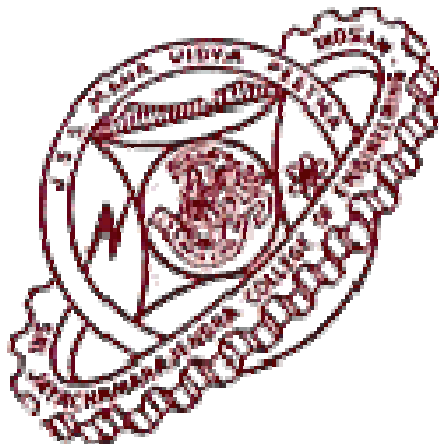


GEOTECHNIC FOR INFRASTRUCTURE



Dr. S. K. Prasad
Professor of Civil Engineering
S. J. College of Engineering
Mysore 570006
skprasad@sjce.ac.in
Cell: +91-95596-21994

This presentation includes

1. Introduction to Geotechnics
2. Case Studies of a few typical failures
3. Basic Definitions
4. Classification of soil
5. Compaction
6. Relevance of Soil exploration
7. Important geotechnical structures
8. Foundations and types
9. Ground Improvement Techniques

Introduction to Geotechnics

Soil is the most common, useful and least expensive construction material. Every structure should be built on it. Hence, it is most important for Civil Engineers.

Use of Soil in Civil Engineering Practice

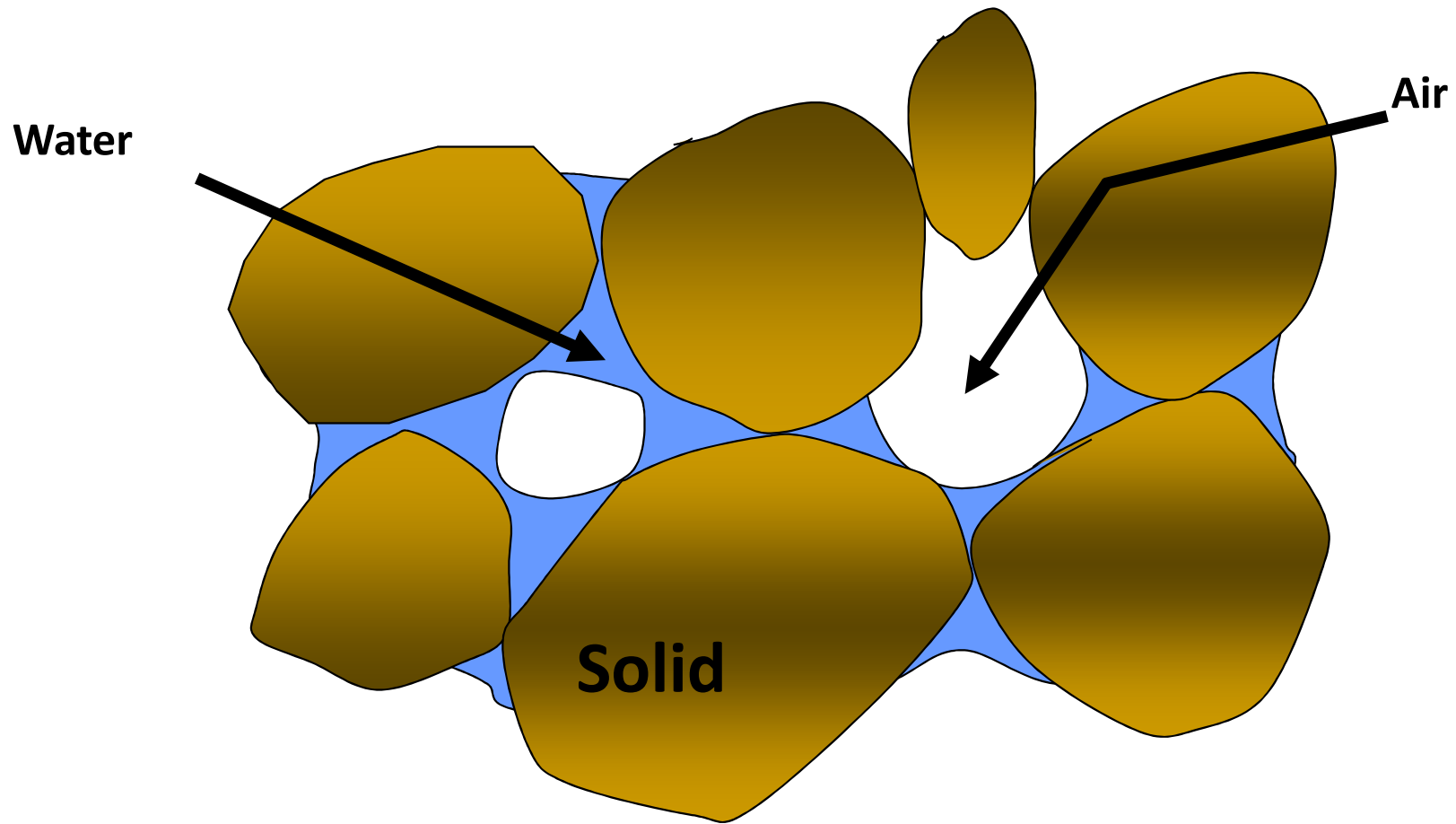
- Construction material (earth dam, embankments)
- Manufacture of bricks, tiles, earthenware
- Fill material behind retaining walls, abutments
- Foundation material
- Impermeable barrier

Treacherous Soils in India



- Marine Clay
- Alluvial Soil
- Desert Sand
- Expansive soil
- Lateritic Soil
- Loose silt

Typical Soil Mass as observed microscopically



Why soil is complex ?

Yet, Interesting

Colorful

Sensitive

Possesses Memory

Changes its properties with time

Porous

Polyphasic

Permeable

Particulate

Heterogeneous

Anisotropic

Non-Linear

Pressure Level Dependent

Strain Level Dependent

Strain Rate Dependent

Temperature Dependent

Undergoes volume change in shear

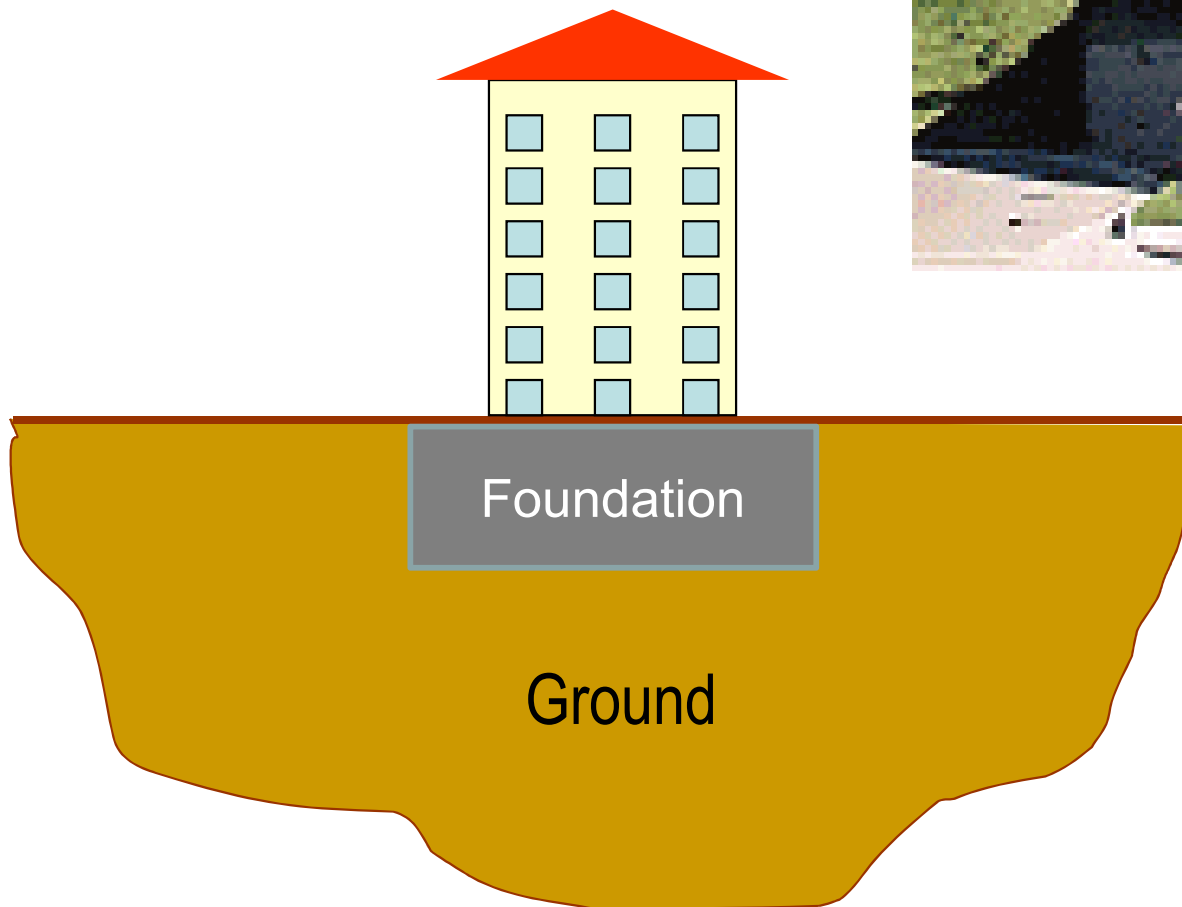


Infrastructure & Civil Engineering



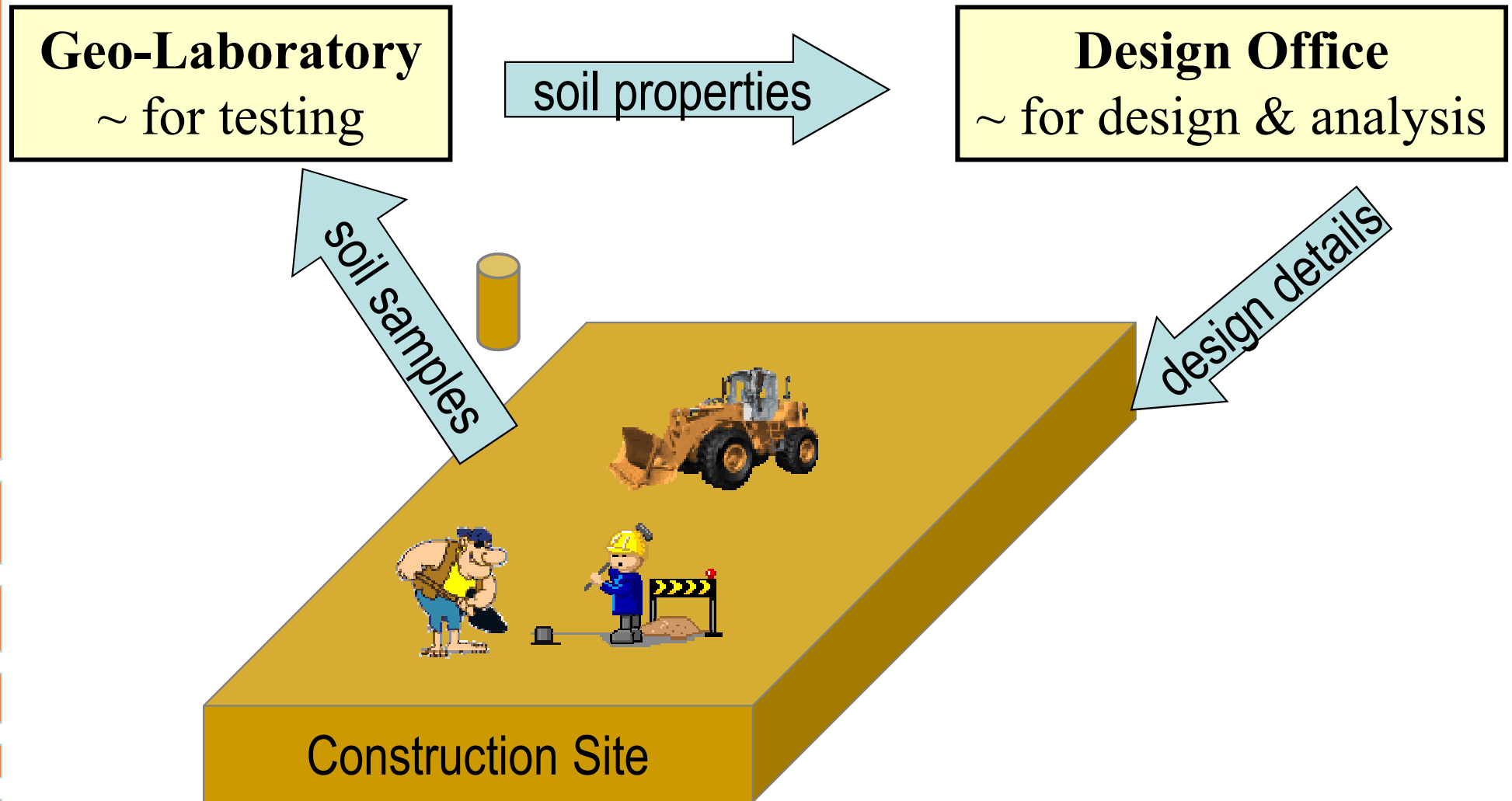
1. Name any facility, **CIVIL ENGINEERS** are the first to arrive.
2. No structure can be built in AIR (as of now).
3. **Geotechnical Engineers** are the most essential & construction begins with them.

Geotechnic for Infrastructure

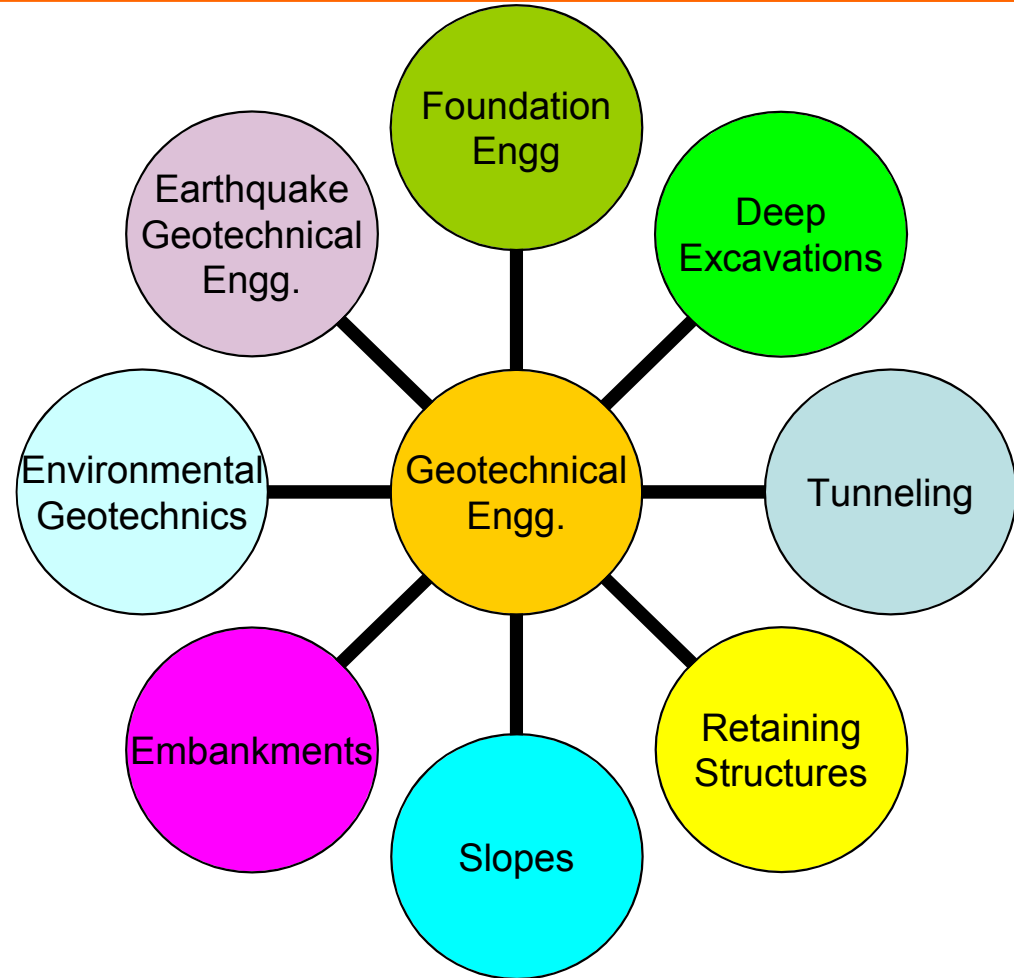


- Foundation
- Retaining Wall
- Earth / Rockfill Dam
- Embankment
- Canal
- Road
- Sloping ground
- Tunnel
- Landfill

Typical Geotechnical Project



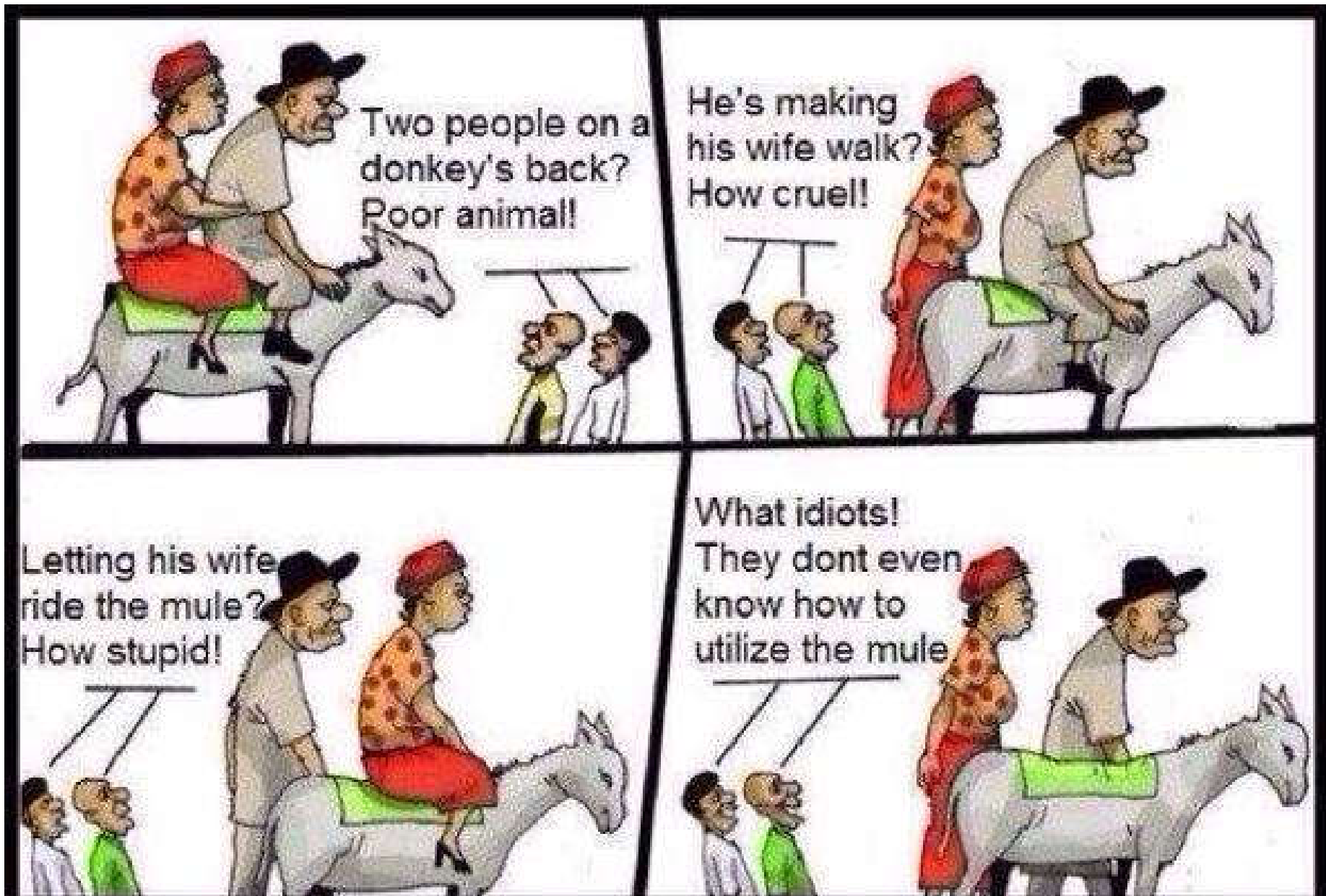
Family of Geotechnical Engineering



+

- Earth & Rockfill dams
- Ground Improvement Technique
- Reinforced Earth Structure & Geotextiles
- Soil Investigation / Exploration
- Many others

You do anything, people do not recognize, they even criticize.
Do those things which bring you pride



THIS IS OUR SOCIETY

Old crow.



Modern crow.



Keep upgrading your skills.

CV650: Applied Geotechnical Engineering Syllabus

Chapter	Title
1	STRESSES IN SOIL
2	FLOWNETS
3	LATERAL EARTH PRESSURE
4	STABILITY OF EARTH SLOPES
5	BEARING CAPACITY & SETTLEMENT
6	DEEP EXCAVATION

Self Learning component

1. Applications of GEOSTUDIO for solving geotechnical problems
2. Case studies of geotechnical failures

Expected Course Outcomes

CO	The student has the ability to
1	determine the stresses in soils using various approaches & to understand deep excavations
2	draw phreatic lines in earth dams and flownets
3	compute lateral earth pressure using different methods
4	analyse the stability of earth slopes
5	compute the bearing capacity of soils and determine foundation settlements

Continuous Internal Evaluation

EVENT	Description & Dates
1	CO5: Bearing Capacity & Settlement
2	CO3 : Lateral Earth Pressure
3	CO4: Stability of Slopes
4	General short answer question on all COs
5	CO1 & CO2 : Flownets & Stresses

Case Study 1

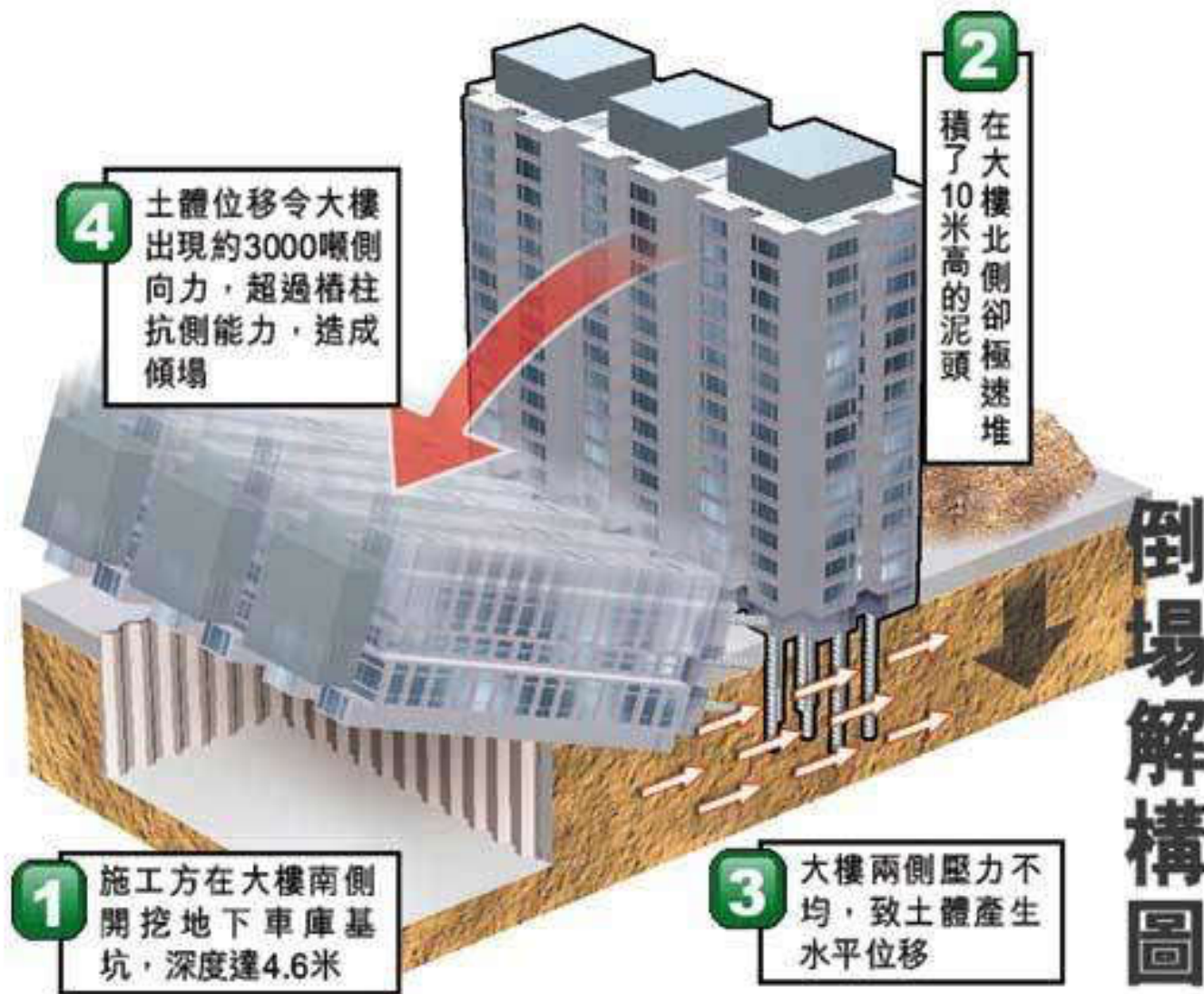
Shangai Building Collapse

Shanghai Building Collapse

- At 5:30am 27th June 2009, an unoccupied building still under construction at Lianhuanan Road in Minhang district of Shanghai toppled.
- One worker was killed.
- A 70m section of flood prevention wall in nearby Dianpu River had suffered some cracks.
- Special geological condition in water bank area may have increased vulnerability.
- But, these factors are not the basic reasons for this accident.

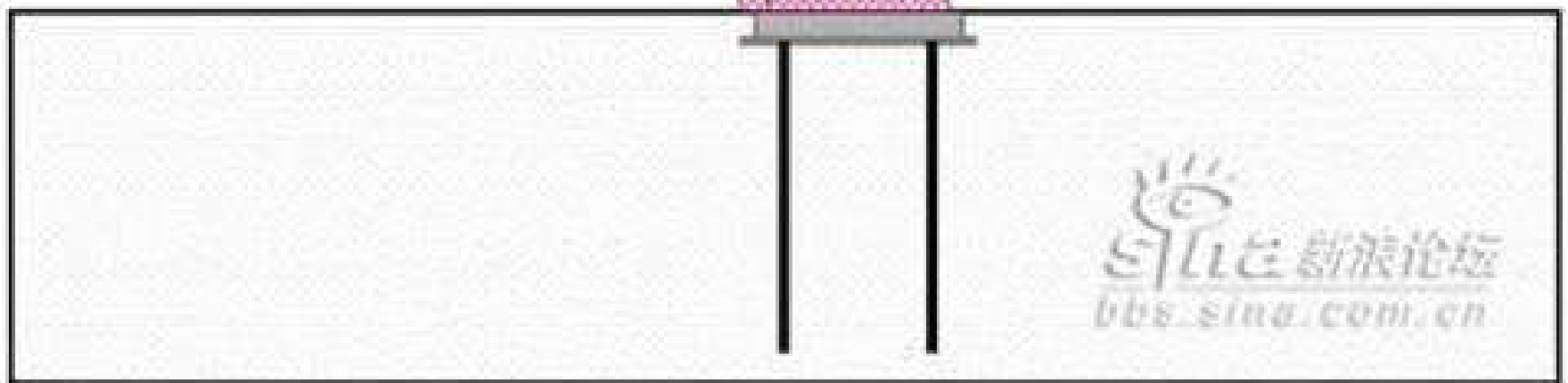
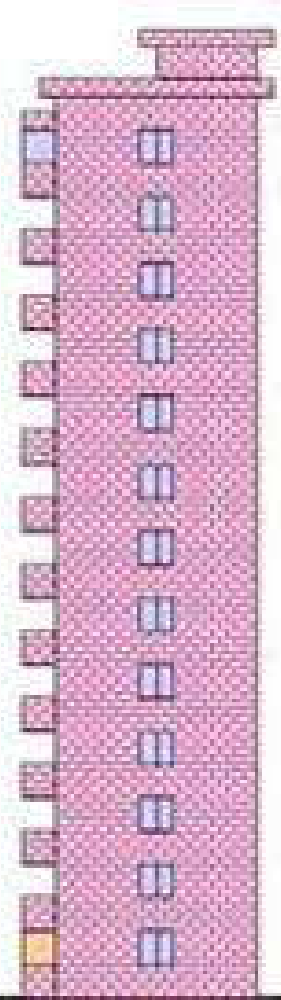


Shangai Building Collapse

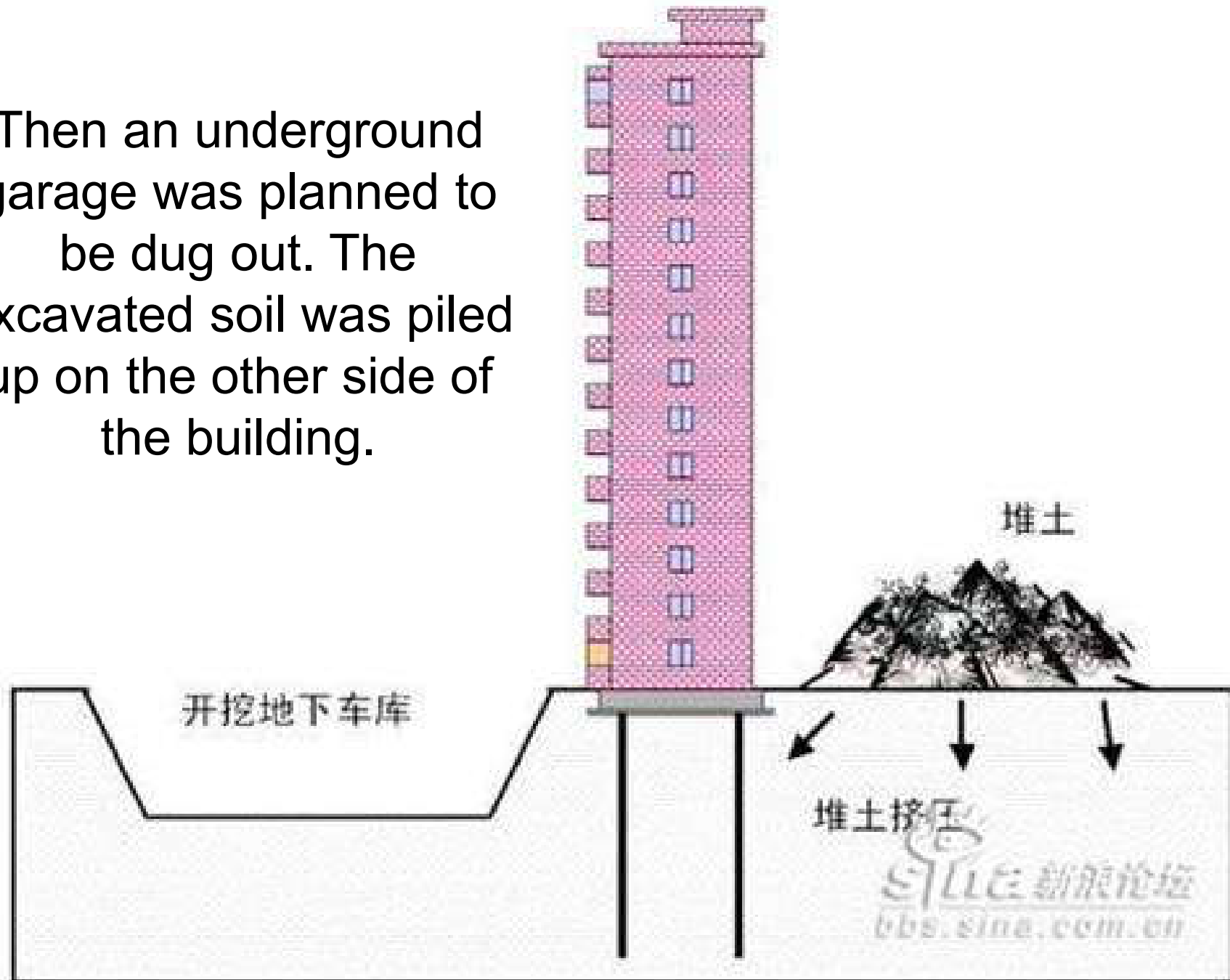


1. Underground garage was being dug on south side to a depth of 4.6 m
2. Excavated dirt was being piled up on north side to a height of 10 m
3. Building experienced uneven lateral pressure (30000 kN) from south and north greater than piles could tolerate.
4. Thus building toppled in south direction

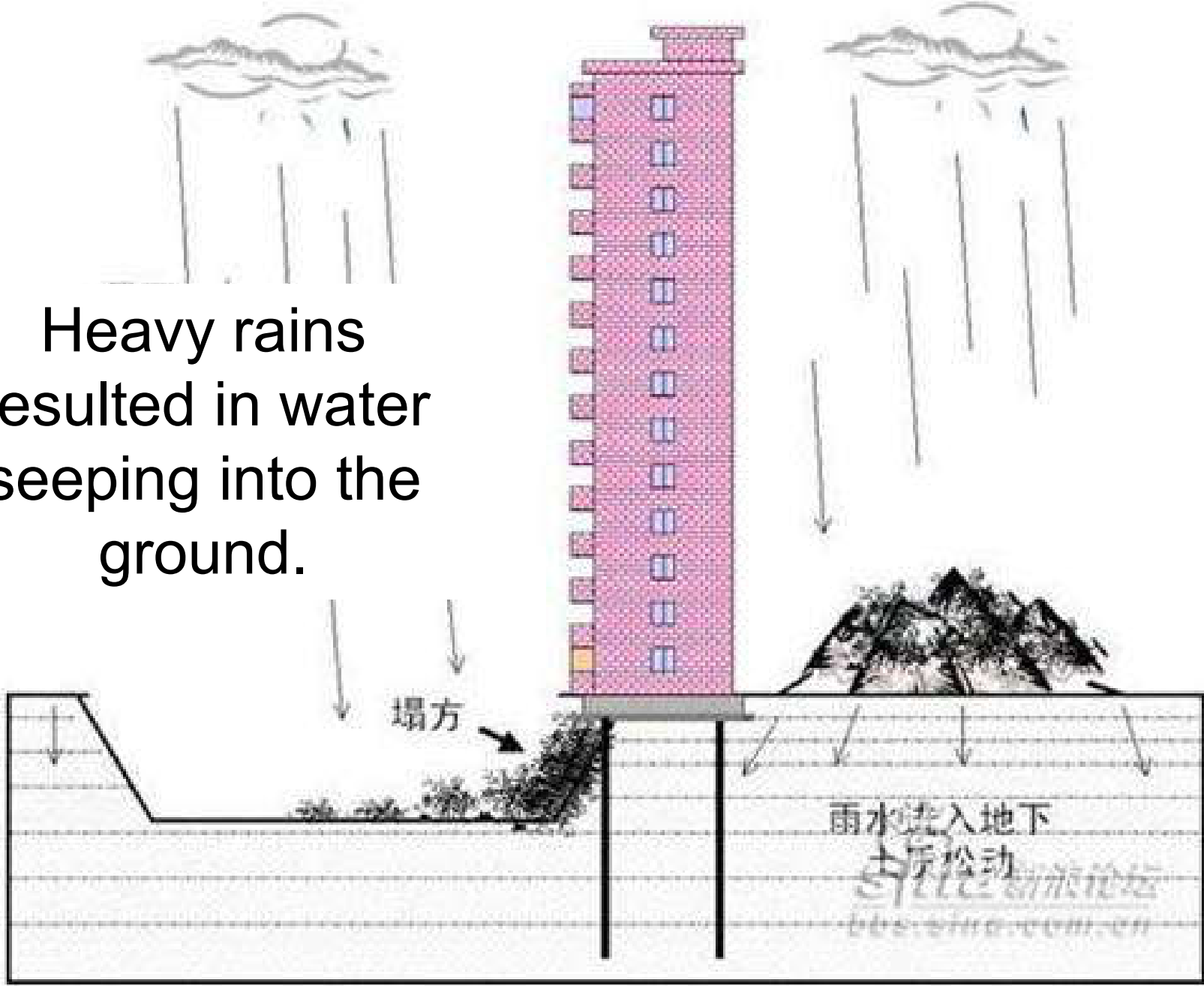
First, the
apartment
building was
constructed



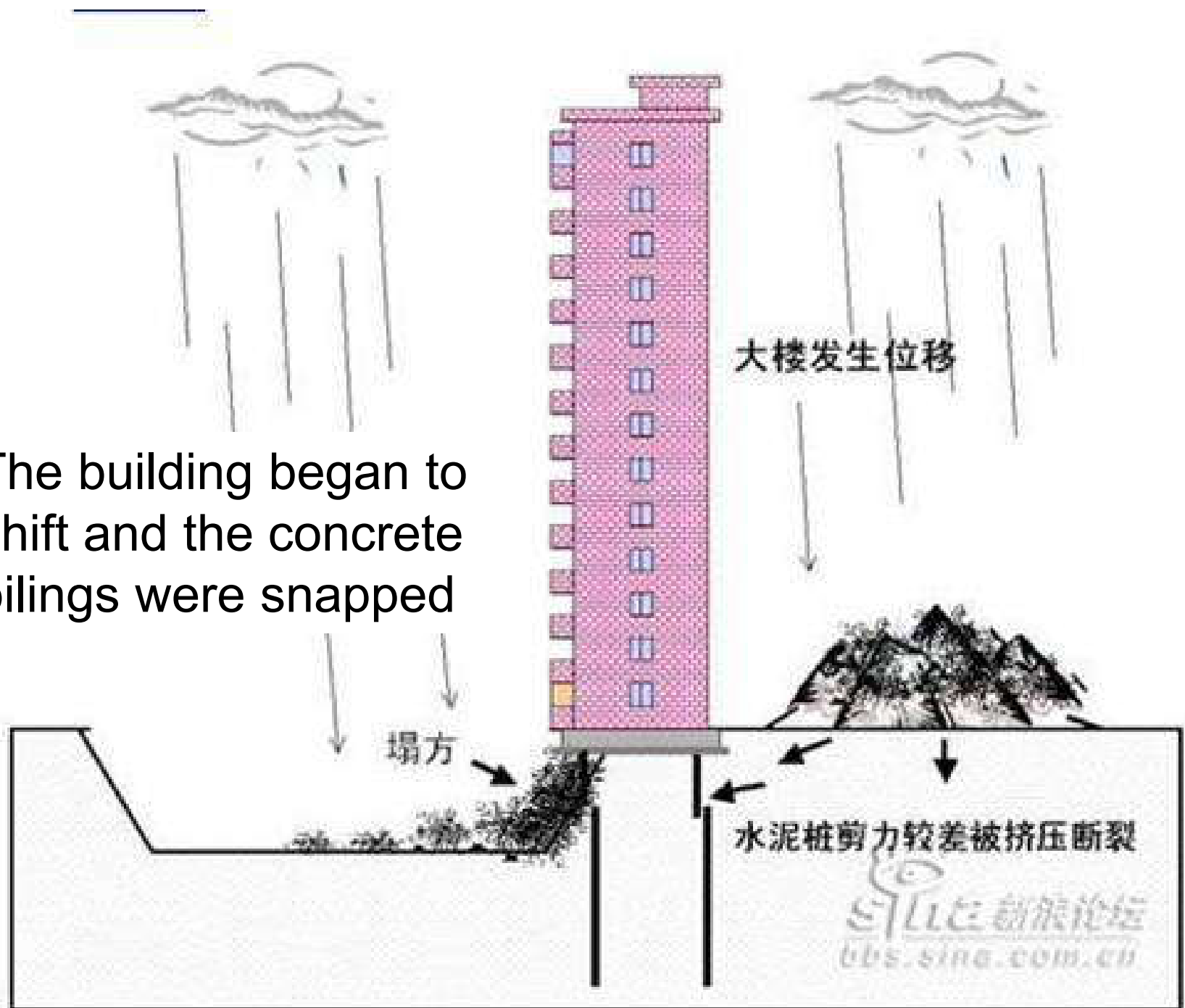
Then an underground garage was planned to be dug out. The excavated soil was piled up on the other side of the building.



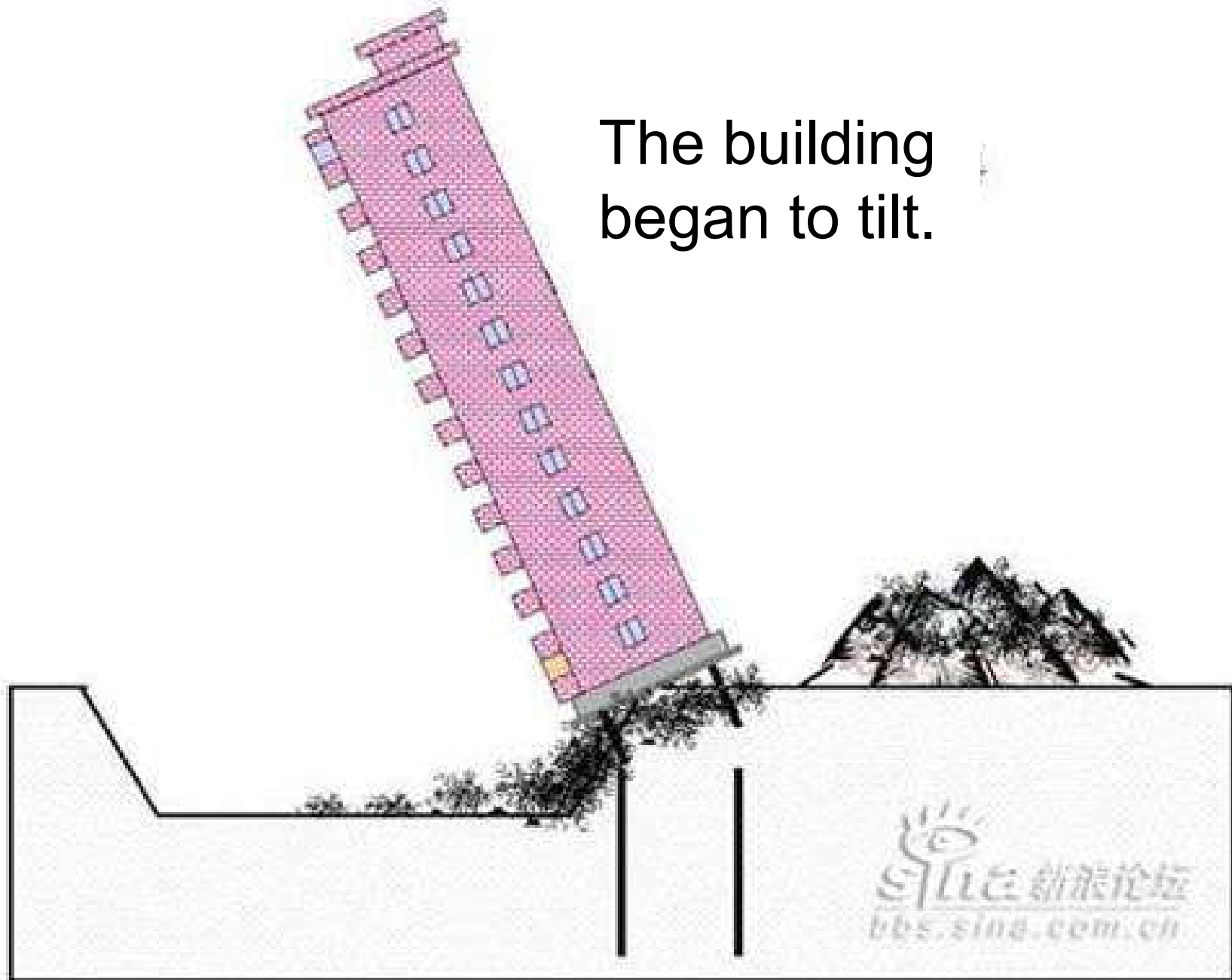
Heavy rains resulted in water seeping into the ground.



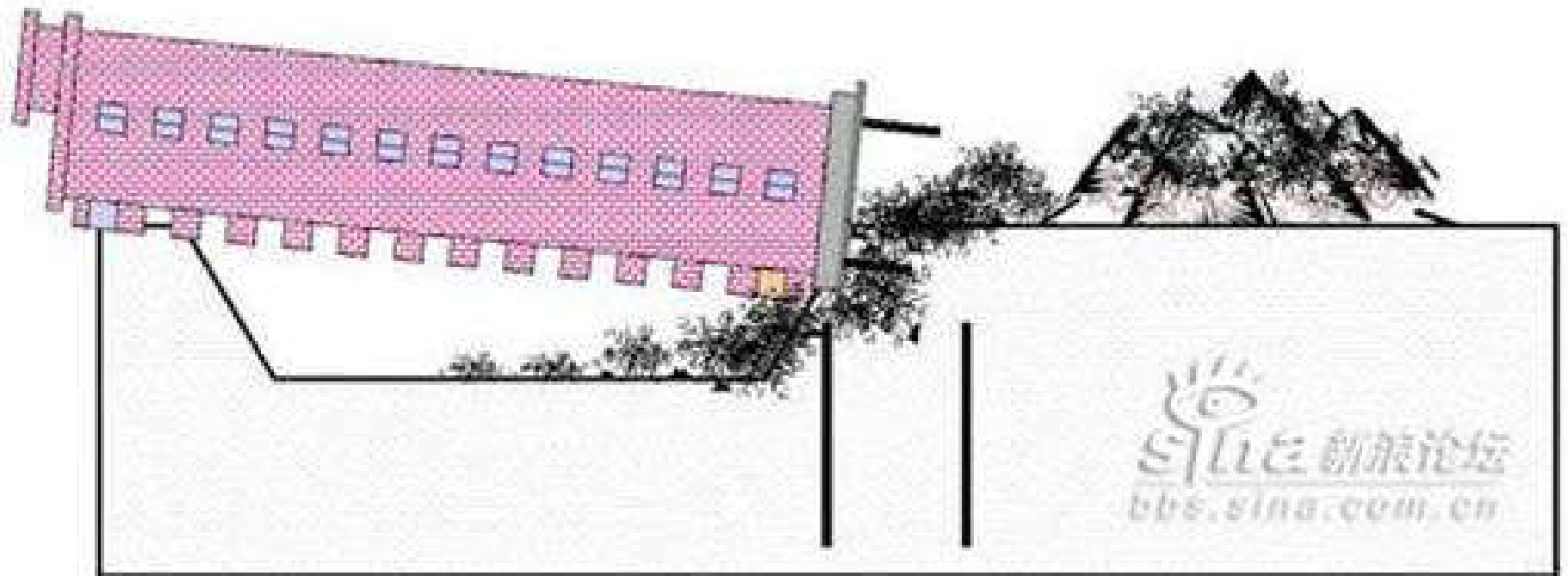
The building began to shift and the concrete pilings were snapped



The building began to tilt.



And thus came the eighth wonder of the world.











Case Study 2

Settlement of Buildings

Mexico Clay and Leaning Tower of Pisa

Is consideration of settlement important ?



**Palace of Fine Arts, Mexico
Uniform settlement**



**Leaning Tower of Pisa
Differential Settlement**

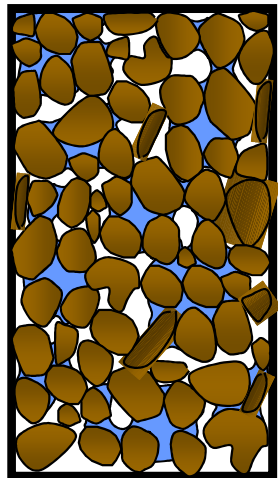
MEXICO CLAY



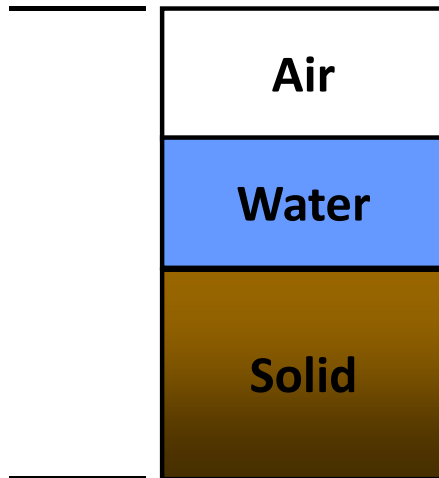
>50 m

Saturated Fat Clay

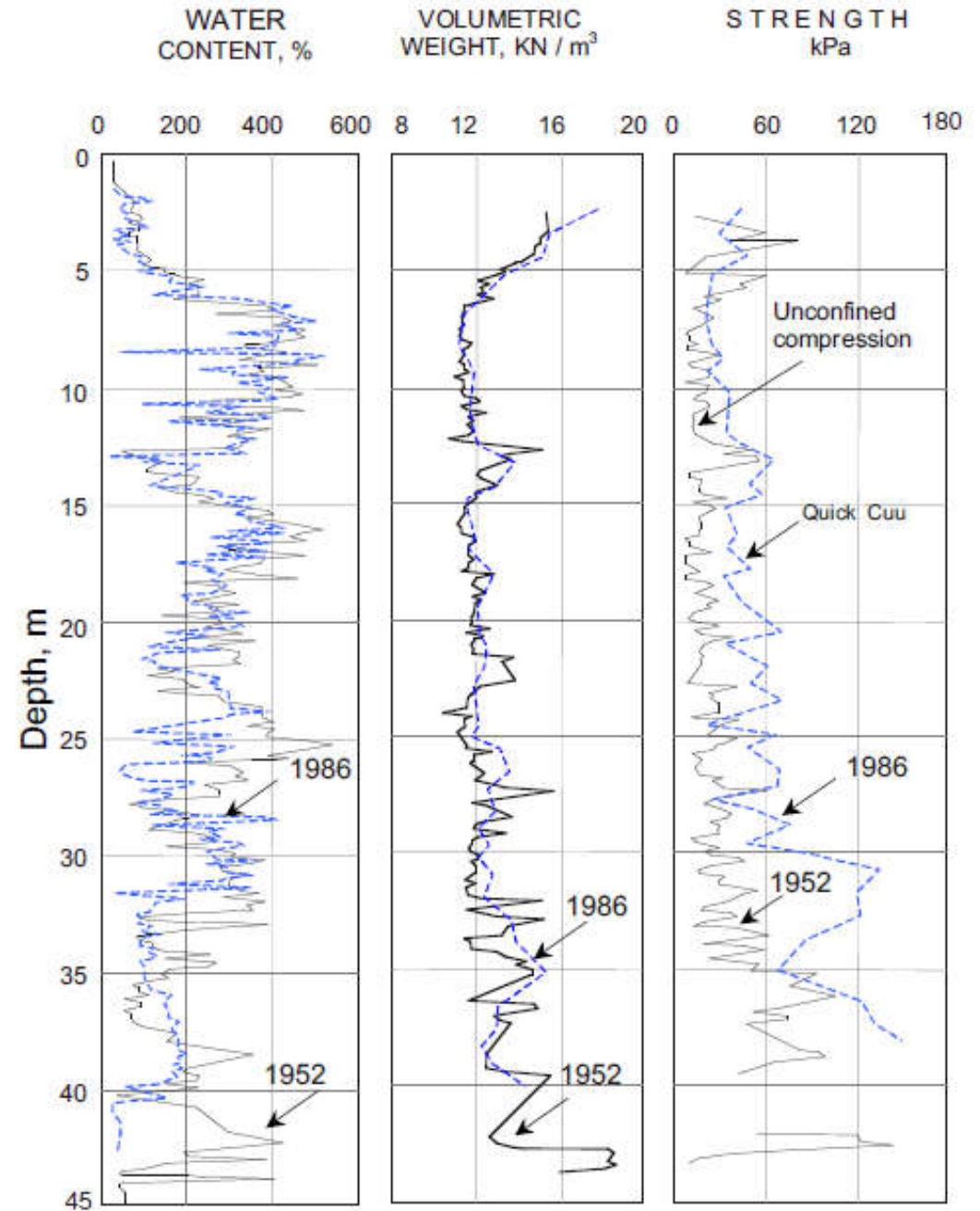
Better Soil



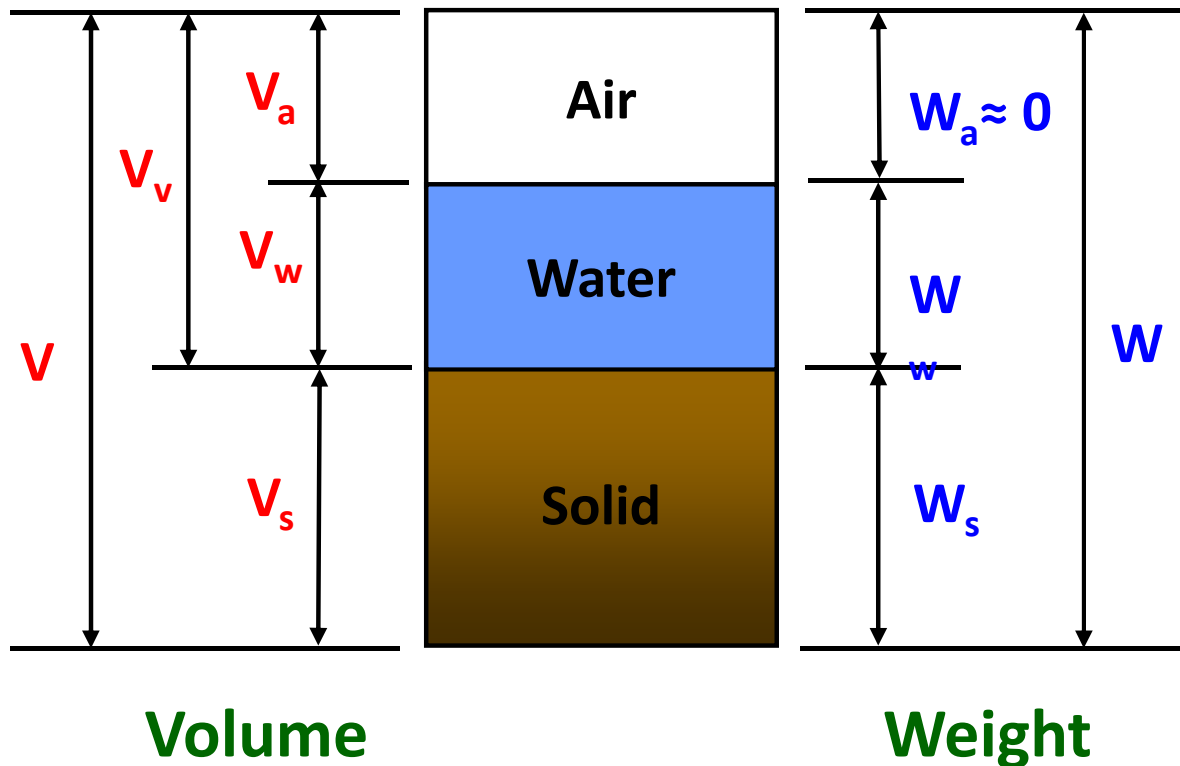
Mineral Skeleton



Idealization



Three Phase system



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

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

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

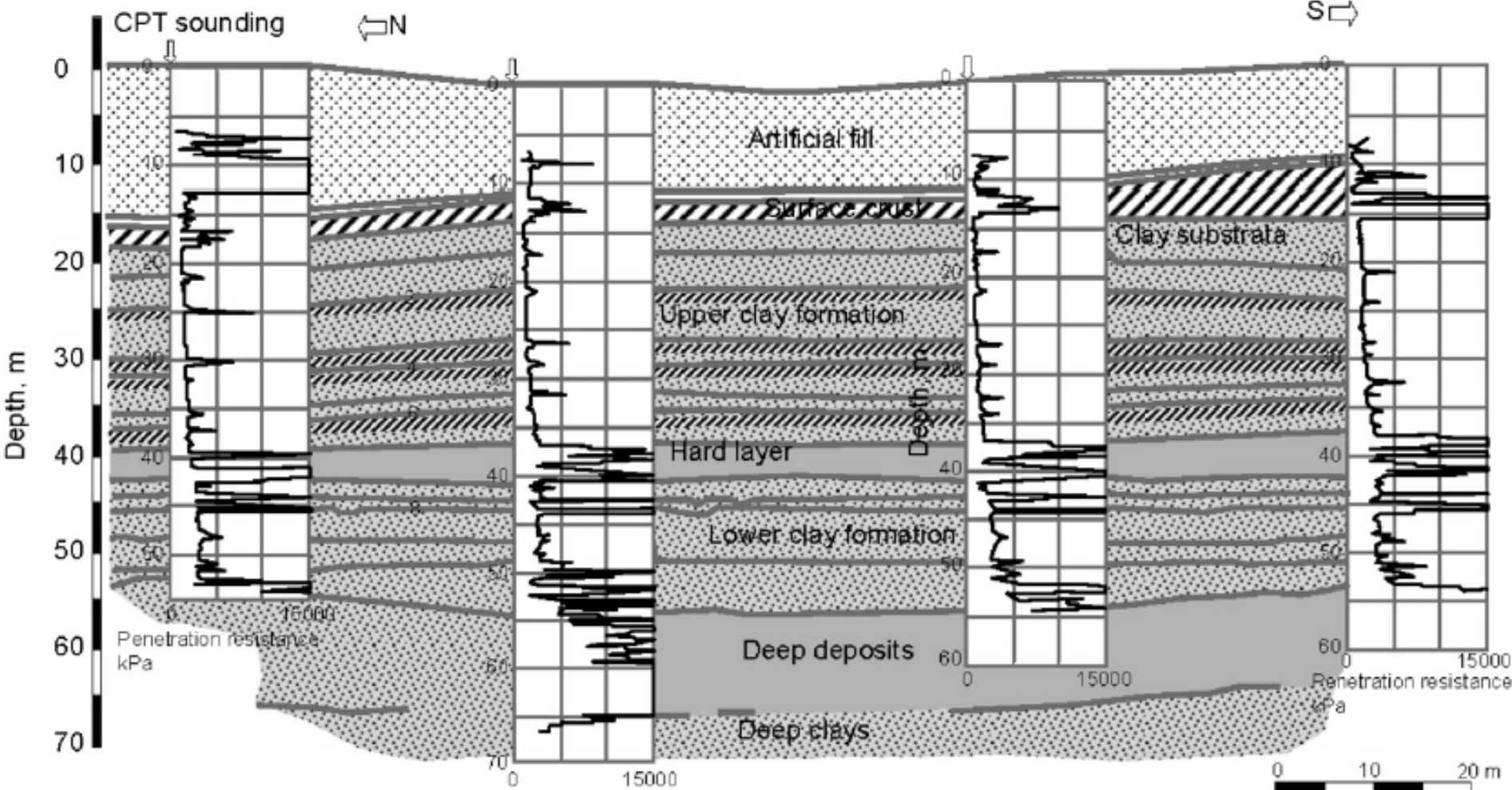
Mexico Clay

Water Content 300 to 400 %

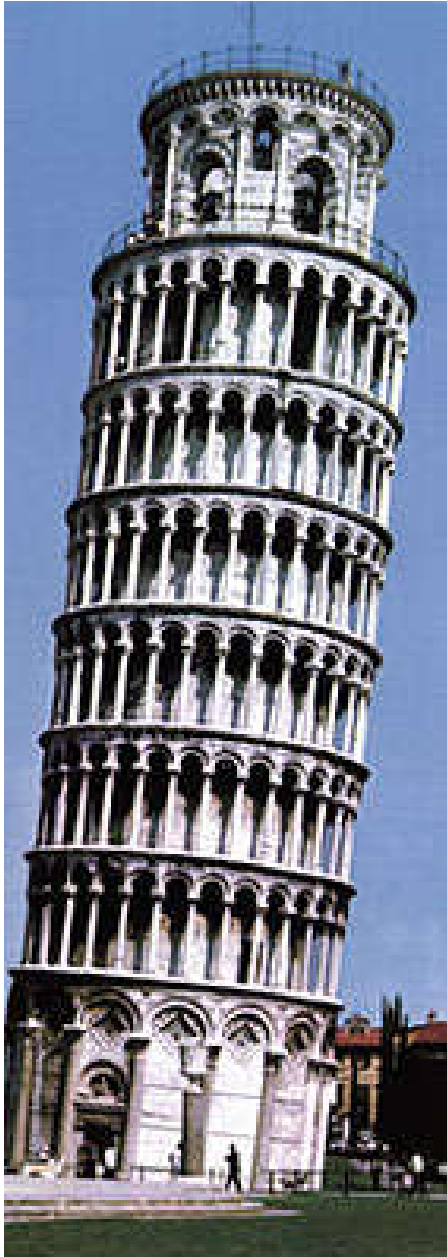
Void Ratio 10 to 15

Dry density 10 kN/m³

Mexico Soil Profile

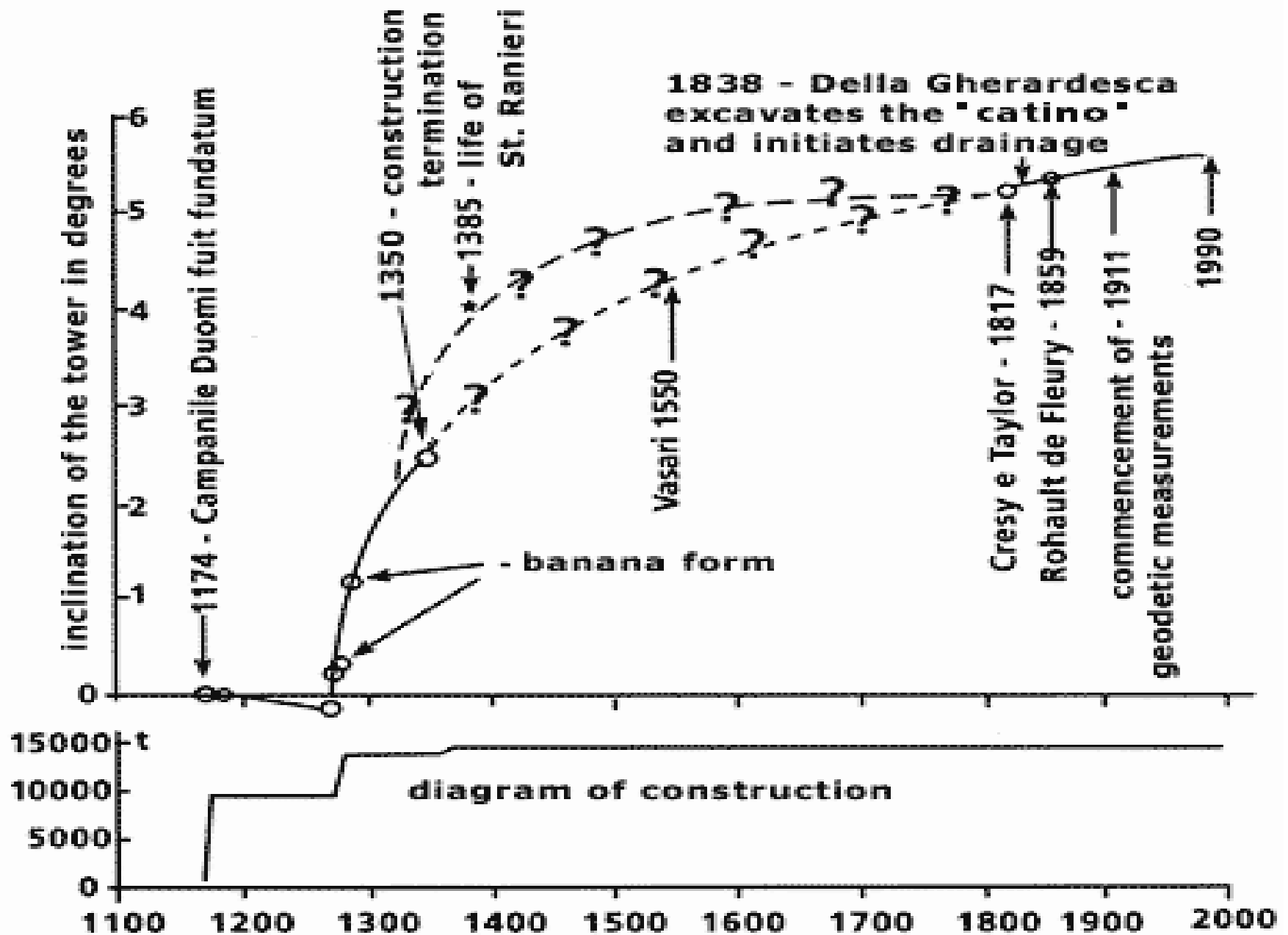


Characteristics of Pisa Tower

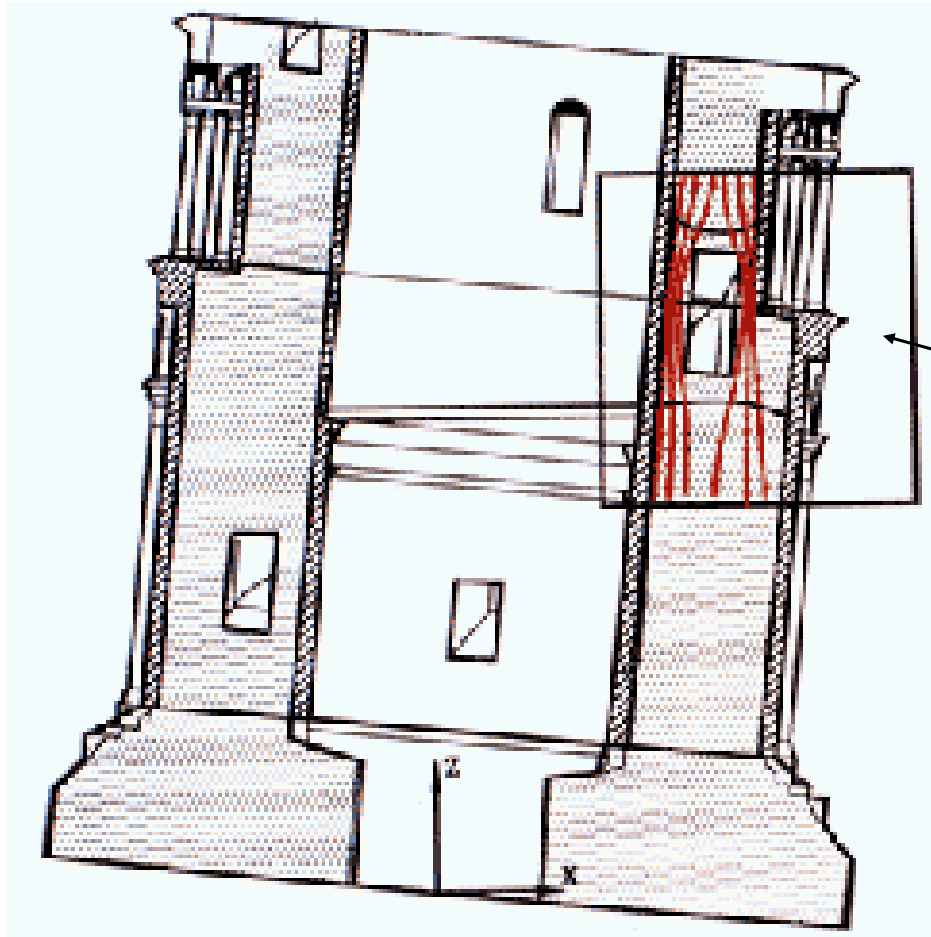


- Weight = 14,700 metric tonnes.
- Ring shaped diameter = 19.6 m.
- Thickness of wall = 4.1m, & 2.7m for all other levels.
- Inclination = $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to the south.
- 32,240 blocks (ashlars) for facing the exterior and interior of the cylindrical wall structure.
- 15 half columns at the base.
- 180 columns for base.
- 12 columns for belfry.

History of Inclination

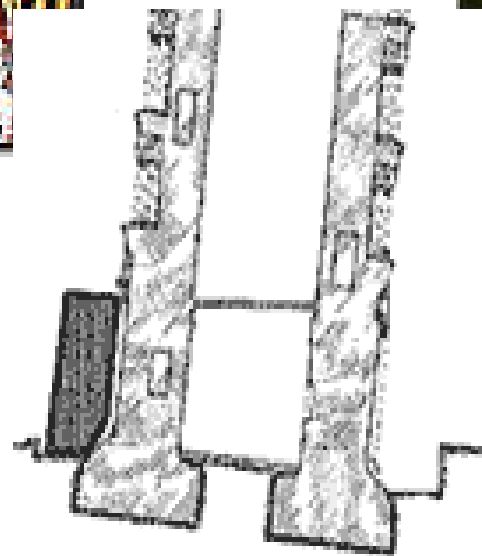


Leaning tower of Pisa



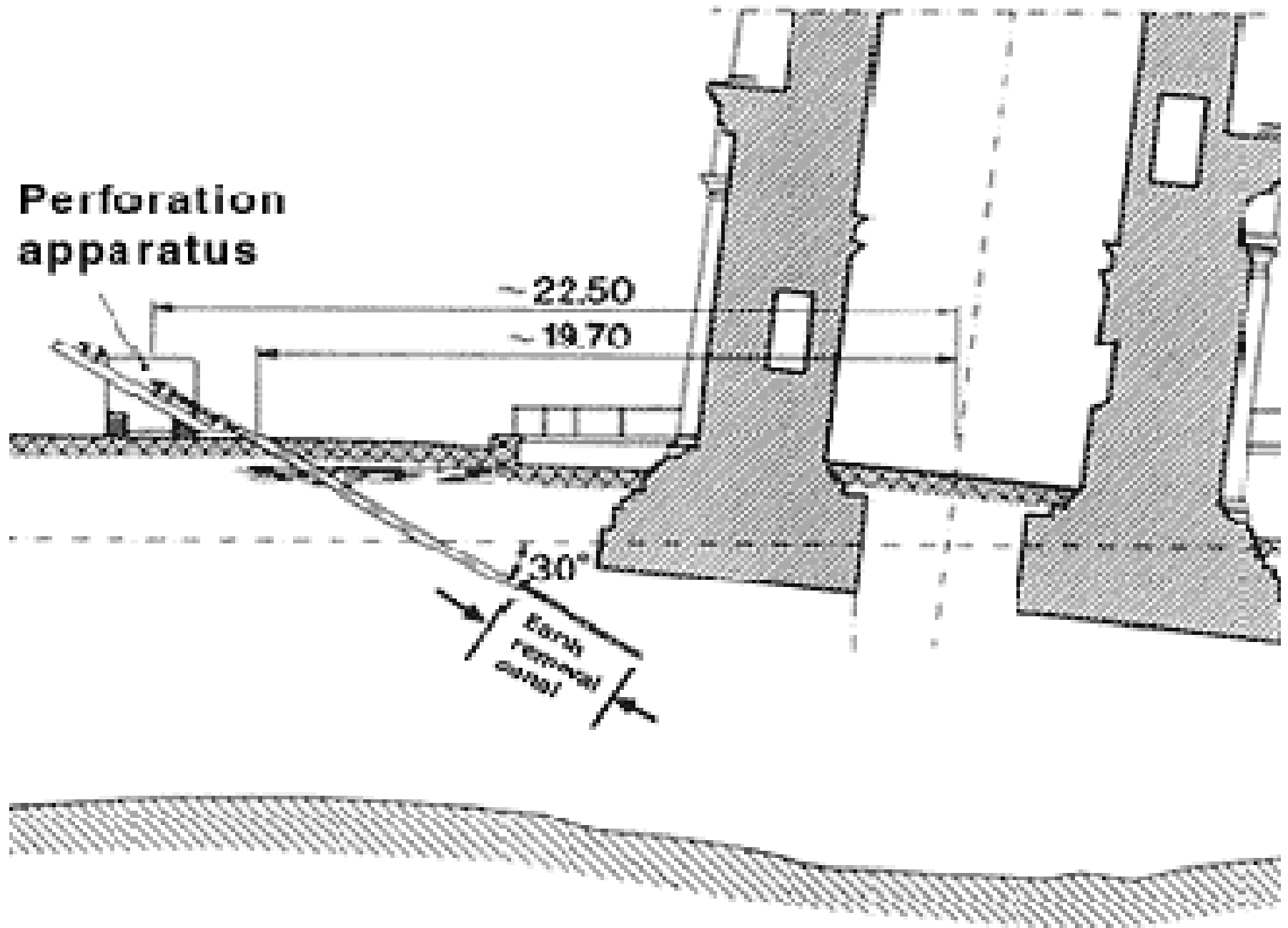
**Side of tower
where the stress
was causing the
tower walls to
collapse.**

Figure 2. Lines around stairway represent large compressive forces [image courtesy of terre.duomo.pisa.it].



750 tonnes of
lead ingot stacked
on north side

Soil removal on North side





Case Study 3

Failure of buildings of B C Soil

Vertical cracks in Masonry Wall



Diagonal Cracks in Masonry Walls & Beams



Cracks in Masonry Walls at edges & plaster coming out



Horizontal & Vertical Cracks in Masonry Walls



Cracks in Masonry Walls. More damage in wet places



Cracks in flooring and pavement



Light floor & pavement lifted up unevenly



Cracks (d)

Case Study 4

**SLOPE FAILURE SUFFERED
BENEATH BAINDUR VIRAJPET
HIGHWAY AT 29.10 km NEAR
MADIKERI**

Slope failure at the edge of the highway



2 lane highway and slope failure at the road edge



Temporary support with bamboo fencing was not sufficient to halt slope slide



Excavated and leveled platforms at the bottom of the slope seen. Valley for the drain is visible.



Another view of platform formed by a private party with valley





Observations

1. Slope is sufficiently steep, at approximately 70° to horizontal.
2. The depth of slide is about 10 m. Below this level, a small valley exists which perhaps is a drain for a small stream.
3. The road is a two lane highway with sufficient traffic.
4. The portion of terrain that suffered slide appears to be made up of fine silty soil, that can easily break if disturbed.
5. At the toe portion of slope, excavations are made and about 10 m wide platform is made.

Observations

6. Near the failed slope portion, slope appears to be bald with no vegetation.
7. There appears to be no influence of ground water.
8. Drainage for run off water during rainy season appears to be improper.
9. The slide appears to be surface slide and planar.
10. Frequent rains of sever intensity occurs in the region with an annual rainfall of over 4000 mm.
11. Length of failure is about 40 m. Failure culminated at the rock face.
12. It is at an altitude of around 1650 m above mean sea level.

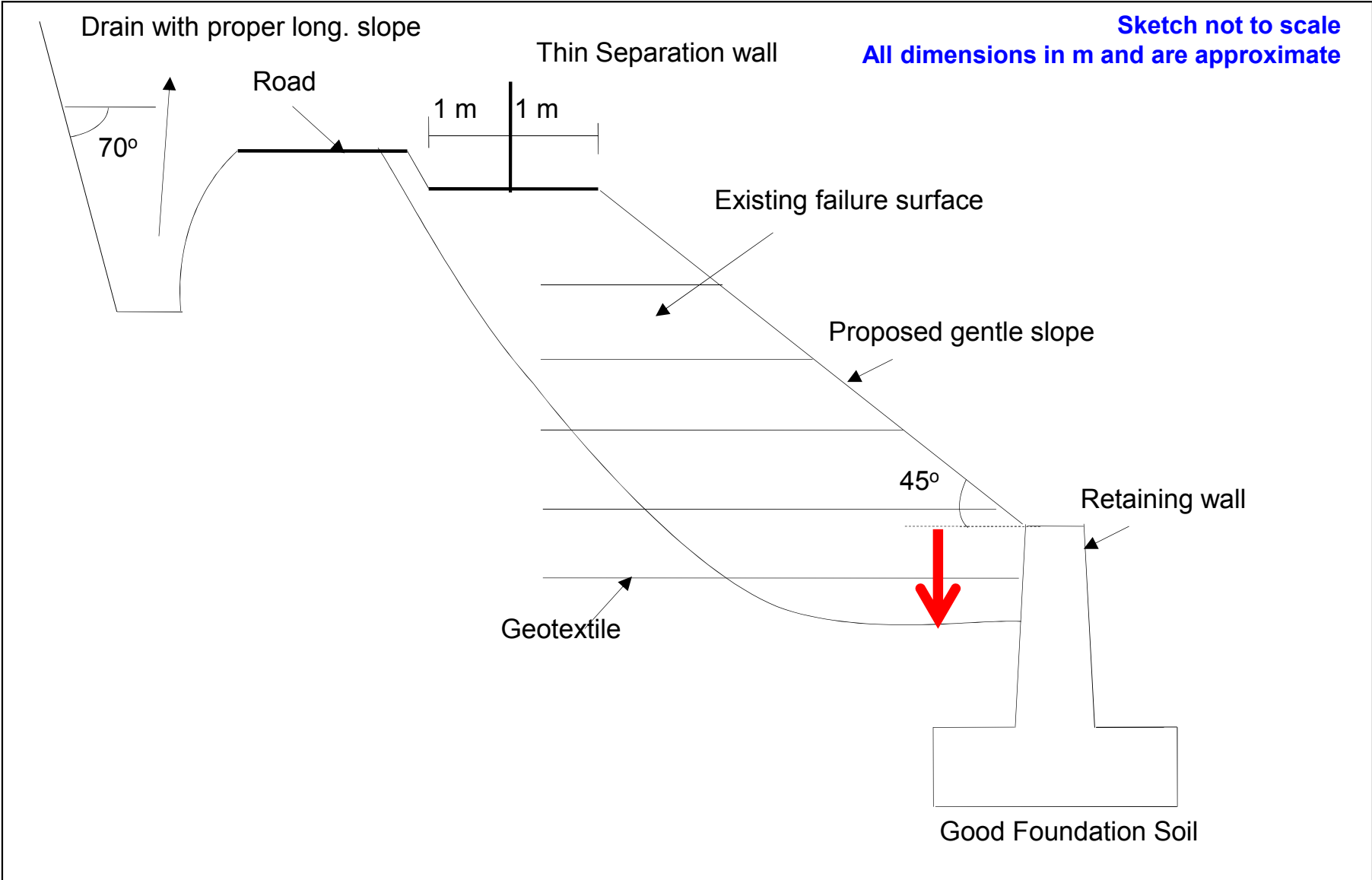
Recommendations

1. Steepness of the slope should be reduced. For this purpose at the toe end, a small retaining wall should be built after ascertaining that the foundation soil is adequately capable and a slope less than 45° should be made, if possible using geotextile.
2. The shoulder beyond the road at the distressed portion shall be at least 2 m and care should be taken to avoid vehicles going near the edge.

Recommendations

3. Longitudinal drains on the cutting side should be repaired and improved.
4. For filling up the slope, murrum type of soil with sufficient quantity of granular material should be used.
5. Toe portion needs to be stabilized.
6. Provision should be made to grow vegetation along the slope at a later time.

