

Introduction to Soil Mechanics

Lecture Outline

Original Topics

1. Phase Relationship
2. Physical Properties
3. Clay Minerals
4. Compaction

Modified Topics

1. Soil Formations
(Phase Relationship)
2. Physical Properties
3. Soil Classification
4. Clay Minerals and Soil
Structure
5. Compaction

Suggested Textbooks

Das, B.M. (1998). *Principles of Geotechnical Engineering*,
5th edition.

Holtz, R.D. and Kovacs, W.D. (1981). *An Introduction to
Geotechnical Engineering*, Prentice Hall.

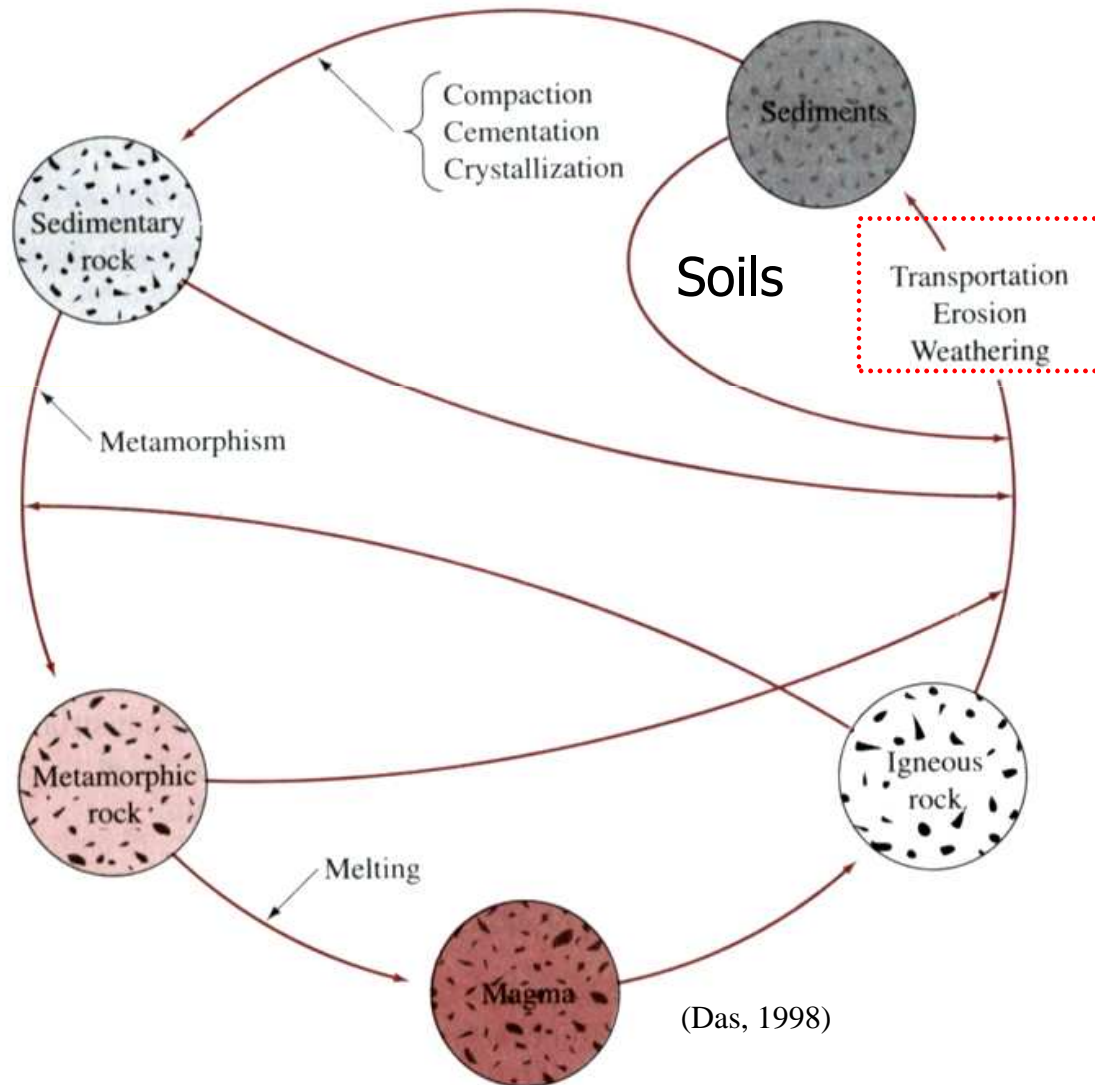
I. Soil Formations

Outline of the First Topic

1. Soil Formations and Deposits
2. **Residual Soils**
3. **Phase Relations**
4. Some Thoughts about the Specific Gravity Measurements
5. Suggested Homework

