

A REVIEW OF INTELLIGENT ROCK MECHANICS: FROM METHODS TO APPLICATIONS CONFERENCE SUBMISSIONS

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ABSTRACT

Intelligent rock mechanics represents the convergence of artificial intelligence (AI) and classical rock mechanics, providing new paradigms to understand, model, and predict the complex behaviors of geological materials. This review synthesizes recent progress from foundational AI methodologies to their practical applications in rock engineering. Traditional challenges—such as anisotropy, discontinuities, and multiphysics coupling—have been re-examined through data-driven and hybrid approaches that integrate learning algorithms with physical principles. The study traces the evolution of AI in this field, from early backpropagation and support vector machines to modern deep learning frameworks such as convolutional and transformer architectures, highlighting their roles in microstructure reconstruction, mechanical parameter estimation, constitutive modeling, and real-time hazard prediction. Emerging techniques, including physics-informed neural networks and graph-based learning, bridge data-driven inference with physical interpretability, while large language models are beginning to facilitate automated code generation and decision support in geotechnical analysis. Despite remarkable progress, key challenges remain in data quality, model generalization, and interpretability. Addressing these issues requires standardized datasets, interdisciplinary collaboration, and the establishment of transparent, reproducible AI workflows. The paper concludes by outlining a forward-looking perspective on developing next-generation intelligent frameworks capable of coupling physical knowledge, spatial reasoning, and adaptive learning, thereby advancing rock mechanics from empirical modeling toward fully intelligent, autonomous systems.

1 INTRODUCTION

Artificial Intelligence (AI) has evolved from an abstract computational theory into a transformative force reshaping scientific inquiry and engineering design across disciplines—including rock mechanics. The intellectual roots of AI trace back to the mathematical formalization of neural activity by McCulloch and Pitts in 1943 (McCulloch & Pitts, 1943), whose neuron model established the conceptual bridge between biological cognition and digital computation. The subsequent introduction of the backpropagation algorithm in 1986 (Rumelhart et al., 1986) revolutionized the training of multilayer neural networks and laid the groundwork for modern deep learning. By the early 1990s, researchers had begun applying these architectures to rock mechanics, where backpropagation networks were used to estimate elastic properties and optimize mining configurations (Zhang et al., 1991). The next three decades witnessed an explosion of model diversity, from convolutional neural networks (CNNs) (LeCun et al., 1989) and long short-term memory (LSTM) networks (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997) to generative adversarial networks (GANs) (Goodfellow et al., 2014) and attention-based transformers (Bahdanau et al., 2015; Vaswani et al., 2017). Each generation expanded the frontier of AI applications—CNNs improved microseismic event localization in underground mines (Huang et al., 2018), LSTMs modeled rheological behavior from early deformation histories (Qi & Fourie, 2018), and GANs synthesized realistic seismic waveforms (Wang et al., 2021). Transformers, originating in natural language processing, have now been adapted for visual classification tasks such as identifying rock fragments from post-blasting imagery (Li et al.,

2025). Together, these developments reflect a long trajectory of conceptual transfer, in which core AI architectures progressively migrated from cognitive science to computational geomechanics.

A bibliometric overview of 17 journals, highlights the diffusion of AI methods into rock mechanics and related engineering fields. The literature reveals that AI has taken root most strongly in computational mechanics, owing to its dependence on high-level mathematical abstraction and algorithmic optimization. Yet, compared with other branches of civil or mechanical engineering, the research volume in rock mechanics remains modest—mirroring both the technical challenges of acquiring reliable subsurface data and the emergent stage of methodological adaptation. Nevertheless, the thematic analysis of keywords indicates rapid conceptual maturation: “machine learning” now surpasses “artificial intelligence” itself in prevalence, signifying a shift toward data-driven modeling paradigms. Among the numerous approaches, support vector machines (SVMs) (Vapnik & Chervonenkis, 1964) gained early prominence through the introduction of kernel-based nonlinear classification (Cortes & Vapnik, 1995), serving as a bridge between traditional statistical learning and modern deep architectures. More recent work extends this trajectory toward physics-informed neural networks (PINNs) (Abueidda et al., 2021), which embed governing physical laws directly into loss functions, thereby aligning data-driven inference with mechanical consistency. The increasing use of such hybrid models underscores a collective movement within geomechanics toward interpretability, robustness, and scientific grounding—attributes once viewed as outside the scope of black-box AI.

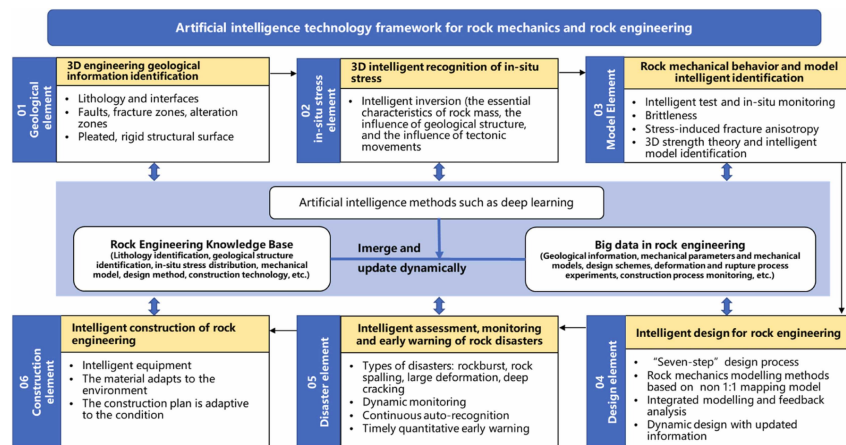


Figure 1: Collaborative development of artificial intelligence and rock mechanics (Feng et al., 2024).

The integration of AI into rock mechanics, however, is far from a simple transplantation of algorithms. Rocks differ fundamentally from continuum materials in their heterogeneity, anisotropy, and multi-scale discontinuities—ranging from microcracks to regional fault systems. These features, coupled with strong nonlinearity, rate dependence, and multiphysics coupling, create modeling barriers that classical continuum mechanics alone cannot resolve. In this context, AI provides new tools for addressing long-standing challenges: inferring mechanical parameters from sparse data, reconstructing microstructures, identifying joint networks, and forecasting instability phenomena such as rock bursts. Yet, the field still faces limitations rooted in data scarcity, measurement uncertainty, and the difficulty of assembling large, high-quality datasets for model training and validation. As this review aims to synthesize, AI’s evolution—from the McCulloch-Pitts neuron to modern transformer-based architectures—has progressively reshaped the analytical landscape of rock mechanics. Grounded in the conceptual legacy of the Turing Test (Turing, 1950), a framework is proposed to categorize AI in this field according to its cognitive resemblance and level of abstraction. By bridging theoretical advances with engineering practice, AI not only augments the predictive capacity of rock mechanics but also redefines its epistemology—transforming it from a purely empirical discipline into a data-driven, intelligence-enabled science poised for the next generation of discovery.

