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Techniques to safeguard the Underground Tunnels against Surface Blast load
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$\overline{7}$ Abstract

8 Due to the growth of underground tunnels, the safety of structures under blast loading is 9 a major threat. Therefore, this paper focused on various techniques such as tunnel burial depth, 10 tunnel shape, tunnel lining materials and varying the location of the blast source to safeguard 11 underground tunnels against blast load using numerical analysis. The behavior of concrete, 12 reinforcement steel and the soil were incorporated by using the different constitutive model 13 available in ABAQUS v. 2020. The predicted results were compared with the experimental 14 results available in literature and found in close agreement. It is concluded that the layering of 15 soil filling and depth of the burial of the tunnel found to be most important in case of external 16 blast, whereas the stress bearing capacity of the concrete found to be important in case of 17 internal blast. It is also concluded that the circular shape tunnel is one of the best performing 18 tunnels.

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20 Keywords: Tunnels, Blast Load, Burial depth, Lining Materials, Tunnel Shape, Blast Location

 21

22 1. Introduction

23 The use of underground tunnels is getting common for various purposes to satisfy the 24 demands of increasing population. The underground tunnels are being used for the 25 transportation of various goods and commodities as well as for the movement of people from 26 one place to another. With increasing use and popularity, the underground tunnels are always 27 prone to the attacks by the enemies or natural calamities. Hence it is very important to predict 28 and evaluate the damage being caused to the underground tunnels, as an effect of blast loading. 29 Zhao et al. (2010) proposed a simple method for designing of concrete lining in tunnels $30[°]$ subjected to explosive detonation on ground surface or explosion of a projectile penetrating 31 into the ground located adjacent to the tunnel. The proposed method comprises of $32²$ shotcrete/rockbolt support system, based on the single degree of freedom approach, which 33 prevents the occurrence of spalling due to blast loads. The method follows a step by step 34 procedure and avoid the usage of complex numerical calculations. Yang et al. (2010) studied

35 the dynamic behavior of circular metro tunnel against surface detonation. It was observed that 36 the upper part is considered the most vulnerable in comparison to other parts of the tunnel 37 against the detonation. Also, it was concluded that, if a surface explosion contains less than 38 500 Kg of TNT, then a lining thickness equal to 350 mm is considered the safe for depths more 39

than 7m.
Xia et al. (2013) predicted the amount of damage to rocks and the reinforced shotcrete 40 41 lining structure by the influence of an adjacent excavation blasting, in Damaoshan highway 42 tunnel. It was observed that for the peak particle velocity less than 0.3 m/s, no failure occurred 43 in the existing tunnel and at the rocks-lining interface. Mobaraki and Vaghefi (2015) 44 investigated the effect of surface explosion on Kobe box shaped tunnel and compared the 45 results with that of semi ellipse, horse shoe shaped and circular tunnel. It was observed that 46 circular and horseshoe shaped tunnels show less resistance to demolition than box shaped 47 tunnel, however the semi ellipse tunnel shows more resistance than box shaped tunnel. Yu et 48 al. (2015) investigated on square and circular shape's tunnel responses against internal 49 explosion. It was observed that the maximum effective plastic strain response at the critical 50 points (i.e. at the structural corner of tunnel and center of top plate) of square tunnel are 51 significantly lower as compared to the circular tunnel. Tiwari et al. (2016) studied the damage 52 caused to RC lining as well as the rocks surrounding the tunnel subjected to internal blast 53 loading. It was observed that the rocks surrounding the tunnel experience higher stress due to 54 damage in RC lining. Higher attenuation of shock wave is shown by the rocks having high 55 weathering conditions and low modulus. Gao et al. (2016) observed a decrease in dynamic 56 responses shown by cylindrical tunnels in an oscillating manner, when the time elapses. 57 However, these responses attenuate exponentially by increasing the distance between the 58