1. Soil Formations and Deposits

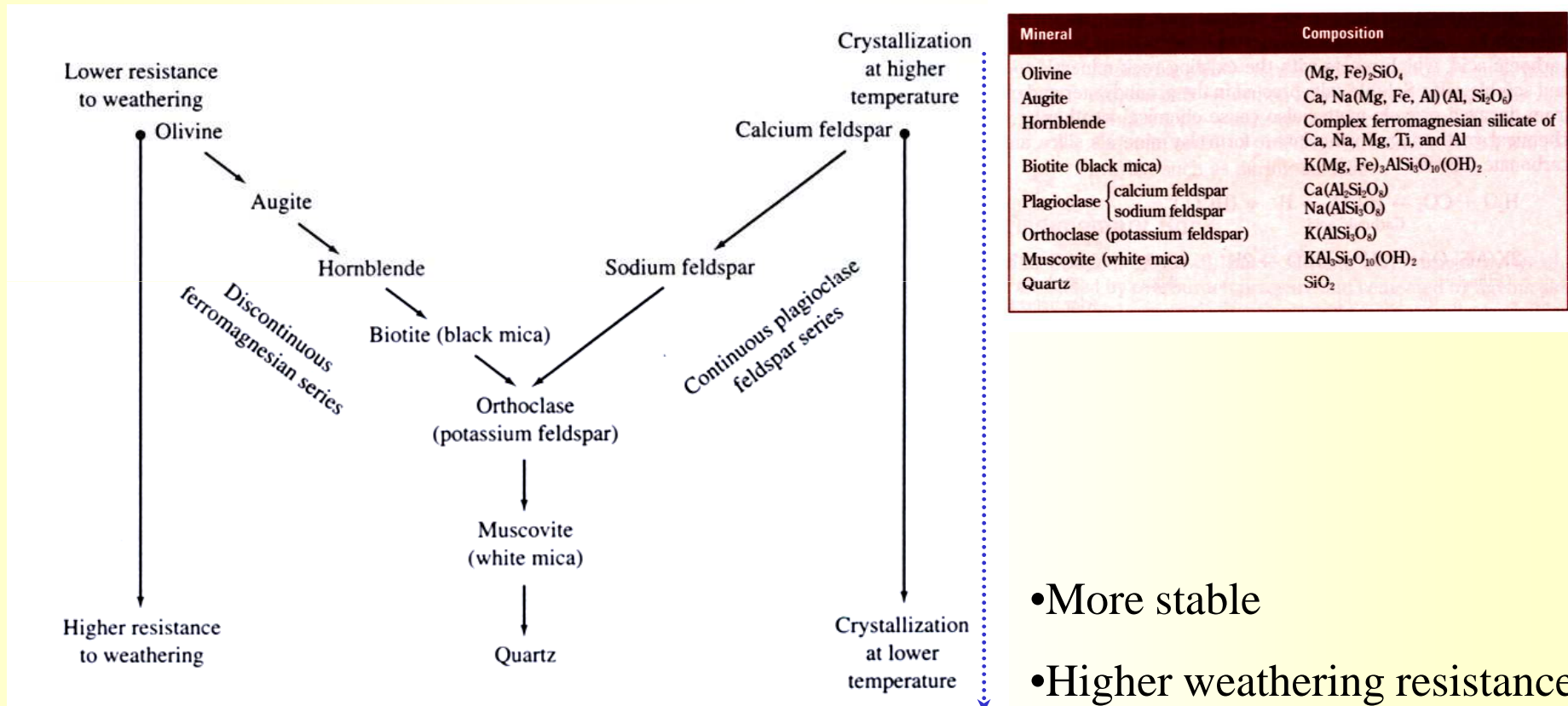
1.1 Rock Cycles



The final products due to weathering are *soils*

1.2 Bowen's Reaction Series

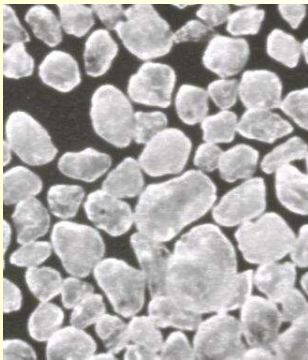
- The reaction series are similar to the weathering stability series.



(Das, 1998)

Question

What is the main mineral of the sand particles in general?



Quartz

1.3 Weathering

1.3.1 Physical processes of weathering

- Unloading
 - e.g. uplift, erosion, or change in fluid pressure.
- Thermal expansion and contraction
- Alternate wetting and drying
- Crystal growth, including frost action
- Organic activity
 - e.g. the growth of plant roots.

1.3.2 Chemical Process of weathering

- Hydrolysis
 - is the reaction with water
 - will not continue in the static water.
 - involves solubility of silica and alumina

- Chelation

- Involves the complexing and removal of metal ions .

- Cation exchange

- is important to the formation of clay minerals

- Oxidation and reduction.

- Carbonation

- is the combination of carbonate ions such as the reaction with CO₂

1.3.3 Factors affect weathering

- Many factors can affect the weathering process such as climate, topography, features of parent rocks, biological reactions, and others.
- **Climate** determines the amount of water and the temperature.

(Mitchell, 1993)

1.4 Transportation of Weathering Products

1.4.1 Residual soils-

to remain at the original place

- In Hong Kong areas, the top layer of rock is decomposed into residual soils due to the warm climate and abundant rainfall .
- Engineering properties of residual soils are different with those of transported soils
- The knowledge of "classical" geotechnical engineering is mostly based on behavior of transported soils. The understanding of residual soils is insufficient in general.

1.4.2 Transported soils-

to be moved and deposited to other places.

- The particle sizes of transported soils are selected by the transportation agents such as streams, wind, etc.
 - Interstratification of silts and clays.
- The transported soils can be categorized based on the mode of transportation and deposition (six types).

