

# **RADIAL CONSOLIDATION ANALYSIS USING DELAYED CONSOLIDATION APPROACH**

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## RADIAL CONSOLIDATION ANALYSIS USING DELAYED CONSOLIDATION

### APPROACH

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**ABSTRACT:** The paper is an analytical solution for radial consolidation that captures isotaches with a strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure. These relationships are obtained based on Constant Rate of Strain (CRS) and long-term consolidation (LTC) tests, and then used in the radial consolidation model incorporating the field strain rate which is generally much lower compared to the typical laboratory environment. In this study the calculated settlement and associated excess pore water pressure are obtained using the equivalent pre-consolidation pressure from the reference isotache, within the  $(\frac{\sigma_p'}{\sigma_{p0}}) - (\varepsilon_v)$  domain. Moreover, the change in  $\frac{C_\alpha}{C_c}$  ratio (i.e. secondary compression index / compression index) with decreasing strain rate is used to calculate the long term settlement. This method is then validated using various case histories in Australia and Southeast Asia, where excess pore water pressure is dissipated at a slower rate in relation to the observed settlement.

**KEYWORDS:** Radial consolidation, isotaches, viscosity, creep settlement

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Many coastal regions of Australia and Southeast Asia consist of very soft clays (estuarine or marine) which contain adverse geotechnical properties such as low bearing capacity and excessive settlement. These properties present challenges in design and construction, especially minimising long term deformation over the lifetime of the infrastructure. The construction, design, and stability of transport infrastructure are of global economic significance, particularly along coastal regions where many nations spend millions of dollars annually on road maintenance alone. In Australia, this is why improving the geotechnical properties of saturated soft clays of significant depths (say 20 m) and being able to accurately predict the long term deformation have significant benefits to both urban and regional communities where much transport infrastructure is currently being developed.

The use of PVD combined with either surcharge or vacuum preloading could reduce the construction and maintenance costs significantly and also enhance the performance of infrastructure through better drainage, greater load bearing capacity, and reduced long term settlement of the improved soil. The advantages of PVDs alone have been vividly elucidated elsewhere by Holtz et al. (1991). The preloading method of stabilising soft clays by surcharge fill embankments (facilitated by PVDs) is generally a low-cost solution (Hansbo 1981, Bergado et al. 1991, Almeida et al. 2000). However, in sites with thick soft soil, consolidation is gradual due to the very low permeability of the soil and its inherent thickness. The installation of PVDs can facilitate rapid excess pore pressure dissipation in soft soil foundation when raising a surcharge embankment (Kjellman 1952; Bergado et al. 2002; Bo et al. 2003; Geng et al. 2012). When such a system is combined with vacuum preloading even faster rate of dissipation can be achieved with an enhanced rate of settlement especially at the start, thereby enabling the final settlement to be approached within a shorter period of time (Chu & Yan 2005; Indraratna et al. 2005).

Analytical solutions for radial consolidation have been developed to consider various aspects such as the smear zone, stratified soils, and vacuum preloading (Barron, 1948; Tang and Onitsuka, 2001; Indraratna et al. 2005; Walker and Indraratna, 2009), however, limited efforts have been made to analytically incorporate the effect of soil viscosity as influenced by the strain rate (Yang et al. 2016). Indraratna et al. (2018) developed a radial consolidation model considering elastic visco-plastic properties of soft soil and validated using prediction embankment at Ballina confirming visco-plastic model's accuracy compared with other method of prediction. Evaluating the time-dependent behaviour of soft soils is crucial for predicting the correct settlement and excess pore water. Two different methods (Hypotheses A and B, see Fig. 1) have been considered herein to evaluate the long term time-dependent settlement as below:

**Hypothesis A:** Creep deformation is assumed to occur after the excess pore water has completely dissipated and the ratio ( $C_\alpha/C_c$ ) between the coefficient of secondary consolidation ( $C_\alpha$ ) and ( $C_c$ ), is assumed to be constant. Strain occurs during primary consolidation as the excess pore water pressure dissipates, and strain also occurs during secondary consolidation (Ladd, 1973; Mesri and Castro, 1987). The coefficient of secondary consolidation ( $C_\alpha$ ) is used to estimate the resulting viscous deformations. Although Hypothesis A is simple and often used due to the availability of  $C_\alpha$  and  $C_c$ , this approach can result in continuous long term settlement even at an infinite time.

**Hypothesis B:** The concept of isotache (Sulckje 1957; Barden 1969; Bjerrum 1967) assumes that some structural viscosity is responsible for creep that begins during the primary consolidation phase as the excess pore water pressure dissipates (Fig. 1). Strain during primary consolidation depends on the thickness of the sample and the strain rate; this is why the experimental results obtained from relatively thin samples may not correctly represent the actual in-situ behaviour of thick clay deposits due to the obvious implications of a different

time scale. In this hypothesis a series of compression curves are used to show the relationship between the strain rate and pre consolidation pressure (Fig. 2). The creep ratio (i.e.  $C_{ae}/C_c$ ) decreases with the strain rate that diminishes with time. Various studies have already been carried out on Hypothesis B (e.g. Leroueil et al., 1988; Adachi et al., 1996 and Kim and Leroueil, 2001).

Specific studies considered the time-dependent behaviour of soft soil using the Isotache concept in conjunction with the strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure (Watabe and Leroueil, 2015 and Tanaka, 2006). These isotaches are normally characterised by a reference compression line obtained from a constant rate of strain (CRS) test and a series of long term consolidation tests. Tsusumi and Tanaka (2011) designed a special CRS test and carried out testing on a single sample with a multiple strain rate applied at different stages. In this study the isotache concept is incorporated into the radial consolidation model to predict the actual field performance in terms of settlement and the associated dissipation of excess pore water.

## **2. ANALYTICAL MODEL FOR RADIAL CONSOLIDATION INCORPORATING THE ISOTACHE CONCEPT**

Based on the unique relationship between the strain and pre-consolidation pressure which corresponds to the strain rate model proposed by Watabe and Leroueil (2015), a strain rate dependency relationship with pre-consolidation pressure can be established using long term consolidation (LTC) and a constant rate of strain (CRS) test (Fig. 2). The upper bound of the isotache represents the compression curve in the laboratory experiment with a higher strain rate whereas other isotache lines resemble compression curves at lower strain rates. The relationship between pre-consolidation pressure and strain rate can be expressed as:

$$\sigma_p' = f(\dot{\epsilon}_v) \quad (1)$$

In the above, the exponential relationship between the pre-consolidation pressure and the strain rate can be determined by using two expressions (Kobayashi et al. 2005).

