

INTRODUCTION

The Exploratory Studies Facility (ESF) is a 7.8-km-long tunnel being excavated by tunnel-boring machine at Yucca Mountain, Nevada (fig. 1), the site selected by the U.S. Congress for characterization as a potential repository for storage of high-level nuclear waste (U.S. Department of Energy, 1988). The ESF provides underground access and exposure to critical lithotectonic horizons for the purpose of geologic mapping and engineering and hydrologic testing. The potential repository is designed to be located in the Topopah Spring Tuff, the oldest formation of the Paintbrush Group of Miocene age (Sawyer and others, 1994). Additional units in the Paintbrush Group exposed in the ESF include the Palo Canyon Tuff, Yucca Mountain Tuff, and Tiva Canyon Tuff in ascending stratigraphic order.

Current requirements place the repository at least 200 m below the surface of Yucca Mountain in the unmineralized zone. Detailed mapping of the fracture network at Yucca Mountain is considered an essential element in the characterization of the potential repository because the network provides potential hydraulic and pneumatic pathways to and from the repository. Flow of fluid and gas through the fracture network depends, in part, on how well fractures are connected. Additional information on orientation, spacing, intensity, aperture, trace-length relations, lateral and vertical variability, and other physical characteristics of fractures in the network provides input for fluid flow and tectonic models of the site. Unfortunately, detailed fracture data such as those described above are generally difficult to acquire at Yucca Mountain because of a lack of exposure and (or) accessible outcrop on the surface or because construction and safety constraints in the ESF limit the amount of data that can be collected. The photogrammetric method used to produce this map eliminates some of these difficulties by reducing the amount of time required for data collection only, by providing the capability to analyze data from inaccessible exposures, and by allowing for the collection of detailed fracture data that can be impractical to collect using manual field mapping techniques (for example, collection of characteristics of fractures less than 1 m in length, the typical mapping cutoff used by many conventional techniques). Additionally, the photogrammetric method provides digital three-dimensional spatial and attribute data for Geographic Information System (GIS) analysis.

The geologic- and fracture-mapping program in the ESF consists of three components—conventional full-periphery projection mapping at a scale of 1:25, detailed line survey mapping within a 40-m-wide wall along a single rib of the tunnel, and close-range camera-to-object distance less than 300 m photogrammetric geologic mapping at a scale of 1:60. Conventional full-periphery projection and detailed line surveys are being done throughout the ESF, whereas close-range photogrammetric mapping is being done only at sites for which detailed geologic mapping is needed to address specific problems.

This map report presents data from photogrammetric mapping at one site located on the north ramp of the ESF between stations 3+60 and 4+25 meters (fig. 1). The site was selected for mapping because (1) it is one of the first non-obstructed (free of concrete and steel support) sections of bored tunnel that is accessible for use by the photogrammetric technique, and (2) the site is in the crystal-rich member of the Tiva Canyon Tuff, a stratigraphic position for which little detailed fracture data were previously available.

MAPPING PROCEDURES

The photogrammetric mapping method consisted of placing and surveying photogrammetric targets on the walls of the tunnel, photographing the walls using a medium (60-mm frame-size) format camera to obtain blocks of overlapping stereophotographs, and orienting the photographs to the targets by using a Kern DSR15 analytical stereoplotter. Once the photographs were properly oriented in the analytical plotter, three-dimensional line work and attribute information was collected. Attitudes² were calculated by using a least-squares adjustment and the generic equation of a plane to find the best fit of a planar surface to points measured on individual geologic features (Ducholn, 1979; Ducholn and Coe, 1989; Ducholn and Pillmore, 1989). ArcCAD GIS and EDPs stereographic software was used for data analysis. Additional details regarding the photogrammetric method and its application to structural analysis have been described previously (Coe, 1995) and will not be further discussed in this map report.

The mapping approach used was the inventory method (Davis, 1984), which entails mapping all geologic features observed at the site. In general, features with a single dimension (for example, length or width) larger than approximately 10 cm were readily visible and identifiable for mapping purposes. All visible contacts, faults, and point features, mineralized and non-mineralized cavities, vapor-phase partings, and bedding traces were mapped. Additionally, all fractures having trace lengths greater than about 15 cm were mapped. For each fracture mapped, the following information was recorded from stereo

observations: Fracture label, rib on which the fracture was observed, strike, dip, direction, strike error, dip error, planar-surface error, presence and type of mineral fill, maximum wall separation, planarity, and termination. Mineral fill was recorded as the occurrence of white, brown, or black minerals because accurate identification of minerals was not possible from the photographs alone. Additionally, any observable slickenside striations, offset relations, alteration rinds, gas tabules, or mode of formation (shear or extension) information were recorded. Trace length was not recorded as an attribute initially but was calculated later from digitized fracture points in ArcCAD. The errors on strike, dip, and the calculated plane were generated by the least-squares adjustment. These errors are representative of real errors in measurement and, more predominantly, of the natural deviation of the actual fracture surface from a flat planar surface.

The map is shown in a full-periphery projection (fig. 2), as viewed from the inside of the tunnel. The full-periphery projection uses the design dimensions of the tunnel (a 7.62-m-diameter cylinder) and projects the mapped data onto the walls of this theoretical tunnel by using the radius from the theoretical centerline. The projection can be viewed as if observed from outside or inside the tunnel (fig. 3). The inside view of the projection is the same as the view provided by the stereophotographs and is therefore most useful when comparing the mapped fractures to the photographs. A disadvantage of using the inside view for ESF data is that the view results in a map that has east to the left and west to the right, a condition opposite that of most plan view maps. The outside view is useful because it provides a similar perspective to that produced by a plan view map but also displays fractures mapped on the ribs of the tunnel. The outside view is used for conventional full-periphery mapping in the ESF. It should be noted that although the term "full-periphery projection" is used throughout the report, the projection does not include the floor (rib) of the tunnel and is therefore truly a three-quarters-periphery projection.