Recommendations



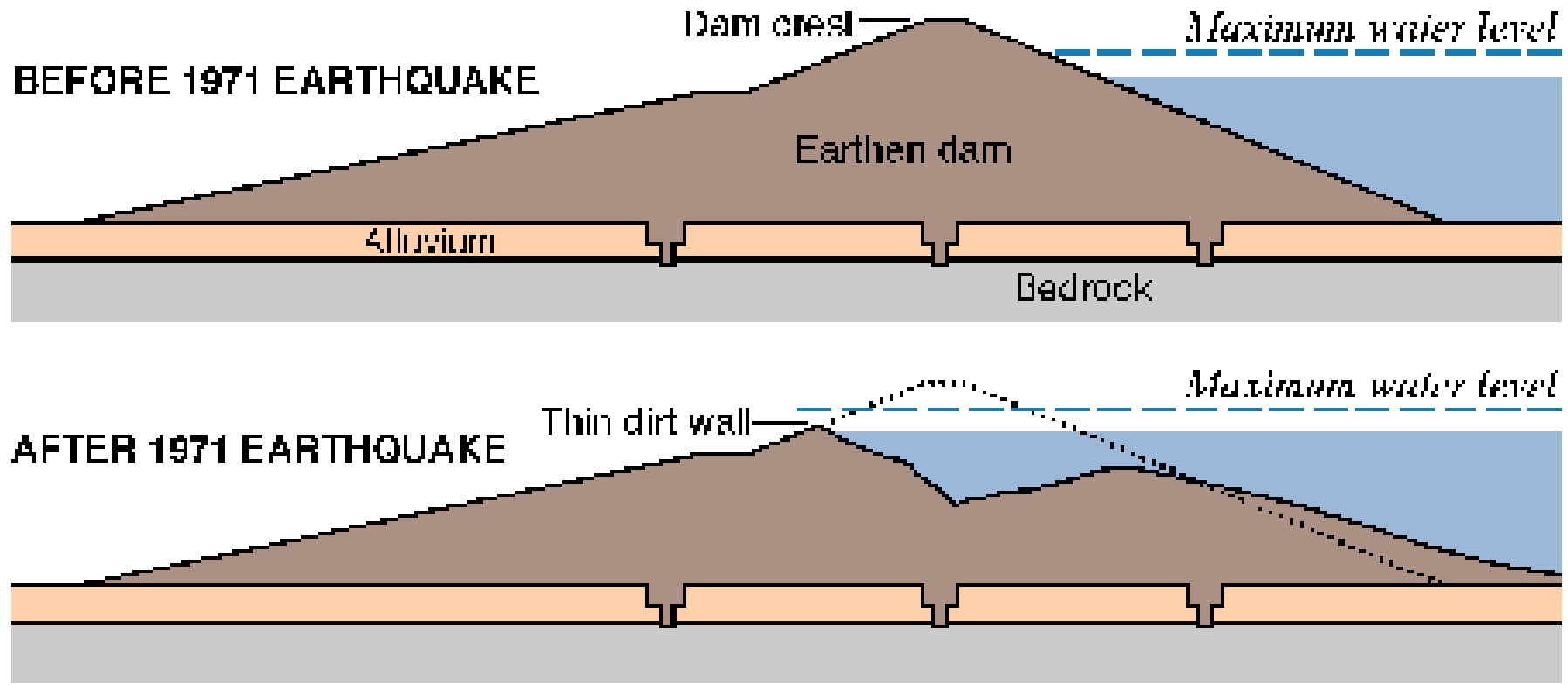
Case Study 5

Failure of Lower San Fernando Dam

Lower San Fernando Dam failure (1971) Breach due to liquefaction of subsoil



Lower San Fernando Dam failure (1971)



Lower San Fernando Dam failure (1971)



H. B. Seed

Road Embankment failure due to heavy rains



Bhuj earthquake (2001) Earth Dam failure



Hyogo Ken Nambu Earthquake, Japan January 17, 1995



Case Study 6

TRANS TOKYO BAY HIGHWAY

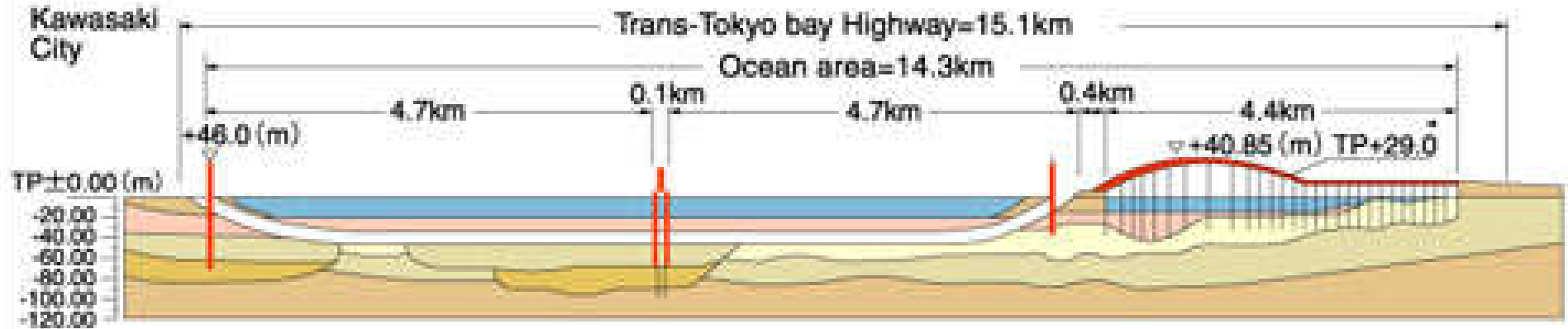
TRANS TOKYO BAY HIGHWAY



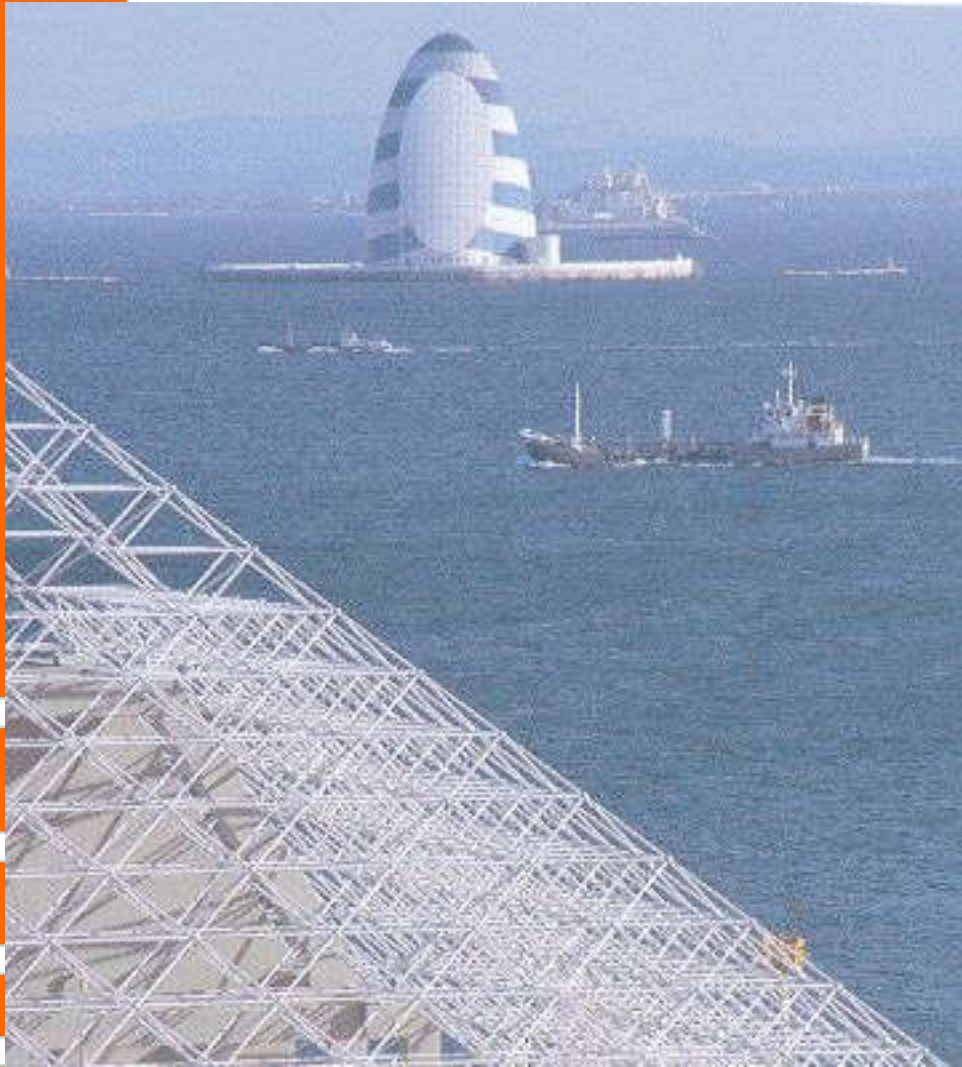
Plan



Profile



Trans-Tokyo Bay Highway



15.1 km-long toll highway

Brief history

May 1971:

Technical investigation started.

May 1983:

Japanese Government approved the construction.

October 1986:

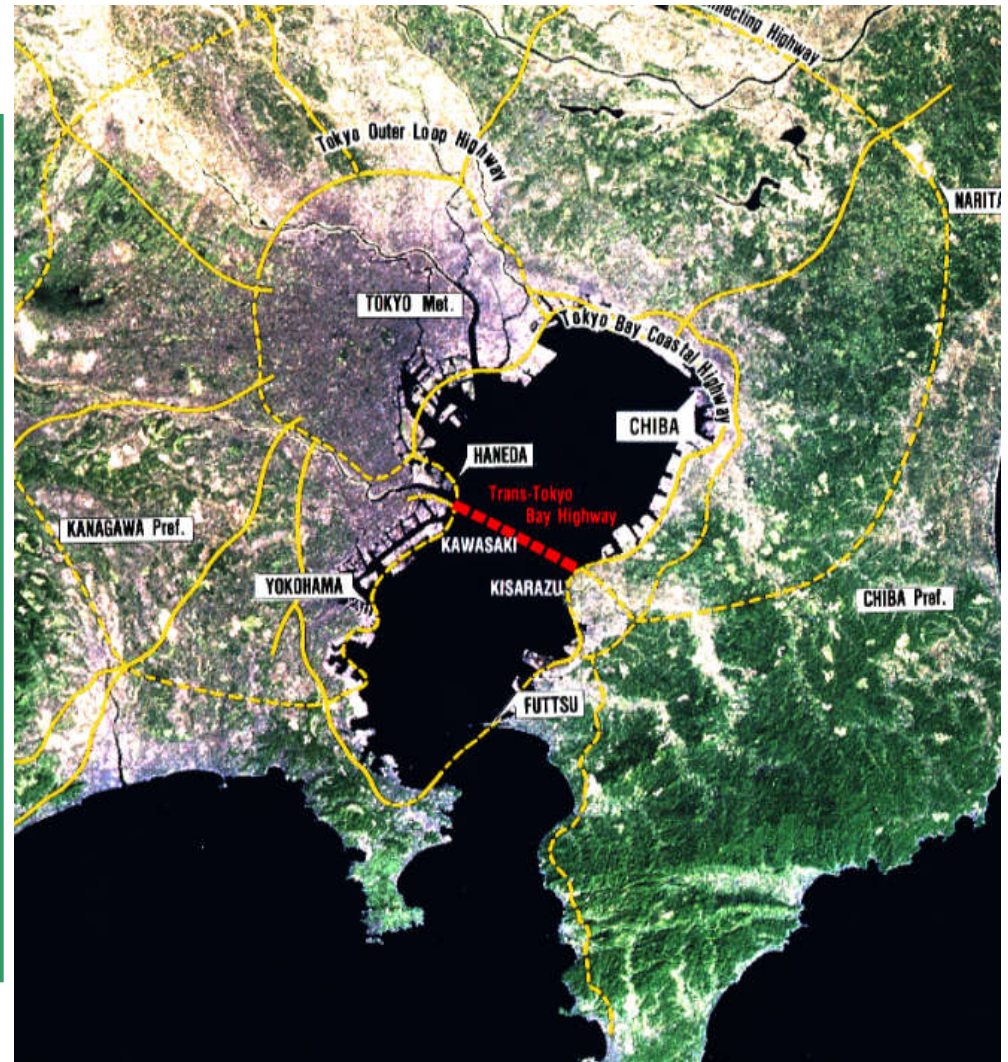
Trans-Tokyo Bay Highway Corporation was established.

May 1989:

Construction started.

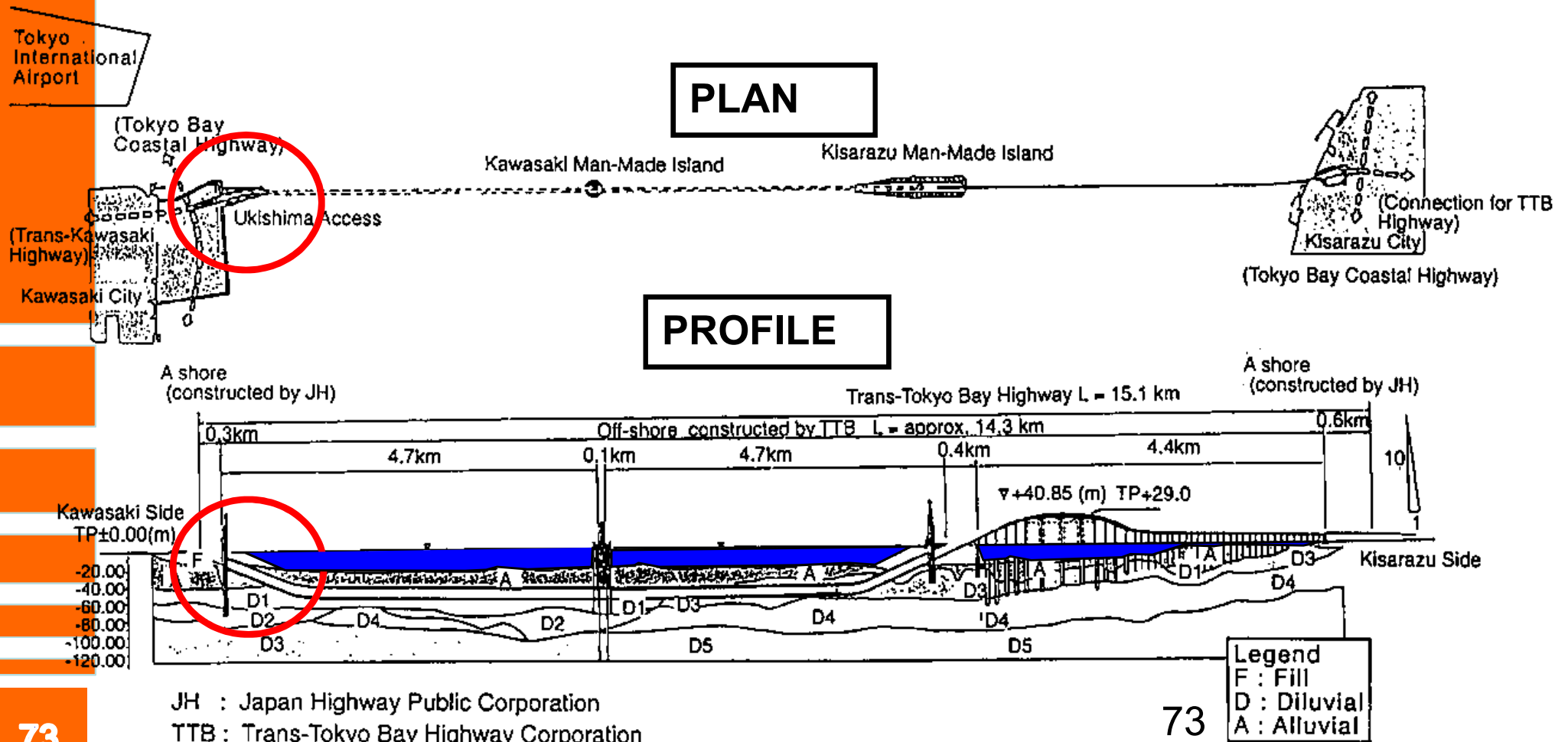
December 1997:

Construction completed & highway was opened to public on 18th Dec.



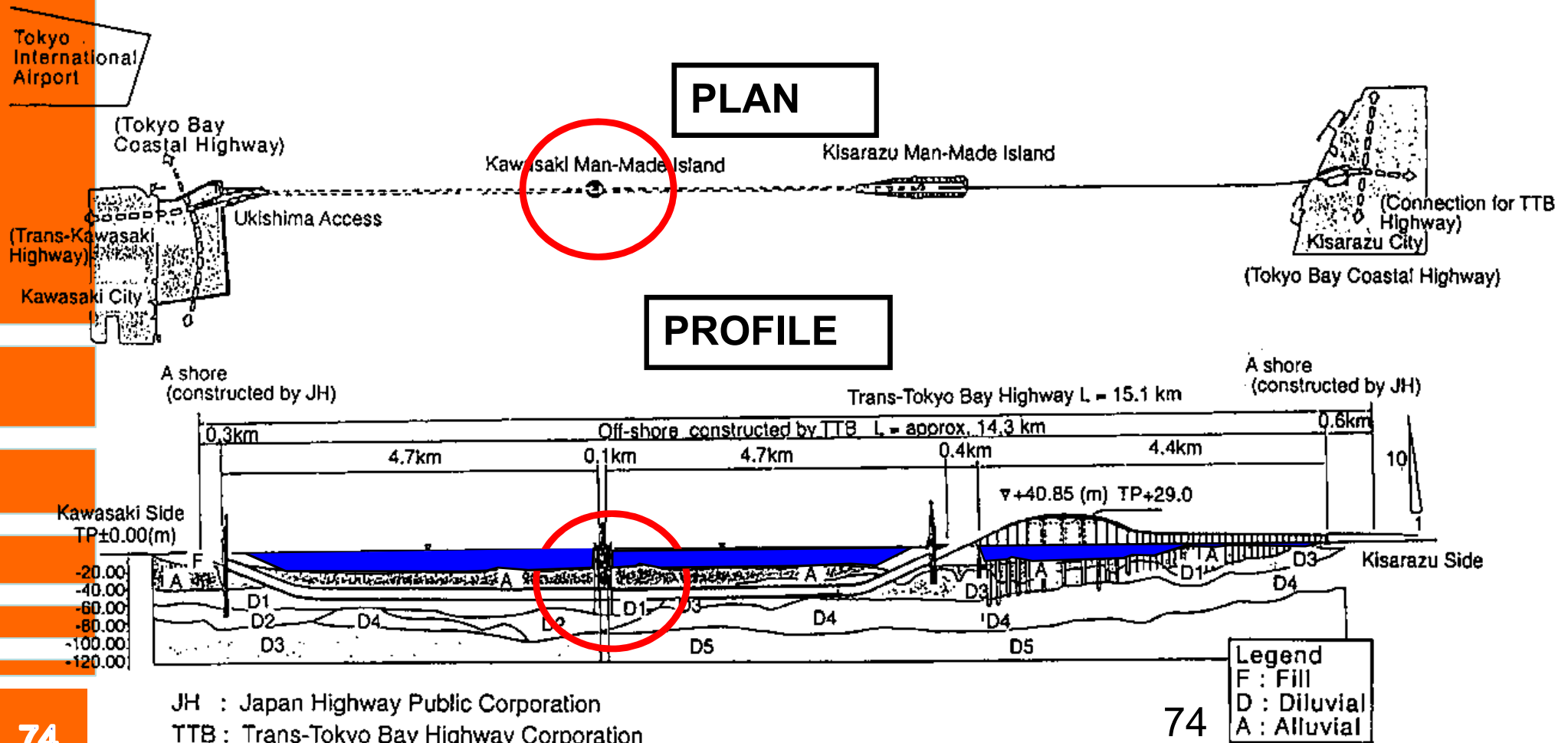
Structure of TTB Highway

- **Ukishima access;**
- Kawasaki man-made island;
- Bridge
- Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels;
- Kisarazu man-made island;



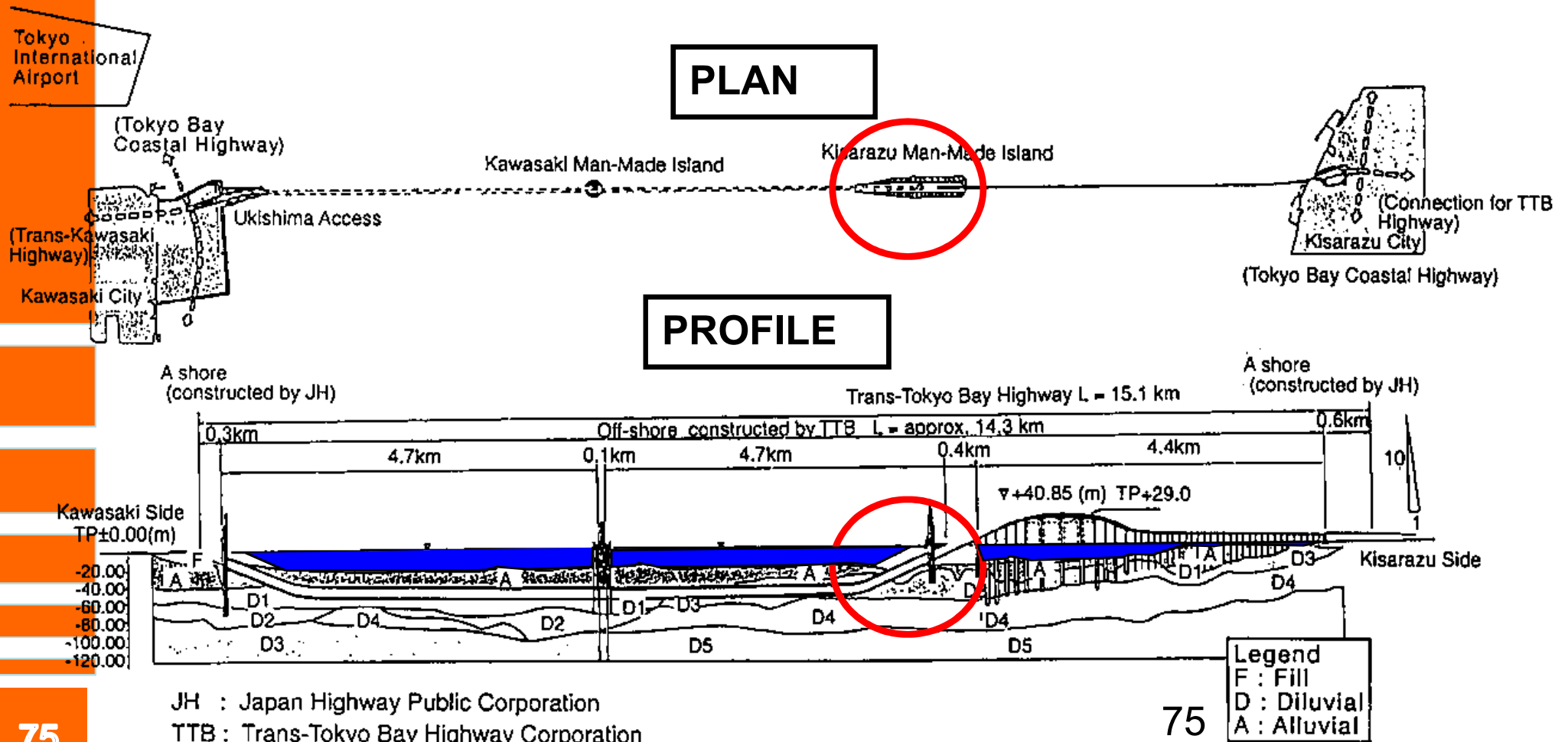
Structure of TTB Highway

- Ukishima access;
- **Kawasaki man-made island;**
- Bridge
- Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels;
- Kisarazu man-made island;



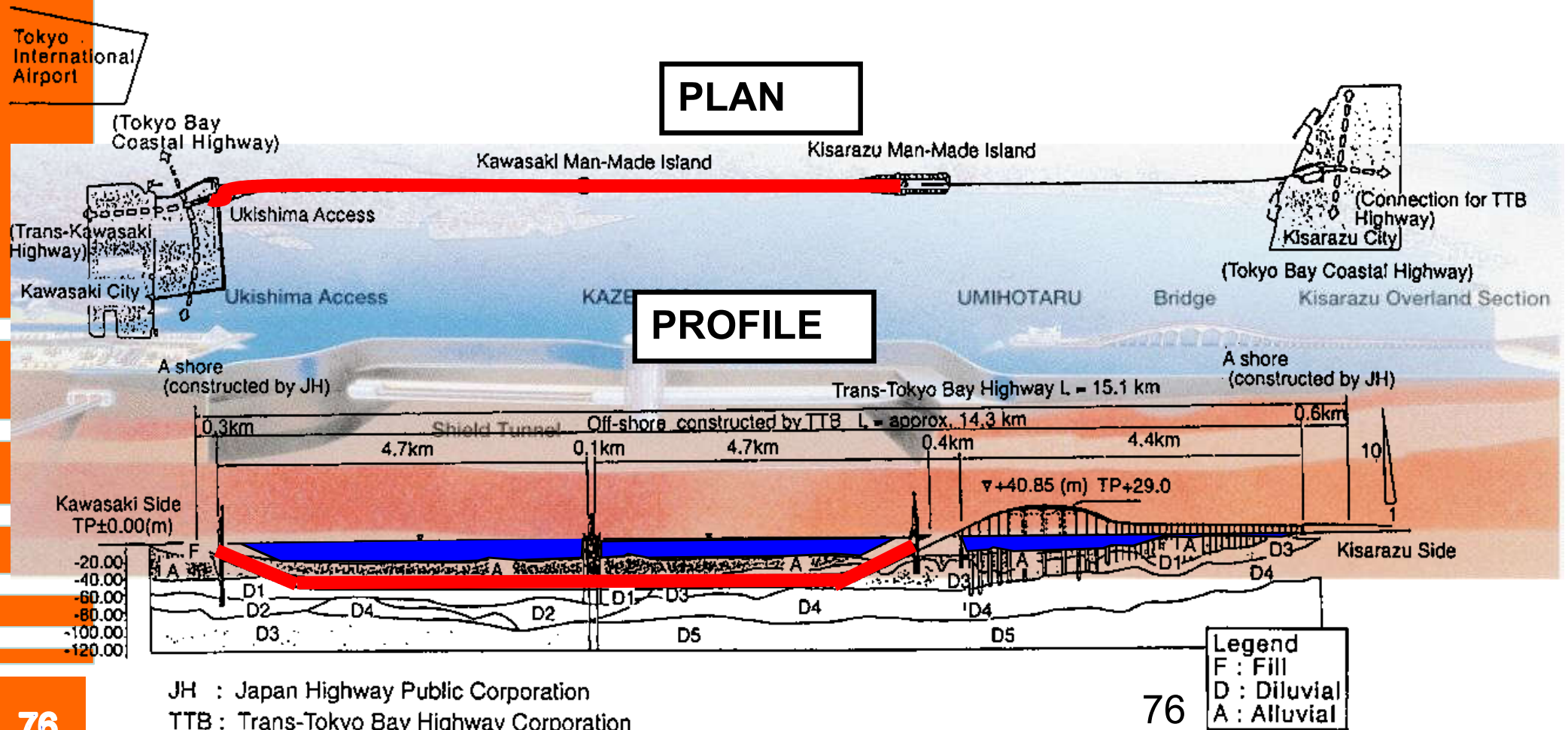
Structure of TTB Highway

- Ukishima access;
- Kawasaki man-made island;
- Bridge
- Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels;
- **Kisarazu man-made island;**



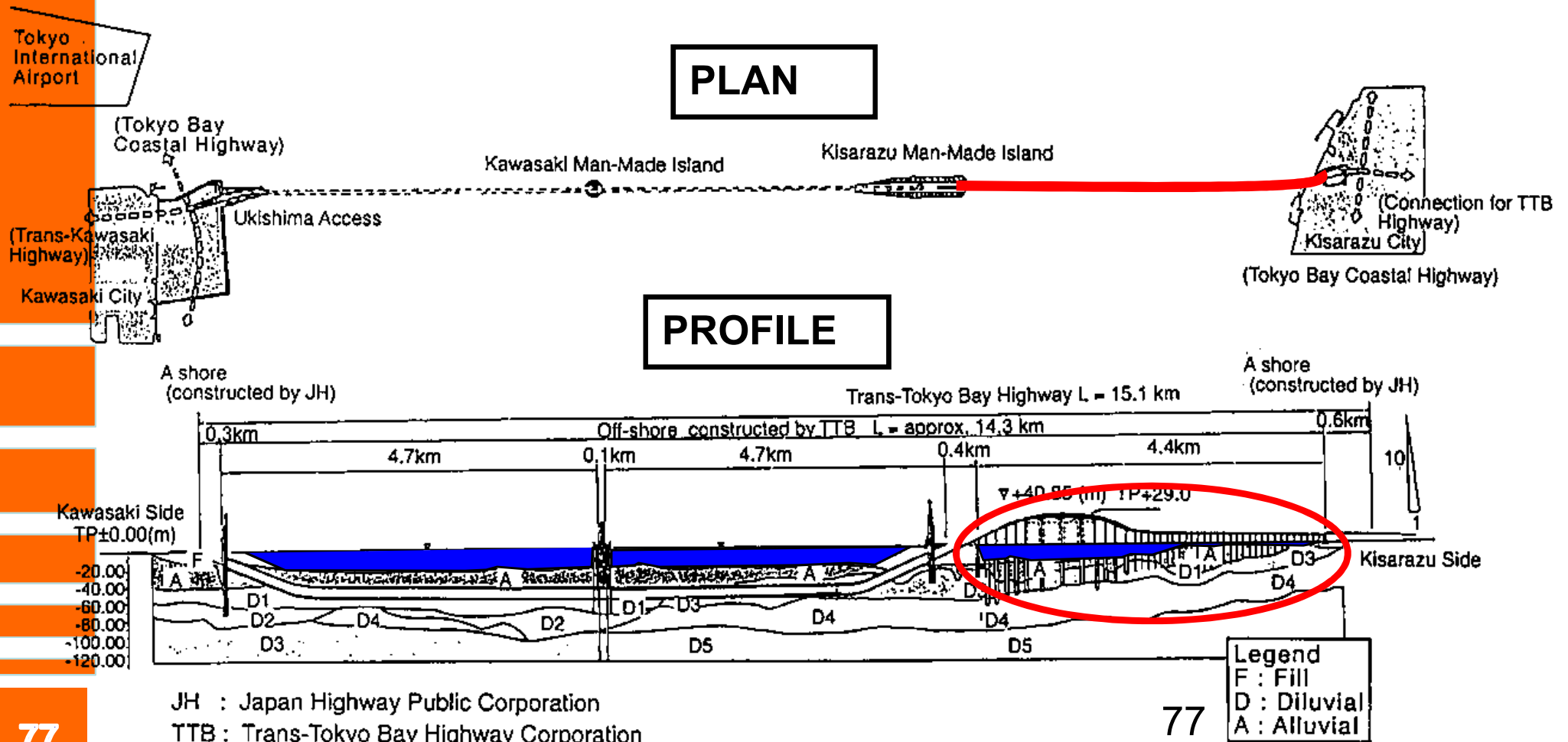
Structure of TTB Highway

- Ukishima access;
- Kawasaki man-made island;
- Bridge
- **Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels;**
- Kisarazu man-made island;



Structure of TTB Highway

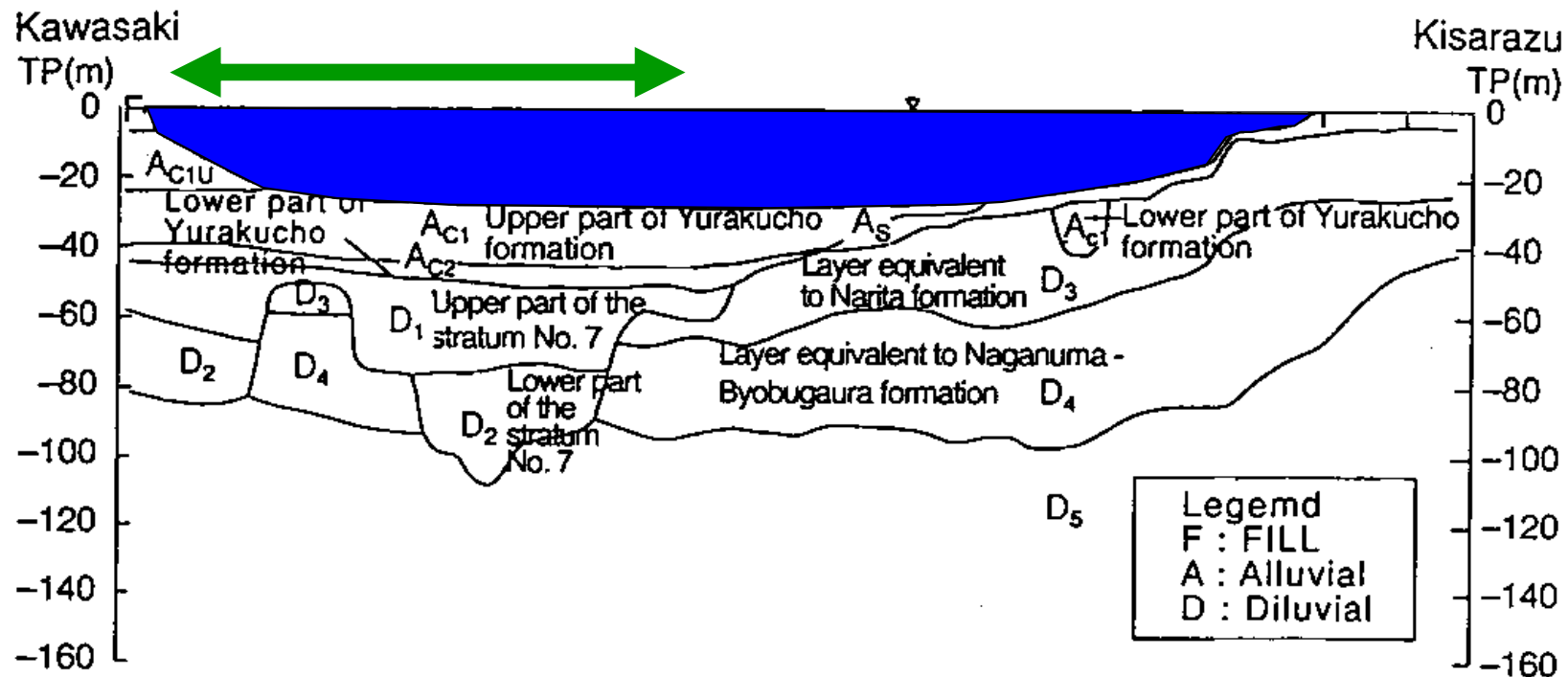
- Ukishima access;
- Kawasaki man-made island;
- **Bridge**
- Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels;
- Kisarazu man-made island;



JH : Japan Highway Public Corporation
 TTB : Trans-Tokyo Bay Highway Corporation

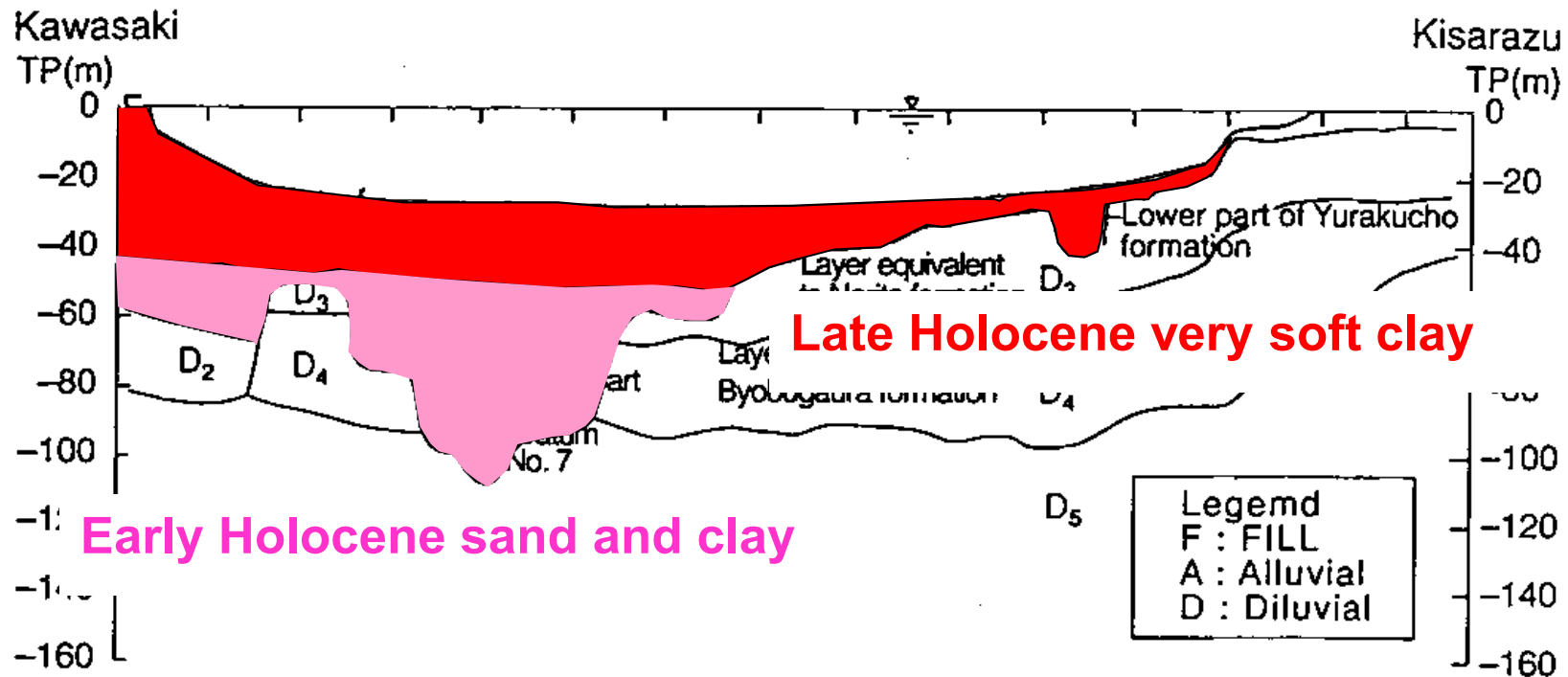
Four difficult design conditions that controlled the structural form

- a relatively deep sea;
- heavy shipping routes;

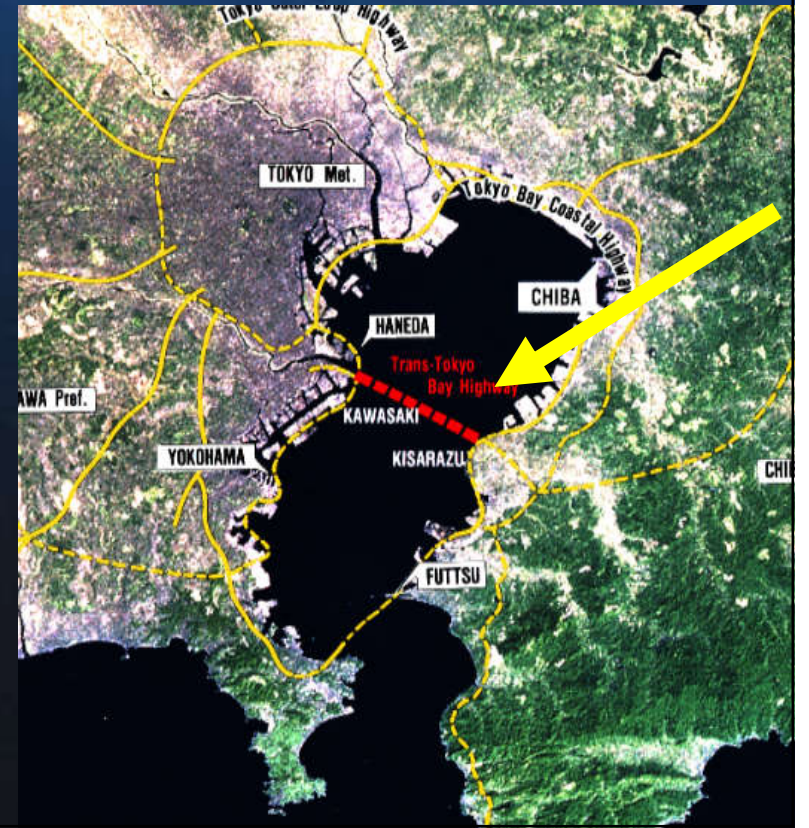


Four difficult design conditions that controlled the structural form

- a relatively deep sea;
- heavy crossing shipping routes;
- **poor ground conditions**; and
- a high seismic activity.



Trans-Tokyo Bay Highway





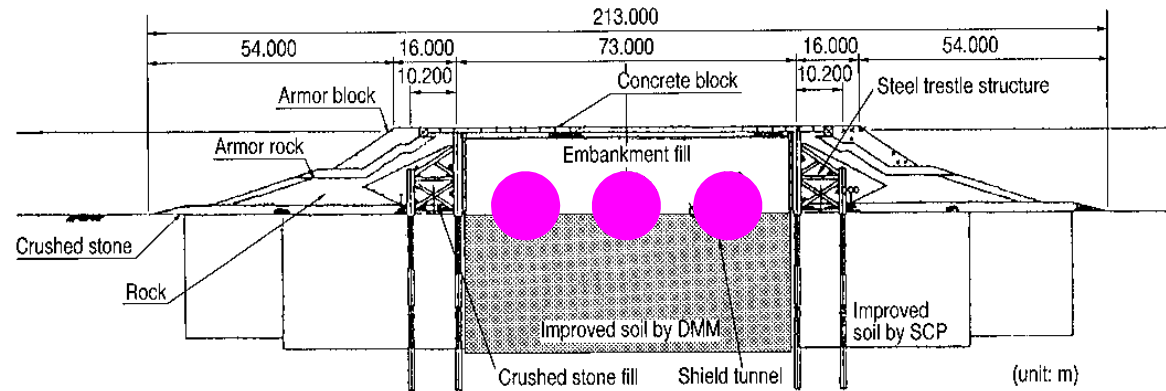
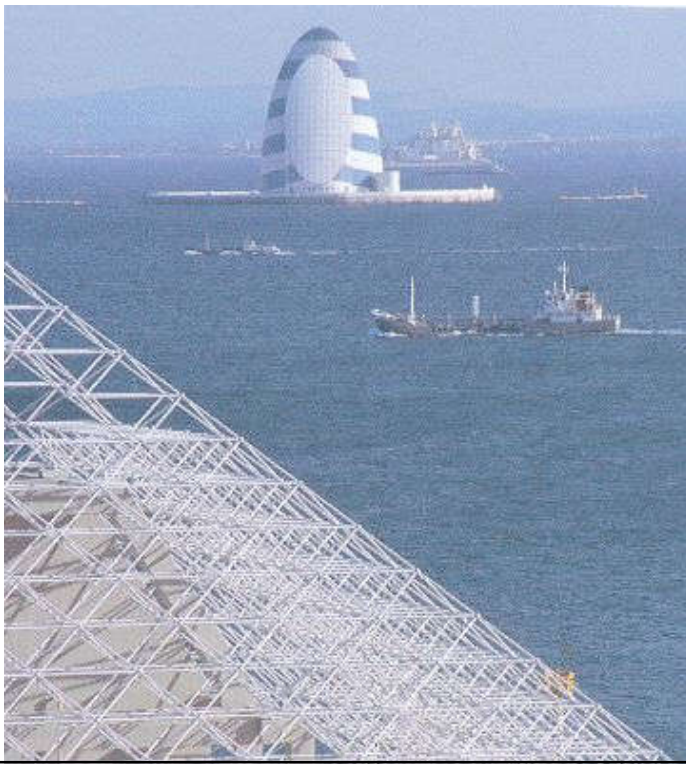
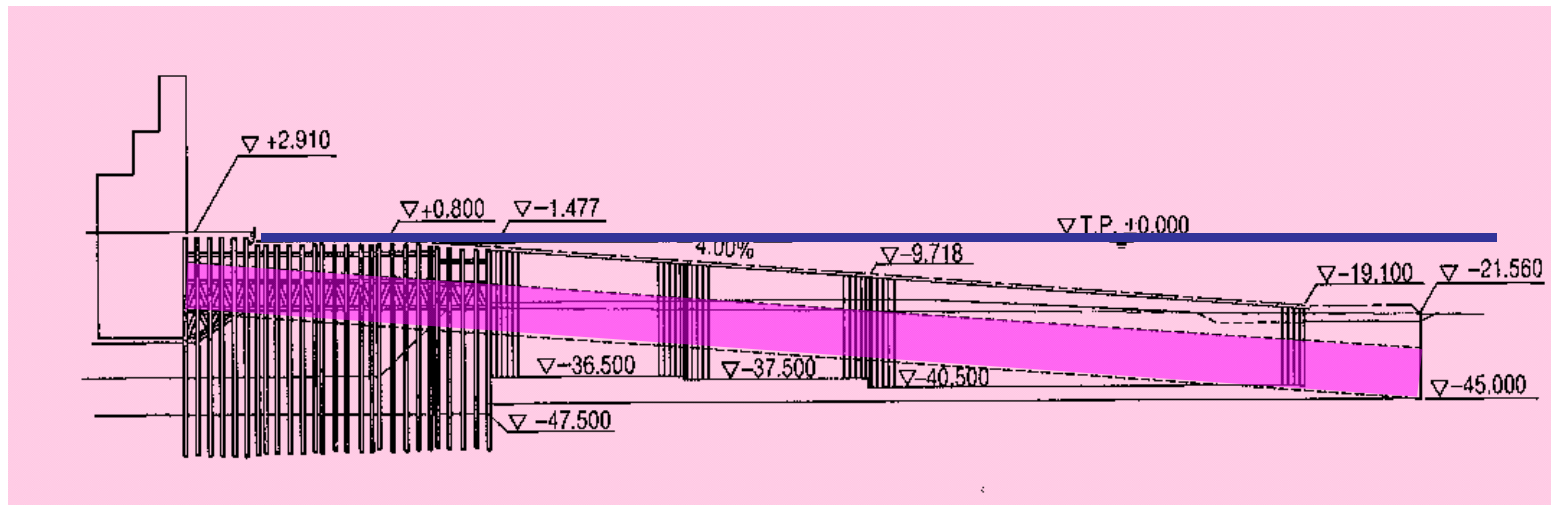
Ukishima access

Kisarazu man-made island

Kawasaki man-made island

Bridge

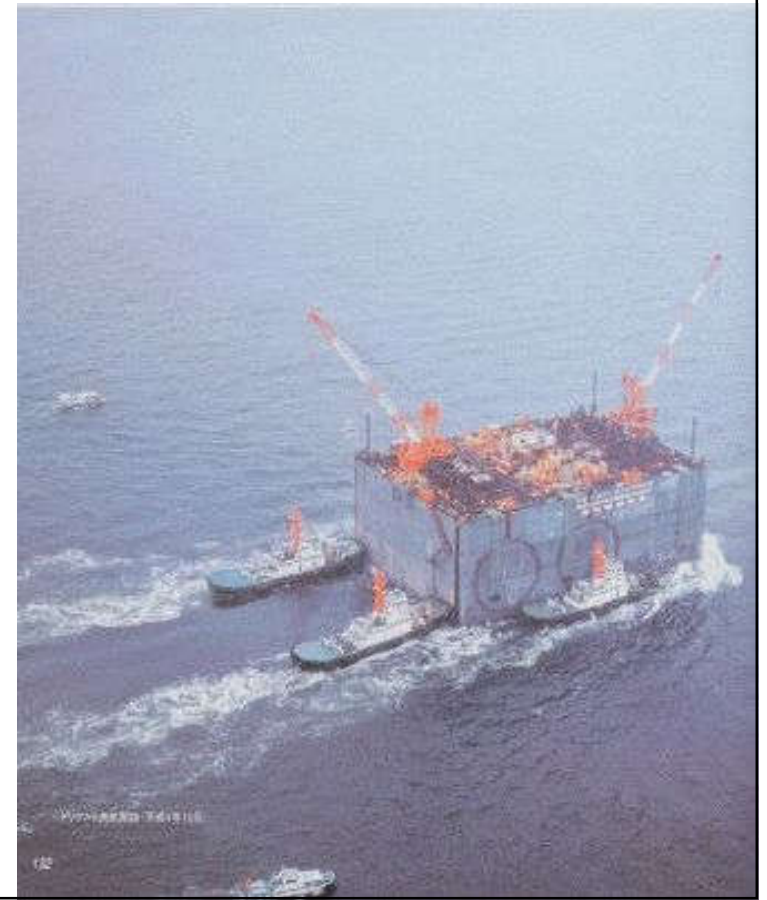
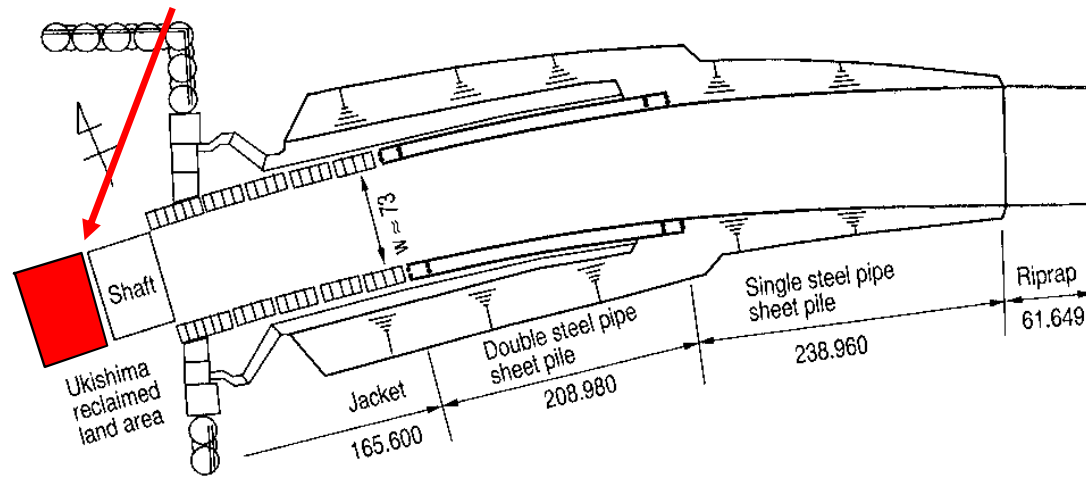
Ukishima access



**The starting point
of the shield tunnels,
towards the center of the Tokyo Bay**

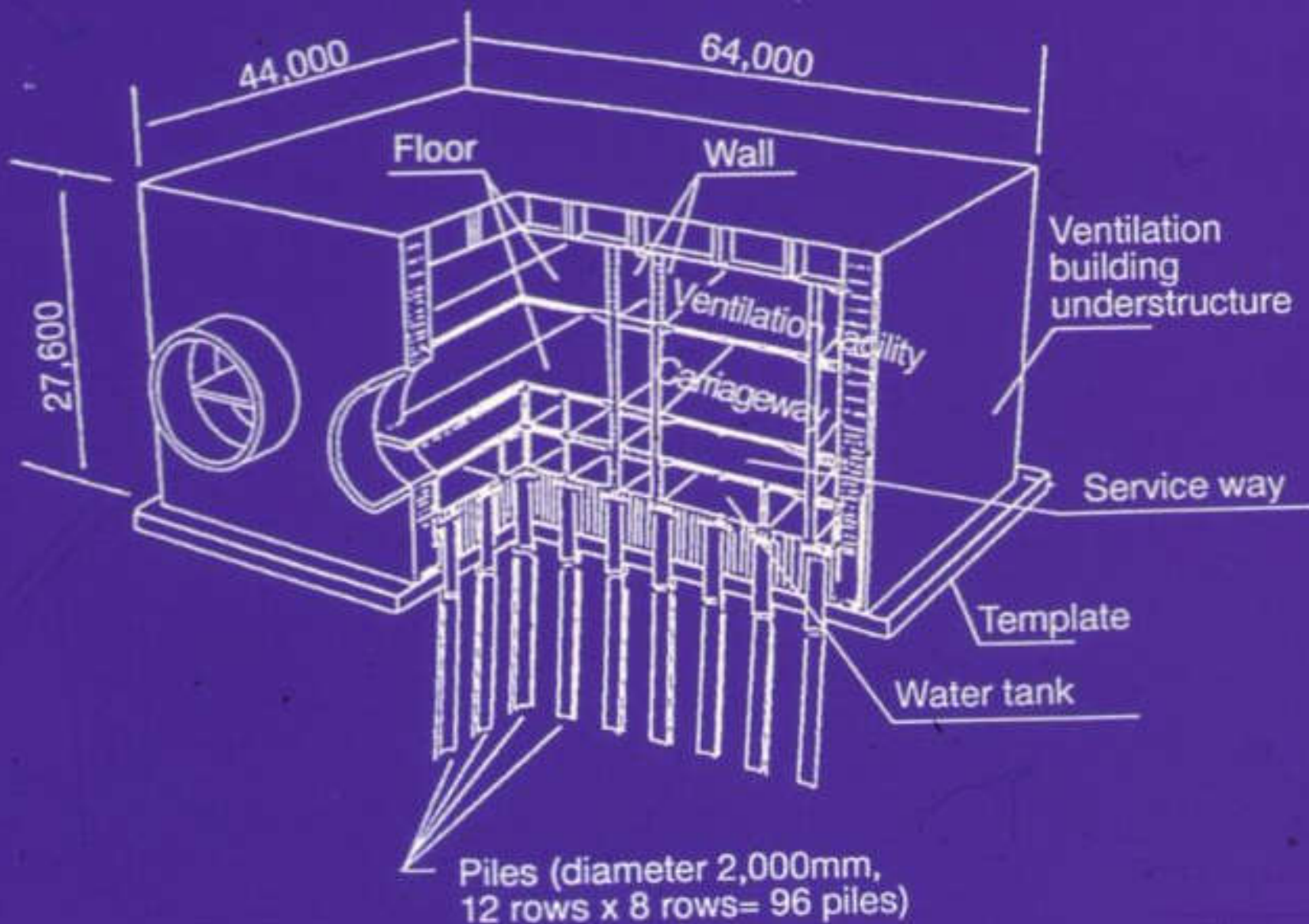
Steel caisson:

- 1) to start the shield tunnel construction;
- 2) the ventilation tower after completion.



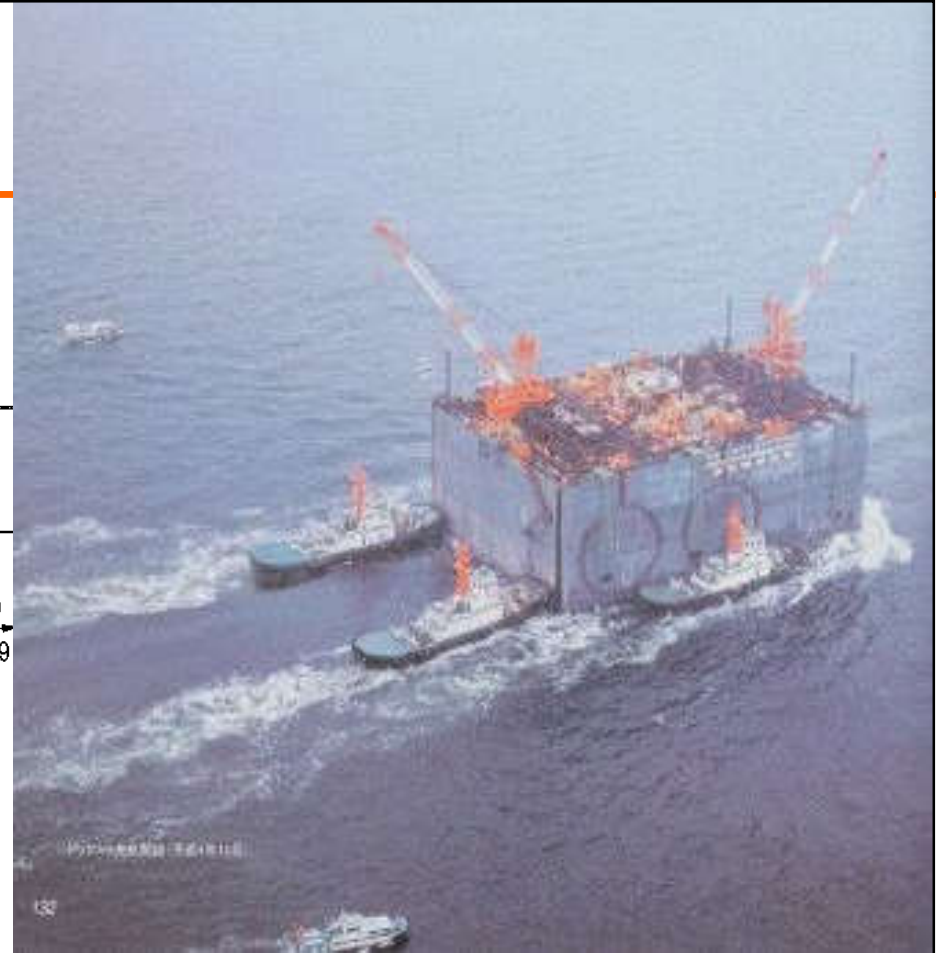
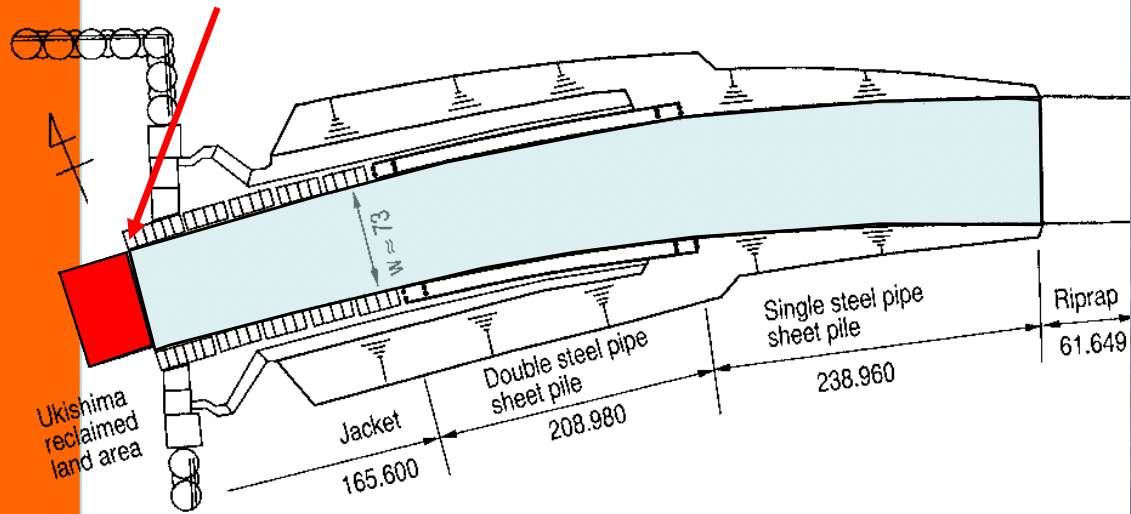
Ukishima Access - ventilation tower

- Also to start the shield tunneling work.
- A steel shell caisson was laid down on many piles, and then, the inside was filled with concrete.

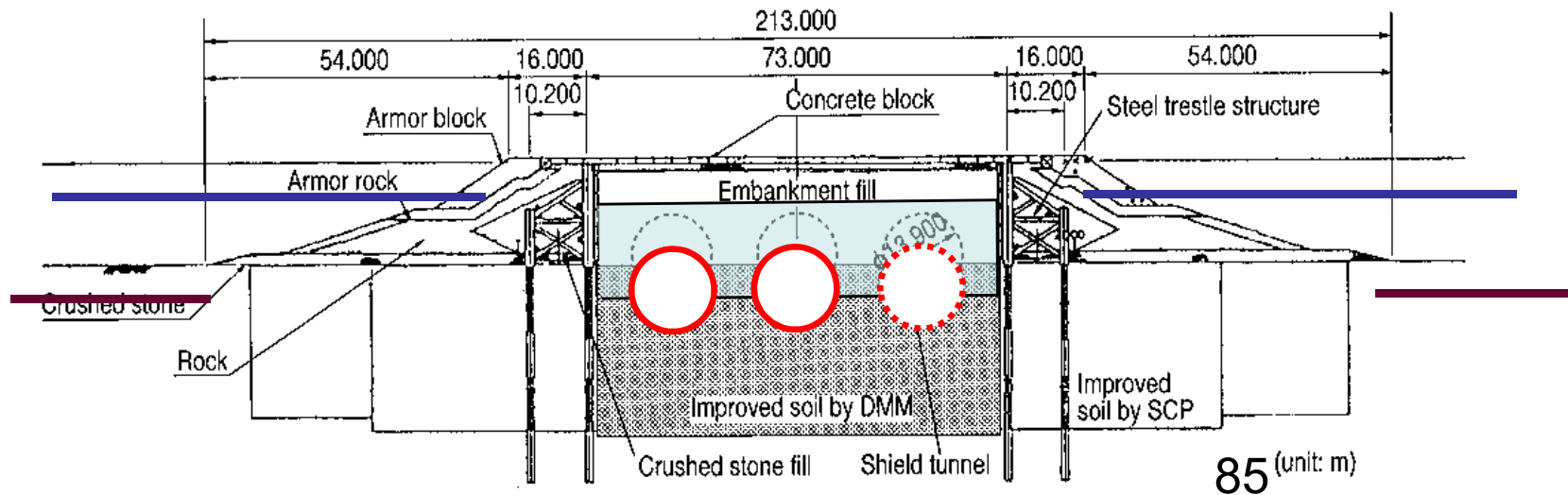


Steel caisson:

- 1) to start the shield tunnel construction;
- 2) the ventilation tower after completion.



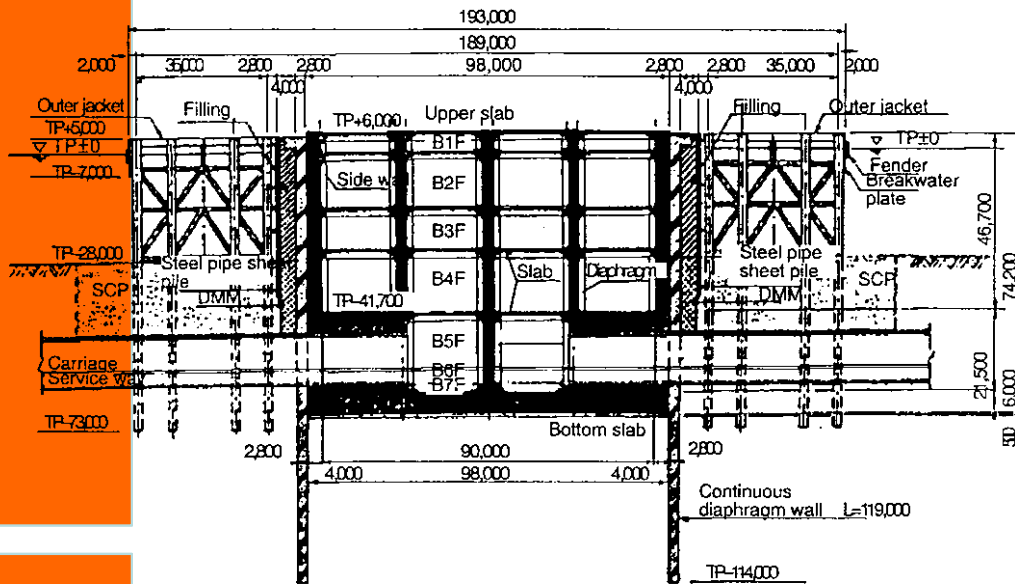
Approach fill, retaining shield tunnels.



Ukishima access



Kawasaki man-made island



Cross-section

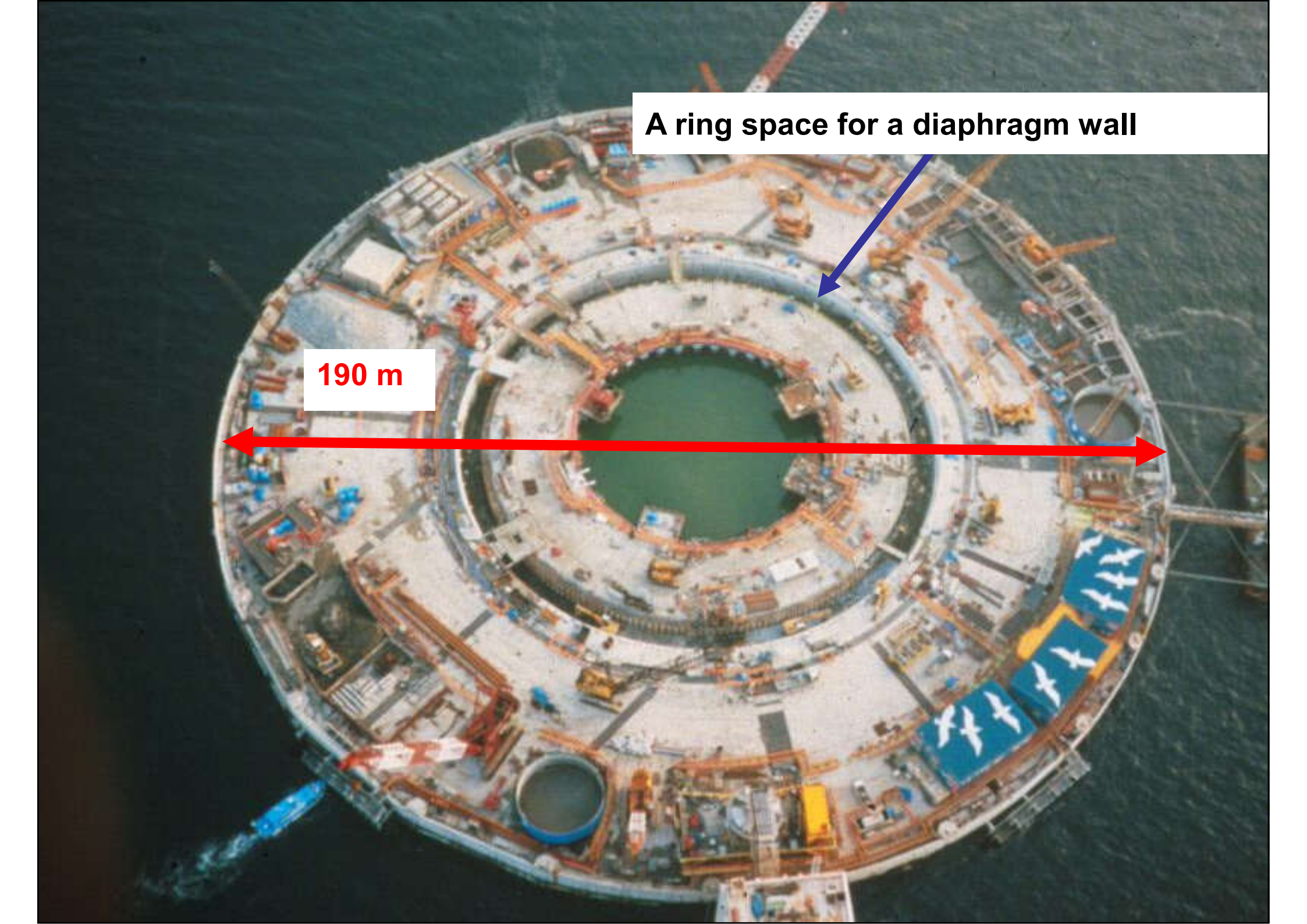


Artist's view of the completed structure



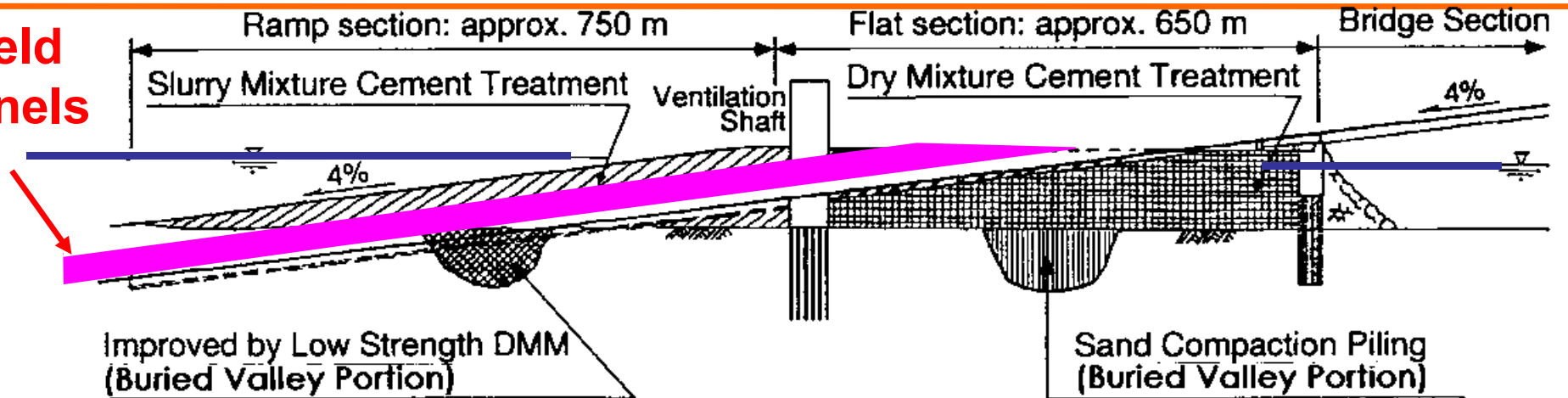
A ring space for a diaphragm wall

190 m

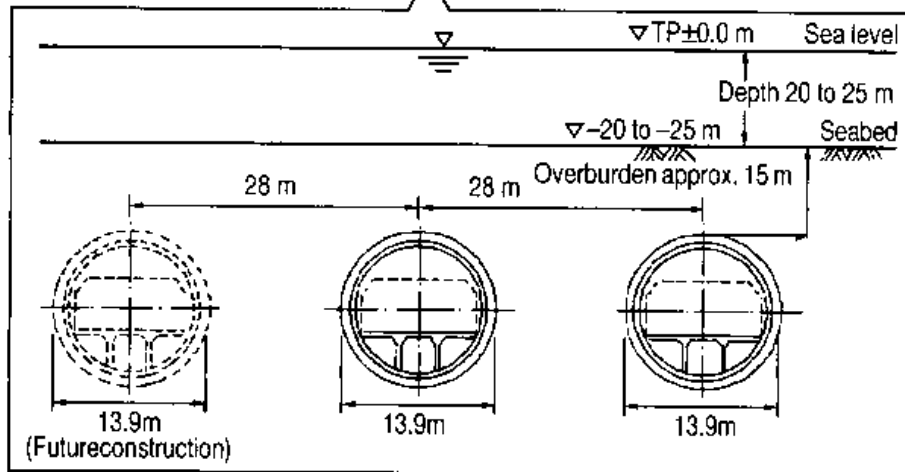
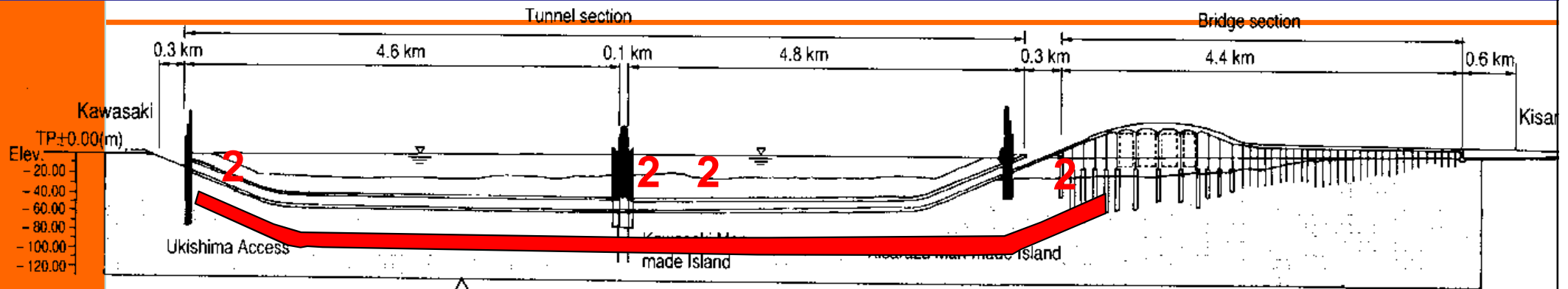


Kisarazu man-made island

**Shield
tunnels**



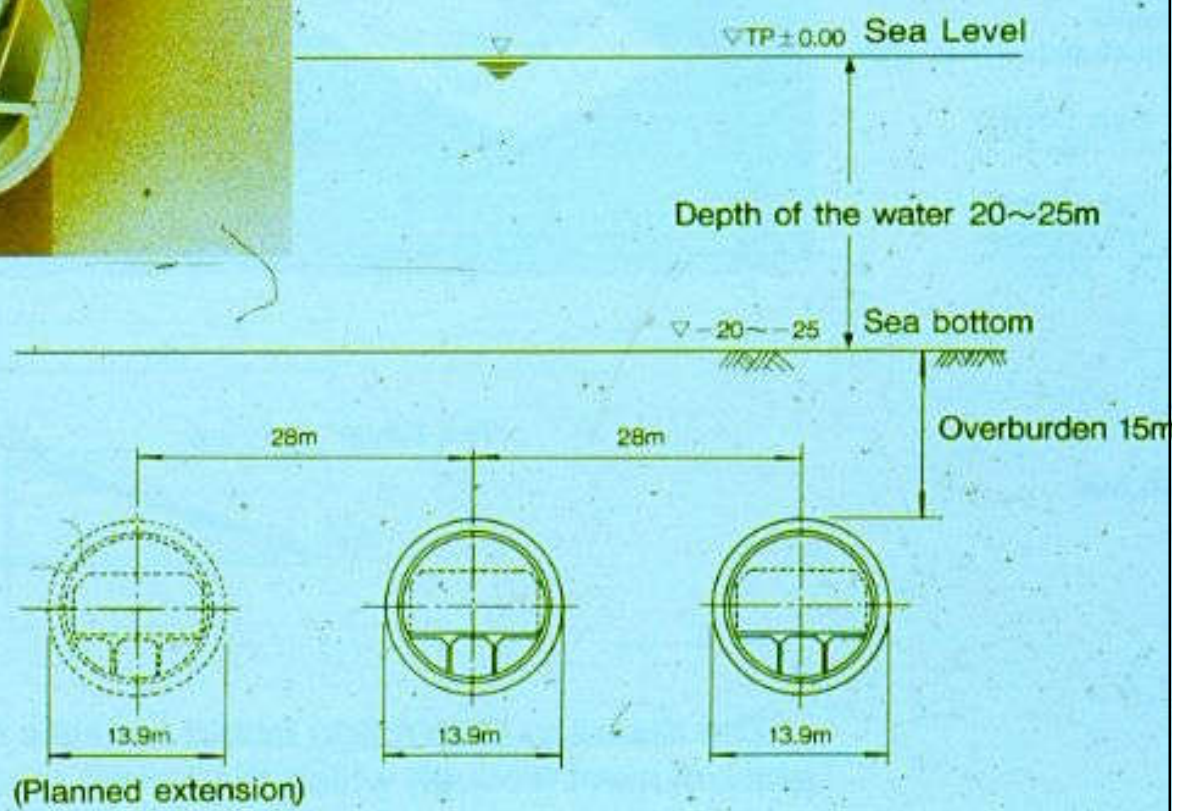
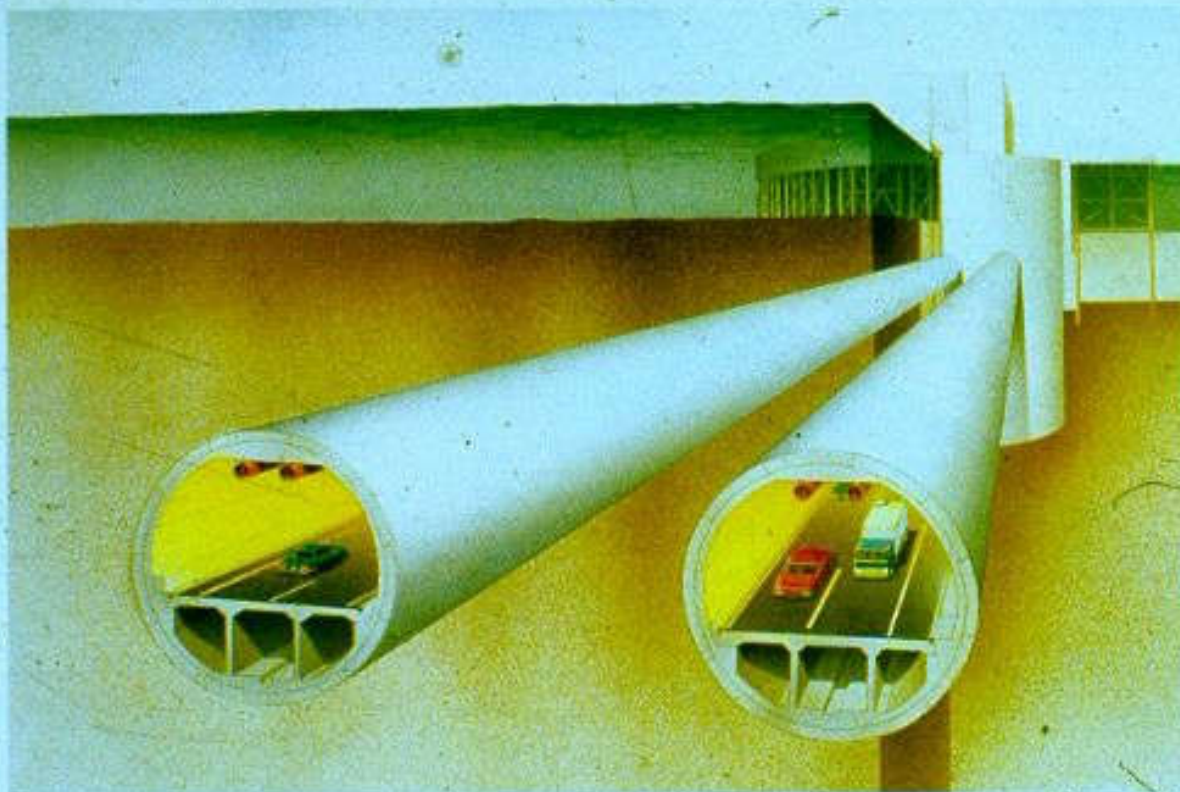
Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels



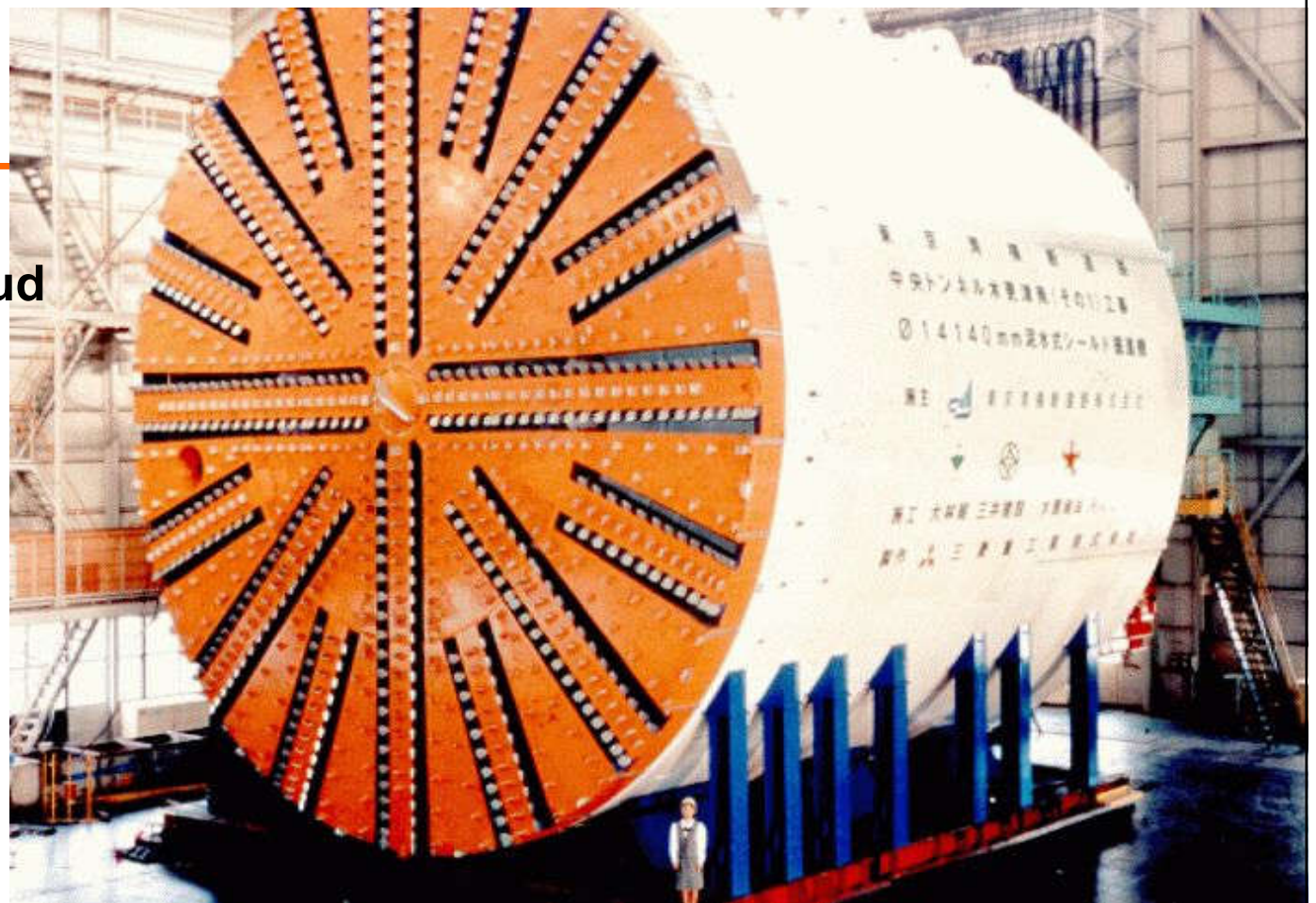
**Two tubes constructed
The third one for future**

Eight shield tunnel machines worked simultaneously to reduce the total construction period.