2 DATA-DRIVEN ESTIMATION OF ROCK PROPERTIES

In recent years, the estimation of rock mechanical properties has undergone a paradigm shift from traditional empirical correlations toward data-driven learning frameworks. Instead of relying solely on direct laboratory measurements, researchers have increasingly exploited the predictive capacity of machine learning to infer rock strength and stiffness from easily obtainable indirect indicators. Early studies demonstrated that artificial neural networks (ANNs), particularly those based on backpropagation (BP), could effectively capture the nonlinear relationship between uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) and parameters such as P-wave velocity, rebound number, or point-load index, using datasets like the 108-sample sandstone collection from the Dengkil site in Malaysia [28]. Although BP networks offer transparent and flexible implementations, their performance remains sensitive to data completeness and noise. To address these limitations, a suite of advanced algorithms—including adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference systems (ANFIS) (Yesiloglu-Gultekin et al., 2013), support vector machines (SVM) (Ceryan et al., 2013), extreme learning machines (ELM) (Liu et al., 2015), and regression trees (Tiryaki, 2008)—has been introduced. SVMs provide robust generalization in small datasets through kernel mapping, while ANFIS models integrate fuzzy logic to accommodate uncertainty in geological parameters such as porosity or density. Literature-derived databases have further expanded the scope of predictive modeling. Studies compiling 199–367 records from diverse rock types have yielded ANN and soft computing models capable of estimating UCS and other strength parameters, including triaxial and shear strength (Skentou et al., 2023; Le et al., 2022). Beyond intact rocks, data-driven frameworks have also been applied to rock-mass characterization using empirical descriptors (e.g., RMR class, Q-value, or UCS of intact rock) (Miranda et al., 2010), and to drilling data analysis through physics-informed convolutional neural networks that relate thrust force, torque, and penetration rate to UCS in jointed rock masses (He et al., 2021). Similar strategies have been extended to engineered geomaterials such as geopolymer-stabilized or cement-treated soils, demonstrating the general applicability of these methods to complex heterogeneous media (Mozumder & Laskar, 2015; Narendra et al., 2006).

Parallel advances have been achieved in predicting elastic moduli through hybrid data–model integration. Neural networks with multi-output architectures have been trained to simultaneously estimate UCS and Young’s modulus by extending the output layer (Yagiz et al., 2012), while numerical databases derived from microstructural simulations have provided valuable synthetic training data. For example, fast Fourier transform–based models of the interface transition zone (ITZ) have been used to generate elastic property datasets for heterogeneous materials, subsequently mapped using multilayer BP networks (Xue et al., 2023). Hybrid learning schemes such as ANFIS have been applied to infer dynamic elastic moduli of thermally damaged rocks from UCS and Brazilian tensile strength (Waqas & Ahmed, 2020), and ensemble models such as random forest, AdaBoost, extreme gradient boosting, and CatBoost have shown excellent capability in predicting moduli of weak sedimentary rocks based on porosity, density, and durability data (Abdi et al., 2023). Multivariate regressors have also revealed the compositional dependence of granite stiffness on quartz and feldspar contents, as well as dry density and sonic velocity (Jahed Armaghani et al., 2015). Additional progress includes ANN-based correlations between P-wave velocity and field test indices (Behzadafshar et al., 2019), Bayesian frameworks that quantify prediction uncertainty for elastic constants (Feng & Jimenez, 2014), and neural-network-assisted finite element models capable of recovering the five elastic constants of transversely isotropic rocks from limited experimental orientations (Lee et al., 2022). Extending beyond rocks, support vector regression and Gaussian process regression models have been effectively used to estimate the resilient modulus of treated subgrade and clay soils from material and additive features, with polynomial kernels often outperforming RBF and linear ones (Heidaripناه et al., 2017; Hu & Solanki, 2021). Together, these developments highlight the ability of data-driven approaches to unify static and dynamic elasticity estimation under a consistent computational paradigm.

Beyond strength and stiffness, machine learning has also transformed the estimation of wave velocities and other geomechanical attributes. Recent studies have integrated artificial neural networks, fuzzy systems, and evolutionary optimization into hybrid architectures that predict sonic velocities from well-log data, achieving high accuracy on over 1,600 records from the Asmari formation through committee-based learning with weighted fusion (Asoodeh & Bagheripour, 2012). Physics-guided neural networks have further advanced velocity inversion by incorporating frequency-domain constraints into loss functions, ensuring physical plausibility and improved well-posedness of shear-wave velocity profiles from downhole signals (Ji et al., 2025). Similarly, convolutional regression

162 models leveraging transfer learning can infer compressional velocities directly from core sample
163 images of cement-reinforced soils, establishing a bridge between visual and mechanical domains
164 (Kim et al., 2023). Ensemble-based architectures, such as VelProfES, combine real and synthet-
165 ically generated borelog datasets—enhanced by conditional generative adversarial networks (CT-
166 GANs)—to predict shear-wave velocity profiles across more than 10,000 synthetic and real stations
167 (Joshi et al., 2024). The same methodological foundation has been adapted to infer diverse rock
168 and soil properties, including fracture toughness (Afrasiabian & Eftekhari, 2022), soil-water char-
169 acteristic curves (Li & Vanapalli, 2022), Poisson’s ratio (Alakbari et al., 2024), and permeability
170 (Kayabasi et al., 2015). Collectively, these studies illustrate a growing trend toward physics-aware,
171 data-driven frameworks that enable multi-property estimation across scales—offering a coherent
172 pathway for intelligent characterization and prediction of rock mechanical behavior from heteroge-
173 neous data sources.