Although spatial data in this report are shown in the inside view, any of the projections shown in figure 3 are possible because the data are three-dimensional. Also, by linking the spatial data (line work) in ArcCAD with the attribute data (see enclosed tabular listing of attribute data), many different types of thematic maps can be produced from the data set. For example, a map could easily be produced of all fractures with strike values between 60 and 80 degrees and trace lengths greater than 2 m.

RESULTS

About 90 percent of fractures at the site have dips between 50 and 90 degrees and strikes that range from 120 to 260 and 310 to 70 degrees (fig. 4). Fractures with a component of dip to the west are more abundant than those with a component of dip to the east. There is considerable variability in the fracture distributions when subdivided on a unit-by-unit basis (figs. 5–9). The Tiva Canyon Tuff crystal-rich member ventic zone (Tpcrn3a), for example, contains roughly equal proportions of shallow and steeply dipping fractures (fig. 6). Additionally, the average strike of the major concentration(s) of fractures appears to change downsection into the lower part of the crystal-rich member, from about 193 degrees in unit Tpcrn3a, to 193 and 171 degrees in unit Tpcrn3b, to 160 degrees in unit Tpcrn2 (figs. 7–9).

Fractures with mineral fill or coatings make up about 11 percent of all fractures mapped (fig. 10) and have attitudes that are distributed roughly the same as the overall fracture distribution (fig. 4). Shear displacement was documented along about 3 percent of mapped fractures. Several percent of these shear fractures have strikes to the north-northeast, between 180 and 220 degrees between 340 and 360 degrees (fig. 11). Generally, fractures with shear displacement also contain mineral fill or coatings. The maximum amount of apparent dip-slip displacement along a shear fracture in the map area was 1.2 m. The average strike and dip of contacts in the map area was 8 and 18 degrees, respectively (fig. 12).

Seventy percent of the fractures mapped have trace lengths less than 1 m, and 90 percent have trace lengths less than 2 m (fig. 13). The distribution of trace lengths is consistent with a power-law distribution that decreases down to the 15-cm mapping cutoff. Median trace-length values show a positive correlation with maximum wall separation (fig. 14). The longer fractures therefore tend to have the widest wall separations, and the shorter fractures tend to have the narrowest wall separations.

The average fracture intensity ranges from 0.56 fractures/m² in the nonmineralized to partially welded siltstone of the crystal-rich member (Tpcrn3a) to 1.85 fractures/m² in the ventic to subventic siltstone (Tpcrn3b) (fig. 15). The percentage of abutting fracture terminations ranges from 11 to 26 percent (fig. 16). Surprisingly, the unit that contains the highest intensity of fracturing (Tpcrn3b, fig. 15) is not the same unit that has the highest percentage of abutting fracture terminations (Tpcrn3a, fig. 16), although this observation may be due to the fact that fracture crossings are not included in the analysis.

Shallow-dipping fractures are missing from within the detailed line-survey swath (fig. 17). Also, the distribution of trace lengths from the detailed line-survey swath (fig. 18) contains a proportionally lower number (49 percent) of short (less than 1 m) fractures than does the distribution of trace lengths from the entire map area (70 percent, fig. 13). These observations indicate that the detailed line-survey mapping method may be somewhat biased against short and shallow-dipping fractures.

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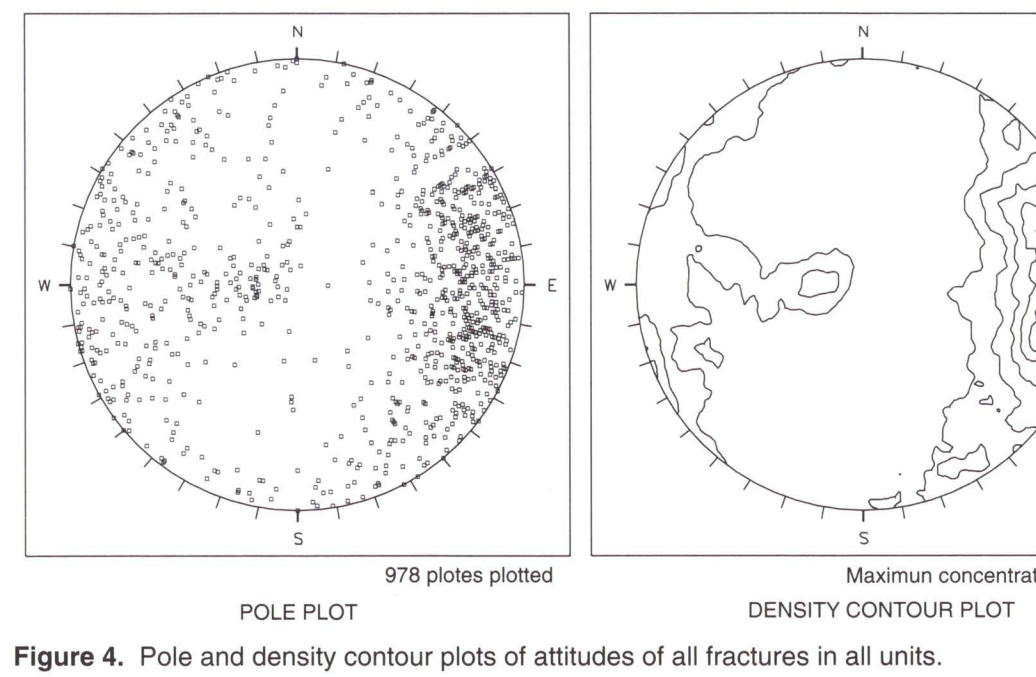


Figure 4. Pole and density contour plots of attitudes of all fractures in all units.

