

ISSN: 2519-9846



المجلة الدولية للعلوم والتقنية

مجلة علمية محكمة تصدر عن

مركز العلوم والتقنية للبحوث و الدراسات



ابريل 2019

العدد السابع عشر

www.stc-rs.com.ly



هيئة التحرير

رئيس هيئة التحرير

د. أحمد الصغير جاب الله أستاذ مشارك في مجال الهندسة الميكانيكية وعلوم المواد من جامعة بودابست التقنية – دولة المجر



أ. عبد الحميد الطاهر زنبيل
 استاذ مساعد – تخطيط موارد بشرية .
 المعهد التخطيط للدراسات العليا



أ.م. محمد المنير حدود محاضر في مجال هندسة علوم المواد جامعة بلغراد – صربيا



أ.م. محمد علي القانقا محاضر في مجال الهندسة الالكترونية وتقنية المعلومات من جامعة شفيلد هالم بريطانيا -2008





كلمة العدد

الحمد لله حمداً كثيراً على نعمته التي أنعم الله بها علينا و ألهمنا و وفقنا لإصدار العدد السابع عشر من المجلة الدولية للعلوم والتقنية و الذي أتاح للبحّاث المهتمين في مجال العلوم الهندسية والتطبيقية و التقنية نشر أبحاثهم على صفحات هذه المجلة, والتي نسعى من خلالها لتقديم و توفير المعلومات و البيانات ونتائج الاختبارات العلمية الصحيحة لطلاب العلوم الهندسية و التطبيقية حتى يمكنهم استكمال دراساتهم و ابحاثهم على السس علمية.

و من هذا المنطلق فإن هيئة تحرير المجلة تجدد حرصها الدائم على استمرارية صدور المجلة برصانة و منهجية في البحث العلمي وذلك بإتباع الأساليب العلمية المحكمة في تقييم البحوث العلمية المقدمة من الأساتذة و البحاث بإشراف أساتذة متخصصين في جميع فروع العلوم و التقنية, آخذين في الاعتبار الطرق المتبعة في المجلات العلمية العربقة في هذا المحال.

وبهذه المناسبة يسر هيئة التحرير بالمجلة أن تثمن عالياً جهود جميع البحّاث و الأساتذة المهتمين الذين اختاروا صفحات هذه المجلة لنشر أبحاثهم و أوراقهم العلمية, كما أنها تتقدم بجزيل الشكر و العرفان لكل من ساهم في تحرير و مراجعة البحوث المقدمة للمجلة وتقديم هذا الصرح العلمي للوجود

هيئة التحرير



جدول المحتوبات

هيئة التحرير
كلمة العدد
تصميم منظومة حماية كاثودية بطريقة الأنودات المضحية
دراسة تأثير استخدام زيت محركات السيارات المستعمل كملدن علي بعض خواص
الخرسانة العادية في الحالة الصلبة و الطرية
دراسة إستقرارية مكاشف تكوين أبوشيبة الموازية للطريق الجبلي الحمراء بمنطقة القواسم
49(NW Libya)
دراسة تصاعد المخاطر والهجمات عبر شبكة الانترنت
تأثير القواطع البازلتية على ثبات المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي بمنطقة
تأثير القواطع البازلتية على ثبات المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي بمنطقة غريان (NW Libya)
Chairman of the Editorial Board
Analysis of Survey Data on Open Educational Resources 108
Corrosion Behaviour of Magnesium matrix carbides reinforced composites in 3.5 wt. % NaCl and different PH124
Detection of the site infection in urinary system by microscopic examination
Evaluation of Geostatic Interpolation Methods Based on GIS For Estimation Aquifers Transmissivity
Modeling the Behavior of Thin Plates under Various Boundary Conditions Using X-FEM
Multiple Response Optimization of (EDM) Parameters Utilizing Fuzzy Logic Integration



Numerical Transmissio	•			U		
Shape Option						_
Simulation of	of Natural C	as D	ehydration l	Process		266
Stabilization	n of Silty Sa	nd w	ith Magnesi	um Oxide		275
Study of st science in T				U		-
Using Intell	igent Contro	ol to I	Improve Sp	eech Reco	gnition	301
A SIMULA						
FIIFI FD W	ITH NATI	IRAI	GAS-HYI	ROGEN	RI FND	S = 315



تصميم منظومة حماية كاثودية بطربقة الأنودات المضحية

محمد عبدالمجيد قباصة 1 , الحجاج المختار قباصة 2 , موفق فيضي العروسي 2 المعهد العالي للعلوم و التقنية / الزاوية – ليبيا 2 كلية الموارد الطبيعية / جامعة الزاوية / العجيلات – ليبيا 2 Gabbasa80@gmail.com

الملخص:

يعتبر النفط الخام مصدر الدخل المهم وربما الوحيد للدولة الليبية لهذا استوجب علينا نحن الباحثين الاهتمام بالمنشآت النفطية للحفاظ عليها ووقايتها من الأضرار الناجمة على التآكل. وبما أن الخزانات هي الجزء الأساسي من أي منشأة نفطية وبناء على أهميتها كان من الضروري البحث على طريقة لوقايتها من التآكل وذلك لتجنب الأضرار والخسائر التي قد تحدث نتيجة لتأكل هذه الخزانات. لذلك فأن الحماية الكاثودية هي تقنية فعالة للحماية من التآكل تستخدم الخواص الكهروكيميائية لجعل المعدات المراد حمايتها القطب الموجب (كاثود) للخلية الالكتروليتية والطرف الأخر هو القطب السالب للخلية (الانود). ولهذا السبب فأن الغرض من هذه الدراسة التصميمية هو كيفية تقليل موجود في حقل الوفاء النفطي بسعة كلية من مادة النفط الخام تساوي m 16000 متر مكعب ويتضمن هذا البحث تصميم وحساب كافة النقاط المهمة في الحماية الكاثودية الداخلية لقاعدة الخزان باستعمال طريقة الانودات المضحية من نوع الألمونيوم صنف (AL-1-23H). وقد أتضح لنا من خلال نتائج هذا التصميم أن هذا الطريقة صممت لتتناسب مع متطلبات صناعة النفط الخام التي كانت في تطور سريع في الفترة الأخيرة.



الكلمات الدالة:

الحماية الكاثودية, الخواص الكهروكيميائية, الانودات المضحية, الخلية الالكتروليتية, كاثود, أنود.

Abstract:

Crude oil is important and perhaps the sole source of income for the Libyan state, so we researchers have to pay attention to the oil installations to preserve and protect them from damage caused by corrosion. As reservoirs are the main part of any oil facility, and because of their importance, it necessary to search for a method to prevent corrosion, in reservoirs. In order to avoid the damage and losses that may occur as a result of the erosion of these reservoirs. Cathodic protection is an effective corrosion protection technique that uses the electrochemical properties for equipment protection. The protection is achieved via the cathode of the electrolytic cell whereby the other end is the anode of the cell. The purpose of this design study is to how reduce erosion of metal structures using cathodic protection. The study examined the design and calculation of all important points in the internal cathodic protection of the base of the reservoir using the method of AL-1-23H-Type Aluminum anodes. It has been revealed through the results of the design this method was designed to suitable requirements of the crude oil industry which was rapidly development in the recent period.

المقدمة:

يعتبر التآكل ظاهرة طبيعية يتعرض لها أي معدن في ظروف معينة للرجوع إلى حالته الأصلية. وهو تفاعل سطحي لمادة مع محيطها والذي يؤدي إلى تلف المادة وخسارتها وذلك بتشردها داخل المحيط. كما يعرف التآكل بأنه اضمحلال المادة (المعدن) أو تغير خواصه نتيجة التفاعل مع محيطها. إن القوة الدافعة التي تجعله يتأكل هي عبارة عن



عملية طبيعية تعيد المعدن إلى الحالة التي يوجد عليها في الطبيعة أي الحالة الخام مثال علي ذلك أن الحديد يوجد في الطبيعة كمادة خام هي أوكسيد الحديد (Fe₂O₃) أن ناتج تأكل الحديد هو في معظم الأوقات هذا الأوكسيد نفسه. [1] وبسبب الأضرار الناجمة عن التآكل كان من الضروري البحث على طرق للوقاية من التآكل وتم التوصل من قبل الباحثين لعدة طرق تساهم في منع أو التقليل من التآكل والتي من ضمنها الحماية الكاثودية.[1]

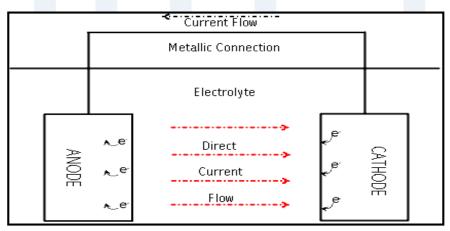
وتعرف الحماية الكاثودية بأنها طريقة لمنع التآكل والصدأ عن الأسطح الخارجية للمعدات المعدنية الحديدية المدفونة أو المغمورة بالماء بجعلها أقطاب سالبة من دائرة كهربائية. وهي أيضا تقنية فعالة للحماية من التآكل التي تستخدم الخواص الكهروكيميائية للمعادن لجعل المعدات المراد حمايتها كاثود الخلية الالكتروليتية. وتستعمل الحماية الكاثودية لحماية خطوط الأنابيب الفولاذية والخزانات والهياكل الفولاذية والسفن وأرصفة تحميل النفط البعيدة عن الشواطئ والبطانات المعدنية لأبار النفط وذلك بجعل الجسم المعدني المطلوب حمايته من التآكل كاثود سالب بالنسبة للتربة المحيطة / الألكترولايت المحيط وبمرور التيار الكهربائي من القطب الموجب (الأنود) عبر التربة / الألكترولايت المحيط بالجسم الفولاذي المدفون ليكمل الدائرة الكهربائية وبذلك يحمي معدن الفولاذ من التآكل.[2]

وحالة الخزانات التي ستتم دراستها موجودة في حقل الوفاء النفطي والذي يقع حوالى 540 كيلومتر جنوب غرب مدنية طرابلس ويبعد بحوالي 160 كيلومتر جنوب مدنية غدامس ويمتد على طول الحدود الليبية الجزائرية. مكمن حقل الوفاء النفطي هو طية أحادية الميل تنحرف قليلاً باتجاه الشمال الغربي وهو عبارة عن مصيدة طبقية ضيقة متكونة من الحجر الرملي وهو عبارة عن مكمن للغاز والمكثفات وقليل من النفط. وقد دعت خطة تطوير حقل الوفاء إلى حفر 37 بئر نفط وغاز والتي دخلت مرحلة الإنتاج في شهر سبتمبر من سنة 2004 م.[3]



1. وصف عملية التآكل:

تعتبر عملية التآكل عملية طبيعية في البيئة تحدث نتيجة تكون خلايا التآكل التي تعتبر رد فعل كهروكيميائي للمعادن المحاطة بمواد كيميائية من التربة أو ماء وهذه تشكل خلايا توصيل تولد الكهرباء (وتكون اتجاه الإلكترونات من المنطقة الأنودية إلى المنطقة الكاثودية) نتيجة فرق الجهد الطبيعي بين المعادن والذي ينتج عنه ذوبان المعدن الأكثر نشاطاً ويسمى القطب الذي يحرج منه التيار "أنود"، ويسمى القطب الذي يستقبل التيار "كاثود"، ويترتب على سريان التيار في الخلية حدوث تأكل على الأنود بينما يبقى الكاثود سليم و الشكل رقم (1) يصف عملية التآكل.



شكل (1) وصف عملية التآكل

يعتمد فرق الجهد الطبيعي إعتمادً كليا على السلسلة الكهروكيميائية والتي هي عبارة عن ترتيب المعادن المختلفة طبقاً للجهد الكهربي الطبيعي لها من الأكبر للأصغر أو هي ترتيب المعادن طبقاً لمدى مقاومتها للتآكل في ظروف معينة وكل معدن في هذه السلسلة يكون مصعد للمعادن السابقة له في السلسلة والجدول رقم (1) يوضح السلسلة الكهروكيميائية للمعادن.



جدول (1) السلسلة الكهروكيميائية للمعادن

جهد القطب القياسي بالفولت (V)	رمز العنصر		العنصر
0.23-	Ni	Nickel	نیکل
0.13-	Pb	Lead	رصاص
صفر	Н	Hydrogen	هيدروجين
0.34+	Cu	Cupper	نحاس
0.80+	Ag	Silver	فضية
0.83+	Pd	Palladium	بلاديوم
0.85+	Hg	Mercury	زئبق
1.21+	Pt	Platinum	بلاتين
1.42+	Au	Gold	ذهب

2. الحماية الكاثودية:

1.2 مبدأ الحماية الكاثودية و تطبيقاتها:

تعتبر الحماية الكاثودية هي طريقة لمكافحة التآكل (Corrosion Inhibitor) وهي من طرق تغيير جهد الوسط الأكال وتهدف الحماية الكاثودية (Cathodic Protection) إلى تكوين دائرة كهربية والتي تهدف إلى تحويل السطح المراد حمايته إلى كاثود وبذلك يكون في وضع اكتساب إلكترونات دائما وليس فقد إلكترونات وتعتبر التيار المسلط يكون في وضع اكتساب إلكترونات المضحية (Sacrificial Anodes) هما الطريقتين الأساسيتين في الحماية الكاثودية، وقبل التطرق إلى تطبيقات الحماية الكاثودية، لابد من معرفة عدة مصطلحات وهي ما يسمى الحماية العامة والحماية الشاملة (General & Complete Protection).



ففي حالة اخذ قياسات جهد الأنابيب كل كيلومتر أو نصف ميل من أطوالها فإذا كانت القياسات لا تقل عن (0.85) فولت يمكن القول إن على الأنابيب حماية عامة (General Protection) ولكن لا يعنى أن عليها حماية شاملة فهذه تتحقق فقط عندما يكون جهد كل نقطة على سطح الأنبوب في المستوى المطلوب. كما انه لابد من معرفة أن هناك نوعين من التربة وهما التربة المتجانسة (Homogeneous Soil) والتربة الغير متجانسة (Non-Homogeneous Soil) ففي التربة المتجانسة أو الماء يمكن الجزم بأن هناك حماية شاملة على الأنبوب إن توفرت عليه الحماية العامة نظرا لأن جهد الأنبوب في هاتين البيئتين يتلاشى بانسياب مع البعد من محطة الحماية وعليه فأنه إذا توفر مستوى الحماية المطلوب عند نقطتين على امتداد الأنبوب فمن الواضح أن هناك حماية كافية على كل نقطة من سطح الأنبوب أما في التربة غير المتجانسة فلا يمكن الجزم بذلك لوجود ظاهرة حجب التيار (Current Veil) عن الخطوط في بعض المواقع مما يجعل جهد الأنبوب فيها دون مستوى الحماية الشاملة وأن زيادة التيار في المحطات المجاورة لهذا الموقع لن يغير من الأمر شيء ولذلك فتطبيق الحماية الكاثودية على خط أنابيب في تربة متجانسة أو في الماء لا يشكل صعوبة ولكن هناك صعوبة بالغة في تطبيقها في الأراضي الصحراوية والصخربة (التربة الغير متجانسة) وخصوصا إذا كان هناك عدة أنابيب متوازبة وكانت حالتها متفاوية. [4] ومن التطبيقات الشائعة في الحماية الكاثودية:

- 1- الخزانات المدفونة تحت (التربة) الأرض.
 - 2- الخزانات المثبتة فوق (التربة) الأرض.
- -3 حماية أنابيب الوقود من التآكل عند تعرض سطوحها للتربة أو الماء.
 - 4- الأسطح الداخلية للخزانات.
 - 5- هياكل السفن والقوارب و منصات النفط البحرية.

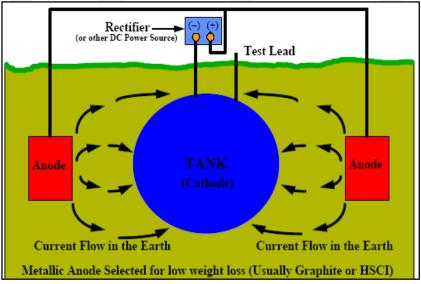
2.2. طرق الحماية الكاثودية:

تنقسم طرق الحماية الكاثودية إلى طربقتين رئيسيتين: -



1.2.2. طريقة التيار المسلط: (IMPRESSED CURRENT)

تعتمد هذه الطريقة على وجود مصدر تيار مستمر يتم الحصول عليه عن طريق تحويل مصدر التيار المتردد إلى تيار مستمر عن طريق (Transformer Rectifier) بحيث يتم توصيل جسم المعدن المراد حمايته بالطرف السالب لمصدر التيار ويتم توصيل الطرف الموجب عن طريق(Ground bed) وتكون من الحديد السليكوني وتبعد عن مصدر التيار في حدود 100– 50م ويتم استخدام الحماية الكاثودية من النوع التيار المسلط في حالة الحاجة لحماية خطوط الأنابيب وقواعد الخزانات ذات الأسطح الكبيرة والتي تتطلب تيار حماية عالي ولفترات طويلة تمتد على مدى عمر المنشآت التي تعود إليها (20 سنة فأكثر) كما انه يتوفر في هذه المنظومات إمكانية السيطرة على الحماية ومراقبتها المستمرة .[5] و الشكل (2) يوضح طريقة التيار المسلط.

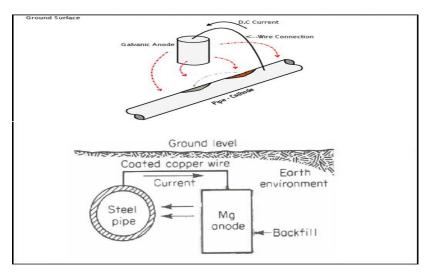


شكل (2) طريقة التيار المسلط



2.2.2. طريقة الأنودات المضحية: (SACRIFICIAL ANODES)

منظومات الحماية باستخدام أقطاب التضحية Sacrificial Anodes يعتمد هذا الأسلوب على الفعالية الجلفانية Galvanic Action بين المعدن المراد حمايته وأقطاب التضحية المستخدمة، حيث تستخدم أقطاب تضحية من معادن تأتي في مقدمة السلسلة الكهروكيميائية مقارنة بالمعدن المراد حمايته أي أنها ذات جهد طبيعي أكثر سلبا مقارنة بجهد المعدن المراد حمايته .[6] وشكل (3) يوضح طريقة الأنودات المضحية.



شكل (3) طريقة الأنودات المضحية

3.2.2. قياس جهد نقط الحماية الكاثودية:

إن قياس فرق الجهد بين الخطوط والتربة المحيطة بها مهم جداً سواء في تأثير التآكل على الخط أو في مستوى الحماية الكاثودية له. ويتم قياس فرق الجهد بين معدن الخط والخلية (Half-Cell) التي توضع في التربة، والخلية هي عبارة عن قطب من النحاس (Pole-Copper) مغمور في كبريتات النحاس وتستخدم كقطب قياس



(Referance Pole) لتسجيل قراءة الحماية الكاثودية ويعرف أيضا بالأفومتر. وشكل (4) يوضح جهاز الأفوميتر ومكوناته .[7]



شكل (4) جهاز الأفوميتر ومكوناته

3. منظومة الحماية الكاثودية:

الحماية الكاثودية هي طريقة لحماية الهياكل المعدنية الحديدية والأنابيب من التآكل جراء تعرض سطوحها إلى تماس مع التربة أو مع الماء .تتآكل السطوح الحديدية للهياكل المعدنية والأنابيب والمعدات الحديدية عموما عند تمس سطوحها التربة أو الماء نتيجة لحدوث تفاعلات كيميائية مصحوبة بسريان الإلكترونات (أي سريان للتيار الكهربائي).[8] لذا يمكن القول بأن عملية التآكل هي عملية كهروكيميائية تؤدي بالنتيجة إلى فقدان أجزاء من معدن الحديد وبالتالي تآكل السطح المعرض للتربة أو الماء أو حتى المعرض للجو الرطب حيث تتكون خلية جلفانية كهربائية. والجدول (2) يوضح المقاومة الكهربية للانودات المضحية في الخلية الجلفانية الكهروكيميائية.



جدول (2) حساب المقاومة الكهربية للأنود [5]

Anode Type	Resistance Formula		
Long Slender standoff $L \ge 4r$	$R = \frac{\rho}{2\pi L} \left(\ln \left(\frac{4L}{r} \right) - 1 \right) $ (Modified Dwight)		
$\begin{array}{c} \text{Long Slender standoff} \\ \text{$L \leq 4r$} \end{array}$	$R = \frac{\rho}{2\pi L} \left[\ln \left\{ \frac{2L}{r} \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{r}{2L}\right)^2} \right) \right\} + \frac{r}{2L} - 1 + \left(\frac{r}{2L}\right)^2 \right]$		
Long flush mounted L $\geq 4 \times$ width and length	$R = \frac{\rho}{2S} \text{(Lloyds)}$		
Short flush mounted, bracelet and other flush mounted shapes	$R = \frac{0.315\rho}{\sqrt{A}} (McCoy)$		

وتعتبر المقاومة النوعية للتربة أو المحيط الذي يشكل وسط التآكل وتعتبر المقاومة النوعية من النقاط الهامة التي تؤدي للتوصل إلى نتائج أولية لتقديرات كثافة تيار الحماية المطلوب وبالتالي إلى تقديرات التيار الكلية وجهد الأنود وجهد المعدن المصنوع منه الخزان أو الجسم المراد حمايته .[9] وكما هو موضح في الجدول (3) اختلاف كثافة التيار باختلاف المحيط الموجودة به هذه المعادن الداخلة في عملية التصميم.

جدول (3) اختلاف كثافة التيار باختلاف المحيط [7]

Environment	Current density (μA/cm ²)
Well aerated neutral soil	2.152-3.228
Wet soil	2.691-6.456
Highly acidic soil	5.38-16.14
Sulfate-reducing bacteria	Up to 45.190
Heated soil	5.38-26.90
Stationary fresh water	Up to 5.38
Moving fresh water containing dissolved oxygen	5.38-16.14
Seawater	5.38-26.91



1.3. أساسيات عملية التصميم في طريقة الحماية الكاثودية:

عند تصميم منظومة حماية كاثودية يتطلب الأخذ في الاعتبار النقاط الرئيسية و الفعلية التالية:

- 1. نوع المنشأ والمعدن المطلوب حمايته
- 2. المساحة السطحية للمنشأ المطلوب حمايته من التآكل
 - 3. المقاومة الكهربية للأنود و كثافة التيار الانود
- 4. نوع التغليف المستخدم في تغطية السطح المطلوب حمايته

2.3. منظومة الحماية الكاثودية باستخدام أقطاب تضحية من الألمونيوم:

مواصفات بعض الأنواع من أنود الألمونيوم والنوع المستخدم في التصميم (AL-1-23H): و الجدول (4) يوضح المواصفات القياسية لجميع أنودات الالمونيوم ومقارنتا مع هذا النوع المستخدم في هذا التصميم. حسابات التصميم الأساسية.

جدول (4) مواصفات أنود الألمونيوم [5]

Standard Dimensions							
	Nominal dimensions (mm)						
Anode type	Config. Type	L	W	Т	MNTG. BRACKETS		Nominal anode net WT (kg)
					CL	CW	(ng)
AA-2-10H	В	356	165	32	152	32	4.5
AA-1-12H	A	356	114	57	64	38	5.4
A-2-15H	В	546	127	38	292	32	7
AA-1-20H	A	610	114	57	64	38	9.1
A-1-23H	A	610	127	51	64	32	10.4
A-1-2H	A	610	127	64	64	38	13.2
AA-2-32H	В	508	254	51	254	38	154.



عند إجراء عملية التصميم لمنظومة الحماية لخزان نفط خام من التآكل عن طريق استخدام الأنودات المضحية سيتم أتباع الخطوات التالية: والجدول (5) يوضح جميع القيم الأساسية المستخدمة في حسابات التصميم.

جدول (6) القيم المستخدمة في حسابات التصميم

المتغيرات التصميمية					
39م	قطر الخزان (D)				
1متر	ارتفاع مستوى الماء (h)				
100اوم.سم	مقاومة الإلكتلروليت (P)				
0.02مبير /م²	كثافة التيار التصميمية (I)				
10سنين	عمر التصميمي (L _f)				
10.4كجم	وزن الأنود الواحد (W)				
3.5كجم/أمبير. سنة	سعة التيار لكل أنود (Icapacity)				
%90	كفاءة التيار لكل أنود (leff)				
%65	معامل الاستخدام (U _f)				
12.7سم	عرض الأنود (b)				
61سم	طول الأنود (L)				
5.1سم	سمك الأنود (t)				

1.2.3. حساب مساحة الخزان:

لحساب المساحة الكلية للخزان (A total) يتم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$A_{\text{total}} = A_{\text{shell}} + A_{\text{Bottom}} \tag{1}$$



حيث أن:

A shell تمثل مساحة غلاف الخزان.

A Bottom تمثل مساحة قاع الخزان.

لحساب مساحة غلاف الخزان تم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$A_{\text{shell}} = \pi \times D \times h \tag{2}$$

حيث أن:

D تمثل قطر الخزان.

h تمثل ارتفاع مستوى الماء في الخزان.

-لحساب مساحة قاع الخزان يتم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$A_{\text{Bottom}} = \frac{\pi \times D^2}{4} \tag{3}$$

بما أن الخزان المستخدم قطره 39م وارتفاعه متر واحد فأن المساحة الكلية للخران المساحة الكلية للخران (A total) تساوي 1316.445 متر مربع.

2.2.3. التيار الكلي المطلوب:

لحساب التيار الكلى المطلوب لحماية الخزان (I total) تم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$I_{total} = A_{total} \times I_d \tag{4}$$

حيث $_{\rm ld}$ تمثل كثافة التيار التصميمية وهي تساوي (0.02 أمبير $_{\rm ld}$).

استخدام المعادلة سابقة ينتج عنه تيار كلى قدره (26.33 أمبير).

3.2.3. وزن الأنودات:

تم استخدام معادلة (5.4) لحساب وزن الأنودات المطلوبة (W):

$$W = \frac{L_f \times I_{\text{total}} \times I_{\text{capacity}}}{I_{\text{eff}} \times U_f}$$
 (5)

حيث:

Lf تمثل عمر التصميمي بالسنة



ا تمثل سعة التيار وهي (3.5كجم/أمبير. سنة) $l_{capacity}$ تمثل كفاءة تيار الأنود وهي (90%) l_{eff} تمثل معامل الإستخدام وهي (0.65) وهذا ينتج عنه وزن قدره (1575.23كجم)

4.2.3. عدد الأنودات المطلوبة:

لحساب عدد الأنودات المطلوبة (N) تم استخدام معادلة (6.4):

$$N = \frac{W}{W_{anode}} \tag{6}$$

حيث: W anod تمثل وزن الأنود الواحد وهي 10.4كجم

باستخدام المعادلة السابقة يصبح عدد الأنودات المطلوبة على 152 أنود.

5.2.3. المساحة المحمية لكل أنود:

لمعرفة المساحة المحمية من قبل كل أنود (A anode) نستخدم المعادلة التالية:

$$A_{\text{anode}} = \frac{A_{\text{total}}}{N} \tag{7}$$

وهذا ينتج عنه مساحة محمية قدرها 8.66م 2 لكل أنود

ولحساب أدني مسافة بين الأنودات (L_{min}) نستخدم معادلة (8.4)

ولحساب قطر الحماية للكل أنود (D anode) نستخدم معادلة (9.4)

$$L_{Min} = \sqrt{A_{anode}}$$
 (8)

$$D_{anode} = \sqrt{\frac{A_{anode}}{\pi}} \tag{9}$$

المعادلتين السابقتين ينتج عنهم أدنى مسافة قدرها 2.94م وقطر حماية 1.66م.

6.2.3. المسافة بين صفوف:

استخدمت معادلة (10.4) لحساب المسافة بين الصفوف الأنودات (L row).



$$L_{row} = \frac{A_{anode}}{D_{anode}} \tag{10}$$

وهذا ينتج عنه مسافة قدرها 5.2م. وفيما يخص المسافة بين جدار الخزان والصف الاول تم فرضه نصف المسافة بيت كل صف أي 2.6م.

7.2.3. مقاومة الألكتروليت الأنودى:

لحساب المقاومة الكهربائية للألكتروليت الأنودي (R) تم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$R = \frac{p}{2 \times \pi \times L} \left(\ln \left(\frac{4L}{r} \right) - 1 \right) \tag{11}$$

حيث ان:

P يمثل مقاومة الإلكتروليت وهي 100 اوم/سم

L يمثل طول الأنود وهي 61سم

r تمثل نصف القطر المعادل وتحسب بالمعادلة التالية:

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{b - t}{\pi}} \tag{12}$$

حيث (b) تمثل عرض الأنود وهي 12.7سم و (t) تمثل السمك وهي 5.1 سم المقاومة الكهربائية باستخدام المعادلات السابقة تصبح 1.06 اوم.

8.2.3. التيار الخارج لكل أنود:

لحساب التيار الخارج من كل أنود تم استخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$I = \frac{V}{R} \tag{13}$$

حيث V تمثل فرق الجهد وهي 0.97 فولت وهذا ينتج عنه تيار قدره 1.75 أمبير لكل أنود ولحساب التيار الخارج للمنظومة الكاملة يتم ضرب التيار الخارج من أنود واحد في عددهم والذي ينتج عنه تيار كلى قدره 266 أمبير.

4. النتائج:

يمكن حصر النتائج التصميمية السابقة في الجدول التالي:



جدول (7) نتائج النهائية لحسابات التصميم

النتيجة	عامل التصميم
1193.99 م	مساحة قاع الخزان المراد حمايته (A Bottom)
122.46 م2	مساحة غلاف الخزان المراد حمايته (A _{shell})
1316.45 م ²	المساحة الكلية المراد حمايتها (A _{total})
26.33 أمبير	التيار الكلي المطلوب لحماية الخزان (l total)
1575.23 کجم	وزن الأنودات المطلوبة (٧٧)
152 أنود	عدد الأنودات المطلوبة (N)
8.66 م2	المساحة المحمية من قبل كل أنود (A anode)
2.94 م	أدنى مسافة بين الأنودات (L _{min})
1.66 م	قطر الحماية لكل أنود (D _{anode})
5.2 م	المسافة بين الصفوف (L row)
2.6 م	المسافة بين جدار الخزان والصف الأول من الأنودات
1.06 أوم	مقاومة الأنود (R)
1.75 أمبير	التيار الخارج لكل أنود (۱)
266 أمبير	التيار الخارج الكلي

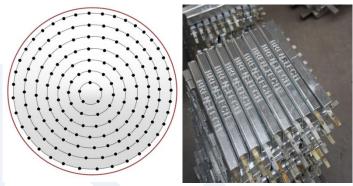
^{*}ملاحظة: مساحة قاع الخزان = السطح العلوي للخزان والسطح السفلي للخزان. مساحة غلاف الخزان = عمق الخزان من أعلى نقطة إلى أسفل نقطة.

الجدول التالي يوضح عدد الأنودات وقطر كل صف من الأنودات و كما هو موضح في الشكل (5) وهو يوضح توزيع الأنودات على قاع الخزان والشكل (5–2) يوضح



أشكال الأنودات المستخدمة في التصميم. وتم توزيع الأنودات بهذا الشكل باستخدام المعادلة التالية:

$$N = \frac{2 \times \pi \times r}{\text{Minimum distance between anodes}}$$
 (13)



شكل (5) توزيع الأنودات في قاع الخزان & شكل (3-2) أحد أنواع أنودات الألومونيوم

جدول (8) عدد الأنودات وقطر كل صف من الأنودات

قطر الدائرة (م)	عدد الأنودات	رقم الصف
36.4	38	1
31.2	33	2
26.1	27	3
20.8	22	4
15.6	16	5
10.4	11	6
5.2	5	7
	152	عدد الكلي من الأنودات



5. الاستنتاجات:

الاستنتاجات النهائية التي تم الحصول عليها من النتائج النهائية من حسابات التصميم وهي كالآتي : يتطلب التصميم (152) أنود، قيمة التيار الخارج من الأنود الواحد و (1.75) أمبير و أقل مسافة بين الأنودات هي (2.94) مترو قطر الحماية التي يوفرها الأنود (1.66) متر. أي أننا نحتاج (152) أنود من الألمونيوم طول الأنود الواحد (166) سم وعرضه (12.7) سم وسمكه (5.10) سم لحماية الخزان. ويجب الأخذ في الاعتبار إضافة بعض القطع الإضافية إلى إجمالي عدد الأنودات المطلوب وذلك لاستخدامها في حالة حدوث أي عطب في أحد القطع عند النقل والتخزين أو عند تركيب الأنودات في قاع الخزان. وهكذا نستطيع حماية الخزانات من التآكل وتخفيض تكاليف الصيانة أو الاستبدال بالإضافة إلى تجنب حدوث حرائق قد تنجم نتيجة تسرب النفط من الخزان وقد تعرض حياة العاملين للخطر بالإضافة إلى تجنب خروج الخزان عن العمل مما يؤدي في بعض الأحيان إلى توقف إنتاج الشركة. ومن خلال النتائج السابقة لطريقة تصميم الأنودات المضحية في طريقة الحماية الكاثودية يتضح أن هذه الطريقة صممت لتتلاءم مع متطلبات صناعة النفط والغاز الطبيعي التي كانت في تطور سريع في الفترة الأخيرة وقد تم الاستفادة من مزايا استخدام أنابيب فولاذية رقيقة في الأنابيب المدفونة وخزانات النفط الخام.

المراجع:

- [1]. د. حسين باقر و آخرون (1990م), هندسة التآكل وحماية سطوح المعادن, جامعة بغداد , العراق.
- [2]. د. محمد عز الدهشان و آخرون, (1422هـ), مبادئ علم التآكل و الأكسدة, جامعة المستنصرية, العراق .



- [3]. د. ليث غانم, (2001), كتاب أسس الحماية من التآكل, الجامعة السورية, حمص, سوريا 2001.
- [4]. د.قحطان خلف محمد و آخرون, (1988), الحماية من التآكل: أسبابه و أنواعه و طرق الحماية منه, جامعة بغداد 1988م.
- [5]. د. سامح السيد وآخرون , (2010) , الحماية الكاثودية , جامعة القاهرة , مصر 2010 م .
- [6]. حقل الوفاء النفطي , الدليل الحقلي (2001) , الكتيب الخاص بالمخازن, المؤسسة الوطنية للنفط, ليبيا .
- [7]. د. أحمد الصقار , (2000) , كتاب الطرق الإلية في التحليل الكيميائي , الطبعة الثانية, جامعة الإسكندرية , مصر 1998 م .
- [8]. د. ناصر الحايك وآخرون , (1989) , مدخل الي كيمياء السطوح , الطبعة الأولى , جامعة ورقلة , الجزائر 1989 م.
- [9]. حقل الوفاء النفطي , كتيب الدليل الارشادي (2003) , الكتيب الخاص بالمنطقة الصناعية داخل الحقل , المؤسسة الوطنية للنفط, ليبيا.



دراسة تأثير استخدام زيت محركات السيارات المستعمل كملدن علي بعض خواص الخرسانة العادية في الحالة الصلبة و الطربة

أ.م. لبني سليمان بن طاهر

محاضر بقسم الهندسة المدنية-كلية الهندسة- جامعة بنغازي lubna.bentaher@uob.edu.ly

الملخص

في هذا البحث تم دراسة تأثير استخدام زبت محركات السيارات (المستعمل و المجمع من ورش تغيير زبوت محركات) على بعض خواص الخرسانة بالحالة الصلبة مثل مقاومة الانضغاط و مقاومة الشد و الكثافة و نسبة الامتصاص و خواصها بالحالة الطرية مثل زمن الشك الابتدائي و النهائي و الهابط استخدمت خلطة مرجعية خالية من أي مضاف و اخرى تحتوي على الزبت بسبع نسب مختلفة من وزن الاسمنت قدرها (0.2, 0.4,0.6, 0.2, 0.8, 1, 1.5, و 2%) مع تثبيت اوزان مواد الخلط (الاسمنت و الركام الكبير و الركام الصغير). أظهرت النتائج أن استخدام زبت المحركات المستعمل زاد الهابط بنسبة (225.2 %) وايضا قد زاد من زمن الشك الابتدائي بقيمة 1:10س والنهائي بقيمة 1:05 س. وجد أن أفضل قيمة لمقاومة الانضغاط كانت للخلطة ذات نسبة زبت المحركات المستعمل المضاف 0.6% حيث كان التغيير في قيمة المقاومة بنسبة 4.65%. ومن النتائج المتحصل عليها استخلص ان استخدام زبت المحركات المستعمل له دور في تحسين تشغيلية الخرسانية واكسابها قوام بلاستيكي, ويمكن اعتباره من المواد المبطئة للشك و ويقلل من وزنها و كثافتها ونسبة امتصاصها للماء. و بصفة عامة قيم مقاومة الخرسانة للضغط والشد المتناقصة لم تكن بالشكل الكبير مما دل على جودة الخرسانة المنتجة. حيث باستخدام الزبت المستعمل لا نحصل فقط على ملدن جيد وبسعر شبه مجانى بل أيضا نساعد على الحفاظ على البيئة بإعادة



استخدامه. و يمكن التوصية باستخدام زيت المحركات المستعمل بالعناصر الانشائية مثل الاعمدة المدفونة, و خزانات المياه, خزانات الصرف الصحي, الأساسات كون أن الزيت قلل من نسبة الامتصاص للماء وتجنب استعماله بالعناصر الانشائية المعرضة للشد و تجنب استخدامه اثناء الصب و الخلط بالجو البارد.

كلمات دالة: زيت المحركات المستعمل (UEO), الخرسانة الصلبة, الخرسانة الطازجة , مقاومة الخرسانة للشد , مقاومة الخرسانة للضغط , الهابط , التشغيلية

Abstract

In the modern construction, industrial wastes are largely used as raw materials in concrete. It conveys encouraging environmental effect because the waste materials are not released to the environment; thus, this paper presents a study on the fresh and hardened properties of concrete containing used engines oil. Slumps, setting time were determined for the fresh properties and compressive strength, density change in weight ,tensile strength and water absorption of concrete were determined for the hardened properties. The dosage of used engine are 0.2, .04, 0.6, 0.8, 1, 1.5, 2% of the cement weight in the concrete mixes. Results showed that performance of used engine oil acted as a chemical plasticizer by improving the fluidity and the slump of the concrete mix. The used engine oil increases the initial and final setting time and increases the consistency. Moreover the effects of engine oil on the concrete compressive and tensile strength were not damaging with respect to the control mixes.

1- المقدمة

شهدت صناعة الخرسانة تطورا كبيرا بإنتاج انواع جديدة لتشييد خرسانة موثوق بخواصها من حيث القدرة علي تحمل الضغط و الديمومة و السهولة بالتنفيذ وذلك باستخدام مضافات للخرسانة. و تعرف المضافات بانها مواد تضاف الي الخرسانة خلال عملية الخلط لتحسين خاصية معينة او عدد من خواص عندما تكون بحالة طرية او خلال



مرحلة التصلد او المعالجة و تصنف حسب الغرض الرئيسي من استعمالها. ومن واشهر هذه المضافات هي الملدنات, و هي مواد غير الرمل والإسمنت والماء تضاف إلى الخلطة الخرسانية أثناء عملية الخلط بكميات صغيرة جداً بغرض إعطاء الخرسانة الطازجة أو الخرسانة الصلبة خواص معينة مطلوبة. و يسعي العديد من الباحثين الي تحسين انتاج الخرسانة بمواصفات جيدة في الحالتين الصلبة و الطرية مع الاحتفاظ بكلفة بسيطة عن طريق استخدام المضافات, فهناك انواع عديدة من النواتج العرضية الصناعية و النفايات كمواد اولية مع الاسمنت و الخرسانة ولهذا الاتجاة تاثير كبير ايجابي علي الحفاظ علي بيئة نظيفة كوسيلة من التخلص من النفايات. حيث اتجه الكثير من البحاث نحو دراسة خواص الخرسانة المحتوية علي زيت المحركات و من تلك البحوث هي:

الزبيدي و احمد, 2008, بالبحث المقدم من قبلهم تم دراسة تأثير استخدام زيت المحركات المستعمل (UEO) كعامل ملدن للخرسانة علي خواص الخرسانة الطرية و الصلبة وتأثير ذلك عند تعرض الخرسانة الصلبة لدرجات حرارة عالية، و تبين النتائج المتحصل عليها أن الزيت المستعمل يؤثر على زمن الشك الابتدائي و النهائي و على هابط الخرسانة و المحتوى الهوائي مقارنة بالخرسانة الاعتيادية. و أيضا تم تناول هذا الموضوع من قبل الباحث حمد واخرون, 2004, بدراسة تأثير إضافة زيت المحركات على بعض خواص الخرسانة الطرية (الهابط، المحتوى الهوائي) والمتصلبة (مقاومة الانشاء ،معاير النعومة) إذ تم استخدام ثلاثة أنواع من المضافات (زيت المحركات المستعمل، زيت محركات جديد، ومضاف كيماوي من المضافات (زيت المحركات المستعمل، ويت محركات جديد، ومضاف المستعمل و الجديد كانا متماثلين و مماثل لتصرف المضافات الكيماوية إذ أدى إلى المستعمل و وزادت قيمة المحتوى الهوائي للخرسانة وزاد هابط الخرسانة إلى الضعف تقريباً و وزادت قيمة المحتوى الهوائي للخرسانة أيضاً إلى الضعف أما بالنسبة لمقاومة الانضغاط فقد حافظت على قيمتها بدون انخفاض كبير. اما البحث المقدم من شفيق و اخرون, 2016, حيث قاموا قيمتها بدون انخفاض كبير. اما البحث المقدم من شفيق و اخرون, 2016, حيث قاموا قيمتها بدون انخفاض كبير. اما البحث المقدم من شفيق و اخرون, 2016, حيث قاموا قيمتها بدون انخفاض كبير. اما البحث المقدم من شفيق و اخرون, 2016, حيث قاموا



بدراسة تأثير اضافة زيت محركات علي خواص الخرسانة الصلبة و الطرية. حسب نتائج الاختبارات التي اجريت وجدوا ان هابط بالخرسانة الطرية و محتوى الهواء زاد عن الخلطة المرجعية. اما بالنسبة الى مسامية و نفاذية الخرسانة فأنها قلت و لوحظ ايضا ان مقاومة الخرسانة لم تتأثر تقريبا من اضافة زيت المحركات المستعمل للخلط. ايضا قام حسين , واخرون ,2016, بعمل دراسة تأثير استعمال زيت محركات الجديد و المستعمل كل علي حده علي خواص الخرسانة الصلبة و الطرية. استنتج ببحثه ان استخدام الزيت الجديد زاد من تشغيلية الخرسانة المخلوطة اكثر من الزيت المستعمل و ان كان الزيت مستعمل زاد تشغيلية للخرسانة مقارنة مع الخلطة المرجعية التي خلطت دون استخدام أي مضاف. ايضا تم استنتاج ببحثه ان الخرسانة المخلوطة زيت المحركات ذات معامل دمك اقل من تلك التي لم تخلط باي مواد مضافة .

يهدف هذا البحث الي دراسة خصائص الخرسانة الصلبة و الطرية المخلطة بزيت محركات السيارات المستعمل (UEO) كمضاف لتحسين تشغيليتها بنسب (0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 1, 5.1, 2% من وزن الاسمنت) مع تثبيت نسب الخلط للمواد المحلية الأخرى و من ثم مقارنة النتائج مع خلطة مرجعية دون استخدام الزيت بخلطها. و الخصائص المدروسة للخرسانة الطرية متمثلة في الهابط و زمن الشك الابتدائي و النهائي اما الخرسانة الصلبة فتتمثل الخصائص في مقاومة الخرسانة للضغط بعد 28 يوم و الشد الغير مباشر و الوزن و الكثافة و نسبة الامتصاص للماء.

2- المواد المستخدمة بالبحث:

: الاسمنت

هو اسمنت بورتلاندي عادى من انتاج مصنع زليتن وهو منتج محلي ومتوفر بالأسواق كما في الشكل (1). يوضح الجدولين1 و2 التراكيب الكيميائية وخواصه (وفق الاختبارات التي اجريت علي عينه منه) والتي تقع ضمن حدود المواصفات فبالتالي تم اعتماده بالدراسة .



شكل (1) يوضح الاسمنت المستعمل بالبحث.

جدول (1) نتائج التحليل الكيميائي لعينه من إسمنت مصنع زليتن المستخدم بالبحث.

النسبة %	الرمز الكيميائي	التركيب
%22.2	Sio2	ثاني أكسيد السليكون
%4.76	Al2o3	أكسيد الألمنيوم
%4.88	Fc2o3	أكسيد الحديديك
%63.93	Cao	أكسيد الكالسيوم
%1.98	Mgo	أكسيد الماغنسيوم
%2.25	So3	ثالث أكسيد الكبريت

جدول (2) نتائج الاختبارات التي اجريت علي اسمنت مصنع زليتن المستخدم بالدراسة.

BS 12 : 1978	النتائج	الاختبار
لا يقل عن 45 دقيقة	2	زمن الشك الابتدائي (ساعة)
لا يزيد عن 10 ساعات	2:30	زمن الشك النهائي (ساعة)
mm 7 ← 5	6.5	القوام القياسي (mm)
	3.15	الوزن النوعي
لا تزيد عن 10 %	%10	النعومة
ASTM (C348-02	مقاومة الانضغاط
الحد الادنى MPa 15	15.2	3 أيام
الحد الادنى MPa 23	23.5	7 أيام



-2 الركام الكبير و الصغير :

تم استجلاب وتوريد الركام الكبير من محاجر الابيار جنوب شرق مدينة بنغازي والركام الصغير (رمل) من منطقة بحر سلطان، الشكل (2) يوضح الركام المستخدم. و الجداول (3) و (4) توضح نتائج الاختبارات التي اجريت على الركام الخشن (الكبير) من حيث خواصه و ايضا التدرج الحبيبي له. وكما بالشكل (3) يوضح النسبة بين التراكمية المار من المنخل و قطر حبيبات للركام الخشن و هي تقع بين حدود المواصفات المعتمدة مما يدل ان الركام جيد التدرج. ايضا وفق النتائج المتحصل عليها لخواص الركام الكبير وجد انها من ضمن حدود المواصفات فبالتالي تم اعتماده بالبحث. اما الجداول (5) تعرض نتائج الاختبارات التي اجريت على الركام الناعم (الصغير) والتدرج و(6) تعرض نتائج الاختبارات التي اجريت على الركام الناعم (الصغير) والتدرج حبيبات الركام الصغير وهي تقع بين حدود المواصفات مما يدل انه الركام الصغير جيد التدرج. و بمقارنة نتائج خصائص الركام الصغير الفيزيائية بالمواصفات المعتمدة بالبحث وجد انها من ضمن حدود المواصفات اي يمكن اعتماده بالبحث.



شكل (2) يوضح الركام الكبير والصغير المستعمل بالمشروع .

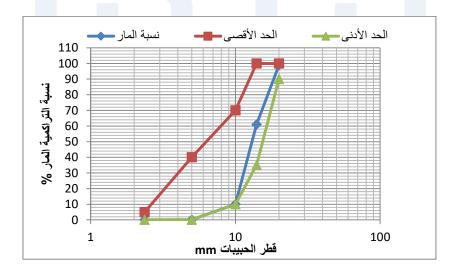


جدول (3) خواص الركام الخشن المستخدم بالدراسة .

BS 812:PART 2:1975	نتائج الاختبار	الاختبار
2.75 ← 2.5	2.69	الوزن النوعي
3>	%1	نسبة الامتصاص
الحد الأعلى 3 %	%0.389	نسبة المواد الناعمة
	%0.38	محتوى الرطوبة
1800←1600	1600	وزن وحدة الحجوم

جدول (4) نتائج التحليل المنخلى للركام الخشن .

	- 1	() = -
حدود المواصفات البريطانية BS)% (882:1992	النسبة للتراكمية المارة %	مقاس المنخل (mm)
100	98.99	20
90 -100	60.95	14
40 - 80	10.05	10
30 – 60	0.12	5
0 - 10	0	2.36



شكل (3) منحنى التدرج الحبيبي للركام الكبير.

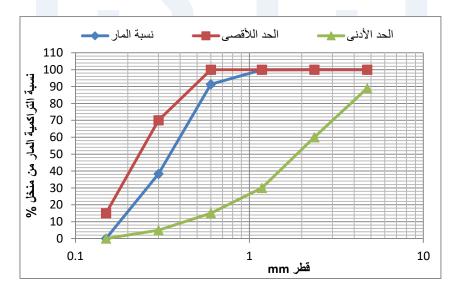


جدول (5) نتائج اختبارات الخواص الفيزيائية للركام الناعم .

BS 812:PART 2:1975	نتائج الاختبار	الاختبار
2.75 ← 2.5	2.75	الوزن النوعي
%2 ← 0.5	%1	نسبة الامتصاص
1850 ← 1500	1720	وزن وحدة الحجوم

جدول (6) نتائج التحليل المنخلى للركام الناعم .

حدود المواصفة البريطانية BS)%	النسبة المئوية التراكمية	مقاس المنخل
882:1992)	المارة %	(mm)
89 - 100	100	4.75
80 - 100	99.94	2.36
70 – 100	99.87	1.18
55 – 100	91.38	0.6
5 – 70	38.28	0.3
0 – 15	0	0.15



شكل (4) منحنى التدرج الحبيبي للركام الصغير (الرمل).



3- ماء الخلط:

تم استخدام ماء الشرب الاعتيادي في إعداد الخلطات في هذا البحث، كذلك تم استخدامه في معالجة العينات من مكعبات و اسطوانات.

4- زيت محركات السيارات (المستعمل) UEO:

تم استخدام زيت المحركات المستعمل كمضاف إلى الخلطة الخرسانية والمتوفر بالأسواق المحلية وتم تجميعه من مخلفات ورش تغيير زيت المحركات للسيارات بمدينة بنغازي كما الشكل (5)، الجرعة المقترحة والمستخدمة في هذا البحث هي (0.2، 0.4، 0.6، 0.6، 1، 1.5، 2%) من وزن الإسمنت. والوزن النوعي للزيت (1.2) حيث تم تجميع الكميات المستخدمة بالدراسة من اكثر من ورشه وموقع ومن ثم تم اجراء الاختبارات عليه لمعرفة تركيبه الكيميائي كما هو موضح بجدول (7).



شكل (5) يوضح الزيت المستعمل بالدراسة (UEO).

جدول (7) يوضح نتائج التحليل الكيميائي لعينة من زبت المحركات المستعمل (UEO).

النسبة المنوية %	الرمز الكيميائي	التركيب الكيميائي
0.43	Fe2O3	أكسيد الحديديك
15.9	CaO	أكسيد الكالسيوم
37.0	SO3	ثالث أكسيد الكبريت
8.95	P2O5	اكسيد الفوسفور الخماسي
17.7	ZnO	اكسيد الزنك
15.9	Cl	کلور



3- نتائج تصميم الخلطة الخرسانية بطريقة المعهد الامريكي ACI211.1:

في هذا الجزء من البحث تم حساب اوزان مواد الخلط للخلطات الخرسانية وفق طريقة المعهد الامريكي بحيث تفي المتطلبات التالية (الجدول رقم8):

- . (MPa 35-30) يوم (28 يوم الانضغاط بعمر 28
- 2. قابلية التشغيل = متوسطة، بحيث يكون مقدار الهابط حوالي (100-25) .
 - . (mm 20−19) = الخشن الأقصى للركام الخشن المقاس الأقصى للركام الخشن
- 4. خواص الركام الخشن: الوزن الجاف بالدمك اليدوي =1600 kg/m³ ، الكثافة النسبية الكلية =2.75, معامل النعومة =2.80).
 - 5. الوزن النوعي لزيت المحركات المستعمل (1.2) . وتم استخدام المعادلة التالية لتحديد مكونات الخلطة للمتر المكعب من الخرسانة $V_w + V_{Cagg} + V_{Fagg} + V_c + V_{UEO} = 1 \, m^3$ (1)

حيث أن:

حجم الماء= V_w ، حجم الركام الكبير= V_{Cagg} ، حجم الركام الصغير= V_{Fagg} ، حجم الاسمنت= V_c ، حجم زيت المحركات المستعمل= V_c .

جدول (8)يوضح الأوزان المستخدمة في الخلط للخرسانة المعتمدة بالبحث.

W _{Fagg} (kg/m ³)	W_{Cagg} (kg/m^3)	W _c (kg/m ³)	$W_{\rm w}$ (kg/m^3)	W/C	W _{UEO}	رقم الخلطة
702.53 1014.4			206.3	0.45	0	1
	451.11	202.10	0.448	0.2	2	
		201.20	0.446	0.4	3	
		200.29	0.444	0.6	4	
		199.39	0.442	0.8	5	
		198.49	0.440	1	6	
			196.23	0.435	1.5	7
			193.98	0.430	2	8



وقد اجريت التجارب خلال فترة الشتاء المطيرة و بدرجات حرارة دون 6 درجات مئوية فتم تجفيف الركام واستخدامه جافا اي انه لا حاجة الى تعديل الاوزان المحسوبة وفق نسبة امتصاص الركام

4- اعداد الخلطات و اجراء اختبارات الخرسانة في الحالة الطربة والصلبة:

1-4 اعداد الخلطات وصب و معالجة الخرسانة:

إن عملية الخلط تمت باستخدام خلاط بحوض أفقي سعته (0.07 mm و تم اعتماد حجم الخلطة (m³0.0347) الكافية لصب 4 مكعبات 150×150×150 (m³0.0347) الكافية لصب 4 مكعبات 150×300 الخشن و الناعم اسطوانات 300×300 mm لإتمام مجموعة واحدة. تم إضافة الركام الخشن و الناعم و الاسمنت و وضعهم في الخلاطة ومن ثم تم خلط هذه المواد وهي جافة ولمدة نصف دقيقة للحصول على خلطة متجانسة القوام، ومن ثم اضافة الماء حتى تجانس الخلط وبعدها إضافة الزيت مع استمرار الخلط حتى توزيعه بصورة جيدة. بعد ذلك صبت الخرسانة في القوالب بعد دهنها بدهن المحركات حيث تم رص كل طبقة بواسطة منضدة الهزاز الميكانيكي لمدة 7 ثوان قبل صب الطبقة الأخرى. ثم عولجت بحوض المعالجة لمدة 28 يوم ومن ثم إخراجها لغرض إجراء الفحوصات, حيث اجريت كل الاختبارات في معامل جامعة بنغازي كلية الهندسة و الأشكال (6) و (7) توضح القوالب والأجهزة المستخدمة بالخلط و الصب.



شكل (6) يوضح القوالب للعينات بعد تشحيمها و تجهيزها للصب مع الهزاز الميكانيكي و الخلاط المستخدم.





شكل (7) يوضح العينات في شكلها النهائي بعد الخلط و الصب دون اضافة الزيت ومع اضافة الزيت.

2-4 نتائج الاختبارات على الخرسانة الطرية:

تم اجراء اختبار الهابط بالبحث حسب الموصفة (ASTM C143-78) وعرضت النتائج المتحصل عليها بجدول (9) و ايضا اشكال الانهيار وانسيابية الخرسانة بعد اجراء الاختبار عرضت بالشكل (8). اما عن زمن الشك الابتدائي والنهائي قيست عن طريق جهاز فيكات كما الشكل (9) والنتائج المتحصل عليها عرضت بالجدول (9).

جدول (9) نتائج اختبارات الخرسانة بالحالة الطرية .

نك	زمن الث			_
النهائي (hr:min)	ا لابتد ائ <i>ي</i> (hr:min)	الهابط (mm)	UEO %	رقم الخلطة
2:25	2:00	27	0	1
2:35	2:20	30	0.2	2
2:55	2:30	35	0.4	3
3:05	2:40	37	0.6	4
3:10	2:45	40	0.8	5
3:15	2:55	45	1	6
3:20	3:05	75	1.5	7
3:30	3:10	88	2	8



شكل (8) يوضح الهابط بالخلطات الخرسانة عند اضافة زيت المحركات المستعمل.



Copyright © ISTJ



الشكل (9) يوضح عينة المونة المخلوطة مع الزيت و العينة الأخرى الغير مخلوطة بالزيت عند قياس زمنى الشك الابتدائي و النهائي.