1.4.2 Transported Soils (Cont.)

- (1) **Glacial soils:** formed by transportation and deposition of glaciers.
- (2) **Alluvial soils:** transported by running water and deposited along streams.
- (3) **Lacustrine soils:** formed by deposition in quiet lakes (e.g. soils in **Taipei basin**).
- (4) **Marine soils:** formed by deposition in the seas (Hong Kong, Japan).
- (5) **Aeolian soils:** transported and deposited by the wind (e.g. soils in the loess plateau, China).
- (6) **Colluvial soils:** formed by movement of soil from its original place by gravity, such as during landslide (*Hong Kong*). (from Das, 1998)

2.1 Decomposition Grades (Rock)

Common weathering processes in Hong Kong (Irfan, 1996).

- The most important chemical processes of weathering are hydrolysis and solution.
- The two important physical processes of weathering are the alternate wetting and drying, and the exfoliation (sheeting).

Saprolite: rock fabric is retained.




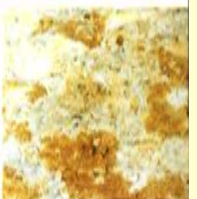
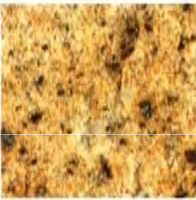






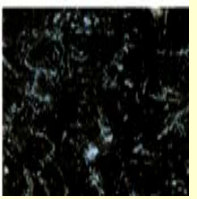
Residual soil: rock fabric is completely destroyed.

Descriptive Term	Grade Symbol	General Characteristics for Granitic & Volcanic Rocks & Other Rocks of Equivalent Strength in the Fresh State
Residual Soil	VI	Original rock texture completely destroyed Can be crumbled by hand and finger pressure into constituent grains
Completely Decomposed	V	Original rock texture preserved Can be crumbled by hand and finger pressure into constituent grains Easily indented by point of geological pick Slakes when immersed in water Completely discoloured compared with fresh rock
Highly Decomposed	IV	Can be broken by hand into smaller pieces Makes a dull sound when struck by geological hammer Not easily indented by point of geological pick Does not slake when immersed in water Completely discoloured compared with fresh rock
Moderately Decomposed	III	Cannot usually be broken by hand; easily broken by geological hammer Makes a dull or slight ringing sound when struck by geological hammer Completely stained throughout
Slightly Decomposed	II	Not broken easily by geological hammer Makes a ringing sound when struck by geological hammer Fresh rock colours generally retained but stained near joint surfaces
Fresh	I	Not broken easily by geological hammer Makes a ringing sound when struck by geological hammer No visible signs of decomposition (i.e. no discolouration)

(Guide, 1988)

2.1 Cont.

- Most of the residual soils in Hong Kong are in-situ decomposed from igneous rocks
- The red or yellow color is due to the presence of iron oxides.

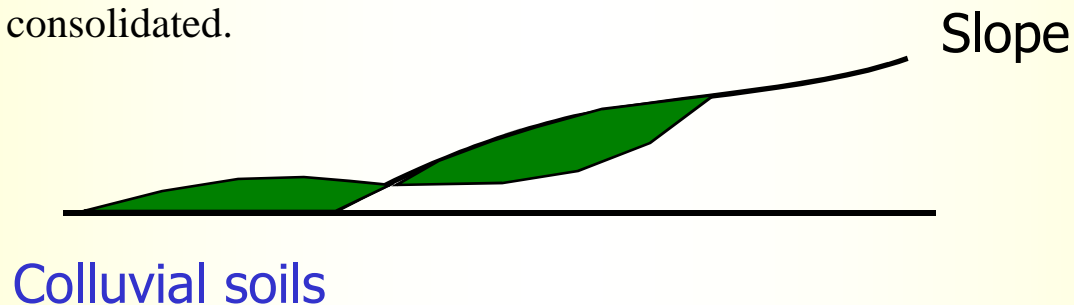
		Fine-grained Granite	Fine Ash Tuff
VI	Residual soils		
V	Completely decomposed		
IV	Highly decomposed		
III	Moderately decomposed		
II	Slightly decomposed		
I	Fresh		

2.2 Soils in Hong Kong

Three important types of soils in Hong Kong

1. Residual soils
2. Saprolites (soil-like, contain relict joint of parent rocks)
3. Colluvial soils

The colluvial soils mainly originate from the landslide and they are usually poorly consolidated.



