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STRESS ANALYSES OF LONGWALL AND SHORTWALL
FACES USING POWERED SUPPORTS

PLEASE RETURN AS SOON
AS POSSIBLE AND NOT
LATER THAN TWO WEEKS.

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Introduction

In the past few years, the numbers of underground coal mines in this country using longwall mining method have been dramatically increased. In the latest count there are approximately 90 longwall faces amounting roughly 8% of the total underground production. Meanwhile, shortwall mining adapting longwall powered supports to coal mining and handling systems in room and pillar mining is also gaining importance in the Appalachian coal field. Although there are only 7 operating shortwall faces so far, indications are that it will be increasing steadily.

check.

Modern longwall faces are highly mechanized and productive. One of these key elements that contribute to the success of modern longwall mining is self-advanced powered supports. There are several types of powered supports. Frame type is two sets of one to four hydraulic legs supporting beam-type roof canopy and floor base. However, chock type is more popular and connected to broad roof and base structure. Shield supports were introduced recently ^{and} proved to be highly successful (1). A shield support consists of two hydraulic jacks mounted between a base plate and a gob shield. The base plate is hinged to gob shield which is in turn hinged to roof canopy.

Suggest they say why

In the selection of powered supports, there are several formulas (2,3). Wilson (3) for example recommended a setting load density of 1 ton per square foot (1 tsf) for British coal fields which require a yield load density of 1.25 tsf if the yield-to-setting load ratio is 1.25 as recommended by Ashwin, et. al. (4). However, the capacity of powered supports used in this country is such that it provides

field load density ranging from 6 to 12 tpf (5). There is no doubt that different geological conditions require different support density, but the large discrepancy between European and American practices prompted the question: ^{do we} What stand to gain from setting larger-than-required load density? One aspect of the answer is to evaluate the roof damage if any caused by higher-than-required load density. This can be achieved by investigating the stress fields induced in the immediate roof when powered support is set against the roof.

?
who is doing this?

Stress distribution and rock fracture zones in the immediate roof of a longwall face has been investigated for a conventional hydraulic chock supports (6). Although their results revealed some correlation between field observation and analytical model, no consideration was given as to the effects of varying setting load density on the immediate roof. This paper presents structural behavior analyses of a coal mine during different mining stages. Longwall faces supported by both chock and shield type supports are analyzed, while only chock-supported shortwall faces are investigated.

What correlation?

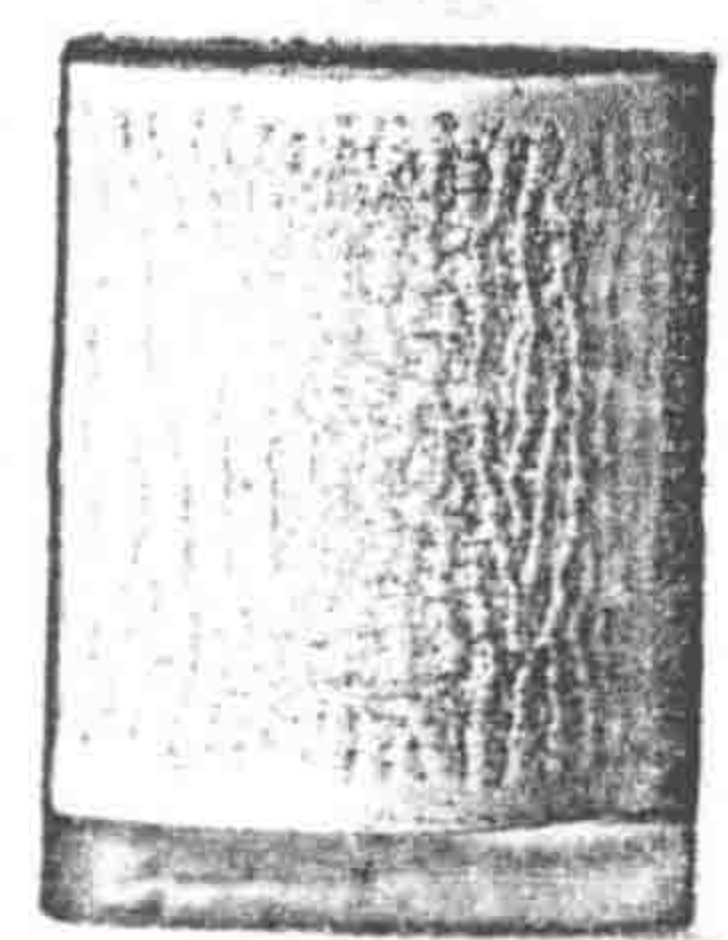
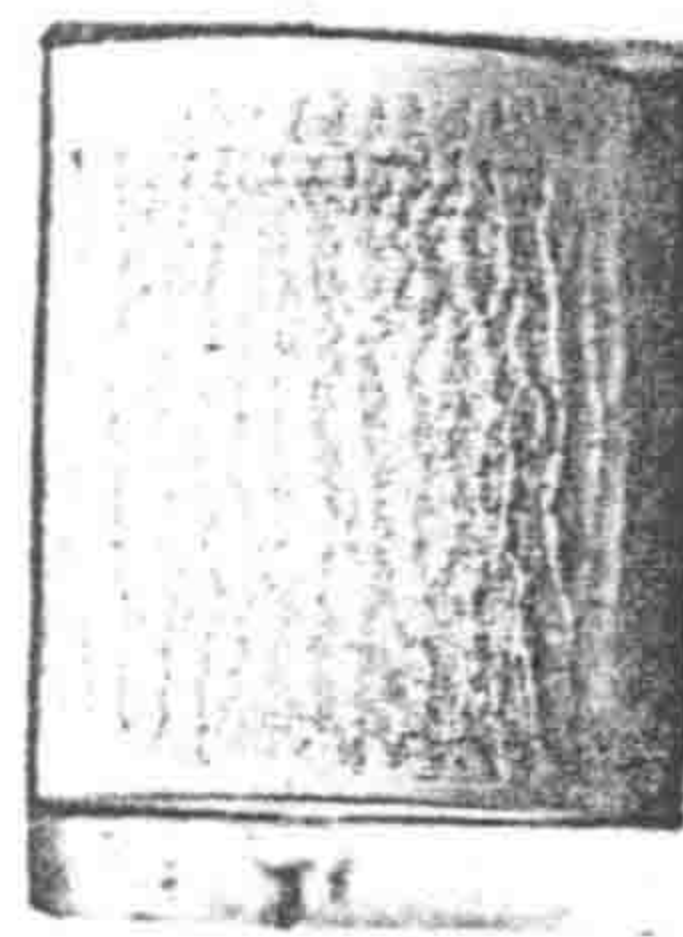
What about finding of investigators

Definition of the Problems

Chock supported faces

Consider a longwall face supported by chocks, the stress fields in the immediate roof undergo three sequential stages; before, during and after setting (fig. 1). Whenever a new cut of coal is made and before chocks are advanced to support, roof tends to converge (fig. 1A). When chocks are set against the roof, vertical pressures are vertically applied through the legs onto the roof creating a stress field (fig. 1B) superimposed on the previous one. After the setting, if the setting pressure is not enough or when main roof starts caving, it generates

What set of parameters considered.



give reasons
for the
belief.

not only a vertical resistance force on the chocks but also horizontal frictional force, because as roof converges it also moves in blocks toward the gob simultaneously. However, it is believed that the stress condition during setting is temporary and moves into "after setting" condition shortly after setting.

During "after setting" period, the resultant force is not vertical, instead it inclines some angles to the vertical which can be divided into the vertical and horizontal components. The vertical component is composed of two sections (fig. 2), i.e., front and rear canopy. The free body diagram of front canopy is shown in fig. 3A. The resultant P_1 on the front canopy can be determined by the principle that total moments must be zero in order to maintain equilibrium,

$$F l_1 = P_1 l_2 \quad (1)$$

$$P_1 = \frac{l_1}{l_2} F \quad (2)$$

Equation
assumption!

where F is capsule pressure, l_1 and l_2 are the distance between hinge point and capsule pressure F and between hinge point and resultant force P_1 , respectively. If the canopy is rigid and maintains full contact between canopy surface and roofline, the resultant P_1 is linearly distributed across the front canopy with larger stress near the hinge point. Depending on the location of P_1 , the linear stress distribution can be triangular or trapezoidal. However, roof is frequently cut into steps, the geometry of contact between canopy and roofline varies. This will result in different stress distribution on the canopy (fig. 3B).

Once force in front canopy is known, force distribution in rear canopy can be found as shown in fig. 3C.

-4-

$$P_2 + P = 2T \quad (3)$$

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{l_3} T (l_3 + l_4) - P (l_3 + l_5) \quad (4)$$

where P_2 is resultant force on rear canopy, T is setting load for each leg, P is shear force applied at the front end and equals to the total force in front canopy. Again linear force distribution occurs if canopy is rigid. Trapezoidal force distribution is more likely due to the application of shear force, P at the front end, and larger roof sag at the rear. However, in reality roof canopies are not perfectly rigid and subject to infinitesimal deformation. Force distribution for deformable body differs from rigid one. The most probable force distribution is shown in fig. 3D where larger load occurs immediately above each chock leg.

Depending on the rigidity of leg mounting to canopy and base, horizontal force causes legs to tilt toward the gob (fig. 4A) or bended as shown in fig. 4B. Excessive tilt induces rotation of chock toward gob area while excessive bending prevents legs from free vertical travel.

B. Shield supported faces

Basically a shield support is a determinate stable structure because hinge joints provide relative rotation of canopy about base plate which is fixed on the floor (fig. 5). The analysis of force distribution on shield supports follows the same sequential stages as indicated in chock faces.

When shield is set against the roof, external forces should be in equilibrium, i.e. (assuming no frictional force) vertical force on canopy = reaction on base plate + support weight)

High setting loads minimize convergence in time reduces lateral movement but causes side & damage

support weight can be neglected if force on canopy is much larger than support weight. Because canopy is hinge-connected to gob shield (CD) at hinge point C, there must be no resistant moment at this point. This means that resultant of force on canopy passes through hinge C (fig. 6A) and that total force on both sides of the resultant force equals to each other. The load distribution on each side is then a function of l_1 and l_2 . To satisfy equilibrium conditions, resultant reaction force R must be colinear with resultant force P_3 assuming force on gob shield exerted by broken rocks in the gob is negligible. The location and magnitude of R is used to derive stress distribution on the base plate.

However, during setting, the setting force T which is applied through hydraulic cylinders undergoes small rotation θ with respect to hinge point D (fig. 6B) and a horizontal translation Δ of canopy (fig. 6C) such that

$$\Delta = l_{CD} \theta \sin \phi \quad (5)$$

This translation produces horizontal frictional force as shown in fig. 6B. The actual value of frictional force depends on the coefficient of friction between canopy and roof rocks which ranges from zero for no friction to a maximum of 0.3. As a result, the resultant force on top canopy dips toward the face (fig. 7A).

Again after setting immediate roof starts to converge while in the meantime moves toward the gob. Because of the hinged structure, this causes roof canopy to move forward and results in force distribution as shown in fig. 7B. The reaction force exerted by roof canopy on the roof is such that it tends to close fractures and prevents fractures from opening up or propagating further. However, if the seam suddenly becomes

-6-

thinner, the large reduction in height may move point C to just above or very near point E and cause complete turn over. Furthermore when R is close to point E, higher stress occurs near E and may cause base plate dig into the floor. On the other hand, a sudden increase in seam height will require roof canopy to move away from face during setting and leave larger unsupported roof between face and tip of roof canopy.

← Fig 6

The Model and Boundary Conditions

From simple structural analyses mentioned earlier, there are three sequential stages of loading conditions for a powered support supported face i.e. before, during and after setting. Each loading stage will induce different stress fields in the immediate roof and results in different ground movements. This paper concerns only with those before and during support setting. 'After setting' condition is excluded for the time being due to uncertainty in roof fracture criteria.

In the analyses, an 8 ft. Pittsburgh coal seam lying at an average of 600 ft. below surface is mined with three different supports. They are (1) longwall chocks, (2) longwall shields, and (3) shortwall chocks. For each type of support, two support loads were investigated for cases before and after a web cutting. Table 1 shows ^{all} ~~the complete~~ cases studied. Notice that before cutting ^{case} (chocks) represents both shortwall (SW) and longwall (LW) faces and that shield supported face was investigated for condition before cutting because most shield supports are equipped with immediate forward support system which lessens the "after cutting" period to the minimum.

Not clear to operator

or person unfamiliar with this work.

-7-

TABLE I

| Mining Stages | Support Loading Conditions | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| | 0 | 35 tons/leg | 125 tons/leg |
| Before cutting (chocks) | a | b | c |
| After cutting (LW chocks) | | d | e |
| After cutting (SW chocks) | | f | g |
| Before cutting (shield) | | h | i |

As in any other elastic problems, solution is good only for boundary conditions defined. Therefore, in order to be more representative of field conditions, the boundary conditions for a longwall or shortwall face should be accurately defined. However, some portions especially gob area is inaccessible for observation. Some other portions like face area although observable is ^{difficult} ~~different~~ to instrument for quantitative data. Nevertheless, constant underground field observations coupled with field instrumentation contributes to the determination of boundary conditions consistent with the longwall or shortwall face presented in this paper.

Not boundary conditions → Fig. 8 shows boundary configurations simplified for ^{the investigation} ~~this paper~~. A ^{can} straight vertical break of roof rock occurs near the edge of rear canopy (CD). This is because the immediate roof is weak (drawslate, rider coal and shale) and caves as soon as powered support is advanced (fig. 9). This vertical break stops at point D where the first strong limestone layer occurs. From there on up an arch-shaped opening forms such that θ ranges from 45° to 55° . The θ angle was measured through visual observation in tail- and head-entries and by surface boreholes from which the levels of strata separation can be monitored as a function of face distance.


but a supposed behavior around a face.

*any reference?
mine, observer?*

I don't understand
what "whole model
is 1.75' ---"
means?

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-8-

The finite element model simulating the above-mentioned problem is shown in Fig. 10. Zone A represents region where strata are essentially ^{intact} ~~intact~~. Zone B is gob region where fragmented rock blocks are compacted while Zone C is solid coal. Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio for strata in Zone A and C ^{have been} are obtained from lab tests. Young's modulus for Zone C is assumed to be equal to 1/10 of that of Zone A. The whole model is 1.75 ft. thick which is half the full width of Gullick-Dobson chocks. Horizontal displacements are assumed to be zero along vertical boundaries while ^{the} vertical displacement is zero along bottom horizontal boundary. 

X

why
mention
manufacture?

Results and Discussions

Figs. 11 to 19 show ^{various} ~~contour maps~~ of stress distributions for various ^{geometrical} conditions investigated in this research. Although there are differences in absolute magnitudes, some generalization can be made for chock- and shield- supported faces.

A. Chock-supported faces

In chock-supported face, maximum principal stress (compression is considered negative while tension is positive) is approximately horizontal (figs. 11 to 17). Maximum value occurs at some distance ahead of the face and immediate roof directly over chock supports. Higher stress gradient occurs near but in front of the face whereas stress is rather uniform in area above chock supports. However, tensile stress zone occurs in area above chock supports the size of which depends on chock capacity.

chock capacity or chock setting
load?

Minimum principal stress is approximately vertical, the average of which is the overburden weight. Maximum occurs at the corner of roof line and face. It reduces counterclockwise to minimum at the contact

between roofline and chock canopy. High stress gradient occurs in area immediately above chocks and along contact between rock fragments and main roof in the gob area.

? I would have thought max shear at free line

Minimum shear stress is also maximum at the corner of roofline and face. Its pattern is rather similar to that of minimum principal stress except smaller in magnitude.

B. Shield-supported faces

Maximum principal stress (figs. 18 to 19) is tensile immediately above shield supports and extends some distance upward in the gob.

Confusing to reader

Maximum also occurs some distance ahead of the face at the roofline level

Similarly, maximum of minimum principal stress is located at the corner of roofline and face. It decreases clockwise to minimum at the contact between roofline and shield canopy. Another maximum occurs at the rear edge of shield canopy near the gob side where high stress gradient also exists.

Again maximum shear stress distribution is similar to that of minimum principal stress. Two maxima exist; one at the corner of roofline and face, the other at the rear edge of shield canopy. Maximum shear stress decreases from these maxima on both sides. Minimum occurs immediately above shield canopy.

