

found that the use of preconditioning also leads to an overall improvement in ground conditions in the stope, as it tends to result in a smoother hangingwall. This has additional safety implications, as the hangingwall is inherently more stable and allows for more effective support installation.

The currently proposed mechanism for preconditioning has been formulated from a combination of direct underground observation and various measurements of the behaviour of the rockmass surrounding the excavation. Numerical modelling and physical modelling of preconditioning blasting have also been used. It is thought that the re-mobilisation and extension of existing fractures lead to a reduction in the stress acting across the fractures and, thereby, reduce the stress levels on the face as a whole. Consequently, a buffer zone of destressed rock is created immediately ahead of the face. As the face itself is less stressed, it is less likely to burst. The transmission of seismic energy through the buffer zone from more distant larger events is also reduced and, hence, the likelihood of damage to the stope resulting from such events.

The practical implications of the reduced face stress include more efficient drilling and more efficient blasting, in terms of both increased face advance per blast and more consistent fragmentation of the material removed by the blast. The smoother hangingwall is related to the induced shearing on the reef-hangingwall parting, which facilitates better control of the stoping width. Reduced dilution of mined ore and reduction in support requirements obviously have favourable cost implications. The combination of a safer environment and an easier workload will inevitably lead to an improvement in the morale and attitude of the workforce.

Choosing the appropriate preconditioning method

It is important to note that preconditioning should not be seen as a remedy for all rock-related problems. One should not attempt to use preconditioning to deal with an underground condition that would be more adequately improved by changing the mining method or stope layout. Preconditioning is not a substitute for good mining practice. Appropriate standards consistent with the mining environment should be used and application of those standards must be ensured.

There are two preconditioning methods, which differ in application and in effectiveness. While it is thought that the preconditioning effect produced by the face-parallel method is superior, this advantage should be weighed against the potential disruption of the mining cycle. Each method has implications in terms of face configuration, gully positioning and support design. The mining layout should facilitate the use of preconditioning, while continuing to allow for efficient removal of ore and for effective support of the rockmass surrounding the excavation.

Face-perpendicular preconditioning

Face-perpendicular preconditioning is well suited to normal production faces, as it integrates very well into the mining cycle and so is unlikely to have a detrimental impact on production.

The preconditioning holes would typically be drilled to 3 m in length and spaced 3 m apart, although these figures would depend on local conditions. The support spacing and distance to face should ideally be sufficient to allow for the use of 3.2 m long drill-steels. Although concassions might be necessary in unusual circumstances (e.g. if backfill is installed very close to the face), these requirements have not been found to create major difficulties in practice and have not necessitated any compromise to the support system in the face area to date. If backfill is placed too close to the face, extension rods can be used to drill long preconditioning holes.

The preconditioning holes would be stemmed for a distance equal to the length of the production holes but not less than 1 m, to ensure that the energy from the explosion is contained within the hole and imparted to the surrounding rockmass. The preconditioning holes are blasted as an integral part of the production blast and timed to ensure that there is at least 1 m of burden for each preconditioning hole.

Face-parallel preconditioning

Face-parallel preconditioning is recommended for use in special areas, such as remnant or pillar extraction, as it is thought to be a more effective method for

dealing with the exceptional stress environments encountered in these areas. Maintaining high production from these areas is likely to be less of a concern.

It should be possible to set up the drill rig, drill the preconditioning hole, charge and blast, all within a single shift, so as to minimise any disruption to the mining cycle. For this reason, while such factors as the air and water pressure at the site and the specific drilling characteristics of the rig used need to be considered, it is recommended that the lengths of the individual panel faces should not exceed 20 m. The preconditioning hole should be drilled for at least the length of the panel face, although it is recommended that it be extended somewhat into the next panel.

It is obviously necessary to be able to position the large drill rig so that the preconditioning hole can be drilled (typically, 5 m ahead of the panel face). Thus, the gullies from which the drilling is to be performed should be advanced sufficiently far ahead of the face to be preconditioned. This need to accommodate the rig also impacts on the lead-lag distance between adjacent panels. A lead-lag distance of 8 m was used without significant difficulty at one of the project sites.

The stemming of face-parallel preconditioning holes is a rather more complicated issue than is the case with face-perpendicular holes. In the latter case, the stemmed length is removed with the accompanying production blast while, in the case of face-parallel preconditioning, the rockmass in the vicinity of the stemming is not removed with the blast. The stemming needs to be sufficient to contain the explosion in the hole: the required stemming length depends on the hole length and diameter and on the degree of fracturing near the collar of the hole, but is typically about 5 m. This can result in a substantial region of effectively non-preconditioned rock adjacent to the stemmed portion of the preconditioning blast.

The preconditioning blast is initiated via two coupled detonators placed a short distance into the explosive. The preconditioning blast is manually set off and only after a successful detonation are adjacent panels to be connected for a production blast. Sequencing has a rather different interpretation here than is the case with face-perpendicular preconditioning: in the case of face-parallel preconditioning, it is important that the sequencing of adjacent panels is carefully

considered. The lagging panel should always be preconditioned first, to avoid the scenario of having stress thrown back onto that panel by the preconditioning of the panel that is further ahead.

Implementing preconditioning

In this section, the instructor should deal with the practical considerations of carrying out the preconditioning in the underground environment. The positioning of the preconditioning hole(s), the size and length of hole to be drilled, the sequencing of preconditioning blasts, the charging and stemming of preconditioning holes, as well as the initiation of each preconditioning blast would all be explained in detail on surface and demonstrated in the underground environment.

Guidelines for the correct implementation

In this section the instructor will go through the detail information on the guidelines for the correct implementation of preconditioning. The guidelines for face-parallel and face-perpendicular preconditioning are given in sections 4.3 and 5.7 respectively.

The importance of correct application

It is essential that all persons involved in the application of preconditioning should be made aware of the importance of the correct application of preconditioning, and that failure to apply the method correctly could well result in undesired effects, to the extent of worsening the situation rather than alleviating the faceburst hazard. In the case of face-perpendicular preconditioning, all of the preconditioning holes must be drilled and blasted at the correct spacing, or "hard" patches of stressed rock could be generated in the face, which could burst into the working areas during the subsequent shift.