$$\ln \sigma_p' = a_1 + a_2 \ln \dot{\epsilon}_v \quad (2)$$

The first expression is expressed by Eq (2), where the relationship between  $\ln \sigma_p'$  and  $\ln \dot{\epsilon}_v$  is linear, the model may seem unrealistic as  $\sigma_p'$  becomes zero when  $\dot{\epsilon}_v$  decreases to zero. Therefore, a second expression (i.e. Eq 3) has been proposed to remediate this condition, where  $\sigma_{pL}'$  is introduced as a lower limit of  $\sigma_p'$  so when  $\dot{\epsilon}_v$  decreases to zero in Eq (3),  $\sigma_p'$  converges to  $\sigma_{pL}'$ .

$$\sigma_p' = \sigma_{pL}' + b_1 \exp(b_2 \ln \dot{\epsilon}_v) \quad (3)$$

The exponential form Eq (3) can be shown to yield Eq (4) in logarithmic form:

$$\ln \frac{\sigma_p' - \sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{pL}'} = c_1 + c_2 \ln \dot{\epsilon}_v \quad (4)$$

$$\dot{\epsilon}_v = \left( \frac{\sigma_p' - \sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{pL}'} \right)^{\frac{1}{c_2}} \exp \frac{c_1}{c_2} \quad (5)$$

$$\dot{\epsilon}_v = c_3 \left( \frac{\sigma_p' - \sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{pL}'} \right)^{c_4} \quad (6)$$

138 where  $\sigma_p'$  = preconsolidation pressure at a given strain rate,

139  $a_1, a_2, b_1$  &  $b_2$  are empirical constants during the derivation

140  $\sigma_{pL}'$  = lower limit of preconsolidation pressure ,

141  $\epsilon_v \dot{=} \text{axial strain rate}$

142  $c_3 = \exp^{-\frac{c_1}{c_2}}$  and  $c_4 = \frac{1}{c_2}$  are two constants used in the model

143  $c_1 = \ln \frac{\sigma_p' - \sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{pL}'}$  at  $\epsilon_v \dot{=} 1 \times 10^{-7} s^{-1}$  and  $c_2 = \frac{1}{\ln \epsilon_v} \left[ \ln \frac{\sigma_p' - \sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{pL}'} - c_1 \right]$

144 The lower limit of pre consolidation pressure ( $\sigma_{pL}'$ ) can be calculated based on Eq. (6). The  
145 illustration of the above mentioned procedure to evaluate how the strain rate depends on the  
146 pre-consolidation pressure ( $\sigma_p'$ ) from the CRS and LTC test is shown in Fig. 2. This analysis  
147 was carried out using clay samples obtained from Ballina, Australia. Please note that  $\sigma_{p0}'$  is  
148 the value of preconsolidation pressure when strain rate is  $1 \times 10^{-7} s^{-1}$ , which is close to the  
149 average strain rate obtained in 24-h incremental loading consolidation tests.

150 The normalised relationship in between the  $(\frac{\sigma_p'}{\sigma_{p0}}) - (\epsilon_v)$  for an array of worldwide clays has  
151 already been examined and provided by Watabe et al. (2012) and Leroueil (1988). The  
152 relationship also captures clays obtained from Ballina, Bangkok (Rujikiatkamjorn et al.,  
153 2008), Malaysia (Indraratna and Redana, 2000) and Singapore (Cao et al., 2001) but with  
154 different coefficients for specific type of soil (Fig. 3). The ratio  $\frac{\sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{p0}'}$  for Ballina clay is 0.86  
155 and  $\frac{\sigma_p'}{\sigma_{p0}'}$  approaches unity at  $\dot{\epsilon} = 1 \times 10^{-07} s^{-1}$ ; for Ballina clay the value of  $c_3$  and  $c_4$  are  
156  $3.63 \times 10^{-3}$  and 6.33, respectively (Fig. 3).

157 Figure 4 shows a soil with a pre-consolidation pressure ( $\sigma_p'$ ) of soil that has been loaded  
158 from an initial effective stress of  $\sigma'_{v0}$  to the final effective stress  $\sigma'_{vf}$  in the laboratory  
159 environment and therefore the corresponding strain rate for the sample is  $\dot{\epsilon}_1$ . For a given  
160 preloading ( $\Delta\sigma_t$ ), the change in effective stress can be calculated by:

$$\Delta\sigma_t' = \Delta\sigma_c' + \Delta\sigma_d' \quad (7)$$

161 The first term  $\Delta\sigma_c'$  is an increase in effective stress due to the dissipation of excess pore-  
 162 water whereas the second term ( $\Delta\sigma_d'$ ) is an increase in effective stress due to delayed  
 163 consolidation caused by the viscosity of clay. In order to estimate  $\Delta\sigma_d'$ , the strain rate  
 164 dependency of preconsolidation pressure can be employed using the following relationship:

$$\Delta\sigma_d' = \sigma_{p0}' - \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}' \quad (8)$$

165 where  $\sigma_{p0}'$  corresponds to the laboratory pre-consolidation pressure which corresponds to a  
 166 strain rate of  $1 \times 10^{-07} s^{-1}$ , and  $\sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}'$  is the preconsolidation pressure at a given strain rate  
 167 ( $\dot{\epsilon}$ ). It should be noted that the strain rate can affect the location of  $\sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}'$  in isotaches. The  
 168 strain rate can be estimated using the following formulation:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \frac{\varepsilon_{U100}}{\Delta t_{U100}} \quad (9)$$

169 where  $\varepsilon_{U100}$  and  $\Delta t_{U100}$  are the strain and time at the degree of consolidation based on pore  
 170 pressure equal to 100% ( $U_{100}$ ) respectively; these parameters can be calculated based on the  
 171 formulations proposed earlier by Indraratna et al. (2005), so once the strain rate ( $\dot{\epsilon}$ ) is known,  
 172  $\sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}'$  can be calculated using Equation (6).

173 After estimating  $\Delta\sigma_d'$  using Eq. (8), the term  $\sigma'_{vc}$  can be calculated from the following  
 174 equation:

$$\sigma'_{vc} = \sigma'_{vf} - \Delta\sigma_d' \quad (10)$$

175 Here the term  $\sigma'_{vc}$  represents the corresponding value of effective stress on x-axis after  
 176 considering delayed consolidation. Once  $\sigma'_{vc}$  has been calculated, the dissipation of excess



177 pore water pressure and consolidation settlement ( $\delta_c$ ) can then be determined using the  
 178 formulations as elaborated below:

179 Indraratna et al. (2005) proposed an analytical solution to capture the nonlinear  
 180 compressibility and permeability of soil, so the excess pore pressure at a radial distance  $r$   
 181 from the centre of drain at any time  $t$  ( $u_r$ ) while considering the linear variation of  
 182 permeability in the smear zone, can be calculated by:

$$u_r = \frac{1}{\mu r_e^2} \left[ r_e^2 \ln \left( \frac{r}{r_w} \right) - \frac{(r^2 - r_w^2)}{2} \right] \exp \left( -\frac{8T_{h0}^*}{\mu} \right) \Delta \sigma_t; \quad (11a)$$

$$\sigma_v' \leq \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}' \text{ and } t \leq t_i$$

$$u_r = \frac{1}{\mu r_e^2} \left[ r_e^2 \ln \left( \frac{r}{r_w} \right) - \frac{(r^2 - r_w^2)}{2} \right] \exp \left( -\frac{8T_{hi}^*}{\mu} \right) (\sigma_{v0}' + \Delta \sigma_t - \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}') ; u_r = \quad (11b)$$

$$\sigma_{v0}' + \Delta \sigma_t - \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}' \text{ at } T_{hi} = 0 \text{ and } t = t_i, \text{ for } \sigma_v' > \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}' \text{ and } t > t_i,$$

183 where  $\mu = \ln \left( \frac{n}{s} \right) - \frac{3}{4} + \frac{\kappa(s-1)}{s-\kappa} \ln \left( \frac{s}{\kappa} \right)$ ,  $n = \frac{r_e}{r_w}$  and  $s = \frac{r_s}{r_w}$

184 In the above expressions,  $r_w$  is the radius of the drain and  $r_e$  is the equivalent diameter of the  
 185 soil cylinder which is a function of drain spacing. Similarly,  $r_s$  is the radius of the smear zone  
 186 and  $\kappa$  is the permeability index.

187 The modified time factor  $T_h^*$  for radial consolidation with a vertical drain that includes the  
 188 smear effect can be expressed by the following relationships:

189 When  $\sigma_v' \leq \sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}'$  and  $t \leq t_i$

$$T_{h0}^* = P_{av,0} T_{h0} = 0.5 \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{p(\dot{\epsilon})}'}{\sigma_{v0}'} \right)^{1-(c_r/c_k)} + 1 \right] T_{h0} \quad (12a)$$

$$P_{av,0} = 0.5 \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'}{\sigma_{v0}'} \right)^{1-(c_r/c_k)} + 1 \right] \quad (12b)$$

190 When  $\sigma_v' > \sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'$  and  $t > t_i$

$$T_{hi}^* = P_{av,i} T_{hi} = 0.5 \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{v0}' + \Delta\sigma_t'}{\sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'} \right)^{1-(c_c/c_k)} + 1 \right] T_{hi} \quad (12c)$$

$$P_{av,i} = 0.5 \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{v0}' + \Delta\sigma_t'}{\sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'} \right)^{1-(c_c/c_k)} + 1 \right] \quad (12d)$$

191  $P_{av,0}$  &  $P_{av,i}$  used in the above equations are the factors used to convert dimensionless time  
 192 factors ( $T_{h0}$  &  $T_{hi}$ ) into their modified form ( $T_{h0}^*$  &  $T_{hi}^*$ ). Now the ratio ( $R_u$ ) for the  
 193 dissipation of excess pore pressure at a distance  $r$  from the centre of the drain at a given time  
 194  $t$ , can be calculated as:

$$R_u = \frac{u_r - \Delta\sigma_d'}{\Delta\sigma_t - \Delta\sigma_d'} \quad (13)$$

Similarly, the consolidation settlement ( $\delta_c$ ) can be calculated using the following formulation:

$$\delta_c = \frac{Hc_r}{(1 + e_0)} \log \left( \frac{\sigma_v'}{\sigma_{v0}'} \right) \quad \text{for } \sigma_v' \leq \sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}' \quad (14a)$$

$$\delta_c = \frac{H}{(1 + e_0)} \left[ c_r \log \left( \frac{\sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'}{\sigma_{v0}'} \right) + c_c \log \left( \frac{\sigma_{vc}'}{\sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}'} \right) \right] \quad \text{for } \sigma_v' > \sigma_{p(\dot{\varepsilon})}' \quad (14b)$$

195 where  $c_c$  = compression index,  $c_r$  = recompression index, and  $H$  = compressible soil  
 196 thickness.

197 The total settlement ( $\delta_t$ ) consists of consolidation settlement due to the dissipation of excess  
 198 pore pressure ( $\delta_c$ ) and delayed settlement ( $\delta_a$ ) which is calculated by using the variation of  
 199 secondary consolidation coefficient with the strain rate as shown in Fig. 5(b).

$$\delta_t = \delta_c + \delta_a \quad (15)$$

200 The degree of consolidation (DOC) based on the settlement  $DOC_{sett}$  and the excess pore  
 201 water pressure (EPWP), means that  $DOC_{EPWP}$  can be now determined by:

$$DOC_{sett} = \left( \frac{\delta_t}{\delta_{ult}} \right) \times 100 \quad (16)$$

202 and

$$DOC_{EPWP} = \left( \frac{u_0 - u_t}{u_0 - \Delta\sigma_d'} \right) \times 100 \quad (17)$$

203 where  $\delta_t$  and  $\delta_{ult}$  represent settlement at any time and ultimate settlement, whereas  
 204  $u_0$  and  $u_t$  represent the initial excess pore water pressure to be dissipated and excess pore  
 205 water pressure at a given time t, respectively.

206 The slope ( $\alpha$ ) of the  $\log \left( \frac{\sigma_p'}{\sigma_{p0}'} \right)$ - $\log (\dot{\epsilon})$  at a given strain rate is equal to the secondary  
 207 compression index ( $c_\alpha$ ) and the compression index ( $c_c$ ), and is given by the following  
 208 relationship:

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta \log \left( \frac{\sigma_p'}{\sigma_{p0}'} \right)}{\Delta \log (\dot{\epsilon})} = \frac{c_\alpha}{c_c} \quad (18)$$

209 Mesri and Castro (1987) proposed a constant ratio ( $c_\alpha/c_c$ ) for clay and stated that this value  
 210 was  $0.04 \pm 0.01$  for inorganic clays. However, according to Watabe and co-workers (Watabe  
 211 & Leroueil, 2015, and Watabe et al. 2008), the latter is not constant because the ratio of  $c_\alpha/c_c$   
 212 decreases as the strain rate decreases. Figure 5 (a) shows the strain rate dependency of pre-

consolidation pressure for Ballina clay with a constant slope (i.e. 0.047), whereas Figure 5 (b) shows that the ratio  $\alpha$  ( $c_u/c_c$ ) decreases as the strain rate decreases. The value proposed by Mesri and his co-workers is typically valid for a laboratory strain rate range of  $1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (see Fig. 5b). These results confirm the observations made by Leroueil (2006) for Canadian and Swedish clays as well as those by Watabe et al. (2012) for other clays. Based on variations of  $c_u/c_c$  ratio with the strain rate, a delayed settlement can be calculated.