explosion source and the tunnel.
 Khan et al. (2016) studied the tunnels made up of cast iron lining and subjected to 59 60 internal blast loading. The blast response of tunnels was found affected significantly by tunnel 61 lining thickness, peak blast pressure and soil and rock elastic moduli. The corresponding results 62 were found less affected by soil and rock dilation angle. It was recommended that in order to 63 create a blast resistant tunnel design, an increase in the lining thickness shall be viable option. 64 Dang et al. (2018) studied the damage caused to the concrete lining of an existing tunnel, due 65 to the blasting activities used for the construction of a new adjacent tunnel. It was observed 66 that the tunnel side facing the blast source undergoes greater damage as compared to the face 67 of tunnel away from the blast source. It was concluded that, more is the distance between the 68 blast source and the existing tunnel face, more is the safety of the concrete lining in the existing 69 tunnel. Hu et al. (2018) proposed a model to study the vibration response shown by concrete 70 segmental tunnel lining against internal blast loading acting axisymmetrically. During the 71 expansion deformation process, stiffness of the joint bolt plays an essential role. For the case 72 of contraction phase, all the compression effect is taken by the concrete segments. Majumder 73 and Bhattacharya (2019) studied the performance of intermittent geofoam infilled trench as 74 a passive vibration screening method for a reinforced concrete lining tunnel subjected to 75 internal blast loading. It was concluded that the trench installed with passive vibration 76 screening technique shall help in the reduction of blast waves causing ground vibrations.
Ambrosini and Luccioni(2019) studied about the propagation of shock waves in the soil

77 78 and the main phenomenon taken under consideration were formation of shock waves, 79 propagation of elastic plastic wave in the soil and interaction between soil and structures. It 80 was observed that the properties of soil play a major role to determine the propagation of shock 81 waves in the soil. However, the soil properties have an insignificant effect on the diameter of 82 the crater. Bettelini (2019) proposed a holistic approach to ensure the safety in underground 83 tunnel networks against risks generated by natural phenomenon (eg- gas radiation, temperature 84 rise, lack of oxygen) or human activities (eg- smoke, fire, terrorist explosions or structure 85 failure). It was observed that the safety proposals comprised providing safety barriers against 86 hazards and multiple protection layers to reduce the harm generated by hazards. **Vinod and** 87 Khabbaz (2019) compared the surface settlements and moments generated while boring of 88 circular and rectangular twin tunnels in weak ground. It was observed that, for weak grounds 89 and shallow depths, rectangular tunnels show lesser settlements in comparison to circular 90 tunnels. However, higher bending moments are produced in rectangular tunnels compared to 91 circular tunnels. Prasanna and Boominathan (2020) observed lesser damage in cast iron 92 tunnels as compared to RCC tunnels subjected to internal blast loading. The reason may be due 93 to the higher stiffness and density is possessed by cast iron tunnels than RCC tunnels. **Jagriti** 94 Mandal et al. (2020) found that 10% decrease in peak displacement in case of circular cross 95 section tunnel and it may be due to less reflected pressure waves were generated on circular 96 surface compared to box shaped and horseshoe shape tunnel. Liu et al. (2020) considered the 97 effect of blast load used for the construction of a new tunnel adjacent to an existing circular 98 highway tunnel named Huanglongshan. The peak particle velocity of the lining structure 99 present in the existing tunnel was studied. It was observed that the peak particle velocity value 100 was higher at the face located infront of the blast source as compared to the face placed behind 101 the blast source. Goel et al. (2020) carried out finite element analysis for comparison of the 102 damage caused to the tunnel and surrounding soil considering three different tunnel cross

 103 sections i.e. arched, circular and rectangular using 100 Kg TNT explosive for saturated and 104 unsaturated soil conditions. It was observed that arched as well as rectangular lining 105 experienced 29.56% and 50.31% more displacement compared to the circular lining on the top 106 node of the tunnel lining without any change in other parameters. Ata et al. (2021) studied the 107 effect of blast loading by considering the mass of TNT as 100, 200, 300 and 400 Kg. An 108 increase of 64% of kinetic energy was observed when the charge weight was increased from 109 100 to 400 Kg. Mandal et al. (2021) observed an increase in the displacement at tunnel roof 110 center by 94 and 324% by increasing the charge weight from 250 to 500 Kg and 1000 Kg 111 respectively.