A Comparison of ~~roof maps~~^{all} of stress distributions (figs. 11 to 19) ^{shown in} under similar conditions indicates:

1. With the exception of shield supported faces, increasing support capacity from 35 to 125 tons per leg reduces the size of maximum principal tensile stress distribution zone from nearly covering the whole immediate roof to a few spots. Tensile maximum principal stress remains at the corner of immediate roof and face. This might account for the frequent encounter of premature roof caving at this

area, especially when ~~weak~~^{do} immediate roof is ~~present~~^{weak}. Minimum principal stress and maximum shear stress increase slightly everywhere when chock capacity increases from 35 to 125 tons per leg. Therefore, it appears that the key advantage of increasing chock capacity is to reduce the size of zone or maximum tensile principal stress in the immediate roof. To completely eliminate this tensile zone requires more than 125 ton per leg of capacity.

2. The stress distribution for shield supported faces does not vary with shield capacity from 35 to 125 tons per leg.

3. ^A Higher stress distribution for "after cutting" is seen in shortwall than in longwall face. But the difference is much smaller than what ~~was generally~~^{have been} expected for a 9-t. cut in shortwall ^{compared to a} than 2 to 2 1/2 ft. cut in longwall. ^{would}

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(See page 12 for Figure 1)

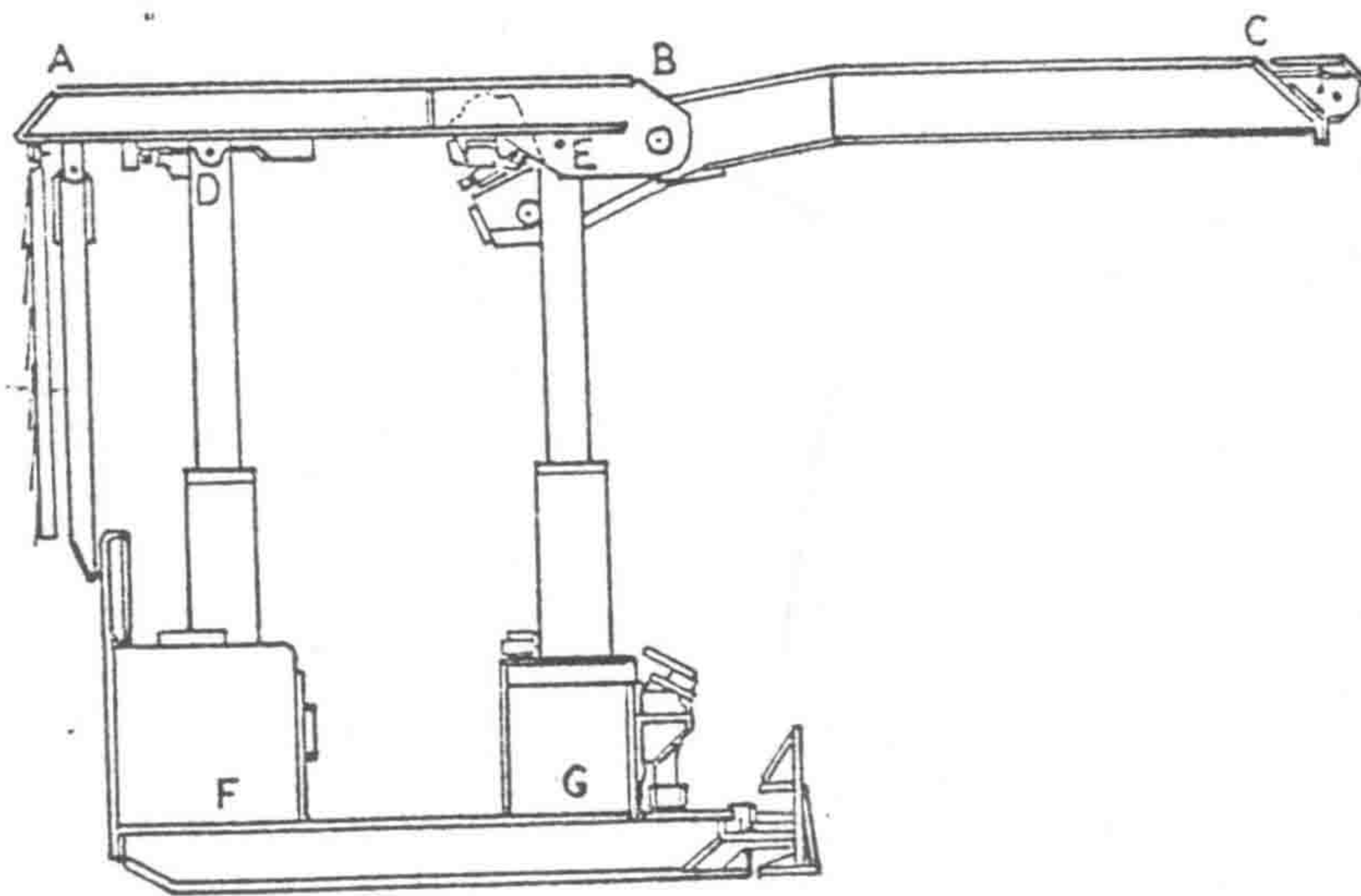


Fig. 2 Schematic View of Gullick-Dobson Chock

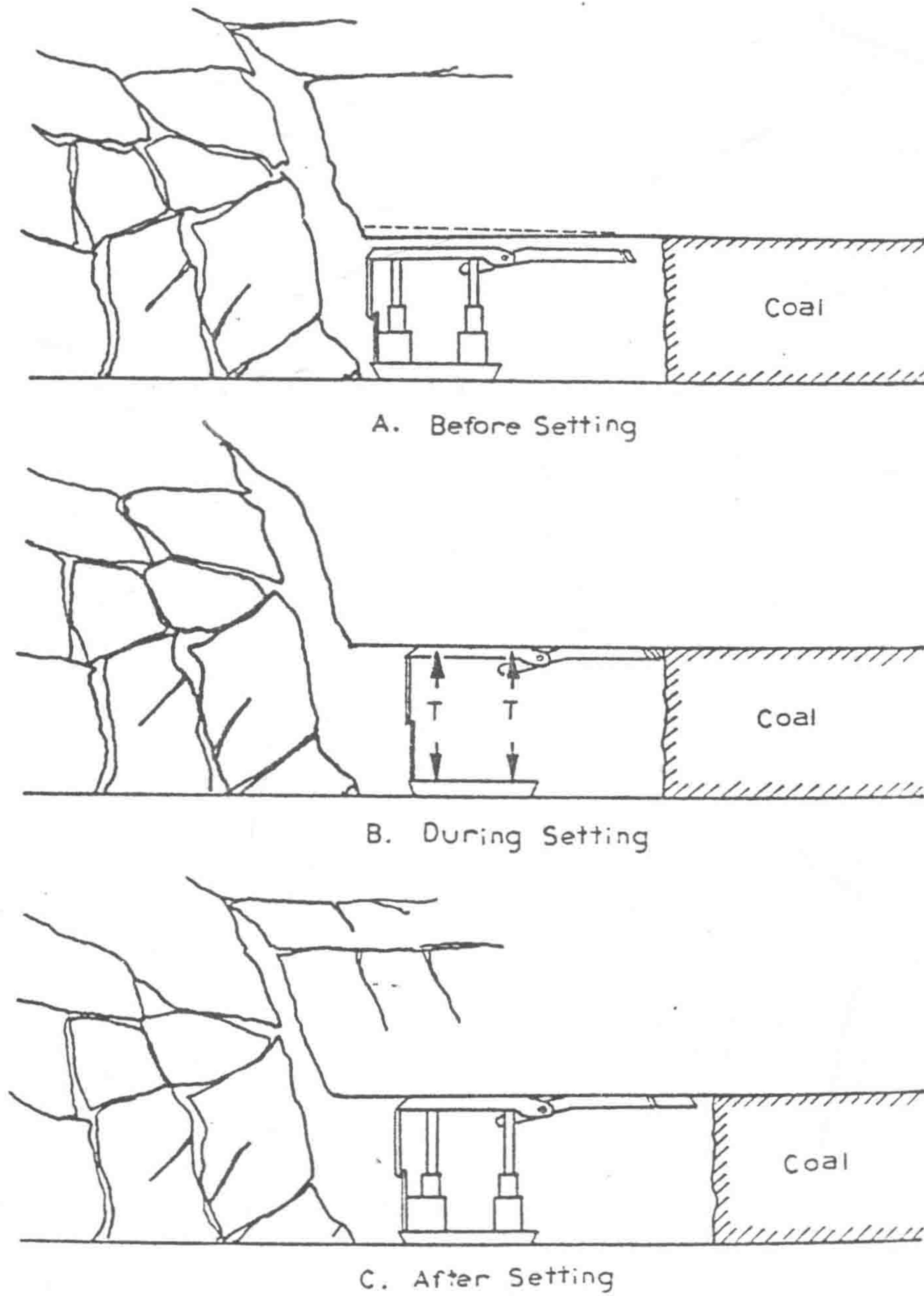


Fig. 1 Immediate Roof Undergo Three Sequential Stages in Chock Supported Longwall Faces A. Before Setting B. During Setting C. After Setting

13

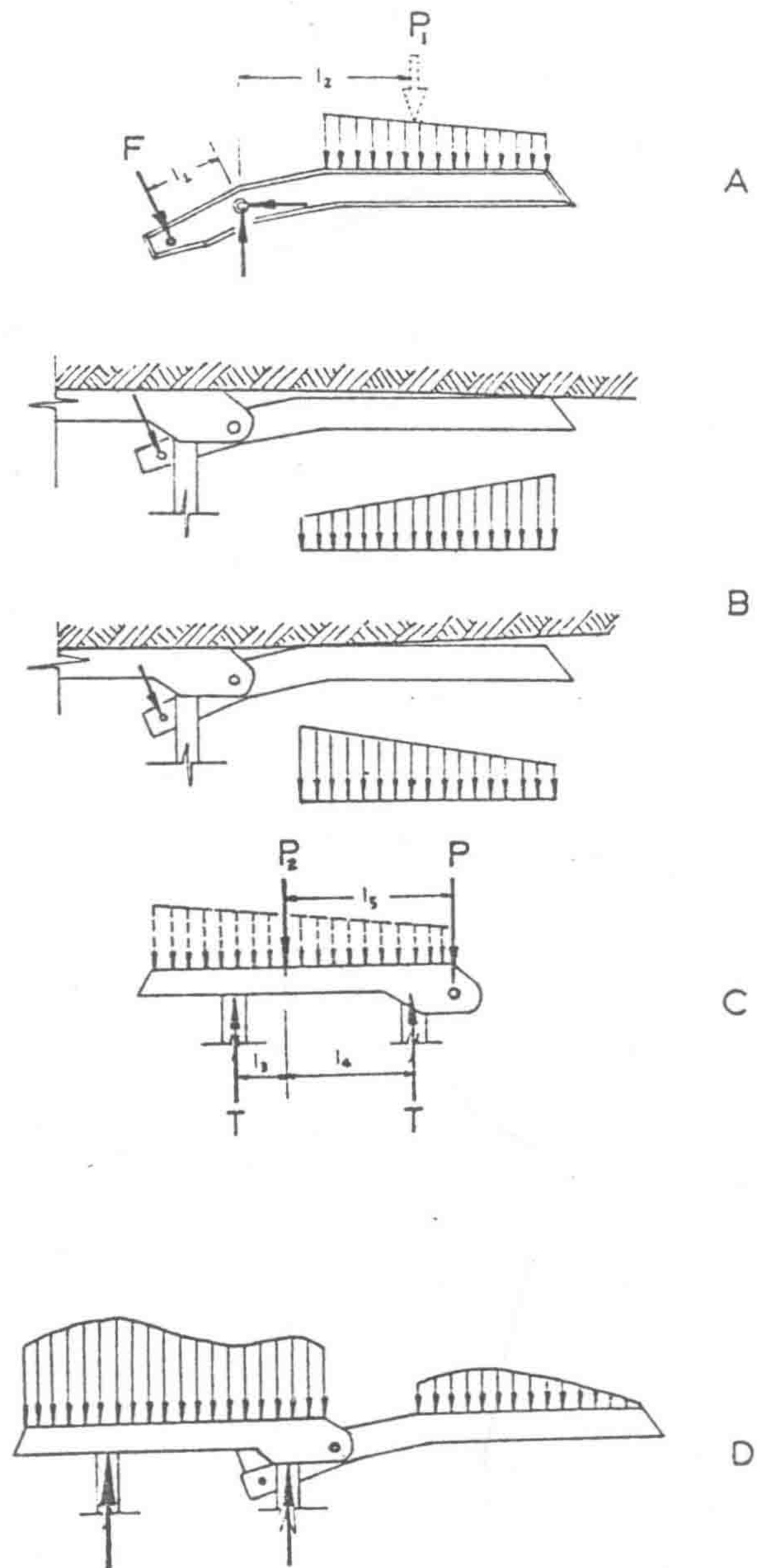
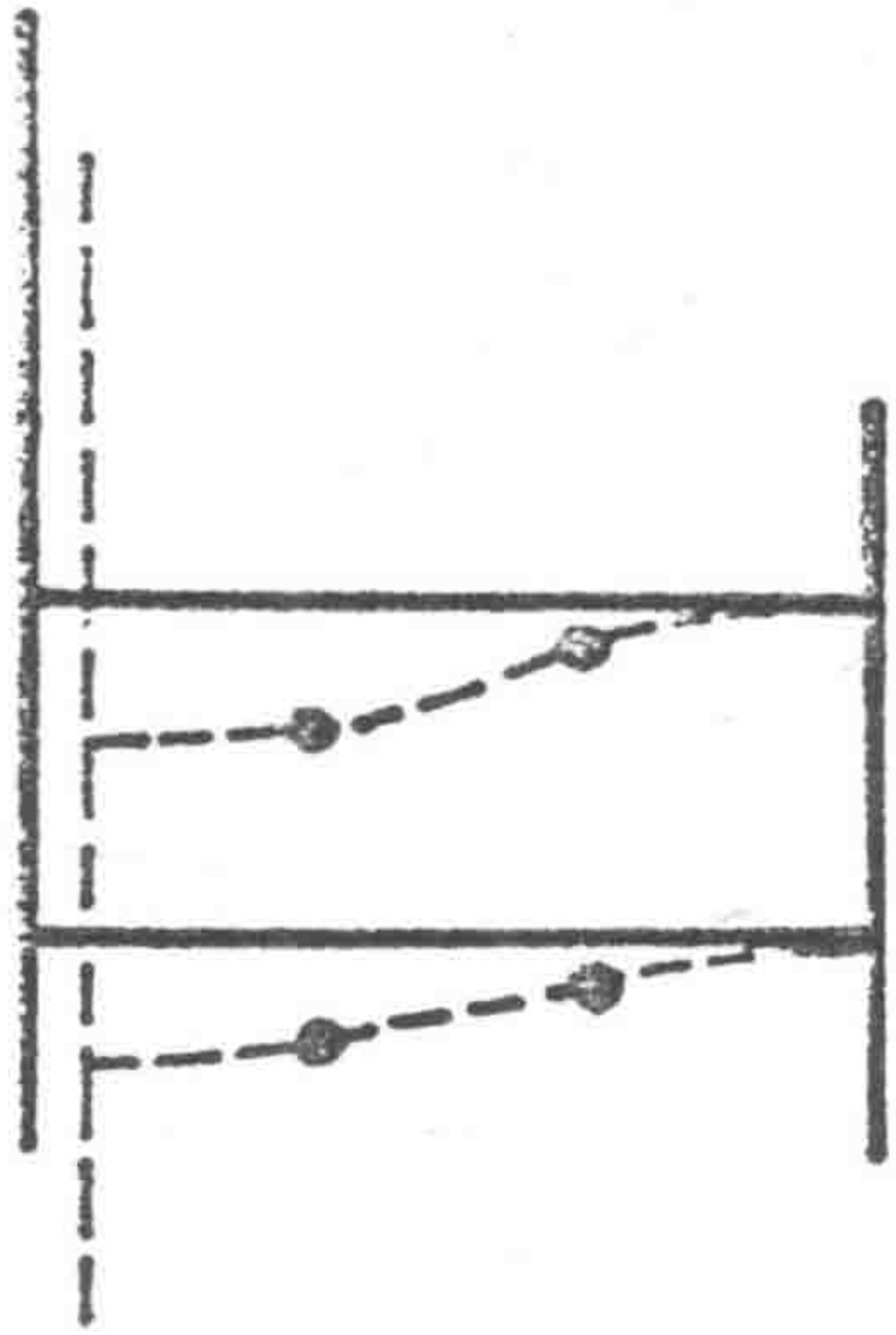
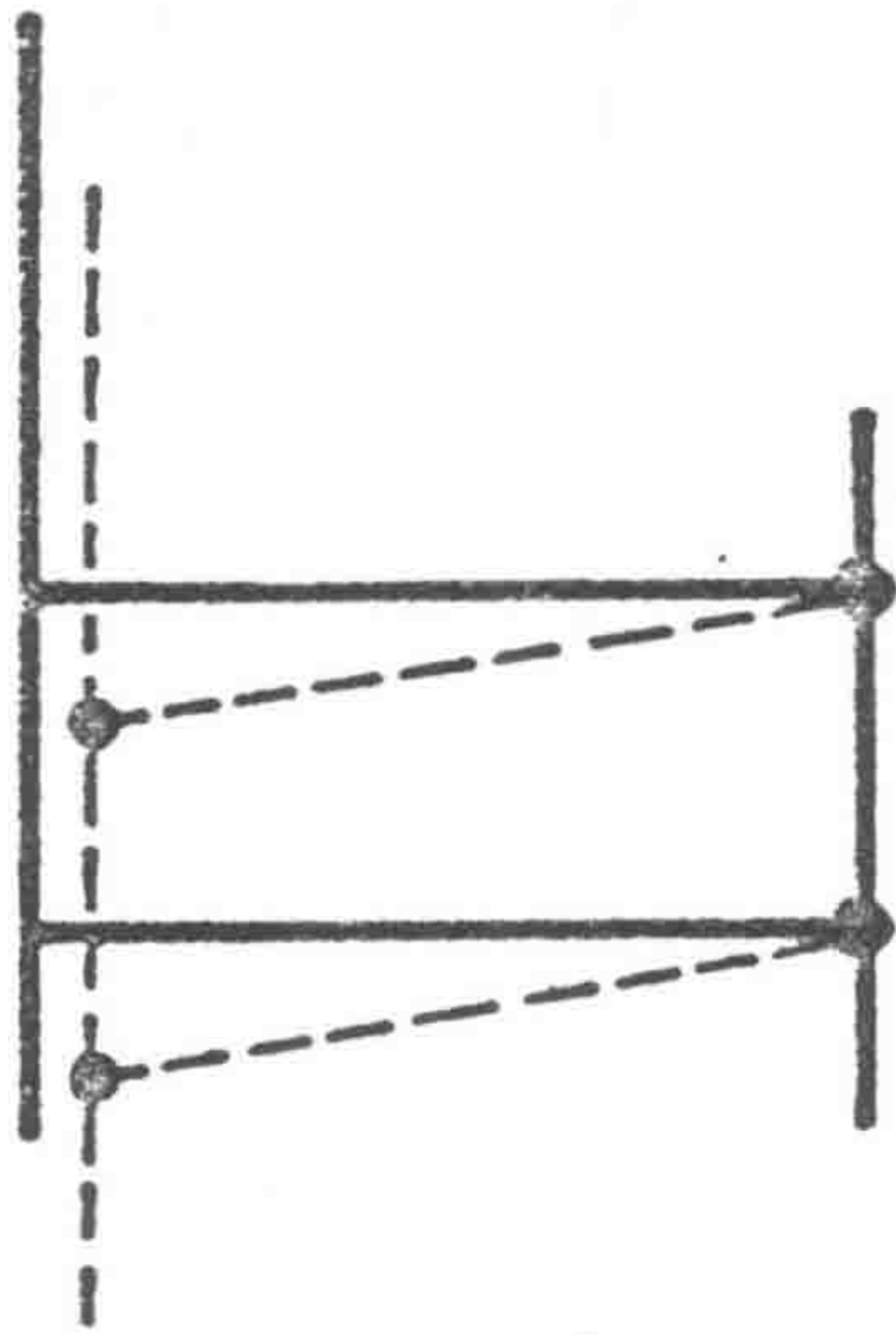