In the case of face-parallel preconditioning, the preconditioning hole must be positioned within the recommended limits of distance ahead of the face. If it is placed too close to the face, damage to the face could result; if it is placed too far

ahead of the face, the blast will either have no effect or it might act to transfer stress back onto the face, rather than away from it. No production blast should be made in a panel where the face has reached the position of the previous preconditioning blast, as this would effectively be mining into non-preconditioned ground.

Assessing the effectiveness of preconditioning

While guidelines have been compiled for the application of each preconditioning method, it is important to note that the details presented in the guidelines are based on the careful, intensive study of preconditioning at only a few sites, and so should be regarded as starting points for the application of preconditioning in situations that differ markedly from those that were investigated during the development of the technique. Thus, it is important that individual mines should monitor the effectiveness of preconditioning at their specific sites and be prepared to change some of the parameters to suit their specific conditions, so as to optimise the effectiveness of preconditioning at each site.

For face-perpendicular preconditioning, the parameters to be optimised include: hole length, hole diameter and the spacing between adjacent holes. For face-parallel preconditioning, the parameters to be optimised include: face lengths of panels, lead-lag distances between adjacent panels, the distance ahead of the face that the preconditioning hole is placed and the diameter of the hole. In both cases, the parameters are inter-related and cannot be assessed and optimised in isolation; the goal is to optimise the preconditioning system at the site by varying the parameters so as to achieve effective preconditioning of the stope faces.

Tools available for making the assessment

Assessment tools that have been found to yield useful information during the development of the preconditioning technique include: underground observation, measurement of face advance and drilling rate, fragmentation assessment, fracture mapping and hangingwall profiling, convergence measurements and monitoring of seismicity, Ground Penetrating Radar profiling, as well as various measures of the state of stress at the face. Clearly, some of the tools require

specialist training, while others are more readily accessible to non-specialists and can be used by shift bosses, miners and the stope crew.

Observation of underground conditions, if conducted in a discerning manner, is a simple but useful tool for assessing the effectiveness of preconditioning in a stope. Regular examination of the faces and hangingwall should reveal significant differences between conditions before and after the introduction of preconditioning. The face should be "softer" (easier to bar after blasting) and the hangingwall should be smoother after preconditioning has been in use for a period. Additionally, particularly when using face-parallel preconditioning, significant bulking of the face towards the excavation should accompany a successful preconditioning blast (this will be easier to observe if paint lines are placed on the face before the blast). Sophisticated photogrammetric techniques have been investigated in an attempt to quantify the bulking effect, but with limited success. Regular observation will allow for an evaluation of the continued effectiveness of preconditioning, as well.

With effective preconditioning, face advance rates should increase significantly compared with those before the introduction of preconditioning. These rates could be measured after each blast from fixed points in the stope (e.g. support elements or convergence stations) and the cumulative effect should be measurable on monthly survey plans. There should also be fewer (and shorter) production-hole sockets in the face after a blast when preconditioning is being used.

When preconditioned ground is drilled, the drilling rates should increase significantly compared with those before the introduction of preconditioning. At one of the project sites, where face-perpendicular preconditioning was being used, it was found that the total drilling time for preconditioning and production holes was less than that required for production drilling alone before the introduction of preconditioning.

The material coming off the face after a blast should be both more highly fragmented and more consistently fragmented when preconditioning is used. This has additional benefits in terms of easier cleaning of the stope face and fewer

blockages of the tips and ore passes. This effect should be qualitatively discernible underground. It could be quantified by some more sophisticated means (e.g. a photographic technique), if required.

While it has been found that no new fracture sets are generated as a result of preconditioning, regular detailed fracture mapping should reveal that fractures with favourable orientations are enhanced and re-mobilised when preconditioning is used. While simple enough to be used by non-specialists, hangingwall profile measurements allow one to quantify the improvement in hangingwall conditions after the introduction of preconditioning.

Two assessment tools that have been found to have particular application in the context of face-parallel preconditioning are convergence measurements and the monitoring of seismicity from the site. While these tools can, in principle, be used in the assessment of face-perpendicular preconditioning as well, the size of the face-parallel preconditioning blast and its isolation from the production blast make it particularly amenable to analysis using these tools. Convergence data can be acquired fairly cheaply, but the acquisition of useful seismic data obviously presupposes the installation of an adequate seismic network.

Convergence measurements would typically be carried out by an observer on a daily basis; various continuous convergence measuring devices (e.g. clockwork closure meter) are also available and allow one to determine the instantaneous convergence at blasting time, which has been found to provide insight into the state of stress at the face. Once the site has been monitored for a while, it is possible to use the measured convergence to evaluate the effectiveness of a preconditioning blast.

In the context of face-parallel preconditioning, monitoring of the seismicity from the site facilitates the evaluation of the effectiveness of a preconditioning blast in several ways. The size (magnitude, seismic moment or seismic energy release) of the recorded blast event allows one to determine whether all of the explosive was set off successfully. Occasionally, the recorded event might be larger than expected, indicating that the blast simultaneously triggered additional strain-energy release from the rockmass through an actual seismic event. Of course, it

is possible for the blast to trigger a larger seismic event separated in time from the blast. In this case, two separate events would be recorded by the seismic system. Stress transfer induced by the blast would be indicated by the migration of subsequent seismicity away from the preconditioned zone. Additionally, examination of seismic source parameters should show, for example, that stress drops for seismic events in the preconditioned zone are lower than those for events in adjacent regions of the rockmass. In the case of face-perpendicular preconditioning, the effects of the preconditioning are not as obvious in the seismic data and their identification requires a very sensitive seismic network with very good location accuracy.

Although it requires special equipment and interpretation by a trained specialist, Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) profiling provides a very clear indication of the effects of preconditioning on the condition of the rockmass immediately ahead of the advancing stoppings faces. Changes in the intensity and extent of fracturing and increased separation of the fracture surfaces after a preconditioning blast should be visible in the processed GPR data. GPR scans can also be used to assess the maximum permissible separation of adjacent face-perpendicular preconditioning holes when introducing preconditioning to a new site.