112 **Zhang et al. (2021)** proposed a study based on andesitic porphyrite failure rule adopted 113 by the technique of open cut blasting in reservoir tunnel. It was observed by test results as well 114 as the numerical analysis that, blasting excavation through andesitic porphyrite proved to be 115 suitable for just 1-2 areas.

116 Based on the detailed literature review, it was observed that the investigations on the 117 evaluation of mitigation strategies on tunnels against surface blast loading are limited. Also, 118 the studies revealed that the influence of tunnel burial depth, influence of tunnel shapes and 119 influence of different tunnel lining materials subjected to external surface blast loading are 120 found to be limited. Therefore, this paper is focused on the prediction of mitigation strategies 121 of underground tunnels against surface blast loading using finite element technique, ABAQUS 122 Explicit software v. 2020. The concrete, reinforcement steel and the soil were modelled and 123 the constitutive behavior was incorporated using the model such as Concrete Damage Plasticity 124 Model, Johnson Cook Model and Drucker Prager model respectively, see Section 2 and 125 Section 3. The results in terms of acceleration thus predicted were compared with the 126 experimental results available in the literature, see Section 4. Further, the simulations were 127 conducted by varying tunnel burial depth, tunnel shape, tunnel lining materials and varying the 128 location of the blast source in order to estimate the mitigation strategies of the underground 129 tunnels, see Section 5.

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131 2. Constitutive Modelling

132 The constitutive model and the material behaviour such as concrete, metals and soil are 133 discussed in this Section. The inelastic behaviour of concrete was modelled by using Concrete 134 Damage Plasticity model, available in ABAQUS/Explicit. The Johnson-Cook model was used 135 to incorporate the elastic and plastic behaviour of steel reinforcement bars as well as lining

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136 materials of aluminium alloy. The Drucker Prager model was used to model the soil elements 137 are discussed here.

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2.1 Johnson-Cook model for Aluminium and Steel Reinforcement

140 Johnson-Cook elasto- viscoplastic material model, available in ABAQUS/Explicit v. 141 2020 is used to predict the flow and fracture behaviour of aluminium alloy and steel 142 reinforcement bars. The model is based on the criteria of associated flow rule and von Mises 143 yield criterion. The effects of thermo-elasticity, plastic flow, yielding, isotropic strain 144 hardening, strain rate hardening, softening due to adiabatic heating and damage are included 145 in this model. Various constants are used to define the Johnson Cook model, which comprises 146 of initial yield of the material, strain hardening coefficient, strain hardening exponent, strain 147 rate sensitivity and thermal softening parameter, denoted by A, B, C and m respectively. The 148 Johnson-cook material parameters for aluminium as well as steel reinforcement are given in 149 Table 1. This model can also be used along with some damage and failure models, due to the 150 provision of which certain damage initiation criteria can be specified. Further, a smooth 151 degradation of the material can be supported by the progressive damage models, hence making 152 the materials suited for dynamic and quasi-static situations. The elements possessing 153 displacement degree of freedom as available in ABAQUS software can support the use of 154 Johnson-Cook model.

155

156 2.2 Concrete Damaged Plasticity Model for Concrete

157 The inelastic behaviour of concrete is modelled by using concrete damaged plasticity 158 model, which incorporates both tensile and compressive behaviour of concrete. This model can 159 appropriately define the inelastic behaviour of concrete, based on the concept of elastic damage 160 in combination with isotropic expansion and compression flexibility. This model can be used 161 to define the behaviour of both reinforced concrete as well as plain concrete. This model can 162 be used to define the concrete behaviour, also with that of the presence of rebars to define 163 reinforced concrete. This model may help to define the behaviour of concrete, subjected to 164 monotonic cyclic or dynamic loading conditions under low confining pressures. The model can 165 also be defined, being sensitive to the strain rate. The two main failure mechanisms, including 166 tensile cracking and compressive crushing of the concrete material are assumed by this model. Two hardening variables namely ε_c^{pl} and ε_c^{pl} which are compressive and tensile equivalent 167 168 plastic strains, respectively control the evolution of the yield surface and are linked to failure mechanisms under tension and compression loading. The damage variable values can vary 169

