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## Article

# Comparison of MLR, MNLR and ANN Models for Estimation of Young's Modulus ( $E_{50}$ ) and Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu$ ) of Rock Materials by Using Non-Destructive Measurement Methods

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**Abstract:** In this study, the determination of static  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters of rock materials was investigated using  $P$ - $S$  wave velocities and Shore hardness ( $SH$ ), non-destructive measurement methods. We used multiple linear regression ( $MLR$ ), multiple non-linear regression ( $MNLR$ ) and artificial neural network ( $ANN$ ) models to estimate and determine these parameters. When the models defined by  $MLR$ ,  $MNLR$ , and  $ANN$  were compared to the  $R^2$  values,  $ANN$  models that estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters of rock materials using non-destructive methods ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho d$ , and  $SH$ ) could be determined with higher accuracy than  $MLR$  and  $MNLR$  models. The study's originality is based on the fact that ores such as galena, chromite, and barite have been studied for the first time on rock mechanics, and in this respect, it offers an innovative perspective. In addition, the use of all non-destructive measurement methods,  $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ , and Shore hardness tests, also increases the originality of the study.

**Keywords:** young's modulus; poisson's ratio; destructive/non-destructive measurement methods; regression; ANN modeling

## 1. Introduction

While determining the physicochemical parameters of rock materials, it can be done with two methods destructive and non-destructive. While destructive methods include tests such as the uniaxial compressive strength ( $UCS$ ), triaxial compressive strength ( $TCS$ ), and direct ( $TS$ ) and indirect tensile strength ( $ITS$ ), non-destructive methods include tests such as seismic wave velocities, Schmidt and Shore hardnesses. Destructive measurement methods are generally conducted in the laboratory with specific test equipment that contains core specimens. In addition, in destructive measurement methods, when rock materials are generally weak, thin-bedded, or heavily fractured, they may not be suitable for sample preparation and measurement of mechanical tests. On the other hand, non-destructive measurement methods are based on the measurement of seismic velocities or the hardness of the rock, sometimes in situ but usually in the laboratory. Non-destructive tests are easier because it does require less sample preparation, and the test equipment is simple to use. They can also be used easily on the mine site. Therefore, non-destructive measurement methods are faster, simpler, and more economical than destructive measurement methods.

Hardness is one of the physical properties of materials and although there are many types, Schmidt and Shore hardness measurements are the best-known hardness measurement methods for rock materials. While very large rock masses are required for Schmidt hardness measurement, smaller rock pieces can also be measured for Shore hardness measurements. In addition,  $SH$  is widely used to estimate the hardness of rock materials because it is an easy-to-use and inexpensive method. Similarly, the seismic velocities ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) of rock materials are easy and simple to measure and take

values according to the cleavage, crystalline structure, fracture structure, elasticity, porosity, and gravity properties that define the physicochemical properties of the rock materials.

Two of the most important physicochemical parameters of rock materials are the  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$ . These parameters are used in many mining operations to express the resistance of rock materials to deformation under shear or compressive stress. The  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  are affected by many factors such as the crystalline structure of the rock material, cleavage, crack structure, elasticity, anisotropy state, and mineralogical composition [1,2].

Most of the engineering problems related to rock materials are caused by the incorrect evaluation of the physicochemical properties of these materials. First of all, high-quality core samples are required to determine the  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters. However, sometimes it is not easy to obtain smooth cores, especially from very fractured, weak, or very hard rock materials. Moreover, even if high-quality cores can be obtained to perform tests such as *UCS*, *TS*, and *ITS*, it is costly, laborious, and time-consuming process in terms of human errors, instrument calibration issues, and internal factors. Therefore, engineers can estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters from other static and dynamic rock parameters by using the estimation equations published in the literature for their required projects.

Some researchers [3–10] have conducted many studies to date on estimating  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  with other static tests such as *UCS*, *ITS*, Schmidt hardness, and rock mass grade (*RMR<sub>89</sub>*) for different rock materials. These researchers developed many simple-linear or simple-nonlinear equations for estimating  $E_{50}$  or  $\nu$  values. However, most of these equations were not very suitable for estimating these parameters ( $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$ ), while suitable equations gave good results only for similar rock types. Sonmez et al. (2006) [11], on the other hand, estimated  $E_{50}$  value using the *ANN* model with *UCS* and unit weight ( $\gamma$ ). However, obtaining *UCS* and  $\gamma$  values is far from being an alternative for estimating  $E_{50}$  values, as the process of sample preparation and testing is tedious and difficult, just as  $E_{50}$  values are obtained. In addition, another researchers [12–14] tried to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  with the Shore hardness (*SH*) test with simple-linear or simple-nonlinear regressions, but relationships were revealed with low correlation. Differently, Karakus et al. (2005) [15] proposed a good model using the *MLR* model to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  based on the findings from some rock mechanic tests. However, the use of the point load index ( $I_s$ ) and uniaxial compressive strength (*UCS*) tests in the model could not be an alternative method because the preparation process of core samples for these tests was long and tiring.

In addition, some researchers [1,12,16–26] have also investigated the relationships between non-destructive measurement tests and static physicochemical parameters of the same type of rock materials at a mining site or for a certain group of rock materials such as sedimentary, metamorphic origins, etc. When the results of these researchers were examined, it was shown that there were significant relationships between seismic velocities, especially  $V_p$  velocity, of rock samples taken from a particular group or region. Differently, Armaghani et al. (2016) [2] further investigated the estimation of  $E_{50}$  from  $V_p$ , porosity ( $n$ ), Schmidt hardness ( $R_n$ ) and point load strength ( $I_{s(50)}$ ) values for granite samples using *MLR* and *ANN* models. They not only found *MLR* and *ANN* models with very low coefficients of determination ( $R^2=0.643$  and  $0.596$ , respectively) but also used laborious and difficult methods to determine the properties of materials such as porosity and point load strength in the models.

