

LECTURE NOTES ON  
**GEOTECHNICAL ENGINEERING-I**

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGG



# **COURSE CONTENT**

1. INTRODUCTION
2. PRELIMINARY DEFINITIONS AND RELATIONSHIP
3. INDEX PROPERTIES OF SOIL
4. CLASSIFICATION OF SOIL
5. PERMEABILITY AND SEEPAGE
6. COMPACTION AND CONSOLIDATION
7. SHEAR STRENGTH
8. EARTH PRESSURE AND RETAINING STRUCTURE
9. FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

# INTRODUCTION

## SOIL & SOIL ENGINEERING

The term "soil" can have different meanings, depending upon the field in which it is considered.

To a geologist, it is the material in the relatively thin zone of the Earth's surface within which roots occur, and which are formed as the products of past surface processes. The rest of the crust is grouped under the term "rock".

To a pedologist, it is the substance existing on the surface, which supports plant life.

To an engineer, it is a material that can be:

- built on: foundations of buildings, bridges
- built in: basements, culverts, tunnels
- built with: embankments, roads, dams
- supported: retaining walls

Soil Mechanics is a discipline of Civil Engineering involving the study of soil, its behavior and application as an engineering material.

Soil Mechanics is the application of laws of mechanics and hydraulics to engineering problems dealing with sediments and other unconsolidated accumulations of solid particles, which are produced by the mechanical and chemical disintegration of rocks, regardless of whether or not they contain an admixture of organic constituents.

Soil consists of a multiphase aggregation of solid particles, water, and air. This fundamental composition gives rise to unique engineering properties, and the description of its mechanical behavior requires some of the most classic principles of engineering mechanics.

Engineers are concerned with soil's mechanical properties: permeability, stiffness, and strength. These depend primarily on the nature of the soil grains, the current stress, the water content and unit weight.

### **Formation of Soils:**

Soil is formed from rock due to erosion and weathering action. Igneous rock is the basic rock formed from the crystallization of molten magma. This rock is formed either inside the earth or on the surface. These rocks undergo metamorphism under high temperature and pressure to form Metamorphic rocks. Both Igneous and metamorphic rocks are converted into sedimentary rocks due to transportation to different locations by the agencies such as wind, water etc. Finally, near the surface millions of years of erosion and weathering convert rocks into soil.

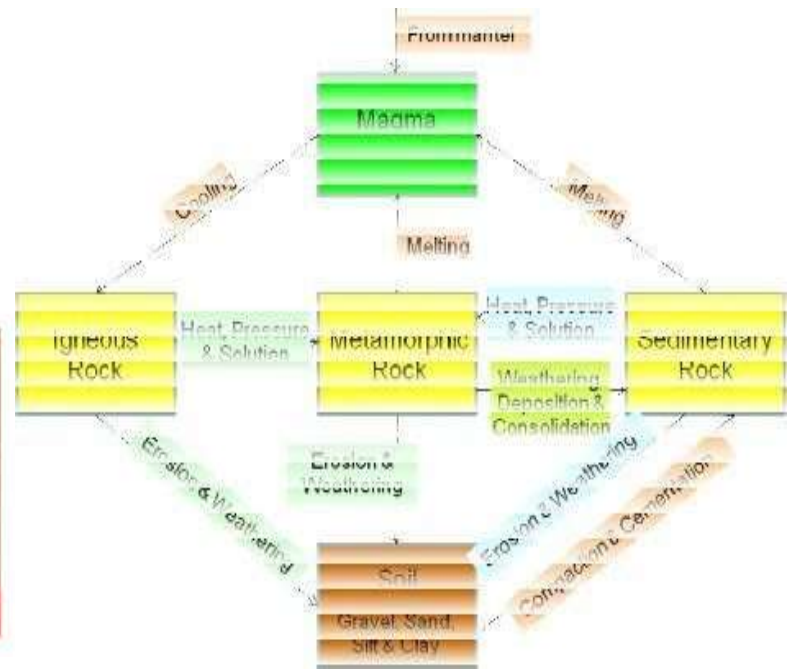
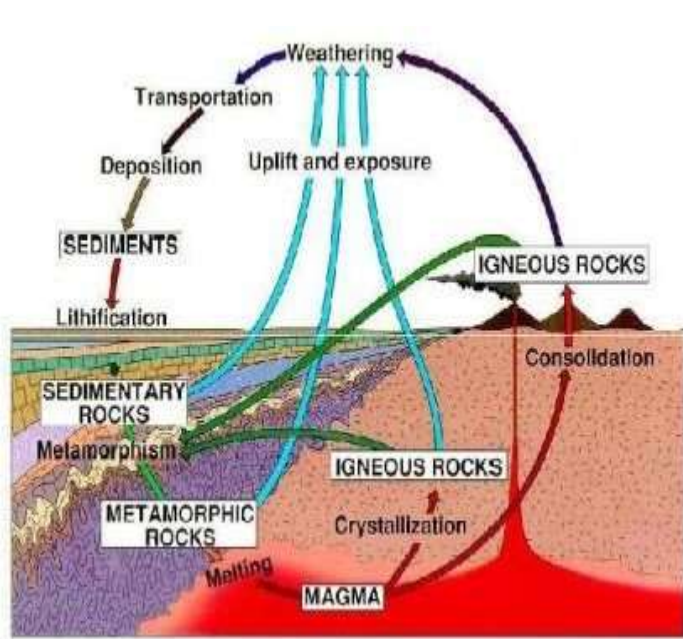


Fig.GeologicCycleofSoil

Soils are formed from material that has resulted from the disintegration of rocks by various processes of physical and chemical weathering. The nature and structure of a given soil depends on the processes and conditions that formed it:

- Breakdown of parent rock: weathering, decomposition, erosion.
- Transportation to site of final deposition: gravity, flowing water, ice, wind.
- Environment of final deposition: floodplain, river terrace, glacial moraine, lacustrine or marine.
- Subsequent conditions of loading and drainage: little or no surcharge, heavy surcharge due to ice or overlying deposits, change from saline to freshwater, leaching, contamination.

All soils originate, directly or indirectly, from different rock types.

## Weathering:

*Physical weathering* reduces the size of the parent rock material, without any change in the original composition of the parent rock. Physical or mechanical processes taking place on the earth's surface include the actions of water, frost, temperature changes, wind and ice. They cause disintegration and the products are mainly coarse soils.

The main processes involved are exfoliation, unloading, erosion, freezing, and thawing. The principal cause is climatic change. In exfoliation, the outer shell separates from the main rock. Heavy rain and wind cause erosion of the rock surface. Adverse temperature changes produce fragments due to different thermal coefficients of rock minerals. The effect is more for freeze-thaw cycles.

*Chemical weathering* not only breaks up the material into smaller particles but alters the nature of the original parent rock itself. The main processes responsible are hydration, oxidation, and carbonation. New compounds are formed due to the chemical alterations.

Rain water that comes in contact with the rock surface reacts to form hydrated oxides, carbonates and sulphates. If there is a volume increase, the disintegration continues. Due to leaching, water-soluble

materials are washed away and rocks lose their cementing properties.

Chemical weathering occurs in wet and warm conditions and consists of degradation by decomposition and/or alteration. The results of chemical weathering are generally fine soils with altered mineral grains.

The effects of weathering and transportation mainly determine the basic nature of the soil (size, shape, composition and distribution of the particles).

The environment into which deposition takes place, and the subsequent geological events that take place there, determine the *state* of the soil (density, moisture content) and the *structure* or fabric of the soil (bedding, stratification, occurrence of joints or fissures).

Transportation agencies can be combinations of gravity, flowing water or air, and moving ice. In water or air, the grains become sub-rounded or rounded, and the grain sizes get sorted so as to form poorly-graded deposits. In moving ice, grinding and crushing occur, size distribution becomes wider forming well-graded deposits.

In running water, soil can be transported in the form of suspended particles, or by rolling and sliding along the bottom. Coarser particles settle when a decrease in velocity occurs, whereas finer particles are deposited further downstream. In still water, horizontal layers of successive sediments are formed, which may change with time, even seasonally or daily.

Wind can erode, transport and deposit fine-grained soils. Wind-blown soil is generally uniformly-graded.

A glacier moves slowly but scours the bedrock surface over which it passes.

Gravity transports materials along slopes without causing much alteration.

### **Soil Types:**

Soils as they are found in different regions can be classified into two broad categories:

- (1) Residual soils
- (2) Transported soils

### **Residual Soils:**

Residual soils are found at the same location where they have been formed. Generally, the depth of residual soils varies from 5 to 20 m.

Chemical weathering rate is greater in warm, humid regions than in cold, dry regions causing a faster breakdown of rocks. Accumulation of residual soils takes place as the rate of rock decomposition exceeds the rate of erosion or transportation of the weathered material. In humid regions, the presence of surface vegetation reduces the possibility of soil transportation.

As leaching action due to percolating surface water decreases with depth, there is a corresponding decrease in the degree of chemical weathering from the ground surface downwards. This results in a gradual reduction of residual soil formation with depth, until unaltered rock is found.

Residual soils comprise of a wider range of particle sizes, shapes and composition.

### **Transported Soils:**

Weathered rock materials can be moved from their original site to new locations by one or more of the transportation agencies to form transported soils. Transported soils are classified based on the mode of transportation and the final deposition environment.

- (a) Soils that are carried and deposited by rivers are called *alluvial deposits*.
- (b) Soils that are deposited by flowing water or surface runoff while entering a lake are called *lacustrine deposits*. alternate layers are formed in different seasons depending on flow rate.
- (c) If the deposits are made by rivers in seawater, they are called *marine deposits*. Marine deposits contain both particulate material brought from the shore as well as organic remnants of marine life forms.
- (d) Melting of a glacier causes the deposition of all the materials scoured by it leading to formation of *glacial deposits*.
- (e) Soil particles carried by wind and subsequently deposited are known as *Aeolian deposits*.

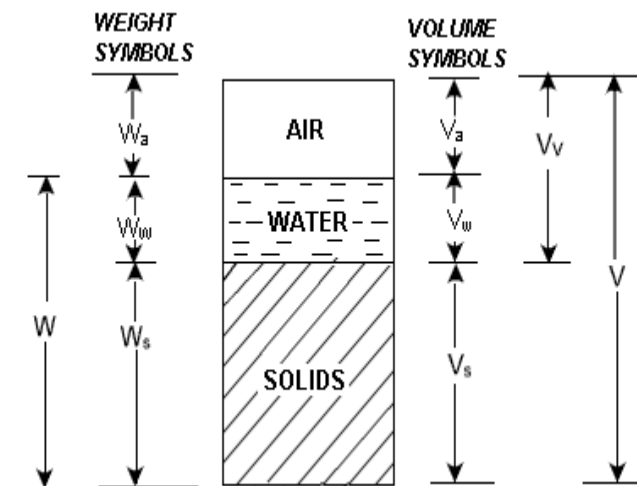
## 2. PRELIMINARY DEFINATION AND RELATIONSHIP

### Phase Relations of Soils:

Soil is not a coherent solid material like steel and concrete, but is a particulate material. Soils, as they exist in nature, consist of solid particles (mineral grains, rock fragments) with water and air in the voids between the particles. The

ter and air contents are readily changed by changes in ambient conditions and location.

As the relative proportions of the three phases vary in any soil deposit, it is useful to consider a soil model which will represent these phases distinctly and properly quantify the amount of each phase. A schematic diagram of the three-phase system is shown in terms of weight and volume symbols respectively for soil solids, water, and air. The weight of air can be neglected.



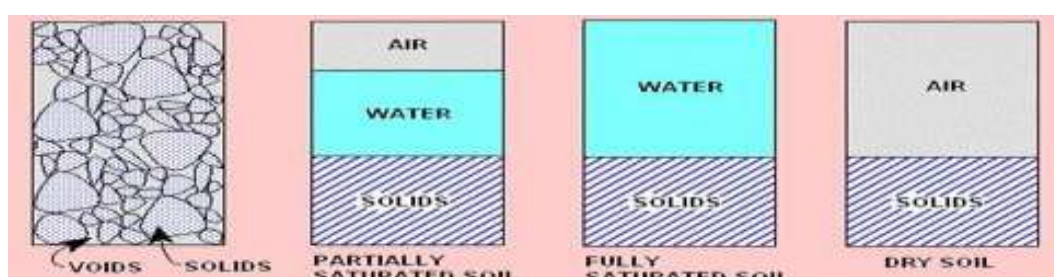
The soil model is given dimensional values for the solid, water and air components.

Total volume,  $V = V_s + V_w + V_v$

### Three-phase System:

Soils can be partially saturated (with both air and water present), or be fully saturated (no air content) or be perfectly dry (no water content).

In a saturated soil or a dry soil, the three-phase system thus reduces to two phases only, as shown.





The various relations can be grouped into:

- Volumerelations
- Weightrelations
- Inter-relations

## Volume Relations:

As the amount of both water and air are variable, the volume of solids is taken as the reference quantity. Thus, several relational volumetric quantities may be defined. The following are the basic volume relations:

1. Void ratio ( $e$ ) is the ratio of the volume of voids ( $V_v$ ) to the volume of soil solids ( $V_s$ ), and is expressed as a decimal.

$$e = \frac{V_v}{V_s}$$

2. Porosity ( $n$ ) is the ratio of the volume of voids to the total volume of soil ( $V$ ), and is expressed as a percentage.

$$n = \frac{V_v}{V} \times 100$$

Void ratio and porosity are inter-

$$e = \frac{n}{1-n} \quad \text{and} \quad n = \frac{e}{(1+e)}$$

3. The volume of water ( $V_w$ ) in a soil can vary between zero (i.e. a dry soil) and the volume of voids. This can be expressed as the degree of saturation ( $S$ ) in percentage.

$$S = \frac{V_w}{V_v} \times 100$$

For a dry soil,  $S=0\%$ , and for a fully saturated soil,  $S=100\%$ .

$$\alpha_c = \frac{V_a}{V_v}$$

4. Air content ( $\alpha_c$ ) is the ratio of the volume of air ( $V_a$ ) to the volume of voids.

5. Percentage air voids ( $n_a$ ) is the ratio of the volume of air to the total volume.

$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V} \times 100 = n \times \alpha_c$$



## Weight Relations:

Density is a measure of the quantity of mass in a unit volume of material. Unit weight is a measure of the weight of a unit volume of material. Both can be used interchangeably. The units of density are  $\text{ton/m}^3$ ,  $\text{kg/m}^3$  or  $\text{g/cm}^3$ . The following are the basic weight relations:

1. The ratio of the mass of water present to the mass of solid particles is called the water content ( $w$ ), or sometimes the moisture content.

$$w = \frac{W_w}{W_s}$$

Its value is 0% for dry soil and its magnitude can exceed 100%.

2. The mass of solid particles is usually expressed in terms of their particle unit weight or specific gravity ( $G_s$ )

$$\gamma_s = \frac{W_s}{V_s} = G_s \cdot \gamma_w \quad (\gamma_s)$$

where  $\gamma_w$  = Unit weight of

For most inorganic soils, the value of  $G_s$  lies between 2.60 and 2.80. The presence of organic material reduces the value of  $G_s$ .

3. **Dry unit weight** ( $\gamma_d$ ) is a measure of the amount of solid particles per unit volume

$$\gamma_d = \frac{W_s}{V}$$

4. **Bulk unit weight** ( $\gamma_t$  or  $\gamma$ ) is a measure of the amount of solid particles plus water per unit volume.

$$\gamma_t = \gamma = \frac{(W_s + W_w)}{(V_s + V_v)}$$

5. **Saturated unit weight** ( $\gamma_{sat}$ ) is equal to the bulk density when the total voids are filled up with water.

6. **Buoyant unit weight** ( $\gamma'$ )

**Submerged unit weight** is the effective mass per unit volume when the soil is submerged below standing water or below the ground water table.

$$\gamma' = \gamma_{sat} - \gamma_w$$

## Inter-Relations:

It is important to quantify the state of a soil immediately after receiving in the laboratory and prior to commencing other tests. The water content and unit weight are particularly important, since they may change during transportation and storage.

Some physical state properties are calculated following the practical measurement of others. For example, dry unit weight can be determined from bulk unit weight and water content. The following are some inter-relations:

$$w = \frac{W_w}{W_s} = \frac{\gamma_w V_w}{G_s \gamma_w V_s} = \frac{V_w}{G_s V_s} = \frac{S V_v}{G_s V_s} = \frac{S e}{G_s}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{(G_s + S e) \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{(1 + w) G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{\gamma}{1 + w}$$

$$\gamma' = \frac{[(G_s - 1) + (S - 1)e] \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma' = \frac{(G_s - 1) \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

**Example 1:** A soil has void ratio = 0.72, moisture content = 12% and  $G_s = 2.72$ . Determine its

- Dry unit weight
- Moist unit weight, and the
- Amount of water to be added per  $m^3$  to make it saturated.

Use  $\gamma_w = 9.81 \text{ kN/m}^3$

**Solution:**

$$(a) \gamma_d = \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e} = \frac{2.72 \times 9.81}{1 + 0.72} = 15.51 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

$$\gamma = \frac{\gamma_s}{1+e} (1+w)$$

$$= \frac{2.72 + 0.72}{1 + 0.72} \times 2.12 \times 9.81 = 17.38 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

$$\gamma_{sat} = \frac{G_s + e}{1+e} \cdot \gamma_w$$

$$\frac{2.72 + 0.72}{1 + 0.72} \times 9.81 = 19.62 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

Water to be added per  $\text{m}^3$  to make the soils saturated

$$\gamma_{sat} - \gamma = 19.62 - 17.38 = 2.24 \text{ kN}$$

**Example 2:** The dry density of a sand with porosity of 0.387 is  $1600 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . Find the void ratio of the soil and the specific gravity of the soil solids. Take  $\gamma_w = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$

$$n = 0.387$$

$$\gamma_d = 1600 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

**Solution:**

$$(a) e = \frac{n}{1-n} = \frac{0.387}{1-0.387} = 0.631$$

$$(b) \gamma_d = \frac{G_s \cdot \gamma_w}{1+e}$$

$$\therefore G_s = \frac{(1+e)}{\gamma_w} \cdot \gamma_d = \frac{1+0.631}{1000} \times 1600 = 2.61$$

### 3. INDEX PROPERTIES OF SOIL

Soil index properties are properties which facilitate identification and classification of soils for engineering purposes. Plastic soils (clays) are normally described as cohesive as a distinction from non-plastic soils (sands and gravels) which are often called granular or non-cohesive. Plastic and cohesive are used as synonyms bearing in mind that all plastic soils are cohesive and cohesive soils are plastic. Fundamentally, electrochemical cohesion and geotechnical cohesion measured by a triaxial are very different. Cohesion in clays does not always translate to measurable cohesion that confers shear strength. The 3D network of attraction between negative particles and positive cations leads to plasticity. The nature of some properties differs for coarse- and fine-grained soils.

#### Coarse-grained (non-cohesive) soil index properties are:

- particle-size distribution
- particle shape
- relative density
- consistency
- clay and clay minerals content

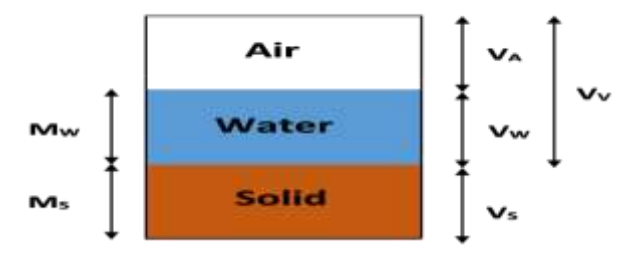
#### Fine-grained (cohesive) soil index properties are:

- consistency
- particle shape and orientation
- clay and clay minerals content
- water content

One of the soil index properties which describe non-cohesive soils is grading otherwise known as **particle size distribution**. It gives a measure of the sizes and distribution of sizes of the particles that make up a soil and stands out to be the most fundamental of all properties especially in coarse-grained soils with little or no clay particles. Soil that contains a wide range of particle sizes is named well-graded. The opposite type of soil, which contains narrow range of particle sizes, is categorized as poorly graded. Well-graded soils can be more densely packed. **Particle shape** also influences how closely particles can be packed together. The density of soil (especially of coarse-grained) is the indication of strength and stiffness. The **relative density** is the ratio of the actual bulk density and the maximum possible density of the soil. Relative density is a good indicator of potential increases in density, and thus deformations that may occur under the different loads. The two main methods of grading soil are sieve and sedimentation analysis.

**Consistency** is the resistance of soils to deformation and rupture. The term consistency limits is derived from the notion that soil can exist in any four states, depending on its moisture state. Initially, the soil is in the form of a viscous liquid with no shear strength. As its moisture content is reduced, it begins to attain some shear strength but is still easily moulded, this is the plastic solid phase. Drying regimes reduces its ability to be moulded leading to cracks during moulding in the semi-solid phase. Over time the soil becomes so dry that it is a brittle solid.

### Water Content (w)



The water content (w), also known as **natural water content** or **natural moisture content**, is the ratio of the weight of water to the weight of the solids in a given mass of soil. This ratio is

usually expressed as percentage. When voids are completely filled with air, water content is equal to zero (dry soil).

$$w(\%) = (M_w / M_s) * 100$$

### **specific gravity**

**specific gravity**, also called **relative density**, ratio of the density of a substance to that of a standard substance.

## **Particle Size Distribution**

**Particle Size Distribution** or the percentage of grains of different sizes in a given soil is an important property of soil. Particle size analysis of coarse soils is carried out by sieve analysis or mechanical analysis whereas fine-grained soils are analysed by hydrometer analysis.

In general, a combined analysis is carried out as most soils contain both coarse and fine particles. In the combined analysis, dry soil is first analysed by sieving and then the very fine soil is analysed by hydrometer or pipette method by mixing it with water.

### **Importance of Particle Size Distribution.**

- Particle size distribution is important for classification of soil.
- It is also used for the design of drainage filters.
- It is used for selecting filling materials for embankment, earthen dams, road sub-base etc.
- Particle size distribution is also used to estimate performance of grouting chemical injection.

## **Mechanical Sieve Analysis as per IS Code : IS 2720, Part 4 – 1985 :**

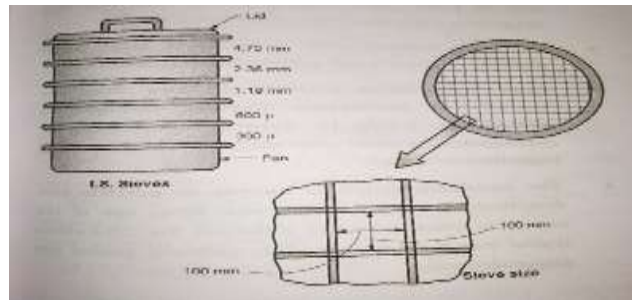
Sieves are wire screens having square opening. According to IS 460-1962 the sieve number is the mesh width expressed in mm for large sizes and in microns for small sizes. The 4.75 mm sieve separates the soil into 2 parts.

The fraction larger than 4.75 mm is called as coarse fraction. This fraction is analysed by the following series of sieves : 100 mm, 63 mm, 20 mm, 10 mm and 4.75 mm sieves.

The sieves are arranged in descending sizes from top to bottom. A weighed, dry soil sample is put onto the top sieve. Generally 1000 gm sample is analysed. The top sieve is covered with lid and the bottom sieve has a pan below

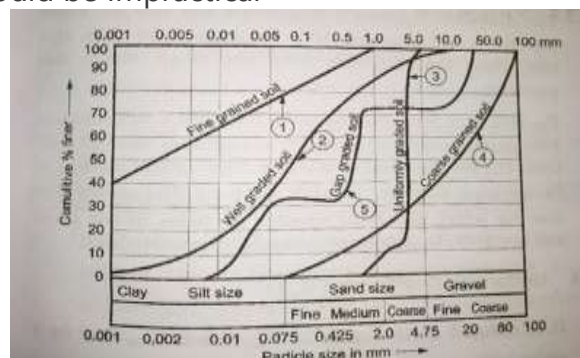
it. The entire assembly is then shaken either manually with careful up-down and circular motion or in a machine known as sieve shaker. Usually 10 minutes of shaking is sufficient. The soil retained on each sieve is then weighed and the weight is recorded. The soil collected in the pan is subjected to further analysis. For this a series of 4.75 mm, 2.4 mm, 1.2 mm, 600 $\mu$  (microns), 425 $\mu$ , 300 $\mu$ , 150 $\mu$ , and 75 $\mu$  sieves is used. These sieves are arranged and the sample from the pan is shaken for another 10 minutes. The weight of soil retained on each sieve is then recorded.

The soil particles passing through the 75 $\mu$  sieve are collected in the pan. If the amount is significant, it is mixed with water for hydrometer or pipette analysis. A table is prepared, in which 'percentage finer' and 'cumulative percentage finer' particles corresponding to each sieve size are worked out and plotted on a semi-log graph paper.



## Particle Size Distribution Curve.

As said earlier, the cumulative percentage of a particular size of particles passing through that size of sieve opening is worked out. It is plotted against the size in log scale. It is drawn semi-log graph paper, because the particle size may range from a few microns to a few hundred mm. Hence, on ordinary scale, a very long graph paper would be required which would be impractical



Thus 'cumulative percentage finer than' or 'cumulative percentage passing through' is plotted on Y-axis in natural scale and the corresponding sieve sizes are plotted on X-axis in logarithmic scale. The resulting graph is known as **particle size distribution curve**. This curve forms one of the important index properties of the soil. Above diagram shows typical particle size distribution curve for well graded, uniformly graded and gap graded soils

## METHODS OF SIEVE SIZE ANALYSIS

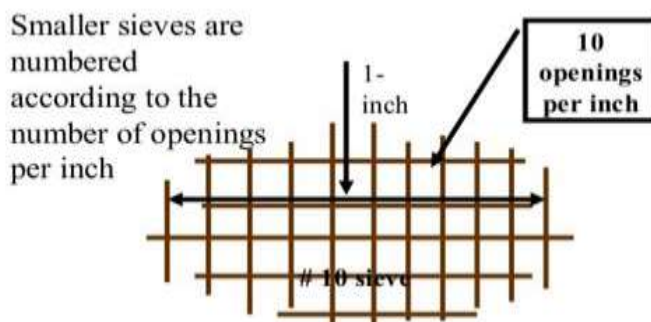
Determination of particle size is more important in Civil Engineering, as the particle size determines the effectiveness of final product. The characters of particle such as bulk density, physical stability,

permeability and many more are decided by its size. To determine the size distribution of particles, the sieve analysis test procedure is an effective method that prevailed from the past. In sieve analysis, the particle size distribution is defined using the mass or volume. Sieve analysis is laboratory test procedure in which particles will move vertically or horizontally through sieve mesh. Depending on the needs and particle material different sieving methods are available for the application. They are manual sieving method, mechanical sieving method, dry sieving method and wet sieving method.