170 from zero to one, where zero represents the undamaged material and one represents total loss

171 of strength. This model works on the principle of isotropic and linear damage of concrete,

172 which is subjected to arbitrary loading conditions. The stress strain relations under uniaxial

173 compression and tension loading are given by the following equations where E_o is the initial

174 (undamaged) elastic stiffness of the material: $\sigma_t = (1-d_t)E_o(\epsilon_t - \epsilon_t^{pl})$ and $\sigma_c = (1-d_c)E_o(\epsilon_c - \epsilon_c^{pl})$,

175 where d_t and d_c are tension damage variable and compression damage variable respectively.

176 The concrete damaged plasticity model parameters for concrete are given in Table 2-6.

177

178 2.3 Drucker-Prager model for soil

179 Drucker-Prager model is the simplification of Mohr-Coulomb model, where the 180 hexagonal shaped failure cone was replaced by a simple cone. The circular yield is possessed 181 by the Drucker-Prager model, which is equidistant from the center to the yield surface. The 182 yield area in this model consists of two main areas i.e. the fracture area providing the flow cut 183 and the cover, crossing the equivalent pressure. This model is based on Drucker Prager yield 184 criteria, which is used to detect if a particular material has undergone plastic yielding or not. 185 The Drucker-Prager shear criterion is considered as linear and Drucker-Prager hardening 186 behaviour was defined as compression, having yield stress versus absolute plastic strain. The 187 Drucker-Prager material parameters for the considered soil are given in Table 7. The cohesive 188 behavior such as normal stiffness, shear stiffness and tensile strength were taken as 315, 82 189 and 1 MPa respectively, which is defined as a contact property between tunnel and soil.

190

191 3. Finite Element Modelling

192 The modelling of the concrete, soil, reinforcement as well as acoustic infinite element 193 was carried out using ABAQUS/CAE v.2020. A 0.8 x 0.8 m internal clear square was 194 considered as the size of tunnel, taken exactly similar to the tunnel size as proposed by Soheyli 195 et al., (2016), see Fig 1. The length, width and height of the model was considered as 12.0, 4.0 196 and 4.5 m respectively. The thickness of the tunnel lining was considered as 100 mm. A cover 197 of 50 mm was provided on both sides of the tunnel wall. The geometry of soil, concrete and 198 steel reinforcement bars were modelled as solid deformable bodies, Fig $1(a)$ -(d). The tie 199 constraint option available in ABAQUS/CAE was used to provide interaction between concrete 200 and steel, wherein concrete was considered as the host region and the steel was considered as 201 embedded region. The Concrete Damaged Plasticity model and Johnson-Cook model parameters were defined to incorporate the constitutive behaviour of concrete and steel 202 reinforcement. The origin of blast produced by 1.69Kg TNT mass was considered by using 203

204 CONWEP model with AIR BLAST definition available in ABAQUS/CAE v.2020. A single 205 layer of main as well as transverse reinforcement were provided with 8mm diameter bars, with 206 100 mm center to center spacing, see Fig $1(a)$ and Fig $1(c)$. The strength and failure properties 207 of the steel reinforcement were provided as proposed by Borvik et al. (2001), providing a steel 208 section of 460 MPa, however the yield strength of steel reinforcement was 340 MPa, as taken 209 by Soheyli et al. (2016). The acoustic infinite element was considered as an acoustic medium 210 with bulk density of 1500 Kg/m³ and density of 110 Kg/m³, to define the exterior boundary of 211 the soil strata. ACIN3D4 elements were used in the present study to define the acoustic infinite 212 elements, that are used to define the outer boundary of the model to remove the requirement of 213 impedence type absorbing boundary conditions. A fake contact has been defined between the 214 soil outer surface and the acoustic infinite medium. The connection between the tunnel outer 215 surface and the soil was provided through a surface to surface contact between the two, 216 considering tunnel as the master surface and the surrounding soil as the slave surface. The 217 results thus obtained were compared with that of experimental results as proposed by Soheyli 218 et al., (2016).