Fig. 3 Force Distribution in Chock Canopy. A. Front Canopy B. Two Possible Force Distributions in Front Canopy C. Rear Canopy D. Possible Force Distribution for Soft Canopy

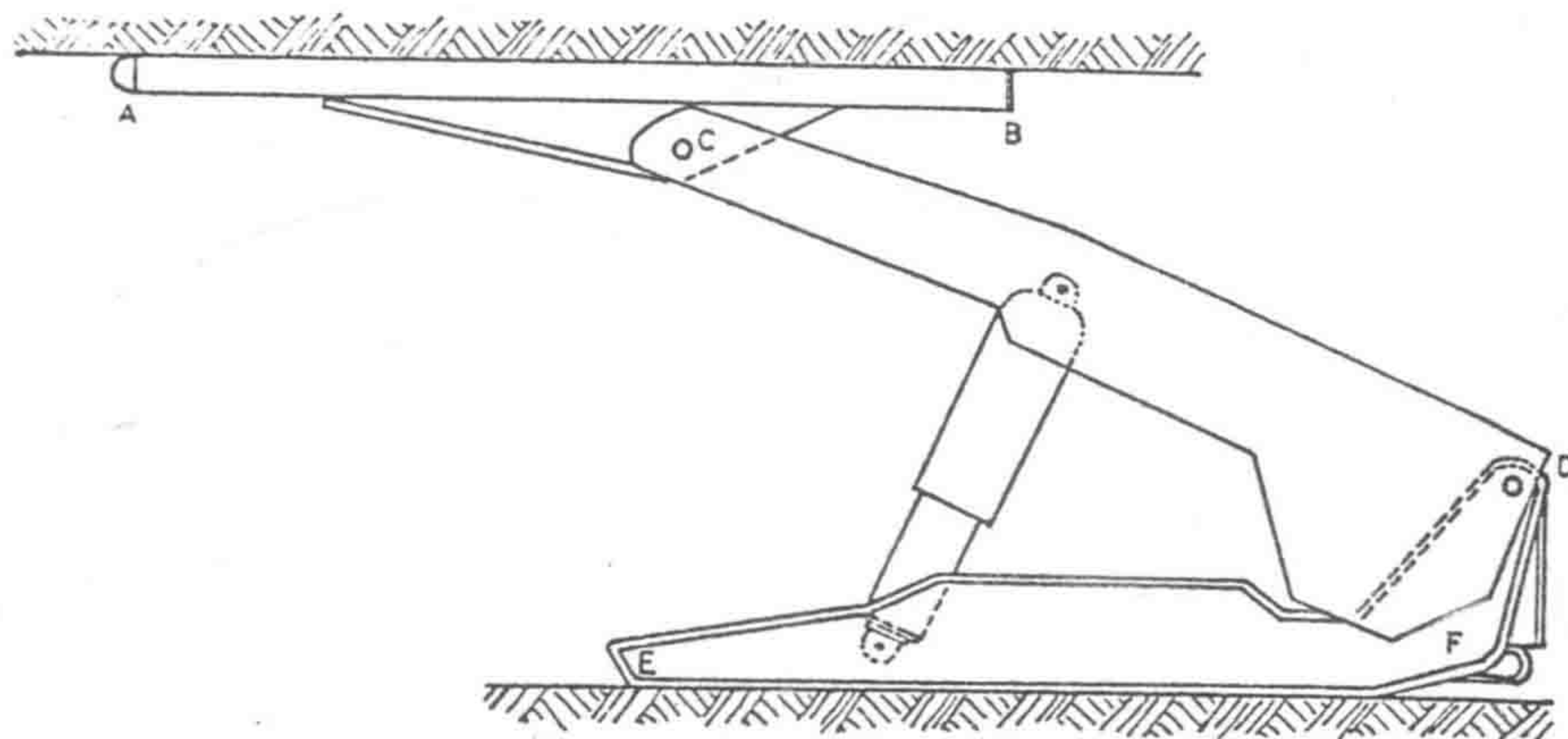


A

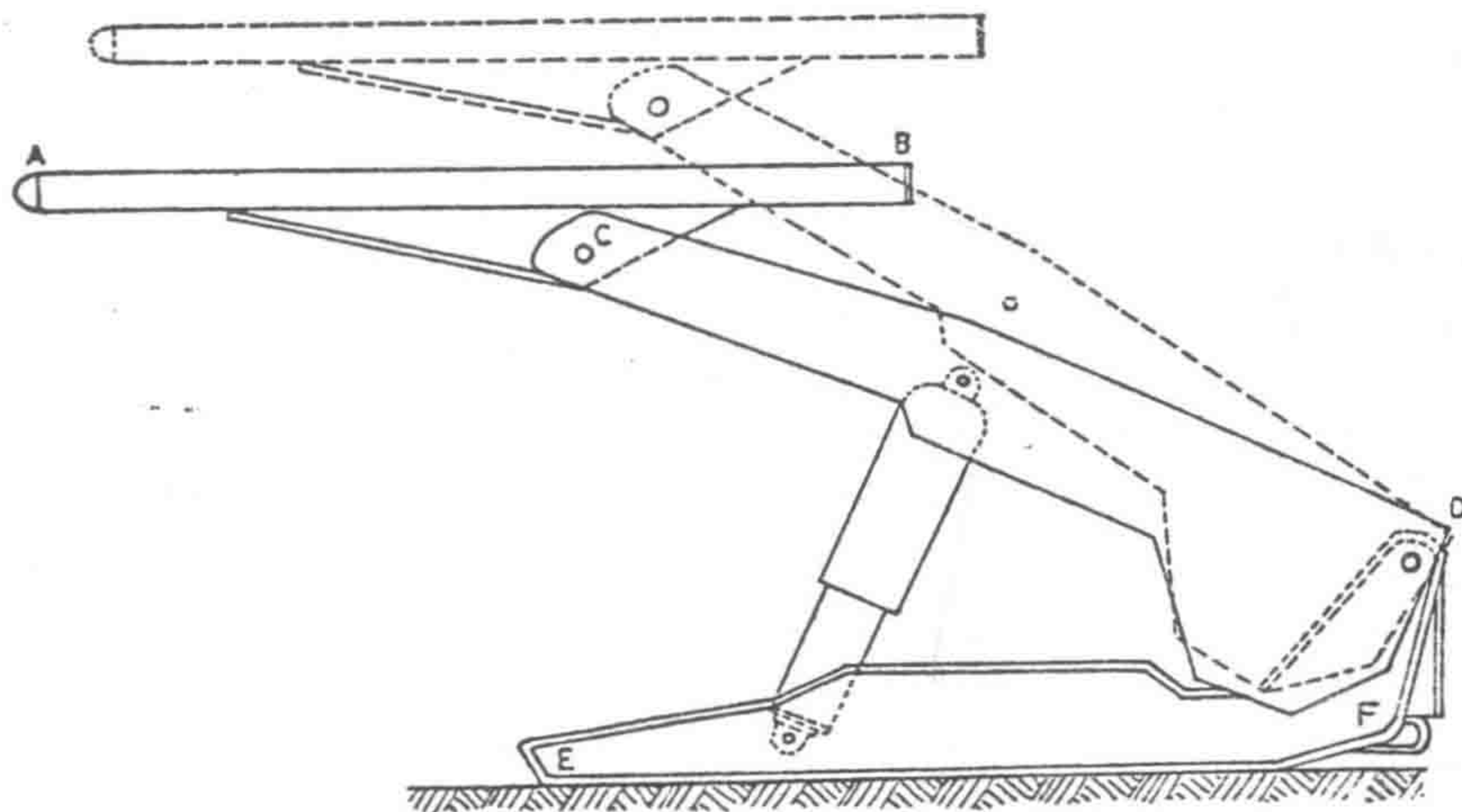


B

Fig. 4 Possible Chock Geometry Due to Horizontal Force A. Leg Tilt
B. Leg Bend



A



B

Fig. 5 Schematic View of a Two-Leg Caliper Shield

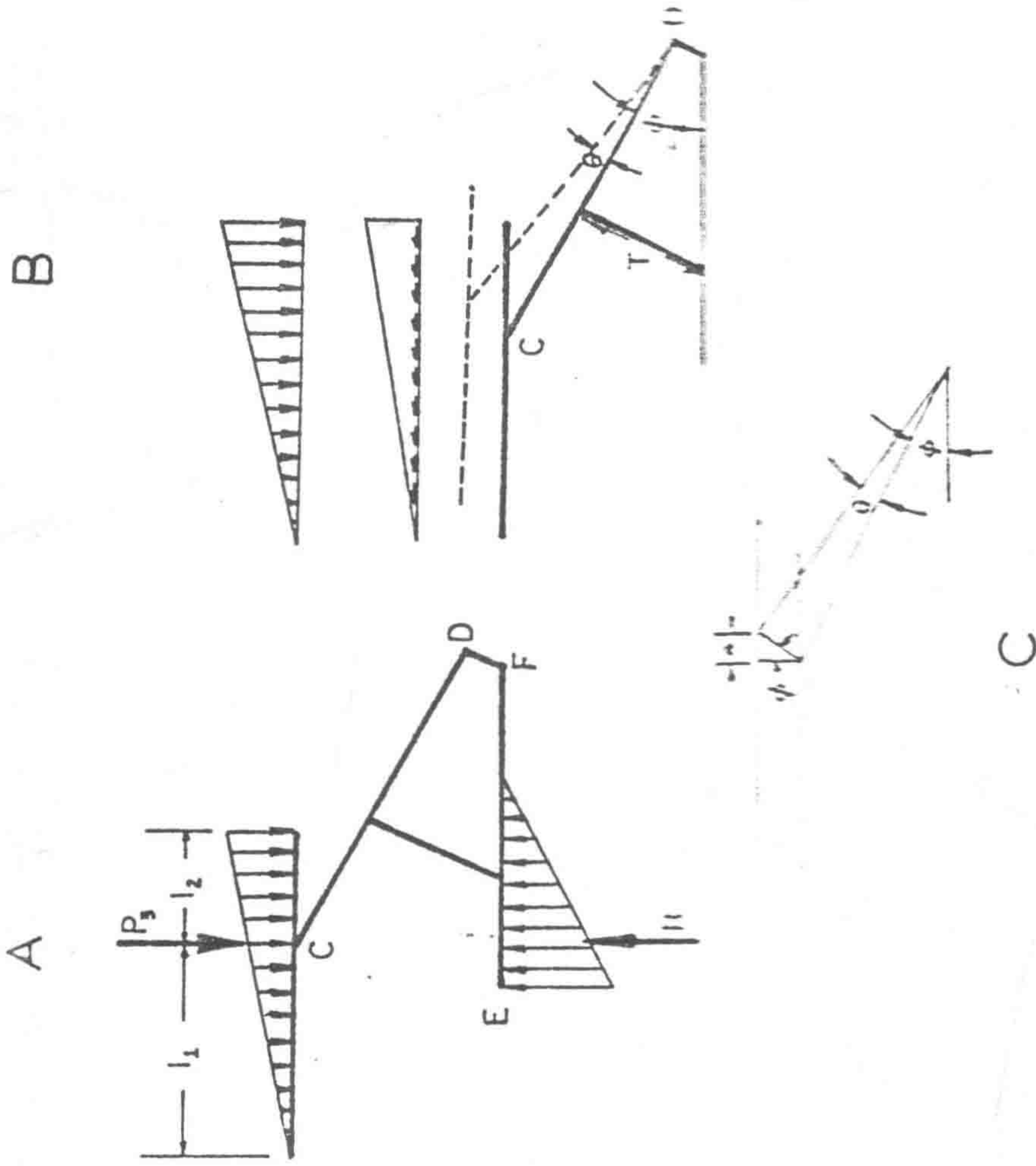