175 3 IMAGE-BASED MODELING AND FRACTURE DETECTION

177 The geometric complexity of rock microstructures and discontinuities has long been recognized
178 as one of the fundamental barriers to accurate mechanical modeling. Many macroscopic behav-
179 iors—such as rate-dependent strength or nonlinear deformation—originate from processes occur-
180 ring at the grain or pore scale. To overcome the limitations of traditional imaging and reconstruc-
181 tion approaches, recent research has increasingly adopted image-based and data-driven frameworks
182 to recover the internal geometry of rocks from limited or indirect observations. Early numerical
183 approaches employed simulated annealing (SA) optimization to generate three-dimensional digi-
184 tal rocks from limited surface or section images, reproducing statistical features of microstructures
185 without requiring extensive datasets (Yin & Zhao, 2014; Wei et al., 2023). Although this method
186 provided an elegant solution for small-sample reconstruction, it was hindered by heavy computa-
187 tional cost and low scalability when dealing with complex multiphase materials. The advent of deep
188 learning revolutionized this domain by enabling direct 3D reconstruction from 2D imagery. Neu-
189 ral network–based frameworks now learn mappings between image features and volumetric struc-
190 tures, achieving orders-of-magnitude speedups over SA methods while retaining statistical realism
191 (Feng et al., 2020). Generative models have further extended this paradigm: variational autoen-
192 coders (VAEs) have been trained on micro-CT datasets containing tens of thousands of sand parti-
193 cles to generate realistic particle geometries for discrete element modeling (Feng et al., 2020), and
194 voxel-based 3D generative adversarial networks (GANs) have been developed to synthesize large-
195 scale multiphase structures with anisotropic or frozen granular components (Argilaga et al., 2024).
196 More recently, image enhancement networks such as DeblurGAN have been applied to reconstruct
197 true-color 3D granite textures from sequential rock surface images, demonstrating the potential of
198 combining physical imaging and data-driven restoration for microstructural realism (Zhao et al.,
199 2025). These methods collectively signal a transition from purely statistical reconstructions toward
AI-driven volumetric modeling capable of capturing the inherent heterogeneity of geomaterials.

200 Parallel to microstructural reconstruction, AI has become an essential tool for image-based fracture
201 detection and geometric extraction at both laboratory and field scales. Convolutional neural net-
202 works (CNNs) have been extensively used to automate the segmentation and quantification of rock
203 fractures, outperforming conventional image-processing pipelines in accuracy and noise suppres-
204 sion. The FraSegNet architecture, for example, was trained on thousands of tunnel fracture images
205 and achieved superior fracture trace extraction performance across variable lighting and texture con-
206 ditions (Chen et al., 2021). Similar CNN variants such as DeepLab V3+ and UNet3+ have been
207 applied to high-resolution CT imagery of igneous rocks, providing microscale crack segmentation
208 at submicron accuracy (Lei & Fan, 2024). Despite these advances, CNN-based models still suf-
209 fer from limited robustness when faced with low contrast, irregular morphologies, or imbalanced
210 datasets. Beyond 2D imagery, 3D point-cloud–based approaches have emerged as a promising al-
211 ternative. Ensemble learning frameworks integrating support vector machines and random forests
212 have been developed to identify discontinuities in laser-scanned tunnel faces, even when the sur-
213 faces were obscured by shotcrete or excavation artifacts (Peng et al., 2024). Such models achieve
214 strong generalization by aggregating predictions from multiple learners, though they require sub-
215 stantial feature engineering and computational resources. The integration of transfer learning has
further enhanced the adaptability of deep segmentation networks to small, domain-specific datasets,
enabling stable fracture extraction and 3D reconstruction across different rock types (Pan et al.,

216 2024). Nonetheless, the accurate restoration of the spatial topology of fracture networks remains
217 challenging and continues to motivate research into multi-view and multimodal fusion methods.
218

219 Recent progress in combining deterministic and stochastic modeling frameworks has further im-
220 proved the structural interpretation of discontinuities from image and point-cloud data. The De-
221 terministic–Stochastic Identification and Modelling (DSIM) method represents one such approach,
222 where discontinuity features—such as joint orientation and aperture—are statistically characterized
223 through hybrid region-growing and Gaussian fitting strategies applied to outcrop-scale datasets (Pan
224 et al., 2019). By integrating visual and geometric cues from both real imagery and 3D point clouds,
225 DSIM effectively reduces uncertainty in discrete fracture network (DFN) modeling and has been
226 successfully validated through field applications, such as the Heijing Limestone Mine in Guangxi,
227 China. Together, these advances reflect a broader methodological convergence in rock mechanics:
228 the fusion of imaging technologies, deep generative models, and hybrid statistical–deterministic
229 analysis now enables more precise reconstruction and detection of fractures across scales. This
230 image-driven perspective not only enhances our ability to simulate the mechanical response of dis-
231 continuous rock systems but also lays the groundwork for a new generation of digital twin frame-
232 works in geomechanics—where reconstruction, detection, and prediction are integrated within uni-
233 fied AI-based modeling pipelines.

234 4 AI-ASSISTED CONSTITUTIVE MODELING AND SIMULATION 235

236 The development of artificial intelligence has opened a new paradigm for constitutive modeling in
237 rock mechanics, shifting from empirically defined constitutive laws to data-driven and self-adaptive
238 formulations. Early studies demonstrated that backpropagation (BP) neural networks could approxi-
239 mate complex rock strength criteria through direct learning from experimental databases rather than
240 relying on predefined yield functions (Rafiai & Jafari, 2011; Rafiai et al., 2013). These models were
241 trained on extensive polyaxial test datasets covering multiple rock types, allowing nonlinear failure
242 envelopes to emerge automatically from data correlations. Beyond BP networks, ensemble and prob-
243 abilistic regressors such as Gaussian process regression, random tree, and MSP models have been
244 used to construct interpretable and uncertainty-aware strength criteria from multi-source datasets
245 (Fathipour-Azar, 2023). More recently, sequential neural architectures—such as long short-term
246 memory (LSTM) networks—have gained attention for capturing history-dependent constitutive re-
247 sponses. LSTM-based frameworks have been successfully employed to simulate stress–strain evolu-
248 tion in soils and other path-dependent materials (Zhang et al., 2023a; Bahtiri et al., 2023), as well as
249 to reproduce cyclic viscoelastic–viscoplastic behaviors in heterogeneous composites. Hybrid deep
250 models combining LSTM with temporal convolutional networks (TCN) have further demonstrated
251 the ability to learn both monotonic and cyclic deformation mechanisms from limited data (Guan
252 & Yang, 2023). These AI-driven constitutive models, once integrated into finite element solvers,
253 effectively replace conventional empirical formulations and allow continuum-scale simulations to
inherit the nonlinear, multiaxial, and rate-dependent behavior observed in laboratory tests.