As can be seen from previous studies, although it is known that many test methods are widely used in estimation of physicochemical parameters of rock materials, there are few works on the use of non-destructive measurement methods for the estimation of  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values of rock materials. Moreover, the determinant coefficients ( $R^2$ ) of the estimated models were low and the error values (*RMSE* and *MAE*, etc.) were high. Therefore, it is inevitable that the development of models that can estimate these parameters with easier, less laborious, less time-consuming, cheaper methods, and high accuracy will continue to be an important research topic for many researchers.

Artificial neural networks (*ANNs*) have attracted great attention in recent years in the estimation of various physicochemical parameters such as *UCS*, *ITS*, shear strength parameters, and various moduli of rock materials. The reason why *ANN* has become especially popular lately is that the physicochemical parameters of rock materials allow more flexible operations between variables

with more input variables, due to the low coefficients of determination obtained from regression analyses such as *MLR* and *MNLR*. Therefore, ANN has great capability in modelling the physicommechanical behaviour of rock materials [27], and has been shown by many researchers to provide more accurate estimates of the physicommechanical parameters of rock materials than other statistical models. Therefore, ANN has great capability in modelling the physicommechanical behaviour of rock materials. Some researchers [2,28–34] have shown that ANNs provide much more realistic estimations than other statistical models for estimating the physicommechanical parameters of rock materials.

In this study, models have been tried to be developed to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  of rock materials with ultrasonic wave velocities ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ), dynamic density ( $\rho_d$ ) and Shore hardness ( $SH$ ) tests which are the non-destructive measurement methods. These non-destructive measurement methods do not require special specimen preparation requirements such as coring and large specimen sizes. Also, they are also much easier to use compared to the stress-strain tests used to obtain  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values. These non-destructive tests can be used to estimate, rather than the measure  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values. The main advantages of non-destructive measurement methods are known for their ease of use and flexibility.

This study aims to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  obtained by stress-strain curves under compression from non-destructive measurement methods ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and  $SH$ ) using the *MLR*, *MNLR*, and *ANN* models. In this study, a series of analyses were carried out on a total of 17 different rock materials of geological origin, including sedimentary (8), metamorphic (2), igneous-volcanic (4), and mafic-ultramafic igneous ores (3). In general, and so far almost all of the rock mechanics tests have been carried out on rock materials of sedimentary (limestone, gypsum, etc.), metamorphic (marble, feldspar, etc.), and volcanic (andesite, trass, etc.) origin. This study will be the first study on a very different sample group, including mafic and ultramafic igneous ores such as sulfide ore, galena, and chromite. In this respect, it would make an important contribution to the literature.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials

A total of 17 different rock types were collected, 8 are sedimentary, 2 are metamorphic, 4 of them are igneous-volcanic, and 3 are mafic and ultramafic igneous ores, from various regions of Turkey. The mineralogical properties of the rock materials used in the tests were shown in Table 1.

As shown in Figures 1(a-d), core samples of 54 mm diameter were prepared from rock blocks collected in the laboratory. In non-destructive experimental studies,  $V_p$  and  $V_s$  were first measured on these core specimens with a sonic wave viewer, and then Shore hardness ( $SH$ ) were measured on the same core specimens with a Shore Scleroscope C-2 (as seen in Figure 1(g)).

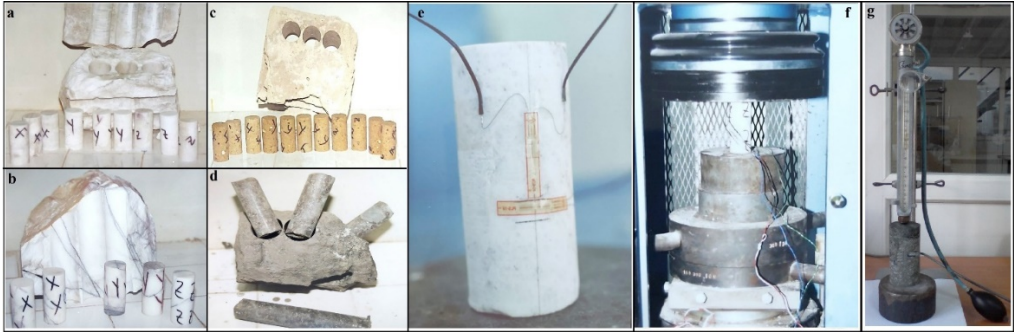
In destructive experimental studies, according to the test procedures recommended by ASTM D7012-14e1 (2017) [35], stress-strain measurements were performed on core specimens under compression, as shown in Figure 1(e-f). The static  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values were calculated from the stress-strain curves which were simultaneously recorded using a computer. After the destructive and non-destructive tests, statistical modeling studies were started. While  $V_p$ ,  $V_s$  wave velocities (m/sec),  $V_p/V_s$  ratios, dynamic densities ( $\rho_d$ , t/m<sup>3</sup>), and Shore hardness ( $SH$ ) values were also used as input data in the modeling,  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values were then considered as output data.