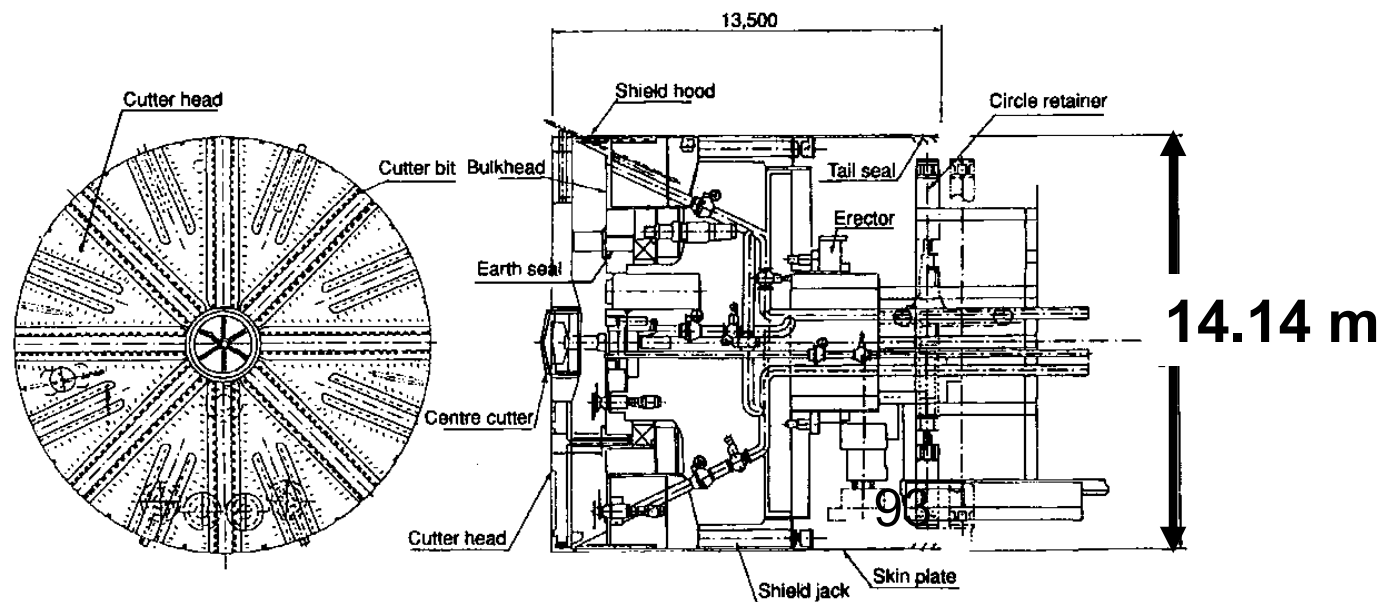
Shield Tunnel

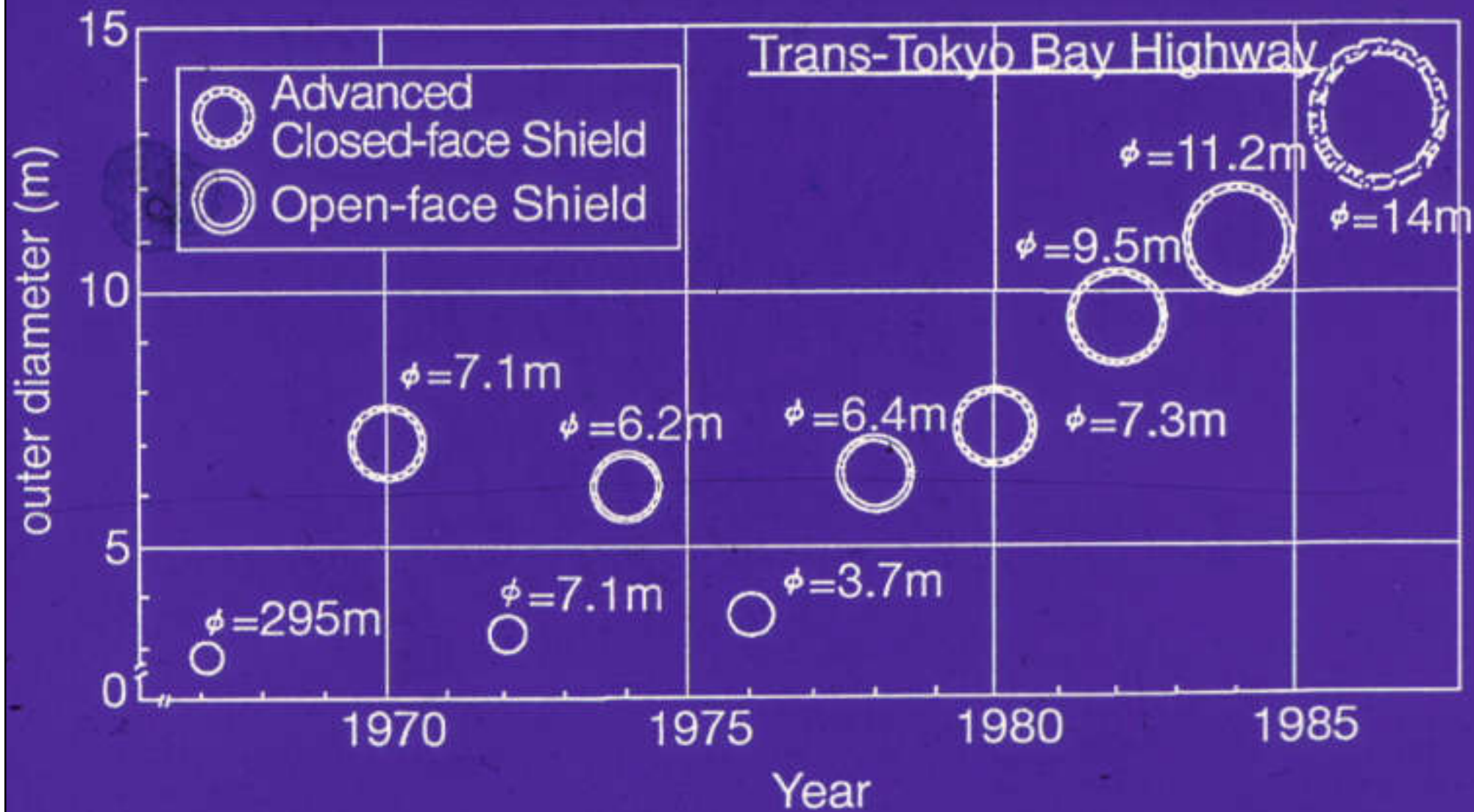


**Blind type
using pressurized mud
slurry**



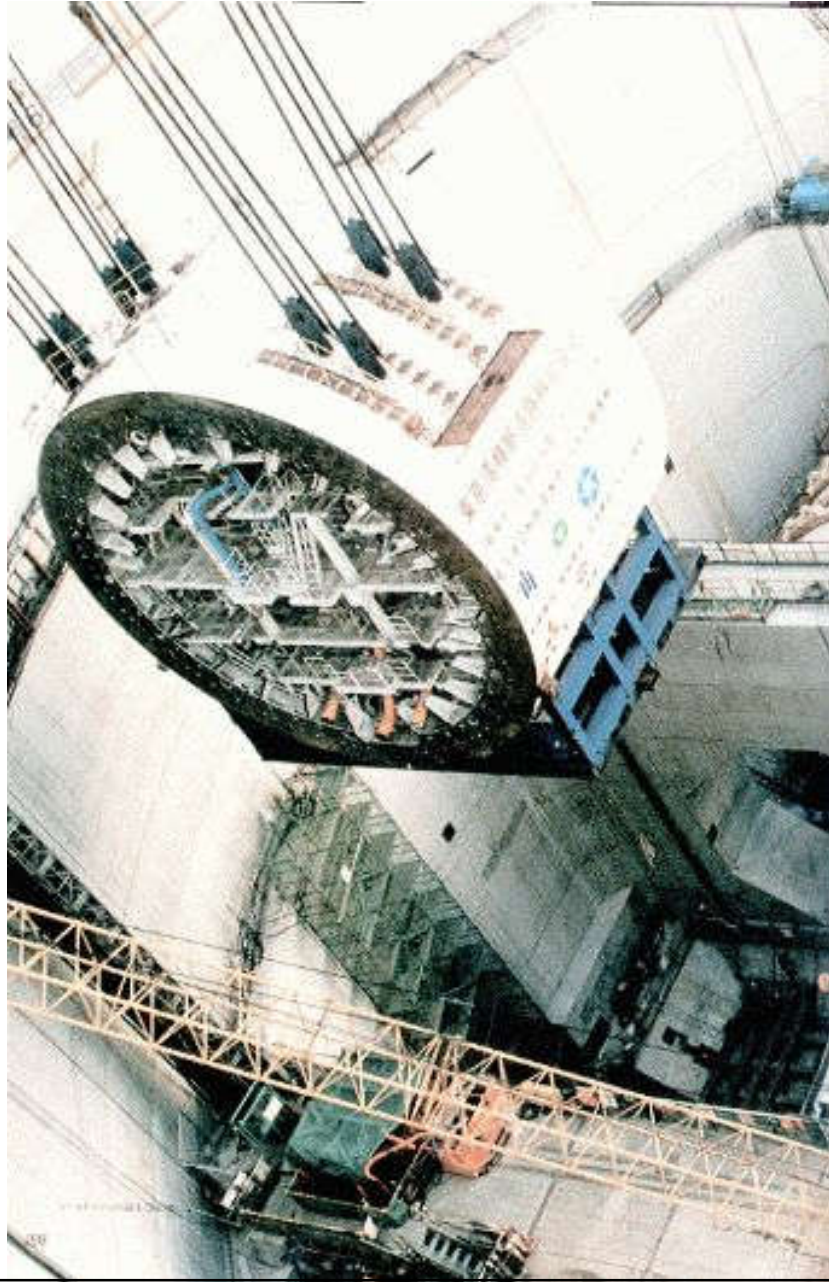
***The world's
largest diameter
at the time of
construction***



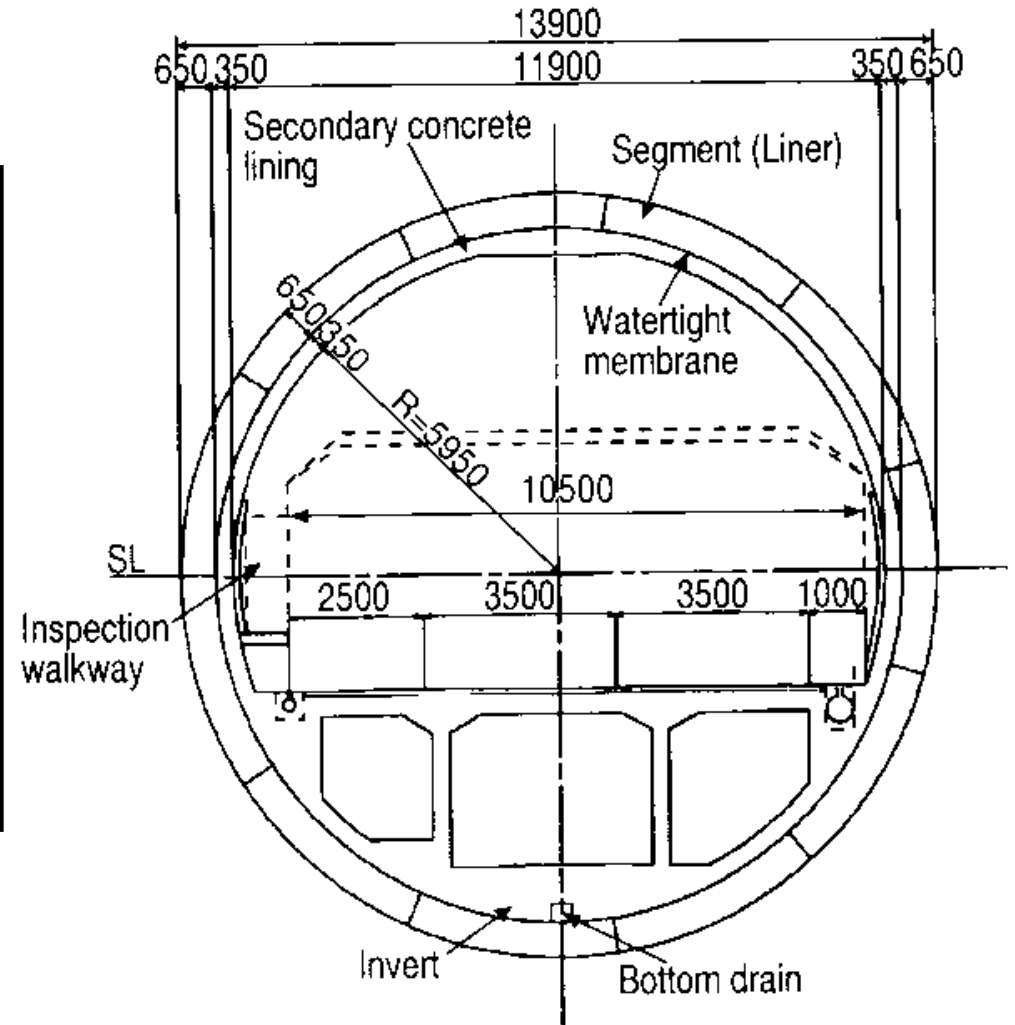
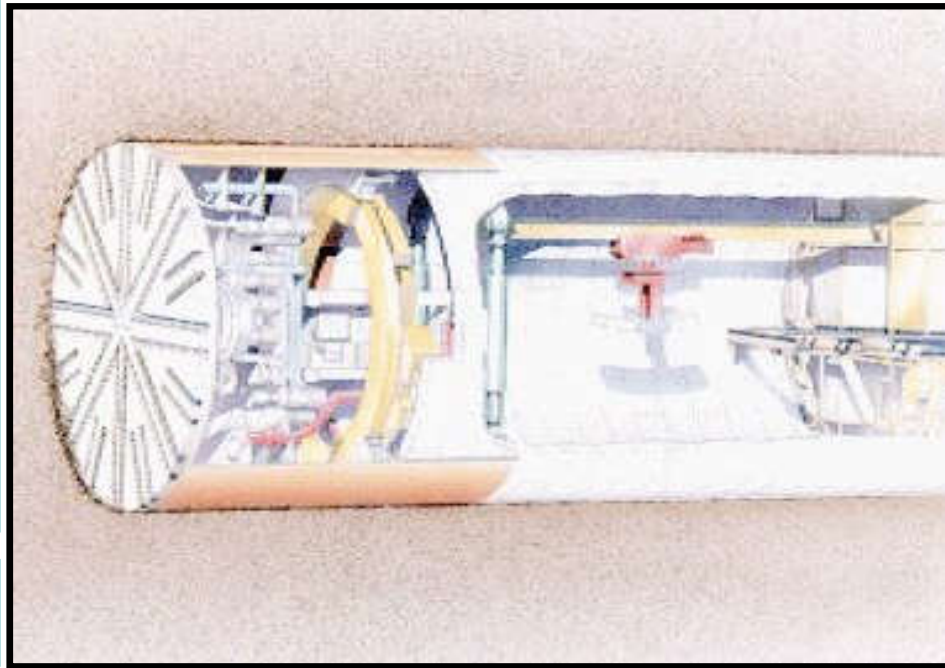


Developments in shield tunnel diameter

Shield tunnel machine re-assembled to start from Kawasaki m-m island



Two 9.5 km-long shield tunnels



(unit : mm)

RC segments



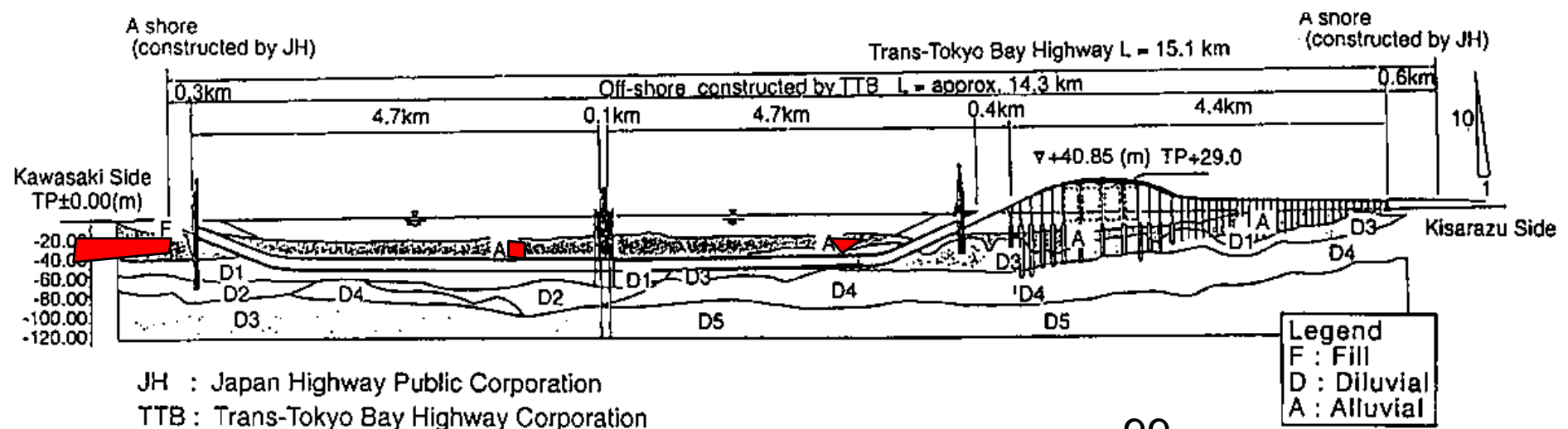
**Secondary inner RC lining
(inside the RC segments)**

RC segments

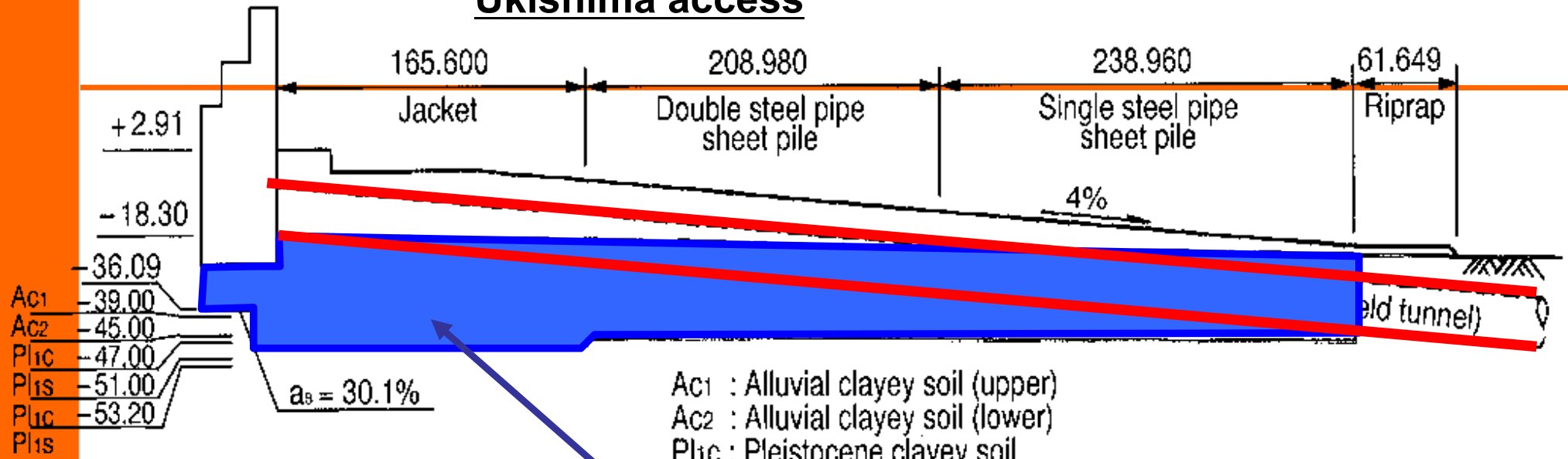


Significant design and construction issues related to geotechnical engineering:

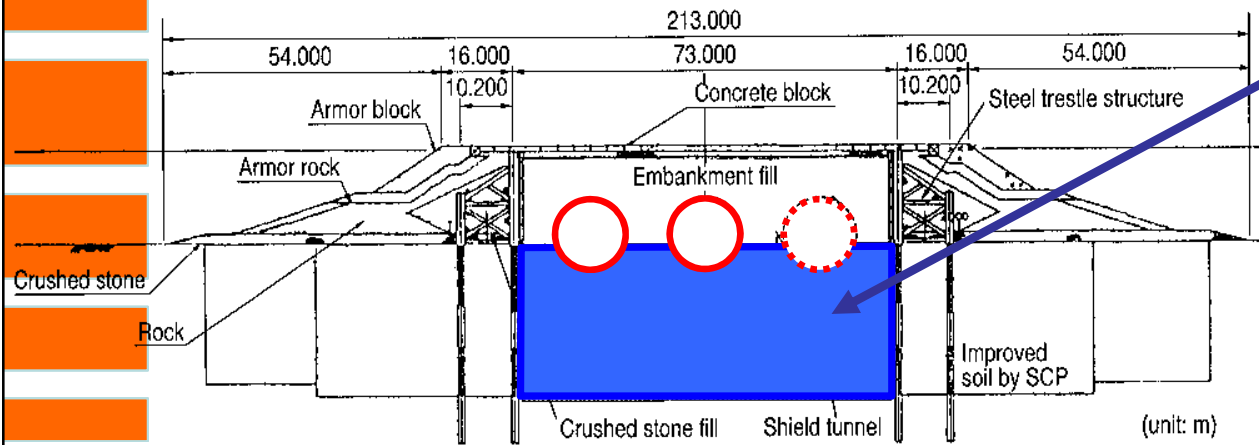
- Large-scale improvement of existing soft clay deposits by in-situ cement mixing,
- controlling the strength of cement-mixed soft clay;
- and
- in total 3.77 million m³.



Ukishima access



B-B section



Very soft clay improved by in-situ cement-mixing, achieving a controlled strength; i.e.,
a) strong enough for the stability of the structure; and
b) weak enough for smooth tunnelling.

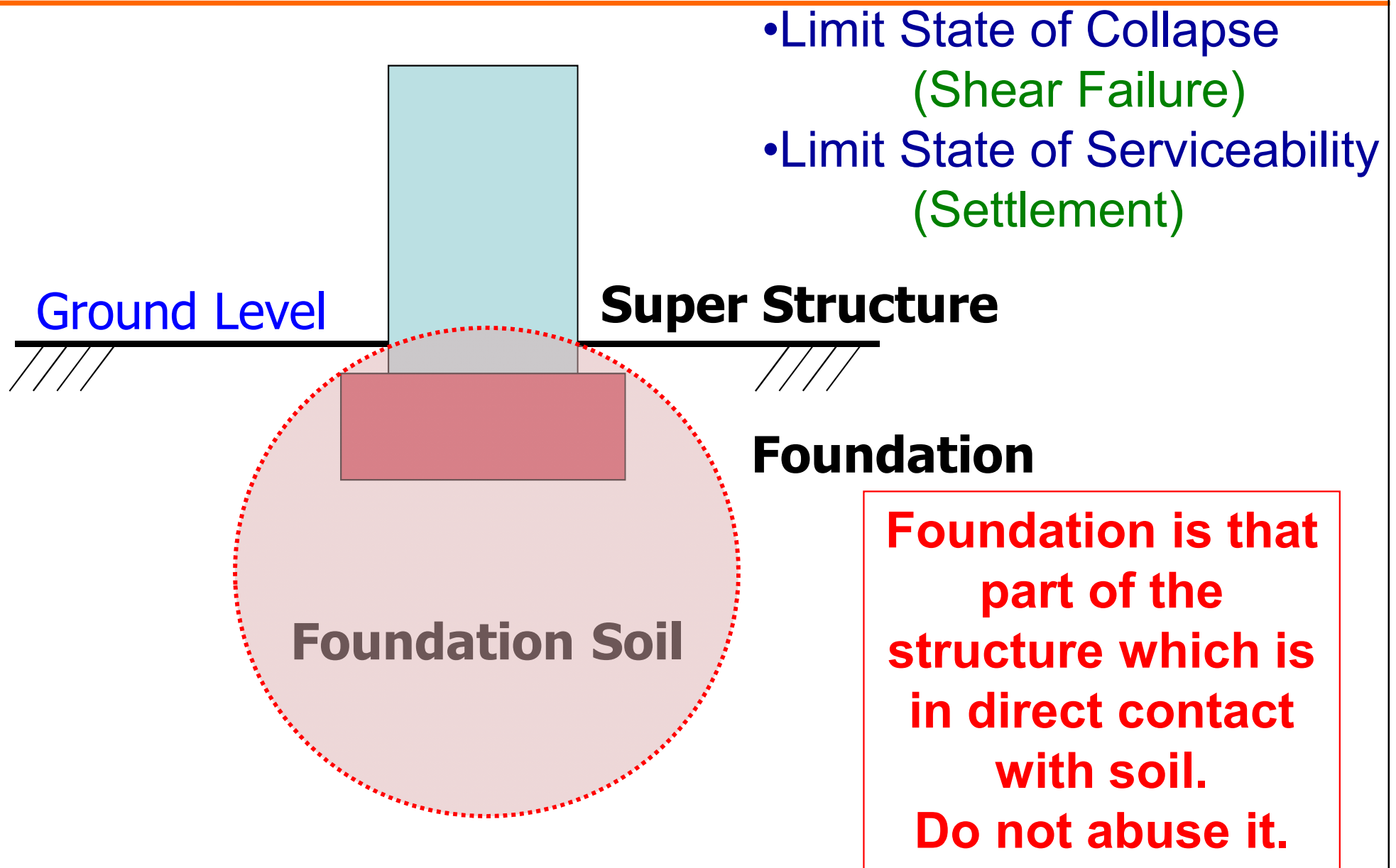
In-situ cement mixing of soft clay deposits





Important Geotechnical Structures

For a geotechnical engineer,



Soil should resist forces without failure or excessive deformation

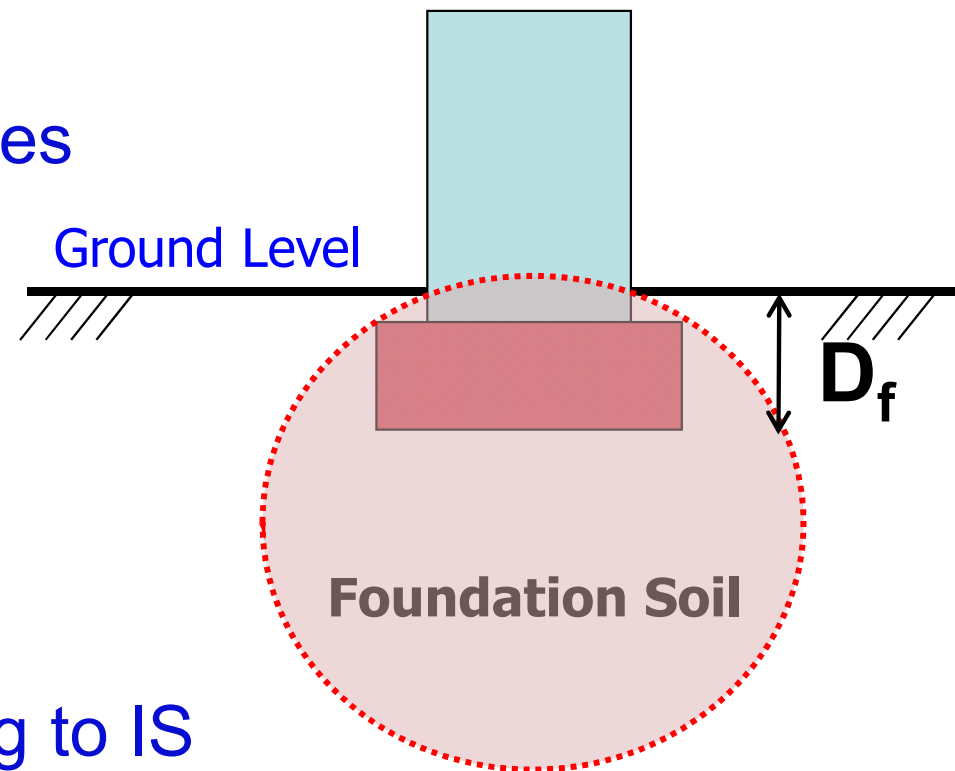
Purpose of Foundation

1. To transfer the forces from superstructure to firm soil below.
2. To distribute the stresses evenly on foundation soil such that foundation soil neither fails nor experiences excessive settlement.
3. To develop an anchor for stability against overturning.
4. To provide an even surface for smooth construction of superstructure.

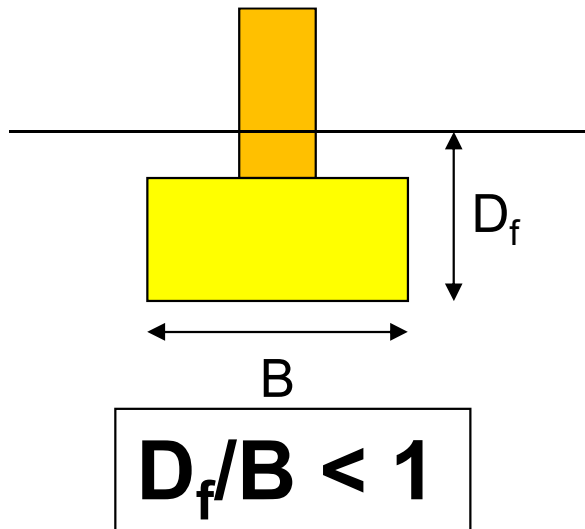


Factors influencing selection of Depth of Foundation

1. Bearing Capacity
2. Settlement Characteristics
3. Water Table
4. Seasonal Moisture changes
5. Freeze Thaw situation
6. Hydraulic considerations
7. Filled-up ground
8. Burrow animals
9. Neighbouring Structure
10. Sloping ground
11. Minimum depth according to IS
12. Height of Structure
13. Dynamic Load

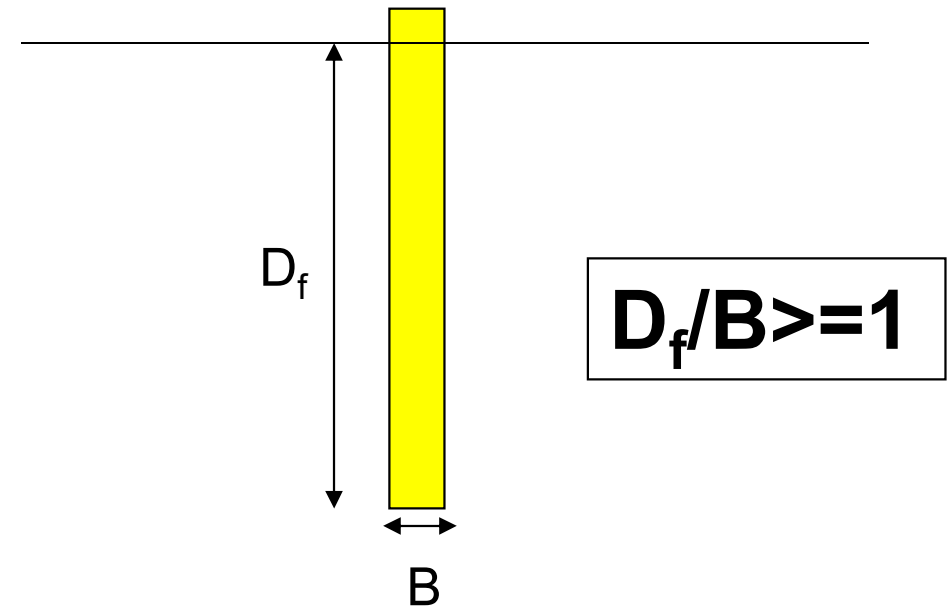


Types of Foundation



Shallow Foundation

- Wall footing
- Isolated Footing
- Combined footing
- Strap Footing
- Strip Footing
- Mat/Raft Foundation



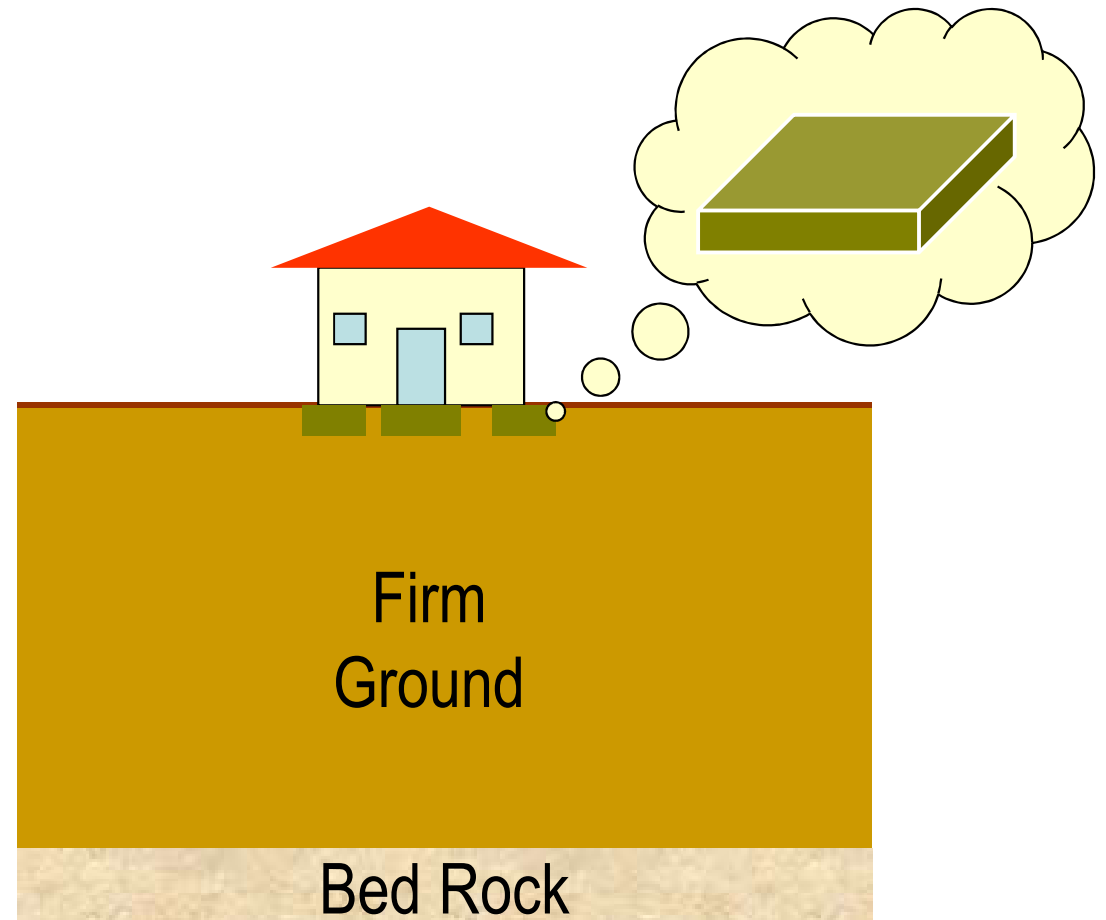
Deep Foundation

- Pile Foundation
- Well Foundation

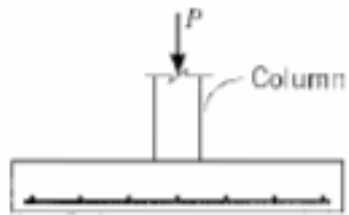
Shallow Foundations

For transferring building loads to underlying ground

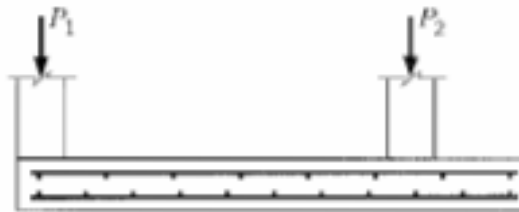
Mostly for firm soils or light loads



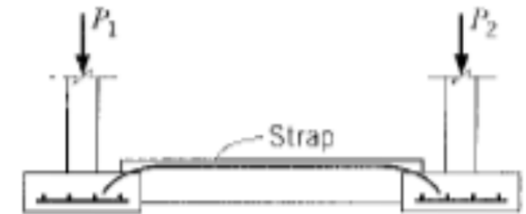
Types of Shallow Foundation



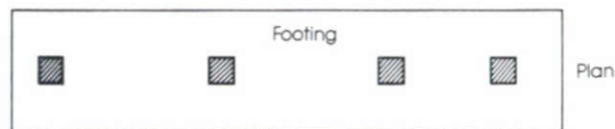
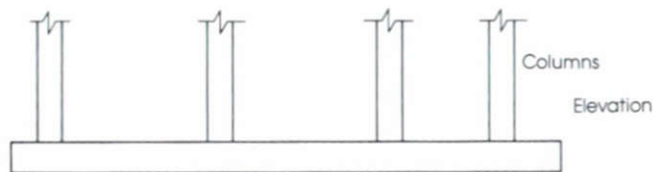
Isolated footing



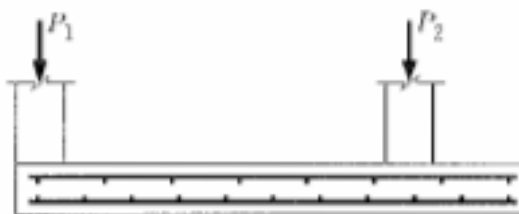
Combined footing



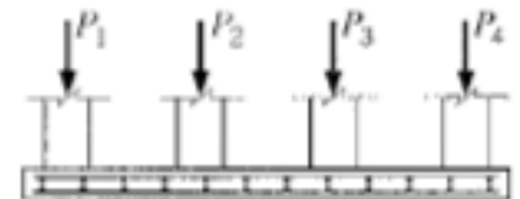
Cantilever or strap footing



Strip Footing



Trapezoidal footing



Mat foundation

Shallow Foundations



Examples of spread footings for residences and buildings.



SHALLOW FOUNDATION



Combined Footing



Grade Beam



Mat Foundation



Strip Footing

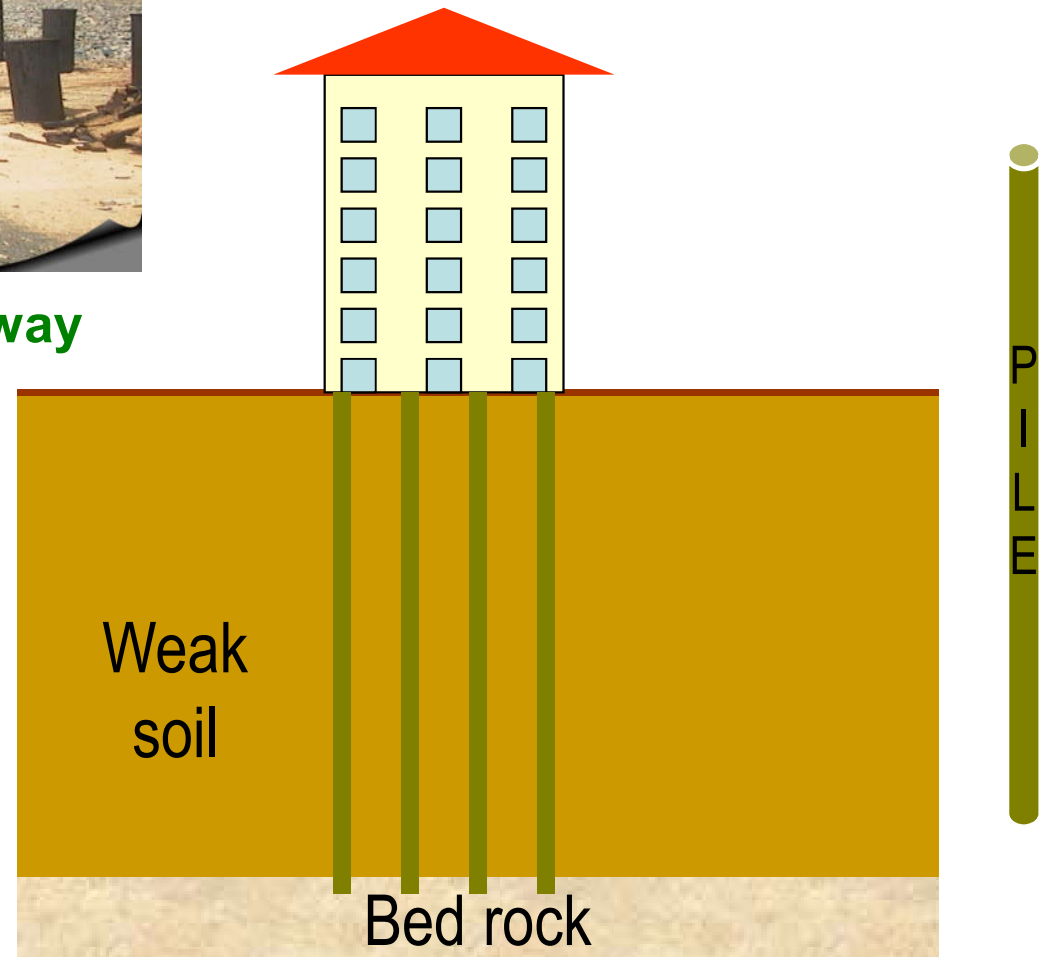
Deep Foundations



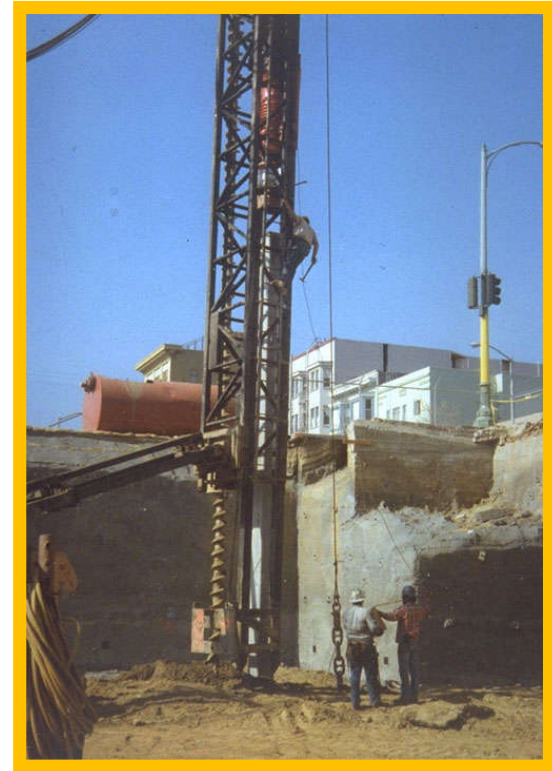
Driven timber piles, Pacific Highway

For transferring building loads to underlying ground

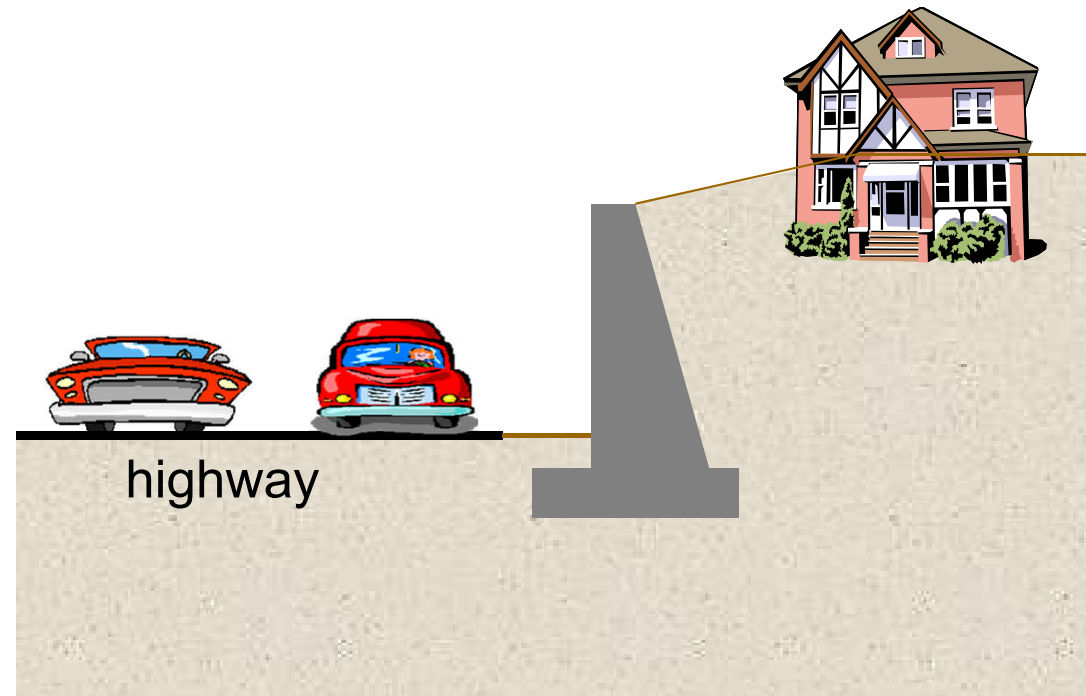
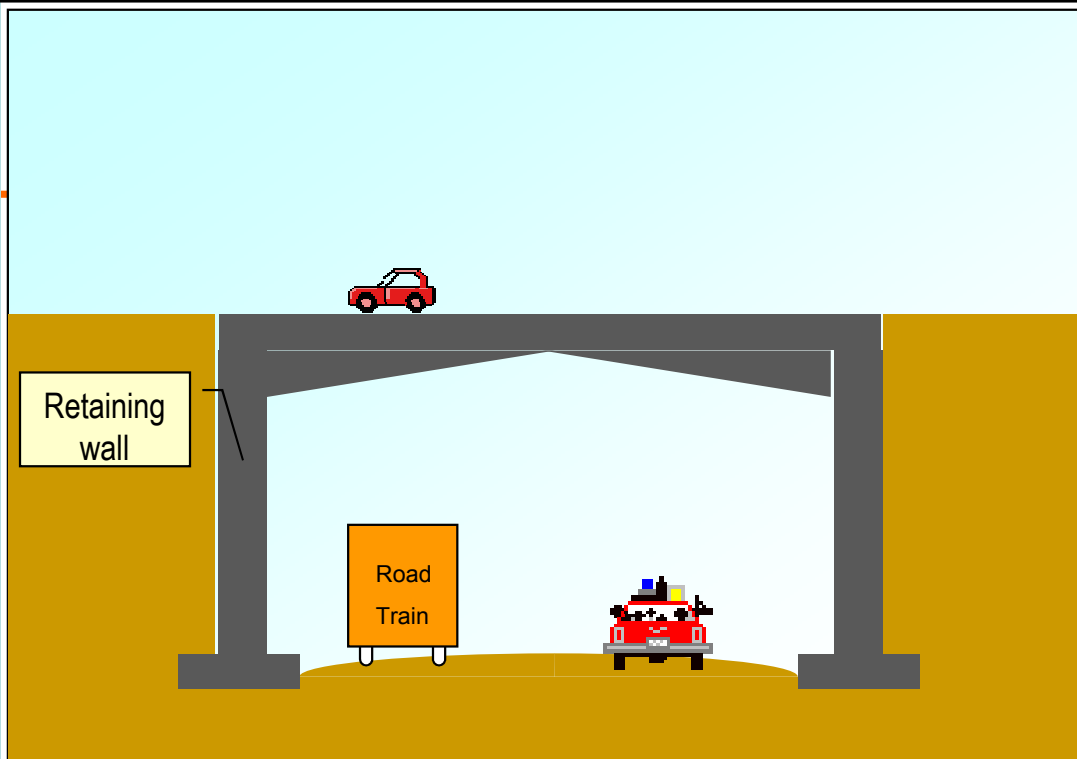
Mostly for weak soils or heavy loads



Pile Foundation



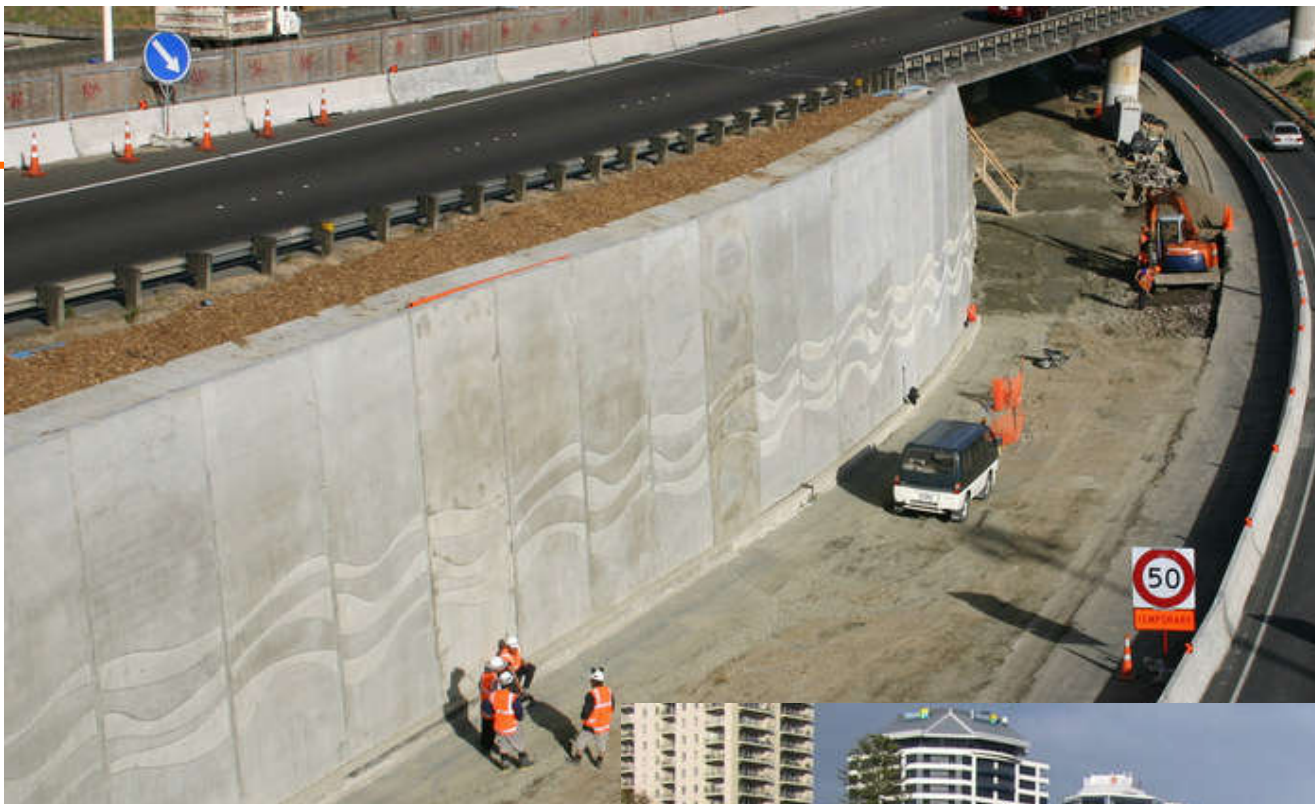
Retaining Walls



Retaining Walls



Retaining Walls



Retaining Walls



Retaining Walls



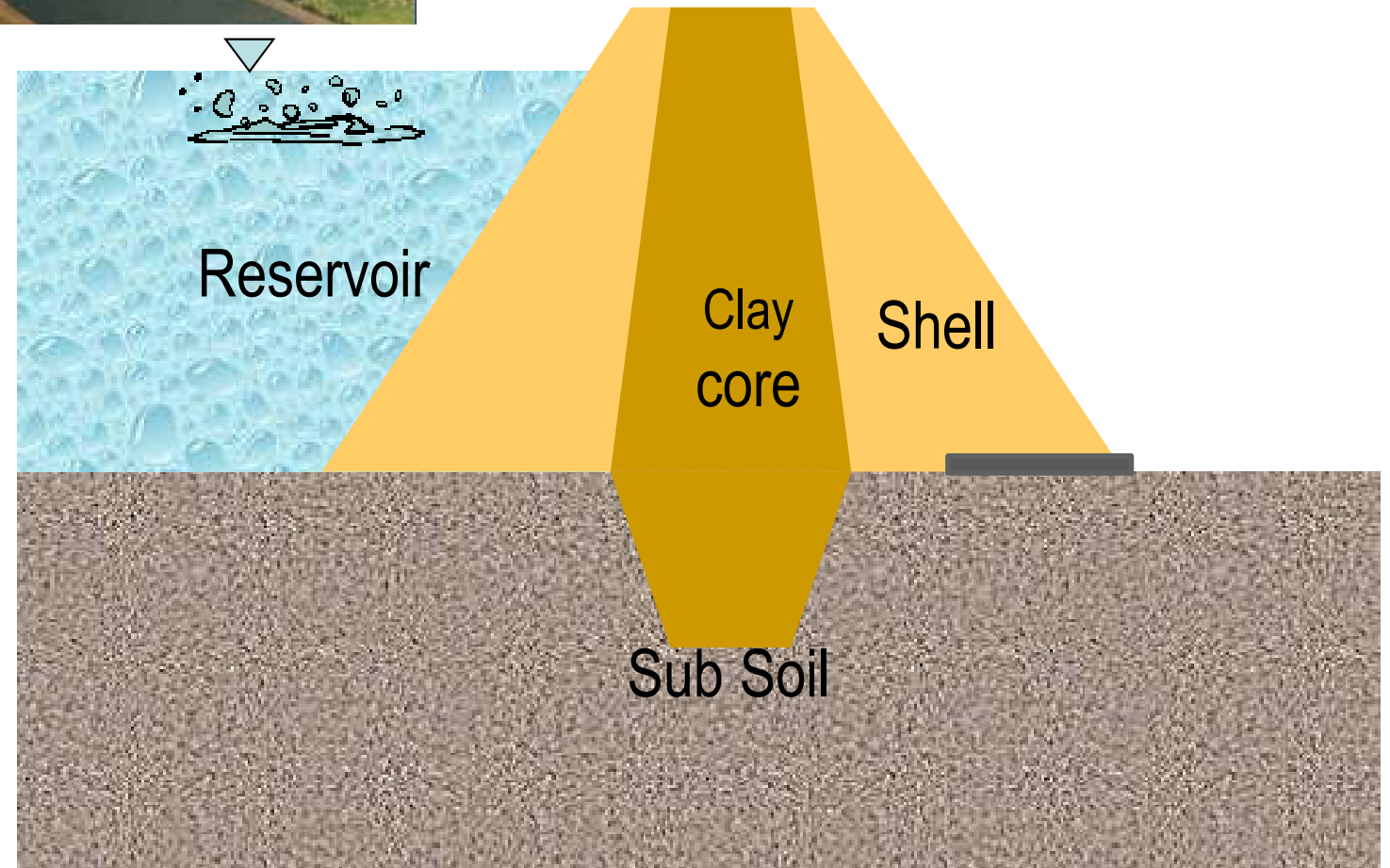
Retaining Walls



Earth Dams



For impounding water





Earth Dam



Earth Embankments





Earth Embankments



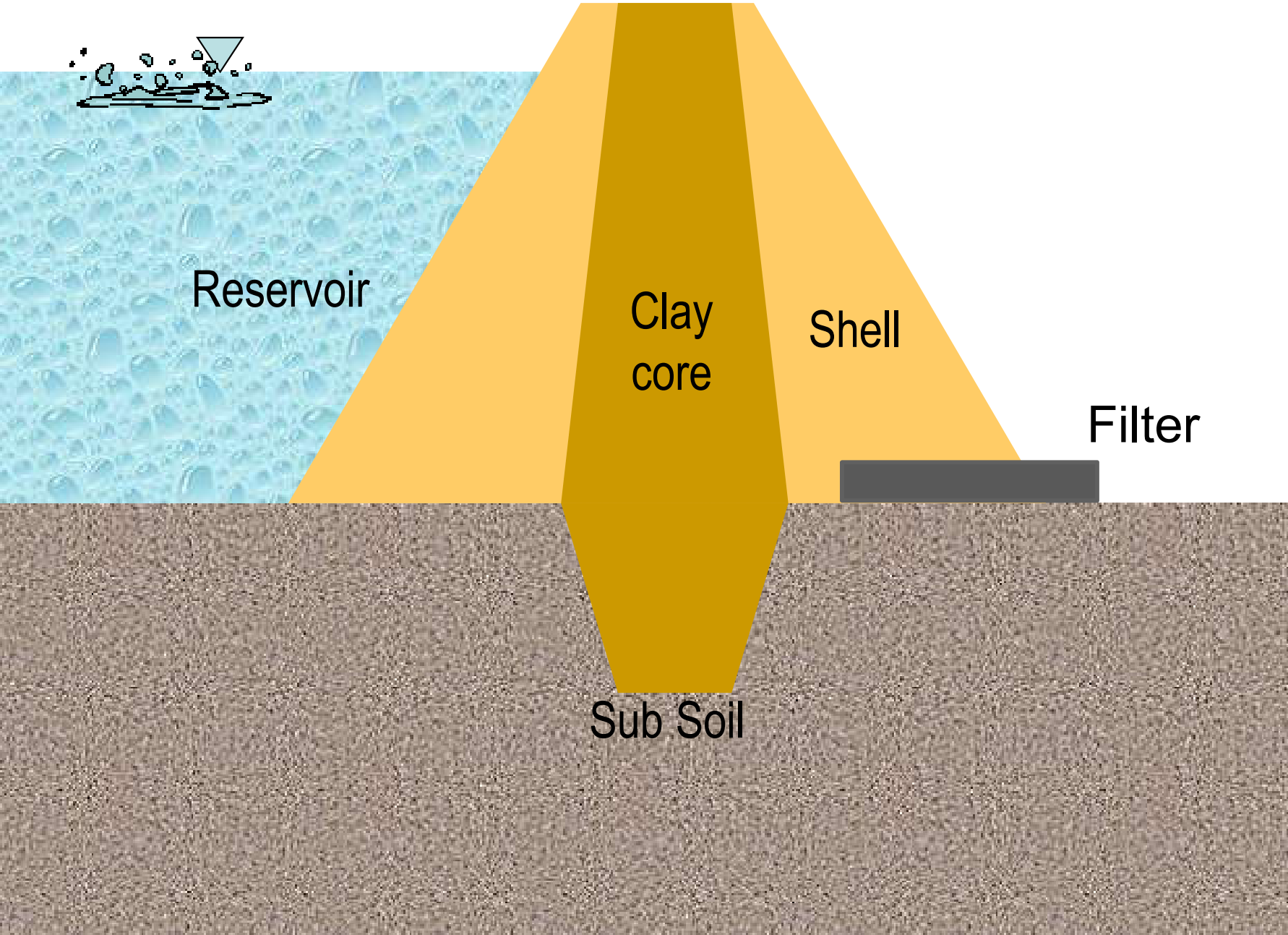
Reasons for earth dam failure

- Deliberate acts of sabotage.
- Structural failure of materials of dam.
- Failure of dam foundation.
- Piping and internal erosion of soil.
- Inadequate maintenance and upkeep.
- Extreme inflow (Overtopping beyond capacity)
- Earthquake.

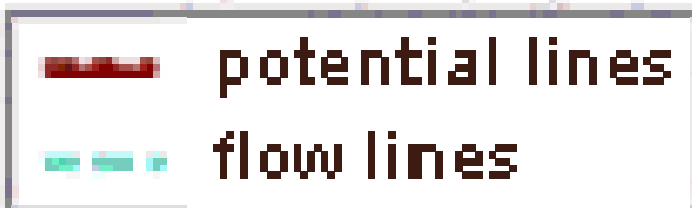
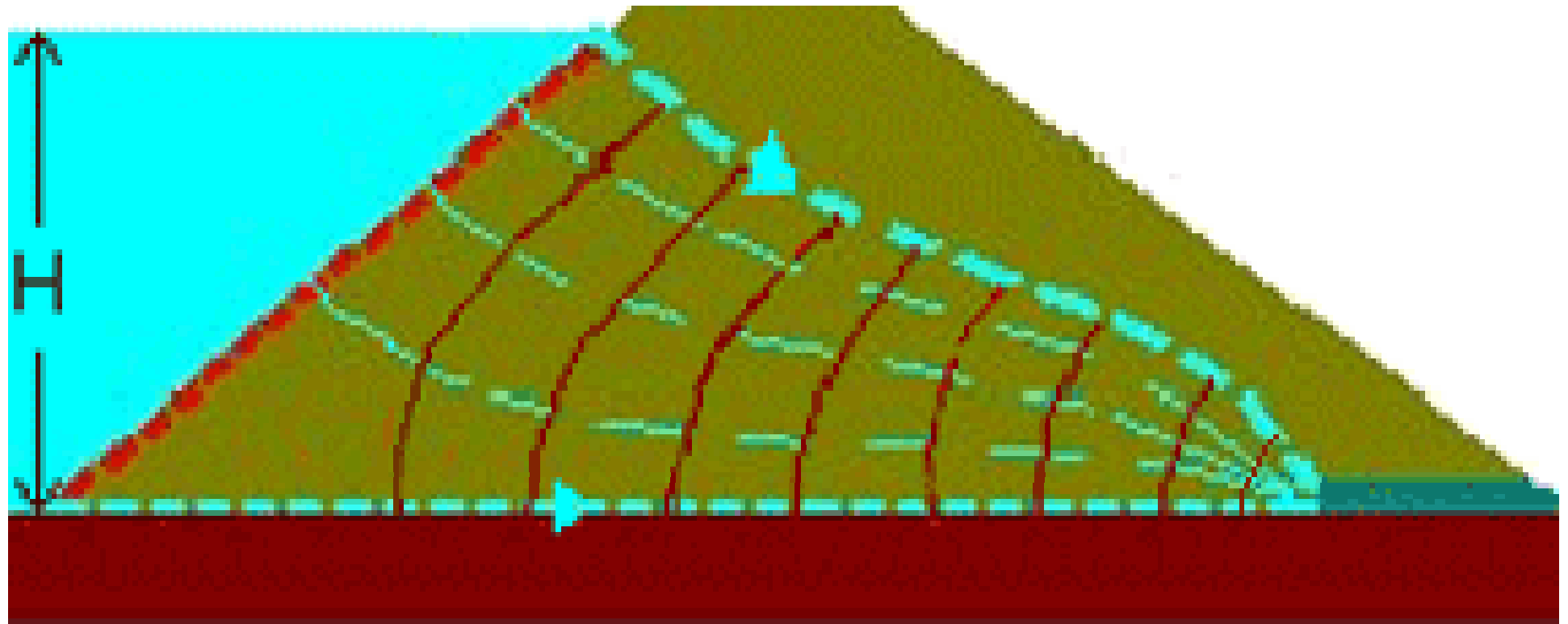
Cause of failure of Dams

Problem	Percentage Failure
Foundation problems	40 %
Inadequate spillway	23 %
Poor construction	12 %
Uneven settlement	10 %
High pore pressure	5 %
Acts of war	3 %
Embankment slips	2 %
Defective materials	2 %
Incorrect operations	2 %
Earthquakes	1 %

Earth Dam



Phreatic Line in an Earth Dam



Granular Filter Design

Retention criteria:

$$D_{15, \text{filter}} < 5 D_{85, \text{soil}}$$

average filter pore size

Permeability criteria:

$$D_{15, \text{filter}} > 4 D_{15, \text{soil}}$$

- after Terzaghi & Peck (1967)

$$D_{15, \text{filter}} < 20 D_{15, \text{soil}}$$

$$D_{50, \text{filter}} < 25 D_{50, \text{soil}}$$

- after US Navy (1971)

GSD Curves for the soil and filter must be parallel



Canal



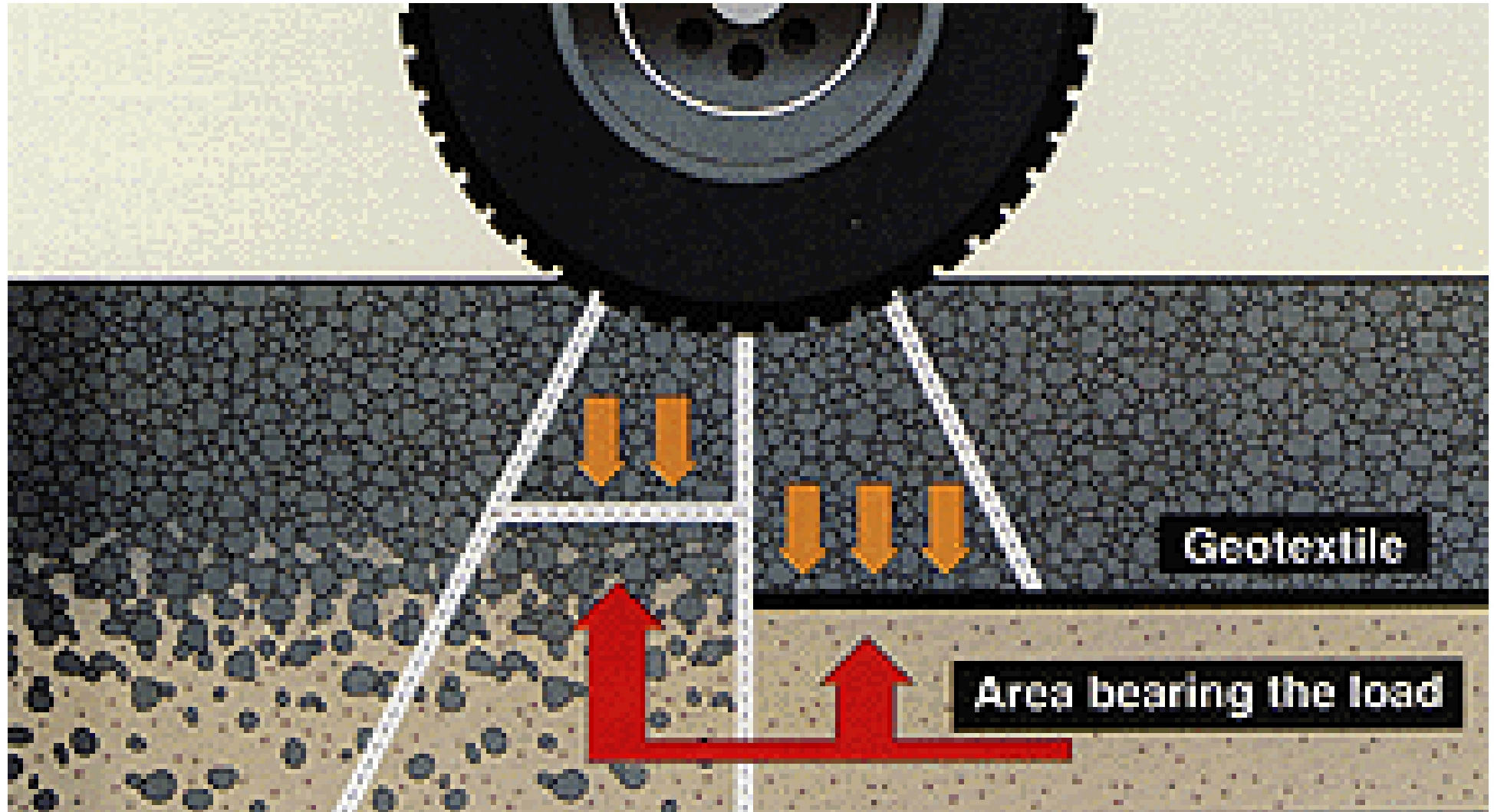
ROADS



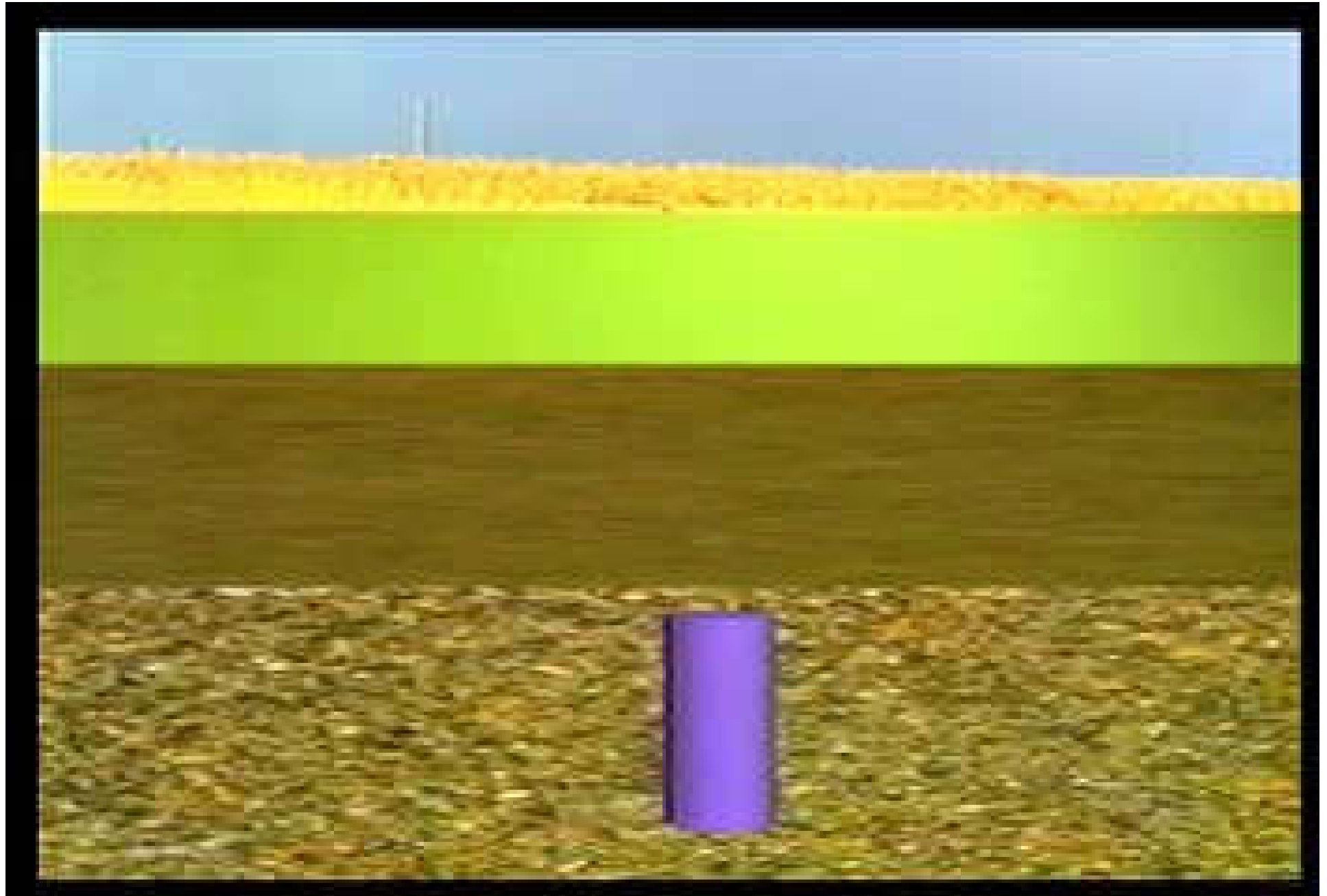
Most
essential of
Infrastructural
growth



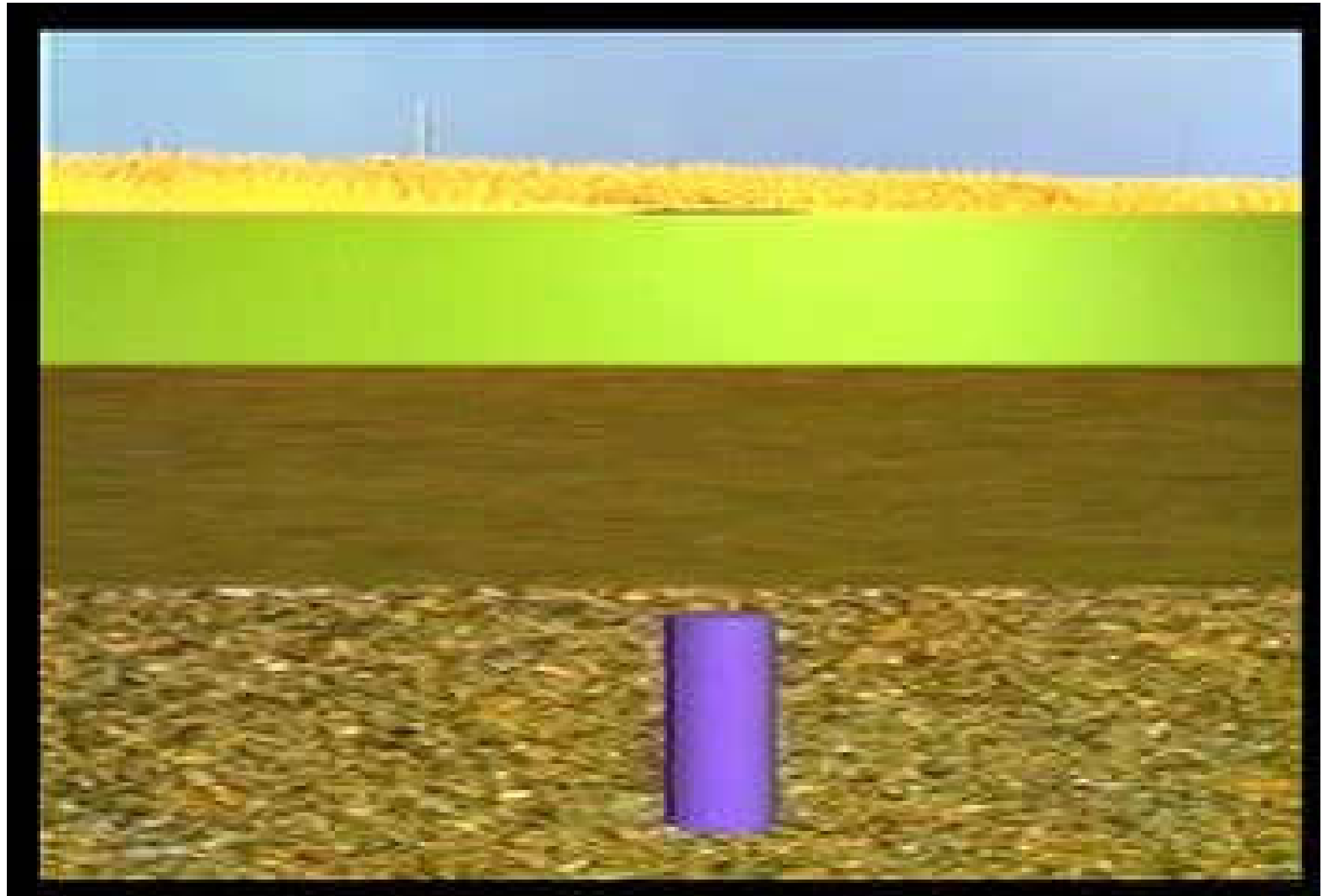
Geotextile in Pavements



Moving load causes changing stresses on subgrade, base & surface courses



Varying STRESSes result in changing STRAINs



Twin Tunnel to ease Traffic congestion in Brisbane, Australia



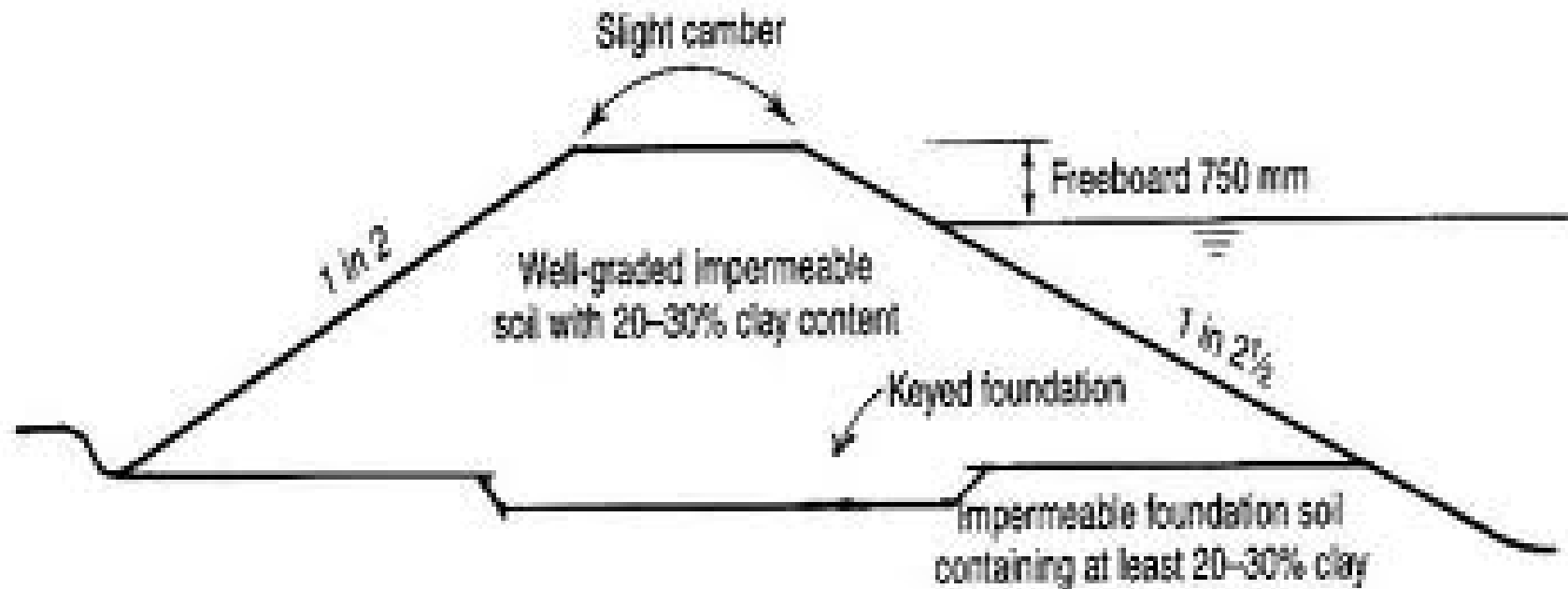
Water Intake structure in existing Vaal Dam, South Africa, including sinking shaft 25 m below water level for improved water supply



Tight working conditions and difficult geology mean that close project monitoring is key to safety and project completion.