4-3 نتائج اختبارات الخرسانة الصلبة

حسبت مقاومة الضغط و الكثافة لمكعب الخرسانة كالتالى:

$$\frac{P}{A} = 1$$
مقاومه الضغط

(3)
$$\frac{m}{V} = \frac{m}{V}$$

حيث أن:

P=V , (kg), الكتلة (m^2), m=1 الكتلة ((Kg)), (Kg) الحجم ((m^3)).

و تحسب مقاومة الخرسانة للشد الغير مباشر حسب المعادلة التالية:

ر4)
$$\frac{2P}{\pi DL} = \frac{2P}{\pi DL}$$
مقاومة الشد البرازيلي

حيث :

$$(m)$$
 = طول الأسطوانة = D,(Kg) = طول الأسطوانة = P

بالنسبة الى نسبة امتصاص الخرسانة للماء فتم اجراء اختبار حسب المواصفة الامريكية محلال 100C⁰ بأن تجفف العينات في الفرن بدرجة حرارة (100C⁰) تقريبا، ولمدة 24 ساعة , ثم يتم أخد وزنها ويعتبر هذا الوزن الجاف، ومن ثم تغمر العينات في الماء لمدة 24 ساعة ويتم أخد وزنها ويعتبر هذا الوزن الرطب، ومن خلال المعادلة التالية يمكن حساب نسبة الامتصاص:

(5)
$$100 \times \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1} = \text{Maxion 100}$$

اما الكثافة للخرسانة بعد 28 يوم , اعتمد المواصفة 1985-567 ASTM بحسابها وفق القانون التالي :



(6)
$$\frac{W}{V} = \frac{W}{V}$$

ايضا تم احتساب معدل التغير الوزني للخرسانة لمراقبه معدل تصلدها و هو ما يعبر عن مقدار الماء الذي فقد اثناء عمليه تصلد الخرسانة بعد 28 يوم .

(7)
$$\frac{W_f - W_{28DAY}}{W_{28DAY}} \times 100 = \%$$
 in the integral of the contract of the contra

 $W_1 = (Kg)$, $W_2 = (Kg)$, $W_1 = (Kg)$, $W_1 = (Kg)$, $W_2 = (Kg)$, $W_3 = (Kg)$, $W_4 = (Kg)$, $W_2 = (Kg)$, $W_3 = (Kg)$, $W_4 = (Kg)$, $W_2 = (Kg)$, $W_3 = (Kg)$, $W_4 = (Kg)$,



شكل (9) العينات بعد اخراجها من خزانات المعالجة بعد 28 يوم.



شكل (10) وضع العينات لقياس مقاومة الخرسانة للضغط و مقاومتها للشد.



شكل (11) اشكال الكسر و الانهيار بالعينات بعد الانتهاء من اجراء اختبار الشد للخرسانة المحتوية على الزيت.

جدول (10) نتائج اختبارات لمكعبات الخرسانة بالحالة الصلبة.

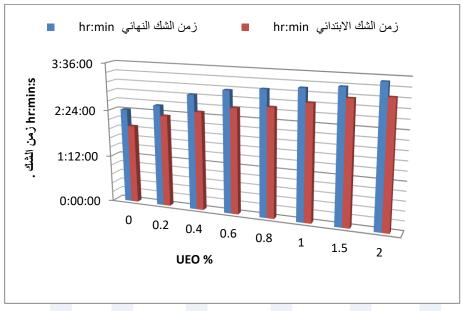
نسبة الامتصاص %	متوسط اجهاد الشد ft	متوسط اجهاد الضغط f`c	نسبة التغير في وزن الخرسانة	متوسط الكثافة بعد 28 يوم (Kg/m ³)	متوسط الوزن بعد 28 يوم	UEO %	رقم الخلطة
4.68	(MPa) 3.43	(MPa) 45.44	1.54	2440.74	(Kg) 8.24	0	1
4.97	3.33	43.34	1.40	2425.93	8.19	0.2	2
5.39	3.20	43.00	1.24	2429.63	8.20	0.4	3
5.62	3.04	43.33	1.08	2429.63	8.20	0.6	4
5.19	2.90	37.44	0.96	2333.33	7.88	0.8	5
5.45	2.76	36.67	0.65	2296.30	7.75	1	6
5.09	2.62	35.11	0.63	2303.70	7.78	1.5	7
5.15	2.60	28.67	0.62	2288.89	7.73	2	8

5 - مناقشة النتائج:

1. بعد قياس زمن الشك الابتدائي و النهائي لعجينة الاسمنت الاعتيادية والحاوية على زيت المحركات المستعمل، نلاحظ ان زمني الشك يزداد لكل نسب زيت محركات المستعمل بمقدار الزيادة التالية لزمن الشك الابتدائي: (د0:20)، (د0:30)، (د0:45)، (د0:55)، (د0:45)، (د0:45)،

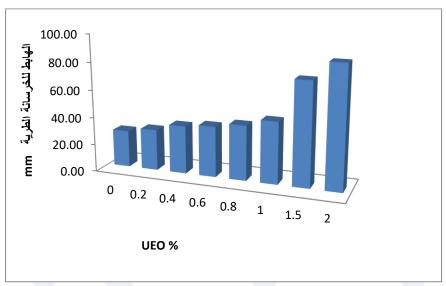


كانت بمقدار (د0:10)، (د0:30)، (د0:45)، (د0:45)، (د0:50)، (د0:55)، (د0:55)، (د0:55)، (د0:55)، الذي يوضح العلاقة بين نسبة الزيت و زمنى الشك .



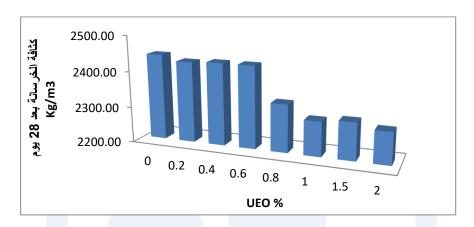
شكل (12) يوضح تزايد زمن الشك مع نسب المضاف (WEO).

2. عند فحص الهابط للخلطة الخرسانية المرجعية كانت قيمته (27 mm) و عند إضافة زيت المحركات المستعمل نلاحظ أن الهابط ازداد بنسبة (11.11, 29.63, 29.63, 11.11) ، ذيت المحركات المستعمل نلاحظ أن الهابط ازداد بنسبة (225.93، 177.78، 66.67، 48.15، (13). اي كلما زادت نسبة المضاف تزيد بذلك تشغيلية الخرسانة و من المقارنة بين اشكال الهابط نلاحظ انه اتخذ الشكل الحقيقي و نوع قوام الخرسانة هو البلاستك كون ان قيم الهابط بين 30 الى 90 mm.



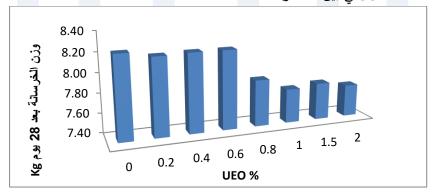
شكل(13) يوضح مخطط بين نسبة المضاف (WEO)، و مقدار الهبوط.

3. قيم الكثافة كانت متفاوتة ، كما مخطط (14), اصبحت كثافة الخرسانة تنقص بزيادة نسبة الزيت والجدير بالذكر ان درجات الحرارة اثناء الخلط و الصب و طيلة فترة المعالجة كانت في الجو البارد حيث كانت درجة حرارة الجو تصل الي 6 درجات مئوية و الذي خفف من تأثير درجة الحرارة التي تنبعث اثناء اتمام التفاعل بين الاسمنت و الماء للخلط. وعمل الزيت علي فصل حبيبات الاسمنت و منع تكتله مع الماء فبتالي تحسنت عملية الاماهة, فكل كمية الماء تتوزع بين امتصاص الركام لها و بين اتمام عملية التفاعل. و كانت نسبة النقصان بكثافة الخرسانة تصل حتى 6.22% وهو الفرق بين الخلطة المرجعية و الأخيرة ذات مضاف بنسبة 2% من وزن الاسمنت و ايضا بالمجمل كانت كثافة الخرسانة من ضمن حدود المواصفات .



شكل (14) يوضح مخطط بين نسبة المضاف (WEO) و متوسط الكثافة.

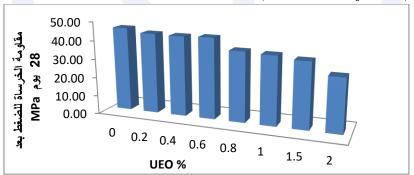
4. عند حساب نسبة التغير في الوزن ما بين الخلطة المرجعية و باقي الخلطات التي خلطت بنسب المضاف (WEO%) كانت القيم في المتوسط تتناقص لتصل الى (0.62%) و (0.63%) على التوالي كما المخطط(15). ومن هنا نلاحظ ثبات حجم الخرسانة أي لم يحدث فصل او نضح او انتفاخ للعيناء أي ان الزيت لم يؤثر على التفاعل الكيميائي بين الماء و الاسمنت.



شكل(15) يوضح مخطط بين نسبة المضاف (WEO%) ومتوسط نسبة التغير في وزن الخرسانة.



5. من الشكل(16) نلاحظ أن قيمة مقاومة الضغط تتناقص بزيادة نسب زيت السيارات (المستعمل) ،إذ ان القيمة المرجعية لمقاومة الضغط كانت (45.44 MPa) تناقصت بنسب (45.44 MPa) ،أي بزيادة المضاف بنسب (5.38،4.65،17.60،19.32،22.74،36.91 »). أي بزيادة المضاف اصبحت مقاومة الخرسانة تقل وهذا يرجع لوجود فرغات و مسامات بالخرسانة لاحتباس الهواء وايضا هو ما ينتج علي نقصان بالكثافة للخرسانة. لكن بالمجمل ان الهدف عند التصميم هو الحصول على مقاومة 30 MPa و كان متوسط القراءات لمقاومة الضغط لجميع العينات حتى نسبة مضاف 1.5% كانت اعلي من قيمة مستهدفه حتى الوصول الى 2% كانت تصل الي 28.67 كانت اعلي من قيمة مستهدفه حتى النظر العينات بعد كسرها و جود فجوات و فراغات واضحة تري بالعين المجردة وهو ما نتج ان زيت تم اضافته بعد خلط المواد الجافة و من ثم اضافة الماء و من ثمة الزيت. مما كان من الافضل هو عمل مستحلب من الماء للخلط و الزيت لضمان تجانس الخليط و عدم تكتل الزيت كون ان خلط تم بالأجواء الباردة.

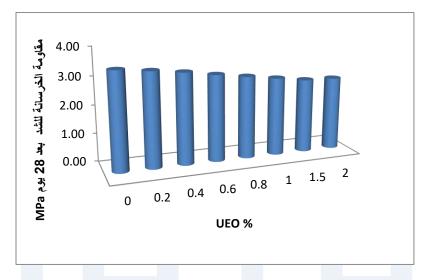


شكل (16) يوضح مخطط بين نسب المضاف (WEO%) و متوسط اجهاد الضغط.

6.من الشكل (17) نلاحظ أن قيمة مقاومة الشد تتناقص بزيادة نسب زيت المحركات (المستعمل). قيمة الشد في الخلطة المرجعية كانت (3.43 MPa) تناقصت هذه القيمة بالنسب (6.07,3.09, 11.34 ،6.07,3.09). وترجع هذه القيم بالتناقص كون ان زيت محركات هو مادة صنعت خصيصا لتقليل احتكاك الاجزاء

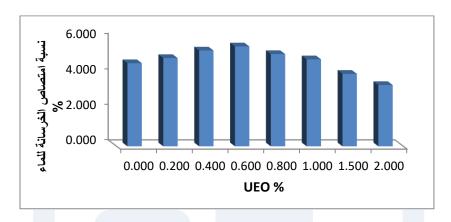


الصلبة فبتالي من المتوقع ان يحدث انخفاض في مقاومة الشد للخرسانة. و لكن بصفة عامة القيم للشد المتناقصة لم تكن بالشكل الكبير الذي يضر بخصائص الخرسانة و ايضا بالنظر الى اشكال انهيار العينات لم يكن هناك فصل بين حبيبات الركام و مونة الاسمنتية و كان الانشطار بالركام و المونة معا.

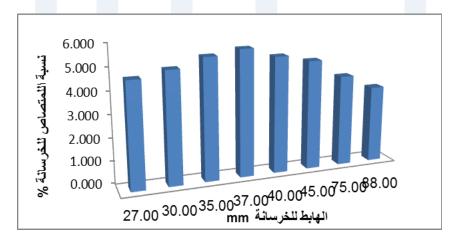


شكل (17) يوضح مخطط بين نسب المضاف (WEO) ومتوسط مقاومة الشد للخرسانة.

7. من خلال مخطط (19و18) توضح تغير بنسب امتصاص الخرسانة للماء فهي تزيد حتى حد معين وهو عن نسبة مضاف 0.6% و من ثم تبدأ بالتناقص اي ان الزيت يعمل علي وجود فراغات و لكن بعد ذلك اصبح يتغلل بالفراغات مكونا ماده عازله للخرسانة كونه لا يتبخر كما الماء. ان الزيت يمكن ان يقوم بتحسين مقاومة نفاذ الماء للخرسانة ويكون طبقة تقوم بسد المسام في الخرسانة.



شكل (18) يوضح مخطط بين نسب المضاف (WEO) ونسبة امتصاص الخرسانة.



شكل (24) يوضح مخطط بين نسب الامتصاص للخرسانة و الهابط للخرسانة الطرية.

5- الخلاصة و الاستنتاجات و التوصيات:

يتضمن هذا البحث دراسة تأثير إضافة زيت المحركات (المستعمل) على بعض خواص الخرسانة بالحالة الصلبة و الطرية . حيث تبين النتائج ان استخدام زيت المحركات المستعمل له دور في تحسين الهابط و سيولة الخلط الخرسانية واكسابها قوام بلاستيكي و بذلك يمكن استخدامها بالعناصر الانشائية ذات حديد تسليح متوسط, و للأعمال

الاعتيادية مرصوصة يدوبا, و للمقاطع الكثيفة التسليح وباستعمال الهزازات. وبمكن اعتبار زبت المحركات المستعمل من المواد المبطئة للشك للخرسانة الطربة فبتالي مناسبة للصب و الخلط بالمناخ الحار. الزبت المستعمل مادة ملدنه اكسبت الخرسانة فراغات وقللت من وزنها و كثافتها أي من الممكن الحصول على خرسانه مسامية خفيفة الوزن وعازله للرطوبة. و بصفة عامة قيم مقاومة الضغط والشد المتناقصة لم تكن بالشكل الكبير الذي يضر بخصائص الخرسانة ما يدل على جودة الخرسانة المنتجة. و ينصح باستخدام زيت المحركات المستعمل بالعناصر الانشائية مثل الاعمدة المدفونة, و في خزانات المياه و الصرف الصحي, الأساسات وتجنب استعماله بالعناصر الانشائية المعرضة للشد و ايضا تجنب استخدامه بالصب و الخلط بالجو البارد. اخيرا من البيانات المتحصل عليها ان افضل نسبة للمضاف الذي هو زبت المحركات المستعمل كانت 0.6 من وزن الاسمنت اكسبت الخرسانة مقاومة بمقدار MPa43.33 و بكثافة kg/m³ 2429.63 و وعند زبادة الزبت عن هذه النسبة تقل نسبة امتصاص الخرسانة اما مقاومة الشد تصل الى3.04MPa بمقدار هابط يصل الى 40 mm. بعد الانتهاء من هذا البحث لابد من زيادة التوعية والحث على انتاج الخرسانات من المخلفات الصناعية بسبب توفرها ورخص ثمنها بالإضافة إلى الفائدة البيئية المتمثلة بالتخلص منها.

المراجع:

- [1]. الزبيدي , حازم, إبتسام و احمد, احمد , عبدالحكيم ,2009, "استخدام (زيت المحركات المستعمل) كمضاف في الخرسانة المعرضة لدرجات حرارة عالية " ، مجلة الرافدين , اصدار 17 العدد السادس, 13.PP.
 - [2]. Hamad, B. S., Rteil, A. A. and El-Fadel, M. (2003), Effect of Used Engine Oil on the Properties of Fresh and Hardened Concrete", Construction and Building Materials, 17, pp. 311-318.



- [3]. Hussen, S. S., 2016, USING OF INDUSTRIAL WASTE AS A GREEN CHEMICAL ADMIXTURE IN CONCRETE, Kufa Journal of Engineering, 7(1), PP. 104-114.
- [4]. Shafiq, N., Nuruddin, F., N. L., Kamal, M. and Sadon, S. N., 2016, Effects of Used Engine Oil as an Admixture in Concrete Durability" British Journal of Applied Science & Technology, 15(6), PP. 1-10, ISSN: 2231-0843.





دراسة إستقرارية مكاشف تكوين أبوشيبة الموازية للطريق الجبلي الحمراء بمنطقة القواسم (NW Libya).

ابوالقاسم عبد الفتاح الأخضر. قسم الهندسة الجيولوجية- كلية الهندسة جادو- جامعة نالوت. ba w2007@hotmail.com

ملخص:

يعد تحليل ثبات المنحدرات الصخرية من الأمور المهمة قبل الشروع في قطع المنحدرات الجبلية وبعد عملية القطع, إذ توجد العديد من العوامل التي تسهم انهيار المنحدرات ومكوناتها (الصخور الحطام, التربة) كالأمطار, وقد تكون الانهيارات ناجمة عن سوء اختيار زاوية قطع المنحدر, فتؤدي الى انهيار مكونات المنحدر والصخور التي تعلوه, ومن تلك المواضع الطريق الجبلي الحمراء المؤدية الي مدينة القواسم, إذ تبين حدوث حالات انهيار لمنحدر صناعي وللصخور التي تعلوه, نتيجة تغير زاوية قطع شركة المصممة والمنفذة للطريق والبالغ قيمتها (75°), حيث نشأ ميل جديد للمنحدر بزاوية جديدة بلغ متوسطة (40°) بفعل الأمطار, وتم دراسة اتزان المنحدر في الزاويتين (40°–75°) وبحساب قيمة الاحتكاك الداخلي وقيمة التماسك معملياً مع التغير في أربع محتويات مائية (RocPlane 0.2) وبنقييم استقرارية المنحدر بواسطة برنامج (75°), و تنصح الدراسة بإزالة صخور تكوين ابوغيلان الآيلة للانهيار التي من الزاوية (75°), و تنصح الدراسة بإزالة صخور تكوين ابوغيلان الآيلة للانهيار التي تعلو منحدر أبوشيبة



Abstract:

Analysis of the stability of the rock slopes is important before and After cutting slopes (road cut), There are many factors that contribute to the collapse of the slopes and their Materials such as rain. The collapse of an industrial slope could be as a result of an invalid choice of the cutting angle by the executing company. This may lead to the collapse of the slope and its contents(Rocks, debris and soil). Considering the alhamra road leading to the QAWASEM city, where the collapse of the industrial slope and the rocks above it is noticeable. The case might be attributed to changing the cutting angle from $(75^{\circ} \text{ to } 40^{\circ})$ as a result of the rain fall. The aim of the this study is to evaluate the stability of slopes of the angles(40 ° and 75 °), and to calculated the Friction Angle value (Ø) and the Cohesion at varies water contents namely (5,15,30,50mm). also to evaluate the stability of the slope using a software program (rock plane 0.2), it was found that the stability of the (40°) angle is better than the (75°) angle, and its recommended to remove the blocks of Abogelan that is prone to collapse which is above Abosheba slope.

Key words: Alhamra road, slope stability, RocPlane, Abosheba FM.

1.المقدمة:

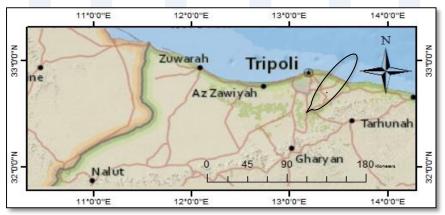
تقسم المنحدرات الى طبيعية وهي التي تشكلت بعوامل طبيعية وتعد المنحدرات من المظاهر الجيومورفولوجية التي تنتشر على سطح الأرض وبخاصة في المناطق الجبلية, إن تدخل الإنسان في المنحدرات الطبيعة لمد الطرق أنشأ نوعاً آخر من المنحدرات يطلق عليها مسمى المنحدرات الصناعية ويعد استقرار المنحدر سواء كان طبيعياً أم صناعياً أمر بالغ الأهمية ، تفادياً لما قد تسببه عمليات انهيار مكونات المنحدرات من كوارث تعود بالضرر على الطرق الجبلية وملحقاتها ومستخدميها.



وأستشهد هنا بالطريق الجبلي طريق الحمراء, فهي تمثل حالة لتدخل بشري في المنحدرات لشق الطريق وإنشاء منحدرات صناعية موازية للطريق تباينت أنواعها بين الصخور الرملية الجيرية والصخور النارية (الفونولايت والبازلت), وحاولت الشركة المصممة قدر الإمكان الحفاظ على ثبات المنحدر بالطرق المتبعة للحيلولة دون حدوث الانهيار, ويحدث الإنهيار لمكونات المنحدر عندما تتجاوز قوة الدافعة بسبب إجهاد الجاذبية تحت تأثير قوة الوزن والقص والتأثيرات الخارجية كالأمطار والزلازل، القوة المقاومة الطبيعية الناتجة عن زيادة الاحتكاك الداخلي, ويمكن تقييم الثبات أي منحدر باستخدام إما (عامل الأمان) أو احتمال الإنهيار بإستخدام برنامج (ROCPLANE) وذلك بإدخال البيانات الحقلية والمعملية, وقد أعتمد على البرنامج في تقييم ثبات (معامل الأمان) لتكوين أبوشيبة المتكشف بفعل النشاط البشري في منطقة الدراسة.

2. الموقع الجغرافي لمنطقة الدراسة.

تقع في شمالي غرب مدينة القواسم شكل (1), وتعد من الطرق الداخلية وأكثر مستخدميها سكان المدينة وتربط بين منطقة أبورشادة ومدينة القواسم.



شكل (1) موقع منطقة الدراسة من الجبل الغربي. [1]



3. حيولوجية منطقة الدراسة:

مرتفع نفوسة يقع في الشمال الغربي لليبيا يفصلها من الناحية الشمالية عن البحر المتوسط سهل الجفارة ويمتد المرتفع ليلتقي بالبحر في منطقة الخمس شرقا ومن الناحية الجنوبية حوض غدامس وتتنوع الصخور في جبل نفوسة بتنوع بيئة الترسيب حيث مرت بعدة دورات من تقدم للبحر وتراجعه لترسب جميع أنواع الصخور الرسوبية من صخور قارية الى بحرية ضحله وعميقة وصخور ترسبت في بيئة انتقالية مابين القارية والبحرية كما يتواجد بعض التداخلات المنتشرة لأجسام نارية مثل البازلت والفونولايت [2] وبدء العمر الجيولوجي للتتابع الطبقي مع بداية حقب الحياة الأوسط (الترياسي السفلي) بتكوين كرش, وينتهي بتكوين قصر تغرنة بعمر الكريتاسي العلوي شكل (2).



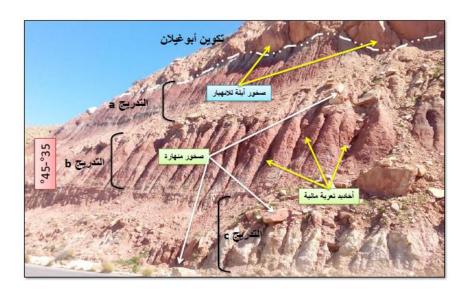
شكل (2) التكوينات الجيولوجية المتكشفة في منطقة الدراسة. [3]

4. تكوين أبوشيبة:

أطلقت تسمية مجموعة أبوشيبة (Abosheba Group) بواسطة (كريستي 1955) وأعيدت التسمية بواسطة (ديزو وآخرون 1963) الي تكوين أبوشيبة ويمتد عمره من



الترياسي المتأخر الى العصر الجوراسي المبكر ويتكون من حجر رملي مع تداخلات من الطين والطفل تزداد في الجزء العلوي للتكوين[3] أمًا حقلياً فيتميز بحجم حبيباته الدقيقة، وبلونيه الأحمر والأخضر كدليل على تأثير بيئة الترسيب بين بالتأكسد والاختزال، يبلغ سمك التكوين ما بين 120م -160م [4], ويعلو تكوين أبو شيبة تكوين أبوغيلان الجيرى المتميز بكثرة الشقوق والتكهفات. [5].



شكل (3) صورة فوتوغرافية لمنحدر أبوشيبة موازي للطريق الجبلى الحمراء.[7]

5. مشكلة الدراسة:

تحوي منطقة الدراسة منحدرات طبيعية تشكلت من أسباب طبيعية, وهناك منحدرات تم إنشاؤها لمد الطرق وتسمي منحدرات صناعية[6], و بتتبع المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طريق الحمراء تبين وجود حالات انهيار لصخور (limestone) ترجع لتكوين ابوغيلان, أسهم انهيارها في إغلاق مجاري تصريف المياه ومن الشكل (3) نلحظ وجود



ملامح ثلاث مدرجات (a,b,c) صخورها رملية تعود لتكوين أبوشيبة, عمدت الشركة لإنشاء تلك المدرجات بزوايا قطع تراوحت بين (70°–85°) [6], لتعمل على استقبال الحطام والكتل الصخرية المنهارة , ومن الشكل نلاحظ حدوث عملية تآكل بفعل المياه ولازالت ملامح التعرية الأخدودية ترتسم على المنحدر فتغيرت زاوية القطع لتتراوح قيمها بين (35°–45°), ساعد هذا التغير في جعل حركة الكتل الصخرية أسفل المنحدر مما سبب في إغلاق مجاري تصريف المياه ووصول بعض الكتل الصخرية للطريق العامة.

6.أهداف الدراسة:

بناءً على العرض المتعلق بمشكلة الدراسة برز هدف عام وهو تقييم عامل الأمان للمنحدر ودراسة احتمالية الانهيار, ومن أهدافها التعرف على زاوية التماسك الداخلي للحجر الرملي ومقدار قوة الدفع المحفزة للانهيار والقوة المقاومة للانهيار والتعرف على زاوية الإنهيار مع التغير في كميات مائية

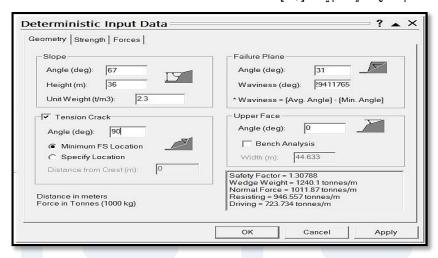
7. عوامل انهيار المنحدر.

توجد عديد العوامل التي تعمل على زيادة القوة الدافعة و تقلل القوة المقاومة وتزيد بالتالي من حدوث انهيار لمكونات المنحدر, ومن العوامل التي تقلل من قوة القص لكتلة الصخور الخصائص والعوامل الطبيعة للصخور ومنها المسامية, وزيادة الحمل على المنحدرات نتيجة التشبع الداخلي وتأثير عوامل التجوية والتعرية[8]، وقد يزداد إجهاد القص في الكتلة الصخرية بسبب الأحمال الإضافية في الجزء العلوي من المنحدر وزيادة ضغط الماء في التشققات في أعلى المنحدر, ومن العوامل التي تسهم في انهيار مكونات المنحدر (هندسة المنحدر والتي تنجم عن سوء تصميم المنحدر المقطوع [9] ومنها الارتفاع فكلما زاد ارتفاع المنحدر زاد إجهاد القص داخل مقدمة المنحدر فيزيد زيادة يرتبط إجهاد القص أيضًا بكتلة المادة وزاوية ميل وقطع المنحدر.



RocPlane software .8

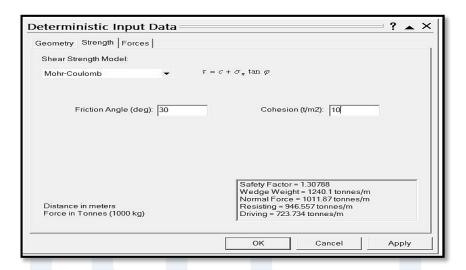
هي أداة برمجية تفاعلية سهلة الاستخدام تستخدم لتقييم ثبات مكونات المنحدرات الصخرية, كما يسمح للمستخدمين بتقدير قدرة الدعم المطلوبة لتحقيق عامل محدد من السلامة, ويستعمل البرنامج لتحليل أداء وتصميم المنحدرات وبذلك يمكن إنشاء نماذج وتمثيلها في الأبعاد الثنائية والثلاثية الأبعاد وتقييم نتائج التحليل, إذ يعمل على تسهيل النمذجة الهندسية الجيدة. [10]



شكل (4) المدخلات الحقلية (هندسة المنحدر) RocPlane

ومن أهم المدخلات التي يعتمد عليها البرنامج

a. مدخلات حقلية متعلقة بهندسة المنحدر, ويمثلها شكل(4) وأهمها أولاً: مايتعلق بالمنحدر (slope) وتتمثل في زاوية ميل المنحدر والارتفاع وكثافة الصخور المكونة للمنحدر. ثانياً: زاوية الانهيار وتمثل هذه الزاوية مستويات الضعف كالحد الفاصل بين الطبقات الصخرية, ومنها أيضاً زاوية تموج مستويات الحركة (waviness angle) وقيمها (10]. [10].



شكل (5) مدخلات إجهاد القص.

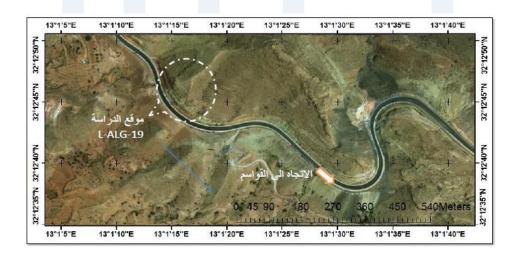
- ل. بيانات إجهاد القص: تستخرج البيانات معملياً بإجراء اختبارات لعينات صخرية من مكونات المنحدر بإستخدام جهاز (birect shear test), وأهما شكل (5) قيمة التماسك (C), وزاوية الاحتكاك الداخلي (φ) [10].
 - و. القوى الخارجية: أهمها قوة ضغط الماء، والمعامل الزلزالي ومقداره (0.04) [11].
 و. طريقة العمل:

لتقييم ومقارنة إستقرار المنحدر الموضح في الشكل (6) مع التغير في المحتوى المائي والتغير في قيم زاوية ميل المنحدر الطبيعية والمتمثلة في (40°) وزاوية ميل المنحدر السابقة (زاوية قطع منحدر لغرض شق الطريق الجبلي) والبالغة(75°) تم تقسيم الدراسة الى مراحل بغية الحصول على نتائج أفضل نتائج, وتمثلت في الأتي:-

المرحلة الأولى: مثلت العمل الحقلي والهدف منها الحصول على البيانات الهندسية والمتمثلة (Upper Face, Angle Slope,, Angle Bench ,Slope Height) جدول (1) وجمع بيانات وصفية عن حالة المنحدر ورصد الانهيارات ونوعها.



المرحلة الثانية: أخذ عينات من صخور الحجر الرملي وأجريت عليها دراسات معملية بمعمل الصخور والتربة بكلية الهندسة جادو, إذ تم تجفيف العينة لمدة 24 ساعة للتخلص من المحتوى الطبيعي للماء, وتم إضافة أربع كميات للعينة (50mm,30mm,15mm,5,mm) والهدف منها تحديد قيم (Cohesion) بواسطة جهاز ((Direct shear test)) مع التغيير في كمية المياه. المرحلة الثالثة: تم اعتماد في هذه المرحلة على إدخال البيانات المتحصل عليها من المرحلتين الأولى والثانية كمدخلات data (output data) المبينة بالجدول (1)



شكل (6) مرئية فضائية توضح موقع منحدر أبوشيبة موازي للطريق الجبلي الحمراء[12].

9. النتائج:

1.9: النتائج المتحصل من دراسة المنحدر في زاوية الميل الطبيعي (40°).

ومن الجدول (1) نلاحظ مقدار عامل الأمان بإضافة كمية المياه (5mm) لعينة (Factor of Safety) وهو مؤشر (sandstone) فبلغ عامل السلامة (59.9044)



قوي يصف ثبات المنحدر على اعتبار أنَّ معامل الآمان المحدد من برنامج (Resisting Force) (1)، وسبب ذلك أنَّ القوة الدافعة (RocPlane software) (12.25) لتفوق القوة الدافعة (Driving Force) التي بلغ قدرها (734.3 t/m) بغت (734.3 t/m) لتفوق القوة الدافعة (50mm 30 mm,15mm) التي بلغ قدرها (50mm 30 mm,15mm)، ومع إضافة كيمة مياه (42.1 mm) من (42.1 ثوية الاحتكاك من (44.2 °42.1 في كمية مياه 30mm إلى 38.06 في كمية مياه 30mm إلى 38.06 في كمية مياه المتاهك الداخلي من (50mm ألتناقص في قيم زاوية الاحتكاك تناقص في قيم التماسك الداخلي من (12.9 t/m² وتزامن مع إلى 12.9 t/m² إلى 10.2 t/m² إلى 12.9 t/m² والنقصان في قيم التماسك وقيمة زاوية الاحتكاك، وتبعاً لذلك قلَّت قوة المقاومة من والنقصان في قيمـة التماسك وقيمة زاوية الاحتكاك، وتبعاً لذلك قلَّت قوة المقاومة من (14.0 brivingForce) مع كل زيادة في كمية المياه والتغير في زاوية التماسك والاحتكاك مع ملاحظة زيادة (14.0 brivingForce)،

جدول (1) نتائج ادخال البيانات الحقلية والمعملية لبرنامج rocplan0.2

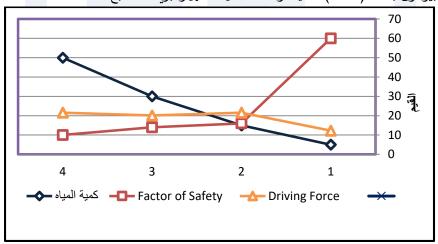
50mm	30mm	15mm	5mm	كمية المياه	
sandstone	sandstone	sandstone	sandstone	Type of rock	
°40	°40	°40	°40	Slope Angle	
m16	m16	m16	m16	Slope Height	
g/cm ³ 2.2	g/cm ³ 2.05	g/cm ³ 1.7	g/cm ³ 1.25	Rock Unit Weight	
°35	°35	°35	°35	Failure Plane	
				Angle	



°25	°25	°25	°25	Upper Face Angle	
45m	45m	45m	45m	Bench Width	
				Seismic	
0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	Coefficient	
0	0	0	0	Waviness	
37.1°	38.06 °	42.1 °	44.2 °	Friction Angle	
7.5 t/m^²	10.2t/m^ ²	12.9t/m^ ²	28.7t/m^ ²	Cohesion	
90°	90°	90°	90°	Tension Crack	
	outpu	t data			
30.553	30.55t/m	28.4704	17.36 t/m	Normal Force	
t/m		28.4704			
21.57t/m	21.57 t/m	20.105	12.25 t/m	Driving Force	
		t/m			
210.61	277.295	352.2 t/m	72424	Decisting Force	
t/m	t/m		734.3 t/m	Resisting Force	
9.76107	13.7921	16.324	59.9044	Factor of Safety	
210.6	277.29t/m	352.2t/m^	734.3	Shear Strength	
t/m^2	Λ2	2	t/m^2		
Mohr-	Mohr-	Mohr-	Mohr-	Shear Strength	
Coulomb	Coulomb	Coulomb	Coulomb	Model	



عليه فإن ثبات المنحدر يتضاءل بعلاقة عكسية مع التشبع المائي، شكل (4-8) فكلما زادت كمية المياه زاد التشبع، وبالتالي يقل ثبات المنحدر يتبعه نقصان في قيمة التماسك الداخلي (Cohesion), وبالرغم من ذلك لم يتجاوز المنحدر بزاوية الحالية (زاوية الميل الطبيعي -40) وظروف اتزانه الطبيعية, زاوية الأمان للمحددة للدراسة وقيمتها (1) وتعد العلاقة طردية بين قيمة التماسك وزيادة في كمية الماء فكلما قلً التماسك الداخلي قلَّ ثبات المنحدر ، بينما كانت العلاقة عكسية شكل (7) بين كلا من معامل الأمان (Factor of Safety) مقدار التغير في كمية المياه بقيمة ارتباط بيرسون بلغت (-0.7)، عليه تزداد احتمالية الانهيار بزيادة التشبُع.



شكل (7) العلاقة بين معامل الأمان والتغير في كمية المياه والقوة الدافعة في درجة ميل $^{\circ}40$

2.9: النتائج المتحصل من دراسة المنحدر في زاوبة الميل الطبيعي (75°).

بتثبيت جميع المدخلات (Impute data) الواردة بالجدول (1) ماعدا زاوية ميل المنحدر (Slope Angle) والتي استخدمها الشركة المنفذة للطريق الجبلي طريق الحمراء والبالغ قيمتها (75°) وسجل البرنامج (Rocplan 0.2), أهم المخرجات بالجدول (2).



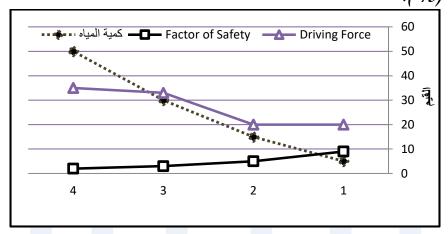
جدول (2) نتائج ادخال البيانات الحقلية والمعملية لبرنامج rocplan0.2

50 ملم	ملم30	ملم15	ملم5	كمية المياه	
sandstone	sandstone	sandstone	sandstone	Type of rock	
°75	°75	°75	°75	Slope Angle	
50.07 t/m	46.6575 t/m	28.4t/m	28.44t/m	Normal Force	
35.359t/m	32.9489 t/m	20.09 t/m	20.09t/m	Driving Force	
77.12 t/m	89.9152 t/m	95.18 t/m	177.87 t/m	Resisting Force	
2.18105	2.72893	4.73753	8.85346	Factor of Safety	
77.12 t/m^²	89.915t/m^ 2	95.1 t/m^ ²	177.8 t/m^2	Shear Strength	
Mohr-	Mohr-	Mohr-	Mohr-	Shear Strength	
Coulomb	Coulomb	Coulomb	Coulomb	Model	

من الجدول (2) نلاحظ حدوث انخفاض في القوة المقاومة من (177.87 لفي من الجدول (2) نلاحظ حدوث انخفاض في المقوة الماء 15mm إلى (95.18 t/m) في كمية مياه 30mm إلى 30mm في كمية مياه Factor of ونجم عن ذلك التغير أيضاً انخفاض معامل الآمان (77.12 t/m)



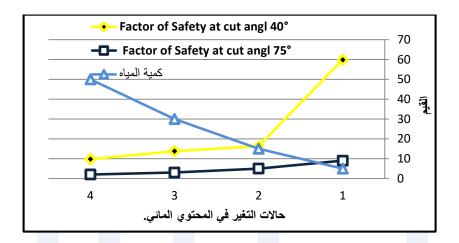
(Safety من (8.85346) إلى 4.73753 إلى 2.72893 وأخيرا في كمية مياه 50mm بلغت القيمة 2.18105) ومن الشكل (8) نلاحظ انخفاض قيمة التماسك وارتفاع قيم القوة الدافعة لأعلى قيمة في كمية مياه 50mm بلغت (35.359t/m) جدول (2) ويفسر ماذكر سبب عدم ثبات المنحدر في زاوية قطع (75°).



شكل (8) العلاقة بين معامل الأمان والتغير في كمية المياه والقوة الدافعة في درجة ميل 75°

10. الاستنتاج:

A- من الشكل (9) نستنتج تأثير التغير في زاوية الميل , ففي الحالة الطبيعية (40°) ارتفعت قيمة معامل الأمان في المحتوي المائي 5 وذلك مرده الى قدرة الزاوية على تصريف المياه وعدم السماح بحدوث تشبع داخلي, ومع التغير في المحتوي المائي بدأت قيم معامل الأمان في التناقص بشكل فجائي في كمية مياه 15 وازداد التناقص بشكل نسبي في باقي المحتويات المائية.



شكل (9) العلاقة بين معامل الأمان والتغير في كمية المياه في درجة ميل (40 $^{\circ}$ - 75 $^{\circ}$).

B من الشكل (11) نستنتج تأثير زاوية القطع (75°), إذ حدث انهيار سريع وانخفاض قيم معامل الأمان, لأن ارتفاع قيمة زاوية القطع ساهمت في زيادة وزن المنحدر (Normal Force) و (Driving [Force) لاحظ جدول (1) على عكس المنحدر في الحالة الطبيعية والذي تميز بانخفاض القيم (Driving Force) لاحظ جدول (2).

-ان وجود تكوين أبوغيلان متكشفاً أعلى المنحدر موضع الدراسة أسهم في زيادة تشبع منحدر ابوشيبة, لما يحويه منحدر أيوغلان من شقوق مهدت للمياه بالتغلغل داخليا وبخاصة أن زاوية ميله (25°) ليسهم في انهيار المنحدر وتغيير زاوية اتزانه.

D- تمثل الزاوية (35°-45°) زاوية استقرار طبيعية لمنحدر (sandstone) ناتجة عن عمليات تعرية مائية, إذ ساهمت هذه الزاوية في إتاحة فرصة حدوث انهيارات للكتل الصخرية المتوضعة أعلى المنحدر والتي تعود لتكوين ابوغيلان, وساهمت التعرية الأخدودية في إحداث مجاري تصاريف على سطح المنحدر



فأدت الى انهيار الحطام الصخري والحصى فعمل على إغلاق مجاري تصريف المياه الموازية للطريق.

E من الدراسة الميدانية تبين أن الأخاديد (مجاري تصريف المياه) المنتشرة على سطح منحدر أبوشيبة ظاهرة طبيعية تسهم في تصريف المياه بشكل سريع وتحول دون إحداث تشبع كامل للمنحدر, وبالتالى تعد من عوامل إتزان المنحدر بموقع الدراسة.

- تبين من الدراسة الميدانية أن الكتل الصخرية أعلى المنحدر تستقر بزاوية (90°) مع منحدر أبوشيبة, وهي صخور آيلة للانهيار, ويعد سلوك الحركة المتاح المؤكد لحركتها سلوك الدحرجة لأسفل المنحدر وفي حال حركتها ستصل للطرق لامحال.

تعد زوايا ميل المنحدر الطبيعية والتي تتراوح قيمها بين (35°-45°) أفضل وأكثر ثباتاً من زاوية قطع المنحدر المعدة من قبل الشركة المصممة والمنفذة لعملية القطع ($^{\circ}70$), وإن استخدام طريقة المدرجات لقطع المنحدر غير مجدية.

11. التوصيات.

- ✓ العمــل علـــى إزالـــة الكتــل الصــخرية أعلـــى منحــدر والآيلــة للانهيــار
 بواســطة رافعـات خاصــة, حتــي لاتكـون نتائــج حركـــة الكتــل وخيمــة فــي
 حال وصولها للطريق الجبلــي.
- ✓ العمل على تنظيف مجاري تصريف المياه والخندق الموازي للطريق من الحطام الصخري والطين لان بقاءها يسهم في زيادة الركام, وبذلك تسهم في تسهيل حركـــة الصخور وصولا للطريق.
- ✓ توصي الدراسة بعدم إعادة قطع المنحدر لمرة أخري وبذات المواصفات السابقة لان زاوية القطع ستعمل على انهيار مكونات منحدر أبوشيبة وسينجم عنه انهيار صخور تكوين أبوغيلان, وفي حال القطع يجب مراقبة المنحدر بشكل دوري.



References المراجع

- [1]. Google Maps, using Arc GIS 10.3.
- [2]. El-Bakai, M., Idris, M. and Sghair, A., 1997. Petrography, geochemistry and stable isotopes constraints on the origin of the Cretaceous dolomite (Ain Tobi Member) in NW Libya.
- [3]. Alfandi, E., 2012. Early Mesozoic Stratigraphy, Sedimentology and structure of the Gharian area, north western Libya, (Doctoral dissertation, Plymouth University),P38
- [4]. Fatmi, A. N., Sbeta, A. M., & Eliagoubi, B. A. (1978) Guide to the Mesozoic Stratigraphy of Jabal Nefusa, Libyan Jamahiriya. Arab Development Institute, pp 22-29
- [5].Explanatory booklet for the Geological Map of Libya., (1:250,000) Sheet: Tripoli (NI 33-13),Industrial Research Centre, Tripoli, 1975.
- [6]. Interview with the Head of the Roads and Bridges authority, Greian City, 9/2018.
- [7]. Field study of Hamra road on 2/2019
- [8]. Murthy, V. N. S. (2002). Geotechnical engineering: principles and practices of soil mechanics and foundation engineering. CRC Press, pp. 365-367.
- [9]. Hunt, R. E. (2005). Geotechnical engineering investigation handbook. CRC Press, pp. 329-330



- [10]. Libyan Center for Remote Sensing and Space Science, Office of Science earthquakes Gharyan 3/2019
- [11].User's Guide for Rocplane software. (2001). Rocscience Inc, pp. 1-14. Detailed reference information on all of the options in the ROCPLANE program is found in the ROCPLANE Help system.
- . Google Maps, using ArcGIS 10.3[12]



دراسة تصاعد المخاطر والهجمات عبر شبكة الانترنت

أ. وليد الصادق شلغوم

المعهد العالي للعلوم والتقنية بالزاوية ، قسم الكهربائية والالكترونية walidshalgom@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper is an investigation into the importance of safety for information it shows the important risks threats and gaps which face its systems. Also it clarities the rise of piracy and electronic attacks that obsesses both individuals and states. In addition it displays the different hacks and the technic means used by the hackers to achieve their attacks. Finally it shows the important reasons which lead to the happening of these risks and how to protect the computer users and the webs in order to secure the secret as data through some programmers and systems which reveal and protect hacks.

الملخص

تعرض هذه الورقة أهمية امن المعلومات و أهم المخاطر و التهديدات و الثغرات التي تواجه أنظمة المعلومات، وكذلك تبين من خلال بعض الأمثلة تصاعد و ارتفاع عمليات القرصنة و الهجمات الالكترونية بشكل أصبح فيه امن المعلومات هاجس الأفراد و المؤسسات على حد سواء، كما تستعرض أنواع الاختراقات و أساليب التقنية التي يستخدمها المخترقون لتنفيذ هجماتهم، و كذلك أهم الأسباب التي تؤدي إلى حدوث تلك المخاطر، بالإضافة إلى تناول طرق حماية أجهزة المستخدمين و الشبكات لضمان سرية و سلامة البيانات عن طريق بعض البرامج و الأنظمة لاكتشاف و منع الاختراقات.



الكلمات المفتاحية: العناصر الضرورية لشن الهجمات الالكترونية، مصادر الاخلال بأمن المعلومات، الجرائم المتعلقة بأمن المعلومات.

1. المقدمة:

إن التطور التكنولوجي السريع في مجال تقنيات الحاسب الآلي أدى إلى ظهور أجهزة وأساليب جديدة مثل البريد الالكتروني، والتراسل الآلي وغيرها والتي ساعدت على تسهيل وتبادل المعلومات واتساع رقعته، إلا أنها أدت إلى زيادة احتمالية انتهاك وتسريب هذه المعلومات وتعرضها لخطر التغيير والتزوير من قبل أطراف غير معنية سواء بشكل متعمد أو غير مقصود [1]. ومع تزايد نسبة اختراقات أجهزة الحاسوب والشبكات في الأونة الأخيرة، وتزايد عمليات القرصنة وتطورها السريع باستخدام تقنيات حديثة ومعقدة مما جعل النظر إليها يتغير كليا مما كانت عليه في الفترة السابقة.

فمخترقي الانترنت يلجؤون اليوم إلى شن هجمات أكثر تطورا وتعقيدا باستخدام الكثير من البرمجيات الخبيثة و الاستفادة من الثغرات التي تدر عليها المزيد من الأموال إثر كل هجوم أكثر من أي وقت مضى [5]. والمشاكل المتعلقة بأمن المعلومات لا تحصى ولا تعد، ومعظم الدراسات التي بحثت عن هذا الموضوع وجدت أنه لا يمكن ضمان حماية المؤسسات والشركات و الأفراد بنسبة (%100)، بل يمكن حصر وتحديد التهديدات الأكثر خطورة واتخاذ الإجراءات المناسبة من حيث الكلفة لمنعها، أو التقليل من تأثيرها، فنحن بحاجة لوضع مجموعة من الإجراءات والبرامج التي يمكن من خلالها تحقيق مستوى ملائم من الأمن. والمعرفة الضرورية لفهم الأخطار والتحديات والتعامل معها، وكذلك إلى زيادة الوعى بأبعادها وبالمبادئ الأساسية التي تنظمها وتديرها.



2. مفهوم امن المعلومات

لقد تعددت التعاريف الرسمية لأمن المعلومات، فأمن المعلومات الخاصة من السرقة، أو Security هو ممارسة العمل الذي يتمثل في حماية المعلومات الخاصة من السرقة، أو الإفشاء، أو التخريب وإدخالها في وضع الأمان والمحافظة عليها، وتقتضي حماية المعلومات في هذا التعريف حماية محيطها ومحيط مالكها أيضا [2]. ومن زاوية أكاديمية، هو العلم الذي يبحث في نظريات واستراتيجيات توفير الحماية للمعلومات من المخاطر التي تهددها ومن أنشطة الاعتداء عليها. ومن زاوية تقنية، فهي تشمل كل الوسائل والأدوات والإجراءات اللازم توفيرها لضمان حماية المعلومات من الأخطار الداخلية والخارجية. ومن زاوية قانونية، فإن أمن المعلومات هو محل دراسات وتدابير حماية سرية وسلامة محتوى وتوفر المعلمات ومكافحة أنشطة الاعتداء عليها أو استغلال نظمها في ارتكاب الجريمة، وهو هدف وغرض تشريعات حماية المعلومات من الأنشطة غير المشروعة وغير القانونية التي تستهدف المعلومات ونظمها [6].

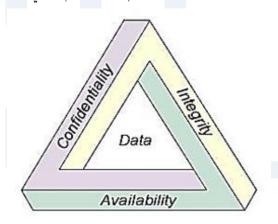
1.2 مكونات امن المعلومات

الشكل رقم (1) يوضح اهم مكونات أمن المعلومات و التي تتلخص في الاتي:

- ◄ السرية Confidentiality وتعني الحفاظ على سرية المعلومات والمعاملات والإجراءات التي تضمن التأكد من حماية الموارد من الأشخاص الغير مخولين بذلك.
- ◄ التكاملية وسلامة المحتوى المعلومات صحيح ولم
 يتم تعديله او العبث به.



- ◄ استمرارية توفير المعلومات أو الخدمات :Availability تعني تأكيد استمرار عمل النظام المعلوماتي.
- استمرار القدرة على التفاعل مع المعلومات المستخدمين لتقديم الخدمة لمواقع المعلوماتية والحرص على أن مستخدم المعلومات لا احد يمنعه من إدارة كل المعلومات.
- ◄ عدم الإنكار Non Repudiation: ويقصد بها ضمان عدم إنكار المستخدم الذي قام بعمل أو تصرف ما متصل بالمعلومات أو موقعها وهو الذي قام بهذا التصرف، بحيث تتوفر قدرة إثبات أن تصرفا ما قد تم من مستخدم ما في وقت معين [4].



الشكل (1): مكونات امن المعلومات

2.2 أسس إستراتيجية المعلومات

إستراتيجية امن المعلومات، أو سياسة امن المعلومات هي مجموعة القواعد التي يطبقها المستخدم لدى التعامل مع التقنية ومع المعلومات داخل المؤسسات والشركات، وهي مجموعة قوانين أمنية تسيطر على نظام المعلومات وتزويره من الحماية موثوق به.



3.2 أهداف إستراتيجية امن المعلومات

- 1. تعريف المستخدمين بواجباتهم المطلوبة لحماية نظم أجهزة الحاسوب والشبكات وكذلك حماية المعلومات بكافة أشكالها، في مراحل إدخالها ومعالجتها وتخزينها ونقلها وإعادة استرجاعها.
- 2. تحقيق وتنفيذ الواجبات المحددة على من له علاقة بالمعلومات وأنظمتها وتحديد المسؤوليات عند الخطر.
- 3. بيان الإجراءات المتبعة لتجاوز التهديدات والمخاطر والتعامل معها، وتحديد جميع الثغرات و المخاطر.
 - 4. تحديد جميع الممتلكات المطلوب حمايتها.
 - 5. تحديد الحماية اللازمة لنظم التشغيل والتطبيقات المختلفة.
 - 6. الاحتفاظ بنسخة احتياطية لنظام المعلومات بشكل امن.
 - 8. تشفير المعلومات التي يتم حفظها وتخزينها ونقلها على مختلف الوسائط.

3. العناصر الضرورية لشن الهجمات الالكترونية

إن شن الهجمات الإلكترونية على أنظمة المعلومات، أو بعبارة أدق على المعلومات أو الأنظمة الحاسوبية والشبكات التي تخزن فيها المعلومات وتنتقل عبرها له ثلاثة عناصر:

1. وجود الدوافع: إن من يهاجم نظام معلومات ما لابد أن يكون هناك ما يدفعه لذلك، فقد يكون الدافع هو الحصول على المال، وقد يكون الدافع الرغبة في الانتقام من الجهة المستهدفة، أو الرغبة في الاستئثار بأكثر قدر من الزبائن كما هو الحال بين الشركات المتنافسة [3]. فقد تطلب شركة ما من أحد المحترفين في مهاجمة أنظمة المعلومات اختراق أو تعطيل الموقع التابع لشركة منافسة على الشبكة العنكبوتية؛ لمنع وصول



الزبائن لموقع الشركة المستهدفة، وأحياناً يكون الدافع رغبة المهاجم في إثبات قدراته الفنية، وقد يهاجم المهاجم لأغراض سياسية.

2. وجود طريقة لتنفيذ الهجوم: من البديهي أن المهاجم لن يتمكن من شن هجوم ناجح ما لم يكن لدية تصور وخطة واضحة لطريقة هجوم تحقق الغرض، وهذا الفارق بين المهاجمين المحترفين وغير المحترفين، ولصد هذه الهجمات أو تخفيف أضرارها يجب علينا معرفة طرق وخطط الهجوم ومتطلبات نجاح التنفيذ.

3. وجد الثغرات: الثغرة (Vulnerability) في هذا السياق مصطلح يقصد به وجود نقطة ضعف في تصميم (Design) او تهيئة (Configuration) البرمجيات، او قواعد تخزين المعلومات، او الاجهزة التي تحفظ فيها المعلومات، أو معدات أو برامج تشغيل الشبكات التي تمر المعلومات خلالها، ونقاط الضعف هذه هي الثغرات التي يتسلل المهاجم من خلالها لإحداث الدمار الذي يريده [3]. وإذا كنا نسعى لحماية أنظمة معلوماتنا فعلينا فحص شبكاتنا ومعداتنا وبرمجياتنا لتحديد نقاط الضعف الموجودة وكيفية معالجتها.

4. مصادر الإخلال بأمن المعلومات

إن المعلومات أو الأنظمة التي يحتفظ بها تكون عرضة للهجوم من جبهتين مختلفتين إما من الداخل أو من الخارج.

1.4 المهاجمون من الداخل

يقصد بالمهاجمين من الداخل، إنهم أولئك الأفراد الذين ينتمون للجهة المستهدفة، غير أنهم يقومون بأعمال تصادم جهود الجهة الرامية إلى حماية أنظمة المعلومات التي



تستخدمها تلك الجهة. والمهاجمون من الداخل كانوا دوما الخطر الذي تواجهه أي جهة، مهما كانت، سواء كانت تلك الجهة شركة أو منظمة أو حتى دولة.