In principle, direct measurement of the state of stress of the rockmass immediately ahead of the stoppings faces would be the ideal way to quantify the effectiveness of the preconditioning. Most of the tools commonly used for this purpose are not suited for use in fractured rock. A solid-inclusion instrument has been developed at CSIR / Miningtek, but is yet to be proved for routine use. Indirect measures, such as the change in aspect ratio of rigging holes in the face, are possible indicators of the state of stress. Changes have been found in such measures after the introduction of preconditioning.

APPENDIX D: AN EXAMPLE OF RISK ASSESSMENT ON PRECONDITIONING

Matrix to determine Risk Index

Index (28-48) (16-27) (1-15)	Significance Priority		Severity ↓	Frequency →	More than 100 events per year	Between 100 and 10 events per year	Between 10 and 1 event per year	Between 1 event per year and 1 event in 10 years	Between 1 event in 10 years and 1 event in 100 years	Less than 1 event in 100 years
	A (High)	B (Medium)			Probable events more than 100 per year	Probable events between 100 and 10 per year	Probable events between 10 and 1 per year	Probable events between 1 per year and 1 in 10 years	Probable events between 1 in 10 years and 1 in 100 years	Probable events less than 1 in a 100 years
					1	2	3	4	5	6
Multiple Fatalities > 6000 Shifts Lost	1				48	47	45	42	38	33
1 Fatality + 6000 Shifts Lost	2				46	44	41	37	32	27
500 - 5999 Shifts Lost	3				43	40	36	31	26	21
50 - 599 Shifts Lost	4				39	35	30	25	20	15
6 - 59 Shifts Lost	5				34	29	24	19	14	10
1 - 5 Shifts Lost	6				28	23	18	13	9	6
No Time Loss	7				22	17	12	8	5	3
"Near" Miss	8				16	11	7	4	2	1

PRECONDITIONING – RISK ANALYSIS TABLES

Step	Hazard	Cause	Consequence	Existing Controls	Risk Index			Recommended controls
					S	P	R	
1. Mark the hole	1a) The preconditioning hole is marked too close to a stake.	Human factor, as the correct marking procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Personal injury if the rock drill operating drills the preconditioning hole into a miner.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Legal requirements. 3. Trained and qualified miners.	2	2	44	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology.
	1b) The preconditioning hole is marked on the face in front of support that has been installed close to the face, which will cause the rock drill operator to drill a misaligned hole.	Human factor, as the correct marking procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Trained and qualified miners. 2. Research done on preconditioning. 3. Positive behaviour reinforcement.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes.
	1c) The preconditioning holes are marked too close to either the footwall or hangingwall.	Human factor, as the correct marking procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Damage the footwall or hangingwall.	1. Trained and qualified miners. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Research done on preconditioning. 4. Supervisors.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups and positive behaviour reinforcement).
2. Drill the hole	2a) The preconditioning holes are not drilled according to the recommended specifications which are included, but is not referred to, the following: direction, elevation and position.	Human factor, as the correct drilling procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations, as well as cause damage to the footwall and/or hangingwall.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes should be given to all rock drill operators. 3. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).

PRECONDITIONING – RISK ANALYSIS TABLES

Step	Hazard	Cause	Consequence	Existing Controls	Risk Index			Recommended controls
					S	P	R	
	2b) The preconditioning holes are not drilled to the specified length (short).	Human factor, as the correct drilling procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes should be given to all rock drill operators. 3. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	2c) Not all the marked preconditioning holes are drilled.	Human factor, as the correct drilling procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes should be given to all rock drill operators. 3. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	2d) The preconditioning holes are not drilled in the correct direction or drilled parallel to each other.	Human factor, as the correct drilling procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes should be given to all rock drill operators. 3. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).

PRECONDITIONING – RISK ANALYSIS TABLES

Step	Hazard	Cause	Consequence	Existing Controls	Risk Index			Recommended controls
					S	P	R	
	2e) Compensation for rock rolls is not taken.	Human factor, as the correct drilling procedures/standards are not adhered to. The roll is not traceously identified. Lack of training.	May cause damage to the footwall and/or hangingwall.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified rock drill operators. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Additional training for the drilling of long preconditioning holes should be given to rock drill operators. 3. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
3. Charge up	3a) The preconditioning holes are over charged with explosives.	Human factor as the correct charging up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Causes blowouts and damage/fracture the rock as well as reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	3a) The preconditioning holes are under charged with explosives.	Human factor as the correct charging up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	41	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	3a) The primer is not placed in the incorrect position in the hole (the bottom of the hole).	Human factor as the correct charging up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	No effect on the preconditioning but will make the removal of any misfire more difficult.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	33	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).

PRECONDITIONING – RISK ANALYSIS TABLES

Step	Hazard	Cause	Consequence	Existing Controls	Risk Index			Recommended controls
					S	P	R	
	3d) The same type of base for all production and preconditioning holes is not used.	Human factor as the correct changing up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Correct bases are not available. Lack of training.	Out of sequence firing causing injuries. Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	5	32	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
4. Stemming	4a. The preconditioning holes are not stemmed for 1 metre to the collar of the hole.	Human factor as the correct changing up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Cause blowouts and damage/fracture the rock. Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	43	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	4b. Inconsistent or poor quality stemming material is used to stem the preconditioning hole's up to 1 metre.	Human factor as the correct changing up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Cause blowouts and damage/fracture the rock. Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	43	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
5. Timing	5a) Preconditioning hole's detonate before the production blast holes.	Human factor as the correct connecting up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Out-ofs and out of sequence firing of the face holes. Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	43	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
	5b) Preconditioning hole's detonate out of sequence (late).	Human factor as the correct connecting up procedures/standards are not adhered to. Lack of training.	Out of sequence firing of the face holes as well as blowouts. Reduce the effect of preconditioning and possibly result in stress concentrations.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Miners. 3. Supervision.	2	3	43	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervisors on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programme (training, meetings, follow-ups, and positive behaviour reinforcement).
6. Blast								

PRECONDITIONING – RISK ANALYSIS TABLES

Step	Hazard	Cause	Consequence	Existing Controls	Risk Index			Recommended controls
					S	P	R	
7. Post examination	7a) Post bias examination of the preconditioning holes is not done.	Lack of training.	Mater will not determine if the previous day's preconditioning was effective and if a problem did exist, no corrective action would be taken.	1. Mine Standards. 2. Trained and qualified Millmen. 3. Supervision.	2	5	10	1. On-the-job training & coaching by supervision on the preconditioning methodology. 2. Special awareness programs (training, meetings, follow-up, and positive behavior reinforcement).