### 3. PARAMETRIC STUDY ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE LENGTH OF DRAINAGE PATH

A parametric study has been carried out on specimens with three different equivalent diameters ( $D_e$ ), Sample A: (75mm laboratory Rowe cell), Sample B: 350mm (large-scale sample) and Sample C: 1356 mm (representing vertical drain installed at 1.2 m spacing in a square pattern), with the consolidation of the 75 mm diameter specimen noted as to determine a isotache. The drain and soil parameters are listed in Table 1. The strain rates for Samples A, B and C are approximately  $1.86 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $1.97 \times 10^{-8}$  and  $2.01 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. From Eq. (6), the pre-consolidation pressures are 44.05, 41.84 and 39.64 kPa for Samples A, B and C, respectively.

The strain calculated from Eq. 14(a) and Eq. 14(b) and the excess pore water pressures calculated from Eq. 11(a) and 11(b) are shown in Figures 6(a) and 6(b), respectively. Note that sample A with a shorter drainage path experiences more creep settlement at the end of consolidation than sample B and sample C (Fig. 6a). This can be attributed to the additional settlement ( $\delta_a$ ) calculation for sample A when the strain rate changes from  $1.86 \times 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$  to  $2.01 \times 10^{-9} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Similarly, as the pre-consolidation pressure changes from 44.05 (sample A) to 41.84 (sample B) and 39.64 kPa (sample C), the increases in effective stress due to delayed

consolidation ( $\Delta\sigma_d'$ ) are (0, 2.20 & 4.40 kPa), resulting in undissipated EPWP at the end of consolidation (Figure 6b). The corresponding degree of consolidation based on settlement and excess pore water pressure (EPWP) are then calculated using Eqs. (17) and (18) and are shown in Fig. 6(c). Note that the degree of consolidation obtained from settlement always overpredicts the degree of consolidation from EPWP; this is a typical occurrence most case histories worldwide (Chu and Yan, 2005).

#### **4. APPLICATION TO CASE HISTORIES**

The application of the proposed model is demonstrated, for selected sites at the Pacific Highway, Ballina, Australia, the Second Bangkok International Airport in Thailand, and Muar clay in Malaysia. The settlement and excess pore water pressure predicted at the centrelines of the embankments are compared to the field data.

##### **4.1 Pacific Highway, Ballina, Australia**

This site has a trial embankment built on uniform layers of soft to firm estuarine and alluvial clays above residual soil and bedrock. The soft clay beneath the embankment is 25 m thick, and the basic properties of the clay (water content, density, void ratio and the soil profile) are shown in Figure 7 (Indraratna et al., 2012). The groundwater table is located 0.2 m below the ground, and it consists of 10 m thick, soft silty clay with undrained shear strength of 5-15 kPa, followed by medium silty clay to a depth of 25 m with maximum undrained shear strength of 48 kPa.

According to Kelly and Wong (2009), a total surcharge thickness of up to 11.2m, depending on the thickness of the clay, has been selected to limit post-construction settlement to 50 mm assuming soil density of 20 kN/m<sup>3</sup>. To accelerate consolidation, circular vertical drains (34 mm diameter) were installed 1m apart in a square grid. In two sections of the embankment,

Section B was consolidated with vacuum and surcharge preloading, which further reduced the construction time. Section A was consolidated with conventional fill surcharge. At section A, the surface settlement obtained from settlement plate (SP1) and excess pore pressure obtained from the piezometer (P1) installed 3.3 m deep at the embankment centreline is used for the purpose of comparison. The embankment was raised to a height of 2 m within 150 days, and then to 4 m high after 250 days. Table 2 tabulates the drain properties with the diameter of the smeared zone and the ratio of pre-consolidation pressure ( $\frac{\sigma_{pL}'}{\sigma_{p0}'}$ ) with two other parameters ( $c_3$  &  $c_4$ ), as defined in Eq (6). The properties of Ballina clay with corresponding pre-consolidation pressure are presented in Table 3 (Indraratna et al. 2012)

The staged loading, field time-settlement, and EPWP dissipation curves with predictions using the current model, Yin and Graham (1989), as well as the finite element analysis using converted permeability by Indraratna and Redana (2000) are plotted in Fig 8. An average field strain rate of  $8.54 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$  is determined using Eq. (9), and it is significantly lower than the laboratory strain rate ( $1 \times 10^{-07} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). The settlement curve obtained from the current model always overpredicts two other curves as it accounts for creep using the variation of coefficient of secondary consolidation with a decreasing strain rate. However, the settlement predicted from all three models still provides an acceptable agreement with the field data. The recorded EPWP before 100 days is not available (Fig. 8c), but the EPWP dissipation curve based on the current isotache model is in closer agreement with the field data after incorporating delayed consolidation. The current model shows the retardation of excess pore water pressure dissipation and the value of EPWP remains at 32 kPa even after 445 days, whereas it decreases to 20 and 12 kPa based on the models proposed by Yin and Graham (1989) and Indraratna and Redana (2000).

## 4.2 Second Bangkok International Airport (SBIA), Thailand

The Second Bangkok international airport (AIT, 1995) was built on swampy land with marine deposits. Ground level was located almost 1m above the mean sea level. The site consisted of about 1.5 m thick weathered crust above 12m of soft clay followed by 8-10 m of stiff clay followed by a uniform layer of dense sand.

For the soil strata, Figure 9 shows the water content ( $w$ ), Atterberg limits ( $LL$ ,  $PL$ ,  $PI$ ), unit weight ( $\gamma$ ), and specific gravity ( $G_s$ ) with depth. The shear strength of clay at different depths and corresponding compressibility parameters are shown in Fig. 10. Note that the shear strength of the upper weathered crust was in the range of 30-40 kPa, but that of the underlying soft soil to a depth of 9 m was relatively low (5-10 kPa).

Prefabricated vertical drains were installed to a depth of 12m to increase the shear strength and reduce long term deformation. A cross section of the embankment and the layout of PVD for Section TS2 is shown in Fig. 11. PVDs (94 mm by 3 mm) with grooved channels (made up of Polyolefin) were installed with a 125 mm  $\times$  45 mm rectangular mandrel. The drains were set 1.2 m apart in a square pattern. The surcharge fill (4.2m high) was completed in four different stages within 275 days (see Figure 11a).

Table 4 lists the properties of the drains and strain dependency parameters. The field strain rate was estimated to be  $1.22 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . A pre-consolidation pressure ratio of 0.82 and the necessary parameters ( $c_3$  &  $c_4$ ) based on Fig. 3 are also shown in Table 4, and Table 5 shows the soil properties which correspond to different layers together with the associated pre-consolidation pressure.