Table 1. The materials used for the tests and their mineralogical properties.

| No | Description | Geological Origin | Mineralogical Properties                                                                |
|----|-------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1  | Limestone-1 | Sedimentary       | 50% clay contented                                                                      |
| 2  | Limestone-2 | Sedimentary       | very low porosity, sandy limestone texture                                              |
| 3  | Limestone-3 | Sedimentary       | micritic texture, fracture filling calcite and contains small amount of opaque minerals |
| 4  | Limestone-4 | Sedimentary       | sparitic and homogeny texture                                                           |



|    |              |                                  |                                                                                |
|----|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 5  | Siltstone    | Sedimentary                      | contains 60% quartz                                                            |
| 6  | Green-Marl   | Sedimentary                      | contains a small amount of silica                                              |
| 7  | Gypsum       | Sedimentary                      | less opaque and subhedral minerals                                             |
| 8  | Barite       | Sedimentary                      | 15% anhedral particle, be subject to tectonism, a hydrothermally deposited ore |
| 9  | Feldspar     | Metamorphic                      | coarse crystalline albite mineral, contains 50% quartz minerals                |
| 10 | Marble       | Metamorphic                      | contains equidimensional and anhedral calcite crystals                         |
| 11 | Trass-1      | Igneous-Volcanic                 | contains amphibole, sanidine and biotite                                       |
| 12 | Trass-2      | Igneous-Volcanic                 | contains 50% quartz minerals                                                   |
| 13 | Andesite-1   | Igneous-Volcanic                 | porphyritic, altered                                                           |
| 14 | Andesite-2   | Igneous-Volcanic                 | porphyritic, less altered                                                      |
| 15 | Galena       | Mafic/<br>Ultramafic-Igneous ore | also contains pyrite and chalcopyrite                                          |
| 16 | Sulphide ore | Mafic/<br>Ultramafic-Igneous ore | contains galena, pyrite, chalcopyrite and quartz                               |
| 17 | Chromite     | Mafic/<br>Ultramafic-Igneous ore | contains 80% chromite, olivine and serpentine                                  |



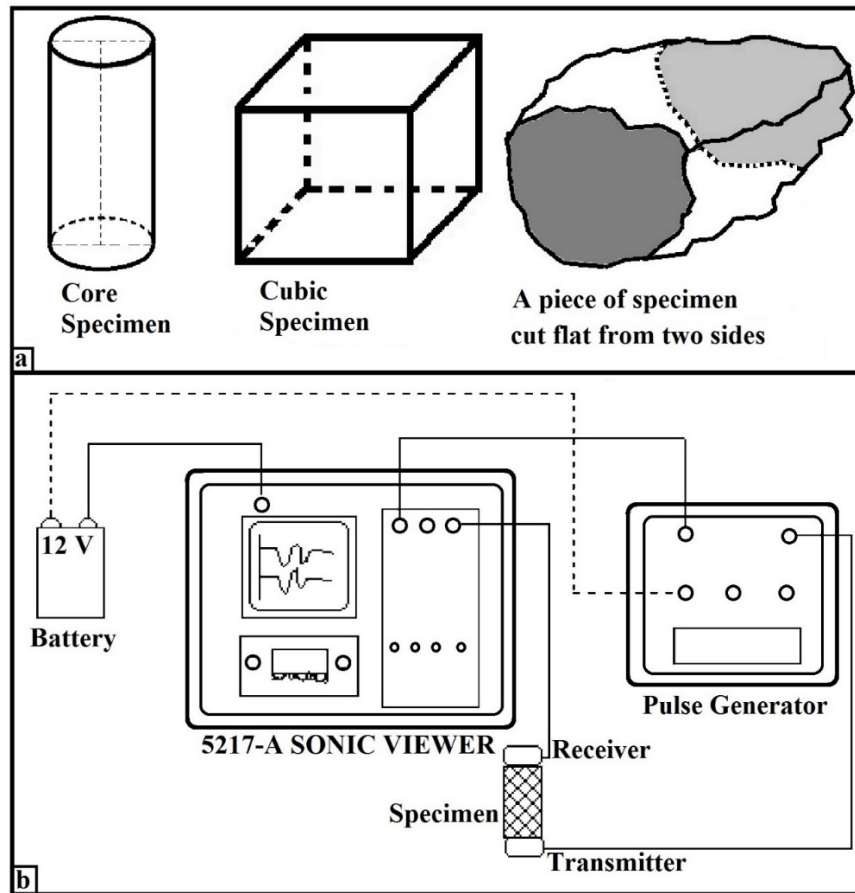
**Figure 1.** The core specimens taken from rock blocks such as gypsum (a), marble (b), trass (c), galen (d), electrical resistance lateral and axial strain gauges glued to the feldspar core specimen (e), strain-gauge bonded rock specimen under compression (f), Shore Scleroscope C-2 using in the experiments (g).

2.2. Sonic Wave Velocity ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) Tests

In this study, sonic wave velocity measurements ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) were applied according to the ASTM D2845-08 (2008)[36] standard. For the measurement of  $V_s$  and  $V_p$ , specimens should be cylindrical (core) or cubical or cut straight so that both sides of the specimens are parallel (Figure 2 (a)). The easiest among them is to cut the samples neatly from both sides. For this, samples can be cut on a rock cutting machine. In our study, sonic velocity tests were performed on a total of 10-15 core specimens taken from three directions (3-5 cores from each direction) to determine the static  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values, taking into account the anisotropy condition for each rock block sample.

The OYO sonic viewer (Model 5217-A), which includes a battery, a receiver, a transmitter, an ultrasonic pulse generator, and a signal data acquisition and display system (as shown in Figure 2 (b)), was used to measure the ultrasonic wave velocities ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) of rock materials. Before the

ultrasonic wave velocity, the ends of the core specimens were polished and a thin layer of grease was applied. The ultrasonic wave ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) velocities are calculated from the travel time of the measured wave and the distance between the transmitter and receiver, i.e. the measured sample length.