• **Alluvial soils- Bangladesh**

3. Phase Relations

3.1 Three Phases in Soils

S : Solid

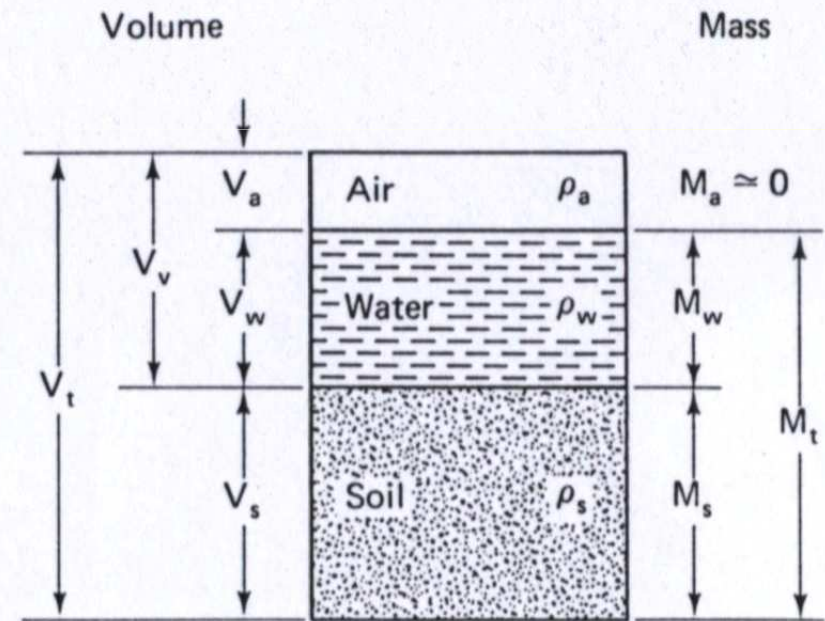
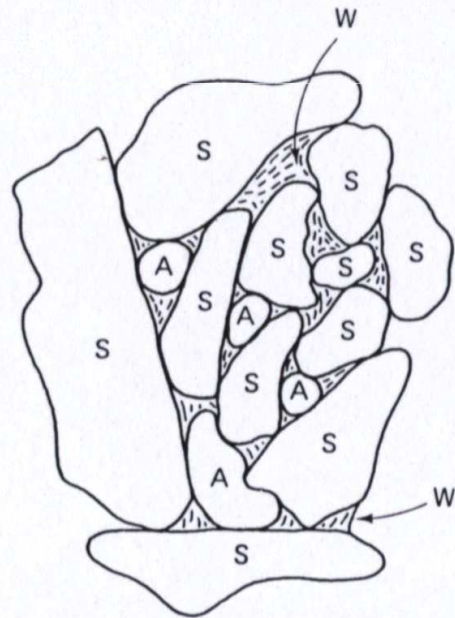
W: Liquid

A: Air

Soil particle

Water (electrolytes)

Air



3.2 Three Volumetric Ratios

(1) Void ratio **e** (given in decimal, **0.65**)

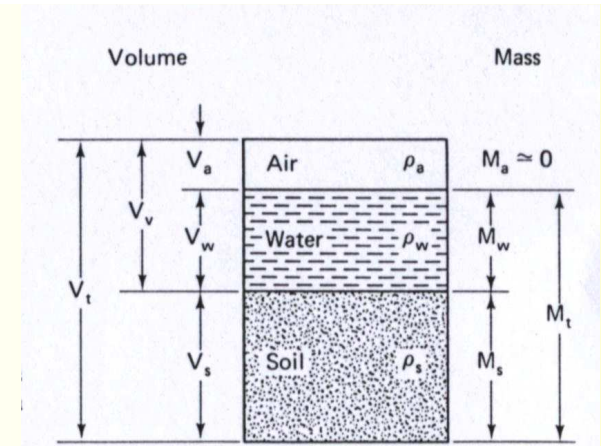
$$e = \frac{\text{Volume of voids } (V_v)}{\text{Volume of solids } (V_s)}$$

(2) Porosity **n** (given in percent **100%, 65%**)

$$n = \frac{V_s e}{V_s (1 + e)} = \frac{e}{1 + e} \quad n = \frac{\text{Volume of voids } (V_v)}{\text{Total volume of soil sample } (V_t)}$$

(3) Degree of Saturation **S** (given in percent **100%, 65%**)

$$S = \frac{\text{Total volume of voids contains water } (V_w)}{\text{Total volume of voids } (V_v)} \times 100\%$$



3.2.1 Engineering Applications (e)

Typical values

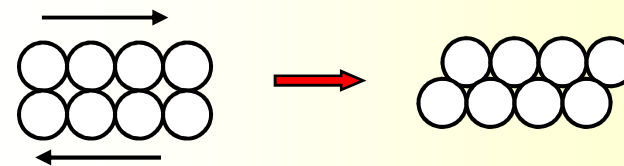
Description	Void Ratio		Porosity (%)		Dry Unit Weight (kN/m ³)	
	e_{max}	e_{min}	n_{max}	n_{min}	γ_{dmin}	γ_{dmax}
Uniform spheres	0.92	0.35	47.6	26.0	—	—
Standard Ottawa sand	0.80	0.50	44	33	14.5	17.3
Clean uniform sand	1.0	0.40	50	29	13.0	18.5
Uniform inorganic silt	1.1	0.40	52	29	12.6	18.5
Silty sand	0.90	0.30	47	23	13.7	20.0
Fine to coarse sand	0.95	0.20	49	17	13.4	21.7
Micaceous sand	1.2	0.40	55	29	11.9	18.9
Silty sand and gravel	0.85	0.14	46	12	14.0	22.9

After B. K. Hough, *Basic Soils Engineering*. Copyright © 1957, The Ronald Press Company, New York.

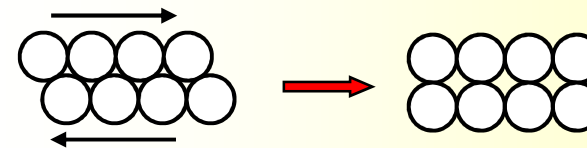
(Lambe and Whitman, 1979)

Engineering applications:

Simple cubic (SC), $e = 0.91$, *Contract*



Cubic-tetrahedral (CT), $e = 0.65$, *Dilate*



- Volume change tendency
- Strength

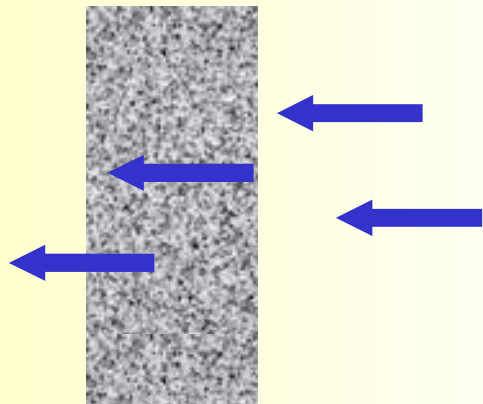
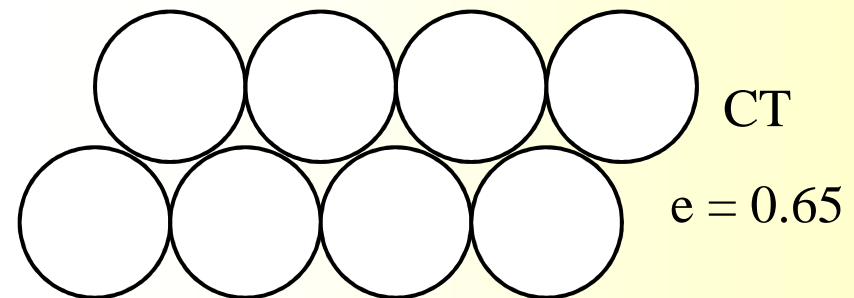
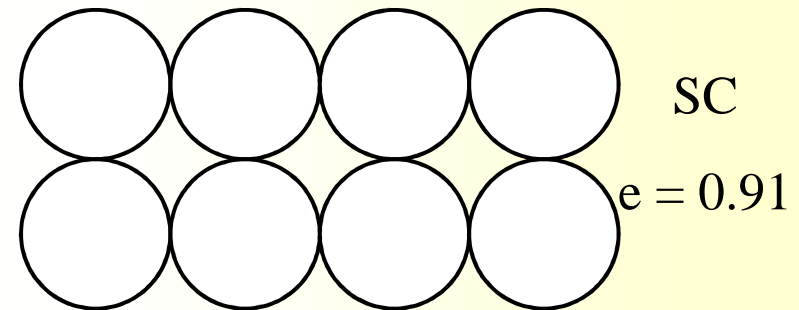


Link: the strength of rock joint

$$\text{Shear strength} = \sigma_n \tan(\phi + i)$$

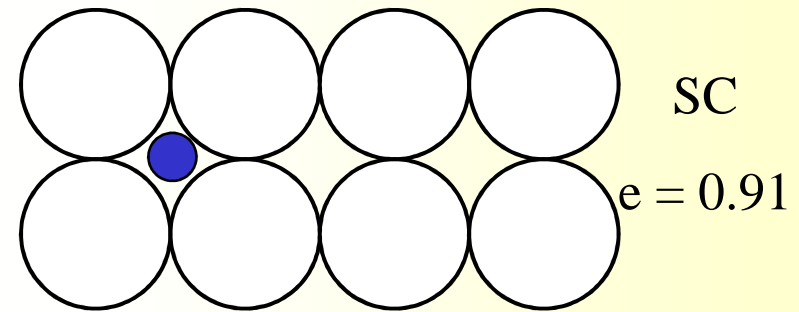
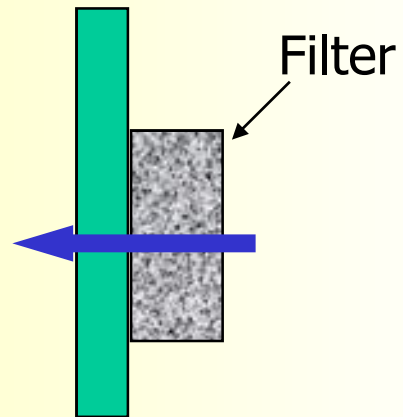
3.2.1 Engineering Implications (e)_(Cont.)

- Hydraulic conductivity
 - Which packing (SC or CT) has higher hydraulic conductivity?

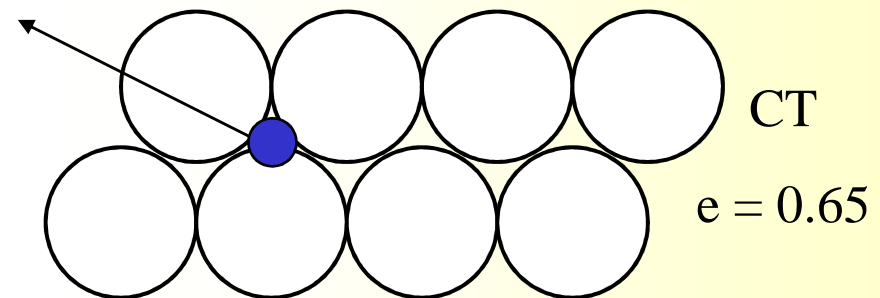


The fluid (water) can flow more easily through the soil with higher hydraulic conductivity

3.2.1 Engineering Applications (e)_(Cont.)



- **Clogging** The finer particle cannot pass through the void



- **Critical state soil mechanics**

3.2.2 Engineering Applications (S)

Completely dry soil $S = 0\%$

Completely saturated soil $S = 100\%$

Unsaturated soil (partially saturated soil) $0\% < S < 100\%$

$$S = \frac{\text{Total volume of voids contains water } (V_w)}{\text{Total volume of voids } (V_v)} \times 100\%$$