Manual sieving method is carried out in places where there is no electricity and mainly used in, onsite differentiation among large and small particles. Mechanical sieving method is used in laboratories to assure the quality and this is the widely using method in present days. In mechanical sieving the method can be classified into two further groups depending on their sieving movement as horizontal movement sieving method and vertical movement sieving method. The vertical movement sieving method is also known as throw-action sieving and vibratory sieving methods. Dry sieving method is considered mostly and here the testing particles (specimen) are in dry state. Wet sieving method is considered when the particle that is going to be used is already exists as wet or suspension. Here, in the sieve shaker machine a nozzle will be provided to water the upper most sample material. But need some extra about the water concentration during this wet sieving experiment.Procedure:

- Clean the sieves of sieve shaker using cleaning brush if any particles are struck in the openings.
- Record the weight of each sieve and receiving pan.
- Dry the specimen in oven for 3-4 minutes to get the dried specimen (ignore, if the specimen is already dried).
- Weigh the specimen and record its weight.
- Arrange the sieves in order as the smaller openings sieve to the last and larger openings sieve to the top. (Simply, arrange them to the ascending order of sieve numbers – No.4 sieve on top and no.200 sieve at bottom)- Sieve numbers and the particle sizes are provided below in a chart for further understanding.

## Sieve Number and opening size



Sieve Number	Opening Size (mm)
4	4.750
6	3.350
8	2.360
12	1.680
16	1.180
20	0.850
30	0.600
40	0.425
50	0.300
60	0.250
80	0.180
100	0.150
140	0.106
200	0.075
270	0.053

- Keep the weight recorded specimen on the top sieve and then keep the complete sieve stack on the sieve shaker (Don't forget to keep the lid and receiving pan).



- Allow the shaker to work 10-5 minutes – use the clock here..!Remove the sieve stack from the shaker and record the weight of each sieve and receiving pan separately
- .

Calculation:

- Mass of sieve (M1)
- Mass of sieve + retained soil (M2)
- Mass of soil (M2-M1)
- Percentage mass retained on sieve (Mass of soil / Weight of specimen)X 100
- Cumulative percent of soil retained on sieve ( $Z_r$ ) – It is calculate by adding the percentage retained on the sieve and all sieves above the sieve.
- Percentage finer or percent cumulative passing ( $100 - Z_r$ )
- Plot the graph for log grain or sieve size VS percentage finer (Consider the log sieve or grain size on the x-axis)
- Calculate the Cc - *coefficient of curvature* and Cu - *coefficient of uniformity*, for the soil from the graph,

$$Cu = D_{60} / D_{10}$$

$$Cc = (D_{30})^2 / (D_{60} \times D_{10})$$

(D60 = grain diameter at 60% finer, D30 = grain diameter at 30% finer, D10 = grain diameter at 10% finer).

**Step 01**



**Step 02**



**Step 01 – Weigh the sieves, specimen and receiving pan separately.**

**Step 02 – Arrange the sieves in order and pour the specimen into the first sieve.**

SIEVE ANALYSIS						
Soil Description:						
Mass of Pan: (g)						
Mass of Pan + Dry Soil: (g)						
Sample Dry Mass: (g)						
Sieve Size	Sieve Opening (mm)	Retained Soil + Pan (g)	Mass of Dry Soil (g)	% Mass Retained	% Cumulative Retained	% Finer
#4	4.750					
#10	2.000					
#20	0.850					
#40	0.425					
#60	0.250					
#100	0.150					
#200	0.075					
PAN	-					
Total Soil Mass Sieved (g)						
% Loss During Sieve Analysis						
			D <sub>10</sub> :		mm	
			D <sub>30</sub> :		mm	
			D <sub>60</sub> :		mm	
			C <sub>u</sub> :			
			C <sub>c</sub> :			

### Sample Data Sheet - Sieve Analysis

Step - 04

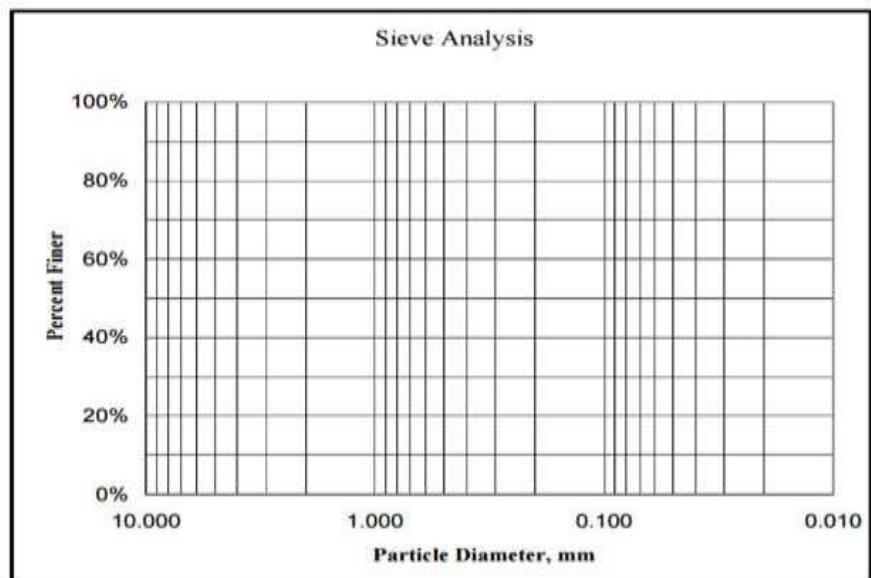


Step - 05



Step 04 – Keep the arranged sieves on the sieve shaker and allow to shake for 0-15 mins.

Step 05 – Weigh the mass of particles on each sieve.



**Graph sheet sample**

## SAMPLE CALCULATION

Sample calculation

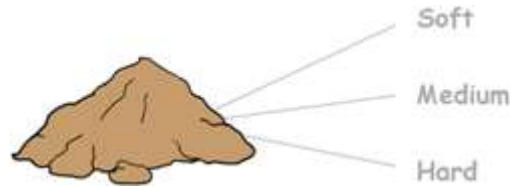
Sieve Number	Sieve Size (mm)	Mass of each sieve (g) (M1)	Mass of each sieve + soil retained (M2)	Mass of soil (M2-M1)	Percentage retained on each sieve $\left(\frac{M2 - M1}{M}\right) \times 100$	Cumulative % retained	Percent finer
4	4.750	765.5	786.5	021	4.2	4.2	95.8
10	2.360	738.25	764.25	026	5.2	9.4	90.6
16	1.180	672	716.5	044.5	8.9	18.3	81.7
30	0.600	602.5	649	046.5	9.3	27.6	72.4
40	0.425	572	684	112	22.4	50	50
60	0.300	554.5	701.5	147	29.4	79.4	20.6
100	0.150	523.5	585.5	062	12.4	91.8	8.2
200	0.075	509.5	530.5	021	4.2	96	4
Receiving pan		485	505	020	4	100	0
Total				500 (M)			

M--> Mass of specimen	M2 - M1 --> Mass of soil
M1 --> Sieve Size	Zr --> Cumulative % retained
M2 --> Mass of each sieve + soil retained	Zr - 100 --> Percent finer

Calculate the Cc and Cu using the plotted graph for the above details.

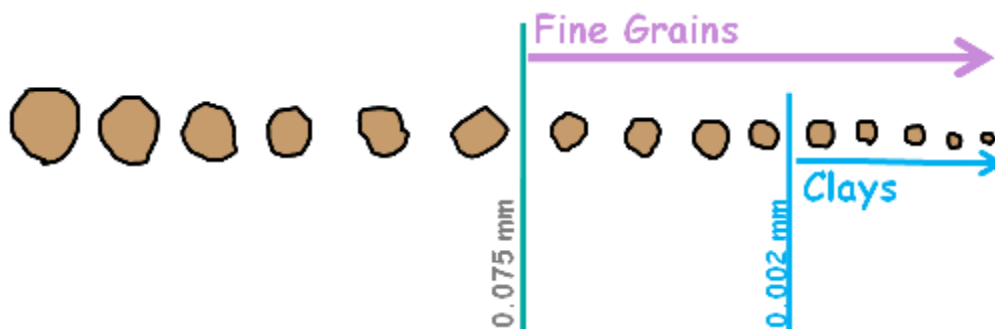
# Consistency Of Soil And Atterberg's Limits

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Consistency is a term which is used to describe the degree of firmness of soil. Consistency of a soil is indicated by terms such as soft medium and hard.

This property of consistency is defined only for fine grained soils, specially for clays and it is measured for wet, moist and dry soil samples.



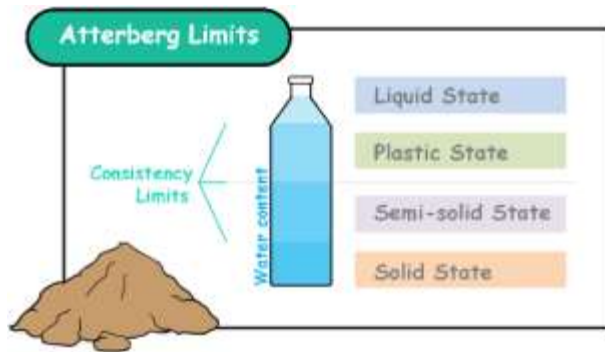
Soil consistency is the resistance of soils to deformation and rupture.

The physical properties of soil are considerably influenced by the amount of water present in them. Consistency of a soil also changes with the amount of water.

A Swedish agriculture engineer Albert Atterberg mentioned that depending upon the water content the consistency of fine grained soils can be described in four states. Or in other words we may say depending upon the water content soil may appear in one of these four states

- Liquid State
- Plastic State
- Semi-solid State
- Solid State

In each state, the consistency and behavior of a soil is different and consequently so are its engineering properties. Thus the boundary between each state can be defined based on a change in the soil's behavior.

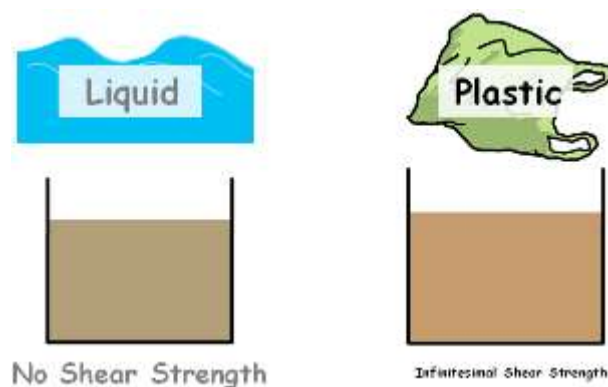


The water content at which the soil changes from one state to other is known as the Consistency limit.

Atterberg demonstrated the significance of these limits in understanding the behaviour of clays. So these limits are also called Atterberg limits.

When we mix fine grained soil in large quantities of water the resulting suspension of soil is called as liquid state of soil. In this state soil has virtually no shear strength which means soil has zero shear strength. Also it offers practically no resistance to flow and it flows like a liquid.

If the water content of the suspension is reduced, the soil becomes stiffer and starts developing resistance to shear



This is the stage when the sample changes from possessing no shear strength to possessing an infinitesimal shear strength and changes from the liquid to plastic state.

The water content at which soil changes from the liquid to plastic state is known as liquid limit.

In other words the water content at which soil stops being liquid is its liquid limit. It does not flow like a liquid anymore.

In plastic state soil can be moulded into different shapes without rupturing it due to its plasticity.

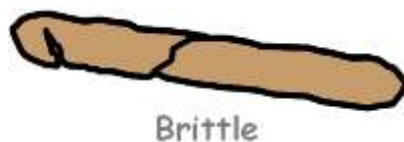


Now if we further reduce the water content of the soil, its plasticity decreases and finally soil changes its state from plastic to semi-solid. In this state if we try to mould the soil, it cracks. Soil loses its plasticity and becomes brittle.

The water content at which the soil stops being plastic and changes to semi-solid state is called plastic limit of the soil.

Up to this semi-solid state soil remains fully saturated and in with reduction of water content volume of soil mass reduces almost in equal amount.

But there comes a stage when further reduction in water content, volume of soil remains the same. At that point soil mass changes from semi solid state to solid state.



Soil converts into a soil mass which has pores partially filled with water. Now we can understand that if we reduce the water content, soil's volume remains the same but its pore water gets reduced. Hence no volume change with water content reduction. That is soil does not shrink any more. And the water content at which soil stops shrinking, is called its shrinkage limit.

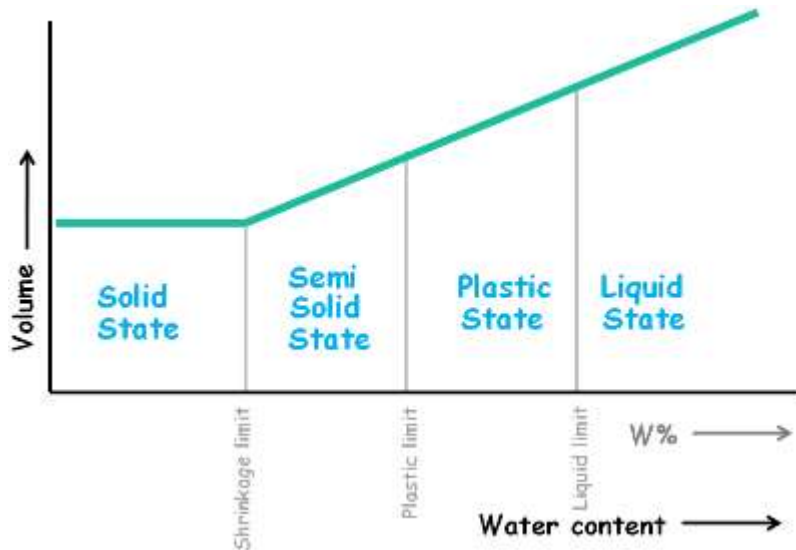
Shrinkage limit can also be defined as the lowest water content at which soil is fully saturated.

Soil converts into a soil mass which has pores partially filled with water. Now we can understand that if we reduce the water content, soil's volume remains the same but its pore water gets reduced. Hence no volume change with water content reduction. That is soil does not shrink any more. And the water content at which soil stops shrinking, is called its shrinkage limit.



Shrinkage limit can also be defined as the lowest water content at which soil is fully saturated.

If we further reduce the water content below this limit sample begins to dry up at the surface and soil is no longer fully saturated. The colour of the sample also begins to change.



Lets represent it all in a graphical form.

Here we can see with decrease in moisture content of the soil, its volume also decreases. But below the shrinkage limit volume of soil mass remains constant. All these limits are in percentage of water content and are basic measure of the critical water contents of a fine grained soil.

## 4. CLASSIFICATION OF SOIL

### Soil Classification:

It is necessary to adopt a formal system of soil description and classification in order to describe the various materials found in ground investigation. Such a system must be meaningful and concise in an engineering context, so that engineers will be able to understand and interpret.

It is important to distinguish between description and classification:

Description of soil is a statement that describes the physical nature and state of the soil. It can be a description of a sample, or a soil *in situ*. It is arrived at by using visual examination, simple tests, observation of site conditions, geological history, etc.

Classification of soil is the separation of soil into classes or groups each having similar characteristics and potentially similar behaviour. A classification for engineering purposes should be based mainly on mechanical properties: permeability, stiffness, strength. The class to which a soil belongs can be used in its description.

The aim of a classification system is to establish a set of conditions which will allow useful comparisons to be made between different soils. The system must be simple. The relevant criteria for classifying soils are the *size distribution* of particles and the *plasticity* of the soil.

For measuring the distribution of particle sizes in a soil sample, it is necessary to conduct different particle-size tests.

Wet sieving is carried out for separating fine grains from coarse grains by washing the soil specimen on a 75 micron sieve mesh.

Dry sieve analysis is carried out on particles coarser than 75 micron. Samples (with fines removed) are dried and shaken through a set of sieves of descending size. The weight retained in each sieve is measured. The cumulative percentage quantities finer than the sieve sizes (passing each given sieve size) are then determined.

The resulting data is presented as a distribution curve with grain size along x-axis (log scale) and percentage passing along y-axis (arithmetic scale).

Sedimentation analysis is used only for the soil fraction finer than 75 microns. Soil particles are allowed to settle from a suspension. The decreasing density of the suspension is measured at various time intervals. The procedure is based on the principle that in a suspension, the terminal velocity of a spherical particle is governed by the diameter of the particle and the properties of the suspension.

In this method, the soil is placed as a suspension in a jar filled with distilled water to which a deflocculating agent is added. The soil particles are then allowed to settle down. The concentration of particles remaining in the suspension at a particular level can be determined by using a hydrometer.

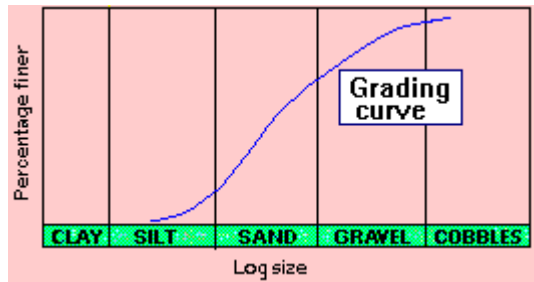
Specific gravity readings of the solution at that same level at different time intervals provide information about the size of particles that have settled down and the mass of

soil remaining in solution.

The results are then plotted between % finer (passing) and log size.

### Grain-Size Distribution Curve:

The size distribution curves, as obtained from coarse and fine grained portions, can be combined to form one complete grain-size distribution curve (also known as grading curve). A typical grading curve is shown.

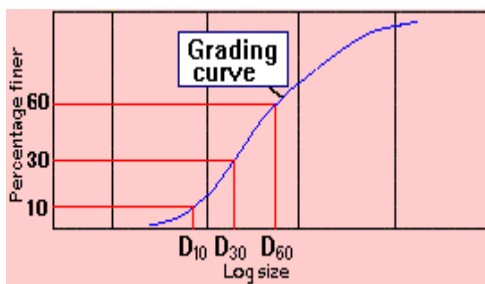


From the complete grain-sized distribution curve, useful information can be obtained such as:

1. **Grading characteristics**, which indicate the uniformity and range in grain-sized distribution.
2. **Percentages (or fractions)** of gravel, sand, silt and clay-size.

#### Grading Characteristics

A grading curve is a useful aid to soil description. The geometric properties of a grading curve are called **grading characteristics**.



To obtain the grading characteristics, three points are located first on the grading curve:

- e.  $D_{60}$  = size at 60% finer by weight
- $D_{30}$  = size at 30% finer by weight
- $D_{10}$  = size at 10% finer by weight

The grading characteristics are then determined as follows:

1. **Effective size** =  $D_{10}$

2. **Uniformity coefficient**  $C_u = \frac{D_{60}}{D_{10}}$

$$C_c = \frac{(D_{30})^2}{D_{60} \cdot D_{10}}$$

**3. Curvature coefficient,**

Both  $C_u$  and  $C_c$  will be 1 for a single-sized soil.

$C_u > 5$  indicates a **well-graded soil**, i.e. a soil which has a distribution of particles over a wide size range.

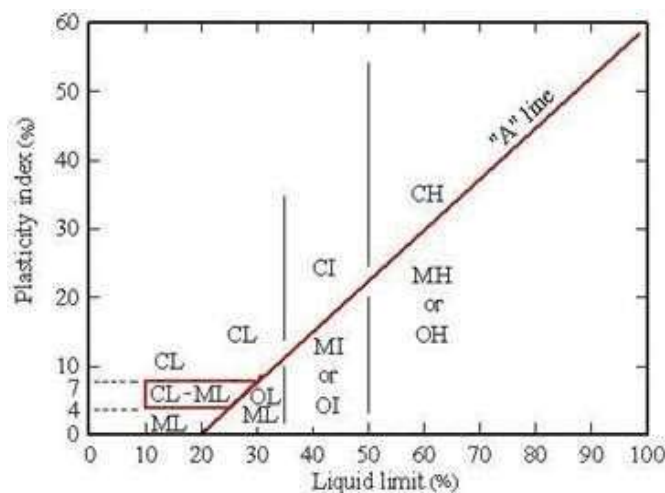
$C_c$  between 1 and 3 also indicates a well-graded soil.

$C_u < 3$  indicates a **uniform soil**, i.e. a soil which has a very narrow particle size range.

### Indian Standard Soil Classification System:

**Fine-grained soils** are those for which more than 50% of the material has particle sizes less than 0.075 mm. Clay particles have a **flaky** shape to which water adheres, thus imparting the property of **plasticity**.

A **plasticity chart**, based on the values of liquid limit ( $W_L$ ) and plasticity index ( $I_P$ ), is provided in **ISSCS** to aid classification. The '**A**' line in this chart is expressed as  $I_P = 0.73 (W_L - 20)$ .



Depending on the point in the chart, fine soils are divided into **clays (C)**, **silts (M)**, or **organic soils (O)**. The organic content is expressed as a percentage of the mass of organic matter in a given mass of soil to the mass of the dry soil solids. Three divisions of plasticity are also defined as follows.

<b>Low plasticity</b>	<b><math>W_L &lt; 35\%</math></b>
<b>Intermediate plasticity</b>	<b><math>35\% &lt; W_L &lt; 50\%</math></b>
<b>High plasticity</b>	<b><math>W_L &gt; 50\%</math></b>

The '**A**' line and vertical lines at  $W_L$  equal to **35%** and **50%** separate the soils into various classes.

For example, the combined symbol **CH** refers to clay of high plasticity.

Soil classification using group symbols is as follows:

Group Symbol	Classification
<i><b>Coarse soils</b></i>	
<b>GW</b>	Well-graded GRAVEL
<b>GP</b>	Poorly-graded GRAVEL
<b>GM</b>	Silty GRAVEL
<b>GC</b>	Clayey GRAVEL
<b>SW</b>	Well-graded SAND
<b>SP</b>	Poorly-graded SAND
<b>SM</b>	Silty SAND
<b>SC</b>	Clayey SAND
<i><b>Fine soils</b></i>	
<b>ML</b>	SILT of low plasticity
<b>MI</b>	SILT of intermediate plasticity
<b>MH</b>	SILT of high plasticity
<b>CL</b>	CLAY of low plasticity
<b>CI</b>	CLAY of intermediate plasticity
<b>CH</b>	CLAY of high plasticity
<b>OL</b>	Organic soil of low plasticity
<b>OI</b>	Organic soil of intermediate plasticity
<b>OH</b>	Organic soil of high plasticity
<b>Pt</b>	Peat

### Activity:

"Clayey soils" necessarily do not consist of 100% clay size particles. The proportion of clay mineral flakes ( $<0.002$  mm size) in a fine soil increases its tendency to swell and shrink with changes in water content. This is called the **activity** of the clayey soil, and it represents the degree of plasticity related to the clay content.

**Activity** = (Plasticity index) / (% clay particles by weight)

Classification as per activity is:

Activity	Classification
< 0.75	Inactive
0.75-1.25	Normal
> 1.25	Active

### Liquidity Index

In fine soils, especially with clay size content, the existing state is dependent on the current water content (**w**) with respect to the consistency limits (or Atterberg limits). The **liquidity index (LI)** provides a quantitative measure of the present state.

$$LI = \frac{w - W_p}{I_p}$$

Classification as per liquidity index is:

Liquidity index	Classification
>1	Liquid
0.75-1.00	Very soft
0.50-0.75	Soft
0.25-0.50	Medium stiff
0-0.25	Stiff
<0	Semi-solid

### Visual Classification

Soils possess a number of physical characteristics which can be used as aids to identification in the field. A handful of soil rubbed through the fingers can yield the following:

**SAND** (and coarser) particles are visible to the naked eye.

**SILT** particles become dusty when dry and are easily brushed off hands.

**CLAY** particles are sticky when wet and hard when dry, and have to be scraped or washed off hands.



Worked Example:

The following test results were obtained for a fine-grained soil:  $W_L = 48\%$  ;  $W_P = 26\%$

Clay content

$= 55\%$

% Silt

content

$= 35\%$

Sand content

$= 10\%$

%

In situ moisture content  $= 39\% = w$

Classify the soil, and determine its activity and liquidity index

**Solution:**

Plasticity index,  $I_P = W_L - W_P = 48 -$

$26 = 22\%$  Liquid limit lies between

$35\%$  and  $50\%$ .

According to the Plasticity Chart, the soil is classified as CI, i.e. clay of intermediate

$$\Rightarrow \text{Activity} = \frac{I_P}{\text{Clay content}} = \frac{22}{25} = 0.88$$

$$\text{Liquidity index} = \frac{w - W_P}{I_P} = \frac{39 - 26}{22} =$$

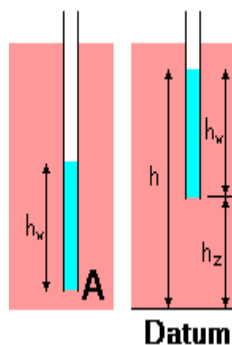
The clay is of normal activity and is of soft consistency

## 5. PERMEABILITY AND SEEPAGE

## Permeability Of Soil:

### Pressure, Elevation and Total Heads

In soils, the interconnected pores provide passage for water. A large number of such flow paths act together, and the average rate of flow is termed the coefficient of permeability, or just permeability. It is a measure of the ease with which the soil provides to the flow of water through its pores.



At point **A**, the pore water pressure (**u**) can be measured from the height of water in a stand pipe located at that point. The height of the water column is the **pressure head ( $h_w$ )**.

$$h_w = u / \gamma_w$$

To identify any difference in pore water pressure at different points, it is necessary to eliminate the effect of the points of measurement. With this in view, a datum is required from which locations are measured.

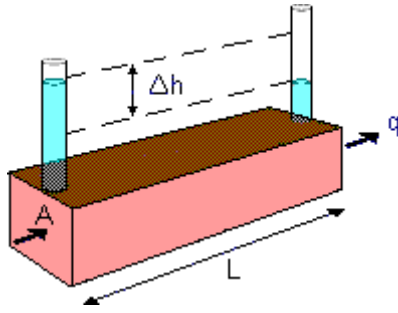
The **elevation head ( $h_z$ )** of any point is its height above the datum line. The height of water level in the stand pipe above the datum is the **piezometric head ( $h$ )**.

$$h = h_z + h_w$$

**Total head** consists of **three components**: elevation head, pressure head, and velocity head. As seepage velocity in

soils is normally low, velocity head is ignored, and total head becomes equal to the piezometric head. Due to the low seepage velocity and small size of pores, the flow of water in the pores is steady and laminar in most cases. Water flow takes place between two points in soil due to the difference in total heads.

Darcy's law states that there is a linear relationship between flow velocity (**v**) and hydraulic gradient (**i**) for any given saturated soil under steady laminar flow conditions.



If the rate of flow is  $q$  (volume/time) through cross-sectional area ( $A$ ) of the soil mass, Darcy's Law can be expressed as

$$v = q/A = k \cdot i$$

where  $k$  = permeability of the soil

$$i = \Delta h / L$$

$\Delta h$  = difference in total heads

$L$  = length of the soil mass

The flow velocity ( $v$ ) is also called the Darcian velocity or the **superficial velocity**. It is different from the actual velocity inside the soil pores, which is known as the **seepage velocity**,  $v_s$ . At the particulate level, the water follows a tortuous path through the pores. Seepage velocity is always greater than the superficial velocity, and it is expressed as:

$$v_s = \frac{q}{A_v} = \frac{q}{A_v} \cdot \frac{A}{A} \approx \frac{v}{n}$$

where  $A_v$  = Area of voids on a cross-section normal to the direction of flow

$n$  = porosity of the soil

### Permeability of Different soils:

Permeability ( $k$ ) is an engineering property of soils and is a function of the soil type.