Earth Embankments



Earth Embankments



Canal

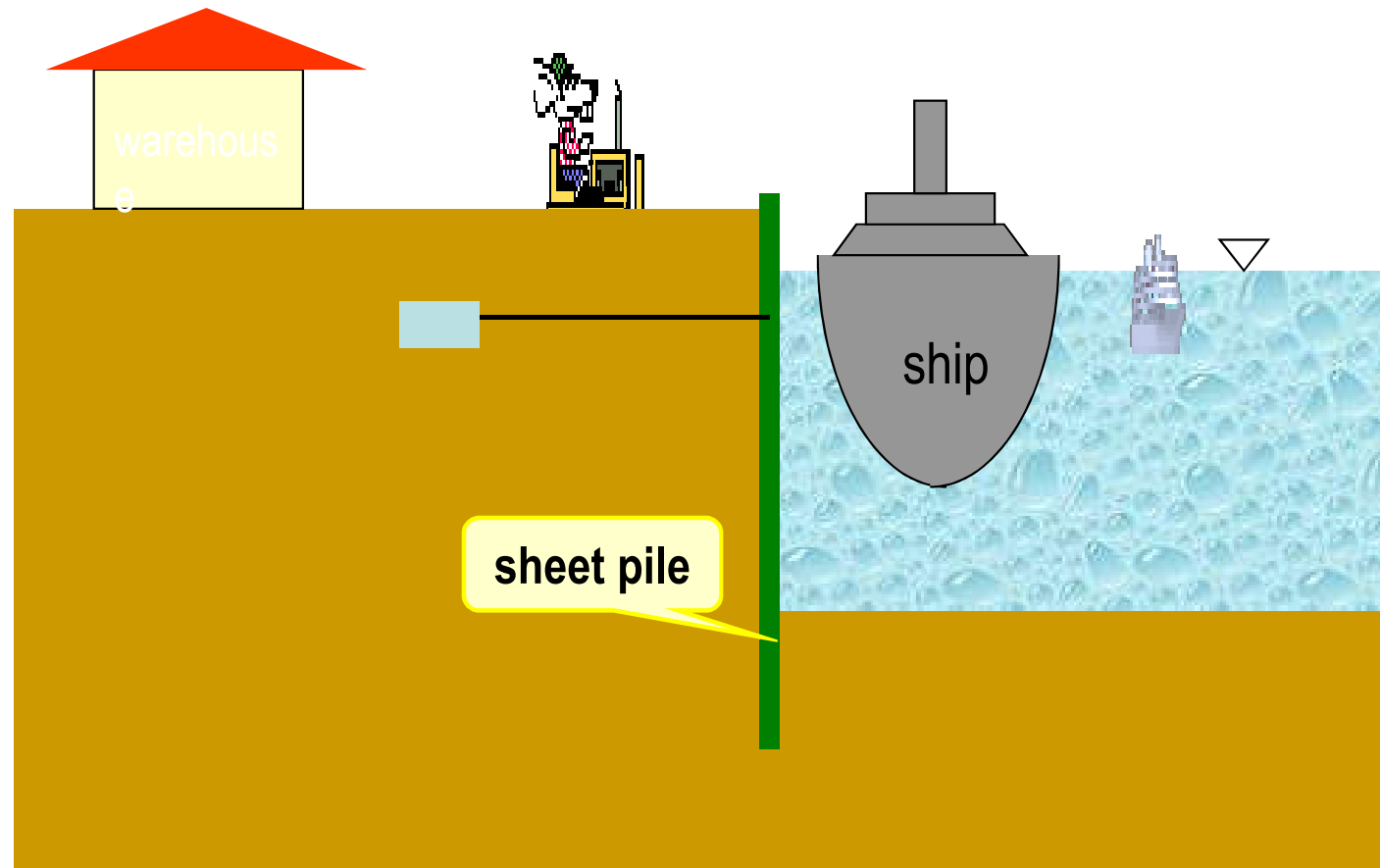


Canal



Sheet Piles

Sheets of interlocking steel or timber driven into the ground, forming a continuous sheet



Sheet Piles

- Resist lateral earth pressures
- Used in excavations, waterfront structures
- Used in temporary works
- Interlocking sections

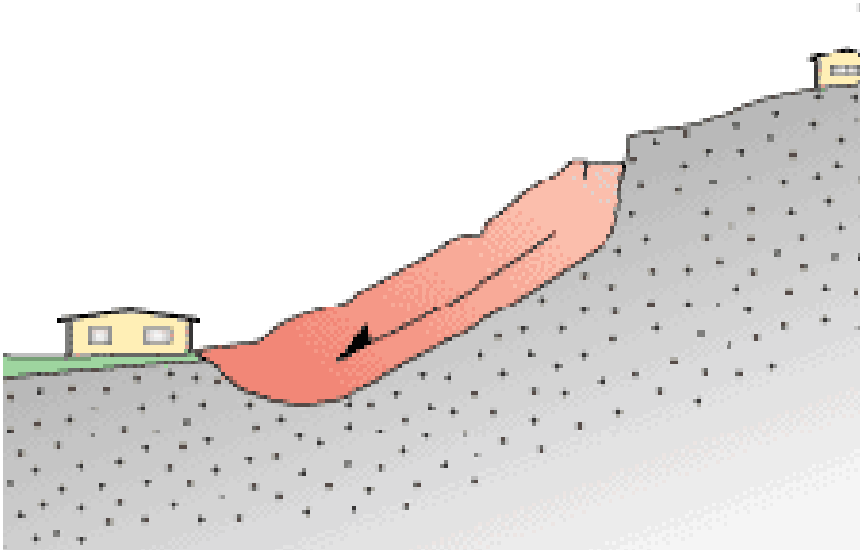


Cofferdam

Sheet pile walls enclosing an area,
To prevent water seeping in
Specially during construction



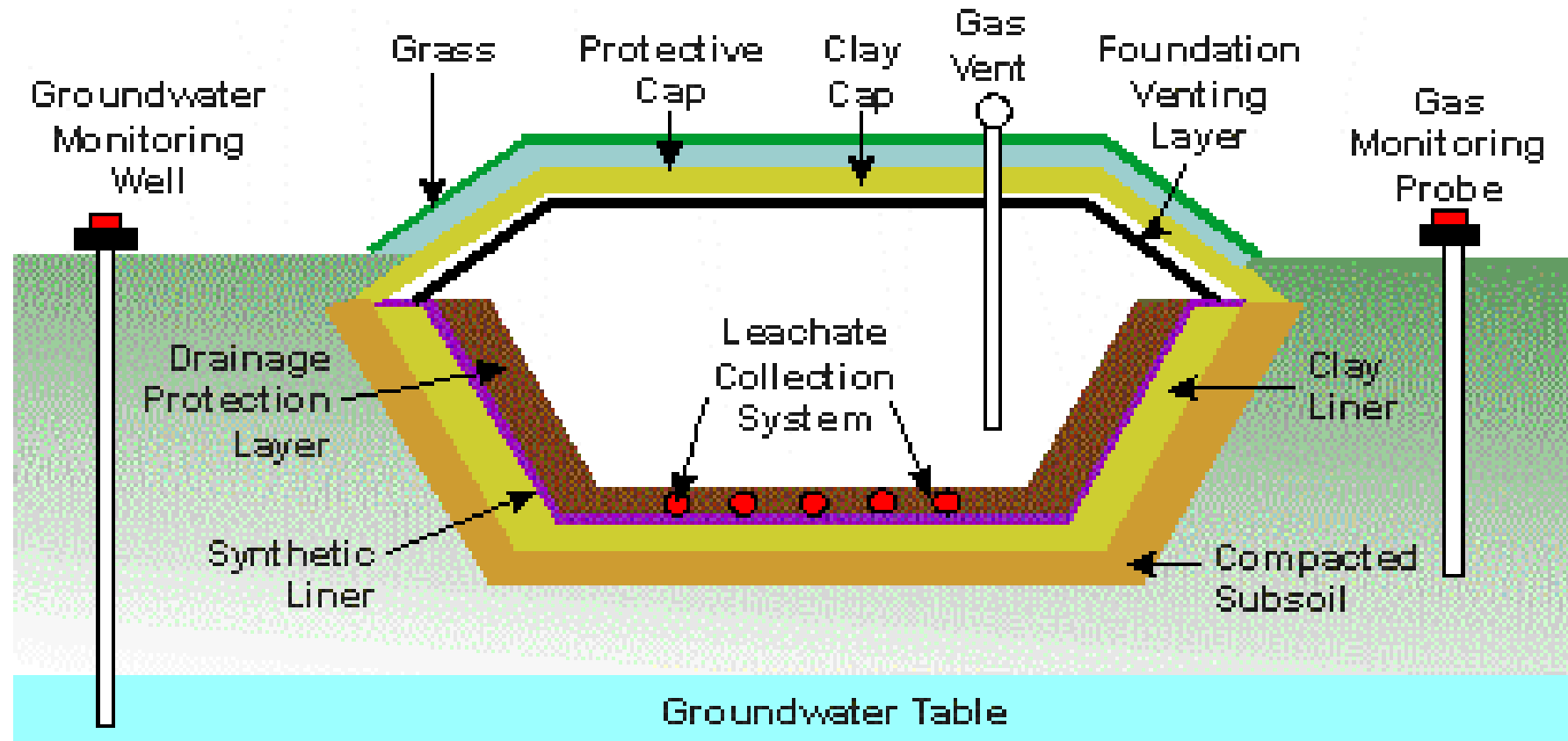
Landslides



Tunneling



Environmental Geomechanics



Waste Disposal in Landfills

Petronas Tower, Malaysia

Leaning Tower of Pisa

(Among the Tallest building in the world)

(Our blunders become monuments!)



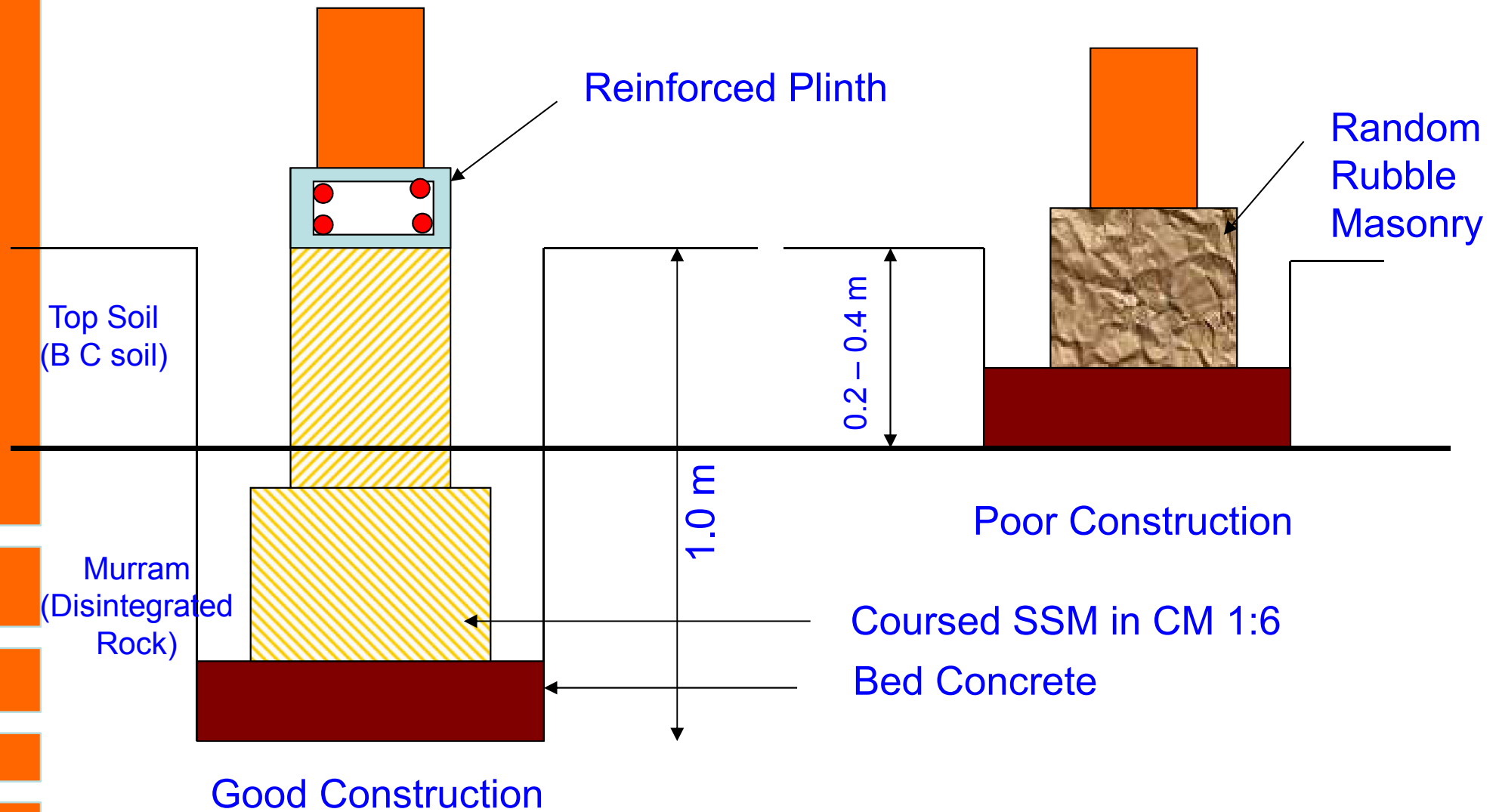
Tall, Taller, Tallest !!!



Our experience w
buildings worldw
Nakheel Tower in
at left), builds on
strengths in grou
and foundation d

**You can see the
competition for
height in Dubai
Nakheel Towers**

Typical Foundation details for Masonry Construction in Kutch Region



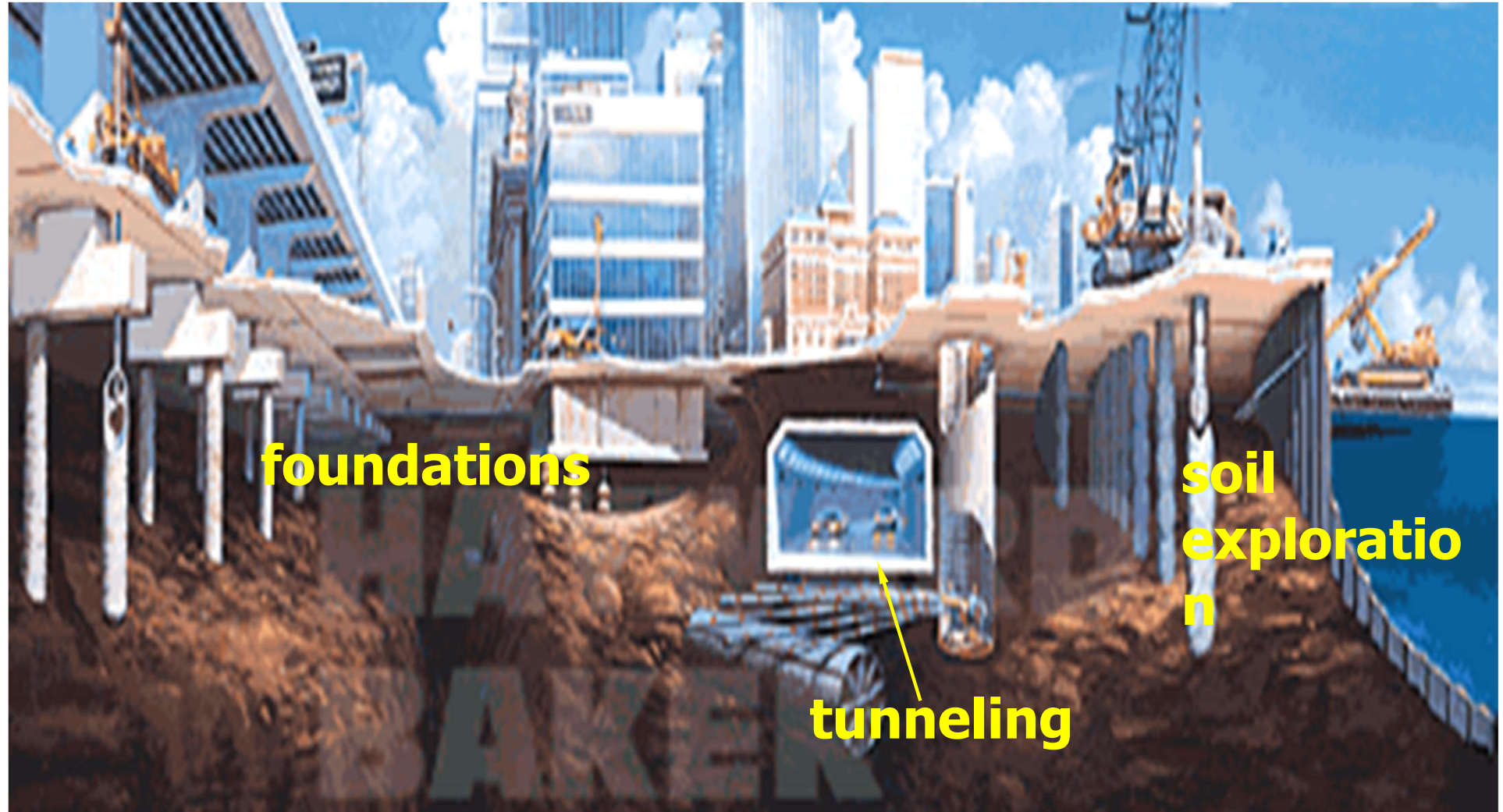
Structures with better construction practice & STRONG FOUNDATION survive

Gas tank resting on Piers and surrounding soil liquefied

Structures with better construction practice & STRONG FOUNDATION on stable base survive



Geotechnic for Infrastructure

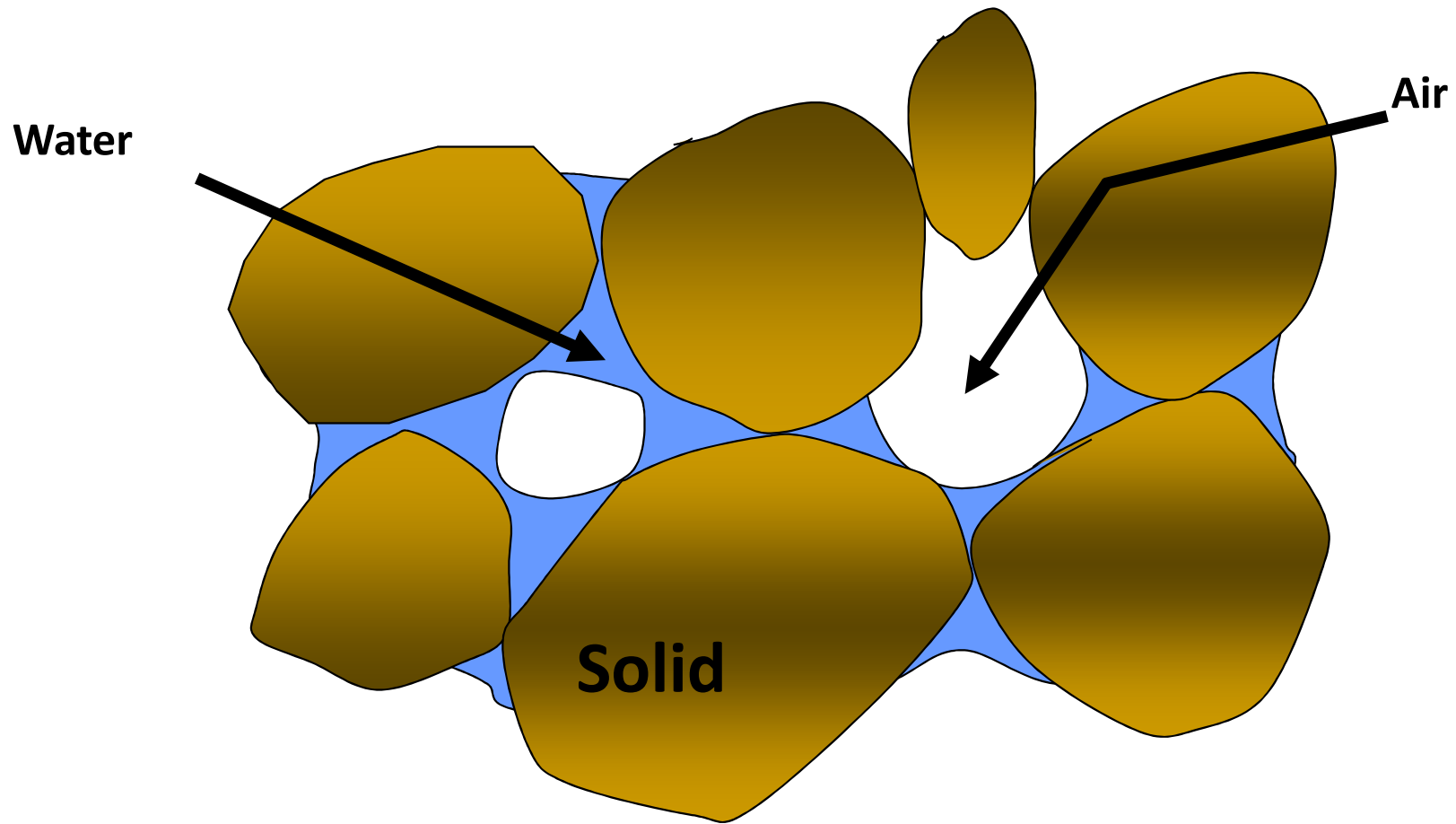


... buried right under your feet.

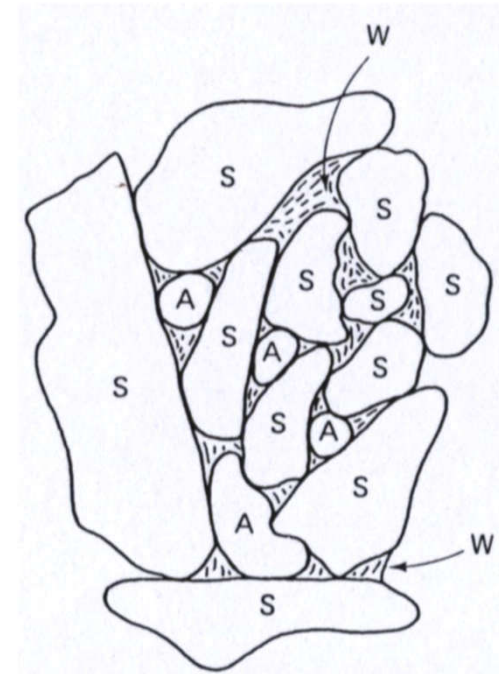


Soil Mass as a THREE Phase System & Basic Definitions

Typical Soil Mass as observed microscopically

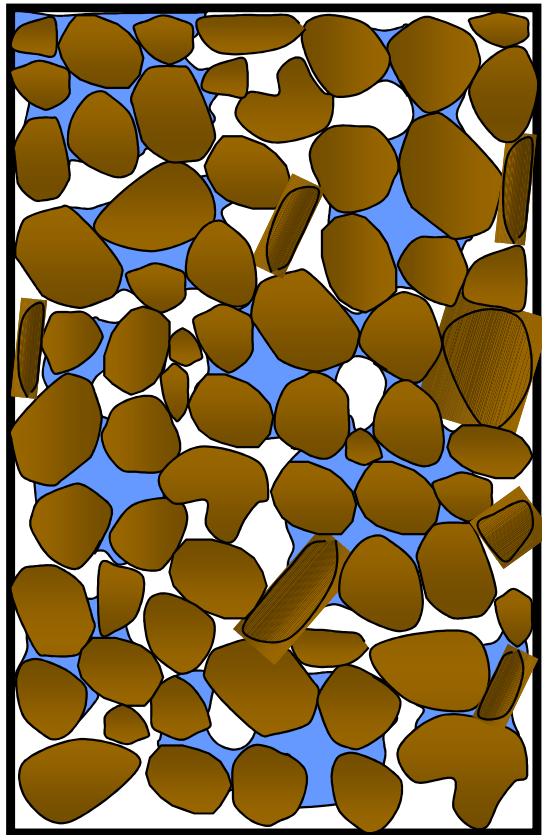


Soil a 3-Phase Material

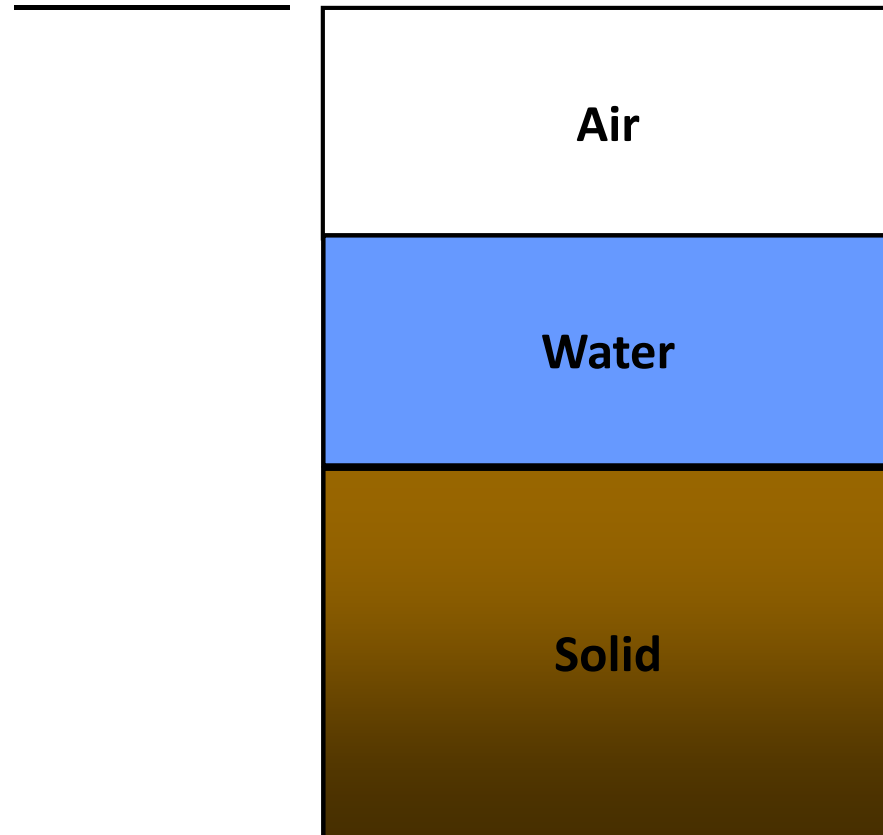


S	Solid	Soil particle
W	Liquid	Water (electrolytes)
A	Gas	Air

Three Phase Diagram

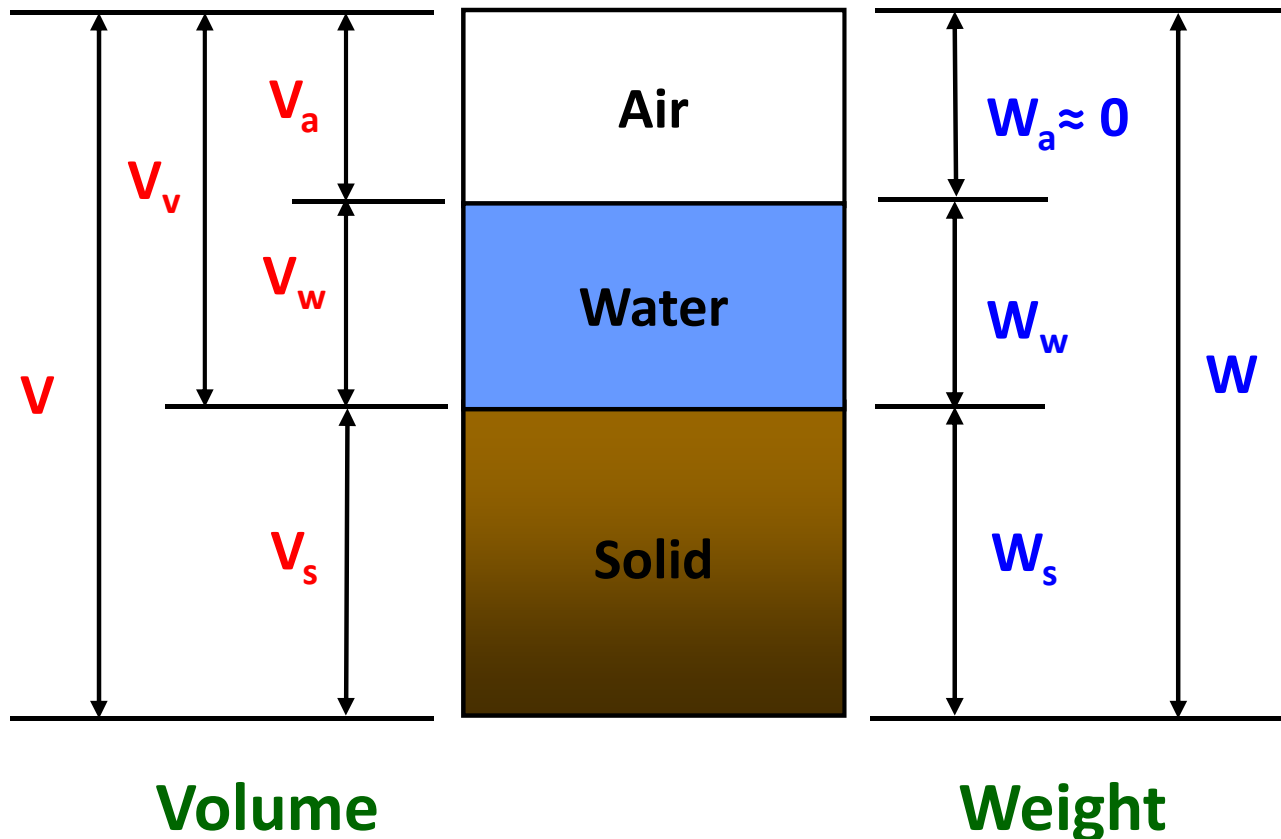


Mineral Skeleton



Idealization

Three Phase system



Notation

W = Weight

V = Volume

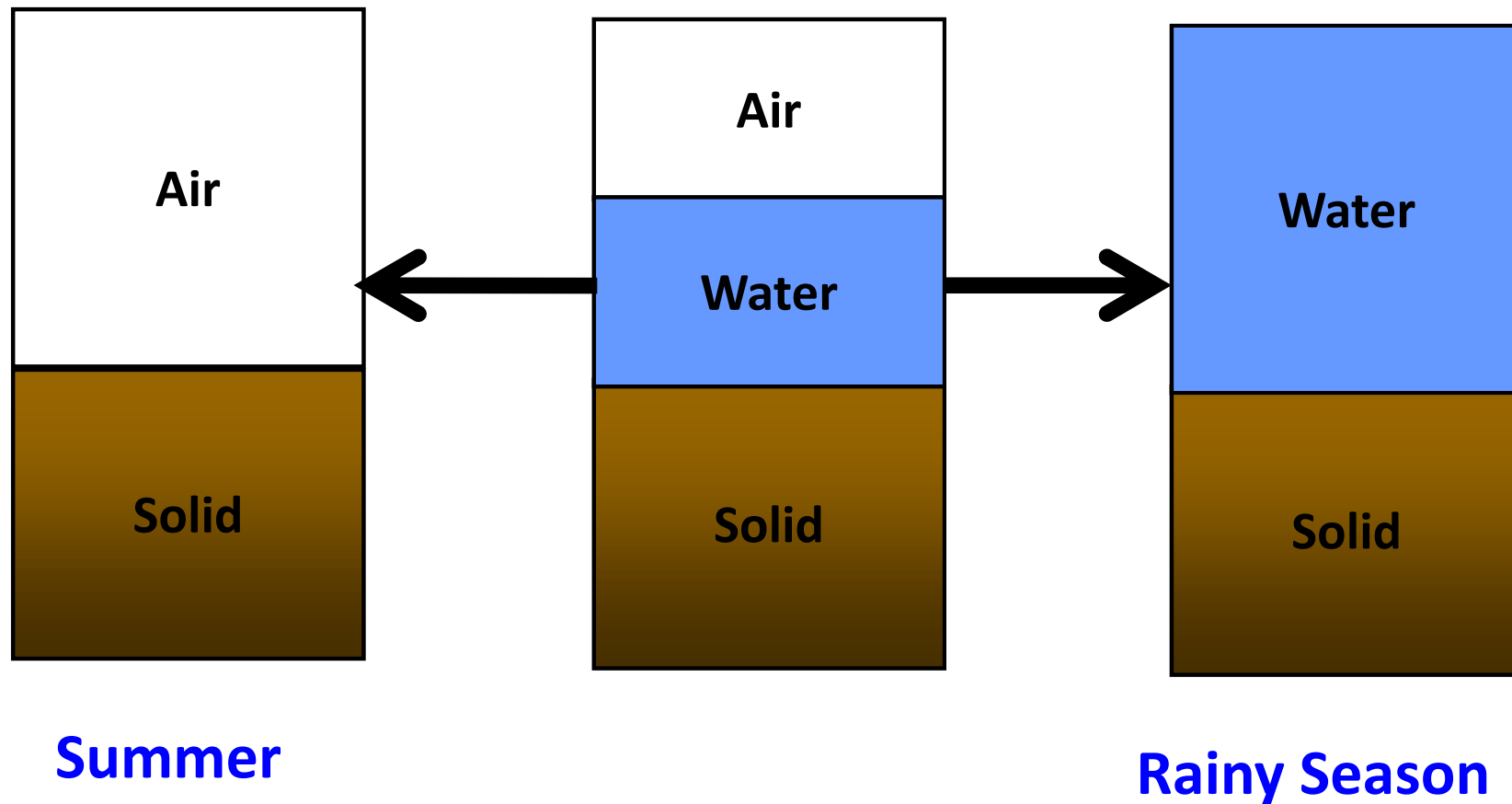
s = Soil grains

w = Water

a = Air

v = Voids

3 Phase system reduces to 2 Phase System



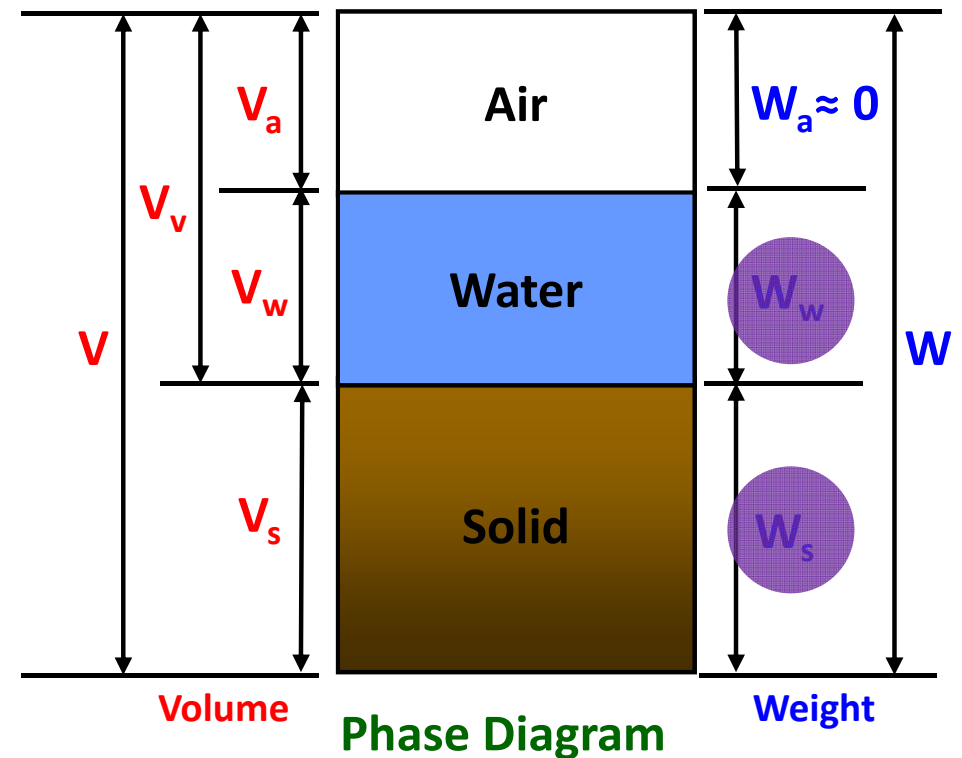
Water content (ω)....

is a measure of the water present in the soil.

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

Expressed as percentage.

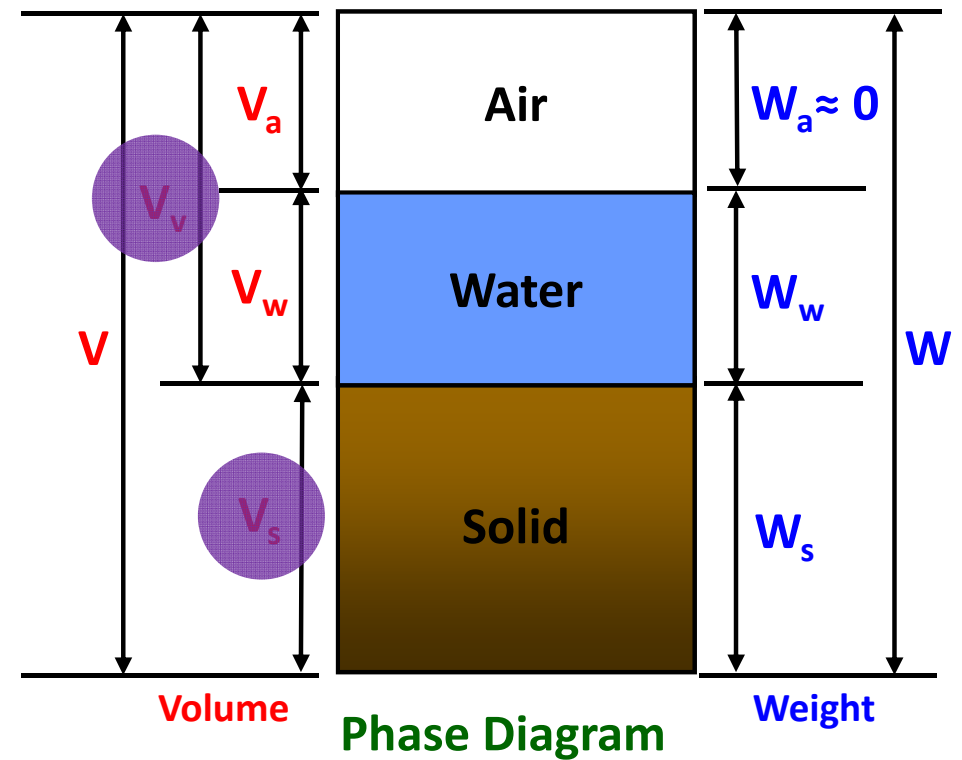
Range = 0 – 100+%.



Void ratio (e)

is a measure of the void volume

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

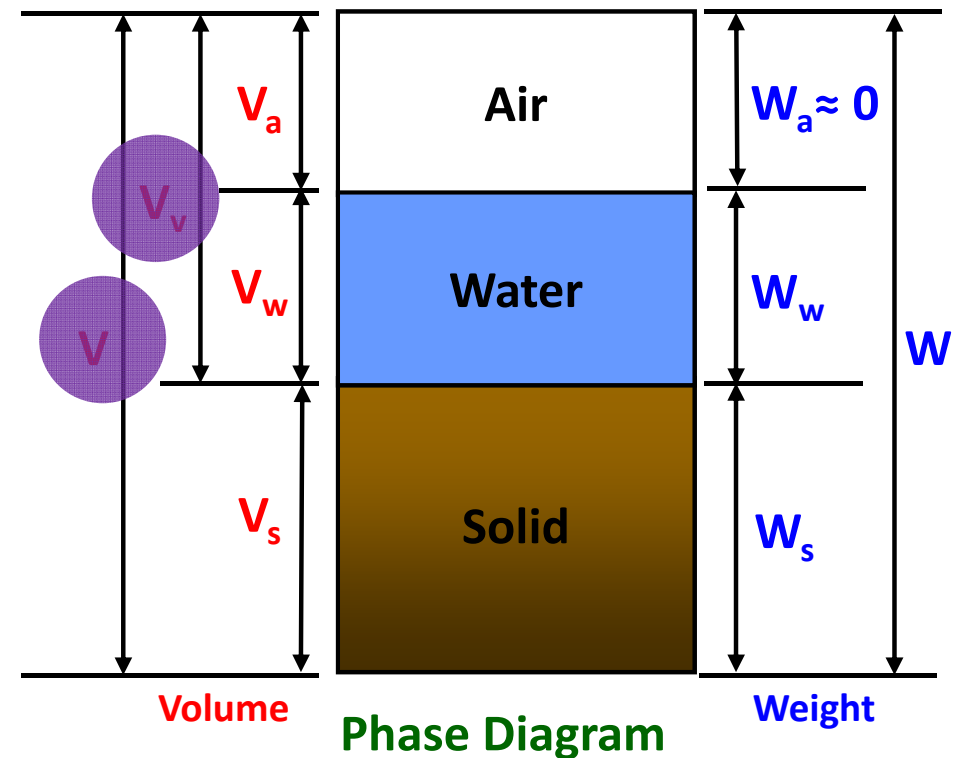


Porosity (n)

is also a measure of the void volume, expressed as a percentage

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

Theoretical range: 0 – 100%



Degree of saturation (S)

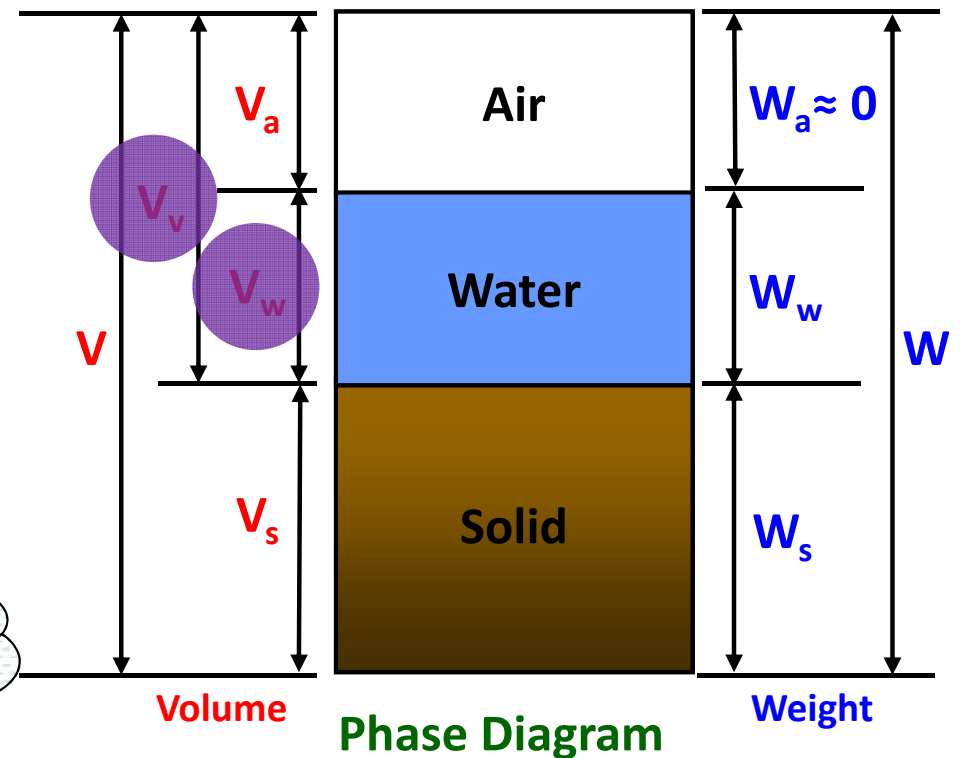
is the percentage of the void volume filled by water

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

Range: 0 – 100%

Dry

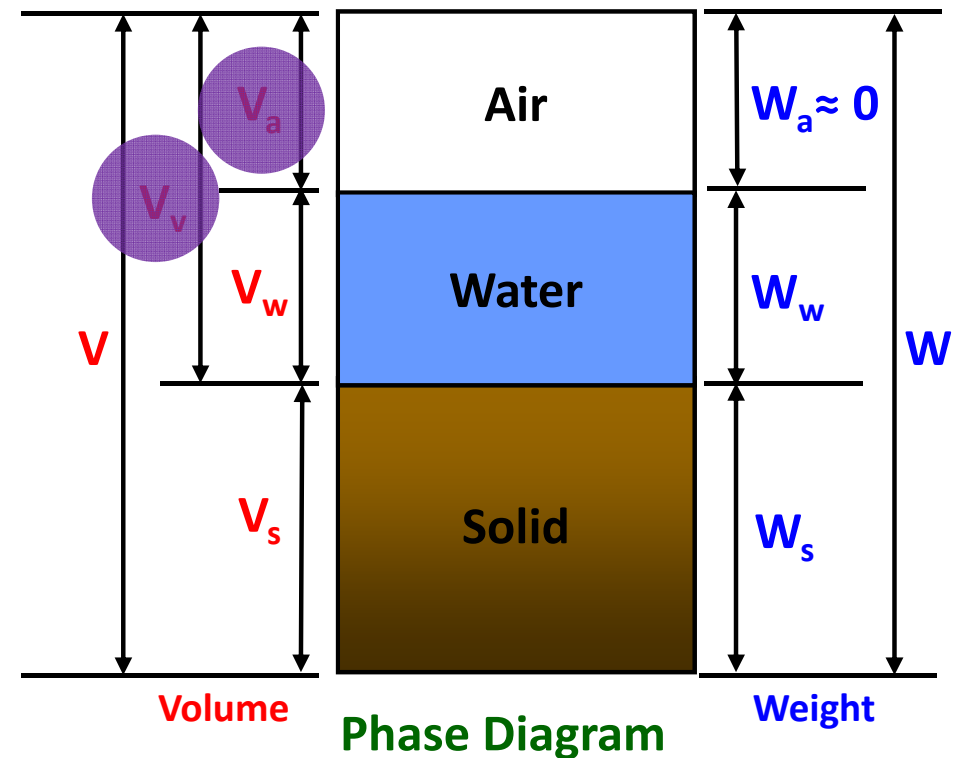
Saturated



Air content (A_c)....

is the percentage of the void volume filled by air

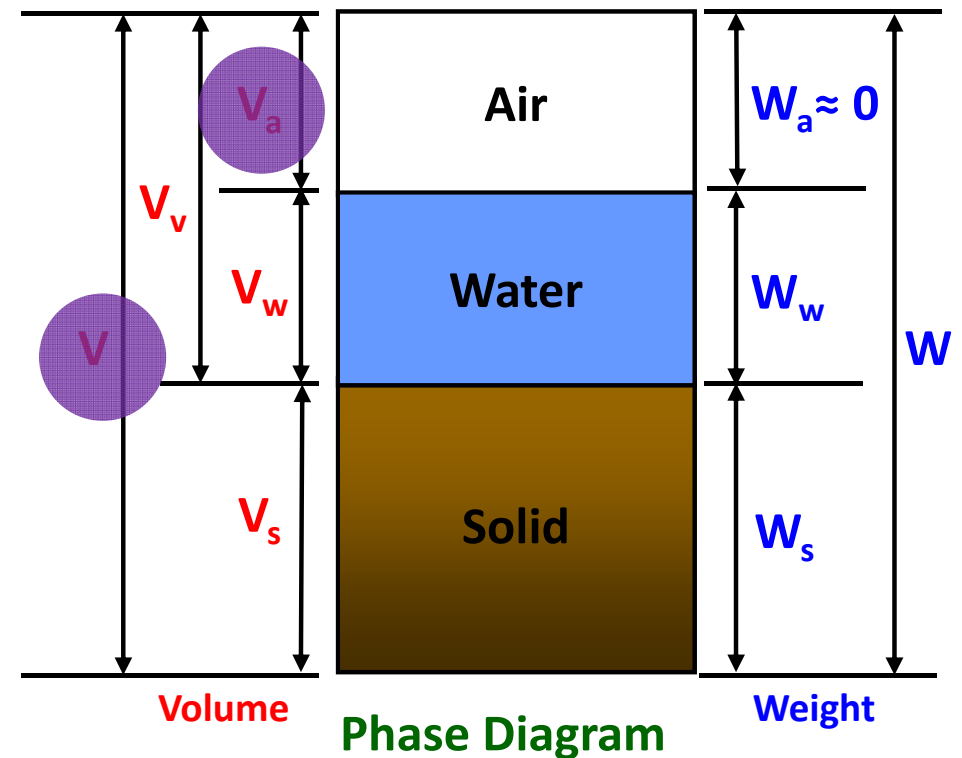
$$A_c = \frac{V_a}{V_v}$$



Percentage Air voids (n_a)

is the percentage of total volume filled by air

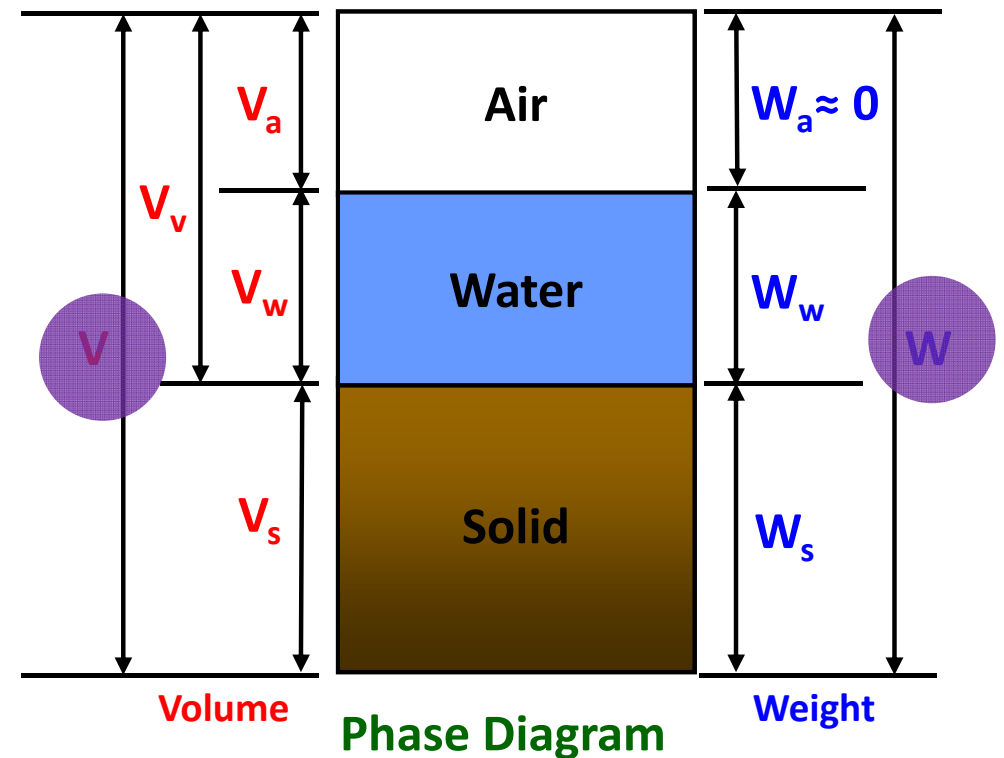
$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V}$$



Bulk unit weight (γ_b)....

is the weight of soil mass per unit volume

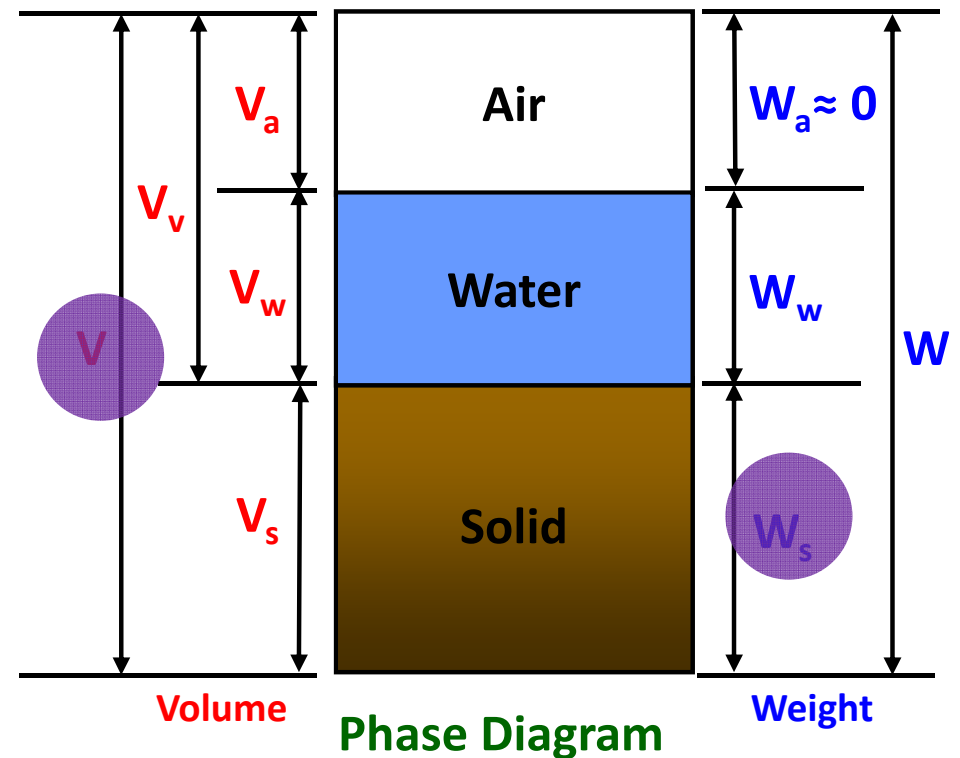
$$\gamma_b = \frac{W}{V}$$



Dry unit weight (γ_d)....

is the weight of soil per unit volume, excluding water

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



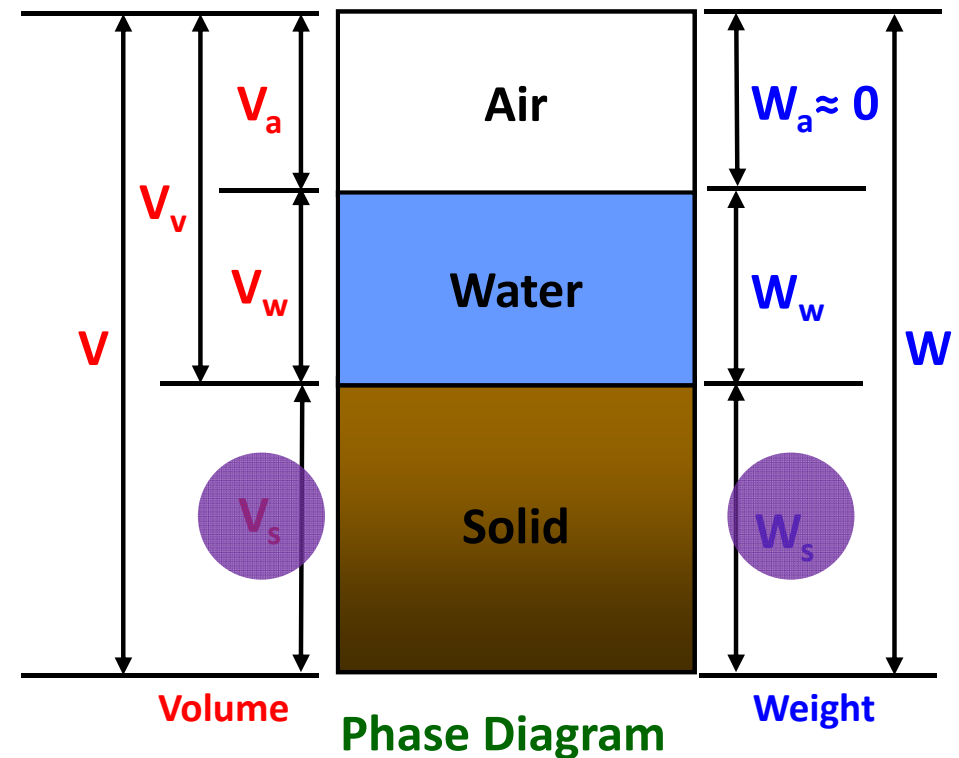
Typical values of void ratios and dry densities for granular soil

Soil type	Void ratio, e		Dry unit weight, γ_d	
	Maximum	Minimum	Minimum (kN/m^3)	Maximum (kN/m^3)
Gravel	0.6	0.3	16	20
Coarse sand	0.75	0.35	15	19
Fine sand	0.85	0.4	14	19
Standard Ottawa sand	0.8	0.5	14	17
Gravelly sand	0.7	0.2	15	22
Silty sand	1	0.4	13	19
Silty sand and gravel	0.85	0.15	14	23

Unit weight of solids (γ_s)

is the weight of soil solids per unit volume.

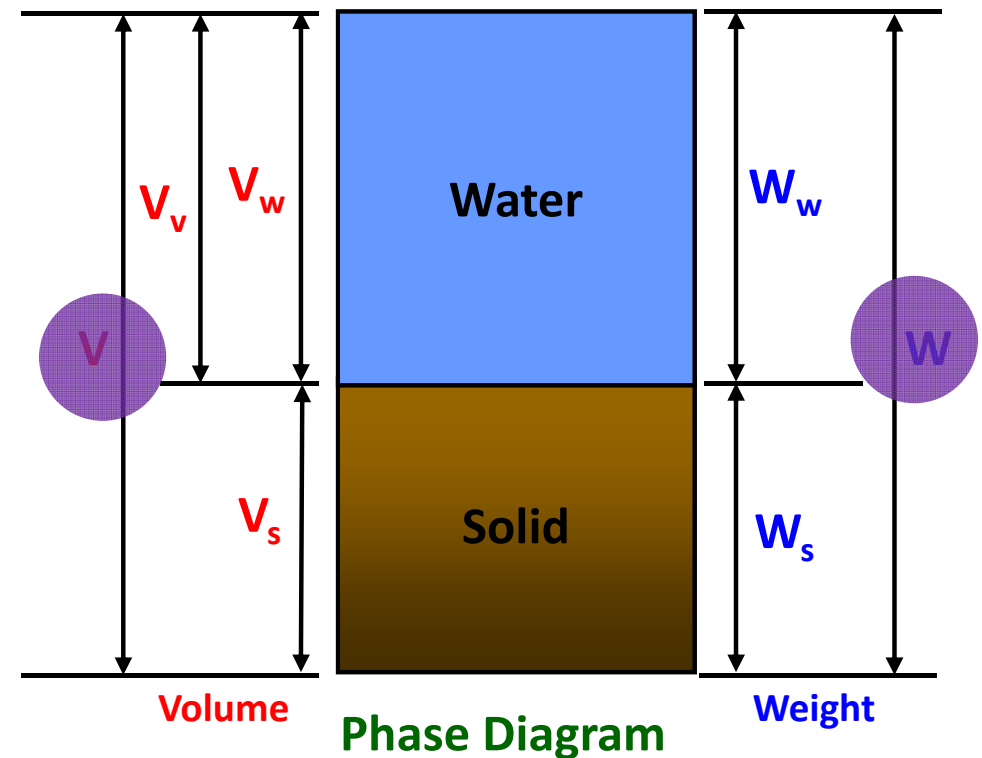
$$\gamma_s = \frac{W_s}{V_s}$$



Saturated unit weight (γ_{sat})

is the weight of soil mass per unit volume when $s = 1$

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



Unit weight of water (γ_w)

1. It is defined as the ratio of weight of water to volume of water.
2. In SI units, it is expressed in kN/m^3 and can be taken as 9.8 kN/m^3 .
3. It is used in computation of other quantities.

$$\gamma_w = \frac{W_w}{V_w}$$

Submerged unit weight (γ_{sub})



1. It is defined as the net weight per volume of soil mass in water.
2. In SI units, it is expressed as kN/m^3 .
3. It is equal to saturated unit weight minus unit weight of water.

$$\gamma_{sub} = \gamma_{sat} - \gamma_w$$

Specific gravity of soil solids (G)

$$G = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}$$

1. It is defined as the weight of soil solids to weight of equal volume of water.
2. Hence, it is the ratio of unit weight of soil solids to unit weight of water.
3. It has no units and is expressed in decimals.

Specific gravity of soil solids (G)

4. Normally, G of most soils varies from 2.6 to 2.8. Organic soils may have G up to 2.
5. G is determined in the laboratory and is used to compute other parameters such as void ratio.
6. Many a times, specific gravity means G.

$$G = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}$$

Apparent Specific gravity (G_m)

$$G_m = \frac{\gamma_b}{\gamma_w}$$

1. It is defined as the weight of soil mass to weight of equal volume of water.
2. It is also called Specific Gravity of soil mass.
3. It has no units and is expressed in decimals.
4. Its magnitude is always smaller than that of G .
5. It is less commonly used in calculations.

Relative Density (D_r)

$$D_r = \frac{e_{max} - e}{e_{max} - e_{min}}$$

1. It is also called Density Index.
2. It has no unit. It is expressed in percentage.
3. D_r ranges from 0 to 100 %.
4. It is applicable for coarse grained soil such as sand and gravel.
5. It indicates whether the in-situ density of soil is close to loosest or densest state.
6. When $D_r = 1$, soil is in its densest state and when $D_r = 0$, soil is in its loosest state

Relative Density (D_r)

$$D_r = \frac{e_{max} - e}{e_{max} - e_{min}}$$

Relative Density (%)	State
0 to 20	Very Loose
20 to 40	Loose
40 to 60	Medium dense
60 to 80	Dense
80 to 100	Very Dense



Soil Classification (as per IS 1498-1970)

If more than 50 % of weight of soil mass has
size > 0.075 mm Coarse Grained Soil

Coarse Grained Soil

First Symbol

Second Symbol

G : Gravel

S : Sand

W : Well Graded Soil

P : Poorly Graded Soil

C : Soil containing Clay

M : Soil containing fines
other than Clay

IS Soil Classification (IS: 1498-1970) Including Field Identification and Description

Major Divisions		Group Symbol	Typical Names	Field Identification procedures	Information required for describing soils	
COARSE-GRAINED SOILS More than half of material is larger 75 µm sieve size. The 75 µm sieve size is about the size particle visible to the naked eye	GRAVELS More than half of coarse fraction is smaller than 4.75 mm sieve size	Clean gravels (little or no fines)	GW	Well graded gravel, gravel-sand mixtures, little or no fines	Wide range in grain size and substantial amounts of all intermediate particle sizes	For undisturbed soils and information on stratification, degree of compactness, cementation, moisture conditions and drainage characteristics. Give typical name; indicate approximate percentages of sand, gravel, maximum size, angularity, surface condition and hardness of the coarse grains, local or geologic names and other pertinent descriptive information and symbol in parenthesis. Example: Silty and gravelly, about 20 % hard angular gravels 10 mm maximum size, rounded and sub-circular sand grains about 15 %. Non-plastic fines with low dry strength, well compacted and moist in place alluvial sand, (SM)
		Gravel with fines (Appreciable amount of fines)	GP	Poorly graded gravels or gravel-sand mixtures, little or no fines	Predominantly one size or a range of sizes with some intermediate sizes missing	
		Gravel with fines (Appreciable amount of fines)	GM	Silty gravels, poorly graded gravel-sand-silt mixtures	Non-plastic fines or fines with low plasticity (for identification procedures see ML and MI below)	
			GC	Clayey gravels, poorly graded gravel-sand-silt mixtures	Plastic fines (for identification procedures see CL and CI below)	
	SANDS More than half of coarse fraction is smaller than 4.75 mm sieve size	Clean sands (Little or no fines)	SW	Well graded sands, gravelly sands, little or no fines	Wide range in grain size and substantial amounts of all intermediate particle sizes	
		Sand with fines (Appreciable amount of fines)	SP	Poorly graded sands or gravelly sands, little or no fines	Predominantly one size of a range of sizes with some intermediate sizes missing	
			SM	Silty sands, poorly graded sand silt mixtures	Non-plastic fines or fines with low plasticity (for identification procedures see ML and MI below)	
		SC	Clayey sands, poorly graded sand-clay mixtures	Plastic fines (for identification procedures see CL and CI below)		

IS Soil Classification for Coarse Grained soils (IS: 1498-1970)

Symbols	Laboratory Classification Criteria		
GW	C_u Greater than 4 C_c Between 1 and 3		Determine percentage of gravel and sand from grain size curve depending on percentage of fines (fraction smaller than 75 μm sieve size); coarse-grained soils are classified as follows: Less than 5 %: GW, GP, SW, SP More than 12 %: GM, GC, SM, SC 5 % to 12 % : <i>Border line cases</i> requiring use of <i>dual symbols</i> Uniformity coefficient, Coefficient of Curvature,
GP	Not meeting all gradation requirements for GW		
GM	Atterberg limits below "A" line or I_p less than 4	Limits plotting above "A" line with I_p between 4 and 7 are <i>border line cases</i> requiring use of <i>dual symbols</i>	
GC	Atterberg limits above "A" line with I_p greater than 7		
SW	C_u Greater than 6 C_c Between 1 and 3		
SP	Not meeting all gradation requirements for SW		
SM	Atterberg limits below "A" line or I_p less than 4	Limits plotting above "A" line with I_p between 4 and 7 are <i>border line cases</i> requiring use of <i>dual symbols</i>	
SC	Atterberg limits above "A" line with I_p greater than 7		

Classification from SM/GM to SC/GC

- Coarse-grained soils which contain more than 12 % fines ($< 75 \mu\text{m}$) are classified as GM or SM if fines are silty in character (meaning, the limits plot below the A-line on the plasticity chart).
- On the other hand they are classified as GC or SC if the fines are clayey in character (meaning the limits plot above the A-line on the plasticity chart).

If more than 50 % of weight of soil sample has size < 0.075 mm, it is Fine Grained Soil

Fine Grained Soil

First Symbol

M : Silt

C : Clay

O : Organic Soil

Pt : Peat

Second Symbol

L : Soil with LOW plasticity

I : Soil with MEDIUM plasticity

H : Soil with HIGH plasticity

Classification based on Plasticity

The fine-grained soils are further divided into three subdivisions depending upon the values of the liquid limit:

Silts and clays of low compressibility – These soils have a liquid limit less than 35 % (represented by a symbol “**L**”)

Silts and clays of medium compressibility – These soils have a liquid limit $> 35\%$ but $< 50\%$ (represented by a symbol “**I**”)

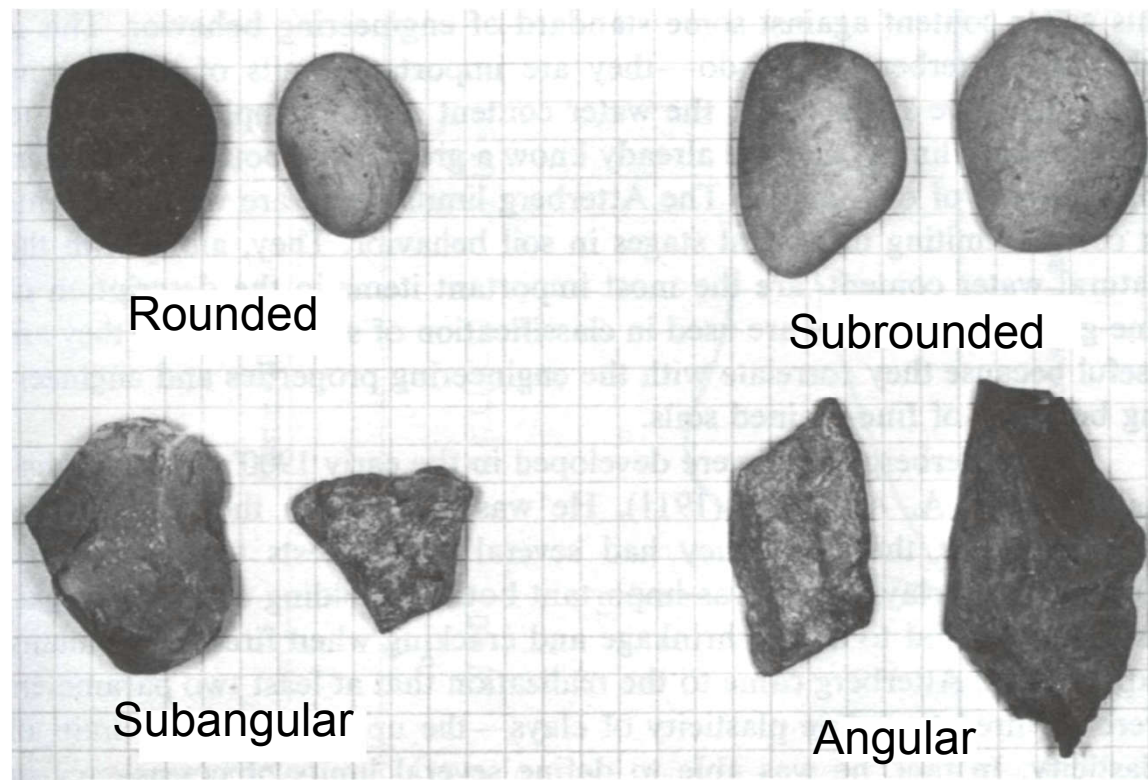
Silts and clays of high compressibility – These soils have a liquid limit $> 50\%$ (represented by a symbol “**H**”)

Fine-grained soils are further sub-divided, as given in table in **9 groups**.

IS Soil Classification (IS: 1498-1970) Including Field Identification and Description

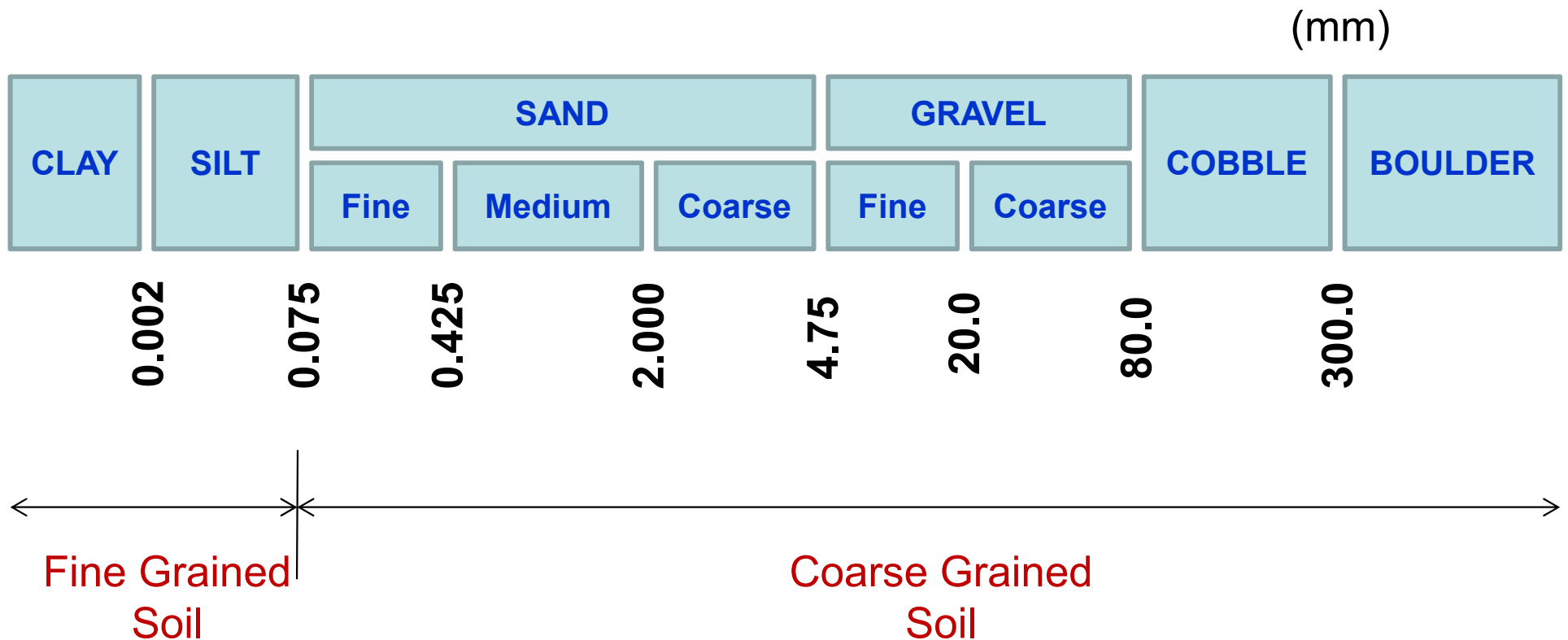
Major Divisions		Group Symbol	Typical Names	Identification procedures (on fraction smaller than 425 µm sieve size)			Information required for describing soils
				Dry strength	Dilatancy	Toughness	
FINE-GRAINED SOILS More than half of material is smaller than 75 µm sieve size. The 75 µm sieve size is about the size particle visible to the naked eye	SILTS & CLAYS of low compressibility; liquid limit < 35 %	ML	Inorganic silts and very fine sands, rock flour, silty or clayey fine sand or clayey silts with none to low plasticity	None to low	Quick	None	For undisturbed soils, add information on structure, stratification, consistency in undisturbed and remoulded states, moisture and drainage conditions Give typical names, indicate degree and character of plasticity, amount and maximum size of coarse grains, colour in wet condition, odour, if any, local or geologic name and other pertinent descriptive information, and symbol in parenthesis. Example: Clayey silt, brown, slightly plastic, small percentage of fine-sand, numerous vertical root holes, firm and fry in place; losses, (ML)
		CL	Inorganic clays, gravelly clays, sandy clays, lean clays of low plasticity	Medium	None to very slow	Medium	
		OL	Organic silts of low plasticity	Low	Slow	Low	
	SILTS & CLAYS of medium compressibility: Liquid limit 35 and 50 %	MI	Inorganic silts, silty or clayey fine-sand or clayey silts of medium plasticity	Low	Quick to slow	None	
		CI	Inorganic clays, gravelly clays, sandy clays, silty clays, lean clays of medium plasticity	Medium to high	None	Medium	
		OI	Organic silts and organic silty clays of medium plasticity	Low to medium	Slow	Low	
	SILTS & CLAYS of high compressibility Liquid limit > 50 %	MH	Inorganic silts of high compressibility, micaceous or diatomaceous fine sandy or silty soils, elastic silts	Low to medium	Slow to none	Low to medium	
		CH	Inorganic clays of high plasticity, fat clays	High to very high	None	High	
		OH	Organic clays of medium to high plasticity	Medium to high	Slow to very slow	Low to medium	
	High organic soil		Pt	Peat and other highly organic soils with very high compressibility	Readily identified by colour, odour, spongy feel and frequently by fibrous texture		

Particle Shape for Coarse-grained soils



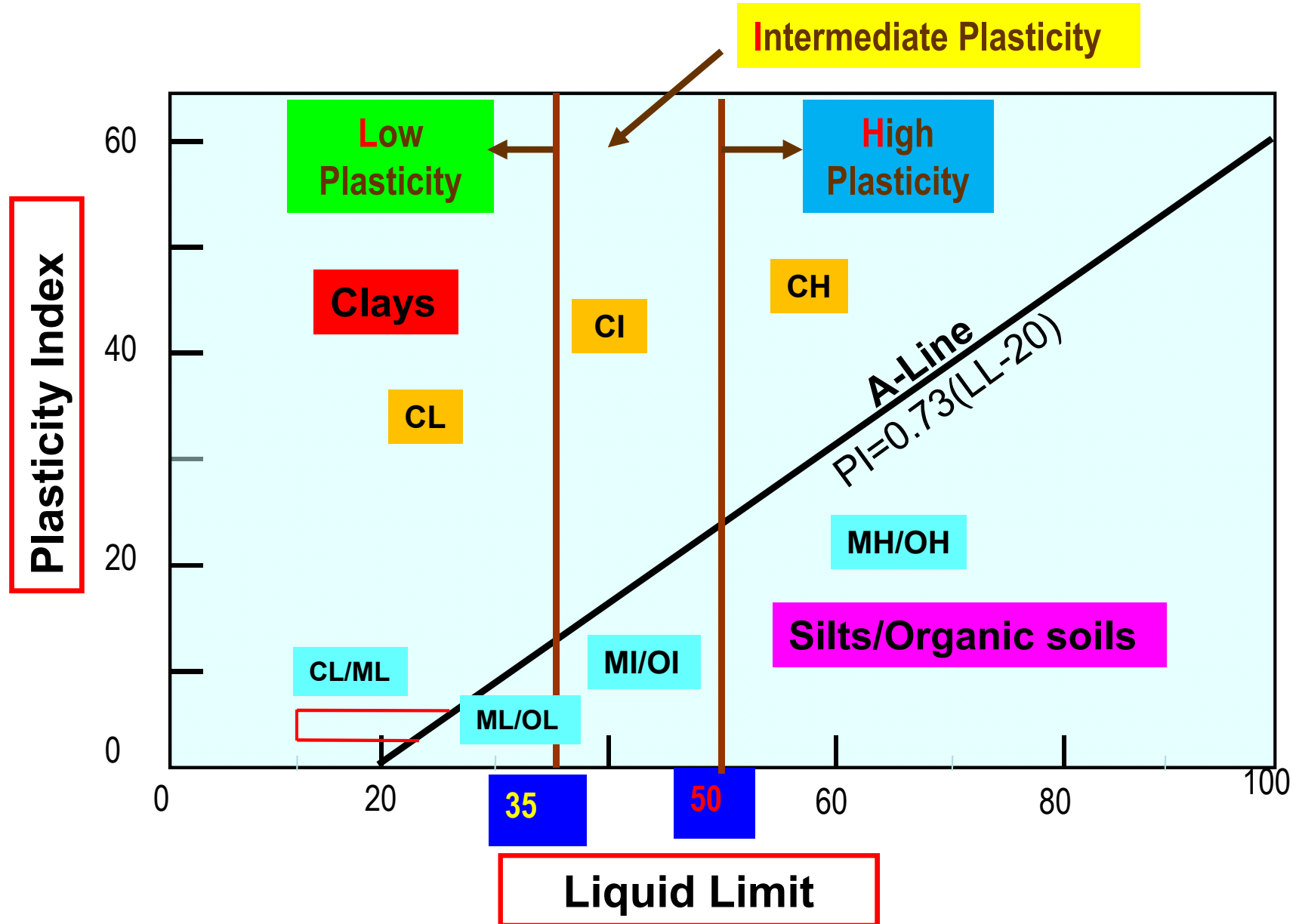
1. Important for granular soils.
2. Angular soil particle shows higher friction.
3. Round soil particle has lower friction.
4. Note that clay particles are sheet-like.

