ADVANCED TESTING AND A NUMERICAL TOOL FOR SWELL EQUILIBRIUM LIMIT OF EXPANSIVE SOILS

Tests Avancés et un Outil d'analyse Numérique pour la limite de gonflements à l'équilibre des argiles expansives.

A Thesis Submitted to the Division of Graduate Studies of the Royal Military College of Canada by

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ABSTRACT

Swelling-induced stresses and deformations have caused damage to buildings and infrastructure constructed in expansive soils. The cost of remediation and repairs on swelling-induced damages exceeds billions of dollars annually. The conventional swelling test has some limitations on measuring swelling pressures and volume changes that affect the analysis of swelling soils.

The swelling behavior of expansive clays is investigated through hydraulic mechanical advanced testing in the Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL, Siemens and Blatz 2009) context. The SEL encompasses an upper bound limit of swelling-induced stresses and deformations under prescribed boundary conditions along with the applied pressure ranges from low stress to high confining stresses. A complete SEL is established from interpretation of triaxial and unconfined swelling tests. The unconfined swelling test is carried out in a newly developed testing apparatus. The maximum swelling deformation is determined by a non-contact method that incorporates digital image correlation. Various specimen aspect ratios are examined to determine the efficient test duration to achieve swelling equilibrium.

The SEL is used as a unifying framework to characterize swelling behavior of expansive soils in terms of swelling-induced stresses and volume change. A SEL catalogue is established with four tested materials that consist of a natural soil, two different recompacted soils and an engineered buffer. The index properties of each soil are studied in conjunction with the SEL curve fitting parameters. The developed correlation is used to calculate the preliminary SEL of Regina clay. A numerical tool is developed to model swelling behavior in the SEL context. The numerical model used is the Sheng, Fredlund and Gens (SFG) model that requires two additional input parameters, including soil compressibility and saturation suction. The other input variables in the SFG model are based on the initial states of the soil and the applied boundary condition. A parametric study of the model is carried out to determine the sensitivity of the input parameters and the initial soil state. An example of a basement constructed in swelling soil is presented to demonstrate the model applicability to analyze swelling-induced stresses and deformations.

RESUME

Les contraintes et déformations induites par gonflement causent annuellement des dommages qui totalisent plusieurs milliards de dollars aux bâtiments et infrastructures construits dans les argiles expansives. Au présent, la conception et la construction des bâtiments sont guidés par les tests conventionnels du laboratoire et les stratégies d'analyse pour mesurer et prédire les pressions de gonflement et les changements de volume. Clairement il existe un écart entre l'état de la pratique pour caractériser les matériaux expansifs et l'analyse des applications d'ingénierie qui sont construites utilisent les sols expansifs. Cette thèse répond à ce besoin grâce à une nouvelle technique pour les tests du laboratoire, l'établissement d'un catalogue des résultats des tests de gonflement et le développement d'un outil d'analyse numérique pour prédire les contraintes et les déformations induites par gonflement.

Le comportement de gonflement de l'argile expansive est examiné par les tests avancés d'hydromécanique et est interprété dans le contexte de la limite de gonflements à l'équilibre (SEL, Siemens et Blatz, 2009). La SEL englobe une limite supérieure des contraintes et déformations induites par gonflement dans les conditions aux limites prescrites, avec la gamme de pression appliquée à partir de la contrainte nominale à la contrainte de confinement élevé. La limite de gonflement non-confiné. Le test de gonflement non-confiné est accompli dans un laboratoire avec un nouvel appareil d'expérimentation. La déformation de gonflement maximale est déterminée par une méthode de non-contact qui intègre la corrélation des images numériques analysées avec le software geoPIV. Divers rapports d'aspects des spécimens sont testé pour déterminer le rapport de hauteur-

à-diamètre optimal qui permet l'achèvement de gonflement équilibre dans une période de test raisonnable.

La SEL est utilisé comme un cadre d'unification pour caractériser et prédire le comportement de gonflement dans les sols expansifs en fonction des contraintes induites par gonflement et le changement de volume. Un catalogue de SEL est établi par des tests sur quatre sols; ces sols consistent d'un sol naturel, deux sols différents qui sont ré-compacté et d'un tampon ingénierie. Les deux sols ré-compactés, spécifiquement l'argile ré-compacté de Bearpaw et l'argile de Lac Agassiz, ont été testés dans le gonflement triaxiaux et le gonflement non-confiné pour leur SEL interprétation. Les propriétés de l'index et les limites Atterberg de chaque sol sont rapportés en conjonction avec les paramètres d'ajustement de la courbe obtenus par le changement de volume de la SEL – la contrainte moyenne et la pression de gonflement – et les graphes EMDD. Le développement de cette corrélation est utilisé pour prédire la SEL de l'argile du Regina, qui est en accorde avec les données publiées.

Un outil d'analyse numérique est développé pour modéliser le comportement de gonflement dans le contexte de la SEL. L'outil d'analyse numérique est fondé sur le modèle de Sheng, Fredlund et Gens (SFG) qui a besoin de deux paramètres additionnels; la compressibilité du sol en gonflement et la succion de saturation. Ces paramètres sont en plus des propriétés des matériaux qui sont traditionnellement associés avec l'état critique. Les variables qui restent pour le modèle SFG sont basées sur les conditions du sol initial et les conditions aux limites appliquées pendant gonflement. Le modèle est appliqué avec succès aux résultats triaxiaux et de gonflement non-confiné sur un tampon ingénierie et un sol ré-compacté. Une étude paramétrique du modèle était aussi menée pour déterminer la

sensibilité des paramètres d'entrée et l'état du sol initial. Finalement, un exemple d'un mur de sous-sol construit dans le sol expansif est présenté pour démontrer l'applicabilité du modèle SFG pour prédire les contraintes et déformation induite par gonflement.

CO-AUTHORSHIP

The thesis from Chapter 1 through 5 is entirely the original work by the author under the supervision of her advisor, Dr. G.A. Siemens.

Chapter 2

A new unconfined swelling testing apparatus and methodology was designed and developed by the author. A series of unconfined swelling tests on two recompacted expansive soils were carried out by the author. The work has been published in *ASTM Geotechnical Testing Journal*: Lim, B.F. and Siemens, G.A. (2013). An unconfined swelling test for clayey soils that incorporates digital image correlation. Geotechnical Testing Journal, 36(6), 1-11.

Chapter 3

The triaxial swelling apparatus was used by Siemens 2006 and Powell 2010 in their research. The author designed a modification to the triaxial apparatus to allow for novel installation of a suction measurement instrument at the base of the pedestal. A series of triaxial swelling tests were carried out by the author on two recompacted soils for the Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) interpretation (Siemens and Blatz 2009). A total of four test soils were examined for their swelling potential characterization in the SEL context. A SEL database was initiated and the SEL for Regina clay was calculated.

Chapter 3 is a draft manuscript prepared for consideration by *Canadian Geotechnical Journal*:

Lim, B.F. and Siemens, G.A. (2014) A unifying framework to characterize and model swelling behavior using advanced testing. *To be submitted to Canadian Geotechnical Journal*. November 2014.

Chapter 4

In Chapter 4, the research is on a numerical tool to model swelling behavior within the SEL context. The base constitutive model is the Sheng, Fredlund and Gens (SFG) model that requires two additional input parameters. The author formulated the SFG numerical model and calibrated it with advanced testing results in order to model swelling soil behavior in the SEL framework for expansive soils. Chapter 4 is a draft manuscript prepared for consideration *by Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering*:

Lim, B.F. and Siemens, G.A. (2014) A numerical tool for modelling swelling behavior of expansive soils. *To be submitted to Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering*. December 2014.

Other contributions

During the course of the research, the author was also involved in projects as a research assistant in the geotechnical laboratory at RMC under contract with Nuclear Waste Management Organization (NWMO). The author performed a series of triaxial tests to characterize material properties of light backfill saturated with CaCl₂ solution from year 2007 to 2010. In year 2011 to 2013, the author performed a series of triaxial tests on 70:30 bentonite-sand backfill saturated with saline solution (SR-270-PW) and de-ionized water. The results and interpretation from this project formed the basis for the following journal publication included in Appendix K:

Siddiqua, S., Siemens, G., Blatz, J., Man, A. and Lim, B.F. (2014).Influence of pore fluid chemistry on the mechanical properties of clay-based materials. Geotechnical and Geological Engineering, 32(4), 1029-1042.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Symbols

А, В	- fitting parameters in V= A + B In p
C, D	- fitting parameters in p _{swell} = C*e ^(D*EMDD)
Δ	- change
ε _a	- axial strain
ε _r	- radial strain
ε _v	- volumetric strain
ν	- Poisson's ratio
ρ_w	- density of fluid (water)
ρ_{d}	- dry density
C_{h}	- suction compression index
Cs	- corrected swelling index
C_{w}	- suction modulus ratio
d	- day
d	- diameter of specimen
d ₀	- initial diameter of specimen
е	- void ratio =(volume of voids)/(volume of solids)
f	- lateral restraint factor
f _c	- clay fraction
f _m	- montmorillonite fraction of clay
ρ_{b}	- bulk density
ρ_{d}	- dry density
γ'n	- suction compression index
Gs	- specific gravity
	- also specific gravity of non-clay material
G _n	- specific gravity of non-swelling clay

	- height of specimen
/p	- slope of the NCL for normally consolidated soils
/S	- soil compressibility due to suction
ws	- slope of main drying curve
	- plasticity index
	- correction parameter
ws	- slope of scanning curve
	- mean stress =(σ_1 +2 σ_2)/3
	- net mean stress =(p-u _a)
equil	- equilibrium mean stress
swell	- swelling pressure
C	- BBM model parameter
N	- volumetric water content
	- universal gas constant
2	- coefficient of determination
	- radius of specimen
	- initial radius of specimen
1	- major stress
2	- radial or minor stress
	- coefficient for load effect
	- suction (=u _w -u _a)
sa	- saturation suction
r	- degree of saturation
ni	- initial suction
eot	- end-of-test suction
	- time
	- absolute temperature
а	- pore air pressure
	rp rs vs ws equil swell c n 2 1 2 3 a r ni eot

Uw	- pore water pressure
υ_{w0}	- specific volume of water
V (or v)	 specific volume =(1+e)
Vol	- volume
Vol ₀	- initial volume
W	- gravimetric water content
ω_{υ}	- molecular mass of water vapor
Ψ_t	- total soil suction

Abbreviations

1-D	- one dimensional
А	- activity (=l _p / %f _c)
AEV	- air-entry value
AR	 aspect ratio (=Height/Diameter)
BBM	- Barcelona Basic Model
BExM	- Barcelona Expansive Model
BSB	- bentonite sand buffer
CCD	- charge coupled device (of digital camera)
CMS	- constant mean stress
CS	- constant stiffness
CV	- constant volume
EOT	- end-of-test
EMDD	- effective montmorillonite dry density
LI	- liquidity index
LL	- liquid limit
MEBM	- modulus of elasticity-based method
PI	- plasticity index
PL	- plastic limit
RH	- relative humidity
SEL	- swell equilibrium limit
SFG	- Sheng, Fredlund and Gens
SLR	- single-lens reflex
SWCC	- soil water characteristic curve

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Overview

Unsaturated soil mechanics has been developed as an extension of saturated soil mechanics in order to understand soil behavior under negative pore pressure (suction). The theoretical basis and framework used in saturated soil mechanics cannot be extended for unsaturated soils. The presence of suction changes the conventional saturated soil behavior and its characteristics. In nature, the change in suction corresponds to the seasonal fluctuation of the ground water table in the soil. As a result, additional stress state variables such as suction need to be included in soil deformation and stress-strain relationships.

Expansive soils provide a unique challenge in the field of unsaturated soil mechanics. These soils can be beneficial if their intrinsic soil behavior is designed for and managed. For example, the swelling potential of expansive soils can be used to construct an evapo-transpirative cover system, landfill liner and an engineered buffer for an underground waste repository (Siemens 2006). These systems make use of the self-healing capacity of the soil to reduce the permeability and hence control contamination initiating from the waste. On the other hand a substantial amount of dollars are spent annually on damage due to swelling. Swelling nature can cause excessive deformations and swelling-induced stresses on adjacent structures. This damage can be prevented with a better understanding of the soil behavior under both unsaturated and saturated conditions.

1.2 Analysis Methods for Swelling Soil

Developing practical tools that can be used in engineering design is the main motivation of many researchers in unsaturated soils. A literature review on the previous research works to develop an analysis tool for swelling soil behavior is presented in the following.

Briaud et al. (2003) mentioned a few existing methods that are used to estimate vertical deformation of swelling soil. These methods include the potential vertical rise (PVR) method (McDowell 1956), suction methods (McKeen 1992) and the Clod test (Miller et al. 1995). The PVR method does not calculate vertical heave directly but the relative volume change is estimated from the field water content and Atterberg limits instead. The vertical deformation estimated would be the upper bound swelling potential. The suction method proposed in McKeen (1992) requires inputs such as, suction compression index (Ch), lateral restraint factor (f), coefficient for load effect (s) and initial as well as final suction in the soil. The other approach of swelling soil analysis is the Clod method (Miller et al. 1995). The advantage of using Clod method is that it leads to site-specific values of suction compression index. Besides that, Clod method uses resin that could hold fractured soil together whereas it would not be possible on a trimmed sample. However, this method does not calculate vertical deformation directly.

Vanapalli et al. (2012) proposed an empirical equation that can estimate swelling pressure with respect to the soil-water characteristic curve for sand-bentonite mixtures. This method is an extension of the semi-empirical technique developed in estimating swelling pressure of natural expansive soils that requires plasticity index and the variation of moisture content of the soil (Vanapalli et al. 2010). The application of SWCC in estimating swelling pressure needs more comprehensive understanding of the effect from compaction method and compaction water content.

Vanapalli and Lu (2012) have made a comprehensive review on various techniques to estimate swelling pressure and one-dimensional (1-D) deformation for expansive soils. According to Vanapalli and Lu (2012), the analysis for swelling soil could be generalized into three main groups, namely empirical method (Vanapalli et al. 2010), oedometer test method (Fredlund 1983, Sridharan et al. 1986) and suction method (McKeen 1992).

The empirical method relates swelling potential to classification and index property of the expansive soils. Vanapalli et al. (2010) proposed an

empirical estimation equation which requires three inputs, such as corrected swelling index (C_s), suction modulus ratio (C_w) and correction parameter, K (function of water content and plasticity index, I_p). The widely used oedometer test method in swelling soil is given by Fredlund (1983) where vertical heave is calculated from free swell test and swelling pressure is obtained from "corrected" pressure from a swell-load curve. The suction methods incorporate suction measurement or correlation as a stress state input in swelling behavior.

Adem and Vanapalli (2014) have performed a study on soil-environment interactions in modelling for expansive soils where the overall volume changes (due to shrinkage or swelling) is attributed to water content and matric suction changes in unsaturated expansive soils. They have used a modulus of elasticity-based method (MEBM, Adem and Vanapalli 2013) to model the soil-environment interactions with an expansive soil.

1.3 Swelling in Expansive Soils

Swelling mechanisms in expansive unsaturated soil are dependent on the clay mineralogy, stress history, loading condition and change in suction. Among these factors the intrinsic soil property is its clay mineralogy. Various types of clay minerals that can be found in clayey soils; namely, kaolinite, chrolite, illite, smectite (e.g. montmorillonite) and others (Mitchell and Soga 2005). Most of the expansive soils have a significant montmorillonite component. Montmorillonite is a high plasticity swelling clay material with high liquid limit and its clay mineral is made up of 2:1 structure. Swelling in montmorillonite is due to the diffused double layer between the clay platelets. The clay surface is negatively-charged and the hydroxyls (cation) from water molecules are easily attracted to the clay surface. Replacement of the interlayer cations by water molecules results in only partial satisfaction of the net negatively charged surface since the water molecule has a net neutral charge. The net increase in repelling forces causes swelling at the microscopic level. The major contributor to swelling is the interaction between montmorillonite particles. Therefore it is essential to investigate the swelling characteristic under the influence of montmorillonite content.

Research that has contributed to the study of swelling behavior in terms of mineralogy or geo-chemistry interaction is included in the papers published by Katti and Shanmugasundaram (2001), Komine and Ogata (2004), Tripahty et al. (2004) and Thakur and Singh (2005).

1.4 Numerical Models for Unsaturated soils

Numerical studies in unsaturated soils are typically developed with reference to the models used in saturated soils. The extended application of saturated soil model in unsaturated soils requires additional stress variables and hardening equation to capture the suction-induced changes on soil behavior. Some of the commonly used unsaturated soil models are summarized in the following section.

Barcelona Basic Model (BBM) developed by Alonso et al. (1990) is one of the most widely used constitutive models in unsaturated soils. This model was initially studied with slightly or moderately expansive soils that are represented by a compacted kaolin and a sandy clay with suction control. In developing the BBM model, an elasto-plastic hardening model using two independent sets of stress variables was established. In simulating unsaturated soils behavior with respect to effects of suction, a total of nine input parameters are required in the model. Wheeler et al. (2002) made some comments on the use of BBM model. Their comments include a suggestion for a practical approach of selecting model parameter, p^c from test data.

Wheeler and Sivakumar (1995) developed an unsaturated soil elastoplastic critical state framework that is based on BBM model (Alonso et. al 1990). The model is applied to a series triaxial test on compacted speswhite kaolin with suction-control. In addition to nine input parameters required in BBM model, a new parameter is introduced, specific water volume, v_w . They have suggested that the future development of unsaturated soil model should consider the simplification on model input requirement that would be more practical for design analysis.

Alonso et al. (1999) developed an unsaturated expansive soil model that is based on the earlier BBM (Alonso et al. 1990). This model is named, Barcelona Expansive Model (BExM) that considers two levels of structure, micro-structure and macro-structure. BExM is applied to simulate test data obtained from oedometer tests with suction-control on compacted Boom clay. The model includes the effect of cyclic behavior on drying-wetting paths. In micro-macrostructure interaction, swelling occurs when suction cycles are applied at low stress; compression is observed when suction cycles are applied at high stress.

Blatz and Graham (2003) proposed an elastic-plastic model for compacted high plasticity sand-clay mixture. The compacted clay is tested in a new

triaxial apparatus with suction control. The suction device is buried in the triaxial specimen. The study is focused on the influence of suction on yield stress and shear strength. The future works recommended is the possibility of coupling suction-induced yielding and loading-induced yielding resulted from plastic hardening.

Sheng et al. (2008) developed an unsaturated soil model, namely Sheng, Fredlund and Gens (SFG) model that relates two independent stress-strain variables in terms of net stresses and suction. The model is a new volumestress-suction relationship that accommodates effects of hysteresis of wetting-drying cycles. Various stress paths can be defined with this model. SFG equations model the unsaturated soil behavior of various tested soils. The test data includes compacted bentonites with suction change (Lloret et al. 2003), compacted Pearl clay (Sun et al. 2007) and initial slurry soil (Fredlund 1964). The advantage of this new model is that it requires only two additional input parameters of soil compressibility and saturation suction. The numerical analysis studied in Chapter 4 is based on SFG model.

1.5 Objectives

The main objective of this research program is to further understand swelling soil behavior through advanced experimental work and develop an engineering analysis tool with a numerical model for expansive soils. These objectives can be achieved through the following steps:

a. Develop a new testing apparatus and methodology for unconfined swelling test as an extended study of SEL curve at low stress levels. The program includes a new apparatus design (humidity-confined chamber), selection of suitable digital camera and lenses, testing methodology and digital image analysis software.

The triaxial swelling apparatus requires a modification at the pedestal to allow for relative humidity measurement at the specimen (Appendix E). The relative humidity is correlated to total suction for unsaturated analysis.

b. Apply SEL as an unifying framework to characterize swelling soils and calculate a SEL of an expansive soil with the correlation to the initial soil condition and index properties. Two additional expansive soils are tested for the SEL interpretation. A SEL catalogue is developed, which allows analysis of SELs of expansive soils. c. Develop an engineering analysis tool for swelling-induced stresses and deformation. A numerical model is investigated for its applicability to utilize experimental data obtained from advanced testing in practical design analysis.

1.6 Organization of Thesis

This thesis is presented in a manuscript format in accordance to the outline given by Division of Graduate Studies and Research at Royal Military College of Canada – Thesis Preparation Guidelines (version 3 December 2013).

Chapter 1 consists of a general introduction, research objectives and organization of the thesis. Chapter 2 through Chapter 4 is original manuscripts of the research work. The overall conclusions drawn from the research are presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2 presents the development of a new testing apparatus and methodology of an unconfined swelling test. The free state of swelling boundary condition allows for SEL curve to be interpreted at low stress levels. The innovation of this new apparatus employs non-contact measurement of swelling deformation which is correlated with digital image interpretation. The maximum swelling deformation under unconfined boundary condition is quantified successfully. The result from digital image correlation is in good agreement with caliper measurement at the end of tests.

Chapter 3 extends the application of SEL curve in characterizing expansive soils. The SEL is used as a unifying framework to investigate swelling-induced stresses and deformation under prescribed boundary conditions ranging from free swelling to rigid constant volume swelling. A catalogue of expansive clays is established with four tested soil materials. The correlation of SEL curves with a soil's initial state and index properties allows for a SEL calculation to be made.

Chapter 4 presents the applicability and development of an unsaturated numerical tool for swelling soil analysis. The experimental data from advanced testing is modelled successfully with SFG model. The applicability of SFG model in swelling soil analysis makes it an attractive tool in practical design because of its simple requirement of input parameters.

The overall conclusions of the thesis are summarized in Chapter 5.

1.7 Research Novelty

High quality of swelling deformation measurement on unconfined swelling test specimen is presented in Chapter 2. This work has improved the measurement quality on the soil specimen that swells under no confining boundary condition.

Chapter 3 establishes the database of expansive soils swelling behavior that is interpreted in SEL concept. The database is developed from high quality experimental result tested using the advanced triaxial and unconfined swelling apparatuses.

SFG modelling in Chapter 4 offers geotechnical practitioners a simple analysis tool to calculate swelling-induced stresses and deformations with two calibrated input parameters from SEL test data.

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CHAPTER 2: AN UNCONFINED SWELLING TEST FOR CLAYEY SOILS THAT INCORPORATES DIGITAL IMAGE CORRELATION

2.1 Introduction

The characterization of swelling potential is of critical importance in the analysis and design of infrastructure founded in swelling soil. The behavior of expansive soil is complicated by excessive volume changes during swelling and the development of swelling-induced stresses when expansion is restrained. Damage to infrastructure founded in swelling soil due to excessive deformation is measured in billions of dollars every year (Keller 2008, Puppala and Cerato 2009). The swelling ability of soil also provides self-healing qualities, which can also be utilized in waste isolation applications. Design optimization requires accurate analysis of swelling potential and swelling pressures.

Traditionally, the swelling potential and swelling pressures are measured using an oedometer apparatus as shown schematically in Figure 2.1a (ASTM D4546-96). Specimens are subjected to wetting under free swell or constant volume conditions. The test results provide the maximum vertical swelling strain or vertical swelling pressure. Recently the standard test was revised (ASTM D4546-08), and it now calls for the application of constant vertical stress conditions followed by wetting. Several tests are completed at increasing vertical stresses until the stress that inhibits swelling is determined. The test method imposes laterally constrained conditions on the swelling behavior, but these conditions rarely persist in the field. Numerous researchers and practitioners have successfully used these, or similar, test methods to characterize expansive soils (Komine and Ogata 1994, Dixon et al. 2002, Rao and Tripathy 2003, DiMaio et al. 2004, Rao et al. 2004, Imbert and Villar 2006, Peng and Horn 2007, Cerato et al. 2009, Nagaraj et al. 2009, Baille et al. 2010, Ito and Azam 2010, Singhal et al. 2011, Kodikara 2012, Lee et al. 2012 and Powell et al. 2012a, 2012b, 2013). Micro-porosity effects on the behavior of swelling materials have also been examined (Siemens et al. 2007 and Vallejo 2011). Vallejo (2011) studied the influence of pore micro geometry on the slaking of shale and concluded that smoother and smaller pores have a reduced resistance to slaking.

Rojas et al. (2011) reported a test methodology and apparatus for measuring wetting and drying water-retention curves using the vapor equilibrium technique, and they also included digital image analysis to measure deformations. Compacted bentonite specimens were subjected to constant relative humidity environments and the specimens either shrank or swelled in response to the imposed suction level. Soil images were captured during the test with a digital single-lens reflex (SLR) camera and strains were interpreted using commercial photo-editing software. Their results confirm the effectiveness of the vapor equilibrium method for applying wetting and drying conditions and non-contact measurement techniques to measure soil strains.

Siemens and Blatz (2009) reported a unifying framework for the behavior of swelling soils. Termed the Swell Equilibrium Limit, the framework can be used to analyze swelling-induced pressures and swelling strains based on the initial conditions and the boundary conditions during swelling. The soil is characterized, as illustrated in Figure 2.1b, with constant mean stress, constant stiffness, or constant volume boundary conditions imposed during triaxial swelling tests (Siemens and Blatz 2007). The end points of the swell tests are then connected to form the Swell Equilibrium Limit. The Swell Equilibrium Limit was developed for a highly swelling engineered barrier with 50% bentonite (Siemens and Blatz 2009) and later was applied to a natural soil (Powell et al. 2013). The Swell Equilibrium Limit framework works well at stress conditions found in many applications and may have several uses within a single engineering application.

Figure 2.1c displays a retaining wall system that provides multiple boundary conditions to the surrounding swelling soil. Below the cantilever wall, the swelling soil is under a constant mean stress boundary imposed by the constant vertical stress from the overlying soil and concrete. Under wetting conditions, the soil underneath the wall footing swells along a vertical stress path in a specific volume–mean stress (V-p) space. Adjacent to the retaining wall, the soil swells against the wall, which leads to displacement. This complex soil–structure interaction has been idealized as a constant stiffness boundary, which is a spring-like boundary condition. In V-p space, the stress path plots along a sloped line, with the slope angle being a function of the wall stiffness. The other boundary condition would be a

perfectly stiff wall that would plot as a horizontal stress path in V-p space (not shown).

Few studies have focused on swelling soil behavior at low stresses. The Swell Equilibrium Limit framework has been characterized using triaxial swelling tests, but its use at low stress levels has not been investigated. Continuing with the retaining wall example [Figure 2.1c], the soil underneath the road in front of the retaining wall will swell against a pseudo-unconfined condition at a shallow depth. In this location, free swell conditions persist; however, one-dimensional conditions do not. Given the significant non-linearity in the Swell Equilibrium Limit [Figure 2.1b and Figure 2.1c], accurate analysis of the potential vertical deformations at these low stresses is very difficult. This motivated the author to develop a new test apparatus and methodology for characterizing the swelling potential at low stresses under true free swell boundary conditions.

Herein we propose an unconfined swelling test for measuring the maximum swelling potential for direct water access. The swell measurements obtained from the unconfined swelling test allow the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework to be applied at low stresses where significant non-linearity is expected [Figure 2.1b and Figure 2.1c]. The soil specimen is given free access to water and allowed to deform without any restraining boundary condition upon swelling. The test method uses digital image correlation or particle image velocimetry (GeoPIV) (White et al. 2003), which has been used in many geotechnical applications to measure soil deformations. Test results are presented to verify the apparatus and methodology, and then preliminary interpretation is provided in the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework.

2.2 Test Apparatus

The unconfined test apparatus provides water uptake and a high humidity environment to soil specimens to enable measurement of their unrestrained swelling potential. A photograph of an overall view of the unconfined swelling test setup is shown in Figure 2.2a. Plan and cross-section drawings are included in Figure 2.2b and 2.2c. The configuration allows for five unconfined swelling tests to be completed simultaneously. The apparatus is constructed from 25.4-mm-thick Perspex and includes a sealed box that is 1.00 m wide, 0.24 m tall, and 0.20 m deep. The box is designed with a removable cover to allow digital images to be captured without obstruction and to allow water to be applied during the test. A rubber seal is placed around the edge of the removable cover, and vacuum grease is applied to ensure that the box is sealed during the swelling tests. Soil specimens are given direct access to water via spraying and wicking action from filter paper strips dipped into the reservoir. At the beginning of the test, six 10-mm-wide wicking strips are secured radially around the soil specimens with the ends placed in the water reservoir. The reservoir also maintains a high humidity level in the airspace within the box.

The process for making manual measurements of specimen height and diameter during the test is difficult because of the size of the specimens and the size constraints within the box. Unconfined swelling test durations can range from a few weeks to a few months depending on the size of the specimen. Thus a noncontact displacement measurement technique is incorporated into the apparatus. Digital images of the soil specimens are recorded using a digital SLR camera. Figure 2.3 illustrates typical deformations that are recorded during an unconfined swelling test. The camera is attached to a custom mount, and the mount is placed into a slot to position the camera in front of a soil specimen [see Figure 2.2a, 2.2b, and 2.2c for camera, mount, and slot locations]. Soil deformations during the unconfined swelling test are measured by interpreting digital images using GeoPIV (White et al. 2003). A rigid frame with black circular targets is positioned around each pedestal. The locations of the targets are measured in a local coordinate system. The software uses the targets on the frame to correct digital images for small differences in the location of the camera and as reference locations to calculate soil deformations within a local coordinate system. Targets are also secured to the top of the soil specimen along its center plane. Soil specimen targets are used to track soil deformations during the unconfined swelling test.

The choice of a suitable digital camera and lens was made during the design stage. Of the possible suitable combinations, a Canon EOS Digital Rebel XTi with an EFS60mm f/2.8 Macro USM Lens was selected to record digital images of the soil specimens. The camera has a CCD that is 14.8 mm by 22.2 mm in size with an image resolution of 2592 pixels by 3888 pixels. The focal length of the macro lens is 60 mm. The camera is located 0.69 m in front of the center plane of each soil specimen, giving an average resolution of 0.04 mm/pixel. The camera is relocated from one slot to another slot to take images of soil specimens at each location. To prevent undesired movement while recording a digital image, a remote control with a self-timer setting of 2s is used.

2.3 Test Methodology and Analysis

Unconfined swelling tests may be performed on natural or remolded specimens. A series of tests was carried out in the same or similar configuration to assess the repeatability of the testing method. According to the test method, test specimens are prepared and their initial mass, dimensions, and water content are recorded. Six 10-mm-wide wicking strips are installed along the side of the specimen. Figure 2.3 displays the wicking strips and illustrates typical deformations recorded during an unconfined swelling test. Two GeoPIV targets are pinned diametrically on the top surface of the specimen for image analysis. The soil specimen, with the wicking strips and targets, is then placed on a pedestal inside the sealed box. The specimen is located in such a way that the specimen targets face the camera and are in the same plane as the frame of the GeoPIV targets. Once the compacted soil specimen is placed on the pedestal, an initial photograph is recorded and the legs of the wicking strips are submerged in the water reservoir. To maintain the specimens in a pseudo-submerged state, de-ionized water is sprayed at the specimens on a daily basis. Water is sprayed all around each specimen until the wicking strips and soil specimen are visibly wet. The cover of the humidity box normally remains closed to prevent the loss of humidity through evaporation. The cover is opened only when an image is to be captured or when the specimens are sprayed. Periodically, digital images are taken of the soil specimen, which also requires opening of the sealed box. Between spraying events, the wicking strips effectively retain moisture in the soil specimen. In our tests, a relative humidity probe within the box airspace confirmed that the relative humidity was greater than 9 9%.

Unconfined swelling tests continue until the specimen equilibrates with the moist environment. Progressive swelling of compacted specimen 189_AR=0.15 at elapsed times of 1 day, 1.8 days, and 9.7 days is shown in Figure 2.3. The dashed box in the figure indicates the original size of the soil specimen prior to wetting. Significant swelling deformations can be observed in this series of images. At the end of the test, the final dimensions, mass, and moisture contents of swelled specimens are measured. The spatial distribution of the moisture content is measured by dividing specimens vertically using a knife and then radially using two circular cutting rings with diameters of 36.4 mm and 13.6 mm. The soil specimen is divided to the outermost diameter, middle diameter, and core section. This division allows for the moisture content distribution to be measured radially across the specimen.

2.3.1 Deformation analysis

Soil deformation is measured using a non-contact method employing the image-based software GeoPIV (White et al. 2003), which allows for realtime measurements. The software calculates soil deformation over a series of digital images by searching for characteristic patches of pixels in consecutive digital images and calculating the displacement. Vertical and horizontal displacements are inferred from the measured movement of GeoPIV targets installed on diametrically opposite sides of the top of specimens (Figure 2.3). A secondary option is to select a patch of pixels at the intersection between the bottom of the target holder and the edge of the specimen, as illustrated in Figure 2.3a. From the vertical and horizontal displacement measurements at the top edges of the specimen, axial strain and radial strain are calculated to determine the volume strain of the specimen during the test. The results obtained from the GeoPIV analysis are then compared with the caliper measurements taken at the end of the test. Strain analysis of soil deformation in the test uses the following equations:

$$[2.1] \qquad \varepsilon_a = \frac{\Delta H}{H_a}$$

$$[2.2] \qquad \mathcal{E}_r = \frac{\Delta r}{r_o} = \frac{\Delta d}{d_o}$$

$$[2.3] \qquad \varepsilon_{v} = \frac{\Delta Vol}{Vol_{o}}$$

where ε_a = axial strain, ΔH = change in height, H_o = initial height, ε_r = radial strain, Δr = change in radius, r_o = initial radius, Δd = change in diameter, d_o = initial diameter, ε_v = volumetric strain, ΔVol = change in volume, and Vol_o = initial volume.

In geotechnical analysis, small strains are normally assumed; however, this assumption is invalid in the analysis of unconfined swelling tests because of the large deformations. Therefore, the volume strain is calculated from axial and radial strains as (Ehrgott 1971)

$$[2.4] \quad \frac{\Delta Vol}{Vol_o} = \varepsilon_a + 2\varepsilon_r - 2\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_a + \varepsilon_r^2 (\varepsilon_a - 1)$$

2.4 Results and Interpretation

The material used to verify the capabilities of the unconfined swelling test was Bearpaw clay-shale, which was obtained from Southern Saskatchewan (Powell et al. 2012a, 2012b, 2013). Bearpaw is classified as high-plasticity clay with liquid and plastic limits ranging from 99% to 145% and 22% to 29%, respectively, and is composed of 39% clay. The profile consists of high plasticity soil from depths of 30 to 90 m, and remolded specimens from sample with ID189 were used for the testing program. Remolded specimens were prepared from dried and pulverized soil that was mixed to a target water content using the method described by Siemens (2006). The moistened soil was double-bagged and stored in a refrigerator for 48 h to allow for moisture equilibrium and a confirmatory measurement of the moisture content. The soil was removed and compacted into 50-mm-diameter specimens in lifts. Initial testing focused on optimizing the aspect ratio while holding the diameter constant. The aspect ratio (AR) is defined as

 $[2.5] \qquad AR = \frac{Height}{Diameter}$

2.4.1 Unconfined swelling test results

An unconfined swelling test on specimen ID189 with AR=0.15 is presented as a typical test to display the capabilities of the unconfined swelling test apparatus and methodology. The specimen was compacted to a target initial state of modified Proctor optimum, which was determined to have a gravimetric water content of 15% and a dry density of 1.74 Mg/m³. Table 2.1 highlights the initial conditions of the test specimens. Following preparation, the specimen was installed and given access to water. The swell results in terms of axial, radial, and volumetric strain versus time, plotted on both linear and logarithmic axes, are shown in Figure 2.4a and 2.4b, respectively. The specimen swelled at a high initial rate, and then the swell rate decreased after a few days. The volumetric strains of the soil specimen were 60% and 61% after 14 and 21 days, respectively (Figure 2.4). The specimen expanded radially more than axially, and both expansions equilibrated with the moisture conditions at similar times. When the same data are re-plotted on a semi-log scale [Figure 2.4b], the result resembles an unloading curve on a consolidation plot. Peng and Horn (2007) investigated the anisotropic behavior of some organic and inorganic soils that underwent shrinkage and swelling processes. They found that a typical swelling curve consists of two distinctive parts, the virgin swelling and the residual swelling curves. The virgin swelling curve contributes more
than 80% of the total soil volume expansion. The semi-log plot [Figure 2.4b] also shows two distinctive swelling slopes, a primary swelling slope and a secondary swelling slope. The secondary swelling slope represents a decreasing rate of volume change over time. The primary swells at a gradient of 80%/cycle and decreases to 9%/cycle along the secondary swelling curve [Figure 2.4]. The intersection of the two curves indicates the end of primary swelling. For specimen 189_AR=0.15, the end of primary swelling occurred at t=2.5 d, which is very efficient for this type of test. Overall, primary swelling contributes more than 80% of the total swelling strains (volumetric strain at t=2.5 is 54%, and final total swell is 63%), which is consistent with results from Peng and Horn (2007). After four days, the specimen swelled at a log-linear rate for the remainder of the test. The test was completed after 27 days.