Its value depends on the average size of the pores and is related to the distribution of particle sizes, particle shape and soil structure. The ratio of permeabilities of typical sands/gravels to those of typical clays is of the order of  $10^6$ . A small proportion of fine material in a coarse-grained soil can lead to a significant reduction in permeability.

For different soil types as per grain size, the orders of magnitude for permeability are as follows:

Soil	$k$ (cm/sec)
Gravel	$10^0$
Coarse sand	$10^0$ to $10^{-1}$

Medium sand	$10^{-1}$ to $10^{-2}$
Fine sand	$10^{-2}$ to $10^{-3}$
Silty sand	$10^{-3}$ to $10^{-4}$
Silt	$1 \times 10^{-5}$
Clay	$10^{-7}$ to $10^{-9}$

In soils, the permeant or pore fluid is mostly water whose variation in property is generally very less. Permeability of all soils is strongly influenced by the density of packing of the soil particles, which can be represented by void ratio ( $e$ ) or porosity ( $n$ ).

### For Sands

In sands, permeability can be empirically related to the square of some representative grain size from its grain-size distribution. For filter sands, Allen Hazen in 1911 found that  $k = 100(D_{10})^2$  cm/s where  $D_{10}$  = effective grain size in cm.

Different relationships have been attempted relating void ratio and permeability, such as  $k \propto e^2$ . They have been obtained from the Kozeny-Carman equation for laminar flow in saturated soils.

$$k = \frac{1}{k_0 k_T S_s^2} \cdot \frac{e^3}{1+e} \cdot \frac{\gamma_w}{\eta}$$

where  $k_0$  and  $k_T$  are factors depending on the shape and tortuosity of the pores respectively,  $S_s$  is the surface area of the solid particles per unit volume of solid material, and  $\gamma_w$  and  $\eta$  are unit weight and viscosity of the pore water.

$$k = C \cdot \frac{e^3}{1+e} \approx C \cdot e^2$$

### For Silts and Clays

For silts and clays, the Kozeny-Carman equation does not work well, and  $\log k$  versus  $e$  plot has been found to indicate a linear relationship.

For clays, it is typically found that

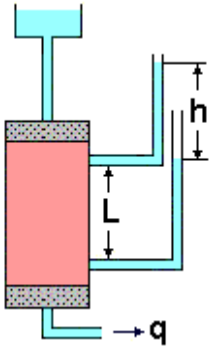
$$\log_{10} k = \frac{e - e_k}{C_k}$$

where  $C_k$  is the permeability change index and  $e_k$  is a reference void ratio.

## Laboratory Measurement of Permeability:

### Constant Head Flow

Constant head permeameter is recommended for coarse-grained soils only since for such soils, flow rate is measurable with adequate precision. As water flows through a sample of cross-sectional area  $A$ , steady total head drop  $h$  is measured across length  $L$ .

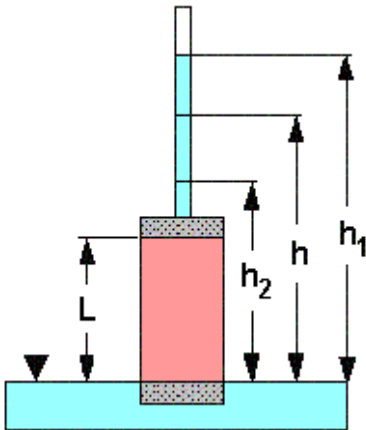


Permeability  $k$  is obtained from:

$$k = \frac{qL}{Ah}$$

### Falling Head Flow:

Falling head permeameter is recommended for fine-grained soils.



Total head  $h$  in stand pipe of area  $a$  is allowed to fall. Hydraulic gradient varies with time. Heads  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are measured at times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . At any time  $t$ , flow through the soil sample of cross-sectional area  $A$  is

$$q = k \cdot h \cdot \frac{A}{L} \quad (1)$$

Flow in unit time through the stand pipe of cross-sectional area  $a$  is

$$a \times \left( -\frac{dh}{dt} \right) \text{ -----(2)}$$

Equating(1)and(2),

$$-a \cdot \frac{dh}{dt} = k \cdot h \cdot \frac{A}{L}$$

$$\text{or } -\frac{dh}{h} = \left( \frac{kA}{La} \right) dt$$

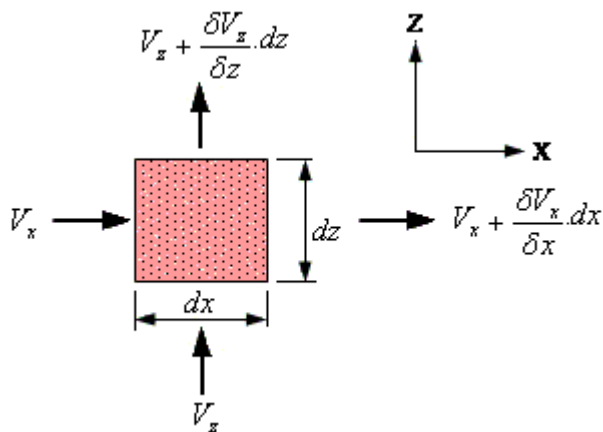
Integratingbetweenlimits,

$$\log_e \left( \frac{h_1}{h_2} \right) = \frac{k \cdot A}{L \cdot a} (t_2 - t_1)$$

$$k = \frac{L \cdot a \log_e \left( \frac{h_1}{h_2} \right)}{A(t_2 - t_1)}$$

$$= \frac{2.3 L \cdot a \log_{10} \left( \frac{h_1}{h_2} \right)}{A(t_2 - t_1)}$$

### SeepageinSoils:



A rectangular soil element is shown with dimensions  $dx$  and  $dz$  in the plane, and thickness  $dy$  perpendicular to this plane. Consider planar flow into the rectangular soil element.

In the  **$x$ -direction**, thenet amount of the water entering and leaving the element is

$$\frac{\delta V_x}{\delta x} dx dy dz$$

Similarly in the **z-direction**, the difference between the water inflow and outflow is

$$\frac{\delta V_z}{\delta z} dz dx dy$$

For a two-dimensional steady flow of porewater, any imbalance in flows into and out of an element in the z-direction must be compensated by a corresponding opposite imbalance in the x-direction. Combining the above, and dividing by  $dx dy dz$ , the **continuity equation** is expressed as

$$\frac{\delta V_x}{\delta x} + \frac{\delta V_z}{\delta z} = 0$$

From Darcy's law,  $V_x = k_x \cdot \frac{\delta h}{\delta x}$ ,  $V_z = k_z \cdot \frac{\delta h}{\delta z}$ , where **h** is the head causing flow.

When the continuity equation is combined with Darcy's law, the equation for flow is expressed as:

$$k_x \cdot \frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta x^2} + k_z \cdot \frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta z^2} = 0$$

For an isotropic material in which the permeability is the same in all directions (i.e.  $k_x = k_z$ ), the **flow equation** is

$$\frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta x^2} + \frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta z^2} = 0$$

This is the **Laplace equation** governing two-dimensional steady state flow. It can be solved **graphically, analytically, numerically, or analogically**.

For the more general situation involving **three-dimensional** steady flow, Laplace equation becomes:

$$\frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta x^2} + \frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta y^2} + \frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta z^2} = 0$$



**One-dimensional Flow:**

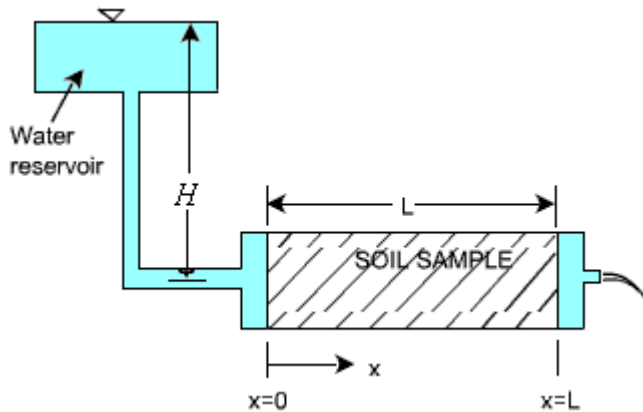
For this, the **Laplace Equation** is  $\frac{\delta^2 h}{\delta x^2} = 0$

Integrating twice, a general solution is obtained.

$$\frac{\delta h}{\delta x} = c_1$$

$$h = c_2 + c_1 x$$

The values of constants can be determined from the specific boundary conditions.



As shown, at  $x=0, h=H$ , and at  $x=L, h=0$

Substituting and solving,

$$c_2 = H, \quad c_1 = -\frac{H}{L}$$

The specific solution for flow in the above permeameter is

$$h = H - \frac{H}{L} x$$

which states that head is dissipated in a linearly uniform manner over the entire length of the permeameter.

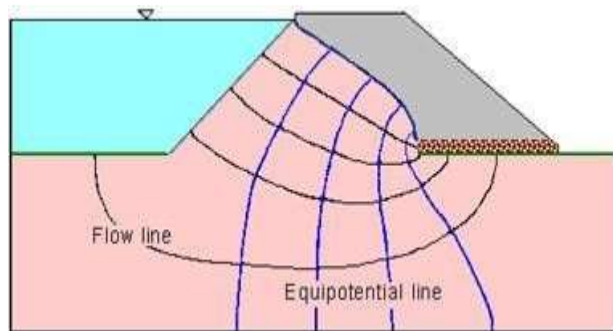
## Two-dimensional Flow:

### Flow Nets

Graphical forms of solutions to **Laplace equation** for two-dimensional seepage can be represented as flow nets. Two orthogonal sets of curves form a flow net:

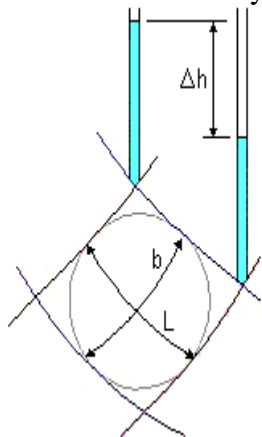
- **Equipotential lines** connecting points of equal total head  $h$
- **Flow lines** indicating the direction of seepage down a hydraulic gradient

Two flow lines can never meet and similarly, two equipotential lines can never meet. The space between two adjacent flow lines is known as a **flow channel**, and the figure formed on the flow net between any two adjacent flow lines and two adjacent equipotential lines is referred to as a **field**. Seepage through an embankment dam is shown.



### Calculation of flow in a channel

If standpipe piezometers were inserted into the ground with their tips on a single equipotential line, the water would rise to the same level in each standpipe. The pore pressures would be different because of their different elevations. There can be no flow along an equipotential line as there is no hydraulic gradient.



Consider a field of length  $L$  within a flow channel. There is a fall of total head  $\Delta h$ . The average hydraulic gradient is

$$i = \frac{\Delta h}{L}$$

As the flow lines are  $b$  apart and considering unit length perpendicular to field, the flow rate is

$$\Delta q = kb \frac{\Delta h}{L}$$

There is an advantage in sketching flow nets in the form of **curvilinear squares** so that a circle can be inscribed within each four-sided figure bounded by two equipotential lines and two flow lines.

In such a square, **b=L**, and the flow rate is obtained as  **$\Delta q = k \cdot \Delta h$**

Thus the flow rate through such a flow channel is the permeability **k** multiplied by the uniform interval  **$\Delta h$**  between adjacent equipotential lines.

### Calculation of total flow

For a complete problem, the flow net can be drawn with the overall head drop **h** divided into  **$N_d$**  so that  **$\Delta h = h/N_d$** . If  **$N_f$**  is the no. of flow channels, then the total flow rate is

$$q = \Delta q \cdot N_f = kb \cdot \frac{N_f}{N_d}$$

## LECTURE13

### Procedure for Drawing Flow Nets:

At every point  $(x,z)$  where there is flow, there will be a value of head  $h(x,z)$ . In order to represent these values, contours of equal head are drawn.

A flow net is to be drawn by trial and error. For a given set of boundary conditions, the flow net will remain the same even if the direction of flow is reversed. Flow nets are constructed such that the head lost between successive **equipotential lines** is the same, say  $\Delta h$ . It is useful in visualising the flow in a soil to plot the flow lines, as these are lines that are tangential to the flow at any given point. The steps of construction are:

1. Mark all boundary conditions, and draw the flow cross section to some convenient scale.
2. Draw a coarse net which is consistent with the boundary conditions and which has orthogonal equipotential and flow lines. As it is usually easier to visualise the pattern of flow, start by drawing the flow lines first.
3. Modify the mesh such that it meets the conditions outlined above and the fields between adjacent flow lines and equipotential lines are 'square'.
4. Refine the flow net by repeating step 3.

The most common **boundary conditions** are:

- (a) A submerged permeable soil boundary is an equipotential line. This could have been determined by considering imaginary standpipes placed at the soil boundary, as for every point the water level in the standpipe would be the same as the water level. (Such a boundary is marked as CD and EF in the following figure.)
- (b) The boundary between permeable and impermeable soil materials is a flow line (This is marked as AB in the same figure).
- (c) Equipotential lines intersecting a phreatic surface at equal vertical intervals.

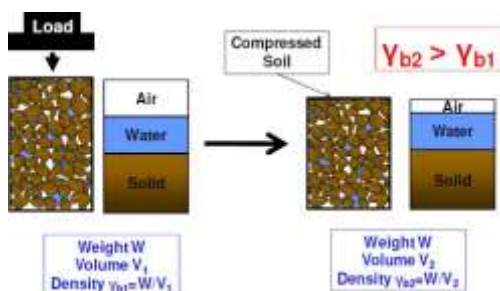
## 6 COMPACTION

### Introduction:

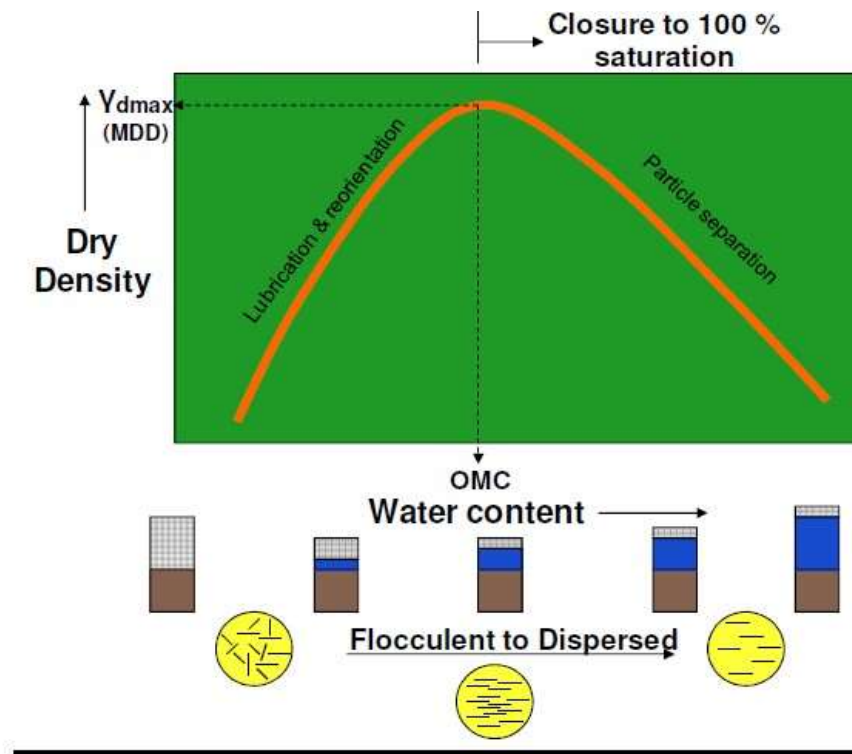
Compaction is the process of increasing the bulk density of a soil or aggregate by driving out air. For any soil, at a given compactive effort, the density obtained depends on the moisture content. An “Optimum Moisture Content” exists at which it will achieve a maximum density. Compaction is the method of mechanically increasing the density of soil. The densification of soil is achieved by reducing air void space. During compaction, air content reduces, but not water content. It is not possible to compact saturated soil. It should be noted that higher the density of soil mass, stronger, stiffer, more durable will be the soil mass.

Hence, Compaction

- 1) Increases density
- 2) Increases strength characteristics
- 3) Increases load-bearing capacity
- 4) Decreases undesirable settlement
- 5) Increases stability of slopes and embankments
- 6) Decreases permeability
- 7) Reduces water seepage
- 8) Reduces Swelling & Shrinkage
- 9) Reduces frost damage
- 10) Reduces erosion damage
- 11) Develops high negative pore pressures (suctions) increasing effective stress



## Mechanism of Compaction-



Optimum Moisture Content (OMC) is the moisture content at which the maximum possible dry density is achieved for a particular compaction energy or compaction method. The corresponding dry density is called Maximum Dry Density (MDD). Water is added to lubricate the contact surfaces of soil particles and improve the compressibility of the soil matrix. It should be noted that increase in water content increases the dry density in most soils up to one stage (Dry side). Water acts as lubrication. Beyond this level, any further increase in water (Wet side) will only add more void space, thereby reducing the dry density. Hence OMC indicates the boundary between the dry side and wet side. Hence the compaction curve as shown in figure indicates the initial upward trend up to OMC and the downward trend.

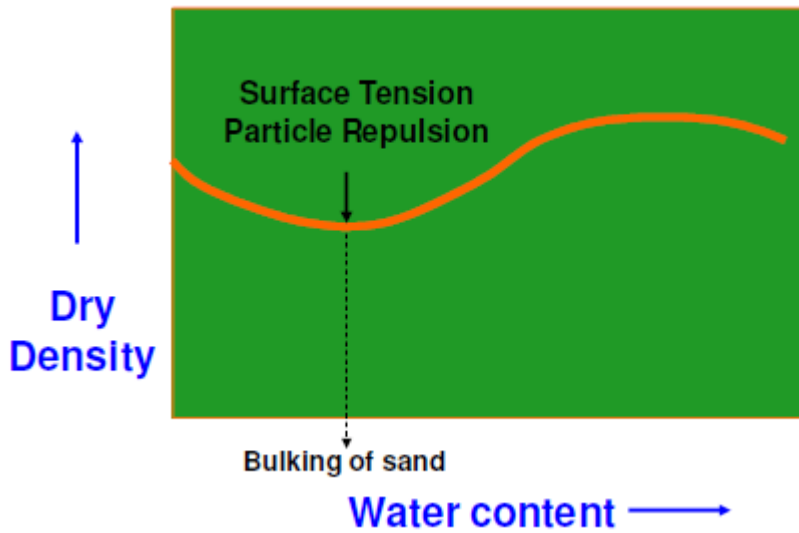
### Reasons for the shape of curve

1. On dry side of OMC, clayey soil shows high suction, lumps are difficult to break or compact.
2. Increasing the water content reduces suction, softens lumps, lubricates the grains for easy compaction.
3. As water content increases, lubrication improves compaction resulting in higher dry density.
4. Now nearly impossible to drive out the last of the air – further increase in water content results in reduced dry density (curve follows down parallel to the maximum possible density curve – the Zero Air Voids curve)
5. MDD and OMC depend on the compaction energy and are not unique soil properties.
6. For sand, suction at low water contents also prevents compaction (but not if completely dry)
7. In cohesionless soils, MDD is achieved either when completely dry, or when completely saturated.

8. At low water content, grains are held together by suction (water at grain contact only)

9. This prevents compaction.

10. Laboratory test for MDD on sand requires fully saturated sample, and involves vibration.



Percent Air Voids:

$$\gamma_d = \frac{(1 - n_a)G\gamma_w}{1 + \omega G}$$

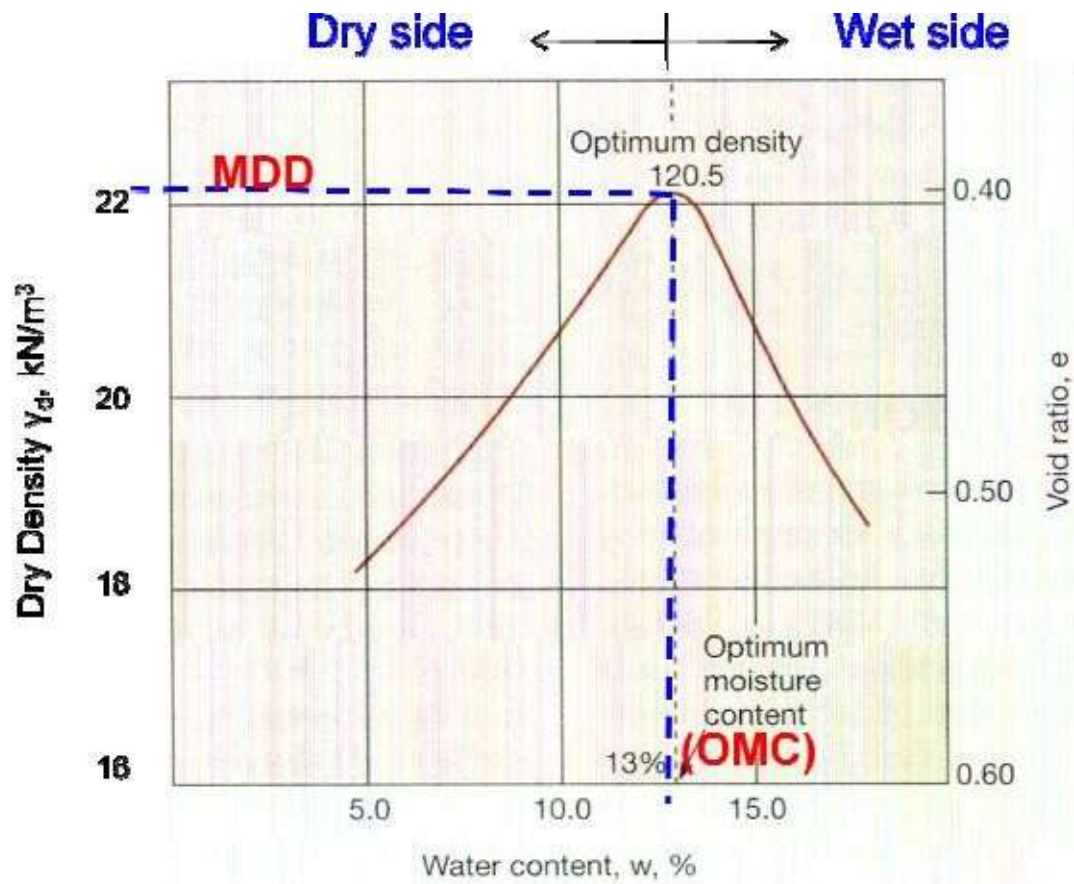
### **Factors affecting Compaction-**

1. Water Content
2. Amount of Compaction
3. Method of Compaction
4. Type of Soil
5. Addition of Admixtures

### **Effect of Water Content-**

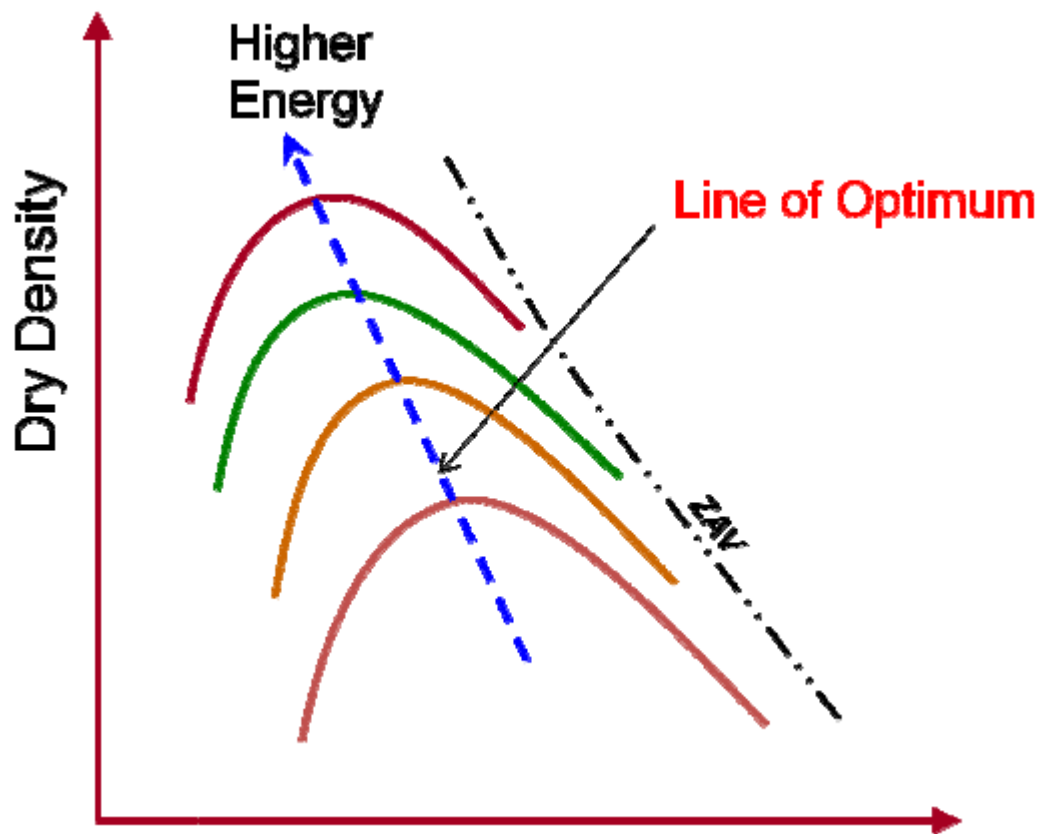
1. With increase in water content, compacted density increases up to a stage, beyond which compacted density decreases.
2. The maximum density achieved is called MDD and the corresponding water content is called OMC.
3. At lower water contents than OMC, soil particles are held by the force that prevents the development of diffused double layer leading to low inter-particle repulsion.
4. Increase in water results in expansion of double layer and reduction in net attractive force between particles. Water replaces air in void space
5. Particles slide over each other easily increasing lubrication, helping in dense packing.
6. After OMC is reached, air voids remain constant. Further increase in water, increases the void space, thereby decreasing dry density.





### Effect of Amount of Compaction-

1. As discussed earlier, effect of increasing compactive effort is to increase MDD and reduce OMC (Evident from Standard & Modified Proctor's Tests).
2. However, there is no linear relationship between compactive effort and MDD.



### Effect of Method of Compaction-

The dry density achieved by the soil depends on the following characteristics of compaction method.