REFERENCES

- Adams, D.J., Gay, N.C. and Cross, M., (1993). Preconditioning - a technique for controlling rockbursts. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Symposium on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*, Young, R. P. (ed.), Balkema, Rotterdam.
- Adams, D.J. and Geyser, D., (1999). Preconditioning of 43 Hangingwall Haulage at Kloof No. 4 Shaft. *Proceedings of the 2nd Southern African Rock Engineering Symposium, SARES99*, Hagan, T. O. (ed.), 13-15 September 1999, Johannesburg.
- Baule, H., (1977). Rockbursts geophysics: seismoacoustic location of destressing bursts in a workings advance site. *Westfäl Bergesgewerkschaftskasse, Bochum, Glueckauf* Vol. 113, No. 7, April 1977, pp. 360-362.
- Blake, W., (1972a). Destressing test at the Galena mine, Wallace, Idaho. *Society of Mining Engineers, AIME*, Vol. 252, Sept. 1972, pp. 294-299.
- Blake, W., (1972b). Rockburst mechanics. *Quarterly of the Colorado School of Mines*, Vol. 67, No. 1.
- Blake, W., (1980a). Preconditioning an entire stope block for rockburst control. *US Bureau of Mines, Final report, OFR 51-81*.
- Blake, W., (1980b). Wallrock reactions to mining beyond a preconditioned zone at the Star Mine, Burke, Idaho. *US Bureau of Mines, Final report, OFR 52-81*.
- Blake, W., (1982). Rock Preconditioning as a Seismic Control Measure In Mines. *Proc. of the 1st. Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines, SAIMM*, 1982, Johannesburg.
- Board, M.P. and Fairhurst, C., (1983). Rockburst control through destressing – a case example. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*, IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 91-101.

- Boler F.M. and Swanson P.L., (1993a), *Seismicity and Stress Changes Subsequent to Destress Blasting at the Galana Mine and Implications for Stress Control Strategies. US Bureau of Mines, Report of Investigations 9448.*
- Boler F.M. and Swanson P.L., (1993b), *Modelling of a Destress Blast and Subsequent Seismicity and Stress Changes. Proc. of Rockburst and Seismicity in Mines*, Young, R.P. (ed.), Balkema, Rotterdam.
- Bräuner, G., (1974). *Verhütung von gebirgsschlägen durch entspannungsbohren – Prevention of rockbursts by destressing drilling.* (In German).
- Bräuner, G., Helsing, C. and Von Velsen-Zerweck, R., (1976). *Destressing blasting experiences in Radbad Colliery. Glueckauf* Vol. 112, No. 17, Sep. 1976, pp. 951-957. (in German).
- Brummer, R.K., (1985), *Literature review - Destressing. COMRO Internal Report, IR 300, May 1985, Johannesburg.*
- Brummer, R.K., (1988). *Active methods to combat the rockburst hazard in South African gold mines. Conference on Applied Rock Engineering, (CARE), IMM, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, London, pp. 35-43.*
- Brummer, R.K. and Andrieux, P.P. (2002). *A design methodology for destress blasting. Proc. of NARMS – TAC. Hammah et al. (eds). University of Toronto.*
- Burgert, W. and Lippman, H., (1981). *Models of translatory rock bursting in coal. Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci. and Geomech. Abstr. Vol. 18, pp. 285-294.*
- Comeau, W., Mitri, H.S., Mohammed, M.M. and Tang, B., (1999). *World-wide survey of destress blasting practice in deep hard rock mines. Int. Soc. Exp. Eng. Vol.1, pp. 189-205.*
- Cook, N.G.W., Hoek, E., Pratorius, J.P.G., Ortlepp, W.D. and Salamon, M.D.G., (1966). *Rock mechanics applied to the study of rockbursts. Journal of the South African Ins. of Min. and Metall. May 1966. Pp. 435-528.*

Cook, N.G.W., (1983). Origin of rockbursts. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*. IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 1-9.

Corp, E.L., (1980). Rock mechanics research in the Coeur d'Alene mining district. *Proceedings of the Applications of Rock Mechanics to Cut and Fill Mining*, 1-3 June 1980, University of Lulea, pp. 40-48.

Daehnke, A., (1997). Stress wave and fracture propagation in rock. *PhD thesis*, Vienna University of Technology.

Dechelette, O., Josien, J.P., Revalor, R. and Jonis, R., (1982). Seismoacoustic monitoring in an operational longwall face with a high rate of advance. *Proc. of the 1st Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Dickhout, M.H., (1982). Ground control at the Creighton mine of the International Nickel Company of Canada Limited. *Proc. 1st Can. Rock Mech. Symp.*, McGill University, Montreal, pp. 121-139.

Durrheim, R.J., Roberts, M.K.C., Haile, A.T., Hagan, T.O., Jager, A.J., Handley, M.F. and Ortlepp, W.D., (1997). Factors influencing the severity of rockburst damage in South African gold mines. *Proceedings of the 1st Southern African Rock Engineering Symposium, SARES97*, 15-17 September 1997, Johannesburg.

Fenc, W., (1979a). Efficiency of drilling a coal face with long small diameter holes in seams subject to gas and rockbursts. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 35, No. 3, Mar. 1979, pp. 95-104. (in Polish).