The stage loading with time surface settlement and excess pore pressure at 2m deep curves are plotted together with the predictions in Fig. 12. Note here that, as with previous case histories, the settlement predictions using all three models are generally in a good agreement with the field data. The remaining excess PWP's to be dissipated at the end of 420 days are

4.40, 2.60 & 1.30 kPa for the current model, Yin and Graham (1989) and Indraratna and Redana (2000), respectively. The excess pore water pressure dissipation from the proposed model improves significantly and agrees well with field observation when strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure is taken into account along with isotache approach. Additional analyses (see Fig. 13) were conducted using subsurface settlements at 2, 8 and 12 m deep and it is found that the measured settlements at different depths can be accurately predicted using this model. The comparisons of EPWP at the similar depths were excluded due to the lack of field EPWP data.

### **4.3 Muar clay, Malaysia**

The Malaysian Highway Authority chose a variety of ground improvement techniques at Muar plain along the North South Expressway, to avoid excessive differential settlement (Ratnayake, 1991). The techniques applied in the field consisted of electro osmosis, chemical injection, micro piles, sand compaction piles, pre- stressed spun piles, well point preloading, vacuum preloading, and sand wick installation and preloading with drains. These methods were tested on Muar clay at 14 different sites, most of which consisted of marine and deltaic origin with thick, problematic soft soil. In this paper, the section with conventional surcharge preloading was used for the purpose of comparison.

This Muar clay consisted of 2 m of weathered crust above 16m thick soft to very soft silty clay followed by 1m thick organic clay; it also contained medium dense to dense clayey silty sand below the organic clay which extended up to 24 m from the ground surface. The weathered clay was slightly over-consolidated compared to normally consolidated soft clay. The water content and the Atterberg limits of soil, the over-consolidation ratio (OCR), compressibility parameters with layer classification are shown in Fig. 14. The unit weight of soft clay was almost uniform (15-16 kN/m<sup>3</sup>) except for the top weathered crust which is



17kN/m<sup>3</sup>. The undrained shear strength of the sample located at a depth of 3 m was 8 kPa, and it increased linearly with depth. Several in-situ and laboratory experiments were also carried out to obtain the soil parameters required for the analysis.

An embankment (4.74m high) was constructed above the soft soil in two stages. In the first stage the embankment was raised to a height of 2.57m, and then fill was added until it reached a height of 4.74 m. Band drains ( $r_w=0.035$  m) were then installed in a triangular pattern at 1.3 m spacing to a depth of 18 m. Settlement plates, piezometers and inclinometers were then installed to monitor the embankment. A cross-section of this embankment stabilised with PVDs showing the layout of the instrumentation is shown in Fig. 15.

The average field strain rate is calculated as  $6.78 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}^{-1}$  based on which a ratio of field pre-consolidation pressure / laboratory pre-consolidation pressure equals to 0.79. These parameters were used to calculate the current model. Table 6 provides the drain and strain rate dependency ratio to convert the laboratory pre-consolidation pressure into the field pre-consolidation pressure. Table 7 presents the parameters for the sub-soil layer with corresponding pre-consolidation pressures. Figure 16 shows the staged construction, time surface settlement curve, and EPWP dissipation at 3m deep pattern of Muar clay of the current isotache model in comparison with the earlier models by Yin and Graham (1989) and Indraratna and Redana (2000). The settlement predicted by the current model predicts the field data more accurately although the difference between the three models is not very significant, except at  $t > 300$  days. The dissipation of excess pore water pressure is very slow and the remaining EPWP after 300 days is approximately 65 kPa. When the proposed model is applied with a pre-consolidation pressure ratio (laboratory to field) of 0.79, the EPWP dissipation curve with the current model represents a much closer comparison with field data in relation to those by Yin and Graham (1989) and Indraratna and Redana (2000). The rate of pore pressure dissipation is fastest for Indraratna and Redana (2000) followed by Yin and

Graham (1989). The current model predicts the slowest dissipation rate with a value of 55 kPa of undissipated EPWP after 300 days, compared to the measured value of 65 kPa in the field.

## **5. CONCLUSIONS:**

Although consolidation tests on small specimens under laboratory conditions can be used to predict the field settlement well, it is often difficult to predict the dissipation of excess pore water pressure over the long term. In order to make these predictions more accurate, in this study, a radial consolidation model incorporating isotaches was proposed where the strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure was used to represent the in-situ strain rate. The strain rate dependency can be calculated with the aid of constant rate of strain (CRS) plus long term consolidation (LTC) laboratory testing. Once the pre-consolidation pressure corresponding to the strain rate in the field is known, the change in effective stress due to delayed consolidation ( $\Delta\sigma_d'$ ) can be quantified with the associated EPWP dissipation rate. Moreover, additional settlement can be also determined using the relevant coefficients of secondary compression along with the strain rate.

The method of determining settlement and EPWP dissipation has been validated with three different case histories (Ballina bypass, SBIA, Bangkok and Muar clay, Malaysia). Conversion ratios of 0.86, 0.82, and 0.79 were used to transform laboratory pre-consolidation pressure to the corresponding field consolidation pressure for Ballina, SBIA, and Muar clay, with the results from this model showing good agreement with the field measurements. The results from the current model were also compared with two previous models of Yin and Graham (1989) and Indraratna and Redana (2005), demonstrating that a definite improvement in prediction could be made using the current isotache model. This is possible as isotache model involves the analysis based on field strain rate (model delayed consolidation) and

converts the laboratory pre-consolidation pressure into field pre-consolidation pressure using the factor obtained from well controlled CRS and LTC test data.

The pore water pressure at the Ballina site on the Pacific highway began to dissipate only after 250 days, even though settlement began earlier. While this could be attributed to some instrumental error, but with the Muar clay, the EPWP dissipation trends are very slow (similar to being without drains), however, the isotaches model somehow improved the prediction of pore water pressure dissipation compared to existing models.

The predictions from the proposed analytical model agree well with the laboratory and field results when incorporating the relationship between the pre-consolidation pressure and the strain rate (isotaches). The proposed solution in this study offers greater accuracy for predicting the settlement and excess pore water pressure, and this is validated through applications in 3 independent case histories, i.e. Pacific Highway (Ballina, NSW, Australia), Second Bangkok International Airport (Thailand) and North-South Expressway on Muar Clay (Malaysia). In particular, by incorporating the correct strain rate, the retarded dissipation of pore water pressure at the end of consolidation can be accurately quantified using the proposed method.

The findings of this study confirm that the strain rate effect is a key factor influencing the long term deformation and excess pore pressure dissipation occurring in soft clay foundations. The proposed approach is most beneficial in geotechnical practice where the long-term creep behaviour needs to be accounted for in visco-plastic soft clays.