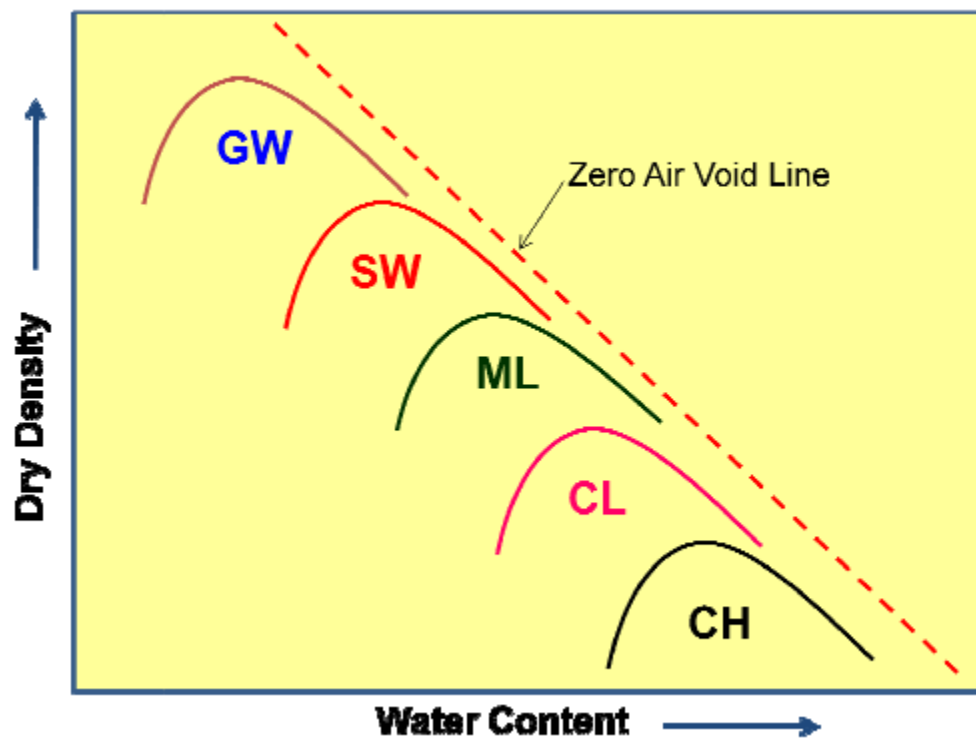
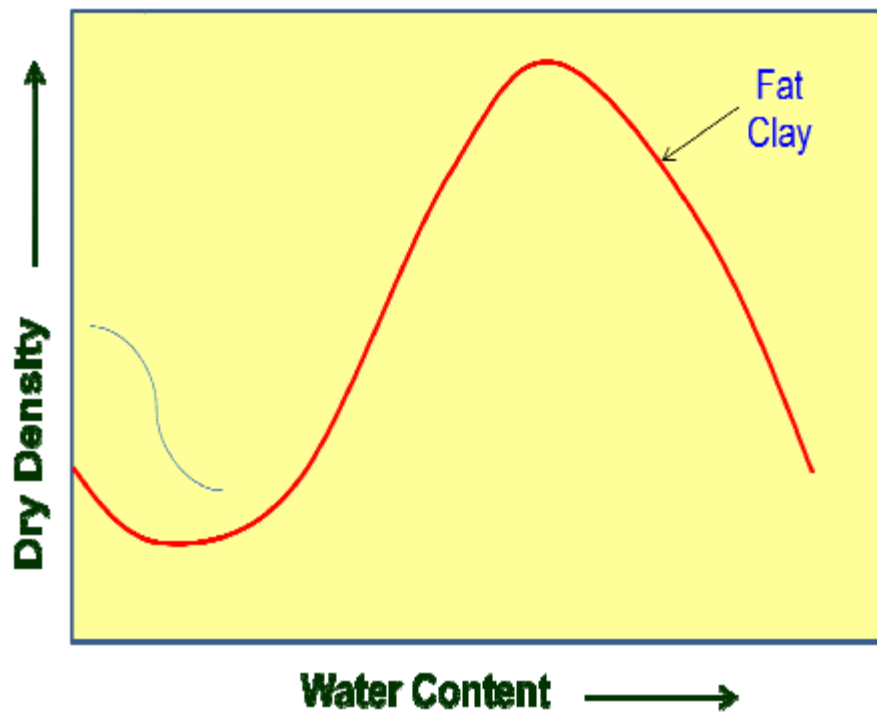
1. Weight of compacting equipment
2. Type of compaction
3. Area of contact of
4. Time of exposure
5. Each of these approaches will yield different compactive effort.

Further, suitability of a particular method depends on type of soil.

### Effect of Type of Soil

1. Maximum density achieved depends on type of
2. Coarse grained soil achieves higher density at lower water content and fine grained soil achieves lesser density, but at higher water content.

## Typical Compaction Curve for Fat Clay



### **Effect of Addition of Admixtures-**

1. Stabilizing agents are the admixtures added to soil.
2. The effect of adding these admixtures is to stabilize the soil.
3. In many cases they accelerate the process of densification.

### **Effect of compaction on soil properties-**

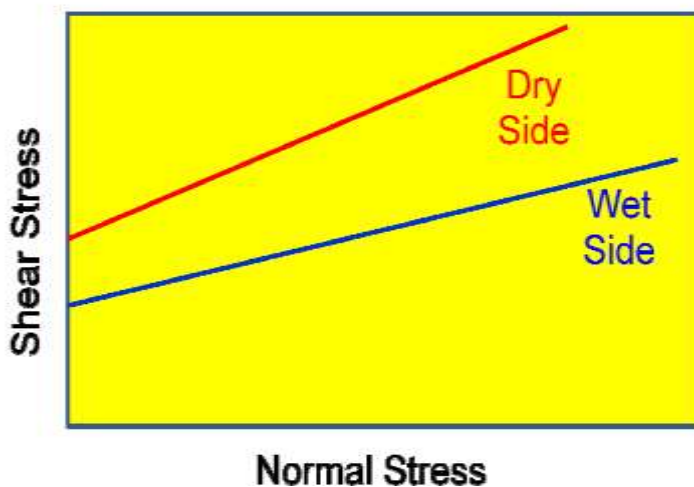
1. Density
2. Shear strength
3. Permeability
4. Bearing Capacity
5. Settlement
6. Soil Structure
7. Pore Pressure
8. Stress-Strain characteristics
9. Swelling & Shrinkage

### **Influence on Density:**

Effect of compaction is to reduce the voids by expelling out air. This results in increasing the dry density of soil mass.

### **Influence on Shear strength:**

Increase the number of contacts resulting in increased shear strength, especially in granular soils. In clays, shear strength depends on dry density, moulding water content, soil structure, method of compaction, strain drainage condition etc. Shear strength of cohesive soils compacted dry of optimum (flocculated structure) will be higher than those compacted wet of optimum (dispersed structure).



## Effect of compaction on permeability

1. Increased dry density, reduces the void space, thereby reducing permeability.
2. At same density, soil compacted dry of optimum is more permeable.
3. At same void ratio, soil with bigger particle size is more permeable.
4. Increased compactive effort reduces permeability.

## Effect on Bearing Capacity

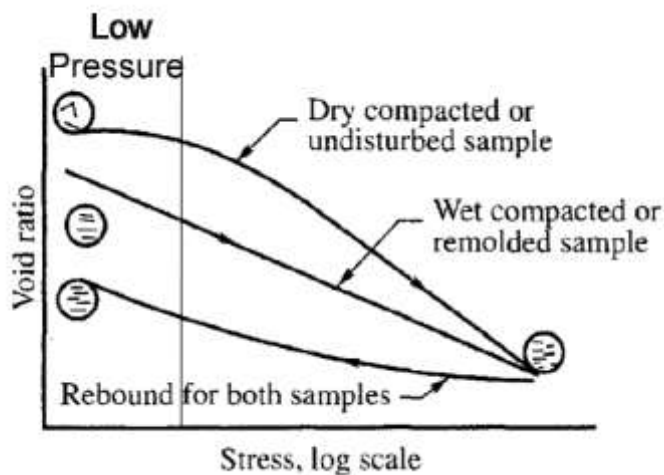
1. Increase in compaction increases the density and number of contacts between soil particles.
2. This results in increased
3. Hence bearing capacity increases which is a function of density and

## Effect on Settlement

1. Compaction increases density and decreases void ratio.
2. This results in reduced settlement.
3. Both the elastic settlement and consolidation settlement are reduced.
4. Soil compacted dry of optimum experiences greater compression than that compacted wet of optimum.

## Effect on Compressibility

Optimum shows more compressibility than that on dry side. But at higher pressure, behavior is similar.

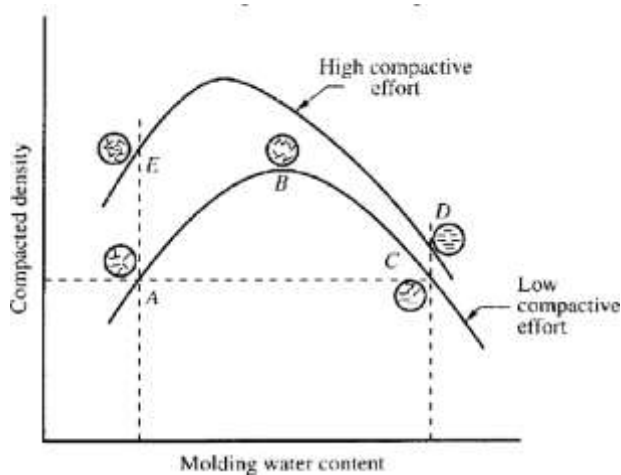


## Effect on Soil Structure

In fine grained soil

1. On dry side of optimum, the structure is flocculated. The particles repel and density is less.
2. Addition of water increases lubrication and transforms the structure into dispersed structure. In coarse grained soil, single grained structure is maintained.

In composite soil, behaviour depends on composition.

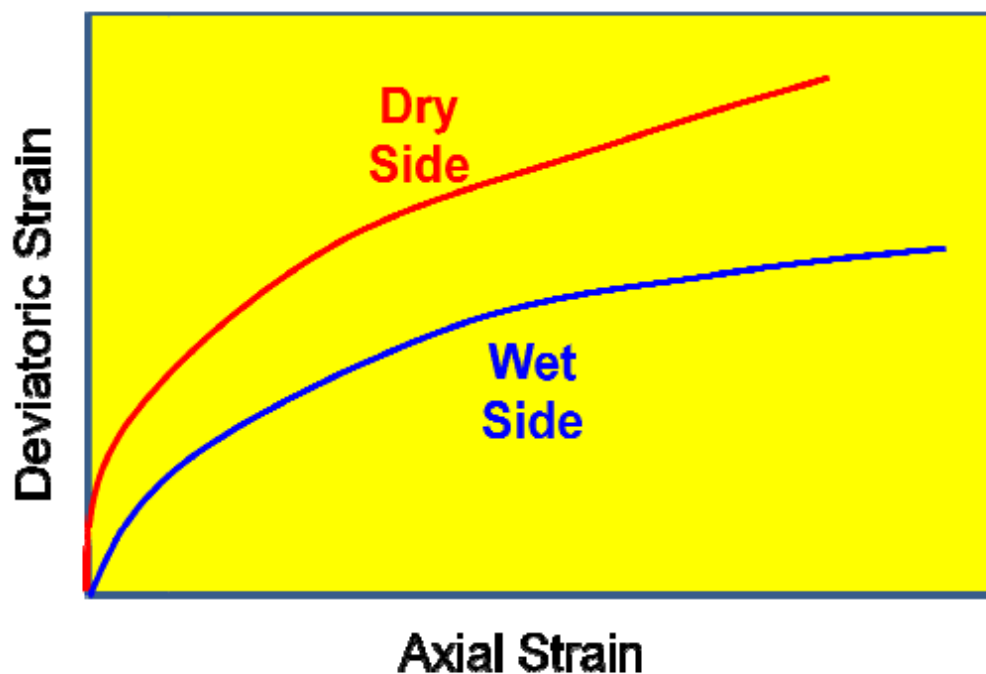


### Effect on Pore Pressure

1. Clayey soil compacted dry of optimum develops less pore water pressure than that compacted wet of optimum at the same density at low strains.
2. However, at higher strains the effect is the same in both the cases.

### Effect on Stress Strain Characteristics:

The strength and modulus of elasticity of soil on the dry side of optimum will always be better than on the wet side for the same density. Soil compacted dry of optimum shows brittle failure and that compacted on wet side experiences increased strain.



## **Effect on Swell Shrinkage**

The effect of compaction is to reduce the void space. Hence the swelling and shrinkage are enormously reduced. Further, soil compacted dry of optimum exhibits greater swell and shrinkage than that compacted on wet side because of random orientation and deficiency in water.

## **Standard Proctor's Compaction Test**

Refer IS 2720–Part VII–1987

### **Apparatus**

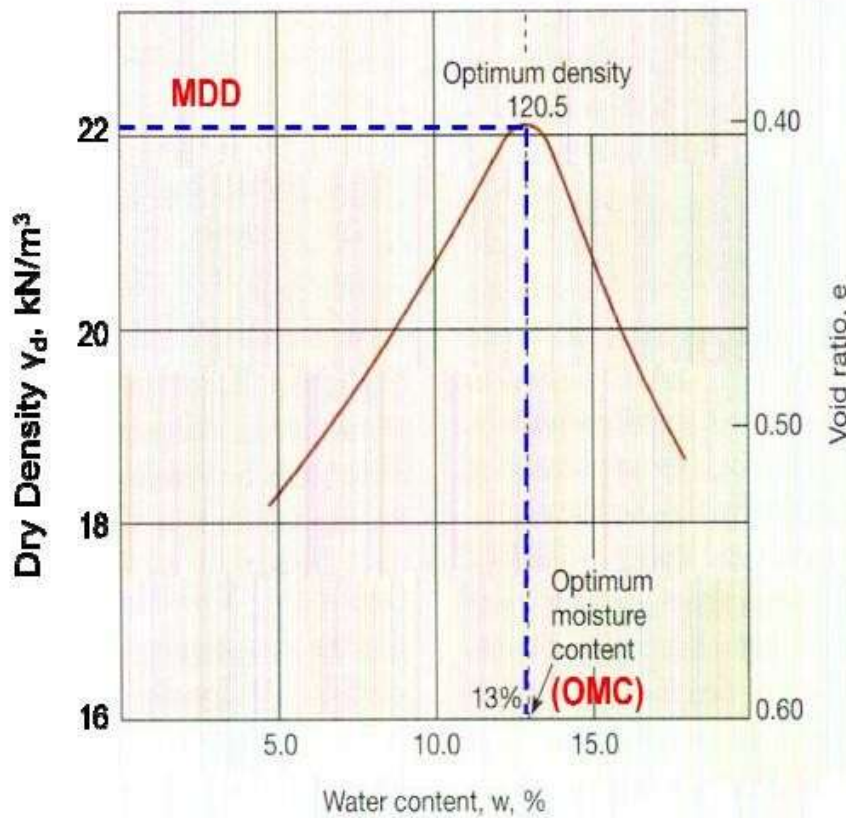
1. Cylindrical metal mould with detachable base plate (having internal diameter 101.6 mm, internal height 116.8 mm and internal volume 945000 mm<sup>3</sup>)
2. Collar of 50 mm effective height
3. Rammer of weight 2.5 kgf (25 N) with a height of fall of 304.8 mm



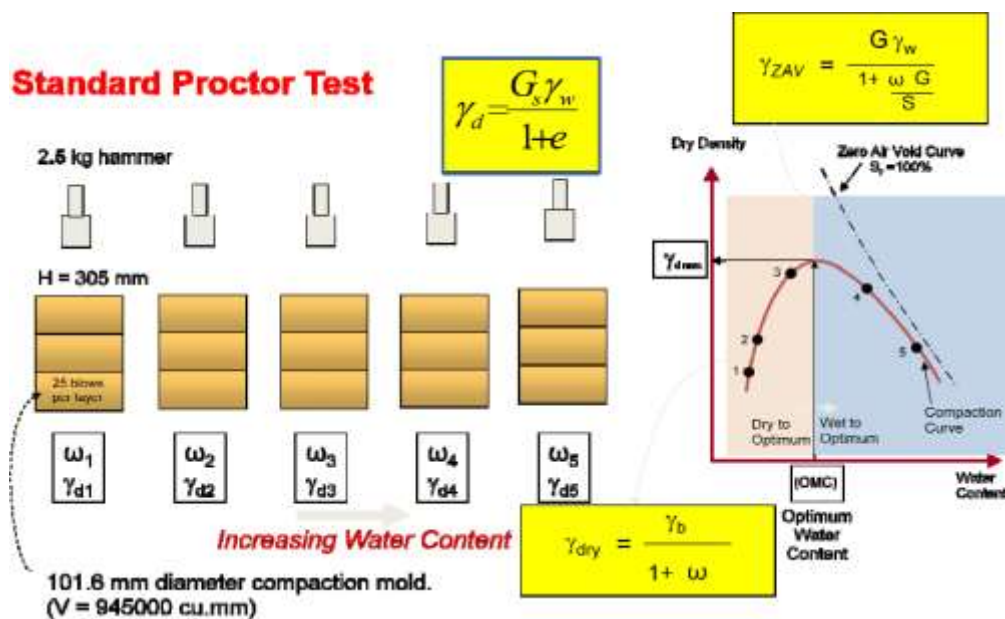
### **Procedure**

1. About 3 kg of dry soil, with all lumps pulverized and passing through 4.75 mm sieve is taken.
2. The quantity of water to be added in the first trial is decided. (Less for coarse grained soil and more for fine grained soil).
3. Mould without base plate & collar is weighed
4. The inner surfaces of mould, base plate and collar are greased.
5. Water and soil are thoroughly mixed.
6. Soil is placed in mould and compacted in three uniform layers, with 25 blows in each layer. Blows are maintained uniform and vertical and height of drop is controlled.

7. After each layer, top surface is scratched to maintain integrity between layers.
8. The height of top layer is so controlled that after compaction, soil slightly protrudes into collar.
9. Excess soil is scrapped.
10. Mould and soil are weighed (W)
11. A representative sample from the middle is kept for the determination of water content.
12. The procedure is repeated with increasing water content.
13. The number of trials shall be at least 6 with a few after the decreasing trend of bulk density.







## Modified Compaction Test

In early days, compaction achieved in field was relatively less. With improvement in knowledge and technology, higher compaction became a necessity in field. Hence Modified Compaction Test became relevant. It was developed during World War II by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineering to better represent the compaction required for airfield to support heavy aircraft.

### 6.4 Distinction between Standard & Modified Compaction

<u>Standard Proctor Test</u>	<u>Modified Proctor Test</u>
305 mm height of drop	450 mm height of drop
25 N hammer	45 N hammer
25 blows/layer	25 blows/layer
3 layers	5 layers
Mould size: 945 ml	Mould size: 945 ml
Energy 605160 N-mm per m <sup>3</sup>	Energy 2726000 N-mm per m <sup>3</sup>

## Compactive energy

$$\frac{\text{No. of blows per layer} \times \text{Number of layers} \times \text{Weight of hammer} \times \text{Height of drop of hammer}}{\text{Volume of mould}}$$

## **Types of field Compaction Equipment:**

1. Smooth Wheeled Steel Drum Rollers
2. Pneumatic Tyred Rollers
3. Sheep's foot Rollers
4. Impact Rollers
5. Vibrating Rollers
6. Hand Operated vibrating plate & rammer compactors

### **Smooth wheeled steel drum rollers**

1. Capacity 20 kN to 200 kN
2. Self propelled or towed
3. Suitable for well graded sand, gravel, silt of low plasticity
4. Unsuitable for uniform sand, silty sand and soft clay



### **Pneumatic Tyred Rollers**

1. Usually two axles carrying rubber tyred wheels for full width of track.
2. Dead load (water) is added to give a weight of 100 to 400 kN.
3. Suitable for most coarse & fine soils
4. Unsuitable for very soft clay and highly variable soil.



### **Sheepsfoot Roller**

1. Selfpropelled or towed
2. Drum fitted with projecting club shaped feet to provide kneading action.
3. Weight of 50 to 80 kN
4. Suitable for fine grained soil, sand & gravel with considerable fines.



## **Impact Roller**

1. Compaction by static pressure combined with impact of pentagonal roller.
2. Higher impact energy breaks soil lump and provides kneading action



## **Vibrating Drum**

1. Roller drum fitted with vibratory motion.
2. Levels sand, smoothens ruts



## **Plate & Rammer Compactor:**

It is used for backfilling trenches, smaller constructions and less accessible locations



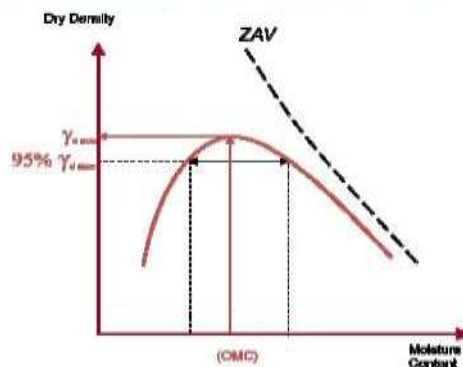


## Field Compaction Control-

It is extremely important to understand the factors affecting compaction in the field and to estimate the correlation between laboratory and field compaction. Field compaction control depends on

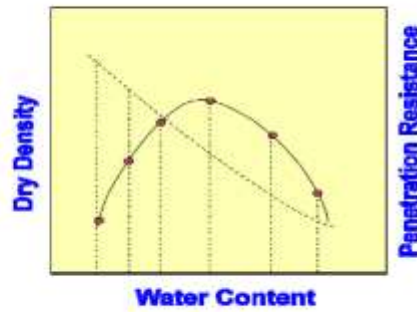
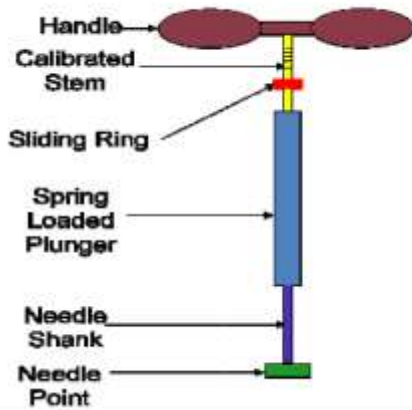
- (i) Placement water content,
  - (ii) Type of equipment for compaction
  - (iii) Lift thickness
  - (iv) Number of passes based on soil type & degree of compaction desired
- Placement water content is the water content at which the ground is compacted in the field. It is desirable to compact at or close to optimum moisture content achieved in laboratory so as to increase the efficiency of compaction. However, in certain jobs the compaction is done at lower than or higher than OMC (by about 1–2 %) depending on the desired function as detailed .

## Comparison between field & laboratory compaction methods



## Proctor's Needle

### Proctor's Needle



1. Used for rapid determination of water content of soil in field.
2. Rapid moisture meter is used as an alternative.
3. Proctor's needle consists of a point, attached to a graduated needle shank and a spring-loaded plunger.
4. Varying cross-sections of needle points are available.
5. The penetration force is read on the stem at the top.
6. To use the needle in the field, calibration is done on the specific soil in the lab and a calibration curve is prepared and the curve is used in the field to determine placement water content.

## Compaction control in field

There are many variables which control the vibratory compaction or densification of soils.

### **Characteristics of the compactor:**

- (1) Mass, size
- (2) Operating frequency and frequency range

### **Characteristics of the soil:**

- (1) Initial density
- (2) Grain size and shape
- (3) Water content

### **Construction procedures:**

- (1) Number of passes of the roller
- (2) Lift thickness
- (3) Frequency of operation vibrator
- (4) Towing speed

### **Degree of Compaction**

Relative compaction or degree of compaction

$$R.C. = \frac{\gamma_{d-\text{field}}}{\gamma_{d \text{ max-laboratory}}} \times 100\%$$

Correlation between relative compaction & relative density  $R.C. = 80 + 0.2D_r$

It is a statistical result based on 47 soil samples.

*Typical required R.C.  $\geq 95\%$*



# CONSOLIDATION

## Introduction

Civil Engineers build structures and the soil beneath these structures is loaded. This results in increase of stresses resulting in strain leading to settlement of stratum. The settlement is due to decrease in volume of soil mass. When water in the voids and soil particles are assumed as incompressible in a completely saturated soil system then - reduction in volume takes place due to expulsion of water from the voids. There will be rearrangement of soil particles in airvoids createdbythe outflowofwaterfromthe voids. This rearrangement reflects as avolume change leading to compression of saturated fine grained soil resulting in settlement. The rate of volume change is related to the rate at which pore water moves out which in turn depends on the permeabilityof soil. Therefore the deformation due to increase of stress depends on the “Compressibility of soils”

AsCivilEngineersweneedtoprovideanswersfor

1. Totalsettlement(volumechange)
2. Timerequiredforthesettlementofcompressiblelayer

The total settlement consists of three components

1. Immediate settlement.
2. Primaryconsolidationsettlement
3. Secondaryconsolidationsettlement(Creepsettlement

)  $S_t = S_i + S_c + S_{sc}$

## ElasticSettlementorImmediateSettlement

This settlement occurs immediately after the load is applied. This is due to distortion (change in shape) at constant volume. Thereisnegligibleflowofwaterinlesspervioussoils. Incaseof pervioussoilstheflowofwaterisquickat constant volume. This is determined by elastic theory.

## Primary Consolidation Settlement

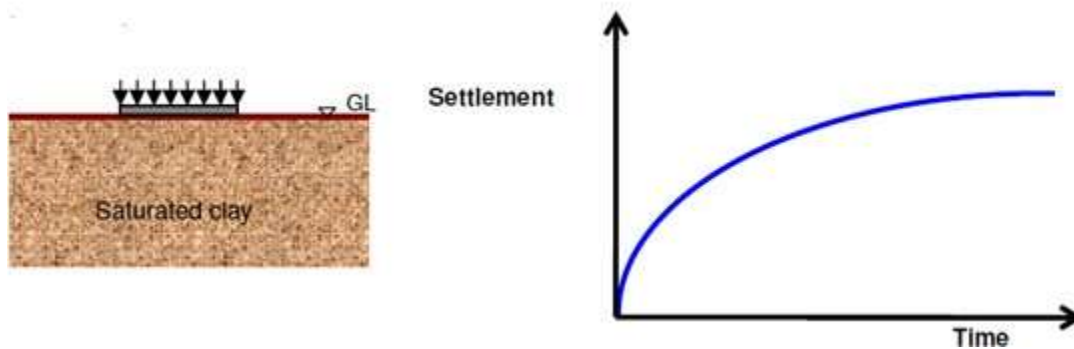


Figure Settlement versus Time

It occurs due to expulsion of pore water from the voids of a saturated soil. In case of saturated fine grained soils, the deformation is due to squeezing of water from the pores leading to rearrangement of soil particles. The movement of pore water depends on the permeability and dissipation of pore water pressure. With the passage of time the pore water pressure dissipates, the rate of flow decreases and finally the flow of water ceases. During this process there is gradual dissipation of pore water pressure and a simultaneous increase of effective stress as shown in the above Figure. The consolidation settlement occurs from the time water begins to move out from the pores to the time at which flow ceases from the voids. This is also the time from which the excess pore water pressure starts reducing (effective stress increase) to the time at which complete dissipation of excess pore water pressure (total stress equal to effective stress). This time-dependent compression is called “Consolidation settlement”.