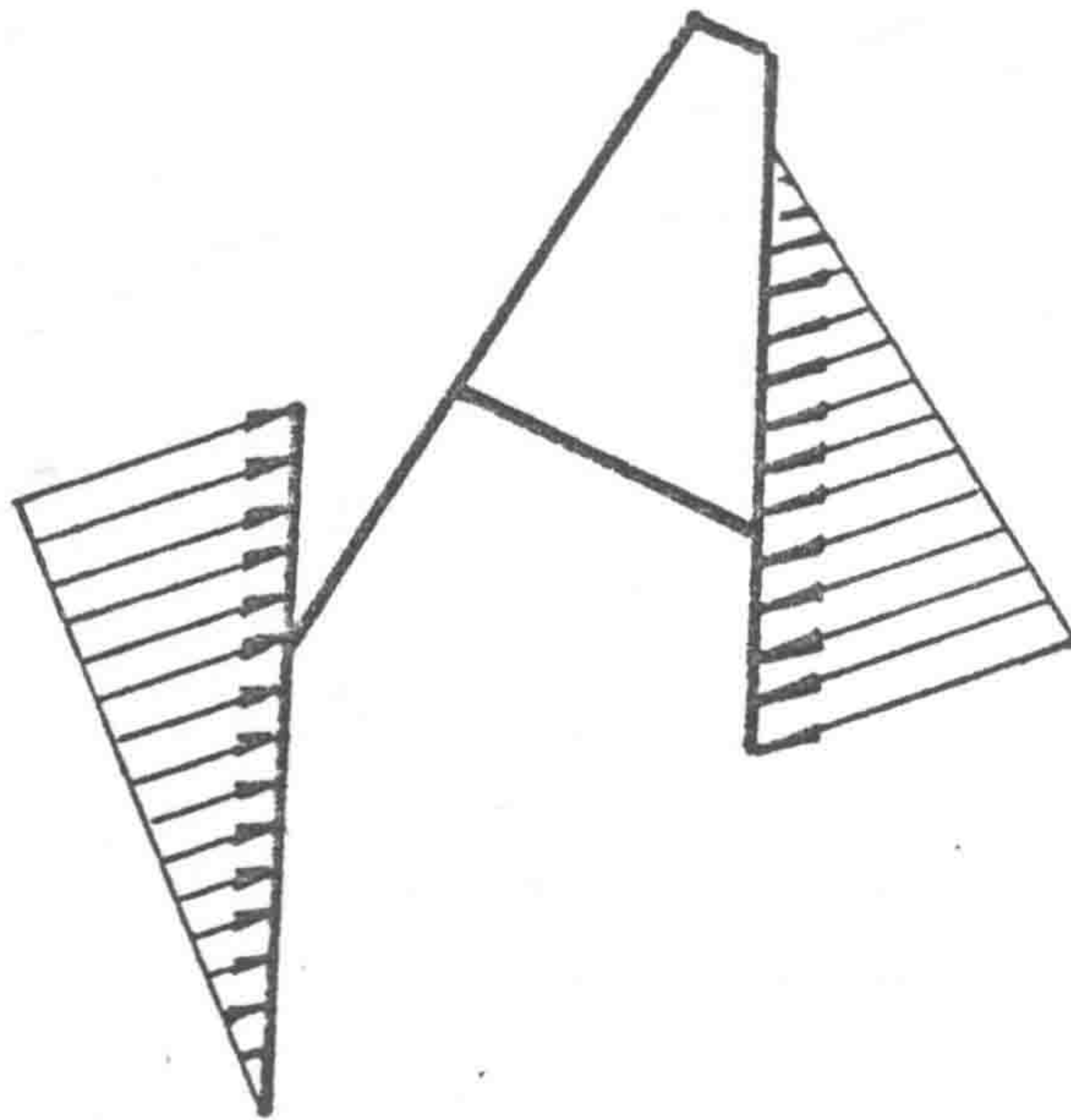
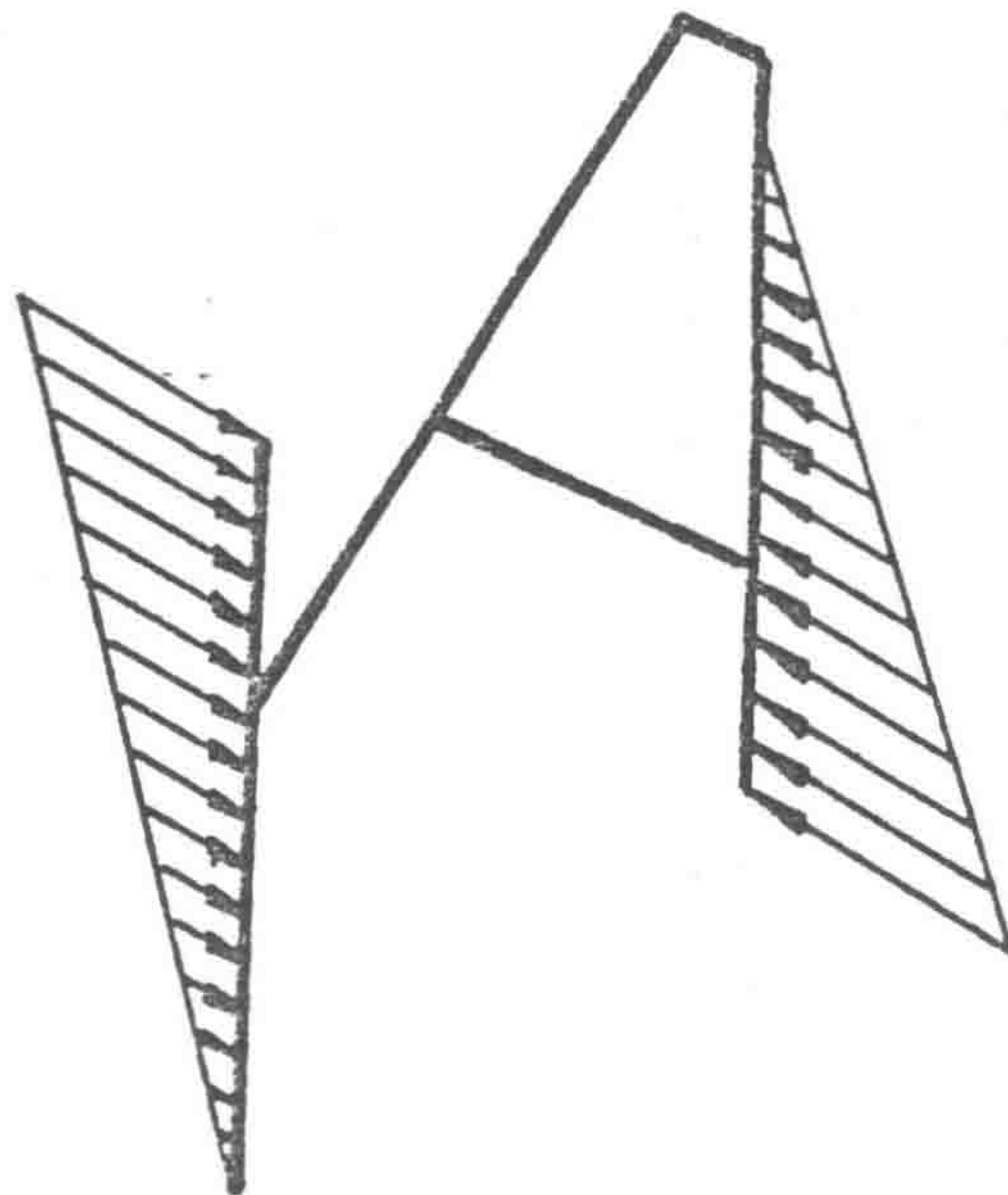


Fig. 6 Force Diagram In Shield Support During Setting

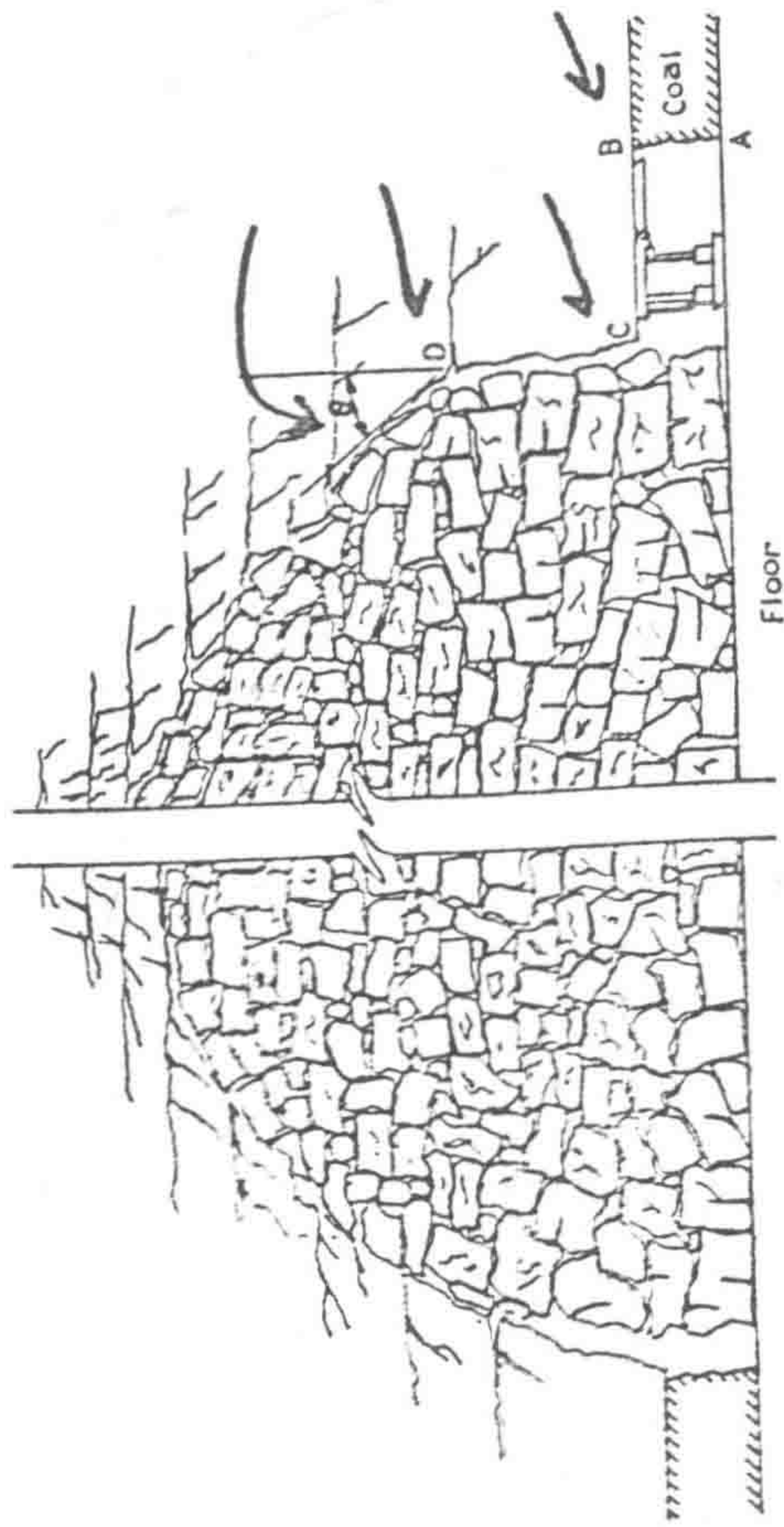


B



A

Fig. 7 Two Stages of Immediate Roof Loading In Shield Supported Face
A. During Setting B. After Setting



letters don't stand out

Fig. 8 Cross-Sectional View of a Longwall or Shortwall Panel

Fig. 7 Two Stages of Immediate Roof Loading in Shield Supported Face
A. During Setting B. After Setting