1.1.4 دوافع الهجوم من الداخل:

هناك أسباب عديدة قد تدفع الإنسان لشن هجوم ضد أنظمة معلومات الجهة التي يعمل بها، ومن أهم هذه الأسباب ما يلي:

- عدم الرضا: أيا كانت مسببات عدم الرضا هذا، إلا أن الواقع يشهد أن التقنية الحديثة جعلت من مهاجمة نظم المعلومات أمرا يشعر بالانتقام للذات، ويبعث البهجة في نفس الشخص الذي نفذ الهجوم.
- تحقيق المكاسب المالية: قد يهاجم شخص ما أنظمة معلومات الجهة التي يعمل فيها لسرقة معلومات سرية ويستخدمها الاحقا الابتزاز الجهة لدافع فدية مالية.
- 2.1.4 حجم التهديد الداخلي: إن الهجوم من الداخل يمكن أن يخل بأي من مكونات امن المعلومات التي تحدثنا عنها سابقا، أي انه يمكن أن يلحق الضرر بسرية المعلومات أو سلامتها، أو يعيق الوصول إلى المعلومات أو يمنعه [13].

2.4 المهاجمون من الخارج

■ بعض بواعث هذا النوع من الهجمات مماثلة للصنف السابق، كما أن هناك بواعث أخرى، منها سعي المهاجم من الخارج لتحقيق أهداف سياسية أو دينية أو تجارية [14].

5. بعض الأمثلة للجرائم المتعلقة بأمن المعلومات

مع تطور آليات كشف السرقة والاحتيال عبر الإنترنت شهدت خطط قراصنة الإنترنت تحولا تدريجيا خلال العقد الماضي، حيث لم تعد سرقة البيانات كافية في بعض الأحيان لتحقيق الأرباح، فكثيرا ما تلجأ الضحية إلى خطوات تعطل على القراصنة خططهم، مثل إيقاف الحسابات التي تم سرقة بياناتها أو تغيير تلك البيانات التي أو وخلال السنوات الأخيرة, أجرى مجرمون الانترنت تغييرات في أساليبهم, منها تحويل الضحية إلى زبون, أي بيع البيانات التي تتم سرقتها إلى مصدرها الأصلي من خلال منعه من الوصول إلى بياناته إلا بعد دفع مبلغ مالي لتحريرها, وهو ما أصبح يعرف بهجمات الفدية.

1.5 في سنة 2016 كان عام الهجمات والحرب الإلكترونية

شهد عام 2016 سلسلة من الهجمات الإلكترونية الكبيرة التي هزت العالم، وكانت لها تداعيات سياسية واقتصادية ،مما دفع خبراء إلى الإشارة إلى ازدياد اعتماد بعض الحكومات على الحرب الإلكترونية. ولعل أبرز الهجمات الالكترونية كانت اختراق قراصنة روس رسائل الحزب الديمقراطي الأميركي، وساهم هذا الهجوم في خسارة مرشحة الحزب هيلاري كلينتون في الانتخابات الرئاسية حسب ما يعتقد مراقبون [8].

2.5 في سنة 2017 فيروس الفدية الخبيثة

في سابقة خطيرة بمجال الحروب العالمية الحديثة تعرضت دول عديدة عبر العالم لهجمات الكترونية تعرف بالفدية الخبيثة، وهو ما يعرف ببرنامج (أريد البكاء)، لقد تم رصد أكثر من خمسة وسبعين ألف هجوم وذلك في (99) بلد، ما أدى إلى الفوضى الالكترونية التي ضربت عشرات الآلاف من الحواسيب بالعالم وعطلت وزارة الداخلية الروسية والاتصالات الإسبانية والخدمات الصحية البريطانية وغيرها[9]. فيروس الفدية الخبيثة الموضح في الشكل (2) هو برنامج خبيث يصيب الهواتف الذكية وأجهزة



الحاسب الآلي ويعمل على تشفير بياناتها وإغلاقها بحيث لا يمكن الوصول إليها إلا بعد دفع فدية مالية مقابل إعادة فتحها, وصف هذا الهجوم بأنه الأكبر من نوعه على الإطلاق, لقد تم تشفير البيانات وطلب من الضحايا دفع فدية تراوحت بين (300 و 600) دولار أميركي لاستعادة الوصول إلى البيانات المشفرة.



الشكل (2): فيروس الفدية الخبيثة

3.5 في سنة 2018 تضاعف الهجمات الإلكترونية على إنترنت الى ثلاثة أضعاف.

أوضح تقرير أعدّته "كاسبرسكي لاب" حول حالة التهديدات المحدقة بأجهزة إنترنت في النصف الأول من العام 2018، أن هذه الأجهزة والأنظمة تَعرّضت لهجمات بأكثر من 120.000 نسخة معدلة من البرمجيات الخبيثة [10]. ويزيد هذا الرقم بأكثر من ثلاثة أضعاف عن البرمجيات الخبيثة التي استهدفت أجهزة الانترنت العام الماضي. وحذّرت "كاسبرسكي لاب" من أن النمو المتصاعد لعائلات البرمجيات الخبيثة التي تستهدف الأجهزة الذكية؛ يُعد استمراراً لتوجه خطر؛ إذ إن العام 2017 كان قد شهد ارتفاعاً



بعشر مرات في التعديلات البرمجية الخبيثة التي استهدفت الأجهزة الذكية مقارنة بالعام .2016

6. أهم الطرق التي تساعد على اختراق الأجهزة.

يعتمد الاختراق على طريقة أسلوب السيطرة عن بعد، وهي لا تتم إلا بوجود عاملين مهمين: الأول البرنامج المسيطر ويعرف بالعميل Client والثاني الخادم Server الذي يقوم بتسهيل عملية الاختراق، ومن أهم أساليب الاختراق:

1.6 استخدام الثغرات

معنى كلمة ثغرة Vulnerability وهي عبارة عن خطا برمجي، حيث يتم استغلال هذا الخطأ في عملية الاختراق والتسلل واخذ الصلاحيات الممكنة، ويمكن استغلال الثغرات في أي شيء مبرمج يحتوي على خطا برمجي كالخوادم أو أجهزة الحاسوب أو البرامج.

2.6 التروجان (حصان طروادة)

فايروس حصان طروادة (Trojan Horse) هو نوع من الفايروسات البرمجيّة التي تصيب الحواسيب سواء الأجهزة الشخصيّة، أو أجهزة الحواسيب المحمولة، أو حتّى أجهزة الهواتف التي تعمل بنظام أندرويد، ويكون على شكل ملفّ يرفق نفسه مع أحد البرامج المشهور الموجودة على الإنترنت، بحيث ينزل إلى الحاسوب بمجرد الضغط على الملف الذي يحتويه، ويقوم هذا الفايروس بإضعاف برامج الحماية في الحواسيب عن طريق الدخول إليها من الثغرات الأمنيّة الموجودة فيها، مما يسهل من اختراقه وسرقة البيانات، وبكون على عدة أشكال مختلفة، ولكنها تشترك بنفس الاسم.

3.6 ملفات الباتش



هي اسم لنوع من الملفات في أنظمة دوس، أو إس 2 وويندوز، تحتوي على أوامر يتم تنفيذها في مترجم الأوامر بنفس لغة Job Control Language والأنظمة الأخرى لأجهزة الحاسوب المركزية الكبيرة والحواسيب الصغيرة، تتم إضافة ملفات الباتش لتسهيل أي عمل مطلوب لتنفيذ مهمة معينه عن طريق السماح للمستخدم بكتابه تعليمات معينه من اجل تنفيذها على نظام تشغيل.

4.6 الفيروسات

فيروسات الحاسوب هي برامج تخريبيّة تُصنّع من قِبل المبرمجين، حيث تُسبّب هذه البرامج خللاً في خصائص الملفّات التي تنتشر بها لتجعلها تحت سيطرة المبرمج بحذف محتويات الملف، أو تعديلها، أو تخريبها، ويكون هدف هذه البرامج تخريب أجهزة الحاسوب الخاصّة بالمستخدمين، أو الحصول على ملفّات وبيانات مهمّة من جهاز مستخدم ما. حيث تصنف الفيروسات حسب أنواعها و هي كالاتي:

- الفيروسات المخادعة: هي الفيروسات التي لها قدرة ديناميكية في التحول والاختفاء من خلال تغيير شفرتها عند البدء بالانتقال بين الملفات، وذلك لعدم كشفها بسهولة.
- فيروسات قطاع التشغيل: يوجد هذا النوع من الفيروسات تحديدا في المواقع التي يقرأها الحاسوب من القرص الصلب، و يبدأ تأثيرها عند تشغيل القرص الصلب، وتستقر في ذاكرة جهاز الحاسوب، و تبدأ بالتنفيذ.
- فيروسات الماكرو: يعد هذا النوع من أكثر أنواع الفيروسات الحاسوب حداثة، ويعتمد بشكل تام على برنامج Microsoft word، ويسيطر على الملفات التي تحتوى على بيانات كملفات Office.



- الفيروسات ذات الملفات المتعددة: يدخل هذا النوع من الفيروسات بصيغة محددة لجهاز المستخدم، وعند استقراره يبدأ بالتحول لصيغ مختلفة ليستهدف جميع الملفات.
- الفيروسات الخفية: يستقر هذا الفايروس في ذاكرة جهاز الحاسوب، ويبدأ بإعاقة نظام التشغيل وقطاعه.
 - **فيروسات الملفات التنفيذية**: تستقر على شكل ملحقات بالبرامج التنفيذية.
- فيروسات ذات مهام متعددة: تسيطر على قطاع التشغيل مع الملفّات الموجودة مسبقاً على الجهاز في الوقت نفسه، أي أنّها تسيطر على جميع المحتويات في الجهاز.
- الفيروسات المتطوّرة: لها القدرة على الانتقال من حاسوب لآخر من خلال تغيير شفرتها [11].

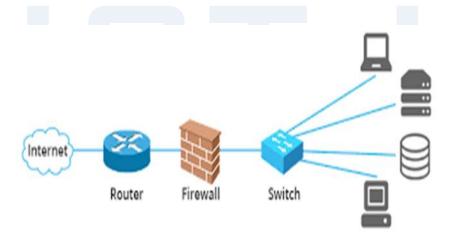
7. طرق الحماية والوقاية من الهجمات.

قبل الخوض في أساليب الحماية يجب فهم الحماية الرقمية بشكل عام، فهي لا تتم عبر منتج واحد فقط، أو بخطوة وحيدة؛ بل تتم عبر طبقات مُختلفة كُل منها يُكمَل الآخر، والاعتماد على الطبقات يأتي بسبب تفاوت فكرة الاختراق بحد ذاتها، فهناك اختراق على مستوى الجهاز، واختراق على مستوى التطبيق، وآخر على مستوى الاتصال، وغيرها من الطبقات. وفيما يلي نعرض أهم الطرق للحماية:

1- تنصيب برنامج مناسب لمكافحة الفيروسات، وهي أهم خطوات الدفاع اللازمة لحماية الحاسب الشخصي من الفيروسات، بما في ذلك الفيروسات الدودية (worms) وأحصنة طروادة (Trojan).



2- تنصيب برامج جدار الحماية "جدار النار" (Farewell)، وتهدف إلى الحماية من الاختراقات وهجمات قراصنة الإنترنت (هاكرز)، والذي تعرف باسم برامج الجدار الناري "برنامج الحماية". كما تتحكم في حركة مرور البيانات عبر الشبكة، حيث تقوم بفحص حزم البيانات التي تمر عبر الشبكة، والاختيار بين السماح لهذه الحزم بالمرور إلى جهاز الحاسب أو لا، و الشكل (3) يوضح وضعية جدار الحماية المستخدم في الشبكات.



الشكل (3): يوضع وضع جدار الحماية

- كلمة المرور أو كلمة السر (password): هي تشكيلة من الحروف الأبجدية والأرقام تمكن من يعرفها من الوصول أو استعمال مورد أو خدمة محمية. ومن الضروري عدم إفشاء كلمة المرور لتفادي وقوعها بين أيدي آخرين فتفتح لهم الباب ما لم يكن بوسعهم الوصول اليه بدونها. تعد كلمة المرور من وسائل الحماية الضعيفة مقارنة مع وسائل أخرى [12]. هناك الاجراءات التي يجب مراعاتها عند إنشاء كلمات المرور القوبة و هي:



- اختيار كلمة مرور صعبة ولا يسهل تخمينها.
- عدم اطلاع الغير عليها وتغييرها بشكل دوري.
- لا تضمن كلمة المرور بيانات شخصية مثل تاريخ الميلاد ورقم الهاتف.
 - جعل كلمة المرور خليط بين حروف والأرقام والرموز الخاصة.
- 4- التحديثات، لأن التحديثات الرسمية عادة ما تتضمن تحسينات، مثل تعزيز الأمن وتحسين الأداء. وعلاوة على ذلك، يساعد التحديث الجهاز على العمل بسلاسة.
- 5- يجب توخي الحذر عند فتح المرفقات التي تحتويها الرسائل الإلكترونية على جهازك الشخصي، خاصة عندما تصل إليك المرفقات في صندوق الوارد ببريدك الإلكتروني داخل رسائل مجهولة المصدر. ويفضل الكشف عن مرفقات الرسائل الإلكترونية عن طريق برامج الحماية قبل فتحها
- 6- يجب الحذر عند تحميل برامج أو ملفات من مواقع إلكترونية غير معروفة. ففي بعض الحالات قد تحتوي هذه الملفات على فيروسات أو ملفات تجسس، وربما تتسلل إلى جهازك دون علمك.
- 7- إزالة الملغات المؤقتة، في كل تصفح للإنترنت، يعمل جهاز الكمبيوتر على تخزين معلومات التصفح لزيادة السرعة. فعلى سبيل المثال يتم تخزين المعلومات عندما تتقدم بطلب شراء عبر الإنترنت، أو تستخدم بعض الخدمات المصرفية على الشبكة المعلوماتية.
- 8- استخدام متصفح آمن للإنترنت، يجب على المستخدمين اختيار متصفح آمن للإنترنت. ويتميز المتصفح الآمن بتوفير حماية أكبر للخصوصية، وأدوات لمكافحة ملفات التجسس تتيح الاتصال الآمن بالشبكة العنكبوتية.



9- تشفير جهاز "الراوتر." من الضروري تشفير جهاز "الراوتر" حتى لا يسهل على أي قرصان من على الإنترنت الدخول إلى الشبكة الخاصة بك، أو ربما سرقة المعلومات المخزنة على الحاسب.

8. النتائج

- مع تطور التكنولوجيا تتطور تلقائيا فرص انتهاك خصوصية الأفراد والمؤسسات والشركات وربما بشكل أسرع نموا.
- مازالت برامج الحماية من القرصنة ومن اختراق الخصوصية عاجزة عن السيطرة بشكل كامل على أعمال انتهاك الخصوصية.
- مع دخول تطبيقات الهواتف الذكية لمجال إدارة المواد الوثائقية عبر الانترنت أصبحت المؤسسات والشركات تتعرض لانتهاك الخصوصية على اكبر مستوى.
- توضح هذه الدراسة تصاعد الهجمات عبر الانترنت كما في الشكل (4) الذي يبين الارتفاع الثابت الذي شهدته نسبة الهجمات منذ 2015 الى نهاية 2018.



الشكل (4): يوضح الرسم البياني للارتفاع الثابت الذي شهدته نسبة الهجمات منذ 2015 الى نهاية 2018.

9. التوصيات

من خلال هذا البحث والدراسة لوحظ زيادة التهديدات والمخاطر التي تتعرض لها مصادر المعلومات والبيانات والتي أحيانا يصعب اكتشافها أو تتبع الثغرات التي تحدث على مصادر المعلومات. لذا نرى من الضروري التطرق إلى بعض الإجراءات والنصائح والبرامج التي يمكن من خلالها مكافحة ومواجهة هذه المخاطر والتي تمكن من الحد في إيقاف هذه الهجمات.

■ يجب تطبيق إجراءات امن النظم المعلوماتية حتى يقلل من حدوث المخاطر والتهديدات،



- لابد من توفير أنظمة تتمتع بإمكانيات كجدار النار، واستخدام كلمات المرور القوية، والبرمجيات كمضادات الفيروسات وكذلك إلى أشخاص متدربون وقادرون على حماية المكونات المادية.
- العمل على تشفير المعلومات عند الحفظ والنقل على مختلف الوسائط حتى لا يتمكن احد من معرفة محتواها في حال الحصول عليها.
- كذلك الحاجة لتزايد الوعي بالمخاطر التي تتعرض لها هذه الأنظمة وشبكات المعلومات.
- يمكن للشركات والمستخدمين حماية أنفسهم من خلال عمليات النسخ الاحتياطي للبيانات، فكلما نغذوا النسخ الاحتياطي في وقت أبكر أصبحوا محصنين على نحو اكبر من تعرضهم لهذه الهجمات.

10.الخاتمة

في هذا البحث تم تقديم أهم المخاطر التي تواجه امن المعلومات بالإضافة الى اهم الطرق التي يستخدمها المخترقون للحصول على تلك المعلومات، وكذلك تم تقديم اهم المقترحات والتوصيات التي يجب إتباعها أو مراعاتها للحد من المخاطر التي تهدد امن المعلومات. ولذا فلابد من تواصل عمليات السعي إلى مواجهة هذه الأخطار والاهتمام بتطوير الأساليب والوسائل الفنية اللازمة للمواجهة هذه الأخطار، إضافة إلى إيجاد أفضل القواعد الإدارية التي تساهم في دعم هذه المواجهة.

المراجع



- [1]. دلال صادق الجواد , د. حميد ناصر الفتان ، " امن المعلومات" ، الطبعة الأولى.
 - [2]. ساري محمد الخالد ، "اتجاهات في امن المعلومات وأمانها" ، الطبعة الأولى.
 - [3]. خالد بن سليمان الغثير , محمد بن عبد الله، "امن المعلومات بلغة ميسرة" الطبعة الأولى, 2009.
 - "Information Security Management: 'Bel G. Raggad. 2010.[4]

 page 23. concepts and practice
 - http://go.symantec.com/norton-report, 2013 .[5]
 - [6]. عايض المري, مؤسسة النور للثقافة والإعلام. http://www.alnoor.se/article.asp/ id, 291634
- [7]. القرصنة الالكترونية سلاح العصر,
 - 2015. https://www.aljazeera.net/knowledgegate/newscoverage
 - https://www.skynewsarabia.com/technology/903004,2016
 - [8]. فيروس الفدية الخبيثة (هواجس وخصائص)
 - https://www.aljazeera.net/programs/newsreports, 2017
 - [9]. تقرير من صحيفة سبق https://sabq.org/Nd4gKr
 - https://mawdoo3.com ,أنواع الفيروسات,
 - [11]. تقرير بعنوان <u>with Standardized Password</u> في الموقع: http://folk.uio.no/josang/papers/ATJK2012-SARSSI.pdf



The 2003 CSI/FBI Report on Computer Crime " :تقرير بعنوان: "and Security", في الموقع

http://www.vsionacl.com/products/security_audit/FBI_CSSI_2003.pdf

"DoD Insider Threat Mitigation, Final Report of : نقرير بعنوان the insider Threat Integratetd4_Process Team http://www.defenselink.mil/nii/org/iptreport4_26dbl.doc

تأثير القواطع البازلتية على ثبات المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي بمنطقة غريان (NW Libya).

أبوالقاسم عبد الفتاح الأخضر. قسم الهندسة الجيولوجية- كلية الهندسة جادو- جامعة نالوت. ba w2007@hotmail.com

ملخص:

تكشفت القواطع البازلتية في منطقة الدراسة نتيجة عمليات قطع المنحدرات لغرض شق الطريق الجبلي طبي المؤدي لمدينة غربان, ولتقييم تأثير القواطع البازلتية على صخور تكوين سيدي الصيد, تم الاعتماد على الخواص الهندسية لتقييم ثبات المنحدرات الموازية للطربق, فتم إعطاء رمز عام للموقع (L-T-G-19) وتم اختيار أربع مواقع, الموقعان (L3, L1) غير متأثران بالقواطع البازلتية, بينما يتأثر الموضعان (L4, L2) بقواطع بازلتية, وتم الاعتماد على القياسات الحقلية للمكاشف والبالغ مجموع مساحتها (140^{2}) , وعند إجراء الحسابات الرياضية ومقارنتها بالمعايير العلمية والعالمية والدراسات المتخصصة, تبين أن المواقع غير المتأثرة بالقواطع البازلتية تمتاز بمتانة (RQD) عالية بلغ متوسطها (86.24%) بوصف عام (Good) واتسمت أيضاً بوجود نظامين للشقوق(\$1,82) وبذلك تعد المكاشف ثابتة ميكانيكياً , بينما المكاشف المتأثرة بالقواطع البازلتية تميزت وجود تقاطع أربع أنظمة للفواصل (S4,S3,S2,S1) قلت معها متانة الصخر (RQD) بنسبة بلغت (43.06%) وبوصف عام (poor) وبناءً على ضعف المكاشف تحت تأثير القاطع البازلتي ستنهار أجزاء من المكاشف الموازية للطريق ونوع الحركة المحتمل (Rock fall), وتؤكد الدراسة أن القواطع البازلتية يمكن تصنيفها ضمن عوامل التجوية الميكانيكية للصخور لما سببته من شقوق وفواصل دون إن تحدث تغيراً في التركيب الكيميائي.

الكلمات الدالة: القواطع البازلتية, الخواص الهندسية, المكاشف الصخرية, الفواصل, اتزان المنحدرات.

Abstract:

The basalt dikes were revealed as a result of the cutting of the slopes of the Tobi mountain road slopes that lead to the city of Gharyan. In order to evaluate the effect of these basalt dikes in the study area and exactly In Sidi As Sid formation, Engineering Properties for discontinuity surfaces were mainly used to evaluate the stability of the parallel slopes of the road. For this reason, The whole site mentioned above was given symbol (LT-G-19) in



addition to other four chosen positions. The positions (L1 and L3) are not affected by basalt dikes. In contrast, the two other positions (L 2 and L 4) are affected by basalt dikes, Field measurements were basically used at this point to measure the rock section there and that sized (140m^2) .

When Conducting mathematical calculations and comparing them to scientific and international standards and specialized studies, It was found that the positions which are not affected by basalt dikes have a high RQD strength of (86.24%) as (GOOD) description and also have two joints set (s1 and s2), While the sections affected by basalt dikes showed the intersection of four joints set (S1.S2,S3,S4), with an average of Rock Quality Designation (43.06 %)As poor descriptive, As a result of the weakness of the sections. Parts of the sections the affected by basalt dikes will be fallen down and automatically destroyed, The type of movement at this stage is known as (rock fall). The study confirms that the basalt dikes can be classified as mechanical weathering factors for rocks.

Key words: basalt dikes, Engineering Properties, rock sections, joints, slope Stability.

1. المقدمة:

تحافظ مكونات المنحدرات والمواد المستقرة عليها على ثباتها بزاوية تسمي زاوية الاتزان وهي أقصي زاوية ميل للمنحدر تضمن بقاء المواد دون حركة ما لم يحدث لها تغير في الخواص الهندسية الفيزيائية منها والميكانيكية وابرز مظاهرها الشقوق والفواصل التي تسهم في المكاشف الصخرية, وتعمل محفزات الحركة على كسر حاجز التوازن لمكونات المنحدرات, فتسبب تغيرا في زاوية الاستقرار للمكاشف ككل او لأجزاء منها، وتستثنى المكاشف المكونة من المواد متماسكة من الحركة نتيجة لطبيعة تركيبها الصخري



المتماسك, ومن ناحية أخرى قد يحدث التغير في الخواص الهندسية الفيزيائية والميكانيكية نتيجة عوامل منها أعمال الحفريات المستخدمة لشق الطرق الجبلية والتفجيرات المفتعلة من قبل الانسان, وتعد المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي المؤدي الى مدينة غريان مثالا لتأثر صخور المنحدر بنشاط بشري ناجم عن عمليات شق طريق طبي وكذلك تأثرها بالقواطع البازلتية التي أدت الى تغيير الخواص الهندسية الفيزيائية والميكانيكية وابرز ملامحها الحقلية كثرة الشقوق والفواصل العشوائية والمنظمة.

2.الموقع الجغرافي لمنطقة الدراسة.

تقع منطقة الدراسة في شمالي شرق مدينة غريان شكل(1), ويعد الطريق طبي حلقة الوصل بين مدينة القواسم وغربان.

3. جيولوجية منطقة الدراسة:

منطقة الدراسة جزء من التتابع الطبقي المتكشف ضمن مرتفع نفوسة والذي يقع في الشمال الغربي لليبيا يفصلها من الناحية الشمالية عن البحر المتوسط سهل الجفارة ويمتد المرتفع ليلتقي بالبحر في منطقة الخمس شرقا ومن الناحية الجنوبية حوض غدامس وتتنوع الصخور في جبل نفوسة بتنوع بيئة الترسيب حيث مرت بعدة دورات من تقدم للبحر وتراجعه لترسب جميع أنواع الصخور الرسوبية من صخور قارية الى بحرية ضحله وعميقة وصخور ترسبت في بيئة انتقالية ما بين القارية والبحرية كما يتواجد بعض التداخلات المنتشرة لأجسام نارية مثل البازلت والفونولايت [1] وبدء العمر الجيولوجي للتتابع الطبقي مع بداية حقب الحياة الأوسط (الترياسي السفلي) بتكوين كرش, وينتهي بتكوين قصر تغرنة بعمر الكريتاسي العلوي شكل(2).



شكل (1): موقع منطقة الدراسة من الجبل الغربي.



شكل (2): التكوينات الجيولوجية المتكشفة في منطقة غريان. [2]

4. تكوين سيدي الصيد:

أعطيا هذا الاسم للتكوين لأول مرة بواسطة (El Hinnawy & Cheshited 1975) حيث يتكون من تتابع طبقي للصخور الكربونية المترسبة في بيئة بحرية ضحلة في منطقة غريان بحيث يكون فوق تكوين ككلة في المنطقة الغربية وفوق تكوين ابوشيبة



في المنطقة الشرقية ويتألف التكوين من عضوين العلوي عضو يفرن المتكون أساسا من الأحجار الجيرية الطينية (المارل) بسمك (60-80 متر) والدولوميتية مع تداخلات من حجر الطين والجبس, أما السفلي فهو عضو عين طبي بسمك (70-60 متر) [3] ويتكون عضو عين طبي من صخور الدولومايت الذي يتفاوت في حجم بلوراته بين الدقيقة والخشنة ذات لون أصغر الى رصاصي مع تداخلات طبقات رقيقة من المارل ويتواجد به وفرة من الأحافير التي تدل على عمر الطباشيري المتأخر (السينوماني) [4] ويتميز عضو عين طبي بإرتفاع المتانة الصخرية بتصنيف يتراوح بين Very Good,Good وذلك نتيجة لتركيبة الصخري المعروف ب لين الحراري وضعف نشاط وتأثير التجوية الكيميائية[6].

5. مشكلة الدراسة:

بتتبع المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي تبين وجود بعض التدخلات النارية وتبين أنها عبارة عن صخور بازلتية وأن السبب الأبرز لتكشف هذه القواطع عمليات شق المنحدرات لمد الطريق الجبلي طبي وقد لوحظ وجود تغيرات واضحة في الصخور المقطوعة ومن أبرزها كثرة الشقوق والفواصل حيت تبين وجود أكثر من نظام للفواصل تتقاطع مع بعضها مدللة على ضعف المكاشف المتأثرة بالتدخلات النارية, ومن الملاحظات التي تم رصدها وتأكيدها بالقياس المباشر تغير زاوية ميل الطبقات كلما اقتربنا من القاطع الناري, إن وجود مثل هذه الظاهرة تسهم في إحداث حالة ضعف للمكاشف, مما يؤدي الى انهيار صخري بفعل محفزات الحركة والتي بدورها تؤدي إلى إحداث ضرر على مستخدمي الطريق في حال حدوث انهيار.



6.أهداف الدراسة:

مع بداية الإحساس بوجود المشكلة والفهم المبدئي لطبيعتها والتمعُن بشواهدها برز هدف عام وهو تقييم استقرارية المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي في المواضع المستهدفة بالدراسة وتحديد نوع الإنهيار المحتمل, ومقارنة المكاشف المتأثرة بالقواطع البازلتية مع المكاشف غير المتأثرة (مكاشف طبيعية) من خلال دراسة الخصائص الهندسية لكل المكاشف.

7. السقوط الصخري.

تعد عمليات تساقط الصخور من اخطر الحركات كونها تحدث بسرعة وفجأة [7] وللنشاط البشري دور فاعل في حدوث هذه ظاهرة من خلال إحداث حالة ضعف لمكونات المنحدرات فعندما يتم قطع الصخور فهو بذلك يسهم في زيادة نشاط التعرية للصخور فتزداد احتمالية حدوث السقوط, وتتأثر المنحدرات الجبلية بهطول الأمطار فتزداد عمليات تساقط الصخور أو انزلاقها وبخاصة إذا كانت تلك المنحدرات تفتقر للغطاء النباتي والذي يساعد على جعل المنحدرات والتربة الغير مغطاة أكثر عرضة لحركة المواد على أسطحها،[8] ويعد التماسك الداخلي للكتلة الصخرية مهما إذ يضعُف التماسك مع الوقت تدريجيا نتيجة تأثير التجوية الكيميائية وبخاصة في الكربونات القابلة للذوبان والتكربن فتعمل على تسهيل عملية انفصال الكتل وسقوطها وبخاصة إذا كانت زاوية ميل المنحدر بين (°70-°90).

8. القواطع البازلتية بمنطقة غريان (Dikes).

تنتشر القواطع النارية بوجه عام في مراكز قباب غريان ورأس المعزول, وأبرز أنواعها البازلت والفونولايت, وتتراوح أعمارها بين مرحلتي الايوسين و البليوسين, وتنتشر أيضاً



في مناطق الاتصال بين تكوين ككلة وسيدي الصيد في قبة غريان [9] وتبين أثناء عملية التخريط وجود قواطع بازلتية في ارتفاعات (603 متر, 589 متر) فوق مستوى سطح البحر تخترق تكوين سيدي الصيد في بعض المواضع وفي مواضع أخرى تكشفت هذه القواطع نتيجة عمليات قطع المنحدرات لشق الطريق الجبلي طبي المؤدي لمدينة غريان, وتتراوح زاوية قطع الصخور مابين °70-°90 لصخور عضو عين طبي إن التغير في زاوية الاتزان ينجم عنه حركة للكتل الصخرية إلى ما تحت أقدامها تعرف هذه الحالة باسم تساقط الصخور [10].

8. الخواص الهندسية للشقوق والفواصل.

1.8 الخواص الفيزيائية: أهمها

أ-التمــوج Roughness: يقصد به شكل سطــح الشق ويعتمد الوصـف على أصل تكون السطح ومنها ثلاث أنواع: أسطـح ناعمة Smooth , أسطـح خشنة قلت Rough, أسطح بين ناعمة وخشنة Rough [11] فكلما كانت الأسطح خشنة قلت الحركة (تحد وتقلل الحركة بسبب الخشونة)

ب- الانفصال بالملم ويتم تقييم Separation: ويقصد بها مقدار اتساع الفاصل بالملم ويتم تقييم القياسات الحقلية المتحصل عليها من جدول (1).

جدول (1): تصنيف الانفصال بناء على قياسه. [12]

Aperture	Term
>200 mm	Wide



60 – 200 mm	Moderately wide		
20 – 60 mm	Moderately narrow		
6 – 20 mm	Narrow		
2 – 6 mm	Very narrow		
0 – 2 mm	Extremely narrow		
< 2 mm	Tight		

2.8. الخواص الميكانيكية:

الشقوق والفواصل في المكاشف الصخرية هي ظاهرة طبيعة وتعد من اكثر التراكيب الثانوية حدوثا في الصخور نتيجة لعوامل طبيعية وهي تفتقر إلى أي حركة مرئية على الرغم من أنها يمكن أن تحدث منفردة فإنها غالبا ما تحدث كمجموعات وأنظمة مشتركة ويمكن قياسها والتعبير عنها بخاصيتين[13] كالآتى:

1.2.8 خاصية نظام الفواصل 1.2.8

يوصف نظام الشقوق بقياس المسافة بين الفواصل المكونة للأنظمة بالمكشف الصخري, حيث (JS) = المسافة بين الشقوق/ عدد العينات بينهم, و يكون التباعد بين الشقوق في الصخور النارية أقل من 20 سم، على عكس الصخور الرسوبية الذي قد يصل إلى 100 متراً، وتكون إمًا موازية لأسطح التطبق أو قاطعة للمجموعة الأولى بزاوية 90° [14], وتقلل الفواصل متانة الصخور وهي على حالتين: الأولى إذا كانت الفواصل ذات اتجاه واحد فتحسب على النحو الآتي:

Sa= s1+s2+s3+....sn/n......q1

العدد 71 Volume ابريل April 2019



Sa =
$$(js)$$
 = u | u

المسافة بين الفاصل الأول والثاني = \$1

المسافة بين الفاصل الأول والثاني = \$2

عدد المسافات المقاسـة =

أمًا إذا تقاطعت ثلاث أنظمة من الشقوق بزوايا مختلفة فتحسب كالآتى:

جدول (2): يوضح نظام تصنيف الشقوق بالاعتماد على المسافة بين الشقوق. [15]

Intervals (cm)	Symbols	Description	
>200	F1	Extremely wide spaced	
60-200	F2 Widely spaced		
20-60	F3	Moderately wide spaced	
6-20	F4	Closely spaced	
2-6	F5	Very closely spaced	
<2	F6	Extremely closed spaced	

2.2.8 تعيين متانــة الصخر Rock Quality Designation تسمية أو تعيين نوعيــة الصخور هـو مؤشـر يستخدم لوصـف الكتلـة الصخرية و تحديـد قوتها جدول (3) وتستخدم المعادلـة q3 لقياسها بالاعتمـاد على حجم الفواصـل في المتر المكعب الواحد.



جدول (3): نظام التصنيف بخاصية متانة الكتل الصخربة. [16]

Descriptive Term	RQD %	Symbols
Very Good	90 – 100	R1
Good	75 – 90	R2
Fair	50 - 75	R3
Poor	25 - 50	R4
Very Poor	<25	R5

9. الدراسة الميدانية وطريقة العمل:

تــم اختيــار رمــز عــام لموقــع الدراســة (L-T-G-19), إذ يرمــز (L) الــي مصــطلح (location) وترمــز (T) الــي طريــق طبــي الجبلــي وترمــز (G)



السي منطقة غريان (GYRIAN) ويرمز الرقم 19 سنة إجراء الدراسة و2019 ويبين الشكل (2) موضع المواقع, وقد تم أخذ موقعان لا يتأثران بيأي قواطع بازلتية وهما الموقع (L1-T-G-19) والموقع (L3-T-G-19) والموقع (L3-T-G-19) ليتم مقارنة النتائج المتحصل عليها من دراسة الخواص الهندسية مع الموقعان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتية وهما الموقعان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتية وهما الموقعان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتية وهما الموقعان الموقعان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتيانية وهما الموقعان الموقعان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتيانية وهما الموقعان الموقعان المحتان المتأثران بقواطع بازلتيانية وهما الموقعات أستخدمت, بوصلة وقدمه ذات ورنيه لقياس الفواصل الضيقة, وأشرطة قياس مختلفة الأطوال, جهاز (GPS), وحامض (HCL) مخفف بنسبة 10% كراسة تدوين ملاحظات, وكتيب يحوي تفاصيل جيولوجية المنطقة, وأكياس جمع عينات, شكل (2).



شكل (2): موقع المكاشف المدروسة على المنحدرات الموازية للطريق الجبلي طبي. ويبن الجدول (4) نتائج المتحصل عليها من الدراسة الميدانية.



جدول (4) بيانات الدراسة الميدانية ونتائج دراسة الخواص الهندسية

L4-T-G-19	L3-T-G-19	L2-T-G-19	L1-T-G-19	رمز الموقع
N 32°10'59"	N 32°11'04"	N 32°10'58"	N 32°10'51'	- h . h .
E13°02'29'	E 13° 02'22"	E13°02'21"	E13° 02'19'	إحداثيات الموقع
يوجد	لايوجد	يوچد	لايوجد	تثير القاطع
586 m	589 m	603 m	618 m	الأرتقاع
60 m ²	60 m ²	60 m ²	60 m ²	المساحة
دولومايت.	دولومايت.	دولومايت.	دولومايت.	توع صغر
°10	°4 -°2	°10	°4 -°2	ميل الطيقات
sw	SE -S	NE – N	SE -S	اتجاه الميل
°90-°80	°90-°80	°90-°80	°90-°80	زاوية القطع
ميكاتيكية	ميكاتيكية	ميكاتيكية	ميكاتيكية	توع التجوية
Smooth	Rough	Smooth	Rough	التموج
حطام وطين	لاتوجد	حطام وطين	لاقوجد	المواد داخل القواصل
32 Moderately wide spaced	189 Widely spaced	27 Closely spaced	231 Extremely wide spaced	نظم الشقوق (JS). cm
20.2 Joints in 1m³	9.6 Joints in	23.4 Joints in 1m³	7.8 Joints in	(Jv)حجم الشقوق في م ³
Poor % 48.34	% 83.22	% 37.78	% 89.26	متاتة المكشف
	Good	Poor	Good	(RQD)
	33 mm	56.3 mm	29mm	
64mm Moderately wide	Moderately	Moderately	Moderately	الأقصــــل Separation
	narrow	wide	narrow	

10. النتائج

1.10 نتائج الدراسة للموقعين (L3-T-G-19, L1-T-G-19) ترجع

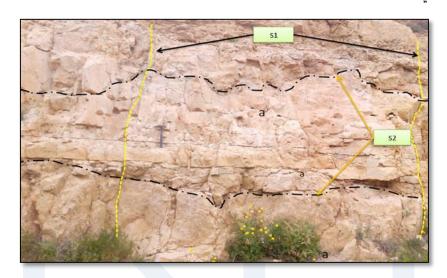
صخور الموقعين لتكوين سيدي الصيد عضو عين طبي, ورغم الاختلاف



النسبي في ارتفاع الموقعين تبين أن متانة (RQD) كلا المكشفين وصفت بالجيدة (Good) بنسبة بلغت 89.2 % في الموقع L1 وبنسبة 83.22 % في الموقع L3, وإن ارتفاع متانة الصخور مرده الي قلة الفواصل والشقوق العشوائية والمنتظمة والتي يسند إليها حساب قيمة ((Jv)) في كلا المكشفين ففي الموقع L1 بلغت قيمتها 7.8 في ³m بينما بلغت قيمتها في المكشف L3 9.6 في 3m ومن المشاهدات الحقلية يلاحظ مقدار تباعد الفواصل الرئيسة نظام الفواصل (\$1,52) إذ بلغ مقدار التباعد في الموقع 231cm L1 بتصنيف (Extremely wide spaced) وفي الموقع L3 بقيمة بلغت 189 Widely)، وبتحدد ضعف المكشف الصخري هندسياً ويتصنيف (spaced بمدى تواجد أنظمة الفواصل التي تتقاطع فيما بينها فكلما زادت الأنظمة وتقاطعت ضعف الصخور المكونة لأي مكشف صخري, على عكس المكشف المبين بالشكل (3) فنلاحظ وجود نظامين فقط (\$1,\$2) وبتضح أن النظام الأول 51 يكون اتجاهه شمال شرق- جنوب غرب متخذه اتجاه الحركة المؤثر في مرتفع نفوسة, وأما النظام (S2) فيتخذ مستوى الترسيب المدى وتحت المدى, وأوجد التباعد وقلة الأنظمة الى زيادة المتانة (RQD), وذلك مرده الى أن صخور هذا التكوين من نوع (Doloston) والذي يمتاز بصلابته لارتفاع نسبة والماغنسيوم. (الأخضـر 2017). وتتسم المكاشـف الصـخرية المكونـة لعضـو عين طبى بافتقارها لحدوث عمليات تجوبة كيميائية يعزي إليها إذابة الصخور وبزداد فيها نشاط التجوية الميكانيكية, وحافظت الطبقة الصخربة في كلا الموقعين على درجة الميل بقيمة (2°- 4°) باتجاهين SE -S, لعدم وجود مـؤثر كـالقواطع البازلتيــة إن مـا يميــز الفواصــل فــي المــوقعين بأنهـا متوسطة



الضيق (Moderately narrow) وعليه لا يمكن أن تسهم المواد بين الفواصل في حركة الكتل.



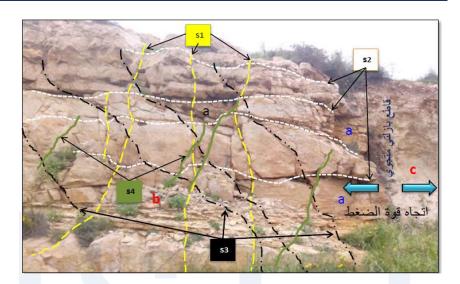
شكل(3): مكشف غير متأثر بالقاطع البازلتي بالموقع(L3-T-G-19).

2.10 نتائج الدراسة للموقعين (L4-T-G-19, L2-T-G-19).

تتأثر صخور الموقعين بقاطع بازلتي متأثرة بالتجوية الكيميائية والميكانيكية ويوئر كلا القاطعين في صخور الدولومايت التي ترجع لتكوين سيدي الصيد عضو عين طبي وبالتمعن في المكشف شكل (4) والذي يمثل جزء من الموقع عضو عين طبي وبالتمعن في المكشف شكل (4) والذي يمثل جزء من الموقع (L2) نلحظ تكون أربعة أنظمة للفواصل (\$1,\$2,\$3,\$54), تقاطعت الأنظمة بزوايا مختلفة فكانت الزاوية بين النظام (\$1,\$2) (\$1,\$2) ناتج عن تأثير قوة ضغط بفعل قاطع بازلتي لاحظ شكل (4) ويتقاطع النظام (\$3) بزاوية حادة مع النظامين (\$1,\$2), بينما تولد نظام



رابع (s4) متعامد بزاوية 90° تقريباً مع النظام (s3) ساهم في إحداث حالة ضعف مولداً شعوق عشوائية وبذلك تكون (القوة المتولدة σ1) من القاطع البازلتي السبب الرئيسي في إحداث حالة الضعف العام التي سيطرت علي المكشفين (L4-T-G-19, L2-T-G-19) وأثـر هـذا الضعف علـي الخصائص الهندسية المقاسة فعند حساب قيم (RQD) رباضياً في وجود الأنظمة الأربعة باستخدام المعادلات (95-93) تبين أن تصنيف الموقع الأول (poor) بنسبة بلغت (37.78 %) وبدات التصنيف في الموقع (L4) وبنسبة بلغت (48.34 %), ومن شواهد تأثير القاطع البازلتي حقلياً تكون كتال صخربة متفاوتــة فــى الأحجــام والأشكال, وبقيــاس نظــام الشــقوق وحســابه رباضــياً من المعادلة (q1,q2), وتبين أن تصنيف التباعد تراوح بين Moderately wide), ومن مظاهر تأثير القاطع spaced -spaced البازلتي تغير اتجاه الميل وقيمته (جدول4) الطبقات المتأثرة بالقاطع, وأسهمت عملية شق المنحدر وقطعه بزاوية بلغت (90°) في تكشف القاطع والصخور المتأثرة وبالتالي أصبح أكثر عرضة لحدوث انهيار من نوع السقوط الصخرى وبخاصـة للمكشـف (L1) والـذي يتميـز بوجـود مسـتويات الحركـة (الفواصـل) بمتوسط اتساع لكلا الموقعين 60.15mm.



شكل (4): مكشف صخرى متأثر بقاطع بازلتي (L2-T-G-19)

11. الاستنتاج:

1 - بتتبع الجدول(4) نلاحظ أن الخواص الهندسية تتباين في القيم مع التغير في موقع المكشف ونوع المؤثر في صخور المكشف, فمتانة الصخور تقل في الموقع (L4,L2) أي في المواضع التي تتميز بتأثير قاطع بازلتي, إذ بلغ متوسطها (43.06%) ومرد هذا الضعف يعود لارتفاع عدد الفواصل والشقوق العشوائية, أي ارتفاع قيم حجم الشقوق (JV) في a^{5} , بمتوسط عام (21.8).

2- متانة الصخور في الموقعين(L3,L1) بلغ متوسطها (86.24%) وبتصنيف جيد وإن ارتفاع متانة الصخور يؤكد على ثبات المنحدر, بذلك لا توجد أي احتمالية انهيار.

3- إن تقارب قيم الخواص الهندسية في المواضع المتأثرة بالقاطع البازلتي, وتقارب القيم
 في المواضع الغير متأثرة, يرجع لكون التكوين الصخري يتميز بذات الصفات الصخرية



وتوافق ما ذكر مع النتائج الواردة بدراسة (الاخضر وآخرون 2016) حول تقارب الخصائص الهندسية لصخور الكربونات رغم اختلاف الارتفاع [17].

4- بما أن القواطع البازلتية ساهمت في تغيير الخواص الهندسية للمكاشف الصخرية وأسهمت أيضاً في ضعف المكاشف وتغيير ميل الطبقات والاتجاه, عليه يمكن إدراجها ضمن عوامل التجوية الميكانيكية المؤثرة في المكاشف الصخرية.

References المراجع

- [1].El-Bakai, M., Idris, M. and Sghair, A., 1997. Petrography, geochemistry and stable isotopes constraints on the origin of the Cretaceous dolomite (Ain Tobi Member) in NW Libya
- [2]. Alfandi, E., 2012. Early Mesozoic Stratigraphy, Sedimentology and structure of the Gharian area, north western Libya, (Doctoral dissertation, Plymouth University),P38.
- [3] Explanatory booklet for the Geological Map of Libya., (1:250,000) Sheet: Tripoli (NI 33-13), Industrial Research Centre, Tripoli, 1975.
- [4].El-Bakai, M.T., 1997. Petrography and palaeoenvironment of the Sidi as Sid Formation in Northwest Libya. Petroleum Research Journal, 9, pp.9-26.
- [5]. أبو القاسم الأخضر وآخرون، تقييم الخواص الفيزيائية والميكانيكية لأسطح الشقوق والفواصل لمكاشف تكوين سيدي الصيد السينوماني_ الكريتاسي العلوي) واستقرارها على منحدرات الطريق الجبلي جادو (شمالي غربي ليبيا) المؤتمر الدولي



الثاني لعلوم الأرض عن ليبيا، جيوليبيا2، قسم علوم الأرض، جامعة بنغازي، 2017م.

- **[6].** Alakhdar,A, Mansur ,A ,2018,Evaluation of the stability of the rock masses on the slopes adjacent to the mountain road Zintan (NW Libya) JOPAS Vol17 No.1pp.485-556.
- [7].Andriani, G.F. and Walsh, N., 2007. Rocky coast geomorphology and erosional processes: a case study along the Murgia coastline South of Bari, Apulia—SE Italy. Geomorphology, 87(3), pp.224-238.
- [8]. Xu, Q., Liu, S., Wan, X., Jiang, C., Song, X. and Wang, J., 2012. Effects of rainfall on soil moisture and water movement in a subalpine dark coniferous forest in southwestern China. 26(25), pp.3800-3809.
- [9].Explanatory booklet for the Geological Map of Libya., (1:250,000) Sheet: Tripoli (NI 33-13), Industrial Research Centre, Tripoli, 1975, pp40-41.
- [10]. Dorren, L.K., 2003. A review of rockfall mechanics and modelling approaches. Progress in Physical Geography, 27(1), pp.69-87.
- [11]. Boyer, R.E., 1971. Field Guide to Rock Weathering. Earth Science Curriculum Project Pamphlet Series PS-1 PP 5-35.
- [12]. Palmström, A., Sharma, V.I. and Saxena, K., 2001. In-situ characterization of rocks. BALKEMA Publ, p.31.

[13]. أبوالقاسم الأخضر وآخرون، الخواص الفيزيائية والميكانيكية للكتل الصخرية،



ومدى استقرارها على منحدرات منطقة جناون (شمالي غربي ليبيا) (17-|-|), منشورات مجلة العلوم التقنية الاصابعة. العدد الأول، اغسطس 2017 ص 16.

- [14]. Palmstrom, A., 1995. RMi-a rock mass characterization system for rock engineering purposes.pp .11-66.
- [15]. Dafalla, D.S. and Malik, I.A.G., 2015. Evaluation of Structural Geology of Jabal, Omar. Evaluation, 11 (01), International Journal of Engineering Research and Development, JSSN: 2278-800X, PP 71. 67.
- [16].Palmstrom, A., 2005. Measurements of and correlations between block size and rock quality designation (RQD). Tunnelling and Underground Space Technology, 20(4),.362-377, p 11.
- [17]. أبوالقاسم الأخضر وآخرون، الخصائص الهندسية للكتل الصخرية واستقرارها على منحدرات منطقة جناون مروراً بالطريق الجبلي إلي جادو (شمالي غربي ليبيا)، منشورات المجلة الليبية للدراسات، العدد الحادي عشر الزاوية ديسمبر 2016. ص192،211.



ISSN: 2519-9846



International Science and Technology Journal

Peer Reviewed and Open Access Journal published by

Science and Technology Center for Research and Studies



Volume 17 April 2019

www.stc-rs.com.ly





The International Science and Technology Journal (ISTJ) publishes research from all fields of academic. technical and applied sciences. The final editing and formatting of all accepted papers is done by the editorial board to ensure the consistency of the format and the quality of the product. (please download the final editing and formatting from the website or facebook page).



Chairman of the Editorial Board

Dr. Ahmed S M Agena

Associate Professor
In the field of mechanical engineering and materials science
Ph D from
Budapest University of Technology and
Economics - Hungary



Abd elhmed Taher Zenbel

Assistant Professor in the field of human resources planning.

MSc from Planning Institute of Higher Studies Tripoli - Libya



Mohamed. M. A. Hadud

Lecturer in the field of Materials Science Engineering

MSc from University of Belgrade - Serbia



Mohamed Ali Alganga

Lecturer in the field of Electronic Engineering and Information Technology MSc from the Sheffield Hallam

University -England 2008-





Analysis of Survey Data on Open Educational Resources

Abdusalam F. Nwesri and H. Harmain

Faculty of Information Technology, University of Tripoli, Tripoli, Libya {a.nwesri, h.harmain}@uot.edu.ly

الملخص

تعرض هذه الورقة التحليل الاولي لبيانات الاستبيان الذي تم اجراؤه في كلية تقنية المعلومات بجامعة طرابلس حول استخدام المصادر المفتوحة المصدر لدى الطلبة. تم تجميع البيانات من الطلبة بصورة الكترونية. الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو تقييم مدى ادراك الطلبة واستخدامهم للمصادر التعليمية المفتوحة المصدر داخل الكلية. نتائج الاستبيان كشفت ان 90% من طلبة الكلية يستخدمون المصادر التعليمية المفتوحة المصدر.

Abstract

This paper reports on a preliminary analysis of survey data on using open educational resources at the Faculty of Information Technology, University of Tripoli. The survey data was collected electronically from students. The objective of the survey is to assess the awareness and usage of open educational resources within the faculty. Results of our survey reveal that 90% of students are using open educational resources.

Keywords: Open educational resources; OER; open textbooks; open learning.



Introduction

Open Educational Resources (OER) are "materials used to support education that may be freely accessed, reused, modified and shared" (UNESCO 2011,2015). OER has received great attention in the past two decades. In 2012, UNESCO called on governments to adopt policies and support capacity development to promote the use of OER (UNESCO, 2012). OERs have been considered as one of the most significant educational movements in the 21st century (Shear *et. al.*, 2015). Institutions and governments have supported creating OER to aid learning and to lower educational costs for students (Florida Virtual Campus, 2012, Florida Virtual Campus, 2016; Jhangiani *et. al.*, 2017).

OER materials have been reported to increase learning outcome. John Hilton (2016) surveyed 9 studies relating to the influence of OER on the learning outcomes. He reported that only one study reported non-significant negative effects on learning outcomes, three others showed a significant improvement in favor of using OER, three studies showed no significance and the remaining two studies did not report any statistical measures. In a recent large-scale study on the impact of OER on student grades, results show that students who used OER textbooks significantly outperformed students who used traditional textbook (Colvard *et. al.*, 2018).

OER materials can help resolve many issues in education. Access to free textbooks is one issue: students in higher education in Libya rely on lecture notes more than textbooks due to the lack to availability of textbooks. Lecturers usually prepare the learning materials (usually PPT presentations) and present them to students either electronically or in paper form. Access to online resources



such as textbooks will help improve the quality of teaching materials within Libyan higher education institutions.

The goal of this research paper is two fold: 1) measure the use of OER at the Faculty of Information Technology, University of Tripoli; 2) increase the awareness and importance of the OERs among students at the faculty.

Methodology

For the purpose of our study, a quantitative survey was developed. The survey questions were well designed to measure the use and attitudes toward using OERs.

The following research questions were used to guide the study:

Are students aware of OER? (Yes/No)

Are students using OER? (Yes/No)

What type of OERs are students using? (tutorials, PowerPoint presentations, textbooks, video, audio, software tools)

What is the impact of using OER on students learning? (Low, medium, High)

Are faculty in the sample using OER? (yes/no)

What type of OER have faculty used? (tutorials, PowerPoint presentations, textbooks, video, audio, software tools)

What type of OER are faculty creating? (tutorials, PowerPoint presentations, textbooks, video, audio, software tools)



What factors could facilitate using OER? (Support from administration, recognition, academic quality, staff awareness, desire to reduce cost to students)

Participants

The faculty of Information Technology at the University of Tripoli has around 1300 student enrolled by the spring 2018 term. The anonymous survey targeted all students at the faculty. 162 students responded to the survey, 111 students completed all questions and the remaining 51 did not. All results shown below are based on completed surveys.

Table 1 shows the number of participants based on gender. By the time of conducting this survey, the total number of students is 1280 out of which 481 are female students. The sample participated reflected the female to male ratio at the faculty.

Survey Sample

Table 1: Survey sample based on gender

Gender	n	%
Male	79	71.17%
Female	32	28.83%

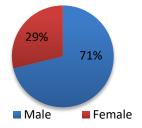


Table 2 shows the distribution of students based on their study level. Students from all levels participated in the survey.



Internet Connectivity

We believe that Internet connectivity is a vital factor to increase OER usage. We surveyed students on Internet connection they use to assess whether the faculty or the university in general encourages students to get connected. Table 3 shows the Internet connection used by the survey sample.

Table 2: Survey sample based on study level					
Level Of Study (term) n %					
1st	16	14.41%			
2nd	8	7.21%			
3rd	11	9.91%			
4 th	18	16.22%			
5 th	9	8.11%			
6 th	16	14.41%			
7 th	13	11.71%			
8 th	7	6.31%			
> 8 th	13	11.71%			

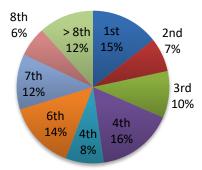
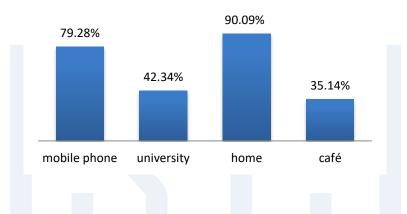




Table 3: Internet connection used

10010 07 11100111101 0011110011011 0000			
Connection	n	%	
Mobile	88	79.28%	
phone			
University	47	42.34%	
Home	100	90.09%	
Café	39	35.14%	



Results show that students use all available internet connectivity options. However, the survey shows that students tend to use the Internet more at home than university with 88% of students use mobile phones to get connected.

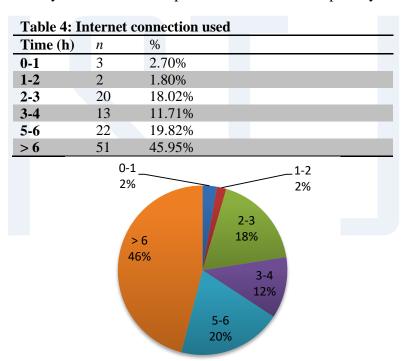
It is worth mentioning that the university provides free Internet connectivity on the main campus to all students, staff and employees. However, there are no public places such as computer labs and libraries connected where students can use while being at the university. This explains the low rate of using Internet at university.



How often students get connected

Time taken on using Internet is one factor that shows students ability to view materials on the Internet. As IT students, we expect students to spend more time on the Internet in order to fulfill their course commitments. Table 4 shows daily average hours students take using the Internet.

Table 4 shows that the majority of students spend more than 3 hours daily with about 45% spend more than 6 hours per day.