IS Classification in accordance with size of soil particles

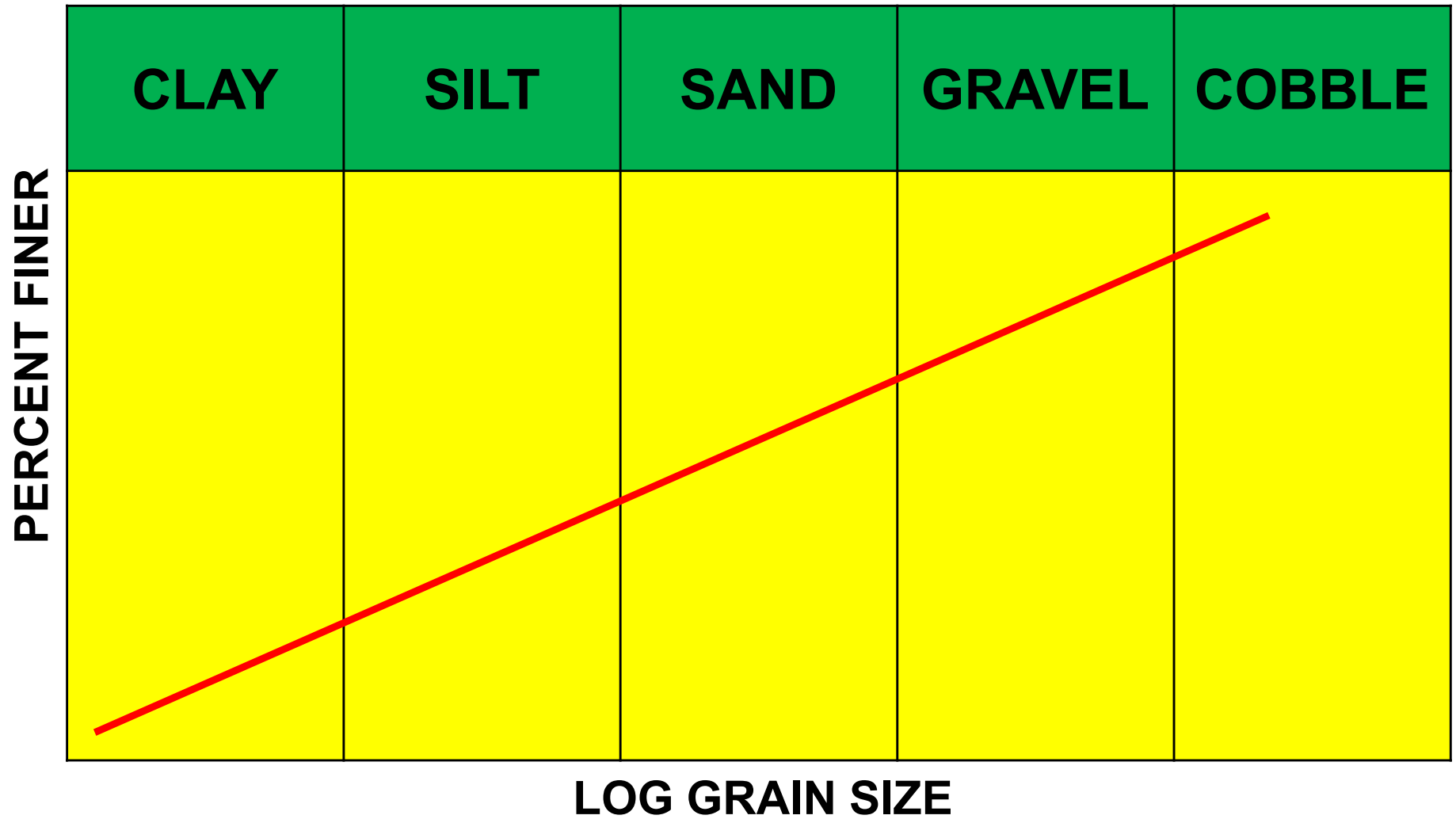


Classifying Fines

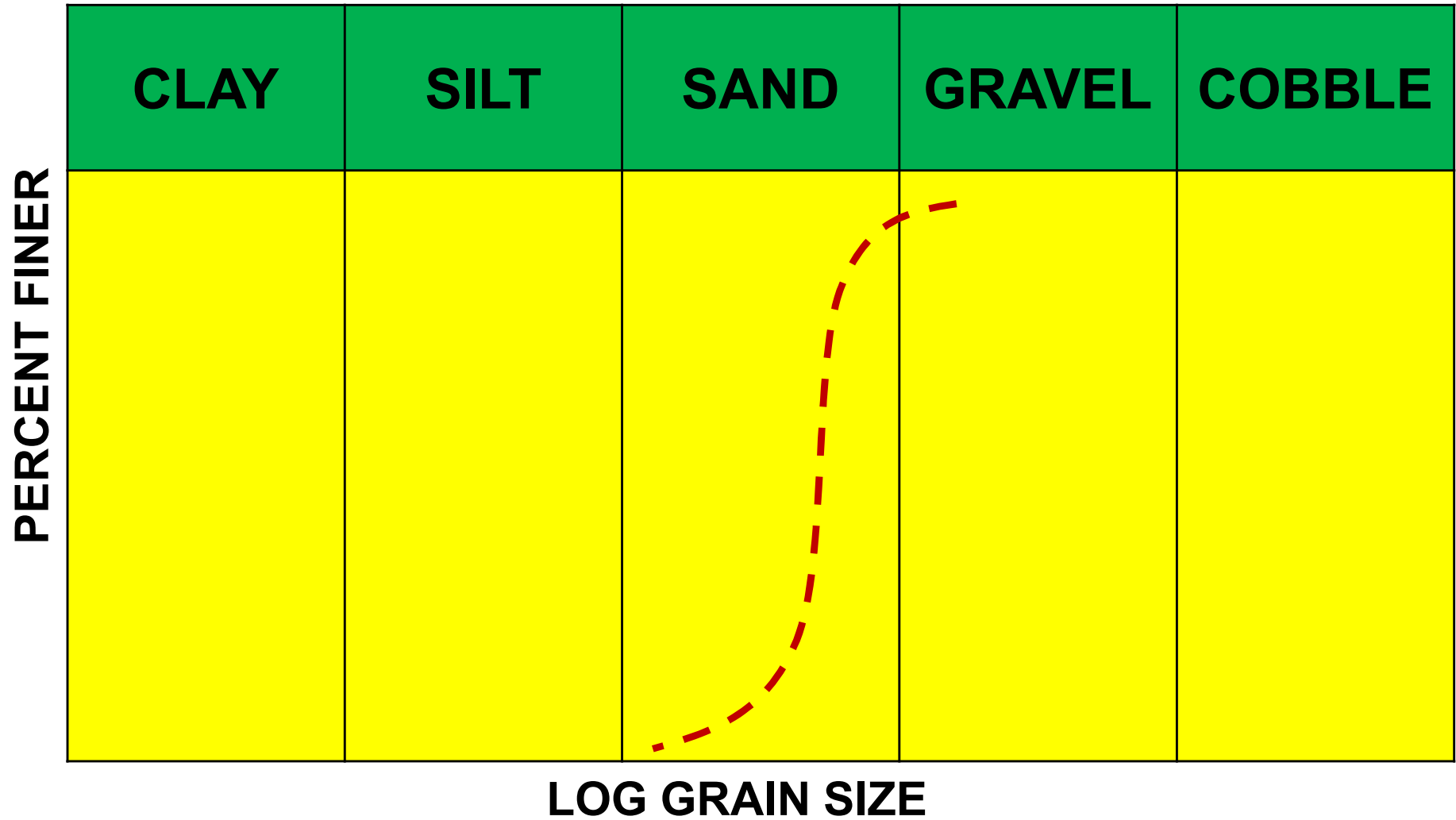
➔ Purely based on LL and PI



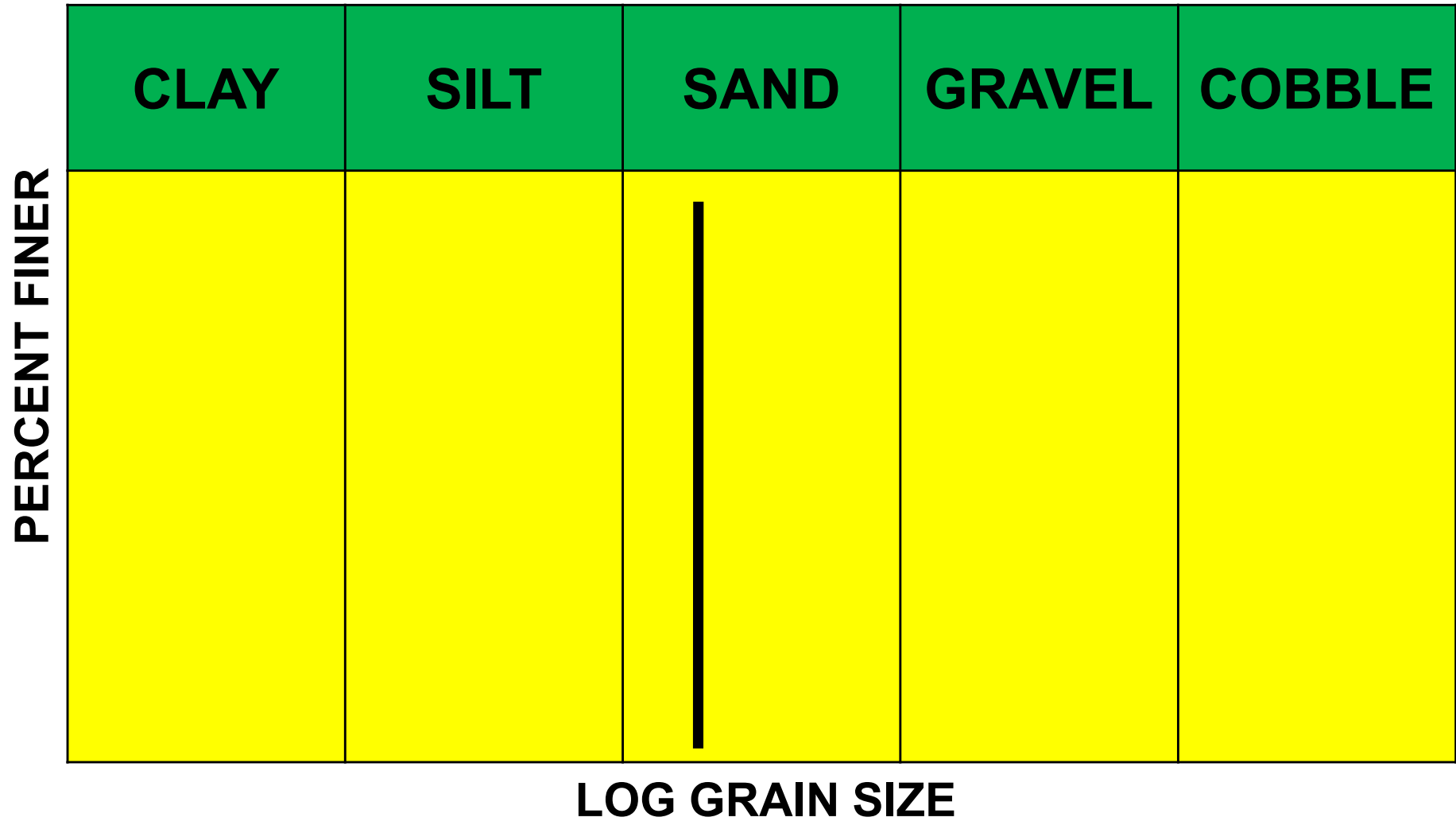
Well Graded Soil



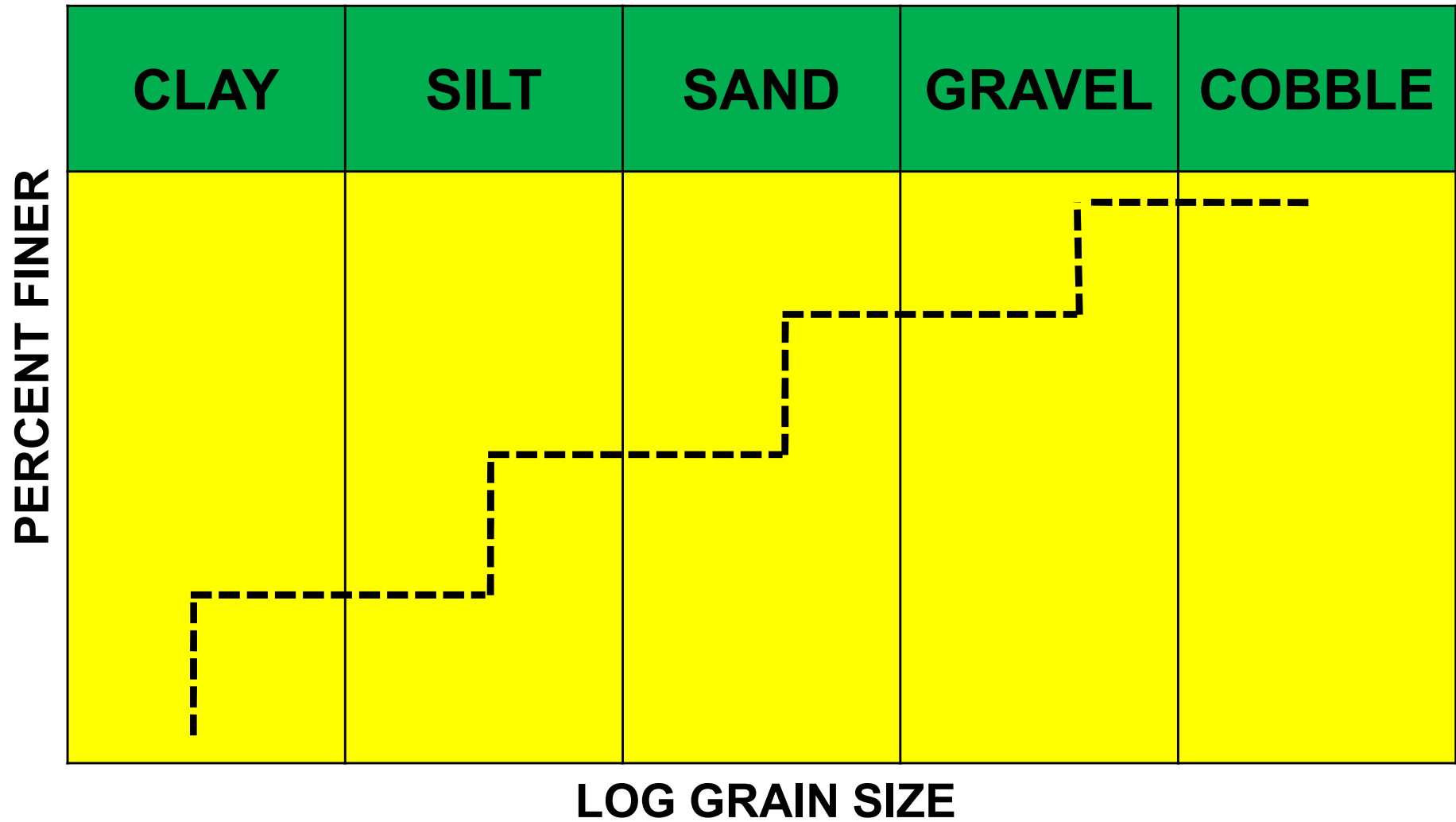
Poorly Graded Soil



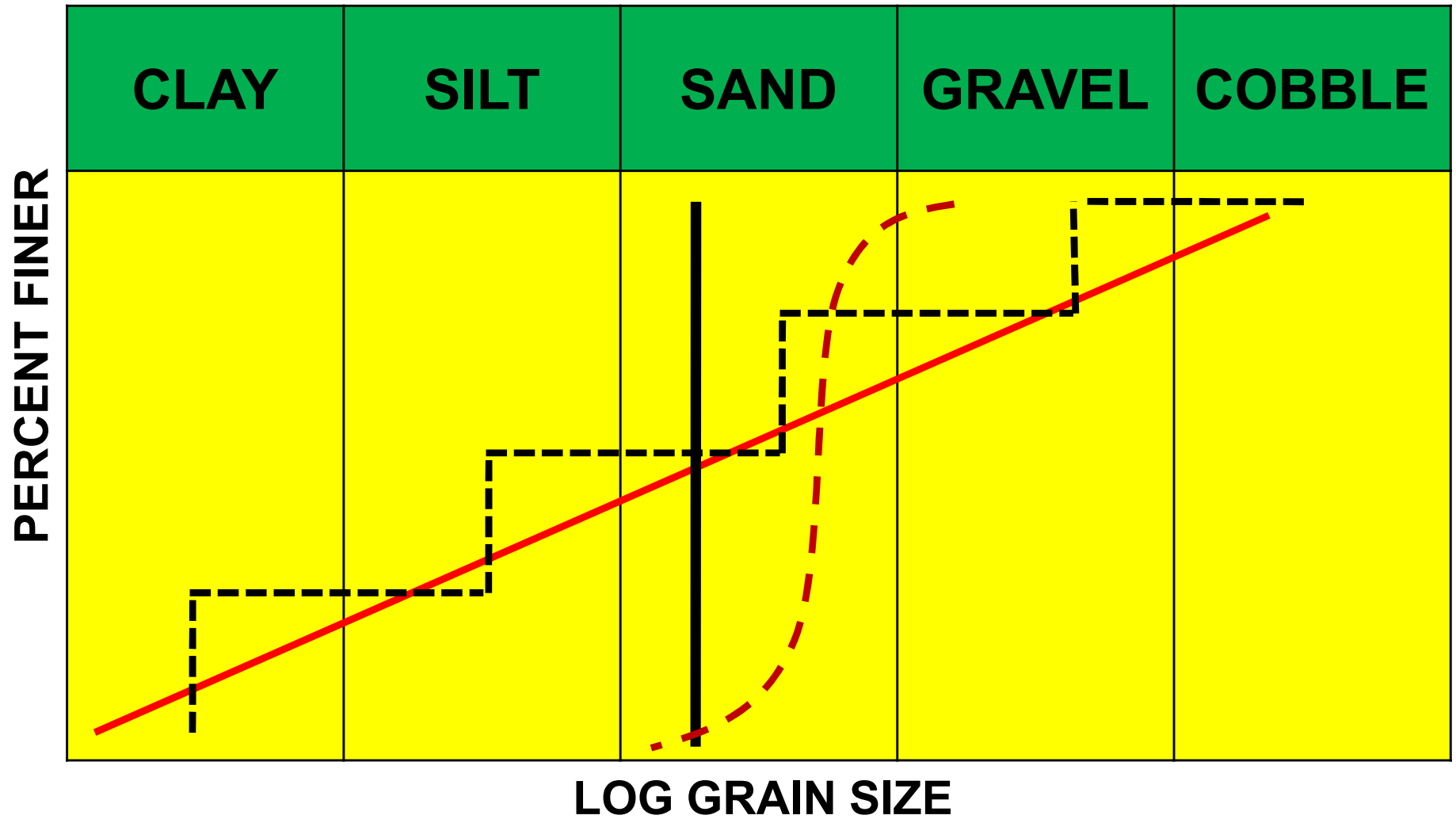
Uniformly Graded Soil



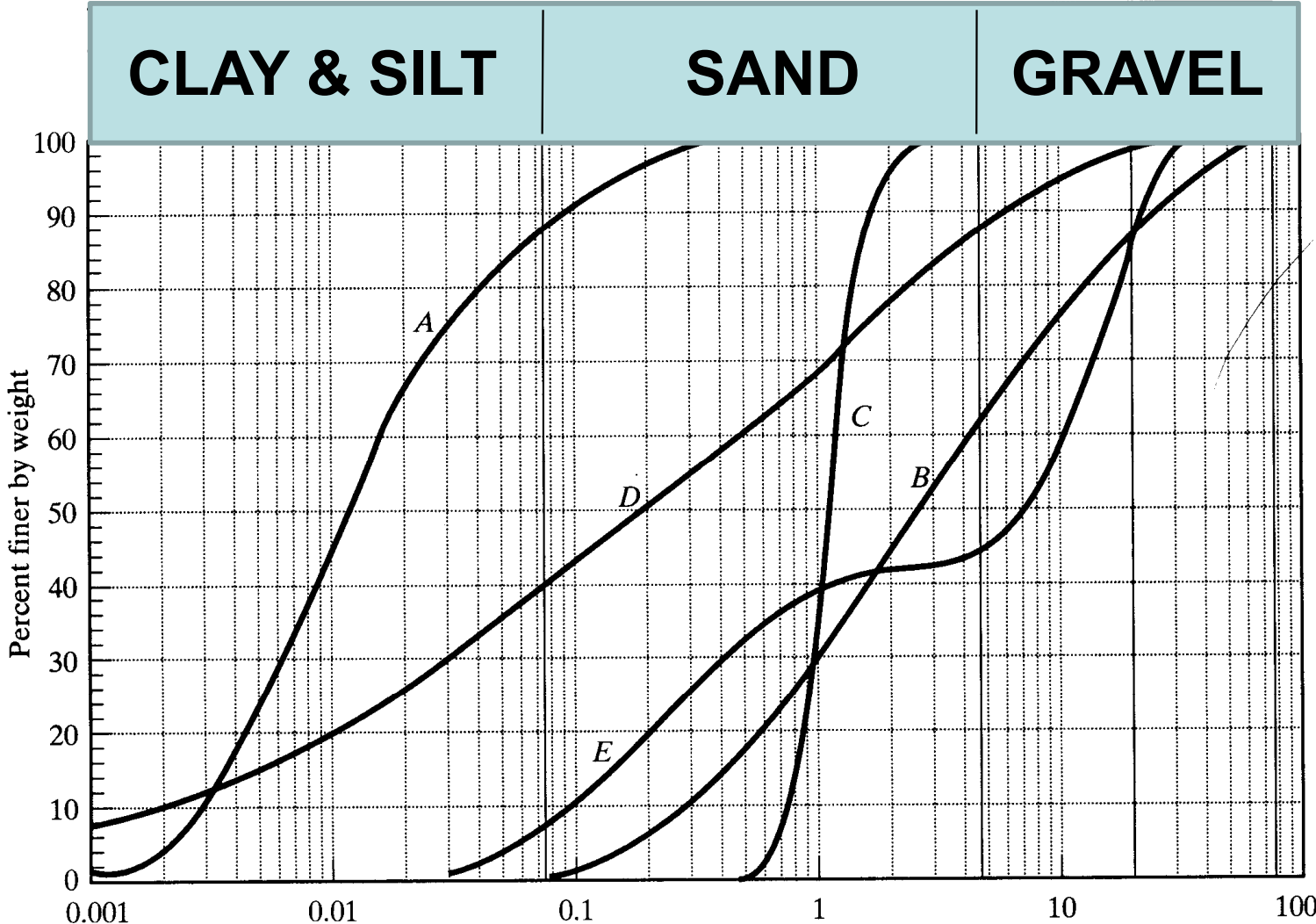
Gap Graded Soil



Different Gradations in Soil



Grain Size Distribution Curves



Boundary Classifications

Sometimes, it is not possible to classify a soil into any one of 18 groups discussed above.

A soil may possess characteristics of two groups, either in particle distribution or in plasticity.

For such cases, boundary classifications occur and **dual symbols** are used.

COMPACTION OF SOILS

What Is Compaction?

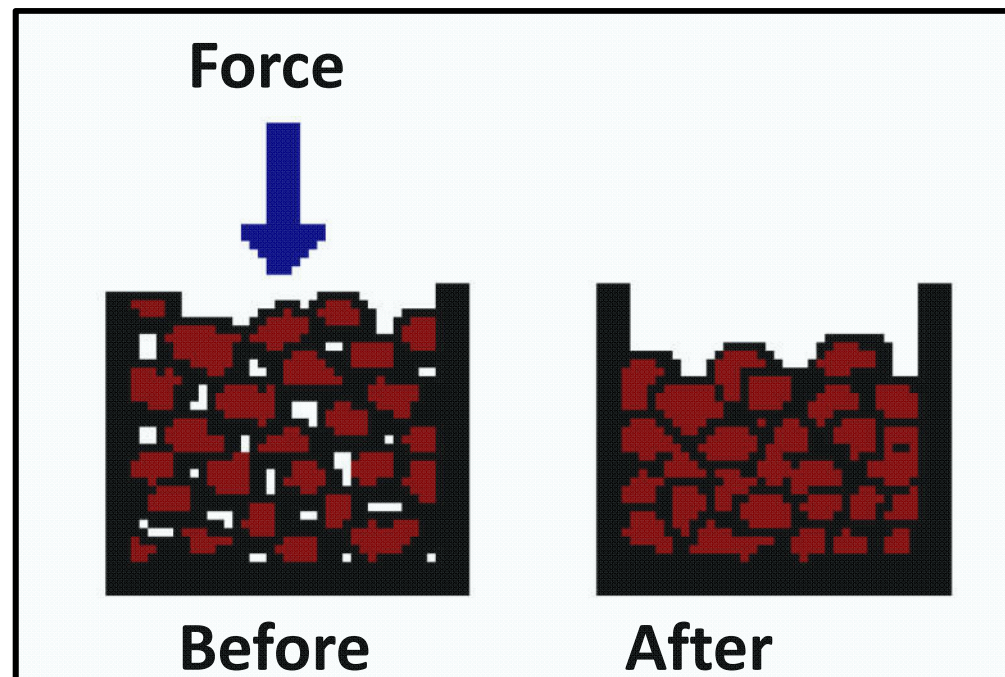
1. Compaction is the process of increasing the **Bulk Density** of a soil or aggregate by driving out air.
2. For any soil, at a given compactive effort, the density obtained depends on the moisture content.
3. For any soil, an “**Optimum Moisture Content**” exists at which it will achieve its maximum density.

Compaction is the method of mechanically increasing the density of soil.

- 1) Increases load-bearing capacity (Strength)**
- 2) Prevents soil settlement and frost damage**
- 3) Provides stability**
- 4) Reduces water seepage**
- 5) Reduces Swelling & Shrinkage**

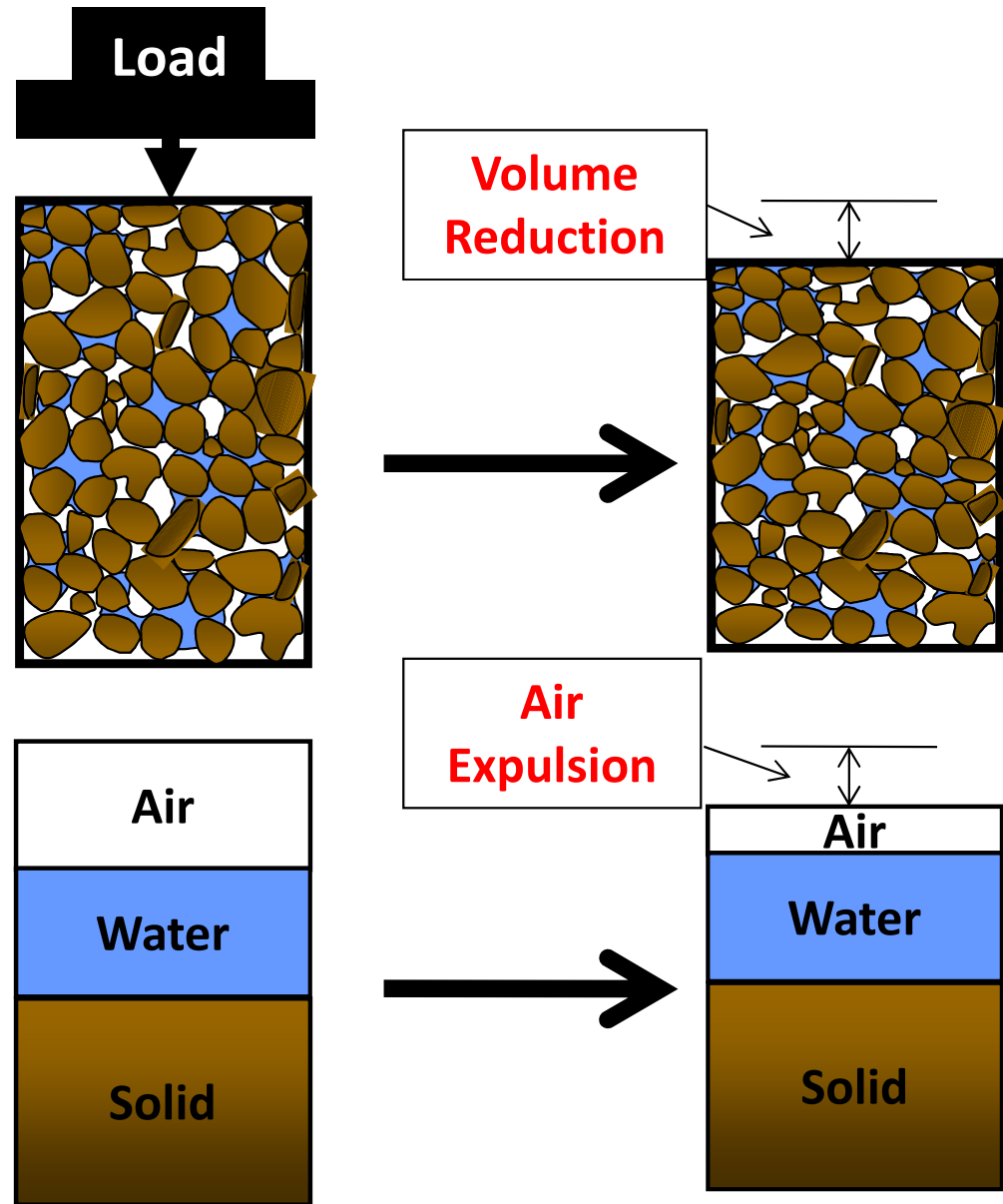
Compaction is the densification of soil by the application of mechanical energy to reduce air void space.

1. Air content reduces, but not water content
2. Not possible to compact saturated soil.

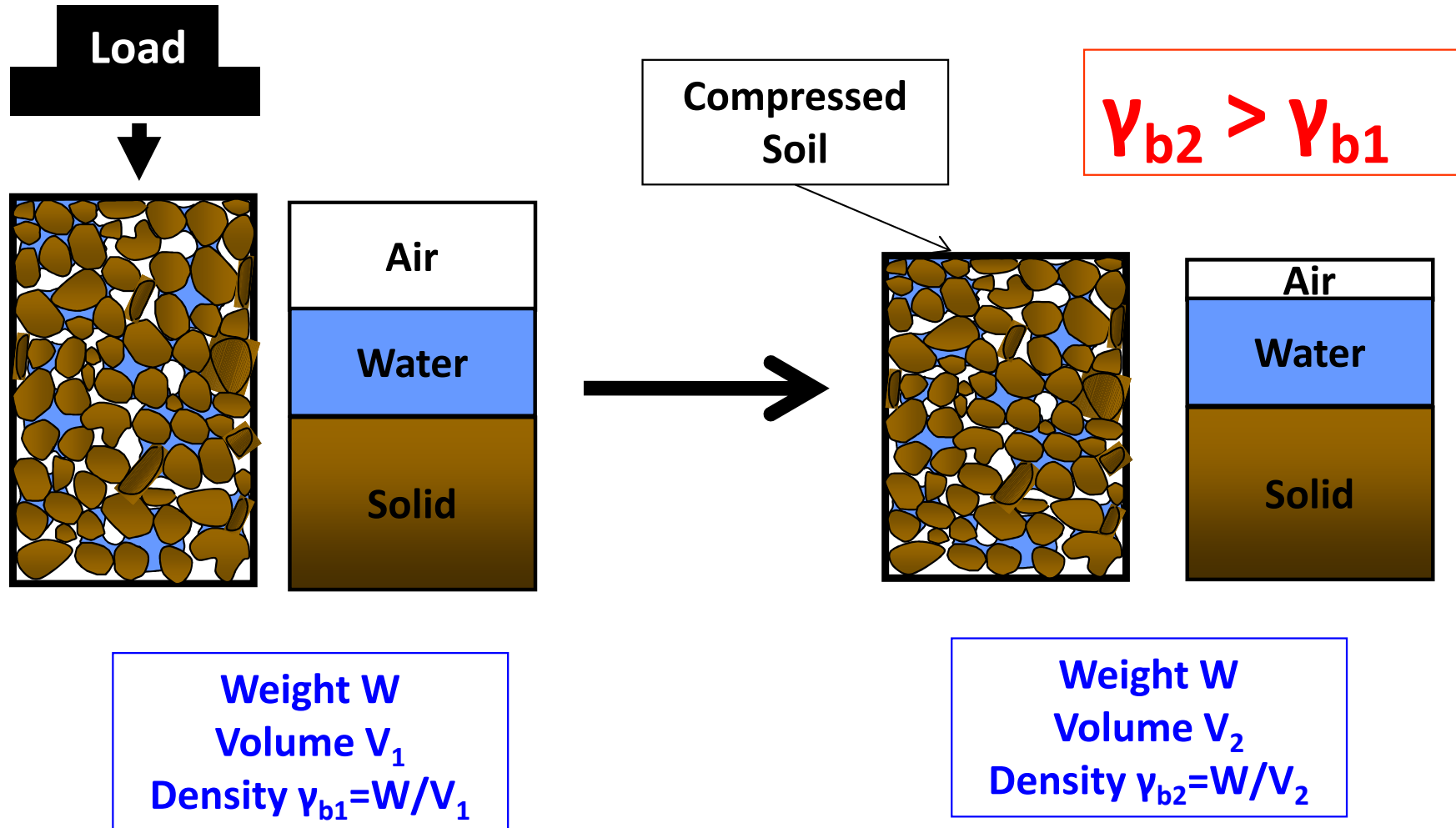


EFFECT OF COMPACTION

Reduction in volume due to expulsion of air



Principles of Compaction



Higher the density,

**Stronger, Stiffer, more Durable
will be the soil mass.**

How does Compaction influence ground ?

1. Increases density
2. Increases strength characteristics
3. Increases bearing capacity
4. Decreases undesirable settlement
5. Increases stability of slopes and embankments
6. Decreases permeability
7. Reduces frost damage
8. Reduces erosion damage

Distinction between Compaction & Consolidation

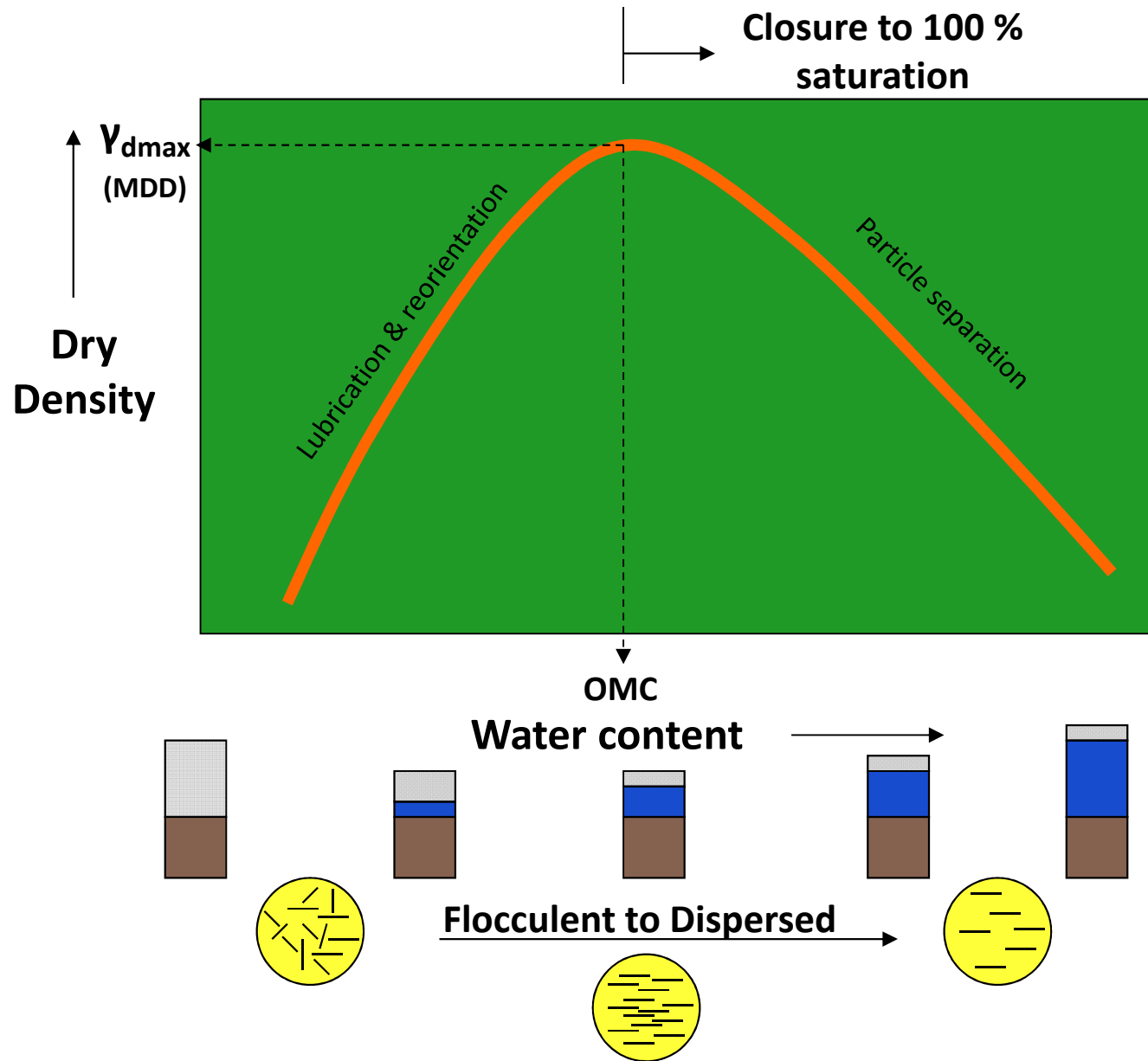
COMPACTION

1. Man made
2. Expulsion of air
3. Fast process
4. Possible in dry or partially saturated soil
5. Air Content reduces
6. Water content constant

CONSOLIDATION

1. Natural
2. Expulsion of pore water
3. Gradual process
4. Possible in saturated soil
5. Air Content = 0 always
6. Water content decreases

Compaction of Fine grained Soil

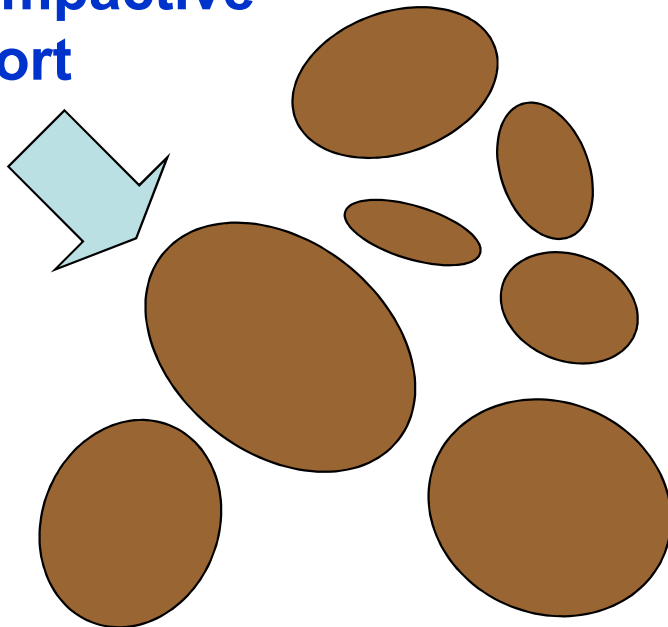


Water is added to lubricate the contact surfaces of soil particles and improve the compressibility of the soil matrix

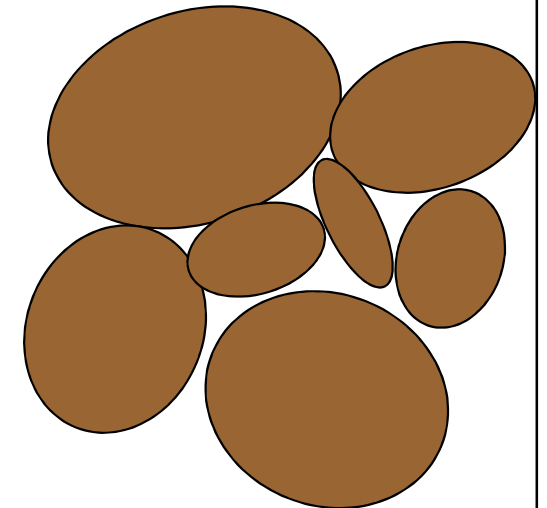
What is compaction?

A simple **ground improvement** technique, where the soil is densified through external compactive effort.

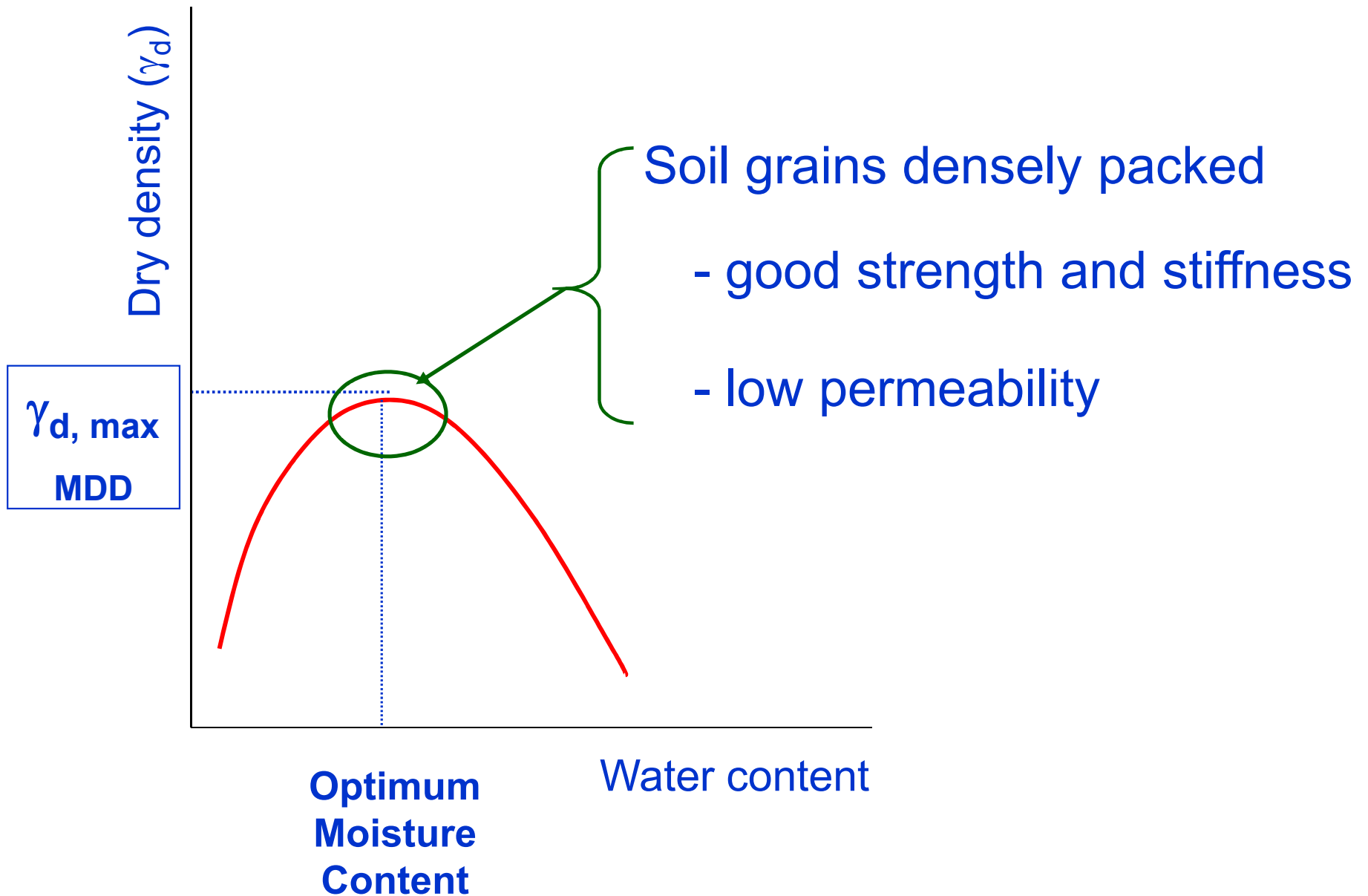
Compactive
effort



+ water =



Compaction Curve



Compaction Control

-a systematic exercise where you check at **regular intervals** whether the compaction was done to specifications.

e.g., 1 test per
1000 m³ of
compacted soil

- Minimum dry density
- Range of water content

Field measurements (of γ_d) obtained using

- Sand cone / core cutter
- Nuclear density meter

Laboratory Compaction Test

- to obtain the compaction curve and define the optimum water content and maximum dry density for a **specific compactive effort**.

Standard Proctor:

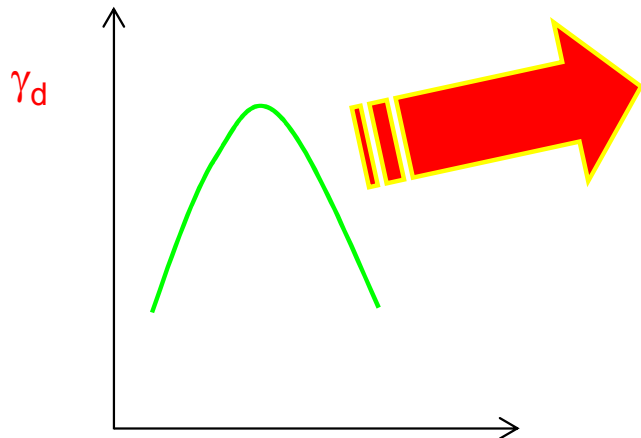
- 3 layers
- 25 blows per layer
- 2.7 kg hammer
- 300 mm drop



Modified Proctor:

- 5 layers
- 25 blows per layer
- 4.9 kg hammer
- 450 mm drop

Compaction Control Test



Compaction specifications

Compare!

$$\gamma_{d,\text{field}} = ?$$
$$w_{\text{field}} = ?$$



compacted ground

Placement Water Content

It is necessary to decide the

1. Placement water content
2. Type of equipment for compaction
3. Number of passes

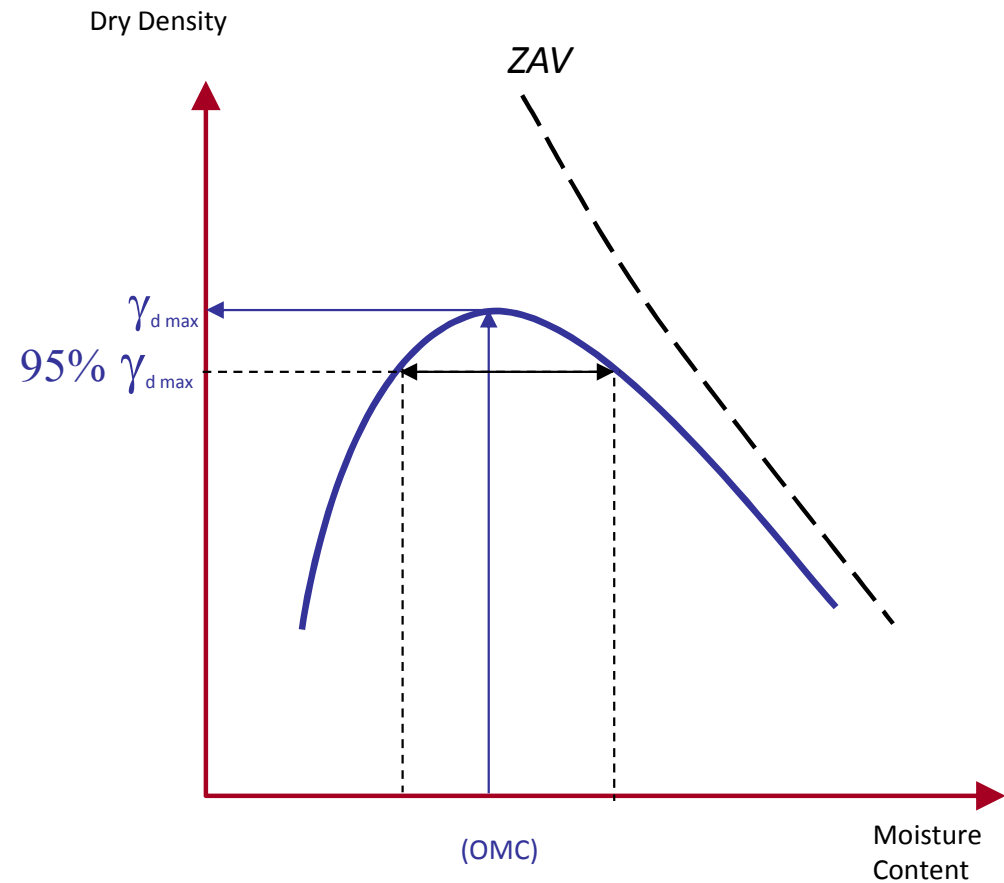
Based on soil type & degree of compaction desired

Placement Water Content

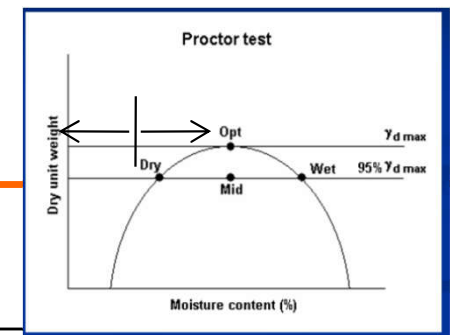
Water content at which the ground is compacted in the field



Comparison between field & laboratory compaction methods



Placement Water Content



Dry side

Highway embankment is compacted dry of optimum to achieve high strength, low volume compressibility and good resistance to deformation

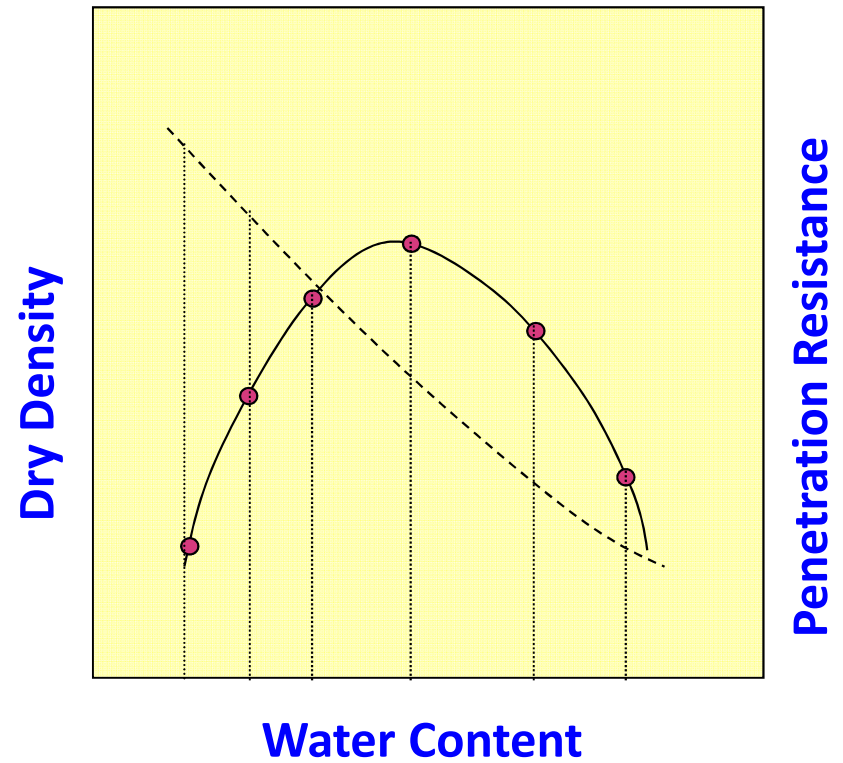
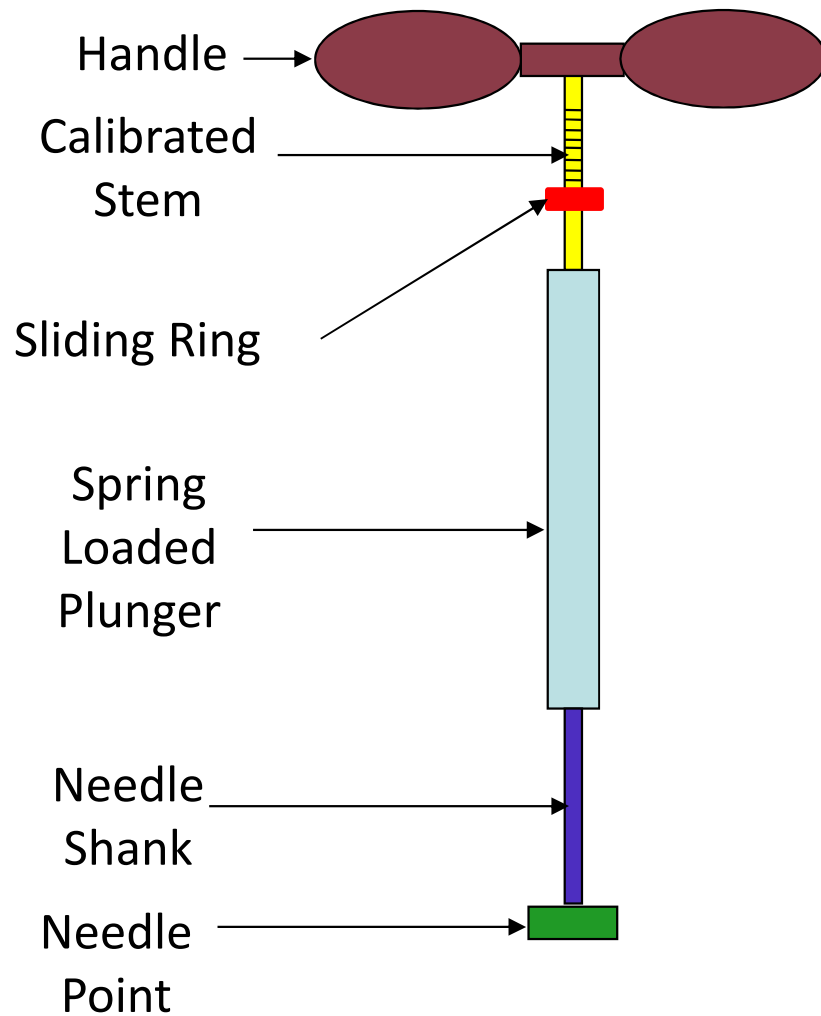
High earth dams are compacted at 1 to 2.5 % less than OMC to reduce pore water pressure development

Wet side

Cohesive subgrade under pavements are compacted wet of optimum to eliminate swelling and swelling pressure upon submergence

Impervious core of earth dam is compacted on wet side to achieve low permeability, greater safety against cracking due to differential settlement

Proctor's Needle



Compaction control in field

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

Characteristics of the compactor:

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

Characteristics of the soil:

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

Compaction control in field

Construction procedures:

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

Degree of Compaction

Relative compaction or degree of compaction

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

Correlation between relative compaction & relative density

$$R.C. = 80 + 0.2D_r$$

It is a statistical result based on 47 soil samples.

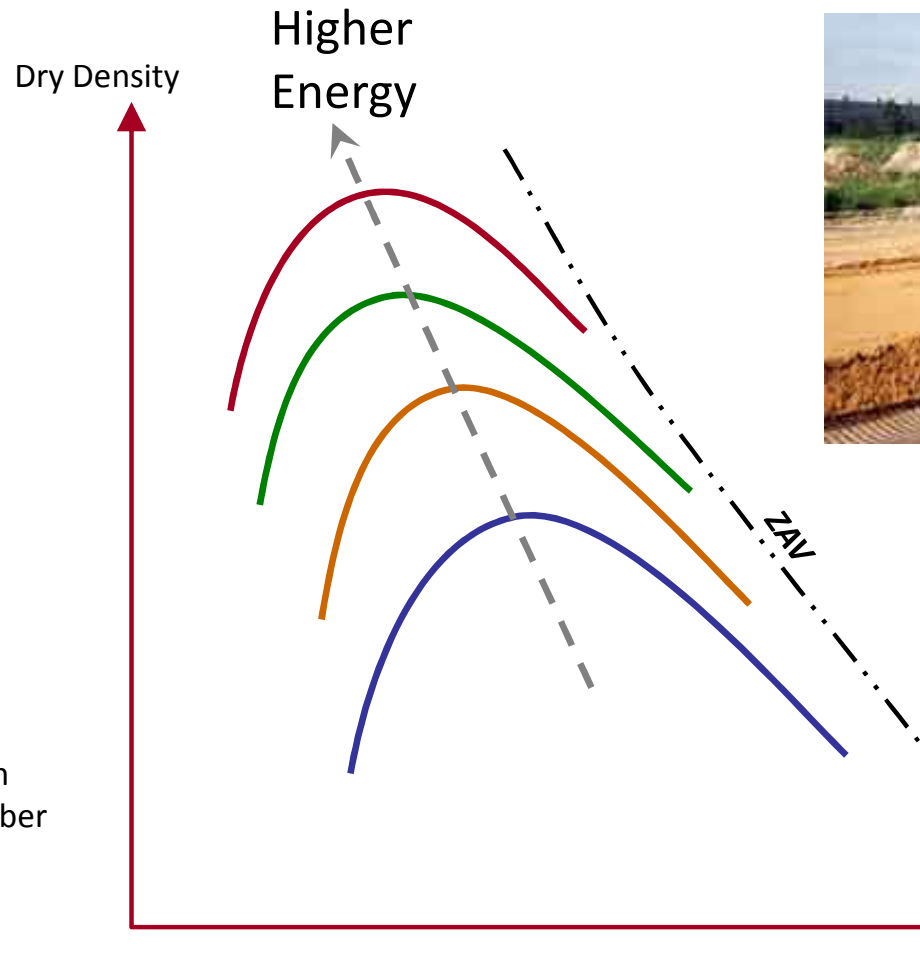
As $D_r = 0$, R.C. is 80, Typical required R.C. $\geq 95\%$

Effect of Energy on Soil Compaction

Increasing compaction energy → Lower OMC and higher dry density

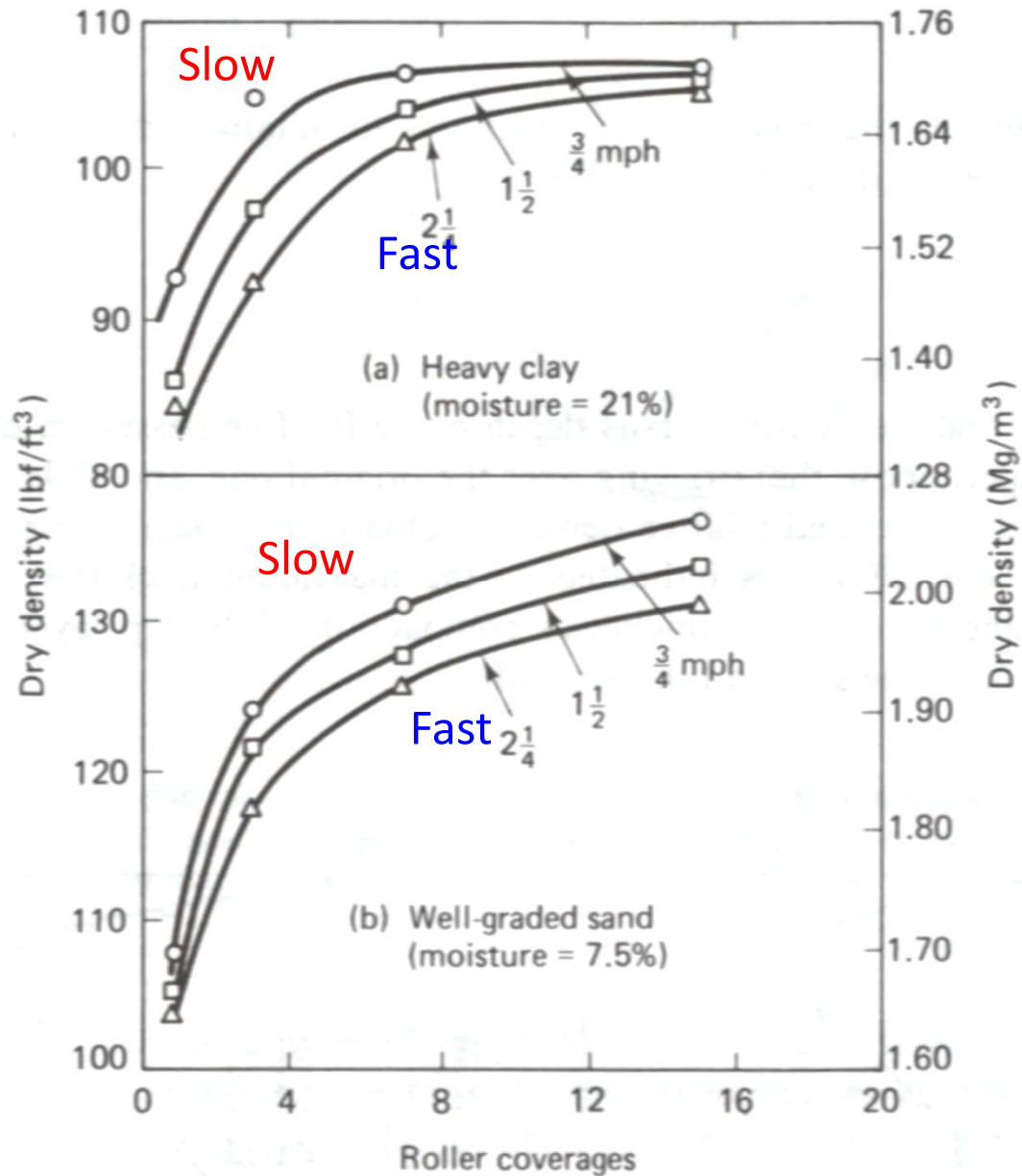


In the lab
increasing compaction
energy = increasing number
of blows



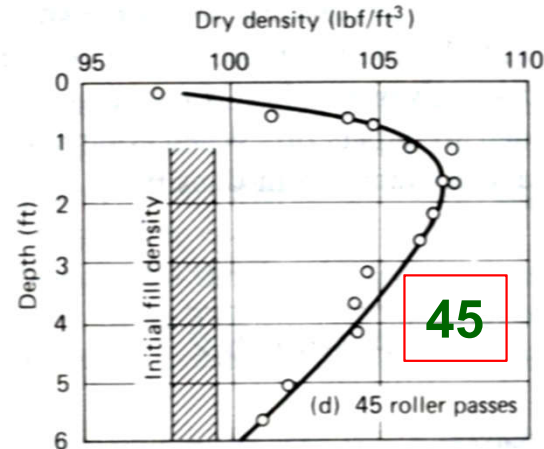
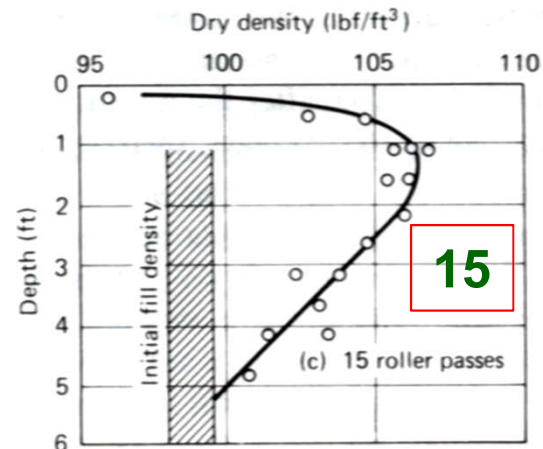
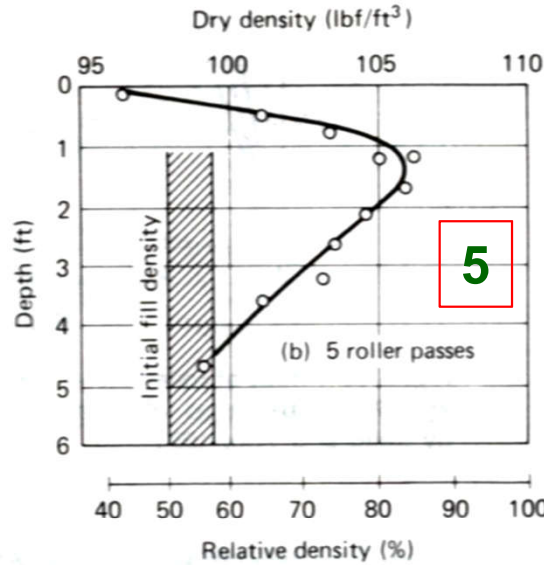
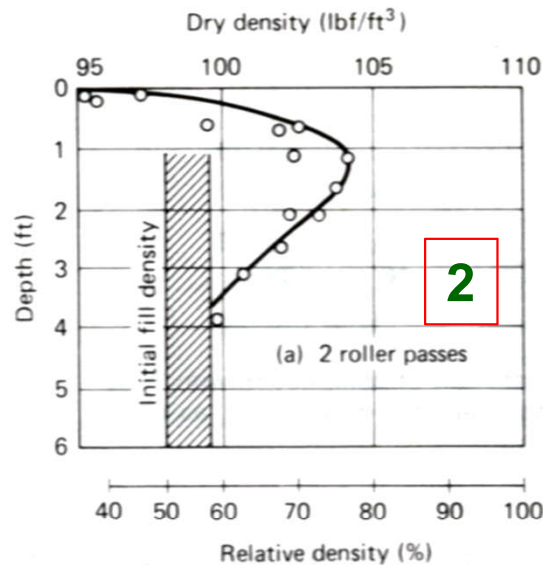
In the field
increasing compaction energy =
increasing number of passes or
reducing lift depth

Roller Travel Speed



For a given number of passes, a higher density is obtained if the vibrator is towed more slowly.

Roller Passes



1. More the number of passes, greater will be the density achieved.
2. Maximum density achieved will be at some depth below GL.
3. The effect of compaction will be felt up to some depth (say 2 m below GL) and it increases with number of passes.

How Does a Contractor improve Compaction in the Field?

1. Adjust Water Content
2. More Passes
3. Thinner Lifts
4. Bigger Rollers
5. Right Compactor for the Soil Type

Purpose	Relative Compaction		Tolerance Range from OMC	Lift thickness (mm)	
	Granular Soil	Other Soil		Granular Soil	Other Soil
Foundation for structure	100	98	-1 to +2	250	150
Lining Canal / small reservoir	-	95	-1 to +2	-	150
Earth dam > 15 m height	98	98	-1 to +2	300	150
Earth dam < 15 m height	95	95	-1 to +2	300	150
Foundation for highway / runway	95	95	-1 to +2	300	150
Backfill	98	95	-1 to +2	250	150
Drainage blanket / filter	98	-	Thoroughly wetted	250	-
Subgrade of excavation	98	98	-1 to +2	-	-
Rockfill	-	-	Thoroughly wetted	> 600	-

Minimum frequency of field density test for compaction control

Nature of Earthwork	Minimum frequency	
	U S Bureau of Reclamation	U S Navy
Mass earthwork (embankment)	1 in 1500 m ³	1 in 1500 m ³
Relatively thin section (Canal / reservoir lining)	1 in 750 m ³	1 in 750 m ³
Backfill in trenches around structure	1 in 150 m ³	1 in 150 to 375 m ³
Minimum per shift on mass earthwork	1	1
Doubtful areas	1	1
Pervious materials	1 in 750 to 7500 m ³	-

Ref : Winterkorn & Fang (1975) "Foundation Engineering Handbook"
 Nayak N V (1982) "Foundation Design Manual"

Soil exploration

Construction hazard

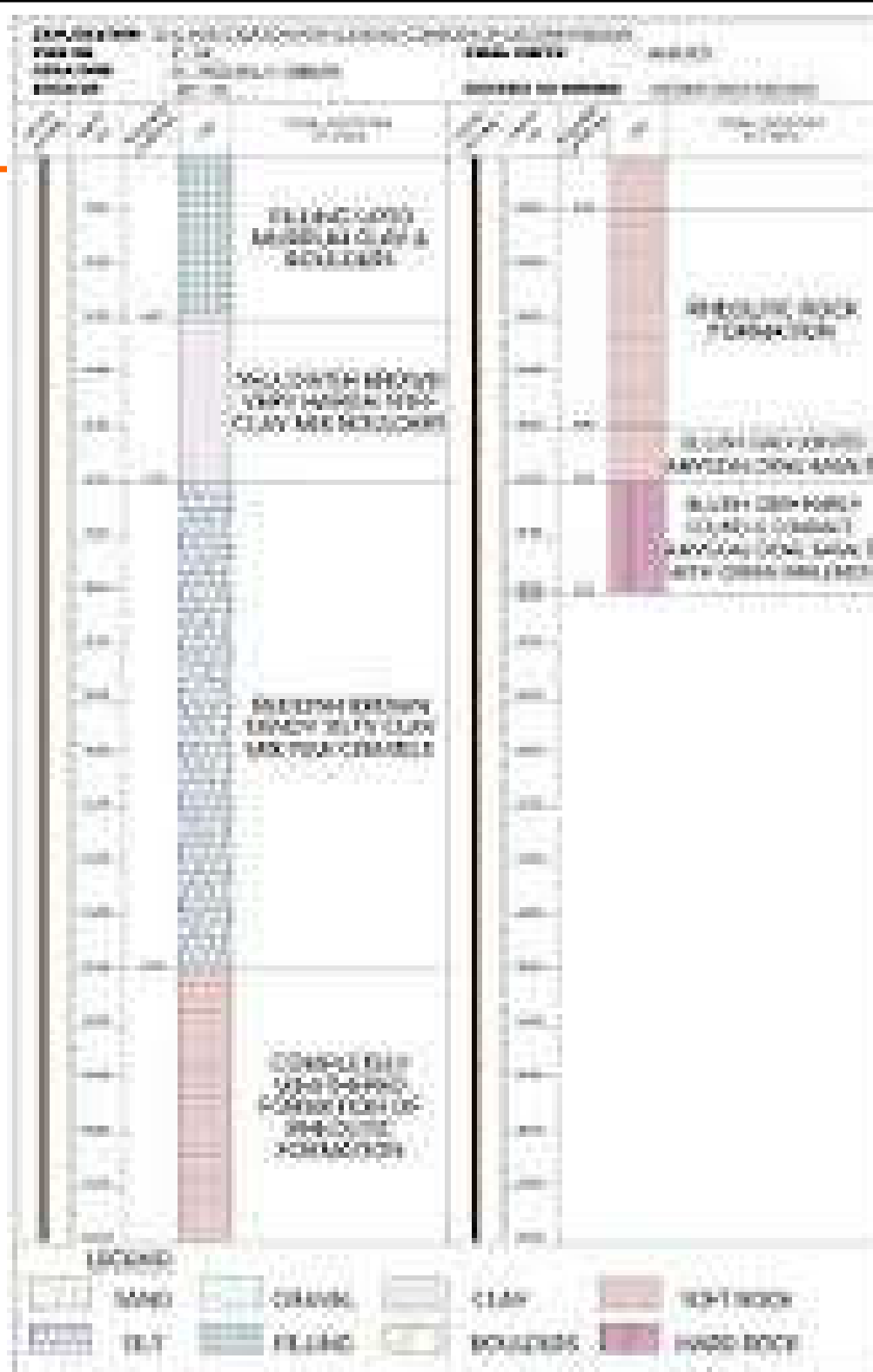
An unwelcome visitor at an earthwork site.



What does it
have to do
with Geo?#!

A dead Anaconda python

Soil Investigation Report

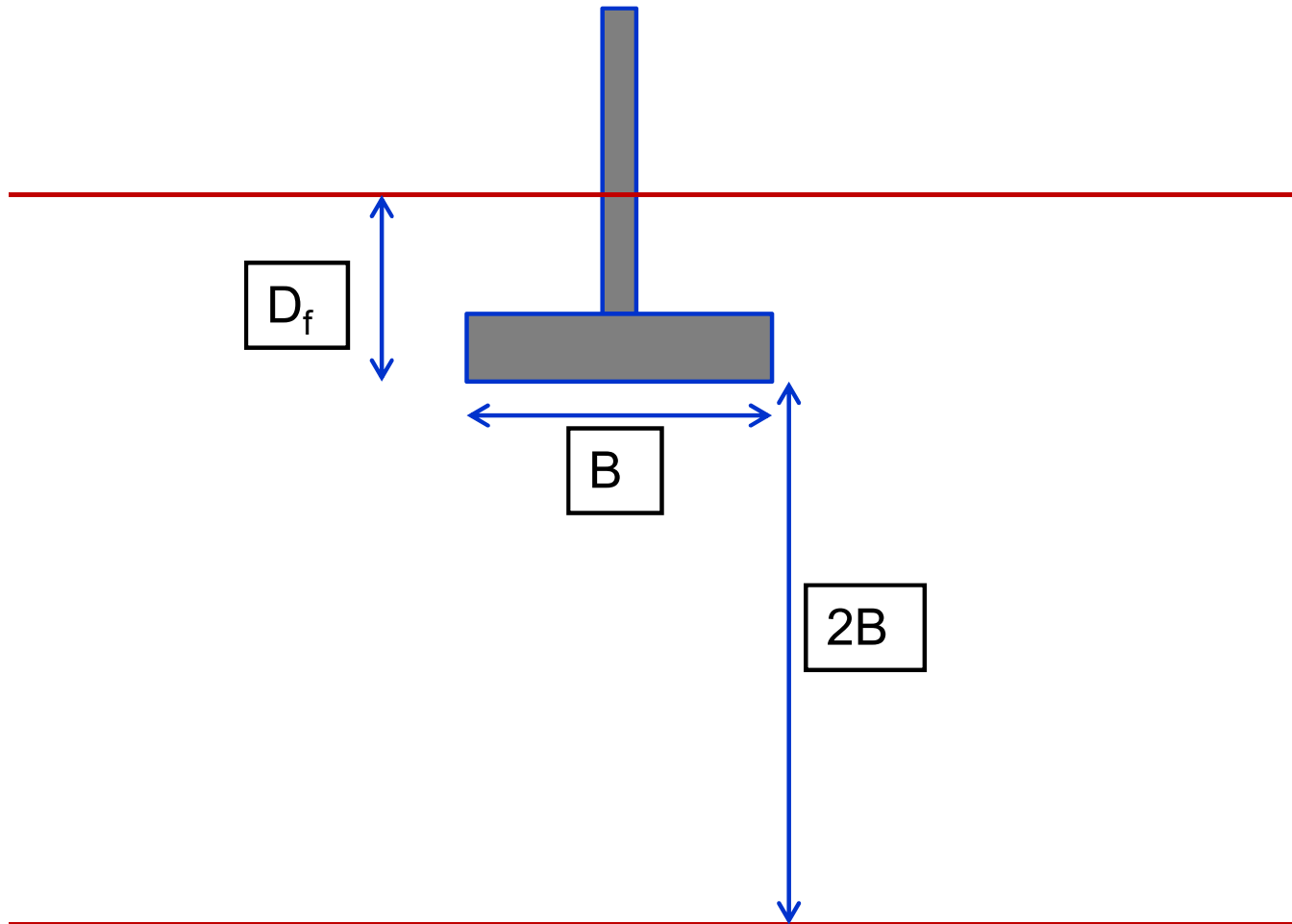


- SPT 'N'
- Shear Wave Velocity
- Water content
- Density
- Level of GWT
- Type of soil
- Strength parameters
- Settlement Characters

Interpretation ???