Test results for four specimens, which varied in their target ARs (AR=0.15, 0.25, 0.75, and 2.0), are presented in Figure 2.5 on linear and logarithmic time scales. The four specimens had identical initial dry densities of 1.7 Mg/m³, except for the specimen with AR=0.25, which had a density of 1.6 Mg/m³. The varying ARs enabled an interpretation of the dimensional effect on swelling behavior. The test results show similar trends with high initial swelling rates that decreased over time. The specimens with smaller ARs (0.15, 0.25, and 0.75) reached equilibrium in less than 20 days and achieved similar overall swelling magnitudes. The initial rate of swelling is related to the AR of a specimen; the smaller the AR, the higher the rate of swelling. The specimen with AR=2.0 had a significantly lower initial swelling rate and, based on Figure 2.5a, achieved a significantly lower swelling magnitude at the end of the test.

Re-plotting the time-dependent swell data on a semi-log plot [Figure 2.5b] shows similar results for the specimens with lower ARs and different behavior for the larger AR (AR=2.0). The three lower AR specimens showed distinctive primary and secondary swelling curves with progressively increasing equilibration times ranging from 2.5 days for AR=0.15 to 19 days for AR=0.75. Even after almost 70 days of testing, a secondary swelling curve was not evident in the AR=2.0 specimen. If the primary swelling curve is projected to the equilibrium strains for the smaller specimens, the end of primary swelling may arrive at between 120 and 250 days. A swelling test of this length is not feasible for normal site characterizations.

The time required in order to achieve the end of primary swelling is directly related to the AR and the associated drainage length of the specimen.

Unconfined swelling test results are summarized in Table 2.2 in terms of the duration needed to reach the end of primary swelling, primary swelling slope, secondary swelling slope, and initial swelling rate. Smaller ARs are associated with higher surface-area-to-volume ratios. Holding the initial diameter constant and increasing the height from 7.6mm (AR=0.15) to 101.9mm (AR=2.0) resulted in a 100-fold increase in the time to the end of primary swelling. The specimens that arrived at the end of primary swelling showed consistent swell magnitudes relative to their initial conditions. Thus, reducing the size decreases the overall testing time without having a significant effect on the final results.

The use of image analysis allows the measurement of axial and radial deformations that can be used to study potential anisotropic swelling behavior. Axial and radial strains are plotted against time in Figure 2.4a, and further data are presented in Figure 2.6, which shows radial strain versus axial strain. Also plotted in Figure 2.6 are triaxial swelling results from constant mean stress swelling tests, performed at 200 kPa and 400 kPa mean stress, on Bearpaw clay (Powell et al. 2013). The unconfined swelling test results initiate at the origin and plot into the lower left quadrant. The four swelling tests show internal variability in terms of the relative anisotropy; however, broadly speaking, swelling occurs along the 1:1 line. Figure 2.6b shows a close-up view of the higher stress swelling data. During swelling, the deformations occur along similar slopes in the higher stress tests, indicating that the swell properties are consistent with what is observed in the unconfined swelling tests.

2.4.2 End-of-test measurements

The end-of-test measurements display the consistency of the results, as well as the benefits of using smaller test specimens. The end-of-test volume strain is plotted in Figure 2.7 and summarized in Table 2.3 versus the AR. The GeoPIV and caliper end-of-test measurements are in good agreement, as plotted in Figure 2.7. The difference between the caliper measurement and GeoPIV analysis is within 2 mm, as presented in Table 2.3. The effect of the discrepancy was analyzed, and it contributes to a difference in volumetric strain of +4% to -19% depending on the original size of the specimens. Caliper measurements are generally different, as the soil specimen will have become very soft by the end of the test. Extreme care is needed when taking caliper measurements on the softened soil. The average swelling deformation from the caliper measurement and GeoPIV analysis is around 70%. This deformation is considered as the maximum volumetric strain upon wetting. The two types of volume

measurements show general agreement with similar end-of-test volume strains and changes in height and diameter.

After the unconfined swelling tests are complete, the spatial distribution of the moisture content is measured radially. The gravimetric water content is measured at three different radial locations (R1, R2, and R3, moving from the center to the perimeter of the specimen) using cutters with diameters of 36.4 mm and 13.6 mm. The results in Figure 2.8 show that the water content decreased toward the inner core of the specimen. The water content at the outer area of the specimen was the highest relative to the other two locations. The outer area of the soil specimen has the most direct access to water; water needs to permeate a longer path through the soil particles toward the core of the specimen.

Summaries of the end-of-test measurements are plotted in Figure 2.9 and listed in Table 2.4. Figure 2.9a demonstrates the results for the gravimetric water content of the specimens at the beginning and the end of swelling tests. The target initial compacted state was optimum water content and dry density. By the end of the test, the water content had increased to a range of 46% to 67%. The final degree of saturation reached more than 90% [refer to Figure 2.9b], which indicates high saturation, especially considering that there was no external confining stress or back pressure applied to the specimens. The initial and the end-of-test specific volumes are plotted in Figure 2.9c. The soil specimens had relatively homogeneous compaction because the initial specific volume was in the range of 1.57 to 1.61, except in the specimen with AR=0.25, which had a slightly larger void (V=1.72) and a slightly lower initial dry density (ρ_d =1.60 Mg/m³).

In order to demonstrate that the specimens had achieved a satisfactory degree of saturation by the end of the test, data are presented in a plot of dry density versus gravimetric water content. In Figure 2.10, the initial compacted soil specimens are close to the optimum point. By the end of the test, the soil specimens had reached the line above S_r =90%, which indicates a high degree of saturation. The extent to which the soil swelled from its compacted state demonstrates the high swelling potential of the Bearpaw clay-shale.

2.5 The Swell Equilibrium Limit of Compacted Bearpaw Soil

The Swell Equilibrium Limit is a unifying concept used to analyze the maximum swelling potential which may be realized as expansion or

swelling induced pressure. Powell et al. (2013) reported a Swell Equilibrium Limit for natural Bearpaw, which is presented in Figure 2.11 along with the unconfined swell data from the current study. Powell et al. (2013) reported triaxial swelling and oedometer swelling pressure test results and showed the influence of sample depth on the Swell Equilibrium Limit. The data from the unconfined swelling tests are plotted along the y-axis in the linear scale and at 0.1 kPa (arbitrary value) in the semi-log plot [Figure 2.11b]. There is noted variation in the final specific volume values for the unconfined swelling tests; however, this is in line with the variation noted by Beddoe et al. (2011) in swelling tests on geosynthetic clay liners performed at 2 kPa vertical stress. A Swell Equilibrium Limit for sample 189 is interpreted from the oedometer tests and unconfined swelling tests. With the low-stress data points, the upper-bound limit of swelling potential in this framework is measured experimentally. The data points at very low stress represent the worst-case scenario in which a soil would expand to its full potential at low confining stress.

2.6 Conclusions

An unconfined swelling test apparatus and methodology are presented for measuring the maximum swelling deformation of a soil under true free stress conditions. The methodology includes a non-contact method using digital image analysis to measure deformations. The in-test results indicate that primary and secondary swelling behavior and anisotropic swelling can be measured using the employed non-contact deformation method. The soil swelling deformation calculated with GeoPIV analysis is also in general agreement with end-of-test measurements. The effect of the AR on the swelling behavior is noted regarding the initial swelling rate and the time needed to reach equilibrium with the applied wetting conditions. The endof-test measurements indicate consistent behavior for the specimens tested and that a high degree of saturation was achieved during the test. The maximum swelling deformation for Bearpaw soil is in the range of 60% to 70% volumetric strain under unconfined swelling conditions. The results are interpreted in the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework to allow of swelling soil deformations. This extends the use of the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework down to low stress levels.

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Test ID	Target aspect ratio,	Height, H	Diameter, d	Bulk density, ρ _b	Dry density, ρd	Water content, w	Void ratio, e	Specific volume, V	Degree of saturation, S _r
	H/d	(mm)	(mm)	(Mg/m^3)	(Mg/m^3)	(%)	(-)	(-)	(%)
189_AR=0.15	0.15	7.6	51.2	2.02	1.71	17.8	0.61	1.61	81.0
189_AR=0.25	0.25	13.7	51.4	1.85	1.60	15.6	0.72	1.72	59.5
189_AR=0.75	0.75	38.9	51.5	2.02	1.75	15.2	0.57	1.57	73.8
189_AR=2.0	2.0	101.9	51.6	2.00	1.74	15.3	0.58	1.58	72.4

Table 2.1. Initial conditions for unconfined swelling tests.

Table 2.2. Swelling rate for unconfined swelling.

Test ID	Target aspect ratio,	Surface-area / volume	Time to end of primary swelling	Primary swelling slope	Secondary swelling slope	Initial swelling rate
	H/d	(m^2/m^3)	(d)	(%/cycle)	(%/cycle)	(%/d)
189_AR=0.15	0.15	0.34	2.5	-80	-9	0.227
189_AR=0.25	0.25	0.22	4	-35	-7	0.147
189_AR=0.75	0.75	0.13	19	-39	-20	0.081
	2.0	0.10	$120-250^{1}$	-37	-	0.045

¹Projected

Test ID	Target aspect ratio	Caliper		Geo	PIV	Difference between caliper and GeoPIV			
	Height, Diameter, H		Height,	Diameter,	Height,	Diameter,	ΔΕΟΤ		
	Ц/d	Н	d		Н	d	Н	d	Volumetric
	n/u	(mm)	(mm)		(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	strain (%)
189_AR=0.15	0.15	9.7	61.3		8.7	61.3	-1.0	0.0	-19
189_AR=0.25	0.25	15.7	60.9		15.8	59.4	0.1	-1.5	-7
189_AR=0.75	0.75	45.7	61.3		46.4	61.3	0.7	0.0	4
189_AR=2.0	2.0	117.5	59.3		117.4	57.3	-0.1	-2.0	-10

Table 2.3. Comparison of caliper and GeoPIV of end-of-test measurements for unconfined swelling tests.

 $\Delta EOT = \epsilon_{V(GeoPIV)} - \epsilon_{V(Caliper)}$

Test ID	Height, H	Diameter, d	Bulk density,	Dry density,	Water content,	Void ratio,	Specific volume, V	Degree of saturation,	Volumetric strain,
	(mm)	(mm)	(Mg/m^3)	(Mg/m^3)	(%)	(-)	(-)	(%)	(%)
189_AR=0.15	9.7	61.3	1.56	0.97	61.4	1.84	2.84	91.8	-62.5
189_AR=0.25	15.7	60.9	1.68	1.01	66.5	1.72	2.72	106.4	-54.4
189_AR=0.75	45.7	61.3	1.66	1.08	53.8	1.54	2.54	96.0	-71.4
189_AR=2.0	117.5	59.3	1.70	1.16	46.7	1.38	2.38	93.4	-45.1

Table 2.4. End-of-test results for unconfined swelling.



Figure 2.1. (a) Traditional swelling tests: free swell and swelling pressure tests. (b) Triaxial swelling tests: boundary conditions during swell tests and Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) schematic. (c) Practical application of SEL: unconfined swelling under a roadway, swelling under foundation (constant mean stress), and swelling against a retaining wall (idealized as constant stiffness).





Figure 2.2. Unconfined swelling test apparatus: (a) photograph; (b) plan view drawing; and (c) side view.



Figure 2.3. Progressive swelling of specimen 189_AR=0.15.



Figure 2.4. Volumetric, axial, and radial strain versus time for 189_AR=0.15 upon wetting plotted versus time on (a) a linear scale and (b) a logarithmic scale.



Figure 2.5. Volumetric strain versus time for varied aspect ratios plotted on (a) a linear scale and (b) a logarithmic scale.



Figure 2.6. Radial strain versus axial strain upon swelling highlighting the similarity to triaxial swelling tests in part (b).



Figure 2.7. End-of-test volumetric strain versus aspect ratio (H/d) for caliper and GeoPIV methods.



Figure 2.8. Spatial distribution of end-of-test moisture content.



Figure 2.9. Initial and end-of-test (EOT) of (a) gravimetric water content, (b) degree of saturation, and (c) specific volume versus aspect ratio (H/d).



Figure 2.10. Initial and end-of-test (EOT) dry density versus water content and modified Proctor results for sample 189.



Figure 2.11. Swell equilibrium limit from unconfined swelling, triaxial swelling, and oedometer swelling pressure tests.

CHAPTER 3: A UNIFYING FRAMEWORK TO CHARACTERIZE AND MODEL SWELLING BEHAVIOUR USING ADVANCED TESTING

3.1 Introduction

Swelling-induced damage on public and private infrastructure has cost billions of dollars in repair and remediation. In some cases damage is accepted, as remediation is too expensive. On the positive side, in environmental applications, such as a landfill, swelling ability gives the containment barrier self-healing abilities. Significant research has focused on dealing with challenges in understanding and design using swelling soils. Therefore, the swelling potential of expansive clay is of interest of many researchers and practitioners (Komine and Ogata 1994, 2004; Yilmaz 2006; Nagaraj et al. 2009; Siemens and Blatz 2009; Kayabali and Demir 2011; Rao et al. 2011; Powell et al. 2013). As challenges associated with swelling soils are still being encountered, a unifying framework for swelling behavior would be a valuable tool for practitioners.

In order to model swelling behavior in design, the field boundary conditions should first be examined. A retaining wall constructed in swelling soil is illustrated in Figure 3.1. Three conditions are highlighted on the retaining wall cross-section and their stress-volume paths are plotted schematically on the graph in specific volume-mean stress (V-p) space. A worse-case condition of extended duration rain event or snow melt causing ponding at the surface is used to illustrate the three swelling conditions. Near the surface at soil element 1, unconfined swelling conditions prevail as the soil is at a low stress and there are no constraints on swelling. On the plot the stress-volume path is vertical starting at zero stress and the initial specific volume. The second condition is swelling at depth under constant mean stress (CMS). The soil element has an initial V-p state and again swells along a vertical stress-volume path. Under CMS conditions no additional confinement is provided during swelling. Finally the third condition is behind

the retaining wall. As the soil element swells confinement is provided by the retaining wall. Thus, as the soil swells it expands and encounters swellinginduced stresses, which is termed constant stiffness (CS). The stiffer the wall material and construction, the flatter the stress-volume path. For perfect confinement a horizontal stress-volume path is followed, termed constant volume (CV).

Much effort has been invested in advanced laboratory testing on swelling soils in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the behavior of swelling soils (ASTM D4546; Wiebe et al. 1998; Yong 1999; Aversa and Nicotera 2002; Al-Shamrani et al. 2000; Sanchez et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2012; Cui et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2014). Laboratory test methods aim to represent field conditions as closely as possible. Siemens and Blatz (2007) proposed a new swelling test which allows for general boundary conditions to be applied including CMS, CS and CV. Chapter 2 also presented a new unconfined swelling test that incorporates non-contact method to measure soil deformations. Thus, the range of field boundary conditions presented in Figure 3.1 can be applied with varying stress-volume paths in a laboratory setting.

Additionally, swelling potential has been related successfully to the soil's index properties (Shi et al. 2002; Komine and Ogata 2003; Prakash and Sridharan 2004; Rao et al. 2004; Ito and Azam, 2010; Cui et al. 2012; Ito and Azam, 2013). Siemens and Blatz (2009) proposed a unifying framework to describe swelling behavior as illustrated on the graph in Figure 3.1. In V-p space, the three swelled states are connected with a line termed the Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL). The SEL is an upper bound limit to swelling under general boundary conditions varying from constant mean stress to constant volume. During wetting, regardless of the boundary conditions, the soil element will swell until it lies on the SEL. Currently the SEL for a compacted 50:50 bentonite-sand mixture (named Bentonite-Sand-Buffer or BSB) and natural Bearpaw shale have been characterized by Siemens and Blatz (2009) and Powell et al. (2013), respectively. Conceptually, the swelled state for the entire retaining wall, illustrated in Figure 3.1, can be captured using the SEL. Following construction, the initial state for all elements would be below the SEL. During a long-term infiltration event, all elements would swell towards the SEL. Thus the swelling-induced pressures on the retaining wall and the swelling deformations can be analyzed using the SEL.

The SEL provides a unifying framework to understand swelling soil behavior based on advanced laboratory testing results. Additionally,

relating swelling behavior to index properties gives practitioners an additional method to model swelling-induced stresses and deformations. In this Chapter, the swelling results for two additional swelling soils, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and Bearpaw shale, are presented and the SELs are interpreted. This is the first step towards creating a database of SELs for modelling of swelling behavior. The SEL equation parameters for the characterized soils are successfully related to the index properties of the soils. Finally the SEL for Regina clay is calculated from the database which agrees with the published data.

3.2 Materials

Four different types of expansive soils are studied in this research. The grain-size distributions are plotted in Figure 3.2 and the plasticity chart is given in Figure 3.3. A series of laboratory work have been carried out on two natural recompacted soils, one on cored natural soil and one on compacted bentonite. The two recompacted soils are recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and recompacted Bearpaw clay, which are specimens recompacted from dried pulverized grains. The Bearpaw shale (Powell 2012 and Powell et. al. 2013) represents the cored natural soil. Bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB, Siemens and Blatz 2009) is categorized as compacted bentonite that is proposed to be used as a sealing material in a deep geological repository. The index properties of each soil are listed in Table 3.1.

Lake Agassiz clay used in this study is from southern Manitoba, Canada where its origin formation is of glaciation sedimentation. Lake Agassiz clay is classified as a plastic freshwater clay (Graham et al. 1983). Soil specimens are recompacted to a target of modified optimum dry density and water content, which was measured to be 1.62 Mg/m³ initial dry density and 20% moisture content. The liquid limit (LL), plastic limit (PL) and plasticity index (PI) of the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay are, 85%, 34% and 51%, respectively. The grain size distribution can be referred to Figure 3.2 where the soil consists of 74% clay and 20% silt.

Bearpaw shale is originated from Bearpaw formation found near Sasktatoon, Canada. Bearpaw shale formation is predominately marine silty clays and sands (Powell 2012). The particular core sample was taken from a depth of 43 m below ground level. The Bearpaw shale in its natural state has been tested for its SEL (Powell et. al. 2013). The same soil is reused in this research. The pulverized dried Bearpaw clay is compacted to a

target dry density and moisture content that is nominally similar to its insitu state. The targeted initial condition is 1.50 Mg/m³ dry density and 30% moisture content. The Atterberg limits of the recompacted Bearpaw clay used in this research consists of 67% LL, 26% PL and 41% PI. The LL 145% and PI 122% of Bearpaw shale are higher than the recompacted one. The clay fraction and montmorillonite content for Bearpaw shale is 39% and 72%, respectively (Peterson and Peters 1963).

The compacted bentonite, BSB studied by Siemens and Blatz (2009) consists of 50% of sand and 50% of Wyoming bentonite by mass. The LL and PL of Na-bentonite are 555% and 43%, respectively. The sand content of BSB is an angular material mixed to a standard grain-size (Dixon et al 1994). The well-graded sand mixed in BSB has the properties of $C_u = 4$, $C_c = 0.84$, $d_{10} = 0.12$ mm and $d_{50} = 0.38$ mm (Siemens and Blatz 2009). The LL and PL for BSB is 265% and 21%, respectively. Sridharan and Rao (2004) identified that the ratio of plastic limit to liquid limit remains constant as long as the clay mineral type in the mixture of clay minerals is the same and the measurements support this finding. Both silt and sand fraction act as a dilution factor in the sand-bentonite mixture.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Triaxial swelling test method

The results from the triaxial swelling tests allow for interpretation of a SEL for the tested soil. In order to interpret a SEL curve, a number of triaxial swelling tests (Siemens and Blatz 2007) and unconfined swelling tests (Lim and Siemens 2013) is performed. A triaxial swelling test is performed on a triaxial specimen under pre-determined boundary conditions using a modified triaxial apparatus. The pre-determined boundary condition is defined in mean stress - volumetric strain space and simulates field conditions (Figure 3.1). The boundary conditions are imposed with an automated algorithm in the data acquisition system. A constant mean stress (CMS) stress-volume path can be specified where the specimen is given access to water and swells under a constant stress. The stress path is set to move vertically along y-axis in a V-p plot (Figure 3.1b). A CMS test measures the maximum swelling deformation at that stress level. In the second scenario, a constant volume (CV) test, the total volumetric change of the specimen is kept constant by increasing the applied confining pressure. The confining pressure is increased to counteract the swelling deformation upon infiltration. The stress path followed by a CV test moves horizontally parallel with the x-axis in a V-p plot.

Test specimens are prepared to a target dry density and water content condition following with the procedure detailed in Siemens 2006. A required amount of dry mass of pulverized soil is weighted. The dry pulverized soil is moistened thoroughly with a targeted amount of de-ionized water using a mixing bowl. The moist soil is kept in a double-layered sealed plastic bag and left in the refrigerator for 24 hours for moisture equilibrium. After 24 hours, the moist soil in the plastic bag is used for specimen compaction in a 50.8mm diameter compaction mold. The compacted triaxial specimen is installed in the modified triaxial infiltration apparatus (see Figure 3.4 for a schematic). A typical triaxial infiltration test consists of three phases, namely isotropic compression, equilibration, and water infiltration. Isotropic compression and equilibration occurs as the cell pressure is raised up to a target stress level and remains constant for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the equilibration of suction (measured with a relative humidity sensor) at the specimen is achieved. To initiate the water infiltration phase, the back pressure is raised and the plumbing and geotextile are flooded (Figure 3.4). As soon as small deformations are detected by the data acquisition system, the algorithm engaged to apply the specified stress-volume path. During the water infiltration phase, the partially saturated specimen continually takes up water until the soil achieves its swelling equilibrium. The completion of a swelling test is indicated by $\pm 2\%$ changes of water added to the specimen, pressure or volumetric strain over a one-day period.

The triaxial swelling apparatus previously used by Siemens and Blatz (2007, 2009) and Powell et al. (2013) is modified for suction measurement device installation within the triaxial pedestal. Previously a suction measurement probe was installed at the center of the compacted specimen. However, the Xeritron probe is out of production and an extensive search did not turn up sensors that met small size and high accuracy requirements. Blatz (2000) noted that total suction measurements taken near the top cap gave similar readings as those taken at the center of the specimen. Locating the sensor within the pedestal allows for probe installation prior to the test, which is, operationally, a simpler method compared with compaction at the center of test specimens. In conjunction with this, a grooved pedestal cap replaces a porous stone installation at the pedestal. The water flows through the fanning groove at the pedestal cap, through the geotextile and infiltrates the specimen. The chamber beneath the cap contains a RH sensor tip. On the top of the infiltration cap, a tiny perforated cylindrical tip protrudes from the cap. The triaxial specimen is installed on the pedestal with the tiny tip inserts to a pre-bored hole at the bottom of the specimen. The specimen equilibrates with the vapor inside the confined chamber where the RH tip is housed.

The measured relative humidity is interpreted as total suction with the following equation (Lu and Likos 2004):

$$[3.1] \qquad \Psi_t = -\frac{RT}{\nu_{w0}\omega_v} \ln(RH)$$

where Ψ_t = total soil suction, R = universal gas constant (8.314 J/mol K), T = absolute temperature (K), υ_{w0} = specific volume of water (m³ /kg), ω_{υ} is the molecular mass of water vapor (18.016 kg/kmol) and RH= relative humidity.

3.3.2 Unconfined Swelling Test

An unconfined swelling test (Lim and Siemens 2013) represents the scenario where the swelling soil is free to expand at essentially zero confinement (notwithstanding the self-weight of the specimen). The measured swelling deformation from unconfined swelling test defines the maximum volumetric deformation on the y-axis of a V-p plot at zero stress. Details regarding the test set-up and procedure have been described in Lim and Siemens 2013 (Chapter 2) and a brief summary is given here. The unconfined swelling test is carried out in a humidity-controlled chamber. The moisture content of the specimen is increased through spraying of water on the specimen periodically and wicking action from a reservoir. The wetted specimen swells under its own self-weight in the absence of external applied pressure. The swelling deformation is measured with non-contact method by using digital image analysis. The digital photographs are analyzed with GeoPIV (White et al. 2003) software that is capable of tracing deformation using image analysis.

3.4 Swelling Test Results and SEL Interpretation

3.4.1 Typical CV test

A typical CV 150 kPa test for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is presented in Figure 3.5 in terms of mean stress and volumetric strain versus time (Figure 3.5a) as well as water added to specimen and total suction versus time (Figure 3.5b). Following preparation and installation, the specimen was subjected to 150 kPa of isotropic compression. After 24 hours, the RH at the specimen was measured at 93.3% which represents a total suction of 9.6 MPa. A total volumetric strain of 0.74% was measured from the isotropic compression. The test was continued with the infiltration stage. The back pressure was raised up to 100 kPa to infiltrate the specimen. When the specimen was infiltrated, it started to expand a small, but detectable, amount. The stress-volume path control was activated and automatically increased cell pressure to suppress expansion. The cell pressure was increased from 150 kPa during the infiltration stage. On Day 5, the mean stress gradually levelled off at 750 kPa. At the same time, the total volumetric strain was kept constant within ±0.05%. The curve of water added to specimen (Figure 3.5b) qualitatively resembles the mean stress plot. The rate of change for both curves are relatively high at the beginning and then slower down gradually. The total suction curve reacted at slower rate compared to the mean stress or water added to specimen plot. The total suction reduced to 0.8 MPa after 5 days of infiltration. The total amount of water added to specimen was measured at 24.5 mL. The CV 150 kPa test reached its swelling equilibrium in 25 days.

3.4.2 Typical CMS test

Figure 3.6 shows a typical CMS 150 kPa test result for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay in terms of mean stress and volumetric strain versus time (Figure 3.6a) as well as water added to specimen and total suction versus time (Figure 3.6b). The mean stress was raised up to 150 kPa in isotropic compression stage. After 24 hours, the equilibrium of moisture content at the specimen was achieved. The equilibrated relative humidity was measured at 96.0% RH which represents 6 MPa of total suction. The total volumetric strain from isotropic compression was 0.6%. At the infiltration stage, the back water pressure was increased at 100 kPa. This stress level was maintained constant throughout the whole test duration. The volumetric strain versus time (Figure 3.6a) closely resembles the water added to specimen plot (Figure 3.6b). The rate of change for both curves was relatively high at the beginning and then tapered off. On Day 6, total volumetric strain swelled up to 13%, water added to specimen reached 52.0 mL and total suction was reduced to 1.7 MPa. Later on, the rate of change in these measurements levelled off gradually until the end-of-test criteria were satisfied. At the end of test, the total volumetric strain was measured at 14.5%. A total of 62.0 mL of de-ionized water was added to the specimen and the total suction approached zero. The test duration for CMS 150 kPa was approximately 35 days.

3.4.3 Typical unconfined swelling test

Figure 3.7a presents the unconfined swelling test results for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and recompacted Bearpaw clay, respectively. As shown in Figure 3.7a, the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay swelled at a high rate

within the first two days after water application. On Day 2, the volumetric strain obtained 80% of the total change over the test. Subsequently, the rate of change in swelling levelled off gradually over time. For recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, the final total volumetric strain was -70% (in swelling).

The recompacted Bearpaw clay specimen behavior similarly to the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay but at lower magnitudes for both total swelling and initial swelling rate. Figure 3.7a shows that the recompacted Bearpaw clay has a gentler slope in strain versus time. The rate of change was slower within the first 6 days. On Day 6, the volumetric strain was measured at -42% while at the end of test, the volumetric strain was -46%.

The volumetric strain versus log time is plotted in Figure 3.7b, which shows that a swelling curve consisting of both primary and secondary slopes. The recompacted Lake Agassiz clay measured a higher final volumetric strain at -70% and reached the end of primary swelling at t=0.95 day. In the same plot, the recompacted Bearpaw clay had the final volumetric strain at -46% and achieved the end of primary swelling at t= 6.9 day.

3.4.4 Summary result of triaxial infiltration tests on recompacted Lake Agassiz clay

A series of five triaxial infiltration tests have been performed on the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. The test series consist of CMS 150, CMS 300, CMS 600, CV 150 and CV 300 tests. Figure 3.8a shows a summary test result of mean stress versus time for the five tests. Means stress in CMS 600, CMS 300 and CMS 150 is kept at a constant level, eg, at 600 kPa, 300 kPa and 150 kPa, respectively throughout the infiltration test. Specimen CV 300 requires the highest mean stress of 1200 kPa to counteract against the swelling deformation in the constant volume test. The second highest mean stress is measured in CV 150 which requires p =753 kPa to keep the specimen volume constant.

The summary of total volumetric strain versus time is plotted in Figure 3.8b. The highest swelling strain of 14.5% was measured in CMS 150 as it has the lowest mean stress. The volumetric strain of CMS 300 was measured at 7.3 %. CMS 600 had a final total volumetric deformation of 3.8%. The volumetric strain is kept constant at ε_v = -0.06% for CV 150 and ε_v = 1.2% in CV 300.

In general, a constant mean stress (CMS) test requires longer duration for its swelling equilibrium compared to a constant volume (CV) test. For example, CMS 150 lasted the longest duration of 35 days (5 weeks) for

completion. Both CV 150 and CV 300 reached the swelling equilibrium in a little over 3 weeks.

3.5 Interpreting SEL Curve for recompacted Lake Agassiz Clay

The triaxial swelling and unconfined swelling test results are plotted in Figure 3.9 in specific volume versus mean stress (V-p) space for interpretation of the SEL for Lake Agassiz clay. A SEL curve is formed by connecting the end-of-test points from triaxial infiltration and unconfined swelling test. The test paths start at a target specific volume of recompacted specimen of 1.73 and zero mean stress. The unconfined swelling test swelled along a vertical stress-volume path to the equilibrium value of V=3.0. The triaxial swelling tests initiate with an isotropic compression stage during which the specimen compresses (decrease in specific volume) along with increasing mean stress. During infiltration, the stress-volume path follows the specified boundary condition resulting in a vertical path for CMS and a horizontal path for CV tests. Tests continued until the swelling potential of the soil was satisfied by either expansion (CMS) or swelling-induced stresses (CV). CMS 150, CMS 300 and CMS 600 terminate at specific volumes of 1.99, 1.88 and 1.80, respectively. The CV 150 and CV 300 swelling tests follow horizontal stress-volume paths during infiltration. The test result shows that a higher mean stress is required in CV 300 (p= 1200 kPa) than CV 150 (p= 753 kPa) to keep the volume constant.

3.6 Swelling Test Results and SEL Interpretation

3.6.1 SEL curves for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and Bearpaw shale/clay

A series of triaxial infiltration test result on recompacted Bearpaw clay (5 tests) and Lake Agassiz clay (5 tests) are summarized in Table 3.2 which consists of initial and post-infiltration measurement on triaxial specimen. The unconfined swelling test data on both soils is presented in Table 3.3. The data from these two tables are used to plot the SEL curves for the soils. Details of the individual test results and overall summary for the recompacted Bearpaw clay tests are provided in Appendix C.

The swelling test results for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay are re-plotted in Figure 3.10a along with the isotropic compression curve and the SEL. The compression line represents the condition after the specimen is subjected to isotropic compression and prior to wetting. The area between the isotropic compression curve and the SEL is highlighted as the swelling potential for each soil. The swelling potential can be realized as either expansion, swelling-induced stresses or both depending on the boundary conditions. Regardless, the soil will swell towards the SEL from the isotropic compression line during swelling. The final state (or upper bound limit) of swelling deformation and induced-pressure is represented with the SEL curve.

The SEL curve of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is fitted with a natural logarithm equation:

 $[3.2] \quad V_{SEL} = A + B \ln p$

with A=2.691 and B=-0.141 being the fitted values as listed in Table 3.4a. Parameter 'A' represents the y-intercept at p=1 and parameter 'B' reflects the curvature of the SEL. Higher values of 'A' and 'B' are associated with greater swelling potential over a wider range of stresses.

Figure 3.10b plots a summary of the triaxial swelling and unconfined swelling tests for recompacted Bearpaw clay (individual test results and data breakdown provided in Appendix C) along with the isotropic compression curve and highlighted swelling potential. The maximum swelling potential under unconfined conditions is measured at V=2.89. Figure 3.10b shows that the SEL and isotropic compression line of recompacted Bearpaw clay intersect at approximately p= 300 kPa. This indicates recompacted Bearpaw clay swells at mean stress 300 kPa and less under CMS boundary conditions.

Compared with Lake Agassiz clay, the swelling potential of recompacted Bearpaw clay (Figure 3.10b) is relatively lower as the shaded area is smaller than the one in Figure 3.10a. The SEL curve of recompacted Bearpaw clay is fitted with a logarithm equation with fitting parameters A=2.596 and B=-0.127. Both the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and Bearpaw clay have similar value of $f_c.f_m$ (refer Table 3.1) but the initial dry density of the recompacted Bearpaw clay is relatively lower than the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect a smaller swelling potential in Bearpaw clay.

3.6.2 SEL catalogue

In addition to the SELs reported in this chapter, Figure 3.10 plots summaries of an additional two materials previously reported including

bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB in Siemens and Blatz (2009), Figure 3.10c) and natural Bearpaw shale (Powell et al. 2013, Figure 3.10d). The plots include SELs, isotropic compression curves and the swelling potential of each soil is highlighted (area between the isotropic compression curve and the SEL). The parameters for the fitted SEL curves in the format of equation [3.2] are listed on the figure as well as in Table 3.4. The coefficient of determination, R^2 falls in the range of 0.92 to 0.97.

The summary results for BSB (plotted in Figure 3.10c and taken from Siemens and Blatz 2009) indicate the soil is expansive over a wider range of stresses than those examined. Even at 1500 kPa mean stress, expansion was measured under CMS boundary conditions and an additional 400 kPa of swelling-induced stress was required to maintain the initial volume for the CV 1500 test. The shaded area between the isotropic compression curve and the SEL for BSB covers the largest area in Figure 3.10, which indicates the greatest swelling potential of the four soils. As a compacted bentonitic material, the swelling potential of BSB correlates to the index properties such as liquid limit, plastic limit, plasticity index and activity. Associated with the high swelling potential the fitting parameter 'B' of in BSB is also the greatest absolute value (B=-0.214).

The swelling results for natural Bearpaw shale (Figure 3.10d) indicate the material is very stiff during isotropic compression and has limited swelling potential over the range tested. The isotropic compression curve is essentially flat which is consistent with the extremely high preconsolidation pressure of the sample of 10,000 kPa (Powell et al. 2012). Natural Bearpaw shale is an expansive soil that is highly structured and has an extensive stress history dating back to its deposition during the Cretaceous period approximately 71-72 million years ago (geologic history summarized in Powell et al. 2012). Although compacted to nominally the same density and water content, the soil fabric in natural intact shale and recompacted clay is different as its stress history has been erased during the specimen preparation process.

