

CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION OF SOIL

The word “Soil” is derived from the Latin word solium which, according to Webster’s dictionary, means the upper layer of the earth that may be dug or plowed specifically, the loose surface material of the earth in which plants grow. The above definition of soil is used in the field of agronomy where the main concern is in the use of soil for raising crops.

In geology, earth’s crust is assumed to consist of unconsolidated sediments, called mantle or regolith, overlying rocks. The term ‘soil’ is used for the upper layer of mantle which can support plants. The material which is called soil by the agronomist or the geologist is known as top soil in geotechnical engineering or soil engineering. The top soil contains a large quantity of organic matter and is not suitable as a construction material or as a foundation for structures. The top soil is removed from the earth’s surface before the construction of structures.

The term ‘soil’ in Soil Engineering is defined as an unconsolidated material, composed of solid particles, produced by the disintegration of rocks. The void space between the particles may contain air, water or both the solid particles may contain organic matter. The soil particles can be separated by such mechanical means as agitation in water.

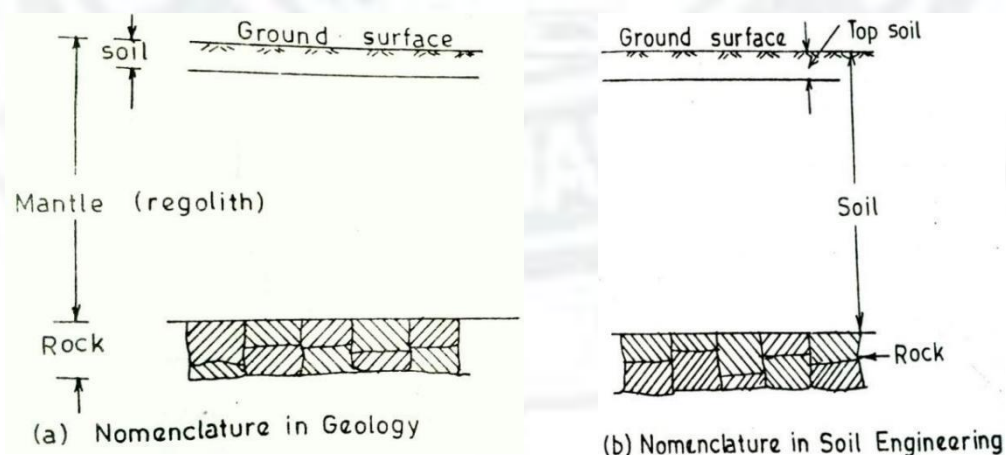


Fig. shows a cross-section through the earth’s surface, indicating the nomenclature used in geology and in Soil Engineering.

1.1 SOIL AND SOIL ENGINEERING:-

The term 'soil mechanics' was coined by Dr. Karl Terzaghi in 1925 when his book *Erdbaumechanik* on the subject was published in German.

According to Terzaghi, 'Soil mechanics is the application of the laws of mechanics and hydraulics to engineering problems dealing with sediments and other unconsolidated accumulations of solid particles produced by the mechanical and chemical disintegration of rock, regarding of whether or not they contain an admixture of organic constituents.

Soil mechanics is, a branch of mechanics which deals with the action of forces on soil and with the flow of water in soil.

The soil consists of discrete solid particles which are neither strongly bonded as in solids nor they are as free as particles of fluids. Consequently, the behavior of soil is somewhat intermediate between that of a solid and a fluid. It is not, therefore, surprising that soil mechanics draws heavily from solid mechanics and fluid mechanics. As the soil is inherently a particulate system. Soil mechanics is also called particulate mechanics.

DEFINITION OF SOIL ENGINEERING AND GEOTECHNICAL ENGINEERING:-

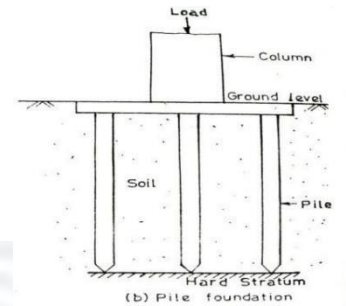
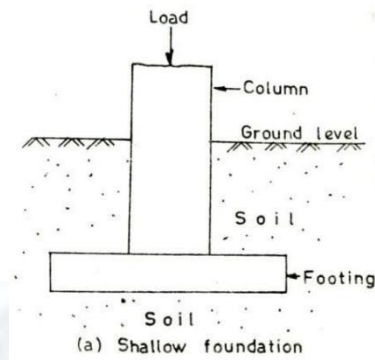
Soil Engineering is an applied science dealing with the applications of principles of soil mechanics to practical problems. It has a much wider scope than soil mechanics, as it details with all engineering problems related with soils. It includes site investigations, design and construction of foundations, earth-retaining structures and earth structures.

1.2 SCOPE OF SOIL MECHANICS:-

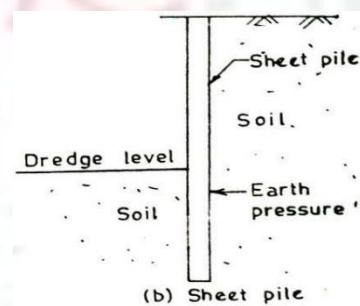
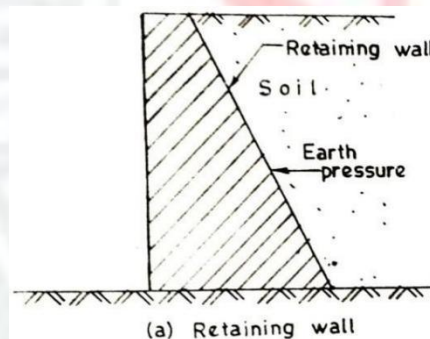
Soil Engineering has vast application in the construction of various Civil Engineering works. Some of the important applications are as under.

- (1) **Foundations:**—Every civil engineering structure, whether it is a building, a bridge, or a dam, is founded on or below the surface of the earth. Foundations are required to transmit the load of the structure to soils safely and efficiently.

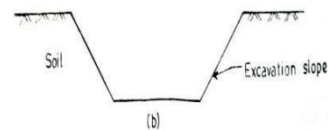
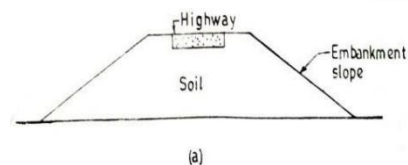
A foundation is termed shallow foundation when it transmits the load to upper strata of earth. A foundation is called deep foundation when the load is transmitted to strata at considerable depth below the ground surface. Pile foundation is a type of deep foundation. Foundation engineering is an important branch of soil engineering.



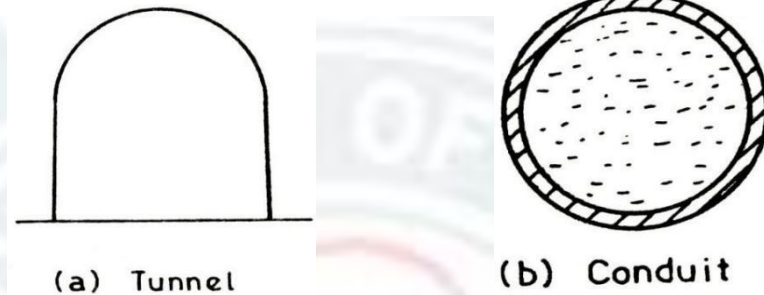
- (2) **Retaining Structures:**—When sufficient space is not available for a mass of soil to spread and form a safe slope, a structure is required to retain the soil. An earth retaining structure is also required to keep the soil at different levels on its either side. The retaining structure may be rigid retaining wall or a sheet pile bulkhead which is relatively flexible (Fig.1.3). Soil engineering gives the theories of earth pressure on retaining structures.



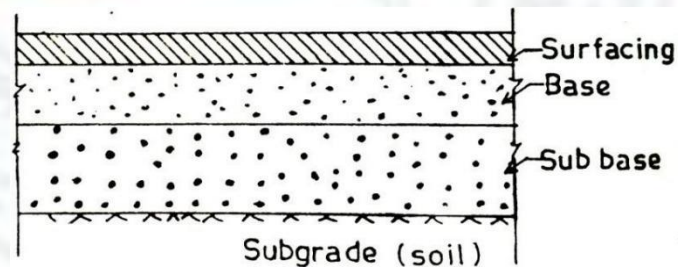
- (3) **Stability of Slopes:** – If soil surface is not horizontal, there is a component of weight of the soil which tends to move it downward and thus causes instability of slope. The slopes may be natural or man-made Fig. 1.4 shows slopes in filling and cutting. Soil engineering provides the methods for checking the stability of slopes.



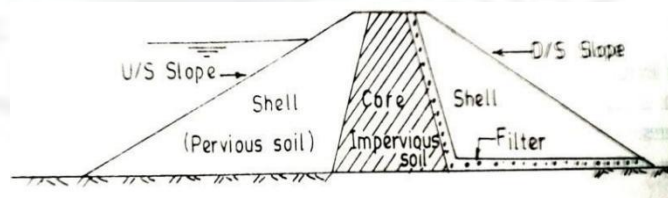
- (4) **Underground structures:** – The design and construction of underground structures, such as tunnels, shafts, and conduits, require evaluation of forces exerted by the soil on these structures. These forces are discussed in soil engineering. Fig. 1.5 shows a tunnel constructed below the ground surface and a conduit laid below the ground surface.



- (5) **Pavement Design:** – A pavement is hard crust placed on soil (sub grade) for the purpose of providing a smooth and strong surface on which vehicles can move. The pavement consists of surfacing, such as a bitumen layer, base and subgrade (Fig. 1.6). The behavior of sub grade under various conditions of loading and environment change is studied in soil engineering.



- (6) **Earth Dam:** – Earth dams are the structures in which soil is used as a construction material. The earth dams are built for creating water reservoirs. Since the failure of an earth dam may cause widespread catastrophe, care is taken in its design and construction. It requires thorough knowledge of soil engineering.



- (7) **Miscellaneous soil:** - The geotechnical engineer has sometimes to tackle miscellaneous problems related with soil. Such as soil heave, soil subsidence, frost heave, shrinkage and swelling of soils.



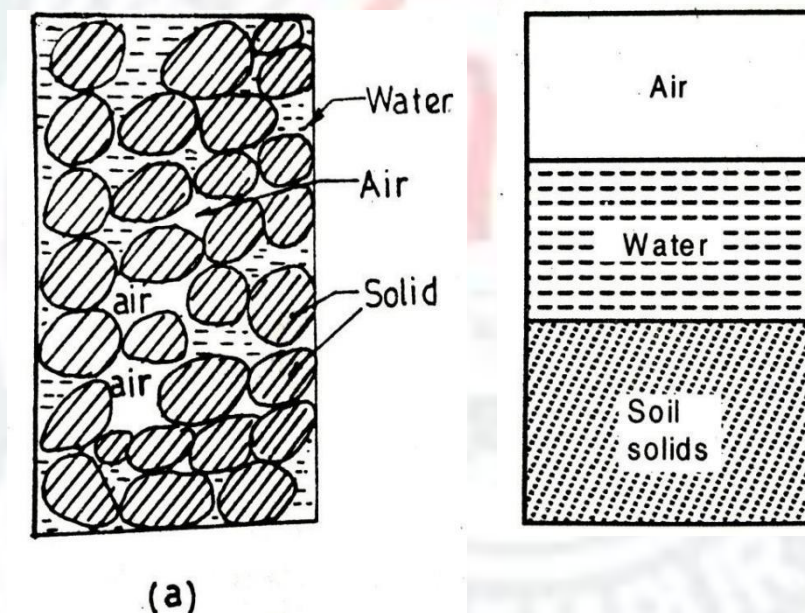
CHAPTER-2

PRELIMINARY DEFINITION AND RELATIONSHIP

2.1 SOIL AS A THREE PHASE:

A soil mass consists of solid particles which form a porous structure. The voids in the soil mass may be filled with air, with water or partly with air and partly with water. In general, a soil mass consists of solid particles, water and air. The three constituents are blended together to form a complex material (Fig. 2.1.a). However, for convenience, all the solid particles are segregated and placed in the lower layer of the three-phase diagram (Fig. 2.1b). Likewise, water and air particles are placed separately, as shown. The 3-phase diagram is also known as Block diagram.

It may be noted that the constituents cannot be

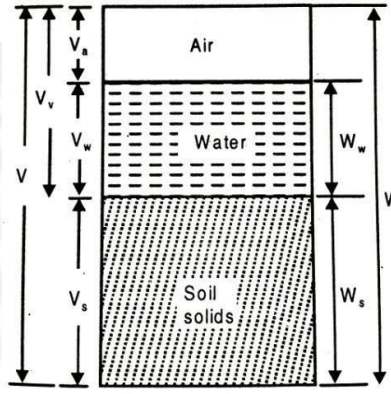


Actually segregated, as shown. A 3-phase diagram is an artifice used for easy understanding and convenience in calculation.

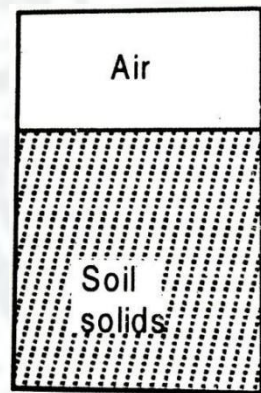
Although the soil is a three-phase system, it becomes a two-phase system in the following two cases: (1) When the soil is absolutely dry, the water phase disappears (Fig. 2.2a). (2) When the soil is fully saturated there is no air phase (Fig. 2.2b). It is the relative proportion of the three constituents and their interaction that governs the behavior and properties of soils. The phase diagram is a simple, diagrammatic representation of a real soil. It is extremely useful for studying the various terms used in soil engineering and their interrelationships.

In a 3-

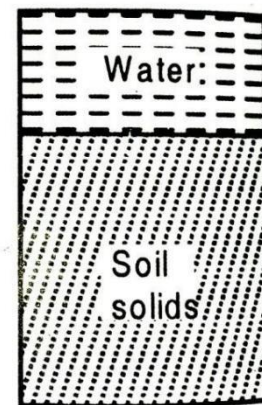
phased diagram it is conventional to write values on the left side and the mass on the right side (Fig. 2.3a). The total mass of a given soil mass is designated as V . It is equal to the sum of the volumes of solids (V_s), the volume of water (V_w) and the volume of air (V_a). The volume of voids (V_v) is equal to the sum of the volumes of the water and air



The soil mass of the soil... is represented as M . The mass of air (m_a) is very small and is neglected. Therefore, the total mass of the soil is equal to the mass of solids (M_s) and the mass of water (M_w). Fig. 2.36 shows the 3-phase diagram in which the weights are written on the right side.

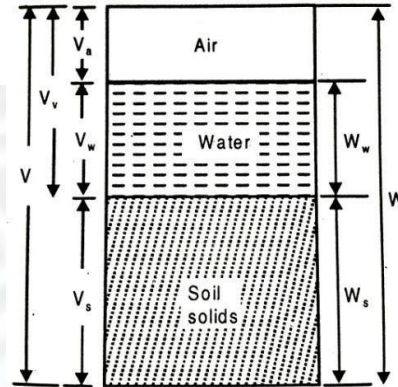


(a)



(b)

2.2 WEIGHT VOLUME RELATIONSHIPS:



WATER CONTENT:- The water content (w) is defined as the ratio of the mass of water to the mass of solids.

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

The water content is also known as the moisture content (m). It is expressed as a percentage, but whenever used in an equation used as a decimal.

The water content of the fine-grained soils, such as silts and clays, is generally more than that of the coarse-grained soils, such as gravels and sands.

The water content of some of the fine-grained soils may be even more than 100%, which indicates that more than 50% of the total mass is that of water. The water content of a soil is an important property.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY (G):-

The specific gravity of solid particles (G) is defined as the ratio of the mass of a given volume of solid to the mass of an equal volume of water at 4°C. Thus, the

$$\text{specific gravity is given by } G = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w}$$

*The mass density of water ρ_w at 4°C is one gm/ml, 1000 kg/m³ or 1 Mg/m³.

The specific gravity of solids for most natural soils falls in the general range of 2.65 to 2.80, the smaller values are for the coarse-grained soils. Table gives the average values of specific gravity for different soils. It may be mentioned that the specific gravity of different particles in a soil mass may not be the same. Whenever

the specific gravity of a soil mass is indicated, it is the average value of all the solid particles present in the soil mass. Specific gravity of solids is an important parameter. It is used for determination of void ratio and particle size.

Table: Typical Values of G

Sl.No.	Soil Type	Specific Gravity
1	Gravel	2.65-2.68
2	Sand	2.65-2.68
3	Sands	2.66-2.70
4	Silt	2.66-2.70
5	Inartistic Clays	2.68-2.80
6	Organic Soils	Variable, may fall below 2.00

Besides the following two terms related with the specific gravity are also used.

(1) **Mass Specific Gravity (G_m):-** It is defined as the ratio of the mass density of the soil to the mass density of water. The value of the mass specific gravity of a soil is much smaller than the value of the specific gravity of solids. The mass specific gravity is also known as the apparent specific gravity or the bulk specific gravity.

(2) **Absolute Specific Gravity (G_a):-** The soil solids are not perfect solids but contain voids. Some of these voids are permeable through which water can enter, whereas others are impermeable. Since the permeable voids get filled when the soil is wet, these are in reality a part of void space in the total mass and not a part of soil solids. If both the permeable and impermeable voids are excluded from the volume of solids, the remaining volume is the true or absolute volume of the solids. The mass density of the absolute solids is used for the determination of the absolute specific gravity of solids.

VOIDS RATIO: - It is defined as the ratio of the volume of voids to the volume of solids.

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

The void ratio is expressed as a decimal, such as 0.4, 0.5, etc. For coarse-grained soils, the void ratio is generally smaller than that for fine-grained soils. For some soils, void ratio may have a value even greater than unity.

POROSITY: - It is defined as the ratio of the volume of voids to the total volume.

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

The Porosity is generally expressed as percentage. However, in equations, it is used as a ratio. For example; a porosity of 50% will be used as 0.5 in equations. The porosity of a soil cannot exceed 100% as it would mean V_v is greater than V , which is absurd. Porosity is also known as percentage voids.

Both porosity and void ratio are measures of the denseness (or looseness) of soils. As the soil becomes more and more dense, their values decrease. The term porosity is more commonly used in other disciplines such as agricultural engineering. In soil engineering, the term void ratio is more popular. It is more convenient to use void ratio than porosity. When the volume of a soil mass changes, only the numerator (i.e. V_v) in the void ratio changes and the denominator (i.e. V_s) remains constant. However, if the term porosity is used, both the numerator and the denominator change and it becomes inconvenient.

Relationship between the void ratio and the porosity as under.

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{V}{V_v} = \frac{V_v + V_s}{V_v}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{e} \quad \frac{1}{e} = \frac{1+n}{n}$$

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

$$\frac{1}{e} = \frac{1}{n} - 1 = \frac{1-n}{n}$$

$$e = \frac{n}{1-n} \quad (2)$$

The porosity should be expressed as a ratio (and not percentage).

PERCENTAGE OF AIR VOIDS (n_a):-

It is the ratio of the volume of air to the total volume.