Fenc, W., (1979b). Increasing the density of the network of boreholes destressing the coal mass under conditions of rockburst hazard. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 35, No. 9, Sep. 1979, pp. 376-383. (in Polish).

Fenc, W., (1980). Drainage of a destressed coal seam under conditions of CO₂ burst hazard. *Przegl. Mech.* Vol. 36, No. 1, Jan. 1980, pp. 19-25. (in Polish).

Fenc, W., (1981). Seismoacoustic activity of rockmasses during borehole destressing of a seam prone to gas and rockbursts. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 37, No. 2, Feb. 1981. pp. 55-63. (In Polish).

Gane, P.G., (1939). A statistical study of the Witwatersrand earth tremors. *J. Chem. Metall. Min. Soc. S. Afr.* Vol. 40, October, p. 155.

Gane, P.G., Hales, A.L. and Oliver, H.A., (1946). A seismic investigation of Witwatersrand earth tremors. *Bulletin of Seismological Society of America*, Vol. 36, pp. 49-80.

Giltner S.G., (1992). Proposed Method of Preconditioning Slope Faces with Small Diameter Blastholes. *COMRO Internal Note No: 06/92*.

Grodner, M., (1997). Quantifying the fracture pattern in a preconditioned slope. *Proceedings of the 1st Southern African Rock Engineering Symposium, SARES97, Johannesburg, South Africa.*

Haramy, K.Y., McDonnell, J.P. and Beckett, L.A., (1988). Control of coal mine bursts. *Mining Engineering*, April 1988, pp. 263-267.

Hill, F.G., (1944). A system of longwall stoping in a deep-level mine, with special reference to its bearing on pressure bursts and ventilation problems. *Pap. Ass. Mine Mngrs. Tvl.*, 1942/45, Vol. I, January, pp. 257-276.

Hill, F.G., (1954). An investigation into the problem of rockbursts: an operational research project. Part I. The approach to the problem and analyses of the rockbursts that have occurred on the E.R.P.M. during the years 1948-1953. *J. Chem. Metall. Min. Soc. S. Afr.*, Vol. 55, October, pp. 63-83.

Hill F.G. and Plewman R.P., (1957). Destressing : A means of ameliorating rockburst conditions, Part 2 – Implementing destressing with a discussion on the results so far obtained. *Journal of SAIMM*, October 1957, pp. 120-127.

Hill, F.G., (1982). Discussion during the 1st Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Jiayun M. and Jiayou L., (1988). The Phenomena, Prediction and Control of Rockburst in some Chinese Underground Engineering. *Proc. of 2nd. Int. Symp. on Field Measurements in Geomechanics*, Sakurai (ed.), Balkema, Rotterdam.

Karwoski, W.J., McLaughlin, W.C. and Blake, W., (1979). Rock preconditioning to prevent rockbursts – report on a field demonstration. *US Bureau of Mines, Report of Investigations 8381*.

Kozłowski, B. and Siarkiewicz, R., (1977). Investigation of effects of concussion blasting combined with drilling and destressing boreholes in roadways on the reduction of gas and rockburst hazards. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 33, No. 6, Jun. 1977. pp. 1-5. (in Polish).

Kozłowski, B. and Siarkiewicz, R., (1981). Prediction and control of outburst hazards in disturbed areas. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 37, No. 7-8, Jul.-Aug. 1981. pp. 354-362. (in Polish).

Krawiec, A., Domzal, J. and Ozana, P., (1977). Destressing of seams liable to rockbursts by drilling the solid coal. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 33, No. 2, Feb. 1977. pp. 60-65. (in Polish).

Kullmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D. and Lightfoot, N., (1994). Verification of a discontinuum model used to investigate rockmass behaviour around a deep-level stope. *The Application of Numerical Modelling in Geotechnical Engineering*, SANGORM, Pretoria.

Kullmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D., Lightfoot, N. and Longmore, P.J., (1995). Interim report on the progress towards the implementation of preconditioning as a technique for controlling face bursting on deep-level mines. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Interim Report, Project GAP 030*.

Kullmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D. and Grodner, M., (1996). A pillar preconditioning experiment on a deep-level South African gold mine. *2nd North American Rock Mechanics Symposium*, Montreal, Canada.

Lama, R.D., (1972). The use of destressing technique in the maintenance of roadways under high pressures. *Int. Symposium fur Untertagebau*, Luzern, 11-14 SepL 1972, pp. 177-181.

Legge, N.B., (1987). The incidence and location of rockbursts and rockfalls in gold mines as indicated by historical and contemporary accident data. *Chamber of Mines Research Organisation, COMRO, research report*, No. 33/87.

Lightfoot, N., (1993). The use of numerical modelling in rockburst control. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Symposium on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Minas*, Kingston, Ontario.

Lightfoot, N., Kullmann, D.H. and Leach, A.R., (1994). A conceptual model of a hardrock, deep-level, tabular ore body that incorporates the potential for face bursting as a natural product of mining. *Proceedings of the 1st North American Rock Mechanics Symposium*. Nelson, P.P. and Laubach, S.E. (eds) *Rock Mechanics Models and Measurements Challenges From Industry*. Balkema, Rotterdam.

Lightfoot, N., Leach, A.R. and Kullmann, D.H., (1994). A conceptual model of a hard rock, deep-level, tabular ore body that incorporates the potential for face bursting as a natural product of mining. *The First North American Rock Mechanics Symposium*, Austin, Texas, USA.

Lightfoot, N., Kullmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D. and Toper, A.Z., (1995). Guidelines for preferable layouts for preconditioning with appropriate explosive and stemming: Revision 1. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Interim Report*, Project GAP 030, Nov. 1995.

Lightfoot, N., Kullmann, D.H., Toper, A.Z., Stewart, R.D., Grodner, M., Janse van Rensburg, A.L. and Longmore, P.J., (1996). Preconditioning to reduce the incidence of facebursts in highly stressed faces. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Final Report*, Project GAP 030.

Makuch A., Neumann M., Hedley D.G.F. and Blake W., (1987). Destress blasting at Campbell Red Lake Mine. *Canmet Special Publication* SP 87-8E.