Comparing the natural shale and recompacted clay of Bearpaw swelling properties, although materials have the same constituents the swelling potential is rather different. The higher 'B' value in recompacted Bearpaw clay (eg, B=-0.127) covers a steeper curve from V=1.90 to V=2.89 over the range from 0-300 kPa mean stress. The 'B' value in natural Bearpaw shale is 0.0463 which covers a narrower range from V=1.80 to V=2.0 up to 800 kPa mean stress. The main difference is the change in structure of the materials from natural to recompacted. Another contributing factor is the

change in liquid limit with the recompacted material. Peterson (1954) reported that drying Bearpaw shale caused a reduction in the liquid limit and this study found similar results. The natural Bearpaw shale has a higher liquid limit of 145% compared to LL=67% in the recompacted Bearpaw clay. Nonetheless, the structure of the natural Bearpaw shale is controlling the swelling behavior over the range of stresses tested.

Figure 3.11 plots the summary SEL for all the materials in ε_v -p space. In this plot the results are normalized to start at volumetric strain and mean stress equal to zero, which allows for direct comparison of the swelling potential. The swelling potential in a descending order is BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale. The SEL generalizes the swelling potential in a unifying framework where different types of swelling soils could be compared together. It is evident that the SEL of each soil has close correlation to the soil index property and initial condition. In a practical application, the SEL of a swelling soil may be calculated if the index property and initial condition has been determined from a geotechnical investigation of a project. Whether the soil is a compacted or natural type, the calculated SEL could be plotted with the catalogue of SELs and made comparison accordingly. It is, therefore, beneficial to interpret the SEL of other swelling soils with the catalogue of swelling soils.

3.6.3 Interpreting swelling pressure with EMDD

The major clayey constituent that contributes to the swelling potential is the montmorillonite content in the clay (Michell 1993). Dixon et al. 2002 reported a database of 1D swelling pressures for compacted bentonitic materials, which is re-plotted in Figure 3.12. They reported swelling pressure versus Effective Montmorillonite Dry Density (EMDD), which is defined as the mass of montmorillonite divided by volume occupied by non-clay and non-swelling materials.

[3.3]
$$EMDD = \frac{f_m f_c \rho_d}{\left[1 - \frac{(1 - f_c)\rho_d}{G_s \rho_w} - \frac{(1 - f_m)f_c \rho_d}{G_n \rho_w}\right]}$$

where f_m is the montmorillonite fraction of clay, f_c is the fraction of clay, ρ_d is the dry density of soil, ρ_w is the density of water, G_s is the specific gravity of nonclay soil, G_n is the specific gravity of non-swelling clay. Normalizing to the EMDD allows for comparison of different materials with variable montmorillonite contents and initial densities. As the database is for laterally confined tests, the stresses in the triaxial swelling tests must be converted to equivalent swell pressures before plotting on Figure 3.12. Siemens and Blatz 2009 have proposed a swelling pressure conversion equation from 1D to mean stress (or vice versa) using an elasticity assumption. The derivation used for the stress conversion is as follow:

$$[3.4] p_{equil} = \frac{p_{swell}}{3} \left(\frac{1+\nu}{1-\nu} \right)$$

where p_{equil} is the equilibrium mean stress from end of the triaxial infiltration test, p_{swell} is the 1D swelling pressure and v is the Poisson's ratio of the soil.

The converted swelling pressure for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale is plotted together with bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB, Siemens and Blatz 2009) as well as the de-ionized water data (DDW) from Dixon et al 2002 in Figure 3.12. Dixon et al. 2002 also reported a log-linear correlation between 1D swelling pressure and EMDD. The general fitting equation for the plot of swelling pressure (on a log scale) versus EMDD is in the form:

$$[3.5] p_{swell} = C * e^{(D*EMDD)}$$

where C and D are the fitting parameters of the equation. Value D represents the slope of the fitted line on a log-linear scale and C is the theoretical value of p_{swell} at EMDD=0. The fitted lines are plotted on Figure 3.12 for the four soils and the equations and coefficient of determination, R^2 are listed in Table 3.4b. The R^2 of the equations ranges from 0.93 to 0.95.

The fitting parameters follow anticipated trends based on their swelling potential. Ranking the materials in order of greatest to least values of parameter 'C' is BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale. On the other hand, ranking the materials increasing order for parameter 'D' is BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale. The highest swelling potential is represented by the highest 'C' (0.007609) value with lowest 'D' (4.56) value in BSB.

The natural and recompacted clays have a steeper slope compared to the compacted bentonites in Figure 3.12. The location of the EMDD lines for the natural and recompacted clays is found at the left of the BSB's EMDD

line. Since the initial dry density of these clays are smaller in comparison, it is reasonable to have the EMDD lines located at the left of BSB's EMDD line. The steeper slope in the natural and recompacted clays is also an indication that these types of clays are more sensitive in the wetting-induced swelling pressure with the change in EMDD content.

3.7 Preliminary SEL for Regina Clay

Using the existing catalogue of swelling soils that have been characterized in terms of their SEL, a new method for establishing an estimated SEL for an uncharacterized material is proposed. The SEL curves can be represented with the fitted equations in V-p plot $V_{SEL} = A + B \ln p$ or p_{swell} -EMDD plot log(p_{swell}) = $C * e^{(D*EMDD)}$. The fitting parameters from these equations for four types of expansive soils are listed in Table 3.4. As mentioned in the introduction, numerous researchers have related swelling potential to various index properties. Thus a parametric study was initiated to investigate the correlation between the fitting parameters for the SELs with numerous index properties including clay fraction (f_c), montmorillonite content (fm), liquid limit (LL), plastic limit (PL), plasticity index (PI), liquidity index (LI), ratio of PI/LL and PL/LL, initial specific volume (or dry density). Each of these plots appears in Appendix D. Figure 3.13 and Figure 3.14 are a compilation of the plots that correlate the fitting parameters A and B with the selected index properties of the swelling soils. From these two figures, it can be seen that the natural soil is distinguished from the recompacted clays in the plots. The plots are correlated linearly with the compacted soils. The selected plots are the stronger correlated index properties such as initial specific volume, liquid limit, plasticity index, PL/LL, and PI/LL with a $R^2 \ge 0.83$.

The benefit of the catalogue is to allow for preliminary modelling of SEL curves for soils that have not been subjected to advanced swelling tests. Table 3.5 lists the index properties and initial condition of Regina clay (Fredlund 1975). The properties of Regina clay that have been selected to correlate to the parameters A and B include initial specific volume, LL, PI, PL/LL and PI/LL. These index properties of Regina clay are used to calculate the A and B value. Once the A and B value are calculated from all the correlations, the preliminary SEL for Regina clay takes the average value of A and B and result in A=2.667 and B=-0.138. Therefore the preliminary SEL for Regina clay is plotted in Figure 3.15 compared with the test data from Fredlund 1975 and other established SEL curves of tested soils. The SEL of Regina clay is in

good agreement with the test data and the line sits closely with other recompacted soils.

3.8 Conclusion

The destructive effect of swelling soil on surrounding infrastructure is one of the classic issues with unsaturated soils. Given the continuing challenges associated with swelling soils the need for a practical analysis tool is apparent. The SEL concept provides a unifying framework for understanding and modelling the behavior of swelling soils. It allows an upper bound swelling limit depending on the initial conditions and the stress-volume paths upon wetting. The SEL curve obtained from triaxial infiltration and unconfined swelling test encompasses a practical comprehensive scenario of swelling behavior from rigid boundary condition to free swelling without confinement.

This chapter presented SELs for two additional soils and related the SEL parameters to index properties of the compacted materials. Using the developed relationships allowed for a preliminary SEL of Regina clay to be calculated which agrees with published data. Further testing is required to build-up the triaxial swelling soil database to increase the range of applicability of the relationships. The unifying SEL framework is capable of characterizing expansive soil behavior in terms of the swelling deformation and wetting-induced stress. The development of SEL curve with advanced testing is potentially a practical estimation for soil swelling potential because it covers a wide range of boundary conditions and stress-paths upon wetting.

3.9 Reference

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Soil Type	Specific gravity, G _s (-)	Clay fraction, f _c (%)	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Montmo-}\\ \text{rillonite}\\ \text{fraction}\\ \text{of clay,}\\ f_{m}\\ (\%) \end{array}$	f _c .f _m (-)	Liquid Limit, LL (%)	Plastic Limit, PL (%)	Plastic Index, PI (-)	PL /LL (-)	PI /LL (-)	Activity, A=PI/% clay	Initial dry density, $ ho_d$ (Mg/m3)	Initial specific volume, V _o (-)	Poisson's ratio, v (-)
Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay	2.76	75	30*	0.225	85	34	51	0.40	0.60	0.64	1.59	1.742	0.33
Recompacted Bearpaw clay	2.75	39**	72**	0.281	67	26	41	0.39	0.62	1.05	1.45	1.894	0.34
**Natural Bearpaw shale	2.75	39	72	0.281	145	23	122	0.16	0.84	3.13	1.50	1.833	0.34
Bentonite –sand- buffer (BSB)	2.70	50^{Φ}	90 ^Φ	0.450	265	21	244	0.08	0.92	4.88	1.67	1.615	0.18
Regina clay (Fredlund 1975)	2.83	51	77	0.393	76	26	50	0.34	0.66	1.0	1.54	1.838	0.35

Table 3.1. Index properties for multiple soils.

Note:

* Data obtained from Dixon (2002).
** Data obtained from Powell et al. (2013).
^Φ Data obtained from Siemens and Blatz (2009).

Initial (as-compacted)			End of triaxial swelling test									
Soil	Test ID	Gravime-	Specific	Degree of	Gravimetric	Specific	*Volu-	Mean	Water	Degree of	Dry	Bulk
type		tric water	volume,	saturation,	water content,	volume,	metric	stress,	uptake	saturation,	density	density
		content,	\mathbf{V}_{o}	$\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{r}}$	W	V	strain,	р		$\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{r}}$	ρ_d	$ ho_b$
		$W_o(\%)$		(%)	(%)		$\epsilon_{\rm V}$					
			(-)			(-)	(%)	(kPa)	(mL)	(%)	(Mg/m^3)	(Mg/m^3)
bi V	CMS200	29.3	1.87	93	31.9	1.90	-1.21	204	23	98	1.45	1.91
acte ' cla	CMS400	27.8	1.88	87	31.6	1.87	0.99	401	1.8	100	1.47	1.94
mp	¹ CMS200	31.8	1.95	92	33.5	1.95	-0.22	187	8.9	97	1.41	1.88
eco	² CMS400	30.9	1.95	89	31.3	1.83	6.46	400	2.3	97	1.46	1.92
КЯ	CV400	29.6	1.91	90	30.8	1.83	4.18	410	1.82	102	1.50	1.97
p z	CV150	21.6	1.76	79	29.0	1.76	-0.06	753	25	105	1.57	2.02
acte assi	CMS150	20.3	1.74	77	39.1	1.99	-14.6	143	62	109	1.39	1.93
mp. Ag clay	CV300	19.0	1.72	73	26.3	1.70	1.22	1200	25	103	1.62	2.05
eco	CMS300	21.1	1.75	78	32.4	1.88	-7.28	291	37	102	1.47	1.95
КЦ	CMS600	19.3	1.75	71	29.2	1.80	-3.80	606	33	101	1.53	1.98

Table 3.2. Initial condition and end-of-test result of triaxial swelling test for recompacted Lake Agassiz and recompacted Bearpaw clays.

All triaxial infiltration tests are saturated with water pressure at 100 kPa.

* negative value represents expansion; positive value represents compression

1: test begins with CMS200, then load up with 200 kPa at each stress increment up till 800kPa under CMS condition.

2: test begins with CMS400, then unload to 200 kPa under CMS condition.

Initial (as-compacted)			End of unconfined swelling test						
Soil Type	Water content, W _o (%)	Specific volume, V _o (-)	Degree of saturation, S _r (%)	Water content, w (%)	Specific volume, V (-)	*Volumetric strain, ε _v (geoPIV) (%)	Degree of saturation, S _r (%)	Dry density, ρ_d (Mg/m^3)	Bulk density, ρ_b (Mg/m^3)
Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay	20.6	1.77	74.1	67.3	3.00	-70.3	92.7	0.92	1.54
Recompacted Bearpaw clay	30.0	1.88	93.8	61.8	2.74	-42.1	97.8	1.00	1.63

Table 3.3. Initial condition and end-of-test result of unconfined swelling test for recompacted Bearpaw and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

* negative value represents expansion; positive value represents compression

Table 3.4. Fitted SEL curves for BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale.

a) Fitting parameters of A and B from V- p plot

Soil type	$V = A + B * \ln p$	R^2
BSB	$V = 3.023 - 0.214 \ln p$	0.9178
Recompacted Lake	$V = 2.691 - 0.141 \ln p$	0.9634
Agassiz clay		
Recompacted Bearpaw	$V = 2.596 - 0.127 \ln p$	0.9706
clay		
Natural Bearpaw shale	$V = 2.102 - 0.0463 \ln p$	0.9626

b) Fitting parameters of C and D from log (p_{swell}) – EMDD plot

Soil type	$p_{swell} = C * e^{(D * EMDD)}$	R^2
BSB	$p_{swell} = 0.007609e^{(4.56*EMDD)}$	0.9510
Recompacted Lake	$p_{swell} = 0.0004966e^{(12.27*EMDD)}$	0.9903
Natural Bearpaw shale	$p_{swell} = 1.254E - 10e^{(31.45 * EMDD)}$	0.9305

Table 3.5. Calculated fitting parameters of A and B for calculating preliminary Regina clay's SEL in V=A+B ln p.

Index property of Regina clay	Correlation equation	Calculated A	Correlation equation	Calculated B
(Fredlund 1975)	used		used	
$V_{o} = 1.838$	Fig 3.13(a)	2.638	Fig 3.14(a)	-0.133
LL = 76	Fig 3.13(b)	2.641	Fig 3.14(b)	-0.132
PI = 50	Fig 3.13(c)	2.653	Fig 3.14(c)	-0.135
PL/LL= 0.344	Fig 3.13(d)	2.702	Fig 3.14(d)	-0.146
PI/LL = 0.656	Fig 3.13(e)	2.702	Fig 3.14(e)	-0.146
	Average	2.667	Average	-0.138



Figure 3.1. Illustrative concept of the Swell Equilibrium Limit indicating stress-volume paths for swelling around a retaining wall application.



Figure 3.2. Grain size distribution for Bearpaw shale, bentonite-sand-buffer and Lake Agassiz clay.



Figure 3.3. Plasticity chart for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay, natural Bearpaw shale and BSB.



Figure 3.4. Schematic of triaxial pedestal highlighting modifications made to suction measurement location.



Figure 3.5. Triaxial swelling test of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay: CV 150kPa plotting a) mean stress and volumetric strain versus time, and; b) water added to specimen and total suction versus time.



Figure 3.6. Triaxial swelling test of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay: CMS 150kPa plotting a) mean stress and volumetric strain versus time, and; b) water added to specimen and total suction versus time.



Figure 3.7. Unconfined swelling test summary for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and Bearpaw clay plotted as volumetric strain versus time plotted on a) linear axis and b) log axis.



Figure 3.8. Swelling test summary for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay plotting a) mean stress versus time and b) volumetric strain versus time.



Figure 3.9. Swell equilibrium limit (SEL) for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.



Figure 3.10. Swell equilibrium limit (SEL) for: a) Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay; b) Recompacted Bearpaw clay; c) Bentonite-sand-buffer and d) Natural Bearpaw shale.



Figure 3.11. Swell equilibrium limits (SELs) in ϵ_{v} –p space.



Effective montmorillonite dry density, EMDD (Mg/m³)

Figure 3.12. Swelling pressure versus effective montmorillonite dry density of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay triaxial, natural Bearpaw triaxial and oedometer (Powell et al. 2013), BSB (Siemens and Blatz, 2009) and Dixon et al. (2002) swelling pressure data.



Figure 3.13. Correlation plots relating SEL fitting parameter A to soil index properties.



Figure 3.14. Correlation plots relating SEL fitting parameter B to soil index properties.



Figure 3.15. SEL curves for the tested soils and a calculated SEL for Regina clay compared with swelling data from Fredlund (1975).

CHAPTER 4: A NUMERICAL TOOL FOR MODELLING SWELLING BEHAVIOUR OF EXPANSIVE SOILS

4.1 Introduction

Unsaturated soil systems in the near-surface vadose zone are inherently challenging to model in the laboratory and numerically. In the vadose zone, soil behavior is significantly affected by daily and seasonal weather as well as changing groundwater conditions. Thus the challenge is to identify governing behavior mechanisms. Advanced testing allows for more complicated systems to be examined at the laboratory scale to attempt to isolate behavior, however the lessons learned need to be applied to a wider range of applications. Computing power has advanced to allow for complicated constitutive models to be applied to a wide range of applications, however, these must first be calibrated to high quality physical data.

Infrastructure constructed in expansive soils continues to suffer damage at the cost of billions of dollars per year (Keller, 2008, Puppala and Cerato, 2009) despite extensive research efforts. Expansive soil affects are inherently an unsaturated soils application that occurs in the vadose zone and are complicated by environmental effects. Numerous attempts have been made to develop analysis procedures to understand expansive behavior (Miller et al. 1995, Briaud et al. 2003, Vanapalli et al. 2010) however, damage continues to occur. Thus the need remains for an analysis tool to reliably model swelling behavior.

There has been a wide body of research focusing on developing constitutive models for unsaturated soils (Alonso et al. 1990, Cui and Delage 1996, Fredlund and Morgenstern 1977, Wheeler and Sivakumar 1995). The Barcelona Basic Model (BBM) developed by Alonso et al. 1990 has become a keystone in unsaturated soils literature and this model has provided a platform for many developments made in the more recent

models. One of challenges in numerical model is to formulate the constitutive equations with appropriate input parameters. For instance, the BBM model may require nine input parameters or soil constants (Alonso et al. 1990). Another challenge is some models may work well only with a specific type of soil. These challenges may have posed some difficulty to a designer to use new soil models confidently as they are rarely used in practice. More recently an unsaturated constitutive model developed by Sheng et al. (2008) has shown good potential in numerical analysis of unsaturated soils (Sheng et al. 2004, Sheng et al. 2008, Zhou and Sheng 2009, and Sheng and Zhou 2011). The improvement made by SFG model is its simplicity in terms of input parameter requirement and the applicability to swelling as well as collapsible unsaturated soils.

The Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) concept developed by Siemens and Blatz (2009) provides a unifying framework to understand swelling behavior. The swelling-induced stresses and deformation obtained from the advanced swelling tests encompass a comprehensive range of scenarios on how swelling soil responds to a given wetting condition. The implementation of SEL concept in a swelling soil is illustrated in a shallow foundation application as shown in Figure 4.1. Three swelling scenarios occurring during long-term infiltration are illustrated in Figure 4.1 including: 1) free swell condition at the surface, 2) constant mean stress swelling under the basement slab and 3) constrained swelling adjacent to the stiff basement wall. In scenario 1, the soil at the ground surface experiences the greatest magnitude in swelling deformation upon wetting as there is no boundary constraint and very low stress. This scenario is represented by the unconfined swelling shown as stress-volume Path 1 in a schematic specific volume – net mean stress plot (Figure 4.1b). In scenario 2, soil at a certain depth experiences swelling deformation under a constant stress (see stress-volume Path 2 - Constant Mean Stress (CMS)). Finally in scenario 3, ground adjacent to a concrete basement wall, the soil is subjected to a rigid boundary condition. In this case, the soil will experience swellinginduced stresses as expansion is constrained by the stiff wall.

Previous chapters in this thesis have developed a new laboratory method to measure unconfined swelling behavior (Chapter 2, Lim and Siemens 2013) and reported further advanced swelling tests within the SEL context (Chapter 3). This research utilizes the experimental data in a numerical model that can be used as an analysis tool in engineering design. In this chapter, an analysis tool for modeling swelling behavior of expansive soils is developed based on the SFG constitutive model. Advanced swelling tests are simulated to determine the constitutive parameters for the model for two soils, namely BSB and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. Finally an example is given to analyze swelling-induced pressures on a basement wall, swelling below a foundation as well as near-surface swelling.

4.2 Sheng, Fredlund and Gens (SFG) Constitutive Model

A constitutive model for unsaturated soils was reported by Sheng et al. (2008). The SFG model is an elastic-plastic constitutive model for volume change and shear strength of unsaturated soils, derived from a theoretical approach. The model has been derived for compacted and consolidated unsaturated soils. An additional capability of the model is to handle collapse mechanisms in unsaturated soil. The SFG model has been used successfully to model unsaturated soil behavior of clayey soil (Lloret et al 2003), compacted Pearl clay (Sun et al. 2007), silty soil (Jennings and Burland 1962), reconstituted silty clay (Cunningham et al. 2003), compacted soils (Sivakumar and Wheeler 2000), compacted kaolin specimen (Thu et al. 2007) and Brown London Clay (Marinho et al. 1995) as presented in Sheng et al. 2008 and Sheng and Zhou 2009. In this chapter, the model is used to simulate advanced swelling tests and, therefore, the background of those aspects of the model are introduced.

The SFG model isolates volume change of an unsaturated soil into suctioninduced and stress-induced components. The volume change equations take the form:

[4.1]
$$dv = -\lambda_{vp} \frac{dp}{\overline{p+s}} - \lambda_{vs}(s) \frac{ds}{\overline{p+s}}$$

[4.2]
$$\lambda_{vs}(s) = \begin{cases} \lambda_{vp} & s < s_{sa} \\ \lambda_{vs} \frac{s_{sa} + 1}{s + 1} & s \ge s_{sa} \end{cases}$$

where v = specific volume, $p = p - u_a$ = net mean stress, u_a = pore-air pressure, $s = u_a - u_w$ = suction, λ_{vp} = slope of the NCL for normally consolidated soils, λ_{vs} = suction compressibility , and s_{sa} = saturation suction.

The form of Equation [4.1] appears similar to a saturated soil. In fact the λ_{vp} term is the compressibility of a normally consolidated saturated soil. The

first term calculates deformation based on change in net mean stress and the second term calculates deformation based on change in suction. The only additional required parameter to calculate volume change in the SFG model is the saturation suction, s_{sa}. Saturation suction is similar but distinct from the air entry value (AEV) as defined in Figure 4.2. The AEV is usually defined as the intersection between the main drying curve and the flat initial part of the SWCC. Whereas the saturation suction defines the suction at which the soil changes from a saturated soil to an unsaturated soil. In other words, the saturation suction is the highest suction where the soil maintains Sr=1.0. Therefore the saturation suction is less than the AEV (Sheng et al. 2008) as illustrated in Figure 4.2. For use in Equation [4.2], at suctions less than the s_{sa}, deformations are calculated as if the soil is saturated (λ_{vs} = $\lambda_{vp}).$ At suctions greater than the $s_{sa},$ the compressibility is reduced by a factor $(s_{sa}+1)/(s+1)$. Thus compressibility due to suction variation is at a maximum at low suctions and reduces as suction increases due to the (s+1) term in the denominator.

The soil compressibility termed as λ_{vp} is originally related to the slope of NCL line in saturated soils. However, in the application of SEL concept, λ_{vp} is related to the swelling potential. Therefore the conventional λ_{vp} value can be served as a reference to initiate the calibration procedure in the model. The appropriate λ_{vp} that needed to be used in SFG model is back-calculated from the SEL test data.

4.2.1 Constant Mean Stress (CMS) module in SFG model

The modules for simulating CMS and CV boundary conditions within the SFG framework are presented separately here. The test paths for constant mean stress (CMS) and constant volume (CV) swelling tests (Siemens and Blatz 2009, Chapter 3) are illustrated in Figure 4.3 in terms of suction-net mean stress space and specific volume-net mean stress plots. Following compaction the soil is at its initiation suction and specific volume at zero net mean stress. The first phase is isotropic compression where the specimen is brought to a specified stress state. As a result of increasing net mean stress, suction decreases along a straight line (Figure 4.3a, Blatz and Graham 2003) and specific volume decreases (Figure 4.3b). During a CMS swelling test, the net mean stress is maintained constant and the specimen given access to water. Thus the stress path in suction–net mean stress space is a vertical line moving down from the isotropic compression line to zero suction. In specific volume-net mean stress space the stress-volume path is vertically upward until equilibrium is achieved.

In the CMS module, volume change is calculated using Equations [4.1] and [4.2]. However, since net mean stress is constant throughout during swelling, (i.e. dp = 0) the first term in Equation [4.1] is equal to zero. Thus volume change calculated in this module is only attributed to the reduction in suction. This isolates the suction contribution to deformation making it advantageous to model the CMS tests prior to the CV tests. Modeling of the unconfined test (Chapter 2) is performed in a similar manner except the isotropic compression phase is ignored and tests are assumed to occur at $\bar{p} = 1$ kPa as nominal pressure. Explicitly Equation [4.1] is reduced as follows:

[4.3]
$$dv = -\lambda_{vp} \frac{dp}{\overline{p+s}} - \lambda_{vs}(s) \frac{ds}{\overline{p+s}}$$
$$dv = -\lambda_{vs}(s) \frac{ds}{\overline{p+s}}$$

The CMS module proceeds by incrementally decreasing suction (ds=constant) and deformations are calculated for each increment. The module is complete once the equilibrium suction is attained.

4.2.2 Constant Volume (CV) module in SFG model

The CV module initiates similarly to the CMS module with isotropic compression defining the initial stress, suction and volume state of the soil. The test paths are again shown schematically in Figure 4.3a and Figure 4.3b. During swelling, Equation [4.1] is used in the calculations. However, at each increment the equation is set equal to zero (dv=0) to represent the constant volume boundary conditions. Thus the first term, stress-induced deformation, is equated to the second term of suction-induced deformation. Explicitly:

$$dv = -\lambda_{vp} \frac{d\overline{p}}{\overline{p+s}} - \lambda_{vs}(s) \frac{ds}{\overline{p+s}} = 0$$
$$-\lambda_{vp} \frac{d\overline{p}}{\overline{p+s}} = \lambda_{vs}(s) \frac{ds}{\overline{p+s}}$$
$$d\overline{p} = \frac{\lambda_{vs}(s)}{-\lambda_{vp}} ds$$
$$[4.4]$$

If suction is lesser than s_{sa} , $\lambda_{vs}(s)=\lambda_{vp}$:

[4.5]
$$d\overline{p} = \frac{\lambda_{vs}(s)}{-\lambda_{vp}} ds = ds$$

If suction is greater than s_{sa} , $\lambda_{vs}(s) = \lambda_{vp} \frac{s_{sa}+1}{s+1}$:

$$d\overline{p} = \frac{\lambda_{\overline{pp}} \frac{s_{sa} + 1}{s + 1}}{\lambda_{\overline{pp}}} ds$$

$$d\overline{p} = \frac{s_{sa} + 1}{s + 1} ds$$

$$d\overline{p} = \frac{s_{sa} + 1}{s + 1} ds$$

Therefore it is anticipated that saturation suction, s_{sa} , will have an influential impact on the modelled swelling pressure.

The CV module proceeds through swelling by reducing suction incrementally (ds=constant) and calculating the resulting increase in net mean stress (dp) using either Equation [4.5] or [4.6] depending if suction is greater or lesser than s_{sa} . In suction-net mean stress space (Figure 4.3a) the stress path is curved downward and in specific volume-net mean stress space (Figure 4.3b) the path is horizontal.

4.2.3 Materials

The two tested soils presented are the compacted bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB, Siemens and Blatz 2009) and the recompacted Lake Agassiz clay (Chapter 3). Index properties of these two soils are listed in Table 4.1. BSB is a type of engineered buffer consists of a mixture of equal parts Nabentonite and sand. BSB has considerably high plasticity with LL of 265% and PI of 244%. The activity of BSB is as high as 4.88. The recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is a type of natural swelling soil taken from Southern Manitoba. The clay content of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is higher at 75% but its Atterberg Limits are relatively lower than BSB's. The LL and PI of recompacted Lake Agassiz is 85% and 51%, respectively. The activity of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is 0.64.

4.3 Model Development

4.3.1 Bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB)

The SFG model requires two model input parameters, thus giving it greater potential for use as a practical analysis tool. The model inputs for the swelling soil required are compressibility (λ_{vp}) and saturation suction (s_{sa}) and the initial suction state as defined by the ds/dp ratio for each material.

The range of plausible compressibility values for BSB was back analyzed from the laboratory test data. Compressibility parameter (λ_{vp}) was estimated from the CMS and CV tests in BSB (Siemens and Blatz 2009) assuming no contribution from suction. CMS and CV tests from a total of four different stress levels (p= 250, 500, 1000 and 1500 kPa). Soil compressibility, λ_{vp} is estimated from the end-of-test data of both CMS and CV tests. The initial and end-of-test data were analyzed and used in the preliminary calculation. The range indicated in Table 4.2 is from 0.074-0.542. The average value of 0.25 was selected as a starting point for model calibration.

The preliminary saturation suction, s_{sa} of BSB is assessed from existing SWCC data for compacted barriers as presented in Figure 4.4a (after Priyanto 2007). The data includes a number of bentonite barriers as well as the data for the BSB tests modeled presently. The data has a wide range of variability, which is common in these types of materials. Bounding SWCC curves as well as an average SWCC curve are included on the plot. As explained in earlier section, s_{sa} is the maximum suction for the flat initial portion of the SWCC and is less than the traditional AEV. The variability of the data necessitates interpretation of the s_{sa} . The plausible range for s_{sa} based on the laboratory data is 150-250 kPa (range indicated on the figure). Based on the shape of the SWCCs a preliminary value of 200 kPa was used in model development.

The SFG modules apply a constant suction increment to throughout the model. Thus the initial and final suction value of the soil sets the start and end points for the model. The initial and final suction measurements for the swelling tests in BSB are plotted in Figure 4.5a (Siemens 2006). As expected, suction decreases with increasing net mean stress owing to the compression of the soil resulting in a reduced void ratio and increased volumetric water content (Blatz and Graham 2003). The more reliable suction data is selected at each pressure level while the outliers are neglected. The average suction values at the relevant stress levels (250 kPa, 500 kPa, 1000 kPa and 1500 kPa) are plotted. A linear equation is fitted through the average suction values and a ratio of $\Delta s/\Delta p$ =-1.0 is established. The value is comparable to $\Delta s/\Delta p$ =-0.83 measured by Blatz and Graham (2003).

The end-of-test suction data (s_{eot}) is also plotted in Figure 4.5a. All s_{eot} values are in the range from 400 to 600 kPa. These measurements are made with an indirect method and, therefore, likely consist mainly (if not completely) of osmotic suction. For consistency in modelling, s_{eot} is taken as 400 kPa as the osmotic suction.

4.3.2 Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay

The soil compressibility is back-calculated from the triaxial swelling test of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. Table 4.2b summarizes the end-of-test of CMS150, CV150, CMS300 and CV300 as well as the back-calculated soil compressibility. The range of soil compressibility is 0.23-0.331. The average value of 0.28 as used as the starting point for SFG model calibration.

The preliminary estimate of saturation suction for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is estimated from Figure 4.4b. The initial equilibrated and endof-test suctions of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay are plotted with the SWCC data from Pauls 1995. The measured data falls in a reasonable range of the data given by Pauls 1995. The plausible range of saturation suction is 70-200 kPa. As a starting value, $s_{sa} = 200$ kPa is used in SFG model.

Figure 4.5b presents the initial and post swelling test suctions plot for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. Due to the scattered data points in suction measurement, the average suction at each pressure level (p=1, 150 and 300 kPa) is plotted. The average points are fitted through with a linear equation and this relation results in a ratio of $\Delta s/\Delta p$ =-1.0. The fitted line in Figure 4.5b represents the initial equilibrated suction of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay in the model.

The end-of-test suction, s_{eot} of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is measured to be zero. Therefore, the s_{eot} used in the model would be zero for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

4.4 Results

The modeling strategy utilized in the modelling the CMS and CV swelling tests included using consistent model inputs for the modelling program. In this section, typical experimental results are presented followed by the model calibration for BSB and Lake Agassiz clay.

4.4.1 Typical results of CMS and CV tests on BSB

Figure 4.6a shows a typical Constant Mean Stress (CMS) test result of BSB. The equilibration phase lasted three days. Then, the cell pressure was raised to p=500 kPa as isotropic compression resulted in volumetric compression of 5.4%. The swelling stage started when the water was supplied to the specimen. In a CMS test, the confining pressure was kept constant throughout the test. The water added to the specimen exhibited a higher gradient at the beginning and then levelled off asymptotically after about 12 days. The volumetric strain curve indicated swelling once the water was absorbed in the specimen. The trend of volumetric curve qualitatively resembles the curve of water added to specimen. The suction in the specimen decreased over time but the rate of suction change was slower compared to others. This is due to suction gradients within the specimen with the sensor being representative of suction at the center of the specimen. At the end of test, the relative volumetric expansion was 4.7% (final volume strain $\varepsilon v=0.7\%$), the total water added to specimen was 25 mL and the final suction was 0.7 MPa. The test duration lasted approximately three weeks.

Typical Constant Volume (CV) test results are given in Figure 4.6b as net mean stress, volumetric strain, suction and water added to specimen versus time. Similarly to the beginning of a CMS test, the suction in the specimen was left for equilibration (1 day in this case). Then, the cell pressure was increased to 500 kPa for isotropic compression. The compressed volumetric strain was 6.5%. Subsequently, the swelling stage was initiated by providing access of water. The water infiltrated rapidly at the beginning and then levelled off at t = 8.0 days. During swelling, suction decreased in response to water infiltration. The rate of suction change was slower than the rate of water added to specimen. The stress-volume path in a CV test is controlled in order to maintain zero total volume strain in the specimen. Additional cell pressure is applied to counteract the volume change during the CV swelling stage. The rate of change in net mean stress is a similar shape to the water infiltration curve. At 8.4 days, net mean stress stabilized at 980 kPa. At the end-of-test, the total water added to specimen was 16 mL and the final suction was 0.25 MPa. The CV 500 kPa test took approximately two weeks to complete.

Figure 4.8. presents a typical model simulation compared with experimental data for the test at stress = 500 kPa on BSB. The open squares are the result from swelling test while the 'plus (+)' symbol represents the model simulation. Figure 4.7a plots the total suction versus net mean stress for the tests of CMS500 and CV500. From as-compacted

state, the specimen is applied with 500 kPa of net mean stress. The application of net mean stress compresses the total volume of the specimen, hence the total suction of the specimen is decreased with a ratio of $\Delta s/\Delta p$ =-1.0 as presented in Figure 4.5a.

Once the infiltration stage begins, the test path of the CMS swelling moves vertically downward from a high initial suction to a low suction at constant stress at 500 kPa. Both experimental data and model agree well in CMS swelling. In the same plot, the suction of the CV swelling is also reduced from a high initial suction. The suction – stress path curves downward to the right of net mean stress axis. The swelling-induced stress is increased during the CV swelling test. The end-of-test of experimental data and simulation data match well at the final data point. Figure 4.7b plots the swelling strain versus net mean stress for these two tests. The CMS 500 test-path follows a vertical upward direction (volume expansion) while the CV 500 moves horizontally to the right of net mean stress-axis (increase in swelling-induced stress).