**Figure 2.** Specimen types used for sonic wave velocity measurement (a), working principle of sonic viewer instrument used in experiments (b).

The density value of a rock material has an important factor in engineering studies. We can determine the density of a rock material directly (destructive method) by measuring it, as well as indirectly (non-destructive method) by calculating it. It requires examining samples in the laboratory by gradual grinding to less than 100 microns in order for the density to be directly determined. This is a time-consuming and tedious process. For this reason, many researchers have been working to determine the density value indirectly from seismic wave velocities ( $V_p$  and  $V_s$ ) since the 1970s. Telford et al. (1976) [37] investigated the relationship between the density of rock materials and seismic wave velocities, and they stated that the dynamic density of rock materials can be found from the  $P$ -wave velocity ( $V_p$ ), as can be seen in Eq. (1) given below.

$$\rho_d = 0.2V_p + 1.6, \quad (1)$$

### 2.3. Shore Hardness Tests

The Shore hardness instrument is a non-destructive measuring instrument on relatively small specimens and measures the relative values of Shore hardness ( $SH$ ) with a diamond-tipped hammer that falls freely from top to bottom onto a smooth specimen [38]. ISRM (1981) [39] has proposed a method for the C-2 model Shore hardness instrument for rock materials.

Specimens can also be created for  $SH$  measurements similar to ultrasonic wave velocity measurements cylindrical (core) or cubic from rock blocks or smoothly cutting from both sides of rock specimen. The method of smooth cutting from both sides of the rock specimens has become an easy method to determine  $SH$ , especially if specimens are small in size or cannot be cored. In this

study, Shore hardness measurements were also carried out after ultrasonic wave velocity tests were performed on the core samples. Shore hardness measurements were accepted as the *SH* of the rock material by taking the arithmetic average of about 200 readings from about 10 cores, with at least 20 readings from each core specimen.

2.4. The Stress-Strain Tests to Determine *E*<sub>50</sub> and *ν* Values

In this study, cylindrical specimens (cores of 108 mm length and 54 mm diameter) were used for measuring *E*<sub>50</sub> and *ν* values of rock materials. To meet the statistical requirements, at least 15 core specimens were used for each rock sample. *E*<sub>50</sub> and *ν* tests were carried out according to ASTM’s recommended methods [35]. Stress-strain measurement is carried out by using an electronic servo-controlled UCS testing machine (Figure 1 (f)). The case where electrical resistance lateral and axial strain gauges, bonded to core specimens, was shown in Figure 1(e). *E*<sub>50</sub> is defined as the ratio of axial stress to axial strain under compression, and it is obtained by plotting the axial stress versus axial strain curve and measuring the slope of the curve. On the other hand, *ν* is the absolute value of the ratio of lateral strain to axial strain under compression, and it is dimensionless and ranges between 0.01 and 0.5.

3. Results and Discussion

In this study, output (*Y*) the static Poisson’s ratio (*ν*) or Young’s modulus (*E*<sub>50</sub>) of the rock materials were characterized as the function of the *V<sub>p</sub>* (*X*<sub>1</sub>), *V<sub>s</sub>* (*X*<sub>2</sub>), *V<sub>p</sub>*/*V<sub>s</sub>* (*X*<sub>3</sub>), *ρ<sub>d</sub>* (*X*<sub>4</sub>), and *SH* (*X*<sub>5</sub>). The important statistical properties such as minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation with *E*<sub>50</sub> and *ν* of all variables were given in Table 2.

Table 2. Statistical parameters of input and output variables.

| Test                                        | Minimum | Maximum | Mean  | Std.  |
|---------------------------------------------|---------|---------|-------|-------|
| <i>E</i> <sub>50</sub> (N/m <sup>2</sup> )  | 1.32    | 14.34   | 7.49  | 4.50  |
| <i>ν</i>                                    | 0.28    | 0.40    | 0.33  | 0.04  |
| <i>V<sub>p</sub></i> (m/sec)                | 1166    | 6697    | 4186  | 1440  |
| <i>V<sub>s</sub></i> (m/sec)                | 652     | 2947    | 2090  | 608   |
| <i>V<sub>p</sub></i> / <i>V<sub>s</sub></i> | 1.78    | 2.40    | 1.97  | 0.19  |
| <i>ρ<sub>d</sub></i> (t/m <sup>3</sup> )    | 2.00    | 2.94    | 2.45  | 0.07  |
| <i>SH</i>                                   | 8.40    | 82.85   | 40.40 | 21.16 |

3.1. MLR and MNLR Analysis

The relationships between independent variables and dependent variables can be investigated by using the MLR or MNLR analyses. In estimating the value, MLR models are expressed linearly and MNLR models are expressed as a non-linear function. The choice between MLR and MNLR models is determined by the high determination coefficient of the relationships to be obtained [2,40].

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$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \dots + \beta_n X_n , \tag{2}$$

MNLR analysis estimates the model by forming a random non-linear relationship between one or more independent variables and a dependent variable. The typical form of the nonlinear relationship is considered to be as in Eq. (3).

$$Y = \beta_0 (X_1^{\beta_1}) (X_2^{\beta_2}) (X_3^{\beta_3}) (X_4^{\beta_4}) \dots (X_n^{\beta_n}) , \tag{3}$$

Where, while Y is the dependent variable,  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, \dots, X_n$  are independent variables. While  $\beta_0$  is the constant value,  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \dots, \beta_n$  are the regression coefficients of linear or non-linear independent variables [40–42].