219 A detailed mesh convergence study has been conducted, to study the effect of varying mesh size of the tunnel, under consideration on its behaviour towards the blast waves. The 220 221 mesh size of the tunnel was varied to 50 mm, 40 mm, 30 mm and 20 mm. Total number of 222 elements were 11520, 26800, 63973 and 191400 for the case of 50, 40, 30 and 20 mm mesh 223 size of the concrete tunnel, respectively. The results were recorded in terms of acceleration and 224 von-Mises stresses in the concrete tunnel for varying mesh sizes, as shown in Fig 2 and Fig 3. 225 It has been observed from Fig $2(a-d)$, that the acceleration value for various mesh sizes is 226 almost same i.e. 2.97 g. The variation of von-Mises stress values for various mesh sizes has 227 been shown in Fig 3(a-d). From the mesh convergence study, it can be concluded that 50 mm 228 mesh size is most suitable from computational cost point of view. Hence, 50 mm mesh size 229 can be used for further analysis. The total number of linear hexahedral element of C3D8R were 230 402888, linear line element type T3D2 were 28080, linear quadrilateral elements of type 231 ACIN3D4 were 1918, quadratic tetrahedral elements of type C3D10M were 5735 and the total 232 number of elements for the standard simulations were 438621.

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235 4. Validation of Finite Element Results

236 The simulations were carried out against 1.69 Kg TNT mass, placed at a distance of 4m 237 from the surface of the front wall. The constitutive modelling of the steel reinforcement and 238 the concrete was done by using Johnson-cook model and Concrete Damaged Plasticity model 239 respectively. The Drucker-Prager model has been used to predict the behaviour of the soil, see 240 section 2. The use of acoustic infinite elements was employed in order to remove the 241 requirement of impedence- type absorbing boundary conditions on the outer boundary. The 242 finite element modelling of the soil element, along with the RCC tunnel has been explained in 243 Section 3. The simulation results, thus obtained were compared with the experimental results 244 as given by Soheyli et al., (2016). Fig 4 shows the comparison between the actual and the 245 predicted acceleration of the tunnel. The acceleration in the tunnel was noted at the node which 246 was closest to the point of observation, taken in the actual experimental work. The numerical 247 results predicted the pattern of acceleration almost accurately, in the given time step. A good 248 agreement was observed between the acceleration values obtained from the simulation results 249 as well as the experimental results. In general, a maximum deviation of 20% was observed 250 between the actual and the predicted acceleration values of the tunnel. The simulation shows 251 good agreement with the experimental measurements at the final stage, for $t \ge 0.05$ sec. 252 However, at the early stage where $t < 0.05$ sec, it seems that the maximum deviation between 253 the experimental and numerical results is more than 20%, especially in the second and third 254 acceleration peaks. The reason may be due to the fact that the deviation between the parameters 255 of steel reinforcement bars considered in the model and experiment. Moreover, exact 256 parameters for the soil surrounding the tunnel were missing from the literature. Due to the 257 variation between the different parameters used, there is a deviation between the experimental 258 and simulation results. Hence, it was concluded that the present study successfully demonstrates the accuracy of the finite element models of the tunnel. 259

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5. Evaluation of Mitigation Strategies

262 The simulations were performed on important parameters such as influence of the 263 location of blast, influence of tunnel burial depth, influence of tunnel shapes and influence of 264 varying tunnel lining materials, in order to establish the mitigation strategies of underground 265 tunnels against external surface blast loading. The response of the tunnels was presented in 266 terms of acceleration and von-Mises stresses and the same is discussed in this section.