$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V}$$

It is represented as a percentage.

AIR CONTENT (a_c):-

Air content is defined as the ratio of the volume of air to the

he volume of voids.



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



The Air content is usually expressed as a percentage. Both air content and the percentage air voids are zero when the soil is saturated ($V_a=0$).

Relationship between the percentage air voids and the air content can be obtained.

$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V} = \frac{V_a V_v}{V_v V}$$

$$n_a = n \times a_c$$

Degree of Saturation (S)-

The degree of saturation (S) is the ratio of the volume of water to the volume of voids. It is also represented as S_r .

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

The degree of saturation is generally expressed as a percentage.

It is equal to zero when the soil is absolutely dry and 100% when the soil is fully saturated. Degree of saturation is used as a decimal in expressions.

DENSITY INDEX:-

It is the most important index property of a cohesionless soil.

It is also known as Density Index (I_D). It is also known as relative density or degree of density. It is used to express the relative compactness of a natural soil deposit.

It is the ratio of the difference between voids ratio of the soil in its loosest state and its natural voids ratio to the difference between voids ratio in the loosest and densest states.

$$I_D \text{ or } D_r = \frac{e_{\max} - e}{e_{\max} - e_{\min}} \times 100$$

Where e_{\max} = Maximum void ratio of the soil in the loosest

condition. e_{\min} = Minimum void ratio of the soil in the densest condition.

n .

e = void ratio of the soil in the natural state.

e_{\max} will be found out from γ_{\min} i.e. in the loosest

condition. e_{\min} will be found out from γ_{\max} i.e. in the densest condition.

e will be found out from γ_d i.e. in the natural condition.

$$Dr = \frac{e_{max} - e}{e_{max} - e_{min}} \times 100$$



$$Dr = \gamma_d = \frac{\frac{G_{yw} m}{1 + \frac{e}{G_{yw}}}}{1 + \frac{e}{G_{yw}}} = \frac{G_{yw}}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{G_{yw}}{1 + e}$$

e_{max} The relative density of a soil gives a more clear idea of the denseness than does the void ratio.

BULK UNIT WEIGHT:-

The bulk unit weight is defined as the total weight per total volume. $\gamma = \frac{W}{V}$

It is also known as total unit weight (γ_t) or wet unit weight. In SI units it is expressed as N/mm^3 or KN/mm^3

DRY UNIT WEIGHT:-

The dry unit weight is defined as the weight of solids per total volume.

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

SATURATED UNIT WEIGHT:-

The saturated unit weight is the bulk unit weight when the soil is fully saturated.

$$\gamma_{sat} = \frac{W_{sat}}{V}$$

SUBMERGED UNIT WEIGHT:-

When the soil exists below water than it is called submerged condition.

The submerged unit weight (γ') of the soil is defined as the submerged weight per total volume.

$$\gamma_{sub} = \frac{W_{sub}}{V}$$

Relation between G, S, e, γ & γ_w :-

$$\gamma = \frac{W}{V} = \frac{W_s + W_w}{V_s + V_v} = \frac{G V_s \gamma_w + V_w \gamma_w}{V_s + V_v}$$

Dividing V_s both numerator & denominator

$$\text{Or, } \gamma = \frac{G + (e \gamma_w / \gamma_s)}{1 + e} \gamma_w = (G + S e) \gamma_w$$

$$1 + \frac{z_v}{7_s} = 1 + \frac{z_v}{7_s} \quad 1 + \frac{z_v}{7_s}$$



$$\text{Or, } \gamma = \frac{(G+Se)y_w}{1+e} \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

As the degree of saturation is 100% for a saturated soil, then the $S=1$ Or, $\gamma_{sat} =$

$$\frac{(G+e)y_w}{1+e} \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \gamma_d = \frac{W_s}{V} = \frac{W_s}{V_s + V_w} = \frac{G V_s y_w}{V_s + V_w}$$

Dividing V_s both numerator & denominator

$$\gamma_d = \frac{G y_w}{1 + \gamma_s} = \frac{G y_w}{1 + e} \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

We know that $\gamma_{sub} = \gamma_{sat} - \gamma_w$

$$= \frac{(G+e)y_w}{1+e} - \gamma_w = \frac{(G-1)y_w}{1+e}$$

$$\gamma_{sub} = \frac{(G-1)y_w}{1+e} \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

Relation Between e, w, G & S:-

$$\text{We know that } w = \frac{W_w}{W_s} \quad \left(\text{As } \gamma_w = \frac{W_w}{V_w} \text{ \& } \gamma_s = \frac{W_s}{V_s} \right)$$

$$= \frac{V_w \gamma_w}{V_s \gamma_s}$$

$$= \frac{V_w}{V_v} \times \frac{V_v}{V_s} \times \frac{\gamma_w}{\gamma_s}$$

$$= S \cdot e \cdot \frac{1}{G} \quad \left(\text{As } S = \frac{V_w}{V_v}, e = \frac{V_v}{V_s} \text{ \& } G = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w} \right)$$

$$w \cdot G = S \cdot e$$

$$e = \frac{w \cdot G}{S}$$

Relation between e, S & n_a :-

$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V} = \frac{V_v - V_w}{V_v + V_s}$$

Dividing V_s both numerator & denominator

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{\gamma_v \gamma_w}{\gamma_s} = \frac{\gamma_v \gamma_w \gamma_v}{\gamma_s} \quad e - Se \\
 & = \frac{\gamma_v \gamma_s \gamma_s}{\gamma_v \gamma_s} = \frac{\gamma_v \gamma_s}{\gamma_v \gamma_s} = e + 1 \\
 & \gamma_s \gamma_s \quad \gamma_s \gamma_s \\
 n_a = \frac{(1-S)e}{1+e} \dots\dots\dots(7)
 \end{aligned}$$



Relation between S & a_c:-

$$a_c = \frac{V_a}{V_v} = \frac{V_v - V_w}{V_v} - \frac{V_w}{V_v} = 1 - S \dots\dots\dots (8)$$

Relation between N_a, a_c & n:-

$$N_a = \frac{V_a}{V_v} = \frac{V_a}{V_v} = a_c \dots\dots\dots (9)$$

Relation between G, n_a, e, γ_d & γ_w:-

$$V = V_s + V_v + V_a$$

$$1 = \frac{V_s}{V} + \frac{V_v}{V} + \frac{V_a}{V} = \frac{V_s}{V} + \frac{V_v}{V} + n \frac{V_a}{V}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - n &= \frac{V_s}{V} + \frac{V_v}{V} = \frac{W_s}{G\gamma_w} + \frac{W_w}{\gamma_w} \\ &= \frac{\gamma_d}{G\gamma_w} + \frac{wW_s/\gamma_w}{V} \\ &= \frac{\gamma_d}{G\gamma_w} + \frac{w\gamma_d}{\gamma_w} = \left(\frac{1}{G} + w \right) \frac{\gamma_d}{\gamma_w} \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{(1 - n_a)G\gamma_w}{1 + w} \dots\dots\dots (10)$$

Relation between w, γ_d & γ_w:-

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

$$\text{Or, } 1 + w = 1 + \frac{W_w}{W_s} = \frac{W_s + W_w}{W_s}$$

$$\text{Or, } W_s = \frac{W}{1 + w}$$

$$\text{Or, } \gamma_{d.v} = \frac{W}{1 + w}$$

$$\text{Or, } \gamma_{d.v} = \frac{W(1 + w)}{(1 + w)V} = \frac{y}{(1 + w)}$$

$$\text{Or, } \gamma_{d.v} = \frac{y}{(1 + w)} \dots\dots\dots (11)$$

CHAPTER-3

DETERMINATION OF INDEX PROPERTIES

WATER CONTENT DETERMINATION:

- The water content of a soil is an important parameter that controls its behaviour.
- It is a quantitative measure of the wetness of a soil mass.
- The water content of soil mass can be determined by the following methods:
 1. Oven drying method
 2. Pycnometer method

(1) Oven drying method:

- The oven drying method is a standard laboratory method and this is a very accurate method.
- In this method the soil sample is taken in a small, non-corrodible, airtight container.
- The mass of the sample and that of the container are obtained using an accurate weighing balance.
- The soil sample in the container is then dried in an oven at a temperature of $110^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 24 hours.
- The water content of the soil sample is then calculated from the following equation:

$$W = \frac{M_w}{M_s} = \frac{M_2 - M_3}{M_3 - M_1} \times 100$$

Where M_1 = mass of container with lid

M_2 = mass of container, lid and wet soil M_3 = mass of container, lid and dry soil

(2) Pycnometer method:

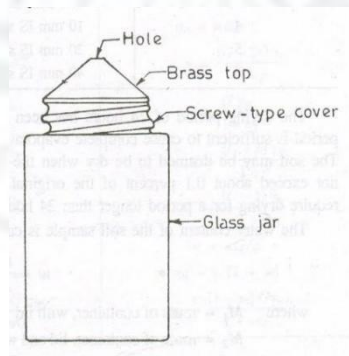


Figure 3.1P
pycnometer

- A pycnometer is a glass jar of about 1 litre capacity and fitted with a brass conical cap by means of screw type cover.
- The cap has a small hole of 6 mm diameter at its apex. A rubber or fibre washer is placed between the cap and the jar to prevent leakage.
- There is a mark on the cap and also on the jar. The cap is screwed down to the same mark such that the volume of the pycnometer used in the calculations remains constant.
- The pycnometer method for the determination of water content can be used only if the specific gravity of solid particle is known.
- A sample of wet soil about 200 to 400 gm is taken in the pycnometer and weighed.
- Water is then added to the soil in the pycnometer to make it about half full.
- The contents are thoroughly mixed using a glass rod to remove the entrapped air. More and more water is added and stirring process continued till the pycnometer is filled flush with the hole in the conical cap.
- The pycnometer is wiped dry and weighed.
- The pycnometer is then completely emptied. It is washed and filled with water, flush with the top hole.
- The pycnometer is wiped dry and weighed.
- Let M_1 = mass of pycnometer
 M_2 = mass of pycnometer + wet soil

M_3 = mass of pycnometer + wet soil + water

M_4 = mass of pycnometer filled with water only

The mass M_4 is equal to mass M_3 minus the mass of solids M_s plus the mass of an equal volume of water.

$$M_4 = M_3 - M_s + \frac{M_s}{G_p} p_w$$

$$M_4 = M_3 - M_s + \frac{M_s}{G}$$

$$= M_3 - M_s \left(1 - \frac{1}{G}\right)$$

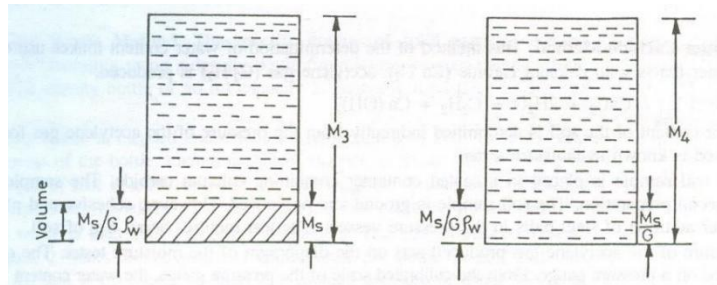
$$M_s = (M_3 - M_4) \left(\frac{G}{G-1} \right)$$

Mass of wet soil = $M_2 - M_1$

Therefore mass of water $M_w = (M_2 - M_1) - (M_3 - M_4) \left(\frac{G}{G-1} \right)$

$$w = \frac{M_w}{M_s} \times 100$$

$$= \left[\left(\frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_3 - M_4} \right) \left(\frac{G-1}{G} \right) - 1 \right] \times 100$$

**Figure 3.2****Pycnometer method Derivation**

- This method for the determination of the water content is suitable for coarse grained soils from which the entrapped air can be easily removed.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY:

- The specific gravity of soil solids can be determined by:
 - (i) A 50 ml density bottle or
 - (ii) A 500 ml flask or
 - (iii) A pycnometer
- The density bottle method is the most accurate and is suitable for all types of soil.

**Figure 3.3D****Density bottle**

- The flask or pycnometer is used only for coarse grained soils.
- The density bottle method is the standard method used in the laboratory.
- In the above three methods, the sequence of observation is same.
- The mass M_1 of the empty, dry, bottle is first taken.
- A sample of oven dried soil cooled in a desiccator is put in the bottle and the mass M_2 is taken.

- The bottle is then filled with distilled water gradually removing the entrapped air by applying vacuum or by shaking the bottle.
- The mass M_3 of the bottle, soil and water is taken.
- Finally, the bottle is emptied completely and thoroughly washed and clean water is filled to the top and the mass M_4 is taken.
- If the mass of solid M_s is subtracted from M_3 and replaced by the mass of water equal to the volume of solid the mass M_4 is obtained.

$$M_4 = M_3 - M_s + \frac{M_s \gamma_{sbw}}{\gamma_w}$$

$$\text{Or, } M_s \left(1 - \frac{1}{G}\right) = M_3 - M_4$$

$$\text{But } M_s = M_2 - M_1$$

$$\text{Therefore } (M_2 - M_1) \left(1 - \frac{1}{G}\right) = M_3 - M_4$$

$$\text{Or } \frac{M_2 - M_1}{G} = (M_2 - M_1) - (M_3 - M_4)$$

$$\text{Or } G = \frac{M_2 - M_1}{(M_2 - M_1) - (M_3 - M_4)} \quad \text{-----(i)}$$

$$\text{Alternatively } G = \frac{M_s}{M_s + M_4 - M_3} \quad \text{-----(ii)}$$

Equation (1) gives the specific gravity of solids at the temperature at which the test was conducted.

Specific gravity of solids is generally reported at 27°C or at 4°C . This specific gravity at 27°C and 4°C can be determined from the following equation

$$G_{27} = G_t \times \frac{\text{specific gravity of water at } t^\circ\text{C}}{\text{specific gravity of water at } 27^\circ\text{C}}$$

And $G_4 = G_t \times \text{specific gravity of water at } t^\circ\text{C}$ Where G_{27} = specific gravity of particles at 27°C G_4 = specific gravity of particles at 4°C

G_t = specific gravity of particles at $t^\circ\text{C}$

PARTICLE SIZE DISTRIBUTION:

- The percentage of various sizes of particle in a given dry soil sample is found by particle size analysis or mechanical analysis.
- Mechanical analysis means separation of a soil into its different size fractions.
- The mechanical analysis is performed in two stages
 - (i) Sieve analysis
 - (ii) Sedimentation analysis or wet mechanical analysis
- The first stage is meant for coarse grained soil only while the second stage is performed for fine grained soils.
- In general a soil sample may contain both coarse grained particles as well as fine particles and hence both the stages of the mechanical analysis may be necessary.

Sieve Analysis:

- In the Indian standard the sieves are designated by the size of the aperture in mm.
- The sieve analysis can be divided into two parts i.e. the coarse analysis and fine analysis.
- A oven dried sample of soil is separated into two fractions by sieving it through a 4.75 mm I.S. sieve.
- The portion retained on it is termed as the gravel fraction and is kept for the coarse analysis while the portion passing through it is subjected to fine sieve analysis.
- The following sets of sieves are used for coarse sieve analysis: IS: 100, 63, 20, 10 and 4.75 mm.
- The sieves used for fine sieve analysis are : IS : 2 mm, 1.0 mm, 600, 425, 300, 212, 150 and 75 micron.
- Sieving is performed by arranging the various sieves one over the other in the order of their mesh openings – the largest aperture sieve being kept at the top and the smallest aperture sieve at the bottom.
- A receiver is kept at the bottom and a cover is kept at the top of the whole assembly.
- The soil sample is put on the top sieve and the whole assembly is fitted on a sieve shaking machine.
- The amount of shaking depends upon the shape and the number of particles.
- At least 10 minutes of shaking is desirable for soils with small particles.
- The portion of the soil sample retained on each sieve is weighed.
- The percentage of soil retained on each sieve is calculated on the basis of the total mass of soil sample taken and from this percentage passing through each sieve is calculated.

Sedimentation Analysis:

- In the wet mechanical analysis or sedimentation analysis the soil fraction finer than 75 micron size is kept in suspension in a liquid (usually water) medium.
- The analysis is based on Stokes law according to which the velocity at which grains settle out of suspension, all other factors being equal, is independent upon the shape, weight and size of the grain.
- However in the usual analysis it is assumed that the soil particles are spherical and have the same specific gravity.
- With this assumption the coarser particles settle more quickly than the finer ones.

- If the terminal velocity of sinking of a spherical particle is given by

$$v = \frac{2r^2 \gamma_s - \gamma_w}{9\eta}$$

$$\text{Or } v = \frac{1D^2 \gamma_s - \gamma_w}{18\eta}$$

Where r = radius of the spherical particle (m) D = di

ameter of the spherical particle (m)

v = terminal velocity (m/sec)

γ_s = unit weight of particles (KN/m³)

γ_w = unit weight of liquid or water (KN/m³)

η = viscosity of liquid or water (KNs/m²) = μ /g μ = vis

cosity in absolute units of poise

g = acceleration due to gravity

- If water is used as the medium for suspension γ_w is equal to 9.81 KN/m³.

Similarly

$\gamma_s = G\gamma_w$. Substituting this we get

$$v = \frac{1D^2 (G-1)\gamma_w}{18\eta}$$

The above formula should be expressed in the consistent units of meters, seconds and kilonewton.

If the diameter (D) of the particle is in mm we have $v =$

$$\frac{1(D/1000)^2 (G-1)\gamma_w}{18\eta}$$

$$= \frac{D^2 \gamma_w (G-1)}{18 \times 10^6 \eta}$$

Taking $\gamma_w = 9.81 \text{ KN/m}^3$

$$\text{We get } v = \frac{D^2 (G-1)}{1.835 \times 10^6 \eta}$$

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{18 \times 10^6 \eta v}{(G-1)\gamma_w}} \text{ mm}$$

$$D = 1355 \sqrt{\frac{\eta v}{G-1}} \text{ mm}$$

It should be noted that 1 poise is equivalent to 0.1 Ns/m² or to 10⁻⁴

KNs/m². If a particle of diameter D mm falls through a height of H_c cm in t minutes. $v =$

$$H_c / 60t \text{ cm/sec}$$

$$= H_c / 6000t \text{ m/sec}$$

Substituting in the above equation we get $D = \sqrt{\frac{18 \times 10^6 \eta H_e}{(G-1) \gamma_w \times 6000 t}}$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{3000 \eta H_e}{(G-1) \gamma_w t}}$$

$$D = 10^{-5} F \sqrt{\frac{H_e}{t}}$$

Where $F = 10^5 \sqrt{\frac{3000 \eta}{(G-1) \gamma_w}}$ is a constant factor for given values of η and G .

At 27°C , the viscosity μ of the distilled water is approximately 0.00855 poise. Since 1 poise is equivalent to 10^{-4}KN-s/m^2

We have $\eta = 0.00855 \times 10^{-4} \text{KN-s/m}^2$

Taking an average value of $G = 2.68$

Putting these value in $v = \frac{D^2 (G-1)}{18 \times 10^6 \eta}$

$$\text{We get } v = \frac{D^2 (9.81) (2.68-1)}{18 \times 10^6 \times 0.0085 \times 10^{-4}} = 1.077 D^2 (\text{m/sec})$$

This is an approximate version of Stoke's law and can be easily remembered for rough determination.