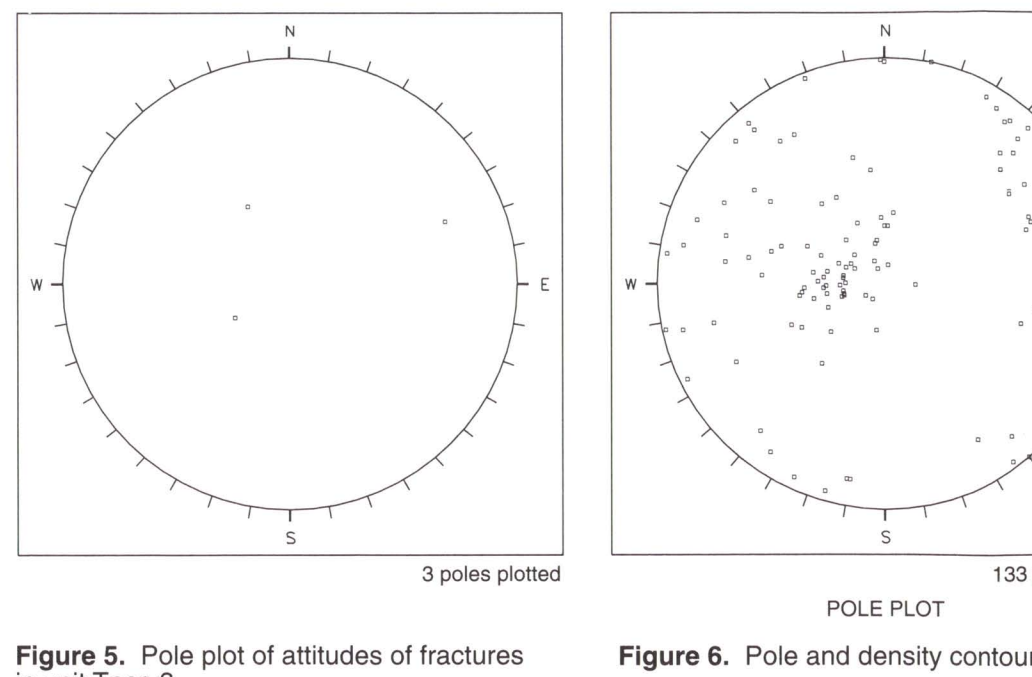


Figure 5. Pole plot of attitudes of fractures in unit Tpcrn3a.

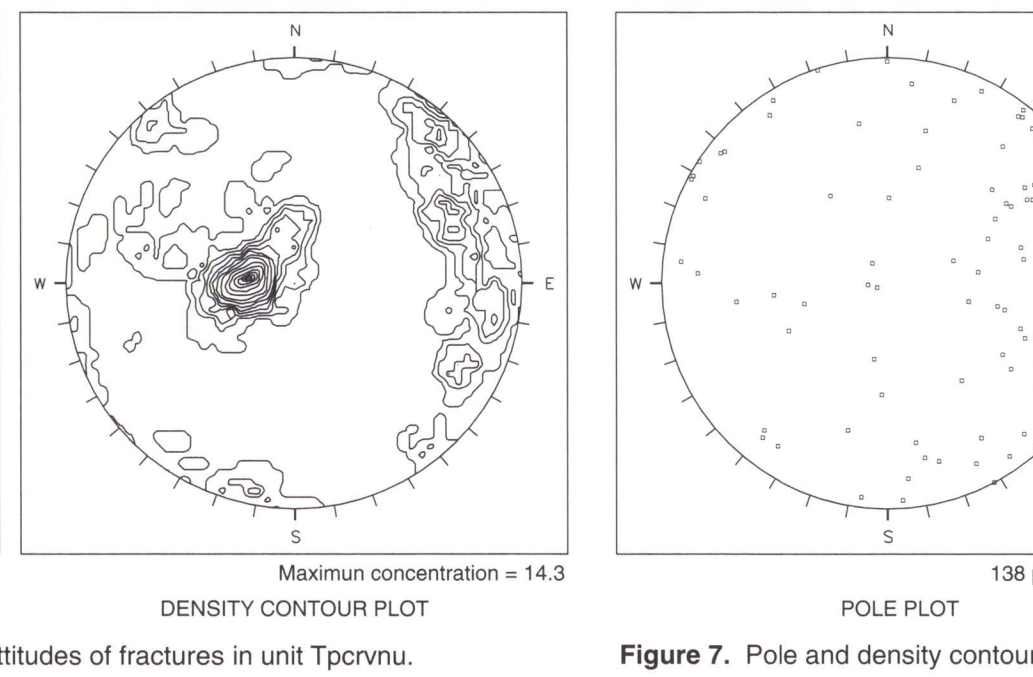


Figure 6. Pole and density contour plots of attitudes of fractures in unit Tpcrn3b.