- Depth of foundation
- Treatment & ground modification
- ABP
- Type of foundation

Depth of Geotechnical Investigation Required



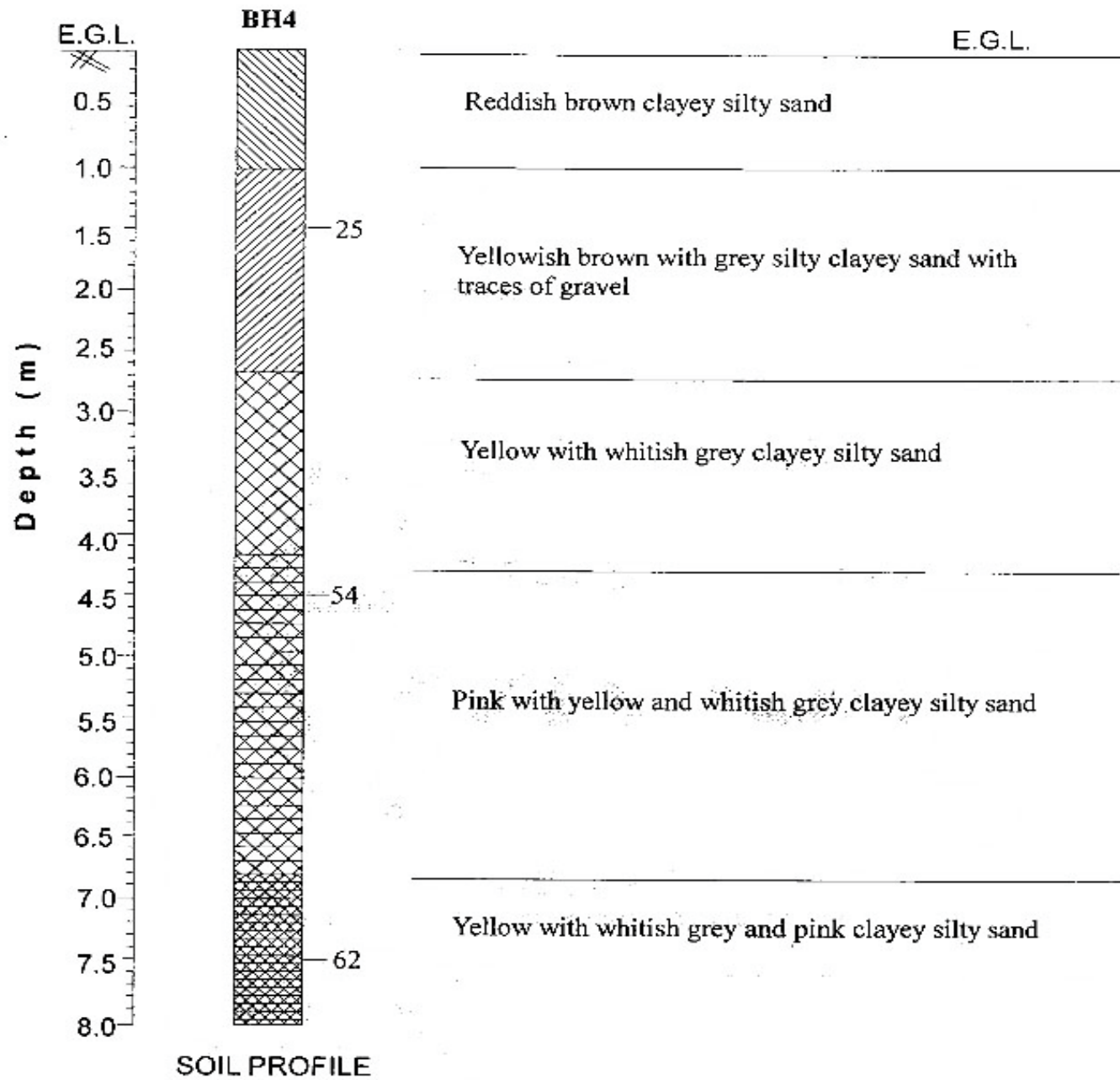
TYPICAL BORELOG

SOIL PROFILE		Project : Group Housing Complex at Sy Nos 174/4 and 175/2, Kotigenahalli, Yelahanka, Bangalore										
		B.H. Location :		Water Table : Nil		Term. Depth : 15.0m		B.H. No.: 4				
N - Value	Depth (m)	Soil Description	Grain Size Analysis				Atterberg Limits		In-situ properties		Triaxial Test	
			Gravel (%)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)	Liquid (%)	Plastic (%)	Density γ_s (g/cm ³)	Water Cont (%)	Type	c (kg/cm ²)
	0.00	Existing ground level										
	0.50	Reddish brown clayey silty sand										
25	1.50	Yellowish brown with grey silty clayey sand with traces of gravel	3	40	28	29	-	-				
	3.00	Yellow with whitish grey clayey silty sand							2.00	17.6	CD	0.25 24
54	4.50	Pink with yellow and whitish grey clayey silty sand										
	6.00	Pink with yellow and whitish grey clayey silty sand	0	44	35	21	43	21	2.04	19.9		
62	7.50	Yellow with whitish grey and pink clayey silty sand										

TYPICAL BORELOG

SOIL PROFILE		Project : Group Housing Complex at Sy Nos 174/4 and 175/2, Kotigenahalli, Yelahanka, Bangalore											
		B.H. Location :		Water Table : Nil		Term. Depth : 15.0m		B.H. No.: 4c					
■ N - Value	Depth (m)	Soil Description	Grain Size Analysis				Atterberg Limits		In-situ properties		Triaxial Test		
			Gravel (%)	Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)	Liquid (%)	Plastic (%)	Density γ_b (g/cm ³)	Water Cont (%)	Type	c (kg/cm ²)	ϕ (°)
	9.00	Yellow with whitish grey and pink clayey silty sand							1.94	15.4	CD	0.30	24
64	10.50	Yellowish brown with pink clayey silty sand with gravel	7	41	32	20	-	-					
	12.00	Yellowish brown with pink clayey silty sand with gravel							1.90	15.6	CD	0.30	25
78	13.50	Dark yellow sandy silt with clay	0	43	47	10	39	23					
	15.00	Dark yellow sandy silt with clay							1.87	16.8	CD	0.10	29
		Note : 1) ■N-Value (Observed) 2) γ_b : Bulk Density											

TYPICAL BORELOG



Ground Improvement Technique

Ground Improvement



Sheepsfoot Roller to Compact Clay Soils

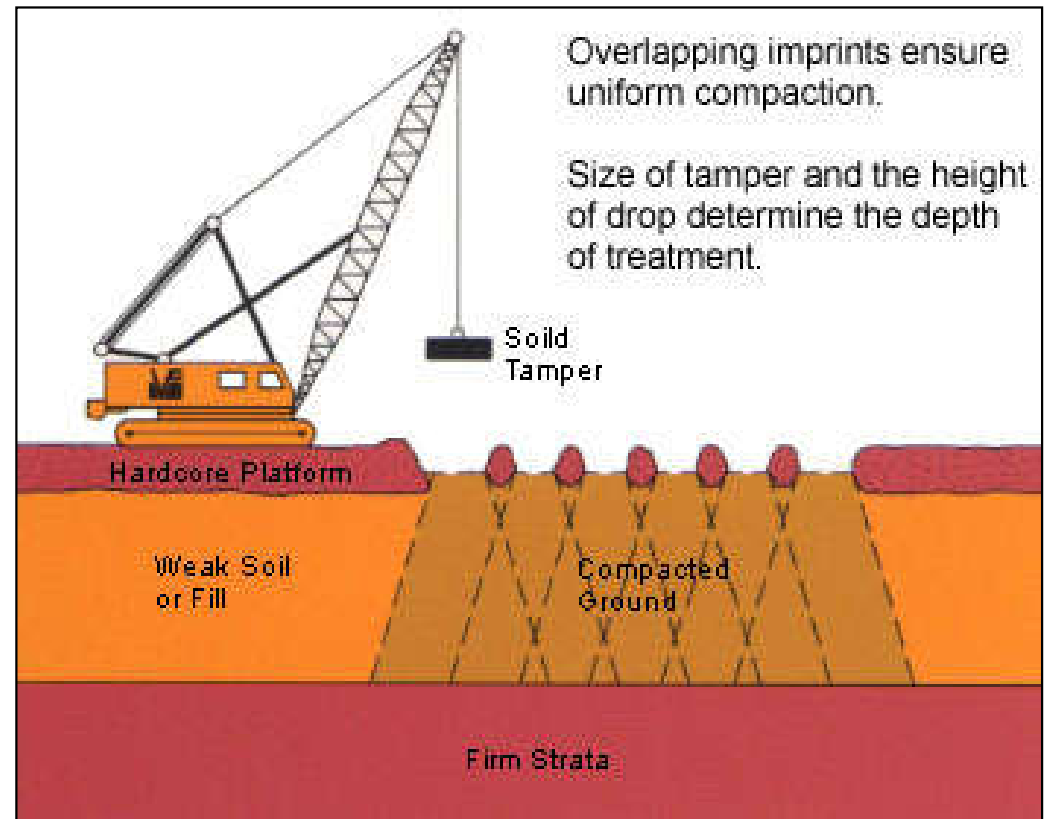


Smooth-wheeled Roller

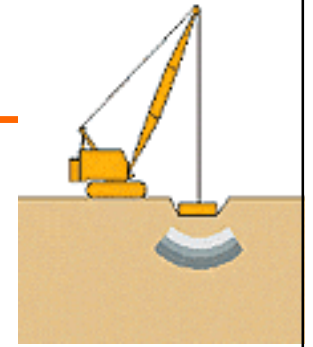


Impact Roller to Compact the Ground

Dynamic Compaction



Dynamic Compaction



- pounding the ground by a heavy weight

Suitable for granular soils, land fills and karst terrain with sink holes.

solution cavities
in limestone



Pounder (Tamper)

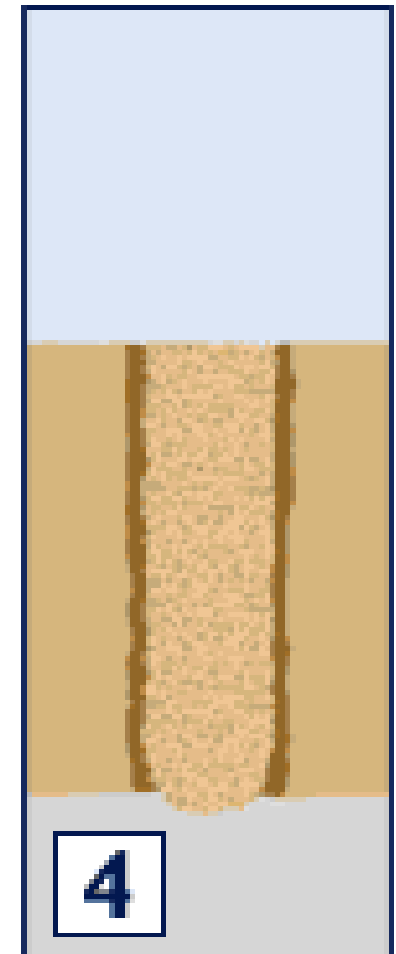
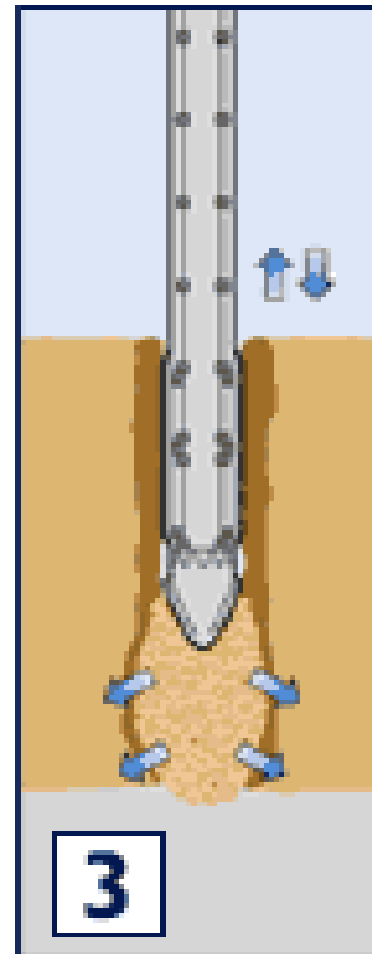
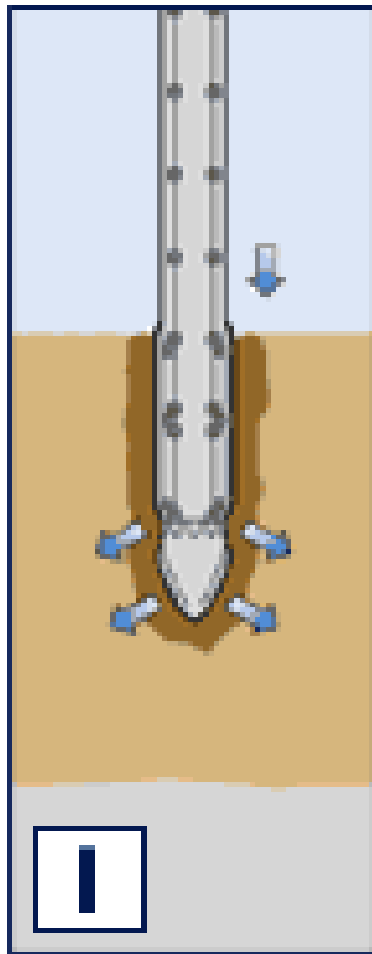
Crater created by the impact



Vibroflotation

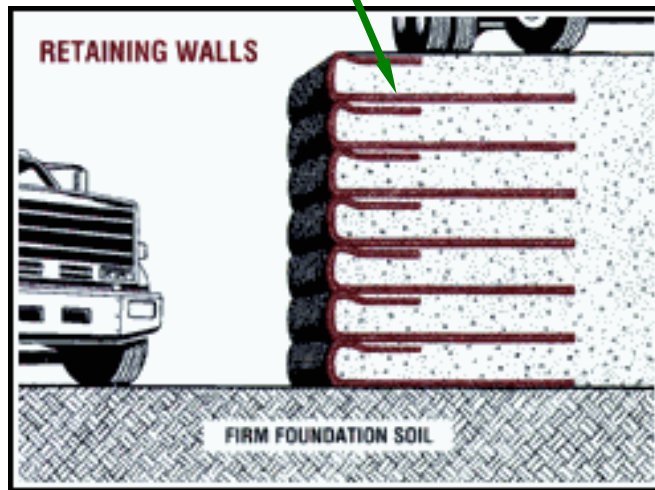


Vibrofloatation

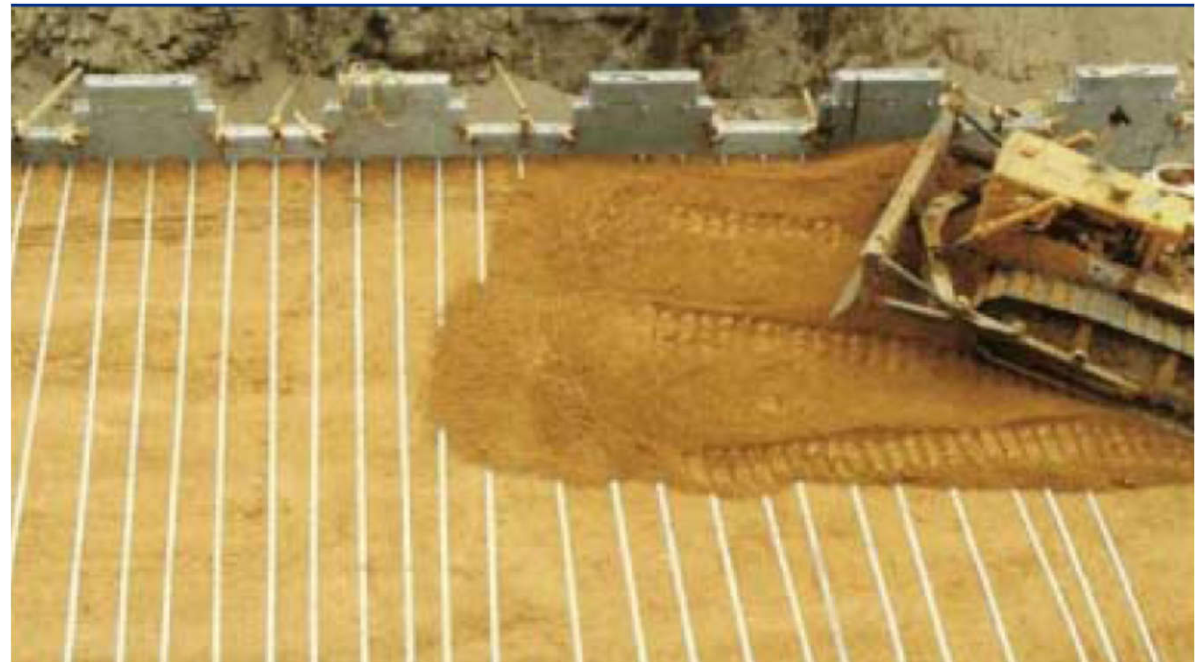


Reinforced Earth Walls

Using geofabrics to strengthen the soil

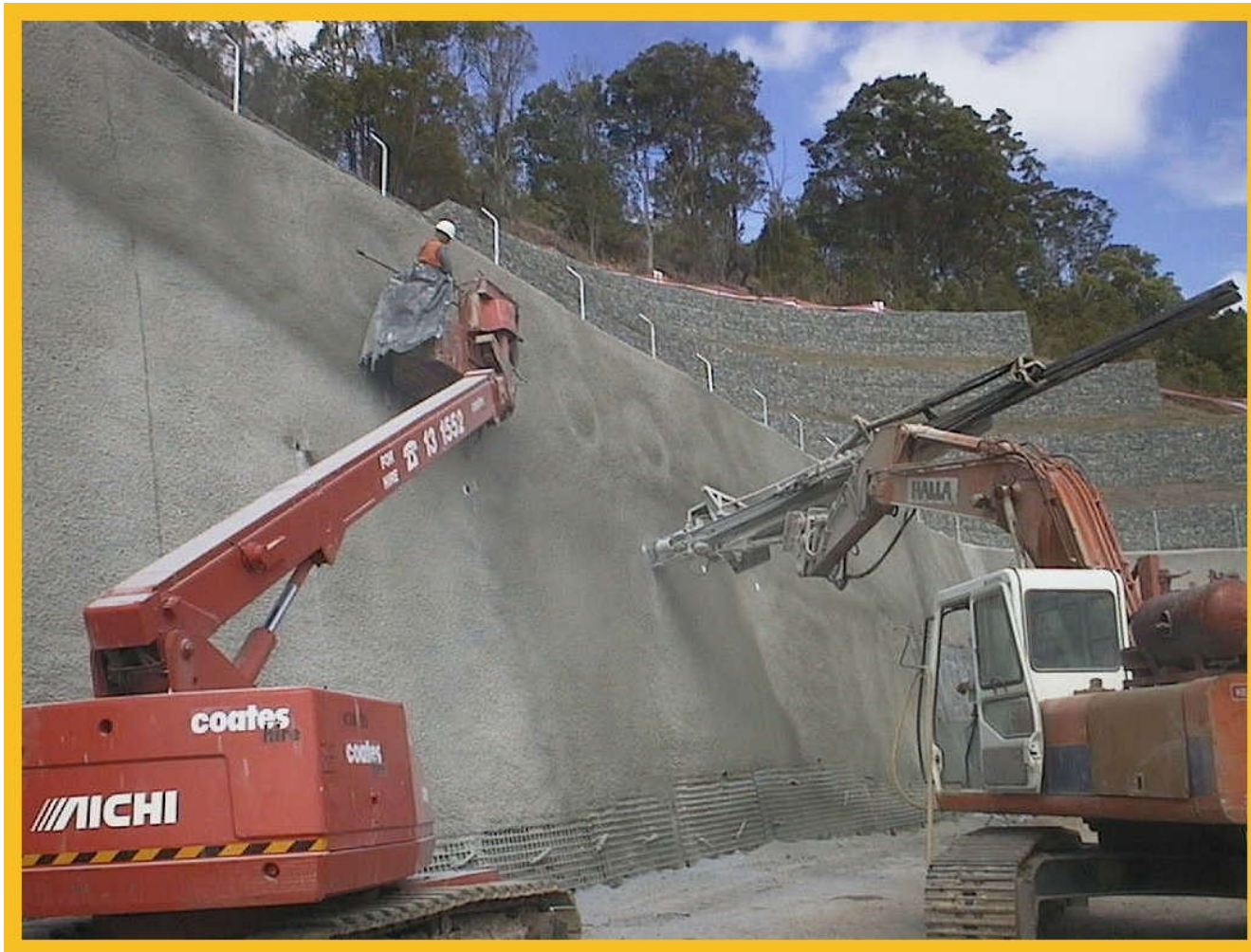


MSE/Reinforced earth Wall



Soil Nailing

Steel rods placed into holes drilled into the walls and grouted



Geofabrics

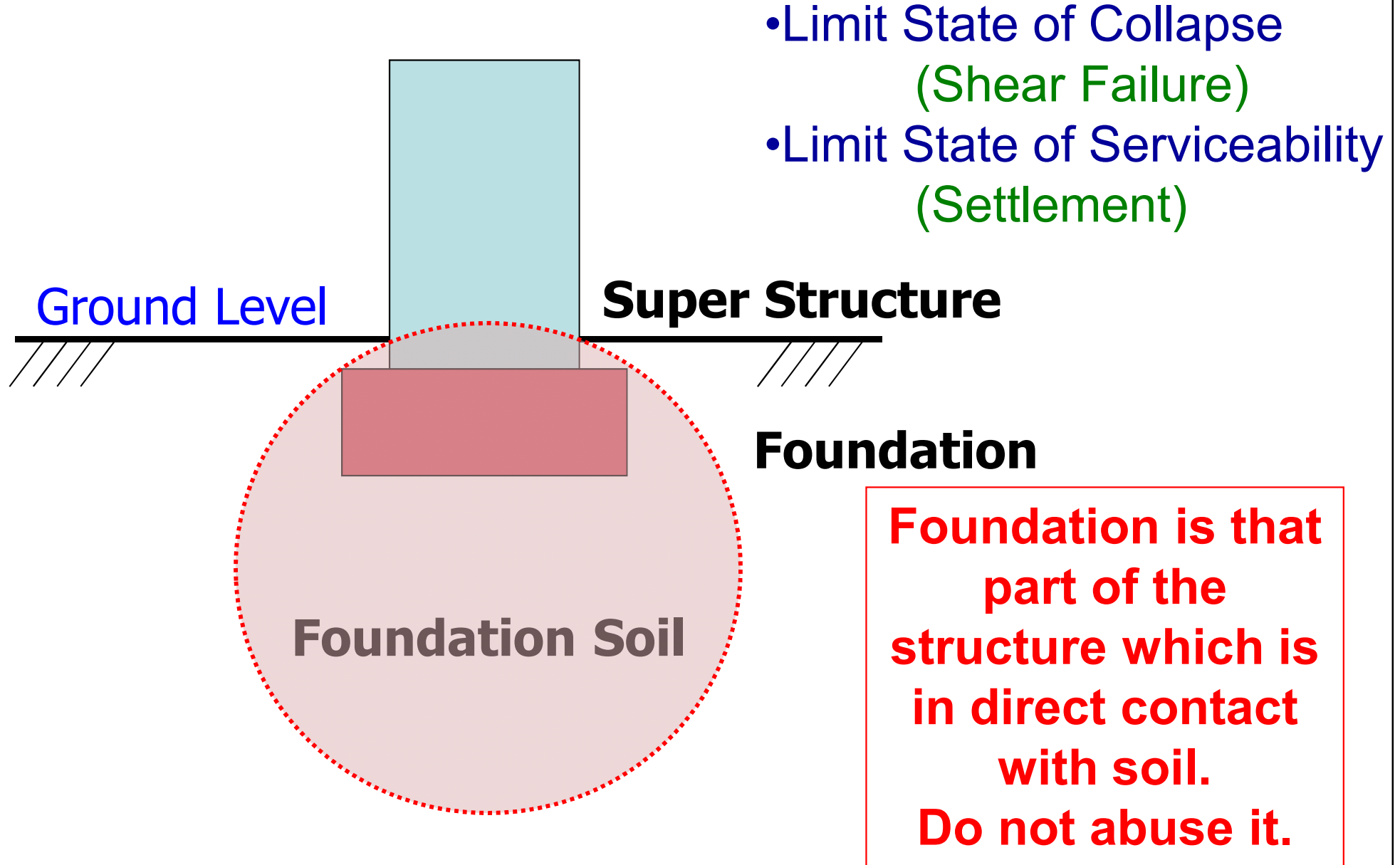
Used for reinforcement, separation, filter, drain and container in roads, retaining walls, embankments, earth dams, landfills...

- Sheets
- Strips
- Rods
- Net
- Foam
- Grid
- Pipes
- Composites



Foundation Engineering

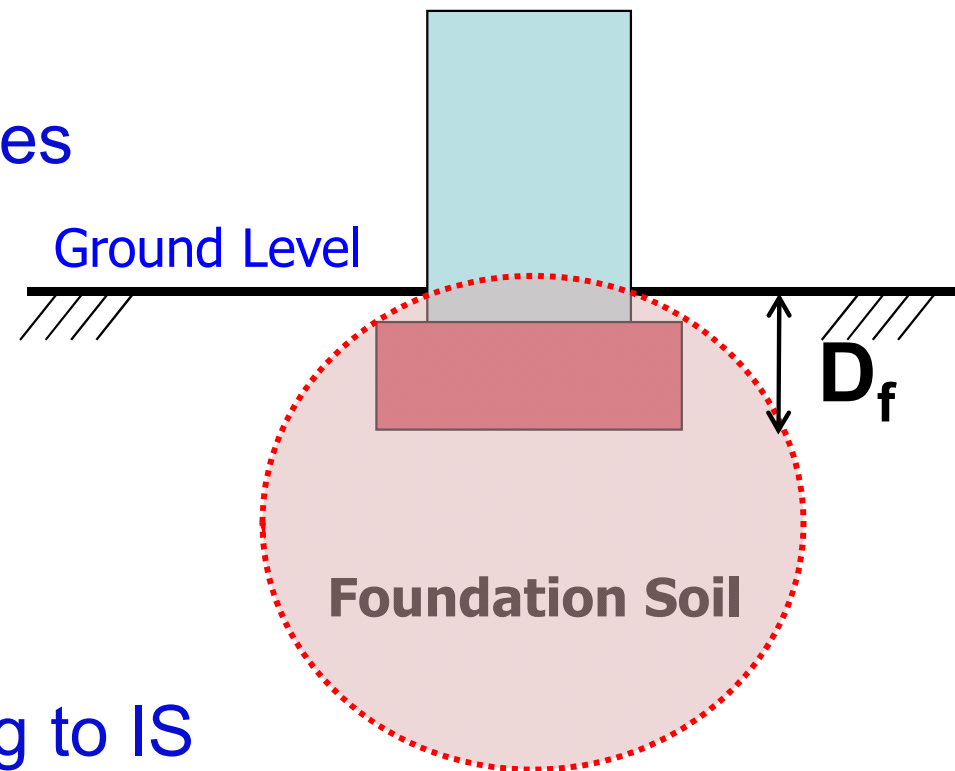
For a geotechnical engineer,



Soil should resist forces without failure or excessive deformation

Factors influencing selection of Depth of Foundation

1. Bearing Capacity
2. Settlement Characteristics
3. Water Table
4. Seasonal Moisture changes
5. Freeze Thaw situation
6. Hydraulic considerations
7. Filled-up ground
8. Burrow animals
9. Neighbouring Structure
10. Sloping ground
11. Minimum depth according to IS
12. Height of Structure
13. Dynamic Load

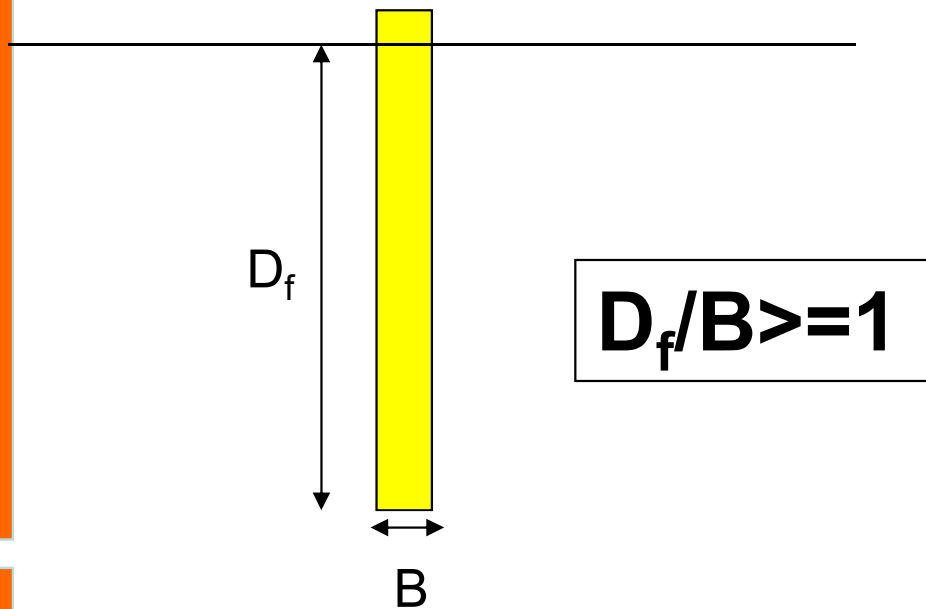


Purpose of Foundation

1. To transfer the forces from superstructure to firm soil below.
2. To distribute the stresses evenly on foundation soil such that foundation soil neither fails nor experiences excessive settlement.
3. To develop an anchor for stability against overturning.
4. To provide an even surface for smooth construction of superstructure.

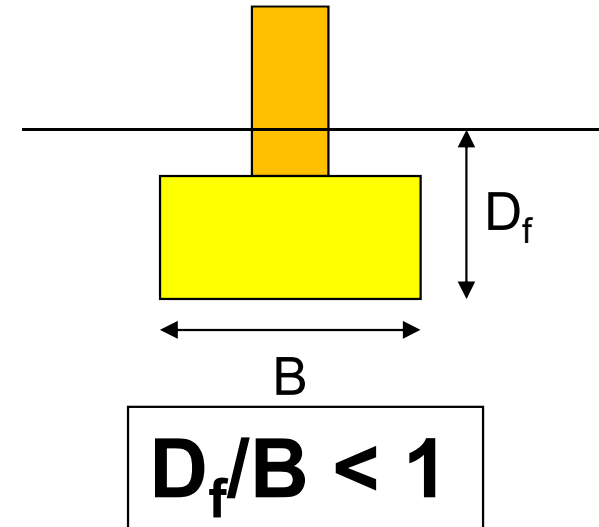


Types of Foundation



- Deep Foundation

- Pile Foundation
- Pier Foundation
- Well Foundation



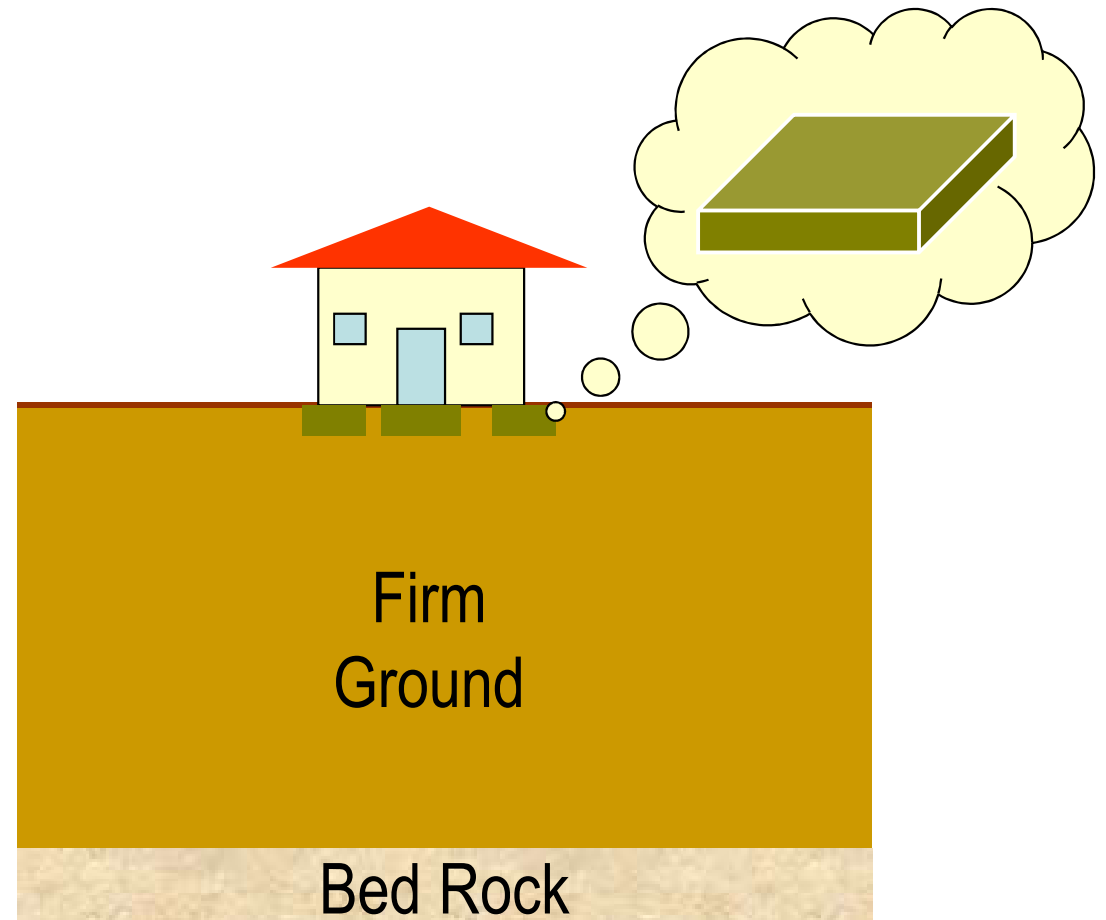
- Shallow Foundation

- Wall footing
- Isolated Footing
- Combined footing
- Strap Footing
- Strip Footing
- Mat/Raft Foundation
- Grillage Foundation

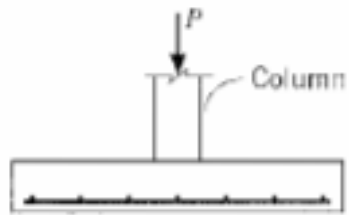
Shallow Foundations

For transferring building loads to underlying ground

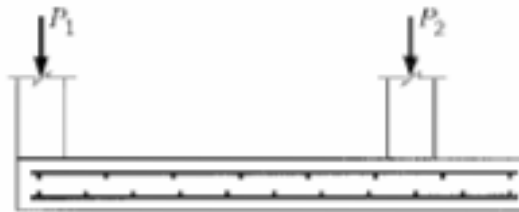
Mostly for firm soils or light loads



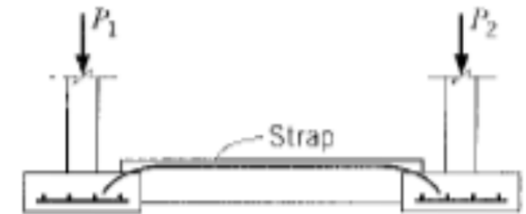
Types of Shallow Foundation



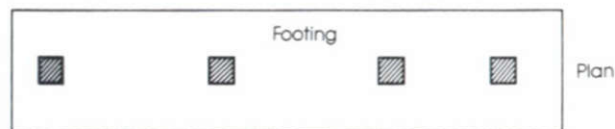
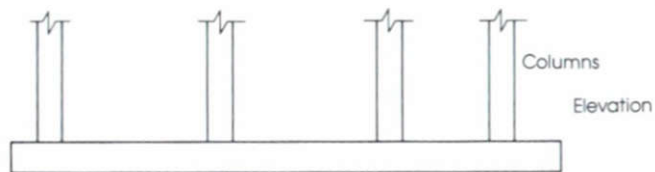
Isolated footing



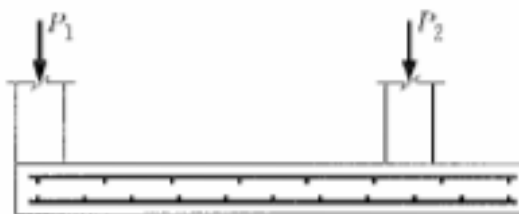
Combined footing



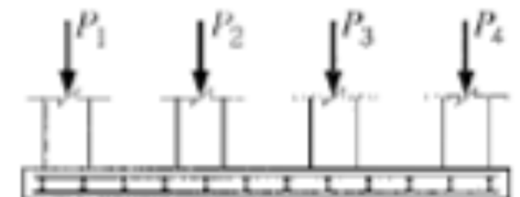
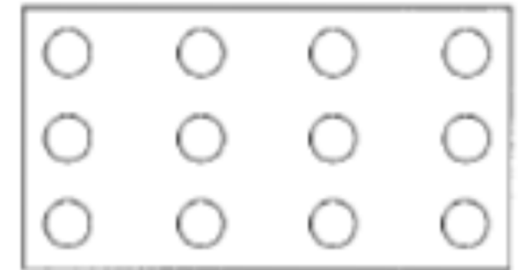
Cantilever or strap footing



Strip Footing



Trapezoidal footing



Mat foundation

Shallow Foundations



Examples of spread footings for residences and buildings.



SHALLOW FOUNDATION



Combined Footing



Grade Beam



Mat Foundation



Strip Footing

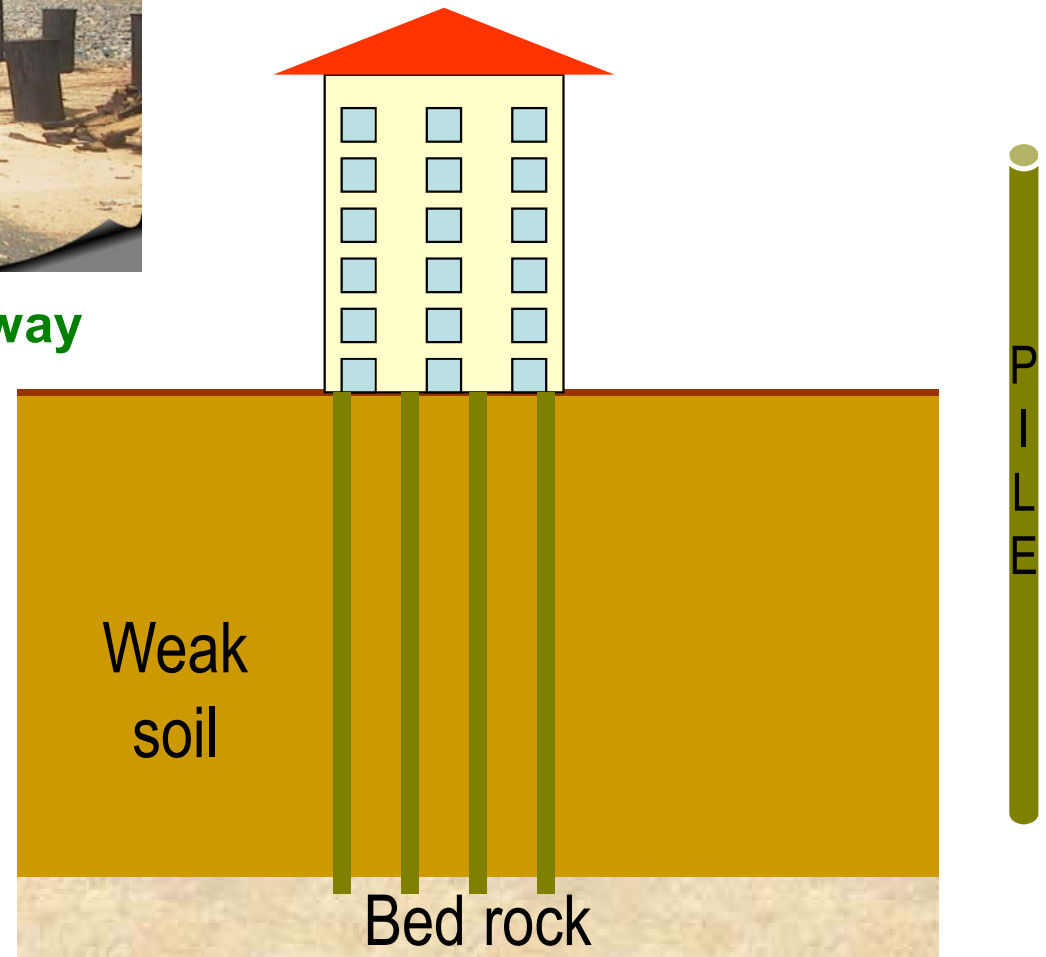
Deep Foundations



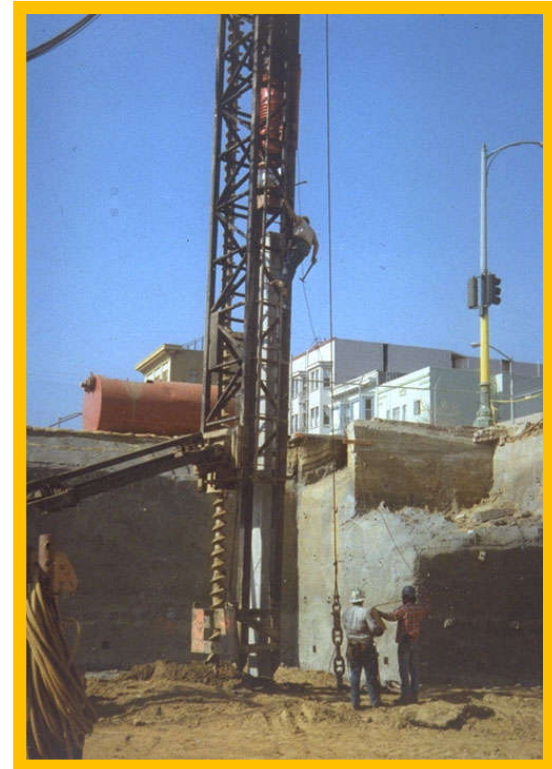
Driven timber piles, Pacific Highway

For transferring building loads to underlying ground

Mostly for weak soils or heavy loads



Pile Foundation



Some Mantras in Foundation Engineering

1. Foundation is buried under earth. Hence, should one bother about its quality?
2. Is SBC is a unique value? Is SBC is the only parameter for Foundation design?
3. Building Foundation next to existing one at higher, lower or same elevation?
4. What precautions to take for Foundation on sloping ground?
5. Can one build Column at the edge of foundation?
6. Maintain foundation pressure as uniform as possible.
7. Is isolated footing OK, even if they are next to each other?
8. In BC soil, what kind of foundation treatment is preferred?

Foundation is buried under earth.

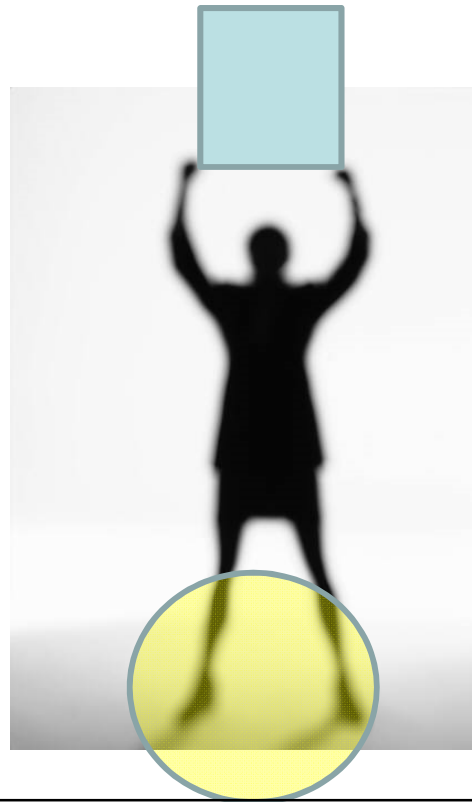
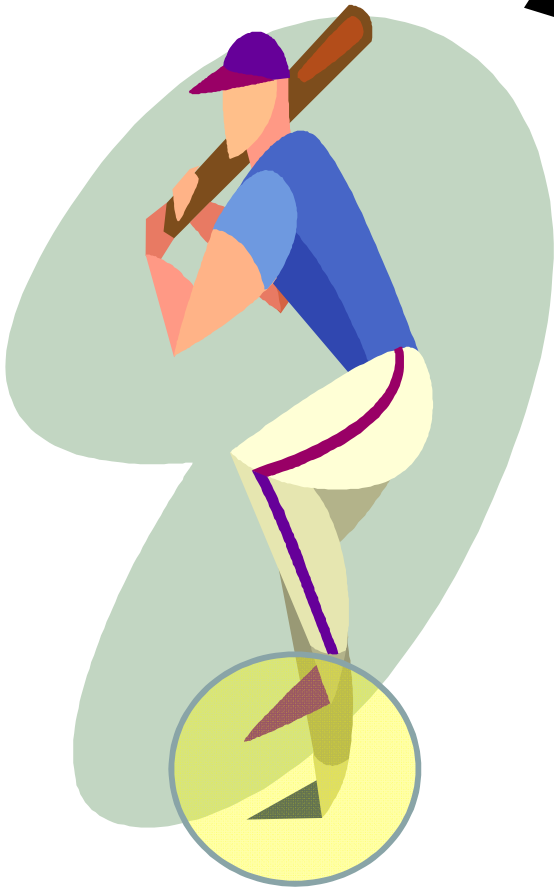
Should we bother about its quality?

- Most times quality of foundation is sacrificed as it is not exposed. Strong foundation can enhance the life of structure



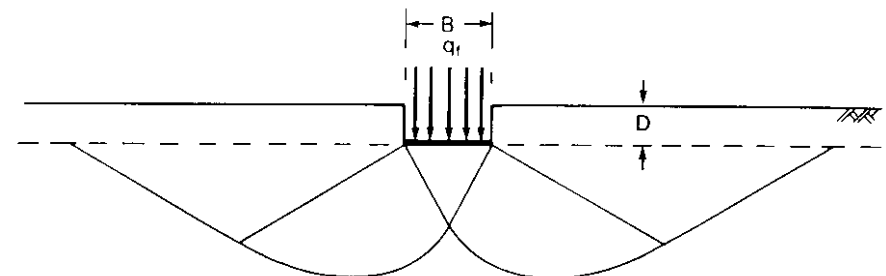


Where will all these loads go?
We do not see foundation.
Hence no need to worry about it



Is SBC a unique value?

- Safe Bearing Capacity (SBC) is considered unique to a particular soil It is not so. It depends on
 - Size of footing
 - Shape of footing
 - Inclination of footing
 - Inclination of ground
 - Type of load
 - Depth of footing etc.



Safe Bearing Capacity (SBC)

- SBC is the safe extra load soil can withstand without experiencing SHEAR FAILURE.

$$\text{SBC} = \frac{\text{Total Load}}{\text{Area of footing}}$$

SBC is not the only parameter for Foundation design

Just like Limit states of COLLAPSE & SERVICEABILITY in concrete structures, there are two limit states in Geotechnical structures.

1. Shear failure criteria (SBC)
2. Settlement criteria

SBC alone is not sufficient for design

Is consideration of settlement important ?



Palace of Fine Arts, Mexico
Uniform settlement



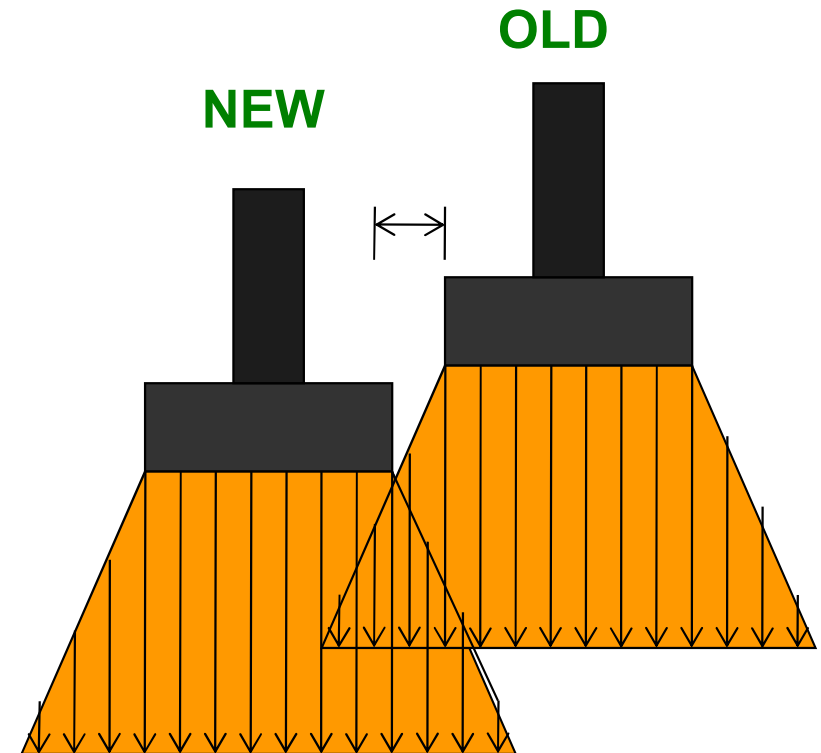
Leaning Tower of Pisa
Differential Settlement

Settlement damage

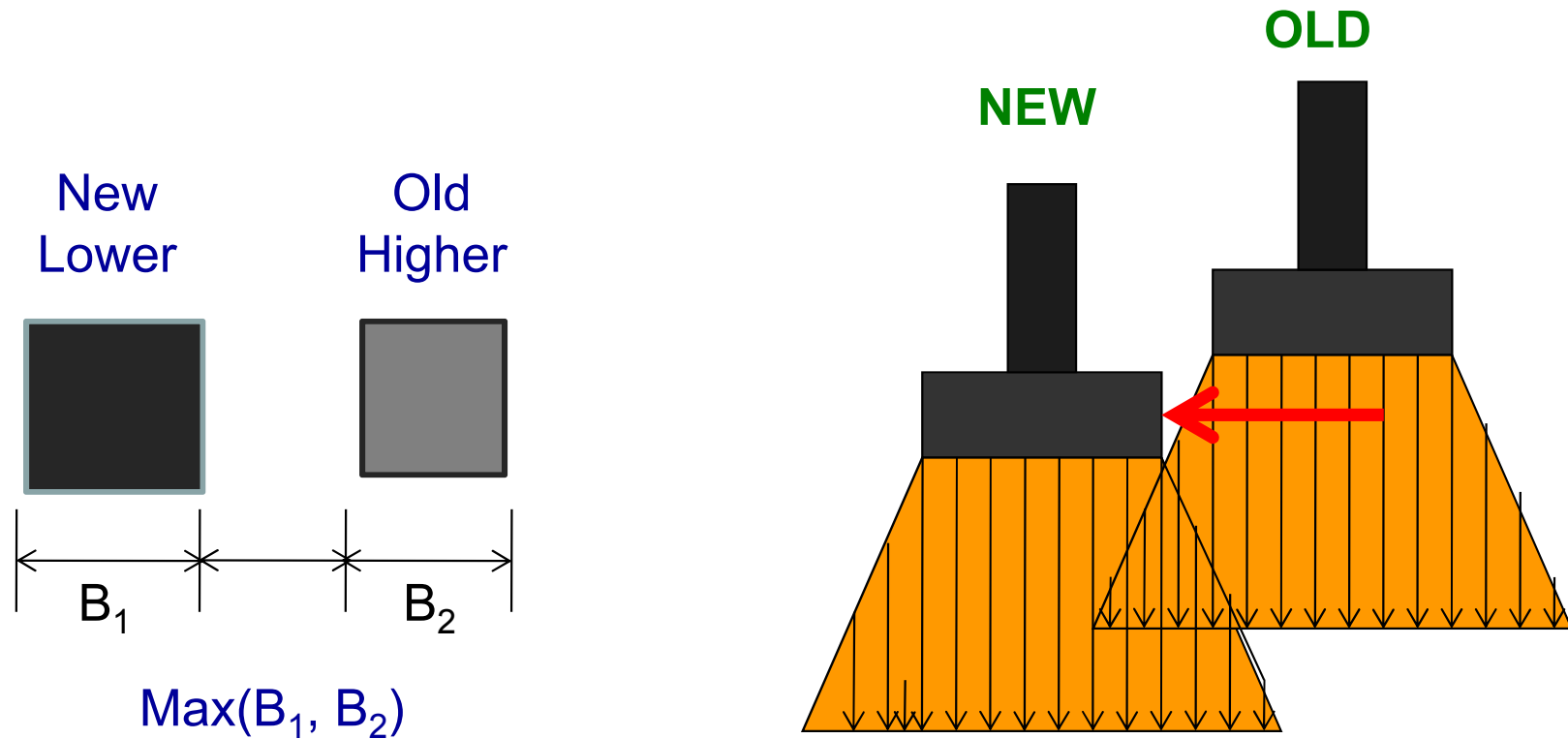


Build Foundation next to existing one at lower elevation

1. Maintain distance between two footings.
2. Stresses in soil may overlap causing shear failure.
3. If necessary, it is preferred to put new footing below existing one.

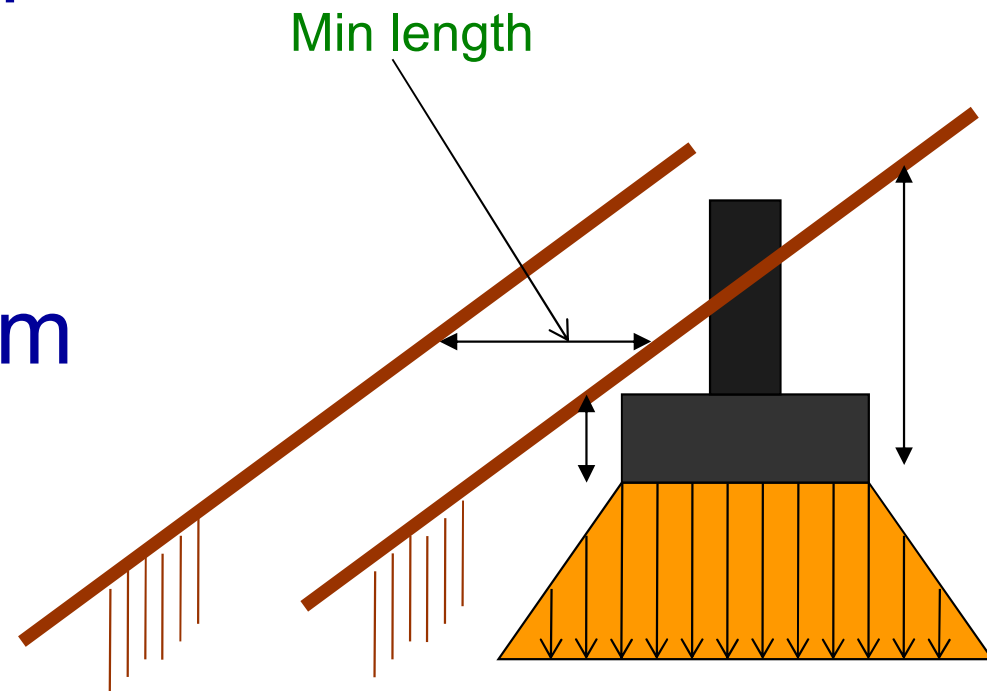


Build Foundation next to existing one at lower elevation



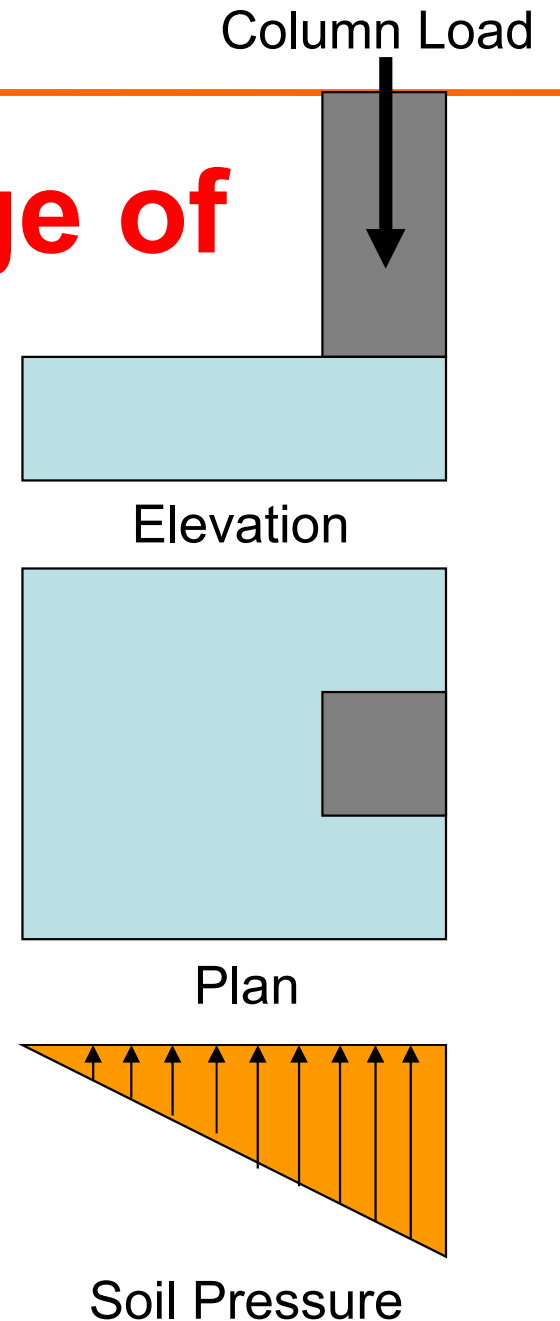
Foundation on sloping ground close to the edge is not good

- Non-symmetry in overburden pressure
- Maintain minimum distance

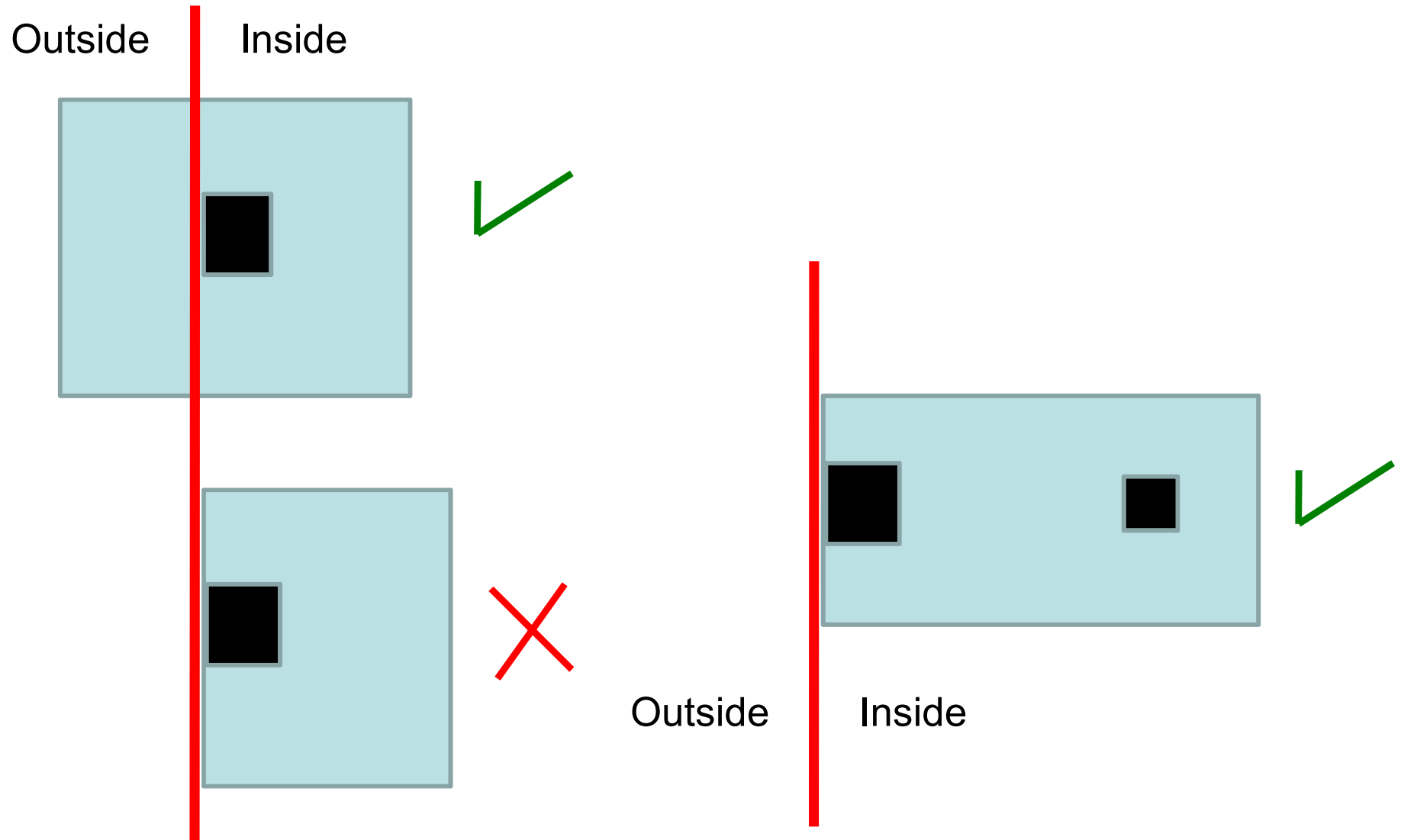


Build Column at the edge of foundation

- Leads to eccentric loading
- Combined footing is preferred

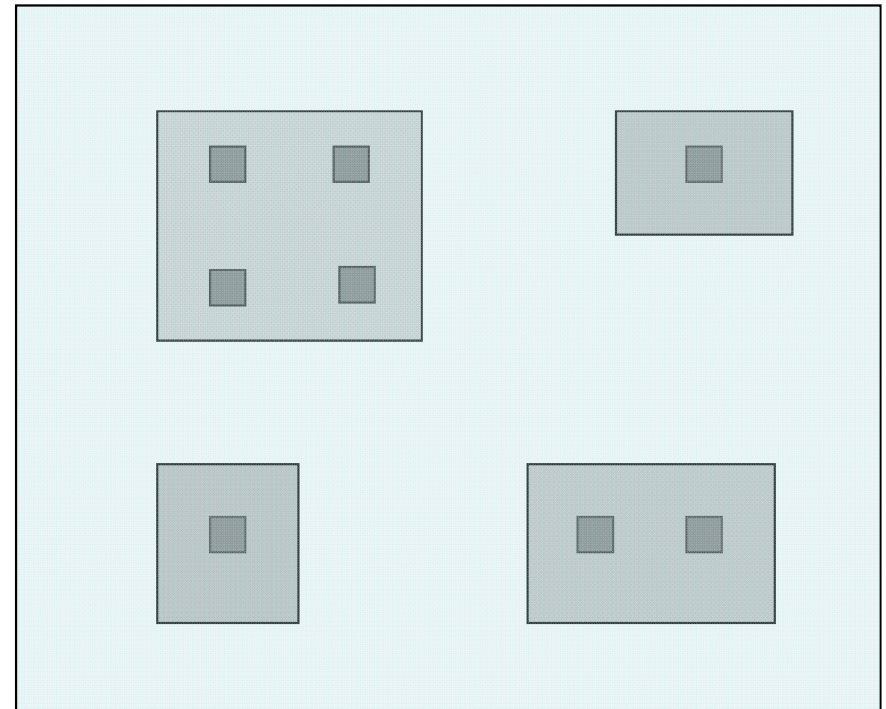


Column at the edge of property line

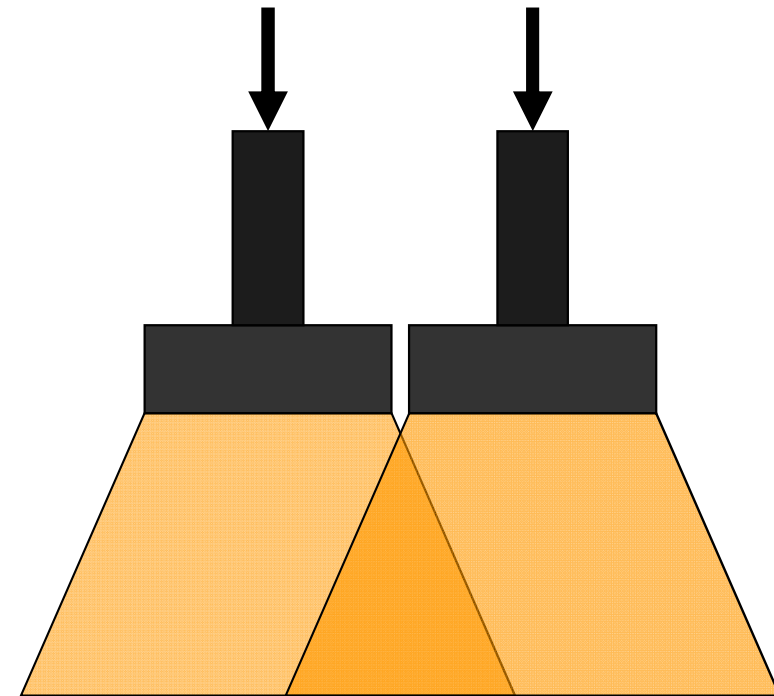
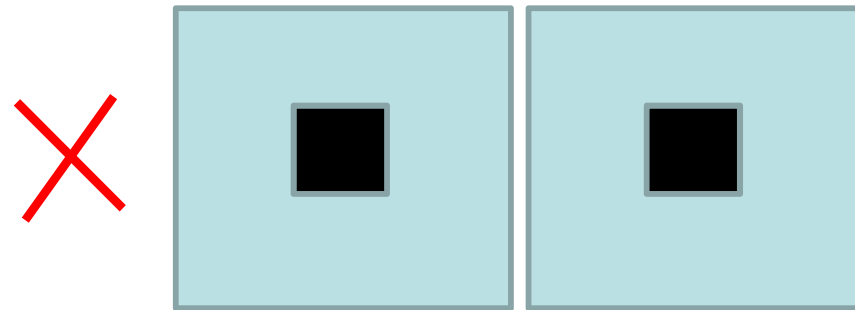
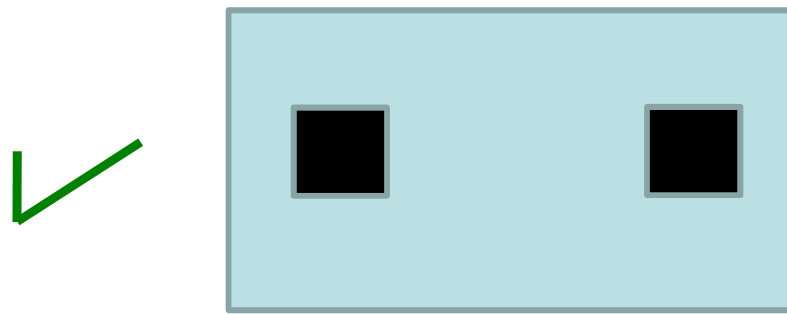


Foundation pressure shall be uniform

- When different types of footings are provided for same building, maintain foundation pressure as uniform as possible



Prefer combined footing if two isolated footings are next to each other



Overlap in stresses

- Provide combined footing to avoid overlap in stresses

Foundation in B C Soil

What is a B C Soil?

B C stands for Black Cotton. The soil is mostly Black in color. It is good for cotton growth. It is a nightmare to Civil Engineer.

It swells by drinking water and shrinks when water goes out.

Alternate swell – shrink is the major problem



Expansive Soil



More than 20 % of country is covered

Tropical Soil

Nightmare to Civil Engineers

Swells when water is available shrinks when water is deficient



In BC soil, what precautions are essential?

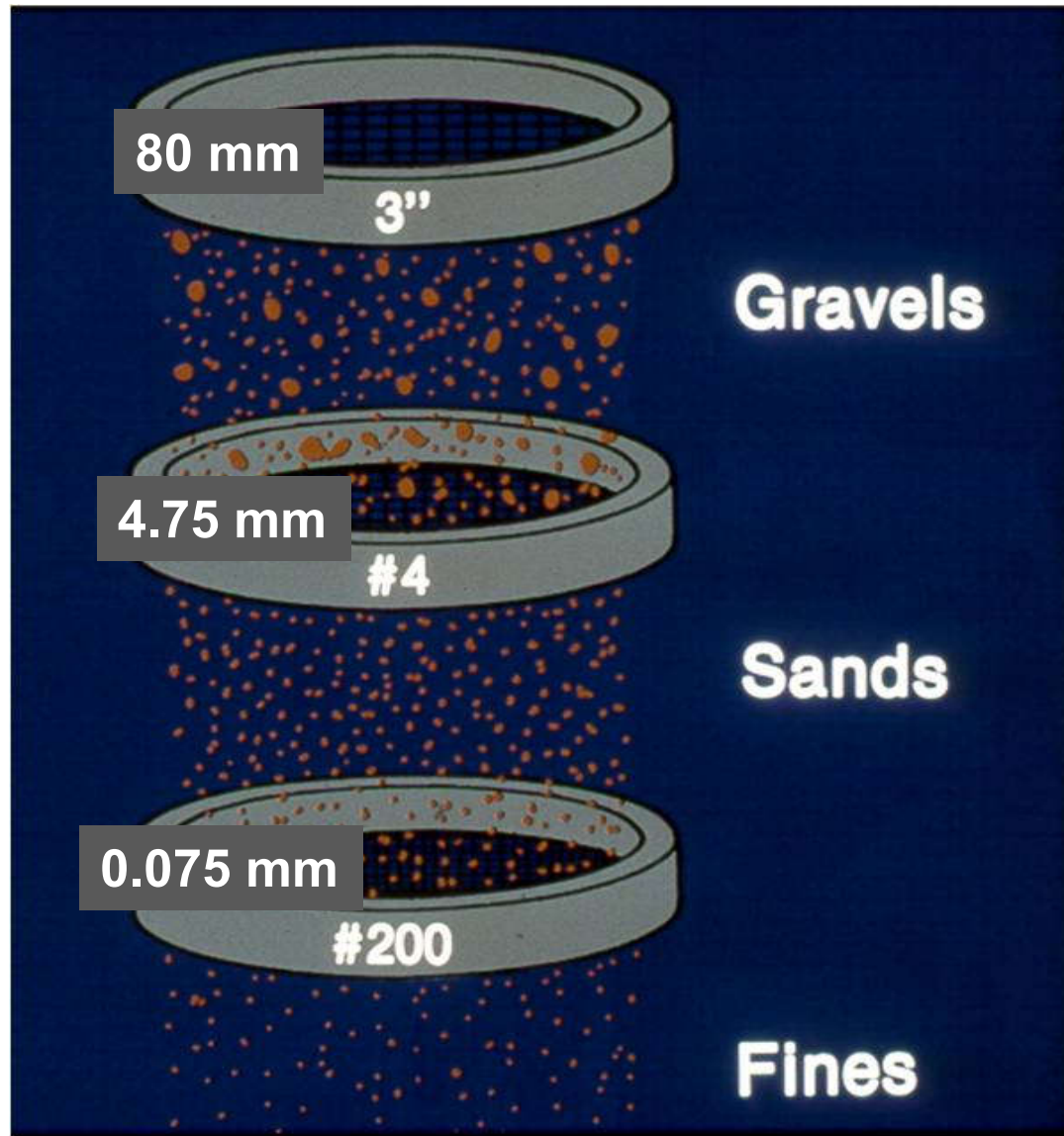
SBC is not the problem with BC soil. Most times lifting of light structure when the soil swells poses problem.



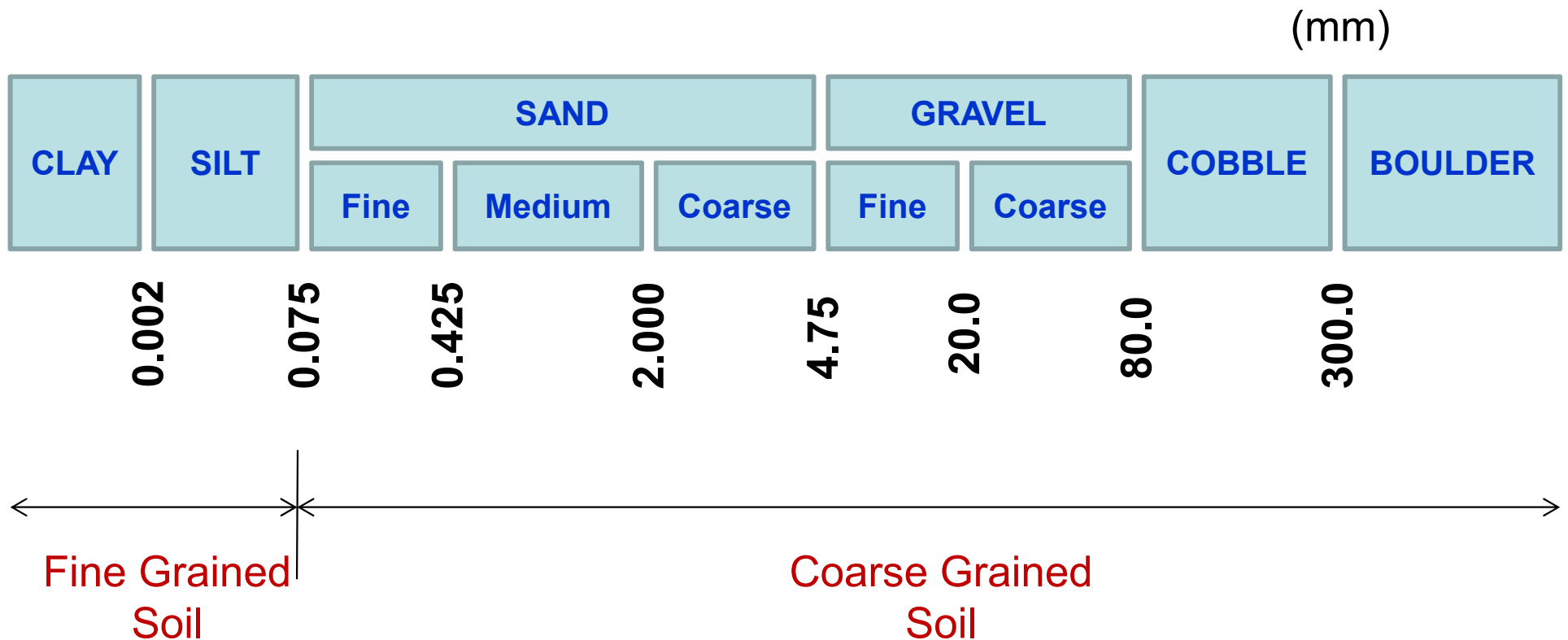
Working in sticky soil



Particle Size

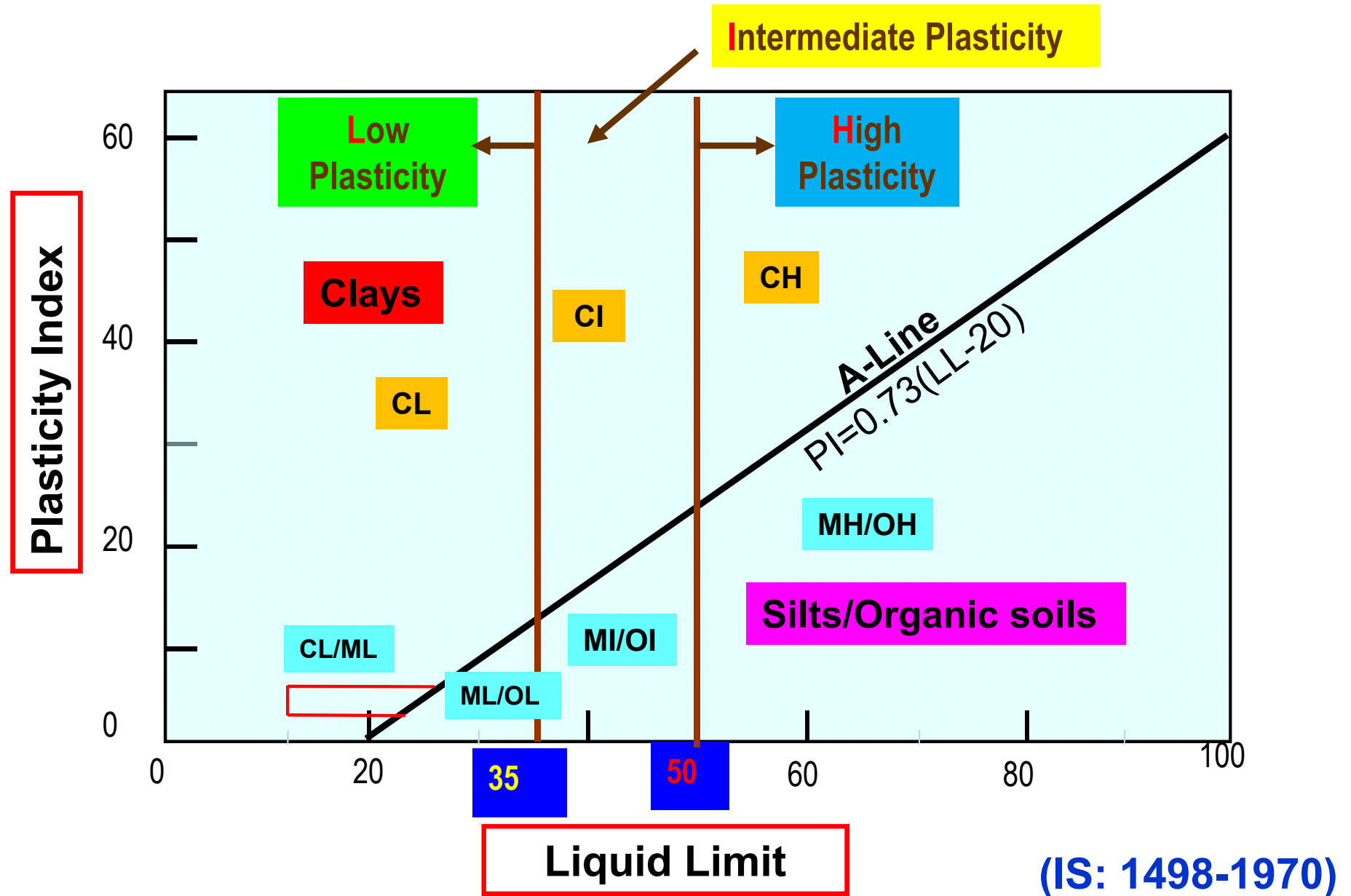


IS Classification in accordance with size of soil particles



Classifying Fines

➔ Purely based on LL and PI



Checklist to ensure foundation soil is not troublesome

1. Is the soil nearby project area known to be expansive?
2. Is there evidence of crack in walls, curbs, side walks, pavements etc. of nearby construction?
3. Are there shrinkage cracks in soil during dry season?

Checklist to ensure foundation soil is not troublesome



4. Is it hard to break a lump of dry soil using fingers?
5. If a lump of dry soil is dropped from a height of 1.5 m, does it stay without breaking?
6. If moist soil is moulded and rolled in to thread, does it stay with approximately 3 mm diameter?

Checklist to ensure foundation soil is not troublesome

7. Is the soil sticky (adhering to shoe, tyre etc.) when wet?
8. If moist soil on palm is struck with short strokes from lower end, does it remain same without shiny surface?

Checklist to ensure foundation soil is not troublesome

9. If a ball of wet soil is dropped on a glass plate from a height of 0.5 m, does it stick to glass, even if it is turned up side down?

Even if one answer is YES, thorough investigation is necessary to make sure the soil at the site is not expansive.

- If expansive what is its degree of expansion is necessary.