- The sedimentation analysis is done either with the help of hydrometer or a pipette.
- In both the methods, a suitable amount of oven dried soil sample, finer than 75 microns size is mixed with a given volume V of distilled water.
- The mixture is shaken thoroughly and the test is started by keeping the jar containing soil water mixture, vertical.
- At the commencement of sedimentation test soil particles are assumed to be uniformly distributed throughout the suspension.
- After any time interval t , if a sample of soil suspension is taken from a height H_e (measured from the top level of suspension), only those particles will remain in the suspension which have not settled during this time interval.

The diameter of those particles which are finer than those which have already settled

can be found from $D = 10^{-5} F \sqrt{\frac{H_e}{t}}$

- The greater the time interval t allowed for suspension to settle, the finer are the particle sizes retained at this depth H_e .
- Hence sampling at different time intervals, at this sampling depth H_e would give the content of particles of different sizes.
- If at any time interval, M_D is the mass, per ml, of all particles smaller than the diameter D still in suspension at the depth H_e the percentage finer than D is given by

$$N = \frac{M_D}{M_d/V} \times 100$$

Where N = percentage finer than the diameter D



M_d = total dry mass of all particles put in the suspension
 V = volume of suspension

Thus with the help of above equations we can get various diameter D and the percentage of particles finer ($N\%$) than this diameter.

Limitation of sedimentation analysis:

- (1) The sedimentation analysis gives the particle size in terms of equivalent diameter, which is less than the particle size given by sieve analysis. The soil particles are not spherical. The equivalent diameter is close to the thickness (smallest dimension) rather than the length or width.
- (2) As the specific gravity of solids for different particles is different, the use of an average value of G is a source of error. However as the variation of the values of G is small the error is negligible.
- (3) Stokes law is applicable only when the liquid is infinite. The presence of walls of the jar affects the result to some extent.
- (4) In Stokes law it has been assumed that only one sphere settles and there is no interface from other spheres. In the sedimentation analysis as many particles settle simultaneously there is some interface.
- (5) This sedimentation analysis cannot be used for particles larger than 0.2 mm as turbulent conditions develop and Stokes law is not applicable.
- (6) The sedimentation method is not applicable for particles smaller than 0.2μ because Brownian movement takes place and the particles do not settle as per Stokes law.

PIPETTE METHOD:

- The pipette method is the standard sedimentation method used in the laboratory.
- The equipment consists of a pipette, a jar and a number of sampling bottles.
- Generally a boiling tube of 500 ml capacity is used in place of a jar.

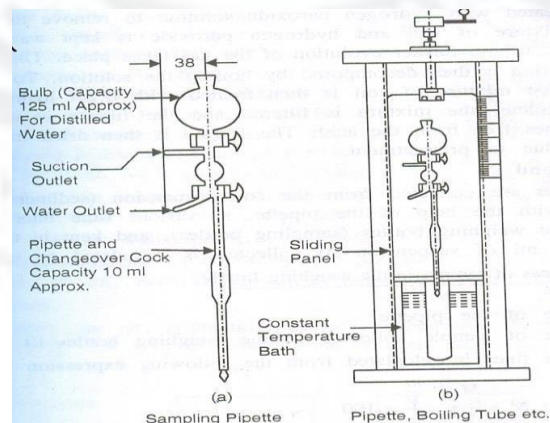


Figure 3.4

- The figure shows a pipette for extracting samples from the jar from a desired depth (H_e).
- The pipette consists of a 125 ml bulb with stop cock for keeping distilled water, a three-way stop cock, suction and wastewater outlets, sampling pipette of 10 ml capacity.
- The method consists in drawing off samples of soil suspension, 10 ml in volume, by means of this pipette from a depth of 10 cm (H_e) at various time intervals after the commencement of the sedimentation.
- The recommended time intervals are: $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 2, 4, 8, 15 and 30 minutes and 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 and 24 hours reckoned from the commencement of the test.
- The pipette should be inserted in the boiling tube about 25 seconds before the selected time interval and the time taken for sucking the sample should not be more than 10 to 20 seconds.
- Each sample so taken is transferred into suitable sampling bottles and dried in an oven.
- The mass M_p of solids per ml of suspension is thus found by taking the dry mass and dividing it by 10.

Method of preparing soil suspension:

- In the sedimentation analysis only those particles which are finer than 75 microns size are included.
- About 12 to 30 gm of oven dried sample is accurately weighed and mixed with distilled water in a dish or beaker to form a smooth thin paste. To have proper dispersion of soil a dispersing agent is added to the soil. Some of the common dispersing agents are sodium oxalate, sodium silicate and sodium polyphosphate compounds such as tetrasodium pyrophosphate, sodium hexametaphosphate and sodium tripolyphosphate.
- IS 2720 recommends the use of dispersing solution containing 33 gm of the sodium hexametaphosphate and 7 g of sodium carbonate in distilled water to make one litre of solution.
- 25 ml of this solution is added to the dish (containing the soil and distilled water) and the mixture is warmed gently for about 10 minutes.
- The contents are then transferred to the cup of a mechanical mixer, using a jet of distilled water to wash all traces of the soil out of the evaporating dish.
- The soil suspension is then stirred well for 15 minutes.
- The suspension is then washed through 75 micron IS sieve, using jet of distilled water and the suspension, which has passed through the sieve, is transferred to the 500 ml capacity boiling tube (sedimentation tube).

- The tube is then filled to the 500 ml mark by adding distilled water.



- The tube is then put in a constant temperature water bath.
- When the temperature of the tube has been stabilised to the temperature of the bath, the soil suspension is thoroughly shaken by inverting the tube several times, and then replaced in the bath.
- The stop watch is then started and the soil samples are collected at various time intervals with the help of pipette.

Calculation of M_D and N :

- 10 ml samples are collected from the soil suspension (sedimentation tube) from a depth of 10 cm, with the help of the pipette at various time intervals.
- The samples are collected into the weighing bottles (sampling bottles) and kept in the oven for drying.
- The mass M_D , per ml of suspension so collected is calculated as under

M_D = dry mass of sample in the weighing bottle / V_P

Where V_P = volume of the pipette

= volume of sample collected in the weighing bottle = 10

ml The percentage finer is calculated from the following expression

$$N' = \frac{M_D - \frac{m}{7}}{M_D} \times 100$$

Where m = mass of dispersing agent present in the total suspension of volume V

V = volume of suspension = 500 ml $N' = p$

percentage finer based on M_D

HYDROMETER METHOD:

- The hydrometer method of sedimentation analysis differs from the pipette analysis in the method of taking observation.
- In the pipette analysis the mass M_D per ml of suspension is found directly by collecting a 10 ml sample of soil suspension from the sampling depth H_e . However in the hydrometer analysis M_D is computed indirectly by reading the density of the soil suspension at a depth H_e at various time intervals.
- In the pipette test the sampling depth H_e is kept constant while in the hydrometer test, the sampling depth H_e goes on increasing as the particles settle with the increase in the time interval. It is therefore necessary to calibrate the hydrometer.

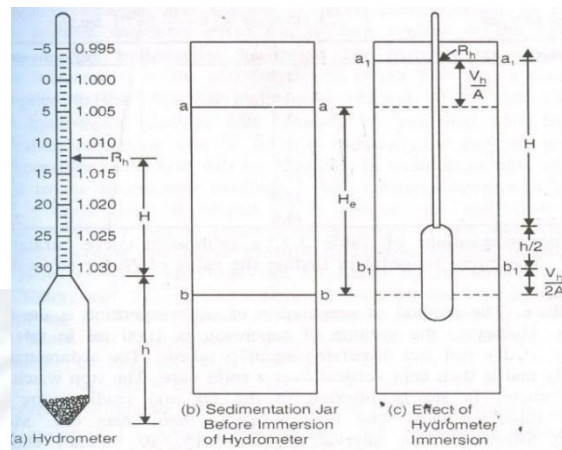


Figure 3.5

Calibration of hydrometer:

- The readings on the hydrometer stem give the density of the soil suspension situated at the centre of the bulb at any time.
- For convenience, the hydrometer readings are recorded after subtracting 1 and multiplying the remaining digits by 1000. Such a reduced reading is designated as R_h .
- For example, if the density reading at the intersection of horizontal surface of soil suspension with the stem is 1.010, it is recorded as 10 i.e. $R_h = 10$.
- As indicated in figure the hydrometer reading R_h increases in the downward direction toward the hydrometer bulb.
- Let H be the height in cm between any hydrometer reading R_h and the neck, and h the height of the bulb.
- Figure (b) shows the jar containing the soil suspension.
- When the hydrometer is immersed in the jar as shown in figure (c) the water level aa rises to a_1a_1 , the rise being equal to the volume V_h of the hydrometer divided by the internal area of cross section A of the jar.
- Similarly the level bb rises to b_1b_1 , where bb is the level situated at a depth H_e below the top level aa , at which the density measurements of the soil suspension are being taken.
- The rise between bb and b_1b_1 will be approximately equal to $V_h/2A$.
- The level b_1b_1 is now corresponding to the centre of the bulb, but the soil particles at b_1b_1 are of the same concentration as they were at bb .

• Therefore we have

$$H_e = \left(H + \frac{h}{2} + \frac{V_h}{2A} \right) - \frac{V_h}{A}$$

$$= H + \frac{1}{2} \left(h - \frac{V_h}{A} \right)$$

- In the above expression there are two variables: the effective depth H_e and the depth H which depends upon the hydrometer reading R_h .
- Therefore by selecting various hydrometer reading R_h , the depth H can be measured with the help of an accurate scale and the corresponding depth H_e can be found.
- The height of the bulb is constant. Similarly V_h and A are constant.
- To find the volume of the hydrometer it is weighed accurately. The mass of the hydrometer in grams gives the volume of the hydrometer in millilitres.

Test procedure:

- The method of preparation of soil suspension is the same as indicated in the pipette test.
- However the volume of suspension is 1000 ml in this case and hence double the quantity of dry soil and dispersing agent is taken.
- The sedimentation jar is shaken vigorously and is then kept vertical over a solid base.
- The stop watch is started simultaneously.
- The hydrometer is slowly inserted in the jar and readings are taken at $\frac{1}{2}$, 1 and 2 minute time interval. The hydrometer is then taken out.
- More readings are then taken at the following time intervals: 4, 8, 15, 30 minutes and 1, 2, 4 hours etc.
- To take the reading, the hydrometer is inserted about 30 seconds before the given time interval, so that it is stable at the time when the reading is to be taken.
- Since the soil suspension is opaque the reading is taken corresponding to the upper level of the meniscus.

Correction to the hydrometer reading:

The hydrometer readings are corrected as under:

(i) Meniscus correction:

- Since the suspension is opaque, the observations are taken at the top of the meniscus.
- The meniscus correction is equal to the reading between the top of the meniscus and the level of the suspension.
- As the marking on the stem increases downward the correction is positive.
- The meniscus correction (C_m) is determined from the readings at the top and bottom of the meniscus in the comparison cylinder. The meniscus correction is constant for a hydrometer.
- If R_h' is the hydrometer reading of the suspension at a particular

time, the corrected hydrometer R_h reading is given by

$$R_h = R_h' + C_m$$



(ii) Temperature correction:

- The hydrometer is generally calibrated at 27°C. If the temperature of the suspension is different from 27°C a temperature correction (C_t) is required for the hydrometer reading.
- If the temperature is more than 27°C, the suspension is lighter and the actual reading will be less than the corrected reading. The temperature correction is positive.
- On the other hand, if the temperature is less than 27°C the temperature correction is negative.

(iii) Dispersion agent correction:

- Addition of the dispersing agent to the soil suspension causes an increase in the specific gravity of the suspension.
- Therefore the dispersing agent correction is always negative.
- The dispersing agent correction (C_d) can be determined by noting the hydrometer reading in clear water and again in the same water after adding the dispersing agent.
- Thus the corrected reading R_c can be obtained from the observed reading R_h as under

$$R = R_h' + C_m \pm C_t - C_d$$

(iv) Composite Correction:

- Instead of finding the correction individually, it is convenient to find one composite correction.
- The composite correction (C) is the algebraic sum of all the corrections. Thus $R = R_h' \pm C$
- The composite correction is found directly from the readings taken in a comparison cylinder, which has distilled water and the dispersing agent in the same concentration and has the same temperature.

Computation of D and N :

- The particle size D is calculated from the following formula $D = 10^{-4} \sqrt[5]{\frac{F_{H_e}}{t}}$
- To compute the percentage of the soil finer than this diameter, the mass M_D per ml of suspension at effective depth H_e is first computed as under
- Since the hydrometer readings have been recorded by subtracting 1 from the density (ρ) readings and multiplying them by 1000, we have

$$R=(p-1)1000$$



$$\text{Or, } p = 1 + R/1000 \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

Where p is the density reading actually marked on the hydrometer and R is the hydrometer reading corrected for the composite correction.

- Now let us consider 1 ml of soil suspension at a time interval t at the effective depth H_e . If M_D is the mass of solids in this 1 ml suspension then the mass of water in it will be

$$1 - M_D/G$$

$$\text{Total mass of 1 ml suspension} = 1 - \frac{M_D}{G} + M_D$$

$$\text{Hence density of the suspension} = 1 - \frac{M_D}{G} + M_D \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

Equating equation (i) and (ii) we get

$$1 + R/1000 = 1 - \frac{M_D}{G} + M_D$$

$$M_D = \frac{R}{1000G - 1} (G)$$

Where G = specific gravity of soil solids

$$\text{Substituting these values in equation } N = \frac{M_D}{V} \times 100$$

$$\text{We get } N' = \frac{\frac{R(G)}{1000G - 1}}{M_D/V} \times 100$$

$$\text{Taking } V = 1000 \text{ ml we get}$$

$$N' = \frac{R(G)}{M_D(G - 1)}$$

Where N' = percentage finer with respect to M_d

Thus for various values of R , N' can be calculated

- For a combined sieve and sedimentation analysis if M is the total dry mass of soil originally taken (before sieving it over 2mm sieve) the overall percentage finer N is given by

$$N = N' \times \frac{M'}{M}$$

Where M' = cumulative mass passing 2mm sieve
 M = total dry mass of soil sample

If the soil sample does not contain particles coarser than 2mm size, N and N' will be equal.

CONSISTENCY OF SOIL:

- Consistency means the relative ease with which soil can be deformed.
- Consistency denotes degree of firmness of the soil which may be termed as soft, firm, stiff or hard.
- Fine grained soil may be mixed with water to form a plastic paste which can be moulded into any form by pressure.
- The addition of water reduces the cohesion making the soil still easier

to mould.

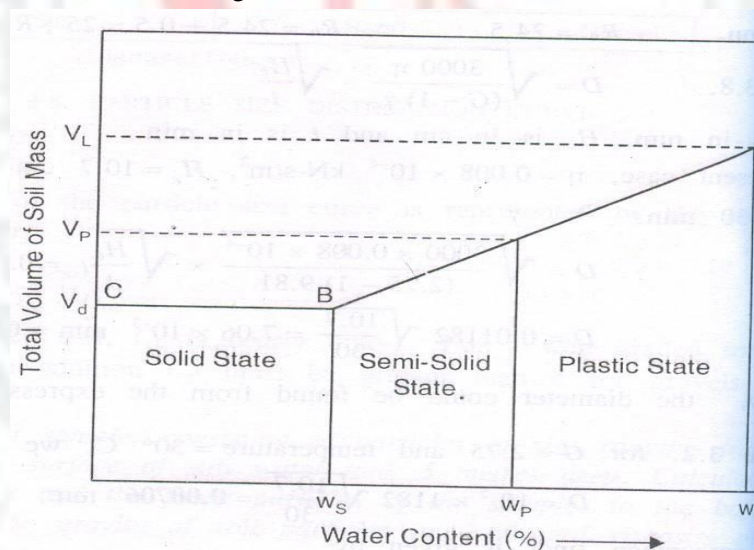
- Further addition of water reduces the until the material no longer retains its shape under its own weight, but flows as a liquid.



- Enough water may be added until the soil grains are dispersed in a suspension.
- If water is evaporated from such a soil suspension the soil passes through various stages or states of consistency.
- Swedish agriculturist Atterberg divided the entire range from liquid to solid state into four stages:
 - (i) Liquid state
 - (ii) Plastic state
 - (iii) Semi-solid state
 - (iv) Solid state

He sets arbitrary limits known as consistency limits or Atterberg limits for these divisions in terms of water content

- Thus consistency limits are the water content at which the soil mass passes from one state to the next.
- The Atterberg limits which are most useful are:
 - (i) Liquid limit
 - (ii) Plastic limit
 - (iii) Shrinkage limit



Figure

3.6 Different states of soil

Liquid Limit: **il**

- Liquid limit is the water content corresponding to the arbitrary limit between liquid and plastic state of consistency of a soil.
- It is defined as the minimum water content at which the soil is still in the liquid state but has a small shearing strength against flowing which can be measured by standard available means.

- With reference to the standard liquid limit device, it is defined as the minimum water content at which a part of soil cut by a groove of standard dimension, will flow together for a distance of 12 mm under an impact of 25 blows in the device.

Plastic limit:

- Plastic limit is the water content corresponding to an arbitrary limit between the plastic and the semi-solid state of consistency of a soil.
- It is defined as the minimum water content at which a soil will just begin to crumble when rolled into a thread approximately 3 mm in diameter.

Shrinkage limit:

- Shrinkage limit is defined as the maximum water content at which a reduction in water content will not cause a decrease in the volume of a soil mass.
- It is lowest water content at which a soil can still be completely saturated.

Plasticity Index:

- The range of consistency within which a soil exhibits plastic properties is called plastic range and is indicated by plasticity index.
- Plasticity index is defined as the numerical difference between the liquid limit and the plastic limit of a soil.

$$I_p = w_L - w_p$$

- When plastic limit cannot be determined, the plasticity index is reported as NP (Nonplastic).
- When the plastic limit is equal to or greater than the liquid limit, the plasticity index is reported as zero.

Plasticity:

- Plasticity is defined as that property of a soil which allows it to be deformed rapidly, without rupture, without elastic rebound and without volume change.

Consistency Index:

- The consistency index or the relative consistency is defined as the ratio of the liquid limit minus the natural water content to the plasticity index of soil

$$I_c = \frac{w_L - w}{I_p}$$

Where w is the natural water content of the soil

- If consistency index of a soil is equal to unity, it is at the plastic limit.
- Similarly a soil with I_c equal to zero is at its liquid limit.

- If I_c exceeds unity the soil is in a semi-solid state and will be stiff.



- A negative consistency index indicates that the soil has natural water content greater than the liquid limit and hence behaves just like aliquid.

Liquidity index:

- The liquidity index or water plasticity ratio is the ratio, expressed as a percentage, of the natural water content of a soil minus its plastic limit to its plasticity index:

$$I = \frac{w - w_p}{I_p}$$

Where w is the natural water content of the soil.