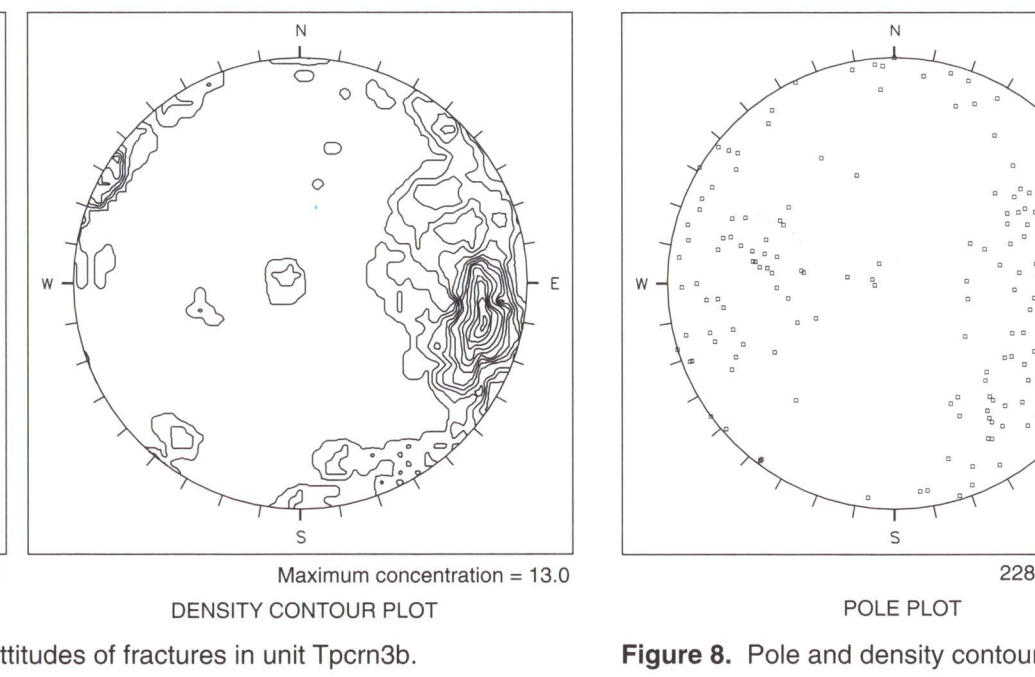


Figure 7. Pole and density contour plots of attitudes of fractures in unit Tpcrn3c.

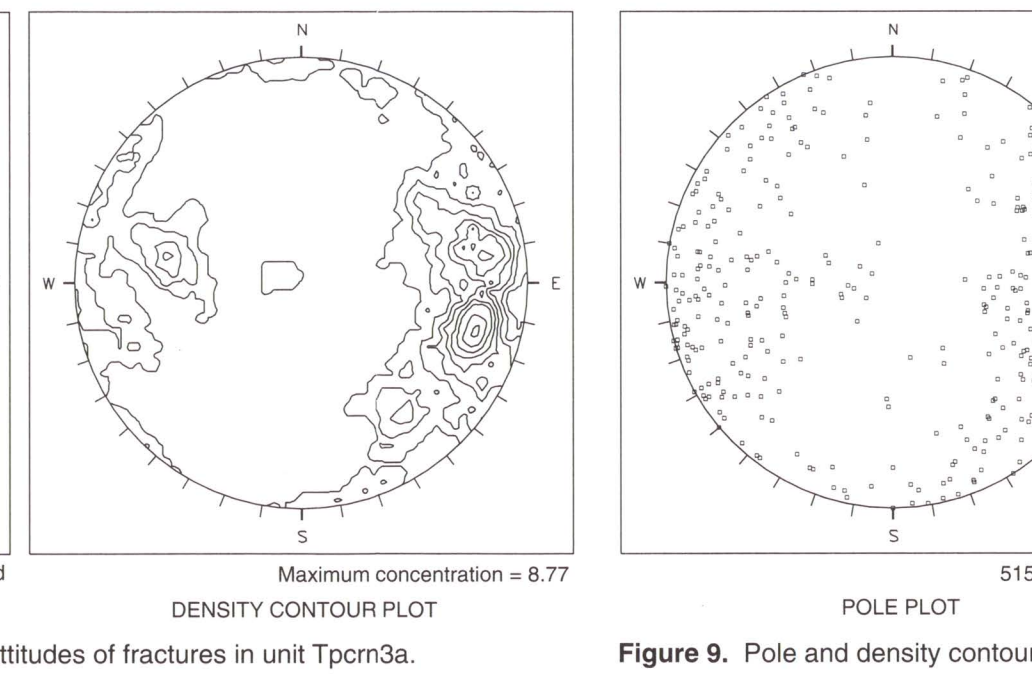


Figure 8. Pole and density contour plots of attitudes of fractures in unit Tpcrn3d.