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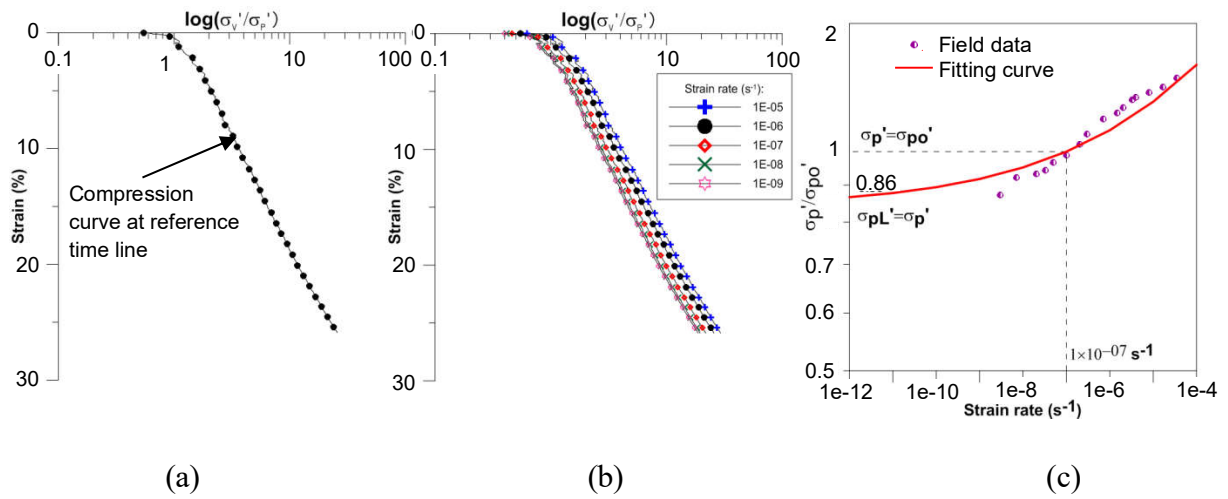


Figure 2: Illustration of the method used to determine the strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure with a constant rate of strain (CRS) and long term (LTC) consolidation test, (a) Reference time line, (b) Isotaches for Ballina clay, (c) Strain rate dependency of pre-consolidation pressure.

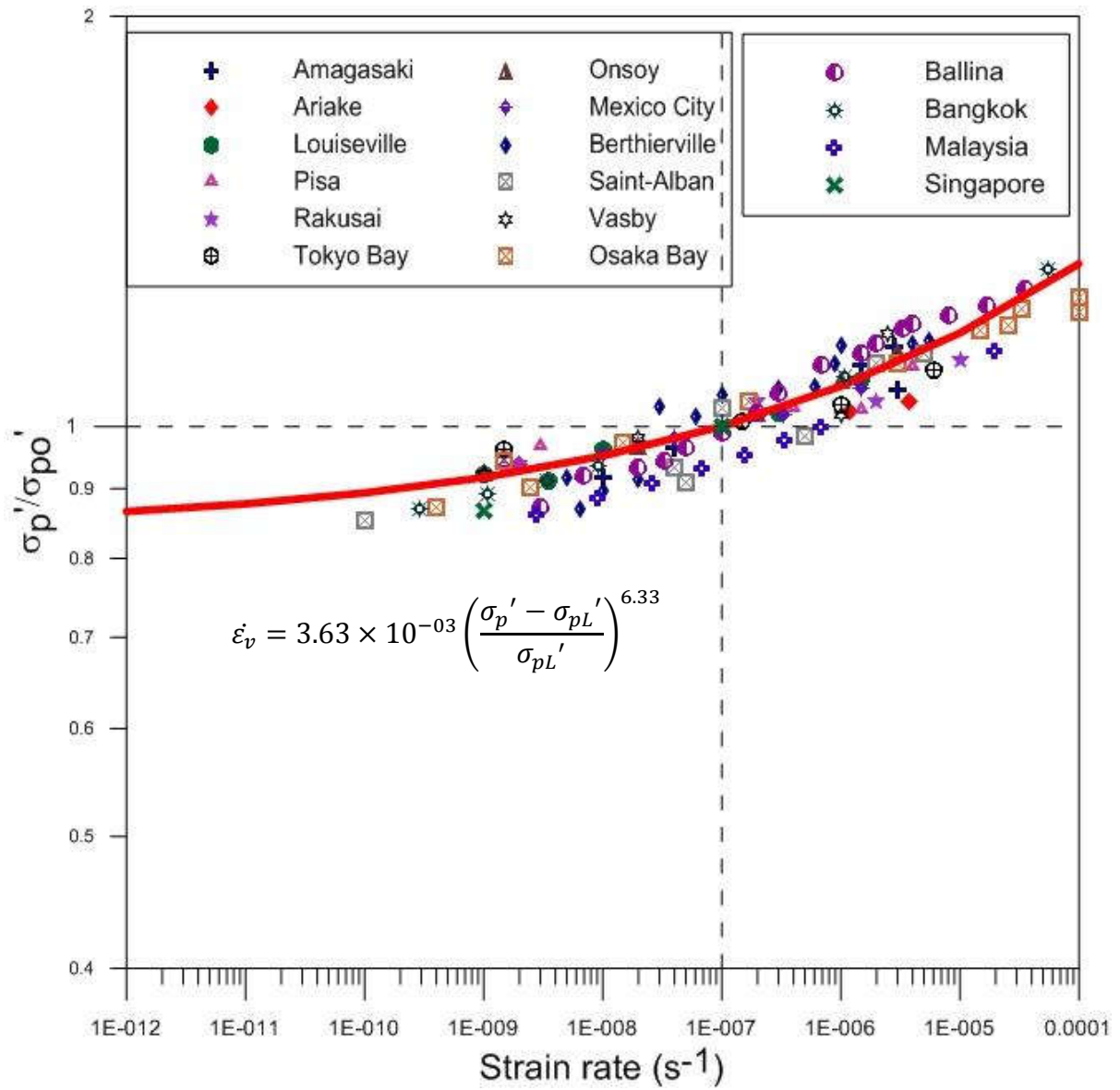


Figure 3: Log  $\left(\frac{\sigma'_p}{\sigma'_{p0}}\right)$ -log strain rate ( $\dot{\epsilon}_v$ ) curve for all the worldwide clays by Watabe and Leroueil (2015), including clays obtained from Ballina, Bangkok, Malaysia and Singapore.