Example-1

- During a test for water content determination on a soil sample by pycnometer, the following observations were taken
 - (1) Mass of wet soil sample = 1000 gm
 - (2) Mass of pycnometer with soil and filled with water = 2000 gm
 - (3) Mass of pycnometer filled with water only = 1480 gm
 - (4) Specific gravity of solids = 2.67

Determine the water content.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We know that } w &= \left[\left(\frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_3 - M_4} \right) \left(\frac{G}{1G} \right) - 1 \right] \times 100 \\ &= \left[\frac{1000}{(2000 - 1480)} \times \left(\frac{2.67 - 1}{2.67} \right) - 1 \right] \times 100 \\ &= 20.28\% \end{aligned}$$

Hence water content of the sample is 20.28%. (Ans)

Example 2:

The mass of an empty gas jar was 0.498 Kg. When completely filled with water its mass was 1.528 Kg. An oven dried sample of soil mass 0.198 Kg was placed in the jar and water was added to fill the jar and its mass was found to be 1.653 Kg. Determine the specific gravity of particle.

Solution: we know

$$\text{that } G = \frac{M_2 - M_1}{(M_2 - M_1) - (M_3 - M_4)}$$



$$= \frac{0.198 - (1.653 - 1.528)}{}$$



$$=2.71$$

Hence specific gravity of the sample is 2.71.

Example 3:

A soil sample consisting of particles of size ranging from 0.5 mm to 0.01 mm, is put on the surface of still water tank 5 metres deep. Calculate the time of settlement of the coarsest and the finest particle of the sample, to the bottom of the tank. Assume average specific gravity of soil particles as 2.66 and viscosity of water as 0.01 poise.

Solution:

$$v = \frac{D^2 \gamma_w (G-1)}{18 \times 10^6 \eta}$$

$$= \frac{D^2 (G-1)}{1.835 \times 10^6 \times \eta}$$

Here $G = 2.66$ and $\eta = 0.01 \times 10^{-4} = 10^{-6} \text{ KN-s/m}^2$

$$v = \frac{D^2}{1.835} \times \frac{2.66-1}{10^6 (10^{-6})}$$

$$= 0.905 D^2$$

Where v is in m/sec and D is in mm. For

coarsest particle $D = 0.5$

$$mv = 0.905 (0.5)^2 = 0.2263 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$t = h/v = 5/0.2263 = 22.1$$

seconds for the finest particle, $D = 0.01$

$$mv = 0.905 (0.01)^2 = 9.05 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m/sec}$$

$$t = \frac{5}{9.05 \times 10^{-5}} = 55249 \text{ sec} = 15 \text{ hours } 20 \text{ min } 49 \text{ seconds.}$$

Example 4:

50 grams of oven dried soil sample is taken for sedimentation analysis. The hydrometer reading in a 100 ml soil suspension 30 minutes after the commencement of sedimentation test is 24.5. The effective depth for $R_h = 25$, found from the calibration curve is 10.7 cm. The meniscus correction is found to be +0.5 and the composite correction as -2.50 at the test temperature of 30°C. Taking the specific gravity of particles as 2.75 and viscosity of water as 0.008 poise, calculate the smallest particle size which would have settled during this interval of 30 minutes and the percentage of particles finer than this size.

Solution:

$$R_h' = 24.5$$

$$R_h = 24.5 + 0.5 = 25$$

$$R = 24.5 - 2.5 = 22$$

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{3000n}{(G-1)\gamma_w}} \sqrt{\frac{H_e}{t}}$$

Where D is in mm, H_e is in cm and t is in minute. Here $n =$

$$0.008 \times 10^{-4} \text{ KN-s/m}^2$$

$$H_e = 10.7 \text{ cm}$$

$$G = 2.75 \text{ and } \gamma_w = 9.81 \text{ KN/m}^3, t = 3$$

$$0 \text{ min.}$$

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{3000 \times 0.008 \times 10^{-4}}{(2.75-1)9.81}} \times \sqrt{\frac{10.7}{30}}$$

$$= 7.06 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}$$

$$= 0.00706 \text{ mm}$$

The percentage finer is given by $N' =$

$$\frac{100GR}{M_d(G-1)}$$

Where $M_d =$ mass of dry soil = 50 gm
 100×2.75

$$N' = \frac{50(2.75-1)}{50(2.75-1)} \times 22$$

$$= 69.1\%$$

(Ans)

Example 5:

A soil has a liquid limit of 25 % and plastic limit is 15 %. Determine the plasticity index. If the water content of the soil in its natural condition in the field is 20%, find the liquidity index and relative consistency.

Solution:

$$w_l = 25\%$$

$$w_p = 15\%$$

$$w = 20\%$$

$$\text{plasticity Index } I_p = w_l - w_p$$

$$= 25 - 15 = 10\%$$

$$\text{Liquidity index } I_L = \frac{w - w_p}{I_p} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{0.2-0.15}{0.1} \times 100 = 50\%$$

$$\text{Relative consistency} = I_c = \frac{w_l - w}{I_p} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{0.25-0.2}{0.1} \times 100 = 50\% \quad (\text{Ans})$$



CHAPTER-4

CLASSIFICATION OF SOIL

Purpose of soil classification:

The purpose of soil classification is to arrange various types of soil into specific groups based on physical properties and engineering behavior of the soils with the objective of finding the suitability of soils for different engineering applications, such as in the construction of earth dams, highways, and foundations of buildings, etc.

For different areas of applications and with the need for simplicity and acceptable terminology, several soil classification systems have been developed over the years, three of which are listed below.

1. Highway Research Board classification system
2. Unified soil classification system
3. Indian standard soil classification.

Highway Research Board (HRB) classification System:

The Highway Research Board classification system, also known as Revised Public Roads Administration classification system, is used to find the suitability of a soil, as subgrade material in pavement construction. This classification system is based on both particle size ranges and plasticity characteristics. Soils are divided into 7 primary groups designated as A-1, A-2, ..., A-7, as shown in table 4.1.

Group A-1, is divided into two sub groups A-1 and A-2 and group A-2 into four subgroups, A-2-4, A-2-5, A-2-6 and A-2-7. A characteristic group index is used to describe the performance of a soil as subgrade material.

Group index is not used to place a soil in a particular group; it is actually a means of rating the value of soil as a subgrade material within its own group. The higher the value of the group index, the poorer is the quality of the material.

The group index of a soil depends upon.

- (i) Amount of material passing the 75-micron sieve,
- (ii) Liquid limit
- (iii) Plastic limit

Group index is given by the following equation:

Group

index = $0.2a + 0.005ac + 0.01bd$ Where

a = that portion of percentage passing 75 micron sieve greater than 35 and not exceeding 75 expressed as whole number (0 to 40)

b = that portion percentage passing 75 micron sieve greater than 15 and not exceeding 55 expressed as whole number (0 to 40)

c = that portion of the numerical liquid limit greater than 40 and not exceeding 60 expressed as positive whole number (0 to 20)

$d = \text{that portion of the numerical plasticity index greater than 10 and not exceeding 30 expressed as a positive whole number (0 to 20).}$

To classify a given soil, sieve analysis data, liquid limit and plasticity index are obtained and we proceed from left to right in the Table 4.1 and by Process of elimination find the first group from into which the test data will fit. This gives the correct Classification. The plasticity index of A-7-5 subgroup is equal to or less than liquid limit minus 30. The plasticity index of A-7-6 subgroup is greater than liquid limit minus 30.

Note: The PRA system was introduced in 1928 and revised in 1945 as HRB system. It is known as AASHTO system since 1978 after adoption by American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials.

Unified soil classification System

The Unified soil classification system is based on the Airfield Classification system that was developed by A Casagrande. The system based on both grain size and plasticity characteristic of soil. The unified Soil classification (USC) system was adopted jointly by the Corps of Engineers, U.S. Army and U.S. Bureau of Reclamation during 1950s.

1. Coarse-grained soils – if more than 50% by Weight is retained on No. 200 ASTM sieve.

2. Fine-grain soil – if more than 50% by weight passes through No. 200 ASTM sieve

3. Organic soils.

The soil component are assigned group symbols as indicated below: Coarse-grained soils:

Gravel: G

Sand: S

Fine grained soils:

Silt: M

Clay's

Organic soil's

Table 4.3 Unified Soil Classification System

Major Division					Group Symbols		Typical names
Coarse Grain Soils more than 50% retained on No. 200 sieve * Fine grained soils 50% or more passes No. 200 sieve *	Gravels 50% or more of coarse fraction retained on No. 4 sieves		Clear gravels -200 fraction <5%		GW	Well graded	
			Gravel with fine-200 >5% fraction		GP		
			Clean sands -200 <5% fraction		GM		
	Sand more than 50% of cross fraction passes No. 4 sieve		Sand with fines-200 >12% fraction		GC		
					SW		
					SP		
					SM		
					SC		
Fine-grained soils 50% or more passes No. 200 sieve.							

Table 4.3 gives the details of Unified soil Classification system. The original Casagrande plasticity chart used for classifying fine grain soil is given in Fig 4.3

The symbol M for silt is derived from the

Swedish word 'mo' for silt. Example 4.3. Classify the soil with composition indicated in 4.2 using USC system.

Solution: Since more than 50% of soil passes through 0.075 mm sieve, the soil is fine grained.

Plasticity index = $(50 - 40)\% = 10\%$

From Fig 4.3

For $w_L = 40\%$ and $I_p = 10\%$ the soil can be classified as ML or OL

INDIAN STANDARD SOIL CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

Indian standard soil classification system (IS 1498-1970 classification and identification of soil for general engineering purpose) is essentially based on unified soil classification system and the salient features are given in the following discussion.

In the system soils are broadly divided into 3 divisions

1. coarse-grained soil – if more than 50% by mass is retained on 75 micron IS sieve.
2. Fine grained soil – if more than 50% by mass passes through 75 micron IS sieve.
3. Highly organic soils and other miscellaneous soil material. The soil contains larger % of fibrous organic matters such as peat and particles of decomposed vegetation. In addition, soil containing shells, concretions, cinders and other non soil material in sufficient quantities are also grouped in this division. Coarse grained soils are grouped as gravels and sands with group symbols G and S

Gravels (G) if more than 50% by mass of the coarse grained fraction passed through 4.75 mm IS sieve.

Depending on the gradation gravels (G) and sands (S) are further described using group symbols as indicated below.

GW – Well graded gravel for which $C_u > 4$ and C_c lies between 1 & 3

GP-poorly graded gravel which does not meet all graduation requirement

of

GW

SW-Well graded sand for which $C_u > 6$ and C_c lies between 1 & 3 GM-silty gravel if $I_p > 4$ for fine-grained fraction.

GC-Clayey gravel if $I_p < 7$ for fine-grained fraction. SM-Silty sand if $I_p < 4$ for fine-grained fraction.

SC-Clayey sand if $I_p > 7$ for fine-grained fraction.

In the case of coarse-grained soils mixed with fines if I_p lies between 4 and 7 one has to use proper judgment in dealing with this border line case. Generally non-plastic classification is favored in such cases. For example a sand with 10% fines with $C_u > 6$, C_c between 1 and 3 and $I_p = 6$ would be classified as SW-SM rather than SW-SC.

Fine-

grained soils are grouped under following three subdivisions with respective group symbols:

Inorganic silts and very fine sands (M) In

organic clays (C)

Organic silts, Organic clays and Organic matter (O)

Depending on liquid limit which is considered a good index of compressibility fine-grained soils are described as possessing (i) low compressibility (L) when liquid limit is less than 35 percent.

(ii) intermediate or medium compressibility (I) when liquid limit lies between 35 percent and 50 percent

(iii) high compressibility (H) when liquid limit is greater than 50 percent.

The plasticity chart originally devised by A. Casagrande and slightly modified by IS is used to classify fine-grained soils in the laboratory.

The A-line having the equation:

$$I_p = 0.73(WL - 20)$$

And the two vertical lines at $w_L = 35$ and $w_L = 50$ divide the chart into six regions with group symbols marked as shown in Fig. 4.4 if the plotted position lies below A-line, the soil has to be checked for organic odour by slight heating. If no organic odour is smelt then only it should be classified as inorganic silt. In case

of doubt, the soil should be oven-dried and its liquid limit determined



again. In the case of organic soils there will be a larger reduction in liquid limit on drying (reduction generally > 25%).

Soil	Soil component	Symbol	Particle size range and description
Coarse-grained Components	Boulder	none	Round to angular, bulky hard, rock particle, average diameter more than 300 mm.
	Cobble	None	Round to angular, bulky hard, rock particle average diameter smaller than 300 mm but retained on 80 mm sieve.
	Gravel	G	Rounded to angular, bulky hard, rock particle, passing 80 mm sieve but retained on 4.75 mm sieve. Coarse: 80 mm to 20 mm sieve Fine: 20 mm to 4.75 mm sieve
	Sand	S	Rounded to angular bulky hard, rocky particle, passing 4.75 mm sieve but retained on 75 micron sieve Coarse: 4.75 mm to 2.0 mm sieve Medium: 2.0 mm to 425 micron sieve Fine: 425 micron to 75 micron sieve

	silt	M	Particle smaller than 75-micron sieve identified by behavior; that is slightly plastic or non-plastic regardless of moisture and exhibits little or no strength when air
--	------	---	--



Fine-grained Components			dried
	Clay	C	Particles smaller than 75-micron sieve identified by behavior, that is, it can be made to exhibit plastic properties within a certain range of moisture and exhibits considerable strength when air dried

CHAPTER-5

PERMEABILITY AND SEEPAGE

5.1 Concept of Permeability:-

- The property of soil which permits flow of water (or other any liquid) through it is called the permeability. In other words, the permeability is the case with which water can flow through it.
- Permeability is a very important engineering property of soil.
- The knowledge of permeability is essential in a number of soil engineering problems such as: Settlement of Buildings, Yield of wells, Seepage through and below the earth's surface.
- Permeability controls the hydraulic stability of soil masses.
- The permeability of soils is also required in the design of filters required to prevent piping in hydraulic structures.

Darcy's Law:-

The flow of free water through soil is governed by Darcy's law. In 1856, Darcy experimentally found that for laminar flow in a homogeneous soil, the velocity of flow (v) is given by

$$v = ki \quad \text{--- Equation no-1}$$

Where, k = coefficient of permeability, i = hydraulic gradient and v = velocity of flow in laminar flow in homogeneous soil

The above equation is known as Darcy's law, which is one of the cornerstones of soil engineering. The discharge ' q ' is obtained by multiplying the velocity of flow (v) by the total cross-sectional area (A) normal to the direction of flow

$$\text{Thus, } q = vA = kiA \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{Equation no-2}$$

- Note:-
- 1) The velocity of flow is also known as discharge velocity or superficial velocity.
 - 2) The area A in the above equation includes both the solids and the voids.

Co-efficient of Permeability:-

- The coefficient of permeability can be defined using the equation 1. If the hydraulic gradient is unity, the coefficient of permeability is equal to the velocity of flow

Or,

- The coefficient of permeability is defined as the velocity of flow which would occur under unit hydraulic gradient. The co-efficient of permeability is equal to the velocity of flow.
- The coefficient of permeability has the dimension of velocity $[L/T]$.
- The coefficient of permeability measured in mm/sec, cm/sec, m/sec, m/day or other velocity units.
- The coefficient of permeability depends upon the particle size and upon many factors.
- According to USBR, the soil having co-efficient permeability greater than 10^{-3} mm/sec are classified as pervious and those with a value less than 10^{-5} to 10^{-3} mm/sec are designated as semi-pervious.

5.2 Factors affecting Permeability of soils:-

The following factors affect the permeability of soils.

- (1) Particle Size.
- (2) Structure of soil mass.
- (3) Shape of particles.
- (4) Void ratio.
- (5) Properties of water.
- (6) Degree of saturation.
- (7) Adsorbed water.
- (8) Impurities in water.

(1) Particle Size:- Co-efficient of permeability of soil is proportional to the square of particle size (D). The permeability of coarse grained soils is very large as compared to that of fine-grained soils. The permeability of coarse sand may be more than one million times as much as that of clay.

(2) Structure of soil mass:-

The coefficient C takes into account the shape of flow passage. The size of flow passage depends upon the structural arrangement. For same void ratio, the permeability is more in the case of flocculated structure as compared to that in the dispersed structure.

Stratified soil deposits have greater permeability parallel to the plane of stratification than that perpendicular to this plane. Permeability of soil deposit also depends upon shrinkage cracks, joints, fissures and shear zones. Loess deposits have greater permeability in the vertical direction than in the horizontal direction.

The permeability of natural soil deposit should be determined in undisturbed condition. The disturbance caused during sampling may destroy the original structure and affect the permeability. The effect of disturbance is more pronounced in case of fine-grained soils than in the case of coarse-grained soils.

(3) Shape of Particles:- The permeability of a soil depends upon the shape of particles. Angular particles have greater specific surface area as compared with the

rounded particles. For the same void ratio, the soils with angular particles are less permeable than those with rounded particles, as the permeability is inversely

proportional to the specific surface. However, in a natural deposit, the void ratio for a soil with angular particles may be greater than that for rounded particles, and the soil with angular particles may be actually more permeable.

(4) Void Ratio: - For a given soil, the greater the void ratio, the higher is the value of the coefficient of permeability.

Based on the other concepts, it has been established that the permeability of soil varies as e^2 or $e^2 / (1+e)$ (figure-2). Whatever may be the exact relationship; all soils have versus log plot as a straight line (figure-1).

Figure(1)

Figure(2)

If the permeability of a soil at a void ratio of 0.85 is known, its value at another void ratio of e' can be determined using the following equation given by Casagrande:

$$k = 1.4 k_{0.85} e^2$$

Where $k_{0.85}$ = permeability at void ratio of 0.85, k = permeability at a void ratio of e' .

(5) Properties of Water:- The coefficient of permeability is directly proportional to the unit weight of water (γ_w) and is inversely proportional to its viscosity (μ). The coefficient of permeability increases with an increase in the temperature due to reduction in the viscosity.

(6) Degree of Saturation:- If the soil is not fully saturated, it contains air pocket formed due to entrapped air or due to air liberated from percolating water. Whatever may be the cause of presence of air in soils, the permeability is reduced due to presence of air which causes blockage of passage. Consequently, the permeability of partially saturated soil is considerably smaller than that of fully saturated soil. In fact Darcy's Law is not strictly applicable to such soils.

(7) Adsorbed Water:- The fine grained soils have a layer of adsorbed water strongly attached to their surface. This adsorbed water layer is not free to move under gravity. It causes an obstruction to flow of water in the pores and hence reduces the permeability of soils.


It is difficult to estimate the void occupied by the adsorbed water. According to one estimate, the void ratio occupied by adsorbed water is about 0.10. The effective void ratio available for flow of water is thus about $(e - 0.1)$ and not ' e '. In some cases, at a very low hydraulic gradient, the coefficient of permeability of fine-grained soils becomes negligible small due to presence of adsorbed water.

(8) Impurities in Water:- Any foreign matter in water has a tendency to plug the flow passage and reduce the effective voids and hence the permeability of soils.

5.3.1- Constant Head Permeability Test:-

The coefficient of permeability of a relatively more permeable soil can be determined in a laboratory by the constant-head permeability test.