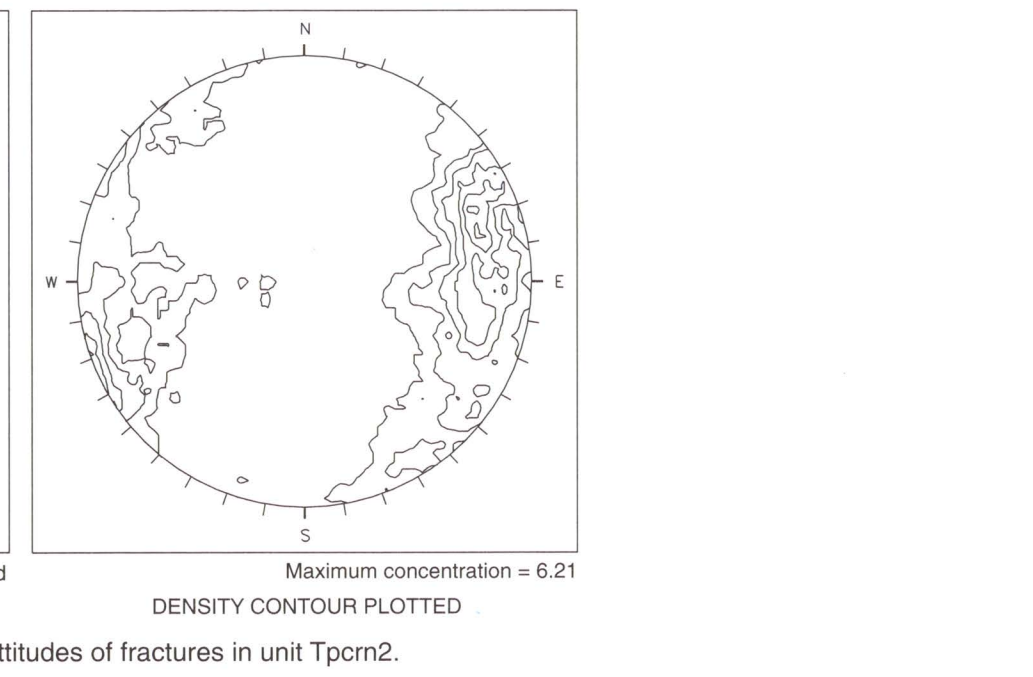


Figure 9. Pole and density contour plots of attitudes of fractures in unit Tpcrn2.

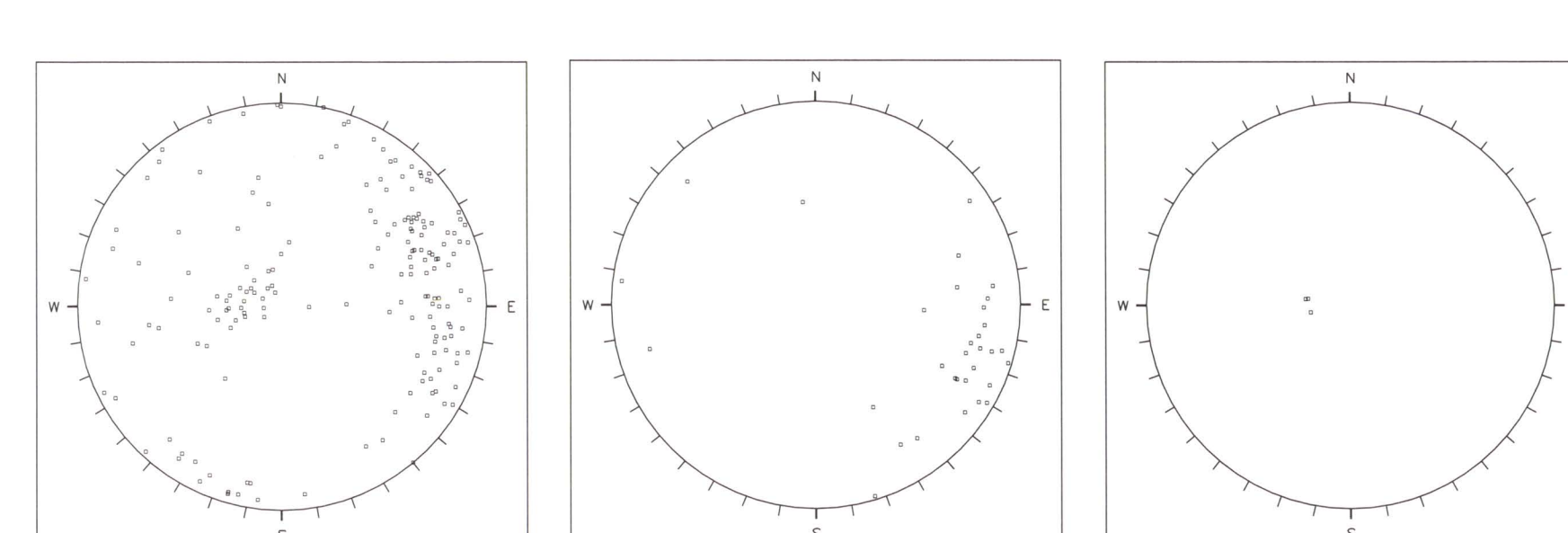


Figure 10. Pole plot of attitudes of fractures with shear displacement.