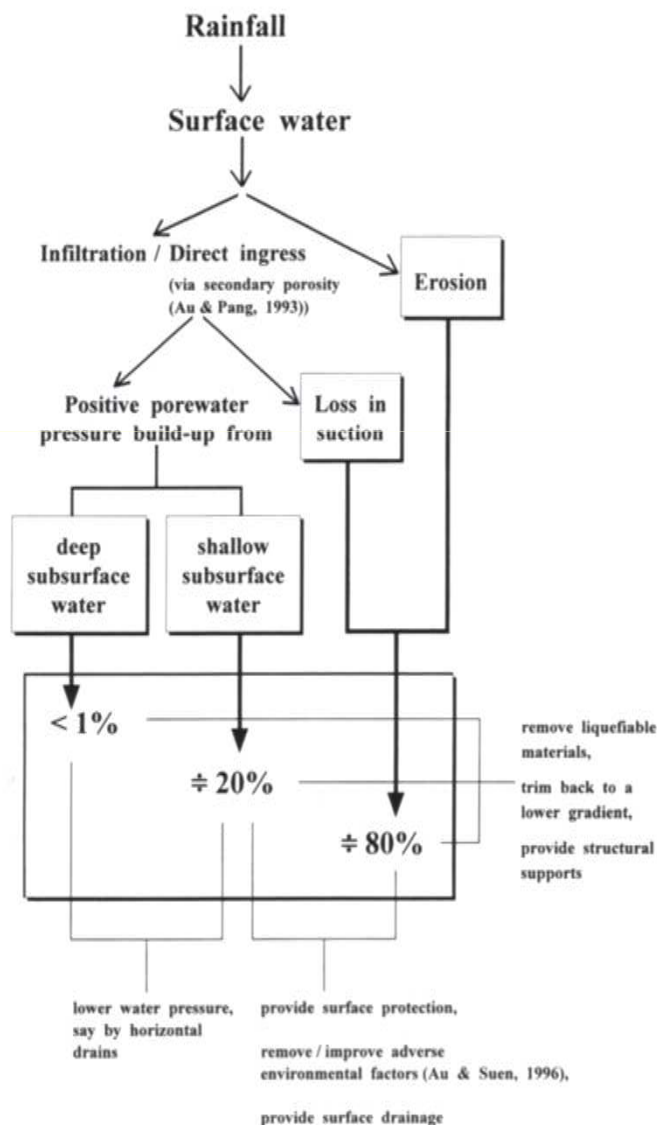
Demonstration:

Effects of capillary forces

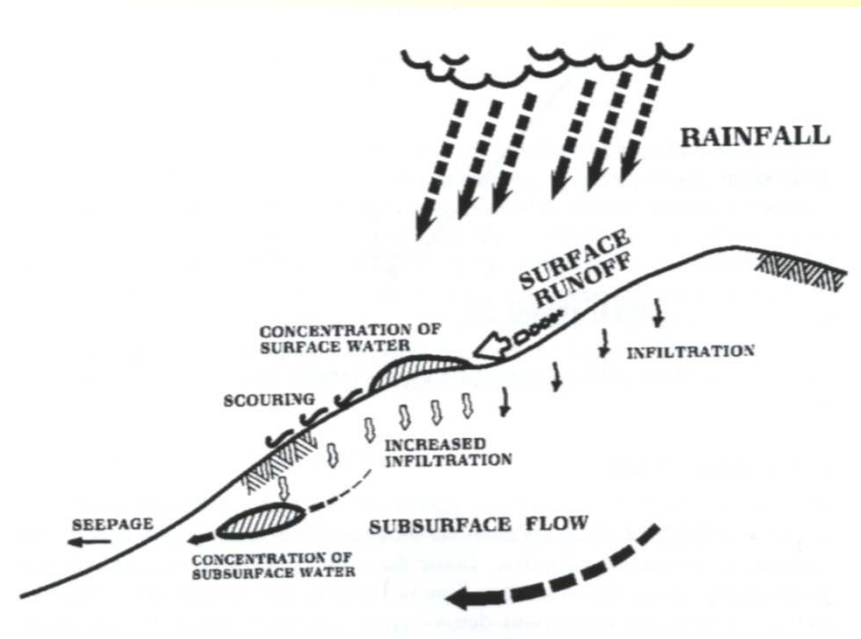
Engineering implications:

- Slope stability
- Underground excavation

3.2.2 Engineering Applications (S) (Cont.)



- 80 % of landslides are due to erosion and “**loss in suction**” .
- The slope stability is significantly affected by the surface water.



(Au, 2001)

3.3 Density and Unit Weight

- Mass is a measure of a body's inertia, or its "quantity of matter". Mass is not changed at different places.
- Weight is force, the force of gravity acting on a body. The value is different at various places (Newton's second law $F = ma$) (Giancoli, 1998)
- The unit weight is frequently used than the density is (e.g. in calculating the overburden pressure).

$$\text{Density, } \rho = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Volume}}$$

$$\text{Unit weight, } \gamma = \frac{\text{Weight}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{\text{Mass} \cdot g}{\text{Volume}}$$

g : acceleration due to gravity

$$\gamma = \rho \cdot g = \rho \cdot 9.8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{sec}^2}$$

$$\text{Water, } \gamma = 9.8 \frac{\text{kN}}{\text{m}^3}$$

$$G_s = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w} = \frac{\rho_s \cdot g}{\rho_w \cdot g} = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}$$

3.4 Weight Relationships

(1) Water Content w (**100%**)

$$w = \frac{\text{Mass of water } (M_w)}{\text{Mass of soil solids } (M_s)} \cdot 100\%$$