Survey Results

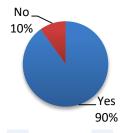
Research question 1: Are students using OER?



Table 5 shows that 90% of students are aware of OER and already using them.

Table 5: OER awareness

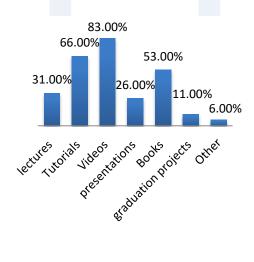
Tubic Ci Obli	unului	LCDD
Using OER?	n	%
Yes	100	90.09%
No	11	9.91%



Research question 3: What type of OERs are students using?

Table 6: Type of OER used

Table 6. Type of OLK useu				
OER Type	n	%		
Lectures	3	31.00%		
	1			
Tutorials	6	66.00%		
	6			
Videos	8	83.00%		
	3			
Presentation	2	26.00%		
S	6			
Books	5	53.00%		
	3			
Graduation	1	11.00%		
projects	1			
Other	6	6.00%		



The answers of the 100 students who have answered YES to the last question are shown in Table 6. Results show that students use videos more than any other materials (83%). Then they use



tutorials (66%), followed by books (53%), lectures (31%), presentations (26%) and graduation projects (11%). 6% of students indicated that they used other material.

To assess the use of OER by students while studying, we asked students to choose the way they get their study materials. Participants were asked the following question:

How do you get the Educational Material for subject you study?

I copy them from other students

I buy a paper copies from a boot at the university

Through the subject website

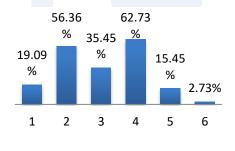
Through a news group on Facebook, Google ...etc

Similar websites on other universities

Others

Table 7: How students get Educational Material

Choice	n	%
1	21	19.09%
2	62	56.36%
3	39	35.45%
4	69	62.73%
5	17	15.45%
6	3	2.73%



Answers to this question reveal that students tend to get hard copies of study materials either by copying them or buying ready copies. However, 69 (62.73%) students answered that they get them through a newsgroup dedicated to the subject. It is worth



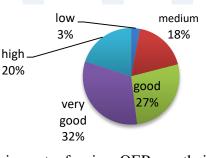
mentioning that 35% also indicated that they get materials using a subject dedicated website.

To assess the resources where students get their OER, we asked students to write down five websites they use to get OER. The questions was "Write down websites you use to obtain OER materials?". Websites reported by students are grouped and counted. Top reported websites by students: (Youtube:59; Udamy:23; Google:14; Udacity: 9; Khan Academy:7; Lynda:6; Coursera:5; Edx:5; Facebook:4; W3School:4; Github: 3; Wikipedia: 3). It is important to note that some of these websites do not provide OER, they however, offer Educational Materials for free but not under OER license. Although the concept of OER was highlighted at the beginning of the survey, many students perceive non-OER free materials as OER.

Research question 4: What is the impact of using OER on students learning?

Table 8: Impact of using OER

Impact	n	%
Low	3	3.00%
Medium	18	18.00%
Good	27	27.00%
Very	32	32.00%
good		
High	20	20.00%



Students were asked to rate the impact of using OER on their learning outcome. About 80% of the students indicated that OER has positive impact on their studies.

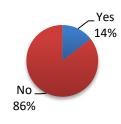
Research question 5: Are faculty offering any OER?



Table 9 shows that 95% percent say that the faculty is not providing any OER.

Table 9: OER offered by faculty

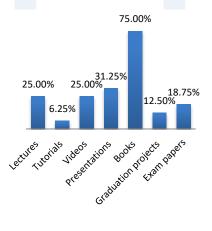
Faculty using OER?	n	%
Yes	16	14.41%
No	95	85.59%



Research question 6: What type of OERs is faculty offering?

Table 10: Type of OER used by faculty

OER Type	n	%
Lectures	4	25.00%
Tutorials	1	6.25%
Videos	4	25.00%
Presentations	5	31.25%
Books	12	75.00%
Graduation projects	2	12.50%
Exams papers	3	18.75%



On the types of the OER that the faculty is offering, of those who said that the faculty is providing OER, 12 students (75%) said that



the faculty is providing books, while 5 others said that the faculty is providing presentations. To our knowledge, the faculty is not officially providing any OER, however, some lecturers do provide such materials while teaching.

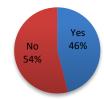
Research question 7: What type of OER are faculty creating?

To answer this question, students were asked two questions:

a) Does Lecturers publish any Educational Resources on the Internet?

Table 9: Does staff publish ER on the Internet

Does publis	staff sh any ER?	n	%
Yes		51	45.95%
No		60	54.05%



The answers to this question was encouraging, 45.95% answered that lecturers at the faculty are creating OER, while 45.05% answered they do not. The below question was asked further to those who stated that lecturer are creating OER.

b) In General, lecturers make Educational Resources

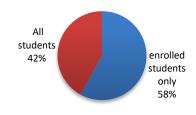
Available to students in the subject only?

Available to all students?



Table 10: ER availability

Lecturer make ER available to?	n	%
Enrolled Students only	29	58.00 %
All students	21	42.00 %



Answers to this question show that only 42% of lecturers make ER available to all students, while 29% make them available to enrolled students only. This indicated the volume of OER the faculty is creating is not yet high.

Research question 8: What factors could facilitate providing students with OER?

This question was a free question, 62 students responded with their opinion on what factors that facilitate providing OER to students. Responses are summarized as

Creating an electronic library at the university for OER

Creating websites for subjects that contain related materials

Providing good and free Internet connection for students

Creating an electronic library for the faculty Educational materials

Recording lectures and providing access to them online

Lecturers should direct students to OER



Technical support

Providing venues for Internet to students at the university campus

Providing an access to Electronic libraries such IEEE and other licensed libraries

Increase the awareness about OER within students

Conclusions

The main goal of this research paper was to measure the use of OER at the Faculty of Information Technology, University of Tripoli and to increase the awareness and importance of the OERs. The survey results show that our students are very aware of the OER and do use them to some extent. About 80% of the students responded very positive to using OER in their study and they believe that OERs have great impact on their understanding of the subjects they study.

The survey results also show that most faculty teaching staff don't refer students to or encourage them to use OERs. This is an area that needs to get more attention by the faculty administration. However, it is worth mentioning that this research has two limitations. First, the low response rate (111 out of the 1300 enrolled faculty students). Second, we did not include faculty members in the survey. Our future work in this area will focus on overcoming these limitations and we will try to get the faculty administration involved in the process of formally adopting OERs. We also plan to extend our research to cover all faculties within the University of Tripoli.



References

Colvard, N., Watson, C. E., Park, H. The Impact of Open Educational Resources on Various Student Success Metrics, International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 2018, Volume 30, Number 2, 262-276.

Florida Virtual Campus. (2012). 2012 Florida Student Textbook Survey. Tallahassee, FL: Author. Retrieved from www.openaccesstextbooks.org/pdf/2012_Florida_Student_Textbo ok_Survey.pdf

Florida Virtual Campus. (2016). 2016 Florida Student Textbook & Course Materials Survey. Tallahassee, FL. Retrieved from https://florida.theorangegrove.org/og/items/3a65c507-2510-42d7-814c-ffdefd394b6c/1/

Hilton, J., Open educational resources and college textbook choices: a review of research on efficacy and perceptions, Education Tech Research Dev DOI 10.1007/s11423-016-9434-9 Retrieved from: https://conference.oeconsortium.org/2016/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/OER-and-college-textbook-choices-final-published-ETRD-article.pdf

Jhangiani, R. and Jhangiani, S., Investigating the Perceptions, Use, and Impact of Open Textbooks: A survey of Post-Secondary Students in British Columbia, *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning Volume 18*, Number 4, June – 2017. Retrieved from: https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1146242.pdf

Shear, L., Means, B., and Lundh, P. (2015). Research on Open: OER Research Hub Review and Futures for Research on OER.

العدد 17 Volume ابریل 2019 April



Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Retrieved from https://hewlett.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/OERRH
Evaluation Final Report June 2015.pdf

UNESCO (2012). 2012 Paris OER Declaration. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/
MULTIMEDIA/HQ/CI/CI/pdf/Events/Paris OER
Declaration_01.pdf

UNESCO. (2002). Forum on the impact of open courseware for higher education in developing countries. Final report. Retrieved from

 $www.unesco.org/iiep/eng/focus/opensrc/PDF/OERForumFinalRep\\ ort.pdf$

UNESCO. (2011,2015). Guidelines for Open Educational Resources (OER) in Higher Education. Paris & Vancouver: UNESCO – COL. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002136/213605e.pdf



Corrosion Behaviour of Magnesium matrix carbides reinforced composites in 3.5 wt. % NaCl and different PH

Tayeb Taher Kalefa Elfarah¹,* Abobaker Ghaith Em Bohali²

High Institute of Science and Technology. Department of Chemical Engineering –Zawia –Libya telfarah@yahoo.com

High Institute of Science and Technology. Department of Chemical Engineering –Zawia –Libya Abobakerbohali@yahoo.com

الملخص

تتمتع سبائك المغنيسيوم بقوة متانة عالية جدًا وقدرة معالجة حرارية جيدة، مما يجعلها بديلًا مفيدًا لصناعات الطيران وصناعة السيارات. ومع ذلك، فإن مقاومة التآكل المنخفضة الناتجة عن التفاعل السطحي العالي قد أضعفت الاستخدام الواسع لهذه السبائك. تم بحث ودراسة سلوك التآكل لأربعة مركبات مصفوفة من (المغنيسيوم / الألومنيوم) من خلال الاختبارات الكهرو كيميائية والوزن في معدل وزن 3.5% من كلوريد الصوديوم ودرجة الحموضة المختلفة في درجة حرارة الغرفة. تم تحليل منتجات التآكل عن طريق مسح الإلكترون عن طريق الاختبارات الكهروكيميائية والوزن، والفحص المجهري OM وكذلك عن طريق تحسين عناصر التركيب.

Mg لنتائج لوحظ أن تلف التآكل ناتج بشكل أساسي عن تكوين طبقة التآكل (OH) 2 عينات (OH) 2 عينات (OH) 2 عينات (OH) 2 وقت التلبد من (OH) 4 بنسبة (OH) 4 عينات (OH) 5 عينات (OH) 4 بنسبة (OH) 4 عينات (OH) 5 عينات (OH) 6 عينات (OH) 7 عينات (OH) 8 عينات (OH)



2.5 %. ومعدل التآكل هو 35.51mpy. تم تلخيص البيانات الرئيسية المستخرجة من منحنى الاستقطاب في الجدول 2.

Abstract

Magnesium alloys has a very high specific strength and good processing capacity, making it a meaningful alternative to the aerospace and automotive industries. However, the low corrosion resistance caused by high surface reactivity has weakened the widespread use of these alloys. The corrosion behaviour of four magnesium / aluminium matrix composites was investigated by electrochemical and weight tests in 3.5 wt% NaCl and different PH at room temperature. The corrosion products were analysed by scanning electron by electrochemical and weight tests, Optical Microscopy (OM) and by optimizing the composition elements.

From the results is noted that the corrosion damage is mainly caused by the formation of Mg (OH)₂ corrosion layer. Samples 10and15 show the highest corrosion resistance. The best conditions for all experiments to determine: sintering temperature of 500 °C, sintering time of 5 minutes, and the additive is B4C; adding ratio of 2.5%. The corrosion of rate is 35.51mpy. The main data extracted from the polarization curve are summarized in Table 2.

KeyWords: corrosion; optimization; metal matrix composites; Optical Microscopy.

1. Introduction.

Magnesium-based light alloys belong to a class of structural materials with more and more industrial concerns. Magnesium alloys show the lowest density, low cost and large usability in engineering metal materials [1]. Therefore, this light alloy has a



promising future [2]. Due to their low density, high specific strength and rigidity, magnesium alloys have become candidate materials for many applications in the microelectronics and automotive and aerospace industries. The relative density of magnesium is 1.74 g / cm³, 35% lower than the relative density of aluminium, and the weight of typical magnesium alloys is 35% lower than the weight of their aluminium counterpart [3]. Magnesium and magnesium alloys are non-magnetic and have relatively high heat conductivity, as well as good vibrations and impact absorption capacity [4]. The severe limitation of the potential use of several magnesium alloys is their sensitivity to corrosion. Magnesium alloys, especially those with high purity, have good resistance to atmospheric corrosion. However, corrosion sensitivity in chloride-containing environments is a serious problem [3]. Over the past 40 years, alloy design and development, new surface treatment and improved corrosion mechanism knowledge have led to an increase in the actual and potential applications of magnesium alloys [5].

Mg Corrosion resistant alloys depend on several factors: (a) the environment, (b) alloy composition and microstructure, and (c) the properties of the film developed in the medium in which they are exposed. With regard to the environment, the corrosion resistance of magnesium alloys in chloride-containing solutions is highly dependent on pH and Cl Concentration, no significant effect of oxygen concentration [6][7]. In general, magnesium and its alloys are dissolved at very low rates in alkaline or poor buffered sodium chloride solutions, where the pH can be increased by the formation of partially protected Mg (OH)₂ layers[6] . On the other hand, chloride ions promote rapid attack in neutral aqueous solutions, even higher acid solutions [6][8]. With the increase of Cl -, the corrosion rate also increases. Ion concentration [6]. The corrosion



of magnesium alloys in free-corrosion potentials in non-oxidizing neutral or alkaline chloride solutions usually begins with irregular pits and its diffusion horizontal and covering the entire surface[9][10]. However, this mechanism is different from the autocatalytic pitting experienced by stainless steel[11][12] . Since there seems to is no large tendency to deep pitting, possibly due to increased pH and formation of magnesium hydroxide film. However, this is not always true, since the microstructures have a significant effect on the corrosion mechanism, especially in twophase magnesium alloys. With regard to the composition of the alloy composition and the microstructure, it is known that the alloying element not only changes the mechanical properties of magnesium but also imparts mechanical properties to magnesium on the corrosion behaviour of the significant impact. The alloying elements may form secondary particles, which are superior to the magnesium matrix, and thus are convenient corrosion or enrichment of corrosion products, which may inhibit the corrosion rate[13].

In general, it has been reported that increasing the Al concentration in the Mg-Al alloy has a beneficial effect on the corrosion behaviour in the chloride medium [14][15]. But specifically Al's mechanisms and effects are still not well understood. For example, Lunder[16] found that the concentration of 2-8 wt% Al in die-cast AS(Al-Mg-Si alloys), AM(Al-Mg-Mn) and AE(Al-Mg- mixture of rare earth elements)alloys increased However, reducing the corrosion rate in 5% NaCl, the reduction in corrosion rate appears to be related to a decrease in the impurity content as the Al content increases. The most recent data compares the corrosion rates of high purity alloys in 3% NaCl [17]. The results show that the corrosion rate of HP-Mg5Al alloy is significantly higher than that of HP-Mg, which is due to the micro electrochemistry of adjacent



b. On the other hand, high purity two-phase industrial Mg alloys (MEZ, AM60 and AZ91D) have the same properties HP-Mg, although in fact these commercial alloys each have a two-phase microstructure. The purpose of this work is to study the corrosion behaviour of the four magnesium / aluminium matrix composites in the 3.5% NaCl,. The effects of immersion time and Al concentration on corrosion resistance were monitored by electrochemical and weight tests, Optical Microscopy (OM) and by optimizing the composition elements.

2. Experimental procedures

2.1. Test material

The chemical compositions of the tested magnesium matrix carbides reinforced composites have been manufactured by hot pressing as one of the powder metallurgy methods. As a matrix material, (% 95Mg +% 5Al) alloy with a mixture of 99.8% purity, -325 mesh size, aluminium powder having a purity of 99.5% and a grain size of -325 mesh size was used for all experiments. For carbides, they have a purity of 99.5% and a grain size of -325 meshes. The parameters and levels used in the production are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Parameters and levels used in composite production

Parameters		Levels			
		1	2	3	4
A	Sintering temperature (°C)	400	450	500	550
В	Sintering time (minute)	1	3	5	7
С	Type of Additive	B ₄ C	SiC	Mo ₂ C	TiC
D	Rate of additive (by weight %)	0	2.5	5	10



2.2. Sample Preparation

on The sample preparation procedure for electrochemical experiment follows four steps; Step 1: For polarization and Tafel polarization test, the magnesium alloy was connected to a copper wire at first. Step 2: After a wire was attached to the sample, it was embedded in a mould with the mixture of (polyester, Peru oxygen and potassium permanganate) resin at room temperature. Step 3: cold-mounting the mixture of (polyester, Peru oxygen and potassium permanganate) was poured into a plastic mould containing the assembly from steps 1 and 2. The samples were allowed to set for at least 4 h to ensure proper curing of the mixture of (polyester, Peru oxygen and potassium permanganate). Step 4: After cooling, it was removed from the mould. The samples were dried in a cold air stream immediately after the grinding process. By taking several sizes of paper used in this device, 360, 800, 1000 and 1200. At the time of polishing water was used as a coolant. However, small amount of distilled water was used because magnesium reacts with water and forms Mg (OH) 2 the surface. After polishing, the samples were cleaned in the ethanol bath using ultrasonic cleaner to remove any dust from the surface.

2.3. Electrochemical measurements

A three-electrode corrosion cell which included a reference electrode (RE), working electrode (WE) and auxiliary electrode (AE), was used for all electrochemical corrosion tests. The cell had a capacity of 1000 mL. The WE, which was the test specimen, was centrally located in the test cell such that the exposed surface was facing the AE, which was a graphite rod for all experiments. A Saturated Calomel Electrode (SCE), in a salt bridge filled with saturated KCl, was used as the RE for all tests. This electrode was



placed approximately 1-2 mm from the WE surface to minimize Osmic electrolyte resistance. All electrochemical tests were conducted at room temperature using a GAMRY Reference 600 potentiostat. The RE was always calibrated against a standard RE in saturated KCl before testing. Any potential difference observed was used to correct the experimental data. However, if the potential difference was more than \pm 10 mV, the RE was changed.

2.4. Immersion tests

The corrosion behaviour of the composites was studied by weight loss method using mass loss and corrosion rate measurements as basis for evaluating the results generated. The corrosion test was carried out by immersion of the test specimens in 3.5wt% NaCl solutions which were prepared following standard procedures. The specimens for the test were cut to size (40 mm x 10 mm x 10 mm) mm and then mechanically polished with emery papers from 320 down to 1200 grades to produce a smooth surface. The presence of these Elements confirms the presence of silicon carbide 3.5wt% NaCl at room temperature (25 °C). The corrosion setups were exposed to atmospheric air for the duration of the immersion test. The weight loss readings were monitored on a period of three days. The mass loss (mg/cm²) for each sample was evaluated in accordance with ASTM G31 standard recommended practice following the relation: M. 1 = CW/A Where M.l is the mass loss (mg/cm2), CW is the cumulative weight loss (mg), and A is the total surface area of the sample (cm2). Corrosion rate for each sample was evaluated from the weight loss measurements following the relation: $C.R = KW/\rho At$. Where C.R is corrosion rate (mmy), W is weight loss (g), D is the density (g/cm3), A is the area (cm2), T is time (hours), and K is a constant equal to 87500. W = Wi - Wf, Where W is the weight loss (g), Wi is the initial



weight (g) and Wf is the final weight (g). Three repeat tests were carried out for each composition of the composite, and the reproducibility and repeatability were found to be good as there were no significant differences between results from triplicates. [18][19].

3. Results and Discussion

In order to study the corrosion behaviour of the four magnesium / aluminium matrix composites, , the Tafel polarization curve used to evaluate the corrosion resistance of the Mg-Al alloy. The Tafel curves for the various treatments of Mg-Al alloy in 3.5 wt% NaCl solution are shown in (Figures . 1,2,3,4). Using the ground condition as a reference curve, the four magnesium / aluminium matrix composites sample curve moves significantly upwards. The corrosion potential is increased from -1.599 V of the Mg-Al matrix to -0.124 V of the 16 samples machined surface. In the Tafel extrapolation method for measuring the corrosion rate of Mg, the corrosion current density, icorr (mA / cm2) is estimated by the Tafel extrapolation polarization curve, and icorr is related to the average corrosion rate using [25][26]: Pi = 22.85 X icorr For the Mg-Al matrix, the corresponding corrosion current density obtained by Tafel fitting was 4.9×10^{-5} A / cm 2 7.48×10^{-4} A / cm $2.5.1 \times 10^{-5}$ A / cm 2 and 4.36×10^{-5} A / cm 2 , respectively 283 mpy), 431mpy, $29.46*10^3$ mpy, 72.4 mpy Mg-Al matrix is reduced. These results indicate that the corrosion resistance is significantly improved Mg-Al matrices. A visible change in sample current density can be attributed to the carbonization layer. In the discharge process, can be considered to be electrochemical processing, carbon potential is higher than magnesium, the chemical properties of oxides than the substrate is more stable. As shown, the carbonized layer shows good barrier properties to



preventclon and other harmful ions to destroy the surface. This is the reason why the corrosion resistance of magnesium alloy is improved.

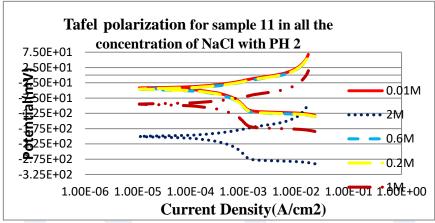


Figure 1. Tafel Polarization of Mg AL alloys at different concentrations in Na Cl solution with pH = 2.

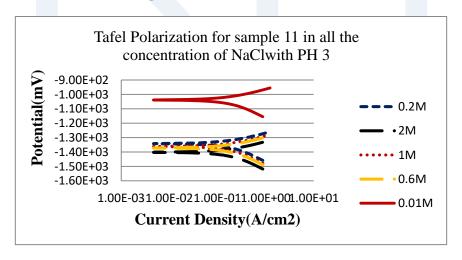


Figure 2. Tafel Polarization of $\,$ Mg AL alloys at different concentrations $\,$ Na Cl solution with pH = 3 $\,$



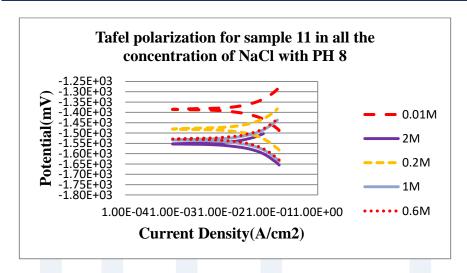


Figure 3. Tafel Polarization of Mg AL alloys at different concentrations in Na Cl solution with pH = 8.

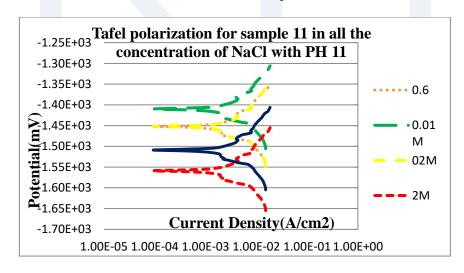


Figure 4. Tafel Polarization of Mg AL alloys at different concentrations in NaCl solution with pH=11



Table2: Experimental Results of corrosion effects on Mg AL composites in 3.5%NaCl solution

N o	A	В	C	D	Test Plan				Results				
					Sintering temperature (°C)	Sintering time (minute)	Type of Additive	Rate of additive (by weight %)	Corrosion of Rat	BetaA	BetaC	Icorr	Ecorr
1	1	1	1	1	400	1	B ₄ C- saf	0	283	0.0463	0.115	49	-1.599
2	1	2	2	2	400	3	SiC	2,5	216	0.1434	1.089	316	-1.57
3	1	3	3	3	400	5	Mo ₂ C	5	549	0.2516	0.278	926	-0.956
4	1	4	4	4	400	7	TiC	10	1320	890.6	861.9	2.08	-1.57
5	2	1	2	3	450	1	SiC	5	1056	0.097	1.01	1.6	-1.53
6	2	2	1	4	450	3	B ₄ C	10	431	0.1105	0.469	748	-1.54
7	2	3	4	1	450	5	TiC- saf	0	1052	0.3258	1	1.82	-1.53
8	2	4	3	2	450	7	Mo ₂ C	2,5	29460	2.21	8.274	51.1	-1.54
9	3	1	3	4	500	1	Mo ₂ C	10	62490	1.626	22.51	102	-1.49
10	3	2	4	3	500	3	TiC	5	879	0.0639	0.419	1.48	-0.124
11	3	3	1	2	500	5	B ₄ C	2,5	72.4	.0787	0.396	436	-1.52
12	3	4	2	1	500	7	SiC- saf	0	235	0.054	0.317	126	-1.51
13	4	1	4	2	550	1	TiC	2,5	272	.0622	0.977	506	-1.52
14	4	2	3	1	550	3	Mo ₂ C- saf	0	84	.0745	0.352	142	-1.55
15	4	3	2	4	550	5	SiC	10	125	.0238	0.105	19.7	-1.04
16	4	4	1	3	550	7	B ₄ C	5	177	.0564	0.443	307	-1.5



Table 3. Immersion test in 3.5%NaCl solution

samples	weight before	weight after	weight	Rate of
NO	corrosion(gm)	corrosion(gm)	losses(gm)	corrosion(mpy)
1	2.4769	2.0221	0.4548	79.412
2	2.7032	2.3207	0.3825	66.789
3	2.9667	0	2.9667	518
4	2.7342	1.9189	0.8153	142
5	2.6298	2.1462	0.4836	84.44
6	2.8443	2.28	0.5643	98.532
7	2.0747	1.6301	0.4446	77.631
8	2.678	0.7198	1.9582	341.92
9	2.5842	0	2.5842	496.238
10	2.6638	2.2291	0.4347	75.885
11	1.4353	1.2319	0.2034	35.51
12	2.7288	2.0011	0.7277	127.063
13	2.719	2.0079	0.7091	123.815
14	2.4857	2.0001	0.4856	85
15	2.3395	2.0555	0.284	49.589
16	2.669	2.1165	0.5525	96.471

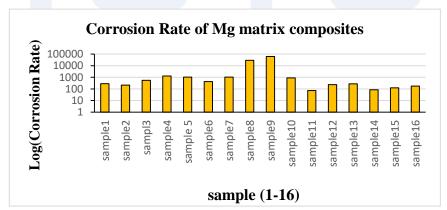


Figure 5. A logarithmic graph of the corrosion rate comparison of all magnesium matrix composites (for 16 samples given in Table 2)



4.5. Optical Microscopy

The microstructure was analyzed by means of an optical microscope to examine the composite material produced. The Mg AL matrix carbides reinforced composites were first ground and then polished with different grades of sandpaper, then washed and the samples were again polished. After compatibility with Keller's reagent, they were analyzed under different magnification optical microscopy, and all samples before and after corrosion were analyzed, the shape is as follows, the shape of 6~ 9. From this analysis it can be seen that the shape and composition of the sample changed after erosion, all of which were affected except of the sample of composites containing of Mg AL - 2.5% B₄C, 500 ° C and 5 min sintered sample,(a)before corrosionand (b)after corrosion, which had less effect of corrosion than other samples shown below.

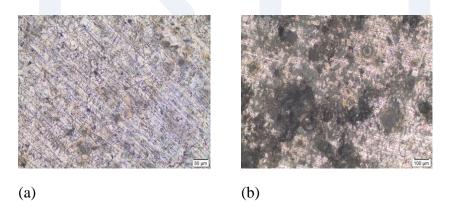


Figure 6. Optical micrograph of composites containing of Pure MgAl) sample sintered at 400 °C for 1 inute,(a)before corrosionand (b)after corrosion



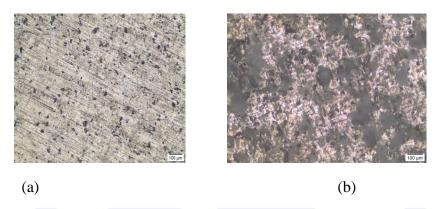


Figure 7. Optical micrograph of composites containing of MgAl-% 2.5 SiC, sample sintered at 400 °C for 3 minutes,(a)before corrosionand (b)after corrosion

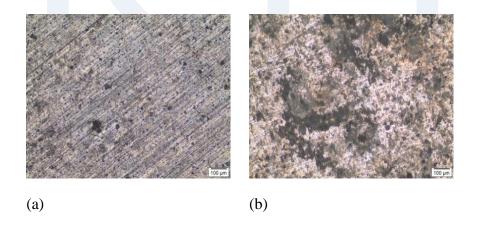
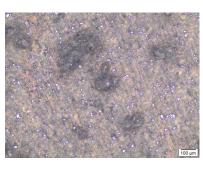


Figure 8. Optical micrograph of composites containing of MgAl - % 5 Mo₂C, sample sintered at 400 °C for 5 minutes ,(a)before corrosionand (b)after corrosion







(a) (b)

Figure 9. Optical micrograph of composites containing of Mg AL - 2.5% B4C, 500 ° C and 5 min sintered sample,(a)before corrosionand (b)after corrosion.

5. Conclusion

- 1. The corrosion attack of all tested magnesium alloys occurs at the interface of the magnesium / aluminum matrix composites intermetallic compounds by forming the galvanic. Later, the nucleation and growth of irregular and less protective etch layers consist mainly of Mg (OH) 2A-Mg matrix. The increase in aluminum concentration in the nominal composition of the alloy reduces the activity of pure Mg in 3.5 wt% NaCl. However, magnesium / aluminum matrix composites still exhibited high corrosion rates.
- 2. The main reason for the higher corrosion resistance of magnesium / aluminum matrix composites is related to the double mechanism. First, the magnesium matrix dissolves and corrodes the process attack is favorable for aluminum enrichment on the metal surface and allows the formation of semi-protective Al-rich oxide layers, thereby enhancing



- the corrosion resistance of the alloy. In addition, the bphase layered aggregation network acts as an obstacle to the corrosion attack process.
- 3. Magnesium / aluminum matrix composites have corrosion behavior, but different solidified structures change the mechanism of corrosion attack alloy. In this case, the corrosion resistance is completely attributed to the presence of a eutectic aggregate network with a high B4C content, which limits the corrosion attack.
- 4. Taking into account the best conditions for all experiments to determine: sintering temperature of 500 °C, sintering time of 5 minutes, and the additive is B4C, adding ratio of 2.5%. The corrosion of rate is 35.51mpy.
- 5. The effects of pH and concentration on the corrosion behavior of Mg-Al alloys in NaCl solution was investigated. The corrosion rate of magnesium alloys in NaCl solution generally increases with increasing concentration and decreasing PH.

6. Reference

- [1] R. Ambat, N. N. Aung, and W. Zhou, "Evaluation of microstructural effects on corrosion behaviour of AZ91D magnesium alloy," *Corros. Sci.*, vol. 42, pp. 1433–1455, 2000.
- [2] T. Cain, L. G. Bland, N. Birbilis, and J. R. Scully, "A compilation of corrosion potentials for magnesium alloys," *Corrosion*, vol. 70, no. 10, pp. 1043–1051, 2014.
- [3] F. H. Froes, D. Eliezer, and E. Aghion, "The science, technology, and applications of magnesium," *Jom*, vol. 50,



no. 9, 1998.

- [4] R. W. Murray and J. E. Hillis, "Magnesium finishing: chemical treatment and coating practices," 1990.
- [5] F. Hollstein, R. Wiedemann, and J. Scholz, "Characteristics of PVD-coatings on AZ31hp magnesium alloys," *Surf. Coatings Technol.*, vol. 162, no. 2–3, pp. 261–268, 2003.
- [6] A. Pardo, M. C. Merino, A. E. Coy, R. Arrabal, F. Viejo, and E. Matykina, "Corrosion behaviour of magnesium/aluminium alloys in 3.5 wt.% NaCl," *Corros. Sci.*, vol. 50, no. 3, pp. 823–834, 2008.
- [7] R. Ambat, N. N. Aung, and W. Zhou, "Studies on the influence of chloride ion and pH on the corrosion and electrochemical behaviour of AZ91D magnesium alloy," *J. Appl. Electrochem.*, vol. 30, no. 7, pp. 865–874, 2000.
- [8] G. Song and A. Atrens, "Recent insights into the mechanism of magnesium corrosion and research suggestions," *Adv. Eng. Mater.*, vol. 9, no. 3, pp. 177–183, 2007.
- [9] G. Song and a. Atrens, "Understanding Magnesium Corrosion—A Framework for Improved Alloy Performance," *Adv. Eng. Mater.*, vol. 5, no. 12, pp. 837–858, 2003.
- [10] R. Tunold, H. Holtan, M.-B. H. Berge, A. Lasson, and R. Steen-Hansen, "The corrosion of magnesium in aqueous solution containing chloride ions," *Corros. Sci.*, vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 353–365, 1977.
- [11] G.-L. Song and A. Atrens, "Corrosion Mechanisms of



- Magnesium Alloys," *Adv. Eng. Mater.*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 11–33, 1999.
- [12] G. Song, A. Atrens, D. St John, X. Wu, and J. Nairn, "The anodic dissolution of magnesium in chloride and sulphate solutions," *Corros. Sci.*, vol. 39, no. 10–11, pp. 1981–2004, 1997.
- [13] B. E. Carlson and J. W. Jones, "The Metallurgical Aspects of the Corrosion Behaviour of Cast Mg--Al Alloys," *Light Met. Process. Appl.*, pp. 833–847, 1993.
- [14] K. Nisancioglu, O. Lunder, and T. R. Aune, "Corrosion mechanism of AZ 91 magnesium alloy," in *Past to Future:* 47 th Annual World Magnesium Conference, 1990, pp. 43–50.
- [15] C. B. Baliga and P. Tsakiropoulos, "Development of corrosion resistant magnesium alloys Part 2 Structure of corrosion products on rapidly solidified Mg--16Al alloys," *Mater. Sci. Technol.*, vol. 9, no. 6, pp. 513–519, 1993.
- [16] C. P. Corby, M. Qian, N. J. Ricketts, and J. A. Taylor, "Intermetallic morphology development in AM60 alloy," in 2005 TMS annual meeting. San Francisco, CA, United States, 2005.
- [17] Z. Shi, G. Song, and A. Atrens, "Corrosion resistance of anodised single-phase Mg alloys," *Surf. Coatings Technol.*, vol. 201, no. 1, pp. 492–503, 2006.
- [18] K. K. Alaneme and M. O. Bodunrin, "Corrosion behavior of alumina reinforced aluminium (6063) metal matrix



- composites," *J. Miner. Mater. Charact. Eng.*, vol. 10, no. 12, p. 1153, 2011.
- [19] K. K. Alaneme, B. O. Fatile, and J. O. Borode, "Mechanical and Corrosion Behaviour of Zn-27A1 Based Composites Reinforced with Groundnut Shell Ash and Silicon Carbide.," *Tribol. Ind.*, vol. 36, no. 2, 2014.





Detection of the site infection in urinary system by microscopic examination

Ahmed S. Suwisi

High institute of comprehensive profession, Gamins – Libya

Correspondence to: Ahmed S. Suwisi, High institute of comprehensive professions, Gamins-Libya, Mobile: +218921152871, E-mail: Ahmedalhersh2018@gmail.com.

الملخص

الهدف الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة هو تحديد موقع العدوي في الجهاز البولي عن طريق التشخيص المخبري. وكذلك مقارنة نتائج التشخيص بالموجات فوق الصوتية مع نتائج الفحص المجهري في عينات البول. حيث تم جمع تسعة وخمسين عينة بول. منها عدد 18 عينه من النساء وكان عدد العينات من الرجال 41. وتم جمع العينات من مستشفى الهواري العام ، ومستشفى طب الأطفال ومستشفى الجلاء ، وعيادة الجامعة ، ومصحة الهرم. تم جمع عينات البول حسب الشروط العلمية المتبعة وهي من متوسط تيار البول من المرضى مباشرة بعد الفحص بالموجات فوق الصوتية لكل حالة وتم جمع الاستبيان من المرضى أنفسهم حيث تم العثور على النتائج التالية: كانت النتائج المتوافقة 17 (28.81٪). وكانت النتائج غير متوافقة 42 (71.18٪). وأظهرت النتائج أن نسبة الإصابة في الإناث كانت 4 (22.2٪)، وكانت نسبة الإصابة بين الذكور 15 (36.5٪). وبلغ العدد الإجمالي للحالات المصابة بالتهاب المسالك البولية 19 حالة (32.2%) ما مجموعه 59 حالة ، وكان التشخيص المجهري لعينة البول يعتمد على نوع من الخلايا الطلائية المبطنة للجهاز البولي بالإضافة إلى وجود خلايا الدم البيضاء وخلايا الدم الحمراء والألبومين في البول. تم تحديد العينات مجهربا لتحديد موقع العدوى من خلال تشخيص نوع الخلايا الطلائية . في هذه الحالة كانت نتائج الخلايا الطلائية الحرشفية (متوسطة أو كثيرة)التي تشير إلى وجود العدوي بشكل كبير



في مجرى البول. في حين أن وجود خلايا حرشفية والانتقالية الطلائية التي تدل على وجود وجود عدوى في مجرى البول والمثانة. ووجود خلايا أنبوبية كلوية تدل على وجود العدوى في الانابيب الكلوية وكانت هذه النتائج متطابقة مع بعض نتائج الفحص بالموجات فوق الصوتية. في حين أظهرت النتائج غير المتوافقة فرقا كبيرا. حيث أظهرت نتائج الفحص بالموجات فوق الصوتية أن الجهاز البولي كان في حالة طبيعية. في حين أظهرت نتائج الفحص المجهري أن الحالات تعاني من الالتهابات البولية في مراحل متفاوتة وأكد هذا وجود الخلايا الصديدية أو الدم والخلايا الطلائية بأشكال مختلفة وظهور أنواع مختلفة من البلورات بمختلف الأحجام والأنواع.

ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to determine the location of infection in the urinary system by laboratory diagnosis. To compare the results of ultrasound diagnostics with the results of microscopic examination in urine samples. Fifty nine urine specimens were collected. Total numbers of Females were 18 and Males were 41 .Specimens were collected from Al-Hawari general Hospital, Pediatrics Hospital, Al-Gala Hospital, Al jameea clinic and Al-Haram clinic. Fifty nine mid stream urine (MSU) specimens were collected from patients taken immediately after the ultrasound examination for each case and a questionnaire was taken from patients themselves. A comparison was made between the results of the ultrasound examination and the results of the examination of urine samples by microscopy. The following results were found: The compatible results were 17(28.81%). And the incompatible results were 42(71.18%). The results showed that the percentage of infection in Females were 4(22.2%), and the proportion of infection among males was 15(36.5%). And the total number of cases infected with UTI were19 (32.2%) out of 59 cases. The microscopic diagnosis of the urine sample depends on the type of epithelial cells lining the urinary system in addition to the presence of white blood cells, red blood cells and albumin in the urine. The microscopic samples were determined the location



of the infection by diagnosing the epithelial cell type. In this case, the results of squamous epithelial cells (medium or large amount) that indicated the presence of infection were significant in the urethra, while the presence of squamous and transitional epithelial cells that indicate an infection in the urethra and bladder, the presence of renal tubular cells indicates kidney infection and these results were identical with ultrasound findings. While the inconsistent results showed a significant difference. Ultrasound results showed that the urinary system was in a normal state. While the results of the microscopic examination that the cases suffer from urinary infections of varying intensity such as the presence of pus cells, blood and epithelial cells in different forms and the emergence of different types of crystals of different sizes and types.

Key words: Urinary Tract Infection; epithelial cells; location of infection; microscopic examination; ultrasound examination.

1.Introduction

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are among the most common bacterial infections. It has been estimated that symptomatic UTIs result in as many as 7 million visits to outpatient clinics, 1 million visits to emergency departments, and 100,000 hospitalizations annually [1]. UTIs have become the most common hospitalacquired infection, accounting for as many as 35% of nosocomial infections, and they are the second most common cause of bacteremia in hospitalized patients [2,3]. The annual cost to the health care system of the United States attributable to communityacquired UTI alone is estimated to be approximately \$1.6 billion [4]. UTIs are challenging, not only because of the large number of infections that occur each year, but also because the diagnosis of UTI is not always straightforward. Physicians must distinguish UTI from other diseases that have a similar clinical presentation, some UTIs are asymptomatic or present with atypical signs and symptoms, and the diagnosis of UTIs in neutropenic patients (who do not typically have pyuria) may require different diagnostic



criteria than those used for the general patient population. Because of these factors, physicians frequently rely on a small number of imperfect laboratory tests to augment clinical impressions; even when clinical diagnoses are unequivocal, physicians may order laboratory tests to identify the cause of the infection and/or to provide isolates for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. It therefore comes as no surprise that the laboratory examination of urine specimens accounts for a large part of the workload in many hospital-based laboratories. In fact, in many clinical laboratories, urine cultures are the most common type of culture, accounting for 24% – 40% of submitted cultures; as many as 80% of these urine cultures are submitted from the outpatient setting. The purpose of this review is to summarize the laboratory diagnosis of routine UTI using current diagnostic methods. The review will not cover the diagnosis of UTI in special patient populations, a topic that merits a separate review. Urinary tract infection (UTI) describes microbial colonization or inflammation of the bladder (cystitis), urethra (urethritis), or renal pelvis and kidneys (Pyelonephritis). UTIs are one of the most widely spread and costly medical complication of pregnancy, occurring in nearly 20% of all pregnancies. They are also accountable for 10% of all admissions to hospital during pregnancy^{[5][6][7][8]}. Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are the most prevalent bacterial infections encountered during pregnancy. It includes two groups: asymptomatic (ASB) and symptomatic bacteriuria. Asymptomatic bacteriuria is defined as the persistent presence of bacteriuria within the urinary tract of women who have no symptoms. A specimen of clean voided urine containing more than 100.000 colonies per milliliter of a single organism is diagnostic. Symptomatic bacteriuria combines lower UTI (cystitis) and upper UTI (Pyelonephritis) [18][19].

1.2 Objectives of the study

1. To determine the location of infection in the urinary system by laboratory diagnosis .



2. To compare the results of ultrasound diagnostics with the results of microscopic examination in urine samples.

2.LITERATURES REVIEW

2.1 Urinary tract infection (UTI)

urinary infection is define as bacteriuria, the multiplication of bacteria in urine within the renal tract, with a concentration greater than 10⁵ organism/ml is regarded as significant bacteriuria, urinary tract infection remain a major clinical problem over 50 years after introduction of antimicrobial chemotherapy many consultations in general practice are because of urinary infection, Infection of urinary tract may involve anywhere along urinary tract (bladder, kidney, pelvis, parenchyma, or urethra) [20].

2.2 Epidemiology

Urinary tract infections are the most frequent bacterial infection in women. [21] They occur most frequently between the ages of 16 and 35 years, with 10% of women getting an infection yearly and more than 40–60% having an infection at some point in their lives. [22][23] Recurrences are common, with nearly half of people getting a second infection within a year. Urinary tract infections occur four times more frequently in females than males. Pyelonephritis occurs between 20-30 times less frequently. common cause of hospital are the most infections accounting for approximately 40%.^[24] Rates asymptomatic bacteria in the urine increase with age from two to seven percent in women of child bearing age to as high as 50% in elderly women in care homes. [25] Rates of asymptomatic bacteria in the urine among men over 75 are between 7-10%. [26] Asymptomatic bacteria in the urine occurs in 2% to 10% of pregnancies. [27] Urinary tract infections may affect 10% of people during childhood. [22] Among children urinary tract infections are the most common in uncircumcised males less than three months of age, followed by females less than one year. [28] Estimates of frequency among children however vary widely. In a group of



children with a fever, ranging in age between birth and two years, two to 20% were diagnosed with a UTI. [28]

2.5 Urinary tract system

Urinary tract makes and store the urine until it's evacuated. The urinary tract is divided into two major divisions: upper, which include (kidney, renal pelvis and ureters and lower, which include(urinary bladder and urethra).^[31]

2.5.1 Kidney

Two kidneys function to excrete most of waste products of metabolism, which leave the kidneys as urine. They lie behind the peritoneum on the posterior abdominal wall on either side of vertebral column, the right kidney lie slightly lower than the left one and neuron is the functional unite [32]. The kidneys measure about 4 ½ inches long, 2 ½ inches wide, 1 ½ thick.[31]

2.5.2 Ureters

the two Ureters are muscular tubes that extend from kidney to the posterior surface of the urinary bladder, the urine is propelled along the ureter by peristaltic contractions of muscle coat, each ureter measure about 10 inch in long, Ureters have three constrictions along its course: where the renal pelvis (funnel-shaped) joins the ureter, where it is kinked as it crosses the pelvic brim, and where it pierces the bladder. [32]

2.5.3 Urinary bladder

Urinary bladder is immediately directly behind the pubic bone within the pelvis, it's receptacle for the storage of the urine, in adult maximum capacity of about 500ml, it's strong muscle and it's shape is vary according the amount of urine, empty bladder is pyramidal. Having apex, base, neck and two in ferolateral surface. [32]

2.5.4 Urethra

Urethra is muscular tube for the passage of urine in both sex and semen in male. Extend from the bladder neck to the tip of

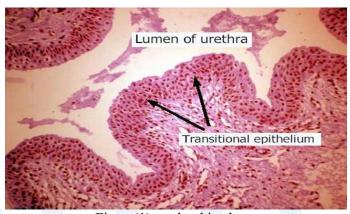


penis in the male, and the area between the vagaina and pubic bone in female^[33]. In female urethra is about 1.5 inch; in male is about 8 inch ^[32]

2.6 Histological structure of urinary system

2.6.1 Urethra

- 1. Penile urethra within corpus spongiosum.
- 2. Pseudostratified columnar epithelia.
- 3. Distal end stratified squamous.



Figure(1):urethra histology

2.6.1.1 Squamous epithelial cells

These can be keratinized or non-keratinized. Non-keratinized squamous epithelial cells originate from the distal urethra, prepuce and/or vagina. They are larger than transitional cells and have small central nuclei. They can be round or have one or more flat border. Keratinized squamous epithelial cells are from the skin or vulva and are large cells with angular borders. They may or may not have nuclei. Nuclei are more visible in cells when the urine is stained with Sedi stain. If in doubt about the origin of the cells, a Wright's stain (routine hematologic stain) can be performed on a urine sediment and demonstrates the central nuclei and angular borders of squamous epithelial cells. Squamous cells are



frequently seen as contaminants in voided urine samples and can also contaminate samples collected by catheterization. Urine collected by cystocentesis should not contain any squamous epithelial cells. Note that although these cells are considered contaminants, large numbers may represent abnormal genitourinary conditions, specifically squamous metaplasia of the prostate in the dog. This occurs secondary to excess estrogen, usually secreted by testicular tumors (particularly Sertoli cell tumors, but this has also been reported with interstitial cell tumors).

2.6.2 Cyst Bladder

- 1. Epithelium transitional epithelia.
- 2. Apical plaques thickened domain allows great changes in surface area.
- **3. Lamina propria** mainly of dense connective tissue, with many bundles of coarse collagenous fibers.
- 4. Muscularis consists of an inner longitudinal and outer circular layer of smooth muscle cells.
- 5. In the bladder (and lower parts of the ureters) an **additional** outer longitudinal layer of muscles is added to the first two.



Figure (2): Bladder histology

2.6.2.1 Transitional epithelial cells

The urinary tract from the pelvis down the ureters to the bladder and the proximal urethra is lined by transitional epithelial cells. These cells vary in size and shape depending on the location from which they originate, e.g. those from the renal pelvis are more caudate whereas those from the bladder are more round to polygonal and vary in size. These cells naturally slough into the urine in quite low numbers, so none to a few transitional epithelial cells are seen in the urine from healthy animals. Note that this depends on the method of urine collection, since these cells will be sloughed (traumatically) when the bladder is catheterized. Transitional epithelial cells must be distinguished from WBC, because they both have the same granular appearance. In general, transitional epithelial cells are larger and have more irregular borders than WBC.

2.6.3 Renal

2.6.2.1 Renal tubular epithelial cells

These are rarely seen in the urine and, as mentioned above, are very difficult to distinguish from transitional epithelial cells. If



large numbers of smaller epithelial cells of uniform appearance (size and shape) are observed in the urine, a renal origin for these cells is suspected. Figure (3): Ureters histology Transitional epithelial cells tend to be more variable in size and shape (to some extent). Sloughing of large numbers of renal tubular epithelial cells would indicate renal tubular injury. And figure (4) appearance the different shapes of epithelial cells in different sites in urinary system.

2.6.4 Ureters

4.

- 1. Epithelium transitional epithelia.
- 2. Lamina propria mainly of dense connective tissue, with many bundles of coarse collagenous fibers.
- 3. Muscular is consists of an inner longitudinal and outer circular layer of smooth muscle cells.

Ureter H&E transitional epithelium

Figure (3): Ureters histology

حقوق الطبع محفوظة



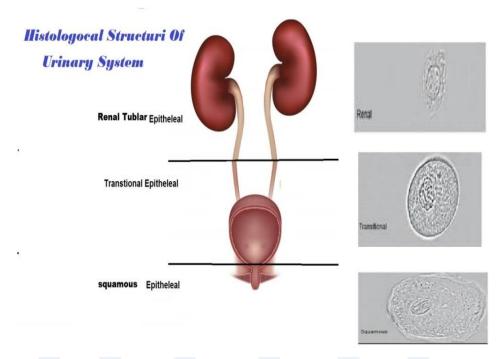


Figure (4): Different forms of Epithelial cells

2.7 Type of infection

153

Infection is most often due to bacterial from patient's own bowel flora. Transfer to the urinary tract may be via the blood stream, the lymphatic or by direct extension, but the most often via the ascending transurethral rout .^[37]

2.7.1 Infection of the urethra (urethritis).

This type of UTI can occur when GI bacteria spread from the anus to the urethra. Also, because the female urethra is close to the vagina, sexually transmitted infections, such as herpes, gonorrhea, Chlamydia and mycoplasma, can cause urethritis. [39]

2.7.2 Infection of the bladder (cystitis).

This type of UTI is usually caused by Escherichia coli (E. coli), a type of bacteria commonly found in the gastrointestinal (GI)



tract. However, sometimes other bacteria are responsible. Sexual intercourse may lead to cystitis, but you don't have to be sexually active to develop it. All women are at risk of cystitis because of their anatomy specifically, the short distance from the urethra to the anus and the urethral opening to the bladder.^[39]

2.7.3 Infection of Pyelonephritis

is an inflammation of the kidney tissue, calyces, and renal pelvis. It is commonly caused by bacterial infection that has spread up the urinary tract or travelled through the bloodstream to the kidneys. A similar term is "pyelitis" which means inflammation of the pelvis and calyces. In other words, pyelitis together with nephritis is collectively known as Pyelonephritis. Severe cases of Pyelonephritis can lead to Pyonephrosis (pus accumulation around the kidney), sepsis (a systemic inflammatory response of the body to infection), kidney failure, and even death. [42]

2.8. Diagnosis

In straightforward cases, a diagnosis may be made and treatment given based on symptoms alone without further laboratory confirmation. ^[60]In complicated or questionable cases, it may be useful to confirm the diagnosis via urinalysis, looking for the presence of urinary nitrites, white blood cells(leukocytes), or leukocyte esterase. ^[61]Another test, urine microscopy, looks for the presence of red blood cells, white blood cells, or bacteria. Urine culture is deemed positive if it shows a bacterial colony count of greater than or equal to 10³ colony-forming units per mL of a typical urinary tract organism. Antibiotic sensitivity can also be tested with these cultures, making them useful in the selection of antibiotic treatment. However, women with negative cultures may still improve with antibiotic treatment. ^[60] As symptoms can be vague and without reliable tests for urinary tract infections, diagnosis can be difficult in the elderly . ^[62]

2.8.1 UTIs diagnosed

To find out whether a person has a UTI, the health care provider



will ask about urinary symptoms and then test a sample of urine for the presence of bacteria and white blood cells, which are produced by the body to fight infection. Because bacteria can be found in the urine of healthy individuals, a UTI is diagnosed based both on symptoms and a laboratory test. The person will be asked to give a "clean catch" urine sample by washing the genital area and collecting a "midstream" sample of urine in a sterile container. This method of collecting urine helps prevent bacteria around the genital area from getting into the sample and confusing the test results. Usually, the sample is sent to a laboratory, although some health care providers' offices are equipped to do the testing. For people with recurring infections and patients in the hospital, the urine may be cultured. The culture is performed by placing part of the urine sample in a tube or dish with a substance that encourages any bacteria present to grow. Once the bacteria have multiplied, which usually takes 1 to 3 days, they can be identified. The health care provider may also order a sensitivity test, which tests the bacteria for sensitivity to different antibiotics to see which medication is best for treating the infection. If a person has recurrent UTIs, the health care provider may order some additional tests to determine if the person's urinary tract is normal. [63]

Tests and procedures used to diagnose urinary tract infections include:

2.8.2. Urine samples

2.8.2.1 Analyzing a urine sample

Your doctor may ask for a urine sample for lab analysis to look for white blood cells, red blood cells or bacteria. To avoid potential contamination of the sample, you may be instructed to first wipe your genital area with an antiseptic pad and to collect the urine midstream.

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



2.8.2.2 Growing urinary tract bacteria in a lab

Lab analysis of the urine is sometimes followed by a urine culture. This test tells doctor what bacteria are causing the infection and which medications will be most effective.^[64]

2.8.3 Creating images of urinary tract 2.12.3.1 Kidney and bladder ultrasound

Ultrasound uses a device, called a transducer, that bounces safe, painless sound waves off organs to create an image of their structure. The procedure is performed in a health care provider's office, outpatient center, or hospital by a specially trained technician, and the images are interpreted by a radiologist— a doctor who specializes in medical imaging; anesthesia is not needed. The images can show abnormalities in the kidneys and bladder. However, this test cannot reveal all important urinary abnormalities or measure how well the kidneys work. [65]

2.8.3.2 Voiding cystourethrogram

This test is an x-ray image of the bladder and urethra taken while the bladder is full and during urination, also called voiding. As the person lies on the x-ray table, a health care provider inserts the tip of a thin, flexible tube called a catheter through the urethra into the bladder. The bladder and urethra are filled with a special dye called contrast medium, to make the structures clearly visible on the x-ray images. The x rays are taken from various angles while the bladder is full of contrast medium. The catheter is then removed and x-ray images are taken during urination. The procedure is performed in a health care provider's office, outpatient center, or hospital by an x-ray technician. The technician is supervised by a radiologist while the images are taken. The radiologist then interprets the images. Anesthesia is not needed, but light sedation may be used for some people. This test can show abnormalities of the inside of the urethra and bladder. The test can also determine whether the flow of urine is normal



when the bladder empties.^[66]

2.8.3.3 Computerized tomography (CT) scan

CT scans use a combination of x rays and computer technology to create three-dimensional (3-D) images. A CT scan may include the injection of contrast medium. CT scans require the person to lie on a table that slides into a tunnel-shaped device where the x rays are taken. The procedure is performed in an outpatient center or hospital by an x-ray technician, and the images are interpreted by a radiologist; anesthesia is not needed. CT scans can provide clearer, more detailed images to help the health care provider understand the problem.^[67]

2.9. Prevention

A number of measures have not been confirmed to affect UTI frequency including: urinating immediately after intercourse, the type of underwear used, personal hygiene methods used after urinating or defecating, or whether a person typically bathes or showers. [60] There is similarly a lack of evidence surrounding the effect of holding one's urine, tampon use, and douching. [79] In those with frequent urinary tract infections who use spermicide or a diaphragm as a method of contraception, they are advised to use alternative methods. ^[79]In those with benign hyperplasia urinating in a sitting position appears to improve bladder emptying which might decrease urinary tract infections in this group. [80] Using urinary catheters as little and as short of time as possible and appropriate care of the catheter when used prevents infections. [81] They should be inserted using sterile technique in hospital however non-sterile technique may be appropriate in those who self-catheterize. [82] The urinary catheter set up should also be kept sealed. [82] Evidence does not support a significant decrease in risk when silver-alloy catheters are used. [83]

2.10. Treatment

The mainstay of treatment is antibiotics. Phenazopyridine is occasionally prescribed during the first few days in addition to



antibiotics to help with the burning and urgency sometimes felt during a bladder infection. ^[95]However, it is not routinely recommended due to safety concerns with its use, specifically an elevated risk of Methemoglobinemia (higher than normal level of Methemoglobin in the blood). ^[96] Acetaminophen (paracetamol) may be used for fevers. ^[97]There is no good evidence for the use of cranberry products for treating current infections. ^{[98][99]}

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1.Methods

3.1.1.Study area

Specimens were collected from Al-Hawari general Hospital ,Pediatrics Hospital , Al-Gala Hospital , Al jameea clinic and Al-Haram clinic.

