Dynamically Modelling Rock Failure in Percussion Drilling

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ABSTRACT: Percussion drilling attracts the oil and gas industries for its potential to provide faster rate of penetration (ROP) than traditional rotary drilling, especially in hard formations. However, frequent mechanical failures, poor understanding and therefore control of drilling operations have limited its applications in the field. The objective of this research is to advance the fundamental understandings of the physical mechanisms involved in percussion drilling, thereby facilitating more efficient and lower cost drilling and exploration of hard-rock reservoirs. A geomechanical model is presented in this paper to simulate the percussion drilling process. The numerical simulation for rock failure is based on a Mohr-Coulomb model with strain-softening behavior, Rayleigh damping to dissipate excessive oscillation energy, and a fatigue/damage algorithm to update rock properties due to cyclic loading. Important mechanisms for rock failure during percussion drilling, such as aggressive tensile failure due to wave reflection at the rock impact surface, compressive failure due to high axial loading stress, and rock fatigue due to cyclic loading, are captured in the simulation. The insights gained from this study improve the understanding of percussion drilling, and may facilitate development of a simulation tool to better characterize this promising technology.
2. HOW PERCUSSION DRILLING WORKS

In conventional rotary drilling, as shown in Fig. 1, WOB first forces the drill bit cutters penetrate into the rock in the direction normal to the bit movement. Then, the cutters shear off a conchoidal chip of the penetrated rock as the bit rotates. There are two requirements for a rotary drill to advance through the rock: first WOB must be high enough to press the cutters into rock; and second, the cutters must generate and localize enough shear stress to break the rock, an issue related to rotation speed and cutter properties.

With high impact speed and short contact time, based on the Law of Conservation of Momentum, the drill bit in percussion drilling can produce much higher impact force along the direction of bit movement (Fig. 1). When the force exceeds rock compressive strength, it crushes the rock below the bit and creates fractures forming a narrow wedge along the outer boundaries of the bit inserts. The cratered zone may extend to a depth several times greater than the actual depth of bit penetration [9].

A condition for percussion drilling is accelerating the drill bit to an impact speed high enough to overcome rock strength. Another consideration is cuttings removal and transport. Failed rock needs to be removed as quickly as possible so that a fresh rock surface is available for the next impact. Otherwise most of the percussive energy will dissipate by rock fragment attrition instead of contributing to penetration. For air hammer, both acceleration and the efficiency of cuttings removal become insufficient as depth becomes large. Mud hammers therefore have greater potential for drilling into deeper and harder formations.

3. MODELLING EFFORTS

To investigate the rock deformation and failure during percussion drilling, a 3D numerical model was developed with aid of a commercial stress code [13]. The simulation includes a Mohr-Coulomb type strain-softening model, Reyleigh damping to dissipate excessive oscillation energy, criteria to describe when and how rock experiences failure, and a fatigue/damage algorithm to update rock properties alteration (e.g. cohesive strength and tensile strength changes) as the result of cyclic loading. Disintegrated rock is assumed to be removed immediately after failure.

3.1. 3D Model configuration

Figure 3 presents the model configuration. It is a square cross-section area with a side length of 1.5 m and a total height of 3 m. The vertical borehole has a total depth of 0.5 m and a diameter of 0.178 m. The applied boundary conditions are a constant lateral confinement of 12.5 MPa, an overburden stress of 15 MPa and a fixed displacement boundary condition at the bottom surface. The hammer impacts the rock at the borehole bottom with a maximum speed of 5m/s and it lasts 3×10^-4 sec for each of 5 impacts. Table 1 lists the inputs used in the 3D configuration.

![Fig. 3. Simulation configurations in 3D percussion drilling.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Inputs for 3D simulation of percussion drilling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model Size</strong>(X×Y×Z)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wellbore diameter</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Confining stress</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overburden pressure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peak impact velocity</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of impacts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cycle period</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Material model

The material is a hard rock with strain-softening behavior. Its peak strength is defined by Mohr-Coulomb criteria:

\[ \sigma_1 - \frac{1 + \sin(\phi)}{1 - \sin(\phi)} \sigma_3 - \frac{2 \cos(\phi) c_o}{1 - \sin(\phi)} = 0 \]  

where \( \sigma_1 \) and \( \sigma_3 \) are maximum and minimum principal compressive stresses, \( c_o \) is cohesive strength, and \( \phi \) is the friction angle. Rock properties are summarized in Table 2. The relationship between strength and strain is specified in Table 3.