1. The test is conducted in an instrument known as a constant-head Permeameter.
2. It consists of a metallic mould, 100 mm internal diameter, 127.3 mm effective height and 1000 ml capacity according to IS: 2720 (Part XVII).
3. The mould is provided with a detachable extension collar, 100 mm diameter and 60 mm high, required during compaction of soil.
4. The mould is provided with a drainage base plate with a recess for porous stone.
5. The mould is fitted with a drainage cap having an inlet valve and an air release valve.
6. The drainage base and cap have fittings for clamping to the mould.

- 
1. The above figure shows a schematic sketch.
 2. The soil sample is placed inside the mould between two porous discs.
 3. The porous discs should be at least ten times more permeable than the soil.
 4. The porous discs should be deaired before these are placed in the mould.
 5. The water tubes should also be deaired.
 6. The sample can also be prepared in the permeameter by pouring the soil into it and tamping it to obtain the required density.
 7. The base is provided with a dummy plate, 12 mm thick and 108 mm in diameter, which is used when the sample is compacted in the mould.
 8. It is essential that the sample is fully saturated. This is done by one of the following three methods:-
 - i. By pouring the soil in the permeamter filled with water and thus depositing the soil underwater.
 - ii. By allowing water to flow from the base to the top after the soil has been placed in the mould. This is done by attaching the constant-head reservoir to the drainage base. The upward flow is maintained for sufficient time till all the air has been expelled out.
 - iii. By applying a vacuum pressure of about 700 mm of mercury through the drainage cap for about 1.5 minutes after closing the drainage valve. Then the soil is saturated by allowing deaired water to enter from drainage base. The air-release valve is kept open during saturation process.
 9. After the soil sample has been saturated, the constant-head reservoir is connected to the drainage cap.
 10. Water is allowed to flow out from the drainage base for some time till a steady-state is established.

11. The water level in the constant-head chamber in which the mould is displaced is kept constant.
12. The chamber is filled to the brim at the start of the experiment.
13. The water which enters the chamber after flowing through the sample spills over the chamber and is collected in a graduated jar for convenient period.
14. The head causing flow (h) is equal to the difference in water levels between the constant-head reservoir and the constant-head chamber.
15. If the cross-sectional area of the specimen is A , the discharge is given by

$$q = kiA$$

$$\text{or, } q = k(h/l)A$$

$$\text{or, } k = (ql)/(A h)$$

where, L = Length of specimen, h = head causing flow.

The discharge q is equal to the volume of water collected divided by time. The finer particles of soil specimen have a tendency to migrate towards the end faces when water flows through it. This results in the formation of a filter skin at the ends. The coefficient of permeability of these end portions is quite different from that of middle portion. For more accurate results, it would be preferable to measure the loss of head h' over a length L' in the middle to determine the hydraulic gradient (i). Thus $i = h'/L'$.

The temperature of permeating water should be preferably somewhat higher than that of the soil sample. This will prevent release of air during the test. It also helps in removing the entrapped air in the pores of soil. As the water cools, it has a tendency to absorb air.

To reduce the chances of formation of large voids at the points where the particles of soil touch the permeameter walls, the diameter of the permeameter is kept at least 15 to 20 times the particle size.

To increase the rate of flow for the soil of low permeability, a gas under pressure is applied to the surface of water in the constant-head reservoir. The total head causing flow in that case increases to $(h + p/\gamma_w)$, where p is pressure applied.

The bulk density of the soil in the mould may be determined from the mass of soil in the mould and its volume. The bulk density should be equal to that in the field. The undisturbed sample can also be used instead of the compacted sample. For accurate results, the specimen should have the same structure as in natural conditions.

The constant head permeability test is suitable for clean sand and gravel with $k > 10^{-2}$ mm/sec.

5.3.2 - Falling Head/Variable Head Permeability Test:-

For relatively less permeability soils, the quantity of water collected in the graduated jar of the constant-head permeability test is very small and cannot be accurately. For such soils, the variable-head permeability test is used. The permeameter mould is the same as used in the constant-head permeability test.

- 1) A vertical, graduated stand pipe of known diameter is fitted to the top of permeameter.

- 2) The sample is placed between two porous discs.
- 3) The whole assembly is placed in a constant head chamber filled with water to bring it to the start of the test. (See the below figure shows a schematic sketch).



- 4) The porous discs and water tubes be de-aired before the sample is placed. If in-situ, undisturbed sample is available, the same can be used; otherwise the soil is taken in the mould and compacted to required density.
- 5) The valve at the drainage base (not shown in figure) is closed and vacuum pressure is applied slowly through the drainage cap to remove air from the soil.
- 6) The vacuum pressure is increased to 700 mm of mercury and maintained for about 15 minutes.
- 7) The sample is saturated by allowing deaired water to flow upward from the drainage base when under vacuum.
- 8) When the soil is saturated, both the top and bottom outlets are closed.
- 9) The stand pipe is filled with water to required height.
- 10) The test is started by allowing the water in the stand pipe to flow through the sample to constant-head chamber from which it overflows and spills out.
- 11) As the water flows through the soil, the water level in the stand pipe falls.
- 12) The time required for the water level to fall from a known initial head (h_1) to known as final head (h_2) is determined.
- 13) The head is measured with reference to the level of water in the constant-head chamber.

Let us consider the instant when the head is h . For the infinitesimal small time dt , the head falls by dh .

Let the discharge through the sample be q .

From continuity of flow, $adh = -qdt$

Where 'a' is cross-sectional area of standpipe.

$$\text{Or, } a \frac{dh}{dt} = - (A \times k \times h) \times \frac{1}{L}$$

$$\text{Or, } adh = -A \times k \times h / L \times dt$$

$$A k dt / a L = -dh / h$$

$$\text{Integrating, } \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{A k}{a L} dt = - \int_{h_1}^{h_2} \frac{dh}{h}$$

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

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

Where, $t = (t_2 - t_1)$, the time interval during which the head reduces from h_1 to h_2 .

$$\text{Sometime } k = \frac{2.30 a}{L A t} \log_{10} (h_1 / h_2)$$

The rate of fall of water level in the standpipe and the rate of flow can be adjusted by changing the area of cross-section of the standpipe. The smaller diameter pipes are required for less pervious soils.

The coefficient of permeability is reported at 27°C as per IS: 2720 (Part XVII). The void ratio of soil is also generally determined. The variable head permeameter is suitable for very fine sand and silt with $k = 10^{-2}$ to 10^{-5} mm/sec.

Sometime, the permeability test is conducted using the consolidometer instead of the permeameter mould. The fixed-ring consolidometer is used as a variable-head permeameter by attaching a stand.

5.4.1-Seepage Pressure:-

As water flows through the soil, it exerts a force on the soil. The force acts in the direction of flow. This force is known as drag force or seepage force. The pressure induced in the soil is known as seepage pressure.

Or

By virtue of the viscous friction exerted on water flowing through soil, energy transfer is effected between the water and soil. The force corresponding to this energy transfer is called the seepage force or seepage pressure. Thus, seepage pressure is the pressure exerted by water on the soil through which it percolates.

5.4.2 -The phenomenon of Quick Sand:-

When flow takes place in an upward direction, the seepage pressure also acts in the upward direction and the effective pressure is reduced. If the seepage pressure becomes equal to the pressure due to submerged weight of the soil, the effective pressure is reduced to zero, in such case, a cohesionless soil loses all its shear strength, and the soil particles have a tendency to move up in the direction of flow. This phenomenon of lifting of soil particles is called *quick condition*, *boiling condition* or

quicksand. Thus, during the quick condition,



$$\sigma' = z\gamma' - p_s = 0$$

or, $p_s = z\gamma'$

or $i z \gamma_w = z\gamma'$

From which,

$$I = i_c = \gamma' / \gamma_w = \frac{G-1}{1+e}$$

- The hydraulic gradient at such a critical state is called hydraulic gradient. For loose deposits of sand or sand or silt, if voids ratio e is taken as 0.67 and G as 2.67, the critical hydraulic gradient works out to be unity.
- It should be noted that quicksand is not a type of sand but a flow condition occurring within a cohesionless soil when its effective pressure is reduced to zero due to upward flow of water.



Figure:-QUICKSAND CONDITION

1. The figure shows a set-up to demonstrate the phenomenon of quicksand.
2. Water flows in an upward direction through a saturated soil sample of thickness 'z' under a hydraulic head 'h'.
3. This head can be increased or decreased by moving the supply tank in the upward or downward direction.
4. When the soil particles are in the state of critical equilibrium, the total upward force at the bottom of soil becomes equal to the total weight of all the materials above the surface considered.

Equating the upward and downward forces at the level $a-a$, we have,

$$(h+z)\gamma_w A = z\gamma_{sat} A$$

$$h\gamma_w = z(\gamma_{sat} - \gamma_w) = z\gamma'$$

$$\frac{h}{z} = i_c = \gamma' / \gamma_w = \frac{G-1}{1+e}$$

5.5.1-Concept of Flow-Net:-

1. The graphical method of flow net construction, first given by Forchheimer (1930), is based on trial sketching.
2. The hydraulic boundary conditions have a great effect on the general shape of the flow net, and hence must be examined before sketching is started.
3. The flow net can be plotted by trial and error by observing the properties of flow net and by following practical suggestions given by A. Casagrande.



Figure:- PORTION OF A FLOW NET

5.5.2-Properties of Flow-Net:-

1. The flow lines and equipotential lines meet at right angles to one another.
2. The fields are approximately squares, so that a circle can be drawn touching all the four sides of the square.
3. The quantity of water flowing through each flow channel is same, similarly, the same potential drop occurs between two successive equipotential lines.
4. Smaller the dimension of the field, greater will be the hydraulic gradient and velocity through it.
5. In a homogeneous soil, every transition in the shape of the curves is smooth, being either elliptical in shape.

5.5.3-Application of Flow-Net:-

A flow net can be utilized for the following purposes:-

- a) Determination of seepage.
- b) Determination of hydrostatic pressure.

c) Determination of seepage pressure.



d) Determination of exit gradient.

(a) Determination of seepage:- Figure shows a portion of flow net. The portion between any two successive flow lines is known as flow channel. The portion enclosed between two successive equipotential lines and successive flow lines is known as field as that shown hatched in the figure

Let b & l be the width and length of the field

Δh = head drop through the field

Δq = Discharge passing through the flow channel

H = total hydraulic head causing flow = difference between upstream and downstream heads.

$$b = k H \left(\frac{N_f}{N_d} \right)$$

N_d), Where, N_f = Total number of flow channels in the net

N_d = Total number of potential drops in the complete net

This is required expression for the discharge passing through a flow-net and valid for isotropic soils in which $k_x = k_y = k$.

(b) Determination of hydrostatic pressure:- The hydrostatic pressure at any point within the soil mass is given by $u = \gamma_w h_w$

Where u = hydrostatic pressure, h_w = Piezometric head

The hydrostatic pressure in terms of Piezometric head h_w is calculated from the relation

$$h_w = h - Z$$

Where h = Hydraulic potential at the point under consideration.

Z = position head of the point above datum, considered positive upwards.

(c) Determination of seepage pressure:- The hydraulic potential h at any point located after n potential drops, each value Δh is given by

$$h = H - n \Delta h$$

the seepage pressure at any point equals the hydraulic potential or balanced hydraulic head multiplied by unit weight of water and hence is given by $p_s = h \gamma_w = (H - n \Delta h) \gamma_w$

The pressure acts in the direction of flow.

(d) Determination of exit gradient:- The exit gradient is hydraulic at the downstream end of the flow line where the percolating water leaves the soil mass and emerges into the free water at the downstream. The exit gradient can be calculated from the following expression, in which Δh represents

the potential drop and l the average length of a field in the flow net at exit end:

$$i_e = (\Delta h / l).$$

CHAPTER-6

COMPACTION AND CONSOLIDATION

6.1 COMPACTION

Compaction is the application of mechanical energy to a soil so as to rearrange its particles and reduce the void ratio.

It is applied to improve the properties of an existing soil or in the process of placing fills such as in the construction of embankments, road bases, runways, earth dams, and reinforced earth walls. Compaction is also used to prepare a level surface during construction of buildings. There is usually no change in the water content and in the size of the individual soil particles.

The objectives of compaction are:

- To increase soil shear strength and therefore its bearing capacity.
- To reduce subsequent settlement under working loads.
- To reduce soil permeability making it more difficult for water to flow through.

LIGHT AND HEAVY COMPACTION TEST

Laboratory Compaction

The variation in compaction with water content and compactive effort is first determined in the laboratory. There are several tests with standard procedure such as:

- Indian Standard Light Compaction Test (similar to Standard Proctor Test)
- Indian Standard Heavy Compaction Test (similar to Modified Proctor Test)

Indian Standard Light Compaction Test

Soil is compacted into a 1000 cm^3 mould in 3 equal layers, each layer receiving 25 blows of a 2.6 kg rammer dropped from a height of 310 mm above the soil. The compaction is repeated at various moisture contents.

Indian Standard Heavy Compaction Test

It was found that the Light Compaction Test (Standard Test) could not reproduce the densities measured in the field under heavier loading conditions, and this led to the development of the Heavy Compaction Test (Modified Test). The equipment and procedure are essentially the same as that used for the Standard Test except that the soil is compacted in 5 layers, each layer also receiving 25 blows. The same mould is also used. To provide the increased compactive effort, a heavier rammer of 4.9 kg and a greater drop height of 450 mm are used.

OPTIMUM MOISTURE CONTENT OF SOIL, MAXIMUM DRY DENSITY, ZERO AIR VOID LINE

To assess the degree of compaction, it is necessary to use the dry unit weight, which is an indicator of compactness of solid soil particles in a given volume. The laboratory testing is meant to establish the maximum dry density that can be attained for a given soil with a standard amount of compactive effort.

In the test, the dry density cannot be determined directly, and as such the bulk density

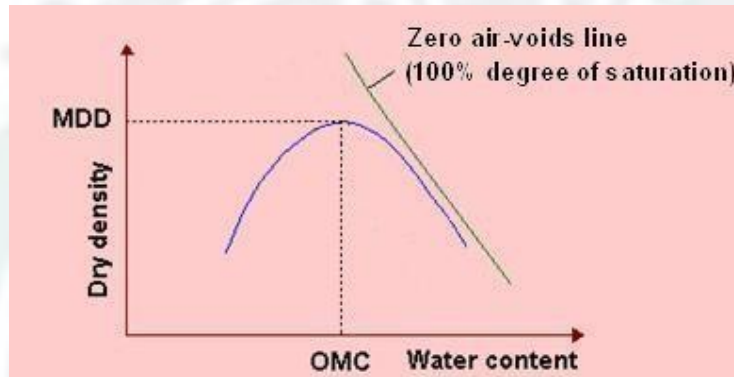
and the moisture content are obtained first to calculate the dry density as

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

γ_t , where

= bulk density, and w = water content.

A series of samples of the soil are compacted at different water contents, and a curve is drawn with axes of dry density and water content. The resulting plot usually has a distinct peak as shown. Such inverted "V" curves are obtained for **cohesive soils** (or soils with fines), and are known as compaction curves.



Dry density can be related to water content and degree of saturation (S) as

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

Thus, it can be visualized that an increase of dry density means a decrease of voids ratio and a more compact soil.

Similarly, dry density can be related to percentage air voids (n_a) as

$$\gamma_d = \frac{(1 - n_a) G_s \cdot \gamma_w}{1 + w G_s}$$

The relation between moisture content and dry unit weight for a saturated soil is the **zero air-voids line**. It is not feasible to expel air completely by compaction, no matter how much compactive effort is used and in whatever manner.

Effect of Increasing Water Content

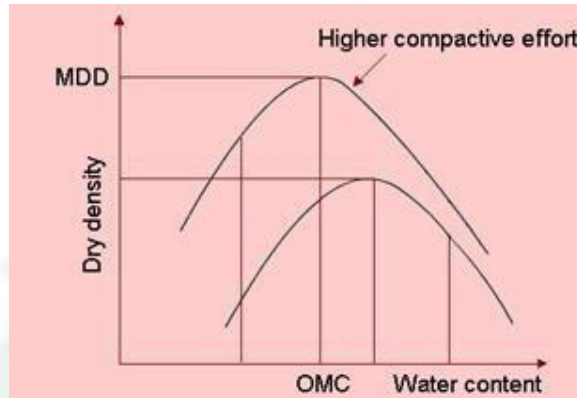
As water is added to a soil at low moisture contents, it becomes easier for the particles to move past one another during the application of compacting force. The particles come closer, the voids are reduced and this causes the dry density to increase. As the water content increases, the soil particles develop larger water films around them.

This increase in dry density continues till a stage is reached where water starts occupying the space that could have been occupied by the soil grains. Thus the water at this stage hinders the closer packing of grains and reduces the dry unit weight.

The **maximum dry density (MDD)** occurs at an **optimum water content (OMC)**, and their values can be obtained from the plot.

Effect of Increasing Compactive Effort

The effect of increasing compactive effort is shown. Different curves are obtained for different compactive efforts. A greater compactive effort reduces the optimum moisture content and increases the maximum dry density.



An increase in compactive effort produces a very large increase in dry density for soil when it is compacted at water contents drier than the optimum moisture content. It should be noted that for moisture contents greater than the optimum, the use of heavier compaction effort will have only a small effect on increasing dry unit weights.

It can be seen that the compaction curve is not a unique soil characteristic. It depends on the compaction effort. For this reason, it is important to specify the compaction procedure (light or heavy) when giving values of MDD and OMC.

6.2 Factors Affecting Compaction

The factors that influence the achieved degree of compaction in the laboratory are:

- Plasticity of the soil
- Water content
- Compactive effort

6.3 FIELD COMPACTION METHODS AND THEIR SUITABILITY

Compaction Equipment

Most of the compaction in the field is done with rollers. The four most common types of rollers are

1. Smooth-wheel rollers (or smooth-drum rollers)
2. Pneumatic rubber-tired rollers
3. Sheepfoot rollers
4. Vibratory rollers

Smooth-wheel rollers are suitable for proofrolling subgrades and for finishing operation of fills with sandy and clayey soils. These rollers provide 100% coverage under the wheels, with ground contact pressures as high as 310 to 380 kN/m² (45 to 55 lb/in²). They are not suitable for producing high unit weights of compaction when used on thicker layers.

Pneumatic rubber-tired rollers are better in many respects than the smooth-wheel rollers. The former are heavily loaded with several rows of tires. These tires are closely spaced—four to six in a row. The contact pressure under the tires can range from 600 to 700 kN/m² (85 to 100 lb/in²), and they produce about 70 to 80% coverage.

Pneumatic rollers can be used for sandy and clayey soil compaction. Compaction is achieved by a combination of pressure and kneading action.

Sheepsfoot rollers are drums with a large number of projections. The area of each projection may range from 25 to 85 cm² (4 to 13 in²). These rollers are most effective in compacting clayey soils. The contact pressure under the projections can range from 1400 to 7000 kN/m² (200 to 1000 lb/in²). During compaction in the field, the initial passes compact the lower portion of a lift. Compaction at the top and middle of a lift is done at a later stage. Vibratory rollers are extremely efficient in compacting granular soils. Vibrators can be attached to smooth-wheel, pneumatic rubber-tired, or sheepsfoot rollers to provide vibratory effects to the soil.