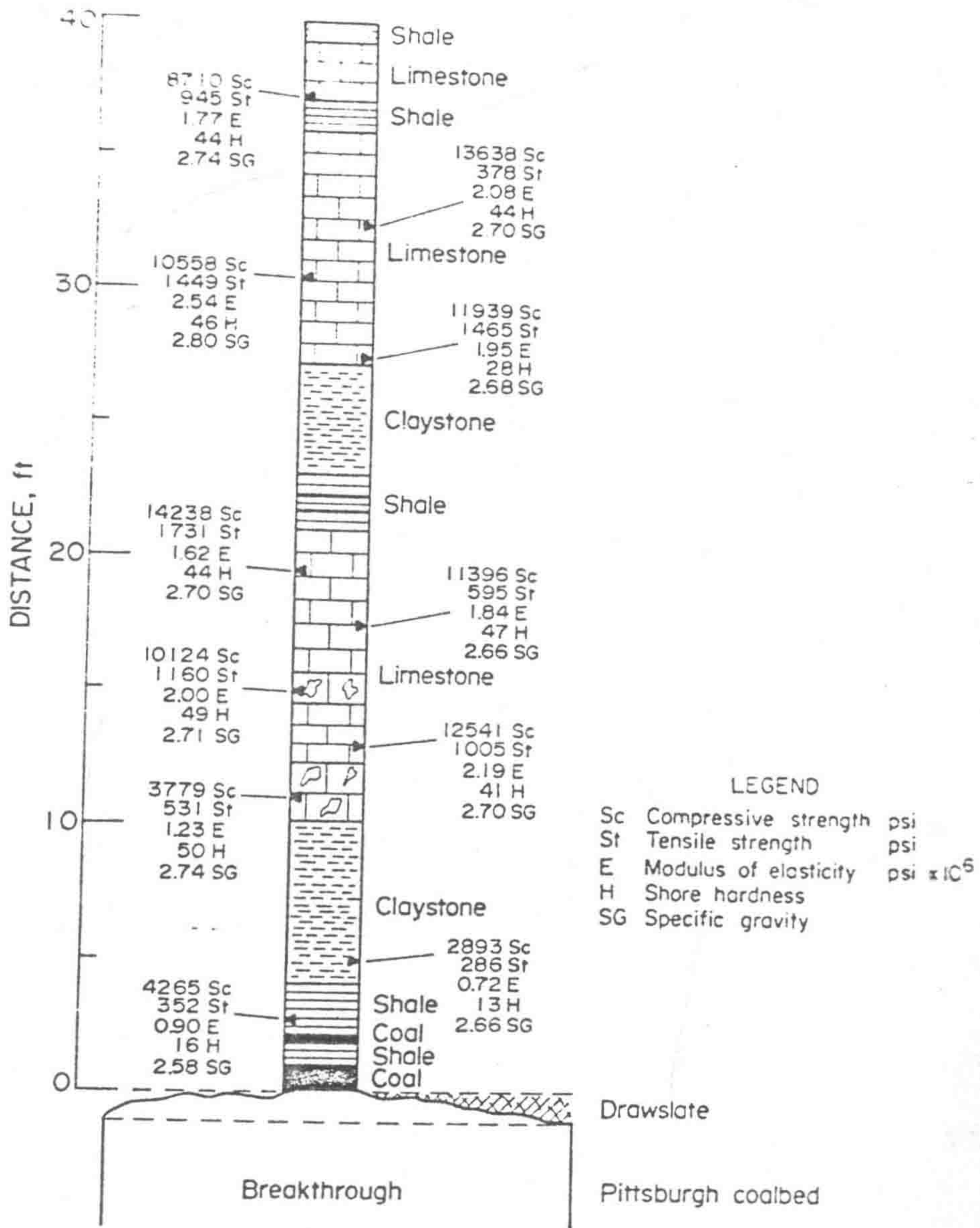
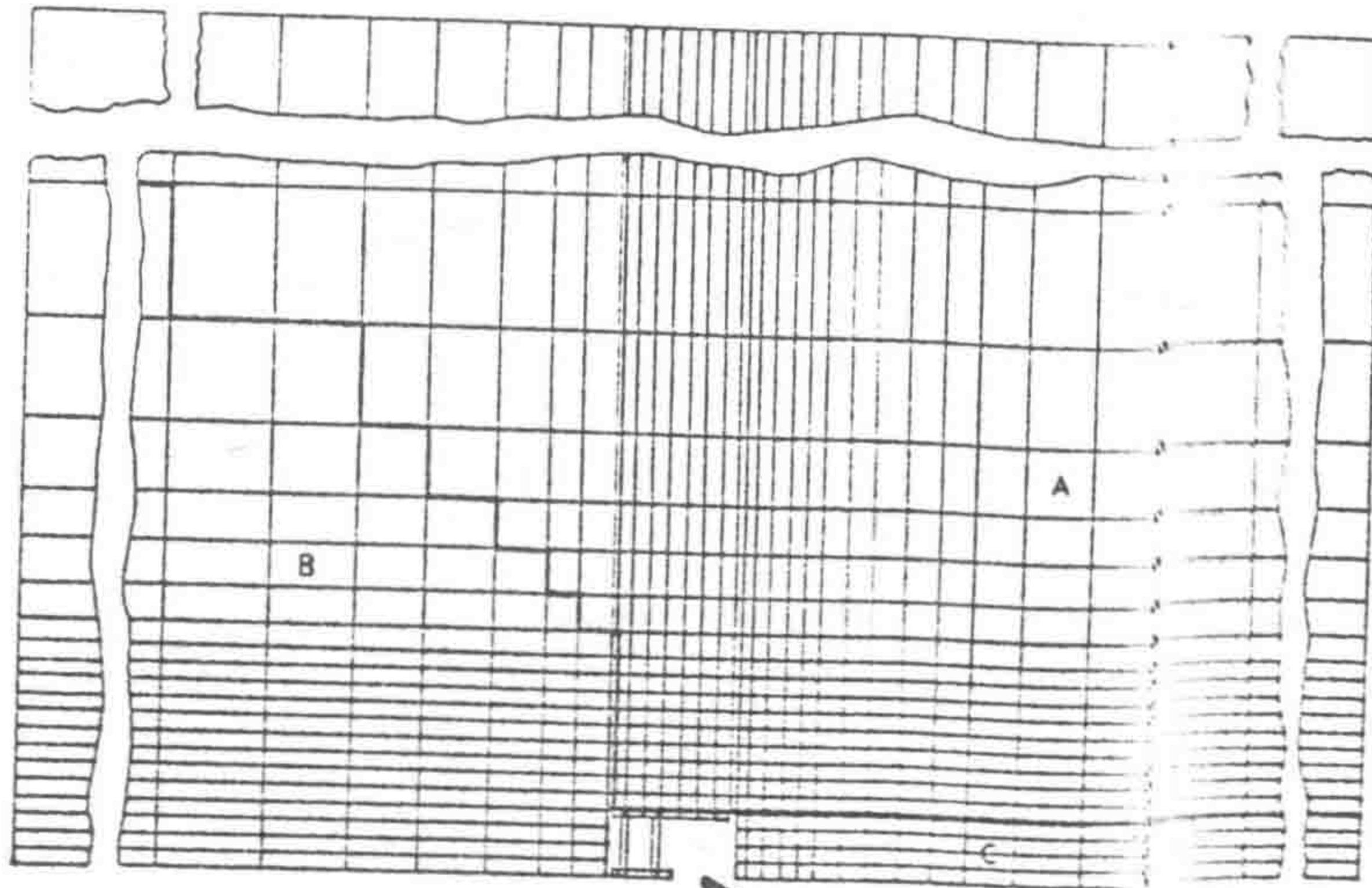
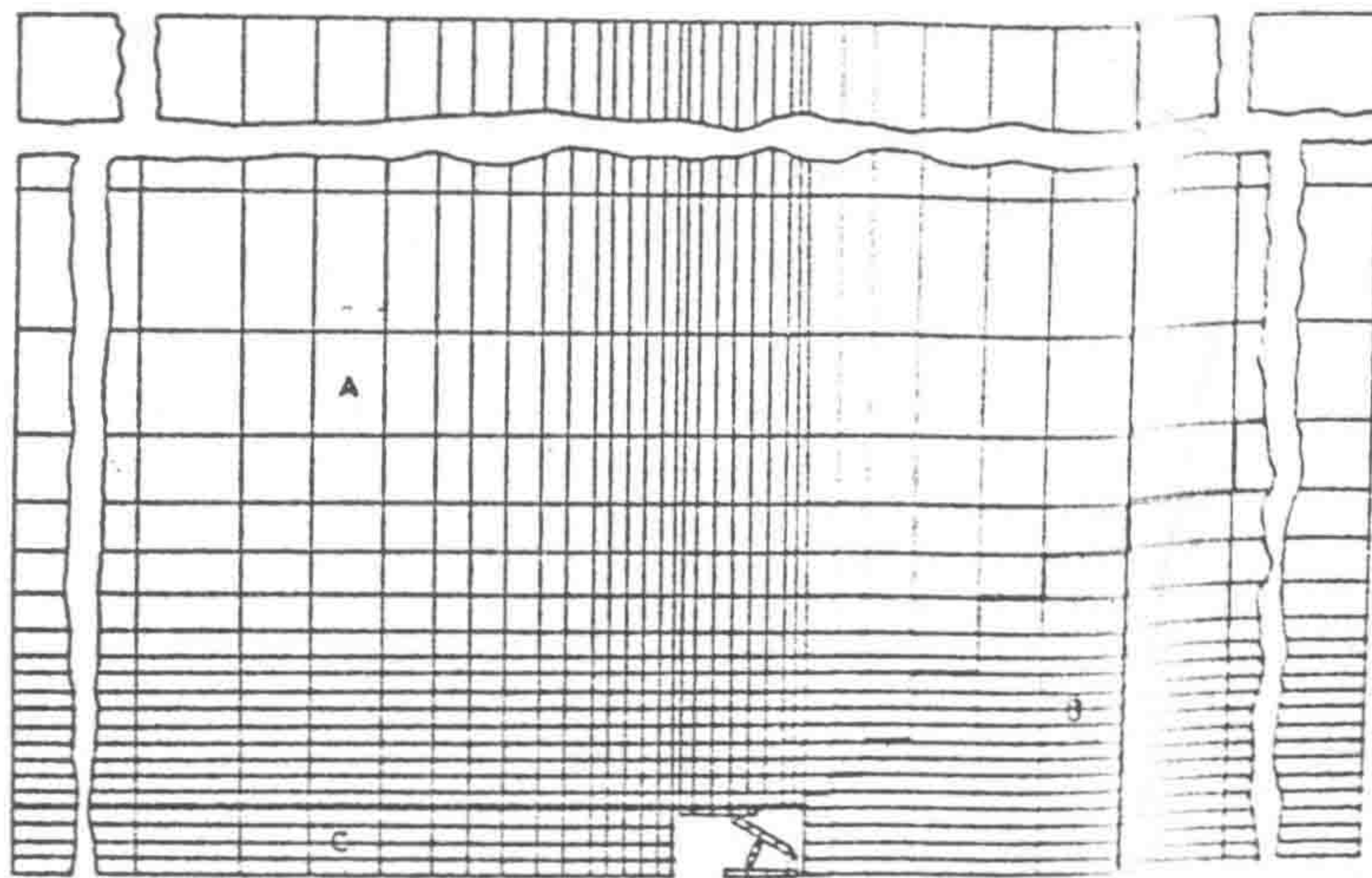


Fig. 9 Stratigraphic Column Showing Measured Properties



A. CHOCK

Mirror image needed.



B. SHIELD

Fig. 10 Finite Element Models

*Change one of slots around
So slot face is in same direction
in both images*

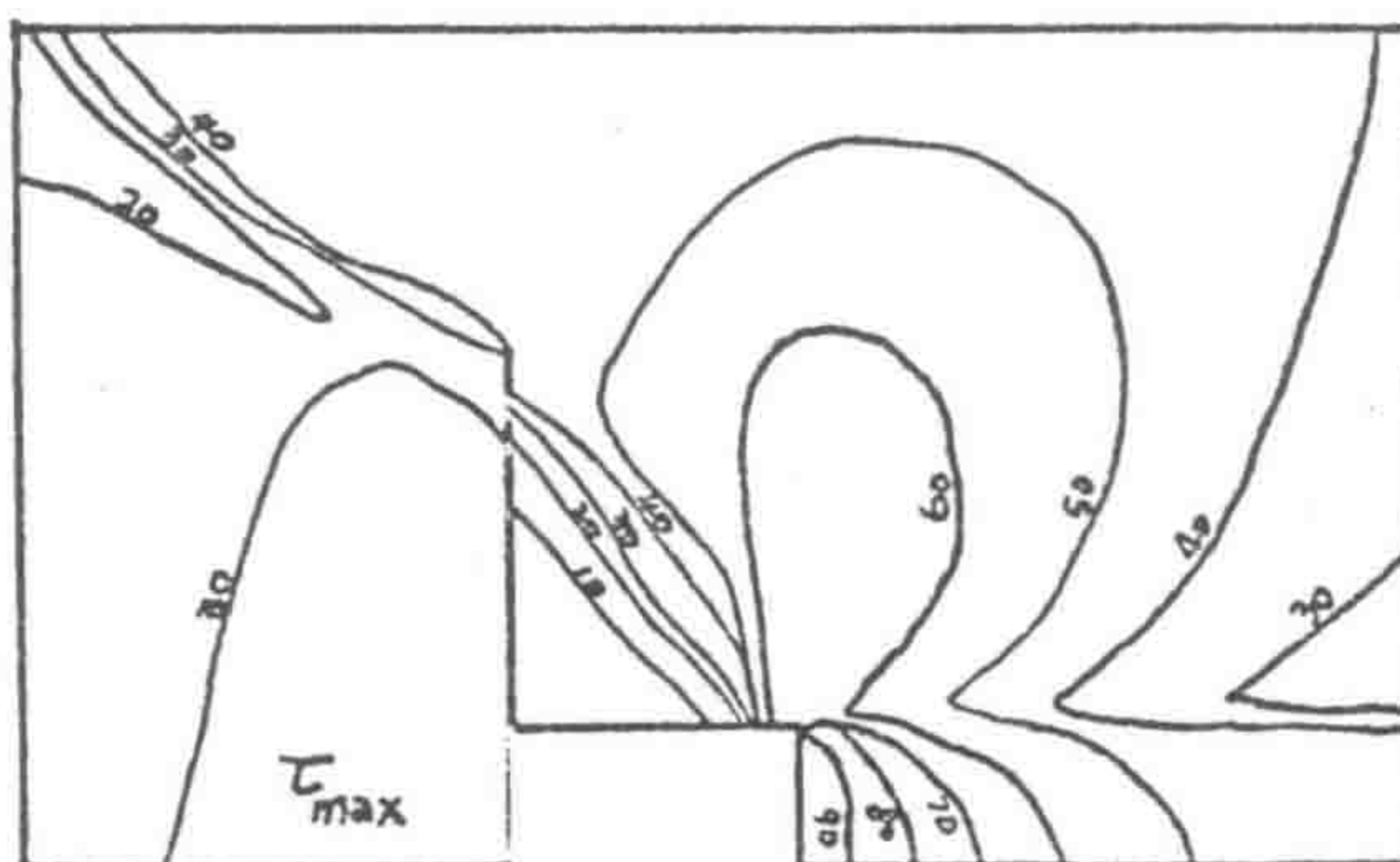
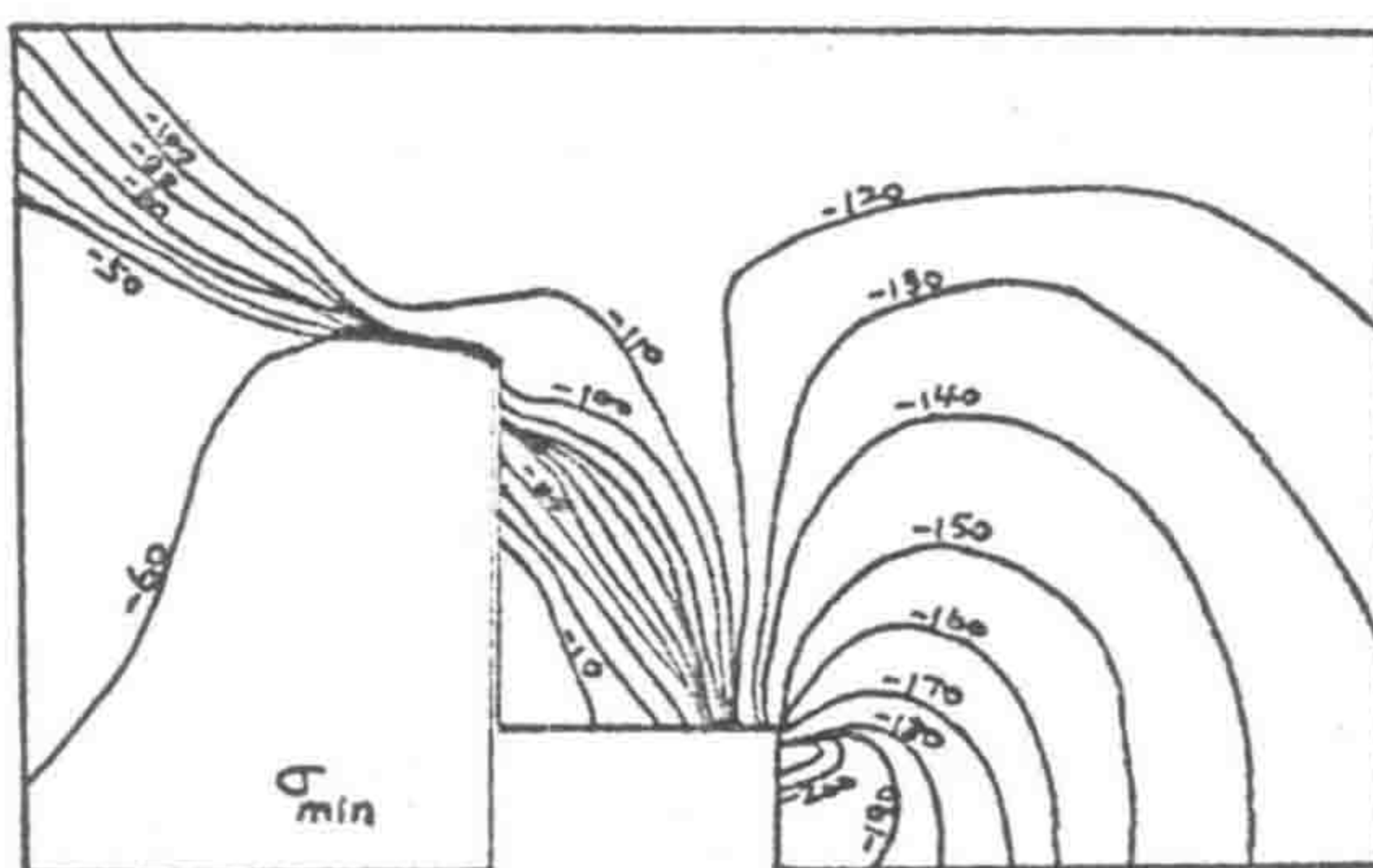
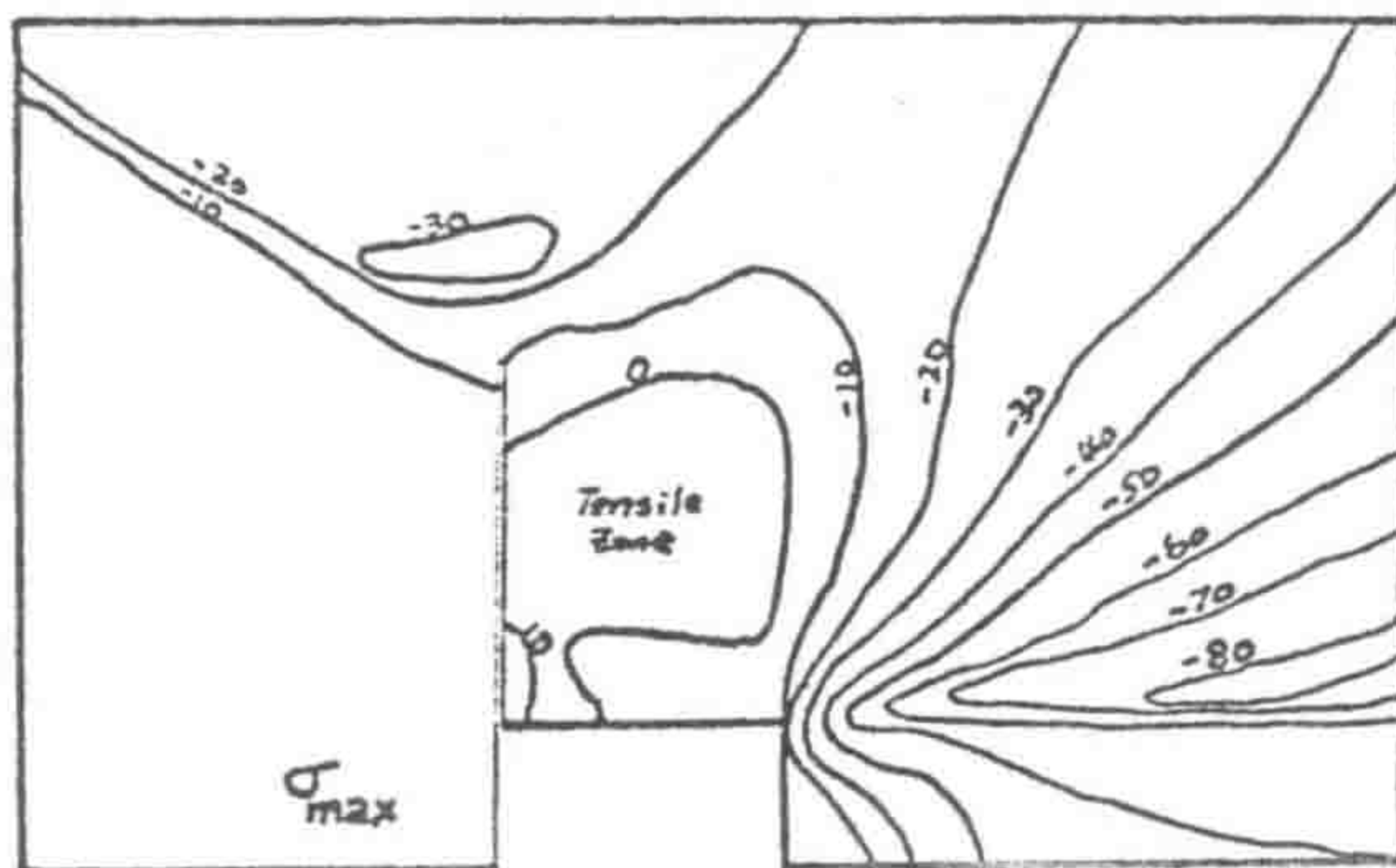