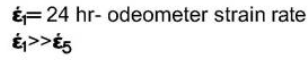
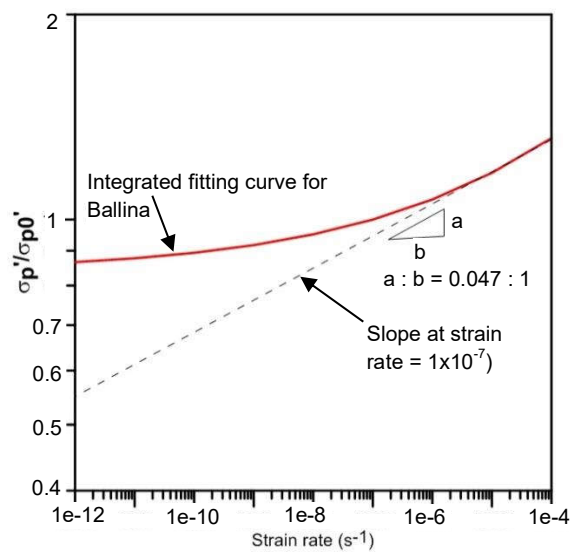
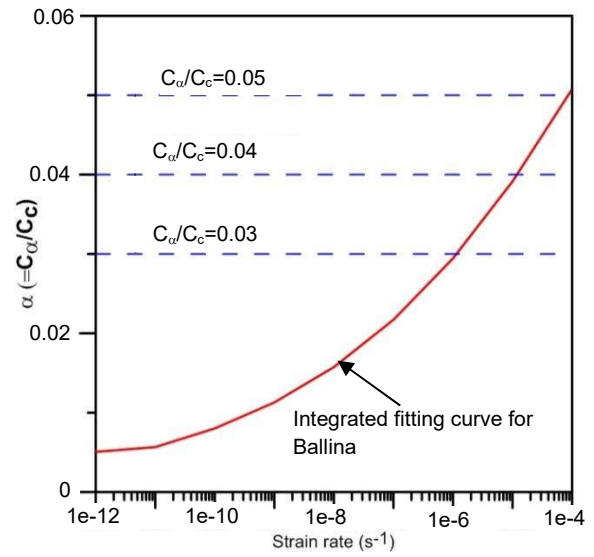


Figure 4: Conceptual model considering the isotaches approach



(a)



(b)

Figure 5: Comparison of integrated fitting curve with Mesri and Castro (1987),  $C_a/C_c$  concept, (a) strain rate dependency curve with slope, (b) relationship between strain rate and  $\alpha (=C_a/C_c)$

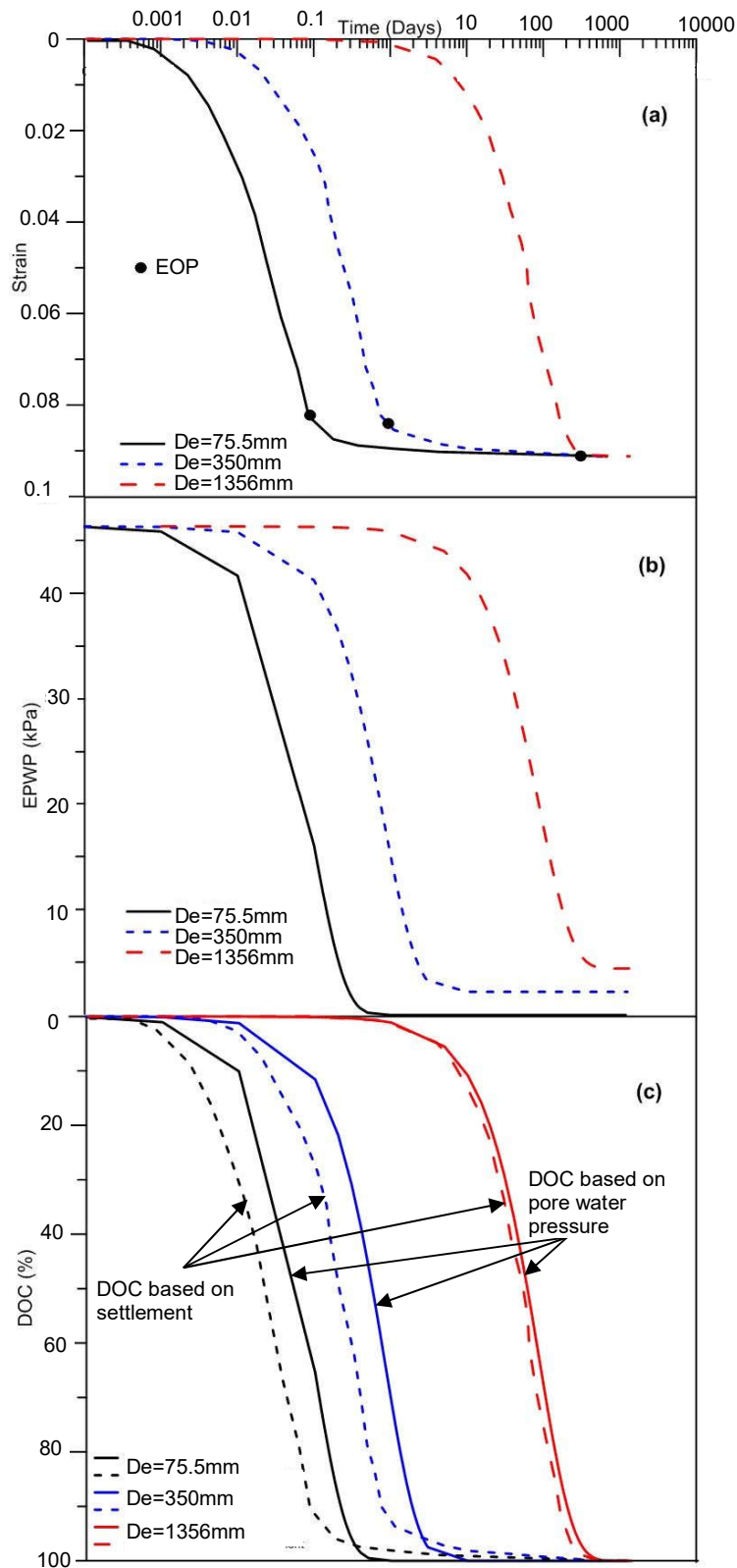


Figure 6 (a) Time-strain curve for specimens with different drainage path, (b) Excess pore water pressure (EPWP) dissipation of specimens with different drainage path & (C) DOC based on settlement and pore water pressure for three different specimens