4.4.2 SFG model refinement for BSB and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay The preliminary model inputs (Table 4.3a) were incorporated into a spreadsheet to simulate the CMS and CV tests in BSB. With these preliminary input values, the model calculated an over-estimate in volume change and an under-estimate in swelling-induced stresses. A systematic approach to input variation was undertaken to calibrate the model output to the laboratory results. The CMS simulations were found to be sensitive to the compressibility while the CV simulations were sensitive to the saturation suction. Therefore, the λ_{vp} value is decreased incrementally from 0.25 until the simulations captured the swelling deformation. Whereas the s_{sa} value is increased to match the measured swelling-induced stresses for the CV tests. Using constant input parameters (λ_{vp} =0.21 and s_{sa}=245 kPa), the CV and CMS tests were modeled within ±20 kPa in swelling pressure and ±1.5% in volumetric strain for the 500 kPa, 1000 kPa and 1500 kPa pressure levels. The model and laboratory test comparisons are plotted in Figure 4.8 in terms of volumetric strain versus net mean stress and suction versus net mean stress. Figure 4.9 demonstrates the comparison of data from experiment versus the model in total suction - net mean stress plot for BSB. The idealized equilibration suction line is the same relationship plotted in Figure 4.5a.

The SFG model simulates the CMS and CV swelling tests using constant input parameters except for the tests at lower net mean stress (see CMS250 and CV250 comparisons in Figure 4.8).

Table 4.4 lists the comparison between the testing measurement and model. With the same input parameter of λ_{vp} =0.21 and s_{sa}=245 kPa, the model for p=250 kPa has under-calculated the swelling pressure by 154 kPa and also under-calculated the swelling strain by 12.2%. In order to optimize the model at low stress, both of λ_{vp} and s_{sa} values are increased. The input parameter that accurately models the results low stress are λ_{vp} =0.55 and s_{sa}=320 kPa. The comparison of SFG model and the end-of-test data in BSB is shown in Figure 4.8.

Swelling strains at low stress are pronounced in the SEL context (Figure 4.8). Therefore, at low stress, the soil compressibility is likely to have a higher value. To justify the modification of the s_{sa} and λ parameters the SWCCs reported by Marcial et al. 2002 were considered. Marcial et al. 2002 reported unconfined SWCCs for 100% MX-80 bentonite. The results indicated significant swelling at low suction levels. The data allows direct interpretation of the λ_{vs} parameter as plotted in Figure 4.10. In Figure 4.10 the plot demonstrates that suction-induced soil compressibility is significantly higher at lower suction in 100% bentonite (Marcial et al. 2002). Therefore, it is reasonable to adopt a higher soil compressibility in the SFG model for swelling models at low stresses. Plotted on the same graph is the variation of the λ_{vs} parameter for BSB.

Table 4.5 listed the preliminary model inputs of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay that are used in SFG model spreadsheet. As a starting trial with the preliminary inputs, the model has under-calculated the swelling pressure but over-calculated the swelling strains. In order to calibrate the input parameters to the experiment data, the soil compressibility is reduced incrementally from 0.38 and the s_{sa} is increased incrementally from 200 kPa. The parameters of compressibility and s_{sa} are further refined incrementally to match the measured swelling strains and swelling-induced stresses. The final optimized inputs are λ_{vp} =0.17 and s_{sa} =215 kPa for the tests with p=150, 300 and 600 kPa, which are within the reasonable range. With these constant optimized inputs, the CV and CMS tests were modelled within ±30 kPa in swelling pressure and ±1% in swelling strains. The result of model calculation and experiment data for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is presented in Figure 4.11.

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Similar to BSB, the inputs required further refinement to model swelling behavior at low stresses in recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. For the test at p=150 kPa, the λ is increased from 0.17 incrementally to 0.28 and its s_{sa} is reduced incrementally from 215 kPa to 140 kPa. The modelled swelling pressure and volumetric strain for the test of p=150 kPa is 781 kPa and -15.2%, respectively. In the unconfined swelling tests, only the swelling deformation is measured and the average swelling deformation of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay is measured at -72.1%. It is necessary to further refine the model input for the unconfined swelling tests. The compressibility is increased incrementally from 0.17 to 0.73 while the s_{sa} is reduced incrementally from 215 kPa to 140 kPa. The modelled swelling strain is -72.8% for the unconfined swelling test and the difference is only 0.7% compared to the experimental data. Table 4.6 summarized the optimized model inputs and the comparison between the experimental data and the model for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. The final compressibility versus suction relationship is presented in Figure 4.10.

4.4.3 Parametric study in SFG model

Following model calibration a parametric study was performed to assess the sensitivity of the model output to the relevant parameters. Consideration can then be emphasized on the more influential parameters when these values are used in an analysis. The tests selected for the parametric study for the SFG model are the CMS500 and CV500 tests on BSB. The benchmark case is labelled as Case 1 where its λ_{vp} and s_{sa} is 0.21 and 245 kPa, respectively. The modelled swelling pressure and deformation from various cases are then compared with the benchmark case's value of p_{swell} = 990 kPa and ε_V = -4.2%. The magnitude of the difference between the model and the laboratory data is calculated with the following equations:

- $[4.7] \quad \Delta p_{swell} = p_{mod \ el} p_{test}$
- $[4.8] \quad \Delta \mathcal{E}_{v} = \mathcal{E}_{v_{-mod \ el}} \mathcal{E}_{v_{-test}}$

Table 4.7a compiles the various categories of comparison of each input parameter. There are a total of five (5) categories of study involving variation in λ_{vp} , s_{sa} , ds, S_{ini} and S_{eot} . The various input parameters and the result of parametric analysis are listed in Table 4.7b.

Figure 4.12 presents the influence of each input parameter on the modelled swelling pressure (Δp_{swell}) with a fitted linear relation. Whereas the effect of

each input parameter on the calculated volumetric strain ($\Delta \epsilon_V$) is plotted in Figure 4.13.

Soil compressibility, λ_{vp} , shows no effect on swelling pressure (Figure 4.12a) as all three values of compressibility result in the same swelling pressure at 990 kPa. Soil compressibility (Figure 4.13a) influences directly the magnitude of deformation that is induced either by suction or pressure or both. As indicated, Case 2 with a higher λ_{vp} (λ_{vp} =1.0) results in higher deformation of -20.1% and the lower λ_{vp} (λ_{vp} =0.068) yields smaller deformation of -1.4%. The sensitivity of soil compressibility on volume change is $\frac{\Delta \epsilon_V}{\Delta \lambda_{vp}} = 20.1 \frac{\%}{(-)}$.

The effect of varying saturation suction is plotted in Figure 4.12b and Figure 4.13b with the specific cases listed in Table 4.7b. Case 4 is with higher s_{sa} = 500 kPa while Case 5 has a lower s_{sa} of 50 kPa. Case 5 has over-calculated the swelling pressure by 503 kPa but Case 4 has under-calculated the pressure by -389 kPa instead. The sensitivity in s_{sa} is $\frac{\Delta p_{swell}}{\Delta s_{sa}} = 2 \frac{kPa}{kPa}$. This sensitivity is considered high among other parameters. The modelled volume strain is -8.5% and -0.9% in Case 4 and Case 5, respectively. The effect of s_{sa} value on volume change is small as the sensitivity is $\frac{\Delta \epsilon_V}{\Delta s_{sa}} = 0.02 \frac{\%}{kPa}$.

Suction increment (drying) or reduction (wetting) is represented by ds in the model. For suction reduction, ds is a negative value. There are two different increments applied in the study, namely, -150 kPa and -25 kPa compared with Case 1 of -50 kPa. The difference in the modelled swelling pressure and volume change is less than \pm 30 kPa and \pm 0.5%, respectively. The sensitivity is $\frac{\Delta p_{swell}}{\Delta(ds)} = 0.2 \frac{kPa}{kPa}$ and $\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_V}{\Delta(ds)} = 0.004 \frac{\%}{kPa}$. Therefore, the effect of suction increment on the calculated results is considered marginal.

The laboratory measurements indicated some variability in the initial and final suction measurements. The variability in measurements is due to sensitivity in the instrument calibration at low suctions and the non-linear relationship between relative humidity (which the sensor is measuring) and total suction. Nonetheless the initial and final suction values are included in the parametric analysis. Case 8 has a higher initial suction at 3600 kPa; the lower initial suction in Case 9 is at 2600 kPa. The sensitivity of the initial suction on the swelling pressure is $\frac{\Delta p_{swell}}{\Delta s_{ini}} = 0.1 \frac{kPa}{kPa}$. For the influence of
initial suction on volume change, the sensitivity is $\frac{\Delta \epsilon_V}{\Delta s_{ini}} = 0.0003 \frac{\%}{kPa}$ which is considered a less dominant input in the model.

The end-of-test suction is the final suction measured at the soil following wetting. Higher S_{eot} indicates the soil is dryer at end-of-test. The S_{eot} in Case 10 is 500 kPa; the difference in swelling pressure and deformation is -52 kPa and -0.7%, respectively. The s_{eot} in Case 11 is 300 kPa; the modelled swelling pressure is 1056 kPa while the swelling deformation is -5.3%. The study has shown that when the soil has more moisture or higher degree of saturation, more swelling potential is developed in the soil. Among the input parameters, the end-of-test suction could be considered relatively influential with the sensitivity of $\frac{\Delta p_{swell}}{\Delta s_{eot}} = -0.6 \frac{kPa}{kPa}$ on the calculated swelling pressure and $\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_V}{\Delta s_{eot}} = -0.01 \frac{\%}{kPa}$ on the deformation.

From this parametric analysis, the SFG model responds with decreasing sensitivity on the swelling pressure for the inputs: s_{sa} , s_{eot} , ds, s_{ini} and λ_{vp} . The decreasing effect on the modelled swelling deformation is λ_{vp} , s_{sa} , s_{eot} , ds and s_{ini} .

4.5 Application of SFG model

In Canada, the Lake Agassiz clay is classified as a swelling clay and the structures built in this region are prone to swelling soil problem. In arid regions, seasonal changes in water table are also very common. The suction in the soil is higher when it is in a dry season, however, the suction in the soil dissipates due to thawing of snow or extended rainfall events. When the swelling soil is given access of water, the soil is expected to swell against the local infrastructure. The moisture-induced swelling stresses and deformations along various boundary conditions can be simulated with the SFG model as the soil input parameters are established.

Figure 4.14 depicts a basement of a house with 3.5m height that is typically constructed in swelling ground. The ground in the vicinity of the basement would be backfilled and considered similar to the recompacted Lake Agassiz soil reported in this chapter. The moisture content of Lake Agassiz clay deposit was measured by Baracos 1957 and Thiessen 2010 in their research. Both of their measurement data on gravimetric water content is comparable.

The basement is analyzed with 6 increasing depths which are 0.5m, 0.1m, 1.5m, 2.0m, 2.5m and 3.0m below the ground level. The initial moisture content at the basement is based on the measurement from Thiessen 2010 (Figure 4.15a). The initial suction at the basement is correlated from the soil-water characteristic curve presented in Figure 4.4b based on the gravimetric water content. The correlated total suction profile is presented in Figure 4.15b. A higher suction of 1500 kPa is at the location closer to the ground surface and the suction profile reduces with depth. The final suction is assumed at the worst case scenario where the suction is reduced to zero. Such condition may happen after an extended heavy rainfall event causes ponding and saturates the ground near the foundation. The total unit weight of the clay is taken as 20 kN/m³ and the net mean stress (p) at each depth is calculated and plotted as triangle open symbol in Figure 4.15c. The cross symbol in Figure 4.15c represents the lateral earth stress applied to the basement wall that is calculated with the effective frictional angle of 17.5° (Pathak 2009).

For the soil at depth of 0.5m, the CMS condition is anticipated to occur because the soil is subjected to a 10 kPa of net mean stress and the soil deformation is not constrained rigidly at near ground surface. For the soil at the middle of the wall (soil depth at 1.5m and 2.0m), the anticipated condition would be between CMS and CV conditions because the soil deformation could be observed as bulging or cracking at the basement wall. The swelling –induced stresses calculated from CV condition would develop and exerted on the basement wall. For the greater depth at 2.5m and 3.0m, the soil may experience a CV condition as the soil deformation is restrained by the stiff footing of the wall. Thus, the wall toe may experience swelling-developed stresses.

The input parameters of soil compressibility, λ_{vp} = 0.28 and saturation suction, s_{sa} = 140 kPa obtained from Section 4.4.2 are used in the swelling analysis. The initial soil states and suction level as plotted in Figure 4.15b and Figure 4.15c are input into SFG model for calculation (Appendix I). The calculated swelling-induced stresses and deformations at each soil depth are plotted in Figure 4.15c and Figure 4.15d. The highest swelling-induced stresses and swelling deformation are calculated at 461 kPa and -36.2 %, respectively at the depth of 0.5m. Both of the swelling stresses and deformations reduce with depth. SFG model input parameters, initial and final states of suction profile, applied net mean stress and model calculated result is summarized in Table 4.8.

An envelope of the calculated swelling-induced stresses and deformations at each depth is plotted in Figure 4.16. An engineer requires applying his practical judgment to determine the most possible scenario that may occur to the basement using the result presented in Figure 4.16. The engineer needs to consider the calculated swelling-induced stresses in additional to the lateral earth pressure at the wall. A typical retaining wall design guideline given in Canadian Foundation Engineering Manual considers either at-rest condition or active lateral earth pressure that would be applied to a retaining wall.

Figure 4.15c has clearly shown that the lateral earth pressure in a typical wall design analysis is significantly lower compared to the magnitude of swelling-induced stresses calculated by SFG model. Many home owners may potentially suffer from the basement damage caused by swelling soil because the typical wall design has not considered the additional swelling stresses in the analysis. Therefore, the swelling soil behavior modelled with SFG equation provide a more realistic and practical estimation to the design of structures constructed in swelling ground.

The advantage of using SFG model in swelling soil design is its simplicity of requiring two additional soil input parameters, namely, soil compressibility and saturation suction. These two inputs can be calibrated with high quality experimental result obtained from the advanced SEL testing. Geotechnical engineer may consider using SFG model in designing structures in swelling ground.

4.6 Conclusion

Advanced numerical tools provide the ability to simulate and understand complex systems. At the same time experimental apparatuses continue to become more multifaceted and able to better represent field behavior. The temptation of these tools is that the ability to add complexity sometimes makes them too difficult to use in practice. A numerical tool, that is based in theory but only needs a very few number of input parameters, has the opportunity to be used in practice.

The SEL concept provides a unifying framework to understand swelling behavior of expansive soils. The SFG constitutive model is based on theoretical unsaturated soil mechanics and can be used with the addition of two soil input parameters. Namely soil compressibility for swelling (λ_{vp}) and

saturation suction (s_{sa}). In this chapter, the SFG model is successfully applied to advanced swelling experiments for two swelling soils, namely BSB and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay. A parametric analysis is performed to examine the sensitivity of the model output to the input parameters. Finally an example model for calculating swelling strains and swelling-induced stresses on a basement foundation application are presented. The simplicity and the accuracy given by the SFG model calculation have made it an attractive tool for modelling in unsaturated swelling soil. Further work will address transient effects and environmental interactions.

4.7 Reference

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Table 4.1. Index properties for BSB and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

Soil Type	Specific gravity, G _s	Clay fraction, f_c	Montmori -llonite fraction	Liquid Limit, LL	Plastic Limit, PL	Plastic Index, PI	Activity, A =PI/	Initial dry density,	Initial specific volume,
	(-)	(70)	f _m (%)	(70)	(70)	(70)	70 Clay	(Mg/m^3)	v (-)
^Φ Bentonite – sand-buffer	2.70	50	90	265	21	244	4.88	1.67	1.615
Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay	2.76	75	30*	85	34	51	0.64	1.58	1.742
Nota									

Note:

^Φ Data obtained from Siemens and Blatz (2009)
* Data obtained from Dixon (2002)

Table 4.2.	Estimated	preliminary	soil	compressibility	for	a)	BSB	and	b)
Recompacte	ed Lake Aga	assiz clay.							

a) BSB

		Test da	ta		Back-calculate		
			CV	CMS			
р	V_{ini}	Seot	peot	ε _v	dV	$\lambda_{ m vp}$	
(kPa)	(-)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(%)	(-)	(-)	
250	1.585	400	915	-17.3	0.274	0.542	
500	1.534	400	980	-5.1	0.078	0.225	
1000	1.506	400	1440	-2.5	0.038	0.157	
1500	1.454	400	1905	-0.9	0.013	0.074	
					Average	0.250	

b)	Recompac	ted Lake A	gassiz clay
/	1		0

		Test dat	а		Back-cal	culate
			CV	CMS		
р	$\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{ini}}$	Seot	p _{eot}	ε _v	dV	λ_{vp}
(kPa)	(-)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(%)	(-)	(-)
150	1.753	0	753	-15.1	0.265	0.331
300	1.741	0	1198	-9.9	0.172	0.230
600	1.729	0	N/A	-5.7	0.099	N/A
					Average	0.280

N/A: not available

р	$*\lambda_{ m vp}$	*s _{sa}	s _{ini}	Seot	ds
(kPa)	(-)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)
250	0.25	200	3365	400	-50
500	0.25	200	3102	400	-50
1000	0.25	200	2577	400	-50
1500	0.25	200	2052	400	-50

Table 4.3. Input parameter of SFG and initial condition of SEL test for BSB.

*Preliminary value for optimization of modelling

Table 4.4. SFG model results for BSB's SEL.

SFG	G model	input	E	xperiment	Moo	del	Com	parison
	parame	ter		data				
р	λ_{vp}	s _{sa}	p _{swe}	ll ε _v	p _{swell}	$\epsilon_{\rm V}$	Δp_{swell}	$\Delta \epsilon_{\rm V}$
(kPa)		(kPa)	(kPa	l) (%)	(kPa)	(%)	(kPa)	(%)
250	Φ0.55	Ф320	915	-17.3	917	-17.4	2	0.1
250	0.21	245	915	-17.3	761	-5.1	-154	12.2
500	0.21	245	980	-5.1	993	-4.2	13	0.9
1000	0.21	245	144	0 -2.5	1450	-3.2	10	-0.6
1500	0.21	245	190	5 -0.9	1899	-2.3	-6	-1.4

[•]Optimized input for test at low stress

Table 4.5. Input parameter of SFG and initial condition of SEL test for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

p (kPa)	*λ _{vp} (-)	*s _{sa} (kPa)	s _{ini} (kPa)	s _{eot} (kPa)	ds (kPa)
1	0.28	200	7899	0	-150
150	0.28	200	7750	0	-150
300	0.28	200	7600	0	-150
600	0.28	200	7300	0	-150

*Preliminary value for optimization of modelling

SFC	B model i paramete	nput r	Experin	Experiment data		Iodel	Compa	Comparison		
p (kPa)	$\lambda_{\rm vp}$	s _{sa} (kPa)	p _{swell} (kPa)	ε _v (%)	p _{swell} (kPa)	ε _V (%)	Δp_{swell} (kPa)	$\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}$ (%)		
1	Φ0.73	Ф140	no	-72.8	no	-72.1	no	0.7		
			data		data		data			
150	Φ0.28	^Φ 140	753	-15.1	781	-15.2	28	-0.1		
150	0.17	215	753	-15.1	1064	-12.1	311	3.1		
300	0.17	215	1198	-9.9	1210	-9.1	12	0.8		
600	0.17	215	no	-5.7	no	-6.4	no	-0.7		
			data		data		data			

Table 4.6. SFG model results for recompacted Lake Agassiz clay's SEL.

^ΦOptimized input for tests at low stress

Table 4.7. Parametric analysis of SFG model.

a) Various categories of model input parameters.

Cas	se/Category	*1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
a	Higher λ_{vp}	\checkmark	\checkmark									
	Lower λ_{vp}	\checkmark		√								
b	Higher s _{sa}	V			\							
	Lower s _{sa}	V				V						
с	Higher ds	V					V					
	Lower ds	\checkmark						\checkmark				
d	Higher s _{ini}	V							V			
	Lower sini	V								V		
e	Higher seot	V									V	
	Lower s _{eot}	✓										✓

*Benchmark for comparison

	Vari	ation in	model in	put parai	neter	S	FG	model	Compa	arison	Sensitivity	
		(ł	nighlighte	ed)					with C	lase 1		
Case	$\lambda_{\rm vp}$	Ssa	ds	S _{ini}	Seot	p _{sv}	well	$\epsilon_{\rm V}$	Δp_{swell}	$\Delta \epsilon_{\rm V}$		
	(-)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kl	Pa)	(%)	(kPa)	(%)		
*1	0.21	245	-50	3100	400	99	90	-4.2	0	0		
2	1.0	245	-50	3100	400	99	90	-20.1	0	15.9	$\frac{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}} = 0 \frac{\text{kPa}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}$	$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_V}{M} = 20.1 \frac{\%}{M}$
											Δλ (-)	Δλ (-)
3	0.068	245	-50	3100	400	- 99	90	-1.4	0	-2.9		
4	0.21	500	-50	3100	400	14	93	-8.5	503	4.3	$\frac{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}{\Delta c} = 2 \frac{\text{kPa}}{\text{kPa}}$	$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}}{\Delta c} = 0.02 \frac{\%}{\rm kBz}$
											ΔS_{sa} KPa	ΔS_{sa} KPa
5	0.21	50	-50	3100	400	60)2	-0.9	-389	-3.4		
6	0.21	245	-150	3100	400	96	56	-3.8	-24	-0.4	$\frac{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}} = 0.2 \frac{\text{kPa}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}$	$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}}{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}} = 0.004$
											$\Delta(ds)$ kPa	$\Delta(ds)$ kPa
7	0.21	245	-25	3100	400	- 99	97	-4.3	6	0.1		
8	0.21	245	-50	3600	400	10	27	-4.4	36	0.1	$\frac{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}} = 0.1 \frac{\text{kPa}}{\Delta p_{\text{swell}}}$	$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}}{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}} = 0.0003 \frac{\%}{2}$
											Δs_{ini} kPa	Δs_{ini} kPa
9	0.21	245	-50	2600	400	94	17	-4.1	-43	-0.2		
10	0.21	245	-50	3100	500	93	38	-3.5	-52	-0.7	$\Delta p_{swell} = -0.6 \frac{kPa}{kPa}$	$\frac{\Delta \varepsilon_{\rm V}}{2} = -0.01 \frac{\%}{2}$
											$\Delta s_{eot} = -0.0 \frac{1}{kPa}$	$\Delta s_{eot} = -0.01 \frac{1}{kPa}$
11	0.21	245	-50	3100	300	10	56	-5.3	66	1.0		
ч т		1 C										

b) Input parameters and the result of parametric study.

*Benchmark for comparison

		SFG mo	SFG model input parameter		Estim sucti	ated on	SFG model		
Case	Depth	р	λ_{vp}	S _{sa}	S _{ini}	Seot	p _{swell}	$\epsilon_{\rm V}$	
	(m)	(kPa)	(-)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(kPa)	(%)	
1	0.5	10	0.28	140	1500	0	461	-36.2	
2	1.0	20	0.28	140	1200	0	440	-32.7	
3	1.5	30	0.28	140	600	0	335	-28.6	
4	2.0	40	0.28	140	400	0	311	-25.0	
5	2.5	50	0.28	140	250	0	260	-20.8	
6	3.0	60	0.28	140	400	0	242	-18.0	

Table 4.8. Calculated swelling pressure and deformation for a basement constructed in swelling soil.



Net mean stress, p

Figure 4.1. Illustrative concept of the Swell Equilibrium Limit illustrating stress-volume paths for swelling at a basement wall application.



Figure 4.2. Schematic of SWCC illustrating SFG parameter definition including saturation suction, $s_{sa}\,(\text{Sheng at al. 2008})$



Net mean stress, p (kPa)

Figure 4.3. Schematic of isotropic compression, constant net mean stress and constant volume stress-volume paths: a) Suction-net mean stress plot and b) Specific volume- net mean stress plot.



Figure 4.4. Soil-water characteristic curve: a) BSB and other compacted bentonites (after Priyanto 2007) and b) Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.



Figure 4.5. Initial equilibrated and end-of-test suction for a) bentonite-sandbuffer (BSB, Siemens 2006) and b) Recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.



Figure 4.6. Typical SEL test result in a) 500 kPa constant mean stress (CMS); b) 500kPa constant volume (CV): net mean stress, volumetric strain, suction, and water added to specimen versus time (after Blatz and Siemens 2004).



Net mean stress, p (kPa)

Figure 4.7. Typical experimental and modelled paths for CMS 500 and CV 500 swelling test: a) Total suction versus net mean stress plot and b) Volumetric strain versus net mean stress plot



Figure 4.8. Comparison of SFG model and test data for BSB in volumetric strain versus net mean stress.



Figure 4.9. Comparison of BSB experiment data versus SFG model.



Figure 4.10. Suction-induced soil compressibility, λ_{vs} for BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and compacted bentonite MX-80 (after Marcial et al. 2002).



Figure 4.11. Comparison of SFG model and test data for triaxial swelling tests of recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.



Figure 4.12. Parametric analysis of SFG model input parameters and initial condition on the swelling pressure.



Figure 4.13. Parametric analysis of SFG model input parameters and initial condition on the swelling strain.



Figure 4.14. Schematic of a basement constructed in swelling ground.



Figure 4.15. SFG model required initial and final inputs of soil states and calculated results: a) Gravimetric water content (Thiessen 2010); b) Total suction; c) Calculated swelling-induced stresses; and d) Calculated swelling-induced deformation.



Figure 4.16. Envelope result on SFG model calculated swelling-induced stresses and deformations at each soil depth below ground.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Overview

In this chapter, the conclusions drawn from the research are presented. The research is aimed at better understanding of swelling soil behavior through Swell Equilibrium Limit framework with advanced testing and applying experimental data in a numerical analysis tool. The following presents the summary of the research work.

5.2 Conclusions from the Research

5.2.1 Objective 1

(test swelling behavior under free stress condition and extend the use of SEL framework down to low stress levels.)

A new test apparatus and methodology for measuring swelling deformation under a free stress condition is developed. Swelling soils achieve the highest swelling deformation when the soil is neither subjected any external confining stresses nor restraints on its boundary condition upon wetting. The methodology includes a non-contact measurement using digital image analysis where photographs of swelling specimen are taken progressively during wetting process in a humidity-controlled apparatus.

The image analysis is performed with GeoPIV software. The in-test results allow interpretation of primary and secondary swelling behavior as well as anisotropic swelling. The effect of varying aspect ratios (AR) of specimen is investigated and the influence is noted regarding the initial swelling rate and the time to achieve swelling equilibrium with the environment. The endof-test caliper measurement is in general agreement with the deformation obtained from digital image correlation. The unconfined swelling test result extends the use of SEL framework down to low stress levels.

5.2.2 Objective 2

(a unifying framework to characterize swelling soils and model swelling behavior in SEL context)

The SEL concept provides a unifying framework to understand and model swelling soil behavior. It allows for a calculation of an upper bound swelling limit depending on the initial state of the soil and the stress-volume paths following wetting. The SEL curve is obtained from two advanced test methods, namely, triaxial swelling test and unconfined swelling test that encompasses a comprehensive scenario of swelling behavior from rigid boundary condition to free swelling without confinement. Two additional recompacted clayey soils were tested for their SEL interpretation, namely, the recompacted Bearpaw clay and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

A catalogue of expansive soils is established with four soil materials, namely, bentonite-sand-buffer, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale. The index properties and initial state of the tested soils correlates well with the swelling potential in a SEL context. The swelling potential in decreasing sequence is BSB, recompacted Lake Agassiz clay, recompacted Bearpaw clay and natural Bearpaw shale. The influence of soil history and soil structure is more dominant on the SEL of Bearpaw shale.

The fitting parameters, A and B from SEL plot (V=A+ B*In p) are correlated with the index properties and initial state of the soils. The developed correlation allowed for a SEL of an expansive soil, namely, Regina clay to be calculated and the calculation agrees well with published data. The unifying SEL framework is capable of characterizing expansive soil behavior in terms of swelling-induced stress and swelling deformation.

5.2.3 Objective 3

(applying experimental data in an unsaturated numerical analysis tool to model swelling soil behavior)

The swelling-induced stresses and swelling deformation given by the SEL curve are important inputs in expansive soils design. The SFG constitutive model is developed from unsaturated soil mechanics theory and it requires two additional input parameters. The two additional input parameters required in SFG model are soil compressibility for swelling and saturation

suction (s_{sa}). Other input for the model is the initial state of the soil. The model input parameters are optimized by refinement until the model results match with the experiments. With the optimized model inputs, the SFG model is applied successfully to two expansive clayey soils, namely BSB and recompacted Lake Agassiz clay.

A parametric analysis is performed to examine the sensitivity of the model output to the input parameters. The dominant factor for swelling deformation is soil compressibility but the more influential input in calculating swelling-induced stresses is saturation suction. The simplicity of SFG model has made it an attractive tool for modelling in unsaturated swelling soil behavior.

5.3 Impact of Research

This research work has achieved the objectives set out for the program. Advanced testing apparatus and methodology development allows for more complex swelling soil behavior to be simulated in a laboratory set-up. The varying degree of boundary conditions from free swelling of constant mean stress to confined swelling of constant volume has been successfully simulated in a modified triaxial apparatus. In addition to the capability of stress-volume path control, the new modification allows for relative humidity measurement in the soil specimen. Relative humidity can be correlated to total suction and measurement of the degree of saturation.

A total free stress swelling test methodology is developed successfully to represent an unconfined swelling boundary condition. Non-contact measurement through digital image correlation has been applied to calculate swelling deformation of soil specimen. Unconfined swelling test allows for a SEL curve to be interpreted at low stress level.

The characterization of swelling behavior is successfully interpreted in SEL context. A catalogue of expansive soils which consists of two natural recompacted soils (recompacted Lake Agassiz clay and Bearpaw clay), one natural shale (Bearpaw shale) and one engineered buffer (BSB) is established. The SEL curve of expansive soils is correlated to the soil initial condition and index property. With the established correlation, the SEL of an expansive soil namely, Regina clay could be calculated.

SFG model that requires two input parameters is applied successfully to model experimental data from SEL swelling test. The model calculation

and test measurement of swelling-induced stresses and deformation agrees well in comparison.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Work

During the course of the research program, the challenges faced have intrigued some different considerations or emphasis in solving the research questions. The following are some recommendations for future works:

- Install an automated wetting mechanism such as sprinkle device in the unconfined swelling test apparatus. The automated sprinkle system would reduce the required manual work of water spraying. Continuous supply of water access would help prevent unintended wetting-drying cycles.
- Further explore the characteristics of the SEL framework with the variability in testing condition:
 - a. Vary stress-volume paths from direct constant mean stress or constant volume in order to examine if SEL curve is stress-volume path dependent (Liu et al. 2014).
 - b. Vary targeted initial dry density to 95% of wet or dry side of optimum condition of a Proctor curve (Puppala et al. 2013) to investigate the effect on swelling potential.
 - c. Vary initial water content at a constant dry density (Komine and Ogata 1994) to study the effect on SEL curve.
 - d. Apply mean stress that exceeds soil swelling pressure as to extend the use of SEL framework in collapsible behavior.
- Perform shear strength tests following triaxial swelling test to examine the effect of swelling boundary condition on the shear strength of post-triaxial swelling specimen. Yield stress and critical state analysis could be employed to have a better understanding of post-SEL strength behavior.
- Perform SEL tests on different type of expansive soils to increase the size of the SEL database.
- Model collapse behavior of swelling soils using the developed numerical tool.
- Formulate SFG model in a finite element method or finite difference package and model soil-environment interactions.

