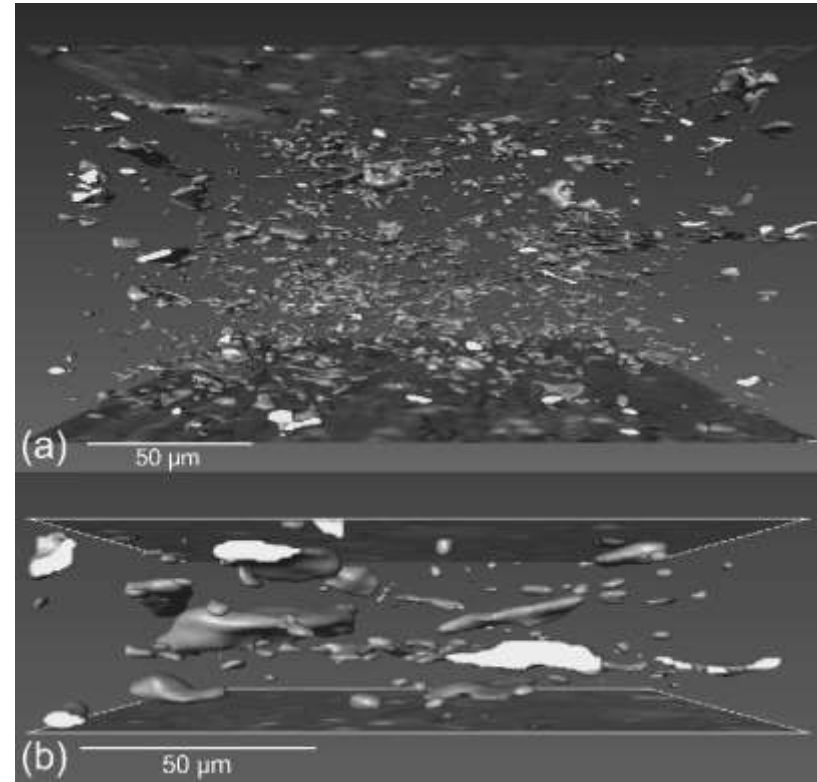
Текстуры аксиально симметричны, поскольку сформированы осаждением (sedimentation).

**Большие  $f_{\min}$ !** (Обычно считаются =0...)

Кварц, альбит, пирит – хаотическое распределение зёрен.

# Пористость?

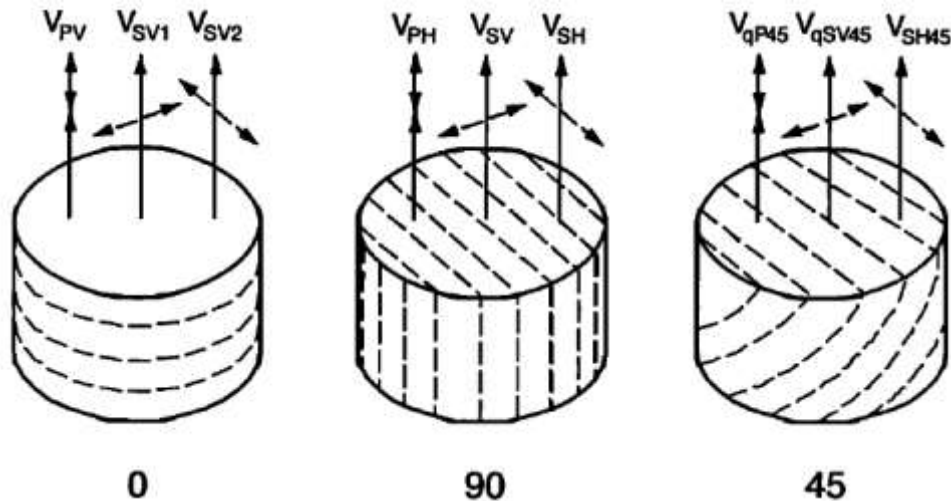
- [Hornby, 1998] – 2.5 об.% пор (замещение гелием) при атмосферном давлении, около 1.5 об.% при 80 МПа (оценка).
- Плотность при 80 МПа равна  $2.648 \text{ г/см}^3$  (не приводится в статье, получена из сопоставления скоростей упругих волн с упругими модулями); объёмные доли + плотности минералов дают плотность  $2.854 \text{ г/см}^3$ , т.е. 7.2 об.% ‘пустых’ или 11.1 об.% водонасыщенных пор.
- Синхротронная томография: 6.3 об.% включений с низкой плотностью (пустоты, флюиды, органические включения). Не учитывает поры размером менее 1 мкм, которые видны на картинках ТЕМ. Однако при повышенных давлениях по крайней мере часть пор закрыта (особенно ‘пустые’).