Primary consolidation is a major component of settlement of fine grained saturated soils and this can be estimated from the theory of consolidation.

In case of saturated soil mass the applied stress is borne by pore water alone in the initial stages

$$\therefore \text{At } t = 0 \quad \Delta\sigma = \Delta u \quad \Delta\sigma' = 0$$

With passage of time water starts flowing out from the voids as a result the excess pore water pressure decreases and simultaneous increase in effective stress will take place. The volume change is basically due to the change in effective stress. After considerable amount of time ( $t \rightarrow \infty$ ) flow from the voids ceases, the effective stress stabilizes and will be equal to external applied total stress and this stage signifies the end of primary consolidation.

$$\text{At } t = t_1 \quad \Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma' + \Delta u$$

$$\text{At } t = \infty \quad \Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma' \quad \Delta u = 0 \quad (\text{End of primary consolidation})$$

## Secondary Consolidation Settlement:-

This is also called Secondary compression (Creep). “It is the change in volume of a fine grained soil due to

rearrangement of soil particles (fabric) at constant effective stress". The rate of secondary consolidation is very slow when compared with primary consolidation.

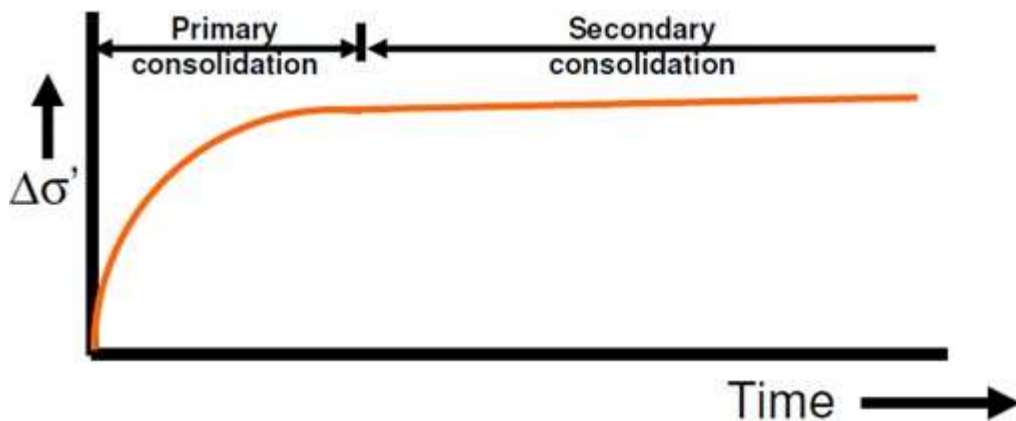


Figure Effective Stress versus Time

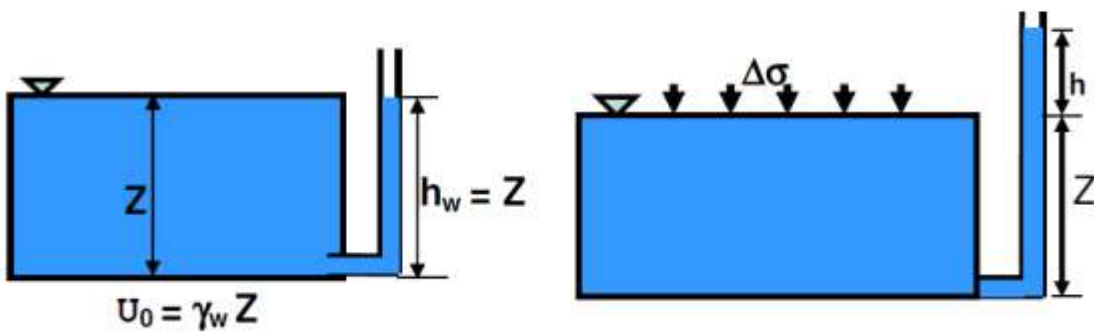
### Excess Pore water Pressure ( $\Delta u$ )

"It is the pressure in excess of the equilibrium pore water pressure". It is represented as  $\Delta u$ .

$$\Delta u = h \gamma_w$$

Where  $h$  --- Piezometric head

$\gamma_w$  --- Unit weight of water



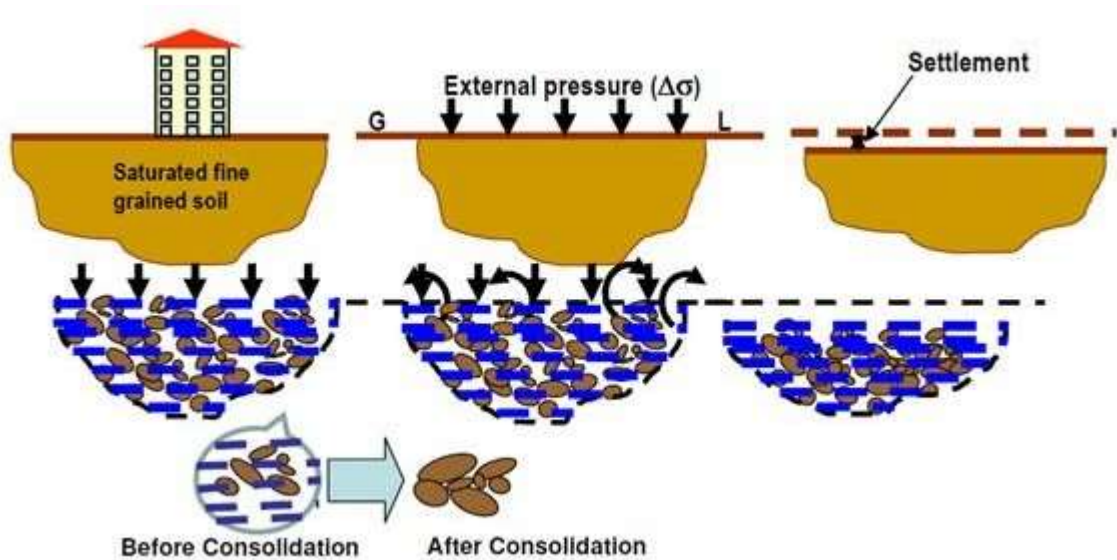


Figure Mechanism of volume change in saturated fine-grained soil under external loading

When saturated soil mass is subjected to external load decrease in volume takes place due to rearrangement of soil particles. Reduction in volume is due to expulsion of water from the voids. The volume change depends on the rate at which water is expelled and it is a function of permeability.

The total vertical deformation (Consolidation settlement) depends on

1. Magnitude of applied pressure
2. Thickness of the saturated deposit

t We are concerned with

\_ Measurement of volume change

\_ The time duration required for the volume change

### Spring Analogy

The consolidation process is often explained with an idealized system composed of a [spring](#), a container with a hole in its cover, and water. In this system, the spring represents the compressibility or the structure itself of the soil, and the water which fills the container represents the pore water in the soil.

On figure, the tube on the left of the container shows the water pressure in the container.

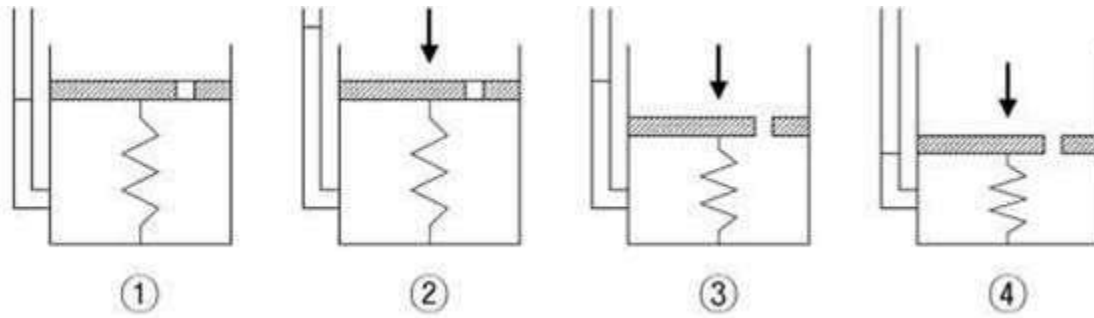


Figure:processofconsolidation

1. The container is completely filled with water, and the hole is closed. (Fully saturated soil)
2. A load is applied onto the cover, while the hole is still unopened. At this stage, only the water resists the applied load. (Development of excessive pore water pressure)
3. As soon as the hole is opened, water starts to drain out through the hole and the spring shortens. (Drainage of excessive pore water)
4. After some time, the drainage of water no longer occurs. Now, the spring alone resists the applied load. (Full dissipation of excessive pore water pressure. End of consolidation)

### Terzaghi's Spring Mass Analogy-

Terzaghi's model consists of a cylindrical vessel with a series of piston separated by springs. The space between springs is filled with water the pistons are perforated to allow for passage of water. Piezometers are inserted at the centers of different compartment to measure the pressure head due to excess pore water pressure.

Terzaghi has correlated the spring mass compression process with the consolidation of saturated clay subjected to external load. The springs and the surrounding water represent the saturated soil. The springs represent the soil skeleton networks of soil grains and water in the vessels represents the water in the voids. In this arrangement the compression is one dimensional and flow will be in the vertical direction. When pressure is applied this will be borne by water surrounding the spring

$$\Delta\sigma = \Delta u \quad \text{at time } t=0$$

$\Delta u$  is called excess hydrostatic pressure due to this water level in all the

Piezometer reach the same height 'h' given by  $h = \frac{\Delta u}{\gamma_w}$

$$\Delta\sigma = \Delta u \text{ and } \Delta\sigma' = 0 \text{ ----- } t=0$$

There will be no volume change. After some time 't' there will be flow of water through perforation beginning from upper compartment. In the lower compartment the volume of water remains constant since the flow is in upward direction.

Due to flow of water in the upper segment there will be reduction in volume due to this spring's get compressed and they being to carry a portion of the applied load. This signifies a reduction in excess hydrostatic pressure or pore water pressure and increase in effective stress in the upper segments. Whereas there will be no dissipation of excess hydrostatic pressure in lower compartments. The isochrones indicate that with passage of time there is flow of water from the lower compartments leading to gradual dissipation of excess hydrostatic pressure. At time  $t = 0$  when no more pore water flows out the excess hydrostatic pressure will be zero in all compartments and the entire load is carried by springs.

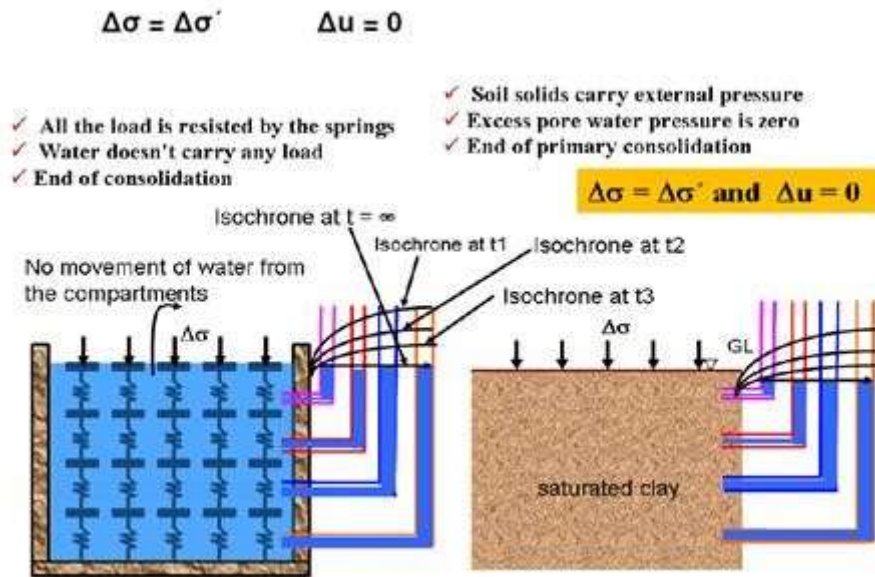


Figure Compression of Spring mass

The compression of a spring mass system is analogous to the consolidation of a saturated fine grained soil deposits subjected to external pressure.

## Soil Compressibility

### Compression of Sand

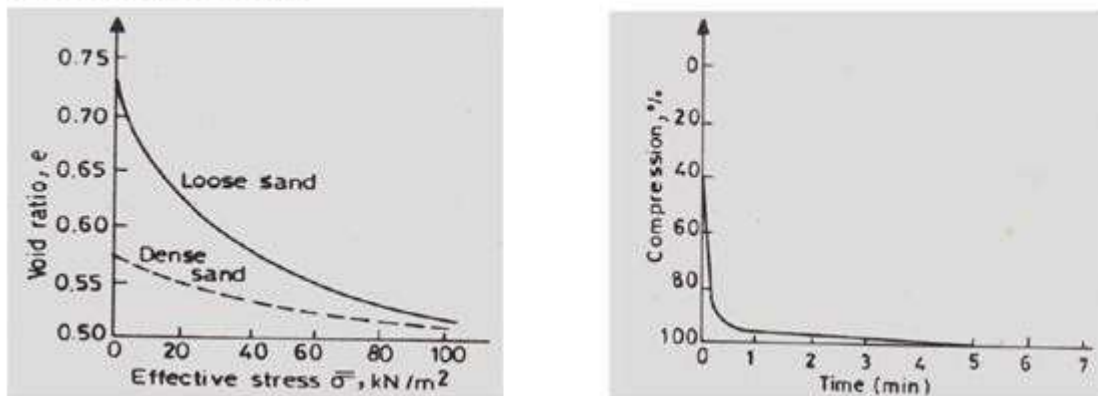


Figure Void ratio-effective stress and compression-time plots for sand

Sand deposit compresses immediately on load application. Loose sand compresses more than dense sand. Loose and dense sand deposits tend towards the same void ratio.

## Compression of fine grained soil (clay)

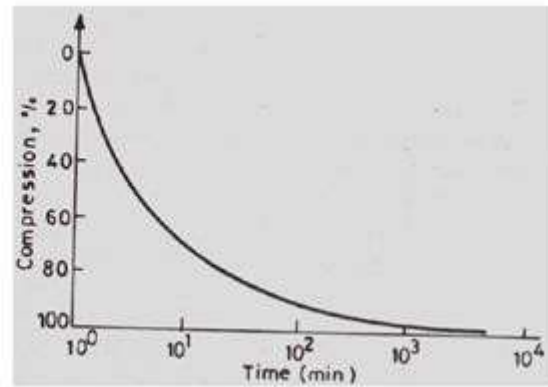
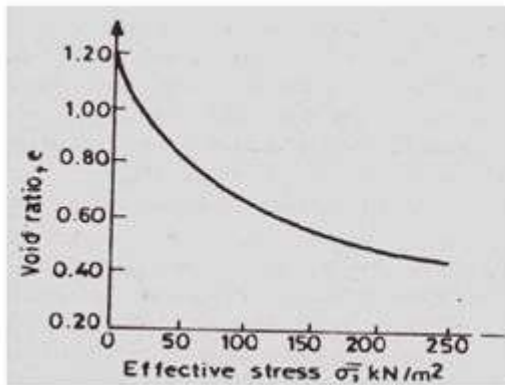


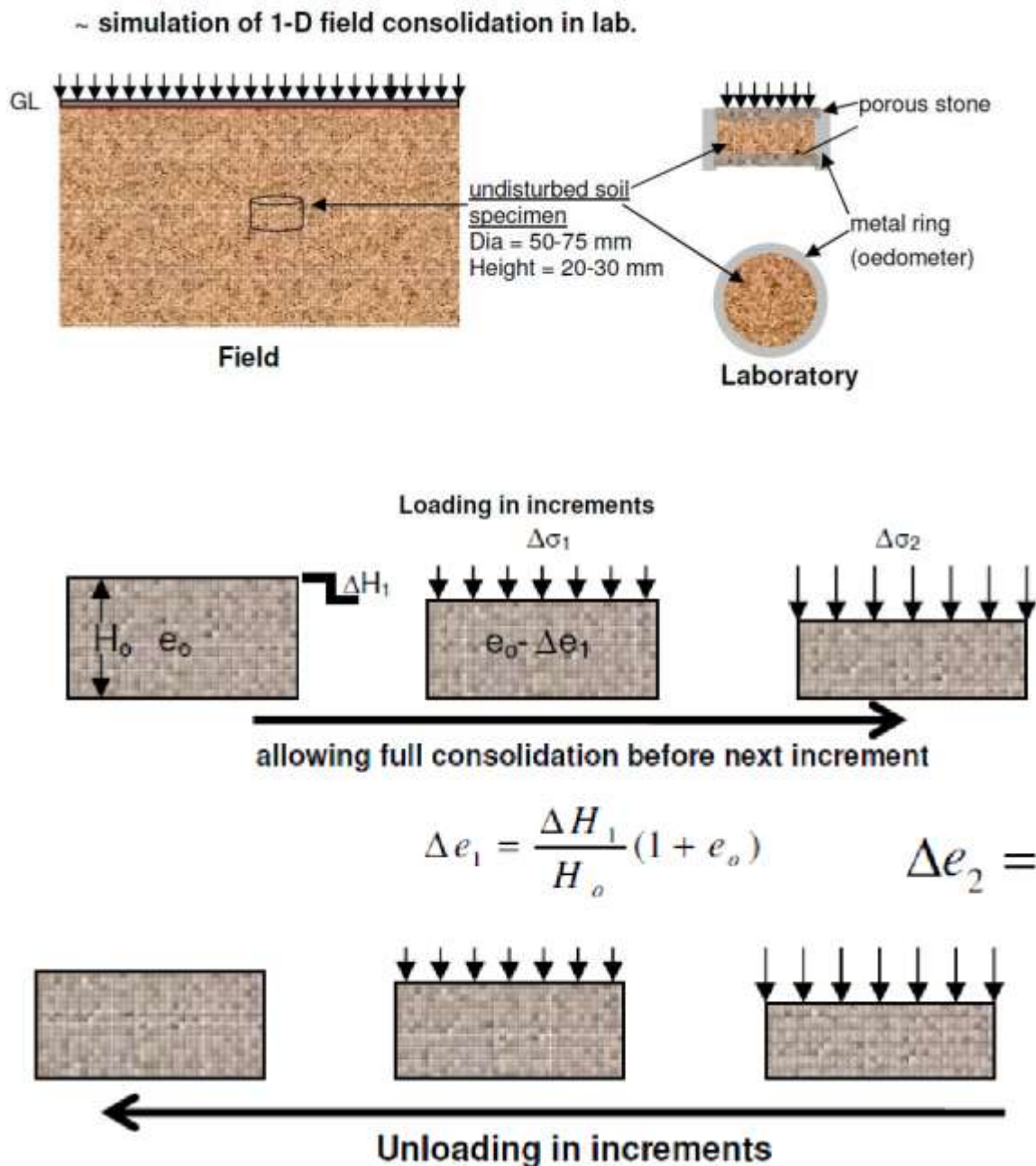
Figure Void ratio-effective stress and compression-time plots for clay

Time dependent compression takes long time compared to sand. The magnitude of compression is also large.



## Compression of Fine Grained Soil

The compressibility of fine grained soils can be described in terms of voids ratio versus effective stress



A laboratory soil specimen of dia 60mm and height 20mm is extracted from the undisturbed soil sample obtained from the field. This sample is subjected to 1D consolidation in the lab under various pressure increments. Each pressure increment is maintained for 24 hrs and equilibrium void ratio is recorded before the application of the next pressure increment. Then a plot of void ratio versus effective stress is made as shown in above figure. When the sample is recompressed from point D it follows DE and beyond C it merges along BCF and it compresses as it



Figure Void ratio versus effective stress (on arithmetic plot)



Figure Void ratio versus logarithm of effective stress (semi-log plot)

During the initial stages (at low effective stress) sample follows recompression path (portion AB) and undergoes less compression. Beyond this is the virgin compression line (portion BC) also called the normal compression line and the sample undergoes large compression.

1. BC–Virgin compression curve also called normal consolidation line
2. From ‘C’ when the sample is unloaded, sample expands and traces path CD (expansion curve unloading)
3. Sample undergoes Permanent strain due to irreversible soil structure and there is a small elastic recovery.
4. The deformation recovered is due to elastic rebound
5. When the sample is reloaded–reloading curve lies above the rebound curve and makes an hysteresis loop between

expansion and reloading curves.

6. The reloaded soil shows less compression.

7. Loading beyond 'C' makes the curve to merge smoothly into portion EF as if the soil is not unloaded.

## Terzaghi's 1D Consolidation Equation

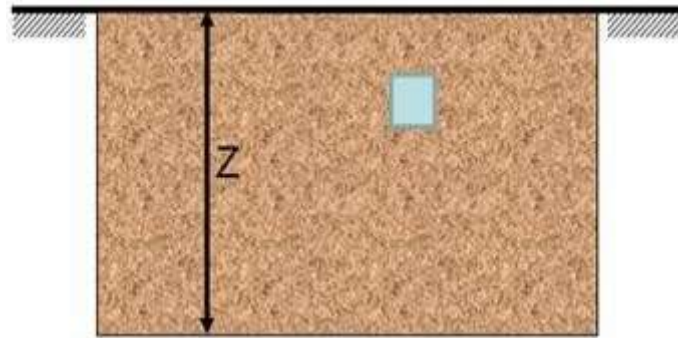


Figure Saturated soil Strata

Assumptions:

- ✓ The soil medium is completely saturated
- ✓ The soil medium is isotropic and homogeneous
- ✓ Darcy's law is valid for flow of water
- ✓ Flow is one-dimensional in the vertical direction
- ✓ The coefficient of permeability is constant
- ✓ The coefficient of volume compressibility is constant
- ✓ The increase in stress on the compressible soil deposit is constant
- ✓ Soil particles and water are incompressible

**One-dimensional theory is based on the following hypothesis**

1. The change in volume of soil is equal to volume of pore water expelled.
2. The volume of pore water expelled is equal to change in volume of voids.
3. Since compression is in one direction the change in volume is equal to change in height.

The increase in vertical stress at any depth is equal to the decrease in excess pore water pressure at the depth

$$\Delta \sigma' = \Delta u$$

This is Terzaghi's one-dimensional consolidation equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = c_v \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}$$

This equation describes the variation of excess pore water pressure with time and depth

## Limitation of 1D consolidation

1. In the derivation of 1D equation the permeability ( $K_z$ ) and coefficient of volume compressibility ( $m_v$ ) are assumed constant, but as consolidation progresses void spaces decrease and this results in decrease of permeability and

therefore permeability is not constant. The coefficient of volume compressibility also changes with stress level. Therefore  $C_v$  is not constant

2. The flow is assumed to be 1D but in reality flow is three-dimensional

3. The application of external load is assumed to produce excess pore water pressure over the entire soil stratum but in some cases the excess pore water pressure does not develop over the entire clay stratum.

## Solution of 1D consolidation

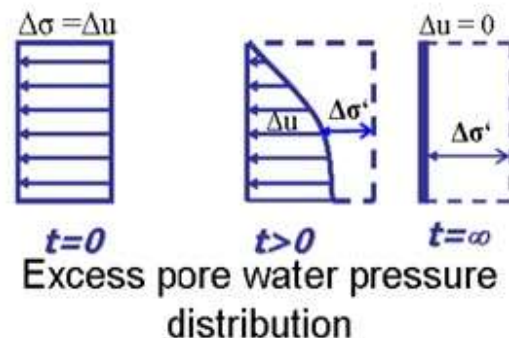
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = c_v \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \text{ ----- 1}$$

The solution of variation of excess pore water pressure with depth and time can be obtained for various initial conditions.

Uniform excess pore water pressure with depth

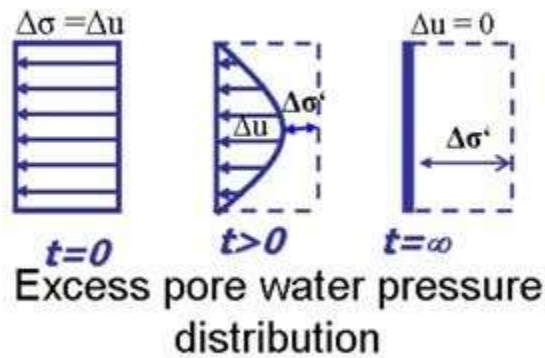
1. Single Drainage (Drainage at top and bottom impervious)
2. Double Drainage (Drainage at top and bottom)

### Single Drainage (drainage at top and bottom impervious)



Excess porewater pressure distribution of single drainage

## Double Drainage



### Excess porewater pressure distribution of double drainage

Boundary Conditions are

- i) At  $t = 0$   $\Delta u = \Delta \sigma$  and  $\Delta \sigma' = 0$
- ii) At the top  $z = 0$   $\Delta u = 0$   $\Delta \sigma = \Delta \sigma'$
- iii) At the bottom  $z = 2H_{dr}$   $\Delta u = 0$   $\Delta \sigma = \Delta \sigma'$

A solution of equation (1) for the above boundary conditions using Fourier series is given by

$$\Delta u_{(z,t)} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{2\Delta u_0}{M} \sin\left(\frac{MZ}{H_{dr}}\right) e^{-M^2 T_v}$$

$$M = \frac{\pi}{2} (2m+1) \text{ Where } m = +ve \text{ integer with values from } 0 \text{ to } \infty$$

$$T_v = \frac{c_v t}{H_{dr}^2} \text{ Where } T_v = \text{Time factor (dimensionless)}$$

### Graphical solution of 1D consolidation equation

$$\Delta u_{(z,t)} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{2\Delta u_0}{M} \sin\left(\frac{MZ}{H}\right) e^{-M^2 T_v}$$

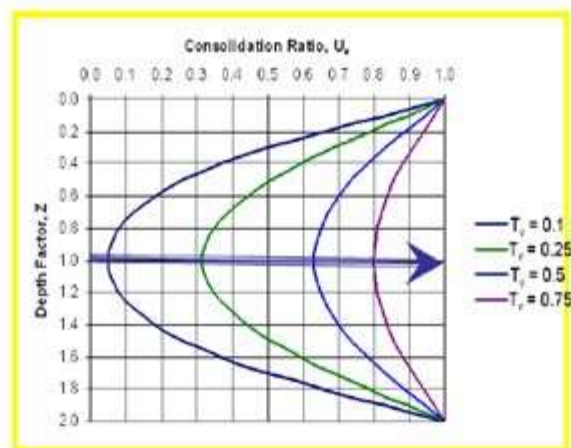
The solution of consolidation equation consists of the following three variables

1. The depth  $z$
2. The excess pore water pressure  $\Delta u$
3. The time  $(t)$  after application of loading

The above variables are expressed in the form of the following non-dimensional terms as

Sl. No	Variables	Non-dimensional terms
1	Depth (z)	$Z = z/H$ (Drainage path ratio)
2	Excess pore pressure ( $\Delta u$ )	$U_z$ --- consolidation ratio  This represents the dissipated pore water pressure to initial excess pore water pressure
3	Time (t)	$T_v$ (Time factor)

The graphical solution of the above equation is as shown below



Terzaghi's solution for one-dimensional consolidation

This indicates the progress of consolidation with time and depth for a given set of boundary conditions.