Fig. 11 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces Without Support. Numbers in the Maps are KSF (thousand pounds per square foot which is approximately 7 psi)

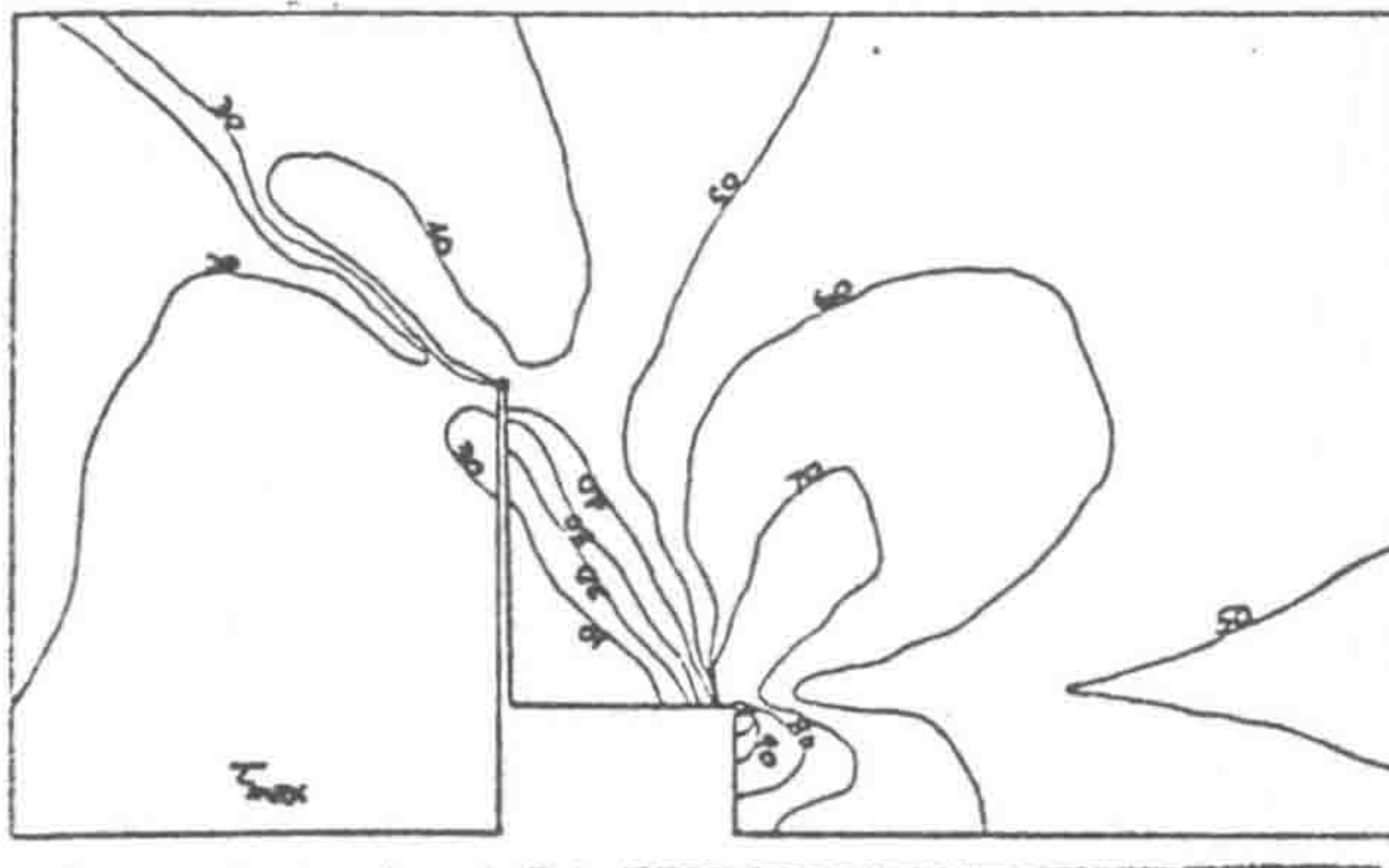
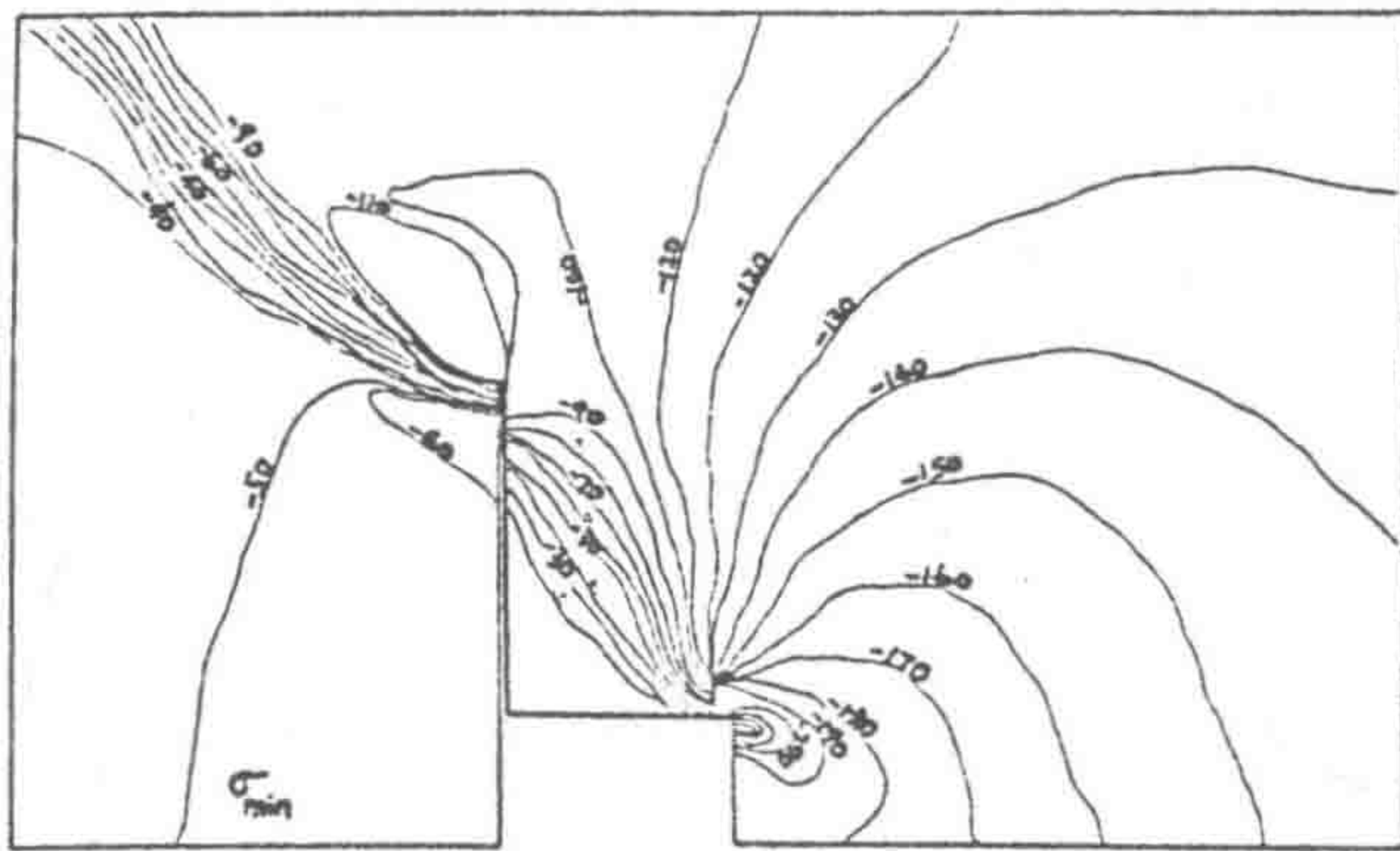
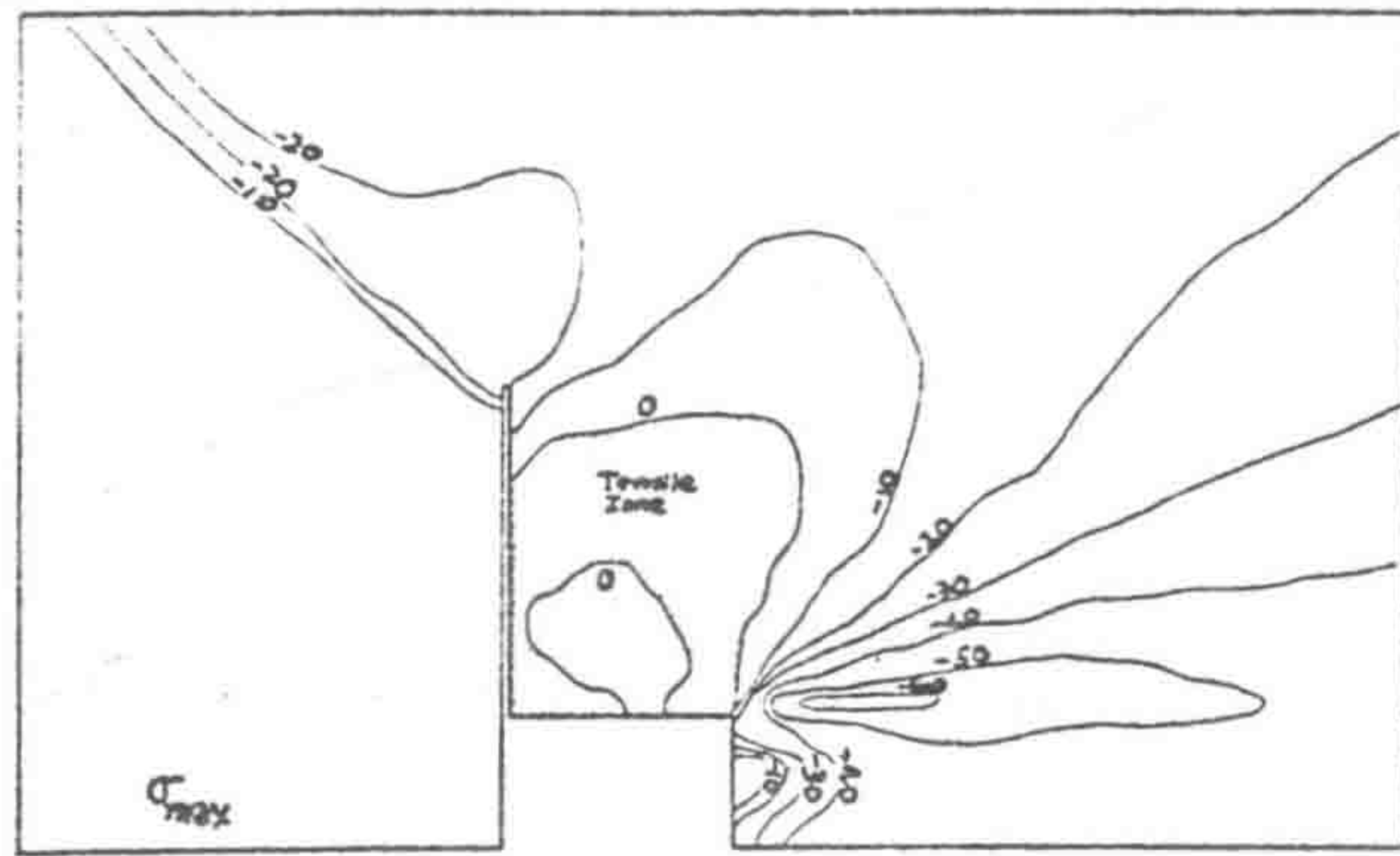


Fig. 2 Contour Maps of Stress Distributions for Faces with Chock Supports of 120 Tons. Numbers in KSF.

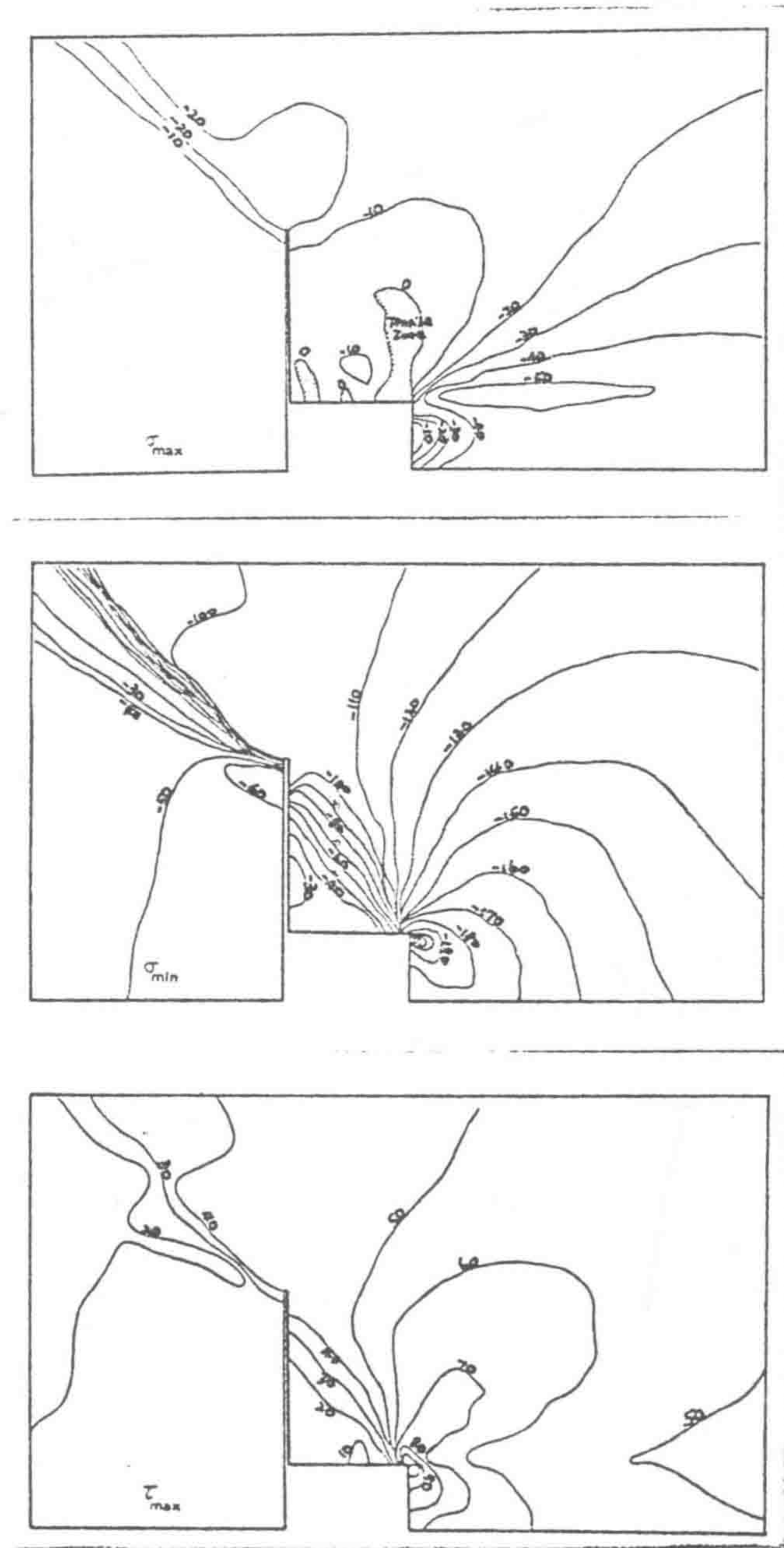


Fig. 13 Contour Maps of Stress Distributions for Faces with Chock Supports of 500 Tons. Numbers in KSF.