The rock behavior upon loading, i.e., stress-strain curve, is plotted in Fig. 2 for \( \sigma_3 = 12.5 \) MPa.

Table 2. Rock properties applied in the model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rock Density</td>
<td>2.25 (g/cm³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulk Modulus</td>
<td>12 (GPa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shear Modulus</td>
<td>7.25 (GPa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compressive Strength</td>
<td>10.24 (MPa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction Angle</td>
<td>30 (degrees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensile Strength</td>
<td>1.2 (MPa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatigue Coefficient, a</td>
<td>0.9987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatigue Coefficient, b</td>
<td>-0.0313</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Softening table for strength and friction angle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plastic strain</th>
<th>Cohesion (MPa)</th>
<th>Friction angle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4x10⁻²</td>
<td>9.86</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6x10⁻⁴</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x10⁻⁵</td>
<td>8.52</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2x10⁻³</td>
<td>8.06</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3. Failure models

Before further discussion of the failure model, it is necessary to clarify two terms that are often misused: rock yield and failure. Yield refers to a process of accumulation of shear bands or microfissures developed as rock starts to gradually lose its ability to support load, whereas failure means collapse and total loss of strength.

Three rock failure criteria are applied. Failure can occur due to 1) excessive compressive strain; 2) excessive tensile stress; and 3) excessive plastic shear strain. The rock is assumed to completely lose its ability to support further loading after failure.

A critical compressive strain is proposed to describe when rock fails due to excessive compressional strain in loading direction:

\[ \varepsilon_{zz} > \bar{\varepsilon}_z \]  

where \( \varepsilon_{zz} \) is calculated compressional strain in loading direction, and \( \bar{\varepsilon}_z \) is the critical strain value determined from lab testing. In the model \( \bar{\varepsilon}_z = 0.006 \) is used.

For plastic shear strain failure,

\[ \varepsilon_{ps} > \bar{\varepsilon}_{ps} \]  

where \( \varepsilon_{ps} \) is calculated plastic shear strain and \( \bar{\varepsilon}_{ps} \) is determined from lab testing.

For tensile failure,

\[ \sigma_1 > \sigma_T \]  

where \( \sigma_1 \) is the maximum principal stress and \( \sigma_T \) is the critical tensile strength determined from lab testing or suitable correlations. This type of failure most likely occurs during bit retreat when the compressive stress wave is reflected in tension, a significant case if there is not enough Bottom Hole Pressure (BHP), such as in drilling with an air hammer. This case is investigated in this study.

3.4. Fatigue/damage model

Rock may become weakened after cyclic loadings even if the loading stress is substantially below its peak strength defined in Eq. (1). This has been studied in petroleum geomechanics as “rock fatigue” (e.g. [11, 12]), while rock damage may result from both strain-weakening process and fatigue. To simulate fatigue in percussion drilling, an algorithm is applied to update both rock cohesive strength and tensile strength at the end of each loading-unloading cycle, providing that the loading stress reaches 75% of rock peak strength [12],

\[ y = a x^b \]  

where \( x \) is number of cycles, and \( y \) is the ratio of rock peak strength to initial strength. Values of two coefficients, listed in Table 1, are determined from lab experiments or suitable correlations.
3.5. Damping
When a stress wave passes through rock, part of its energy is lost as a result of internal friction. Rayleigh damping is applied in this research, and the two parameters in the algorithm are a critical wave frequency related to rock mass and modulus, and a damping ratio describing how much range of the frequency can be efficiently damped [13].

4. SIMULATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS
4.1. Model inputs and simulation outline
In addition to parameters listed in Table 1 and 2, a stress wave input as a dynamic loading condition is also needed. The time-dependent impact velocity on the first rock element is defined as

\[ v = v_{\text{max}} \sin \left( \frac{2\pi}{T} t \right) \]  

where \( v_{\text{max}} \) is the maximum impact velocity and \( T \) is the cycle period. Their values are listed in Table 1.

Upon receiving the impact, rock will deform elastically first and then elastoplastic after the stress exceeds rock strength. As soon as rock failure occurs, as determined by the three failure criteria, failed elements will be removed as cuttings and the remaining impact will continue to load on the next stable element adjacent to the failed ones. After each cycle of impact, rock properties such as cohesive strength and tensile strength will be updated for those unfailed elements.

4.2. Rock fatigue and damage
To focus on rock fatigue and damage, we can disable rock failure and removal. Fig. 4 shows how cohesive and tensile strength of the first rock element that hammer impacts (i.e. the element at the borehole bottom). Generally both strengths decrease with number of cycles. There is, however, a sharp drop in cohesive strength after the first impact. This is because the element has experienced strain-weakening during its elastoplastic deformation, which affects rock cohesive strength in a way defined in Table 2.