## Degree of Consolidation ( $U_z$ )

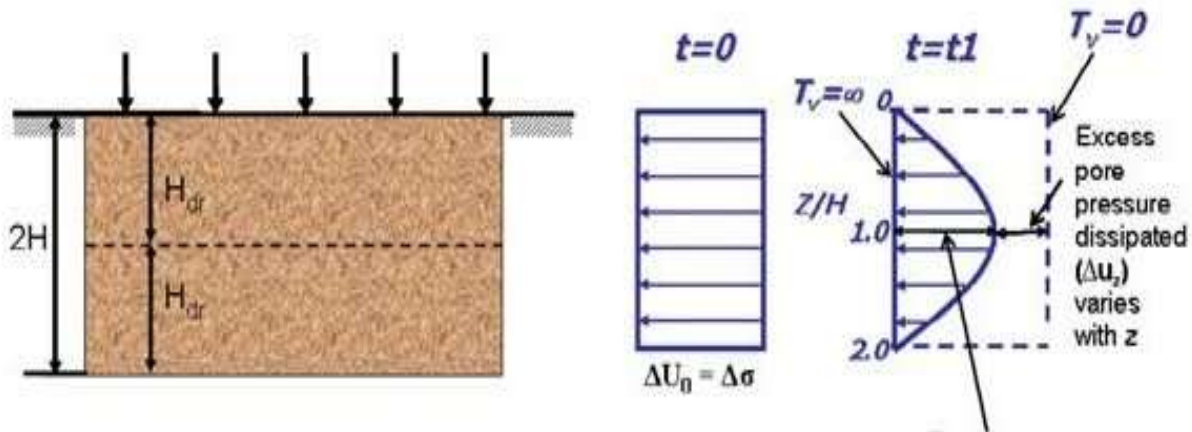


Figure: Selection of clay layer and Excess pore water pressure distribution

The degree of consolidation at any depth is given by

$$U_z = \frac{\Delta u_0 - \Delta u_z}{\Delta u_0}$$

$$1 - \frac{\Delta u_z}{\Delta u_0} = \frac{\Delta \sigma'_z}{\Delta u_0}$$

$\Delta u_0$  = Initial excess pore water pressure at that depth

$\Delta u_z$  = Excess pore water pressure at that depth

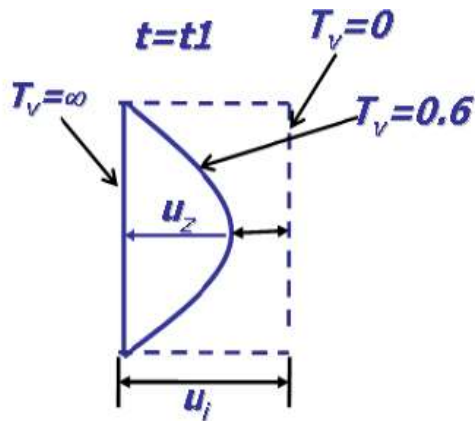
$$u_z = 1 - \frac{\Delta u_z}{\Delta u_0}$$

$$u_z = 1 - \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{M} \sin\left(\frac{MZ}{H}\right) e^{-M^2 T_v}$$

$u_z$  = Degree of consolidation at a particular depth at any given time

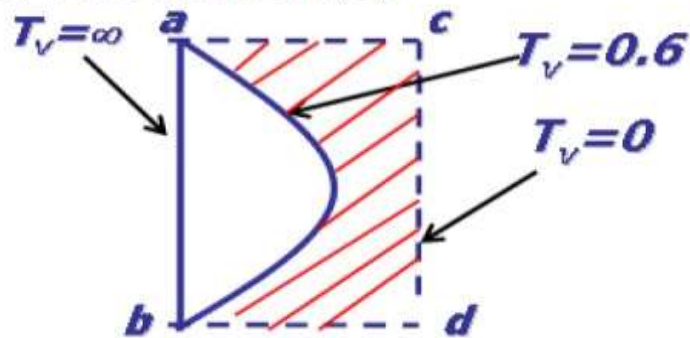
From practical point of view, the average degree of consolidation over the entire depth at any given time is desirable. At any given time  $u_z$  varies with location and hence the degree of consolidation also varies.





$u_z$  = Degree of consolidation at a certain level

Average Degree of Consolidation (U)



The average degree of consolidation for the whole soil deposit at any time is given by

$$U = \frac{\text{Area of the diagram of excess pore water pressure dissipated at any time}}{\text{Area of the diagram of initial excess pore water pressure}}$$

$$U = \frac{\text{Area Shaded}}{\text{Area of abcd}}$$

Mathematically  $U = f(T_v)$

## Consolidation of Soils

$$u = 1 - \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{2}{M} e^{-M^2 T_v}$$

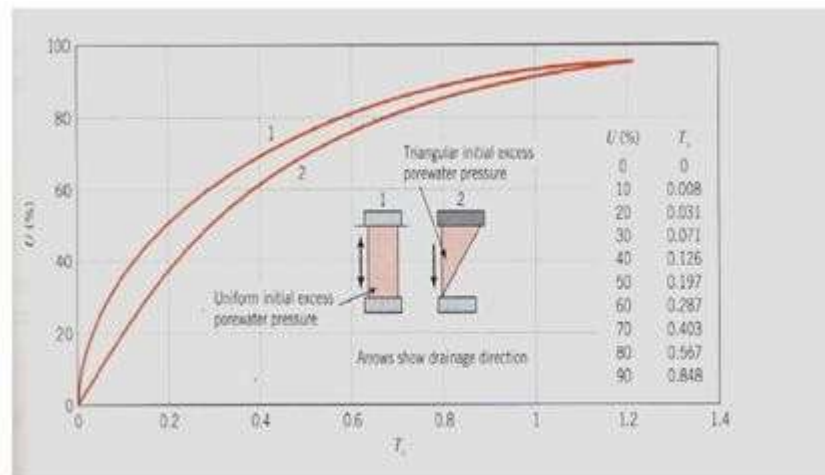


Figure: Degree of Consolidation versus time factor ( $T_v$ )

As per Taylor (1948) solution, the following approximation is possible

when  $U \leq 60\%$   $T_v = \frac{\pi}{4} U^2$

For  $U > 60\%$   $T_v = 1.781 - 0.933 \log(100 - U\%)$

Typical values of  $T_v$

U = 50%	$T_v = 0.197$
U = 60%	$T_v = 0.287$
U = 90%	$T_v = 0.848$

## Compressibility Properties-

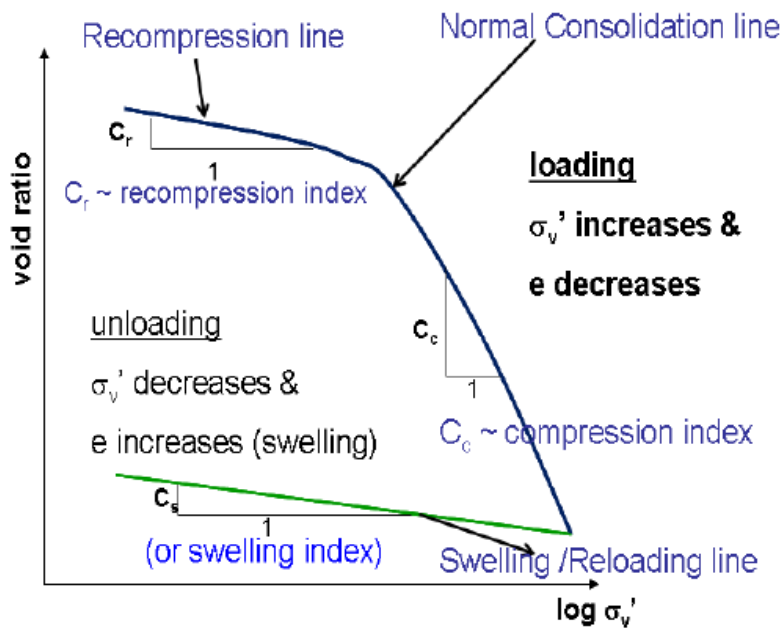


Fig.  $e - \log \sigma_v'$  plot

Coefficient of compression/compression index ( $C_c$ )

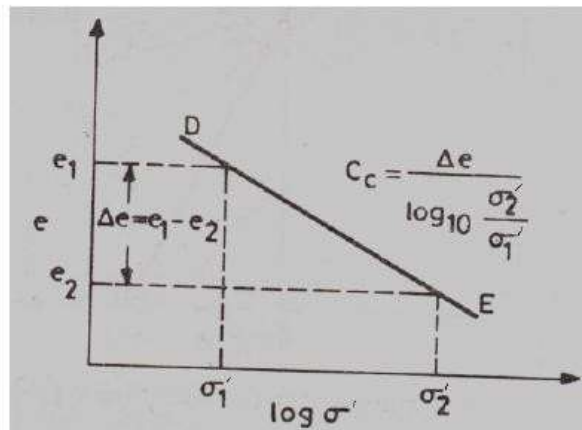


Fig. :  $e - \log \sigma'$  plot

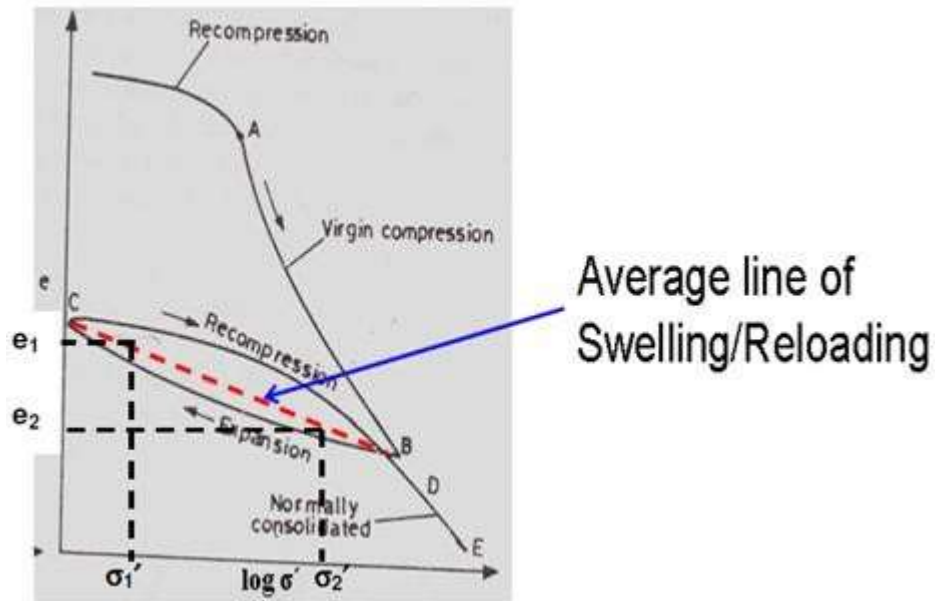


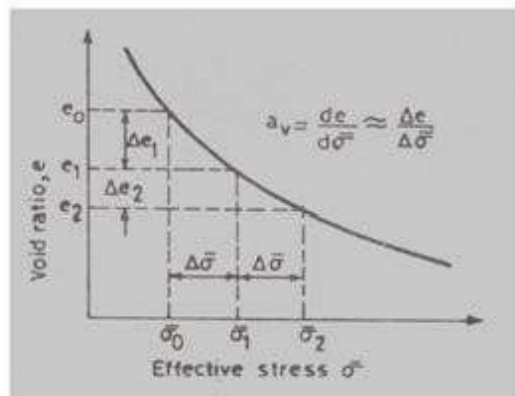
Figure:  $e - \log \sigma'_v$  plot

### Swelling Index ( $C_s$ )

It is the average slope of the unloading/reloading curves in  $e - \log \sigma'$  plot given by

$$C_s = \frac{e_1 - e_2}{\log_{10} \frac{\sigma_2'}{\sigma_1'}}$$

### Co-efficient of compressibility ( $a_v$ )



Void ratio versus effective stress plot

It is the slope of the void ratio versus effective stress for a given stress increase  $\Delta\sigma'$  in void ratio versus effective stress plot as shown

$$a_v = \frac{\Delta e}{\Delta\sigma'} = \frac{e_1 - e_2}{\sigma'_2 - \sigma'_0}$$

$a_v$  decrease with increase in effective stress

### **Co-efficient of volume compressibility ( $m_v$ )**

It is the ratio of change in volume of a soil per unit initial volume due to unit increase in effective stress and is given by

$$m_v = \frac{\Delta e}{(1 + e_0)} \frac{1}{\Delta\sigma'}$$

$\Delta e$  = Change in void ratio

$e_0$  = Initial void ratio

$\Delta\sigma'$  = increase in effective stress

## Preconsolidation Pressure

It is the maximum effective stress experienced by a soil in its stress history (past existence)

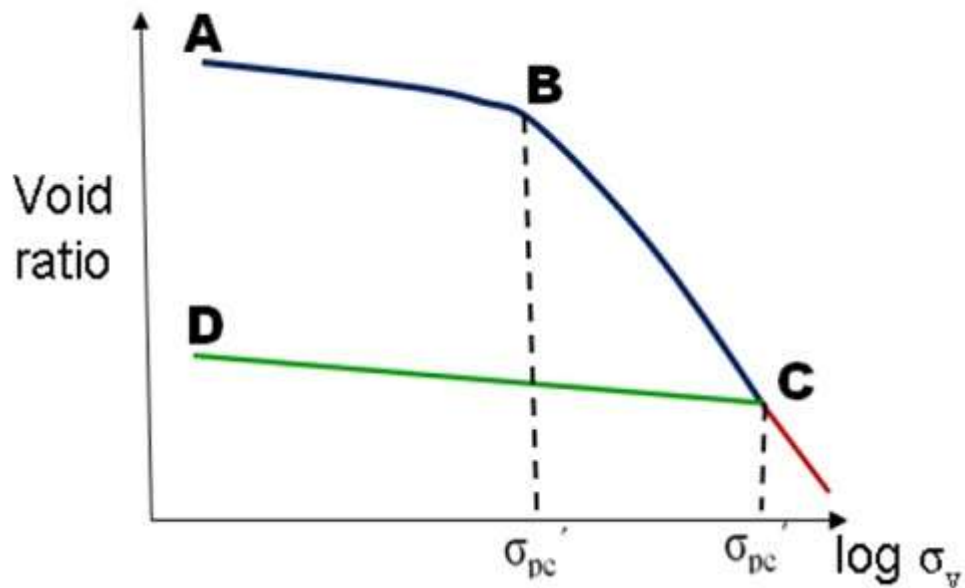


Figure: Void ratio versus effective stress (log scale)

For the soil loaded along the recompression curve AB the effective stress close to point B will be the preconsolidation pressure.

If the soil is compressed along BC and unloaded along CD and then reloaded along DC the effective stress close to point C will be the new preconsolidation pressure.

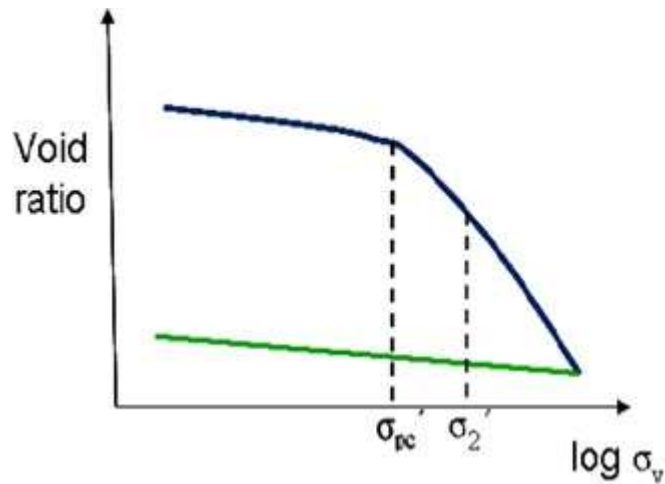
## Effect of Stress History

Based on the stress history (preconsolidation pressure) soils are classified as

1. Normally Consolidated Soils
2. Over Consolidated Soils
3. Under Consolidated Soils

## Normally Consolidated Soils

It is a soil deposit that has never subjected to a vertical effective stress greater than the present vertical stress.



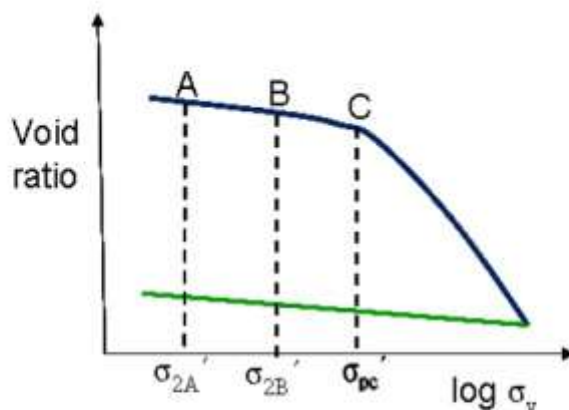
Void ratio versus effective stress (log scale)

### Under Consolidated Soils

A soil deposit that has not consolidated under the present overburden pressure (effective stress) is called Under Consolidated Soil. These soils are susceptible to larger deformation and cause distress in buildings built on these deposits.

### Over Consolidated Soils

It is a soil deposit that has been subjected to vertical effective stress greater than the present vertical effective stress.



Void ratio versus effective stress (log scale)

The stress state  $\sigma_{2A}$  and  $\sigma_{2B}$  represent over consolidated soil (well within preconsolidation pressure). Over consolidated soil deposits are less compressible and therefore structures built on these soils undergo less settlement.

## 7. SHEAR STRENGTH OF SOIL

### Necessity of studying Shear Strength of soils :

- Soil failure usually occurs in the form of “shearing” along internal surface within the soil.

### Shear Strength:

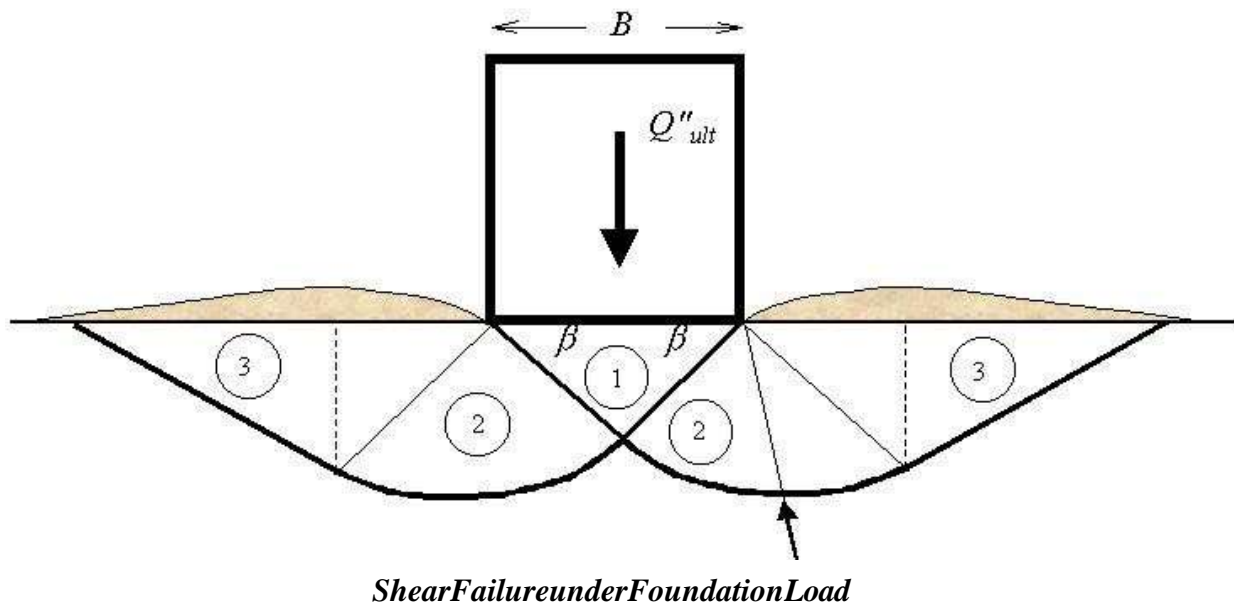
- Thus, structural strength is primarily a function of shear strength.
- The strength of a material is the greatest stress it can sustain
- The safety of any geotechnical structure is dependent on the strength of the soil
- If the soil fails, the structure founded on it can collapse

### Thus shear strength is

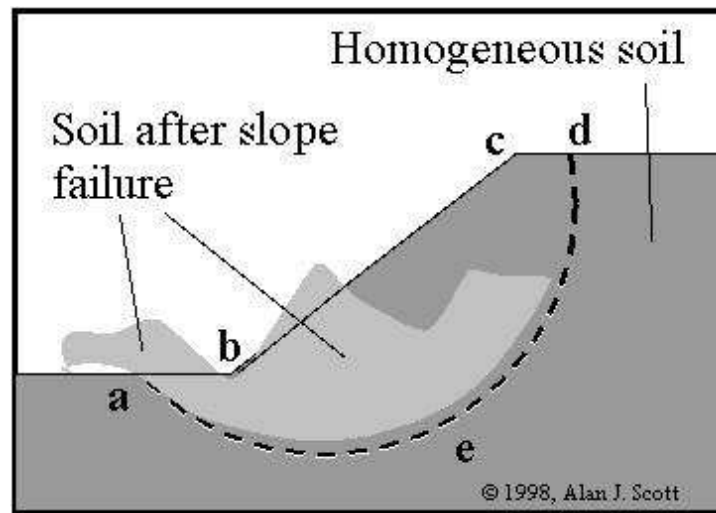
“The capacity of a material to resist the internal and external forces which slide past each other”

### Significance of Shear Strength:

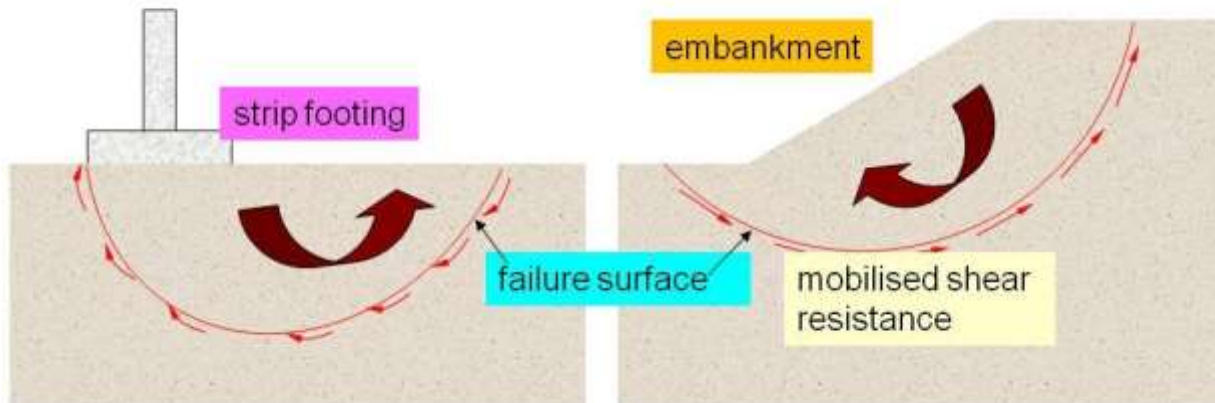
- Engineers must understand the nature of shearing resistance in order to analyze soil stability problems such as;
- Bearing capacity
- Slope stability
- Lateral earth pressure on earth-retaining structure







### *Slope Stability Failure as an Example of Shearing Along Internal Surface*



*At failure, shear stress along the failure surface reaches the shear*

Thus shear strength of soil is

“The capacity of a soil to resist the internal and external forces which slide past each other”

### **Shear Strength in Soils :**

- The shear strength of a soil is its resistance to shearing stresses.
- It is a measure of the soil's resistance to deformation by continuous displacement of its individual soil particles.
- Shear strength in soils depends primarily on interactions between particles.
- Shear failure occurs when the stresses between the particles are such that they slide or roll past each other



### Components of shear strength of soils

Soil derives its shear strength from two sources:

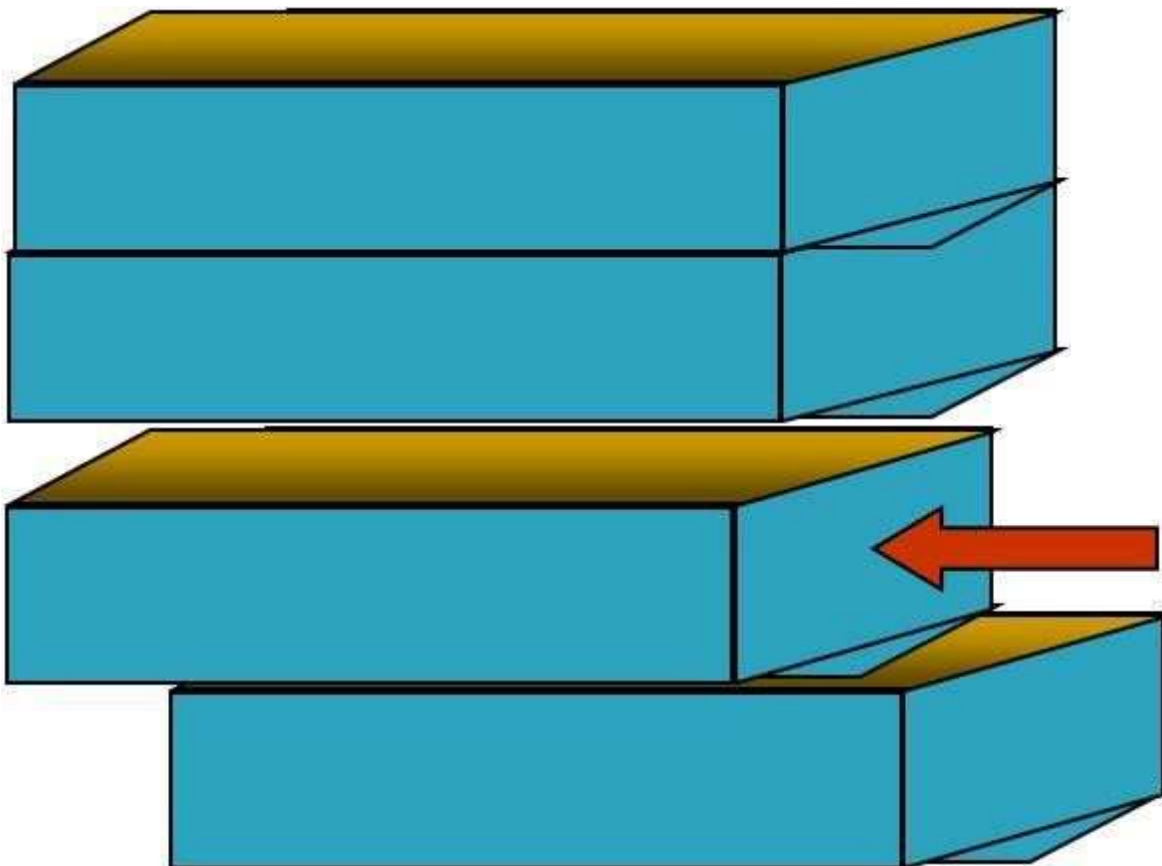
Cohesion between particles (stress independent component)