Malan, D.F. and Spottiswoode, S.M., (1997). Time-dependent fracture zone behaviour and seismicity surrounding deep-level stoping operations. *Proc. 4th Int. Symp. Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*, Glibowicz, S. J. (ed.). Krakow, Poland.

Malan, D.F., (1998). Identification and modelling of time-dependent behaviour of deep excavations in hard rock, *PhD thesis*, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa.

Malan, D.F. (1999). Implementation of a viscoplastic model in FLAC to investigate rate of mining problems. *Accepted for publication in the proceedings the FLAC Symposium*, September 1999, Balkema.

Maxwell, S. C. and Young, R. P., (1995). Blyvooruitzicht Seismic Imaging Experiment: Report on Imaging Results and Interpretation. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, Internal Report*.

Milev, A.M. (2000) Appendix D: Investigation the temporal distribution and spatial migration of seismicity. DEEPMINE Task 5.1.3: *"The effect of mining rate on seismicity"*. DEEPMINE Final Report.

Mitri, H.S., Scoble, M.J. and McNamara, K., (1988). Numerical studies of destressing mine pillars in highly-stressed rock. *41st Canadian Geotechnical Conference*, Kitchener, Ontario, 5-7 Oct. 1988, pp. 50-56.

- Momoh, O.A., Mitri, H.S. and Rizkalla, M. (1996). Numerical modelling of destress blasting. *2nd North American Rock Mechanics Symposium*, Montreal, Canada.
- Moruzi G.A., Pasleka A.R., (1984). Evaluation of a Blasting Technique for Destressing Ground Subject to Rockbursting. *6th U.S. Rock Mech. Symp.*, Rolla, Missouri, pp. 185-204.
- Napier, J.A.L., (1991). Energy changes in a rockmass containing multiple discontinuities. *J.S. Afr. Inst. Min. Metall.*, 91, 145-157.
- Napier, J.A.L. and Hildyard, M.W., (1992). Simulation of fracture growth around openings in highly stressed brittle rock. *J.S. Afr. Inst. Min. Metall.*, 92, 159-168.
- Napier, J.A.L. and Pierce, A.P., (1995). Simulation of extensive fracture formation and interaction in brittle materials. *Mechanics of jointed and faulted rock* H.P. Rossmanith (ed), 709-715. Balkema, Rotterdam.
- Napier, J.A.L. and Malan, D.F., (1997). A viscoplastic Discontinuum Model of Time dependent Fracture and Seismicity Effects in Brittle rock. *Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci.* Vol.34, No.7, pp 1075-1089.
- O'Donnell J.D.P., (1992). The use of destressing at Inco's Creighton Mine. *MASSMIN 92*, SAIMM, Johannesburg, pp. 71-74.
- Oliver P., Wiles T., MacDonald P. and O'Donnell J.D.P., (1987). Rockburst Control Measures at Inco's Creighton Mine. *Proc. of 6th Conf. on Ground Control in Mining*, West Virginia.
- Ortlepp, W.D. and Cook, N.G.W., (1964). The measurement and analysis of the deformation around deep, hard-rock excavations. *Proc. Int. Conference on Strata Control and Rock Mechanics*. New York, 1964.

Ortlepp, W.D., (1982). Rockbursts in South African gold mines: A phenomenological view. *Proc. of the 1st Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Ortlepp W.D., (1983). The Mechanism and Control of Rockbursts. *Rock mechanics in mining practice*. Budavari (ed.), SAIMM, Johannesburg, pp. 257-282.

Piquet, J.P.P., (1982). Discussion during the 1st *Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Piper, P. and Gluntunca, R.G., (1987). Measuring convergence and ride. *SANGORM News*, Feb. 1987.

Rorke A.J. and Brummer R.K., (1986). The use of explosives in rockburst control techniques. *Proc. of 2nd. Int. Symp. of Rockbursts and Seismicity in mines*, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Rorke A.J., Brenchley P.R. and Van Rensburg A.J., (1989). Preliminary Preconditioning Results Obtained at West Driefontein. *COMRO Internal Report* No: 548.

Rorke, A.J., Cross, M., Van Antwerpen, H.E.F. and Noble, K., (1990). The mining of a small up-dip remnant with the aid of preconditioning blasts. *International Deep Mining Conference, Technical Challenges in Deep-level Mining*. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Roux A.J.A., Laeman E.R. and Dankhaus H.G., (1957). Destressing : A means of ameliorating rockburst conditions, Part 1 – The conception of destressing and the results obtained from its application. *Journal of SAIMM*, October 1957, pp. 101-119.

Rudnicki, B., Wladowski, M. and Frej, R., (1977). Structure of shock-camouflet charge assuring seismic effect of destressing grounds imperilled by rockbursts. *Przegł. Gorn.* Vol. 33, No. 5, May 1977. pp. 205-210. (in Polish).

Ryder, J.A., Brummer, R.K. and Spottiswoode, S.M. (1987). Strategies for controlling the rockburst hazard. *Mine Safety and Health Congress*, Johannesburg, 19-20 November.

Salamon, M.D.G., (1983). Rockburst hazard and the fight for its alleviation in South African gold mines. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*. IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 11-36.

Scoble M.J., Cullen M. and Makuch A., (1987), Experimental Studies of Factors Relating to Destress Blasting. *28th. US Symp. on Rock Mechanics*, Tucson, Arizona.

Shadrin, A.V., (1984). Seismoacoustic reaction of a coal mass during its hydraulic treatment. *Soviet Mining Science*, Vol. 6, No. 19, pp. 467-472.

Simon, R., Aubertin, M., Auer, L., Gill, D.E., Labrie, D. and Mitri, H.S., (1999). A study of destress blasting effect on the rockburst potential of an underground mine in hard rocks. *Paper number CAN-331-4*.

Tarnowski, J.,(1978). Mechanism of coal and gas bursts in the light of measurement results. *Przegl. Gorn.* Vol. 34, No. 1, Jan. 1978. pp. 1-7. (in Polish).

