Soil is the most misunderstood term in the field. The problem arises in the reasons for which different groups or professions study soils.

Soil scientists are interested in soils as a medium for plant growth. So soil scientists focus on the organic rich part of the soils horizon and refer to the sediments below the weathered zone as parent material. Classification is based on physical, chemical, and biological properties that can be observed and measured.

Soils engineers think of a soil as any material that can be excavated with a shovel (no heavy equipment). Classification is based on the particle size, distribution, and the plasticity of the material. These classification criteria more relate to the behavior of soils under the application of load - the area where we will concentrate.

Engineering Properties of Soil

The engineering approach to the study of soil focuses on the characteristics of soils as construction materials and the suitability of soils to withstand the load applied by structures of various types.

Weight-Volume Relationship

Earth materials are three-phase systems. In most applications, the phases include solid particles, water, and air. Water and air occupy voids between the solid particles. For soils in particular, the physical relationship between these phases must be examined. A mass of soil can be conveniently represented as a block diagram, with each phase shown as a separate block.

When dealing with a soil sample from the field that contains both water and soil particles, the unit weight can be expressed both with and without the water contained in the soil. The **unit wet weight** is given by:

γ_{wet} = W_T/ V_T

(total weight over total volume in kg/m^3 , g/cm³ or lbs/ft³)

and is determined by weighing a known volume of soil without allowing any drainage or evaporation of water from the voids.

Alternatively, the **unit dry weight** is expressed as:

γ**dry = Ws / VT** (weight of solids over total volume)

Unit dry weight is determined by oven drying a known volume of soil. The resulting weight will be the weight of solids (W_s). Both unit wet and dry weights are expressed in pcf or g/cm3.

problem $S = V_w / V_v \times 100\%$

Index Properties and Classification

Particles size and distribution, type of particle, density and water content relate to the shear strength, compressibility, and other aspects of soil behavior. These index properties are used to form engineering classifications of soil and can be measured by simple lab or field tests called classification tests.

Soil Mechanics **Index Properties and Classification** These terms can be easily confused with the term sorting, the geological designation for grain-size distribution. Geologists would refer to a *poorly graded* soil with a narrow range of sizes as *well sorted*. The opposite, a *well graded* soil, would be considered *poorly sorted* by geologists. **To determine whether a material is sand or gravel** note where the D_{50} value lies on the grain-size distribution curve and extrapolate straight down to the grain-size. If the D_{50} value is less than 5 mm in diameter it is considered to be sand (fine, medium or coarse) and if the D_{50} value is greater than 5 mm than the material is considered to be a gravel.

Index Properties and Classification

The index properties of fine-grained, or cohesive, soils are somewhat more complicated than the index properties of cohesionless soils because of the influence of **clay minerals**. The type and amount of clay minerals are, therefore, very significant.

Clay size versus Clay mineral

The concept of clay size versus clay mineral has plagued soils workers for many years. **Clay minerals** are fine-sized platy silicates that have the property of plasticity, that is, they can be rolled into a thin thread which adheres together at low moisture levels.

Clay size, by contrast, is a small particle size designation that does not always ensure that its constituents will be plastic. In actual fact, some fine-sized quartz and feldspar grains can occur in the range of 0.005 mm and it is these nonplastic materials that complicate the problem. However, very few feldspar and quartz grains occur at 0.002 mm and below, so by placing the clay boundary at this lower value, the clay size and clay mineral designations coincide quite well.

Index Properties and Classification

The consistency of a soil can be determined by field tests in which the soil is evaluated in place, or by lab tests on samples that have been carefully handled to avoid remolding. The unconfined compression test is often used as an indication of consistency. In practice, the relative terms soft, medium, stiff, very stiff, and hard are applied to describe consistency.

Index Properties and Classification

The water content is an important influence upon the bulk properties and the behavior of a soil. In the remolded state, the consistency of the soil is defined by the water content.

Four consistency states are separated by the water content at which the soil passes from one state to another. These water content values are known as the Atterberg limits. For example, the **liquid limit** is the water content at which the soil-water mixture changes from a liquid to a plastic state. As the water content decreases, the soil passes into a semisolid state at the **plastic limit**, and a solid state at the **shrinkage limit**. The **shrinkage limit** defines the point at which the volume of the soil becomes nearly constant with further decreases in water content.

The Atterberg limits can be determined with simple laboratory tests. The use of the Atterberg limits in predicting the behavior of natural, in-place soil is limited by the fact that they are conducted on remolded soils. The relationship between moisture content and consistency defined by the Atterberg limits may not be the same in soils in the undisturbed state. Therefore, the Atterberg limits are mainly used for classification rather than for the prediction of soil behavior under field conditions.

Soil Mechanics

Index Properties and Classification

Various agencies and professional organizations have devised classifications that provide subdivision which are the most useful for specific applications in their specialty.

Unified Soil Classification System

The most useful engineering classification of soils is the Unified Soil Classification System.

This classification gives each soil type a two-letter designation. For coarsegrained soils, the first letter, either G for gravel or S for sand, refers to the dominant particle size in the soil. The second letter is either W, for well graded or P, for poorly graded or M (silt) or C (clay) for coarse-grained soils with more than 12% of silt or clay.

The first letter of the designation for fine-grained soils is M or C (silt or clay). The second letter, either H (high) or L (low), refers to the plasticity of the soil as defined by the plasticity index.