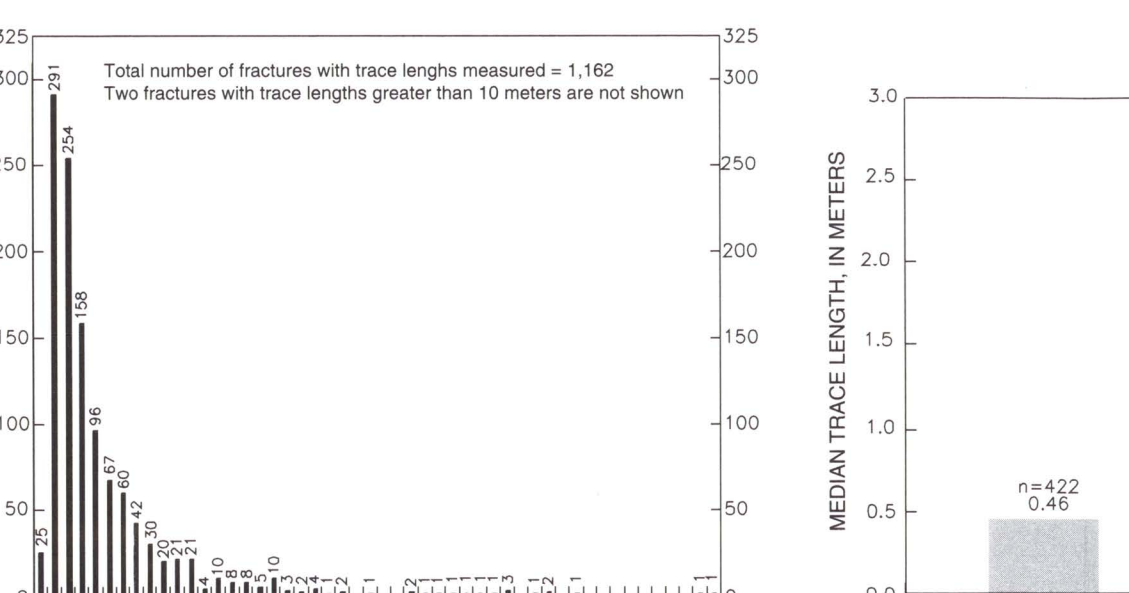


Figure 11. Pole plot of attitudes of contacts.

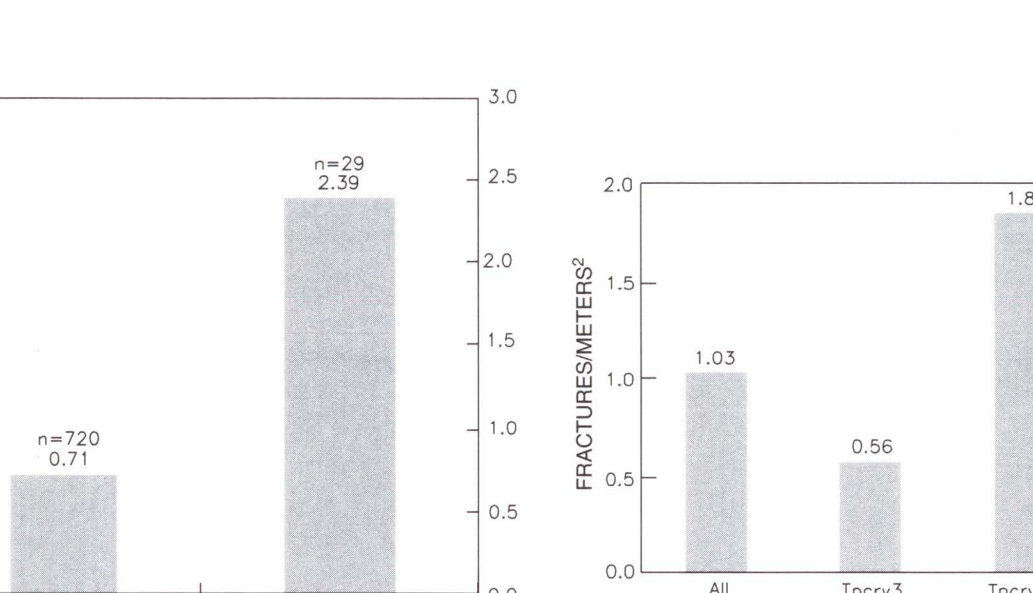


Figure 12. Pole plot of attitudes of contacts.

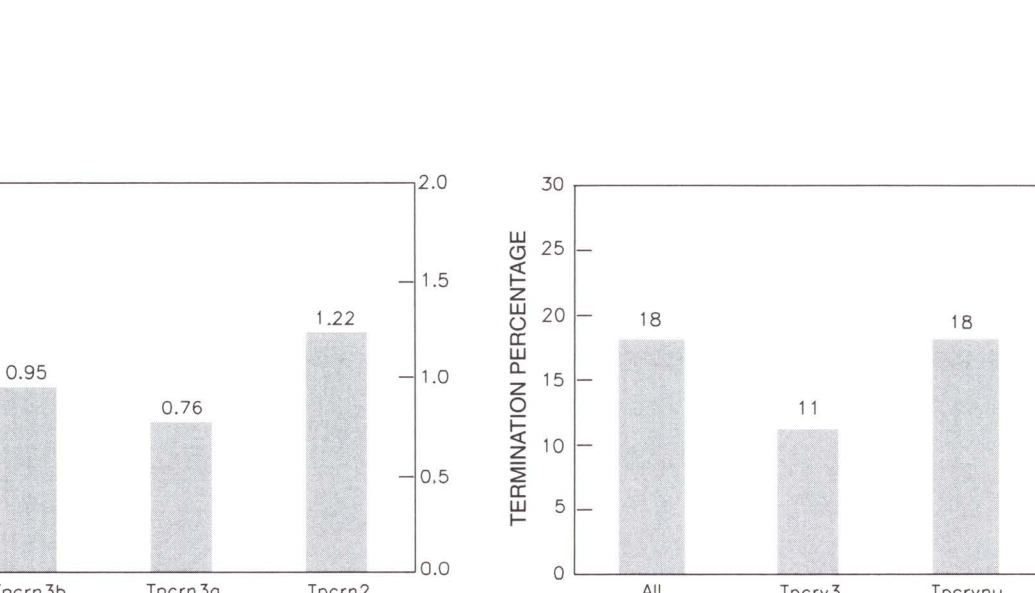


Figure 13. Frequency distribution of trace lengths of total fractures measured.