Toper, A.Z., (1993). Effects of preconditioning blasts in confined rock: West Driefontein, Number Six Shaft: Vol. 1: The field trial. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC, Reference Report*, MT 3/93.

Toper, A.Z., Adams, D.J. and Janse van Rensburg A.L., (1994). The effects of preconditioning in confined rock. *The International Workshop on Applied Rockburst Research*, Santiago, Chile.

Toper, A.Z., (1995). Numerical modelling to investigate the effects of blasting in confined rock. Simulation of a field study. *Proceedings of the 35th US Symposium on Rock Mechanics*, Lake Tahoe, Nevada.

Toper, A.Z., Janse van Rensburg, A. and Lightfoot, N., (1995). Guidelines for layouts for face-perpendicular preconditioning with appropriate explosive and stemming. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Interim Report*, November 1995. Project GAP 030.

Toper, A.Z., Grodner, M., Stewart, R.D. and Lightfoot, N., (1997). Preconditioning: A rockburst control technique. *4th International Symposium on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*, Krakow, Poland.

Toper, A.Z., Stewart, R.D., Kullmann, D.H., Grodner, M., Lightfoot, N., Janse van Rensburg A.L. and Longmore, P.J., (1998). Develop and implement preconditioning techniques to control face ejection rockbursts for safer mining in seismically hazardous areas. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Final Report Project No. GAP 336*.

Toper, A.Z. (1998). Impact of preconditioning on productivity. *SANGORM. Proc. of one-day symposium on Rock Mechanics and Productivity & The Implementation of Codes of Practice*. October, 1998. Pp 84-95.

Toper, A Z., Kabongo, K. K., Stewart, R. D. & Daehnke, A., (1999), The mechanism, optimisation and effects of preconditioning. *6th. Int. Symp. for Rock Fragmentation by Blasting*. SAIMM. Johannesburg. (The same paper was again published in the Journal of SAIMM, Jan.-Feb., 2000)

Toper, A. Z. and Janse Van Rensburg, A., (2002). Implementation of preconditioning. *FUTUREMINE Collaborative research programme*, Task 3.2.3, Final Project Report.

Toper, A. Z. (2002). Destressing / Preconditioning to control rockbursts in South African deep-level gold mines. *Int. Seminar on Deep and High Stress Mining*. Australian Centre for Geomechanics. Perth, November 2002.

Toper, A.Z., Janse van Rensburg A.L., Milev, A.M., Grodner, M. and Noble, B.R., (2003). Criteria for preconditioning at varying stope widths in different geotechnical areas. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Final Report* Project No. GAP811.

Tyser, J.A., (1982). *ibid.*

Waddell, G.G., (1970). Progress on techniques of investigating and controlling rockbursts. *Society of Mining Engineers, AIME*, Vol. 247, June 1970, pp. 186-192.

Ward, H., (1980). Outburst experiences at Metropolitan Colliery. *Symp. on Occ. Predict. and Control of Outbursts in Coal Mines*, IMM, S. Queensland, Victoria, Sep. 1980, pp. 63-69. (in German).

Will, M., (1982). Seismic observations during test drilling and destressing operations in German coal mines. *Proc. of the 1st Int. Congress on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*. SAIMM, Johannesburg.

Willan, J., Scoble, M. and Pakalnis, V., (1985). Destressing practice in rockburst-prone ground. *Proc. 4th Conf. on Ground Control in Mining*, W. Virginia University.

Supplementary reading

Adams, G.R., Jager, A.J. and Roering, C., (1981). Investigations of rock fracture around deep-level gold mine stopes. *Proceedings of the 22nd U.S. Symposium on Rock Mechanics*, MIT.

Adams, G.R. and Jager A.J., (1980). Petroscopic observations of rock fracturing ahead of stope faces in deep-level gold mines. *Journal of South African Institution of Mining and Metallurgy*, 80:204-209.

Brummer, R.K., (1987). Fracturing and deformation at the edges of tabular gold mining excavations and the development of a numerical model describing such phenomena. *Ph.D. thesis* - Rand Afrikaans University, Johannesburg, South Africa, 204 pp.

Cook, N.G.W., (1978). Seismicity associated with mining. *Engineering Geology*, 10 (1976), pp. 99-122.

Cook, J.F. and Bruce, D., (1983). Rockbursts at Macassa mine and the Kirkland Lake mining area. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*. IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 81-89.

Dally, J.W., Fournay, W.L. and Holloway, D.C., (1975). Influence of containment of the borehole pressures on explosive-induced fracture. *Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci. and Geomech. Abstr.*, 12, pp. 5-12.

Durheim, R.J., Handley, M.F., Roberts, M.K.C., Spottiswoode, S.M. and Ortlepp, W.D., (1996). Preliminary report on rock engineering aspects of the rockburst at Blyvooruitzicht Gold Mine on 30 January 1996 damaging the 17-24W Slope. *SIMRAC Interim Report*, Project GAP 201.

Durheim, R.J., Kulmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D. and Cichowicz, A., (1996). Seismic excitation of the rockmass surrounding an excavation in highly stressed ground, *2nd North American Rock Mechanics Symposium*, Montreal, Canada.

Grodner, M., (1996a). Fracturing around a deep-level longwall prior to and after the onset of preconditioning. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, Internal Note*, Number 16/96.

Grodner, M., (1996b). Notes on hangingwall profiles measured at WDL8 preconditioning site. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, Internal Note*, Number 14/96.

Jones, S.J., (1996). An estimate of rockburst control costs for face-perpendicular and face-parallel preconditioning. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, Internal Note*, MT RE 3/95.

Joughin, N.C. and Jager, A.J., (1983). Fracture of rock at stope faces in South African gold mines. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*. IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 53-66.

Kullmann, D.H., (1998). The implementation of preconditioning as a rockburst control technique. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, Interim Report*, Project GAP 336.

Kutter, H.K. and Fairhurst, C., (1971). On the fracture process in blasting. *Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci.*, 8, pp. 181-202.

Kutter, H.K., (1967). The interaction between stress wave and gas pressure in the fracture process of an underground explosion with particular application to presplitting. *PhD Thesis*, University of Minnesota.