254 Parallel progress has been achieved in embedding AI directly into the numerical solution of gov-
255 erning equations. Traditional partial differential equations describing elasticity, diffusion, and mul-
256 tiphysics coupling have been reformulated through machine learning surrogates that blend physical
257 constraints with data-driven inference. BP neural networks have been inserted at Gauss integra-
258 tion points within finite element meshes to emulate representative volume elements (RVE) derived
259 from discrete element simulations, enabling a hybrid FEM–DEM framework capable of resolv-
260 ing anisotropy and microscale interactions in granular materials (Guan et al., 2024). Building
261 on this concept, physics-informed neural networks (PINNs) emerged as a general framework for
262 solving nonlinear PDEs by incorporating governing equations into loss functions. However, chal-
263 lenges in convergence and stability have led to refined architectures such as the physics-informed
264 radial basis network (PIRBN), which introduces localized basis functions to better capture diffu-
265 sion and viscoelastic flow behavior (Bai et al., 2023a). Similarly, the physics-informed temporal
266 convolutional network (PI-TCN) has been integrated with variational formulations of finite element
267 analysis to efficiently simulate transient thermoelastic problems while reducing differentiability and
268 memory constraints (Abueidda & Mobasher, 2024). These methods have also been extended to
269 poromechanical systems, addressing coupled flow–deformation equations for both single- and mul-
tiphase media through dimensionless reformulation and stress-split training schemes that stabilize
optimization (Haghighat et al., 2022). In addition to PINN variants, alternative architectures such

270 as multi-fidelity graph neural networks (MFGNNs) (Black & Najafi, 2022), recurrent networks
271 (RNNs, LSTMs, GRUs) (Hu et al., 2022), and convolutional-peridynamic hybrids (Mavi et al.,
272 2023) have been explored for solving elasticity, phase-field, and nonlocal fracture problems with
273 improved accuracy–efficiency trade-offs.

274 Collectively, these developments mark a convergence between machine learning and computational
275 mechanics, where AI serves not merely as a surrogate but as an active component of the constitu-
276 tive and governing framework. By coupling data-driven learning with physical priors, AI-assisted
277 models can reveal hidden structure–property relationships that transcend empirical formulations and
278 extend predictive capability across scales—from grain-level anisotropy to continuum-scale deforma-
279 tion. Yet, the application of such techniques in rock mechanics remains nascent compared to other
280 material domains. Future research will likely emphasize hybrid physics–data architectures, multi-
281 scale transfer learning, and uncertainty quantification, integrating neural constitutive laws with nu-
282 merical solvers to form self-evolving simulation systems. These intelligent frameworks have the po-
283 tential not only to reproduce observed mechanical responses but also to uncover emergent behaviors,
284 offering a pathway toward autonomous, knowledge-guided constitutive modeling and simulation in
285 rock and geomaterial mechanics.

287 5 MODEL GENERALIZATION IN ROCK MECHANICS AI

289 6 APPLICATIONS IN ROCK ENGINEERING

291 The ultimate value of intelligent rock mechanics lies in solving real-world engineering problems
292 more effectively than before. Across various sub-disciplines of rock engineering, AI and ML tech-
293 niques have begun to yield tangible improvements in analysis, design, and decision-making. Here
294 we survey several key application areas where these intelligent methods are making a difference.

296 6.1 ROCK MASS CLASSIFICATION AND CHARACTERIZATION

298 Rock mass classification plays a foundational role in the design and stability assessment of tunnels,
299 slopes, and other rock engineering projects, yet traditional systems such as RMR and Q remain
300 constrained by empirical formulations and regional calibration, often requiring expert judgment for
301 parameter interpretation. Artificial intelligence (AI) introduces a paradigm shift in this field by
302 enabling data-driven classification and automated feature extraction that transcend site-specific em-
303 pirical dependence. Recent reviews have summarized substantial progress in AI-powered method-
304 ologies for rock mass evaluation (Saadati et al., 2024), where machine learning models are em-
305 ployed to infer classification indices directly from measurable or visual inputs. For example, hybrid
306 frameworks combining support vector classification (SVC) and backpropagation neural networks
307 (BPNN) have been trained on multi-site tunnel databases to refine basic quality (BQ) predictions,
308 with SVC outperforming BPNN due to its superior capability to identify nonlinear decision bound-
309 aries in heterogeneous geological data (Liu et al., 2019). Similarly, regression-based algorithms
310 such as relevance vector regression (RVR) and support vector regression (SVR) have demonstrated
311 significant improvements in estimating Rock Mass Rating (RMR) values compared to conventional
312 empirical conversions, reducing systematic over- and underestimation errors through probabilis-
313 tic inference (Gholami et al., 2013). AI also enables a transition from manual to image-based
314 rock mass characterization: neural networks can derive the Geological Strength Index (GSI) from
315 three-dimensional point cloud data captured via photogrammetry or unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV)
316 surveys, automatically quantifying geometrical attributes such as trace length, orientation density,
317 and intersection frequency (Zeni et al., 2021). Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) extend this
318 capacity by directly learning visual patterns from thousands of core images, achieving high accu-
319 racy in predicting Rock Quality Designation (RQD) across lithologies while eliminating the need
320 for manual labeling (Alzubaidi et al., 2022). Moreover, hybrid neuro-fuzzy systems such as the
321 Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS) have integrated mechanical and geological in-
322 dicators—uniaxial compressive strength (UCS), RQD, joint spacing (JS), joint condition (JC), and
323 groundwater (GW)—to estimate RMR in diverse field environments, combining the interpretability
of fuzzy logic with the adaptivity of neural learning (Jalalifar et al., 2011). Collectively, these
AI-based approaches transform rock mass classification from an experience-dependent process into
a quantitative, reproducible, and scalable framework, capable of integrating image analysis, field

324 sensing, and machine learning to deliver consistent, objective, and high-resolution characterization
325 of geological materials.
326