Cracks in building



Cracks in building



Cracks in building



Cracks in building



Cracks in building



Cracks in building

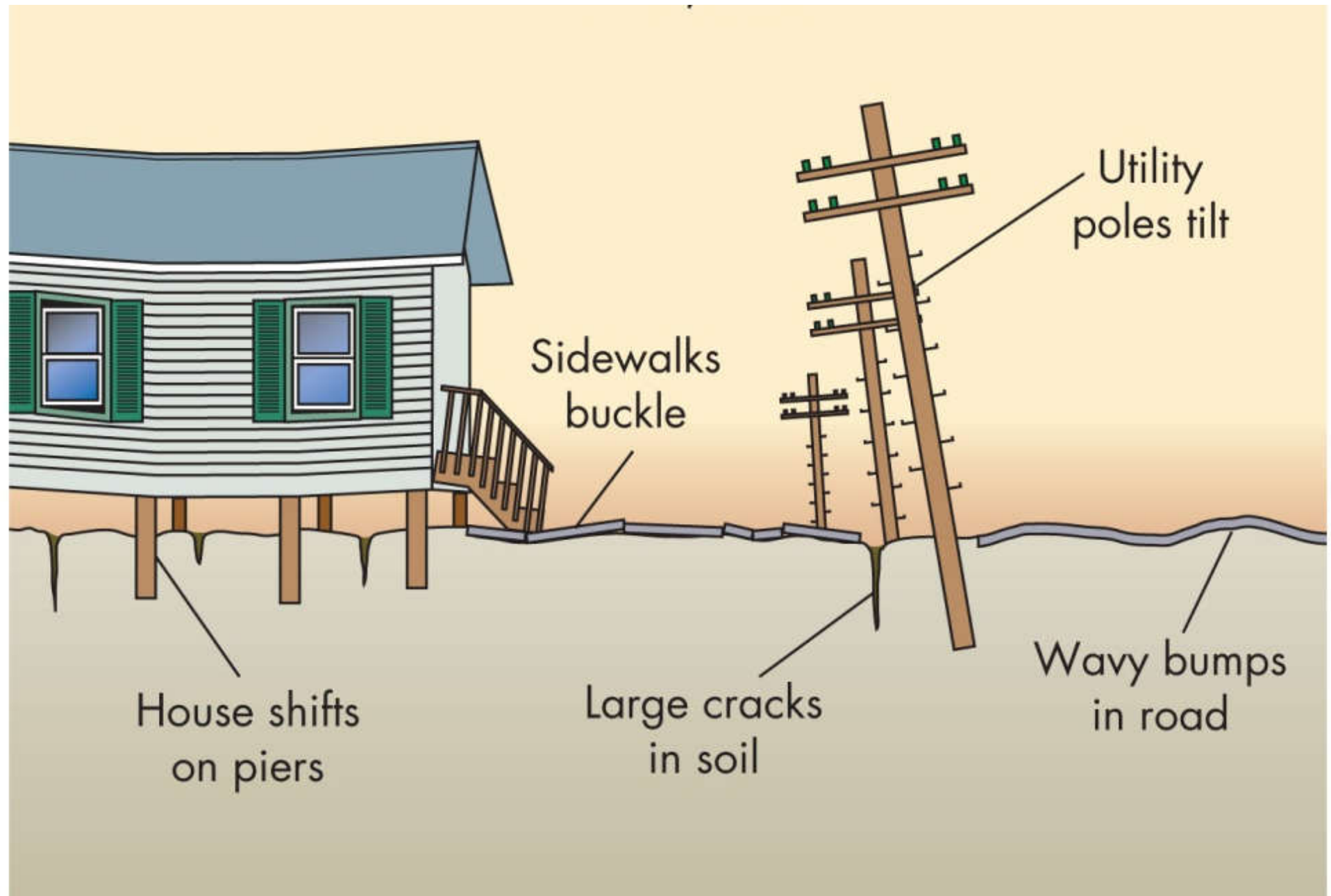


Cracks in building



Cracks (d)

Effects of alternate SHRINK & SWELL



Cracks in building



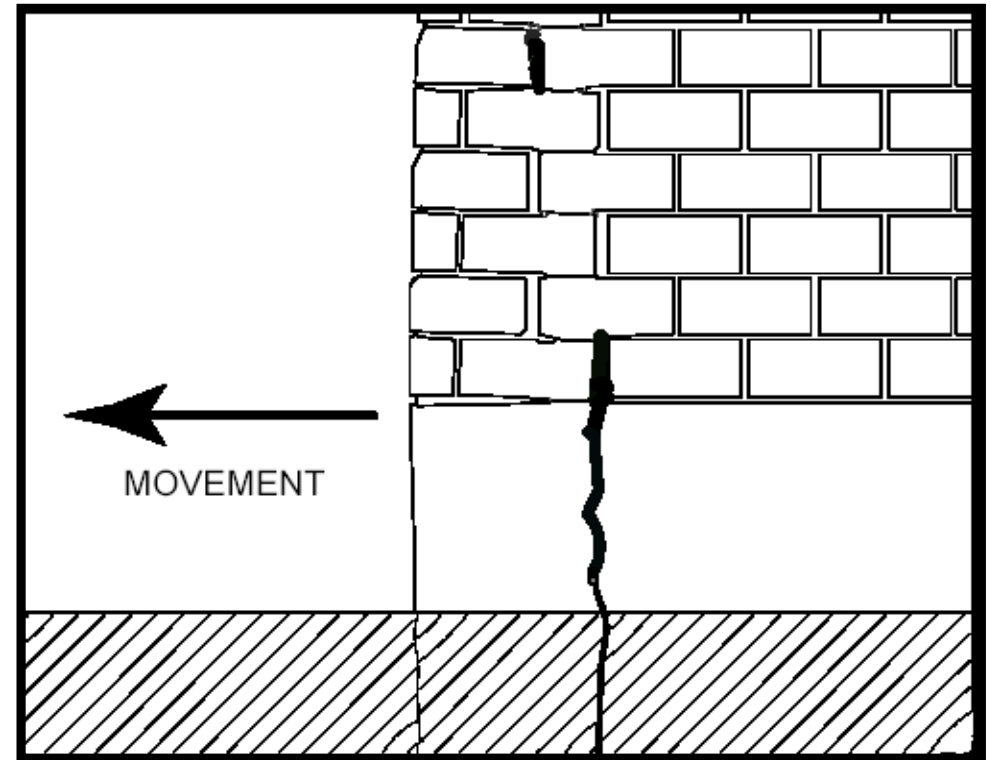
Land surface
around 1956

10 to 16 inches
of subsidence

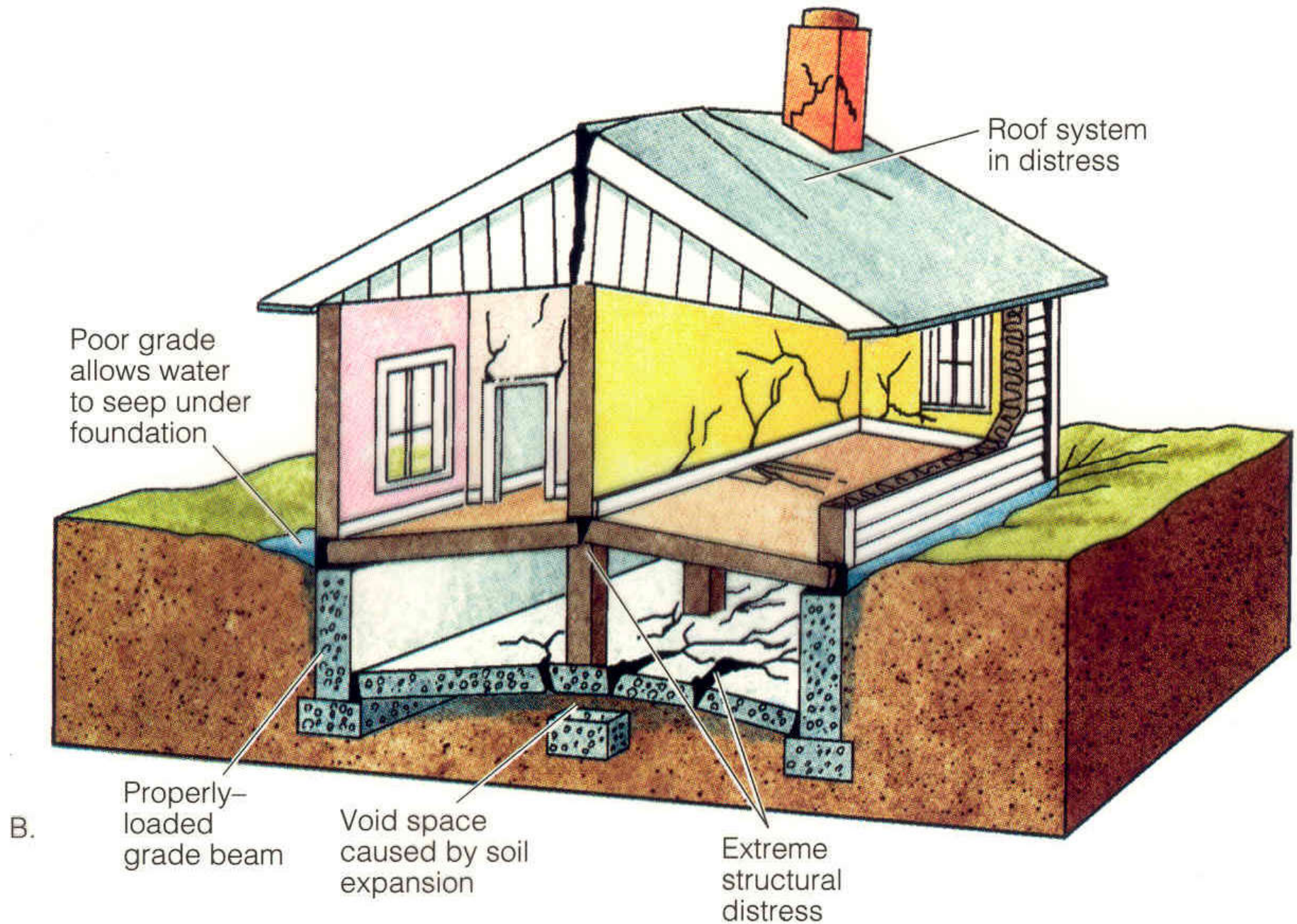
Land surface
today



Cracks in building



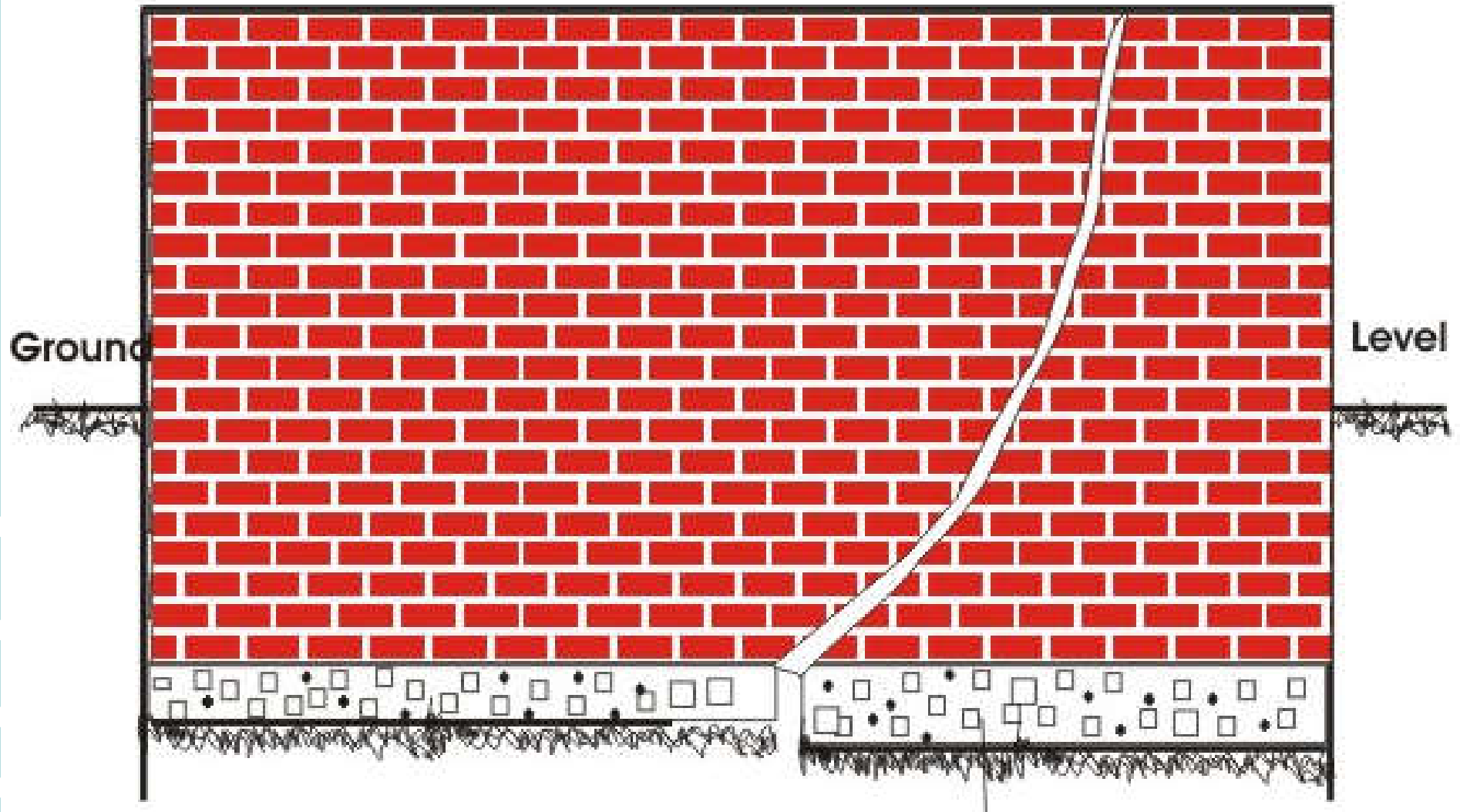
Cracks in building



Damage due to Differential Settlement



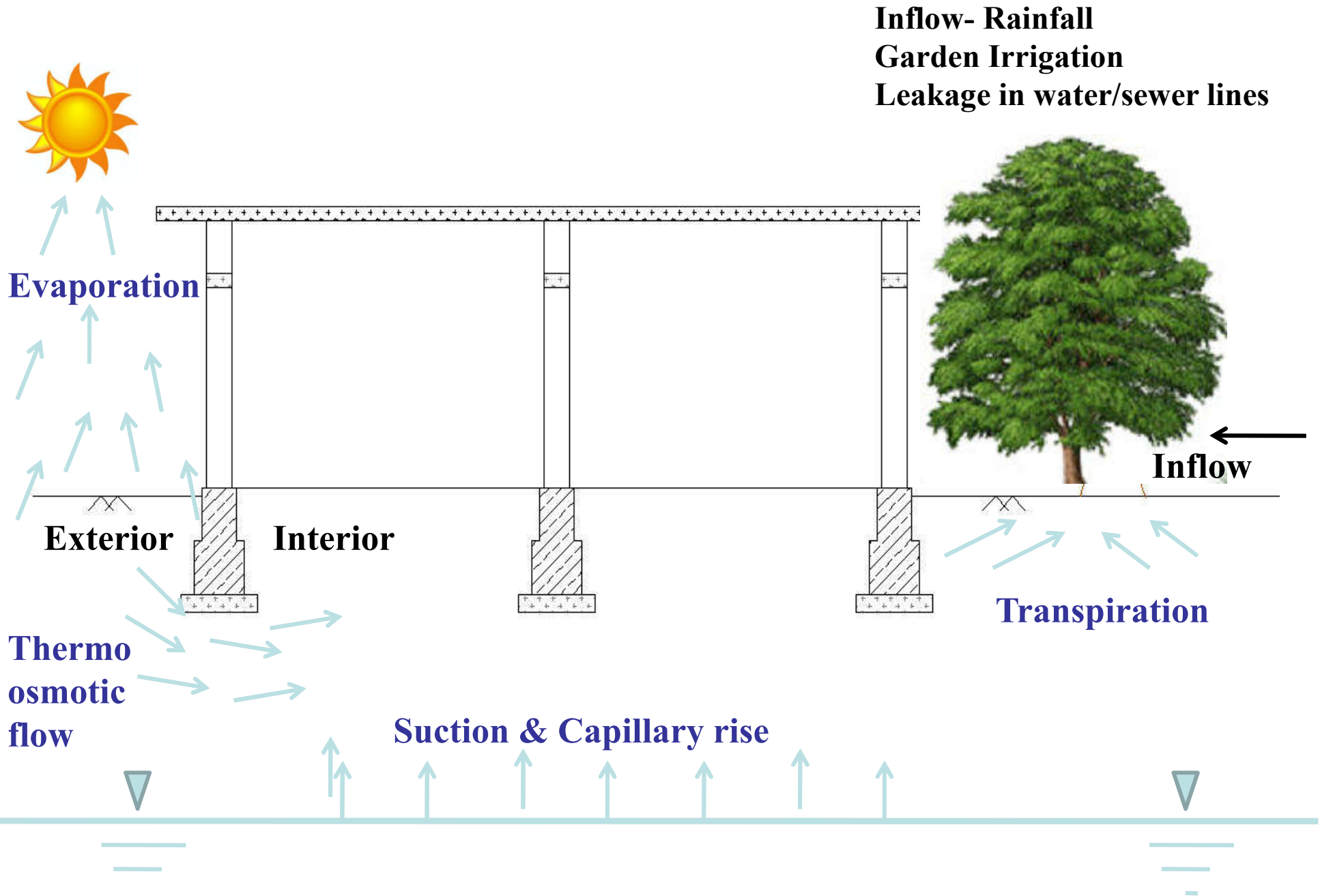
Cracks in building



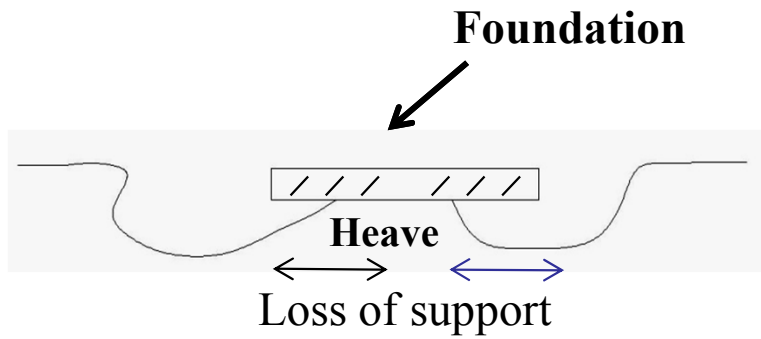
Cracks in building



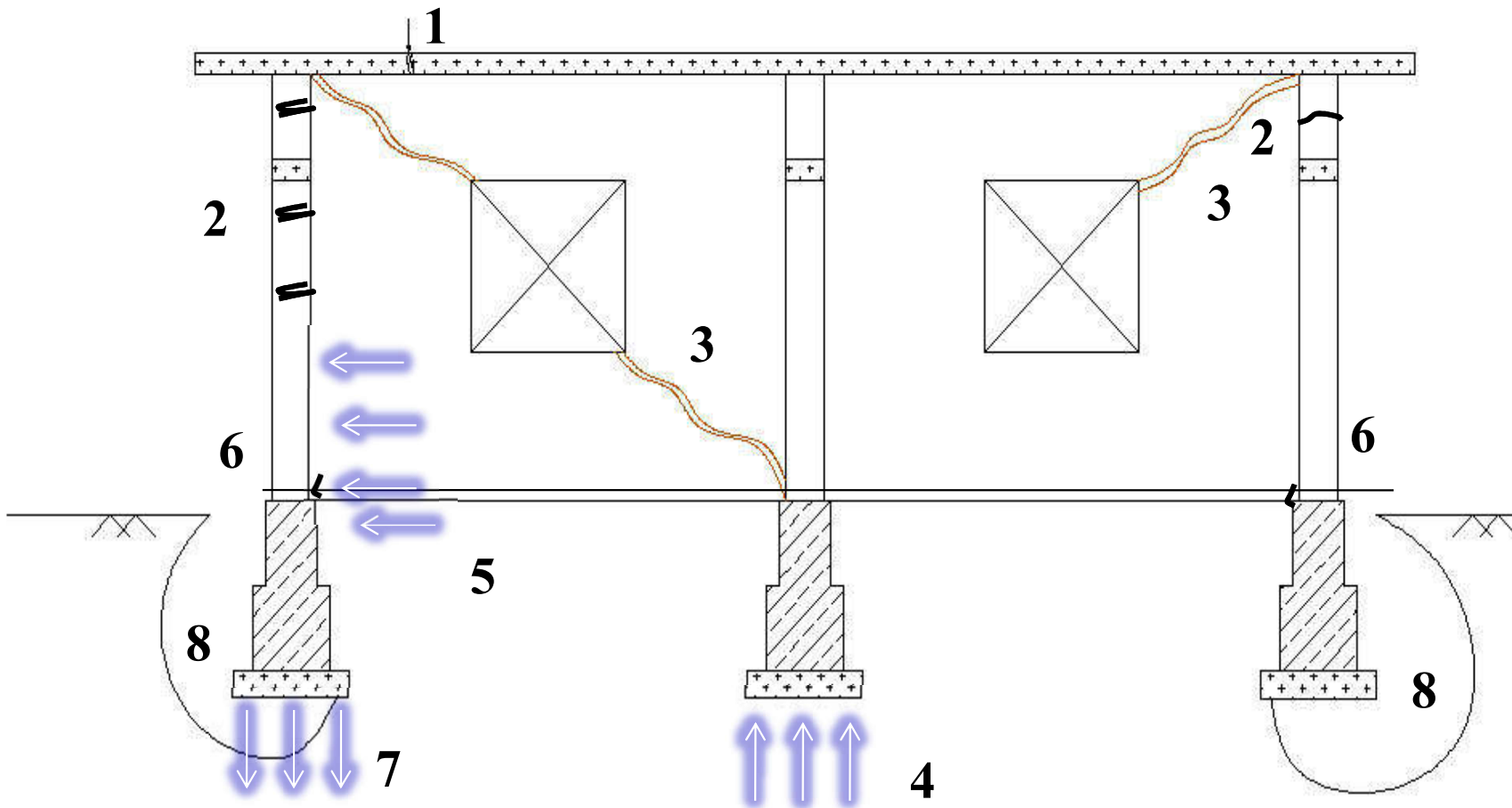
MOISTURE MOVEMENT



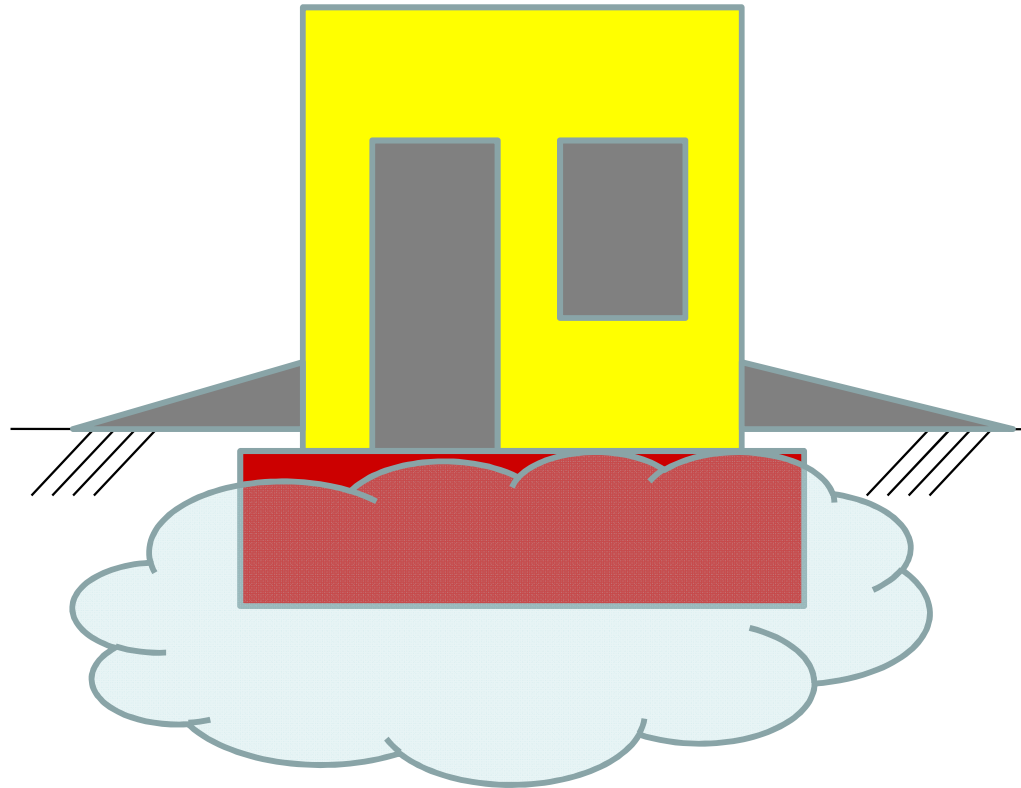
Common failures in light building on expansive soils



1. Crack in roof slab due to cantilever action.
2. Horizontal crack in exterior wall due to settlement
3. Diagonal crack in cross wall due to diff. settlement
4. Uplift of interior footing
5. Lateral pressure on exterior wall
6. Separation of floor from exterior wall
7. Shrinkage settlement of exterior footing
8. Loss of contact at external face

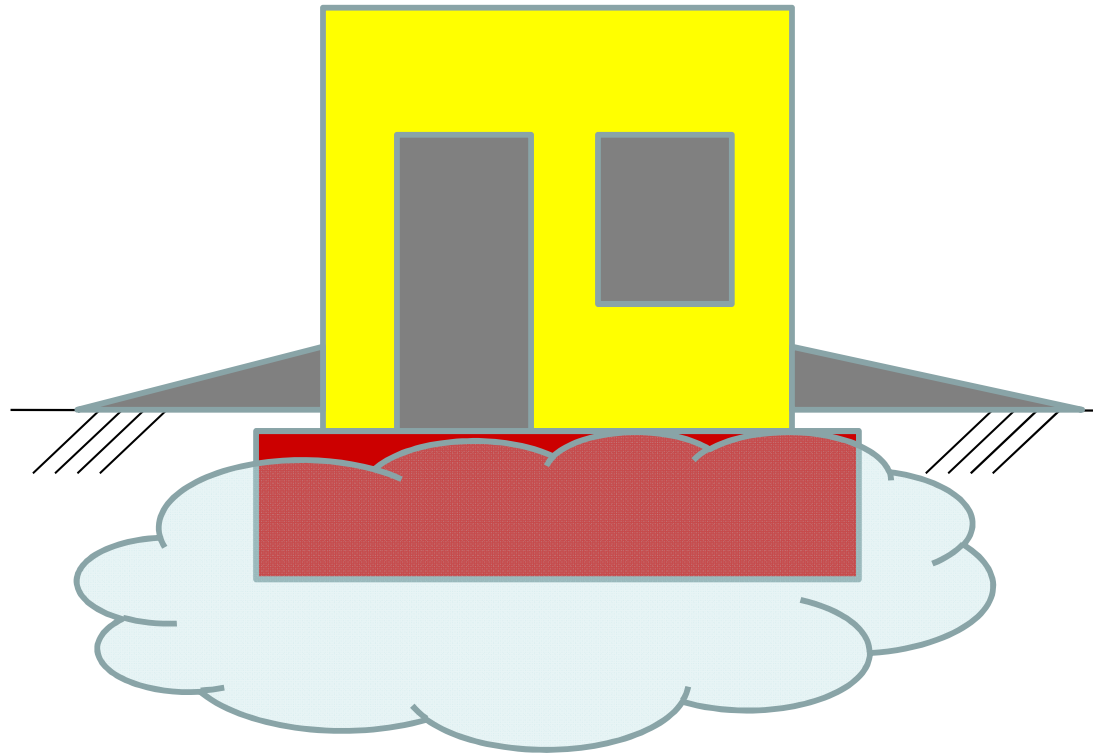


Prevention is better than cure



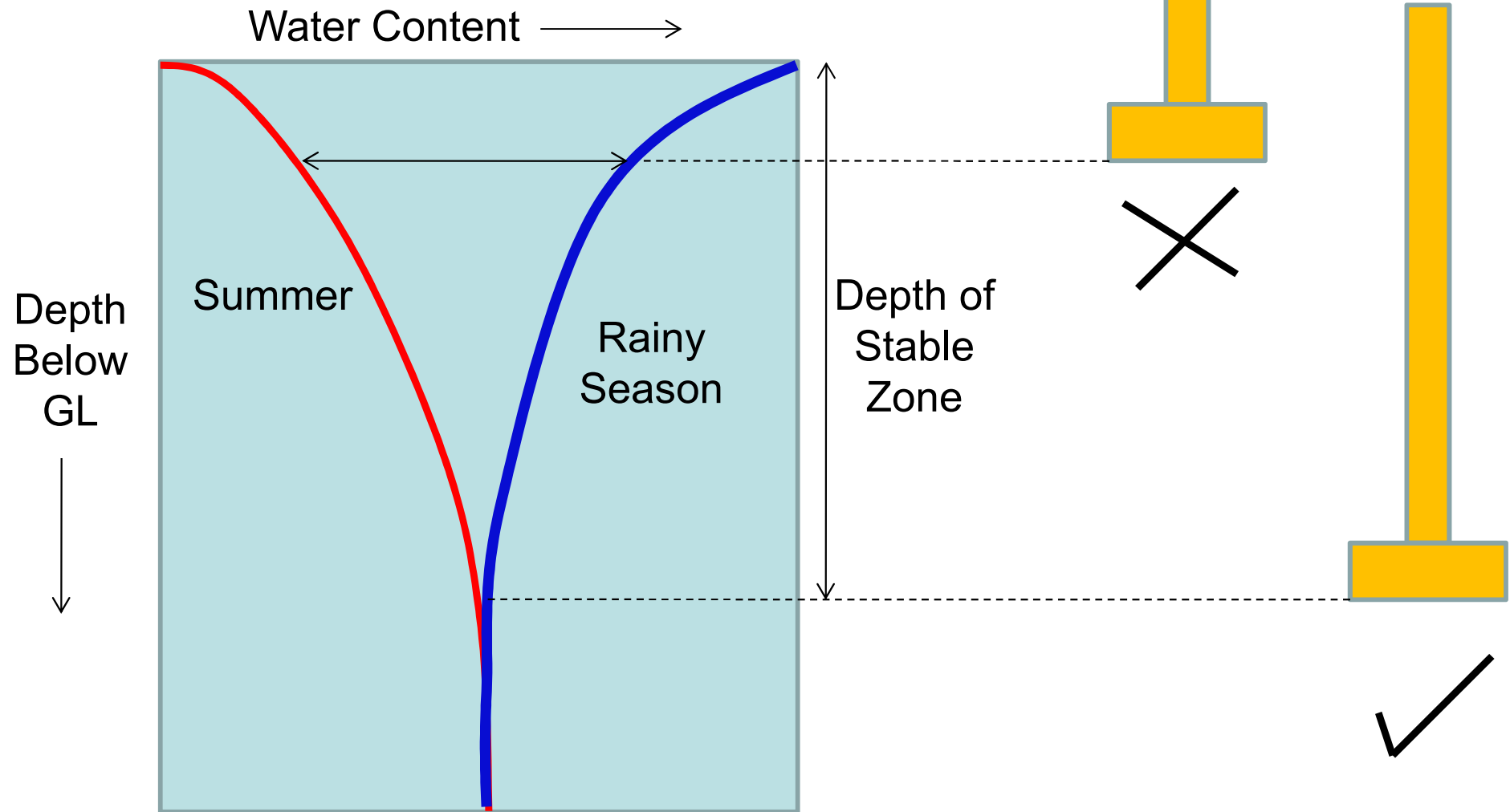
Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

Increase depth of foundation

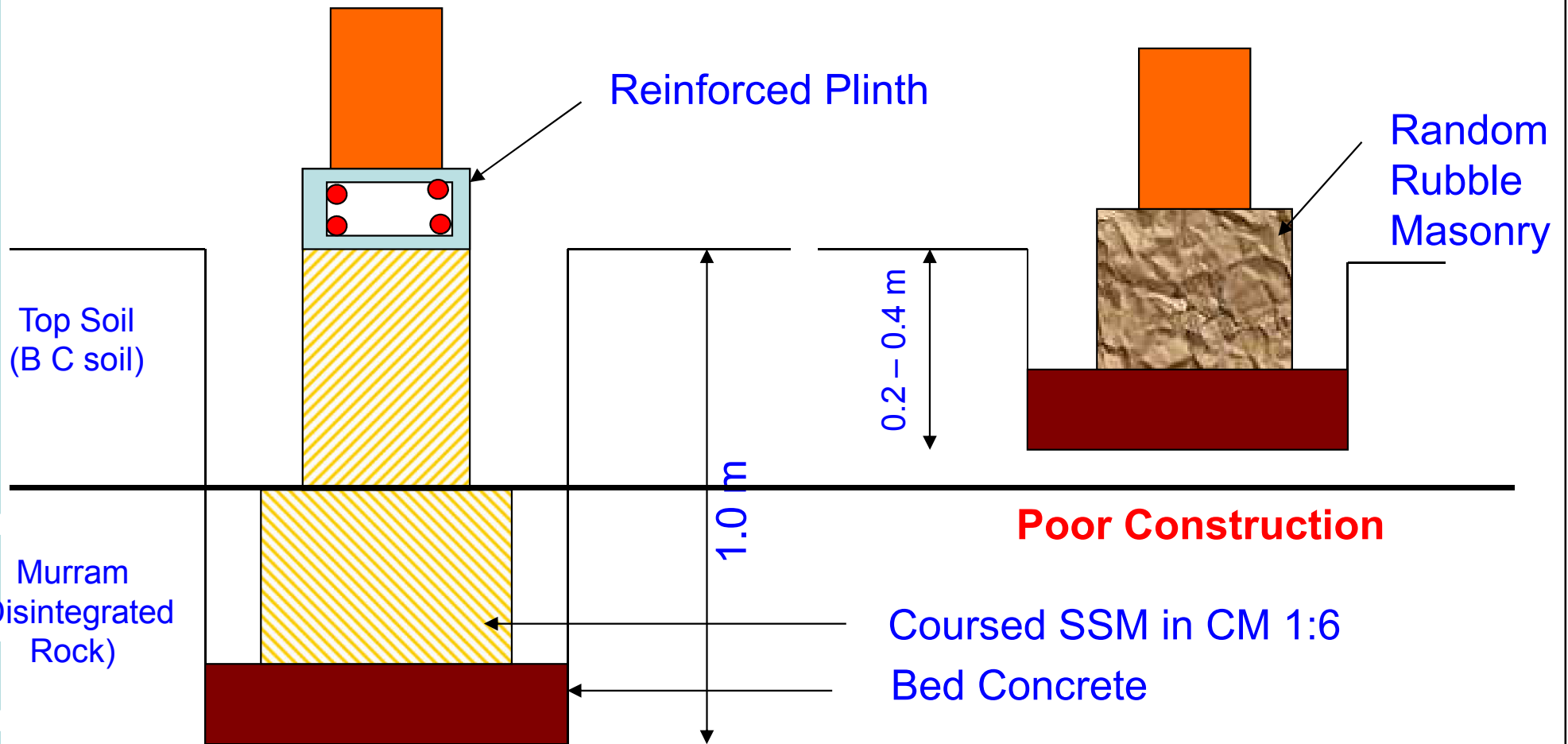


Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

Increase the depth of foundation



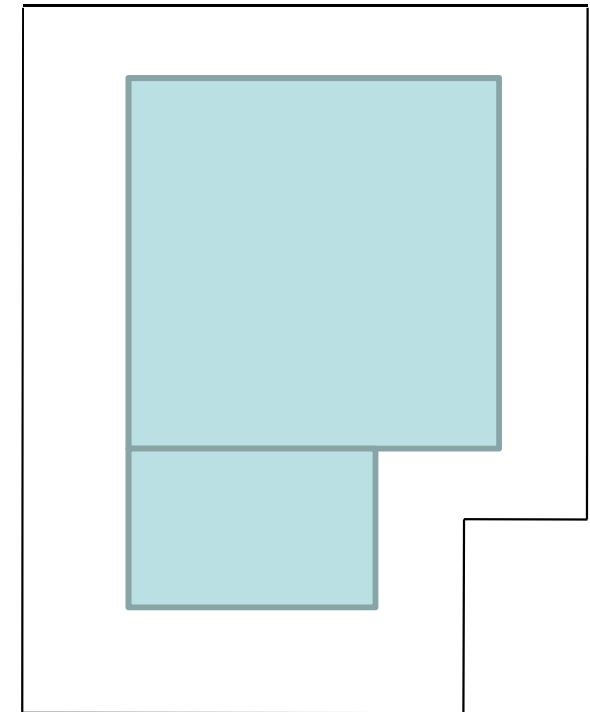
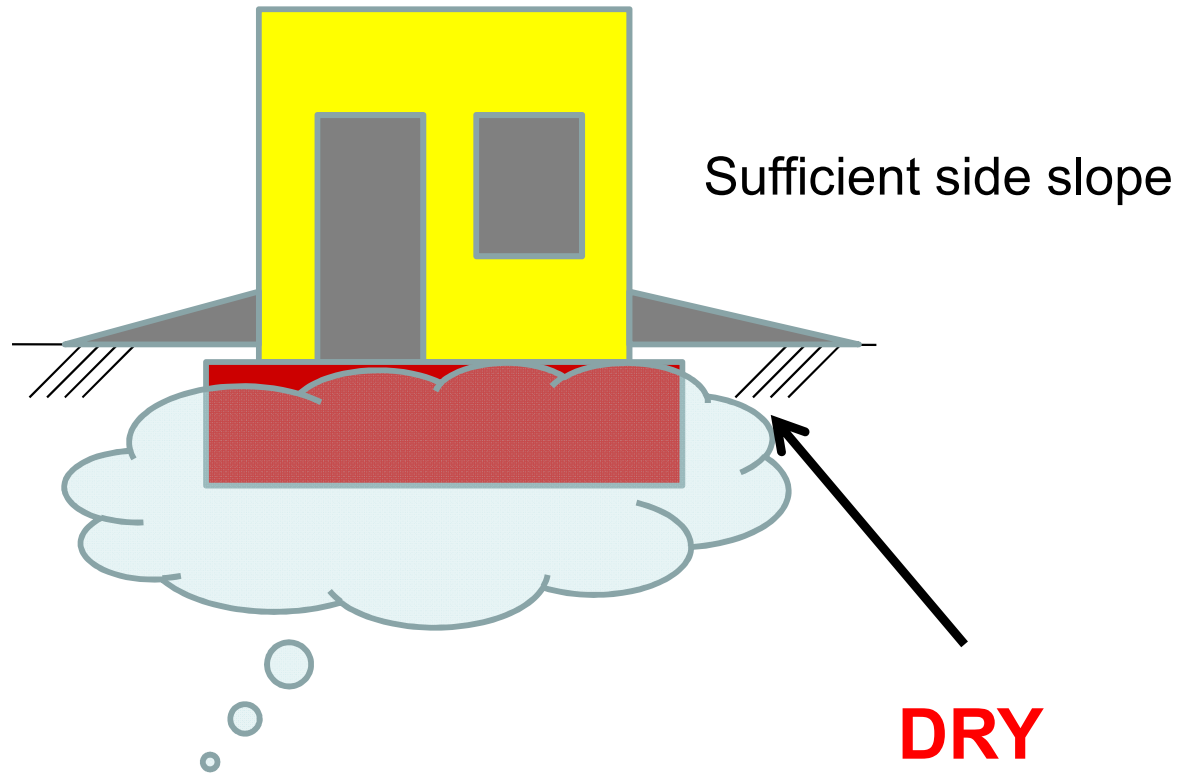
Typical Foundation details for Masonry Construction



Good Construction

Structures with better construction practice survive

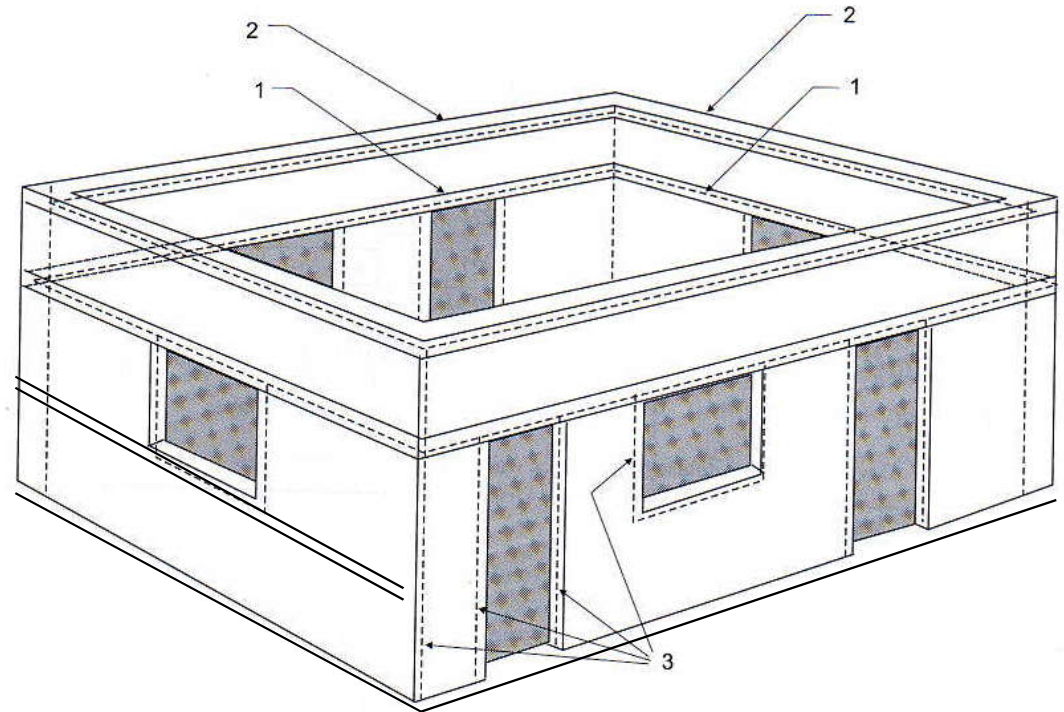
Provide al-round Apron



Provide reinforcement at bed concrete, plinth, sill, lintel levels



Not Good Soil. Change !!!!



Roof Band
Lintel Band
Sill Band
Plinth Band
Bed Concrete Band

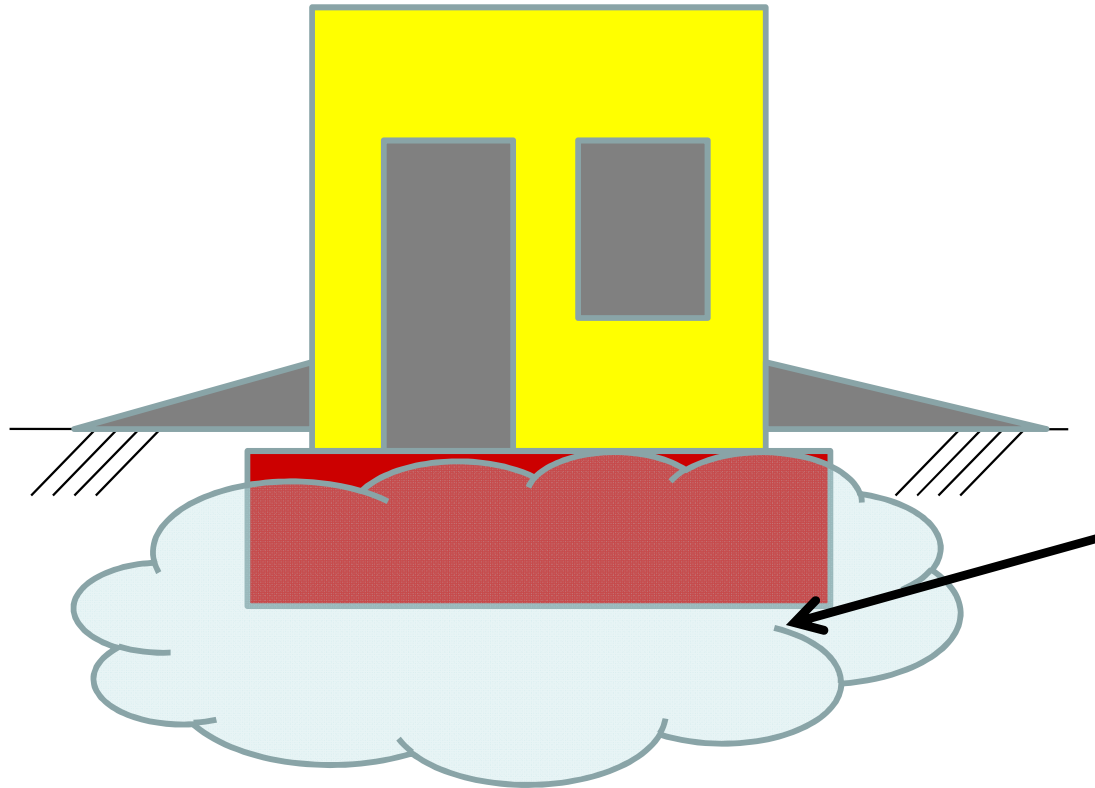
Replace with better soil



**Which is a
better soil?**

Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

Stabilize the existing soil



**Chemical
Stabilization
With LIME?**

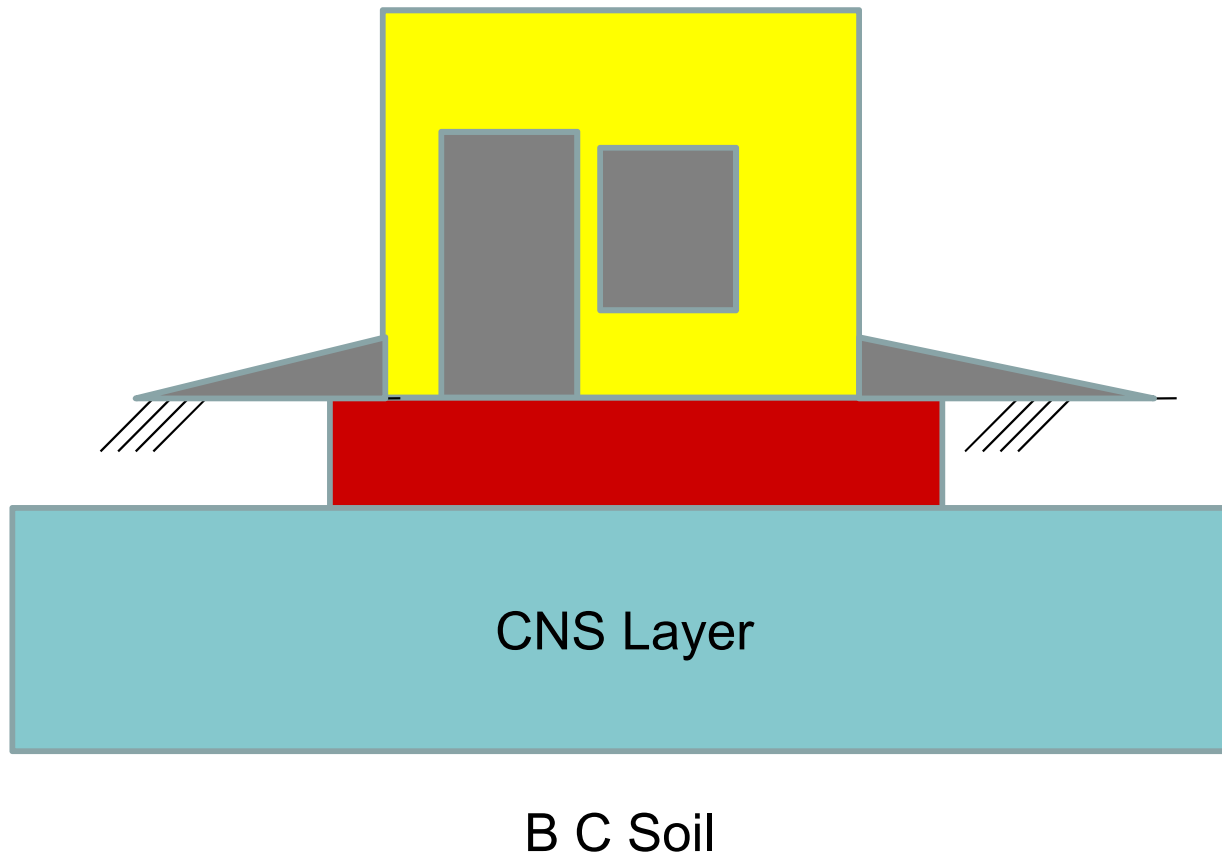
Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

CNS Layer

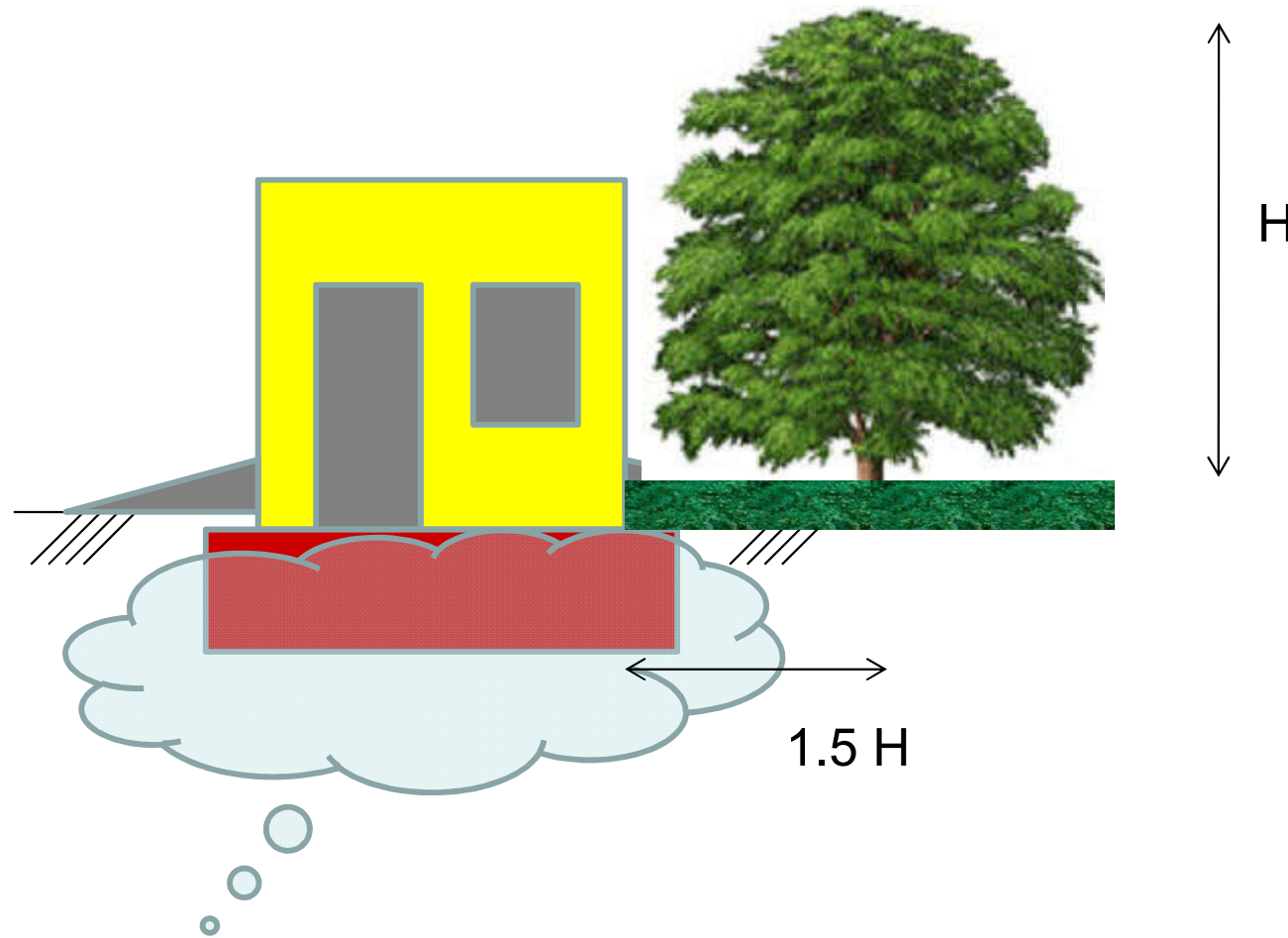
- **Cohesive Non-Swell Layer**
- **Grain Size:** 15 to 25 % Clay, 35 to 50 % Silt, 30 to 40 % Sand and < 10 % Gravel
- **Consistency Limit:** 30 – 50 % ω_L , 20 – 25 % ω_p , > 15 % ω_s and 10 – 25 % I_p
- **Swelling Pressure** < 5 kPa when compacted at OMC of Standard Proctor Mould
- **Clay Mineral:** Kaolinite or Illite
- **Shear Strength:** 10 – 30 kPa Cohesion, 8 – 15° Friction Angle

SI No	Swelling Pressure (kPa)	Thickness (m)
1	100-150	0.75 – 0.85
2	200-300	0.90 – 1.00
3	350-500	1.05 – 1.15

Stabilize the existing soil

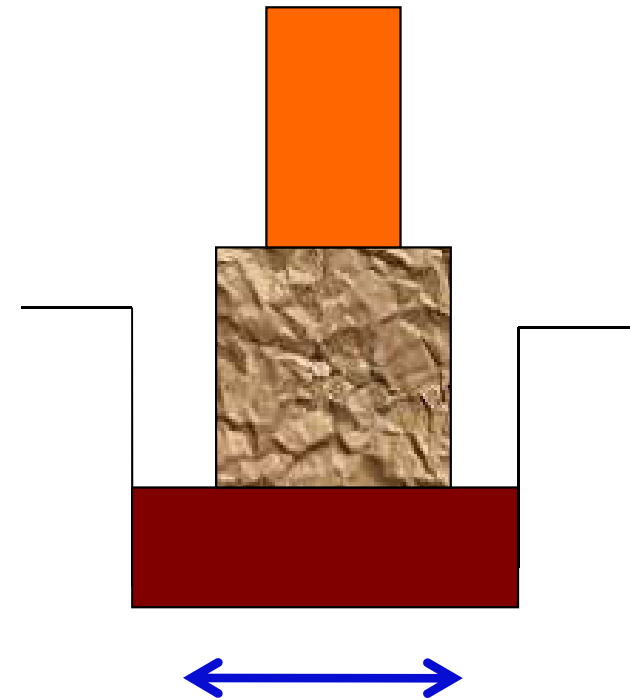
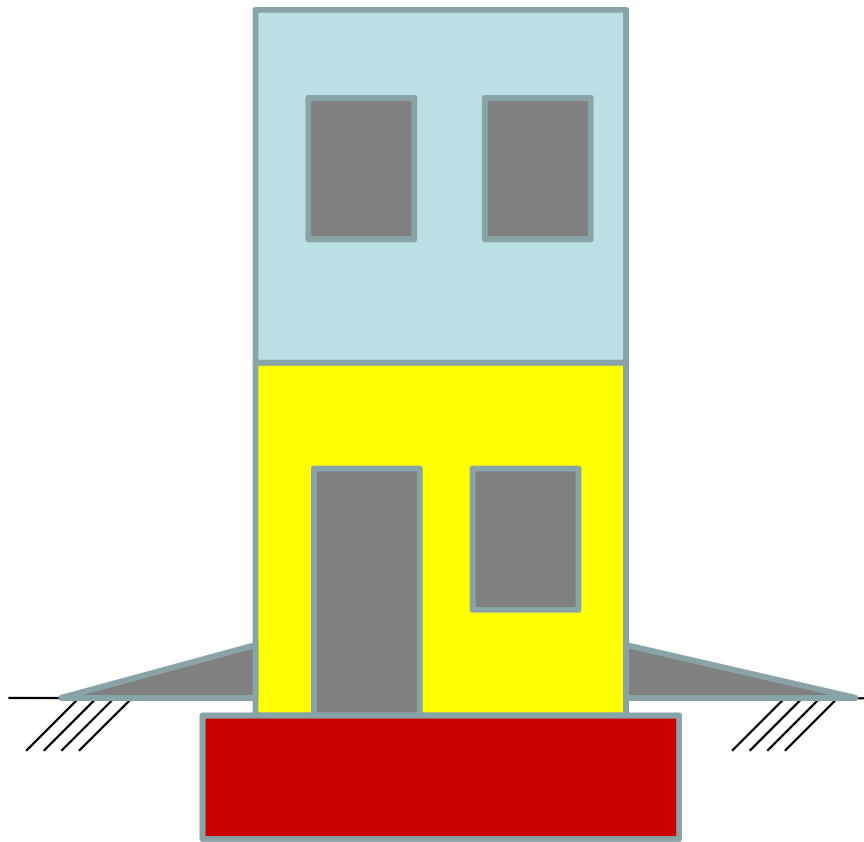


Avoid Vegetation Around

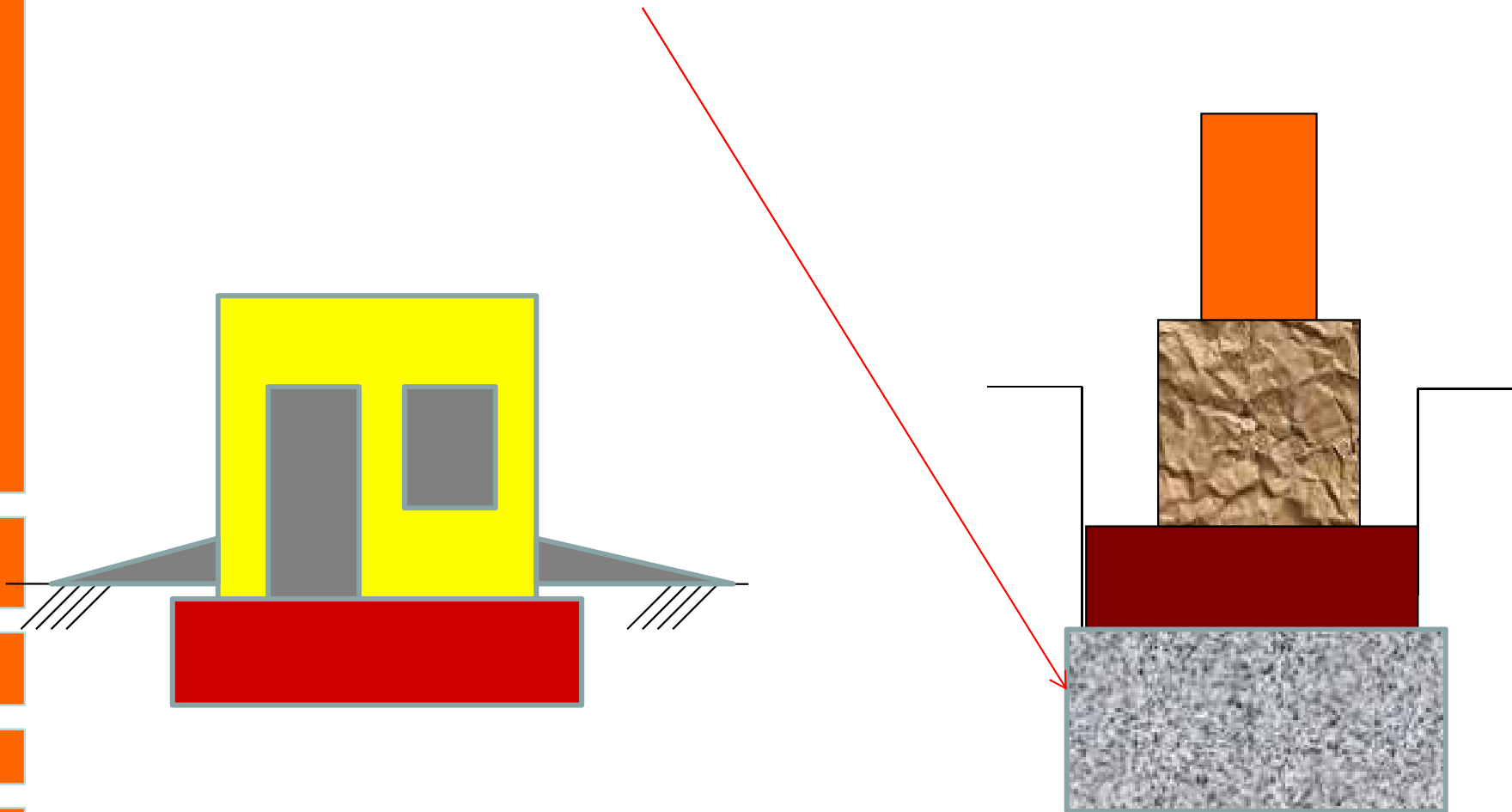


Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

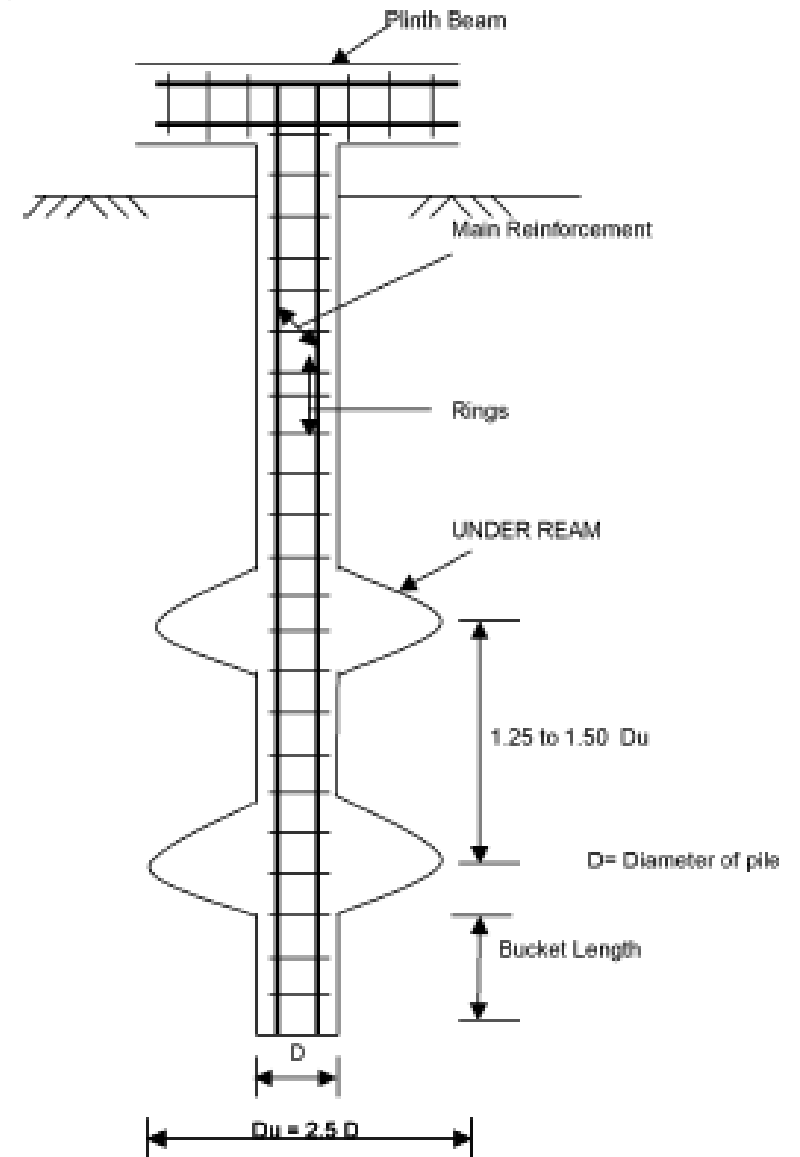
Increase Bearing Pressure



Sand & Boulder Filling



Under Reamed Pile



Under reamed pile with two under reams

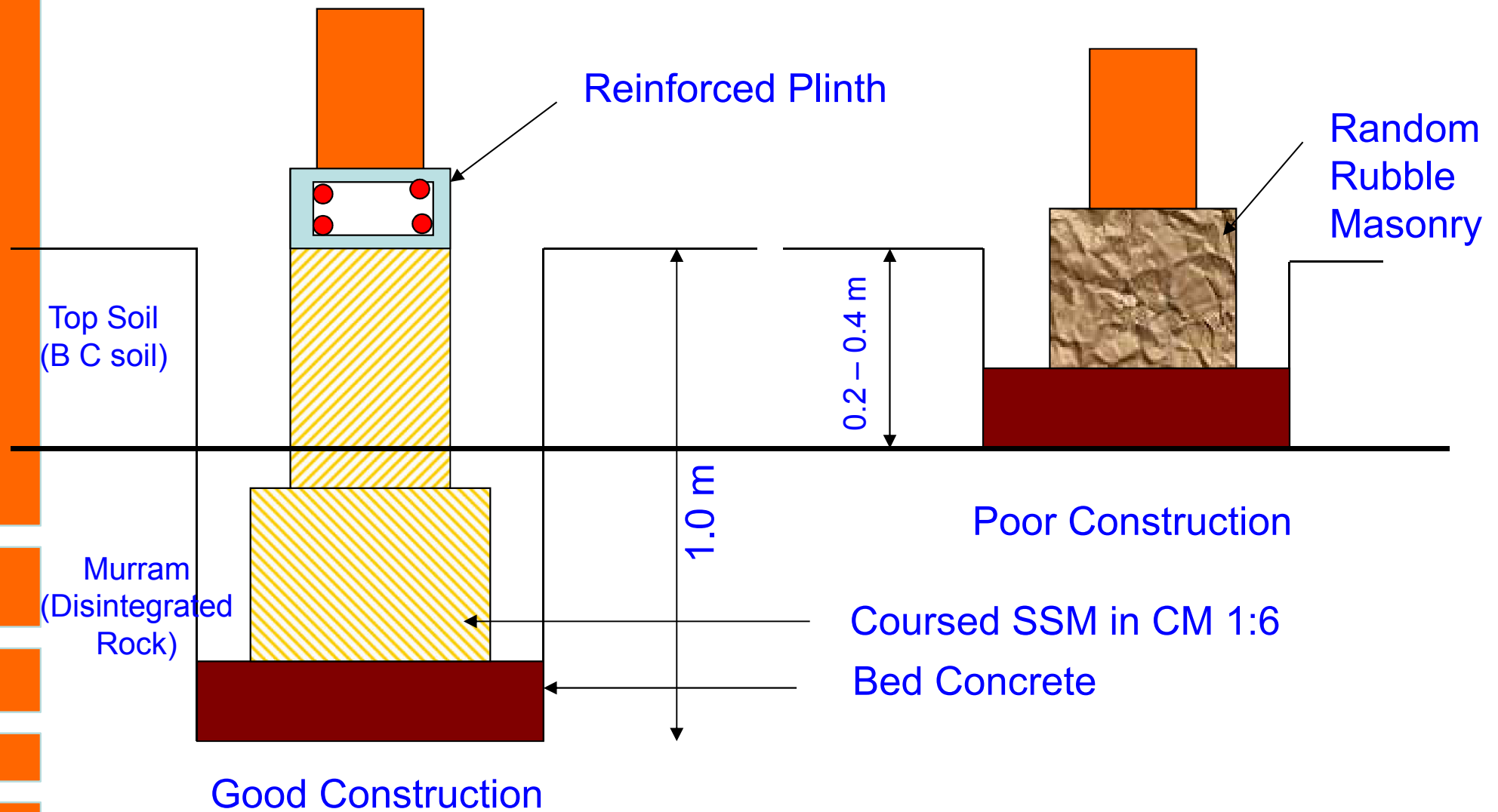
Precautions for light structure on BC Soil



Not Good Soil. Change !!!!

1. Prevention is better than cure
2. Increase depth of foundation
3. Provide all-round apron with sufficient outside slope
4. Provide plinth, sill & lintel bands with RCC bed concrete.
5. Replace with better soil
6. Stabilize the existing soil
7. Provide CNS Layer
8. Provide sand & boulder filling
9. Avoid vegetation around
10. Allow good drainage
11. Increase bearing pressure

Typical Foundation details for Masonry Construction in Kutch Region



Structures with better construction practice & STRONG FOUNDATION survive

Gas tank resting on Piers and surrounding soil liquefied

Structures with better construction practice & STRONG FOUNDATION on stable base survive

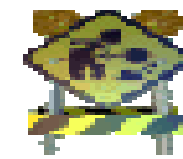




Ground Improvement Techniques



DANGER!



**DID YOU KNOW?
ONE OF EVERY FIVE
WORKPLACE FATALITIES IS
A CONSTRUCTION WORKER**



**DID YOU KNOW?
THE FATALITY RATE FOR
EXCAVATION WORK IS 112%
HIGHER THAN THE RATE FOR
GENERAL CONSTRUCTION.**

Construction safety in deep excavation?



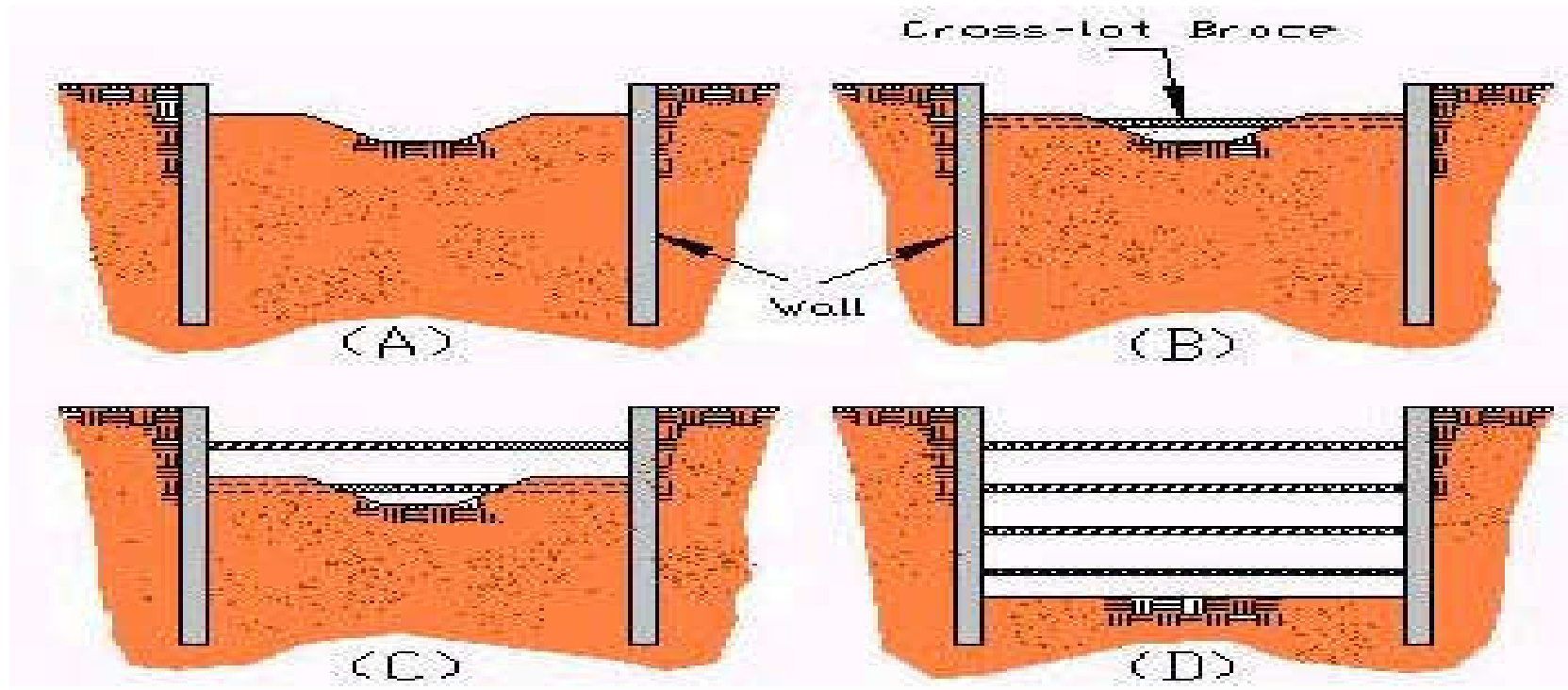
All open excavations made in the earth's surface including trenches.

Deep Excavation

Propping and supporting the exposed walls to resist lateral earth pressures



Deep Excavation – Proper Care



Retaining System	Support System
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Soldier Piles & Lagging Walls Sheet Pile Walls Secant Pile Walls Soil Mix Walls Diaphragm Walls 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tie back / Rock Anchors Cross Lot & Internal Bracing Top Down Construction Soil Nailing

Ground Improvement



Sheepsfoot Roller to Compact Clay Soils

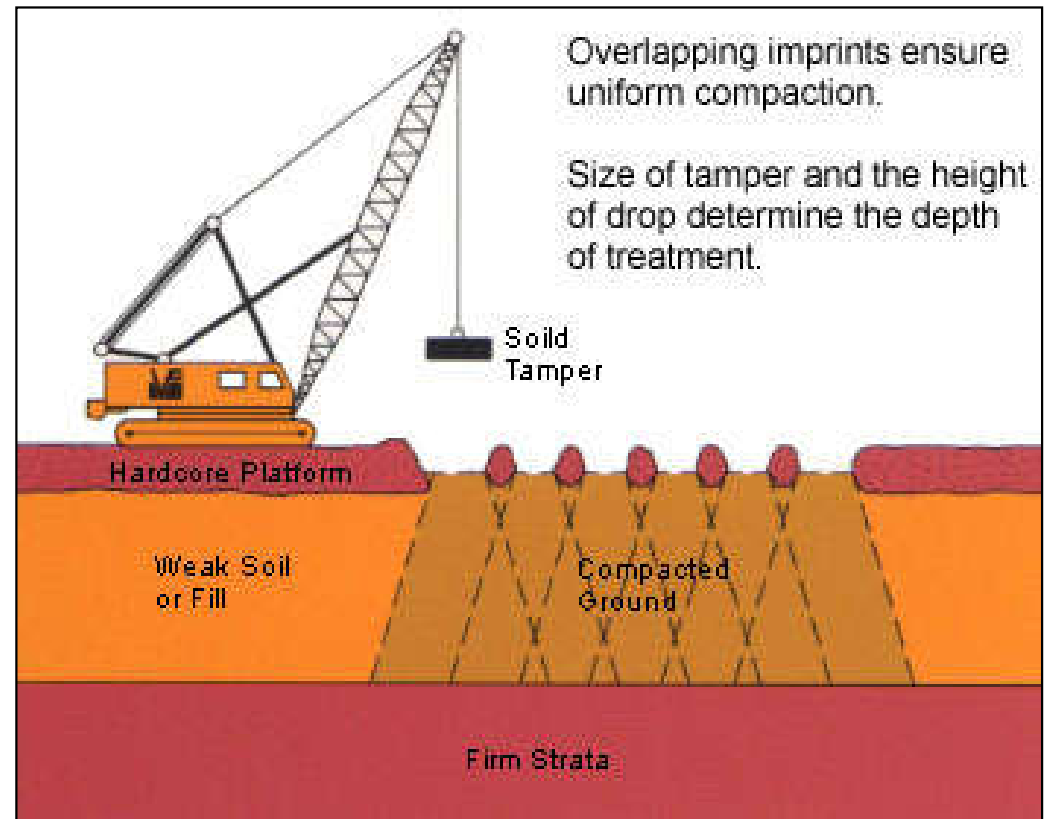


Smooth-wheeled Roller

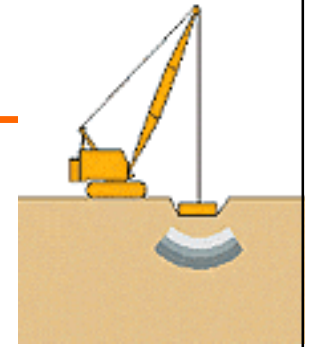


Impact Roller to Compact the Ground

Dynamic Compaction



Dynamic Compaction



- pounding the ground by a heavy weight

Suitable for granular soils, land fills and karst terrain with sink holes.

solution cavities
in limestone



Pounder (Tamper)

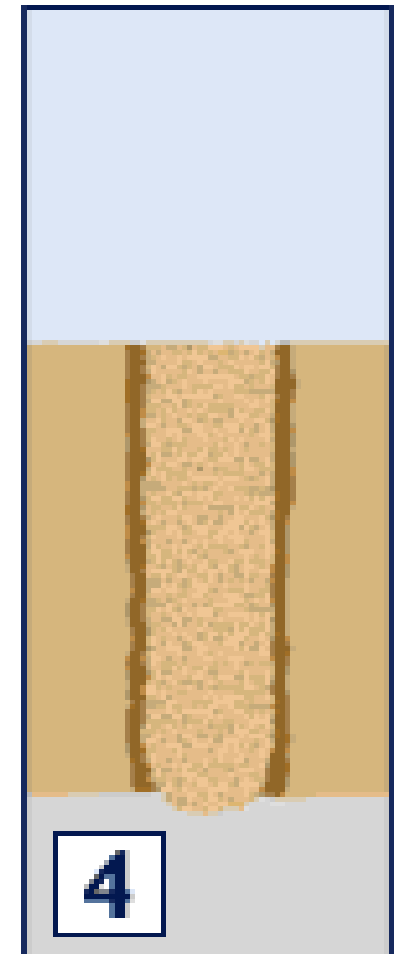
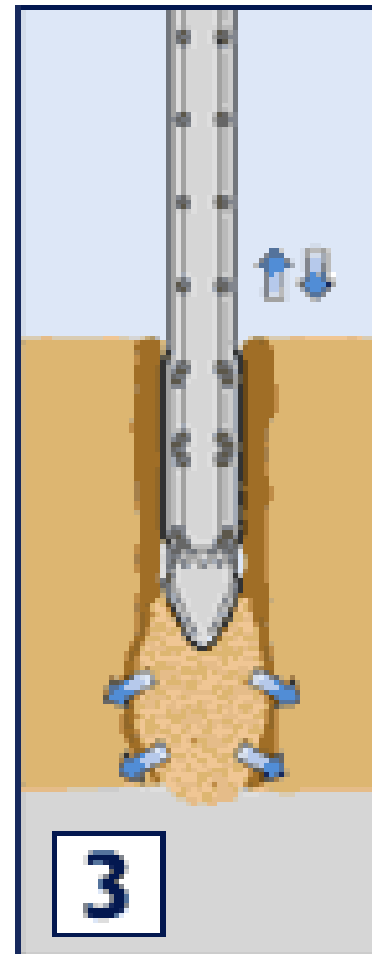
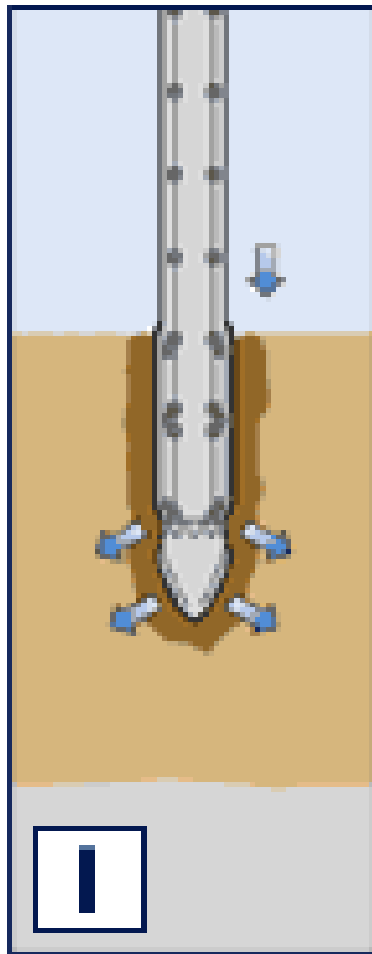
Crater created by the impact



Vibroflotation

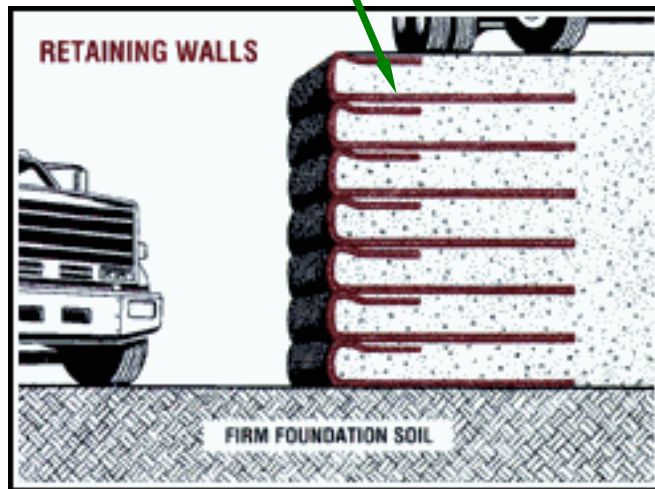


Vibrofloatation

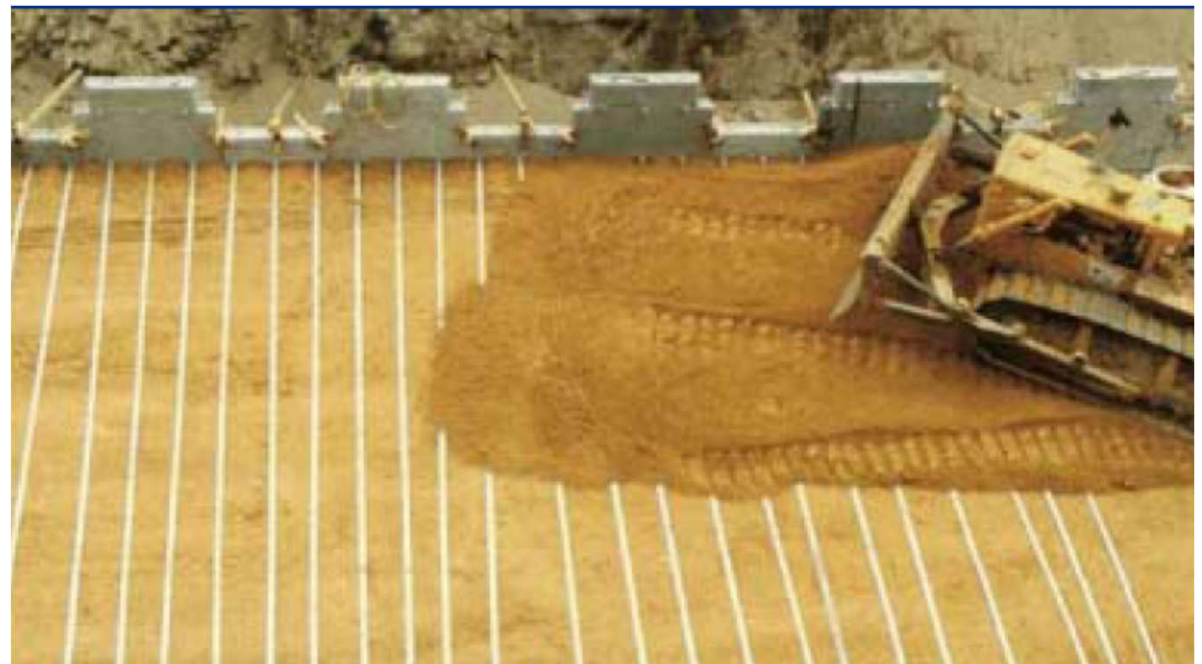


Reinforced Earth Walls

Using geofabrics to strengthen the soil

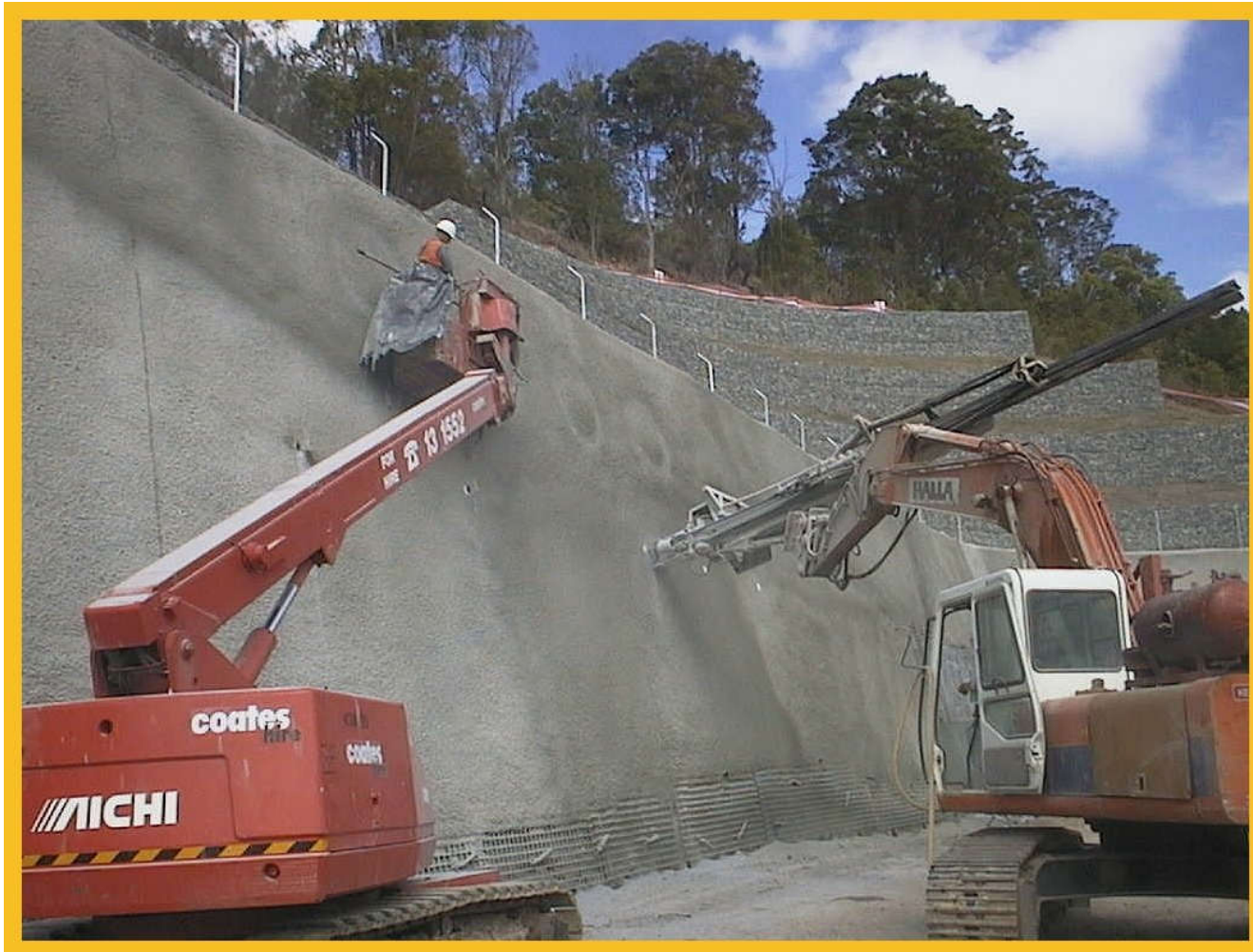


MSE/Reinforced earth Wall



Soil Nailing

Steel rods placed into holes drilled into the walls and grouted



Geofabrics

Used for reinforcement, separation, filter, drain and container in roads, retaining walls, embankments, earth dams, landfills...