- Cementation between sand grains
- Electrostatic attraction between clay particles

Frictional resistance and interlocking between particles (stress dependent component)

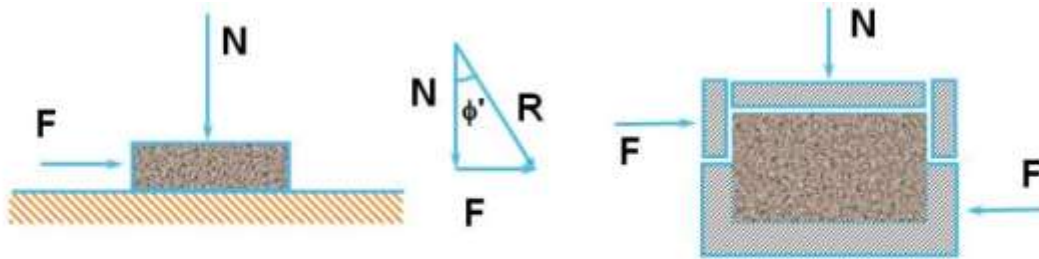
### Cohesion:

Cohesion ( $C$ ), is a measure of the force that cement particles of soils

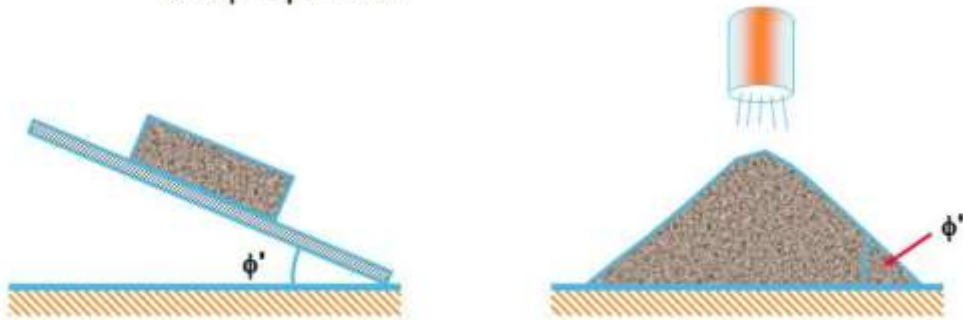


### Internal Friction:

Internal Friction angle ( $\phi$ ), is the measure of the shear strength of soils due to



$\phi'$ : Angle of internal friction;  $\mu$ : coefficient of friction  
 $\tan \phi' = \mu = F/N$

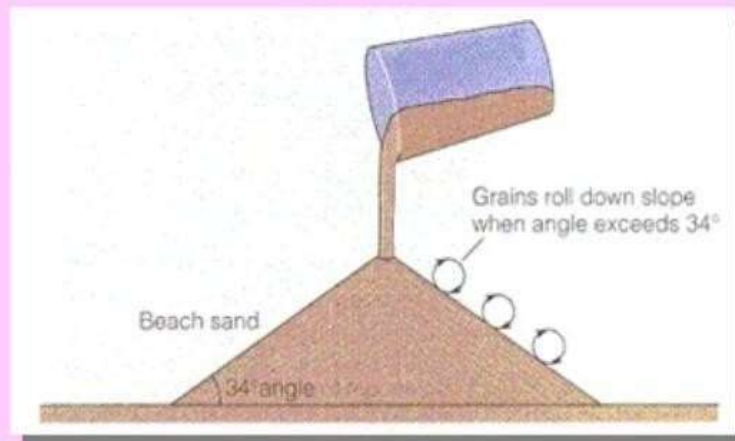


$\phi'$ : Angle of plank when block slides

$\phi'$ : Angle of repose of sand heap

fricti

- The maximum slope at which loose, cohesionless material is stable



Angle of Repose

Angle of Repose determined by:

Particle size (higher for large particles)

Particle shape (higher for angular shapes)

Shear strength (higher for higher shear strength)

**Stresses:**

Gravity generates stresses (force per unit area) in the ground at different points. Stress on a plane at a given point is viewed in terms of two components:

**Normal stress ( $\sigma$ ):** acts normal to the plane and tends to compress soil grains towards each other (volume change)

**Shear stress ( $\tau$ ):** acts tangential to the plane and tends to slide grains relative to each other (distortion and ultimately sliding failure).

### Factors Influencing Shear Strength:

The shear strength, is affected by:

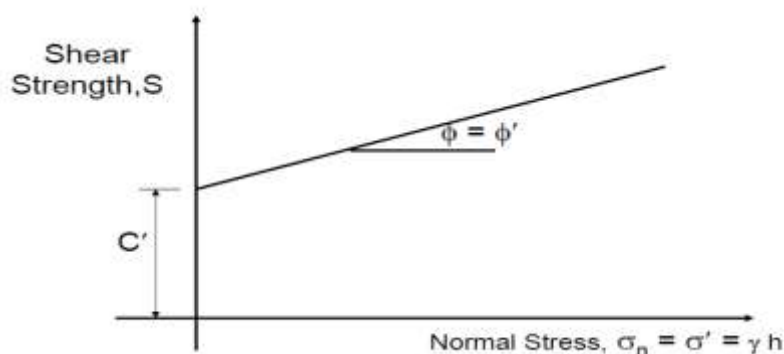
*soil composition*: mineralogy, grain size and grain size distribution, shape of particles, pore fluid type and content, ions on grain and in pore fluid.

*Initial state*: State can be described by terms such as: loose, dense, overconsolidated, normally consolidated, stiff, soft, etc.

*Structure*: Refers to the arrangement of particles within the soil mass; the manner in which the particles are packed or distributed. Features such as layers, voids, pockets, cementation, etc, are part of the structure.

### Mohr-Coulomb Failure Criteria:

#### Mohr-Coulomb Failure Criterion



$$\tau_f = c + \sigma_n \tan \phi = c + \mu \sigma_n \quad (11.2)$$

$$\tau_f = c' + \sigma'_n \tan \phi' = c' + \mu' \sigma'_n \quad (11.3)$$

where

$\tau_f$  = shear strength

$c$  = cohesion;  $c'$  = effective cohesion

$\phi$  = angle of internal friction;  $\phi'$  = effective angle of internal friction

$\mu$  = coefficient of friction;  $\mu'$  = effective coefficient of friction.

Thus, Eqs. (11.2) and (11.3) are expressions of shear strength based on total stress and effective stress. The value of  $c'$  for sand and inorganic silt is 0. For normally consolidated clays,  $c'$  can be approximated at 0. Overconsolidated clays have values of  $c'$  that are greater than 0. The angle of friction,  $\phi'$ , is sometimes referred to as the *drained angle of friction*. Typical values of  $\phi'$  for some granular soils are given in Table 11.1.

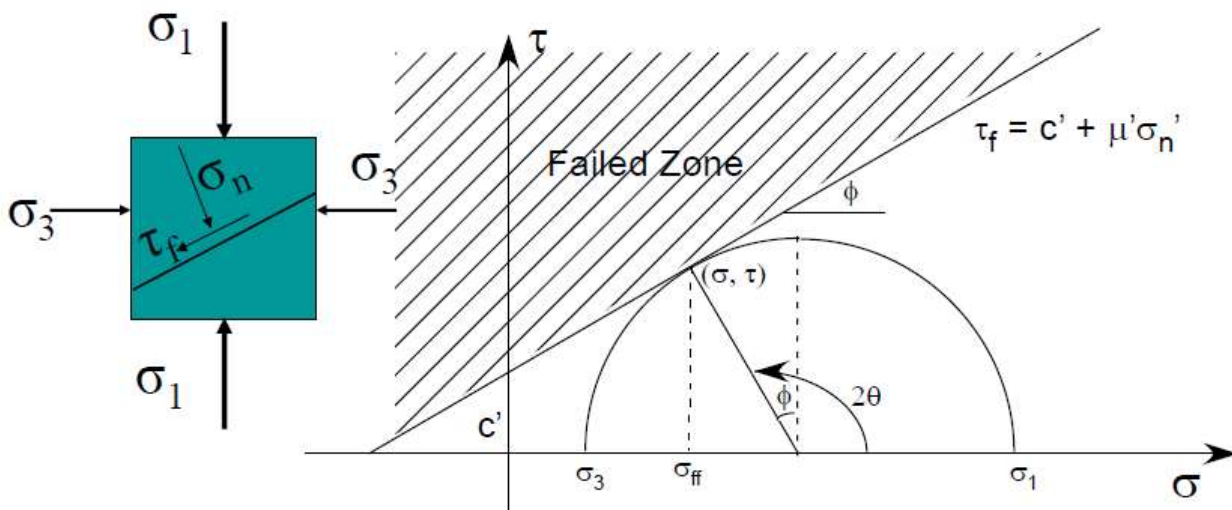
This theory states that a material fails because of a critical combination of normal stress and shear stress, and not from their either maximum normal or shear stress alone.



**Table** Typical Values of Drained Angle of Friction for Sands and Silts

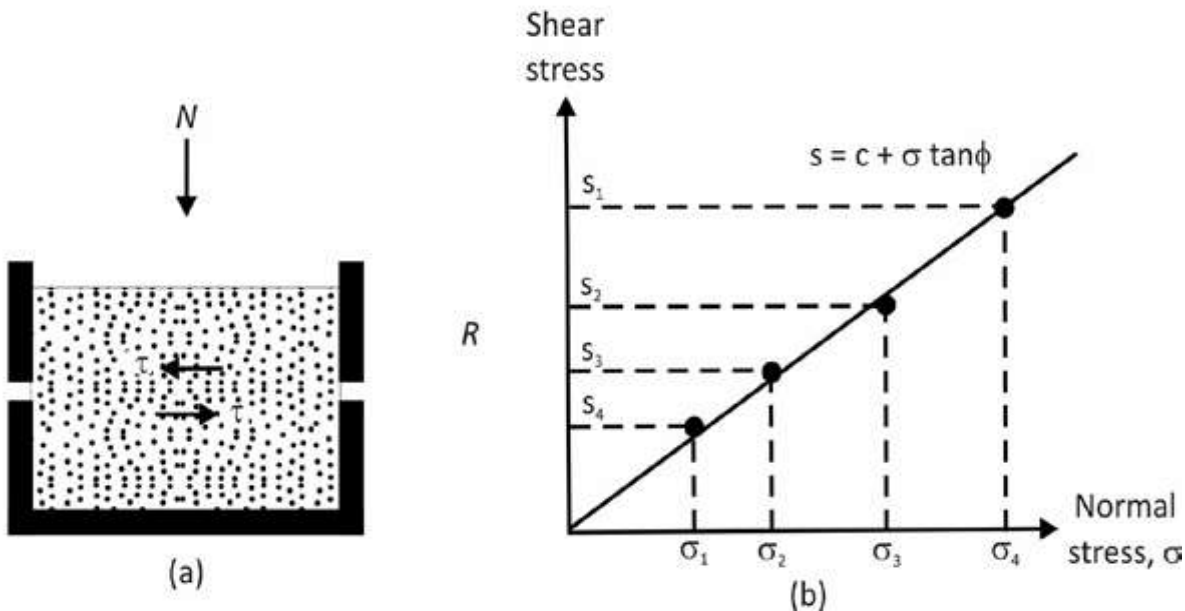
Soil type	$\phi'$ (deg)	$\mu = \tan \phi'$
<i>Sand: Rounded grains</i>		
Loose	27–30	0.51–0.58
Medium	30–35	0.58–0.70
Dense	35–38	0.70–0.78
<i>Sand: Angular grains</i>		
Loose	30–35	0.58–0.70
Medium	35–40	0.70–0.84
Dense	40–45	0.84–1.00
<i>Gravel with some sand</i>	34–48	0.67–1.11
<i>Silts</i>	26–35	0.49–0.70

## Mohr-Coulomb shear failure criterion



## Direct Shear Test:

Dry sand can be conveniently tested by direct shear tests. The sand is placed in a shear box that is split into two halves. A normal load is first applied to the specimen. Then a shear force is applied to the top half of the shear box to cause failure in the sand. The normal and shear stresses at failure are



Direct shear test in sand: (a) schematic diagram of test equipment; (b) plot of test results to obtain the friction angle,  $\phi$

$$\sigma' = \frac{N}{A}$$

$$S = \frac{R}{A}$$

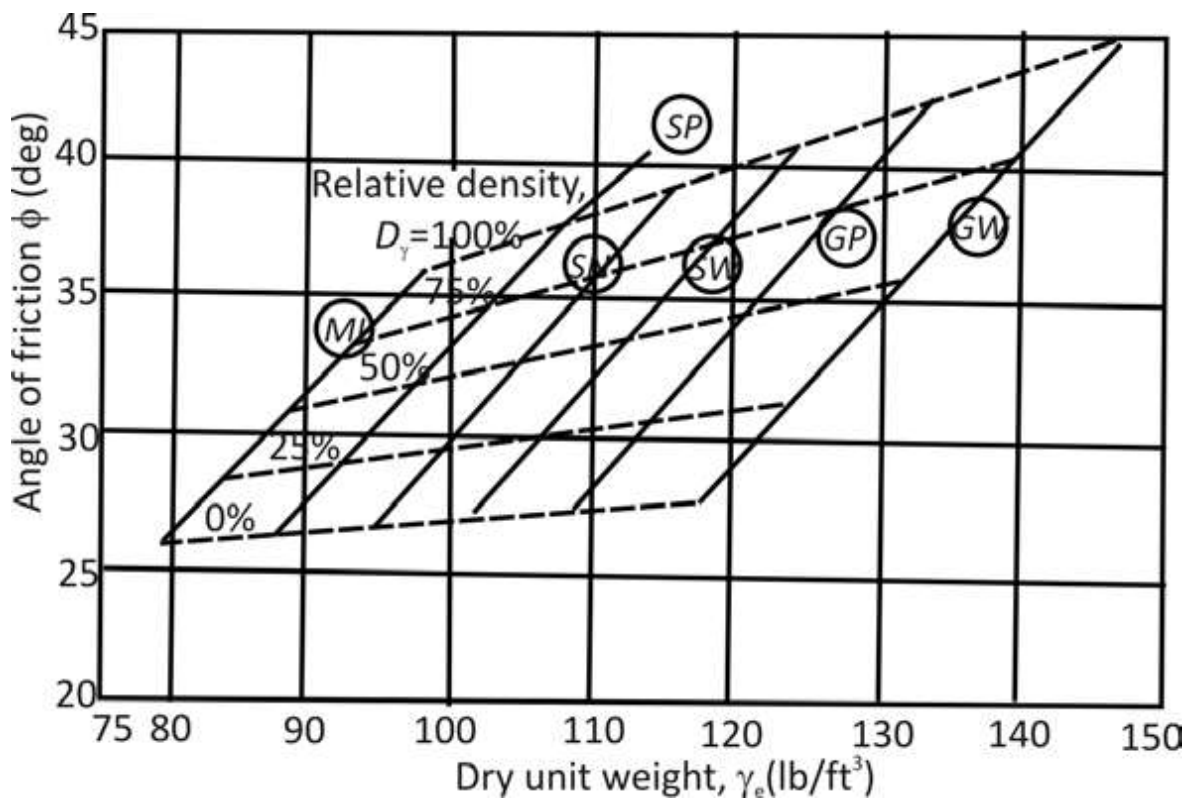
Where

$A$  = Area of the failure plane in soil—that is, the area of cross section of the shear box

Several tests of this type can be conducted by varying the normal load. The angle of friction of the sand can be determined by plotting a graph of  $s$  against  $\sigma' (= \sigma)$

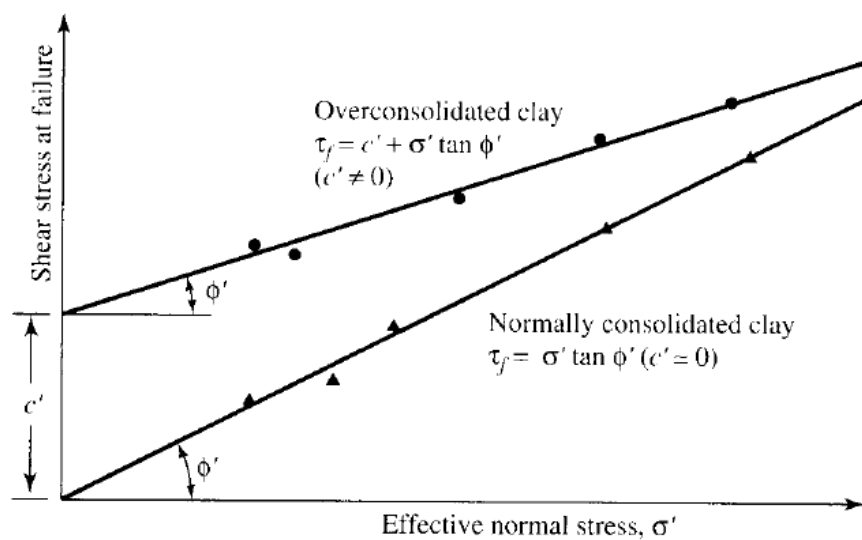
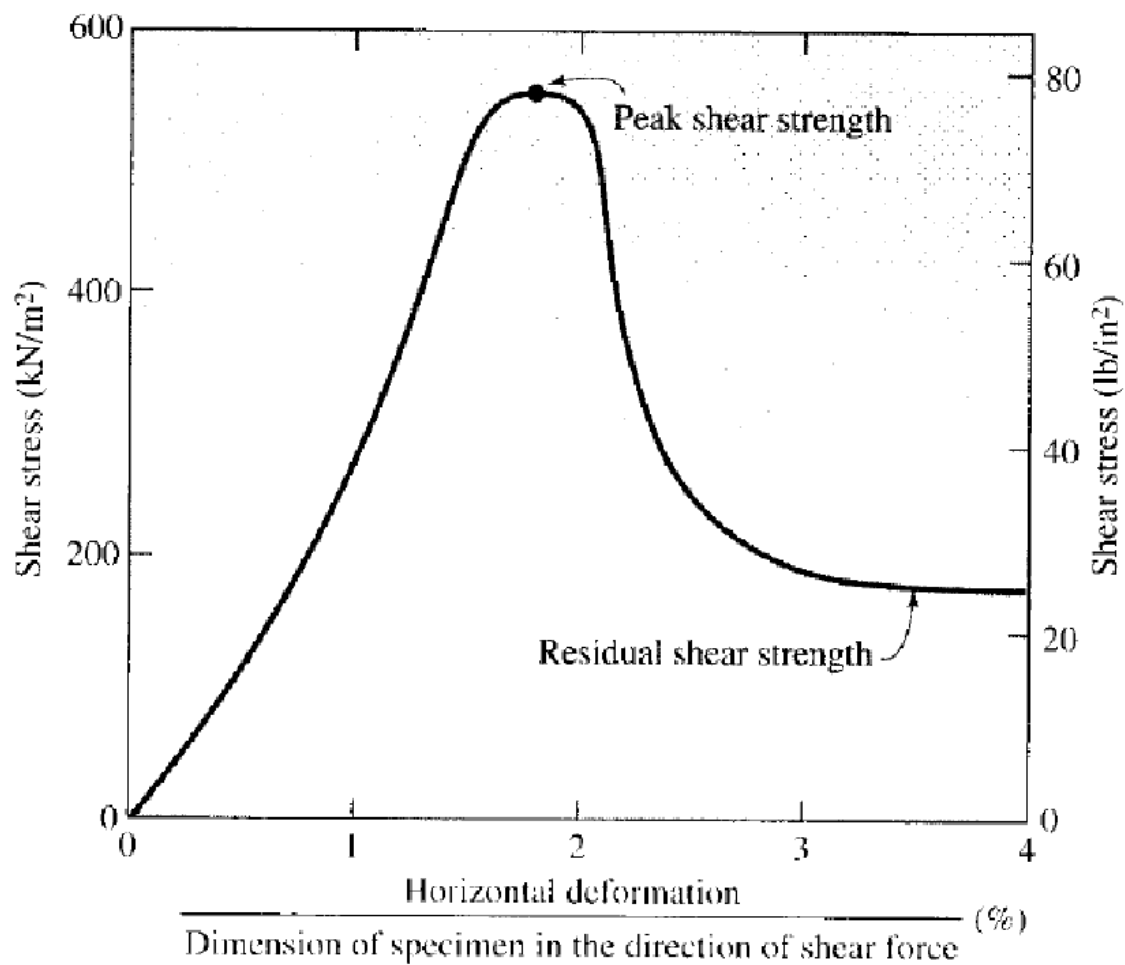
$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{s}{\sigma'} \right)$$

For sands, the angle of friction usually ranges from  $26^\circ$  to  $45^\circ$ , increasing with the relative density of compaction. The approximate range of the relative density of compaction and the corresponding range of the angle of friction for various coarse-grained soils is shown in **figure** .



**Range of relative density and corresponding range of angle of friction for coarse-grained soil**





**Figure 11.9** Failure envelope for clay obtained from drained direct shear tests

## Triaxial Tests

Triaxial compression tests can be conducted on sand and clay. A schematic diagram of the triaxial test arrangement. Essentially, it consists of placing a soil specimen confined by a rubber membrane in a Lucite chamber. An all-round confining pressure ( $\sigma_3$ ) is applied to the specimen by means of the chamber fluid (generally water or glycerin). An added stress ( $\Delta\sigma$ ) can also be applied to the specimen in the axial direction to cause failure ( $\Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma_f$  at failure). Drainage from the specimen can be allowed or stopped, depending on the test condition. For clays, three main types of tests can be conducted with triaxial equipment:

### Triaxial test:

1. Consolidated-drained test (CD test)
  2. Consolidated-undrained test (CU test)
  3. Unconsolidated-undrained test (UU test)
- Major Principal effective stress  $= \sigma_3 = \Delta\sigma_f = \sigma_1 = \sigma'_1$
- Minor Principal effective stress  $= \sigma_3 = \Delta\sigma'_3$

Changing  $\sigma_3$  allows several tests of this type to be conducted on various clay specimens. The shear strength parameters ( $c$  and  $\phi$ ) can now be determined by plotting Mohr's circle at failure, as shown in figure and drawing common tangent to the Mohr's circles. This is the Mohr-Coulomb failure envelope. (Note: For normally consolidated clay,  $c \approx 0$ ). At failure

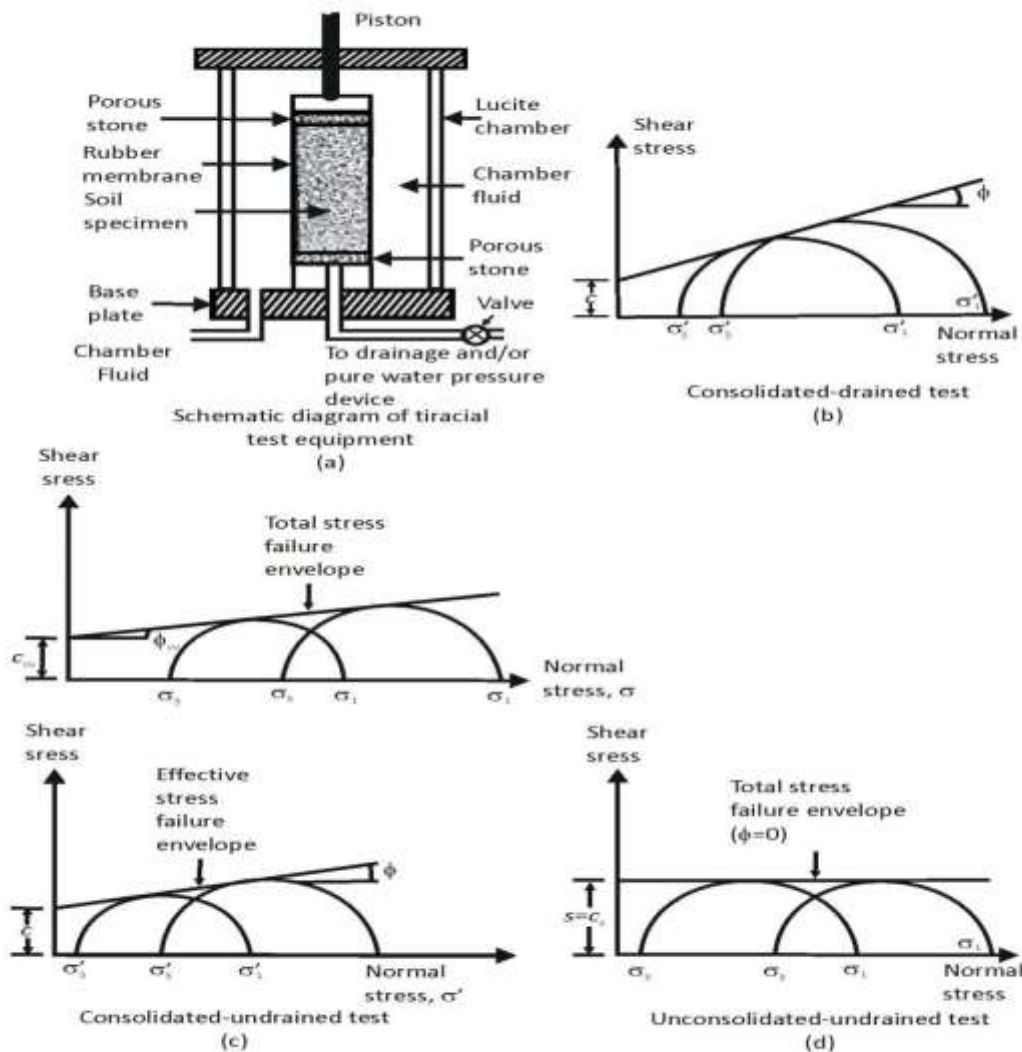
$$\sigma'_1 = \sigma'_3 \tan^2 \left( 45 + \frac{\phi}{2} \right) + 2c \tan \left( 45 + \frac{\phi}{2} \right)$$

For consolidated-undrained tests, at failure,

Major Principal total stress  $= \sigma_3 = \Delta\sigma_f = \sigma_1$

Minor principal total stress  $= \sigma_3$

Major principal effective stress  $= (\sigma_3 + \Delta\sigma_f) - u_f = \sigma'_1$



$$\text{Minor principal effective stress} = \sigma_3 - u_f = \sigma'_3$$

Changing  $\sigma_3$  permits multiple tests of this type to be conducted on several soil specimens. The total stress Mohr's circles at failure can now be plotted, as shown in figure, and then a common tangent can be drawn to define the failure envelope. This total stress failure envelope is defined by the equation

$$s = c_{cu} + \sigma \tan \phi_{cu}$$

Where  $c_{cu}$  and  $\phi_{cu}$  are the consolidated-undrained cohesion and angle of friction respectively (Note:  $c_{cu} \approx 0$  for normally consolidated clays)

Similarly, effective stress Mohr's circles at failure can be drawn to determine the effective stress failure envelopes. They follow the relation expressed in equation .