5.5 References

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APPENDIX

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APPENDIX A - SUMMARY TABLE FOR TRIAXIAL SWELLING TEST

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APPENDIX B - SUMMARY TABLE FOR UNCONFINED SWELLING TEST

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AG XORDECUP	D €Ť	SIEF	FIEG	ÍFÍG	đĤ	G€ÍÎ	II€II	΀Ĥ	HFI	GI€H	JELLI	FÊ	FÉI	Ř€ĤÍ	FŤÎ	€ÊIG	Ř€Ĥ	G€ŤĂ	ÎÎĤĂ	LÎÊĂ	€ĤÏ	GÆ€	FRG	ÎLÊÂ	JGËÃ	FÌÆÃ	11 EA	ÎJÊĂ
GIXOËÓG	€ÈGÍ	ŠÈE	FĒG	ÍFÈG	FGÈ	G€ÍJ	GÌHÍI	ÍJĒ	FÎĖ	GJ€	11111	FÈH	FĚ€	Ë€ÈH	FÉ€	€ÈH	ËEËÌ	G€ÈÃ	ÎGÊÂ	IGÈGÃ	€ÈG	FÈJ	FÈGÎ	ΪΪ̈́ÐÃ	ÌÏÈEÃ	JÈÃ	ÎGĚĂ	ÏHÈGÃ
GIXOEDI	€ÈÍ	ŚĖE	FĒG	ÍFÉ	ĨĚ	G€ÍF	FÍJJÍ	TIÈ	FFE	GĨJ	GUIT	FÉI	FÉÎ	Ë€ÈÌ	FÉF	€ĒJ	Ë€ËG	G€ÉĂ	ÎHELĂ	IGÉĂ	€ËF	GÈEJ	FÉI	Ì€⊞Ã	ÌHĐÃ	HÉĂ	Í€ÈEÃ	̀ȀÃ
GIXOBÓ	€ÈÍ	ŠĖE	FĒG	ÍFÉ	ΪĐ	G€ÍF	FÎ G€G	ÍJĒ	FFÉ	GÏJ€	H€JÎÏ	FĚI	FÉÍ	Ë€ÈÌ	FĚÏ	€ĒH	Ë€ËI	FÎĔĂ	ĪIĖĀ	ÌÌÈÉĂ	€ËÎ	GÈHG	FĚÏ	ÎFÈ€Ã	ÌÌÈÂ	GĖĀ	ÎHÈGĂ	ÌJĖĘÃ
EÁ^• oÁ	^∙^}@^åŧÅ/	V}8{}-ā)^å	Á,^∥ð)*Á,æ]	^¦AQŠa[Aee)a	åÂĴæî{^}∙Á	Ĵ€FHD																					1	
A4∧• 04).	^∙^}@^åÅajÅT	~ (cā) (^ÂÜÒ	Ś•Ajæ}^¦AQO	@ee)c^¦ÁHĐãà∣ã	ĮÅo@•ãÃO€	FID																						

APPENDIX C - TRIAXIAL SWELLING TEST RESULT FOR RECOMPACTED BEARPAW CLAY











APPENDIX D - FITTING PARAMETERS A AND B (V=A+B LN P) CORRELATION

| | - | |
 | | | | | |
 | | | | | | V=A-
 | +Binp | | | | |
 | | |
 | | |
|-----------|---|--
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---|--|--------------|---------|--|--|--
---	--	--------------------	---	---
--	--	--	---------------------------	----------
	EMOD EMOD orilionit clay e content, conten Soil Type fc I, Im fc.fm d			
 | | | | | |
 | - | SEL \ | /-P plot | 1 | _ |
 | | Eq.c | f V-P | Eq of Pequil | vs EMDD |
 | | |
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| | Clay e
content, conten
Soil Type fc t, fm fc.fm d | |
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 | | | | | |
 | | | | | | 1
 | | |
 | | |
| | Soil Ture | iA. | content,
 | conten | fc fm | fc.fm.γ | Gr | initial |
 | PI | PI | PL/LL | PI/I I | A=PI/% | LI=(wn
 | - Vo | Intersect | Slope of | Slope (P- | FYP | 1
 | | |
 | | |
| | сон тур | - | %
 | % | | | 0.5 | 9/. | 0/.
 | % | | . ULL | | ondy | . : : : : : : :
: : : : : : : : : : : : | average | Δ | (v-1-)
R | C. | D |
 | | |
 | + | |
| | 1 | Beerrow | 70
 | 70 | 0.001 | 0.00 | 0.77 | /0 | /0
 | 10 | - | | | |
 | average | | 0.04551 | 1.0510.5.1 | |
 | | |
 | + | |
| soils | Recomp. | Bearpaw
acted | 39
 | 72 | 0.281 | 0.421 | 2.75 | 30.0 | 145
 | 23 | 122 | 0.159 | 0.841 | 3.13 | 0.06
 | 1.833 | 2.102 | -0.04628 | 1.2540.E-10 | 31.45 |
 | | |
 | + | |
| sted : | Bearpaw | V | 39
 | 72 | 0.281 | 0.408 | 2.75 | 30.0 | 67
 | 26 | 41 | 0.385 | 0.615 | 1.05 | 0.11
 | 1.894 | 2.596 | -0.1265 | 0.0001565 | 11.73 |
 | | | +
 | + | |
| Te | ² Bentoni | ite Sand | 75
 | 30 | 0.225 | 0.357 | 2.76 | 20.0 | 85
 | 34 | 51 | 0.398 | 0.602 | 0.68 | -0.27
 | 1.742 | 2.691 | -0.1406 | 0.0004966 | 12.27 |
 | | |
 | + | |
| be' | Buffer | | 50
 | 90 | U.450 | 0.753 | 2.70 | 19.4 | 265
 | 21 | 244 | 0.079 | 0.921 | 4.88 | -0.01
 | 1.615 | 3.023 | -0.2138 | 0.0076090 | 4.56 |
 | | |
 | + | |
| Soil to | Regina | fredlund | 61
 | 77 | 0.303 | 0.302 | 2.02 | | 70
 | 26 | 50 | 0.344 | 0.650 | 0.07 |
 | 2 829 | | | | |
 | | |
 | | |
| | Hunter E | Expressway | 01
 | 27 | 0.393 | 0.392 | 2.83
2.56 | _28.0 | /6
 | 26 | 50 | 0.344 | 0.056 | 0.97 |
 | 2.838 | | | | |
 | | |
 | + | _ |
| Г | | |
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 | | | | | | Г
 | | 1 | | | |
 | | |
 | T, | 1 |
| | 3.20 | A (1 | V=A+Bln
 | p) vs fo | | | | L | 3 20
 | A (V: | =A+Blnp |) vs Vo | | |
 | 3 20 - | A (V=4 | +Binp) vs | ; LL | _ |
 | | A (V=A+Binp) | vs LI 'A' not
 | | |
| | 3.20 | y = -9 | 9E-05x + 2
 | .7749 | 3 022 | | | | 3.20
 | 3 022 | | | | |
 | 3.20 | v = (| 0.002x + 2.4 | 89 | 3.023 |
 | 0.0112~ | + 2 7706 | relation in
 | ן ן | |
| | 3.00 | | st-0
 | ` | | | | H | 3.00 H
 | | | | | |
 | 3.00 | F | l ² = 0.9831 | | 11 | -y =
 | R ² = 1E | -04 3.00 | 3.023
 | 1 | <u> </u> |
| | 2.80 | |
 | | | 6 | 2.691 | | 2.80
 | | 0 2.6 | 91. | | |
 | 2.80 | .0 | 2.691 | | | 6
 | 2.691 | 2.80 | |
 | 1 | |
| \square | ₹ 2.60 | 1 |
 | O 2.59 | 6 | | ╕┝ | | 2.60
 | y = -3 | 1.4978x + | 5.3911 | 0 2.596 | \neg | $\left -
\right $ | ₹ 2.60 | Ø 2. | 596 | | 1 H | ×
 | | 2.60 | ◎ 2:596
 | 1 | \vdash |
| | 2.40 | |
 | | | | 11 | | 2.40
 | | R ² = 0.87 | 41 | | - |
 | 2.40 | | | | |
 | 2.40 | |
 | | |
| - | 2.20 | |
 | 0 2.10 | 2 | | ┥┝ | - | 2.20
 | | | 0.11 | 102 | - |
 | 2.20 | | 0 2. | 102 | |
 | | 2.20 | 0 2.102
 | 1 | |
| | 2.00 | 0 20 | 1
 | 40 | 60 | | 80 | | 2.00
 | 0 1 | n - | - 2.1
800 | 1 900 | 2 000 |
 | 2.00
0 | 1 | 00 | 200 | 300 | -0.30
 | -0.20 | -0.10 0 | .00 0.10 0
 | 0.20 | |
| \square | | 20 |
 | fc | 50 | | | H | 1.60
 | - 1.70
Init | tial specif | ic volume | 2.500
2, Vo | 2.000 | $\left \right
$ | | | ш | | | -0.30 -0.20
 | | u |
 | | |
| | 1 | | n ()
 | . · | | | | | 1
 | | | | | |
 | | | | | |
 | | | (Direc)
 | Ц | |
| | 0.00 | Siope | ⊳(v=A+
 | oinb) v | S TC | | _ [| Π | 0.00
 | slope B | (V=A+B | inp) vs \ | vo | _ |
 | 0.00 | siope B (\ | /=A+Binp) | VSLL | _ [| B' not good Stope b (V=A+binp) VS Li
relation in Li.
 | | |
 | | |
| | | ¢ 20 |)
 | 40 | 60 | | 80 | H | 1.60
 | 00 1.70 | 00 1. | 800 | 1.900 | 2.000 |
 | 0 | 1 | .00 | 200 | 300 | -0.30
 | -0.20 | -0.10 0. | 00 0.10 0
 | 20 | |
| H | -0.05 | |
 | O -0.04 | 1628 | | ++ | Η | -0.05
 | | | O -0. | .04628 | - | $\left -
\right $ | -0.05 | | 0-0 | 0.04628 | | -
 | | -0.05 0 -0.04628 | | | |
 | | |
| H | 0.10 | |
 | Ħ | | | | |
 | | | .0.10 | | |
 | | | | -0.10 | |
 | | |
 | | |
| | -0.10 | y= | R ² = 0.00
 | 0.17
49
📀 -0.13 | 265 | | 16 | | -0.10
 | y = 0 | .3051x - 0
R ² = 0.829 | 0.6942
98 | 6 -0 1 2 | 5 |
 | -0.10 | 0 -0 | .1265 | | | 8
 | у : | -0.10
= -0.0175x - 0.161 | 8 👩 -0 126
 | | |
| Ц | -0.15 | |
 | | | G | .1406 | H | -0.15
 | | 0 -0.: | 1405 | -0.12t | |
 | -0.15 | 0 | -0.1406 | | | 0
 | -0.1406 | R ^e = 0.0052
-0.15 | | | |
 | | |
| H | | |
 | | | | | Η |
 | / | / | | | | $\left -
\right $ | | | | | |
 | | | |
 | | |
| | -0.20 | |
 | (| 0.213 | 38 | 1 t | | -0.20
 | 3 -0.2138 | | | | |
 | -0.20 | y = -0.0 | 004x - 0.103 | 12 8-0 | 0.2138 |
 | | -0.20 | -0.2138
 | 1 | |
| Ц | -0.25 | |
 | fr | | | | L | -0.25
 | | | | | | \square
 | -0.25 | n" | 0.9994 | | |
 | | -0.25
PL/LI |
 | IJ | |
| | -0.25 fc | |
 | | | | | ┝└ |
 | Init | tial specif | ic volume | e, Vo | | \vdash
 | | 1 | | | | 1
 | | PUL |
 | | |
| - | | intersec | t A (V=A
 | +Binp) | vs fm | | - | | 1
 | ntersect | A (V=A- | Binp) v | sγd | |
 | | lareast + · | V-A D | a) ve Pi | | intersect A (V=A+Bino) vc PI/II
 | | | |
 | | |
| | 3.10 | |
 | | | 0 | 3.023 | Ľ | 3.10
 | | | .,,,, | •- | |
 | int
3.10 | ersect A | v=A+Binp | n vs PL | , E | 3.10
 | Intersect A (V=A+Binp) vs Pi/LL | |
 | | |
| | 2.90 | | y = 0.004
R ² =
 | 2x + 2.50
0.3251 | 43 | - | _ | Ц | 2.90
 | | y = 1.8707x - 0.1663 ³ 3.023
R ² = 0.8244 | | | | | 2 00
 | | 0 3 | 3.023 | |
 | | Ø 3.023 |
 | | |
| H | 2.70 | | 0 7 FOL
 | _ | _ | - | ╷┝ | Н |
 | | R ² = 0.8244 | | | | $\left \right $
 | 2.90 | $\frac{190}{y = -0.0218x + 3.3539}$ | | | | 2.90
 | | | 9115
 | | |
| Η | | | - c.09F
 | | <mark>0</mark> 2 | .596 | | H | 2.70
 | <u>0</u> 2 | 596 | <mark>0</mark> 2 | .691 | | \vdash
 | 2.70 Y | R ² = 0.3 | + 3.3539
914 | Ø 2 506 | 591 | 2.7
 | · | 2:691
2 2 596 | R ² = 0.9393
 | | |
| | < 2.50 | |
 | | | | 1 L | | 2.50
 | <mark>0</mark> .2:596 | | | | |
 | 4 2.50 | 0 | | | |
 | | |
 | [| |
| | 2.30 | |
 | | | | + F | H | 2.30
 | | | | | - | \square
 | 2.30 | 30 | | | | 2.30
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 | [|] |
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 | | 0 2 | .102 | | Η | 2.10
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\right $ | 2 10 | 10 0 2.102 | | | | 2 1
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| \vdash | | |
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 | | | , | - | | 1 00
 | 400 1.450 1.500 1.550 1.600 1.650 1.700 | | | | |
 | 1.90 | | 20 | 30 | 40 | 1.9
 | 0.500 0 | 0.600 0.700 0.800 0.900 1.000
PI/LL |
 | | |
| | 1.90 | 0 20 | 40
 | 60
fm | 1 | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 +
1.40
 | 0 1.450 | 1.500 1. | 550 1.60 | 0 1.650 | 1.700 |
 | 0 | 0 10 20 30
PL | | | | PI/LL
 | | |
 | 000 | |
| | 1.90 | 0 20 | 40
 | 60
fm | 4 | BO | 100 | | 1.90 +
1.40
 | 0 1.450 : | 1.500 1.
Dryd | 550 1.60
lensity | 0 1.650 | 1.700 |
 | 0 | 10 | PL | | |
 | | 0.600 0.700
PI/L | L
 | 000 | |
| | 1.90 | 0 20 | 40
B (V=A+
 | fm
Binp) vs | s fm | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 + 1.40
 | 0 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d | 550 1.60
lensity | 0 1.650 | 1.700 |
 | 0 | 10 | PL | | | I
 | | 0.600 0.700
PI/L |
 | 200 | |
| | 0.00 | 0 20 | 40
B (V=A+
 | fm
Binp) vs | s fm | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 +
1.40
 | 0 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B | 550 1.60
lensity
lnp) vs | ο 1.650
γd | 1.700 |
 | 0
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lope B (V | PL
=A+Binp) | vs PL | | 0.0
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PI/L
B (V=A+Binp | L
) vs PI/LL
 | 000 | |
| | 0.00 | 0 20
Slope I | 40
B (V=A+
 | fm
Binp) vs | s fm | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 +
1.40
 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
00 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B
1.500 1. | 550 1.60
lensity
linp) vs | yd
1.650
γd
00 1.650 | 1.700 |
 | 0
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0 | 10
slope B (V
10 | PL
=A+Binp)
20 | vs PL
30 | 40 | 0.0
 | slop
0
0.500 | PI/L
PI/L
PB (V=A+BInp
0.600 0.700 | L
) vs PI/LL
 | 200 | |
| | 0.00 | 0 20
Slope I | 40
B (V=A+1
40
 | fm
Binp) vs | s fm | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 +
1.40
0.00 -
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 | 0 1.450
slope B
00 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
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1.500 1.
O -0.0 | 550 1.60
lensity
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4628 | ο 1.650
γd | 1.700 |
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ilope B (V | PL
=A+BInp)
20 | vs PL
30
-0.04628 | 40 | 0.0
 | slop
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PI/L
e B (V=A+BInp
0.600 0.700 |) vs PI/LL
0.800 0.900 1.1
 | | |
| | 1.90
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Slope I | 40
B (V=A+I
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fm
Binp) vs | s fm | 80 | 100 | | 1.90 +
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slope B (V | PL
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 | slop
0.500 | e B (V=A+Binp | L
) vs PI/LL
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O -0.04628
y = -0.2553x + 0.021
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Slope I | 40
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Blnp) vs
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(V=A+B
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 | slop
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) vs PI/LL
O -0.04628
y = -0.2553x + 0.021
R ² = 0.9655
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Slope I | 40
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dope B (V
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y = -0.2553x + 0.022
R ³ = 0.9655
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Dry d
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y=-0.3 | 550 1.60
lensity
linp) vs
550 1.60
4628
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79x + 0.43 | yd
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lope B (V
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R ² = 0.0 | PL
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♀ -0.1265 | L
) vs Pl/LL
0.800 0.900 1.0
O -0.04628
y = -0.2553x + 0.021
R ² = 0.9655
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0.800 0.900 1.1
0.0.04628
y = -0.2553x + 0.021
R ³ = 0.9655 | 77 | |
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B (V=A+1
40
0 -0.144
y = -0.000
R ² =
 | 600 fm | s fm
0 - | 80
.0.04628
0.1265 | 100 | | 1.90 - 1.40
0.00 - 1.40
-0.050.100.150.200.250.25
 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
)0 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B
1.500 1.
Ο -0.0
3.1265
Y = -0.3:
R ² = | 550 1.60
lensity
550 1.60
4628
9x + 0.43
9x + 0.43
9 0.7744 | yd
0.1406 | 1.700 |
 | 0
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0.010
0.10
0.015
0.020
0.020
0.020 | 10
slope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0. | PL
=A+BInp)
20
C | vs PL
30
0.0.04628
● -0.1265
● -0.
0.2138 | 40 | 0.0
-0.0
-0.1
-0.1
-0.2
-0.2
 | slop
0.500
5
5
0
5 | e B (V=A+Blnp
0.600 0.700
0.1265
0.1406 | L
) vs Pl/LL
0.800 0.900 1.1
C -0.04628
y = -0.2553x + 0.021
R ³ = 0.9655
O -0.2
 | 77 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0.00
-0.05
-0.10
•0.15
-0.20
-0.25 | 0 20 | 40
B (V=A+
40
© -0.344
y = -0.000
R ² = | 600
fm
Blnp) vs
60
80
99x - 0.05
99x - 0.05
99x - 0.05
99x - 0.05
99x - 0.05
99x - 0.05
90x - 0.05 | s fm
0 -
0 - | 80
.0.04628
0.1265 | | | 1.90 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
00 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B
1.500 1.
0 -0.0
3.1265
y = -0.3 ²
R ² =
Dry c | 550 1.60
lensity
inp) vs
550 1.60
4628
0 -
79x + 0.43
= 0.7744 | yd
0 1.650
γd
0 1.650
0.1406
0.1406 | 1.700 | | 0
0.00
0.05
-0.10
-0.15
-0.20
-0.25 | 10
ilope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0.0 | PL
=A+BInp)
20
C
-0.2916
4531
0
PL | vs PL
30
0 -0.04628 | 40 | 0.0
-0.0
-0.1
-0.2
-0.2 | slop
0.500
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5 | Comparison of the second | L
) vs Pl/LL
0.800 0.900 1.0
0 -0.04628
y = 0.2553x + 0.022
R ³ = 0.9655
S -0.2
L | 77 | |
| | 0.00
-0.05
-0.10
-0.15
-0.20
-0.25 | slope l | 40
40
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40
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • | 60
fm
Blnp) v:
60
 | • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • | 80
80
0.04628
0.1265 | | | 1.90 + 1.40
0.00 - 1.40
-0.050.100.150.200.250.2 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
10 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B
1.500 1.
0 -0.0
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0 -0.0
0 2.1265
Y = -0.3 ²
R ² =
Dry c | 550 1.60
ensity
inp) vs 1
550 1.60
4628
0 -1
79x + 0.43
0.774
density | yd
0 1.650
γd
0.1406
0.1406 | 1.700 | | 0
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ilope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0.0 | PL
=A+Binp)
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C | vs PL
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0 -0.04628 | 40 | 0.0
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-0.2 | slop
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5 | Comparison (Comparison (| L
U vs PI/LL
0.800 0.900 1J
0 -0.04528
V = -0.2553 + 0.027
R ² = 0.9655
L
L | 77 | |
| | 0.00
-0.05
-0.10
-0.15
-0.20
-0.25 | 0 20
Slope I | 40
B (V=A+i
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○ -0:24i
y = -0.000
R ² +
 | 60
fm
Blnp) v:
60
98-0.05
9.3849
fm
Blnp) v: | • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • | 80 | | |
 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
00 1.450 | 1.500 1.
Dry d
(V=A+B
1.500 1.
0 -0.0
3.1265
y = -0.3:
R ² :
Dry d | 550 1.600
inp) vs 9
550 1.602
550 1.602
4628
0 -1
0.7744
4ensity | yd
00 1.650
00 1.650
0.1406 | 1.700 |
 | 0
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0 | 10
ilope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0.0 | PL
=A+BInp)
20
C
C
5531
C
PL
(V=A+BIn] | vs PL
30
→ 0.04628
→ 0.04628
→ 0.04628
→ 0.02138
→ 0.02138
→ 0.02138 | 40 | 0.0
-0.0
-0.1
-0.1
-0.2
-0.2
-0.2
 | slop
0.500
5
5
5
5
5
5
6
0
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5
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7
8 | e B (V=A+Binp) v
(V=A+Binp) v | L
U vs PI/LL
0.800 0.900 1J
0.004628
R ¹ = 0.9655
R ² = 0.9555
0 -0.2
L
L
 | 77 | |
| | 0.00
-0.05
-0.10
-0.15
-0.20
-0.25 | 0 20
Slope I
0 20
1 1
1 1
1 1
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1 1
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1 1
1 | 40
6 (V=A+1
40
0 -0.244
y = -0.000
R ² +
y = -0.000
R ² +
y = -0.000
R ² +
y = -0.000
R ² + | 60
fm
Blnp) v:
60
0.3849
fm
Blnp) v:
197x + 2
197x + 2
8 = 0.807 | • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • | 80
80
0.04628
0.1265 | | | 1.90 - 1.40
0.00 1.40
-0.050.150.250.150.25 | 0 1.450 :
slope B
10 1.450
00 1. | 1.500 1. Dry d (V=A+B (V=A+B -0.0 3.1265 -0.0 y = -0.3 ² -0.0 | 550 1.60
ensity
inp) vs :
550 1.60
4628
0 -
79x + 0.43
0 -
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ilope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0.0
tersect A
y = 0.1
y = 0.0 | PL
=A+Binp)
20
C
4531
PL
(V=A+Bin)
0019x + 2.53
a ² = 0.9716 | ys PL
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→ 0.04628
→ 0.04628
→ 0.04628
→ 0.02138
→ 0.02138 | 40 | 0.0
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0 | e 8 (V=A+Binp) v
(V=A+Binp) v
0,000 0.700
0,000 0.700
0,000 0.700 | L
) vs Pl/LL
0 .00628
V = 0.2553x + 0.022
R ² = 0.9655
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L
PPL/LL | 2000
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| | 1.90
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6 (V=A+1
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33Inp) v:
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ilope B (V
10
y = 0.0049x
R ² = 0.0
tersect A
y = 0.0 | PL
=A+Binp)
20
C
4531
PL
(V=A+Bin)
0019x + 2.51
2 = 0.9715 | 30
30
0 -0.04628
0 -0.1265
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0 -0.9 × PI
338 ● 3.02 | | 0.0
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 | slop
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8 | e 8 (V=A+Binp) v
e 3,023 | L
) vs Pl/LL
0.00628
V = 0.2553x + 0.022
R ² = 0.3655
0.04628
L
P = 0.2553x + 0.022
R ² = 0.3655
 | 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1.90
0.00
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Slope I
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interset <i>i</i> | 40
B (V=A+
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O -0.24
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O -0.24
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P = 1.1
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P = 1.1
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R | 60
fm
33Inp) v:
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39x - 0.05
39x - 0.05
39x - 0.05
39x - 0.05
39x - 0.05
197x + 2
197x + | © - 0 | 80
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0.00 - 1.40
-0.050.100.100.150.200.25 | 0 1.450 1 45 | 1.500 1. Dry d (V=A+B 1.500 1. 0 -0.0 0.1265 y = -0.3 ² R ² = Dry d | 550 1.600 1. | yd | 1.700 | | 0
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J vs PI/LL
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V = 0.2553x + 0.021
R ² = 0.9655
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J vs Pl/LL
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R ³ = 0.9655
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R ² = 0.9655
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APPENDIX E - PHOTOGRAPH AND DRAWING FOR TRIAXIAL SWELLING TEST



General set-up of triaxial swelling test in the laboratory.



Triaxial specimen wrapped with a layer of filter paper and a layer of non-woven geotextile.



Triaxial specimen following installation in the modified apparatus.



Screenshot of data acquisition and software control at triaxial swelling test.



2" diameter hydraulic compaction tool for specimen tested in unconfined swelling test and triaxial swelling test.



Preparation tools for mixing and compacting triaxial swelling test specimen.



Detail drawing for modified triaxial apparatus (Cell#2).



Modification at triaxial pedestal for suction measurement location.

APPENDIX F - PHOTOGRAPH FOR UNCONFINED SWELLING TEST



General set-up of unconfined swelling test in laboratory.



Relative humidity measuring probe (Rotronic HygroClip HC2-S) used in unconfined swelling test.



Cutting and measuring tools used in unconfined swelling test.



Installation of unconfined swelling test specimen and image markers.

APPENDIX G - MEASURING INSTRUMENTS CALIBRATION SHEET

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displacement (mm)												•				displac	ement (mm)		
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											Voltage (V)			
										•	Cell #2 —— Linear (C	ell #2)		
														}



APPENDIX H - LABORATORY RECORD FOR ATTERBERG LIMITS, MODIFIED PROCTOR AND GRAIN SIZE DISTRIBUTION

Project:	Lake Aga	assiz (Wi	innines) Clav I	Aodifie	d Procto	r												Date:	05/02/2013
Title:	OMC for		av	s/ ciuy_i	loune														Dute.	03/02/2013
hu:	blim	L.Ag Ci	ay																	
Dy.	DIIII																			
Moisture Content Deter	mination		·		·						·									L
		1	1	:	2	3	3	4		5	5			Modifi	ed Procto	rl	Δσ (\\/i	nind	ag) clav	,
Specimen ID						L. Agassiz (Winnipeg)	Clay						Would	currotto	·	-6 (•••		-g/ ciuy	
Date put in oven		e					07-F	eb-13					2.00 -							
Date take out from oven		tu					08-F	Feb-13							N .					
Oven temperature	oC	ois	Ē				105								N.					
Tare ID	-	E 2	Ē	12	6	25	100	14	61	18	75				```	Zer	ro air void 10% saturat	ion)		
Tare mass	σ	ake	5	4.67	8 07	8 11	8 23	4 75	7.89	7 95	4 72		1.75 -	— Maximu	m	<u> </u>	/			
Tare + Moist soil	σ	t p	2 7 7	33 35	36.21	25 51	21 11	18 13	25.84	30.18	35.02	6		dry unit	weight,),	k			
Tare + Dry soil	σ	et	Ē	25 35	28.34	23.31	19 34	16.03	22.6	25 11	28.36	<u>۲</u>		$\gamma_{dmax} = 1.$	61 Mg/m ³	<u>_</u>	\mathbf{i}			
Moisture content (m.c.)	%		#DIV/0	38.7%	38.8%	13.7%	15.9%	18.6%	22.0%	29.5%	28.2%	ž			ø		$\langle \cdot \rangle$			
	70 0/		10	30.770	00.070	13.770	13.570	10.070	22.070	23.370	0	<u>ح</u>	1.50 -		_/	<u> </u>				
Targeted moisture content	%	20	0	4	0	14	5	20.	. <u>.</u>)	3	0	nsi			/			Υ.		
	/-				-	_	-				-	De			•	-	```	\ `,		
												Σ				-		\mathbf{i}	`\	
· · · · · ·																-				_
Compacted Density Niea	surement			1	_		_			_		-	1.25 -			+		/		
-		1	1		2		3	4		5	5					i			\backslash	_
Mold #		5	5	!	5	7	7	7	'	7	'					Opti	imum		8	
Mold + base	g	444	17.7	444	19.6	440)5.7	440	5.5	440	5.6					wate	er content,		×.	
Mold + base + Compacted													1.00 -			- wc ^{or}	_{pt} -20%		`	
SOIL	g	626	58.8	58	98	61	15	624	1.6	622	8.6		()	10	20	30		40	50 -
Compacted volume	cm3	94	44	94	44	94	14	94	4	94	14									
Measured bulk density	Mg/m3	1.9	291	1.5	343	1.8	107	1.94	150	1.93	311				Moi	sture	Content	(%)		
Measured dry density	Mg/m3	1.6	076	1.1	058	1.5	774	1.61	65	1.49	986		-	_	1		1		1	
((7																	
(for plot)	Dec		Zero air	Void, Sr =1																
Content (%)	Density			Density																
Content (70)	(Mg/m3)			(Mg/m3)																
	(8,)		е	(8,)																
38.8	1.106		1.070	1.334																
14.8	1.577		0.408	1.960									1	1						
20.3	1.617		0.561	1.768									1							
28.9	1.499	1	0.797	1.536																

Project:	PhD Resear	rch Bearp	aw Shale	Swelly Be	naviour															
Title:	Modified P	roctor Co	mpaction	Test on Be	earpaw S	Shale - ID18	9 (ASTMD	1557-09)												
Date:	17-Oct-11		•				`	,												
Moisture Content Determin	ation																			
		:	1	2		3		4		5										
		Bearnay	v RM06-	Bearpaw	RM06-			Bearnaw	RM06-											
Specimen ID		18	39	18	9	Bearpaw R	M06-189	189		Bearpaw Ri	M06-189									
Date put in oven		14-0	ct-11	14-Oc	t-11	17-00	t-11	17-Oct	-11	18-Oct	t-11									
Date take out from oven		17-0	ct-11	17-Oc	t-11	18-00	t-11	18-Oct	-11	19-Oct	t-11	_			Modified F	Proct	tor_ID1	.89		
Oven temperature	oC	10)5	10	5	10	5	105		105	5						_			
Tare ID	-	12	23	57	85	2	19	85	57	12	23			2.00 ⊤	Maximum					
Tare mass	g	4.66	8.11	8.15	8.01	8.53	4.67	8	8.14	4.66	8.11				dry unit weight					
Tare + Moist soil	g	29.06	32.02	32.29	39.48	31.03	28.62	42.11	40.39	39.53	39.92				$v_{.} = 1.74 \text{Mg/m}^3$	3				
Tare + Dry soil	g	24.59	27.43	27.57	33.08	29.73	26.58	37.62	36.18	35.61	36.34			1.75	/dmax 1.7 mg/m	$ \rightarrow $				
Moisture content (m.c.)	%	22.4%	23.8%	24.3%	25.5%	6.1%	9.3%	15.2%	15.0%	12.7%	12.7%		n3)	1.75						
Average m.c.	%	23	.09	24.9	92	7.7	2	15.0	9	12.6	57		lg/r			i				
Targeted moisture content	%	2	5	30)	10)	15		12			2	1 50						
													nsit	1.50		i				
													De			1				
													Ρų							
Compacted Density Measur	ement													1.25		1				
																	ptimum ator contor	+		
Mold + base	g	434	7.6	4347	7.6	434	5.7	4346	.7	4346	5.9					I	ater conten	π,		
Mold + base + Compacted														1.00 🕂	1		Copt=13/0		1	
soil	g	623	31.9	6211	L.4	609	7.7	6241	.6	6206	5.2			C	10		20		30	
Compacted volume	cm3	94	14	94	4	94	4	944		944	1									
Measured bulk density	Mg/m3	1.9	961	1.97	44	1.85	49	2.007	73	1.969	96				I	Moistur	e Content (9	6)		
Measured dry density	Mg/m3	1.6	216	1.58	05	1.72	19	1.744	2	1.748	81	L								
(for plot)																				
Compacted Moisture	Dry																			
Content (%)	Density																			
	(Mg/m3)																			
23.09	1.6216																			
24.92	1.5805																			
7.72	1.7219																			
15.09	1.7442																			
12.67	1.7481																			

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O [°] K	àlặ															┥───	
Specimen ID :	Lake A	gassiz															
Initial density :	1.62	2 Mg/m3															
Initial water content :	20) %															
Date put in oven :	27/05,	/2013 12:30				Oven tempe	erature :	105	oC								
Date removed from oven :	28/05/	/2013 12:30				Oven tempe	erature :	105	oC		-						
											-						
												95%					
Liquid Limit Test		1		1								90%					
Test No.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		(%)						
Tare ID		91	78	70	62	15	53	19	68		, wc	85%		•			
Tare mass	g	7.97	4.65	8.13	4.72	8.15	7.98	4.68	8.08		ntent	80%					
Tare + Moist soil	g	13.12	11.38	16.01	13.42	16.28	16.37	13	17		er co						
Tare + Dry soil	g	10.96	8.46	12.51	9.46	12.53	12.49	8.91	12.53		Wat	75%			y = -0.085ln(x) + 1.120	3	
Moist soil	g	5.15	6.73	7.88	8.7	8.13	8.39	8.11	8.59			700/			R ² = 0.9908		
Dry soil	g	2.99	3.81	4.38	4.74	4.38	4.51	4.23	4.45		1	70%	10		· · ·		100
Water content	%	72.2%	76.6%	79.9%	83.5%	85.6%	86.0%	91.7%	93.0%		1						
Number of blows		113	70		25	21		12	10					Nun	nber of blows		
										y = -0.0	85ln(x	() + 1.1	203				
Plastic Limit Test				-		Liquid Limit	:	84.7%		0.8	84669	5555					
Test No.		1	2	3		Plastic Limit	:	33.7%									
Tare ID		14	Y	Z		Plasticity Inc	dex :	51.0%									
Tare mass	g	1.00	1.01	1.01		Natural wat	er content:	2.0%									
Tare + Moist soil	g	2.25	2.65	2.5		Liquidity Inc	lex:	-0.622019									
Tare + Dry soil	g	1.94	2.23	2.13													
Moist soil	g	1.25	1.64	1.49		DI —	I.I. — PI										
Dry soil	g	0.94	1.22	1.12			DD 1 D										
Water content	%	33.0%	34.4%	33.0%		LI =	$\frac{w_n - PL}{PI}$										
Average water content	%		33.7%	•	1												

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бк	à ą̃																
Specimen ID :	BSB (5	0:50 by dry m	iass)														-
Initial density :	-	Mg/m3															
Initial water content :	-	%															
										1		1.1	.:		、		
Date put in oven :	05/05/	/2014 15:30				Oven temp	erature :	105	oC	1			110 LIN) 		
Date removed from oven :	06/05/	/2014 15:30				Oven temp	erature :	105	oC	1	200%	BSB (Bento	onite :	Sand	_50:50)	
										1	290%						
										1	280%		~				
Liquid Limit Test										- I	270%	,					
Test No.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	/c (%	260%	`		-			
Tare ID		93	19	17	39	91	89	24	76	ent, v	250%				000		
Tare mass	~	8.1	4.7	8.2	8.1	8	8.2	8	8	conte	240%	y = -0.143ln(x) + 3.1066					
Tare + Moist soil	g	13.7	15.28	17.24	17.09	17 47	20.05	10	10	ater	230%	R ² = 0.7717					
Tare + Dry soil	g	9.63	7.5	10.6	10.67	10.64	11.6	11 27	19	3	220%						
Moist soil	g	5.65	10.58	9.04	8 99	9 47	11.85	11.27	10.55	1	210%						
Dry soil	g	1 53	2.8	2.4	2 57	2 64	3.4	3.27	2.85	1	200%						
Water content	g	266.0%	277.9%	276.7%	249.8%	258.7%	248 5%	248.3%	270.2%	1	1	:	10	25	1	00	
Number of blows	70	/	17	18	60	40	87	51	9	1			Number o	of blows			
		/	1/	10	00	40	07	51	5	1							<u></u>
																	-
Disector Lineite Transf									251.54			y = -0.143ln(x) + 3.1066					-
							Liquid Limit	t:	264.6%	_		2.646301			_		-
Test No.		1	2	3	4		Plastic Limit	t:	21.0%						_		
Tare ID		4	87	88	22		Plasticity In	idex :	243.6%								
Tare mass	g	8.24	8.03	8.11	7.97		Natural wat	ter content:	-								
Tare + Moist soil	g	9.68	10.14	10.71	10.83		Liquidity Inc	dex:	-								
Tare + Dry soil	g	9.44	9.76	10.18	10.25		D										
Moist soil	g	1.44	2.11	2.6	2.86		ſ	I — LL — F	5								
Dry soil	g	1.2	1.73	2.07	2.28			$w_n - H$	PL								
Water content	%	20.0%	22.0%	25.6%	25.4%			PI PI	_								
Average wc (= Plastic Limit)	%		21	.0%													

Ú¦[b/&dK	ÙÒŠÁ	/¦ãæ¢ãæ¢íÁÓ^æ	\$] æ																	Öæe∿K	€Î ËR } ËFH
Ùĭàb∿&dK	OEcc^¦à	ı^¦*ÁŠãįãerÁT	^æ`¦^{ ^}(C																	
Ó^ K	àlãį																				
Specimen ID :	RM06-	-ID169 recom	pacted																		
Initial density :	1.5	5 Mg/m3	-																		
Initial water content :	30) %																			
Date put in oven :	04/06/	/2013 12:30				Oven tempe	erature :	105	oC												
Date removed from oven :	05/06/	/2013 12:30	T			Oven tempe	rature :	105	oC												
												80	% –								
												75	%	•							
Liquid Limit Test												70	»			-					
Test No.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			8 65	%				•				
Tare ID		78	62	70	15	68	19	91	53			N 60	06					*	<u> </u>		
Tare mass	g	4.66	4.72	8.12	8.15	8.08	4.68	7.96	8.08			ntent	0/		y =	-0.063ln(x)	+ 0.	8946		-	
Tare + Moist soil	g	13.89	13.87	17.72	17.58	17.4	14	18	17			er 60				R ² = 0.96	591				
Tare + Dry soil	g	10.5	10.49	13.98	13.79	13.59	10.05	13.58	13.26			A a	0/								
Moist soil	g	9.23	9.15	9.6	9.43	9.32	9.15	9.7	9.11			43	-70 T								
Dry soil	g	5.84	5.77	5.86	5.64	5.51	5.37	5.62	5.18			40	1‰ + 10							100	
Water content	%	58.0%	58.6%	63.8%	67.2%	69.1%	70.4%	72.6%	75.9%							Ν.					
Number of blows			140	56	36	23	16		11							N	imbe	er of blows			
Plastic Limit Test						Liquid Limit	:	69.2%													
Test No.		1	2	3		Plastic Limit	:	31.2%													
Tare ID		14	Z	Y		Plasticity Ind	lex :	38.0%													
Tare mass	g	0.99	1	1.01		Natural wat	er content:	15.0%		у	= -0.06	3ln(x) + 0	.894	5							
Tare + Moist soil	g	2.43	2.17	2.74		Liquidity Inc	lex:	-0.42596056			0.6	91810823	3								
Tare + Dry soil	g	2.09	1.89	2.3																	
Moist soil	g	1.44	1.17	1.73		PI =	LL – PL	<u> </u>													
Dry soil	g	1.1	0.89	1.29		=															
Water content	%	30.9%	31.5%	34.1%		LI =	$\frac{w_n - PL}{PI}$														
Average water content	%		31.2%																		