3.1.2.Study population

Fifty nine urine specimens were collected. Total numbers of women was 18 and men was 41 . 12 were children and 38 adults.

3.1.3. Collection of specimens

Fifty nine mid-stream urine (MSU) specimens were collected from patients taken immediately after the ultrasound examination for each case and a questionnaire was taken from patients themselves.

3.1.4 Date of collection

A total of 59 urine samples were collected from 5-12-2017 to 10-12-2017.

3.1.5 Statistical Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Science (Excel).

3.2.Materials

3.2.1 Instruments and equipment

- -Centrifuge
- Urine container
- -slides and cover slides
- -Urine dipstick stripes (10 parameters)
- -Microscope



4.RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 59 samples of med-stream urine were collected from patients after the completion of the ultrasound examination. The number of males was (41) cases and the females were (18) cases. A comparison was made between the results of the ultrasound examination and the results of the examination of urine samples by microscopy. The following results were found: Pus or blood, epithelial cells with different shapes and the appearance of different types of crystals in different sizes and types.

The compatible results was 17(28.81%). And the results were incompatible was 42(71.18%). The following figure (5). The results showed that the percentage of infection in Females was 4(22.2%), and the proportion of infection among males was 15(36.5%). The percentage of children infected was 4(19.04%). And the total number of cases infected with UTI was 19 (32.2%) a total of 59 cases, Microscopic diagnosis of urine sample was depend on type of epithelial cells lining the urinary system in addition to the presence of white blood cells, red blood cells and albumin in the urine. The microscopic specimens were identified to determine the location of infection by a diagnostic the type of epithelial cells. In this case of squamous epithelial cells in a moderate or plenty that indicate of a significant the presence of infection in the urethra. While the presence of squamous and transitional epithelial that indicative of the presence infection in urethra and bladder. And the presence of renal tubular cells indicative of kidney infection and proved these results with the results of ultrasound examination. While incompatible results showed a significant difference. The results of the ultrasound examination showed that the urinary system was in a normal condition. While The results (table 1 and table 2) of the microscopic examination showed that the cases suffer from urinary infections of varying severity such as the presence.



Table (1): The percentage of compatible and incompatible results

Results	Number of samples	Percentage %
Compatible results	17	28.81%
Incompatible results	42	71.18%
Totale of samples	59s	

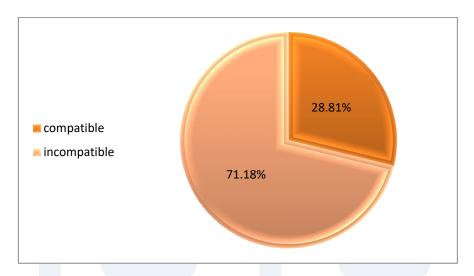


Figure (5): The percentage of compatible and incompatible results.

Table(2): The difference between infected and non-infected patients in male and female.

Gander	Infected	Non infected	Total
Male	15	26	41
Female	4	14	18
Total	19	40	59

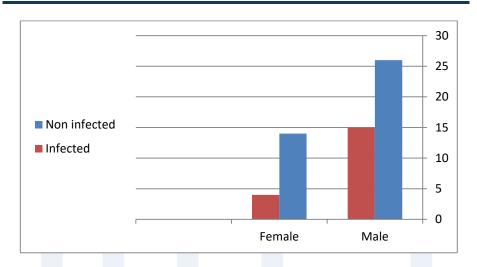


Figure (6): The difference between infected and non-infected patients in male and female

Right kidney: normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system, mid polar cortical cyst 2.5 cm, no stones seen.

Left kidney: normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system.

2.5 cm cortical cyst, small non obstructing stone seen.

Urinary bladder: full, thickened wall, with multiple small stones seen.

Figure (7 - a): Compatible results -Ultrasound report



MICROSCOPICAL EXAMINATION

TYPE	RESULTE	NOTE
RBC	2-3 HPF	Normal -Crenated - Swelling
WBC	8 - 10 /HPF	
EP.CELLS	a few moderate plenty	Squamous Fransition Renal
CRYSTALS		Small, Medium, Large
CASTS		Hyaline, Cellular, Granular, Fatty, Waxy
OTHERS		

Figure (7 - b). Compatible results- Microscope report



Figure (7 - c): Compatible results -Image of microscope



Right kidney :normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system, no stones .

Left kidney: normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system, no stone.

Urinary bladder: full with normal wall.

Uterus: normal size and echo with free adnexia.

Figure (8 - a). Incompatible result - Ultrasound report

TYPE	RESULTE	NOTE
RBC	Full of MAPF	Normal-Crenated- Swelling
WBC	O~V /HPF	
EP.CELLS	(a few)- moderate-plenty	Squamous) Transitional- Renal tubular
CRYSTALS		Small, Medium, Large
CASTS		Hyaline, Cellular, Granular, Fatty, Waxy
OTHERS		

Figure (8 – b). Incompatible result - Microscope report

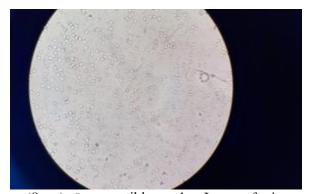


Figure (8 - c): Incompatible result - Image of microscope



Right kidney :normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system, no stones .

Left kidney: normal in size with normal parenchymal echo and normal pelvicalyceal system, no stone.

Urinary bladder: full with normal wall.

Uterus: normal size and echo with free adnexia.

Figure (9 - a): Incompatible result - Ultrasound report

MICROSCOPICAL EXAMINATION

TYPE	RESULTE	NOTE
RBC	2 - 3 HPF	Normal -Crenated- Swelling
WBC	Full of field /HPF	
EP.CELLS	a few-moderate plenty	Squamous Transitional Renal
CRYSTALS		Small, Medium, Large
CASTS		Hyaline, Cellular, Granular, Fatty, Waxy
OTHERS	Bacteria yeasts	

Figure (9 – b) Incompatible result - Microscope report

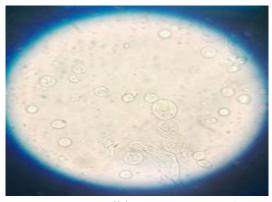


Figure (9 - c): Incompatible result - Image of microscope



5.CONCLUSION

The results based on the study concluded that microscopy is very important to determining the infection of microbial and determine the location of infection in urinary system by determining the type of cells lining the urinary system as well as the lack of material cost of the test and the speed of completion of this test in the diagnosis of the disease to help the doctor in the treatment of patients with urinary tract infections. Everyone knows that the length of time in the injury leads to complex problems difficult to cure. The Ultrasound of the urinary system is expensive and may take time to obtain, especially in the current situation. Knowing that diagnosis Ultrasound is of medical importance in the diagnosis of many diseases in the urinary system such as obstructive and anatomical diseases, which cannot be detected in routine urine examination.

6.RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1. It is advisable to research this topic in the future to reach the most accurate and quick results that benefit to the patient.
- 2. It is recommended that early examinations of cases to avoid the complex problems that occur to the patient and may lead to renal failure.
- **3**. It is recommended to cooperate between doctors specializing in urinary diseases and lab workers to reach the best solutions to treat the injured.
- 4. Encourage laboratories to add cellular diagnostics to Urine analysis.

References

[1]. Nicolle LE (2008). "Uncomplicated urinary tract infection in adults including uncomplicated pyelonephritis". Urol



- Clin North Am **35** (1): 1–12, v. doi: 10.1016/j. ucl.2007. 09. 004. PMID 18061019.
- [2].MeReCBulletin. Volume17 Number3.www.npc.co.uk/MeR eC_Bulletins/MeReC_Bulletin_Vol17_No3_Intro.htm.
- [3]. Weinick RM, Burns RM, Mehrotra A. 2010, Many emergency department visits could be managed at urgent care centers and retail clinics. Health Affairs.;29(9)1630-36.
- [4].National Institutes of Health. 1990, The National Kidney and Urologic Diseases Advisory Board Long-Range Plan Window on the 21st Century. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health; 1990;90:583.
- [5].David RD, DeBlieux PM, Press R. 2005, Rational antibiotic treatment of outpatient genitourinary infections in a changing environment. Am J Med.;118(Suppl)7A:7S-13S.
- [6].Gupta K, Hooton TM, Naber KG, et al.2010, Infectious Diseases Society of America, European Society for Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. International clinical practice guidelines for the treatment of acute uncomplicated cystitis and pyelonephritis in women: a 2010 update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America and the European Society for Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. Clin Infect Dis. 2011; Mar; 52(5): e103-20
- [7].Colgan R, Williams M.2011, Diagnosis and treatment of acute uncomplicated cystitis. Am Fam Phys.;84(7):771-776.
- [8]. Kucheria P, Dasgupta P, Sacks SH, et al. 2005, Urinary tract infections: new insights into a common problem. Postgrad Med J.;81(952):83-86.



- [9]. Woodford, HJ; George, J (2011 Feb). "Diagnosis and management of urinary infections in older people.". Clinical medicine (London, England) 11 (1): 80-3. PMID 21404794
- [10]. S. E. Perry, M. J. Hockenberry, D. L. Lowdermilk, & D. Wilson, 2014, Maternal child nursing care. Pregnancy. 5th ed., (Philadelphia: Mosby Elsevier 200: 201, 332:340.
- [11]. [N. Malhorta, R. Puri, & J. Malhorta, Donald School manual of practical problems in obstetrics (New Delhi: Jaypee Brothers Publishers, 2012)137: 138.
- [12]. Sleigh J. D. and Timbury M.C., 1998, Notes on medical Bacteriology fifth edition, in Singapore, section 3, pp (24-39).
- [13]. Colgan, R; Williams, M .2011, "Diagnosis and treatment of acute uncomplicated cystitis". American Family Physician. **84** (7): 771–6. PMID 22010614.
- [14]. Salvatore S, Salvatore S, Cattoni E, Siesto G, Serati M, Sorice P, Torella M. 2011, "Urinary tract infections in women". European journal of obstetrics, gynecology, and reproductive biology. **156** (2):131–6. doi: 10. 1016/ j. ejogrb.2011.01.028. PMID 21349630.
- [15]. Nicolle LE 2008, "Uncomplicated urinary tract infection in adults including uncomplicated pyelonephritis". Urol Clin North Am. **35** (1):1–12, doi:10.1016/j.ucl.2007.09.004. PMID 18061019.
- [16]. Brunner & Suddarth 2010, textbook of medical-surgical nursing (12th ed.). Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer Health / Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.. p. 1359. ISBN 978-0-7817-8589-1. Archived from the original on 2016-04-28.



- [17]. Dielubanza, EJ; Schaeffer, AJ. 2011,"Urinary tract infections in women". The Medical clinics of North America. **95** (1):27–
 - 41. doi:10.1016/j.mcna.2010.08.023. PMID 21095409.
- [18]. Woodford, HJ; George, J 2011, "Diagnosis and management of urinary infections in older people". Clinical Medicine.
 London. 11 (1):80–3. doi:10.7861/clinmedicine.11-180. PMID 21404794.
- [19]. Smaill, F.; Vazquez, JC. 2007, "Antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuriainpregnancy". CochraneDatabaseSystRev (2):C D000490. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD000490.pub2. PMID 1 7443502.
- [20]. Bhat RG, Katy TA, Place FC (August 2011). "Pediatric urinary tract infections". Emergency medicine clinics of North America. **29** (3): 637–53. doi:10.1016/j.emc.2011.04.004. PMID 21782079.
- [21]. Elmer W.K., Stephkn D., William M., Jand P. and Wasuitan C., (1992). Color atlas and text book of diagnostic microbiology, fourth edition, chapter 2 pp (20-22).
- [22]. Snell R.S., (2004). Clinical anatomy, seventh edition, in united states of America, chapter 5, pp (279-290).
- [23]. Kumar P., and Clark M., (2004). Clinical medicine fifth edition, in United Kingdom, pp (615-621).
- [24]. [24]Hooton TM, et al. Acute uncomplicated cystitis and pyelonephritis in women. https://www.uptodate.com/contents/search. Accessed June 30, 2017.



- [25]. medilexicon.com merckmanuals.com medilexicon.c om Using Medical Terminology: A Practical Approach 2006 p.723
- [26]. Nicolle LE (2008). "Uncomplicated urinary tract infection in adults including uncomplicated pyelonephritis". Urol Clin North Am. 35 (1): 1–12, v. doi:10.1016/j.ucl.2007.09.004. PMID 18061019.
- [27]. Detweiler K, Mayers D, Fletcher SG (November 2015). "Bacteruria and Urinary Tract Infections in the Elderly". The Urologic Clinics of NorthAmerica (Review). 42 (4):5618. doi:10.1016/j.ucl.20 15.07.002. PMID 26475952.
- [28]. Woodford, HJ; George, J (February 2011). "Diagnosis and management of urinary infections in older people". Clinical Medicine. London. 11 (1):80–3. doi:10.7861/clinmedicine.11-180. PMID 21404794.
- [29]. Weinick RM, Burns RM, Mehrotra A. Many emergency department visits could be managed at urgent care centers and retail clinics. Health Affairs. 2010; 29(9) 1630 36.
- [30]. National Institutes of Health. The National Kidney and Urologic Diseases Advisory Board 1990 Long-Range Plan Window on the 21st Century. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health; 1990;90:583.
- [31]. David RD, DeBlieux PM, Press R. Rational antibiotic treatment of outpatient genitourinary infections in a changing environment.Am.J.Med. 2005; 118 (Suppl) 7A: 7S 13S.
- [32]. Gupta K, Hooton TM, Naber KG, et al. Infectious Diseases Society of America, European Society for Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. International



clinical practice guidelines for the treatment of acuteun complicated cystitis and pyelonephritis in women:a. 2010,update

by the Infectious Diseases Society of America and the European

Society for Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. Clin Infect

Dis. 2011; Mar; 52(5): e103 -20.

- [33]. Little P, Turner S, Rumsby K, et al. Developing clinical rules to predict urinary tract infection in primary care settings: sensitivity and specificity of near patient tests (dipsticks) and clinical scores. Br J Gen Pract. 2006Aug; 56(529): 606 612.
- [34]. Dielubanza, EJ; Schaeffer, AJ (January 2011). "Urinary tract infections in women". The Medical clinics of North America. 95 (1):27– 1. doi: 10.1016 /j. mcna. 2010. 08. 023. PMID 21095409.
- [35]. de Jong, Y; Pinckaers, JH; Ten Brinck, RM; À Nijeholt, AA; Dekkers, OM Lycklama (2014). "Urinating Standing versus Sitting: Position Is of Influence in Men with Prostate Enlargement. A Systematic PLoSONE. 9 (7): Review and Meta Analysis". e101320. doi: 10.1371 iournal. / pone.0101320. PMC 4106761. PMID 25051345.
- [36]. Nicolle LE (2001). "The chronic indwelling catheter and urinary infection in long-term -care facility residents". Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 22 (5): 316–21. doi: 10.1086 / 501908. PMID 11428445.
- [37]. Gould CV, Umscheid CA, Agarwal RK, Kuntz G, Pegues DA (2010). "Guideline for prevention of catheter-associated urinary tract infections 2009". Infect



- Control Hosp Epidemiol. 31 (4): 319 26. doi:10.1086/651091. PMID 20156062.
- [38]. Lam, TB; Omar, MI; Fisher, E; Gillies, K; MacLennan, S (Sep 23, 2014). "Types of indwelling urethral catheters for short-term catheterisation in hospitalised adults". The Cochrane database of systematicreviews. 9: CD004013. doi: 10.1002/14651858. CD004013. pub4. PMID 25248140.
- [39]. Gaines, KK (June 2004). "Phenazopyridine hydrochloride: the use and abuse of an old standby for UTI". Urologic nursing. 24 (3): 207–9. PMID 15311491.
- [40]. Aronson, edited by Jeffrey K. (2008). Meyler's side effects of analgesics and anti-inflammatory drugs. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science. p. 219. ISBN 978-0-444-53273-2. Archived from the original on 2016-05-07.
- [41]. Glass, [edited by] Jill C. Cash, Cheryl A. (2010). Family practice guidelines (2nd ed.). New York: Springer. p. 271. ISBN 978-0-8261-1812-7. Archived from the original on 2016-06-11.
- [42]. Santillo, VM; Lowe, FC (Jan 2007). "Cranberry juice for the prevention and treatment of urinary tract infections". Drugs of today (Barcelona, Spain:1998). 43 (1):4754. doi:10.1358/dot.200 7.43.1.1032055. PMID 17315052.
- [43]. Guay, DR (2009)."Cranberry and urinary tract infections ". Drugs. 69 (7):775–807. doi:10.2165/00003495-200969070-00002. PMID 19441868.
- [44]. Hooton TM, et al. Diagnosis, prevention, and treatment of catheter-associated urinary tract infection in adults: 2009 international clinical practice guidelines from



- the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2010;50(5):625–663.
- [45]. Tolkoff-Rubin NE, Cotran RS, Rubin RH. Urinary tract infection, pyelonephritis, and reflux nephropathy. In: Brenner BM, ed. *Brenner & Rector's The Kidney*. 8th ed. Vol. 2. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2008: 1203–1238.
- [46]. Schaeffer AJ. Infections of the urinary tract. In: Walsh PC, Retik AB, Vaughan ED, Wein AJ, eds. *Campbell's Urology*. 8th ed. Vol. 1. Philadelphia: Saunders; 2002: 515–602



Evaluation of Geostatic Interpolation Methods Based on GIS For Estimation Aquifers Transmissivity

(Tazerbo Wellfield - GMMRP, SE Libya) As a Case Study.

Lubna S. Ben Taher

Lecturer, Civil Engineering Department, University of Benghazi, Libya. E-mail: lubna.bentaher@uob.edu.ly

Abstract

In interpolation of aquifer transmissivity due to unknown distributed values, both the best and the unbiased aspects are frequently difficult to obtain. For that purpose, this study aim is to compare between seven geostatistical interpolation methods based on geographic information system GIS, for prediction of Tazerbo wellfield aguifer Transmissivity (T) m²/min. As well as setting the criteria for choosing the most appropriate interpolation method to predict the spatial distribution maps based on measured data from 108 wells at Tazerbo Wellfield, GMMR, SE Libya. As validation results, it was found that Radial Basic Function (RBF), and Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) are the most suitable methods for creating the transmissivity T m²/min maps for the study area, with MAPE%=0, and E=1. The aguifer properties maps produced in the geographic information system (GIS) give additional data and information that describe the aquifer system, will ultimately improve sustainable groundwater management in Libya.

Keywords: GIS, Geostatistics Interpolation, Transmissivity, Tazerbo wellfield.

ملخص

ان الاستنباط المكاني لقيم معدل ناقلية الخزانات جوفية المراد دراستها صعب دونما استخدام دالة استنباط مناسبة من حيث الدقة بالتنبؤ او الحساب. من هذا المنطلق،



تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى المقارنة بين سبع طرق للاستنباط الجيواحصائي المتوفرة ببيئة نظام المعلومات الجغرافية GIS، للتنبؤ بقيم الناقلية m²/min لخزان حقل ابار تازربو الجوفي بالمرحلة الاولي من مشروع النهر الصناعي العظيم بالشمال الشرقي لليبيا. بالإضافة إلى وضع معايير للمفاضلة بين نماذج الاستنباط الجيواحصائي من حيث الدقة بالحساب, لإعداد ورسم خرائط التوزيع المكاني للناقلية لكامل منطقة الدراسة, استنادا الى نتائج اختبار الضخ لعدد 108 بئر بحقل ابار تازربو. و وفق المقارنة بين نتائج النماذج الجيواحصائية السبعة، تبين أن النموذجين Radial Basic Function نتائج النماذ ورسم درائط التوزيع المكاني الاعتماد علي نظام المعلومات الجغرافية (GIS) لإنتاج خرائط التوزيع المكاني لوصف خصائص وانتاجية الخزانات الجوفية الموزعة بكامل الدولة لتحسين الإدارة المستدامة للمياه الجوفية بليبيا .

الكلمات الدالة: الناقلية, نظم المعلومات الجغرافية, دوال الاستنباط الجيواحصائي, حقل البار تازريو.

1. INTRODUCTION

Libya receives very low precipitation due to its location in an arid climate. For that reason, Libyan government established the Great Man-Made River project (GMMRP) for transporting 6.5 Mm³/day from aquifers located beneath the deserts to the coastal cities (Al Faitouri, 2013). For this study, one from three aquifers in the Sirt and Al Kufra Basin (GMMRP- Phase I) will be focusing witch is Tazerbo wellfield, (Figure1). The groundwater aquifer in Tazerbo wellfield is the one of source of household and agricultural needs in Libya. Therefore, it is necessary to rationalize the ground water in this area through proper planning, which depends on models to help the decision-maker to take the correct steps in the planning and investment optimization of this project. Proper planning



requires analysis and study the aquifer behavior, and the development of accurate digital maps that show its properties.

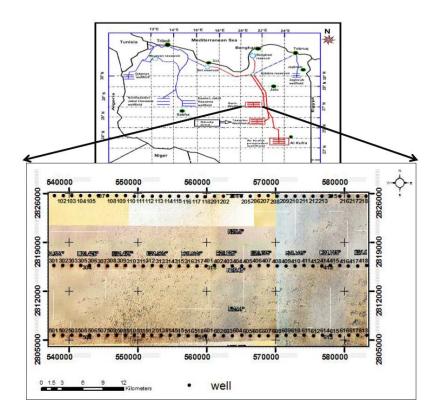


Figure.1. Layout of the Great Man-Made River Project, and Tazerbo Wellfield location- Libya with ID for each well.

One of the problems facing hydrogeological studies is the estimation of the data values in a given location, either because the data are missing or the site does not have measurements. The scientific method in this case is to take random samples from that



area and then to predict unknown points. These mathematical processes are called geostatistical interpolation. With the development of GIS technology, interpolation, analysis of groundwater data with geostatistical models has become easier and more operable (Xiao, and et al., 2016).

Many researchers applied geostatistical techniques for spatial distribution of groundwater aquifer properties listed as:

Ahmadzadeh, and Jafari, 2015, their study is a comparison of geostatic methods based on GIS for determining the best interpolation method for zoning the aquifer transmissivity in Shabestar plain. In their research, the Inverse Distance Weighting, local interpolation and Kriging methods were adopted. Their results indicated that Kriging method with exponential variogram are chosen as the best method of interpolation and map creation. Mace, 2011, his study in Texas had shown the estimation of transmissivity from specific capacity data points of 1083 in the Edwards aguifer, 1973 in the sandstone aguifers of North Central Texas, and 9500 in the Carrizo-Wilcox aguifer. The Geostatistical techniques were developed named Kriging with linear regression and Cokriging. His results show that the Cokriging may offer better results than Kriging with linear regression. LO and et al, **2016**, in their research a mapping of the transmissivity of the Senegalese deep aquifer system, using geostatistical methods with Kriging as an estimator. Their results show that the semivariogram of the transmissivity coefficient could be described by spherical model. Al-Murad, and et al, 2018, in their study a Kriging is used to characterize the transmissivity of the two aquifers in Kuwait (the Dammam and Kuwait Group aguifers). His results show that extrapolated transmissivity values using Kriging can be used for development of numerical modeling studies for the aquifer system in the region of his study.

العدد 17 Volume ابریل 2019 April



In this study the main objective is to assess the accuracy of various Geostatistical interpolation methods, including the (Empirical Bayesian Kriging (EBK), Radial Basic Function (RBF), Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW), Global Polynomial Interpolation (GPI), Kernel Interpolation With Barriers (KIB), Local Polynomial Interpolation (LPI), Diffusion Interpolation With Barriers (DIW)) to determine the best interpolation method for estimation the transmissivity of Tazerbo wellfield aquifer.

2- Study Methodology and Area of Study:

1-2 Area of Study:

Tazerbo wellfield is one of three wellfields of GMMRP Phase I. It is bounded by longitudes 21^0 and 22^0 E and by latitudes 25^0 and 26^0 N and consists of 108 production wells distributed in 6 lines, with a distance of 1.3 km between two wells and distributed into three parallel lines; each line is divided in two sections, and each line is 50 km long and consists of 36 wells see Figuer1. The total depth of the production wells in Tazerbo wellfield ranges from 460 to 580 m. The depth to water is variable, from 260 m in the NE and NW to 400 m in the SE and SW. Transmissivity had been estimated based on the pumping tests is between 3.71×10^{-2} to 7.92×10^{-3} m²/s, and the storability is between $2.1 \times 0.77 \times 10^{-04}$ (Al Faitouri,2013).

2-2 Cooper-Jacob Methods For Determining The Aquifer Transmissivity:

Cooper-Jacob, 1946, in his analysis presented a pumping test in which drawdown at a piezometer distance \mathbf{r} from the abstraction well is monitored over time. This is also based upon the Theis method analysis from the definition of \mathbf{u} . It can be seen that \mathbf{u} decreases as the time of pumping increases and as the distance of



the piezometer from the well decreases. W(u) is the well function, estimated by (Kruseman, and Ridde, 2000):

$$W(\mu) = -0.577 - \ln \mu + \mu - \frac{u^2}{2} \times 2! + \frac{u^3}{3} \times 3! - \frac{u^4}{4} \times 4! + \cdots,$$
 (1)

and u is defined as:

$$u = \frac{r^2 S}{4Tt} \tag{2}$$

Where:

t= time since beginning of pumping, T= Transmissvity, s= storage coefficient for confined aquifers, r= piezometer distance from the abstraction well .

So, for piezometers close to the pumping well after sufficiently long pumping times, ln(u) become negligible. Hence for small values of u, the drawdown can be approximated by:

$$s = \frac{2.3Q}{4\pi T} \log \frac{2.25T}{r^2 S} t \tag{3}$$

Where:

Q= constant flow rate of the pumping well, s = the drawdown.

Because of Q, T, and S are constant, if used drawdown observations at a short distance ${\bf r}$ from the well, a plot of drawdown ${\bf s}$ versus the logarithm of ${\bf t}$ forms a straight line. If this line is extended until it intercepts the time-axis where ${\bf s}={\bf 0}$, ${\bf t}={\bf t}_{\bf 0}$, and the slope of the straight line (Figure 2), the drawdown



difference as per log cycle of time $\log t/t_0 = 1$ also substituting these values into Equation 3 gives (Kruseman, and Ridde, 2000):

$$T = \frac{2.3Q}{4\pi\Delta s} \tag{4}$$

$$S = \frac{2.25Tt}{r^2} \tag{5}$$

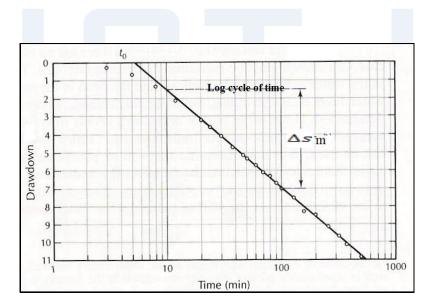


Figure 2 Drawdown Time – Cooper-Jacob method.

3-2. Geostatistical Interpolations Methods:

Geostatistical analyst uses sample points taken at different locations in a landscape and creates (interpolates) a continuous surface. The features of Geostatistical analyst are discussed in details in the next parts.:



1. Empirical Bayesian Kriging (EBK) Interpolation model:.1

Kriging is a prediction method that considers values of a variable in ensamples points as a linear composition of the values of surrounding points. Considering the values of variable **Z** in **n** measured points as following:

$$Z = (Z(x_1), Z(x_2), \dots Z(x_n))$$
(6)

Estimation of Z in point X_0 using Kriging estimation is defined as:

$$Z(x_0) = \sum \lambda_i \cdot Z(x_i) \tag{7}$$

Where:

 $Z(x_0)$ = interpolated value for grid node, $Z(x_i)$ = the measured points, λ_i = Kriging statistical weight.

This method can be used to produce an accurate grid of data, or can be custom-fit to a data set by specifying the appropriate variogram model. The experimental variogram measures the average degree of dissimilarity between unknown values and a nearby data value and thus can depict autocorrelation at various distances. The value of the experimental variogram for a separation distance of h (referred to as the lag) is:

$$\gamma(h) = \frac{1}{2n(h)} \sum_{i=1}^{n(h)} [z(x_i) - z(x_i + h)]^2$$
(8)

Where:

n (h) = the number of data pairs within a given class of distance and direction.



The most important part of Kriging is statistical weighs assigned to λ_i . To avoid bias of estimation, the weights should be determined in a way that summation is equal to one .

2-Inverse Distance Weighted (IDW) Interpolation Model:

In interpolation with IDW method, a weight is attributed to the point to be measured. The amount of this weight is depended to the distance of the point to another unknown point. The general formula of inverse distance weighted as follows:

$$Zj = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{z_i}{hi_y^{\beta}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{hi_y^{\beta}}}$$
(9)

$$h_y = \sqrt{d_y^2 + \delta^2} \tag{10}$$

Where:

 hi_y = effective separation distance between grid node j and the neighboring point i. Zj = Interpolated value for grid node j, z_i = neighboring knowing points, d_y = distance between grid node j and the neighboring point i, β = weighting power parameter, δ = smoothing parameter.

The weighting power parameter determines how quickly weights fall off with distance from the grid node. As the power parameter increases, the generated surface is a "nearest neighbor" interpolator and the resultant surface becomes polygonal. The polygons represent the nearest observation to the interpolated grid node. The Smoothing factor parameter is allowed to incorporate an "uncertainty" factor associated with the input data. The larger the



smoothing factor parameter, the less overwhelming influence any particular observation has in computing a neighboring grid node.

3-Global polynomial (GPI) Interpolation Model:

Global polynomial interpolation fits a smooth surface that is defined by polynomial mathematical function to the input sample points. The global polynomial surface changes gradually and captures coarse surface-scale pattern in the data. Global polynomial interpolation simply uses multiple regression method for all of the data. A response surface is fitted to the x- and y-coordinates, for an example the third - order trend model is:

$$Z(x_{i}, y_{i}) = \beta^{0} + \beta^{1}x_{i} + \beta^{2}y_{i} + \beta^{3}x_{i}^{2} + \beta^{4}y_{i}^{2} + \beta^{5}x_{i}y_{i} + \beta^{6}x_{i}^{3} + \beta^{7}y_{i}^{3} + \beta^{8}x_{i}^{2}y_{i} + \beta^{9}x_{i}y_{i}^{2} + \varepsilon(x_{i}, y_{i})$$
(11)

Fitting regression models by estimating parameter (β_i) uses ordinary least squares.

Where:

 $Z(x_i, y_i)$ =datum at the location $(x_i, y_i), \beta_j$ =constant parameter, and $\varepsilon(x_i, y_i)$ = random error .

4-Local Polynomial (LPI) Interpolation Model:

Local polynomial interpolation is similar to global polynomial interpolation, except that it uses data within localized "windows" rather than using all of the data, so it fits local trends it uses weights. The window can be moved around, and the surface value at the center of the window call it μ_{\circ} (x ,y), is estimated at each point. Weighted least squares is used by minimizing:



$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}(Z(x_{i}, y_{i}) - \mu_{0}(x_{i}, y_{i}))^{2}$$
(12)

weight $w_i = \exp(-3d_{i0}/a)$,

Where:

n = number of points within the window, d_{i0} = distance between the point and the center of the widow, a = parameter that controls how fast weights decay with distance, $\mu_0(x_i, y_i)$ = value of the polynomial.

For an example of second -order polynomial:

$$\mu 0(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{y}_{i}) = \beta^{0} + \beta^{1} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \beta^{2} \mathbf{y}_{i} + \beta^{3} x_{i}^{2} + \beta^{4} y_{i}^{2}$$

$$+ \beta^{5} x_{i} y_{i} + \beta^{6} x_{i}^{2} y_{i} + \beta^{7} x_{i} y_{i}^{2} + \varepsilon(x_{i}, y_{i})$$

$$(13)$$

5-Radial Basis Functions (RBF) Interpolation Model:

Radial basis functions (RBF) methods are a series of exact interpolation techniques, that is, the surface must go through each measured sample value. There are five different basis functions: thin-plate splint, splint with tension, completely regularized splint, multiquadric function, and inverse multiquadric splint. Each basis function has different shape and results in different interpolation surface. RBF methods are a form artificial neural network.

6-Kernel Interpolation With Barrier (KIWB) Interpolation Model:

The Kernel Interpolation model uses the shortest distance between points so that points on the sides of the specified nontransparent (absolute) barrier are connected by a series of



straight lines. Kernel Interpolation uses the following radically symmetric kernels: Exponential, Gaussian, Quartic, Epanechnikov, Polynomial of order 5, and constant. The bandwidth of the kernel is determined by a rectangle around the observations.

7-Diffusion Interpolation With Barriers (DIWB) Interpolation Model:

Diffusion Interpolation refers to the fundamental solution of the heat equation, which describes how heat or particles diffuse with time in a homogeneous medium. The predictions made using this method gently flow around barriers. The Diffusion Interpolation can use a complex distance metric defined by the cost surface which is a common raster function that calculates the cost of travel from one cell of a raster to the next.

4-2 Models Performance Verification:

Cross validation compares the measured and predicted values. The statistics calculated on the prediction errors serve as diagnostics that indicate whether the model is reasonable for decision making and map production. To judge if a model provides accurate predictions, verify that:

1- Mean absolute percentage error (MAPE%)

$$MAPE\% = \frac{100}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \frac{Zobs._i - Zpre._i}{Zobs._i} \right|$$
(14)

2- Efficiency factor (E):

Efficiency factor (E=0 to 1) is calculated on the relationship between the predicted and observed mean deviations and it can show the correlation between the predicted and observed data.



$$E = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Zobs._{i} - Zpre._{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Zobs._{i} - \overline{Zobs}._{i})^{2}}$$
(15)

3- 95% confidence limit (95CI%):

The Standard error of the mean observed data is given as:

$$S_{x=}\frac{s}{\sqrt{n-1}}$$

The quantity $((Zobs._i - \overline{Zobs._1})) / S_x$ has a t-distribution with (n-1) degrees of freedom, And for 95% confidence limit

$$\overline{\text{Zobs.}} - 1.95 \left(\frac{\text{s}}{\sqrt{\text{n} - 1}} \right) < \overline{Zpre.} < \overline{Zobs.} + 1.95 \left(\frac{\text{s}}{\sqrt{\text{n} - 1}} \right)$$
 (16)

The value on the left side of the inequality yields the lower limit, and on the right side yields the upper limit for the mean observed data, known as the Confidence Level.

Where:

n= number of data, $Z_{obs.i}$ = observed value, $Z_{pre.i}$ = predicted value, S = standard deviation, $\overline{Zobs.}$ = the mean of observed data.

A better fit and a perfect prediction, with zero indicating MAPE% and high value of E. Furthermore the model if have a good performance well produce results within the range of 95CI% of the mean observed data.

3- Evaluation of Geostatic Interpolation Methods For Estimation Tazerbo Wellfield Aquifer Transmissivity:

In order to predict the aquifer Transmissivity of Tazerbo wellfield (T m²/min), used pumping test data of 108 wells in the study area,



were obtained from the Great Man Mead River Authority (GMMRA). Moreover to identify the hydrogeological characteristics of Tazerbo wellfield aquifer, a pumping test had been conducted without observation wells with a constant pumping rate 120L/sec of period 1440 minutes. The pumping test data obtained were analyzed by Cooper - Jacob method. The statistical analysis of all field measurement data, represents at Table 1.

Table 1 Statically analysis of pumping test results for 108 well at Tazerbo wellfield, GMMRA.

	Е	N	Z	T	DWL	SWL	Q	ь
Mean	560468.52	2815412.9	275.73	2.74	29.01	22.95	7.17	149.58
Max.	583252.43	2825502.25	287.22	4.23	42.62	35.78	7.32	196.07
Min.	537749.18	2805361	238.02	1.33	14.68	13.52	7.03	102.01
Skewness				0.31				

Where:

E= well east coordinate, N= well north coordinate, Z= well elevation, T= transmissivity, Q= discharge rat, b= aquifer thickness, SWL m= static water level, DWL m = dynamic water level.

The spatial models give more representative results if the data are distributed naturally and the skewness coefficient is close to zero indicate a normal distribution of the data. In this study in terms of the skewness coefficient see Table 1, indicates that the majority of the values of the samples used have low values close to zero. Figure 3 shows the transmissivity data histograms diagram.



In this study the Geostatistical analyst tool in ArcGIS 10.5 software is used for interpolating the surfaces of the aquifer transmissivity at the area of study. Seven interpolation methods included (DIWB), (EBK), (GPI), (IDW), (KIB), (LPI) and (RBF) were performed in two stages, first it compute the spatial structure of the data and then generate a predicted surface.

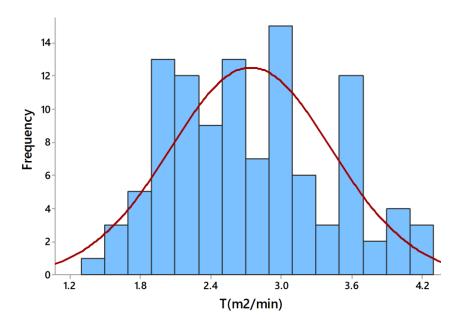


Figure 3. Histogram For Tazerbo wellfield Aquifer Transmissivity T (m²/min).

The interpolation methods provide an assessment of errors with predicted values, by (MAPE%, and E). Cross validation was carried out to examine the fitted interpolation models by systematically changing the model type, the results are shown in Table 2.



Table 2. Summary of Cross-Validation Result of Interpolation Models.

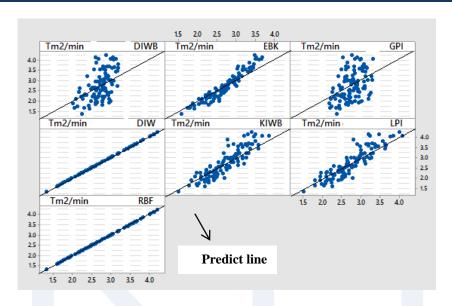
Method	T (m ² /min)		
	MAPE %	RMSE	E
DIWB	18.40	0.59	0.27
EBK	7.33	0.26	0.86
GPI	19.22	0.64	0.12
DIW	0.00	0.00	1.00
KIWB	9.83	0.35	0.73
LPI	9.13	0.33	0.76
RBF	0.00	0.00	1.00

Table 3. Evaluation of the interpolation methods using CI95% parameters.

T m²/min	Mean m²/min	Min. m²/min	Max. m²/min	Cl95% m²/min
Observed	2.77	1.33	4.23	
DIWB	2.74	2.03	3.22	
EBK	2.74	1.60	3.71	
GPI	2.74	2.18	3.31	2.6-2.87
DIW	2.74	1.33	4.24	
KIWB	2.74	1.51	3.88	
LPI	2.75	1.52	4.08	
RBF	2.74	1.33	4.24	

The interpolation surfaces obtained from ArcGIS 10.5 software present in Figures 5 to 11. In addition Scatter plots of the true values versus the estimated values are illustrated in Figure 4.





 $\label{eq:Figure 4.Comparison Between The Predicted and Measured Tazerbo} Wellfield Aquifer Transmissivity T m^2/min \ .$

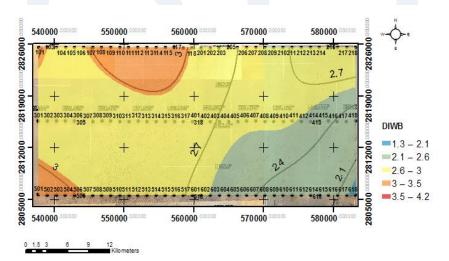


Figure 5. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (DIWB).

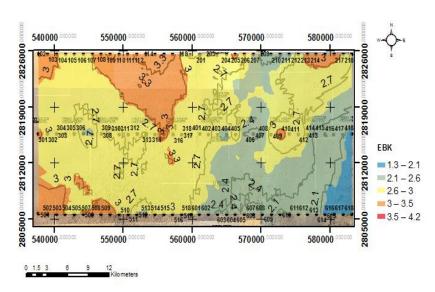


Figure 6. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (EBK).

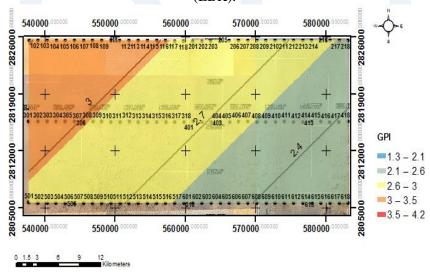


Figure 7. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (GPI).

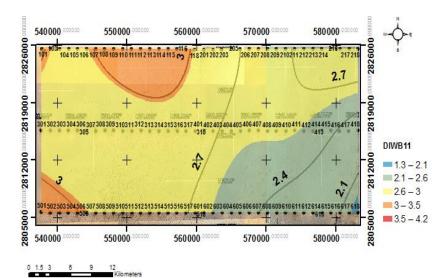


Figure 8. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (IDW).

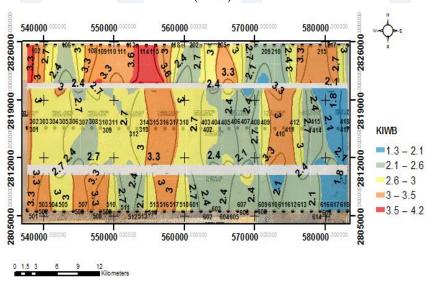


Figure 9. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (KIB).



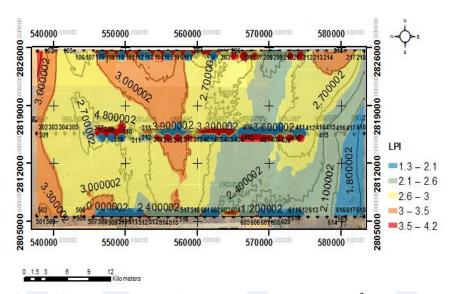


Figure 10. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (LPI).

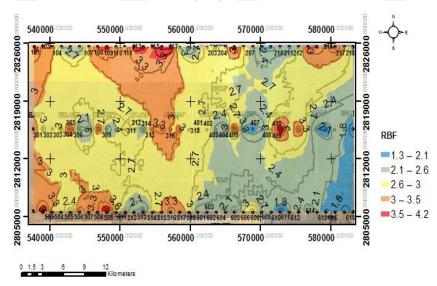


Figure 11. Interpolation Surface and Contour Maps For Tm²/min Using (RBF).



4. Results Discussion:

Tables 3 and 4 show the most suitable geostatistical models for the Tazerbo Wellfield aquifer transmissivity estimation, based on the values of MAPE%, E and CI95%. According to the results gained from the calculations and comparison of all various geostatistical methods used in this study, there is no significant difference between Radial Basic (RBF), and Inverse Distance Weighted (IDW) models with high value of E=1 and low MAPE%=0. Moreover, they provide a maximum, minimum and average predicted values within the range of 95CI%. Nonetheless Global Polynomial (GPI) provides results were significant difference between others by low E=0.12 and MAPE%= 19.22. Comparing the estimated values to the observed of the aguifer transmissivity is done via a scatter plot (Figure 4), more the scatterplot is tightened around the predicted line, the better the estimated values by (RBF, and IDW) models. Figure 11 shows the highest value of transmissivity is found at the south, southwest, and northwest of the wellfield aguifer part (wells at lines 100-300-500) and they decrease as one moves away to the Northeast and East (wells at lines 200-400-600). The transmissivity value is between 2.6 and 4.23 m²/min in the most part of the deep aquifer system located in the West and Southeast wellfield aquifer part. The transmissivity of the Tazerbo wellfield aguifer increases from 2.6 m²/min to 4.2 m²/min indicated that the aquifer of good performance in accordance to transmissivity scales. Transmissivity values are numerous, which due to aquifer heterogeneity and variation of its thickness by alternating low- and high-permeability zones.

5. Conclusion:

As sampling from every possible location is not economical, the geostatistical interpolation techniques played an energetic role to predict the values from unmeasured location. The new thing that was discussed and reached in this research is to determine the best models of geostatistical interpolation method in the representation



of aquifer transmissivity in Tazerbo wellfield SE- Libya area. According to the results gained from the calculations and comparison of all various methods used in this study, the (RBF), and (IDW) models are the most suitable methods of creating the transmissivity zoning map in Tazerbo wellfield. Based on the above results it is suggested that in the future studies, other methods of spatial interpolation available at ArcMap GIS will use in order to prepare groundwater aquifer characteristic maps. Furthermore the natural resource inventories need to be regularly updated or improved in detail. It is often needed to consider collection of new samples or additional tests are used to update an existing GIS layers.

References

Ahmadzadeh, G., and, Jafari, F., 2016, Comparison Of Geostatic Method Based On GIS For Determining The Best Interpolation Method For Zoning The Aquifer Transmissivity In Shabestar Plain, Journal of Multidisciplinary Engineering Science Studies, ISSN: 2458-925X, 2, 10, 922-929.

Al Faitouri, M. S. E,2013, Isotope And Noble Gas Study Of Three Aquifers In Central And Southeast Libya, Department of Geosciences, Thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Al-Murad, M., Zubari, W. K., and Uddin, S.,2018, Geostatistical Characterization of the Transmissivity: An Example of Kuwait Aquifers, Water, 10, 828; DOI:10.3390/w10070828, www.mdpi.com/journal/water.



Cooper, H. H., Jr., and Jacob, C. E., 1946, A generalized graphical method for evaluating formation constants and summarizing well field history: American Geophysical Union Transactions, v.27,p.526-534.

Kruseman, G.P., De Ridder, N.A., 2000, Analysis And Evaluation Of Pumping Test Data,(2nd) International Institute for Land Reclamation and Improvement, Wageningen, The Netherlands. Lo, M. L., Diaw, E. B., Wade, M., Alassane, B. A., Saïdou, N., Cheikh, Sall, T., and Sissoko, G.,2016, Geostatistical Approach For Mapping The Transmissivity Of The Senegalese Deep Aquifer System, ARPN Journal of Earth Sciences, 5, 2, ISSN 2305-493X.

Mace, R.E., 2001, Estimating Transmissivity Using Specific Capacity Data, Austin, TX: Bureau of Economic Geology, University of Texas at Austin, Geological Circular No. 01-2.

Xiao1, Y. G., Yin, X., Shao1, Sh., Cui1, J., Zhang1, Y., and Niu, Y., 2016, Geostatistical Interpolation Model Selection Based On Arcgis And Spatio-Temporal Variability Analysis Of Groundwater Level In Piedmont Plains, Northwest China, Springer Plus, 5, 425, pp. 1-15, DOI 10.1186/s40064-016-2073-0.



Modeling the Behavior of Thin Plates under Various Boundary Conditions Using X-FEM

Dr. Abulgasem M. Elarbi¹ University of Tripoli arabi98@yahoo.com Ziad H. Abo Mustafa²
Almergb University
ziadslman2019@gmail.com

ملخص: تعرف البلاطات الإنشائية على إنها عناصر ذات أسطح مستوية وبسمك صغير مقارنة بأبعادها الأخرى. تطبيقات البلاطات واسعة الإنتشار في الهندسة الإنشائية وكأمثلة على ذلك الصهاريج، هياكل الطائرات والغواصات، أسقف المنشآت، الحوائط، والأساسات الحصيرية. البلاطات يمكن أن تكون موحدة الخواص أو غير موحدة الخواص وأحيانا مؤلفة من صفائح مركبة.

إنتشر خلال السنوات الأخيرة تحليل الصفائح المركبة المعرضة لأحمال ساكنة أو ديناميكية، و تطورت تطبيقات الصفائح المركبة لتشمل البلاطات. هندسيا البلاطات حدودها إما مستقيمة أو منحنية والأحمال الساكنة أو الديناميكية التي تحملها البلاطات غالبا ما تكون عمودية على سطح البلاطة. تصنف البلاطات غالبا من حيث السمك بالبلاطات الرقيقة والبلاطات السميكة. البلاطات الرقيقة مبدئيا عبارة عن عناصر إنشائية مسطحة محاطة بسطحين متوازيين تسمى أوجه والسطح الإسطواني يسمى حافة أو حد. الاسطح الإسطوانية عمودية على السطح المستوى، المسافة بين السطحين المستويين تسمى سمك البلاطة، يعتبر سمك البلاطة صغير مقارنة بأبعاد البلاطة مثل الطول والعرض والقطرإلخ.

الدراسة الحالية تبحث في سلوك البلاطات رقيقة السمك لكل من الموحدة الخواص وغير موحدة الخواص تحت تأثير الأحمال الموزعة بإنتظام مع إختلاف في حدود البلاطة. طريقة العناصر المحدودة الممتدة ثلاثية الأبعاد – Three-dimensional extended "ABAQUS-CAE" بإستخدام برنامج ABAQUS-CAE تم توضيفها لحساب الترخيم والعزوم للبلاطات ذات الحواف المثبتة تثبيت كامل والحواف



المثبتة تثبيت مفصلي آخذين في الإعتبار التغير في نسبة بواسن Poisson's ratio وسمك البلاطة. النتائج المتحصل عليها عدديا وضعت في جداول وقورنت بالحلول الصحيحة.

ABSTRACT:

In general, a plate structures may be defined as plane structural elements with a small thickness compared to the planar dimensions. Application of plates is very widespread in engineering such as containers, aircraft fuselages, submarine hulls, deck structures, walls, and raft foundations. Plates can be formed by isotropic, orthotropic materials, or laminated composites materials. The development of laminated composite materials extends the application field of plates; the analysis of laminated composite plates subjected to static or dynamic loads have received widespread attention in recent years.

Geometrically, plates are bounded either by straight or curved boundaries. The static or dynamic loads carried by plates are predominantly perpendicular to the plate faces. Plates might be classified as a thick or thin plate.

Thin plates are initially flat structural members bounded by two parallel planes, called faces, and a cylindrical surface, called an edge or boundary. The generators of the cylindrical surface are perpendicular to the plane faces. The distance between the plane faces is called the thickness (h) of the plate. The plate thickness is very small compared with other characteristic dimensions of the faces (length, width, diameter, etc.).

In the present study; the performance of isotropic/ orthotropic rectangular thin plates under uniform distributed loads and various boundary conditions is investigated. Three-dimensional extended finite element method (X-FEM) is developed and implemented in the ABAQUS-CAE package to predict deflection, bending and twisting moments, and stresses, for plates with immovable edges



and simply supported, partially or fully clamped edge conditions have been considered. The variations of Poisson's ratio as well as the thickness to the length ratio are carried out. The results that have been obtained numerically, evaluated and compared to the analytical solutions.

Keywords: Thin Plates, Extended Finite Element, Isotropic, Orthotropic, ABAQUS-CAE

Extended Finite Element Method:

The Extended Finite Element Method (XFEM) is a method used to model strong and weak discontinuities independent of the finite element mesh by using the partition of unity finite element method.[1,6]

The first attempt to develop the extended finite element method could be dated back to 1999 when Belytschko and Black (1999) presented a minimal re-meshing finite element method for crack growth. The concept has been built by adding discontinuous enrichment functions to the finite element approximation to account for the being there of the crack. The method allowed the crack to be arbitrarily allied within the mesh, in spite it required remeshing for harshly curved cracks.

In 1999, *Moës et al.* improved the method and called it the extended finite element method (XFEM). This improvement allowed for independent representation of the whole crack from the mesh, based on the construction of the enriched approximation from the interaction of the crack geometry with the mesh.

In 1999, Dolbow has achieved a major step during his PhD thesis at Northwestern University which was titled "Extended finite element method with discontinuous enrichment for applied mechanics". As a result of his work a solution of two dimensional elasticity and Mindlin–Reissner plates by using both a jump



function and the asymptotic near tip fields using XFEM. Also, in 2000, Dolbow *et al.* 2000 have presented a system to model arbitrary discontinuities in the finite element framework by locally enriching a displacement based approximation through a partition of unity method.

Furthermore, in 2000, Sukumar et al. extended the XFEM for three-dimensional crack modeling and addressed geometric matters connected with the representation of the crack and the enrichment of the finite element approximation.

Another topic has been studied by Daux *et al.* (2000) as extensions to the original XFEM. They focused on the modeling of random branched and intersecting cracks with multiple branches, multiple holes and cracks originating from holes.

Level set methods gradually grew to represent the crack location, including the location of crack tips. In 2001, Stolarska *et al.* introduced a way of coupling the level set method (LSM) with XFEM to model crack growth. By the year of 2001, Belytschko *et al.* presented a technique for modeling arbitrary discontinuities in the function and its derivatives in finite elements. The discontinuous approximation was constructed in terms of a signed distance function, so level sets could be used to update the location of the discontinuities. Also, another effort has been done by Sukumar *et al.* (2001) who described modeling holes and inclusions by level sets in the extended finite element method.

Meanwhile, in 2002, Moës *et al*, and Gravouil *et al* discussed the mechanical model and level set update for non-planar three dimensional crack growth, based on a Hamilton–Jacobi equation to update the level sets with a velocity extension approach to preserve the old crack surface.[2,6]

Lately, the extended finite element method (X-FEM) has come out as a powerful numerical procedure for the analysis of crack



problems. It has been widely acknowledged that the method eases crack growth modeling under the assumptions of linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM). Since the introduction of the method about a decade ago, many new extensions and applications have shown up in the scientific literature, with substantially many contributions on X-FEM in recent years.

In the extended finite element method, additional functions, commonly referred to as enrichment functions, can be added to the displacement approximation as long as the partition of unity is satisfied, $\sum N_I(x) = 1$, whereas $N_I(x)$ represent the finite element shape functions. The XFEM uses these enrichment functions as a tool to introduce a non-smooth behavior of field variables, for instance, stress across the interface between different materials or displacement across cracks. Generally, the enrichment functions presented into the displacement approximation are only described in excess of a small number of elements relative to the total size of the domain. Extra degrees of freedom are presented in all elements where the discontinuity is exist, and depending on the type of function selected, probably some adjacent elements identified as combination elements [3].

Comparing to the standard finite element method, the X-FEM offers significant benefits in the numerical modeling of crack propagation. In the traditional concept of the FEM, the existence of a crack is modeled by requiring the crack to follow element edges. On the contrary, the crack geometry in the X-FEM does not need to be aligned with the element edges that provide flexibility and versatility in modeling. The method is based on the enrichment of the finite element model with extra degrees of freedom (DOFs) which are tied to the nodes of the elements discussed by the crack [6,7]. In this manner, the discontinuity is included in the numerical model with no modifying the discretization, as the mesh is generated without taking into account the being there of the crack. Therefore, only a single mesh is needed for any crack length and



orientation. As well, nodes around the crack tip are enriched with DOFs associated with functions that copy the asymptotic LEFM fields. This enables the modeling of the crack discontinuity within the crack-tip element and substantially increases the accuracy in the calculation of the stress intensity factors (SIFs).

As shown in figure (1), the circled nodes are the nodes enriched with two additional DOFs (total of four DOFs per node), whereas the nodes marked with a square are enriched by eight more DOFs (total of ten DOFs per node).