327 6.2 ROCKBURST AND GEOHAZARD PREDICTION 328

329 Rockburst represents one of the most complex and hazardous manifestations of rock mass instability,
330 where the abrupt release of stored elastic energy under high stress leads to violent ejection and cata-
331 strophic damage in deep tunnels, mines, and hydropower caverns. The nonlinear coupling among
332 geological heterogeneity, in-situ stress distribution, and excavation-induced perturbations makes its
333 prediction extremely challenging for conventional empirical or analytical models. Artificial intelli-
334 gence (AI) has therefore emerged as a transformative tool for rockburst and geohazard prediction,
335 providing a data-driven framework capable of learning the intrinsic relationships between precu-
336 sor signals and failure intensity. Early AI applications employed fuzzy inference systems (FIS) to
337 manage uncertainty and incomplete knowledge in geological datasets, yet their predictive capac-
338 ity remained limited, as shown by (Adoko et al., 2013), whose model explained only 45.8% of
339 the variance. By integrating neural learning, the adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS)
340 achieved substantial improvements, with 95.6% successful prediction accuracy and reduced error
341 metrics, demonstrating the potential of hybrid logic-learning architectures in handling nonlinear-
342 ity and fuzziness. Support vector machines (SVMs), often combined with regression splines or
343 deep ensemble algorithms, have proven effective in modeling high-dimensional rockburst param-
344 eters, enabling multivariate decision boundaries that improve classification robustness (Guo et al.,
345 2022). Neural networks—ranging from feedforward and convolutional (CNN) to extreme learning
346 machines (ELMs)—have been extensively applied to identify rockburst precursors from monitoring
347 data such as microseismic activity, stress ratios, or acoustic emissions, often enhanced through opti-
348 mization strategies like particle swarm algorithms (Xue et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). Ensemble
349 learning methods further elevate prediction stability and precision: (Jia et al., 2024) demonstrated
350 that integrating seven classifiers in a voting-ensemble framework increased accuracy by 4.4%, while
351 (Liang et al., 2021) showed that multi-learner ensembles combining SVMs, logistic regression, and
352 decision trees outperform individual models across precision and recall metrics. For time-dependent
353 hazard forecasting, deep recurrent architectures—particularly long short-term memory (LSTM) net-
354 works—enable dynamic early-warning models that capture temporal dependencies in microseismic
355 or stress evolution data. Hu et al. (Hu et al., 2023) established an LSTM-based framework that pre-
356 dicted rockburst intensity and timing across blasting cycles with accuracies exceeding 70%, marking
357 a key step toward continuous temporal risk monitoring. The reliability of these AI systems relies
358 heavily on robust datasets integrating geological, geomechanical, and microseismic indicators, such
359 as maximum tangential stress, uniaxial compressive strength, brittleness index, elastic energy, and
360 event frequency. Effective preprocessing—including noise filtering, missing-value imputation, and
361 class-balancing—is crucial; for instance, (Liu et al., 2023) employed K-means-based synthetic
362 minority oversampling (KM-SMOTE) to mitigate imbalance in rockburst datasets, significantly en-
363 hancing predictive performance. Cross-validation procedures, such as k-fold optimization, ensure
364 model generalization, as shown by (Zhang et al., 2020), who achieved over 15% improvement in
365 accuracy after hyperparameter tuning. Collectively, these advancements demonstrate that AI has
366 transcended empirical prediction, establishing an intelligent, adaptive, and interpretable framework
367 for rockburst and geohazard forecasting—one capable of fusing multi-source data, uncovering latent
368 physical patterns, and supporting real-time early warning in complex underground environments.

367 6.3 TUNNELING AND BORING OPERATIONS 368

369 Within the operational context of tunneling and boring, AI/ML has evolved from post-hoc curve fit-
370 ting to an integrated decision engine that links geodata ingestion, physics-aware representation, and
371 real-time control of construction variables in rock mechanics. Classic supervised learners remain
372 valuable when aligned with mechanistic priors: multi-layer backpropagation networks map geom-
373 etry-soil/rock-method descriptors to settlement metrics for construction planning and monitoring
374 (Neaupane & Adhikari, 2006), and when trained on numerical experiments they can invert rheolog-
375 ical parameters in soft rock so that calibrated long-horizon deformation forecasts feed maintenance
376 scheduling and support retuning (Kovacevic et al., 2021); replacing sigmoids with wavelet activa-
377 tions, Wavenet improves learning efficiency and generalization for maximum ground-surface settle-
ment estimation during advance, making it attractive for data streams with nonstationary spectral
content (Pourtaghi & Lotfollahi-Yaghin, 2012). Hybridizing data-driven inference with structural

geology, a Gray BP framework coupled to a DFN uncovers a linear link between P-wave velocity and structural plane density, enabling data-assisted optimization of prestressed anchor layouts while revealing burial depth and cable length as primary drivers of surrounding-rock response (Li et al., 2023). For squeezing risk under weak or highly stressed rock, meta-heuristic optimization and probabilistic learning complement deterministic heuristics: a WOA-tuned SVM leverages multi-site case histories to classify squeezing from depth, stiffness, RTQI, diameter and strain inputs (Zhou et al., 2022), whereas a Naïve Bayes formulation provides robust prediction with incomplete evidence and low error across 10-fold validations and external cases (Feng & Jimenez, 2015). Ensemble and time-series architectures strengthen proactive control at the face: PSO-optimized XGBoost scores deformation risk in fault-fractured zones to prioritize countermeasures (Bo et al., 2024), and adaptive chaotic sparrow-search-enhanced ELM/AMLSTM pipelines anticipate short-term deformation trajectories for construction pacing and support staging (Dong et al., 2024). Blending physics constraints with data yields further gains in data-scarce, noisy settings critical to subsurface operations: a DPNN jointly infers geological parameters and ground-loss while outperforming SVM/BP under 20% noise, thus stabilizing settlement and volume-loss estimates needed for shield guidance and risk buffers (Liu et al., 2024); more generally, PINN formulations embed equilibrium and compatibility into displacement-field learning for shield tunneling, curbing extrapolation error and improving interpretability for engineers (Zhang et al., 2023b). Finally, sequence models close the loop on machine-ground interaction in EPB operations: LSTM predictors maintain posture accuracy and anomaly sensitivity despite delayed events and disturbances, outperforming ML ensembles and supporting on-the-fly set-point adjustments for torque, thrust, and chamber pressure (Bai et al., 2023b). Collectively, these advances position AI not as a black box but as a physics-constrained, data-efficient co-pilot for tunneling and boring operations—transforming rock-mechanics inference into actionable control for design, construction, and lifecycle risk management.

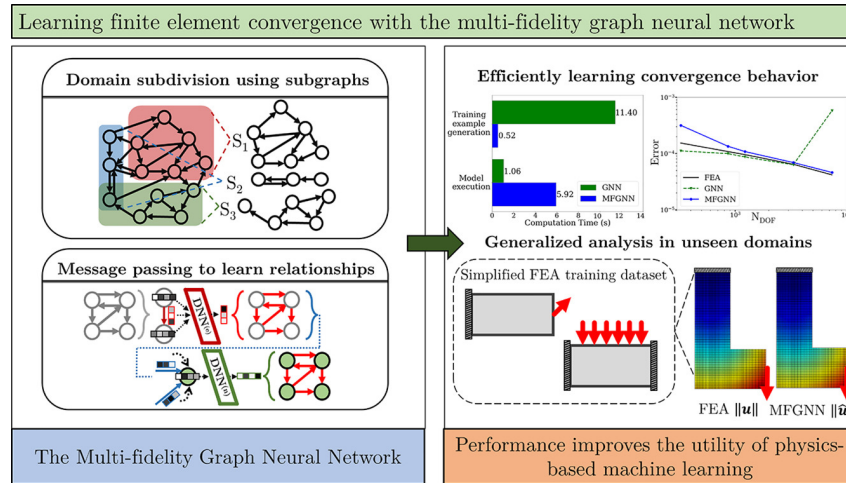


Figure 2: Machine learning methods for solving FEM problems(Black & Najafi, 2022).