For some organic soils $w > 100\%$, up to 500 %

For quick clays, $w > 100\%$

(2) Density of water (slightly varied with temperatures)

$$\rho_w = 1 \text{ g/cm}^3 = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3 = 1 \text{ Mg/m}^3$$

(3) Density of soil

a. Dry density

$$\rho_d = \frac{\text{Mass of soil solids } (M_s)}{\text{Total volume of soil sample } (V_t)}$$

b. Total, Wet, or Moist density ($0\% < S < 100\%$, Unsaturated)

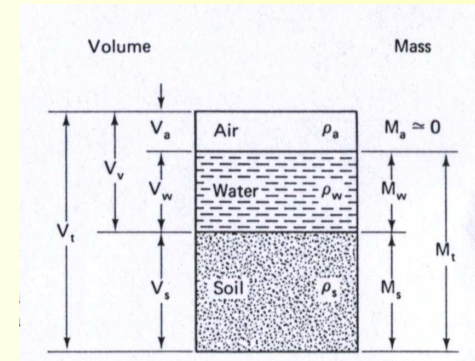
$$\rho = \frac{\text{Mass of soil sample } (M_s + M_w)}{\text{Total volume of soil sample } (V_t)}$$

c. Saturated density ($S=100\%$, $V_a=0$)

$$\rho_{\text{sat}} = \frac{\text{Mass of soil solids + water } (M_s + M_w)}{\text{Total volume of soil sample } (V_t)}$$

d. Submerged density (Buoyant density)

$$\rho' = \rho_{\text{sat}} - \rho_w$$



3.4 Weight Relationships (Cont.)

Submerged unit weight:

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

Consider the buoyant force acting on the soil solids:

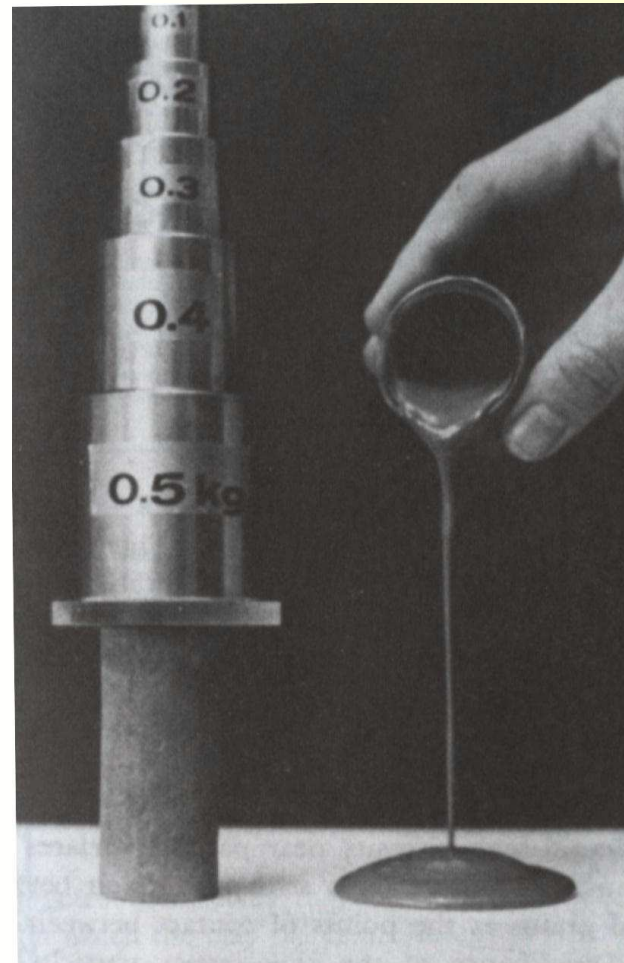
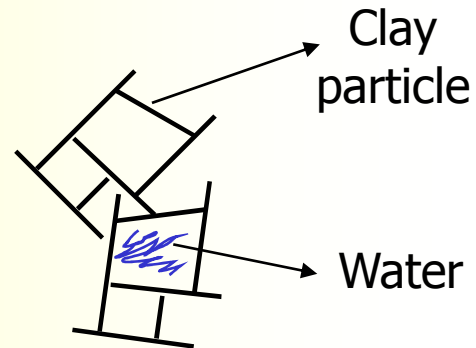
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{W_s - V_s \cdot \gamma_w}{V_t} &= \frac{W_s - (V_t - V_w) \cdot \gamma_w}{V_t} \quad (S = 100\%) \\ &= \frac{W_s - V_t \cdot \gamma_w + W_w}{V_t} \\ &= \frac{W_s + W_w - V_t \cdot \gamma_w}{V_t} \\ &= \gamma_{\text{sat}} - \gamma_w \end{aligned}$$

Archimede's principle:

The buoyant force on a body immersed in a fluid is equal to the weight of the fluid displaced by that object.

3.4.1 Engineering Applications (w)

- For fine-grained soils, water plays a critical role to their engineering properties (discussed in the next topic).
- *For example,*
The quick clay usually has a water content w greater than 100 % and a card house structure. It will behave like a viscous fluid after it is fully disturbed.