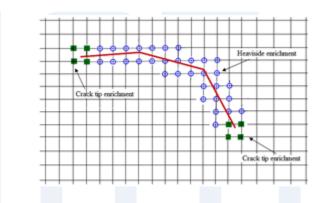


Figure 1. The nodes enriched with the Heaviside and crack tip enrichment functions

Elements that contain at least one enriched node are known as enriched elements. Nodes with two additional DOFs (one for each coordinate direction) have shape functions that multiply the Heaviside function H(x) (function of unit magnitude whose sign changes across the crack, $H(x) = \pm 1$), whereas H(x) equals positive above the crack, and is negative below the crack. Actually, this function introduces the discontinuity across the crack faces. Nodes with eight additional DOFs are enriched in the two Cartesian directions with four crack tip functions $F_{\alpha}(x)$ [4,6].



$$[F_{\alpha}(r,\theta), \alpha = 1 - 4] = \left[\sqrt{r} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}, \sqrt{r} \cos \frac{\theta}{2}, \sqrt{r} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \theta, \sqrt{r} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \theta \right]$$
(1)

Where: r,θ represent local polar co-ordinates defined at the crack tip. The displacement approximation for crack modeling in the extended finite element method can be written in the form

$$u_{xfem}(x) = \sum_{i \in I} N_i(x)u_i + \sum_{i \in J} N_i(x)H(x)a_i$$
$$+ \sum_{i \in k} \left[N_i(x) \sum_{\alpha=1}^4 F_\alpha(x)b_{i\alpha} \right]$$
(2)

Where: I represents the set of all nodes in the mesh, $N_i(x)$ is the nodal shape function and u_i is the standard DOF of node i (u_i represents the nodal displacement for non-enriched nodes only). j and k contain the nodes enriched with Heaviside function H(x) or crack-tip functions $F_a(x)$, respectively, and a_i , b_{ia} are the corresponding DOFs. In case there is no enrichment, then the above equation reduces to the classical finite element approximation

$$u_{fe}(x) = P_i N_i(x) u_i \tag{3}$$

The additional functions are used in the displacement approximation are typically called enrichment functions and the approximation is written as

$$u^{h}(x) = \sum_{I} N_{I}(x) \left[u_{I} + \sum_{j} v^{j}(x) a_{I}^{j} \right]$$
 (4)

Where: u_I represents the classical finite element degrees of freedom, v(x) is the j^{th} enrichment function, and a_I^j is the



enriched degrees of freedom corresponding to the j^{th} enrichment function at the I^{th} node. The enriched degrees of freedom defined by Eq. (1) generally do not have a physical meaning and instead can be considered as a calibration of the enrichment functions which result in the correct displacement approximation.

Equation (4) does not satisfy the interpolation property, $u_I = u^h(x_I)$ because of the enriched degrees of freedom, instead additional calculations are required in order to calculate the physical displacement by utilizing equation (4). The interpolation property is important in practice in applying boundary or contact conditions. Therefore, it is a common practice to shift the enrichment function to the shape.

$$Y_I^J(x) = v^J(x) - v_I^J(x)$$
(5)

Where: $v_I^J(x)$ is the value of the J^{th} enrichment function at the I^{th} node. As the shifted enrichment function now takes a value of zero at all nodes, the solution of the resulting system of equations satisfies $u_I = u^h(x_I)$ and the enriched degrees of freedom can be used for additional actions such as interpolation and post-processing. Here, the shifted enrichment functions are referred to with upper case characters, and the unshifted enrichment functions are referred to with lower case font. The shifted displacement approximation is in the form

$$u^{h}(x) = \sum_{I} N_{I}(x) \left[u_{i} + \sum_{j} \gamma_{I}^{J}(x) a_{I}^{j} \right]$$
 (6)

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



Where: $\gamma_I^J(x)$ represents the J^{th} shifted enrichment function at the I^{th} node.

Finite Element Simulation by using ABAQUS- CAE software:

ABAQUS/CAE is a complete ABAQUS environment that provides a simple, consistent interface for creating, submitting, monitoring, and evaluating results from ABAQUS/Standard and ABAQUS/Explicit simulations. ABAQUS/CAE is divided into modules, where each module defines a logical aspect of the modeling process; for example, defining the geometry, defining material properties, and generating a mesh. As one moves from module to module, you can build the model from which ABAQUS/CAE generates an input file that you submit to the ABAQUS/Standard or ABAQUS/Explicit analysis product. The analysis product performs the analysis, sends information to ABAQUS/CAE to allow you to monitor the progress of the job, and generates an output database. At a minimum the analysis model consists of the following information:

- Discretized geometry.
- Element section properties.
- Material data.
- Loads and boundary conditions.
- Analysis type.
- Output requests.

In this research, ABAQUS/CAE 6.14 release has been utilized to implement the scope of work. Compared with other computer softwares, one of the major advantages of this software is the flexibility of implementing, revising, analyzing the model, and getting results. But the more important function of this release of ABAQUS/CAE 6.14 is that it allows a crack to grow up with or without specifying the locations of the crack initiation.



Plate Simulation:

For non-linear finite element analysis, ABAQUS-CAE software was used to model the behavior of thin plates. The modeling space was chosen 3D planar and the type was deformable, (figure 2).

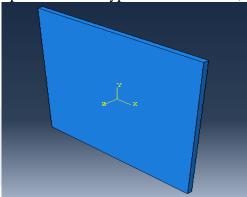


Figure 2. 3D plate model.

The element has been considered as an elastic-isotropic material. The material behaviors have been selected to be "Maxps Damage", and the properties are shown in table 1.

Table 1. Concrete material properties

Young's Modulus	4.23x10 ⁶ psi
Compressive Strength	5502psi
Poisson's ratio	0.18
Density	0.0867 lb/in ³

The element has been meshed by size of 0.2 and for the mesh control the element shape was considered a quad-dominated structured, Figure (3).

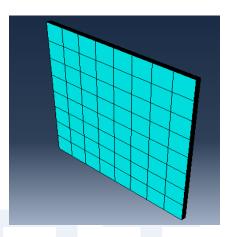


Figure 3. Mesh of the 2D planar concrete beam model

The load has been used as a static concentrated dead load and the type of boundary conditions was selected displacement/rotation, one support was considered as a pin and the other roller, figure (4).

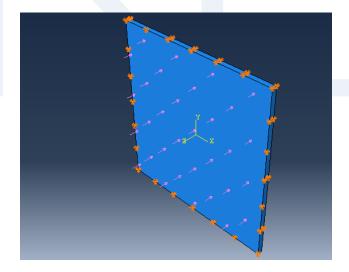


Figure 4. Load and boundary conditions of plate model



Three different types of boundary conditions have been selected in this study, simply supported plates, figure (5a), plates with two edges simple and the other two clamped, figure (5b), and all edges clamped plates, figure (5c). The results which have been obtained by ABAQUS/CAE were compared with analytical solution.

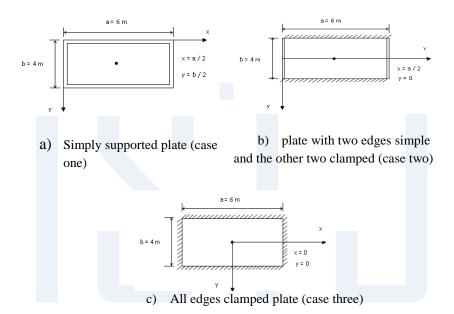


Figure 5. Boundary conditions of the plates used in this study

Results and Discussions:

1) Isotropic Plates:

Figure (6) shows the deflection shape in the simply supported edges plate, the crack growth and propagation is shown in figure (7) for the same plate.

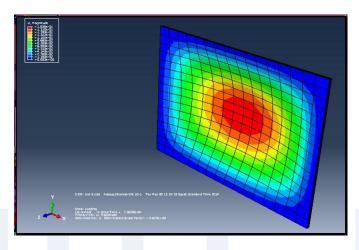


Figure 6. Deflection in the simply supported plate (ABAQUS/CAE)

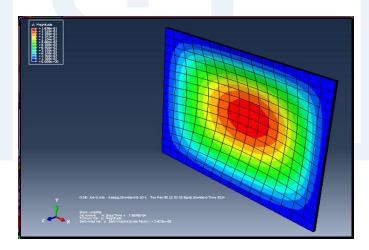


Figure 7. Crack Propagation of simply supported plate (ABAQUS/CAE)

Table (2) shows the results of deflection and bending moments in x and y directions (M_x , M_y) at the mid of the simply supported plate with different Poisson's ratio and thickness.



Table 2. The results of deflection and moment in x and y directions at the mid of the plate (case one)

	Poisso		Si	mply supported plates				
Thickn	n's	Deflection		Moment at x-		Moment at y-		
ess	ratio	(n	nm)	direction Mx		direction		
t	ν			(kN.m)		My (kN.m)		
(m)		Exact [[] Numeri		Exact [[]	Numeri	Exact [[]	Numeri	
		6,7]	cal*	6,7]	cal*	6,7]	cal*	
	0.25	12.35	12.22	7.43	7.33	12.12	11.04	
0.10	0.30	11.99	11.78	7.97	7.85	12.99	12.78	
	0.35	11.56	11.29	8.51	8.29	13.86	13.57	
	0.25	7.15	6.97	7.43	7.33	12.12	11.05	
0.12	0.30	6.94	6.69	7.97	7.84	12.99	12.77	
	0.35	6.69	6.58	8.51	8.29	13.86	13.57	
0.15	0.25	3.66	3.48	7.43	7.33	12.12	11.04	
	0.30	3.55	3.36	7.97	7.84	12.99	12.78	
	0.35	3.43	3.27	8.51	8.29	13.86	13.57	

^{*} ABAQUS-CAE results

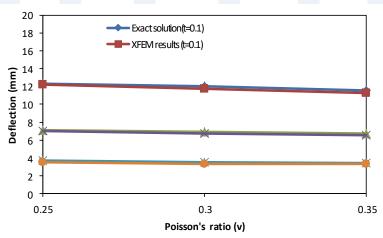


Figure 8. Deflection vs Poisson's ration with different thickness (case one)

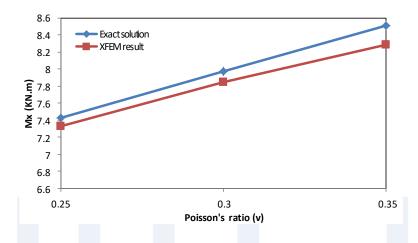


Figure 9. Bending moment (Mx)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case one)

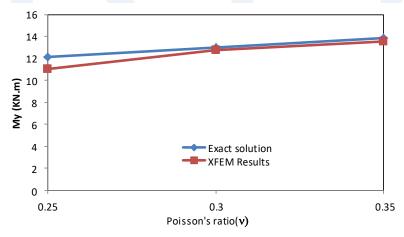


Figure 10. Bending moment (My)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case one)

As shown in table (2) and figures (8,9,10), we observe that bending moments in the both directions x and y increase with increase the value of Poisson's ratio, while the deflection decreases



when Poisson's ratio increases. The increase in the thickness of the plate has a significant impact on the deflection as the amount of deflection decreases with increasing the thickness of the plate.

The values of deflection and bending moments in x and y directions (Mx, My) at the middle of the simply supported plates in short directions and fully clamped in the long directions with the difference of the Poisson's ratio, and The thickness of the plate are shown in Table (3).

Table 3. The results of deflection and moment in x and y directions at the mid of the plate (case two)

	Poisso	plate with two edges simple and the other two clan					
Thickn	n's	Deflection		Moment at x-		Moment at y-	
ess	ratio	(mm)		direction Mx		direction My	
t				(kN.m)		(k N.m)	
(m)		Exact Numeri		Exact	Numeri	Exact	Numeri
		[6,7]	cal*	[6,7]	cal*	[6,7]	cal*
	0.25	3.95	3.76	6.03	5.88	2.69	2.48
0.10	0.30	3.84	3.68	6.5	6.31	2.90	2.74
	0.35	3.70	3.51	7.03	6.89	3.20	2.98
	0.25	2.29	2.11	6.03	5.88	2.69	2.48
0.12	0.30	2.22	2.06	6.5	6.31	2.90	2.74
	0.35	2.14	1.89	7.03	6.89	3.20	2.98
	0.25	1.17	1.01	6.03	5.88	2.69	2.48
0.15	0.30	1.13	0.96	6.5	6.31	2.90	2.74
	0.35	1.10	0.88	7.03	6.89	3.20	2.98

^{*} ABAQUS-CAE results

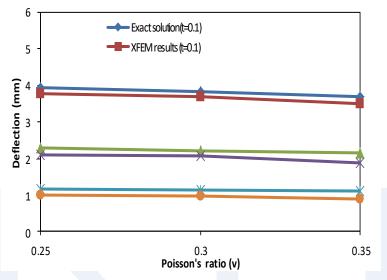


Figure 11. Deflection--Poisson's ration (v) relationship at different thickness (case two)

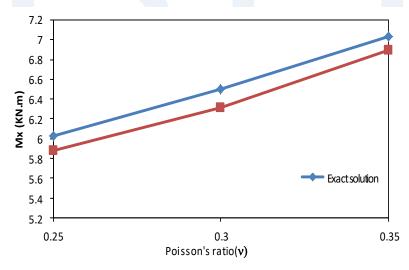


Figure 12. Bending moment (Mx)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case two)

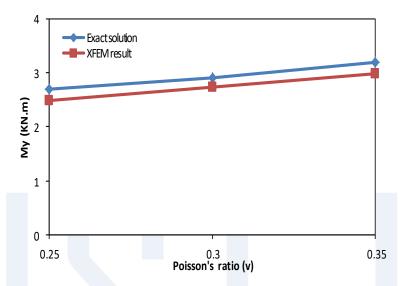


Figure 13. Bending moment (My)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case two)

As shown in Table 3 and Figures (11,12,13) when the boundary conditions of the slab have been changed so that the long direction of the plate is fully fixed, while the short direction is simply supported, the deflection at the middle of the plate reduced about 68% compared to the case one. The result of bending moment in the x-direction was about 50% lower than in the case of the complete clamping of the plate. While it was observed that the bending moment result in the y-direction was about 63% less than the bending moment in the case one.

Table (4) and figures (14, 15, 16) show the deflection and bend moments in the both directions of x and y (Mx, My) at the middle of the fully clamped plates with different of Poisson's ratio and the plate thickness as well.



Table 4. The results of deflection and moment in \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{y} directions at the mid of the plate (case three)

	Poisso		c) All ed	lges clamped plate				
Thickn	n's	Deflection		Moment at x-		Moment at y-		
ess	ratio	(mm)		direction Mx		direction My		
t	ν			(kN.m)		(kN.m)		
(m)		Exact[Numeri		Exact [[]	Numeri	Exact [[]	Numeri	
		6,7]	cal*	6,7]	cal*	6,7]	cal*	
	0.25	3.52	3.11	5.47	5.13	2.98	2.65	
0.10	0.30	3.42	3.04	5.89	5.34	3.25	2.89	
	0.35	3.29	2.96	6.30	5.89	3.49	3.08	
	0.25	2.04	1.89	5.47	5.13	2.98	2.65	
0.12	0.30	1.98	1.68	5.89	5.34	3.25	2.89	
	0.35	1.91	1.53	6.30	5.89	3.49	3.08	
0.15	0.25	1.04	0.89	5.47	5.13	2.98	2.65	
	0.30	1.01	0.85	5.89	5.34	3.25	2.89	
	0.35	0.98	0.79	6.30	5.89	3.49	3.08	

^{*} ABAQUS-CAE results

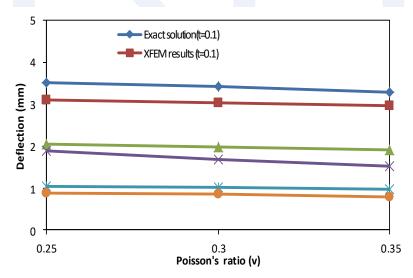


Figure 14. Deflection--Poisson's ration (v) relationship at different thickness (case three)

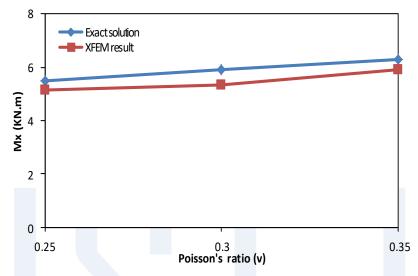


Figure 15. Bending moment (Mx)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case three)

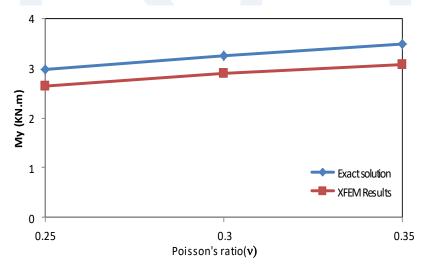


Figure 16. Bending moment (My)-Poisson's ration (v) relationship (case three)



By changing the boundary condition of the plate to fully clamped for all edges, a significant decrease in the deflection and moment in both directions have comparing to simply supported (case one) and partial clamped (case two), where, the results of deflection reduced about 71% compared with case one. The results of bending moments in x-direction decreased about of 33% while the results of the moment in y-direction was 75% less than the results of simple supported case (case one) as shown in table (4) in figures (14,15, and 16).

2) Orthotropic Plates:

In this paper, the orthotropic plates with same three boundary conditions which were applied on the isotropic plates has been studied. Only one case of Poisson's ratio was considered, where, $v_x = 0.3$ and $v_y = 0.2$ as shown in table (5)

Table 5. The results of deflection and moment in x and y directions at the mid of the plate (Orthotropic plate)

Boundar		Orthotropic Plates (t= 0.12, v_x = 0.3, v_y = 0.2)								
\mathbf{y}	Deflection		Mom	ent at x-	Moment at y-					
Conditio	(1	mm)	direc	tion Mx	direction My					
n				N.m)	(kN.m)					
	Exact ^{[6}	Numerica	Exact ^{[6} Numerica		Exact ^{[6}	Numerica				
	,7]	l*	,7]	l*	,7]	l*				
S.S.	9.0	8.35	8.35 8.9		11.3	10.63				
	3.39	3.07	3.81	3.68	6.10	5.89				
	2.80	2.59	3.40	3.27	5.20	4.79				

^{*} ABAQUS-CAE results



By comparing the results of the deflection in the orthotropic plates of the three boundary conditions (Table 5) with the deflection results of the isotropic plates with the same boundary conditions (Tables 2,3,4) when Poisson (vx = 0.3), it's obvious that the results of deflection in the case of orthotropic plates larger than in the case of isotropic plates, this is because the ratio of Poisson in the y-direction in the case of orthotropic plate (vy = 0.2) is lower than that used in the case of isotropic (v = 0.3).

Conclusions:

- 1- By increasing the Poisson's ratio, the bending moment in both directions x, y increase, while the deflection decreases.
- 2- Increase in the thickness of the plate has a significant impact on the deflection, as the amount of deflection decreases with increasing the thickness of the plate.
- 3- Change in the boundary conditions of the plate showed an important effect on the results of the deflection as well as the results of the bending moment in both directions of x, y, for example when the boundary conditions were changed so that the long direction of the plate completely fixed while the short direction simply supported, the result of deflection at the center of the decreased by about 68% compared to the first case (simply support).
- 4- In the case of boundary condition (the long direction of the plate is clamped, while the
- 5- deflection and moments has been observed.
- 6- The ABAQUS-CAE software has proven high ability to modeling the three dimensional plates and getting accurate results.



References:

- [1]. Farhad Riahi, Alaeddin Behravesh, Mikaeil Yousefzadeh Fard, and Arasto Armaghani "Buckling Stability Assessment of Plates with Various Boundary Conditions Under Normal and Shear Stresses" Engineering, Technology & Applied Science Research Vol. 7, No. 5, 2017, 2056-2061.
- [2]. Qiong Wu, Hanjun Gao, Yidu Zhang, and Long Chen "Dynamical analysis of a thin-walled rectangular plate with preload force" Journal of Vibo-engineering, Vol. 19, Isuee 9, 2017, p. 5735-5745.
- [3]. <u>Iuliana Sprintu</u> and <u>Constantin Rotaru</u> "Dynamic behaviour of thin composite plates for different boundary conditions" AIP Conference Proceedings 1637, 1048 (2014) Published Online: 17 February 2015
- [4]. S.J.Rouzegar and M.Mirzaei "Modeling dynamic fracture in Kirchhoff plates and shells using the extended finite element method" <u>Scientia Iranica</u> <u>Volume 20, Issue 1</u>, February 2013, Pages 120-130
- [5]. <u>Daniel W. Zietlow</u>, <u>Donald C. Griffin</u>, and <u>Thomas R. Moore</u> "The limitations on applying classical thin plate theory to thin annular plates clamped on the inner boundary" AIP Advances Volume 2, Issue 4 10.1063/1.4757928 Published Online: 02 October 2012.
- [6]. Elarbi, A. M. "Durability performance of FRP strengthened concrete beams and columns exposed to hygrothermal environment", PhD Dissertation, Wayne State University 2011.
- [7]. Matthew J. P., Nam-Ho Kim; and Timothy Davis "Reanalysis of the Extended Finite Element Method for Crack Initiation and Propagation" 2010 AIAA SDM Student Symposium.



Multiple Response Optimization of (EDM) Parameters Utilizing Fuzzy Logic Integration

¹M. Zabti, ¹S.Ezwawy, ¹Hussein A Masrub, ²M.EM.Abid,

¹M.A Hamel

M.zabti@gmail.com, yousef2322011@gmail.com, Husseinmasrub@gmail.com, Mahmal4365@gmail.com, Mbenhamel@gmail.com

¹Advanced Center of Technology ²Fucltyof Engineering Tripoli University

الملخص

البحث عن أفضل المتغيرات في عمليات التشغيل بالشرر الكهربي, هو أحد الأساليب المستخدمة في قطاع التصنيع للوصول إلى أفضل ظروف التشغيل ، وهو أمر ضروري لتصنيع منتجات عالية الجودة و بتكلفة أقل. في هذا البحث ، تم استخدام (Responses Optimization) لتحسين متغيرات التصنيع بالشرر الكهربائي (EDM) ، وذلك باستخدام التكامل المنطقي الضبابي (Fuzzy logic integration) . حيث أن المدخلات المتغيرة لهذه العملية التي تم اختيارها هي تيار النبضة (Ip) ، ومدة النبضة المعدل إزالة المعدن (MRR) ، ووقت إيقاف النبضة (\$\text{SR}) ، مع استجابة مخرجات متعددة مثل معدل إزالة المعدن (MRR) ، وخشونة السطح (\$\text{SR}) في نفس الوقت. تم استخدام مصفوفة (\$\text{DIN 1.2311}) لتصميم التجارب, وقد أجريت التجارب على صلب العدة (DIN 1.2311) باستخدام قطب كهربائي من النحاس. بعد ذلك تم استخدام طريقة (ANOVA) لتحليل تأثير متغيرات الإدخال على استجابة المخرجات. كشفت نتائج البحث أن الإختيار السليم لمتغيرات الإدخال يلعب دورا مهما في تحسين معدل إزالة المعدن (MRR) و درجة خشونة السطح (\$\text{SR}). ومن خلال هذه النتائج



المتحصل عليها من هذا البحث تم تحسين متغيرات الإدخال بإستخدام (ANOVA) لتحليل تأثير متغيرات الإدخال على استجابة مخرجات التشغيل (MRR) و (SR).

Abstract

Optimization is one of the techniques used in manufacturing sectors to arrive for the best manufacturing conditions, which is an essential need for industries towards manufacturing of quality products at lower cost. In this work, multiple responses optimization of the electric discharge machining (EDM) parameters, utilizing Fuzzy logic integration was used. The process parameters that have been selected are, pulse current (Ip), pulse duration (Ton), and pulse off time (Toff) with output response as Material Removal Rate (MRR), and Surface Roughness (SR). Taguchi experimental design (L9 orthogonal array) was used to formulate the experimental layout and experiments were conducted on Tool steel (1.2311) machined with copper electrode. ANOVA method was used to analysis the influence of EDM input parameters on output response. The input parameters were optimized utilizing Fuzzy logic integration in order to obtain best MRR and SR. The results of the optimization revealed that proper selection of input parameters will play a significant role on MRR and SR.

Keywords: EDM, Fuzzy, Anova, Machining Parameters.

I. INTRODUCTION

EDM Machining is one of the non-conventional machining processes to fabricate very complex products such as forging dies, plastic moulds and sheet metal dies from hard materials that are difficult to machine. Where electrical energy is used to generate



electrical spark and material removal mainly occurs caused by thermal energy of the spark [1]. It is the most commonly and effectively applied machining process for countless work piece materials [2]. Nowadays, Electrical discharge machining (EDM) has grown from a novelty to a majority manufacturing process. Several research efforts have been made for modelling of EDM process and investigating the process performance to improve MRR and SR. Improving the MRR and SR are still challenging problems that limiting the expanded application of EDM [3]. N. Radhika et al (2015), have studied the optimization of input parameters for a better MRR, SR and Tool Wear using Grey Relation Analysis (GRA). Optimization leaded to a single best optimal level of input parameters [3]. Luis et al (2005). have investigated the effects of pulse time, pulse current, open-circuit voltage, duty cycle, and dielectric flushing pressure, on the MRR and other response variable for tungsten carbide work piece [4]. Semi empirical models of MRR for several material work piece and electrode combinations have been presented by Wang and Tsai (2001) [5]. This research work is attempting to optimize the multiple performance characteristics to single optimization characteristics with help of fuzzy logic system.

II. EXPRIMENTAL WORK.

It is well known, that Taguchi method can optimize the machining parameters of performances characteristics in industrial filed, as the Taguchi method is the powerful method of design of experiment [6]. The limitation of Taguchi method that it can only performance the single optimization characteristics [7]. Therefore fuzzy logic system is really needed to deal with multiple quality characteristics. In order to study the effects of various machining parameters on EDM process, a number of experiments were

conducted using Taguchi Experimental Design. Three input parameters (Discharge current (Ip), pulse on time (Ton), and pulse off time (Toff)) have been considered to investigate there effects on MRR, and SR. The work piece material was a cylindrical shaped 1.2311 tool steel, with 10 mm diameter and 20 mm thickness. A cylindrical pure copper with a diameter of 15 mm was used as an electrode. Work piece and electrode are shown in Fig 1.



Fig. 5 (a) Electrode and Workpiece.

Experiments are conducted using RoboForm 2-LC spark Electric Discharge Machine Fig. 1 (c). Machining parameter and their level are shown in the Table 1.For more accurate results, every test runs for 20 min.



Fig. 1 (b) workpiece



Fig. 1 (c) EDM Machine

Table 1 Parameter and their level

Control Parameter						
Parameter Symbol		Level		T T:4		
Farameter	Symbol	1	2	3	Unit	
Discharge	Т	15.5	24	48	Λ	
current	1	15.5	2 4	40	A	



Pulse on Time	t on	3	1200	2400	μs		
THIC							
Pulse off	t off	18	1200	2400	μs		
Time	ι σπ	10	1200	2400	μδ		
Fixed Parameter							
Duty	(%)	00			0/		
Duty Cycle	(ζ)	90			%		
Voltage	V	45			V		
Flashing	En	0.2			Vaf/am2		
Pressure	Fp	0.3			Kgf/cm2		

III. OPTIMIZATION OF MULTIBLE QUALITY CHARISTARITIC

The experimental results are then converted into a signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio to measure the deviation of the resulted characteristics from the desired values. There are three categories of performance characteristics in the analysis of the S/N ratio: the lower-the-better, the higher-the-better, and the nominal-the-better [8]. Hence, the optimal level of the process parameters will be the level with the highest S/N ratio. Besides, ANOVA analysis was performed to detect the process parameters that are statistically significant. As a result, the optimal parameters combination of the process can then be predicted. The output Responses were calculated by MRR and SR. The MRR calculated in terms of weighting the loss of the work piece before and after machining divided on machining time, while surface roughness was measured using ALPA-SM- RT-20 and expressed as a Ra value in microns. All values of MRR and SR are then converted to S/N ratio. For surface roughness, lower value of SR meaning better machining performance, while higher MRR meaning better machining performance. The S/N ratio nijfor



the ith performance characteristic in the jth experiment can be expressed in Equation 1.

$$\eta_{ii} = -10\log_{10}(L_{ii}) \tag{1}$$

Where Lij is the loss function for ith performance characteristic in the jth experiment. The loss function Lij of higher is higher-thebetter, and lower-the-better characteristics is expressed in equation 2, and 3 respectively.

$$L_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{y_{ijk}^2} \tag{2}$$

$$L_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} y_{ijk}^{2} \tag{3}$$

Based on Taguchi design of experiment, the total number of experiment is conduct on L9 Orthogonal Array. The experiment results are tabulated in Table 2.

Fuzzy logic system –

Fuzzy logic has rapidly become one of the most successful of today's technologies for developing sophisticated control systems [9-11]. Fuzzy logic (FL) has been used in many practical engineering applications due to its capability in dealing with imprecise information. The powerful aspect of fuzzy logic is that, it mimics the human decision making with an ability to generate precise solutions from certain or approximate information. Fuzzy systems make its decisions on inputs and outputs in the form of linguistic variables. The variables are tested with IF-THEN rules, which produce one ormore responses depending on which rules



they are asserted. The response of each rule is weighed according to the degree of membership of its inputs and the centroid of the responses is calculated to generate the appropriate output [9].

Figure 2 shows the fuzzy inference system, it is also known as fuzzy rule based system. Fuzzy logic control usually consists of the following stages: Fuzzifier, rule Base, inference engine and defuzzyfier. The fuzzifier uses membership function to fuzzyfy S/N ratios of each performance characteristic. Next the inference engine (Mamdani fuzzy inference system) performs fuzzy reasoning on fuzzy rules to generate a fuzzy value.

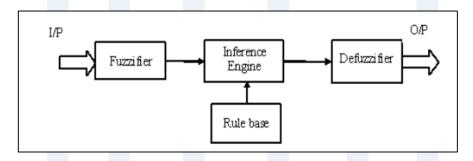


Fig. 2 fuzzy inference system

Finally, the defuzzifier converts fuzzy predicted value into a Multi Performance Characteristic Index (MPCI). The MPCI can be used to find the optimal values of parameters in Electric discharge machining (EDM). To calculate MPCI in the fuzzy inference system (FIS), various membership functions (MFs) have been assigned to the input variables i.e., normalized S/N ratio of surface roughness (SR) and normalized S/N ratio of the Material Removal Rate (MRR). The membership functions selected for input variables are "small", "Medium" and "large" as shown in Figure 3-4.

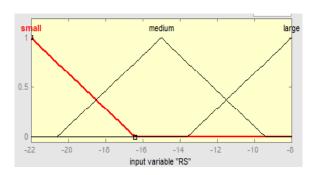


Fig.3 Membership function of SR

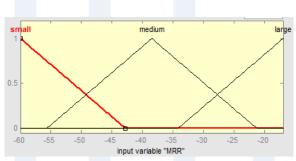


Fig. 4 Membership Function of MRR

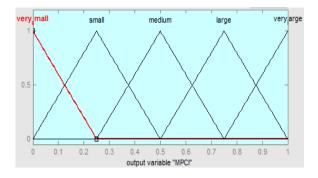


Fig.5 Membership function of MPCI



Five membership functions have been selected for MPCI: "Very small", "Small", "Medium", "Large" and "Very Large" as shown in Figure 5.

Table 2: The S/N ratio for the machining responses, and MPCI.

								S/N	S/N	
Run	i	t off	t on	Wb	Wa	SR	MRR	Ratio(SR)	Ratio(MRR)	MPCI
1	15.5	18	2	39.2	39	2.66	.0125	-8.4976	-38.0617	<u>0.75</u>
2	15.5	1200	800	40.16	40	3.383	.0008	-10.586	-41.9382	0.68
3	15.5	2400	1600	39.29	39.1	4.355	.0095	-12.78	-40.4455	0.55
4	24	18	800	40.05	39.47	8.56	.029	-18.65	-30.7520	0.45
5	24	1200	1600	39.04	38.83	3.113	.0105	-9.8636	-39.5762	0.72
6	24	2400	2	39.25	39.23	2.861	.0025	-9.1304	-60	0.50
7	48	18	1600	39.97	37.21	12.4233	.138	-21.885	-17.2024	0.50
8	48	1200	2	40.12	40.1	3.481	.001	-10.834	-60	0.41
9	48	2400	800	40.14	38.7	6.1033	.072	-15.711	-22.8533	0.72

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSION.

Utilizing Fuzzy logic integration, the experimental results are then converted into MPCI. The S/N ratio for the machining responses and their normalized values are shown in table 2.

Analysis of Variance [ANOVA].

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is presented in table 3&4, which indicates the process parameters that significantly affect the performance characteristics. ANOVA analysis is accomplished by separating thetotal variability of the MPCI, which is measured by the sum of the squared deviations from the total mean of the MPCI, into contributions by each of the process parameter and the error. In addition, the F-test determines which process parameters have a significant effect on the performance characteristic. Usually, the change of the process parameter has a significant



effect on the performance characteristic when the F value is large. [10]

Table. 3 the analysis of variance [ANOVA] for S/N Ratio(SR) versus i; t off; t on

Factor	df	SS	MS	F	% Contribution
I	2	47.14	23.568	3.42	27.13
t off	2	53.93	26.965	3.91	31.04
t on	2	58.89	29.447	4.27	33.89
Residual Error	2	13.80	6.900		7.94
Total	8	173.76			100.0

Table. 4 the analysis of variance[ANOVA] for S/N ratio(MRR) versus I; t off; t on.

Factor	df	SS	MS	F	% Contribution
I	2	158.9	79.44	1.00	9.36
t off	2	533.5	266.77	3.34	31.42
t on	2	845.8	422.92	5.30	49.82
Residual Error	2	159.6	79.78		9.40
Total	8	1697.8			100.00

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the percentage contribution of Discharge Current (I), Pulse-off -Time (t off) and Pulse-on -Time (t on) influencing the surface roughness (SR) performance characteristics were 27.13 %, 31.04 % and 33.89 %, respectively, while the percentage contribution of Discharge Current (I), Pulse-off -Time (t off) and Pulse-on -Time (t on) influencing the metal removing rate (MRR) performance characteristics were 9.36 %, 31.42 % and 49.82 %, respectively as shown in table 3&4.



Based on the ANOVA (Table 3&4), it was found that, pulse on time (t on) was the most significant machining parameter impressing multiple performance characteristics.

V. CONCLUSION.

This paper has presented the use of fuzzy logic for optimization of the EDM process with multiple performance characteristics. The following factor settings have been identified as to yield the best combination of process variables :I = 15A, t on = 2 μ s, t off = 18 μ s. The performance characteristics such as MRR and SR can be improved through this approach.

VI. REFRENCES.

- [1].G. Venkateswarlu*, P. Devaraj "Optimization of Machining Parameters in WireEDM of Copper Using Taguchi Analysis"International Journal of Advanced Materials Research Vol. 1, No. 4, 2015, pp. 126-131
- [2]. Snoeys, R., Staelens, F., and Dekeyser, W. Current trends in nonconventional material removal processes. Ann. CIRP, 1986, 35(2):467 480.
- [3].N. Radhika et al "Multi-Objective Optimization of EDM Parameters Using Grey Relation Analysis". Journal of Engineering Science and Technology Vol. 10, No. 1 (2015) 1 11
- [4].Luis C.J., Puertas I., Villa G., Material Removal Rate and electrode wear study on the EDM of silicon carbide, Journal of Materials Processing Technology 2005,164–165, pp.889–896.
- [5]. Wang P.J.; Tsai K.M, Semi-empirical model on work removal and tool wear in Electrical Discharge Machining, Journal of



- Materials Processing Technology, 2001, Volume-114, Issue 1, pp. 1-17.
- [6].Ross P J. Taguchi techniques for quality engineering. McGraw-Hill,Newyork, 1988.
- [7].Lin J.L. and Lin C.L. The use of grey-fuzzy logic for the optimization of the manufacturing process, Journal of Materials Processing Technology, 2005, 160 pp.9–14.
- [8]. Puri and Deshpande. Simultaneous optimization of multiple quality characteristics of WEDM based on fuzzy logic and Taguchi technique, Proceedings of the Fifth Asia Pacific Industrial Engineering and Management Systems Conference, 2004.
- [9].Multiple Performance Characteristic Optimization in Turning of GFRP Composites Using
- [10]. Optimisation of EDM Process with Fuzzy Logic

 Technique.Fuzzy Logic, Syed

 AltafHussainPandurangadu.V,Palanikumar.K.
- [11]. Ching-Han Chen et al "Fuzzy Logic Controller Design for Intelligent Robots" Mathematical Problems in Engineering. 2017. 1-12.

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



Numerical Analysis of Structural Design for Electrical Transmission Line Tower

Abdulbasit S. Alkharbash¹, Alhadi A. Abosbaia^{1,2}

Faculty of Engineering, University of Zawia, Libya¹
School of Aerospace and Automotive Engineering, International
University Rabat, Morocco²
E-mail: drabosbaia@zu.edu.ly

L-man. drabosbara@zu.cdu.i

Abstract

Transmission lines towers are the most important life line structures which transmits the power from electricity source production to different places for several purposes. Transmission lines towers carry a heavy electrical transmission conductor at a safe enough height from ground. In addition to the tower weight, it must withstand all the natural forces such as; strong wind, earthquake and snow load. Therefore, transmission line towers should be designed considering for both structural and electrical to meet the minimum requirements of safe and economic design. The present work investigates the tower structural integrity through the determination of maximum stresses and deflections. In this study, the tower's parameters, such as height, width, wind speed, dead load and angle section are considered as a constant value and analyzed using a general finite element package, Ansys17.2 software. Model material used is mild steel with ultimate strength of 345MPa. Results show a maximum deflection of 3.5 mm located at the tower's tip which is relatively logical and the maximum Von Misses stress value of 311MPa. This gives a substantial safety margin for the tower structure.

Keywords: Transmission lines towers, tower structural integrity, wind load, Ansys17.2.



الملخص

ابراج نقل الطاقة الكهربائية تقوم بنقل الطاقة والمجمعات الكهربائية على ارتفاع كاف وامن من سطح الارض. بالإضافة الى وزن البرج، وعلى البرج ان يتحمل جميع القوى والظروف الطبيعية مثل الرياح القوية والاعاصير والثلوج والزلازل. لهذا يجب ان تصمم الابراج لتحمل الاحمال الكهربائية والهيكلية على السواء تصميما امنا واقتصادي. في هذه الدراسة سيتم تأكد من سلامة تصميم البرج عن طريق تحديد قيم إجهادات القصوى وكذلك التشوه الناتج من الاحمال المطبقة على البرج. تم فرض في هذه الدراسة ان متغيرات البرج المتمثلة في ارتفاع وعرض ووزن البرج وكذلك سرعة واتجاه الرياح ثابتة وتم تحليلهم باستخدام برنامج (ANSYS 17.2). تم استخدام فولاذ متوسط الكربون كمعدن البرج عند النمذجة حيث كانت لها اجهاد خضوع قدره 345 ميغاباسكال. وضحت النتائج ان اقصى تشوه كان عند قمة البرج بتشوه قيمته 5.5ملم وكانت اقصى اجهاد فونمايسيس قيمته 113ميغاباسكال مما يدل على سلامة تصميم البرج وبهامش المان جيد.

1. Introduction

For many countries, transmission tower networks play a crucial role in the infrastructure system of many countries throughout the world. In transmission networks, the transmission towers are the primary component since electric wires need to be placed at high enough distance from the ground for safety, especially since transmission tower carry high voltages for long distances. However, since transmission towers need to be high enough from the ground, they are subject to large loads, especially loads from the towers weight and the wind subjected on the tower. Therefore, the structural integrity of the tower is vital to avoid tower failure, which in turn can cause severe economic losses as well as loss in life.

Due to its importance, several researches have been directed towards investigating the structural integrity of transmission العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



towers via numerous methods [1-3], while other studies studied the evaluation of aerodynamic coefficients for various types of transmission towers and various loads [4-6]

1.1 Loads on Transmission Structures

Prevailing practice and most laws require that transmission lines be designed, as a minimum, to meet the requirements of the local safety code. Each country has its own safety code, however, in this paper only the national electrical safety code (NESC) and the American society of civil engineers (ASCE) guide used in the United States will be discussed.

NESC's rules for the selection of loads and overload capacity factors are specified to establish a minimum acceptable level of safety. The ASCE Guide for Electrical Transmission Line Structural Loading (ASCE Guide) provides loading guidelines for extreme ice and wind loads as well as security and safety loads. These guidelines use reliability based procedures and allow the design of transmission line structures to incorporate specified levels of reliability depending on the importance of the structure.

Once the external loads acting on the tower are determined, one proceeds with an analysis of the forces in various members with a view to fixing up their sizes. Since axial force is the only force for a truss element, the member has to be designed for either compression or tension. When there are multiple load conditions, certain members may be subjected to both compressive and tensile forces under different loading conditions. Reversal of loads may also induce alternate nature of forces; hence these members are to be designed for both compression and tension. The total force acting on any individual member under the normal condition and also under the broken- wire condition is multiplied by the corresponding factor of safety, and it is ensured that the values are within the permissible ultimate strength of the particular steel used.



Load calculations

1.2. Load calculation using NESC code

NESC code recognizes three loading districts for ice and wind loads which are designated as heavy, medium, and light loading. The radial thickness of ice and the wind pressures specified for the loading districts are shown in Table (1). Ice build-up is considered only on conductors and shield wires, and is usually ignored on the structure. Ice is assumed to weigh 57 lb/ft^3 . The windpressure applies to cylindrical surfaces such as conductors. On the flat surface of a lattice tower member, the wind force is applied on both the windward and leeward faces of a lattice tower.

Table 1: The radial thickness of ice and the wind pressures specified for the loading districts

PARAMETERS	LOA	LOADING DISTRICTS			
	Heavy	Medium	Light		
RADIAL THICKNESS OF	0.5	025	0		
ICE (IN.)					
HORIZONTAL WIND	4	9			
PRESSURE (LB/ ft^2)					
TEMPERATURE (F)	0	15	30		

NESC also requires structures to be designed for extreme wind loading corresponding to 50-year fastest mile wind speed with no ice loads considered. This provision applies to all structures without conductors, and structures over 60 ft supporting conductors. The extreme wind speed varies from a basic speed of 70 mph to 110 mph in the coastal areas.

In addition, NESC requires that the basic loads be multiplied by overload capacity factors to determine the design loads on structures. Overload capacity factors make it possible to assign



relative importance to the loads instead of using various allowable stresses for different load conditions.

Overload capacity factors specified in NESC have a larger value for wood structures than those for steel and prestressed concrete structures. This is due to the wide variation found in wood strengths and the aging effect of wood caused by decay and insect damage. In the 1990 edition, NESC introduced an alternative method, where the same overload factors are used for all the materials, but a strength reduction factor is used for wood [3].

1.2. Load calculation using ASCE guide

The ASCE Guide specifies extreme ice and extreme wind loads, based on a 50-year return period, which are assigned a reliability factor of 1. These loads can be increased if an engineer wants to use a higher reliability factor for an important line, for example a long line, or a line which provides the only source of load. The load factors used to increase the ASCE loads for different reliability factors are given in Table 2.

Table 2: The load factors used to increase the ASCE loads for different reliability factors

uniterent renability factors				
LINE RELIABILITY	1	2	4	8
FACTOR, LRF				
LOAD RETURN	50	100	200	400
PERIOD, RP				
CORRESPONDING	1.0	1.15	1.3	1.4
LOAD FACTOR				

In calculating wind loads, the effects of terrain, structure height, wind gust, and structure shape are included. These effects are explained in detail in the ASCE Guide. ASCE also recommends that the ice loads be combined with a wind load equal to 40% of the extreme wind load.



2. Loads on structure

Longitudinal loads may occur on the structures due to accidental events such as broken conductors and insulators, or collapse of an adjacent structure in the line due to an environmental event such as a tornado. Regardless of the triggering event, it is important that a line support structure be designed for a suitable longitudinal loading condition to provide adequate resistance against cascading type failures in which a larger number of structures fail sequentially in the longitudinal direction or parallel to the line. For this reason, longitudinal loadings are sometimes referred to as "anti-cascading", "failure containment", or "security loads".

In addition to the weather related loads, transmission line structures are designed for special loads that consider security and safety aspects of the line. These include security loads for preventing. Cascading type failures of the structures and construction and maintenance loads that are related to personnel safety.

There are two basic methods for reducing the risk of cascading failures, depending on the type of structure, and on local conditions and practices. These methods are [8]:

- 1- Design all structures for broken wire loads.
- 2- Install stop structures or guys at specified intervals.

Loads are calculated on the structures in three directions: vertical, transverse, and longitudinal. The transverse load is perpendicular to the line and the longitudinal loads act parallel to the line [9].

2.1 Vertical Loads

The vertical load on supporting structures consists of the weight of the structure plus the superimposed weight, including all wires, ice coated where specified.

Vertical load of wire $V\omega$ in (lb/ft) is given by the following equations:



$$V_{\omega} = W_{wire} + 1.24(d+I)I \tag{1}$$

Where:

Wwire = weight of wire (lb/ft)

d = diameter of wire (in.)

I = ice thickness (in.)

Vertical wire load on structure (F_v) in (lb) is given by the following equation:

$$F_v = V\omega \times vertical\ design\ span \times load\ factor$$
 (2)

Vertical design span is the distance between low points of adjacent spans and is indicated in Figure 1.

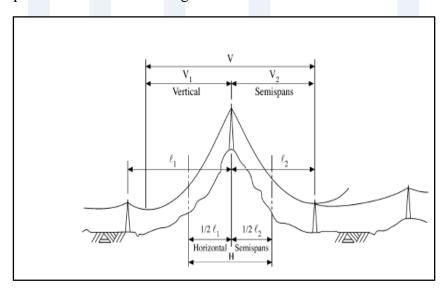


Figure 1: Vertical design span is the distance between low points of adjacent spans and is indicated.

2.2 Transverse Loads

Transverse loads are caused by wind pressure on wires and structure, and the transverse component of the line tension at angles.



2.3 Wind Load on Wires

The transverse load due to wind on the wire is given by the following equations:

$$W_h = P \times \frac{d}{12} \times Horizontal \, Span \times OCF \, (without \, ice) \tag{3}$$

$$W_h = P \times \frac{(d+2I)}{12} \times Horizontal \, Span \times OCF \, (with ice)$$
 (4)

Where:

 W_h = transverse wind load on wire (lb).

P=wind pressure (lb/ft^2).

d= diameter of wire (in).

I= radial thickness of ice (in).

OCF=Overload Capacity Factor.

2.4 Transverse Load Due to Line Angle

Where a line changes direction, the total transverse load on the structure is the sum of the transverse wind load and the transverse component of the wire tension. The transverse component of the tension may be of significant magnitude, especially for large angle structures. To calculate the total load, a wind direction should be used which will give the maximum resultant load considering the effects on the wires and structure.

The transverse component of wire tension on the structure is given by the following equation:

$$H = 2T\sin\frac{\theta}{2} \tag{5}$$

Where,

H=transverse load due to wire tension in pounds

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



T=transverse load due to wire tension in pounds=wire tension in pounds θ = Line angle in degrees

2.5 Wind Load on Structures

Wind possesses kinetic energy by virtue of its velocity and mass, which is transformed into potential energy of pressure when a structure obstructs the path of wind. Natural wind itself is neither steady nor uniform; it varies along the dimensions of the structures as well as with time. When the complete assembly of the lattice structures is considered, wind forces on different members of the structure are only partially correlated and time varying.

In addition to the wire load, structures are subjected to wind loads acting on the exposed areas of the structure. The wind force coefficients on lattice towers depend on shapes of member sections, solidity ratio, angle of incidence of wind (face-on wind or diagonal wind), and shielding. Methods for calculating wind loads on transmission structures are given in the ASCE Guide as well the NESC code [9].

2.6 Longitudinal Loading

There are several conditions under which a structure is subjected to longitudinal loading:

Deadened Structures —These structures are capable of withstanding the full tension of the conductors and shield wires or combinations thereof, on one side of the structure.

Stringing— Longitudinal load may occur at any one phase or shield wire due to a hang-up in the blocks during stringing. The longitudinal load is taken as the stringing tension for the complete phase (i.e., all sub conductors strung simultaneously) or a shield wire. In order to avoid any pre-stressing of the conductors, stringing tension is typically limited to the minimum tension



required to keep the conductor from touching the ground or any obstructions. Based on common practice and according to the IEEE "Guide to the Installation of Overhead Transmission Line Conductors" stringing tension is generally about one-half of the sagging tension. Therefore, the longitudinal stringing load is equal to 50% of the initial, unloaded tension at 60F [10].

Longitudinal Unbalanced Load—Longitudinal unbalanced forces can develop at the structures due to various conditions on the line. In rugged terrain, large differentials in adjacent span lengths, combined with inclined spans, could result in significant longitudinal unbalanced load under ice and wind conditions. Non-uniform loading of adjacent spans can also produce longitudinal unbalanced loads. This load is based on an ice shedding condition where ice is dropped from one span and not the adjacent spans [9].

3. Result Analysis and Discussion

Transmission line towers contribute to large percentage of transmission line project total cost. Electricity become a major source of power for industries, commercial and residential use. Due to rapid growth in industrial area and because of infrastructure development, the need for electricity increases. Because of lesser cost, electricity is now being used for rail transportation in place of fuel powered engines. Therefore, its required to transmit the high voltage to the area in need, that requires the installation of transmission line towers to carry extra high voltage.

The towers which stands on its own without the help of external support is known as a free standing or self-supporting tower or rigid tower. Self-supporting tower is usually of lattice construction and it is commonly adopted throughout the world. These towers are sufficiently rigid, suitable for multi circuit and compact line and the only type used for angle and special type towers. They can be tailor made to any ground condition.



3.1 Tower description and finite element model

The nonlinear finite element analysis program ANSYS is utilized in this work for evaluating the performance of the space frame, considering the material nonlinearity and geometric straightening of towers. For the numerical analysis, a lattice steel tower is considered as shown in Figure 2 the tower has a total height of 40 m with a 10 m \times 10 m square base area. The leg and diagonal members in the tower are steel pipes and the bracing members are steel bars with L-shape. Modeling the tower members using beam elements provides better numerical accuracy of nonlinear responses than those using truss elements. Each member of the transmission tower is modeled by truss elements which is based on Timoshenko beam theory considering shear deformation effects.

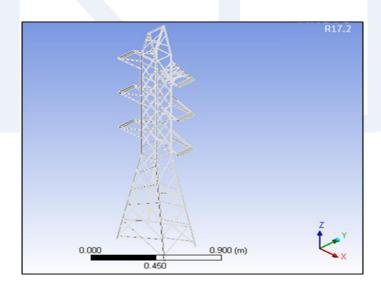


Figure 2: Tower Model Considered for analysis

The elasto-plastic property of the steel material is represented by a bilinear kinematic model, with the elastic modulus of $2.1 \times 10^5 MPa$



up to yield and 258MPa after yielding. The finite element (FE) model consists of 9939 nodes and 22536 elements, which is shown in Fig (3). The analysis of idealized configuration models is performed to obtain the pre-ultimate behavior and the limit loads of the transmission tower.

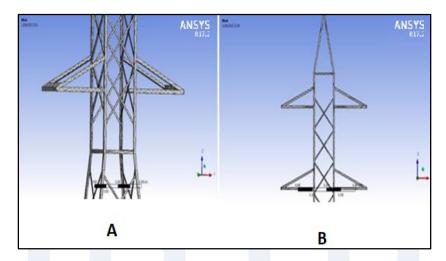


Figure 3: Tower A and Tower B structure Mesh

4.2 Model material Property

The material used in analysis of tower is structural steel that has the properties presented in the table (3) and the tower specifications are presented in Table 4:

Table3: Model material properties

POISSON'S RATION	0.3
DENSITY	$7850 \text{ Kg/}m^3$
MODULUS OF ELASTICITY	2.1×10 ⁵ MPa
ULTIMATE TENSILE STRENGTH	345 MPa
YIELD STRENGTH	258 MPa



Table 4: Tower Specifications

Tuble it Tower Specifications					
TOWER SPECIFICATIONS					
TOWER HEIGHT	40 m				
WIDTH AT BASE	10m				
TOWER TYPE	self-supporting type				
TOWER GEOMETRY	square base geometry				
TERRAIN TYPE CONSIDERED	Plain				
MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE	75C				
BASIC WIND SPEED	50 m/s				
BASIC WIND PRESSURE	1600 N/m ²				
STEEL USED	Mild steel				

4.3 Loads specification

The consideration loads acting on the tower are:

- Wind load, calculated based on assumed wind speed
- Dead Load. Self-weight of the tower.
- Wire loads.

Acting wind pressure considered in this analysis was based on a 50m/s wind speed which was determined to be 1600 N/m², the wind pressure was determined based on the following parameters, terrain category, risk coefficient, terrain roughness coefficient, reliability level and design wind speed.

• Indian standard IS875-1987 and IS802(part1/sec1) 1995 [13]:

$$P = 0.6(V_d)^2 (6)$$

Where:

P is pressure.

V_{dis} Basic wind speed.

• British standard Institution:part 2:1972 :

$$q = 0.613(V_d)^2 (7)$$



Where:

 $\begin{array}{l} q \ is \ pressure. \\ V_{dis} \ Basic \ wind \ speed. \end{array}$

• American standard ASCE-7-05

$$q_z = 0.613K_z \times K_{zt} \times K_d \times I \times d^2 \tag{8}$$

Where:

qz is pressure.

 d^2 is Basic wind speed.

Kz ,Kzt, Kd, I, constant from ASCE-7-05 tables at Basic wind speed $50 \text{ m} \setminus s$ [13]:

I= Importance factor =1

Kd=0.85

Kzt=1.2

Kz=1

From equation, pressure = 1600 N/m^2 . Applied loads for tower weight, wind and inertia load are shown in figures (4) and (5) respectively.

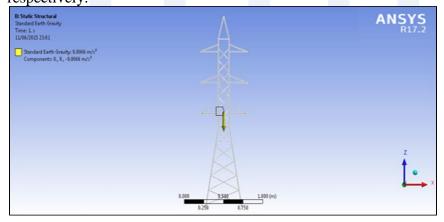


Figure 4: Acting Inertial Load

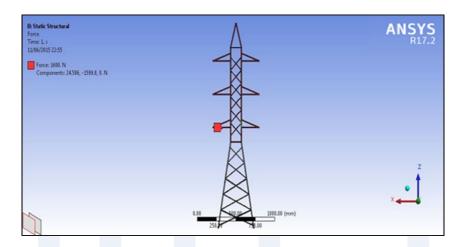


Figure 5: illustrates the direction of acting wind pressure on tower structure

The area indicated with red color is subjected to wind pressure loading of 1600N/m². Figure 6 illustrates the direction of wind load.

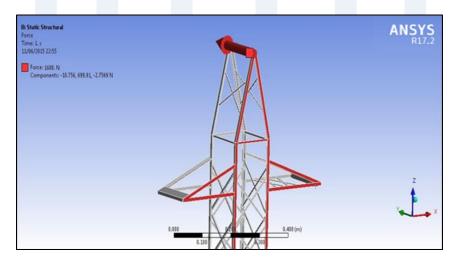


Figure 6: Direction of acting wind pressure



4.4 Stress and Permissible Deflections Results

The parameters considered in this study are maximum stresses and maximum deflections resulted from inertia loads, conductors and wires loads and wind pressure loading. Assuming that there is no shifting of the foundation, the deflection of the top of the support in the longitudinal direction from the vertical should not exceed the following limit indicated by several references which is "For small angle and straight line structures with strain insulators (1/100) H).

The maximum deformation value is 3.5 mm and is Located at the tower's tip. The location of maximum deflection agrees with common sense as the wind speed at higher elevation is higher and the structure at that place is not as strongly supported as other places of the tower. Figure 7, illustrates the total deformation across the tower.

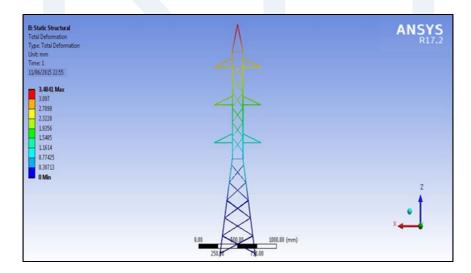


Figure 7: Total deformation across tower

The maximum von Misses stress obtained in this analysis was 36Mpa located at the middle of the tower and this might be due to



the contribution of inertia load which modeled to be at the center of gravity of the tower and is shown in Figure (8).

Maximum shear stress is presented in Figure (9), with a value of 180MPa which resulted from wind pressure load acting in the upper half of the tower and lower part is none (fixed).