When multiple regression analysis is applied, it is absolutely necessary to check whether there are autocorrelation and multicollinearity problems between independent variables. ANOVA and coefficient tables help explain whether the regression equation is statistically significant. In order to evaluate how well the resulting model fits the experimental data, the decision is made by looking at  $R^2$ , F, and p values. While the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) value reveals the significance of the relationship established between one dependent and one or more independent variables, the F value is used to determine the significance of  $R^2$ .  $R^2$  value takes a maximum value of 1, and the closer  $R^2$  value is to 1, the more accurately the model represents. On the other hand, F and p values indicate whether the model is statistically significant or not. The higher the F values obtained from the F-test, the more significant the model is. Also, the significance levels (p values) of the T-test are taken into account to evaluate the performance of the regression methods. The significance values (p) should be less than 0.05 (the confidence level of 95%). All possible combinations of independent variables are considered and checked for multicollinearity in any of them. Those independent variables with multicollinearity problems are removed from the model [43].

Additionally, variance increase factor (VIF), Tolerance (T), and Durbin-Watson (D-W) factors are also taken into account to determine whether there is autocorrelation between the independent and dependent variables. If the VIF values are less than 10.0, the average VIF value is less than 3.0, and the tolerance (T) values are greater than 0.10, it shows that the variables are independent of each other and the regression model is strong. When the T value approaches zero, this means that each independent variable is autocorrelated with other independent variables. Similarly, the closer the D-W value (it takes values between 0 and 4) is to 2, it means that there is no autocorrelation between the independent variables [43]. All statistical parameters ( $R^2$ , F, p, VIF, T, and D-W) were used in this study to check whether there are autocorrelations between the independent variables, and such problematic independent variables were excluded from the model.

MLR and MNLR analyses are carried out using a computer software package program since they involve quite complex calculations. In this study, the IBM SPSS 22 statistical software package was used to generate MLRs between five independent variables ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH) and a dependent variable as output ( $E_{50}$  or  $\nu$ ). The stepwise method in the SPSS program commonly used in this type of modeling is a technique for constructing a model by adding or subtracting estimative parameters through a series of F-tests or T-tests. The  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values of the rock materials were introduced as dependent variables (outputs) and  $X_1$  ( $V_p$ , m/sec),  $X_2$  ( $V_s$ , m/sec),  $X_3$  ( $V_p/V_s$ ),  $X_4$  ( $\rho_d$ ), and  $X_5$  (SH), as independent variables (inputs). However, the p-value and Tolerance of  $V_p/V_s$  and SH were calculated as near 0 before the MLR was processed, which means that the  $V_p/V_s$  and SH variance has the highest multicollinearity probability when all variables are taken into account, therefore,  $V_p/V_s$  and SH were eliminated from the model. As a result, the most reliable regression equations for the determination of  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values by MLR analysis can be obtained with the Eq. (4) and Eq. (5) given below.

$$E_{50} = -22.613 - 0.001 \cdot (V_p) + 14.576(\rho_d), \quad R^2 = 0.582, \quad (4)$$

$$\nu = 0.575 - 4.066 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot (V_s) - 0.055 \cdot (\rho_d), \quad R^2 = 0.486, \quad (5)$$

When the independent variables are evaluated in terms of autocorrelation and multicollinearity, as seen in Eq. (4) and Eq. (5), three potential independent variables ( $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ , and SH) were neglected for  $E_{50}$ , while two independent variables ( $V_s$  and  $\rho_d$ ) could be evaluated for  $\nu$ .

Some non-linear regression equations can be converted to a linear equation with an appropriate transformation of the model equation. If the logarithm to base e of Eq. (3) was taken, it becomes a linear relationship as in Eq. (6) [42].

$$\text{Ln}(Y) = \text{Ln}(\beta_0) + \beta_1 \text{Ln}(X_1) + \beta_2 \text{Ln}(X_2) + \beta_3 \text{Ln}(X_3) + \beta_4 \text{Ln}(X_4) + \beta_5 \text{Ln}(X_5) \dots \beta_n \text{Ln}(X_n), \quad (6)$$



and so, an  $\ln(Y)$  regression over  $\ln(X_1)$ ,  $\ln(X_2)$ ,  $\ln(X_3)$ ,  $\ln(X_4)$ , and  $\ln(X_5)$  are used to estimate parameters  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$ ,  $\beta_4$ ,  $\beta_5$  and  $\beta_n$  [42].

The  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$ ,  $\beta_4$ ,  $\beta_5$ , and  $\beta_n$  coefficients were determined using the stepwise method in SPSS 22 package program. The stepwise method commonly used in this type of modeling is a technique for constructing a model by adding or subtracting estimative parameters through a series of F-tests or T-tests. The model expressions were coded into the solver based on the fitting result of the linear regression solver and a series of iterations were run. Iteration runs were now stopped when the relative reduction between sums of squares was minimized.