- Sheets
- Strips
- Rods
- Net
- Foam
- Grid
- Pipes
- Composites



Reinforced Earth & Geosynthetics

- More recent technique of ground modification.
- Earth + Geotextile Composite.
- One solution for several problems.
- Used for strengthening, improving drainage, stabilizing slope, providing impermeable barrier, as a separator etc.
- Most effective and considered real innovation of 20th C in Civil Engineering.

Geofabrics

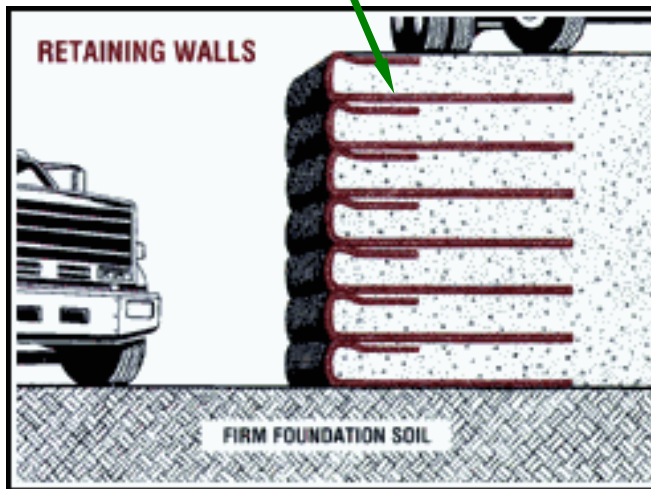
Used for reinforcement, separation, filtration and drainage in roads, retaining walls, embankments...



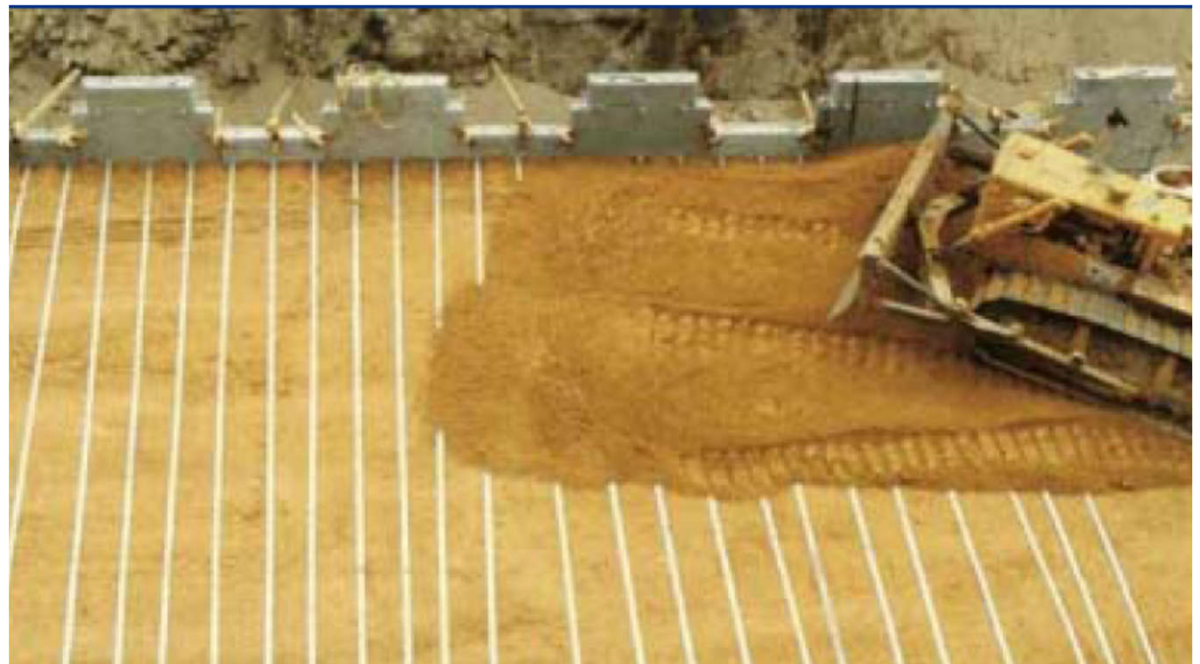
Geofabrics used on Pacific Highway

Reinforced Earth Walls

Using geofabrics to strengthen the soil

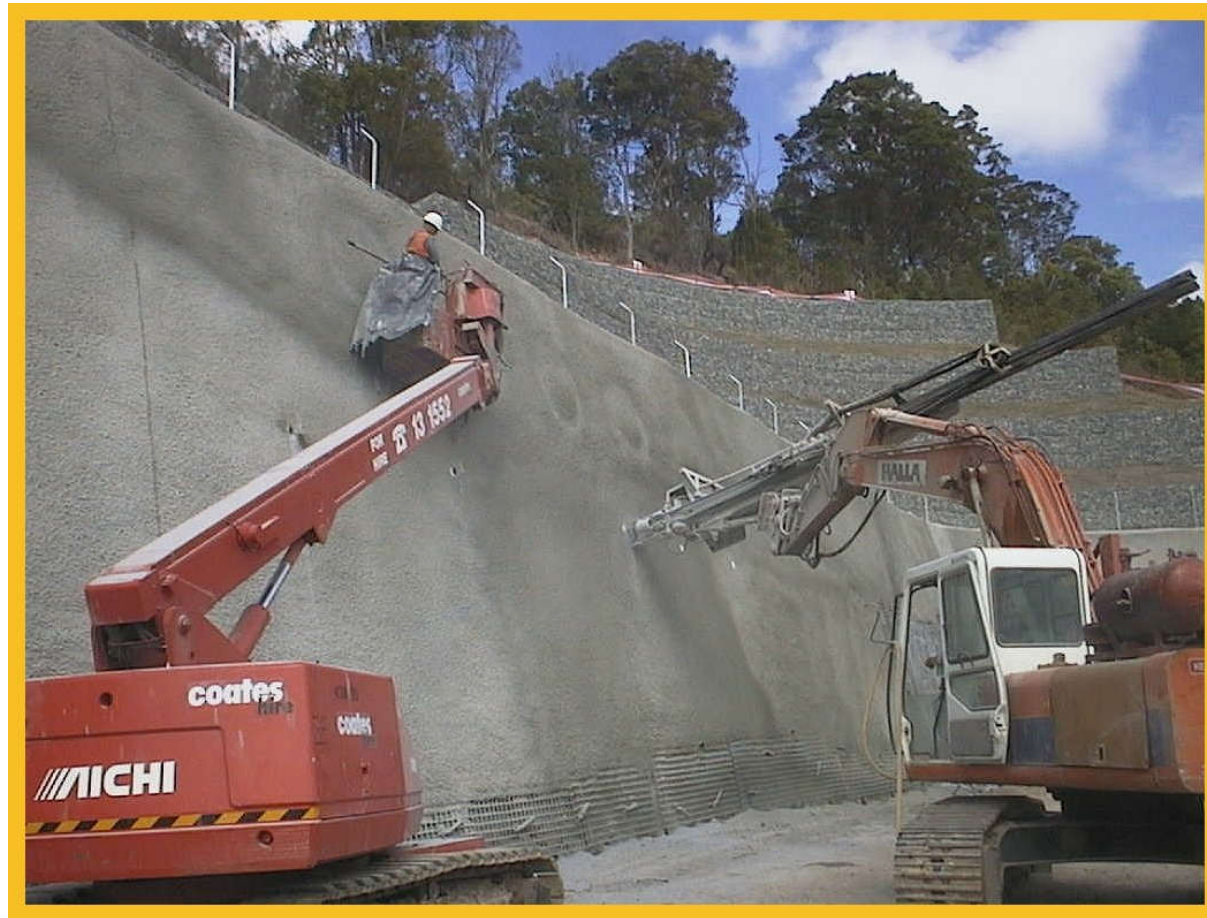


MSE/Reinforced earth Wall



Soil Nailing

Steel rods placed into holes drilled into the walls and grouted



Soil Nailing



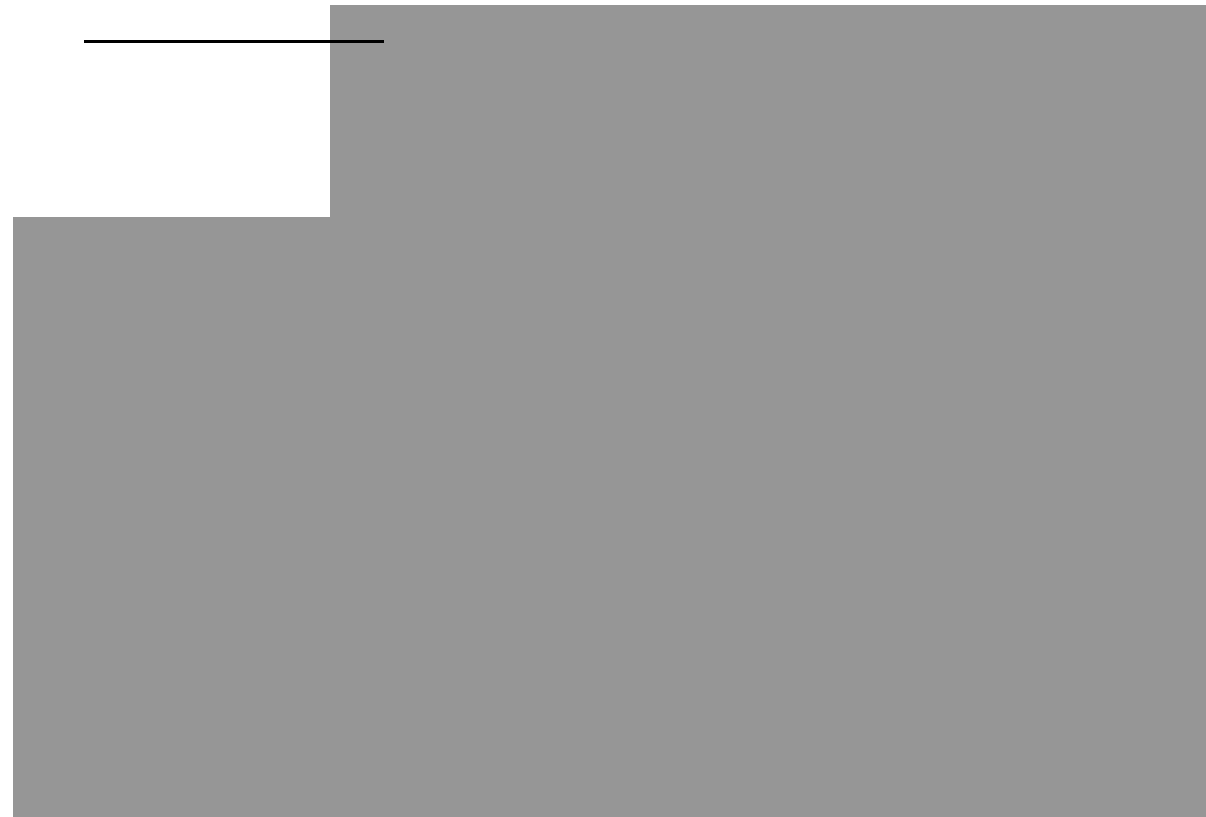
Soil Nailing



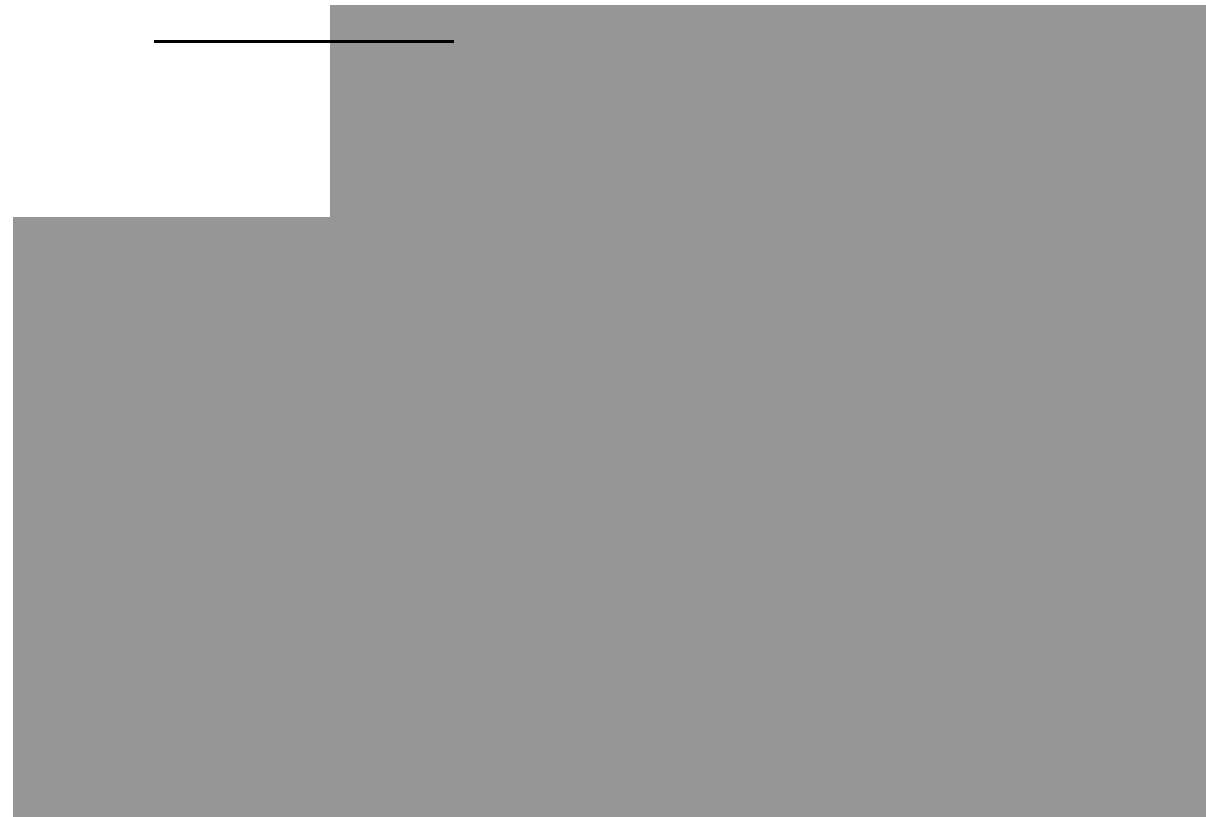
Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing



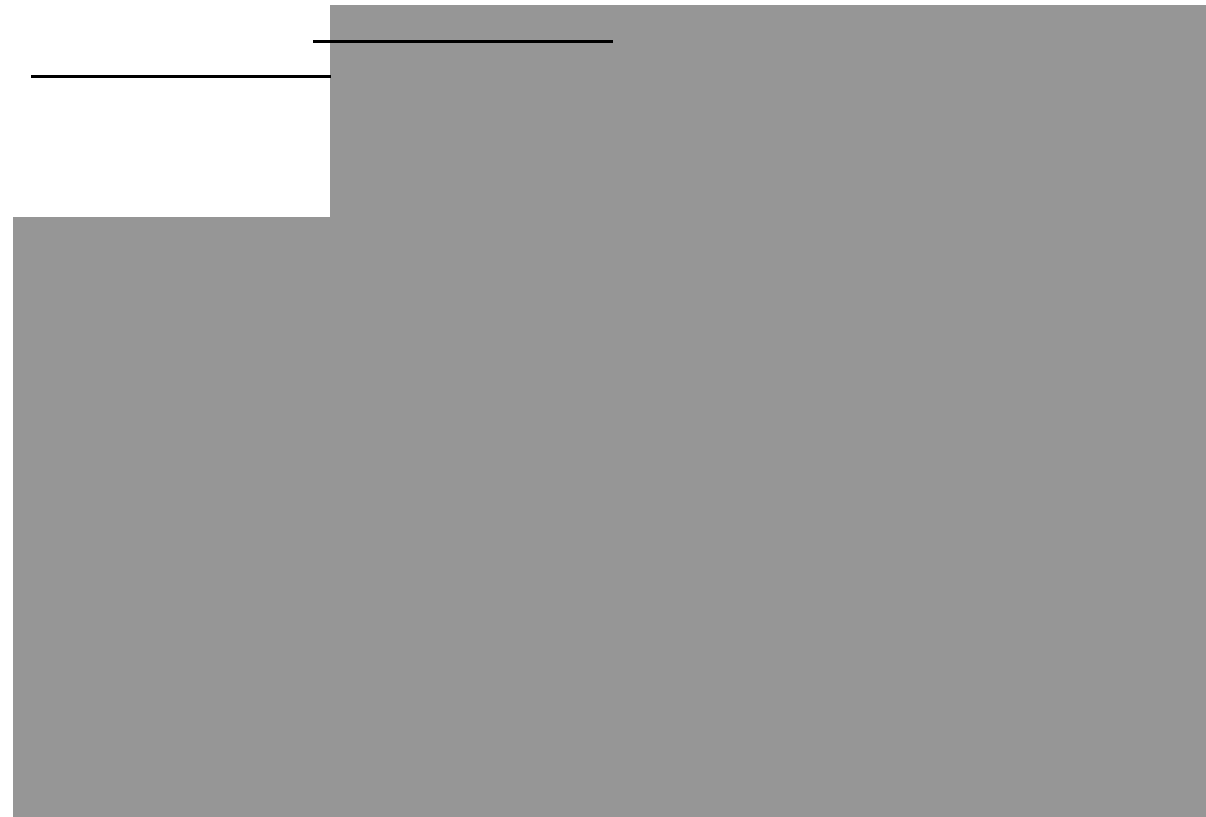
Soil Nailing



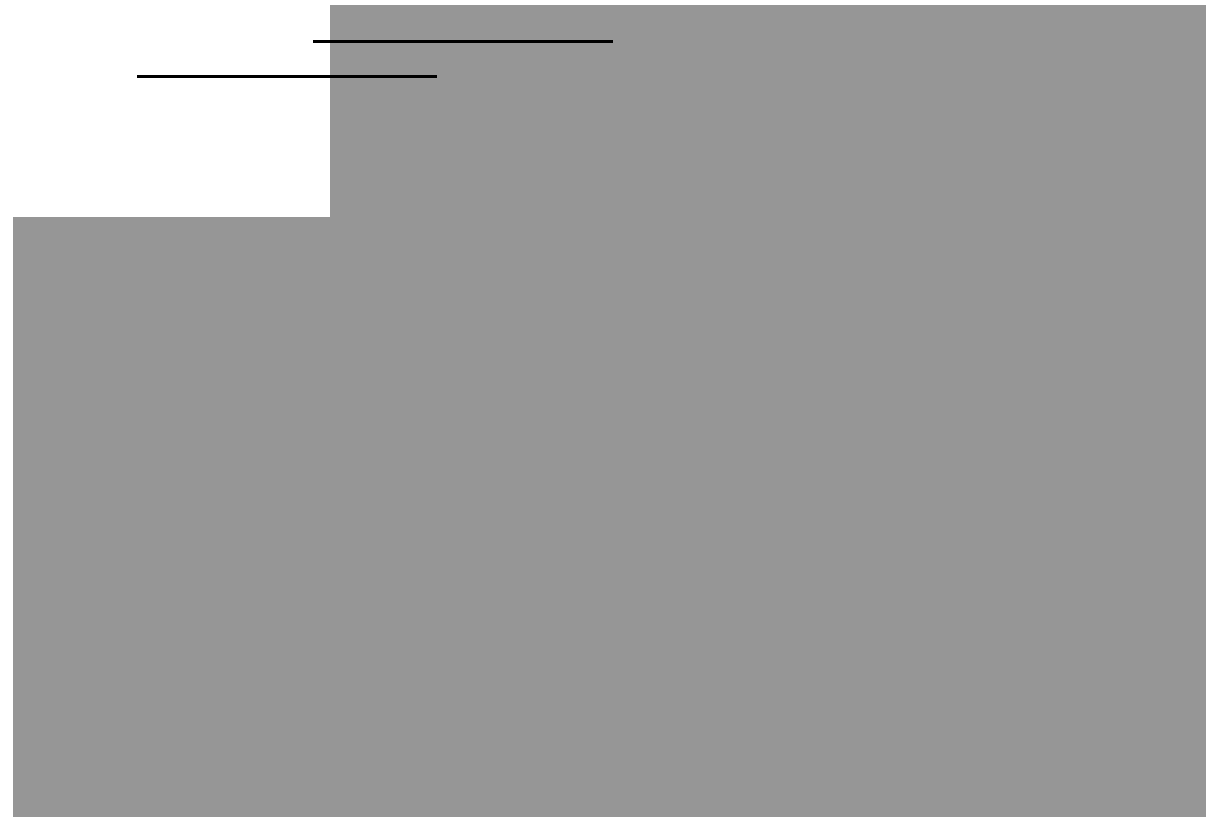
Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing



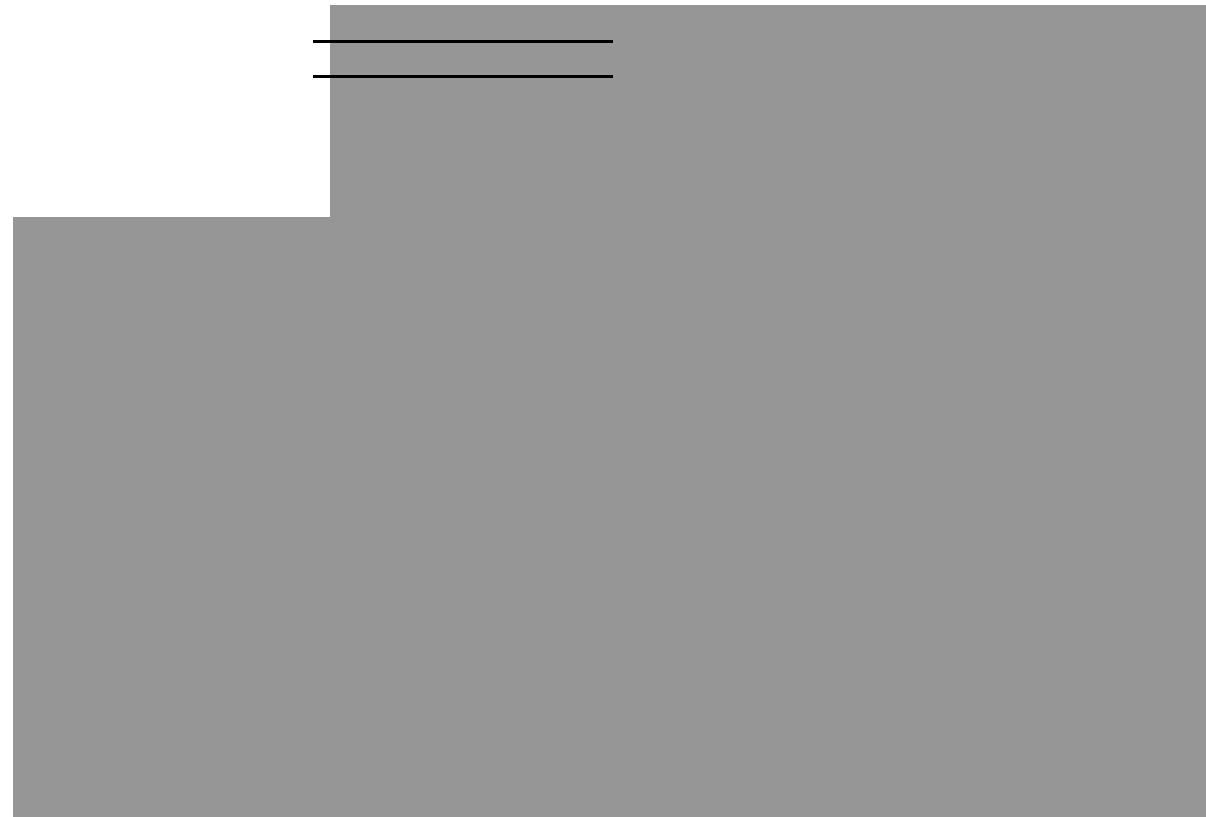
Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing



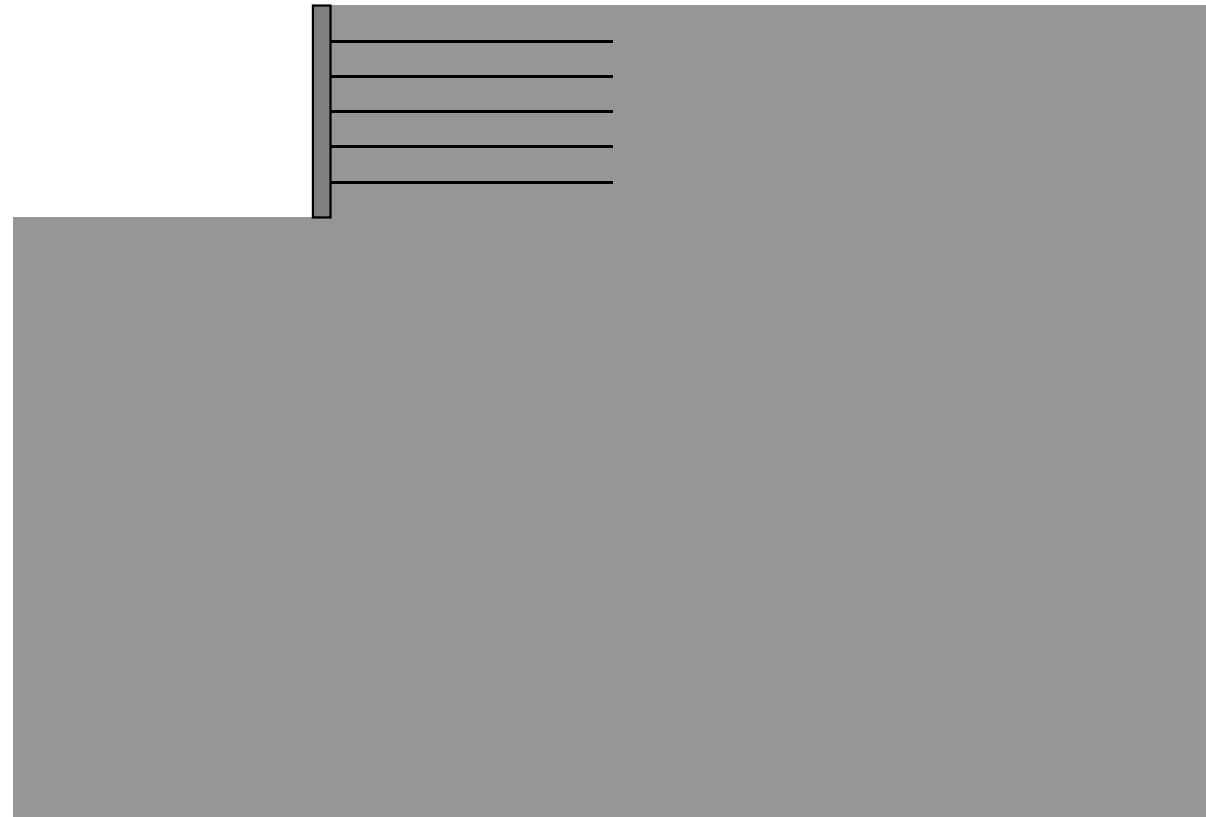
Soil Nailing



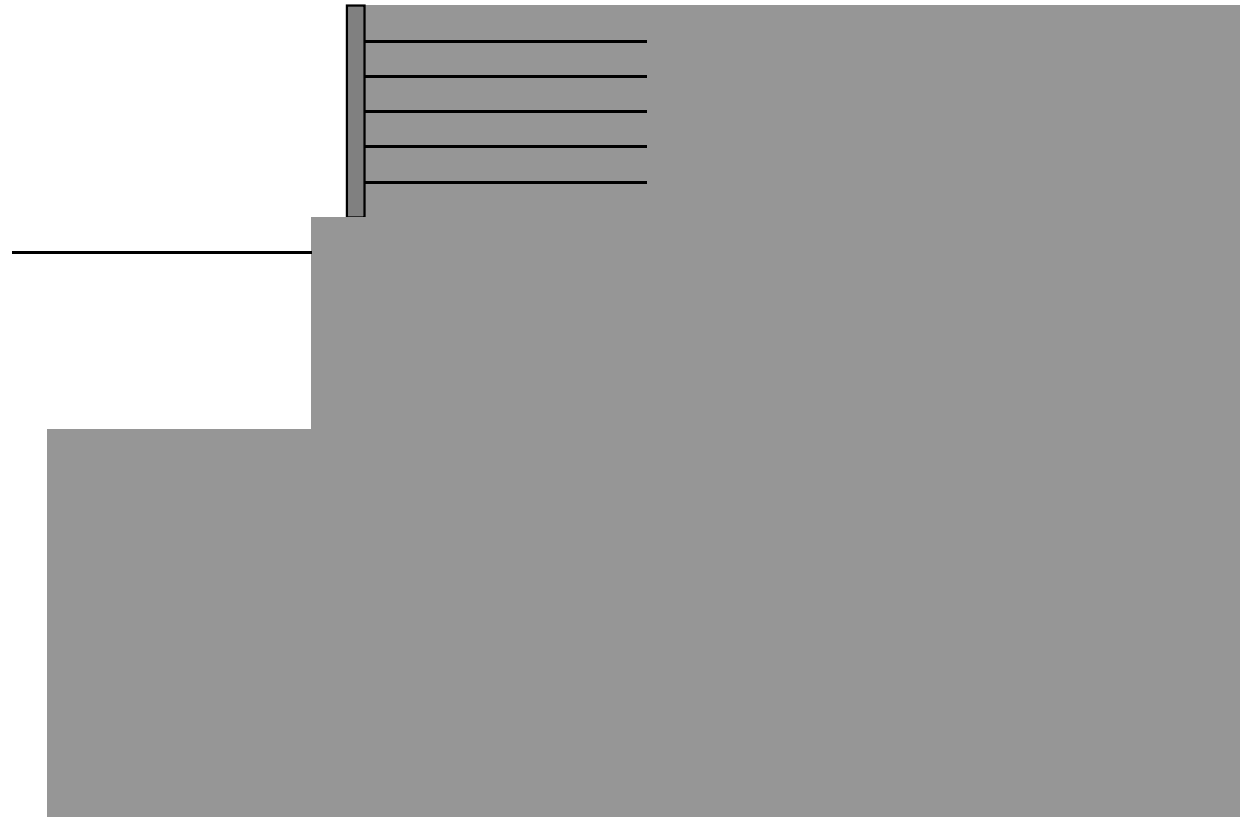
Soil Nailing



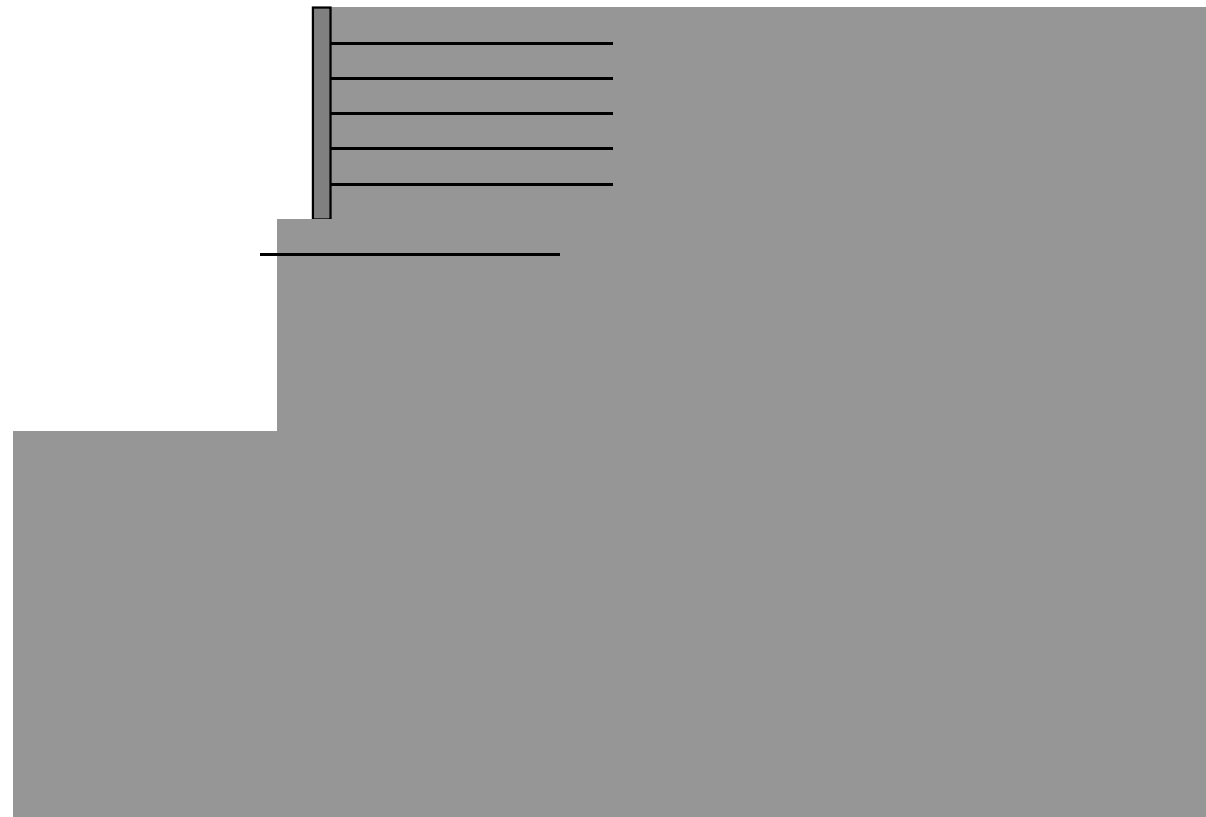
Soil Nailing



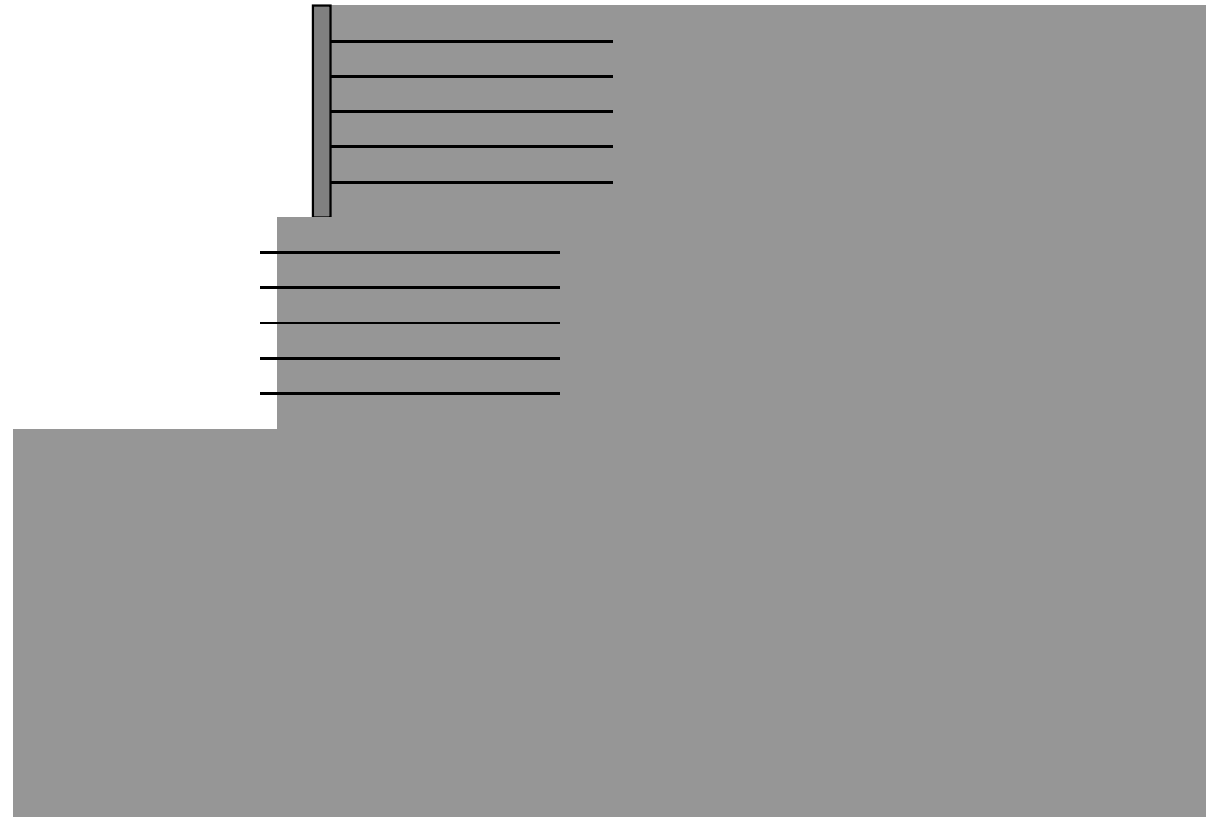
Soil Nailing



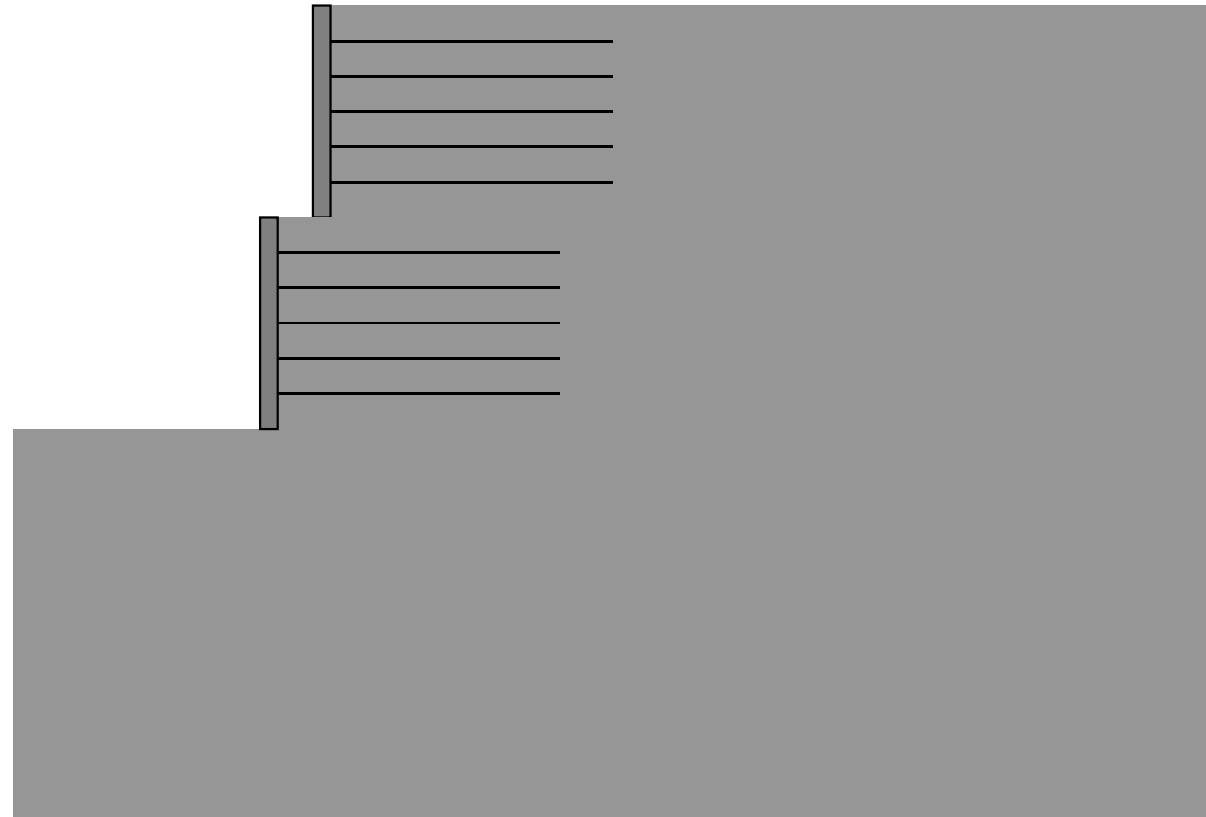
Soil Nailing



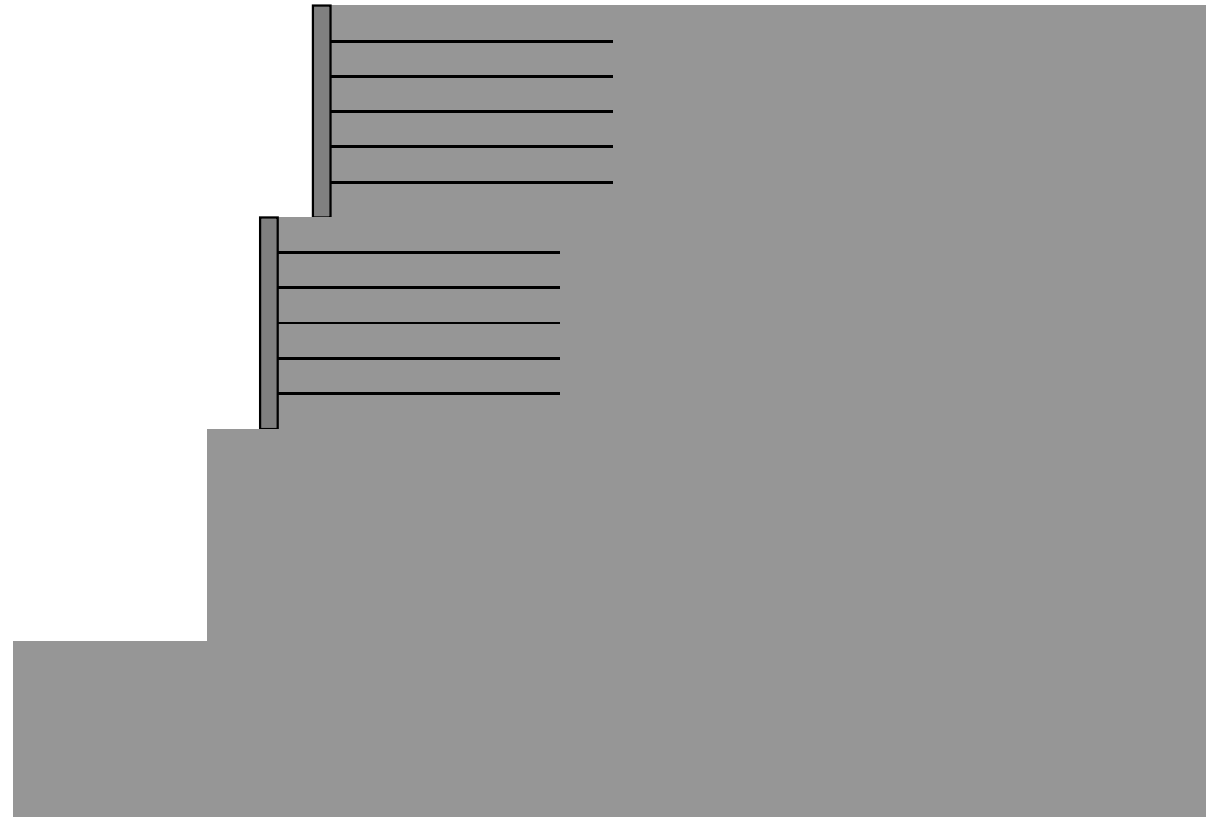
Soil Nailing



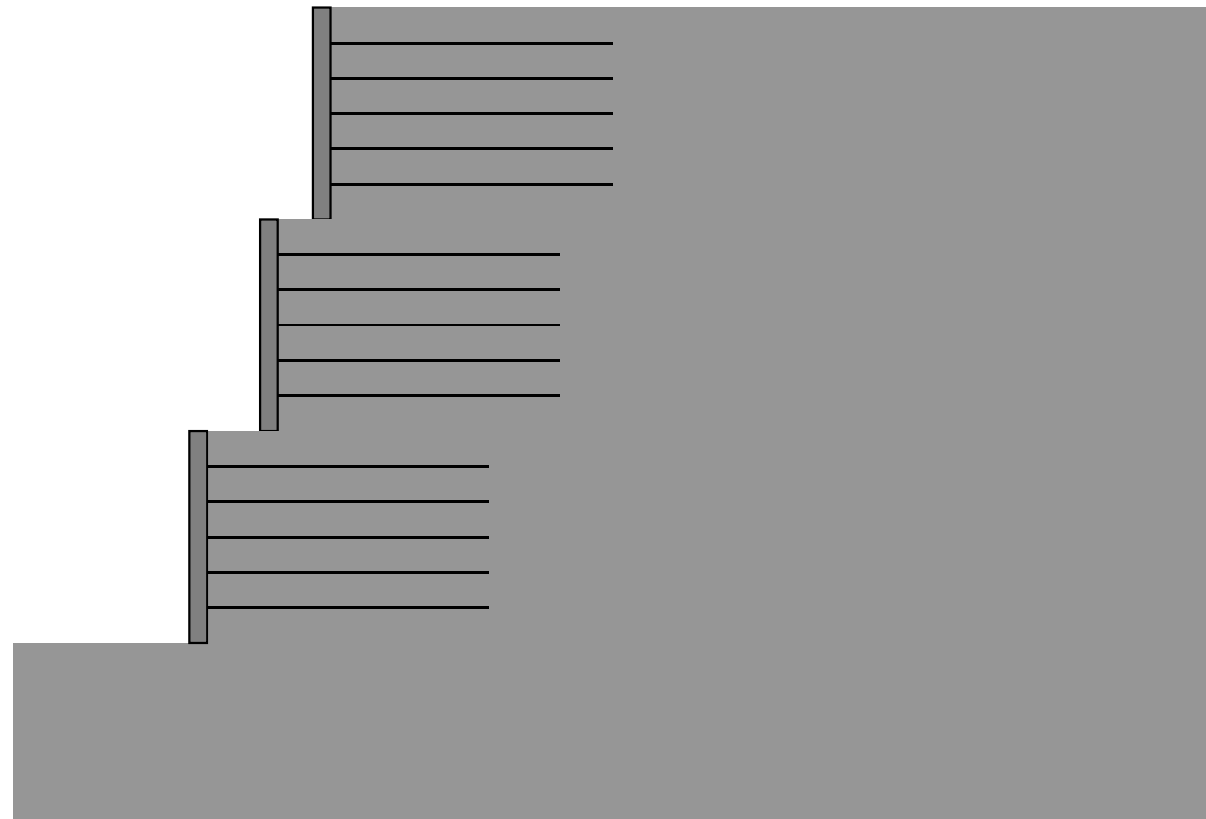
Soil Nailing



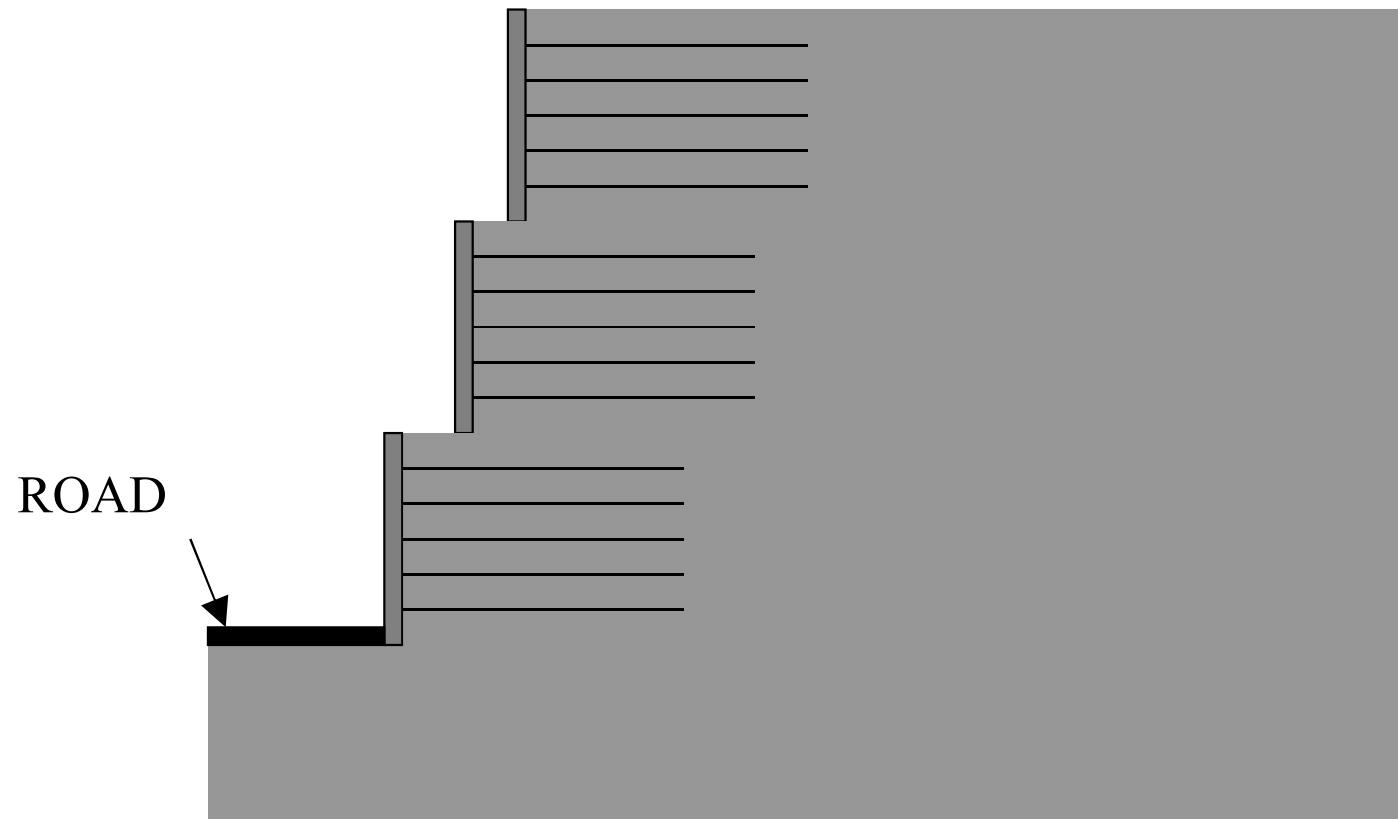
Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing



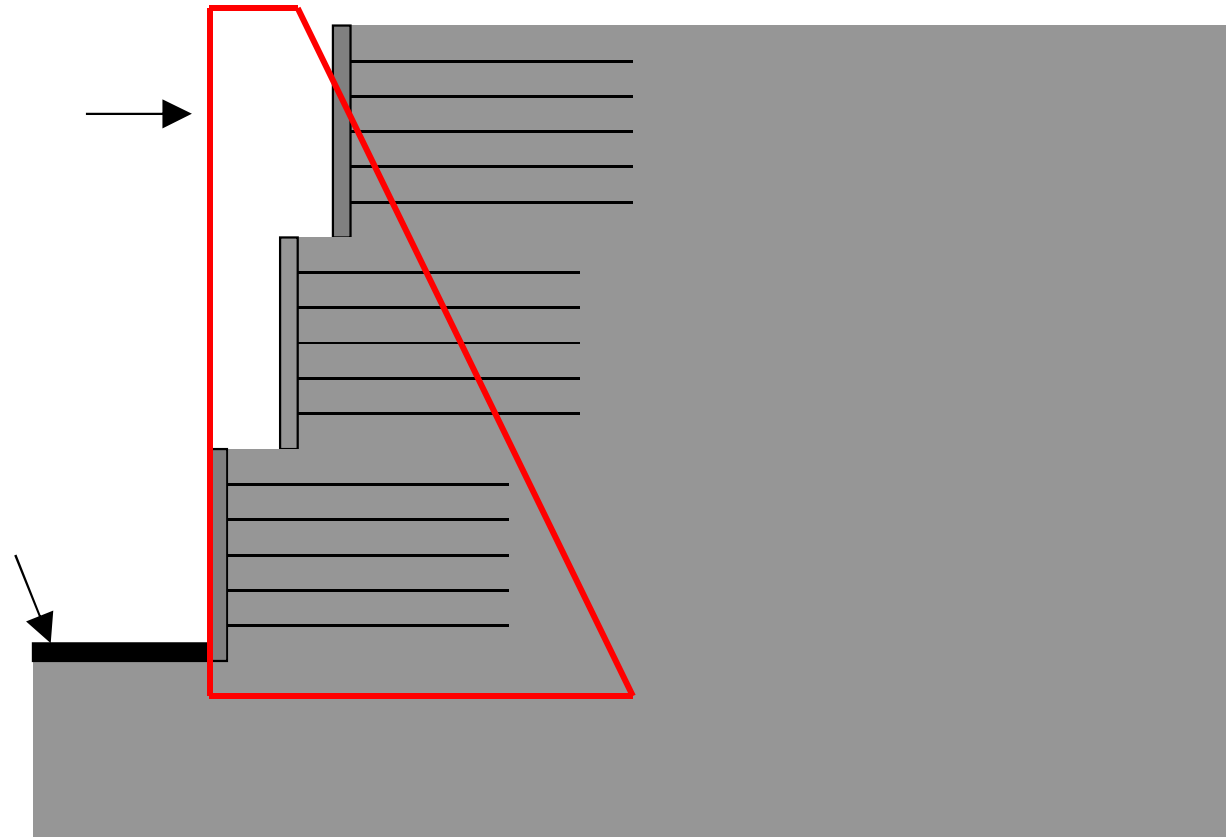
Soil Nailing



Soil Nailing

Conventional
Retaining Wall

ROAD



Soil Nailing



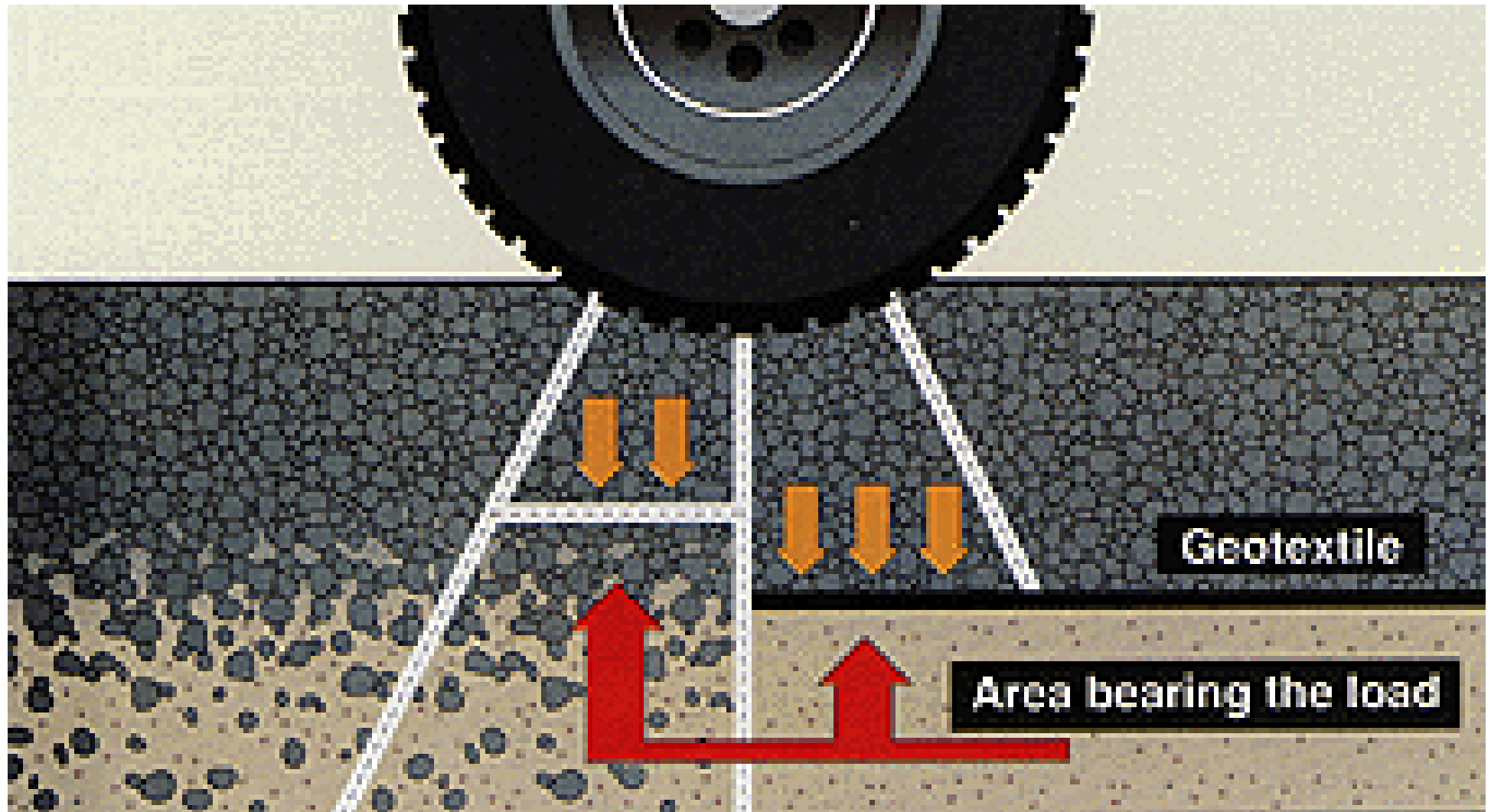
Soil Nailing



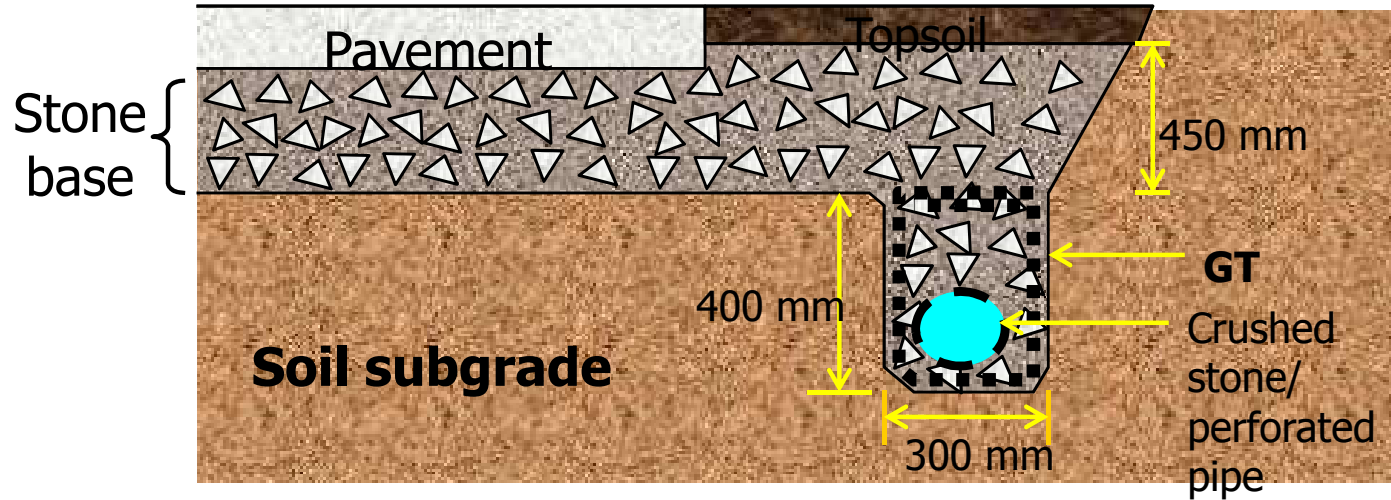
Soil Nailing



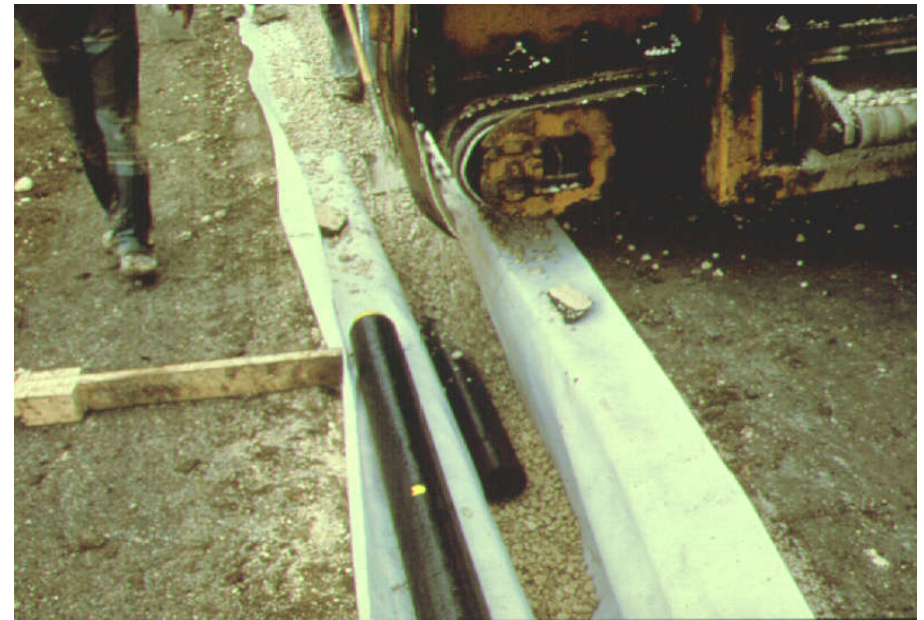
Geotextile in Pavements



Typical Applications of Geotextiles

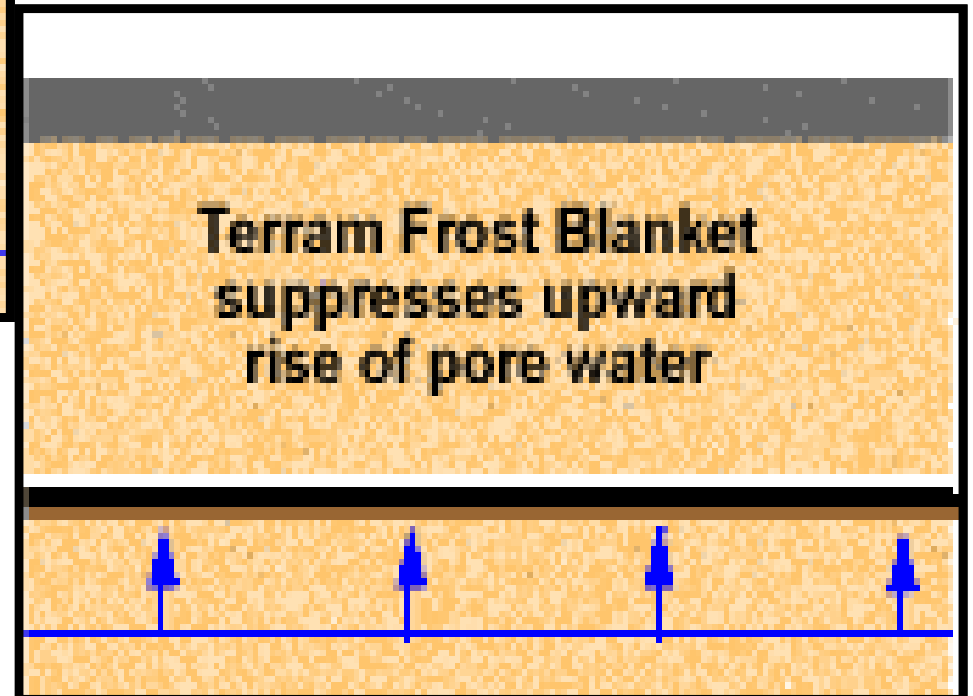
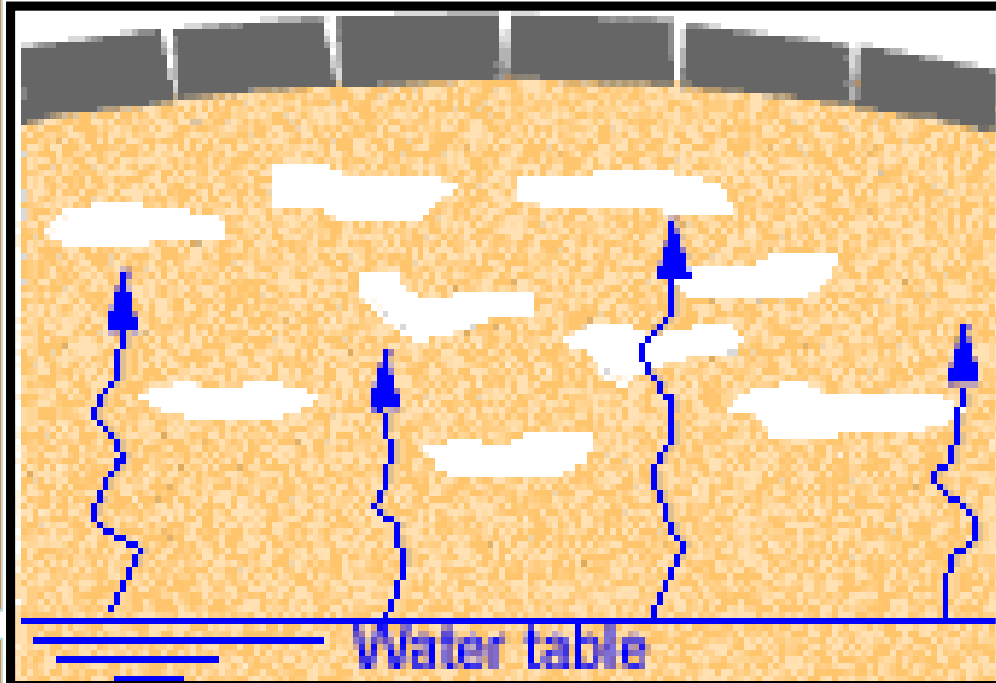


(GT Filter in Excavated Trench)



(Crushed Stone & Perforated Pipe)

Typical Applications of Geotextiles



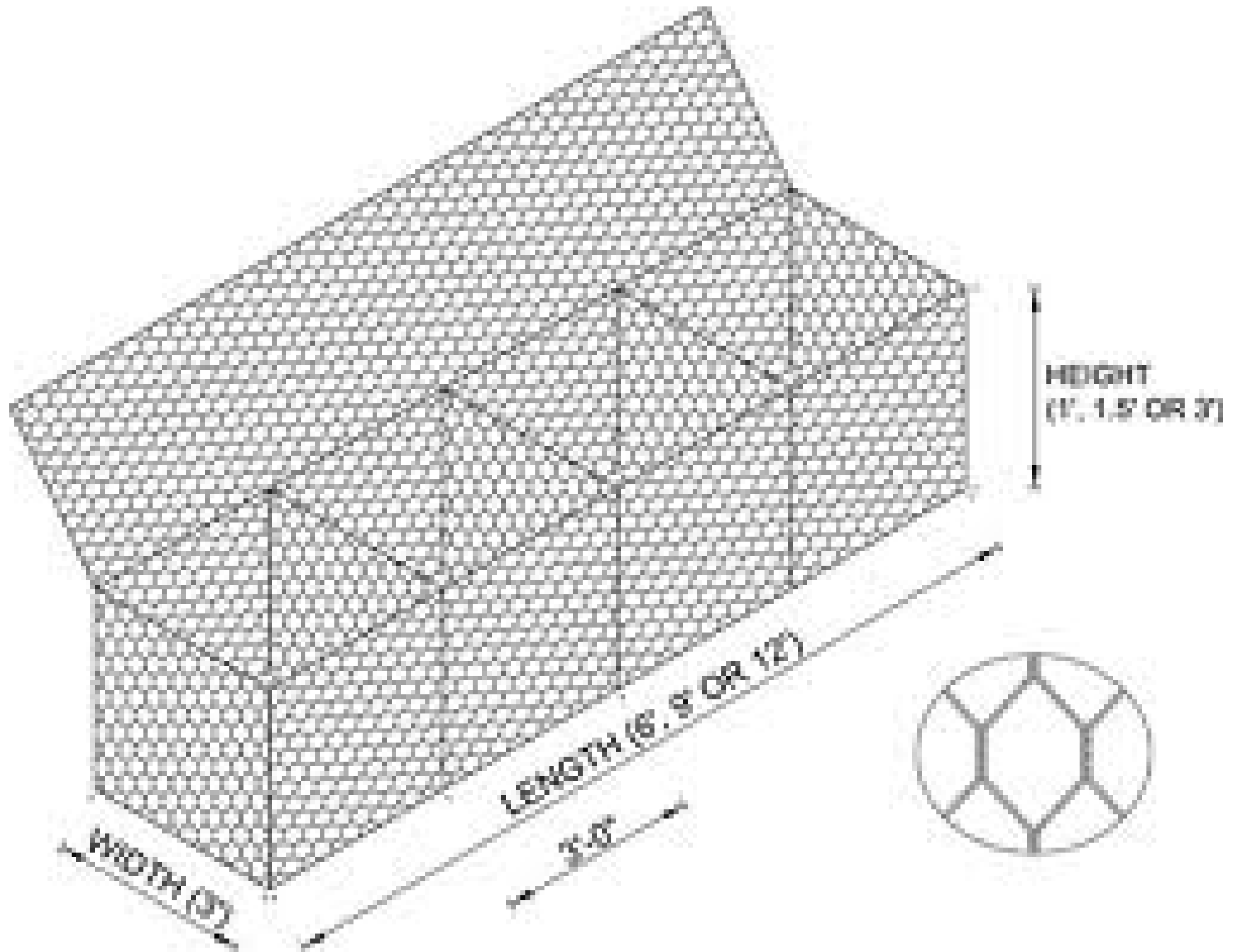
Gabion Construction



Gabion Construction



Gabion Construction



Gabion Construction



Gabion Retaining Wall

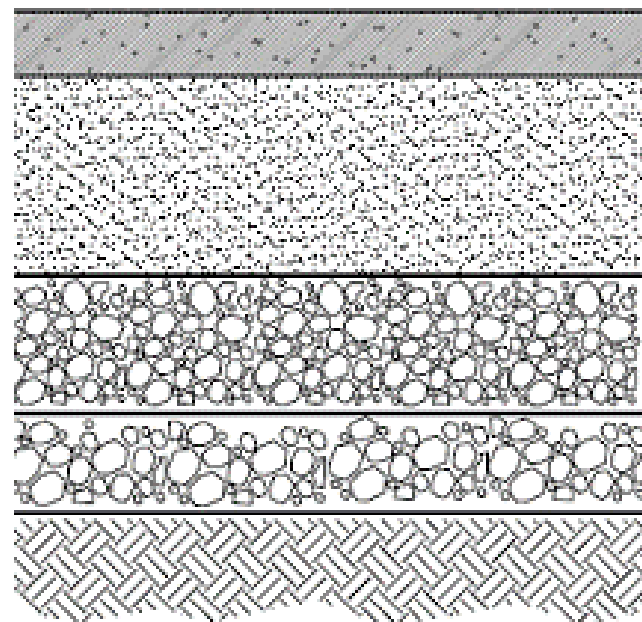
Gabion Construction



Gabion Construction



ROADS



Hot-Mix Asphalt Surface

Base Course (may be stabilized)

Subbase (optional)

Frost Protection (as appropriate)

Subgrade

BRIDGES



Le Viaduc de Millau, Tarn Valley, France

World Structures

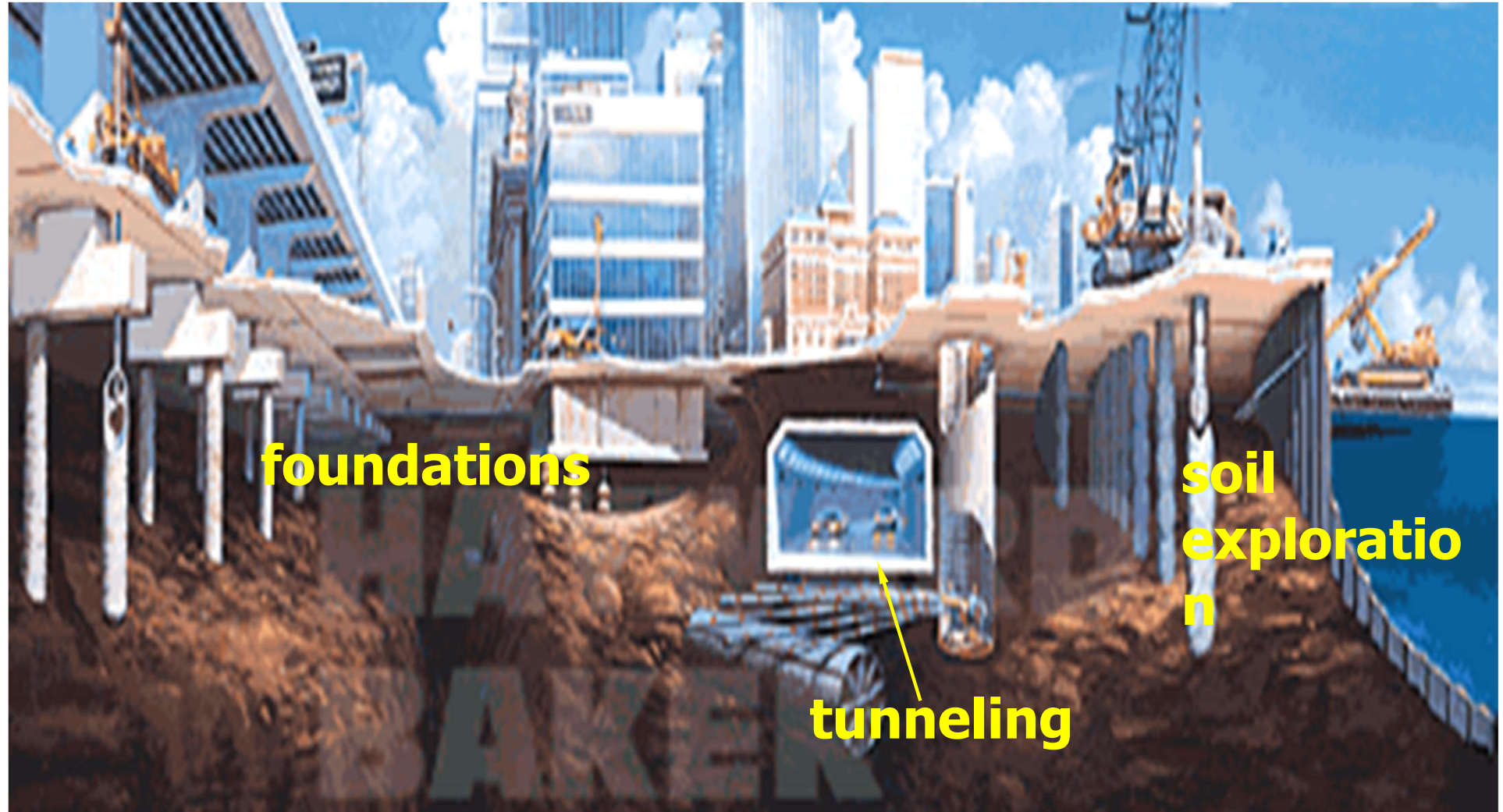




Tom Collins, U.S. Forest Service, Region 8



Geotechnic for Infrastructure



... buried right under your feet.

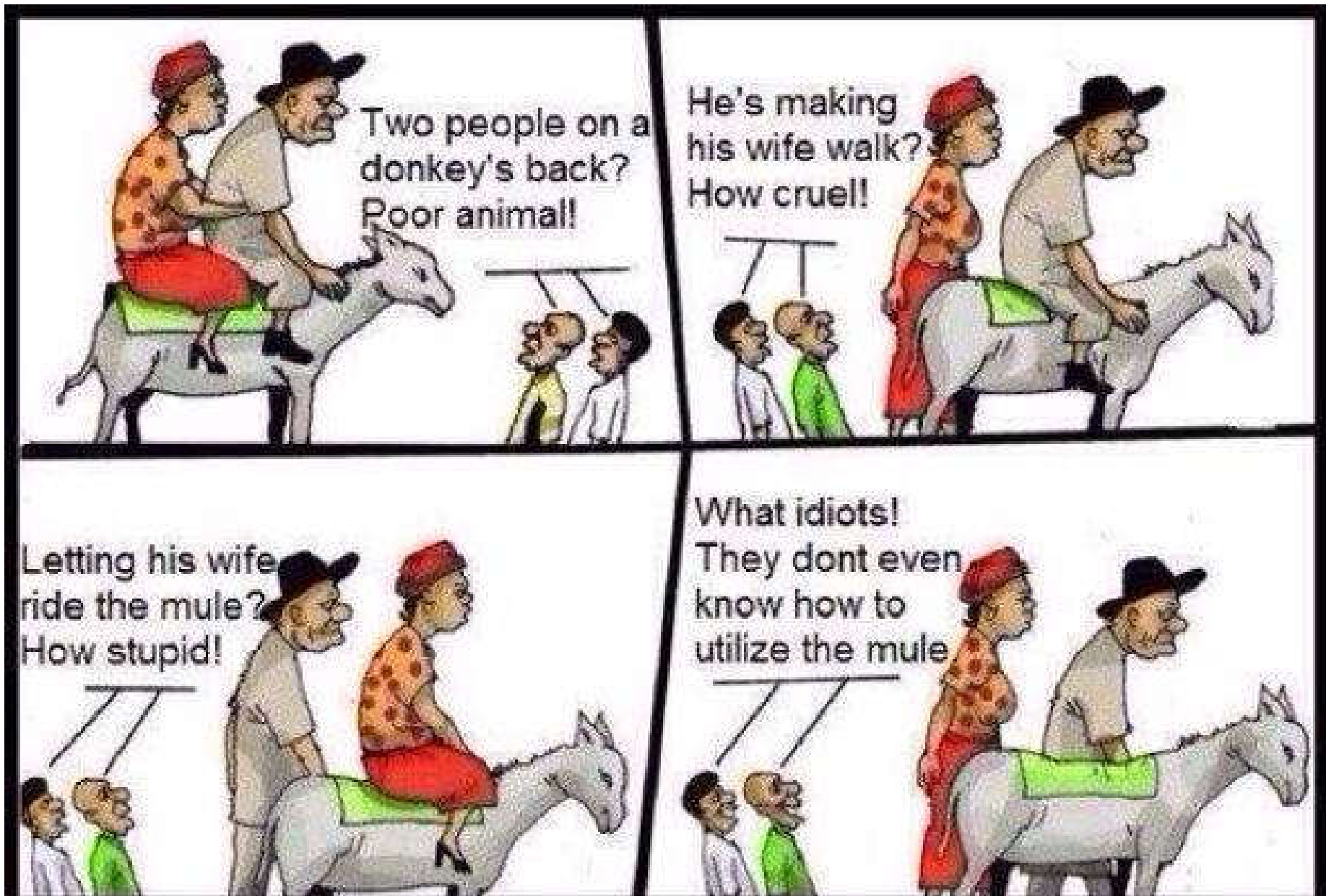
Concluding Remarks

- Foundations are the most important components of structures, hence, should be handled with care
- Strong foundation on stable base is essential.
- Foundation and the supporting soil should neither fail nor suffer excessive settlement.
- Other geotechnical structures such as earthen dams, roads, canals, embankments, slopes, retaining walls require importance.

Concluding Remarks

- Embankments and earth dams are most complete geotechnical structures involving problems of bearing capacity, settlement, slope stability, seepage etc.
- Strong foundation on stable base is essential. At the same time, suitable soil from borrow area should be used with proper compaction for fill material.
- Reasonable factor of safety of 1.5 is desirable against overturning, sliding and other factors.

You do anything, people do not recognize, they even criticize.
Do those things which bring you pride



THIS IS OUR SOCIETY

Old crow.



Modern crow.



Keep upgrading your skills.

Thank You