267

268 5.1 Influence of Location of the Blast Source

269 The simulations were carried out on a 4 m long Square Box shaped tunnel with 0.8x0.8 270 m clear square cross section and 100 mm thick tunnel lining, subjected to a blast load produced 271 by 1.69 Kg TNT, by placing the blast source at three different locations i.e. externally within 272 the soil strata at a distance of 4 m horizontally away from the tunnel front wall, internally at 273 the centre of the tunnel (internal blast), and surface blast at a distance of 0.25 m from the top 274 surface of the soil element, for total time period of 0.12 second. The tunnels were buried at a 275 depth of 1 m from the natural ground surface. The acceleration on the inner face of the tunnel 276 front wall against blast load of 1.69 Kg, for three different positions of the blast source, are 277 shown in Fig 5. The maximum acceleration was found to be 2337.3 g for the case of internal 278 blast loading, followed by 36.48 g for surface blast loading and 2.97 g for external blast 279 loading. It was also observed that the acceleration reaches its peak within 0.0288 sec from the 280 time of detonation for the case of internal blast loading. However, the peak acceleration was 281 found at 0.0096 and 0.0276 sec for the case of surface blast loading and external blast loading, 282 respectively. The reason for 0.0288 sec from detonation by internal blast loading may be due 283 to the fact that the peak acceleration caused by the reflected waves, whereas the peak 284 acceleration was caused by direct waves at 0.0096 and 0.0276 sec in case of surface blast and 285 external blast loading respectively.

286 The von-Mises stresses in concrete against blast load of 1.69 kg mass of TNT for different 287 blast positions is shown in Fig 6. In case of internal blast loading, the stresses in concrete were 288 found to be 8.09, 10.17 and 9.358 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. For surface 289 blast loading, the stresses in concrete was 4.24, 4.35 and 4.38 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 290 Sec respectively. Similarly, for external blast loading, the stresses in concrete were 1.31, 0.20 291 and 0.14 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 sec respectively. It is observed that the stress in the 292 chosen concrete tunnel was found to be in the range of 10.17-0.14 MPa and however the stress 293 bearing capacity of the concrete is quite high, i.e. 20 MPa. It is concluded that the strength of 294 concrete is more important in case of tunnel against internal blast loading.

295 The von-Mises stresses in soil element surrounding the tunnel against blast load of 1.69 296 kg mass of TNT for different blast positions is shown in Fig 7. In case of internal blast loading, 297 the stresses in soil element was found to be 0.59, 0.24 and 0.11 MPa at 0.0012, 0.0036 and 298 0.006 Sec respectively. For surface blast loading, the stresses in soil element were 2.06, 0.44 299 and 0.27 MPa at 0.0012, 0.0036 and 0.006 Sec respectively. Similarly, for external blast 300 loading, the stresses in soil element were 1.05, 0.55 and 0.25 MPa at 0.0012, 0.0036 and 0.006 301 sec respectively. It is observed that the sensitivity on soil against surface blast loading is 302 significant. Therefore, it is concluded that the layering of soil filling or depth of the burial of 303 tunnel are more important in case of tunnel against surface blast loading as well as external 304 blast loading.

306 5.2 Influence of Tunnel Burial Depth

307 In order to study the influence of burial depth of reinforced concrete tunnel, the 308 simulations on varying tunnel burial depth such as 1, 2 and 3 m were modelled against 1.69 kg 309 mass of TNT placed at a distance of 0.25 m from the top surface of the soil for total time period 310 of 0.12 second, see Fig 8. The acceleration on the inner face of the front wall RCC concrete 311 square tunnels at burial depth of 1, 2 and 3 m against surface blast load is shown in Fig 9. The 312 maximum acceleration was found to be 36.48, 6.22 and 1.5 g against 1, 2 and 3 m tunnel burial 313 depth respectively. It was observed that the burial depth of the tunnel is significantly reducing 314 the acceleration in the tunnel. It was also clearly seen that the acceleration reaches its peak 315 value within 0.0096 sec from the time of detonation in case of burial depth of 1 m. However, 316 the peak acceleration was observed at 0.0156 and 0.0312 seconds in case of burial depth of 2 317 and 3 m respectively.