APPENDIX I - SFG MODELLING SPREADSHEET FOR RECOMPACTED LAKE AGASSIZ CLAY

	SFG m	odel and	SEL ex	periment	tal data-	L.Agassiz					
	SFG m	odel inpu	ıt	SEL te	st data		SFG p	rediction		% diffe	rence
	р	λνρ	ssa	Pswell	V	eV	Pswell	V	eV	Pswell	eV
	Fswell	0.73	140	no data	3.032	-72.8%	635	3.020	-72.1	no data	0.7
b	150	0.28	140	753	1.986	-15.1%	781	2.003	-15.2	28	-0.1
а	150	0.17	215	753	1.986	-15.1%	1064	1.949	-12.1	311	3.1
	300	0.17	215	1198	1.918	-9.9%	1210	1.884	-9.1	12	0.8
20	600	0.17	215	no data	1.803	-5.7%	1501	1.815	-6.4	no data	-0.7

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HÍİ€	ĒFİ€	€EF€H	ĨĬĦĒ	İĒİ	IHEHE	BERECCH	REFECCI	€	FÉE€	HÍİ€	Ēfi€	€ÆF€H	Ĩ€€	€	IFİ€	REFECCH	€	REFECCH	FEFF	Ê€ÊH
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HF€€	Ēfi€	€£€FFi I	ÎÌŒ€	JÐÏ	HÍIGÉE	B€B€€€ G	EEEEEE G	€	FÉ€	HF€€	Ēfi€	€ÈEFFII	Ĩ€€	€	HÍ€€	BEREE I	€	BEBEEEI I	FEFG	Ê€ĒH
GJÍ€	ĒFİ€	€EEFGI	Î JŒ	F€EI	HIGH	B€B€€€EI Î	EEEEEI I	€	FE€	GJÍ€	ĒFi€	ۮFGI	Ĩ€€	€	HIİ€	EEEEEE i	€	EEEE€€I İ	FEFG	€EE
Gi€	t≞i∉	EEFH	I€HLL IFIRE	FE# ï	Ht€HLL	LELE€EI€		€	F≞€	G€€	tel€	ENERHI	I€	€	HI€€	HERECCI H	€ €		FEFH	<u>l€t</u> Ret
Gi€€	ĒFi€	€ÉEFIÏI	IGE	FOEG	HHGIEG	EEEEEEE €	B€B€€€	€	FÉ€	Gi€€	Ēfi€	€BEFIII	Ĩ€€	€	HF€€	BEBEEE I	€	BEBEEEE I	FËFI	ÊÉÉ
GHÍ€	ÉFi€	€EEFIIG	II€€G	FGÉI	HFJ€BG	ÊEÊE€EÎ Î	REFECCI I	€	FÉE	GHÍ€	ÉFi€	€BEFIIG	Ĩ€€	€	GJÍ€	BEBEEEE F	€	BEBEEEE F	FËFI	Ê€Ê
G€i€	t≞i€	€BEFIJ€	ITHE	FHELI FLÉEG	GJFiff	EEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEE	EEEEEI H	€ €	⊦≞tei FÉÉ€Í	G€i€	EFi€	€BEFIJ€	I€	€ €	Gi€	REFERENCE J	€	REFERENCE J	FËFI	l⊈tt R€ft
FJ€€	ĒFi€	ۃEFJHG	iii£	Fiǀ	GIIE	ʀɀ€JG	<u>ʀʀ€</u> JG	€	FÉ€	FJ€€	ĒFi€	€BEFJHG	Ĩ€€	€	Gi€€	ʀʀF€F	€	ʀʀF€F	FËFI	Ê€Ē
FĨÍ€	ÉFi€	€BEG€JĨ	J€FÉ	FIE	GIFE	ʀʀF€		€	FÉE	 FĨÍ€	ÉFi€	€ÊEG€JĨ	Ĩ€€	€	GHÍ€	ʀʀFFÎ	€	ʀʀ€FFÎ	FËFJ	Ē
FI€€	EFi€	EEGUI EEGIHE	JU€EE	FIEE€	GHIۃG	REREEFFJ	REFECTION	€	Fitt€i	 FI€€	Eri€	€EEGUI	ĭ€	€	G€i€	REFEEFII	€	REREEFII	FEG€	itett R€B
FH€€	ĒFi€	€EEGI GG	JĪŒĒ	GGEH	GGÏ GĒ	BEBE€FiJ	ʀʀ€Fİ J	€	FÉE	FH€€	Ēfi€	€EEGIGG	Ĩ€€	€	FJ€€	ɀɀFI I	€	BEBEEFI I	FEGH	ÊÉÉE
FFI €	ĒFI€	€EEHFJ€	JİİÊ	GB€	GFH E	EEE€FI Ï	EEEEFÍ Ï	€	FË€	 FFI €	ĒFi€	€EFFJ€	Ĩ€€	€	FÏİ€	EEEECGH	€	EEE€CGH	FËG	ÊÊ
ii€	ĒFi€	€BEIHFI	F€IÈ€	HOEHI	FiJiȀ	EEEEG H	BEBEEG H	€	FÉ€	ii€	Ēfi€	€BÉIHFÍ	I€€	€	FII€	BEBEECH I	€	REFECT I	FËHG	ÊÊ
Ĩ€€	ĒFi€	€EEI CHI	F€IĨĒ	HE	FIIE	ÉÉÉ€H F	BEBEEH F	€	FË€	Ĩ€€	ĒFi€	€EEIGHI	Ĩ€€	€	FH€€	B€B€€IIÎ	€	BEEE€II	FËH	ÊÊÊ
11€	EFI€	€EE III	FFHGE	IIEG	FIIGE	EEEEEII€		€	FEE€	€	EFI€	€EEIIII	I€	€ €	FFI €	EEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEEE	€	EEEEEE €	FEIG	EGEF
Gi€	ÊFi€	€⊞IGJ	FG FB	i€£€	FIGE	EEE€€I Î H	EEEEEE I H	€	FÉ€	GI€	Ēfi€	€ETIGJ	Ĩ€€	€	ii€	EEEEFHI I	€	EEEEFHII	FÉII	<u><u></u></u>
F€€	ËFi€	€ĒĨ€€€	FI€FE€	FGJE	Fİ€FÈ€	E€E€FIIG	EEEEFIIG	€	FÉ€	F€€	ĒFi€	€ĒĨ€€€	Ĩ€€	€	Ĩ€€	EEEEGIIG	€	E€E€GIIG	FËJF	ËÈ€
€	₽€€	€EFI €€€€	FI€FE€	F€€₿€€	FI€FÈE	EEEEFFHH	<b>EEEEFFHH</b>	€	FEE€	€	₽€€€	€EFI €€€	∣€€	€	I€€	E€E€GIGJ	€	E€E€G GJ	FEFI	EE
						1														



## SFG modelling for a basement constructed in Lake Agassiz clay (Figure 4.14)

Soil_1		Depth	ו =	0.5	m																
CV M	odule										CMS	modu	le				L			ļ	
λvp	0.28	λvs max	0.28	#\/ALLIE!							λvp	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-36.2%
Ssa	140	13(01)-	461	#VALUE:							Ssa	140	kPa				· · · · ·			EOT_p	2.386
p'=	10	ds=	-50			ale a facto ano	ale a de castas		#REF!		p'=	10	ds=	-50				alu alua da			
			Cal_Pswe			suction	dv due to mean										av from suction	dv due to mean		cal_V-	
s (kPa)	ds	λvs	 	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cal_V_cv		s (kPa)	ds	λvs	р 10	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cms	eV
1450	-50	0.02630	10.0	4.70	1464.7	-0.00087	-0.00087	0	0.000		1450	-50	0.02630	10	0	1460	-0.00087	0	-0.00087	1.752	0.0
1400	-50	0.02818	19.6	4.86	1419.6	-0.00093	-0.00093	0	0.000		1400	-50	0.02818	10	0	1410	-0.00093	0	-0.00093	1.754	-0.1
1350	-50	0.02922	24.6 29.8	5.03	1374.6 1329.8	-0.00099	-0.00099	0	0.000		1350	-50	0.02922	10	0	1360 1310	-0.00100	0	-0.00100	1.755	-0.2
1250	-50	0.03156	35.2	5.42	1285.2	-0.00114	-0.00114	0	0.000		1250	-50	0.03156	10	0	1260	-0.00116	0	-0.00116	1.757	-0.3
1200	-50	0.03287	40.9	5.64	1240.9	-0.00123	-0.00123	0	0.000		1200	-50	0.03287	10	0	1210	-0.00125	0	-0.00125	1.758	-0.4
1100	-50	0.03586	52.9	6.13	1152.9	-0.00143	-0.00143	0	0.000		1100	-50	0.03586	10	0	1110	-0.00148	0	-0.00148	1.761	-0.5
1050	-50	0.03756	59.3 66.0	6.40	1109.3	-0.00156	-0.00156	0	0.000		1050	-50	0.03756	10	0	1060	-0.00162	0	-0.00162	1.763	-0.6
950	-50	0.04151	73.0	7.04	1023.0	-0.00185	-0.00185	0	0.000		950	-50	0.04151	10	0	960	-0.00195	0	-0.00195	1.766	-0.8
900 850	-50 -50	0.04382	80.4 88.2	7.41	980.4 938.2	-0.00203	-0.00203	0	0.000		900 850	-50 -50	0.04382	10	0	910 860	-0.00216	0	-0.00216	1.769	-0.9
800	-50	0.04929	96.5	8.28	896.5	-0.00247	-0.00247	0	0.000		800	-50	0.04929	10	0	810	-0.00270	0	-0.00270	1.774	-1.2
750	-50	0.05257	105.3	8.80	855.3 814.7	-0.00275	-0.00275	0	0.000		750	-50	0.05257	10	0	760	-0.00304	0	-0.00304	1.777	-1.4
650	-50	0.06065	124.8	10.06	774.8	-0.00346	-0.00346	0	0.000		650	-50	0.06065	10	0	660	-0.00397	0	-0.00397	1.784	-1.8
600	-50	0.06569	135.6	10.83	735.6	-0.00391	-0.00391	0	0.000		600	-50	0.06569	10	0	610	-0.00459	0	-0.00459	1.789	-2.1
500	-50	0.07165	147.3	12.79	660.1	-0.00447	-0.00514	0	0.000		500	-50	0.07165	10	0	510	-0.00538	0	-0.00538	1.794	-2.4
450	-50	0.08754	174.2	14.07	624.2	-0.00597	-0.00597	0	0.000		450	-50	0.08754	10	0	460	-0.00773	0	-0.00773	1.808	-3.2
350	-50	0.09845	189.8	15.63	589.8 557.4	-0.00701	-0.00701	0	0.000		400 350	-50	0.09845	10	0	410 360	-0.00952	0	-0.00952	1.818	-3.8
300	-50	0.13116	227.5	20.09	527.5	-0.01009	-0.01009	0	0.000		300	-50	0.13116	10	0	310	-0.01562	0	-0.01562	1.845	-5.3
250	-50	0.15729	250.9	23.42	500.9 479.0	-0.01243	-0.01243	0	0.000		250	-50	0.15729	10	0	260	-0.02116	0	-0.02116	1.867	-6.5
150	-50	0.26146	314.1	35.07	464.1	-0.02050	-0.0205	0	0.000		150	-50	0.26146	10	0	160	-0.04677	0	-0.04677	1.944	-10.9
100 50	-50	0.28000	360.8 410.8	46.69	460.8 460.8	-0.02817	-0.02817	0	0.000		100 50	-50	0.28000	10	0	110 60	-0.08171	0	-0.08171	2.025	-15.6
0	-50	0.28000	460.8	50.00	460.8	-0.03038	-0.03038	0	0.000		0	-50	0.28000	10	0	10	-0.23333	0	-0.23333	2.386	-36.2
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Soil_2	2	Depth	า =	1	m																
су м	odule	•									смѕ	modu	ıle								
λνp κνp	0.28	λvs max Ps (CV)=	0.28	#VALUE!							λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-32.7%
S _{sa}	140		440								Ssa	140	kPa							EOT_p	2.324
p'=	20	ds=	-50						#REF!		p'=	20	ds=	-50							
s (kPa)	ds	λvs	Cal_Pswe	dp	p+s	dv from suction change	dv due to mean stress	dv (total)	cal_V_cv		s (kPa)	ds	λvs	р	dp	p+s	dv from suction change	dv due to mean stress	dv (total)	cal_V- cms	eV
1200		0.03287	20.0		1220.0			1.751	0.000		1200		0.03287	20		1220				1.751	0.0
1150	-50	0.03430	25.9	5.87	1175.9	-0.00135	-0.00135	0	0.000		1150	-50	0.03430	20	0	1170	-0.00135	0	-0.00135	1.752	-0.1
1100	-50	0.03586	32.0	6.13	1132.0	-0.00146	-0.00146	0	0.000		1100	-50	0.03586	20	0	1120	-0.00147	0	-0.00147	1.754	-0.2
1000	-50	0.03756	30.4	6.71	1000.4	-0.00158	-0.00158	0	0.000		1000	-50	0.03756	20	0	1070	-0.00160	0	-0.00160	1.700	-0.3
950	-50	0.03944	40.1 52.1	7.04	1043.1	-0.00173	-0.00173	0	0.000		950	-50	0.03944	20	0	970	-0.00170	0	-0.00170	1.759	-0.4
900	-50	0.04382	59.6	7.41	959.6	-0.00207	-0.00207	0	0.000		900	-50	0.04382	20	0	920	-0.00214	0	-0.00214	1.761	-0.6
850	-50	0.04639	67.4	7.82	917.4	-0.00228	-0.00228	0	0.000		850	-50	0.04639	20	0	870	-0.00238	0	-0.00238	1.764	-0.7
800	-50	0.04929	75.7	8.28	875.7	-0.00253	-0.00253	0	0.000		800	-50	0.04929	20	0	820	-0.00267	0	-0.00267	1.766	-0.9
750	-50	0.05257	84.5	8.80	834.5	-0.00281	-0.00281	0	0.000		750	-50	0.05257	20	0	770	-0.00301	0	-0.00301	1.769	-1.0
700	-50	0.05632	93.9	9.39	793.9	-0.00315	-0.00315	0	0.000		700	-50	0.05632	20	0	720	-0.00341	0	-0.00341	1.773	-1.2
600	-50	0.06065	103.9	10.00	753.9	-0.00355	-0.00355	0	0.000		600	-50	0.06065	20	0	620	-0.00391	0	-0.00391	1.771	-1.5
550	-50	0.07165	126.5	11.73	676.5	-0.00460	-0.00460	0	0.000		550	-50	0.07165	20	0	570	-0.00530	0	-0.00530	1.786	-2.0
500	-50	0.07880	139.3	12.79	639.3	-0.00530	-0.00530	0	0.000		500	-50	0.07880	20	0	520	-0.00629	0	-0.00629	1.793	-2.4
450	-50	0.08754	153.3	14.07	603.3	-0.00616	-0.00616	0	0.000		450	-50	0.08754	20	0	470	-0.00758	0	-0.00758	1.800	-2.8
400	-50	0.09845	169.0	15.63	569.0	-0.00725	-0.00725	0	0.000		400	-50	0.09845	20	0	420	-0.00931	0	-0.00931	1.810	-3.3
350	-50	0.11248	186.6	17.58	536.6	-0.00865	-0.00865	0	0.000	-	350	-50	0.11248	20	0	370	-0.01172	0	-0.01172	1.821	-4.0
250	-50	0.15729	200.0	20.09	480.1	-0.01048	-0.01048	0	0.000		250	-50	0.15729	20	0	270	-0.01520	0	-0.01520	1.637	-4.9
200	-50	0.19642	258.2	28.09	458.2	-0.01638	-0.01638	0	0.000		200	-50	0.19642	20	0	220	-0.02913	0	-0.02913	1.886	-7.7
150	-50	0.26146	293.2	35.07	443.2	-0.02144	-0.02144	0	0.000		150	-50	0.26146	20	0	170	-0.04464	0	-0.04464	1.931	-10.3
100	-50	0.28000	339.9	46.69	439.9	-0.02949	-0.02949	0	0.000		100	-50	0.28000	20	0	120	-0.07690	0	-0.07690	2.008	-14.7
50	-50	0.28000	389.9	50.00	439.9	-0.03182	-0.03182	0	0.000		50	-50	0.28000	20	0	70	-0.11667	0	-0.11667	2.124	-21.3
0	-50	0.28000	439.9	50.00	439.9	-0.03182	-0.03182	0	0.000		0	-50	0.28000	20	0	20	-0.20000	0	-0.20000	2.324	-32.7
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Soil_3	3	Depth	I =	1.5	m																
CV M	odule										CMS	modu	le								
λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28								λvp	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-28.6%
кир	0.009	Ps (CV)=	nodata	#VALUE!							кур	0.009								V_cms_tes	3.032
Ssa	140		355								S ₅₀	140	kPa							EOT_p	2.250
p'=	30	ds=	-50			dy from	dy due to		#REF!		p'=	30	ds=	-50			dy from	dv due to			
			Cal_Pswel			suction	mean										suction	mean		cal_V-	
s (kPa)	ds	λvs	1	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cal_V_cv		s (kPa)	ds	λvs	р	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cms	eV
600	50	0.06569	30.0	44.70	630.0	0.00504	0.00504	1.750	-0.151		600	50	0.06569	30	0	630	0.00504	0	0.00504	1.750	0.0
500	-50	0.07103	54.5	12.79	554.5	-0.00605	-0.00605	0	-0.151		500	-50	0.07880	30	0	530	-0.00521	0	-0.00521	1.762	-0.3
450	-50	0.08754	68.6	14.07	518.6	-0.00711	-0.00711	0	-0.151		450	-50	0.08754	30	0	480	-0.00743	0	-0.00743	1.769	-1.1
400	-50	0.09845	84.2	15.63	484.2	-0.00844	-0.00844	0	-0.151		400	-50	0.09845	30	0	430	-0.00912	0	-0.00912	1.778	-1.6
350	-50	0.11248	101.8	17.58	451.8	-0.01017	-0.01017	0	-0.151		350	-50	0.11248	30	0	380	-0.01145	0	-0.01145	1.790	-2.3
250	-50	0.15729	145.3	23.42	395.3	-0.01243	-0.01243	0	-0.151		250	-50	0.15729	30	0	280	-0.01987	0	-0.01987	1.824	-4.2
200	-50	0.19642	173.4	28.09	373.4	-0.01989	-0.01989	0	-0.151		200	-50	0.19642	30	0	230	-0.02809	0	-0.02809	1.852	-5.8
150	-50	0.26146	208.5	35.07	358.5	-0.02630	-0.02630	0	-0.151	· · · ·	150	-50	0.26146	30	0	180	-0.04270	0	-0.04270	1.895	-8.3
50	-50	0.28000	255.2	46.69	355.2	-0.03647	-0.03647	0	-0.151		100	-50	0.28000	30	0	130	-0.07263	0	-0.07263	1.968	-12.4
0	-50	0.28000	355.2	50.00	355.2	-0.03942	-0.03942	0	-0.151		0	-50	0.28000	30	0	30	-0.17500	0	-0.17500	2.250	-28.6
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Soil_4	1	Depth	I =	2.0	m																
CV M	odule										CMS	modu	le								
λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28								λvp	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-25.0%
кур	0.009	Ps (CV)=	nodata	#VALUE!							кvр	0.009								V_cms_tes	3.032
S _{sa}	140		311								S _{sa}	140	kPa							EOT_p	2.187
p'=	40	ds=	-50			dy from	dv due to		#REF!		p'=	40	ds=	-50			dy from	dv due to			
			Cal_Pswel			suction	mean										suction	mean		cal_V-	
s (kPa)	ds	λvs	1	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cal_V_cv		s (kPa)	ds	λvs	р	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cms	eV
400	50	0.09845	40.0	17.59	440.0	0.01110	0.01110	1.749	-0.156		400	50	0.09845	40	0	440	0.01110	0	0.01110	1.749	0.0
300	-50	0.13116	77.7	20.09	377.7	-0.01380	-0.01119	0	-0.156		300	-50	0.11248	40	0	340	-0.01113	0	-0.01119	1.775	-1.5
250	-50	0.15729	101.1	23.42	351.1	-0.01736	-0.01736	0	-0.156		250	-50	0.15729	40	0	290	-0.01929	0	-0.01929	1.794	-2.6
200	-50	0.19642	129.2	28.09	329.2	-0.02240	-0.02240	0	-0.156		200	-50	0.19642	40	0	240	-0.02712	0	-0.02712	1.821	-4.1
150	-50	0.26146	164.3	35.07	314.3	-0.02983	-0.02983	0	-0.156		150	-50	0.26146	40	0	190	-0.04092	0	-0.04092	1.862	-6.5
50	-50	0.28000	260.9	50.00	310.9	-0.04502	-0.04502	0	-0.156		50	-50	0.28000	40	0	90	-0.10000	0	-0.10000	2.031	-16.1
0	-50	0.28000	310.9	50.00	310.9	-0.04502	-0.04502	0	-0.156		0	-50	0.28000	40	0	40	-0.15556	0	-0.15556	2.187	-25.0
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Soil_5	5	Depth	I =	2.5	m																
CV M	odule										CMS	modu	le							 	
λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28								λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-20.8%
кур	0.009	Ps (CV)=	nodata	#VALUE!							кур	0.009	k Do							V_cms_tes	s 3.032
o _{sa}	50	ds=	-50						#REF!		5 ₅₀	140	ds=	-50						EOI_p	2.113
- F						dv from	dv due to				- F						dv from	dv due to			
e (kPa)	de	3 MP	Cal_Pswel	dn	046	suction	mean	dy (total)	cal V cv		e (kPa)	de	) VP		do	046	suction	mean	dy (total)	cal_V-	۵۷
250	40	0.15729	50.0	αp	300.0	ondingo	011000	1.749	-0.166		250	40	0.15729	50	чÞ	300	ondingo	01000	av (total)	1.749	0.0
200	-50	0.19642	78.1	28.09	278.1	-0.02622	-0.02622	0	-0.166		200	-50	0.19642	50	0	250	-0.02622	0	-0.02622	1.775	-1.5
100	-50	0.28000	159.9	46.69	259.9	-0.04968	-0.03552	0	-0.166		100	-50	0.28000	50	0	150	-0.06536	0	-0.06536	1.879	-7.5
50	-50	0.28000	209.9	50.00	259.9	-0.05388	-0.05388	0	-0.166		50	-50	0.28000	50	0	100	-0.09333	0	-0.09333	1.973	-12.8
0	-50	0.28000	259.9	50.00	259.9	-0.05388	-0.05388	0	-0.166		0	-50	0.28000	50	0	50	-0.14000	0	-0.14000	2.113	-20.8
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Soil_6	;	Depth	ו =	3.0	m																
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CV M	ماريله										CMS	modu	ما								
	Junic										OINIO	mouu									
λvp	0.28	λvs max	0.28								λνρ	0.28	λvs max	0.28						vol_p	-18.0%
кур	0.009	Ps (CV)=	nodata	#VALUE!							кур	0.009								V_cms_tes	3.032
S _{sa}	140		242								S _{sa}	140	kPa							EOT_p	2.063
p'=	60	ds=	-50						#REF!		p'=	60	ds=	-50							
						dv from	dv due to										dv from	dv due to			
			Cal_Pswel			suction	mean										suction	mean		cal_V-	
s (kPa)	ds	λVS	0.0	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	cal_V_cv		s (kPa)	ds	λVS	P	dp	p+s	change	stress	dv (total)	CMS 4 740	eV
200	50	0.19042	00.0	25.07	200.0	0.02777	0.02777	1.740	-0.409		200	50	0.19042	60	0	200	0.02777	0	0.02777	1.746	0.0
100	-50	0.28000	141.8	46.69	241.8	-0.05334	-0.05334	0	-0.409		100	-50	0.28000	60	0	160	-0.06225	0	-0.06225	1.848	-5.7
50	-50	0.28000	191.8	50.00	241.8	-0.05791	-0.05791	0	-0.409		50	-50	0.28000	60	0	110	-0.08750	0	-0.08750	1,935	-10.7
0	-50	0.28000	241.8	50.00	241.8	-0.05791	-0.05791	0	-0.409		0	-50	0.28000	60	0	60	-0.12727	0	-0.12727	2.063	-18.0
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## APPENDIX J - SFG MODELLING SPREADSHEET FOR BSB

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æ	GÍ€	€ÈF	GÍ	JFÍ	FÈÌÎ	ËFÏÈHÃ	ΪÎF	FÈÎÎ	ËÈ₽Ã	ËΈΙ	FœÈGÃ
	Í€€	€ÈF	GÍ	JÌ€	FË GF	ĔĖĒÃ	JJH	FĚJJ	ËÈĞÃ	FH	€ÈÃ
	F€€€€	€ÈF	GÍ	FII€	FĚHÌ	ËGHĚÃ	FIÍ€	FĚÍG	ËHÈÃ	F€	Ë€ĨĚÃ
	FÍ €€	€ÈF	GÍ	FJ€Í	FÈÏÎ	Ë€ÈÃ	FÌ JJ	FÈÌÌ	ËGÌHÃ	Ê	ËFÈÃ

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CV M	odule										CMS	modu	le								
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∙ÁÇiÚæÐ	å•	λç•	Ôæ¦′Ú•, ^∥	å]	]É•	âçA+[{A • * &cā[}Á &@aa) * ^	âçAã`^Aq[/ {^æ})Á •d^••	λ åçÁQ(íαæ‡D	&æ≑′X′&ç		∙ÁÇÚæD	å•	λç•	]	â]	] É•	âçAl;[{ A • * &cā[} Á &@aa) * ^	âçAã`^Aq(/ {^aa),Á •d^••	∖ åçÁQ((cæ‡D	&æ¢′XË &{•	^X
HHÏÏ	Ĥ€	€ÈEFÍGJ €RÆFÍÍG	GÍ€ÈE	HE	HÍGÍÈG HÍI∉ff	REFEECE	REFECCE	€	FĚÌÍ		HIÏ	ff€	€ÈEFÍGJ €ŘEFÍIG	GÍ€	€	HÍGÍÈG HÍT	REFEECT	€	REFERENCE	FÉÌÍ	€ÈE €ŘE
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HGG	∐€ fi€	€£€FIG	GIE	HEI	HIGE	REFECCEG	REFECCEC	€	FEII		HGG	£t€ ff€	€EEFIG	Gi€	€	HITE	REFECCEG	€	REFECEC	FEII	€LEE
HFG	Ê€	€BEFÍÍF	GIE	HÉÏ	HHUÏÈE	ʀʀ€€G	<b>B</b> € <b>E</b> €€€G	€	FÉİİ		HFG	Ê€	€BEFĨÍF	Gi€	€	HHIEG	ʀʀ€€G	€	ʀʀ€€G	FÉII	ĒĒĒ
HEII	E€	€EEFIII eferiei	GOE	HBH	HH JB	EEEEEG	EEEEEG	€	FEII		H€II	E€	€EEFIII defiid	G€	€	HIGE	EEEEEG	€	EEEE€€G	FEII	E€EF i≥it⊤
GJÎÎ	E€	€BEFI€I €BEFIHI	Giۃ	I BEE	HGIIÈ€	REBECCEG	BEBEEEG	€	FÉII		GJÎÎ	E€	€BEFIEI €BEFIH	Gi€	€	HOGIEG	EEEEEG	€	EEEEEG	FÉII	Ê
GIG	E€	€EEFIII	GIB	IEH	HOFOE	<b>Æ</b> €€€€G	EEEEEG	€	FEII		GIG	E€	€EEFIII	G€	€	HFILEG	REFECCEC	€	EEEEEG	FEII	EEF
GII	E€	€BEEFIJI entersica	GJE	IEG€	HFILEH	EEEE€G	REFECCEC	€	FEII		GII	E€	€BEFIJI	GI€	€	HFGIEG	EEEEEG	€	REFECCE	FEII	EEEG IEEG
GII	E€	€EEFIIJ	GUIE	E	HEILE	EEEEEGJ EEEE€€GJ	EEEEEGJ EEEE€€GJ	€	FEII		GII	E€	€BEFIIJ	G€	€	H€GI EG	EEEEEEUE	€	EEEEEEU	FEII	EEG
GG	E€	€E€FIJI	H€GEF	IEH	H€GJEH	REFECCHE	B€B€€€H	€	FEII		GG	E€	€EEFI JI	G€	€	GIIEG	EEEEE F	€	E€E€€€+F	FEIJ	EEG
GG	H€	€HEFJGJ	HEILE	IEF.	GIHE	REFECCENG	REFECCIO	€	FEII		GU	H€ FF€	€HEFJGJ	GI€	€	GUE	REFECCION	€	REFECCIÓN	FELI	H€HG F€HG
GII	E€	€EEC€€E	HFIB	IEI	GJHE	EEECCH	EEECO+	€	FEII		GII	E€	€EEC€€	G€	€	GGE	EEEECCH	€	EEEEEH	FEJ€	EEEH
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## **APPENDIX K - PUBLISHED JOURNAL PAPERS**

- Lim, B.F. and Siemens, G.A. 2013. An unconfined swelling test for clayey soils that incorporates digital image correlation. Geotechnical Testing Journal 36 (6): 1-11.
- Siddiqua, S., Siemens, G., Blatz, J., Man, A. and Lim, B.F. 2014. Influence of pore fluid chemistry on the mechanical properties of clay-based materials. Geotechnical and Geological Engineering 32 (4): 1029-42.

## An Unconfined Swelling Test for Clayey Soils That Incorporates Digital Image Correlation

**REFERENCE:** Lim, B. F. and Siemens, G. A., "An Unconfined Swelling Test for Clayey Soils That Incorporates Digital Image Correlation," *Geotechnical Testing Journal*, Vol. 36, No. 6, 2013, pp. 1–11, doi:10.1520/GTJ20120220. ISSN 0149-6115.

**ABSTRACT:** A new laboratory test apparatus and methodology have been developed for characterizing the swelling potential of expansive soil under free stress conditions. Soil specimens are given access to water under true free swell conditions, and the maximum swelling potential is determined experimentally. Real-time deformation measurements and interpretation are obtained through digital image correlation using GeoPIV. The capabilities of the new test are illustrated using a remolded natural swelling soil. Both primary and secondary swelling behavior were observed during testing. The effect of the aspect ratio was assessed, and it was found that smaller specimens achieved equivalent swelling strains with significantly shorter test durations. The non-contact deformation results agree with the end-of-test hand measurements. The non-contact method also provides additional valuable information regarding the time-dependent swell behavior and evaluation of the end-of-test criterion. The results are interpreted using the Swell Equilibrium Limit, which is a unifying framework for the analysis and prediction of swelling soil deformations under defined initial and boundary conditions.

**KEYWORDS:** unconfined swelling, free swell, digital image analysis, wetting, primary and secondary swelling curves, swelling rate, aspect ratio, Swell Equilibrium Limit

#### Introduction

The characterization of swelling potential is of critical importance in the analysis and design of infrastructure founded in swelling soil. The behavior of expansive soil is complicated by excessive volume changes during swelling and the development of swelling-induced stresses when expansion is restrained. Damage to infrastructure founded in swelling soil due to excessive deformation is measured in billions of dollars every year. The swelling ability of soil also provides self-healing qualities, which can also be utilized in waste isolation applications. Design optimization requires accurate predictions of swelling potential and swelling pressures.

Traditionally, the swelling potential and swelling pressures are measured using an oedometer apparatus as shown schematically in Fig. 1(*a*) (ASTM D4546-96). Specimens are subjected to wetting under free swell or constant volume conditions. The test results provide the maximum vertical swelling strain or vertical swelling pressure. Recently the standard test was revised (ASTM D4546-08), and it now calls for the application of constant vertical stress conditions followed by wetting. Several tests are completed

at increasing vertical stresses until the stress that inhibits swelling is determined. The test method imposes laterally constrained conditions on the swelling behavior, but these conditions rarely persist in the field. Numerous researchers and practitioners have successfully used these, or similar, test methods to characterize expansive soils (Baille et al. 2010; Cerato et al. 2009; DiMaio et al. 2004; Dixon et al. 2002; Imbert and Villar 2006; Ito and Azam 2010; Kodikara 2012; Komine and Ogata 1994; Lee et al. 2012; Nagaraj et al. 2009; Peng and Horn 2007; Powell et al. 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Rao et al. 2004; Rao and Tripathy 2003; Singhal et al. 2011). Micro-porosity effects on the behavior of swelling materials have also been examined (Vallejo 2011; Siemens et al. 2007). Vallejo (2011) studied the influence of pore microgeometry on the slaking of shales and concluded that smoother and smaller pores have a reduced resistance to slaking.

Rojas et al. (2011) reported a test methodology and apparatus for measuring wetting and drying water-retention curves using the vapor equilibrium technique, and they also included digital image analysis to measure deformations. Compacted bentonite specimens were subjected to constant relative humidity environments, and the specimens either shrank or swelled in response to the imposed suction level. Soil images were captured during the test with a digital single-lens reflex (SLR) camera, and strains were interpreted using commercial photo-editing software. Their result confirms the effectiveness of the vapor equilibrium method for applying wetting and drying conditions and non-contact measurement techniques to measure soil strains.

Siemens and Blatz (2009) reported a unifying framework for the behavior of swelling soils. Termed the Swell Equilibrium

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FIG. 1—(a) Traditional swelling tests: free swell and swelling pressure tests. (b) Triaxial swelling tests: boundary conditions during swell tests and Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) schematic. (c) Practical application of SEL: unconfined swelling under a roadway, swelling under foundation (constant mean stress), and swelling against a retaining wall (idealized as constant stiffness).

Limit, the framework can be used to predict swelling-induced pressures and swelling strains based on the initial conditions and the boundary conditions during swelling. The soil is characterized, as illustrated in Fig. 1(*b*), with constant mean stress, constant stiffness, or constant volume boundary conditions imposed during triaxial swelling tests (Siemens and Blatz 2007). The end points of the swell tests are then connected to form the Swell Equilibrium Limit. The Swell Equilibrium Limit was developed for a highly swelling engineered barrier with 50 % bentonite (Siemens and Blatz 2009) and later was applied to a natural soil (Powell et al. 2013). The Swell Equilibrium Limit framework works well at stress conditions found in many applications and may have several uses within a single engineering application.

Figure 1(c) displays a retaining wall system that provides multiple boundary conditions to the surrounding swelling soil. Below the cantilever wall, the swelling soil is under a constant mean stress boundary imposed by the constant vertical stress from the overlying soil and concrete. Under wetting conditions, the soil underneath the wall footing swells along a vertical stress path in a specific volume–mean stress (V-p) space. Adjacent to the retaining wall, the soil swells against the wall, which leads to displacement. This complex soil–structure interaction has been idealized as a constant stiffness boundary, which is a spring-like boundary condition. In V-p space, the stress path plots along a sloped line, with the slope angle being a function of the wall stiffness. The other bounding boundary condition would be a perfectly stiff wall that would plot as a horizontal stress path in V-p space (not shown).

Few studies have focused on swelling soil behavior at low stresses. The Swell Equilibrium Limit framework has been characterized using triaxial swelling tests, but its use at nominal stress levels has not been investigated. Continuing with the retainingwall example [Fig. 1(c)], the soil underneath the road in front of the retaining wall will swell against a pseudo-unconfined condition at a shallow depth. In this location, free swell conditions persist; however, one-dimensional conditions do not. Given the significant non-linearity in the Swell Equilibrium Limit [Figs. 1(b)and 1(c)], accurate prediction of the potential vertical deformations at these low stresses is very difficult. This motivated us to develop a new test apparatus and methodology for characterizing the swelling potential at nominal stresses under true free swell boundary conditions.