In this study, regression relationships between five independent variables and one dependent variable ( $E_{50}$  or  $v$ ) were revealed. In both regression relationship equations, the dependent variables  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$ ,  $X_4$ , and  $X_5$  are  $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH, respectively.  $\beta_i$  coefficients were estimated from the experimental results using the SPSS program that applies the least-square method.  $R^2$ , VIF, T, and p-values were taken into account to evaluate the estimative performance of the regression equations. Then, the best independent variables that did not show autocorrelation and multicollinearity were selected. As a result, the following equations were obtained by MNLR analysis using the best independent variables.

$$\ln(E_{50}) = 11.519 \cdot (V_p)^{-0.716} \cdot (\rho_d)^{-5.868}, \quad R^2 = 0.591, \quad (7)$$

$$\ln(v) = 0.6555 \cdot (V_p)^{0.768} \cdot (V_s)^{-0.843} \cdot (\rho_d)^{-0.713}, \quad R^2 = 0.630, \quad (8)$$

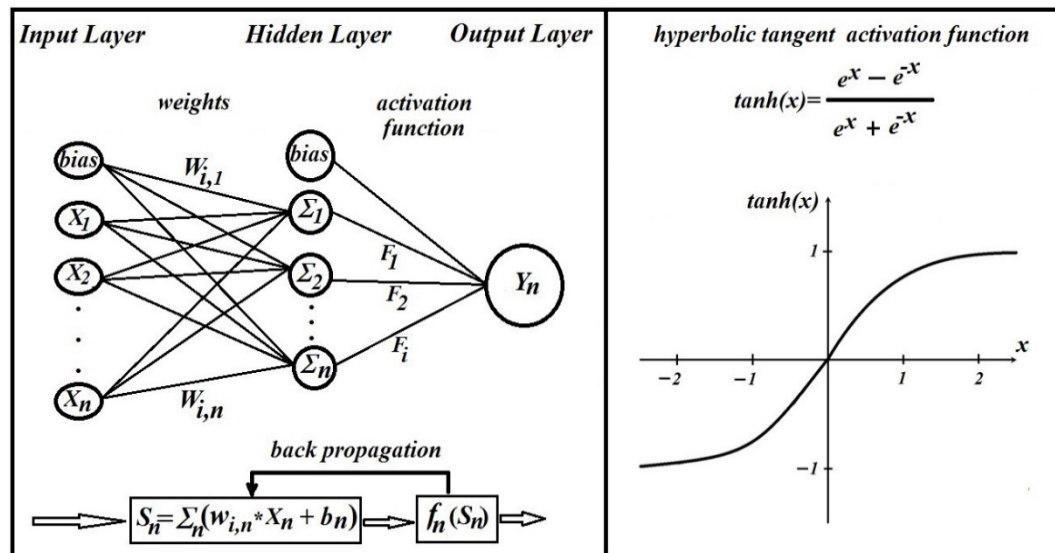
When the independent variables are evaluated in terms of autocorrelation and multicollinearity, as seen in Eq. (7) and Eq. (8), three potential independent variables ( $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ , and SH) were neglected for  $E_{50}$ , while three independent variables ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ , and  $\rho_d$ ) could be evaluated for  $v$ .

As a result of regression analyses,  $E_{50}$  and  $v$  values were estimated using Eq. (4) and Eq. (5) by MLR analysis and Eq. (7) and Eq. (8) by MNLR analysis, and these equations were determined with low coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ). In addition, since it is not expressed with two independent variables ( $V_p/V_s$  and SH), it is not suitable to be considered a reliable model for  $E_{50}$  and  $v$  estimation. Therefore, as a solution to such problems, soft computation methods such as ANN can be used.

### 3.2. ANN Analysis

Using an ANN, a neural network model can be created that can estimate the desired output from one or more inputs. ANN model has become a widely used modeling tool in many applications owing to its higher accuracy than an MNLR in modeling multivariate problems. The fact that ANN is preferred over classical modeling methods comes from its non-linearity, learning ability, ability to process fuzzy information, and generalization ability. Although, various ANN types are used in the literature, feed-forward ANN is the most preferred. The feed-forward ANN is a multilayer perceptron neural network (MLP-ANN). In order for an ANN to create an accurate model, it must first be trained. Among the different learning algorithms for training MLP-ANN, the most widely used is the backpropagation (BP) algorithm. The backpropagation ANN (BP-MLP-ANN) has been successfully used as an estimating tool in many fields so far [11,34,44].

The simplest form of MLP-ANN consists of an input layer, a hidden layer, and an output layer. Each layer is made up of neurons (nodes), and neurons from the input layer are connected by weighted connections to neurons in the hidden layer which are connected to neurons in the output layer. Several interconnected neurons can be used to construct an ANN. During the learning phase, the interconnections are optimized in order to minimize a predefined non-linear activation function. This process is repeated continuously until the output is produced [44,45]. The general system structure of a backpropagation MLP-ANN is shown in Figure 3 (a) and the hyperbolic tangent activation function is shown in Figure 3 (b).



**Figure 3.** Architecture of an ANN model structure (a) and hyperbolic tangent activation function (b).

In this study, a multilayer perceptron network with hidden layers and an MLP-ANN with backpropagation architecture were developed using the neural network function in the SPSS 22.0 program. An ANN model usually has three layers: input layers, hidden layers, and output layers. The input layer was created from five source points such as  $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH. The hidden layer was a non-linear processing unit and could have more than one. The output layer was evaluated by the network and produced  $E_{50}$  or  $\nu$ , which are the desired result points from the model. The most applied transfer functions in the literature are sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent activation functions. In this study, the hyperbolic tangent activation function was preferred because it provided the most effective approach. On the other hand, no function was used in the output layer. Additionally, 75% of the data was used for training and 25% was used in the testing stage. Five combinations of the variables ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH) were investigated with SPSS to determine the optimal network architecture. The best input combinations of the ANN models were given in Table 3. These models were selected based on the highest determination coefficient ( $R^2$ ), the lowest root mean square error (RMSE), and the lowest mean absolute error (MAE) to estimate  $E_s$  and  $\nu$  values of rock materials.