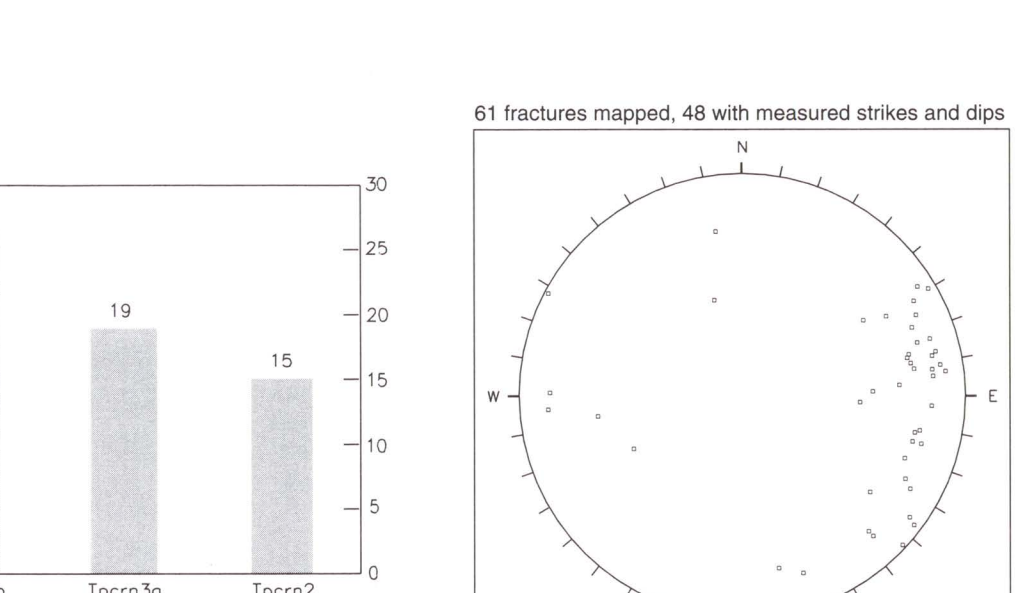


Figure 14. Distribution of median trace length as a function of wall separation.

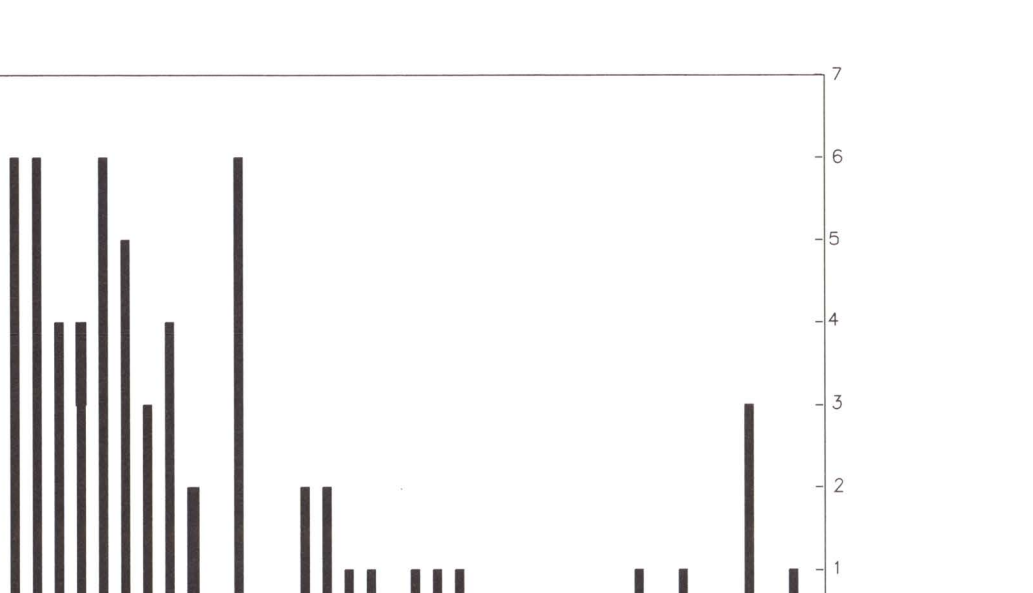


Figure 15. Bar graph of the number of fractures per square meter in each map unit.