Herein we propose an unconfined swelling test for measuring the maximum swelling potential for direct water access. The swell measurements obtained from the unconfined swelling test allow the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework to be applied at low stresses where significant non-linearity is expected [Figs. 1(b) and 1(c)]. The soil specimen is given free access to water and allowed to deform without any restraining boundary condition upon swelling. The test method uses digital image correlation or particle image velocimetry (GeoPIV) (White et al. 2003), which has been used in many geotechnical applications to measure soil deformations. Test results are presented to verify the apparatus and methodology, and then preliminary interpretation is provided in the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework.

#### **Test Apparatus**

The unconfined test apparatus provides water uptake and a highhumidity environment to soil specimens to enable measurement of their unrestrained swelling potential. A photograph of an overall view of the unconfined swelling test setup is shown in Fig. 2(a). Plan and cross-section drawings are included in Figs. 2(b) and 2(c). The configuration allows for five unconfined swelling tests to be completed simultaneously. The apparatus is constructed from 25.4-mm-thick Perspex and includes a sealed box that is 1.00 m wide, 0.24 m tall, and 0.20 m deep. The box is designed with a removable cover to allow digital images to be captured without obstruction and to allow water to be applied during the test. A rubber seal is placed around the edge of the removable cover, and vacuum grease is applied to ensure that the box is sealed during the swelling tests. Soil specimens are given direct access to water via spraying and wicking action from filter paper strips dipped into the reservoir. At the beginning of the test, six 10-mm-wide wicking strips are secured radially around the soil specimens with the ends placed in the water reservoir. The reservoir also maintains a high humidity level in the airspace within the box.

The process for making manual measurements of specimen height and diameter during the test is difficult because of the size of the specimens and the size constraints within the box. Unconfined swelling test durations can range from a few weeks to a few months depending on the size of the specimen. Thus a noncontact displacement measurement technique is incorporated into the apparatus. Digital images of the soil specimens are recorded using a digital SLR camera. Figure 3 illustrates typical deformations that are recorded during an unconfined swelling test. The camera is attached to a custom mount, and the mount is placed into a slot to position the camera in front of a soil specimen [see Figs. 2(a), 2(b), and 2(c) for camera, mount, and slot locations]. Soil deformations during the unconfined swelling test are measured by interpreting digital images using GeoPIV (White et al. 2003). A rigid frame with black circular targets is positioned around each pedestal. The locations of the targets are measured in a local coordinate system. The software uses the targets on the frame to correct digital images for small differences in the location of the camera and as reference locations to calculate soil deformations within a local coordinate system. Targets are also secured to the top of the soil specimen along its center plane. Soil specimen targets are used to track soil deformations during the unconfined swelling test.

The choice of a suitable digital camera and lens was made during the design stage. Of the possible suitable combinations, a Canon EOS Digital Rebel XTi with an EFS60mm f/2.8 Macro USM Lens was selected to record digital images of the soil specimens. The camera has a CCD that is 14.8 mm by 22.2 mm in size with an image resolution of 2592 pixels by 3888 pixels. The focal length of the macro lens is 60 mm. The camera is located 0.69 m in front of the center plane of each soil specimen, giving an average resolution of 0.04 mm/pixel. The camera is relocated from one slot to another slot to take images of soil specimens at each location. To prevent undesired movement while recording a digital image, a remote control with a self-timer setting of 2 s is used.

#### **Test Methodology and Analysis**

Unconfined swelling tests may be performed on natural or remolded specimens. A series of tests was carried out in the same or similar configuration to assess the repeatability of the testing method. According to the test method, test specimens are prepared and their initial mass, dimensions, and water content are recorded. Six 10-mm-wide wicking strips are installed along the side of the specimen. Figure 3 displays the wicking strips and illustrates typical deformations recorded during an unconfined swelling test. Two GeoPIV targets are pinned diametrically on the top surface of the specimen for image analysis. The soil specimen, with the wicking strips and targets, is then placed on a pedestal inside the sealed box. The specimen is located in such a way that the specimen targets face the camera and are in the same plane as the frame of the GeoPIV targets. Once the compacted soil specimen is placed on the pedestal, an initial photograph is recorded and the legs of the wicking strips are submerged in the water reservoir. To maintain the specimens in a pseudo-submerged state, de-ionized water is sprayed at the specimens on a daily basis. The water is sprayed all around each specimen until the wicking strips and soil specimen are visibly wet. The cover of the humidity box normally remains closed to prevent the loss of humidity through evaporation. The cover is opened only when an image is to be captured or when the specimens are sprayed. Periodically, digital images are taken of the soil specimen, which also requires opening of the sealed box. Between spraying events, the wicking strips effectively retain moisture in the soil specimen. In our tests, a relative humidity probe within the box airspace confirmed that the relative humidity was greater than 99 %.

Unconfined swelling tests continue until the specimen equilibrates with the moist environment. Progressive swelling of compacted specimen  $189_AR = 0.15$  at elapsed times of 1 day, 1.8 days, and 9.7 days is shown in Fig. 3. The dashed box in the figure indicates the original size of the soil specimen prior to wetting. Significant swelling deformations can be observed in this series of images. At the end of the test, the final dimensions, mass, and moisture contents of swelled specimens are measured. The spatial distribution of the moisture content is measured by dividing specimens vertically using a knife and then radially using two circular cutting rings with diameters of 36.4 mm and 13.6 mm. The soil specimen is divided to the outermost diameter, middle diameter, and core section. This division allows for the moisture content distribution to be measured radially across the specimen.

#### Deformation Analysis

Soil deformation is measured using a non-contact method employing the image-based software GeoPIV (White et al. 2003), which allows for real-time measurements. The software calculates soil deformation over a series of digital images by searching for characteristic patches of pixels in consecutive digital images and calculating the displacement. Vertical and horizontal displacements are inferred from the measured movement of GeoPIV targets installed on diametrically opposite sides of the top of specimens (Fig. 3). A secondary option is to select a patch of pixels at the

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FIG. 2—Unconfined swelling test apparatus: (a) photograph; (b) plan view drawing; and (c) side view.

intersection between the bottom of the target holder and the edge of the specimen, as illustrated in Fig. 3(a). From the vertical and horizontal displacement measurements at the top edges of the specimen, axial strain and radial strain are calculated to determine

c)

the volume strain of the specimen during the test. The results obtained from the GeoPIV analysis are then compared with the caliper measurements taken at the end of the test. Strain analysis of soil deformation in the test uses the following equations:



FIG. 3—Progressive swelling of specimen  $189_AR = 0.15$ .

$$\varepsilon_a = \frac{\Delta H}{H_0} \tag{1}$$

$$\varepsilon_r = \frac{\Delta r}{r_0} = \frac{\Delta d}{d_0} \tag{2}$$

$$\varepsilon_{\nu} = \frac{\Delta V}{V_0} \tag{3}$$

where:

$$\begin{split} & \varepsilon_a = \text{axial strain,} \\ & \Delta H = \text{change in height,} \\ & H_0 = \text{initial height,} \\ & \varepsilon_r = \text{radial strain,} \\ & \Delta r = \text{change in radius,} \\ & r_0 = \text{initial radius,} \\ & \Delta d = \text{change in diameter,} \\ & d_0 = \text{initial diameter,} \\ & \varepsilon_v = \text{volumetric strain,} \\ & \Delta V = \text{change in volume, and} \\ & V_0 = \text{initial volume.} \end{split}$$

In geotechnical analysis, small strains are normally assumed; however, this assumption is invalid in the analysis of unconfined swelling tests because of the large deformations. Therefore, the volume strain is calculated from axial and radial strains as (Ehrgott 1971)

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V_0} = \varepsilon_a + 2\varepsilon_r - 2\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_a + \varepsilon_r^2 \ (\varepsilon_a - 1) \tag{4}$$

#### **Results and Interpretation**

The material used to verify the capabilities of the unconfined swelling test was Bearpaw clay-shale, which was obtained from Southern Saskatchewan (Powell et al. 2012a, 2012b, 2013). Bear-

paw is classified as high-plasticity clay with liquid and plastic limits ranging from 99 % to 145 % and 22 % to 29 %, respectively, and is composed of 39 % clay. The profile consists of highplasticity soil from depths of 30 to 90 m, and remolded specimens from sample 189 were used for the testing program. Remolded specimens were prepared from dried and pulverized soil that was mixed to a target water content using the method described by Siemens (2006). The moistened soil was double-bagged and stored in a refrigerator for 48 h to allow for moisture equilibrium and a confirmatory measurement of the moisture content. The soil was removed and compacted into 50-mm-diameter specimens in lifts. Initial testing focused on optimizing the aspect ratio while holding the diameter constant. The aspect ratio (AR) is defined as

$$AR = \frac{\text{Height}}{\text{Diameter}}$$
(5)

#### Unconfined Swelling Test Results

An unconfined swelling test on specimen  $189_AR = 0.15$  is presented as a typical test to display the capabilities of the unconfined swelling test apparatus and methodology. The specimen was compacted to a target initial state of modified Proctor optimum, which was determined to have a gravimetric water content of 15 % and a dry density of 1.74 Mg/m³. Table 1 highlights the initial conditions of the test specimens. Following preparation, the specimen was installed and given access to water. The swell results in terms of axial, radial, and volumetric strain versus time, plotted on both linear and logarithmic axes, are shown in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b), respectively. The specimen swelled at a high initial rate, and then the swell rate decreased after a few days. The volumetric strains of the soil specimen were 60 % and 61 % after 14 and 21 days, respectively (Fig. 4). The specimen expanded more radially than axially, and both expansions equilibrated with the moisture conditions at similar times. When the same data are re-plotted on a semi-log scale [Fig. 4(b)], the result resembles an unloading curve of a consolidation plot. Peng and Horn (2007) investigated the anisotropic behavior of some organic and inorganic soils that underwent shrinkage and swelling processes. They found that a typical swelling curve consists of two distinctive parts, the virgin swelling and the residual swelling curves. The virgin swelling curve contributes more than 80 % of the total soil volume expansion. The semi-log plot [Fig. 4(b)] also shows two distinctive swelling slopes, a primary swelling slope and a secondary swelling slope. The secondary swelling slope represents a decreasing rate of volume change over time. The primary swells at a gradient of 80 %/cycle and decreases to 9 %/cycle along the secondary swelling [Fig. 4(b)]. The intersection of the two curves indicates the end of primary swelling. For specimen 189 AR = 0.15, the end of primary swelling occurred at t = 2.5 d, which is very efficient for this type of test. Overall, primary swelling contributes more than 80 % of the total swelling strains (volumetric strain at t = 2.5 is 54 %, and final total swell is 63 %), which is consistent with results from Peng and Horn (2007). After four days, the specimen swelled at a log-linear rate for the remainder of the test. The test was completed after 27 days.

Test ID	Target Aspect Ratio <i>H</i> / <i>d</i>	Height <i>H</i> , mm	Diameter <i>d</i> , mm	Bulk Density γ, Mg/m ³	Dry Density $\gamma_d$ , Mg/m ³	Water Content w, %	Void Ratio <i>e</i>	Specific Volume V	Degree of Saturation <i>S_r</i> , %
189_AR=0.15	0.15	7.6	51.2	2.02	1.71	17.8	0.61	1.61	81.0
189_AR=0.25	0.25	13.7	51.4	1.85	1.60	15.6	0.72	1.72	59.5
189_AR=0.75	0.75	38.9	51.5	2.02	1.75	15.2	0.57	1.57	73.8
189_AR=2.0	2.0	101.9	51.6	2.00	1.74	15.3	0.58	1.58	72.4

-100

TABLE 1—Initial conditions for unconfined swelling tests.

Test results for four specimens, which varied in their target ARs (AR = 0.15, 0.25, 0.75, and 2.0), are presented in Fig. 5 on linear and logarithmic time scales. The four specimens had identical initial dry densities of  $1.7 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ , except for the specimen with AR = 0.25, which had a density of  $1.6 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ . The varying ARs enabled an interpretation of the dimensional effect on swelling behavior. The test results show similar trends with high initial swelling rates that decreased over time. The specimens with smaller ARs (0.15, 0.25, and 0.75) reached equilibrium in less than 20 days and achieved similar overall swelling magnitudes. The initial rate of swelling is related to the AR of a specimen; the smaller the AR, the higher the rate of swelling. The specimen with AR = 2.0 had a significantly lower initial swelling rate and, based

on Fig. 5(a), achieved a significantly lower swelling magnitude at the end of the test.

Re-plotting the time-dependent swell data on a semi-log plot [Fig. 5(*b*)] shows similar results for the specimens with lower ARs and different behavior for the larger AR (AR = 2.0). The three lower AR specimens showed distinctive primary and secondary swelling curves with progressively increasing equilibration times ranging from 2.5 days for AR = 0.15 to 19 days for AR = 0.75. Even after almost 70 days of testing, a secondary swelling curve was not evident in the AR = 2.0 specimen. If the primary swelling curve is projected to the equilibrium strains for the smaller specimens, the end of primary swelling may arrive at between 120 and 250 days. A swelling test of this length is not feasible for normal site characterizations.



AR=0.15 a) AR=0.25 AR=0.75 -80 AR=2.0 Volumetric strain,  $\epsilon_v$  (%) -60 -40 -20 0 40 0 20 60 80 Time (d) -100 AR=0.15 b) AR=0.25 AR=0.75 -80 AR=2.0 Projected curve Volumetric strain,  $\epsilon_v$  (%) -60 t=120-250 -40 Not equilibrated -20 0 10-2 10⁰ 10¹ 10² 10³ 10-Time (d)

FIG. 4—Volumetric, axial, and radial strain versus time for  $189_AR = 0.15$  upon wetting plotted versus time on (a) a linear scale and (b) a logarithmic scale.

FIG. 5—Volumetric strain versus time for varied aspect ratios plotted on (a) a linear scale and (b) a logarithmic scale.

Test ID	Target Aspect Ratio <i>H/d</i>	Surface Area/Volume, $m^2/m^3$	Time to End of Primary Swelling, d	Primary Swelling Slope, %/cycle	Secondary Swelling Slope, %/cycle	Initial Swelling Rate, %/d
189_AR=0.15	0.15	0.34	2.5	-80	-9	0.227
189_AR=0.25	0.25	0.22	4	-35	-7	0.147
189_AR=0.75	0.75	0.13	19	-39	-20	0.081
189_AR=2.0	2.0	0.10	120–250 ^a	-37	—	0.045

TABLE 2—Swelling rate for unconfined swelling.

^aProjected.

The time required in order to achieve the end of primary swelling is directly related to the AR and the associated drainage length of the specimen. Unconfined swelling test results are summarized in Table 2 in terms of the duration needed to reach the end of primary swelling, primary swelling slope, secondary swelling slope, and initial swelling rate. Smaller ARs are associated with higher surface-area-to-volume ratios. Holding the initial diameter constant and increasing the height from 7.6 mm (AR = 0.15) to 101.9 mm (AR = 2.0) resulted in a 100-fold increase in the time to the end of primary swelling. The specimens that arrived at the end of primary swelling showed consistent swell magnitudes relative to their initial conditions. Thus, reducing the size decreases the overall testing time without having a significant effect on the final results.

The use of image analysis allows the measurement of axial and radial deformations that can be used to study potential anisotropic swelling behavior. Axial and radial strains are plotted against time in Fig. 4(a), and further data are presented in Fig. 6, which shows radial strain versus axial strain. Also plotted in Fig. 6 are triaxial swelling results from constant mean stress swelling tests, performed at 200 kPa and 400 kPa mean stress, on Bearpaw clay (Powell et al. 2013). The unconfined swelling test results initiate at the origin and plot into the lower left quadrant. The four swelling tests show internal variability in terms of the relative anisotropy; however, broadly speaking, swelling occurs along the 1:1 line. Figure 6(b) shows a close-up view of the higher stress swelling data. During swelling, the deformations occur along similar slopes in the higher stress tests, indicating that the swell properties are consistent with what is observed in the unconfined swelling tests.

#### End-of-test Measurements

The end-of-test measurements display the consistency of the results, as well as the benefits of using smaller test specimens. The end-of-test volume strain is plotted in Fig. 7 and summarized in Table 3 versus the AR. The GeoPIV and caliper end-of-test measurements are in good agreement, as plotted in Fig. 7. The difference between the caliper measurement and GeoPIV analysis is within  $\pm 2$  mm, as presented in Table 3. The effect of the discrepancy was analyzed, and it contributes to a difference in volumetric strain of +3 % to -11 % depending on the original size of the specimens. Caliper measurements are generally different, as the soil specimen will have become very soft by the end of the test. Extreme care is needed when taking caliper measurements on the softened soil. The average swelling deformation from the caliper measurement and GeoPIV analysis is around 70 %. This deformation

tion is considered as the maximum volumetric strain upon wetting. The two types of volume measurements show general agreement with similar end-of-test volume strains and changes in height and diameter.



FIG. 6—Radial strain versus axial strain upon swelling highlighting the similarity to triaxial swelling tests in part (b).



FIG. 7—End-of-test volumetric strain versus aspect ratio (H/d) for caliper and GeoPIV methods.

FIG. 8—Spatial distribution of end-of-test moisture content.

TABLE 3—Comparison of caliper and GeoPIV measurements for unconfined swelling tests.

		Ca	aliper	Ge	eoPIV	Diff	erence Between C	Caliper and GeoPIV
Test ID	Target Aspect Ratio <i>H/d</i>	Height <i>H</i> , mm	Diameter <i>d</i> , mm	Height <i>H</i> , mm	Diameter <i>d</i> , mm	Height <i>H</i> , mm	Diameter <i>d</i> , mm	∆End-of-Test Volumetric Strain, %
189_AR=0.15	0.15	9.7	61.3	8.7	61.3	-1.0	0.0	-11
189_AR=0.25	0.25	15.7	60.9	15.8	59.4	0.1	-1.5	-4
189_AR=0.75	0.75	45.7	61.3	46.4	61.3	0.7	0.0	3
189_AR=2.0	2.0	117.5	59.3	117.4	57.3	-0.1	-2.0	-5



FIG. 9—Initial and end-of-test (EOT) (a) gravimetric water content, (b) degree of saturation, and (c) specific volume versus aspect ratio (H/d).

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Test ID	Height <i>H</i> , mm	Diameter <i>d</i> , mm	Bulk Density γ, Mg/m ³	Dry Density $\gamma_d$ , Mg/m ³	Water Content w, %	Void Ratio <i>e</i>	Specific Volume V	Degree of Saturation $S_r$ , %	Volumetric Strain $\varepsilon_{\nu}, \%$
189_AR=0.15	9.7	61.3	1.56	0.97	61.4	1.84	2.84	91.8	-62.5
189_AR=0.25	15.7	60.9	1.68	1.01	66.5	1.72	2.72	106.4	-54.4
189_AR=0.75	45.7	61.3	1.66	1.08	53.8	1.54	2.54	96.0	-71.4
189_AR=2.0	117.5	59.3	1.70	1.16	46.7	1.38	2.38	93.4	-45.1

TABLE 4—End-of-test results for unconfined swelling.

After the unconfined swelling tests are complete, the spatial distribution of the moisture content is measured radially. The gravimetric water content is measured at three different radial locations (R1, R2, and R3, moving from the center to the perimeter of the specimen) using cutters with diameters of 36.4 mm and 13.6 mm. The results in Fig. 8 show that the water content decreased toward the inner core of the specimen. The water content at the outer area of the specimen was the highest relative to the other two locations. The outer area of the soil specimen has the most direct access to water; water needs to permeate a longer path through the soil particles toward the core of the specimen.

Summaries of the end-of-test measurements are plotted in Fig. 9 and listed in Table 4. Figure 9(*a*) demonstrates the results for the gravimetric water content of the specimens at the beginning and the end of swelling tests. The target initial compacted state was optimum water content and dry density. By the end of the test, the water content had increased to a range of 46 % to 67 %. The final degree of saturation reached more than 90 % [refer to Fig. 9(*b*)], which indicates high saturation, especially considering that there was no external confining stress or back pressure applied to the specimens. The initial and the end-of-test specific volumes are plotted in Fig. 9(*c*). The soil specimens had relatively homogeneous compaction because the initial specific volume was in the range of 1.57 to 1.61, except in the specimen with AR = 0.25, which had a slightly larger void (V = 1.72) and a slightly lower initial dry density ( $\gamma_d = 1.60 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ).

In order to demonstrate that the specimens had achieved a satisfactory degree of saturation by the end of the test, data are presented in a plot of dry density versus gravimetric water content. In



FIG. 10—Initial and end-of-test (EOT) dry density versus water content and modified Proctor results for sample 189.

Fig. 10, the initial compacted soil specimens are close to the optimum point. By the end of the test, the soil specimens had reached the line above  $S_r = 90$  %, which indicates a high degree of saturation. The extent to which the soil swelled from its compacted state demonstrates the high swelling potential of the Bearpaw clay-shale.

# The Swell Equilibrium Limit of Compacted Bearpaw Soil

The Swell Equilibrium Limit is a unifying concept used to analyze and predict maximum swelling potential which may be realized as expansion or swelling induced pressure. Powell et al. (2013) reported a Swell Equilibrium Limit for natural Bearpaw, which is



FIG. 11—Swell equilibrium limit from unconfined swelling, triaxial swelling, and oedometer swelling pressure tests.

Copyright by ASTM Int'l (all rights reserved); Fri Nov 15 16:26:49 EST 2013 Downloaded/printed by Royal Military Coll of Canada pursuant to License Agreement. No further reproductions authorized. presented in Fig. 11 along with the unconfined swell data from the current study. Powell et al. (2013) reported triaxial swelling and oedometer swelling pressure test results and showed the influence of sample depth on the Swell Equilibrium Limit. The data from the unconfined swelling tests are plotted along the *v*-axis in the linear scale and at 0.1 kPa (arbitrary value) in the semi-log plot [Fig. 11(b)]. There is noted variation in the final specific volume values for the unconfined swelling tests; however, this is in line with the variation noted by Beddoe et al. (2011) in swelling tests on geosynthetic clay liners performed at 2-kPa vertical stress. A Swell Equilibrium Limit for sample 189 is interpreted from the oedometer tests and unconfined swelling tests. With the low-stress data points, the upper-bound limit of swelling potential in this framework is measured experimentally. The data points at very low stress represent the worst-case scenario in which a soil would expand to its full potential at low confining stress.

#### Conclusions

An unconfined swelling test apparatus and methodology are presented for measuring the maximum swelling deformation of a soil under true free stress conditions. The methodology includes a non-contact method using digital image analysis to measure deformations. The in-test results indicate that primary and secondary swelling behavior and anisotropic swelling can be measured using the employed non-contact deformation method. The soil swelling deformation calculated with GeoPIV analysis is also in general agreement with end-of-test measurements. The effect of the AR on the swelling behavior is noted regarding the initial swelling rate and the time needed to reach equilibrium with the applied wetting conditions. The end-of-test measurements indicate consistent behavior for the specimens tested and that a high degree of saturation was achieved during the test. The maximum swelling deformation for Bearpaw soil is in the range of 60 % to 70 % volumetric strain under unconfined swelling conditions. The results are interpreted in the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework to allow analysis and prediction of swelling soil deformations. This extends the use of the Swell Equilibrium Limit framework down to nominal stress levels.

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ORIGINAL PAPER

### **Influence of Pore Fluid Chemistry on the Mechanical Properties of Clay-Based Materials**

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Abstract The producers of nuclear waste, within all countries exploring options, including Canada, have determined the long-term solution to be a deep geological repository. In the Canadian concept, within the deep geologic repository a number of clay-based barriers will separate the containers from the surrounding geosphere. Following placement the surrounding groundwater will infiltrate into the repository. In order to analyze the performance of the repository under very complex conditions, accurate material properties are required. The chemistry of the host rock is an important aspect as the behaviour of clay-based barrier materials could be affected by the saturating saline groundwater. This paper investigates the saturated mechanical behaviour of light backfill (composed of 50 % silica sand and 50 % Na-bentonite

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A. Man Golder Associates, Winnipeg, MB, Canada clay) and dense backfill (composed of 70 % crushed granite, 25 % glacial lake clay and 5 % Na-bentonite clay) and the quantifying the effect of pore fluid chemistry on the strength and compressibility behaviour of the materials. The results indicate that light backfill behaviour is strongly influenced by its pore fluid chemistry while dense backfill shows limited effects. The material parameters of light backfill and dense backfill are interpreted for input into numerical simulations. These results and interpretation enrich the understanding of the mechanical response of light and dense backfill, two components of the sealing system of the Canadian deep geologic repository.

**Keywords** Used nuclear fuel storage · Engineered barriers · Triaxial · Pore fluid chemistry · Mechanical properties · Bentonite

#### 1 Introduction

A number of countries are currently considering proposed solutions for long-term storage of spent nuclear fuel (for example, Pusch 2001; Thomas et al. 2003; Romero et al. 2005; Johannesson et al. 2007; Villar et al. 2008; Gens et al. 2009; Tang et al. 2011). The Canadian repository concept for disposal of radioactive and chemical wastes is a multi-component sealing system (Fig. 1) placed deep underground (>500 m) in either crystalline or low permeability sedimentary rock (NWMO 2005). A number of

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Fig. 1 Cross-section of the in-room emplacement concept for the Canadian deep geologic repository system (modified from Gierszewski et al. 2004)

engineered barrier materials will be placed between the waste containers and the local geosphere that are designed for specific requirements of the repository. The overall design requirements for the barrier materials are to support the waste containers, transfer thermal energy from the initially hot containers to the cooler end of the repository and cease movement of radionuclides from the repository to surrounding environment.

The sealing system components are designed to function under a wide range of environmental conditions, which are time-dependent. The repository and surrounding host rock will undergo thermal, hydraulic, mechanical, chemical and biological processes until the system reaches a state of equilibrium. Initially the waste containers are at an elevated temperature (up to 100 °C); the barriers will transfer the thermal energy to the local environment while at the same time moisture will move away from the containers following the thermal gradient. Local groundwater will begin to infiltrate into the repository. Groundwater in the Canadian Shield, one of the potential host locations, has total dissolved solids (TDS) concentration ranging from 8 to >100 g/L (Pearson 1985). A second potential host location is in sedimentary formations within Southern Ontario. Mazurek (2004) reported TDS between 191 and 325 g/L at depths greater than 300 m in groundwater from southwestern Ontario as well as the Michigan Basin. The coupled processes that involve in reaching equilibrium at the repository environment can be influenced by the chemistry of the groundwater of the proposed location of host rock.

One of the first studies considering the sensitivity of the physical properties of clay to pore fluid chemistry was reported in Winterkorn and Moorman (1941). Other early investigations on the influence of pore fluid chemistry focused mainly on the peak strength of clay materials (Skempton and Northey 1952; Rosenqvist 1953; Bjerrum 1954; Matsuo 1957; Moum and Rosenqvist 1961; Warkentin and Yong 1962). Later focus was given to study the effect of pore fluid chemistry on residual strength (Kenny 1967; Ramiah et al. 1970; Steward and Cripps 1983; Moore 1991, 1992; Di Maio and Fenelli 1994; Di Maio 1996; Anson and Hawkins 1998). The knowledge gained from these studies suggests that pore fluid chemistry has significant impacts on the strength of clay-based materials. However, little is known about the stress-strain behaviour of clayey materials with respect to effective stress. A recent study by Man and Graham (2010) presented the impact of pore fluid chemistry on stressstrain and yielding behaviour of highly plastic Lake Agassiz clay from the Red River valley in southern Manitoba.

In the Canadian concept for a spent nuclear fuel repository, the most widely studied sealing material is bentonite-sand buffer including saturated (Sun 1986; Saadat 1989; Oswell 1991; Yin 1990) as well as unsaturated experiments (Blatz 2000; Wan 1996; Tang 1999; Tang et al. 2002; Blatz and Graham 2003; Blatz et al. 2007; Siemens and Blatz 2009). Bentonite-sand buffer has the same overall composition as light backfill but with higher dry density  $(\rho_d = 1.65 \text{ Mg/m}^3 \text{ compared with } \rho_d = 1.24 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ for light backfill). These studies indicate that saturated bentonite-sand buffer generally behaves as similar to a normally consolidated plastic clay. Although no experiments were performed to investigate the stressstrain behaviour of bentonite-sand buffer under changes of pore fluid chemistry.

Quantifying the effect of elevated saline concentration on the mechanical properties of two of the clay-based barrier materials that are proposed in the Canadian repository concept is the objective of this paper. There is limited experimental data available for light backfill and dense backfill (Siddiqua et al. 2011a, b), which have been identified as a constraint for attempts to model the behaviour of sealing materials in potential repository settings (Priyanto et al. 2008). The influence of pore water chemistry on the saturated mechanical properties of two clay-based barriers (light backfill and dense backfill) is reported. The first material, light backfill, is composed of equal parts bentonite and sand with dry density 1.24 Mg/m³ and sand while the second material is made up of a combination of crushed rock (70 %), natural swelling clay (25 %) and bentonite clay (5 %) compacted to a dry density of 2.12 Mg/m³. Two pore fluids were tested including distilled water (Siddiqua et al. 2011b) and a CaCl₂ solution at >225 g/L (227 g/L) for light backfill and 250 g/L for dense backfill). The effect of pore water chemistry was found to be different for the two materials based on their bentonite content.

#### 2 Materials and Methods

#### 2.1 Material Properties

Light backfill and dense backfill were the two claybased materials studied in the experimental program. Light backfill is a 50:50 mixture by dry weight of silica sand and Na-bentonite clay. Within the repository the target initial dry density for light backfill is 1.24  $\pm$ 0.02 Mg/m³ and water content of  $15 \pm 0.2$  %, which gives an initial degree of saturation of approximately 33 %. The second material of the experimental program is dense backfill, composed of 70 % crushed granite, 25 % glacial lake clay and 5 % Na-bentonite clay by dry weight. The glacial lake clay is composed of 95-99 % clay-sized fraction (Man and Graham 2010). The initial target dry density for dense backfill within the repository is  $2.12 \pm 0.02$  Mg/m³ and water content of 8.5  $\pm$  0.2 %, which results in a degree of saturation of approximately 80 %. Table 1 summarizes the preconsolidation pressure, swelling pressure, and hydraulic conductivity of light backfill and dense backfill for the pore fluids tested.

The bentonite component of materials is commercially mined Wyoming Bentonite. The Wyoming Bentonite was purchased from Bentonite Corporation of Wyoming under the trade name Standard-Western Bentonite (200 mesh). As received in the laboratory the sodium (Na) bentonite is in powder form following processing. It is composed of 75 % montmorillonite with the remaining being quartz and feldspars. The other clay component is the glacial lake clay, which is dominated by illite and also contains quantities of other minerals such as quartz, feldspar, dolomite and pyroxene.

Table 1 Material properties of light backfill and dense backfill (Siddiqua et al. 2011a)

Material	Pore fluid	Preconsolidation pressure (kPa)	Swelling pressure (kPa)	Hydraulic conductivity (m/s)
Light backfill	DW	100-150	120	$10^{-12} - 10^{-13}$
Light backfill	227 g/L	45	28	$10^{-11} - 10^{-12}$
Dense backfill	DW	180-300	250	$10^{-11} - 10^{-12}$
Dense backfill	250 g/L	450	78	$10^{-10} - 10^{-11}$

#### 2.2 Triaxial Specimen Preparation

Triaxial specimen preparation followed standard testing procedures developed for clay-based barriers (Siemens and Blatz 2007, 2009; Siddiqua et al. 2011b). Prior to mixing light backfill with the desired pore fluid, the material was placed in oven for 48 h at  $100 \pm 5$  °C to ensure consistent initial moisture content and dry density following compaction. The material was then removed and sealed in a mixing bowl to allow thermal equilibrium within the laboratory environment and at the same time preventing the adsorption of moisture from the atmosphere. A premeasured mass of de-aired distilled water or chemical solution was sprayed on the desired amount of dry sample and gently mixed to ensure uniform distribution. For specimens mixed with a chemical solution the mass of dissolved salts was taken into account in moisture content calculations. After mixing, the material was compacted to form 50 mm diameter by 100 mm tall cylindrical specimens. A strain-based criterion was employed for specimen compaction to ensure consistent dry density across the test specimen. The material was statically compacted in five 20 mm lifts and remaining material was used for confirmatory water content measurement. After compaction the specimen was installed in a triaxial cell.

The material composition of dense backfill demands a different technique for specimen preparation compared with light backfill. Specimens were prepared by separating the finer components (clay) from the granular ones (crushed rock) using a 2.38 mm sieve. After separation, the finer components were pulverized in order to break down the clay clumps and ensure even moisture conditions and remixed with granular portion and placed in oven at  $100 \pm 5$  °C for 48 h. Periodically, during completion of the test matrix, grain-size analysis was performed to confirm that the composition of the dense backfill specimens was consistent. The remaining steps were similar to light backfill specimen preparation however the size of the dense backfill triaxial specimens were 102 mm in diameter and 250 mm in height.

Two types of pore fluid were selected for the triaxial tests to represent the range of potential field pore fluid salinities, distilled water and CaCl₂ solution. Light backfill specimens were saturated with 227 g/L CaCl₂ solution and dense backfill specimens were saturated with 250 g/L CaCl₂ solution.

#### 2.3 Triaxial Tests

The test matrix for triaxial tests is presented in Table 2. Triaxial specimens were subjected to consolidated drained testing (CID) or consolidated undrained testing with pore water pressure measurement (CIU) in general accordance with ASTM D4767 (2004). The initial moisture content, dry density and effective montmorillonite dry density (EMDD) are also listed in Table 2. EMDD is defined as the mass of montmorillonite divided by the sum of the volume of montmorillonite and void space. Following compaction specimens were installed in the triaxial cell and immediately subjected to their target mean effective stress levels. The saturation and consolidation procedures of triaxial specimens were developed after several trials. It is important to note that due to a low hydraulic conductivity of light backfill (Table 1), 12-14 months were required to achieve full saturation. Saturation of all specimens was verified via B tests. Once a B test value greater than 0.95 was achieved, the specimen was considered to be saturated. Saturation data and observed B test values for LBF_1007 were plotted in Fig. 2 for example to show the extended time period (>1 year) required to achieve the target degree of saturation. Measurements were taken during the saturation phase to record the volume of liquid uptake by the specimens. After achieving the target degree of saturation, specimens were sheared at a constant displacement rate of 0.0021 mm/min. During the shearing phase, measurements of axial load, axial strain, cell pressure and back pressure were recorded. Drainage of the specimen was prevented in CIU tests with measurement of pore water pressure taken near the base of the triaxial cell. Volume change was measured during the shearing of the specimens in CID tests using burettes connected to the specimen drainage lines. After removal, numerous height and diameter measurements were taken as well as wax density tests in some cases to establish the end-of-test dry density and void ratio.