Soil Mechanics **Unified Soil Classification System** The **plasticity index** is defined as: **PI = LL – PL** The difference between the liquid and plastic limits (PI) is a measure of the range in water contents over which the soil remains in a plastic state. The plotted position of a soil with respect to the A-line on the plasticity chart determines whether the soil receives the letter H for high plasticity or the letter L for low plasticity. Highly organic soils, which form a final category in the classification, are also subdivided into high- and low-plasticity types. Once a soil has been classified by the Unified system, predictions can be made of the soil's permeability, strength, compressibility, and other properties.

Soil Mechanics

Clay size versus Clay mineral

Remember our previous discussion on this issue… Clay size does not mean the same as clay minerals. Clay minerals generate cohesion while clay sizes can be cohesionless.

In the USC approach the problem is faced in a different way. Because the silt-clay size boundary for the ASTM classification (0.005 mm) does not ensure that finer material will consist of clay materials (and be plastic) and coarser materials will be non-plastic, the entire size group below 0.074 mm is collectively referred to as fines. If the fines are plastic, then the material is considered to be clay and, in like manner, if the fines are not plastic then they are silt. This leads to the distinction of plastic fines and non-plastic fines replacing the decision based on particle size.

Shear strength

The strength of a soil determines its ability to support the load of a structure or remain stable upon a hillside. Engineers must therefore incorporate soil strength into the design of embankments, road cuts, buildings, and other projects.

The strength of a soil is often determined by its ability to withstand shearing stresses. The Mohr-Columb equation relates normal stress, cohesion, pore pressure, and friction angle to the shear strength of rock or soil:

τ **=** *c* **+ (**σ **-** µ**) tan** φ

where: τ is shear stress,

c is cohesion, σ is normal stress, µ is hydrostatic stress (pore pressure), φ is the angle of internal friction

Shear strength

In the Mohr-Coulomb theory of failure, shear strength has two components:

- one for inherent strength due to bonds or attractive forces between particles, and
- the other produced by frictional resistance to shearing movement

The shear strength of cohesionless soils is limited to the frictional component.

When the direct shear test is used to investigate a cohesionless soil, successive tests with increasing normal stress will establish a straight line that passes through the origin.

The angle of inclination of the line with respect to the horizontal axis is the angle of internal friction.

Shear strength

The shear strength of a cohesive soil is more complicated than a cohesionless material.

The differences are due to the role of pore water in a cohesive soil. Most cohesive soils in field conditions are at or near saturation because of their tendency to hold moisture and their low permeability.

When load is applied to a soil of this type, the load is supported by an increase in the pore-water pressure until pore-water can drain into regions of lower pressure.

At that point, soil particles are forced closer together and the strength increases, just like a cohesionless soil. Time is an important factor however, because it takes longer for water to move out of a low permeability material.

Soil Mechanics

Shear strength

Strength tests for cohesive soils are usually made in tri-axial cells in which the drainage of the sample can be controlled. Test conditions can allow

- 1. no drainage of the soil during loading,
- 2. drainage during an initial phase of loading, followed by failure in an undrained condition, and
- 3. complete drainage during very slow loading to failure

The response of the sample is different in each case.

For the most basic case, in which the sample is un-drained throughout the test, the results will yield a straight line on a plot of normal stress versus shear stress. The reason for this consequence is that the soil particles cannot be forced close together without drainage of pore water, and thus cannot develop greater resistance to shear failure.

Settlement and Consolidation Settlement is calculated as follows:

 $S = \sigma_v * R / E * 2(1-V^2)$

Where: σ_{v} = vertical stress **R = radius of the loaded area E = modulus of elasticity V = poisson's ratio**

Soil Mechanics

Settlement and Consolidation

Consolidation is an important phenomenon to consider when constructing a building on a saturated clay because consolidation is very slow.

The movement of pore water out of the soil is a function of the permeability, and clay has the lowest permeability of any soil. Therefore, it may take years for the soil to reach equilibrium under the load imposed. The settlement occurring during this period can be dangerous to the building.

A famous example of consolidation is the Leaning Tower of Pisa. Titling of the tower is the result of non-uniform consolidation (differential in a clay layer beneath the structure. This ongoing process may eventually lead to the failure of the tower.

problem Solution: Given: V_{total} – 110 cm³ $W_{\text{total}} - 212$ g W_{solid} – 162 g $S = 100\%$ Unit dry weight γ_{dry} = W_s/V_T = 162 g / 110 cm³ = 1.47 g/cm³ Water content *w* = W*w*/W*^s* * 100 = (212 g - 162 g) / 162 g = 0.309 = 30.9% Example: A 110 cm3 sample of wet soil has a mass of 212 g and a degree of saturation of 100%. When oven-dried, the mass is 162 g. Determine the unit dry weight (dry density in this case because of the units used), water content, void ratio, and specific gravity of the soil particles.

problem

Example:

A 110 cm3 sample of wet soil has a mass of 212 g and a degree of saturation of 100%. When oven-dried, the mass is 162 g. Determine the unit dry weight (dry density in this case because of the units used), water content, void ratio, and specific gravity of the soil particles.

Solution: Given: V_{total} – 110 cm³ W_{total} – 212 g W_{solid} – 162 g $S = 100\%$

to find void ratio:

 $e = V_v / V_s = 50$ cm³ / 60 cm³ = 0.83

to find the specific gravity ($W_s = V_s G_s \gamma_w$)

solving for $G_s = W_s / V_s \gamma_w = 162$ g / (60 cm³) (1.0 g/cm³) = 2.70 of the soil particles