Handheld vibrating plates can be used for effective compaction of granular soil over a limited area. Vibrating plates are also gang-mounted on machines. These plates can be used in less restricted areas..

6.4 CONSOLIDATION:

According to Terzaghi (1943), “a decrease of water content of a saturated soil without replacement of the water by air is called a process of consolidation.” When saturated clayey soils—which have a low coefficient of permeability—are subjected to a compressive stress due to a foundation loading, the pore water pressure will immediately increase; however, due to the low permeability of the soil, there will be a time lag between the application of load and the extrusion of the pore water and, thus, the settlement.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COMPACTION AND CONSOLIDATION:

Consolidation and compaction are totally different processes. Though both processes result in a reduction in volume, it is important to know the difference between them. These are:



a. Compaction reduces volume of soil by rapid mechanical methods like tamping, rolling and vibration; whereas consolidation process reduces volume gradually by static, sustained loading.

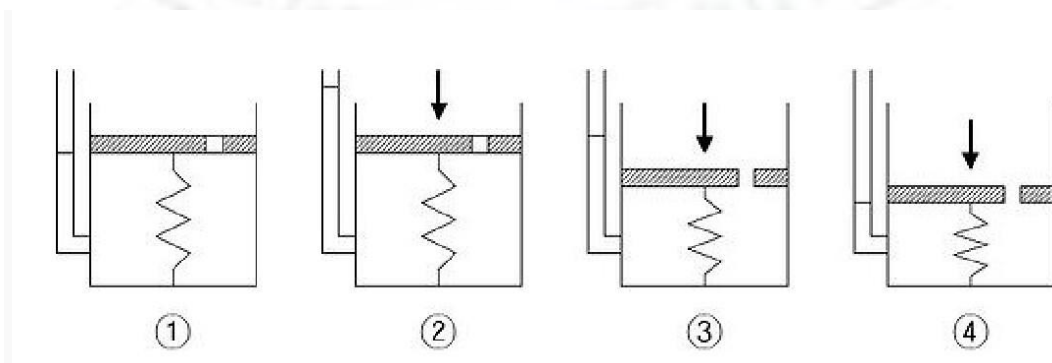
b. Compaction decreases volume by expelling air from partially saturated or dry soil; whereas consolidation process reduces volume by squeezing out water from saturated soil. In compaction process water content is not altered.



c. Compaction is a human-generated pressing method to produce high unit weight of soil. Thus increasing other properties to have better founding soil. In contrast, consolidation is a natural process where volume of saturated soil mass is reduced by static loads from the weight of building or other structures that is transferred to soil through a foundation system.

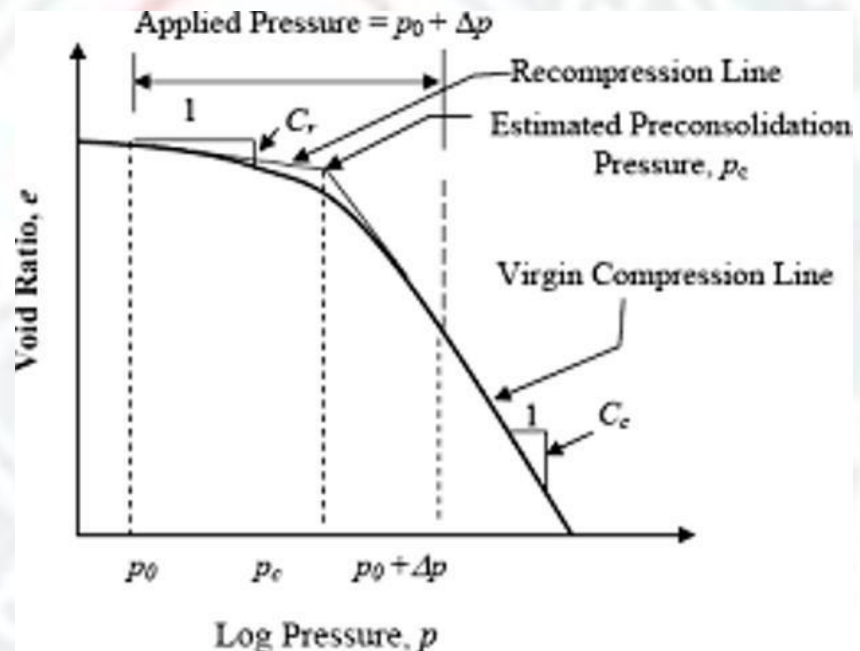
6.5 SPRING ANALOGY METHOD

The process of consolidation 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 of the soil itself, and the water which fills the container represents the pore water in the soil.



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 excess 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 excess pore water pressure)
4. After some time, the drainage of water no longer occurs. Now, the spring alone resists the applied load. (Full dissipation of excess pore water pressure. End of consolidation)

Pressure-Void Ratio Curve:-



Normally consolidated, Underconsolidated and Overconsolidated soil,

Consolidation is a process by which soils decrease in volume. According to Karl vonTerzaghi "consolidation is any process which involves a decrease in water content of saturated soil without replacement of water by air." In general it is the process in which reduction in volume takes place by expulsion of water under long term static loads. It occurs when stress is applied to a soil that causes the soil particles to pack together more tightly, therefore reducing its bulk volume. When this occurs in a soil

that is saturated with water, water will be squeezed out of the soil. The magnitude of consolidation can be predicted by many different methods. In the Classical Method, developed by Terzaghi, soils are tested with an oedometer test to determine their compression index. This can be used to predict the amount of consolidation.

When stress is removed from a consolidated soil, the soil will rebound, regaining some of the volume it had lost in the consolidation process. If the stress is reapplied, the soil will consolidate again along a recompression curve, defined by the recompression index. The soil which had its load removed is considered to be overconsolidated. This is the case for soils which have previously had glaciers on them. The highest stress that it has been subjected to is termed the preconsolidation stress. The overconsolidation ratio or OCR is defined as the highest stress experienced divided by the current stress. A soil which is currently experiencing its highest stress is said to be normally consolidated and to have an OCR of one. A soil could be considered underconsolidated immediately after a new load is applied but before the excess pore water pressure has had time to dissipate.

Assumption of Terzaghi's theory of one-dimensional consolidation

1. The soil is homogeneous (uniform in composition throughout).
2. The soil is fully saturated (zero air voids due to water content being so high).
3. The solid particles and water are incompressible.
4. Compression and flow are one-dimensional (vertical axis being the one of interest).
5. Strains in the soil are relatively small.
6. Darcy's Law is valid for all hydraulic gradients.
7. The coefficient of permeability and the coefficient of volume compressibility remain constant throughout the process.
8. There is a unique relationship, independent of time, between the void ratio and effective stress

Coefficient of Consolidation:

The Coefficient of consolidation at each pressure increment is calculated by using the following equations:

$$i. C_v = 0.197 d^2 / t_{50} \text{ (Log fitting method)}$$

In the log fitting method, a plot is made between dial readings and logarithm of time, the time corresponding to 50% consolidation is determined

ii. $C_v = 0.848d^2/t_{90}$ (Square fitting method)

In the square root fitting method, a plot is made between dial readings and square root of time and the time corresponding to 90% consolidation is determined.

Time Factor:-

The magnitude of consolidation settlement is often calculated using Terzaghi's expression for average degree of consolidation (U) with respect to time. Developed during a time of limited computing capabilities, Terzaghi's series solution to the one-dimensional consolidation equation was generalized using a dimensionless time factor (T), where a single U - T curve is used to describe the consolidation behavior of both singly and doubly drained strata. As a result, any comparisons between one- and two-way drainage are indirect and confined to discrete values of time. By introducing a modified time factor T^* in terms of layer thickness (D) instead of the maximum drainage path length (H_{dr}), it is now possible to observe the effect of drainage conditions over a continuous range of time for a variety of asymmetric initial excess pore pressure distributions. Although two separate U - T plots are required (for singly and doubly drained cases), the time factor at specific times remains the same for both cases, enabling a direct visual comparison. The importance of a revised time factor is evident when observing the endpoint of consolidation, which occurs as U approaches 100%. This occurs at $T^* \cong 0.5$ for two-way drainage and at $T^* \cong 2$ for one-way drainage, an observation not possible using the traditional expression for time factor.

Estimation of consolidation settlements

Prediction of ground settlements have always been a big challenge for the engineers that are responsible for the design of subway tunnel projects. Since ground settlement is a crucial concept directly affecting the successfulness of a project, it must be taken seriously and should be accurately estimated.

Categories:

1. Immediate settlement-
elastic deformation of dry soil and moist and saturated soils without change to moisture content
 - a. due to high permeability, pore pressure in clay support the entire added load and no immediate settlement occurs
 - b. generally, due to the construction process, immediate settlement is not important
2. Primary consolidation settlement-
volume change in saturated cohesive soils because of the expulsion of water from void spaces
 - a. high permeability of sandy, cohesionless soils result in near immediate drainage due to the increase in pore water pressure and no primary consolidation settlement occurs

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY CONSOLIDATION

Primary consolidation

This method assumes consolidation occurs in only one dimension. Laboratory data is used to construct a plot of strain or void ratio versus effective stress where the effective stress axis is in a logarithmic scale. The plot's slope is the recompression or compression index. The equation for consolidation settlement of a

normally consolidated soil can then be determined to be:

$$=$$

where

δ_c is the settlement due to consolidation. C_c is the

compression index.

e_0 is the initial void ratio. H is the height of the soil.

σ_{zf} is the final vertical stress. σ_{z0} is the initial vertical stress.

C_c can be replaced by αC (the recompression index) for use in overconsolidated soils where the final effective stress is less than the preconsolidation stress. When the final effective stress is greater than the preconsolidation stress, the two equations must be used in combination both the recompression portion and the virgin compression portion of the consolidation processes, as follows,

$$=$$

where σ_{zc} is the preconsolidation stress of the soil.

Secondary consolidation

Secondary consolidation is the consolidation of soil that takes place after primary consolidation. Even after the reduction of hydrostatic pressure some compression of soil takes place at a slow rate. This is known as secondary consolidation. Secondary consolidation is caused by creep, viscous behavior of the clay-water system,

consolidation of organic matter, and other processes. In sand, settlement caused by secondary compression is negligible, but in peat, it is very significant. Due to secondary consolidation, some of the highly viscous water between the points of consolidation contact is forced out.



Secondary consolidation is given by the formula

$$\Delta e = \frac{C_a}{1 + e_0} \log \frac{t}{t_{90}}$$

Where

H_0 is the height of the consolidating

medium e_0 is the initial void ratio

C_a is the secondary compression index

t is the length of time after consolidation

considered t_{90} is the length of time for achieving 90% consolidation

CHAPTER-7

SHEAR STRENGTH

Introduction

Soil mass when loaded may fail due to shear stress induced in it. Examples of such failures are sinking of soil mass under heavily loaded foundation, spalling of soil along the edge of vertical cut, slide in an earth embankment with a steep slope, movement of backfill behind a weak retaining wall etc. In all the above cases, the soil fails essentially due to shear. When the shear stress induced in a mass of soil reaches limiting value, shear deformation occurs, which leads to the failure of soil mass. The resistance offered by the soil to shear is known as shear resistance.

The maximum shearing resistance of soil against continuous shear deformation along potential failure plane is known as **shear strength** of soil. The plane along which failure of soil takes place due to sliding is known as failure plane. Failure will take place on the plane on which the shear stress exceeds the shear resistance. However, if the soil has weak planes, the failure will be located in the weakest zone. Failure may not take place along the plane of maximum shear stress, i.e., the plane which makes 45° with the principal planes.

The shearing resistance of soil is composed of two components: Normal stress dependent and normal stress independent. Examples of the above two cases are:

1. Frictional resistance between the particles at the point of contact
2. Cohesion or force of attraction between soil particles. It is characteristic of soil state and is independent of normal stress across the plane.

The above two components can be better understood by comparing two materials, sand and clay.

Considerable force is required to shear a block of clay as shown in the Figure 1(a) even when there is no external force acting on the block. This force is higher when the block is dry and lower with increase in water content of the soil sample. This component is called cohesion. On the other hand, if we take a sample of sand and split it to shear it, the force required is practically nil when there is no external normal force. Now, if we apply external normal pressure, the force

required to shear the sample increases and is proportional to the normal pressure applied. This component is called friction.

Shear strength of the cohesionless soil results from inter granular friction as above. Plastic undrained clay does not have external friction. Hence, strength of soil results from cohesion alone. In other intermediate soils, shear strength of such soil results from internal friction as well as cohesion.

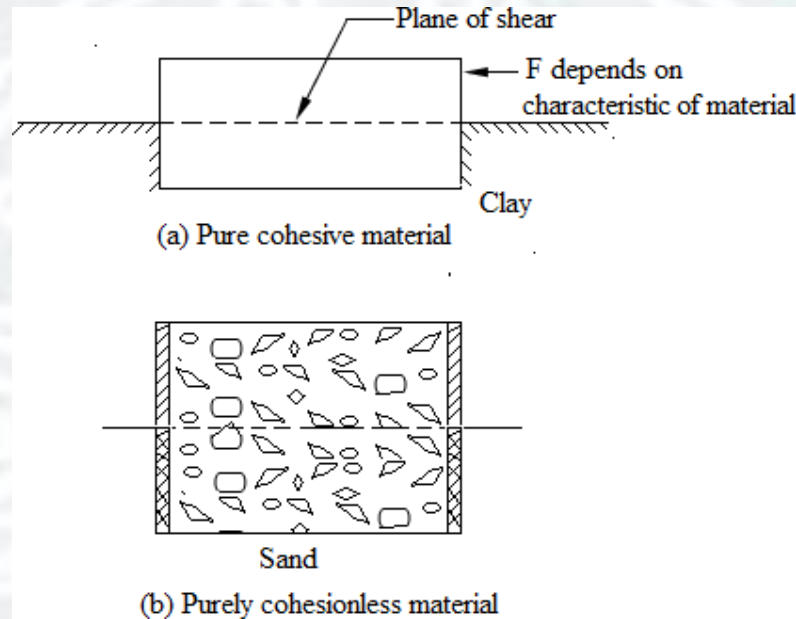


Figure 1

Theory of two dimensional stress system: Mohr's Stress Circle

Innumerable planes pass through each point in a soil mass. The stress components on each plane through the point depend upon the direction of the plane. It is known from strength of material that there exists three mutually perpendicular planes through a point on which there is no shear stress and only normal stress acts. Such planes are called principal planes and the normal stresses, the principal stresses. In order of their

magnitude, these stresses are known as major principal stress (σ_1), intermediate principal stress (σ_2) and minor principal stress (σ_3). However, in most soil we deal with, failure of soil mass is independent of intermediate stress. In such problems two dimensional stress analyses gives acceptable results for the solution of such failure problems.

Consider the case of a soil element as in Figure 2 whose sides are principal planes i.e., only normal stresses are acting on the faces of the element. The stress components at a point on a given plane are given by

$$\sigma = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_3}{2} + \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2} \cos 2\alpha$$

$$\tau = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2} \sin 2\alpha$$

where σ and τ are normal stress and shear stress component on a plane inclined at an angle of α with the major principal plane.

The above results can be represented by drawing a circle with radius $\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}$. The

circle so drawn is known as Mohr's circle. Each point on the circumference of the circle gives two stress coordinates at that point on an inclined plane.

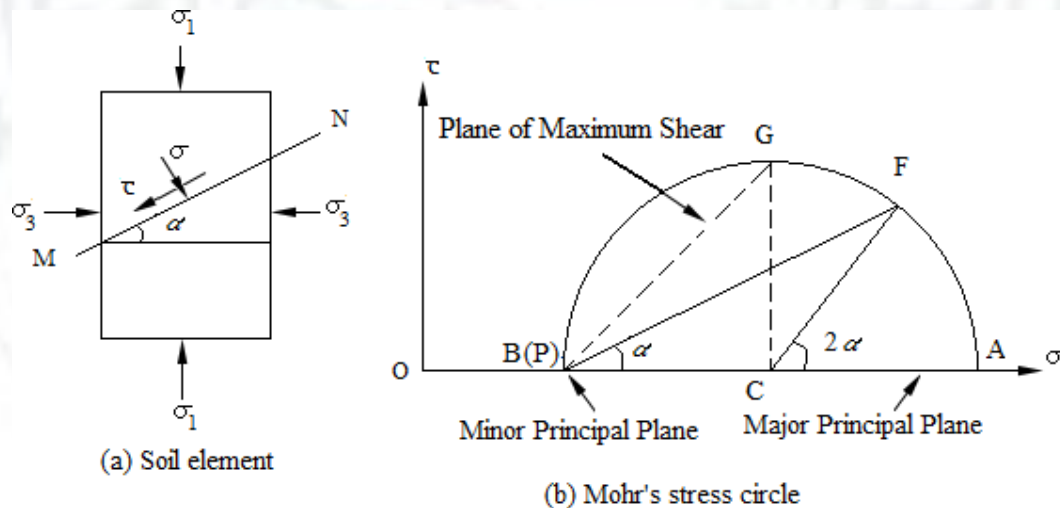


Figure 2 Mohr's stress circle

In Figure 2(a), the major principal plane is horizontal and minor principal plane is vertical. Point A in the Mohr's circle represents the major principal stress $(\sigma_1, 0)$ and B represents the minor principal stress $(\sigma_3, 0)$. To determine the stress components in

a plane through the point, a point called pole is to be located on the circle. The pole is

drawn by drawing a straight line parallel to the plane on which the stress conditions



are known. Hence, the pole P is located by drawing a horizontal line through the point A representing the major principal stress (σ_1). The pole can also be represented by drawing a vertical line through B representing minor principal plane (σ_3). To know the stress on the inclined plane, a straight line PF parallel to the plane is drawn through the pole P . The point F on the circle gives the coordinates of the stress on the plane inclined at an angle α with the direction of major principal plane. The shear stress is considered to be positive if its direction gives a clockwise moment about a point outside the wedge such as point E .

Consider another soil element as shown in Figure 3(a) in which major principal planes are not horizontal and vertical, but are inclined to y and x -directions. The corresponding Mohr's stress circle is drawn as shown in Figure 3(b). Point A represents principal major principal stress ($\sigma_1, 0$) and minor principal stress ($\sigma_3, 0$). To locate the pole, a line parallel to the major principal plane is drawn through A to intersect the circle at P . PB gives the direction of the minor principal plane. To determine the stress components on any plane MN inclined at an angle α with the major principal plane, a line making an angle of α with PA is drawn through P , to intersect the circle at F . The coordinates of point F give the stress components on the plane MN .