Leeman, E.R., (1964). The measurement of stress in rock. *J. S. Afr. Inst. Min. Met.*, Parts 1 & 2, Vol. 65, No. 2, pp. 45-113. Part 3, Vol. 65, No. 4, pp. 254-284.

Lightfoot, N. and Napier, J.A.L., (1994). On the road to a methodology of modelling in rock engineering. *The Application of Numerical Modelling in Geotechnical Engineering*, SANGORM, Pretoria.

Lightfoot, N., Goldbach, O.D., Kullmann, D.H. and Toper, A.Z., (1996). Rockburst control in the South African deep-level gold mining industry. 2nd North American Rock Mechanics Symposium, Montreal, Canada.

Lightfoot, N., Kullmann, D.H., Goldbach, O.D. and Toper, A.Z., (1996). Rockburst control techniques. *SIMRAC Symposium*, SAIMM, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Lightfoot, N., Kullmann, D.H., Stewart, R.D. and Toper, A.Z., (1994). Guidelines for the preferable layouts for preconditioning with appropriate explosive and stemming. *CSIR Division of Mining Technology, SIMRAC Interim Report, Project GAP 030, July 1994.*

Linkov, A.M., (1996). Rockbursts and instability of rockmasses. *Int. J. Rock Mech. Min. Sci. and Geomech. Abstr.* Vol. 33, No. 7, pp. 727-732.

McHugh, S., (1983). Crack extension caused by internal gas pressure compared with extension caused by tensile stress. *Int. J. of Fracture*, 21, pp. 163-176.

Ministry of Mineral and Energy Affairs., (1992). *Minerals Act and Regulations of the Republic of South Africa* (Act No. 5 of 1991), Kerlaw Publishers (Pty) Ltd. 1992.

Mitri, H.S., Hassani, F.P. and Kebbe, R., (1993). A strain energy approach for the prediction of rockburst potential in underground hard rock mines. *Proc. of 1st Canadian Symp. on Numerical Modelling Applications in Mining and Geomechanics*. March 1993. Montreal, Quebec.

Murthy, R.K. and Gupta, P.D., (1983). Rock mechanics studies on the problem of ground control and rockbursts in the Kolar Gold Fields. *Proc. of the Symposium on Rockbursts: prediction and control*. IMM and IME, London, Oct. 1983, pp. 67-80.

Nilson, R.H., (1981). Gas driven fracture propagation. *J. of Applied Mechanics*, 48, pp. 757-762.

Nilson, R.H., (1986). An integral method for predicting hydraulic fracture propagation driven by gases or liquids. *Int. J. for Numerical and Analytical Methods in Geomechanics*, 10, pp. 191-211.

Ortlepp, W.D. and Hagan, T.O., (1986). Rockbursts : Understanding and Control – Past, Present and Future. *Int. Symp. on Engineering in Complex Rock Formations*, ISRM, Beijing, China, Nov. 1986.

Ouchterlony, F., (1974). Fracture mechanics applied to rock blasting. *Proc. of the 3rd Congress Int. Soc. Rock Mechanics*, Denver, Colorado, II, B, pp. 1377-1382.

Paterson, M.S., (1978). Experimental rock deformation – the brittle field. *Springer Verlag*. New York, p. 92.

Patrick, K. W., Kelly, A. M. and Spottiswoode, S. M., (1990). A Portable Seismic System for Rockburst Applications. *International Deep Mining Conference: Technical Challenges in Deep-level Mining*. Johannesburg, SAIMM.

Schatz, J.F., Zeigler, B.J., Hanson, J. and Christianson, M., (1987). Multiple radial fracturing from a wellbore – experimental and theoretical results. *Proc. of the 28th U.S. Symposium on Rock Mechanics*, Tucson, AZ.

Smit, J.L. and Rüther, H., (1995). The 3D mapping of a textured surface using digital photogrammetric techniques. *Department of Surveying and Geodetic Engineering*, UCT, Research Report, November 1995.

Stewart, R.D. and Adams, D.J., (1994). Analysis of seismicity recorded at a preconditioning site. *The International Workshop on Applied Rockburst Research*, Santiago, Chile.

Stewart, R.D. and Spottiswoode, S.M., (1993). A technique for determining the seismic risk in deep-level mining. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Symposium on Rockbursts and Seismicity in Mines*, Kingston, Ontario.

Stewart, R.D. and Spottiswoode, S.M., (1996). Multiparameter seismic risk assessment for deep-level mining. *EUROCK '96*, Torino, Italy.

Stewart, R.D., (1994a). The development of a seismic risk assessment method for application to rockburst-prone sites in deep-level South African gold mines. *IASPEI 27th General Assembly*, Wellington, New Zealand.

Stewart, R.D., (1994b). The development of a seismic risk assessment method for application to rockburst-prone sites in deep-level South African gold mines. *Risk Assessment in the Extractive Industries*, University of Exeter, England.

Stewart, R.D., (1995). The development of a seismic risk assessment method for application to rockburst-prone sites in deep-level South African gold mines. *Trans Instn Min Metall* (Sect A: Min Ind), 104, A87-A95.

Von Velsen-Zerweck, R., (1987). The risk of rockbursts at the corners of coalface ends. Lectures on technical and scientific subjects. *Westfälische Berggewerkschaftskasse and Steinkohlenbergbauverein*. Dec. 1987.

Stewart, R.D., (1994b). The development of a seismic risk assessment method for application to rockburst-prone sites in deep-level South African gold mines. *Risk Assessment in the Extractive Industries*, University of Exeter, England.

Stewart, R.D., (1995). The development of a seismic risk assessment method for application to rockburst-prone sites in deep-level South African gold mines. *Trans Instn Min Metall (Sect A: Min Ind)*, 104, A87-A95.

Von Velsen-Zerweck, R., (1987). The risk of rockbursts at the corners of coalface ends. Lectures on technical and scientific subjects. *Westfälische Berggewerkschaftskasse and Steinkohlenbergbauverein*. Dec. 1987.