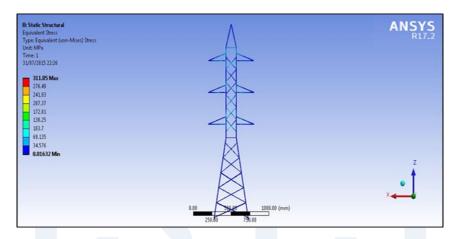


Figure 8: Equivalent Von-Mises stress across tower

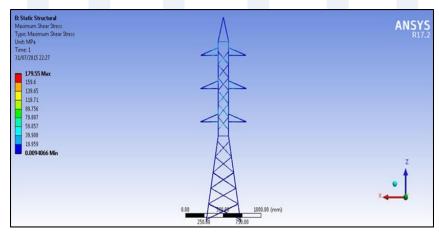


Figure 9: Maximum shear stresses across tower



4.5 Conclusion

In this study the structural integrity of a transmission tower was investigated numerically using different loads. Based on the results obtained the following conclusions can be made:

- 1- Static analysis of tower structure subjected to wind pressure of 1600N/m² and inertial load had produced an acceptable deformation of 3.5mm.
- 2- Von Misses stresses resulted from wires, wind loadings and inertia loading are within reasonable levels.
- 3- F.S developed is 1.4 which is within the range of this tower class.

References

- [1].Falguni Patel, , Issue 11, 2017, Unnati Bhagat, Dimple Desai, "A Review on Buckling Analysis of Lattice Transmission Tower", International Journal of Advance Engineering and Research Development, Vol. 4, Issue 11, 2017, pp.494-498.
- [2].Parashuram Hadimani, Sachin Kulkarni, 2017, "Staticand Dynamic Analysis of Trasmission Line Tower", International Journal of Emerging Research in Management & Technology, Volume-6, Issue-2, 2017.
- [3]. Pasupuleti. Murahari krishna, G.Ganesh Naidu, 2016, "dynamic analysis of electrical transmission tower using Finite element Technique", International Journal of Engineering Research, Vol.4., Issue.5., 2016
- [4].C. Bayar, Demirtas, 1986, "Drag Coefficients of Latticed Towers", Journal of Structural Engineering-asce J STRUCT ENG-ASCE. 112. 10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9445112:2(417), 1986.
- [5]. Sykes, D.M, 1981, "Lattice frames in turbulent airflow", Journal of Wind Engineering and Industrial Aerodynamics, Vol. 7, 203-214, 1981.
- [6].Mara, T.G, 2014, Influence of Solid Area Distribution on the Drag of a Two-Dimensional Lattice Frame. Journal of



- Engineering Mechanics. 10.1061/(ASCE)EM.1943-7889.0000681, Pa 644-649, 2014.
- [7].Ashraf Albawaleez, 2018, A Brief About Overhead Power Transmission Lines (OHTL) (Part 1 OHTL supports), Retrieved April 29, 2018.
- [8].Seshu, P. 2012, Text book of finite element analysis. New Delhi, India: PHI Learning Private Limited, 2012.
- [9].Ch. Sudheer, K. Rajashekar, P. Padmanabha Reddy, Y. BhargavaGopi Krishna, 2013, "Analysis And Design Of 220kv Transmission Line Tower In Different Zones I & V With Different Base Widths A Comparative Study, "international journal of technology enhancements and emerging engineering research, vol 1, issue 4-35, 2013.
- [10]. Fang, S. J., Roy, S. and Kramer, J., 1999, "Transmission Structures" Structural Engineering Handbook, Boca Raton: CRC Press LLC, 1999.
- [11]. American Society of Civil Engineers, 2000, Design of latticed steel transmission structures, ASCE Standard 10-97, ISBN 0-7844-0324-4, section C2.3, 2000.



Shape Optimization of a Hollow Cantilever Beam for Weight Minimization Using Finite Element Method

Alhadi A. Abosbaia^{1,2}, Mohammed Jolgaf³

Faculty of Engineering, University of Zawia, Libya¹
School of Aerospace and Automotive Engineering, International
University Rabat, Morocco², Engineering Academy Tajoura, Libya³
E-mail: drabosbaia@zu.edu.ly, alhadi.abosbaia@uir.ac.ma

الملخص:

تلعب العوامل الهندسية للعارضة الكابولية، مثل الأبعاد الهندسية والحجم والوزن والمادة المصنعة ، دورًا مهمًا في تحديد وظيفة العارضة وإمكانية استخدامها. حيث تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى الحصول على الأبعاد المقطعية المثلى للعتبة الكابولية المجوفة عند تعرضها لحمل ثابت من أجل تحقيق الأبعاد المثالي بأقل وزن بحيث يبقي مجموع الإجهاد المكافئ أقل بقليل من الحد الأقصى لإجهاد الخضوع (Yield stress)، علما بأن إجهاد الخضوع للصلب هو (250MPa). تم استخدام برنامج العناصر المحدودة التجارية (ANSYS R17.2) لمحاكاة العتبة الكابولية المربّعة على المحدودة التجارية (400 كلية والمصنوع من الصلب والمعرضة لحمل ثابت من أحدى نهايتها بقوة مقدارها (400 ومثبته من النهاية الأخرى. تم استخدام تقنية تحسين التصميم لاستكشاف تأثير الأبعاد المستعرضة مثل الطول والعرض والسمك ونصف قطر التعبئة الداخلية للعتبة. من الدراسة, تم تغيير الحد الأقصى من الإجهاد المكافئ (Geometry Mass) والتشوه الكلي (Total Deflection) في حوالي 30.75 % و 67.45 % على التوالي.



Abstract

Cantilever beam geometrical parameters such as, dimensions, volume, weight, and material play significant role in defining the beam function and where it might be used. The present study is to obtain optimal cross section dimensions of a hollow square cantilever beam subjected to static load in order to accomplish the ideal structure with minimum weight and maximum strength. Commercial finite element software (ANSYS R17.2) was used for simulating the hollow square cantilever beam made of steel subjected to static load at free end and supported at the another end. Design Optimization technique was used to investigate the effect of cross-sectional dimensions such as height, width, thickness and filet radius of flange; on beam weight in order to withstand the exerted load yet with minimum material keeping the maximum equivalent stress just below the stress, $(\sigma_v < 250 \text{MPa})$. Maximum equivalent stress, geometry mass and total deformation are changed (reduction) in about 30.75%, 22.89% and 67.45% respectively.

Keywords: Optimization technique, Iteration sets, Cantilever beam, hollow square cross section, Finite element method.

Introduction

Several challenges are facing engineers concerning designing a product or system with low cost, low weight and good performance. The optimum design of the product depends on the selection of the material, geometry, and manufacturing process in order to meet design requirements and maximize its performance and minimize its cost [1, 3]. Numerical methods for shape optimization problems have been used for a long time. The first



challenge for shape optimization was carried out by Galileo in 1938, who found the minimum weight of a cantilever parabolic beam by developing a mathematical formulation for shape optimization [4]. Structural optimization is a significant technique for designers to tailor a structure for a specific required performance level[5]. The objective of shape optimization in the current study is to minimize the weight of the part to produce a lighter, stronger and lower cost product in shorter time. This optimization technique is performed by ANSYS Optimizer in an iterative procedure in order to obtain the optimum part shape that withstands the same maximum load as the original product [6]. Many studies of design optimization using finite element analytically were carried out for construction and mechanical parts, such as cantilever beams, connecting rods, transmission shafts etc. [5-7]. Analysis and optimizing a bus frame structure using Finite Element Method in dynamic conditions was carried out by Ismoyo and et al. [8]. The results show that the structural weight of the bus frame can be reduced by about 8% without changing its dynamic characteristics.

In this present work, the commercial finite element software (e.g. ANSYS software) is used to simulate the hollow square cantilever beam. The cantilever beam is supported from one of its ends, and subjected to a static load of 640N at free end. A series of optimization iterations were carried out using Design Optimization algorithm to improve the design by changing the design variables, in order to meet the optimal design dimensions, for a particular objective function which is in this case minimum weight.

Methodology and finite Element Modelling

Several optimization techniques have been developed to integrate geometry design and material selection, consequently reducing



time and cost. ANSYS Workbench finite element modeling software was used to simulate a hollow cantilever squarebeam with 800 mm length made of steel. Its subjected to a static load of 640N at its free end. Figure 1 shows the boundary conditions and initial geometry constraints of the beam.

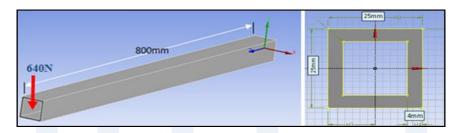


Figure 6: Boundary conditions and initial geometry constraints of the beam.

Finite Element Modeling and Analysis

To make sure that the numerical model is correct, the finite element results should be compared to the analytical solution as follow;

Analytical solution:

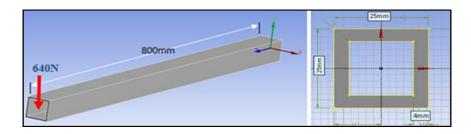


Figure 6: Boundary conditions and initial geometry constraints of the beam.



shows the cantilever beam loaded by 640N at the free end, then calculated the stress and deflection using the following equations [9].

Stress at the support end (must be constant cross section)

$$\sigma = \frac{F\ell}{Z} \tag{1}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{640 \times 800}{2047.36} = 250.1 \text{MPa}$$

Deflection at the free end

$$\delta = \frac{F\ell^3}{3EI} \tag{2}$$

$$\delta = \frac{640 \times 800^3}{3 \times 210000 \times 25592} = 20.32 \text{mm}$$

Where

E= Modulus of elasticity (N/mm²) = 210000 N/mm²

I=Moment of inertia $(mm^4) = 25592mm^4$

F=Load(N) = 640 N

 σ =Stress (N/mm²)

 δ =Deflection (mm)

 ℓ =Length of the beam as indicated (mm) = 800 mm

Z= Section modulus of the cross section of the beam $Z=I/y (mm^3)$

y = Distance from neutral axis to edge (mm) =12.5 mm $Z=2047.36 \text{ mm}^3$



Finite element solution

ANSYS workbench static structural tool box is used to build the model and apply the boundary condition and then view the results and compare it to the analytical results. Numerical model of the cantilever beam has been built using ANSYS workbench static structural tool. The results of the maximum value of Von Mises stress and the maximum deflection values were compared with the analytical solution. Figure 2 shows the finite element result of Von Mises equivalent stress distribution through the beam length. The maximum value of Von Mises stress located at the support is σ =258.54MPa, which is higher than the yield strength of the material of the beam (Steel A036) (250MPa). Figure 3 shows the finite element result of the beam deflection, with maximum value of 21.00mm at the free end of the cantilever beam. Analytical and finite element results are listed in Table 2, where it can be seen that these results are compatible with each other.

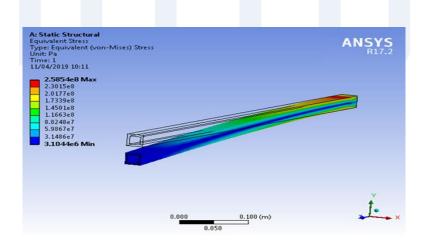


Figure 7: Equivalent stress distribution for the initial set.

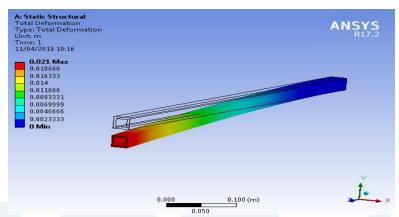


Figure 8:Beam Deflection for the initial set.

Table 2: Comparison numerical and analytical results of the initial geometry.

	Analytical Result	FEA Results	% Error
Max Equivalent stress	250	258.54	-3.42%
Maximum Deflection	20.32	21.00	-3.35%

Optimization process

Double stage optimization process was conducted in this work using ANSYS optimization algorithm. The design variables, the constraints and the objective function were defined to avoid critical situation, yet keeping minimum weight [7]. The first optimization stage was carried out to get the optimal dimensions (width & height), starting with initial dimensions shown in Figure 1. Subsequently, the second optimization stage was carried out defining thickness as well as the fillet radius of the inner angle of the square as design variables. The upper and lower limits of the



dimensions were shown in Table 2. Figure 4 shows the final dimensions (optimal dimensions) for both optimization stages.

Von Mises stress must be kept just at the maximum allowable stress in order to utilize the beam in its extent with a safe function. Accordingly, it's important to define the allowable stress with a proper safety factor of 1.3, which is usually preferred since it is based on the allowable maximum applied stress instead of yield stress of the material. The yield stress of steel is 250MPa and the allowable maximum stress (working stress), with factor of safety of 1.3, in this beam is equal to 250/1.3 =192MPa.

Table 2: shows the initial and iteration points design of the geometry dimensions.

Dimension	Initial Design	iterations points		
Dimension	Initial Design	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	
Width (mm)	25	10	60	
Height (mm)	25	10	60	
Thickness (mm)	4	1.5	5	
fillet radius (mm)	0.0	0.0	5	

Results and Discussion

Several iteration optimization design sets were carried out by using ANSYS package simulation software. Table3, shows the finite element analysis and optimization results of the best candidate design sets (Iteration number 48). It also reveals that the optimum design set with maximum equivalent stress, mass geometry and maximum deformation, 184.859MPa, 1.627 Kg and 6.94mm,respectively. Table 4 indicates the comparison between the initial and the optimum geometry. The maximum equivalent stress, geometry mass and total deformation are improved (reduction) in about, 30.75%, 22.89%, and 67.45% respectively.



Table 3, Finite element analysis and optimization results of the best candidate design sets.

Candidates No.	Thickness (mm)	Radius (mm)	Width (mm)	Height (mm)	Total Def. (mm)	Equ. Stress (MPa)	Geo. Mass (Kg)
Best Candidate No. 48	1.922	4.225	16.202	51.07	6.94	184.859	1.627

Table 4:comparison of finite element results between the initial and optimum geometry.

Parameter	Initial	Optimum	%
Farameter	Geo. Result	Geo. Result	Optimized
Max Equivalent stress	266.96MPa	184.859MPa	30.75%
Geometry Mass	2.11Kg	1.627Kg	22.89%
Total Deformation	21.32	6.94	67.45%

Figure 4 shows the optimization iterations versus beam mass as primary axis and maximum equivalent stress as secondary axis. Design sets with equivalent stress in range 60 to270MPa, and geometry mass in a range of 1.25 to 3.5Kg. These points are called feasible design sets, and all the rest of the iteration's points are called infeasible design sets, which are out of our design work as seen in Figure 5.

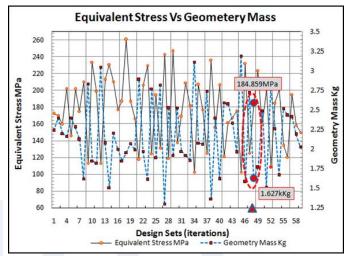


Figure 4: Maximum equivalent stress and beam mass versus optimization iterations points.

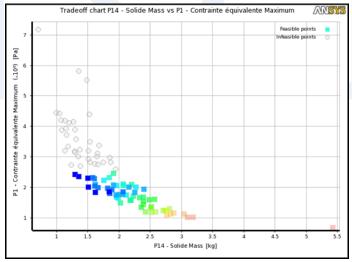


Figure 5: Feasible and infeasible design sets of equivalent stress versus geometry mass.



From Figure 4, we can also see clearly that the optimum design set at iteration point 48, which has the equivalent stress of 184.859MPa, and a minimum geometry mass of 1.62Kg. Figure 6 shows the optimization iteration versus the equivalent stress as primary axis, and the beam height and width as a secondary axis. It clearly reveals that the optimum beam cross section width and height are 16.20mm and 51.07mm respectively.

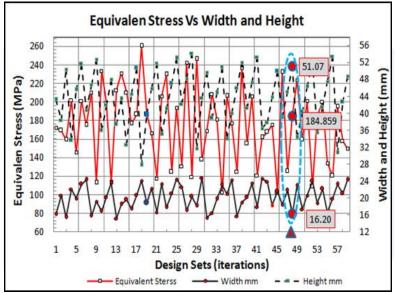


Figure 6: Design sets (iterations) versus the maximum equivalent stress, and the beam cross section (width and height).

Figure 7 illustrates the optimization iteration versus total deflection of the beam as primary axis, and the beam cross section as secondary axis. The optimum cross section (design set 48) has maximum deflection value of 6.94 mm.

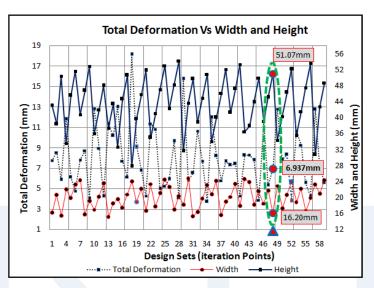


Figure 7: Maximum deformation and beam cross section versus design sets.

Width, height, thickness and filet radius of flange, are the design variables of the structure dimensions, which have the significant role to obtain the objective function of this work, allowable working stress < 190MPa, with minimizing of the geometry mass. Sensitivities of the constraints (equivalent stress) and the objective function (beam mass) to the design variables are shown in Figure 8. When the sensitivity has a negative sign, the design variable is inversely proportional to the constraint or the objective function, and vice versa. It's clear that the filet radius of flange, does not make any change through the iteration points for both total deformation and minimizing of the geometry mass, whereas has a big negative for equivalent stress. However, design variables such as width, height and thickness have a positive change for geometry mass and vice versa for equivalent stress and total deformation.

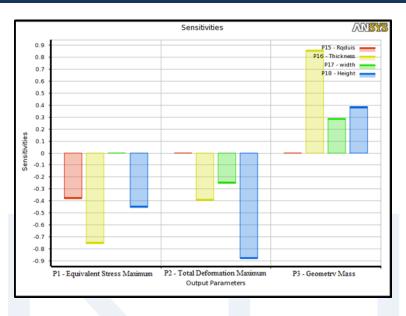


Figure 8: Sensitivities of the objective function and the constraints to design variables

Conclusions

In this present work, finite element software (ANSYS Workbench R17.2) was conducted to simulate the hollow square cantilever beam which is subjected to a static load value of 640 N at the free end, in order to investigate the behaviour and to predict the stress distribution induced by the subjected load.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the present investigation:

➤ The optimal beam dimensions ware achieved, with optimum cross-sectional design as seen in Table 3; (the best candidate, design set No. 48).



- The optimum design set has an equivalent stress, minimum geometry mass and total deformation values are of 184.859MPa, 1.62Kg and 6.94mm respectively.
- ➤ The maximum equivalent stress, geometry mass and total deformation are improved (reduction) in about, 30.75%, 22.89%, and 67.45% respectively.
- The filet radius of flange does not make any change through the iteration points for both total deformation and geometry mass, whereas has a big negative for equivalent stress.
- Significant positive change of geometry mass was obtained by design variables of width, height and thickness and vice versa for equivalent stress and total deformation.
- ➤ The cross section of the geometry changed from rectangular to square with optimum cross section values of width, height, thickness and filet radius of flange; are 16.20mm, 51.07mm, 1.922mm and 4.225mm respectively.

References

- [1].Ruoxu Jia1, Junling Hu, Xingguo Xiong, and Linfeng Zhang, 2014, 'Shape Optimization Design and Material Selection fora Fitness Equipment', ASEE 2014 Zone I Conference, April 3-5, 2014, University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, CT, USA.
- [2].M. F. Ashby, 2010, Materials Selection in Mechanical Design, 3rd ed., Butterworth-Heinemann.
- [3]. K.L. Edwards, 2003, Designing of engineering components for optimal materials and manufacturing process utilization, Materials and Design, 24, 2003, 355-366.
- [4].M.F. Ashby, Y.J.M. Brechet, D. Cebon, and L. Salvo, 2004, Selection strategies for materials and processes, Materials and Design, 25, 2004, 51-67.



- [5].Sangeeta Yadav, K. K. Pathak, Rajesh Shrivastava, 2010, 'Shape Optimization of Cantilever Beams Using Neural Network', Applied Mathematical Sciences, Vol. 4, 2010, no. 32, 1563 – 1572.
- [6]. Qian Wang, Wen-liang Qiu, and Sheng-li Xu, 2015, 'Structural Optimization of Steel Cantilever Used in Concrete Box Girder Bridge Widening', Hindawi Publishing Corporation, Mathematical Problems in Engineering, Volume 2015, Article ID 105024, 14 pages.
- [7].M. S. Alteyeb, M. Jolgaf, 2017, 'Optimization of Cantilever Beam for Minimum Weight Using Finite Element Analysis', First Libyan Conference on Metal Casting and Processing Technologies, September 12-13, 2017, Sidi AlSayeh, Tripoli, Libya.
- [8]. Ismoyo H, Fuad A. R., Ojo K., Gunawan D. H., Sigit P. S., Leonardo G., 2018, 'Optimization of Bus Body Frame Structure for Weight Minimizing with Constraint of Natural Frequency using Adaptive Single-Objective Method', International journal of sustainable transportation technology, Vol. 1, No. 1, April 2018, 9-14.
- [9]. Stamatis, D.H., 2002, 'Six sigma and beyond: design for six sigma'. Vol. 6. 2002: CRC Press.



Simulation of Natural Gas Dehydration Process

A Case Study of Bahr Alsalam Field –Libya

Salah.M.Algoul*a, Ateya.S.Mashetib , Abdulfatah. M. Emhamed^c

a,b Chemical Engineering Department, Higher Institute of Engineering Technology -Zliten, Libya

golsasa40@yahoo.com. masheti2001@yahoo.com

^c Om Alrrabae Faculty of Sciences and Technology Surman – Libya .

Chemical Engineering Department email:-

fatah.meh1960@gmail.com

Abstract

Gas dehydration is widely used in natural gas treatment plants as a common process and it removes water which is associated with natural gases in vapor form. The dehydration process is mandatory for ensuring smooth operation of gas transmission lines. Water content in natural gas cause several technical problems such as corrosion and hydrates which may block valves and pipelines. Therefore, this study aims to simulate the prospective Bahr Alsalm gas dehydration process by using Aspen HYSYS V. 8.8 program. Moreover, the model has been built according to the actual process flow diagram.

It well known that Increasing feed temperature leads to less dehydration efficiency and as expected, flow rate of natural gas has no effect on the dehydration efficiency. Although it well known that a higher inlet flow rate of natural gas will reduce the dehydration efficiency



. The simulation process succeeded to reduce the water content to less than 0.000001ppm.

Keyword: Aspen Hysys, Gas dehydration, Process simulation, Water content.

الملخص

يستخدم تجفيف الغاز على نطاق واسع في محطات معالجة الغاز الطبيعي كعملية شائعة ويتم إزالة الماء المختلط بالغازات الطبيعية في شكل بخار. عملية التجفيف هي عملية إلزامية لضمان التشغيل السلس لخطوط نقل الغاز. محتوى الماء في الغاز الطبيعي يسبب العديد من المشاكل التقنية مثل التآكل والهيدرات التي قد تسد الصمامات وخطوط الأنابيب. لذلك ، تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى محاكاة عملية تجفيف غاز بحر السالم المحتملة باستخدام برنامج Aspen HYSYS V. 8.8 علاوة على ذلك ، تم بناء النموذج وفقًا لمخطط تدفق العملية الفعلى.

من المعروف أن زيادة درجة حرارة التغذية تؤدي إلى كفاءة أقل للجفاف وكما هو متوقع ، فإن معدل تدفق الغاز الطبيعي ليس له أي تأثير على كفاءة الجفاف. على الرغم من أنه من المعروف أن ارتفاع معدل تدفق الغاز الطبيعي في المدخل سيقلل من كفاءة الجفاف. نجحت عملية المحاكاة في تقليل محتوى الماء إلى أقل من 0.000001 جزء في المليون

1-Introduction

Dehydration of natural gas is needed to remove the water that is associated with natural gases in vapor form [1]. The demanding of the natural gas in recent decades have been raised dramatically. Nowadays, the natural gas poses a huge rule in the world economy and development However, natural gas exists in deep underground reservoir under certain temperature and pressure. Therefore, it might contain numerous of non-hydrocarbon components for instance, carbon dioxide ,nitrogen and water vapor. In fact, Natural gas to be transported by gas pipelines or processed have to meet



certain specifications for example, H₂S must be reduced to less than 4ppm [2]. Sweet gas is still wet and content considerable amounts of water vapor which it might lead to huge technical problems such as, hydrate formation and corrosion. Indeed, water vapor in natural gas should be reduced or removed and the main reasons for removing of water from natural could be summarized as follows: Water content of natural gas losses of its heat value, liquid water in natural gas pipelines potentially causes slugging flow conditions resulting in lower flow efficiency of the pipelines [2]. In many commercial hydrocarbon processes, the presence of water may cause side reactions, foaming or catalyst deactivation. Therefore, to prevent such problems, natural gas treating is unavoidable. There are different methods for water treating of natural gas for instance, adsorption, absorption, membrane process, methanol process and refrigeration [3]. Among mentioned methods absorption, which is called "dehydration" and use a liquid solvent as an absorbent, is most common technique for treating natural gas [4], [5]. Indeed, gas dehydration by glycol is capable to decrease the water content of natural gas to less than 0.01ppm [6]. The objective of this study is to make a simulation for gas dehydration unit at Bahar Alsalam field. Process optimization is also achieved and the aim of this optimization work to examine several specific operations and the simulation results to be compared with an actual one.

2.Case study

The location of Bahr Alsalam gas and condensate field is within Block NC41 in the Mediterranean Sea, around 110km from Tripoli, Libya.. The offshore gas and condensate field are operated and owned by Mellitah Oil & Gas (MOG), an equal joint venture (JV) between Eni, and National Oil Corporation (NOC). The production in the field started in 2005 as part of the Bahr Essalam



Phase I project. MOG has now proposed the Bahr Essalam Phase II project, which will involve the development of the field's unexploited areas. The Libyan offshore field currently produces approximately 600 million standard cubic feet a day (MMscfd) of sales gas and approximately 30,000bbl/d of condensate[7].

3. Simulation

To make a comparison between different retrofit solutions for an existing plant it is compulsory to start from a simulation that is as much as possible close to the real plant behavior. The simulation process was done successfully and Fig.1 shows the process flow diagram of Bahr Alsala gas dehydration plant. As it seems from Fig. 1 several process units are used in glycol process.

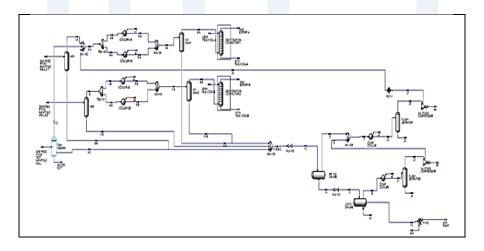


Fig 1.Complete process flow diagram of gas dehydration

3.1 Main Case simulation

In this study, real data plant were collected to obtain a reliable simulation of the unit by means of the software HYSYS.(v.8.8) simulator. The results obtained were compared with the real plant data and a good agreement was obtained. To develop a good



simulation, it is a difficult task and many plant data and much time are needed together with a good technical knowledge of the plant .

A typical feed gas composition, temperature and pressure were selected to model the wet gas inlet in Hysys as shown in table 1 and table 2.

Table.1 Operating conditions

Parameter	Value
Temperature	80°C
Pressure	76 kPa
Mass Flow	5.335e+004Kg/h

Table.2 Natural Gas composition

Component	Mass
Component	fraction
Methane	0.6857
Ethane	0.419
Propane	0.147
i-Butane	0.0033
nButane-	0.0062
<u>Pentanei-</u>	0.0032
Pentanen-	0.0033
<u>Hexanen-</u>	0.0054
n-Heptane	0.0054
n-Octane	0.0056
n-Nonane	0.0035
n-Decane	0.0021
n-C11	0.0013
n-C12	0.0022
H2O	0.0198
H2S	0.0195
Nitrogen	0.0299
CO	0.0000
CO2	0.1470



3.2 Modified case

In this work we focused our attention to an industrial gas dehydration unit, evaluating the possibility to modify the feed conditions by changing the feed condition such as, temperature, pressure and gas flow rate.

3.2.1 Effect of Temperature

The temperature is changed from 40 _C to 44 _C with 1 _C interval for each circulation. The effect of temperature has a significant change for both gas outlet flow rate as well as water content value. The flow rate of gas product increased from 40C to 44C which reached to 8%. Moreover, the value of water content raised gradually from 1.99e-5 (main case) to 2.36e-5 for temperature 44C which considered as high value and out of permissible range for exporting the gas..

Table.3 Effect of Temperature

- words					
Case.No	Tempera"	Gas outlet flow	water content		
	ture(C)	Rate (Scfd)			
Case(main) 1	40	44805214	1.99e-5		
Case 2	41	44833416	2.08e-5		
Case 3	42	44860996	2.17e-5		
Case4	43	48815542	2.26e-5		
Case5	44	48841858	2.36e-5		

3.2.2 Effect of Pressure

As it can be seen from the table below, the change of pressure has a very small effect on flow rate of gas product .Regarding the effeteness of pressure on water content, the increasing pressure can be considered as negligible.



Table.4 Effect of Pressure

Case.No	Pressure(bar)	Gas out let flow Rate (Scfd)	water content
Case(main) 1	76	44805214	1.99e-5
Case 2	77	44805132	1.99e-5
Case 3	78	44805048	1.99e-5
Case4	79	48804964	1.99e-5
Case5	80	48804876	1.99e-5

3.2.3 Effect of gas flow rate

The effect of gas flow rate on the products as well as the removal of water vapor

during adsorption which compared with the actual data tabled below. Table.5 shows the variation of gas product for different natural gas flow rates during water adsorption. It is also noted that as the inlet gas flow rate increases (from

500000 to 540000 Scfd) and the removal percentage of water vapor remains constant .

Table.5 Effect of gas flow rate

Case.No	Gas inlet flow Rate (Scfd)	Gas outlet flow Rate (Scfd)	water content
Case(main) 1	500000	44805214	1.99e-5
Case 2	510000	48814364	1.99e-5
Case 3	520000	48823593	1.99e-5
Case4	530000	48832818	1.99e-5
Case5	540000	48841992	1.99e-5



3.2.3 Effect of TEG flow rate

The details of TEG package are shown in Fig. 1., The natural gas flows to the contactor tower for water removal. The gas enters contactor tower from the bottom where it meets lean glycol solution entering the tower from the top (number of stage 3), It is obvious from the table below ,that the increasing of TEG flow rate will decrease the gas product .In contrast, the amount of water content increases. This might be attributed to the increase in water load as the TEG flow rate increases and therefore, decreasing of contact time . It is clear from the table, that at the start of water vapor adsorption, the percentage removal of water vapor is low then increases gradually until it reached a constant value. The gas outlet flow rate decreasing with the increasing of TEG flow rate.

Table.6 Effect of TEG flow rate

Case.No	TEG flow Rate (Scfd)	Gas outlet flow Rate (Scfd)	water content
Case(main) 1	13000	44805214	1.99e-5
Case 2	13500	48797795	1.99e-5
Case 3	14000	48790451	2e-5
Case4	14500	48783109	2e-5
Case5	15000	48775725	2.01e-5

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the presence of water in natural gas causes flow assurance issue hence the need to dehydrate the gas. With the use of HYSYS software, the gas was dehydrated and process optimized. Results obtained showed that using gas inlet flow rate at 540000 Scfd can achieve good gas product as well as high water removal. In addition, the results revealed that the effeteness of pressure on water content can be considered as negligible.

Moreover, another concern of the dehydration process must be taken into consideration which is the amount of hazardous air



pollutants released, that should be meeting the environmental regulations.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to the Mellith oil@gas Company engineers for frequent discussion and support during this study..

References

- [1].International Conference on Petroleum Engineering 2016, At Bangladesh University of Engineering & Technology (BUET) Dhaka-1000, Bangladesh, Paper ID: ICPE 2016-018, Volume: Paper ID: ICPE 2016-018
- [2].M. Stewart, and K. Arnold, Gas Sweetening and Processing Field Manual. Houston: Gulf Professional Publishing, 2011,pp. 51–52.
- [3].Iwan Ratman, T.D. Kusworo, and A.F. Ismail "Foam Behaviour of An Aqueous Solution of Piperazine- N-Methyldiethanolamine (MDEA) Blend as A Function of The Type of Impurities and Concentrations", Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 UTM, Skudai, Johor Bahru, Malaysia, January 2015
- [4].M. Stewart, and K. Arnold, Gas dehydration Field Manual. Houston: Gulf Professional Publishing, 2011, pp. 40–77.
- [5].K. Abdel-Aal, .Petroleum and Gas Field Processing. New York: CRC Press, 2003, pp. 90–110.
- [6].R. Thompson,, Oilfield processing of petroleum. Tulsa: Penn Well Books, 1991, pp. 51-57.
- [7].https://www.offshore-technology.com/projects/bahr-essalam-gas-and-condensate-field/



Stabilization of Silty Sand with Magnesium Oxide

Abir A. Elazzabi¹, Shrifa M. elhamroni², Zaynab O. Alqadhqad³

¹Tripoli University, Faculty of engineering, Civil Engineering

<u>abirelazabi@gmail.com</u>

²Higher Institute of science and Technology, Tripoli

<u>Ahmed.elhamroni@gmail.com</u>

³Higher Institute of science and Technology, Tripoli

<u>eng.civilz@yahoo.com</u>

الملخص:

تهدف هذه الورقة إلى استخدام أكسيد المغنيسيوم (MgO) لمعالجة الرمال الغرينية. التربة المستخدمة لهذا الغرض استخرجت من عمق 50 سم تحت مستوى سطح الأرض الطبيعية من الجنوب الليبي. تم خلط أربع نسب من اكسيد المغنيسيوم تراوحت بين (0 ، ،126، 18 ٪) خلطت كنسب وزنية من التربة الاصلية الجافة . تمت دراسة التطور في مقاومة القص والكثافة الجافة القصوى للتربة بعد اضافة اكسيد الماغنيسيوم ومقارنتها مع التربة الاصلية في هذه الورقة. لقد أظهرت النتائج أن هناك نمو معتبرا في مقاومة القص للتربة المعالجة ونقصان في فراغات التربة (أي تكثيف التربة المعالجة) بالإضافة الى ترابط الحبيبات مع بعضها البعض بواسطة الخليط المتكون.

ABSTRACT:

This paper aimed to use magnesium oxide (MgO) for treatment of silty sand. The soil was obtained from a depth of 50cm below natural ground level from south of Libya. Four MgO doses ranged (0, 6, 12, 18%) were mixed by dry unit weight pure soil. The evolution in Shear strength and maximum dry density of soil-MgO were studied in this paper. The results show that a considerable growth in soil strength was obtained and reductions in voids (i.e. densification of treated soil) as well as soil particles were glued together by mixture formed.



KEY WORDS: Soil Stabilization, Magnesium Oxide, Mixture, Shear Strength, Maximum Dry Density

1. INTRODUCTION:

Site feasibility study for geotechnical projects is of far most beneficial before a project can take off. Site survey usually takes place before the design process begins in order to understand the characteristics of subsoil upon which the decision on location of the project can be made.

In geotechnical engineering, soil stabilization or other methods are required when a given site does not have suitable engineering properties to support structures, roads, and foundations. One possibility is to adapt the foundation to the geotechnical conditions at the site. Another possibility is to try to stabilize or improve the engineering properties of the soils at the site. Depending on the circumstances, this second approach may be the most economical solution to the problem (Holtz and Kovacs 1981). This second approach includes mechanical as well as chemical stabilization. Mechanical stabilization is produced by compaction. Chemical stabilization is achieved by mixing the soils with additives. This state of the art review focuses on soil stabilization method which is one of the several methods of soil improvement.

Soil stabilization depends mainly on chemical reactions between stabilizer (cementitious material) and soil minerals (pozzolanic materials) to achieve the desired effect. A chemical stabilization method is the fundamental of this review and, therefore, throughout the rest of this report. Numerous kinds of stabilizers were used as soil additives to improve its engineering properties. A number of stabilizers (cementitious materials), such as lime,



calcium chloride, cement and fly ash... Or combination of these, depend on their chemical reactions with the soil elements in the presence of water (Azadegan et al., 2012; Mallela et al., 2004; Ramadas et al., 2011). Other additives, such as geofiber and geogrid, depend on their physical effects to improve soil properties (Alawaji, 2001; Viswanadham et al., 2009). In addition, It can be combined both of chemical and physical stabilization, for example, by using lime and geofiber or geotextile together (Yang et al., 2012; Chong and Kassim, 2014).

The stabilized soil materials have a higher strength, lower permeability and lower compressibility than the native soil (Keller bronchure 32-01E). The method can be achieved in two ways, namely; (1) in situ stabilization and (2) ex-situ stabilization. Note that, stabilization not necessary a magic wand by which every soil properties can be improved for better (Ingles and Metcalf, 1972). The decision to technological usage depends on which soil properties have to be modified. The chief properties of soil which are of interest to engineers are volume stability, strength, compressibility, permeability and durability (Ingles and Metcalf, 1972; Sherwood, 1993; EuroSoilStab, 2002). For a successful stabilization, a laboratory tests followed by field tests may be required in order to determine the engineering and environmental properties. Laboratory tests although may produce higher strength than corresponding material from the field, but will help to assess the effectiveness of stabilized materials in the field. Results from the laboratory tests, will enhance the knowledge on the choice of binders and amounts (EuroSoilStab, 2002).

A few studies have also been done to investigate the effect of magnesium- based additive on the properties of soil and clay



minerals. Caillere and Henin: Gupya and Malik; Carstea et al.; Xeidakis and Urena et al. showed that the additition to brucite to montmorillonite induced reduction in swelling potial. This study attempts to investgate the efficiency of magnesium oxide to improve the geotechnical properties of a silty sand soil.

2. REVIW OF LITERATURE:

The result of few conducted studies used magnesium based additives to stabilize the soil was significant improvement achieved in soil strength, workability and durability. Therefore, it is need to conduct extensive studies to determine the efficiency of this material in soil stabilization.

3. MATERIALS:

3.1 SOIL

Table (1) shows the physical properties of the soil used in this research. The soil was collected from depth of 50 cm below natural ground surface. Figure 1 and 2 show the grain size distribution and dry density –water content relationship respectively.

Table1: Physical properties of tested soil

Property	Maximum Dry density g/cm ³	Optimum Water Content %	Liquid Limit %	Plasticity Index %
Values	1.6	15%	NV	NP
Specification	AASHTO T99-01		ASTM D4318	

%	%	%	UCSC	
Gravel	Sand	Fines		
0	86.5	13.5	SM	
USCS (D2487)				



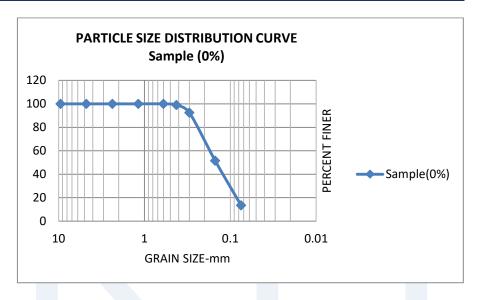


Figure 1: Grain size distribution for the tested soil

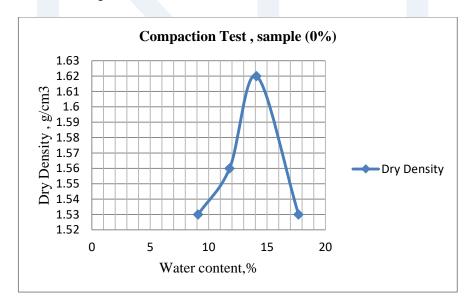


Figure 2: Dry density – water content relationship



3.2 MAGNESIUM OXIDE (MAGNESIA)

Some physical and chemical properties of Magnesium Oxide are shown in Table 2.

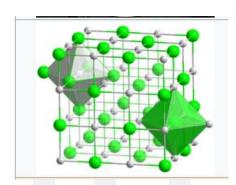




Table2: Physical and chemical properties of Magnesium Oxide:

•				0	
Chemical	Molar	Appearance	Odor	Density	Melting
formula	mass				Point
MgO	40.304g/	White	Odorless	3.6g/cm	2,852C°
	mol	Powder		3	

Solubility	Magnetic Susceptibility	Thermal Conductivity	Relative Index	Crystal structure
Soluble in acid, ammonia insoluble in alcohol	-10.2x10 ⁻⁶ cm ³ /mol	45-60 W.m ⁻¹ .k ⁻¹	1.7355	Halite (cubic)

Coordination Geometry	Heat Capacity	Boiling Point
	(c)	
$Octahedral(Mg^{2+})$	37.2	
(O ²⁻)	J/mol	3,600 C°



4. METHODOLOGY:

The tested soil (Pure soil) was mixed with four dosages of magnesium oxide i.e. 0.0, 6.0, 12.0, and 18.0 % by weight of dry soil. Figure 3 shows the grain size distribution of mixed soil. Four groups of mixture were prepared. Each group involved mixing the soil with the same dosages of magnesium oxide mentioned above and four remolded water contents of 5%, 10%, 15%, and 20%. These water contents represent optimum and wet of optimum water content (w_{opt}). The mixing procedure involved mixing the fully dry soil with the required amount of water. The MgO was then added step by step and well mixed with soil sample to ensure that the MgO is well distributed over the soil sample particularly MgO. Shear box test was carried out to evaluate the evolution in soil strength. All specimens were tested with loading rate (mm/min). Standard Proctor test was carried out to determine maximum dry density for mixtures. Comparison was made between pure and mixed soil.

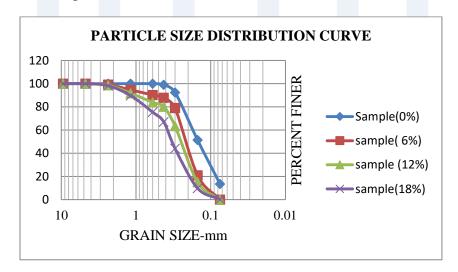


Figure 3: Grain size distribution for the tested soil



5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: 5.1 RESULTS OF SHEAR STRENGTH

Table 3 shown below presented the results obtained from shear box test. They show the strength gain for various contents of MgO. The results of shear box test for the pure soil at water added 5% (6gr) show that the shear strength was 208.7kpa for normal stress is 408.75kpa, the strength drops to 135.11kpa at water added 10% (12gr) after mixing the tested soil with 6% of MgO at the same normal stress..

Table 3: The results summary of shear box test

			Sam	ple (0%))			
Stresses(kPa)			Estimated parameters					
Step	Normal	residual	Peak	Peak	Peak	Residual	Residual	
				φ'р	c'	φ'ε	c'	
				(deg)	(kpa)	(deg)	(kpa)	
1	136.25	0	36.19					
2	272.5	0	154.4	32.3	-39.4	0	0	
3	408.75	0	208.7					
	Sample (6%)							
	St	resses(kPa)			Estimate	d paramete	rs	
Step	Normal	residual	Peak	Peak	Peak	Residual	Residual	
				φ' _p	c'	φ'c	c'	
				(deg)	(kpa)	(deg)	(kpa)	
1	136.25	53.08	53.08					
2	272.5	0	114.6	16.8	18.9	-11.0	70.8	
3	408.75	0	135.1					
			Sam	ple (12%	<u>,</u>			
	Stresses(kPa)			Estimated parameters				
Step	Normal	residual	Peak	Peak	Peak	Residual	Residual	
				φ' p	c'	φ'c	c'	
				(deg)	(kpa)	(deg)	(kpa)	
1	136.25	45.84	49.46					
2	272.5	0	126.7	40.2	-78.4	-9.5	61.1	
3	408.75	0	279.9					



However, a dramatic increase in soil strength by increasing the content of MgO. Soil strength reaches values of 279.87kpa, 340.19kpa for 12% (water added 15% (8gr)) and 18% (water added 20% (24gr)) of MgO respectively

	Sample (18%)							
	Stresses(kPa)			Estimated parameters				
Step	Normal	residual	Peak	Peak	Peak	Residual	Residual	
_				φ'р	c'	φ'c	c'	
				(deg)	(kpa)	(deg)	(kpa)	
1	136.25	0	57.9	46.0	-90.5	47.8	-142.3	
2	272.5	173.71	177.3	deg				
3	408.75	300.38	340.2					

5.2 RESULTS OF DRY DENSITY

Figure 4 shown below presented the results obtained from Standard Proctor Test. They show the maximum dry density and Optimum moisture content for various contents of MgO. For the pure soil show that the maximum dry density is 1.6 g/cm³ and Optimum moisture content is 15%, An improvement in the compaction properties of the mixed soil: The maximum dry density rises, while the optimal water content drops, The maximum dry density has increased progressively by increasing the content of MgO of 1.7 g/cm³, 1.8 g/cm³ and 1.9 g/cm³ for 6%, 12%, 18% respectively.

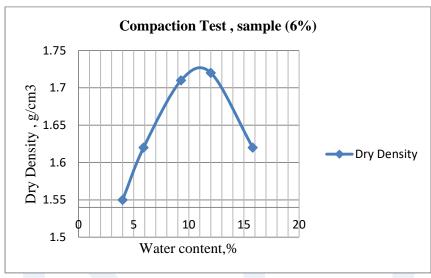


Figure (4-a)- the results obtained from Standard Proctor Test -sample 6%

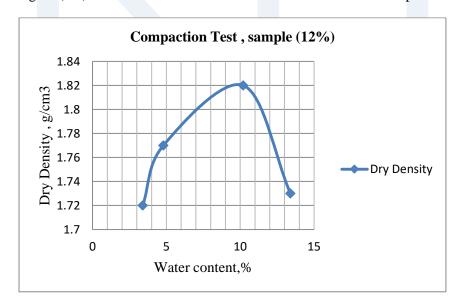


Figure (4-b)- the results obtained from Standard Proctor Test – sample \$12%\$



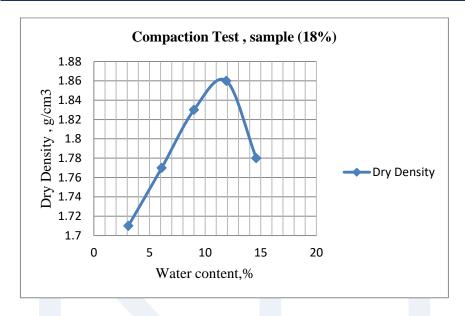


Figure (4-c) the results obtained from Standard Proctor Test - sample 18%

5.3 JUSTIFICATION OF SOIL STRENGTH GAIN

Based on the outcomes obtained by the results, the Magnesium oxide, in its reactive state, has been proved to be an excellent soil stabilizer by itself, particularly with sand, the strength gain can be justified by the following tips:

- .Increase the grains size of treated soil makes the particles tougher.
- . Reduction in voids and densification in soil packing.

5.4 JUSTIFICATION OF DRY DENSITY OF SOIL

The Uniformity Coefficient is observed to have an important correlation with the maximum dry density. It is seen that variations in the Uniformity Coefficient represent proportional change in the



maximum dry density. This Proportional relationship is expressed by the equation $\gamma_d = 87.715 x Cu^{0.166}$

Also the cementation properties of the sand tends to provide higher maximum dry densities because the conglomeration of the soil's particles. It was noticed that this characteristic depends on the amount of fines (i.e for the studied soils this difference ranges from 6 to about 18%)

6. CONCLUSION:

Based on the obtained results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 1. The shear strength of treated soil increased significantly with increasing percentage of magnesium oxide. This strength gain is inversely proportional to the remolded moisture content.
- 2. The studied show a alteration of treated soil. The following alteration can be explored:
- Densification in soil mass due to lowering in voids of treated soil
- Increase the grains size of treated soil makes the particles tougher.
- Reduction in voids and densification in soil packing.

7. REFERENCES

- [1]. ASTM. 1999. Standard Proctor Test Designation D-698.
- [2]. Johnston, M.M.," Laboratory Studies of Maximum and Minimum Dry Densities of Cohesionless Soils, "Evaluation of Relative Density and its Role in Geotechnical Projects Involving Cohesionless Soils, ASTM, STP 523, pp. 133-140, 1973



- [3]. Hogentogler C.A./ (1936). Essentials of soil compaction. Proc. HRB, vol. 16, pp. 209-216.
- [4].Ureña C, Azanon JM, Corpas F, Nieto F, Leon C, Perez L (2013) Magnesium hydroxide, seawater and olive mill wastewater to reduce swelling potential and plasticity of bentonite soil. Construction and Building Materials 45(0):289-297.
- [5].Ismaiel HAH (2006) Treatment and improvement of the geotechnical properties of different soft fine-grained soils using chemical stabilization. PhD Thesis, Martin Luther Universität: Halle Wittenberg, Germany.
- [6].Das B (2008) Advanced Soil Mechanics 3rd Edition. Taylor & Francis.



Study of student attitudes towards E-learning: case of faculty science in TOBRUK university/Libya

Khamisa .A. Yousef, Abdulfatah Ibrahim, Aziza Rashed

Department of Computer Faculty Of Science University Of TOBRUK/Libya

Computer201682@gmail.com

الملخص

تعتبر أساليب التعلم الإلكتروني واحدة من أكثر المجالات البحثية إثارة للاهتمام في مجال التعليم والتدريب في العقد الماضي تعتمد عملية التعلم على الأجهزة الإلكترونية لضمان عرض الطالب في التعليم العالي نظرًا لأن معظم الجامعات العالمية اعتمدت التعليم الإلكتروني كأداة للتدريس، فإن الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو دراسة اتجاهات الطلاب نحو التعلم الإلكتروني كان عينة لهذه الدراسة 306 طالبا من كلية العلوم في جامعة طبرق. باستخدام (UTAUT) تم استخدام استبيان تم تكييفه من UTAUT لجمع البيانات ، والتي يتم تحليلها بشكل وصفي باستخدام إحصائيات \$PSS الإصدار والموقف تجاه التكنولوجيا والاكتفاء الذاتي جميع المحددات الهامة للنوايا السلوكية والموقف تجاه التعلم الإلكتروني.

الكلمات الدالة: التعليم الالكتروني, النظرية الموحدة لقبول واستخدام التقنية SPSS , (UTAUT)

Abstract

E-learning styles are considered one of the most interesting research areas in the field of education and training in the last



decade. The learning process depends on electronic devices to assure the student's presentation in higher education. As most world universities have adopted e-learning as tool for teaching, the purpose of this paper is to study students attitudes toward e-learning. The sample for this study was 306 students from the science faculty in a TOBRUK'S university. By using(UTAUT), a questionnaire adapted from UTAUT is used to collect data, which is then descriptively analyzed by using IBM SPSS statistics version 21. The study concluded that performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, attitude toward technology and self-sufficiency are all significant determinants of behavioral intentions to use e-learning.

Keywords: E-learning, Unified Theory Of Acceptance And Use Of Technology (UTAUT), SPSS.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, as a result of the rapid development of information and communication technology, higher education has changed the concept and style of learning from traditional class room to elearning, which has become widespread among educational institutions [1]. Many researchers in the domain of e-learning have their own definitions of the term. In general, e-learning is defined as "instructional content or learning experience delivered or enabled by electronic technologies" [2]. Gunasekaran et al. defined e-learning as an Internet-enabled learning process[3]. Shopova said, "E-Learning became an important instrument in the new Higher Educational Environment in the digital age, which creates student-centered learning and educational practice, offering new, more flexible learning methods"[4]. E-learning is a tool used to transform traditional class room through electronic means such as



computers, mobiles, and iPads. In other words, institutions using elearning will expand and improve the educational process. Edwards and Finger [5] found that "many universities have information and communication technology that has been integrated into academic courses because it has realized the value achieved generalized in the circular process, "and" electronic circularization represents a large area of information acquisition Through information technology and communications" as decided by Obakova [6] that "very effective circularization can be obtained by combining methods Conjugation and e-circularization." Recently, many researchers have focused on technology acceptance and e-learning [7]. Universities in all countries responded to e-learning differently based on their regulations Therefore, the researchers should explore this case by studying student attitudes toward e-learning in a specific university.

The paper will be divided into three parts the first part, simply shows a literature review which covers the research on the elearning theory and model that can be explained and predicted an acceptance of new technology, second part is the foundation stone upon which the rest of the study is constructed, description of the research methods, hypotheses and instrument measurement reliability, the third part will be particularly devoted to the result of this study which will assist to place the research in its broader framework whereas the conclusion and recommendation will be drawn in the final part.

2. Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT)

Among the obstacles faced by educational institutions are the acceptance of technology, [8][9], patterns of use behavior among



individuals, and the acceptance of technology as the explicit desire within a user group to use IT for the tasks that have been developed for it [10]. A model that accepts technology or has shed some light on a unified theory of technology acceptance and use is an attempt to develop the predictive power of the eight following mentioned models of technology acceptance SCT,IDT,TRA,TPB,TAM,MPCU,MM,C_TPB-TAM. however ,UTAUT (FIG.1) was adapted in this study which introduced by Venkatesh et all [11] to be used in predicting the user acceptance of any information technology system and to diagnose design problems before the users actually use this system through two concepts: encompassing four main Performance Expectancy (PE), Effort Expectancy (EE), Social Influence (SI), and Facilitating Conditions (FC).

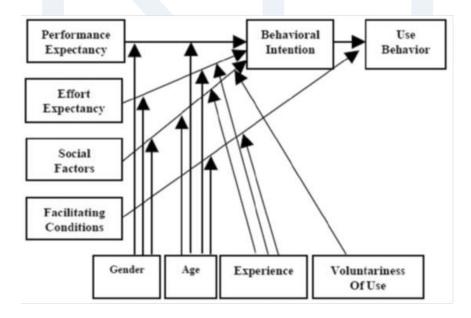


Fig. 1. UTAUT Model (Venkatesh et al., 2003)



As Figure 1 shows, the UTAUT model consists of six constructs:

- 1. Performance Expectancy: is defined as level where pertains to the degree to which individuals believe that the use of technologies will result in performance gains.
- 2. Effort Expectancy: is defined as level to the ease or complexity when using new technology.
- 3. Social Influence: is defined as the degree to which an individual is motivated by others to use technologies.
- 4. Facilitating Conditions: is defined as the level of ease provided to an individual when using the new technology.
- 5. Behavioural intention: is defined as the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform a specified future behavior.
- 6. Use behavior: is defined as measured users' actual frequency of technology use. In addition to the six constructs, four moderators are incorporated into the UTAUT model:
 - A. Gender: The effects of performance expectancy, effort expectancy and social influence on behavioral intention are moderated by gender.
 - B. Age: The effects of performance expectancy, effort expectancy and social influence on behavioral intention, as well as the influence of facilitating conditions on use behavior, are moderated by age.
 - C. Experience: The effects of effort expectancy and social influence on behavioral intention, as well as the effects of facilitating conditions on use behavior, are moderated by experience.
 - D. Voluntariness of use: The effects of social influence on behavioral intention are moderated by voluntariness of use.



3. Samples and Data Collection

3.1 Demographical Statistics

Survey Sample

Stratified sampling technique was applied in this study including department ,number and percent as shown table 1.

Table 1: Sample details

Department	Number	Percent
Computer science	59	19.3%
Mathematics	23	7.5%
Physics	17	5.6%
Chemistry	47	15.4%
Zoology	62	20.3%
Botany	37	12.1%
Geology	61	19.9%
Total	306	100.0

The results of descriptive statistics indicated that 43.79% of the participants were male, and 56.20% were female. Age of the participants ranged from 18-21 years old,(Table2).

Table 2: Demographics of respondents

Tuble 20 Demographics of Tesponacius						
Measure	Item	Frequency	Percentage (%)			
Gender	Male	134	43.79%			
Gender	Female	172	56.20%			
Internet experience	Little	64	20.9			
	Medium	191	62,4			
	Rich	51	16.7			
Age	18	62	20.3			
	19	58	19.0			
	20	99	32.4			
	21	87	28.4			

SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)was used to examine the data and perform reliability, correlation, and

regression analyses. The questionnaire consists of (23) question items for which four of each question items were under each of the UTAUT constructs. We employed Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = natural, 4 = disagreeagree, 5 = strongly disagree, to indicate to their level of accepting with attitude statements toward e-learning. Table 3 shows the reliability of the measurement scale. However, the results come according to cronbach's alpha (to measure and assess the reliability of test items)of the UTAUT scales which is a sequel of analysis attempts to extend profoundly previous interpretations of attitude toward using technology and social influence ranged between 0.439 to 0.760 respectively, to demonstrate the validation and an acceptable to excellent reliability for each scale based on the rules of thumb given by George and Mallery [12].