6.4 SLOPE STABILITY ANALYSIS

Framed within slope stability analysis and geomechanical hazard management, recent AI advances have shifted from ad-hoc predictors to rigorously validated surrogates and physics-aware learners that compress computational cost while preserving reliability: back-propagation neural networks and support vector machines accelerate Monte Carlo reliability by orders of magnitude with sub-percent bias, enabling probabilistic assessment under heterogeneity and anisotropy using only sparse training subsets (Aminpour et al., 2023a;b); data-centric toolchains extend to 3D effects through efficient ANN implementations (Meng et al., 2021) and to more interpretable and robust surrogates via monotonicity constraints and augmentation strategies that enforce geotechnical priors (Pei & Qiu, 2024). Classic BP paradigms have also been embedded in landslide hazard formulations—either coupled with interaction matrix theory (Ferentinou & Sakellariou, 2007) or distilled into open-pit operational indices such as the MSII for mine slopes (Zare Naghadehi et al., 2013) while deep learn-

ing fused with GIS and pseudo-static analyses yields high-fidelity susceptibility mapping at territory scale (Pradhan & Kim, 2021). Convolutional architectures further streamline mechanics-based workflows: pre-trained CNNs deliver near-instant estimates of safety factors and slip-surface geometry for design screening (Hsiao et al., 2022); CNN-enabled nonintrusive SRFEM resolves random-field variability without succumbing to dimensionality growth (Liu et al., 2023); and CNN meta-models substitute for random-field FEM in reliability calculations with superior accuracy–efficiency trade-offs (Wang et al., 2021). For forecasting, spatiotemporal CNN pipelines outperform rainfall–landslide correlations in operational nowcasting of engineered slopes (Xiao et al., 2022), and disciplined augmentation helps control overfitting on limited labeled cases (Soranzo et al., 2023). Beyond ANNs, kernel and gradient-boosting surrogates support scenario-specific risk evaluation: SVR/XGBoost frameworks quantify failure probability of reservoir slopes under rapid drawdown by ingesting geomechanical descriptors (Guardiani et al., 2022); rare-event seismic reliability is tractably resolved by marrying subset simulation with SVM classifiers in a collaborative conditioning scheme (Xu et al., 2023); and learning systems based on XGBoost (leveraging NGA-West2), subset simulation, K-fold validation, RVM-FORM hybrids, and related boosters provide competitive estimates of rainfall-induced failure probabilities while retaining statistical rigor (Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020; Świtajła et al., 2023). At the interface of deterministic modeling and statistical learning, an uncoupled FEM–LEM pipeline supplies numerical labels to calibrate a random-forest surrogate that classifies reservoir-slope responses with probabilistic consistency (Li & Vanapalli, 2022). Finally, hybrid ensembles consolidate complementary inductive biases from multiple learners: meta-stacking with bio-inspired search identifies performant base/meta-classifiers from FEA-generated training corpora and generalizes to field cases with strong AUC while quantifying variable importance (Kardani et al., 2021); genetic-algorithm–tuned mixtures of Gaussian processes, SVMs, and boosted trees achieve further gains under cross-validation (Qi & Fourie, 2018); stacked ensembles spanning AdaBoost/GBM families highlight the primacy of material parameters in predictive stability (Lin et al., 2022); and combined RF–XGBoost models surpass SVM/logistic baselines in regional landslide catalogs while ranking profile geometry among the dominant controls (Zhang et al., 2022). Collectively, these contributions delineate an AI-enabled slope engineering workflow in which data-efficient surrogates, physics-informed learning, and ensemble uncertainty quantification cohere into fast, scalable, and decision-relevant tools for design screening, reliability assessment, and operational forecasting across the rock-mechanics spectrum.

6.5 OTHER EMERGING APPLICATIONS

Positioned within rock mechanics and adjacent geotechnical practice, recent studies exemplify how AI serves as a surrogate, predictor, and design aide across load-carrying assessment, ground response forecasting, support optimization, and seismic detailing: trained on FLAC simulations governed by the Hoek–Brown criterion, an ANN replaces cumbersome empirical or fully numerical workflows to estimate shallow-foundation bearing capacity on rock masses using compact descriptors such as lithology and uniaxial compressive strength, reproducing numerical trends with far lower computational burden (Millán et al., 2021); spatiotemporal sequence modeling further elevates predictive fidelity for metro excavation environments, where a convolutional–recurrent hybrid (STdeep) captures spatial gradients and temporal memory in settlement records to yield stable, high-accuracy forecasts for foundation-pit influence zones (Zhang et al., 2024); in support design for soft-rock tunnels, a BP-driven dynamic framework couples with numerical simulations to tune active–passive support parameters under evolving ground conditions (Liu et al., 2025), while an expanded optimization scheme that integrates P-wave velocity and geological context with a neural surrogate isolates structural plane density and anchor cable length—together with burial depth—as dominant drivers of surrounding-rock deformation, thereby sharpening design targets and improving deployment efficiency (Li et al., 2023); and for fault-crossing bridges, explainable ML pipelines trained on large synthetic–empirical databases deliver rapid seismic classification/regression tools to size cable restrainers, yielding transparent formulae suitable for preliminary and parametric design loops (Zhang et al., 2024). Collectively, these AI instruments demonstrate tangible gains in efficiency and accuracy across the rock-mechanics workflow; nevertheless, truly mature, field-proven, and routinely adopted AI applications in rock engineering remain relatively scarce, underscoring the need for physics-aware generalization, uncertainty quantification, and standardized validation before widespread practice integration.

7 CHALLENGES AND FUTURE DISCUSSIONS

Despite the impressive progress in intelligent rock mechanics, several challenges must be addressed for these technologies to reach their full potential in practice:

Data Limitations: High-quality, representative data are the fuel for AI models, yet in rock mechanics such data can be scarce or hard to share (see Appendix A.1). Many AI models discussed are trained on relatively small datasets or data from specific sites, which raises concerns about overfitting and generalizability. A concerted effort is needed to develop open, standardized databases for rock mechanical properties, case histories, and monitoring data (Xiao et al., 2022). Collaborative data repositories and industry-academia partnerships could help accumulate the large datasets necessary for robust model training and validation. Additionally, methods to augment data – such as using physics-based simulations or generative networks to create plausible synthetic data – will be valuable in overcoming data scarcity.