4.3. Effect of damping
The rock damping effect on stress wave propagation is now explored. Figs 6, 7, 8 demonstrate velocity evolution for the first impacted element under the conditions of large damping (60% of the critical frequency is absorbed), small damping (20% of the critical frequency is absorbed), and no damping, respectively. After being applied to rock surface for \( 3 \times 10^{-4} \) sec in a sine form, the impact is removed while hammer retreats.

![Fig. 5. Rock damage propagation with cyclic loading.](image)

![Fig. 6. Rock vertical velocity at the impact surface (large damping, 60%).](image)

![Fig. 4. Rock fatigue and damage with cyclic loading.](image)
With more vibration energy being absorbed, the magnitude of reflected waves becomes smaller, and the oscillation diminishes more quickly. Damping parameters must therefore be selected carefully so that simulation results can closely replicate rock behavior.

### 4.4. Rock failure and bit advancement

After implementing rock failure model and selecting appropriate damping features, the bit advance with 5 cycles of hammer impacts is simulated and plotted (Fig. 9). Each jump of the curve indicates a removal of a failed rock element.

The velocity profile of elements close to the impact surface is plotted in Fig. 10. Each curve represents one rock element close to the impact. The discontinuity of some curves is because the failed elements that the curves correspond to are removed. The sudden jump of the velocity profiles accounts for the effect that after an element has failed, the hammer velocity is immediately transferred to the next adjacent element since cuttings removal from the failed surface is assumed to be instantaneous.

Along with profiles of rock stress and deformation and history of bit advancement, another output is a file documenting rock failure history, as shown in Fig. 11. Most of the failed rock elements are due to compression during hammer-rock impact. However, there are quite a few elements have experienced failure in tension during hammer retreat and wave reflection.
4.5. Limitations and further development

While significant efforts have been made to address main critical issues in percussion drilling process, some simplifications have also been taken:

- The model does not account for bit rotation, which results in efficient indexing. As long as some elements are failed, the layer at the same depth as the failed elements is to be removed under the impact surface; this leads to overestimation of results, such as ROP;
- The model does not account for fluid flow, which takes time to clean the hole bottom. The removal of failed elements is assumed to be instantaneous, which is another contributor to overestimation of ROP. This, however, can be relaxed by extending period of the percussion cycle;
- The model does not account for shape and size of the cutter. The impact forces/velocities are imposed on the first rock layer of the rock-bit contact surface. However, bit shape and size can be considered by the introduction of an impact force/velocity function to portions of the first layer, instead of the whole layer.

Nevertheless, the model developed, to the authors’ knowledge, is the first numerical attempt to simulate a true 3D percussion drilling process based on sound physics. It can be used to further investigate and understand rock mechanics aspects of percussion drilling, such as the effect of BHP on the drilling process. It also can be used to select and optimize operating parameters to maximum ROP under specified conditions.

A set of full-scale laboratory hammer tests are now under way. The purpose of the tests is to verify the physics and mechanisms described in the theoretical models, and also to validate the simulation development. The full-scale tests will allow us to better understand the values of the parameters used in the model, and therefore to select more reasonable values for field drilling work.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Despite being an attractive technology for stiff brittle rocks, applications of percussion drilling in the oil and gas industries have been restrained by poor understanding of percussion drilling mechanisms. To model percussion drilling, we used a Mohr-Coulomb type material model with strain-softening behavior, failure models to describe when and how rock fails, a Rayleigh damping feature to dissipate excessive oscillation energy, and a fatigue/damage algorithm to update rock properties due to cyclic loading. The hammer effect was simulated with a sine wave of impact velocity. In this way, dynamic modeling of rock failure under a repetitive loading pattern was achieved.

The numerical simulations generate three outputs, a plot of failure advancement, a history of rock failure, and a history of rock fatigue/damage. The rock failure history describes when and how many rock elements have failed and what type of failure they have experienced, while the rock fatigue/damage history demonstrates how rock fatigue and damage develop and evolve as a result of repeated impacts.

These studies have already advanced fundamental understanding of the physical mechanisms involved in percussion drilling. After calibrations with a set of full-scale hammer tests, the simulation tool may
facilitate the study of more efficient and lower cost drilling methods for penetration of hard, brittle rocks that are drilled in the search for oil and gas resources. Of course, percussion drilling is used in other industries such as mining and rock excavation.

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REFERENCES