**Table 3.** Details of the four ANN models according to the best input combinations.

| Model | Input Combination               | Output                       | $R^2$ | RMSE  | MAE   |
|-------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| ANN-1 | $V_p, V_s, V_p/V_s, \rho_d, SH$ | $E_{50}$ (N/m <sup>2</sup> ) | 0.891 | 1.490 | 0.947 |
|       |                                 | $\nu$                        | 0.961 | 0.007 | 0.005 |
| ANN-2 | $V_p, V_s, V_p/V_s, SH$         | $E_{50}$ (N/m <sup>2</sup> ) | 0.965 | 0.883 | 0.699 |
|       |                                 | $\nu$                        | 0.971 | 0.006 | 0.004 |
| ANN-3 | $V_p, V_s, \rho_d, SH$          | $E_{50}$ (N/m <sup>2</sup> ) | 0.925 | 1.252 | 1.037 |
|       |                                 | $\nu$                        | 0.956 | 0.008 | 0.006 |
| ANN-4 | $V_p, V_s, V_p/V_s, \rho_d$     | $E_{50}$ (N/m <sup>2</sup> ) | 0.896 | 1.478 | 1.106 |
|       |                                 | $\nu$                        | 0.953 | 0.008 | 1.106 |

In the study, the hyperbolic tangent function shown in Eq. (9) with the output range of  $[-1, 1]$  was used. Further, the  $R^2$ , MAE, and RMSE equations shown in Eq. (10), Eq. (11), and Eq. (12) were used to verify the validity of selected models.

$$\tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}} \quad (9)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (10)$$

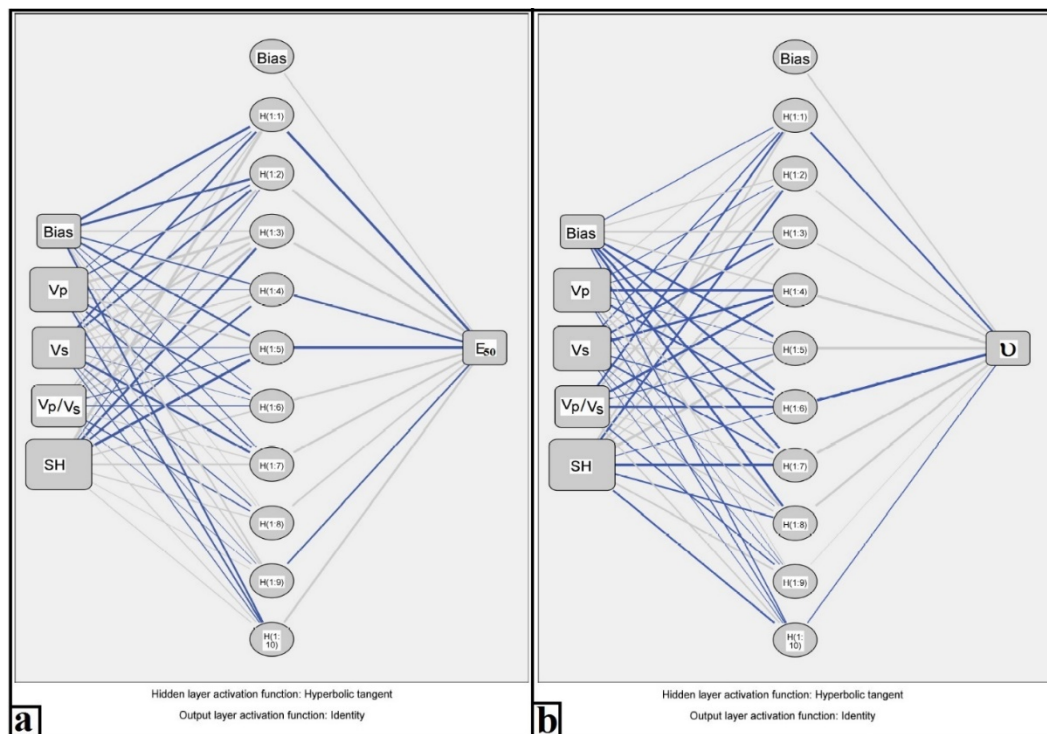
$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{n} \quad (11)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n}} \quad (12)$$

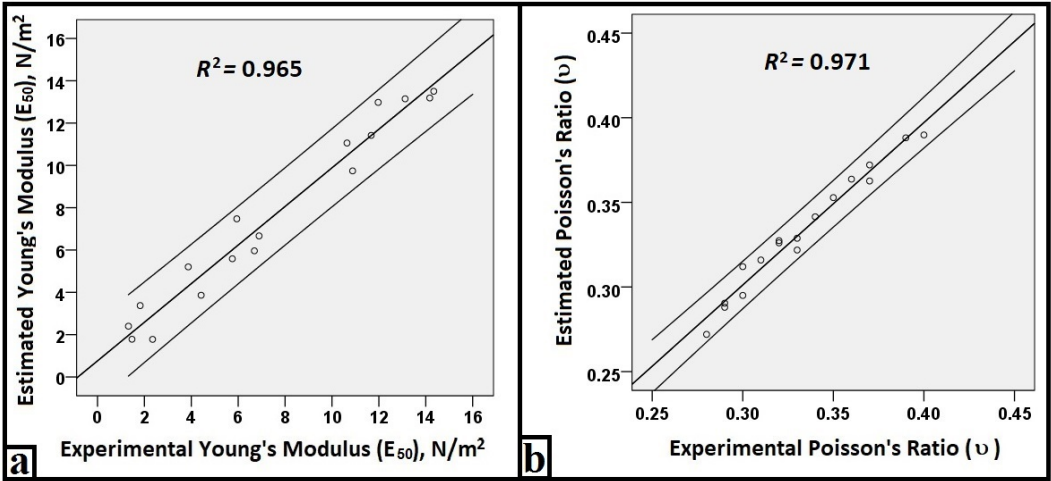
where  $n$ ,  $y_i$ ,  $\bar{y}$ , and  $\hat{y}_i$  are the number of experiment, the experimental values, the mean of the experimental values, and the estimated values, respectively.