Model Interpretability and Trust: Engineering fields demand that models not only perform well, but also be interpretable and trustworthy for high-consequence decisions. Many AI models (e.g. deep neural networks) are often criticized as “black boxes.” Improving interpretability is thus a key frontier. This could involve using simpler surrogate models to approximate the behavior of complex networks or integrating explainable AI techniques that highlight which input features most influence the predictions (for instance, identifying which combination of joint orientation and strength led an ML model to flag a slope as unstable). The development of models that incorporate physical laws (such as PINNs or hybrid models) is another way to boost trust, since they are constrained by known behavior and less likely to predict nonsensical outcomes (Soranzo et al., 2023). Ultimately, increasing transparency and providing uncertainty estimates with predictions will be essential for convincing engineers to adopt AI tools widely.

Computational Efficiency: While many AI models can run predictions in milliseconds once trained, the training process or the integration with large-scale simulations can be computationally demanding. Physics-informed models, for example, often require significant computational resources to converge on a solution for complex 3D problems. Future research will likely explore more efficient training algorithms, model compression, and the use of high-performance computing (including GPUs and cloud platforms) to make training and deploying intelligent models more accessible. Additionally, intelligent algorithms might be used to accelerate each other – for example, using one neural network to intelligently sample or reduce the input space for another, thereby cutting down computation without sacrificing accuracy.

Integration with Domain Workflows: For AI to truly revolutionize rock engineering, it must be integrated into existing engineering workflows and software. This means AI models should be packaged into user-friendly tools, possibly as add-ons to popular rock engineering software or as stand-alone decision support systems. There is ongoing work on frameworks to guide practitioners in selecting appropriate AI methods for a given problem (Guardiani et al., 2022). Such frameworks help in demystifying AI for engineers by linking problem types (e.g. “classification problem with small dataset”) to recommended techniques (e.g. “SVM or decision tree ensemble”) (Xu et al., 2023). Education and training of rock engineers in data science fundamentals will also facilitate smoother adoption – the next generation of geotechnical professionals will likely need to be as comfortable using a machine learning model as they are using a Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion.

Maintenance of AI Systems: Unlike physical laws, data-driven models may need periodic retraining or calibration as new data come in. For instance, as an operation progresses and more monitoring data are collected, initial predictive models for deformation or seismicity might need updating to maintain accuracy. Establishing protocols for model maintenance, validation, and update is important so that AI models remain reliable over the lifespan of a project. In addition, ensuring reproducibility of AI-based research is a community challenge – sharing code, model parameters, and test datasets openly can help validate findings and prevent situations where a published model cannot be reproduced or trusted in a different context.

Looking forward, the future of intelligent rock mechanics appears bright. We anticipate far greater use of hybrid models that combine data-driven learning with explicit physics and domain expertise – this could mean widespread adoption of physics-informed neural networks for routine design problems, or real-time digital twins of underground constructions that marry sensor data with adaptive

AI predictions. Advances in related fields such as computer vision, natural language processing, and robotics will also influence rock mechanics. For example, large language models (LLMs) might be harnessed to quickly parse and summarize vast geotechnical reports or to assist in generating computer code for simulations (see Appendix A.3), although their direct role in core rock mechanics analysis remains to be defined. Meanwhile, spatial intelligence – AI that understands spatial and geometric information – will be crucial for interpreting geological models and integrating multi-scale data (from microscopic images to GIS-based regional data) into a coherent predictive framework (Li et al., 2017).

8 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, intelligent rock mechanics is moving from a niche research topic toward mainstream application. The methods reviewed here, from predicting rock properties with simple tests to automating the mapping of fractures and optimizing tunnel operations, showcase a paradigm shift in how we handle the uncertainty and complexity of rock engineering. By addressing current challenges and fostering interdisciplinary collaboration between AI experts and rock mechanics specialists, the next decade should see these intelligent methods mature into standard tools – making rock engineering safer, more efficient, and more innovative than ever before.

A APPENDIX

A.1 DATASETS OF INTELLIGENT ROCK MECHANICS

This appendix summarizes the major publications, research subjects, and available datasets or codes that were reviewed or referenced in this study. Table 1 provides an overview of representative works across microstructure reconstruction, fracture modeling, mechanical property estimation, and rock engineering applications, along with links to open-source repositories and supplementary materials.

Table 1: Summary of publications, subjects, and available datasets or codes.

Publications	Subject	Data set
(Argilaga et al., 2024)	Microstructure Reconstruction	DOI Link
(Lei & Fan, 2024)	Fracture Reconstruction	GitHub Link
(Kim et al., 2023)	Fracture Reconstruction	GitHub Link
(Abdi et al., 2023)	Mechanical Properties	Appendix A
(Afrasiabian & Eftekhari, 2022)	Mechanical Properties	Table 1
(Heidaripناه et al., 2017)	Mechanical Properties	Table 1, Table 2
(Hu et al., 2023)	Mechanical Properties	Appendix A
(Moussas & Diamantis, 2021)	Mechanical Properties	Table 1
(Mozumder & Laskar, 2015)	Mechanical Properties	Appendix B
(Narendra et al., 2006)	Mechanical Properties	Table 3, Table 4
(Tiryaki, 2008)	Mechanical Properties	Table 1
(Abueidda & Mobasher, 2024)	Governing Equations	GitHub Link
(Behzadafshar et al., 2019)	Governing Equations	GitHub Link
(Bai et al., 2023a)	Governing Equations	GitHub Link
(Black & Najafi, 2022)	Governing Equations	GitHub Link
(Lee et al., 2022)	Rock Mass Classification	GitHub Link
(Adoko et al., 2013)	Rockburst	Table 1
(Feng & Jimenez, 2015)	Tunnel Squeezing	Online Link
(Ferentinou & Sakellariou, 2007)	Slope	Table 3, Table 5
(Kayabasi et al., 2015)	Slope	Appendix A
(Kovacevic et al., 2021)	Tunnelling Deformation	Appendix A
(Liang et al., 2021)	Slope	Appendix
(Bahtiri et al., 2023)	Coal Mining	Appendix A
(Neaupane & Adhikari, 2006)	Tunneling-induced Ground Movement	Table 2, Table 3

A.2 CASE STUDY OF DEEP LEARNING IN ROCKBURST

A representative real-world application of deep learning in rockburst prediction was demonstrated by (Zhang et al., 2021), who developed a time-series prediction framework using convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and long short-term memory (LSTM) models to analyze microseismic multi-parameters collected from deep tunnels. Their case study, conducted in a deeply buried tunnel excavation project, employed continuous microseismic monitoring data—including event counts, cumulative energy, apparent volume, and energy index—to capture the temporal evolution preceding rockburst events. The proposed multivariate and multi-step CNN–LSTM hybrid model successfully predicted the future trends of these parameters, achieving strong agreement between predicted and observed evolution curves, as illustrated in Figure 3. Notably, the predicted increase in cumulative apparent volume and decrease in energy index consistently preceded actual rockburst occurrences, demonstrating the model’s ability to serve as an early-warning tool. Compared with traditional methods focusing only on instantaneous risk indices, this deep learning–based approach provided time-tagged forecasts of rockburst probability and offered a more interpretable understanding of precursor evolution. The model’s integration of field monitoring data, temporal learning, and early-warning interpretation represents a concrete example of how deep learning can be embedded into practical geotechnical risk management workflows, bridging theory and engineering application in intelligent rock mechanics.