For unconsolidated-undrained triaxial tests

$$\text{Major principal total stress} = \sigma_3 = \Delta \sigma_f = \sigma_1$$

$$\text{Minor principal total stress} = \sigma_3$$

The total stress Mohr's circle at failure can now be drawn, as shown in figure. For saturated clays, the value of  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_3 = \Delta\sigma_f$  is a constant, irrespective of the chamber confining pressure,  $\sigma_3$ . The tangent to these Mohr's circles will be a horizontal line, called the  $\phi=0$  condition. The shear stress for this condition is

$$s = c_u = \frac{\Delta\sigma_f}{2}$$

Where

$c_u$  = undrained cohesion (or undrained shear strength)

The pore pressure developed in the soil specimen during the unconsolidated-undrained triaxial test is

$$u = u_a + u_d$$

The pore pressure  $u_a$  is the contribution of the hydrostatic chamber pressure,  $\sigma_3$ . Hence

$$u_a = B\sigma_3$$

Where

$B$  = Skempton's pore pressure parameter

Similarly, the pore pressure  $u_d$  is the result of added axial stress,  $\Delta\sigma$ , so  $u_d = A$

$\Delta\sigma$

Where

$A$  = Skempton's pore pressure parameter

However,

$$\Delta\sigma = \sigma_1 - \sigma_3$$

Combining equations give

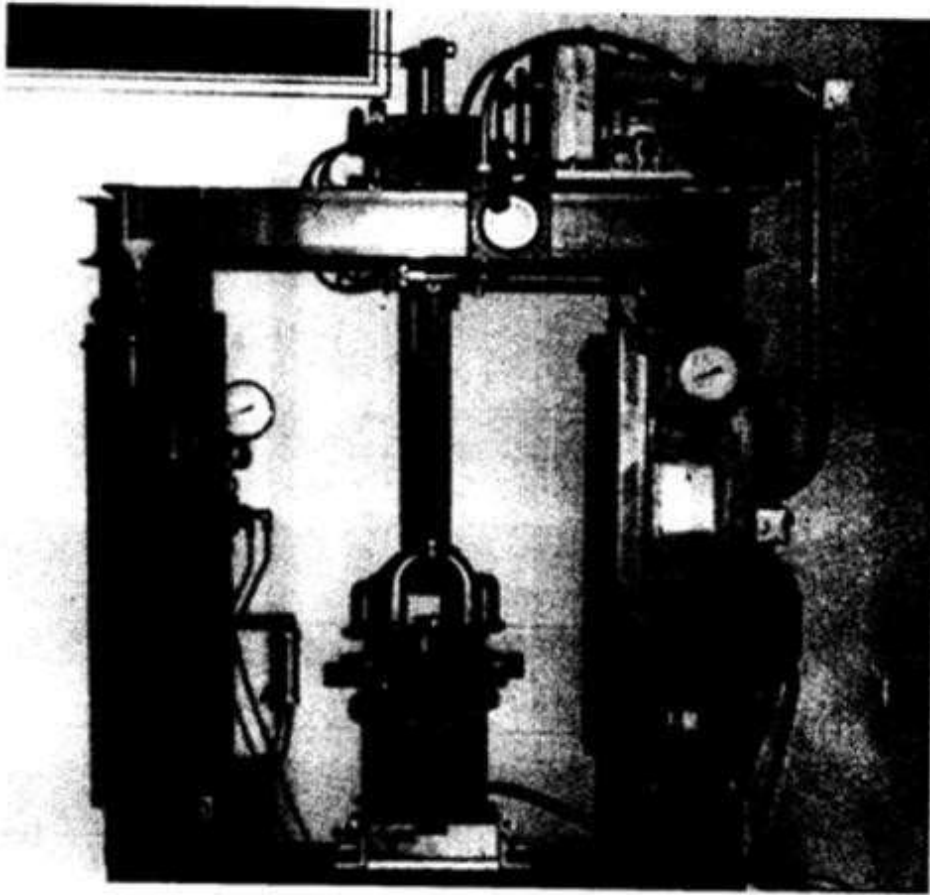
$s$

$$u = u_a + u_d = B\sigma_3 + A\sigma_1 - \sigma_3$$

The pore water pressure parameter  $B$  in soft saturated soils is 1, so

$$u = \sigma_3 + A(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$$

The value of the pore water pressure parameter  $A$  at failure will vary with the type of soil. Following is a general range of the values of  $A$  at failure for various types of clayey soil encountered in nature.

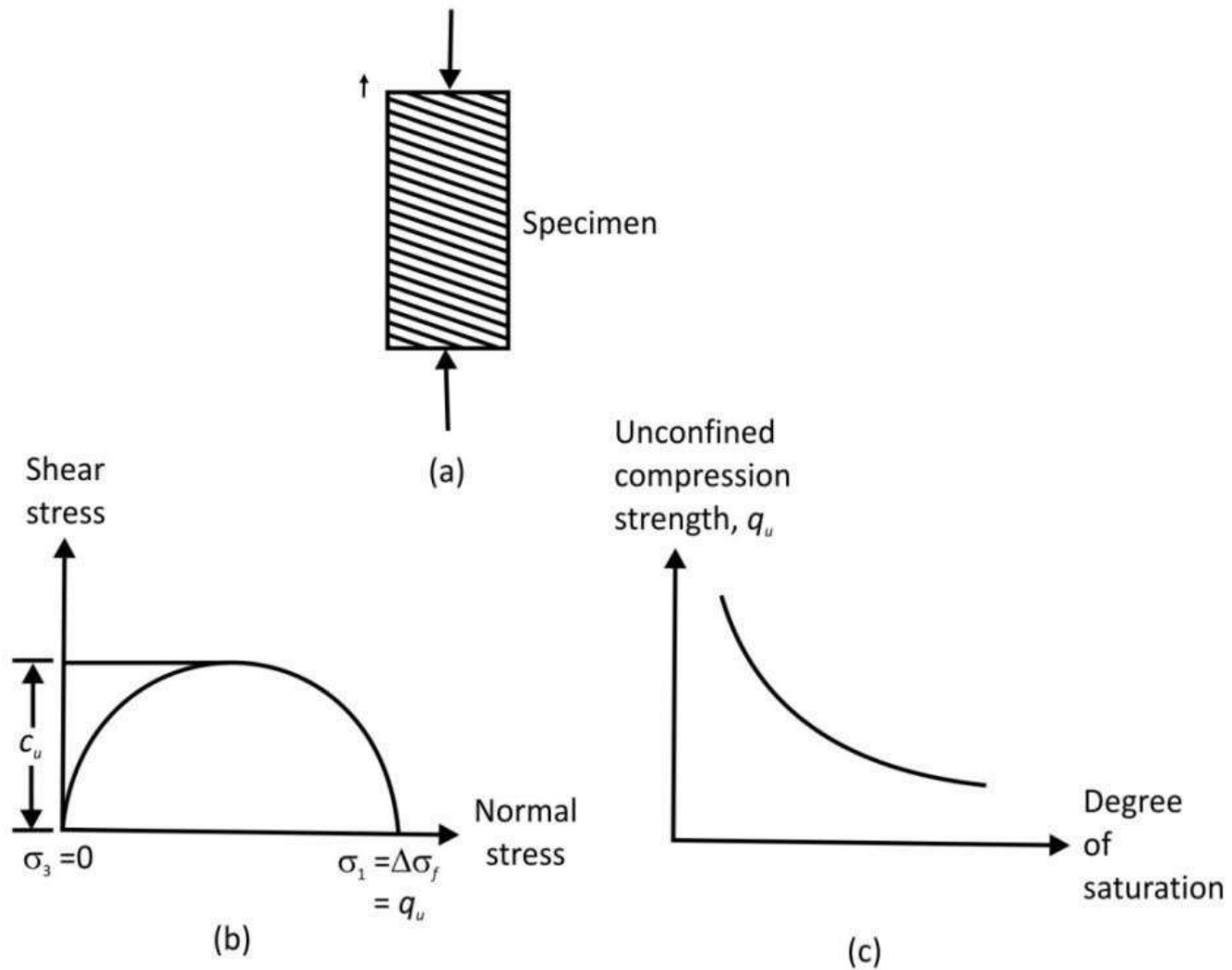


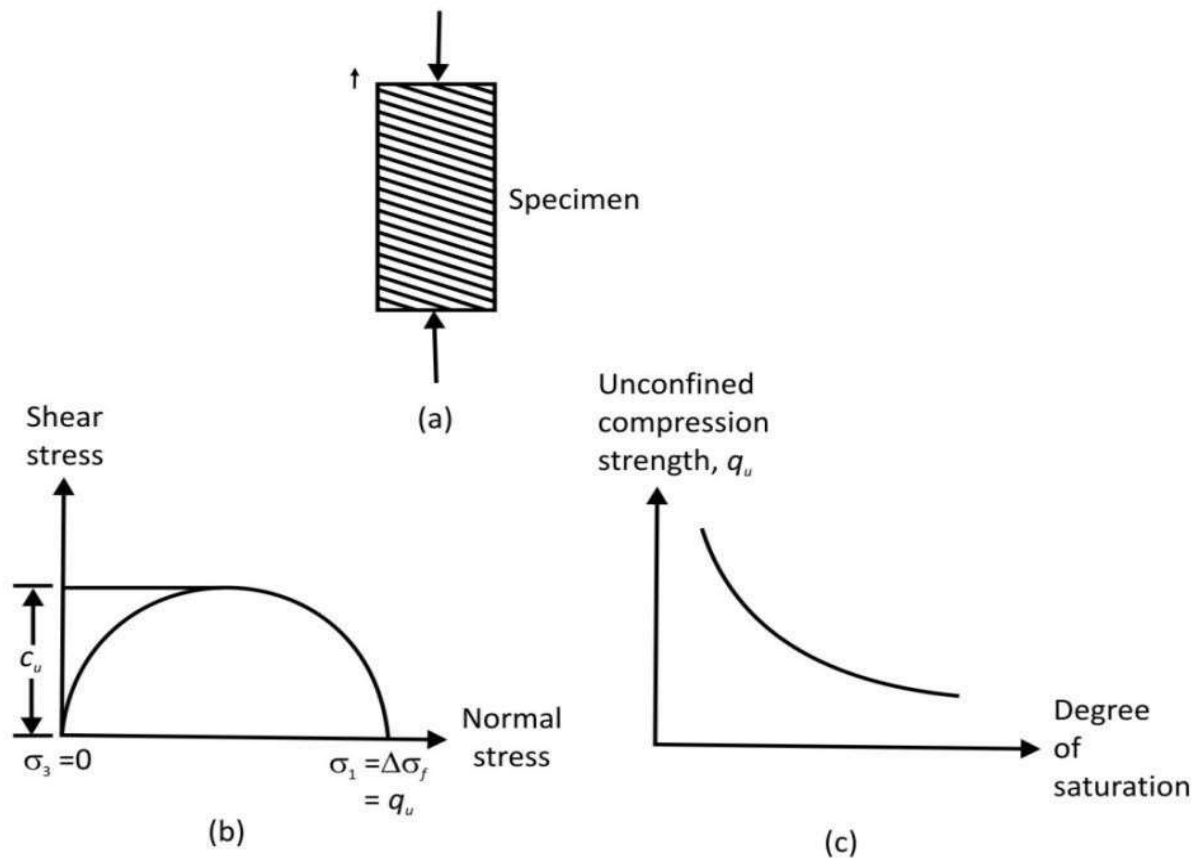
Triaxialtestequipment

### UNCONFINED COMPRESSION TEST

The unconfined compression test is a special type of unconsolidated-undrained Triaxial test in which the confining pressure  $\sigma_3 = 0$ , as shown in figure. In this test an axial stress,  $\Delta\sigma$ , is applied to the specimen to cause failure (that is,  $\Delta\sigma = \Delta\sigma_f$ ).

The corresponding Mohr's circle is shown in figure . Note that, for this case,  $u$





Unconfined compression test: (a) soil specimen; (b) Mohr's circle for the test; (c) variation of  $q_u$  with the degree of saturation

Major principal total stress  $= \Delta\sigma_f = q_u$

Minor principal total stress  $= 0$

The axial stress at failure,  $\Delta\sigma_f = q_u$ , is generally referred to as the unconfined compression strength. The shear

strength of saturated clays under this condition ( $\phi = 0$ ),

$$s = c_u = \frac{q_u}{2}$$

The unconfined compression strength can be used as an indicator for the consistency of clays. Unconfined compression tests are sometimes conducted on unsaturated soils. With the void ratio of a soil specimen remaining constant, the unconfined compression strength rapidly decreases with the degree of saturation. The graph shows an unconfined

## Vane Shear Test:

Fairly reliable results for the undrained shear strength,  $c_u$ , (S : 0 concept), of very soft to medium cohesive soils may be obtained directly from vane shear tests. The shear vane usually consists of four thin, equal-sized steel plates welded to a steel torque rod. First, the vane is pushed into the soil. Then torque is applied at the top of the torque rod to rotate the vane at a uniform speed. A cylinder of soil of height  $h$  and diameter  $d$  will resist the torque until the soil fails. The undrained shear strength of the soil can be calculated as follows. If  $T$  is the maximum torque applied at the head of the torque rod to cause failure, it should be equal to the sum of the resisting moment of the shear force along the side surface of the soil cylinder ( $M_s$ ) and the resisting moment of the shear force at each end ( $M_e$ ),

$$T = M_s + \underbrace{M_e + M_e}_{\text{Two ends}}$$

The resisting moment can be given as

$$M_s = \underbrace{(\pi d h) c_u}_{\text{Surface area}} \underbrace{(d/2)}_{\text{Moment arm}}$$

where  $d$ : diameter of the shear vane  
 $h$ : height of the shear vane

For the calculation of  $M_e$ , investigator should have a general type of distribution of shear strength mobilization at the ends of the soil cylinder:

1. Triangular. Shear strength mobilization is  $c_u$  at the periphery of the soil cylinder and decreases linearly to zero at the center.
2. Uniform. Shear strength mobilization is constant (that is,  $c_u$ ) from the periphery to the center of the soil cylinder.
3. Parabolic. Shear strength mobilization is  $c_u$  at the periphery of the soil cylinder and decreases parabolically to zero at the center.

These variations in shear strength mobilization are shown in Figure. In general, the torque,  $T$ , at failure can be expressed as



$$T = \pi c_u \left[ \frac{d^2 h}{2} + \beta \frac{d^3}{4} \right]$$

$$c_u = \frac{T}{\pi \left[ \frac{d^2 h}{2} + \beta \frac{d^3}{4} \right]}$$

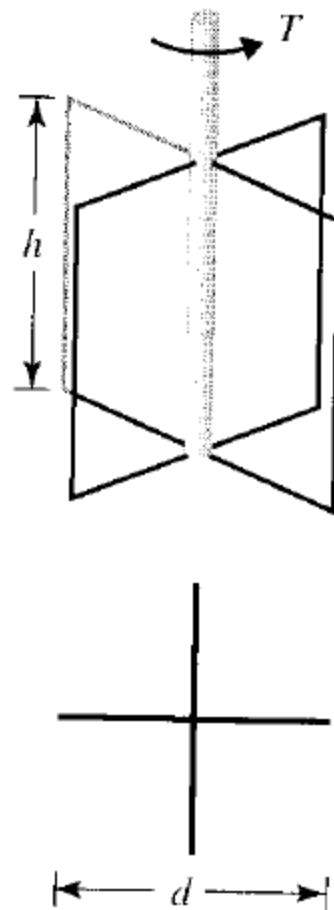
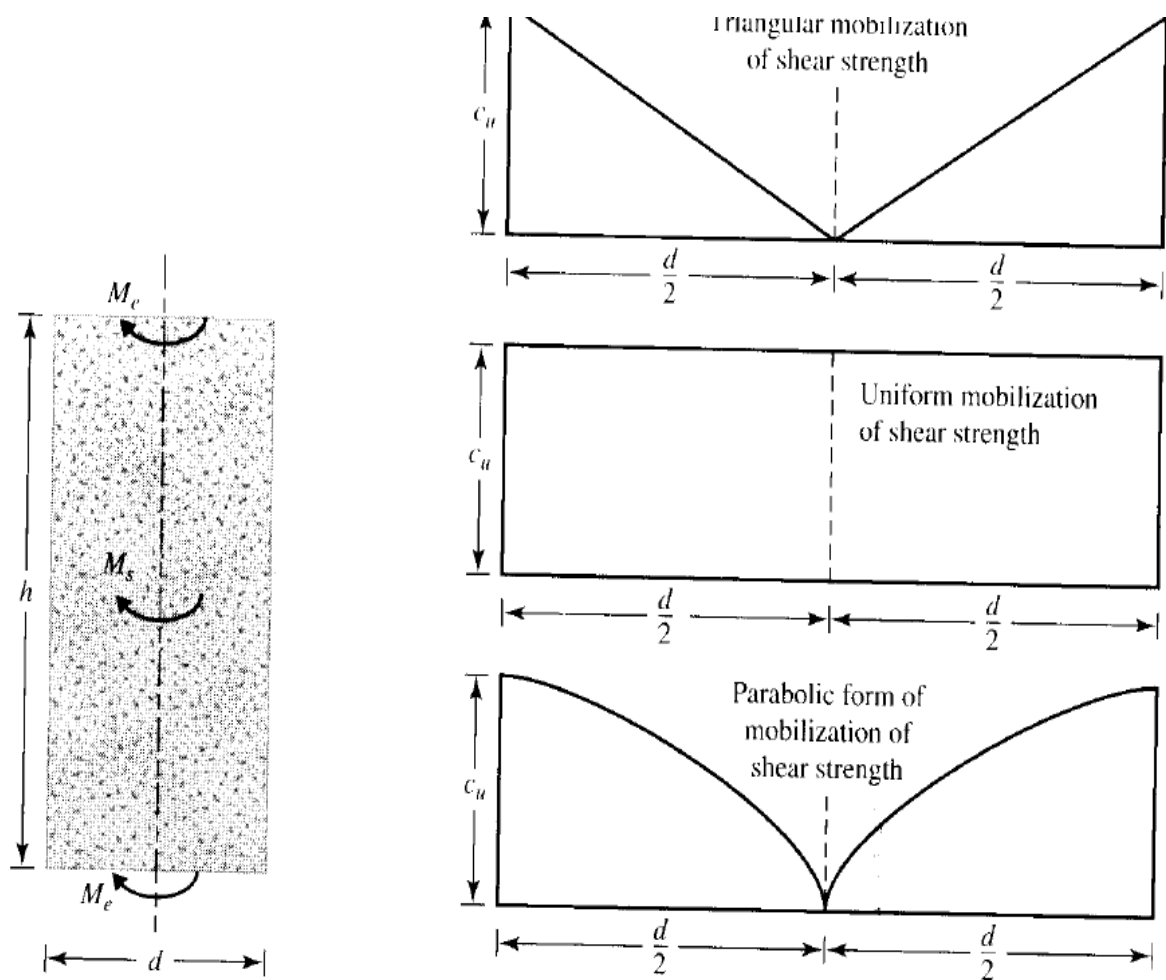


Diagram of vane shear test equipment



(a) resisting moment of shear force; (b) variations in shear strength mobilization

$$c_u \text{ (kN/m}^2\text{)} = \frac{T \text{ (N} \cdot \text{m)}}{(366 \times 10^{-8}) d^3}$$

$\uparrow$   
 (cm)

$$c_u \text{ (lb/ft}^2\text{)} = \frac{T \text{ (lb} \cdot \text{ft)}}{0.0021 d^3}$$

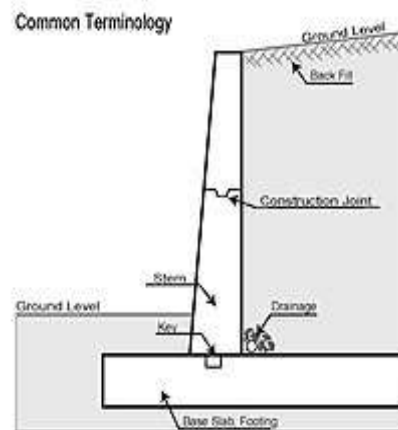
$\uparrow$   
 (in.)

# EARTH PRESSURE ON RETAINING STRUCTURES

In 1929 Terzaghi (The Father of Soil Mechanics) conducted experiments on the retaining wall and showed the relation of pressure on the wall if wall changes its position i.e to move inwards to the backfill, outwards of it or remain at its place. There are three types of earth pressures on the basis of the movement of the wall.

1. Earth Pressure at rest
  2. Active Earth Pressure
  3. Passive Earth Pressure
- These are explained below

**Pressure at rest:** When the wall is at rest and the material is in its natural state then the pressure applied by material is known as Earth Pressure at Rest. It is represented by  $P_0$ . **Active earth pressure:** When the wall moves away from the backfill, there is a decrease in the pressure on the wall and this decrease continues until a minimum value is reached after which there is no reduction in the pressure and the value will become constant. This kind of pressure is known as active earth pressure



## Active earth pressure:

When the wall moves away from the backfill, there is a decrease in the pressure on the wall and this decrease continues until a minimum value is reached after which there is no reduction in the pressure and the value will become constant. This kind of pressure is known as active earth pressure.

## Passive earth pressure:

When the wall moves towards the backfill, there is an increase in the pressure on the wall and this increase continues until a maximum value is reached after which there is no increase in the pressure and the value will become constant. This kind of pressure is known as passive earth pressure. This means that when the wall is about to slip due to lateral thrust from the backfill, a resistive force is applied by the soil in front of the wall.

## Active Earth Pressure

For a level backfill ( $\beta = 0$ ), the following equation is used to determine the active earth pressure ( $p_a$ ) for all types of soils.

When the retaining wall is moving away from the backfill the ratio between lateral earth pressure and vertical earth pressure is called co-efficient of active earth pressure.

$$K_a = \text{lateral pressure} / \text{vertical pressure}$$

## Passive Earth Pressure

For a level backfill ( $\beta = 0$ ), the following equation is used to determine the passive earth pressure for all types of soils. When the retaining wall is moving towards the backfill, then the ratio between the lateral earth pressure and the vertical earth pressure is called the Co-efficient of passive earth pressure.

$$K_p = \text{lateral pressure} / \text{vertical pressure}$$

## Surcharge:

The material which lies above the horizontal level of the retaining structure is known as surcharge. The angle which this material makes with the retaining wall is called surcharge angle.

Assumptions made by Rankine for the derivation of earth pressure

- The soil mass is homogeneous and semi-infinite.
- The soil is dry and cohesionless.
- The ground surface is plane, which may be horizontal or inclined.
- The back of the retaining wall is smooth and vertical.
- The soil element is in a state of plastic equilibrium, i.e., at the verge of failure

### **ACTIVE EARTH PRESSURE:**

1. Backfill with no surcharge Let us consider an element of dry soil at a depth  $Z$  below a level soil surface. Initially, the element is at rest conditions, and the horizontal pressure is given by  $\sigma_h = k_0 \sigma_v$  Where  $\sigma_v$  is the vertical stress at  $C$ , and  $\sigma_h$  is the horizontal stress at  $C$ . Of course,  $\sigma_v = \gamma Z$ . The stresses  $\sigma_h$  and  $\sigma_v$  are respectively minor and major principal stresses, and are indicated by points  $A$  and  $B$  in the Mohr circle in fig 2.b. Let us now consider the case when the vertical stress remains constant while the horizontal stress is decreased. The point  $A$  shifts to position  $A'$  and the diameter of the Mohr circle increases. In the limiting condition, the point  $A$  shifts to the position  $A''$  when the Mohr circle [marked (3)] touches the failure envelope. The soil is at the verge of shear failure. It has attained the Rankine's active state of plastic equilibrium. The horizontal stress at that state is the active pressure ( $P_a$ ). Fig. 2.c shows the Mohr circle when active conditions are developed. Poi

## CHAPTER-9

### FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

#### 9.1 FOUNDATION

It is the bottom most part of the structure that remains in direct contact with soil and transmits the load of the structure underneath. Functions of the foundation- In addition to transmitting the load of the superstructure to the soil it provides stability to the structure against overturning and erosion.

#### SHALLOW FOUNDATIONS

Types of Foundations may be broadly classified under two heads: shallow foundations and deep foundation is shallow if its Terzaghi, a foundation. According to Terzaghi, a foundation is shallow if its depth is equal to or less than its width. In the case of deep foundation, the depth is equal to or greater than the width. Apart from deep strip, rectangular or square foundations, other common forms of deep foundations are: pier foundation, pier foundation are and well foundation. The shallow foundations are of the following types : spread footing (or simply, footing), strap footing, combined footing, and mat or raft footing

#### SPREAD FOOTING

A spread footing or simply footing is a type of shallow foundation used to transmit the load of an isolated column, or that of a wall to the subsoil. This is most common type of foundation. The base of the column or wall is enlarged or spread to provide individual support for the load.

#### Bearing Capacity:

##### Definitions:

1. Footing: A footing is a portion of the foundation of a structure that transmits loads directly to the soil.
2. Foundation: A foundation is that part of the structure which is in direct contact with and transmit loads to the ground.
3. Foundation soil : It is the upper part of the earth mass carrying the load of the structure.
4. Bearing capacity: The supporting power of a soil or rock is referred to as its bearing capacity. The term bearing capacity is defined after attaching certain qualifying prefixes.
5. Gross pressure intensity ( $q$ ) : The gross pressure intensity  $q$  is the total pressure at the base of the footing due to the weight of the superstructure, self-weight of the footing and the weight of the earth fill, if any.
6. Net pressure intensity ( $q_n$ ). It is defined as the excess pressure, or the difference in intensities of the gross pressure after the construction of the structure and the original overburden pressure.  
is the average unit weight of soil above the foundation base.

##### 7. Ultimate bearing capacity

The ultimate bearing capacity is defined as the minimum gross pressure intensity at the base of the foundation at which the soil fails in shear. (When the term bearing capacity is used in this book without any prefix, it may be understood to be ultimate bearing capacity).

8. Net ultimate bearing capacity. It is the minimum net pressure intensity causing shear failure of soil. The ultimate bearing capacity  $q_u$  and the net ultimate capacity are evidently connected by the following relation

9. Effective surcharge at the base level of foundation ( $q_0$ ) . It is the intensity of vertical pressure at the base level of foundation, computed assuming total unit weight for the portion of the soil above the water table and submerged unit weight for the portion below the water table.

10. Net safe bearing capacity ( $q_{ns}$ ). The net safe bearing capacity is the net ultimate bearing capacity divided by a factor of safety

11. Safe bearing capacity ( $q_s$ ). The maximum pressure which the soil can carry safely without risk of shear failure is called the safe bearing capacity. It is equal to the net safe bearing capacity plus original overburden pressure