Table 3: The reliability of the measurement scale

Constructs	NO. of Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Performance Expectancy	4	0.653
Effort Expectancy	4	0.713
Attitude Toward Using Technology	4	0.760
Social Influence	4	0.439
Facilitating Conditions	4	0.571
Behavioral intention to use the system	3	0.743

3.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

This section illustrates a descriptive statistical analysis in order to introduce a better understanding of the students' perceptions. Table 4 summarizes the frequencies and corresponding percentages for the students' perceptions with respect to E-learning. As can be seen the students tend to prefer E-learning is a useful and productive tool; however, tables below show that the



respondents have confirmed that the students of the faculty of science have a tendency Positive towards the use of e-learning, as shown through the averages of the sample members, and small standard deviations close to the correct one.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for UTAUT constructs.

				-					
ITEM	ſ	Strongly Agree	Agree	Natural	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	Std. Deviation	attitude statement
		No	No	No	No	No			
		%	%	%	%	%			
	P	158	92	45	6	5	1.72		Strongly
Perj	E1	51.6	30.1	14.7 %	2.0%	1.6%	72 72	0.901	Agree
or	D	147	111	32	11	5			C4
Performance Expectancy	P E2	48.05	36 %	10.5	3.6%	1.6%	1.75	0.902	Strongly Agree
e E	_	119	117	57	9	4			
xpect	P E3	38.9	38.2	18.6	2.9%	1.3%	1.90	0.896	Agree
an		170	91	27	13	5		0.923	
Ç	P E4	55.6	29.7	8.8%	4.2%	1.6%	1.67		Strongly Agree
	1		Mean				1	.76	Agree
E		73	139	68	20	6			
Effort Expectancy	E E1	23.9	45.4 %	22.2	6.5%	2.0%	2.170	.934	Agree
lx3	-	94	116	58	28	10			
ectan	E E2	30.7	37.9	19.0	9.2%	3.3	2.16	1.056	Agree
C									
	-	116	107	64	8	11			
	E E3	37.9	35.0	20.9	8 2.6%	3.6%	1.99	1.010	Strongly Agree
	E3	37.9 %	35.0 %	20.9 %	2.6%	3.6%	1.99	1.010	
		37.9 % 114 37.3	35.0 % 127 41.5	20.9 % 43 14.1			1.99	1.010 0.938	
	E3	37.9 % 114 37.3 %	35.0 % 127 41.5 %	20.9 % 43	2.6%	3.6%	1.93	0.938	Agree Agree
	E3 E E4	37.9 % 114 37.3 %	35.0 % 127 41.5 % Mean	20.9 % 43 14.1 %	2.6% 17 5.6%	3.6% 5 1.6%	1.93		Agree Agree
	E3 E E4	37.9 % 114 37.3 %	35.0 % 127 41.5 %	20.9 % 43 14.1	2.6%	3.6%	1.93	0.938	Agree Agree
	E3 E E4	37.9 % 114 37.3 %	35.0 % 127 41.5 % Mean 113 36.9	20.9 % 43 14.1 %	2.6% 17 5.6%	3.6% 5 1.6%	1.93	0.938 0625	Agree Agree Strongly



		%	%	%					
		138	95	40	17	8			
	A	45.1	31.0	13.1			1.951	.130	Strongly
	T3	%	%	%	5.6%	2.6%			Agree
		115	110	56	17	8			
	A	37.6	35.9	18.3	5 (0/	2 (0/	2.00	1.010	Agree
	T4	%	%	%	5.6%	2.6%			
			Mean				1	.86	Agree
Si	SE	90	104	63	18	31			
oci		29.4	34.0	20.6	5.00/	10.1	2.33	1.241	Agree
Social Influence	1	%	%	%	5.9%	%			
'n	CE	100	117	55	18	16		9	
ue	SE 2	32.7	38.2	18.0	5.9%	5.2%	2.13	1.095	Agree
пс	2	%	%	%	5.9%	5.2%			
,,,	SE	81	78	75	40	32		1.293	Agree
	3	26.5	25.5	24.5	13.1	10.5	2.56		
	3	%	%	%	%	%			
	SE	31	49	72	77	77	3.39	1.294	
	4	10.1	16.0	23.5	25.2	25.2			Disagree
	4	%	%	%	%	%			
			Mean			,	2	.60	Agree
CC	F	129	78	53	19	27	2.14	1.274	Agree
ncii	C1	42.2	25.5	17.3	6.2	8.8	2.17		Agree
litia	F	99	99	65	32	11	2.21	1.113	
Facilitating Conditions	C2	32.4	32.4	21.2	10.5	3.6	2.21	1.113	Agree
. 00	F	82	96	77	35	16	2.37	1.147	Agree
	C3	26.8	31.4	25.2	11.4	5.2	2.37	1.14/	Agree
	F	89	111	49	34	23	2.32	1 215	A gran
	C4	29.1	36.3	16.0	11.1	7.5	2.32	1.215	Agree
			Mean				2	.26	Agree
Bu in.	BI	100	97	63	23	23	2.25		Strongly
e to	1	32.7	31.7	20.6	7.5	7.5	4.45	1.204	Agree
Behavioral intention to use the syst	BI	94	107	69	18	18	2.21	1.121	Agree
n ta	2	30.7	35.0	22.5	5.9	5.9	2.21	1.141	Agree
Behavioral intention to use the system	BI	77	100	85	22	22	2.39	1.149	Agnes
2	3	25.2	32.7	27.8	7.2	7.2	2.39	1.149	Agree
Mean							2	.28	Agree



Notes: AT: attitude; EE: effort expectancy; FC: facilitating conditions; PE: performance expectancy; SI: social influence; BI: behavioral intention.

3.3 Correlation Analysis

Convergent validity and discriminated validity are assessed by Pearson correlation analysis. Guidelines suggest that factor loadings greater than 0.50 or a stricter criterion greater than 0.70 [13]. the relationship between the variables is positive and has a very high statistical significance (Less than or equal to 0.001) Therefore, all constructs in the model have adequate reliability and convergent validity. Correlation results are showed in table 5.

Table 5: Correlation of adoption factors

	PE	EE	AT	SI	FC	BI
PE	1					
EE	0.608**	1				
AT	0.585**	0.555**	1			
SI	0.410**	0.442**	0.332**	1		
FC	0.423**	0.444**	0.364**	0.376**	1	
BI	0.479**	0.487**	0.526**	0.365**	0.355**	1

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4. Conclusion

The study dealt with the acceptance of students of the Faculty of Science at TOBRUK University of e-learning, and through the above, the researchers reached the following results:

1. Students of the Faculty of Science at TOBRUK University are convinced that electronic education will provide



benefits to consumers in utilizing e-learning , with an average of 1.76, according to the weighted mean.

- **2.** Students are convinced that e-learning will be easy to use, with an average of 2.0625, according to the weighted mean.
- **3.** Students perception Using E-Learning is a good idea and make work more interesting, with an average of 1.86, according to the weighted mean.
- **4.** Students perceive that important people (e.g. university of TOBRUK) believe that they should use a e-learning technology, with an average of 2.60, according to the weighted mean.
- **5.** Students perception of the resources and support available to use e-learning, with an average of 2.26, according to the weighted mean.
- **6.** Students' desire for e-learning in the future is positive, with an average of 2.28, according to the weighted mean.

In general, the results of this study show that students of the Faculty of Science from TOBRUK University are well versed in the latest tools and forms of e-learning and have a high rate of access to the internet, so they are ready to use it as well. Students are also interested in using e-learning rather than traditional teaching.

5. Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, including the practical side and the results of the questionnaires, the researchers make the following recommendations to the Ministry of Education:

• To promote awareness of the importance of using electronic dissemination, and to disseminate success stories to increase the expected benefit factor of using e-learning.



- To provide suitable number of computers at colleges, so there will be extra time available for teachers and students.
- To hold training courses for teachers at colleges so that they are trained on how to use computers and the internet in education and how to implement e-learning.

Reference

- [1]. Watering, G.V.D. and J.V.D. Rijt, Teachers' and students' perceptions of assessments: A review and a study into the ability and accuracy of estimating the difficulty levels of assessment items. Educ. Res. 2006.
- [2].Ong CS, Lai JY And Wang YS. Factors Affecting Engineers" Acceptance of Asynchronous E-learning Systems in High-Tech Companies.Information and Management, 41 (6), 2004.
- [3].Gunasekaran, A., Mcneil, R. & Shaul, D. "e-learning: research and applications", Industrial and Commercial Training, (2002).
- [4]. Shopova, T., E-Learning in Higher Educational Environment. Italy, International Conference The Future of Education. 2012
- [5].Edword,Allan,and Glenn Finger."elearning and sport management:hyper pedagogy possibilities." Support management review 10.no.2(2007).
- [6]. Hubakova ,Sarka. "Foreign language teaching with web support." procodia social and behavioral scienc 3(2010)
- [7]. VanRaaij, E.M. and Schepers, J.J. (2008). The acceptance and use of a virtual learning environment in China. Computers & Education, vol. 50, (2008).



- [8]. Gong, Xu, & Yu, An Enhanced technology acceptance model for web based learning. Journal of information systems education, 2004.
- [9]. Sunders, G. & Klemning, F. Integration technology into traditional learning environment. Active learning higher education (2003).
- [10]. Dillon & Morris. From "can they" to "will they?" extending usability evaluation to address acceptance.in E.D Hoddley & B.Izak(Eds.),proceding Association for information systems conference Baltimore,MD,1998.
- [11]. Venkatesh V, Morris MG, Davis GB, Davis FD Useracceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view.(2003).
- [12]. Gliem, R. R., & Gliem, J. A. ,Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scales. Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, andCommunity Education(2003).
- [13]. Fornell, C. A. Second generation of multivariate analysis: Methods (Vol. 1). New York, NY: Praeger Scientific. (1982).



Using Intelligent Control to Improve Speech Recognition

Jalila Alfirjany*
jaleela1993@gmail.com

Dr. Ibrahim Ighneiwa*

Ibrahim.ighneiwa@uob.edu.ly

(*) Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering Faculty of Engineering, University of Benghazi Benghazi, Libya

Abstract

Control systems engineers have recently began using intelligent control instead of classical control to solve many control system problems, because it simulates human thinking and needs less mathematical modeling and deals with non-linear systems much easier. Those facts were the main motivation to use intelligent control to improve the efficiency of speech recognition. In this paper, first speech recognition is defined and explained, then intelligent control, specifically fuzzy logic control, is used to improve the efficiency of speech recognition. Ten numbers, one to ten, were used to test and evaluate the system. Intelligent control proved to be very efficient in situations where classic control fails to recognize one number from another because of the close similarity in their characteristics.

Keywords: Speech Recognition; Intelligent Control; Fuzzy Logic.

الملخص

بدأ مهندسو أنظمة التحكم مؤخرا في استخدام التحكم الذكي بدلا من التحكم التقليدي لحل العديد من مشاكل نظم التحكم ، لأن التحكم الذكي يحاكي التفكير البشري ويحتاج



إلى القليل من النمذجة الرياضية ، كما أنه يتعامل مع النظم غير الخطية بطريقة أسهل وأسرع. تلك الحقائق كانت الدافع الرئيسي وراء استخدام التحكم الذكي لتحسين "التعرف على على الكلام"Speech Recognition" في هذا البحث ، حيث تم تعريف "التعرف على الكلام وشرح كيفية عمله ، ثم استخدم التحكم الذكي ، وتحديدا المنطق الرمادي ، لتحسين كفاءة التعرف على الكلام. ولقد تم استخدام عشرة أرقام ، من واحد إلى عشرة ، لاختبار وتقييم النظام ،حيث أثبتت آليات التحكم الذكية فعاليتها في الحالات التي فشلت آليات التحكم النقليدية في التعرف على الفرق بين الأرقام ، بسبب التشابه في خصائصها.

الكلمات الدليلية :التعرف على الكلام ، التحكم الذكى ، المنطق الرمادي.

I. Introduction

Speech recognition, also sometimes referred to as voice recognition, is software technology that lets the user control computer functions and dictate text by voice, and since it is nonlinear process it needs complex mathematical modeling and the whole premise behind Intelligent Control (IC) is that the system to be controlled does not have to be rigidly modeled. Here engineers only have to input the appropriate stimuli to the IC and evaluate it. The IC itself develops a model of the system to be controlled. Some of the IC techniques are: Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), Genetic Algorithms (GA), Genetic Programming (GP) and Fuzzy Logic Control (FLC) to name a few (Gaikwad, 2013).

FLC is used in this paper to improve speech recognition because of its tolerance of imprecise and fuzzy reasoning builds this understanding into the process and thus simplify the process of modeling complex nonlinear functions. In this paper, FLC is utilized to efficiently recognize the small differences between 10 numbers, one to ten, sounds, where classic control fails.



This paper is structured as follows. In Section II, speech recognition is defined and explained. Artificial intelligence is introduced in section III and fuzzy logic is specifically discussed in details. System design, result and analysis is featured in section IV. At the end, some conclusions and suggestions for some future work techniques that could make the system recognize much more numbers and characters is listed in Section V.

II. Speech Recognition

Speech recognition, also sometimes referred to as voice recognition, is software technology that lets the user control computer functions and dictate text by voice. For example, a person can move the mouse cursor with a voice command, such as opening up a file menu; or creating documents. For these reasons, more and more people with special needs are considering speech recognition as an alternative to computer access. Figure 1 shows steps of speech recognition (Sawakare et al., 2015).

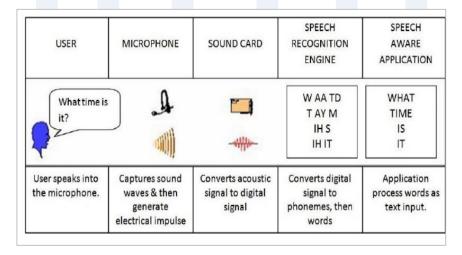


Figure 1. Steps of speech recognition

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



A. Types of Speech Recognition

Speech recognition systems can be divided into the number of classes based on their ability to recognize that words and list of words they have. A few classes of speech recognition are classified as follows:

• Isolated Speech

Isolated words usually involve a pause between two utterances; it doesn't mean that it only accepts a single word but instead it requires one utterance at a time.

Connected Speech

Connected words or connected speech is similar to isolated speech but allow separate utterances with minimal pause between them.

• Continuous speech

Continuous speech allows the user to speak almost naturally, it is also called the computer dictation(Sawakare et al., 2015).

B. Classification of Speech Signal

Speech can be divided into numerous silence, voiced and unvoiced regions. Silence is when no speech is produced. Voiced speech consists of more or less constant frequency tones of some duration, made when vowels are spoken. It is produced when periodic pulses of air generated by the vibrating glottis resonate through the vocal tract, at frequencies dependent on the vocal tract shape. About two-thirds of speech is voiced and this type of speech is also what is most important for intelligibility. Unvoiced speech is non-periodic, random-like sounds, caused by air passing through a narrow constriction of the vocal tract as when consonants are spoken. Voiced speech, because of its periodic nature, can be identified, and extracted. Zero Crossing Rate (ZCR) and Energy of a speech (EoS) are important parameters for voiced/unvoiced classification (Sawakare et al., 2015).



• Zero-Crossings Rate (ZCR)

In the context of discrete-time signals, a zero crossing is said to occur if successive samples have different algebraic signs. The rate at which zero crossings occur is a simple measure of the frequency content of a signal. Zero-crossing rate (ZCR) is a measure of number of times in a given time interval/frame that the amplitude of the speech signals passes through a value of zero, Figure2 shows the Definition of zero-crossings rate. Speech signals are broadband signals and interpretation of average zero-crossing rate is therefore much less precise. Rough estimates of spectral properties can be obtained using a representation based on the short time average ZCR (Dsprelated, 2015).

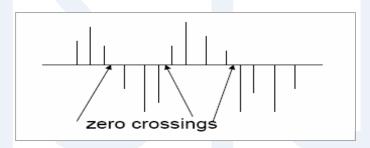


Figure 2. Definition of zero-crossings

• Short Time Energy (STE)

The amplitude of unvoiced segments is noticeably lower than that of the voiced segments. The short-time energy of speech signals reflects the amplitude variation. In a typical speech signal it can be seen that its certain properties considerably changes with time. For example, one can observe a significant variation in the peak amplitude of the signal and a considerable variation of fundamental frequency within voiced regions in a speech signal like that in Figure 3 (Memmedova, 2017).

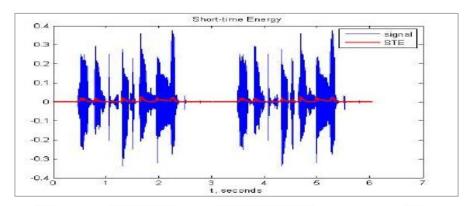


Figure 3. Short time energy of a speech signal sample

III. Intelligent Control (IC)

In developing a traditional control system, the designer needs to construct a mathematical model which contains all the dynamics of the plant, which means a lot of processing time is needed, while in developing an Intelligent Control (IC) System (ICS) to control an agent or a plant, the designer inputs the system behaviour and the ICS abstractly models the system; the designer doesn't need to know the internal dynamics of the plant (Memmedova , 2017). The IC technique utilized in this paper is Fuzzy Logic Control (FLC) which is discussed in the following section.

• Fuzzy Logic Control (FLC)

When dealing with most system problems, there are no black and white values people uses, but shades of grey. For example, if asked about temperature today, people would respond with "hot" or "very hot" as opposed to "30.36 degree" or "46.12", and that can be represented as fuzzy sets as shown in Figure 4 (Memmedova, 2017).

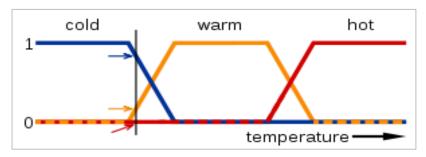


Figure 4. Temperature FLC fuzzy sets

The general approach to FLC is made up of 6 steps.(Figure 5):

- 1. Define the input and output variables.
- 2. Define the subsets' intervals.
- 3. Choose the membership functions (fuzzification).
- 4. Set the If-Then rules.
- 5. Perform calculations and adjust rules.
- 6. Get output through defuzzification(Computer Vision, 2004).

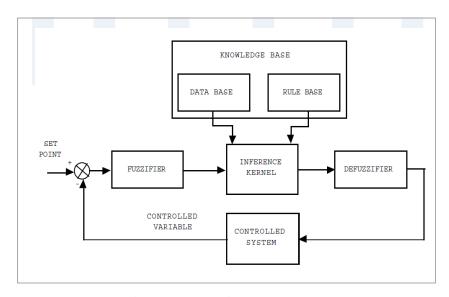


Figure 5. FLC Inference system (FIS)



IV.Using FLC to Improve Speech Recognition

Code for Voice Recording

The first step in designing FLC system for improving speech recording was to do some number recording (one to ten), and use conventional techniques to recognize them, which fails to recognize some numbers because of their close characteristics similarities. The second step was to utilize FLC to improve recognizing all the numbers fed to the system. In coding the recognition program, Matlab was utilized (Mathworks, 2018).

A. Computing STE And ZCR

Fifty values of STE and ZCR values were extracted from 50 voice recordings that were done in designing the system, few of them are shown in Table1. The highlighted values are outliers neglected by the system.

Table 1.Some of the 50 values of ZCR and STE of numbers one through ten

Number	Zero Crossing	Short Time Energy
1واحد	2931	2.2719
2واحد	3031	3.2616
3واحد	3015	2.8053
4و احد	2951	3.2624
5واحد	3191	2.8034
1 اثنان	2531	2.6177
2اثنان	2675	2.6011
3اثنان	2650	2.2476
4اثنان	2863	2.7544
5اثنان	2577	3.1714



In order to recognize voices that have close values for ZCR and STE, i.e. similarities, fuzzy logic showed its effectiveness in deciding which values actually belong to what voice. Some samples of fuzzy sets for the inputs (ZCR and STE),the outputs (Numbers), the rules, and the defuzzified final results are discussed in the following section.

B. Input and Output Fuzzy Sets, Rules and Final Results

Using two inputs (ZCR and STE) as features of the number entered, the system gives its classification of the out put, which is the number. These final results showed the system ability to distinguish between similar numbers and gives the right number.

The following figures (Figure 6 through Figure 11 show the input fuzzy sets (ZCR and STE), the output fuzzy sets (number), fuzzy rules and two sample runs of the fuzzy system.

Figure 6 shows the fuzzified first input (ZCR):

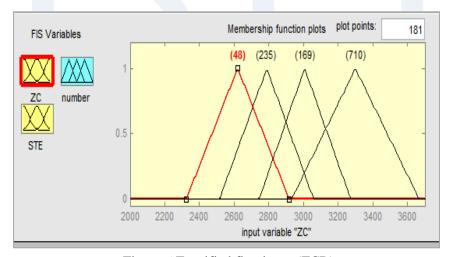


Figure 6.Fuzzified first input (ZCR)



Figure 7 shows the fuzzified second input (STE):

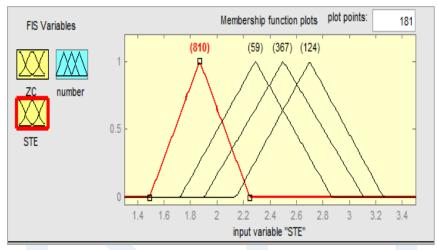


Figure 7. Fuzzified second input (STE)

Figure 8 shows the fuzzified output (number):

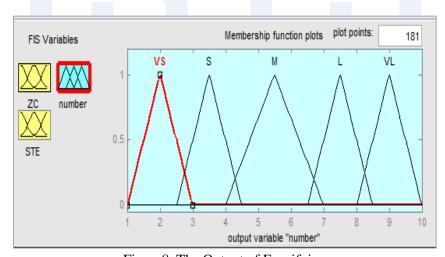


Figure 8. The Output of Fuzzifying



Figure 9 shows the rules as listed in the Matlab FIS rules view:

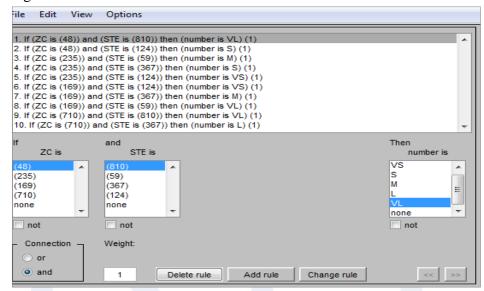


Figure 9.The rules of the fuzzy inference system

Figure 10 shows a sample run of the system for inputs (3163, 2.78), for which the output is 5 and Figure 11 shows another sample run of the system for inputs (3037,2.15), which is 7.

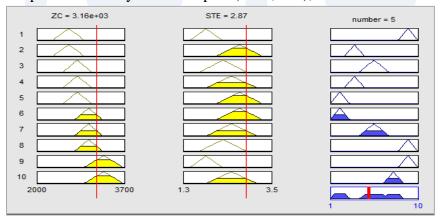


Figure 10. The final output for theinputs (3162,2.87), which is 5.

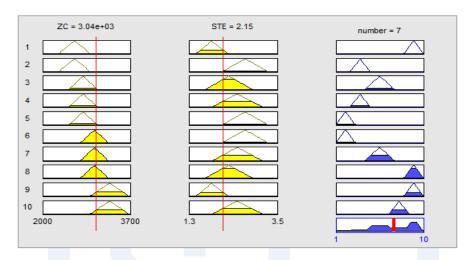


Figure 11. The final output for the inputs (3037,2.15), which is 7.

V. Conclusions

The research and practical work on the speech recognition problem showed that intelligent control, namely fuzzy logic control, could be used to improve speech recognition. It has been found that intelligent control is very efficient and reliable and it is easy to simulate and its processing is faster than its conventional counterparts control techniques. Although only ten numbers were used to validate and test the system, it could be easily modified to accommodate more numbers recognition. This work could be much improved if more than one intelligent control is utilized because designing fuzzy sets proved to be in need for some intelligent control itself like genetic algorithm which could find the optimal sets for the fuzzy system on hand. One more note is that one must use very advanced recording techniques to make it easy for the system to differentiate between numbers that is hard to recognize their differences.



References

Chit, Y. W., & Renu, R. D. (2017). Fuzzy Logic Based Segmentation for Myanmar Continuous Speech Recognition System. *American Scientific Research Journal for Engineering, Technology, and Sciences (ASRJETS)*, 31(1), 183-190.

Computer Vision, Speech Communication & Signal Processing Group. (2004). Speech demo 2004. Retrieved (23 May, 2018) from http://cvsp.cs.ntua.gr/~nassos/resources/speech_course_2004.

Dsprelated.com. (2018). Zero crossing. Retrieved (12 July, 2018) from https://www.dsprelated.com/showthread/matlab/2667-1.php.

Gaikwad, S. (2013). Speech Recognition. University of Pune. Mathworks.com. (2018). Matlab for speech recognition. Retrieved (11 Aug 2018) from https://www.mathworks.com.

Mathworks.com. (2018). Matlab for speech recognition. Retrieved (11 Aug 2018) from https://www.mathworks.com.

Memmedova, K. (2017). Fuzzy logic modelling of the impact of using technology on anxiety and aggression levels of students. *Procedia Computer Science*, 120, 495-501.

Sawakare, P. A., Deshmukh, R. R., &Shrishrimal, P. P. (2015). Speech Recognition Techniques: A Review. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, 6(8), 1693-1698.

Appendix

Recording Sample Voices

% Voice Record --- This program records the voice --- myRecObj = audiorecorder(50000, 16, 2); disp('Start speaking.');



```
recordblocking(myRecObj, 2);
disp('End of Recording.');
y = getaudiodata(myRecObj);
audiowrite('nji.wav',y,50000);
```

Computing number zero crossing rate (ZCR) of the signal

% [n] = zc(x) calculates the number of zero crossings in x [x,Fs] = wavread('j12.wav')% ZC number of zero crossings in x s=sign(x); $t=filter([1\ 1],1,s)$;n=length(find(t==0))

Computing short time energy of the signal

```
[speechSignalFs]=wavread('j13.wav');
period=50;
%Energy is calculated every period samples
winLens=[161 321 501 601];
nWindows=length(winLens);
k=0;n=0;
foriWinLen=winLens
  k=k+1;
wHamm=hamming(iWinLen);
ienergyST=STenergy(speechSignal,wHamm,iWinLen,period);
%Short-Time energy calculation
n= n+ max(ienergyST);t=(0:length(speechSignal)-1)/Fs;
subplot(nWindows,1,k);
if (k==1)
     title('Short-Time energy for various Hamming windows
lengths');
end
if(k==4)
xlabel('Time/sec');
end
end
```



A SIMULATION MODEL FOR SPARK IGNITION ENGINE FUELED WITH NATURAL GAS-HYDROGEN BLENDS

Ahmed S. Algrady¹, Mohamed S. Oun², Mohammed H. Elhsnawi³

- 1 Faculty of Engineering, Mechanical Engineering Department, University Of Zawiay
- 2 Faculty of Engineering, Mechanical Engineering Department, University Of Tripoli
- 3 Faculty of Engineering, Mechanical Engineering Department, Alzaytouna University

E-mail: ahmedsoof@gmail.com

الملخص

تمت دراسة تأثير مزيج وقود الغاز الطبيعي مع الهيدروجين بسبب قدرتها على إنتاج انبعاثات عادم منخفضة مقارنة بالوقود التقليدي، تم اختبار تحليل خصائص النموذج الرياضي لمحرك اشعال بالشرارة يستخدم الوقود الطبيعي في بحث سابق.[1]

في هذا البحث تم تقديم ملحق للنموذج الرياضي وبيانات الأداء للمحرك بواسطة الورقة السابقة [1]، يتم تطبيقه باستخدام لغة FORTRAN، وخصائص الاحتراق لمحرك احتراق يعمل بوقود الغاز الطبيعي مخلوط بغاز الهيدروجين، تم العمل في نسبة انضغاط 8 ، سرعة المحرك 2000 دورة في الدقيقة ونسبة الهواء الى الوقود بين 0.9 الى 1.4 .

أظهرت النتائج أن الكفاءة الحرارية زادت مع زيادة مخلوط الهيدروجين بنسبة تزيد عن 20%. أشارت الدراسة إلى أن الجزء الأمثل من الهيدروجين في مخلوط الغاز الطبيعي مع الهيدروجين هو حوالي 20% للحصول على حل وسط في أداء المحرك والانبعاثات.

ABSTRACT

العدد 17 Volume ابریل April 2019



Natural gas and hydrogen were studied due to their ability to produce low exhaust emission compared to the conventional fuel. Computer model characteristics analysis of a spark-ignited engine fueled with natural gas were investigated [1].

In this paper an extension of the model and a performance data are presented for the engine by the previous paper [1], is applied using FORTRAN language, combustion characteristics of a directinjection spark-ignited engine fueled with natural gas—hydrogen blends under compression ratio 8, engine speed 2000 rpm and excess air ratio 0.9 - 1.4 were investigated.

The results showed that the thermal efficiency increased with the increase of hydrogen fraction at exceed 20%. The study suggested that the optimum hydrogen volumetric fraction in natural gas—hydrogen blends is around 20% to get the compromise in both engine performance and emissions.

Keywords - Air-fuel model, thermodynamic models, spark ignition engines, Natural gas, hydrogen.

I. INTRODUCTION

In Europe, gas engines are being used increasingly in stationary applications, most notably in combine Heat and Power (CHP) systems. In the size range considered here (less than 100 kW) the engines are invariably adapted from automotive diesel engines; the conversions are not usually made by the original manufacturer. In consequence, the combustion system in these conversions have not usually been optimized. None the less, the low cost of natural gas (NG) means that, when there is a steady demand for heat and electricity, CHP installations offer an attractive payback [2].

Natural gas is considered to be one of the favorable fuels for engines, and the natural gas fueled engine has been realized in both the spark-ignited engine and the compression-ignited engine. However, due to the slow burning velocity of natural gas and the poor lean-burn capability, the natural gas spark-ignited engine has



the disadvantage of large cycle-by-cycle variations and poor leanburn capability, and these will decrease the engine power output and increase fuel consumption [3,4]. Due to these restrictions, a natural gas engine is usually operated at the condition of stoichiometric equivalence ratio with relatively low thermal efficiency. Traditionally, to improve the lean-burn capability and flame burning velocity of the natural gas engine under lean-burn conditions, an increase in flow intensity in cylinder is introduced, and this measure always increases the heat loss to the cylinder wall and increases the combustion temperature as well as the nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emission [5]. One effective method to solve the problem of slow burning velocity of natural gas is to mix the natural gas with the fuel that possesses fast burning velocity. Hydrogen is regarded as the best gaseous candidate for natural gas due to its very fast burning velocity, and this combination is expected to improve the lean-burn characteristics and decrease engine emissions [6].

Blarigan and Keller investigated the port-injection engine fueled with natural gas-hydrogen mixtures [7]. Wong and Karim studied engine performance fueled by various hydrogen fractions in natural gas-hydrogen blends [8]. And Bauer and Forest conducted an experimental study on natural gas-hydrogen combustion in a cooperative fuel research (CFR) engine [9]. Furthermore, studies on lean combustion capability of natural gas-hydrogen combustion and natural gas-hydrogen combustion with turbo-charging and/or exhaust gas recirculation were also conducted [10,11], and these studies showed that the exhaust hydrocarbon (HC), carbon monoxide (CO), and carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations could be decreased when exhaust concentrations from an engine operated on natural gas-hydrogen blends were compared to those of natural gas engine. However, NO_x may increase for natural gas-hydrogen



combustion at rich mixture condition as the improvement of lean-burning ability and increased flame propagation speed; NO_x concentration can be greatly decreased through lean combustion and retarding of the ignition advance angle. The previous work mainly concentrated on homogeneous mixtures where fuels are introduced from the port, and few articles were found for direct-injection engine using natural gas-hydrogen blends [12]. Shudo et al. investigated the combustion and emissions of an engine with port-injected hydrogen and in cylinder injection natural gas [13]. This type of engine needs two separate fueling systems, and this makes the system complicated. This article will investigate the performance and emissions of a direct-injection engine fueled with various fractions of natural gas-hydrogen mixtures and expect to clarify the behaviors of engine fueled with natural gas-hydrogen mixtures.

Optimization of the engine design and operating variables requires extensive engine tests. Therefore, engine modeling codes are generally preferred for evaluating initial designs. Computer models of engine processes are valuable tools for analysis and optimization of engine performance and allow exploration of many engine design alternatives in an inexpensive fashion. For any given engine design and operating condition, in-cylinder pressure-time trace can be predicted. Further, parameters such as spark timing, and equivalence ratio can be optimized for the best performance. Since the burned and unburned zone thermodynamic states can be computed, the knock limits and exhaust emissions can be estimated [14].

II. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF THE MODEL ZERO-DIMENSIONAL THERMODYNAMIC MODEL



Zero-D models are the most commonly preferred analytical tools for combustion analysis of internal combustion engines. Since there is only one independent variable crank angle (CA) for Zero-D models, the governing equations are ordinary differential equations. It should be also noted that the independent variable, CA, is the crank angle and defines the piston position relative to top dead center (TDC) in a cycle.

Rassweiler and Withrow [15] observed that the pressure rise due to combustion is proportional to the corresponding increments of the burned-mass fraction of the fuel-air mixture. Their observation showed that it was possible to determine the mass-burning rate of the mixture from the measured cylinder pressure without knowledge of the flame shape and propagation speed. If the mass-burning rate is given, the equations of the same model can be solved to calculate the thermodynamic state of the burned and unburned zones of the cylinder and the model can be used for parametric studies.

FORMULATION OF THE MODEL

Burning rate analysis began at bottom dead center (-180 degrees CA) where the cylinder contains a mixture of air, fuel, and residual gases. The mixture was then compressed until the initiation of combustion at a specified CA degree. Until the start of combustion, the model was a single zone and underwent no preflame reactions. With the initiation of combustion, the second zone (burned zone) was created. Figure 1 shows the burned and unburned zones which were assumed to be separated by an infinitesimally thin flame front. The burned zone consisted of the equilibrium products of combustion and both zones were assumed to be at the same pressure at any CA.

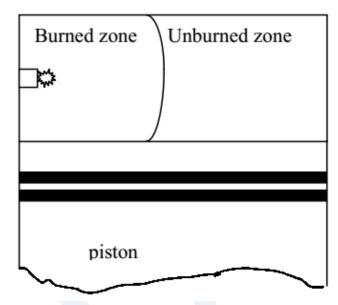


Figure 1: Burned and unburned zones of combustion chamber[16].

During the compression period, the properties of the fuel, air, and residual gas mixture were determined by a FORTRAN subroutine FARG, which was written by Ferguson [16]. The temperature of the unburned mixture was determined using the ideal gas law.

$$PV = mRT \tag{1}$$

Where (\mathbf{P} is the pressure within the cylinder, \mathbf{V} is the volume, \mathbf{m} is the mass of the fuel, air, residual gas mixture, \mathbf{R} is the gas constant of the mixture and \mathbf{T} is the temperature of the mixture). The second zone was created after the spark fires and initially was assumed to contain 0.01% of the original mixture burned. The volume of the two zones was equal to the total cylinder volume, which was a function of the cylinder geometry and CA. The total volume was conserved:



$$V = V_b + V_u \tag{2}$$

Where the subscript "u" refers to unburned and "b" refers to burned gas.

Total mass was assumed to be constant, since valve leakage and blow-by were neglected. The total mass was conserved:

$$m = m_b + m_u \tag{3}$$

In each zone, assuming ideal gases and the same pressure, the equation of state must be satisfied.

$$P = m_h R_h T_h / V_h = m_u R_u T_u / V_u \tag{4}$$

The energy equations were written for the two zones as follows:

$$\frac{d(m_u u_u)}{d\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dQ_{ui}}{d\theta} - P \frac{dV_u}{d\theta} - \frac{dm_u}{d\theta} h_u$$
 (5)

$$\frac{d(m_b u_b)}{d\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dQ_{bi}}{d\theta} - P \frac{dV_b}{d\theta} + \frac{dm_u}{d\theta} h_u$$
 (6)

Where (\mathbf{u} is the internal energy, \mathbf{h} is the enthalpy, \mathbf{Q} is the heat transfer from the gas to surfaces and $\mathbf{\theta}$ is the crank angle). The heat transfer surfaces were the piston, head, and cylinder walls. Heat exchange across the flame front was ignored. The heat transfer rates for both zones were determined using Annand's heat transfer correlation [17] as if each of the zones filled the entire cylinder. Then, the heat transfer rates were multiplied by the fraction of the cylinder volume that is occupied by the zone. This method of volume-weighting was also used by Shapiro and Van Gerpen [18]. The equilibrium properties of the burned mixture were determined using a version of the FORTRAN subroutine FRAG developed by Olikara and Borman [19]. The equations of the model were



integrated from the beginning of the second zone to exhaust valve opening to determine the following variables:

$$T_u(\theta)$$
, $T_b(\theta)$, $m_u(\theta)$, $m_b(\theta)$, $V_u(\theta)$, $V_b(\theta)$

This model was extended with the NO_x production Zeldovich model [15]. A program called ZINOX. As shown on Figure (2), the model's allows single or multi runs to be performed. If a singlecycle simulation is chosen, the model will proceed to integrate the ordinary differential equations (ODEs) starting from a crank angle of -180° until 180° to obtain the variation of the cycle parameters with crank-angle over the complete cycle. At the end of the cycle the simulation also gives the values of four overall parameters which are the indicated thermal efficiency (η) , the indicated mean effective pressure (IMEP), the work (W), NOx emission (NO_x), the error in the conservation of mass (Error 1), and error in the conservation of energy (Error 2). The results are stored in a normal text file. The multi-cycle option gives the variation of the eight overall parameters (η, IMEP, W, NO_x emission ... ,Error 1, and Error 2), If this simulation is selected, the model does the cycle integration for each value of the selected parameter all stores the values of the parameters for the cycle in a second text file.

The input data to the ZINOX -1 engine model are given in Figure (2) below:

Following the specification of the fuel and engine properties, the model may be triggered to run the required simulation mode by pressing the "enter" button. The results can then be plotted with Grapher Golden software. Model for the engine with the specifications shown on Figure (2) with natural gas as fuel. The Figures shows the variation of the pressure, work, temperature, and heat leakage with the crank angle.



```
CURRENT SET OF INPUT DATA IS:

1. COMPRESION RATIO,
2. BORE,
3. STROKE,
4. HALF STROKE TO BORE RATIO,
5. ENGINE SPEED, RPM (rev/min)
6. HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT, H (J/m**2/K : 500.00
7. BLOWBY COEFFICIENT, C (1/8)
8. BURNING ANGLE, THETAB (deg) : .00
9. START OF IGNITION, THETAS (deg) : .24.00
10. MEAN EQUI DALENCE RATIO, PH : .00
11. RESIDUAL MEAN STROCTION, F : .05
12. INITIAL TEMPERATURE, 11 (K) : .363.00
14. WALL TEMPERATURE, 11 (K) : .363.00
15. COMP(3) COMP(3) COMP(4) C2H6 : .961
17. COMP(3) L2 : .0000 18. COMP(4) C2H6 : .961
19. COMP(5) C3H8 : .0014 29. COMP(6) C4H10: .0005
21. COMP(7) C8H18 : .0006 24. COMP(6) C4H10: .0006
22. COMP(7) C2H5OH: .0000 24. COMP(10) CO : .0255

ANY CORRECTION? IF NO - ENTER 0

EXIT TO DOS - ENTER 100
```

Figure 2: Engine specifications and operating conditions

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

A single cylinder engine was modified into a natural gas directinjection engine. The specifications of the engine are listed in Table 1. The injector used in the study is modified from a gasoline direct-injection engine made by tHitachi Co. To increase the flow rate for natural gas application, we removed the swirler near the tip of the nozzle. The calibration of the pulse width with the injection amount was made by the manufacturer as well as by the authors. The flow rate of the injector under 9 MPa was 193 L/min. In addition to installing the natural gas high-pressure injector, we also installed a spark plug at the center of the combustion chamber as the ignition source. Natural gas was injected into the cylinder at a constant pressure of 8 MPa, the gas velocity from the injector nozzle is kept at a constant value of sonic velocity because of the condition of choke flow during the fuel injection, and thus the amount of injected fuel will stay at a constant value determined by the injection duration in this study [20].



Table 1: Experimental engine specifications [20]

Item	Specification
Engine type	4 stroke (Ricardo)
Number of cylinders	1
Bore (mm)	100
Stroke (mm)	115
Length connecting rod (mm)	190
Compression ratio	8
Engine speed (rpm)	2000
Displacement (l)	0.903
Combustion chamber	Bowl-in-shape
Ignition source	Spark plug
Initial pressure (kPa)	99
Residual mass fraction	0.05

Hydrogen with 99.995% purity was used, and natural gas constitutions are given in Table 2. Different fractions of natural gas-hydrogen mixtures were prepared in advance in a fuel bomb and were supplied to the fuel injector. Sonic flow of the injected gases was presented because of the choke flow during injection. It is estimated that an 18% volume fraction of hydrogen corresponds to a 2% mass fraction of hydrogen in the mixture, and thus the influence on the volumetric flow rate is limited. Therefore, the volumetric flow rate of natural gas-hydrogen mixtures in this study is assumed to be unchangeable and can be regarded as a function of injection duration.

The simulation study done of experimental natural gas—hydrogen fuel blends with hydrogen volumetric fractions of four fuel blends were prepared: the pure natural gas, the blend with 90% natural gas and 10% hydrogen by volume, the blend with 80% natural gas and 20% hydrogen, and the blend with 74% natural gas and 26% hydrogen [21].



Table 2: Composition of natural gas [20]

Component	Amount (vol %)
Methane CH ₄	96.16
Ethane C ₂ h ₆	1.096
Propane C ₃ h ₈	0.136
Butane (iso-) i- C ₄ h ₁₀	0.021
Butane (n-) <i>n</i> - C ₄ h ₁₀	0.021
Pentane (iso-) <i>i</i> - C ₅ h ₁₂	0.006
Pentane (n-) <i>n</i> - C ₅ h ₁₂	0.005
Carbon dioxide CO ₂	2.54
Nitrogen N ₂	0.001
Water H ₂ O	0.006
Hydrogen sulfide H ₂ S	0.0002

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results obtained from the thermodynamic simulation model are presented. cylinder pressure, Total combustion duration and thermal efficiency for a single cylinder were simulated. four stroke SI engine running on natural gas.

Figures (3a, 3b, 3c and 3d) give the cylinder pressure of blends with different hydrogen fractions and at four excess air ratios. In the case of the rich mixture combustion ($\lambda = 0.9$), the natural gas combustion gives an early rising in cylinder pressure and a higher value of peak pressure. With the increase of the hydrogen fraction in natural gas-hydrogen blends, the rising point in the cylinder pressure is retarded, and the crank angle at the peak pressure is postponed, leading to the decrease of the peak cylinder pressure with the increase of the hydrogen fraction in natural gas-hydrogen blends. Although the flame propagation speed is increased with the increase of the hydrogen fraction in the natural gas-hydrogen blends, the retarding in the optimum ignition timing with the increase of the hydrogen fraction still postpones the rising of the cylinder pressure. In addition, the decrease in the heating value of



the blend with the increase of the hydrogen fraction decreases the peak value of the cylinder pressure.

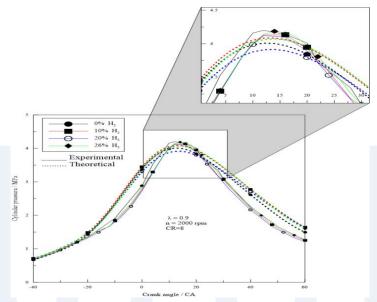


Figure 3a: Cylinder pressure versus the CA at LAMBDA 0.9 at 2000 rpm

In the case of the stoichiometric mixture combustion (λ = 1.0) and the lean mixture combustion (λ = 1.2 and 1.4), the blend with the 10% hydrogen fraction gives the earliest cylinder pressure rising and the highest value of the peak cylinder pressure. When further increasing the hydrogen fraction in natural gas-hydrogen blends, the rising point in the cylinder pressure is postponed, accompanied by decreasing the peak cylinder pressure and retarding the crank angle of the peak cylinder pressure.

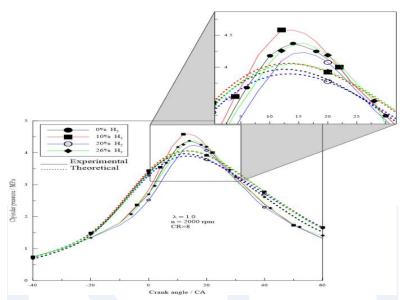


Figure 3b: Cylinder pressure versus the CA at LAMBDA 1.0 at 2000

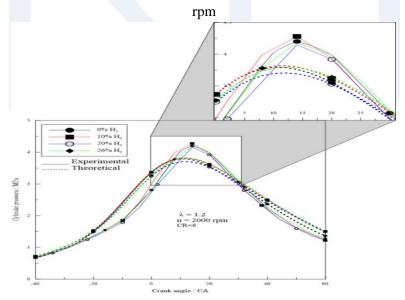


Figure 3c: Cylinder pressure versus the CA at LAMBDA 1.2 at 2000 rpm

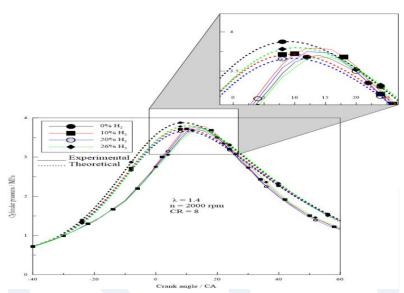


Figure 3d: Cylinder pressure versus the CA at LAMBDA 1.4 at 2000 rpm

The figures also show that the differences among the blends at different hydrogen fractions become small when increasing the excess air ratio and/or using a leaner mixture combustion. The study reveals that, at the same excess air ratio and optimum ignition timing setting, the influence from hydrogen addition into natural gas can be reflected at the stoichiometric mixture combustion and the lean mixture combustion.

Two factors are considered to influence the cylinder pressure: one is the increase in flame propagation speed or combustion speed with the increase of the hydrogen fraction in the blends, and this will cause a rapid rising in the cylinder pressure and bring a higher value of the peak cylinder pressure; another is the decrease in the



heating value of the fuel blends with the increase of the hydrogen fraction in natural gas-hydrogen blends, and this will decrease the volumetric heat release rate and the cylinder pressure rising, leading to the lower value of the peak cylinder pressure. When the hydrogen fraction is less than 10%, the effect from the increase in the flame propagation speed is larger than that from the decrease in the heat value of the blends, and this leads to an increase of the cylinder pressure with the increase of the hydrogen fraction.

Figure 4 gives the total combustion duration versus hydrogen fraction. For a given excess air ratio, the rapid combustion duration shows a slight increase with the increase of the hydrogen fraction when the hydrogen fraction is less than 20%, and the rapid combustion duration decreases with the increase of the hydrogen fraction when the hydrogen fraction is larger than 20%. Two factors are considered to bring this phenomenon: one is the addition of hydrogen, which improves the burning speed of mixture; another is the lowering in the volumetric heating value of the mixture by hydrogen addition at the same excess air ratio, and this may reduce the burning velocity of the mixture. This is consistent with the results obtained in a constant volume vessel study where the burning velocity gave a slight increase with the increase of the hydrogen fraction at a hydrogen fraction less than 20%, while a rapid increase in the burning velocity was presented when the hydrogen fraction was over 20%.15 The total combustion duration decreases slightly with the increase of the hydrogen fraction at hydrogen fractions less than 20%, while a rapid decreasing is presented at hydrogen fractions over 20%.

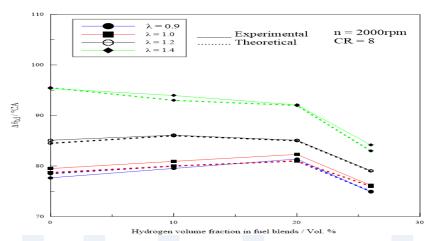


Figure 4: total duration combustion versus hydrogen volume fraction at 2000 rpm

Figure 5 gives the thermal efficiency of the fuel blends versus hydrogen fraction. The natural gas-hydrogen blends maintained high thermal efficiency at high air-fuel ratio (λ) slightly increases with the increase of hydrogen fraction. Two factors due to hydrogen addition influence the variation of thermal efficiency; on one hand, the increase of combustion velocity by hydrogen addition shortens the combustion duration and increases the thermal efficiency, and on the other hand, the heat loss to the chamber wall will be increased by air-fuel ratio (λ) due to the decreased quench distance and increased combustion temperature, and this will decrease the thermal efficiency. The burning velocity at rich mixture gives high value, and the effectiveness of enhancement on burning velocity by hydrogen addition is relatively low.

Copyright © ISTJ

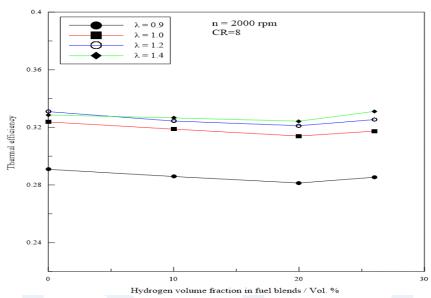


Figure 5: Thermal efficiency versus hydrogen volume fraction at 2000 rpm

The increasing in heat loss to the combustion wall increases with the increase of hydrogen fraction. The combined influence makes little variation of the thermal efficiency with hydrogen fractions. In contrast to this, the enhancement of burning velocity at lean mixture by hydrogen addition gives remarkable increase comparing with that of natural gas, resulting in the decrease of combustion duration with the increase of hydrogen addition and increasing in thermal efficiency. The study suggests that the improvement of burning velocity by hydrogen addition is more obvious at lean mixture combustion than that at rich mixture combustion, and this is consistent to the behavior obtained by authors in the combustion vessel study [5].



V. CONCLUSIONS:

In this study, a mathematical simulation model is developed in FORTRAN programming language in order to investigate the cycle analysis of a single cylinder four stroke engine working according to naturally aspirated Otto cycle. When the program is run, the following results were observed:

The results achieved was a little bit differ from those of Huang et al [21] because he used special measurement instruments which are very accurate and specific for his experimental research natural gas direct-injection engine made by the manufacturer (Hitachi Co.). But the constants we considered in my computer model (thermodynamic data for elements and combustion products) may have some effect on the end results.

The thermal efficiency rises as the percentage of hydrogen in the mixture increases. Therefore, as the hydrogen fraction is increased, the maximum peak pressure is found to be close to the TDC. With the addition of hydrogen to NG.

The percentage of hydrogen in the mixture increases the burning velocity of NG and decreases with the optimal ignition timing to obtain the maximum peak pressure of the engine running with a blend of hydrogen and NG. The indicated efficiency rises as the percentage of hydrogen in the mixture increases. Therefore, as the hydrogen fraction is increased, the maximum peak pressure is found to be close to the TDC up to 20 percent hydrogen.

Thermal efficiency increased with the increase of hydrogen fraction at lowfuel air ratio lean.

From comprehensive evaluation of engine performance and emissions, the study suggests that 20% of hydrogen fraction in natural gas can get the optimum results.



REFERENCES:

- [1].Souf, A., Oun, M., & Elhsnawi, M. (2018). SIMULATION MODEL FOR SPARK IGNITION ENGINE FUELED WITH NATURAL GAS (Vol. 23). University of Tripoli: Journal of Engineering Research
- [2].Mendis, K. J. S., Stone, C. R., Ladommatos, N., & Weller, G. (1993). Modelling and measurements from a natural gas fuelled engine (No. 930927). SAE Technical Paper.
- [3].Rousseau, S., Lemoult, B., & Tazerout, M. (1999). Combustion characterization of natural gas in a lean burn spark-ignition engine. Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, Part D: Journal of Automobile Engineering, 213(5), 481-489.
- [4].Ben, L., Raud-Ducros, N., Truquet, R., & Charnay, G. (1999). Influence of air/fuel ratio on cyclic variation and exhaust emission in natural gas SI engine (No. 1999-01-2901). SAE Technical Paper.
- [5].Zeng, K., Huang, Z., Liu, B., Liu, L., Jiang, D., Ren, Y., & Wang, J. (2006). Combustion characteristics of a direct-injection natural gas engine under various fuel injection timings. Applied thermal engineering, 26(8), 806-813.
- [6].Huang, Z., Wang, J., Liu, B., Zeng, K., Yu, J., & Jiang, D. (2006). Combustion characteristics of a direct-injection engine fueled with natural gas—hydrogen mixtures. Energy & Fuels, 20(2), 540-546.
- [7].Das, A., & Watson, H. C. (1997). Development of a natural gas spark ignition engine for optimum performance. Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, Part D: Journal of Automobile Engineering, 211(5), 361-378.



- [8]. Van Blarigan, P., & Keller, J. O. (1996). A hydrogen fueled internal combustion engine designed for single speed/power operation. HYDROGEN ENERGY PROGRESS, 2, 2029-2038.
- [9].Akansu, S. O., Dulger, Z., Kahraman, N., & Veziroğlu, T. N. (2004). Internal combustion engines fueled by natural gas—hydrogen mixtures. International journal of hydrogen energy, 29(14), 1527-1539.
- [10]. Wong, Y. K., & Karim, G. A. (2000). An analytical examination of the effects of hydrogen addition on cyclic variations in homogeneously charged compression—ignition engines. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 25(12), 1217-1224.
- [11]. Bauer, C. G., & Forest, T. W. (2001). Effect of hydrogen addition on the performance of methane-fueled vehicles. Part I: effect on SI engine performance. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 26(1), 55-70.
- [12]. Sierens, R., & Rosseel, E. (2000). Variable composition hydrogen/natural gas mixtures for increased engine efficiency and decreased emissions. TRANSACTIONS-AMERICAN SOCIETY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS JOURNAL OF ENGINEERING FOR GAS TURBINES AND POWER, 122(1), 135-140.
- [13]. Larsen, J. F., & Wallace, J. S. (1997). Comparison of emissions and efficiency of a turbocharged lean-burn natural gas and hythane-fueled engine. Journal of Engineering for Gas Turbines and Power, 119(1), 218-226.
- [14]. Soylu, S. (2002). Simple modeling of combustion for natural gas engines (No. 2002-01-2733). SAE Technical Paper.



- [15]. Rassweiler, G. M., & Withrow, L. (1938). Motion pictures of engine flames correlated with pressure cards (No. 380139). SAE Technical Paper.
- [16]. Ferguson, C. R., & Kirkpatrick, A. T. (1986). Internal Combustion Engines, John Wiley&Sons. New York, NY.
- [17]. Annand, W. J. D. (1963). Heat transfer in the cylinders of reciprocating internal combustion engines. Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 177(1), 973-996.
- [18]. Shapiro, H. N., & Van Gerpen, J. H. (1989). Two zone combustion models for second law analysis of internal combustion engines (No. 890823). SAE Technical Paper.
- [19]. Olikara, C., & Borman, G. L. (1975). A computer program for calculating properties of equilibrium combustion products with some applications to IC engines (No. 750468). SAE Technical Paper.
- [20]. Wang, J., Huang, Z., Fang, Y., Liu, B., Zeng, K., Miao, H., & Jiang, D. (2007). Combustion behaviors of a direct-injection engine operating on various fractions of natural gas—hydrogen blends. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 32(15), 3555-3564.
- [21]. Huang, Z., Liu, B., Zeng, K., Huang, Y., Jiang, D., Wang, X., & Miao, H. (2007). Combustion characteristics and heat release analysis of a spark-ignited engine fueled with natural gas—hydrogen blends. Energy & Fuels, 21(5), 2594-2599.

NOMENCLATURE:

Area
Specific heat at constant pressure
Specific heat at constant volume
Cooperative fuel research
Total energy



	CHP	Combine l	heat and	power.
--	-----	-----------	----------	--------

m	Mass of the fuel
N	Engine speed
NG	Natural gas

p Cylinder fluid pressure

P_{max} Maximum cylinder gas pressure

q Heat flux rateT Temperature

T_b Temperature of burned particles

 T_{max} Max maximum mean gas temperature T_{u} Temperature of un-burned particles V Volume of Combustion Chamber

v Specific volume U Internal energy

u Specific internal energy

u_u Specific internal energy of un-burned particles

u_b Specific internal energy of burned particles

Relative air: fuel ratio λ **ATDC** After top dead center **BTDC** Before top dead center CO Carbon Monoxide CO₂Carbon dioxide. R Compression ratio °CA Degree crank angle IC Internal combustion

NO_x Nitric oxide, nitrous oxide and nitrogen dioxide

SI Spark Ignition

rpm Revolutions per minute. HC unburned hydrocarbon