#### **3** Test Results and Analysis

#### 3.1 Stress–Strain Behaviour

Triaxial test results for light backfill specimens saturated with distilled water and 227 g/L CaCl₂

Table 2 Test matrix and	l measured properties	s of light backfill and	dense backfill					
Material (test type)	Specimen ID	Pore fluid	Effective stress (kPa)	Initial moisture content (%)	Initial dry density (mg/m ³ )	Initial EMDD (mg/m ³ )	Initial void ratio (–)	Void ratio before shearing (–)
Light backfill (CIU)	GS-LB15	DW	400	15.3	1.19	0.643	1.293	1.540
	GS-LB09	DW	800	15.6	1.21	0.661	1.247	1.360
	GS-LB10	DW	006	13.0	1.24	0.679	1.205	1.249
	JB-LB17	DW	1,200	17.0	1.18	0.635	1.317	1.343
	$LBF_{-}1004$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	400	14.0	1.28	0.707	1.104	0.630
	$LBF_{-}1008$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	800	13.2	1.28	0.710	1.096	0.536
	$LBF_{-}1010$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	1,200	13.4	1.28	0.713	1.111	0.572
Light backfill (CID)	GS-LB11	DW	400	15.5	1.25	0.692	1.174	1.569
	GS-LB14	DW	800	15.5	1.23	0.677	1.209	1.429
	GS-LB12	DW	1,200 (1)	15.0	1.23	0.678	1.206	1.142
	JB-LB16	DW	1,200 (2)	15.4	1.20	0.656	1.509	1.324
	$LBF_{-}1009$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	400	11.7	1.30	0.726	1.085	0.653
	$LBF_{-}1006$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	800	14.3	1.26	0.699	1.120	0.544
	$LBF_{-}1007$	227 g/L CaCl ₂	1,200	14.3	1.27	0.705	1.276	0.522
Dense backfill (CIU)	GS-DBF19	DW	400	6.6	2.12	0.451	0.273	0.230
	JB-DB16	DW	800	6.4	2.10	0.432	0.311	0.197
	GS-DBF17	DW	006	6.8	2.15	0.477	0.257	0.231
	SS-DBF02	250 g/L CaCl ₂	800	8.0	2.13	0.458	0.269	0.177
Dense backfill (CID)	JB-DBF15	DW	400	6.2	2.10	0.438	0.306	0.241
	GS-DB18	DW	800	6.8	2.12	0.454	0.271	0.212
	JB-DBF13	DW	1,200	5.5	2.15	0.476	0.281	0.161
	SS-DBF01	250 g/L CaCl ₂	400	9.4	2.03	0.382	0.328	0.258
	SS-DBF03	250 g/L CaCl ₂	800	6.8	2.17	0.505	0.243	0.170
	SS-DBF04	250 g/L CaCl ₂	1,200	7.4	2.11	0.439	0.282	0.199



Fig. 2 Saturation and B test data for light backfill specimen LBF_1007 saturated with 227 g/L CaCl₂



Fig. 3 a Stress paths for CID triaxial tests on light backfill. b Stress paths for CIU triaxial tests on light backfill



Fig. 4 a Stress-strain curves for CID triaxial tests on light backfill. b Stress-strain curves for CIU triaxial tests on light backfill

solution are plotted in Figs. 3 and 4. Triaxial shearing was completed using one of two stress paths, which were drained (CID) or undrained (CIU). Figure 3a, b displays the data (grouped by test type) in deviator stress (q) versus mean effective stress (p') and Fig. 4a, b displays the same tests as deviator stress versus axial strain ( $\epsilon_1$ ). The CID tests display a clear q:p' = 3:1 relationship (Fig. 3a) for both saline pore fluid and distilled water specimens. Based on the preconsolidation pressure (Table 1) all tests specimens are normally consolidated. Comparing the tests in terms of the pore fluids, the CaCl₂ specimens show an increase in initial stiffness as well as the peak and post-peak stress clearly displaying the effect of pore fluid chemistry within the experimental conditions. In the distilled water specimens for both CID and CIU strain-



**Fig. 5 a** Relationship between specific volume and mean effective stress, p', during CID shearing for light backfill specimens saturated with distilled water and 227 g/L CaCl₂. **b** Pore pressure–axial strain relationship for CIU triaxial tests on light backfill

softening of the material is observed with additional straining beyond peak (for axial strain >10 %). The strain-softening behaviour of the material is clearer in Fig. 4a, b. Little strain-softening is observed for the specimens saturated with chemical solution for both CID and CIU tests.

The stress-volume paths for the CID tests are plotted in Fig. 5a in specific volume-mean effective stress space (V-p'). All test specimens had equivalent initial target dry density before installation in the triaxial cell. The only difference between the tests is the pore water chemistry. At the end of the saturation phase and during the shearing phase, the specimens saturated with saline solution had significantly lower specific volume (and associated dry density) than their distilled water counterparts (also listed in Table 1). The difference in specific volume ranges from  $\Delta V = 0.916$  at 400 kPa to  $\Delta V = 0.802$  at 1,200 kPa at the beginning of the shearing phase. In terms of CIU tests, the pore pressure and axial strain relationship are presented in Fig. 5b.

Whilst the light backfill test results displayed a significant effect of pore fluid chemistry, the dense backfill showed very little impact. The results plotted in Figs. 6 and 7 present dense backfill specimens saturated using distilled water and 250 g/L CaCl₂ effective stresses applied solution. For the (400–1,200 kPa) and the preconsolidation pressure (180-300 kPa for distilled and 450 kPa for CaCl₂ solution), the specimens are either normally consolidated or slightly overconsolidated. The stress paths in CID and CIU tests are presented in Fig. 6a, b respectively. The CID tests follow a clear 3:1 stress path in q:p' space (Fig. 6a). Both distilled water and CaCl₂ saturated specimens exhibited broadly similar stress-path behaviour with a similar peak strength magnitude. The stress-strain relationship plotted in Fig. 7a, b for dense backfill specimens generally displayed ductile behaviour with increasing strength to a peak value and little strain-softening. Broadly the stress-strain curves are similar with the initial stiffness of the distilled water specimens being somewhat greater than their CaCl₂ counterparts. Although the distilled water specimens show an increase in stiffness with increasing effective stress, the CaCl₂ specimens' stress-strain curves overlap with each other over the range of 400–1,200 kPa effective stress (Fig. 7a). Comparing the larger-strain behaviour, the tests with CaCl₂ pore fluid show that the peak is attained at higher strain than the distilled water tests at same effective stress level. Gradual strain-softening above 10 % axial strain is noted for CID tests performed at 800 and 1,200 kPa for both distilled water and CaCl₂ saturated specimens. The CIU test results (Fig. 7b) display ductile behaviour with strength increasing to a peak value which is maintained for the remainder of the test.

The stress–volume paths of the CID tests are plotted in Fig. 8a in specific volume–mean effective stress space (V–p'). Similar values of specific volume are noted for both specimens saturated with distilled water and 250 g/L CaCl₂. The results indicate little influence of the pore water chemistry on the equilibrium specific volume following saturation ( $\Delta V < 0.042$ ). During shearing the bulk stiffness of dense backfill also shows Fig. 6 a Stress paths fort CID triaxial tests on dense backfill. b Stress paths for CIU triaxial tests on dense backfill



insignificant influence of pore fluid chemistry with similar stiffness noted. Also, Fig. 8b presents the pore pressure changes with respect to axial strain for CIU tests.

Tests results have indicated that deformation patterns and failure mechanisms in light backfill and dense backfill are a function of pore water chemistry. Moreover, differences in material behaviour are also observed in light backfill depending on the type of pore fluid. Photographs of typical failure modes are shown in Fig. 9 of a 1,200 kPa distilled water CID test (Fig. 9a) and a 1,200 kPa CaCl₂ CIU test (Fig. 9b). The stress-strain behaviour indicated strain-softening for the distilled water specimen (Fig. 4a) and ductile behaviour for the CaCl₂ test (Fig. 4b). The failure modes of specimens agree with the observed behaviour with a well-defined shear plane apparent in the distilled water and ductile failure mode for the CaCl₂ specimen. Although the strain-softening occurred in the distilled water test, it occurs at axial strains greater than 10 %, which indicates an intermediate brittle nature of the material. The second material, dense backfill, showed consistent failure modes for the tests completed. A barrel shaped failure was observed for the material tested with both distilled water and CaCl₂ solution consistent with the stress–strain and stress paths followed.

#### 3.2 Yield States

While examining soil behaviour in an elastic–plastic framework, it is helpful to normalize deviator stress and mean effective stress with respect to the preconsolidation pressure (Graham et al. 1983, 1989, 1990; Blatz et al. 2007). The range of stresses applied in the tests (400–1,200 kPa) is greater than the preconsolidation pressure for the material (Table 1). Therefore, the specimens are normally consolidated and the results are presented in p'-q space normalized with respect to the maximum isotropic stress applied for individual tests in Figs. 10 and 11. Also plotted are the normalized yield envelopes for light backfill and dense backfill. The shapes are similar to earlier findings by Oswell (1991) for anisotropic behaviour of bentonite–



Fig. 7 a Stress-strain curves for CID triaxial tests on dense backfill. b Typical stress-strain curves for CIU triaxial tests on dense backfill

sand buffer. Oswell (1991) found that a single anisotropic yield locus could be used to describe the yield state of high density ( $\gamma_d = 1.67 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ) and low density ( $\gamma_d = 1.50 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ) bentonite–sand buffer.

The yield locus for light backfill specimens tested with distilled water indicates a narrow range of normalized yield stresses (Fig. 10). This corresponds to the fact that the material is relatively soft at its ascompacted state and behaves elastically for a small range of stresses. Beyond this range the material shows plastic hardening. Comparing the effect of pore fluid shows the yield envelope expands when the material tested is prepared and saturated with 227 g/L of CaCl₂. Given the significantly lower specific volume for light backfill saturated with saline pore fluid (Fig. 5; Table 2) an increase in yield state is



**Fig. 8** a Relationship between specific volume, V, and mean effective stress, p', during CID shearing for dense backfill specimens saturated with distilled water and 250 g/L CaCl₂. **b** Pore pressure–axial strain relationship for CIU triaxial tests on dense backfill

anticipated. Conversely the yield locus for dense backfill specimens is independent on the type of pore fluid. As plotted in Fig. 11, both distilled water and chemical solution saturated specimens reach similar normalized yield stresses.

#### 3.3 Strength Parameters

Shear strength of light backfill indicates an influence of pore water chemistry while dense backfill shows no detectable difference. Peak and post-peak strength parameters have been defined using the shearing data and are plotted in Fig. 12 for light backfill and Fig. 13 for dense backfill. Table 3 provides a summary of strength parameters for light backfill and dense backfill include slope M (peak or critical state) in p'q space and the corresponding Mohr–Coulomb angle



**Fig. 9** Typical failure modes for light backfill specimens. **a** Light backfill distilled water CID specimen tested at 1,200 kPa illustrating typical shear-plane failure mode. **b** Light backfill CaCl₂ CIU specimen tested at 1,200 kPa illustrating typical ductile failure mode



Fig. 10 Yielding states in normalized p'-q space for light backfill

of friction. The slope  $M_{peak} = 0.4$  for distilled water saturated light backfill specimens and increases to  $M_{peak} = 0.96$  for specimens saturated with 227 g/L CaCl₂ solution. This corresponds to Mohr–Coulomb angle of friction  $\phi'_{peak} = 11^{\circ}$  for distilled water and  $\phi'_{peak} = 24^{\circ}$  for the CaCl₂ solution. This data yield a slope  $M_{cs} = 0.37$  for distilled water saturated light backfill specimens and  $M_{cs} = 0.9$  for light backfill specimens saturated with CaCl₂ solution. The Mohr– Coulomb angle of friction at critical state for distilled water becomes  $\phi'_{cs} = 10^{\circ}$  and for the CaCl₂ solution increases to  $\phi'_{cs} = 22^{\circ}$ . These results suggest that the slope M and corresponding angle of friction increase directly with pore fluid chemistry.

Fig. 11 Yielding states in normalized p'-q space for dense backfill

A similar approach is adopted to define the strength parameters for dense backfill (Fig. 13). The slope, M at peak ( $M_{peak}$ ) and post peak, i.e. at critical state ( $M_{cs}$ ) is 1.1, which yields to a Mohr–Coulomb angle of friction  $\phi' = 28^{\circ}$  (Table 3). Most importantly, altering the pore fluid chemistry did not show any detectable impact on the material's strength.

#### 3.4 Material Stiffness

Material stiffness was compared between the distilled water and  $CaCl_2$  solution specimens to investigate the effect of pore fluid chemistry. Young's modulus (E) was calculated from  $q-\varepsilon_1$  behaviour obtained from



**Fig. 12** a Peak strengths in p'-q space for light backfill. **b** Post peak strengths in p'-q space for light backfill



Fig. 13 Peak and post peak strengths in p'-q space for dense backfill

 Table 3
 Summary of strength parameters for light and dense backfill

Material	Pore fluid	Peak s (p'-q s	tate pace)	Post pe state	eak
		M _{peak}	φ' _{peak} (°)	M _{peak}	φ' _{cs} (°)
Light backfill	DW	0.40	11	0.37	10
Light backfill	227 g/L CaCl ₂	0.96	24	0.90	22
Dense backfill	DW	1.1	28	1.1	28
Dense backfill	250 g/L $CaCl_2$	1.1	28	1.1	28



**Fig. 14** Young's modulus ( $E_1 \%$  and  $E_{50}$ ) for light backfill and dense backfill at varying isotropic consolidation pressure grouped by pore fluid chemistry

CID tests (Figs. 4a, 7a) and CIU tests respectively (Figs. 4b, 7b). Figure 14 presents data for Young's modulus as a function of mean effective stress. Results were grouped according to the material type and pore fluid chemistry.  $E_1 \%$  was interpreted by selecting deviator stress at axial strain of 1 % and calculating the secant modulus.  $E_{50}$  was calculated by selecting axial strain at 50 % of maximum deviator stress and calculating the secant modulus.

Stiffness of light backfill generally increases with effective stress for both pore fluids as expected. The effect of pore fluid chemistry significantly impacted the stiffness parameters of light backfill. The values for the CaCl₂ tests (open black symbols in Fig. 14) are greater than distilled water ones (closed black symbols) tested at the same isotropic consolidation pressure.

Dense backfill stiffness for distilled water specimens increases with mean effective stress. Young's modulus for 250 g/L CaCl₂ (open red symbols in Fig. 14) was similar to distilled water at 400 kPa, however, little influence of confining stress was noted. At 1,200 kPa the stiffness of distilled water specimens is more than double the 250 g/L CaCl₂ counterparts.

#### 4 Interpretation

#### 4.1 Light Backfill

The pore water chemistry has a notable influence on the mechanical behaviour of saturated light backfill. The material is composed of 50 % Na-bentonite as well as an elevated EMDD and, therefore, mechanical properties were anticipated to be strongly influenced by the pore water chemistry. The triaxial test results indicate that increasing the saline content of the pore fluid from zero to 227 g/L of CaCl2 increases the shear strength (Figs. 3, 4, 12; Table 3), normalized yield envelope (Fig. 10) and stiffness (Fig. 14) properties of light backfill. Light backfill also has a tighter structure when prepared and saturated with high salinity pore fluid as indicated by a lower specific volume (Fig. 5; Table 2). The cations within the pore fluid reduce the diffusive double layer thickness resulting in a more stable structure (Barbour and Yang 1993). This reduction in specific volume is associated with a tighter micro-structure of light backfill saturated with a chemical solution. The term open micro-structure is used to explain particle spacing with more edge-toedge or edge-to-face contacts of the particles. The tighter spacing reduces the specific volume and the additional particle contacts increase the friction angle. Therefore, the expansion of elastic region and the reduction in specific volume for these specimens can be a result of osmotically induced consolidation (Barbour and Yang 1993).

Within the scope of the experiments, these results clearly indicate that the change of pore fluid chemistry can influence the overall mechanical behaviour of light backfill material. This behaviour of the material can be explained by the diffuse double layer (DDL) concept (Mitchell 1993) and the effective stress concept described by Graham et al. (1992). The effective stress in clay can be written as follow (Graham et al. 1992):

$$\{\sigma'\} = \{\sigma^*\} + \{|\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{A}|\}$$
(1)

where  $\sigma'$  is the effective stress,  $\sigma^*$  is the stress transferred between physical contacts of particles, IR-Al is net long-range repulsive stress. Effective stress is a combination of two components; the stress ( $\sigma^*$ ) which is transferred between particles due to physical contacts including friction and cementation bonds and net long-range repulsive stress denoted by |R-A| in the equation. The thicker DDL result in higher repulsive forces for a given particle spacing (Yong et al. 1992) and an attractive force will exist between particles as a reason of van der Waals forces. These two forces can be integrated over a number of particles from a unit section of the material to obtain the long-range repulsive stress. Repulsion is governed by pore fluid chemistry, which plays significantly in volume changes, shear strength and hydraulic conductivity of active clay, such as bentonite (Graham 2006). In other words an increase in pore fluid salinity results in decrease in DDL thickness (Yong et al. 1992; Mitchell 1993), which causes the effective stress due to inter particle contacts ( $\sigma^*$ ) to dominate over net long-range repulsive stress.

Results of peak and critical-state parameters for light backfill clearly agreed with the above statements. Both peak and critical-state lines are observed to shift upwards indicating an increase of the slope M in p'-q space for the specimens saturated with chemical solution. Increases in the yield envelope and stiffness of light backfill were also noted.

#### 4.2 Dense Backfill

Results from dense backfill testing indicated limited influence of pore water chemistry on the mechanical behaviour. Although compacted to a high dry density, dense backfill is composed of just 5 % Na-bentonite and 25 % glacial clay, which results in a lower EMDD. Material properties for dense backfill prepared and saturated with distilled water were consistent with saline pore fluid for shear strength (Figs. 6, 7, 13; Table 3) and yielding (Fig. 11). The only exception was in the stiffness parameters (Fig. 14), which indicated dense backfill with distilled water was relatively stiffer compared with the saline pore fluid. Overall the results indicated that the crushed granite component (70 %) and high density has a stronger influence on the saturated mechanical behaviour rather than the clay components.

#### 5 Summary

Countries around the world are considering solutions to the challenge of long-term storing of used nuclear fuel. In the Canadian context, a deep geologic repository is a proposed solution, which involves surrounding waste containers with a number of engineered barriers within a stable geologic formation. Within the repository setting, the thermal energy stored in the containers will start to dissipate and the surrounding groundwater will infiltrate into the repository. Salinity of the groundwater within proposed geologic units is significantly high and, therefore, the effect of pore fluid chemistry on the behaviour of barrier materials is of interest to the performance of the repository.

Laboratory experiments on two proposed barrier materials, light backfill and dense backfill, were performed to examine the effect of pore fluid chemistry on the mechanical behaviour of the materials. Within the context of the experiments, light backfill showed a notable effect of the pore fluid chemistry, which included increased shear strength, stiffness and yield behaviour. This change in behaviour is consistent with a clay-dominated material with variable microstructure due to changes to the salinity of the pore fluid. The other sealing material considered, dense backfill, is composed mainly of crushed granite with a smaller percentage of active clays. Therefore material properties are not primarily dominated by the pore fluid chemistry. Dense backfill did not show any detectable sensitivity to the pore fluid chemistry on the shear strength and yielding behaviour with limited effects on the stiffness. The material properties are now available to be used in analysis of the proposed repository.

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## **APPENDIX L – PUBLISHED CONFERENCE PAPERS**

Lim, B.F., Siemens, G., Boyle, J.S., Remenda, V. and Take, A. 2008. Numerical analysis of expansive soil behaviour using the swell equilibrium limit. The 61st Canadian Geotechnical Conference, Edmonton, Alberta: 176-81.

# Numerical analysis of expansive soil behaviour using the Swell Equilibrium Limit



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#### ABSTRACT

Soil deformation in swelling clay often cause excessive ground movements and swell pressures on adjacent structures. The excessive deformation could cause adverse impacts on the integrity of a structure. Siemens and Blatz (2008a) proposed a new method to describe swelling soil behaviour which is known as the Swelling Equilibrium Limit (SEL). The proposed method captures the behaviour of expansive soil under the boundary conditions ranging from constant stress to constant volume. In the field, soil expansion is subjected to a wide influence of the boundary conditions that may be captured by the SEL. In this paper, a numerical analysis is completed to show how the SEL can be used to analyze foundations constructed in swelling soil. The numerical model is first calibrated to laboratory swell tests on Bearpaw Formation. Following calibration with the experimental data, the model is used to investigate soil deformations and induced-stresses of a basement foundation during wetting conditions. Sensitivity analysis was performed to determine the influence of model parameters.

#### RÉSUMÉ

La déformation des sols dans les argiles gonflantes causent souvent des pressions et des déplacements excessifs. La déformation excessive peut avoir des effets néfastes sur une structure. Siemens et Blatz (2008a) ont proposé une nouvelle méthode pour décrire le comportement des sols gonflants, connue sous le nom de Limite de Gonflement à l'Équilibre (LGE). La méthode proposée capte le comportement d'un sol gonflant sous des conditions limites allant de "contraintes constantes" à "volume constant". Sur le terrain, le gonflement est assujettis à une vaste gamme de conditions limites qui peuvent être captées par la LGE. Dans cet article, une analyse numérique est effectuée pour montrer comment la LGE peut être utilisée pour l'étude des fondations construites dans les sols gonflants. La LGE est tout d'abord calibrée contre des essais de gonflements réalisés sur du Formation de Bearpaw. Par la suite, le modèle est utilisé pour étudier les déplacements d'une fondation durant des conditions de mouillage. Une analyse de sensibilité à été réalisée pour déterminer l'influence des paramètres du modèle.

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

Structures constructed in expansive soil can be subjected to excessive swell-induced deformation or pressure which would adversely affect the structure's integrity. Engineered design should account for swell-induced impacts in order to avoid or minimize the cost of repairing the damage caused.

The evidence of damage caused by swelling to a residential basement is demonstrated in Figure 1. Cracking of floor slab is commonly seen as evidence of neglecting swelling considerations in expansive soil. If damage caused are not taken care of in a timely manner more serious structural defects can occur.

The objective of this paper is to present a practical design analysis that includes swell-induced effects. Recent insight gained from the research in expansive soil provides a different perspective from the conventional consideration. A new relationship termed the 'Swell Equilibrium Limit' (SEL) by Siemens and Blatz (2008a) is capable of describing general swelling soil behaviour in a

broader perspective. Traditionally the conventional onedimensional oedometer test measures the swell pressure and the amount of vertical heave (ASTM 4546). Swelling behaviour between the two extreme boundaries is not normally well defined in oedometer test. The SEL provides a general limit to swelling induced stresses and displacements. In this paper an example analysis using the Finite Element Method (FEM) is performed displaying use of the SEL in the foundation design. Oedometer results are converted into the SEL framework and then the SEL is used to predict equilibrium stresses and deformations on a foundation constructed in swelling soil.



Figure 1. Damage to houses caused by ground movements of swelling soils (Domaschuk, 1986).

#### 2 SWELL EQUILIBRIUM LIMIT (SEL)

The Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) forms a limit to expansion and swelling-induced stresses during wetting (Siemens and Blatz 2008a). It is a characteristic curve for each expansive soil depending on montmorillonite content and dry density. The SEL for bentonite-sand-buffer is plotted in Figure 2 in specific volume – mean stress space. It forms a limit to volume expansion and swelling-induced stress when the swell potential of the soil comes into equilibration with the imposed hydraulic and mechanical boundary conditions. The new relationship was discovered through the testing of highly expansive soil (bentonite-sand-buffer (BSB)) under the influence of controlled infiltration boundary conditions in an automated triaxial infiltration test (Siemens 2006, Siemens and Blatz 2008a). The SEL defines equilibrium swelling soil behaviour ranging from maximum expansion to maximum swelling induced stress.

#### 2.1 Stress Paths to reach the Swell Equilibrium Limit

The conventional oedometer test captures the swellinduced response in either free swelling or constant volume conditions in the vertical direction (ASTM 4546). The soil behaviour in between these two extremes is not normally defined. The newly developed automated triaxial apparatus (Siemens and Blatz 2008a) is able to apply general boundary conditions to the tested specimen during infiltration.

A schematic plot of the stress paths in the automated triaxial test is shown in Figure 3. In the triaxial infiltration test free swell is referred to as 'constant mean stress' (CMS) where no constraint of volume change is imposed to the specimen. Fully constrained volume change in the triaxial test is termed as 'constant volume' (CV) where the specimen is subjected to high confining pressure in order to maintain the specimen's original volume. The interim condition, termed 'constant stiffness' (CS) boundary condition under which both expansion and swelling-induced pressures are applied.



Figure 2. The Swell Equilibrium Limit (SEL) plotted in specific volume versus mean stress space.



Mean stress, p (kPa)



The SEL is directly defined by a curve fitting of all the 'end of test' experimental data points. The 'end of test' points indicate the final state of soil when the swelling potential comes into equilibrium under the imposed conditions. In addition, the SEL was shown to agree with one-dimensional swell pressure tests. Siemens and Blatz (2008a) successfully converted a swell pressure relationship given by Dixon et al. (2002) to compare with the SEL plot as shown in Figure 2. The relationship provided by Dixon et al. (2002) correlates onedimensional swell pressures with the 'effective montmorillonite dry density' (EMDD). Siemens and Blatz (2008a) detail the process to convert the swell pressure -EMDD to an equivalent mean stress using an assumption of elasticity. The converted curve from Dixon et al. (2002) shows remarkable well comparison to the SEL curve.

The current study shows how traditional onedimensional swell tests can be used in design in the SEL context. Traditional swell pressure tests were completed and the results used to predict swelling induced stresses and deformations on foundation footings and walls. Test data is obtained from an on-going research project (Boyle 2007) in which a series of one-dimensional swell pressure measurements have been made on samples of the Bearpaw Formation, an extensive, Cretaceous-age, clayey silt bedrock unit in southern Saskatchewan. Although examples of foundations constructed in Bearpaw are limited, the purpose of the paper is to display a design procedure for expansive soils. Using a similar process as detailed in Siemens and Blatz (2008a) and Siemens (2006), a preliminary SEL for Bearpaw was found and plotted in Figure 2. Comparing the BSB and Bearpaw SEL curves, the clay and montmorillonite content of BSB is higher than Bearpaw and it has a greater dry density (lower specific volume), hence the SEL curve of BSB is reasonably located at a higher point in the volume-stress plot. Higher swelling potential results in greater equilibrium induced-pressures and volume change. Given initial stress and volume conditions, the SEL is used to predict the swell-induced soil behaviour given initial soil conditions and boundary conditions that are defined by the foundation application.

# 3 NUMERICAL MODEL USING THE SWELL EQUILIBRIUM LIMIT

The finite element programs used in this paper are SIGMA/W and SEEP/W from GeoStudio 2007. The stress distribution and volume change are analysed in SIGMA/W while the pore water pressure distribution is generated in SEEP/W. The numerical analysis begins with calibration of the experimental data (oedometer) using the concept of the SEL.

#### 3.1 Insitu Analysis

The insitu analysis step builds in the initial stresses in the model. The initial condition is set-up by axis-symmetric (half-space model) 'insitu' analysis with the boundaries applied as per the oedometer test. As the soil specimen is constrained laterally in the oedometer ring both sides of the model boundaries are constrained horizontally but allowed to move vertically. A linear elastic model with Young's Modulus, E=50 MPa (Hanna and Little, 1992) and Poisson's ratio, v = 0.2 was used for this step. The insitu stress field is used as the initial stress condition for the subsequent free swell analysis.

#### 3.2 Free Swell Analysis

The free swelling process is modeled by the change in pore water pressure from unsaturated (with initial suction) to saturated (hydrostatic pressure) condition. Free swell in the numerical model is comparable to 'constant mean stress' in the SEL plot. The maximum volume change can be anticipated by the SEL curve where the soil will follow a vertical stress path from point 'a' to 'b' (Figure 3) until it reaches the SEL line.

In order to allow the soil to expand to the desired volume change, the soil stiffness is varied in the model until the amount of heave matches the prediction of the SEL curve. The free swell stiffness with respect to the predicted heave in numerical model is termed ' $E_{\text{free swell}}$ '.

For the laboratory study specimens were taken from a depth of 45 to 90m and had an unknown initial suction following removal from the insitu condition. The influence of the initial pore water pressure distribution was examined by varying three different suction levels ( $\Delta$ suction), namely, 600kPa, 1000kPa and 1500kPa. Interestingly, the ratio of Efree swell/ $\Delta$ suction obtained from the numerical model is 5 for all the three different suction levels. A constant ratio was anticipated since the same displacement was modelled for each case.

There is inadequate test results on the material properties under the influence of different suctions in the current paper. Nevertheless, the study by Blatz et al. (2002) shows that increasing suction appears to have significant influence on the initial stiffness of the material. In future tests, initial suction will be measured and the final  $E_{free swell}$  will be known.

#### 3.3 Recompression Analysis

The 'constant volume' stress path (from point 'a' to point 'c' in Figure 3) can not be modeled directly in this type of numerical analysis since the swell pressure is generally less than the change in suction. Therefore, a recompression step is required to compress the swelled soil back to the original volume (from point 'b to point 'c') to simulate the 'constant volume' stress path.

The objective of the recompression model is to reach the final state which is defined as point 'c' in the SEL plot. The known heave displacement from the previous free swell model is applied to the recompression model in a separate 'load/deformation' analysis. When the soil element is recompressed under hydrostatic conditions the swell-induced pressure can be related to effective vertical stress in the model. The material stiffness is varied until the effective vertical stress matches the measured swell pressure from the lab. The stiffness specified at this stage is termed as 'E_{recompression}'.

 $E_{recompression}$  from the analyses of the three different suction levels is constant ( $E_{recompression} = 1164$ kPa). This is due to all recompression analyses compressing the same amount of heave under a hydrostatic pore water pressure distribution (eg, ponding).

For an initial suction value of 1500 kPa, the  $E_{free swell}$  and  $E_{recompression}$  of the expansive soil obtained from the numerical analysis is 7500kPa and 1164kPa, respectively. For the three initial suction levels applied, the ratio of  $E_{free swell}/E_{recompression}$  is in the range of 2.6 to 6.4. A range is anticipated since the deformation amounts remain the same while the initial suction level is altered.

#### 4 APPLICABILITY OF THE SWELL EQUILIBRIUM LIMIT IN PRACTICAL DESIGN

The applicability of the SEL in predicting the expansive soil response is shown in a basement foundation model. The soil below the basement would be under a 'constant mean stress' path because there is no significant constraint on the soil movement. Soil adjacent to the basement wall is likely to follow the 'constant stiffness' or 'constant volume' stress path. Soil movement is constrained by the stiff retaining system used in the basement wall.

Following a similar procedure as in the oedometer calibration, the SEL is used to predict vertical and horizontal deformation and swelling-induced stresses adjacent to the basement wall.

#### 4.1 Modelling of a Basement Foundation

Swelling mechanisms induce volume change and stresses in the soil. The degree of change is observed as wall displacement and basement heave in the model. The magnitude of soil displacement indicates the amount of soil expansion when swelling occurs. The soil deformation result obtained from 'volume change' analysis assumed the pore water pressure distribution changed from unsaturated to saturated condition.

A foundation was analysed in a half space twodimensional finite element mesh. The dimension of the basement was 2.5m in depth and 10m in total width. Initial groundwater table was assumed at 7.5m depth. Parameters including initial suction level,  $E_{\rm free \ swell}$  and  $E_{\rm recompression}$  used in the basement model were taken from the previous calibration exercise. A similar model process including insitu, free swell and recompression steps were followed.

A worst case scenario was simulated as ponding where the initial suction is lost due to the infiltration and inundation in the basement. The change in pore water pressure from dry condition (initial suction) to wet condition (saturation) simulates the swelling phenomenon in the expansive soil. This is an extreme event that could occur during an extended rainfall event or locally around the basement if proper drainage is not ensured.

Besides soil deformation, swell-induced stress on the adjacent structure (eg, basement wall) is another good indication on how much additional pressure has been exerted on the structure in addition to the mechanical loadings from the building and the retained soil. Stress and strain are the two fundamental variables in engineering design. Therefore, it is essential to look into the modelling result in these two particular aspects. The study of swelling soil behaviour in this paper is focused on the basement wall displacement, basement heave and swell-induced pressure on the wall.

#### 4.2 Soil Deformation in Basement Foundation

When the soil in the basement swells, wall displacement and basement heave are the primary concerns in the engineered design. Structures should be checked for their deformation tolerance and serviceability limit during the functional design life.

Following definition of initial stresses and suction, a 'free swell' analysis was performed on an 'open' basement excavation. An initial suction of 1500, 1000 or 600kPa was applied at the surface and the bottom boundary condition (at the depth of 25m) was at the water table of 7.5m depth.

The unrestrained horizontal displacement due to ponding is shown in Figure 4. The highest horizontal wall

displacement is estimated at 753mm at the top of the wall while the maximum basement heave is approximately 91mm at the centre of basement.

The influence of suction on soil deformation is investigated in Figure 5. A normalised plot of suction levels versus the swell-induced wall displacement is illustrated. At the lowest initial suction of 600kPa, the increase in wall displacement is close to 18% compared to the maximum wall deformation of 1500kPa initial suction. The slope of the linear relationship in the plot is 0.03. This shows the model is relatively insensitive to changes in the initial condition. This is anticipated since the  $E_{\rm free \ swell}$  value for each model was calibrated using the oedometer results.



Figure 4. Horizontal wall displacement due to ponding at basement foundation.



Figure 5. Normalised suction versus normalised wall displacement.

An analysis on the effects of varying depths of expansive soil layer on the amount of heave was also carried out. In Figure 6, the result of heave is normalised with respect to the heave in 25m full depth of expansive soil layer. The result shows that, as anticipated, as the depth of expansive soil layer increases the amount of heave increases. The heave of the 12.5m deep expansive layer (50% of the full depth) is approximately 40% of the maximum heave.

Plotting the normalised depth of expansive layer versus normalised maximum vertical displacement (heave) at the basement foundation, Figure 7 shows the model behaves as expected. The positive slope of the fitted curve indicates greater deformations will occur in foundations constructed in thicker expansive layers.



Figure 6. Normalised vertical displacement at basement foundation with respect to the vertical heave that occurs at 25m depth of expansive soil.



Figure 7. Normalised depth of expansive layer versus normalised maximum vertical displacement at the basement foundation.

4.3 Swell-induced Pressure and the Constant Stiffness Stress Path

The swell-induced pressure on the basement wall was investigated through the recompression model in the analysis. Commonly the basement wall would be designed with either timber or concrete materials depending on the suitability and the estimated lateral pressure on the wall. The stiffer material such as reinforced concrete will tend to have reduced displacements but corresponding increased horizontal pressures. According to the SEL concept, the 'constant stiffness' stress path (Figure 3) represents different degrees of volume confinement in the soil. Recompressing the swelling soil back to the original volume is regarded as 'full recompression'. To simulate varying confinement conditions the soil was recompressed partially back to 40% or 70% of the full displacement. As shown in Figure 3 the SEL is non-linear. Partially recompresion using a constant stiffness will therefore provide a conservative over estimation of the swelling induced stresses.

Swelling-induced stresses occur due to restrained boundary conditions. The results of swell pressure on the basement wall are presented in Figure 8. The maximum swell-induced pressure of full recompression is approximately 209kPa which is very close to the measured swell pressure obtained from the lab test.



Figure 8. Swell-induced pressure on the basement wall with varying degree of recompression.

Figure 8 shows that as the degree of recompression decreases (more movement is allowed), the corresponding pressure of the wall decreases. It is a reasonable soil response since less pressure is induced when the soil deformations increase (less recompression).

The swell pressure of the basement wall was normalized to the maximum swell pressure and plotted versus varying degree of recompression. Figure 9 exhibits a linear relationship with a positive slope indicating a direct relationship between swelling induced pressure and recompression.



Figure 9. Normalised swell pressure versus varying degree of recompression.

With the predicted soil deformations and swellinduced pressures a better engineered structure can now be designed if the worst case condition (eg, ponding) would ever occur to the structure constructed in expansive soil.

#### 5 CONCLUSIONS

Neglecting swelling effects in highly swelling soil will inevitably cause unforeseen maintenance costs in the future. This paper developed a method for using the Swell Equilibrium Limit for design of a foundation in swelling soil. It should be noted that this is a preliminary study and that the predicted pressures and displacements must be verified with field data.

The parameters used in this model provide realistic insight to the soil behaviour. The excessive soil deformation and swell pressure predicted by the SEL should be taken as a design consideration for structures constructed in high swelling potential ground.

Precautionary measures could include either reinforcing the structures with the anticipated deformation and stress or properly managing the drainage system in order to avoid excessive water ingress into the soil.

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