318 The von-Mises stresses in the tunnel at varying tunnel burial depth against surface blast 319 load is shown in Fig 10 $a(i)$ -c(iii). At 1 m tunnel burial depth, the stresses in concrete were 320 4.24, 4.35 and 4.38 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. In case of 2 m tunnel 321 burial depth, the stresses in concrete were 2.25, 2.15 and 2.59 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 322 Sec respectively. Similarly, the stresses were found in concrete i.e., 0.72, 0.30 and 0.09 MPa 323 at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively at 3 m tunnel burial depth. Overall, it is observed 324 that the stress in concrete was found to be in the range of 4.38 to 0.09 MPa for the chosen mass 325 of TNT. Therefore, it is concluded that the burial depth of the tunnel is one of the important 326 parameter which affects the function of the tunnel against surface blast loading.

327

328 5.3 Influence of varying tunnel shapes

329 In order to evaluate the efficiency of the shape of the reinforced concrete tunnel. the 330 square box shape, semi-circular and circular tunnel were modelled against 1.69Kg mass of 331 TNT, placed at a distance of 0.25 m from the top surface of soil for total time period of 0.12 332 second, see Fig 11. The acceleration on the inner face of the tunnel front wall of different tunnel 333 shapes is shown in Fig 12. The maximum acceleration was found to be 36.48 g for square box 334 shaped tunnel, followed by 16.73g for circular tunnel and 9.56g for semi-circular tunnel. It was 335 also observed that the acceleration reaches its peak within 0.0096 seconds from the time of 336 detonation in case of square box shaped tunnel. However, the peak acceleration was observed 337 at 0.0096 and 0.018 sec in case of semi-circular tunnel and circular tunnel.

 The von-Mises stresses in reinforced cement concrete of different tunnel shapes against 338 339 blast load is shown in Fig $13(a-i)$ -(c-iii). In case of square tunnel, the stresses in concrete were

340 found to be 4.24, 4.35 and 4.38 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. In semi-341 circular tunnel, the stresses in concrete were 2.27, 2.42 and 2.67 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 342 Sec respectively. Similarly, for circular tunnel, the stresses in concrete were 2.20, 2.89 and 343 3.32 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. However, it was observed that the stress 344 in the chosen concrete tunnel was found to be in the range of 4.38-2.20 MPa. Among the chosen 345 cases, the circular tunnel offers better performance followed by the semi-circular and square 346 tunnel. The reason for better performance of circular tunnel is may be due to the curvature in 347 nature of tunnel. Therefore, it is concluded that the circular tunnel is one of the best performing 348 tunnel against surface blast loading, among the chosen cases.

349

350 5.4 Influence of Tunnel lining materials

351 The simulations were carried on Reinforced Concrete (RCC), Plain Concrete (PC) and 352 Aluminium lined tunnels against 1.69 Kg mass of TNT, placed at a distance of 0.25 m from 353 the top surface of surrounding soil element of the tunnel, for total time period of 0.12 second. The thickness of RCC, PC and aluminium lining was 100mm. The acceleration on the inner 354 355 face of the tunnel front wall with different lining materials against blast load is shown in Fig 356 14. The maximum acceleration was found to be 596.1 g for PC, followed by 36.4g for RCC 357 and 16.81g for aluminium. It is also observed that the acceleration reaches its peak value within 358 0.01092, 0.0096 and 0.0072 seconds from the time of detonation in case of PC, RCC and 359 Aluminium tunnels, respectively. It is concluded that plain concrete is least performing 360 material against blast loading among the chosen cases.