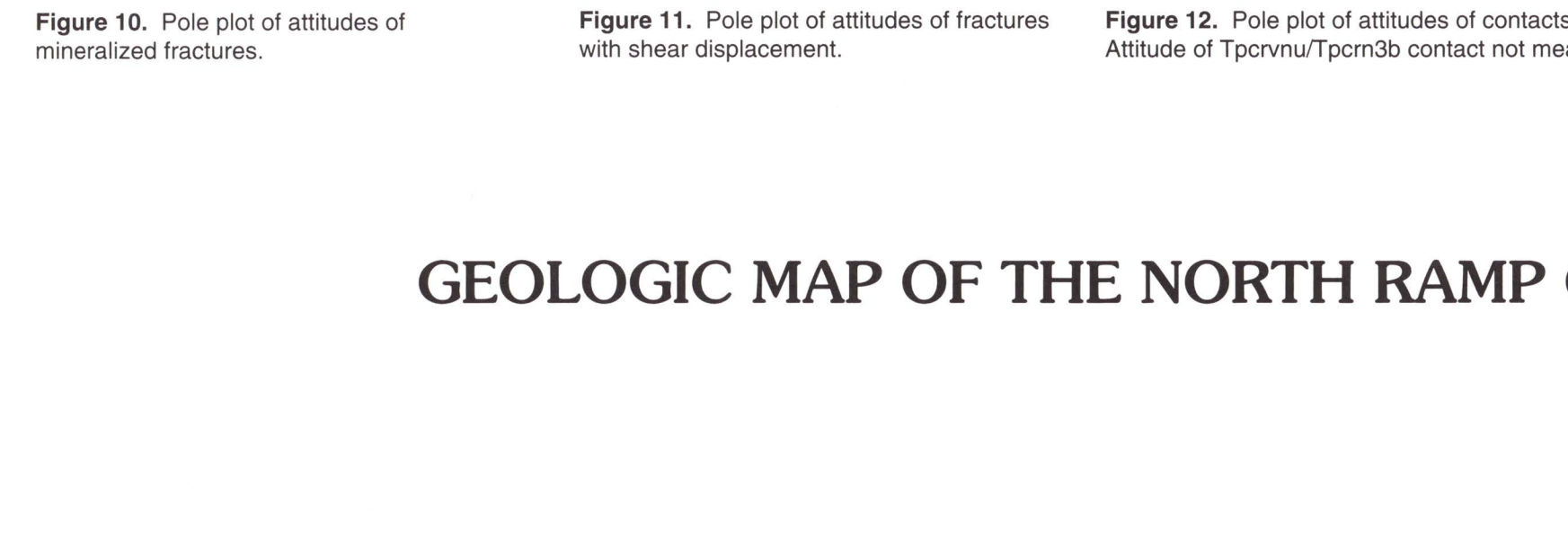


Figure 16. Bar graph of percentage of abutting fracture terminations in each map unit.

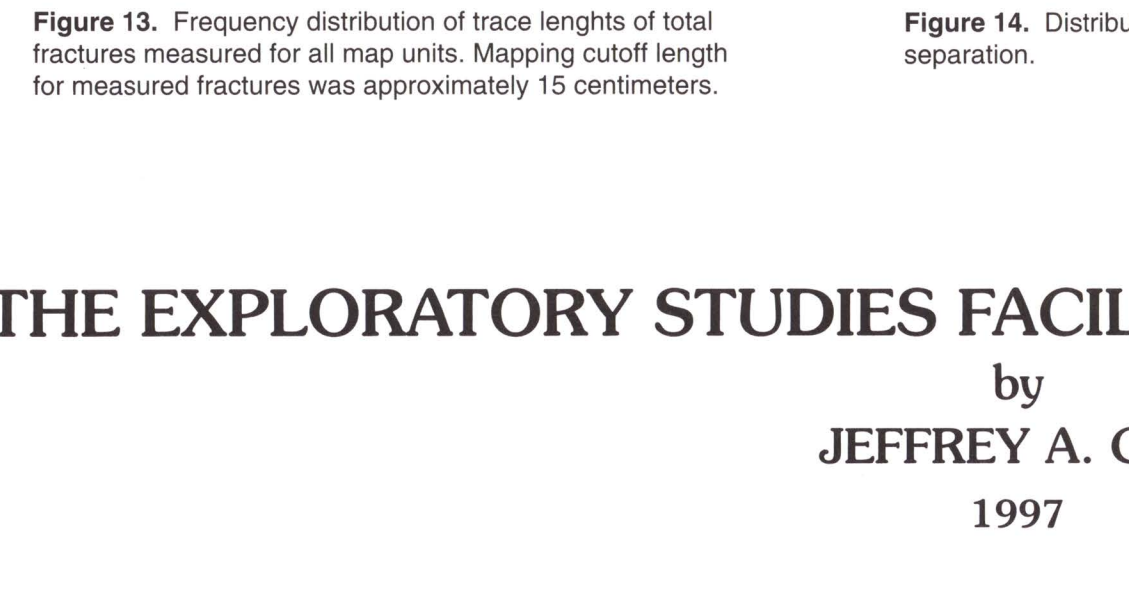


Figure 17. Pole plot of attitudes of fractures intersecting detailed line survey swath.

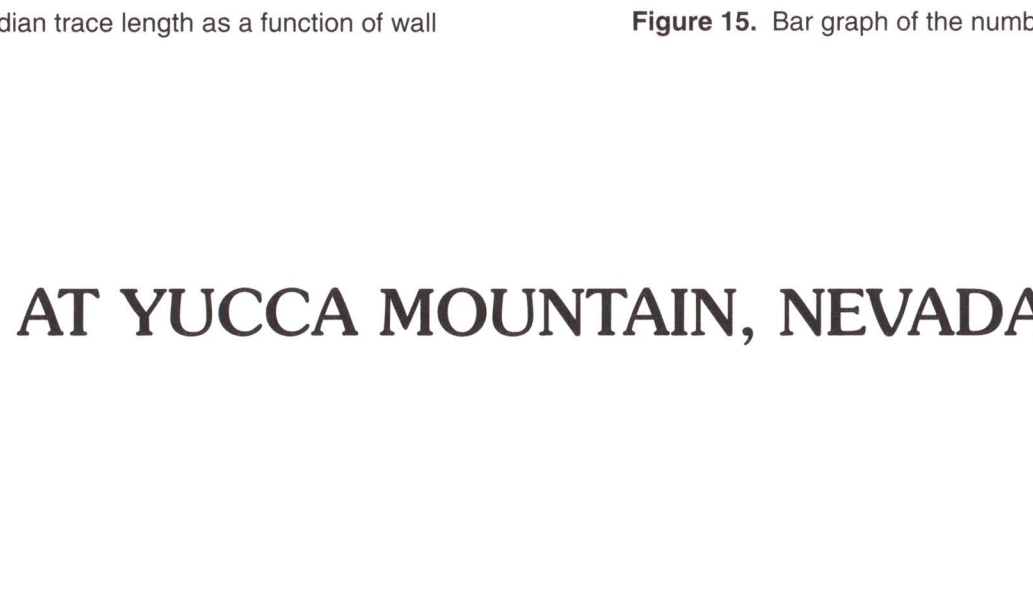


Figure 18. Frequency distribution of photogrammetrically measured trace lengths of fractures intersecting the detailed line survey swath.