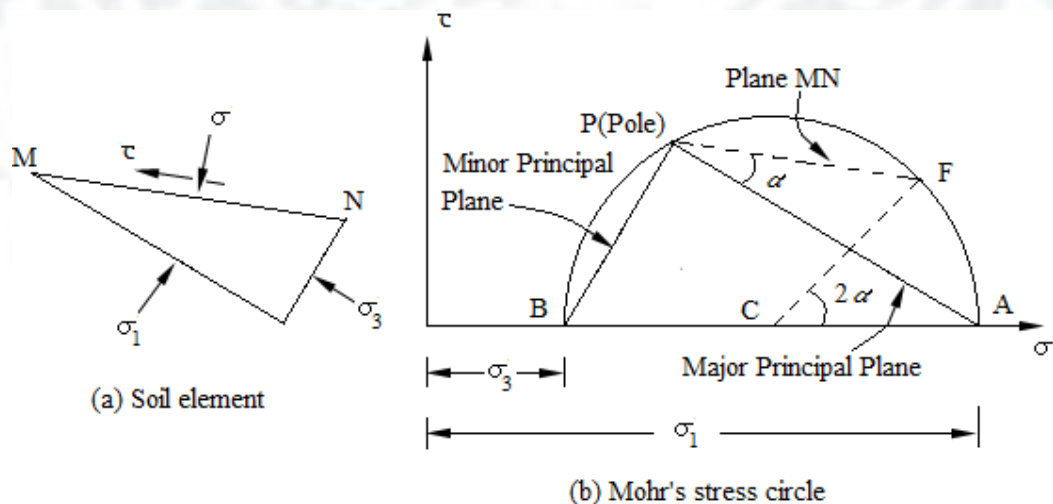


Figure 3 Mohr's stress circle

Mohr-Coulomb Theory of Failure

Various theories of failure of soil have been proposed by many soil scientists. Of these, the one proposed by Coulomb and generalised by Mohr has been the most useful for failure problems dealing with soil and hence has got wide acceptance amongst the soil scientists. This failure theory is known as Mohr-Coulomb failure theory.

According to Mohr, the failure of soil along a plane takes place when the shear stress on that plane exceeds the shear resistance of the soil. The shear resistance is a function of the normal stress on the failure plane. It is expressed as

$$\tau_f = S = f(\sigma)$$

Where $\tau_f = S$ = Shear stress at failure = Shear resistance

If the normal stress and shear stress are plotted, a curve is obtained. This curve is called the shear envelope. Coulomb assumed the relationship between τ_f and σ as linear and gave the following strength equation.

$$S = C + \sigma \tan \phi$$

For most of the cases of stability of soil, Mohr's failure can be approximated as a straight line for practical purposes and thus agrees with the above strength equation given by Coulomb.

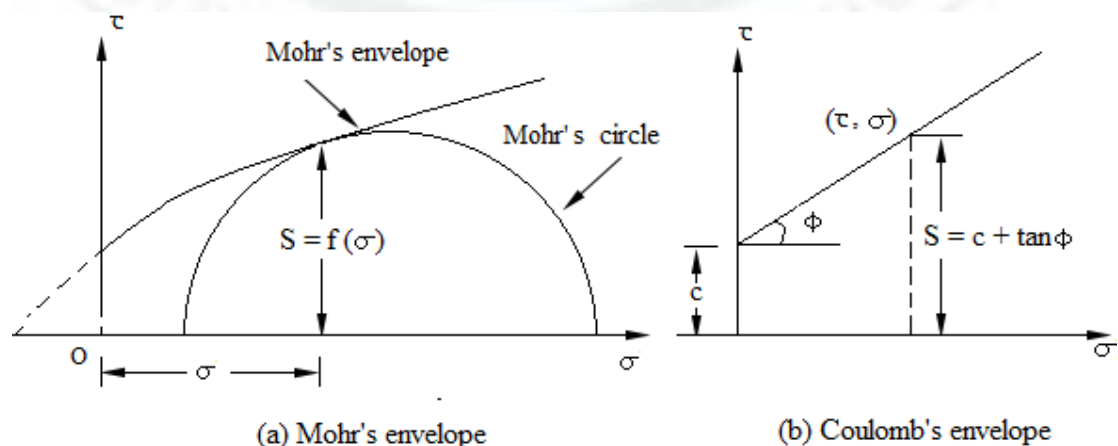


Figure4



c and ϕ in the expression $S = C + \sigma \tan \phi$ are empirical constants and are called cohesion and angle of friction or shearing resistance. In general the above constants are known as shear strength parameters.

Depending upon the nature of soil and the shear strength parameters, soils can be described as (i) cohesive soil, (ii) cohesion-less soil, and (iii) purely cohesive soil. The strength envelopes for the three cases are shown in Figure 5.

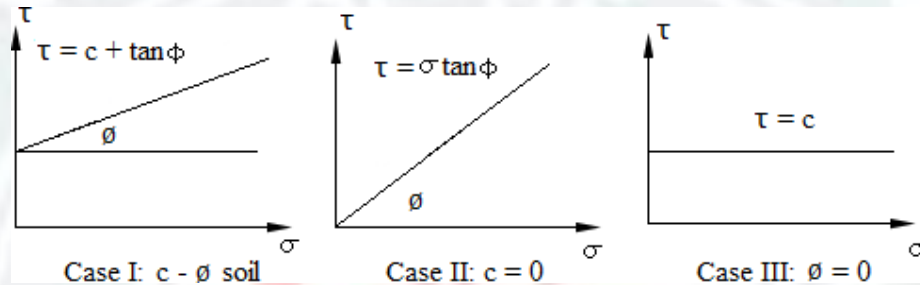


Figure 5 Strength envelopes for three types of soils

Effective stress principle

Extensive experimental studies on remoulded clays have shown that the shearing strength of soil mass is controlled by the effective stress and not by the total normal stress on the plane of shear. The values of shear parameters, i.e., cohesion and angle of shearing resistance do depend upon the pore water pressure of the soil. Therefore, the Mohr-Coulomb strength equation may be expressed in terms of effective stress.

$$\tau_f = c' + \sigma' \tan \phi'$$

Where c' and ϕ' are termed as effective shear parameters. In terms of total stresses, the equation takes the form

$$\tau_f = C_u + \sigma \tan \phi_u$$

Where C_u is the apparent cohesion and ϕ_u is the apparent angle of shearing resistance

Determination of failure plane

Failure of soil may not take place along the plane of maximum shear stress. The failure will take place along the most dangerous plane called failure plane. The failure plane is the one on which the difference between shear strength and shear stress, i.e., $(\tau_f - \tau)$ is minimum. To determine the angle of failure plane with the major principal plane, let us express the normal stress σ' and shear stress τ' on any plane inclined at an angle of α to the major principal plane.

$$\sigma' = \frac{\sigma'_1 + \sigma'_3}{2} + \frac{\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3}{2} \cos 2\alpha$$

$$\tau' = \frac{\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3}{2} \sin 2\alpha$$

The equation of shear strength is given by

$$\tau_f = C' + \sigma' \tan \phi'$$

$$= C' + \left[\frac{\sigma'_1 + \sigma'_3}{2} + \frac{\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3}{2} \cos 2\alpha \right] \tan \phi'$$

$$\text{So, } (\tau_f - \tau) = C' + \frac{\sigma'_1 + \sigma'_3}{2} \tan \phi' + \frac{\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3}{2} \cos 2\alpha \tan \phi' - \frac{\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3}{2} \sin 2\alpha$$

$$\text{For minimum value of } (\tau_f - \tau), \frac{d}{d\alpha} (\tau_f - \tau) = 0$$

Differentiating $(\tau_f - \tau)$ with respect to α

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} (\tau_f - \tau) = -(\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3) \sin 2\alpha \tan \phi' - (\sigma'_1 - \sigma'_3) \cos 2\alpha$$

$$\cos 2\alpha = -\sin 2\alpha \tan \phi'$$

$$\cot 2\alpha = \cot (90^\circ + \phi')$$

$$\alpha = \alpha_f = 45^\circ + \frac{\phi'}{2}$$

where α is the angle of failure plane with respect to major principal plane.



The above expression for location of failure plane can be directly derived from Mohr's circle shown in Figure 6. EF represents the failure envelope given by the straight line $\tau_f = C' + \sigma' \tan \phi'$. P is the pole with stress coordinates $(\sigma'_3, 0)$. The Mohr's circle is tangential to the Mohr envelope at the point F . PF represents the direction of failure plane, inclined at an angle α_f with the direction of major principal plane. From the geometry of Figure 6, we get from triangle EFK .

$$2\alpha_f = 90^\circ + \phi'$$

$$\alpha_f = 45^\circ + \frac{\phi'}{2}$$

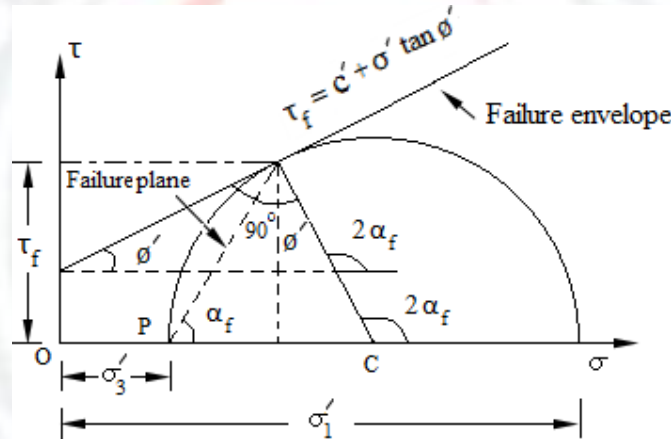


Figure 6

It may be noted that any point on the failure envelope represents two stress components σ' and τ_f at failure. And for each σ' and τ_f , there exist two values of principal effective stress on two principal planes for which failure takes place. It is evident from Figure 5 that τ_f at failure is less than the maximum shear stress,

corresponding to the point G , and acting on the plane PG . Thus the failure plane does not carry maximum shear stress, and the plane which has the maximum shear stress is not the failure plane.

Determination of shear strength parameters

Shear tests are conducted on undisturbed soil samples obtained from the field. The test results are used to plot failure envelope to determine the shear strength

parameters. It is to be noted that the shear strength parameters are fundamental properties of soil and are considered as coefficients obtained from the geometry of the strength envelope drawn by using shear test results. So, during test on saturated samples, care should be taken to simulate the field drainage condition.

Following four methods of shear tests are commonly used in the laboratory.

1. Direct shear test
2. Triaxial compression test
3. Unconfined compression test
4. Vane shear test

Based on the drainage conditions, the shear tests are classified as

1. Consolidated drained test (Drained test/Quick test)
2. Consolidated undrained test
3. Unconsolidated undrained test

1. Consolidated drained test

This is also known as drained test. In this test, drainage of water is allowed during the test. The soil sample is first consolidated fully under the normal load (in direct shear test) or the all round pressure (in triaxial test) and the shear stress is applied slowly enough for the water in the sample to drain away. This simulates the long term conditions in the life of a structure, i.e., the long term stability of earth dam. The effective stress parameters are used.

2. Consolidated undrained test

In this test, the soil is consolidated under the normal load or the all-round pressure but shearing is done rapidly so that drainage does not take place. This simulates the sudden effects during the life of a structure, e.g., sudden drawdown of upstream water level in an earth dam. The parameters used are C_u and ϕ_u . If pore pressure measurements are made then effective stress parameters can be used.

3. Unconsolidated undrained test

In this case, the normal load or the all-round pressure as well as shear stress are applied under conditions of no drainage. The soil is not consolidated and shearing

is done rapidly. Therefore, effective stresses and hence the shear strength of the soil do



not get mobilised. This simulates short term failure conditions in a structure, e.g., stability of an earth dam immediately after construction. The total stress parameters are used for these cases.

Direct shear test

The direct shear test apparatus consists of (i) shear box of square or circular section, (ii) loading yoke for applying normal force, (iii) geared jack for applying shear force, (iv) proving ring to measure shear force, and (v) strain gauges to measure horizontal displacement and vertical displacement for volume change.

The shear box consists of two halves which can slide relative to each other. The lower half is rigidly held in position with the bottom of the shear box container, which slides on rollers when pushed by a jack provided to apply shear force. The geared jack may be driven either by electric motor or by hand. The upper half of the box is butt against a proving ring. The soil sample is placed and compacted in the shear box. The sample is held in position between a pair of metal grids and porous stones or plates as shown in Figure 7. The grid plates, provided with linear slots, are placed above the top and below the bottom of the specimen. To have proper grip with the soil specimen, the linear slots in the grid plate are aligned perpendicular to the direction of the shearing force. The soil specimen is compacted in shear box by clamping together with the help of two screws provided for the purpose. However, these screws are removed before shearing force is applied. Direct shear test may be of two types. Strain controlled shear box and stress controlled shear box. The working principles of two types of shear box are explained in the following paragraphs.

In case of strain controlled shear test a normal load N is applied on the specimen by means of loading yoke and is kept constant throughout the test. The shearing strain is increased at a constant rate by pushing the lower box through the geared jack. The movement of lower part of the box is transmitted through the specimen to the upper part of the box. The proving ring attached to the upper part reads the shear force F at failure. A number of tests are conducted on identical specimens with increased normal loads and the corresponding shear force recorded. A graph is plotted between the shear force F as ordinate and the normal load N as the abscissa. The plot so obtained is known as the failure envelope.

Figure 8(b) shows the failure envelope plotted as a

function of shear stress (τ) and the normal stress (σ). The scale of both τ and σ are kept equal to measure the angle of shearing resistance (ϕ) directly from the plot.

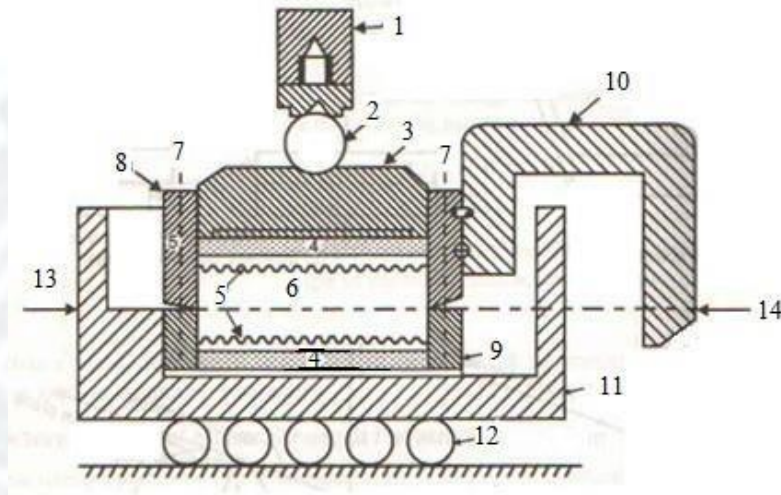


Figure 7 Shear box with accessories

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Loading yoke | 8. Upper part of shear box |
| 2. Steel ball | 9. Lower part of shear box |
| 3. Loading pad | 10. U-arm |
| 4. Porous stones | 11. Container for shear box |
| 5. Metal grids | 12. Rollers |
| 6. Soil specimen | 13. Shear force applied by jack |
| 7. Pins to fix two halves of shear box | 14. Shear resistance measured by proving ring dial gauge |

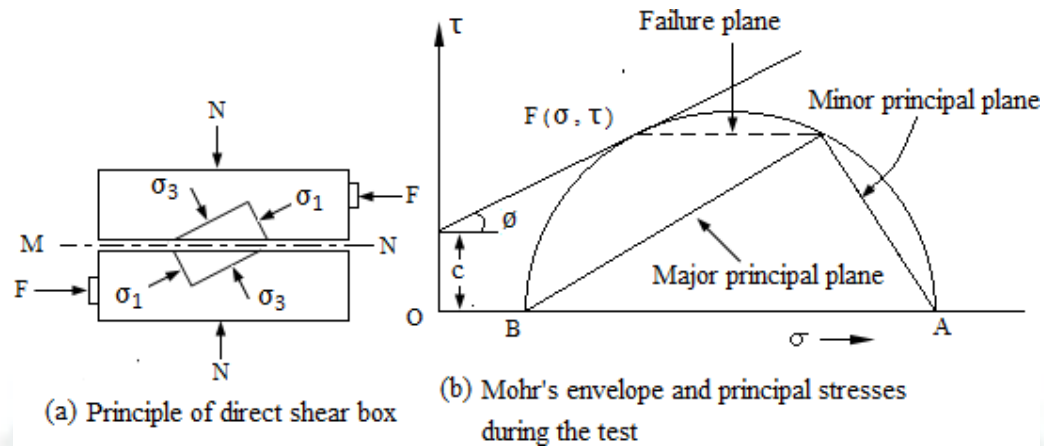


Figure 8 Shear box test

Advantages of direct shear test

1. Direct shear test is a simple test compared to the more complex triaxial test.
2. As the thickness of sample is small, it allows quick drainage and rapid dissipation of pore pressure during the test.

Disadvantages of direct shear test

1. The distribution of normal stresses and shear stresses over the potential failure plane is not uniform. The stress is more at the edges and less at the centre. Hence, progressive shear failure takes place as the shear strength is not mobilised simultaneously at all points on the failure plane.
2. The failure plane is predetermined, which may not be the weakest plane.
3. The area under shear gradually decreases as the test progresses. The corrected area at failure, A_f , should be used for computing the values of normal stress σ and shear stress τ .
4. There is little control on the drainage of pore water of soil as compared to the triaxial test.
5. The stress on account of lateral restraint due to side walls of shear box is not accounted for in the test.
6. There is no provision for measurement of pore water pressure.

Problem1.

From a direct shear test on undisturbed soil sample, following data have been obtained. Evaluate the undrained shear strength parameters. Determine shear strength, major and minor principal stresses and their planes in the case of specimen of sample subjected to a normal stress of 100 kN/m^2 .

Normal stress (kN/m^2)	70	96	114
Shear stress at failure (kN/m^2)	138	156	170

Solution.

Plot the shear stress versus normal stress to obtain the failure envelope keeping the scales same for both the stresses. From the plot in Figure 9,

The angle of shearing resistance, $\phi = 36^\circ$; cohesion, $c = 84 \text{ kN/m}^2$

The shear strength corresponding to the normal stress of 100 kN/m^2 is 160 kN/m^2 . The coordinate corresponding to $(100, 160)$ is the failure point F . Draw the Mohr's circle so that the failure envelope is tangent to the circle at F . To do so, draw FC perpendicular to the failure envelope. With C as centre and CF as radius, draw a circle so as to intersect the normal load axis at A and B . Point A corresponds to the major principal stress $\sigma_1 = 410 \text{ kN/m}^2$ and point B corresponds to the minor principal stress $\sigma_3 = 20 \text{ kN/m}^2$.

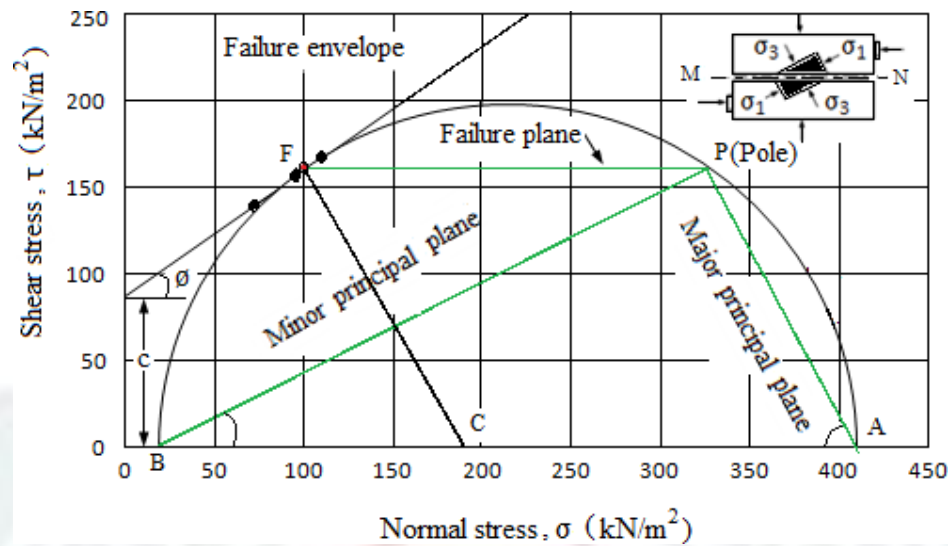


Figure9

To locate the position of the pole, draw a line FP parallel to the failure plane in the shear box (horizontal). P is the pole. PA is the direction of major principal plane which makes an angle 57° in the clockwise direction with the plane of shear. PB is the minor principal plane, making an angle of 58° in the anticlockwise direction with the plane of shearing.