361 The von-Mises stresses in tunnel having different lining materials against blast load of is 362 shown in Fig 15 (a-i)-(c-iv). In case of PC tunnel, the Mises stresses in tunnel was 3.42, 3.51 363 and 3.56 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. In RCC tunnel, the stresses in 364 concrete were 4.24, 4.35 and 4.38 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 Sec respectively. In 365 Aluminium tunnel, the stresses in lining was 1.74, 1.99 and 1.61 MPa at 0.024, 0.036 and 0.048 366 Sec respectively. However, it was observed that the stress in aluminium tunnel was found to 367 significantly less as compare to PC and RCC. The reason may be due to the fact that the blast 368 resistance capacity of aluminium is significantly higher as compared to other materials.

369

370 6. CONCLUSIONS

371 This paper is focused on the prediction of mitigation strategies of underground tunnels 372 against surface blast loading using finite element technique. The present study has focused to 373 present the best possible measures to safeguard the underground tunnels against the effects of 374 blast waves. The mitigation of the tunnel damage against surface blast loading has been 375 proposed by providing suitable tunnel lining materials, tunnel burial depth and tunnel shapes. 376 Also, the variation in the tunnel damage intensity through different positions of the blast source, 377 are also discussed in this study.

378 The simulations were conducted on the underground tunnels against surface blast loading 379 studied considering the different location of blast, influence of tunnel burial depth, 380 influence of tunnel shapes and influence of varying tunnel lining materials. The response 381 of the tunnel was studied in terms of acceleration and Mises stresses and following 382 conclusions were drawn;

- 383 It was observed that the acceleration and von-Mises stress in the tunnel is significantly 384 higher for the case of internal blast loading as compared to the case of external blast 385 loading and surface blast loading. It is concluded that the layering of soil filling or depth 386 of the burial of tunnel are more important in case of tunnel against surface blast loading 387 as well as external blast loading, however, the stress bearing capacity of the concrete is 388 important in case of internal blast loading.
- 389 \bullet It is concluded that the burial depth of the tunnel is one of the important parameter which 390 affects the function of the tunnel against surface blast loading. Hence, more is the burial 391 depth of the tunnel, lesser damage would be caused to the tunnel against surface blast 392 loading.
- 393 It is concluded that the circular tunnel is one of the best performing tunnel against surface 394 blast loading, among the chosen cases. Also, it was observed that the square shape tunnel 395 experience the highest acceleration and Mises stress. Hence this shape of the tunnel is 396 most vulnerable against surface blast loading as compared to circular and semi-circular 397 shape tunnel.
- 398 It is concluded that plain concrete is least performing material against blast loading 399 among the chosen cases. The aluminium lined tunnel seems to be the best suitable tunnel 400 lining material among the chosen cases, as the acceleration and von-Mises stress is 401 minimum.
- 402

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522 Fig 3. Mises stresses in concrete tunnel at (a) 50mm (b) 40mm (c) 30mm and (d) 20 mm

mesh size

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Table 2 Material constants for concrete material [Senthil et al. (2020)]

Description	Numerical Value
Density (kg/m^3)	2400
Young's Modulus (N/mm ²)	19700
Poisson's ratio	0.2
Dilation angle	35°
Eccentricity(m)	0.1
K	0.66
$\sigma_{b0/6c0}$	1.16

Table 3 Concrete compressive behavior [Senthil et al. (2020)]

Yield stress (N/mm^2)	Inelastic strain
20.0	0
19.8	0.00015
19.6	0.00025
19.4	0.00035
19.1	0.00045
18.8	0.00055
18.5	0.00065
18.1	0.00075
17.7	0.00085
17.4	0.00095
17.0	0.00105
16.6	0.00115
16.3	0.00125
15.9	0.00135
15.5	0.00145
15.2	0.00155
14.9	0.00165
14.5	0.00175
14.2	0.00185
13.9	0.00195
13.6	0.00205
13.3	0.00215
13.0	0.00225

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Table 5 Concrete compression damage [Senthil et al. (2020)]

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Flow stress $\frac{\text{ratio}}{0.778}$