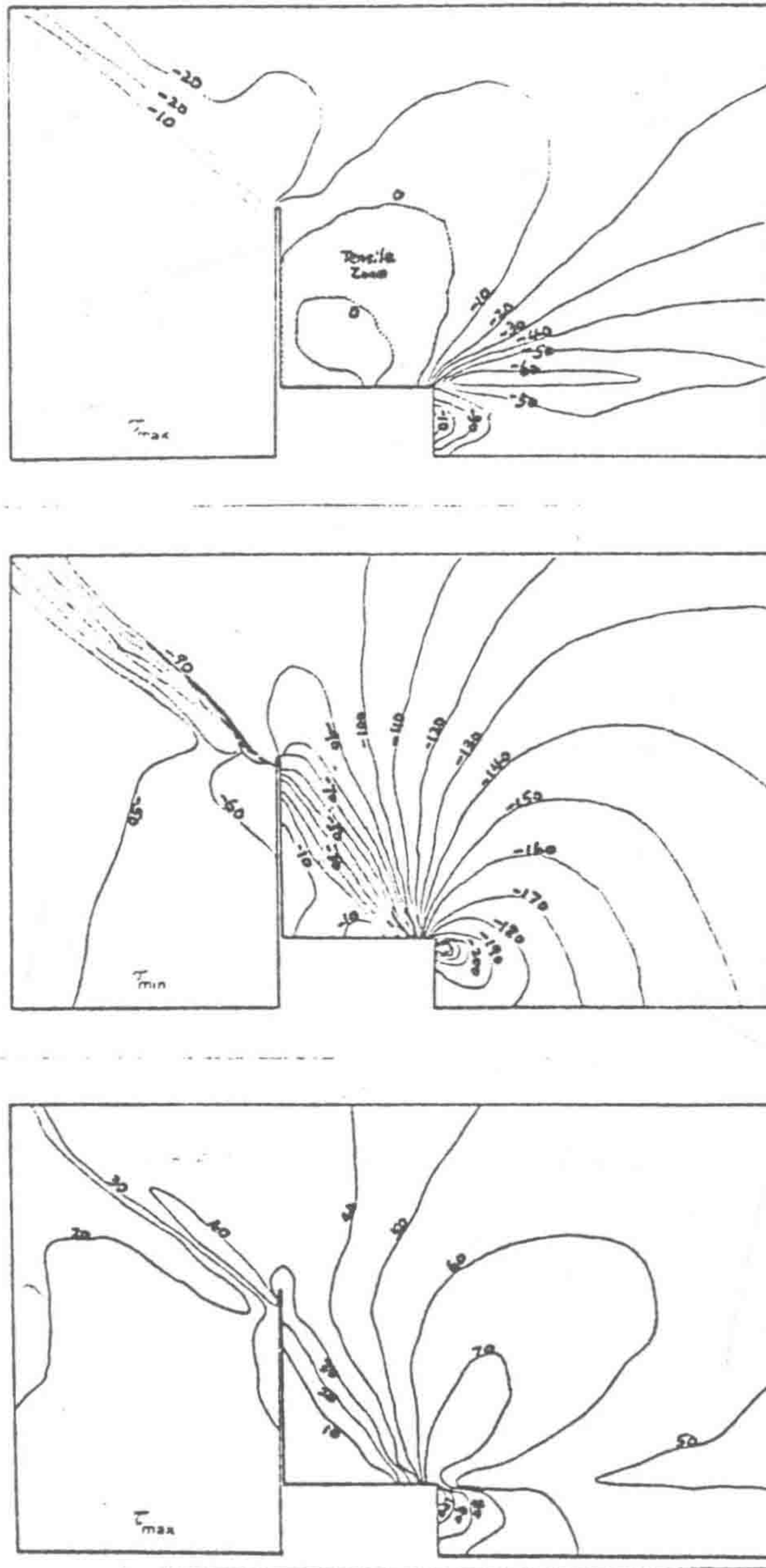


Fig. 14 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Longwall Chock Supports of 120 Tons Immediately after Coal Cutting. Numbers in KSF.

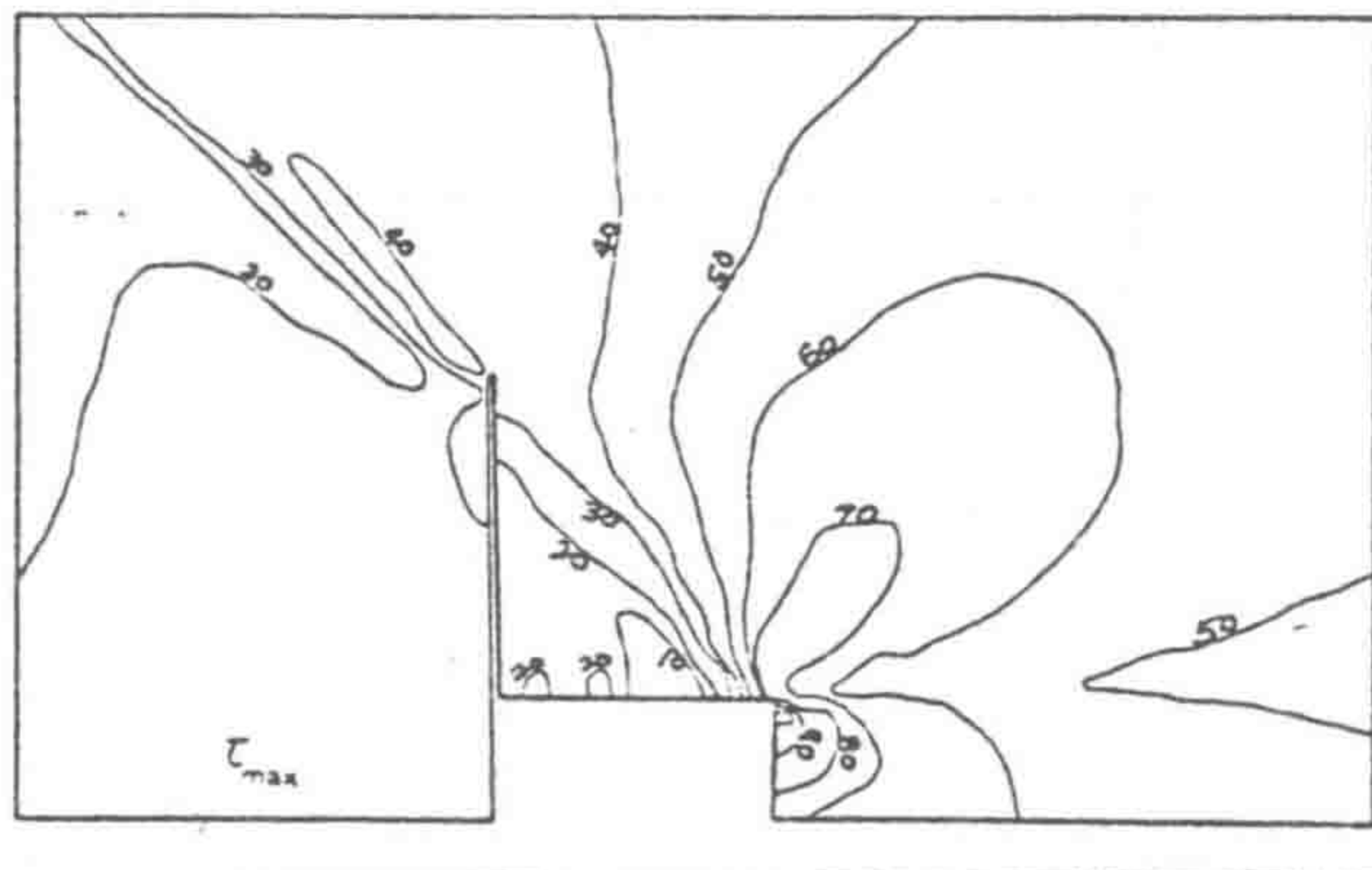
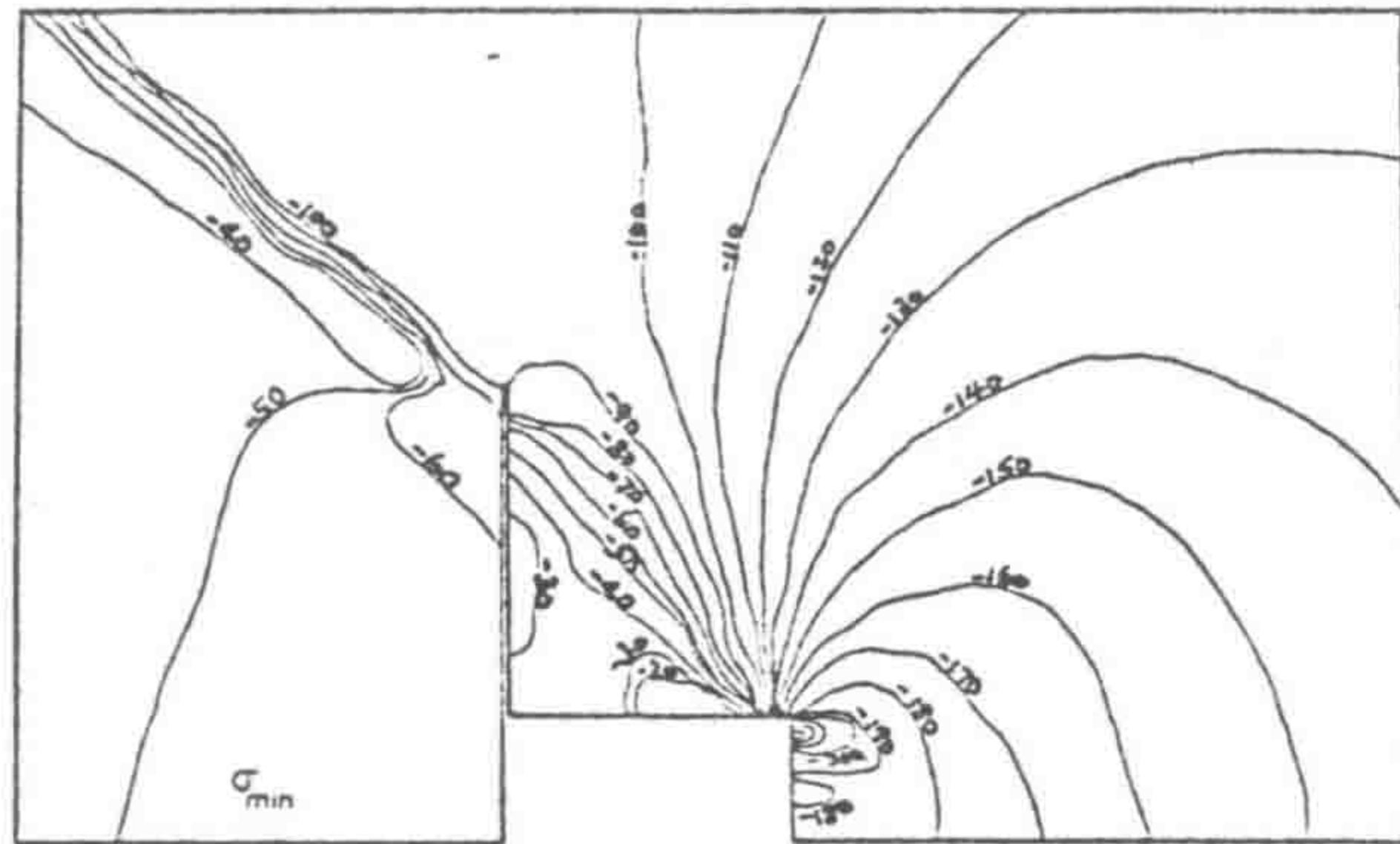
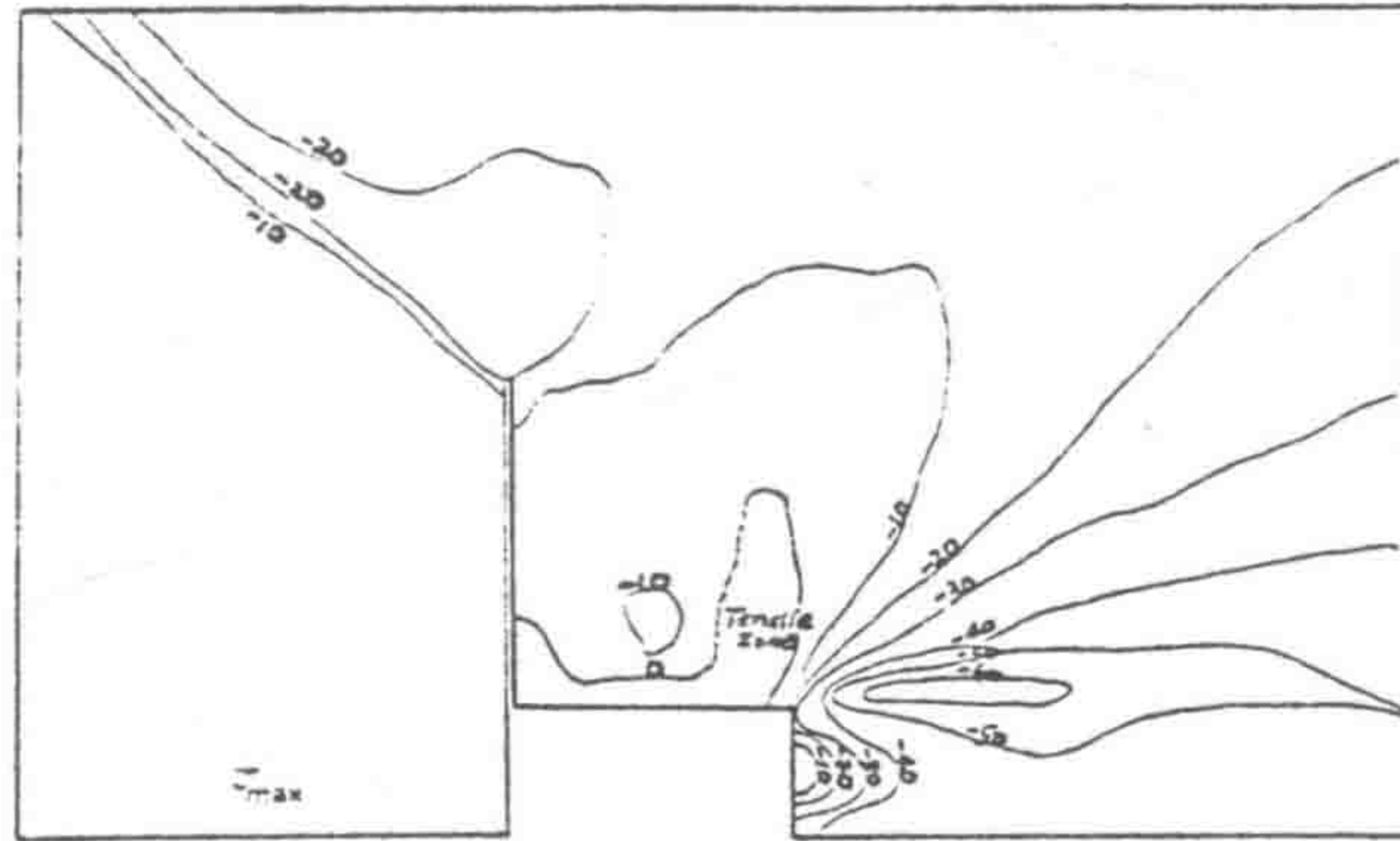


Fig. 15 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Longwall Chock Supports of 500 Tons Immediately after Coal Cutting. Numbers in KSF.