Problem2.

A sample of cohesionless sand in a direct shear test fails under a shear stress of 160 kN/m^2 when the normal stress is 140 kN/m^2 . Find the angle of shearing resistance and the principal stress at failure.

Solution.

Plot the failure envelope passing through the origin and the point with coordinate $(140, 160)$ as normal stress and shear stress coordinates. The scale for both the stress axes are kept the same.

From the plot in the Figure 10,

The angle of shearing resistance, $\phi = 48.8^\circ$; cohesion, $c = 0$

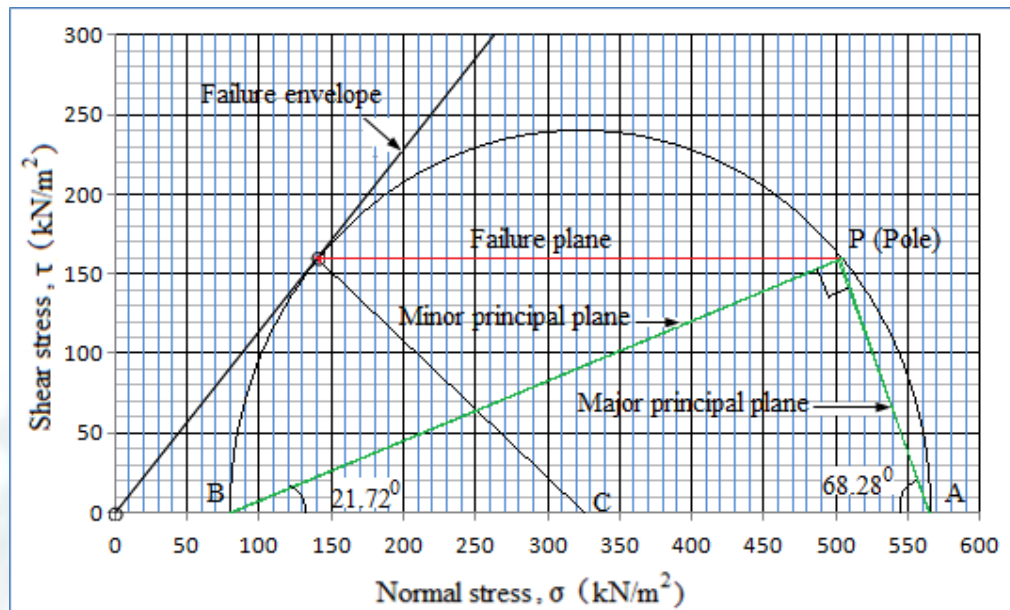


Figure10

Draw the Mohr's circles so that the failure envelope is tangent to the circle at F . To do so, draw FP perpendicular to the failure envelope. With C as centre and CF as radius, draw a circle so as to intersect the normal load axis at A and B . Point A corresponds to the major principal stress $\sigma_1 = 565.81 \text{ kN/m}^2$ and point B corresponds to the minor principal stress $\sigma_3 = 80.35 \text{ kN/m}^2$.

To locate the position of the pole, draw a line FP parallel to the failure plane in the shear box (horizontal). P is the pole. PA is the direction of major principal plane which makes an angle 68.28° in the clockwise direction with the plane of shear. PB is the minor principal plane, making an angle of 21.72° in the anticlockwise direction with the plane of shearing.

Problem3.

A cylinder of soil fails under an axial stress of 80 kN/m^2 . The failure plane makes an angle of 48° with the horizontal. Calculate the value of cohesion and the angle of internal friction of the soil. Verify by graphical method.

Solution.

As there is only axial stress, there is no lateral stress acting on the soil, i.e., it is unconfined compression failure. Hence, minor principal stress $\sigma_3 = 0$ and major principal stress $\sigma_1 = 60$.

And $\alpha = 48^\circ$

We know,

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 \tan^2 \alpha + 2c \tan \alpha$$

1 3

$$80 = 0 \tan^2 \alpha + 2c \tan 48$$

$$80 = 2c \tan 48$$

$$c = 36.02 \text{ kN/m}^2$$

Again,

$$\alpha = 45^\circ + \frac{\phi}{2}$$

$$\phi = (\alpha - 45) \times 2$$

$$\phi = (48 - 45) \times 2$$

$$\phi = 6^\circ$$

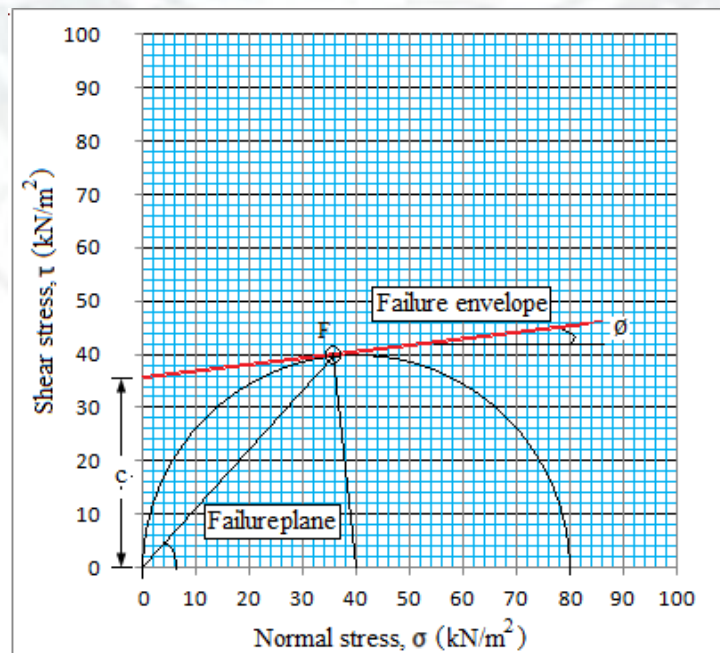


Figure11



The Mohr's stress circle is drawn with radius $\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2} = \frac{80 - 0}{2} = 40$. The circle passes

through the origin representing the minor principal stress which is also the pole. Failure plane is drawn through the pole O so as to intersect the Mohr's circle at F . Join F with the centre C of the Mohr's circle. Draw the failure envelope by drawing a tangent at F on the circle so as to intersect the y -axis. The slope $\phi = 6^\circ$ of the failure

plane is the angle of shearing resistance. The y -intercept $c = 36.02 \text{ kN/m}^2$ is the cohesion.

Triaxial compression test

Triaxial shear test is the most extensively used for computation of shear strength parameters. In this test, the specimen is compressed by applying all the three principal stresses, σ_1, σ_2 and σ_3 .

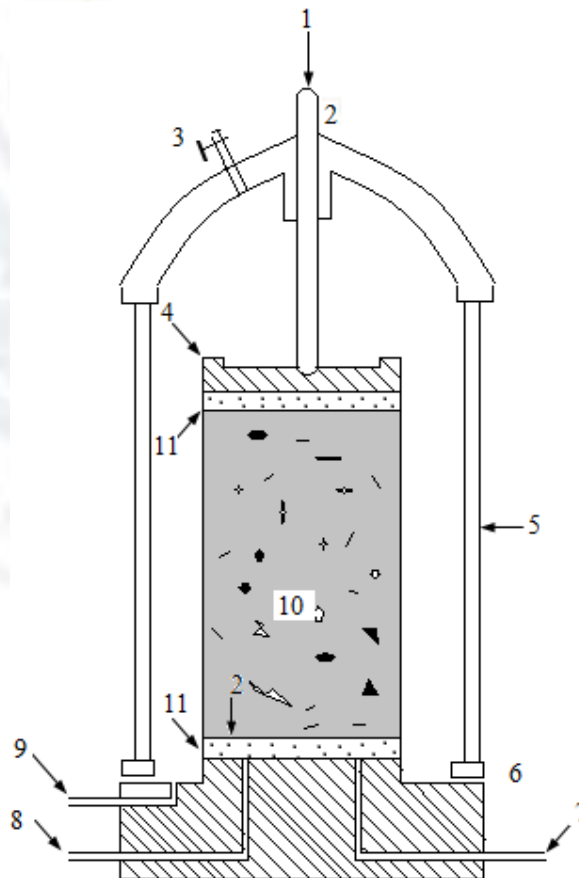


Figure12Triaxialcell



1. Axial load measured by proving ring dial gauge
2. Loading arm
3. Air release valve
4. Top cap
5. Perspex cylinder
6. Sealing ring
7. Pore water outlet
8. Additional pore water outlet
9. Cell fluid inlet
10. Soils specimen enclosed in rubber membrane
11. Porous disc

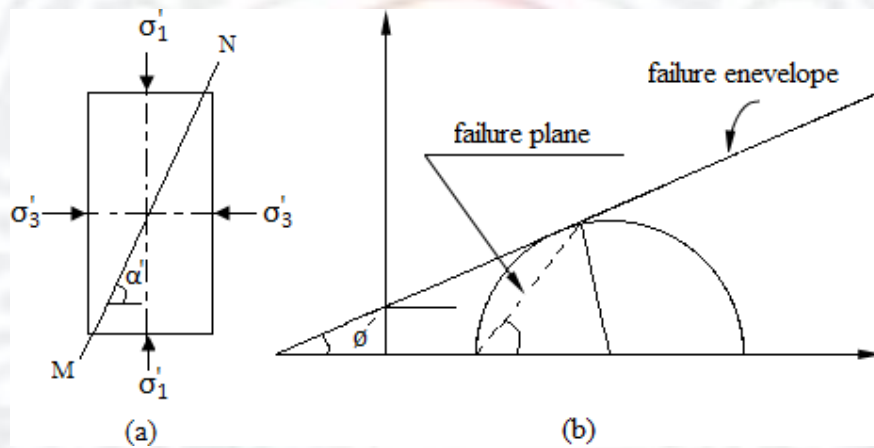
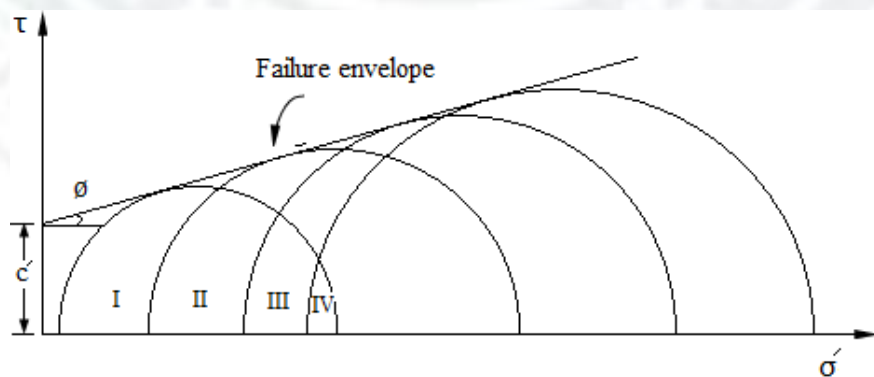


Figure 13 Stress condition and failure envelope in triaxial compression test



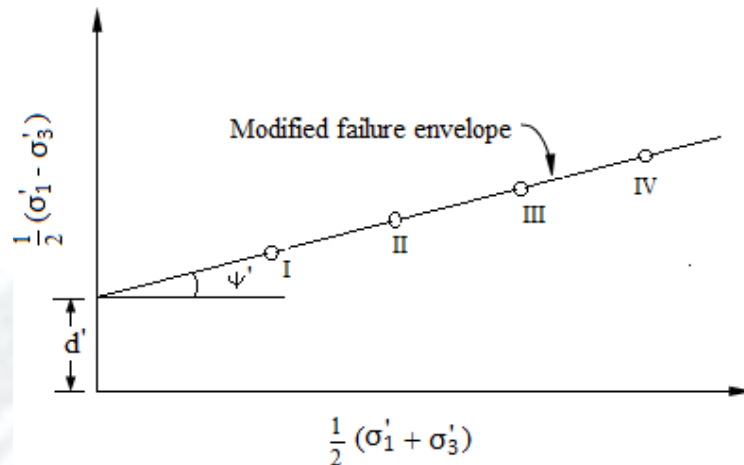


Figure 14 Failure envelopes

Advantages of triaxial compression test

Following are the advantages of triaxial compression test over the direct shear test.

1. Unlike the direct shear test in which the soil sample is forced to fail along a predetermined plane, the specimen in triaxial compression is free to fail along the weakest plane.
2. Distribution of stress is uniform along the failure plane is uniform. The shear strength is mobilized uniformly at all points on the failure plane.
3. The test procedure has complete control of the drainage conditions. The field drainage conditions are better simulated in triaxial compression test as compared to direct shear test.
4. Precise measurements of pore pressure and volume change are possible during the test.
5. The effect of end restraint does not have considerable effect on the result as failure usually occurs near the middle of the sample.

Unconfined compression test

Unconfined compression test is a special case of triaxial compression test in which no lateral or confining stress ($\sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 0$) is applied. A cylindrical soil sample of

length 2 to 2.5 times the diameter is used as test sample. The soil specimen is only to

the major principal stress σ_1 till the specimen fails due to shearing along a critical failure plane.

Figure 15 shows the simplest form of compression testing machine. It consists of a small load frame fitted with a proving ring to measure the vertical stress σ_1 applied to the soil specimen. A separate dial gauge is used to measure the deformation of the sample.

The sample is conically hollowed at its ends and placed between two conical seatings attached to two metal plates. The conical seatings reduce end restraints and prevent the tendency of the specimen to become barrel shaped. The load is applied through a calibrated spring by manually operated screw jack at the top of the machine. The test sample is compressed at a uniform rate of strain by the compression testing equipment. The axial deformation and the corresponding axial compressive force are measured. The sample may undergo brittle failure or plastic failure. In case of brittle failure, a definite maximum load is indicated by the proving ring which decreases rapidly with further increase of strain. However, no definite maximum load is indicated by the proving ring dial in case of a plastic failure. In such a case, the load corresponding to 20% strain is arbitrarily taken as the failure load. The maximum axial compressive stress resisted by the specimen before failure is called the unconfined compressive strength.

The unconfined compression test is a quick test in which no drainage is allowed. Since $\sigma_3 = 0$, the Mohr's circle passes through the origin, which is the pole. Figure 16 shows the stress conditions in a typical unconfined compression test. The equation for plastic equilibrium may be expressed as

$$\sigma_1 = 2c_u \tan \alpha = 2c_u \tan \left(45^\circ + \frac{\phi_u}{2} \right)$$

In the above equation, there are two unknowns c_u and ϕ_u , and cannot be determined by the unconfined test since a number of tests on the identical specimens give the same value of σ_1 . Hence, the unconfined compression test is generally conducted on

saturated clay for which the apparent angle of shearing resistance $\phi_u = 0$. Hence

$$\sigma_1 = 2c_u$$

The radius of the Mohr's circle is $\frac{\sigma_1}{2} = c_u$, The failure envelope is horizontal. P_f is

the failure plane, and the stresses on the failure plane are

$$\sigma = \frac{\sigma_1}{2} = \frac{q_u}{2}$$

$$\tau_f = \frac{\sigma_1}{2} = \frac{q_u}{2} = c_u$$

where q_u is the unconfined compressive strength at failure. The compressive stress

$q_u = \frac{F}{A_c}$ is calculated on the basis of changed cross-sectional area A_c at failure, which

is given by

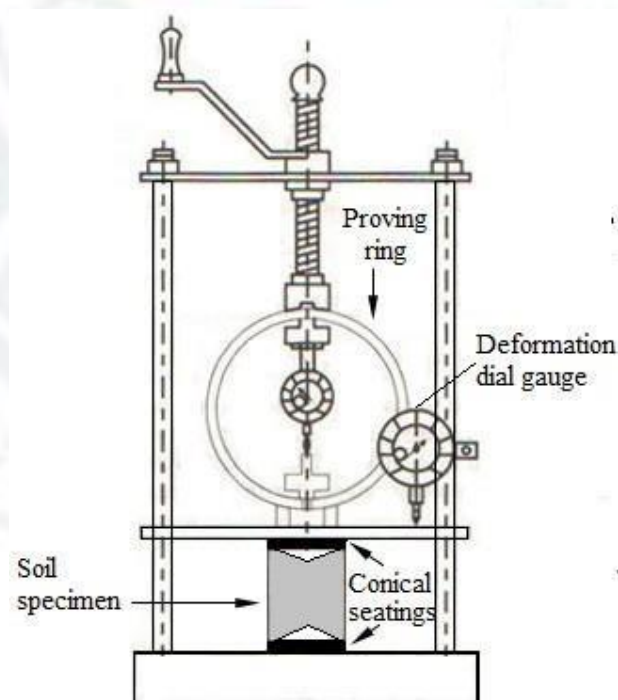


Figure 15 Unconfined Compression test setup

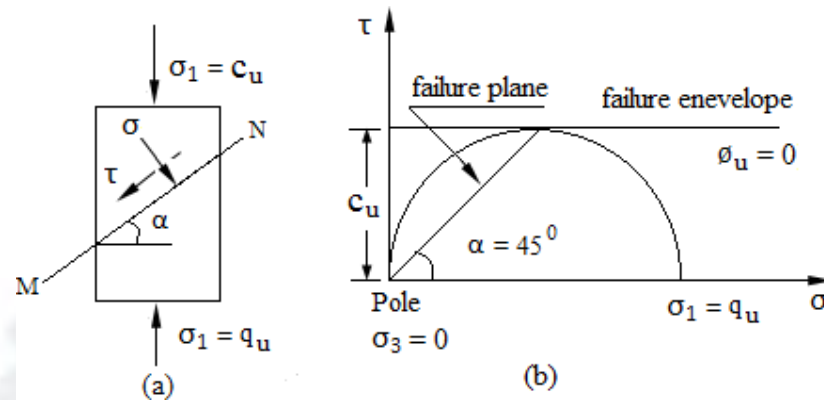


Figure 16 Unconfined compression test

$$A_c = \frac{V}{L_0 - \Delta L} = \frac{A_0}{1 - \frac{\Delta L}{L_0}}$$

$$A_c = \frac{A_0}{1 - \epsilon}$$

Where A_c = corrected area of cross section
 specimen A_0 = initial area of cross section of specimen
 L_0 = initial length of the specimen
 V = initial volume of the specimen
 ΔL = change in length at failure
 $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L_0}$ = axial strain at failure