(Mitchell, 1993)

3.5 Other Relationships

(1) Specific gravity

$$G_s = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w} = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}$$

Proof:

$$S \cdot e = w \cdot G_s$$

$$S \cdot e = \frac{V_w}{V_v} \cdot \frac{V_v}{V_s} = \frac{V_w}{V_s}$$

(2)

$$\rho_w \cdot S \cdot e = w \cdot \rho_s$$

$$S \cdot e = w \cdot G_s$$

$$w \cdot G_s = \frac{M_w}{M_s} \cdot \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_w} = \frac{M_w}{M_s} \cdot \frac{M_s / V_s}{M_w / V_w} = \frac{V_w}{V_s}$$

3.6 Typical Values of Specific Gravity

Table 3.1 Specific Gravities of Minerals

Quartz	2.65
K-Feldspars	2.54–2.57
Na–Ca-Feldspars	2.62–2.76
Calcite	2.72
Dolomite	2.85
Muscovite	2.7–3.1
Biotite	2.8–3.2
Chlorite	2.6–2.9
Pyrophyllite	2.84
Serpentine	2.2–2.7
Kaolinite	2.61 ^a
	2.64 ± 0.02
Halloysite (2 H ₂ O)	2.55
Illite	2.84 ^a
	2.60–2.86
Montmorillonite	2.74 ^a
	2.75–2.78
Attapulgit	2.30

^a Calculated from crystal structure.

(Lambe and Whitman, 1979)

Table 2.2 Specific Gravities of Common Minerals^a

Mineral	G
Halite	2.1–2.6
Gypsum	2.3–2.4
Serpentine	2.3–2.6
Orthoclase	2.5–2.6
Chalcedony	2.6–2.64
Quartz	2.65
Plagioclase	2.6–2.8
Chlorite and illite	2.6–3.0
Calcite	2.7
Muscovite	2.7–3.0
Biotite	2.8–3.1
Dolomite	2.8–3.1
Anhydrite	2.9–3.0
Pyroxene	3.2–3.6
Olivine	3.2–3.6
Barite	4.3–4.6
Magnetite	4.4–5.2
Pyrite	4.9–5.2
Galena	7.4–7.6

^a A. N. Winchell (1942).

(Goodman, 1989)

3.7 Solution of Phase Problems

Remember the following simple rules (Holtz and Kovacs, 1981):

1. Remember the basic definitions of w , e , ρ_s , S , etc.
2. Draw a phase diagram.
3. Assume either $V_s=1$ or $V_t=1$, *if not given*.
4. Often use $\rho_w Se = w\rho_s$, $Se = wG_s$

Example

4. Some Thoughts about the Specific Gravity (G_s) Measurement

4.1 Standards

Standards

- ASTM D854-92 Standard Test Method for Specific Gravity of Soils
- ASTM C127-88 (Reapproved 1993) Test Methods for Specific Gravity and Absorption of Coarse Aggregate.
- BS 1377: Part 2:1990

4.2 Alternatives

- If the soil contains **soluble salts or can react with water**, an alternative liquid should be used such as kerosene (paraffin) or white spirit. Note that the density of oil is not equal to 1 g/cm³, $\rho_L \neq 1 \text{ g/cm}^3$ (Head, 1992).

$$G_s = \frac{(m_2 - m_1)}{\frac{(m_4 - m_1) - (m_3 - m_2)}{\rho_L}} \longleftarrow \text{Weight of liquid displaced by the soil solid.}$$
$$= \frac{\rho_L (m_2 - m_1)}{(m_4 - m_1) - (m_3 - m_2)}$$

4.2 Alternatives (Cont.)

- If the particle density is likely to be changed owing to dehydration at 100°C, a lower drying temperature (e.g. 80 °C) and longer drying time should be adopted. Note that the modification must be recorded. However, for some clay minerals the dehydration is almost inevitable. For example, halloysite will lose its interlayer water at 50 °C or at relative humidity $RH \leq 50 \%$ (Irfan, 1996).

4.3 Your Test Results

G_s for some minerals

Quartz,	2.65
Kaolinite,	2.65
K-feldspar,	2.54-2.57
Halloysite,	2.55

Hints:

Primary minerals:

Quartz, Kaolinite, K-feldspar,
Halloysite

Note:

The specific gravity of solids of light-colored sand, which is mostly made of quartz, maybe estimated to be about **2.65**; for clayed and silty soils, it may vary from 2.6 to 2.9 (from Das, 1998).



The G_s of soils is typically estimated as 2.65 if not given.

4.4 Average Specific Gravity Values

For example,

For soil particles larger than 2mm, the weight is W_1 and the volume is V_1 .

For soil particles smaller than 2mm, the weight is W_2 and the volume is V_2 .

$$G_{s\text{-avg}} = \frac{(W_1 + W_2)}{(V_1 + V_2)} = \frac{1}{\frac{(V_1 + V_2)}{(W_1 + W_2)}}$$

~~$$\frac{G_{s1} + G_{s2}}{2}$$~~

$$G_{s\text{-avg}} = \frac{1}{\frac{W_1}{(W_1 + W_2)} \frac{V_1}{W_1} + \frac{W_2}{(W_1 + W_2)} \frac{V_2}{W_2}}$$

$$G_{s\text{-avg}} = \frac{1}{P_1 \frac{1}{G_{s1}} + P_2 \frac{1}{G_{s2}}}$$

P is the weight fraction

5. Suggested Homework

1. Please try to find the standard and read it.

2. Please go over examples in your book.

ASTM:

Remember where you can find useful references!!

6. References

Main References:

Das, B.M. (1998). *Principles of Geotechnical Engineering*, 5th edition, PWS Publishing Company. (Chapter 2)

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