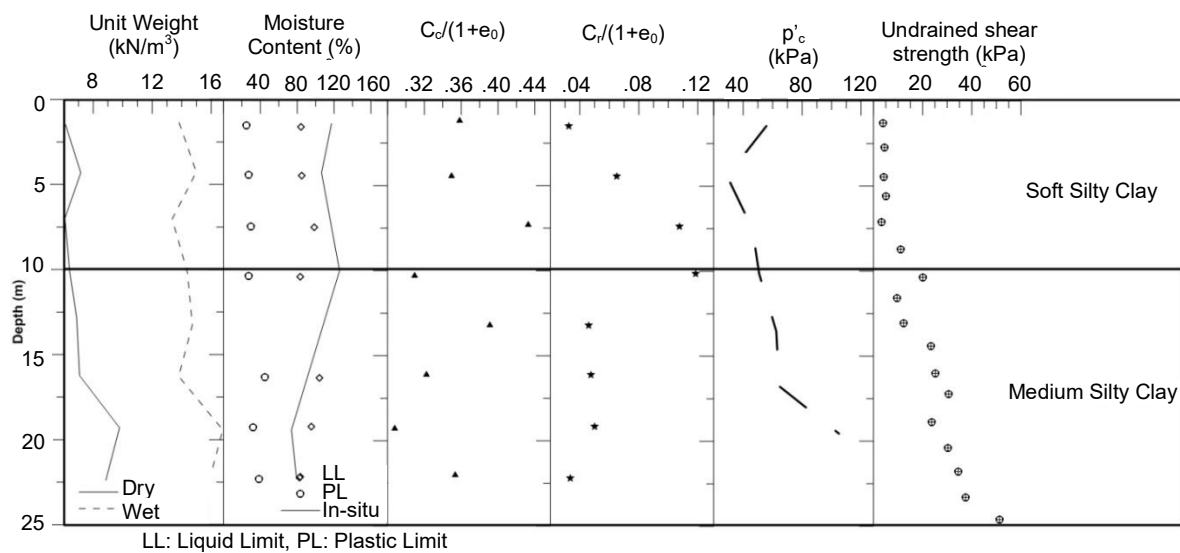


Figure 7: Basic soil properties of Ballina bypass

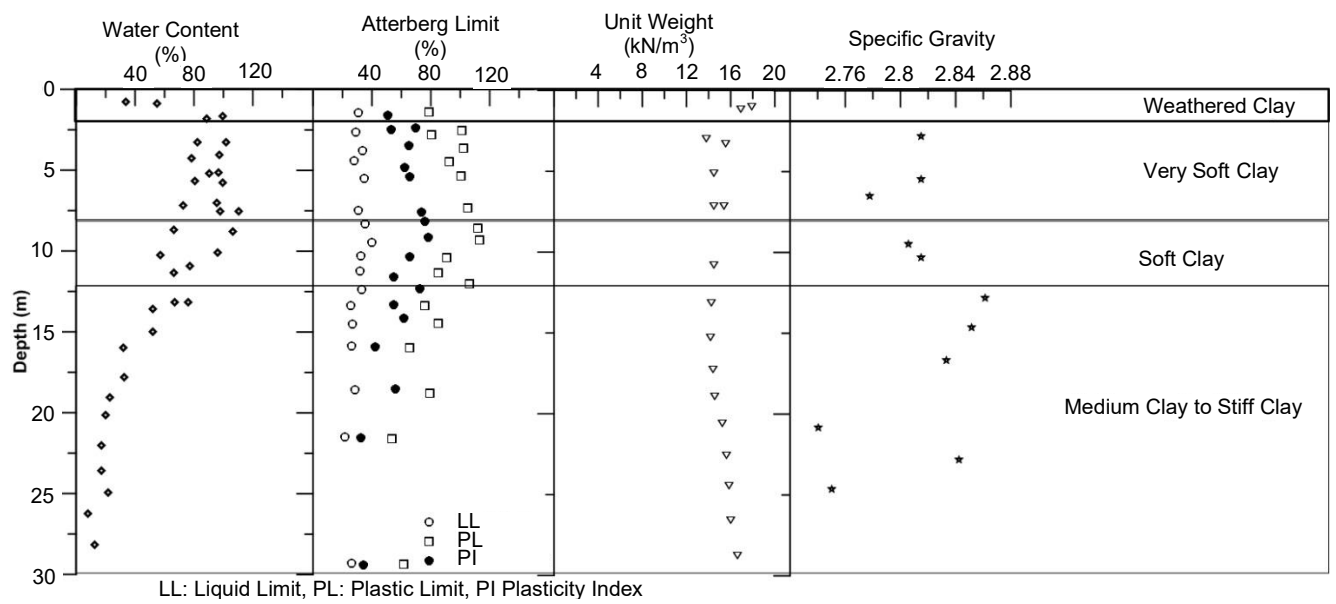


Figure 9: Soil characteristics of SBIA.

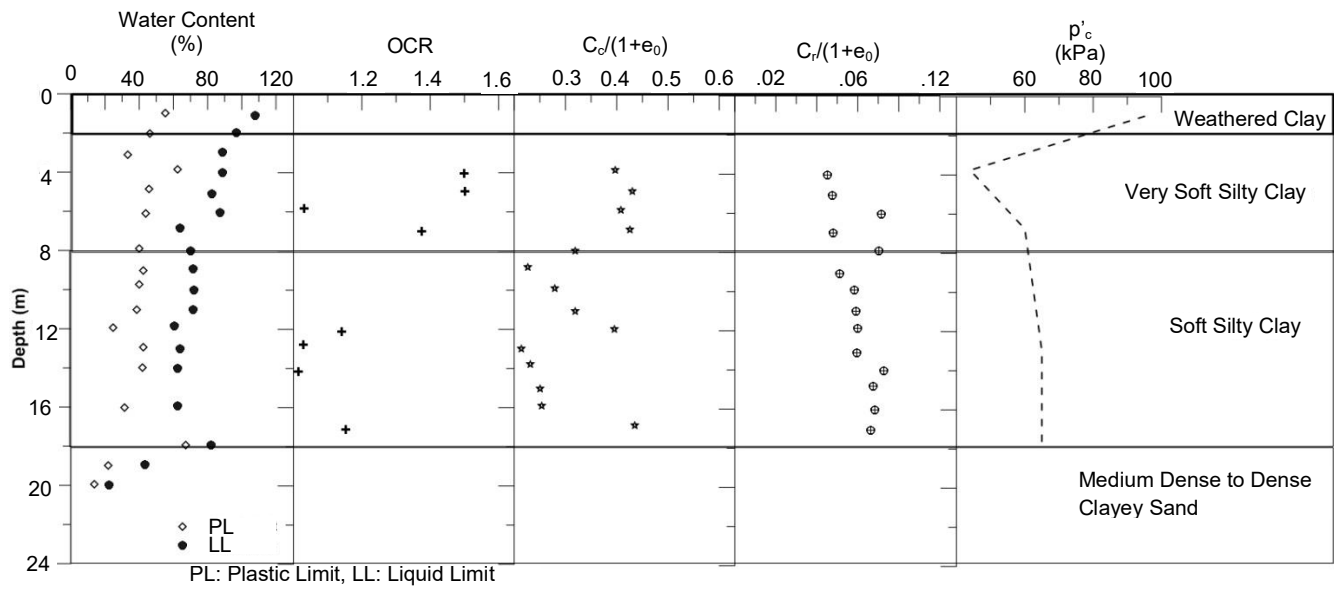


Figure 14: Sub-soil properties of Muar clay.