$R^2$ , RMSE, and MAE values calculated to determine the validity of ANN models are presented in Table 3. When Table 3 is examined,  $R^2$  values higher than 0.80 mean that there are relationships with acceptable accuracy for these four models. However, when the  $R^2$ , RMSE, and MAE values in Table 3 were examined, it was determined that ANN-2 gave more accurate estimates than other models. The  $R^2$  values of 0.965 and 0.971 obtained by the ANN-2 model for  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$ , respectively, indicate that the models have a very high relationship. The estimation error values for the  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  were 0.883 and 0.006 for the RMSE and 0.699 and 0.004 for the MAE, respectively. The ANN-3 was ranked as the second-best. The results of the ANN-1 and ANN-4 models were also acceptable to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$ . When normalized importance values are examined, the Shore hardness (SH) was found to have a great effect of 100% on both  $E_{50}$  value and  $\nu$  value.

Figure 4 shows the best model architecture (ANN-2), which consist of one input layer of 4 variables, one hidden layer of 10 neurons, and one output layer of one variable (4-10-1 structure) by using the activation functions. Additionally, in Figure 5, the predicted values of  $E_s$  and  $\nu$  are plotted against the experimental values to analyze the accuracy of the ANN-2 model.



**Figure 4.** Architecture of ANN-2 model used to estimate the  $E_{50}$  (a) and  $\nu$  (b) of the rock materials.

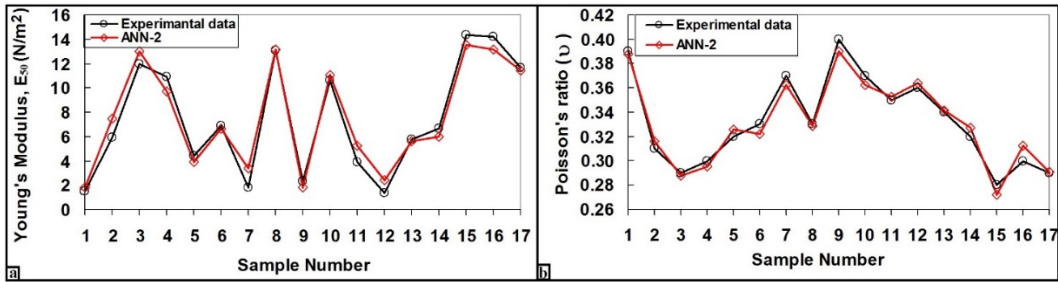


**Figure 5.** Comparison of the ANN-2 estimated values and the experimental values for  $E_{50}$  (a) and  $\nu$  (b) of the rock materials.

3.3. Comparison of Models

The  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters of rock materials were compared in terms of the estimated values using MLR, MNLR, and ANN models. As a result, it was revealed that MLR and MNLR models could not estimate both  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters very well. Additionally, due to the complexity of the fracture process of rock materials, it is an expected result that the coefficients of determinate ( $R^2$ ) of the MLR and MNLR models for  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  are low. On the other hand, ANN models with the highest  $R^2$  values in estimating  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters were found to be much more suitable than MLR and MNLR models.

A comparison of the estimated values of the ANN-2 for each of the 17 experimental data of  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  of rock materials is shown in Figure 6. Apparently, it shows that the ANN-2 model was able to estimate both  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values very well within the acceptance limit. On the other hand, the estimated values of other ANN models were significantly different in accuracy from all experimental  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values. In addition, the ANN-2 model, which has the least RMSE and MAE and the highest  $R^2$  values (in Table 3), shows that it will be much more suitable than other ANN models.



**Figure 6.** Comparison plots of the estimated values by the ANN-2 model with values of experimental  $E_{50}$  (a) and  $\nu$  (b) of the rock materials.

Although it is generally accepted that a lot of data is needed to train the neural network, it is important that ore samples such as galena, chromite, and sulfur ore, which have not been used in any study before, are used for the first time in this study.

4. Conclusions

This research work aims to develop estimation models with the highest accuracy for the determination of  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  parameters of rock materials with non-destructive measurement methods



( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH). For this purpose, 17 different rock materials were considered and multiple measurements were made to estimate  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  with the best accuracy.

Model approaches were based on input data ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ ,  $\rho_d$ , and SH). Their use has not performed satisfactory results with data in multiple regression analyses (MLR and MNLR) expressed as correlation coefficients ( $R^2=0.486-0.630$ ). However, ANN models developed with the same experimental data produced results with higher determination coefficients ( $R^2=0.891-0.971$ ). These results show that ANN models can be preferred for estimation and evaluation of  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  compared to regression analysis models. From these results, it was determined that all four ANN models were able to predict both  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  with higher accuracy and very small errors. Among the ANN architecture tested, ANN-2, 4 input variables ( $V_p$ ,  $V_s$ ,  $V_p/V_s$ , and SH), 10 neurons, and one output variable ( $E_{50}$  or  $\nu$ ), was the best architecture (4-10-1 structure). In addition, the results of sensitivity analysis of both  $E_{50}$  and  $\nu$  values to input variables showed that Shore hardness (SH) was the most sensitive variable.

In this study, it is important for the literature that a very different sample set including magmatic ores such as chromite, galena, and sulfide ores was used in modeling. It is clear that such estimation models will be much more beneficial to the engineers in the sector if different geological types and more numerous specimen sets are evaluated for similar research in the coming years.

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