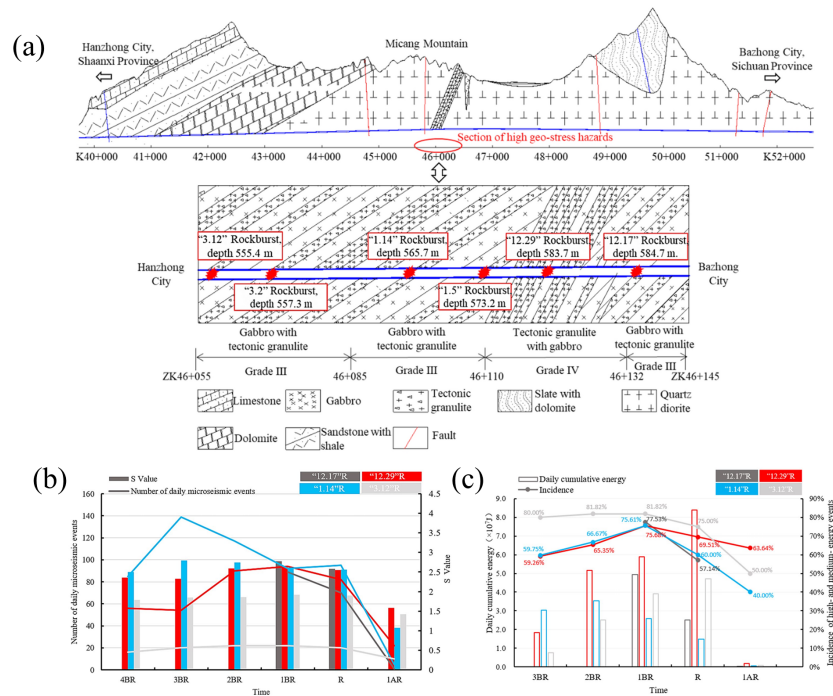


Figure 3: (a) Geological cross-section along the Micangshan tunnel (Zhang et al., 2021); (b) Number of daily microseismic events and S value before and after rockburst occurrence. The processes of four typical rockbursts, namely “12.17,” “12.29,” “1.14,” and “3.12,” are illustrated. “4BR” denotes 4 days before the rockburst; “R” denotes the day of rockburst occurrence; “1AR” denotes 1 day after rockburst (Zhang et al., 2021). (c) Daily cumulative seismic energy and incidences of high- and medium-energy events during the rockburst process (Zhang et al., 2021).

A.3 LLMs FOR ROCK MECHANICS

A PYTHON script based on the finite difference method (FDM) was developed to solve the steady-state seepage equation with fixed-head boundaries and an impermeable sheet pile. The program iteratively computes the hydraulic head distribution until convergence. This code was generated and

648 refined with assistance from a LLM (ChatGPT). The full script is available in the Supplementary
 649 Materials.
 650

651 Listing 1: Seepage Flow Analysis using Finite Difference Method
 652

```

653 #!/usr/bin/env python3
654 # -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
655
656 import numpy as np
657 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
658
659 # -----
660 # Seepage Flow Analysis (FDM)
661 # -----
662
663 # Geometric Information
664 H1 = 10.0 # Left water level (m)
665 H2 = 0.0 # Right water level (m)
666 W = 25.0 # Width of soil layer (m)
667 H_soil = 10.0 # Depth of soil layer (m)
668 W_pile = 1.0 # Width of sheet pile (m)
669 D = 5.0 # Depth of sheet pile penetration (m)
670
671 # FDM Settings
672 dx = 0.1 # Grid size in x-direction (m)
673 dy = 0.1 # Grid size in y-direction (m)
674 threshold = 1e-4 # Convergence threshold
675
676 # Grid Points
677 nx = int(W / dx) + 1 # number of grid points in x
678 ny = int(H_soil / dy) + 1 # number of grid points in y
679
680 # Initialize Water Head Matrix (H): ny rows (y), nx cols (x)
681 H = np.ones((ny, nx)) * ((H1 + H2) / 2.0)
682
683 # Apply Boundary Conditions
684 H[:, 0] = H1 # Left boundary
685 H[:, -1] = H2 # Right boundary
686 H[0, :] = H1 # Top boundary
687 H[-1, :] = H2 # Bottom boundary
688
689 # Sheet pile (no-flow through the pile): keep values fixed in that x-band
690 pile_start = int(round((W/2.0 - W_pile/2.0) / dx)) # zero-based index
691 pile_end = int(round((W/2.0 + W_pile/2.0) / dx)) # inclusive in MATLAB
692 sense
693 H[:, pile_start:pile_end+1] = (H1 + H2) / 2.0
694
695 # Iterative Finite Difference (Laplace: 5-point average with dx=dy)
696 converged = False
697 iteration = 0
698 while not converged:
699     H_old = H.copy()
700
701     for j in range(1, ny - 1): # y-direction (rows)
702         for i in range(1, nx - 1): # x-direction (cols)
703             if not (pile_start <= i <= pile_end):
704                 H[j, i] = 0.25 * (H_old[j+1, i] + H_old[j-1, i] +
705                                 H_old[j, i+1] + H_old[j, i-1])
706
707     H[:, 0] = H1
708     H[:, -1] = H2
709     H[0, :] = H1
710     H[-1, :] = H2
711
712     H[:, pile_start:pile_end+1] = (H1 + H2) / 2.0

```

```

702
703     max_diff = np.max(np.abs(H - H_old))
704     iteration += 1
705     if max_diff < threshold:
706         converged = True
707
708 print(f"Converged in {iteration} iterations, max_diff={max_diff:.6e}")
709
710 # Plot the Water Head Distribution
711 x = np.linspace(0.0, W, nx)
712 y = np.linspace(0.0, H_soil, ny)
713 X, Y = np.meshgrid(x, y)
714
715 plt.figure(figsize=(7, 4.8))
716
717 cf = plt.contourf(X, Y, H, levels=20)
718 plt.colorbar(cf, label='Head (m)')
719 plt.xlabel('X (m)')
720 plt.ylabel('Y (m)')
721 plt.title('Water Head Distribution in Soil Layer (FDM)')
722 plt.tight_layout()
723 plt.show()

```

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