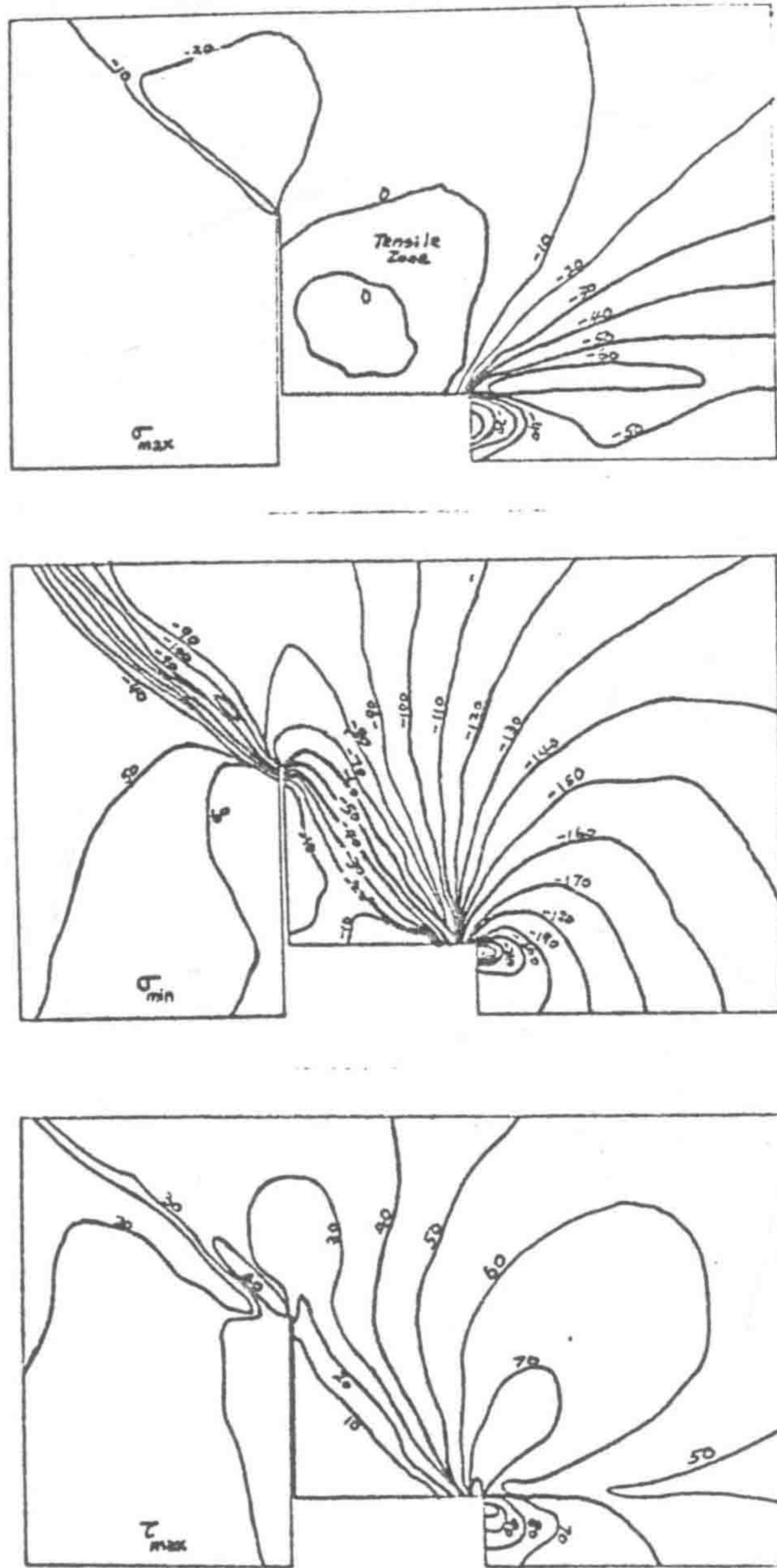


Fig. 16 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Shortwall Chock Supports of 125 Tons Immediately after Coal Cutting. Numbers in KSF.

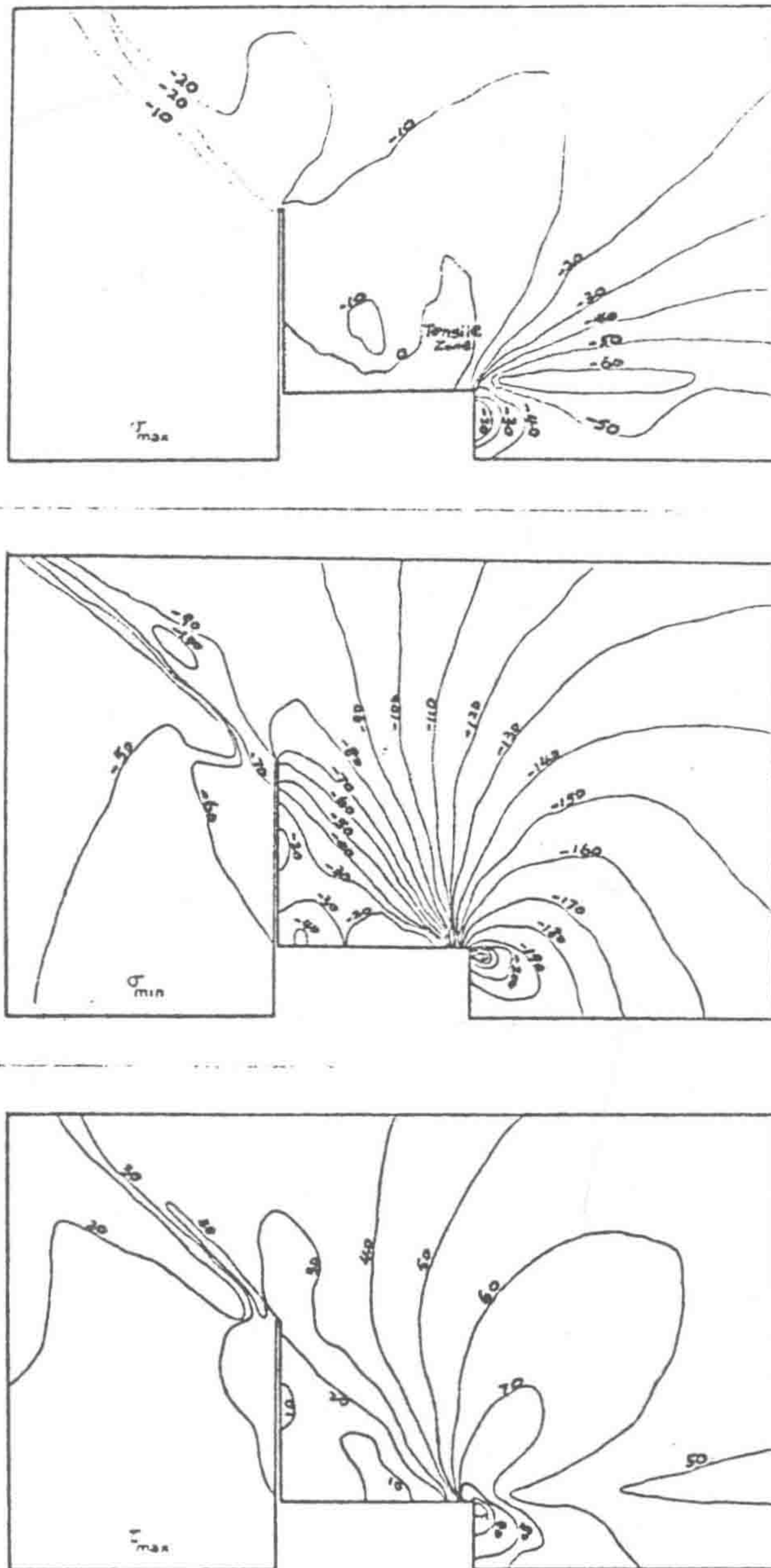


Fig. 17 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Shortwall Chock Supports of 500 Tons Immediately after Cutting. Numbers in KSF.

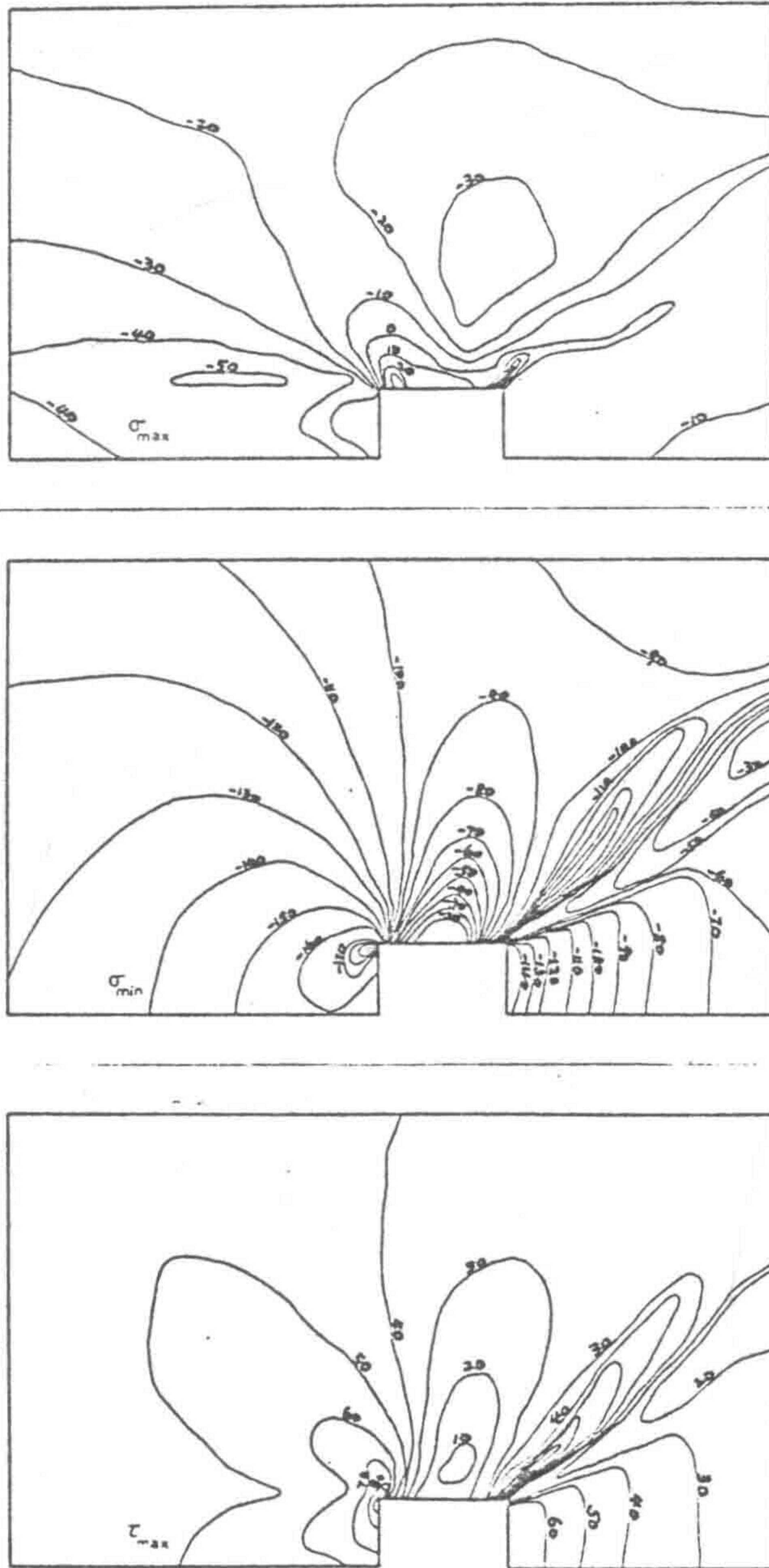


Fig. 18 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Shield Supports of 70 Tons. Numbers in KSF.

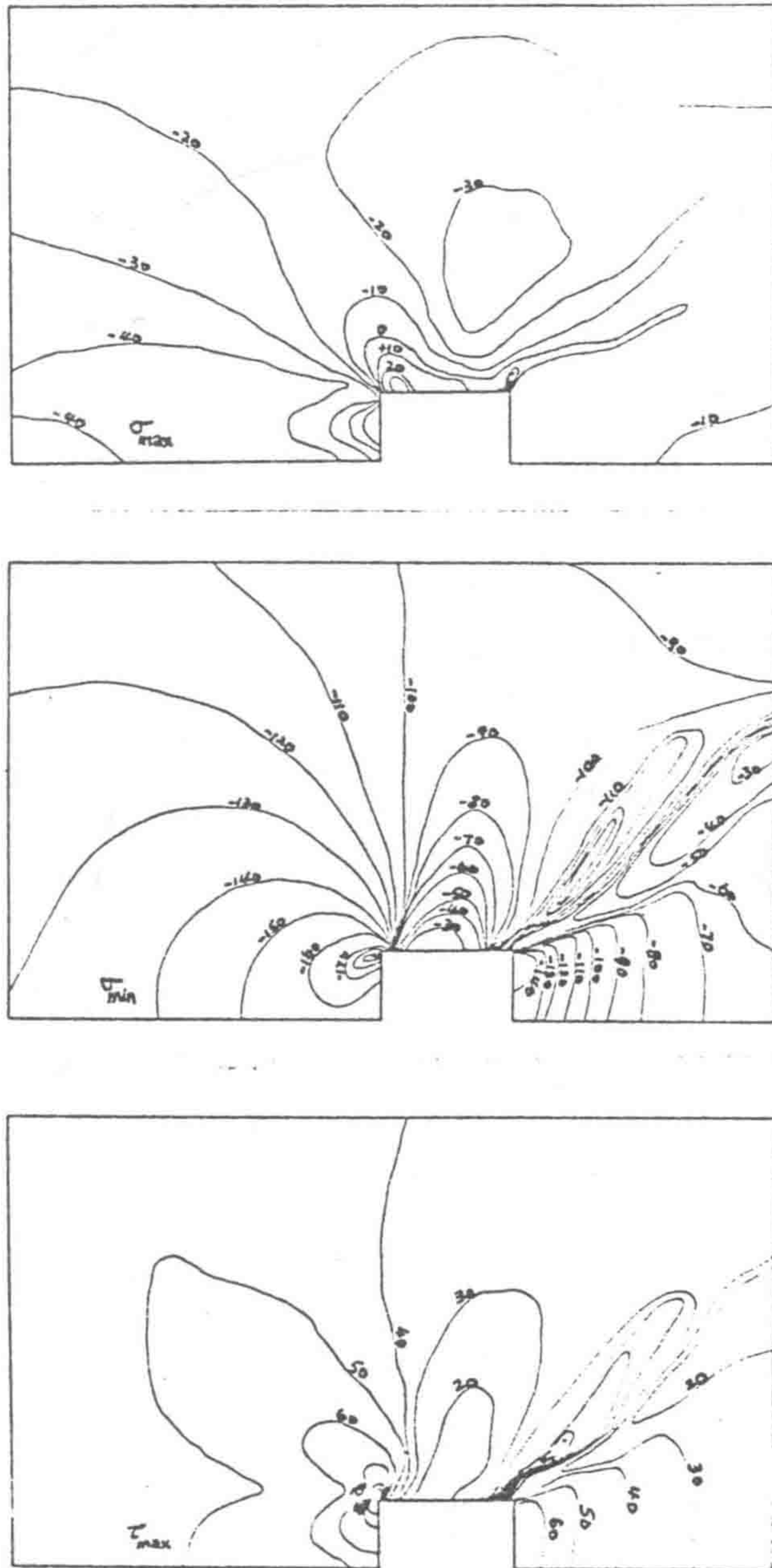


Fig. 19 Contour Maps of Stress Distribution for Faces with Shield Supports of 250 Tons. Numbers in KSF.