Для ‘пустых’ пор плотность = 0, упругие модули = 0.

Для водонасыщенных пор плотность равна  $1 \text{ г/см}^3$ , модуль объёмного сжатия = 2.2 ГПа ( $\approx$  такой же у нефти и органических включений).

# Скорости упругих волн в сланце: эксперимент



$$V_{PV} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{33}}{\rho}} \quad V_{SH} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{66}}{\rho}} \quad V_{SV1} = V_{SV2} = V_{SV} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{44}}{\rho}} \quad V_{PH} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{11}}{\rho}} \quad V_{SH30} = \sqrt{\frac{3C_{44} + C_{66}}{4\rho}}$$

$$V_{qP30} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{11} + 3C_{33} + 4C_{44} + \sqrt{C_{11}^2 + 12C_{13}^2 + 9C_{33}^2 + 16C_{44}^2 + 4C_{11}C_{44} + 24C_{13}C_{44} - 6C_{11}C_{33} - 12C_{33}C_{44}}{8\rho}}$$

$$V_{qSV30} = \sqrt{\frac{C_{11} + 3C_{33} + 4C_{44} - \sqrt{C_{11}^2 + 12C_{13}^2 + 9C_{33}^2 + 16C_{44}^2 + 4C_{11}C_{44} + 24C_{13}C_{44} - 6C_{11}C_{33} - 12C_{33}C_{44}}{8\rho}}$$



# Упругие константы сланца: модели

#	$C_{11}$	$C_{13}$	$C_{33}$	$C_{44}$	$C_{66}$	Remarks
A	56.2	20.5	36.4	10.3	18.9	$^{exp}C_{ij}$ at 80 MPa [ <i>Hornby, 1998</i> ]
C	56.0	16.3	36.3	10.6	19.2	GMS, 6.5 Vol.% pores

#	$C_{11}$	$C_{13}$	$C_{33}$	$C_{44}$	$C_{66}$	Remarks
G	48.4	16.4	27.3	7.8	17.0	$^{exp}C_{ij}$ at 5 MPa [ <i>Hornby, 1998</i> ]
J	46.3	12.9	27.6	8.3	16.0	GMS, 7.3 Vol.% pores

Плоские поры приблизительно параллельны зёрнам слоистых силикатов.

Из анализа ФРО слоистых силикатов и их объёмных долей получается, что 31.2 об.% слоистых силикатов хаотически ориентированы. Т.е. модельная ФРО для плоских пор должна иметь фон  $\approx 30\%$  + должна быть аксиально симметричная  $\approx$  гауссова компонента с шириной около средней ширины ФРО слоистых силикатов ИЛИ несколько острее, т.к. есть макроскопическая плоскость фолляции и связанные с ней трещины/мезо-поры.

Модель с 3.5 об.% плоских пор и 3 об.% сферических описывает  $C_{II}$  сланца при 80 МПа.

Модель с 4.3 об.% плоских пор и 3 об.% сферических описывает  $C_{II}$  сланца при 5 МПа.

В итоге, изменение упругих свойств сланца с глубиной, в принципе, описывается 1 параметром – количеством плоских пор.

Спасибо за внимание!